

# Homomorphic Encryption

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## 0.1 Introduction and background

In his 2009 dissertation, Craig Gentry introduced a fully homomorphic encryption scheme based on the theory of ideal lattices...

## 0.2 The schemes under investigation

### 0.2.1 Choice-dependent encryption

One way to formulate a system is entirely over the integers. Instead of relying on the hardness of Grobner basis computation, our new system will rely on hardness of Eve correctly picking  $N$  numbers in a row, where there are two options for each choice. With sufficiently large  $N$ , trying all  $2^N$  combinations of choices will be computationally infeasible.

#### Scheme

The scheme goes as follows:

- Key generation
  1. Pick  $N \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that  $2^N$  is sufficiently large
  2. Pick an integer  $K$ , which represents the number of ways we can mask a message
  3. Pick a prime  $P$  – this will be the message space size, so the message space is  $\mathcal{M} := \mathbb{Z}/P\mathbb{Z}$
  4. Pick large primes  $\{p_i\}_{i=1}^N$  such that  $(K+1)P < \prod p_i$
  5. Pick primes  $\{q_i\}_{i=1}^N$
  6. Return private key  $(K, P, \{p_i\})$  and public key  $(N, \{p_i q_i\})$
- Encryption ( $e$ )
  1. Pick a message  $m \in \mathcal{M}$
  2. Pick random integers  $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^N$
  3. Pick a random integer  $k < K$
  4. Return  $\{m + a_i p_i + kP \pmod{p_i q_i}\}_{i=1}^N$
- Decryption ( $d$ )
  1. For all  $i = 1, \dots, N$ , reduce the  $i$ th component of the encryption modulo  $p_i$
  2. Run the Chinese Remainder Theorem on the resulting components, which gives  $m + kP \pmod{\prod p_i}$
  3. Reduce the result modulo  $P$  to retrieve  $m$

## Explanation

The hardness is in the fact that each pair  $\{p_i, q_i\}$  is known from  $p_i q_i$ , but correctly deciding which of the two is  $p_i$  requires a choice. Choosing the wrong value at one component will give an incorrect decryption, since reducing modulo  $q_i$  will not eliminate the multiple of  $p_i$  in the encryption. In the worst case for Eve, then, it will take her (naively, at least)  $2^N$  tries to decrypt the message.

The size of the primes  $p_i$  and  $q_i$  is up to the user; larger primes allow for a larger message space, but they also lead to larger ciphertexts. This is a trade-off that will be analyzed in more depth later on, but for now, we note that it is likely that creating a larger message space is more efficiently done by

The integer  $K$  represents the number of ways we can mask a message with multiples of  $P$ . Note that if this masking were impossible, then it would be easy to determine the primes  $p_i$  from encryptions of zero by taking the component-wise GCD of several such encryptions. By setting the message space to be  $\mathbb{Z}/P\mathbb{Z}$ , we ensure that even if a sum or product of messages is greater than  $P$ , reducing modulo  $P$  will give the well-defined sum or product in the message space.

## Correctness of encryption/decryption

Claim: If  $m < M$ , then  $d(e(m)) = m$

Proof of Claim:

Let  $(N, \{p_i\}, \{q_i\}, K, P)$  be our secret key. Then

$$e(m) = \{m + a_i p_i + kP \pmod{p_i q_i}\} \quad (1)$$

for some random  $a_i$  and a random  $k < K$ . Then reducing each component modulo the corresponding  $p_i$  gives

$$\{m + kP \pmod{p_i}\} \quad (2)$$

Now, using the Chinese Remainder Theorem gives

$$m + kP \pmod{\prod p_i} \quad (3)$$

Since we chose  $m < P$  and  $k < K$ , and  $P$  was defined such that  $KP < \prod p_i$ , we have that  $m + kP < \prod p_i$ , so

$$m + kP \pmod{\prod p_i} = m + kP \quad (4)$$

Now, reducing modulo  $P$  gives  $m$ , since  $m \in \mathbb{Z}/P\mathbb{Z}$ .

## Correctness of homomorphic operations

Furthermore, the scheme is somewhat homomorphic (using component-wise addition and multiplication), since if  $m_1, m_2 \in \mathcal{M}$ , then

$$e(m_1) + e(m_2) = \{m_1 + m_2 + (a_i + b_i)p_i + (k_1 + k_2)P \pmod{p_i q_i}\} \quad (5)$$

This is of the form of a regular encryption of the message  $m_1 + m_2$ . The danger is that it is possible for  $m_1 + m_2 + (k_1 + k_2)P > \prod p_i$ , in which case the Chinese Remainder Theorem would give an incorrect result. Similarly,

$$e(m_1)e(m_2) = \{m_1m_2 + ((m_1 + k_1)b_i + (m_2 + k_2)a_i + a_ib_i)p_i + (m_1k_2 + m_2k_1 + k_1k_2P)P \pmod{p_iq_i}\} \quad (6)$$

Again, this is of the form of an encryption of the message  $m_1m_2$ , but we run into a similar as above. The danger is even greater now, since the numbers are growing multiplicatively instead of merely additively, now. Therefore, we will measure the homomorphicity in terms of the number of multiplications allowed by this system. As we see above, this depends on the size of the product of messages as well as the size of the product of messages and the values of  $k$  that we pick.

