Computational Algebra

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Transcript

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Contents

1	Inte	ger Arit	thmetic	4
	1.1	Additi	on and Multiplication	4
		1.1.1	Algorithm 1 (Simple addition)	4
		1.1.2	Definition 2 (Bit-Operation)	5
		1.1.3	Definition 3 (Big O)	5
		1.1.4	Theorem 4 (Lower bound for addition)	5
		1.1.5	Algorithm 5 (Multiplication by "grid method")	6
		1.1.6	Theorem 6 (Runtime of Algorithm 5)	6
		1.1.7	0	6
		1.1.8	,	7
		1.1.9	()	8
		1.1.10	Algorithm 10 (Fast Fourier transformation FFT)	8
		1.1.11	Theorem 11 (Runtime of Algorithm 10)	9
		1.1.12	Definition 12 (Good root of unity)	9
		1.1.13	Proposition 13 $(DFT_{\mu^{-1}})$	9
		1.1.14	Proposition 14 (Finding good roots of unity)	0
		1.1.15	Algorithm 15 (Polynomial multiplication using DFT) 10	0
		1.1.16	Theorem 16 (Runtime of Algorithm 15)	1
		1.1.17	Proposition 17 (Add and mul in $O(l)$)	1
		1.1.18	Proposition 18 (Sort of summary)	1
		1.1.19	Algorithm 19 (Multiplication using FFT)	2
		1.1.20	Theorem 20 (Runtime of Algorithm 19)	3
		1.1.21	Theorem 21 (Schönhage-Strassen 1971)	4
	1.2	Divisio	on with remainder, Euclidean algorithm	5
		1.2.1	Algorithm 1 (Division with remainder)	5
		1.2.2	Proposition 2 (Runtime of Algorithm 1)	5

	3.1	Notati	on	42
3	Note	es		42
		2.6.1	Proposition 1 (Complexity of usual algorithms)	
2	Syst 2.6		equations Algebra	41
		1.5.6	Algorithm 6 (Quadratic sieve, simplified version)	
		1.5.4 $1.5.5$	Algorithm 5 (Pollard's p-1 method)	
		1.5.3 $1.5.4$	Theorem 4 (Bit-complexity of Algorithm 3)	
			Proposition 2 (length of periods)	
		1.5.1	Algorithm 1 (Sieve of Eratosthenes)	
	1.5		Algorithm 1 (Signs of Engloythanes)	
	1 5	1.4.5	Elliptic curve cryptography (ECC)	
		1.4.4	Diffie-Hellmann Key Exchange	
		1.4.3	Proposition 2 (Complexity of Algorithm 1)	
		1.4.2	Algorithm 1 (Finding a divisor)	
		1.4.1	Algorithm (RSA)	
	1.4	0 =	blogy	
			Lemma 18 (Property of binomial coefficients)	
			Theorem 17 (Correctness of Algorithm 12)	
			Lemma 16 (Rules for ideals)	
			Theorem 15 (Bit-Complexity of Algorithm 12)	
			Lemma 14 (Property of r in Algorithm 12)	
			Lemma 13 (Least common multiple)	
			Algorithm 12 (AKS-test)	
			Algorithm 11 (Test for perfect power)	
		1.3.11	Proposition 10 (Modulo over ideals)	24
		1.3.10	, /	
		1.3.9	Theorem 9 (Bit-complexity of Algorithm 7)	
		1.3.8	Definition 8 (strong pseudo-prime / witness)	
		1.3.7	Algorithm 7 (Miller-Rabin-test)	
		1.3.6	Proposition 6 (Inference from Fermat)	
		1.3.5	Proposition 5 (Number of witnesses)	
		1.3.4	Definition 4 (Pseudo-prime, witness, Carmichael numbers)	
		1.3.3	Algorithm 3 (Fast exponentiation)	
		1.3.2	Algorithm 2 (Fermat Test)	
	1.0	1.3.1	Theorem 1 (Cyclic group)	
	1.3		lity testing	
		1.2.5 $1.2.6$	Algorithm 6 (Extended Euclidean Algorithm)	
		1.2.4 $1.2.5$	Theorem 5 (Runtime of Algorithm 3)	
		1.2.3 $1.2.4$	Theorem 4 (Correctness of Algorithm 3)	
		1.2.3	Algorithm 3 (Euclidean algorithm)	16

3.2	Various stuff $\dots \dots $	12
3.3	Algebraic structures	13
3.4	nvertible elements	14

1 Integer Arithmetic

Topics:

- Addition and Multiplication
- GCD computation
- Primality testing
- Factorization

1.1 Addition and Multiplication

Agreement:

- $a, x \in \mathbb{N}$ represented as $x = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i \cdot B^i$ $B \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$ fixed Base $(a_i \in \{0, B-1\})$
- if $x \neq 0$, assume $a_{n-1} \neq 0$ then define: length of x := l(x) = n = number of digits = $\lfloor \log_B(x) \rfloor + 1$ (mnemonic: $\log_B(B) + 1 = 2$)
- l(0) = 1 (Amount of memory required to store x = 0)
- l(x) := l(|x|)
- for $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ represent if as x = sqn(x) * |x|

1.1.1 Algorithm 1 (Simple addition)

input :
$$x = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i \cdot B^i$$
, $y = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i \cdot B^i$, $x, y \in \mathbb{N}$

output:
$$x + y = \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i \cdot B^i$$

- (1) $\sigma = 0$
- (2) for i = 0, ..., (n-1):
- (3) set $c_i := a_i + b_i + \sigma_i$ and $\sigma := 0$
- $(4) if (c_i \ge B)$
- $(5) set c_i = c_i B$
- (6) $\operatorname{set} \sigma = 1$
- (7) set $c_n = \sigma$

If B = 2 then (3) - (6) can be realized by logic gates:

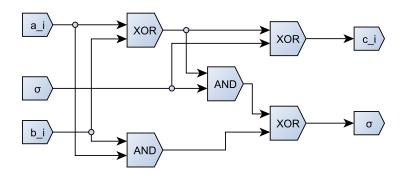


Figure 1: Logic circuit for addition

1.1.2 Definition 2 (Bit-Operation)

A bit operation is an operation that can be performed by a logic gate or by searching or writing a bit from / into memory.

1.1.3 Definition 3 (Big O)

Let
$$M$$
 be a set (usually $M = \mathbb{N}$), $f, g : M \mapsto \mathbb{R} > 0$
we write $f \in O(g)$ if $\exists c \in \mathbb{R} : f(x) \le c \cdot g(x) \forall x \in M$

1.1.4 Theorem 4 (Lower bound for addition)

Let $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$, $n \mapsto$ maximal number of bit operations required by Algorithm 1 to add $x_y \in \mathbb{N}$ with $l(x), l(y) \leq n$

Let $g = id_{\mathbb{N}}$ Then $f \in O(g)$

We say Algorithm 1 requires O(n) bit operations for adding two numbers of length $\leq n$. ⇒ "linear complexity"

Set $M := \{ \text{Set of all algorithms for addition in } \mathbb{N} \}$

For $A \in M$ define $f_A : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ as above.

We would like to find $f_{odd}: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}, \quad n \mapsto \inf\{f_A(n) | A \in M\}$

Since one needs to read x, y (and write the result) we can not do any better than linear complexity for addition.

Subtraction

let
$$x, y$$
 as Algorithm $1, x \ge y$
For $\bar{y} := \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (B - 1 - b_i) B^i$ (digitwise / bitwise complement)
 $\Rightarrow x + \bar{y} = x - y + B^n - 1$
 $\Rightarrow x - y = x + \bar{y} + 1 - B^n$ (initially set $\sigma = 1$)

Conclusion: Addition and Subtraction have cost O(n)

1.1.5 Algorithm 5 (Multiplication by "grid method")

input :
$$x = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i \cdot 2^i$$
, $y = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} b_i \cdot 2^i$

output: $z = x \cdot y$

- (1) z := 0
- (2) for i = 0, ..., (n-1)

(3) if
$$(a_i \neq 0)$$
 set $z := z + \sum_{j=1}^{m-1} b_j 2^{i+j}$

1.1.6 Theorem 6 (Runtime of Algorithm 5)

Algorithm 5 requires O(n * m) bit operations.

As of the total input length n + m:

$$n \cdot m \le \frac{1}{2}(n+m)^2 \to O((n+m)^2)$$

 \Rightarrow Quadratic complexity

Karatsuba-multiplication:

Observation for polynomials:

$$a + bx, c + dx$$
 have $(a + bx)(c + dx) = ac + (ac + db - (a - b)(c - d))x + bdx^2$

The point: only used 3 multiplications instead of 4.

Specialize x = B "large" such that x = a + bB partition into two blocks. Then multiply the blocks by a recursive call.

1.1.7 Algorithm 7 (Karatsuba)

input : $x, y \in \mathbb{N}$

output: $z = x \cdot y$

- (1) Choose $k \in \mathbb{N}$ minimal such that $l(x), l(y) \leq 2^k$. Set $B = 2^{2^{k-1}}$
- (2) if (k = 0) return $x \cdot y$ (by bit-operation AND)
- (3) write $x = x_0 + x_1 B$, $y = y_0 + y_1 B$ with $l(x_i), l(y_i) \le 2^{k-1}$
- (4) compute $x_0 \cdot y_0$, $x_1 \cdot y_1$, $(x_0 x_1) \cdot (y_0 y_1)$ by a recursive call
- (5) return $z = x_0 y_0 + (x_0 y_0 + x_1 y_1 (x_0 x_1)(y_0 y_1))B + x_1 y_1 B^2$

1.1.8 Theorem 8 (Runtime of Algorithm 7)

For multiplying two numbers of length $\leq n$ Algorithm 7 requires $O(n^{\log_2 3}) \approx O(n^{1.59})$ bit operations.

Proof:

Set $\Theta(k) := \text{maximal numbers of bit operations for } l(x), l(y) \leq 2^k$ We have for k > 0: $\Theta(k) \le 3\Theta$ (k-1) +c 2^k addition with (c some constant)

Claim: $\Theta(k) \le 3^k + 2c(3^k - 2^k)$

Proof by Induction on k:

$$k = 0 : \Theta(k) = 1$$

$$k - 1 \to k = \Theta(k) = 3\Theta(k - 1) + c2^{k - 1}$$

$$\leq 3(3^{k - 1} + 2c(3^{k - r} - 2^{k - 1})) + c2^{k}$$

$$= 3^{k} + 2c(3^{k} - 2^{k})$$
So $\Theta(k) \leq (2c + 1)3^{k}$

Now $l(x) \le n$ hence $2^{k-1} < n$ by minimality of k

So
$$k - 1 < \log_2 n$$

 $\Rightarrow \Theta(k) \le 3(2c + 1)3^{\log_2(n)}$
 $= 3(2c + 1)2^{\log_2(3)\log_2(n)}$
 $= 3(2c + 1)n^{\log_2(3)}$

One can modify the terminal condition of Karatsuba to switch to Grid-Multiplication, which is faster for small numbers.

Fast-Fourier Transform

Reminder: For a function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$ define:

$$\hat{f}: \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{C}$$
 by $\hat{f}(\omega) = \int_{\mathbb{D}} f(t)e^{-i\omega t}dt$ (if it exists)

Think of ω as frequency.

Definition (Convolution)

Let
$$f, g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$$

 $(f * g)(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t)g(x - t)dt$

Convolution is analogous to polynomial multiplication Formula:

For a function $M \mapsto C$ with $|M| < \infty$ we need the discrete Fourier transform (DFT)

1.1.9 Definition 9 (Root of unity)

Let R be a commutative ring with 1. An element $\mu \in R$ is called an n-th root of unity (= root of 1) if $\mu^n = 1$.

It is called primitive if $\mu^i \neq 1$ for (0 < i < n) i.e. $ord(\mu) = n$

let μ be a primitive n-th root of 1 (e.g. $e^{2\pi \frac{i}{n}} \in \mathbb{C}$)

Then the map $DFT_{\mu}: \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$

$$(\hat{a}_0, ..., \hat{a}_n) \mapsto (\hat{a}_0, ..., \hat{a}_n)$$
 with $\hat{a}_i = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \mu^{ij} a_j$

is called discrete Fourier transformation

For polynomials:

$$DFT_{\mu}: R[x] \mapsto R^{n}$$

$$f \mapsto (f(\mu^{0}), ..., f(\mu^{n-1})$$
Convolution rule: (from $f(\mu^{i})g(\mu^{i}) = (f * g)(\mu^{i})$)
$$DFT_{\mu}(f * g) = DFT_{\mu}(f) \cdot DFT_{\mu}(g) \qquad \text{(component wise product)}$$

Addition of two polynomials in R[x] of deg(n) require O(n) ring operations. Multiplication require $O(n^l)$.

With Karatsuba have $O(n^{\log_2(3)})$ ring operations.

Cost $DFT_{\mu}(f) \cdot DFT_{\mu}(g) : O(n)$ ring operations (with μ as 2n-th root of 1)

Want: Cheap way of doing DFT and back-transformation.

