

MMA 数学特論 I

Algorithms for polynomial systems: elimination & Gröbner bases

多項式系のアルゴリズム: グレブナー基底 & 消去法

Lecture III: The division algorithm

May, 6th 2010. Part I: Generalities on multivariate polynomials

Part II: Monomial orders

Part III: The algorithm

Part I: Generalities

The polynomial ring $R[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ (1/3)

Notation: A **multi-integer** α is an element of \mathbb{N}^n , for a given n : hence, $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$, with $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{N}$.

Addition: Given $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ and $\beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n)$ two multi-integers, we denote by $\alpha + \beta$ the multi-integer $(\alpha_1 + \beta_1, \dots, \alpha_n + \beta_n)$.

For $n > 1$, $P \in R[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ is a **multivariate** or **n -variate** polynomial, or a polynomial **in n variables**, with coefficients in (a commutative) ring R .

We write: $P = \sum_{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^n} p_\alpha X^\alpha$, where $X^\alpha = X_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots X_n^{\alpha_n}$, and $p_\alpha \neq 0$ only for a **finite** number of multi-integers α .

Monomial: It is a polynomial P with all $p_\alpha = 0$ except for a multi-integer β , for which $p_\beta = 1$. This means $P = X_1^{\beta_1} \cdots X_n^{\beta_n}$.

The polynomial ring $R[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ (2/3)

Coefficient: the ring R is called the **coefficient ring** of $R[X_1, \dots, X_n]$.

For a polynomial $P = \sum_{\alpha} p_{\alpha} X^{\alpha}$, the elements (p_{α}) are the **coefficients** of P .

Given a multi-integer α , the coefficient p_{α} is the **coefficient of (the monomial) X^{α}** of P .

If $p_{\alpha} \neq 0$, we say that the monomial X^{α} **occurs** in P .

The coefficient $p_{(0, \dots, 0)}$ is called the **constant term** of P .

Multiplication: $PQ = \sum_{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^n} \left(\sum_{\substack{\beta, \gamma \in \mathbb{N}^n \\ \beta + \gamma = \alpha}} p_{\beta} q_{\gamma} \right) X^{\alpha}$ (notice that $PQ = QP$).

Ring structure: With the addition and multiplication above, $R[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ is a **commutative ring**.

The polynomial ring $R[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ (3/3)

Proposition 1 *If R is an integral domain, then $R[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ is also integral.*

PROOF: By induction on n . When $n = 1$, it is proven in Lect. II. If this is true for polynomials in $n - 1$ variables over R , then let $R' = R[X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}]$ in integral.

The case in 1 variable done in Lect. II shows that $R'[X_n]$ is integral. But $R'[X_n] = R[X_1, \dots, X_n]$. □

Remark 1: Assume $R = \mathbb{k}$ is a field. Then $\mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ is a \mathbb{k} -vector space. As a ring, it is also a \mathbb{k} -algebra.

The degree

Given a multi-integer $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{N}^n$, the **sum of α** is
 $|\alpha| := \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n$

The **degree of a monomial** X^α is $|\alpha|$.

The **degree of a polynomial** $P \in R[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ is the **maximal** degree of one of the monomials occurring in P .

For any polynomials P and Q in $R[X_1, \dots, X_n]$, we have:

- (i) $\deg(P + Q) \leq \max\{\deg(P), \deg(Q)\}$, with **equality** if $\deg(P) \neq \deg(Q)$.
- (ii) $\deg(PQ) = \deg(P) + \deg(Q)$ (not true over any ring, but true over any *integral domain*)

Remark: Assume $R = \mathbb{k}$ is a field, and let $L \in \mathbb{N}^*$. Let $\mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]_{<L}$ be the set of polynomials of degree $< L$.

This is a sub-vector space of finite dimension (Exercise: what is the dimension ?)

