In this lecture we define the notion of the dual of a lattice and see some if its applications.
DEFINITION 1 For a full-rank lattice $\Lambda$ we define its dual lattice (sometimes known as the reciprocal lattice)

$$
\Lambda^{*}=\left\{y \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid \forall x \in \Lambda,\langle x, y\rangle \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}
$$

In general, we define

$$
\Lambda^{*}=\{y \in \operatorname{span}(\Lambda) \mid \forall x \in \Lambda,\langle x, y\rangle \in \mathbb{Z}\}
$$

In words, the dual of $\Lambda$ is the set of all points (in the span of $\Lambda$ ) whose inner product with any of the points in $\Lambda$ is integer. As we will show later, $\Lambda^{*}$ is indeed a lattice, as the name suggests.

EXAMPLE 1 The lattice of integer points satisfies $\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)^{*}=\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ (and hence can be called self-dual). Similarly, $\left(2 \mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)^{*}=\frac{1}{2} \mathbb{Z}^{n}$, and this gives some justification to the name reciprocal lattice.

From the above definition, we have the following geometrical interpretation of the dual lattice. For any vector $x$, the set of all points whose inner product with $x$ is integer forms a set of hyperplanes perpendicular to $x$ and separated by distance $1 /\|x\|$. Hence, any vector $x$ in a lattice $\Lambda$ imposes the constraint that all points in $\Lambda^{*}$ lie in one of the hyperplanes defined by $x$. See the next figure for an illustration.


Figure 1: A lattice and its dual

Definition 2 For a basis $B=\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, define the dual basis $D=\left(d_{1}, \ldots, d_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ as the unique basis that satisfies

- $\operatorname{span}(D)=\operatorname{span}(B)$
- $B^{T} D=I$

The second condition can be interpreted as saying that $\left\langle b_{i}, d_{j}\right\rangle=\delta_{i j}$ where $\delta_{i j}=1$ if $i=j$ and 0 otherwise. It is not hard to check that $D$ is indeed unique. In fact, for the case of a full-rank lattice, $D$ is given by $\left(B^{T}\right)^{-1}$; in general, we get $D=B\left(B^{T} B\right)^{-1}$ (and we could use this as our definition of a dual basis).

In the next claim, we show that if $B$ is a basis of a lattice $\Lambda$, then the dual basis of $B$ is a basis of $\Lambda^{*}$. In particular, this shows that $\Lambda^{*}$ is indeed a lattice.

Claim 1 If $D$ is the dual basis of $B$ then $(\mathcal{L}(B))^{*}=\mathcal{L}(D)$.

Proof: We first show that $\mathcal{L}(D)$ is contained in $(\mathcal{L}(B))^{*}$. Any $x \in \mathcal{L}(B)$ can be written as $\sum a_{i} b_{i}$ for some $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore, for any $j$ we have

$$
\left\langle x, d_{j}\right\rangle=\sum_{i} a_{i}\left\langle b_{i}, d_{j}\right\rangle=a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

and we get $D \subseteq(\mathcal{L}(B))^{*}$. It is easy to check that $(\mathcal{L}(B))^{*}$ is closed under addition, hence, $\mathcal{L}(D) \subseteq$ $(\mathcal{L}(B))^{*}$. To complete the proof, we show that $(\mathcal{L}(B))^{*}$ is contained in $\mathcal{L}(D)$. Take any $y \in(\mathcal{L}(B))^{*}$. Since $y \in \operatorname{span}(B)=\operatorname{span}(D)$, we can write $y=\sum a_{i} d_{i}$ for some $a_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$. Now for all $j, \mathbb{Z} \ni\left\langle y, b_{j}\right\rangle=$ $\sum a_{i}\left\langle d_{i}, b_{j}\right\rangle=a_{j}$. Hence, $y \in \mathcal{L}(D)$ and the proof is complete.

