

Lecture 18

Lecturer: Jonathan Kelner

Scribe: Colin Jia Zheng

1 Lattice

Definition. (Lattice) Given n linearly independent vectors $b_1, \dots, b_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$, the *lattice* generated by them is defined as $L(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) = \{\sum x_i b_i | x_i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. We refer to b_1, \dots, b_n as a *basis* of the lattice. Equivalently, if we define B as the $m \times n$ matrix whose columns are b_1, \dots, b_n , then the lattice generated by B is $L(B) = L(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) = \{Bx | x \in \mathbb{Z}^n\}$. We say that the *rank* of the lattice is n and its *dimension* is m . If $n = m$, the lattice is called a *full-rank* lattice.

It is easy to see that, L is a lattice if and only if L is a discrete subgroup of $(\mathbb{R}^n, +)$.

Remark. We will mostly consider full-rank lattices, as the more general case is not substantially different.

Example. The lattice generated by $(1, 0)^T$ and $(0, 1)^T$ is \mathbb{Z}^2 , the lattice of all integer points (see Figure 1(a)). This basis is not unique: for example, $(1, 1)^T$ and $(2, 1)^T$ also generate \mathbb{Z}^2 (see Figure 1(b)). Yet another basis of \mathbb{Z}^2 is given by $(2005, 1)^T$; $(2006, 1)^T$. On the other hand, $(1, 1)^T$, $(2, 0)^T$ is not a basis of \mathbb{Z}^2 : instead, it generates the lattice of all integer points whose coordinates sum to an even number (see Figure 1(c)). All the examples so far were of full-rank lattices. An example of a lattice that is not full is $L((2, 1)^T)$ (see Figure 1(d)). It is of dimension 2 and of rank 1. Finally, the lattice $\mathbb{Z} = L((1))$ is a one-dimensional full-rank lattice.

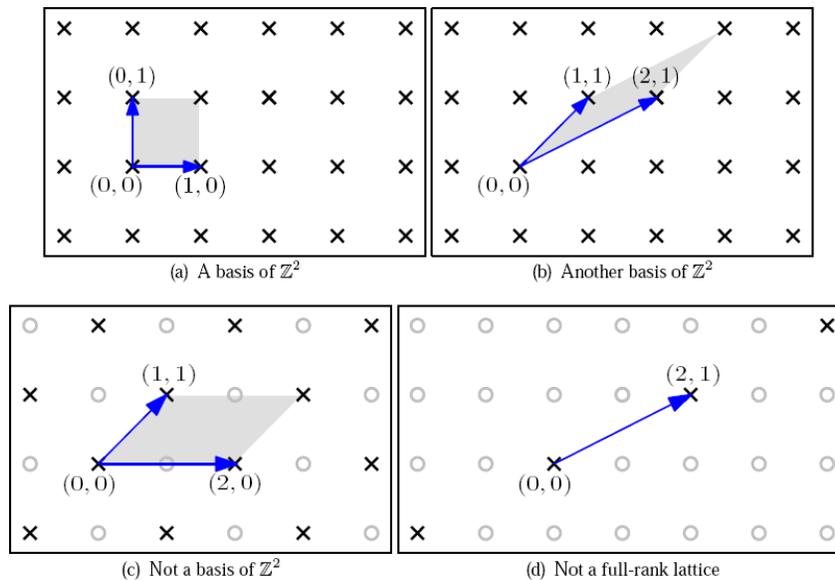


Figure 1: Lattices of \mathbb{R}^2

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Definition. For matrix B , $P(B) = \{Bx | x \in [0, 1]^n\}$ is the *fundamental parallelepiped* of B .

Examples of fundamental parallelepipeds are the gray areas in Figure 1. For a full rank lattice $L(B)$, $P(B)$ tiles \mathbb{R}^n in the pattern $L(B)$, in the sense that $\mathbb{R}^n = \{P(B) + x : x \in L(B)\}$; see Figure 2.

