# A multivariate noise-free HE proposal 

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#### Abstract

In [Gav16], [GB19], [GT20], new ideas to build homomorphic encryption schemes have been presented. Authors propose privatekey encryption schemes whose secret key is a rational function $\phi / \phi^{\prime}$. By construction, these schemes are not homomorphic. To get homomorphic properties, nonlinear homomorphic operators are derived from the secret key. In [GT20], an additive homomorphic encryption is proposed. In this paper, we adopt the same approach to build a HE based on the same private-key encryption scheme. We obtain a multivariate encryption scheme in the sense that the knowledge of the CPA attacker can be turned into an over-defined system of nonlinear equations (contrarily to LWE-based encryptions). The factoring assumption is introduced in order to make a large class of attacks based on Groebner basis irrelevant. While we did not propose a formal security proof relying on a classical cryptographic assumption, we hopefully provide convincing evidence for security.


## 1 Introduction

The prospect of outsourcing an increasing amount of data storage and management to cloud services raises many new privacy concerns for individuals and businesses alike. The privacy concerns can be satisfactorily addressed if users encrypt the data they send to the cloud. If the encryption scheme is homomorphic, the cloud can still perform meaningful computations on the data, even though it is encrypted.

The theoretical problem of constructing a fully homomorphic encryption scheme (HE) supporting arbitrary functions $f$, was only recently solved by the breakthrough work of Gentry [Gen09]. More recently, further fully homomorphic schemes were presented [SS10],[vDGHV10],[CNT12],[GHS12a],[GSW13] following Gentry's framework. The underlying tool behind all these schemes is the use of Euclidean lattices, which have previously proved powerful for devising many cryptographic primitives. A central aspect of Gentry's fully homomorphic scheme (and the subsequent schemes) is the ciphertext refreshing Recrypt operation. Even if many improvements have been made in one decade, this operation remains very costly [LNV11], [GHS12b], [DM15], [CGGI18]. Indeed, bootstrapped bit operations are still about one billion times slower than their plaintext equivalents (see [CGGI18]).

We adopt a recent approach developed in [Gav16], [GB19], [GT20] where the secret key is a (multivariate) rational function $\phi_{D} / \phi_{D}^{\prime}$. A ciphertext is here a randomly chosen vector $\boldsymbol{c}$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ satisfying $\phi_{D} / \phi_{D}^{\prime}(\boldsymbol{c})=x$. In particular, an encryption $\boldsymbol{c}$ of 0 satisfied $\phi_{D}(\boldsymbol{c})=0$. It follows that the expanded representations of $\phi_{D}$ should not be polynomial-size (otherwise the CPA attacker could recover it by solving a polynomial-size linear system). In order to get polynomialtime encryptions and decryptions, $\phi_{D} / \phi_{D}^{\prime}$ should be written in a compact form, e.g. a factored or semi-factored form. By construction, the generic cryptosystem described above is not homomorphic in the sense that the vector sum is not a homomorphic operator. To get homomorphic properties, we develop ad hoc nonlinear homomorphic operators Add and Mult, sometimes denoted by $\oplus$ or $\otimes$.

### 1.1 Overview of the paper

We consider a private-key encryption scheme where the secret key is a randomly chosen square $2 \kappa-b y-2 \kappa$ matrix $S$ defined over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}, n$ being a RSA modulus. To encrypt $x$, randomly choose $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{\kappa}, r_{1}, \ldots, r_{\kappa}$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ s.t. $x_{1}+\ldots+x_{\kappa}=x$ and output

$$
\boldsymbol{c}=S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1} x_{1} \\
r_{1} \\
\cdots \\
r_{\kappa} x_{\kappa} \\
r_{\kappa}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Throughout this paper, we will use the following convenient notation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X(\boldsymbol{c}) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{\kappa}\right) \\
& R(\boldsymbol{c}) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{\kappa}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Clearly, $\boldsymbol{c}$ is an encryption of 0 if and only if

$$
\phi_{D}(c) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \sum_{\ell=1}^{\kappa}\left\langle s_{2 \ell-1}, \boldsymbol{c}\right\rangle \prod_{\ell^{\prime} \neq \ell}\left\langle s_{2 \ell^{\prime}}, \boldsymbol{c}\right\rangle=0
$$

where $s_{i}$ refers to the $i^{t h}$ row of $S$.
In Section 2, we propose some security results based on symmetry under the factoring assumption. In particular, these results will ensure that the secret key $S$ cannot be recovered under the factoring assumption.

In Section 3, we formally present the private-key encryption scheme described above. The basic attack of this scheme consists of recovering the monomial coefficients of $\phi_{D}$ by solving a linear system. The key underlying idea is that the expanded representation of $\phi_{D}$ is exponential-size (and thus cannot be recovered) provided

$$
\kappa=\Theta(\lambda)
$$

In Section 4, we propose simple/naive homomorphic operators keeping some symmetry properties. The (naive) operator Add exactly follows the one considered in [GT20]. This operator is nonlinear (quadratic) and ensures that

$$
\begin{aligned}
X\left(\boldsymbol{c} \oplus \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) & =\left(x_{1}+x_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, x_{\kappa}+x_{\kappa}^{\prime}\right) \\
R\left(\boldsymbol{c} \oplus \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) & =\left(r_{1} r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{\kappa} r_{\kappa}^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

A high-level description of this operator is proposed in Figure 1.

$$
\text { Add }\left(S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1} x_{1} \\
r_{1} \\
\cdots \\
r_{\kappa} x_{\kappa} \\
r_{\kappa}
\end{array}\right), S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1}^{\prime} x_{1}^{\prime} \\
r_{1}^{\prime} \\
\cdots \\
r_{\kappa}^{\prime} x_{\kappa}^{\prime} \\
r_{\kappa}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)\right)=S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1} r_{1}^{\prime}\left(x_{1}+x_{1}^{\prime}\right) \\
r_{1} r_{1}^{\prime} \\
\cdots \\
r_{\kappa} r_{\kappa}^{\prime}\left(x_{\kappa}+x_{\kappa}^{\prime}\right) \\
r_{\kappa} r_{\kappa}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Fig. 1. Description of the naive operator Add.

The implementation of Mult is a little bit more complex. It cannot be achieved by applying only one quadratic operator. Indeed, it exploits the equality

$$
x x^{\prime}=\sum_{i=1}^{\kappa} \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} x_{i} x_{j}^{\prime}
$$

It follows that at least $\kappa$ operators are necessary to store all the products $x_{i} x_{j}^{\prime}$ in some intermediate vectors. In the naive implementation of Mult, this is achieved by applying $\kappa$ quadratic operators $\mathcal{O}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{O}_{\kappa}$. For instance, a high-level description of the naive operator $\mathcal{O}_{1}$ is given in Figure 2: $\mathcal{O}_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$ outputs an encryption of $x_{1} x_{1}^{\prime}+\ldots+x_{\kappa} x_{\kappa}^{\prime}$.

$$
\mathcal{O}_{1}\left(S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1} x_{1} \\
r_{1} \\
\cdots \\
r_{\kappa} x_{\kappa} \\
r_{\kappa}
\end{array}\right), S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1}^{\prime} x_{1}^{\prime} \\
r_{1}^{\prime} \\
\cdots \\
r_{\kappa}^{\prime} x_{\kappa}^{\prime} \\
r_{\kappa}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)\right)=S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1} r_{1}^{\prime} x_{1} x_{1}^{\prime} \\
r_{1} r_{1}^{\prime} \\
\cdots \\
r_{\kappa} r_{\kappa}^{\prime} x_{\kappa} x_{\kappa}^{\prime} \\
r_{\kappa} r_{\kappa}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Fig. 2. Description of the naive operator $\mathcal{O}_{1}$.

It then suffices to homomorphically add these vectors, i.e.

$$
\operatorname{Mult}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)=\mathcal{O}_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathcal{O}_{\kappa}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)
$$

A security analysis is proposed in Section 5 . We first prove a fundamental result based on symmetry assuming the hardness of factoring. Proposition 3 states
that relevant information about $S$ cannot be recovered. Roughly speaking, only symmetric values (evaluations of polynomials over $S$ ) can be efficiently recovered, while natural compact representations of $\phi_{D}$ do not deal with symmetric values. This result excludes a large class of attacks based on Grobner basis or more generally based on variable elimination theory.

We then exhibit some weaknesses of this scheme by listing some efficient attacks. We mainly adopt this approach in a pedagogical point of view. We wish to provide some intuition about the ideas behind our construction. In particular, we exhibit a common point of all the identified attacks. This leads us to propose an (informal) assumption (see Assumption 1). This will then guide us to develop new homomorphic operators in Section 6. These operators can be seen as a randomization/generalization of the naive ones.

While Assumption 1 was not formally reduced to the security of our scheme, we modestly think that some strong evidence about this are provided.

Remark 1. A SageMath implementation of the HE is given in Appendix B. The source code of this implementation and the sources of some attacks proposed in this paper can be found in the following archive:
https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1fkma-sacLO5LA7eqgIn-D7OTpYXN6×CQ?usp=sharing

### 1.2 Notation

We use standard Landau notations. Throughout this paper, we let $\lambda$ denote the security parameter: all known attacks against the cryptographic scheme under scope should require $2^{\Omega(\lambda)}$ bit operations to mount. Let $\kappa \geq 2$ be an integer and let $n$ be a large prime or a RSA modulus. All the computations considered in this paper will be done in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$.
$-\Delta_{\kappa}$ refers to the set of permutations over $\{1, \ldots, \kappa\}$.
$-\Sigma_{\kappa}=\left\{\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{\kappa}\right\} \subset \Delta_{\kappa}$ defined by $\sigma_{i}(j)=(i+j-2 \bmod \kappa)+1$, , i.e. $\sigma_{i}(1)=i ; \sigma_{i}(2)=i+1 ; \ldots ; \sigma_{i}(\kappa)=i-1$.

- The cardinality of a set $S$ will be denoted by $\# S$.
- 'Choose at random $x \in X^{\prime}$ will systematically mean that $x$ is chosen according to uniform probability distribution over $X$, i.e. $x \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} X$.
- The inner product of two vectors $\boldsymbol{v}$ and $\boldsymbol{v}^{\prime}$ is denoted by $\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{v}^{\prime}\right\rangle$
- The set of all square $t-b y-t$ matrices over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is denoted by $\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{t \times t}$.

Remark 2. The number $M(m, d)$ of $m$-variate monomials of degree $d$ is equal to $\binom{d+m-1}{d}$. In particular, $M(2 \kappa, \kappa) \approx(27 / 4)^{\kappa}$.

## 2 Some security results under the factoring assumption

Throughout this section, $n$ denotes a randomly chosen RSA-modulus. Given a function $\phi: \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{r} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{n}, z_{\phi} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \#\left\{x \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{r} \mid \phi(x)=0\right\} / n^{r}$. Classically a polynomial will be said null (or identically null) if each coefficient of its expanded representation is equal to 0 .

### 2.1 Roots of polynomials

The following result proved in [AM09] establishes that it is difficult to output a polynomial $\phi$ such that $z_{\phi}$ is non-negligible. The security of RSA in the generic ring model can be quite straightforwardly derived from this result (see [AM09]).

Theorem 1. (Lemma 4 of [AM09] and Proposition 1 of [GT20]). Assuming factoring is hard, there is no p.p.t algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ which inputs $n$ and which outputs $^{1} a\{+,-, \times\}$-circuit representing a non-null polynomial $\phi \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r}\right]$ such that $z_{\phi}$ is non-negligible.
Thanks to this lemma, showing that two polynomials (built without knowing the factorization of $n$ ) are equal with non-negligible probability becomes an algebraic problem: it suffices to prove that they are identically equal.

### 2.2 Symmetry

Let $\kappa \geq 2$ and $t \geq 1$ be integers. Recall that $\Delta_{\kappa}$ denotes the set of the permutations over $\{1, \ldots, \kappa\}$. Throughout this section, we will consider an arbitrary subset $\Sigma \subseteq \Delta_{\kappa}$. Let $y_{1}, y_{2}$ be randomly chosen in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. It is well-known that recovering $y_{1}$ with non-negligible probability given only $S=y_{1}+y_{2}$ or $P=y_{1} y_{2}$ is difficult assuming the hardness of factoring ( $y_{1}, y_{2}$ are the roots of the polynomial $\left.y^{2}-S y+P\right)$. In this section, we propose to extend this. The following definition naturally extends the classical definition of symmetric polynomials.
Definition 1. Consider the tuples of indeterminate $\left(Y_{\ell}=\left(X_{\ell 1}, \ldots, X_{\ell t}\right)\right)_{\ell=1, \ldots, \kappa}$. A polynomial $\phi \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}\left[Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{\kappa}\right]$ is $\Sigma$-symmetric if for any permutation $\sigma \in \Sigma$,

$$
\phi\left(Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{\kappa}\right)=\phi\left(Y_{\sigma(1)}, \ldots, Y_{\sigma(\kappa)}\right)
$$

Let $\mathcal{P}$ be an arbitrary p.p.t algorithm which inputs $n$ and outputs $m$ symmetric polynomials $s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m}$ and a non $\Sigma$-symmetric polynomial $\pi$. Evaluating $\pi$ only given evaluations of $s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m}$ is difficult.

