

Evaluating the effectiveness of heuristic worst-case noise analysis in FHE

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Abstract. The purpose of this paper is to test the accuracy of worst-case heuristic bounds on the noise growth in ring-based homomorphic encryption schemes. We use the methodology of Iliashenko (PhD thesis, 2019) to provide a new heuristic noise analysis for the BGV scheme. We demonstrate that for both the BGV and FV schemes, this approach gives tighter bounds than previous heuristic approaches, by as much as 10 bits of noise budget. Then, we provide experimental data on the noise growth of HElib and SEAL ciphertexts, in order to evaluate how well the heuristic bounds model the noise growth in practice. We find that, in spite of our improvements, there is still a gap between the heuristic estimate of the noise and the observed noise in practice. We extensively justify that a heuristic worst-case approach inherently leads to this gap, and hence leads to selecting significantly larger parameters than needed. As an additional contribution, we update the comparison between the two schemes presented by Costache and Smart (CT-RSA, 2016). Our new analysis shows that the practical crossover point at which BGV begins to outperform FV occurs for very large plaintext moduli, well beyond the crossover point reported by Costache and Smart.

1 Introduction

Fully homomorphic encryption enables the evaluation of arbitrary polynomials on encrypted data, without requiring access to the secret key. In contrast, somewhat homomorphic encryption enables the evaluation of limited functions on encrypted data; this is usually characterised by a bound of the depth of the circuits that can be evaluated. The first fully homomorphic encryption scheme was presented by Gentry [22], whose construction augmented a somewhat homomorphic encryption scheme with a technique known as bootstrapping.

In all homomorphic encryption schemes ciphertexts contain noise that grows during homomorphic evaluation operations. Once the noise exceeds a certain threshold, decryption will fail. In practice, managing the noise to ensure it is always below the threshold can be done in two ways. The first approach uses the bootstrapping procedure, which takes as input a ciphertext with large noise, and outputs a new ciphertext which has less noise and can be further computed on. Hence by bootstrapping at appropriate points, the entire evaluation can be

performed. The second approach is to pre-determine the function to be evaluated and set the parameters so as to allow for the noise growth that this specific function will incur. Using this method, we are sure that the output ciphertext at the end of the evaluation will have noise below the threshold, thus no bootstrapping will be necessary and correct decryption is ensured. In either case, good understanding of the noise growth behaviour is essential to achieve correctness and optimal performance. In fact, a good understanding of the noise growth in any scheme is crucial to parameter setting, large parameters remaining one of the main hurdles in homomorphic encryption development.

Contributions. This paper presents two main contributions. Firstly, we evaluate the effectiveness of the heuristic worst-case method. We do so by reworking the noise growth estimates produced by this method for the somewhat homomorphic encryption (SHE) schemes BGV [10] and FV³ [21]. We use the Iliashenko method [27] for obtaining the heuristic bounds. The bounds for FV were presented in [27], with the exception of modulus switching, while the BGV bounds we present using this method are new. We compare these new bounds against the previous heuristic analyses [18, 24, 23], and show that Iliashenko’s approach improves on the previous approach by as much as 10 bits of noise budget in certain settings, particularly so for the FV scheme. To demonstrate this, we provide the noise estimated by the old bounds and the new approach in Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4.

Next, we evaluate the practical noise growth incurred when evaluating homomorphic operations in BGV and FV by looking at their implementations in the HELib [26] and SEAL [36] libraries, respectively. The first HELib noise results concern the growth of the *critical quantity* [18] and can be found in Table 1. In order to facilitate comparison, we define and implement in HELib a noise budget for the critical quantity for BGV, analogous to the *invariant noise budget* [36] for FV that is implemented in SEAL. The results in terms of the noise budget are presented in Table 2. Our SEAL noise results are presented in Tables 3 and Table 4, for the binary encoding and batch settings, respectively. We find that, despite the improvements mentioned above, the predictions are not tight, and that a significant gap between the predicted noise and the actual noise remains. We will refer to this gap as the *heuristic-to-practical gap*.

We conclude that a worst-case heuristic estimate of homomorphic noise growth is inadequate. That is to say, we conjecture that the theoretical bounds we present in this work cannot be made tighter. We give an extensive justification for this conjecture, and comment on other methods we attempted for improvement, in Section 6. Therefore, we propose further tightening the heuristic-to-practical gap as an open problem. We believe that a better model of the noise growth behaviour can only be achieved by fine-tuning the analysis of a specific scheme to its specific implementation.

Our second main contribution, which can be of independent interest, is to use our improved analysis to update the Costache-Smart [18] comparison of the

³ FV is based on a scheme of Brakerski [9] and hence is sometimes referred to as BFV.

BGV and FV schemes. We improve upon the previous work of Costache-Smart in several ways. As well as applying the updated noise analysis following [27], we use a different notion of noise for FV than that used in [18], namely the invariant noise. In addition, our comparison relies on an up-to-date security analysis conforming to HE standards [1]. Indeed, it has since been shown [17] that parameters used in [18] that were estimated to have 80 bits of security are now estimated to have as little as 50. In contrast, the HE standards security recommendations start at the level of 128 bits [1].

The BGV and FV schemes remain two of the most popular SHE schemes, as they continue to see many performance improvements and optimisations and are implemented in several actively maintained homomorphic encryption libraries, including PALISADE⁴ as well as SEAL and HELib. It is therefore an important question to accurately assess how they perform and compare them against one another.

We conduct our comparison for a range of plaintext moduli t and present our results in Tables 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9. We expect that BGV will outperform FV asymptotically and our results remain consistent with this. An important issue in practice is to understand where the crossover point is, and our key conclusion is that the crossover point is somewhere between $t = 2^{32}$ and $t = 2^{64}$, far beyond the crossover point $t \approx 2^8$ reported in [18].

In most cases, our results show that BGV and FV present only minor performance differences in terms of supporting a specific homomorphic evaluation. We can conclude that, from the perspective of computational capabilities, the question of whether or not BGV should be preferred to FV should not be an important one when deciding between the two schemes.

Related work. The BGV and FV schemes are among the primary schemes being considered in the ongoing effort to standardise homomorphic encryption⁵. Indeed, the Homomorphic Encryption Security Standard [1] explicitly mentions the comparison of BGV and FV as an open problem, and motivates the present work. The analysis presented in our work should be expected to feed into the ongoing effort of the standardisation consortium [11] towards automation such as compilers or optimiser toolchains. An accurate noise growth estimator is likely to be a central component of any such tool.

A comparison of BGV as implemented in HELib and FV as implemented in SEAL was identified as an interesting and challenging open problem in [13]. Al Badawi *et al.* [35] investigate the behaviour of the BEHZ [5] and HPS [25] variants of FV⁶, and call for further study on BEHZ-FV noise growth, which further motivates the present work.

