Introduction to Lattices in Cryptography

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OUTLINE

- A brief Overview of Vectors and Matrices: Basic concepts of vectors and matrices, essential for understanding lattices
- Definition of Lattices: What is a lattice? Examples and intuition
- Lattice Basis: How lattices are generated from basis vectors
- Determinant/Volume of a Lattice: Fundamental parallelepiped and its significance
- Geometry of Lattices: Orthogonality and geometric properties
- Successive Minima of a Lattice: Understanding lattice structure

CyBOK Mapping

The lecture maps to the following CyBOK Knowledge Areas:

- Systems Security → Cryptography
- Infrastructure Security → Applied Cryptography

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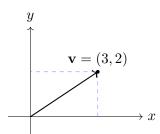
VECTORS

A vector is an ordered list of numbers that represents a point or a direction in space

- A 2D vector is written as $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2)$
- \blacksquare A nD vector is written as $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$

Vectors can be thought of as arrows pointing from one position to another

Example:



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VECTOR LENGTH (P-NORM)

The length (or norm) of a vector is a way to measure its size. The general formula is:

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_p = (|v_1|^p + |v_2|^p + \dots + |v_n|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

Special cases of the p-norm:

- lacksquare Euclidean Norm (L_2 , p=2): $\|\mathbf{v}\|_2 = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \ldots + v_n^2}$
- Manhattan Norm (L_1 , p=1): $\|\mathbf{v}\|_1 = |v_1| + |v_2| + \ldots + |v_n|$
- Maximum Norm ($L\infty$, $p \to \infty$): $\|\mathbf{v}\|_{\infty} = \max(|v_1|, |v_2|, \dots, |v_n|)$

The Euclidean norm is the default, and we will denote it by just $\|\cdot\|$

Example:

$$\overline{\mathbf{v} = (3,4)}, \|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{3^2 + 4^2} = \sqrt{9 + 16} = 5$$

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MATRIX MULTIPLICATION

You can only multiply compatible matrices

Rule: The number of columns in the LHS matrix must equal the number of rows in the RHS matrix

Example: Matrix multiplication of a 2×2 matrix with a 2×1 matrix (column vector):

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_1 + a_{12}b_2 \\ a_{21}b_1 + a_{22}b_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Remember: Multiplying a matrix by its inverse results in the identity matrix:

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \times \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$$

MATRIX

A matrix is a rectangular array of numbers, arranged in rows and columns

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

- A matrix with m rows and n columns is called an $m \times n$ matrix
- Special cases:
 - A square matrix has the same number of rows and columns
 - A diagonal matrix has nonzero elements only on its diagonal
 - The identity matrix I has ones on the diagonal and zeros elsewhere

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LATTICE DEFINITION – INTUITION

Lattice: A a set of points in n-dimensional space that exhibits a periodic structure, i.e. A lattice is just a grid of points

Valuation: The lattice is an infinite grid of points arranged in a regular, repeating pattern that extends in multiple dimensions

- The position of each point is determined by the lattice basis
- The basis vectors define the directions and distances to reach the lattice points

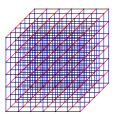


FIGURE: An example of 3D Lattice

WHY LATTICE-BASED CRYPTOGRAPHY?

- Provable security from worst-case assumptions
 - Stronger security guarantees
- Lattice-based assumptions (e.g., LWE, SIS) are "believed" to be quantum-resistant
- Widely used, e.g. NIST PQC candidates are mostly lattice-based
- Efficiency
 - Works over matrices and rings, it mostly involves addition and multiplication so no modular exponentiations or pairings
- Relatively more mature than some other PQC approaches

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LATTICE BASIS - INTUITION

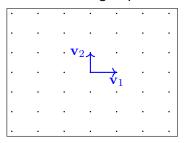
◊ Intuition: The basis of a lattice defines the directions (or vectors) you can use to reach any point in the grid

