

# Practical FHE parameters against lattice attacks

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## Abstract

We give secure parameter suggestions to use sparse secret vectors in LWE based encryption schemes. This should replace existing security parameters, because homomorphic encryption(HE) schemes use quite different variables from the existing parameters. In particular HE schemes using sparse secrets should be supported by experimental analysis, here we summarize existing attacks to be considered and security levels for each attacks. Based on the analysis and experiments, we compute optimal scaling factors for CKKS.

## 1 Introduction

Homomorphic encryption(HE) is a cryptosystem that allows computations on encrypted data without decryptions. HE has advantage in data science with privacy preserving. For example, data outsourcing services often handle confidential data so that they need a data securing scheme which enables operations in secure states [IH<sup>+</sup>20, LLH<sup>+</sup>18, ZDJ<sup>+</sup>15]. Since the use cases are public services, a standardization for HE is required. HomomorphicEncryption.org is a consortium motivated by the needs, they summarize the reason for HE requirements [ACC<sup>+</sup>17] and make efforts for standard suggestions for API, secure parameters, etc [BDH<sup>+</sup>17, CCD<sup>+</sup>17].

To ensure the security, HE uses computationally hard math problems. One of such problems is LWE, which is roughly a distinguishing problem asking whether a pair of a matrix and a vector is randomly given or is given by an approximately linear relation. An important assumption for LWE is that the distinguishing

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problem is computationally hard to solve [Reg09]. RLWE, a special version of LWE using algebraic integers instead of a matrix and a vector, is also used but has not been proved yet as a hard problem.

As far as the authors know, currently major HE libraries are constructed based on LWE and RLWE, for example, HEaaN, HELib, SEAL, Paradise, and so on. Thus the security analysis are also based on the analysis for LWE and RLWE. LWE-estimator<sup>1</sup> is used for experiments on parameters, and the above white papers [ACC<sup>+</sup>17, BDH<sup>+</sup>17, CCD<sup>+</sup>17] issued by HomomorphicEncryption.org are written based on the experiments. Unfortunately, the analysis is not enough because real schemes use different distributions for secret vectors.

**Small secrets and bootstrappings** In original LWE and above standard suggestions, secret vectors are chosen by the uniform random distribution on a modulus vector space. On the other hands, the mentioned HE schemes often choose secret vectors in sparse distribution. It is naturally expected that the security will be harmed due to the reduction of possible choice of secret vectors. There are two reasons why FHE choose sparse secrets despite being possibly threatened. The first reason is to enable encrypted multiplications. If secret polynomial is large with respect to  $L^2$ -norm of its coefficient vector, then multiplication errors in a cipher-text derived from encrypted multiplications is too large to preserve its plain-text. The second reason is bootstrapping procedure. In asymptotic analysis of bootstrapping costs for each schemes, bootstrapping cost functions are given in increasing functions. The expected costs are given according to the degree of the polynomials for uniform ternary secret distribution and according to the hamming weight of the coefficients vectors for sparse secret distribution [CHK<sup>+</sup>18, CCS19, CH18].

## 1.1 Our Contributions

We aim to suggest secure parameter choices for lattice based FHE against known attacks. For each attacks, their complexities are analyzed by reductions to SIS(shortest integer solution) problem and we estimate them by experiments using BKZ algorithm. These new suggestions has to replace existing suggestions [ACC<sup>+</sup>18] which are vulnerable to new attacks.<sup>2</sup> In particular, *sparsity* of secret keys causes new kinds of attacks so that existing parameters are not secure any more. Based on the our experiments, we suggest secure parameters for RLWE against all known attacks.

In addition to the suggestions, we analyze how sparsity affects a maximal depth of circuits for CKKS scheme before bootstrapping. And then we compute available depth for given parameters. The computations consider 2 cases for reasonable error increase at each homomorphic operations.

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<sup>1</sup><https://bitbucket.org/malb/lwe-estimator/src/master/>

<sup>2</sup>The existing parameters do not reflect usual distribution for secret keys, called *sparse distribution*.

**Methodology.** To measure attack complexity, it is not effective to run the attack algorithms directly for huge parameters. For example, if one try in brute force to check a parameter satisfying 128-bit security against an attack algorithm, it needs  $2^{128}$  trials in average. This is not realistic. Instead, we combine two method - brute checks for small parameters and asymptotic estimation for large parameters. Each attack is already given with its asymptotic complexity, so we take experiments for small parameters and compute real complexity for huge parameters according to the asymptotic complexity analysis.