Claim 2 For any lattice $\Lambda,\left(\Lambda^{*}\right)^{*}=\Lambda$.
Proof: Let $B$ be a basis of $\Lambda$. Then $B\left(B^{T} B\right)^{-1}$ is a basis of $\Lambda^{*}$ and

$$
\left(B\left(B^{T} B\right)^{-1}\right) \cdot\left(\left(B\left(B^{T} B\right)^{-1}\right)^{T} \cdot B\left(B^{T} B\right)^{-1}\right)^{-1}=B
$$

is a basis of $\left(\Lambda^{*}\right)^{*}$.
The next claim says that the volume of the basic parallelepiped of $\Lambda^{*}$ is the reciprocal of that of $\Lambda$. For example, it implies that the volume of the basic parallelepiped of a self-dual lattice must be 1 (as is the case with $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ ).
Claim 3 For any lattice $\Lambda$, $\operatorname{det}\left(\Lambda^{*}\right)=1 / \operatorname{det}(\Lambda)$.
Proof: For full-rank lattices,

$$
\operatorname{det}\left(\Lambda^{*}\right)=\left|\operatorname{det}\left(\left(B^{T}\right)^{-1}\right)\right|=\left|\frac{1}{\operatorname{det}\left(B^{T}\right)}\right|=\left|\frac{1}{\operatorname{det}(B)}\right|=\frac{1}{\operatorname{det}(\Lambda)}
$$

In general,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{det}\left(\Lambda^{*}\right) & =\sqrt{\operatorname{det}\left(D^{T} D\right)} \\
& =\sqrt{\operatorname{det}\left(\left(\left(B^{T} B\right)^{-1}\right)^{T} B^{T} \cdot B\left(B^{T} B\right)^{-1}\right)} \\
& =\sqrt{\left(\operatorname{det}\left(B^{T} B\right)^{-1}\right)} \\
& =\frac{1}{\sqrt{\operatorname{det}\left(B^{T} B\right)}}=\frac{1}{\operatorname{det}(\Lambda)}
\end{aligned}
$$

The following two claims give some relations between properties of a lattice and that of its dual. Such properties are known as transference theorem. In a few lectures, we will see a considertable strengthening of Claim 4 by Banaszczyk (showing that $\lambda_{1}(\Lambda) \cdot \lambda_{n}\left(\Lambda^{*}\right) \leq n$ ).

CLAIM 4 For any rank $n$ lattice $\Lambda, \lambda_{1}(\Lambda) \cdot \lambda_{1}\left(\Lambda^{*}\right) \leq n$.
Proof: By Minkowski’s bound,

$$
\lambda_{1}(\Lambda) \leq \sqrt{n} \cdot(\operatorname{det}(\Lambda))^{\frac{1}{n}}
$$

and

$$
\lambda_{1}\left(\Lambda^{*}\right) \leq \sqrt{n} \cdot\left(\operatorname{det}\left(\Lambda^{*}\right)\right)^{\frac{1}{n}}=\frac{\sqrt{n}}{(\operatorname{det}(\Lambda))^{\frac{1}{n}}}
$$

CLAIM 5 For any rank $n$ lattice $\Lambda, \lambda_{1}(\Lambda) \cdot \lambda_{n}\left(\Lambda^{*}\right) \geq 1$.
Proof: Let $v \in \Lambda$ be such that $\|v\|=\lambda_{1}(\Lambda)$. Take any set $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ of $n$ linearly independent vectors in $\Lambda^{*}$. Not all of them are orthogonal to $v$. Hence, there exists an $i$ such that $\left\langle x_{i}, v\right\rangle \neq 0$. By the definition of the dual lattice, we have $\left\langle x_{i}, v\right\rangle \in \mathbb{Z}$ and hence $\left\|x_{i}\right\| \geq \frac{1}{\|v\|}$.

For a basis $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}$, let $\pi_{i}$ denote the projection on the space $\operatorname{span}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{i-1}\right)^{\perp}$. In particular, $\pi_{1}\left(b_{1}\right), \ldots, \pi_{n}\left(b_{n}\right)$ is the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization of $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}$.

Claim 6 Let $B, D$ be dual bases. Then, for all $i, B^{\prime}=\left(\pi_{i}\left(b_{i}\right), \ldots, \pi_{i}\left(b_{n}\right)\right)$ and $D^{\prime}=\left(d_{i}, \ldots, d_{n}\right)$ are also dual bases.

