# **Computational Algebra**

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# **Transcript**

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# 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 it as x = sgn(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)  $set c_i := a_i + b_i + \sigma_i$   $\sigma := 0$
- $(4) if (c_i \ge B)$
- $(5) set c_i = c_i B$
- (6)  $set \sigma = 1$
- (7) set  $c_n = \sigma$

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

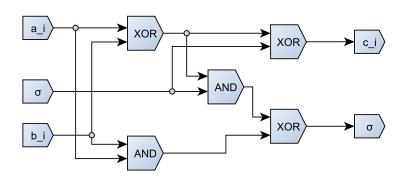


Figure 1: Logic circuit for addition

### 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  $\exists c \in \mathbb{R} : f(x) \leq c \cdot g(x) \forall x \in M$ 

#### 1.1.4 Theorem 4 (Lower bound for addition)

Let  $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ ,  $n \mapsto \text{maximal number of bit operations required by Algorithm 1 to}$ 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  $O(n \cdot m)$  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:  $\Theta(k) \leq 3\Theta(k-1) + c 2^k$  recursive calls additions Claim:  $\Theta(k) \leq 3^k + 2c(3^k-2^k)$ with (c some constant)

# 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  $\Theta(k) \le (2c+1)3^k$ 

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

So  $k - 1 < \log_2 n$ 

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

$$= 3(2c+1)2^{\log_2(3)\log_2(n)}$$

$$= 3(2c+1)n^{\log_2(3)} \square$$

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

#### **Fast-Fourier Transformation**

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

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

Think of  $\omega$  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: 
$$(f * g) = \hat{f} \cdot \hat{g}$$
(Cauchy 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  $\mu$  be a primitive n-th root of 1 (e.g.  $e^{2\pi \frac{i}{n}} \in \mathbb{C}$ )

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

$$(a_0, ..., a_n) \mapsto (\hat{a}_0, ..., \hat{a}_n)$$
 with  $\hat{a}_i = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \mu^{ij} a_j$ 

is called discrete Fourier transformation

For polynomials:

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

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

$$f \mapsto (f(\mu^{0}), ..., f(\mu^{n-1}))$$

Convolution rule: (from  $f(\mu^i)g(\mu^i) = (f * g)(\mu^i)$ )

$$DFT_{\mu}(f * g) = DFT_{\mu}(f) \cdot DFT_{\mu}(g)$$
 (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  $\mu$  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  $DFT_{\mu^2}(g) = \hat{g}, DFT_{\mu^2}(h) = \hat{h} \in \mathbb{R}^{2^{k-1}}$
- (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  $i \ge 2^{k-1}$

Note: Components of  $\hat{q}$  and  $\hat{h}$  are:

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

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

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:

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

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

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

# 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  $\bar{3}^0 + \bar{3}^1 = \bar{u} \neq \bar{0}$  so  $\mu$  is not good.

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

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

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

#### **Proof:**

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

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

# 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  $\mu$  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  $k > 0 \wedge char(R) \neq 2$  $\rightarrow \mu$  is a good primitive n-th root of 1 ("root of unity")

#### **Proof:**

a) for 
$$0 < i < n$$

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

$$\Rightarrow \mu \text{ is a good root of unity}$$

- b)  $\mu^n=1, \quad n=2^k \Rightarrow ord(\mu)|n \Rightarrow ord(\mu)$  is power of 2 Since  $\mu^{\frac{n}{2}} \neq 1$ , this implies  $ord(\mu)=n$ 
  - \* Let 0 < i < n, write  $i = 2^{k-s} \cdot r$  with  $r \text{ odd } \wedge s > 0$   $\sum_{j=0}^{2^k-1} \mu^{ij} = \sum_{l=0}^{2^{k-s}-1} \sum_{j=0}^{2^s-1} \mu^{i(l \cdot 2^s+j)} \underset{(\mu^{i \cdot 2^s}=1)}{=} 2^{k-s} \sum_{j=0}^{2^s-1} \mu^{ij} =$  $2^{k-s} \sum_{i=0}^{2^{s-1}-1} (\mu^{ij} + \mu^{i(2^{s-1}+j)})$ 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  $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \mu^{ij} = 0$

# 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  $\hat{f} = DFT_{\mu}(f)$ ,  $\hat{q} = DFT_{\mu}(q)$  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  $\deg(f) \cdot \deg(g) < 2^k$  $\Rightarrow 2^{k-1} < 2n \quad \Rightarrow k < \log(n) + 2$
- $\bullet \ \ \underbrace{O(2k \cdot 2^k)}_{\text{Step 1}} + \underbrace{2^k}_{\text{Step 2}} + \underbrace{O(k \cdot 2^k) + 2^k}_{\text{Step 3}} \ \in \ O(2k \cdot 2^k) = O(n(g(n)))$

Goal: Multiplication in 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  $m = 2^{l} + 1$ ,  $R = \mathbb{Z}/(m)$  $\Leftrightarrow 2^l \equiv -1$ 

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

- (2) Subtract bits  $\geq 2^l$  (since  $\bar{2}^l = -\bar{1}$ ): O(l)
- (3) If the result is negative add  $2^l + 1$ : 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,  $\mu$  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:  $\hat{x} = DFT_{\mu}(\bar{x}_0, ..., \bar{x}_{2^k-1}, \underbrace{0, ..., 0}_{2^k \text{zeros}}) \in R^{2^{k+1}}$ same for y  $\rightarrow$  use FFT
- (6) compute:  $\hat{z} = \hat{x} \cdot \hat{y} \in R^{2^{k+1}}$  (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  $\alpha \in \tilde{R}_{>0}$  define  $\Theta(\alpha) := \Theta(\lfloor \alpha \rfloor)$ Total for (6):  $2^{k+1}(\Theta(\frac{k+3}{2}) + O(2^{k+2}))$
- (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  $k \in \mathbb{R}_{>4}$ 

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

# 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  $\geq 100.000$ . 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  $a = q \cdot b + r$ ,  $0 \le r < b$ 

- (1) r = aq = 0
- (2) for i = m, m 1, ..., 0 do
- (3)if  $r \geq 2^i \cdot b$  $set r := r - 2^i \cdot b$  $a := a + 2^i$

# 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:

Claim: before step (3), have 
$$0 \le 2^{i+1} \cdot b$$
  $i = m : 0 \le r = a < 2^{m+n} = 2^{m+1}c \cdot 2^{n-1} \le b$ 

i < m: By step (3)

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

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

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

#### 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.

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- (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  $r_0 := a$  $r_1 := b$
- (2) for i = 1, 2, 3, ... perform steps (3) and (4)
- (3) if  $r_i = 0$   $gcd(a, b) = |r_{i-1}|$
- (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  $d;\quad d|287;\quad d|126 \Longrightarrow d|d \Longrightarrow d|14 \Longrightarrow d|7$ 

#### 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  $i \ge 2$ 

 $\Rightarrow n_i = n_i - i + 1, \quad n_i = m, \quad k = m + 1$ 

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)
- if  $r_i = 0$ (3) $set d = |r_{i-1}|$  $s := sgn(r_{i-1}) \cdot s_{i-1},$  $t := sgn(r_{i-1}) \cdot t_{i-1}$
- 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  $G = (\mathbb{Z}/(p))^{\times}$   $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \in \mathbb{P}$   $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}$  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  $gcd(a, n) \Rightarrow have <math>a^{n-1} = (a^2)^{280} \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$   $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  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  $\infty$  Carmichael numbers

#### 1.3.5 Proposition 5 (Number of witnesses)

Let  $n \in N_{>1}$ ,  $odd \land \notin \mathbb{P} \land$  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.  $\Longrightarrow$  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  $\geq \frac{3}{4}$  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

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

"residue class character  $\pmod{n}$ 

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

Dirichlet 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 (Ankeny & Bach)

 $GRH \Rightarrow \forall X \neq 1$  residue 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  $f, g \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ )

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

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

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

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  $m = \left| \frac{m_1 + m_2}{2} \right|$  // 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:**

$$\begin{split} &\text{if } r < l^5 \Rightarrow \forall k \in k \in \{2,...,l^5\} : \exists i \in \{1,...,l^2\} \\ &n^i \equiv 1 \pmod{k} \\ &\Rightarrow k |\prod_{i=1}^{l^2} (n^i - 1) \\ &\Rightarrow \lambda(l^5) |\prod_{i=1}^{l^2} (n^i - 1) \\ &\xrightarrow{Lemma13} 2^{l^5 - 2} < \prod_{i=1}^{l^2} n^i = n^{\frac{l^2(l^2 + 1)}{2}} \\ &\Rightarrow l^5 - l^3 < 4 \qquad \text{not true since } l \geq 2 \quad \Box \end{split}$$

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

**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:  $T := \{(e_0, ..., e_k) \in \mathbb{N}_0^{k+1} | \sum_{a=0}^k e_a < |G| \}$ 

 $\Phi: T \mapsto H, (e_0, ..., e_k) \mapsto f_{\underline{e}}(\zeta) = \prod_{\underline{e}} (\zeta + \bar{a})^{e_a} \in H$ Claim 2:  $\Phi$  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  $\zeta^e$  with  $e \in G$  since  $G = \langle \bar{p}, \bar{m} \rangle$ 

These are all distinct (since  $\zeta$  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.

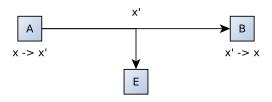


Figure 2: Scheme of eavesdropping

#### 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:

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

Applications:

- sending messages
- exchange of symmetric keys
- authentication: Together with x, B sends  $\phi^{-1}(x)$  (or  $\phi^{-1}$ | Part of x together with date). A verifies by applying  $\phi$ . 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  $a \in N_{>0}$   $y^f = x^{e \cdot f}$ 

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

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 n 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  $\phi(n)|m m \le n^2$ 

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  $\phi$  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 
$$a^k \equiv -1 \pmod{p_i}$$
 then  $p_i \nmid (a^k - 1) \Rightarrow p_i \nmid d$ 

So for these a the algorithm is successful.

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

(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 
$$a = 7$$
   
 $\bar{3}^7 = \bar{11} \in \mathbb{Z}/(17)$    
 $\bar{13}^7 = \bar{4}$    
B chooses  $b = 4$    
 $\bar{3}^4 = \bar{13} \in \mathbb{Z}/(17)$    
 $\bar{11}^4 = \bar{4}$ 

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 ( $\rho$ ) algorithm:

Idea: Choose a function  $\mathbb{Z}/(n) \mapsto \mathbb{Z}/(n)$  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  $x_j$  will be periodic mod p.

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

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.  $f: M \mapsto M$  and  $x_0 \in M$   $x_i := f^i(x_0)$   
If  $x_{t+l} = x_t$  for  $l, t \in \mathbb{N}l > 0$   $(\to t$  "off-period",  $l$  "length of period")  $\Rightarrow \exists j \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $0 < j \le t + l$  such that  $x_j = x_{2j}$ 

#### **Proof:**

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

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

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

$$\text{Case 2 } t > 0 \quad j = t + \underbrace{(-t \mod l)}_{\in 0, \dots, (l-1)} \quad \checkmark$$

#### 1.5.3 Algorithm 3 (Pollard's $\rho$ - 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) 
$$x := x^2 + 1 \pmod{n}$$
  $y := (y^2 + 1)^2 + 1 \pmod{n}$   $//x := x_j y := x_{2j}$ 

- $(4) d := \gcd(n, x y)$
- (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(s > k) 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  $x \ge 0$ 

$$f(0) = 0$$

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

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

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

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

#### 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  $O(\sqrt[4]{n} \lg(n)^2)$  bit operations

#### **Proof:**

By Proposition 2 and the Lemma the expected number of runs through the loop is  $O(\sqrt{p}) = O(\sqrt[4]{n})$  as  $p \le \sqrt{n}$ 

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

# Pollard's p-1 Algorithm

Motivation: Let  $p \mid n$  prime divisor

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

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

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

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

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

# 1.5.5 Algorithm 5 (Pollard's $\rho$ - 1 method)

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

Output:  $d \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $d \mid n - 1 < d < n$  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  $p \in \mathbb{P}$  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 < n 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:

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

### 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  $(a_i^2 \mod n) = \prod_{j=1}^r p_j^{e_{ij}}$ 

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

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

If the vectors  $(e_{i1}, ..., e_{ir})$  become linearly dependent 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:  $a \approx \sqrt{n} = 68.06...$ 

$$a_{1} := 68 : 68^{2} = n - 9 \equiv (-1) \cdot 3^{2} \pmod{n}$$

$$\rightarrow e_{1} = (1, 0, 2) \rightarrow (1, 0, 0) \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{3}$$

$$a_{2} := 69 : 69^{2} = n + 128 \equiv 2^{7} \pmod{n}$$

$$\rightarrow e_{2} = (0, 7, 0) \rightarrow (0, 1, 0) \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{3}$$

$$a_{3} := 67 : 67^{2} = n - 144 \equiv (-1) \cdot 2^{4} \cdot 3^{2}$$

$$\rightarrow e_{3} = (1, 4, 2) \rightarrow (1, 0, 0) \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{3}$$

$$e_{1} + e_{3} \equiv 0 \pmod{2} \quad \text{In fact:}$$

$$e_{1} + e_{3} \equiv 2 \cdot \underbrace{(1, 2, 2)}_{(k_{1}, k_{2}, k_{3})} \rightarrow \mu_{1} = 1 \quad \mu_{2} = 0 \quad \mu_{3} = 1$$

$$x := a_{1} \cdot a_{3} \equiv -77 \pmod{n}$$

$$y := (-1) \cdot 2^{2} \cdot 3^{2} = -36$$

$$x - y = -41 \qquad x + y = -113$$

 $\gcd(n, x - y) = 41 \quad \gcd(n, x + y) = 113$ 

**3rd Idea:** Look for  $a_i$  of the form  $t + \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$  with t in "suitable" sieve Interval:  $[-s,s] \cap \mathbb{Z}$  As it turns out if  $s \leq \frac{\sqrt{5}-2}{2} \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor \approx 0.118 \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$  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 for 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 § 3
- (2) Choose a "smoothness 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  $f_t := |(t + \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor)^2 - n| \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$
- (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  $(t + \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor)^2 \equiv n \pmod{p_j^e}$  for tLet  $(t_1 \mod p_j^e), ..., (t_m \mod p_j^e)$  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  $e_{t,j} := e_{t,j} + 1$   $f_t := \frac{f_t}{p_j}$
- (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 \ even \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 \quad 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 \quad n \equiv 4 \pmod{7} \quad 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 linear 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 Systems of equations

# 2.6 Linear Algebra

Tasks:

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

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

 $GL_n(K)$  = field of  $n \times n$  matrices

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  $O\left(\max\{m,n\}^3\right)$  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:
  - $\leq 1$  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  $n \cos t \le \frac{8}{3}n^3 \frac{3}{2}n^2 + \frac{5}{6}n \in O(n^3)$
- (c) reduced to (a)

# (d) obvious

# Strassen-multiplication

let 
$$A, B \in K^{2n \times 2n}$$
 Write:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} B = \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{pmatrix}$  with  $A_{ij}$   $B_{ij} \in K^{n \times n}$ 

Then 
$$A \cdot B = \begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$
 with  $C_{ij} = A_{i1}B_{aj} + A_{i2}B_{2j} \rightarrow 8$  multiplications.

Set:

$$M_1 := (A_{12} - A_{22}) \cdot (B_{21} + B_{22})$$

$$M_2 := (A_{11} + A_{22}) \cdot (B_{11} + B_{22})$$

$$M_3 := (A_{11} - A_{21}) \cdot (B_{11} + B_{12})$$

$$M_4 := (A_{11} + A_{12}) \cdot B_{22}$$

$$M_5 := A_{11} \cdot (B_{12} - B_{22})$$

$$M_6 := A_{22} \cdot (B_{21} - B_{11})$$

$$M_7 := (A_{21} + A_{22}) \cdot B_{11}$$

Then:

$$C_{11} = M_1 + M_2 - M_4 + M_6$$

$$C_{12} = M_4 + M_5$$

$$C_{21} = M_6 + M_7$$

$$C_{22} = M_2 - M_3 + M_5 - M_7$$

 $\rightarrow$  7 Multiplications!

# 2.6.2 Algorithm 2 (Strassen-multiplication)

Input :  $A \in K^{m \times n} B \in K^{n \times l}$ 

Output:  $A, B \in K^{m \times l}$ 

(1) Let k be minimal such that  $m, n, l \leq 2^k$ 

(2) if 
$$(k = 0)$$
  $//(\Leftrightarrow A, B \in K^{1 \times 1})$  return  $A \cdot B$ 

(3) Enlarge A,B by adding zeros such that  $A,B\in K^{2^k\times 2^k}$ 

(4) write 
$$A \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$
,  $B \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{pmatrix}$  with  $A_{ij}B_{ij} \in K^{2^{k-1} \times 2^{k-1}}$ 

(5) compute  $M_1...M_7$  as above, do multiplications by recursive call

(6) compute 
$$A \cdot B = \begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$
 by above formulas

(7) Output: the upper left  $m \times l$  - part of  $A \cdot B$ 

# 2.6.3 Theorem 3 (Running time of Algorithm 2)

If  $m, n, l \leq r$  Algorithm 3 requires  $O(r^{\lg(7)})$  field operations

#### **Proof:**

Set  $\Theta(k)$  = number of field operations.

Step 5: 
$$7 \cdot \Theta(k-1) + 10 \cdot (2^{k-1})^2$$

Step 6:  $8 \cdot (2^{k-1})^2$ 

Obtain:

$$\Theta(k) = 7\Theta(k-1) + 18 \cdot 4^{k-1} \tag{*}$$

Claim:  $\Theta(k) = 7^{k+1} - 6 \cdot 4^k$ 

Induction on k

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

$$k-1 \to k : \Theta(k) = 7\Theta(k-1) + 18 \cdot 4^{k-1}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \kappa - 1 \rightarrow \kappa : \Theta(\kappa) = I\Theta(\kappa - 1) + 18 \\ = 7(7^k - 6 \cdot 4^{k-1}) + 18 \cdot 4^{k-1} \\ induction \end{array}$$

$$= 7^{k+1} - 4 \cdot 6 \cdot 4^{k-1} \qquad \checkmark$$

Have 
$$2^{k-1} < r \Rightarrow k < \lg(r) + 1 \Rightarrow \Theta(k) < 7^{\lg(r)+2} = 49 \cdot 2^{\lg(7) \cdot \lg(r)} = 49^{\lg(17)}$$

# Remarks:

- (a)  $\lg(7) = 2.8074...$
- (b) Coppersmith-Winograd:  $O(r^{2.3754...})$  Improved by Stothes (2010), Williams(2011), Le Gall(2014):  $O(r^{2.3729...})$
- (c) The cost of the best possible algorithm is unknown, even for r=3

Let  $M: \mathbb{N}_{>0} \mapsto R_{>0}$  be a function such that two matrices in  $K^{n\times n}$  can be multiplied in  $\leq M(n)$  field operations. Assume  $\exists \epsilon > 0 : \forall n :$ 

$$2^{2+\epsilon}M(n) \le M(2n) \le 8 \cdot M(n) \tag{1}$$

**Example:**  $M(n) = 49 \cdot n^{\lg(7)}$ 

Recall:  $A = (a_{ij})$  is upper (lower) triangular  $\Leftrightarrow a_{ij} = 0$  for i > j (i < j)

# 2.6.4 Proposition 4 (Complexity of matrix inversion)

An upper or lower triangular matrix  $A \in GL_n(K)$  can be inverted in O(M(n)) field

### **Proof:**

Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  be minimal such that

write 
$$B = \begin{pmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & I_{2^k-n} \end{pmatrix} \in GL_{2^k}(K) \Rightarrow B^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} A^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & I_{2^k-n} \end{pmatrix}$$
  
Assume  $B$  upper triangular:

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ 0 & B_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad B_{11}, B_{22} \in GL_{2^{k-1}}(K), B_{12} \in K^{2^{k-1} \times 2^{k-1}}$$

$$B^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} B_{11}^{-1} & -B_{11}^{-1} \cdot B_{12} \cdot B_{22}^{-1} \\ 0 & B_{22}^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

Let  $\Theta(k)$  = computation cost for inversion depending on k.

$$\Theta(k) \le 2 \cdot \Theta(k-1) + 2 \cdot M(2^{k-1}) \le 2 \cdot \Theta(k-1) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot M(2^k) \tag{**}$$

Claim: 
$$\Theta(k) \leq 2^k + M(2^k)$$
  
 $k = 0 : \Theta(k) = 1$   $\checkmark$   
 $k - 1 \rightarrow k : \Theta(k) \leq 2 \cdot \Theta(k - 1) + \frac{1}{2}M(2^k) \leq 2(2^{k-1} + M(2^{k-1})) + \frac{1}{2}M(2^k) \leq 2(2^{k-1} + M(2^{k-1})) + \frac{1}{2}M(2^k) \leq 2(2^k + \frac{1}{2}M(2^k) + \frac{1}{2}M(2^k))$   $\checkmark$   
Have  $n > 2^{k-1} \Rightarrow k < \lg(n) + 1 \Rightarrow \Theta(k) < 2 \cdot n + M(2n) \leq 2 \cdot n + 8 \cdot M(n)$ 

**Project:** Reduce (most) tasks of linear algebra to multiplication.

The following algorithm transforms a matrix such that all tasks become easy.

# 2.6.5 Algorithm 5 (Transforming a matrix)

Input :  $A \in K^{m \times n}$ 

Output: Matrices L, Q, P, Usuch that:  $LQAP = \begin{bmatrix} U \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} r \quad (\leftarrow \text{ in row-echelon form}) \in K^{m \times n}$ 

- $L \in K^{m \times m}$  lower triangular with 1's on the diagonal
- $Q \in K^{m \times m}$   $P \in K^{n \times n}$  permutation matrices
- $U \in K^{m \times m}$  upper triangular with non-zero diagonal entries (r = 0 if A = 0)
- If r = m then  $Q = I_m$

(1) if 
$$(A = (0...0))$$
  
return  $L = Q = (1)$   $P = I_n$   $r = 0$ 

(2) if 
$$(A = (a_1, ..., a_n))$$

let *i* be minimal with  $a_i \neq 0$  P := matrix exchanging 1st and i-th position in Areturn L = Q = (1) P  $U = A \cdot P$ 

(3) let 
$$m_1 = \lfloor \frac{m}{2} \rfloor$$
  $m_2 = \lceil \frac{m}{2} \rceil$  write  $A = \begin{bmatrix} B \\ C \end{bmatrix}_{m_2}^{m_1} B \in K^{m_1 \times n} C \in K^{m_2 \times n}$ 

(4) Applying the algorithm recursively on B

obtain 
$$L_1 \cdot Q_1 \cdot B \cdot P = \boxed{\begin{array}{c} U_1 \\ 0 \\ n \end{array}} \begin{array}{c} r_1 \\ m_1 - r_1 \end{array}$$
 with  $U_1 \in K^{r_1 \times n}$ 

(5) write 
$$L_1 = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline L_t & 0 & r_1 & Q_1 = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline Q_t & r_1 & & U_1 = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline E & U_1' & r_1 \\ \hline r_1 & m_1 - r_1 & & m_1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$
 form  $D := C \cdot P_1 = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline F & D' & m_2 \\ \hline \hline r_1 & n - r_1 \\ \hline \end{array}$  and  $G := D' - FE^{-1}U' \in K^{m_2 \times (n-r_1)}$ 

(6) Apply the algorithm recursively to G:

$$L_2 \cdot Q_2 \cdot G \cdot P_2 = \boxed{\begin{array}{c} U_2 \\ 0 \\ n-r_1 \end{array}} \begin{array}{c} r_2 \\ m_2 - r_2 \end{array}$$

(7) return

$$L := \begin{bmatrix} r_1 & m_2 & m_2 - r_1 \\ L_t & 0 & 0 \\ -L_2Q_2FE^{-1}L_t & L_2 & 0 \\ L_l & 0 & L_r \end{bmatrix} r_1$$

$$Q := \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & q_2 \\ Q_t & 0 \\ 0 & Q_2 \\ Q_b & 0 \end{bmatrix} r_1$$

$$Q := \begin{bmatrix} r_1 & m-r_1 \\ I_{r_1} & 0 \\ 0 & P_2 \end{bmatrix} r_1$$

$$U := \begin{bmatrix} r_1 & n-r_1 \\ E & U_1'P_2 \\ 0 & U_2 \end{bmatrix} r - 1$$

# 2.6.6 Theorem 6 (Correctness and running time of Algorithm 5)

Algorithm 5 is correct and requires  $O((\frac{n}{m}+1)\cdot M(m))$  field operations

#### **Proof:**

Correctness by induction on m

$$m=1$$

m > 1:

 $m_1, m_2 < m$  so recursive calls are correct by induction.

