

Provable Collisions in the Pollard ρ Algorithm for Discrete Logarithms

**Fields Institute Workshop on Cryptography:
Underlying Mathematics, Provability and Foundations**

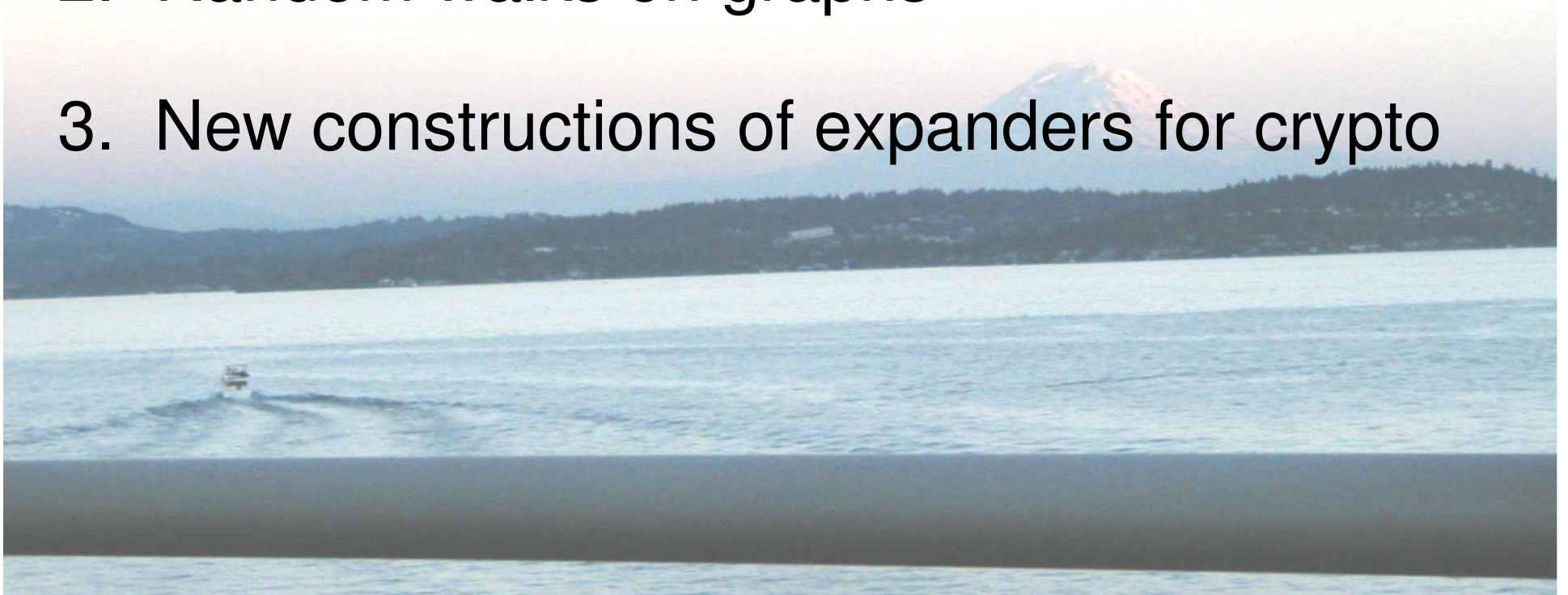
**Stephen Miller
Rutgers University**

**Ramarathnam Venkatesan
Microsoft Research**

Reference: Proceedings of the 7th Algorithmic Number Theory Symposium (Berlin), Springer-Verlag, 2006, pp. 573-581.

