## PART II: Lattices and linear diophantine equations

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## Theory of lattices and linear diophantine equations 4.1. THE HERMITE NORMAL FORM

- A matrix of full row rank is in Hermite normal form if it has the form [B 0] where B is nonsingular, lower triangular, nonnegative matrix, in which each row has a unique maximum entry located on the main diagonal.
- Elementary column operations:
I. Exchanging two columns
II. Multiplying a column by -1
III. Adding an integral multiple of one column to another column


## Theory of lattices and linear diophantine equations 4.1. THE HERMITE NORMAL FORM

THEOREM 4.1: Each rational matrix of full row rank can be brought into Hermite normal form by a series of elementary column operations.

Proof: Let A be a rational matrix of full row rank. WLOG, A is integral. Suppose we have transformed A, by elementary column operations, to the form $\left[\begin{array}{ll}\mathrm{B} & 0 \\ \mathrm{C} & D\end{array}\right]$ where B is lower triangular with positive diagonal.
Using elementary column operations, modify D so that its first row $\left(\delta_{11}, \ldots, \delta_{1 k}\right)$ is nonnegative, the sum $\delta_{11}+\ldots+\delta_{1 k}$ is as small as possible. Assume that $\delta_{11} \geq \delta_{12} \geq \ldots \geq \delta_{1 k}$. Then $\delta_{11}>0$ since A has full row rank.

## Theory of lattices and linear diophantine equations 4.1. THE HERMITE NORMAL FORM

Moremore, if $\delta_{12}>0$, by subtracting the second column of D from the first column of D , the first row will have smaller sum, contradicting our assumption. Hence, $\delta_{12}=\cdots=\delta_{1 k}=0$, and we have obtained a larger lower triangular matrix.
By repeating this procedure, the matrix A finally will be transformed into [ B 0$]$ with $\mathrm{B}=\left(\beta_{\mathrm{ij}}\right)$ lower triangular with positive diagonal. Next: for $i=2, \ldots, n$ (order of B ), for $\mathrm{j}=1, \ldots, i-1$, add an integer multiple of the $i$-th column of B so that the $(i, j)$-th entry of B is nonnegative and less than $\beta_{\mathrm{ii}}$. After these elementary column operations, the matrix is in Hermite normal form.

## Theory of lattices and linear diophantine equations 4.1. THE HERMITE NORMAL FORM

Corollary 4.1a. Let $A$ be a rational matrix and let $b$ be a rational column vector. Then the system $A x=b$ has an integral solution $x \Leftrightarrow y b$ is an integer for each rational row vector $y$ for which $y A$ is integral.
Proof : If $x$ and $y A$ are integral vectors and $A x=b$, then $y b=y A x$ is an integer. Suppose $y b$ is an integer whenever $y A$ is intgral. Then $A x=b$ has a (possibly fractional) solution (if not, then $y A=0$ and $y b=\frac{1}{2}$ for some rational vector $y$ ). Assume that the rows of $A$ are linearly independent. Both sides of $\Leftrightarrow$ are invariant under elementary column operations. So by THM 4.1 assume that $A$ is in Hermite normal form [ $B 0$ ].

## Theory of lattices and linear diophantine equations 4.1. THE HERMITE NORMAL FORM

Since $B^{-1}\left[\begin{array}{ll}B & 0\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ll}I & 0\end{array}\right]$ is an integral matrix, it follows from our assumption that also $B^{-1} b$ is an integral vector.
Since $\left[\begin{array}{ll}\mathrm{B} & 0\end{array}\right]\binom{B^{-1} b}{0}=b$ the vector $x:=\binom{B^{-1} b}{0}$ is an
integral solution for $A x=b$.

## Theory of lattices and linear diophantine equations 4.1. THE HERMITE NORMAL FORM

A subset $\Lambda$ of $\mathbb{R}^{\mathrm{n}}$ is called an (additive) group if:
(i) $0 \in \Lambda$
(ii) if $\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y} \in \Lambda$ then $\mathrm{x}+\mathrm{y} \in \Lambda$ and $-\mathrm{x} \in \Lambda$.

The group is said to be generated by $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}$ if
$\Lambda=\left\{\lambda_{1} a_{1}+\cdots+\lambda_{m} a_{m} \mid \lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{m} \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$.

