
NTT & LATTICE

Notes

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1 Introduction

The US National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) started a competition to standardize cryptographic algorithms that are resistant to attacks by quantum computers (PQC) in 2016. The three finalist lattice-based standardized cryptosystems are Dilithium, Falcon and Kyber .

Algo	n	q	ω	ψ
Dilithium	256	8380417	3073009	1753
Falcon	512	12289	3	1321
Falcon	1024	12289	49	12282
Kyber	256	3329	17	-

Kyber uses unfriendly q (ψ doesn't exist)

But the bottleneck of these lattice-based cryptography implementations is its fundamental building block: modular polynomial multiplication, which is a very time-consuming operation. The classical method takes $O(n^2)$.

There are three faster alternatives:

- *Karatsuba algorithm*: Divide and conquers algo which divides the original polynomial into two parts, resulting in $O(n^{\log_2^3})$
- *Toom-Cook algorithm*: Divide and conquers algo which divides the original polynomial into k parts, resulting in $O(n^{\log_k^{2k-1}})$
- *DFT*: We will discuss about this in detail here.

2 DFT

2.1 Difference between NTT and DFT

The fundamental difference between DFT and NTT is the ring they use to transform the polynomial. DFT uses a complex ring with a twiddle factor of $e^{-2\pi j/n}$, whereas NTT uses an integer polynomial ring with a twiddle factor of its n -th root of unity. In NTT, there is no need to implement fixed-point or floating-point arithmetic architecture and also eliminates the precision problem associated with such implementations.

2.2 NTT and its classical version

NTT can be utilized to multiply two polynomials via convolution theorem (more on this later!). The standard method takes $O(n^2)$ but the CT and GS butterflies architecture for FFT has a quasilinear complexity of $O(n \log n)$

3 Convolutions

Just for the sake of lingo, there are three types of convolutions: linear, cyclic, and negacyclic. All the following standard methods have $O(n^2)$ time complexity.

3.1 Linear

Definition 3.1. Polynomial multiplication is equivalent to a **discrete linear convolution** between the coefficients' vectors f and g of two polynomials of degree $n-1$ in the ring $\mathbb{Z}_q[x]$ where $q \in \mathbb{Z}$

Example 3.2. Let $f(x) = 1 + 2x + 3x^2 + 4x^3$ and $g(x) = 5 + 6x + 7x^2 + 8x^3$. The vectors will be $f = [1, 2, 3, 4]$ and $g = [5, 6, 7, 8]$. The output of the linear convolution is $f \times g = [5, 16, 34, 60, 61, 52, 32]$

3.2 Cyclic

Definition 3.3. Let $f, g \in R_q = \frac{\mathbb{Z}_q[x]}{x^n-1}$ where $q \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then **Cyclic convolution** is defined as $f \cdot g = f \times g \mod q \mod x^n - 1$. This is also called *positive wrapped convolution*.

Example 3.4. Let $f(x) = 1 + 2x + 3x^2 + 4x^3$ and $g(x) = 5 + 6x + 7x^2 + 8x^3$. The vectors will be $f = [1, 2, 3, 4]$ and $g = [5, 6, 7, 8]$.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 + 5 \\
 + 32x^2 \\
 \hline
 32x^6 + 52x^5 + 61x^4 + 60x^3 + 34x^2 + 16x + 5 \\
 - 32x^6 \\
 \hline
 52x^5 + 61x^4 + 60x^3 + 66x^2 + 16x \\
 - 52x^5 + 52x \\
 \hline
 61x^4 + 60x^3 + 66x^2 + 68x + 5 \\
 - 61x^4 + 61 \\
 \hline
 60x^3 + 66x^2 + 68x + 66
 \end{array}$$

The output of the cyclic convolution is $f.g = [66, 68, 66, 60]$

Note: The main difference between cyclic and negacyclic is just of the quotient ring.

3.3 Negacyclic

Definition 3.5. Let $f, g \in R_q = \frac{\mathbb{Z}_q[x]}{x^n+1}$ where $q \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then **Negacyclic convolution** is defined as $f \cdot g = f \times g \mod q \mod x^n + 1$. This is also called *negative wrapped convolution*.

Example 3.6. Let $f(x) = 1 + 2x + 3x^2 + 4x^3$ and $g(x) = 5 + 6x + 7x^2 + 8x^3$. The vectors will be $f = [1, 2, 3, 4]$ and $g = [5, 6, 7, 8]$.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 + 5 \\
 - 32x^2 \\
 \hline
 + 52x^5 + 61x^4 + 60x^3 + 2x^2 + 16x \\
 - 52x^5 \\
 \hline
 + 61x^4 + 60x^3 + 2x^2 - 36x + 5 \\
 - 61x^4 \\
 \hline
 + 60x^3 + 2x^2 - 36x - 56
 \end{array}$$

The output of the cyclic convolution is $f.g = [-56, -36, 2, 60]$

4 Direct NTT Method - Vandermonde Matrix

The classical NTT (direct computation) has quadratic complexity as well.

4.1 Primitive n -th root of unity

Definition 4.1. Let Z_q be an integer ring modulo q , and $n - 1$ is the polynomial degree of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$. Such rings have a multiplicative identity (unity) of 1. ω is defined as a **primitive n -th root of unity** in Z_q if and only if:

$$\omega^n \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$$

and

$$\omega^j \not\equiv 1 \pmod{q}$$

for $j < n$.