By step (7) L, Q, P, U have desired form.

Compute:

Compute: 
$$LQAP = \begin{bmatrix} m_1 & m_2 \\ L_tQ_t & 0 \\ -L_2Q_2FE^{-1}L_tQ_t & L_2Q_2 \\ L_lQ_t + L_rQ_b & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ m_2 \\ m_1 - r_1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} B \cdot P_1 \\ D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} m_1 \\ m_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} I_{r_1} & 0 \\ 0 & P_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ n - r_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_1 \\ U_2Q_2(-FE^{-1}U_1 + D) \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ m_2 \\ m_1 - r_1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} I_{r_1} & 0 \\ 0 & P_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ n - r_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ r_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ r_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ r_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} U_1 \\ U_2Q_2(-FE^{-1}U_1 + D) \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ m_2 \\ m_1 - r_1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} I_{r_1} & 0 \\ 0 & P_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ n - r_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} r_1 & n - r_1 \\ E & U'_1 \\ 0 & L_2 Q_2 G \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ m_2 \\ m_1 - r_1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} I_{r_1} & 0 \\ 0 & P_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r_1 & n - r_1 \\ E & U'_1 P_2 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ r_2 \\ m_2 \cdot r_2 \\ m_2 \cdot r \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} U \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Suppose  $r = m \Rightarrow r_1 = m_1$   $r_2 = m_2 \Rightarrow Q_1 = I_{m_2}$ 

### Cost:

Fix  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and set  $\Theta(k) := \text{maximal cost for a matrix } A \in K^{m \times n'} \text{ with } m \leq 2^k \quad n' \leq n$ Choose  $A \in K^{m \times n'}$  with cost  $= \Theta(k)$ 

Step(4) and (6):  $\leq \Theta(k-1)$  each

Step(5):  $E^{-1}$ : by Proposition 4:  $O(M(r_1)) \leq O(M(2^{k-1}))$ 

 $F \cdot E^{-1} :\leq M(2^{k-1})$ 

 $F \cdot E^{-1} \cdot U'$ : at most the cost of multiplying a  $2^{k1} \times 2^{k-1}$  matrix by a  $2^{k-1} \times n$  matrix. Split right matrix into square parts.

$$\Rightarrow \cot \leq \left\lceil \frac{n}{2^{k-1}} \right\rceil \cdot M(2^{k-1}) \leq (2^{1-k} \cdot n + 1) \cdot M(2^{k-1})$$

$$\Rightarrow \cot \leq \lceil \frac{n}{2^{k-1}} \rceil \cdot M(2^{k-1}) \leq (2^{1-k} \cdot n + 1) \cdot M(2^{k-1})$$
G: subtraction:  $m_2 \cdot (n - r_1) \leq 2^{k-1} \cdot n \leq 2^{1-k} \cdot n \cdot M(2^{k-1})$ 

Step (7):  $F \cdot E^{-1}$  already computed,  $L_2Q_2$ : permuting rows. Cost:  $\leq 2 \cdot M(2^{k-1})$ 

Obtain:  $\Theta(k) \le 2 \cdot \Theta(k-1) + (2^{-k} \cdot n + c) \cdot M(2^k)$  c constant

From this obtain by induction:

$$\Theta(k) \le \left(2^{-k} \cdot n \cdot \frac{1 - 2^{-k\epsilon}}{1 - 2^{-\epsilon}} + 2 \cdot c \cdot (1 - 2^{-k})\right) \cdot M(2^k) \le \left(\frac{1}{1 - 2^{-\epsilon}} \cdot \frac{n}{2^k} + 2c\right) \cdot M(2^l)$$

Finally obtain: Cost  $\leq 8 \cdot \max \left\{ \frac{1}{1 - 2^{-\epsilon}}, c \right\} \cdot \left( \frac{n}{m} + 1 \right) \cdot M(m)$ 

$$\begin{bmatrix} U \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 is in row echelon form. It's convenient to write  $U = \begin{bmatrix} E & U' \end{bmatrix}$   $r$   $U' \in K^{r \times (n-r)}$ 

Also write 
$$L = \begin{bmatrix} m \\ L_1 \\ L_2 \end{bmatrix} {r \atop m-r}$$

# 2.6.7 Theorem 7 (Benefit of matrices of Algorithm 5)

(a) 
$$rk(A) = r$$

(b) The columns of 
$$P \cdot \begin{bmatrix} u-r \\ E^{-1} \cdot U' \\ -I_{n-r} \end{bmatrix}$$
 form a basis of  $ker(A)$ 

(c) A linear system 
$$Ax = b$$
  $b \in K^m$  is solvable iff  $L_2Q \cdot b = 0$ 

(d) if 
$$Ax = b$$
 is solvable then  $x = P \cdot \begin{bmatrix} E^{-1}L_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}_{n-r}^r \cdot Q \cdot b$  is a solution

(e) if 
$$A \in GL_n(K)$$
 then  $\det(A) = \det(P) \cdot \underbrace{\det(E)}_{\text{=prod of diags}}$   
and  $A^{-1} = P \cdot E^{-1} \cdot L$ 

# **Proof:**

(a), (e) : 
$$\checkmark$$

(a), (e): 
$$\checkmark$$
  
(b):  $LQAP\begin{bmatrix} E^{-1} \cdot U' \\ -I_{n-r} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} E & U' \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} E^{-1} \cdot U' \\ -I_{n-r} \end{bmatrix} = 0$ 
 $\Rightarrow$  the columns lie in  $ker(A)$ 

$$\Rightarrow$$
 the columns lie in  $ker(A)$ 

The columns of  $\frac{E^{-1} \cdot U'}{-I_{n-r}}$  are linear independent.  $\Rightarrow rk(P \cdot \frac{E^{-1} \cdot U'}{-I_{n-r}}) = n - r$ 

$$\Rightarrow rk(P \cdot \boxed{\frac{E^{-1} \cdot U'}{-I_{n-r}}}) = n - r$$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 the columns form a basis

The space they generate has dimension n-r = dim(ker(A))

(c), (d): If 
$$A \cdot x = b$$
 then  $C = \begin{bmatrix} E & U' \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot P^{-1} \cdot x = LQb = \begin{bmatrix} L_1Qb \\ L_2Qb \end{bmatrix}$ 

$$\Rightarrow L_2Qb = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow L_2Qb = 0$$
if  $L_2Qb = 0$  then  $A \cdot P \cdot \begin{bmatrix} E^{-1} \cdot L_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot Q \cdot b = Q^{-1} \cdot L^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} E & U' \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} E^{-1} \cdot L_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot Qb = Q^{-1} \cdot L^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} L_1 \\ L_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot Q \cdot b = D$ 

# 2.6.8 Corollary 8 (Complexity of benefits)

For  $A \in K^{m \times n}$  the determination of rk(A) and solving linear systems with coefficient matrix A require  $O((\frac{n}{m}+1)\cdot M(m))$  field operations.

If  $A \in K^{n \times n}$  then computing  $\det(A)$  and  $A^{-1}$  (if  $A \in GL_n(K)$ ) require O(M(n)) field operations.

From 
$$LQAP = \boxed{\begin{array}{c} U \\ 0 \end{array}}$$
 get  $A = Q^{-1} \cdot \underbrace{\begin{array}{c} L^{-1} \\ 0 \end{array}}_{\text{lower triangular}} \boxed{\begin{array}{c} U \\ 0 \end{array}} \cdot P^{-1}$  Generally  $Q = I_m \Rightarrow A = L^{-1} \cdot \boxed{\begin{array}{c} U \\ 0 \end{array}} P^{-1}$  "LUP decomposition" If also  $P = I_n$  obtain  $A = L^{-1} \cdot \boxed{\begin{array}{c} U \\ 0 \end{array}}$  "LU decomposition"

# 2.7 Algebraic Systems of Equations, Gröbner bases

Given:  $f_1...f_m \in K[x_1...x_n]$  multivariate polynomials. Wanted: solution set of the algebraic system  $f_1 = f_2 = ... = f_m = 0$ The solution set  $\mathcal{V}(f_1...f_m) \subseteq K^n$  is called an affine variety. Often assume  $K = \bar{K}$  K algebraically closed (e.g.  $K = \mathbb{C}$ ) Questions:

1. 
$$\mathcal{V}(f_1...f_m) \neq \emptyset$$
?

2. 
$$|\mathcal{V}(f_1...f_m)| < \infty$$
?

3. dim 
$$\mathcal{V}(f_1...f_m) = ?$$

# **Examples:**

(1) 
$$f_1 = x_1 x_3 x_4^2 - 2x_2 x_4^2 + x_1 x_3 - 2x_2$$
  
 $f_2 = x_1 x_3 x_4 - 2x_2 x_4 - 1$   
 $f_3 = x_1 x_4^2 + x_1 + 2$   
One has  $(-x_1 x_4) \cdot f_1 + (x_1 x_4^2 + x_1 9 f_2 + f_3) = 2$   
 $\Rightarrow \mathcal{V}(f_1 \dots f_3) = \emptyset$ 

(2) 
$$f_1 = x^3 + x^2y + xy + y^2$$
  
 $f_2 = x^2y^2 + x^2 + y^3 + y$   
 $f_3 = x^3 + xy$   
 $(x^2 + y) | f_i \quad \forall i = 1, 2, 3 \Rightarrow |\mathcal{V}(f_1, f_2, f_3)| = \infty$ 

### Univariate case (n=1):

K[x] Euclidean so have Euclidean algorithm for computing gcd(f,g). gcd is unique if required to be monic (i.e. the highest coefficient is 1)

Also get  $h_1, h_2 \in K[x]$  such that  $gcd(f, g) = h_1 f + h_2 g$ Let  $f_1...f_m \in K[x]$  Obtain

$$g := \gcd(f_1...f_m) = \sum_{i=1}^n h_i \cdot f_i \quad \text{with } h_i \in K[x]$$
 (\*)

For  $\xi \in K$ :

 $\Rightarrow$  Only need to get zeros of one polynomial!

#### Resultant method:

Reminder: For  $f, g \in K[x] : \gcd(f, g) \neq 1 \Leftrightarrow res(f, g) = 0$ 

Let 
$$f_1, f_2 \in K[x_1...x_n]$$
  
 $(\xi_1...\xi_{n-1}) \in K^{n-1}$  assume  $K = \bar{K}$ 

Then  $\exists \xi_n \in K \text{ such that } f_1(\xi_1...\xi_n) = 0 = f_2(\xi_1...\xi_n)$ 

$$\Leftrightarrow res_{x_n}(f_1(\xi_1...\xi_{n-1},x_n)), f_2(\xi_1...\xi_{n-1},x_n)) = 0$$

Suppose  $\deg_{x_n} f_1(\xi_1...\xi_{n-1}, x_n) = \deg_{x_n} (f_i)$ 

Set 
$$h = res_{x_n}(f_1, f_2) \in K[x_1...x_{n-1}]$$

Then  $res_{x_n} f_1(\xi_1...\xi_{n-1}, x_n), f_2(\xi_1...\xi_{n-1}, x_n)) = h(\xi_1...\xi_{n-1})$ 

Search zeros of  $h \to \text{one variable}$ , one equation fewer.

Limitation: Only for pairs of polynomials (m=2).

Good case: m = n = 2

Given  $f_1...f_m \in K[x_1...x_n]$  form the ideal

$$I = (f_1...f_m) = \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{n} g_i f_i \mid g_i \in K[x_1...x_n] \right\}$$

Clearly  $\mathcal{V}(I) = \mathcal{V}(f_1...f_m)$ 

 $f_1...f_m$  are called a ideal basis of I. They are not unique, not even their size is unique.

#### Example:

In Example (1) I has an alternative basis I = (1) $\leftarrow$  constant polynomial  $1 \in K[x_1...x_4]$ 

In Example (2) it turns out that  $I = (x^2 + y)$ 

### 2.7.1 Theorem 1 (Hilbert's Nullstellensatz)

# Hilbert's Nullstellensatz (1st version):

Assume  $K = \overline{K}$  let  $I \subseteq K[x_1...x_n]$  be an ideal

Then 
$$\mathcal{V}(I) = \emptyset \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad 1 \in I$$

$$(\Leftrightarrow I = K[x_1...x_n] \Leftrightarrow I = (1))$$

without proof.

