

Fully Homomorphic Encryption without Modulus Switching from Classical GapSVP

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Abstract

We present a new tensoring technique for LWE-based fully homomorphic encryption. While in all previous works, the ciphertext noise grows quadratically ($B \rightarrow B^2 \cdot \text{poly}(n)$) with every multiplication (before “refreshing”), our noise only grows linearly ($B \rightarrow B \cdot \text{poly}(n)$).

We use this technique to construct a *scale-invariant* fully homomorphic encryption scheme, whose properties only depend on the ratio between the modulus q and the initial noise level B , and not on their absolute values.

Our scheme has a number of advantages over previous candidates: It uses the same modulus throughout the evaluation process (no need for “modulus switching”), and this modulus can take arbitrary form, including a power of 2 which carries obvious advantages for implementation. In addition, security can be *classically* reduced to the worst-case hardness of the GapSVP problem (with quasi-polynomial approximation factor), whereas previous constructions could only exhibit a quantum reduction to GapSVP.

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1 Introduction

Fully homomorphic encryption has been the focus of extensive study since the first candidate scheme was introduced by Gentry [Gen09b]. In a nutshell, fully homomorphic encryption allows to perform arbitrary computation on encrypted data. It can thus be used, for example, to outsource a computation to a remote server without compromising data privacy.

The first generation of fully homomorphic schemes [Gen09b, DGHV10, SV10, BV11a, CMNT11, GH11] that started with Gentry’s seminal work, followed a similar and fairly complicated methodology, often relying on relatively strong computational assumptions. A second generation of schemes started with the work of Brakerski and Vaikuntanathan [BV11b], who established full homomorphism in a simpler way, based on the *learning with errors* (LWE) assumption. Using known reductions [Reg05, Pei09], the security of their construction reduced to the (often quantum) hardness of approximating some short vector problems in worst-case lattices. Their scheme was then improved by Brakerski, Gentry and Vaikuntanathan [BGV12], as we describe below.

In LWE-based schemes such as [BV11b, BGV12], ciphertexts are represented as vectors in \mathbb{Z}_q , for some modulus q . The decryption process is essentially computing an inner product of the ciphertext and the secret key vector, which produces a noisy version of the message (the noise is added at encryption for security purposes). The noise increases with every homomorphic operation, and correct decryption is guaranteed if the final noise magnitude is below $q/4$. Homomorphic addition roughly doubles the noise, while homomorphic multiplication roughly squares it.

In the [BV11b] scheme, after L consecutive multiplications, the noise grows from an initial level of B , to B^{2^L} . Hence, to enable decryption, a very large modulus $q \approx B^{2^L}$ was required. This effected both efficiency and security (the security of the scheme depends inversely on the ratio q/B , so bigger q for the same B means less security).

The above was improved by [BGV12], who suggested to *scale down* the ciphertext vector after every multiplication (they call this “modulus switching”, see below).¹ That is, to go from a vector \mathbf{c} over \mathbb{Z}_q , into the vector \mathbf{c}/w over $\mathbb{Z}_{q/w}$ (for some scaling factor w). Scaling “switches” the modulus q to a smaller q/w , but also reduces the noise by the same factor (from B to B/w). To see why this change of scale is effective, consider scaling by a factor B after every multiplication (as indeed suggested by [BGV12]): After the first multiplication, the noise goes up to B^2 , but scaling brings it back down to B , at the cost of reducing the modulus to q/B . With more multiplications, the noise level always goes back to B , but the modulus keeps reducing. After L multiplications and scalings, the noise level is still B , but the modulus is down to q/B^L . Therefore it is sufficient to use $q \approx B^{L+1}$, which is significantly lower than before. However, this process results in a complicated homomorphic evaluation process that “climbs down the ladder of moduli”.

The success of the scaling methodology teaches us that *perspective* matters: scaling does not change the ratio between the modulus and noise, but it still manages the noise better by changing the perspective in which we view the ciphertext. In this work, we suggest to work in an *invariant perspective* where only the ratio q/B matters (and not the absolute values of q, B as in previous works). We derive a scheme that is superior to the previous best known in simplicity, noise management and security. Details follow.

¹A different scaling technique was already suggested in [BV11b] as a way to simplify decryption and improve efficiency, but not to manage noise.

1.1 Our Results

As explained above, we present a *scale invariant* scheme, by finding an invariant perspective. The idea is very natural based on the outlined motivation: if we scale down the ciphertext by a factor of q , we get a fractional ciphertext modulo 1, with noise magnitude B/q . In this perspective, all choices of q, B with the same B/q ratio will look the same. It turns out that in this perspective, homomorphic multiplication does not square the noise, but rather multiplies it by a polynomial factor $p(n)$ that depends only on the security parameter.² After L multiplications, the noise will grow from B/q to $(B/q) \cdot p(n)^L$, which means that we only need to use $q \approx B \cdot p(n)^L$. For technical reasons, we don't implement the scheme over fractions, but rather mimic the invariant perspective over \mathbb{Z}_q (see Section 1.2 for more details). The properties of our scheme are summarized in the following theorem:

Theorem. *There exists a homomorphic encryption scheme for depth L circuits, based on the DLWE $_{n,q,\chi}$ assumption (n -dimensional decision-LWE modulo q , with noise χ), so long as*

$$q/B \geq (O(n \log q))^{L+O(1)},$$

where B is a bound on the values of χ .

The resulting scheme has a number of interesting properties:

1. **Scale invariance.** Homomorphic properties only depend on q/B (as explained above).
2. **No modulus switching.** We work with a single modulus q . We don't need to switch moduli as in [BV11b, BGV12]. This leads to a simpler description of the scheme (and hopefully better implementations).
3. **No restrictions on the modulus.** Our modulus q can take any form (so long as it satisfies the size requirement). In particular, it can be a power of 2, making the implementation of arithmetics more efficient. whereas all previous schemes required the modulus to be odd.³ This is achieved by putting the message bit in the most significant bit of the ciphertext, rather than least significant as in previous schemes (this can be interpreted as making the *message* scale invariant).
4. **No restrictions on the secret key distribution.** While [BGV12] requires that the secret key is drawn from the noise distribution (LWE in hermite normal form), our scheme works under any secret key distribution for which the LWE assumption holds.
5. **Classical Reduction to GapSVP.** One of the appeals of LWE-based cryptography is the known quantum (Regev [Reg05]) and classical (Peikert [Pei09]) reductions to the worst case hardness of lattice problems. Specifically to GapSVP $_{\gamma}$, which is the problem of deciding, given an n dimensional lattice and a number d , between the following two cases: either the lattice has a vector shorter than d , or it doesn't have any vector shorter than $\gamma(n) \cdot d$. The value of γ depends on the ratio q/B (essentially $\gamma = (q/B) \cdot \tilde{O}(n^{1.5})$), and the smaller γ is, the better the reduction (GapSVP $_{2^{\Omega(n)}}$ is an easy problem).

