



# Plan

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About QS

Sieving

MPQS

Sieving tricks

Yield optimization

# QS

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This lecture is mostly about **QS**, the quadratic sieve.

- QS is technology from the 1980's - 1990's.
- Superseded by NFS since circa 1995.
- Yet, QS is faster for factoring numbers below e.g. 120dd.

This **not** of merely historical value:

- QS embodies many of the state-of-the-art techniques still used nowadays.
- Stating these techniques in the QS context frees us from the mathematical clutter around NFS.

# Our dummy example was not so stupid

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The **quadratic sieve** (Pomerance, 1983) is a combination of two things:

- First idea: pick a simple «naturally small» function:
  - Consider  $|f(i)| = \left| \left( \left\lceil \sqrt{N} \right\rceil + i \right)^2 - N \right|$ .
  - For  $|x| \leq S \ll \sqrt{N}$ , we have  $|f(i)| \leq 2S\sqrt{N} + \epsilon$
- Second idea: Factor residues completely differently.
  - The process used is known as **sieving**.
  - Sieving eliminates the per-relation factoring cost.

We will study more size improvements with the MPQS (multiple polynomial QS) algorithm.

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Sieving

Idea

Impact on analysis

# Sieving

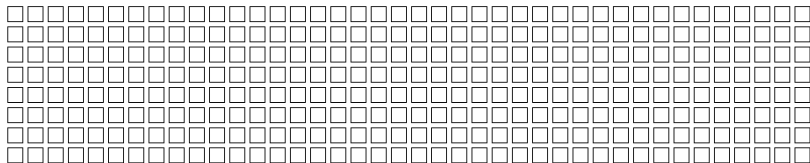
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## Key facts about sieving

- One decides beforehand of a **sieving space**: interval  $[-S \dots S]$ .
- “for each  $i$ , for each  $p$ , do” becomes “for each  $p$ , for each  $i$ , do”.

# Sieving, visually

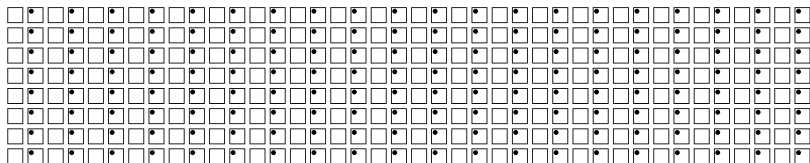
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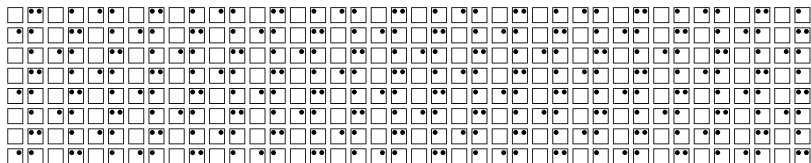
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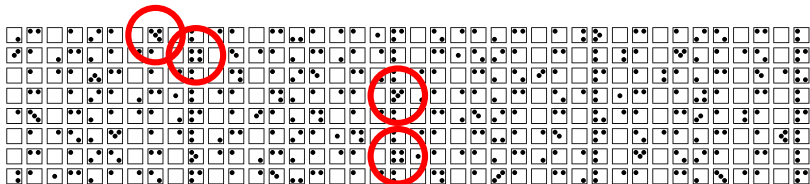
# Sieving, visually

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# Sieving, visually

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# Sieving for the function in QS

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Let  $f(x) = (c + x)^2 - N$ , with  $c = \lceil \sqrt{N} \rceil$ .

Given  $p$ , how does one describe the set:

$$\mathcal{S}_p = \{i \in \llbracket -S \dots S \rrbracket, f(i) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}\}.$$

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Answer: ● this depends on the **roots mod  $p$**  of the quadratic  $f(x)$ .

● 0, 1, or 2 roots depending on  $\left(\frac{N}{p}\right)$ .

