Lattice Basis Reduction and the LLL Algorithm

Curtis Bright

May 21, 2009

Point Lattices

- A *point lattice* is a discrete additive subgroup of \mathbb{R}^n .
- A basis for a lattice $L \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a set of linearly independent vectors $\boldsymbol{b}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{b}_d \in \mathbb{R}^n$ whose 'integer span' generates L:

$$L = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{d} x_i \boldsymbol{b}_i : x_i \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

- In particular, we will be concerned about the case when $b_i \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, so $L \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^n$.
- *d* is the *dimension* of the lattice.





Changing Bases

• The lattices in \mathbb{Z}^4 generated by the rows of

 $B = \begin{bmatrix} -32 & 27 & 99 & 92 \\ -74 & 8 & 29 & -31 \\ -4 & 69 & 44 & 67 \end{bmatrix}$ $B' = \begin{bmatrix} -4339936 & -682927 & -2330272 & -6748685 \\ 268783718 & 42311760 & 144378994 & 418036006 \\ 47833660 & 7038229 & 23910075 & 72218282 \end{bmatrix}$

are the same. This is shown by writing each row in B as a \mathbb{Z} -linear combination of the rows of B', and vice versa.

- That is, there exist change-of-basis matrices U and U' with integer entries such that B' = UB and B = U'B'.
- Since U and $U' = U^{-1}$ both have integer entries, det U and det $U^{-1} = 1/\det U$ are both integers.
- Therefore det $U = \pm 1$ (U is unimodular).



- We define the *volume* of a lattice L with basis B to be the volume of the [0, 1)-span of its basis vectors.
- If B is square then vol $L = |\det B|$, and in general vol $L = \sqrt{\det(BB^T)}$.
- This is well defined: if B' is some other basis of L then

$$\sqrt{\det(B'B'^T)} = \sqrt{\det(UBB^TU^T)} = \sqrt{\det(BB^T)}$$

since U is unimodular.

Lattice Reduction

- Some bases are much easier to work with than others. This suggests we try to find:
 - A method of ranking the bases of a lattice in some desirable order.
 - An efficient way to find desirable bases of a lattice when given one of its other bases.

The Best Basis

- The best possible basis $\boldsymbol{b}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{b}_d$ of L would have \boldsymbol{b}_1 the shortest possible nonzero vector in L and in general \boldsymbol{b}_i the shortest possible nonzero vector such that $\boldsymbol{b}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{b}_i$ are linearly independent.
- Of course such vectors always exist, but perhaps surprisingly for $d \ge 4$ they do not necessarily form a basis of L.

• For example, the lattice generated by the following basis:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & & 2 \\ 1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$$

- For $n \ge 5$ the last vector is no longer the shortest possible vector in the lattice; in this case the shortest possible vector has norm 2 and there are exactly n vectors (up to sign) which reach the minimum.
- These vectors are linearly independent but generate $(2\mathbb{Z})^n$ instead.

Minkowski Reduction

• The next best thing:

Definition. A basis b_1, \ldots, b_d of L is Minkowski reduced if b_i is the shortest possible vector such that b_1, \ldots, b_i may be extended into a basis of L for each $1 \leq i \leq d$.

- This is a greedy definition: it may concede a large increase in later b_i for a small decrease in an early b_i.
- Computationally, finding a Minkowski reduced basis leads to a combinatorial problem with a search space exponential in d.
- Even just computing b_1 (the Shortest Vector Problem) is NP-hard when the maximum norm is used.

Lagrange Reduction

- Historically the first lattice reduction considered (by Lagrange in 1773) was in two dimensions.
- It gives rise to a simple algorithm, rather similar in style to Euclid's famous gcd algorithm: the norms of the input vectors are continually decreased by subtracting appropriate multiples of one vector from the other.
- If $\|\boldsymbol{b}_1\| \leq \|\boldsymbol{b}_2\|$ then we want to replace \boldsymbol{b}_2 with $\boldsymbol{b}_2 v\boldsymbol{b}_1$ for some v such that $\|\boldsymbol{b}_2 v\boldsymbol{b}_1\|$ is minimized.