In this paper, we mainly use BKZ algorithm as the method. The major factor determining complexity is the dimension of given vector spaces (or the rank of given rings of integers). BKZ algorithm is a strategy that separates spaces into small dimensional subspaces (called blocks) and search certain kind of vectors<sup>3</sup> in each blocks. Then using the vectors, it runs LLL algorithm more effectively. There are various application of BKZ algorithm, we mainly refer [CN11] for using BKZ.

## 1.2 Related works

We mainly refer [LP11, Alb17, AGVW17] for analysis of hard lattice problems and [CHHS19, CS19] for most recent attacks on LWE samples. The works are purposed to analyze attack algorithms against given LWE samples those becomes basis for secure parameter selections.

In addition to the references, we know two papers in similar purpose of ours. Curtis and Player have reported security analysis on sparse secret distribution with maximum lattice dimension  $2^{17}$  [CP19]. Recently an analysis on binary LWE is uploaded on e-print [EJK20], which is effective for non-sparse secret distribution case.

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## 2 Background

At first, notions should be set-up. A bold lower case letter will denote a column vector and a bold upper case letter will be a matrix.

**Definition 1** (Sparse Secret Distributions) *Let  $h$  be a positive integer.*

*An  $n$ -dimensional vector is said to follow a sparse secret distribution of hamming weight  $h$  if exactly  $h$  components are nonzero. If the nonzero components are chosen in  $\{-1, 1\}$  and  $-1$  and  $1$  are equally chosen, it is said to follow a ternary sparse secret distribution.*

<sup>3</sup>In our cases, the algorithm seeks after short vectors.

**Definition 2** (Distinguishing LWE problem) *Let  $\phi$  be a non-uniform distribution on  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ . Let  $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\ell \times n} \times \mathbb{Z}_q^\ell$  be given with  $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{e}$  for some  $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$  and  $\mathbf{e} \xleftarrow{\phi} \mathbb{Z}_q^\ell$  or  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^\ell$  uniformly random. A distinguishing LWE problem is a question whether  $\mathbf{b}$  is. A search LWE problem is to find  $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ .*

In Regev's paper, Distinguishing LWE problem is given with uniform randomly chosen  $\mathbf{s}$ , while we consider sparse  $\mathbf{s}$  in this paper.

**Definition 3** (RLWE) *Let  $R_q := \mathbb{Z}_q[x]/\langle \Phi(x) \rangle$  be a polynomial ring with a modulus  $q$  and an irreducible polynomial  $\Phi(x)$  of degree  $n$ . Let  $\phi$  be a non-uniform distribution on  $R_q$ . Let  $(a(x), b(x)) \in R_q \times R_q$  be given with  $b(x) = a(x)s(x) + e(x)$  for some  $s(x) \in R_q$  and  $e(x) \xleftarrow{\phi} R_q$  or  $b(x) \in R_q$  uniformly random. A distinguishing RLWE problem is a question whether  $b(x)$  is. A search LWE problem is to find  $s(x) \in R_q$ .*

## 2.1 Homomorphic Encryption

Homomorphic encryption is a form of an encryption system which enables computations on encrypted data without decrypting them. We briefly review notions for homomorphic encryption to be used in this paper.

**Definition 4** (Leveled homomorphic encryption) *For given parameters, a leveled homomorphic encryption scheme consists of 4 algorithms ;*

- Enc, which turns a plaintext into a ciphertext of a given level  $L$
- Dec, which turns a ciphertext of any level into a plaintext so that

$$\text{Dec}(\text{Enc}(m)) = m$$

for any plaintext  $m$ .

- Add, which turns two ciphertexts of same level into a ciphertext of the level so that

$$\text{Dec}(\text{Add}(\text{Enc}(m_1), \text{Enc}(m_2))) = m_1 + m_2$$

- Mult, which turns two ciphertexts of same level  $L'$  into a ciphertext of level  $L' - 1$  so that

$$\text{Dec}(\text{Mult}(\text{Enc}(m_1), \text{Enc}(m_2))) = m_1 m_2$$

where  $0 < L' \leq L$

**Definition 5** (Bootstrapping) *Bootstrapping is an algorithm that refreshes the level of given ciphertext.*

## 2.2 Dual lattice attack

This attack strategy solves LWE by converting it to a short integer solution (SIS) problem [Ajt96, Gen09]. Our purpose is, given  $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{m \times n} \times \mathbb{Z}_q^m$ , distinguish whether  $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b})$  follows an LWE distribution or uniformly random distribution [Alb17, MR09].

