# Subring Homomorphic Encryption 

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February 3, 2017


#### Abstract

In this paper, we construct subring homomorphic encryption scheme that is a homomorphic encryption scheme build on the decomposition ring, which is a subring of cyclotomic ring. In the scheme, each plaintext slot contains an integer in $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\prime}}$, rather than an element of $\mathrm{GF}\left(p^{d}\right)$ as in conventional homomorphic encryption schemes on cyclotomic rings. Our benchmark results indicate that the subring homomorphic encryption scheme is several times faster than HElib for mod-p plaintexts, due to its high parallelism of mod- $p^{l}$ slot structure. We believe in that the plaintext structure composed of mod- $p^{l}$ slots will be more natural, easy to handle, and significantly more efficient for many applications such as outsourced data mining. Keywords: Fully homomorphic encryption, Ring-LWE, Cyclotomic ring, Decomposition ring, Plaintext slots.


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## 1 Introduction

Background. Homomorphic encryption (HE) scheme enables us computation on encrypted data. One can add or multiply (or more generally "evaluate") given ciphertexts and generate a new ciphertext that encrypts sum or product (or "evaluation") of underlying data of the input ciphertexts. Such computation (called homomorphic addition or multiplication or evaluation) can be done without using the secret key and one will never know anything about the processed or generated data.

Since the breakthrough construction given by Gentry [5], many efforts are dedicated to make such homomorphic encryption scheme more secure and more efficient. Especially, HE schemes based on the Ring-LWE problem [11, 2, 4, 12] have obtained theoretically-sound proof of security and well-established implementations such as HElib by Halevi and Shoup [8]. Nowadays many researchers apply HE schemes to privacy-preserving tasks for mining of outsourced data such as genomic data, medical data, financial data and so on $[7,10,3,9]$.

Our perspective: $\mathrm{GF}\left(p^{d}\right)$ versus $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{l}}$ slots. The HE schemes based on the Ring-LWE problem (Ring-HE schemes in short), depend on arithmetic of cyclotomic integers [11]. Cyclotomic integers $a$ are algebraic integers generated by some root of unity $\zeta$ and has the form like $a=a_{0}+a_{1} \zeta+\cdots+a_{n-1} \zeta^{n-1}$ where $a_{i}$ are ordinary integers in $\mathbb{Z}$.

Generally, plaintexts in the Ring-HE schemes are encoded by cyclotomic integers modulo some small prime $p$. (Here, taking modulo $p$ of cyclotomic integers $a$ means taking modulo $p$ of each coefficient $a_{i}$.) Then, what type of algebraic structure will a cyclotomic integer $a$ $\bmod p$ have? Its structure is known to be a tuple of elements of Galois field $\operatorname{GF}\left(p^{d}\right)$ of some degree $d$. For small primes $p$, this degree $d$ will be large. Thus, in the Ring-HE schemes, a plaintext is a tuple of plaintext slots and each plaintext slot represents an element of Galois field $\mathrm{GF}\left(p^{d}\right)$ of large degree $d[13]$. Addition or multiplication of plaintexts actually means addition or multiplication of each plaintext slots as elements of Galois field $\operatorname{GF}\left(p^{d}\right)$.

Such plaintext structure is good for applications that use data represented by elements of Galois field GF $\left(p^{d}\right)$, such as error correcting codes or AES ciphers. However, many applications will use integers modulo $p^{l}$ (i.e., elements in $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{l}}$ ) for some positive integer $l$ (and especially for $p=2$ ), rather than elements of Galois field $\mathrm{GF}\left(p^{d}\right)$. By using Hensel lifting technique Ring-HE schemes can have plaintext slots of integers modulo $p^{l}$ (as some applications do in fact) but with expense of efficiency. If we want to encrypt mod- $p^{l}$ plaintexts on slots using Ring-HE schemes, actually we can use only 1 -dimensional constant polynomials in each $d$-dimensional slots for homomorphic evaluation. As stated earlier, the dimension $d$ is not small.

In this paper, we propose a novel HE scheme in which plaintext structure is inherently a tuple of integers modulo $p^{l}$ (for positive integer parameter $l$ ), that is, each plaintext slot contains an integer in $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{l}}$, rather than an element of $\operatorname{GF}\left(p^{d}\right)$. We believe in that our plaintext structure will be more natural, easy to handle, and significantly efficient for many applications such as outsourced data mining.

Method. To realize plaintext structure composed of slots of integers modulo $p^{l}$ (for some small prime $p$ ), we use decomposition ring $R_{Z}$ with respect to the prime $p$, instead of cyclotomic ring $R$.

Let $\zeta$ be a primitive $m$-th root of unity. The $m$-th cyclotomic ring $R=\left\{a_{0}+a_{1} \zeta+\cdots+\right.$ $\left.a_{n-1} \zeta^{n-1} \mid a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$ is a ring of all cyclotomic integers generated by $\zeta$, where $n=\phi(m)$ is a
value of Euler function at $m$. Plaintext space of Ring-HE schemes will be the space of mod- $p$ cyclotomic integers, i.e., $R_{p}=R / p R$ for some small prime $p$. It is known that in the cyclotomic ring $R$, prime number $p$ is not prime any more (in general) and it will factor into a product of $g$ prime ideals $\mathfrak{P}_{i}$ (with some divisor $g$ of $n$ ):

$$
p R=\mathfrak{P}_{0} \mathfrak{P}_{1} \cdots \mathfrak{P}_{g-1}
$$

The residual fields $R / \mathfrak{P}_{i}$ of each factor $\mathfrak{P}_{i}$ are nothing but the space of plaintext slots of Ring-HE schemes, which are isomorphic to $\operatorname{GF}\left(p^{d}\right)$ with $d=n / g$. So the plaintext space is

$$
R_{p} \simeq R / \mathfrak{P}_{0} \oplus \cdots \oplus R / \mathfrak{P}_{g-1} \simeq \operatorname{GF}\left(p^{d}\right) \oplus \cdots \oplus \operatorname{GF}\left(p^{d}\right)
$$

As stated, we can use only 1 -dimensional subspace $\operatorname{GF}(p)=\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ in each $d$-dimensional slot $\mathrm{GF}\left(p^{d}\right)$ for homomorphic evaluation of mod- $p$ integers.

The decomposition ring $R_{Z}$ with respect to prime $p$ is the minimum subring of $R$ in which the prime $p$ has the same form of prime ideal factorization as in $R$, that is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
p R_{Z}=\mathfrak{p}_{0} \mathfrak{p}_{1} \cdots \mathfrak{p}_{g-1} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with the same number of $g$. By the minimality of $R_{Z}$, the residual fields $R_{Z} / \mathfrak{p}_{i}$ of each factor $\mathfrak{p}_{i}$ must be one-dimensional, that is, isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$. So our plaintext space on $R_{Z}$ will be

$$
\left(R_{Z}\right)_{p} \simeq R_{Z} / \mathfrak{p}_{0} \oplus \cdots \oplus R_{Z} / \mathfrak{p}_{g-1} \simeq \mathbb{Z}_{p} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p}
$$

Applying Hensel lifting $l$ times, we arrive at

$$
\left(R_{Z}\right)_{q} \simeq \mathbb{Z}_{q} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{q}
$$

for $q=p^{l}$. Thus, the decomposition ring $R_{Z}$ realizes plaintext slots of integers modulo $q=p^{l}$, as desired. Now we can use all of the dimensions of $R_{Z}$ as its plaintext slots for mod- $p^{l}$ plaintexts. We can expect that this high parallelism of slot structure will bring us significantly more efficient SIMD operations for mod- $p^{l}$ plaintexts.

Two bases. The cyclotomic ring $R$ has attractive futures that enable efficient implementation of addition/multiplication of and noise handling on their elements. Can we do the similar thing even if we use the decomposition ring $R_{Z}$ instead of cyclotomic ring $R$ ?

The cyclotomic ring $R$ 's nice properties are consolidated to existence of two types of its bases [12]:

- The power(ful) basis: Composed of short and nearly orthogonal vectors to each other. Used when rounding rational cyclotomic numbers to their nearest cyclotomic integers.
- The CRT basis: Related to the FFT transformation and multiplication. Vectors of coefficients of given two cyclotomic integers w.r.t. the CRT basis can be multiplied componentwise, resulting a new vector corresponding to the multiplied cyclotomic integer.
We investigate structure of the decomposition ring $R_{Z}$, following the way in cyclotomic cases given by Lyubashevsky, Peikert, and Regev [12]. Then, we will give two types of bases, called $\eta$ basis and $\xi$-basis in this paper, which correspond to the power(ful) and CRT bases in cyclotomic cases, respectively. For these tasks, the point is so called trace map from $R$ to $R_{Z}$ that induced surjective map from residue fields $R / \mathfrak{P}$ to $R_{Z} / \mathfrak{p}$. Using the trace map we can observe structure of $R_{Z}$ as images of the cyclotomic ring $R$. We will see some unique phenomenon coming from flat structure (that is the degree $d=1$ ) of the decomposition ring. We also study noise growth occurred by algebraic manipulation (especially, multiplication) of elements in $R_{Z}$, following [12].

Construction. Based on the investigation, we construct subring homomorphic encryption scheme that is an HE scheme over the decomposition ring $R_{Z}$, or a realization of the FV scheme [4] over $R_{Z}$. The construction is described concretely using the $\eta$-basis and $\xi$-basis above. We show several bounds on noise growth occurred among homomorphic computations on its ciphertexts and prove that our HE scheme is fully homomorphic using ciphertext modulus $q=O\left(\lambda^{\log \lambda}\right)$ w.r.t. security parameter $\lambda$, as the FV scheme is so.

For security we will need hardness of a variant of the decisional Ring-LWE problem over the decomposition ring. Recall the search version of Ring-LWE problem is already proved to have a quantum polynomial time reduction from the approximate shortest vector problem of ideal lattices in any number field by Lyubashevsky, Peikert, and Regev [11]. They proved equivalence between the search and decisional versions of the Ring-LWE problems only for cyclotomic rings. However, it is not difficult to see that the equivalence holds also over the decomposition rings, since they are subrings of cyclotomic rings and inherit good properties from them.

Implementation and benchmark. We implemented our subring homomorphic encryption scheme using C++ language and performed several experiments using different parameters. Our benchmark results show that the $\eta$-basis and $\xi$-basis can substitute for the power(ful) and CRT bases of cyclotomic rings well, and indicate that our subring homomorphic encryption scheme is several times faster than HElib for mod-p plaintexts, due to its high parallelism of mod- $p^{l}$ slot structure.

Organization. In Section 2 we prepare notions and tools needed for our work, especially for cyclotomic ring. Section 3 investigates structure and properties of the decomposition ring, and gives its $\eta$-basis and $\xi$-basis as well as quasi-linear time conversion between them. In Section 4 we state a variant of the Ring-LWE problem over the decomposition ring and construct our subring homomorphic encryption scheme over the decomposition ring. Finally, Section 5 shows our benchmark results, comparing efficiency of our implementation of subring homomorphic encryption scheme and HElib.

## 2 Preliminaries

Notation. $\mathbb{Z}$ denotes the ring of integers and $\mathbb{Q}$ denotes the field of rational numbers. $\mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbb{C}$ denotes the field of real and complex numbers, respectively. For a positive integer $m, \mathbb{Z}_{m}$ denotes the ring of congruent numbers $\bmod m$, and $\mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}$ denotes its multiplicative subgroup. For an integer $a$ (that is prime to $m$ ) $\operatorname{ord}_{m}^{\times}(a)$ denotes the order of $a \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}$. For complex number $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}, \bar{\alpha}$ denotes its complex conjugate. Basically vectors are supposed to represent column vectors. The symbol $\overrightarrow{1}$ denotes a column vector with all entries equal to $1 . I_{n}$ denotes the $n \times n$ identity matrix. $\operatorname{Diag}\left(\alpha_{1}, \cdots, \alpha_{n}\right)$ means a diagonal matrix with diagonals $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}$. For vectors $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ (or $\in \mathbb{C}^{n}$ ), $\langle\vec{x}, \vec{y}\rangle=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} y_{i}$ (or $=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \bar{y}_{i}$ ) denotes the inner product of $\vec{x}$ and $\vec{y} .\|\vec{x}\|_{2}=\sqrt{\langle\vec{x}, \vec{x}\rangle}$ denotes the $l_{2}$-norm of vector $\vec{x}$ and $\|\vec{x}\|_{\infty}=\max _{i=1}^{n}\left\{\left|x_{i}\right|\right\}$ denotes the infinity norm of $\vec{x}$. For vectors $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}, \vec{a} \odot \vec{b}=\left(a_{i} b_{i}\right)_{i}$ denotes component-wise product of $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$.

