

Polynomials

Some insights into what Maple's *solve* command does under the hood

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Working with *solve*

- Find roots (zeroes) of the following expression:

```
expr := 6 x^2 - x - 2 :
plot(expr, x=-1 ..1)
fsolve(expr);
solve(expr = 0);
```

- Replace x by the cosine of t .

```
expr := expr | x = cos(t)
plot(expr, t=-1 ..1)
solve(expr = 0);
```

- Looks just as straightforward - but it isn't!

```
plot(expr, t=-5 ..5)
solve(expr = 0, AllSolutions)
```

- Issue 1: Periodicity
- Issue 2: Is $\arccos\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)$ really a solution? It just means "the number between 0 and π whose cosine is $\frac{2}{3}$ ". It's another equation to solve!
- There is no "more elementary" way to represent the answer.
- This is just a convention: π is also just a conventional name for $\arccos(-1)$; $\sqrt{2}$ is just a conventional name for the positive zero of $x^2 - 2$.

```
solve(a · exp(a) = z, a);
```

```
map(print, [indices(FunctionAdvisor(LambertW), pairs)]) :
```

$$\text{solve}(6.132 \cos(t)^2 - \cos(t) - 2.138 = 0);$$

$$\text{solve}\left(\frac{6132}{1000} \cos(t)^2 - \cos(t) - \frac{2138}{1000} = 0\right);$$

$$\text{solve}(6.132 \cos(t)^2 - \cos(t) - a = 0, t);$$

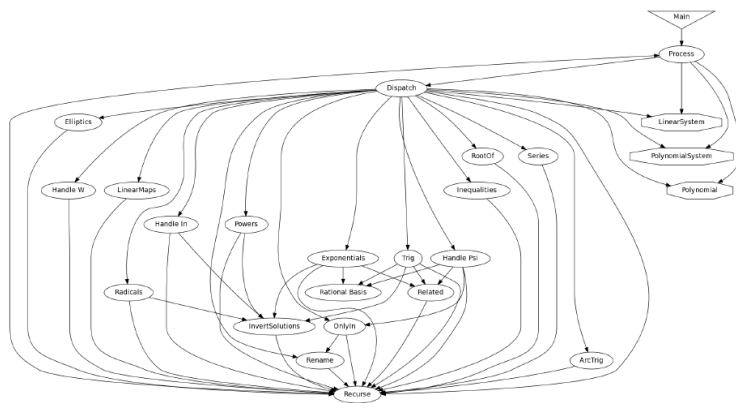
$$\text{solve}(6.132 \cos(t)^{2.1} - \cos(t) - a = 0, t);$$

- "Most" polynomials of degree five and higher have no closed form solution. (For some reasonable measure, closed form solutions exist only for a measure-0 subset of the whole space.) Hence what we saw above is the typical situation.
- Even if there exists a closed form solution, it doesn't always make you happy:

$$\text{solve}(x^9 + 3x^8 + 6x^7 + 5x^6 + 2x^5 - 3x^4 - x^3 + 2x - 2);$$

- What we really want solve to do is:
 - Rewrite our systems of equations to *simple* equations
 - If applicable, tell us the customary notation for the solution to such equations

How does *solve* work?



- It all reduces to solving (systems of) polynomials in the end

Solving single univariate polynomials

- Fundamental Theorem of Algebra: a non-constant univariate polynomial over a field K has a root in an extension of K

$x^3 - 2$ has a root $\sqrt[3]{2}$

$x^2 + 1$ has a root I

$x^4 - 2x + 1$ has a root 1

- Given such a root a , we can *divide* by $x - a$ and get a polynomial that has the same set of roots except one occurrence of a (using long division) :

$$\text{evala}\left(\frac{x^2 + 1}{x - I}\right) =$$

$$\text{evala}\left(\frac{x^3 - 2}{x - \sqrt[3]{2}}\right) =$$

- We can keep doing this as long as the polynomial is not constant, so any univariate polynomial of degree n can be written as:

$$c (x - x_0) (x - x_1) \dots (x - x_n)$$

- However, as we have seen, often the roots cannot be represented explicitly. In such a situation we factor the polynomial in as many factors with suitable coefficients as possible, and tell the user "it's the roots of these simpler factors". (For us, "suitable" = integer.)

