# Notes on Two Fully Homomorphic Encryption Schemes Without Bootstrapping 

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#### Abstract

Last week, IACR ePrint archive posted two fully homomorphic encryption schemes without bootstrapping. In this note, we show that these schemes are trivially insecure.


## I. InTRODUCTION

Though it is a very challenging problem to design fully homomorphic encryption schemes without bootstrapping. We still see that quite a few researchers post candidate designs frequently. This note points out that the two schemes posted to IACR ePrint archive last week are trivially insecure: the scheme by Masahiro Yagisawa [4] on 19 May 2015 and the scheme by Dongxi Liu [3] on 17 May 2015.

## II. Masahiro Yagisawa [4]'s Scheme

Octonion (see, e.g., Conway and Smith [2] or Baez [1]) is the largest of the four normed division algebra and is the only normed division algebra that is neither commutative nor associative. Each octonion number is a vector $\mathbf{a}=\left[a_{0}, \cdots, a_{7}\right] \in R^{8}$ where $R$ is the real number. For each octonion number $\mathbf{a}=\left[a_{0}, \cdots, a_{7}\right]$, we define an associate $8 \times 8$ matrix

$$
A_{\mathbf{a}}=\left(\begin{array}{cccccccc}
a_{0} & -a_{1} & -a_{2} & -a_{3} & -a_{4} & -a_{5} & -a_{6} & -a_{7}  \tag{1}\\
a_{0} & a_{1} & a_{2} & a_{3} & -a_{4} & a_{5} & -a_{6} & -a_{7} \\
a_{0} & -a_{1} & a_{2} & a_{3} & a_{4} & -a_{5} & a_{6} & -a_{7} \\
a_{0} & -a_{1} & -a_{2} & a_{3} & a_{4} & a_{5} & -a_{6} & a_{7} \\
a_{0} & a_{1} & -a_{2} & a_{3} & a_{4} & a_{5} & a_{6} & -a_{7} \\
a_{0} & -a_{1} & a_{2} & -a_{3} & -a_{4} & a_{5} & a_{6} & a_{7} \\
a_{0} & a_{1} & -a_{2} & a_{3} & -a_{4} & -a_{5} & a_{6} & a_{7} \\
a_{0} & a_{1} & a_{2} & -a_{3} & a_{4} & -a_{5} & -a_{6} & a_{7}
\end{array}\right)
$$

For two octonions $\mathbf{a}=\left[a_{0}, \cdots, a_{7}\right]$ and $\mathbf{b}=\left[b_{0}, \cdots, b_{7}\right]$, we can add them as $\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{b}=\left[a_{0}+b_{0}, \cdots, a_{7}+b_{t}\right]$ and multiply them as $\mathbf{a b}=\mathbf{b} A_{\mathbf{a}}^{T}$.

Using octonions over $G F(q)$, Yagisawa [4] introduced a fully homomorphic encryption scheme. Though Yagisawa [4] defined his fully homomorphic encryption scheme in terms of a sequence of private octonion numbers, the scheme could be simplified using matrix operations. Let $G F(q)$ be the underlying finite field that we will work with and $\mathbf{1}=[1,0,0,0,0,0,0,0]$. Then the protocol works as follows:
Key Setup. Choose a random invertible $8 \times 8$ matrix $K \in G F(q)^{8 \times 8} . K$ is the private key.
Encryption. For a message $\mathbf{m} \in G F(q)^{8}$, compute the cipher text $C_{m}=\operatorname{Enc}(K, \mathbf{m})=K^{-1} A_{\mathbf{m}} K \in G F^{8 \times 8}$ where $A_{\mathbf{m}}$ is the associate matrix for $\mathbf{m}$ when $\mathbf{m}$ is considered as an octonion number.
Decryption. For a received ciphertext $C_{m}$, compute $A_{\mathbf{m}}=K C_{m} K^{-1} . \mathbf{m}$ can then be recovered from $A_{\mathbf{m}}$.
Ciphertext addition. The addition of two ciphertexts $C_{\mathbf{m}_{0}}$ and $C_{\mathbf{m}_{1}}$ is defined as the component wise addition $C_{\mathbf{m}_{0}+\mathbf{m}_{1}}=C_{\mathbf{m}_{0}}+C_{\mathbf{m}_{1}}$. That is, this is just the regular matrix addition.
Ciphertext multiplication. The multiplication of two ciphertexts $C_{\mathbf{m}_{0}}$ and $C_{\mathbf{m}_{1}}$ is defined as the regular matrix multiplication $C_{\mathbf{m}_{0} \times \mathbf{m}_{1}}=C_{\mathbf{m}_{0}} C_{\mathbf{m}_{1}}=K A_{\mathbf{m}_{0}} K^{-1} K A_{\mathbf{m}_{1}} K^{-1}=K A_{\mathbf{m}_{0}} A_{\mathbf{m}_{1}} K^{-1}$.

First we note that the above scheme is not fully homomorphic over $G F(q)$. Indeed, it is only fully homomorphic over the octonion numbers over $G F(q)$ since the multiplication of ciphertexts is the ciphertext of an octonion
number which is a multiplication over the octonions. Since the multiplication in octonions is neither associative nor commutative, we generally cannot get a fully homomorphic scheme for $G F(q)$ using the above scheme. Though it is possible to revise the scheme to make it fully homomorphic over $G F(q)$. For example, for a plain text message $m \in G F(q)$ one may define an associate matrix $A_{a}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}m & 0 \\ \mathbf{b}^{T} & B\end{array}\right) \in G F(q)^{8 \times 8}$ with uniformly at random chosen $\mathbf{b} \in G F(q)^{7}$ and $B \in G F(q)^{7 \times 7}$.

