

Computational complexity of lattice problems and cyclic lattices

Lenny Fukshansky
Claremont McKenna College

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ICERM - Brown University
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Euclidean lattices

A **lattice** in Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n is a nonzero discrete subgroup. If $\Lambda \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a lattice, then there exist \mathbb{R} -linearly independent vectors

$$\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_k \in \Lambda, \quad 1 \leq k \leq n,$$

called a **basis** for Λ , such that

$$\Lambda = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k m_i \mathbf{a}_i : m_i \in \mathbb{Z} \right\} = A\mathbb{Z}^k,$$

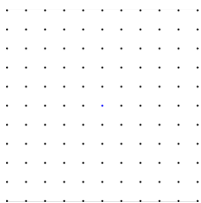
where

$$A = (\mathbf{a}_1 \dots \mathbf{a}_k)$$

is the corresponding $n \times k$ **basis matrix**. Then k is called the **rank** of Λ , and $k = n$ if and only if the quotient group \mathbb{R}^n/Λ is compact.

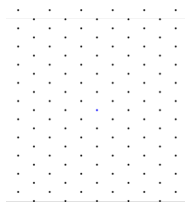
Examples of lattices in the plane

Square lattice



$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbb{Z}^2$$

Hexagonal lattice



$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1/2 \\ 0 & \sqrt{3}/2 \end{pmatrix} \mathbb{Z}^2$$

Determinant of a lattice

Determinant or **covolume** of a lattice $\Lambda = AZ^k \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is

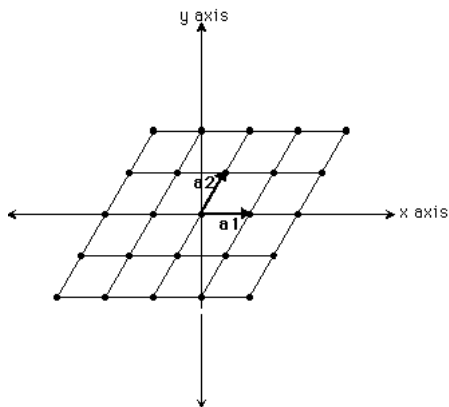
$$\sqrt{\det(A^t A)}.$$

This is equal to the volume of the compact quotient V/Λ , where

$$V = \text{span}_{\mathbb{R}} \Lambda$$

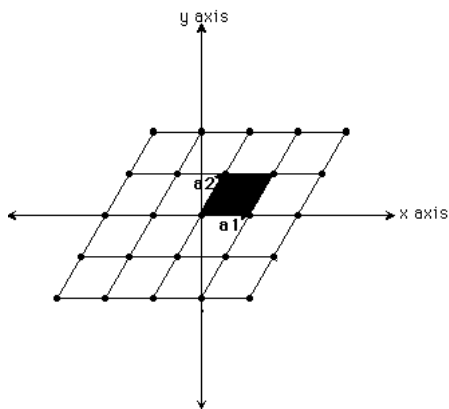
is a k -dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

Example of a fundamental domain



Hexagonal lattice fundamental domain

Example of a fundamental domain



$$\text{Volume} = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1/2 \\ 0 & \sqrt{3}/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Successive minima

Let \mathbb{B}_n be a unit ball centered at the origin in \mathbb{R}^n . If $\Lambda \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a lattice of rank k , then its **successive minima**

$$0 < \lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_k$$

are real numbers such that

$$\lambda_i \mathbb{B}_n \cap \Lambda$$

contains at least i linearly independent vectors for each $1 \leq i \leq k$ – we call these the **vectors corresponding to successive minima**. They are not necessarily unique, but there are finitely many of them.

Important remark

Vectors corresponding to successive minima do not necessarily form a basis for the lattice. For instance, the 5-dimensional lattice

$$\Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \mathbb{Z}^5$$

contains the standard basis vectors $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_5$, and hence

$$\lambda_1 = \dots = \lambda_5 = 1,$$

however these vectors do not span Λ over \mathbb{Z} .

Lattice problems

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Definition 1 (Shortest Vector Problem – SVP)

Input: An $n \times n$ basis matrix A for a lattice $\Lambda = A\mathbb{Z}^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$.

Output: A shortest nonzero vector in Λ , i.e. $\mathbf{x} \in \Lambda$ such that

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \min \{\|\mathbf{y}\| : \mathbf{y} \in \Lambda \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}\},$$

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Remark 1

This is precisely a vector corresponding to λ_1 , the first successive minimum.

