# Rotated $D_{n}$-lattices ${ }^{\text {N }}$ 

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#### Abstract

Based on algebraic number theory we construct some families of rotated $D_{n}$-lattices with full diversity which can be good for signal transmission over both Gaussian and Rayleigh fading channels. Closed-form expressions for the minimum product distance of those lattices are obtained through algebraic properties.


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## 1. Introduction

A lattice $\Lambda=\Lambda^{n} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is a discrete set generated by integer combinations of $n$ linearly independents vectors $\boldsymbol{v}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_{n} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$. Its packing density $\Delta(\Lambda)$ is the proportion of the space $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ covered by congruent disjoint spheres of maximum radius [9]. A lattice $\Lambda$ has diversity $m \leqslant n$ if $m$ is the maximum number such that for all $\boldsymbol{y}=\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right) \in \Lambda, \boldsymbol{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$ there are at least $m$ non-vanishing coordinates. Given a full diversity lattice $\Lambda \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n}(m=n)$, the minimum product distance is defined as $d_{\min }(\Lambda)=\min \left\{\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left|y_{i}\right|\right.$ for all $\left.\boldsymbol{y}=\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right) \in \Lambda, \boldsymbol{y} \neq \mathbf{0}\right\}$ [6].

Signal constellations having lattice structure have been studied as meaningful means for signal transmission over both Gaussian and single-antenna Rayleigh fading channel [8]. Usually the problem of finding good signal constellations for a Gaussian channel is associated to the search for lattices with high packing density [9]. On the other hand, for a Rayleigh fading channel the efficiency, measured by

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lower error probability in the transmission, is strongly related to the lattice diversity and minimum product distance $[8,6]$. The approach in this work, following $[2,6]$ is the use of algebraic number theory to construct lattices which may have good performance for both channels.

For general lattices the packing density and the minimum product distance are usually hard to estimate [11]. Those parameters can be obtained in certain cases of lattices associated to number fields through algebraic properties.

In $[5,6,4]$ some families of rotated $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$-lattices with full diversity and good minimum product distance are studied for transmission over Rayleigh fading channels. In [7] the lattices $A_{p-1}, p$ prime, $E_{6}$, $E_{8}, K_{12}$ and $\Lambda_{24}$ were realized as full diversity ideal lattices via some subfields of cyclotomic fields. In [8] rotated $n$-dimensional lattices (including $D_{4}, K_{12}$ and $\Lambda_{16}$ ), which are good for both channels, are constructed with diversity $n / 2$.

In this work we also attempt to consider lattices feasible for both channels by constructing rotated $D_{n}$-lattices with full diversity $n$ and get a closed-form for their minimum product distance. The results are obtained for $n=2^{r-2}, r \geqslant 5$ and $n=(p-1) / 2, p$ prime and $p \geqslant 7$, in Propositions 4.3, 4.6 and 5.1. As it is known, a $D_{n}$ lattice has better packing density $\delta\left(D_{n}\right)$ than $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ ( $D_{n}$ has the best lattice packing density for $n=3,4,5$ and $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\delta\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)}{\delta\left(D_{n}\right)}=0$ ) and also has a very efficient decoding algorithm [9]. The relative minimum product distances $d_{p, \text { rel }}\left(D_{n}\right)$ of the rotated $D_{n}$-lattices obtained here are smaller than the minimum product distance $d_{p, \text { rel }}\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)$ of rotated $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$-lattices constructed for the Rayleigh channels in [1] and [6], but, as it is shown in Sections 4 and $5, \lim _{n} \rightarrow \infty \frac{\sqrt[n]{d_{p, \text { rel }}\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)}}{\sqrt[n]{d_{p, \text { rel }}\left(D_{n}\right)}}=\sqrt{2}$, what offers a good trade-off.

In Sections 2 and 3 we summarize some definitions and results on Algebraic Number Theory. Sections 4 and 5 are devoted to the construction of full diversity rotated $D_{n}$-lattices through cyclotomic fields and the deduction of their minimum product distance.

## 2. Number fields

In this section we summarize some concepts and results of algebraic number theory and establish the notation to be used from now on. The results presented here can be found in [10,12-14].

Let $\mathbb{K}$ be a number field of degree $n$ and $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ its ring of integers. It can be shown that every nonzero fractionary ideal $I$ of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ is a free $\mathbb{Z}$-module of rank $n$.

There are exactly $n$ distinct $\mathbb{Q}$-homomorphisms $\left\{\sigma_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ of $\mathbb{K}$ in $\mathbb{C}$. A homomorphism $\sigma_{i}$ is said real if $\sigma_{i}(\mathbb{K}) \subset \mathbb{R}$, and the field $\mathbb{K}$ is said totally real if $\sigma_{i}$ is real for all $i=1, \ldots, n$.