²More accurately, a polynomial $p(n, \log q)$, but w.l.o.g $q \leq 2^n$.

³[GHS11a] gain on efficiency by using moduli that are "almost" a power of 2, but we can use actual powers.

Peikert’s classical reduction requires that $q \approx 2^{n/2}$, which makes his reduction unusable for previous homomorphic schemes, since γ becomes exponential. For example, in [BGV12], $q/B = q/q^{1/(L+1)} = q^{1-1/(L+1)}$ which translates to $\gamma \approx 2^{n/2}$ for the required q .⁴

In our scheme, this problem does not arise. We can instantiate our scheme with any q while hardly effecting the ratio q/B . We can therefore set $q \approx 2^{n/2}$ and get a classical reduction to $\text{GapSVP}_{n^{O(\log n)}}$, which is currently solvable only in $2^{\tilde{\Omega}(n)}$ time.

Using our scheme as a building block we achieve:

1. **Fully homomorphic encryption using bootstrapping.** Using Gentry’s bootstrapping theorem, we present a leveled fully homomorphic scheme based on the classical worst case $\text{GapSVP}_{n^{O(\log n)}}$ problem. As usual, an additional circular security assumption is required to get a non-leveled scheme.
2. **Leveled fully homomorphic encryption without bootstrapping.** Very similarly to [BGV12], our scheme can be used to achieve leveled homomorphism without bootstrapping.
3. **Increased efficiency using ring-LWE (RLWE).** RLWE (defined in [LPR10]) is a version of LWE that works over polynomial rings rather than the integers. Its hardness is quantumly related to short vector problems in *ideal* lattices.

RLWE is a stronger assumption than LWE, but it can dramatically improve the efficiency of schemes [BV11a, BGV12, GHS11b]. Our methods are readily portable to the RLWE world.

1.2 Our Techniques

Our starting point is Regev’s public key encryption scheme. There, the encryption of a message $m \in \{0, 1\}$ is a vector \mathbf{c} over \mathbb{Z}_q such that $[\langle \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{s} \rangle]_q = \lfloor \frac{q}{2} \rfloor \cdot m + e$, and $|e| \leq E$ for some bound $E < q/4$ (we use $[\cdot]_q$ to indicate taking modulo q).⁵

In this work, we take the invariant perspective on the scheme, and consider the fractional ciphertext $\tilde{\mathbf{c}} = \mathbf{c}/q$. It holds that $[\langle \tilde{\mathbf{c}}, \mathbf{s} \rangle]_1 = \frac{1}{2} \cdot m + \tilde{e}$, where $|\tilde{e}| \leq E/q = \epsilon$. Note that the secret key does not change and is still over \mathbb{Z}_q .

Additive homomorphism is immediate: if \mathbf{c}_1 encrypts m_1 and \mathbf{c}_2 encrypts m_2 , then $\mathbf{c}_{\text{add}} = \mathbf{c}_1 + \mathbf{c}_2$ encrypts $[m_1 + m_2]_2$. The noise grows from ϵ to $\approx 2\epsilon$. Multiplicative homomorphism is achieved by *tensoring* the input ciphertexts:

$$\mathbf{c}_{\text{mult}} = 2 \cdot \mathbf{c}_1 \otimes \mathbf{c}_2 .$$

The tensored ciphertext can be decrypted using a tensored secret key because

$$\left\langle \underbrace{2 \cdot \mathbf{c}_1 \otimes \mathbf{c}_2}_{\mathbf{c}_{\text{mult}}}, \mathbf{s} \otimes \mathbf{s} \right\rangle = 2 \cdot \langle \mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{s} \rangle \cdot \langle \mathbf{c}_2, \mathbf{s} \rangle .$$

A “key switching” mechanism developed in [BV11b] and generalized in [BGV12] allows to switch back from a tensored secret key into a “normal” one without much additional noise. The details of this mechanism are immaterial for this discussion. We focus on the noise growth in the tensored ciphertext.

⁴Peikert suggests to classically reduce small- q LWE into a new lattice problem that he defines.

⁵Previous homomorphic constructions used a different variant of Regev’s scheme, where $[\langle \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{s} \rangle]_q = m + 2e$.

We want to show that $[2 \cdot \langle \mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{s} \rangle \cdot \langle \mathbf{c}_2, \mathbf{s} \rangle]_1 \approx \frac{1}{2}m_1m_2 + e'$, for a small e' . To do this, we let $I_1, I_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ be integers such that $\langle \mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{s} \rangle = \frac{1}{2}m_1 + e_1 + I_1$ (over the rationals), and likewise for \mathbf{c}_2 . It can be verified that $|I_1|, |I_2|$ are bounded by $\approx \|\mathbf{s}\|_1$. We therefore get:

$$\begin{aligned} 2 \cdot \langle \mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{s} \rangle \cdot \langle \mathbf{c}_2, \mathbf{s} \rangle &= 2 \cdot (\tfrac{1}{2}m_1 + e_1 + I_1) \cdot (\tfrac{1}{2}m_2 + e_2 + I_2) \\ &= \tfrac{1}{2}m_1m_2 + 2(e_1I_2 + e_2I_1) + e_1m_2 + e_2m_1 + 2e_1e_2 + \underbrace{(m_1I_2 + m_2I_1 + 2I_1I_2)}_{\in \mathbb{Z}}. \end{aligned}$$

Interestingly, the cross-term e_1e_2 that was responsible for the squaring of the noise in previous schemes, is now practically insignificant since $\epsilon^2 \ll \epsilon$. The significant noise term in the above expression is $2(e_1I_2 + e_2I_1)$, which is bounded by $O(\|\mathbf{s}\|_1) \cdot \epsilon$. All that is left to show now is that $\|\mathbf{s}\|_1$ is independent of B, q and only depends on n (recall that we allow dependence on $\log q \leq n$).

On the face of it, $\|\mathbf{s}\|_1 \approx n \cdot q$, since the elements of \mathbf{s} are sampled uniformly from \mathbb{Z}_q . In order to reduce the norm, we use *binary decomposition* (which was used in [BV11b, BGV12] for different purposes). Let $\mathbf{s}^{(j)}$ denote the binary vector that contains the j^{th} bit from each element of \mathbf{s} . Namely $\mathbf{s} = \sum_j 2^j \mathbf{s}^{(j)}$. Then

$$\langle \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{s} \rangle = \sum_j 2^j \langle \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{s}^{(j)} \rangle = \langle (\mathbf{c}, 2\mathbf{c}, \dots), (\mathbf{s}^{(0)}, \mathbf{s}^{(1)}, \dots) \rangle.$$

This means that we can convert a ciphertext \mathbf{c} that corresponds to a secret key \mathbf{s} in \mathbb{Z}_q , into a modified ciphertext $(\mathbf{c}, 2\mathbf{c}, \dots)$ that corresponds to a *binary* secret key $(\mathbf{s}^{(0)}, \mathbf{s}^{(1)}, \dots)$. The norm of the binary key is at most its dimension, which is polynomial in n as required.

