

Lattice-based Locality Sensitive Hashing is Optimal*

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Abstract

Locality sensitive hashing (LSH) was introduced by Indyk and Motwani (STOC '98) to give the first sublinear time algorithm for the c -approximate nearest neighbor (ANN) problem using only polynomial space. At a high level, an LSH family hashes “nearby” points to the same bucket and “far away” points to different buckets. The quality of measure of an LSH family is its LSH exponent, which helps determine both query time and space usage.

In a seminal work, Andoni and Indyk (FOCS '06) constructed an LSH family based on *random ball partitionings* of space that achieves an LSH exponent of $1/c^2$ for the ℓ_2 norm, which was later shown to be optimal by Motwani, Naor and Panigrahy (SIDMA '07) and O'Donnell, Wu and Zhou (TOCT '14). Although optimal in the LSH exponent, the ball partitioning approach is computationally expensive. So, in the same work, Andoni and Indyk proposed a simpler and more practical hashing scheme based on *Euclidean lattices* and provided computational results using the 24-dimensional Leech lattice. However, no theoretical analysis of the scheme was given, thus leaving open the question of finding the exponent of lattice based LSH.

In this work, we resolve this question by showing the existence of lattices achieving the optimal LSH exponent of $1/c^2$ using techniques from the geometry of numbers. At a more conceptual level, our results show that optimal LSH space partitions can have *periodic structure*. Understanding the extent to which additional structure can be imposed on these partitions, e.g. to yield low space and query complexity, remains an important open problem.

1998 ACM Subject Classification E.1 Data Structures

Keywords and phrases Locality Sensitive Hashing, Approximate Nearest Neighbor Search, Random Lattices

Digital Object Identifier 10.4230/LIPIcs.ITCS.2018.42

1 Introduction

Nearest neighbor search (NNS) is a fundamental problem in data structure design. Here, we are given a database P of n points in a metric space X , and the goal is to build a data structure that can quickly return a closest point in the database to any queried target. In

* A full version of the paper is available at <https://arxiv.org/abs/1712.08558>.



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9th Innovations in Theoretical Computer Science Conference (ITCS 2018).

Editor: Anna R. Karlin; Article No. 42; pp. 42:1–42:18

Leibniz International Proceedings in Informatics



LIPICs Schloss Dagstuhl – Leibniz-Zentrum für Informatik, Dagstuhl Publishing, Germany

its exact form, the problem is known to suffer from the curse of dimensionality, where data structures that beat brute force search (i.e. a linear scan through the data points) require either space or query time exponential in the dimension of the space X . To circumvent this issue, Indyk and Motwani [20] studied a relaxed version of NNS which allowed for both *approximation* and *randomization*. In (c, r) -approximate nearest neighbor search (ANN), we are given an approximation factor $c \geq 1$ and distance threshold $r > 0$, where we must guarantee that for a query q , if $d_X(q, P) \leq r$ then the data structure returns $p \in P$ such that $d_X(q, p) \leq cr$. When we allow randomization, we only require that any fixed query succeeds with good probability over the randomness used to construct the data structure.

In order to address ANN, Indyk and Motwani introduced the concept of Locality Sensitive Hashing (LSH). A locality sensitive hash function maps “nearby” points together and “far away” points apart. Indyk and Motwani showed that such LSH function families can be used to build data structures with both sublinear query time and subquadratic space for ANN. LSH is now one of the most popular methods for solving ANN and has found many applications in areas such as cryptanalysis [23, 10], information retrieval and machine learning (see [29] for a survey). Important metric spaces for LSH include $\{0, 1\}^d$ or \mathbb{R}^d under ℓ_1 or ℓ_2 -norms, and the sphere S^{d-1} under angular distance. In this work, we focus on \mathbb{R}^d under the ℓ_2 -norm.

Let \mathcal{H} be a family of functions with an associated probability distribution. An LSH family \mathcal{H} is (c, r, p_1, p_2) -sensitive for X if a randomly chosen hash function h from \mathcal{H} maps any two points in X at distance at most r to the same bucket with probability at least p_1 and any two points in X at distance at least cr to the same bucket with probability at most p_2 . The measure of quality of the LSH family is the so-called LSH exponent $\rho := \ln(1/p_1)/\ln(1/p_2)$. If $X = (\mathbb{R}^d, \ell_2)$ and the maximum computational time for evaluating the hash function $h(x)$ at any point $x \in X$ for any element $h \in \mathcal{H}$ is at most κ , then one can build a randomized (c, r) -ANN data structure that answers queries in $O((d + \kappa)n^{\rho(c)} \log_{1/p_2}(n))$ time using $O(dn + n^{1+\rho(c)})$ space [20, 19]. Similar results hold for other d -dimensional metric spaces. Consequently, much research effort has been directed at constructing LSH families with both low LSH exponent and fast evaluation times.

For the ℓ_2 -norm, the first results [20, 18] gave constructions achieving an exponent $1/c \pm o(1)$ for X being the hypercube $\{0, 1\}^d$, which was later extended to all of \mathbb{R}^d in [14]. For the ℓ_2 -norm over $X = \mathbb{R}^d$, Andoni and Indyk [4] gave the first construction of an LSH hash family achieving a limiting exponent of $1/c^2$, which was later shown to be optimal in [25, 26]. We note that optimality here holds only for “classical” LSH, in which the LSH family depends only on the ambient metric space and not on the database itself, and that these lower bounds have been recently circumvented using more sophisticated data dependent approaches [6, 8], which we discuss later.

While achieving the optimal exponent, the hash functions from Andoni and Indyk’s work [4] are unfortunately quite expensive to evaluate. Their hash function family can be described as follows: For a design dimension k , a function from the family corresponds to $k^{O(k)}$ random shifts t_1, t_2, \dots of the integer lattice \mathbb{Z}^k which satisfy that every point in \mathbb{R}^k is at ℓ_2 distance at most $1/4$ from at least one shift. To map the database and the queries into \mathbb{R}^k , the hash function uses a Gaussian random projection G mapping \mathbb{R}^d to \mathbb{R}^k . The hash value on query q then equals the closest vector to Gq in $\mathbb{Z}^k + t_i$, where i is the first index such that Gq is at distance at most $1/4$ from some point in $\mathbb{Z}^k + t_i$. For this family they prove an upper bound on the LSH exponent of $1/c^2 + O(\log k/\sqrt{k})$, which tends to $1/c^2$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. Note that storing the description of this hash function requires $k^{O(k)}$ space and evaluating it requires iterating over all shifts which takes $k^{O(k)}$ time. This prohibitive space usage and running time restricted the use of these hash functions to only very low

dimensions in the context of ANN (i.e. k is restricted to be a very slow growing function of the number of points n in the database), yielding a rather slow convergence to the optimal $1/c^2$ exponent.

Lattice based LSH. Motivated by the above-mentioned drawbacks, Andoni and Indyk [4] proposed a simpler and more practical LSH scheme based on *Euclidean Lattices*. A k -dimensional lattice $L \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ given by a collection of basis vectors $B = (b_1, \dots, b_k)$ is defined to be all integer linear combinations of b_1, \dots, b_k . The *determinant* of L is defined as $|\det(B)|$, which we note is invariant to the choice of basis. In lattice based LSH, one simply replaces the $k^{O(k)}$ shifts of \mathbb{Z}^k by a single random shift $t \in \mathbb{R}^k$ of a lattice L , and the hash value on query q now becomes the closest vector to Gq in $L + t$.