Given $x \in \mathbb{K}$, the values $N(x)=N_{\mathbb{K}|\mathbb{Q}|}(x)=\prod_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_{i}(x), \operatorname{Tr}(x)=\operatorname{Tr}_{\mathbb{K} \mid \mathbb{Q}}(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_{i}(x)$ are called, norm and trace of $x$ in $\mathbb{K} \mid \mathbb{Q}$, respectively. It can shown that if $x \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$, then $N(x), \operatorname{Tr}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Let $\left\{\omega_{1}, \ldots, \omega_{n}\right\}$ be a $\mathbb{Z}$-basis of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$. The integer $d_{\mathbb{K}}=\left(\operatorname{det}\left[\sigma_{j}\left(\omega_{i}\right)\right]_{i, j=1}^{n}\right)^{2}$ is called the discriminant of $\mathbb{K}$.

The norm of an ideal $I \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ is defined as $N(I)=\left|\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}} / I\right|$.
The codifferent from $\mathbb{K} \mid \mathbb{Q}$ is the fractionary ideal $\Delta(\mathbb{K} \mid \mathbb{Q})^{-1}=\left\{x \in \mathbb{K} ; \forall \alpha \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}, \operatorname{Tr}_{\mathbb{K} \mid \mathbb{Q}}(x \alpha) \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$ of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$.

Let $\zeta=\zeta_{m} \in \mathbb{C}$ be a primitive $m$-th root of unity. We consider here the cyclotomic field $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ and its subfield $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right)$. We have that $\left[\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right): \mathbb{Q}\right]=\varphi(m) / 2$, where $\varphi$ is the Euler function; $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}=\mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right] ; d_{\mathbb{K}}=p^{\frac{p-3}{2}}$ if $m=p, p$ prime, $p \geqslant 5$ and $d_{\mathbb{K}}=2^{(r-1) 2^{r-2}-1}$ if $m=2^{r}$.

## 3. Ideal lattices

The construction of ideal lattices presented here was introduced in [2] and [3].
From now on, let $\mathbb{K}$ be a totally real number field. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}$ such that $\alpha_{i}=\sigma_{i}(\alpha)>0$ for all $i=1, \ldots, n$. The homomorphism

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma_{\alpha}: \mathbb{K} & \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n} \\
x & \longmapsto\left(\sqrt{\alpha_{1}} \sigma_{1}(x), \ldots, \sqrt{\alpha_{n}} \sigma_{n}(x)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

is called twisted homomorphism. When $\alpha=1$ the twisted homomorphism is the Minkowski homomorphism.

It can be shown that if $I \subseteq \mathbb{K}$ is a free $\mathbb{Z}$-module of rank $n$ with $\mathbb{Z}$-basis $\left\{w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right\}$, then the image $\Lambda=\sigma_{\alpha}(I)$ is a lattice in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with basis $\left\{\sigma_{\alpha}\left(w_{1}\right), \ldots, \sigma_{\alpha}\left(w_{n}\right)\right\}$, or equivalently with generator ma$\operatorname{trix} \boldsymbol{M}=\left(\sigma_{\alpha}\left(w_{i j}\right)_{i, j=1}^{n}\right.$ where $w_{i}=\left(w_{i 1}, \ldots, w_{i n}\right)$ for all $i=1, \ldots, n$. Moreover, if $\alpha I \bar{I} \subseteq \Delta(\mathbb{K} \mid \mathbb{Q})^{-1}$ where $\bar{I}$ denote the complex conjugation of $I$, then $\sigma_{\alpha}(I)$ is an integer lattice. Since $\mathbb{K}$ is totally real, the associated Gram matrix of $\sigma_{\alpha}(I)$ is $\boldsymbol{G}=\boldsymbol{M} \cdot \boldsymbol{M}^{t}=\left(\operatorname{Tr}_{\mathbb{K} \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\alpha w_{i} \overline{w_{j}}\right)\right)_{i, j=1}^{n}[6]$.

Proposition 3.1. (See [2].) If $I \subseteq \mathbb{K}$ is a fractional ideal, then for $\Lambda=\sigma_{\alpha}(I)$ and $\operatorname{det}(\Lambda)=\operatorname{det}(G)$, we have:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{det}(\Lambda)=\operatorname{det}(G)=N(I)^{2} N_{\mathbb{K} \mid \mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)\left|d_{\mathbb{K}}\right| . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proposition 3.2. Let $\mathbb{K}$ be a totally real field number with $[\mathbb{K}: \mathbb{Q}]=n$ and $I \subseteq \mathbb{K}$ a free $\mathbb{Z}$-module of rank $n$. The minimum product distance of $\Lambda=\sigma_{\alpha}(I)$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{p, \min }(\Lambda)=\sqrt{N_{\mathbb{K} \mid \mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)} \min _{0 \neq y \in I}\left|N_{\mathbb{K} \mid \mathbb{Q}}(y)\right| . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. The proof is straightforward.
Proposition 3.3. (See [6].) If $\mathbb{K}$ is a totally real field number and $I \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ is a principal ideal then

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{p, \min }(\Lambda)=\sqrt{\frac{\operatorname{det}(\Lambda)}{\left|d_{\mathbb{K}}\right|}} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Definition 3.4. The relative minimum product distance of $\Lambda$, denoted by $\boldsymbol{d}_{p, r e l}(\Lambda)$, is the minimum product distance of a scaled version of $\Lambda$ with unitary minimum norm vector.