For  $I \subseteq R$  ideal in a commutative ring R the radical ideal of I is

$$\sqrt{I} = \{ a \in R \mid \exists n \in \mathbb{N} : a^n \in I \}$$

I is called a radical ideal if  $I = \sqrt{I}$ 

Let  $S \subseteq K^n$  set of points

$$\Rightarrow Id(S) := \{ f \in K[\underline{x}] \mid f(v) = 0 \ \forall v \in S \} \subseteq K[\underline{x}]$$

where  $K[\underline{x}] := K[x_1, ..., x_n]$  and Id(S) is a radical ideal (called vanishing ideal)

# Hilbert's Nullstellensatz (2nd version):

Let 
$$K = \overline{K}$$
  $I \subseteq K[\underline{x}]$  ideal. Then  $\sqrt{I} = Id(\mathcal{V}(I))$ 

Obtain bijection: {radical ideals in K[x]}  $\Leftrightarrow$  {affine varieties} This bijection is inclusion-reversing.

### Monomial orderings:

# 2.7.2 Definition 2 (Monomial, monomial ordering, LM, LT, LC)

A monomial is a polynomial of the form  $t=x_1^{e_1}\cdot x_2^{e_2},...,x_n^{e_n}=:\underline{x}^{\underline{e}}$ where  $e_i \in \mathbb{N}$ t monomial,  $c \in K \setminus \{0\}$ A term is a polynomial of the form  $c \cdot t$ 

M := set of all monomials.

For  $f \in K[\underline{x}]$ ; M(f) := set of all monomials occurring in f.

 $T(f) := \text{set of all terms } \dots$ 

A monomial ordering is an ordering (= order relation) "  $\leq$ " on M such that:

- 1. "  $\leq$ " is total i.e.  $\forall s, t \in M : s \leq t \lor t \leq s$
- 2.  $1 \le t \quad \forall t \in M$
- 3.  $\forall s, t_1, t_2 \in M : t_1 \leq t_2 \Rightarrow s \cdot t_1 \leq s \cdot t_2$

(This implies:  $s \mid t \Rightarrow s \leq t$ )

For  $f \in K[\underline{x}] \setminus \{0\}$  we write

LM(f) =: t for the largest monomial in M(f) ("leading monomial"),

 $LT(f) =: c \cdot t$  for the largest term if t is in f ("leading term")

LC(f) =: c ("leading coefficient")

LM(0) = LT(0) = LC(0) = 0

**Example 1:** Lexicographic ordering (lex) for 
$$t = x_1^{e_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_n^{e_n}$$
  $t' = x_1^{e'_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_n^{e'_n}$  define  $t \leq t' \Leftarrow t = t' \lor e_i < e'_i$  for the smallest  $i$  with  $e_i \neq e'_i$ 

# Example 2: graded reverse lexicographic ordering (grevlex)

$$t \leq t' \Leftarrow \quad t = t' \ \lor \ \deg(t) < \deg(t') \ \lor \ (\deg(t) = \deg(t') \ \land \ e_i > e_i')$$

for the largest i such that  $e_i \neq e'_i$ 

where  $deg(t) := \sum e_i$ 

For both lex and grevlex have

$$x_1 > x_2 > \dots > x_n$$
 but  $x_1 \cdot x_3 >_{\text{lex}} x_2^2$ 

$$x_1 > x_2 > ... > x_n$$
 but  $x_1 \cdot x_3 <_{\text{grevlex}} x_2^2$ 

# 2.7.3 Proposition 3 (Sum and product of LM / LT)

Let "  $\leq$  " be a monomial ordering  $f, g \in K[x] \Rightarrow$ 

- (a)  $LT(f \cdot g) = LT(f) \cdot LT(g)$  same for LM
- (b)  $LM(f+g) \leq \max\{LM(f), LM(g)\}$

#### **Proof:**

- (b) ✓
- (a) write  $c \cdot t = LT(f)$   $d \cdot s = LT(g)$ For  $t' \in M(f)$   $s' \in M(g)$  have  $\underbrace{t's' \leq t \cdot s' \leq t \cdot s}_{-2}$  with equality iff s' = s t' = tThis implies (a)

# 2.7.4 Lemma 4 (Dickson-Lemma)

Every subset  $S \subseteq M$  has a finite subset  $B \subseteq S$  ("basis") such that  $\forall s \in S \exists t \in B : t \mid s$ 

**Proof:** Identify M with  $\mathbb{N}^n$ 

Given  $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}^n$  need to show that:

 $\exists B \subseteq S, B \text{ finite such that } \forall (e_1, ..., e_n) \in S$ 

 $\exists (d_1,...,d_n) \in B \text{ such that } \forall i: d_i \leq e_i$ 

We will write  $(\underline{d}) \leq (\underline{e})$  for this. (This defines a partial ordering in  $\mathbb{N}^n$ )

Induction:

n=1: if  $\emptyset \neq S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  then  $\exists d \in S$  such that  $d \leq e \quad \forall e \in S$  ( $\mathbb{N}$  is well-ordered)

n > 1: For  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  write  $S_k := \{(e_2, ..., e_n) \in \mathbb{N}^{n-1} \mid (k, e_2, ..., e_n) \in S\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}^{n-1}$ 

By induction  $\exists B_k \subseteq S_k$  finite such that  $\forall (\underline{e}) \in S_k \quad \exists (\underline{d}) \in B_k$  such that  $(\underline{d}) \leq (\underline{e})$ 

 $\bigcup_{k\in\mathbb{N}} B_k \subseteq \mathbb{N}^{n-1} \text{ has finite "basis" } C$ 

$$C \text{ finite: } \exists r \in \mathbb{N} : C \subseteq \bigcup_{k=0}^{r} B_k$$
 
$$\text{From } B := \{(e_1, ..., e_n) \in \mathbb{N}^n \mid e_1 \leq r, (e_2, ..., e_n) \in B_{e_1}\} \Rightarrow |B| < \infty, B \subseteq S$$
 
$$(*)$$

Claim: B basis of S

Let  $(e_1,...,e_n) \in S \Rightarrow (e_2,...,e_n) \in S_{e_i} \Rightarrow \exists (d_2,...,d_n) \in B_{e_1}$  such that  $d_i \leq e_i \quad \forall i \geq 2$ 

Case 1:  $e_i \leq r$ 

 $\Rightarrow$   $(e_1, d_2, ..., d_n) \in B$  have  $(e_1, d_2, ..., d_n) \le (e_1, ...e_n)$ 

Case 2:  $e_i > r$ 

Be<sub>i</sub> 
$$\subseteq \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} B_k \Rightarrow \exists (c_2, ..., c_n) \in C \text{ such that } c_i \leq d_i \quad \forall i \geq 2$$

By  $(*)\exists k \leq r : (\underline{c}) \in B_k \Rightarrow (k, c_2, ..., c_n) \in B$ 

 $(k, c_2, ..., c_n) \le (e_1, d_2, ..., d_n) \le (e_1, e_2, ..., e_n)$ 

# 2.7.5 Corollary 5 (Well-ordering of monomial sets)

Every monomial ordering is a well-ordering i.e. every monomial set  $S \subseteq M$  has an element  $t \in S$  such that  $\forall s \in S : t \leq s$  (t is a "least element")

### **Proof:**

Let  $\emptyset \neq S \subseteq M$ . By Lemma  $4 \exists B \subseteq S$  finite such that  $\forall s \in S' \quad \exists t \in B : t \mid s$ Since "  $\leq$  " is total and B is finite  $\exists t \in B$  least element. Let  $s \in S \Rightarrow \exists t' \in B$  such that  $t' \mid s \Rightarrow t' \leq s$  so  $t \leq t' \leq s$ 

**Gröbner bases:** Let "  $\leq$  " be a fixed monomial ordering

# 2.7.6 Definition 6 (Leading ideal, Gröbner bases)

- (a) For  $S \in K[x]$  subset define  $L(S) := (LM(f) \mid f \in S) \subseteq K[x]$ (ideal generated by all leading monomials of elements of S) is called the leading ideal
- (b) Let  $I \subseteq K[\underline{x}]$  ideal. A finite subset  $G \subseteq I$  is called a Gröbner basis if L(I) = L(G)i.e.  $\forall f \in I \ \exists g \in G : LM(g)|LM(f)$

# 2.7.7 Proposition 7 (Ideality of Gröbner bases)

G Gröbner basis of  $I \Rightarrow I = (G)$  i.e. G is an ideal basis.

**Proof:**  $G \subseteq I \Rightarrow (G) \subseteq I$ 

Assume this inclusion is strict. Let  $f \in I \setminus (G)$ 

By Corollary 5 may assume LM(f) is minimal

(among all leading monomials of elements from  $I\setminus (G)$ )

$$LM(f) \in L(I) = L(G) \Rightarrow \exists g \in G : LM(g) \mid LM(f)$$

Form 
$$\tilde{f} = f - \frac{LT(f)}{LT(g)}g, \tilde{f} \in I \Rightarrow LM(\tilde{f}) < LM(f)$$

Form  $\tilde{f} = f - \frac{LT(f)}{LT(g)}g$ ,  $\tilde{f} \in I \Rightarrow LM(\tilde{f}) < LM(f)$ by minimality  $\tilde{f} \in (G) \Rightarrow f = \tilde{f} + \frac{LT(f)}{LT(g)}g \in (G)$  contradiction! 

$$G \subseteq I$$
  $L(G) = L(I)$   $\Rightarrow I = (G)$ 

### Example:

 $I = (1) \in K[x]$   $S = \{x + 1, x\}$  ideal basis but  $L(S) = (x) \neq L(I) = (1)$ S is not a Gröbner basis.

### 2.7.8 Theorem 8 (Gröbner basis of Ideals)

Every ideal  $I \subseteq K[x]$  has a Gröbner basis. In particular I has a finite basis ( $\rightarrow$  Hilbert's basis theorem) In other words K[x] is Noetherian.

### **Proof:**

For  $\{LM(f) \mid f \in I\}$  there exists (by Dickson lemma) a finite subset  $\{LM(f_1), ..., LM(f_m)\}, f_i \in$ I such that  $(LM(f_1)...LM(f_m)) = L(I) \Rightarrow G = \{f_1...f_m\}$ 

Gröbner basis

First application: Let G Gröbner basis of I

Then  $\mathcal{V}(I) = \emptyset \underset{K = \bar{K}}{\Leftrightarrow} 1 \in I \Leftrightarrow G$  contains a non-zero constant.

# 2.7.9 Definition 9 (Normal form)

Let  $S = \{g_1...g_m\} \subseteq K[x] \quad f \in K[x]$ 

- (a) f is a normal form with respect to S if  $\forall t \in M(f) \quad \forall i = 1...m : LM(g_i) \nmid t$
- (b)  $f^* \in K[x]$  is called a normal form of f with respect to S if
  - (i)  $f^*$  is in normal form with respect to S
  - (ii)  $\exists h_1...h_m \in K[x]$  such that  $f f^* = \sum_{i=1}^m h_i g_i$  and  $\forall i : LM(h_i g_i) \leq LM(f)$

# Example:

 $S = \{x, x+1\}$   $f = 1 \Rightarrow f \equiv 0 \pmod{(S)}$  but 0 is not a normal form of f

If f = x then 0 an -1 are normal forms of x

# 2.7.10 Algorithm 10 (Normal form)

Input :  $S = \{g_1...g_m\} \subseteq K[x]$   $f \in K[x]$ 

Output: A normal form  $f^*$  of f with respect to S and if desired  $h_1...h_m$  satisfying (\*)

- (1) Set  $f^* := f$ for (i = 1...m) $h_i := 0$
- (2) repeat (3) (6)
- (3)  $\mathcal{M} := \{(t,i) \mid t \in M(f^*), i \in \{1,...,m\} \text{ such that } LM(g_i) \mid t\}$
- (4) if  $(\mathcal{M} = \emptyset)$  return  $f^*$  and h
- (5) Choose  $(t, i) \in \mathcal{M}$  such that t is maximal. let  $c \in K$  be the coefficient of t in  $f^*$
- (6) Set  $f^* := f^* \frac{c \cdot t}{LT(g_i)} \cdot g_i$  $h_i := h_i + \frac{c \cdot t}{LT(g_i)}$

Step (6) cancels the term  $c \cdot t$  from  $f^*$  and may add only monomials smaller than t. So the t's form a strictly descending sequence of monomials  $\underset{\text{Cor } 5}{\Rightarrow}$  Algorithm 10 terminates.