These roots are not unique and we can use the following code to find all such possible values of ω for the given q and n

```
def primitive_roots(q,n):
    Z_q_star_list = Z_q_star(q)
    w_list = []
    for w in Z_q_star_list:
        if w**n % q == 1 and all(w**j % q != 1 for j in range(1, n)):
            w_list.append(w)
    return w_list
```

4.1.1 NTT using ω

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{NTT}_w(f) &= \begin{bmatrix} f(1) \\ f(\omega) \\ \vdots \\ f(\omega^{n-1}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 + a_1 + \cdots + a_{n-1} \\ \vdots \\ a_0 + a_1\omega^{n-1} + \cdots + a_{n-1}(\omega^{n-1})^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega & \omega^2 & \cdots & \omega^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \omega^{n-1} & (\omega^{n-1})^2 & \cdots & (\omega^{n-1})^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= V(\omega) \cdot c(f)
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 4.2. For the following parameters:

$$\begin{aligned}
 q &= 7 \\
 \mathbb{Z}_q^* &= \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\} \\
 n &= 3 \\
 \omega &= 2 \\
 f(x) &= 1 + 2x + x^2
 \end{aligned}$$

We get the following conversion using the direct method

$$c(f) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{NTT}(f) = \begin{bmatrix} f(1) \\ f(2) \\ f(4) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 + 2 + 1 = 4 \mod 7 \\ 1 + 4 + 4 = 9 \mod 7 \\ 1 + 8 + 16 = 25 \mod 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Implementation of this method is

```

def cycNTT(f, q, w, n):
    ntt = []
    for i in range(n):
        ntt.append(0)
        #we need to calculate f(w^i) for i = 0 to n-1 and store it in
        ↪ ntt[i]
    for j in range(n):
        ntt[i] += f[j]*(w**(i*j))
    ntt[i] = ntt[i]%q
    return ntt

```

4.1.2 Inverse NTT using ω

We take the inverse of n and ω and map the input NTT vector to another vector. Then perform the NTT operation wrt to ω^{-1} on this mapped vector to get the original vector.

$$\begin{aligned}
 c(f) &= V^{-1} \cdot \text{NTT}_w(f) \\
 &= n^{-1} V(\omega^{-1}) \cdot \text{NTT}_w(f) \\
 &= V(\omega^{-1}) \cdot n^{-1} \text{NTT}_w(f) \\
 &= V(\omega^{-1}) \cdot \begin{bmatrix} n^{-1} f(1) \\ n^{-1} f(\omega) \\ \vdots \\ n^{-1} f(\omega^{n-1}) \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 4.3. For the following parameters:

$$n^{-1} = 5$$

$$\omega^{-1} = 4$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 5 \cdot 4 = 20 \Rightarrow 6 \\ 5 \cdot 2 = 10 \Rightarrow 3 \\ 5 \cdot 4 = 20 \Rightarrow 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

This means, we have $g(x) = 6 + 3x + 6x^2$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{NTT}_{\omega^{-1}}(g) &= (g(1), g(\omega), g(\omega^2)) \\
 &= (g(1), g(4), g(2)) \\
 &= (1, 2, 1)
 \end{aligned}$$

Implementation of this method is

```

def cycINTT(ntt, q, w, n):
    nInverse = inverse(n,q)
    print ("nInverse = ",nInverse)
    wInverse = inverse(w,q)
    print ("wInverse = ",wInverse)
    intt = [0]*n
    for i in range(n):
        intt[i] = nInverse*ntt[i] % q
    intt = cycNTT(intt,q,wInverse,n)
    return intt

```


4.1.3 Cyclic Convolution using NTT

Let f and g be the vectors of the polynomial coefficients. The cyclic convolution of f and g , denoted as h , can be calculated by:

$$\mathbf{h} = \text{INTT}(\text{NTT}(\mathbf{f}) \circ \text{NTT}(\mathbf{g})),$$

where \circ represents the element-wise vector multiplication in \mathbb{Z}_q .

Example 4.4. Let $f = [1, 2, 3, 4]$ and $g = [5, 6, 7, 8]$. For \mathbb{Z}_{41} and $\omega = 9$, we have $\text{NTT}(f) = [10, 21, 39, 16]$ and $\text{NTT}(g) = [26, 21, 39, 16]$. Also, note that $n^{-1} = 31 \in \mathbb{Z}_{41}$ and $\omega^{-1} = 32 \in \mathbb{Z}_{41}$.

We can calculate cyclic convolution as follows:

$$\text{INTT} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 21 \\ 39 \\ 16 \end{bmatrix} \circ \begin{bmatrix} 26 \\ 21 \\ 39 \\ 16 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \text{INTT} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 260 \\ 441 \\ 1521 \\ 256 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \text{INTT} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 14 \\ 31 \\ 4 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 66 \\ 68 \\ 66 \\ 60 \end{bmatrix}$$

Implementation of this method is

```
def cycCon(f, g, q, w, n):
    fntt = cycNTT(f, q, w, n)
    gntt = cycNTT(g, q, w, n)
    hntt = [0]*n
    for i in range(n):
        hntt[i] = fntt[i]*gntt[i] % q
    h = cycINTT(hntt, q, w, n)
    return h
```