We point out that an alternative solution to the norm problem follows by using the dual-Regev scheme of [GPV08] as the basic building block. There, the secret key is natively binary and of low norm. (In addition, as noticed in previous works, working with dual-Regev naturally implies a weak form of homomorphic identity based encryption.) However, the ciphertexts and some other parameters will need to grow.

Finally, working with fractional ciphertexts brings about issues of precision in representation and other problems. We thus implement our scheme over \mathbb{Z}_q and mimic the invariant perspective by appropriately scaling and rounding the tensor product. Our tensored ciphertext will thus be defined as $\left[\left[\frac{2}{q} \cdot \mathbf{c}_1 \otimes \mathbf{c}_2 \right] \right]_q$, where $\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2$ are integer vectors modulo q .

1.3 Paper Organization

Section 2 defines notational conventions, introduces the LWE assumption and defines homomorphic encryption and related terms. Section 3 introduces our building blocks: Regev's encryption scheme, binary decomposition of vectors and the key switching mechanism. Finally, in Section 4 we present and analyze our scheme, and discuss several possible optimizations.

2 Preliminaries

Arithmetics is always performed over the rationals, even when the operands are members of sub-rings (such as \mathbb{Z}_q , see below). For an integer q , we denote the set $(-q/2, q/2] \cap \mathbb{Z}$ by \mathbb{Z}_q (this can be thought of as representing the ring $\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$). For any integer x , we let $y = [x]_q$ denote the value $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ for which $y = x \pmod{q}$.

We use $\lfloor x \rfloor$ to indicate rounding x to the nearest integer, and $\lfloor x \rfloor, \lceil x \rceil$ (for $x \geq 0$) to indicate rounding down or up. All logarithms are to base 2.

Probability. We use $x \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{D}$ to denote that x is sampled from a distribution \mathcal{D} . Similarly, $x \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} S$ denotes that x is uniform over a set S . We define B -bounded distributions as ones whose magnitudes never exceed B :⁶

Definition 2.1. A distribution χ over the integers is B -bounded (denoted $|\chi| \leq B$) if it is only supported on $[-B, B]$.

A function is negligible if it vanishes faster than any inverse polynomial. Two distributions are statistically indistinguishable if the total variation distance between them is negligible, and computationally indistinguishable if no polynomial test distinguishes them with non-negligible advantage.

Vectors, Matrices and Tensors. We denote scalars in plain (e.g. x) and vectors in bold lowercase (e.g. \mathbf{v}), and matrices in bold uppercase (e.g. \mathbf{A}). For the sake of brevity, we use (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) to refer to the vector $[\mathbf{x}^T \parallel \mathbf{y}^T]^T$.

The ℓ_i norm of a vector is denoted by $\|\mathbf{v}\|_i$. Inner product is denoted by $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$, recall that $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = \mathbf{v}^T \cdot \mathbf{u}$. Let \mathbf{v} be an n dimensional vector. For all $i = 1, \dots, n$, the i^{th} element in \mathbf{v} is denoted $\mathbf{v}[i]$. When applied to vectors, operators such as $[\cdot]_q, \lfloor \cdot \rfloor$ are applied element-wise.

The tensor product of two vectors \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} of dimension n , denoted $\mathbf{v} \otimes \mathbf{w}$, is the n^2 dimensional vector containing all elements of the form $\mathbf{v}[i]\mathbf{w}[j]$. Note that

$$\langle \mathbf{v} \otimes \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \otimes \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{x} \rangle \cdot \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{y} \rangle .$$

2.1 Learning With Errors (LWE)

The LWE problem was introduced by Regev [Reg05] as a generalization of “learning parity with noise”. For positive integers n and $q \geq 2$, a vector $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$, and a probability distribution χ on \mathbb{Z} , let $A_{\mathbf{s}, \chi}$ be the distribution obtained by choosing a vector $\mathbf{a} \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ uniformly at random and a noise term $e \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \chi$, and outputting $(\mathbf{a}, [\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{s} \rangle + e]_q) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n \times \mathbb{Z}_q$. A formal definition follows.

Definition 2.2 (LWE). For an integer $q = q(n)$ and an error distribution $\chi = \chi(n)$ over \mathbb{Z} , the learning with errors problem $\text{LWE}_{n,m,q,\chi}$ is defined as follows: Given m independent samples from $A_{\mathbf{s}, \chi}$ (for some $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$), output \mathbf{s} with noticeable probability.

The (average-case) decision variant of the LWE problem, denoted $\text{DLWE}_{n,m,q,\chi}$, is to distinguish (with non-negligible advantage) m samples chosen according to $A_{\mathbf{s}, \chi}$ (for uniformly random $\mathbf{s} \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_q^n$), from m samples chosen according to the uniform distribution over $\mathbb{Z}_q^n \times \mathbb{Z}_q$. We denote by $\text{DLWE}_{n,q,\chi}$ the variant where the adversary gets oracle access to $A_{\mathbf{s}, \chi}$, and is not a-priori bounded in the number of samples.

For cryptographic applications we are primarily interested in the average case decision problem DLWE , where $\mathbf{s} \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_q^n$. There are known quantum (Regev [Reg05]) and classical (Peikert [Pei09]) reductions between $\text{DLWE}_{n,m,q,\chi}$ and approximating short vector problems in lattices. Specifically,

⁶This definition is simpler and slightly different from previous works.

these reductions take χ to be (discretized versions of) the Gaussian distribution, which is statistically indistinguishable from B -bounded, for an appropriate B . Since the exact distribution χ does not matter for our results, we state a corollary of the results of [Reg05, Pei09] (in conjunction with the search to decision reduction of Micciancio and Peikert [MP11]) in terms of the bound B . We remark that these results extend to additional forms of q (see [MP11]).

Corollary 2.1 ([Reg05, Pei09, MP11]). *Let $q = q(n) \in \mathbb{N}$ be either a prime power $q = p^r$, or a product of co-prime numbers $q = \prod q_i$ such that for all i , $q_i = \text{poly}(n)$, and let $B \geq n$. Then there exists an efficiently samplable B -bounded distribution χ such that if there is an efficient algorithm that solves the (average-case) DLWE $_{n,q,\chi}$ problem. Then:*

- *There is an efficient quantum algorithm that solves GapSVP $_{\tilde{O}(n\sqrt{n}\cdot q/B)}$ (and SIVP $_{\tilde{O}(n\sqrt{n}\cdot q/B)}$) on any n -dimensional lattice.*
- *If in addition $q \geq \tilde{O}(2^{n/2})$, then there is an efficient classical algorithm for GapSVP $_{\tilde{O}(n\sqrt{n}\cdot q/B)}$ on any n -dimensional lattice.*

Recall that GapSVP $_{\gamma}$ is the (promise) problem of distinguishing, given a basis for a lattice and a parameter d , between the case where the lattice has a vector shorter than d , and the case where the lattice doesn't have any vector shorter than $\gamma \cdot d$. SIVP is the search problem of finding a set of “short” vectors. We refer the reader to [Reg05, Pei09] for more information.