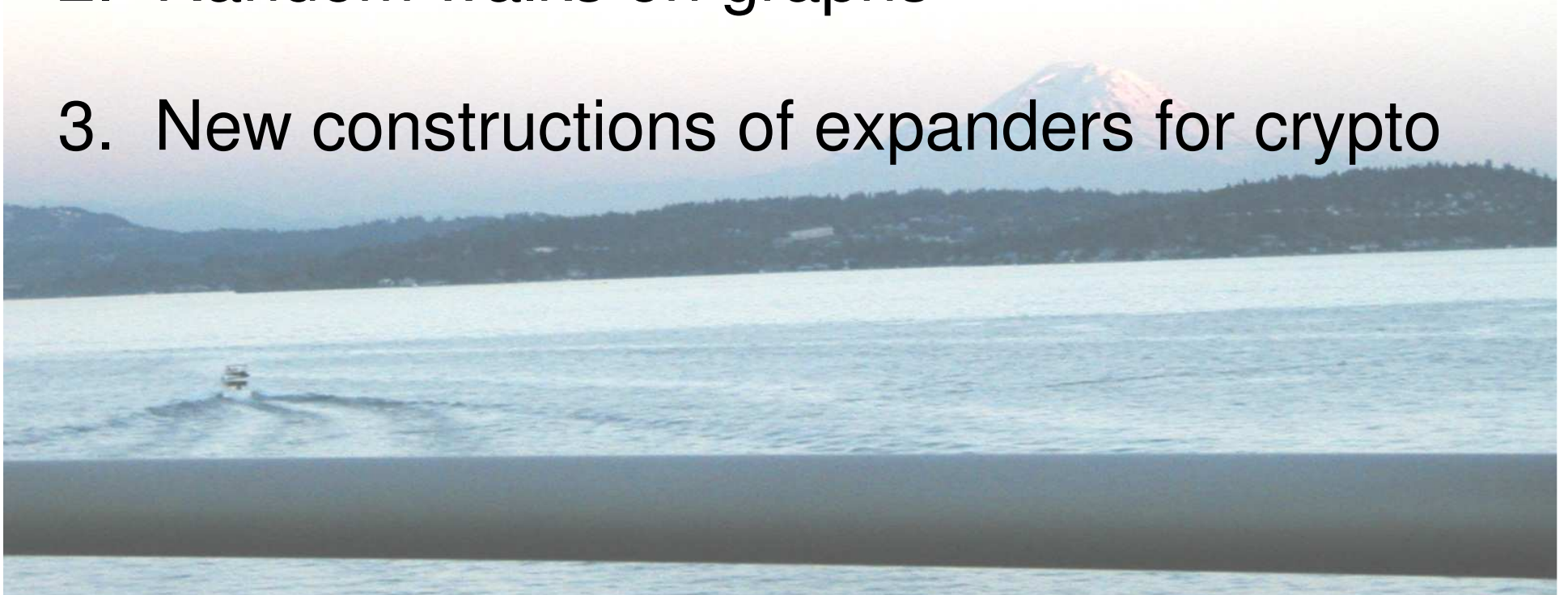
Agenda:

1. Results on the Pollard ρ algorithm
2. Random walks on graphs
3. New constructions of expanders for crypto



Agenda:

1. Results on the Pollard ρ algorithm
2. Random walks on graphs
3. New constructions of expanders for crypto



Discrete Logarithm Problem

- Given a cyclic group G with generator g , and power h of it, solve the equation

$$h = g^x \text{ for } x.$$

- DLOG is a hard problem which several cryptosystems are based on, for example
 - Diffie-Hellman
 - El-Gamal
 - Elliptic Curve Cryptography
- The difficulty of DLOG is determined by the realization of a group: e.g. trivial for $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ but harder for $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$, and apparently harder yet for elliptic curves.
- Difficulty is determined by the largest prime divisor of $n = \#G$. From now on we assume n is a large prime.
- We will consider the DLOG problem on a “black-box” group, i.e. one which uses no specific features of its embedding. In this case, it is a theorem of Nechaev, Shoup that no DLOG algorithm can run in time $o(n^{1/2})$.

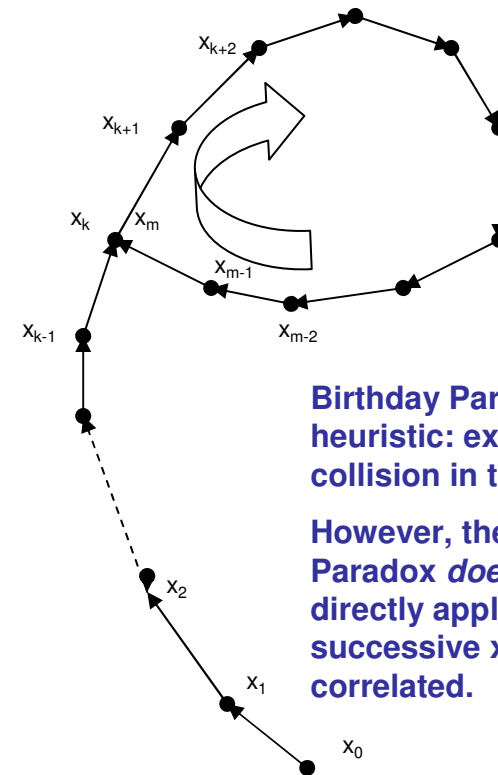
Pollard ρ algorithm's attributes

- Uses birthday paradox to run in time $\sim n^{1/2}$ (heuristically). Can this be proved?
- Up to constant factors, the fastest known on general groups, and the only with low storage requirements.
- In particular, it is the fastest known algorithm for general elliptic curve groups (i.e. aside from special curves which have subexponential algorithms).
- Therefore the $n^{1/2}$ running time is used to gauge the relative bit-by-bit strengths of ECC vs. RSA cryptosystems (e.g. 160-bit ECC \approx 1024-bit RSA).