We note that the last step of the hashing algorithm corresponds to solving the *closest vector problem* (CVP) on L , i.e. given a target point q one must compute a closest vector to x in L under the ℓ_2 norm. While this problem is NP-Hard in the worst case [22], in analogy to coding, one has complete freedom to *design the lattice*. Thus the main potential benefit of lattice based LSH is that one may hope to find “LSH-good” lattices (i.e., lattices with good LSH exponent) for which CVP can be solved quickly (at least much faster than enumerating over a ball partition). A secondary benefit is that the corresponding hash functions require very little storage compared to the ball partitions, namely just a single shift vector t together with the projection matrix G are sufficient (note that the lattice is shared across all instantiations of the hash function). To evaluate lattice based LSH, Andoni and Indyk [4] provided experimental results for L being the 24 dimensional Leech lattice equipped with the decoder of [3]. A version of this scheme with the 8 dimensional E8 lattice has also been implemented and tested in [21], and a parallelized GPU implementation of the Leech lattice scheme was tested in [11].

The following natural question was left open in the work of Andoni and Indyk: can the space partitions induced by lattices achieve the optimal LSH constant for the ℓ_2 -norm? Note that for a lattice L , the associated space partition corresponds to a random shift of the tiling of space $\{y + \mathcal{V}_L : y \in L\}$, where \mathcal{V}_L is the *Voronoi cell* of the lattice, i.e. the set of all points closer to the origin than to any other lattice point.

Our Contribution. As our main result, we resolve this question in the affirmative. We show that for any fixed approximation factor $c > 1$, there exists a sequence of lattices $\{L_{k,c} \subset \mathbb{R}^k : k \geq 1\}$, where $L_{k,c}$ has an associated LSH exponent for ℓ_2 -norm bounded by $1/c^2 + O(1/\sqrt{k})$. We note that this is slightly better than the rate of convergence to optimality proven by Andoni and Indyk in [4] for the ball partitioning approach. To prove this result, we rely on the probabilistic method, using a delicate averaging argument over the space of all lattices of determinant 1.

Our result is currently non-constructive, as we lack the appropriate concentration results for the LSH collision probabilities, though we believe this should be achievable. A simple and efficient sampling algorithm for the random lattice distribution that we employ – known as the Siegel measure over lattices – was given by Ajtai [2], and we expect that a lattice sampled from this distribution should be “LSH-good” (in terms of the LSH exponent) with high probability. Perhaps a more significant issue is that for the same dimension k , the probabilistic argument may produce different lattices for different approximation factors. Resolving this issue would require a much finer understanding of the shape of the collision probability curve (currently, we can only control the curve at two points), and we leave this as an open problem. We note however, that if one allows for sampling a different random

lattice for each hash function instantiation, as opposed to a single lattice shared by all instantiations, then our methods are indeed constructive. We find this approach somewhat less appealing however, since in general the cost of preprocessing a lattice in the context of CVP, say computing a short basis, the Voronoi cell, etc., is substantial, and hence it is desirable to only have to perform such preprocessing once. Furthermore, since the end goal is eventually to find a class of LSH good lattices with fast decoding algorithms, our main contribution here is to show that LSH good lattices do in fact exist.

From the perspective of the complexity of ANN, LSH-good lattices (when given as advice to an ANN algorithm) provide a slight improvement over [4] when using any of the recent $2^{k+o(k)}$ -time and $2^{k+o(k)}$ -space algorithms for the closest vector problem [13, 1] to implement the hash queries. In particular, for (c, r) -ANN on an n element database in \mathbb{R}^d , by choosing the dimension of the lattice to be $k = \log^{2/3}(n)$, we get query time dn^ρ using $dn + n^{1+\rho}$ space where $\rho = 1/c^2 + O(1/\log^{1/3}(n))$. These complexity results for ANN are however superseded by the more recent approaches using *data dependent* LSH [6, 8], which achieve $\rho = 1/(2c^2 - 1) + o(1)$. While more sophisticated, these approaches still depend on rather impractical and expensive random space partitions – with query complexity $2^{O(\sqrt{d})}$ instead of 2^d – and hence there is still room for progress.

Given this, we view our contribution mainly as a conceptual one, namely that *structured space partitions* can be optimal. We hope that this provides additional motivation for developing space partitions which admit fast query algorithms, and in particular for finding novel classes of “spherical” lattices (LSH-good or otherwise) admitting fast CVP solvers. We note that up to present, the only known general classes of lattices for which CVP is solvable in polynomial time are lattices of Voronoi’s first kind (VFK) [24] and tensor products of two root lattices [15], whose geometry is still rather restrictive (see [33] section 2.3 for an exposition of VFK lattices).

1.1 Techniques and High Level Proof Plan

The main techniques we use come from the theory of random lattices in the geometry of numbers. While getting precise estimates on an LSH collision probability for a generic high dimensional lattice seems very difficult, it turns out to be much easier to estimate the average collision probability for *random lattices*. The distribution on lattices we use is known as the Siegel measure on lattices, which is an invariant probability measure on the space of lattices of determinant 1 whose existence was established by Siegel [30] (the invariance is with respect to linear transformations of determinant 1).

A powerful point of leverage when using random lattices drawn from the Siegel distribution is that one can compute expected lattice point counts using volumes. In particular, for any Borel set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$, we have the useful identity $\mathbf{E}_L[|(L \cap S) \setminus \{0\}|] = \text{vol}(S)$, i.e. the expected number of non-zero lattice points in S is equal to its volume. We will need more refined tools than this however, and in particular, we shall rely heavily on powerful probabilistic estimates of Schmidt [28] and Rogers [27] developed for the Siegel measure. More specifically, Schmidt [28] provides extremely precise estimates on the probability that a Borel set of small volume does not intersect a random lattice, while Rogers [27] gives similarly precise estimates for the relative fraction of cosets of a random lattice not intersecting a Borel set.

Using these estimates, we quickly derive clean and tight integral expressions for the average collision probabilities. From then on, the strategy is simple if rather tedious, namely, to get precise enough estimates for these integrals to be able to show that the average “near” collision probability to the power $c^2 + o(1)$ is larger than average “far” collision probability. With this inequality in hand, we immediately deduce the existence of an LSH-good lattice

from the probabilistic method. To prove that a random lattice is in fact LSH-good with high probability (making our proof constructive) it would suffice to show concentration for the relevant collision probabilities. While this seems very plausible, we leave it for future work.

Estimating the Collision Probabilities and the LSH Constant. We now give a more detailed geometric explanation of what the collision probabilities represent, how the computations for lattices differ from those for a random ball partition, and how the random lattice estimates mentioned above come into play.

We recall the lattice LSH family going from \mathbb{R}^d to \mathbb{R}^k induced by a lattice $L \subset \mathbb{R}^k$. We shall assume here that L has determinant 1 and hence that the Voronoi cell \mathcal{V}_L of L has volume 1 (any region that tiles space with respect to L has the same volume). A function from the hash family \mathcal{H} is generated as follows. First, pick a uniform random coset $t \leftarrow \mathbb{R}^k/L$ and a matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times d}$ with i.i.d. $N(0, 1/k)$ entries (i.e. Gaussian with mean 0 and variance $1/k$). On query q , we define the hash value as $CV_L(Mq + t)$, namely the closest vector in L to $Mq + t$. Note that M is normalized here to approximately preserve distances, since $\mathbf{E}[\|Mq\|^2] = \|q\|^2$. For $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $\|x - y\|_2 = \Delta$, we wish to estimate the collision probability

$$p_\Delta := \Pr_{h \leftarrow \mathcal{H}} [h(x) = h(y)] = \Pr_{M, t} [CV_L(t + Mx) = CV_L(t + My)], \quad (1)$$

where M, t are as above. We will show shortly that the right hand side indeed only depends on Δ . Using the above hash family, showing that L achieves the optimal LSH exponent for an approximation factor $c > 0$ corresponds to showing

$$\min_{\Delta > 0} \ln(1/p_\Delta) / \ln(1/p_{c\Delta}) \leq 1/c^2 + o(1). \quad (2)$$

Note that for any desired distance threshold $r > 0$, we can always scale the database so that the scaled distance threshold becomes the minimizer above. Clearly, to be able to get a good upper bound on the LHS of (2), we have to be able to derive tight estimates for the collision probability curve p_Δ over a reasonably large range.