$$\text{factor}(x^4 - 4x^2 + 4) =$$

$$\text{solve}(x^4 - 4x^2 + 4) =$$

$$\text{factor}(x^{10} - 2 \cdot x^6 + 2 \cdot x^5 + x^2 - 2 \cdot x + 1) =$$

$$\text{solve}(x^{10} - 2 \cdot x^6 + 2 \cdot x^5 + x^2 - 2 \cdot x + 1) =$$

- Factoring happens in many steps, with many tricks and shortcuts. Let's take an example.

$$f := x^8 + 3x^7 - 5x^6 - 25x^5 - 47x^4 - 47x^3 - 15x^2 + 5x + 2 :$$

- The first trick is to find if there are any *repeated factors*: if $f = g^2 \cdot h$. If so, then

$$\frac{d}{dx} f = 2 g g' h + g^2 h' = g \cdot (2 g' h + g h'), \text{ and therefore } \frac{d}{dx} f \text{ and } f \text{ share a factor of } g.$$

If none of the factors are repeated (f is *squarefree*), then f and $\frac{d}{dx} f$ do not share any factors. This can be tested by computing the gcd:

$$fp := \frac{d}{dx} f =$$

$$\text{gcd}(f, fp) =$$

$$f2 := \text{evala}\left(\frac{f}{(x+1)^2}\right) =$$

- Now we know $f2$ is squarefree. The so-called *Landau-Mignotte bound* says that any (integer) factor of p has coefficients that are, in an absolute sense, at most

$$\text{LMB}(p) = \left[\binom{d-1}{\lfloor \frac{d}{2} \rfloor - 1} + \binom{d-1}{\lfloor \frac{d}{2} \rfloor} \cdot \|p\|_2 \right], \text{ where } d = \left\lfloor \frac{\text{degree}(p)}{2} \right\rfloor.$$

```

1 LMB := proc(p :: polynom, $)
2 local d, n;
3   d := floor(degree(p)/2);
4   n := norm(p, 2);
5   return floor(binomial(d-1, floor(d/2)-1) +
6             binomial(d-1, floor(d/2)) * n);

```

$LMB(f_2) =$

- We will use finite fields: most simple algorithms for completely factoring polynomials reduce to factoring over finite fields, then build up the result in the original domain.
- If $f = g \cdot h$ is true over the integers, then equality also holds modulo any integer m - so if there is a factorization over the integers, we will find it over the integers modulo m . Conversely, if we find a factorization over the integers modulo m , it may *not* correspond to a factorization over the integers:

$factor(x^2 + 2) =$

$Factor(x^2 + 2) \bmod 3 =$

- Demo here: use prime field $\mathbb{Z}/(p\mathbb{Z})$ with $p > 2 \cdot LMB(f_2)$: then we know for each coefficient what the integer corresponding to it is.
- Best algorithm, but more complicated: use a small prime p , then "lift" factorization to rings $\mathbb{Z}/(p^n\mathbb{Z})$ with increasing n until $p^n > 2 \cdot LMB(f_2)$.
- Take $p := nextprime(2 \cdot LMB(f_2)) =$. Test that f_2 is still squarefree if taken modulo p .

$Gcd(f_2, diff(f_2, x)) \bmod p =$

- Use: $x^{p^i} - x = \prod_{\substack{d|i \\ \text{degree}(g)=d \\ g \text{ irreducible} \\ g \text{ monic}}} g$.

- We can use this to find the product of all irreducible factors of degree 1, 2, ..., for $i = 1, 2, \dots$, compute $gcd(f_2, x^{p^i} - x)$, then divide f_2 by the factor we just found.

```

1 SplitDegrees := proc(f :: polynom,
2                     x :: name,
3                     p :: posint,
4                     $)
5 local ff, lc, g, i, xpi, result;
6   lc := lccoeff(f, x);
7   ff := f / lc mod p;
8   xpi := x;
9
10  # Invariant: xpi = x^(p^i) mod ff
11  # Invariant: ff is not divisible by irreducible
12  #             factors of degree < i
13  for i while degree(ff) >= 2*i do
14    xpi := Powmod(xpi, p, ff, x) mod p;
15    g := Gcd(ff, xpi - x) mod p;
16    if g <> 1 then
17      result[i] := g;
18      ff := Quo(ff, g, x) mod p;
19    end if;
20  end do;
21
22  if ff <> 1 then
23    # Because of second invariant, ff must be
24    # irreducible.
25    result[degree(ff)] := ff;

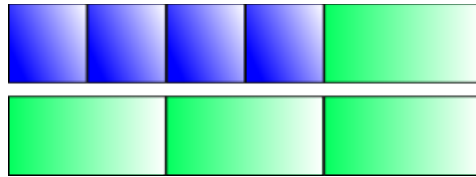
```

$SplitDegrees(f_2, x, p);$

- So we know that f_2 has four linear factors and one quadratic factor over $\mathbb{Z}/(97\mathbb{Z})$.

