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In this note, we have outlined how we conducted our research with the help of a computer algebra system. As was shown, the use of algebraic devices (working modulo some polynomial) to compensate the weaknesses of the simplification algorithm(s) for complex expressions, gave us much more than just a convenient solution. One of the outstanding effect of this use of MAPLE was the unveiling of unexpected formulas such as (1), (2), (3), and (4). That is why this approach ought to be publicized.

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Exact Algorithms for the Matrix-Triangularization Subresultant PRS Method

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Abstract. In [2] a new method is presented for the computation of a greatest common divisor (gcd) of two polynomials, along with their polynomial remainder sequence (prs). This method is based on our generalization of a theorem by Van Vleck (1899)[12] and uniformly treats both normal and abnormal prs's, making use of Bareiss's (1968)[4] integer-preserving transformation algorithm for Gaussian elimination; moreover, for the polynomials of the prs's, this method provides the smallest coefficients that can be expected without coefficient gcd computations. In this paper we present efficient, exact algorithms for the implementation of this new method, along with an example where bubble pivot is needed.

1. Introduction

In this note we restrict our discussion to univariate polynomials with integer coefficients and to computations in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, a unique factorization domain. Given the polynomial $p(x) = c_n x^n + c_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + c_0$, its degree is denoted by $\deg(p(x))$ and c_n , its leading coefficient, by $lc(p)$; moreover, $p(x)$ is called *primitive* if its coefficients are relatively prime.

Consider now $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$, two primitive, nonzero polynomials in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, $\deg(p_1(x)) = n$ and $\deg(p_2(x)) = m$, $n \geq m$. Clearly, the polynomial division (with remainder) algorithm, call it PD, that works over a field, cannot be used in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ since it requires exact divisibility by $lc(p_2)$. So we use *pseudo-division*, which always yields a pseudo-quotient and pseudo-remainder; in this

In general, if we have the polynomial remainder sequence $p_1(x), p_2(x), p_3(x), \dots, p_h(x)$, $\deg(p_1(x)) = n, \deg(p_2(x)) = m, n \geq m$, we can obtain the (negated) coefficients of the $(i+1)$ th member of the prs, $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, h-1$, as minors formed from the first $2i$ rows of (S) by successively associating with the first $2i - 1$ columns (of the $(2i)$ by $(2n)$ matrix) each succeeding column in turn.

On the other hand, we transform the matrix corresponding to the resultant (S) into its upper triangular form using Bareiss's integer-preserving transformation algorithm [4]. That is: let $r_{00}^{(-1)} = 1$, and $r_{ij}^{(0)} = r_{ij}, i, j = 1, \dots, n$; then for $k < i, j, \leq n$,

$$r_{ij}^{(k)} := (1 / r_{k-1, k-1}^{(k-2)}) \cdot \begin{vmatrix} r_{kk}^{(k-1)} & r_{kj}^{(k-1)} \\ r_{ik}^{(k-1)} & r_{ij}^{(k-1)} \end{vmatrix} \quad (5)$$

Of particular importance in Bareiss's algorithm is the fact that the determinant of order 2 is divided *exactly* by $r_{k-1, k-1}^{(k-2)}$ (the proof is very short and clear and is described in Bareiss's paper [4]) and that the resulting coefficients are the smallest that can be expected without coefficient gcd computations and without introducing rationals. Notice how all the complicated expressions for β_i in the reduced and subresultant prs algorithms are mapped to the simple factor $r_{k-1, k-1}^{(k-2)}$ of this method.

It should be pointed out that using Bareiss's algorithm we will have to perform pivots (interchange two rows) which will result in a change of signs. We also define the term *bubble pivot* as follows: if the diagonal element in row i is zero and the next nonzero element down the column is in row $i+j, j > 1$, then row $i+j$ will become row i after pairwise interchanging it with the rows above it. Bubble pivot preserves the symmetry of the determinant.

We have the following theorem.