## 4. Rotated $\boldsymbol{D}_{\boldsymbol{n}}$-lattices for $\boldsymbol{n}=\mathbf{2}^{r-2}, r \geqslant 5$ via $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{2 r}+\zeta_{2^{r}}^{-1}\right)$

In this section we will present some families of rotated $D_{n}$-lattices using ideals and modules in the totally real number field $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{2}{ }^{r}+\zeta_{2^{r}}^{-1}\right)$. One of the strategies to construct these lattices was to start from the standard characterization of $D_{n}$ as generated by the basis

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta=\{(-1,-1,0, \ldots, 0),(1,-1,0, \ldots, 0), \ldots,(0,0, \ldots, 1,-1)\} . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We derive in 4.2 a rotated $D_{n}$-lattice as a sublattice of the rotated $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ algebraic constructions presented in $[1,6,5]$. Another strategy explored next in 4.1 is to investigate the necessary condition given in Proposition 3.1, for the existence of rotated $D_{n}$-lattices.

Let $\zeta=\zeta_{2^{r}}$ be a primitive $2^{r}$-th root of unity, $m=2^{r}, \mathbb{K}=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right)$ and $n=[\mathbb{K}: \mathbb{Q}]=2^{r-2}$.

### 4.1. A first construction

Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ and $I \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ an ideal. If $\sigma_{\alpha}(I)$ is a rotated $D_{n}$-lattice scaled by $\sqrt{c}$, then $\operatorname{det}\left(\sigma_{\alpha}(I)\right)=$ $4 c^{n}$. Based on Proposition 3.1, taking $I=\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ and $c=2^{r-1}$, since $d_{\mathbb{K}}=2^{(r-1) 2^{r-2}-1}$ and $n=2^{r-2}$ it follows that a necessary condition to construct a rotated $D_{n}$-lattice $\sigma_{\alpha}(I)$ is to find an element $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ such that $N(\alpha)=8$. Table 1 shows some elements $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ such that $N(\alpha)=8$ in low dimensions. From it we got the suggestion for a general expression for $\alpha$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha=4+\left(\zeta_{2 r}+\zeta_{2^{r}}^{-1}\right)-2\left(\zeta_{2^{r}}^{2}+\zeta_{2^{r}}^{-2}\right)-\left(\zeta_{2^{r}}^{3}+\zeta_{2 r}^{-3}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and then derive Proposition 4.3.

Table 1
Some elements $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ such that $N(\alpha)=8$.

| $r$ | $\alpha$ | $N(\alpha)$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 4 | $4+\left(\zeta_{16}+\zeta_{16}^{-1}\right)-2\left(\zeta_{16}^{2}+\zeta_{16}^{-2}\right)-\left(\zeta_{16}^{3}+\zeta_{16}^{-3}\right)$ | 8 |
| 5 | $4+\left(\zeta_{32}+\zeta_{32}^{-1}\right)-2\left(\zeta_{32}^{2}+\zeta_{32}^{-2}\right)-\left(\zeta_{32}^{3}+\zeta_{32}^{-3}\right)$ | 8 |
| 6 | $4+\left(\zeta_{64}+\zeta_{64}^{-1}\right)-2\left(\zeta_{64}^{2}+\zeta_{64}^{-2}\right)-\left(\zeta_{64}^{3}+\zeta_{64}^{-3}\right)$ | 8 |

To prove that $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{r-1}}} \sigma_{\alpha}(I)$ is a rotated $D_{n}$-lattice we need the next preliminary results.
Proposition 4.1. (See [1].) If $\zeta=\zeta_{2^{r}}$ and $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right)$, then

$$
\operatorname{Tr}_{\mathbb{K} \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\zeta^{k}+\zeta^{-k}\right)= \begin{cases}0, & \text { if } \operatorname{gcd}\left(k, 2^{r}\right)<2^{r-1} \\ -2^{r-1}, & \text { if } \operatorname{gcd}\left(k, 2^{r}\right)=2^{r-1} \\ 2^{r-1}, & \text { if } \operatorname{gcd}\left(k, 2^{r}\right)=2^{r}\end{cases}
$$

Proposition 4.2. If $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right), e_{0}=1$ and $e_{i}=\zeta^{i}+\zeta^{-i}$ for $i=1, \ldots, 2^{r-2}-1$, then
(a)

$$
\operatorname{Tr}_{\mathbb{K} \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\alpha e_{i} e_{i}\right)= \begin{cases}2^{r}, & \text { if } i=0,1 ; \\ 2^{r+1}, & \text { if } 2 \leqslant i<2^{r-2}-1 \\ 3.2^{r}, & \text { if } i=2^{r-2}-1\end{cases}
$$

(b)

$$
\operatorname{Tr}_{\mathbb{K} \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\alpha e_{i} e_{0}\right)= \begin{cases}2^{r-1}, & \text { if } i=1 ; \\ -2^{r}, & \text { ifi } i=2 \\ -2^{r-1}, & \text { ifi } i=3 \\ 0, & \text { if } 3<i \leqslant 2^{r-2}-1\end{cases}
$$