4.2 Primitive $2n$ -th root of unity

Definition 4.5. Let Z_q be an integer ring modulo q , and $n - 1$ is the polynomial degree of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$, and ω is its primitive n -th root of unity. ψ is defined as the primitive $2n$ -th root of unity if and only if:

$$\psi^2 \equiv \omega \pmod{q}$$

and

$$\psi^n \equiv -1 \pmod{q}$$

Implementation of this method is

```
def primitive_root_2n(q,n,w):
    Z_q_list = []
    for i in range(1,q):
        Z_q_list.append(i)
    psi_list = []
    for psi in Z_q_list:
        if psi**2 % q == w and psi**n % q == q-1:
            psi_list.append(psi)
    print ("psi_list = ",psi_list)
    return psi_list
```

4.2.1 NTT using ψ

$$\begin{aligned} \text{NTT}_\psi(f) &= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \psi^{2ij+i} a_i \pmod{q} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \psi & \psi^2 & \dots & \psi^{n-1} \\ 1 & \psi^3 & \psi^6 & \dots & \psi^{3(n-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ 1 & \psi^{2n-1} & \psi^{2(2n-1)} & \dots & \psi^{(2n-1)(n-1)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= V_{\text{odd}}(\psi) \cdot c(f) \end{aligned}$$

Example 4.6. For the following parameters:

$$q = 17$$

$$n = 4$$

$$\omega = 4$$

$$\psi = 15$$

$$f(x) = 1 + 2x + 3x^2 + 4x^3$$

We get the following conversion

$$c(f) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{NTT}^\psi(f) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 15 & 15^2 & 15^3 \\ 1 & 15^3 & 15^6 & 15^9 \\ 1 & 15^5 & 15^{10} & 15^{15} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 11 \\ 16 \\ 15 \\ 13 \end{bmatrix}$$

Implementation of this method is

```
def negacycNTT(f, q, psi, n):
    ntt = []
    for j in range(n):
        ntt.append(0)
        for i in range(n):
            ntt[j] += f[i]*(psi**((2*i*j)+i))
        ntt[j] = ntt[j]%q
    return ntt
```

4.2.2 INTT using ψ

$$\begin{aligned} \text{INTT}_\psi(f) &= n^{-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \psi^{-(2ij+i)} \hat{a}_j \pmod{q} \\ &= n^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \psi^{-1} & \psi^{-2} & \dots & \psi^{-(n-1)} \\ 1 & \psi^{-3} & \psi^{-6} & \dots & \psi^{-3(n-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ 1 & \psi^{-(2n-1)} & \psi^{-2(2n-1)} & \dots & \psi^{-(2n-1)(n-1)} \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} \hat{a}_0 \\ \hat{a}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{a}_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= V_{\text{odd}}(\psi)^T \cdot \text{NTT}^\psi(f) \end{aligned}$$

Example 4.7. For the following parameters:

$$n^{-1} = 13$$

$$\psi^{-1} = 8$$

$$\text{INTT}^{\psi^{-1}}(f) = 4^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 15^{-1} & 15^{-2} & 15^{-3} \\ 1 & 15^{-3} & 15^{-6} & 15^{-9} \\ 1 & 15^{-5} & 15^{-10} & 15^{-15} \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} 11 \\ 16 \\ 15 \\ 13 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Implementation of this method is

```
def negacycINTT(ntt, q, psi, n):
    nInverse = inverse(n,q)
    print ("nInverse = ",nInverse)
    psiInverse = inverse(psi,q)
    print ("psiInverse = ",psiInverse)

    intt = []
    for i in range(n):
        intt.append(0)
        for j in range(n):
            intt[i] += ntt[j]*(psiInverse**((2*i*j)+i))
        intt[i] = (intt[i]*nInverse)%q
    return intt
```

4.2.3 Negacyclic Convolution using NTT^ψ

Let f and g be the vectors of polynomial coefficients. The negacyclic convolution of f and g , denoted as h , can be calculated by:

$$\mathbf{h} = \text{INTT}_{\psi^{-1}}(\text{NTT}_{\psi}(\mathbf{f}) \circ \text{NTT}_{\psi}(\mathbf{g})),$$

where \circ represents the element-wise vector multiplication in Z_q .

Note: This is what we did as isomorphism method.

Example 4.8. Let $f = [1, 2, 3, 4]$ and $g = [5, 6, 7, 8]$. For \mathbb{Z}_{17} and $\omega = 4, \psi = 15$, we have $NTT(f) = [11, 16, 15, 13]$ and $NTT(g) = [8, 15, 7, 7]$. Also, note that $n^{-1} = 13 \in \mathbb{Z}_{17}$ and $\psi^{-1} = 8 \in \mathbb{Z}_{17}$.

We can calculate cyclic convolution as follows:

$$INTT \left(\begin{bmatrix} 11 \\ 16 \\ 15 \\ 13 \end{bmatrix} \circ \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 15 \\ 7 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} \right) = INTT \left(\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 12 \\ 15 \\ 2 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

Implementation of this method is

```
def negacycCon(f,g, psi, q, n):
    fntt = negacycNTT(f,q,psi,n)
    gntt = negacycNTT(g,q,psi,n)
    hntt = []
    for i in range(n):
        hntt.append((fntt[i]*gntt[i])%q)
    h = negacycINTT(hntt,q,psi,n)
    return h
```

5 Bit Reversal

Example 5.1. For $n = 4$, we have the following table

Index	Binary	Bit reversed	In decimal
0	00	00	0
1	01	10	2
2	10	01	1
3	11	11	3

Implementation is as follows:

```
#Input: list f
#Output: list f_rev such that f_rev[i] = f[bit_reversal(i)]
def bit_reversal(f):
    n = len(f)
    k = int(math.log(n,2))
    f_rev = []
    for i in range(n):
        f_rev.append(0)
    for i in range(n):
        f_rev[i] = f[int(bin(i)[2:].zfill(k)[::-1],2)]
    return f_rev
```

6 Quasilinear Methods

To reduce the complexity and fasten the process of the matrix multiplication needed for the NTT transformation, we can use 'divide and conquer' techniques by utilizing the periodicity and symmetry properties of the primitive roots.