Previous comparisons of homomorphic encryption schemes include [18, 28, 30]. In our comparison, we do not consider newer schemes such as CKKS [15] or TFHE [16], which come with entirely different trade-offs. We also do not consider

⁴ <https://git.njit.edu/palisade/PALISADE>

⁵ HomomorphicEncryption.org

⁶ The results of [35] were recently revisited by Bajard *et al.* [6].

the NTRU-based schemes YASHE [8] and LTV [32], which are vulnerable to attacks in “overstretched” parameter settings of interest [4, 29].

2 Preliminaries

For reasons of space, we recall the BGV scheme in Appendix A and the FV scheme in Appendix B. As in prior work [18], we deviate from the original description of FV by also defining a modulus switching operation. In particular, we describe switching from a modulus q to a modulus p .

Parameters. A Ring-LWE-based (levelled) FHE scheme is parameterised by $L, n, Q, t, \chi, S, w, \ell$ and λ . There are L primes p_0, \dots, p_{L-1} which are used to form the chain of moduli q_0, \dots, q_{L-1} . Elements in the chain of moduli are formed as $q_k = \prod_{j=0}^k p_j$. The dimension n is typically chosen as a power of two, and we will only use such n in this work. The dimension n , plaintext modulus t and the chain of moduli parameterise the underlying plaintext and ciphertext rings. In particular, the ciphertext modulus $Q = q_{L-1} = \prod_{j=0}^{L-1} p_j$ is the product all the primes. Each intermediate prime q_j corresponds to a level and all ciphertexts are with respect to a specific level. We denote by q some fixed level when describing the schemes, so that the ciphertext space at any given moment is $R_q = \mathbb{Z}_q[x]/(x^n + 1)$. Note that for key generation and for fresh ciphertexts, we always have $q = Q$. The plaintext space is always $R_t = \mathbb{Z}_t[x]/(x^n + 1)$. Let w be a base, then $\ell + 1 = \lfloor \log_w q \rfloor + 1$ is the number of terms in the decomposition into base w of an integer in base q . The security parameter is λ .

The Ring-LWE error distribution is denoted χ and is typically a discrete gaussian with standard deviation $\sigma = 3.2$ [1]. The underlying Ring-LWE problem, parameterised by n, Q and σ , is a variant with small secret. The parameter S denotes the secret key distribution. In the FV scheme [21] the distribution S is the uniform distribution on the subspace of R_q consisting of polynomials whose coefficients are in the set $\{0, 1\}$. In the SEAL implementation [36] the distribution S is the uniform distribution on the subspace of R_q consisting of polynomials whose coefficients are in the set $\{-1, 0, 1\}$. In the BGV scheme [10], the distribution S is the same as the error distribution χ . In the HELib⁷ implementation [26], S is the distribution on the subspace of R_q consisting of polynomials whose coefficients are in the set $\{-1, 0, 1\}$ where each coefficient is sampled as follows: the element 0 is sampled with probability 0.5 and the elements ± 1 are each sampled with probability 0.25. To obtain the heuristic bounds for both BGV and FV, we take S to be the uniform distribution on the subspace of R_q consisting of polynomials whose coefficients are in the set $\{-1, 0, 1\}$. This ensures our comparison of the two schemes in Section 5 is fair.

Canonical embedding norm. Following previous work [18, 23, 24, 27], we will present heuristic bounds for the noise growth behaviour of FV and BGV with

⁷ Since January 2019 the HELib default secret distribution is no longer sparse.

respect to the canonical embedding norm $\|\cdot\|^{\text{can}}$. Throughout this work, the notation $\|a\|$ refers to the infinity norm of a , while $\|a\|^{\text{can}}$ refers to the canonical embedding norm. The canonical embedding norm of an element a is defined to be the infinity norm of the canonical embedding⁸ $\sigma(a)$ of a , so $\|a\|^{\text{can}} = \|\sigma(a)\|$.

We will use the following properties of the canonical embedding norm. For any polynomial $a \in R$ we have $\|a\| \leq c_m \|a\|^{\text{can}} \leq \|a\|_1$ where c_m is a constant known as the ring expansion factor (see [20]). We have $c_m = 1$ when the dimension n is a power of two [20]. In this case, it suffices for correctness to ensure that $\|v\|^{\text{can}}$ is less than the maximal value of $\|v\|$ such that decryption succeeds. For any polynomials a, b we have $\|ab\|^{\text{can}} \leq \|a\|^{\text{can}} \|b\|^{\text{can}}$.

For our bounds, we use the method presented in [27]. This allows us to improve our noise bounds compared to previous ones [18, 23, 24] by as much as 11 bits of noise budget in certain settings. Therefore, the noise bounds we present in this work are much tighter than ones presented in previous works.

Let $R = \mathbb{Z}[x]/(x^n + 1)$ and let ζ be a primitive $2n^{\text{th}}$ root of unity (it does not matter which one, by the definition of the canonical embedding norm). Let $a \in R$ be a polynomial for which the variance of each coefficient is V_a . Then, the variance of the random variable $a(\zeta)$ is nV_a [18, 24, 27]. We use the fact that $\text{erfc}(6) \approx 2^{-55}$ to obtain the following bound $\|a\|^{\text{can}} \leq 6\sqrt{n}\sqrt{V_a}$.

We also use the following facts. Let V_a and V_b the variances of the coefficients of two polynomials $a \in R$ and $b \in R$ chosen from zero-mean distributions, and let γ be a constant. The variance of the coefficients of the polynomial $a + b$ is $V_{a+b} = V_a + V_b$. The variance of the coefficients of the polynomial γa is $V_{\gamma a} = \gamma^2 V_a$. The variance of the coefficients of the polynomial ab is $V_{ab} = nV_a V_b$ (see [27] for a proof).

The variances in situations of interest for this paper are as follows. The coefficients of a polynomial f that are distributed uniformly in $[-\frac{k}{2}, \frac{k}{2}]$ have variance $V_f \approx \frac{k^2}{12}$. The coefficients of a polynomial e that are drawn from an error distribution χ , which has standard deviation σ , have variance $V_e = \sigma^2$. The coefficients of a polynomial s that are drawn from the uniform distribution on the ternary set $\{-1, 0, 1\}$ have variance $V_s = \frac{2}{3}$.

3 BGV noise growth in practice

3.1 Noise growth behaviour

In this section we present new heuristic bounds on the noise growth behaviour of BGV, developed using the methodology of [27]. In Section 3.2 we compare our bounds with those that would be obtained following the methodology presented in prior work [18, 23, 24], and show that our analysis provides a better estimate of the noise growth.