Theorem 2 ([2]). Let $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$ be two polynomials of degrees n and m respectively, $n \geq m$. Using Bareiss's algorithm transform the matrix corresponding to $\text{res}_S(p_1(x), p_2(x))$ into its upper triangular form $T_S(R)$; let n_i be the degree of the polynomial corresponding to the i th row of $T_S(R), i = 1, 2, \dots, 2n$, and let $p_k(x), k \geq 2$, be the k th member of the (normal or abnormal) polynomial remainder sequence of $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$. Then if $p_k(x)$ is in row i of $T_S(R)$, the coefficients of $p_{k+1}(x)$ (within sign) are obtained from row $i+j$ of $T_S(R)$, where j is the smallest integer such that $n_{i+j} < n_i$. (If $n = m$ associate both $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$ with the first row of $T_S(R)$.)

Notice that as a special case of the above theorem we obtain Van Vleck's theorem for normal prs's. We see, therefore, that based on Theorem 2, we have a new method to compute the polynomial remainder sequence and a greatest common divisor of two polynomials. This new method uniformly treats both normal and abnormal prs's and provides the smallest coefficients that can be expected without coefficient gcd computation.

3. Our method and its implementation

The inputs are two (primitive) polynomials in $Z[x], p_1(x) = c_n x^n + c_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + c_0$ and $p_2(x) = d_m x^m + d_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \dots + d_0, c_n \neq 0, d_m \neq 0, n \geq m$.

Step 1: Form the resultant $(S), \text{res}_S(p_1(x), p_2(x))$, of the two polynomials $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$.

Step 2: Using Bareiss's algorithm (described above) transform the resultant (S) into its upper triangular form $T_S(R)$; then the coefficients of all the members of the polynomial remainder sequence of $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$ are obtained from the rows of $T_S(R)$ with the help of Theorem 2.

For this method we have proved [2] that its computing time is:

Theorem 3. Let $p_1(x) = c_n x^n + c_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + c_0$ and $p_2(x) = d_m x^m + d_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \dots + d_0, c_n \neq 0, d_m \neq 0, n \geq m$ be two (primitive) polynomials in $Z[x]$ and for some polynomial $l(x)$ in $Z[x]$ let $|l|_\infty$ represent its maximum coefficient in absolute value. Then the method described above computes a greatest common divisor of $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$ along with all the polynomial remainders in time

$$O(n^5 L (|l|_\infty)^2)$$

where $|l|_\infty = \max(|l_1|_\infty, |l_2|_\infty)$.

Below we present efficient exact (maple-like) algorithms for the matrix-triangularization and subresultant prs method. A subalgorithm call is the name of the subalgorithm in all bold letters. All subalgorithm calls are from the main algorithm. Parameters (arguments) are not shown. Comments are made within braces $\{\}$. An explanation of the variables is found after the algorithms.

process we have to premultiply $p_1(x)$ by $lc(p_2)^{n-m+1}$ and then apply algorithm PD. Therefore we have:

$$lc(p_2)^{n-m+1}p_1(x) = q(x)p_2(x) + p_3(x), \quad \deg(p_3(x)) < \deg(p_2(x)). \quad (1)$$

Applying the same process to $p_2(x)$ and $p_3(x)$, and then to $p_3(x)$ and $p_4(x)$, etc. (Euclid's algorithm), we obtain a *polynomial remainder sequence* (prs)

$$p_1(x), p_2(x), p_3(x), \dots, p_h(x), p_{h+1}(x) = 0,$$

where $p_h(x) \neq 0$ is a greatest common divisor of $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$, $\gcd(p_1(x), p_2(x))$. If $n_i = \deg(p_i(x))$ and we have $n_i - n_{i+1} = 1$, for all i , the prs is called *normal*, otherwise, it is called *abnormal*. The problem with the above approach is that the coefficients of the polynomials in the prs grow exponentially and hence slow down the computations. We wish to control this coefficient growth. We observe that equation (1) can also be written more generally as

$$lc(p_{i+1})^{n_i - n_{i+1} + 1} p_i(x) = q_i(x)p_{i+1}(x) + \beta_i p_{i+2}(x), \quad \deg(p_{i+2}(x)) < \deg(p_{i+1}(x)), \quad (2)$$

