

國立臺灣大學理學院數學系

碩士論文

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多項式時間確定型質數判定演算法的研究

On the AKS Algorithm

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中文摘要

本文研究由 M. Agrawal, N. Kayal and N. Saxena 提出的第一個多項式時間確定型的質數判定演算法,經過 H. Lenstra Jr.等人的建議修改後的版本"PRIMES is in P"(2004),並補充了一些原文裡證明細節。

關鍵詞: 質數; 演算法; 多項式時間; 確定型; 質數判定

英文摘要

We take a exposition at the paper "PRIMES is in P" by M. Agrawal, N. Kayal and N. Saxena (2004), in which they used Lenstra's idea and made a revision of their earlier version. We also present some details in the proof.

Key Words: prime number; algorithm; polynomial time; deterministic; primality test



ON THE AKS ALGORITHM

Ying-Jen Tseng

ABSTRACT. We investigate the AKS algorithm which determines whether a number is prime in polynomial time.

1. INTRODUCTION

In August 2002, M. Agrawal, N. Kayal and N. Saxena proposed an unconditional, deterministic and polynomial time primality test. It is now known as AKS test or AKS algorithm. Prior to then, several efficient primality test had been founded. Miller test (proposed in 1975, deterministic and polynomial time assuming the Extended Riemann Hypothesis); Rabin-Miller test(proposed in 1980, unconditional but in randomised polynomial time); Soloray-Strassen test(proposed in 1977, in randomised polynomial time); Adleman-Pomerance-Rumely test(proposed in 1983, deterministic and in $(\log n)^{O(\log \log \log n)}$ time); Goldwasser-Kilian test(proposed in 1986, in randomised expected polynomial time);

The AKS test finally achieved the desired polynomial runtime requirement using only fully proved facts. It not only settled the theoretical issue of primality test but also stunned the world with its simplicity. Many of the previous algorithms used deeper result while the AKS algorithm utilised simpler tools and acquire more efficient runtime condition. Soon after the AKS algorithm proposed, some variant algorithms had also been founded, two of them are in [LEN05] and [BER03], both proving primality in better asymptotic running time.

In this thesis, we take a exposition at the paper "PRIMES is in P" [AKS04] by M. Agrawal, N. Kayal and N. Saxena (2004), in which they used Lenstra's idea and made a

revision of their earlier version [AKS02]. Some of the structure and arrangement of the content are from [RC05] and [AG05].

We begin with an observation which is the idea that the AKS algorithm is based on.

2. BASIC IDEA

We shall let Z_n denote the ring $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$.

Lemma 2.0.1. Let a be an integer, n be a positive integer, $n \ge 2$, and (a,n) = 1. Then n is a prime if and only if

(1)
$$(x+a)^n \equiv x^n + a \pmod{n}.$$

Proof. The coefficient of x^i in $(x+a)^n - (x^n+a)$ is $\binom{n}{i}$. If *n* is a prime, then $\binom{n}{i} = 0$ (mod *n*). If *n* is composite and *q* is a prime factor of *n* such that $q^k || n$, then since

$$\binom{n}{q} = \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-q+1)}{q!}$$

and $q^k || n(n-1) \cdots (n-q+1)$, q^k can not divide $\binom{n}{q}$, whence *n* can not divide $\binom{n}{q}$. The coefficient of x^q is $a^{n-q} \binom{n}{q}$, which can not be divided by *n* since (a,n) = 1. So $(x+a)^n - (x^n+a)$ is not identically zero over Z_n .

The above criterion is not efficient enough to be polynomial-time: to verify (1) directly, one needs to compute all terms of the left-hand side and the computation takes O(n) time. A probable way of solving the problem is to modulo a polynomial f(x) on both side of (1). In particular, if (1) is satisfied, then the congruence

(2)
$$(x+a)^n \equiv x^n + a \pmod{x^r - 1, n}$$

will also be satisfied. If the degree r is not so large (bounded by an polynomial function of $\log n$), then we can check (2) quickly (in polynomial time). However, while (2) is necessary for n to be prime, it is not sufficient. And it seems that this is the main difficulty

to overcome if one wants a fast algorithm that derived from criterion (1). It turns out M. Agrawal, N. Kayal and N. Saxena managed to resolve this kind of difficulty: they can restore the characterization by verifying (2) for every a up to a certain point, if (2) is satisfied for all of these a, then n must be a prime power, which can be detected efficiently from the very beginning. The degree r is also appropriately chosen to assure each (2) can be verified in polynomial time, hence the total run time of their algorithm is polynomial time. Now we state the algorithm as pseudo code in the next section, after which is its correctness proof followed by analysis of time complexity.