Our bounds use the *critical quantity* [18] definition of noise, which is the notion of noise used in the HElib implementation of BGV. We assume that the plaintext is chosen uniformly at random from the plaintext space. We further

⁸ For a definition of the canonical embedding and other algebraic background, see [33].

assume that the secret key distribution S is the uniform ternary distribution. Earlier heuristic bounds for BGV [18, 23, 24] were presented assuming a sparse secret distribution, in line with earlier versions of HElib. For comparison with our new bounds, we redo the prior analysis so that in Tables 1 and 2, the ‘[18]’ column refers to bounds that would be obtained using the heuristic method presented in [18] and assuming a uniform ternary distribution for the secret key.

Definition 1 (BGV critical quantity [18]). Let $ct = (c_0, c_1)$ be a BGV ciphertext encrypting the message $m \in R_t$. Its critical quantity v is the polynomial

$$v = [ct(s)]_q = (c_0 + c_1s) \pmod{q}.$$

During decryption, we first compute the critical quantity and then take the result modulo t . If there is no wraparound modulo q then for some integer polynomial k , the critical quantity satisfies $[ct(s)]_q = m + tk$. The reduction modulo t hence returns m . Therefore for correctness, we require that $\|v\| \leq q/2$.

Lemma 1 (Maximal noise [18]). A BGV ciphertext ct encrypting a message m can be correctly decrypted if the critical quantity v satisfies $\|v\| < q/2$.

Encrypt: Let ct be a fresh BGV encryption of a message $m \in R_t$. With high probability, the critical quantity v in ct satisfies

$$\|v\|^{\text{can}} \leq 6t\sqrt{\frac{n}{12} + n\sigma^2\left(\frac{4}{3}n + 1\right)}.$$

To see this, we use that for a polynomial a with coefficients with variance V_a , and a scalar t , the polynomial ta has coefficients with variance $V_{at} = t^2V_a$. The noise polynomial is $v = m + t(e_1 + e_2s - eu)$. Its coefficients have variance

$$V_v = V_{m+t(e_1+e_2s-eu)} = V_m + t^2V_{e_1+e_2s-eu} = t^2\left(\frac{1}{12} + \sigma^2\left(\frac{4}{3}n + 1\right)\right).$$

Hence $\|v\|^{\text{can}} \leq 6\sqrt{nV_v} = 6\sqrt{nt^2\left(\frac{1}{12} + \sigma^2\left(\frac{4}{3}n + 1\right)\right)}$.

Add [18]: Let ct_1 and ct_2 be two BGV ciphertexts encrypting $m_1, m_2 \in R_t$, and having critical quantities v_1, v_2 , respectively. Then the critical quantity v_{add} in their sum ct_{add} satisfies $\|v_{\text{add}}\|^{\text{can}} \leq \|v_1\|^{\text{can}} + \|v_2\|^{\text{can}}$.

Mult [18]: Let ct_1 and ct_2 be two BGV ciphertexts encrypting $m_1, m_2 \in R_t$, and having critical quantities v_1, v_2 , respectively. Then the critical quantity v_{mult} in their product ct_{mult} satisfies $\|v_{\text{mult}}\|^{\text{can}} \leq \|v_1\|^{\text{can}} \cdot \|v_2\|^{\text{can}}$.

Relinearize: Let ct be a BGV ciphertext encrypting m and having noise v . Let ct_{relin} be the ciphertext obtained by the relinearization of ct . Then with high probability, the critical quantity v_{relin} in ct_{relin} satisfies

$$\|v_{\text{relin}}\|^{\text{can}} \leq \|v\|^{\text{can}} + t\sqrt{(\ell + 1)nw\sigma\sqrt{3}}.$$

The justification is analogous to the FV relinearization bound proved in [27].

n	Enc			Add			Mult			ModSwitch		
	[18]	E	\bar{x}	[18]	E	\bar{x}	[18]	E	\bar{x}	[18]	E	\bar{x}
2048	19.0	17.1	5.12	20.0	18.1	5.62	39.0	35.1	14.7	-	-	-
4096	20.0	18.1	5.19	21.0	19.1	5.69	40.9	37.1	15.3	15.5	14.1	3.62
8192	21.0	19.1	5.25	22.0	20.1	5.76	42.9	39.1	15.8	16.5	15.1	3.65
16384	22.0	20.1	5.31	23.0	21.1	5.81	44.9	41.1	16.4	17.5	16.1	3.70

Table 1. The column \bar{x} gives the logarithm to base 2 of the observed mean of the noise in HELib ciphertexts over 10000 trials of a specific homomorphic evaluation for parameter sets with dimension $n \in \{2048, 4096, 8192, 16384\}$. The column E gives an estimate of the noise growth using heuristic bounds obtained following our analysis. The remaining column gives an estimate of the noise growth using heuristic bounds obtained following an analysis as in [18].

n	Enc			Add			Mult			ModSwitch		
	[18]	E	\bar{x}	[18]	E	\bar{x}	[18]	E	\bar{x}	[18]	E	\bar{x}
2048	34.0	35.0	41.1	33.0	34.0	40.2	14.0	17.0	26.0	-	-	-
4096	88.0	89.0	97.9	87.0	88.0	97.0	67.0	70.0	82.4	38.0	39.0	38.1
8192	196	197	209	195	196	209	174	177	194	146	147	150
16384	415	416	433	414	415	432	392	395	416	365	366	373

Table 2. The column \bar{x} gives the observed mean of the noise budget in HELib ciphertexts over 10000 trials of a specific homomorphic evaluation for parameter sets with dimension $n \in \{2048, 4096, 8192, 16384\}$. The column E gives an estimate of the noise budget using heuristic bounds obtained following our analysis. The remaining column gives an estimate of the noise budget using heuristic bounds obtained following an analysis as in [18].

ModSwitch: Let \mathbf{ct} be a BGV ciphertext encrypting m with critical quantity v with respect to a modulus q . Let \mathbf{ct}_{mod} be the ciphertext encrypting m obtained by modulus switching to the modulus p . Then with high probability, the critical quantity v_{mod} in \mathbf{ct}_{mod} satisfies

$$\|v_{\text{mod}}\|^{\text{can}} \leq \frac{p}{q} \|v\|^{\text{can}} + t\sqrt{3n + 2n^2}.$$

Let $\mathbf{ct}_{\text{mod}} = (c'_0, c'_1)$, the result of the modulus switching operation applied to $\mathbf{ct} = (c_0, c_1)$. As in [18], we let τ_i be the rounding error of $\frac{p}{q} \cdot \delta_i$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \|c'_0 + c'_1 s\|^{\text{can}} &\leq \frac{p}{q} (\|c_0 + c_1 s\|^{\text{can}} + \|\delta_0 + \delta_1 s\|^{\text{can}}) \leq \frac{p}{q} \|v\|^{\text{can}} + \|\tau_0 + \tau_1 s\|^{\text{can}} \\ &\leq \frac{p}{q} \|v\|^{\text{can}} + 6t\sqrt{\frac{n}{12} \left(1 + \frac{2n}{3}\right)}. \end{aligned}$$

3.2 Practical experiments

In this section we compare the observed critical quantity in HELib ciphertexts formed as a result of certain homomorphic evaluation operations with expected

estimates on the noise growth from the heuristic upper bounds. We run the following experiment for a certain number of trials: we step through a specific homomorphic evaluation, and for each operation, we record the observed noise growth. We then output the mean of the observed noise. Separately, we compute an estimate of the noise growth using the heuristic bounds presented in Section 3.1.