$i = 1, 2, \dots, h-1$. That is, if a method for choosing β_i is given, the above equation provides an algorithm for constructing a prs. The obvious choice $\beta_i = 1$, for all i , is called the *Euclidean prs*; it was described above and leads to exponential growth of coefficients. Choosing β_i to be the greatest common divisor of the coefficients of $p_{i+2}(x)$ results in the *primitive prs*, and it is the best that can be done to control the coefficient growth. (Notice that here we are dividing $p_{i+2}(x)$ by the greatest common divisor of its coefficients before we use it again.) However, computing the greatest common divisor of the coefficients for each member of the prs (after the first two, of course) is an expensive operation and should be avoided. So far, in order both to control the coefficient growth and to avoid the coefficient gcd computations, either the *reduced* or the (improved) *subresultant* prs have been used. In the reduced prs we choose

$$\beta_1 = 1 \text{ and } \beta_i = lc(p_i)^{n_i - n_{i+1} + 1}, \quad i = 2, 3, \dots, h-1, \quad (3)$$

whereas, in the subresultant prs we have

$$\beta_1 = (-1)^{n_1 - n_2 + 1} \text{ and } \beta_i = (-1)^{n_i - n_{i+1} + 1} lc(p_i) H_i^{n_i - n_{i+1}}, \quad i = 2, 3, \dots, h-1, \quad (4)$$

where

$$H_2 = lc(p_2)^{n_1 - n_2} \text{ and } H_i = lc(p_i)^{n_{i-1} - n_i} H_{i-1}^{1 - (n_{i-1} - n_i)}, \quad i = 3, 4, \dots, h-1.$$

That is, in both cases above we divide $p_{i+2}(x)$ by the corresponding β_i before we use it again. The reduced prs algorithm is recommended if the prs is normal, whereas if the prs is abnormal the subresultant prs algorithm is to be preferred. The proofs that the β_i 's shown in (3) and (4) exactly divide $p_{i+2}(x)$ are very complicated [7] and have up to now obscured simple divisibility properties [10], (see also [5] and [6]). For a simple proof of the validity of the reduced prs see [1]; analogous proof for the subresultant prs can be found in [8].

In contrast with the above prs algorithms, the matrix-triangularization subresultant prs method avoids explicit polynomial divisions (explained below). In what follows we present efficient, exact algorithms for the implementation of this method. We also present an example where bubble pivot is needed.

2. Gaussian elimination and Sylvester's form of the resultant

Consider the two polynomials in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, $p(x) = c_n x^n + c_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + c_0$ and $p_2(x) = d_m x^m + d_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \dots + d_0$, $c_n \neq 0$, $d_m \neq 0$, $n \geq m$. Contrary to established practice, we choose to call Sylvester's form of the resultant of $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$ the one described below; this form was "buried" in Sylvester's 1853 paper [11] and is only once mentioned in the literature in a paper by Van Vleck [12]. Sylvester indicates ([11], p.426) that he had produced this form in 1839 or 1840 and some years later Cayley unconsciously reproduced it as well. It is Sylvester's form of the resultant that forms the foundation of our new method for computing polynomial remainder sequences; however, we first present the following theorem concerning Bruno's form of the resultant (the form encountered most often in the literature under the Sylvester's name):

Theorem 1 (Laidacker[9]). If we transform the matrix corresponding to $\text{res}_{\mathbb{B}}(p_1(x), p_2(x))$ into its upper triangular form $T_{\mathbb{B}}(R)$, using row transformations only, then the last nonzero row of $T_{\mathbb{B}}(R)$ gives the coefficients of a greatest common divisor of $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$.

