Computer Algebra

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PART I INTRODUCTION

What is Computer Algebra?

- No generally accepted definition
 - Algorithms for algebraic objects
 - Exact vs Approximative
 - Symbolic vs Numerical Computing
- This course:
 - Algorithms central
 - Practical usage in mind: complexity!
- In summary:
 - what can be computed with modern computer algebra systems, and
 - how is it done?

Computational domains

Rough outline of the scope:

algorithms to compute with combinatorial objects (like graphs), and in those groups, rings, fields, and their associated modules, algebras, etc. for which the objects can be represented and tested for equality on a computer, and for which the operations can be performed effectively.

Z, Q, Q(α), Q $_p$ Z/nZ, F $_p$, F $_q$ R[x], R[x]/(f), R(x), $R[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$, $R[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]/I$, Hom(V,W), R[[x]], R((x))

Sym(n), K_n

Representation of Objects

Objects stored as a finite number of *bits*. The *size* of an object is the number of bits. Objects may have several distinct *representations*, between which we may have to do *conversions*. But within a fixed representation, objects may have more than one representation: a *normal form* is desirable.

For example:

integers in *g*-adic representation, or fully factored in primes

polynomials dense (coefficient vectors) or sparse (coefficient, exponent pairs)

permutations cycles, image lists, products of transpositions

Computational tasks

• Perform the arithmetic operations in the computational domains

Addition, multiplication, inversion, powering, composition, actions

• Normal form computation, conversion between representations

Basis representation, factorization

- *Membership and equality testing* Conversion, comparison
- Structural computation, mappings
 Generators and relations

Many of the most important tasks can be interpreted as conversion between representations!

Computational models

Tasks are executed by way of *algorithms* on *multitape Turing machine* operating on strings of bits. *Computational complexity* is measured in number of *bit operations*.

Sometimes we express operations in a higher level *algebraic model* of computation, where steps are *elementary algebraic operations*.

Example Multiplication of $f, g \in R[x]$, where deg f = m and deg g = n can be done with (m+1)(n+1) multiplications and $m \cdot n$ additions in R.

Note that the complexity depends on the representation!

Asymptotics

Complexity functions: partial $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \cup \infty$ that is defined and non-negative for all integers $n \geq N$.

$$f = \mathcal{O}(g):$$

$$\exists C > 0, N \in \mathbb{N} : \forall x > N : f(x) \leq C \cdot g(x)$$

$$f = \Omega(g):$$

$$\exists C > 0, N \in \mathbb{N} : \forall x > N : f(x) \geq C \cdot g(x)$$

$$f = \Theta(g):$$

$$f = \mathcal{O}(g) \text{ and } f = \Omega(g)$$

$$f = o(g):$$

$$f(n)/g(n) \to 0 \text{ when } n \to \infty$$

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Complexity classes

Ρ

the class of algorithms with deterministic polynomial time complexity: the complexity is $\mathcal{O}(x^d)$ for some $d \in \mathbb{N}$

NP

the class of algorithms with non-deterministic polynomial time complexity: the complexity of *verifying* the correctness of a solution (provided by some oracle, say) is $\mathcal{O}(x^d)$ for some $d \in \mathbb{N}$; *finding* the correct solution may not be possible in polynomial time

Sometimes trade-offs between time and space complexity

The true picture of easy versus hard problems may be much more complicated!

Some general techniques

- probabilistic rather than deterministic methods (gives to expected running times)
 Ex: Pollard ρ algorithm (below)
- iterative and *recursive* methods: divide and conquer

Ex: Karatsuba algorithm (exercise)

- homomorphism methods: mapping to easier structure combined with bounds
 - Ex: modular methods (polynomial factorization)
- rewriting
 - Ex: Gröbner basis algorithm

Elementary Algorithms

- integer addition and subtraction in $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$
- integer multiplication and division in $\mathcal{O}((\log n)^2)$
- exponentiation (powering) by repeated squaring and multiplication
- polynomial evaluation: Horner's method

First Example: Pollard- ρ

Pollard's ρ method for integer factorization is based on the 'birthday paradox':

taking a random sample of size $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{n})$ of a set of cardinality n is expected to give a collision

choosing a random $f : \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ and x_1 , then $x_1, x_2 = f(x_1), x_3 = f(f(x_1)) = f(x_2), \dots$ mod p will behave randomly in $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$, for any prime divisor p of n. Hence a collision $x_i \equiv x_j \mod p$ is expected after $O(\sqrt{p})$ steps! Since $x_i \equiv x_j \mod N$ is unlikely (especially if $p \ll n$), we detect the unknown p by computing $gcd(x_i - x_j, n)$.

 $f(x) = x^2 + 1 \mod n$, with $x_1 = 2$ is standard

An optimisation

By the pigeonhole principle the sequence mod p will become periodic after say s + t steps, so that $x_{s+1} \equiv x_{s+t+1} \mod p$, and the ' ρ ' has a 'tail' of length s and a 'cycle' of length t.

Instead of comparing any two entries x_i, x_j , the same result can be achieved more efficiently by noting that for some m one gets $x_{2m} \equiv x_m \mod p$, the least such m being the smallest multiple of t exceeding s.

Pollard's ρ method runs heuristically in expected time essentially \sqrt{p} to find the prime factor p

An Overview of Algorithms to Follow

- The Fast Fourier Transform and consequences for fast multiplication
- The Euclidean Algorithm
 - in many incarnations with many applications
- The Gaussian Elimination Algorithm for solving systems, finding matrix inverses and determinants
- The Lenstra-Lenstra-Lovász algorithm with surprising applications for short vectors
- Hensel and Newton iteration
 - and other methods for root isolation, separation etc.
- Gröbner Basis Algorithm again with various applications
- (towards) the Risch Algorithm