The actual algorithm

1. Let g equal the generator, $h = g^y$ the element whose discrete logarithm (y) we wish to recover.
2. Partition the group G into 3 random sets S_1 , S_2 , and S_3 (each element of G has, independently, a $1/3$ probability of being in each S_i).
3. Set $x_0 = h$ (or more generally a random power $g^{r_1}h^{r_2}$).
4. Iterate $x_{k+1} = f(x_k)$, where
5. Find a collision $x_k = x_m$ (or more properly $x_i = x_{2i}$ to save on storage).
6. Use collision information to find y (next slide).

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} gx, & x \in S_1; \\ hx, & x \in S_2; \\ x^2, & x \in S_3. \end{cases}$$



Birthday Paradox heuristic: expect collision in time $O(n^{1/2})$.

However, the Birthday Paradox does not directly apply since the successive x_k are highly correlated.

What to do with a collision

(If you walk into your own back, you may learn something about yourself)

- At each step, x_k may be written as $g^{\alpha_k y + \beta_k}$
- The iteration $f(x)$ sends the coefficients (α, β) to one of:
 - » $(\alpha+1, \beta)$ [The move $x \mapsto hx$]
 - » $(\alpha, \beta+1)$ [$x \mapsto gx$]
 - » $(2\alpha, 2\beta)$ [$x \mapsto x^2$]
- Given a collision $x_k = x_m$, we must have that $\alpha_k y + \beta_k = \alpha_m y + \beta_m$
Since the exponents are taken mod n , we can solve this:

$$y = \frac{\beta_m - \beta_k}{\alpha_k - \alpha_m}$$

provided that $\alpha_k \neq \alpha_m \pmod{n}$. [Non-degeneracy condition]. Expect this with high probability $\approx 1 - 1/n$. This is even more likely than a collision (heuristically).

- Note that if $x_k = x_m$ is the first collision and if $\alpha_k = \alpha_m$ (degenerate) there, the α 's will be equal at any subsequent collision in the loop (because they evolve the same way under the iterating function f).
- Likewise (since each step is invertible) if the α 's are distinct at the first collision, they remain distinct at all future collisions.

An estimate on the collision time

- Theorem 1: Fix any $p < 1$. Then the Pollard ρ algorithm finds a collision in time $O_p(n^{1/2}(\log n)^3)$ with probability $\geq p$, where the probability is taken over all partitions of G into the three subsets S_1 , S_2 , and S_3 .

$$\left(\tilde{O}_p(n^{1/2})\right)$$

- This is the first nontrivial rigorous result on the runtime of the algorithm.
- $O(n^{1/2})$ is the expected optimal collision time.
- Montenegro observation improves this to $O_p(n^{1/2}(\log n)^{3/2})$.