• But it is essential that $v \in \mathbb{Z}$, so take

$$v := \left\lfloor \frac{\langle \boldsymbol{b}_2, \boldsymbol{b}_1 \rangle}{\|\boldsymbol{b}_1\|^2} \right\rceil$$

• In the case $\left|\frac{\langle \boldsymbol{b}_2, \boldsymbol{b}_1 \rangle}{\|\boldsymbol{b}_1\|^2}\right| \leq \frac{1}{2}$ there is no multiplier we can use to strictly decrease the norm.

Definition. A basis $\boldsymbol{b}_1, \boldsymbol{b}_2$ of L is Lagrange reduced if $\|\boldsymbol{b}_1\| \leq \|\boldsymbol{b}_2\|$ and $\left|\frac{\langle \boldsymbol{b}_2, \boldsymbol{b}_1 \rangle}{\|\boldsymbol{b}_1\|^2}\right| \leq \frac{1}{2}$.

• Repeatedly applying this form of reduction yields Algorithm 1.3.14 in Cohen's text:

Input: A basis b₁, b₂ of a lattice L
Output: A Lagrange reduced basis of L
repeat

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{if } \|\boldsymbol{b}_1\| > \|\boldsymbol{b}_2\| \text{ then swap } \boldsymbol{b}_1 \text{ and } \boldsymbol{b}_2 \\ \boldsymbol{b}_2 := \boldsymbol{b}_2 - \left\lfloor \frac{\langle \boldsymbol{b}_2, \boldsymbol{b}_1 \rangle}{\|\boldsymbol{b}_1\|^2} \right\rceil \boldsymbol{b}_1 \\ \text{until } \|\boldsymbol{b}_1\| \le \|\boldsymbol{b}_2\| \\ \text{return } (\boldsymbol{b}_1, \boldsymbol{b}_2) \end{array}$$

- $\|\boldsymbol{b}_2\|$ decreases by at least a factor of $\sqrt{3}$ on every iteration (except possibly the first and last).
- Since $\|\boldsymbol{b}_2\|$ is always at least 1, there are $O(\log_{\sqrt{3}} \|\boldsymbol{b}_2\|)$ iterations.
- The arithmetic operations in each loop take $O(\log^2 || \boldsymbol{b}_2 ||)$, so this algorithm runs in time $O(\log^3 || \boldsymbol{b}_2 ||)$.

• Equivalently, we may consider Lagrange's algorithm as if it was using a *projected lattice*:



• Let L' be the lattice L projected orthogonally to b_1 . Then d = 1, so L' has only one basis up to sign:



• Now 'lift' the basis for L' into L. Of course, there are an infinite number ways to lift; we choose the shortest.



Korkin-Zolotarev Reduction

- The advantage to considering Lagrange's algorithm this way is that it generalizes to higher dimensions.
- Let b'_i be the component of b_i orthogonal to b_1 , i.e.,

$$\boldsymbol{b}'_i = \operatorname{proj}_{\operatorname{span}(\boldsymbol{b}_1)^{\perp}}(\boldsymbol{b}_i) = \boldsymbol{b}_i - \frac{\langle \boldsymbol{b}_i, \boldsymbol{b}_1 \rangle}{\|\boldsymbol{b}_1\|^2} \boldsymbol{b}_1 = \boldsymbol{b}_i - \mu_{i,1} \boldsymbol{b}_1.$$

Definition. A basis b_1, \ldots, b_d of L is Korkin-Zolotarev reduced if

- \boldsymbol{b}_1 is the shortest possible nonzero vector of L
- b'_2, \ldots, b'_d is a Korkin-Zolotarev reduced basis of L'
- b_2, \ldots, b_d are lifted from L' minimally: $|\mu_{i,1}| \leq \frac{1}{2}$ for $2 \leq i$
- Once again, this reduction notion requires solving SVP to find a Korkin-Zolotarev reduced basis—not good computationally.

- There are d recursive lattices in this definition: L with basis $\boldsymbol{b}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{b}_d$ L' with basis $\boldsymbol{b}'_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{b}'_d$ $L^{(2)}$ with basis $\boldsymbol{b}^{(2)}_3, \ldots, \boldsymbol{b}^{(2)}_d$ \vdots $L^{(d-1)}$ with basis $\boldsymbol{b}^{(d-1)}_d$
- Denote $\boldsymbol{b}_i^{(i-1)}$ by \boldsymbol{b}_i^* . By induction it may be shown

$$\boldsymbol{b}_i^* = \operatorname{proj}_{\operatorname{span}(\boldsymbol{b}_1^*, \dots, \boldsymbol{b}_{i-1}^*)^{\perp}}(\boldsymbol{b}_i).$$

• These are the *Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization* vectors. $\boldsymbol{b}_1^*, \ldots, \boldsymbol{b}_i^*$ is an orthogonal basis for $\operatorname{span}(\boldsymbol{b}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{b}_i)$.

