Homomorphic string search with constant multiplicative depth

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Abstract. String search finds occurrences of patterns in a larger text. This general problem occurs in various application scenarios, e.g., Internet search, text processing, DNA analysis, etc. Using somewhat homomorphic encryption with SIMD packing, we provide an efficient string search protocol that allows to perform a private search in outsourced data with minimal preprocessing. At the base of the string search protocol lies a randomized homomorphic equality circuit whose depth is independent of the pattern length. This circuit not only improves the performance but also increases the practicality of our protocol as it requires the same set of encryption parameters for a wide range of patterns of different lengths. This constant depth algorithm is about 10 times faster than the prior work. It takes about 5 minutes on an average laptop to find the positions of a string with at most 50 UTF-32 characters in a text with 1000 characters. In addition, we provide a method that compresses the search results, thus reducing the communication cost of the protocol. For example, the communication complexity for searching a string with 50 characters in a text of length 10000 is about 347 KB and 13.9 MB for a text with 1000000 characters.

1 Introduction

The string search problem consists in finding occurrences of a given string (the pattern) in a larger string (the text). This problem arises in various branches of computer science including text processing, programming, DNA analysis, database search, Internet search, network security, data mining, etc.

In real-life scenarios, string-searching algorithms frequently deal with private and sensitive information. For example, the business model of Internet search engines is based on profiling users given their search queries, which is later used for targeted advertising. Another example is the analysis of genomic data. Doctors can outsource the genomic data of their patients to a service provider and query parts of this data remotely. If this information is exposed in the clear to the service provider, it might be exploited in an unauthorized way.

To protect private data, users and service providers can resort to a special type of encryption algorithms, called homomorphic encryption [21]. In addition to data hiding, homomorphic encryption allows to perform computations on encrypted data without decrypting it. Depending on computational capabilities,
homomorphic encryption schemes are divided into several classes. The most powerful class is fully homomorphic encryption (FHE) that allows to compute any function on encrypted values. The first realization of FHE was presented in [13].

In secure string search, FHE has the following advantages over other privacy-preserving cryptographic tools.

- **Low communication complexity.** FHE requires only two communication rounds and its communication overhead is proportional to the plaintext size, whereas Yao’s garbled circuits [25] have communication complexity proportional to the running time of the string-searching algorithm.
- **Non-interactiveness.** FHE does not require users and service providers to be present on-line while computing a string-searching algorithm. In contrast, multi-party computation (MPC) is based on extensive on-line communication between the parties.
- **Universality.** Any string-searching algorithm can be implemented with FHE, while private-information retrieval (PIR) and private-set intersection (PSI) protocols are useful in specific use cases. In particular, PIR assumes that there is at most one occurrence of the pattern in the text, while PSI identifies whether the pattern is present in the text without specifying its positions and the number of its occurrences.
- **No data leakage.** The semantic security of the existing FHE schemes is based on hard lattice problems. Thus, FHE ciphertexts are believed to conceal any information about encrypted data except for the maximal data size. This is not the case for symmetric searchable encryption (SSE) that assumes so-called “minimal leakage” including positions of matched patterns, their number and size.

Nevertheless, the efficiency of FHE schemes in general is far from practical despite numerous optimizations and tricks [4,11,16,10,7]. A more efficient approach is to resort to somewhat homomorphic encryption (SHE) [13] that can compute any function of bounded multiplicative depth. SHE is a better option in practical use cases where a function to be computed is often known in advance.

The most efficient SHE schemes are based on algebraic lattices [5,12]. It was noticed in [22] that the algebraic structure of these lattices yields a way of packing several data values into one homomorphic ciphertext. A homomorphic arithmetic operation applied on such a ciphertext results in an arithmetic operation simultaneously applied on all the packed data values. In other words, a single homomorphic instruction acts on multiple data values. This is why this technique is called SIMD packing. SIMD packing not only reduces ciphertext-plaintext expansion ratio of SHE/FHE schemes but also significantly reduces the computational overhead of homomorphic circuits even when parallelism is not required [14].

The existing homomorphic string-searching and pattern-matching algorithms [8,9,24,19,18,1,2] using SIMD packing have a multiplicative depth dependent on the pattern length, which makes it hard to set optimal encryption parameters.
for patterns of different lengths. In this work, we show how using the SIMD techniques from [14] and equality circuit randomization, we can efficiently address this problem.

1.1 Contribution

We propose a general framework for the design of homomorphic string search protocols using SHE schemes with SIMD packing. We focus on the setting where a client places encrypted data on a server and at a later point in time wants to search for a specific pattern without revealing the text, the pattern or the result of string search to the server.

This framework includes a simple algorithm for converting a large text into a set of ciphertexts with reasonably small encryption parameters such that a homomorphic string search algorithm can efficiently operate on them. Since this preprocessing maintains the natural representation of the text as an array of characters, the server can easily change the text on the client’s request. Another feature of our framework is a compression technique that allows to combine the encrypted results of the string search such that fewer ciphertexts are to be transmitted from the server to the client.

We provide a concrete instantiation of this framework, which is still general enough to be used with any SHE/FHE scheme supporting SIMD packing. The core component of our implementation is a randomized homomorphic circuit that simultaneously checks the equality relation between several pairs of encrypted vectors over a finite field $\mathbb{F}_q$. Using homomorphic SIMD techniques from [22,14] and the randomization method of Razborov-Smolensky [20,23], this circuit achieves constant multiplicative depth. This circuit is false-biased with probability $1/q$. However, it needs fewer homomorphic multiplications, which leads to a significant improvement in computational time over the state-of-the-art [19,18,2].

We first cover the basic string search problem of finding the locations where the pattern occurs in the text and then extend this to a setting that allows wildcards in the pattern.

1.2 Related works

The first work on homomorphic string search and pattern matching was presented in [26,27]. Despite the efficiency of this algorithm, it has several functional drawbacks.

First, it assumes that data values are packed into plaintext polynomial coefficients. This type of encoding does not admit SIMD operations. Therefore, to manipulate individual data values one should resort to the coefficient-extraction procedure, which is expensive in practice [6].

Secondly, given $r$ ciphertexts encrypting the text, this algorithm returns exactly the same number of ciphertexts encrypting string search results. Thus, the communication complexity in this case is exactly the same as in the naive protocol where the server sends all $r$ ciphertexts of the text to the client. If the client
owns the text and uses the server to outsource his data, this problem makes the above algorithm meaningless.

Every string search algorithm uses the equality function as a subroutine. Thus, the optimization of a homomorphic string search often boils down to the optimization of the homomorphic equality function. The first equality circuit for binary data encoded in the SIMD manner was proposed by Cheon et al. [8]. This paper shows how homomorphic permutations of SIMD slots can be exploited to decrease the complexity of the equality circuit as predicted in [14]. Further, Kim et al. [19] designed an efficient equality circuit over arbitrary finite fields by employing the homomorphic Frobenius map. However, the multiplicative depth of the above circuits depends on the input length. In our work, we remove this dependency.

In [2], a homomorphic string search is based on the classic binary equality circuit and a randomized OR circuit. Both circuits depend on the input length, but the multiplicative depth of the OR circuit is decreased by the randomization method of Razborov-Smolensky [20,23]. Since equality testing of binary vectors can be realized via coefficient-wise XOR and multi-fan-in OR, this method yields an equality circuit of reduced multiplicative depth, which, however, still depends on the input length. Another drawback of this work is that it deals only with data encrypted bit-wise and exploits the SIMD packing only for parallel search in several texts, while ignoring the techniques from [14]. This data encoding increases the input length and thus introduces a larger computational overhead in comparison to the circuits in [8,19] as more homomorphic multiplications are required to compute the equality function. Our work combines the method of Razborov-Smolensky and the SIMD techniques from [14] to reduce the number of homomorphic multiplications to a constant independent on the pattern length.

2 Preliminaries

2.1 Notation

Vectors are written in column form and denoted by boldface lower-case letters. The vector containing only 1’s in its coordinates is denoted by 1. We write 0 for the zero vector.

The set of integers \{ℓ, ..., k\} is denoted by [ℓ, k]. For a positive integer t, let wt(t) be the Hamming weight of its binary expansion.

Let t be an integer with |t| > 1. We denote the set of residue classes modulo t by \(\mathbb{Z}_t\). The class representatives of \(\mathbb{Z}_t\) are taken from the half-open interval \([-t/2, t/2)\).

2.2 Cyclotomic fields and Chinese Remainder Theorem

Let m be a positive integer and n = \(\phi(m)\) where \(\phi\) is the Euler totient function. Let \(K\) be a cyclotomic number field constructed by adjoining a primitive complex m-th root of unity to the field of rational numbers. We denote this root of unity
by \( \zeta_m \), so \( K = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_m) \). The ring of integers of \( K \), denoted by \( R \), is isomorphic to \( \mathbb{Z}[X]/(\Phi_m(X)) \) where \( \Phi_m(X) \) is the \( m \)th cyclotomic polynomial.

Let \( R_t \) be the quotient of \( R \) modulo an ideal \( (t) \) generated by some element \( t \in R \). The ring \( R_t \) is isomorphic to the direct product of its factor rings as stated by the Chinese Reminder Theorem (CRT).

**Theorem 1 (The Chinese Remainder Theorem for \( R_t \)).** Let \( t \) be an integer with \( |t| > 1 \) and \( (t) \) be an ideal of \( R \) generated by \( t \). Let \( (t) \) be the product of pairwise co-prime ideals \( \mathcal{I}_0, \ldots, \mathcal{I}_{k-1} \), then the following ring isomorphism holds

\[
R_t \cong R/\mathcal{I}_0 \times \cdots \times R/\mathcal{I}_{k-1}
\]

where the ring operations of the right-side direct product are component-wise addition and multiplication.

