Better Lattice Quantizers Constructed From Complex Integers

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Abstract—This paper investigates low-dimensional quantizers from the perspective of complex lattices. We adopt Eisenstein integers and Gaussian integers to define checkerboard lattices \( \mathcal{E}_m \) and \( \mathcal{G}_m \). By explicitly linking their lattice bases to various forms of \( \mathcal{E}_m \) and \( \mathcal{G}_m \) cosets, we discover the \( \mathcal{E}^+_m,2 \) lattices, based on which we report the best known lattice quantizers in dimensions 14, 15, 18, 19, 22 and 23. Fast quantization algorithms of the generalized checkerboard lattices are proposed to enable evaluating the normalized second moment (NSM) through Monte Carlo integration.

Index Terms—Lattice quantizers, complex integers, checkerboard lattices, quantization algorithms.

I. INTRODUCTION

The theory of lattices has been used to achieve remarkable breakthroughs in a wide range of fields, ranging from communications to cryptography. Most of the applications require the construction of good lattices for sphere-packing (e.g., channel coding [1], [2], [3]) or quantization (e.g., lossy source coding [4], spatial lattice modulation [5], data hiding [6]). For a long time sphere-packing has attracted the attention of Mathematicians. Many low-dimensional dense lattices have been found [7], whose optimality have been proved in dimensions 3, 8, and 24 [8], [9], [10].

Compared to sphere-packing, optimal lattices for quantization are less developed. The optimal lattice quantizer refers to the lattice that features the smallest normalized second moment (NSM). If the lattice is used as a quantizer, all the points in the Voronoi region around the lattice point \( y \) are represented by \( y \). In dimensions \( 13 \leq n \leq 23 \), most of the best known lattice quantizers have been \( D_n^* \) and \( A_n^* \) [11] (except the Barnes–Wall lattice \( \Lambda_{16} \) and the tailbiting codes based lattice in \( n = 20 \) [12]), whose NSMs are much larger than Zador’s upper bound. Recently Agrell and Allen [13] employed the technique of product lattices to improve lattice quantizers in these dimensions, but the quantizers may still be far from being optimal (see [13, Thm. 7]).

To construct a lattice quantizer, it seems more rewarding to start from an algebraic approach [7] rather than a random-search approach [14]. Many known optimal lattices exhibit a high degree of symmetry, which can be induced by constructing algebraic lattices through rings of number fields. Compared to high order cyclotomic fields, quadratic fields and complex integers are conceptually simpler. By using complex Constructions A and B to lift linear codes to lattices, Conway and Sloane [7, Chap. 7] have shown that many optimal low-dimensional lattices can be produced. In addition, algebraic lattices often enjoy faster quantization/decoding algorithms. E.g., complex lattices defined by Gaussian integers and Eisenstein integers have been used to construct lattice reduction algorithms which are about 50% faster than their counterparts [15], [16].

This paper attempts to further advance low-dimensional lattice quantizers from the perspective of complex lattices. The contributions are summarized as follows:

- We discover the \( \mathcal{E}^+_m,2 \) lattices, which exhibit the best reported NSM in dimensions 14, 18, and 22. These lattices are built by appropriately choosing the union of cosets from the complex-valued checkerboard lattices, where the crux is to link the lattice bases to various forms of cosets. The product lattices based on \( \mathcal{E}^+_m,2 \) also achieve the best reported quantizers in dimensions 15, 19, and 23. The generalized checkerboard lattices from the perspectives of Eisenstein integers and Gaussian integers include the equivalent forms of the celebrated \( D_n^* \), \( E_6^* \) and \( E_8^* \) lattices. In the context of applications where low-dimensional lattice quantizers are popular (see [5], [6]), the proposed quantizers can be employed to achieve the smallest NSM in their respective dimensions.

- We present efficient quantization algorithms for the proposed generalized checkerboard lattices, which are denoted as \( Q_{\mathcal{E}_m}, Q_{\mathcal{G}_m}, Q_{\mathcal{E}_{m,2}}, Q_{\mathcal{E}_{m,1+\omega}}, Q_{\mathcal{G}_{m,2}}, \) and \( Q_{\mathcal{G}_{m,1+\omega}} \). The rationale behind \( Q_{\mathcal{E}_m} \) and \( Q_{\mathcal{G}_m} \) is to modify the coefficients after component-wise quantization, whereas the principle of \( Q_{\mathcal{E}_{m,2}}, Q_{\mathcal{E}_{m,1+\omega}}, Q_{\mathcal{G}_{m,2}}, \) and \( Q_{\mathcal{G}_{m,1+\omega}} \) is to use coset decomposition. With the aid of the presented algorithms, the NSM of the proposed lattices can be numerically evaluated through Monte Carlo integration.

Notation: Matrices and column vectors are denoted by uppercase and lowercase boldface letters. The sets of all
rational, integers, real and complex numbers are denoted by \( \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{R} \) and \( \mathbb{C} \), respectively. \( \oplus, \otimes \) and \( \ominus \) denote the direct sum, the Kronecker tensor product and the Cartesian product, respectively. \( \text{sum}(\cdot) \) represents the summation of all the components in a vector. \( Q_{\text{best}}(\cdot) \) is the nearest neighbor operator that finds the closest element/vector of the set \( S \) to the input. \( R(\cdot) \) and \( I(\cdot) \) are the operators of getting the real and imaginary parts of the input, respectively. \( \cong \) denotes the equivalence of lattices.

II. Preliminaries

A. Real-Valued Lattices

Definition 1 (Real Lattice): An \( n \)-dimensional lattice \( \Lambda \) is a discrete additive subgroup of \( \mathbb{R}^n \), \( n' \geq n \). Consider \( n \) linearly independent vectors \( \mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_n \) in \( \mathbb{R}^n \), the associated lattice is represented by

\[
\Lambda = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}) = \{ \sum_{j=1}^{n} z_j \mathbf{b}_j : z_1, \ldots, z_n \in \mathbb{Z} \}. 
\]

(1)

\( \mathbf{B} = [\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_n] \) is referred to as the generator matrix (basis) of \( \Lambda \).