Orthogonality Defect

• By the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization,

$$\operatorname{vol} L = \prod_{i=1}^{d} \|\boldsymbol{b}_{i}^{*}\| \leq \prod_{i=1}^{d} \|\boldsymbol{b}_{i}\|$$

with equality if and only if the b_i are orthogonal.

- The larger $\prod_{i=1}^{d} \|\boldsymbol{b}_i\|$ is compared to vol L the less orthogonal the \boldsymbol{b}_i are. So $\prod_{i=1}^{d} \|\boldsymbol{b}_i\|/\text{vol } L$ is known as the *orthogonality defect*, and is a method of ranking the bases of a lattice.
- We would like a guarantee that the reductions we consider have an orthogonality defect bounded by some function of d:

$$\prod_{i=1}^{d} \|\boldsymbol{b}_i\| \le f(d) \operatorname{vol} L.$$

Hermite Reduction

- Historically, Hermite was the first to consider lattice reduction in arbitrary dimension in two letters sent to Jacobi in 1845.
- Hermite reduction is weaker than Korkin-Zolotarev reduction, but stronger than LLL reduction.
- Nevertheless, the properties we will show for Hermite reduced bases also apply to LLL reduced bases (with small modifications).

Definition. A basis b_1, \ldots, b_d of L is Hermite reduced if

- $\|\boldsymbol{b}_1\| \leq \|\boldsymbol{b}_i\|$ for all i
- b'_2, \ldots, b'_d is a Hermite reduced basis of L'
- b_2, \ldots, b_d are lifted from L' minimally: $|\mu_{i,1}| \leq \frac{1}{2}$ for $2 \leq i$

A Nice Bound

• Hermite reduced bases satisfy the following bound:

 $\|oldsymbol{b}_i\|^2 \leq rac{4}{3}\|oldsymbol{b}_i'\|^2$

- Intuitively this says that the projected vector b'_i isn't that much smaller than the original b_i .
- Actually follows from the Pythagorean Theorem in d dimensions and the fact $\|\mu_{i,1}\boldsymbol{b}_1\| \leq \frac{1}{2}\|\boldsymbol{b}_i\|$.

$$egin{array}{c|c} \mu_{2,1} \boldsymbol{b}_1 & \boldsymbol{b}_2 & \boldsymbol{b}_1 \\ \bullet & \boldsymbol{b}_2' & \boldsymbol{b}_1 \end{array}$$

• Using the Pythagorean Theorem,

$$egin{aligned} \|m{b}_i\|^2 &= \|m{b}_i'\|^2 + \|\mu_{i,1}m{b}_1\|^2 \ &\leq \|m{b}_i'\|^2 + rac{1}{4}\|m{b}_i\|^2 \ &rac{3}{4}\|m{b}_i\|^2 &\leq \|m{b}_i'\|^2 \ &\|m{b}_i\|^2 &\leq rac{4}{3}\|m{b}_i'\|^2 \ &\leq ig(rac{4}{3}ig)^2 \ &\|m{b}_i^{(2)}\|^2 \ &dots \ &dots$$

by repeated application of the bound.

• Intuitively, as *i* increases \boldsymbol{b}_i^* is allowed to become increasingly smaller than \boldsymbol{b}_i , but not arbitrarily smaller.