The group is called a lattice if it can be generated by linearly independent vectors. These vectors are called a basis for the lattice.

## Theory of lattices and linear diophantine equations 4.1. THE HERMITE NORMAL FORM

Corollary 4.1b. If $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}$ are rational vectors, then the group generated by $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}$ is a lattice, i.e, is generated by linearly independent vectors.

Proof : Assume that $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}$ span all space. (Otherwise we could apply a linear transformation to a lower dimensional space.) Let $A$ be the matrix with columns $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}$ (so $A$ has full row rank). Let $[B 0]$ be the Hermite normal form of $A$. Then the columns of $B$ are linearly independent vectors generating the same group as $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}$.

## Theory of lattices and linear diophantine equations 4.1. THE HERMITE NORMAL FORM

If $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}$ are rational vectors we can speak of the lattice generated by $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}$.

Given a rational matrix $A$, Corollary 4.1a gives necessary and sufficient conditions for being an element of the lattice $\Lambda$ generated by the columns of $A$.

Corollary 4.1a implies that if $A$ has full row rank, with Hermite normal form [ $B 0]$ ( $B$ lower triangular), then $b$ belongs to $\Lambda \Leftrightarrow B^{-1} b$ is integral.

## Theory of lattices and linear diophantine equations 4.1. THE HERMITE NORMAL FORM

Corollary 4.1c. Let $A$ be an integral $m \times n-$ matrix of full row rank.
Then the following are equivalent:
(i) the g.c.d. of the subdeterminants of $A$ of order $m$ is 1 ;
(ii) the system $A x=b$ has an integral solution $x$, for each integral vector $b$;
(iii) for each vector $y$, if $y A$ is integral then $y$ is integral.

From the Hermite normal form theorem, for any rational system $A x=b$ with at least one integral solution there exist integral vectors $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{t}$ such that

$$
\{x \mid A x=b ; x \text { integral }\}=\left\{x_{0}+\lambda_{1} x_{1}+\cdots+\lambda_{t} x_{t} \mid \lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{t} \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}
$$

where $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{t}$ are linearly independent and $t=(\#$ of columns of $A)-\operatorname{rank}(A)$.

## Theory of lattices and linear diophantine equations 4.2. UNIQUENESS OF THE HERMITE NORMAL FORM

Theorem 4.2. Let $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ be rational matrices of full row rank, with
Hermite normal forms $\left[\begin{array}{ll}B & 0\end{array}\right]$ and $\left[B^{\prime} 0\right]$, respectively. Then the columns of $A$ generate the same lattice as those of $A^{\prime}$ if and only if $B=B^{\prime}$.

In other words, two lattices are equal $\Leftrightarrow$ their respective matrices have the same Hermite normal form.

## Theory of lattices and linear diophantine equations 4.2. UNIQUENESS OF THE HERMITE NORMAL FORM

Proof : Sufficiency: The columns of B and A generate the same lattice, and similarly for $\mathrm{B}^{\prime}$ and $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$.
Necessity: Suppose the columns of A and those of A' generate the same lattice $\Lambda$. Then the same holds for B and $\mathrm{B}^{\prime}$ (by elementary column operations from A \& $\left.\mathrm{A}^{\prime}\right)$. Denote $B=:\left(\beta_{i j}\right)$ and $B^{\prime}=:\left(\beta_{i j}^{\prime}\right)$.
Suppose $B \neq B^{\prime}$ and choose $\beta_{i j} \neq \beta_{i j}^{\prime}$ with i as small as possible.
WLOG, $\beta_{i i} \geq \beta_{i i}^{\prime}$. Let $\mathrm{b}_{\mathrm{j}}$ and $\mathrm{b}_{\mathrm{j}}^{\prime}$ be the j -th column of B and $\mathrm{B}^{\prime}$.