Lattice problems

Definition 2 (Shortest Independent Vector Problem – SIVP)

Input: An $n \times n$ basis matrix A for a lattice $\Lambda = A\mathbb{Z}^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$.

Output: A collection of n shortest linearly independent vectors in Λ , i.e. linearly independent $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n \in \Lambda$ such that

$$\|\mathbf{x}_i\| = \lambda_i.$$

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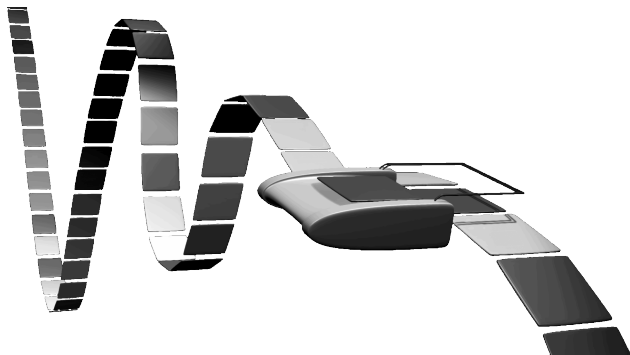
Question 1

How much harder?

To answer this question, we need to explain how we measure “hardness”.

Turing machine

Device with a **head** and an infinite **tape** going through it:



Elementary operations: read 1 cell, write 1 cell, move tape left 1 cell, move tape right 1 cell.

Example: a modern computer



Complexity classes: **P** and **NP**

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A problem is called **polynomial** if the number of elementary operations required to solve it on a Turing machine is polynomial in the size of the input. If this is the case, we say that the problem can be **solved in polynomial time**. The class of all such problems is denoted by **P**.

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Definition 4

A problem is called **non-deterministic polynomial** if the number of elementary operations required to verify a potential answer for it on a Turing machine is polynomial in the size of the input. If this is the case, we say that the problem can be **verified in polynomial time**. The class of all such problems is denoted by **NP**.

More complexity: **NP**-hard and **NP**-complete

It is clear that every problem which can be solved in polynomial time, can be verified in polynomial time, and so

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A problem is called **NP-complete** if it is in **NP** and is **NP-hard**.

P vs NP: a million dollar problem

One of the seven Clay Millennium Prize Problems is the question whether

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}?$$

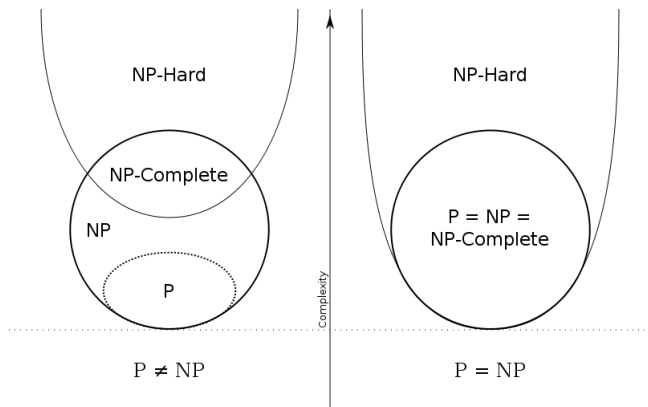
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Complexity of lattice problems

SVP and SIVP are both known to be **NP**-hard. In fact, even the problem of finding the first successive minimum λ_1 (respectively, all successive minima $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$) of a given lattice is **NP**-hard: it is as hard as SVP (respectively, SIVP).

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Theorem 1 (SIVP to SVP reduction)

For lattices of rank n , there exists a polynomial time reduction algorithm that, given an oracle for SVP, produces an approximate solution to SIVP within an approximation factor of \sqrt{n} – that is, a collection of linearly independent vectors $\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n \in \Lambda$ with

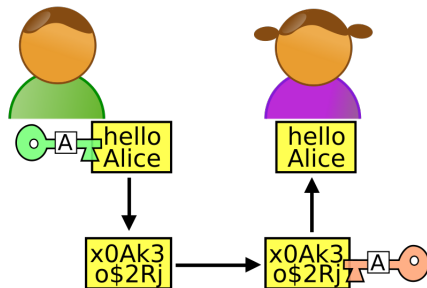
$$\|\mathbf{a}_1\| \leq \|\mathbf{a}_2\| \leq \dots \leq \|\mathbf{a}_n\| \leq \sqrt{n}\lambda_n.$$

Hard is good: cryptography connection

One of the main applications of lattice problems is **cryptography**.