• From $\|\boldsymbol{b}_i\| \leq \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{(i-1)/2} \|\boldsymbol{b}_i^*\|$ we can bound the orthogonality defect:

$$\begin{split} \prod_{i=1}^{d} \|\boldsymbol{b}_{i}\| &\leq \prod_{i=1}^{d} \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{(i-1)/2} \|\boldsymbol{b}_{i}^{*}\| \\ &= \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{\sum_{i=1}^{d} (i-1)/2} \operatorname{vol} L \\ &= \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{d(d-1)/4} \operatorname{vol} L \end{split}$$

Approximate Shortest Vector Problem

- Hermite reduced bases can also be used to *approximate* a solution to SVP.
- Let $\boldsymbol{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} r_i \boldsymbol{b}_i$ be a shortest nonzero vector in L (i.e., a solution to SVP), where $r_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r_k \neq 0$.
- It is difficult to bound a sum of b_i directly since they are not orthogonal. So we rewrite using Gram-Schmidt:

$$\boldsymbol{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} r_i \left(\boldsymbol{b}_i^* + \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \mu_{i,j} \boldsymbol{b}_j^* \right) = r_k \boldsymbol{b}_k^* + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} s_i \boldsymbol{b}_i^*$$

for some $s_i \in \mathbb{Q}$.

• Now we can use a generalization of the Pythagorean Theorem,

$$\|m{x}\|^2 = \|r_k m{b}_k^*\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \|s_i m{b}_i^*\|^2 \ge r_k^2 \|m{b}_k^*\|^2 \ge \|m{b}_k^*\|^2.$$

• Using previous bounds on \boldsymbol{b}_i with i = k,

$$\|m{b}_1\| \le \|m{b}_k\| \le \left(rac{4}{3}
ight)^{(k-1)/2} \|m{b}_k^*\| \le \left(rac{4}{3}
ight)^{(d-1)/2} \|m{x}\|.$$

• So b_1 is at most a factor of $\left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{(d-1)/2}$ longer than the shortest possible nonzero vector in L.

Optimal-LLL Reduction

• There is no algorithm known which can provably compute a Hermite reduced basis efficiently (polynomial time in d). So, we weaken the conditions again:

Definition. A basis b_1, \ldots, b_d of L is optimal-LLL reduced if

- $\bullet \|\boldsymbol{b}_1\| \leq \|\boldsymbol{b}_2\|$
- b'_2, \ldots, b'_d is an optimal-LLL reduced basis of L'
- b_2, \ldots, b_d are lifted from L' minimally: $|\mu_{i,1}| \leq \frac{1}{2}$ for $2 \leq i$

• Optimal-LLL reduced bases no longer satisfy the nice bound $\|\boldsymbol{b}_i\|^2 \leq \frac{4}{3} \|\boldsymbol{b}'_i\|^2$, but do satisfy a similar one,

 $\|m{b}_i^*\|^2 \leq rac{4}{3}\|m{b}_{i+1}^*\|^2.$

• In fact, with a little more work we can derive the same properties as in the Hermite case:

$$egin{aligned} \|m{b}_i\| &\leq \left(rac{4}{3}
ight)^{(i-1)/2} \|m{b}_i^*\| \ &\prod_{i=1}^d \|m{b}_i\| &\leq \left(rac{4}{3}
ight)^{d(d-1)/4} \operatorname{vol} L \ &\|m{b}_1\| &\leq \left(rac{4}{3}
ight)^{(d-1)/2} \|m{x}\| \end{aligned}$$

• There is no algorithm known which can provably compute an optimal-LLL reduced basis efficiently (polynomial time in d).

LLL Reduction

• We weaken optimal-LLL reduction by allowing some slack room in the $\|\boldsymbol{b}_1\| \leq \|\boldsymbol{b}_2\|$ condition:

Definition. A basis b_1, \ldots, b_d of L is LLL reduced with quality parameter $c \in (1, 4)$ if

- $\|\boldsymbol{b}_1\| \leq \sqrt{c} \|\boldsymbol{b}_2\|$
- b'_2, \ldots, b'_d is an LLL reduced basis of L' (with quality c)
- b_2, \ldots, b_d are lifted from L' minimally: $|\mu_{i,1}| \leq \frac{1}{2}$ for $2 \leq i$
- The smaller c is, the less slack room and the better the reduction.

- Define $C = \frac{4c}{4-c}$; note that $C > \frac{4}{3}$ for c > 1 but we can set C arbitrarily close to $\frac{4}{3}$.
- Analogously to the Hermite case, LLL reduced bases satisfy:

• In the original LLL paper $c = \frac{4}{3}$ was used, so C = 2.

The Punchline

• The straightforward way of applying the definition of an LLL reduced basis gives an algorithm for computing an LLL reduced basis efficiently (polynomial time in d).