# Computing all valuations at once

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Fix  $p$ . Let (at most)  $r_0, r_1$  be the roots mod  $p$  of  $f$ .

$$\{i \in \llbracket -S \dots S \rrbracket, f(i) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}\} = \{r_0, r_0 \pm p, \dots\} \cup \{r_1, r_1 \pm p, \dots\}.$$

**Algorithm:** We maintain an array  $T[i]$  indexed by  $i \in \llbracket -S \dots S \rrbracket$ .

- For each  $p \leq B$ , do:
  - Compute  $r_0, r_1$
  - $r := r_0$ . While  $r \leq S$  do:
    - $T[r] \leftarrow T[r] + \log p$ ,
    - $r \leftarrow r + p$ .
  - idem for  $r_1$  as well as  $\{r_i - kp\}$ .
- Do this also for prime powers
- For all  $i$  such that  $T[i] = \log |f(i)|$ , we know that  $f(i)$  is smooth.

# Sieving with powers

(harder)

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Assume that  $f(i) \equiv 0$  has 2 distinct roots mod  $p$  (so  $p \nmid \text{disc}(f)$ ).

- How many roots mod  $p^2$  ?
- How many roots mod  $p^k$  ?
- Which log contribution should we add ?

# $T[i] = \log |f(i)| \Leftrightarrow f(i)$ smooth

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For each  $p^k$  (assuming we consider  $k$  up to  $\infty$ . In fact we don't):

- we have characterized the set  $\mathcal{S}_{p^k} = \{i, \nu_p(f(i)) \geq k\}$ .
- we have added  $\log_2 p$  to  $T[i]$  for each  $i$  in this set.

Thus eventually:

$$\begin{aligned} T[i] &= \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}_B} \left( \sum_{k \text{ s.t. } i \in \mathcal{S}_{p^k}} \log p \right), \\ &= \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}_B} \left( \sum_{k, \nu_p(f(i)) \geq k} \log p \right), \\ &= \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}_B} \nu_p(f(i)) \log p, \\ &= \log(B\text{-smooth part of } f(i)). \end{aligned}$$



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## QS: analysis

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How many **sieve updates** per prime number  $p$  ?

## QS: analysis

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How many **sieve updates** per prime number  $p$ ?  $\frac{\leq 4S}{p-1}$ .

Total number of sieve updates:

## QS: analysis

---

How many **sieve updates** per prime number  $p$ ?  $\frac{\leq 4S}{p-1}$ .

Total number of sieve updates:  $O(S \log \log B)$ .

Assuming  $S$  is **large enough** so that we have enough relations eventually, the **relation collection cost** is  $\tilde{O}(S) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} O(S(\log S)^{O(1)})$ .

Strategy for analysis:

- Size of residues.
- Smoothness probability.
- Number of relations obtained. Condition for having enough.
- Cost for re-factoring  $f(i)$  when once has been identified as smooth.
- Linear system cost.

## QS: analysis

---

Let  $S = L_N[\sigma, s]$  and  $B = L_N[\beta, b]$ .

- $|f(i)| = |(\lceil \sqrt{N} \rceil + i)^2 - N| \leq ?$

## QS: analysis

---

Let  $S = L_N[\sigma, s]$  and  $B = L_N[\beta, b]$ , with  $\sigma < 1$ .

- $|f(i)| = |(\lceil \sqrt{N} \rceil + i)^2 - N| \leq 2S\sqrt{N} + \epsilon = L_N[1, 1/2 + o(1)]$ .
- Smoothness probability:

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- Smoothness probability:  $L_N[1 - \beta, -\frac{1}{2b}(1 - \beta)]$ .
- Condition for having enough relations:

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- Condition for having enough relations:

$$L_N[\sigma, s] \times L_N[1 - \beta, -\frac{1}{2b}(1 - \beta)] = L_N[\beta, b],$$

$$\sigma = \beta = 1/2, \quad s - \frac{1}{4b} = b.$$

(s bigger would just cost more). Relation collection:

$$L_N[1/2, b + \frac{1}{4b}].$$

- Refactoring ?



## QS: analysis

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- Refactoring ?  $L_N[1/2, 2b]$ .
- Linear system ?