3. The algorithm

Input: integer n > 1.

- 1. If *n* is a perfect power, return COMPOSITE.
- 2. Find the least integer *r* such that the order of *n* in Z_r^* exceeding $\log^2 n$.
- 3. If a|n for some $2 \le a \le \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n$, return COMPOSITE.
- 4. For $2 \le a \le \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n$, if $(x+a)^n \ne x^n + a \pmod{x^r 1}$, n, return COMPOSITE.
- 5. Return PRIME.

4. CORRECTNESS OF THE ALGORITHM

Theorem 1. The algorithm returns PRIME if and only if n is prime.

The proof of Theorem 1 is split into two parts: Lemma 4.0.2 and Theorem 2, dealing with the case which returns COMPOSITE and PRIME, respectively.

Lemma 4.0.2. If the algorithm returns COMPOSITE, then n is composite.

Proof. If the algorithm returns COMPOSITE from step 1 or 3, then clearly n is composite. Otherwise, COMPOSITE is returned from step 4, then by Theorem 1, n cannot be prime, thus n is also composite. The case that returns PRIME requires more efforts, and it serves as the main criterion in the algorithm. Some authors call this criterion "AKS Theorem". Before proceeding on, we need some lemmas.

In the rest of the context, let *R* denote the ring $Z_p[x]/(x^r-1)$.

Lemma 4.0.3. Let p be a prime number and r be a positive integer co-prime to p. Let $T: R \longrightarrow R$ be defined by $T(f) = f^p$. Then T is injective.

Proof. Suppose there are u, v belonging to R such that T(u) = T(v). Then

$$0 = T(u) - T(v) = u^{p} - v^{p} = (u - v)^{p} = T(u - v).$$

Let w = u - v. It suffices to prove w = 0. Write $w = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_{r-1} x^{r-1}$, so that in R,

$$0 = T(w)$$

= w^{p}
= $(a_{0} + a_{1}x + \dots + a_{r-1}x^{r-1})^{p}$
= $a_{0} + a_{1}x^{p} + \dots + a_{r-1}x^{(r-1)p}$.

If $x^{ip} = x^{jp}$ in *R* for some nonnegative integer *i*, *j*, then r|p(i-j), which means r|i-j due to (r,p) = 1. Since 0, 1, 2, ..., r-1 are all distinct modulo *r*, the terms $1, x^p, x^{2p}, ..., x^{(r-1)p}$ are actually the rearrangement of $1, x, x^2, ..., x^{r-1}$, and hence $a_0 + a_1 x^p + \cdots + a_{r-1} x^{(r-1)p} =$ 0 implies $a_0 = a_1 = \cdots = a_{r-1} = 0$. That is, w = 0. Therefore, *T* is injective.

Let $\overline{f(x)} \in R$ denote the residue class of $f(x) \in Z_p[x]$ and let *m* be a non-negative integer. If $\overline{g(x)} = \overline{f(x)}$, then $g(x) = f(x) + h(x)(x^r - 1)$, hence

$$g(x^m) = f(x^m) + h(x^m)(x^{rm} - 1).$$

Since $x^{mr} - 1$ is divisible by $x^r - 1$, we see that $\overline{g(x^m)} = \overline{f(x^m)}$. In other words, the residue class $\overline{f(x^m)}$ depends only on $\overline{f(x)}$ and is independent of the choice of f(x). Hence, we

have a well-defined operator

$$E_m: R \longrightarrow R, \ \overline{f(x)} \mapsto \overline{f(x^m)}.$$



In particular, if *p* is a prime number, then since $f(x^p) = f(x)^p$ for every $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$, we can conclude that for every $\overline{f(x)} \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\overline{f(x^p)} = \overline{f(x)}^p.$$

Theorem 2. (AKS Theorem) Suppose *n* is an integer with $n \ge 2$, *r* is a positive integer with (r,n) = 1 and the order of *n* in Z_r^* is larger than $\log^2 n$. Moreover, assume that

(3)
$$(x+a)^n = x^n + a \pmod{x^r - 1, p}$$

holds for integer a with $0 \le a \le \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n$. If n has a prime factor $p > \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n$, then $n = p^m$ for some positive integer m. If n has no prime factor in the interval $[1, \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n]$ and n is not a perfect power, then n is prime.