Lemma 1. Let $n$ be a randomly chosen RSA modulus and $\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m}, \pi\right) \leftarrow$ $\mathcal{P}(n)$. Assuming the hardness of factoring, there is no p.p.t algorithm which outputs $\pi(y)$ given only $s_{1}(y), \ldots, s_{m}(y)$ with non-negligible probability over the choice of $n, y \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{\kappa t}$.
Proof. See [GT20].

[^0]
## 3 A private-key encryption scheme

We propose here a private-key encryption scheme where the secret key $K$ contains $2 \kappa$ randomly chosen secret vectors $s_{1}, \ldots, s_{2 \kappa}$ belonging to $\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{2 \kappa}$. Encrypting $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ simply consists of randomly choosing $\boldsymbol{c} \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{2 \kappa}$ satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\left\langle s_{1}, \boldsymbol{c}\right\rangle}{\left\langle s_{2}, \boldsymbol{c}\right\rangle}+\cdots+\frac{\left\langle s_{2 \kappa-1}, \boldsymbol{c}\right\rangle}{\left\langle s_{2 \kappa}, \boldsymbol{c}\right\rangle}=x \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

By assuming the vectors $\boldsymbol{s}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{s}_{2 \kappa}$ linearly independent, our scheme can be defined as follows:

Definition 2. Let $\lambda$ be a security parameter. The functions KeyGen, Encrypt, Decrypt are defined as follows:

- KeyGen $(\lambda)$. Let $\kappa$ be a positive integer indexed by $\lambda$, let $n$ be a randomly chosen RSA-modulus. Choose at random an invertible matrix $S \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{2 \kappa \times 2 \kappa}$. Output

$$
K=\{S\} ; p p=\{n, \kappa\}
$$

- Encrypt $\left(K, p p, x \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}\right)$. Choose at random $r_{1}, \ldots, r_{\kappa}$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$ and $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{\kappa}$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ s.t. $x_{1}+\cdots+x_{\kappa}=x$. Output

$$
\boldsymbol{c}=S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1} x_{1} \\
r_{1} \\
\cdots \\
r_{\kappa} x_{\kappa} \\
r_{\kappa}
\end{array}\right)
$$

- Decrypt $\left(K, p p, \boldsymbol{c} \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{2 \kappa}\right)$. Output

$$
x=\sum_{\ell=1}^{\kappa} \frac{\left\langle s_{2 \ell-1}, \boldsymbol{c}\right\rangle}{\left\langle s_{2 \ell}, \boldsymbol{c}\right\rangle}
$$

where $\boldsymbol{s}_{i}$ refers to the $i^{\text {th }}$ row of $S$.
Throughout this paper, $\mathcal{L}_{i}$ denotes the linear function defined by $\mathcal{L}_{i}(\boldsymbol{v})=\left\langle\boldsymbol{s}_{i}, \boldsymbol{v}\right\rangle$. Moreover, $p p=\{n, \kappa\}$ will be assumed to be public. The homomorphic operator(s), developed later, will be included in $p p$. Proving correctness is straightforward by using the relation $x=r_{1} x_{1} / r_{1}+\ldots+r_{\kappa} x_{\kappa} / r_{\kappa}$. The function Decrypt can be represented by the ratio of two degree- $\kappa$ polynomials $\phi_{D}, \phi_{D}^{\prime} \in$ $\mathbb{Z}_{n}\left[X_{1}, \cdots, X_{2 \kappa}\right]$ defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi_{D}=\sum_{\ell=1}^{\kappa} \mathcal{L}_{2 \ell-1} \prod_{\ell^{\prime} \neq \ell} \mathcal{L}_{2 \ell^{\prime}} ; \phi_{D}^{\prime}=\prod_{\ell=1}^{\kappa} \mathcal{L}_{2 \ell} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

i.e.

$$
\operatorname{Decrypt}(K, p p, \boldsymbol{c})=\phi_{D}(\boldsymbol{c}) / \phi_{D}^{\prime}(\boldsymbol{c})
$$

At this step, our scheme is not homomorphic in the sense that the vector sum is not an homomorphic operator. Indeed, $\boldsymbol{c}$ and $a \cdot \boldsymbol{c}$ are encryptions of the same message for any $a \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$.

We can identify two independent sources of randomness in Encrypt: the choice of the shares $x_{i}$ and the choice of the masks $r_{i}$. As mentioned in the introduction, we will consider the following convenient notation capturing these two types of randomness:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X(\boldsymbol{c}) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{\kappa}\right)=\left(\mathcal{L}_{1}(\boldsymbol{c}) / \mathcal{L}_{2}(\boldsymbol{c}), \ldots, \mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa-1}(\boldsymbol{c}) / \mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa}(\boldsymbol{c})\right) \\
& R(\boldsymbol{c}) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{\kappa}\right)=\left(\mathcal{L}_{2}(\boldsymbol{c}), \ldots, \mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa}(\boldsymbol{c})\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The factoring assumption. The factorization of $n$ is not used in KeyGen. Consequently, the generation of $n$ could be externalized ${ }^{2}$ (for instance generated by an oracle). In other words, $n$ could be a public input of KeyGen. It follows that all the polynomials considered in our security analysis are built without using the factorization of $n$. It follows that Proposition 1 and Lemma 1 can be invoked.

The basic attack. The most natural attack consists of solving a linear system in order to recover $\phi_{D}$. Let $\boldsymbol{c} \leftarrow \operatorname{Encrypt}(K, p p, 0)$ be an encryption of 0 . By definition, $\phi_{D}($ see (2)) satisfies

$$
\phi_{D}(\boldsymbol{c})=\prod_{\ell=1}^{\kappa} r_{\ell} \cdot \sum_{\ell^{\prime}=1}^{\kappa} x_{\ell^{\prime}}=0
$$

ensuring that $\phi_{D}(\boldsymbol{c})=0$. By considering several encryptions $\boldsymbol{c}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{c}_{t}$ of 0 , we get the system of equations $\phi_{D}\left(\boldsymbol{c}_{1}\right)=0, \ldots, \phi_{D}\left(\boldsymbol{c}_{t}\right)=0$.

The expanded representation of $\phi_{D}$ could be thus recovered ${ }^{3}$ by solving a linear system whose variables are its monomial coefficients. However, this attack fails provided $\kappa=\Theta(\lambda)$ because the expanded representation of $\phi_{D}$ is exponential-size in this case (see Remark 2). For instance, by choosing $\kappa=13$, the attack consists of solving a linear system dealing with approximatively $5 \cdot 10^{9}$ variables: this is currently assumed to be infeasible.

## 4 A naive implementation of the homomorphic operators

Let $S \leftarrow \operatorname{KeyGen}(\lambda)$. In this section, we will consider the quadratic polynomials $\mathcal{L}_{i j} \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}\left[U_{1}, \ldots, U_{2 \kappa}, V_{1}, \ldots, V_{2 \kappa}\right]$ defined by $\mathcal{L}_{i j}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})=\mathcal{L}_{i}(\boldsymbol{u}) \mathcal{L}_{j}(\boldsymbol{v})=$ $\left\langle s_{i}, \boldsymbol{u}\right\rangle\left\langle\boldsymbol{s}_{j}, \boldsymbol{v}\right\rangle$.

In this section, we propose a natural and simple way to implement the homomorphic operators. Throughout this paper, we will consider the following encryptions

[^1]$\boldsymbol{c}$ and $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}$ of $x$ and $x^{\prime}$
\[

\boldsymbol{c}=S^{-1}\left($$
\begin{array}{l}
r_{1} x_{1} \\
r_{1} \\
\cdots \\
r_{\kappa} x_{\kappa} \\
r_{\kappa}
\end{array}
$$\right) \quad ; \quad \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}=S^{-1}\left($$
\begin{array}{l}
r_{1}^{\prime} x_{1}^{\prime} \\
r_{1}^{\prime} \\
\cdots \\
r_{\kappa}^{\prime} x_{\kappa}^{\prime} \\
r_{\kappa}^{\prime}
\end{array}
$$\right)
\]

### 4.1 The additive operator

The additive operator exploits the basic equality

$$
\frac{a}{b}+\frac{a^{\prime}}{b^{\prime}}=\frac{a b^{\prime}+a^{\prime} b}{b b^{\prime}}
$$

showing that the numerator and the denominator of the sum can be obtained by evaluating quadratic polynomials over $a, a^{\prime}, b, b^{\prime}$. This is the starting point to build an additive operator Add (denoted sometimes $\oplus$ ) satisfying (see Figure 1)

$$
\begin{aligned}
X\left(\boldsymbol{c} \oplus \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) & =\left(x_{1}+x_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, x_{\kappa}+x_{\kappa}^{\prime}\right) \\
R\left(\boldsymbol{c} \oplus \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) & =\left(r_{1} r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{\kappa} r_{\kappa}^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition 3. $\operatorname{AddGen}(S)$ outputs the expanded representation of the quadratic polynomials $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}$ defined by

$$
\left(\begin{array}{l}
q_{1} \\
\cdots \\
q_{2 \kappa}
\end{array}\right)=S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
\mathcal{L}_{12}+\mathcal{L}_{21} \\
\mathcal{L}_{22} \\
\cdots \\
\mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa-1,2 \kappa}+\mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa, 2 \kappa-1} \\
\mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa, 2 \kappa}
\end{array}\right)
$$

As each quadratic polynomial $q_{i}$ has $O\left(\kappa^{2}\right)$ monomials, the running time of AddGen is $O\left(\kappa^{4}\right)(2 \kappa$ sums of $2 \kappa$ quadratic polynomials). The operator Add $\leftarrow$ $\operatorname{AddGen}(S)$ consists of evaluating the polynomials $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}$, i.e. $\operatorname{Add}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})=$ $\left(q_{1}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}), \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})\right)$, leading to a running time in $O\left(\kappa^{3}\right)$. See Appendix A for a toy implementation of Add.

Proposition 1. Add $\leftarrow \operatorname{AddGen}(S)$ is a valid additive homomorphic operator.
Proof. By construction, for any $\ell=1, \ldots, \kappa$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\langle\boldsymbol{s}_{2 \ell-1},\left(q_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right), \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)\right\rangle \\
& =\mathcal{L}_{2 \ell-1,2 \ell}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)+\mathcal{L}_{2 \ell, 2 \ell-1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) \\
& =r_{\ell} x_{\ell} r_{\ell}^{\prime}+r_{\ell}^{\prime} x_{\ell}^{\prime} r_{\ell} \\
& =r_{\ell} r_{\ell}^{\prime}\left(x_{\ell}+x_{\ell}^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and
$\left\langle\boldsymbol{s}_{2 \ell},\left(q_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right), \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)\right\rangle$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\mathcal{L}_{2 \ell, 2 \ell}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) \\
& =r_{\ell} r_{\ell}^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Decrypt}\left(K, p p, \operatorname{Add}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right) \\
& =\frac{r_{1} r_{1}^{\prime}\left(x_{1}+x_{1}^{\prime}\right)}{r_{1} r_{1}^{\prime}}+\ldots \frac{r_{\kappa} r_{\kappa}^{\prime}\left(x_{\kappa}+x_{\kappa}^{\prime}\right)}{r_{\kappa} r_{\kappa}^{\prime}} \\
& =x_{1}+x_{1}^{\prime}+\ldots+x_{\kappa}+x_{\kappa}^{\prime}=x+x^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

### 4.2 The multiplicative operator

The idea behind the operator $\otimes$ exploits the equality

$$
x x^{\prime}=\sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq \kappa} x_{i} x_{j}^{\prime}=\sum_{i=1}^{\kappa} \pi_{i}
$$

with $\pi_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} x_{j} x_{\sigma_{i}(j)}^{\prime}$ (recall that $\sigma_{i}$ is the permutation over $\{1, \ldots, \kappa\}$ defined by $\left.\sigma_{i}(1)=i, \sigma_{i}(2)=i+1, \ldots, \sigma_{i}(\kappa)=i-1\right)$.

Simply speaking, $\kappa$ quadratic operators $\mathcal{O}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{O}_{\kappa}$ are required to build encryptions of $\pi_{1}, \ldots, \pi_{\kappa}$. More precisely,

$$
\begin{aligned}
X\left(\mathcal{O}_{i}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right) & =\left(x_{1} x_{\sigma_{i}(1)}^{\prime}, \ldots, x_{\kappa} x_{\sigma_{i}(\kappa)}^{\prime}\right) \\
R\left(\mathcal{O}_{i}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right) & =\left(r_{1} r_{\sigma_{i}(1)}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{\kappa} r_{\sigma_{i}(\kappa)}^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

It then suffices to homomorphically add these encryptions to obtain an encryption of $x x^{\prime}$.

Definition 4. Given $i \in\{1, \ldots, \kappa\}$, $\operatorname{OGen}(S, i)$ outputs the expanded representation of the quadratic polynomials $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}$ defined by

$$
\left(\begin{array}{l}
q_{1} \\
\cdots \\
q_{2 \kappa}
\end{array}\right)=S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
\mathcal{L}_{1,2 \sigma_{i}(1)-1} \\
\mathcal{L}_{2,2 \sigma_{i}(1)} \\
\cdots \\
\mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa-1,2 \sigma_{i}(\kappa)-1} \\
\mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa, 2 \sigma_{i}(\kappa)}
\end{array}\right)
$$

and $\mathcal{O}_{i}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)=\left(q_{i 1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right), \ldots, q_{i, 2 \kappa}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)$
As highlighted in Fig. $3, \mathcal{O}_{i}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$ is a valid operator which outputs an encryption of $\pi_{i}$. The multiplicative operator can be then defined as follows

$$
\boldsymbol{c} \otimes \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}=\mathcal{O}_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) \oplus \ldots \oplus \mathcal{O}_{\kappa}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)
$$

Proposition 2. The operator $\otimes$ is a valid multiplicative homomorphic operator.