(c) If $0<i<j \leqslant 2^{r-2}-1$ then

$$
\operatorname{Tr}_{\mathbb{K} \mid \mathbb{Q}}\left(\alpha e_{i} e_{j}\right)= \begin{cases}2^{r-1}, & \text { if }|i-j|=1 \text { and }(i, j) \notin\left\{(1,2),\left(2^{r-2}-2,2^{r-2}-1\right)\right\} ; \\ -2^{r}, & \text { if }|i-j|=2 ; \\ -2^{r-1}, & \text { if }|i-j|=3 ; \\ 2^{r}, & \text { if }(i, j)=\left(2^{r-2}-2,2^{r-2}-1\right) ; \\ 0, & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}
$$

Proof. The proof is straightforward by calculating the $\operatorname{gcd}\left(k, 2^{r}\right)$ for some values of $k$ and applying Proposition 4.1. For $0<i<j \leqslant 2^{r-2}-1$ we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha e_{i} e_{i}\right)= & \operatorname{Tr}(8)+4 \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{2 i}+\zeta^{-2 i}\right)+2 \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right)+\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{2 i+1}+\zeta^{-2 i-1}\right) \\
& +\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{2 i-1}+\zeta^{-(2 i-1)}\right)-4 \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{2}+\zeta^{-2}\right)-2 \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{2 i+2}+\zeta^{-(2 i+2)}\right) \\
& -2 \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{2 i-2}+\zeta^{-(2 i-2)}\right)-2 \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{3}+\zeta^{-3}\right) \\
& -\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{2 i+3}+\zeta^{-(2 i+3)}\right)-\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{2 i-3}+\zeta^{-(2 i-3)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

For $2 \leqslant i<2^{r-2}-1$ since $\operatorname{gcd}\left(k, 2^{r}\right)<2^{r-1}$ for $k=2 i, 2 i \pm 1,2 i \pm 2,2 i \pm 3$ it follows that $\operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha e_{i} e_{i}\right)=$ $2^{r+1}$. For $i=1,2^{r-2}-1$ the development is analogous. For $i=0$ we have:

$$
\operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha e_{0} e_{0}\right)=\operatorname{Tr}(4)+\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right)-2 \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{2}+\zeta^{-2}\right)-\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{3}+\zeta^{-3}\right)=2^{r}
$$

and then it follows (a).

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha e_{i} e_{0}\right)= & 4 \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i}+\zeta^{-i}\right)+\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i+1}+\zeta^{-(i+1)}\right)+\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i-1}+\zeta^{-(i-1)}\right) \\
& -2 \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i+2}+\zeta^{-(i+2)}\right)-2 \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i-2}+\zeta^{-(i-2)}\right) \\
& -\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i+3}+\zeta^{-(i+3)}\right)-\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i-3}+\zeta^{-(i-3)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

For $i \neq 1,2,3$, since $\operatorname{gcd}\left(k, 2^{r}\right)<2^{r-1}$ for $k=i, i \pm 1, i \pm 2, i \pm 3$ then $\operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha e_{i} e_{0}\right)=0$.
For $i=1,2,3$ using $\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{0}+\zeta^{0}\right)=2^{r-1}$ it follows (b).

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha e_{i} e_{j}\right)= & 4 \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i+j}+\zeta^{-(i+j)}\right)+4 \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i-j}+\zeta^{-(i-j)}\right)+\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i+j+1}+\zeta^{-(i+j+1)}\right) \\
& +\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i-j+1}+\zeta^{-(i-j+1)}\right)+\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i+j-1}+\zeta^{-(i+j-1)}\right)+\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i-j-1}+\zeta^{-(i-j-1)}\right) \\
& -2 \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i+j+2}+\zeta^{-(i+j+2)}\right)-2 \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i-j+2}+\zeta^{-(i-j+2)}\right)-2 \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i+j-2}+\zeta^{-(i+j-2)}\right) \\
& -2 \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i-j-2}+\zeta^{-(i-j-2)}\right)-\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i+j+3}+\zeta^{-(i+j+3)}\right)-\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i-j+3}+\zeta^{-(i-j+3)}\right) \\
& -\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i+j-3}+\zeta^{-(i+j-3)}\right)-\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i-j-3}+\zeta^{-(i-j-3)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\operatorname{gcd}\left(k, 2^{r}\right)<2^{r-1}$ for $k=i \pm j, i+j \pm 1, i+j \pm 2$; $\operatorname{gcd}\left(i+j+3,2^{r}\right)<2^{r-1}$ for $i+j \neq 2^{r-1}-3$; $\operatorname{gcd}\left(i+j+3,2^{r}\right)=2^{r-1}$, for $i+j=2^{r-1}-3$; $\operatorname{gcd}\left(i+j-3,2^{r}\right)<2^{r-1}$, for $i+j \neq 3$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i-j+1}+\zeta^{-(i-j+1)}\right)+\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i-j-1}+\zeta^{-(i-j-1)}\right)= \begin{cases}2^{r-1}, & \text { if }|i-j|=1 \\
0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases} \\
& \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i-j+2}+\zeta^{-(i-j+2)}\right)+\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i-j-2}+\zeta^{-(i-j-2)}\right)= \begin{cases}2^{r-1}, & \text { if }|i-j|=2 \\
0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases} \\
& \operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i-j+3}+\zeta^{-(i-j+3)}\right)+\operatorname{Tr}\left(\zeta^{i-j-3}+\zeta^{-(i-j-3)}\right)= \begin{cases}2^{r-1}, & \text { if }|i-j|=3 \\
0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

it follows (c).