Input: A basis b_1, \ldots, b_d of a lattice L; a quality parameter cOutput: An LLL reduced basis of L (with quality c) if d = 1 then return (b_1) repeat if $||b_1|| > \sqrt{c} ||b_2||$ then swap b_1 and b_2 $(b_2, \ldots, b_d) := \text{lift}_{b_1}(\text{LLLREDUCE}_c(b'_2, \ldots, b'_d))$ until $||b_1|| \le \sqrt{c} ||b_2||$ return (b_1, \ldots, b_d)

The Iterative LLL Definition: Size Reduction

• The shortest-lift condition in the *j*th recursive lattice is $|\mu_i^{(j)}| \leq \frac{1}{2}$ for j + 1 < i, where:

$$\mu_{i}^{(j)} = \frac{\left\langle \boldsymbol{b}_{i}^{(j)}, \boldsymbol{b}_{j+1}^{(j)} \right\rangle}{\left\| \boldsymbol{b}_{j+1}^{(j)} \right\|^{2}} = \frac{\left\langle \boldsymbol{b}_{i} - \sum_{k=1}^{j} \mu_{i,k} \boldsymbol{b}_{k}^{*}, \boldsymbol{b}_{j+1}^{*} \right\rangle}{\left\| \boldsymbol{b}_{j+1}^{*} \right\|^{2}}$$
$$= \frac{\left\langle \boldsymbol{b}_{i}, \boldsymbol{b}_{j+1}^{*} \right\rangle}{\left\| \boldsymbol{b}_{j+1}^{*} \right\|^{2}}$$
$$= \mu_{i,j+1}$$

- So the shortest-lift condition implies $|\mu_{i,j}| \leq \frac{1}{2}$ for j < i.
- This is called *size-reduction*.

The Iterative LLL Definition: Lovász Condition

• The $\|\boldsymbol{b}_1\| \leq \sqrt{c} \|\boldsymbol{b}_2\|$ condition in the *i*th recursive lattice:

$$\begin{aligned} \left\| \boldsymbol{b}_{i+1}^{(i)} \right\| &\leq \sqrt{c} \left\| \boldsymbol{b}_{i+2}^{(i)} \right\| \\ &= \sqrt{c} \left\| \boldsymbol{b}_{i+2} - \sum_{j=1}^{i} \mu_{i+2,j} \boldsymbol{b}_{j}^{*} \right\| \\ &= \sqrt{c} \left\| \boldsymbol{b}_{i+2}^{*} + \mu_{i+2,i+1} \boldsymbol{b}_{i+1}^{*} \right\| \end{aligned}$$

- So the \boldsymbol{b}_1 -bound condition implies $\|\boldsymbol{b}_i^*\| \leq \sqrt{c} \|\boldsymbol{b}_{i+1}^* + \mu_{i+1,i} \boldsymbol{b}_i^*\|$ for $i \geq 1$.
- This is called the *Lovász condition*.

Non-recursive LLL Reduction

• Putting these conditions together gives Definition 2.6.1 in Cohen's text:

Definition. A basis b_1, \ldots, b_d is LLL reduced with quality parameter $c \in (1, 4)$ if

•
$$|\mu_{i,j}| \le \frac{1}{2}$$
 for $1 \le j < i \le d$

- $\|\boldsymbol{b}_{i-1}^*\| \leq \sqrt{c} \|\boldsymbol{b}_i^* + \mu_{i,i-1} \boldsymbol{b}_{i-1}^*\|$ for $1 < i \leq d$
- Say we have some basis b_1, \ldots, b_k such that the first k-1 vectors form an LLL reduced basis. If
 - \boldsymbol{b}_k is size-reduced against the first k-1 vectors
 - the Lovász condition holds for i = k

then $\boldsymbol{b}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{b}_k$ is also an LLL reduced basis.