The degree

By the 2 previous slides, the following map is \mathbb{k} -bilinear:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Mult} : \mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]_{<L_1} \times \mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]_{<L_2} & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]_{<L_1+L_2} \\ & & \\ & (A, B) & \longmapsto AB \end{array}$$

It follows that $\mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ is a **graded** commutative algebra.

Remark 1: There are several monomials of same degree.

Remark 2: There is no Euclidean division !

Comment: The degree is sometimes called the **total degree** of a polynomial P .

The **partial degree** in X_i of P , denoted $\deg_{X_i}(P)$ is the **maximal** exponent α_i of X_i among all the monomials occurring in P .

The partial degree is the degree of the univariate polynomial P seen in $R_i[X_i]$, whith $R_i = \mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}, X_{i+1}, \dots, X_n]$.

Polynomial function

Here we assume $R = \mathbb{k}$ is a field. Let $P \in \mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ be a polynomial.

Function: The map $\mathbb{k}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{k}$, $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mapsto P(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is the **function** defined by P .

A **zero** of P is a point (x_1, \dots, x_n) such that $P(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0$.

!!: There are some non-zero polynomials P , that defined the zero function.

Example, even with $n = 1$: the non-zero polynomial $X^p - X \in \mathbb{F}_p[X]$ define the null function of $\mathbb{F}_p \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_p$.

Lemma 1 *Assume that \mathbb{k} is **infinite**, and that there are some infinite subsets S_1, \dots, S_n of \mathbb{k} such that:*

$$\forall a_i \in S_i, \quad f(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0.$$

Then $f = 0$ (the null polynomial).

PROOF: When $n = 1$ it is (Lect. I, Corollary 1). Then by induction on n . \square

Ideals of $\mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$

Definition of an ideal \rightarrow Lect. II, Definition 3.

Example: Finitely generated ideals. The subset $\langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$ of $\mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ defined by:

$$\langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle := \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^s f_i g_i, \quad g_i \in \mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n] \right\},$$

is an ideal of $\mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$. Its basis f_1, \dots, f_s is *finite* (it is a *finitely generated* ideal)

All the ideals of $\mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ are finitely generated ! (Hilbert. Proof, next class).

A geometric interpretation

Suppose \mathbb{k} is infinite (polynomials \iff polynomial functions).

Let $F := \{f_1(X_1, \dots, X_n), f_2(X_1, \dots, X_n), \dots, f_s(X_1, \dots, X_n)\}$ a polynomial system.

A solution of F is a common zero of all the polynomials f_i (be careful: depends on the field extension).

Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ be a solution of F (in a field extension of \mathbb{k}).

Then for any polynomial $f \in \langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$, \mathbf{x} is also a solution of f .

Consequence: Looking for solutions of a polynomial system F is the same as looking for solution of the ideal $\langle F \rangle$ generated by F .

Comment: It is actually a bit more complicated (problem of **multiplicities** especially \rightarrow Hilbert's Nullstellensatz).

Parts II & III: Division for multivariate polynomials

Introduction

Aim: Given $f, f_1, \dots, f_s \in \mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$, write:

$$f = a_1 f_1 + \dots + a_s f_s + r, \quad (1)$$

with r have “smaller” monomials than those of f_1, \dots, f_s .

→ **monomial orders**

Unicity of the remainder r in Equation (1) ?

→ **No** in general.

→ **Yes** if the polynomials $(f_i)_i$ are ordered.

Ideal Membership: if $f \in \langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$, so we have $r = 0$?

→ **No** in general.

→ **Yes** if the polynomials $(f_i)_i$ form a **Gröbner basis**.

Part II: Monomial orders

Definition 1 A **monomial order** (or ordering) \prec on $\mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$, is a relation on the set of monomials X^α , $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{N}^n$, such that:

- (i) \prec is a total order (2 monomials can always be compared: if $\alpha \neq \beta$, then either $X^\alpha \prec X^\beta$, or $X^\beta \prec X^\alpha$).
- (ii) if $X^\alpha \prec X^\beta$, then $X^\alpha X^\gamma \prec X^\beta X^\gamma$, for all $\gamma \in \mathbb{N}^n$.
- (iii) \prec is a well-order: any non-empty subset of monomials has a smallest element.