The best known algorithms for GapSVP $_{\gamma}$ (based on the BKZ algorithm [SE91]) require at least $2^{\tilde{\Omega}(n/\log \gamma)}$ time. The scheme we present in this work reduces to $\gamma = n^{O(\log n)}$, for which the best known algorithms run in time $2^{\tilde{\Omega}(n)}$.

As a final remark, we mention that Peikert also shows a classical reduction in the case of small values of q , but this reduction is to a newly defined “ ζ -to- γ decisional shortest vector problem”, which is not as extensively studied as GapSVP.

2.2 Homomorphic Encryption and Bootstrapping

We now define homomorphic encryption and introduce Gentry's bootstrapping theorem. Our definitions are mostly taken from [BV11b, BGV12].

A homomorphic (public-key) encryption scheme HE = (HE.Keygen, HE.Enc, HE.Dec, HE.Eval) is a quadruple of PPT algorithms as follows (n is the security parameter):

- **Key generation** $(pk, evk, sk) \leftarrow \text{HE.Keygen}(1^n)$: Outputs a public encryption key pk , a public evaluation key evk and a secret decryption key sk .⁷
- **Encryption** $c \leftarrow \text{HE.Enc}_{pk}(m)$: Using the public key pk , encrypts a single bit message $m \in \{0, 1\}$ into a ciphertext c .
- **Decryption** $m \leftarrow \text{HE.Dec}_{sk}(c)$: Using the secret key sk , decrypts a ciphertext c to recover the message $m \in \{0, 1\}$.
- **Homomorphic evaluation** $c_f \leftarrow \text{HE.Eval}_{evk}(f, c_1, \dots, c_\ell)$: Using the evaluation key evk , applies a function $f : \{0, 1\}^\ell \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ to c_1, \dots, c_ℓ , and outputs a ciphertext c_f .

⁷We adopt the terminology of [BV11b] that treats the evaluation key as a separate entity from the public key.

As in previous works, we represent f as an arithmetic circuit over $\text{GF}(2)$ with addition and multiplication gates. Thus it is customary to “break” HE.Eval into homomorphic addition $c_{\text{add}} \leftarrow \text{HE.Add}_{\text{evk}}(c_1, c_2)$ and homomorphic multiplication $c_{\text{mult}} \leftarrow \text{HE.Mult}_{\text{evk}}(c_1, c_2)$.

A homomorphic encryption scheme is said to be secure if it is semantically secure (note that the adversary is given both pk and evk).

Homomorphism w.r.t depth-bounded circuits and full homomorphism are defined next:

Definition 2.3 (*L-homomorphism*). *A scheme HE is L-homomorphic, for $L = L(n)$, if for any depth L arithmetic circuit f (over GF(2)) and any set of inputs m_1, \dots, m_ℓ , it holds that*

$$\Pr [\text{HE.Dec}_{sk}(\text{HE.Eval}_{evk}(f, c_1, \dots, c_\ell)) \neq f(m_1, \dots, m_\ell)] = \text{negl}(n) ,$$

where $(pk, evk, sk) \leftarrow \text{HE.Keygen}(1^n)$ and $c_i \leftarrow \text{HE.Enc}_{pk}(m_i)$.

Definition 2.4 (*compactness and full homomorphism*). *A homomorphic scheme is compact if its decryption circuit is independent of the evaluated function. A compact scheme is fully homomorphic if it is L-homomorphic for any polynomial L. The scheme is leveled fully homomorphic if it takes 1^L as additional input in key generation.*

Gentry’s bootstrapping theorem shows how to go from L -homomorphism to full homomorphism:

Theorem 2.2 (*bootstrapping [Gen09b, Gen09a]*). *If there exists an L-homomorphic scheme whose decryption circuit depth is less than L, then there exists a leveled fully homomorphic encryption scheme.*

Furthermore, if the aforementioned L-homomorphic scheme is also weak circular secure (remains secure even against an adversary who gets encryptions of the bits of the secret key), then there exists a fully homomorphic encryption scheme.

3 Building Blocks

In this section, we present building blocks from previous works that are used in our construction. Specifically, like all LWE-based fully homomorphic schemes, we rely on Regev’s [Reg05] basic public-key encryption scheme (Section 3.1). We also use the key-switching methodology of [BV11b, BGV12] (Section 3.2).

3.1 Regev’s Encryption Scheme

Let $q = q(n)$ be an integer function and let $\chi = \chi(n)$ be a distribution ensemble over \mathbb{Z} . The scheme Regev is defined as follows:

- $\text{Regev.SecretKeygen}(1^n)$: Sample $\mathbf{s} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q^n$. Output $sk = \mathbf{s}$.
- $\text{Regev.PublicKeygen}(\mathbf{s})$: Let $N \doteq (n + 1) \cdot (\log q + O(1))$. Sample $\mathbf{A} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q^{N \times n}$ and $\mathbf{e} \xleftarrow{\$} \chi^N$. Compute $\mathbf{b} := [\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{s} + \mathbf{e}]_q$, and define

$$\mathbf{P} := [\mathbf{b} \parallel -\mathbf{A}] \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{N \times (n+1)} .$$

Output $pk = \mathbf{P}$.

- $\text{Regev.Enc}_{pk}(m)$: To encrypt a message $m \in \{0, 1\}$ using $pk = \mathbf{P}$, sample $\mathbf{r} \in \{0, 1\}^N$ and output ciphertext

$$\mathbf{c} := \left[\mathbf{P}^T \cdot \mathbf{r} + \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot \mathbf{m} \right]_q \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n+1},$$

where $\mathbf{m} \doteq (m, 0, \dots, 0) \in \{0, 1\}^{n+1}$.

- $\text{Regev.Dec}_{sk}(\mathbf{c})$: To decrypt $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n+1}$ using secret key $sk = \mathbf{s}$, compute

$$m := \left[\left[2 \cdot \frac{\langle \mathbf{c}, (1, \mathbf{s}) \rangle}{q} \right] \right]_2.$$

Correctness. We analyze the noise magnitude at encryption and decryption. We start with a lemma regarding the noise magnitude of properly encrypted ciphertexts:

Lemma 3.1 (encryption noise). *Let $q, n, N, |\chi| \leq B$ be parameters for Regev . Let $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ be any vector and $m \in \{0, 1\}$ be some bit. Set $\mathbf{P} \leftarrow \text{Regev.PublicKeygen}(\mathbf{s})$ and $\mathbf{c} \leftarrow \text{Regev.Enc}_{\mathbf{P}}(m)$. Then for some e with $|e| \leq N \cdot B$ it holds that*

$$\langle \mathbf{c}, (1, \mathbf{s}) \rangle = \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot m + e \pmod{q}.$$

Proof. By definition

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \mathbf{c}, (1, \mathbf{s}) \rangle &= \left\langle \mathbf{P}^T \cdot \mathbf{r} + \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot \mathbf{m}, (1, \mathbf{s}) \right\rangle \pmod{q} \\ &= \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot m + \mathbf{r}^T \mathbf{P} \cdot (1, \mathbf{s}) \pmod{q} \\ &= \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot m + \mathbf{r}^T \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{r}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{s} \pmod{q} \\ &= \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot m + \langle \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{e} \rangle \pmod{q}. \end{aligned}$$

The lemma follows since $|\langle \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{e} \rangle| \leq N \cdot B$. □

We proceed to state the correctness of decryption for low-noise ciphertexts. The proof easily follows by assignment into the definition of Regev.Dec and is omitted.