The Iterative LLL Algorithm

```
Input: A basis b_1, \ldots, b_d of a lattice L; a quality parameter c
   Output: An LLL reduced basis of L (with quality c)
      k := 2
      while k \leq d do
          size-reduce \boldsymbol{b}_k against \boldsymbol{b}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{b}_{k-1}
         if \|\boldsymbol{b}_{k-1}^*\| \leq \sqrt{c} \|\boldsymbol{b}_k^* + \mu_{k,k-1} \boldsymbol{b}_{k-1}^*\| then
             k := k + 1
          else
             swap \boldsymbol{b}_{k-1} and \boldsymbol{b}_k
             k := \max(k - 1, 2)
          end if
       end while
      return (\boldsymbol{b}_1,\ldots,\boldsymbol{b}_d)
• At the start of the loop, b_1, \ldots, b_{k-1} is an LLL reduced basis.
```



Bounding the Number of Swaps

• Let B_k be the basis consisting of the first k basis vectors, L_k the lattice formed by the basis B_k , and

$$d_k = (\operatorname{vol} L_k)^2 = \det(B_k B_k^T) = \prod_{i=1}^k ||\boldsymbol{b}_i^*||^2.$$

- If the \boldsymbol{b}_i are integer vectors then $d_k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.
- During LLL, a swap of \boldsymbol{b}_k and \boldsymbol{b}_{k+1} decreases d_k by a factor of at least c, and doesn't change d_i for $i \neq k$.
- Thus, if we define

$$D = \prod_{i=1}^{d} d_i$$

then D decreases by a factor of at least c after every swap.

• Thus, there are at most $\log_c(D)$ swaps. Since

$$D = \prod_{i=1}^{d} \|\boldsymbol{b}_{i}^{*}\|^{2(d-i+1)} \leq \prod_{i=1}^{d} \|\boldsymbol{b}_{i}\|^{2(d-i+1)} \leq \max_{i} \|\boldsymbol{b}_{i}\|^{d(d+1)}$$

there are $O(\log D) = O(d^2 \log B)$ swaps, where $B = \max_i ||\mathbf{b}_i||$ for the original \mathbf{b}_i .

- The size of the numbers involved remain reasonable throughout the algorithm:
 - $\|\boldsymbol{b}_i^*\| \leq B.$
 - The denominators of b_i^* and $\mu_{i,j}$ divide vol L.
 - $\log \|\boldsymbol{b}_i\|$ and $\log |\mu_{i,j}|$ are $O(d \log B)$.
- Size-reduction requires O(n) arithmetic operations, and there are O(d) vectors to size-reduce against.
- Total cost of LLL is therefore $O(nd^5(\log B)^3)$ without fast arithmetic.

Factoring Polynomials over the Integers

- If f is an integer polynomial with an algebraic root, if we can find the minimal polynomial of that root then we have an irreducible factor of f.
- Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ be an approximation to a algebraic root of f with a minimal polynomial h of degree m.

• For some constant N let L be the lattice generated by the rows of the following basis:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{b}_0 \\ \boldsymbol{b}_1 \\ \boldsymbol{b}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{b}_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & N \Re(\alpha^0) & N \Im(\alpha^0) \\ 1 & & N \Re(\alpha^1) & N \Im(\alpha^1) \\ & 1 & & N \Re(\alpha^2) & N \Im(\alpha^2) \\ & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ & & 1 & N \Re(\alpha^m) & N \Im(\alpha^m) \end{bmatrix}$$

- Any $\boldsymbol{x} \in L$ has form $\boldsymbol{x} = \sum_{i=0}^{m} g_i \boldsymbol{b}_i$ for some $g_i \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- Can think of (g_0, \ldots, g_m) as $\boldsymbol{g} \in \mathbb{Z}^m$ or an integer polynomial $g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m g_i x^i$.

• Any $\boldsymbol{x} \in L$ has the form

$$oldsymbol{x} = egin{bmatrix} oldsymbol{g}^T & N\,\Re(g(lpha)) & N\,\Im(g(lpha)) \end{bmatrix},$$

and it follows $\|x\|^2 = \|g\|^2 + N^2 |g(\alpha)|^2$.

- We can make h(α) arbitrarily small by increasing the precision of α.
- So by taking N large enough, we can make the shortest nonzero vector in L be

$$oldsymbol{s} = egin{bmatrix} oldsymbol{h}^T & N\,\Re(h(lpha)) & N\,\Im(h(lpha)) \end{bmatrix}.$$

- And then increasing N by a factor $\approx 2^{m/2}$ ensures that any vector $\boldsymbol{x} \in L$ not a multiple of \boldsymbol{s} will have $\|\boldsymbol{x}\|^2 > 2^m \|\boldsymbol{s}\|^2$.
- LLL will always find a vector $\|\boldsymbol{b}_0\|^2 \leq 2^m \|\boldsymbol{s}\|^2$.