To understand p_Δ , we now show that the collision probability can be expressed as the probability that a uniformly sampled point in \mathcal{V}_L stays inside \mathcal{V}_L after a Gaussian perturbation of size Δ . Let x, y, M, t be as in (1). A first easy observation is that conditioned on any realization of $M(y - x)$, the distribution of $Mx + t$ is still uniform over cosets of \mathbb{R}^n/L since t is uniform. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr_{M, t} [CV_L(t + Mx) = CV_L(t + My)] &= \Pr_{M, t} [CV_L(t) = CV_L(t + M(y - x))] \\ &= \Pr_{t, g \leftarrow N(0, I_k/k)} [CV_L(t) = CV_L(t + \Delta g)] \\ &\quad (\text{since } M(y - x) \text{ has distribution } N(0, \Delta^2 I_k/k)) \\ &= \Pr_{v \leftarrow \mathcal{V}_L, g \leftarrow N(0, I_k/k)} [v + \Delta g \in \mathcal{V}_L]. \end{aligned}$$

For the last equality, note first that the Voronoi cell contains exactly one element from every coset of \mathbb{R}^k/L and hence a uniformly chosen point v from \mathcal{V}_L is also uniform over cosets. Lastly, by construction $CV_L(v) = 0$ and hence $CV_L(v) = CV_L(v + \Delta g) \Leftrightarrow v + \Delta g \in \mathcal{V}_L$.

At this point, without any extra information about \mathcal{V}_L , the task of bounding the delicate function of collision probabilities seems daunting if not intractable (note that generically \mathcal{V}_L is a polytope with $2(2^k - 1)$ facets). To compare with the ball partitioning approach, it is

42:6 Lattice-based Locality Sensitive Hashing is Optimal

not hard to show that up to a factor 2, the collision probabilities there are in correspondance with the quantities

$$q_\Delta := \Pr_{u \leftarrow r_k B_2^k, g \leftarrow N(0, I_k/k)} [u + \Delta g \in r_k B_2^k],$$

where $r_k \approx \sqrt{k/(2\pi e)}$ is the radius of a ball of volume 1 in \mathbb{R}^k . We use the volume 1 ball here to make the correspondance to \mathcal{V}_L which also has volume 1. Thus, to match the collision probabilities of the ball, which we know yield the right exponent, one would like \mathcal{V}_L to “look like” a ball. Unfortunately, even seemingly strong notions of sphericity, such as assuming that \mathcal{V}_L is within a factor 2 scaling of a ball (which random lattices in fact satisfy, see [16] for an exposition), do not seem to suffice to estimate these delicate collision probabilities at the right ranges. Note that to make the effects of the inevitable estimation errors and dimensionality effects small in the minimization of (2), we will want both p_Δ and $p_{c\Delta}$ to be quite small when we estimate the ratio of their logarithms. For the ball, the function q_Δ has the form $e^{-\alpha\Delta^2}$, where $\alpha := \alpha(\Delta)$ varies slowly within a constant range for $\Delta = O(\sqrt{k})$. Note that if α were in fact constant, then $\ln(1/q_\Delta)/\ln(1/q_{c\Delta})$ would equal $1/c^2$ for every Δ . The region where α is the most stable turns out to be around $\Delta = k^{1/4}$, where q_Δ is quite small, i.e. around $e^{-\Omega(\sqrt{k})}$.

Fortunately, while computing precise estimates for a fixed L is hard, computing the average collision probability over the Siegel measure on the space of lattices of determinant 1 is much easier. Note that the expected collision probability curve $\mathbf{E}_L[p_\Delta]$, where L is chosen from the Siegel measure, corresponds exactly to the collision probability curve associated with a slight modification of the LSH family examined above, namely, where instead of using a fixed lattice, we simply sample a new lattice L from the Siegel measure for each hash function instantiation. We now argue that to show existence of a good LSH lattice one can simply replace the collision probability curve above p_Δ by the expected collision probability curve $\mathbf{E}_L[p_\Delta]$. To see this, assume that (2) holds for the expected curve. By rearranging, this implies that there exists $\Delta > 0$ such that $\mathbf{E}_L[p_\Delta]^{c^2-o(1)} \geq \mathbf{E}_L[p_{c\Delta}]$. Since $c^2 - o(1) \geq 1$, by Jensen’s inequality

$$\mathbf{E}_L[p_\Delta^{c^2-o(1)}] \geq \mathbf{E}_L[p_\Delta]^{c^2-o(1)} \geq \mathbf{E}_L[p_{c\Delta}]. \quad (3)$$

Thus, by the probabilistic method, there must exist a lattice L' such that $p_{\Delta'}^{c^2-o(1)} \geq p_{c\Delta}$ holds for L' , which shows that L' achieves an LSH constant of $1/c^2 + o(1)$, as needed.

We now explain how one can compute the expected collision probabilities using the estimates of Schmidt and Rogers. For a fixed Δ , a direct computation reveals

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}_L[p_\Delta] &= \mathbf{E}_{L, u \leftarrow \mathcal{V}_L, g \leftarrow N(0, I_k/k)} [u + \Delta g \in \mathcal{V}_L] \\ &= \mathbf{E}_{L, g \leftarrow N(0, I_k/k)} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} I[u \in \mathcal{V}_L, u + \Delta g \in \mathcal{V}_L] du \right] \quad (\text{since } \mathcal{V}_L \text{ has volume 1}) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \Pr_{L, g \leftarrow N(0, I_k/k)} [u \in \mathcal{V}_L, u + \Delta g \in \mathcal{V}_L] du. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Define B_x for $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$ to be the open ball around x of radius $\|x\|$. Note that for a fixed g and u , the event that both u and $\Delta g + u$ are in \mathcal{V}_L , can be directly expressed as $(B_u \cup B_{\Delta g + u}) \cap L = \emptyset$, i.e. that there is no lattice point closer to u and $\Delta g + u$ than 0. Thus, one can express (4) as

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \Pr_{L, g \leftarrow N(0, I_k/k)} [(B_u \cup B_{\Delta g + u}) \cap L = \emptyset] du. \quad (5)$$

From here, for fixed g and u , the inner expression is exactly the probability that a random lattice L doesn't intersect a Borel set and hence we may apply Schmidt's estimates. Here Schmidt shows that as long as the $B_u \cup B_{\Delta g+u}$ has volume less than $k - 1$, then under a mild technical assumption, we can estimate

$$\Pr_L[(B_u \cup B_{\Delta g+u}) \cap L = \emptyset] \approx e^{-V_{u,\Delta g}}$$

where $V_{u,\Delta g}$ is the volume of $B_u \cup B_{\Delta g+u}$. This estimate is only useful when u has norm roughly r_k , since otherwise the volume of B_u is too large to usefully apply Schmidt's estimate. However, one would expect that for large u , the probability that u is in the Voronoi cell is already quite small. This is formalized by Roger's estimate, which gives that the fraction of cosets of L that are not covered by the ball of volume k around the origin (i.e. again radius roughly r_k) is approximately e^{-k} . In particular, this implies that at most an e^{-k} expected fraction of the Voronoi cell (since points in the Voronoi cell are in one to one correspondance with cosets) lies outside a ball of radius $\approx r_k$, and hence we can truncate the integral expression (5) at roughly this radius without losing much.