Proof. It suffices to show that $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime} \leftarrow \mathcal{O}_{i}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$ is an encryption of $\pi_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} x_{i} x_{\sigma_{i}(j)}^{\prime}$.
$\operatorname{Decrypt}\left(S, p p, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right)$
$=\sum_{\ell=1}^{\kappa} \frac{r_{\ell} r_{\sigma_{i}(\ell)}^{\prime} x_{\ell} x_{\sigma_{i}(\ell)}}{r_{\ell} r_{\sigma_{i}(\ell)}^{\prime}}$
$=x_{1} x_{\sigma_{i}(1)}^{\prime}+\ldots+x_{\kappa} x_{\sigma_{i}(\kappa)}^{\prime}$
$=\pi_{i}$

$$
\mathcal{O}_{i}\left(S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1} x_{1} \\
r_{1} \\
\cdots \\
r_{\kappa} x_{\kappa} \\
r_{\kappa}
\end{array}\right), S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1}^{\prime} x_{1}^{\prime} \\
r_{1}^{\prime} \\
\cdots \\
r_{\kappa}^{\prime} x_{\kappa}^{\prime} \\
r_{\kappa}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)\right)=S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1} r_{\sigma_{i}(1)}^{\prime} x_{1} x_{\sigma_{i}(1)}^{\prime} \\
r_{1} r_{\sigma_{i}(1)}^{\prime} \\
\cdots \\
r_{\kappa} r_{\sigma_{i}(\kappa)}^{\prime} x_{\kappa} x_{\sigma_{i}(\kappa)}^{\prime} \\
r_{\kappa} r_{\sigma_{i}(\kappa)}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Fig. 3. Description of the operator $\mathcal{O}_{i}$ showing that $\operatorname{Decrypt}\left(K, p p, \mathcal{O}_{i}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)=\pi_{i}$

Case $\kappa=2$. Given two encryptions $\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}$ of $x, x^{\prime}$, we have

$$
\mathcal{O}_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)=T\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1} r_{1}^{\prime} x_{1} x_{1}^{\prime} \\
r_{1} r_{1}^{\prime} \\
r_{2} r_{2}^{\prime} x_{2} x_{2}^{\prime} \\
r_{2} r_{2}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right) ; \mathcal{O}_{2}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)=T\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1} r_{2}^{\prime} x_{1} x_{2}^{\prime} \\
r_{1} r_{2}^{\prime} \\
r_{2} r_{1}^{\prime} x_{2} x_{1}^{\prime} \\
r_{2} r_{1}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)
$$

implying that $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}=\operatorname{Mult}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \operatorname{Add}\left(\mathcal{O}_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right), \mathcal{O}_{2}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)$ is a valid encryption of $x x^{\prime}$. Indeed,

$$
\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}=T\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1}^{2} r_{1}^{\prime} r_{2}^{\prime}\left(x_{1} x_{1}^{\prime}+x_{1} x_{2}^{\prime}\right) \\
r_{1}^{2} r_{r_{1}^{\prime}}^{\prime} r_{2}^{\prime} \\
r_{2}^{2} r_{r_{2}^{\prime}}^{\prime} r_{2}^{\prime}\left(x_{2} x_{1}^{\prime}+x_{2} x_{2}^{\prime}\right) \\
r_{2}^{2} r_{1}^{\prime} r_{2}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)
$$

and $\operatorname{Decrypt}\left(K, p p, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right)=x_{1} x_{1}^{\prime}+x_{1} x_{2}^{\prime}+x_{2} x_{1}^{\prime}+x_{2} x_{2}^{\prime}=\left(x_{1}^{\prime}+x_{2}^{\prime}\right)\left(x_{1}+x_{2}\right)=x x^{\prime}$.

### 4.3 Towards a public-key encryption

The classic way (see [Rot11]) to transform a private-key cryptosystem into a public-key cryptosystem consists of publicizing encryptions $\boldsymbol{c}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{c}_{t}$ of known values $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{t}$ and using the homomorphic operators to encrypt $x$. Let Encrypt1 denote this new encryption function. Assuming the IND-CPA security of the private-key cryptosystem, it suffices that $\operatorname{Encrypt1}(p k, x)$ and $\operatorname{Encrypt}(K, p p, x)$ are computationally indistinguishable to ensure the IND-CPA security of the public-key cryptosystem. One can easily check this can be achieved (with overwhelming probability) by choosing $t=\mathcal{O}(\kappa)$.

## 5 Security analysis

In order to make the basic attack fail,

$$
\kappa=\Theta(\lambda)
$$

throughout this paper. To simplify our security analysis, we propose minor modifications in the definitions of the encrypting function and the homomorphic operators (see definitions 2, 7 and 8) consisting of replacing $S^{-1}$ by $\operatorname{det} S \times S^{-1}$. It is straightforward to show that our construction remains correct. This is done to ensure that each value known by the CPA attacker can be expressed as a polynomial defined over the coefficients of $S$.

There are classically two sources of randomness behind the knowledge of the CPA attacker. The first source of randomness is the internal randomness of KeyGen, i.e. the choice of $K=\{S\}$. The second source of randomness comes from the encryption oracle. After receiving the challenge encryption $\boldsymbol{c}_{0} \leftarrow \operatorname{Encrypt}\left(K, p p, x_{0}\right)$, the CPA attacker requests the encryption oracle to get encryptions $\boldsymbol{c}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{c}_{t}$ of arbitrarily chosen plaintexts $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{t} \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$.

Definition 5. Let $S \leftarrow \operatorname{KeyGen}(\lambda)$, let $\left(x_{i 1}, r_{i 1}, \ldots, x_{i \kappa}, r_{i \kappa}\right)$ be the values (randomly) chosen by the encryption oracle to produce ${ }^{4} \boldsymbol{c}_{i}$. For any $\ell \in\{1, \ldots, \kappa\}$, the random vector $\theta_{\ell}$ is defined by

$$
\theta_{\ell}=\left(s_{2 \ell-1}, s_{2 \ell},\left(x_{i \ell}, r_{i \ell}\right)_{i=0, \ldots, t}\right)
$$

The random vector $\left(\theta_{1}, \ldots, \theta_{\kappa}\right)$ is denoted by $\boldsymbol{\theta}$.
The knowledge of the CPA attacker can be represented as a vector $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{\gamma}$, with $\gamma=O\left(\kappa^{4}\right)$ provided $t=\Theta(\kappa)$.

Definition 6. The CPA attacker's knowledge ( $\boldsymbol{c}_{0}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{c}_{t}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{t}$, Add, Mult) can be represented by a vector $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$, the $i^{\text {th }}$ component of $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ being the evaluation of a polynomial $\alpha_{i}$ over $\boldsymbol{\theta}$, i.e. $\boldsymbol{\alpha}=\left(\alpha_{1}(\boldsymbol{\theta}), \alpha_{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta}), \ldots\right) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \alpha(\boldsymbol{\theta})$.

The polynomials $\alpha_{i}$ have intrinsical symmetry properties.

Lemma 2. Each polynomial $\alpha_{i}$ is $\Sigma_{\kappa}$-symmetric (see Definition 1).
Proof. See [GT20]

This result means that $\alpha_{i}\left(\theta_{1}, \ldots, \theta_{\kappa}\right)=\alpha_{i}\left(\theta_{\sigma(1)}, \ldots, \theta_{\sigma(\kappa)}\right)$ for any $\sigma \in \Sigma_{\kappa}$. For instance, Add and the operators $\mathcal{O}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{O}_{\kappa}$ remain unchanged by permuting $\theta_{1}, \ldots, \theta_{\kappa}$ according to $\sigma_{j}$, i.e. replacing $\left(\theta_{1}, \ldots, \theta_{\kappa}\right)$ by $\left(\theta_{j}, \ldots, \theta_{\kappa}, \theta_{1}, \ldots, \theta_{j-1}\right)$.

[^2]
### 5.1 A fundamental result

By mixing Lemma 1 and Lemma 2, we get the following fundamental result.
Proposition 3. Assume the hardness of factoring, $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ cannot be evaluated provided $\pi$ is a polynomial which is not $\Sigma_{\kappa}$-symmetric. In particular, the CPA attacker cannot recover any:

1. coefficient of $S$,
2. product of strictly less than $\kappa$ coefficients of $S$,
3. polynomial ${ }^{5} \mathcal{L}_{i_{1}} \times \cdots \times \mathcal{L}_{i_{t}}$ provided $t<\kappa$,

Proof. A direct consequence of Lemmas 1 and 2.

Consider, for instance, the polynomial

$$
\phi_{D}=\sum_{\ell=1}^{\kappa} \mathcal{L}_{2 \ell-1} \prod_{\ell^{\prime} \neq \ell} \mathcal{L}_{2 \ell^{\prime}}
$$

can be used to distinguish between encryptions of 0 and encryptions of 1. Clearly, each monomial coefficient of $\phi_{D}$ is $\Sigma_{\kappa}$-symmetric (and thus could be perhaps recovered). However, the expanded representation of $\phi_{D}$ (or its multiples) is exponential-size provided $\kappa=\Theta(\lambda)$ and thus cannot be recovered.
By construction, $\phi_{D}$ (or its multiples) could nevertheless be efficiently represented with the linear functions $\mathcal{L}_{i}$ (or $\mathrm{O}(1)$-products of these linear functions). However, these compact semi-factored representations do not deal with symmetric quantities and they cannot be recovered according to Proposition 3. Unfortunately, our scheme suffers from some vulnerabilities detailed in the two following subsections.

### 5.2 Algebraic attacks based on Grœbner basis

The knowledge of the CPA attacks can be seen as evaluations of polynomials over $\boldsymbol{\theta}$. Hence, our scheme can be seen as the over-defined system of nonlinear equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \alpha_{1}-\alpha_{1}(\boldsymbol{\theta})=0 \\
& \alpha_{2}-\alpha_{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta})=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $I$ denote the ideal generated by the polynomials $\alpha_{i}-\alpha_{i}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$. Computing Groebner basis [Buc06] of $I$ is relevant to solve such systems of equations.

By using variable elimination technics (e.g. based on Groebner basis), univariate equations dealing with any coefficient $s_{i j}$ of $S$ could be recovered by

[^3]computing $I \cap\left\langle s_{i j}\right\rangle$. However, thanks to symmetry, such equations are ensured to be nonlinear and thus cannot be solved under the factoring assumption. This is exactly what Proposition 3 encapsulates.

Nevertheless, other attacks based on Groebner basis can be imagined. This is the object of this section.

A basic example. Similarly to the basic attack of the private-key encryption scheme (see Section 3), the system of equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi_{D}\left(\boldsymbol{c}_{i}\right)-x_{i} \phi_{D}^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{c}_{i}\right)=0 \quad \text { for any } i=0, \ldots, t \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

can be considered as linear. The number of variables of this linear system being equal $2 \times M(2 \kappa, \kappa)$ (see notation of the introduction), it is exponential-size provided $\kappa=\Theta(\lambda)$.

By considering these equations as nonlinear, i.e. defined over the variables $s_{i j}$ and $x_{0}$ (assuming $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{t}$ are known), attacks based on Grœebner basis could be relevant to recover $x_{0}$. We simply consider the ideal $I$ generated by the polynomials $\phi_{D}\left(\boldsymbol{c}_{i}\right)-x_{i} \phi_{D}^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{c}_{i}\right)$, i.e.

$$
\sum_{\ell=1}^{\kappa}\left\langle s_{2 \ell-1}, \boldsymbol{c}_{i}\right\rangle \prod_{\ell^{\prime} \neq \ell}\left\langle s_{2 \ell^{\prime}}, \boldsymbol{c}_{i}\right\rangle-x_{i} \prod_{\ell=1}^{\kappa}\left\langle s_{2 \ell}, \boldsymbol{c}_{i}\right\rangle
$$

We then eliminate the variables $s_{i j}$ to recover $x_{0}$.
We first experiment the case $\kappa=1$. We measure the running times w.r.t. $t$.

$$
\begin{array}{|r|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline t & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & \cdots & 10 & \cdots & 15 \\
\hline \text { time }(\mathrm{ms}) & 1.5 & 1.5 & 1.5 & 1.5 & \cdots & 1.6 & \cdots & 1.6 \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

Consider now $\kappa=2$. We obtain the following running times

$$
\begin{array}{|r|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline t & 18 & 19 & 20 & 21 & \cdots & 25 & \cdots & 30 \\
\hline \text { time(s) } & 780 & 125 & 21 & 21 & \cdots & 22 & \cdots & 21 \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

By noticing that $M(4,2)=10$, we notice a major threshold effect when

$$
t<2 \times M(2 \kappa, \kappa)
$$

In other words, when the system of equations (3) cannot be considered as linear (because the number of equations is too small, i.e. strictly smaller than $2 \times$ $M(2 \kappa, \kappa))$, elimination technics seem dramatically not efficient to recover $x_{0}$. This would be sufficient to prove the inefficiency of such attacks by recalling that $M(2 \kappa, \kappa)$ is exponential in $\kappa$. Because of prohibitive running times, this threshold effect was unfortunately not confirmed for higher values of $\kappa$, i.e. we did not obtain any result within 24 h for $\kappa=3$. Nevertheless, this clearly suggests the inefficiency of these attacks.