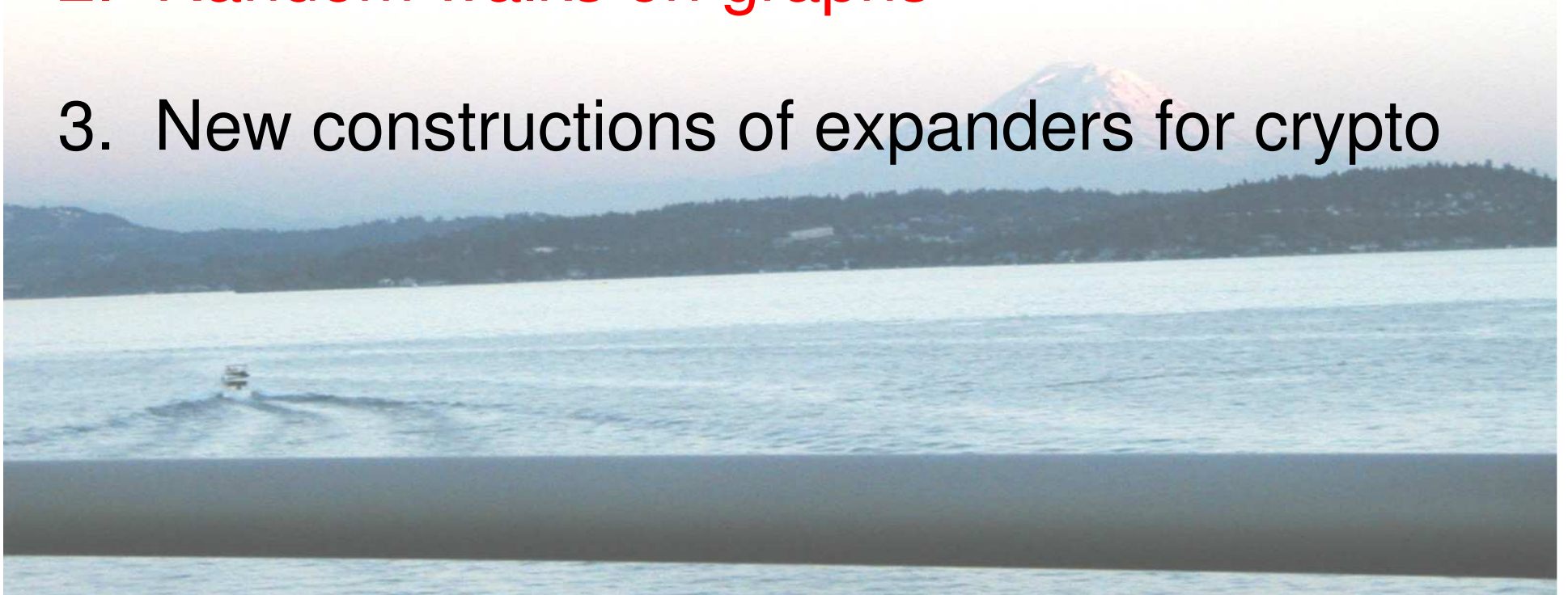
A complete runtime estimate

(for almost all n)

- *Multiplicative order of 2 modulo n* : the least $k > 0$ for which $2^k = 1 \pmod{n}$.
- Theorem 2. Assume that the multiplicative order of 2 modulo n is $\Omega(\log(n)^3)$. Then the Pollard ρ collisions guaranteed by the previous theorem are nondegenerate with probability $1 - O(\log(n)^6 / n)$.
- Almost all primes have this property:
e.g. if 2 is a generator of $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$, then the multiplicative order is $n-1$.
- More precisely, at most $O(\log(X)^5)$ such primes n exist in the interval between X and $2X$.
- So the theorem, in practice, proves the Pollard ρ runtime for random group orders.
- In general, one can quickly test if n has this property. If it doesn't, the theorem works if the squaring step x^2 is replaced by another small power x^a for which a has large multiplicative order.

Agenda:

1. Results on the Pollard ρ algorithm
2. Random walks on graphs
3. New constructions of expanders for crypto



Random Walks

- The Pollard ρ iteration $x_{k+1} = f(x_k)$ is definitely *not* a random walk, since it goes into a loop after its first collision. This loop is a key feature of the algorithm.
- However, since membership of x_k in S_1 , S_2 , or S_3 is random, the walk behaves *exactly* as a random walk until the first collision occurs – thereafter it is decidedly *non-random*.
- Upshot: to prove collisions occur it suffices to consider random walks on G whose steps have the form

$x \mapsto gx$, $x \mapsto hx$, and $x \mapsto x^2$ (each with probability $1/3$).

- In analyzing a random walk on a cyclic group, we can use additive notation (i.e. simply consider $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$).
- We consider the equivalent random walk on $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ given by moves of the form
 $x \mapsto x+1$, $x \mapsto x+y$, or $x \mapsto 2x$ (each with probability $1/3$).
- Our result: this random walk has mixing time $(\log n)^3$ (more precise on next slide).
 - Mixing time is a measure of how many steps it takes for a random walk to become equidistributed, and thereby “forget” where it started.
 - Comparison: if one could make totally random walks (like in the Birthday paradox), the mixing time would be 1.
 - Without the squaring step the mixing time would be n^{power} ([Teske]).

Graph reformulation

- Define the *Pollard ρ graph* Γ to have vertices $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ and directed edges connecting $x \rightarrow x+1$, $x \rightarrow x+y$, and $x \rightarrow 2x$ for each $x \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$.
- The previous random walk is now a random walk on this graph, where we move from vertex to vertex by picking one of the three edges that starts there with equal probability = $1/3$.
- We prove this walk has mixing time $(\log n)^3$, and collisions in time $O(n^{1/2}(\log n)^{3/2})$.

Brief Review of Graph Theory

- Definitions: A graph Γ is a collection of vertices V , and (directed) edges E connecting the vertices.
- A k -regular graph has exactly k edges meeting at each vertex (k in, k out).
- Adjacency operator A on $L^2(V)$ averages the function over its neighbors
$$A: f(x) \mapsto \sum_{x \rightarrow y} f(y)$$
- The constant functions on V are eigenfunctions with the *trivial eigenvalue* $\lambda_{\text{triv}} = k$.