For square matrix $M$ over $\mathbb{R}, s_{1}(M)$ denotes the largest singular value of $M$. For matrix $A$ over $\mathbb{C}, A^{*}=\bar{A}^{T}$ denotes the transpose of complex conjugate of $A$.

### 2.1 Homomorphic encryption

A homomorphic encryption scheme is a quadruple $\mathrm{HE}=$ (Gen, Encrypt, Decrypt, Evaluate) of probabilistic polynomial time algorithms. Gen generates a public key pk, a secret key sk and an evaluation key evk: $(\mathrm{pk}, \mathrm{sk}, \mathrm{evk}) \leftarrow \mathrm{Gen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$. Encrypt encrypts a plaintext $x \in \mathrm{X}$ to a ciphertext $c$ under a public key pk: $c \leftarrow \operatorname{Encrypt}(\mathrm{pk}, x)$. Decrypt decrypts a ciphertext $c$ to a plaintext $x$ using the secret key sk: $x \leftarrow \operatorname{Decrypt(sk,c)}$. Evaluate applies a function $f: \mathrm{X}^{l} \rightarrow \mathrm{X}$ (given as an arithmetic circuit) to ciphertexts $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{l}$ and outputs a new ciphertext $c_{f}$ using the evaluation key evk: $c_{f} \leftarrow$ Evaluate(evk, $\left.f, c_{1}, \ldots, c_{l}\right)$.

A homomorphic encryption scheme HE is L-homomorphic for $L=L(\lambda)$ if for any function $f: \mathrm{X}^{l} \rightarrow \mathrm{X}$ given as an arithmetic circuit of depth $L$ and for any $l$ plaintext $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{l} \in \mathrm{X}$, it holds that

$$
\operatorname{Decrypt}_{\text {sk }}\left(\text { Evaluate }_{\text {evk }}\left(f, c_{1}, \ldots, c_{l}\right)\right)=f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{l}\right)
$$

for $c_{i} \leftarrow \operatorname{Encrypt}_{\mathrm{pk}}\left(x_{i}\right)(i=1, \ldots, l)$ except with a negligible probability (i.e., $\operatorname{Decrypt}_{\mathrm{sk}}$ is ring homomorphic). A homomorphic encryption scheme is called fully homomorphic if it is $L$-homomorphic for any polynomial function $L=\operatorname{poly}(\lambda)$.

### 2.2 Gaussian distribution and subgaussian random variables

For $s>0$, the $n$-dimensional (spherical) Gaussian function $\rho_{s}: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow(0,1]$ is defined as

$$
\rho_{s}(x)=\exp \left(-\pi\|x\|_{2} / s^{2}\right) .
$$

It defines the continuous Gaussian distribution $D_{s}$ with density $s^{-n} \rho_{s}(x)$.
A random variable $X$ over $\mathbb{R}$ is called subgaussian with parameter $s(>0)$ if

$$
\mathbb{E}[\exp (2 \pi t X)] \leq \exp \left(\pi s^{2} t^{2}\right) \quad(\forall t \in \mathbb{R})
$$

A random variable $X$ over $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is called subgaussian with parameter $s$ if $\langle X, u\rangle$ is subgaussian with parameter $s$ for any unit vector $u \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$. A random variable $X$ according to Gaussian distribution $D_{s}$ is subgaussian with parameter $s$. A bounded random variable $X($ as $|X| \leq B)$ with $\mathbb{E}[X]=0$ is subgaussian with parameter $B \sqrt{2 \pi}$.

A subgaussian random variable with parameter $s$ satisfies the tail inequality:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}[|X| \geq t] \leq 2 \exp \left(-\pi \frac{t^{2}}{s^{2}}\right) \quad(\forall t \geq 0) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 2.3 Lattices

For $n$ linearly independent vectors $B=\left\{b_{j}\right\}_{j=1}^{n} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}, \Lambda=\mathcal{L}(B)=\left\{\sum_{j=1}^{n} z_{j} b_{j} \mid z_{j} \in \mathbb{Z}(\forall j)\right\}$ is called an $n$-dimensional lattice.

For a lattice $\Lambda \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$, its dual lattice is defined by

$$
\Lambda^{\vee}=\left\{y \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid\langle x, \bar{y}\rangle \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}
$$

The dual lattice is itself a lattice. The dual of dual lattice is equal to the original lattice: $\left(\Lambda^{\vee}\right)^{\vee}=\Lambda$.

For a countable subset $A \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$, the sum $D_{s}(A) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \sum_{x \in A} D_{s}(x)$ is well-defined. The discrete Gaussian distribution $D_{\Lambda+c, s}$ on (cosets of) lattice $\Lambda$ is defined by restricting the continuous Gaussian distribution on (cosets of) lattice $\Lambda$ :

$$
D_{\Lambda+c, s}(x) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \frac{D_{s}(x)}{D_{s}(\Lambda+c)} \quad(x \in \Lambda+c) .
$$

### 2.4 Number Fields

A complex number $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ is called an algebraic number if it satisfies $f(\alpha)=0$ for some nonzero polynomial $f(X) \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ over $\mathbb{Q}$. For an algebraic number $\alpha$, the monic and irreducible polynomial $f(X)$ satisfying $f(\alpha)=0$ is uniquely determined and called the minimum polynomial of $\alpha$. An algebraic number $\alpha$ generates a number filed $K=\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ over $\mathbb{Q}$, which is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Q}[X] /(f(X))$, via $g(\alpha) \mapsto g(X)$. The dimension of $K$ as a $\mathbb{Q}$-vector space is called the degree of $K$ and denoted as $[K: \mathbb{Q}]$. By the isomorphism, $[K: \mathbb{Q}]=\operatorname{deg} f$.

An algebraic number $\alpha$ is called an algebraic integer if its minimum polynomial belongs to $\mathbb{Z}[X]$. All algebraic integers belonging to a number field $K=\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ constitutes a ring $R$, called an integer ring of $K$.

A number field $K=\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ has $n(=[K: \mathbb{Q}])$ isomorphisms $\rho_{i}(i=1, \ldots, n)$ into the complex number field $\mathbb{C}$. The trace map $\operatorname{Tr}_{K \mid \mathbb{Q}}: K \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ is defined by $\operatorname{Tr}_{K \mid \mathbb{Q}}(a)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \rho_{i}(a)(\in \mathbb{Q})$. If all of the isomorphisms $\rho_{i}$ induce automorphisms of $K$ (i.e., $\rho_{i}(K)=K$ for any $i$ ), the filed $K$ is called a Galois extension of $\mathbb{Q}$ and the set of isomorphisms $\operatorname{Gal}(K \mid \mathbb{Q}) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left\{\rho_{1}, \ldots, \rho_{n}\right\}$ constitutes a group, called the Galois group of $K$ over $\mathbb{Q}$. By the Galois theory, all subfields $L$ of $K$ and all subgroups $H$ of $G=\operatorname{Gal}(K \mid \mathbb{Q})$ corresponds to each other one-to-one:

$$
\begin{aligned}
L \mapsto & H=G_{L}=\{\rho \in G \mid \rho(a)=a \text { for any } a \in L\} \\
& \text { : the stabilizer group of } L \\
H & \mapsto
\end{aligned}=K^{H}=\{a \in K \mid \rho(a)=a \text { for any } \rho \in H\},
$$

: the fixed field by $H$.
Here, $K$ is also a Galois extension of $L$ with Galois group $\operatorname{Gal}(K \mid L)=H$ (since any isomorphism (of $K$ into $\mathbb{C}$ ) that fixes $L$ sends $K$ to $K$ ). Especially, $[K: L]=|H|$. The trace map of $K$ over $L$ is defined by $\operatorname{Tr}_{K \mid L}(a)=\sum_{\rho \in H} \rho(a)(\in L)$ for $a \in K$.

### 2.5 Cyclotomic Fields and Rings

Let $m$ be a positive integer. A primitive $m$-th root of unity $\zeta=\exp (2 \pi \sqrt{-1} / m)$ has the minimum polynomial $\Phi_{m}(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ of degree $n=\phi(m)$, called cyclotomic polynomial. So, $\zeta$ is an algebraic integer. A number field $K=\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ generated by $\zeta$ is called the $m$-th cyclotomic field and its elements are called cyclotomic numbers. The integer ring $R$ of the cyclotomic field $K=\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ is known to be $R=\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]=\mathbb{Z}[X] / \Phi_{m}(X)$. Especially, as a $\mathbb{Z}$-module, $R$ has a basis (called power basis) $\left\{1, \zeta, \ldots, \zeta^{n-1}\right\}$, i.e., $R=\mathbb{Z} \cdot 1+\mathbb{Z} \cdot \zeta+\cdots+\mathbb{Z} \cdot \zeta^{n-1}$. The integer ring $R$ is called the $m$-th cyclotomic ring and its elements are called cyclotomic integers. For positive integer $q, R_{q}=R / q R=\mathbb{Z}_{q}[X] / \Phi_{m}(X)$ is a ring of cyclotomic integers mod $q$.

The cyclotomic field $K=\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ is a Galois extension over $\mathbb{Q}$ since it has $n=[K: Q]$ automorphisms $\rho_{i}$ defined by $\rho_{i}(\zeta)=\zeta^{i}$ for $i \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}$. Its Galois $\operatorname{group} G=\operatorname{Gal}(K \mid \mathbb{Q})$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}$ by corresponding $\rho_{i}$ to $i$. Note that $\rho_{i}(\bar{b})=\overline{\rho_{i}(b)}$, since $\bar{a}=\rho_{-1}(a)$.

The trace of $\zeta$ for prime index $m$ is simple:

Lemma 1 If the index $m$ is prime, we have

$$
\operatorname{Tr}_{K \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\zeta^{i}\right)= \begin{cases}m-1 & (i \equiv 0 \\ -1 & (i \neq 0 \\ (\bmod m)) \\ (\bmod m))\end{cases}
$$

### 2.5.1 $\quad$ Structure of $R_{p}$

Let $p$ be a prime that does not divide $m$. Although the cyclotomic polynomial $\Phi_{m}(X)$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}$, by taking $\bmod p$, it will be factored into product of several polynomials $F_{i}(X)$ 's:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{m}(X) \equiv F_{0}(X) \cdots F_{g-1}(X) \quad(\bmod p), \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where all of $F_{i}(X)$ are irreducible $\bmod p$, and have the same degree $d=\operatorname{ord}_{m}^{\times}(p)$ which is a divisor of $n$. The number of factors is equal to $g=n / d$.

It is known that there are $g$ prime ideals $\mathfrak{P}_{0}, \ldots, \mathfrak{P}_{g-1}$ of $R$ laying over $p$ :

$$
\mathfrak{P}_{i} \cap \mathbb{Z}=p \mathbb{Z} \quad(i=0, \ldots, g-1)
$$

and $p$ will decompose into product of those prime ideals in $R$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
p R=\mathfrak{P}_{0} \cdots \mathfrak{P}_{g-1} . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

This decomposition of $p$ reflects the factorization of $\Phi_{m}(X) \bmod p(E q(3))$. In fact, each prime factor $\mathfrak{P}_{i}$ is generated by $p$ and $F_{i}(\zeta)$ as ideals of $R, \mathfrak{P}_{i}=\left(p, F_{i}(\zeta)\right)$ for $i=0, \ldots, g-1$. The corresponding residual fields are given by

$$
R / \mathfrak{P}_{i} \simeq \mathbb{Z}_{p}[X] / F_{i}(X) \simeq \operatorname{GF}\left(p^{d}\right)
$$

for $i=0, \ldots, g-1$. Thus, we have

$$
R_{p} \simeq R / \mathfrak{P}_{0} \oplus \cdots \oplus R / \mathfrak{P}_{g-1} \simeq \mathrm{GF}\left(p^{d}\right) \oplus \cdots \oplus \operatorname{GF}\left(p^{d}\right) .
$$

In the Ring-HE schemes such as [1, 2, 4], plaintexts are encoded by cyclotomic integers $x \in R_{p}$ modulo some small prime $p(/ / m)$. By the factorization of $R_{p}$ above, $g$ plaintexts $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{g-1}$ belonging to $\mathrm{GF}\left(p^{d}\right)$ are encoded into a single cyclotomic integer $x \in R_{p}$. The place of each plaintext $x_{i} \in \mathrm{GF}\left(p^{d}\right)$ is called a plaintext slot. Thus, in the Ring-HE schemes, one can encrypt $g$ plaintexts into a single ciphertext by setting them on corresponding plaintext slots and can evaluate or decrypt the $g$ encrypted plaintexts at the same time using arithmetic of cyclotomic integers [13]. Gentry, Halevi, and Smart [6] homomorphically evaluates AES circuit on HE-encrypted AES-ciphertexts in the SIMD manner, using such plaintext slot structure for $p=2$, which is fit to the underlying GF $\left(2^{d}\right)$-arithmetic of AES cipher.