■ Each point in the lattice (grid) can be reached by combining the basis vectors, using some integer multiples

LATTICE DEFINITION

Working over \mathbb{R}^n , an n-dimensional lattice L is an (additive) discrete subgroup of \mathbb{R}^n , consisting of n-dimensional vectors from \mathbb{R}

- Additive: For all $x \in L$, $-x \in L$, and for all $x, y \in L$, $x + y \in L$
 - Adding/subtracting points in the lattice, results in another lattice point
- Discrete: Points are sufficiently far apart
- Subgroup: A subset that is a group under addition



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LATTICE BASIS – INTUITION

Example: Consider the 2D lattice generated by the basis $\mathbf{b}_1 = (2,1)$ and $\mathbf{b}_2 = (1,3)$

- Point (3,4) (in red) is obtained as $\mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbf{b}_2$
- Point (5,5) (in blue) is obtained by $2\mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbf{b}_2$
- **...**

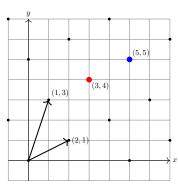


FIGURE: 2D-Lattice generated by the basis $\mathbf{b}_1 = (2,1)$ and $\mathbf{b}_2 = (1,3)$

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LATTICE BASIS

A basis of a lattice is a set of k linearly independent vectors $\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (points in the lattice) s.t. any vector \mathbf{v} in the lattice can be written as an integer linear combination of the basis vectors:

$$\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^k c_i \mathbf{b}_i, \quad c_i \in \mathbb{Z}$$

We can think of the basis as a matrix $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ with k-linearly independent vectors $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ as columns:

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{b}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{b}_k \end{bmatrix}$$

We denote the lattice generated by the basis matrix $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ by $L(\mathbf{B})$ $_{\text{\tiny ESSAM GHADAFI}}$

LATTICE QUIZ

Quiz: Can you think of a matrix $\mathbf B$ (of any size) with entries from $\mathbb R$ that cannot serve as a lattice basis?

■ Hint: The basis span does not form an additive discrete subgroup . . .

MATHEMATICAL LATTICE

■ $L(\mathbf{B})$ is a discrete set of points in \mathbb{R}^n that can be described as:

$$L(\mathbf{B}) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i \mathbf{b}_i \mid \alpha_i \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

where $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ are integers.

Alternatively, we can define the lattice as:

$$L(\mathbf{B}) = \left\{ \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{B}oldsymbol{lpha} ext{ for some } oldsymbol{lpha} \in \mathbb{Z}^k
ight\}$$

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LATTICE RANK

Lattice Rank is the number of vectors in its basis (i.e., k)

Valuation: The rank is the number of independent directions needed to span the lattice space, i.e. to navigate the entire point grid

A lattice has full rank iff k=n, meaning it has a square basis matrix $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ with full rank n, i.e., $\det(\mathbf{B}) \neq 0$.

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FUNDAMENTAL PARALLELEPIPED - INTUITION

○ Intuition: The fundamental parallelepiped is the smallest region (box) formed by the lattice basis vectors, containing one lattice point and repeating throughout the lattice

- The smallest building block/tile of the point grid
- The lattice is created by shifting this tile in different directions, forming the entire point grid

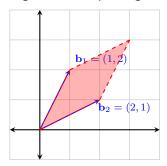


FIGURE: Fundamental parallelepiped of a 2D lattice with basis vectors $\mathbf{b_1} = (1, 2)$ and $\mathbf{b_2} = (2, 1)$

FUNDAMENTAL PARALLELEPIPED

The fundamental parallelepiped of a basis matrix $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ denoted by $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{B})$ is the region of space spanned by \mathbf{B} where each point within the parallelepiped is a convex combination of the basis vectors with the coefficients λ_i satisfying $0 \le \lambda_i < 1$

$$\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{B}) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_i \mathbf{b}_i \quad \text{with} \quad 0 \le \lambda_i < 1 \right\}$$