We can further characterize this isomorphism by using standard facts from number theory. Let \( t \) be a prime number. The cyclotomic polynomial \( \Phi_m(X) \) splits into \( k \) irreducible degree-\( d \) factors \( f_0(X), \ldots, f_{k-1}(X) \) modulo \( t \) where \( d \) is the order of \( t \) modulo \( m \), i.e. \( t^d \equiv 1 \pmod{m} \). Note that \( d = n/k \). Correspondingly, the ideal \( (t) \) splits into \( k \) prime ideals \( (t, f_0(X)), \ldots, (t, f_{k-1}(X)) \). Hence, for any \( i \in [0, k-1] \) the quotient ring \( R/\mathcal{I}_i = \mathbb{Z}[X]/(t, f_i(X)) \) is isomorphic to the finite field \( \mathbb{F}_{t^d} \). As a result, we can rewrite the isomorphism in (1) as \( R_t \cong \mathbb{F}_{t^d}^k \).

We call each copy of \( \mathbb{F}_{t^d} \) in the above isomorphism a *slot*. Hence, every element of \( R_t \) corresponds to \( k \) slots, which implies that an array of \( k \) elements of \( \mathbb{F}_{t^d} \) can be encoded as a unique element of \( R_t \). We enumerate the slots in the same way as ideals \( \mathcal{I}_i \)’s. Namely, the slot isomorphic to \( R/\mathcal{I}_i \) is referred to as the \( i \)th slot.

Addition (multiplication) of \( R_t \)-elements results in coefficient-wise addition (multiplication) of their respective slots. In other words, a single \( R_t \) operation induces a single operation applied on multiple \( \mathbb{F}_{t^d} \) elements, which resembles the Single-Instruction Multiple-Data (SIMD) instructions used in parallel computing.

Using multiplication, we can easily define a projection map \( \pi_i \) on \( R_t \) that sends \( a \in R_t \) encoding slots \((m_0, \ldots, m_{k-1})\) to \( \pi_i(a) \) encoding \((0, \ldots, m_i, \ldots, 0)\). In particular, \( \pi_i(a) = a g_i \), where \( g_i \in R_t \) encodes \((0, \ldots, 1, \ldots, 0)\). For any \( I \subset \{0, \ldots, k-1\} \), we can easily generalize this projection to \( \pi_I(a) = a g_I \) with \( g_I \in R_t \) encoding 1 in the SIMD slots indexed by \( I \).

The field \( K = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_m) \) is a Galois extension and its Galois group \( \text{Gal}(K/\mathbb{Q}) \) contains automorphisms of the form \( \sigma_i : X \mapsto X^i \) where \( i \in \mathbb{Z}_m^* \). The automorphisms that fix every ideal \( \mathcal{I}_i \) in the above decomposition of \( (t) \) form a subgroup \( G_t \) of \( \text{Gal}(K/\mathbb{Q}) \) generated by the automorphism \( \sigma_t \), named the Frobenius automorphism. Since it holds for every \( a(X) \in \mathbb{F}_{t^d} \) that \( (a(X))^t = a(X^t) \), the elements of \( G_t \) map the values of SIMD slots to their \( (t^i) \)-th powers for \( i \in [0, d-1] \).

The elements of the quotient group \( H = \text{Gal}(K/\mathbb{Q}) / G_t \) act transitively on \( \mathcal{I}_0, \ldots, \mathcal{I}_{k-1} \), thus permuting corresponding SIMD slots. However, the order of \( H \) is \( n/d = k \), which is less than \( k! \), the number of all possible permutations on \( k \)
SIMD slots. It was shown by Gentry et al. [14] that every permutation of SIMD slots can be realized by combination of automorphisms from $H$, projection maps and additions.

One can define the map $\chi_0: a \mapsto a^{t^d-1}$ from $\mathbb{F}_{t^d}$ to the binary set $\{0, 1\}$. According to Euler’s theorem, this map, called the principal character, returns 1 if $a$ is non-zero and 0 otherwise. Since

$$a^{t^d-1} = a^{(t-1)(t^{d-1} + \cdots + 1)} = \prod_{i=0}^{d-1} (a^{t-1})^i,$$

the principal character can be realized by Frobenius maps and multiplications.

### 2.3 String search

The goal of string search is to find occurrences of a given string, called the pattern, in a larger string $T$, called the text. Formally, let $\Sigma$ be a finite alphabet, i.e. a finite set of characters. The pattern and the text are arrays of characters $P[0 \ldots M-1]$ and $T[0 \ldots N-1]$, respectively, where characters are taken from $\Sigma$. Assume that $M \leq N$. The string search problem is to find all $S \in \{0, N-M\}$ such that $P[i] = T[S + i]$ for any $i \in [0, M-1]$. In other words, this problem asks to find the positions of all substrings of $T$ that match $P$.

We assume that there exist an injective map $\phi: \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{t^d}$ that encodes characters of the alphabet $\Sigma$ into the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{t^d}$. Thus, the pattern and the text can be considered as multidimensional vectors over $\mathbb{F}_{t^d}$.

### 3 Homomorphic operations

In this work, we exploit leveled HE schemes that support the SIMD operations on their plaintexts. Such schemes include FV [12] and BGV [5], whose plaintext space is the ring $R_t$ for some $t > 1$. The general framework of these schemes is outlined below.

#### 3.1 Basic setup

Let $\lambda$ be the security level of an HE scheme. Let $L$ be the maximal multiplicative depth of homomorphic circuits we want to evaluate. Let $d$ be the order of the plaintext modulus $t$ modulo the order $m$ of $R$. Assume that the plaintext space $R_t$ has $k$ SIMD slots, i.e. $R_t \cong \mathbb{F}_{t^d}^k$. For a vector $a \in \mathbb{F}_{t^d}^k$, we denote the plaintext encoding of $a$ by $\text{pt}(a)$. The basic algorithms of any HE scheme are key generation, encryption and decryption.

$\text{KeyGen}(1^\lambda, 1^L) \rightarrow (\text{sk}, \text{pk})$. Given $\lambda$ and $L$, this function generates the secret key $\text{sk}$ and the public key $\text{pk}$. Note that the public key contains special key-switching keys that help to transform ciphertexts encrypted under other secret keys back to ciphertexts encrypted under $\text{sk}$. 

6
Encrypt\((pt \in R_t, pk) \rightarrow ct\). The encryption algorithm takes a plaintext \(pt\) and the public key \(pk\) and outputs a ciphertext \(ct\).

Decrypt\((ct, sk) \rightarrow pt\). The decryption algorithm takes a ciphertext \(ct\) and the secret key \(sk\) and returns a plaintext \(pt\). For freshly encrypted ciphertexts, the decryption correctness means that \(\text{Decrypt}(\text{Encrypt}(pt, pk), sk) = pt\).

3.2 Arithmetic operations

Homomorphic arithmetic operations are addition and multiplication.

Add\((ct_1, ct_2) \rightarrow ct\). The addition algorithm takes two input ciphertexts \(ct_1\) and \(ct_2\) encrypting plaintexts \(pt_1\) and \(pt_2\) respectively. It outputs a ciphertext \(ct\) that encrypts the sum of these plaintexts in the ring \(R_t\). It implies that homomorphic addition sums respective SIMD slots of \(pt_1\) and \(pt_2\).

AddPlain\((ct_1, pt_2) \rightarrow ct\). This algorithm takes a ciphertext \(ct_1\) encrypting a plaintext \(pt_1\) and a plaintext \(pt_2\). It outputs a ciphertext \(ct\) that encrypts \(pt_1 + pt_2\). As for the Add algorithm, AddPlain sums respective SIMD slots of \(pt_1\) and \(pt_2\).

Mul\((ct_1, ct_2) \rightarrow ct\). Given two input ciphertext \(ct_1\) and \(ct_2\) encrypting plaintext \(pt_1\) and \(pt_2\) respectively, the multiplication algorithm outputs a ciphertext \(ct\) that encrypts the plaintext product \(pt_1 \cdot pt_2\). As a result, homomorphic multiplication multiplies respective SIMD slots of \(pt_1\) and \(pt_2\).

MulPlain\((ct_1, pt_2) \rightarrow ct\). Given a ciphertext \(ct_1\) encrypting plaintext \(pt_1\) and a plaintext \(pt_2\), this algorithm outputs a ciphertext \(ct\) that encrypts the plaintext product \(pt_1 \cdot pt_2\). As a result, homomorphic multiplication multiplies respective SIMD slots of \(pt_1\) and \(pt_2\).

Using the above operations as building blocks, one can design homomorphic subtraction algorithms.

Sub\((ct_1, ct_2) = \text{Add}(ct_1, \text{MulPlain}(ct_2, pt(-1))) \rightarrow ct\). The subtraction algorithm returns a ciphertext \(ct\) that encrypts the difference of two plaintext messages \(pt_1 - pt_2\) encrypted by \(ct_1\) and \(ct_2\), respectively.

SubPlain\((ct_1, pt_2) = \text{AddPlain}(ct_1, pt_2 \cdot pt(-1)) \rightarrow ct\). This algorithm returns a ciphertext \(ct\) that encrypts \(pt_1 - pt_2\) where \(pt_1\) is encrypted by \(ct_1\). We can also change the order of arguments such that SubPlain\((pt_1, ct_2)\) returns a ciphertext \(ct\) encrypting \(pt_1 - pt_2\).