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(s bigger would just cost more). Relation collection:

$$L_N[1/2, b + \frac{1}{4b}].$$

- Refactoring ?  $L_N[1/2, 2b]$ .
- Linear system ?  $L_N[1/2, \omega b]$  for some  $\omega$  ( $\omega = 3$  for Gauss).

$$\text{Total: } L_N[1/2, b + \frac{1}{4b}] + L_N[1/2, 2b] + L_N[1/2, \omega b].$$

## QS: complexity

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We need to optimize  $L_N[1/2, b + \frac{1}{4b}] + L_N[1/2, \omega b]$  (since  $\omega \geq 2$ ).

Unless summands are equal, one is  $o()$  of the others.

Thus  $b_{\text{opt}}$  given by  $b_{\text{opt}} + \frac{1}{4b_{\text{opt}}} = \omega b_{\text{opt}}$ .

- Set  $\omega = 3$ . Then  $b_{\text{opt}} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}$ , and  $\text{QS} = L_N[1/2, \frac{3}{2\sqrt{2}}]$ .
- If we can do  $\omega = 2$ ,  $b_{\text{opt}} = \frac{1}{2}$ , and  $\text{QS} = L_N[1/2, 1]$ .

Notice that the cost for **factoring relations** has vanished.

Therefore, the complexity of **linear algebra** plays a role.

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# MPQS (Montgomery)

---

Annoying feature of QS:  $|f(x)|$  gets bigger as  $x$  grows.

$\max = 2S\sqrt{N}$ .

Quest: find **other functions** playing the role of  $f(x)$ .

What happens if we look at  $(ax + b)^2$  for some  $a, b$  ?

$$(ax + b)^2 = a^2x^2 + 2axb + b^2$$

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What happens if we look at  $(ax + b)^2$  for some  $a, b$  ?

$$(ax + b)^2 = a^2x^2 + 2axb + b^2 - ac + ac \text{ for any } c,$$

If we have  $b^2 - ac = N$ :

$$\frac{1}{a}(ax + b)^2 \equiv ax^2 + 2bx + c \pmod{N}.$$

Fix  $a$  s.t.  $\left(\frac{N}{a}\right) = 1$ . Choose  $b \leq \frac{a}{2}$  s.t.  $b^2 \equiv N \pmod{a}$ . Set  $c < 0$  accordingly.

$$|ax^2 + 2bx + c| \in \left[ \frac{N}{a}, S^2a - \frac{N}{a} \right].$$

For a given  $S$ , smallest values for  $a \approx \frac{2\sqrt{N}}{S}$ .  $\Rightarrow$  **Bound**  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}S\sqrt{N}$ .

# MPQS

---

- For a given sieve interval size, we have found a **better polynomial**.
- More important, we have **many** such polynomials.
- Provided  $a$  is a product of factor base primes, a large number of polynomials can be used (other option:  $a = \square$ ).
- Shorter intervals per polynomial  $\Rightarrow$  smaller residues.
- **Initialization cost** per polynomial: solving  $b^2 \equiv N \pmod{a}$ .  
See SIQS for a way to amortize this (e.g. in CrPo).

MPQS (with improvements to be discussed) is the leading algorithm today for  $p$  below 100-120 decimal digits.

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# Sieving tricks

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Sieving can be made less accurate but faster:

- For the array  $T[]$ , log values can be stored as 8-bit integers.
- One may skip some primes or prime powers (pays little).
  - very small primes (many sieve updates, small contribution,  $\pm$  leveled).
  - large powers (contribution is only  $\log p$  for one sieve value over  $p^k$ ).
  - Unwise to skip large  $p$ : large contribution, important for accuracy.
- “qualification” test:  $T[i] \geq \log f(i) - \kappa$ , with  $e^\kappa = \text{cofactor bound}$ .
  - If  $e^\kappa \leq B$ , for each such  $i$ , cofactor  $q \in \mathcal{P}_B$ : we have a relation.
  - If  $e^\kappa \leq B^2$ , for each such  $i$ ,  $q$  prime, possibly  $\leq B$ .  
We have a complete factorization, but not a relation. **Too bad.**

# Large primes

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**Idea** (dates back to CFRAC):

- Fix a “large prime bound”  $L$ .
- As long as the cofactor is  $\leq L$ , keep the “**partial relations**” as well, since we get them for free (almost).
- The cofactor  $q$  is called a **large prime**.