The above theorem indicates that we can obtain only a greatest common divisor of $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$ but none of the remainder polynomials. In order to compute both a $\gcd(p_1(x), p_2(x))$ and all the polynomial remainders we have to use Sylvester's form of the resultant; this is of order $2n$ (as opposed to $n+m$ for the other forms) and of the following form ($p_2(x)$ has been transformed into a polynomial of degree n by introducing zero coefficients):

$$\text{res}_{\mathbb{S}}(p, q) = \begin{bmatrix} c_n & c_{n-1} & \dots & c_0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ d_n & d_{n-1} & \dots & d_0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & c_n & \dots & c_0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & d_n & \dots & d_0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ & & \dots & & & & & \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & c_n & c_{n-1} & \dots & c_0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & d_n & d_{n-1} & \dots & d_0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (S)$$

```

start      {deg(p1(x)) >= deg(p2(x))}
  initialize  {set resultant matrix to zero, and initialize the variables used}
  getpolys   {get coefficients of the first two polynomials}
  buildmatrix {build the matrix corresponding to Sylvester's form of the resultant}
  set k to 1  {k is the index for the transformation loop}
  while k < n do {loop n-1 times, unless gcd is found (see pivot)}
    if (r[k,k] = 0) then pivot fi {need to put a non-zero element into r[k,k]}
    if k < n then {in pivot, if gcd is found k is set to n+1}
      do transform; set d to r[k,k] od
    fi
    set k to k+1 {increment main loop index}
  od
end

initialize
  n1 := deg(p1(x)); {deg(p1(x)) >= deg(p2(x))}
  n := 2*n1;
  for i from 1 to n do
    for j from 1 to n do
      r[i,j] := 0 {see notes on variables below}
    od
    tran[i] := false {see notes on variables below}
  od
  d := 1 {no division for first transformation}
end

getpolys
{this is dependent on the language used and whether the program is interactive or reads data from a
data file; the function coeff(p(x), i) computes the coefficient of xi in the polynomial p(x)}
  for i from 1 to n1+1 do
    r[1,i] := coeff(p1(x), n1+1-i) {put the coefficients of p1(x) in row 1 of the matrix}
    r[2,i] := coeff(p2(x), n1+1-i) {put the coefficients of p2(x) in row 2; remember that we have
to include leading zero if deg(p2(x)) < deg(p1(x))}
  od
end

```

```

buildmatrix
  k := 2;
  for i from 3 to n do {loop to put values in rows 3 to n}
    for j from k to n do {loop to put values across each row}
      r[i,j] := r[i-2, j-1]
    od
    if (i mod 2) = 0 then k := k+1 fi
  od
{the following will build array L; L[i] is the location of the last polynomial element in row i}
  j := 1;
  for i from 1 to n1 do
    L[j] := i + n1; {last position is based on first plus degree}
    L[j+1] := i + n1;
    j := j + 2 {go down two rows}
  od
end

pivot
{check across row k for all zeros, this means row k-1 is gcd}
  ck4gcd := true;
  i := k+1; {i is the index for loop}
  while (i <= L[k]) and ck4gcd do {loop across row}
    if r[k,i] <> 0 then ck4gcd := false fi
    i := i + 1 {increment loop index}
  od
  if ck4gcd then {need to zero matrix below row k and stop processing}
    for i from k+1 to n do
      for j from k to n do
        r[i,k] := 0
      od
    od
    k := n + 1 {this stops main loop}
  else {need to find a row s without a zero in column k to pivot up}
    s := k + 1 {start looking one row below k}
    while r[s,k] = 0 do {loop while value in column k is zero}
      s := s + 1
    od
    {move row s to row k with bubble pivot}
  end

```

```

tempbool := trans[s];      {need to pivot tran with rows}
tempint := L[s];
for j from 1 to n do temprow[j] := r[s,j] od;
for i from s by -1 to k + 1 do {this needs to step backwards (s is > k+1)}
  tran[i] := tran[i-1];
  L[i] := L[i-1];
  for j from 1 to n do r[i,j] := r[i-1,j] od
od;
tran[k] := tempbool;
L[k] := tempint;
for j from 1 to n do r[k,j] := temprow[j] od;
fi
end

```

transform

{Find the last row s with a non-zero element in column k or the last row which has been transformed (whichever is higher)}

```

s := k;
for i from k+1 to n do
  if (r[i,k] <> 0) or tran[i] then s := i fi
od
{s is now the last row with a non-zero element in column k}
for i from k + 1 to s do {loop through all rows up to s}
  for j from k + 1 to L[i] do {loop across row to last element}
    if tran[k] and tran[i] and (d <> 1) then
      {okay to divide as you transform row i}
      r[i,j] := iquo(r[k,k] * r[i,j] - r[i,k] * r[k,j],d)
      {iquo(m,n) computes the integer quotient of m divided by n}
    else
      r[i,j] := r[k,k] * r[i,j] - r[i,k] * r[k,j]
    fi
  od;
  r[i,k] := 0; {need to zero column k below row k}
  tran[i] := true {row i has been transformed}
od
end