1.1.10 Algorithm 10 (Fast Fourier transformation FFT)

input : $f \in R[x]$, $\mu \in R$ primitive 2^k -th root of 1, such that $\mu^{2^{k-1}} = -1$ output: $DFT_{\mu}(f)$

- (1) Write $f(x) = g(x^2) + xh(x^2)$ with $f, g, h \in R[x]$
- (2) if (k = 1) $//(\Rightarrow \mu = 1)$ return $DFT_{\mu}(f) = (g(1) + h(1), g(1) - h(1))$
- (3) Recursive call: compute $DFT_{\mu^2}(g)=\hat{g}, DFT_{\mu^2}(h)=\hat{h} \in R^{2^{k-1}}$
- (4) return $DFT_{\mu}(f) = (\hat{f}_0, ..., \hat{f}_{2^k-1})$ with $\hat{f}_i = \hat{g}_i + \mu \hat{h}_i$ where $\hat{g}_i = \hat{g}_{i-2^{k-1}}$ for $i \geq 2^{k-1}$

Note: Components of \hat{g} and \hat{h} are:

$$\hat{g} = g(\mu^{2i}), \quad \hat{h}_i = h(\mu^{2i}) \quad \text{so}$$

 $\hat{f}_i := f(\mu^i) = \hat{g}_i(\mu^{2i}) + \mu h(\mu^{2i}) = \hat{g}_i + \mu \hat{h}_i$

Convention: $lg(x) = log_2(x)$

1.1.11 Theorem 11 (Runtime of Algorithm 10)

Let $n = 2^k$, $f \in R[x]$ with $deg(\psi) < n$

Then Algorithm 10 requires $O(n \cdot \lg(n))$ ring operations.

Better than $O(n^{1+\epsilon}), \forall \epsilon > 0!$

Proof:

Set $\Theta(k) = \max$ number of ring operations required. By counting obtain for k > 1: $\Theta(k) \leq 2\Theta(k-1) + \underbrace{(\text{compute } \mu^{i}(i \leq 2^{k-1}))}_{2^{k-1}} + \underbrace{(\mu^{i}\hat{k}_{i})}_{2^{k-1}} + \underbrace{(\text{sums and differences})}_{2^{k}}$

$$\underbrace{\mu^{i}(i \leq 2^{n-1})}_{2k-1} + \underbrace{(\mu^{i}k_{i})}_{2k-1} + \underbrace{(\text{sums and differences})}_{2k}$$

$$= 2\Theta(k-1) + 2^{k+1}$$

Claim: $\Theta(k) \le (2k-1)2^k$

$$k = 1: f = a_0 + a_1 \cdot x \quad DFT_{\mu}(f) = (a_0 + a_1 \cdot a_0 - a_1) \Rightarrow \Theta(a) = 2$$

$$k - 1 \rightarrow k: \Theta(k) \leq 2 \cdot \Theta(k - 1) + 2^{k+1} \leq 2 \cdot (2k - 3) \cdot 2^{k-1} + 2^{k+1} = (2k - 1) \cdot 2^k$$
since $k = \lg(n)$ obtain $O(k) \leq (2 \cdot \lg(n) - 1) \cdot n \in O(n \cdot \lg(n))$

Back-transformation?

1.1.12 Definition 12 (Good root of unity)

A primitive n-th root of unity is called good (caveat: this is ad-hoc terminology) if:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \mu^{ij} = 0 \quad \text{for } (0 < i < n)$$

example:

- (1) $\mu = e^{2\pi \frac{i}{n}}$ is a good primitive root of unity
- (2) $R = \mathbb{Z}/(8)$, $\mu = \bar{3} \Rightarrow \mu \cdot B$ is primitive 2^{nd} root of unity But $\bar{B}^0 + \bar{3}^1 = \bar{u} \neq \bar{0}$ so μ is not good.

1.1.13 Proposition **13** ($DFT_{\mu^{-1}}$)

let $\mu \in R$ be a good root of 1

$$(a) = (a_0, ..., a_{n-1}) \in \mathbb{R}^n \Rightarrow DFT_{\mu}^{-1}(DFT_{\mu}(a)) = n \cdot (a) \quad \text{where } n = 1 + ... + 1 \in \mathbb{R}$$

Proof:

$$DFT_{\mu}(a) = (\hat{a}) = (\hat{a}_0, ..., \hat{a}_{n-1})$$

$$DFT_{\mu}(a) = (\hat{a}) = (\hat{a}_0, ..., \hat{a}_{n-1})$$

with $\hat{a}_j = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \mu^{jk} a_k$

$$DFT_{\mu^{-1}}(\hat{a}) = (\hat{a}_0, ..., \hat{a}_1)$$

with
$$\hat{a}_i \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \mu^{-ij} \sum_{k=0}^{n-i} \mu^{jk} a_k = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left(a_k \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \mu^{j(k-i)} \right) = a_i \cdot n$$

1.1.14 Proposition 14 (Finding good roots of unity)

let $\mu \in R, n \in \mathbb{N}$

Assume:

- a) R is an integral Domain and μ is a primitive or n-th root of 1 (Integral Domain: nonzero commutative ring in which the product of two nonzero elements is nonzero)
 - \Rightarrow Granted by FFT
- b) $n = 2^b, \, \mu^{\frac{n}{2}} = -1$, then $h > 0 \wedge char(R) \neq 2$ $\rightarrow \mu$ is a good primitive n-th root of 1 ("root of unity")

Proof:

a) for 0 < i < n $\underbrace{(\mu^{i} - 1)}_{\neq 0} \underbrace{(\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \mu^{ij})}_{=0} = \mu^{in} - 1 = 0$

* Let
$$0 < i < n$$
, write $i = 2^{k-s} \cdot r$ with $r \text{ odd } \land s > 0$

$$\sum_{j=0}^{2^{k}-1} \mu^{ij} = \sum_{l=0}^{2^{k-s}-1} \sum_{j=0}^{2^{s}-1} \mu^{i(l \cdot 2^{s}+j)}$$

$$\mu^{i \cdot 2^{s}} = 1$$

$$i \cdot 2^{s} = 2^{k-s} \sum_{j=0}^{2^{s}-1} \mu^{ij} = 2^{k-s} \sum_{j=0}^{2^{s-1}-1} (\mu^{ij} + \mu^{i(2^{s-1}+j)})$$
But $\mu^{i \cdot 2^{s-1}} = \mu^{2^{k-s} \cdot r \cdot 2^{s-1}} = \mu^{2^{k-1} \cdot r} = (-1)^{r} = -1$
So $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \mu^{ij} = 0$

b)
$$\mu^n = 1, n = 2^k \Rightarrow ord(\mu)|n \Rightarrow ord(\mu)$$
 is power of 2

1.1.15 Algorithm 15 (Polynomial multiplication using DFT)

input: $f, g \in R[x]$ with $deg(f) + deg(g) < 2^k =: n$ $\mu \in R$ as a good root of unity; Assume $2 \in R$ is invertible

output: $h = f \cdot g$

- (1) compute $\hat{f} = DFT_n(f)$, $\hat{q} = DFT_n(q)$ with $f, q \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- (2) compute $\hat{h} = \hat{f} \cdot \hat{q}$
- (3) compute $(h_0, ..., h_{n-1}) = DFT_{\mu^{-1}}\hat{h}$ (same as $DFT_{\mu}(\hat{h})$ but with different order) = Back-transformation $\cdot 2^k$ set $h = \frac{1}{2^k} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} h_i x^i$

1.1.16 Theorem 16 (Runtime of Algorithm 15)

Algorithm 15 uses $O(n \cdot \log(n))$ ring operations for polynomials of deg < n**Proof:**

- Choose k minimal so that $deg(f) \cdot deg(g) < 2^k$ $\Rightarrow 2^{k-1} \le 2n \quad \Rightarrow k \le \log(n) + 2$
- $\bullet \ \ \underline{O(2k \cdot 2^k)}_{\text{Step 1}} + \underbrace{2^k}_{\text{Step 2}} + \underbrace{O(k \cdot 2^k) + 2^k}_{\text{Step 3}} \ \in \ O(2k \cdot 2^k) = O(n(g(n))) \qquad \Box$

Goal: Multiplication in $\mathbb N$ using DFT

Idea: find roots of 1 in a suitable $\mathbb{Z}/(m)$

Choose $m=2^l+1, \mu=\bar{2}\in R$

1.1.17 Proposition 17 (Add and mul in O(l))

Let $m = 2^{l} + 1, \ R = \mathbb{Z}/(m)$

Addition in R and multiplication by $\bar{2}^i \in R$ $(0 \le i < 2l)$ can be done in O(l) bit operations

Proof:

Let $\bar{x} \in R$ with $0 \le x \le 2^l$

- Addition: $x + \bar{y}$
 - (1) compute $x + y \in \mathbb{N}$: O(l)
 - (2) if $x + y > 2^l + 1$ subtract $2^l + 1$: O(l)
- Multiplication by $\bar{2}^i$ $(0 \le i < l)$
 - (1) Bit-shift i Bits to the left by relocating in memory:

 $\underbrace{O(\operatorname{length}(i))}_{\text{compute addr. of new first bit}} + \underbrace{l}_{\text{copying}} = O(\log(l)) + l \quad \in \quad O(l)$

- Multiplication by $\bar{2}^i$ $(l \le i < 2l 1)$
 - (1) Multiplication by $\bar{2}^{i-l}$: O(l)
 - (2) take negative $\bar{2}^i \cdot \bar{x} = -\bar{2}^{i-l} \cdot \bar{x}$: O(l)

1.1.18 Proposition 18 (Sort of summary)

Let $k, r \in \mathbb{N}$, r > 0, $m = 2^{2^k \cdot r} + 1$, $R = \mathbb{Z}/(m)$, $\mu = \overline{2}^r \in R$ $\Rightarrow 2 \in R$ is invertible, μ is a good primitive 2^{k+1} -th root of 1

 $\Rightarrow \mu^{2^k} = 1$

Proof: \rightarrow from above

1.1.19 Algorithm 19 (Multiplication using FFT)

input : $x, y \in \mathbb{N}$

output: $Z = x \cdot y$

- (1) Choose $k \in \mathbb{N}$ minimal such that $l(x), l(y) \leq 2^{2k}$
- (2) if $k \leq 3$, compute $z = x \cdot y$ by Algorithm 5
- (3) set $B=2^{2^k}, \quad m=2^{2^k\cdot 4}+1, \quad R=\mathbb{Z}/(m), \quad \mu=\bar{2}^4\in R$ (\$\Rightarrow\$ so \$\mu\$ is a good primitive 2^{k+1} -th root of 1)
- (4) write $x = \sum_{i=0}^{2^k-1} x_i \cdot B^i$, same for y with $(0 \le x_i, y_i < B)$ possible since $x, y < 2^{2^{2k}} = 2^{2^k \cdot 2^k} = B^{2^k}$
- (5) compute: $\hat{x} = DFT_{\mu}(\bar{x}_0, ..., \hat{x}_{2^k-1}, \underbrace{0, ..., 0}_{2^k \text{zeros}}) \in R^{2^{k+1}}$ same for y \rightarrow use FFT
- (6) compute: $\hat{z} = \hat{x} \cdot \hat{b} \in R^{2^{k+1}}$ (component wise multiplication) Perform multiplication in R as follows: Multiply representatives (non negative and < m) by recursive call. Then reduce modulo m by "negative bit shift" (see proof of Proposition 17)
- (7) compute: $(\bar{z}_0, ..., \bar{z}_{2^{k+1}}) = \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} DFT_{\mu^{-1}}(\hat{z}) \in R$ with $0 \le z < m$
- (8) set $z := \sum_{i=0}^{2^{k+1}-1} z_i \cdot B^i$

1.1.20 Theorem 20 (Runtime of Algorithm 19)

Algorithm 19 correctly computes $t = x \cdot y$ and requires $O(n \cdot (\log n)^4)$ bit operations for $l(x), l(y) \leq n$

Proof: Correctness

write
$$x(t) \sum_{i=0}^{2^k - i} x_i t^i \in \mathbb{Z}[t], \quad y(t), \quad \bar{x}(t) \in R[t], \bar{y}(t), \bar{z}(t)$$
 by Proposition 18 and Proposition 13 we have $\bar{z}(t) = \bar{x}(t) \cdot \bar{y}(t)$

The *l*-th coefficient of $x(t) \cdot y(t)$ is $0 \le \sum_{i+j=l} x_i \cdot y_j < 2^k \cdot B^2 = 2^{k+2 \cdot 2^k} \le 2^{2^{k+2}} < m$

So $z(t) = x(t) \cdot y(t) \Rightarrow z = z(B) = x(B) \cdot y(B) = x \cdot y$ Cost:

Write $\Theta(k) := \max \text{ number of bit operations}$

Analyze Steps:

- (1) compute max $\{l(x), l(y)\}: O(l(n)) = O(k)$
- (2) O(1)
- (3) no bit operations
- (4) compute starting addresses of x_i, y_i in memory: $2 * 2^k$ increments of the address: $2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2^k = 2^{k+2}$ bit ops $\Rightarrow O(2^k)$
- (5) By Theorem 11 need $O(2 \cdot 2^{k+1} \cdot (k+1))$ operations in R which are additions and multiplications by powers of \bar{z} costing $O(2^{k+2})$ bit operations. Total for (5): $O(k \cdot 2^{2 \cdot k})$
- (6) 2^{k+1} multiplications of numbers < m, i.e. of length $\le 2^{k+2}$. So $k' \leq \frac{k+3}{2}$ for k': the "new" k used in the next recursion level. For $\alpha \in R_{>0}$ define $\Theta(\alpha) := \Theta(\lfloor \alpha \rfloor)$ Total for (6): $2^{k+1}(\Theta(\frac{k+3}{2}) + \underbrace{O(2^{k+2})}_{\text{reduction (mod } m)}$
- (7) For $DFT_{\mu^{-1}}(\hat{z}): O(k \cdot 2^{2 \cdot k})$ as (5) Since \bar{z} is a n root of 1, multiplication by $\bar{2}^{-k-1}$ is multiplication by a positive power of $\bar{2}$, which costs $O(2^{k+2})$ Total for (7): $O(k \cdot 2^{2 \cdot k})$
- (8) For $j \leq 2^{k+1}$ have $\sum_{i=0}^{j-1} z_i \cdot B^i \leq (m-1) \sum_{i=0}^{j-1} B^i = (m-1) \frac{B^{j-1}}{B-1} < 2(m-1) \frac{B^j}{B} =$ $2^{1+2^{k+2}+(j-1)2^k}$ so the sum has length $(j+3)\cdot 2+1$ Adding $z_i \cdot B^j$ to this sum happens at $(j \cdot 2^k)$ -th bit and higher \Rightarrow cost is $O(2^k)$ Total for (8): $O(2^{2 \cdot k})$