Correctness ✓

# 2.7.11 Theorem 11 (Normal form of Gröbner bases)

Let  $G \subseteq K[x]$  be a Gröbner basis of an ideal  $I \subseteq K[x]$ 

- (a) Every polynomial  $f \in K[x]$  has a unique normal form with respect to G. Write  $NF_G(f)$
- (b)  $NF_G: K[\underline{x}] \mapsto K[\underline{x}]$  is K-linear,  $ker(NF_G) = I$
- (c) if  $\tilde{G}\subseteq K[x]$  is another Gröbner basis (with respect to same monomial ordering) then  $NF_G=NF_{\tilde{G}}$

### **Proof:**

(a), (c):

Let  $f \in K[x]$   $f^*, \tilde{f} \in K[x]$  be normal forms of f with respect to G and  $\tilde{G}$  respectively. Claim:  $f^* = \tilde{f}$ 

 $f^* - f \in I, \quad \tilde{f} - f \in I \Rightarrow f^* - \tilde{f} \in I \Rightarrow LM(f^* - \tilde{f}) \in L(G) \in L(\tilde{G})$ 

if  $f^* \neq \tilde{f} \Rightarrow LM(f^* - \tilde{f}) \in M(f^*)$  or  $\in M(\tilde{f})$ 

But  $\exists g \in G : LM(g) \mid LM(f^* - \tilde{f}), \quad \exists \tilde{g} \in \tilde{G} : LM(\tilde{g}) \mid LM(f^* - \tilde{f})$ 

This is a contradiction to:

 $f^*$  is in normal form with respect to G and

 $\tilde{f}$  is in normal form with respect to  $\tilde{G}$ 

So 
$$f^* = \tilde{f}$$

(b):

Let  $f, g \in K[\underline{x}]$   $c \in K$ . Set  $h := NF_G(f + cg) - NF_G(f) - c \cdot NF_G(g)$ 

To show:  $h \equiv 0$   $h \equiv f + cg - f - cg = 0 \pmod{I}$ 

$$\Rightarrow h \in I \Rightarrow LM(h) \in L(G)$$

h is in normal form with respect to G

 $\Rightarrow h = 0$ 

Remains to show:  $ker(NF_G) = I$ 

let  $NF_G(f) = 0 \Rightarrow f \equiv 0 \pmod{I} \Rightarrow f \in I$  conversely, let  $f \in I$ 

$$\Rightarrow f^* = NF_G(f) \in I \Rightarrow \exists g \in G : LM(s) \mid LM(f^*) f^* \text{ in normal form. So } f^* = 0$$

Further applications of Gröbner bases:

- Membership test:  $f \in I \Leftrightarrow NF_G(f) = 0$
- Computation in  $A := K[\underline{x}]/I : NF_G$  includes an embedding  $A \leftrightarrow K[\underline{x}]$

### Buchberger's Algorithm

# 2.7.12 Definition 12 (S-polynomials)

Let 
$$f, g \in K[\underline{x}] \setminus \{0\}$$
  $t := \gcd(LM(f), LM(g))$ 

Let  $f,g \in K[\underline{x}] \setminus \{0\}$   $t := \gcd(LM(f),LM(g))$ Then  $s_{pol}(f,g) := \frac{LT(g)}{t} \cdot f - \frac{LT(f)}{t} \cdot g$  is the S-polynomial.

The leading monomials of the summands cancel!

# Example:

Example:  

$$f = x^2 + y^2$$
,  $g = x \cdot y$  "  $\leq$  "  $= lex$   
 $\Rightarrow LM(f) = x^2 \quad LM(g)xy$   
 $s_{pol}(f,g) = y \cdot f - x \cdot y = y^3$ 

# 2.7.13 Theorem 13 (Buchberger's criterion)

For any finite set  $G \subseteq K[x]$  the following statements are equivalent:

- (a) G is a Gröbner basis of (G)
- (b) For polynomials  $g, h \in G$ , 0 is a normal form of  $s_{pol}(g, h)$  with respect to G  $\rightarrow$  finite test for Gröbner basis!

#### **Proof:**

"(a) 
$$\Rightarrow$$
 (b)":

For 
$$g, h \in G$$
:  $s_{pol}(g, h) \in (g, h) \subseteq (G) =: I \underset{\text{Theorem 13 (b)}}{\Rightarrow} s_{pol}(g, h)$  has normal form 0

$$\Leftrightarrow NF_G(s_{pol}(g,h)) = 0$$
  
"(a)  $\Leftarrow$  (b)":

Assume G is not a Gröbner basis 
$$\Rightarrow \exists f \in I \subset G \text{ such that } LM(f) \notin L(G)$$
.

Write 
$$G = \{g_1...g_m\}$$
. Since  $f \in (G) \ \exists h_1...h_m \in K[\underline{x}] \text{ have } f = \sum_{i=0}^m h_i \cdot g_i$  (1)

By Corollary 5 may choose  $h_i$  such that

 $t := \max\{LM(h_ig_i) \mid i = 1...m\}$  becomes minimal.

$$\exists i: LM(f) \in M(h_ig_i).$$
 Since  $LM(f) \notin L(G) \wedge LM(f) \neq LM(h_ig_i)$ 

$$\Rightarrow LM(f) < LM(h_ig_i) \leq t$$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 the coefficient of  $t$  in  $\sum h_i g_i$  is zero.

Set 
$$c_1 := \begin{cases} LC(h_i) & \text{if } LM(h_i g_i) = t \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 Then  $\sum_{i=1}^m c_i \cdot LC(g_i) = 0$  (2)

Without loss assume  $c_1 \neq 0$ 

Let  $i \in \{2, ..., m\}$  such that  $c_i \neq 0 \Rightarrow LM(g_i) \mid t$ 

So 
$$t_i = lcm(LM(g_i), LM(g_1) \mid t)$$

So 
$$t_i = lcm(LM(g_i), LM(g_1) \mid t)$$
  
Have  $s_{pol}(g_i, g_1) = \frac{LC(g_1) \cdot t_i}{LM(g_i)} g_i - \frac{LC(g_i) \cdot t_i}{LM(g_1)} g_1 \qquad LM(s_{pol}(g_i, g_1)) < 0$   
 $\Rightarrow s_i := \frac{t}{t_i} \cdot s_{pol}(g_i, g_1) = LC(g_1) \cdot LM(h_i) \cdot g_i - LC(g_i) \cdot LM(h_1) \cdot g_1$  (3)

By (b) have 
$$s_i = \sum_{j=1}^m h_{ij} \cdot g_j$$
 with  $h_{ij} \in K[\underline{x}]$  such that  $LM(h_i g_i) \le LM(s_i) < t$  (4)

$$\sum_{j=1}^{m} \left( \sum_{i=2}^{m} c_i \cdot h_{ij} \right) \cdot g_j = \sum_{i=2}^{m} c_i s_i$$

$$= \sum_{i=2}^{m} c_i \left( LC(g_1) LM(h_i) g_i - LC(g_i) LM(h_1) g_1 \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} c_i LM(h_1) g_1 LC(g_i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} c_i LC(g_1) LM(h_i) g_i$$

Set 
$$\tilde{h}_j := \frac{1}{LC(g_1)} \cdot \sum_{i=2}^m c_i h_{ij} \Rightarrow g := \sum_{i=1}^m c_i LM(h_i) g_i = \sum_{i=1}^m \tilde{h}_i g_i$$

For each i have:  $LM(\tilde{h}_ig_i) < t$ 

$$f = (f - g) + g = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_i - c_i LM(h_i))g_i + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \tilde{h}_i g_i$$

For each i have:  $LM((h_i - c_i LM(h_i))g_i) < t$  so  $LM((h_i - c_i LM(h_i) + \tilde{h}_i)g_1) < t$  contradiction to choice of  $h_i$ 

# 2.7.14 Algorithm 14 (Buchberger)

Input :  $S \subseteq K[\underline{x}]$  finite "  $\leq$  " monomial ordering

Output: A Gröbner basis G of I = (S) with respect to "  $\leq$ "

- (1)  $G := S \setminus \{0\}$
- (2) for  $g, h \in G$  repeat (3),(4)
- (3) Compute  $s := s_{pol}(g, h)$ and a normal form  $s^*$  of s with respect to G
- (4)  $if(s^* \neq 0)$ set  $G := G \cup \{s^*\}$ go to (2)
- (5) return G

### 2.7.15 Theorem 15 (Correctness of Algorithm 14)

Algorithm 14 terminates after finitely many steps and computes a Gröbner basis.

### **Proof:**

### Termination:

Let  $G_i$  be the set G obtained after the i-th run through the loop.  $G_1 \subseteq G_2 \subseteq G_3 \subseteq ...$ From  $\bar{G} = \bigcup G_i$  finite or infinite.

Lemma 4: 
$$\exists B \subseteq M$$
 finite set of monomials,  $B \subseteq \{LM(f) \mid f \in \bar{G}\}$  such that  $\forall f \in \bar{G} \quad \exists t \in B \text{ such that } t \mid LM(f)$  (\*) Since  $|B| < \infty \quad \exists r \text{ such that } B \subseteq \{LM(f) \mid f \in G_r\}$  Without loss  $B = \{LM(f) \mid f \in G_r\}$ 

Claim:  $G_r$  is the last of the GIf not  $\exists G_{r+1}: G_{r+1} = G_r \cup \{s^*\}$  $s^* \neq 0$  in normal form with respect to  $G_r$  But by  $(*) \exists f \in G_r$  such that  $LM(f) \mid LM(s^*)$ 

contradiction.

Correctness: by Theorem 13

Example:

$$S = \underbrace{\{x^2 + g^2, xy\}}_{f} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[x, y] \qquad \text{`` $\leq$ `` lex ordering with $x > y$}$$

$$s_{pol}(f, g) = yf - xg = y^3 =: h \text{ in normal form with respect to } S$$

$$G = \{f, g, h\}$$

$$s_{pol}(f, g) = h \xrightarrow{\text{normal form}} 0$$

$$s_{pol}(f, h) = y^3 f - x^2 h = y^5 \xrightarrow{\text{normal form}} 0$$

$$s_{pol}(g, h) = y^2 g - xh = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow G \text{ Gröbner basis}$$

### Cost of Buchberger algorithm:

- no known upper bound for the running time
- with  $d = \max\{deg(f) \mid f \in S\}$ :  $\underbrace{deg(g_i)}_{\text{polys from } G} \leq 2 \cdot \left(\frac{d^2}{2} + d\right)^{2^{n-1}}$ with n = number of Variables $\Rightarrow$  "Doubly exponential" in nRitscher (2011): upper bound for  $\deg(g_i)$  depending  $\dim(\underbrace{\mathcal{V}}_{\text{Variety}}(S))$
- Nonetheless the algorithm often works
- Many possible optimizations

Variant: Extended Buchberger:

Keep track of how the new elements in G are represented as linear combination of elements of S.

# 2.7.16 Definition 16 (Reduced Gröbner basis)

A Gröbner basis G is called reduced if  $\forall g \in G$ 

- (a) g is in normal form with respect to  $G \setminus \{g\}$
- (b) LC(g) = 1

A given Gröbner basis can be turned into a reduced only by replacing every  $g \in G$  by a normal form of g with respect to  $G \setminus \{g\}$ . Then remove  $0 \in G$ . Then divide each  $g \in G$  by LC(g)

# 2.7.17 Theorem 17 (Uniqueness of reduced Gröbner basis)

From ideal  $I \subseteq K[\underline{x}]$  and a monomial ordering "  $\leq$  ", there exists a unique reduced Gröbner basis.

# 2.8 Application of Gröbner bases

# 2.8.1 Definition 1 (Elimination ideals)

- (a)  $I \subseteq K[X_1,...X_n]$  ideal,  $l \in \{1,...,n\} \Rightarrow I_l := K[X_1,...,X_n]$  is called the l-length elimination ideal
- (b) A monomial ordering " $\leq$ " is called an l-elimination ordering if  $\forall 1 \leq i \leq l < j \leq n \ \forall k_i \ X_i^k < X_j$

### Example:

- (1) Let "  $\leq$  " be a given monomial ordering. Define "  $\leq$  " by: for  $s = \underline{x}^{\underline{d}}$   $t = \underline{x}^{\underline{e}}$  define  $s \leq' t \Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=l+1}^{n} d_i < \sum_{i=l+1}^{n} e_i$  or have equality  $\sum_{i=l+1}^{n} d_i = \sum_{i=l+1}^{n} e_i$  and  $s \leq t \Rightarrow$  "  $\leq$ " is an l-eliminating ordering.
- (2) The lexicographic ordering with  $x_1 < x_2 < ... < x_n$  is an l-eliminating ordering
- (3) Grevlex is not an l-eliminating ordering (unless l = n)

# 2.8.2 Theorem 2

Let G be a Gröbner basis of an ideal  $I \subseteq K[X_1,...,X_n]$  with respect to an l-elimination ordering. Then  $G_l := K[X_1, ..., X_n] \cap G$  is a Gröbner basis. I: l with respect to the restricted monomial ordering.