## Theory of lattices and linear diophantine equations 4.2. UNIQUENESS OF THE HERMITE NORMAL FORM

Then $b_{j} \in \Lambda$ and $b_{j}^{\prime} \in \Lambda$, and hence $b_{j}-b_{j}^{\prime} \in \Lambda$. This implies that $b_{j}-b_{j}$ is an integral linear combination of the columns of B. By the choice of $i$, the vector $b_{j}-b_{j}^{\prime}$ has zeros in the first (i-1) positions. Hence, as B is lower triangular, $b_{j}-b_{j}^{\prime}$ is an integral linear combination of columns indexed $\mathrm{i}, \ldots$..n. So $\beta_{i j}-\beta_{i j}^{\prime}$ is an integral multiple of $\beta_{i i}$. However, this contradicts the fact that $0<\left|\beta_{i j}-\beta^{\prime}{ }_{i j}\right|<\beta_{i i}$ (since if $\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{j}$, then $0<\beta^{\prime}{ }_{i i}<\beta_{i i}$, and if $\mathrm{j}<\mathrm{i}$, then $0 \leq \beta_{i j}<\beta_{i i}$ and $0<\beta^{\prime}{ }_{i j}<\beta^{\prime}{ }_{i i} \leq \beta_{i i}$ ).

## Theory of lattices and linear diophantine equations 4.2. UNIQUENESS OF THE HERMITE NORMAL FORM

Corollary 4.2a. Every rational matrix of full row rank has a unique Hermite normal form.

NOTE: If $\beta_{11}, \ldots, \beta_{\mathrm{mm}}$ are the diagonal entries of Hermite normal form of [B 0] of A, then for each $j=1, \ldots, m$ the product $\beta_{11}, \ldots, \beta_{\mathrm{ij}}$ is equal to the g.c.d. of the subdeterminants of order j of the first j rows of A ( this g.c.d. is invariant under elementary column operations).
$\Rightarrow$ the main diagonal of the HNF is unique
$\Rightarrow$ size of HNF is polynomially bounded by the size of the original matrix

## Theory of lattices and linear diophantine equations 4.3. UNIMODULAR MATRICES

Definition : Let U be nonsingular matrix. Then U is called unimodular if U is integral and has determinant $\pm 1$.

Theorem 4.3. The following are equivalent for a nonsingular rational matrix $U$ of order $n$ :
(i) U is unimodular;
(ii) $\mathrm{U}^{-1}$ is unimodular;
(iii) the lattice generated by the columns of $U$ is $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$;
(iv) U has the identity matrix as its Hermite normal form;
(v) U comes from the identity matrix by elementary column operations.

## Theory of lattices and linear diophantine equations 4.3. UNIMODULAR MATRICES

Corollary 4.3a. Let A and A' be nonsingular matrices. Then TFAE:
(i) the columns of A and of $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$ generate the same lattice;
(ii) $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$ comes from A by elementary column operations;
(iii) $A^{\prime}=A U$ for some unimodular matrix $\mathrm{U}\left(A^{-1} \mathrm{~A}^{\prime}\right.$ is unimodular $)$;

Corollary 4.3b. For each rational matrix A of full row rank there is a unimodular matrix U such that AU is the HNF of A . If A is nonsingular, U is unique.

## Theory of lattices and linear diophantine equations 4.3. UNIMODULAR MATRICES

Example. Consider the following matrices $A, B$, and $U$. Then $B U$ is Hermite decomposition of $A$.

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
-3 & 2 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right], \quad B=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
4 & 5 & 6
\end{array}\right], \quad U=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
-3 & 2 & 0 \\
2 & -3 & -3
\end{array}\right]
$$

$U$ encodes the composite effect of the elementary column operations on A needed to bring A into normal form.

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.1 THE EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

The Euclidean determines the g.c.d. of two positive rational numbers $\alpha$ and $\beta$.

1. Replace $\alpha$ by $\alpha-[\alpha / \beta] \beta$ and $\beta$ by $\beta-[\beta / \alpha\rfloor \alpha$.
2. Repeat until one of them is 0 .
3. The nonzero among them is the g.c.d. of the original $\alpha$ and $\beta$.

Example : $\alpha=18, \beta=27$; find g.c.d $\{18,27\}$
$18-0 \times 27=18$
$27-1 \times 18=9$
$18-2 \times 9=0 \Rightarrow$ g.c. $d\{18,27\}=9$.

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.1 THE EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

FACTS: (i) g.c.d $\{\alpha, \beta\}=$ g.c.d $\{\alpha-\lfloor\alpha / \beta\rfloor \beta, \beta\}$ and
(ii) g.c.d $\{\alpha, 0\}=\alpha$.