Grad total: For $k \geq 4$:

 $\Theta(k) \le 2^{k+1} \cdot \Theta(\frac{k+3}{2}) + c \cdot k \cdot 2^{2 \cdot k}$ with c constant

Also for $k \in \mathbb{R}_{>4}$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \textbf{Define } \Lambda(k) := \frac{\Theta(k)}{2^{2 \cdot k}} \Rightarrow \Lambda(k) \leq \frac{2^{k+1}\Theta(\frac{k+3}{2})}{2^{2 \cdot k}} + c \cdot k = 16 \cdot \Lambda(\frac{k+3}{2}) + c \cdot k \\ \textbf{Define } \Omega(k) := \Lambda(k+3) \quad \text{So for } k \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 1} \\ \Omega(k) \leq 16 \cdot \Lambda(\frac{k}{2}+3) + c \cdot (k+3) = \underbrace{16\Omega(\frac{k}{2}) + c \cdot (k+3)}_{*} \\ \textbf{Claim: For } i \in \mathbb{N} \text{ with } 2^{i-1} \leq k-3 \text{ have:} \\ \Lambda(k) \leq 16^{i}\Omega(\frac{k-3}{2^{i}}) + c \cdot (k+3)(1+8+\ldots+8^{i-1}) + 3 \cdot c \cdot (1+16+\ldots+16^{i-1}) \\ \textbf{Proof by induction:} \\ i = 0\Lambda(k) = \Omega(k-3) \\ i \to i+1 : \Lambda(k) \leq 16^{i}\Omega(\frac{k-3}{2^{i}}) + c \cdot (k-3)(1+\ldots+8^{i-1}) + 3 \cdot c \cdot (1+\ldots+16^{i-1}) \leq 2^{i} \leq k-3 \\ \leq 16^{i}(16\Omega(\frac{k-3}{2^{i}+1})) + c(\frac{k-1}{2^{i}}+3) + c(k-3)\ldots = \text{claimed result} \\ \text{Take } u \in \mathbb{N} \text{ minimal with } 2^{u} > k-3 \Rightarrow \Omega(\frac{k-3}{2^{u}}) \leq \Omega(\lfloor \frac{k-3}{2^{u}} \rfloor) = \Omega(0) =: D \text{ (constant)} \\ \text{Note: } u \text{ roughly is recursion depth} \\ \text{Have } 2^{u-1} \leq k-3 \underset{\text{claim}}{\Longrightarrow} \Lambda(k) \leq 16^{u} \cdot D + c \cdot \underbrace{(k-3) \cdot \frac{8^{u}-1}{7} + 3c \cdot \frac{16^{u}-1}{15}}_{=2^{u}} \in O(16^{u}) \\ \text{Have } 2^{u-1} \leq k-3 \Rightarrow u \leq \lg(k-3)+1 \\ \Rightarrow \Lambda(k) \in O(16^{\lg(k-3)}) = O((k-3)^{4}) \\ \Rightarrow \Theta(k) = 2^{2 \cdot k} \cdot \Lambda(k) \in O(2^{2k} \cdot (k-3)^{4}) \\ \text{Have } 2^{2(k-1)} < \underbrace{n}_{\max\{l(x) \cdot l(y)\}}_{=2^{u}} = 1 \\ \text{Note } \frac{\lg(n)}{2^{u}} + 1 \\ \text{Note } \frac{\lg(n)}{2^{u}} = 1 \\ \text{Note } \frac{\lg(n)}{2$$

1.1.21 Theorem 21 (Schönhage-Strassen 1971)

Multiplication of integers of length $\leq n$ can be done in $O(n \cdot \lg(n) \cdot \lg(\lg(n)))$ bit operations. Schönhage-Strassen is used for integers of length ≥ 100.000 . Asymptotically faster: Fürer's algorithm.

Comments on Bit complexity

- Memory requirement may explode!
 ⇒ No Problem as bit complexity is upper bound for memory requirements, since memory access is included in bit operations
 (→ only store what is calculated)
- 2. Computation of addresses in memory take time \Rightarrow length of addresses $\approx \lg(\text{memory space})^2$
- 3. As memory requirement gets larger access times will get longer. \Rightarrow transportation time for data $\geq \frac{\text{diameter of physical storage}}{2*\text{speed of light}}$

1.2 Division with remainder, Euclidean algorithm

1.2.1 Algorithm 1 (Division with remainder)

input :
$$b = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i 2^i$$
 $a = \sum_{i=0}^{n+m-1} a_i 2^i$ with $a_i, b_i \in \{0, 1, b_{n-1} = 1\}$

output: $r, q \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $a = q \cdot qb + r$, $0 \le r < b$

- (1) $r = a_i \quad q = 0$
- (2) for i = m, m 1, ..., 0 do
- (3) if $r < 2^i \cdot b$ then set $r := r 2^i \cdot b$, $q = q + 2^i$

1.2.2 Proposition 2 (Runtime of Algorithm 1)

Algorithm 1 is correct and requires $O(n \cdot (m+1))$ bit operations.

Proof:

Always have $a = q \cdot b + r$

Claim:

before setp (3), have $0 \leq 2^{i+1} \cdot b$

$$i = m;$$
 $0 \le r = a < 2^{m+n} = 2^{m+1}c \cdot 2^{n-1} \le 2^{m-1} \cdot b$ $i < m$ By step (3)

So after last passage through the loop $0 \le r < b$

Running Time: In step(3), have comparison and (possiby) subtraction. Only n bits involved $\Rightarrow O(n)$

Total: $O(b \cdot (m+1))$

Remarks:

(1) Division with remainder can be reduced to multiplication. Precisely: given an algorithm for multiplication that requires M(n) bit operations, there exists an algorithm for division with remainder that requires O(M(n)) bit operations.

15

- (2) Practically relevant: Jebelean's algorithm (1997): $O(n^{\lg 3})$
- (3) Alternatively, may choose $r\mathbb{Z}$ such that $\lfloor \frac{-b}{2} \rfloor < r \leq \lfloor \frac{b}{2} \rfloor$
- (4) Algorithm 1 extends to \mathbb{Z} .
- (5) All Euclidean rings have division with remainder (by definition). (e.g., $R = K[x] \rightarrow \text{polynomial ring over field}$, $R = \mathbb{Z}[i] = \{a + bi | a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\} \subseteq \mathbb{C}, \quad i^2 = -1$)

1.2.3 Algorithm 3 (Euclidean algorithm)

input : $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$

output: gcd(a, b) "greatest common divisor"

- (1) set $r_0 := a$, $r_i := b$
- (2) for i = 1, 2, 3, ... perform steps (3) and (4)
- (3) if $r_i = 0$ then $gcd(a, b) = |r_{i-1}|$
- (4) Division with remainder: $r_{i-1} = q \cdot r_i + r_{i+1}$ $r_{i+1} \in \mathbb{Z}$ $|r_{i+1}| \leq \frac{1}{2}|r_i|$

Example:

$$a = 287, \quad b = 126$$

$$287 = 2 \cdot 126 + 35 \tag{1}$$

$$126 = 4 \cdot 35 - 14 \tag{2}$$

$$35 = (-2) \cdot (-14) + 7 \tag{3}$$

$$-14 = (-2) \cdot 7 + 0 \tag{4}$$

So:
$$7|(-14) \Longrightarrow 7|35$$

 $\Longrightarrow 7|126$
 $\Longrightarrow 7|287$

On the other hand take a common divisor d; d|287; d|126 $\Longrightarrow_{(1)} d|d \Longrightarrow_{(2)} d|14 \Longrightarrow_{(3)} d|7$

1.2.4 Theorem 4 (Correctness of Algorithm 3)

Algorithm 3 is correct.

Proof:

Since $r_{i-1} = q \cdot r_i + r_{i+1}$ every integer $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfies the equivalence $x | r_{i-1}$ and $x | r_i \Leftrightarrow x | r_{i+1}$ and $x | r_i$ so $\gcd(r_{i-1}, r_i) = \gcd(r_i, r_{i+1} = \gcd(a, b))$ when terminating have $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(r_{i-1}, 0) = |r_{i-1}|$

1.2.5 Theorem 5 (Runtime of Algorithm 3)

Algorithm 3 requires $O(m \cdot n)$ bit operations for n = l(a), m = l(b)

Proof:

If a < b than the first passage yields $r_2 = a$, $r_1 = b$. Cost: O(n)

May assume: $a \ge b$. Write $n_i = l(r_i)$

May assume: $a \ge 0$. When $n_i = 1$.

By Proposition 2 $\exists c$ constant such that the total time is $\leq c \cdot \sum_{i=1}^k n_i \cdot (n_{i-1} - n_i + 1)$ $=:\sigma(n_0, ..., n_k)$

For
$$i > 2$$
: $n_i = n_{i-1} - 1$

Special Case: $n_i = n_{i-1} - 1$ for $i \ge 2$

Special Case. $n_i - n_{i-1}$ $1 - n_i = n$ $\Rightarrow n_i = n_i - i + 1, \quad n_i = m, \quad k = m + 1$ Obtain $\sigma(n_0, ..., n_k) = m \cdot (n - m + 1) + \sum_{i=2}^{m+1} (m - i + 1) \cdot 2 = m \cdot n - m^2 + m + m(m - 1) = m \cdot n$.

Claim: The special case is the worst (most expensive)!

From any sequence $n_1 > n_2 > ... > n_k$ get to the special case by iteratively inserting numbers in the gaps. Insert s with $n_{j-1} > s > n_j$.

$$\sigma(n_0, ..., n_{j-1}, s, n_j, ..., n_k) - \sigma(n_0, ..., n_k) = ... = s + (n_{j-1} - s) \cdot (s - n_j)$$

 $sp\sigma(n_0, ..., n_k) \le \sigma(n, m, m - 1, ..., 2, 1, 0) = n \cdot m$

Complexity is quadratic \rightarrow cheap

1.2.6 Algorithm 6 (Extended Euclidean Algorithm)

input : $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$

output: $d = \gcd(a, b)$ and $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $d = s \cdot a + t \cdot b$

- (1) $r_0 := a, r_1 := b, s_0 := 1, t_0 := 0, s_1 := 0, t_1 = 1$
- (2) for i = 1, 2, ... perform steps (3) (5)
- (3)if $r_i = 0$ set $d = |r_{i-1}|$ $s := sgn(r_{i-1}) \cdot s_{i-1},$ $t := sqn(r_{i-1}) \cdot t_{i-1}$
- division with remainder: (4)

 $r_{i+1} = r_{i-1} - q_i \cdot r_i$, with $|r_{i+1}| \le \frac{1}{2} |r_i|$

(5) $set s_{i+1} := s_{i-1} - q_i \cdot s_i,$ $t_{i+1} := t_{i-1} - q_i \cdot t_i$

Justification: $r_i = s_i \cdot a + t_i \cdot b$ throughout

Application: $m, x \in \mathbb{N}$ such that m, x co-prime (i.e. gcd(x, m) = 1)

Algorithm 6 yields: $1 = s \cdot x + t \cdot m \Rightarrow s \cdot x \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$

So obtain inverse of $\bar{x} \in \mathbb{Z}/(m)$

1.3 Primality testing

Let $\mathbb{P} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ be the set of prime numbers.

Challenge: Given $n \in \mathbb{N}$ decide if $n \in \mathbb{P}$

Naive Method: Trivial division by $m \leq |\sqrt{n}|$.

Running time is exponential in l(n). Even when restricted to division by prime numbers,

need approximatily $\frac{\sqrt{n}}{|n|\sqrt{n}}$ trivial divisions (prime number theorem)

 \rightarrow hardly any better!

Reminder: (arithmetic modulo m)

G finite group $\Rightarrow \forall a \in G \quad a^{|G|} = 1$ Fermat's little theorem

For $G = (\mathbb{Z}/(p)^{\times} \quad a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \in \mathbb{P} \quad \forall a \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{with } p \nmid a$

Infact $(\mathbb{Z}/(p))^{\times} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$ is cyclic

For $m = p_1^e, ...p_r^{e_r}$ with $p_i \in \mathbb{P}$, $e_i \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$:

 $\mathbb{Z}_{(m)} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{(p_i^{e_i})} \oplus \ldots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{(p_r^{e_r})} \Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{(m)}^x \cong \mathbb{Z}_{(p_r^{e_i})}^x \times \ldots \times \mathbb{Z}_{(p_r^{e_r})}^x$

what is $\mathbb{Z}_{(p^e)}$ for $p \in \mathbb{P}$, $e \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$?

1.3.1 Theorem 1 (Cyclic group)

Let $p \in \mathbb{P}$ odd $e \in \mathbb{N}_{>0} \Rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}_{(p^e)})^{\times} = Z_{(p-1)\cdot p^{e-1}}$ cyclic

Proof:

$$(\mathbb{Z}_{(p^e)})^{\times} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} \Rightarrow \exists z \in \mathbb{Z} : order(z+p\mathbb{Z}) = p-1$$

Set
$$a = \bar{z}^{p^{e-1}} \in (\mathbb{Z}_{(p^e)})^{\times} =: G$$

$$a^{p-1} = \bar{z}^{(p-1)} \cdot p^{e-1} = \bar{z}^{|a|} = 1$$

On the other hand, take $i \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$a^i = 1 \Rightarrow z^{i \cdot p^{e-1}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \Rightarrow (p-1)|(i-p^{e-1}) \Rightarrow (p-1)|i.$$

So
$$ord(a) = p - 1$$
.