Proof: First, notice that $\operatorname{span}\left(B^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{span}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{i-1}\right)^{\perp}$. Moreover, since $d_{i}, \ldots, d_{n}$ are orthogonal to $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{i-1}$ and linearly independent, $\operatorname{span}\left(D^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{span}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{i-1}\right)^{\perp}$. Hence, $\operatorname{span}\left(B^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{span}\left(D^{\prime}\right)$. Finally, we have that for any $j, k \geq i$,

$$
\left\langle d_{j}, \pi_{i}\left(b_{k}\right)\right\rangle=\left\langle d_{j}, b_{k}\right\rangle=\delta_{j k}
$$

where the first equality holds since $d_{j} \in \operatorname{span}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{i-1}\right)^{\perp}$.
CLAIM 7 Let $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}$ be some basis and let $\tilde{b_{1}}, \ldots, \tilde{b_{n}}$ be its Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization. Let $d_{n}, \ldots, d_{1}$ be the dual basis of $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}$ in reverse order and let $\tilde{d}_{n}, \ldots, \tilde{d}_{1}$ be its Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization (using this order). Then for all $i$,

$$
\tilde{d}_{i}=\frac{\tilde{b}_{i}}{\left\|\tilde{b}_{i}\right\|^{2}}
$$

Proof: The proof is by induction on $n$. Assume the claim holds for lattices of rank $n-1$ and let us prove it for lattices of rank $n$. First, notice that $\tilde{b}_{1}=b_{1}$ and $\tilde{d}_{1}$ is the projection of $d_{1}$ on $\operatorname{span}\left(d_{2}, \ldots, d_{n}\right)^{\perp}=$ $\operatorname{span}\left(b_{1}\right)$. Hence, $\tilde{d}_{1} \in \operatorname{span}\left(b_{1}\right)$ and $\left\langle\tilde{d}_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle=\left\langle d_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle=1$. This implies that

$$
\tilde{d}_{1}=\frac{b_{1}}{\left\|b_{1}\right\|^{2}}=\frac{\tilde{b_{1}}}{\left\|\tilde{b_{1}}\right\|^{2}}
$$

We can now complete the proof by applying the inductive hypothesis to the bases $\left(\pi_{2}\left(b_{2}\right), \ldots, \pi_{2}\left(b_{n}\right)\right)$ and $d_{2}, \ldots, d_{n}$. Indeed, Claim 6 says that these are dual bases, and moreover, the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization of the former is $\tilde{b_{2}}, \ldots, \tilde{b_{n}}$.

## 1 Korkine-Zolotarev bases

In this section we define the notion of a Korkine-Zolotarev (KZ) basis. This gives one way to formalize the idea of a 'shortest possible' basis.

DEFINITION 3 For a rank $n$ lattice $\Lambda$, we define its Korkine-Zolotarev ( $K Z$ ) basis $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}$ recursively as follows. We let $b_{1}$ be the shortest vector in $\Lambda$. We then let $\Lambda^{\prime}$ be the lattice given by the projection of $\Lambda$ on the subspace of $\operatorname{span}(\Lambda)$ orthogonal to $b_{1}$. Let $c_{2}, \ldots, c_{n}$ be the KZ basis of $\Lambda^{\prime}$. Define $b_{i}=c_{i}+\alpha_{i} b_{1}$ where $\alpha_{i} \in\left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right]$ is the unique number such that $b_{i} \in \Lambda$.


Figure 2: A lattice and its KZ basis

It is not too difficult to verify that $\Lambda^{\prime}$ is indeed a lattice. Moreover, $b_{1}$ is a primitive vector ${ }^{1}$ in $\Lambda$ (since it is a shortest vector) and hence the vectors $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}$ defined above indeed form a basis of $\Lambda$. The definition is illustrated in Figure 2.

