Algorithms for the solution of systems of linear equations in commutative ring

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Abstract

Solution methods for linear equation systems in a commutative ring are discussed. Four methods are compared, in the setting of several different rings: Dodgson’s method [1], Bareiss’s method [2] and two methods of the author - method by forward and back-up procedures [3] and a one-pass method [4].

We show that for the number of coefficient operations, or for the number of operations in the finite rings, or for modular computation in the polynomial rings the one-pass method [4] is the best. The method of forward and back-up procedures [3] is the best for the polynomial rings when we make use of classical algorithms for polynomial operations.

1 Introduction

Among the set of known algorithms for the solution of systems of linear equations, there is a subset, which allows us to carry out computations within the commutative ring generated by the coefficients of the system. Recently, interest in these algorithms grew due to computer algebra computations. These algorithms may be used (a) to find exact solutions of systems with numerical coefficients, (b) to solve systems over the rings of polynomials with one or many variables over the integers or over the reals, (c) to solve systems over finite fields.

Let

\[ Ax = a \] (1)
be the given system of linear equations over a commutative ring \( R \), 
\[ A \in R^{n \times (m-1)}, a \in R^n, x \in R^{m-1}, n < m, \] 
with extended coefficient matrix \( A^* = (a_{ij}), i = 1, \ldots, n, j = 1, \ldots, m. \)

The solution of such a system may be written according to Cramer’s rule 
\[ x_i = (\delta^n_{im} - \sum_{j=n+1}^{m-1} x_j \delta^n_{ij})/\delta^n, \quad i = 1 \ldots n, \] 
where \( x_j, j = n + 1 \ldots m, \) are free variables and \( \delta^n \neq 0. \) \( \delta^k = -a_{ij}, \quad i = 1 \ldots k, j = 1 \ldots k, k = 1 \ldots n, \) denote corner minors of the matrix \( A \) of order \( k, \delta^k_{ij} \) denotes minors obtained after a substitution in the minors \( \delta^k \) of the column \( i \) by the column \( j \) of the matrix \( A^*, k = 1 \ldots n, i = 1 \ldots k, j = 1 \ldots m. \)

We examine four algorithms [1]-[4] for solving system (1) over the fraction field of the ring \( R \), assuming that \( R \) does not have zero divisors and all corner minors \( \delta^k, k = 1 \ldots n, \) of the matrix \( A \) are different from zero. Each of the algorithms is in fact a method for computing the minors \( \delta^n \) and \( \delta^n_{ij} \) in the ring \( R \). For each of the algorithms we evaluate:

1. The general time for the solution taking into consideration only arithmetic operations and assuming moreover, the execution time for multiplication, division and addition/subtraction of two operands, the first of which is a minor of order \( i \) and the second one, a minor of order \( j, \) will be \( M_{ij}, D_{ij}, A_{ij} \) correspondingly.

2. The exact number of operations of multiplications, division and addition/subtraction over the coefficient of the system.

3. The number of operations of multiplication/division (\( M^R \)), when \( R = R[x_1 \ldots x_r] \) is a ring of polynomials with \( r \) variables with real coefficients and only one computer word is required for storing any one of the coefficients.

4. The number of operations of multiplication/division (\( M^Z \)), when \( R = Z[x_1 \ldots x_r] \) is a ring of polynomials with \( r \) variables with integer coefficients and these coefficient are stored in as many computer words as are needed.

5. The number of operations of multiplication/division (\( M^{ZM} \)), when \( R = Z[x_1 \ldots x_r] \) is a ring of polynomials with \( r \) variables with integer coefficients, but for the solution the modular method is applied, which is based on the remainder theorem.
2 Dodgson’s algorithm

Dodgson’s algorithm [1], the first algorithm to be examined, appeared more than 100 years before the others.