### 2.5.2 Geometry of numbers

Using the automorphisms $\rho_{i}\left(i \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}\right)$, the cyclotomic field $K$ is embedded into $n$-dimensional vector space $\mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}}$ by canonical embedding $\sigma: K \rightarrow H\left(\subset \mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}}\right)$ defined by

$$
\sigma(a)=\left(\rho_{i}(a)\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}} .
$$

Here, the image $\sigma(K)$ is contained in space $H$ defined by

$$
H \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left\{x \in \mathbb{C}_{m}^{\mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}}: x_{i}=\bar{x}_{m-i} \quad\left(\forall i \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}\right)\right\}
$$

where since $H=B \mathbb{R}^{n}$ with unitary matrix $B=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\begin{array}{cc}I & \sqrt{-1} J \\ J & -\sqrt{-1} I\end{array}\right)$, $H$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ as an inner product $\mathbb{R}$-space (where $J$ is the reversal matrix of the identity matrix $I$ ).

By the canonical embedding $\sigma$, we can regard $R$ (or (fractional) ideals of $R$ ) as lattices in the $n$-dimensional real vector space $H$, called ideal lattices. Inner products or norms of elements $a \in K$ are defined through the embedding $\sigma$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
\langle a, b\rangle \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\langle\sigma(a), \sigma(b)\rangle=\operatorname{Tr}_{K \mid \mathbb{Q}}(a \bar{b}) \\
\|a\|_{2} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\|\sigma(a)\|_{2},\|a\|_{\infty} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\|\sigma(a)\|_{\infty} .
\end{gathered}
$$

## 3 Decomposition Ring and Its Properties

To realize plaintext structure composed of slots of mod- $p^{l}$ integers for some small prime $p$, we use decomposition ring $R_{Z}$ w.r.t. $p$ instead of cyclotomic ring $R$.

### 3.1 Decomposition Field

Let $G=\operatorname{Gal}(K \mid \mathbb{Q})$ be the Galois group of the $m$-th cyclotomic field $K=\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ over $\mathbb{Q}$. Let $p$ be a prime that does not divide $m$. Recall such $p$ has the prime ideal decomposition of Eq (4). The decomposition group $G_{Z}$ of $K$ w.r.t. $p$ is the subgroup of $G$ defined as

$$
G_{Z} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left\{\rho \in G \mid \mathfrak{P}_{i}^{\rho}=\mathfrak{P}_{i}(i=0, \ldots, g-1)\right\} .
$$

That is, $G_{Z}$ is the subgroup of automorphisms $\rho$ of $K$ that stabilize each prime ideal $\mathfrak{P}_{i}$ laying over $p$. Recall the Galois group $G=\operatorname{Gal}(K \mid \mathbb{Q})$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}$ via $\rho^{-1}$. Since $p$ does not divide $m, p \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}$. It is known that the decomposition group $G_{Z}$ is generated by the automorphism $\rho_{p}$ corresponding to the prime $p$, called the Frobenius map w.r.t. $p$ :

$$
G_{Z}=\left\langle\rho_{p}\right\rangle \simeq\langle p\rangle \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*} .
$$

The order of $G_{Z}$ is equal to $d=\operatorname{ord}_{m}^{\times}(p)$. The fixed field $Z=K^{G_{Z}}$ by $G_{Z}$ is called the decomposition field of $K$ (w.r.t. p). By the Galois theory, $G_{Z}=\operatorname{Gal}(K \mid Z)$. For degrees, we have

$$
[K: Z]=\left|G_{Z}\right|=d,[Z: \mathbb{Q}]=n / d=g .
$$

The decomposition field $Z$ is itself the Galois extension of $\mathbb{Q}$ and its $\operatorname{Galois} \operatorname{group} \operatorname{Gal}(Z \mid \mathbb{Q})=$ $G / G_{Z}$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Gal}(Z \mid \mathbb{Q}) \simeq \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*} /\langle p\rangle \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 3.2 Decomposition Ring

The integer ring $R_{Z}=R \cap Z$ of $Z$ is called decomposition ring. The primes ideals over $p$ in the decomposition ring $R_{Z}$ are given by $\mathfrak{p}_{i}=\mathfrak{P}_{i} \cap Z$ for $i=0, \ldots, g-1$, and the prime $p$ factors into the product of those prime ideals:

$$
\begin{equation*}
p R_{Z}=\mathfrak{p}_{0} \cdots \mathfrak{p}_{g-1} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

This leads to the decomposition of $\left(R_{Z}\right)_{p}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(R_{Z}\right)_{p} \simeq R_{Z} / \mathfrak{p}_{0} \oplus \cdots \oplus R_{Z} / \mathfrak{p}_{g-1} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

For each prime ideal $\mathfrak{P}_{i}$ (of $R$ ) laying over $\mathfrak{p}_{i}$, the Frobenius map $\rho_{p}$ acts as the $p$-th power automorphism $\operatorname{pow}_{p}(x)=x^{p}$ on $R / \mathfrak{P}_{i}$ :


Then, by definition of $R_{Z}=R^{\left\langle\rho_{p}\right\rangle}$, any element in $R_{Z} / \mathfrak{p}_{i}$ must be fixed by pow ${ }_{p}$, which means:

$$
R_{Z} / \mathfrak{p}_{i}=\left(R / \mathfrak{P}_{i}\right)^{\left\langle\operatorname{pow}_{p}\right\rangle}=\mathbb{Z}_{p} .
$$

Thus, we see that all slots of $\left(R_{Z}\right)_{p}$ must be one-dimensional:

$$
\left(R_{Z}\right)_{p} \simeq \mathbb{Z}_{p} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p}
$$

By applying the Hensel lifting (w.r.t. $p$ ) $l$ times to the situation, we get

$$
\begin{gather*}
q R_{Z}=\mathfrak{q}_{0} \cdots \mathfrak{q}_{g-1}  \tag{8}\\
\left(R_{Z}\right)_{q} \simeq \mathbb{Z}_{q} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{q} \tag{9}
\end{gather*}
$$

for $q=p^{l}$ with any positive integer $l$. This structure of the decomposition ring $\left(R_{Z}\right)_{q}$ brings us the plaintext structure of our subring homomorphic encryption scheme, being composed of $g$ mod- $q$ slots.

### 3.3 Bases of the decomposition ring $R_{Z}$

To construct homomorphic encryption schemes using some ring $R$, we will need two types of bases of the ring $R$ over $\mathbb{Z}$, one for decoding elements in $R \otimes \mathbb{R}$ into its nearest element in $R$, and one that enables FFT-like fast computations among elements in $R$. In addition, we also need some quasi-linear time transformations among vector representations with respect to the two types of bases. Here, assuming the index $m$ of cyclotomic ring $R$ is prime, we construct such two types of bases for the decomposition ring $R_{Z}$, following the cyclotomic ring case given by Lyubashevsky, Peikert and Regev [12].

### 3.3.1 The $\eta$-basis

Let $m$ be a prime and $K=\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ be the $m$-th cyclotomic field. For prime $p(\neq m)$, let $Z$ be the decomposition field of $K$ with respect to $p$.

Fix any set of representatives $\left\{t_{0}, \ldots, t_{g-1}\right\}$ of $\mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*} /\langle p\rangle \simeq \operatorname{Gal}(Z \mid \mathbb{Q})$. For $i=0, \ldots, g-1$, define

$$
\eta_{i} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \operatorname{Tr}_{K \mid Z}\left(\zeta^{t_{i}}\right)=\sum_{a \in\langle p\rangle} \zeta^{t_{i} a}\left(\in R_{Z}\right)
$$

Lemma 2 For $i=0, \ldots, g-1$, we have

$$
\operatorname{Tr}_{Z \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\eta_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{g-1} \eta_{i}=-1, \operatorname{Tr}_{Z \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\bar{\eta}_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{g-1} \bar{\eta}_{i}=-1 .
$$

Proof $\operatorname{Tr}_{Z \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\eta_{i}\right)=\operatorname{Tr}_{Z \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\operatorname{Tr}_{K \mid Z}\left(\zeta^{t_{i}}\right)\right)=\operatorname{Tr}_{K \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\zeta^{t_{i}}\right)$. So, by Lemma 1, $\operatorname{Tr}_{Z \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\eta_{i}\right)=-1$ for any i. Similarly, $\operatorname{Tr}_{Z \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\bar{\eta}_{i}\right)=\operatorname{Tr}_{Z \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\operatorname{Tr}_{K \mid Z}\left(\zeta^{-t_{i}}\right)\right)=\operatorname{Tr}_{K \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\zeta^{-t_{i}}\right)=-1$.

Lemma 3 For prime index $m$, the set $\left\{\eta_{0}, \ldots, \eta_{g-1}\right\}$ is a basis of the decomposition ring $R_{Z}$ (w.r.t. $p(\neq m)$ ) over $\mathbb{Z}$, i.e., $R_{Z}=\mathbb{Z} \eta_{0}+\cdots+\mathbb{Z} \eta_{g-1}$.

Proof Since the index $m$ is prime, the cyclotomic ring $R$ has a basis $B=\left\{1, \zeta, \ldots, \zeta^{m-2}\right\}$ over $\mathbb{Z}$. Since $\zeta$ is a unit of $R, B^{\prime}:=\zeta B=\left\{\zeta, \zeta^{2}, \ldots, \zeta^{m-1}\right\}$ is also a basis of $R$ over $\mathbb{Z}$. The fixing group $G_{Z}=\left\langle\rho_{p}\right\rangle$ of $Z$ acts on $B^{\prime}$ and decomposes it into $g$ orbits $\zeta^{t_{i}\langle p\rangle}=\left\{\zeta^{t_{i}}, \zeta^{t_{i} p}, \ldots, \zeta^{t_{i} p^{d-1}}\right\}$ $(i=0, \ldots, g-1)$. An element $z=\sum_{i=1}^{m-1} z_{i} \zeta^{i} \in R_{Z}$ that is stable under the action of $G_{Z}$ must have constant integer coefficients over the each orbits $\zeta^{t_{i}\langle p\rangle}$. Hence, $z$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$-linear combination of $\left\{\eta_{1}, \ldots, \eta_{g}\right\}$

Definition 1 We call the basis $\vec{\eta}:=\left(\eta_{0}, \ldots, \eta_{g-1}\right) \eta$-basis of $R_{Z}$. For any $a \in R_{Z}$, there exists unique $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{Z}^{g}$ satisfying $a=\vec{\eta}^{T} \vec{a}$. We call such $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{Z}^{g} \eta$-vector of $a \in R_{Z}$.