As a first application of Korkine-Zolotarev bases, we prove the following lemma by Lagarias, Lenstra, and Schnorr. Recall that for any basis $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}$, we have that $\min \left(\left\|\tilde{b_{1}}\right\|, \ldots,\left\|\tilde{b_{n}}\right\|\right) \leq \lambda_{1}(\Lambda)$. The lemma says that any lattice has a basis where this lower bound is not far from being tight.
Lemma 8 ([2]) For any lattice $\Lambda$, there exists a basis $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}$ such that

$$
\min \left(\left\|\tilde{b_{1}}\right\|, \ldots,\left\|\tilde{b_{n}}\right\|\right) \geq \frac{1}{n} \cdot \lambda_{1}(\Lambda)
$$

Proof: Let $d_{1}, \ldots, d_{n}$ be a KZ basis of $\Lambda^{*}$ and let $b_{n}, \ldots, b_{1}$ be its dual basis in reverse order. We claim that $b_{n}, \ldots, b_{1}$ satisfies the lemma. By Claim 7, we know that $\tilde{b}_{i}=\frac{\tilde{d}_{i}}{\left\|\tilde{d}_{i}\right\|^{2}}$. Hence, its enough to show that $\max \left(\left\|\tilde{d}_{1}\right\|, \ldots,\left\|\tilde{d}_{n}\right\|\right) \leq \frac{n}{\lambda_{1}(\Lambda)}$. First, $\tilde{d}_{1}$ is the shortest vector in $\Lambda^{*}$. By Claim 4, we have $\left\|\tilde{d}_{1}\right\| \leq \frac{n}{\lambda_{1}(\Lambda)}$. Next, $\tilde{d}_{2}=\pi_{2}\left(d_{2}\right)$ is the shortest vector in $\mathcal{L}\left(\pi_{2}\left(d_{2}\right), \ldots, \pi_{2}\left(d_{n}\right)\right)$. By Claim 6 , the dual of this lattice is $\mathcal{L}\left(b_{2}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)$. But $\lambda_{1}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(b_{2}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)\right) \geq \lambda_{1}(\Lambda)$ (since $\mathcal{L}\left(b_{2}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)$ is a sublattice of $\Lambda$ ) and hence

$$
\left\|\tilde{d}_{2}\right\| \leq \frac{n-1}{\lambda_{1}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)\right)} \leq \frac{n}{\lambda_{1}(\Lambda)} .
$$

We continue similarly for all $i$.
Corollary 9 GapSVP $_{n} \in \mathbf{c o N P}$
Proof: Recall that an instance of $\operatorname{GapSVP}_{n}$ is given by $(B, d)$; it is a Yes instance if $\lambda_{1}(\mathcal{L}(B)) \leq d$ and a No instance if $\lambda_{1}(\mathcal{L}(B))>n \cdot d$. The verifier expects a witness of the form $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$. It accepts if and only if $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$ form a basis of $\mathcal{L}(B)$ (recall that this can be verified efficiently) and $\min \left(\left\|\tilde{v}_{1}\right\|, \ldots,\left\|\tilde{v}_{n}\right\|\right)>d$. If $\lambda_{1}(\mathcal{L}(B))>n \cdot d$ then such a basis exists by Lemma 8 . If $\lambda_{1}(\mathcal{L}(B)) \leq d$ then no such basis exists since $\min \left(\left\|\tilde{v_{1}}\right\|, \ldots,\left\|\tilde{v_{n}}\right\|\right) \leq \lambda_{1}(\mathcal{L}(B)) \leq d$ for any basis.

Using similar techniques, it can be shown that GapCVP ${n^{1.5}}^{\in} \in \mathbf{c o N P}$. We mention that it is by now known that in fact GapCVP $\sqrt{n}^{n}$ and GapSVP ${ }_{\sqrt{n}}$ are both in coNP [1].

We complete this lecture with the following somewhat surprising result by Lenstra and Schnorr. Recall that Minkowski's bound says that for any lattice $\Lambda, \lambda_{1}(\Lambda) \leq \sqrt{n}(\operatorname{det}(\Lambda))^{\frac{1}{n}}$. However, it is easy to see that in many cases Minkowski's bound is far from being tight. Nevertheless, the following lemma implies that being able to find vectors of length at most $\sqrt{n}(\operatorname{det}(\Lambda))^{\frac{1}{n}}$ is enough to imply an $n$-approximation to SVP.