```

printmatrix

{this is dependent on the language used; print each row and column}

```

for i from 1 to n do
  for j from 1 to n do
    write r[i,j] {on one line}
  od;
  advance a line
od
end

```

The variables

1. $r[i,j]$ is a two dimensional matrix (array).
2. $n_1 = \deg(p_1(x))$.
3. $n = 2 * n_1$ is the length and width of the resultant (matrix).
4. $L[i]$ is the location of the last element in row i ; this is important because it is used so that we do not update the zero elements of a row.
5. $tran[i]$ is a one dimensional boolean (or logical) array; it is true when row i was transformed during the last transformation; this is important since only transformed rows may be divided by d .
6. d is the value which a transformed row may be divided by if all other factors allow for division. In the Bareiss transform d is $r[k-1,k-1]$.
7. k is the current transformation number and $r[k,k]$ is the corner element where the next transformation will begin.
8. $tempint$, $tempbool$ and $temprow$ are temporary variables used for pivoting.
9. $ck4gcd$ is a boolean (logical) variable which will be true when row k is all zeros. This means a greatest common divisor (gcd) has been found and further transformations are not necessary.

Below we present an incomplete example where bubble pivoting is needed [3]; note that there is a difference of 3 in the degrees of the members of the prs, as opposed to a difference of 2 in Knuth's "classic" incomplete example.

Example. Let us find the polynomial remainder sequence of the polynomials $p_1(x) = 3x^9 + 5x^8 + 7x^7 - 3x^6 - 5x^5 - 7x^4 + 3x^3 + 5x^2 + 7x - 2$ and $p_2(x) = x^8 - x^5 - x^2 - x - 1$. This incomplete prs example presents a variation of three in the degrees of its members (from 7 to 4) and it requires a bubble pivot in the matrix-triangularization method; that is, a pivot will take place between rows that are not adjacent.

The matrix-triangularization subresultant prs method

row		degree
1>	3 5 7 -3 -5 -7 3 5 7 -2 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	(9)
2>	0 1 0 0 -1 0 0 -1 -1 -1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	(8)
3)	0 0 5 7 0 -5 -7 6 8 10 -2 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	(8)
4>	0 0 0 -7 0 0 7 -6 -13 -15 -3 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	(7)
5)	0 0 0 0 -49 0 0 79 23 19 -55 14 0 0 0 0 0 0	(7)
#6)	0 0 0 0 0 -343 0 -24 501 73 93 -413 98 0 0 0 0 0	(7)
#7)	0 0 0 0 0 0 -2401 -510 -1273 1637 -339 56 -2891 686 0 0 0 0	(7)
8>	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 2058 4459 7546 3430 2401 0 0 0 0 0 0	(4)
9)	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 -1764 -3822 -6468 -2940 -2058 0 0 0 0 0	(4)
10)	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1512 3276 5544 2520 1764 0 0 0 0	(4)
11)	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 25811 -18982 4520 -811 -3024 0 0 0	(4)
12>	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 -64205 -77246 -37568 -28403 0 0 0	(3)
13)	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 2124693 449379 519299 128410 0 0	(3)
14>	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 -5240853 -1800739 -2018639 0 0	(2)
15)	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 -22909248 -24412716 10481706 0	(2)
16>	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 -40801132 47620330 0	(1)
17)	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 -398219984 81602264	(1)
18>	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 682427564	(0)

Largest integer generated is 27843817119202448 [17 digits].

Pivoted row 6 during transformation 6. Stored row is:

6> 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 42 91 154 70 49 0 0 0 0 0 0 (4)

Pivoted row 7 during transformation 7. Stored row is:

7) 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 294 637 1078 490 343 0 0 0 0 0 0 (4)

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