6.1 Cooley-Tukey (CT) Algorithm

6.1.1 Recursive - NTT

Algorithm 1 Recursive Cooley-Tukey (CT) Algorithm

```

function RECURSIVECT( $f, w, q$ )
   $n \leftarrow$  length of  $f$ 
  if  $n = 1$  then
    return  $f$ 
  else
     $r_1 \leftarrow []$ 
     $r_2 \leftarrow []$ 
    for  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $n$  do
      if  $i \bmod 2 = 0$  then
         $r_1.append(f[i])$ 
      else
         $r_2.append(f[i])$ 
      end if
    end for
     $r_1 \leftarrow \text{recursiveCT}(r_1, (w^2) \bmod q, q)$ 
     $r_2 \leftarrow \text{recursiveCT}(r_2, (w^2) \bmod q, q)$ 
     $r \leftarrow [0] * n$ 
    for  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $n/2$  do
       $r[i] \leftarrow (r_1[i] + \text{pow}(w, i, q) \times r_2[i]) \bmod q$ 
       $r[i + n/2] \leftarrow (r_1[i] - \text{pow}(w, i, q) \times r_2[i]) \bmod q$ 
    end for
    return  $r$ 
  end if
end function

```

6.1.2 Iterative - NTT

The main idea is to calculate similar terms once and then distribute the results instead of calculating them multiple times.

We can observe the following properties of ψ ,

$$\text{Periodicity: } \psi^{k+2n} = \psi^k$$

$$\text{Symmetry: } \psi^{k+n} = -\psi^k$$

Add example and maybe mathematical understanding here - will need to redo this probably

where $k \geq 0$. Now based on this, we can use the NTT notation from negacyclic version. Recall that, $NTT^\psi(f) = \hat{a}$

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{a}_j &= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \psi^{2ij+i} a_i \pmod{q} \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{n/2-1} \psi^{4ij+2i} a_{2i} + \sum_{i=0}^{n/2-1} \psi^{4ij+2i+2j+1} a_{2i+1} \pmod{q} \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{n/2-1} \psi^{4ij+2i} a_{2i} + \psi^{2j+1} \sum_{i=0}^{n/2-1} \psi^{4ij+2i} a_{2i+1} \pmod{q}\end{aligned}$$

Let $A_j = \sum_{i=0}^{n/2-1} \psi^{4ij+2i} a_{2i}$ and $B_j = \sum_{i=0}^{n/2-1} \psi^{4ij+2i} a_{2i+1} \pmod{q}$. Then, using the symmetry we have,

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{a}_j &= A_j + \psi^{2j+1} B_j \pmod{q} \\ \hat{a}_{j+n/2} &= A_j - \psi^{2j+1} B_j \pmod{q}\end{aligned}$$

6.2 Gentleman-Sande (GS) Algorithm

CT is odd-even divide and GS is upper-lower half divide. We generally use CT for NTT and GS for INTT (**why tho?**)

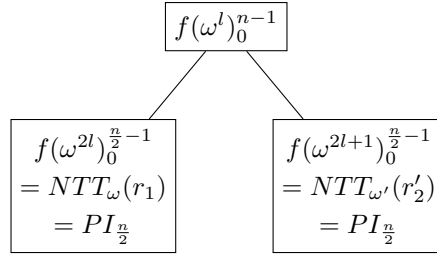
6.2.1 Recursive - NTT

Let's define the problem as follows:

Input: $f(x) \in R_q, \omega$

Output: $f(\omega^l)_0^{n-1}$

Problem Instance:



$$\begin{aligned}f(x) &= (x^{\frac{n}{2}} + 1)q_2(x) + r_2(x) \\ f(\omega^{2l+1}) &= ((\omega^{2l+1})^{\frac{n}{2}} + 1)q_2(\omega^{2l+1}) + r_2(\omega^{2l+1}) \\ &= r_2(\omega^{2l+1}) \\ &= r'_2(\omega'^l)\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$f(x) = (x^{\frac{n}{2}} + 1)F_1 + (F_0 - F_1)$$

Remarks:

- If ω is the n -th root, then ω^2 is the $\frac{n}{2}$ -th root
- $\omega^{\frac{n}{2}} + 1 = 0$ and $r'_2(x) = r_2(\omega x)$