Now consider $b = (p+1) \in G$

Claim: $ord(b) = p^{e-1}$

Proof by induction on $k \in N_{>0}$ that $(p+1)^{p^{k-1}} \equiv p^k + 1 \pmod{p^{k+1}}$

 $k \to k+1$: By induction have $(p+1)^{p^{k-1}} = 1 + p^k + x \cdot p^{k+1}, \quad x \in \mathbb{Z}$

Compute: $(p+1)^{p^k} = ((1+p^k) + x \cdot p^{k+1})^p = \sum_{i=0}^p {p \choose i} (i+p^k)^{p-i} \cdot x^i \cdot p^{i \cdot (k+1)}$

 $\mathop{\equiv}_{\text{Only 0-th summand}} (i+p^k) = \mathop{\sum}_{i=0}^p \binom{p}{i} p^{i \cdot k} \mathop{\equiv}_{p \text{ odd}} 1 + p^{k+1} \pmod{p^{k+2}} \quad \checkmark$

For $k = e : (p+1)^{p^{e-1}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^e} \Rightarrow b^{p^e} = 1 \Rightarrow ord(b)|p^{e-1}|$ But $(p+1)^{p^{e-2}} \equiv p^{e-1} + 1 \pmod{p^e} \Rightarrow b^{p^{e-2}} \neq 1 \in G$

So $ord(b) = p^{e-1}$

Claim: $ord(a \cdot b) = (p-1)p^{e-1}$ (\Rightarrow Theorem)

Let $(a \cdot b)^i = 1 \in G$ with $i \in \mathbb{Z}$

Then $1 = (a \cdot b)^{i \cdot (p-1)} = (a^{p-1})^i \cdot b^{i \cdot (p-1)} = b^{i \cdot (p-1)} \Rightarrow p^{e-1}|i \cdot i(p-1) \Rightarrow p^{e-1}|i$ Also $1 = (a \cdot b)^{p^{e-1} \cdot i} = a^{p^{e-1}} \Rightarrow (p-1)|p^{e-1} \cdot i \Rightarrow (p-1)|i \rightarrow (p-1) \cdot p^{e-1}|i$

Reminder: $(\mathbb{Z}/(2^e))^{\times} \cong Z_2 \times Z_2^{e-2}$ $(e \ge 2)$

1.3.2 Algorithm 2 (Fermat Test)

input : $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}odd$

output: " $n \notin \mathbb{P}$ " or "probably $n \in \mathbb{P}$ "

- (1) Choose $a \in 2, ..., n-1$ randomly
- (2) Compute $a^{n-1} \mod n$
- (3) If $a^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ return " $n \not\in \mathbb{P}$ " return "probably $n \in \mathbb{P}$ "

Not very satisfying. Is this fast?

1.3.3 Algorithm 3 (Fast exponentiation)

input : $a \in G$ G is a monoid, $e \in \mathbb{N}, e = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} e_i 2^i, e_i \in \{0,1\}$

output: $a^e \in G$

- (1) Set b := a, y := 1
- (2) For i = 0, ..., n 1 perform (3) (4)
- (3) if $e_i = 1$ set $y := y \cdot b$
- $(4) set b := b^2$
- (5) return y

this requires O(l(e)) operations in G

For $G = (\mathbb{Z}/(n)_i)$, each multiplication requires $O(l(n)^2)$ bit operations \Rightarrow Fermat test requires $O(l(n)^3)$ bit operations \rightarrow cubic complexity \rightarrow "fast"!

Example:

 $n=561=3\cdot 11\cdot 17$ For $a\in\mathbb{Z}$ with $\gcd(a,n)\Rightarrow \text{have }a^{n-1}=(a^2)^{280}\equiv 1\pmod 3$ $a^{n-1}\equiv 1\pmod n$ Fermat's test says "probably $n\in\mathbb{P}$ " in 57% of cases.

 $n = 2207 \cdot 6619 \cdot 15443$: output "probably $n \in \mathbb{P}$ " in 99,93% of cases.

1.3.4 Definition 4 (Pseudo-prime, witness, Carmichael numbers)

Let $n \in N_{>1}odd$, $a \in 1, ..., n-1$

- (a) n is pseudo-prime to base a if $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
- (b) otherwise a is called a witness of composition of n
- (c) If $n \notin \mathbb{P}$ but $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ $\forall a \text{ with } \gcd(n, a) = 1$ then n is called a Carmichael number. There are ∞ Carmichael numbers

1.3.5 Proposition 5 (Number of witnesses)

Let $n \in N_{>1}$, $odd \land \notin \mathbb{P} \land \text{not Carmichael}$ $\Rightarrow |\{a \in \mathbb{Z} \mid 0 < a < n, a \text{ is witness of composite of } n\}| > \frac{n-1}{2}$ **Proof:** Consider $\phi : (\mathbb{Z}/(n))^{\times} =: G \to G, \quad \bar{a} \mapsto \bar{a}^{n-1}$ group homomorphism. By assumption, $|im(\phi| > 1 \Rightarrow |Ker(\phi)| \leq \frac{|a|}{2} < \frac{n-1}{2}$ $\Rightarrow |\{a \in \mathbb{Z} | 0 < a < n \text{ a witness of composite of } n\}| > \frac{n-1}{2}$

Miller-Rabin Test

1.3.6 Proposition 6 (Inference from Fermat)

Let $p \in \mathbb{P}$ odd, $a \in \{1, ..., (p-1)\}$ write $p-1=2^k \cdot m$ with m odd Then: $a^m \equiv 1 \pmod p$ or $\exists i \in \{0, ..., k-1\} : a^{2^i \cdot m} \equiv -1 \pmod p$ Proof:
Little Fermat: $\bar{a}^{2^k \cdot m} = 1 \in \mathbb{F}_p$ Assume $\bar{a}^m \neq 1$ take i maximal such that: $\bar{b} = \bar{a}^{2^i \cdot m} \neq 1 \Rightarrow \bar{b}^2 = 1 \Rightarrow \bar{b} \in \mathbb{F}_p$ is a zero of $x^2 - 1 \in \mathbb{F}_p[x] \Rightarrow \bar{b} = -1$

1.3.7 Algorithm 7 (Miller-Rabin-test)

input : $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$, odd

output: either " $n \notin \mathbb{P}$ " or "probably $n \in \mathbb{P}$ " \to Monte Carlo Algorithm.

- (1) write $n 1 = 2^k \cdot m$ with m odd
- (2) Choose $a \in \{2, ..., n-1\}$ randomly
- (3) Compute $b := a^m \mod n$
- (4) if $(b \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{n}$ return "probably $n \in \mathbb{P}$ "
- (5) for (i = 0, ..., k 1) do steps (6) (7)
- (6) $\operatorname{set} b := b^2 \pmod{n}$
- (7) if $(b \equiv -1 \pmod{n})$ return "probably $n \in \mathbb{P}$ "
- (8) return $n \notin \mathbb{P}$ "

1.3.8 Definition 8 (strong pseudo-prime / witness)

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$, odd $a \in \{1, ..., n-1\}$

- (a) n is called a strongly pseudo-prime to base a if Proposition 6 holds for a and p replaced by n.
- (b) Otherwise a is called a strong witness of composition of n.

Example

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$, \mathbb{P} odd

a = 2 strong witness if n < 2047 (including 561)

2 or 3 strong witness if n < 1373653

2.3 or 5 strong witness if n < 25326001

1.3.9 Theorem 9 (Bit-complexity of Algorithm 7)

- (a) Algorithm 7 requires $O(l(n)^3)$ bit operations. \rightarrow "qubic complecity" \rightarrow fast!
- (b) if $b \in \mathbb{P}$ then Algorithm 7 returns "probably $b \in \mathbb{P}$ " \to no false positives.
- (c) if $n \notin \mathbb{P}$ then more than half of the numbers in $\{1,...,n-1\}$ are strong witnesses.

Proof:

- (a) Step 1 takes O(l(n)) bit operations: Using Algorithm 3, we need O(l(n-1)) multiplications in $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$ each requiring $O(l(n)^2)$ bit operations.
- (b) Proposition 6
- (c) split in three cases:

Case 1: n is not a Carmichael number. $\underset{\text{Prop } 5}{\Longrightarrow}$ more than half of all numbers are.

Fermat witness thus also strong witness.

Case 2: $n = p^r \cdot l \text{ with } p \in \mathbb{P} \quad r > 1 \quad l \in \mathbb{N}_{>0} p \nmid l$

Theorem $1 \exists x \in Z \text{ such that } x^p \equiv 1 \pmod{p^r} \quad x \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p^r}$

Chinese remainder theorem: $\exists a \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } a \equiv x \pmod{p^r} \quad a \equiv 1 \pmod{l}$

So $\bar{a}^p = 1 \in \mathbb{Z}(n) \Rightarrow \bar{a}^n = 1 \Rightarrow \bar{a} \in (\mathbb{Z}/(n))^{\times}$

i.e. gcd(n, a) = 1 if $\bar{a}^{n-1} = 1$ then $\bar{a} = 1$

But $a \equiv x \neq 1 \pmod{p^r}$ so $\bar{a}^{n-1} \neq 1$ hence n is not Carmichael \rightarrow Case 1.

Case 3: *n* is a Carmichael number. By Case 2 have $n = p \cdot l$ with $p \in \mathbb{P}$ $p \nmid l$ $l \geq 3$

n Carmichael: $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with gcd(a, n,) = 1

have $a^{2^k \cdot m} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ (where $n-1=2^k \cdot m$)

 $a^{2^k \cdot m} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ Take j minimal such that

 $a^{2^{j} \cdot m} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \quad \forall a \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } \gcd(a, n) = 1$

so $0 \le j \le l$ in fact, j > 0 since $(-1)^{2^0 \cdot m} = -1$ with m odd.

Consider the subgroup $H := \{\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}/(n) | \bar{a}^{2^{j-1} \cdot m} \in \{1, -1\} \subseteq (\mathbb{Z}/(n))^{\times} \}$

Let $a \in \{1, ..., n-1\}$ gcd(n, a) = 1 a not a strong witness.

Claim 1: $\bar{a} \in H$ Case 3.1: $\bar{a}^{2^{j-1} \cdot m} = 1 \Rightarrow \bar{a} \in H$

Case 3.1: $a = 1 \rightarrow a \in H$ Case 3.2: $a^{2^{j-1} \cdot m} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ $a^m \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ $\xrightarrow{a \text{ nonwitness}} \exists i \text{ such that } \underbrace{a^{2^i \cdot m} \equiv -1 \pmod{n}}_*$ $\Rightarrow a^{2^i \cdot m} \equiv -1 \pmod{p} \xrightarrow{\text{def of } j} i < j$

if i < j - 1 then $a^{2^{j-1} \cdot m} = (a^{2^{i} \cdot m})^{2^{j-1-i}} \equiv (-1)^{2^{j-1-i}} = 1 \pmod{n}$

 $\xrightarrow[\text{with *}]{}$ not in case 3.2

Claim 2: $H \subseteq (\mathbb{Z}_{(n)})^{\times}$ proper subgroup.

By definition of $j \exists x \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x^{2^{j-1} \cdot m} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

Chinese remainder: $\exists a \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

 $\begin{array}{ll} a \equiv x \pmod{p} & a \equiv 1 \pmod{l} \\ \Rightarrow a^{2^{j-1} \cdot m} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p} \equiv 1 \pmod{l} \Rightarrow \bar{a} \notin H \end{array}$

Claim 2 ✓

It follows that $|H| \leq \frac{|(\mathbb{Z}/(n))^{\times}|}{2} < \frac{n-1}{2}$ so the number of witnesses is $\geq n-1-|H| > \frac{n-1}{2}$

Remarks:

- (a) A more careful analysis shows that $2\frac{3}{4}$ of all candidates are strong witnesses
- (b) Calling Algorithm 7 repeatedly decreases the probability of false positives. Running time for prescribed error probability p is $O(\lg(p^{-1} \cdot l(n)^3))$ (Independence assumptions!)

Connection with Riemann hypothesis

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$ $\bar{X} : (\mathbb{Z}/(n))^{\times} \to \mathbb{C}^x$ group homomorphism

$$X: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{C}, a \mapsto \begin{cases} \bar{X}(\bar{a}) & \text{if } \gcd(a, n) = 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \text{ for } (\bar{a} = a + n\mathbb{Z})$$

"residence class character \pmod{n}

 $Ex: n = 1 \Rightarrow X(a) = 1 \forall a \in \mathbb{Z}$

Divichlet L-series:

$$L_X(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{X(n)}{n^s}$$
 converges for $s \in \mathbb{C}$ until $Re(s) > 1$ $L_X(s)$ extends to a meromorphic function on $\mathbb{C} \mapsto$ "Divichlet L-function".

For $n = 1 : L_X(s) = \zeta(s)$ Riemann Zeta-function.

Euler Product:

Euler Product:
From
$$(1 - X(p) \cdot p^{-s})^{-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (X(p) \cdot p^{-s})^i = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{X(p^i)}{p^{is}}$$
 derive $L_X(s) = \prod_{p \in \mathbb{P}} \frac{1}{1 - X(p) \cdot r^{-s}}$

Generalized Riemann hypothesis (GRH):

For X residue class character, $s \in \mathbb{C}$

with
$$L_X(s) = 0$$
, $0 < Re(s) < 1$ ("critical strip")
then $Re(s) = \frac{1}{2}$

For $X = 1 \rightarrow$ ordinary Riemann hypothesis.

1.3.10 Theorem (Arkeny & Bach)

 $GRH \Rightarrow \forall X \neq 1$ residence class character

$$\exists p \in \mathbb{P} : X(p) \neq 1, p < 2\ln(n)^2$$

Let $H \nsubseteq (\mathbb{Z}/(n))^{\times} =: G$ proper subgroup.