Operator Norm Mixing Lemma

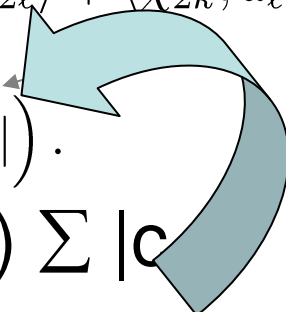
- Often people look at the spectral gap (for undirected graphs).
- Our graph is directed, so instead we will look at restriction of A to the orthogonal complement of $\mathbb{1}$, and its operator norm
[= the most it distorts lengths].
- **Lemma**: Suppose that the operator norm of A 's restriction to {the orthogonal complement of the constant function} is bounded by $\mu < k$. Let x be an arbitrary vertex and S be an arbitrary subset of vertices of Γ . Then the probability of a random walk of length $r \geq \log(2n)/\log(k/\mu)$ starting from x landing in S is between $\frac{1}{2}|S|/n$ and $\frac{3}{2}|S|/n$ (i.e. $(1 \pm \frac{1}{2}) \cdot |S|/n$).
- This assumption is met for the Pollard p graphs, with $k = 3$ and $\mu = 3 - c/(\log n)^2$ for some $c > 0$ (see next slide). So the mixing happens for $r \gg (\log n)^3$.
- Method of proof: study action of A^r on the characteristic function of $\{x\}$, which tells you where walks end. Take inner product with χ_S , apply Cauchy-Schwartz inequality, and finally the operator norm bound.

Operator Norm Bound for A

- We need to show that $\|A_{\text{restricted to } \mathbb{1}^\perp}\| \leq 3 - \frac{c}{(\log n)^2}$
i.e. that
$$\|Af\| \leq \left(3 - \frac{c}{(\log n)^2}\right) \|f\|$$
for all $f \in L^2(V)$ which are orthogonal to $\mathbb{1}$.
- Recall $(Af)(x) = f(x+1) + f(x+y) + f(2x)$.
- Look at basis of the orthogonal complement consisting of nontrivial characters of $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$ given by
$$\chi_k(x) = e^{2\pi i k x/n}, \quad k \neq 0. \quad \langle \chi_k, \chi_\ell \rangle = \begin{cases} n, & k = \ell \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
- We write $f = \sum_{k \neq 0} c_k \chi_k$, so that $\|f\|^2 = n \sum |c_k|^2$.
- We have $A\chi_k = d_k \chi_k + \chi_{2k}$, where $d_k = \chi_k(1) + \chi_k(y)$,
 $|d_k| = 2|\cos(\pi k(y-1)/n)|$.

Operator Norm Bound for A (ctd.)

- We compute:

$$\begin{aligned} \|Af\|^2 &= \langle Af, Af \rangle = \left\langle \sum c_k A\chi_k, \sum c_k A\chi_k \right\rangle = \\ &= \sum_{k,\ell \neq 0} c_k \overline{c_\ell} [\langle d_k \chi_k, d_\ell \chi_\ell \rangle + \langle \chi_{2k}, \chi_{2\ell} \rangle + \langle d_k \chi_k, \chi_{2\ell} \rangle + \langle \chi_{2k}, d_\ell \chi_\ell \rangle] \\ &\leq n \left(5 \sum_{(|d_k| \leq 2)} |c_k|^2 + 2 \sum |c_k| |c_{2k}| |d_{2k}| \right). \end{aligned}$$


- This needs to be $\leq n (9 - c/(\log n)^2) \sum |c_k|^2$
- The savings is gained from the second sum and the following quadratic form bound:
 - if $Q(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}) := \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} |x_k| |x_{2k}| \lambda_k$, where $\lambda_k = |\cos(\pi k/n)|$
 - then $|Q(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})| \leq \left(1 - \frac{c}{(\log n)^2}\right) \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} x_k^2$.
- This can be viewed as a “reciprocal” Hilbert inequality (continued...).

Quadratic Form Bound

- Let \mathbb{S} be the set of k between $-n/4$ and $n/4 \pmod{n}$. Then
 $\lambda_k = |\cos(\pi k/n)| \leq 1$ for $k \in \mathbb{S}$, and $\lambda_k \leq \sqrt{1/2}$ for $k \notin \mathbb{S}$.

- So we need to show
$$\sum |x_k| |x_{2k}| \varepsilon_k \leq \left(1 - \frac{c}{(\log n)^2}\right) \sum x_k^2$$

where $\varepsilon_k =$ indicator function of $k \in \mathbb{S}$.

- Let $\gamma_k > 0$. Then
$$0 \leq (\gamma_k x_k \pm \gamma_k^{-1} x_{2k})^2 = \gamma_k^2 x_k^2 + \gamma_k^{-2} x_{2k}^2 \pm 2x_k x_{2k}$$

and so the quadratic form is bounded by the *diagonal* quadratic form

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum x_k^2 (\varepsilon_k \gamma_k^2 + \varepsilon_{2k} \gamma_{2k}^{-2})$$