As shown in Section 2.2, the projection map \(\pi_I\) can select the SIMD slots indexed by a set \(I \subseteq [0, k - 1]\) and set the rest to zero. This operation is homomorphically realized by the Select function.

Select\((ct, I) = \text{MulPlain}(ct, pt(I)) \rightarrow ct'\) where \(I\) is a vector having 1’s in the coordinates indexed by a set \(I\) and zeros everywhere else. Given a ciphertext \(ct\) encrypting SIMD slots \(m = (m_0, m_1, \ldots, m_{k-1})\) and a set \(I\), this function returns a ciphertext \(ct'\) that encrypts \(m' = (m'_0, \ldots, m'_{k-1})\) such that \(m'_i = m_i\) if \(i \in I\) and \(m'_i = 0\) otherwise.
3.3 Special operations

One can also homomorphically permute the SIMD slots of a given ciphertext and act on them with the Frobenius automorphism.

\[ \text{Rot}(ct, i) \rightarrow ct' \] with \( i \in [0, k-1] \). Given a ciphertext \( ct \) encrypting SIMD slots \( m = (m_0, m_1, \ldots, m_{k-1}) \), the rotation algorithm returns a ciphertext \( ct' \) that encrypts the cyclic shift of \( m \) by \( i \) positions, namely \( (m_i, m_{(i+1) \mod k}, \ldots, m_{(i-1) \mod k}) \).

\[ \text{Frob}(ct, i) \rightarrow ct' \] with \( i \in [0, d-1] \). Given a ciphertext \( ct \) encrypting SIMD slots \( m \) as above, the Frobenius algorithm returns a ciphertext \( ct' \) that encrypts a Frobenius map action on \( m \), namely \( (\chi_0(m_0), \chi_0(m_1), \ldots, \chi_0(m_{k-1})) \).

As discussed in Section 2.2, the \( \text{Frob} \) and \( \text{Mul} \) operations can be combined to compute the principal character \( \chi_0(x) \), which turns non-zero values of SIMD slots into 1 and leaves slots with zeros unchanged.

\[ \text{IsNonZero}(ct) \rightarrow ct'. \] Given a ciphertext \( ct \) encrypting SIMD slots \( m = (m_0, m_1, \ldots, m_{k-1}) \), this function returns a ciphertext \( ct' \) that encrypts \( (\chi_0(m_0), \chi_0(m_1), \ldots, \chi_0(m_{k-1})) \). Recall that \( \chi_0(m) = m^{t^d-1} = \prod_{i=0}^{d-1} (m^{-1})^{t^i} \) as shown in (2). The multiplicative depth of \( x^{t^{-1}} \) is equal to \( \lceil \log_2(t-1) \rceil \). The multiplicative depth of \( x^{t^i} \) is zero as it can be done by the \( \text{Frob} \) operation. In total, \( d-1 \) \( \text{Frob} \) operations are needed to compute \( \chi_0(m) \). As a result, the total multiplicative depth of \( \text{IsNonZero} \) is

\[ \lceil \log_2(t-1) \rceil + \lceil \log_2(d) \rceil. \] \hspace{1cm} (3)

Using general exponentiation by squaring, \( x^{t^{-1}} \) requires \( \lceil \log_2(t-1) \rceil + \text{wt}(t-1) \) field multiplications. Since \( d-1 \) field multiplications are needed to compute \( \prod_{i=0}^{d-1} (x^{t^{-1}})^{t^i} \), the total number of multiplications to compute \( \chi_0(m) \) is

\[ \lceil \log_2(t-1) \rceil + \text{wt}(t-1) + d - 2. \] \hspace{1cm} (4)

3.4 Cost of homomorphic operations

Note that every homomorphic ciphertext contains a special component called noise that is removed during decryption. However, the decryption function can deal only with noise of small enough magnitude; otherwise, this function fails. This noise bound is defined by encryption parameters in a way that larger parameters result in a larger bound. The ciphertext noise increases after every homomorphic operation and, therefore, approaches its maximal possible bound. It implies that to reduce encryption parameters one needs to avoid homomorphic operations that significantly increase the noise. Therefore, while designing homomorphic circuits, we need to take into account not only the running time of homomorphic operations but also their effect on the noise.

Table 1 summarizes the running time and the noise cost of the above homomorphic operations. Similar to [15], we divide the operations into expensive, moderate and cheap. The expensive operations dominate the cost of a homomorphic circuit. The moderate operations are less important, but if there are many
Table 1: The cost of homomorphic operations with relation to running time and noise growth.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Noise</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Add</td>
<td>cheap</td>
<td>cheap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AddPlain</td>
<td>cheap</td>
<td>cheap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mul</td>
<td>expensive</td>
<td>expensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MulPlain</td>
<td>cheap</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub</td>
<td>cheap</td>
<td>cheap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SubPlain</td>
<td>cheap</td>
<td>cheap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select</td>
<td>cheap</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rot</td>
<td>expensive</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frob</td>
<td>expensive</td>
<td>cheap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IsNonZero</td>
<td>expensive</td>
<td>expensive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

of them in a circuit, their total cost can dominate the total cost. The cheap operations are the least important and can be omitted in the cost analysis.

It is worth to note that there are two multiplication functions $\text{Mul}$ (ciphertext-ciphertext multiplication) and $\text{MulPlain}$ (ciphertext-plaintext multiplication). Since $\text{Mul}$ is much more expensive than $\text{MulPlain}$, the multiplicative depth of a homomorphic circuit is calculated with relation to the number of $\text{Mul}$’s.

4 Equality circuits

The equality function tests whether two $\ell$-dimensional vectors over some finite field $\mathbb{F}$ are equal. It returns 1 when input strings are equal and 0 otherwise.

4.1 State-of-the-art equality circuits

If input vectors are binary, the equality function can be computed in any ring $\mathbb{Z}_{t>1}$.

**Definition 1 (Binary equality circuit).** Given two $\ell$-dimensional binary vectors $\mathbf{x} = (x_0, \ldots, x_{\ell-1})$ and $\mathbf{y} = (y_0, \ldots, y_{\ell-1})$, the equality function can be computed over any $\mathbb{Z}_{t>1}$ via the following arithmetic circuit

$$\text{EQ}_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \prod_{i=0}^{\ell-1} (1 - (x_i - y_i)).$$

Representing data in the binary form can be far from optimal, especially when the plaintext modulus $t$ is bigger than 2. In this case, $R_t$ is capable to encode $n \log_2 t$ bits of data rather than just $n$.

To narrow this efficiency gap, we can employ finite field arithmetic. Let $t$ be a prime number. Then each SIMD slot is isomorphic to a finite algebraic extension of the finite field $\mathbb{F}_t$ of degree $d$. Hence, it is more natural to encode data into
elements of $\mathbb{F}_{td}$ rather than into elements of $\mathbb{F}_2$. The equality circuit for vectors over $\mathbb{F}_{td}$ is defined as follows.

**Definition 2 (Equality circuit in $\mathbb{F}_{td}$).** Given two vectors $x = (x_0, \ldots, x_{\ell-1})$ and $y = (y_0, \ldots, y_{\ell-1})$ from $\mathbb{F}_{td}$, the equality function can be computed via the following polynomial function

$$\text{EQ}_{td}(x, y) = \prod_{i=0}^{\ell-1} \left( 1 - (x_i - y_i)^{td-1} \right). \quad (5)$$

Using (3), it is easy to see that the total multiplicative depth of (5) is

$$\lceil \log_2 \ell \rceil + \lceil \log_2 (t - 1) \rceil + \lceil \log_2 d \rceil.$$

It follows from (4) that the total number of multiplications in (5) is

$$\lceil \log_2 (t - 1) \rceil + \text{wt}(t - 1) + d + \ell - 3.$$

Note that the polynomial representing $\text{EQ}_{td}$ is unique according to the following standard result from the theory of finite fields.

**Lemma 1.** Every function $f : \mathbb{F}_{td}^\ell \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{td}$ is a polynomial function represented by a unique polynomial $P_f(x_0, \ldots, x_{\ell-1})$ of degree at most $td-1$ in each variable. In particular,

$$P_f(x_0, \ldots, x_{\ell-1}) = \sum_{a\in\mathbb{F}_{td}} f(a) \prod_{i=0}^{\ell-1} \left( 1 - (x_i - a_i)^{td-1} \right). \quad (6)$$

**Proof.** Let $P_a(x_0, \ldots, x_{\ell-1}) = \prod_{i=0}^{\ell-1} (1 - (x_i - a_i)^{td-1})$ for any $a \in \mathbb{F}_{td}$. Thus, for any $b \in \mathbb{F}_{td}$ Euler’s theorem implies that $P_a(b) = 1$ if $a = b$ and 0 otherwise. Since

$$P_f(x_0, \ldots, x_{\ell-1}) = \sum_{a\in\mathbb{F}_{td}} f(a) P_a(x_0, \ldots, x_{\ell-1}),$$

we obtain that $P_f(b) = f(b)$. The degree of $P_f$ is at most $td - 1$ in each variable.

Let us show the uniqueness of $P_f$ by induction on $\ell$.

Let $\ell = 1$. Assume that there is another polynomial $g(x)$ of degree at most $td - 1$ such that $g(a) = f(a)$ for any $a \in \mathbb{F}_{td}$. Hence, the polynomial $P_f - g$ has $td$ roots, which implies that either $P_f - g$ is of degree at least $td$ or $P_f - g$ is the zero polynomial. The former case contradicts our assumption on $g$, so $P_f = g$.