### Analysis of homomorphicity

In terms of the dangers mentioned above, the worst case is  $m \approx P$  and  $k \approx K$ . If all of our messages were on this order and were encrypted with random  $k$  around  $K$ , then we would be allowed only  $\log_{(K+1)P} \prod p_i$  multiplications, since each multiplication would roughly raise the message  $m + kP \approx (K+1)P$  to a power. If we want a guarantee, then, that we can perform  $M$  multiplications on encryptions, we should set  $\{p_i\}$  such that  $((K+1)P)^M < \prod p_i$ . There are two ways to accomplish this: increase the size of each prime  $p_i$ , or increase  $N$ , the number of components in each encryption. This decision can be left to the user.

An additional concern is that our message space may not realistically resemble  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ , for example if the information we want to encode is a bunch of integer values, and we want to compute the product of these integers, we expect the result of performing the encrypted operation to be the true product, even if it exceeds  $P$ . As soon as the results of computations exceed  $P$ , the scheme fails to return the correct value to the user, so practically speaking, we want our messages to be much smaller than  $P$ , which is in turn much smaller than  $\prod p_i$ . Precisely, this means that if  $E := \log_{(K+1)P} \prod p_i$ , then  $|\mathcal{M}| < \sqrt[E]{P}$  guarantees that products of messages will always decrypt properly, since  $E$  is the number of allowed multiplications from above.

### 0.2.2 Using multivariate polynomial rings

Another approach to homomorphic encryption is to use the properties of arithmetic in polynomial rings. The ring structure essentially guarantees that if our encryption involves only arithmetic operations, it will be homomorphic. Perhaps the most natural thing to try in this setting is via the following algorithm: choose a principal ideal  $(f) \subset \mathbb{Z}[x]$  and encrypt an integer message  $m$  by adding a random element  $af \in (f)$ , so  $e(m) = m + af$ . Then to decrypt, we simply reduce modulo the polynomial  $f$ . This process is homomorphic because ideals are closed under addition and multiplication:

$$e(m_1) + e(m_2) = m_1 + m_2 + (a_1 + a_2)f = e(m_1 + m_2)$$

and

$$e(m_1)e(m_2) = m_1m_2 + (m_2a_1 + m_1a_2 + a_1a_2)f = e(m_1m_2)$$

Note that our definition of equality above is somewhat loose; since  $e(m_1 + m_2)$  encrypts by choosing a *random* multiple of  $f$ , it may not be exactly  $(a_1 + a_2)f$  (and likewise for the case of multiplication). The notion of equality we adopt, then, is a notion of coset equality:  $e(m_1) + e(m_2)$  is in the same coset of  $I$  as  $e(m_1 + m_2)$ , so they will decrypt identically, and the same is true for  $e(m_1)e(m_2)$  and  $e(m_1m_2)$ .

While this scheme illustrates the ideas we will use later, it is not very secure on its own. For example, suppose an eavesdropper, Eve, asks us to encrypt  $m = 0$  several times. The resulting ciphertexts would be a collection

$$\{a_1f_1, a_2f_2, \dots, a_nf_n\}$$

Now, if Eve takes the greatest common divisor of the elements in this collection, there is a very significant chance that the result will be  $f$  itself. With  $f$  in hand, Eve could then decrypt any message she pleased, and the scheme would be compromised.

This scheme was easily broken because it relied on a fairly easy problem: given a collection of polynomials in a principal ideal, find a generator for the ideal. This is a basic case of a more general problem:

**Ideal Membership Problem:** Given a ring  $R$ , an ideal  $I \subset R$ , and an element  $f \in R$ , determine whether  $f \in I$ .

By making this problem more complex

## Scheme

## Explanation

## Correctness of encryption/decryption

## Correctness of homomorphic operations

## Practical analysis of homomorphicity

## Generalizing

... One benefit to this scheme is that it can be easily generalized to  $n$  variables – i.e. we can consider an analogous scheme over  $\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ . This is done by choosing  $g$  such that  $g(x_1, \dots, x_n) = g_1(x_1)g_2(x_2) \cdots g_n(x_n)$  and  $z_2, \dots, z_n$  such that  $z_i$  is a root of  $g_i$ . Then encryption proceeds as in the two-variable case:

$$e(m) = m + af + bg$$

and to decrypt, we first evaluate at  $(x_1, z_2, \dots, z_n)$  and then reduce modulo  $f(x_1, z_2, \dots, z_n) \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1]$ .

## **0.3 Applications**

### **0.3.1 Application to medical needs**

### **0.3.2 Application to finance**

## **0.4 Implementation**

## **0.5 Appendix A: Common Attacks**

## **0.6 Appendix B: An intro to Gröbner bases**