Moreover, the above experiments are intrinsically not efficient. Indeed, the expanded representation of the polynomials $\phi_{D}$ and $\phi_{D}^{\prime}$ is exponential w.r.t. $\kappa$ and thus cannot be directly considered. To overcome this, new variables could be introduced. For instance, we introduce the variables $x_{i 1}, \ldots, x_{i \kappa}$ for each encryption $\boldsymbol{c}_{i}$ and replace (3) by the $\kappa+1$ following equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\langle s_{2 \ell-1}, \boldsymbol{c}_{i}\right\rangle=x_{i \ell} \cdot\left\langle s_{2 \ell}, \boldsymbol{c}_{i}\right\rangle \text { for any } \ell=1, \ldots, \kappa \\
& x_{i 1}+\ldots+x_{i \kappa}=x_{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

This dramatically degrades performance in all our experiments. Indeed, recovering $x_{0}$ requires the elimination of the variables $x_{i j}$ which intrinsically leads to the polynomials $\phi_{D}$ and $\phi_{D}^{\prime}$. In our opinion, Groebner basis are clearly not relevant tools to attack our private-key encryption (without taking into account homomorphic operators) provided

$$
\kappa=\Theta(\lambda)
$$

Attack 1. We here propose to decrypt the challenge encryption only knowing the homomorphic operators (without any access to the encryption oracle). For concreteness, we consider the ideal $I$ containing the polynomials related to the homomorphic operators and the challenge encryption.
The methods based on Grobner basis deal with expanded representations. As the number of monomials of each coefficient of $S^{-1}$ (or more precisely $\operatorname{det} S \times S^{-1}$ ) is exponential w.r.t. $\kappa$.

A first way to overcome this could consist of introducing new variables $t_{11}, t_{12}, \ldots, t_{2 \kappa, 2 \kappa}$ and replacing $S^{-1}$ by the matrix $T=\left[t_{i j}\right]$. This can be done by adding to the ideal $I$ all the equations coming from the equality $T \times S=\mathrm{Id}$. However, this approach dramatically increases the running times in all our experiments.

Let us propose an other approach. For instance, let us consider the operator $\left(q_{1}, \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}\right)=\mathcal{O}_{1}$. By definition,

$$
S\left(\begin{array}{l}
q_{1} \\
\cdots \\
q_{2 \kappa}
\end{array}\right)-\left(\begin{array}{l}
\mathcal{L}_{11} \\
\cdots \\
\mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa, 2 \kappa}
\end{array}\right)=0
$$

The polynomials coming from this equation are only quadratic ensuring polynomialsize expanded representations ${ }^{6}$.

By using these basic optimizations (see Fig. 4 for a Sagemath implementation of this attack dealing with the case $\kappa=2$ ), the challenge encryption can be decrypted with the following running times:

$$
\begin{array}{|r|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \kappa & 2 & \ldots & 6 & 7 & 8 \\
\hline \text { time }(s) & 0.06 & \ldots & 24 & 83 & 330 \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

It is unclear whether these attacks are efficient or not. Nevertheless, they seem more efficient than the basic attack.

[^4]Remark 3. The above running times are not improved by including the encryptions $\boldsymbol{c}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{c}_{t}$ in the ideal $I$. This explains why they were not considered in Attack 1.

Remark 4. Attacks based on Græbner basis seem totally inefficient if Mult is discarded from $I$. This enhances our confidence in the security of the additive scheme proposed in [GT20].

### 5.3 Attacks using specificities of the homomorphic operators

The attacks based on Grobner basis are general in the sense that they can be mounted whatever the way to define the homomorphic operators is. We here propose a list (hopefully exhaustive) of efficient attacks exploiting specificities of our construction.

Attack 2. By definition of our operator $\otimes$, we can write ( $\boldsymbol{u} \sim \boldsymbol{v}$ meaning that $\exists k$ s.t. $\boldsymbol{u}=k \boldsymbol{v})$,

$$
\boldsymbol{c} \otimes \boldsymbol{c} \sim S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1}^{\kappa} x_{1}\left(x_{1}+x_{2}+\ldots+x_{\kappa}\right) \\
r_{1}^{\kappa} \\
\cdots \\
r_{\kappa}^{\kappa} x_{\kappa}\left(x_{1}+x_{2}+\ldots+x_{\kappa}\right) \\
r_{\kappa}^{\kappa}
\end{array}\right) \sim S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1}^{\kappa} x_{1} x \\
r_{1}^{\kappa} \\
\cdots \\
r_{\kappa}^{\kappa} x_{\kappa} x \\
r_{\kappa}^{\kappa}
\end{array}\right)
$$

This is obviously a disaster in term of security. Indeed, if $\boldsymbol{c}$ is an encryption of 0 then

$$
\boldsymbol{c} \otimes \boldsymbol{c} \sim S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
r_{1}^{\kappa} \\
\cdots \\
0 \\
r_{\kappa}^{\kappa}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Let $\boldsymbol{c}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{c}_{\kappa}$ be encryptions of 0 . To test whether a challenge encryption $\boldsymbol{c}$ is an encryption of 0 , it suffices to check that $\boldsymbol{c} \otimes \boldsymbol{c}$ belongs to the vectorial space spanned by the vectors $\boldsymbol{c}_{1} \otimes \boldsymbol{c}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{c}_{\kappa} \otimes \boldsymbol{c}_{\kappa}$.

Attack 3. Let us consider the operator $\mathcal{O}_{1}$ defined in the previous section, i.e. applying $\mathcal{O}_{1}$ consists of evaluating the polynomials $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}$ defined by

$$
\left(\begin{array}{l}
q_{1} \\
\cdots \\
q_{2 \kappa}
\end{array}\right)=S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
\mathcal{L}_{11} \\
\mathcal{L}_{22} \\
\cdots \\
\mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa, 2 \kappa}
\end{array}\right)
$$

As the vector $\boldsymbol{v}=S^{-1}(0,1,0,1, \ldots, 0,1)$ is the unique vector satisfying $\operatorname{Add}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})=$ $\boldsymbol{u}$ for any valid encryption $\boldsymbol{u}$, it can be recovered by solving a linear system. It

```
import time
n=97; kappa=2; ka=2*kappa
alpha=[];pi=[];L=[];LL=[];qq=[]
R. <x1,x2,x,s11,s12,s13,s14,s21,s22,s23,s24,s31,s32,s33,s34,s41,s42,s43,s44,u1,u2,u3,u4,v1,v2,v3,v4>
=PolynomialRing(FiniteField(n),27)
u=vector([u4,u2,u3,u4])
v=vector([v1,v2,v3,v4])
S=matrix(4,4,[s11,s12,s13,s14,s21,s22,s23,s24,s31,s32,s33,s34,s41,s42,s43,s44])
SS=matrix(FiniteField(n),4,4,(randint(1, n) for i in range(16)))
TT=SS.inverse()
c=vector([1,2,3,4])
o=S*C
pi=[x1+x2-x]
pi.append(o[0]-x1*०[1])
pi.append(o[2]-x2*o[3])
su=S*u
sv=S*v
ssu=SS*u
ssv=SS*v
L.append(vector([(su[0]*sv[0]),su[1]*sv[1],su[2]*sv[2],su[3]*sv[3] ]))
L.append(vector([(su[0]*sv[1]+su[1]*sv[0]),su[1]*sv[1],su[2]*sv[3]+su[3]*sv[2],su[3]*sv[3] ]))
L.append(vector([(su[0]*sv[2]),su[1]*sv[3],su[2]*sv[0],su[3]*sv[1] ]))
LL.append(vector([(ssu[0]*ssv[0]),ssu[1]*ssv[1],ssu[2]**ssv[2],ssu[3]*}\operatorname{ssv}[3] ])
LL.append(vector([(ssu[0]*ssv[1]+ssu[1]*ssv[0]),ssu[1]*ssv[1],ssu[2]*ssv[3]+ssu[3]*ssv[2],ssu[3]*ssv[3] ]))
LL.append(vector([(ssu[0]*ssv[2]),ssu[1]*ssv[3],ssu[2]*ssv[0],ssu[3]*ssv[1] ]))
for i in range(kappa+1):
    q=TT*LL[i]
    for j in range(ka):
        qq.append(q[j])
for t in range(kappa +1):
    for i in range(ka):
        u=[0]*ka
        u[i]=u[i]+1
        for k in range(ka):
            v=[0]*ka
            v[k]=v[k]+1
            Z=[0]*ka
            for d in range(ka):
                Z[d]=qq[ka*t+d].coefficient(u1:u[0],u2:u[1],u3:u[2],u4:u[3],v1:v[0],v2:v[1],v3:v[2],v4:v[3])
            ZZ=vector(Z)
            Y=S*ZZ
            for m in range(ka)
                p=Y[m]-L[t][m].coefficient(u1:u[0],u2:u[1],u3:u[2],u4:u[3],v1:v[0],v2:v[1],v3:v[2],v4:v[3])
                    alpha.append(p)
tp1=time.clock()
IF=R.ideal(alpha+pi)
H=IF.elimination_ideal([x1,x2,s12,s13,s14,s21,s22,s23,s24,s31,s32,s33,s34,s41,s42,s43,s44])
print(H)
tp2=time.clock()
print(tp2-tp1)
```

Fig. 4. Implementation of Attack 1 : a SageMath program decrypting the challenge encryption $\boldsymbol{c}=(1,2,3,4)$ only knowing the homomorphic operators in the case $\kappa=2$. We obtained "Ideal (s11*x-31*s11, s11^3+6*s11^2-25*s11) of Multivariate Polynomial Ring in $x 1, x 2, x, s 11, s 12, s 13, s 14, s 21, s 22, s 23, s 24, s 31, s 32, s 33, s 34, s 41, s 42, s 43$, s44, u1, u2, u3, u4, v1, v2, v3, v4 over Finite Field of size 97".
follows that $\mathcal{O}_{1}(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{v})$ is equal to the vector $\boldsymbol{w}=S^{-1}\left(0, r_{1}, 0, r_{2}, \ldots, 0, r_{\kappa}\right)$. By solving the equation $\operatorname{Add}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{w})=\boldsymbol{c}$, we get the vector

$$
\widetilde{\boldsymbol{c}}=S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
x_{1} \\
1 \\
\cdots \\
x_{\kappa} \\
1
\end{array}\right)
$$

satisfying $\left\langle s_{1}+s_{3}+\cdots+s_{2 \kappa-1}, \widetilde{\boldsymbol{c}}\right\rangle=x$. This leads to an efficient attack consisting of solving a linear system of size $2 \kappa$.

Attack 4. Let us consider the vector $\boldsymbol{v}=\boldsymbol{u}_{\kappa-1}$ built as follows:
$-\boldsymbol{u}_{0}=\boldsymbol{c}$
$-\boldsymbol{u}_{i}=\mathcal{O}_{i+1}\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{i-1}, \boldsymbol{c}\right)$ for any $i=1, \ldots, \kappa-1$
By construction,

$$
\boldsymbol{v}=S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1} \ldots r_{\kappa-1} x_{1} \ldots x_{\kappa-1} \\
r_{1} \ldots r_{\kappa-1} \\
r_{2} \ldots r_{\kappa} x_{2} \ldots x_{\kappa} \\
r_{2} \ldots r_{\kappa} \\
\ldots \\
r_{\kappa} r_{1} \ldots r_{\kappa-2} x_{\kappa} x_{1} \ldots x_{\kappa-2} \\
r_{\kappa} r_{1} \ldots r_{\kappa-2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Il follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{v}) & \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \mathcal{L}_{14}(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{v})+\mathcal{L}_{36}(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{v})+\ldots+\mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa-1,2}(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{v}) \\
& =r_{1} \cdots r_{\kappa}\left(x_{1}+\ldots+x_{\kappa}\right) \\
& =\phi_{D}(\boldsymbol{c})
\end{aligned}
$$

can be used to distinguish encryptions of 0 from random ones. Moreover, as this polynomial is quadratic, it expanded representation can be polynomially recovered by solving a linear system (by considering sufficiently many encryptions of 0 ).