Two partial relations with the same large prime  $q$  can be **combined**:

$$\begin{aligned}f(i) &= \text{smooth} \times q, \\f(i') &= \text{smooth} \times q, \\f(i)f(i') &= \text{smooth} \times \square.\end{aligned}$$

$K$  partial relations  $\Rightarrow$  how many recombined relations ? **Birthday paradox**.

# Number of matches

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**Thm.**  $K$  independent, uniformly random picks from a set of size  $L$  yield an expected total number of  $\frac{K^2}{2L}$  matches.

Proof: cheat a little, or use generating functions, or do otherwise.

Keeping partial relations seems a waste at first. Eventually this pays off.

**Note:** recombined relations are heavier.

# Two large primes

---

Experimentally, sieving is efficient. This leads to PPMPQS:

- Not too harmful to loosen the qualification and allow cofactors  $> B^2$ .
- Such (not necessarily prime) cofactors need to be factored.
- Allowing two large primes, we obtain “partial-partial” relations.

Old terminology:

- “full” (FF) relation: no large prime ;
- “partial” (FP) relation: one large prime ;
- “partial-partial” (PP) relation: two large primes.

Modern statements of this method refer only to partial relations, and consider also more large primes.

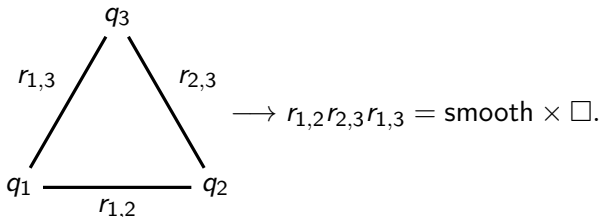
# Matching multiple large primes – the old way

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Consider a graph where:

- vertices are large primes ;
- edges are relations ;
- an edge (relation  $R$ ) connects two vertices  $(q_1, q_2)$  iff  $R$  involves  $q_1, q_2$ .
- Add a special vertex 1 to which all FP relations are connected.

A cycle in this large prime graph yields:



Hunting cycles: [union-find](#) algorithm (easy).

# Matching large primes – the modern way

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Consider arbitrarily many large primes – no real distinction with  $\mathcal{P}_B$  primes anyway.

We thus have a very large set of partial relations, which go through several passes.

- Duplicate removal.
- Singleton removal: when only one relation involves a given prime.
- Merges: when prime  $q$  appears in only  $k$  relations:
  - Replace  $k$  relations with  $q$  by  $k - 1$  without  $q$ .
  - Try to do this the smart way.
- Use hash tables and a lot of RAM everywhere.

# Cofactorization

---

Because of large primes, we bring our interest on sieve locations which **do not necessarily** yield relations.

- Some sieve reports are promising.
- We need to factor them before we decide to keep or discard.

This is called the **cofactorization step** (more NFS terminology).

Several «strategies»:

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- «Resieve» up to some bound, but record primes.

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- «Resieve» up to some bound, but record primes.
- Use **small- $p$ -sensible** algorithms:  $p \pm 1$ , ECM.

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Several «strategies»:

- Trial-divide up to some bound.
- «Resieve» up to some bound, but record primes.
- Use **small- $p$ -sensible** algorithms:  $p \pm 1$ , ECM.
- Maybe even run (MP)QS recursively ?

On top of that, **early abort**, e.g.: if trial division yields too little, forget about this relation.

# QS/MPQS: conclusion

---

(((P)P)MP)/SI)QS is a living algorithm for factoring.

- relatively easy to understand / implement.
- complexity for factoring  $N$  depends only on  $N$ .
- for  $N$  of moderate size, MPQS is the way to go today.
- publicly available implementation: `msieve`.

Note: none of the sieving tricks affect the complexity:

$L_N[1/2, 1 + o(1)]$  (assuming  $\omega = 2$ ).

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# Factor $2N$ , factor $N$

---

We often have some freedom ● factor  $N$

● or factor  $kN$  for small  $k$ .