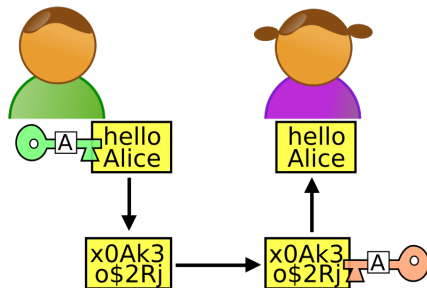
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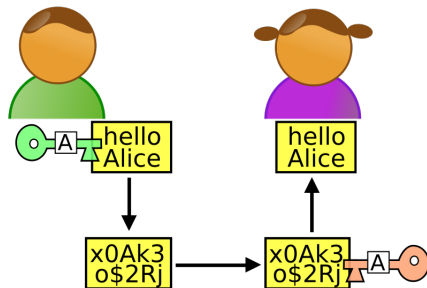
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Some possible choices: SVP, SIVP.

Encryption challenge

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Question 2

Are there lattices which can be described by the input data of size less than n^2 ?

Cyclic lattices: definition

Define the **rotational shift operator** on \mathbb{R}^n , $n \geq 2$, by

$$\text{rot}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n) = (x_n, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1})$$

for every $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$. We will write rot^k for iterated application of rot k times for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ (then rot^0 is just the identity map, and $\text{rot}^k = \text{rot}^{n+k}$). It is also easy to see that rot (and hence each iteration rot^k) is a linear operator. A sublattice Γ of \mathbb{Z}^n is called **cyclic** if $\text{rot}(\Gamma) = \Gamma$, i.e. if for every $\mathbf{x} \in \Gamma$, $\text{rot}(\mathbf{x}) \in \Gamma$. Clearly, \mathbb{Z}^n itself is a cyclic lattice.

Cyclic lattices from ideals in $\mathbb{Z}[x]/(x^n - 1)$

Let

$$\rho(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k \in \mathbb{Z}[x]/(x^n - 1).$$

Define a map $\rho : \mathbb{Z}[x]/(x^n - 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^n$ by

$$\rho(\rho(x)) = (a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}) \in \mathbb{Z}^n,$$

then for any ideal $I \subseteq \mathbb{Z}[x]/(x^n - 1)$, $\rho(I)$ is a sublattice of \mathbb{Z}^n of full rank. Notice that for every $\rho(x) \in I$,

$$x\rho(x) = a_{n-1} + a_0x + a_1x^2 + \dots + a_{n-2}x^{n-1} \in I,$$

and so

$$\rho(x\rho(x)) = (a_{n-1}, a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-2}) = \text{rot}(\rho(\rho(x))) \in \rho(I).$$

In other words, $\Gamma \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^n$ is a cyclic lattice if and only if $\Gamma = \rho(I)$ for some ideal $I \subseteq \mathbb{Z}[x]/(x^n - 1)$.

Cyclic lattices in cryptosystems

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This motivates studying cyclic lattices more in depth.

Cyclic lattices: basic properties - 1

Definition 7

For a vector $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, define

$$\Lambda(\mathbf{a}) = \text{span}_{\mathbb{Z}} \{ \mathbf{a}, \text{rot}(\mathbf{a}), \dots, \text{rot}^{n-1}(\mathbf{a}) \}.$$

This is always a cyclic lattice.

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Lemma 2

Let $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ and let $p_{\mathbf{a}}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]/(x^n - 1)$ be a polynomial with coefficient vector \mathbf{a} . Then $\mathbf{a}, \text{rot}(\mathbf{a}), \dots, \text{rot}^{n-1}(\mathbf{a})$ are linearly dependent if and only if $p_{\mathbf{a}}(x)$ is divisible by some cyclotomic polynomial divisor of $x^n - 1$.

Cyclic lattices: basic properties - 2

Let

$$C_R^n = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : |\mathbf{x}| := \max\{|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|\} \leq R\}$$

for every $R \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$, i.e. C_R^n is a cube of side-length $2R$ centered at the origin in \mathbb{R}^n .