After these reductions, we get that the collision probabilities can be tightly approximated by the following explicit integral:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \mathbf{E}_g[e^{-V_{u,\Delta g}}] du. \tag{6}$$

The proof now continues with an unfortunately very long and tedious calculation, which shows that the above estimate closely matches the corresponding collision probability q_Δ for the ball, thus yielding the desired LSH constant.

1.2 Related Work

As mentioned earlier, the works [6, 8] show how to use a data dependent version of LSH to give an improved ANN exponent of $1/(2c^2 - 1)$, which was shown to be optimal under an appropriate formalization of data dependence in [9]. These works reduce ANN in ℓ_2 to ANN on the sphere via a recursive clustering approach, where the base case of the recursion roughly corresponds to the clustered vectors being embedded as nearly orthogonal vectors on the sphere. A generic reduction from ℓ_2 ANN to spherical ANN (without the exact base case guarantee as above) was also given in earlier work of Valiant [32]. We note that the above clustering style reductions to the sphere remain relatively impractical, and thus there still seems to be room for more direct and practical ℓ_2 methods. For a different vein, the works [10, 12, 7] studied the achievable tradeoffs between query time and space usage, where the optimal tradeoff for hashing based approaches was achieved in [7].

With respect to structured and practical LSH hash functions, [5] computed the collision probabilities for cross-polytope LSH on the sphere (first introduced by [31, 17]), which corresponds to a Voronoi partition on the sphere induced by a vertices of a randomly rotated cross-polytope. As their main result, they show that when near vs far corresponds to ℓ_2 distance $\sqrt{2}/c$ vs $\sqrt{2}$ (the latter case correspondings to orthogonal vectors), cross polytope LSH achieves the optimal limiting exponent of $1/(2c^2 - 1)$, corresponding to the base case of the recursive clustering approaches above. Furthermore, they show a fine grained lower bound on the LSH exponent (when the far case again corresponds to orthogonal vectors) of any hash function which partitions the sphere into at most T parts¹, which allows them to

¹ Under the mild technical assumption that each piece covers at most $1/2$ the sphere.

conclude that any spherical LSH function that substantially improves upon cross polytope LSH needs to have query time *sublinear* in the number of parts. It is tempting here to seek an analogy with lattice based LSH, in that the complexity of CVP computations on a d -dimensional lattice L , after appropriate preprocessing, can be bounded by $\tilde{O}(d^{O(1)}|\mathcal{V}_L|)$ [13] where $|\mathcal{V}_L|$ denotes the number of facets of the Voronoi cell of L . Thus, one may wonder if $|\mathcal{V}_L|$ can be associated with the number of “parts” in an analogous manner. For a generic d -dimensional lattice, we note that $|\mathcal{V}_L| = 2(2^d - 1)$, and thus the corresponding question would be to find an LSH-good lattice for which CVP takes $\tilde{O}(2^{(1-\epsilon)d})$ for some positive $\epsilon > 0$. As another interesting comparison, the d -dimensional cross polytope induces a partition with $2d$ parts whose gap to optimality (in terms of the spherical LSH exponent) is $O(\log \log d / \log d)$, whereas a random d -dimensional lattice has a Voronoi cell is $2(2^d - 1)$ facets with a gap to optimality (for ℓ_2 LSH) of $O(1/\sqrt{d})$.

1.3 Conclusions and Open Problems

To summarize, for a fixed approximation factor $c > 1$, we show that random space partitions induced by *shifts of a single lattice* can achieve the optimal *data oblivious* LSH exponent for the ℓ_2 metric. While this shows that we can hope for “well-structured” space partitions for ℓ_2 , the lattices we use to show existence are *random*, and are in many ways devoid of easy to exploit structure (at least algorithmically). Thus, a natural open question is whether one can find a more structured family of lattices achieving the same limiting LSH exponent for which CVP queries can be executed faster. In terms of improving the present result, another natural question would be to make our proof constructive and to show that for a fixed dimension k , there exists a single k -dimensional lattice which achieves the optimal LSH exponent for every $c \geq 1$.

Organization. In Section 2, we setup notations and define formally the notion of lattices and approximate nearest neighbor search problem. We describe our lattice based hash function family in Section 3 and analyze its performance. The helper theorems needed to show the main result are proved in subsequent sections.

2 Preliminaries

We denote the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ by $[n]$. We work over the Euclidean space. For $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, let $\|x\| = \sqrt{\sum_i x_i^2}$ denote the ℓ_2 norm of x . Let V_B denote the volume of a k -dimensional unit-radius ball. Let $\tau = \sqrt{k} \cdot V_B^{\frac{1}{k}}$. By standard geometry facts, $\tau = \sqrt{2\pi e} (1 + O(\frac{1}{k}))$. For $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$, let B_x denote the open ball centered at x of radius $\|x\|$ and let V_x denote its volume. Note that $V_x = V_B \|x\|^k$.

Lattices. A lattice $L \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ is the set of all linear combinations with integer coefficients of a set of linearly independent vectors $\{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_r\}$, i.e., $L = \{\sum_i \alpha_i b_i \mid \alpha_i \in \mathbb{Z} \forall i \in [r]\}$. The lattice may be represented by the $d \times r$ basis matrix B , whose columns are the vectors b_i . If the *rank* r is exactly equal to d , then the lattice is said to have *full rank*. It is common to assume that the lattice has full rank, and we do so in what follows, since otherwise one may just work over the real span of B .

The *quotient group* \mathbb{R}^d/L of L is the set of cosets $c + L = \{c + v \mid v \in L\}$, where $c \in \mathbb{R}^d$, with the group operation $(c_1 + L) + (c_2 + L) = (c_1 + c_2) + L$. The *determinant* of L , denoted $\det(L)$, is defined as $\det(L) = \sqrt{B^T B}$. A lattice has multiple bases: if B is a basis then

BU is also a basis, for any unimodular matrix U (i.e., a matrix U with integer entries with $\det(U) = 1$.) The *Voronoi cell* of a lattice is the set of all points closer to the origin than to any other lattice point. Formally, $\mathcal{V}_L := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid \|x\| \leq \|x - v\|, \forall v \in L\}$. Define the *shifted* Voronoi cell centered at v , denoted $\mathcal{V}_L(v)$, to be the set of points $v + \mathcal{V}_L = \{v + u \mid u \in \mathcal{V}_L\}$. It is a standard fact that the set of cells $\{v + \mathcal{V}_L\}_{v \in L}$ cover the entire space \mathbb{R}^d . Moreover, for every $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, there exists a $v \in L$ such that $x - v \in \mathcal{V}_L$. In fact, the (half-open) Voronoi cell contains exactly one representative from each coset $c + L$, for $c \in \mathbb{R}^d$. One of the fundamental computational problems on lattices is the *Closest Vector Problem (CVP)* defined as follows: given a target vector $t \in \mathbb{R}^d$, find a closest vector from the lattice L to t . We will denote a solution to CVP with input t by $CV_L(t)$. We will use recent algorithms running in time $O(2^d)$ as a blackbox [1]. We will need the following property of the Voronoi cell.