Choose $N \nsubseteq G$ maximal proper subgroup such that $H \subseteq N \Rightarrow G/N$ cyclic.

$$\bar{X}: G \mapsto \mathbb{C}^{x} \text{ with } N = Ker(\bar{X}) \Rightarrow H \subseteq Ker(\mathbb{X})$$

$$\xrightarrow[\text{GRH, Thm1}]{} \exists p \in \mathbb{P} : p + n\mathbb{Z} \notin H, p < 2 \cdot \ln(n)^2$$

Corollary: Assume GRH.

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$ \mathbb{P} odd Then there is a strong witness a of compositeness of n with $a < 2 \cdot \ln(n)^2$.

 \rightarrow Obtain deterministic primality test with time $O(\ln(n)^5)$ bit operations.

AKS-test

A deterministic polynomial time primality test \rightarrow "holy grail"

Agrawal, Kayal, Saxena: PRIMES is in P, Annals of Mathematics, 2004.

1.3.11 Proposition 10 (Modulo over ideals)

Let $n \in \mathbb{P}$ $a \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow (x+a)^n \equiv x^n + a \pmod{n}$ where x is a indeterminate and for $r \in \mathbb{N}$:

$$(x+a)^n \equiv (x^n + a) \pmod{n, x^r - 1} \tag{1}$$

(i.e. $(x+a)^n - (x^n + a) = n \cdot f + (x^r - 1) \cdot g$ with $f, g \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$)

$$(x+a)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} \cdot a^{n-i} \cdot x^i \qquad \text{(where } \binom{n}{i} \text{ is a multiple of } n \text{ for } 0 < i < n)$$

$$\equiv x^n + a^n \qquad (\leftarrow \text{ little Fermat})$$

(1) follows by weakening this. $\equiv x^n + a$

Cost analysis for checking (1) with l = length(n).

Using Algorithm 3, need O(l) multiplications in $\mathbb{Z}[x]/(n, x^r - 1) =: R$

Elements of R are represented as polynomials of degree $\langle r, \rangle$

coefficients between 0 and n.

Multiply polynomials: $O(r^2)$ operation in $\mathbb{Z}/(n): O(r^2 \cdot l^2)$

since $x^{r+\hat{k}} \equiv x^k \pmod{x^r - 1}$,

add coefficients of x^{r+k} of product polynomial to coefficients $x^k: O(r \cdot l)$

Total for checking (1): $O(r^2 \cdot l^3)$ bit operations.

Reduction (mod $x^r - 1$) is just for keeping the cost under control.

The following is part of AKS-test:

1.3.12 Algorithm 11 (Test for perfect power)

input : $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$

output: $m, e \in \mathbb{N}$ e > 1 such that $n = m^e$ or "n is not a perfect power"

- (1) for $(e = 2, ..., |\lg(n)|)$ perform (2) (7) //possible exponents
- set $m_1 = 2, m_2 = n$ //initialize interval $[m_1, m_2]$ for searching $\sqrt[e]{n}$ (2)
- while $(m_1 \le m_2)$ do (4) (7)(3)
- set $m = \lfloor \frac{m_1 + m_2}{2} \rfloor$ // bisect interval (4)
- if $m^e = n$ return m, e(5)
- if $m^e > n$ set $m_2 = m 1$ (6)
- if $m^e < n$ set $m_1 = m + 1$ (7)
- (8) return "not a perfect power"

Cost: (for l = length(n))

Compute $m^e: O(\lg(l) \cdot l^2)$ (abort computation once the result exceeds n)

Number of passages through inner loops $\leq \lg(n)$

Number of passages through outer loops $\leq \lg(n)$

Total cost of Algorithm 11: $O(l^4 \cdot \lg(l))$

1.3.13 Algorithm 12 (AKS-test)

input : $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$ of length $l = \text{length}(n,) = \lfloor \lg(n) \rfloor + 1$

output: " $n \in \mathbb{P}$ " or " $n \notin \mathbb{P}$ "

- (1) if (n is a perfect power)return " $n \notin \mathbb{P}$ "
- (2) find $r \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$ minimal such that $r|n \lor n^i \not\equiv 1 \pmod{r} \quad \forall i = 1, ..., l^2$ //exhaustive search (we will show that $r \leq l^5$)
- (3) if r|nif (r = n) return " $n \in \mathbb{P}$ " if (r < n) return " $n \notin \mathbb{P}$ "
- (4) for $a = 1, 2..., \lfloor \sqrt{r} \cdot l \rfloor$ do (5)
- (5) if $((x+a)^n \not\equiv (x^n+a) \pmod{(n,x^r-1)}$ return " $n \notin \mathbb{P}$ "
- (6) return " $n \in \mathbb{P}$ "

1.3.14 Lemma 13 (Least common multiple)

For $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$ have $\lambda(n) := lcm(1, 2, ...n) \ge 2^{n-2}$

Proof: For
$$f = \sum_{i=0}^{m} a \cdot x^{i} \in \mathbb{Z}(x)$$
 $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{0}^{1} f(x)dx = \sum_{i=0}^{m} \frac{a_i}{i+1} = \frac{k}{\lambda(m+1)}$$

with $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Consider $f_m = x^m \cdot (1-x)^m$

For 0 < xy1:

$$0 < f_m(x) \le 4^{-m}$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 < \int_{0}^{1} \underbrace{f_m(x)}_{\frac{k_m}{\lambda(2m+1)}} dx \le 4^{-1}$$

$$\lambda(2 \cdot m + 1) \ge k_m \cdot 4^m \ge 4^m$$

For
$$n \in \mathbb{N}_{>0} \lambda(n) \ge \lambda(2 \cdot \lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \rfloor + 1) \ge 4^{\lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \rfloor} \ge 4^{\frac{n-1}{2}} = 2^{n-2}$$

Corollary: (not related to AKS)

For $n \in \mathbb{M}$

$$\pi(n) := |\{p \in \mathbb{P} | p \le n\}| \ge \frac{n-2}{\lg(n)}$$

Proof:

$$2^{n-2} \le \lambda(n) = \prod_{p \in \mathbb{P}, p \le n} p^{\lfloor \log_p(n) \rfloor} \le \prod_{p \le n} p^{\log_p(n)} = n^{\pi(n)} = 2^{\lg(n)\pi(n)} \qquad \Box$$

Prime number theorem:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{\pi(n)}{n/\ln(n)} = 1$$
Interpretation:

The average distance of two primes around some value $x \in \mathbb{R}_{>1}$ is $\ln(x)$

1.3.15 Lemma 14 (Property of r in Algorithm 12)

In Algorithm 12, have $r \leq l^5$

Proof:

if
$$r < l^5 \Rightarrow \forall k \in k \in \{2, ..., l^5\} : \exists i \in \{1, ..., l^2\}$$

$$n^i \equiv 1 \pmod{k}$$

$$\Rightarrow k | \prod_{i=1}^{l^2} (n^i - 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda(l^5) | \prod_{i=1}^{l^2} (n^i - 1)$$

$$\xrightarrow{\overline{Lemma13}} 2^{l^5 - 2} < \prod_{i=1}^{l^2} n^i = n^{\frac{l^2(l^2 + 1)}{2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow l^5 - l^3 < 4 \quad \text{not true since } l \ge 2 \quad \square$$

1.3.16 Theorem 15 (Bit-Complexity of Algorithm 12)

Algorithm 12 requires $O(l^{16.5})$ bit operations ("polynomial complexity") **Proof:**

Step(1): $O(l^4 \cdot \lg(l)) \checkmark$

Step(2): For each r need:

- test $r|n:O(l^2)$
- compute all $n^i \mod r : O(l^2 \cdot \lg(r)^2) \leq O(l^2 \cdot \lg(l)^2)$

Step(3): O(1)

Step(4):
$$O(\sqrt{r} \cdot l \cdot r^2 \cdot l^3) \leq O(l^{16,5})$$
 \square

Reminder: There is a variant of Algorithm 12 with running time $\tilde{O}(l^6)$, i.e., $O(l^6 \cdot \lg(l)^m)$ with $m \in \mathbb{N}$.

Correctness:

For $r \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$ and $p \in \mathbb{P}$ write $I(r,p) := \{m, f) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{F}_p[x] | f(x)^m \equiv f(x^m) \pmod{x^r - 1} \}$ "m is introspective for f and r".

Example: Proposition 10 says that:

$$(p, x + \bar{a}) \in I(r, p) \text{ for } a \in \mathbb{Z} \quad r \in \mathbb{N}_{>0} \quad p \in \mathbb{P}$$
 (1)

1.3.17 Lemma 16 (Rules for ideals)

(a)
$$(m, f), (m', f) \in I(r, p) \Rightarrow (m \cdot m', f) \in I(r, p)$$

(b)
$$(m, f), (m, g) \in I(r, p) \Rightarrow (m, f \cdot g) \in I(r, p)$$

(c)
$$(m \cdot p, f) \in I(r, p), p \nmid r \Rightarrow (m, f) \in I(r, p)$$

Proof:

(a)
$$f(x)^{m \cdot m'} \equiv f(x^m)^{m'} \pmod{(x^r - 1)}$$

 $f(x^m)^{m'} \equiv f(x^{m \cdot m'}) \pmod{(x^{m \cdot r} - 1)}$
But $(x^r - 1|(x^{m \cdot r} - 1))$

(b)
$$(f \cdot g)(x)^m = f(x)^m \cdot g(x)^m \equiv f(x^m) \cdot g(x^m) = (f \cdot g) \cdot (x^m) \pmod{(x^r - 1)}$$

(c)
$$(f(x)^m)^p \equiv f((x^m)^p) \underset{Frobenius homomorphism}{\equiv} (f(x^m))^p \pmod{(x^r-1)}$$

 $\Rightarrow (x^r-1)|((f(x)^m)^p - f(x^m)^p) \underset{Frobenius homomorphism}{\equiv} (f(x)^m - f(x^m))^p$
 $p \nmid r \Rightarrow x^r - 1$ is square free. So
 $(x^r-1)|(f(x)^m) - f(x^m)) \Rightarrow (m,f) \in I(r,p)$

1.3.18 Theorem 17 (Correctness of Algorithm 12)

Algorithm 12 is correct.

Proof:

If the algorithm terminates in step(1),(3) or (5), it is correct. To show: If it terminates in step(6) it is correct, i. e. $n \in \mathbb{P}$

Claim 1:
$$\exists p \in \mathbb{P} : p | n \quad p \not\equiv 1 \pmod{r} \quad p > r$$

Indeed if all prime divisors of n were $\equiv 1 \pmod{r}$ then $n \equiv 1 \pmod{r}$

Contradiction to step(2). All prime divisors of n are > r by step (2) and (3)

Steps(2) and (3) imply that
$$gcd(n,r) = 1 \Rightarrow G := \langle \bar{n}, \underbrace{\bar{p}}_{p \mod r} \rangle \subseteq (\mathbb{Z}/(r))^{\times}$$

Step(2):
$$ord(\bar{n}) > l^2 \Rightarrow l^2 < |G| < r$$
 (2)

Set
$$s := ord(\bar{p} \in G) \Rightarrow r|(p^s - 1)$$
 with $q := p^s \Rightarrow r||\mathbb{F}_q^{\times}| \Rightarrow \exists \zeta \in \mathbb{F}_q$ r-th root of 1 Set $k := \lfloor \sqrt{r} \cdot l \rfloor$ $m := (\frac{n}{p})$

By (1)
$$(p, x + \bar{a}) \in I(r, p)$$
 with $\bar{a} \in \mathbb{F}_p$

By step(4), have $(n, x + \bar{a}) \in I(r, p)$

For
$$\underline{e} = e_0, ..., e_k \in \mathbb{N}_0$$
 set $f_{\underline{e}} := \prod_{a=0}^k (x + \bar{a})^{e_a}$

Lemma 16 (b): $(p, f_{e}) \in I(r, p)$

$$(n,f_{\underline{e}})\in I(r,p)$$

$$\xrightarrow[Lemma16(c)]{} (m, f_{\underline{e}}) \in I(r, p)$$

$$\xrightarrow[Lemma16(a)]{Estimato(c)} \forall s, t \in \mathbb{N}_0 : (p^s \cdot m^t, f_{\underline{e}}) \in I(r, p)$$

$$\Rightarrow f_e(\zeta^{p^s \cdot m^t}) = f_e(\zeta)^{p^s \cdot m^t} \tag{3}$$

Set
$$H := \langle \zeta + \bar{a} | a \in \{0, ..., k\} \rangle \subseteq \mathbb{F}_q^{\times}$$

 $(\zeta \notin \mathbb{F}_p \text{ since } r \nmid (p-1) \text{ by Claim 1})$
Consider: $T := \{(e_0, ..., e_k) \in \mathbb{N}_0^{k+1} | \sum_{a=0}^k e_a < |G|\}$
 $\Phi : T \mapsto H, (e_0, ..., e_k) \mapsto f_{\underline{e}}(\zeta) = \prod_a (\zeta + \bar{a})^{e_a} \in H$

Claim 2: Φ is injective.

Indeed, take
$$(\underline{e})$$
, $(\underline{\hat{e}}) \in T$ such that $\Phi(\underline{e} = \Phi(\underline{\hat{e}}))$
 $\Rightarrow \forall s, t \in \mathbb{N}_0 : f_{\underline{e}}(\zeta^{p^s \cdot m^t}) \stackrel{=}{=} f_{\underline{e}}(\zeta)^{p^s \cdot m^t} = f_{\underline{\hat{e}}}(\zeta)^{p^s \cdot m^t} \stackrel{=}{=} f_{\underline{\hat{e}}}(\zeta^{p^s \cdot m^t})$

 $f_{\underline{e}} - f_{\hat{e}}$ has roots ζ^e with $e \in G$ since $G = \langle \bar{p}, \bar{m} \rangle$

These are all distinct (since ζ is primitive)

But $deg(f_{\underline{e}} - f_{\underline{\hat{e}}}) < |G|$ So $f_{\underline{e}} - f_{\underline{\hat{e}}} = 0$ Since $k \leq \sqrt{r} \cdot l < r < p$ the $(x + \bar{a})$ with $a \in \{0...k\}$ are primitive distinct.