Knuth: «this is a rather curious way to proceed (if not downright stupid)» (TAOCP2, 4.5.4).

- CFRAC: CFE of  $\sqrt{N}$  gives congruences  $p_n^2 - Nq_n^2 = v_n$ .
- (MP)QS: Values of a quadratic polynomial of discriminant  $N$ .

## Key idea

If we use  $kN$  instead, maybe some small  $p$  divide more often ?

Plan ● Characterize  $p$ 's which divide the residue.

● Get a heuristic measure to maximize # divisors.

# Why focus on this ?

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Yield optimization has been studied for CFRAC, MPQS, and NFS.

- For CFRAC and NFS: some technicalities.
- Easier for MPQS, useful to get the idea.

Nowadays, the grandchild of the CFRAC « choice of multiplier » is part of NFS's « polynomial selection » step.

# $\ell$ -valuation of a random integer

---

If  $X$  is a random integer:

- $\text{Prob}(\nu_\ell(X) \geq 1) = \frac{1}{\ell}$  ;
- $\text{Prob}(\nu_\ell(X) \geq 2) = \frac{1}{\ell^2}$  ;
- $\text{Prob}(\nu_\ell(X) \geq 3) = \frac{1}{\ell^3}$ .
- etc.

Total:

$$E[\nu_\ell(X)] = \frac{1}{\ell} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{\ell}} = \frac{1}{\ell - 1}.$$



# Residues for MPQS

---

Residues for MPQS are:

$$f(x) = ax^2 + 2bx + c = \frac{1}{a} [(ax + b)^2 - (b^2 - ac)] = \frac{1}{a} [(ax + b)^2 - N].$$

Assume  $l \nmid a$  ( $l \mid a$  more boring).

$$\#\{\text{Classes of sieve updates mod } l\} = \#\{\sqrt{N} \pmod{l}\}.$$

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Assume  $\ell \nmid a$  ( $\ell \mid a$  more boring).

$$\#\{\text{Classes of sieve updates mod } \ell\} = \#\{\sqrt{N} \pmod{\ell}\}.$$

Let  $r_\ell = \#$  square roots of  $N \pmod{\ell}$ .

On average, after sieving:  $\log |f(x)| - T[x] = \log |f(x)| - \sum r_\ell \frac{\log \ell}{\ell-1}$ .

For a random integer  $y$  of the same size:  $\log |y| - \sum \frac{\log \ell}{\ell-1}$ .

Discrepancy function:  $\sum (1 - r_\ell) \frac{\log \ell}{\ell-1}$ .

# Residues for MPQS

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Residues for MPQS are:

$$f(x) = ax^2 + 2bx + c = \frac{1}{a} [(ax + b)^2 - (b^2 - ac)] = \frac{1}{a} [(ax + b)^2 - kN].$$

Assume  $\ell \nmid a$  ( $\ell \mid a$  more boring).

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Let  $r_\ell = \#$  square roots of  $kN \pmod{\ell}$ .

On average, after sieving:  $\log |f(x)| - T[x] = \log |f(x)| - \sum r_\ell \frac{\log \ell}{\ell-1}$ .

For a random integer  $y$  of the same size:  $\log |y| - \sum \frac{\log \ell}{\ell-1}$ .

Discrepancy function:  $\alpha(k) = \sum (1 - r_\ell) \frac{\log \ell}{\ell-1}$ .

# Choice of the multiplier

---

Choosing an adequate multiplier  $k$ :

- may increase the amount of sieve contributions from small primes.
- drawback:  $f(x)$  grows with  $k$ .

The key idea remains: **having many roots modulo small primes is good.**

# Yield optimization (Pomerance-Wagstaff)

*(harder)*

---

CFRAC looks at  $Q_n = p_n^2 - kNq_n^2$ , with  $k$  a square-free integer.

Which necessary condition should an odd prime  $\ell$  satisfy, in order to have  $\ell \mid Q_n$  ?

# Yield optimization (Pomerance-Wagstaff)

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CFRAC looks at  $Q_n = p_n^2 - kNq_n^2$ , with  $k$  a square-free integer.