Proposition 4.3. The lattice $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{r-1}}} \sigma_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2^{r-2}}, \alpha=4+\left(\zeta_{2^{r}}+\zeta_{2^{r}}^{-1}\right)-2\left(\zeta_{2^{r}}^{2}+\zeta_{2^{r}}^{-2}\right)-\left(\zeta_{2^{r}}^{3}+\zeta_{2^{r}}^{-3}\right)$ is a rotated $D_{n}$-lattice for $n=2^{r-2}$.

Proof. The Gram matrix for $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{r-1}}} \sigma_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}\right)$ related to the $\mathbb{Z}$-basis $\left\{e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n-1}\right\}$ is

$$
\boldsymbol{G}=\left(\begin{array}{ccccccccccc}
2 & 1 & -2 & -1 & 0 & \cdots & & & & \cdots & 0 \\
1 & 2 & 0 & -2 & -1 & 0 & & & & & \vdots \\
\vdots & 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 & \vdots \\
& & & & \ddots & 0 & -1 & -2 & 1 & 4 & 2 \\
0 & \vdots & & & & \cdots & 0 & -1 & -2 & 2 & 6
\end{array}\right)
$$

and it is easy to see that $\mathbf{G}$ is the Gram matrix for $D_{n}$ related to the generator matrix $\boldsymbol{T B}$ where $\boldsymbol{T}=\left(t_{i j}\right)$ of order $2^{r-2} \times 2^{r-2}$ is defined as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& t_{i j}= \begin{cases}(-1)^{j+1}, & \text { if } i=2^{r-2}-j+1,1 \leqslant j \leqslant 2^{r-2} ; \\
(-1)^{j}, & \text { if } i=2^{r-2}-j+3,3 \leqslant j \leqslant 2^{r-2} ; \\
-1, & \text { if }(i, j)=\left(2^{r-2}, 2\right) ; \\
0, & \text { otherwise, },\end{cases} \\
& \boldsymbol{T}=\left(\begin{array}{cccccccccccc}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and $\boldsymbol{B}$ is the standard generator matrix for $D_{n}$ given by basis $\beta$ (4). So, since lattices with the same Gram matrix must be Euclidean equivalent, then $\sigma_{\alpha}(I)$ is a rotated $D_{n}$-lattice.

We determine next the relative minimum product distance of the rotated $D_{n}$-lattice considered in Proposition 4.3.

Using Propositions 3.1 and 4.3 we conclude:
Corollary 4.4. If $m=2^{r}, r \geqslant 4, \mathbb{K}=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{m}+\zeta_{m}^{-1}\right)$ and $\alpha=4+\left(\zeta_{2^{r}}+\zeta_{2^{r}}^{-1}\right)-2\left(\zeta_{2^{r}}^{2}+\zeta_{2^{r}}^{-2}\right)-\left(\zeta_{2^{r}}^{3}+\zeta_{2^{r}}^{-3}\right)$ then $N_{\mathbb{K} \mid \mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)=8$.

Proposition 4.5. Forn $=2^{r-2}$, if $\Lambda=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{r-1}}} \sigma_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}\right)$ and $\alpha$ as in (5) then the lattice relative minimum product distance is

$$
\boldsymbol{d}_{p, \text { rel }}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{r-1}}} \sigma_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}\right)\right)=2^{\frac{3-r n}{2}} .
$$

Proof. The minimum norm of the standard $D_{n}$ is $\sqrt{2}$. Since $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ is a principal ideal, using Proposition 3.3 we have $d_{p, \min }\left(\sigma_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}\right)\right)=\sqrt{N(\alpha) N\left(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}\right)^{2}}$. Since $N(\alpha)=8$ and $N\left(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}\right)=1$, then

$$
\boldsymbol{d}_{p, r e l}\left(\frac{1}{\left.{\sqrt{2^{r-1}}}_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}\right)\right)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^{n}} \frac{1}{{\sqrt{2^{r-1}}}^{n}} \sqrt{8}=\frac{\sqrt{8}}{2^{r \frac{n}{2}}}=2^{\frac{3-r n}{2}} . . . .}\right.
$$

### 4.2. A second construction

In [5] and [1] families of rotated $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$-lattices obtained as image of a twisted homomorphism applied to $\mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right]$ and having full diversity are constructed. Those constructions consider $\alpha=2+e_{1}$ and $\alpha=2-e_{1}$, respectively, and generate equivalent lattices in the Euclidean metric by permutations and coordinate signal changes.