Assume that the lemma holds for $\ell - 1$ variables. Let $f : \mathbb{F}_{td}^\ell \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{td}$. Let $g(x_0, \ldots, x_{\ell-1})$ be a polynomial of degree at most $td - 1$ in each variable such that $g(a) = f(a)$ for any $a \in \mathbb{F}_{td}$. The polynomials $P_f$ and $g$ can be represented as polynomials in the variable $x_{\ell-1}$ as follows

$$P_f(x_0, \ldots, x_{\ell-1}) = \sum_{i=0}^{td-1} h_i(x_0, \ldots, x_{\ell-2}) x_{\ell-1}^i,$$

$$g(x_0, \ldots, x_{\ell-1}) = \sum_{i=0}^{td-1} g_i(x_0, \ldots, x_{\ell-2}) x_{\ell-1}^i.$$
Note that every \( h_i \) and \( g_i \) are of degree \( t^d - 1 \) in each variable. Let us fix \( a_0, \ldots, a_{t-2} \in \mathbb{F}_t \). Since \( (P_f - g)(a_0, \ldots, a_{t-2}, a_{t-1}) = 0 \) for any \( a_{t-1} \), the above argument about univariate polynomials yields that \( (P_f - g)(a_0, \ldots, a_{t-2}, x_{t-1}) \) is identically zero. This means that \( h_i(a_0, \ldots, a_{t-2}) = g_i(a_0, \ldots, a_{t-2}) \) for any \( i \in [0, t^d - 1] \) and any \( a_0, \ldots, a_{t-2} \in \mathbb{F}_t \). By the induction assumption, we have \( h_i = g_i \) and thus \( P_f = g \).

Since the polynomial representation (5) of \( \text{EQ}_{t^d} \) has degree \( t^d - 1 \) in each variable and two \( t^d \)-dimensional input vectors, this polynomial must be equal to \( P_{\text{EQ}_{t^d}} \) over \( \mathbb{F}_{t^d}^1 \times \mathbb{F}_{t^d}^1 \). As a result, the lemma above yields another expression for this polynomial

\[
\text{EQ}_{t^d}(x, y) = \sum_{a \in \mathbb{F}_{t^d}^1} \prod_{i=0}^{t-1} (1 - (x_i - a_i)^{t^d-1})(1 - (y_i - a_i)^{t^d-1}).
\] (7)

This formula implies that both the party possessing a vector \( x \) and the party possessing a vector \( y \) can do exponentiation to the power of \( t^d - 1 \) in the preprocessing phase. However, since the external summation runs over all elements of \( \mathbb{F}_t^{t^d} \), both parties have to precompute \( t^d \) values, which results in a huge memory overhead.

We can derive (5) by interpolating a function in \( t \) variables. Let \( \text{IsZero}(x) \) be a function that outputs 1 when \( x \) is the zero vector and 0 otherwise. Using Lemma 1, we obtain that \( \text{IsZero}(x) = \prod_{i=0}^{t-1} (1 - x_i^{t^d-1}) \). Since \( \text{EQ}_{t^d}(x, y) = \text{IsZero}(x - y) \), we obtain (5).

### 4.2 Our equality circuits

We propose a new randomized equality circuit that makes the multiplicative depth independent on the input length. Our circuit is based on the Razborov-Smolensky method, which helps to represent a high fan-in OR function by a low degree polynomial. In finite fields, the OR function returns 1 if its input has at least one non-zero coordinate and 0 otherwise. Using the primitive character, we can represent OR as the following polynomial of degree \( \ell(t^d - 1) \) over \( \mathbb{F}_{t^d}^1 \)

\[
\text{OR}(x) = 1 - \prod_{i=0}^{t-1} (1 - x_i^{t^d-1}).
\]

To decrease the polynomial degree, we take some positive integer \( D < \ell \) and sample \( D \ell \) uniformly random elements \( r_0, \ldots, r_{D\ell-1} \) and compute

\[
\text{OR}^\ell(x) = 1 - \prod_{i=0}^{D-1} \left( 1 - \left( \sum_{j=0}^{\ell-1} r_{i\ell+j} x_j \right)^{t^d-1} \right).
\]

The degree of this polynomial \( D(t^d - 1) \) is smaller than that of \( \text{OR} \), but its output is randomized and might be wrong. Notice that if \( x = 0 \), this polynomial
correctly returns 0. If $\mathbf{x}$ is a non-zero vector, $\sum_{j=0}^{\ell-1} r_{i\ell+j} x_j = 0$ with probability $t^{-d}$. Thus, OR wrongly returns 0 with probability $t^{-Dd}$. This means that OR$(\mathbf{x}) = \text{OR}(\mathbf{x})$ for $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ with probability $1 - t^{-Dd}$.

Note that the integer $D$ was chosen to decrease the failure probability. We can simply set it to 1 if the field size $t^d$ is sufficiently large. Following this idea, we randomized the equality function over finite fields.

**Definition 3 (Randomized equality circuit over $\mathbb{F}_{t^d}$).** Given two $\ell$-dimensional vectors $\mathbf{x} = (x_0, \ldots, x_{\ell-1})$ and $\mathbf{y} = (y_0, \ldots, y_{\ell-1})$ with $x_i, y_i \in \mathbb{F}_{t^d}$ for any $i$, the randomized equality function can be computed over $\mathbb{F}_{t^d}$ via the following polynomial function

$$
\text{EQ}_{t^d}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = 1 - \left( \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} r_i (x_i - y_i) \right)^{t^d-1}
$$

where $r_i$’s are uniformly random elements of $\mathbb{F}_{t^d}$.

The correctness of $\text{EQ}_{t^d}$ is defined by the following lemma.

**Lemma 2.** Let $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{F}_{t^d}$. If $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$, then $\text{EQ}_{t^d}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = 1$. If $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$, then $\text{EQ}_{t^d}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = 0$ with probability $1 - t^{-d}$.

**Proof.** If $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$, the sum $\sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} r_i (x_i - y_i)$ always vanishes, which results in $\text{EQ}_{t^d}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = 1$.

If $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$, then there exist a non-empty set of indices $I \subseteq [0, \ell - 1]$ such that $x_i - y_i$ is non-zero for any $i \in I$. Then, the product $r_i (x_i - y_i)$ is a uniformly random element of $\mathbb{F}_{t^d}$ if $i \in I$ and 0 otherwise. As a result, $\sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} r_i (x_i - y_i)$ is a uniformly random element of $\mathbb{F}_{t^d}$. The above sum is non-zero with probability $1 - t^{-d}$, which leads to $\left( \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} r_i (x_i - y_i) \right)^{t^d-1} = 1$ by Euler’s theorem. Hence, $\text{EQ}_{t^d}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ outputs 0 when $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$ with probability $1 - t^{-d}$.

**Complexity.** Following the same reasoning as for the deterministic equality circuit, we obtain that the multiplicative depth of (8) is

$$
\lceil \log_2(t - 1) \rceil + \lceil \log_2 d \rceil + 1,
$$

which is independent on the vector length $\ell$. It follows from (4) that the total number of multiplications in (8) is

$$
\lceil \log_2(t - 1) \rceil + \text{wt}(t - 1) + d - 2 + \ell.
$$

In a similar manner, we can define an equality circuit for vectors containing wildcards. Let $\ast$ be a wildcard character meaning that it represents any symbol in the alphabet. Assume that $\ast$ is encoded by an element $\omega \in \mathbb{F}_{t^d}$. Then the randomized equality circuit with wildcards for $\mathbb{F}_{t^d}$-vectors is defined as follows.
Definition 4 (Randomized equality circuit with wildcards over $\mathbb{F}_d$).
Let $x = (x_0, \ldots, x_{\ell-1})$ and $y = (y_0, \ldots, y_{\ell-1})$ be two $\ell$-dimensional vectors such that $x_i \in \mathbb{F}_d$ and $y_i \in \mathbb{F}_d \setminus \{\omega\}$. Then the randomized equality function for such vectors can be computed via the following polynomial function

$$\text{EQ}_r^*(x, y) = 1 - \left( \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} r_i (x_i - \omega)(x_i - y_i) \right)^{t^d-1}$$

where $r_i$’s are uniformly random elements of $\mathbb{F}_d$.

Due to additional multiplication by $x_i - \omega$, this circuit has multiplicative depth

$$\lceil \log_2(t - 1) \rceil + \lceil \log_2 d \rceil + 2,$$

which is one more than that of $\text{EQ}_t^*$. This also introduces $\ell$ additional multiplications, so their total number becomes

$$\lceil \log_2(t - 1) \rceil + \text{wt}(t - 1) + d - 2 + 2\ell.$$

Example 1. The randomized equality testing of two vectors from $\mathbb{F}_8^{316}$ with wildcards needs 32 multiplications. The multiplicative depth of this circuit is 7. The output of this circuit is correct with error probability about $3^{-16} \approx 2^{-25}$.

5 Homomorphic string search protocol

In this section, we describe a protocol for homomorphic string search. This protocol assumes two players, the client and the honest-but-curious server. The client wants to upload a text document to the server and then be able to search over it. In particular, she wants to send a pattern to the server and receive the positions of this pattern in the outsourced text. In addition, the client is interested in hiding the text, the patterns and the query results from the server.

The flow of the protocol is depicted in Figure 1. Before the start of the protocol, the client encrypts and sends her text to the server. The protocol begins when the client encrypts and sends a pattern to the server. Receiving the encrypted pattern, the server performs a homomorphic string search algorithm and then sends the results back to the client. Our threat model assumes that the computationally-bounded server follows the protocol but it tries to extract information from the client’s queries. The server should not be able to distinguish two encrypted patterns of the same length. This security requirement is achieved by the semantic security of an SHE scheme as discussed in Section 3.3 of [2].