#### **Proof:**

$$G_l \subseteq I_l \text{ Let } f \in I_l \setminus \{0\} \quad f \in I$$

$$\Rightarrow \exists g \in G : LM(g) \mid LM(f)$$
To show:  $g \in G$ . Clearly  $LM(g) \in K[X_1, ..., X_l]$ 
If  $g \notin K[X_1, ..., X_n]$  then  $\exists t \in M(g)$  such that
$$X_j \mid t \text{ with } j > l \Rightarrow t \geq X_j \underset{\text{"e-"elim ord}}{>} LM(g) \text{ contradiction.}$$

Example: 
$$I = (\underbrace{X_1^2 + X_2^2}_{f}, \underbrace{x_1 x_2}_{g}), G = \{f, g, X^3\}$$
Cröbner basis with respect to low or

Gröbner basis with respect to lex ordering  $X_1 < X_2$  $I_1 = (X_1^3)$ 

# Geometric interpretation:

Let  $K = \bar{K}$  algebraically closed. On  $K^n$  define the Zariski topology.

By saying that the sets  $\mathcal{V}(I)$  with  $I \subseteq K[X_1,...,X_n]$  are the closed sets.

Why is this a topology?

Reminder: A topological space is a set X together with a system of subsets, called closed subsets, such that three axioms hold.

(1) 
$$\emptyset = \mathcal{V}(K[X_1, ..., X_n])$$
  $K^n \in \mathcal{V}(\{0\})$  closed

(2) Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a set of closed subsets corresponding to a set  $\mathcal{N}$  of ideals.

Then 
$$\bigcap_{I \in \mathcal{N}} \mathcal{V}(I) = \mathcal{V}\left(\sum_{I \in \mathcal{N}} I\right)$$
  $\checkmark$ 

(3) The union of two closed subsets is closed.

Let 
$$I, J \subseteq K[\underline{X}]$$
 ideals.

Claim: 
$$V(I) \cup V(J) = V(I \cap J)$$

**Proof:** "  $\subseteq$  " direction:

Let 
$$v \in \mathcal{V}(I) \cup \mathcal{V}(J)$$
  $f \in I \cap J$ 

If 
$$v \in \mathcal{V}(I)$$
 then  $f(v) = 0$ 

$$v \in \mathcal{V}(J)$$
 then  $f(v) = 0$ 

"  $\supseteq$  " direction:

Let 
$$v \in \mathcal{V}(I \cap J)$$
 Assume  $v \notin \mathcal{V}(I) \Rightarrow \exists f \in I : f(v) \neq 0$ 

Let 
$$g \in J \Rightarrow f \cdot g \in I \cap J \Rightarrow \underbrace{f(v)}_{\neq 0} \cdot g(v) = 0$$
  

$$\Rightarrow g(v) = 0 \qquad \text{So } v \in \mathcal{V}(J)$$

$$\Rightarrow g(v) = 0$$
 So  $v \in \mathcal{V}(J)$ 

All points in  $K^n$  are closed so are all finite subsets.

**Closures:** For  $X \subseteq K^n$  the closure  $\bar{X}$  is defined as the smallest closed subset containing X.  $\bar{X}$  is the variety of the largest ideal I such that  $X \subseteq \mathcal{V}(I)$  This ideal is I = Id(X). So  $\bar{X} = \mathcal{V}(Id(X))$ 

Let  $\Pi_l: K^n \mapsto K^l, (a_1, ..., a_n) \mapsto (a_1, ..., a_l)$  projection.

# 2.8.3 Theorem 3

$$I \subseteq K[X_1, ..., X_n] \Rightarrow \mathcal{V}(I_l) = \overline{\Pi_l(\mathcal{V}(I))}$$
**Proof:**
Let  $(a_1, ..., a_l) \in \Pi_l(\mathcal{V}(I)) \Rightarrow \exists n_{l+1} ... n_1 \in K \text{ such that } (a_1, ..., a_n) \in \mathcal{V}(I)$ 
Let  $f \in I_l \Rightarrow f \in I \Rightarrow f(a_1, ..., a_n) = 0$ 
But  $0 = (a_1, ..., a_n) = f((a_1, ..., a_l))$  So  $(a_1, ..., a_n) \in \mathcal{V}(I_l)$ 
So  $\Pi_l(\mathcal{V}(I)) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(I_l) \Rightarrow \overline{\Pi_l(\mathcal{V}(I))} \subseteq \mathcal{V}(I_l)$ .

To show:  $\mathcal{V}(I_l) \subseteq \overline{\Pi_l(\mathcal{V}(I_l))} \Rightarrow Id(\Pi_l(\mathcal{V}(I_l))) \subseteq \sqrt{I_l}$  Take  $f \in Id(\Pi_l(\mathcal{V}(I_l))) \Rightarrow f \in K[X_1, ..., X_l] \forall (a_1, ..., a_n) \in \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{I})$ .

 $f(a_1, ..., a_l) = f(a_1, ..., a_n) = 0 \Rightarrow f \in Id(\mathcal{V}(I)) = \sqrt{I} \Rightarrow \exists k : f^k \in I \cap K[X_1, ..., X_l] = I_l \Rightarrow f \in \sqrt{I_l}$ 

# Example:

(1) 
$$I = (xy - 1)$$
  
 $\Pi_1(\mathcal{V}(I)) = K \setminus \{0\}$  not closed.  $\overline{\Pi_1(\mathcal{V}(I))} = K.I_1 = \{0\}$ 

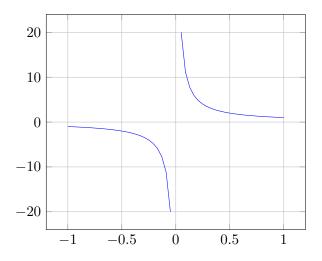


Figure 3: Plot of I in Example (1)

(2) 
$$I = (xy - 2x + y - 2, kx^2 - 4xy + y^2)$$
 has reduced lex Gröbner basis:  $\{x^2 - 2x + \frac{y^2}{4} + y - 2, xy - 2x + y - 2, (y - 2)(y + 2)^2\}$   $\Rightarrow I_1 = ((y - 2)(y + 2)^2)$   $\Rightarrow \overline{\Pi_1(\mathcal{V}(I))} = \{2, -2\}$   $\Rightarrow \Pi_1(\mathcal{V}(I)) = \{2, -2\}$  Substitute  $y = 2$ :  $x^2 - 2x + 1, 2x - 2x + 2 - 2 = 0$   $y = -2$ :  $x^2 - 2x - 3 = 0, -4x - 4 = 0$   $\Rightarrow \mathcal{V}(I) = \{(1, 2), (-1, -2)\}$ 

# 2.8.4 Algorithm 4 (Solving systems of algebraic equations)

Input :  $f_1, ..., f_m \in K[X_1, ..., X_n]$ 

Output:  $V(f_1,...,f_m)$  if finite otherwise " $\infty$ "

- (1) Compute a Gröbner basis of  $I = (f_1, ..., f_m)$  with respect to the lex ordering with  $X_1 < X_2 < ... < X_n$
- (2) for (l = 1, ...n) $\text{set } G_l := [X_1, ..., X_l] \cap G$
- (3)  $M := \{()\} \subset K^0$
- (4) for (l = 1, ..., n) repeat (5) (10)
- $S = \emptyset$ (5)
- for  $(a_1, ..., a_{l-1}) \in M$  repeat (7) (9) (6)
- $g := \gcd\{f(a_1, ..., a_{l-1} \mid f \in G_l)\}\$ (7)
- if (g = 0)(8)return " $\infty$ "
- $S := S \cup \{(a_1, ..., a_{l-1}, a_l) \mid g(a_l) = 0\}$ (9)
- (10)M := S
- (11) return M

# Intersections of ideals

# 2.8.5 Proposition 5

Let  $I, J \subseteq K[\underline{x}]$  ideals, y additional variable.

Form  $L \subseteq K[x_1,...,x_n,y]$  generated by  $I \cdot y$  and  $J \cdot (1-y)$  Then  $I \cap J = K[\underline{x}] \cap L$ (elimination ideal!)

### **Proof:**

Let 
$$f \in J \cap J \Rightarrow f = f \cdot y + f \cdot (1 - y) \in L \Rightarrow f \in K[\underline{x}] \cap L$$

Conversely let 
$$f \in K[\underline{x}] \cap L \Rightarrow f = \sum_{i=1}^{r} g_i f_i \cdot y_i + \sum_{i=1}^{m} g_i \cdot f_i (1-y)$$

with 
$$f_1, ..., f_r \in I$$
  $f_r + 1, ..., f_m \in J^{i=1}$   $g_i \in K[\underline{x}, y]^{i=1}$ 

Conversely let 
$$f \in K[\underline{x}] \cap L \Rightarrow f = \sum_{i=1}^{r} g_i f_i \cdot y_i + \sum_{i=r}^{m} g_i \cdot f_i (1-y)$$
 with  $f_1, ... f_r \in I$   $f_r + 1, ..., f_m \in J$   $g_i \in K[\underline{x}, y]$  Specialize  $y = 0 \Rightarrow f = \sum_{i=r}^{m} g_i (y = 0) f_i \in J$ 

Specialize 
$$y=1 \Rightarrow f=\sum_{i=r}^m g_i(y=1)f_i \in I$$
  
 $\Rightarrow f \in I \cap J$ 

#### Dimension

# 2.8.6 Definition 6 (independence modulo I)

```
Let I \subseteq K[\underline{x}] ideal. Then polynomials f_1, ..., f_r \in K[\underline{x}] are called independent modulo I if for every polynomial F \in K[y_i, ..., y_r] have: F(f_1, ..., f_r) \in I \Rightarrow F = 0 (So the classes \bar{f}_i \in A := K[\underline{x}]/I are algebraically independent) For 1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < ... < i_r \leq n : x_i, ..., x_r are independent modulo I \Leftarrow K[x_{i_1}, ..., x_{i_r}] \cap I = \{0\} (elimination ideal!) dim(I) := \sup\{r \in \mathbb{N} \mid \exists f_1, ..., f_r \in K[\underline{x}] \text{ independent mod } I+\} dimension of I In other words dim(I) =: trdeg(A) "transcendence degree" If I = K[\underline{x}] \Rightarrow \dim(I) = -1 For X = \mathcal{V}(I) : \dim(X) = \dim(I) Well defined? Clearly dim(I) = \dim(\sqrt{I})
```

### Geometric interpretation:

 $x_{i_1},...,x_{i_r}$  are independent mod  $I \Leftrightarrow \Pi_{i_1,...i_r}: K^n \mapsto K^r$  maps  $\mathcal{V}(I)$  to a dense subset of  $K^r$ 

More generally for  $f_1, ..., f_r$  have:

 $f_1, ... f_r$  are independent modulo  $I \Leftrightarrow \text{The image of } \mathcal{V}(I)$  under the "morphism"  $K^n \mapsto K^r, v \mapsto (f_1(v), ..., f_r(v))$  is dense.

### 2.8.7 Theorem 7

Let 
$$I \subseteq K[\underline{x}]$$
 ideal  $\Rightarrow \dim(I) = \max\{r \mid \exists i_1, ... i_r \text{ such that } x_{i_1}, ..., x_{i_r} \text{ are independent modulo } I\}$ 

### 2.8.8 Lemma 8

A non-empty set M of ideals in  $K[\underline{x}]$  has an element that is maximal with respect to inclusion.

### **Proof:**

```
If not obtain a sequence I_1 \subsetneq I_2 \subsetneq I_3 \subsetneq \dots of ideals in M Set I := \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} I_j Check: I \subseteq K[\underline{x}] ideal \Rightarrow I = (f_1, \dots, f_r) Each f_i lies in some I_j Thm 7.8 \Rightarrow \exists m : f_i \in I_m \ \forall i \Rightarrow I \subseteq I_m \subseteq I \Rightarrow I = I_m I_m \subseteq I_{m+1} \subseteq I = I_m \Rightarrow I_{m+1} = I_m Recall that an ideal I \subseteq K[\underline{x}] is called a prime ideal if a \cdot b \in I for a, b \in K[\underline{x}] implies a \in I or b \in I
```

Fact: I prime ideal  $\Leftrightarrow I = \sqrt{I}$  and  $\mathcal{V}(I)$  is irreducible, i.e. I can't be the written as union of two proper closed subsets.