We will use in our construction the rotated $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$-lattice $\Lambda=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{r-1}}} \sigma_{\alpha}(I)$ with $\alpha=2+e_{1}$ and $I=$ $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}=\mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right]$, and then consider $D_{n}$ as a sublattice of $\Lambda$.

If $e_{0}=1$ and $e_{i}=\zeta^{i}+\zeta^{-i}$ for $i=1, \ldots, 2^{r-2}-1$, by [5] a generator matrix for the rotated $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ -
 the basis change matrix

$$
\boldsymbol{T}=\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
1 & -1 & \cdots & -1 & 1 & -1 \\
1 & -1 & \cdots & -1 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & -1 & \cdots & -1 & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
1 & -1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

For $\boldsymbol{M}=\boldsymbol{T} \boldsymbol{M}_{1}, \boldsymbol{G}=\boldsymbol{M} \boldsymbol{M}^{t}=\boldsymbol{I}_{n}$ and we will consider the standard lattice $D_{n} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^{n}$ rotated by $\boldsymbol{M}$.
Proposition 4.6. Let $I \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ be the $\mathbb{Z}$-module with $\mathbb{Z}$-basis

$$
\left\{-2 e_{0}+2 e_{1}-2 e_{2}+\cdots-2 e_{n-2}+e_{n-1},-e_{n-1}, e_{n-2}, \ldots,(-1)^{i+1} e_{n-1-i}, \ldots, e_{2},-e_{1}\right\}
$$

and $\alpha=2+e_{1}$. The lattice $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{r-1}}} \sigma_{\alpha}(I) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{r^{r-2}}$ is a rotated $D_{n}$-lattice.
Proof. Let $\boldsymbol{B}$ be the generator matrix of $D_{n}$ associated to the basis $\beta$ (4). Using homomorphism properties, a straightforward computation shows that
$\boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{M}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{r-1}}}\left(\begin{array}{ccc}\sigma_{1}\left(-2 e_{0}+2 e_{1}-2 e_{2}+\cdots-2 e_{n-2}+e_{n-1}\right) & \cdots & \sigma_{n}\left(-2 e_{0}+2 e_{1}-2 e_{2}+\cdots-2 e_{n-2}+e_{n-1}\right) \\ \sigma_{1}\left(-e_{n-1}\right) & \cdots & \sigma_{n}\left(-e_{n-1}\right) \\ \sigma_{1}\left(e_{n-2}\right) & \cdots & \sigma_{n}\left(e_{n-2}\right) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sigma_{1}\left(e_{2}\right) & \cdots & \sigma_{n}\left(-e_{2}\right) \\ \sigma_{1}\left(-e_{1}\right) & \cdots & \sigma_{n}\left(-e_{1}\right)\end{array}\right) \boldsymbol{A}$
is a generator matrix for $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{r-1}}} \sigma_{\alpha}(I)$. This lattice is a rotated $D_{n}$-lattice since $\boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{M}(\boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{M})^{t}=\boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{B}^{t}$ is the standard Gram matrix of $D_{n}$ relative to the basis $\beta$.

We show next that the rotated $D_{n}$-lattice of the last proposition is associated to a principal ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ and then calculate its relative minimum product distance.

Table 2
Relative product distance and center density of rotated $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ and $D_{n}$-lattices, $n=2^{r-2}$.

| $r$ | $n$ | $\sqrt[n]{d_{p, r e l}\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)}$ | $\sqrt[n]{d_{p, r e l}\left(D_{n}\right)}$ | $\delta\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)$ | $\delta\left(D_{n}\right)$ |
| :--- | ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 4 | 4 | 0.385553 | 0.324210 | 0.062500 | 0.125000 |
| 5 | 8 | 0.261068 | 0.201311 | 0.003906 | 0.031250 |
| 6 | 16 | 0.180648 | 0.133393 | 0.000015 | 0.001953 |
| 7 | 32 | 0.126361 | 0.091307 | $5.3 \times 10^{-10}$ | $7.6 \times 10^{-6}$ |
| 8 | 64 | 0.062669 | 0.044554 | $2.9 \times 10^{-20}$ | $1.1 \times 10^{-10}$ |
| 9 | 128 |  |  | $2.7 \times 10^{-20}$ |  |