The protocol description starts with the preprocessing step where the client encrypts the text. In an alternative scenario, one could assume the server has the text in the clear. Our solution immediately transfers to this scenario by replacing the ciphertexts encrypting the text by plaintexts in the solution below, which would only reduce the complexity of our solution as operations between a plaintext and a ciphertext are less expensive than ciphertext-ciphertext operations. As a solution for the setting where the text is encrypted, immediately yields a solution for the scenario where the server has the text in the clear, we focus on the more general problem where the text is encrypted.
5.1 How to encrypt the text into several ciphertexts

Recall that the text $T$ has length $N$, so it can be represented as an $N$-dimensional vector over $\mathbb{F}_t$. Similarly, the pattern $P$ can be represented as an $\mathbb{F}_t$-vector of length $M < N$. Let $T_M^{(i)}$ be a substring of $T$ of length $M$ starting at the $i$th position of $T$.

In practice, we can assume that $M$ is less than $k$, the number of SIMD slots, which seems plausible as $k$ can be hundreds or thousands. However, it is unlikely that the entire text fits $k$ SIMD slots; thus, we assume $N > k$. In this case, we need to split $T$ and encrypt it into different ciphertexts such that a homomorphic string search algorithm can find all the occurrences of any length-$M$ pattern in $T$.

Let $r = \lceil N/k \rceil$. Let us naively split $T$ into substrings $T_1 \ldots T_r$, where all but the last one are of length $k$ and $|T_r| \leq k$. Notice that the substrings $T_M^{(ik)}$, $T_M^{(i+1)k-M}$ are contained in $T_{i+1}$ for any $i \in [0, r - 1]$. However, substrings $T_M^{(i-k+M+1)}$, $\ldots$, $T_M^{(i-k-1)}$ for $i \in [1, r - 1]$ are missing, which means that this naive approach does not work. Moreover, it implies that we might need to duplicate characters of $T$ to encode all its length-$M$ substrings.

We define an $(M, k)$-cover of $T$ as a set of length-$k$ substrings $\{T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_r\}$ of $T$ such that every length-$M$ substring of $T$ is contained only in one $T_i$. Therefore, all the occurrences of any pattern $P$ of length at most $M$ in $T$ can be found by matching $P$ with $T_i$’s. For example, if $T = "example"$, then $\{"exam", "ampl", "ple"\}$ is a $(3,4)$-cover of $T$. See Figure 2 for an illustration.
We construct an \( (M, k) \)-cover of \( T \) as follows. Let \( T_1 \) be as in the naive approach, i.e. \( T_1 = T[0] \ldots T[k - 1] \). As pointed out above, \( T_1 \) contains all the length-\( M \) substrings up to \( \tilde{T}_M^{(k-\bar{M})} \). Thus, \( T_2 \) should start with \( T[k - M + 1] \), which yields \( T_2 = T[k - M + 1] \ldots T[2k - M] \). Following this procedure, we transform \( T \) into the set of its length-\( k \) substrings \( T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_r \) such that

\[
T_1 = T[0] \ldots T[k - 1],
T_2 = T[k - M + 1] \ldots T[2k - M],
\ldots
T_i = T[(i - 1)(k - M + 1)] \ldots T[(i - 1)(k - M + 1) + k - 1],
\ldots
T_r = T[(r - 1)(k - M + 1)] \ldots T[N - 1].
\]

Thus, \( r \) should satisfy \( N - 1 \leq k - 1 + (r - 1)(k - M + 1) \). It follows that \( r \geq (N - M + 1)/(k - M + 1) \) and then \( r = [(N - M + 1)/(k - M + 1)] \), since \( r \) is an integer.

Note that \( T_i \)'s are chosen to fit into one ciphertext with \( k \) slots. Hence, \( T_1, \ldots, T_r \) can be encoded into SIMD slots such that the \( j \)th character \( T_i[j] \) is mapped to the \( j \)th slot of the \( i \)th ciphertext. Hence, \( r \) ciphertexts are needed to encrypt \( N \) characters of the text \( T \).

**Example 2.** The extreme examples are

- \( M = k \) (the pattern occupies all the SIMD slots of a single ciphertext), then
  \( r = N - k + 1 \);
- \( M = 1 \) (the pattern is just one character, so \( k \) copies of the pattern can be encrypted into one ciphertext), then \( r = [N/k] \), which is optimal.

If \( M = k/2 \), then \( r = [(N - (k/2) + 1)/((k/2) + 1)] \simeq 2N/k \). Thus, about twice more ciphertexts are needed than in the optimal case. If \( M = k/c \) for some \( c \in (1, k] \), then \( r = [(N - (k/c) + 1)/(k - (k/c) + 1)] \simeq \frac{c}{c-1} \cdot \frac{N}{k} \). This means that if one ciphertext can contain at most \( c \) copies of the pattern, then \( c/(c-1) \) times more ciphertexts are needed to encrypt the text than in the optimal case.

Using the procedure above the client produces \( r \) ciphertexts that contain the text. These ciphertexts are then uploaded to the server, which concludes the preprocessing phase.
An \((M,k)\)-cover can also be created at the server side. Let the client naively split \(T\) into substrings \(T_1,\ldots,T_{r'}\) of length at most \(k\). These substrings are then encrypted and sent to the server. As \(r' = \lceil k/M \rceil\), this reduces the communication cost between the client and the server and shifts the workload from the client to the server. Given the substring ciphertexts \(ct_1,\ldots,ct_{r'}\), the server can compute an \((M,k)\)-cover using the following steps. To create an encryption of a string of an \((M,k)\)-cover, the server extracts slots of \(ct_1,\ldots,ct_{r'}\) containing the characters of that string with \texttt{Select} and glues them into one ciphertext using \texttt{Rot} and \texttt{Add} operations.

The above procedure makes the setup of our protocol independent of the maximal pattern length \(M\). The client shares \(M\) with the server who can then create a correct \((M,k)\)-cover either from the naive encryption of the text or from an earlier formed \((M',k)\)-cover. This method requires more homomorphic operations and hence increases the noise in the ciphertexts which might require larger parameters to keep the decryption and computation correctness.

The homomorphic string search protocol starts when the client sends an encrypted pattern to the server. The following section describes how the pattern should be encrypted.

### 5.2 How to encrypt the pattern?

Since the pattern length \(M\) is assumed to be smaller than the number of slots \(k\), one ciphertext is enough to encrypt the pattern \(P\). Note that the characters of \(P\) should be encoded into SIMD slots such that the \(i\)th character of \(P\) is mapped to the \(i\)th SIMD slot. In this way, the order of the pattern characters is aligned with the order of the text characters. Furthermore, the pattern length can be several times smaller than the number of the SIMD slots, i.e. \(\lceil k/M \rceil = C > 1\). In this case, we encrypt \(C\) copies of \(P\) by placing them one by one into the SIMD slots. Namely, the character \(P[j]\) is encoded into the slots enumerated by \(j,j+M,\ldots,j+(C-1)M\). See Figure 3 for an illustration.

![Fig. 3: The top rectangles depict the ciphertexts containing the text while the bottom ciphertext encrypts two copies of the pattern \(P = "ip"\) of length 2. Each ciphertext contains 5 SIMD slots; thus 2 copies of the pattern can be encrypted by one ciphertext.](image-url)
Algorithm 1: Homomorphic string search algorithm.

**Input:** $ct_P$ – a ciphertext encrypting $C$ copies of a length-$M$ pattern $P$,
$ct_1, \ldots, ct_r$ – ciphertexts encrypting the $(M, k)$-cover $T_1, \ldots, T_r$ of a
text $T$.

**Output:** $ct'_1, \ldots, ct'_r$ – ciphertexts such that $ct'_i$ contains 1 in the $j$th SIMD
slot if the occurrence of $P$ starts at the $j$th position of $T_i$ and 0
otherwise.

1. for $i \leftarrow 1$ to $r$
2. \hspace{1em} $ct'_i \leftarrow pt(0)$
3. \hspace{2em} for $j \leftarrow 0$ to $M - 1$ do
4. \hspace{3em} $ct_{P,j} \leftarrow \text{Rot}(ct_P, -j)$
5. \hspace{3em} $C_j \rightarrow \left\lceil \frac{k - j}{M} \right\rceil$
6. \hspace{3em} $I_j \rightarrow \{j, j + M, \ldots, j + (C_j - 1)M\}$
7. \hspace{3em} $ct \leftarrow \text{HomEQ}(M, ct_i, ct_{P,j}, I_j)$
8. \hspace{3em} $ct'_i \leftarrow \text{Add}(ct'_i, ct) / \text{AddPlain}(ct'_i, ct)$ when $j = 0$
9. Return $ct'_1, \ldots, ct'_r$.

5.3 How to compare the text and the pattern?

Given the text encrypted into $r$ ciphertexts $ct_1, \ldots, ct_r$ and a ciphertext $ct_P$
containing $C$ copies of the pattern as above, the homomorphic string search
algorithm follows Algorithm 1. In particular, for every $ct_i$ Algorithm 1
performs a homomorphic equality test between shifted copies of the pattern and
the text (see Figure 4). The homomorphic equality test is done by the HomEQ
function, which homomorphically realizes any equality circuit described in Section
4. Given the pattern shifted by $j$ positions, HomEQ should output a ciphertext $ct$
containing the equality results in the SIMD slots indexed by
$j, j + M, j + 2M, \ldots, j + (C_j - 1)M$ and zeros in other slots (see Figure 5).
In this case, the equality results can be combined into $ct'$ by the homomorphic
addition on line 8 of Algorithm 1.