“Quantization” denotes the map from a vector \( \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n \) to the closest lattice point of \( \Lambda \):

\[
Q_{\Lambda}(\mathbf{y}) = \arg \min_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \| \mathbf{y} - \lambda \|. 
\]

(2)

The r.h.s. of Eq. (2) is known as solving the closet vector problem (CVP) [17] of \( \Lambda \), which requires efficient algorithms to do so. The CVP of \( \Lambda \) can be adapted to its coset \( g + \Lambda \):

\[
Q_{\Lambda+g}(\mathbf{y}) = g + Q_{\Lambda}(\mathbf{y} - g). 
\]

(3)

The Voronoi region \( \mathcal{V}_\Lambda \) of a lattice \( \Lambda \) is the convex polytope

\[
\mathcal{V}_\Lambda = \{ \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \| \mathbf{y} \|^2 \leq \| \mathbf{y} - \lambda \|^2 \} \text{ for all } \lambda \in \Lambda \}. 
\]

(4)

Since \( \mathbf{y} - Q_{\Lambda}(\mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{V}_\Lambda \), the quantizer’s properties are determined by \( \mathcal{V}_\Lambda \). The NSM of a lattice \( \Lambda \) is defined as

\[
G_n(\Lambda) = \frac{\int_{\mathcal{V}_\Lambda} \| \mathbf{x} \|^2 \text{d} \mathbf{x}}{n \det(\Lambda)^{1+\frac{d}{n}}},
\]

where \( \det(\Lambda) = \det(\mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{B})^{1/2} \) is referred to as the volume of \( \Lambda \).

B. Complex-Valued Lattices

Definition 2 (Quadratic Field): A quadratic field is an algebraic number field \( \mathbb{K} \) of degree \( [\mathbb{K} : \mathbb{Q}] = 2 \) over \( \mathbb{Q} \). For a square free positive integer \( d \), we say \( \mathbb{K} = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-d}) \) is an imaginary quadratic field.

Definition 3 (Complex Integer): The set of algebraic integers in \( \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-d}) \) forms a ring of integers denoted as \( \mathbb{Z}[\xi] \), where \( \xi = \sqrt{-d} \) if \( d \equiv 2, 3 \mod 4 \), and \( \xi = (1+\sqrt{-d})/2 \) if \( -d \equiv 1 \mod 4 \).

By setting \( d = 1 \), we obtain the set of Gaussian integers \( \mathbb{Z}[i] \), \( i \equiv \sqrt{-1} \). By setting \( d = 3 \), we obtain the set of Eisenstein integers \( \mathbb{Z}[\omega] \), \( \omega \equiv \frac{1+\sqrt{-3}}{2} \) (\( \omega \) is set as the sixth root of unity for convenience, rather than the third root of unity).

Definition 4 (Complex Lattice [15]): An \( m \)-dimensional complex lattice \( \tilde{\Lambda} \) is a discrete \( \mathbb{Z}[\xi] \)-submodule of \( \mathbb{C}^m \) that has a basis, \( \mathbb{C}^m \geq m \). Consider \( m \) linearly independent vectors \( \mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_m \) in \( \mathbb{C}^m \), the associated complex-valued lattice is represented by

\[
\tilde{\Lambda} = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}) = \{ \sum_{j=1}^{m} z_j \mathbf{b}_j \in \mathbb{C}^m : z_1, \ldots, z_m \in \mathbb{Z}[\xi] \}. 
\]

(6)

\( \tilde{\mathbf{B}} = [\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_m] \) is referred to as the generator matrix of \( \tilde{\Lambda} \).

The complex quantizer is defined as

\[
Q_{\tilde{\Lambda}}(\mathbf{y}) = \arg \min_{\lambda \in \tilde{\Lambda}} \| \mathbf{y} - \lambda \|, 
\]

(7)

which returns the closest vector to \( \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}^m \) over \( \tilde{\Lambda} \). The r.h.s. of (7) is referred to as the CVP of a complex lattice.

Based on the complex-to-real transform of \( \Psi : \mathbb{C}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2m}, \quad [x_1, \ldots, x_m]^T \rightarrow [R(x_1), \ldots, R(x_m), I(x_1), \ldots, I(x_m)]^T, \)

(8)

it is shown that \( Q_{\tilde{\Lambda}}(\mathbf{y}) \) amounts to a real-valued quantizer \( Q_{\Psi(\tilde{\Lambda})}(\Psi(\mathbf{y})) \). The 2m-dimensional real-valued lattice \( \Psi(\tilde{\Lambda}) \) has a basis

\[
\mathbf{B}_{\Psi(\tilde{\Lambda})} = \begin{bmatrix} R(\tilde{\mathbf{B}}) & I(\tilde{\mathbf{B}}) & \bar{\Phi}^{m}[\xi] \end{bmatrix} K_{m} \mathbf{I}_m, 
\]

where \( \bar{\Phi}^{m}[\xi] \) denotes the real-valued basis of \( \mathbb{Z}[\xi] \). In particular

\[
\bar{\Phi}[\xi][i] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \bar{\Phi}[\xi][i/2] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1/2 \\ 0 & \sqrt{3}/2 \end{bmatrix}. 
\]

(9)

The volume and the NSM of \( \tilde{\Lambda} \) can both be defined by \( \Psi(\tilde{\Lambda}) \):

\[
\det(\tilde{\mathbf{B}}) \triangleq \det(\bar{\mathbf{B}}) |\det(\bar{\Phi}[\xi]|^m. 
\]

(10)

\[
G^C_m(\tilde{\Lambda}) \triangleq G_{2m}(\Psi(\tilde{\Lambda})). 
\]

(11)

III. Generalization of the Checkerboard Lattice

The checkerboard lattice [7] is defined as

\[
\mathcal{D}_n = \{ (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n : x_1 + \cdots + x_n \in 2Z \}, 
\]

(14)

while the \( D_n^+ \) family [7] is defined as the union of \( \mathcal{D}_n \) and its cosets.