HElib offers a debugging function⁹ that implements an augmented decryption, which also returns the critical quantity v . We modify this to create a function that returns $\|v\|$.

The evaluation is as follows in the i -th trial. We first generate fresh ciphertexts ct_1 and ct_2 encrypting $i+1$ and i . Next, generate ct_3 as the homomorphic addition of ct_1 and ct_2 . Next, generate ct_4 as the homomorphic multiplication of ct_3 and ct_2 . Finally, generate ct_5 by modulus switching ct_4 down to the next prime in the chain.

Relinearization for BGV as defined in Appendix A above is not implemented in HElib. Instead, a different variant is implemented (see [24]). Indeed, relinearization can be (and, in practice, is) implemented in a number of ways, all with easy-to-understand additive noise growth. Therefore, we do not investigate the noise growth behaviour during relinearization in our practical experiments.

Table 1 gives the results of this experiment for 10000 trials. We used the follow default parameter settings in HElib: we set the standard deviation of the error distribution as $\sigma = 3.2$ and the security parameter¹⁰ $\lambda = 80$. The HElib parameter c , which relates to relinearization, was set as a default value $c = 2$. We set the number of plaintext slots as $s = 1$ as we did not require batching functionality. We used the default HElib secret distribution, which slightly differs from a uniform ternary secret distribution, as discussed in Section 2.

We set the dimension¹¹ $n \in \{2048, 4096, 8192, 16384\}$. The HElib parameter `nBits` is passed to the function `buildModChain` which sets an appropriate chain of moduli for which the product of all the primes, Q , satisfies $Q \approx 2^{\text{nBits}}$. We set `nBits` $\in \{54, 109, 218, 438\}$, which are the same values as for the default Q in SEAL [36]. The parameters for $n = 2048$ were not large enough to perform modulus switching. We set the plaintext modulus¹² as $t = 3$. Such a small plaintext modulus means that the values encrypted in our trials ‘cover’ the whole plaintext space and hence the assumption used in the noise bounds that m is a random plaintext is reasonable.

Table 1 shows that the heuristic bounds hold on average: the actual observed mean noise is less than the estimated noise. However, it will be difficult to directly compare these results with those for experiments in SEAL, which are given in

⁹ `decryptAndPrint`

¹⁰ In HElib, the security parameter is typically denoted as k . This may not be an accurate security estimate [3].

¹¹ In HElib, the dimension is selected as m where $n = \varphi(m)$ and $\varphi(\cdot)$ is the Euler totient function. Hence, we set $m \in \{4096, 8192, 16384, 32768\}$. We verified that our other choices allowed for these m using the function `FindM`.

¹² In HElib, the plaintext modulus is parameterised as p^r hence we set $p = 3$ and $r = 1$.

terms of a *noise budget*, rather than the noise itself [36]. In order to facilitate an easier comparison, we define a noise budget for BGV that is analogous to the invariant noise budget in FV.

Definition 2 (BGV noise budget). *Let ct be a BGV ciphertext with respect to modulus q having critical quantity v . The noise budget for this ciphertext is defined as*

$$\log_2(q) - \log_2(\|v\|) - 1.$$

To see that this is an analogous definition, note that for FV the invariant noise budget is defined in [36] as $-\log_2(2 \cdot \|v\|) = \log_2(q) - \log_2(q \cdot \|v\|) - 1$. This captures that for correctness in FV, we require that $q \cdot \|v\| < \frac{q}{2}$. Similarly, Definition 2 captures that for correctness in BGV, we require $\|v\| \leq q/2$.

We implemented a function in HELib to measure the noise budget, and a function to estimate the noise budget using the heuristic bounds. We then ran the same experiment as detailed above to compare the growth of the observed noise budget in HELib ciphertexts with that predicted from the heuristic bounds. Table 2 gives the results of this experiment for 10000 trials.

We see from Tables 1 and 2 that the heuristic bounds hold: the observed mean noise is less than the estimated noise, so the observed mean noise budget is more than the estimated noise budget. Moreover, we see that using our new analysis to obtain the heuristic bounds gives an estimate closer to the observed noise than an analysis as in the line of prior work [18, 23, 24].

Despite this improvement, the heuristic bounds are still not tight¹³. For example, for fresh ciphertexts, our heuristic bound predicts 6 to 17 fewer bits of remaining noise budget than the mean observed. We see that the gap compounds as we move through the computation: after multiplication, the gap is 9 to 21 bits. The gap narrows after modulus switching, to below 7 bits. Although the HELib implementation uses a secret key distribution that is slightly different from the uniform ternary distribution assumed in the heuristic bounds, we do not expect this to significantly contribute to the gap.

We also found that the observed noise budgets follow narrow distributions, which gives us confidence that the heuristic bounds will hold very often, and so could be relied upon to set parameters for correctness. However, since the heuristic bounds are not tight, they may lead us to choose larger parameters than is necessary. It is not clear that choosing BGV parameters using the heuristic bounds will be optimal for performance.

4 FV noise growth in practice

4.1 Heuristic upper bounds

To evaluate the effectiveness of heuristic worst-case noise analyses for FV, we will use the heuristic upper bounds for FV presented by Iliashenko [27]. For

¹³ An exception is modulus switching for $n = 4096$, which seems to be well-modelled by both approaches for obtaining heuristic bounds.

reasons of space we do not reproduce these bounds, except for modulus switching, for which a bound was not presented in [27]. In Section 4.2 we compare these bounds with those that would be obtained following the methodology of previous work [14, 18, 23, 24], and show that the Iliashenko method provides a better estimate of the noise growth.

The bounds use the *invariant noise* definition for noise [14], as used in the SEAL [36] implementation of FV. We assume that the secret key distribution S is the uniform ternary distribution, as in SEAL [36], and that plaintexts are chosen uniformly at random in the plaintext space.

Definition 3 (FV invariant noise [36]). Let $ct = (c_0, c_1)$ be an FV ciphertext encrypting the message $m \in R_t$. Its invariant noise v is the polynomial with the smallest infinity norm such that, for some integer coefficient polynomial a ,

$$\frac{t}{q} \mathbf{ct}(s) = \frac{t}{q} (c_0 + c_1 s) = m + v + at.$$

The intuition for this definition of noise is that v is exactly the term which will be removed by the rounding in a successful decryption. Therefore for correctness, we require that $\|v\| < \frac{1}{2}$ [36].