Proof. Suppose *n* has a prime factor $p > \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n$. Denote

$$G = \{g(x) \in Z_p[x] : g(x)^n = g(x^n) \pmod{x^r - 1}\}.$$

By (3), we know that $x + a \in G$, for all $0 \le a \le \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n$. Since *G* is closed under multiplication, if each e_a is a nonnegative integer, then the product

$$\prod_{0 \le a \le \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n} (x+a)^{e_a} \in G.$$

Let $\overline{G} \subset R$ denote the set of all residue classes of $f \in G$ modulo $x^r - 1$. Then

$$\overline{G} = \{\overline{f(x)} \in R \mid \overline{f(x^n)} = \overline{f(x)}^n\}.$$

For each $\overline{f(x)} \in \overline{G}$, denote $v := \overline{f(x^{n/p})}$ and $w := \overline{f(x)}^{n/p}$. Then

$$v^p = \overline{f(x^n)} = \overline{f(x)}^n = w^p.$$

Thus, by Lemma 4.0.3, we have v = w. Let m_1 and m_2 be positive integers such that

$$\overline{f(x^{m_1})} = \overline{f(x)}^{m_1}$$
 and $\overline{f(x^{m_2})} = \overline{f(x)}^{m_2}$

in *R*. Then there is $q(x) \in Z_p[x]$ satisfying

$$f(x)^{m_2} = f(x^{m_2}) + q(x)(x^r - 1)$$

in $Z_p[x]$. Substitute x with x^{m_1} and get

$$f(x^{m_1})^{m_2} = f(x^{m_1m_2}) + q(x^{m_1})(x^{m_1r} - 1)$$

in $Z_p[x]$. Note that $x^r - 1|x^{m_1r} - 1$, and hence in *R*

$$\overline{f(x^{m_1m_2})} = \overline{f(x^{m_1})}^{m_2} = \overline{f(x)}^{m_1m_2}.$$

Define

$$I = \{ p^{i} (n/p)^{j} \mid i, j \ge 0 \}.$$

From the above it has been shown for every $m \in I$ and every $g(x) \in G$, $\overline{g(x)}^m = \overline{g(x^m)}$ in *R*.

Let $Q_r(x)$ be the r^{th} cyclotomic polynomial over the finite field Z_p . Then $Q_r(x)|x^r - 1$ and $Q_r(x)$ factors into irreducible factors of degree $O_r(p)$ [LN86]. Let h(x) be one such irreducible factor and let \mathbb{F} denote $Z_p[x]/(h(x))$, which is a finite extension of Z_p . Every element of \mathbb{F} is the residue class of some $f(x) \in Z_p[x]$ and will be denoted as $\widehat{f(x)}$. Let $\widehat{G} \subset \mathbb{F}$ denote the set of all residues classes of polynomials in G modulo h(x).

Let \hat{I} be the set of all residues of numbers in I modulo r and denote $t = |\hat{I}|$. Obviously $\phi(r) \ge t$. An element $\overline{f(x)} \in R$ is the residue class of a unique $f(x) \in Z_p[x]$ with deg f(x) < r and we define the degree of $\overline{f(x)}$ to be that of f(x). Suppose $\overline{f(x)}, \overline{g(x)} \in G$ are of degree less than t such that $\widehat{f(x)} = \widehat{g(x)}$ in \mathbb{F} . Then

$$\widehat{f(x^i)} = \widehat{f(x)^i} = \widehat{f(x)}^i = \widehat{g(x)}^i = \widehat{g(x)^i} = \widehat{g(x^i)}$$



in \mathbb{F} , for all $i \in \hat{I}$. Now since \hat{x} (the residue class of x in \mathbb{F}) is a primitive rth root of 1, all \hat{x}^i , $i \in \hat{I}$, are distinct elements in \mathbb{F} . Hence f(x) = g(x) in $Z_p[x]$ (otherwise h(x) = f(x) - g(x)will have more than t roots in \mathbb{F}). Thus, we have proved that for any two distinct elements of degree less than t in G will map to different elements in \hat{G} .