For the attack, one finds a short vector  $\vec{y}$  in a *dual lattice* defined by

$$L_q^\perp := \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^m : \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \equiv 0 \pmod{q}\}.$$

If  $(\mathbf{A}, \vec{b})$  is sampled from LWE distribution, it holds that  $\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{b} \rangle \equiv_q \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{e} \rangle$  and hence is likely to be small. Otherwise,  $\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{b} \rangle$  is uniformly distributed over  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ , so the value of the pairing reflects in high probability whether  $\mathbf{b}$  follows LWE or not.

## 2.3 Primal uSVP attack

This attack strategy aims to directly find the secret vector  $\vec{s}$  from given sample  $(\mathbf{A}, \vec{b})$ . For that, search version of LWE can be solved by finding a unique shortest vector in a lattice generated by column vectors of

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} q\mathbf{I}_m & \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{b} \\ 0 & q\mathbf{I}_n & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

If the samples are given by an LWE distribution, then the lattice contains a vector  $\mathbf{v}$ ;  $\mathbf{v}^T = (\mathbf{e}^T, \mathbf{s}^T, -1) \in \mathbb{Z}^m \times \mathbb{Z}^n \times \mathbb{Z}$ . BKZ algorithm with some blocksize  $\beta$  experimentally succeed to find such  $\mathbf{v}$  [AGVW17], though it is not guaranteed in general.

## 3 Security level according to hamming weights

In this section, we suggest new parameters for the rank  $N$  of base ring and ciphertext modulus  $q$ . The parameters are chosen against new attacks that use the sparsity of secret keys.

During a multiplication using RLWE-based HE schemes, noises in ciphertexts are amplified by the secret polynomial. As the secret polynomial has larger coefficients, after fewer multiplication the noise overflows the ciphertext modulus [BGV14, CKKS17] or spoil messages [CKKS17, FV12]. The increase of noises give a reason to use only small coefficients for a secret polynomial.

All known FHE schemes are realized with bootstrapping technique. In general, bootstrapping is the most time-consuming part in FHE. Since the running time of bootstrapping is highly sensitive to the size of the secret polynomial [CCS19, CHK<sup>+</sup>18], in addition to a bound of coefficients, almost all coefficients of a secret polynomial are chosen to be 0.

These two reasons - multiplication in encrypted state and bootstrapping - justify the use of a small and sparse distribution on coefficients of a secret

polynomial. However, the narrow distribution on secret polynomials may give an advantage to adversarial attackers because the secret polynomial is easier to be found than a uniformly chosen polynomial.

### 3.1 An attack against sparsity : Hybrid method

Hybrid method is a combination of a deterministic attack and meet-in-the-middle attack(MITM) to LWE samples. MITM is a guessing strategy that separates a secret  $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$  into two part  $(\mathbf{s}_g, \mathbf{s}') \in \mathbb{Z}_q^g \times \mathbb{Z}_q^{n-g}$ . The cost of this attack is proportional to the square root of the number of candidate secret vector. The method it is less sensitive to the absolute size of error when the ratio of error and modulus is sufficiently small. The strategy is a reduction not of lattices but of dimension, so primal attack and dual attack can be combined with.

We briefly describe hybrid algorithm of MITM and primal attack [BGPW16, Wun16, CS19] and of MITM and dual attack [CHHS19].

**Hybrid Primal Attack** The strategy is finding a short vector

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}' \\ \mathbf{v}_g \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{B} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{v}_g \end{pmatrix}$$

for some  $g$  and  $\mathbf{v}_g \in \mathbb{Z}_q^g$ .  $\mathbf{B}$  is written in a form  $\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{T} & \mathbf{C} \\ 0 & \mathbf{I}_g \end{pmatrix}$  and  $\mathbf{v}' = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_g$ .

Then finding short  $\mathbf{v}_g$  is as same as finding near point in the space generated by  $\mathbf{T}$  to a point  $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_g$ . A lower dimensional vector  $\mathbf{v}_g$  is now in guessing, say  $\mathbf{v}_g = \mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2$ . Since  $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_g - \mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{v}' - \mathbf{T}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_2$  so that finding a nearest point in  $\mathbf{T}$  to  $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_1$  is as hard as that finding one to  $\mathbf{v}' - \mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_2$ .