$p_2 := nextprime(p) =$
 $SplitDegrees(f_2, x, p_2);$

- But only three quadratic factors over $\mathbb{Z}/(101\mathbb{Z})!$



- Since the factorization will be less coarse over the integers than over any prime field, we are better off with the three quadratic factors.
- However, we may be able to use the single quadratic factor found over $\mathbb{Z}/(97\mathbb{Z})$:

$$\text{rem}(f_2, x^2 + x + 2, x) =$$

$$f_3 := \text{quo}(f_2, x^2 + x + 2, x) =$$

- This is indeed a valid factor over the integers, and we know it's irreducible because it was already irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}/(97\mathbb{Z})$.
- To find the $r := 2$: irreducible factors (say f_{3a} and f_{3b}) of f_3 over $\mathbb{Z}/(101\mathbb{Z})$ (which we know have degree $d := 2$):
- The field $\mathbb{Z}/(101\mathbb{Z})[X]/(f_3)$ is a *direct sum* of two fields corresponding to f_{3a} and f_{3b} : a sum of two 2-dimensional vector spaces over $\mathbb{Z}/(101\mathbb{Z})$. So we can write any polynomial of degree 3 or less as a sum of a multiple of f_{3a} and a multiple of f_{3b} - but we don't know how.
- If we could get our hands on a multiple of f_{3a} , we could find it by taking the gcd with f_3 .
- Take a *pseudorandom* element g of $\mathbb{Z}/(101\mathbb{Z})[X]/(f_3)$ - that is, a polynomial of degree $< \text{degree}(f_3) =$.

$$g := \text{Randpoly}(\text{degree}(f_3) - 1, x) \bmod p_2 =$$

- Raise it to the power $\frac{p_2^d - 1}{2} =$, modulo f_3 and modulo 101.

$$gpow := \text{Powmod}\left(g, \frac{p_2^d - 1}{2}, f_3, x\right) \bmod p_2 =$$

- Now algebra tells us that the f_{3a} component of $gpow$ is equal to $+1$ for about half of the choices of g and equal to -1 for also about half of the choices. (There is also a small chance that it is 0.) The same is true for f_{3b} .

$$\text{Gcd}(gpow - 1, f_3) \bmod p_2 =$$

$$\text{Gcd}(gpow + 1, f_3) \bmod p_2 =$$

$$\text{Gcd}(gpow, f_3) \bmod p_2 =$$

- Bad luck? Try again.

$$\text{expand}((x^2 + 18) \cdot (x^2 + 73) - f_3) \bmod p_2 =$$

- We now know that *if* f_3 has a factorization over the integers, it must be with factors congruent to $x^2 + 18$ and $x^2 + 73$ modulo 101.
- The Landau-Mignotte bound says that the absolute value of coefficients of factors of f_2 , and

therefore of f_3 , must be less than $LMB(f_2) =$. So the candidate factorization is

$$(x^2 + 18) \cdot (x^2 + 73 - 101) =$$

- However, the coefficients must also be less than $LMB(f_3) =$.

$$\text{expand}((x^2 + 18) \cdot (x^2 - 28)) =$$

- So f_3 is irreducible over the integers.
- A full (integer) factorization of $f =$ is therefore $(x + 1)^2 \cdot (x^2 + x + 2) \cdot (x^4 - 10 \cdot x^2 + 1)$.

$$_factor(f) =$$

Solving systems of polynomials

- What does "solving a system of polynomials" mean?
- Much more complicated than single polynomials
- Redundancy
- Positive-dimensional components of a solution:

restart

$$\text{plots:-implicitplot3d}(x^2 - y^2 z^2 + z^3, x = -0.5 .. 0.5, y = -2 .. 2, z = -1 .. 1, \text{numpoints} = 3 \cdot 10^3)$$

$$\text{solve}(\{x \cdot z = 0, y \cdot z = 0\});$$

$$\text{plots:-display}(\text{plottools:-polygon}([[-1, -1, 0], [-1, 1, 0], [1, 1, 0], [1, -1, 0]], \text{color} = \text{red}), \text{plottools:-line}([0, 0, -1], [0, 0, 1], \text{thickness} = 3, \text{color} = \text{black}));$$