Lemma 3.2 (decryption noise). *Let $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ be some vector, and let $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n+1}$ be such that*

$$\langle \mathbf{c}, (1, \mathbf{s}) \rangle = \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot m + e \pmod{q},$$

with $m \in \{0, 1\}$ and $|e| < q/4$. Then

$$\text{Regev.Dec}_{\mathbf{s}}(\mathbf{c}) = m.$$

Security. The following lemma states the security of Regev . The proof is standard (see e.g. [Reg05]) and is omitted.

Lemma 3.3. *Let n, q, χ be some parameters such that $\text{DLWE}_{n, q, \chi}$ holds. Then for any $m \in \{0, 1\}$, if $\mathbf{s} \leftarrow \text{Regev.SecretKeygen}(1^n)$, $\mathbf{P} \leftarrow \text{Regev.PublicKeygen}(\mathbf{s})$, $\mathbf{c} \leftarrow \text{Regev.Enc}_{\mathbf{P}}(m)$, it holds that the joint distribution (\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{c}) is computationally indistinguishable from uniform.*

3.2 Vector Decomposition and Key Switching

We show how to decompose vectors in a way that preserves inner product and how to generate and use key switching parameters. Our notation is generally adopted from [BGV12].

Vector Decomposition. We often break vectors into their bit representations as defined below:

- $\text{BitDecomp}_q(\mathbf{x})$: For $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, let $\mathbf{w}_i \in \{0, 1\}^n$ be such that $\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=0}^{\lceil \log q \rceil - 1} 2^i \cdot \mathbf{w}_i \pmod{q}$. Output the vector

$$(\mathbf{w}_0, \dots, \mathbf{w}_{\lceil \log q \rceil - 1}) \in \{0, 1\}^{n \cdot \lceil \log q \rceil} .$$

- $\text{PowersOfTwo}_q(\mathbf{y})$: For $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, output

$$\left[(\mathbf{y}, 2 \cdot \mathbf{y}, \dots, 2^{\lceil \log q \rceil - 1} \cdot \mathbf{y}) \right]_q \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \cdot \lceil \log q \rceil} .$$

We will usually omit the subscript q when it is clear from the context.

Claim 3.4. For all $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, it holds that

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \text{BitDecomp}_q(\mathbf{x}), \text{PowersOfTwo}_q(\mathbf{y}) \rangle \pmod{q} .$$

Key Switching. In the functions below, q is an integer and χ is a distribution over \mathbb{Z} :

- $\text{SwitchKeyGen}_{q,\chi}(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{t})$: For a “source” key $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n_s}$ and “target” key $\mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n_t}$, we define a set of parameters that allow to switch ciphertexts under \mathbf{s} into ciphertexts under $(1, \mathbf{t})$.

Let $\hat{n}_s \doteq n_s \cdot \lceil \log q \rceil$ be the dimension of $\text{PowersOfTwo}_q(\mathbf{s})$. Sample a uniform matrix $\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{s}:\mathbf{t}} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q^{\hat{n}_s \times n_t}$ and a noise vector $\mathbf{e} \xleftarrow{\$} \chi^{\hat{n}_s}$. The function’s output is a matrix

$$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{s}:\mathbf{t}} = [\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{s}:\mathbf{t}} \parallel -\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{s}:\mathbf{t}}] \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\hat{n}_s \times (n_t + 1)} ,$$

where

$$\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{s}:\mathbf{t}} := \left[\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{s}:\mathbf{t}} \cdot \mathbf{t} + \mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{s}:\mathbf{t}} + \text{PowersOfTwo}_q(\mathbf{s}) \right]_q \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\hat{n}_s} .$$

- $\text{SwitchKey}_q(\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{s}:\mathbf{t}}, \mathbf{c}_s)$: To switch a ciphertext from a secret key \mathbf{s} to $(1, \mathbf{t})$, output

$$\mathbf{c}_t := \left[\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{s}:\mathbf{t}}^T \cdot \text{BitDecomp}_q(\mathbf{c}) \right]_q .$$

Again, we usually omit the subscripts when they are clear from the context. Correctness and security are stated below, the proofs are by definition.

Lemma 3.5 (correctness). Let $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n_s}$, $\mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n_t}$ and $\mathbf{c}_s \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n_s}$ be any vectors. Let $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{s}:\mathbf{t}} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SwitchKeyGen}(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{t})$ and set $\mathbf{c}_t \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SwitchKey}(\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{s}:\mathbf{t}}, \mathbf{c}_s)$. Then

$$\langle \mathbf{c}_s, \mathbf{s} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{c}_t, (1, \mathbf{t}) \rangle + \langle \text{BitDecomp}_q(\mathbf{c}_s), \mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{s}:\mathbf{t}} \rangle \pmod{q} .$$

Lemma 3.6 (security). Let $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n_s}$ be any vector. If we generate $\mathbf{t} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{Regev.SecretKeygen}(1^n)$ and $\mathbf{P} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SwitchKeyGen}_{q,\chi}(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{t})$, then \mathbf{P} is computationally indistinguishable from uniform, assuming $\text{DLWE}_{n,q,\chi}$.

4 A Scale Invariant Homomorphic Encryption Scheme

We present our scale invariant L -homomorphic scheme as outlined in Section 1.2. Homomorphic properties are discussed in Section 4.1, implications and optimizations are discussed in Section 4.2.

Let $q = q(n)$ be an integer function, let $L = L(n)$ be a polynomial and let $\chi = \chi(n)$ be a distribution ensemble over \mathbb{Z} . The scheme SI-HE is defined as follows:

- SI-HE.Keygen($1^L, 1^n$): Sample $L + 1$ vectors $\mathbf{s}_0, \dots, \mathbf{s}_L \leftarrow \text{Regev.SecretKeygen}(1^n)$, and compute a Regev public key for the first one: $\mathbf{P}_0 \leftarrow \text{Regev.PublicKeygen}(\mathbf{s}_0)$. For all $i \in [L]$, define

$$\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{i-1} := \text{BitDecomp}((1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1})) \otimes \text{BitDecomp}((1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1})) \in \{0, 1\}^{((n+1)\lceil \log q \rceil)^2} .$$

and compute

$$\mathbf{P}_{(i-1):i} \leftarrow \text{SwitchKeyGen}(\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{i-1}, \mathbf{s}_i) .$$

Output $pk = \mathbf{P}_0$, $evk = \{\mathbf{P}_{(i-1):i}\}_{i \in [L]}$ and $sk = \mathbf{s}_L$.