Assuming that  $\mathbf{T}$  is well-reduced so that  $v'$  is turned out to be the closest point to 0 in  $v' + T$  by the Babai's nearest plane algorithms , it is expected

$$\mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_1 - [\mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_1]_{\mathbf{T}} = -\mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_2 - [-\mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_2]_{\mathbf{T}} + \mathbf{v}' \approx -\mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_2 + [\mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_2]_{\mathbf{T}}$$

where  $[\cdot]_{\mathbf{T}}$  denotes the closest point in  $T$  to the given point. The hybrid strategy is trying to detect a collision between  $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_1$  and  $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_2$ .

**Hybrid Dual Attack** This strategy begins with parsing  $\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{A}_1 | \mathbf{A}_2)$  into two matrices with  $\mathbf{A}_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{m \times k}$ , where  $k$  is a choice for MITM.  $\mathbf{s}$  is also considered as a joint of two vectors  $(\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n-k} \times \mathbb{Z}_q^k$ . And then for a short

$$\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2) \in \{(\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m \times c^{-1}\mathbb{Z}_q^{n-k} \mid \mathbf{v}_1^T \mathbf{A}_1 \equiv c\mathbf{v}_2 \pmod{\mathbf{q}}\},$$

$(\mathbf{y}_1^T \mathbf{A}_2, \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{b} \rangle)$  is a kind of LWE sample with a new secret vector  $\mathbf{s}_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k$ . In other words, given samples are reduced into LWE samples of lower dimension with secret  $\mathbf{s}_2$ .

### 3.2 Attack complexity estimations

Our estimator<sup>4</sup> uses BKZ.sieve [BDGL16] in Sage for lattice reductions. The estimator returns feasible  $\log Q$  value which is chosen to achieve security  $\lambda$  against attacks above. In our experiments,  $\log Q$  is almost determined by the attack complexity of Hybrid-Primal attack which is written in **bold** style. There is one exception at  $h = 64, \lambda = 256, \log N = 14$  which  $\log Q$  is chosen against hybrid-dual attack.

Given two inputs  $\log N, \lambda$ , our experiment code searches the maximal  $\log Q$  that yields attack complexities less than  $2^\lambda$ . It starts from a proper initial value of  $\log Q$  (e.g. the twice of  $\log Q$  for  $\log N - 1$ ), and perform a sort of binary search. The beginning  $\log Q$  can be chosen before running the estimator. In particular, we set an initial step value (e.g. quarter of the initial value), and if the initial  $\log Q$  gives the minimal attack complexity larger (smaller, resp) than  $2^\lambda$ , then we add (subtract, resp) the step value to  $\log Q$  until the minimal attack complexity becomes smaller (larger, resp) than  $2^\lambda$ , and we continue this while halving the step value until the step value becomes 1.

Following tables are upper bounds for  $\log Q$  and attack complexity of 4 algorithms. The experiments are established by algorithms given in a previous paper [CHHS19]. The columns of tables are given  $\log N$ , recommending  $\log Q$  according to  $\{\lambda, \log N, h\}$ , and attack complexities.

**Example.** Security level  $\lambda$  means that attack complexity of all (known) attack must be at least  $2^\lambda$ . This is often said  $\lambda$  bit complexity. If we choose  $\log N = 17$  and  $\log Q = 2022$ , then the attack complexity of primal attack, dual lattice attack, hybrid-primal attack, and hybrid-dual attack are 173.0 bit, 147.6 bit, 128.9 bit, and 129.6 bit, respectively. In other words,  $\log Q$  below 2022 is a secure parameter against the hybrid attacks for  $\log N = 17$  and  $\lambda = 128$ .

### 3.3 Comparison to existing parameters

Only non-hybrid attacks are considered in the white paper of homomorphic encryption standardization consortium [ACC<sup>+</sup>18]. For small hamming weight, the modulus  $Q$  should be chosen smaller than that of in the white paper.

As table 1 and 2 shows, hybrid method give an advantage to find a useful short vector in previous attacks. The advantage grows as smaller hamming weight is applied to the secret distribution.