[^0]Lemma 10 Assume there exists an algorithm $A$ that given a basis $B$, finds a non-zero vector $v \in \mathcal{L}(B)$ such that

$$
\|v\| \leq f(n) \cdot(\operatorname{det}(\mathcal{L}(B)))^{\frac{1}{n}}
$$

for some non-decreasing function $f(n)$. Then, we can approximate SVP to within $(f(n))^{2}$.
Proof: By applying $A$ to $\mathcal{L}(B)$ and $\mathcal{L}(B)^{*}$ we obtain $u \in \mathcal{L}(B), v \in \mathcal{L}(B)^{*}$ such that $\|u\| \leq f(n)$. $(\operatorname{det}(\mathcal{L}(B)))^{\frac{1}{n}},\|v\| \leq f(n) \cdot(\operatorname{det}(\mathcal{L}(B)))^{-\frac{1}{n}}$. In particular, $\|u\| \cdot\|v\| \leq(f(n))^{2}$. So the result follows from the following lemma.

Lemma 11 Assume there exists an algorithm $A$ that given a basis $B$, finds non-zero vectors $u \in \mathcal{L}(B)$, $v \in \mathcal{L}(B)^{*}$ such that $\|u\| \cdot\|v\| \leq g(n)$ for some non-decreasing function $g(n)$. Then, we can approximate SVP to within $g(n)$.

Proof: First, we describe a recursive procedure that given a lattice, outputs a set of vectors $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}$ in $\Lambda$ and a basis $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$ of $\Lambda^{*}$. The procedure is recursive. First, apply $A$ to obtain a pair $u_{1}, v_{1}$. Without loss of generality, we can assume that $v_{1}$ is primitive (indeed, write $v_{1}=\sum a_{i} b_{i}$ and replace it by $\left.v_{1} / \operatorname{gcd}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right)$. Let $\Lambda^{\prime}$ be the projection of $\Lambda^{*}$ on the subspace of $\operatorname{span}\left(\Lambda^{*}\right)$ orthogonal to $v_{1}$. Then, apply the procedure recursively to $\Lambda^{\prime}$ and let $u_{2}, \ldots, u_{n}, v_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, v_{n}^{\prime}$ be the result. Define $v_{i}=v_{i}^{\prime}+\alpha_{i} v_{1}$ for the unique $\alpha_{i} \in\left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right]$ for which $v_{i} \in \Lambda^{*}$. This completes the description of the procedure.

It can be checked that the output of the procedure satisfies that $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$ is a basis of $\Lambda^{*}$ and that for all $i,\left\|u_{i}\right\| \cdot\left\|\tilde{v}_{i}\right\| \leq g(n-i+1) \leq g(n)$. Let $b_{n}, \ldots, b_{1}$ be the reversed dual basis of $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$. Then,

$$
\min \left\|\tilde{b_{i}}\right\|=\min \frac{1}{\left\|\tilde{v}_{i}\right\|} \geq \frac{1}{g(n)} \min \left\|u_{i}\right\|
$$

Hence,

$$
\min \left\|u_{i}\right\| \leq g(n) \cdot \min \left\|\tilde{b}_{i}\right\| \leq g(n) \cdot \lambda_{1}(\Lambda)
$$

where we used that $b_{n}, \ldots, b_{1}$ is a basis of $\Lambda$. Therefore, by outputting the shortest vector among $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}$ we obtain a $g(n)$ approximation to SVP.

## References

[1] D. Aharonov and O. Regev. Lattice problems in NP intersect coNP. In Proc. 45 th Annual IEEE Symp. on Foundations of Computer Science (FOCS), pages 362-371, 2004.
[2] J. C. Lagarias, H. W. Lenstra, Jr., and C.-P. Schnorr. Korkin-Zolotarev bases and successive minima of a lattice and its reciprocal lattice. Combinatorica, 10(4):333-348, 1990.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Recall that a primitive vector is a vector $v \in \Lambda$ such that there is no $k \geq 2$ for which $v / k \in \Lambda$