► **Fact 1.** $v \in CV_L(t)$ if and only if $t - v \in \mathcal{V}_L$.

Approximate Near Neighbor and LSH. In the c -approximate near neighbor (c -ANN) problem, given a collection \mathcal{P} of n points in \mathbb{R}^d , and parameters $r, \delta > 0$, the goal is to construct a data structure with the following property: on input a query point $q \in \mathbb{R}^d$, with probability $1 - \delta$, if there exists $p \in \mathcal{P}$ with $\|q - p\| \leq r$, it outputs some point $p' \in \mathcal{P}$, with $\|q - p'\| \leq c \cdot r$. By a simple scaling of the coordinates, one may assume that $r = 1$. Also, δ is assumed to be a constant, and the success probability can be amplified by building several instances of the data structure.

A family \mathcal{H} is a *locality-sensitive hashing* scheme with parameters $(1, c, p_1, p_2)$ if it satisfies the following properties: for any $p, q \in \mathbb{R}^d$

- if $\|p - q\| \leq 1$ then $\Pr_{\mathcal{H}}[h(q) = h(p)] \geq p_1$,
- if $\|p - q\| \geq c$ then $\Pr_{\mathcal{H}}[h(q) = h(p)] \leq p_2$.

The initial work of [20] shows that an LSH scheme implies a data structure for c -ANN.

► **Theorem 2.** [20] Given a LSH family \mathcal{H} with parameters $(1, c, p_1, p_2)$, where each function in \mathcal{H} can be evaluated in time τ , let $\rho = \frac{\log(1/p_1)}{\log(1/p_2)}$. Then there exists a data structure for c -ANN with $O((d + \tau)n^\rho \log_{1/p_2} n)$ query time, using $O(dn + n^{1+\rho})$ amount of space.

Multidimensional Gaussian. A d -dimensional Gaussian distribution with mean 0 and covariance matrix $\sigma^2 I_d \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ has density function

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} \sigma^d} \exp\left(-\frac{\|x\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right),$$

and is denoted by $N(0, \sigma^2 I_d)$.

3 Our Lattice-based Hash Family and Proof Strategy

LSH family for lattice L with $\det(L) = 1$. A hash function $h = h_{M,t}$ indexed by a projection matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times d}$ from \mathbb{R}^d to \mathbb{R}^k , and a vector $t \in \mathbb{R}^k$ is constructed as follows:

1. pick the entries $M_{i,j}$ according to a Gaussian distribution with mean 0 and variance $1/k$.
2. pick t uniformly from the Voronoi cell \mathcal{V}_L of L (centered at 0). Sampling t can be achieved by sampling from \mathbb{R}^k/L , namely by sampling from the fundamental parallelepiped with respect to any basis.

42:10 Lattice-based Locality Sensitive Hashing is Optimal

Given a point $a \in \mathbb{R}^d$, we define $h(a)$ to be a closest vector in L to its projection Ma translated by t . Formally,

$$h(a) = CV_L(Ma + t).$$

We first show that for $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^d$ the quantity $\Pr_{M,t}[h(a) = h(b)]$ only depends on the distance $\|a - b\|$, and not on the points a, b themselves.

► **Proposition 3.** *Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^d$ be arbitrary and let $\Delta = \|a - b\|$. Then*

$$\Pr_{M,t}[h(a) = h(b)] = \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{V}_L, y \leftarrow N(0, \Delta^2 I_k/k)}[x + y \in \mathcal{V}_L].$$

Let p_Δ denote the probability of collision of two inputs which are exactly distance Δ apart. i.e., $p_\Delta := \Pr_{M,t}[h(a) = h(b)]$, where $\|a - b\| = \Delta$. An easy argument shows that p_Δ is non-increasing as a function of Δ .

► **Corollary 4.** *p_Δ is non-increasing as a function of Δ .*

The performance of our LSH family is measured by the LSH constant defined by

$$\rho_L := \min_{\Delta > 0} \frac{\ln 1/p_\Delta}{\ln 1/p_{c\Delta}}.$$

Our result shows the existence of a lattice L with optimal performance guarantee.

► **Theorem 5.** *For every k large enough and $c > 1$, there exists a k -dimensional lattice L with $\det(L) = 1$ achieving*

$$\rho_L \leq \frac{1}{c^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\right).$$

Theorem 5 follows from our main technical result, which bounds the expected collision probabilities p_Δ and $p_{c\Delta}$ for $\Delta = k^{1/4}$.

► **Theorem 6.** *For every k large enough and $c > 1$, there exist absolute constants K_1, K_2, K_3 such that for $\Delta = k^{1/4}$,*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}_L [p_\Delta] &\geq K_1 e^{-\frac{\tau^2}{8}\sqrt{k}} \quad \text{and,} \\ \mathbf{E}_L [p_{c\Delta}] &\leq K_2 e^{-\frac{\tau^2}{8}c^2\sqrt{k}\left(1 - \frac{K_3 c^2}{\sqrt{k}}\right)}, \end{aligned}$$

where the expectation is over k -dimensional lattices L with $\det(L) = 1$.

We can now prove Theorem 5 using Corollary 4 and Theorem 6.

Proof of Theorem 5. For any $\Delta > 1$, define $\tilde{\rho} := \frac{\ln 1/\mathbf{E}_L [p_\Delta]}{\ln 1/\mathbf{E}_L [p_{c\Delta}]}$. From Corollary 4, we know that p_Δ is non-increasing. Hence, $\tilde{\rho} \leq 1$ for any $c > 1$. So, we can use Jensen's inequality to get that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}_L [p_\Delta^{1/\tilde{\rho}}] &\geq \mathbf{E}_L [p_\Delta]^{1/\tilde{\rho}} \quad (\text{Jensen's inequality}) \\ &= \mathbf{E}_L [p_{c\Delta}] \quad (\text{by the definition of } \tilde{\rho}). \end{aligned}$$

By the probabilistic method, it then follows that there exists a k -dimensional lattice L with $\det(L) = 1$, such that the collision probabilities satisfy $\frac{\ln 1/p_\Delta}{\ln 1/p_{c\Delta}} = \tilde{\rho}$ and hence, $\rho_L \leq \tilde{\rho}$.

We now show that $\tilde{\rho} \leq \frac{1}{c^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\right)$. From Theorem 6 we know that for any $c > 1$, and $\Delta = k^{\frac{1}{4}}$, there exist constants K_1, K_2, K_3 such that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}_L [p_\Delta] &\geq K_1 e^{-\frac{\tau^2}{8}\sqrt{k}} \quad \text{and,} \\ \mathbf{E}_L [p_{c\Delta}] &\leq K_2 e^{-\frac{\tau^2}{8}c^2\sqrt{k}\left(1-\frac{K_3c^2}{\sqrt{k}}\right)} \end{aligned}$$

Note that for $c > \frac{k^{\frac{1}{4}}}{2\sqrt{K_3}}$, the upper bound on $\mathbf{E}_L [p_{c\Delta}]$ from Theorem 6 becomes trivial. First, we consider the case when $c \leq \frac{k^{\frac{1}{4}}}{2\sqrt{K_3}}$. For this value of c , we can use bounds obtained in Theorem 6 to show that $\tilde{\rho} \leq \frac{1}{c^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\right)$ as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\ln 1/\mathbf{E}_L(p_\Delta)}{\ln 1/\mathbf{E}_L(p_{c\Delta})} &\leq \frac{\frac{\tau^2}{8}\sqrt{k} - \ln K_1}{\frac{\tau^2}{8}c^2\sqrt{k}\left(1-\frac{K_3c^2}{\sqrt{k}}\right) - \ln K_2} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{c^2} \left(1 + K_4 \frac{c^2}{\sqrt{k}}\right) \quad \text{for some constant } K_4. \end{aligned}$$