In the other hands, for non-sparse distribution cases, the new attack doesn't work in fact. Since the new attack is initiated by sparsity of secrets, they have no advantage to uniformly chosen secrets. If one use small uniform distribution, for example a binary uniform distribution as TFHE [CGGI] or a ternary

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<sup>4</sup>It can be accessed at <https://github.com/Yongyongha/SparseLWE-estimator>

Table 1: An upper bound of  $\log Q$  and attack complexity for  $h = 64$

$\lambda$	$\log N$	$\log Q$	Primal	Dual	Hybrid-Primal	Hybrid-dual
128	11	25	192.0	201.3	<b>132.1</b>	169.6
	12	52	186.8	199.6	<b>128.7</b>	147.6
	13	99	191.5	208.4	<b>132.5</b>	144.0
	14	219	183.0	180.6	<b>128.5</b>	133.7
	15	431	185.6	163.8	<b>132.8</b>	136.7
	16	930	179.6	152.8	<b>131.5</b>	133.4
	17	2022	173.0	147.6	<b>128.9</b>	129.6
192	12	20	278.5	395.8	<b>192.4</b>	259.7
	13	38	280.8	354.4	<b>192.8</b>	220.2
	14	79	276.5	384.9	<b>197.8</b>	209.9
	15	166	272.4	302.8	<b>192.0</b>	209.3
	16	352	268.2	247.5	<b>192.2</b>	207.6
	17	721	266.9	368.2	<b>201.7</b>	205.6
256	13	14	379.5	371.0	<b>256.9</b>	-
	14	47	325.9	623.7	284.3	<b>278.5</b>
	15	64	361.0	333.3	<b>258.8</b>	328.4
	16	122	366.9	338.7	<b>260.4</b>	314.5
	17	296	347.7	346.1	<b>256.7</b>	271.8

Table 2: An upper bound of  $\log Q$  and attack complexity for  $h = 128$

$\lambda$	$\log N$	$\log Q$	Primal	Dual	Hybrid-Primal	Hybrid-dual
128	11	42	163.3	153.8	<b>129.1</b>	160.8
	12	82	170.2	154.2	<b>129.2</b>	149.6
	13	165	171.4	150.7	<b>129.6</b>	139.3
	14	337	169.3	146.5	<b>129.0</b>	134.5
	15	700	164.0	142.9	<b>128.1</b>	131.8
	16	1450	159.0	140.9	<b>128.0</b>	128.5
	17	2900	160.2	141.8	<b>129.9</b>	130.4
192	12	44	285.1	259.0	<b>195.7</b>	242.7
	13	89	284.6	293.5	<b>195.0</b>	215.2
	14	178	286.3	245.3	<b>198.7</b>	209.8
	15	387	272.4	225.1	<b>194.6</b>	197.4
	16	804	266.8	222.1	<b>192.5</b>	196.1
	17	1650	263.4	220.2	<b>192.4</b>	194.0
256	13	43	419.1	464.9	<b>281.3</b>	347.3
	14	106	381.2	376.8	<b>258.2</b>	277.7
	15	209	385.2	369.4	<b>265.3</b>	282.8
	16	418	386.6	390.2	<b>271.1</b>	280.0
	17	942	366.0	311.2	<b>261.5</b>	265.9

$\log N$	$\lambda$	white paper	ours( $h = 128$ )	ours( $h = 64$ )
13	128	218	165	99
	192	152	89	38
	256	118	43	14
14	128	438	337	219
	192	305	178	80
	256	237	106	47
15	128	881	700	431
	192	611	387	166
	256	476	209	64

Table 3: This table lists comparisons of  $\log Q$  suggested by the white paper [ACC<sup>+</sup>18] and ours along overlapped  $\log N$  and  $\lambda$ .

uniform distribution as SEAL [LP16], it is enough to follow existing parameters [ACC<sup>+</sup>18]. For example, our estimator with  $h = \frac{N}{2}$  and  $\frac{2N}{3}$ , respectively, returns same parameter suggestion to binary uniform distribution case and ternary uniform distribution case, respectively.

## 4 Available depth for CKKS

Based on experimental observations and theoretical estimations, we will consider a more efficient set of parameters for CKKS scheme.

We give three tables according to certain assumptions on accumulation of errors. First assumption is assuming that errors are accumulated as large as possible, which may occur in squaring, i.e. a multiplication of same ciphertext. This can be applied to any circuit. Second assumption is an expectation that errors grow in average, i.e. each HE operations take different input ciphertexts so that errors are not amplified so much. This is in fact an assumption on circuits using HE. Third assumption is considered in a special case that errors cancel each others in HE operations. In other words, error growth is bounded by a constant so that the number of operations is completely propotional to the modulus of ciphertexts.

