A low complexity probabilistic test for integer multiplication

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Abstract

A probabilistic test for equality a = bc for given n-bit integers a, b, c is designed within complexity $n(\log \log n) \exp\{O(\log^* n)\}$.

Keywords. probabilistic test, integer multiplication, small divisors

1 Test for multiplication

Denote by M(n) the complexity of multiplication of two n-bit integers. It is well-known [4] that

$$M(n) = n(\log n) \exp\{O(\log^* n)\},\,$$

improving upon the algorithm given in [6].¹

We consider here probabilistic testing of the equality a = bc for given n-bit integers a, b, c. In this context, it may be worth mentioning that a probabilistic test for matrix product A = BC within linear complexity has been described in [3]. A general concept of a checking problem (vs. a solving one) was suggested in [2].

Lemma 1.1. The complexity of division with remainder of n-bit integer a by m-bit integer d does not exceed $n(\log m) \exp\{O(\log^* m)\}$.

Proof. Let $a \in \mathbb{N}^*$ be an n-bit integer and, for $1 \leqslant m \leqslant n$, write the 2^m -ary expansion of a, namely $a = \sum_{0 \leqslant i \leqslant n/m} a_i 2^{mi}$ with $0 \leqslant a_i < 2^m$ $(0 \leqslant i \leqslant n/m)$. Each of remainder $u_i := \operatorname{Rem}(2^{mi}, d) \in [0, d[$ may be computed within complexity O(M(m)) [1]. Subsequently one can calculate each $v_i := \operatorname{Rem}(a_i u_i, d)$ $(0 \leqslant i \leqslant n/m)$ again within complexity O(M(m)). Finally, $\operatorname{Rem}\left(\sum_{0 \leqslant i \leqslant n/m} v_i, d\right)$ can be computed within complexity O(n).

To perform a probabilistic test of the validity of the equation a = bc, the algorithm picks randomly an integer $2 \leq d \leq n^2$, calculates a' := Rem(a, d),

¹Recall the definition $\log^* n := \min\{j \ge 0 : \log^{[j]} n \le 1\}$, where $\log^{[j]}$ is the *j*-fold iteration of the logarithm to the base 2, denoted by log.

b' := Rem(b, d), c' := Rem(c, d) and finally tests the equality a' = Rem(b'c', d). This test has complexity less than $n(\log \log n) \exp\{O(\log^* n)\}$ by virtue of Lemma 1.1 and has an error less than 1/2 due to the following result applied to a - bc.

Theorem 1.2. Let $\delta > 1 - \ln 2$. Then any sufficiently large n-bit integer has at most δn^2 divisors in the interval $[1, n^2]$.

Remark 1.3. More precisely, the bounds established in the next section show that, for any $\varepsilon > 0$, the test can be defined by picking the random divisor d in the interval $[2, n^{\sqrt{e}+\varepsilon}]$, but not by picking d in the interval $[2, n^{\sqrt{e}-\varepsilon}]$.

2 Bounds for the number of small divisors

We designate by \ln_k the k-fold iteration of the Neperian logarithm function $\ln = \ln_1$. Let P(n) denote the largest prime factor of an integer n > 1, with the convention that P(1) = 1. For $x \ge 1$, $y \ge 1$, we define $S(x,y) := \{n \le x : P(n) \le y\}$ as the set of y-friable integers not exceeding x, and denote by $\Psi(x,y)$ its cardinality. We designate by ϱ Dickman's function, which is defined as the unique continuous solution on \mathbb{R}^+ of the difference-differential equation

$$u\varrho'(u) + \varrho(u-1) = 0 \qquad (u > 1)$$

with initial condition $\varrho(u) = 1$ ($0 \le u \le 1$). The function ϱ is strictly decreasing from 1 to 0 on $[0, \infty[$ and we have

$$\rho(u) = u^{-u + o(u)} \qquad (u \to \infty).$$

For further information and references on the Dickman function, see, e.g., [7], chapter III.5.

Given a function $Z: [1, \infty[\to]1, \infty[$ such that $\ln Z(x) = o(\ln x \ln_2 x)$ as $x \to \infty$ and a real number t > e, we let $\Xi(t; Z)$ denote the smallest solution in $]1, \infty[$ of the equation

$$Z(x)\varrho\left(\frac{\ln x}{\ln x}\right) = 1.$$

That such a solution exists follows from the fact that the right hand side is > 1 for $x = \ln t$ and tends to 0 as $x \to \infty$.