Next we briefly mention that the above scheme could not be secure. The major issue for the above scheme is that the plaintext $\mathbf{0}=[0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0]$ is encrypted to the zero matrix. In other words, we can easily distinguish the ciphertext of $\mathbf{m}$ and $-\mathbf{m}$ since $C_{\mathbf{m}}+C_{-\mathbf{m}}=0$.

## III. Dongxi Liu [3]'s Scheme

Liu [3] proposed a candidate fully homomorphic encryption scheme using linear algebra over $G F(q)$. Though the design in [3] is very complicated, we give a simple (equivalent) description of the protocol in [3]. From the simplified description, it is straightforward that the public evaluation keys leak all of the private key.

Let $l, n$ be given numbers with $l \leq n-2$. It is recommended to use $n=5$ and $l=3$ in [3]. The protocol works as follows.

## Key Setup.

- Choose random vectors $\mathbf{k}=\left[k_{0}, \cdots, k_{n}\right] \in G F(q)^{n+1}$ and $\Theta=\left[\theta_{0}, \cdots, \theta_{l-1}\right] \in G F(q)^{l}$.
- For each $m \in G F(q)$, let $\mathbf{c}_{m}=\operatorname{ENC}(\mathbf{k}, m)=\left[c_{0}, \cdots, c_{n}\right] \in G F(q)^{n+1}$ such that $m=\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{c}_{m}$ where • is the inner product of $\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{c}_{m}$. That is, $\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{c}_{m}=c_{0} k_{0}+c_{1} k_{1}+\cdots+c_{n} k_{n}$.
- Let $\Phi=\left[\operatorname{ENC}\left(\mathbf{k}, \theta_{0}\right), \cdots, \operatorname{ENC}\left(\mathbf{k}, \theta_{l-1}\right), \operatorname{ENC}(\mathbf{k}, 1)\right]$.
- The private key is $\mathbf{k}$ and $\Theta$.
- The public evaluation key is pek $=\left\{\mathbf{p}_{i, j}=\operatorname{ENC}\left(\mathbf{k}, k_{i} k_{j}\right): 0 \leq i, j \leq n\right\}$

Encryption. For a message $\mathbf{m} \in G F(q)$, choose random $r_{0}, \cdots, r_{l} \in G F(q)$ with $m=r_{0} \oplus r_{1} \oplus \cdots \oplus r_{l}$. The ciphertext of $m$ is $\mathbf{c}_{m}=\left(r_{0} \cdot \operatorname{ENC}\left(\mathbf{k}, \theta_{0}\right)\right) \oplus \cdots \oplus\left(r_{l-1} \cdot \operatorname{ENC}\left(\mathbf{k}, \theta_{l-1}\right)\right) \oplus\left(r_{l} \cdot \operatorname{ENC}(\mathbf{k}, 1)\right)$.
Decryption. For a received ciphertext $\mathbf{c}_{m}$, compute $m=\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{c}_{m}$.
Ciphertext addition. The addition of two ciphertexts $\mathbf{c}_{m_{0}}$ and $\mathbf{c}_{m_{1}}$ is defined as the component wise addition $\mathbf{c}_{m_{0}+m_{1}}=\mathbf{c}_{m_{0}}+\mathbf{c}_{m_{1}}$. That is, this is just the regular component wise vector addition.
Ciphertext multiplication. The multiplication of two ciphertexts $\mathbf{c}_{m_{0}}=\left[c_{0}, \cdots, c_{n}\right]$ and $\mathbf{c}_{m_{1}}=\left[c_{0}^{\prime}, \cdots, c_{n}^{\prime}\right]$ is defined as $\mathbf{c}_{m_{0} m_{1}}=\sum_{i, j=0}^{n} c_{i} c_{j} \mathbf{p}_{i, j}$.

The correctness of the protocol could be easily verified (for details, it is referred to the original paper [3]. However, the protocol cannot be secure since the private key $\mathbf{k}$ could be trivially derived from the public evaluation key pek. As an example, we can assume that $\mathbf{p}_{i, j}=\left[p_{i, j, 0}, \cdots, p_{i, j, n}\right]$. Then we have the equations

$$
\begin{align*}
& k_{0} k_{0}=p_{0,0,0} k_{0}+\cdots+p_{0,0, n} k_{n} \\
& \cdots  \tag{2}\\
& k_{i} k_{j}=p_{i, j, 0} k_{0}+\cdots+p_{i, j, n} k_{n} \\
& \cdots \\
& k_{n} k_{n}=p_{n, n, 0} k_{0}+\cdots+p_{n n, n} k_{n}
\end{align*}
$$

Using equation (22), one can easily obtain the private key $\mathbf{k}$ by constructing polynomial equations $f\left(k_{i}\right)=0$ in one variable and then using the Euclidean algorithm to compute $\operatorname{gcd}\left(f(x), x^{q}-x\right)$ (or use Berlekamp's algorithm). For example, from the first equation, one can obtain an expression of $k_{n}$ in terms of $k_{0}, \cdots, k_{n-1}$. By substituting this $k_{n}$ into all remaining equations, one eliminates the occurrence of $k_{n}$ from all remaining equations.

## References

[1] John Baez. The octonions. Bulletin of the American Mathematical Society, 39(2):145-205, 2002.
[2] John H Conway and Derek A Smith. On quaternions and octonions. AMC, 10:12, 2003.
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