ModSwitch: Let \mathbf{ct} be an FV ciphertext encrypting m with invariant noise v with respect to a modulus q . Let \mathbf{ct}_{mod} be the ciphertext encrypting m obtained by modulus switching to the modulus p . Then with high probability, the invariant noise v_{mod} in \mathbf{ct}_{mod} satisfies

$$\|v_{\text{mod}}\|^{\text{can}} \leq \|v\|^{\text{can}} + \frac{t}{p} \cdot \sqrt{3n + 2n^2}.$$

The bound can be seen as analogous to the BGV modulus switching bound (Section 3.1) and is justified by a similar argument.

4.2 Practical experiments

In this section we compare the observed noise in SEAL ciphertexts formed as a result of certain homomorphic evaluation operations with expected estimates on the noise growth from the heuristic upper bounds. We run the following experiment for a certain number of trials: we step through a specific homomorphic evaluation and for each operation we record the observed noise growth. We then output the mean of the observed noise. Separately, we compute an estimate of the noise growth using the heuristic bounds.

Recall that since $\|v\| \leq \|v\|^{\text{can}}$, we can use the bounds presented in Section 4.1 as upper bounds for the infinity norm $\|v\|$ of the invariant noise v . Rather than working with the invariant noise v directly, since it can be an extremely small quantity, SEAL instead uses the current *invariant noise budget* [36], which is defined as $-\log_2(2 \cdot \|v\|)$.

We conduct the same evaluation in SEAL as we did in Section 3.2 for HELib. In particular, this means we do not measure the noise growth in relinearization.

Apart from the reasons discussed in Section 3.2, this is also necessary for two reasons. Firstly, the choice of the parameter w is no longer part of the API in SEAL, so it is difficult to compare to the relinearization heuristic bound. Secondly, SEAL reserves one of the chain of moduli as ‘special prime’ used both in relinearization and in a modulus switching implemented as part of the encryption operation. This reduces noise in a fresh SEAL ciphertext, but deviates from a plain FV encryption, and hence would not be accurately captured by the fresh noise bound presented in [27]. We modify SEAL to disable this special prime functionality. This enables us to obtain data on the noise growth in an implementation of plain FV encryption, at the cost of being unable to investigate relinearization.

The evaluation is as follows in the i -th trial. First, generate fresh ciphertexts ct_1 and ct_2 encrypting $i + 1$ and i . Next, generate ct_3 as the homomorphic addition of ct_1 and ct_2 . Next, generate ct_4 as the homomorphic multiplication of ct_3 and ct_2 . Finally, generate ct_5 by modulus switching ct_4 down to the next prime in the chain. We ran this evaluation over 10000 trials, using the SEAL default parameters n, Q, σ for the 128-bit security level for dimensions $n \in \{2048, 4096, 8192, 16384\}$. The SEAL default parameters for $n = 2048$ correspond to a chain of only one modulus, and hence we cannot perform modulus switching in this case. We used a plaintext modulus $t = 256$. Such a plaintext modulus means that the values encrypted in our trials ‘cover’ the whole plaintext space and hence the assumption used in the noise bounds that m is a random plaintext is reasonable. To generate the plaintexts encoding $i + 1$ and i , we used the default binary encoder. Table 3 reports on the results of this experiment¹⁴.

In a second experiment, we repeated the above evaluation using a batch encoder. In each trial we generate two plaintexts, encoding the values j and $j + 1$ for $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ respectively in each of the n slots. To enable batching, we changed the plaintext modulus to be $t = 65537$, a prime congruent to 1 modulo $2n$. All other parameters were kept the same. Table 4 reports on the results of this experiment for 10000 trials.

Tables 3 and 4 show that the heuristic bounds indeed hold: the observed mean noise is less than the estimated noise, so the observed mean noise budget is more than the estimate obtained using the heuristic bounds. This gives us confidence that the heuristic bounds will hold very often, and so can be used reliably to set parameters to ensure correctness. However, the bounds do not appear to be tight. Indeed, for encryption, the heuristic bound predicts 6 to 8 (respectively 6 to 12) fewer bits of remaining noise budget than the mean observed in Table 3 (respectively Table 4). This gap is compounded as the number of operations increases, reaching 8 to 17 (respectively 7 to 14) bits after multiplication in Table 3 (respectively Table 4, for $n = 4096$ and above). It appears that the gap reduces after modulus switching, with 8 or 9 fewer bits of remaining noise budget

¹⁴ Bajard *et al.* [6] recently identified a bug in the implementation of multiplication in SEAL, resulting in a ciphertext that is has more noise than expected when the plaintext modulus is large. Our experiments, using a small plaintext modulus $t = 256$, are not affected. This bug is expected to be fixed in SEAL v3.5.

n	Enc			Add			Mult			ModSwitch		
	[14]	E	\bar{x}	[14]	E	\bar{x}	[14]	E	\bar{x}	[14]	E	\bar{x}
2048	27.0	29.0	35.4	26.0	28.0	35.0	0.000	8.00	16.9	-	-	-
4096	81.0	83.0	90.0	80.0	82.0	89.1	51.0	61.0	69.8	31.0	33.0	50.2
8192	189	191	198	188	190	198	157	168	178	139	141	151
16384	408	410	418	407	409	417	375	386	396	358	360	365

Table 3. Binary encoder setting. The column \bar{x} gives the observed mean of the invariant noise budget in SEAL ciphertexts over 10000 trials of a specific homomorphic evaluation for parameter sets with dimension $n \in \{2048, 4096, 8192, 16384\}$. The column E gives an estimate of the noise budget using heuristic bounds obtained following our analysis. The remaining column gives an estimate of the noise budget using heuristic bounds obtained following an analysis as in prior work [14].

n	Enc			Add			Mult			ModSwitch		
	[14]	E	\bar{x}	[14]	E	\bar{x}	[14]	E	\bar{x}	[14]	E	\bar{x}
2048	19.0	21.0	27.4	18.0	20.0	27.0	0.000	0.00	1.00	-	-	-
4096	71.0	71.0	82.0	70.0	70.0	81.1	32.0	41.0	54.0	23.0	25.0	42.3
8192	179	179	190	178	178	190	139	148	161	131	133	143
16384	398	398	410	397	397	409	356	366	380	350	352	357

Table 4. Batching setting. The column \bar{x} gives the observed mean of the invariant noise budget in SEAL ciphertexts over 10000 trials of a specific homomorphic evaluation for parameter sets with dimension $n \in \{2048, 4096, 8192, 16384\}$. The column E gives an estimate of the noise budget using heuristic bounds obtained following our analysis. The remaining column gives an estimate of the noise budget using heuristic bounds obtained following an analysis as in prior work [14].

than the mean observed in both Table 3 and Table 4. Comparing to Table 2 we see that these trends are all similar to the HELib case. Finally, notice that while the new method tightens the bounds by up to 3 bits for BGV as seen in Tables 1 and 2, for FV the improvement is more dramatic. Indeed, the new analysis tightens the bounds by as much as 10 bits in the case of the multiplication operation, as seen in Tables 4 and 3. This difference can be explained by looking at the multiplication bounds. The BGV bound is very simple (recall Section 3.1) while the complexity of the FV bound implies that this scheme has a much larger benefit from a tighter analysis.