### 3.3.2 The $\xi$-basis

By the choice of $t_{i}$ 's, the Galois group $\operatorname{Gal}(Z \mid \mathbb{Q})$ of $Z$ is given by

$$
\operatorname{Gal}(Z \mid \mathbb{Q})=\left\{\rho_{t_{0}}, \ldots, \rho_{t_{g-1}}\right\} .
$$

Elements $a \in Z$ in the decomposition field are regarded as $g$-dimensional $\mathbb{R}$-vectors through the canonical embedding $\sigma_{Z}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma_{Z}: Z & \rightarrow H_{Z}\left(\subset \mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}} /\langle p\rangle\right) \\
\sigma_{Z}(a) & =\left(\rho_{i}(a)\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*} /\langle p\rangle}
\end{aligned}
$$

Here, the image $\sigma_{Z}(Z)$ is contained in the $g$-dimensional $\mathbb{R}$-subspace $H_{Z}$ defined by

$$
H_{Z} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left\{x \in \mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}} /\langle p\rangle: x_{i}=\bar{x}_{m-i} \quad\left(\forall i \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*} /\langle p\rangle\right)\right\} .
$$

Define a $g \times g$ matrix $\Omega_{Z}$ over $R_{Z}$ as

$$
\Omega_{Z}=\left(\rho_{t_{i}}\left(\eta_{j}\right)\right)_{0 \leq i, j<g}\left(\in R_{Z}^{g \times g}\right)
$$

Note that each column of $\Omega_{Z}$ is the canonical embedding $\sigma_{Z}\left(\eta_{j}\right)$ of $\eta_{j}$. Since the index $m$ is prime, the Galois group $\operatorname{Gal}(Z \mid \mathbb{Q})$ is cyclic and we can take the representatives $\left\{t_{0}, \ldots, t_{g-1}\right\}$ so that $t_{j} \equiv t^{j}(\bmod \langle p\rangle)$ for $j=0, \ldots, g-1$. Setting $\eta=\operatorname{Tr}_{K \mid Z}(\zeta)$, for any $i$ and $j$,

$$
\rho_{t_{i}}\left(\eta_{j}\right)=\rho_{t_{i}}\left(\rho_{t_{j}}(\eta)\right)=\rho_{t_{i} \cdot t_{j}}(\eta)=\rho_{t_{i+j}}(\eta)=\eta_{i+j} .
$$

In particular, $\Omega_{Z}$ is symmetric.
Lemma 4 The matrix $\Omega_{Z}$ satisfies that

$$
\Omega_{Z}^{*} \Omega_{Z}=\left(\operatorname{Tr}_{Z \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\bar{\eta}_{i} \eta_{j}\right)\right)_{0 \leq i, j<g}=m I_{g}-d \overrightarrow{1} \cdot \overrightarrow{1}^{T}\left(\in \mathbb{Z}^{g \times g}\right) .
$$

Proof For $0 \leq i, j<g$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\bar{\eta}_{i} \eta_{j} & =\left(\sum_{a \in\langle p\rangle} \zeta^{-a t_{i}}\right)\left(\sum_{b \in\langle p\rangle} \zeta^{b t_{j}}\right)=\sum_{a, b \in\langle p\rangle} \zeta^{-a t_{i}+b t_{j}}=\sum_{a \in\langle p\rangle} \sum_{b \in\langle p\rangle} \rho_{a}\left(\zeta^{-t_{i}+b a^{-1} t_{j}}\right) \\
& =\sum_{a \in\langle p\rangle} \sum_{b \in\langle p\rangle} \rho_{a}\left(\zeta^{-t_{i}+b t_{j}}\right)=\sum_{b \in\langle p\rangle} \operatorname{Tr}_{K \mid Z}\left(\zeta^{-t_{i}+b t_{j}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Here, Suppose $i \neq j$. Then, $-t_{i}+b t_{j} \not \equiv 0(\bmod m)$ for any $b \in\langle p\rangle$. Hence, by Lemma 1 ,

$$
\operatorname{Tr}_{Z \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\bar{\eta}_{i} \eta_{j}\right)=\sum_{b \in\langle p\rangle} \operatorname{Tr}_{K \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\zeta^{-t_{i}+b t_{j}}\right)=|\langle p\rangle| \cdot(-1)=-d .
$$

If $i=j$, since $\operatorname{Tr}_{K \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\zeta^{-t_{i}+b t_{i}}\right)=m-1$ only if $b=1$ and -1 otherwise by Lemma 1 ,

$$
\operatorname{Tr}_{Z \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\bar{\eta}_{i} \eta_{i}\right)=\sum_{b \in\langle p\rangle} \operatorname{Tr}_{K \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\zeta^{-t_{i}+b t_{i}}\right)=m-1+(d-1) \cdot(-1)=m-d
$$

Corollary 1 The set $\left\{m^{-1}\left(\eta_{0}-d\right), \cdots, m^{-1}\left(\eta_{g-1}-d\right)\right\}$ is the dual basis of conjugate $\eta$-basis $\left\{\overline{\eta_{0}}, \cdots, \overline{\eta_{g-1}}\right\}$, i.e. for any $0 \leq i, j<g$,

$$
\operatorname{Tr}_{Z \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\frac{\eta_{i}-d}{m} \cdot \overline{\eta_{j}}\right)=\delta_{i j} .
$$

In particular, $R_{Z}^{\vee}=\mathbb{Z} \frac{\eta_{0}-d}{m}+\cdots+\mathbb{Z} \frac{\eta_{g-1}-d}{m}$.
Proof For any $i$, by Lemma 2 and 4 we have

$$
\operatorname{Tr}_{Z \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\frac{\eta_{i}-d}{m} \cdot \overline{\eta_{i}}\right)=\frac{1}{m}(m-d)-\frac{d}{m} \cdot(-1)=1 .
$$

Similarly, for any $i \neq j$ we have

$$
\operatorname{Tr}_{Z \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\frac{\eta_{i}-d}{m} \cdot \overline{\eta_{j}}\right)=\frac{-d}{m}-\frac{d}{m} \cdot(-1)=0
$$

Define a $g \times g$ matrix $\Gamma_{Z}$ over $Z$ as

$$
\Gamma_{Z}=\left(\rho_{t_{i}}\left(\frac{\overline{\eta_{j}}-d}{m}\right)\right)_{0 \leq i, j<g}\left(\in Z^{g \times g}\right) .
$$

Corollary 1 means that $\bar{\Gamma}_{Z}^{T} \bar{\Omega}_{Z}=I$. Since $\Omega_{Z}$ is symmetric,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Gamma_{Z} \Omega_{Z}=\Omega_{Z} \Gamma_{Z}=I \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 5 For any $\vec{b}=\Omega_{Z} \vec{a}$, we have

$$
\vec{a}=\Gamma_{Z} \vec{b}=\frac{1}{m}\left(\bar{\Omega}_{Z} \vec{b}-d\left(\sum_{j} b_{j}\right) \cdot \overrightarrow{1}\right) .
$$

## Proof

$$
\begin{aligned}
\vec{a} & =\Gamma_{Z} \vec{b}=\left(\rho_{t_{i}}\left(\frac{\bar{\eta}_{j}-d}{m}\right)\right)_{i j} \vec{b}=\left(\frac{1}{m} \sum_{j} \rho_{t_{i}}\left(\bar{\eta}_{j}-d\right) b_{j}\right)_{i} \\
& =\frac{1}{m}\left(\sum_{j} \rho_{t_{i}}\left(\bar{\eta}_{j}\right) b_{j}-d \sum_{j} b_{j}\right)_{i}=\frac{1}{m}\left(\bar{\Omega}_{Z} \vec{b}-d\left(\sum_{j} b_{j}\right) \cdot \overrightarrow{1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $r$ be a positive integer and $q=p^{r}$. Let $\mathfrak{q}=\mathfrak{q}_{0}$ be the first ideal that appears in the factorization of $q R_{Z}(\mathrm{Eq}(8))$. Recall that $R_{Z} / \mathfrak{q} \simeq \mathbb{Z}_{q}$.

Let

$$
\Omega_{Z}^{(q)} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \Omega_{Z} \bmod \mathfrak{q}\left(\in\left(R_{Z}\right)_{\mathfrak{q}}^{g \times g} \simeq \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{g \times g}\right)
$$

Since $p \nmid m, \Gamma_{Z} \bmod \mathfrak{q}$ is well-defined and by $\operatorname{Eq}(10), \Omega_{Z}^{(q)}$ is invertible $\bmod \mathfrak{q}$.
Definition 2 Define $\vec{\xi}=\left(\xi_{0}, \ldots, \xi_{g-1}\right) \in\left(R_{Z}\right)_{q}^{g}$ by

$$
\vec{\eta}^{T} \equiv \vec{\xi}^{T} \Omega_{Z}^{(q)} \quad(\bmod \mathfrak{q})
$$

We call the basis $\vec{\xi}$ of $\left(R_{Z}\right)_{\mathfrak{q}}$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{q} \xi$-basis of $R_{Z}$ (with respect to $\mathfrak{q}$ ). For any $a \in\left(R_{Z}\right)_{\mathfrak{q}}$, there exists unique $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{g}$ satisfying that $a=\vec{\xi}^{T} \vec{b}$. We call such $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{g}$ as $\xi$-vector of $a \in\left(R_{Z}\right)_{q}$.

Lemma 6 For any element $a \in R_{Z}$ it holds that

$$
\begin{gathered}
a \equiv \vec{\eta}^{T} \cdot \vec{a} \Leftrightarrow a \equiv \vec{\xi}^{T} \cdot\left(\Omega_{Z}^{(q)} \cdot \vec{a}\right) \quad(\bmod \mathfrak{q}) \\
a=\vec{\eta}^{T} \cdot \vec{a} \Leftrightarrow \sigma_{Z}(a)=\Omega_{Z} \vec{a} \\
a \equiv \vec{\xi}^{T} \cdot \vec{b} \quad(\bmod \mathfrak{q}) \Leftrightarrow \sigma_{Z}(a) \equiv \vec{b} \quad(\bmod \mathfrak{q})
\end{gathered}
$$

Proof The first claim is definition of $\vec{\xi}$.
Since $\Omega_{Z}=\left(\sigma_{Z}\left(\eta_{j}\right)\right)_{0 \leq j<g}, a=\vec{\eta}^{T} \cdot \vec{a}$ if and only if $\sigma_{Z}(a)=\Omega_{Z} \vec{a}$.
Next,

$$
\begin{aligned}
a=\vec{\xi}^{T} \cdot \vec{b} & \Leftrightarrow a \equiv \vec{\eta}^{T}\left(\Omega_{Z}^{(q)}\right)^{-1} \cdot \vec{b} \quad(\bmod \mathfrak{q}) \\
& \Leftrightarrow \sigma_{Z}(a) \equiv \Omega_{Z}\left(\Omega_{Z}^{(q)}\right)^{-1} \cdot \vec{b} \equiv \vec{b} \quad(\bmod \mathfrak{q})
\end{aligned}
$$

The $\xi$-vector is convenient for multiplication.
Lemma 7 If $a_{1}=\vec{\xi}^{T} \cdot \vec{b}_{1}$ and $a_{2}=\vec{\xi}^{T} \cdot \vec{b}_{2}$, then $a_{1} a_{2}=\vec{\xi}^{T} \cdot\left(\vec{b}_{1} \odot \vec{b}_{2}\right)$.
Proof $\sigma_{Z}\left(a_{1} a_{2}\right)=\sigma_{Z}\left(a_{1}\right) \odot \sigma_{Z}\left(a_{2}\right)=\vec{b}_{1} \odot \vec{b}_{2}$

### 3.4 Conversion between $\eta$ - and $\xi$-vectors

### 3.4.1 Resolution of unity in $R_{Z} \bmod \mathfrak{q}$

By Hensel lifting the factorization of $\Phi_{m}(X) \bmod p(\mathrm{Eq}(3))$ to modulus $q=p^{r}$, we get factorization of $\Phi_{m}(X) \bmod q$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{m}(X) \equiv \bar{F}_{0}(X) \cdots \bar{F}_{g-1}(X) \quad(\bmod q) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, note that the number $g$ of irreducible factors and the degree $d$ of each factors remain unchanged in the lifting. According to this factorization, the ideal $q R$ of $R$ is factored as

$$
\begin{equation*}
q R=\mathfrak{Q}_{0} \cdots \mathfrak{Q}_{g-1} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

with ideals $\mathfrak{Q}_{i}=\left(q, \bar{F}_{i}(\zeta)\right)$ of $R$.
For each $i=0, \ldots, g-1$, let

$$
\begin{gathered}
G_{i}(X)=\prod_{j \neq i} \bar{F}_{j}(X) \quad(\bmod q) \\
P_{i}(X)=\left(G_{i}(X)^{-1} \bmod \left(q, \bar{F}_{i}(X)\right)\right) \cdot G_{i}(X) \quad(\bmod q) .
\end{gathered}
$$

It is verified that the set $\left\{\tau_{i}=P_{i}(\zeta)\right\}_{i=0}^{g-1}$ constitutes a resolution of unity in $R \bmod q$, i.e.

$$
\tau_{i} \equiv\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
1 & \left(\bmod \mathfrak{Q}_{i}\right) & (i=0, \ldots, g-1) \\
0 & \left(\bmod \mathfrak{Q}_{j}\right) & (j \neq i)
\end{array}\right.
$$

and it satisfies that

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\sum_{i=0}^{g-1} \tau_{i} \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod q) & \\
\tau_{i}^{2} \equiv \tau_{i}(\bmod q) & (i=0, \ldots, g-1) \\
\tau_{i} \tau_{j} \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod q) & (j \neq i) .
\end{array}
$$

By the Chinese remainder theorem, the resolution of unity $\left\{\tau_{i}\right\}_{i=0}^{g-1}$ is uniquely determined $\bmod q R$. In the following we take coefficients of each $\tau_{i}$ from $[-q / 2, q / 2)$ over the basis $B^{\prime}=\left\{\zeta, \zeta^{2}, \ldots, \zeta^{m-1}\right\}$ of $R$.

