

# The LLL Algorithm for Lattices

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## References

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A.J. Menezes et al., *Handbook of Applied Cryptography*, CRC Press, 1997.

A.K. Lenstra, H.W. Lenstra and L. Lovász, 'Factoring polynomials with rational coefficients', *Math. Ann.* **261** (1982), 515–534.

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## Definitions

A **lattice**  $L$  is a pair  $(\mathbb{Z}^n, Q)$  where

$$Q : \mathbb{Z}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

is a positive definite quadratic form, i.e.  $Q(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x}$  where the real  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is symmetric positive definite. We call  $A$  a **Gram matrix** of  $L$ .

Two lattices  $(\mathbb{Z}^n, Q)$ ,  $(\mathbb{Z}^n, Q')$  are *isometric* if there exists a **unimodular integer transformation**  $M \in GL(n, \mathbb{Z})$  (i.e.  $M$  and  $M^{-1}$  have integer entries) such that

$$Q'(\mathbf{x}) = Q(M\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^n;$$

equivalently,  $A' = M^\top A M$ .

Every lattice  $L = (\mathbb{Z}^n, Q)$  is isometric to a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  (for each  $m \geq n$ ) using the standard real inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ . This gives an alternative definition of a lattice:

A **lattice**  $L$  is a discrete additive subgroup of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ ; that is,  $L$  is the  $\mathbb{Z}$ -span of a linearly independent subset of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ :

$$L = \mathbb{Z}\mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbb{Z}\mathbf{b}_2 + \cdots + \mathbb{Z}\mathbf{b}_n$$

with the quadratic form  $Q(\mathbf{x}) = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle$  for  $\mathbf{x} \in L$ . (Note:  $n \leq m$ .) The vectors  $\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n$  are a **basis** for  $L$ , and  $A = [\langle \mathbf{b}_i, \mathbf{b}_j \rangle]_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$  is the corresponding Gram matrix.

Two linearly independent sets of vectors generate the same lattice iff they are related by a unimodular integer transformation on  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . Two Gram matrices represent isometric lattices iff they are **integrally congruent**:  $A' = M^\top A M$  for some  $M \in GL(n, \mathbb{Z})$ .

## Reduced Bases

The lattice  $L \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  with basis

$$\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 10 \\ 14 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 24 \\ 33 \end{pmatrix}$$

and Gram matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 296 & 702 \\ 702 & 1665 \end{bmatrix}$$

has reduced basis

$$\mathbf{b}'_1 = -7\mathbf{b}_1 + 3\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{b}'_2 = 19\mathbf{b}_1 - 8\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

and Gram matrix

$$A' = M^\top A M = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 \\ -2 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $M = \begin{bmatrix} -7 & 19 \\ 3 & -8 \end{bmatrix}$ .

The technical definition of “reduced” later...

## Important Algorithms

**LLL Algorithm**—Given a lattice  $L$  by way of a basis  $\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n$  for  $L \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ , we find (in polynomial time) a “reduced” basis  $\mathbf{b}'_1, \mathbf{b}'_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}'_n$  for  $L$  in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

Or given a Gram matrix  $A$  for  $L$ , we find (in polynomial time) the Gram matrix  $A'$  for  $L$  with respect to a reduced basis.

In both cases, the unimodular integer matrix  $M$  is also determined.

Often the shortest lattice vectors in  $L$  are among the basis vectors found by LLL.

If  $A$  has integer entries, all computations can be done *exactly* in  $\mathbb{Z}$  using arbitrary precision integer arithmetic.

**MLLL Algorithm**—Modified LLL algorithm due to M. Pohst (1987). We are given an  $m \times n$  real matrix  $W$  whose columns generate a lattice  $L \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ . (The columns need not be linearly independent.) We find (in polynomial time) a reduced basis for  $L$ , *and* a (reduced) basis for the kernel of the map  $W : \mathbb{Z}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^m$ .

*Or* given the positive semidefinite Gram matrix of a set of vectors  $\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$  generating a lattice  $L$ , we find a reduced basis for  $L$  (expressed as linear combinations of the  $\mathbf{b}_i$ 's), *and* a reduced basis for the lattice of relations

$$\{(r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n : \sum_{i=1}^n r_i \mathbf{b}_i = \mathbf{0}\}.$$

A pure integer version exists.