As shown in Figure 4, Algorithm 1 compares all length-$M$ substrings en-
crypted by ciphertext $ct_1, \ldots, ct_r$ to the pattern. For example, when $i = 2$,
the ciphertext $ct_2$ containing "mips" is compared to the length-2 pattern "ip".
The string "mips" has 4 substrings of length 2, namely \{'m", "i", "ip", "ps"\}. When
$j = 0$, "ip" is compared to "m" and "ip". When $j = 1$, the pattern is
shifted to the right and then compared to substrings "i" and "ps".

A concrete instantiation of HomEQ is provided by Algorithm 2. This algorithm
is a homomorphic implementation of the equality circuit $EQ'_{kt}$ from (8). In fact,
Algorithm 2 homomorphically computes $EQ'_{kt}$ on several vectors simultaneously
in the SIMD manner. Namely, given a set $I \subseteq \{0, \ldots, k - M\}$, it outputs a
ciphertext $ct$ that contains $EQ'_{kt}((x_i, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_{i+M-1}), (y_i, y_{i+1}, \ldots, y_{i+M-1}))$
for any $i \in I$. Let us prove this claim.
Correctness.

Lemma 3. Given an integer $M$, two vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{F}_t^k$ and a set $I \in [0, k - M]$, Algorithm 2 outputs a correct result with probability at least $(1 - \ell^{-d})^{|I|}$.

Proof. It is straightforward that lines 1-3 compute a ciphertext containing $z_i = r_i(x_i - y_i)$ with uniformly random $r_i \in \mathbb{F}_t$ for any $i \in [0, k - 1]$. The next step is to sum all $z_i$'s, which is done by adding the ciphertext containing $z_i$'s with its shifted copies (lines 8-16). Since homomorphic shifts are circular, we assume that indices of $z_i$'s are taken modulo $k$.

Let $M = 2^K + \sum_{i=0}^{K-1} a_i 2^i$, $a_i \in \{0, 1\}$ be the bit-decomposition of $M$. Hence, the while loop in lines 8-16 have $K$ iterations, which we count starting from 1. Let us denote $r^{(i)}_e$ and $r^{(i)}_o$ be $r_e$ and $r_o$ at the end of the $i$th iteration of the while loop. Let us set $r^{(0)}_e = 1$ and $r^{(0)}_o = M$. Since $r_e$ doubles at each iteration, we have $r^{(i)}_e = 2^i$. Since $\ell$ is set to $M$ before the while loop, the least significant bit of $\ell$ is equal to $a_{i-1}$ at the start of the $i$th iteration. Hence, $r^{(i)}_o = r^{(i-1)}_o - a_{i-1}r^{(i-1)}_e = r^{(i-1)}_o - a_{i-1}2^{i-1}$, which by induction leads to $r^{(i)}_o =$
Algorithm 2: The HomEQ algorithm that homomorphically implements the EQ\(_i\) circuit.

**Input:** \( M \in \mathbb{Z} \),
- \( \text{ct}_x \) – a ciphertext encrypting \( x \in \mathbb{F}_k^d \),
- \( \text{ct}_y \) – a ciphertext encrypting \( y \in \mathbb{F}_k^d \),
- \( I \subseteq \{0, \ldots, k-M\} \).

**Output:** \( \text{ct} \) – a ciphertext encrypting 1 in the ith slot if \( i \in I \) and \( x_{i+j} = y_{i+j} \)
for any \( j \in \{0, \ldots, M-1\} \); all other slots contain 0.

1. \( \text{ct}_e \leftarrow \text{Sub}(\text{ct}_x, \text{ct}_y) \)
2. \( \text{pt}_e \leftarrow \) uniformly random plaintext
3. \( \text{ct}_e \leftarrow \text{MulPlain}(\text{ct}, \text{pt}_e) \)
4. \( r_o \leftarrow \text{pt}(0) \)
5. \( r_e \leftarrow 1 \)
6. \( r_o \leftarrow M \)
7. \( \ell \leftarrow M \)
8. while \( \ell > 1 \) do
   9.     if \( \ell \) is even then
     10.       \( \ell \leftarrow \ell/2 \)
   11. else
     12.       \( r_o \leftarrow r_o - r_e \)
     13.       \( \text{ct}_o \leftarrow \text{Add}(\text{ct}_o, \text{Rot(ct}_e, r_o)) \)
     14.       \( \ell \leftarrow (\ell - 1)/2 \)
     15.       \( \text{ct}_e \leftarrow \text{Add}(\text{ct}_e, \text{Rot(ct}_e, r_e)) \)
     16.      \( r_e \leftarrow 2r_e \)
17. \( \text{ct} \leftarrow \text{Add}(\text{ct}_e, \text{ct}_o) \)
18. \( \text{ct} \leftarrow \text{IsNonZero}(\text{ct}) \)
19. \( \text{ct} \leftarrow \text{SubPlain}(\text{pt}(1), \text{ct}) \)
20. \( \text{ct} \leftarrow \text{Select}(\text{ct}, I) \)
21. Return \( \text{ct} \).

\[
M - \sum_{u=0}^{i-1} a_u 2^u = 2^K + \sum_{u=1}^{K-1} a_u 2^u. \quad \text{Note that if } a_{i-1} = 1, \text{ then } r_o^{(i)} + 2^{i-1} = r_o^{(i-1)}. \]

Let \( z_e^{(i)}[j] \) (resp. \( z_o^{(i)}[j] \)) be the \( j \)th slot of \( \text{ct}_e \) (resp. \( \text{ct}_o \)) at the end of the \( i \)th iteration. After the first iteration we have \( z_e^{(1)}[j] = z_j + z_j + r_e^{(0)} = z_j + z_j + 1 \).

By induction, it follows that

\[
z_e^{(i)}[j] = z_e^{(i-1)}[j] + z_e^{(i-1)}[j + r^{(i-1)}] = z_e^{(i-1)}[j] + z_e^{(i-1)}[j + 2^{i-1}]
= \left( \sum_{u=0}^{2^{i-1}-1} z_j + u \right) + \left( \sum_{u=2^{i-1}}^{2^{i-1}-1} z_j + u \right) = \sum_{u=0}^{2^{i-1}-1} z_j + u. \quad (10)
\]

The ciphertext \( \text{ct}_o \) is updated in the \( i \)th iteration of the while loop if \( a_{i-1} = 1 \). In this case, \( z_o^{(i)}[j] = z_o^{(i-1)}[j] + z_e^{(i-1)}[j + r_o^{(i)}] \). Since \( r_o^{(i)} + 2^{i-1} = r_o^{(i-1)} \), it follows from (10) that \( z_e^{(i-1)}[j + r_o^{(i)}] = \sum_{u=r_o^{(i-1)}}^{r_o^{(i-1)-1}} z_j + u \). Hence, \( z_o^{(i)}[j] = z_o^{(i-1)}[j] + \).
\[ \sum_{u=r^{(i-1)}_o}^{r^{(i)}_o-1} z_{j+u}. \] As \( z^{(0)}_o[j] = 0 \) (line 4 of the algorithm), it follows by induction that

\[ z^{(i)}_o[j] = \sum_{v \in [1, i]} \sum_{u=r^{(v)}_o}^{r^{(v-1)}_o-1} z_{j+u}. \]

Notice that if \( a_{i-1} = 0 \), then \( r^{(i)}_o = r^{(i-1)}_o \). Let \( a_{v-1} = a_{v'-1} = 1 \) for some \( v < v' \). Thus, \( a_w = 0 \) for any \( w \in [v, v'-2] \). The previous argument yields \( r^{(v)}_o = r^{(v-1)}_o \). Hence,

\[ [r^{(v')}_o, r^{(v'-1)}_o - 1] \cup [r^{(v)}_o, r^{(v-1)}_o - 1] = [r^{(v')}_o, r^{(v)}_o - 1] \cup [r^{(v)}_o, r^{(v-1)}_o - 1] = [r^{(v')}_o, r^{(v-1)}_o - 1]. \]

Applying this argument for all \( v \) with \( a_{v-1} = 1 \), we obtain

\[ z^{(i)}_o[j] = \sum_{u=r^{(i)}_o}^{r^{(0)}_o-1} z_{j+u} = \sum_{u=r^{(i)}_o}^{M-1} z_{j+u}. \]

Combining (10) and (11), we obtain that after the while loop \( c_{t_x} \) and \( c_{t_o} \) contain the following values in their slots

\[ z[c_{t_x}] = \sum_{u=0}^{2^{K-1} - 1} z_{j+u}, \quad z[c_{t_o}] = \sum_{u=r^{(K)}_o}^{M-1} z_{j+u}. \]

Since \( r^{(K)}_o = M - \sum_{u=0}^{K-1} a_u 2^u = 2^K \), the output of \texttt{Add} on line 17 encrypts the following value in its \( j \)th SIMD slot

\[ z'[j] = \sum_{u=0}^{M-1} z_{j+u} = \sum_{u=0}^{M-1} r_{j+u} (x_{j+u} - y_{j+u}). \]

The SIMD slots are then changed by \texttt{IsNonZero} and \texttt{SubPlain}, which results in the \( j \)th slot containing

\[ 1 - \left( \sum_{u=0}^{M-1} r_{j+u} (x_{j+u} - y_{j+u}) \right)^{t^d-1}. \]

For any \( j \in [0, k-M] \) this is exactly the output of \( \texttt{EQ}_{t_x} \) applied on vectors \( x_j = (x_j, \ldots, x_{j+M-1}) \) and \( y_j = (y_j, \ldots, y_{j+M-1}) \). Applying the \texttt{Select} operation on line 20, we zeroize all the slots, whose indices are not in \( I \). Thus, the \( j \)th SIMD slot of the final output contains 1 only if \( j \in I \) and \( \texttt{EQ}_{t_x}(x_j, y_j) = 1 \). According to Lemma 2, \( \texttt{EQ}_{t_x} \) always outputs 1 if \( x_j = y_j \) and returns 1 when \( x_j \neq y_j \) with probability \( t^{-d} \). Thus, Algorithm 2 is correct with probability at least \( (1 - t^{-d})^{|I|} \).