The volume (or n-dimensional measure) of the fundamental parallelepiped is given by the absolute value of the determinant of the basis matrix:

$$\mathsf{Volume} = |\det(\mathbf{B})|$$

FUNDAMENTAL PARALLELEPIPED

Tiling of the lattice with its basis's fundamental parallelepiped

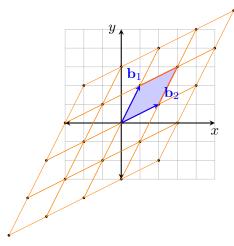


FIGURE: Tiling of the 2D lattice with basis vectors $\mathbf{b}_1 = (1,2)$ and $\mathbf{b}_2 = (2,1)$

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FUNDAMENTAL PARALLELEPIPED

Some useful properties:

- B can only be a basis for the lattice $L(\mathbf{B})$ if $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{B})$ does not contain any points in $L(\mathbf{B})$ other than the origin, i.e. $L(\mathbf{B}) \cap \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{B}) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$
- $L(\mathbf{B})$ can be fully tiled by placing $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{B})$ at each point in $L(\mathbf{B})$ (as we have seen earlier)

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DETERMINANT (VOLUME) OF LATTICE

The determinant of a lattice classifies the lattice density (how spread out the points are):

- A larger determinant ⇒ a more "spread-out" lattice (lower density)
- A smaller determinant ⇒ a denser packing of lattice points (higher density)

For a lattice $L(\mathbf{B}) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, the determinant (volume) of the lattice is $\det(L(\mathbf{B})) = \mathsf{Volume}(\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{B})) = |\det(\mathbf{B})| \leq \prod\limits_{i=1}^k \|\mathbf{b}_i\|$

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21

LATTICE BASIS

Example: Consider the lattice in \mathbb{R}^2 generated by the basis:

$$\mathbf{B}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Another valid basis for the same lattice is

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$$\mathbf{B}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

We have

$$\mathbf{B}_2 = \mathbf{B}_1 \mathbf{U}$$

where

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$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

LATTICE BASIS

An n-dimensional lattice, for n>1, will have infinitely many bases that can generate it

Two matrices $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $\mathbf{B}' \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ are bases for the same lattice (i.e. generate the same lattice) if and only if

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B}'\mathbf{U}$$

for some unimodular matrix $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, where $|\mathsf{det}(\mathbf{U})| = 1$

This means we have

$$\det(\mathbf{B}) = \pm \det(\mathbf{B}')$$

This means the volume of a parallelepiped formed by the lattice basis vectors is invariant, i.e. $Volume(\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{B})) = Volume(\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{B}'))$

Note: The same applies when the lattice is not full rank (when the basis matrix is not square) $_{\text{CyBOK}}^{\text{CyBOK}}$

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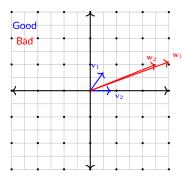
LATTICE BASIS - THE GOOD, THE BAD

§ Intuition:

- A good lattice basis has clear, direct steps, making it easy to navigate and quickly reach any point in the grid.
 - Used as a secret key in lattice-based cryptosystems
- A bad basis still reaches all points, but is inefficient, requiring unnecessary steps and complicating navigation.
 - Used as a public key in lattice-based cryptosystems

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LATTICE BASIS AND CRYPTOGRAPHY



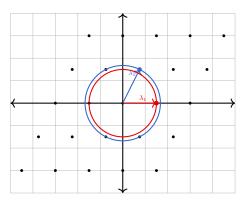
One can classify the basis as Good or Bad:

- Good: Consists of short, nearly orthogonal vectors, making computations more efficient and problem-solving easier
- Bad: Consists of long and highly skewed vectors (almost parallel), making the lattice computationally difficult to work with

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SUCCESSIVE MINIMA

Intuition: The successive minima of a lattice measure how spread out the lattice is by identifying the smallest radii that enclose at least k independent vectors (points)



LATTICE BASIS REDUCTION METHODS

How to go from bad to good?