**Fincke-Pohst Algorithm**—Given a lattice  $L = (\mathbb{Z}^n, Q)$  and a constant  $C > 0$ , find all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$  such that  $Q(\mathbf{x}) < C$ . The algorithm runs in exponential time but works in many practical situations. It makes use of LLL as a subalgorithm.

The best way to determine with certainty *the shortest* nonzero vectors in  $L$  is to let  $C$  be the norm of the shortest basis vector in a reduced basis (found using LLL); then to use Fincke-Pohst to search for smaller vectors in  $L$ , if any.

## Determinants of Lattices

The **determinant** of  $L$  is

$$d(L) = \sqrt{\det(A)}$$

where  $A$  is a Gram matrix for  $L$ . Or equivalently (if  $L \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  has rank  $n$ ),  $d(L) = |\det(B)|$  where  $B$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix whose columns form a basis  $\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n$  for  $L$ .

### Hadamard's Inequality

$d(L) \leq \prod_{j=1}^n \|\mathbf{b}_j\|$ , and equality holds iff the  $\mathbf{b}_j$ 's are orthogonal.

A “reduced” basis should have  $\prod_{j=1}^n \|\mathbf{b}_j\|$  rather small; equivalently, the  $\mathbf{b}_j$ 's should be close to orthogonal.



## Gram-Schmidt Process

We have

$$0 \subset L_1 \subset L_2 \subset \cdots \subset L_n = L$$

where

$$L_j = \mathbb{Z}\mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbb{Z}\mathbf{b}_2 + \cdots + \mathbb{Z}\mathbf{b}_j.$$

The orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{b}_j$  onto  $L_{j-1}^\perp$  is found recursively to be

$$\mathbf{b}_j^* = \mathbf{b}_j - \sum_{1 \leq k < j} \mu_{j,k} \mathbf{b}_k^*$$

where

$$\mu_{j,k} = \frac{\mathbf{b}_j \cdot \mathbf{b}_k^*}{\mathbf{b}_k^* \cdot \mathbf{b}_k^*}.$$

Then  $\{\mathbf{b}_1^*, \mathbf{b}_2^*, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n^*\}$  is an orthogonal (not necessarily orthonormal) basis of  $\mathbb{R}L = \mathbb{R} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} L$ .

Note that  $d(L) = \prod_{j=1}^n \|\mathbf{b}_j^*\|$ .

## Definition of Reduced Basis

A basis  $\{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$  for  $L$  is **reduced** if

(i)  $|\mu_{j,k}| \leq \frac{1}{2}$  for  $1 \leq j < k \leq n$ , and

(ii)  $\|\mathbf{b}_j^*\|^2 \geq \left(\frac{3}{4} - \mu_{j,j-1}^2\right) \|\mathbf{b}_{j-1}^*\|^2$  for  $1 < j \leq n$ .

The latter inequality is equivalent to

$$(ii)' \quad \underbrace{\|\mathbf{b}_j^* + \mu_{j,j-1}\mathbf{b}_{j-1}^*\|^2}_{\text{proj}_{L_{j-2}^\perp}(\mathbf{b}_j)} \geq \frac{3}{4} \underbrace{\|\mathbf{b}_{j-1}^*\|^2}_{\text{proj}_{L_{j-2}^\perp}(\mathbf{b}_{j-1})}$$

**Theorem.** *A reduced basis satisfies*

$$d(L) \leq \prod_{j=1}^n \|\mathbf{b}_j\| \leq 2^{n(n-1)/4} d(L);$$

$$\|\mathbf{b}_1\| \leq 2^{(n-1)/2} \|\mathbf{x}\| \quad \text{for all nonzero } \mathbf{x} \in L;$$

$$\|\mathbf{b}_1\| \leq 2^{(n-1)/4} d(L).$$

## LLL Algorithm

Input a basis  $\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n$  for  $L$ . The following procedure replaces these vectors by a reduced basis.