The first part of the algorithm consists of \( n - 1 \) steps. In the first step, all minors of order 2 are computed

\[
\hat{a}_{ij}^2 = a_{i-1,j-1}a_{ij} - a_{i-1,j}a_{i,j-1}, \quad i = 2 \ldots n, \ j = 2 \ldots m,
\]

formed from four neighboring elements, located at the intersection of lines \( i - 1 \) and \( i \) and of columns \( j - 1 \) and \( j \).

In the \( k \)-th step, \( k = 2 \ldots n - 1 \), according to formula

\[
\hat{a}_{ij}^{k+1} = (\hat{a}_{i-1,j-1}^{k} - \hat{a}_{i-1,j}^{k} \hat{a}_{i,j-1}^{k}) / \hat{a}_{i-1,j-1}^{k-1}, \quad i = k + 1 \ldots n, \ j = k + 1 \ldots m,
\]

all minors \( \hat{a}_{ij}^{k+1} \) of order \( k + 1 \) are computed, these minors are formed by the elements located at the intersection of the lines \( i - k \ldots i \) and columns \( j - k \ldots j \) of the matrix \( A^* \).

In this way the minors \( \hat{a}_{n,j}^{n} = \delta_{n,j}^{n} \), \( j = n \ldots m \), will be computed. Note that, it is essential that all minors \( \hat{a}_{ij}^{k}, k = 1 \ldots n - 1, i = k \ldots n - 1, j = k \ldots m - 1 \), appearing in the denominator of expression (2), be different from 0. This, of course, narrows down the set of solvable problems.

The second part of Dodgson’s algorithm is feasible only under the assumption that \( m = n + 1 \) and all the searched for unknown variables \( x_i \) belong to \( \mathbb{R} \). Then the value \( x_n = \delta_{nm}^{n} / \delta_{nn}^{n} \) may be computed and substituted in the initial system. After eliminating the last equation and recalculating the column of free members, a system of order \( n - 1 \) is obtained, to which the algorithm described above may be applied again to find \( x_{n-1} \). During this process, it suffices to recalculate only those minors in which the column of free members appears. This process continues until all solutions are obtained.

Let us evaluate the computing time of the algorithm. The first part of the algorithm is executed in time

\[
T_1^1 = (n - 1)(m - 1)(2M_{1,1} + A_{2,2}) + \sum_{i=2}^{n-1} (n - i)(m - i)(2M_{i,i} + A_{2i,2i} + D_{2i,i-1}).
\]

The second part of the algorithm, when \( m = n + 1 \), is executed in time

\[
T_1^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i(M_{1,1} + A_{2,2}) + \sum_{j=1}^{n-2} j(2M_{1,2} + A_{3,3}) + \ldots
\]
\[
\sum_{i=2}^{n-2} \sum_{j=1}^i (2M_{i,i+1} + A_{2i+1,2i+1} + D_{2i+1,i+1}).
\]

In this we suppose that the time needed for the recalculation of one free member is \(M_{1,1} + A_{2,1}\).

3 Bareiss’s Algorithm

The forward procedure of Bareiss’s algorithm [2] differs from Dodgson’s algorithm only in the selection of the leading (pivoting) minors.

In the first step all minors of second order are computed

\[ a_{ij}^2 = a_{11}a_{ij} - a_{1j}a_{i1}, \quad i = 2 \ldots n, \quad j = 2 \ldots m, \]  

which surround the corner element \(a_{11}\). At the \(k\)-th step, \(k = 2 \ldots n - 1\), and according to the formula

\[ a_{ij}^{k+1} = (a_{kk}^ka_{ij}^k - a_{ik}^ka_{kj}^k)/a_{k-1,k-1}^{k-1}, \]

\[ i = k + 1 \ldots n, \quad j = k + 1 \ldots m, \]

all the minors \(a_{ij}^{k+1}\) of order \(k + 1\) are computed, which are formed by surrounding the corner minor \(\delta^k\) by row \(i\) and column \(j\), that is, minors which are formed by the elements, located at the intersection of row \(1 \ldots k, i\) and of columns \(1 \ldots k, j\). Obviously, \(a_{n,j}^n = \delta_{nj}^n, \quad j = n \ldots m\), holds.