Before giving examples, an useful lemma.

Lemma 2 An order relation \prec on the monomials of $\mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ is a well-order iff every strictly decreasing sequence

$$X^{\alpha(1)} \succ X^{\alpha(2)} \succ X^{\alpha(3)} \succ \dots$$

eventually terminates ($\iff \exists \ell \mid \alpha(N) = \alpha(\ell) \forall N \geq \ell$).

Example I: lexicographic orders

Let us order the n variables: $X_n \prec X_{n-1} \prec \cdots \prec X_1$ (there are $n!$ such possible orders: $X_{n-1} \prec X_n \prec \cdots \prec X_2 \prec X_1$ is another one, corresponding to the permutation $(n-1, n)$, while $X_n \prec X_{n-1} \prec \cdots \prec X_1 \prec X_2$ corresponds to the permutation $(1, 2)$).

Definition 2 The **lexicographic order** \prec_{lex} on the monomials of $\mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ relatively to \prec is characterized by: For all multi-integers $\alpha \neq \beta$,

$$X^\alpha \prec_{lex} X^\beta \Leftrightarrow \text{if } \ell := \min\{1 \leq i \leq n \mid \alpha_i \neq \beta_i\}, \text{ then } \alpha_\ell < \beta_\ell.$$

Example: $X_1^2 X_2^3 \prec_{lex} X_1^2 X_2^4$, since $(2, 3) - (2, 4) = (0, -1)$ and $-1 < 0$

Proposition 2 The lex order is a monomial order.

PROOF:(i) and (ii) of Definition 1 are clearly verified, (iii) is proved using Lemma 2. □

Example II: graded lex orders

The next two orders are called *degree orders*, or they are said to *refine the degree*. Recall that for a multi-integer $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$, we have $|\alpha| = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i = \deg(X^\alpha)$.

Definition 3 Given two distinct multi-integers $\alpha = (\alpha_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ and $\beta = (\beta_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n} \in \mathbb{N}^n$, the **graded lex order** is characterized by

$$X^\alpha \prec_{grlex} X^\beta \Leftrightarrow |\alpha| < |\beta|, \text{ or } |\alpha| = |\beta| \text{ and } \alpha \prec_{lex} \beta.$$

Example: $X_1^4 \prec_{grlex} X_1^3 X_2^3$, while $X_1^3 X_2^3 \prec_{lex} X_1^4$.

! A grlex order relies on a choice of a lex order \prec_{lex} among the $n!$ possible. In the example, it is the one for which $X_2 \prec X_1$. !

Proposition 3 *The graded lex orders are monomial orders.*

Counter-example: revlex order

We give an example of total order on the monomials, that *is not* a monomial order.

Definition 4 Given two distinct multi-integers α and β , the **revlex** order is defined by:

$$X^\alpha \prec_{\text{revlex}} X^\beta \Leftrightarrow \text{if } \ell := \max\{1 \leq i \leq n \mid \alpha_i \neq \beta_i\}, \text{ then } \alpha_\ell > \beta_\ell,$$

Example: $X_2^2 \prec_{\text{revlex}} X_1^2 X_2 \prec_{\text{revlex}} X_1 X_2 \prec_{\text{revlex}} X_2 \prec_{\text{revlex}} X_1^3$

Proposition 4 The revlex order is not a monomial order.