### 2.8.9 Lemma 9

Every radical ideal  $I \subsetneq K[\underline{x}]$  is a finite intersection of prime ideals.

### **Proof:**

If no by Lemma 8 there is a maximal exception  $I \subsetneq K[\underline{x}]$ . I not prime ideal  $\Rightarrow \exists a_1, a_2 \in K[\underline{x}] : a_1 a_2 \in I_1 a_j \notin I_1 \Rightarrow I \subsetneq I + (a_j) \subseteq \sqrt{I + (a_j)} =: I_j \qquad (*)$   $\Rightarrow I \subseteq I_1 \cap I_2$ 

Claim:  $I = I_1 \cap I_2 \qquad \checkmark$ 

Let  $g \in I_1 \cap I_2 \Rightarrow \exists r : g^r \in I + (a_j)(j = 1, 2)$  $\Rightarrow g^{2r} \in (I + (a_1)) \cdot (I + (a_2)) \subseteq I \Rightarrow g \in I$ 

(\*) with maximality of I shows that the  $I_j$  are finite intersections of prime ideals  $\Rightarrow$  same holds for I contradiction  $\square$ 

Reminder: If  $L \mid K$  is a field extension  $L = K[\alpha_q, ..., \alpha_n]$ .  $trdeg_K(L)$  the size of every maximally algebraically independent subset of  $\{\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n\}$ 

(Exchange argument similar to linear algebra)

#### Proof of Theorem 7

Clearly  $\max\{r \mid \exists i_1,...,i_r \text{ such that } x_{i_1},...,x_{i_r} \text{ independent modulo } I\} \leq \dim(I)$ 

For reverse inequality take  $f_1, ..., f_r \in K[\underline{x}]$  independent mod I. By Lemma 9:  $\sqrt{I} = P_1 \cap ... \cap P_s$  with  $P_i$  prime ideals.

Assume that the  $f_i$  are dependent modulo every  $P_i \Rightarrow \exists F_i \in K[y_1,...,r] \setminus \{0\}$  such that

 $F_i(f_1, ..., f_r) \in P_i \Rightarrow \text{For } F := \prod_{i=1}^s F_i i$ 

 $F(f_1, ...f_r) \in P_1 \cap ... \cap P_s = \sqrt{\overline{I}} \Rightarrow \exists k$ 

 $F^k(f_1,...,f_r) \in I$ . But  $F^k \neq 0$  contradiction

So  $\exists i: f_1, ..., f_r$  independent mod  $P_i$ 

 $\bar{f}_1, ..., \bar{f}_r \in A := K[\underline{x}]/P$  algebraically independent.

A integral domain  $\Rightarrow L = Quot(A)$  exists  $\bar{f}_i \in A \subseteq L$ . L/K is field extension,  $L = K(\bar{x}_1, ..., \bar{x}_n)$  Since  $trdeg_K(L) \geq r$  have  $i_1, ..., i_r$  such that  $\bar{x}_{i_1}, ..., \bar{x}_{i_r} \in L$  are algebraically independent over K.

 $\Rightarrow x_{i_1},...,x_{i_r}$  are independent modulo  $P_i$ 

Since  $I \subseteq P_i, x_{i_1}, ..., x_{i_r}$  are independent modulo I

 $\Rightarrow r \leq \max\{r \mid \exists i_1,...,i_r \text{ such that } x_{i_1},...,x_{i_r} \text{ independent modulo } I\}$ 

Now we can compute  $\dim(I)$  by using elimination ideals. Have to determine a subset of  $\{x_1, ..., x_n\}$  of maximal size that is independent modulo  $I \to \text{Gr\"{o}}$ bner bases.

#### Example:

 $I=(\underbrace{xy,xz})$  Independent subsets modulo  $I:\emptyset,\{x\},\{y\},\{z\},\{y,z\}$  Gröbner bases  $\dim(I)=2$ 

**Hilbert series** For  $X \subseteq K^n$  affine variety, I = Id(X). Then  $A := K[\underline{x}]/I$  is the set of polynomial function ("regular functions")  $X \mapsto K$ 

How large is A? A is a vector-space but it is not finite-dimensional (as vector-space) unless  $\dim(X) \leq 0$ 

Idea: measure the size of A by studying the growth of the dimensions of parts of A given by a filtration  $A = \bigcup_{d \in \mathbb{N}} A_d$ 

# 2.8.10 Definition 10 (Hilbert series)

Let  $I \subseteq K[\underline{x}]$  ideal,  $A := K[\underline{x}]/I$ For  $d \in \mathbb{N}$  set  $A_d := \{f + I \mid f \in K[\underline{x}], \deg(f) \leq d\} \subseteq A$  subspace  $= \max\{\deg(t) | t \in M(f)\}$ 

Hilbert series of  $I: H_I(t) = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} h_I(d) \cdot t^d \in \mathbb{Z}[[t]]$  (formal power series)

# Example:

(1) 
$$I = (x_1, ..., x_n) \Rightarrow A = K \Rightarrow A_d = K \ \forall d$$
  
 $h_I(d) = 1 \Rightarrow H_I(t) = \sum_{d=0}^{\infty} t^d = \frac{1}{1-t}$ 

(2)  $I = (x_1 - x_2^2) \subseteq K[x_1, x_2]$ The classes of  $1, x_1, x_1^2, ..., x_1^d, x_2, x_2x_1, ..., x_2x_1^{d-1}$  form a basis of  $A_d$  $\Rightarrow h_I(d) = 2d + 1$  $H_I(t) = \frac{1+t}{(1-t)^2}$ 

(3) 
$$I = \{0\} \Rightarrow A = \underbrace{K[\underline{x}]}_{=x_1,\dots,x_n}$$

write  $H_n(t)$  for Hilbert series  $H_0(t) = \frac{1}{1-t}$ 

For n > 0:  $K[x_1, ..., x_n]_d = \bigoplus_{i+j=d} K[x_1, ..., x_{n-1}] \cdot x_n^j$ 

$$\Rightarrow H_n(t) = H_{n-1}(t) \left( \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} t^d \right) = H_{n-1}(t) \cdot \frac{1}{1-t} = \frac{1}{(1-t)^{n+1}}$$

Hilbert function:  

$$H_n(t) = (1-t)^{-n-1} = \sum_{d=0}^{\infty} {\binom{-n-1}{d}} (-t)^d$$

$$\Rightarrow h_n(d) = {\binom{-n-1}{d}} \cdot (-1)^d = {\binom{n+d}{d}} = {\binom{d+a}{n}}$$

A total degree monomial ordering is a monomial ordering such that for  $t, t' \in M$  have:  $t \leq t'$  implies  $\deg(t) \leq \deg(t')$ 

Example: grevlex

### 2.8.11 Theorem 11

Let "  $\leq$  " be a total degree monomial ordering.  $I \subseteq K[\underline{x}]$  ideal  $\Rightarrow H_I(t) = H_{L(I)}(t)$ 

### **Proof:**

Let G be a Gröbner basis of  $I, d \in \mathbb{N}$ 

 $NF_G$  induces an injection from  $\phi: A \mapsto K[\underline{x}]$ . Consider  $\phi_d: A_d \mapsto K[\underline{x}]$  restriction

**Claim:**  $im(\phi_d)$  is the space  $V_d \subseteq K[\underline{x}]$  generated by all monomials  $m \in M$ 

with  $deg(m) \leq d$  such that  $LM(g) \nmid m \ \forall g \in G$ 

Let 
$$f \in V_d \Rightarrow f$$
 is in normal form with respect to  $G \Rightarrow f = NF_G(f) = \phi(\underbrace{f+I}) \in im(\phi_d)$ 

Conversely let  $f \in im(\phi_d) \Rightarrow \exists g \in K[\underline{x}]$ :

 $\deg(g) \le d$ 

 $f = NF_G(g)$ 

$$\Rightarrow f = g - \sum_{i=1}^{m} h_i g_i \qquad \text{with } g_i \in G$$

 $h_i \in K[\underline{x}]$ 

 $LM(h_ig_i) \le LM(f)$ 

$$LM(h_ig_i) \leq LM(f)$$

$$\Rightarrow \forall t \in M(h_ig_i) : t \Rightarrow \deg(1) \leq \deg(LM(g))$$
So  $\deg(h_ig_i) \leq d \Rightarrow \deg(f) \leq d$ 

So 
$$\deg(h_i g_i) \leq d \underset{(*)}{\Rightarrow} \deg(f) \leq d$$

Since f is in normal form this implies  $f \in V_d$ .

So  $V_d = im(\phi_d)$ 

$$\Rightarrow h_I(d) = \dim_K(A_d) = \dim_K(im(\phi_d)) = \dim(V_d)$$

 $V_d$  only depends on d and on  $(LM(g) \mid g \in G) = L(I) \Rightarrow h_I$  only depends on L(I)

Since L(L(I)) = L(I) the theorem follows

How to compute  $H_I(t)$  for I monomial ideal:

Let 
$$I = (m1, ..., m_l)$$
  $m_i \in M$  Set  $J = (m_1, ..., m_{l-1})$ 

Then the map  $J \underset{surjective}{\mapsto} I/(m_l)$  has the kernel  $J \cap (m_l)$ 

$$\Rightarrow J/(J \cap (m_l)) \cong I/(m_l)$$

This isomorphism restricts to all homogeneous components

$$\Rightarrow H_I(t) = H_{(m_l)}(t) + H_J(t) - H_{J \cap (m_l)}(t) \tag{*}$$

Have  $J \cap (m_l) = (lcm(m_1, m_l), ..., lcm(m_{l-1}, m_l))$ 

#### 2.8.12 Theorem 12

Let 
$$I = (m_1, ..., m_l) \subseteq K[x_1, ..., x_n]$$
 with  $m : i \in M$   
 $\Rightarrow H_I(t) = \frac{1}{(1-t)^{n+1}} \sum_{S \subseteq \{1, ..., l\}} (-1)^{|S|} \cdot t^{\deg(lcm\{m_i | i \in S\})}$ 

#### **Proof:**

Use induction on l, (\*) and bookkeeping. l=0: Example (3)  $\checkmark$   $l=1:I=(m_1)$   $\sum_{d=0}^{\infty} \dim(\underbrace{I_{\leq d}}) \cdot t^d = t^{\deg(m_1)} \cdot H_{\{0\}}(t)$  all polys in I of  $\deg \leq d$   $\Rightarrow H_{(m_1)}(t) = H_{\{0\}}(t) - \sum_{d} \dim(I_{\leq d}) = \frac{1-t^{\deg(m_1)}}{(1-t)^{n+1}} \quad \checkmark$   $l-a \rightarrow l$  (with  $l \geq l$ ): By (\*) with  $I=(m_1,...,m_l)$ :  $(1-t)^{n+1} \cdot H_I(t) = 1 - t^{\deg(m_l)} + \sum_{S \subseteq \{1,...,l-1\}} (-1)^{|S|} \cdot t^{\deg(lcm\{m_i,m_l)|i \in S\}}$   $-\sum_{S \subseteq \{1,...,l-1\}} (-1)^{|S|} \cdot t^{\deg(lcm\{lcm(m_i,m_l)|i \in S\}})$  For  $S \neq \emptyset$  then  $lcm\{lcm(m_i,m_l) \mid i \in S\} = lcm\{m_i \mid i \in S \cup \{l\}\}\}$  So the formula is correct  $\square$   $\rightarrow$  may compute Hilbert series by Gröbner bases!

# 2.8.13 Corollary 13 (Hilbert-Serre theorem)

Let  $I \subseteq K[\underline{x}]$  ideal. Then  $H_I(t) = \frac{a_0 + a_1 t + \ldots + a_k t^k}{(1 - t)^{n+1}}$   $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ For  $d \gg 0$   $h_I(d)$  is a polynomial. More precisely with  $p_I := \sum_{i=0}^k a_i \binom{x+n-i}{n} \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ have  $h_I(d) = p_I(d)$  for  $d \gg 0$  $p_I$  is called the Hilbert polynomial.

# 2.8.14 Definition 14 (Algebra, homo-, isomorphism)

An algebra over a field K is a commutative ring A containing K.