Comparing the above procedure with Dodgson’s algorithm, it is seen that here, it suffices that only the corner minors \(\delta^k = a_{kk}^k, \quad k = 1 \ldots n - 1\), be different from zero and zero divisors. In order to do so, they can be controlled by choice of the pivot row or column.

The back-up procedure consists of \(n - 1\) steps, where at the \(k\)-th step, \(k = 1 \ldots n - 1\), all the minors

\[ \delta_{ij}^{k+1} = (a_{k+1,k+1}^{k+1}\delta_{ij}^k - a_{k+1,j}^{k+1}\delta_{ki}^{k+1})/a_{k,k}^k, \]

\[ i = k + 1 \ldots n, j = k + 1 \ldots m, \]

are computed.

The computing time of the forward procedure is the same as that of the first part of Dodgson’s algorithm (3), \(T_2^1 = T_1^1\).

The computing time of the back-up procedure is

\[ T_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i(m - i - 1)(2M_{i,i+1} + A_{2i+1,2i+1} + D_{2i+1,i}). \]
4 Algorithm of Forward and Back-up Procedures

The forward procedure in this algorithm [3] is the same as the forward procedure in Bareiss’s algorithm, and is based on formulae (4) and (5).

The back-up procedure is more economical, and consists of immediate computation of the values $\delta_{ij}$ according to the formulae

$$
\delta_{ij}^n = \frac{a_{nn}^n a_{ij}^1 - \sum_{k=i+1}^n a_{ik}^1 \delta_{kj}^n}{a_{ii}^1}, \quad i = n-1, \ldots, 1, \quad j = n+1 \ldots m.
$$

(7)

The computing time of the forward procedure is the same as that of the first part of Dodgson’s algorithm (3), $T_1^3 = T_1^1$. The computing time of the back-up procedure is

$$
T_2^3 = (m - n) \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} ((n + 1 - i)M_{n,i} + (n - i)A_{i+n,i+n} + D_{i+n,i}).
$$

Let us note that when $m = n + 1$, $T_3^2$ — is a quantity of order $n^2$, and $T_2^2$ — a quantity of order $n^3$.

5 One-pass Algorithm

Algorithms [2] and [3] consist of two parts (two passes). They make zero elements under the main diagonal of the coefficient matrix during the first pass. And during the second pass, they make zero elements up to the main diagonal.

Algorithm [4] requires one pass, consisting of $n-1$ steps. In this algorithm, we make diagonalisation of the coefficient matrix minor-by-minor and step-by-step.

In the first step the minors of second order are computed

$$
\delta_{2j}^2 = a_{11} a_{2j} - a_{21} a_{1j}, \quad j = 2 \ldots m,
$$

$$
\delta_{1j}^2 = a_{1j} a_{22} - a_{2j} a_{12}, \quad j = 3 \ldots m.
$$

In the $k$-th step, $k = 2 \ldots n-1$, the minors of order $k + 1$ are computed according to the formulae (and see the Appendix)

$$
\delta_{k+1,j}^k = a_{k+1,k+1} \delta_{kk}^k - \sum_{p=1}^{k} a_{k+1,p} \delta_{pj}^k, \quad j = k + 1 \ldots m.
$$

(8)
\[ \delta_{ij}^{k+1} = (\delta_{k+1,i,k+1}^{k+1} - \delta_{k+1,j,k+1}^{k+1} / \delta_{k,k}^{k+1}, \delta_{i,j}^{k+1} - \delta_{k+1,i,k+1}^{k+1} / \delta_{k,k}^{k+1}) \]

\[ i = 1 \ldots k, \quad j = k + 2 \ldots m. \]

In this way, at the \( k \)-th step the coefficients of the first \( k + 1 \) equations of the system take part.