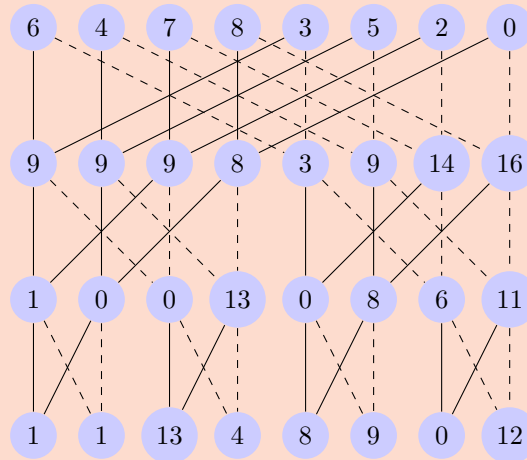
Algorithm 2 NTT based on the Gentleman-Sande (GS)

```

1: function RECURSIVEGS( $f, w, q$ )
2:    $n \leftarrow \text{length of } f$ 
3:   if  $n = 1$  then
4:     return  $f$ 
5:   else
6:      $r_1 \leftarrow []$ 
7:      $r_2 \leftarrow []$ 
8:     for  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $n/2$  do
9:        $r_1.\text{append}((f[i] + f[i + n/2]) \bmod q)$ 
10:       $r_2.\text{append}((f[i] - f[i + n/2]) \times \text{pow}(w, i, q) \bmod q)$ 
11:    end for
12:     $r_1 \leftarrow \text{recursiveGS}(r_1, (w^2) \bmod q, q)$ 
13:     $r_2 \leftarrow \text{recursiveGS}(r_2, (w^2) \bmod q, q)$ 
14:     $r \leftarrow r_1 + r_2$ 
15:    return  $r$ 
16:  end if
17: end function

```

Example 6.1. (Butterfly Algo) Let $n = 8 = 2^3$. $q = 17$



6.2.2 Iterative - INTT

check math
again - prob-
ably some
error here

Recall that $a = INTT(\hat{a})$. Ignoring n^{-1} , we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\hat{a}_i &= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \psi^{-(2j+1)i} \hat{a}_j \pmod{q} \\
&= \sum_{j=0}^{n/2-1} \psi^{-(2j+1)i} \hat{a}_j + \sum_{j=n/2}^{n-1} \psi^{-(2j+1)(i+n/2)} \hat{a}_{j+n/2} \pmod{q} \\
&= \psi^{-i} \left[\sum_{j=0}^{n/2-1} \psi^{-2ij} \hat{a}_j + \sum_{j=0}^{n/2-1} \psi^{-2j(i+n/2)} \hat{a}_{j+n/2} \right] \pmod{q}
\end{aligned}$$

For the even term,

$$a_{2i} = \psi^{-2i} \sum_{j=0}^{n/2-1} [\hat{a}_j + \hat{a}_{j+n/2}] \psi^{-4ij} \pmod{q}$$

For the odd term,

$$a_{2i+1} = \psi^{-2i} \sum_{j=0}^{n/2-1} [\hat{a}_j - \hat{a}_{j+n/2}] \psi^{-4ij} \pmod{q}$$

Let $A_i = \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{n}{2}-1} \hat{a}_j \psi^{-4ij}$ and $B_i = \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{n}{2}-1} \hat{a}_{j+n/2} \psi^{-4ij}$.

$$\begin{aligned}
a_{2i} &= (A_i + B_i) \psi^{-2i} \pmod{q} \\
a_{2i+1} &= (A_i - B_i) \psi^{-2i} \pmod{q}
\end{aligned}$$

7 Polynomial Multiplication

For polynomial multiplication, do the following:

code

1. Use CT butterflies to transform inputs to the NTT domain
2. Then element-wise multiply NTT outputs
3. The result is then transformed back using GS butterflies for INTT.

By reducing mathematical operations quasi-linearly, this approach reduces polynomial multiplication complexity from $O(n^2)$ to $O(n \log n)$.

$$\begin{aligned}
f &\rightarrow NTT(f) \\
g &\rightarrow NTT(g) \\
NTT(f) \cdot NTT(g) &= NTT(f \cdot g) \\
INTT(f \cdot g) &\rightarrow f \cdot g
\end{aligned}$$

This takes $O(n \log n) + O(n) + O(n \log n) = O(n \log n)$

Theorem 7.1. (Convolution theorem)

$$NTT(fg) = NTT(f) \cdot NTT(g)$$

Proof. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} NTT(fg) &= (fg(1), fg(\omega), \dots, fg(\omega^{n-1})) \\ NTT(f) &= (f(1), f(\omega), \dots, f(\omega^{n-1})) \\ NTT(g) &= (g(1), g(\omega), \dots, g(\omega^{n-1})) \\ \implies fg(\omega^i) &= f(\omega^i)g(\omega^i) \forall i \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_n g_n &= (x^n - 1)q(x) + r(x) \\ \implies fg &= r(x) = f(x)g(x) - (x^n - 1)q(x) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} fg(\omega^i) &= r(\omega^i) \\ &= f(\omega^i)g(\omega^i) - ((\omega^i)^n - 1)q(\omega^i) \\ &= f(\omega^i)g(\omega^i) \end{aligned}$$

□

8 Modular Reduction

By now, we can clearly notice that all the CT and GS butterflies operators require modular arithmetic. But this is not a standard operation for most platforms.

While modular added can be implemented using a set of adders, subtractors, and multiplexers, modular multiplication uses trial division, which is inefficient, not scalable, and difficult to implement in hardware architecture.

The following algorithm is the most popular workaround to solve this.

8.1 Barrett reduction

The main idea behind Barrett reduction is to approximate the division by the modulus using pre-computed values (since q is generally standard/fixed, we can pre-computed k, r, μ), which allows for faster modular multiplication.