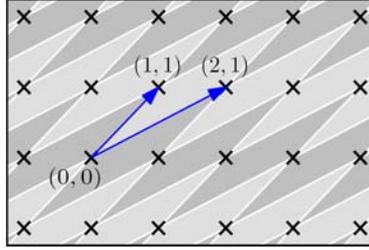


Figure 2: $P(B)$ tiles \mathbb{R}^n

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In Figure 1, we saw that not every set of n linearly independent vectors B in a rank n full-rank lattice Λ is a basis of Λ . The fundamental parallelepiped characterizes exactly when B is a basis:

Lemma. *Let Λ be a rank n full-rank lattice and B an invertible $n \times n$ matrix. Then B is a basis (of Λ) if and only if $P(B) \cap \Lambda = \{0\}$.*

Proof. “ \Rightarrow ” is obvious: Λ only contains elements with integer coordinates under B , and 0 is the only element of $P(B)$ with integer coordinates.

For “ \Leftarrow ”, need to show that any lattice point $x = By$ satisfies $y_i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Note that By' with $y'_i = y_i - \lfloor y_i \rfloor$ is a lattice point in $P(B)$. By our assumption $By' = 0$, ie $y_i \in \mathbb{Z}$. \square

It is natural to ask when are two invertible matrices A, B *equivalent bases*, ie bases of the same lattice. It turns out that this happens if and only if A, B are related by a *unimodular* matrix.

Definition. A square matrix U is *unimodular* if all entries are integer and $\det(U) = \pm 1$.

Lemma. *U is unimodular iff U^{-1} is unimodular.*

Proof. Suppose U is unimodular. Clearly U^{-1} has ± 1 determinant. To see that U^{-1} has integer entries, note that they are simply signed minors of U divided by $\det(U)$. \square

Lemma. *Nonsingular matrices B_1, B_2 are equivalent bases if and only if $B_2 = B_1U$ for some unimodular matrix U .*

Proof. “ \Rightarrow ”: Since each column of B_1 has integer coordinates under B_2 , $B_1 = B_2U$ for some integer matrix U . Similarly $B_2 = B_1V$ for some integer matrix V . Hence $B_1 = B_1VU$, ie $VU = I$. Since V, U are both integer matrices, this means that $\det(U) = \pm 1$, as required.

“ \Leftarrow ”: Note that each column of B_2 is contained in $L(B_1)$ and vice versa. \square

Corollary. *Nonsingular matrices B_1, B_2 are equivalent if and only if one can be obtained from the other by the following operations on columns:*

1. $b_i \leftrightarrow b_i + kb_j$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$
2. $b_i \leftrightarrow b_j$
3. $b_i \leftrightarrow -b_i$

Now that it is clear that bases of a lattice have the same absolute determinant, we can proceed to define the determinant of lattice:

Definition. (Determinant of lattice) Let $L = L(B)$ be a lattice of rank n . We define the *determinant* of L , denoted $\det(L)$, as the n -dimensional volume of $P(B)$, ie $\det(L) = \sqrt{\det(B^T B)}$. In particular if L is a full rank lattice, $\det(L) = |\det(B)|$.

1.1 Dual lattices

Definition. The *dual* Λ^* of lattice Λ is $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \forall v \in \Lambda, x \cdot v \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.

Equivalently, the dual can be viewed as the set of linear functionals from Λ to \mathbb{Z} .

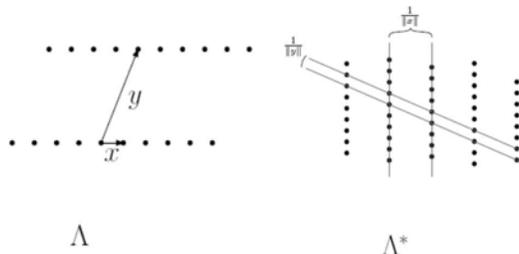


Figure 3: Dual lattice

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Definition. For matrix B , its the dual basis B^* is the unique basis that satisfies

1. $\text{span}(B) = \text{span}(B^*)$
2. $B^T B^* = I$

Fact. $(L(B))^* = L(B^*)$.