To endow more algebraic properties to \( \mathcal{D}_n \) and \( D_n^+ \), we can generalize the real-valued rings to rings of imaginary quadratic fields. The Eisenstein integers \( \mathbb{Z}[\omega] \) and Gaussian integers \( \mathbb{Z}[i] \) have shown promising performance in coding theory (see, e.g., [18], [19], [20]), so we adopt such rings to define generalized checkerboard lattices (\( \mathbb{Z}[\omega] \)-based \( \mathcal{E}_{m}, \mathcal{E}_{m,2}, \mathcal{E}_{m,1} \) and \( \mathbb{Z}[i] \)-based \( \mathcal{G}_m, \mathcal{G}_{m,2}, \mathcal{G}_{m,1} \)). The partition chains of these lattices are depicted in Fig. 1.
A. \( Z[\omega] \)-Lattices: \( \mathcal{E}_m, \mathcal{E}_{m+2}^+, \) and \( \mathcal{E}_{m+1+\omega}^+ \)

In Eq. (14), \( 2 \) is the coefficient with the smallest norm among \( Z \) except 0 and units. Regarding the coefficient to define the summation of a \( Z[\omega] \)-based checkerboard lattice, it is reasonable to choose \( 1 + \omega \), which has the smallest norm \((1 + \omega) = 3\) among \( Z[\omega] \) except 0 and units.\(^1\)

**Definition 5:** A sublattice of \( Z[\omega]^m \) is defined as
\[
\mathcal{E}_m = \{ (\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_m) \in Z[\omega]^m : \bar{x}_1 + \cdots + \bar{x}_m \in (1 + \omega)Z[\omega] \}.
\]

(15)

When \( m = 1 \), the basis of \( \mathcal{E}_m \) is simply \( 1 + \omega \). When \( m \geq 2 \), the following lemma gives the general form of its lattice basis.

**Lemma 6:** If \( \beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_m \in Z[\omega]^m \) are \( m \) linear independent vectors satisfying
1. \( \text{sum}(\beta_1) \in (1 + \omega)Z[\omega], \ldots, \text{sum}(\beta_m) \in (1 + \omega)Z[\omega] \),
2. \( |\text{det}([\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_m])|^2 = 3, \)
then \([\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_m] \) is a lattice basis of \( \mathcal{E}_m \).

**Proof:** Condition 1) guarantees that \([\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_m] \) forms either a full lattice or a sublattice of \( \mathcal{E}_m \). Since \( Z[\omega]^m \) consists of
\[
\{(\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_m) \in Z[\omega]^m : \bar{x}_1 + \cdots + \bar{x}_m \in (1 + \omega)Z[\omega]\}
\]
\[
\cup \{ (\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_m) \in Z[\omega]^m : \bar{x}_1 + \cdots + \bar{x}_m \in (1 + \omega)Z[\omega] + 1 \}
\]
\[
\cup \{ (\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_m) \in Z[\omega]^m : \bar{x}_1 + \cdots + \bar{x}_m \in (1 + \omega)Z[\omega] + \omega \},
\]
we have \( |\mathcal{E}_m/Z[\omega]^m| = 3 \). Thus the condition of \( |\text{det}([\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_m])|^2 = 3 \) justifies that \([\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_m] \) cannot be a sublattice of \( \mathcal{E}_m \).

Then the lattice basis of \( \mathcal{E}_m \) can be instantiated as
\[
\mathbf{B}_{\mathcal{E}_m} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{m-1} & \mathbf{0}_{1 \times (m-1)} \\ \mathbf{0} & 1 + \omega \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_m,
\]
where \( \mathbf{I}_{m-1}, \mathbf{0}_{1 \times (m-1)} \) denote an identity matrix, a column vector of zeros, and a row vector of ones. The subscripts indicate their dimensions.

**Definition 7:** The union of \( \mathcal{E}_m \)-cosets is defined as
\[
\mathcal{E}_{m+2}^+ = \mathcal{E}_m \cup (\mathcal{E}_m + \frac{d}{1 + \omega}) \cup (\mathcal{E}_m + \omega \frac{d}{1 + \omega}) \cup (\mathcal{E}_m + \omega^2 \frac{d}{1 + \omega}),
\]
where \( \mathbf{d} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \mathbf{b}_k = [1, 1, \ldots, m \omega + 1]^T. \)

(17)

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\( ^1 \) We have checked other choices for the summation coefficient, but the resulted lattices are inferior to \( \mathcal{E}_m \).

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**Theorem 8:** \( \mathcal{E}_{m+2}^+ = Z[\omega]d/2 \oplus Z[\omega]\mathbf{b}_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus Z[\omega]\mathbf{b}_m \)

is a lattice.

**Proof:** By using the decomposition of \( Z[\omega] \) w.r.t. \( 2Z[\omega] \), \( Z[\omega] = 2Z[\omega] \cup (2Z[\omega] + 1) \cup (2Z[\omega] + \omega) \cup (2Z[\omega] + \omega^2) \).