8.1.1 Modular Multiplication by Barrett Reduction

Given, $a, b, q \in \mathbb{Z}$, we can calculate the following:

1. $k = \lceil \log_2 q \rceil$: number of bits in q
2. $r = 2^k$
3. $\mu = \lfloor \frac{r^2}{q} \rfloor$

$$4. z = a \times b$$

Algorithm 3 Barrett reduction

```

1:  $m_1 \leftarrow \lfloor \frac{z}{r} \rfloor$ 
2:  $m_2 \leftarrow m_1 \times \mu$ 
3:  $m_3 \leftarrow \lfloor \frac{m_2}{r} \rfloor$ 
4:  $t \leftarrow z - m_3 \times q$ 
5: if  $t \geq q$  then
6:   return  $t - q$ 
7: else
8:   return  $t$ 
9: end if

```

8.1.2 Speeding up the NTT using Modular Reduction

Since we need primitive $2n$ -th roots of unity to exist \pmod{q} , we have to choose the value of $q \ni q \equiv 1(2n)$.

Then $q = k \cdot 2^m + 1$.

$$\begin{aligned}
&0 \leq a, b \leq q \\
&a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_q \\
&c = a \cdot b \\
&0 \leq c < q^2 = k^2 2^{2m} + k \cdot 2^{m+1} + 1
\end{aligned}$$

We need to find $C \pmod{q}$. We will use the fact that $k \cdot 2^m = -1 \pmod{q}$

$$\begin{aligned}
&C = C_0 + 2^m C_1, 0 \leq C_0 < 2^m \\
\Rightarrow C_1 &= \frac{C - C_0}{2^m} \\
\Rightarrow 0 &\leq C_1 < C \\
\text{Note that, } C &= \frac{k^2 2^{2m} + 2k 2^m + 1}{2^m} \\
&= k^2 2^m + 2k + \frac{1}{2^m} \\
&= kq + k + \frac{1}{2^m} \\
\Rightarrow 0 &\leq C_1 < kq + k + \frac{1}{2^m}
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}
&\boxed{C = C_0 + 2^m C_1} \\
&\boxed{0 \leq C_0 < 2^m} \\
&\boxed{0 \leq C_1 < kq + k + \frac{1}{2^m}}
\end{aligned}$$

We know that $C = C_0 + 2^m C_1$, multiplying both sides by k ,

$$\begin{aligned}
kC &= kC_0 + k2^m C_1 \\
&= kC_0 + k2^m C_1 + C_1 - C_1 \\
&= qC_1 + (kC_0 - C_1) \\
\implies &\boxed{kC \equiv kC_0 - C_1 \pmod{q}}
\end{aligned}$$

This gives an absolute bound,

$$|kC_0 - C_1| < \left(k + \frac{1}{2^m}\right) q$$

For $C_0 = 0$ and $C_1 = k(q - 1)$, we get the max value of C as follows:

$$C_{max} = (q - 1)^2$$

Hence, $(k - 1)q$ must be added to $kC_0 - C_1$ to fully reduce the result.

Algorithm 4 K-RED function

```

function K-RED( $C$ )
   $C_0 \leftarrow C \pmod{2^m}$ 
   $C_1 \leftarrow C/2^m$ 
  return  $kC_0 - C_1$ 
end function

```

insert some
example
here for
the func-
tion maybe

9 Introduction to Lattice

We can define a lattice, L using it's dimension (m) and rank (n).

Definition 9.1. $L \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is known as a **lattice** if it satisfies the following properties:

- L is discrete
- L is an additive subgroup of \mathbb{R}^m

Example 9.2. $\mathbb{Z}^m \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is called an integer lattice

Note: Lattices are the infinite objects

Theorem 9.3. Suppose $L \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then L is called lattice if and only if \exists linearly independent $\bar{b}_1, \bar{b}_2, \dots, \bar{b}_n \in \mathbb{R}^m (n \leq m)$ such that

$$L = \{x_1\bar{b}_1 + x_2\bar{b}_2 + \dots + x_n\bar{b}_n \mid x_i \in \mathbb{Z}^n\}$$

Here, n is called the rank of the lattice.

Proof. (\Leftarrow) If there exists linearly independent $\bar{b}_1, \bar{b}_2, \dots, \bar{b}_n \in \mathbb{R}^m (n \leq m)$ such that $L = \{x_1\bar{b}_1 + x_2\bar{b}_2 + \dots + x_n\bar{b}_n \mid x_i \in \mathbb{Z}^n\}$, then we can say that L is discrete because x_i are integers and hence discrete. We can also easily show that L is a group and hence, additive subgroup of \mathbb{R}^m

(\Rightarrow) _____ □

will come
back later!

$$L = \{B\bar{x} \mid \bar{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^n\}$$

where $B = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{b}_1 & \bar{b}_2 & \dots & \bar{b}_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n}$

From the above theorem, we can propose an alternative definition of a lattice as

Definition 9.4. If $\exists B_{m \times n} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ then $L(m, n)$ is defined as the lattice such that

$$L = \{Bx \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}^n\}$$

and

$$L = \langle B \rangle$$

Remark: When $m = n$, L is called a full rank lattice.

Proposition 9.5. Unimodular matrices satisfy the following properties:

1. If U is unimodular, then U^{-1} is also unimodular.
2. If U and V are unimodular, then UV is also unimodular.
3. $U \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$ is unimodular if and only if $\det(U) = \pm 1$.