Now, for $c > \frac{k^{\frac{1}{4}}}{2\sqrt{K_3}}$, we need to show that there exists a k -dimensional lattice of determinant 1, such that $\rho_L \leq \frac{1}{c^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\right)$. From the monotonicity of p_Δ , we know that for any $c' < c$, $p_{c\Delta} \leq p_{c'\Delta}$. Therefore, consider $c' = k^{\frac{1}{4}}/2\sqrt{K_3} < c$. From Theorem 6, and the analysis above, we know that there exists a lattice of determinant 1 such that

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_L &\leq \frac{1}{c'^2} \left(1 + K_4 \frac{c'^2}{\sqrt{k}}\right) \quad \text{for some constant } K_4 \\ &= \frac{2K_3}{\sqrt{k}} + \frac{K_4}{\sqrt{k}} \\ &= \frac{1}{c^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\right). \end{aligned}$$

Proving Theorem 6 poses substantial technical hurdles. We will break the proof into smaller components, which we describe after introducing some helpful notation.

For any $\Delta \geq 1$, define

$$I(\Delta^2) := \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k: V_x \leq \frac{k}{8}} \mathbf{E}_{y \leftarrow N(0, \Delta^2 I_k/k)} [e^{-V_x - V_{x+y}}] dx.$$

In the next lemma, we show tight bounds on $\mathbf{E}_L [p_\Delta]$ in terms of $I(\Delta^2)$.

► **Lemma 7.** *For every k large enough and any $\Delta \geq 1$,*

$$I(\Delta^2) - e^{-k/8} \leq \mathbf{E}_L [p_\Delta] \leq 4I(4^{-\frac{2}{k}}\Delta^2) + 3e^{-k/8}.$$

where the expectation is over k -dimensional lattices L with $\det(L) = 1$.

We now show tight bounds for $I(\Delta^2)$ for $\Delta^2 = \beta\sqrt{k}$, where $1 \leq \beta \leq O(\sqrt{k})$ in Lemma 8, which is the most technically delicate part of the analysis, as it involves precise balancing of parameters and taking care of minutious details.

► **Lemma 8.** *There exist absolute constants $K \in [0, 1], K_1, K_2, \bar{K}_1, \bar{K}_2$ such that for any $1 \leq \beta \leq K\sqrt{k}$,*

$$\bar{K}_1 e^{-\alpha\beta\sqrt{k}\left(1+\frac{\bar{K}_2\beta}{\sqrt{k}}\right)} \leq I(\beta\sqrt{k}) \leq K_1 e^{-\alpha\beta\sqrt{k}\left(1-\frac{K_2\beta}{\sqrt{k}}\right)}$$

42:12 Lattice-based Locality Sensitive Hashing is Optimal

We now show how Lemmas 7 and Lemma 8 imply Theorem 6.

Proof of Theorem 6. First we prove the lower bound on $\mathbf{E}_L[p_\Delta]$ for $\Delta = k^{\frac{1}{4}}$. From Lemma 7 and Lemma 8, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}_L[p_\Delta] &\geq I(\Delta^2) - e^{-k/8} && \text{(from Lemma 7)} \\ &\geq \bar{K}_1 e^{-\alpha\sqrt{k}\left(1+\frac{\bar{K}_2}{\sqrt{k}}\right)} - e^{-k/8} && \text{(from Lemma 8 with } \beta = 1) \\ &\geq \bar{K}_3 e^{-\alpha\sqrt{k}}. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, for the upper bound on $\mathbf{E}_L[p_{c\Delta}]$ for $\Delta = k^{\frac{1}{4}}$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}_L[p_{c\Delta}] &\leq 4 I(4^{-\frac{2}{k}} c^2 \Delta^2) + 3e^{-k/8} && \text{(from Lemma 7)} \\ &\leq K_1 e^{-4^{-\frac{2}{k}} c^2 \alpha\sqrt{k}\left(1-\frac{K_2 c^2}{\sqrt{k}}\right)} + 3e^{-k/8} && \text{(from Lemma 8 with } \beta = 4^{-\frac{2}{k}} c^2) \\ &\leq K_3 e^{-c^2 \alpha\sqrt{k}\left(1-\frac{K_2 c^2}{\sqrt{k}}\right)} && \text{(since } 4^{-\frac{2}{k}} \geq 1 - O(1/k) \text{)}. \end{aligned}$$

Note that since Lemma 8 holds for $\beta < O(\sqrt{k})$, the upper bound on $\mathbf{E}_L[p_{c\Delta}]$ holds for $c^2 \leq K\sqrt{k}$ for some constant K . \blacktriangleleft

We conclude this section with the proof of Proposition 3 and of Corollary 4, while devoting the rest of the paper for the proof of Lemma 7. Due to space constraints, the proof of Lemma 8 will appear in the full version of the paper.

Proof of Proposition 3. Let M and t be as defined above. From the definition of the hash function, $h(a) = h(b)$ if $Ma + t$ and $Mb + t$ land in the same Voronoi cell of L about some lattice point. Let $\|a - b\| = \Delta$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} p_\Delta &= \Pr_{M,t}[h(a) = h(b)] \\ &= \Pr_{M,t}[CV_L(Ma + t) = CV_L(Mb + t)] \\ &= \Pr_{M,t}[Ma + t, Ma + M(b - a) + t \text{ lie in the same Voronoi cell}]. \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

Let $Ma + t \in \mathcal{V}_L(\ell)$ for some $\ell \in L$. Define $x := Ma + t - \ell \in \mathcal{V}_L$. Note that because of the random shift t , x is a uniform random point in the Voronoi cell of L about 0.

Let $y := M(b - a) \in \mathbb{R}^k$. Since each entry M_{ij} of M is a Gaussian random variable with 0 mean and variance $1/k$, therefore, the i^{th} entry of y , given as $y_i = \sum_{j=1}^k M_{ij}(b_j - a_j)$ has mean 0 and variance $\frac{1}{k} \sum_j (b_j - a_j)^2 = \frac{\Delta^2}{k}$.

Plugging these observations in Equation 7, we get

$$\begin{aligned} p_\Delta &= \Pr_{M,t}[Ma + t - \ell, Ma + M(b - a) + t - \ell \in \mathcal{V}_L] \\ &= \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{V}_L, y \leftarrow N(0, \Delta^2 I_k/k)}[x, x + y \in \mathcal{V}_L] \\ &= \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{V}_L, y \leftarrow N(0, \Delta^2 I_k/k)}[x + y \in \mathcal{V}_L]. \end{aligned} \quad \blacktriangleleft$$

Proof of Corollary 4. By Proposition 3, it suffices to show that the function

$$f(s) = \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{V}_L, y \leftarrow N(0, I_k/k)}[x + sy \in \mathcal{V}_L],$$

where x is uniform in \mathcal{V}_L and y is standard Gaussian, is a non-increasing function of s on \mathbb{R}_+ . Since \mathcal{V}_L has volume 1 and $x + sy \in \mathcal{V}_L \Leftrightarrow x \in \mathcal{V}_L - sy$, we have that

$$\Pr_{x,y}[x + sy \in \mathcal{V}_L] = \Pr_y[\text{vol}(\mathcal{V}_L \cap (\mathcal{V}_L - sy))] .$$