So
$$(\underline{e}) = (\underline{\hat{e}})$$

So is $|H| \ge |T|$?

Let *M* be the set of all $\{x_0, ..., x_k\} \subseteq \{1, ..., |G| + k\}$

with $x_0 < x_1 < ... < x_k$

For
$$\{x_0, ..., x_k\} \in M$$
 define $(e_0, ..., e_k) \in \mathbb{N}_0^{k+1}$ by $e_a = x_a - x_{a-1}$ with $x_{-1} := 0$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{a=0}^k e_a = \sum_{a=0}^k (x_a - x_{a-1} - 1) = x_k - (k+1) < |G|$$

So
$$|H| \ge |T| \ge |M| = {|G|+k \choose k+1} \ge {\lfloor l\sqrt{|a|}\rfloor + 1 + k \choose k+1} = {\lfloor l\sqrt{|a|}\rfloor + 1 + k \choose \lfloor l\sqrt{|a|}\rfloor} \ge {2 \cdot \lfloor l\sqrt{|a|}\rfloor + 1 \choose \lfloor l\sqrt{|a|}\rfloor}$$

1.3.19 Lemma 18 (Property of binomial coefficients)

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}_{>1} : \binom{2 \cdot n + 1}{n} > 2^{n+1}$$

Proof:

n=2:

$$\binom{5}{2} = 10 > 2^3$$

Continuation of Proof of Theorem 17

$$|H| > 2^{\lfloor l \cdot \sqrt{|a|} \rfloor + 1} \ge 2^{l \cdot \sqrt{|a|}} \ge 2^{\lg(n) \cdot \sqrt{|a|}} = n^{\sqrt{|a|}}$$

$$\tag{4}$$

Assume $n \notin \mathbb{P}$ By step (1) m is not a perfect power

 \Rightarrow the map $\mathbb{N}_0 \times \mathbb{N}_0 \mapsto \mathbb{N}$ $(s,t) \mapsto p^s m^t$ is injective.

Set
$$A := \{p^s \underline{m^t} | s, t \in \{0, .., \lfloor \sqrt{a} \rfloor\}\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$$

$$\Rightarrow |A| = (\lfloor \sqrt{|a|} \rfloor + 1)^2 > |G|$$

Since $G = \langle \bar{p}, \bar{m} \rangle \subseteq (\mathbb{Z}/(r))^{\times}$ this implies that $\exists n, \hat{n} \in A$

such that $n \neq \hat{n}$ but $b \equiv \hat{n} \pmod{r}$.

Let
$$h \in H \Rightarrow h = f_{\underline{e}}(\zeta)$$
 with $(\underline{e}) \in \mathbb{N}_0^{k+1} \Rightarrow h^n = f_{\underline{e}}(\zeta^n) = f_{\underline{e}}(\zeta^n) = h^{\hat{n}}$

So the polynomial $Y^n - Y^{\hat{n}} \in \mathbb{F}_q[Y]$ has all elements of H as zeros. But $deg(Y^n - Y^{\hat{n}}) \leq max\{n, \hat{n}\} \leq (p \cdot m)^{\lfloor \sqrt{|G|} \rfloor} \leq n^{\sqrt{|G|}} < |H|$ \Rightarrow contradiction since $Y^n - Y^{\hat{n}} \neq 0$

1.4 Cryptology

A ("Alice") wants to send a message to B ("Bob") such that an eavesdropper E ("Eve") can not read the clear message. So A and B encrypt the message.

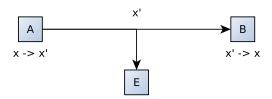


Figure 2: Scheme of eavesdropping

Symmetric-key cryptography

A and B share secret keys for encryption $(x \mapsto x')$ and decryption $(x' \mapsto x)$ Only A and B know the keys.

Example: AES approved by the US government in $2002\,$

Application:

- sending messages
- encrypt files (A=B)

Problem: Key exchange between A and B

Public-key cryptography

Encryption-map $\phi: x \mapsto x'$ is made public by B, but decryption $\phi: x' \mapsto x$ is kept secret.

Advantage: No confidential key exchange.

Disadvantages:

- more costly than symmetric key cryptography
- doubt weather E can reconstruct ϕ^{-1} from ϕ with enough computing power

Applications:

- sending messages
- exchange of symmetric keys
- authentication: Together with x, B sends $\phi^{-1}(x)$ (or ϕ^{-1} | Part of x together with date). A verifies by applying ϕ . Better: challenge-response-protocol.

Examples: RSA, elliptic curve

1.4.1 Algorithm (RSA)

- (1) B chooses $p, q \in \mathbb{P}$ large (> 100 digits) with $p \neq q$ $n := p \cdot q$
- (2) B chooses $e, f \in \mathbb{N}$ large such that $e \cdot f \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$ with $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$
- (3) B makes n, e public, keep f secret
- (4) The message is encoded as an element $x \in \mathbb{Z}/(n)$
- (5) A computes $\phi(x) = x^e = y \in \mathbb{Z}/(n)$ and sends y
- (6) B receives y and computes $y^f = x \in \mathbb{Z}/(n)$

Comments on steps of RSA:

(6) Have
$$e \cdot f = a \cdot (p-1) \cdot (q-1) + 1$$
 with $a \in N_{>0}$ $y^f = x^{e \cdot f}$

$$1: \ q \nmid f, q \nmid x \Rightarrow x^{a(p-1)(q-1)} = (x^{\phi(n)})^a \underset{LittleFermat}{\equiv} 1^a = 1 \Rightarrow x^{e \cdot f} = x \qquad \checkmark$$

Case 2:
$$p|x, q \nmid x \Rightarrow x^{e \cdot f} \equiv 0 \equiv x \pmod{p}$$

 $x^{e \cdot f} \equiv x \pmod{q}$ as above.

Case 3: q|x As Case 2

 \Rightarrow Correctness of decryption

Cost:

- (1) Finding p, q of length approximately l. Prime-number theorem: Gap between two primes of length $\approx l$ is O(l) Using Miller Rabin with error probability 2^m . Expected cost of (1) is $O(m \cdot l^4)$ bit operations.
- (2) Choose e co-prime to $\phi(n)$ obtain $f = \text{inverse} \pmod{\phi(n)}$ by extended euclidean Algorithm: $O(l^2)$
- (5)(6) Fast exponentiation: $O(l^3)$

Security of RSA: p and q must be so large that factorization of a is "impossible". Assumption that factorization is expensive could not be shown! But could f be obtained without knowing p and q? The following algorithm gives a negative answer. It shows that the problem of breaking RSA is always basically factorization.

Remember: $\phi(n)|(e \cdot f - 1) =: m \le n^2$

1.4.2 Algorithm 1 (Finding a divisor)

Input: $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>2}$ odd squarefree $\notin \mathbb{P}$ and $m \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$ such that $\phi(n)|m m \leq n^2$

Output: $d \in \mathbb{N}$ with $d|n \quad 1 < d < n$

- (1) Choose $a \in \{2, ..., (n-2)\}$ randomly
- (2) If $d := \gcd(a, n) \neq 1$ return d
- (3) Repeat steps (4) (8) //while(true)
- compute $d := \gcd(n, a^k 1)$ (4)
- If d = 1 go to (1) (5)
- (6)If d < n return d
- if k is odd go to (1) (7)
- (8)set $k := \frac{k}{2}$

Correctness is clear. What about termination and running time?

1.4.3 Proposition 2 (Complexity of Algorithm 1)

Algorithm 1 terminates in expected time $O(l(n)^4)$ bit operations (Las Vegas Algorithm). **Proof:**

Set l := length(n)

Have $n = \prod_{i=1}^{r} p_i$ with $p_i \in \mathbb{P}$ distinct.

$$\phi(n) = \prod_{i=1}^{r} (p_i - 1) \mid m \text{ So initially all } (p_i - 1) \text{ divide } k.$$

At some iteration it happens for the first time that $(p_i - 1) \nmid k$ Then $k \equiv \frac{p_1 - 1}{2} \pmod{(p_1 - 1)} \Rightarrow a^k \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{p_i}$ -1 occurs fore some a

For those j with $(p_j - 1) \mid k \text{ have } n^k \equiv 1 \pmod{p_j}$

Consider the group homomorphism: $\phi_i(\mathbb{Z}/(n))^{\times} \mapsto (\mathbb{Z}/(p_1))^{\times} \times ... \times (\mathbb{Z}/(p_r))^{\times}$ $\bar{a} \mapsto (a^k \mod p_1, ..., a^k \mod p_r)$

The image of ϕ is a product of groups $\{\pm\}$ or $\{1\}$ depending whether $(p_i - 1) \nmid k$ or $(p_i - 1)|k$

Conclusion:

For at least half of all a's, $\phi(\bar{a})$ is neither (1,...,1) nor (-1,...,-1)

If
$$a^k \equiv 1 \pmod{p_j}$$
 then $p_j \mid (a^k - 1) \Rightarrow p_j \mid d$
If $a^k \equiv -1 \pmod{p_j}$ then $p_j \nmid (a^k - 1) \Rightarrow p_j \nmid d$

If
$$a^k \equiv -1 \pmod{p_j}$$
 then $p_j \nmid (a^k - 1) \Rightarrow p_j \nmid a$

So for these a the algorithm is successful.

This means that the expected number of a's that need to be tested is ≤ 2

(Since
$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} i \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^i = 2$$
 More generally for $0)$

Analysis of running time (in bit operations) for each a (using gcd is quadratic) leads to the claim.

Problems of RSA:

- How difficult is factorization of integers (lower bound?)
- decryption of some or all messages without having f?

1.4.4 Diffie-Hellmann Key Exchange

Goal: A, B want to exchange a symmetric key via a public channel

- (1) A and B agree on a $p \in \mathbb{P}$ (should be large) and $q \in (\mathbb{Z}/(p))^{\times}$ public
- (2) A chooses $a \in \{2, ..., (p-2)\}$ randomly and sends $u := g^a$ to B
- (3) B chooses $b \in \{2, ..., (p-2)\}$ randomly and sends $v := g^b$ to A
- (4) A computes $v^a = (q^b)^a = q^{a \cdot b}$ B computes $u^b = (q^b)^a = q^{a \cdot b}$

 \Rightarrow A and B share $g^{a \cdot b}$

Example:

A chooses
$$a = 7$$

 $\bar{3}^7 = \bar{1}1 \in \mathbb{Z}/(17)$
 $\bar{13}^7 = \bar{4}$
B chooses $b = 4$
 $\bar{3}^4 = \bar{1}3 \in \mathbb{Z}/(17)$
 $\bar{1}1^4 = \bar{4}$

If Eve reconstructs a, b from g^a and g^b she can compute $g^{a \cdot b}$

The Security of Diffie-Hellmann depends on the difficulty of the discrete logarithm problem (DLP):

Given $g \in G$ element of a group or monoid and given $g^a \in G$, determine a (or determine $a' \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $g^a = g^{a'}$

1.4.5 Elliptic curve cryptography (ECC)

ECC uses elliptic curves as groups.

$$y^2 = x^3 + a \cdot x + b \Rightarrow y^2 z = x^3 + axz^2 + bz^3$$

ECC uses suitable elliptic curves on \mathbb{F}_a

1.5 Factorization

Let $m \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$ $n \notin \mathbb{P}$ Find a divisor d with 1 < d < n. From this we obtain the factorization of n by recursion.

Naive method: Trial division. Cost essentially exponential in l(n)

1.5.1 Algorithm 1 (Sieve of Eratosthenes)

Input: $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$

Output: All primes $\leq n$

- (1) Create a list of all numbers $\leq n$
- (2) p := 2
- (3) Mark all multiples of p in the List
- (4) if all numbers are marked return
- (5) Let p be the smallest number that is not marked
- (6) $p \in \mathbb{P}$ Go to (3)

Running time of Algorithm 1 is exponential.

Pollard's rho (ρ) algorithm:

Idea: Choose a function $\mathbb{Z}/(m) \mapsto \mathbb{Z}/(n)$ e.g. $f(x) = x^2 + 1$

Choose $x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}/(n)$ set $x_i := f^i(x_0)$ iterative application.

Let $p \mid n$ be a prime. Since $|\mathbb{Z}/(p)| < \infty$ then $\exists i < j : x_i \equiv x_j \pmod{p}$

Starting at x_i the sequence of x_i will be periodic.

$$p \mid x_i - x_j$$
 $p \mid n \Rightarrow p \mid \gcd(n, x_i - x_j) =: d$

If $x_i \not\equiv x_i \pmod{n}$ (which is not guaranteed) then d is a proper divisor of n.