5 Updated comparison between BGV and FV

In this section we compare the BGV and FV schemes, improving on a prior comparison by Costache and Smart [18]. Our first main improvement is to select parameters that achieve a security level $\lambda = 128$ according to the Homomorphic Encryption Standard [1]. In contrast, the prior work [18] relied on a security analysis by Lindner and Peikert [31], which has been shown to be incorrect [2, 3]. In fact, as shown in [17], FHE parameters which were estimated by [31] to have 80

Scheme	Level L														
	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30
BGV	4.75	6.77	8.77	8.77	10.8	10.8	10.8	10.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8
FV	4.75	6.77	8.77	8.77	8.77	10.8	10.8	10.8	10.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8

Table 5. Logarithm to base 2 of the minimal ciphertext size in kilobytes required in the BGV and FV schemes to support the described homomorphic evaluation for L levels, for plaintext modulus $t = 3$.

Scheme	Level L														
	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30
BGV	6.77	8.77	8.77	10.8	10.8	10.8	10.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	-	-
FV	4.75	6.77	8.77	8.77	10.8	10.8	10.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8

Table 6. Logarithm to base 2 of the minimal ciphertext size in kilobytes required in the BGV and FV schemes to support the described homomorphic evaluation for L levels, for plaintext modulus $t = 256$. The symbol ‘-’ indicates that the computation was too large to be supported by any parameter set.

Scheme	Level L														
	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30
BGV	6.77	8.77	10.8	10.8	10.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	-	-	-	-
FV	6.77	8.77	8.77	10.8	10.8	10.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	-	-	-

Table 7. Logarithm to base 2 of the minimal ciphertext size in kilobytes required in the BGV and FV schemes to support the described homomorphic evaluation for L levels, for plaintext modulus $t = 32768$. The symbol ‘-’ indicates that the computation was too large to be supported by any parameter set.

Scheme	Level L														
	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30
BGV	6.77	8.77	10.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
FV	8.77	10.8	10.8	10.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 8. Logarithm to base 2 of the minimal ciphertext size in kilobytes required in the BGV and FV schemes to support the described homomorphic evaluation for L levels, for plaintext modulus $t = 2^{32}$. The symbol ‘-’ indicates that the computation was too large to be supported by any parameter set.

bits of security had as little as 51 bits of security according to [3, 2]. Our second main improvement is to use a heuristic noise analysis following the methodology of Iliashenko [27]. Our experimental results in Sections 3 and 4 show that this analysis more closely represents the noise growth in implementations than the heuristic analysis that was used in [18].

Methodology. We now describe the homomorphic evaluation function used in our comparison, which is the same as was used in [18]. We begin by guessing the

Scheme	Level L														
	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30
BGV	8.77	10.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
FV	10.8	10.8	12.8	12.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 9. Logarithm to base 2 of the minimal ciphertext size in kilobytes required in the BGV and FV schemes to support the described homomorphic evaluation for L levels, for plaintext modulus $t = 2^{64}$. The symbol ‘-’ indicates that the computation was too large to be supported by any parameter set.

dimension n . We go through a pre-determined circuit as follows: we take a fresh ciphertext, perform ζ additions, followed by a multiplication, and a relinearization. We then modulus switch down to the next prime in the chain, perform ζ additions, followed by a multiplication and relinearization, and so on. After modulus switching to the smallest prime, we check if we get a decryption error. If that is the case, we increase the guess, and repeat the procedure until decryption succeeds. Each of the circuits we consider in this work is parameterised by a number of additions ζ and a multiplicative depth L . Any circuit that is to be homomorphically evaluated consists of additions and/ or multiplications, thus this approach is as comprehensive as can be. We refer to the reader to [19] for real-life applications of such circuits.

Parameter selection. For the given circuit, and for a fixed level L , plaintext modulus t , and security level λ , our goal is to find the smallest parameter set, in terms of ciphertext size in kilobytes, such that decryption succeeds. While we could have considered other criteria such as key size, it is ciphertexts which are sent over networks and computed on, thus a very large ciphertext could present the biggest overhead in an implementation. Therefore, we believe ciphertext size is the most relevant criterion.

To keep the comparison fair, we assume a uniform ternary distribution for the secret keys, as well for the ephemeral keys sampled in encryption, in both BGV and FV. Following the choice in [18], we perform $\zeta = 8$ additions before each multiplication. The ring constant is set to $c_m = 1$, as n (and hence m) is always a power of two. We consider a range of levels L of circuits, choosing $L \in \{2, 4, 6, \dots, 30\}$. We set the standard deviation $\sigma = 3.2$, which follows the recommendation in the Homomorphic Encryption Standard [1]. We set the parameters n and (top modulus) Q as those recommended in the Homomorphic Encryption Standard [1] to achieve a security level $\lambda = 128$ when the secret follows a uniform ternary distribution.

Asymptotically, we expect that BGV will outperform FV. We investigate a range of plaintext moduli to understand where the practical crossover point is. We first perform the comparison using plaintext modulus $t = 3$, which was shown to be optimal among integral bases for encoding by Costache *et al.* [19], and is well within the regime for which FV is reported to be more performant in [18]. We then consider a plaintext modulus $t = 256$, a choice slightly beyond

the crossover point according to [18]. We also perform the comparison with the plaintext moduli $t = 32768$, $t = 2^{32}$ and $t = 2^{64}$, which are all well beyond the reported crossover point.

Results and analysis. Table 5 presents the results of the comparison for plaintext modulus $t = 3$. We see that, as the level increases, the point at which we need to switch to the next parameter set is often the same for both schemes. However, for $L \in \{10, 18\}$ we see that BGV required a larger parameter set than FV. This would suggest that for small plaintext modulus, FV is sometimes preferable to BGV. This is in agreement with the findings of [18].

Table 6 presents the results of the comparison for plaintext modulus $t = 256$. Again, for most values of L , the ciphertext sizes were the same for both BGV and FV. However, for $L \in \{2, 4, 8, 28, 30\}$ we see from Table 6 that BGV required a larger parameter set than FV. Indeed, the computation for $L \in \{28, 30\}$ could not be supported for BGV using any parameter set. The results for plaintext modulus $t = 32768$, presented in Table 7, are similar. This would suggest that FV continues to outperform BGV even after the crossover point reported in [18].