Attack 5. Thanks to the operator $\mathcal{O}_{1}$, one can obtain vectors $\boldsymbol{c}_{1}=\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}_{2}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{c}_{4 \kappa}$ satisfying

$$
\boldsymbol{c}_{i}=S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1}^{i} x_{1}^{i} \\
r_{1}^{i} \\
\cdots \\
r_{\kappa}^{i} x_{\kappa}^{i} \\
r_{\kappa}^{i}
\end{array}\right)
$$

As $\left\langle\boldsymbol{s}_{1}, \boldsymbol{c}_{i}\right\rangle-x_{1}^{i}\left\langle\boldsymbol{s}_{2}, \boldsymbol{c}_{i}\right\rangle=0$, the determinant of the following matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
c_{11} & \ldots & c_{1,2 \kappa} & -x_{1} c_{11} & \ldots & -x_{1} c_{1,2 \kappa} \\
c_{21} & \ldots & c_{2,2 \kappa} & -x_{1}^{2} c_{21} & \ldots & -x_{1}^{2} c_{2,2 \kappa} \\
\ldots & & & & & \\
c_{4 \kappa, 1} & \ldots & c_{4 \kappa, 2 \kappa} & -x_{1}^{4 \kappa} c_{4 \kappa, 1} & \ldots & -x_{1}^{4 \kappa} c_{4 \kappa, 2 \kappa}
\end{array}\right)
$$

is null. This leads to an univariate degree- $\kappa(6 \kappa+1)$ equation in $x_{1}$. Thanks to symmetry properties, $x_{2}, \ldots, x_{\kappa}$ are also solutions of this equation. In other words, the equation is

$$
\left(x-x_{1}\right)^{6 \kappa+1} \cdots\left(x-x_{\kappa}\right)^{6 \kappa+1}=0
$$

with overwhetming probability. Thus, $x=x_{1}+\ldots+x_{\kappa}$ can be recovered in polynomial-time (it can be recovered from the coefficient of $x^{d-1}, d$ being the degree of the equation).

### 5.4 An assumption

The attacks $2,3,4,5$ belong to the class of attacks by linearization defined in [GT20]. Informally, these attacks consist of using the homomorphic operators (in an arbitrary way) to build new encryptions $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{r}$ from the challenge encryption $\boldsymbol{c}$ (and known encryptions). This leads to an efficient attack if there exists a small polynomial $\phi$ such that $\phi\left(v_{1}, \ldots, v_{r}\right)=0$ if and only if $\boldsymbol{c}$ is an encryption of 0 . Indeed, the monomial coefficients of $\phi$ can be efficiently recovered by solving a linear system (as done in the basic attack). It can be then used to distinguish encryptions of 0 from random ones.

Let us try to find a common point between all the attacks of Section 5.3. Assume $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}=\mathcal{O}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$ where $\mathcal{O}$ is one of the (naive) operators previously defined. By construction,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right)=\phi^{\mathcal{O}, X}\left(X(\boldsymbol{c}), X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)=\left(\phi_{i}^{\mathcal{O}, X}\left(X(\boldsymbol{c}), X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)\right)_{i=1, \ldots, \kappa} \\
& R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right)=\phi^{\mathcal{O}, R}\left(R(\boldsymbol{c}), R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)=\left(\phi_{i}^{\mathcal{O}, R}\left(R(\boldsymbol{c}), R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)\right)_{i=1, \ldots, \kappa}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\phi_{i}^{\mathcal{O}, X}$ and $\phi_{i}^{\mathcal{O}, R}$ are public polynomials. For instance,

$$
\phi^{\operatorname{Add}, X}\left(X(\boldsymbol{c}), X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)=X(\boldsymbol{c})+X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)
$$

All the attacks of Section 5.3 exploit the fact the functions $\phi_{i}^{\mathcal{O}, X}$ and $\phi_{i}^{\mathcal{O}, R}$ are known and deterministic. By assuming that these conditions are necessary to mount efficient attacks, it would be relevant to build operators where $\phi_{i}^{\mathcal{O}, X}$ and $\phi_{i}^{\mathcal{O}, R}$ are probabilistic functions. This leads us to formulate the following assumption.

Assumption 1 (Informal). Our construction would be IND-CPA secure if the functions $\phi_{i}^{\mathcal{O}, X}$ and $\phi_{i}^{\mathcal{O}, R}$ were probabilistic.

This is obviously not possible to build probabilistic homomorphic operators. However, the new homomorphic operators developed in the next section will ensure that $X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ does not only depend on $X(\boldsymbol{c})$ and $X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$ but it also depends on $R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right), R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$. Similarly $R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ will not only depend on $R(\boldsymbol{c})$ and $R(\boldsymbol{c})$ but it will also depend on $X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right), X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$. In other words,

$$
\begin{aligned}
X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right) & =\left(\phi_{i}^{\mathcal{O}, X}\left(R(\boldsymbol{c}), R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right), X(\boldsymbol{c}), X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)\right)_{i=1, \ldots, \kappa} \\
R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right) & =\left(\phi_{i}^{\mathcal{O}, R}\left(R(\boldsymbol{c}), R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right), X(\boldsymbol{c}), X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)\right)_{i=1, \ldots, \kappa}
\end{aligned}
$$

Roughly speaking, the two independent sources of randomness associated to the functions $X$ and $R$ will be mixed in the construction of $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}$. The functions $\phi_{1}^{\mathcal{O}, X}, \ldots, \phi_{\kappa}^{\mathcal{O}, X}, \phi_{1}^{\mathcal{O}, R}, \ldots, \phi_{\kappa}^{\mathcal{O}, R}$ will be randomly and independently chosen in a given set of rational functions. Moreover, Proposition 3 can be straightforwardly extended to show that these functions cannot be recovered under the factoring assumption.

## 6 New homomorphic operators

Notation. $\mathcal{P}$ and $\mathcal{Q}$ will refer to subsets of homogeneous polynomials belonging to $\mathbb{Z}_{n}\left[U_{1}, \ldots, U_{2 \kappa}, V_{1}, \ldots, V_{2 \kappa}\right]$. The choice of these sets will be discussed later. In the following of the paper, the operators Add, $\mathcal{O}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{O}_{\kappa}$ developed in the previous sections will be denoted by $\operatorname{Add}{ }^{\text {naive }}, \mathcal{O}_{1}^{\text {naive }}, \ldots, \mathcal{O}_{\kappa}^{\text {naive }}$.

### 6.1 The additive operator

Ideally, we would like to build an encryption $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}=\operatorname{Add}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$ defined by

$$
\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}=S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
\eta_{1} r_{1} r_{1}^{\prime}\left(x_{1}+x_{1}^{\prime}+\nu_{1}\right) \\
\eta_{1} r_{1} r_{1}^{\prime} \\
\cdots \\
\eta_{\kappa} r_{\kappa} r_{\kappa}^{\prime}\left(x_{\kappa}+x_{\kappa}^{\prime}+\nu_{\kappa}\right) \\
\eta_{\kappa} r_{\kappa} r_{\kappa}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $\eta_{\ell}, \nu_{\ell}$ are randomly chosen in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ ensuring that $\nu_{1}+\ldots+\nu_{\kappa}=0$. This would be sufficient to ensure that $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}$ is drawn according to a probability distribution indistinguishable from $\operatorname{Encrypt}\left(K, p p, x+x^{\prime}\right)$.

However, it is obviously not possible to build such encryptions with deterministic operators. We propose to define $\eta_{\ell}$ and $\nu_{\ell}$ as evaluations of secret polynomials over $\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}$.

Definition 7. AddGen $(S)$ randomly chooses polynomials $\eta_{1}, \ldots, \eta_{\kappa} \in \mathcal{P}$ and $\nu_{0}, \ldots, \nu_{\kappa} \in \mathcal{Q}$ s.t. $\nu_{1}+\ldots+\nu_{\kappa}=0$ and outputs the expanded representation of the polynomials $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}$ defined by

$$
\left(\begin{array}{l}
q_{1} \\
\cdots \\
q_{2 \kappa}
\end{array}\right)=S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
\eta_{1}\left(\nu_{0}\left(\mathcal{L}_{12}+\mathcal{L}_{21}\right)+\nu_{1} \mathcal{L}_{22}\right) \\
\eta_{1} \nu_{0} \mathcal{L}_{22} \\
\cdots \\
\eta_{\kappa}\left(\nu_{0}\left(\mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa-1,2 \kappa}+\mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa, 2 \kappa-1}\right)+\nu_{\kappa} \mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa, 2 \kappa}\right) \\
\eta_{\kappa} \nu_{0} \mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa, 2 \kappa}
\end{array}\right)
$$

The operator $\operatorname{Add} \leftarrow \operatorname{AddGen}(S)$ consists of evaluating the polynomials $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}$, i.e.

$$
\operatorname{Add}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})=\left(q_{1}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}), \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})\right)
$$

It follows that the running time of Add is polynomial as long as the expanded representation of the polynomials $\eta_{\ell}, \nu_{\ell}$ is polynomial-size. It is typically the case provided their degree is $O(1)$.

Proposition 4. The operator $\oplus$ is a valid additive homomorphic operator.
Proof. Let $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}=\operatorname{Add}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$.

$$
\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}=S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
\eta_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) r_{1} r_{1}^{\prime}\left(\nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\left(x_{1}+x_{1}^{\prime}\right)+\nu_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right) \\
\eta_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) \nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) r_{1} r_{1}^{\prime} \\
\cdots \\
\eta_{\kappa}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) r_{\kappa} r_{\kappa}^{\prime}\left(\nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\left(x_{\kappa}+x_{\kappa}^{\prime}\right)+\nu_{\kappa}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right) \\
\eta_{\kappa}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) \nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) r_{\kappa} r_{\kappa}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)
$$

According to Theorem $1,\left(\eta_{\ell} \nu_{0}\right)\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)=0$ holds with negligible probability. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Decrypt }\left(S, p p, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right) \\
= & \sum_{\ell=1}^{\kappa} \frac{\eta_{\ell}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) r_{\ell} r_{\ell}^{\prime}\left(\nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\left(x_{\ell}+x_{\ell}^{\prime}\right)+\nu_{\ell}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)}{\eta_{\ell}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) \nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) r_{\ell} r_{\ell}^{\prime}} \\
= & x_{1}+x_{1}^{\prime}+\frac{\nu_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)}{\nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)}+\ldots+x_{\kappa}+x_{\kappa}^{\prime}+\frac{\nu_{\kappa}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)}{\nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)} \\
= & x_{1}+x_{1}^{\prime}+\ldots+x_{\kappa}+x_{\kappa}^{\prime}+\frac{\nu_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)+\ldots+\nu_{\kappa}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)}{\nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)} \\
= & x_{1}+x_{1}^{\prime}+\ldots+x_{\kappa}+x_{\kappa}^{\prime} \\
= & x+x^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark 5. The role of $\nu_{0}$ is to ensure that the polynomials $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}$ are homogeneous.

Remark 6. The naive operator Add ${ }^{\text {naive }}$ is obtained by setting $\nu_{0}=\eta_{1}=\cdots=$ $\eta_{\kappa}=1, \nu_{1}=\cdots=\nu_{\kappa}=0$.

### 6.2 A multiplicative operator

Similarly to the operator $\operatorname{Add}^{\text {naive }}$, the naive operators $\mathcal{O}_{i}^{\text {naive }}$ are modified as follows:

Definition 8. Given $i \in\{1, \ldots, \kappa\}$, OGen $(S, i)$ randomly chooses polynomials $\eta_{1}, \ldots, \eta_{\kappa} \in \mathcal{P}$ and $\nu_{0}, \ldots, \nu_{\kappa} \in \mathcal{Q}$ and outputs the expanded representation of the polynomials $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}$ defined by

$$
\left(\begin{array}{l}
q_{1} \\
\cdots \\
q_{2 \kappa}
\end{array}\right)=S^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
\eta_{1}\left(\nu_{0} \mathcal{L}_{1,2 \sigma_{i}(1)-1}+\nu_{1} \mathcal{L}_{2,2 \sigma_{i}(1)}\right) \\
\eta_{1} \nu_{0} \mathcal{L}_{2,2 \sigma_{i}(1)} \\
\cdots \\
\eta_{\kappa}\left(\nu_{0} \mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa-1,2 \sigma_{i}(\kappa)-1}+\nu_{\kappa} \mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa, 2 \sigma_{i}(\kappa)}\right) \\
\eta_{\kappa} \nu_{0} \mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa, 2 \sigma_{i}(\kappa)}
\end{array}\right)
$$

The operator $\mathcal{O}_{i} \leftarrow \operatorname{OGen}(S, i)$ consists of evaluating the polynomials $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}$, i.e. $\mathcal{O}_{i}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})=\left(q_{1}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}), \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})\right)$. The multiplicative operator can be then defined as follows

$$
\boldsymbol{c} \otimes \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}=\mathcal{O}_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) \oplus \ldots \oplus \mathcal{O}_{\kappa}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)
$$

Proposition 5. The operator $\otimes$ is a valid multiplicative homomorphic operator.
Proof. It suffices to show that $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime} \leftarrow \mathcal{O}_{i}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$ is an encryption of $\pi_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} x_{i} x_{\sigma_{i}(j)}^{\prime}$. According to Theorem $1,\left(\eta_{\ell} \nu_{0}\right)\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)=0$ holds with negligible probability.
Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Decrypt}\left(S, p p, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right) \\
= & \sum_{\ell=1}^{\kappa} \frac{\eta_{\ell}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) r_{\ell} r_{\sigma_{i}(\ell)}^{\prime}\left(\nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) x_{\ell} x_{\sigma_{i}(\ell)^{\prime}}+\nu_{\ell}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)}{\eta_{\ell}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) \nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) r_{\ell} r_{\sigma_{i}(\ell)}^{\prime}} \\
= & x_{1} x_{\sigma_{i}(1)}^{\prime}+\frac{\nu_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)}{\nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)}+\ldots+x_{\kappa} x_{\sigma_{i}(\kappa)}^{\prime}+\frac{\nu_{\kappa}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)}{\nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)} \\
= & x_{1} x_{\sigma_{i}(1)}^{\prime}+\ldots+x_{\kappa} x_{\sigma_{i}(\kappa)}^{\prime}+\frac{\nu_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)+\ldots+\nu_{\kappa}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)}{\nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)} \\
= & x_{1} x_{\sigma_{i}(1)}^{\prime}+\ldots+x_{\kappa} x_{\sigma_{i}(\kappa)}^{\prime} \\
= & \pi_{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

### 6.3 Increasing randomness for almost free

In this section, we propose to increase randomness in our homomorphic operators without degrading performance. We will experimentally show that this added randomness strongly increases the running time of Grœebner basis attacks (see Section 7.2).