- Recall that gcd computation is cheap
- Testing all pairs is a lot
- Proposition 2 helps with this

1.5.2 Proposition 2 (length of periods)

Let M be a set of functions $f: M \mapsto M$ and $x_0 \in M$ $x_i := f^i(x_0)$

If $x_{t+l} = x_t$ for $l, t \in \mathbb{N}l > 0$ (\rightarrow t "off-period", l "length of period")

 $\Rightarrow \exists j \in \mathbb{N} \text{ with } 0 < j \leq t + l \text{ such that } x_i = x_{2i}$

$$f^l(x_t) = x_t \Rightarrow \forall a \in \mathbb{N} \quad f^{a \cdot l}(x_t) = x_t \quad \text{Assume } j = a \cdot l \ge t \quad a \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$f^{*}(x_{t}) = x_{t} \Rightarrow \forall a \in \mathbb{N} \quad f^{*}(x_{t}) = x_{t} \quad \text{Assume } j = a \cdot t \geq t \quad a \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$x_{2j} = x_{t+(j-t)+a \cdot l} = f^{(j-t)}(x_{t+a \cdot l}) = f^{(j-t)}(f^{al}(x_{t})) = f^{(j-t)}(x_{t}) = x_{j}$$

$$\text{Case 1 } t = 0 \quad j = l \quad \checkmark$$

Case 1
$$t=0$$
 $j=l$

Case 2 t > 0 $j = t + (-t \mod l) \in 0, ..., (l-1)$

1.5.3 Algorithm 3 (Pollard's ρ -Algorithm)

Input : $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}, n \notin \mathbb{P}$

Output: a proper divisor of n or "FAIL"

- (1) Choose $x \in \{0, ..., (n-1)\}$ randomly set y := x
- (2) repeat (3)-(6)
- (3) $x := x^2 + 1 \mod n$ $y := (y^2 + 1)^2 + 1$ $//x := x_j y := x_{2j}$
- $(4) d := \gcd(n, x y)$
- (5) if (1 < d < n) return d
- (6) if d = n return "FAIL"

One "FAIL" includes no conclusion so you might want to repeat the Algorithm with a different x.

Running time? Assume the $x_i := f^i(x_0)$ are randomly distributed.

When can we expect that a match $(x_i \equiv x_i \pmod{p})$ occurs? \rightarrow "Birthday Problem"

Lemma (Birthday Problem):

We iteratively choose numbers in $\{1,...,n\}$ at random. The expected numbers of choices (if we keep choosing until a number has been chosen twice) is $<\sqrt{\frac{\pi \cdot n}{2}} + 2$

Proof:

Let $s \geq 2$ be the numbers of choices until a match occurs. For $k \in \mathbb{N}$ with P() as probability

$$P(s > k) = \prod_{i=1}^{k} \left(1 - \frac{i-1}{n}\right) \le \prod_{i=1}^{k} e^{-\frac{i-1}{n}} = e^{\sum_{i=1}^{k} - \frac{i-1}{n}} = e^{\frac{k(1-k)}{2n}} \le e^{-\frac{(k-1)^2}{2n}}$$
* since $f(x) = e^x - (1-x) \ge 0$ for $x \ge 0$

$$f(0) = 0$$

$$f'(x) \ge 0 \text{ if } x \ge 0$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P(s > k) = 2 + \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} P(s > k) \le 2 + \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{(k-1)^2}{2n}} \le 2 + \int_{1}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{(x-1)^2}{2n}} dx$$

$$= 2 + \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2n}} dx = 2 + \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{2n}}\right)} dx$$

$$= 2 + \sqrt{2n} \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = 2 + \sqrt{2n} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2} = 2 + \sqrt{\frac{n \cdot \pi}{2}}$$

Example:

People arrive at a party. When can you expect to have two that share their birthday? \rightarrow when 26 have arrived!

1.5.4 Theorem 4 (Bit-complexity of Algorithm 3)

under suitable assumptions on the distribution $f^i(x)$ for $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ Algorithm 3 has the expected running time of $O(\sqrt[q]{n} \lg(n)^2)$ bit operations

Proof:

By Proposition 2 and the Lemma the expected number of runs through the loop is $O(\sqrt{p})=O(\sqrt[q]{n})$ as $p\leq \sqrt{n}$

Each run through the loop takes $O(\lg(n)^2)$ bit operations.

Pollard's p-1 Algorithm

Motivation: Let $p \mid n$ prime divisor

$$\Rightarrow \forall a \in \mathbb{Z} : a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \quad \text{whith } \gcd(a, p) = 1$$
$$\Rightarrow \forall m \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ with } (p-1) \mid m : \ a^m \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

$$p \mid \gcd(a^m - 1, n)$$

Let B be an upper-bound for the prime powers dividing p-1.

"
$$p-1$$
 is B -power-smooth".

Then
$$(p-1) \mid \prod_{(q \leq B) \in \mathbb{P}} q^{\lfloor \log_q(B) \rfloor}$$

Neither p nor B are known! But guess and try B and hope for the best.

1.5.5 Algorithm 5 (Pollard's p-1 method)

Input : $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>1} \setminus \mathbb{P}$

Output: $d \in \mathbb{N}$ with $d \mid n \mid 1 < d < n$ or "FAIL"

- (1) Choose a "smoothness bound" B
- (2) Choose $a \in \{2, ...(n-2)\}$ randomly
- (3) Use Algorithm 1 to find all $q \in \mathbb{P}$ with $q \leq B$ For every q perform steps (4) - (5)
- (4) $k := q^{\lfloor \log_q(B) \rfloor}$ set $a := a^k \pmod{n}$ compute $d := \gcd(n, a 1)$
- (5) if 1 < d < n return d
- (6) return "FAIL" //or increase B and go to (1)

Consequence: when setting up RSA p, q should be chosen such that p-1 and q-1 have large prime divisors.

The quadratic sieve (State of the art factorization algorithm)

Observation: if
$$n = x^2 - y^2$$
 then $n = (x - y) \cdot (x + y)$
Conversely if $n = a \cdot b$ then $n = \left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{a-b}{2}\right)^2$

1-st Idea: Find $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$ $\land x \not\equiv \pm y \pmod{n}$

Then $n \mid (x-y) \cdot (x+y)$

 \Rightarrow for every $y: e \in \mathbb{P}$ with $p \mid n: p \mid (x-y) \lor p \mid (x+y)$

 $\Rightarrow p \mid \gcd(x-y,n) \lor p \mid \gcd(x+y,n)$

Since both gcd are < a receive a non-trivial divisor of n

If $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$ how probable is it that $x \equiv \pm y \pmod{n}$? Let $n = \prod_{i=1}^r p_i^{k_i}$ odd with $p_i \in \mathbb{P}$ distinct.

Assume $p_i \nmid x \forall i = 1...r$ Since $(\mathbb{Z}/(p_i^{k_i}))^{\times}$ is cyclic there are 2^r classes $y \mod n$ such that $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$

[Reason: These classes are given by $y \equiv \pm x \pmod{p_i^{k_i}}$ These are the only solutions since $\mathbb{Z}/(p_i^{k_i})^{\times}$ is cyclic of even order.

 $G = <\sigma>$ cyclic of order 2m

 $x = \sigma^i$ Find $l \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x^2 = (\sigma^l)^2$

 $\Leftrightarrow 2j \equiv 2l \pmod{2m} \Leftrightarrow j \equiv l \pmod{m}$

 $\Leftrightarrow l \equiv j \pmod{2m} \text{ or } l \equiv j + m \pmod{2m}$

But have $x \equiv \pm y$ only for 2y's.

Failure probability: 2^{1-r}

Handle case r = 1 by Algorithm 11 in 1.3

Example 1

n = 91 Search $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x^2 = k \cdot n + y^2$

Good chance if x is slightly bigger than $\sqrt{k \cdot n}$

$$k := 1 \Rightarrow \sqrt{91} \approx 9,54 \Rightarrow x := 10 \Rightarrow 10^2 = 100 \equiv 3^2 \pmod{91}$$

$$n = 10^2 - 3^2 = (10 - 3) \cdot (10 + 3) = 7 \cdot 13$$

Another try:

$$k := 8 \Rightarrow \sqrt{8 \cdot 91} \approx 26,98 \Rightarrow 27^2 \equiv 1^2 \pmod{91} \quad \gcd(26,91) = 13$$

Example 2

n = 4633 k := 3

$$\sqrt{3 \cdot n} \approx 117,89 \Rightarrow x^2 = 118^2 \equiv 5^2 \pmod{n}$$

 $\gcd(118 - 5, n) = 113$

$$\gcd(118+5,n)=41$$

2-nd Idea: Choose $B \in \mathbb{N}$ "smoothness bound" suitable.

Let $p_2, ...p_r \in \mathbb{P}$ be all primes $\leq B$ (Algorithm 1) set $p_1 := -1$

The p_i form a "factor basis".

For $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ write $(a \mod n)$

for the $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $x \equiv a \pmod{n}$ and $-\frac{n}{2} < x \le \frac{n}{2}$

Procedure:

Search numbers $a_1, ..., a_m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $(a_i^2 \mod n) = \prod_{i=1}^r p_j^{e_{ij}}$

with $e_{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}$ ("B numbers")

So for
$$\mu_i, ..., \mu_m \in \mathbb{N}_0$$
 have $\left(\prod_{i=1}^m a_i^{\mu_i}\right)^2 \equiv \prod_{i=1}^m \prod_{j=1}^r p_j^{\mu_i \cdot e_{ij}} \pmod{n} = \prod_{j=1}^r p_j^{\sum_{i=1}^m \mu_i \cdot e_{ij} \mod n}$

If the vectors $(e_{i1},...,e_{ir})$ become linearly dependant mod 2 (guaranteed if m > r) then $\exists \mu_1,...\mu_m \in \{0,1\}$ not all 0 such that:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \mu_i \cdot e_{ij} = 2 \cdot k_j \qquad k_j \in \mathbb{N}_0$$
with $x := \prod_{i=1}^{m} a_i^{\mu_i} \quad y := \prod_{j=1}^{r} p_j^{k_j}$ obtain $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$

Example: n = 4633 choose B = 3 \Rightarrow factor basis -1, 2, 3Search $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $|a_i^2 \mod n|$ is small. Idea: $a \approx \sqrt{n} = 68.06...$

$$\begin{array}{ll} a_1 := 68 & : & 68^2 = n - 9 \equiv (-1) \cdot 3^2 \pmod{n} \\ & \to e_1 = (1,0,2) \to (1,0,0) \in \mathbb{F}_2^3 \\ a_2 := 69 & : & 69^2 = n + 128 \equiv 2^7 \pmod{n} \\ & \to e_2 = (0,7,0) \to (0,1,0) \in \mathbb{F}_2^3 \\ a_3 := 67 & : & 67^2 = n - 144 \equiv (-1) \cdot 2^4 \cdot 3^2 \\ & \to e_3 = (1,4,2) \to (1,0,0) \in \mathbb{F}_2^3 \\ e_1 + e_3 \equiv 0 \pmod{2} & \text{In fact:} \\ e_1 + e_3 \equiv 2 \cdot \underbrace{(1,2,2)}_{(k_1,k_2,k_3)} \to \mu_1 = 1 \quad \mu_2 = 0 \quad \mu_3 = 1 \\ x := a_1 \cdot a_3 \equiv -77 \pmod{n} \\ y := (-1) \cdot 2^2 \cdot 3^2 = -36 \\ x - y = -41 & x + y = -113 \\ \gcd(n, x - y) = 41 & \gcd(n, x + y) = 113 \quad \checkmark \end{array}$$

3rd Idea: Look for a_i of the form $t + \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$ with t in a "suitable".

Sieve Interval: $[-s, s] \cap \mathbb{Z}$

As it turns out if $s \leq \frac{\sqrt{5}-2}{2} \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$ then $(t+\lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor)^2 \mod n = (t+\lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor)^2 - n =: f(t)$ When does $p_j^{e_j}$ divide f(t) (with $j \geq 2$)? Precisely if $(t+\lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor)^2 \equiv n \pmod{p_j^{e_j}}$

If this holds ffor some t then it also holds for all $t+k\cdot p_j^{e_j}$ with $k\in\mathbb{Z}$ Moreover if it holds then $\bar{n}\in\mathbb{F}_{p_j}$ is square. So may remove all p_j such that $\bar{n}\in\mathbb{F}_{p_j}$ is a non-square from the factor basis.

Obtain a sieving procedure:

For $t \in [-s,s] \cap \mathbb{Z}$ with $p_j^{e_j} \mid f(t)$ "mark" all elements $t+k \cdot p_j^{e_j} \in [-s,s]$

1.5.6 Algorithm 6 (Quadratic sieve, simplified version)

Input: $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>1} \setminus \mathbb{P}$ odd

Output: A non trivial divisor of n or "FAIL"

- (1) if $(n = m^e)$ with $m, e \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$ return m // can be done with Algorithm 11 \S 3
- (2) Choose a "smootheness bound" $B \in \mathbb{N}$ and a "sieve bound" $s \in \mathbb{N}$ suitably
- (3) Let $p_1 = -1$ $p_2, ..., p_r$ be the factor basis given by B. Delete those p_j such that $\bar{n} \in \mathbb{F}_{p_j}$ is a non-square
- (4) for (t = -s, -s + 1, ..., s 1)compute $f_t := |(t + |\sqrt{n}|)^2 - n| \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$
- (5) for (t = -s, ..., s)set $e_t := (0, ..., 0) \in \mathbb{N}_0^r$ // initialize exponent vectors
- (6) for (t = -s, ..., 0)set $e_{t,1} := 1$ $//\rightarrow$ first entry of each e_t is the exponent of $p_1 = -1$ in f(t)
- (7) for (j = 2, ..., r) repeat (8) (10)
- (8) for $(e=1,...\lfloor \log_{p_i}(B) \rfloor)$ repeat (9) (10) // or maybe a bit larger
- (9) solve $(t + \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor)^2 \equiv n \pmod{p_j^e}$ Let $(t_i \mod p_j^e), ..., (t_m \mod p_j^e)$ be the solutions. // We will see that $m \in \{0, 2, 4\}$ with m = 2 most frequent.
- (10) for all $t = t_i + k \cdot p_j^e \in [-s, s]$ with $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, i = 1, ..., m set $e_{t,j} := e_{t_j} + 1$ $f_t := \frac{f_t}{p_i}$
- (11) let $t, ..., t_m$ be those $t \in [-s, s] \cap \mathbb{Z}$ for which $f_t = 1$ /* So the $a_i = t_i + \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$ are B-numbers and the factorization * of $a_i^2 \mod n = a_i^2 - n = f(t)$ is given by the exponent * vectors e_t */
- (12) if the $(e_{t_i} \mod 2) \in \mathbb{F}_2^r (i=1,...,m)$ are not linearly dependent. return "FAIL"
- (13) compute $\mu_1, ..., \mu_m \in \{0, 1\}, k_1, ..., k_r \in \mathbb{N}_0$ such that $\sum_{i=1}^m \mu_i e_{t_i} = 2 \cdot (k_1, ..., k_r)$
- (14) set $x := \prod_{i=1}^m (t_i + \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor)^{\mu_i} \mod n$ $y := \prod_{j=1}^r p_j^{k_j} \mod n \qquad //\text{Now } x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod n$