PROOF: The strictly decreasing $(X_2^i)_{i \geq 1}$ does not terminate. With Lemma 2, this contradicts Property (iii) of Definition 1. \square

Example III: graded reverse lex order

Definition 5 Let two distinct multi-integers $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ and $\beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n)$ in \mathbb{N}^n ; we define the **graded reverse lex order** as:

$$X^\alpha \prec_{\text{grevlex}} X^\beta \Leftrightarrow |\alpha| < |\beta| \text{ or } |\alpha| = |\beta| \text{ and } \alpha \prec_{\text{revlex}} \beta$$

Example: $X_3^3 \prec X_2X_3^2 \cdots \prec X_1X_2X_3 \prec X_1^2X_3 \cdots \prec X_2^3 \cdots \prec X_1^3$.

Proposition 5 The grevlex order is a monomial order.

PROOF: It is a degree refinement of the revlex order. This prevents infinite decreasing sequences as in Proposition 4 □

Other monomial orders: Weighted degree orders, block orders...

Remark: A monomial order \prec defines an order relation on the multi-integer of \mathbb{N}^n (by taking the exponent). **We may use freely the notation:**

$$\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{N}^n \quad \alpha \prec \beta \iff X^\alpha \prec X^\beta.$$

Multi-degree. Leading term, monomial, coefficient...

Let \prec be a monomial order on $\mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$.

Let $f \in \mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ (as usual given a multi-integer α , $X^\alpha = X_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots X_n^{\alpha_n}$).

Multi-degree: $\text{mdeg}_{\prec}(f) = \max_{\prec} \{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^n \mid \text{the monomial } X^\alpha \text{ occurs in } f\}$.

Let $\beta = \text{mdeg}_{\prec}(f) \in \mathbb{N}^n$. We write $f = \sum_{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^n} f_{\alpha} X^{\alpha}$.

Leading monomial: $\text{LM}_{\prec}(f) := X^{\beta}$.

Leading coefficient: $\text{LC}_{\prec}(f) := p_{\beta}$.

Leading term: $\text{LT}_{\prec}(f) := p_{\beta} X^{\beta} (= \text{LC}_{\prec}(f) \text{LM}_{\prec}(f))$.

!!: These 4 definitions **depend** on the monomial order \prec .

If it is **clear** what is \prec , we write simply: $\text{mdeg}(f)$, $\text{LM}(f)$, $\text{LC}(f)$, $\text{LT}(f)$.

Multi-degree. Leading term... (examples)

$$f = x^2 z^2 + xy^2 z + xyz^2 + x^3 + y^3$$

	order \prec	mdeg $_{\prec}(f)$	LM $_{\prec}(f)$
1	<i>lex</i> (x, y, z)	(3, 0, 0)	x^3
2	<i>lex</i> (y, x, z)	(3, 0, 0)	y^3
3	<i>grlex</i> (x, y, z)	(2, 0, 2)	$x^2 z^2$
4	<i>grlex</i> (z, y, x)	(2, 1, 1)	$z^2 yx$
5	<i>grevlex</i> (x, y, z)	(1, 2, 1)	$xy^2 z$
6	<i>grevlex</i> (z, y, x)	(2, 1, 1)	$z^2 yx$

Exercise: Over $\mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$, prove that

$$X^\alpha \prec_{\text{revlex}(X_1, \dots, X_n)} X^\beta \iff X^\alpha \succ_{\text{lex}(X_n, \dots, X_1)} X^\beta.$$

Part III: The division algorithm

1 variable: The Euclidean algorithm works because a degree is **strictly decreasing**.

Multivariate polynomials: the monomial order permits to have a similar **decreasing property**.

Let \prec be a monomial order.

Inputs: f and $[f_1, \dots, f_s]$ polynomial in $\mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$
(the sequence $[f_1, \dots, f_s]$ is **ordered**, it is not a set)

Outputs: $r, [a_1, \dots, a_s]$ such that

- (a) $f = a_1 f_1 + \dots + a_s f_s + r$
- (b) $\text{LM}(f_i) \nmid m$, for any monomial m occurring in r
- (c) if $a_i f_i \neq 0$, then $\text{LM}(f) \succ \text{LM}(a_i f_i)$

When $n = s = 1$, it is the Euclidean algorithm (by conditions (a) and (b)).