**Remark 1** The third assumption is an extreme one and it could be an unsubstantial assumption for CKKS. In other hands, however, if the errors are seperated from plaintexts, then the assumption is realistic. In HELib a library using sparse secret distributions, the third assumption admits and the parameter choice can be applied to HELib.

## 4.1 CKKS Overview

In CKKS scheme, a fresh ciphertext is given in modulus  $q$  which is said to be *top level*. To multiply ciphertexts, CKKS scheme publishes *evaluation key* in modulus  $Pq$ . The total security depends on  $Pq$  so that  $Pq$  is chosen as  $Q$  in previous section.

**Scaling factor** Since a ciphertext space is discrete, a real valued data should be quantized before being encrypted. The unit of quantization is called scaling factor  $\Delta$ . In a plaintext, a numerical data  $r$  is converted into a form  $\lceil r \times \Delta \rceil$  where rounding denotes the nearest integer. In other words, plaintexts or ciphertexts remember a scaled data  $r \times \Delta$ , not the plain data  $r$ .

**Hamming weight and bootstrapping** We review why sparse secrets enables bootstrapping of CKKS scheme and an implement HEaaN.

Instead of uniform choice of a secret polynomial, sparse secret has an advantage to enable bootstrapping process. The sparsity is given with ternary coefficients and is measured as hamming weight. Under the condition that security level is satisfied, larger hamming weight implies heavier time-cost in bootstrapping and more bit length  $\log q$  of the modulus of ciphertexts. Since large modulus reduces the number of required bootstrappings, varying hamming weights is in fact a trade-off between the required number and running time of total bootstrappings in one circuit.

Briefly, we review bootstrapping for CKKS [CHK<sup>+</sup>18, CCS19]. The bootstrapping procedure of CKKS scheme consists of 4 steps, saying **ModRaising**, **CoeffToSlot**, **SinEval**, **SlotToCoeff**.  $q$  denotes the modulus of input ciphertext.

1.  $\text{ct} \rightarrow \text{ct}'$  so that  $\text{Dec}(\text{ct}') = m(x) + qI(x)$  where  $m(x) = \text{Dec}(\text{ct})$ .  
 $\text{ct}'$  has larger modulus than  $q$ .
2.  $\text{Enc}(m(x) + qI(x)) \rightarrow \text{Enc}(\{m(\zeta^{5^j}) + qI(\zeta^{5^j})\}_j)$
3.  $\text{Enc}(\{m(\zeta^{5^j}) + qI(\zeta^{5^j})\}_j) \xrightarrow{\text{encrypted mod } q} \text{Enc}(\{m(\zeta^{5^j})\}_j)$
4.  $\text{Enc}(\{m(\zeta^{5^j})\}_j) \rightarrow \text{Enc}(m(x))$

Among them, **SinEval** is the most sensitive step to a variation of  $h$ . **SinEval** is in fact an alternative of an encrypted ‘modulus  $q$ ’ - function, which is not implemented exactly yet. Instead of exact implementation of an encryption of modulus  $q$  function, we use an encryption of a polynomial which approximately become ‘mod  $q$ ’ over certain region of  $\mathbb{C}^{N/2}$ . In particular, the range of  $I(x)$  directly determines how high degree polynomial approximation is needed to preserve a certain precision of messages (section 3 in [CHK<sup>+</sup>18]). Heuristically, the size  $\|I\|_\infty$  is bounded as  $O(\sqrt{h})$  (e.g. section 5.3 in [CHK<sup>+</sup>18]).

## 4.2 Efficient scaling for depth of CKKS scheme.

We are assuming that the size of plaintext  $\|m(x)\|_\infty \approx \Delta$ , i.e. it is an encoding of scaling data which belongs to  $\frac{1}{\Delta}\mathbb{Z}$  before scaling. Given  $n$  and hamming weight, upper bound of  $\log q$  is determined. The bits length  $\log q$  is the sum of the length of **ModUp** and the length of ciphertexts. The bits of the ciphertexts is again a sum of margin bits for rescaling, the precision size and the length of floating errors. In practical, we assume the length for **ModUp** is a quarter of the length of ciphertexts, i.e. we replace  $\log q$  by  $\frac{4}{5}\log q$ . In previous section, estimated  $\log q$  is now replaced by  $\log Pq$  with ratio  $\log P : \log q = 1 : 4$ . The ratio 4 is the number of modulus switching keys.