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Given Lemma 3, we are ready to prove the correctness of Algorithm 1.

**Theorem 2.** Let $ct_P$ be a ciphertext encrypting $C$ copies of a length-$M$ pattern $P$. Let $ct_1, \ldots, ct_r$ be ciphertexts encrypting an $(M, k)$-cover of a text $T$. Given all the aforementioned ciphertexts, Algorithm 1 outputs a correct result with probability at least $(1 - t^{-d})^r(k - M + 1)$.

**Proof.** Let us consider the for loop in lines 3-8 of Algorithm 1. On line 4, the pattern copies are shifted by $j$ positions to the right such that they start at the $j$th slot of the ciphertext $ct_{P,j}$ as in Figure 4. It means that $ct_{P,j}$ contains exactly $C_j$ copies of the pattern unbroken by this cyclic shift. The starting positions of these copies correspond to the elements of the set $I_j$. Next, the $\text{HomEQ}$ function compares these pattern copies to the length-$M$ substrings of the text that starts at the SIMD slots indexed by $I_j$. It returns a ciphertext that contains 1 in its $j$th slot if $P = T_i[j] \ldots T_i[j + M - 1]$.

For any $j \neq j'$ the sets $I_j$ and $I_{j'}$ must be disjoint. Otherwise, there exist integers $u, u'$ such that $j + uM = j' + u'M$, which leads to $j - j' = (u' - u)M$. Since $j, j' \in [0, M - 1]$, it follows that $j - j' < M - 1$ and thus $u = u'$ and $j = j'$. Hence, $I_j \cap I_{j'} = \emptyset$. It means that the homomorphic addition on line 8 puts the results of $\text{HomEQ}$ on line 7 into distinct SIMD slots. Thus, $ct_i'$ contains 1 in its $j$th slot if the pattern $P$ matches $T_i[j] \ldots T_i[j + M - 1]$.

According to Lemma 3, $\text{HomEQ}$ outputs a correct result with probability $(1 - t^{-d})C_j$ in the $j$th iteration of the inner loop. Hence, the probability that $ct_i'$ contains correct results is at least $(1 - t^{-d})\sum_{j=0}^{M-1} C_j$. Note that

$$\sum_{j=0}^{M-1} C_j = \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} \left\lfloor \frac{k - j}{M} \right\rfloor = \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} \frac{k - j - (k - j) \pmod M}{M} \cdot \frac{M}{M} = k + (k - 1) + \cdots + (k - (M - 1)) - 0 + 1 + \cdots + (M - 1)$$

$$= kM - \frac{M(M - 1)}{2} - \frac{M(M - 1)}{2M} = k - M + 1.$$

Thus, $\bigcup_{j=0}^{M-1} I_j = [0, k - M]$. All the length-$M$ substrings are compared to the pattern in the inner loop by computing $\text{EQ}_d$ homomorphically. Hence, $ct_i'$ contains correct results with probability at least $(1 - t^{-d})^{k-M+1}$. Since there are $r$ iterations of the outer loop, the Algorithm 1 returns correct results with probability at least

$$(1 - t^{-d})^r(k - M + 1).$$

**Complexity.**

**Complexity of Algorithm 2.** The multiplicative depth of Algorithm 2 is fixed and equal to the multiplicative depth of $\text{IsNonZero}$, which is $\lceil \log_2(t - 1) \rceil + \lceil \log_2 d \rceil$ according to (3).
Table 2: The number of expensive and moderate homomorphic operations in our paper and in the prior work \cite{19}. Our circuit removes the dependency of the multiplicative depth on the pattern length $M$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Our Paper</th>
<th>Prior Work \cite{19}</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mul</td>
<td>$\lfloor \log_2(t-1) \rfloor + \text{wt}(t-1) + d - 2$</td>
<td>$\lfloor \log_2(t-1) \rfloor + \text{wt}(t-1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rot</td>
<td>$\lfloor \log_2 M \rfloor + \text{wt}(M) - 1$</td>
<td>$\lfloor \log_2 M \rfloor + \text{wt}(M)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frob</td>
<td>$d - 1$</td>
<td>$d - 1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mul. depth</td>
<td>$\lfloor \log_2(t-1) \rfloor + \lfloor \log_2 d \rfloor + \lfloor \log_2 M \rfloor$</td>
<td>$\lfloor \log_2(t-1) \rfloor + \lfloor \log_2 M \rfloor$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As described in Section 3.4, the most expensive homomorphic operations are Mul, MulPlain, Select, Rot, and Frob. Let us count them in Algorithm 2. There is one MulPlain on line 3 and one Select on line 20. All ciphertext-ciphertext multiplications are executed within the IsNonZero function on line 18. According to Section 3.3, IsNonZero performs $\lfloor \log_2(t-1) \rfloor + \text{wt}(t-1) + d - 2$ Mul operations and $d - 1$ Frob operations.

Rot operations are only present in the while loop (lines 8-16). Let $2^K + \sum_{i=0}^{K-1} a_i 2^i$ be a bit decomposition of $M$. Since the while loop has $K$ iterations, there are at least $K$ rotations performed on line 15. The number of rotations performed on line 13 is equal to the number of non-zero $a_i$’s, which is equal to $\text{wt}(M) - 1$. Since $K = \lfloor \log_2 M \rfloor$, the total number of Rot operations is $\lfloor \log_2 M \rfloor + \text{wt}(M) - 1$.

In summary, the following (expensive and moderate) operations are required to compute Algorithm 2:

- Mul: $\lfloor \log_2(t-1) \rfloor + \text{wt}(t-1) + d - 2$,
- Rot: $\lfloor \log_2 M \rfloor + \text{wt}(M) - 1$,
- Frob: $d - 1$,
- MulPlain: 1,
- Select: 1.

Similarly to Algorithm 2, we can implement a homomorphic circuit for $\text{EQ}_{t,d}$, which was used in the prior work \cite{19}. This can be easily done by removing multiplication by a random plaintext (lines 2-3), changing the order of homomorphic operations and replacing homomorphic additions with multiplications in the while loop. As shown in Table 2, our approach is strictly more efficient as it has fewer ciphertext-ciphertext multiplications. Moreover, the multiplicative depth of the prior technique depends on the pattern length $M$, whereas our approach eliminates this dependency.

**Complexity of Algorithm 1**. Algorithm 1 invokes the HomEQ function exactly $rM$ times. In addition, it performs $r(M - 1)$ homomorphic rotations of $\text{ct}_p$ (we can ignore one rotation with $j = 0$ as it does not change the ciphertext). As a result,
Algorithm 1 performs the following (expensive and moderate) homomorphic operations.

- **Mul**: \( rM([\log_2(t-1)] + \text{wt}(t-1) + d - 2), \)
- **Rot**: \( rM([\log_2 M] + \text{wt}(M)) - r, \)
- **Frob**: \( rM(d - 1), \)
- **MulPlain**: \( rM, \)
- **Select**: \( rM. \)

The multiplicative depth of Algorithm 1 is the same as that of Algorithm 2, namely 
\[ [\log_2(t-1)] + [\log_2 d]. \]

**String search with wildcards.** It is easy to modify Algorithm 2 such that it homomorphically realizes the equality circuit with wildcards, \( EQ_{r, *}. \) For simplicity, we assume that \( \omega = 0 \) in (9). After the first line of Algorithm 2, we insert 
\( ct_e \rightarrow \text{Mul}(ct_x, ct_e), \) which outputs \( ct_e \) encrypting \( x_i(x_i - y_i). \) The correctness of this modified algorithm follows by setting \( z_i \) to \( r_i x_i(x_i - y_i) \) in the proof of Lemma 3.

Since only a single homomorphic multiplication is added, the modified version of Algorithm 2 requires \( [\log_2(t-1)] + \text{wt}(t-1) + d - 1 \) ciphertext-ciphertext multiplications. Its multiplicative depth also increases by one to \( [\log_2(t-1)] + [\log_2 d] + 1. \) This implies that Algorithm 1 should perform \( M \) more ciphertext-ciphertext multiplications at the cost of one additional multiplicative level.

### 5.4 Compression of results

The string search algorithm in the previous section outputs \( r \) ciphertexts containing the positions of the pattern occurrences in the text. Sending all these ciphertexts to the client makes the entire protocol meaningless as the server could instead send the \( r \) ciphertexts encrypting the text back to the client. To avoid this problem, the encrypted results should be compressed such that significantly less than \( r \) ciphertexts are to be transmitted to the client.