Proposition 4.7. Let $I$ be the $\mathbb{Z}$-module given in Proposition 4.6. Then $I$ is a principal ideal and $I=e_{1} \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$.
Proof. It is easy to see that $I=2 e_{0} \mathbb{Z}+e_{1} \mathbb{Z}+\cdots+e_{n-1} \mathbb{Z}$. Let $x \in e_{1} \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$. Then $x=e_{1}\left(a_{0} e_{0}+a_{1} e_{1}+\right.$ $\left.a_{2} e_{2}+\cdots+a_{n-1} e_{n-1}\right)=a_{0}\left(e_{1}\right)+a_{1}\left(e_{2}+2 e_{0}\right)+a_{2}\left(e_{3}+e_{-1}\right)+\cdots+a_{n-1}\left(e_{n}+e_{-n+2}\right)=a_{1}\left(2 e_{0}\right)+\left(a_{0}+\right.$ $\left.a_{2}\right)\left(e_{1}\right)+\left(a_{1}+a_{3}\right)\left(e_{2}\right)+\cdots+\left(a_{n-2}\right)\left(e_{n-1}\right) \in I$. Now, if $x \in I$, then $x=a_{0} 2 e_{0}+a_{1} e_{1}+\cdots+a_{n-1} e_{n-1}=$ $\left(e_{1}\right)\left[a_{0} e_{1}+a_{1} e_{2}+\left(a_{2}-a_{0}\right) e_{3}+\left(a_{3}-a_{1}\right) e_{4}+\left(a_{4}-a_{2}-a_{0}\right) e_{5}+\left(a_{5}-a_{3}-a_{1}\right) e_{6}+\cdots+\left(a_{n-1}\right) e_{n-2}+\right.$ $\left.\left(a_{n-2}-a_{n-4} \cdots-a_{0}\right) e_{n-1}\right] \in e_{1} \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$. So, $I$ is a principal ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$.

Remark 4.8. It follows from Proposition 3.3 and Definition 3.4 that the relative minimum product distance of $D_{n}$-lattices constructed from principal ideals in $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{m}+\zeta_{m}^{-1}\right), m=2^{r}, r \geqslant 5$, depends only of the determinant of $D_{n}$ and of the discriminant of $\mathbb{K}$. Therefore for any construction of a rotated $D_{n}$ lattice from a principal ideal $I$ in $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ the relative minimum product distance is $d_{p, \text { rel }}\left(\sigma_{\alpha}(I)\right)=2^{\frac{3-r n}{2}}$.

It is also interesting to note that besides being Euclidean equivalent, the lattices obtained through the first and second constructions are equivalent in the sum $l_{1}$-metric in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ (which can be used in the lattice decoding process), since the isometry is a composition of permutations and coordinate signal changes.

The density $\Delta(\Lambda)$ of a lattice $\Lambda \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is given by $\Delta(\Lambda)=\frac{(d / 2)^{n} \operatorname{Vol}(B(1))}{\operatorname{det}(\Lambda)^{1 / 2}}$ where $\operatorname{Vol}(B(1))$ is the volume of the unitary sphere in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ and $d$ is the minimum norm of $\Lambda$. The parameter $\delta(\Lambda)=\frac{(d / 2)^{n}}{\operatorname{det}(\Lambda)^{1 / 2}}$ is so called center density. Table 2 shows a comparison between the normalized $d_{p, \text { rel }}$ and the center density of rotated $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$-lattices constructed in [5] and rotated $D_{n}$-lattices constructed here via principal ideals in $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right), n=2^{r-2}$. Asymptotically we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt[n]{d_{p, \text { rel }}\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)}}{\sqrt[n]{d_{p, \text { rel }}\left(D_{n}\right)}}=\sqrt{2} \quad \text { and } \quad \lim _{n \longrightarrow \infty} \frac{\delta\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)}{\delta\left(D_{n}\right)}=0 \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

If the goal is to construct lattices which have good performance on both Gaussian and Rayleigh channels, we may assert that taking into account the trade-off density versus product distance, there is some advantages in considering these rotated $D_{n}$-lattices instead of rotated $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$-lattices, $n=2^{r-2}$, $r \geqslant 5$, in high dimensions.

## 5. Rotated $D_{n}$-lattices for $\boldsymbol{n}=\frac{p-1}{2}, p$ prime, via $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{p}+\zeta_{p}^{-1}\right)$

Let $\zeta=\zeta_{p}$ be a primitive $p$-th root of unity, $p$ prime, $\mathbb{L}=\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ and $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right)$. We will construct a family of rotated $D_{n}$-lattices, derived from the construction of a rotated $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$-lattice in [6], via a $\mathbb{Z}$-module that is not an ideal. Let $e_{j}=\zeta^{j}+\zeta^{-j}$ for $j=1, \ldots,(p-1) / 2$.

By [6] a generator matrix of the rotated $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$-lattice $\Lambda=\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sigma_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}\right)$ is $\boldsymbol{M}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \boldsymbol{T} \boldsymbol{N} \boldsymbol{A}$, where $\boldsymbol{T}=\left(t_{i j}\right)$ is an upper triangular matrix with $t_{i j}=1$ if $i \leqslant j, \boldsymbol{N}=\left(\sigma_{j}\left(e_{i}\right)\right)_{i, j=1}^{n}$ and $\boldsymbol{A}=\operatorname{diag}\left(\sqrt{\sigma_{k}(\alpha)}\right)$. We have $\boldsymbol{G}=\boldsymbol{M} \boldsymbol{M}^{t}=\boldsymbol{I}_{n}$ [6].