We give table 4 listing lower bound of  $\log \Delta$  to ensure maximal level for three precision sizes  $\log p = 10, 20, 30$ . In the following table, small  $N$  is not listed because they don't admit enough large  $\log q$  for a single multiplication preserving MSB at least  $\log p$ . Computations for the table refers appendix A.

$\log Pq$  is increased as  $h$  increases. In addition, maximum depth of multiplications without bootstrapping also increases.

**Example.** Let  $h = 64$  be chosen and assume  $\log p \geq 30$  is required. If  $\log N = 17$ , then available modulus  $q$  is about  $1618 \approx \frac{2022}{5/4}$  bits. If  $\log \Delta = 66$  is chosen, then after 21 steps of multiplications, 30 bits of MSB is ensured in the data. If  $\log \Delta < 66$  and 21 levels are all consumed, then the MSB could be less than 30 bits in worst case. If  $\log \Delta$  is too large, there is not enough modulus to be consumed 21 times. The bound is determined by  $\log D \times (L + 1) < \log q$ .

## 4.3 Under an assumption on error behavior

The worst case can occur when, for example, all the level is consumed for squarings of a ciphertext. It is the case that errors in each ciphertexts are same and each multiplication amplifies the error twice. In the other hands, circuits could be constructed to avoid such worst case as possible.

If homomorphic circuits are assumed that the error amplification is controlled, then more multiplications are available. This is exactly a question on circuit optimizations. The following table 5 is a choice under an assumption that all errors are independent. In the case,  $m_1e_2$  and  $m_2e_1$  follow a random distribution independently and are bounded by  $\Delta B_{\text{enc}}$ , so that  $\|m_1e_2 + m_2e_1\| < \sqrt{2}\Delta B_{\text{enc}}$ . All the remaining computations are similar as the worst case, except that  $L$  is replaced by  $L/2$  at the quadratic inequality (1) in Appendix A.

Table 4: Maximum level of multiplications (worst case)  
 $\lambda = 128$ , 4 keys for ModUp.

$h$	$\log p$	$\log N$	$\log Pq$	$\log \Delta$	max. level	
64	10	14	219	29	5	
		15	431	33	9	
		16	930	42	17	
		17	2022	54	29	
	20	15	431	41	7	
		16	930	49	14	
		17	2022	60	25	
	30	16	930	57	12	
		17	2022	67	22	
	128	10	14	337	31	7
			15	700	38	13
			16	1450	48	23
17			2900	62	36	
20		14	337	39	5	
		15	700	46	11	
		16	1450	55	20	
		17	2900	68	32	
30		15	700	54	9	
		16	1450	62	17	
		17	2900	75	29	
		256	10	13	195	28
14	393			33	8	
15	821			40	15	
16	1623			50	24	
17	3300			65	39	
20	14		393	41	6	
	15		821	47	12	
	16		1623	57	21	
	17		3300	71	35	
30	14		393	50	5	
	15		821	55	10	
	16		1623	65	19	
	17	3300	78	32		

Table 5: Maximum level of multiplications (average case)  
 $\lambda = 128$ , 4 keys for ModUp.

$h$	$\log p$	$\log N$	$\log Pq$	$\log \Delta$	max. level	
64	10	14	219	26	5	
		15	431	29	10	
		16	930	35	20	
		17	2000	43	36	
	20	15	431	38	8	
		16	930	43	16	
		17	2000	51	31	
	30	15	431	48	6	
		16	930	51	13	
		17	2000	58	26	
	128	10	13	165	26	4
			14	337	28	8
15			700	33	16	
16			1450	39	28	
17			2900	49	46	
20		14	337	37	6	
		15	700	41	12	
		16	1450	47	23	
		17	2900	56	40	
30		15	700	50	10	
		16	1450	55	20	
		17	2900	63	35	
256		10	13	195	26	4
			14	393	29	9
			15	821	34	18
	16		1623	41	30	
	17		3300	51	50	
	20	14	393	38	7	
		15	821	42	14	
		16	1623	48	25	
		17	3300	58	44	
	30	14	393	47	5	
		15	821	51	11	
		16	1623	57	22	
		17	3300	66	39	

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## A CKKS parameter estimating

As operations works in a circuit, in particular as multiplications runs, the null bits are consumed by scale factor  $\Delta$  so that the possible number  $L$  of multiplication is limited by  $\frac{\log q}{\log \Delta} - 1$ . In particular, the length  $\log q$  consists of

$\log q = \log q_0 + L \log \Delta$  where  $\log \Delta$  is the length consumed at each rescaling procedure and  $\Delta < q_0 < \Delta^2$ .