The general computing time of the solution is

\[ T_4 = (2m - 3)(2M_{1,1} + A_{2,2}) + \sum_{k=2}^{n-1} (m - k)((k + 1)M_{k,1} + kA_{k+1,k+1}) + \]

\[ + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} k(m - k - 1)(2M_{k,k+1} + A_{2k+1,2k+1} + D_{2k+1,k}). \]

6 Evaluation of the Quantity of Operations over the System Coefficients

We begin the comparison of the algorithms considering the general number of multiplication \( NM^{m} \), divisions \( NM^{d} \) and additions/subtractions \( NM^{a} \), which are necessary for the solution of the system of linear equations (1) of order \( n \times m \). Moreover, we will not make any assumptions regarding the computational complexity of these operations; that is we will consider that during the execution of the whole computational process, all multiplications of the coefficients are the same, as are the same all divisions and all additions/subtractions.

The quantity of operations, necessary for Bareiss’s algorithm will be

\[ NM_{2}^{m} = 2n^2m - n^3 - 2nm + n, \]
\[ NM_{2}^{d} = (2n^2m - n^3 - 4nm + 2m + 3n - 2)/2, \]
\[ NM_{2}^{a} = (2n^2m - n^3 - 2nm + n)/2. \]

The quantity of operations, necessary for the algorithm of forward and back-up procedure, is

\[ NM_{3}^{m} = (9n^2m - 5n^3 - 3nm - 3n^2 - 6m + 8n)/6, \]
\[ NM_{3}^{d} = (3n^2m - n^3 - 3nm - 6n^2 + 13n - 6)/6 \]
\[ NM_{3}^{a} = (6n^2m - 4n^3 - 6nm + 3n^2 + n)/6. \]

The quantity of operations, necessary for the one-pass algorithm, is

\[ NM_{4}^{m} = (9n^2m - 6n^3 - 3nm - 6m + 6n)/6, \]
\[ NM_4^d = (3n^2m - 2n^3 - 3nm - 6m + 2n + 12)/6 \]
\[ NM_4^a = (6n^2m - 4n^3 - 6nm + 3n^2 + n)/6. \]

In the case when the number of equations and unknowns in the system is the same and equal to \( n \), we can compare all four algorithms.

| #  | multiplication | division | add./substr. |
|----|----------------|----------|--------------|
| 1  | \((2n^3-n^2-n)/2\) | \((n^3-4n^2-6n-2)/2\) | \((n^3-n)/2\) |
| 2  | \(n^3-n\) | \((n^3-2n^2+n)/2\) | \((n^3-n)/2\) |
| 3  | \((4n^3+3n^2-n-6)/6\) | \((2n^3-6n^2+10n-6)/6\) | \((2n^3+3n^2-5n)/6\) |
| 4  | \((n^3+2n^2-n-2)/2\) | \((n^3-7n+6)/6\) | \((2n^3+3n^2-5n)/6\) |

In this way, according to this evaluation, the fourth algorithm (one-pass) is to be preferred. Bareiss’s and Dodgson’s algorithms are approximately equal regarding the quantity of operations, and each one of them requires three times more divisions and two times more multiplications, as does the one-pass algorithm. The third algorithm lies somewhere in between.

If we evaluate according to the general quantity of multiplication and division operations, considering only the third power, then we obtain the evaluation \( 3n^3/2 : 3n^3/2 : n^3 : 2n^3/3 \).

### 7 Evaluation of the Algorithms in the Ring \( \mathbb{R}[x_1, x_2 \ldots x_r] \)

Let \( \mathbb{R} \) be the ring of polynomials of \( r \) variables over an integral domain and let us suppose that every coefficient \( a_{ij} \) of the system (1) is a polynomial of degree \( p \) in each variable

\[
a_{ij} = \sum_{u=0}^{p} \sum_{v=0}^{p} \ldots \sum_{w=0}^{p} a_{ij}^{(u,v \ldots w)} x_1^u x_2^v \ldots x_r^w. \tag{10}
\]