Theorem 9.6. Let $B_{m \times n} = B'_{m \times n} U_{n \times n}$ for the two basis B and B' and an unimodular matrix U . Then $\mathcal{L}(B) = \mathcal{L}(B')$

Proof. For $y \in \mathcal{L}(B)$ we can say

$$\begin{aligned} y &= B\bar{x} \\ &= B'U\bar{x} \\ &= B'x' \end{aligned}$$

$\implies y \in \mathcal{L}(B')$ and hence $\mathcal{L}(B) \subseteq \mathcal{L}(B')$. For $y \in \mathcal{L}(B)$ we can say

$$\begin{aligned} y &= B'\bar{x}' \\ &= BU^{-1}\bar{x}' \\ &= Bx \end{aligned}$$

$\implies y \in \mathcal{L}(B)$ and hence $\mathcal{L}(B') \subseteq \mathcal{L}(B)$

Therefore, $\mathcal{L}(B) = \mathcal{L}(B')$ □

9.1 Successive minima

Definition 9.7. Let $L = \mathcal{L}(B)$ for $B_{m \times n}$. For $1 \leq i \leq n$, the **minimum distance** λ is defined as

$$\lambda_i = \min\{r \mid \dim(\text{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(B_r(0) \cap L)) \geq i\}$$

Remark: λ_1 is the length of the shortest vector. For \mathbb{Z}^m , $\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_1 = 1, \dots, \lambda_m = 1$,

Theorem 9.8. Hermite's Theorem For any lattice L , we have

$$\lambda_1(L) \leq \sqrt{m} \cdot \det(L)^{1/m}$$

where $\det(L) = |\det(B)|$.

Alternatively, $\exists v \in L/\{0\}$ such that

$$\|v\| \leq \sqrt{m} \cdot \det(L)^{1/m}$$

where $\det(L) = |\det(B)|$.

Gaussian Heuristic gives the closer approximation as follows:

$$\lambda_1(L) \approx \sqrt{\frac{m}{2\pi e}} \cdot \det(L)^{1/m}$$

9.2 Shortest Vector Problems

Simply, we need to find a nonzero vector in a lattice.

The **Shortest Vector Problem** is the problem of finding the shortest nonzero $v \in L$. We denote the length of such a vector as $\lambda_1(L)$.

Given $\gamma \geq 1$, the γ -SVP is the problem of finding a nonzero $v \in L$ such that $\|v\| \leq \gamma \cdot \lambda_1(L)$.

Algorithm 5 Exact Shortest Vector Problem

Input: $L = \mathcal{L}(B), B_{m \times n}$

Output: $v \in L \ni \|v\| = \lambda_1(L)$

Algorithm 6 Approximate Shortest Vector Problem

Input: $L = \mathcal{L}(B), B_{m \times n}, \gamma > 0$

Output: $v \in L \ni \|v\| \leq \gamma \cdot \lambda_1(L)$

The **Closest Vector Problem** is the problem of, given $t \in \mathbb{R}^n$, finding $v \in L$ which minimizes $\|t - v\|$. Let v_0 be such a vector. Given $\gamma \geq 1$, the γ -CVP is the problem of finding $v \in L$ such that $\|t - v\| \leq \gamma \cdot \|t - v_0\|$.

Algorithm 7 Approximate Closest Vector Problem

Input: $L = \mathcal{L}(B), t \in \mathbb{R}^m, \gamma > 0$

Output: $v \in L \ni \|v - t\| \leq \gamma \|v - t\|$

The main method for attacking these problems is lattice reduction. We assume that L is given by a basis b_1, \dots, b_n . A lattice reduction algorithm takes this basis as input and outputs a good basis. Informally, "good" means more useful for solving the above lattice problems. The ideal situation is if we can find an orthogonal basis. Of course, this may not be possible, so instead, we wish to find as close to an orthogonal basis as possible.

We can't use Gram-Schmidt here because it converts B to B^* where B^* are orthogonal but $v \in B^*$ might not even be a lattice vector. Hence the following algorithms.

10 Lattice basis Reduction Algorithms

10.1 Lenstra–Lenstra–Lovász (LLL)

A lattice basis B is LLL-reduced if the following two conditions are met:

1. For every $i < j$, we have $|\mu_{i,j}| \leq \frac{1}{2}$. Let's call this "size-reduced" basis.
2. For every $1 \leq i < n$, we have $\frac{3}{4} \|\mathbf{b}'_i\|^2 \leq \|\mu_{i,i+1} \mathbf{b}'_i + \mathbf{b}'_{i+1}\|^2$

The LLL algorithm works as follows: given an integral input basis $B \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$, do the following:

1. Compute \mathbf{B}' , the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalized vectors of B .
2. Let $B \leftarrow \text{SizeReduce}(B)$.
3. If there exists $1 \leq i < n$ for which the condition 2 is violated, i.e., $\frac{3}{4}\|\mathbf{b}'_i\|^2 > \|\mu_{i,i+1}\mathbf{b}'_i + \mathbf{b}'_{i+1}\|^2$, then swap \mathbf{b}_i and \mathbf{b}_{i+1} and go back to Step 1. Otherwise, output B .

If B is LLL-reduced then $\|b_1\| \leq 2^{\frac{m-1}{2}} \gamma_1(L)$.

10.2 Block Korkine-Zolotarev (BKZ)

This is similar to LLL, but uses the block $k \in \{2, \dots, m\}$. For $k = 2$, this is LLL. For $k = m$, it is GKZ.