Operator Rand. We can easily modify the operators $\mathcal{O}_{i}$ (the same can be done for Add) in order to output encryptions valid under a randomly chosen key $T_{i}$ (instead of $S$ ). For instance, the operator $\mathcal{O}_{1}$ can be redefined as follows

$$
\mathcal{O}_{1}^{S \rightarrow T_{1}}=T_{1}^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
\eta_{1}\left(\nu_{0} \mathcal{L}_{11}+\nu_{1} \mathcal{L}_{22}\right) \\
\eta_{1} \nu_{0} \mathcal{L}_{22} \\
\cdots \\
\eta_{\kappa}\left(\nu_{0} \mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa-1,2 \kappa-1}+\nu_{\kappa} \mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa, 2 \kappa}\right) \\
\eta_{\kappa} \nu_{0} \mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa, 2 \kappa}
\end{array}\right)
$$

By construction, $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}=\mathcal{O}_{i}^{S \rightarrow T_{i}}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$ is a valid encryption of $\pi_{i}$ under the key $T_{i}$. We then develop operators Rand ${ }^{T_{i} \rightarrow T_{i}^{\prime}}$ to switch keys and to randomize encryptions (without modifying the plaintexts). Let $\mathcal{L}_{j}^{i}$ denote the linear function $\mathcal{L}_{j}^{i}(\boldsymbol{u})=\left\langle\boldsymbol{t}_{i j}, \boldsymbol{u}\right\rangle$ where $\boldsymbol{t}_{i j}$ is the $j^{t h}$ row of $T_{i}$. The operator Rand ${ }^{T_{i} \rightarrow T_{i}^{\prime}}$ can be defined as follows:

$$
\operatorname{Rand}^{T_{i} \rightarrow T_{i}^{\prime}}=T_{i}^{\prime-1}\left(\begin{array}{l}
\eta_{1}\left(\nu_{0} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{i}+\nu_{1} \mathcal{L}_{2}^{i}\right) \\
\eta_{1} \nu_{0} \mathcal{L}_{2}^{i} \\
\cdots \\
\eta_{\kappa}\left(\nu_{0} \mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa-1}^{i}+\nu_{\kappa} \mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa}^{i}\right) \\
\eta_{\kappa} \nu_{0} \mathcal{L}_{2 \kappa}^{i}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $\eta_{\ell}$ and $\nu_{\ell}$ are randomly chosen variate- $2 \kappa$ polynomials ensuring that $\nu_{1}+\ldots+\nu_{\kappa}=0$. By construction $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime \prime}=\operatorname{Rand}^{T_{i} \rightarrow T_{i}^{\prime}}\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is a valid encryption of $\pi_{i}$ under the key $T_{i}^{\prime}$. This randomization can be chained, i.e. by considering operators Rand ${ }^{T_{i} \rightarrow T_{i}^{\prime}}$, $\operatorname{Rand}^{T_{i}^{\prime} \rightarrow T_{i}^{\prime \prime}}, \ldots$, Rand $^{T_{i}^{[\gamma]} \rightarrow S}$. We can thus define the function $\operatorname{OGen}(S, i, \gamma)$, extending the function $\operatorname{OGen}(S, i)$, which outputs the operator $\mathcal{O}_{i}^{[\gamma]}$ defined by

$$
\mathcal{O}_{i}^{[\gamma]}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{Rand}^{T_{i}^{[\gamma]} \rightarrow S}\left(\ldots\left(\operatorname{Rand}^{T_{i}^{\prime} \rightarrow T_{i}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\operatorname{Rand}^{T_{i} \rightarrow T_{i}^{\prime}}\left(\mathcal{O}_{i}^{S \rightarrow T_{i}}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)\right)\right) \ldots\right)
$$

It should be noticed that considering operators Rand does not affect so much the running time of the homomorphic operators: they run at least $\kappa$ faster than the operators $\mathcal{O}_{i}$. For instance, if the polynomials $\eta_{\ell}, \nu_{\ell}$ are linear then $\mathcal{O}_{i}^{[\gamma]}$ runs in

$$
O\left(\kappa^{5}+\gamma \kappa^{4}\right)
$$

Remark 7. The ideas of this section could be used to control homomorphic computations. Consider a set of encryptions $\boldsymbol{c}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{c}_{t}$ valid under randomly chosen keys $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{t}$. Given an arithmetic circuit $\phi$ and a randomly chosen key $T$, relevant operators can be developed to compute $\boldsymbol{c}=\operatorname{Eval}\left(\phi, \boldsymbol{c}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{c}_{t}\right)$ valid under $T$ but nothing else (under $T$ ).

## 7 Security analysis

In our security analysis and in all our experiments, the polynomials $\nu_{\ell}, \eta_{\ell}$ will be linear. More precisely, $\nu_{\ell}, \eta_{\ell}$ will be randomly chosen in the sets of linear polynomials respectively $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{Q} \subset \mathbb{Z}_{n}\left[U_{1}, \ldots, U_{2 \kappa}, V_{1}, \ldots, V_{2 \kappa}\right]$ defined by:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -\mathcal{P}=\left\{a_{1} U_{1}+\ldots+a_{2 \kappa} U_{2 \kappa} \mid a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}\right\} \\
& -\mathcal{Q}=\left\{a_{1} V_{1}+\ldots+a_{2 \kappa} V_{2 \kappa} \mid a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Under this choice, each polynomial associated to each homomorphic operator is in the form

$$
\sum_{(i, j, k, \ell) \in\{1, \ldots, 2 \kappa\}^{4}: i \leq j, k \leq \ell} a_{i j k \ell} U_{i} U_{j} V_{k} V_{\ell}
$$

### 7.1 Security vs Assumption 1

In the construction of our new homomorphic operators, symmetry properties are kept. Hence, Proposition 3 can be straightforwardly extended to our new settings. To achieve this, it suffices to incorporate the internal randomness of AddGen and OGen in $\boldsymbol{\theta}$.

Proposition 6. Assuming the hardness of factoring, $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ cannot be evaluated provided $\pi$ is a polynomial which is not $\Sigma_{\kappa}$-symmetric. In particular, the CPA attacker cannot recover any:

1. coefficient of $S$,
2. product of strictly less than $\kappa$ coefficients of $S$,
3. polynomial ${ }^{7} \mathcal{L}_{i_{1}} \times \cdots \times \mathcal{L}_{i_{t}}$ provided $t<\kappa$,
4. polynomial $\nu_{\ell}, \eta_{\ell}$ for any $\ell=1, \ldots, \kappa$

Remark 8. This proposition does not ensure anything about $\nu_{0}$.
Let $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}=\mathcal{O}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$ with $\mathcal{O} \in\left\{\mathcal{O}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{O}_{\kappa}\right.$, Add $\}$. For instance, if $\mathcal{O}=$ Add then we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right) & =\left(x_{1}+x_{1}^{\prime}+\frac{\nu_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)}{\nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)}, \ldots, x_{\kappa}+x_{\kappa}^{\prime}+\frac{\nu_{\kappa}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)}{\nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)}\right) \\
R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right) & =\nu_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\left(r_{1} r_{1}^{\prime} \eta_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right), \ldots, r_{\kappa} r_{\kappa}^{\prime} \eta_{\kappa}\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, $X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ does not only depend on $X(\boldsymbol{c}), X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$ and $R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ does not only depend on $R(\boldsymbol{c}), R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$, i.e.

$$
\begin{aligned}
X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right) & =\phi^{\mathcal{O}, X}\left(X(\boldsymbol{c}), X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right), R(\boldsymbol{c}), R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right) \\
R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right) & =\phi^{\mathcal{O}, R}\left(X(\boldsymbol{c}), X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right), R(\boldsymbol{c}), R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows that $X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is a probabilistic function (randomness coming from $R(\boldsymbol{c})$, $\left.R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)$ of $X(\boldsymbol{c}), X\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$ and $R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is a probabilistic function of $R(\boldsymbol{c}), R\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$. The same remark can be done for the other operators. Moreover, Proposition 3 ensures that these functions cannot be recovered under the factoring assumption (the polynomials $\nu_{\ell}$ and $\eta_{\ell}$ cannot be recovered). According to Assumption 1, this suggests IND-CPA security.

[^5]
### 7.2 Algebraic attacks based on Grœebner basis

We here propose new experiments clearly suggesting that algebraic attacks based on variable elimination technics are not efficient. First of all, Proposition 6 can be invoked to exclude a large class of attacks. For instance, coefficients of $S$ cannot be recovered by using such attacks. Indeed, even if univariate equations dealing with coefficients of $S$ can be recovered, symmetry ensures that these equations are not linear and the factoring assumption ensures they cannot be solved. This is fundamental in our security analysis.

Proposition 6 does not say anything about the polynomial $\nu_{0}$. In consequence, this polynomial will be assumed to be known. In all our experiments, we will set

$$
\nu_{0}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})=u_{1}+\ldots+u_{2 \kappa}
$$

As done in Section 5.2, we consider the ideal $I$ generated by the polynomials derived from the homomorphic operators and the ones derived from the challenge encryption $\boldsymbol{c}$, i.e.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\langle s_{2 \ell-1}, \boldsymbol{c}\right\rangle=x_{\ell} \cdot\left\langle s_{2 \ell}, \boldsymbol{c}\right\rangle \quad \text { for any } \ell=1, \ldots, \kappa \\
& x_{1}+\ldots+x_{\kappa}=x
\end{aligned}
$$

The basic attack exploits the basic equation $\phi_{D}(\boldsymbol{c})-x \phi_{D}^{\prime}(\boldsymbol{c})=0$, i.e.

$$
\sum_{\ell=1}^{\kappa}\left\langle s_{2 \ell-1}, \boldsymbol{c}\right\rangle \prod_{\ell^{\prime} \neq \ell}\left\langle s_{2 \ell^{\prime}}, \boldsymbol{c}\right\rangle-x \prod_{\ell=1}^{\kappa}\left\langle s_{2 \ell}, \boldsymbol{c}\right\rangle=0
$$

By construction, this equation is exponential-size provided $\kappa=\Theta(\lambda)$. However, shorter equations could be efficiently recovered with the introduction of the homomorphic operators. We are here interested in recovering any equation in the form

$$
\phi(\boldsymbol{c}, x, S, \text { coeff })=0
$$

where $\phi$ is a short polynomial ${ }^{8}$ and coeff represents the monomial coefficients of all the polynomials $\nu_{\ell}, \eta_{\ell}$ involved in homomorphic operators. Similarly to the basic attack, such equations lead to attacks consisting of solving linear systems. More precisely, by considering encryptions $\boldsymbol{c}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{c}_{t}$ of known values $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{t}$, we obtain the following system of equations

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\phi(\boldsymbol{c}, x, S, \text { coeff })=0 \\
\phi\left(\boldsymbol{c}_{i}, y_{i}, S, \text { coeff }\right)=0 \quad \text { for any } i=1, \ldots, t
\end{array}\right.
$$

By considering this system as linear, univariate equations only dealing with $x$ can be recovered provided $t$ is sufficiently large. Such equations would be relevant to distinguish between $x=0$ and $x=1$.

[^6]Such attacks are efficient provided the expanded representation of $\phi$ is polynomialsize. Ideally, an equation in the form

$$
x-a=0
$$

or more generally $\psi(\boldsymbol{c}, x, S$, coeff $) \times(x-a)=0$ would allow the attacker to immediately conclude that $x=a$ without requesting the oracle encryption, i.e. without considering the encryptions $\boldsymbol{c}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{c}_{t}$. As expected, we obtained such equations.

To get such equations, it suffices to eliminate the variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{\kappa}$. A sageMath program dealing with the case $\kappa=2$ can be found in Appendix C. While this takes only 0.06 seconds with the naive operators in the case $\kappa=2$, 30 s were required with the new ones and approximatively $6 h$ for $\kappa=3$. This is encouraging but not sufficient to conclude this attack is not polynomial.

We carried on other experiments in this sense. We considered the operators $\mathcal{O}_{i}^{[\gamma]}$ introduced in Section 6.3, choosing $\gamma=1$. This dramatically affects the running time, e.g. 20 hours in the case $\kappa=2$. It is tempting to assume that the running time of these attacks is exponential w.r.t. $\gamma$. To enhance this idea, we propose other experiments dealing with higher values of $\gamma$.