(18)

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Multiplying both sides with \( \mathbf{d}/2 \) yields
\[
Z[\omega]d/2 = Z[\omega]d \cup (Z[\omega]d + \mathbf{d}/2) \cup \ldots \cup (Z[\omega]d + \omega \mathbf{d}/2) \cup (Z[\omega]d + \omega^2 \mathbf{d}/2).
\]

(19)

Recall the definition of \( \mathcal{E}_m \) is
\[
\mathcal{E}_m = Z[\omega]\mathbf{b}_1 \oplus Z[\omega]\mathbf{b}_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus Z[\omega]\mathbf{b}_m = Z[\omega]\mathbf{d} \oplus Z[\omega]\mathbf{b}_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus Z[\omega]\mathbf{b}_m.
\]

(20)

By adding \( Z[\omega]\mathbf{b}_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus Z[\omega]\mathbf{b}_m \) to both sides of Eq. (19), the r.h.s. equals the definition of \( \mathcal{E}_{m+2}^+ \), while the r.h.s. equals \( Z[\omega]\mathbf{d}/2 \oplus Z[\omega]\mathbf{b}_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus Z[\omega]\mathbf{b}_m \).

The independence of \( \sum_{k=1}^{m} \mathbf{b}_k/2, \mathbf{b}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_m \) follows from the independence of \( \mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_m \). So the \( Z[\omega] \)-linear combination of \( m \) independent vectors generates a lattice.

The above theorem immediately shows that \( \mathcal{E}_{m+2} \) has a lattice basis
\[
\mathbf{B}_{\mathcal{E}_{m+2}} = [\mathbf{d}/2, \mathbf{b}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_m].
\]

(21)

E.g., the lattice basis of \( \mathcal{E}_{4+2}^+ \) can be written as
\[
\mathbf{B}_{\mathcal{E}_{4+2}^+} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.
\]

(22)

In the same vein, we define
\[
\mathcal{E}_{m+1+\omega}^+ = \mathcal{E}_m \cup (\mathcal{E}_m + \frac{d}{1 + \omega}) \cup (\mathcal{E}_m + \omega \frac{d}{1 + \omega}) \cup (\mathcal{E}_m + \omega^2 \frac{d}{1 + \omega}),
\]

(23)

which has a lattice basis \( \mathbf{B}_{\mathcal{E}_{m+1+\omega}^+} = [\mathbf{d}/(1 + \omega), \mathbf{b}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_m] \).

**Remark 9:** We notice that the \( \mathcal{E}_m \) lattices have been defined by Jacques Martineau [21, Section 8.4], but the ways we approach them vary significantly. The mathematical treatment on \( \mathcal{E}_m \) is more thorough in [21] (e.g., showing whether the lattice is extreme and eutactic), while we computationally investigate \( \mathcal{E}_m \) and present the lattice basis. More importantly, the reported better lattice quantizers are due to the novel \( \mathcal{E}_{m+2} \) lattices we defined, which are generalized from the lattice basis of \( \mathcal{E}_m \). The \( \mathcal{E}_{m+1+\omega} \) lattices have a similar structure as that of the Coxeter-Todd lattices \( K_{2m} \) defined in [21, Section 8.5]:
\[
K_{2m} \cong \mathcal{E}_m \cup (\mathcal{E}_m + \frac{1}{\omega-1}(1 + \omega)) \cup (\mathcal{E}_m - \frac{1}{\omega-1}(1 + \omega)).
\]

(24)

Although we fail to find the equivalence between \( K_{2m} \) and \( \mathcal{E}_{m+1+\omega} \), our simulations show that \( K_{12} \) and \( \mathcal{E}_{6,1+\omega}^+ \) exhibit indistinguishable NSM performance (see Section V).

B. \( Z[i] \)-Lattices: \( \mathcal{G}_m, \mathcal{G}_{m+2}^+, \) and \( \mathcal{G}_{m+1+\omega}^+ \)

With the aid of Gaussian integers \( Z[i] \), we define
\[
\mathcal{G}_m = \{ (\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_m) \in Z[i]^m : \bar{x}_1 + \cdots + \bar{x}_m \in (1 + i)Z[i] \},
\]
(25)

\[
\mathcal{G}_{m+2}^+ = \mathcal{G}_m \cup (\mathcal{G}_m + \frac{d}{2})
\]
matrices that preserve the (Hermitian) inner product.

\[ \bar{B}_{m,1+i} = \mathcal{G}_m \cup (\mathcal{G}_m + (1+i)\bar{p}/2), \]

where \( \bar{p} = [1,1, \ldots, mi+1]^T \). Their lattice bases are:

\[ \bar{B}_{m,1+i} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ (mi+1)/i & \cdots & 1+i \\ (mi+1)(1+i)/i & i & \cdots & 1+i \end{bmatrix}, \]

Although these extensions fail to discover better lattice quantizers, they can reproduce some optimal lattices in small dimensions.

C. Connection to Existing Lattices

Two lattices are said to be equivalent if we can obtain one from the other by scaling, reflection, rotation and unimodular multiplication. For real-valued or complex-valued lattices, we have \( \mathcal{L}(B_1) \cong \mathcal{L}(B_2) \), \( \mathcal{L}(B_1) \cong \mathcal{L}(B_2) \) if the lattice bases satisfy

\[ B_1 = \alpha FB_2 U \]

where \( \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \) is a scaling factor, \( U \in \text{GL}_m(\mathbb{Z}) \) and \( \bar{U} \in \text{GL}_m(\mathbb{Z}[\xi]) \) are unimodular matrices, \( F \) and \( \bar{F} \) are unitary matrices that preserve the (Hermitian) inner product.

Then for \( t \in \{0, 1, 2, \ldots, 5\} \), by the distance preserving rotation \( \omega^t \) we have

\[ E_m^t \cong \omega^t E_m^t \]

\[ = \{(\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_m) \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]^m : \bar{x}_1 + \cdots + \bar{x}_m \in (1 + \omega)\omega^t \mathbb{Z}[\omega]\}. \]

Proposition 10: The complex-form of the \( E_6^t \) lattice [22] is equivalent to \( E_6^t \).