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1:   $[a_1, \dots, a_s] \leftarrow [0, \dots, 0]$ 
2:   $p \leftarrow f ; r \leftarrow 0$ 
3:  while  $(p \neq 0)$  do
4:     $i \leftarrow 1$ 
5:    while  $(i \leq s \text{ and } \text{LM}(f_i) \nmid \text{LM}(p))$  do:     $i \leftarrow i + 1$ ;  end while
6:    if  $(i \leq s)$  then      //LM( $f_i$ ) divides LM( $p$ )
7:       $a_i \leftarrow a_i + \frac{\text{LT}(p)}{\text{LT}(f_i)}$ 
8:       $p \leftarrow p - \frac{\text{LT}(p)}{\text{LT}(f_i)} f_i$ 
9:    else                    //there is no LM( $f_i$ ) that divides LM( $p$ )
10:      $r \leftarrow r + \text{LT}(p)$       // the remainder is updated
11:      $p \leftarrow p - \text{LT}(p)$ 
12:   end if
13: end while
14: return  $[a_1, \dots, a_s], r$ 

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About unicity (1/3)

Δ -sets: The exponents of the monomials in r and in a_1, \dots, a_s are constrained to take certain values, defined by the following Δ -sets .

Let $\alpha(i) := \text{mdeg}_{\prec}(f_i) \in \mathbb{N}^n$. We define the following partition of \mathbb{N}^n :

$$\Delta_1 = \alpha(1) + \mathbb{N}^n , \Delta_2 = \alpha(2) + \mathbb{N}^n - \Delta_1 , \dots ,$$

$$\Delta_i = \alpha(i) + \mathbb{N}^n - \left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{i-1} \Delta_j \right) , \dots , \Delta_s = \alpha(s) + \mathbb{N}^n - \left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{s-1} \Delta_j \right) .$$

and finally $\bar{\Delta} = \mathbb{N}^n - \bigcup_{j=1}^s \Delta_j$. We have $\mathbb{N}^n = \bigcup_{j=1}^s \Delta_j \cup \bar{\Delta}$

Proposition 6 Any monomial X^α occurring in the remainder r verifies $\alpha \in \bar{\Delta}$. If X^β is a monomial occurring in a_i , then $\beta + \alpha(i) \in \Delta_i$.

PROOF: (On the blackboard...)

□

About unicity (2/3)

Corollary 1 *Let \prec be a monomial order on a polynomial algebra in n variables $\mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$. Given a polynomial f and a sequence of polynomials $[f_1, \dots, f_s]$, the remainder r and the sequence $[a_1, \dots, a_s]$ computed by the division algorithm, are **unique**.*

PROOF: (On the blackboard...)

□

Corollary 2 *If we **fix** the sequence $[f_1, \dots, f_s]$ as above, then the map:*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n] &\rightarrow \mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n] \\ f &\mapsto r, \end{aligned}$$

*is well-defined (unicity of the previous Corollary) and **linear**.*

PROOF: (On the blackboard...)

□

About unicity (3/3)

Let $I = \langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$ be the ideal generated by the polynomial system $(f_i)_{1 \leq i \leq s}$ (as in the previous slide).

Aim: Like for the Euclidean division, we would like a linear map

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n]/I &\longrightarrow \mathbb{k}[X_1, \dots, X_n] && \text{(this map is not} \\ f + I &\longmapsto r. && \text{correct in general!)} \end{aligned}$$

The ideal I would be the kernel of the map of Corollary 2.

But it **doesn't work** in general: the remainder r depends on the [sequence](#) $[f_1, \dots, f_s]$ and not on the [ideal](#) $\langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$ (easy counter-examples).

Also, if $r = 0$ then $f \in I$, but there are some $g \in I$ whose division by $[f_1, \dots, f_s]$ does **not** give a remainder $r = 0$.

However, if f_1, \dots, f_s is a **Gröbner basis**, it is OK...