Lemma 8 Take $\left\{\tau_{i}\right\}_{i=0}^{g-1}$ as above. Then $\tau_{i} \in R_{Z}$ for any $i$, and $\left\{\tau_{i}\right\}_{i=0}^{g-1}$ is also a resolution of unity in $R_{Z}$ mod $q$.

Proof The ideal $q R_{Z}$ factors in $R_{Z}$ as

$$
q R_{Z}=\mathfrak{q}_{0} \mathfrak{q}_{1} \cdots \mathfrak{q}_{g-1}
$$

where $\mathfrak{q}_{i}=\mathfrak{Q}_{i} \cap R_{Z}$ for any $i$.
Let $\left\{\tau_{i}^{\prime}\right\}_{i=0}^{g-1}$ be a resolution of unity in $R_{Z} \bmod q$. Here, we take the coefficients of each $\tau_{i}^{\prime}$ from $[-q / 2, q / 2)$ over the $\eta$-basis $\left\{\eta_{0}, \ldots, \eta_{g-1}\right\}$ of $R_{Z}$.

Then,

$$
\tau_{i}^{\prime} \equiv\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
1 & \left(\bmod \mathfrak{q}_{i}\right) & (i=0, \ldots, g-1) \\
0 & \left(\bmod \mathfrak{q}_{j}\right) & (j \neq i)
\end{array}\right.
$$

Since $\mathfrak{q}_{i} \subset \mathfrak{Q}_{i}$ for any $i,\left\{\tau_{i}^{\prime}\right\}_{i=0}^{g-1}$ is also a resolution of unity in $R \bmod q$. Since the coefficients of each $\tau_{i}^{\prime}$ over the $\eta$-basis are in $[-q / 2, q / 2)$, by definition of $\eta_{i}=\sum_{a \in\langle p\rangle} \zeta^{t_{i} a}$, their coefficients over the basis $B^{\prime}$ are trivially also in $[-q / 2, q / 2)$. Hence, by the uniqueness of resolution, it must be that $\tau_{i}^{\prime}=\tau_{i}$ for all $i$

Using the resolution of unity $\left\{\tau_{i}\right\}_{i=0}^{g-1}$ in $R_{Z}$, we can compute $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ satisfying $a \equiv a_{i}$ $\left(\bmod \mathfrak{q}_{i}\right)$ given $a \in R_{Z}$, as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a \bmod \mathfrak{q}_{i}=a \tau_{i} \bmod q=a_{i} \tau_{i} \bmod q \\
& \text { dividing by } \tau_{i} \\
& a_{i} .
\end{aligned}
$$

An alternative method. Computation of mod-q factorization of $\Phi_{m}(X)(\mathrm{Eq}(11))$ is resource consuming. Here is an alternative method. We start from the mod- $p$ factorization of $\Phi_{m}(X)$ (Eq (3)) also in this case. This gives us the resolution of unity $\left\{\tau_{i}^{(1)}\right\}_{i=0}^{g-1} \bmod p$. Then, we lift up the mod- $p$ resolution $\left\{\tau_{i}^{(1)}\right\}_{i=0}^{g-1}$ to mod- $q$ resolution $\left\{\tau_{i}^{(r)}\right\}_{i=0}^{g-1}$ by repeating the following procedure.

Suppose an element $x_{l}$ satisfies

$$
x_{l} \equiv\left\{\begin{array}{l}
-1 \quad\left(\bmod \mathfrak{p}_{i}^{l}\right) \\
0 \quad\left(\bmod \mathfrak{p}_{j}^{l}\right)
\end{array} \quad(j \neq i)\right.
$$

Then, as directly verified, $x_{l+1}:=\left(x_{l}+1\right)^{p}-1$ satisfies that

$$
x_{l+1} \equiv\left\{\begin{array}{l}
-1 \quad\left(\bmod \mathfrak{p}_{i}^{l+1}\right) \\
0 \quad\left(\bmod \mathfrak{p}_{j}^{l+1}\right)
\end{array} \quad(j \neq i)\right.
$$

Starting from $x_{1}=-\tau_{i}^{(1)}$, by repeating $(r-1)$ times the procedure $x_{l+1}:=\left(x_{l}+1\right)^{p}-1$, we get the mod- $q$ resolution of unity $\tau_{i}^{(r)}=-x_{r}$.

### 3.4.2 Computation of $\Omega_{Z}^{(q)}$

Now we can compute the matrix

$$
\Omega_{Z}^{(q)}=\left(\eta_{i+j} \bmod \mathfrak{q}\right)_{0 \leq i, j<g}\left(\in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{g \times g}\right)
$$

by computing the entities $\eta_{i+j}$ in $\Omega_{Z}$ as cyclotomic integers and reducing them modulo $\mathfrak{q}\left(=\mathfrak{q}_{0}\right)$ using the resolution of unity $\left\{\tau_{i}\right\}_{i=0}^{g-1}$. Since the matrix $\Omega_{Z}^{(q)}$ has cyclic structure (the $(i+1)$-th row is a left shift of the $i$-th row), it is sufficient to compute its first row. Here, we remark that once we have computed the matrix $\Omega_{Z}^{(q)}$, we can forget the original structure of cyclotomic ring $R$, and all we need is doing various computations among $\eta$ - and $\xi$-vectors (of elements in $R_{Z}$ ) with necessary conversion between them using the matrix $\Omega_{Z}^{(q)}$.

### 3.4.3 Computation of $\vec{b}=\Omega_{Z}^{(q)} \cdot \vec{a}$

To convert $\eta$-vector $\vec{a}$ of an element $a=\vec{\eta}^{T} \cdot \vec{a} \in R_{Z}$ to its corresponding $\xi$-vector $\vec{b}$ (satisfying $a=\vec{\xi}^{T} \cdot \vec{b}$ ), by Lemma 6 , we need to compute a matrix-vector product $\vec{b}=\Omega_{Z}^{(q)} \cdot \vec{a}$. By Lemma 5 , the inverse conversion from $\xi$-vector $\vec{b}$ to its corresponding $\eta$-vector $\vec{a}=\Gamma_{Z} \cdot \vec{b}$ also can be computed by a similar matrix-vector product $\bar{\Omega}_{Z}^{(q)} \cdot \vec{b}$. Here, $\bar{\Omega}_{Z}^{(q)} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \overline{\Omega_{Z}} \bmod \mathfrak{q}$.

By definition of $\Omega_{Z}^{(q)}$, the $j$-th component $b_{j}$ of the product $\vec{b}=\Omega_{Z}^{(q)} \cdot \vec{a}$ is $b_{j}=\sum_{i=0}^{g-1} a_{i} \eta_{i+j}$ (where indexes are $\bmod g$ and we omit $\bmod \mathfrak{q}$ ). This means that $\vec{b}$ is the convolution product of
vector $\vec{\eta}$ and the reversal vector $\left(a_{0}, a_{g-1}, a_{g-2}, \cdots, a_{1}\right)$ of $\vec{a}$, where $\vec{\eta}=\left(\eta_{i}\right)_{i=0}^{g-1}$ is the first row of $\Omega_{Z}^{(q)}$.

Define two polynomials over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
f(X)=\eta_{0}+\eta_{1} X+\cdots+\eta_{g-1} X^{g-1} \\
g(X)=a_{0}+a_{g-1} X+\cdots+a_{1} X^{g-1} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Since $\vec{b}$ is the convolution product of $\vec{\eta}$ and the reversal vector of $\vec{a}$, we have

$$
f(X) g(X)=b_{0}+b_{1} X+\cdots+b_{g-1} X^{g-1} \quad\left(\bmod X^{g}-1\right) .
$$

The polynomial product $f(X) g(X)\left(\bmod X^{g}-1\right)$ can be computed in quasi-linear time $\tilde{O}(g)$ using the FFT multiplication.

Thus, we know that conversions between $\eta$-vectors $\vec{a}$ and $\xi$-vectors $\vec{b}$ can be done in quasilinear time $\tilde{O}(g)$.

### 3.5 Norms on the decomposition ring

Norms of $a \in Z$ are defined by

$$
\|a\|_{2} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left\|\sigma_{Z}(a)\right\|_{2},\|a\|_{\infty} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left\|\sigma_{Z}(a)\right\|_{\infty}
$$

Lemma 9 For any $a, b \in Z$, we have

$$
\|a b\|_{\infty} \leq\|a\|_{\infty} \cdot\|b\|_{\infty} .
$$

Proof $\|a b\|_{\infty}=\left\|\sigma_{Z}(a b)\right\|_{\infty}=\left\|\sigma_{Z}(a) \odot \sigma_{Z}(b)\right\|_{\infty} \leq\left\|\sigma_{Z}(a)\right\|_{\infty} \cdot\left\|\sigma_{Z}(b)\right\|_{\infty}=\|a\|_{\infty} \cdot\|b\|_{\infty}$.
In the following, $\vec{a}$ means the $\eta$-vector of given $a=\vec{\eta}^{T} \cdot \vec{a} \in R_{Z}$.
Lemma 10 (1) For any $a \in Z,\|a\|_{2} \leq \sqrt{m}\|\vec{a}\|_{2}$.
(2) For any $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^{g},\|\vec{a}\|_{2} \leq\|a\|_{2}$.
(3) If $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^{g}$ is far from being proportional to vector $\overrightarrow{1}$ (far from constants in short), we have $\|\vec{a}\|_{2} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}}\|a\|_{2}$.

Proof (1) By Lemma $6 \sigma_{Z}(a)=\Omega_{Z} \vec{a}$ and by Lemma 4

$$
\Omega_{Z}^{*} \Omega_{Z}=m I_{g}-\overrightarrow{1} \cdot \overrightarrow{1}^{T} .
$$

The right-hand side matrix has eigenvalues $g-1$ times of $m$ and 1 with corresponding eigenvectors $(1,-1,0, \cdots, 0),(1,0,-1,0, \cdots, 0), \ldots,(1,0, \cdots, 0,-1),(1,1, \cdots, 1)$. So, the symmetric matrix $\Omega_{Z}^{*} \Omega_{Z}$ can be diagonalized to $\operatorname{Diag}(m, \cdots, m,-1)$ by an orthogonal transformation, and we have $s_{1}\left(\Omega_{Z}\right)=\sqrt{m}$. This means $\|a\|_{2} \leq \sqrt{m}\|\vec{a}\|_{2}$.
(2), (3) Conversely, $\vec{a}=\left(\Omega_{Z}\right)^{-1} \sigma_{Z}(a)=\Gamma_{Z} \sigma_{Z}(a)$. Similarly as above, the matrix $\Gamma_{Z}^{*} \Gamma_{Z}$ can be diagonalized to $\operatorname{Diag}(1 / m, \cdots, 1 / m,-1)$ by the orthogonal transformation. Hence, $s_{1}\left(\Gamma_{Z}\right)=1$ and $\|\vec{a}\|_{2} \leq\|a\|_{2}$. Since almost all of the eigenvalues of $\Gamma_{Z}^{*} \Gamma_{Z}$ are $1 / m$, except 1 for eigenvector $(1,1, \cdots, 1)$, if $\vec{a}$ is far from being proportional to the eigenvector $(1,1, \cdots, 1),\|\vec{a}\|_{2} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}}\|a\|_{2}$

Lemma 11 (1) For any $a \in Z,\|a\|_{\infty} \leq \sqrt{m g}\|\vec{a}\|_{\infty}$.
(2) For any $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^{g},\|\vec{a}\|_{\infty} \leq \sqrt{g}\|a\|_{\infty}$.
(3) If $a$ is far from constants, we have $\|\vec{a}\|_{\infty} \lesssim \sqrt{g / m}\|a\|_{\infty}$.