Proof: Following [22], the complex lattice basis of \( E_6^t \) can be written as

\[ \bar{B}_{E_6^t} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{-3} & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}. \]

This lattice is generated by setting the sum of coordinates as \( (1 + \omega)\omega^t \mathbb{Z}[\omega] \). So we have \( E_3 \cong \omega E_3 = E_6^t \).

Proposition 11: The 4-dimensional checkerboard lattice \( D_4 \cong \Psi(G_2) \), and the 8-dimensional Gosset lattice \( E_8 \cong \Psi(G_{4,1,1}). \)

Proof: With reference to Eq. (9), the real-valued basis of the \( \mathbb{Z}[i] \)-based lattice is

\[ \bar{B}_{\Psi(\lambda)} = \begin{bmatrix} \Re(B) - \Im(B) \\ \Im(B) \Re(B) \end{bmatrix}. \]

Then we have

\[ B_{\Psi(G_2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \]

\[ B_{D_4} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}. \]

Thus \( B_{\Psi(G_2)} \) equals to \( B_{D_4} \) up to reflection and unimodular multiplication.

Regarding \( E_8 \), its complex-valued lattice basis [18] is:

\[ B_{E_8} = \begin{bmatrix} 1+i & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1+i & -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1+i & 2i & -2 & 0 \\ 1+i & 0 & 2i & 2+2i \end{bmatrix}. \]

Then we have \( 2\bar{B}_{E_8} \) is unimodular, the proposition is proved.

IV. THE QUANTIZATION ALGORITHMS

Implementing the proposed complex-lattice quantizers requires solving the associated CVP efficiently. This section presents algorithms for \( Q_{E_m}, Q_{G_m}, Q_{E_{m,2}^t}, Q_{G_{m,2}^t}, Q_{G_{m,1+i}^t}, \) and \( Q_{G_{m,2}^t}^t \). In a high level, \( Q_{E_m} \) and \( Q_{G_m} \) both start from component-wise quantization, followed by modifying the coefficients to meet the lattice properties. \( Q_{E_{m,2}^t}, Q_{E_{m,1+i}^t}, Q_{G_{m,2}^t}^t \) and \( Q_{G_{m,1+i}^t}^t \) employ the structure of cosets.

A. Algorithm of \( Q_{E_m} \)

By using element-wise quantization of \( \tilde{y} \) over \( \mathbb{Z}[\omega] \), we obtain

\[ \bar{x} = Q_{\mathbb{Z}[\omega]^m}(\tilde{y}). \]

In case of a tie, choose the Eisenstein integer with the smallest absolute value. Then we can add a perturbation vector \( (\delta_1, \delta_2, \ldots, \delta_m) \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]^m \) to \( \bar{x} \), such that

\[ \bar{x} + (\delta_1, \delta_2, \ldots, \delta_m) \in \mathcal{E}_m, \]

while making \( \|\bar{x} + (\delta_1, \delta_2, \ldots, \delta_m) - \tilde{y}\| \) as small as possible. For each position \( k \), obviously the smallest perturbation is \( \delta_k = 0 \), and the second smallest is \( \delta_k \in \mathcal{S}_1 \cup \mathcal{S}_2 \), where

\[ \mathcal{S}_1 = \{0, \omega, \omega^2, \omega^4\} = \{1, -1 + \omega, -\omega\}, \]

\[ \mathcal{S}_2 = \{\omega, \omega^3, \omega^5\} = \{-\omega, -1, -\omega + 1\}. \]
and $S_1 \cup S_2$ denotes the set of units in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$. The number of nonzero $\delta_k$, denoted as $\alpha$, can be 0, 1, 2, ... , $m$.

Due to the fact that

$$Z[\omega] = (1 + \omega)Z[\omega] \cup \{(1 + \omega)Z[\omega] + 1\} \cup \{(1 + \omega)Z[\omega] + \omega\},$$

the summation of coefficients in $\bar{x}$ consists of three cases:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} \bar{x}_k \in (1 + \omega)Z[\omega], \quad \text{(Case I)}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} \bar{x}_k \in (1 + \omega)Z[\omega] + 1, \quad \text{(Case II)}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} \bar{x}_k \in (1 + \omega)Z[\omega] + \omega. \quad \text{(Case III)}$$

An example of $m = 2$ is shown in Fig. 2. The algorithm proceeds according to the divided cases.

1) Case I: The perturbation vector should meet the requirement of $\sum_{k=1}^{m} \delta_k \in (1 + \omega)Z[\omega]$. Since $\bar{x}$ is already the closest possible vector to $\bar{y}$, we have $\alpha = 0$ and the output vector is given by $\bar{y} = \bar{x}$.

2) Case II: The perturbation vector should meet the requirement of $\sum_{k=1}^{m} \delta_k \in (1 + \omega)Z[\omega] + \omega$. Then we have $\alpha > 0$. If $\alpha = 1$, since

$$\omega, \omega^3, \omega^5 \in (1 + \omega)Z[\omega] + \omega,$$

we should choose one $\delta_k \in S_2$ to perturb $\bar{x}$. To decide the value of $k$, we calculate the residue coefficient

$$\bar{r}_k = Q_{S_2}(\bar{y}_k - \bar{x}_k)$$

and the incremental distance

$$L_k' = |\bar{x}_k + \bar{r}_k - \bar{y}_k|^2 - |\bar{x}_k - \bar{y}_k|^2$$

for $k = 1, \ldots, m$. The position with the smallest incremental distance is the one that we should change, as it leads to the closest vector. By defining $k^* = \arg\min_k L_k'$, the output candidate $\bar{x}'$ is given by $\bar{x}'_k = \bar{x}_k$ for $k \neq k^*$, and $\bar{x}'_k = \bar{x}_k + \bar{r}_k$ for $k = k^*$.