(15) if gcd(n, x - y) or gcd(n, x + y) is a non-trivial divisor return the non-trivial divisor else return "FAIL"

With good heuristics it will almost certainly never return FAIL.

```
Example: n=20437

Choose B:=10 s:=3

Factor basis: p_1=-1 p_2=2 p_3=3 p_4=7

(5 omitted as: n\equiv 2\pmod{5} non-square)

\lfloor \sqrt{n}\rfloor = 142

Solve (t+142)^2\equiv n\pmod{p}_j^e

p_2=2: Compute modulo 2,4,8. n\equiv 5\pmod{8}

t \ odd\Rightarrow (t+142)^2\equiv 1\pmod{8} \Rightarrow (t+142)^2\equiv n\pmod{4} but not \pmod{8}

t \ even\Rightarrow (t+142)^2\equiv 0\pmod{2} \not\equiv n\pmod{2}

\Rightarrow e_{t,2}=\begin{cases} 2 & t \ odd \\ 0 & t \ eveb \end{cases}

p_3=2: n\equiv 1\pmod{3} \quad \lfloor \sqrt{n}\rfloor \equiv 1\pmod{3}

So 3\mid f(t)\Leftrightarrow t+1\equiv \pm 1\pmod{3} \Leftrightarrow t\equiv 0 \text{ or } 1\pmod{3}

e=2 n\equiv 7\equiv (\pm 4)^2\pmod{9} \quad \lfloor \sqrt{n}\rfloor \equiv 7\pmod{9}

So 9\mid f(t)\Leftrightarrow t+7\equiv \pm 4\pmod{9} \Leftrightarrow t\equiv -3, -2\pmod{9}

p_4=7 n\equiv 4\pmod{7} 4=(\pm 2)^2 \quad \lfloor \sqrt{n}\rfloor \equiv 2\pmod{7}

So 7\mid f(t)\Leftrightarrow t+2\equiv \pm 2\pmod{7} \Leftrightarrow t\equiv 0 \text{ or } 3\pmod{7}
```

t	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
$f_t = f(t) $	1116	837	556	273	12	295	588
p_1 component of e_t	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
p_2 component	2	0	2	0	2	0	2
f_t divided by 2-power	279	837	139	273	3	299	147
p_3 component	2	2	0	1	1	0	1
f_t	31	93	139	91	1	299	49
p_4 component	0	0	0	1	0	0	2
f_t	31	93	139	13	1	299	1

Obtain m = 2: $t_1 = 1$ $t_2 = 3$ $e_1 = (0, 2, 1, 0)$ $e_3 = (0, 2, 1, 2)$

They are lineary dependent (mod 2)

$$e_1 + e_3 = 2 \cdot (0, 2, 1, 1)$$

$$x = (142 + 1) \cdot (142 + 3) \equiv 298 \pmod{n}$$

$$y = p_2^2 \cdot p_3 \cdot p_4 = 2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 7 = 84$$

$$gcd(n, x - y) = gcd(n, 214) = 107$$

 $\gcd(n, x + y) = 191$

Indeed $n = 107 \cdot 191$

Computing square roots (mod p^e)

Case 1: p odd

Find x with $x^2 \equiv n \pmod{p}$ by trying $x \mod p$ (exactly two solutions). Suppose we have found x with $x^2 \equiv n \pmod{p^e}$

So
$$x^2 - n = p^e \cdot r \quad r \in \mathbb{Z}$$

New x should be $x + y \cdot p^e$

Compute modulo
$$p^{e+1}$$
: $(x+y\cdot e)^2 - n = x^2 + 2yxp^e + y^2p^{2e} - n \equiv p^e \cdot (r+2xy) \pmod{p^{e+1}}$
So $(x+y\cdot p^e)^2 \equiv n \pmod{p^{e+1}} \Leftrightarrow 2xy \equiv -r \pmod{p}$ uniquely and easily solvable

 \rightarrow Obtain two solutions (mod p^e)

⇒ special case of "Hensel lifting"

Case 2: p = 2

Find $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $x^2 \equiv n \pmod{8}$ (0 or 4 solutions since $n \pmod{8}$

Assume we have $x^2 \equiv n \pmod{2^e}$ $e \ge 3$

So
$$x^2 - n = r \cdot 2^e$$

$$\Rightarrow (x+y\cdot 2^{e-1})^2 - n = x^2 + xy\cdot 2^e + y^2 2^{2e-2} - n \equiv 2^e(r+xy) \pmod{2^{e+1}}$$

So
$$(x+y\cdot 2^{e-1})^2 \equiv n \pmod{2}^{e+1} \Leftrightarrow y \equiv r \pmod{2}$$

 $\rightarrow 0$ or 4 solutions

Running time of quadratic sieve

Choose
$$B \approx \exp\left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\ln(n) \cdot \ln(\ln(n))}\right)$$

If $s \approx B$ then running time is: $O\left(\exp\left(\sqrt{\ln(n) \cdot \ln(\ln(n))}\right)\right)$ which is "slightly" sub-exponential

Factorization algorithm with best complexity (known to date):

Number field sieve

This also uses ideas 1 and 2, but an algebraic number field is used for generating B-numbers.

Heuristic Running time (modulo some conjectures): $O\left(\exp\left(\ln(n)^{\frac{1}{3}} \cdot \ln(\ln(n))\right)^{\frac{2}{3}}\right)$

2 System of equations

2.6 Linear Algebra

Tasks:

- solving systems of linear equations (= linear systems)
- inversions of matrices
- rank determination
- determinants
- matrix products

K field, $K^{m \times n} = \text{set of } n \times n \text{ matrices}$ $GL_n(K)$...

Count the cost of algorithms in terms of field operations. If K is a finite field this translates directly to bit operations.

2.6.1 Proposition 1 (Complexity of usual algorithms)

- (a) Solving an $m \times n$ -linear system by Gaussian elimination requires $O(\max\{m, n\}^3)$ field operations
- (b) For $A \in GL_n(K)$ computing A^{-1} by usual method requires $O(n^3)$ field operations.
- (c) Computing det(A) "as usual" requires $O(n^3)$ bit operations.
- (d) Computing $A \cdot B$ for $A \in K^{m \times n}$ $B \in K^{n \times l}$ requires $O(m \cdot n \cdot l)$ field operations.

 \rightarrow all cubic!

Proof:

- (a) Cost of treating the k-th row with Gauss algorithm:
 - ≤ 1 inversion, $\leq (n-k)$ multiplications
 - $\leq (m-k)(n-k)$ multiplications and additions

(clearing column below pivot element)

Back substitution (i.e. clearing columns above pivot element):

Let $r = rk(A) \le (k-1)(n-r)$ multiplications and additions

Total cost
$$\leq \sum_{k=1}^{r} (1 + n - k + 2(m - k)(n - k) + 2(k - 1)(n - r))$$

 $= 2mnr - mr^2 - \frac{1}{3}r^3 - nr + \frac{3}{2}r^2 + \frac{5}{6}r - mr$
 $\in O(\max\{m, n\}^3)$

- (b) Inversion is Gaussian elimination of $n \times 2n$ -matrix of rank n $cost \le \frac{8}{3}n^3 - \frac{3}{2}n^2 + \frac{5}{6}n \in O(n^3)$
- (c) reduced to (a)
- (d) obvious

3 Notes

3.1 Notation

- $\mathbb{N} := \mathbb{N}_0$
- $\lg(x) := \log_2(x)$
- $a \mid b$ a is divisible by $b \Leftrightarrow b \mod a = 0$ $a \nmid b$ a is not divisible by $b \Leftrightarrow b \mod a \neq 0$
- ord(a) order of a group element n > 0 minimal such that $a^n = e$ with neutral element e if no such n can be found, $ord(a) = \infty$
- char(A) Characteristic: the smallest positive n such that $\underbrace{1+\ldots+1}_{n\ summands}=0$ with 1 as the multiplicative identity element
- $\mathbb{Z}/(m)$ Ring modulo m polynomial rings measure for "<" relations not the absolute value but max power.
- $lcm(a_1,...,a_n)$ "least common multiple of all a_i "
- \underline{e} = vector of e's
- $\phi(n) := |\{x \in \mathbb{N} : x < n \land \gcd(x, n) = 1\}| = |(\mathbb{Z}/(n))^x|$ Euler's totient function
- rk(A) Rank of matrix A

3.2 Various stuff

- Lagrange's theorem

 Every element in a finite group has finite order
- Average number of bit operations for an increment:
 One operation for the last bit + 50% chance for one on the next bit + 25% on the following etc. ⇒ Geometrical row
 ⇒ on average two bit operations
- "Monte Carlo Algorithm"
 Always terminates in reasonable time but might yield false result.
- "Las Vegas Algorithm"

 If it terminates the result is correct. No deterministic running time.
- Chinese remainder theorem Given a system of congruences $x \equiv a_i \pmod{m_i}$ with i = 1, ..., r m_i pairwise co-prime. Then the unique solution is: $x \equiv a_1 \cdot b \cdot \frac{N}{m_i} + ... + a_r \cdot b_r \cdot \frac{N}{m_r} \pmod{N}$ with $b_i \cdot \frac{N}{m_i} \equiv 1 \pmod{m_i}$
- distance between two square numbers: $(n+1)^2 - n^2 = 2n+1$ \Rightarrow Squares are much more scarce than primes!

3.3 Algebraic structures

```
• Group
                                               (G,*)
                                               G \times G \mapsto G
  - one inner operation (*):
  - associativity:
                                               (a * b) * c = a * (b * c)
                                                                                   \forall a, b, c \in G
  - neutral element e \in G:
                                               a * e = e * a = a
                                                                                    \forall a \in G
                                               a*a^{-1} = a^{-1}*a = e
  - inverse element a^{-1} \in G:
                                                                                    \forall a \in G
• Abelian group
                                               (G,*)
  - (G,*) is a group
                                                                                    \forall a, b \in G
  - commutativity:
                                               a * b = b * a
• Finite group
                                               (G,*)
  - associativity:
                                               (a*b)*c = a*(b*c)
  - unambiguity of reduction:
                                               (a * x = a * x') \land (x * a = x' * a) \Rightarrow x = x'
                                               \Rightarrow x \mapsto x * a \text{ and } x \mapsto a * x \text{ is bijective}
                                               \Rightarrow \exists x : a * x = a \Rightarrow \text{neutral element}
                                                   \exists x : a * x = x \Rightarrow \text{inverse element}
• Cyclic group
                                               (G,*)
  - G is a group
  - G is generated by one Element: G = \langle g \rangle = \{g^n | n \in \mathbb{Z}\}
  - not necessarily finite.
• Semi group
                                               (S,*)
                                               S \times S \mapsto S
  - one inner operation (*):
                                               (a*b)*c = a*(b*c)
                                                                                   \forall a, b, c \in S
  - associativity:
• Field
                                               (K,+,\cdot)
  - two inner operations (+,\cdot) such that:
                    is an abelian group with neutral element 0
     - (K\setminus(0),\cdot) is an abelian group with neutral element 1
  - distributivity:
                                               a \cdot (b+c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c
                                               (a+b) \cdot c = a \cdot c + b \cdot c
                                                                                    \forall a, b, c \in K
• Ring
                                               (R,+,\cdot)
  - (R, +) is an abelian group
  - (R,\cdot) is a semi group
  - distributivity:
                                               a \cdot (b+c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c
                                               (a+b) \cdot c = a \cdot c + b \cdot c
                                                                                    \forall a, b, c \in R
                                               (R, +, \cdot)
• Commutative ring
  -(R,+,\cdot) is a ring
  -commutativity for (\cdot)
                                               a \cdot b = b \cdot a
                                                                                    \forall a, b \in R
• Unitary ring (ring with 1)
                                               (R,+,\cdot)
  - (R,\cdot) is a semi group
  - (R,\cdot) has a neutral element "1"
• Euclidean ring
                                               R
  \exists F: R \mapsto \mathbb{N}_0 \cup \{0\}
    such that if \exists q, r \in R  a = b \cdot q + r and r = 0 or a, b \in R F(r) < F(b)
```

• Polynomial ring

R[X]

- R is a commutative unitary ring
- set of all polynomials with coefficients $\in R$

3.4 Invertible elements

- Let $(\mathbb{Z}/(n),+)$ be a group or $(\mathbb{Z}/(n))^{\times}$ be a group with multiplication.
- $|(\mathbb{Z}/(n))^{\times}| = \phi(n)$
- $n \in \mathbb{P}$ $\Rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/(n))^{\times} = \{\bar{0}, ..., p - 1\} \cong (\mathbb{Z}/(p-1), +) = \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} \text{ (cyclic Group } \mathbb{Z})$
- n is a power of 2 $\Rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/(2^e))^{\times} \cong \mathbb{Z}/(2) \times \mathbb{Z}/(2^{e-2})$
- n is a power of an odd Prime $\Rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/(p^k))^{\times} \cong \mathbb{Z}/(p^{k-1} \cdot (p-1)) \cong Z_{(p^{k-1} \cdot (p-1))}$
- $\begin{array}{l} \bullet \ \ n = p_1^{k_1},...,p_r^{k_r} \\ \Rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/(n))^\times \cong (\mathbb{Z}/(p_1^{k_1}))^\times \times ... \times (\mathbb{Z}/(p_r^{k_r}))^\times \end{array}$