- SI-HE.Enc $_{pk}(m)$: Identical to Regev's, output $\mathbf{c} \leftarrow \text{Regev.Enc}_{pk}(m)$.
- SI-HE.Eval $_{evk}(\cdot)$: As usual, we describe homomorphic addition and multiplication over $\text{GF}(2)$, which allows to evaluate depth L arithmetic circuits in a gate-by-gate manner. The convention for a gate at level i of the circuit is that the operand ciphertexts are decryptable using \mathbf{s}_{i-1} , and the output of the homomorphic operation is decryptable using \mathbf{s}_i .

Since evk contains key switching parameters from $\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{i-1}$ to \mathbf{s}_i , homomorphic addition and multiplication both first produce an intermediate output $\tilde{\mathbf{c}}$ that corresponds to $\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{i-1}$, and then use key switching to obtain the final output.⁸

- SI-HE.Add $_{evk}(\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2)$: Assume w.l.o.g that both input ciphertexts are encrypted under the same secret key \mathbf{s}_{i-1} . First compute

$$\tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{add}} := \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_1 + \mathbf{c}_2) \otimes \text{PowersOfTwo}((1, 0, \dots, 0)) ,$$

then output

$$\mathbf{c}_{\text{add}} \leftarrow \text{SwitchKey}(\mathbf{P}_{(i-1):i}, \tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{add}}) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n+1} .$$

Let us explain what we did: We first added the ciphertext vectors (as expected) to obtain $\mathbf{c}_1 + \mathbf{c}_2$. This already implements the homomorphic addition, but provides an output that corresponds to \mathbf{s}_{i-1} and not \mathbf{s}_i as required. We thus generate $\tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{add}}$ by tensoring with a “trivial” ciphertext. The result corresponds to $\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{i-1}$, and allows to finally use key switching to obtain an output corresponding to \mathbf{s}_i . We use powers-of-two representation in order to control the norm of the secret key (as we explain in Section 1.2).

- SI-HE.Mult $_{evk}(\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2)$: Assume w.l.o.g that both input ciphertexts are encrypted under the same secret key \mathbf{s}_{i-1} . First compute

$$\tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{mult}} := \left\lfloor \frac{2}{q} \cdot \left(\text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_1) \otimes \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_2) \right) \right\rfloor ,$$

⁸The final key switching replaces the more complicated “refresh” operation of [BGV12].

then output

$$\mathbf{c}_{\text{mult}} \leftarrow \text{SwitchKey}(\mathbf{P}_{(i-1):i}, \tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{mult}}) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n+1} .$$

As we explain in Section 1.2, The tensorized ciphertext $\tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{mult}}$ mimics tensoring in the “invariant perspective”, which produces an encryption of the product of the plaintexts under the tensorized secret key $\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{i-1}$. We then switch keys to obtain an output corresponding to \mathbf{s}_i .

- Decryption $\text{SI-HE.Dec}_{sk}(\mathbf{c})$: Assume w.l.o.g that \mathbf{c} is a ciphertext that corresponds to $\mathbf{s}_L (=sk)$. Then decryption is again identical to Regev’s, output

$$m \leftarrow \text{Regev.Dec}_{sk}(\mathbf{c}) .$$

Security. The security of the scheme follows in a straightforward way, very similarly to the proof of [BV11b, Theorem 4.1] as we sketch below.

Lemma 4.1. *Let n, q, χ be some parameters such that $\text{DLWE}_{n,q,\chi}$ holds, and let $L = L(n)$ be polynomially bounded. Then for any $m \in \{0, 1\}$, if $(pk, evk, evk) \leftarrow \text{SI-HE.Keygen}(1^L, 1^n)$, $\mathbf{c} \leftarrow \text{SI-HE.Enc}_{pk}(m)$, it holds that the joint distribution (pk, evk, \mathbf{c}) is computationally indistinguishable from uniform.*

Proof sketch. We consider the distribution $(pk, evk, \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{P}_0, \mathbf{P}_{0:1}, \dots, \mathbf{P}_{L-1:L}, \mathbf{c})$ and apply a hybrid argument.

First, we argue that $\mathbf{P}_{L-1:L}$ is indistinguishable from uniform, based on Lemma 3.6 (note that \mathbf{s}_L is only used to generate $\mathbf{P}_{L-1:L}$). We then proceed to replace all $\mathbf{P}_{i-1:i}$ with uniform in descending order, based on the same argument. Finally, we are left with $(\mathbf{P}_0, \mathbf{c})$ (and a multitude of uniform elements), which are exactly a public key and ciphertext of Regev’s scheme. We invoke Lemma 3.3 to argue that $(\mathbf{P}_0, \mathbf{c})$ are indistinguishable from uniform, which completes the proof of our lemma.

We remark that generally one has to be careful when using a super-constant number of hybrids, but in our case, as in [BV11b], this causes no problem. \square

4.1 Homomorphic Properties of SI-HE

The following theorem summarizes the homomorphic properties of our scheme.

Theorem 4.2. *The scheme SI-HE with parameters $n, q, |\chi| \leq B, L$ for which*

$$q/B \geq (O(n \log q))^{L+O(1)} ,$$

is L -homomorphic.

The theorem is proven using the following lemma, which bounds the growth of the noise in gate evaluation.

Lemma 4.3. *Let $q, n, |\chi| \leq B, L$ be parameters for SI-HE, and let $(pk, evk, sk) \leftarrow \text{SI-HE.Keygen}(1^L, 1^n)$. Let $\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2$ be such that*

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \mathbf{c}_1, (\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{s}_{i-1}) \rangle &= \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot m_1 + e_1 \pmod{q} \\ \langle \mathbf{c}_2, (\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{s}_{i-1}) \rangle &= \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot m_1 + e_2 \pmod{q} , \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

with $|e_1|, |e_2| \leq E < q/4$. Define $\mathbf{c}_{\text{add}} \leftarrow \text{SI-HE.Add}_{\text{evk}}(\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2)$, $\mathbf{c}_{\text{mult}} \leftarrow \text{SI-HE.Mult}_{\text{evk}}(\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \mathbf{c}_{\text{add}}, (1, \mathbf{s}_i) \rangle &= \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot ([m_1 + m_2]_2) + e_{\text{add}} \pmod{q} \\ \langle \mathbf{c}_{\text{mult}}, (1, \mathbf{s}_i) \rangle &= \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot m_1 m_2 + e_{\text{mult}} \pmod{q}, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$|e_{\text{add}}|, |e_{\text{mult}}| \leq O(n \log q) \cdot \max \{E, (n \log^2 q) \cdot B\}.$$

We remark that, as usual, homomorphic addition increases noise much more moderately than multiplication, but the coarse bound we show in the lemma is sufficient for our purposes.

Next we show how to use Lemma 4.3 to prove Theorem 4.2. The proof of Lemma 4.3 itself is deferred to Section 4.3.