Define $g_y(s) := \text{vol}(\mathcal{V}_L \cap (\mathcal{V}_L - sy))$. We claim that $g_y(s)$ is non-decreasing on $(-\infty, 0]$ and non-increasing on $[0, \infty)$. To see this, note that by symmetry of \mathcal{V} , g_y is symmetric, i.e. $g_y(s) = g_y(-s)$. Furthermore, for $\lambda \in [0, 1]$, $s_1, s_2 \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\begin{aligned} g_y(\lambda s_1 + (1 - \lambda)s_2)^{1/n} &= \text{vol}(\mathcal{V}_L \cap (\mathcal{V}_L - \lambda(s_1 + (1 - \lambda)s_2)y))^{1/n} \\ &\geq \text{vol}(\lambda(\mathcal{V}_L \cap (\mathcal{V}_L - s_1y)) + (1 - \lambda)(\mathcal{V}_L \cap (\mathcal{V}_L - s_2y)))^{1/n} \\ &\quad \text{(by containment)} \\ &\geq \lambda \text{vol}(\mathcal{V}_L \cap (\mathcal{V}_L - s_1y))^{1/n} + (1 - \lambda) \text{vol}(\mathcal{V}_L \cap (\mathcal{V}_L - s_2y))^{1/n} \\ &\quad \text{(by Brunn-Minkowski)} \\ &= \lambda g_y(s_1)^{1/n} + (1 - \lambda) g_y(s_2)^{1/n} . \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $g_y(s)^{1/n}$ is a symmetric, non-negative and concave function of s . Any symmetric concave function on \mathbb{R} must attain its maximum value at 0, and hence must be non-increasing away from 0.

Now consider $0 \leq s_1 \leq s_2$. Since g_y is non-increasing on \mathbb{R}_+ , we get that

$$f(s_1) = \mathbf{E}_y[g_y(s_1)] \geq \mathbf{E}_y[g_y(s_2)] = f(s_2)$$

as needed. ◀

4 Proof of Lemma 7

In the previous section, we had seen that the expected collision probability between points which are Δ apart is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}_L[p_\Delta] &= \mathbf{E}_L \left[\Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{V}_L, y \leftarrow N(0, \Delta^2 I_k/k)} [x + y \in \mathcal{V}_L] \right] \\ &= \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k} \int_{y \in \mathbb{R}^k} \Pr_L(x, x + y \in \mathcal{V}_L) \cdot \frac{e^{-\frac{\|y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} dy dx \quad \text{for } \sigma^2 = \Delta^2/k. \end{aligned}$$

The goal of this section is to derive tight bounds for this expression through the proof of Lemma 7.

Recall that B_x denotes the open k -dimensional ball centered at $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$ of radius $\|x\|$ and B_{x+y} denotes the open k -dimensional ball centered at $x + y \in \mathbb{R}^k$ of radius $\|x + y\|$. Also, V_x and V_{x+y} denotes their volumes. Consider $B_{x,y} = B_x \cup B_{x+y}$, the union of B_x and B_{x+y} and let $V_{x,y}$ denote its volume. We will need the following theorem for the proof of Lemma 7.

► **Lemma 9.**

$$e^{-V_{x,y}} - e^{-k/4} \leq \Pr_L(x, x + y \in \mathcal{V}_L) \leq e^{-\frac{1}{2}V_{x,y}} + e^{-k/4} .$$

In order to prove Lemmas 7 and 9, we invoke the following results of Rogers [27] and Schmidt [28].

42:14 Lattice-based Locality Sensitive Hashing is Optimal

► **Theorem 10** (Corollary of [27], Theorem 1). *Let B be the k -dimensional ball of volume V centered at the origin. If $V \leq \frac{k}{8}$, then there exists a constant k_0 such that for $k > k_0$,*

$$\left| \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k} \Pr_L [x \in \mathcal{V}_L \setminus B] dx - e^{-V} \right| \leq c_1 k^3 \left(\frac{16}{27} \right)^{\frac{k}{4}}$$

where, the probability is taken over the space of all lattices of determinant 1.

► **Theorem 11** ([28], Theorem 4). *Let S be a Borel set of measure V such that $0 \notin S$ and for all $x \in S$, $-x \notin S$. If $V \leq k - 1$, then for $k \geq 13$,*

$$\Pr_L [L \cap S = \emptyset] = e^{-V} (1 - R).$$

where, the probability is taken over the space of all lattices of determinant 1 and $|R| < 6 \left(\frac{3}{4} \right)^{\frac{k}{2}} e^{4V} + V^{k-1} k^{-k+1} e^{V+k}$.

► **Fact 12.**

$$\frac{1}{2} (V_x + V_{x+y}) \leq V_{x,y} \leq V_x + V_{x+y}.$$

Proof. Let WLOG, $V_x \leq V_{x+y}$. Also, we know that $V_{x,y} = V_x + V_{x+y} - V(B_x \cap B_{x+y})$. We now show that $V(B_x \cap B_{x+y}) \leq \frac{1}{2} (V_x + V_{x+y})$. This fact follows easily from the observation that the intersection volume is at most the volume of the smaller ball. Therefore,

$$V(B_x \cap B_{x+y}) \leq V_x = \frac{1}{2} V_x + \frac{1}{2} V_x \leq \frac{1}{2} (V_x + V_{x+y}). \quad \blacktriangleleft$$

We now prove Lemma 7 using Lemma 9.

Proof of Lemma 7 . For notational convenience, we will use σ^2 to denote Δ^2/k . From the definition of p_Δ and Proposition 3, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}_L [p_\Delta] &= \mathbf{E}_L \left[\Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{V}_L, y \leftarrow N(0, \sigma^2 I_k)} [x + y \in \mathcal{V}_L] \right] \\ &= \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k} \int_{y \in \mathbb{R}^k} \Pr_L (x, x + y \in \mathcal{V}_L) \cdot \frac{e^{-\frac{\|y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} dy dx \\ &= \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k: V_x \leq \frac{k}{8}} \int_{y \in \mathbb{R}^k} \Pr_L (x, x + y \in \mathcal{V}_L) \cdot \frac{e^{-\frac{\|y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} dy dx \\ &\quad + \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k: V_x > \frac{k}{8}} \int_{y \in \mathbb{R}^k} \Pr_L (x, x + y \in \mathcal{V}_L) \cdot \frac{e^{-\frac{\|y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} dy dx. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

We first note that if $V_x \geq \frac{k}{8}$, then the probability that $x \in \mathcal{V}_L$ is itself very small. This fact gives us tight bounds on $\mathbf{E}_L [p_\Delta]$ up to additive $e^{-\Omega(k)}$ term. We use Theorem 10 to

formalize this statement. Let B_0 be the 0 centered ball of volume $\frac{k}{8}$. We have,

$$\begin{aligned}
& \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k: V_x \geq \frac{k}{8}} \int_{y \in \mathbb{R}^k} \Pr_L(x, x+y \in \mathcal{V}_L) \cdot \frac{e^{-\frac{\|y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} dy dx \\
& \leq \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k: V_x \geq \frac{k}{8}} \int_{y \in \mathbb{R}^k} \Pr_L(x \in \mathcal{V}_L) \cdot \frac{e^{-\frac{\|y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} dy dx \\
& = \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k: V_x \geq \frac{k}{8}} \Pr_L(x \in \mathcal{V}_L) dx \\
& = \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k} \Pr_L(x \in \mathcal{V}_L \setminus B_0) dx \\
& = e^{-\frac{k}{8}} + e^{-\frac{k}{8}}. \quad (\text{from Theorem 10})
\end{aligned}$$