Proof (1) By Lemma 10-(1), $\|a\|_{\infty} \leq\|a\|_{2} \leq \sqrt{m}\|\vec{a}\|_{2} \leq \sqrt{m g}\|\vec{a}\|_{\infty}$.
(2) By Lemma 10-(2), $\|\vec{a}\|_{\infty} \leq\|\vec{a}\|_{2} \leq\|a\|_{2} \leq \sqrt{g}\|a\|_{\infty}$.
(3) By Lemma 10-(3), $\|\vec{a}\|_{\infty} \leq\|\vec{a}\|_{2} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}}\|a\|_{2} \leq \sqrt{g / m}\|a\|_{\infty} . \square$

Subgaussian elements We call a random variable $a \in Z$ subgaussian with parameter $s$ if corresponding random variable $\sigma_{Z}(a)$ on $H_{Z}$ is subgaussian with parameter $s$.

Lemma 12 (Claim 2.1, Claim 2.4 [12]) Let $a_{i}$ be independent subgaussian random variables over $Z$ with parameter $s_{i}(i=1,2)$. Then,

1. The sum $a_{1}+a_{2}$ is subgaussian with parameter $\sqrt{s_{1}^{2}+s_{2}^{2}}$.
2. For any $a_{2}$ fixed, the product $a_{1} \cdot a_{2}$ is subgaussian with parameter $\left\|a_{2}\right\|_{\infty} s_{1}$.

Lemma 13 Let $\vec{a}$ be a subgaussian random variable over $\mathbb{R}^{g}$ of parameter $s$. Then, $a=\vec{\eta}^{T} \cdot \vec{a}$ is subgaussian over $Z$ of parameter $\sqrt{m}$.

Proof By Lemma $6 \sigma_{Z}(a)=\Omega_{Z} \vec{a}$. As seen in the proof of Lemma $10, s_{1}\left(\Omega_{Z}\right)=\sqrt{m}$. Hence, $\sigma_{Z}(a)$ is subgaussian of parameter $\sqrt{m} s \square$

## 4 Subring Homomorphic Encryption

We construct subring homomorphic encryption scheme that is an HE scheme over the decomposition ring $R_{Z}$.

### 4.1 Ring-LWE Problem on the decomposition ring

For security of subring homomorphic encryption scheme, we will need hardness of a variant of the decisional Ring-LWE problem over the decomposition ring.

Let $m$ be a prime. Let $R_{Z}$ be the decomposition ring of the $m$-th cyclotomic ring $R$ with respect to some prime $p(\neq m)$. Let $q$ be a positive integer. For an element $s \in R_{Z}$ and a distribution $\chi$ over $R_{Z}$, define a distribution $A_{s, \chi}$ on $\left(R_{Z}\right)_{q} \times\left(R_{Z}\right)_{q}$ as follows. First sample $a$ uniformly from $\left(R_{Z}\right)_{q}$ and sample $e$ according to $\chi$. Then return the pair $(a, b=a s+e \bmod q)$.

Definition 3 (Decisional Ring-LWE problem on the decomposition ring) Let $q$, $\chi$ be as above. The $\mathrm{R}-\mathrm{DLWE}_{q, \chi}$ problem on the decomposition ring $R_{Z}$ asks to distinguish samples from $A_{s, \chi}$ with $s \stackrel{\mathrm{u}}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ and (the same number of) samples uniformly chosen from $\left(R_{Z}\right)_{q} \times\left(R_{Z}\right)_{q}$.

Recall the search version of Ring-LWE problem is already proved to have a quantum polynomial time reduction from the approximate shortest vector problem of ideal lattices in any number field by Lyubashevsky, Peikert, and Regev [11]. They proved equivalence between the search and the decisional versions of the Ring-LWE problems only for cyclotomic rings. The
key of their proof of equivalence is existence of prime modulus $q$ for Ring-LWE problem which totally decomposes into $n$ prime ideal factors: $q R=\mathfrak{Q}_{0} \cdots \mathfrak{Q}_{n-1}$. (Their residual fields $R / \mathfrak{Q}_{i}$ have polynomial order $q$ and we can guess the solution of the Ring-LWE problem modulo ideal $\mathfrak{Q}_{i}$, and then we can verify validity of the guess using the assumed oracle for the decisional Ring-LWE problem.) Since the decomposition ring $R_{Z}$ is a subring of the cyclotomic ring $R$, the modulus $q$ totally decomposes into $g$ prime ideal factors also in $R_{Z}: q R_{Z}=\mathfrak{q}_{0} \cdots \mathfrak{q}_{g-1}$. Using this decomposition, the proof of equivalence by [11] holds also over the decomposition rings $R_{Z}$, essentially as it is.

### 4.2 Parameters

Let $m$ be a prime index of cyclotomic ring $R$. Choose a (small) prime $p$, distinct from $m$. Let $d=\operatorname{ord}_{m}^{\times}(p)$ be the multiplicative order of $p \bmod m$, and $g=(m-1) / d$ be the degree of the decomposition ring $R_{Z}$ of $R$ with respect to $p$. Take two powers of $p, q=p^{r}$ and $t=p^{l}(r>l)$ as ciphertext and plaintext modulus, respectively. Set the quotient as $\Delta=q / t=p^{r-l}$. Choose two distributions $\vec{\chi}_{k e y}$ and $\vec{\chi}_{e r r}$ over $\mathbb{Z}^{g}$.

### 4.3 Encoding methods and basic operations of elements in $R_{Z}$

Basically, we use $\eta$-vectors $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{Z}^{g}$ to encode elements $a=\vec{\eta}^{T} \cdot \vec{a}$ in $R_{Z}$. To multiply two elements encoded by $\eta$-vectors $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$ modulo $q=p^{r}$, first we convert those $\eta$-vectors to corresponding $\xi$-vectors modulo $q$. We can multiply resulting $\xi$-vectors component-wise, and then re-convert the result into corresponding $\eta$-vector modulo $q$. More precisely,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mult_eta }(\vec{a}, \vec{b}, q) \text { : } \\
& \qquad \begin{array}{l}
\vec{\alpha}=\text { eta_to_xi }(\vec{a}, q), \vec{\beta}=\text { eta_to_xi }(\vec{b}, q) \\
\text { For } i=0, \ldots, g-1, \gamma_{i}=\alpha_{i} \beta_{i} \bmod q \\
\text { return } \vec{c}=\text { xi_to_eta }(\vec{\gamma}, q)
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

The functions eta_to_xi and xi_to_eta use the matrix $\Omega_{Z}^{(q)}$ that we have computed in advance (Section 3.4.3 and Lemma 5).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { eta_to_xi }(\vec{a}, q): \\
& \qquad \begin{array}{l}
a(X)=a_{0}+a_{g-1} X+\cdots+a_{1} X^{g-1} \\
c(X)=\eta_{0}+\eta_{1} X+\cdots+\eta_{g-1} X^{g-1} \text { where }\left(\eta_{i}\right)_{i=0}^{g-1} \text { is the first row of } \Omega_{Z}^{(q)} \\
b(X)=a(X) c(X) \bmod \left(q, X^{g}-1\right) \\
\text { return } \vec{b}=\left(b_{0}, \ldots, b_{g-1}\right)
\end{array} \\
& \text { xi_to_eta }(\vec{b}, q): \\
& b(X)=b_{0}+b_{g-1} X+\cdots+b_{1} X^{g-1} \\
& c(X)=\bar{\eta}_{0}+\bar{\eta}_{1} X+\cdots+\bar{\eta}_{g-1} X^{g-1} \text { where }\left(\bar{\eta}_{i}\right)_{i=0}^{g-1} \text { is the first row of } \bar{\Omega}_{Z}^{q)} \\
& a(X)=b(X) c(X) \bmod \left(q, X^{g}-1\right) \\
& t=b_{0}+\cdots+b_{g-1} \bmod q
\end{aligned}
$$

return $\vec{a}=\left(m^{-1}\left(a_{i}-d t\right) \bmod q\right)_{i=0}^{g-1}$.
Using the matrix $\Omega_{Z}^{(q)}$ that is defined $\bmod \mathfrak{q}$, the outputs will have precision $q$, that is, $\vec{b} \equiv \Omega_{Z} \vec{a}$ $(\bmod q)$. For correctness of xi_to_eta procedure, see Lemma 5.

We regard plaintext vectors $\vec{m} \in \mathbb{Z}_{t}^{g}$ as $\xi$-vectors of corresponding elements $m_{\xi}=\overrightarrow{\xi^{T}} \vec{m} \in$ $\left(R_{Z}\right)_{t}$. By Lemma 7 their products $m_{\xi} m_{\xi}^{\prime} \in\left(R_{Z}\right)_{t}$ encodes plaintext vectors $\vec{m} \odot \overrightarrow{m^{\prime}} \in \mathbb{Z}_{t}^{g}$.

Helper functions. Fix an integer base $w$ and let $l_{w}=\left\lfloor\log _{w}(q)\right\rfloor+1$. Any vector $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{g}$ can be written as $\vec{a}=\sum_{k=0}^{l_{w}-1} w^{k} \vec{a}_{k}$ with vectors $\vec{a}_{k} \in \mathbb{Z}_{w}^{g}$ of small entries in $\mathbb{Z}_{w}$. Define

$$
\mathrm{WD}(\vec{a}) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left(\vec{a}_{k}\right)_{k=0}^{l_{w}-1}\left(\in\left(\mathbb{Z}_{w}^{g}\right)^{l_{w}}\right)
$$

### 4.4 Scheme Description

Our subring homomorphic encryption scheme is a realization of the FV scheme [4] using the decomposition ring $R_{Z}$. Here we describe its symmetric key version. The public key version is easily derived like in the FV and other HE schemes.

SecretKeyGen () :

$$
\vec{s} \leftarrow \chi_{k e y}, \text { return } s k=\vec{s} \in \mathbb{Z}^{g}
$$

Encrypt (sk $=\vec{s} \in \mathbb{Z}^{g}, \vec{m} \in \mathbb{Z}_{t}^{g}$ ) :

$$
\vec{a} \stackrel{\mu}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{g}, \vec{e} \leftarrow \chi_{e r r}, \vec{n}=x \text { xi_to_eta }(\vec{m}, t)
$$

$$
\vec{b}=\operatorname{mult} \operatorname{eta}(\vec{a}, \vec{s}, q)+\Delta \vec{n}+\vec{e} \bmod q
$$

$$
\text { return } c t=(\vec{a}, \vec{b})
$$

Decrypt $\left(\mathrm{sk}=\vec{s} \in \mathbb{Z}^{g}, c t=(\vec{a}, \vec{b})\right)$ :
$\vec{n}=\left\lfloor\frac{1}{\Delta}\left(\vec{b}-\operatorname{mult\_ eta}(\vec{a}, \vec{s}, q) \bmod q\right)\right\rceil$
$\vec{m}=$ eta_to_xi $(\vec{n}, t)$
return $\vec{m}$
Add $\left(c t_{1}=\left(\vec{a}_{1}, \vec{b}_{1}\right), c t_{2}=\left(\vec{a}_{2}, \vec{b}_{2}\right)\right):$
$\vec{a}=\vec{a}_{1}+\vec{a}_{2} \bmod q, \vec{b}=\vec{b}_{1}+\vec{b}_{2} \bmod q$
return $c t=(\vec{a}, \vec{b})$.
EvaluateKeyGen $(\vec{s})$ :
$\vec{\gamma}=\operatorname{mult} \operatorname{eta}(\vec{s}, \vec{s}, q)$
For $k=0$ to $l_{w}-1$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \quad \vec{\alpha}_{k} \stackrel{山}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{g}, \vec{x}_{k} \leftarrow \chi_{e r r} \\
& \vec{\beta}_{k}=\operatorname{mult} \text { eta }\left(\vec{\alpha}_{k}, \vec{s}, q\right)+w^{k} \vec{\gamma}+\vec{x}_{k} \bmod q \\
& \text { return ev }=\left(\left(\vec{\alpha}_{k}, \vec{\beta}_{k}\right)\right)_{k=0}^{l_{w}-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Mult }\left(c t_{1}=\left(\vec{a}_{1}, \vec{b}_{1}\right), c t_{2}=\left(\vec{a}_{2}, \vec{b}_{2}\right), \mathrm{ev}=\left(\left(\vec{\alpha}_{k}, \vec{\beta}_{k}\right)\right)_{k}\right): \\
& \qquad \begin{array}{l}
\vec{e}=\left\lfloor\frac{1}{\Delta} \cdot \operatorname{mult\_ eta}\left(\vec{b}_{1}, \vec{b}_{2}, q^{2} / t\right)\right\rceil \\
\vec{c}=\left\lfloor\frac{1}{\Delta} \cdot\left(\operatorname{mult} \text { _eta }\left(\vec{a}_{1}, \vec{b}_{2}, q^{2} / t\right)+\operatorname{mult\_ eta}\left(\vec{a}_{2}, \vec{b}_{1}, q^{2} / t\right)\right)\right. \\
\vec{d}=\left\lfloor\frac{1}{\Delta} \cdot \operatorname{mult\_ eta}\left(\vec{a}_{1}, \vec{a}_{2}, q^{2} / t\right)\right\rceil \\
\left(\vec{d}_{0}, \cdots, \vec{d}_{l_{w}-1}\right)=\operatorname{WD}(\vec{d}) \\
\vec{a}=\vec{c}+\sum_{k=0}^{w_{w}-1} \operatorname{mult} \text { _eta }\left(\vec{d}_{k}, \vec{\alpha}_{k}, q\right) \bmod q \\
\vec{b}=\vec{e}+\sum_{k=0}^{l_{w}-1} \operatorname{mult} \text { _eta }\left(\vec{d}_{k}, \vec{\beta}_{k}, q\right) \bmod q \\
\text { return } c t=(\vec{a}, \vec{b})
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

It is straightforward to see:
Theorem 1 Our subring homomorphic encryption scheme is indistinguishably secure under chosen plaintext attack if the $\mathrm{R}^{-\mathrm{DLWE}_{q, \chi_{k e y}, \chi_{e r r}}}$ problem on the decomposition ring $R_{Z}$ is hard.