Table 3
Relative product distance and center density of rotated $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ and $D_{n}$-lattices, $n=(p-1) / 2, p$ prime.

| $p$ | $n$ | $\sqrt[n]{d_{p, \text { rel }}\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)}$ | $\sqrt[n]{d_{p, r e l}\left(D_{n}\right)}$ | $\delta\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)$ | $\delta\left(D_{n}\right)$ |
| :--- | ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 11 | 5 | 0.38321 | 0.27097 | 0.03125 | 0.08838 |
| 13 | 6 | 0.34344 | 0.24285 | 0.01563 | 0.06250 |
| 17 | 8 | 0.28952 | 0.20472 | 0.00390 | 0.03125 |
| 19 | 9 | 0.27187 | 0.19105 | 0.00195 | 0.02209 |
| 23 | 11 | 0.17003 | 0.00049 | 0.01105 |  |

Proposition 5.1. Let $I \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ be a $\mathbb{Z}$-module with $\mathbb{Z}$-basis

$$
\left\{-e_{1}-2 e_{2}-\cdots-2 e_{n}, e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{n-1}\right\}
$$

and $\alpha=2-e_{1}$. The lattice $\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sigma_{\alpha}(I) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{\frac{p-1}{2}}$ is a rotated $D_{n}$-lattice.
Proof. Let $\boldsymbol{B}$ be a generator matrix for $D_{n}$ given by basis $\beta$ (4). Using homomorphism properties, a straightforward computation shows that $\boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{M}$ is a generator matrix for $\Lambda=\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sigma_{\alpha}(I)$. This lattice is a rotated $D_{n}$ since $\boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{M}(\boldsymbol{B M})^{t}=\boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{B}^{t}$ is a Gram matrix of $D_{n}$. It has full diversity since it is contained in $\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sigma_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}\right)$ [6].

Proposition 5.2. The $\mathbb{Z}$-module $I \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ is not an ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$.
Proof. The set $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{n-1}, 2 e_{n}\right\}$ is an another $\mathbb{Z}$-basis to $I$. We will show that $e_{n}$ is not in $I$. Indeed, if $e_{n} \in I$, then $I=\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$, but $\left|\frac{\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}}{I}\right|=2$. So, $e_{n} \notin I$. $e_{n-1} e_{1}$ is not in $I$. In fact, note that $e_{n-1} e_{1}=$ $e_{n}+e_{n-2}$ and $e_{n-2} \in I$. If $e_{n-1} e_{1} \in I$, then $e_{n}=e_{n-1} e_{1}-e_{n-2} \in I$, and this doesn't happen.

Proposition 5.3. If $\Lambda=\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sigma_{\alpha}(I) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{\frac{p-1}{2}}$ with $\alpha$ and I as in Proposition 5.1, then the relative minimum product distance is

$$
\boldsymbol{d}_{p, \text { rel }}(\Lambda)=2^{\frac{1-p}{4}} p^{\frac{3-p}{4}}
$$

Proof. First note that $\left|N\left(e_{1}\right)\right|=1$. Indeed, $\left(\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right)\left(-\zeta^{p-1}-\zeta^{p-2}-\cdots-\zeta-1\right)=1$ and so

$$
N\left(\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right) N\left(-\zeta^{p-1}-\zeta^{p-2}-\cdots-\zeta-1\right)=N(1)=1 .
$$

Since $e_{1} \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$, then $N\left(e_{1}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}$, what implies $\left|N\left(e_{1}\right)\right|=1$. Now, the minimum norm in $D_{n}$ is $\sqrt{2}$. By Proposition 3.2, $\boldsymbol{d}_{p}\left(\sigma_{\alpha}(I)\right)=\sqrt{N(\alpha)} \min _{0 \neq y \in I}|N(y)|=\sqrt{p}$, since $\min _{0 \neq y \in I}|N(y)|=1$. Therefore, the relative minimum product distance is

$$
d_{p, r e l}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sigma_{\alpha}(I)\right)=\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}^{\frac{p-1}{2}}}\right)\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^{\frac{p-1}{2}}}\right) \sqrt{p}=2^{\frac{1-p}{4}} p^{\frac{3-p}{4}} .
$$

Table 3 shows a comparison between the normalized $d_{p, \text { rel }}$ and the center density $\delta$ of rotated $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$-lattices constructed in [6] and rotated $D_{n}$-lattices constructed here, $n=(p-1) / 2$. As in Section 6 we also have for $\Lambda=\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}\left(\sigma_{\alpha}(I)\right) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{\frac{p-1}{2}}$ and $p$ prime, the following results:

$$
\lim _{n \longrightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt[n]{d_{p, r e l}\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)}}{\sqrt[n]{d_{p, \text { rel }}\left(D_{n}\right)}}=\sqrt{2} \quad \text { and } \quad \lim _{n \longrightarrow \infty} \frac{\delta\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)}{\delta\left(D_{n}\right)}=0
$$

## 6. Conclusion

In this work we construct some families of full diversity rotated $D_{n}$-lattices for $n=2^{r-2}, r \geqslant 5$ and $n=\frac{p-1}{2}, p$ prime, $p \geqslant 7$ through cyclotomic fields and derive their relative minimum product distance. A comparison between these lattices and rotated $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$-lattices is also presented.

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