11 Short Integer Solution (SIS)

Algorithm 8 $\text{SIS}_{q,m,n,\beta}$

Input: $A \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}, \beta > 0$

Output: $v \in \mathbb{Z}^m / \{0\} \ni Av \bmod q = 0, \|v\| < \beta$

Now, thinking of this as a linear algebra problem, we need to find a vector v of dimension m such that it satisfies the given constraints. Consider the following:

$$e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A \cdot e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ a_{31} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \end{bmatrix}$$

To ensure $A \cdot e_1 \bmod q = 0$ we can multiply e_1 with q . Let $e' = qe_1$. Then $A \cdot e' \bmod q = 0$. This is a trivial solution that satisfies a part of the problem. This means $\beta < q$ for SIS to have a non-trivial solution.

11.1 q-Ary Lattice

Definition 11.1. For a prime q and $A \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ for $m \gg n$, $\Lambda \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^m$ is called **q-Ary** if

$$\Lambda = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}^m \mid Ax = 0 \pmod{q}\}$$

We can show that Λ is lattice as follows:

1. It is discrete
2. Λ is a additive subgroup

Also note that Λ_q^1 is a full rank (rank = m) matrix and,

$$\lambda_1(\Lambda_q^1) \approx \sqrt{m} \cdot \det(\Lambda_q^1)^{1/m}$$

where $\det(\Lambda_q^1) = q^n$. Hence,

$$\lambda_1(\Lambda_q^1) \approx \sqrt{m} \cdot q^{n/m}$$

Now if $\beta < \sqrt{m} \cdot q^{n/m}$ then the solution might not exists and if $\beta \gg \sqrt{m} \cdot q^{n/m}$ then it could be a trivial problem. Hence we want the following:

11.2. $\sqrt{m} \cdot q^{n/m} < \beta < q$

One way to compute the basis of the lattice is as follows:

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & A_2 \end{bmatrix}$, where $A_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$ and $A_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times (m-n)}$.

Let $H = \begin{bmatrix} (-A^{-1}A_2) & qI_n \\ I_{(m-n) \times (m-n)} & 0_{(m-n) \times n} \end{bmatrix}_{m \times m}$.

Theorem 11.3. $\langle H \rangle = \Lambda_q^1$

Proof.

□

will typeset
later!

Appendices

A NTT Basics - From Lecture Notes

For some $q \in \mathbb{N}$, we can define

$$R_q = \frac{\mathbb{Z}_q[x]}{x^n - 1}$$

Here R_q is a ring of polynomials with coefficients in \mathbb{Z}_q modulo $x^n - 1$. The degree of these polynomials is less than n . Number of elements in R_q is q^n .

Let $f, g \in R_q$. Then $f \cdot g \in R_q$ is defined as $f \cdot g = f \times g \bmod q \bmod x^n - 1$ and $f + g = (f + g) \bmod q$

$$h = fg = (x^n - 1)q(x) + r(x) \implies h \bmod (x^n - 1) = r(x)$$

We want to optimize the multiplication of polynomials in R_q , i.e. $f \cdot g$ should take $O(n \log n)$ time, not $O(n^2)$.

Definition A.1. Let $f \in R_q, \omega \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$. The order of $\omega = n \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$. This means ω is relatively prime to q .

$$\omega^n = 1 \bmod q$$

$$\text{DFT}_\omega(f) = (f(1), f(\omega), f(\omega^2), \dots, f(\omega^{n-1})) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$$

B Another Ring: $\mathbb{Z}_q[x] / \langle x^n + 1 \rangle$

Let $f, g \in R_q$. We have $q \equiv 1(2n), n = 2^k, k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Let $H \leq \mathbb{Z}_q^*, |H| = 2n = 2^{k+1}$ and $\langle H \rangle = \{1, \omega, \omega^2, \dots, \omega^{2n-1}\}$

Definition B.1. Number of generators of $H = \phi(2n)$

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(2n) &= \phi(2^{k+1}) \\ &= 2^{kn} - 2^k \\ &= 2^k(2 - 1) \\ &= n \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the generators of H are $\{\omega, \omega^3, \omega^5, \dots, \omega^{2n-1}\}$

Since, ω is the primitive root of unity of order $2n$, $\omega^{2n} - 1 = 0 \implies \omega^n - 1 = 0$

$$x^n + 1 = (x - \omega)(x - \omega^3)(x - \omega^5) \cdots (x - \omega^{2n-1})$$

B.1 Isomorphism

Let us define an isomorphism I as follows:

$$I : \frac{\mathbb{Z}_q[x]}{\langle x^n + 1 \rangle} \cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}_q[x]}{\langle x - \omega \rangle} \times \frac{\mathbb{Z}_q[x]}{\langle x - \omega^3 \rangle} \cdots \frac{\mathbb{Z}_q[x]}{\langle x - \omega^{2n-1} \rangle}$$

$$f \mapsto I(f)$$

$$g \mapsto I(g)$$

$$fg \mapsto I(f)I(g)$$

$$I(fg) \mapsto fg$$

$$fg = I^{-1}(I(f) \cdot I(g))$$

B.2. How to compute I ?

Input: f

Output: $I(f) = f(\omega^{2l+1})_0^{n-1}$

Define:

$$\begin{aligned} f' &= f(\omega x) \\ f(\omega^{2l+1}) &= f(\omega \cdot \omega^{2l}) \\ &= f'(\omega^{2l}) \\ &= f'(\bar{\omega}^l) \end{aligned}$$

$$fg = (1, \bar{\omega}^{-1}, (\bar{\omega}^{-1})^2, \dots, (\bar{\omega}^{-1})^{n-1}) \cdot NTT_{\bar{\omega}}(n^{-1} \cdot NTT_{\bar{\omega}}(f') \cdot NTT_{\bar{\omega}}(g'))$$