Then it is possible to define, how much time is required for the execution of the arithmetic operations over polynomials which are minors of order \( i \) and \( j \) of the matrix \( A^* \)

\[
A_{ij} = (jp + 1)^r a_{ij},
\]
\[
M_{ij} = (ip + 1)^r (jp + 1)^r (m_{ij} + a_{i+j,i+j}),
\]
\[
D_{ij} = (ip - jp + 1)^r (d_{ij} + (jp + 1)^r (m_{i-j,j} + a_{ii})).
\]

7
Here we assume, that the classical algorithms for polynomial multiplication and division are used. And also, we consider that the time necessary for execution of the arithmetic operations of the coefficients of the polynomials, when the first operand is coefficient of the polynomial, which is a minor of order \(i\), and the second - of order \(j\), is \(m_{ij}, d_{ij}, a_{ij}\), for the operations of multiplication, division and addition/subtraction, respectively.

Let us evaluate the computing time for each of the four algorithms, considering that the coefficients of the polynomials are real numbers and each one is stored in one computer word. We will assume that \(a_{ij} = 0, m_{ij} = d_{ij} = 1, A_{ij} = 0, M_{ij} = i^r j^r p^{2r}, D_{ij} = (i - j)^r j^r p^{2r}\), and we will consider only the leading terms in \(m\) and \(n\):

\[
M_2^R = \rho n^r \left(\frac{3m}{2r+1} - \frac{3n}{2r+2}\right);
\]
\[
M_3^R = \rho n^r \left(\frac{3m}{2r+1} - \frac{3n+3m}{2r+2} + \frac{3n}{2r+3} + \frac{m-n}{r+1} - \frac{m-n}{r+2}\right);
\]
\[
M_4^R = \rho n^r \left(\frac{3m}{2r+2} - \frac{3n}{2r+3}\right) + \rho \left(\frac{m}{r+2} - \frac{n}{r+3}\right),
\]

where \(\rho = n^{r+2}p^{2r}\).

For \(m = n + 1\) it is possible to compare all four algorithms: \(N_1^R = 3\sigma, N_2^R = (2r + 3)\sigma, N_3^R = 2\sigma, N_4^R = (2r + 1)\sigma + \rho n/(r + 2)(r + 3)\), where \(\sigma = 3n^{2r+3}p^{2r}/(2r + 1)(2r + 2)(2r + 3)\). For \(r = 0\) we obtain the same evaluation as in the previous section. For \(r \neq 0\) we obtain

\[3 : (2r + 3) : 2 : (2r + 1)\.

8 Evaluation of the Algorithms in the Ring \(\mathbb{Z}[x_1, x_2 \ldots x_r]\), Classical Case

As before we suppose that every coefficient of the system is a polynomial of the form (10). However, the coefficients of these polynomials are now integers and each one of these coefficients \(a_{iuvw..w}^{ij}\) is stored in \(l\) computer words. Then, the coefficients of the polynomial, which is a minor of order \(i\), are integers of length \(il\) of computing words.

Under the assumption that classical algorithms are used for the arithmetic operations on these long integers, we obtain: \(a_{ij} = 2jla, m_{ij} = ij l^2(m + 2a), d_{ij} = (il - jl + 1)(d + jl(m + 2a))\), where \(a, m, d\) are the execution time of the single-precision operations of addition/subtraction, multiplication, and division.
Assuming that $a = 0, m = d = 1$, we obtain the following evaluation of the execution times of polynomial operations: $M_{ij} = ij^2(ijp^2)^r, D_{ij} = (i - j)^r + 1^r + 1^2, A_{ij} = 0$.

In this way, the evaluation of the time for solution will be the same as that for the ring $R = R[x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_r]$ (section 6), if we replace everywhere $r$ by $r + 1$ and $p^r$ by $lp^r$.

Therefore, for $m = n + 1$ we obtain $N_1^Z = 3\psi, N_2^Z = (2r + 5)\psi, N_3^Z = 2\psi, N_4^Z = (2r + 3)\psi$, where $\psi = \frac{3n^2r^3 + 5p^2r}{2r + 3(2r + 4)(2r + 5)}$, $l \geq 1, r \geq 0$.