In the output of Algorithm 1, each ciphertext \( ct'_i \) encrypts SIMD slots containing a single bit. However, every SIMD slot can hold any element of the finite field \( \mathbb{F}_{t_d}. \) In other words, one slot can accommodate \( d \lfloor \log_2 t \rfloor \) bits. Thus, we can split \( ct'_1, \ldots, ct'_r \) into groups of size \( d \lfloor \log_2 t \rfloor \) and then combine ciphertexts within each group as follows

\[
ct = \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor \log_2 t \rfloor - 1} \text{MulPlain} \left( \sum_{j=0}^{d-1} \text{MulPlain}(ct'_{id+j}, X^j) \right), 2^i.
\]

The summation symbol means a homomorphic sum of ciphertexts using \( \text{Add}. \) The \( i \)th slot of \( ct \) contains a polynomial \( \sum_{j=0}^{d-1} a_j X^j \) such that the \( \ell \)th bit of \( a_j \) is the value of the \( i \)th slot of \( ct'_{j+(\ell-1)d}. \)
This compression method reduces the number of ciphertexts containing string search results from \( r \) to \( r / \left( d \left\lfloor \log_2 t \right\rfloor \) \). Even though this method returns \( O(r) \) ciphertexts, it significantly reduces the communication complexity of the string search protocol in practice. For example, if a SIMD slot is isomorphic to \( \mathbb{F}_{17^{16}} \), then \( r/64 \) ciphertexts should be transmitted.

Our compression method is not optimal as it does not exploit the last \( M - 1 \) slots. For \( M \) close to \( k \), this implies a significant part of ciphertext slots is not used.

This problem can be solved by replacing these zero slots with slots extracted from other ciphertexts. Assume that the above compression returns ciphertexts \( \mathbf{ct}_1, \mathbf{ct}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{ct}_{r'} \). Each \( \mathbf{ct}_i \) does not exploit the last \( M - 1 \) slots. To fill all the slots of \( \mathbf{ct}_1 \), we extract the first \( M - 1 \) slots of \( \mathbf{ct}_2 \) and write them into the last \( M - 1 \) slots of \( \mathbf{ct}_1 \) (this is done by \texttt{Select, Rot} and \texttt{Add}). We remove these slots from \( \mathbf{ct}_2 \) by shifting its slots to the left, thus setting the last \( 2(M - 1) \) slots to zero. To fill these zero slots, we move the first \( 2(M - 1) \) slots of \( \mathbf{ct}_3 \) to \( \mathbf{ct}_2 \) as above. We continue this procedure until we end up with ciphertexts whose slots are fully occupied. The number of such ciphertexts is minimal to encrypt all the compressed results.

Since this extra compression introduce extra ciphertext noise, larger encryption parameters might be needed to support decryption correctness. As a result, the increase of the ciphertext size might result in a larger communication overhead that downgrades the gain from the extra compression. Therefore, we recommend to assess advantages of this technique depending on a use case scenario.

6 Implementation results

We tested our homomorphic string search algorithm using the implementation of the BGV scheme \([5]\) in the HElib software library \([17]\). Our experiments were performed on a laptop equipped with an Intel Dual-Core i5-7267U CPU (running at 3.1 GHz) and 8 GB of RAM without multi-threading. The code of our implementation will be publicly available.

In all experiments we have the following setup. Texts and patterns are strings consisting of 32-bit characters (corresponding to the UTF-32 encoding). To imitate real scenarios, patterns are generated uniformly randomly in experiments without wildcard characters. In experiments with wildcard characters, every pattern is random but it has a non-negligible probability of having at least one wildcard. Given a pattern, we sample a random text, which is enforced to have substrings matching the pattern with non-negligible probability.

Texts and patterns are encrypted with encryption parameters present in Table 3. The Hamming weight of secret keys is not bounded.

For each set of parameters in Table 3, we ran Algorithm 1 on one ciphertext with the text and the encrypted pattern of length \( M \) varying over the set \( \{1, 2, \ldots, 9, 10, 20, \ldots, 100\} \). Since the iterations of the outer for loop in Algorithm 1 are independent, they can run simultaneously. Thus, the above setting
with a single ciphertext is a valid benchmark for the parallel implementation of Algorithm 1. In the sequential mode, the timing of this benchmark can be multiplied by the number \( r \) of ciphertexts containing the text.

As shown in Table 3, the size of input ciphertexts varies between 930 KB and 1.7 MB. The amortized memory usage per SIMD slot is 882-1504 bytes. Since an encoded character occupies exactly one SIMD slot, this number can be also considered as the ciphertext expansion per character. Since BGV decreases the size of ciphertexts after every ciphertext-ciphertext multiplication, output ciphertexts are smaller than the input ones. An output ciphertext takes between 340 and 513 KB.

The results of the experiments are present in Table 5. They include the total running time of Algorithm 1 with one input ciphertext and the amortized time per substring of length \( M \). Since the input ciphertext contain \( k - M + 1 \) substrings of length \( M \), the amortized time is equal to the total time divided by \( k - M + 1 \). It takes between 4 seconds and 14.5 minutes to perform string search on one ciphertext depending on the pattern length, failure probability and whether wildcards are used. The amortized time per substring varies between 4 and 800 milliseconds. We did not encounter any false positive results in the experiments.

To give the reader a feeling on how our solution scales up with the text length, we consider the following use case. Assume that the client wants to search for patterns of length at most 50 with wildcards. She chooses the parameters from Set 7.12* and a text of length \( N \). As in Section 5.1, she splits the text into \( r \) substrings, encrypt them and send to the server. We denote the size of these ciphertext by \( TS \). Then, the client queries the server, which performs Algorithm 1. Then, the server compresses the \( r \) outputs using the technique from Section 5.4 and sends them back to the client. The size of the compressed results is denoted by \( OS \). Table 4 illustrates how \( r, TS, OS \) and the running time of Algorithm 1 depend on \( N \). All these values grow linearly, but the communication
Table 4: The dependency of the communication cost and the running time (in the sequential mode) of our homomorphic string search protocol on the text of length \(N\). The encryption parameters are taken from Set 7.12* and the pattern length is fixed to 50. The rightmost column contains the maximal probability that Algorithm 1 returns at least one wrong position of the pattern \((1 - (1 - t - d)r(k - M + 1))\).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(N)</th>
<th>(r)</th>
<th>TS, MB</th>
<th>OS, MB</th>
<th>Time, min</th>
<th>Max. failure probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.35</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>(\simeq 2^{-20})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100000</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>99.169</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>506</td>
<td>(\simeq 2^{-17})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000000</td>
<td>970</td>
<td>986.313</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>5060</td>
<td>(\simeq 2^{-14})</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In comparison to the prior works, our algorithm has a faster running time and a more efficient memory usage. In [18], the amortized time of the string-searching algorithm with wildcards is between 1.98 and 4.78 seconds for patterns of length 35, 45 and 55. Our algorithm takes 0.46 seconds for patterns of length 60. In [2], it takes 3 minutes to find the first occurrence of a binary substring of length 64 in an array of 44000 bits with failure probability \(2^{-40}\). Moreover, wildcard positions are publicly known to the server. Our algorithm hides wildcard positions. For Set 7.12, it takes 3 minutes and 16 seconds to find all the positions of a UTF-32 substring of length 10 (320 bits) in a text of 4000 UTF-32 characters (128000 bits). The failure probability per each occurrence is \(\simeq 2^{-34}\). A text of 4000 UTF-32 characters can be encrypted by 4 ciphertexts, see Section 5.1. Thus, the communication complexity is 1041 KB (client’s encrypted query) plus 347 KB (server’s response; 4 output ciphertexts are compressed into one). Unfortunately, a concrete communication cost is not indicated in [2].

7 Conclusion

In this work, we designed a general framework for a homomorphic string search protocol based on SHE schemes with SIMD packing. We provided a concrete efficient instantiation of this framework including the preprocessing step where the client splits the text into several components, which can be separately encrypted and processed.

We also showed a randomized homomorphic string search algorithm whose multiplicative depth is independent of the pattern length. This allows us to use a single set of encryption parameters for a wide range of patterns with different lengths.

The implementation of our string search algorithm in the HElib library demonstrates that an average laptop can efficiently execute our homomorphic
<table>
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<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Time, sec</th>
<th>Amortized time, sec per substring</th>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Time, sec</th>
<th>Amortized time, sec per substring</th>
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<td>0.391</td>
<td></td>
<td>511</td>
<td>0.455</td>
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<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>513</td>
<td>0.461</td>
<td></td>
<td>585</td>
<td>0.526</td>
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<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>571</td>
<td>0.518</td>
<td></td>
<td>663</td>
<td>0.601</td>
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<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>685</td>
<td>0.627</td>
<td></td>
<td>793</td>
<td>0.726</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>0.682</td>
<td></td>
<td>850</td>
<td>0.785</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: The running time of Algorithm 1 (with and without wildcards) with one ciphertext encrypting the text and the encryption parameters present in Table 3. One ciphertext contain 1080 characters for Set 7.12 (Set 7.12*) and 1182 characters for Set 17.16 (Set 17.16*).
string search algorithm in practice. The running time of our algorithm is about 10 times faster than the prior work based on the SIMD techniques. Another advantage of our work is the communication cost that is significantly reduced by our compression technique. To transmit all the positions of a given substring in a text with million UTF-32 characters, our protocol requires about 13.9 MB.

This work presents a homomorphic realization of the naive string search algorithm with computation complexity $\Omega(NM)$ where $N$ is the text length and $M$ is the length of the pattern. There are asymptotically faster string-searching algorithms that exploit special data structures, e.g. suffix trees, tries or finite automata. Given the computational constraints of homomorphic encryption, it is an open question whether it is possible to implement efficient homomorphic counterparts of these algorithms.

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