Which necessary condition should an odd prime  $\ell$  satisfy, in order to have  $\ell \mid Q_n$ ? Answer:  $\left(\frac{kN}{\ell}\right) = 1$ .

Can choose  $k \pm$  freely (as long as  $k = L_N[1/2, o(1)]$ ).

## Theorem: average $\ell$ -valuation in CFRAC

The average  $\ell$ -valuation of  $X$  (for  $\ell$  odd prime) is

•  $\frac{1}{\ell-1}$  if  $X$  is a random integer ;

• If  $X = Q_n$ : 
$$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \left(\frac{kN}{\ell}\right) = -1, \\ \frac{1}{\ell+1} & \text{if } \left(\frac{kN}{\ell}\right) = 0, \\ \frac{2}{\ell+1} \cdot \frac{\ell}{\ell-1} & \text{if } \left(\frac{kN}{\ell}\right) = 1 \end{cases} \quad (\text{assuming } p_n, q_n \text{ random co})$$

## $\ell$ -valuation: proof

(harder)

---

If  $X = Q_n = p_n^2 - kNq_n^2$  and  $\left(\frac{k}{\ell}\right) = 0$ .

Assumption:  $(p_n, q_n)$  are random coprime integers.

Modulo  $\ell$ :  $(p_n, q_n)$  maps to something uniformly random in ...

# $\ell$ -valuation: proof

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If  $X = Q_n = p_n^2 - kNq_n^2$  and  $\binom{k}{\ell} = 0$ .

Assumption:  $(p_n, q_n)$  are **random coprime integers**.

Modulo  $\ell$ :  $(p_n, q_n)$  maps to something uniformly random in  $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{F}_\ell)$ .

- $\text{Prob}(\nu_\ell(X) \geq 1) = \frac{1}{\ell+1}$  ;
- $\text{Prob}(\nu_\ell(X) \geq 2) = 0$  (because  $\text{gcd}(p_n, q_n) = 1$ ).

Total:

$$E[\nu_\ell(X)] = \frac{1}{\ell+1}.$$



# $\ell$ -valuation: proof

(harder)

If  $X = Q_n = p_n^2 - kNq_n^2$  and  $\left(\frac{k}{\ell}\right) = 1$ .

Amongst  $\ell + 1$  choices for  $(p_n : q_n) \in \mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{F}_\ell)$ , exactly **two** lead to  $\ell \mid Q_n$ .

- $\text{Prob}(\nu_\ell(X) \geq 1) = \frac{2}{\ell+1}$  ;
- $\text{Prob}(\nu_\ell(X) \geq 2) = \frac{2}{\ell^2+\ell}$  (two roots in  $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{Z}/\ell^2\mathbb{Z})$ ) ;
- $\text{Prob}(\nu_\ell(X) \geq 3) = \frac{2}{\ell^3+\ell^2}$  ;
- etc

Total:

$$E[\nu_\ell(X)] = \frac{2}{\ell+1} \cdot \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{\ell}} = \frac{2\ell}{\ell^2-1}.$$

# CFRAC: yield optimization

(harder)

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Let  $f(k, \ell)$  be the expected average  $\ell$ -valuation of  $p_n^2 - kNq_n^2$  as above.

We choose values of  $k$  for which  $F(k)$  is large, where:

$$F(k) = \sum_{\ell < B} \left( f(k, \ell) - \frac{1}{\ell - 1} \right) \log_2 \ell.$$

Idea: when e.g.  $F(k) \approx 3$ , we expect  $Q_n \approx X$  to be smooth almost as often as a random integer  $\approx \frac{X}{2^3}$ .

Yield optimization is **important in practice**, and also important today with NFS.

# Plan for next time

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- CFRAC/QS/MPQS/NFS all build relations.
- We are faced with a linear system to be solved.
- The system is always sparse

Next lecture: sparse linear algebra algorithms.

Goal: solve a sparse  $n \times n$  system in  $\tilde{O}(n^2)$ .

(sparse: at most  $(\log n)^{O(1)}$  non-zero coefficients per row).

# Exercises

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## Exercise 1

Give the space complexity for sieving over an interval of length  $S$  with primes up to  $B$ , if one keeps track of all sieved primes for each location.