If $\alpha = 2$, due to the fact that

$$u + v \in (1 + \omega)Z[\omega] + \omega \quad \text{if} \quad u \in S_1, \quad v \in S_1 \quad (54)$$

$$u + v \notin (1 + \omega)Z[\omega] + \omega \quad \text{if} \quad u \in S_1, \quad v \in S_2 \quad (55)$$

and

$$u + v \notin (1 + \omega)Z[\omega] + \omega \quad \text{if} \quad u \in S_2, \quad v \in S_2 \quad (56)$$

we should choose two $\delta_k$ from $S_1$ to perturb $\bar{x}$. Similarly, we calculate the residue coefficient

$$\bar{r}_k'' = Q_{S_1}(\bar{y}_k - \bar{x}_k)$$

and the incremental distance

$$L_k'' = |\bar{x}_k + \bar{r}_k'' - \bar{y}_k|^2 - |\bar{x}_k - \bar{y}_k|^2$$

for $k = 1, \ldots, m$. Then we sort $\{L_1'', \ldots, L_m''\}$ in ascending order. Denote the two positions with the smallest incremental distance as $k_1^*$ and $k_2^*$ respectively. The output candidate $\bar{x}''$ is given by $\bar{x}_k'' = \bar{x}_k$ for $k \neq k^*$, and $\bar{x}_k'' = \bar{x}_k + \bar{r}_k''$ for $k = k_1^*$ and $k = k_2^*$.

If $\alpha = 3$, since

$$u + v + s \in (1 + \omega)Z[\omega] + \omega \quad \text{if} \quad u \in S_1, \quad v \in S_1, \quad s \in S_2 \quad (59)$$

$$u + v + s \notin (1 + \omega)Z[\omega] + \omega \quad \text{if} \quad u \in S_1, \quad v \in S_1, \quad s \in S_1 \quad (60)$$

and

$$u + v + s \notin (1 + \omega)Z[\omega] + \omega \quad \text{if} \quad u \in S_2, \quad v \in S_2, \quad s \in S_2 \quad (61)$$

the feasible perturbation vector $(\delta_1, \delta_2, \ldots, \delta_m)$ contains two elements from $S_2$ and one element from $S_1$. Thus
Algorithm 1 The Closest Vector Algorithm of $Q_{\mathcal{E}_m}$

Input: A query vector $y$.
Output: The closest vector $\hat{y}$ of $y$ in $\mathcal{E}_m$.

1. $x = Q_{\mathcal{E}_m}^m(y)$;
2. if $\sum_{k=1}^m x_k \in (1 + \omega)\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ then
   $v = x$
3. else
   if $\sum_{k=1}^m x_k \in (1 + \omega)\mathbb{Z}[\omega] + 1$ then
      $S_1 = \{\omega^0, \omega^2, \omega^4\};$
      $S_2 = \{\omega, \omega^2, \omega^3\}$
      else
      $S_2 = \{\omega^0, \omega^2, \omega^4\};$
      $S_1 = \{\omega, \omega^2, \omega^3\}$
   end
   for $k = 1, \ldots, m$ do
      $r_k = Q_{S_k}(y_k - x_k)$;
      $L_k = |x_k + r_k - y_k|^2 - |x_k - y_k|^2;$
      $k^* = \arg \min_k L_k;$
      $x'' = x;$
      $x_k'' = x_k' + r_k';$
   end
   if $\|x'' - y\|^2 \leq \|x'' - y\|^2$ then
      $\hat{v} = x''$
   else
      $\hat{v} = x''$
   end
end

Algorithm 2 The Closest Vector Algorithm of $Q_{\mathcal{G}_m}$

Input: A query vector $y$.
Output: The closest vector $\hat{y}$ of $y$ in $\mathcal{G}_m$.

1. $x = Q_{\mathcal{G}_m}^m(y)$;
2. if $\sum_{k=1}^m x_k \in (1 + i)\mathbb{Z}[i] + 1$ then
   $v = x$
3. else
   for $k = 1, \ldots, m$ do
      $r_k = Q_{S}(y_k - x_k)$;
      $L_k = |x_k + r_k - y_k|^2 - |x_k - y_k|^2$;
      $k^* = \arg \min_k L_k$;
      $x' = x;$
      $x_k' = x_k + r_k'$;
   end
   if $\|x' - y\|^2 \leq \|x'' - y\|^2$ then
      $\hat{v} = x'$
   else
      $\hat{v} = x''$
   end
end

In case of a tie, choose the Gaussian integer with the smallest absolute value. Since
\[
\mathbb{Z}[i] = (1 + i)\mathbb{Z}[i] \cup \{(1 + i)\mathbb{Z}[i] + 1\}, \tag{64}
\]
the summation of coefficients in $\bar{x}$ consists of two cases:
\[
\sum_{k=1}^m \bar{x}_k \in (1 + i)\mathbb{Z}[i], \quad \text{(Case I)} \tag{65}
\]
\[
\sum_{k=1}^m \bar{x}_k \in (1 + i)\mathbb{Z}[i] + 1, \quad \text{(Case II)} \tag{66}
\]

In Case I, $\bar{x}$ is the closest vector of $\mathcal{G}_m$ to $\bar{y}$. In Case II, one should perturb $\bar{x}$ such that the perturbed vector $\bar{x} + (\delta_1, \delta_2, \ldots, \delta_m) \in \mathcal{G}_m$. For each component $\bar{x}_k$, the smallest perturbation is $\delta_k \in \{i, i^2, i^3, i^4\}$. It suffices to perturb only one coefficient of $\bar{x}$, the algorithm can be designed to search the perturbed position that makes $|x + (\delta_1, \delta_2, \ldots, \delta_m) - \bar{y}|^2$ as small as possible. The pseudocode of the quantization algorithm of $Q_{\mathcal{G}_m}$ is summarized in Algorithm 2.