- At this point, one needs simply to choose the γ_k such that the expression in parentheses is $\leq 2 - \Omega((\log n)^{-2})$.
- In a moment we will choose γ_k between 1 and 1.5. Observe that with such small γ_k our desired inequality automatically holds unless both k and $2^{-1}k$ lie in the residues in $\mathbb{S} \pmod{n}$.
- So we take γ_k to be 1 for $k \notin \mathbb{S}$, and otherwise equal to $1 - sd/(\log n)^2$, in which 2^s is the exact power of 2 dividing k (viewed as an integer in $[-n/4, n/4]$). Here d is a constant.
- It is easy to check that
$$\gamma_k^2 + \gamma_{2k}^{-2} \approx 1 - 2 \frac{sd}{(\log n)^2} + 1 + 2 \frac{(s-1)d}{(\log n)^2} \leq 2 - \Omega((\log n)^{-2})$$
 because if you double the integer representing $2^{-1}k$ between $-n/4$ and $n/4$, you get exactly the integer representing k in that range. So $s(k) = s(2^{-1}k) + 1$.

Putting Together: Graph Mixing Theorem

- **Theorem:** Let x be any vertex and S be any subset of vertices of Γ . Then there exists an explicit constant c such that the probability that $\{\text{a random walk of length } \geq c(\log n)^3 \text{ starting at } x \text{ ends in } S\}$ is between $\frac{1}{2}|S|/n$ and $\frac{3}{2}|S|/n$.
- This implies the collision time estimate of $O(n^{1/2}(\log n)^3)$ as follows:
 - Let S = the set of the first $t = \lfloor n^{1/2} \rfloor$ iterates x_1, \dots, x_t of the random walk.
 - We may assume that $|S| = t$, for otherwise a collision has already occurred.
 - Let $r = c(\log n)^3$ above. Then the probability of $x_{t+r}, x_{t+2r}, x_{t+3r}, \dots, x_{t+kr}$ lying in S are each independently at least $1/(3t)$.
 - Choose $k = 3bt$, b fixed. The probability that none of those points lies in S is bounded by $(1 - 1/(3t))^{3bt} \approx e^{-b}$, which can be arbitrarily small if b is large.
 - Thus, with high probability $\geq 1 - e^{-b}$, there is a collision in time $O(n^{1/2}(\log n)^3)$.
- Montenegro's observation: if $t = \lfloor n^{1/2}(\log n)^{3/2} \rfloor$, then the collision exponent is reduced to $O(n^{1/2}(\log n)^{3/2})$.

Agenda:

1. Results on the Pollard ρ algorithm
2. Random walks on graphs
3. New constructions of expanders for crypto



Brief History of Expander Graphs

- Definitions vary: usually undirected graphs with $\lambda \leq c \lambda_{\text{triv}}$ for some positive constant $c < 1$. Random walks mix rapidly.
- Originally shown to exist by counting methods by Pinsker: There are far more graphs than there are non-expander graphs.
- Margulis (70s, 80s), Lubotzky-Phillips-Sarnak (1986) give first constructions.
- LPS “Ramanujan graphs” use the (known) Ramanujan conjectures in their proof. The Ramanujan conjectures in number theory are a statement about optimal cancellation in random sums.
- Other constructions: Reingold-Vadhan-Wigderson “Zig-Zag”, algebraic geometry. Have algebraic flavor.
- Unfortunately existing constructions are not suitable for implementation (either too slow, or too large a probability of returning quickly to a previously visited node because undirected).

A simpler version: “GRH Graphs”

New, conditional construction of expander graphs.

- Let Q be a large integer.
- Let $S = \{ \text{primes } p < (\log Q)^B, p \nmid Q \}$, for $B > 2$.
- Define the graph Γ to have
 - vertices $V = (\mathbb{Z}/Q\mathbb{Z})^*$.
 - edges connecting \mathbf{v} to \mathbf{pv} , for each $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{V}$ and $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbf{S}$.
 - (Γ is the *Cayley graph* of the group $(\mathbb{Z}/Q\mathbb{Z})^*$ with respect to the generating set S).
- Theorem – Assuming GRH, Γ is an expander: its nontrivial eigenvalues satisfy the bound
$$|\lambda| = O(k^{1/2+1/B}). \quad [k = \text{degree} = \lambda_{\text{triv}}]$$

Sketch of Proof

- The graph is a Cayley graph of $G = (\mathbb{Z}/Q\mathbb{Z})^*$, and so characters χ of G are eigenfunctions of A :

$$(A\chi)(g) = \sum_{s \in S} \chi(sg) = (\sum_{s \in S} \chi(s)) \cdot \chi(g)$$

- In our case, the eigenvalue is

$$\lambda_\chi = \sum_{p \in S} [\chi(p) + \chi(p^{-1})] = 2 \operatorname{Re} \sum_{p \in S} \chi(p).$$

- Since G is abelian, there are as many characters as eigenfunctions, so the entire spectrum is obtained this way.
- Trivial character: trivial eigenvalue = degree = k .
- Nontrivial character: bound $|\lambda| = O(k^{1/2+1/B})$.