Proof of (i): Define $\alpha-\lfloor\alpha / \beta\rfloor \beta=r$. Let $d$ be any common divisor of
$\alpha$ and $\beta$. So $d \mid \alpha$ and $d \mid \beta$. Then $r=\alpha-\lfloor\alpha / \beta\rfloor \beta$ is a multiple of $d$.
Thus, any common divisor of $\alpha$ and $\beta$ is also a common divisor of $r=\alpha-\lfloor/ \beta\rfloor \beta$ and $\beta$.

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.1 THE EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

## Linear Diophantine Equation

- find integers $\gamma$ and $\varepsilon$ such that $\gamma \alpha+\varepsilon \beta=\eta$, with $\alpha, \beta$ both rational integers

Theorem : Suppose $\alpha, \beta, \eta$ are integers. Then $\gamma \alpha+\varepsilon \beta=\eta$ has an integer solution if and only if g.c.d $\{\alpha, \beta\}$ divides $\eta$.
Proof: $(\Rightarrow)$ Since g.c.d $\{\alpha, \beta\}$ divides $\alpha, \beta$, it must divide $\gamma \alpha+\varepsilon \beta$ for any integer $\gamma, \varepsilon$. Thus is divides $\eta$.
$(\Leftarrow)$ g.c.d $\{\alpha, \beta\}=\alpha x+\beta y, \quad x, y$ integers. If g.c.d $\{\alpha, \beta\}$ divides $\eta, \exists$ an $\eta^{\prime}$ such that $\eta^{\prime} \times$ g.c.d $\{\alpha, \beta\}=\eta^{\prime} \times(\alpha x+\beta y)=\eta^{\prime}(\alpha x)+\eta^{\prime}(\beta y)$. This implies that $\gamma=\eta^{\prime} x$ and $\varepsilon=\eta^{\prime} y$ is a solution of $\gamma \alpha+\varepsilon \beta=\eta$.

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.1 THE EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

Linear Diophantine Equation

- find integers $\gamma$ and $\varepsilon$ such that $\gamma \alpha+\varepsilon \beta=$ g.c.d $\{\alpha, \beta\}$, with $\alpha, \beta$ both rational integers


## Method:

$\triangleright$ determine a series of $3 \times 2$ matrices where

$$
\mathrm{A}_{0}:=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\alpha & \beta \\
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right] \quad \mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{k}}:=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\alpha_{k} & \beta_{k} \\
\gamma_{k} & \delta_{k} \\
\varepsilon_{k} & \zeta_{k}
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.1 THE EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

$\triangleright$ RULE to find $\mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{k}+1}$ from $\mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{k}}$ :
(i) if k is even and $\beta_{k}>0$, substract $\left\lfloor\alpha_{k} / \beta_{k}\right\rfloor$ times the $2^{\text {nd }}$ column of $A_{k}$ from the $1^{\text {st }}$;
(ii) if k is odd and $\alpha_{k}>0$, substract $\left\lfloor\beta_{k} / \alpha_{k}\right\rfloor$ times the $1^{\text {st }}$ column of $A_{k}$ from the $2^{\text {nd }}$.
$\triangleright$ Repeat for $k=0,1,2, \ldots, N, \quad \alpha_{\mathrm{N}}=0$ or $\beta_{\mathrm{N}}=0$.

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.1 THE EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

Example: $\alpha=15, \beta=6$

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\mathrm{A}_{0}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
15 & 6 \\
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right] & \mathrm{k}=0, \beta_{0}=6>0, \text { so }\left\lfloor\alpha_{0} / \beta_{0}\right\rfloor=\lfloor 15 / 6\rfloor=2 \\
A_{1}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
3 & 6 \\
1 & 0 \\
-2 & 1
\end{array}\right] & \mathrm{k}=1, \alpha_{1}=3>0, \text { so }\left\lfloor\beta_{1} / \alpha_{1} \mid=\lfloor 6 / 3\rfloor=2\right. \\
\mathrm{A}_{2}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
3 & 0 \\
1 & -2 \\
-2 & 5
\end{array}\right] & \begin{array}{ll}
\beta_{2}=0, \text { so } & \text { g.c.d }\{\alpha, \beta\}=\gamma_{2} \alpha+\varepsilon_{2} \beta \\
3 & =(1)(15)+(-2)(6)
\end{array}
\end{array}
$$

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.1 THE EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