### 4.5 Correctness

Let $\vec{\chi}_{\text {key }}$ and $\vec{\chi}_{\text {err }}$ be discrete Gaussian distributions over $\mathbb{Z}^{g}$ of parameters $s_{k e y}$ and $s_{\text {err }}$, respectively. In the following, vectors $\vec{a}, \vec{b}, \cdots$ mean corresponding $\eta$-vectors of elements $a=\vec{\eta}^{T} \cdot \vec{a}$, $b=\vec{\eta}^{T} \cdot \vec{b}, \cdots$ in the decomposition ring $R_{Z}$, respectively.

Definition 4 The inherent noise term $e$ of ciphertext $c t=(\vec{a}, \vec{b})$ designed for $\vec{m} \in \mathbb{Z}_{t}^{g}$ is an element $e \in R_{Z}$ with the smallest norm $\|e\|_{\infty}$ satisfying

$$
b-a s=\Delta m_{\xi}+e+q \alpha
$$

for some $\alpha \in R_{Z}$, secret key sk $=\vec{s}$, and $m_{\xi}=\overrightarrow{\xi^{T}} \cdot \vec{m} \in R_{Z}$.
By definition, a ciphertext $c t=(\vec{a}, \vec{b}) \leftarrow \operatorname{Encrypt}(\vec{s}, \vec{m})$ has $e=\vec{\eta}^{T} \cdot \vec{e}$ as an inherent noise term designed for $\vec{m}$ with $\vec{e} \leftarrow \vec{\chi}_{e r r}$. By Lemma $13, e$ is subgaussian of parameter $\sqrt{m} s_{e r r}$ and by the tail inequality (Eq. 2), $\|e\|_{\infty} \leq \omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{m} s_{e r r}$ with an overwhelming probability.

Define $B_{\text {correct }} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \frac{\sqrt{m}}{2 \sqrt{g}} \Delta$.
Lemma 14 (Noise bound for correctness) Let e be the inherent noise term of ciphertext $c t=(\vec{a}, \vec{b})$ designed for $\vec{m} \in \mathbb{Z}_{t}^{g}$. If $\|e\|_{\infty}<B_{\text {correct }}$ (i.e. if $\frac{\sqrt{g}}{\sqrt{m}}\|e\|_{\infty}<\frac{1}{2} \Delta$ ), then decryption works correctly, i.e. $\operatorname{Decrypt}(\vec{s}, c t)=\vec{m}$.

Proof By definition of the inherent noise term, $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$ satisfy that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{\Delta}(b-a s-\alpha q)=m_{\xi}+\frac{e}{\Delta} . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

By Lemma 11-(3),

$$
\left\|\frac{\vec{e}}{\Delta}\right\|_{\infty}<\sqrt{g / m} \cdot\left\|\frac{e}{\Delta}\right\|_{\infty} \leq \sqrt{g / m} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{m}}{2 \sqrt{g}}=\frac{1}{2} .
$$

Hence, $\eta$-vector of the left-hand side of Eq.(13) rounds to $\vec{n}$ satisfying $\vec{\eta}^{T} \cdot \vec{n}=m_{\xi}=\vec{\xi} \cdot \vec{m} \square$

Lemma 15 (Noise bound for Add) Let $e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$ be inherent noise terms of ciphertexts $c t_{1}=$ $\left(\vec{a}_{1}, \vec{b}_{1}\right)$ and ct ${ }_{2}=\left(\vec{a}_{2}, \vec{b}_{2}\right)$ designed for $\vec{m}_{1}$ and $\vec{m}_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}_{t}^{g}$, respectively. Let $e$ be the inherent noise term of $c t=\operatorname{Add}\left(c t_{1}, c t_{2}\right)$ designed for $\vec{m}_{1}+\vec{m}_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}_{t}^{g}$. Then,

$$
\|e\|_{\infty} \leq\left\|e_{1}\right\|_{\infty}+\left\|e_{2}\right\|_{\infty}
$$

Lemma 16 (Noise bound for linearization) Let ev $=\left(\left(\vec{\alpha}_{k}, \vec{\beta}_{k}\right)\right)_{k=0}^{l_{w}-1} \leftarrow$ EvaluateKeyGen $(\vec{s})$ be an evaluation key for a secret key $\mathrm{sk}=\vec{s}$. Suppose that a triple of elements e, $c, d$ in $R_{Z}$ satisfies

$$
e-c s+d s^{2} \equiv \Delta m_{\xi}+x \quad(\bmod q)
$$

with $m_{\xi}=\vec{\xi} \cdot \vec{m}$ and some $x \in R_{Z}$ bounded as $\|x\|_{\infty} \leq B$. Let $\left(\vec{d}_{0}, \cdots, \vec{d}_{l_{w}-1}\right)=\operatorname{WD}(\vec{d})$. Then, for $a=c+\sum_{k=0}^{l_{w}-1} d_{k} \alpha_{k}$ and $b=e+\sum_{k=0}^{l_{w}-1} d_{k} \beta_{k}$, the pair $c t=(\vec{a}, \vec{b})$ constitutes a ciphertext that has an inherent noise term $y$ designed for $\vec{m}$ bounded as

$$
\|y\|_{\infty} \leq B+\omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{l_{w} m g} w s_{e r r} .
$$

Proof By definition of EvaluateKeyGen, the $k$-th pair ( $\vec{\alpha}_{k}, \vec{\beta}_{k}$ ) of ev has an inherent noise term $x_{k}$ designed for $w^{k} s^{2}$, which is subgaussian of parameter $\sqrt{m} s_{e r r}$. Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
b-a s & \equiv\left(e+\sum_{k=0}^{l_{w}-1} d_{k} \beta_{k}\right)-\left(c+\sum_{k=0}^{l_{w}-1} d_{k} \alpha_{k}\right) s \equiv e-c s+\sum_{k=0}^{l_{w}-1} d_{k}\left(\beta_{k}-\alpha_{k} s\right) \\
& \equiv e-c s+\sum_{k=0}^{l_{w}-1} d_{k}\left(w^{k} s^{2}+x_{k}\right) \equiv e-c s+d s^{2}+\sum_{k=0}^{l_{w}-1} d_{k} x_{k} \\
& \equiv \Delta m_{\xi}+x+\sum_{k=0}^{l_{w}-1} d_{k} x_{k}
\end{aligned}
$$

We estimate $\|y\|_{\infty}$ for $y=x+\sum_{k=0}^{l_{w}-1} d_{k} x_{k}$. First by Lemma 11 (1), $\left\|d_{k}\right\|_{\infty} \leq \sqrt{m g}\left\|\vec{d}_{k}\right\|_{\infty} \leq$ $\sqrt{m g} w$. Then, by Lemma $12, d_{k} x_{k}$ are independently subgaussian of parameter $\left\|d_{k}\right\|_{\infty} s_{e r r} \leq$ $\sqrt{m g} w s_{e r r}$, and $\sum_{k=0}^{l_{w}-1} d_{k} x_{k}$ is subgaussian of parameter $\sqrt{l_{w}} \sqrt{m g} w s_{e r r}$. Hence,

$$
\|y\|_{\infty} \leq\|x\|_{\infty}+\left\|\sum_{k=0}^{l_{w}-1} d_{k} x_{k}\right\| \leq B+\omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{l_{w}} \sqrt{m g} w s_{e r r}
$$

Lemma 17 (Noise bound for Mult) Let $e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$ be inherent noise terms of ciphertexts $c t_{1}=\left(\vec{a}_{1}, \vec{b}_{1}\right)$ and $c t_{2}=\left(\vec{a}_{2}, \vec{b}_{2}\right)$ designed for $\vec{m}_{1}$ and $\vec{m}_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}_{t}^{g}$, respectively. Suppose $\left\|e_{i}\right\|_{\infty} \leq$ $B\left(<B_{\text {correct }}\right)$ for $i=1,2$. Let $f$ be the inherent noise term of $c t=\operatorname{Mult}\left(c t_{1}, c t_{2}\right)$ designed for $\vec{m}_{1} \odot \vec{m}_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}_{t}^{g}$. Then,

$$
\|f\|_{\infty} \leq t \omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{m g} s_{k e y} \cdot B+\omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{l_{w} m g} w s_{e r r}
$$

Proof We prepare two claims.
Claim 1 Let $e_{0}=\frac{1}{\Delta} b_{1} b_{2}, c_{0}=\frac{1}{\Delta}\left(a_{1} b_{2}+a_{2} b_{1}\right), d_{0}=\frac{1}{\Delta} a_{1} a_{2}$. Then,

$$
e_{0}-c_{0} s+d_{0} s^{2} \equiv \Delta m_{\xi}+x \quad(\bmod q)
$$

with $m_{\xi}=\left(m_{1}\right)_{\xi}\left(m_{2}\right)_{\xi}$ and some $x \in R_{Z}$ bounded as

$$
\|x\|_{\infty} \leq t \omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{m g} s_{k e y} \cdot B
$$

Proof By assumption,

$$
\begin{equation*}
b_{i}-a_{i} s=\Delta\left(m_{i}\right)_{\xi}+x_{i}+\alpha_{i} q \quad(i=1,2) \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\left\|x_{i}\right\|_{\infty}<B$. By Lemma 12 the product $a_{i} s$ is subgaussian of parameter $\left\|a_{i}\right\|_{\infty} s_{\text {key }} \leq$ $\sqrt{m g}\left\|\vec{a}_{i}\right\|_{\infty} s_{\text {key }} \leq \sqrt{m g} q s_{\text {key }}$. So, $\alpha_{i}=\left\lfloor\left(b_{i}-a_{i} s\right) / q\right\rfloor$ is bounded as

$$
\left\|\alpha_{i}\right\|_{\infty} \leq \omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{m g} s_{k e y} .
$$

By taking product of the two equations (14), we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
e_{0}-c_{0} s+d_{0} s^{2} & =\frac{1}{\Delta}\left(b_{1} b_{2}-\left(a_{1} b_{2}+a_{2} b_{1}\right) s+a_{1} a_{2} s^{2}\right) \\
& =\Delta\left(m_{1}\right)_{\xi}\left(m_{2}\right)_{\xi}+x+q v
\end{aligned}
$$

with some $v \in R_{Z}$, where

$$
x=\left(m_{1}\right)_{\xi} x_{2}+\left(m_{2}\right)_{\xi} x_{1}+\frac{1}{\Delta} x_{1} x_{2}+t\left(x_{1} \alpha_{2}+x_{2} \alpha_{1}\right) .
$$