In Table 8, for plaintext modulus $t = 2^{32}$, we see that depending on the level, sometimes BGV outperforms FV and sometimes vice versa. In Table 9, for plaintext modulus $t = 2^{64}$, we see that FV required a larger parameter set than BGV for $L = 2$ and BGV could support up to $L = 10$ levels while FV could only support $L = 8$. This would suggest that by plaintext modulus $t = 2^{64}$ we have entered the regime in which BGV outperforms FV.

In summary, our results are consistent with the asymptotic expectation that BGV will outperform FV. However, they also indicate that the practical crossover point is far beyond that reported in [18], being somewhere between $t = 2^{32}$ and $t = 2^{64}$. Across all tables, we see that for most values of L , both BGV and FV required the same minimal values of n and Q to support the computation and hence the ciphertext sizes were the same. We can additionally conclude that BGV and FV present only minor performance differences from the point of view of computational capabilities.

Limitations. We stress that this is a comparison of how the noise growth behaviour impacts correctness in the BGV and FV schemes: we ignore correctness issues coming from decoding failure. Our comparison is naturally limited in several other aspects. For example, we only consider a certain specific computation, for which we do not attempt to make any scheme-specific optimisations that may be possible. Also, we note that while the choice of plaintext modulus $t = 3$ is optimal for integral bases, recent work has demonstrated the benefits of using non-integral bases [7, 12] or using t a polynomial rather than an integer [14].

6 Improving the heuristic-to-practical gap

In this section, we present additional supporting evidence for our main conclusion that the worst-case heuristic approach is inadequate.

Different definitions of noise result in a similar gap. In a fresh FV encryption (see Appendix B), the message m is scaled up by $\Delta = \lfloor q/t \rfloor$ to put it in the high-order bits. In decryption, we cancel Δ by multiplying by t/q , but this introduces a rounding term of the form $r_t(q) \cdot m$, since typically q is not exactly divisible by t . The invariant noise, defined such that $t/q \cdot (\text{ct}(s)) = m + v + at$, folds this rounding term into the noise. However, notice that this $r_t(q) \cdot m$ term is only introduced by the decryption process: this term is not a part of the noise that the ciphertext carries before a decryption is performed. Therefore, including this term in every intermediate ciphertext will lead to overestimates that compound. We modified our experiments to take this into account and found that while this would represent a slight improvement for modelling the noise in fresh ciphertexts, it does not significantly improve the heuristic-to-practical gap.

Worst-case bounds are inherently loose. Our approach to obtain heuristic bounds requires us to bound Gaussian random variables in the canonical embedding. For example, a Gaussian random variable e , with mean zero and standard deviation σ is bounded as $\|e\|^{\text{can}} \leq B \cdot \sigma_e$, for some B , where $\sigma_e = \sigma\sqrt{n}$. Following [18], we use $B = 6$, while HELib uses $B = 10$ as a default [26]. On the one hand, we never see $\|e\|^{\text{can}}$ this large in experiments, which is not surprising because the probability of $\|e\|^{\text{can}} > B \cdot \sigma_e$ is extremely low. On the other hand, to prove a heuristic bound of this type in theory, we need to ensure B is large enough (such as $B = 5$ or $B = 6$) to obtain a ‘reasonable’ failure probability. For example, we have $\text{erfc}(5) \approx 2^{-40}$, while $\text{erfc}(6) \approx 2^{-50}$.

An average-case analysis would be complicated by nonlinearity. The TFHE scheme [16] uses an appealing average-case approach to estimate noise growth, rather than worst-case bounds. In this approach, the coefficients of the noise in a TFHE ciphertext are modelled as independent subgaussians, and the variance of these subgaussians is traced through the homomorphic evaluation operations. This heuristic has been experimentally verified for the gate bootstrapping operation [16, Figure 10], showing in this case the noise in an output ciphertext can be modelled as a Gaussian of a certain variance. Moreover, every elementary operation in TFHE can be implemented via gate bootstrapping on a linear combination of ciphertexts [16, Table 1]. Hence, by linearity, all noises in TFHE ciphertexts can be modelled as subgaussian and it is easy to follow through the analysis of the variances.

In contrast, in the case of BGV and FV, we have a nonlinear noise growth in multiplication. In [34] it was shown that while a Central Limit argument could be used to approximate the noise in a BGV-like ciphertext as Gaussian, the quality of such an approximation would tend to decrease after many multiplications because the true noise distribution would have heavier and heavier tails. Hence it is not clear if an average-case approach as used in [16] would tightly model the noise growth in BGV or FV after many multiplications. Resolving this would be an interesting direction for future work.

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A The BGV scheme

In this section we introduce the BGV scheme [10]. The BGV scheme is comprised of the `SecretKeyGen`, `PublicKeyGen`, `EvaluationKeyGen`, `Encrypt`, `Decrypt`, `Add`, `Multiply`, `Relinearize`, and `ModSwitch` algorithms.

In the `ModSwitch` algorithm, we describe switching from a modulus q to a modulus p where, for correctness, we require that $p = q = 1 \pmod t$ [10, 23]. For the algorithm as described here, we also need $p \mid q$, which will be the case when moving down the chain of moduli.

- `SecretKeyGen`(λ): Sample $s \leftarrow S$ and output $\mathbf{sk} = s$.
- `PublicKeyGen`(\mathbf{sk}): Set $s = \mathbf{sk}$ and sample $a \leftarrow R_q$ uniformly at random and $e \leftarrow \chi$. Output $\mathbf{pk} = ([-(as + te)]_q, a)$.
- `EvaluationKeyGen`(\mathbf{sk}, w): Set $s = \mathbf{sk}$. For $i \in \{0, \dots, \ell\}$, sample $a_i \leftarrow R_q$ uniformly at random and $e_i \leftarrow \chi$. Output $\mathbf{evk} = ([-(a_i s + te_i) + w^i s^2]_q, a_i)$.
- `Encrypt`(\mathbf{pk}, m): For the message $m \in R_t$. Let $\mathbf{pk} = (p_0, p_1)$, sample $u \leftarrow S$ and $e_1, e_2 \leftarrow \chi$. Output $\mathbf{ct} = ([m + p_0 u + te_1]_q, [p_1 u + te_2]_q)$.