Proof of Theorem 4.2. Consider the evaluation of a depth L circuit. Let E_i be a bound on the noise in the ciphertext after the evaluation of the i^{th} level of gates.

By Lemma 3.1, $E_0 = N \cdot B = O(n \log q) \cdot B$. Lemma 4.3 guarantees that starting from the point where $E \geq (n \log^2 q) \cdot B$, it will hold that $E_{i+1} = O(n \log q) \cdot E_i$. We get that $E_L = (O(n \log q))^{L+O(1)} \cdot B$.

By Lemma 3.2, decryption will succeed if $E_L < q/4$ and the theorem follows. \square

4.2 Implications and Optimizations

Fully Homomorphic Encryption using Bootstrapping. Fully homomorphic encryption follows using the bootstrapping theorem (Theorem 2.2). In order to use bootstrapping, we need to bound the depth of the decryption circuit. The following lemma has been proven in a number of previous works (e.g. [BV11b, Lemma 4.5]):

Lemma 4.4. *For all \mathbf{c} , the function $f_{\mathbf{c}}(\mathbf{s}) = \text{SI-HE.Dec}_{\mathbf{s}}(\mathbf{c})$ can be implemented by a circuit of depth $O(\log n + \log \log q)$.*

An immediate corollary follows from Theorem 2.2, Theorem 4.2 and Lemma 4.4:

Corollary 4.5. *Let n, q, χ, B be such that $|\chi| \leq B$ and $q/B \geq (n \log q)^{O(\log n + \log \log q)}$. Then there exists a (leveled) fully homomorphic encryption scheme based on the $\text{DLWE}_{n, q, \chi}$ assumption.*

Furthermore, if SI-HE is weak circular secure, then the same assumption implies full (non leveled) homomorphism.

Finally, we can classically reduce security to GapSVP using Corollary 2.1, by choosing $q = \tilde{O}(2^{n/2})$ and $B = q/(n \log q)^{O(\log n + \log \log q)} = q/n^{O(\log n)}$:

Corollary 4.6. *There exists a (leveled) fully-homomorphic encryption scheme based on the classical worst case hardness of the $\text{GapSVP}_{n^{O(\log n)}}$ problem.*

(Leveled) Fully Homomorphic Encryption without Bootstrapping. Following [BGV12], our scheme implies a leveled fully homomorphic encryption without bootstrapping. Plugging our scheme into the [BGV12] framework, we obtain a (leveled) fully homomorphic encryption without bootstrapping, based on the classical worst case hardness of $\text{GapSVP}_{2^{n^\epsilon}}$, for any $\epsilon > 0$.

Optimizations. So far, we chose to present our scheme in the cleanest possible way. However, there are a few techniques that can somewhat improve performance. While the asymptotic advantage of these methods is not great, a real life implementation can benefit from them.

1. Our tensored secret key $\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{i-1}$ is obtained by tensoring a vector with itself. Such a vector can be represented by only $\binom{n_s}{2}$ (as opposed to our n_s^2), saving a factor of (almost) 2 in the representation length.
2. When $B \ll q$, some improvement can be achieved by using LWE in hermite normal form. It is known (see e.g. [ACPS09]) that the hardness of LWE remains essentially the same if we sample $\mathbf{s} \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \chi^n$ (instead of uniformly \mathbb{Z}_q^n). Sampling our keys this way, it follows that we only need $O(n \log B)$ bits to represent $\text{BitDecomp}(\mathbf{s})$, and its norm goes down accordingly.

We can therefore reduce the size of the evaluation key (which depends quadratically on the bit length of the secret key), and more importantly, we can prove a tighter version of Lemma 4.3. When using hermite normal form, the noise grows from E to $O(n \log B) \cdot \max\{E, (n \log B \log q) \cdot B\}$. Therefore, L -homomorphism is achieved whenever

$$q/B \geq (O(n \log B))^{L+O(1)} \cdot \log q .$$

3. Consider a vector \mathbf{c} over \mathbb{Z}_q , and consider its inner product $\langle \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{s} \rangle$ with a vector \mathbf{s} . If we truncate the i least significant bits from every element of \mathbf{c} (that is, replace them with 0), the inner product will change by at most $2^{i+1} \|\mathbf{s}\|_1$. This means that ciphertexts, elements in the public key, elements in the evaluation key and intermediate values in the computation can be represented by fewer bits without significant effect on the noise. This is especially effective for ciphertexts that correspond to low norm secrets.

4.3 Proof of Lemma 4.3

We start with the analysis for addition, which is simpler and will also serve as good warm-up towards the analysis for multiplication.

Analysis for Addition. By Lemma 3.5, it holds that

$$\langle \mathbf{c}_{\text{add}}, (1, \mathbf{s}_i) \rangle = \langle \tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{add}}, \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_i \rangle - \underbrace{\langle \text{BitDecomp}(\tilde{\mathbf{c}}), \mathbf{e}_{i-1:i} \rangle}_{\doteq \delta_1} \pmod{q} .$$

where $\mathbf{e}_{i-1:i} \sim \chi^{(n+1)^2 \cdot (\lceil \log q \rceil)^3}$. That is, δ_1 is the noise inflicted by the key switching process.

We bound $|\delta_1|$ using the bound on χ :

$$|\delta_1| = |\langle \text{BitDecomp}(\tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{add}}), \mathbf{e}_{i-1:i} \rangle| \leq (n+1)^2 \cdot (\lceil \log q \rceil)^3 \cdot B = O(n^2 \log^3 q) \cdot B .$$

Next, we expand the term $\langle \tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{add}}, \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_i \rangle$, by breaking an inner product of tensors into a product of

inner products (one of which is trivially equal to 1):

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle \tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{add}}, \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_i \rangle &= \left\langle \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_1 + \mathbf{c}_2) \otimes \text{PowersOfTwo}((1, 0, \dots, 0)), \right. \\
&\quad \left. \text{BitDecomp}((1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1})) \otimes \text{BitDecomp}((1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1})) \right\rangle \\
&= \langle \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_1 + \mathbf{c}_2), \text{BitDecomp}((1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1})) \rangle \cdot 1 \\
&= \langle (\mathbf{c}_1 + \mathbf{c}_2), (1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1}) \rangle \pmod{q} \\
&= \langle \mathbf{c}_1, (1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1}) \rangle + \langle \mathbf{c}_2, (1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1}) \rangle \pmod{q}.
\end{aligned}$$

We can now plug in what we know about $\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2$ from Eq. (1) in the lemma statement:

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle \tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{add}}, \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_i \rangle &= \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot m_1 + e_1 + \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot m_2 + e_2 \pmod{q} \\
&= \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot [m_1 + m_2]_2 \underbrace{- \tilde{m} + e_1 + e_2}_{\doteq \delta_2}, \pmod{q}
\end{aligned}$$

where $\tilde{m} \in \{0, 1\}$ is defined as:

$$\tilde{m} \doteq \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } q \text{ is even,} \\ \frac{1}{2} \cdot (m_1 + m_2 - [m_1 + m_2]_2), & \text{if } q \text{ is odd,} \end{cases}$$

and $|\delta_2| \leq 1 + 2E$.