(Usually  $A = \{0\}$  is also considered as an algebra)

A is called finitely generated if

$$\exists a_1, ..., a_n \in A : A = \{f(a_1, ..., a_n) \mid f \in K[x_1, ..., x_n]\} = K[a_1, ..., a_n]$$

A homomorphism  $\phi A \mapsto B$  of k-algebras is a ring homomorphism that fixes k element-wise.  $\phi$  is an isomorphism it is bijective.

So if  $A = K[a_1, ..., a_n]$  we have a surjective homomorphism

$$\phi: K[x_1, ..., x_n] \mapsto A, f \mapsto f(a_1, ..., a_n). \text{ If } I := ker(\phi) \text{ then } K[x_1, ..., x_n]/I \cong A$$

Given a finitely generated algebra A (such as A = K[x] = K[x]/I with  $x = \mathcal{V}(I)$  affine variety), then each choice of finite set of generators affords an isomorphism  $K[x_1,...,x_n]/I \cong A$ . Then  $p_I$  will depend on the choice of the generators. But might the degree of  $p_I$  be an invariant of A?

# 2.8.15 Lemma 15

Let  $I \subseteq K[x_1, ..., x_n]$ ,  $J \subseteq K[y_1, ..., y_n]$  ideals in polynomial rings such that  $\underbrace{K[x_1, ..., x_n]/I}_A \cong \underbrace{K[y_1, ..., y_n]/J}_B$ . Then  $\deg(p_I) = \deg(p_J)$ .

### **Proof:**

Have  $\phi A \xrightarrow{\sim} B \Rightarrow \exists g_1, ..., g_m \in K[x_1, ..., x_n]$  such that  $\phi(g_i + I) = y_i + J$ Choose  $e \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\deg(g_i) \leq e$ Then  $B_d \subseteq \phi(A_{de}) \Rightarrow h_J(d) = \dim(B_d) \leq \dim(A_d e) = h_I(de) \Rightarrow \deg(p_J) \leq \deg(p_I)$ By symmetry  $\deg(p_I) \leq \deg(p_J)$ , have equality  $\deg(p_J) = \deg(p_I)$ 

Goal:  $deg(p_I) = dim(I)$ 

# 2.8.16 Theorem 16 (Noether normalization)

Let  $A \neq \{0\}$  be a finitely generated algebra. Then there exist algebraically independent elements  $c_1, ..., c_m \in A$  such that A is finitely generated as a module (= vector space, but ove a ring rather than a field) over  $C = K[c_1, ..., c_m] \subseteq A$ ,

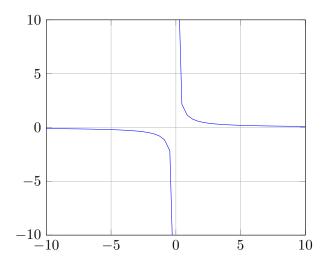
i.e.  $\exists b_1,...,b_l \in A$  such that  $A = \sum\limits_{i=1}^l C \cdot b_i$ Moreover if  $A \cong K[\underline{x}]/I$  then  $m = \dim(I)$  (= trdeg(A))If m == then C = K**Proof:** 

**Geometric interpretation:** Let A = K[X], X affine variety. Choosing  $c_1, ..., c_m \in A$  amounts to choosing a morphism  $f: X \mapsto K^m$ ,  $v \mapsto (c_1(v), ..., c_m(v))$ . It can be shown that if  $C = K[c_1, ..., c_m]$  is Noether norm, then the morphism is surjective and with finite fibers i.e.  $\forall w \in K^m$  the set  $f^{-1}(\{w\})$  is finite.

#### Example:

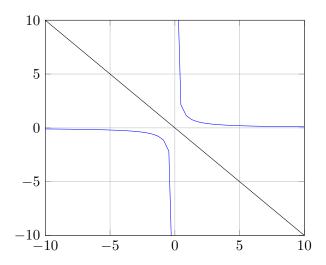
$$X = \mathcal{V}(xy - 1) \subseteq \mathbb{C}^2$$

 $Omitted \rightarrow commutative algebra$ 



The projection to the x- and y-axis are not surjective.

Try  $c = \bar{x} - \bar{y} \in A = \mathbb{C}[x, y]/(xy - 1)$ 



Have  $\bar{x}^2 - c\bar{x} - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow \forall i : \bar{x}^i \in C \cdot 1 + C\bar{x}$ Similarly  $f \cap \bar{y} \Rightarrow C = \mathcal{C}[c]$  satisfies Theorem 16

### 2.8.17 Theorem 17

Let  $I \subseteq K[x_1, ..., x_n]$  ideal  $\Rightarrow \dim(I) = \deg(p_I)$ 

#### **Proof:**

If 
$$I = K[\underline{x}] \Rightarrow \checkmark$$

So assume  $I \nsubseteq K[\underline{x}]$ . Then by Theorem 16  $\exists C = K[c_1,...,c_m] \subseteq A := K[\underline{x}]/I$  and

 $\exists b_1,...,b_l \in A: A = \sum_{i=1}^l C \cdot b_i, \quad c_1,...,c_m$  algebraic independent. Without loss  $b_1 = 1$ 

Let  $y_1, ..., y_m, z-1, ..., z_l$  be new indeterminates and consider the map

 $K[y_1,...,y_m,z-1,...,z_l] \mapsto A, \ y_i \mapsto c_i, \ z_j \mapsto b_j$ 

This is surjective. Let J be the Kernel.

By Lemma 15 have  $deg(p_I) = deg(p_J)$ .

Need to show:  $deg(p_J) = m$ 

Write  $B: K[y_1, ..., y_m, z-1, ..., z_l]/J$ , consider  $B_d, C_d := \{f+J \mid f \in K[y_1, ..., y_m], \deg(f) \le d\} \subseteq B_d$  (for  $d \in \mathbb{N}$ ).

Since  $C_d \subseteq B_d$ , obtain  $h_J(d) = \dim(B_d) \ge \dim(C_d) = c_1,...,c_m \text{alg.ind.} = \begin{pmatrix} d+m\\m \end{pmatrix}$ 

 $\Rightarrow \deg(p_J) \ge m$ 

For  $1 \leq i \leq j \leq l$  have  $b_i b_j = \sum_{k=1}^{l} a_{ijk} \cdot b_k$  with  $a_{ijk} \in C$  Choose  $e \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$  such that

 $\forall i, j, k : \deg(a_i j k) \leq e \Rightarrow b_i b_j \subseteq \sum_{k=1}^l$  So the product of s of the  $b_i$  lies in  $\sum_{k=1}^l C_{(s-1) \cdot e} \cdot b_k$ .

This implies (for  $d \in \mathbb{N}$ )  $B_d \subseteq C_d \cdot b_1 + \sum_{s=1}^d \sum_{k=1}^l C_{d-s} \cdot C_{(s-1)e} \cdot b_k \subseteq \sum_{k=1}^l C_{de} \cdot b_k =: V_d$ 

 $\Rightarrow h_j(d) = \dim(B_d) \le \dim(V_d) \le l \cdot \dim(C_{de}) = l \cdot \binom{d \cdot e + m}{m} = \deg(p_J) \le m \qquad \Box$ (or substitute e by 2e)

### 2.8.18 Corollary 18

Let "  $\leq$  " be a graded monomial ordering  $I \subseteq K[\underline{x}]$  ideal  $\Rightarrow \dim(I) = \dim(L(I))$ 

For computing  $\dim(L(I))$  use the transcendence degree!

Let  $L(I) = (m_1, ..., m_l)$ ,  $m_i$  monomials. For  $S \subseteq \{x_1, ..., x_n\}$ ,

S is dependent modulo  $L(I) \Leftrightarrow \exists i : m_i \in K[S]$ 

S is independent modulo  $L(I) \Leftrightarrow \forall i : m_i \notin K[S]$ 

i.e.  $m_i$  involves a variable not in S.

 $T := \{1, ..., n\} \setminus S$  is independent modulo L(I)

 $\Leftrightarrow$  Every  $m_i$  involves a variable that is in S

# 2.8.19 Algorithm 19 (Dimension of I)

Input :  $I \subseteq K[\underline{x}]$  ideal

Output:  $\dim(I)$ 

- (1) Compute a Gröbner basis of I with respect to a graded monomial ordering. Let  $m_i, ..., m_l$  be the leading monomials of the polynomials in G
- (2) if  $(\exists i : m_i = 1)$  $\dim(I) = -1$
- (3) Find  $T \subseteq \{x_1, ..., x_n\}$  of minimal size, such that every  $m_i$  involves a variable from T // don't worry about exponential time for this step as (1) is doubly exp anyway
- $(4) \dim(I) = n |T|$

# 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
- im(f) image of f ("Wertebereich")
- $Ker(\phi)$  kernel of  $\phi$ ; Number of elements that map to zero  $\Rightarrow$  degree to which the homomorphism  $\phi$  fails to be injective
- $\mathbb{Z}/(m)$  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  $a_i$ "
- e = vector of e's
- $\bullet \ K[\underline{x}] := K[x_1, ..., x_n]$
- $\phi(n) := |\{x \in \mathbb{N} : x < n \land \gcd(x, n) = 1\}| = |(\mathbb{Z}/(n))^x|$ Euler's totient function
- rk(A) Rank of matrix A number of linear independent rows

$$\bullet \ \left(\frac{n}{p}\right) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \mid n \\ -1 & \text{if } n \text{ is a square (mod } p) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Legendre symbol (this is not a fraction)

• 
$$\left(\frac{n}{p}\right) = 1 \Leftrightarrow n^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = \left(\frac{n}{p}\right) \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

- res(f,g) resultant.  $\Rightarrow$  det of Sylvester-Matrix
- A := Affine space
- Id(S) = Ideal of S

### 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!

• ax + by = c has solutions in  $\mathbb{Z}$  iff  $\Leftrightarrow \gcd(a, b) \mid c$  with  $a, x, b, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ 

- $\bullet S_{f,g} = \begin{pmatrix} f_m & \cdots & f_0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & f_m & \cdots & f_0 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \cdots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & f_m & \cdots & f_0 \\ g_n & \cdots & g_0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & g_n & \cdots & g_0 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \cdots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & g_n & \cdots & g_0 \end{pmatrix}$ Sylvester-Matrix for f(x), g(x)
- finitely generated  $\text{A set } M \text{ is finitely generated if } \exists R^n \mapsto M \text{ surjective} \quad \text{ with } R^n \text{ finite}$
- monomial ideal  $I \Leftrightarrow \exists$  a set of generators that are monomials only

### 3.3 Algebraic structures

• Group  $(G,*) \\ \text{- one inner operation (*):} \qquad G \times G \mapsto G \\ \text{- associativity:} \qquad (a*b)*c = a*(b*c) \qquad \forall a,b,c \in G \\ \text{- neutral element } e \in G: \qquad a*e = e*a = a \qquad \forall a \in G \\ \text{- inverse element } a^{-1} \in G: \qquad a*a^{-1} = a^{-1}*a = e \qquad \forall a \in G \\ \text{• Abelian group} \qquad (G,*)$ 

```
- (G,*) is a group
  - commutativity:
                                               a * b = b * a
                                                                                    \forall a, b \in G
• 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 \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}\
  - not necessarily finite.
• Semi group
                                               (S,*)
  - one inner operation (*):
                                               S \times S \mapsto S
  - associativity:
                                               (a * b) * c = a * (b * c)
                                                                                    \forall a, b, c \in S
• 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
• General linear group
                                               GL_n(K)
  - K is a field
  - GL_n(K) is the set of n \times n invertible matrices with ordinary matrix multiplication
                                               (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
                                               a \cdot b = b \cdot a
                                                                                    \forall a, b \in R
  -commutativity for (\cdot)
• 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  $R[\underline{X}]$ 
  - R is a commutative unitary ring
  - set of all polynomials with coefficients  $\in R$
  - Variables  $X_1...X_n$
- Noetherian Ring R

The following definitions are equal:

- for  $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq ...$   $\exists n : I_n = I_{n+1} = ...$  (the chain of ideals "stabilizes")
- every ideal of R is finitely generated

# 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  $\Rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/(p^k))^{\times} \cong \mathbb{Z}/(p^{k-1} \cdot (p-1)) \cong Z_{(p^{k-1} \cdot (p-1))}$
- $\begin{array}{l} \bullet \ \ n = p_1^{k_1},...,p_r^{k_r} \\ \Rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/(n))^\times \cong (\mathbb{Z}/(p_1^{k_1}))^\times \times ... \times (\mathbb{Z}/(p_r^{k_r}))^\times \end{array}$