Transforming a bad basis to a better one involves shortening vectors and improving orthogonality among them

- Gram-Schmidt: Orthogonal but unstable and order-dependent
 - Does not always return a valid lattice basis
- LLL (Lenstra-Lenstra-Lovász): Efficient (poly-time), produces shorter, nearly orthogonal vectors. Utilises Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalisation
- BKZ (Block Korkine-Zolotarev): Improves LLL with block reduction, better results but higher cost

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SUCCESSIVE MINIMA

The *i*-th successive minimum $\lambda_i(L(\mathbf{B}))$ of a lattice $L(\mathbf{B}) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is the smallest radius r s.t. i linearly independent vectors $\{\mathbf{v_1}, \dots, \mathbf{v_i}\}\$ of length $\leq r$ exist, i.e. $||v_i|| \leq r$ for all $j = 1, \dots, i$.

$$\lambda_i(L(\mathbf{B})) = \inf\{r > 0 \mid \dim(\mathsf{span}(L(\mathbf{B}) \cap B(0,r))) \ge i\}$$

Where:

- \blacksquare B(0,r) denotes the closed ball centdarkred at the origin with radius r
- $L(\mathbf{B}) \cap B(0,r)$ is the set of lattice points contained within this ball

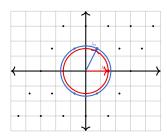
Note: inf denotes the infimum: the largest number that is \leq every element of the set.

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SUCCESSIVE MINIMA

- $\lambda_1(L(\mathbf{B}))$ is the length of the shortest nonzero vector in $L(\mathbf{B})$
 - The shortest vector is not unique, e.g. $\|\mathbf{v}\| = \|-\mathbf{v}\|$
- lacksquare $\lambda_2(L(\mathbf{B}))$ is the radius of the smallest ball containing two linearly independent vectors
- In general, $\lambda_i(L(\mathbf{B}))$ is the radius of the smallest ball containing i linearly independent lattice vectors

The λ_n -ball contains a basis for an n-dimensional lattice



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DUAL LATTICE

29

The dual (or reciprocal) lattice L^* of a lattice $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is defined as:

$$L^* = \{ \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \in L \}$$

That is, the dual lattice consists of all vectors in \mathbb{R}^n that have an integer inner product with every vector L

The basis of L^* is is given by:

$$\mathbf{B}^* = (\mathbf{B}^T)^{-1}$$

MINIMUM DISTANCE OF A LATTICE

The **minimum distance** of a lattice L, denoted by $\lambda(L)$, is the shortest distance between any two points in the lattice. It answers the question:

Q: How close are the closest two points in the grid?

Formally,

$$\lambda(L) = \min_{\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in L, \mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{w}} \|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}\|$$

The lattice minimum distance is also the length of its shortest non-zero vector: $\lambda(L)=\lambda_1(L)$

Note: Since lattice points are discrete, the minimum distance must be > 0, as otherwise the set would not be discrete and would not form a lattice

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KEY TAKEAWAYS

- Lattices are discrete grids of points formed by integer combinations of basis vectors
- The basis of a lattice is not unique, but the determinant (volume of the fundamental parallelepiped) is invariant
 - Good lattice bases are short and nearly orthogonal; bad ones are long or nearly parallel, leading to inefficiency
- The determinant of a lattice represents the "density" of the lattice and plays a crucial role in geometry and applications
- Successive minima provide insights into the structure and density of the lattice

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Additional Resources & Reading	
<pre>https://web.eecs.umich.edu/~cpeikert/pubs/ lattice-survey.pdf</pre>	
https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/ 978-3-642-23082-0_7	
<pre>https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/ 978-3-540-88702-7_5</pre>	
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