$\triangleright$ if $\beta_{\mathrm{N}}=0$ and $\alpha_{\mathrm{N}} \neq 0$, then $\alpha_{\mathrm{N}}$ is g.c.d of $\alpha$ and $\beta$ since the g.c.d. of upper row of $\mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{k}}$ does not change with the iterations and $\alpha_{\mathrm{N}}=$ g.c.d $\left\{\alpha_{\mathrm{N}}, 0\right\}$
$\triangleright$ if $\alpha_{\mathrm{N}}=0$ and $\beta_{\mathrm{N}} \neq 0$, then $\beta_{\mathrm{N}}=$ g.c.d $\{\alpha, \beta\}$
$\triangleright$ find integers $\gamma$ and $\varepsilon$ with $\gamma \alpha+\varepsilon \beta=$ g.c.d $\{\alpha, \beta\}$
$\triangleright(1,-\alpha,-\beta) \mathrm{A}_{0}=(0,0)$ and $(1,-\alpha,-\beta) \mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{k}}=(0,0)$ (elem. col. operations)

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.1 THE EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

$\triangleright$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \gamma_{k} \alpha+\varepsilon_{k} \beta=\alpha_{k} \\
& \delta_{k} \alpha+\zeta_{k} \beta=\beta_{k}
\end{aligned}
$$

$\triangleright$ if $\beta_{\mathrm{N}}=0, \alpha_{N} \neq 0$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \gamma_{\mathrm{N}} \alpha+\varepsilon_{N} \beta=\alpha_{N}=\text { g.c.d }\{\alpha, \beta\} \\
& \delta_{N} \alpha+\zeta_{N} \beta=0
\end{aligned}
$$

$\triangleright$ Similarly, if $\alpha_{N}=0, \beta_{\mathrm{N}} \neq 0$

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.1 THE EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

SOME NOTES :
$\triangleright$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -\alpha_{k} \delta_{k}+\beta_{k} \gamma_{\mathrm{k}}=\beta \\
& \alpha_{k} \zeta_{k}-\beta_{k} \varepsilon_{k}=\alpha \\
& \gamma_{k} \zeta_{k}-\delta_{k} \varepsilon_{k}=1
\end{aligned}
$$

$\triangleright$
$\triangleright$ for all $\mathrm{k}, \gamma_{\mathrm{k}} \geq 1, \zeta_{k} \geq 1$, and $\delta_{k} \leq 0, \varepsilon_{k} \leq 0$.

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.1 THE EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

Theorem 5.1. The Euclidean algorithm is polynomial-time method, i.e., polynomial in the size of the input.
Proof :。 Assume that $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are natural numbers.

- All matrices $\mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{k}}$ have nonnegative integers in $1^{\text {st }}$ row.
- Each iterations reduces $\alpha_{k}$ or $\beta_{\mathrm{k}}$ by a factor of at least 2 .
- Recall that the length of an integer $n$ as input is the \# of bits, i.e., $\log _{2} n+O(1)$
- After at most $\left\lfloor\log _{2} \alpha\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\log _{2} \beta\right\rfloor+1$ iterations, either $\alpha_{k}=0$ or $\beta_{\mathrm{k}}=0$.
- Each iteration consists of elementary arithmetic operations, thus taking polynomial time.
- $\therefore$ the sizes of the numbers are polynomially bounded by the sizes of $\alpha$ and $\beta$.


## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.1 THE EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

Corollary 5.1a. A linear diophantine equation with rational coefficients can be solved in polynomial time.
Proof : Let $\alpha_{1} \zeta_{1}+\cdots+\alpha_{n} \zeta_{\mathrm{n}}=\beta$ be a rational linear diophantine equation.
Algorithm: Case $\mathrm{n}=1$ : trivial. Let $\mathrm{n} \geq 2$. Find $\alpha^{\prime}, \gamma, \varepsilon$ with Euclidean alg. satisfying: $\quad \alpha^{\prime}=$ g.c.d. $\left\{\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right\}=\alpha_{1} \gamma+\alpha_{2} \varepsilon, \quad \gamma, \varepsilon$ : integers.
Solve the linear diophantine equation in (n-1) variables:
(*) $\quad \alpha^{\prime} \zeta^{\prime}+\alpha_{3} \zeta_{3}+\cdots+\alpha_{\mathrm{n}} \zeta_{\mathrm{n}}=\beta$.
If (*) has no integral solution, then neither does the original equation.
If (*) has an integral solution $\zeta^{\prime}, \zeta_{3}, \ldots, \zeta_{\mathrm{n}}$ then $\zeta_{1}=\zeta^{\prime}, \zeta_{2}=\varepsilon \zeta^{\prime}, \zeta_{3}, \ldots, \zeta_{\mathrm{n}}$ gives an integral solution to the original equation.
This defines a polynomial algorithm.