Experiments highlighting the role of the parameter $\gamma$. Throughout this experiment, we set $\kappa=2$. In order to not have prohibitive running times and thus to consider higher values of $\gamma$, we will consider the naive operators Add ${ }^{\text {naive }}$, $\mathcal{O}_{1}^{\text {naive }}$ and $\mathcal{O}_{2}^{\text {naive (instead of the new versions of these operators) randomized }}$ as explained in Section 6.3: in particular the operators Rand ${ }^{T \rightarrow T^{\prime}}$ are defined exactly in the same manner ${ }^{9}$. We obtain the following running times.

| $\gamma$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| time $(s)$ | 0.06 | 423 | 8200 | 179000 |

These running times clearly confirm our intuition. Nevertheless, improvements could be perhaps obtained by reducing the number of variables in the ideal $I$. For instance, some/all operators Rand (the polynomials derived from these operators) can be simply removed from $I$ (more exactly, not used to generate $I$ ). We propose to break the chains of operators Rand by removing at least one operator Rand in each chain (associated to each operator Add ${ }^{\text {naive }}, \mathcal{O}_{1}^{\text {naive }}$ and $\left.\mathcal{O}_{2}^{\text {naive }}\right)$. We observe that the running times are significantly degraded. More interesting, there does not apparently exist any equation shorter than the basic one. In particular, $x$ cannot be recovered anymore. Roughly speaking, this means that information is lost when randomizing chains are broken. This suggests that the running times previously obtained cannot be improved by considering subideals $I^{\prime} \subset I$.

[^7]Claim 1. Algebraic attacks based on Grobner basis are inefficient provided ${ }^{10}$ $\kappa=\Theta(\lambda)$ and $\gamma=\Theta(\lambda)$.

Discussion. This claim is only based on experimental results. Further investigations should be obviously done in this sense. Maybe subs-systems of equations could be considered in order to reduce the number of variables (generally more crucial than the number of polynomials). Other approaches could be maybe investigated. In our experiments, Græbner basis of intersections of ideals are computed, i.e. $I \cap J$ where $J$ is the ideal of all the polynomials not depending on $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{\kappa}$. It may seem like overkill in the sense we only need one equation in the form

$$
\phi(\boldsymbol{c}, x, S, \text { coeff })=0
$$

### 7.3 Efficiency

As mentioned above, the running time of the homomorphic operators is polynomial as long as the expanded representation of the polynomials $\nu_{\ell}$ and $\eta_{\ell}$ is polynomial-size. In all the experiments conducted in this section, the polynomials $\nu_{\ell}$ and $\eta_{\ell}$ are linear. Under this choice, the running time of Add is $O\left(\kappa^{5}\right)$ and the running time of Mult is $O\left(\kappa^{6}\right)$.

Let us consider $\kappa=13$ (ensuring the inefficiency of the basic attack ${ }^{11}$ ). Evaluating Add consists of evaluating 26 degree- 4 variate- 26 polynomials. To achieve this, $3 \times 10^{6}$ multiplications over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ should be achieved. Similarly, evaluating Mult requires around $26 \times\left(3 \times 10^{6}\right)=78 \times 10^{6}$ multiplications.

It should be noticed that evaluating these operators consists of evaluating expanded polynomials. It can be thus highly parallelized. Moreover, some improvements can be imagined but this is not the purpose of this paper.

## 8 Future Work / Open questions

Several ways can be chosen to extend our security analysis. The most formal one would consist of formally reducing a classical cryptographic problem to the security of our scheme. Algebraic attacks based on Groebner basis should be deeper investigated. In our opinion, it is a nice cryptanalysis challenge. Assumption 1 should be also deeper investigated. To achieve it, one could also search new attacks against the naive encryption scheme (which is relatively simple to analyze). Finally, the factoring assumption is required to make some algebraic attacks based on Græebner basis irrelevant. Indeed, let us consider the public operator $\operatorname{Add}=\left(q_{1}, \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}\right)$. Without the factoring assumption, the rows $\boldsymbol{s}_{2 \ell}$ could be efficiently recovered by solving ${ }^{12}$ the following equation

$$
\left\langle\boldsymbol{s}_{2 \ell},\left(q_{1}, \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}\right)\right\rangle=\eta_{\ell} \nu_{0} \mathcal{L}_{2 \ell, 2 \ell}
$$

$\overline{{ }^{10} \gamma \text { is the parameter used in Section 6.3. }}$
11 which appears to be the most efficient identified attack
12 by using variable elimination technics applied on the ideal of the polynomials derived from $\left\langle s_{2 \ell},\left(q_{1}, \ldots, q_{2 \kappa}\right)\right\rangle=\eta_{\ell} \nu_{0} \mathcal{L}_{2 \ell, 2 \ell}$.

New ideas should be considered to remove this assumption. We carried on some preliminary experiments in this sense. In order to increase the ratio between the number of variables and the number of polynomials in $I$, we considered higher degree polynomials $\nu_{\ell}, \eta_{\ell}$ while $S$ was chosen as follows,

$$
S=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
S_{1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & S_{2} & \cdots & \vdots \\
\vdots & & \ddots & 0 \\
0 & \cdots & 0 & S_{\kappa}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{\kappa}$ are square matrices. Assume $\kappa=\Theta(\lambda)$, the running times of the homomorphic operators remain polynomial as long as the size of the matrices $S_{i}$ is $O(1)$ and the degree of the polynomials $\nu_{\ell}$ and $\eta_{\ell}$ is polynomial. We obtained promising experimental results suggesting recovering $S$ by using elimination technics (e.g. with Græbner basis) is (highly) exponential with the degree of these polynomials. Informally speaking, this suggests that the result encapsulated by Proposition 3 remains true without the factoring assumption.

In our opinion, many other developments could be made. For instance, our scheme can be straightforwardly turned into a HE over real numbers. To achieve this, it suffices to choose $S$ over the reals, e.g. $S \leftarrow[0,1]^{2 \kappa \times 2 \kappa}$. Indeed, $\boldsymbol{c}$ and $a \times \boldsymbol{c}$ are encryptions of the same value for any $a \in \mathbb{R}^{*}$. Moreover $\boldsymbol{c}$ and $\boldsymbol{c}+\varepsilon$ are encryptions of close values. Hence, the ciphertexts can be normalized after each homomorphic operation avoiding that ciphertext-size leaks information. We carried on promising experiments in this sense.

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## A Implementation of the naive Add in the case $\kappa=1$

In this section, we provide an example of the implementation of the homomorphic scheme for $\kappa=1$. Let $S=\left[s_{i j}\right] \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{2 \times 2}$ and $\Delta=s_{11} s_{22}-s_{12} s_{21}$.
$\operatorname{Add}=\left(q_{1}, q_{2}\right) \leftarrow \operatorname{AddGen}(S)$ is defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta \cdot q_{1}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}) & =\left(2 s_{22} s_{11} s_{21}-s_{12} s_{21}^{2}\right) u_{1} v_{1} \\
& +s_{22}^{2} s_{11}\left(u_{1} v_{2}+u_{2} v_{1}\right) \\
& +s_{12} s_{22}^{2} u_{2} v_{2} \\
\Delta \cdot q_{2}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}) & =-s_{11} s_{21}^{2} u_{1} v_{1} \\
& -s_{21}^{2} s_{12}\left(u_{1} v_{2}+u_{2} v_{1}\right) \\
& +\left(s_{11} s_{22}^{2}-2 s_{21} s_{12} s_{22}\right) u_{2} v_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

## B SageMath implementation

```
#######################################################
#
# The polynomial nu_i and eta_i are linear
# kappa should be here smaller than 15
# The operators Rand are not considered here
#
########################################################
import time
n=random_prime( }\mp@subsup{2}{}{\wedge}80,\mathrm{ true )
print(n)
kappa=3
ka=2*kappa
R.<u1,u2,u3,u4,u5,u6,u7,u8,u9,u10,u11,u12,u13,u14,u15,u16,u17,u18,u19,u20,v1,v2,v3,v4,v5,v6,v7,v8,v9,
v10,v11,v12,v13,v14,v15,v16,v17,v18,v19,v20>=PolynomialRing(FiniteField(n),40)
U=[u1,u2,u3,u4,u5,u6,u7,u8,u9,u10,u11,u12,u13,u14,u15,u16,u17,u18,u19,u20]
V}=[\textrm{v}1,\textrm{v}2,\textrm{v}3,\textrm{v}4,\textrm{v}5,\textrm{v}6,\textrm{v}7,\textrm{v}8,\textrm{v}9,\textrm{v}10,\textrm{v}11,\textrm{v}12,\textrm{v}13,\textrm{v}14,\textrm{v}15,\textrm{v}16,\textrm{v}17,\textrm{v}18,\textrm{v}19,\textrm{v}20
################## KeyGen(kappa) ############################
ss=list((randint(0, n) for i in range(ka*ka)))
S=matrix(FiniteField(n),ka,ka,ss)
SI=S.inverse()
u=vector(U[0:ka:1])
v}=\operatorname{vector}(\textrm{V}[0:ka:1]
su=S*u
sv}=\mp@subsup{S}{}{*}
####################\mathrm{ Operator Add ##########################}=|##
Sommenui=vector([0]*ka)
nu0=vector(randint(0,n) for i in range(ka))
SAdd=[]
```

```
for i in range(kappa):
    if (i==kappa-1):
        etai=vector(randint(0,n) for i in range(ka))
        SAdd.append((etai*v)*((nu0*u)*(su[2*i]*sv[2*i+1]+sv[2*i]*su[2*i+1])-(Sommenui*u)*su[2*i+1]*sv[2*i
        SAdd.append((etai*v)*(nu0*u)*su[2*i+1]*sv[2*i+1])
    else:
        nui=vector(randint(0,n) for i in range(ka))
        Sommenui=Sommenui+nui
        etai=vector(randint}(0,n) for i in range(ka))
        SAdd.append((etai*v)*((nu0*u)*(su[2*i]*sv[2*i+1]+sv[2*i]*su[2*i+1])+(nui*u)*su[2*i+1]*sv[2*i+1]))
        SAdd.append((etai*v)*(nu0*u)*su[2*i+1]*sv[2*i+1])
SSAdd=vector(SAdd)
Add1=SI*SSAdd
def Add(c1,c2):
    e1=[0]*30
    e2=[0]*30
    for i in range(ka):
        e1[i]=c1[i]
        e2[i]=c2[i]
        c3=[0]*ka
        for i in range(ka):
            c3[i]=Add1[i].subs(u1=e1[0],u2=e1[1],u3=e1[2],u4=e1[3],u5=e1[4],u6=e1[5],u7=e1[6],u8=e1[7],u9=e1[8],
            u10=e1[9],u11=e1[10],u12=e1[11],u13=e1[12],u14=e1[13],u15=e1[14],u16=e1[15],u17=e1[16],u18=e1[17],
            u19=e1[18],u20=e1[19],v1=e2[0],v2=e2[1],v3=e2[2],v4=e2[3],v5=e2[4],v6=e2[5],v7=e2[6],v8=e2[7],
            v9=e2[8],v10=e2[9],v11=e2[10],v12=e2[11],v13=e2[12],v14=e2[13],v15=e2[14],v16=e2[15],v17=e2[16],
            v18=e2[17],v19=e2[18],v20=e2[19])
    return vector(c3)
##################### Operator Mult ###########################
O=[]
for k in range(kappa):
    Sommenui=vector([0]*ka)
    nu0=vector(randint(0,n) for i in range(ka))
    SOk=[]
    for i in range(kappa):
        if (i== kappa-1):
            etai}=\operatorname{vector(randint(0,n) for i in range(ka))
            SOk.append((etai*v)*}((\textrm{nu}\mp@subsup{0}{}{*}\textrm{u}\mp@subsup{)}{}{*}(\textrm{su}[\mp@subsup{2}{}{*}\textrm{i}]*\mp@subsup{}{}{*}\textrm{sv}[(\mp@subsup{2}{}{*}\textrm{i}+2**\textrm{k}
            SOk.append((etai*v)}\mp@subsup{)}{}{*}(\textrm{nu0}\mp@subsup{)}{}{*}\textrm{u}\mp@subsup{)}{}{*}\textrm{su}[\mp@subsup{2}{}{*}\textrm{i}+1]*\mp@subsup{}{}{*}\textrm{sv}[(2*i+1+2*\textrm{k}
        else:
            nui=vector(randint(0,n) for i in range(ka))
            Sommenui=Sommenui+nui
            etai}=\operatorname{vector}(\operatorname{randint}(0,n)\mathrm{ for i in range(ka))
            SOk.append((etai*v)*}((\textrm{nuO}\mp@subsup{)}{}{*})\mp@subsup{)}{}{*}(\textrm{su}[\mp@subsup{2}{}{*}\textrm{i}]**\textrm{sv}[(\mp@subsup{2}{}{*}\textrm{i}+\mp@subsup{2}{}{*}\textrm{k}
            SOk.append((etai*v)*(nu0*u)*su[2*i
    SSOk=vector(SOk)
    O.append(SI*SSOk)
def Mult(c1,c2):
    e1=[0]*30
    e2=[0]*30
    for i in range(ka):
        e1[i]=c1[i]
        e2[i]=c2[i]
        c=[0]*kappa
        for k in range(kappa):
            c[k]=[0]*ka
            for i in range(ka):
                c[k][i]=O[k][i].subs(u1=e1[0],u2=e1[1],u3=e1[2],u4=e1[3],u5=e1[4],u6=e1[5],u7=e1[6],
                    u}8=\textrm{e}1[7],\textrm{u}9=\textrm{e}1[8],\textrm{u}10=\textrm{e}1[9],\textrm{u}11=\textrm{e}1[10],\textrm{u}12=\textrm{e}1[11],\textrm{u}13=\textrm{e}1[12],\textrm{u}14=\textrm{e}1[13],\textrm{u}15=\textrm{e}1[14]
                    u16=e1[15],u17=e1[16],u18=e1[17],u19=e1[18],u20=e1[19],v1=e2[0],v2=e2[1],v3=e2[2],
                    v}4=\textrm{e}2[3],\textrm{v}5=\textrm{e}2[4],\textrm{v}6=\textrm{e}2[5],\textrm{v}7=\textrm{e}2[6],\textrm{v}8=\textrm{e}2[7],\textrm{v}9=\textrm{e}2[8],\textrm{v}10=\textrm{e}2[9],\textrm{v}11=\textrm{e}2[10],\textrm{v}12=\textrm{e}2[11]
                    v}13=\textrm{e}2[12],\textrm{v}14=\textrm{e}2[13],\textrm{v}15=\textrm{e}2[14],v16=e2[15],v17=e2[16],v18=e2[17],v19=e2[18],v20=e2[19])
```

```
    c12=c[0]
    for i in range(1,kappa)
        c12=Add(c12,c[i])
    return c12
##################### Encrypt/decrypt #########################
def Encrypt(x):
    xx=vector(randint(0,n) for i in range(kappa))
    Sumxx=0
    for i in range(kappa-1):
        Sumxx=Sumxx+xx[i]
    xx[kappa-1]=n-Sumxx
    rr=vector(randint(1,n) for i in range(kappa))
    Sc=[]
    for i in range(kappa):
        Sc.append(rr[i]*xx[i])
    Sc.append(rr[i])
    SSc=vector(Sc)
    return SI*SSc
def Decrypt(c):
    Sc=S*c
    x=0
    for i in range(kappa):
        x=x+Sc[2*i]/Sc[2*i+1]
    return x
####################### Main############################
tp1=time.clock()
print('ca commence...')
c1=Encrypt(9)
c2=Encrypt(11)
print(Decrypt(Add(c1,c2)))
print(Decrypt(Mult(c1,c1)))
tp2=time.clock()
print('running time: ',tp2-tp1)
```