C. Algorithms of $Q_{\mathcal{E}_m^{i^2}}, Q_{\mathcal{E}_m^{j+1}}, Q_{\mathcal{G}_m^{i^2}}$ and $Q_{\mathcal{G}_m^{j+1}}$

If a lattice is built from the union of cosets, i.e.,
\[
\Lambda = \cup_k (g_k + \Lambda'), \tag{67}
\]
then $Q_{\Lambda'}$ can be used as the basis of $Q_{\Lambda}$. To be concise, we have
\[
Q_{\Lambda}(y) = Q_{\Lambda + \mathbb{Z}}(y), \quad t^* = \arg \min_{t} ||y - Q_{\Lambda + \mathbb{Z}}(y)|| \tag{68}
\]
By representing $\mathcal{E}_m^{i^2}$ and $\mathcal{E}_m^{j+1}$ as unions of $\mathcal{E}_m$-cosets, $\mathcal{G}_m^{i^2}$ and $\mathcal{G}_m^{j+1}$ as unions of $\mathcal{G}_m$-cosets, the quantization algorithms of $Q_{\mathcal{E}_m^{i^2}}, Q_{\mathcal{E}_m^{j+1}}, Q_{\mathcal{G}_m^{i^2}}, Q_{\mathcal{G}_m^{j+1}}$ follow from Eq. (68).

D. Computational Complexity

The overall complexity of a quantization algorithm over $\Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n$ can be given as
\[
\text{Comp}(Q_{\Lambda}) = \sum_{k=1}^{s} f_n(k), \tag{69}
\]
where $S$ represents the number of visited lattice vectors, and $f_n(k)$ denotes the number of elementary operations (referred to as flops, including additions, subtractions, multiplications and scalar quantization) that the algorithm performs in the $k$th visited vector.

Regarding the Algorithm 1 for $Q_{e_m}$, if it terminates in Step 3, then $S = 1$; otherwise $S = 3$. In the worst case of $S = 3$, we have

$$\text{Comp}(Q_{e_m}) = f_{2m}(1) + f_{2m}(2) + f_{2m}(3) \approx 2m + m \times (3 + 6) + m \times (3 + 6) \approx 20m, \quad (72)$$

where $f_{2m}(1)$ is from Step 1, $f_{2m}(2)$ is from Steps 11 to 13, and $f_{2m}(3)$ is from Steps 20 to 22.

Since $|\mathcal{E}_{m,1+\omega}/\mathcal{E}_m| = 3$, $|\mathcal{E}_{m,2}/\mathcal{E}_m| = 4$, we have $\text{Comp}(Q_{\mathcal{E}_{m,1+\omega}}) = 3 \times \text{Comp}(Q_{\mathcal{E}_m}) \approx 60m$, $\text{Comp}(Q_{\mathcal{E}_{m,2}}) = 4 \times \text{Comp}(Q_{\mathcal{E}_m}) \approx 80m$. In the same vein, regarding Algorithm 2 for $Q_{G_m}$, $S$ can be at most 2, and $\text{Comp}(Q_{G_m}) \approx 11m$. As $|\mathcal{G}_{m,1+i}/\mathcal{G}_m| = 2$, $|\mathcal{G}_{m,2}/\mathcal{G}_m| = 4$, we have $\text{Comp}(Q_{\mathcal{G}_{m,1+i}}) \approx 22m$, $\text{Comp}(Q_{\mathcal{G}_{m,2}}) \approx 44m$.

The proposed algorithms have an extraordinary feature: the number of visited lattice vectors $S$ is independent of the lattice dimension $m$. Specifically, we have 3, 9 and 12 visited vectors for $\mathcal{E}_m$, $\mathcal{E}_{m,1+\omega}$ and $\mathcal{E}_{m,2}$; 2, 4 and 8 visited vectors for $\mathcal{G}_m$, $\mathcal{G}_{m,1+i}$ and $\mathcal{G}_{m,2}$. This feature saves a large amount of computational complexity over other possible alternatives. E.g., the universal enumeration algorithm (cf. [17], [23], [24]) has an exponential number of $S$, while the quantization algorithm in [22] (i.e., to factorize $\mathcal{E}_m$ as the union of $(1+\omega)^m$-cosets) involves $S = 3^{m-1}$ visited vectors.

V. NUMERICAL EVALUATION

Theoretically analyzing the exact NSM is complicated as it requires a complete description of the Voronoi regions of the generalized checkerboard lattices. With the aid of the proposed fast quantization algorithms, the Monte Carlo integration method [22] can be employed to compute the NSM with high accuracy. To foster reproducible research, our programs used in the simulations are of open source and freely available at GitHub.\footnote{https://github.com/shx-lyu/LatticeQuantizer}

A. Method

To begin, we review the Monte Carlo integration method [22] for real-valued lattices. Let $b_1, \ldots, b_{2m}$ be linearly independent vectors spanning the lattice $\Lambda$, and let $u_1, \ldots, u_{2m}$ be independent random numbers, uniformly distributed between 0 and 1. Then $y = \sum_{k=1}^{2m} b_k u_k$ is uniformly distributed over the fundamental parallelepiped generated by $b_1, \ldots, b_{2m}$. Then $y - Q_\Lambda(y)$ is uniformly distributed over the Voronoi region $V_\Lambda$.

With $T = gh$ random points $y(0), \ldots, y(T-1)$ selected in the manner just described, the estimated NSM is given by

$$\hat{I} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \left\| y(t) - Q_\Lambda(y(t)) \right\|^2$$

is an estimate of $I = \int_{x \in V_\Lambda} \left\| x \right\|^2 dx$.

$y(0), \ldots, y(T-1)$ are further partitioned into $g$ sets, each has $h$ elements. Based on the jackknife estimator (see [22], [25]), the standard deviation of $G_n(\Lambda)$ is as (74), shown at the bottom of the page.

Following the nomenclature in [14] and [22], the confidence interval of the estimation is given by $G_n(\Lambda) \pm 2\sigma$.