This follows from GRH (it is a problem about primes in progressions).

All one needs for *some* expansion is

$$|\lambda| < k \cdot (1 - c/(\log Q)^{\text{power}})$$

- E.g. when χ is the quadratic character, this is basically the question of finding the least prime nonresidue mod Q – a difficult analytic problem.
- Could also use Lindelöf Hypothesis to get weaker bounds.

Generalization to other groups

- Argument applies also to other groups from number theory.
- Example (just mentioned in Couveignes' talk):
 - Let $G = \mathcal{I}$ be the ideal class group of an order in an imaginary quadratic number field $\mathbb{Q}(-D)$.
 - Let $S = \text{ideal classes}$ represented by prime ideals of norm $O((\log D)^B)$, $B > 2$.
 - Then (assuming GRH) the Cayley graph generated by G and S is an expander. **In particular S generates G !**
 - uses Hecke's theory of Grossencharacter L-functions, cancellation of Fourier coefficients of θ -functions.
 - This is connected to elliptic curves: G represents ordinary elliptic curves, and S represents computable isogenies between them.
 - Connection proves the [JMV] isogeny result from David Jao's talk (continued...).

Random Reducibility of EC DLOG

- In elliptic curve crypto, curves are randomly selected based on the field and point count. *Is this justified?*
- Using previous graph, we show it is – modulo technical assumptions which do not arise in practice:

Jao, M-, Venkatesan (2004): Assuming GRH, the DLOG problem on ECs over the same field with the same point count is “random reducible” in the following sense:

Given any algorithm A that solves DLOG on a fraction of curves in a “level”, one can probabilistically solve DLOG on any curve in the same level with $\text{polylog}(q)$ queries to A with random inputs.

“Level” means same $\text{End}(E)$ – doesn’t matter in practice. Hence this shows that the difficulty of DLOG is solely determined by the ground field and point count.

Another style of expanders

- Notion of additive reversalization:

- Suppose that $A = A^t$ is the adjacency matrix of an undirected graph with good separation: $\|Af\| \leq c\|f\|$ for any $f \perp \mathbb{1}$, where $c < k = \text{degree}$.

- If P is any permutation, then

$$\|(AP + P^t A)f\| \leq \|APf\| + \|P^t Af\| \leq c\|Pf\| + \|Af\| \leq c\|f\| + c\|f\|$$

so its operator norm on $f \perp \mathbb{1}$ is bounded by $2c$ (vs. $\lambda_{\text{triv}} = 2k$).

- This still has significant eigenvalue separation.

- Idea – even if A has bad eigenvalue separation, $AP + (AP)^t$ might have excellent separation.
- Application: the circle graph on $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$, with edges connecting $x-1 \leftrightarrow x \leftrightarrow x+1$, has the poorest possible spectral gap $\approx 1/n$.
 - Apply permutation $P: x \mapsto r \cdot x$, with $(r,n)=1$.
 - Get good separation (next slide).
- This shows a fundamental randomness property of integers: adding and multiplying mixes very quickly. Since these are basic operations, it has some applications.
- One of them is the Pollard ρ expansion used earlier in this talk.

Making stream ciphers: Goal is speed

- Theorem: Let N and r be relatively prime integers > 1 . Form a 4-regular graph on $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ by connecting x to $r(x+1)$ and $r(x-1)$.

Then the eigenvalues of the adjacency matrix either satisfy:

- $\lambda = 4 \cos(2\pi k/N)$ for those k with $r \cdot k = k \pmod{N}$ or

- $|\lambda| \leq 4 - c(\log N)^{-2}$ for some $c > 0$.

(Good expanders if $N=2^k$; fast nonlinearity on machine hardware)

- For group theoretic reasons, a bounded set of affine transformations on $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ cannot have fixed eigenvalue separation, so the logs are necessary.
- Related graph: take $(x+1)^r$, $(x-1)^r$ instead. This seems to have bounded separation (above constraints do not apply).
- This graph is used in a new stream cipher (“MV3”) which is twice as fast as RC4, and whose statistical properties can be proven from the expansion.

[Keller, M-, Mironov, Venkatesan – CT-RSA 2007]

Conclusions:

- Mathematics of expanders can be used to prove common beliefs about important crypto algorithms.
- Pollard ρ algorithm finds collisions in $O(n^{1/2}(\log n)^{3/2})$ time with arbitrarily high probability.
- For typical primes n , this collision is nondegenerate, i.e. the algorithm solves DLOG with high probability in this many steps.
- EC crypto selection practice of relying on point count is justified, assuming GRH.
- Principles from the proofs can be used to design other expanders with cryptographic applications.