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Lemma 3

Let $R > \frac{n-1}{2}$, then

$$\text{Prob}_{\infty,R}(\text{rk}(\Lambda(\mathbf{a})) = n) \geq 1 - \frac{n}{2R+1},$$

where probability $\text{Prob}_{\infty,R}(\cdot)$ is with respect to the uniform distribution among all points \mathbf{a} in the set $C_R^n \cap \mathbb{Z}^n$.

Cyclic lattices: cryptographic use

Hence if we pick $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ with large $|\mathbf{a}|$, the probability that

$$\text{rk}(\Lambda(\mathbf{a})) = n$$

is high, and the size of the input data necessary to describe this lattice is only n . This observation makes cyclic lattices very attractive for cryptographic purposes.

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Question 4

*But are cyclic lattices hard enough? In other words, are SVP, SIVP still **NP**-hard on cyclic lattices?*

This is an open question, but many people believe that the answer is **yes**, at least in the worst case.

SIVP to SVP on cyclic lattices

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Theorem 4 (Peikert, Rosen (2005))

*Let n be a **prime** and let $\Lambda \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a lattice of rank n . There exists a polynomial time algorithm that, given an oracle for SVP, produces an approximate solution to SIVP on Λ within an approximation factor of 2. In other words, given $\mathbf{a}_1 \in \Lambda$ with $\|\mathbf{a}_1\| = \lambda_1$ we can find a collection of linearly independent vectors $\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n \in \Lambda$ with*

$$\|\mathbf{a}_1\| \leq \|\mathbf{a}_2\| \leq \dots \leq \|\mathbf{a}_n\| \leq 2\lambda_n$$

polynomial time. Moreover, only one call to the oracle is necessary.

Well-rounded lattices

More generally, we can show that for **every** n , SIVP is **equivalent** to SVP on a positive proportion of cyclic lattices. To explain what this means, we need more notation.

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A lattice $\Gamma \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ of rank n is called **well-rounded** (abbreviated WR) if

$$\lambda_1(\Gamma) = \dots = \lambda_n(\Gamma).$$

Notice that for a WR lattice, finding λ_1 is equivalent to finding all successive minima.

WR cyclic lattices

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Theorem 5 (F., Sun (2013))

For each dimension $n \geq 2$, there exist real constants

$$0 < \alpha_n \leq \beta_n \leq 1,$$

depending only on n , such that

$$\alpha_n \leq \frac{\#\{\Gamma \in \mathcal{C}_n : \lambda_n(\Gamma) \leq R, \Gamma \text{ is WR}\}}{\#\{\Gamma \in \mathcal{C}_n : \lambda_n(\Gamma) \leq R\}} \leq \beta_n \text{ as } R \rightarrow \infty. \quad (1)$$

For instance, one can take $\alpha_2 = 0.261386\dots$ and $\beta_2 = 0.348652\dots$, meaning that between 26% and 35% of full rank cyclic sublattices of \mathbb{Z}^2 are WR.

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Corollary 6 (F., Sun (2013))

Let $R \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$, then

$$\frac{\#\{\Gamma \in \mathcal{C}_n : \lambda_n(\Gamma) \leq R, \text{ SVP} \equiv \text{SIVP on } \Gamma\}}{\#\{\Gamma \in \mathcal{C}_n : \lambda_n(\Gamma) \leq R\}} \gg_n 1 \text{ as } R \rightarrow \infty.$$

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Corollary 7 (F., Sun (2013))

Let $k_1, \dots, k_{n-1} \in \mathbb{Z}$ be nonzero integers, $m = \text{lcm}(k_1, \dots, k_{n-1})$, and

$$\mathbf{a} = \left(m, \frac{m}{k_1}, \dots, \frac{m}{k_{n-1}} \right)^t \in \mathbb{Z}^n.$$

There exists an integer l , depending only on n , such that whenever $|k_1|, \dots, |k_{n-1}| \geq l$, $\text{SVP} \equiv \text{SIVP}$ on $\Lambda(\mathbf{a})$.

Some of my work with students on WR lattices

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- L. F., G. Henshaw, P. Liao, M. Prince, X. Sun, S. Whitehead. **On integral well-rounded lattices in the plane**, Discrete and Computational Geometry, vol. 48 no. 3 (2012), pg. 735–748.
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Thank you!