## C Algebraic attack dealing with $\kappa=2$

## $\mathrm{n}=97$

$\mathrm{ka}=4$
R. < d11, d12, d13, d14, d21, d22, d23, d24, e11, e12, e13, e14, e21, e22, e23, e24, f11, f12, f13, f14,
f21, f22, f23, f24, x1, x2, c11, c12, c13, c14, c21, c22, c23, c24, a11, a12, a13,a14, a21,a22, a23, a24,
b11, b12, b13, b14, b21, b22, b23, b24, u1, u2, u3, u4, v1, v2, v3, v4, s11, s12, s13, s14, s21, s22,
s23, s24, s31, s32, s33, s34, s41, s42, s43, s44, R1>=PolynomialRing(FiniteField(n),75)
alpha $=\operatorname{list}() ; q q=\operatorname{list}() ; p i=\operatorname{list}() ; L=\operatorname{list}() ; \mathrm{LL}=\operatorname{list}() ; \mathrm{ZL}=\operatorname{list}()$
$\mathrm{S}=\operatorname{matrix}(4,4,[\mathrm{~s} 11, \mathrm{~s} 12, \mathrm{~s} 13, \mathrm{~s} 14, \mathrm{~s} 21, \mathrm{~s} 22, \mathrm{~s} 23, \mathrm{~s} 24, \mathrm{~s} 31, \mathrm{~s} 32, \mathrm{~s} 33, \mathrm{~s} 34, \mathrm{~s} 41, \mathrm{~s} 42, \mathrm{~s} 43, \mathrm{~s} 44])$
$\mathrm{u}=\mathrm{vector}([\mathrm{u} 1, \mathrm{u} 2, \mathrm{u} 3, \mathrm{u} 4])$
$\mathrm{v}=\operatorname{vector}([\mathrm{v} 1, \mathrm{v} 2, \mathrm{v} 3, \mathrm{v} 4])$
$\mathrm{a} 1=\operatorname{vector}([\mathrm{a} 11, \mathrm{a} 12, \mathrm{a} 13, \mathrm{a} 14]) ; \mathrm{a} 2=\operatorname{vector}([\mathrm{a} 21, \mathrm{a} 22, \mathrm{a} 23, \mathrm{a} 24])$
$\mathrm{b} 1=\operatorname{vector}([\mathrm{b} 11, \mathrm{~b} 12, \mathrm{~b} 13, \mathrm{~b} 14]) ; \mathrm{b} 2=\operatorname{vector}([\mathrm{b} 21, \mathrm{~b} 22, \mathrm{~b} 23, \mathrm{~b} 24])$
$\mathrm{c} 1=\operatorname{vector}([\mathrm{c} 11, \mathrm{c} 12, \mathrm{c} 13, \mathrm{c} 14]) ; \mathrm{c} 2=\operatorname{vector}([\mathrm{c} 21, \mathrm{c} 22, \mathrm{c} 23, \mathrm{c} 24])$
$\mathrm{d} 1=\operatorname{vector}([\mathrm{d} 11, \mathrm{~d} 12, \mathrm{~d} 13, \mathrm{~d} 14]) ; \mathrm{d} 2=\operatorname{vector}([\mathrm{d} 21, \mathrm{~d} 22, \mathrm{~d} 23, \mathrm{~d} 24])$
$\mathrm{e} 1=\operatorname{vector}([\mathrm{e} 11, \mathrm{e} 12, \mathrm{e} 13, \mathrm{e} 14]) ; \mathrm{e} 2=\operatorname{vector}([\mathrm{e} 21, \mathrm{e} 22, \mathrm{e} 23, \mathrm{e} 24])$
$\mathrm{f} 1=\operatorname{vector}([\mathrm{f} 11, \mathrm{f} 12, \mathrm{f} 13, \mathrm{f} 14]) ; \mathrm{f} 2=\operatorname{vector}([\mathrm{f} 21, \mathrm{f} 22, \mathrm{f} 23, \mathrm{f} 24])$
aa1 $=\operatorname{vector}([\operatorname{randint}(1, \mathrm{n})$ for i in $\operatorname{range}(4)]) ; a \operatorname{aa} 2=\operatorname{vector}([\operatorname{randint}(1, \mathrm{n})$ for i in range(4)])
$b b 1=\operatorname{vector}([\operatorname{randint}(1, \mathrm{n})$ for i in $\operatorname{range}(4)]) ; b b 2=\operatorname{vector}([\operatorname{randint}(1, \mathrm{n})$ for i in range(4)]) $\operatorname{cc} 1=\operatorname{vector}([\operatorname{randint}(1, n)$ for i in $\operatorname{range}(4)]) ; \operatorname{cc} 2=\operatorname{vector}([\operatorname{randint}(1, n)$ for i in range(4)]) $\operatorname{dd} 1=\operatorname{vector}([\operatorname{randint}(1, \mathrm{n})$ for i in $\operatorname{range}(4)]) ; \mathrm{dd} 2=\operatorname{vector}([\operatorname{randint}(1, \mathrm{n})$ for i in range(4)]) $\operatorname{ee} 1=\operatorname{vector}([\operatorname{randint}(1, \mathrm{n})$ for i in $\operatorname{range}(4)]) ; \operatorname{ee} 2=\operatorname{vector}([\operatorname{randint}(1, n)$ for i in $\operatorname{range}(4)])$

```
ff1=vector([randint}(1,n) for i in range(4)]);ff2=vector([randint(1, n) for i in range(4)]
SS}=\operatorname{matrix}(FiniteField(n),4,4,(\operatorname{randint}(1,n) for i in range(16))
TT=SS.inverse()
c=[1,2,3,4]
alpha.append (c[0]*s}11+c[1\mp@subsup{]}{}{*}\textrm{s}12+\textrm{c}[2\mp@subsup{]}{}{*}\textrm{s}13+\textrm{c}[3\mp@subsup{]}{}{*}\textrm{s}14-\textrm{x}\mp@subsup{1}{}{*}(\textrm{c}[0\mp@subsup{]}{}{*}\textrm{s}21+\textrm{c}[1\mp@subsup{]}{}{*}\textrm{s}22+\textrm{c}[2\mp@subsup{]}{}{*}\textrm{s}23+\textrm{c}[3\mp@subsup{]}{}{*}\textrm{s}24)
alpha.append(c[0]*s31+c[1]*s32+c[2]*s33+c[3]*s34-x2*(c[0]*s}41+c[1]*s s 42+c[2]*s43+c[3]*s44))
su=S*u
sv=S*v
ssu=SS*u
Ssv=SS**
O=vector([1,1,1,1])
L.append(vector([(d1*v)* ((O*)u)* (su[0]*sv[0]) + (a2*u)* (su[1]*sv[1])), (d1*v)* (O*u)*su[1]*sv[1],
(d2*v)* ((O*u)* (su[2]*sv[2]) - (a2*u)* (su[3]*sv[3])),(d2*v)* (O**u)* su[3]*sv[3]]))
L.append(vector([(e1*v) * ((O*u) * (su[0]* sv[1] + su[1]*sv[0]) + (b2*u) * (su[1]* sv[1])),(e1*v) *
(O*u)*su[1]*sv[1], (e2*v)* ((O*u) * (su[2]*sv[3] + su[3]*
(O*u)*su[3]*sv[3]]))
L.append(vector([(f1*v)* ((O* u)* (su[0]*sv[2]) + (c2*u)* (su[1]*sv[3])), (f1*v)* (O**u)* su[1]*sv[3],(f2*v)
* ((O* u) * (su[2]*}\textrm{sv}[0]) - (c2*u)* su[3]*sv[1]), (f2*v) * (O*u)* su[3]*sv[1]]))
```



```
* ssu[1]*
ssu[3]*}\mp@subsup{}{}{*}\operatorname{ssv}[3]])
LL.append(vector([(ee1*v) * ((O*u) * (ssu[0]* ssv[1] + ssu[1]* ssv[0]) + (bb2*u) * (ssu[1]* ssv[1])),
```



```
* (O*u) * ssu[3]*}\operatorname{ssv}[3]])
LL.append(vector([(ff1*v)* ((O*u) * (ssu[0]* ssv[2]) + (cc2*u)* (ssu[1]*ssv[3])),(ff1*v)* (O)*u)*
ssu[1] *}\operatorname{ssv}[3],(\textrm{ff}2*v)* ((O*u) * (ssu[2]*\operatorname{ssv}[0])-(cc2*u)* (ssu[3]*\operatorname{ssv}[1])),(ff2*v)* (O**u)* ssu[3]*\operatorname{ssv}[1]])
for i in range(3):
    q=TT*LL[i]
    for j in range(ka):
            qq.append(q[j])
for t in range(3):
    for i in range(ka):
        for j in range(ka-i):
            u=[0]*ka
            u[i]=u[i]+1
            u[i+j]=u[i+j]+1
            for k in range(ka):
                for l in range(ka-k):
                    v=[0]*ka
                            v}[\textrm{k}+\textrm{l}]=\textrm{v}[\textrm{k}+\textrm{l}]+
                    v[k]=v[k]+1
                    ZL}=[0]*k
                    for mm in range(ka):
                            ZL[mm]=qq[ka*t+mm].coefficient(u1:u[0],u2:u[1],u3:u[2],u4:u[3],v1:v[0],v2:v[1],v3:v[2],v4:v[3])
                    Z=vector(ZL)
                    Y=S*Z
                    for m}\mathrm{ in range(ka):
                        p=Y[m]-L[t][m].coefficient(u1:u[0],u2:u[1],u3:u[2],u4:u[3],v1:v[0],v2:v[1],v3:v[2],v4:v[3])
                            alpha.append(p)
pi}=[x1+x2-R1
IF}=\mathrm{ R.ideal(alpha +pi)
H=IF.elimination_ideal([x1,x2])
print(H)
```


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ with non-negligible probability (the coin toss being the choice of $n$ and the internal randomness of $\mathcal{A}$ )

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ ensuring that its factorization was forgotten just after its generation
    ${ }^{3}$ up to a multiplicative factor

[^2]:    ${ }^{4} \boldsymbol{c}_{i}=T\left(r_{i 1} x_{i 1}, r_{i 1}, \ldots, r_{i \kappa} x_{i \kappa}, r_{i \kappa}\right)$.

[^3]:    ${ }^{5}$ and thus cannot be evaluated

[^4]:    ${ }^{6}$ The same can be done with the other operators.

[^5]:    7 and thus cannot be evaluated

[^6]:    ${ }^{8} \phi(\boldsymbol{c}, x, S$, coeff $)=\sum_{i} \phi_{i}(\boldsymbol{c}, S$, coeff $) \times x^{i}$ with $\phi_{i}$ not null for at least one $i \geq 1$.

[^7]:    ${ }^{9}$ For instance, Add ${ }^{\text {naive }, S \rightarrow T_{0}}$ returns encryptions valid under a randomly chosen key $T_{0}$. These encryptions are then randomized by applying a chain of operators Rand ${ }^{T_{i} \rightarrow T_{i+1}}$ with $T_{\gamma}=S$.