Putting it all together,

$$\langle \mathbf{c}_{\text{add}}, (1, \mathbf{s}_i) \rangle = \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot [m_1 + m_2]_2 + \underbrace{\delta_1 + \delta_2}_{=e_{\text{add}}} \pmod{q}.$$

Where the bound on e_{add} is

$$|e_{\text{add}}| = |\delta_1 + \delta_2| \leq O(n^2 \log^3 q) \cdot B + O(1) \cdot E \leq O(n \log q) \cdot \max \{E, (n \log^2 q) \cdot B\}.$$

This finishes the argument for addition.

Analysis for Multiplication. The analysis for multiplication starts very similarly to addition:

$$\langle \mathbf{c}_{\text{mult}}, (1, \mathbf{s}_i) \rangle = \langle \tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{mult}}, \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_i \rangle - \underbrace{\langle \text{BitDecomp}(\tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{mult}}), \mathbf{e}_{i-1:i} \rangle}_{\doteq \delta_1} \pmod{q},$$

and as before

$$|\delta_1| = O(n^2 \log^3 q) \cdot B.$$

Let us now focus on $\langle \tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{mult}}, \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_i \rangle$. We want to use the properties of tensoring to break the inner product into two smaller inner products, as we did before. This time, however, $\tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{mult}}$ is a *rounded* tensor:

$$\langle \tilde{\mathbf{c}}, \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_i \rangle = \left\langle \left\lfloor \frac{2}{q} \cdot (\text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_1) \otimes \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_2)) \right\rfloor, \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{i-1} \right\rangle \pmod{q}.$$

We start by showing that the rounding does not add much noise. Intuitively this is because $\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{i-1}$ is a binary vector and thus has low norm. We define

$$\delta_2 \doteq \left\langle \left\lfloor \frac{2}{q} \cdot (\text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_1) \otimes \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_2)) \right\rfloor, \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{i-1} \right\rangle - \left\langle \frac{2}{q} \cdot (\text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_1) \otimes \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_2)), \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{i-1} \right\rangle,$$

and for convenience we also define

$$\mathbf{c}' \doteq \left\lfloor \frac{2}{q} \cdot (\text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_1) \otimes \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_2)) \right\rfloor - \frac{2}{q} \cdot (\text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_1) \otimes \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_2)).$$

By definition, $\delta_2 = \langle \mathbf{c}', \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{i-1} \rangle$. Now, since $\|\mathbf{c}'\|_\infty \leq 1/2$ and $\|\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{i-1}\|_1 \leq ((n+1) \lceil \log q \rceil)^2 = O(n^2 \log^2 q)$, it follows that

$$|\delta_2| \leq \|\mathbf{c}'\|_\infty \cdot \|\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{i-1}\|_1 = O(n^2 \log^2 q).$$

We can now break the inner product using the properties of tensoring:

$$\langle \tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{mult}}, \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{i-1} \rangle - \delta_2 = \frac{2}{q} \cdot \langle \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_1), \text{BitDecomp}((1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1})) \rangle \cdot \langle \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_2), \text{BitDecomp}((1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1})) \rangle. \quad (2)$$

Note that we keep $\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2$ in powers-of-two form. This is deliberate and will be useful later (essentially because we want our ciphertext to relate to low-norm secrets).

Going back to Eq. (1) from the lemma statement, it follows (using Claim 3.4) that

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_1), \text{BitDecomp}(1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1}) \rangle &= \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot m_1 + e_1 \pmod{q} \\ \langle \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_2), \text{BitDecomp}(1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1}) \rangle &= \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot m_2 + e_2 \pmod{q}. \end{aligned}$$

Let $I_1, I_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ be such that

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_1), \text{BitDecomp}(1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1}) \rangle &= \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot m_1 + e_1 + q \cdot I_1 \\ \langle \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_2), \text{BitDecomp}(1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1}) \rangle &= \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor \cdot m_2 + e_2 + q \cdot I_2. \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Let us bound the absolute value of I_1 (obviously the same bound also holds for I_2):

$$\begin{aligned}
|I_1| &= \frac{|\langle \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_1), \text{BitDecomp}(1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1}) \rangle - \lfloor \frac{q}{2} \rfloor \cdot m_1 - e_1|}{q} \\
&\leq \frac{|\langle \text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_1), \text{BitDecomp}(1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1}) \rangle|}{q} + 1 \\
&\leq \frac{\|\text{PowersOfTwo}(\mathbf{c}_1)\|_\infty}{q} \cdot \|\text{BitDecomp}(1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1})\|_1 + 1 \\
&\leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \|\text{BitDecomp}(1, \mathbf{s}_{i-1})\|_1 + 1 \\
&\leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot (n+1) \lceil \log q \rceil + 1 \\
&= O(n \log q) .
\end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

Plugging Eq. (3) into Eq. (2), we get

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle \tilde{\mathbf{c}}_{\text{mult}}, \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{i-1} \rangle - \delta_2 &= \frac{2}{q} \cdot \left(\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \rfloor \cdot m_1 + e_1 + q \cdot I_1 \right) \cdot \left(\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \rfloor \cdot m_2 + e_2 + q \cdot I_2 \right) \\
&= \lfloor \frac{q}{2} \rfloor \cdot m_1 \cdot m_2 + \delta_3 + q \cdot (2I_1 I_2) ,
\end{aligned}$$

where δ_3 is defined as

$$\delta_3 \doteq \begin{cases} (2e_2 + m_2) \cdot I_1 + (2e_1 + m_1) \cdot I_2 + (e_1 m_2 + e_2 m_1) + \frac{2e_1 \cdot e_2}{q} , & \text{if } q \text{ is even,} \\ (2e_2 - m_2) \cdot I_1 + (2e_1 - m_1) \cdot I_2 + \frac{q-1}{q} \cdot (e_1 m_2 + e_2 m_1) + \frac{-m_1 \cdot m_2 + 2e_1 \cdot e_2}{q} , & \text{if } q \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

In particular (recall that $E \leq q/4$):

$$|\delta_3| \leq 2(2E+1)O(n \log q) + 2E + \frac{1+2E^2}{q} = O(n \log q) \cdot E .$$

Putting everything together, we get that

$$\langle \mathbf{c}_{\text{mult}}, (1, \mathbf{s}_i) \rangle = \lfloor \frac{q}{2} \rfloor \cdot m_1 m_2 + \underbrace{\delta_1 + \delta_2 + \delta_3}_{=e_{\text{mult}}} \pmod{q} ,$$

where

$$|e_{\text{mult}}| = |\delta_1 + \delta_2 + \delta_3| \leq O(n \log q) \cdot E + O(n^2 \log^3 q) \cdot B ,$$

and the lemma follows. \square

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