1. Set  $j = 1$ .

2. For each  $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, j-1$ , if  $|\mu_{j,k}| > \frac{1}{2}$ , replace  $\mathbf{b}_j$  by  $\mathbf{b}_j - r\mathbf{b}_k$  where  $r \in \mathbb{Z}$  is chosen so that

$$\mu'_{j,k} = \frac{(\mathbf{b}_j - r\mathbf{b}_k) \cdot \mathbf{b}_k^*}{\mathbf{b}_k^* \cdot \mathbf{b}_k^*} = \mu_{j,k} - r \in [-0.5, 0.5].$$

3. If the Lovász condition (ii) is satisfied, increment  $k$  by one and go to Step 2 (unless  $k = n$ , in which case we are done).

Otherwise interchange  $\mathbf{b}_{k-1}$  with  $\mathbf{b}_k$ , decrease  $k$  by 1 and go to Step 2.

## Why the Algorithm Terminates

Let  $D = \prod_{j=1}^n d(L_j)$  where  $d(L_j) = \prod_{k=1}^j \|\mathbf{b}_k^*\|^2$ .

The value of  $D$  changes only in Step 3, where

$L_j$  changes only for  $j = k-1$ ;

$d(L_{k-1})$  is replaced by

$$d(L'_{k-1}) \leq \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{1/2} d(L_{k-1}); \text{ and}$$

$D$  is replaced by  $D' \leq \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{1/2} D$ .

Since  $d(L_{k-1}) \geq (\|\mathbf{x}\|/\gamma_{k-1}^{1/2})^{k-1}$  where  $\gamma_{k-1}$  is Hermite's constant (the maximum of  $\min\{\|\mathbf{v}\| : \mathbf{0} \neq \mathbf{v} \in \Lambda\}$  for all lattices  $\Lambda$  of rank  $k-1$  and determinant 1) and  $\mathbf{x}$  is a shortest nonzero vector in  $L$ , step 3 can be executed only a finite number of times.

More careful analysis shows that the running time is  $O(n^6(\log M)^3)$  where  $M = \max \|\mathbf{b}_i\|^2$ .

## Implementations of LLL

1. **MAPLE V Release 5.** LLL only (no MLLL or Fincke-Pohst). Very accessible. But doesn't use Gram matrices; requires an explicit list of generators.
2. **Keith Matthews' CALC.** LLL, MLLL, Fincke-Pohst and lots more number-theoretical algorithms. Unsophisticated, quite accessible and easily installed. Freely available at  
<http://www.maths.uq.edu.au/~krm/>
3. **LiDIA.** The most comprehensive, but tricky to install. LLL, MLLL, Fincke-Pohst but doesn't work with Gram matrices; needs an explicit list of vectors. Freely available from Darmstadt at  
<http://www.informatik.tu-darmstadt.de/TI/LiDIA/>

4. **Pate Williams** has programmed many of the algorithms in Cohen's book, including LLL (no MLLL or Fincke-Pohst).

<http://www.mindspring.com/~pate/>

He uses Arjen Lenstra's LIP code for large integer arithmetic in C, which is hard to read; e.g. `c=a+b;` is written as

```
zmul(a,b,&c);
```

5. I have written my own code for LLL and Fincke-Pohst in C++ using Owen Astrachan's code (1996) for arbitrary precision integer arithmetic. This came out a little before LIP. His `bigint.h` and `bigint.cc` are widely available over the WWW. This allows us to use `+`, `*`, `/`, `%` etc. in class `BigInt`.

## Kreher's Computations

Let  $G$  be a permutation group of degree  $v$ , and let  $A_{tk}$  be the 'incidence matrix' of  $G$ -orbits on  $t$ -subsets of points, versus  $G$ -orbits on  $k$ -subsets of points.

(The  $(\mathcal{O}, \mathcal{O}')$ -entry of  $A_{tk}$  equals the number of  $B \in \mathcal{O}'$  containing a fixed  $A \in \mathcal{O}$ .)

$G$ -invariant  $t$ - $(v, k, \lambda)$  designs are equivalent to  $(0, 1)$ -solutions of

$$A_{t,k}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{1}$$

which can be solved using LLL or MLLL.

This led Kreher et al. to discover many new designs.