Put

$$\tau(n,x) := \sum_{\substack{d \mid n \\ d \le x}} 1 \qquad (n \in \mathbb{N}^*, x \geqslant 1).$$

Theorem 2.1. Let $Z:[1,\infty[\to]1,\infty[$ be a non-decreasing function satisfying

(1)
$$\ln Z(x) \ll (\ln x)/(\ln_2 3x)^2 \qquad (x \geqslant 1).$$

For all $\varepsilon > 0$ and sufficiently large n, we have

(2)
$$x > \Xi(n; (1+\varepsilon)Z) \Rightarrow \tau(n,x) \leqslant x/Z(x).$$

Under the extra condition

(3)
$$\ln Z(x) = o(\sqrt{\ln x}) \qquad (x \to \infty),$$

there exists a strictly increasing integer sequence $\{n_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$ such that

(4)
$$\tau(n_k, x_k) > x_k/Z(x_k) \qquad (k \geqslant 0),$$

with
$$x_k := \Xi(n_k; (1-\varepsilon)Z)$$
.

Before embarking on the proof, we note a simple corollary obtained by considering the case when Z is a constant. For fixed v > 1, we let $x_n(v)$ denote the smallest real number such that

$$\tau(n,x) \leqslant x/v$$
 $(n \geqslant 1, x \geqslant x_n(v)).$

Theorem 1.2 follows by specializing v=2 in the next statement, and Remark 1.3 by selecting $v=1/(1-\ln 2)$.

Theorem 2.2. For $1 < v \le 1/(1 - \ln 2)$, $w := \exp\{1 - 1/v\}$, we have

(5)
$$x_n(v) \leqslant (\ln n)^{w+o(1)} \qquad (n \to \infty).$$

Moreover, in the above upper bound, the exponent w is optimal in the following sense: given any $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists a strictly increasing integer sequence $\{n_j\}_{j=0}^{\infty}$ such that

(6)
$$x_{n_j}(v) > (\ln n_j)^{w-\varepsilon} \qquad (j \geqslant 0).$$

Proof. We select Z(x) = v in Theorem 2.1 and note that, since $\varrho(u) = 1 - \ln u$ for $1 \le u \le 2$, we have $\Xi(n; v) = (\log n)^w$ for $n \ge 3$ and $1 < v \le 1/(1 - \log 2)$.

Proof of Theorem 2.1. We first establish (2).

Let p_k denote the k-th prime number and $\{p_j(n)\}_{j=1}^{\omega(n)}$ designate the increasing sequence of distinct prime factors of an natural integer n. Then the mapping

$$F: \prod_{1 \leqslant j \leqslant \omega(n)} p_j(n)^{\nu_j} \mapsto \prod_{1 \leqslant j \leqslant \omega(n)} p_j^{\nu_j}$$

is an injection from the set of divisors of n into the subset of $p_{\omega(n)}$ -friable integers d. Moreover, $F(d) \leq d$ for all $d \geq 1$. Therefore

(7)
$$\tau(n,x) \leqslant \Psi(x, p_{\omega(n)}) \qquad (n \geqslant 1, x \geqslant 1).$$

Since we have, for any integer $n \ge 1$,

$$\prod_{p\leqslant p_{\omega(n)}}p\leqslant n,$$

a strong form of the prime number theorem yields

(8)
$$p_{\omega(n)} \leqslant L_n := \left\{ 1 + e^{-(\ln_2 n)^c} \right\} \ln n$$

for any c < 3/5 and sufficiently large n.

If, for instance, $\ln n \leq e^{2(\ln_2 x)^{11/6}}$, we have, as $n \to \infty$, by virtue of the uniform upper bound for $\Psi(x,y)$ given in theorem III.5.1 of [7],

$$\Psi(x, L_n) \leqslant \Psi(x, 2 \ln n) \ll x^{1 - 1/(2 + 2 \ln_2 n)} \ll x e^{-\frac{1}{5}(\ln x)/(\ln_2 x)^{11/6}} = o(x/Z(x)).$$

This implies $\tau(n,x) < x/Z(x)$ in this case.