Since $p > \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n \ge \sqrt{t} \log n$, the linear polynomials $x, x+1, ..., x+\lambda, \lambda := [\sqrt{t} \log n]$, are all distinct in *G*. Since $Z_p[x]$ is a unique factorisation domain, for distinct sequences $e := e_0, ..., e_{\lambda}$, the corresponding product

$$f_e := \prod_{0 \le a \le \lambda} (x+a)^{e_a}$$

are distinct. Because $n^i \in I$, for every i = 0, ..., the number *t* is no less than the order of *n* in Z_r^* , and hence $t \ge \log^2 n$. Therefore,

$$t\geq \sqrt{t}\log n>\lambda.$$

To have deg $f_e < t$, we can choose e such that either $e_i < t$ for some fixed i and $e_j = 0$ for all $j \neq i$, or each term $e_j = 0$ or 1 and not all $e_j = 1$. Then we can conclude that there are at least $2^{\lambda+1}$ distinct $f_e \in G$ with deg $f_e < t$. This implies

(4)
$$|\hat{G}| > 2^{\lambda+1} > 2^{\sqrt{t}\log n} = n^{\sqrt{t}}.$$

Suppose n is not a perfect power of p. Consider the subset

$$J := \{ (n/p)^i p^j \mid 0 \le i, j \le [\sqrt{t}] \} \subset I.$$

Since *n* is not a power of *p*, *J* contains $([\sqrt{t}] + 1)^2 > t$ distinct elements. So there are at least two numbers m_1, m_2 in *J* with $m_1 > m_2$ such that $m_1 = m_2 \pmod{r}$. Then $x^{m_1} = x^{m_2} \pmod{x^r - 1}$, and hence $\widehat{x}^{m_1} = \widehat{x}^{m_2}$. Let $\widehat{f(x)} \in \widehat{G}$. Then

(5)
$$\widehat{f(x)}^{m_1} = \widehat{f(x^{m_1})} = f(\widehat{x^{m_1}}) = \widehat{f(x^{m_2})} = \widehat{f(x^{m_2})} = \widehat{f(x)}^{m_2}.$$

It follows that $\hat{f}(x)^{m_1} = \hat{f}(x)^{m_2}$ in \mathbb{F} . Hence every $\hat{f}(x) \in \hat{G}$ is a root of the equation $Y^{m_1} - Y^{m_2} = 0$ in F. Again, because the number of roots of a polynomial in any extension of the field which its coefficients lie can not exceed its degree, we have $|\hat{G}| \leq m_1$. Clearly

$$m_1 \le (n/p \cdot p)^{[\sqrt{t}]} \le n^{\sqrt{t}}$$

hence $|\hat{G}| \le m_1 \le n^{\sqrt{t}}$, a contradiction to (4). Therefore *n* is a power of *p*. It is clear now that if *n* has no prime factor $p \le \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n$ and *n* is not a perfect power, then *n* is prime.

5. TIME COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS

We use the notation $\tilde{O}(t(n))$ for $O(t(n) * poly(\log t(n)))$, where t(n) is some function of *n*. Note that we can perform addition, multiplication and division operations between two *m* bits number in time O(m) [vzGG99]. Operations on two degree *d* polynomials with coefficients at most m bits can be done in time $\tilde{O}(dm)$ in a similar way [vzGG99]. In the following, we compute the runtime bound in terms of *n* and *r* in the algorithm.

Theorem 3. The asymptotic time complexity of the algorithm is $\tilde{O}(r^{3/2}\log^3 n)$.

Proof. The first step of the algorithm can be done with checking every possible exponent in $\tilde{O}(\log^3 n)$ time.