9 Evaluation of the Algorithms in the Ring $\mathbb{Z}[x_1, x_2 \ldots x_r]$, Modular Case

Let us evaluate the time for the solution of the same problem, for the ring of polynomials with $r$ variables with integer coefficients $R = \mathbb{Z}[x_1 \ldots x_r]$, when the modular method is applied, based on the remainder theorem. In this case we will not take into consideration the operations for transforming the problem in the modular form and back again.

It suffices to define the number of moduli, since the exact quantity of operations on the system coefficients for the case of a finite field has already been obtained in section 4.

We will consider that every prime modulus $m_i$ is stored in exactly one computer word, so that, in order to be able to recapture the polynomial coefficients, which are minors of order $n$, $n(l + \log(np^3)/2 \log m_i)$ moduli are needed. It is easy to see due to Hadamar’s inequality.

Further, we need up moduli for each unknown $x_j$, which appears with maximal degree $np$. There are $r$ such unknowns, and therefore, in all, $\mu = p(n^2r^2(l + \log(np^3)/2 \log m_i)$ moduli are needed.

If we now make use of the table in section 5, denote the time for modular multiplication by $m$ and the time for modular division by $d$, then not considering addition/subtraction and considering only leading terms in $n$, we obtain for $m = n + 1$: $N_1^{ZM} = (6m + 3d)\nu, N_2^{ZM} = (6m + 3d)\nu, N_3^{ZM} = (4m + 2d)\nu, N_4^{ZM} = (3m + d)\nu$, where $\nu = \mu n^3/3$.

Conclusion

We see, that modular methods are better then non-modular ones, as usual. And the one-pass method [4] is the best for modular computation.

The method of forward and back-up procedures [3] are better for non-modular computation in polynomial rings. And Dodgson’s method
Appendix: Foundation of the One-pass Algorithm

Identity (8) is an expansion of the minor $\delta_{k+1,j}^{k+1}$ according to line $k + 1$, and therefore it suffices to prove only identity (9).

In order to do so, let us consider the following determinant identity

$$\begin{vmatrix} A_{si} & A_{00} \\ N_{s0} & A_{ij} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} A_{0i} & N_{-t,-j} \\ N_{s0} & A_{ij} \end{vmatrix}$$

where $s, i, t, j$ are column numbers of the matrix $A^*$, $A_{uv}$ is a submatrix of the matrix $A^*$, this submatrix of order $k$ will be at the left upper corner of a matrix $A^*$, if we replace columns $s$ and $i$ by columns $u$ and $v$ respectively. Here $u = 0$ denotes a column consisting of zeros, and $u = -t$ denotes a column obtained by changing the signs of all the elements of column $t$. Matrix $N_{uv}$ is obtained from matrix $A_{uv}$ if, an addition, all remaining $k - 2$ columns are replaced by zero ones.

In order to obtain the determinant on the right side, it is necessary in the determinant on the left side to subtract from the first (block) line the second one.

If we expand each one of the determinants of order $2k$ by the first $k$ lines according to Laplace’s rule, then we obtain the columns-substitution identity

$$\delta^k \delta_{st;ij}^k = \delta_{st}^k \delta_{ij}^k - \delta_{sj}^k \delta_{it}^k,$$

where $\delta_{st;ij}^k$ is a minor formed from the minor $\delta^k$ after substituting columns $s$ by $t$ and $i$ by $j$ in the matrix $A^*$.

To prove identity (9) it remains to expand the existing minors of order $k + 1$ by row $k + 1$

$$\delta_{ij}^{k+1} = a_{k+1,k+1} \delta_{ij}^k - a_{k+1,j} \delta_{i,k+1}^k - \sum_{s=1, s \neq i}^k a_{k+1,s} \delta_{s,k+1;i,j}^k,$$

$$\delta_{k+1,j}^{k+1} = a_{k+1,j} \delta_{k}^k - \sum_{s=1}^k a_{k+1,s} \delta_{s,j}^k,$$

and make use of the columns-substitution identity (11).
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