In CKKS, at each multiplication, error is estimated as follows :

1. For two ciphertexts  $\text{ct}_1, \text{ct}_2$  of level  $\ell$  such that  $\langle \text{ct}_i, \text{sk} \rangle = m_i + e_i$ ,  $\text{ct}_{\text{mult}}$  is a ciphertext of level  $\ell$  such that

$$\langle \text{ct}_{\text{mult}}, \text{sk} \rangle = m_1 m_2 + (m_1 e_2 + m_2 e_1 + e_1 e_2 + e_{\text{mult}}),$$

where the latter term is new error.  $e_{\text{mult}}$  is the error occurring due to key-switching procedure.

2. By rescaling  $\text{ct}_{\text{mult}}$ , new ciphertext  $\text{ct}'$  of level  $\ell - 1$  is obtained and

$$\langle \text{ct}', \text{sk} \rangle = \frac{1}{\Delta} (m_1 m_2 + (m_1 e_2 + m_2 e_1 + e_1 e_2 + e_{\text{mult}})) + e_{\text{scale}}$$

The scaling error  $e_{\text{scale}}$  arises due to a rounding operation in the rescaling.

In particular, as  $e_1 e_2 + e_{\text{ks}} < \Delta$ , the scaling error contains those two terms.

The total error of a multiplication of two ciphertexts in a same level is bounded by

$$\|e_1\| + \|e_2\| + e_{\text{scale}} \leq 2 \times B_{\text{enc}} + (1 + \frac{1}{\Delta}) B_{\text{scale}}$$

and this bound becomes new  $B_{\text{enc}}$  for the output ciphertext  $\text{ct}'$ .

Note that  $(1 + \frac{1}{\Delta}) B_{\text{scale}}$  is independent to the level of ciphertexts. Let  $B_\ell$  be an error bound for level  $\ell$  ciphertexts. The final modulus  $q_0$  is of bit length  $\log q_0$  where the bit-length  $\log \Delta$  is at least sum of the length of most significant bits (MSB) and the bit length of errors  $B_0$ . The MSB is in fact the precision digits of data.

Let  $\log p$  be the length of MSB and  $B_{\text{enc}}$  be the error bound for fresh ciphertexts.  $B_{\text{enc}} = 8\sqrt{2}\sigma N + 6\sigma\sqrt{N} + 16\sigma\sqrt{hN}$  is determined by the dimension  $N$  of ciphertexts, hamming weight  $h$ , and the standard deviation  $\sigma$  of discrete Gaussian distribution used for LWE error (lemma 1, [CKKS17]).

We have an equation  $B_{\ell-1} = 2B_\ell + (1 + \frac{1}{\Delta}) B_{\text{scale}}$ , where  $B_0$  should be bounded by  $B_0 + \frac{N}{2} < \frac{\Delta}{2^{p+1}}$  to be correctly decoded (lemma 1, [CKKS17]). Therefore,  $\Delta$  is chosen to be

$$\Delta > 2^{p+1} B_0 + 2^p N = 2^{L+p+1} B_{\text{enc}} + (2^{L+p+1} - 2^{p+1}) (1 + \frac{1}{\Delta}) B_{\text{scale}} + 2^p N$$

or

$$\Delta^2 - (2^{L+p+1} B_{\text{enc}} + 2^p N + (2^{L+p+1} - 2^{p+1}) B_{\text{scale}}) \Delta - (2^{L+p+1} - 2^{p+1}) B_{\text{scale}} > 0.$$

The latter quadratic inequality is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta > & \frac{(2^{L+p} B_{\text{enc}} + 2^{p-1} N + (2^{L+p} - 2^p) B_{\text{scale}})}{+ \sqrt{(2^{L+p} B_{\text{enc}} + 2^{p-1} N + (2^{L+p} - 2^p) B_{\text{scale}})^2 + (2^{L+p+1} - 2^{p+1}) B_{\text{scale}}}} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

due to  $\Delta > 0$ .