- **Decrypt**(\mathbf{sk}, \mathbf{ct}): Let $s = \mathbf{sk}$ and $\mathbf{ct} = (c_0, c_1)$. Output $m' = \llbracket [c_0 + c_1 s]_q \rrbracket_t$.
- **Add**($\mathbf{ct}_0, \mathbf{ct}_1$): Output $\mathbf{ct} = (\llbracket \mathbf{ct}_0[0] + \mathbf{ct}_1[0] \rrbracket_q, \llbracket \mathbf{ct}_0[1] + \mathbf{ct}_1[1] \rrbracket_q)$.
- **Multiply**($\mathbf{ct}_0, \mathbf{ct}_1$): Set $c_0 = \llbracket \mathbf{ct}_0[0] \mathbf{ct}_1[0] \rrbracket_q$, $c_1 = \llbracket \mathbf{ct}_0[0] \mathbf{ct}_1[1] + \mathbf{ct}_0[1] \mathbf{ct}_1[0] \rrbracket_q$, and $c_2 = \llbracket \mathbf{ct}_0[1] \mathbf{ct}_1[1] \rrbracket_q$. Output $\mathbf{ct} = (c_0, c_1, c_2)$.
- **Relinearize**($\mathbf{ct}, \mathbf{evk}$): Let $\mathbf{ct}[0] = c_0$, $\mathbf{ct}[1] = c_1$ and $\mathbf{ct}[2] = c_2$. Let $\mathbf{evk}[i][0] = \llbracket -(a_i s + t e_i) + w^i s^2 \rrbracket_q$ and $\mathbf{evk}[i][1] = a_i$. Express c_2 in base w as $c_2 = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} c_2^{(i)} w^i$. Set $c'_0 = c_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} \mathbf{evk}[i][0] c_2^{(i)}$, and $c'_1 = c_1 + \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} \mathbf{evk}[i][1] c_2^{(i)}$. Output $\mathbf{ct}' = (c'_0, c'_1)$.
- **ModSwitch**(\mathbf{ct}, p): Let $\mathbf{ct} = (c_0, c_1)$. Fix δ_i such that $\delta_i = -c_i \pmod{\frac{q}{p}}$ and $\delta_i = 0 \pmod{t}$. Set $c'_0 = \frac{p}{q}(c_0 + \delta_0)$ and $c'_1 = \frac{p}{q}(c_1 + \delta_1)$. Output $\mathbf{ct} = (c'_0, c'_1)$.

B The FV scheme

In this section we introduce the FV scheme [21], comprised of the algorithms **SecretKeyGen**, **PublicKeyGen**, **EvaluationKeyGen**, **Encrypt**, **Decrypt**, **Add**, **Multiply**, **Relinearize** and **ModSwitch**. Unlike for BGV, the constraint on the chain of moduli that $p_i = 1 \pmod{t}$ is not required, though was enforced for FV in [18]. Imposing this constraint may result in unfairly large parameters for FV, hence our updated comparison can be seen as allowing a more flexible modulus switching.

In order to define **Encrypt**, we must first define $\Delta = \left\lfloor \frac{q}{t} \right\rfloor$, where q is the current ciphertext modulus, and t is the plaintext modulus. We also define $r_t(q)$ as the remainder of q on division by t , so that $q = \Delta t + r_t(q)$.

- **SecretKeyGen**(λ): Sample $s \leftarrow S$ and output $\mathbf{sk} = s$.
- **PublicKeyGen**(\mathbf{sk}): Set $s = \mathbf{sk}$ and sample $a \leftarrow R_q$ uniformly at random and $e \leftarrow \chi$. Output $\mathbf{pk} = (\llbracket -(as + e) \rrbracket_q, a)$.
- **EvaluationKeyGen**(\mathbf{sk}, w): Set $s = \mathbf{sk}$. For $i \in \{0, \dots, \ell\}$, sample $a_i \leftarrow R_q$ uniformly at random and $e_i \leftarrow \chi$. Output $\mathbf{evk} = (\llbracket -(a_i s + e_i) + w^i s^2 \rrbracket_q, a_i)$.
- **Encrypt**(\mathbf{pk}, m): For the message $m \in R_t$. Let $\mathbf{pk} = (p_0, p_1)$, sample $u \leftarrow S$ and $e_1, e_2 \leftarrow \chi$. Output $\mathbf{ct} = (\llbracket \Delta m + p_0 u + e_1 \rrbracket_q, \llbracket p_1 u + e_2 \rrbracket_q)$.
- **Decrypt**(\mathbf{sk}, \mathbf{ct}): Let $s = \mathbf{sk}$ and $\mathbf{ct} = (c_0, c_1)$. Output $m' = \left\lfloor \left\lfloor \frac{t}{q} [c_0 + c_1 s]_q \right\rfloor \right\rfloor_t$.
- **Add**($\mathbf{ct}_0, \mathbf{ct}_1$): Output $\mathbf{ct} = (\llbracket \mathbf{ct}_0[0] + \mathbf{ct}_1[0] \rrbracket_q, \llbracket \mathbf{ct}_0[1] + \mathbf{ct}_1[1] \rrbracket_q)$.
- **Multiply**($\mathbf{ct}_0, \mathbf{ct}_1$): Compute $c_0 = \left\lfloor \left\lfloor \frac{t}{q} \mathbf{ct}_0[0] \mathbf{ct}_1[0] \right\rfloor \right\rfloor_q$,
 $c_1 = \left\lfloor \left\lfloor \frac{t}{q} (\mathbf{ct}_0[0] \mathbf{ct}_1[1] + \mathbf{ct}_0[1] \mathbf{ct}_1[0]) \right\rfloor \right\rfloor_q$, and $c_2 = \left\lfloor \left\lfloor \frac{t}{q} \mathbf{ct}_0[1] \mathbf{ct}_1[1] \right\rfloor \right\rfloor_q$.
Output $\mathbf{ct} = (c_0, c_1, c_2)$.
- **Relinearize**($\mathbf{ct}, \mathbf{evk}$): Let $\mathbf{ct}[0] = c_0$, $\mathbf{ct}[1] = c_1$ and $\mathbf{ct}[2] = c_2$. Let $\mathbf{evk}[i][0] = \llbracket -(a_i s + e_i) + w^i s^2 \rrbracket_q$ and $\mathbf{evk}[i][1] = a_i$. Express c_2 in base w as $c_2 = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} c_2^{(i)} w^i$. Set $c'_0 = \llbracket c_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} \mathbf{evk}[i][0] c_2^{(i)} \rrbracket_q$, and $c'_1 = \llbracket c_1 + \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} \mathbf{evk}[i][1] c_2^{(i)} \rrbracket_q$. Output $\mathbf{ct}' = (c'_0, c'_1)$.
- **ModSwitch**(\mathbf{ct}, p): Let $\mathbf{ct}[0] = c_0$ and $\mathbf{ct}[1] = c_1$. Set $c'_0 = \left\lfloor \left\lfloor \frac{p}{q} c_0 \right\rfloor \right\rfloor_p$ and
 $c'_1 = \left\lfloor \left\lfloor \frac{p}{q} c_1 \right\rfloor \right\rfloor_p$. Output $\mathbf{ct}' = (c'_0, c'_1)$.