By Lemma 9,11 ,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left\|\left(m_{i}\right)_{\xi} x_{j}\right\|_{\infty} \leq\left\|\left(m_{i}\right)_{\xi}\right\|_{\infty}\left\|x_{j}\right\|_{\infty}=\sqrt{m g}\left\|\vec{n}_{i}\right\|_{\infty}\left\|x_{j}\right\|_{\infty} \leq \sqrt{m g} t B \\
\left\|\frac{1}{\Delta} x_{1} x_{2}\right\|_{\infty} \leq \frac{1}{\Delta}\left\|x_{1}\right\|_{\infty}\left\|x_{2}\right\|_{\infty} \leq \frac{1}{\Delta} B_{\text {correct }} \cdot\left\|x_{2}\right\|_{\infty} \leq \frac{\sqrt{m}}{2 \sqrt{g}} \cdot B \\
\left\|t x_{i} \alpha_{j}\right\|_{\infty} \leq t\left\|x_{i}\right\|_{\infty}\left\|\alpha_{j}\right\|_{\infty} \leq t B \omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{m g} s_{\text {key }} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Hence, $x$ 's norm is bounded as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|x\|_{\infty} & \leq 2 \sqrt{m g} t B+\frac{\sqrt{m}}{2 \sqrt{g}} \cdot B+2 \sqrt{m g} t B \omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{m g} s_{k e y} \\
& =\left(2 \sqrt{m g} t+\frac{\sqrt{m}}{2 \sqrt{g}}+2 t \omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{m g} s_{k e y}\right) B \\
& =t \omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{m g} s_{k e y} \cdot B
\end{aligned}
$$

Claim 2 Let $\vec{e}=\left\lfloor\overrightarrow{e_{0}}\right\rceil, \vec{c}=\left\lfloor\overrightarrow{c_{0}}\right\rceil, \vec{d}=\left\lfloor\overrightarrow{d_{0}}\right\rceil$. Then,

$$
e-c s+d s^{2} \equiv e_{0}-c_{0} s+d_{0} s^{2}+y \quad(\bmod q)
$$

with some $y \in R_{Z}$ bounded as

$$
\|y\|_{\infty} \leq \omega(\log \lambda) \sqrt{m g} s_{k e y}^{2} .
$$

Proof Let $y=\left(e-e_{0}\right)-\left(c-c_{0}\right) s+\left(d-d_{0}\right) s^{2}(\bmod q)$.
Using Lemma 11 (1), $\left\|e-e_{0}\right\|_{\infty} \leq \sqrt{m g}\left\|\vec{e}-\vec{e}_{0}\right\|_{\infty} \leq \sqrt{m g} / 2$.
Similarly, $\left\|c-c_{0}\right\|_{\infty} \leq \sqrt{m g} / 2$ and by Lemma $9,\left\|\left(c-c_{0}\right) s\right\|_{\infty} \leq\left\|c-c_{0}\right\|_{\infty}\|s\|_{\infty} \leq \sqrt{m g} / 2$. $\omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) s_{k e y}=\omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{m g} s_{k e y}$. Similarly, $\left\|\left(d-d_{0}\right) s^{2}\right\|_{\infty} \leq \omega(\log \lambda) \sqrt{m g} s_{k e y}^{2}$.

Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|y\|_{\infty} & \leq\left\|e-e_{0}\right\|_{\infty}+\left\|\left(c-c_{0}\right) s\right\|_{\infty}+\left\|\left(d-d_{0}\right) s^{2}\right\|_{\infty} \\
& \leq \sqrt{m g} / 2+\omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{m g} s_{k e y}+\omega(\log \lambda) \sqrt{m g} s_{\text {key }}^{2} \\
& \leq \omega(\log \lambda) \sqrt{m g} s_{k e y}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

By the two claims we know that

$$
e-c s+d s^{2} \equiv \Delta m_{\xi}+z \quad(\bmod q)
$$

with $z=x+y$ bounded as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|z\|_{\infty} & \leq\|x\|_{\infty}+\|y\|_{\infty} \leq t \omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{m g} s_{k e y} \cdot B+\omega(\log \lambda) \sqrt{m g} s_{\text {key }}^{2} \\
& \leq t \omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{m g} s_{k e y} \cdot B .
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally, applying Lemma 16 to our situation, we know that Mult will output a ciphertext $c t=(\vec{a}, \vec{b})$ that has an inherent noise term $f$ designed for $m_{\xi}=\left(m_{1}\right)_{\xi}\left(m_{2}\right)_{\xi}$, satisfying

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|f\|_{\infty} & \leq\|z\|_{\infty}+\omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{l_{w} m g} w s_{e r r} \\
& \leq t \omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{m g} s_{k e y} \cdot B+\omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) \sqrt{l_{w} m g} w s_{e r r}
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 2 Our subring homomorphic encryption scheme will be fully homomorphic under circular security assumption (i.e., an encryption of secret key $\vec{s}$ does not leak any information about $\vec{s}$ ) by taking ciphertext modulus $q=O\left(\lambda^{\log \lambda}\right)$.

Proof By Lemma 14, a ciphertext ct that encrypts plaintext $\vec{m}$ can be correctly decrypted if its inherent noise term $e$ designed for $\vec{m}$ satisfies

$$
\frac{\sqrt{g}}{\sqrt{m}}\|e\|_{\infty}<\frac{1}{2} \Delta=\frac{q}{2 t} .
$$

By Lemma 17, by one multiplication, $\frac{\sqrt{g}}{\sqrt{m}}$ times of infinity norm of noises under input ciphertexts increases $\log _{2}\left(t \omega(\sqrt{\log \lambda}) g s_{\text {key }}\right)=O(\log \lambda)$ bits. Hence, to correctly evaluate an arithmetic circuit over $\mathbb{Z}_{t}^{g}$ with $L$ levels of multiplications, it suffices that

$$
\log q>L \log \lambda
$$

By Lemma 4 of [1], we can implement our Decrypt algorithm by some circuit of level $L_{\text {dec }}=$ $O(\log \lambda)$. Hence by taking $q=O\left(\lambda^{\log \lambda}\right)$, our subring homomorphic encryption scheme can homomorphically evaluate its own Decrypt circuit and will be fully homomorphic under circular security assumption

## 5 Benchmark Results

We implemented our subring homomorphic encryption scheme (SR-HE in short) using C++ language and performed several experiments using different parameters, comparing efficiency of our implementation of SR-HE and homomorphic encryption library HElib by Halevi and Shoup [8], which is based on the BGV scheme [2]. For notation of parameters, see Section 4.2.

As common parameters, we chosen four values of prime $m$ so that the $m$-th cyclotomic ring $R$ will have many number of plaintext slots (i.e., large $g$ values). The plaintext modulus $t=2^{l}$ is fixed as $l=8$. The noise parameter $s_{\text {err }}=\sqrt{2 \pi} \sigma_{\text {err }}$ is fixed as $\sigma_{\text {err }}=3.2$. The ciphertext modulus $q=2^{r}$ is chosen as small as possible so that it enables homomorphic evaluation of exponentiation by $2^{8}$ (i.e., $\left.\operatorname{Enc}(\vec{s}, \vec{m})^{2^{8}}\right)$ with respect to each implementation. Table 1 summarizes the chosen parameters.

Table 1: Chosen parameters.

|  | $m$ | $g$ | $d$ | $l$ | $r$ (SR-HE) | $r$ (HElib) |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| par-127 | 127 | 18 | 7 | 8 | 162 | 135 |
| par-8191 | 8191 | 630 | 13 | 8 | 210 | 250 |
| par-43691 | 43691 | 1285 | 34 | 8 | 234 | 256 |
| par-131071 | 131071 | 7710 | 17 | 8 | 242 | - |

Assuming that there is no special attack utilizing particular algebraic structure of involving rings, corresponding security parameters $\lambda$ are estimated using formula given by Gentry, Halevi and Smart [6],

$$
\lambda=\frac{7.2 \cdot N}{\log (q / \sigma)}-110,
$$

where $N$ is a parameter of involving LWE-lattice: $N=m-1$ for HElib and $N=g$ for SR-HE.
Table 2: Timing results of HElib on mod- $2^{l}$ plaintexts.

|  | $m$ | $g$ | $d$ | $l$ | $r$ | $\lambda$ | Enc | Dec | Add | Mult | Exp-by- ${ }^{8}$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| par-127 | 127 | 18 | 7 | 8 | 135 | 0 | 0.23 | 0.18 | 0.00 | 0.66 | 4.78 |
| par-8191 | 8191 | 630 | 13 | 8 | 250 | 127 | 30.45 | 210.77 | 0.84 | 107.53 | 512.64 |
| par-43691 | 43691 | 1285 | 34 | 8 | 256 | 1127 | 268.00 | 5158.44 | 4.74 | 634.69 | 4187.81 |
| par-131071 | 131071 | 7710 | 17 | 8 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |

Table 2 shows timing results for HElib in milliseconds on Intel Celeron(R) CPU G1840 @ $2.80 \mathrm{GHz} \times 2$. (We could not perform the test for par-131071 due to shortage of memory.) The secret key is chosen uniformly random among binary vectors of Hamming weight 64 over the power basis (default of HElib) and we encrypt $g$ number of mod- $2^{l}$ plaintexts into a single HElib ciphertext using plaintext slots. As seen in Section 2.5, HElib (based on the BGV scheme) basically realizes $G F\left(2^{d}\right)$ arithmetic in each of $g$ slots. If we want to encrypt mod- $2^{l}$ plaintexts on slots and to homomorphically evaluate on them, we can use only 1-dimensional constant
polynomials in each $d=m / g$-dimensional slots. This should cause certain waste in time and space. In fact, for example, timings for par-43691 $(g=1285)$ is much larger than two times of those for par-8191 $(g=630)$. This indicates that HElib scheme cannot handle many mod- $2^{l}$ slots with high parallelism. So, to encrypt large number of mod-2 $2^{l}$ plaintexts using HElib, we have no choice but to prepare many ciphertexts, each of which encrypts a divided set of small number of plaintexts on their slots.

Table 3: Timing results of SR-HE on mod- $2^{l}$ plaintexts.

|  | $m$ | $g$ | $d$ | $l$ | $r$ | $\lambda$ | Enc | Dec | Add | Mult | Exp-by- $2^{8}$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| par-127 | 127 | 18 | 7 | 8 | 162 | 0 | 0.14 | 0.12 | 0.00 | 0.57 | 4.47 |
| par-8191 | 8191 | 630 | 13 | 8 | 210 | 0 | 7.39 | 7.37 | 0.03 | 39.43 | 318.65 |
| par-43691 | 43691 | 1285 | 34 | 8 | 234 | 0 | 17.38 | 17.19 | 0.11 | 92.14 | 741.42 |
| par-131071 | 131071 | 7710 | 17 | 8 | 242 | 121 | 104.33 | 103.93 | 0.97 | 574.44 | 4620.22 |

On the other hand, Table 3 show timing results (also in milliseconds on Intel Celeron(R) CPU G1840 @ $2.80 \mathrm{GHz} \times 2$ ) for our SR-HE scheme. The secret key is chosen uniformly random among binary vectors of Hamming weight 64 over $\eta$-basis and we encrypt $g$ number of mod- $2^{l}$ plaintexts into a single SR-HE ciphertext. As seen, timings are approximately linear with respect to the numbers of slots $g$. This shows that our SR-HE scheme can handle many mod- $2^{l}$ slots with high parallelism, as expected. We can encrypt large number of mod-2 $2^{l}$ plaintexts into a single SR-HE ciphertext using mod- $2^{l}$ slots without waste, and can homomorphically compute on them with high parallelism.

Then, which is faster to encrypt many number of mod- $2^{l}$ plaintexts between the following two cases?
(1) A single SR-HE ciphertext with many plaintext slots.
(2) Many HElib ciphertexts with small number of plaintext slots.

The result for par- 131071 of Table 3 shows we can encrypt 7710 mod- $2^{l}$ slots in a single SR-HE ciphertext with security parameter $\lambda=121$ with timing:

$$
(104.33,103.93,0.97,574.44,4620.22)
$$

On a while, the result for par-8191 of Table 2 shows we can encrypt the same number of 7710 $\bmod -2^{l}$ slots using $\lceil 7710 / 630\rceil=13$ ciphertexts with security parameter $\lambda=127$. The 13 times of the line par-8191 of Table 2 is

$$
(395.85,2740.01,10.92,1397.89,6664.32) .
$$

Thus, our benchmark results indicate that Case (1) (a single SR-HE ciphertext with many slots) is significantly faster than Case (2) (many HElib ciphertexts with small number of plaintext slots) under comparable security parameters.

Acknowledgements. This work was supported by CREST, JST.

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