- Several approaches: resultants, Gröbner basis, triangular decomposition/regular chains
- All take exponential amounts of time, or worse, in the worst case
- Resultants are a classical technique useful for theoretical results, but rarely used in practice these days
- For the rest, rewrite equations into some sort of normal form
- Gröbner bases are fairly well known; implementations in most major computer algebra systems (Maple has a well-regarded implementation of F4 by Faugère in its *Groebner* package)
- Triangular decomposition/regular chains: a similar idea, but a system is split into multiple simpler systems; a bit like row reduction for matrices - make each equation involve one pivot variable and only lesser variables than that

$$\begin{bmatrix} x^2 & y & z & -1 \\ x & y^2 & z & -1 \\ x & y & z^2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x & & -z \\ & y & -z \\ & & z^2 + 2z - 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} x & & \\ & y & \\ & & z - 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} x & & \\ & y & -1 \\ & & z \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} x & & -1 \\ & y & \\ & & z \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

$$\text{solve}(\{x^2 + y + z = 1, x + y^2 + z = 1, x + y + z^2 = 1\}) =$$

$$\{x=0, y=0, z=1\}, \{x=0, y=1, z=0\}, \{x=1, y=0, z=0\}, \{x=\text{RootOf}(_Z^2 + 2_Z - 1), y = \text{RootOf}(_Z^2 + 2_Z - 1), z = \text{RootOf}(_Z^2 + 2_Z - 1)\}$$

$$\text{solve}(\{x^2 + y + z = 1, x + y^2 + z = 1, x + y + z^2 = 1\}, \text{'explicit'}) =$$

$$\{x=0, y=0, z=1\}, \{x=0, y=1, z=0\}, \{x=1, y=0, z=0\}, \{x=\sqrt{2} - 1, y=\sqrt{2} - 1, z=\sqrt{2} - 1\}, \{x=-1 - \sqrt{2}, y=-1 - \sqrt{2}, z=-1 - \sqrt{2}\}$$

• I think the Maple package *RegularChains* is the only up to date implementation.

Solving systems with inequalities and inequations (over real numbers)

- Inequalities: $a < b$ or $a \leq b$; inequations: $a \neq b$
- Just inequations are relatively easy to deal with - use the same theory as before
- Inequalities mean we need to solve systems over the real numbers only
- Theory much less well-developed: for a quadratic univariate polynomial $a x^2 + b x + c = 0$, we all know that the discriminant $b^2 - 4 a c$ determines whether the polynomial has 0, 1, or 2 real solutions, but these pre-created rules don't exist for more complicated systems. This can now be done, using both Gröbner basis techniques and *RegularChains*.

with(*RootFinding-Parametric*) :

```
cd := CellDecomposition([a x^2 + b x + c = 0], [x]);
```

```
NumberOfSolutions(cd);
```

```
map(print, CellDescription~(cd, [seq(1..12)])) :
```

- First cell: c -coordinate is between minus infinity and the first root of $c = 0$ (that is, $c < 0$), and $b < 0$, and $a < \frac{b^2}{4 c}$.
- Second cell: same except $\frac{b^2}{4 c} < a < 0$.
- Difficult to visualize volumes in 3D, but easy for 2D (that is, two parameters)

```
cd := CellDecomposition([x^3 + a·x^2 + b·x·y + a·b = 0, y^2 + b·y = a], [x, y]);
```

```
NumberOfSolutions(cd);
```

```
CellPlot(cd, samplepoints, symbolsize = 5, font = [HELVETICA, 15]);
```

```
cd:-SamplePoints[7] =
```

```
SampleSolutions(cd, %) =
```

```
solve([x^3 + a·x^2 + b·x·y + a·b = 0, y^2 + b·y = a], [x, y], parametric);
```

```
value(%) assuming b = 0
```

```
value(%) assuming a = 4;
```

```
solve([a·x^2 + b·x + c < 0], [x], parametric)
```

with(*RegularChains*) :

```
R := PolynomialRing([x, y, a, b]) :
```

```
RegularChains:-LazyRealTriangularize([x^3 + a·x^2 + b·x·y + a·b < 0, y^2 + b·y = a], R)
```