With the complex-to-real transform $\Psi$ in Eq. (8), one may employ a universal real-valued quantization algorithm $Q_\Lambda$ (e.g., enumeration) for the constructed lattices (e.g., $\Lambda = \Psi(\mathcal{E}_m)$, $\Lambda = \Psi(\mathcal{E}_{m,2}^+)$), but the computational complexity is too high as it fails to utilize the algebraic structure of the generalized checkerboard lattices. Fortunately, the proposed quantization algorithms for the complex lattices help to solve this issue. Specifically, let $y(t) = \Psi(y(t))$, then we have

$$\left\| y(t) - Q_\Lambda(y(t)) \right\|^2 = \left\| \Psi^{-1}(y(t)) - Q_{\Psi^{-1}(\Lambda)}(\Psi^{-1}(y(t))) \right\|^2$$

$$= \left\| y(t) - Q_\Lambda(y(t)) \right\|^2$$

is an estimate of $I = \int_{x \in V_\Lambda} \left\| x \right\|^2 dx$.

$$\hat{I} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \left\| y(t) - Q_\Lambda(y(t)) \right\|^2$$

is an estimate of $I = \int_{x \in V_\Lambda} \left\| x \right\|^2 dx$.

$$\hat{I} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \left\| y(t) - Q_\Lambda(y(t)) \right\|^2$$

is an estimate of $I = \int_{x \in V_\Lambda} \left\| x \right\|^2 dx$.\footnote{https://github.com/shx-lyu/LatticeQuantizer}
B. Performance

For given lattices $\Lambda$, we can leverage Agrell and Allen’s recent result [13, Cor. 5] about product lattices. For even dimensional real-valued lattices, the product lattice $\Lambda_D$ denoted a generator matrix of $\Lambda$ with $D$ real-valued dimension is larger than $m$, and $\Lambda_{G}$ denotes a generator matrix of $\Lambda_{G}$. For odd dimensions, $\Lambda_{K}$ and $\Lambda_{A}$, $\Lambda_{S}$, and $\Lambda_{E}$, respectively. For odd dimensions, $\Lambda_{K}$ and $\Lambda_{A}$, $\Lambda_{S}$, and $\Lambda_{E}$, respectively.

Remark 12: The proposed quantizers only correspond to even dimensional real-valued lattices. For odd dimensions, we can leverage Agrell and Allen’s recent result [13, Cor. 5] about product lattices. For even dimensional real-valued lattices, the product lattice $\Lambda_D$ denoted a generator matrix of $\Lambda$ with $D$ real-valued dimension is larger than $m$, and $\Lambda_{G}$ denotes a generator matrix of $\Lambda_{G}$.

In the sequel, we set $T = 5 \times 10^{7}$ ($g = 50, h = 10^{6}$) in the Monte Carlo integration. The standard variance of each estimation satisfies $\sigma \leq 1.65 \times 10^{-6}$. The numerically evaluated NSMs keep 5 decimal places, and those with theoretical exact values keep 9 decimal places.

Fig. 3 compares the NSM performance of the generalized checkerboard lattices with existing results. Benchmarks include the conjectured lower bound from Conway and Sloane [26], Zador’s upper bound [27], root lattices [28] and Zador’s upper bound [27], root lattices [28] and Zador’s upper bound [27], root lattices [28].

- In Fig. 3-(a), it is shown that $G_{14}(\Psi(\mathcal{E}_{14}^{+})) = 0.06952$, $G_{18}(\Psi(\mathcal{E}_{18}^{+})) = 0.06866$, and $G_{22}(\Psi(\mathcal{E}_{22}^{+})) = 0.06853$, which attain the smallest reported NSMs in dimensions 14, 18, and 22. The product lattices [13] based on $\Psi(\mathcal{E}_{12}^{+})$, $\Psi(\mathcal{E}_{9}^{+})$, and $\Psi(\mathcal{E}_{11}^{+})$ also yield the best reported NSMs, which are 0.07037, 0.06936, and 0.06912 in dimensions 15, 19, and 23. In dimensions $n \leq 20$, the $\mathcal{E}_{m+1}^{+}$ lattices outperform $\mathcal{E}_{m+1+\omega}^{+}$ when the real-valued dimension is larger than 12. For comparison, the NSM curve of $D_{n}^{+}$ reflects the performance limits of real-valued checkerboard-lattice cosets.

- Fig. 3-(b) reveals the performance of $G_{m+1}^{+}$, $G_{m+1}^{+}$, and $G_{m+1}^{+}$ with the same benchmarks. These Gaussian integers-based checkerboard lattices fail to exhibit better NSMs than those based on Eisenstein integers except when $n = 4$ and $n = 8$.

Table I summarizes a complete list of the best reported quantizers in dimensions $n \leq 24$. It is noteworthy that when $n > 24$, the proposed lattices cannot exhibit decreasing NSMs. The reason is that both the real-valued and complex-valued checkerboard lattices can be regarded as generating from the single-parity-check codes, in which the complex-valued extensions assist to make approximately twice as large the best reported dimensions.

VI. CONCLUSION

Unlike Conway and Sloane’s approach of lifting linear codes to complex lattice by complex Construction A [22, Page 197], the proposed $\mathcal{E}_{m}$ and $\mathcal{G}_{m}$ are constructed by algebraic equations, and this property is leveraged to design fast quantization algorithms. The best reported NSMs in dimensions 14, 15, 18, 19, 22 and 23 are due to $\mathcal{E}_{m+1}^{+}$, which is obtained by mimicking $D_{n}^{+}$.

Since Eisenstein integers and Gaussian integers are the best two types of rings of imaginary quadratic fields, we believe that the proposed lattices based on these two rings already capture the highest potential when generalizing checkerboard lattices in quadratic fields. The future work may study the generalization with quaternion.

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