Plugging this observation into the expression for $\mathbf{E}_L[p_\Delta]$ in Equation 8, we get that

$$\begin{aligned}
& \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k: V_x \leq \frac{k}{8}} \int_{y \in \mathbb{R}^k} \Pr_L(x, x+y \in \mathcal{V}_L) \cdot \frac{e^{-\frac{\|y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} dy dx \\
& \leq \mathbf{E}_L[p_\Delta] \\
& \leq \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k: V_x \leq \frac{k}{8}} \int_{y \in \mathbb{R}^k} \Pr_L(x, x+y \in \mathcal{V}_L) \cdot \frac{e^{-\frac{\|y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} dy dx + 2e^{-k/8}.
\end{aligned}$$

Further, using the bounds on $\Pr_L(x, x+y \in \mathcal{V}_L)$ from Lemma 9, we get

$$\begin{aligned}
& \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k: V_x \leq \frac{k}{8}} \int_{y \in \mathbb{R}^k} \left(e^{-V_{x,y}} - e^{-k/4} \right) \cdot \frac{e^{-\frac{\|y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} dy dx \\
& \leq \mathbf{E}_L[p_\Delta] \\
& \leq \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k: V_x \leq \frac{k}{8}} \int_{y \in \mathbb{R}^k} \left(e^{-\frac{1}{2}V_{x,y}} + e^{-k/4} \right) \cdot \frac{e^{-\frac{\|y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} dy dx + 2e^{-k/8}.
\end{aligned}$$

Since $V_{x,y} \leq V_x + V_{x+y}$, the lower bound in the theorem statement then follows trivially.

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{E}_L[p_\Delta] & \geq \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k: V_x \leq \frac{k}{8}} \int_{y \in \mathbb{R}^k} \left(e^{-V_{x,y}} - e^{-k/4} \right) \cdot \frac{e^{-\frac{\|y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} dy dx \\
& = \int_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{R}^k \\ V_x \leq \frac{k}{8}}} \int_{y \in \mathbb{R}^k} e^{-V_{x,y}} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} dy dx - \int_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{R}^k \\ V_x \leq \frac{k}{8}}} \int_{y \in \mathbb{R}^k} e^{-k/4} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} dy dx \\
& \geq \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k: V_x \leq \frac{k}{8}} \mathbf{E}_{y \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I_k)} [e^{-V_x - V_{x+y}}] dx - \frac{k}{8} e^{-k/4} \\
& \geq \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k: V_x \leq \frac{k}{8}} \mathbf{E}_{y \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I_k)} [e^{-V_x - V_{x+y}}] dx - e^{-k/8}
\end{aligned}$$

For the upper bound, set $u = 4^{-\frac{1}{k}}x$, and $v = 4^{-\frac{1}{k}}y$. Since $\frac{1}{2}V_{x,y} \geq \frac{V_x + V_{x+y}}{4} = V_u + V_{u+v}$,

42:16 Lattice-based Locality Sensitive Hashing is Optimal

we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{E}_L[p_\Delta] &\leq \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k: V_x \leq \frac{k}{8}} \int_{y \in \mathbb{R}^k} \left(e^{-\frac{1}{2}V_{x,y}} + e^{-k/4} \right) \cdot \frac{e^{-\frac{\|y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} dy dx + 2e^{-k/8} \\
&\leq \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}^k} \int_{y \in \mathbb{R}^k} e^{-\frac{V_x + V_{x+y}}{4}} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} dy dx + 3e^{-k/8} \\
&= \int_{u \in \mathbb{R}^k} \int_{v \in \mathbb{R}^k} e^{-V_u - V_{u+v}} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|v\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} 4dv 4du + 3e^{-k/8} \\
&= 4 \int_{u \in \mathbb{R}^k} \int_{v \in \mathbb{R}^k} e^{-V_u - V_{u+v}} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|v\|^2}{2(4^{-\frac{1}{k}}\sigma)^2}}}{\left(2\pi(4^{-\frac{1}{k}}\sigma)^2\right)^{\frac{k}{2}}} dv du + 3e^{-k/8} \\
&= 4 \int_{u \in \mathbb{R}^k} \mathbf{E}_v [e^{-V_u - V_{u+v}}] du + 3e^{-k/8} \quad \text{where, } v \sim N(0, 4^{-\frac{2}{k}}\sigma^2 I_k). \quad \blacktriangleleft
\end{aligned}$$

Now it remains to prove Lemma 9.

Proof of Lemma 9. Recall that $B_{x,y} = B_x \cup B_{x+y}$, the union of B_x and B_{x+y} and $V_{x,y}$ denotes its volume. We note that x and $x+y$ are in the voronoi cell of a lattice L if and only if $B_{x,y}$ does not contain any lattice points. Therefore,

$$\Pr_L [x, x+y \in \mathcal{V}_L] = \Pr_L [B_{x,y} \cap L = \emptyset]$$

As a first case, suppose $V_{x,y} < \frac{k}{32}$. Now consider the following partition of $B_{x,y}$. Let S be the set of points $a \in B_{x,y}$ such that $-a \in B_{x,y}$.

$$S = \{a \in B_{x,y} \mid -a \in B_{x,y}\}.$$

Partition S with respect to an arbitrary hyperplane as follows: Define $S_1 = \{a \in S \mid a^t y < 0\}$ and $S_2 = S \setminus S_1$ for an arbitrarily chosen $y \in \mathbb{R}^k$. Note that for every $a \in S_1$, $-a \in S_2$. Define $A = (B_{x,y} \setminus S) \cup S_1$. Note that $\{A, S_2\}$ is a partition of $B_{x,y}$, i.e., $B_{x,y} = A \cup S_2$, and $A \cap S_2 = \emptyset$.

Without loss of generality, assume that A is the larger partition of $B_{x,y}$, i.e $V_A \geq \frac{1}{2}V_{x,y}$. Also from the definition of A and S_2 , we have that if $A \cap L = \emptyset$, then $S_2 \cap L = \emptyset$. We can now apply Theorem 11 for both A and S_2 .

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr_L [B_{x,y} \cap L = \emptyset] &= \Pr_L [(A \cap L = \emptyset), (S_2 \cap L = \emptyset)] \\
&= \Pr_L [A \cap L = \emptyset] \Pr_L [(S_2 \cap L = \emptyset) \mid (A \cap L = \emptyset)] \\
&= \Pr_L [A \cap L = \emptyset] \\
&= e^{-V_A} (1 - R_A) \quad \text{where, } |R_A| = 6 \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{\frac{k}{2}} e^{4V_A} + V_A^{k-1} k^{-k+1} e^{V_A+k}.
\end{aligned}$$

Since $\frac{1}{2}V_{x,y} \leq V_A \leq V_{x,y} < \frac{k}{32}$, we have $|R_A| < e^{-k/4}$. Therefore,

$$e^{-V_{x,y}} (1 - e^{-k/4}) \leq \Pr_L [B_{x,y} \cap L = \emptyset] \leq e^{-\frac{1}{2}V_{x,y}} (1 + e^{-k/4}).$$

Next, suppose $V_{x,y} > \frac{k}{32}$. Then consider a body $B'_{x,y}$ contained in $B_{x,y}$ of volume $\frac{k}{32}$. Using a similar argument as above with $B_{x,y}$ replaced with $B'_{x,y}$, we conclude that

$$\Pr_L [B_{x,y} \cap L = \emptyset] \leq \Pr_L [B'_{x,y} \cap L = \emptyset] \leq e^{-k/4}. \quad \blacktriangleleft$$

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