Fact. $(\Lambda^*)^* = \Lambda$.

Fact. $\det(\Lambda^*) = \frac{1}{\det(\Lambda)}$.

2 Shortest vectors and successive minima

One basic parameter of a lattice is the length of the shortest nonzero vector in the lattice, denoted λ_1 . How about the second shortest? We are not interested in the second/third/etc shortest vectors which happen to be simply scalar multiples of the shortest vector. Instead, one requires that the next “minimum” increases the dimension of the space spanned:

Definition. The i th *successive minimum* of lattice Λ , $\lambda_i(\Lambda)$, is defined to be $\inf\{r \mid \dim(\text{span}(\Lambda \cap \bar{B}(0, r))) \geq i\}$.

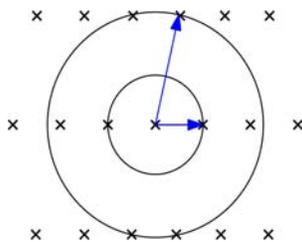


Figure 4: $\lambda_1(\Lambda) = 1, \lambda_2\Lambda = 2.3$

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The following theorem, due to Blichfield, has various important consequences, and in particular can be used to bound λ_1 .

Theorem. (Blichfield) For any full-rank lattice Λ and (measurable) set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ with $\text{vol}(S) > \det(\Lambda)$, there exist distinct $z_1, z_2 \in S$ such that $z_1 - z_2 \in \Lambda$.

Proof. Let B be a basis of Λ . Define $x + P(B)$ to be $\{x + y : y \in P(B)\}$ and S_x to be $S \cap (x + P(B))$ (see Figure 5). Since $S = \bigcup_{x \in \Lambda} S_x$ we conclude that $\text{vol}(S) = \sum_{x \in \Lambda} \text{vol}(S_x)$. Let \hat{S}_x denote $\{z - x : z \in S_x\}$. Then $\text{vol}(\hat{S}_x) = \text{vol}(S_x)$, ie $\sum_{x \in \Lambda} \text{vol}(\hat{S}_x) = \text{vol}(S) > \text{vol}(P(B))$. Therefore, there must exist non-disjoint \hat{S}_x and \hat{S}_y for $x \neq y$. Consider any nonzero $z \in \hat{S}_x \cap \hat{S}_y$, then $z + x, z + y \in S$ and $x - y = (z + x) - (z + y) \in \Lambda$, as required.

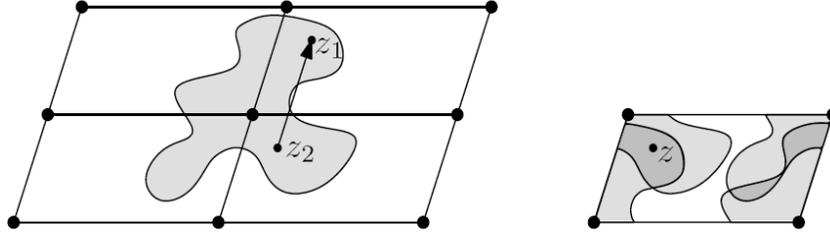


Figure 5: Blichfield's theorem

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□

As a corollary of Blichfield's theorem, we obtain the following theorem due to Minkowski, which says that any large enough centrally-symmetric convex set contains a nonzero lattice point. A set S is centrally-symmetric if it is closed under negation. It is easy to see that the theorem is false if we drop either of the central-symmetry or the convexity requirement.

Theorem. (Minkowski) *Let Λ be a full-rank lattice of rank n . Any centrally-symmetric convex set S with $\text{vol}(S) > 2^n \det(\Lambda)$ contains a nonzero lattice point.*

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