Step 2 can be done by trying successive numbers r that is coprime to n, and test if $n^k \neq 1 \pmod{r}$ for every $k \leq \log^2 n$. For a particular *r*, this can be done in $\tilde{O}(\log r \log^2 n)$, so it will take $\tilde{O}(r \log^2 n)$ time.

The time taken for step 3 is $\tilde{O}(r^{1/2}\log^2 n)$. In step 4, we have to verify about $\sqrt{\phi(r)}\log n$ equations. To verify each equation, one needs $\log n$ multiplications of degree r polynomials with coefficient of size $O(\log n)$, hence each equation can be verified in $\tilde{O}(r \log^2 n)$. The total time taken for step 4 is therefore $\tilde{O}(r^{3/2}\log^3 n)$.

Summing the above, we get the total time complexity of the algorithm: $\tilde{O}(r^{3/2}log^3n)$.

Up to this point, we have seen that the time needed for the algorithm is $\tilde{O}(r^{3/2}\log^3 n)$. Only if *r* is bounded by a polynomial of log *n* can the algorithm be in polynomial runtime overall. Indeed, this is the case, and we prove this in Theorem 4 using Lemma 5.0.4.

Lemma 5.0.4. Let LCM(m) denote the lcm of first m numbers. For $m \ge 7$: $LCM(m) \ge 2^m$.

I heard the following proof from Dr. Yi-Chih Chiu, who was a post doctor research fellow at National Taiwan University when I worked on this thesis, and he mainly used the approach as in [Nai82], with more direct arguments.

Proof. We first prove that $n(n+1)\binom{2n+1}{n}|LCM(2n+1)|$. This is true because

$$LCM(2n+1) = \prod_{p^r \le 2n+1 < p^{r+1}} p^r,$$

while the exponent of p in the prime factorisation of $\binom{2n+1}{n}$ equals

$$\sum_{i \ge 1} ([(2n+1)/p^i] - [n/p^i] - [(n+1)/p^i]) \le r$$

if $p^r \le 2n+1 < p^{r+1}$ as each term is 0 or 1. When $p^a || n$ or $p^a || (n+1)$, we can improve the upper bound of the above summation by r-a. Hence, the divisibility property follows.

As a consequence, $LCM(2n+1) \ge n(n+1)\binom{2n+1}{n} = n(2n+1)\binom{2n}{n} \ge n \cdot 2^{2n}$. This shows $LCM(m) \ge 2^m$ for odd $m \ge 3$. The case of even *m* follows from the crude estimation $LCM(m) \ge LCM(m-1)$.

Theorem 4. Let $n \ge 3$. In step 2, the integer r can be found with $r \le \lceil \log^5 n \rceil + 1$ or n will be verified composite in this step.

Proof. Since $n \ge 3$, so $m \ge \lceil \log^5 n \rceil > 10$ and by Lemma 5.0.4,

$$(6) LCM(m) \ge 2^m$$
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Let r_0 be the least number that does not divide the product

$$Q := \prod_{i=1}^{\lfloor \log^2 n \rfloor} (n^i - 1) < n^{\log^4 n} = 2^{\log^5 n}.$$



If *l* is a prime number and $l^b || LCM(r_0 - 1)$, then $l^b \le r_0 - 1$, and hence $l^b | Q$. This implies

$$LCM(r_0-1) \le Q < 2^{\log^3 n}.$$

then we must have

$$r_0 \le \left\lceil \log^5 n \right\rceil + 1,$$

for otherwise, $r_0 - 1 \ge \lceil \log^5 n \rceil + 1$, hence by (6),

$$LCM(r_0-1) \ge 2^{\left\lceil \log^5 n \right\rceil + 1} > 2^{\log^5 n}$$

a contradiction to the above inequality.

Now, if $(r_0, n) > 1$ then *n* is composite; otherwise, $(r_0, n) = 1$ and $O_{r_0}(n) > \log^2 n$.

From theorems above, the time complexity of the algorithm is $\tilde{O}(r^{3/2}\log^3 n) = \tilde{O}(\log^{21/2} n)$. Using a deep result from analytic number theory in [Fo85], one can show that *r* may actually be chosen with $r = O(\log^3 n)$, and thus getting a more tight but ineffective bound of the runtime: $\tilde{O}(\log^{7.5} n)$.

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