In general $f = \sum c_k \chi_k$

We want to compute

$$\langle Af, Af \rangle$$

$$\langle A \sum c_k \chi_k, A \sum c_k \chi_k \rangle$$

=

$$\sum_{k, \ell \neq 0} c_k \bar{c}_\ell [\langle d_k \chi_k, d_\ell \chi_\ell \rangle + \langle \chi_{2k}, \chi_{2\ell} \rangle + \langle d_k \chi_k, \chi_{2\ell} \rangle + \langle \chi_{2k}, d_\ell \chi_\ell \rangle]$$

Using $\langle \chi_i, \chi_j \rangle = 0$, if $i \neq j$ and n else

$$\leq n \left(5 \sum |c_k|^2 + 2 \sum |c_k| |c_{2k}| |d_{2k}| \right).$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} f(x+1) + f(x+y) + f(2x) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f \end{bmatrix}$$

If $f = \chi_k$ then $\chi_k(x) = e^{\frac{\pi k x}{n}}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \chi_k(x+1) + \chi_k(x+y) + \chi_k(2x) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \chi_k \end{bmatrix}$$

$d_k \chi_k + \chi_{2k}$
where $d_k = \chi_k(1) + \chi_k(y)$,
 $|d_k| = 2 |\cos(\pi k(y-1)/n)|$.

One has that $|d_k| = 2 |\cos(\frac{\pi k(y-1)}{n})| = 2 \lambda_{k(y-1)}$.

Let n be an odd integer and $\lambda_k = |\cos(\pi k/n)|$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. Consider the quadratic form $Q : \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$Q(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}) := \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} x_k x_{2k} \lambda_k, \quad (3.1)$$

in which the subscripts are interpreted modulo n .

Proposition 3.1. *There exists an absolute constant $c > 0$ such that*

$$\langle A \sum c_k \chi_k, A \sum c_k \chi_k \rangle = |Q(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})| \leq \left(1 - \frac{c}{(\log n)^2}\right) \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} x_k^2. \quad (3.2)$$

$$\leq n \left(5 \sum |c_k|^2 + 2 \sum |c_k| |c_{2k}| |d_{2k}| \right).$$

$$\|Af\| \leq \left(3 - \frac{c}{(\log n)^2}\right) \|f\| \quad (3.8)$$

We now need a lemma on quadratic form minimization

Note that $|d_k| = 2\lambda_{k(y-1)}$, and that $y-1$ and 2 are invertible in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$, by assumption in (3.7). The result now follows from (3.2) with the choice of $x_{2(y-1)k} = |c_k|$.

Operator Norm Bound for A

- Key bound: we show that

$$\|Af\| \leq \left(3 - \frac{c}{(\log n)^2}\right) \|f\|$$

for all $f \in L^2(V)$ which are orthogonal to $\mathbb{1}$.

- This is equivalent to $\|A_{\text{restricted to } \mathbb{1}^\perp}\| \leq 3 - \frac{c}{(\log n)^2}$
- Method of Proof:
 - Recall $(Af)(x) = f(x+1) + f(x+y) + f(2x)$.
 - Look at basis of the orthogonal complement consisting of nontrivial characters of $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$ given by $\chi_k(x) = e^{2\pi i k x/n}$, $k \neq 0$.
 - We write $f = \sum_{k \neq 0} c_k \chi_k$, so that $\|f\|^2 = n \sum |c_k|^2$.
 - We have $A\chi_k = d_k \chi_k + \chi_{2k}$, where $d_k = \chi_k(1) + \chi_k(y)$, $|d_k| = 2|\cos(\pi k(y-1)/n)|$.

$$\langle \chi_k, \chi_\ell \rangle = \begin{cases} n, & k = \ell \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Operator Norm Bound for A (ctd.)

- We compute:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \|Af\|^2 &= \langle Af, Af \rangle = \left\langle \sum c_k A\chi_k, \sum c_k A\chi_k \right\rangle = \\
 &\sum_{k, \ell \neq 0} c_k \overline{c_\ell} [\langle d_k \chi_k, d_\ell \chi_\ell \rangle + \langle \chi_{2k}, \chi_{2\ell} \rangle + \langle d_k \chi_k, \chi_{2\ell} \rangle + \langle \chi_{2k}, d_\ell \chi_\ell \rangle] \\
 &\leq n \left(5 \sum_{(|d_k| \leq 2)} |c_k|^2 + 2 \sum |c_k| |c_{2k}| |d_{2k}| \right).
 \end{aligned}$$

- The savings is gained from the second sum and the following quadratic form bound:
 - if $Q(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}) := \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} x_k x_{2k} \lambda_k$, where $\lambda_k = |\cos(\pi k/n)|$
 - then $|Q(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})| \leq \left(1 - \frac{c}{(\log n)^2}\right) \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} x_k^2$.
- This can be viewed as a “reciprocal” Hilbert inequality.