If

(9)
$$\ln n > e^{2(\ln_2 x)^{11/6}},$$

Hildebrand's asymptotic formula (see for instance corollary III.5.19 of [7]) implies

$$\Psi(x, L_n) \leqslant \{1 + o(1)\} x \varrho\left(\frac{\ln x}{\ln L_n}\right) \qquad (x \to \infty).$$

However, by (8), we have

$$\frac{\ln x}{\ln L_n} = \frac{\ln x}{\ln_2 n} + O(e^{-(\ln_2 x)^{11c/6}}).$$

By selecting $\frac{6}{11} < c < \frac{3}{5}$, and in view of the estimate $\varrho'(u) \ll (\ln 2u)\varrho(u)$ $(u \geqslant 1)$ established for instance in corollary III.5.14 of [7], we deduce that

$$\varrho\left(\frac{\ln x}{\ln L_n}\right) \sim \varrho\left(\frac{\ln x}{\ln_2 n}\right)$$

as n and x tend to infinity under condition (9). It follows that, in the same circumstances, we have $\tau(n,x) < x/Z(x)$ as soon as $x > \Xi(n,(1+\varepsilon)Z)$.

This completes the proof of the upper bound (2).

To prove the lower bound (4), we give ourselves a (large) constant $D \in \mathbb{N}^*$ and put

$$\Psi_D(x,y) := \sum_{\substack{n \leqslant x \\ p \mid n \Rightarrow p \leqslant y}} g_D(n),$$

where g_D is the indicator of D-free integers, i.e. integers such that $p^{\nu}||n \Rightarrow \nu \leq D$. The arithmetical function g_D is an s-function in the sense of [5], in other words $g_D(n)$ only depends upon

$$s(n) := \prod_{p^{\nu} || n, \nu \geqslant 2} p^{\nu}.$$

Theorem 1 of [5] may hence be applied, and, writing $\zeta(s)$ for the Riemann zeta function, yields, for any $\varepsilon > 0$,

(10)
$$\Psi_D(x,y) := \sum_{\substack{n \leqslant x \\ p|n \Rightarrow p \leqslant y}} g_D(n) \sim \frac{x\varrho(u)}{\zeta(D+1)}$$

as x and y tend to infinity in such a way that $\exp\left\{(\log_2 x)^{5/3+\varepsilon}\right\} \leqslant y \leqslant x$. Let us then put $N_k := \prod_{1 \leqslant j \leqslant k} p_j^D \ (k \geqslant 1)$. Applying (10) for

(11)
$$p_k < x \leqslant \exp\{o\left((\ln p_k)^2 / \ln_2 p_k\right)\} \qquad (k \to \infty),$$

and setting $u_k := (\ln x) / \ln p_k$, we get

$$\tau(N_k, x) = \Psi_D(x, p_k) \sim \frac{x\varrho(u_k)}{\zeta(D+1)}$$

Now, observe that hypothesis (11) implies

$$u_k \ln(1 + u_k) = o(\ln p_k)$$
 $(k \to \infty).$

Since $\ln N_k \sim Dp_k$, we therefore have, when x satisfies (11),

$$\varrho\left(\frac{\ln x}{\ln 2 N_k}\right) = \varrho\left(\frac{\ln x}{\ln p_k + O(1)}\right) = \varrho\left(u_k + O\left(\frac{u_k}{\ln p_k}\right)\right)
= \left\{1 + O\left(\frac{u_k \ln(1 + u_k)}{\ln p_k}\right)\right\} \varrho(u_k) \sim \varrho(u_k).$$

Select $x := \Xi(N_k; (1-\varepsilon)Z)$, where $\varepsilon \in]0, 1-1/Z(1)[$. From the above, it then follows that $Z(x)(1-\varepsilon)\varrho(u_k) = 1 + o(1)$ as $k \to \infty$. We deduce, on the one hand, that $x > p_k$, because $\varrho(1) = 1$, and, on the other hand, in view of the classical asymptotic estimates for $\varrho(u)$ (see for instance theorem III.5.13 of [7]), that

$$u_k \ln(1 + u_k) \asymp \ln Z(x) = o(\sqrt{\ln x}).$$

Condition (11) is hence fulfilled. It follows that

$$\tau(N_k, x) = \Psi_D(x, p_k) > \frac{x}{(1 - \varepsilon/2)\zeta(D + 1)Z(x)} > \frac{x}{Z(x)} \quad (k \to \infty),$$

provided we choose, as we may, D sufficiently large in terms of ε .

This completes the proof of the second part of our theorem.

As a further concrete example of application of Theorem 2.1, we state the following corollary.

Corollary 2.3. Let c > 0, $\varepsilon > 0$. For sufficiently large n and all

$$x > (\ln n)^{\{1+\varepsilon\}c(\ln_3 n)/\ln_4 n},$$

we have $\tau(n,x) \leq x/(\ln x)^c$. This statement is optimal in the sense that one cannot replace ε by $-\varepsilon$.

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