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.2 SIZES \& GOOD CHARACTERIZATIONS

Theorem 5.2. The Hermite normal form $[\mathrm{B} 0]$ of a rational matrix of full row rank has size polynomially bounded by the size of A. Moreover, there exists a unimodular matrix $U$ with $A U=[B 0]$ such that the size of $U$ is polynomially bounded by the size of A .

Proof : - Assume A is integral (multiplying A by porduct of the denominators of A, say $\kappa$, also multiplies the HNF of A by $\kappa$ ).

- Diagonal entries of B are divisors of subdeterminants of A (Sec. 4.2).
- Each row of B has its max. entry on the diagonal of B
$\Rightarrow$ size of [B 0 ] is polynomially bounded by size of A.


## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.2 SIZES \& GOOD CHARACTERIZATIONS

Proof : - Assume $\mathrm{A}=\left[\mathrm{A}^{\prime} \mathrm{A}^{\prime \prime}\right]$ with $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$ nonsingular.

- Let HNF of

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\mathrm{A}^{\prime} & \mathrm{A}^{\prime \prime} \\
0 & \mathrm{I}
\end{array}\right] \text { is }\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\mathrm{B} & 0 \\
\mathrm{~B}^{\prime} & \mathrm{B}^{\prime \prime}
\end{array}\right]
$$

for certain matrices $\mathrm{B}^{\prime}$ and $\mathrm{B}^{\prime \prime}$.

- Since the sizes of $B, B^{\prime}$, and $B^{\prime \prime}$ are polynomially bounded by the size of $A$, the size of unimodular matrix

$$
\mathrm{U}:=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\mathrm{A}^{\prime} & \mathrm{A}^{\prime \prime} \\
0 & \mathrm{I}
\end{array}\right]^{-1}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\mathrm{B} & 0 \\
\mathrm{~B}^{\prime} & \mathrm{B}^{\prime \prime}
\end{array}\right]
$$

is polynomially bounded by the size of A

- $A U=\left[\begin{array}{ll}A^{\prime} & A^{\prime \prime}\end{array}\right] U=\left[\begin{array}{ll}B & 0\end{array}\right]$


## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.2 SIZES \& GOOD CHARACTERIZATIONS

Corollary 5.2a. If a rational system $\mathrm{Ax}=\mathrm{b}$ has an integral solution, it has one of size polynomially bounded by the sizes of $A$ and $b$.

Corollary 5.2b. The following problem has a good characterization: given a rational matrix $A$ and a rational vector $b$, does the system $A x=b$ have an integral solution?

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.3 POLYNOMIAL ALGORITHMS FOR HNF \& SYSTEMS LINEAR DIOPHANTINE EQUATIONS

Polynomial algorithm to determine the HNF
Let A be an $m \times n$ integral matrix of full row rank.
Let M be the absolute value of the determinant of an (arbitrary) submatrix A of rank m .
The columns of A generate the same lattice as the columns of the martix:

$$
\mathrm{A}^{\prime}:=\left[A \left\lvert\, \begin{array}{llll}
M & & & \\
& \ddots & 0 & \\
& 0 & \ddots & \\
& & & M
\end{array}\right.\right]
$$

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.3 POLYNOMIAL ALGORITHMS FOR HNF \& SYSTEMS LINEAR DIOPHANTINE EQUATIONS

- HNF of A is the same as that of $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$, except for the last m columns of the HNF of A'.
- Thus, it suffices to find the HNF of A'.

Method: (1) Add integral multiples of the last $m$ columns of $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$ to the first n columns of A ' so that all components with be at least 0 or at most M .

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.3 POLYNOMIAL ALGORITHMS FOR HNF \& SYSTEMS LINEAR DIOPHANTINE EQUATIONS

(2) Suppose we have the matrix

where B is lower triangular $k \times k$ matrix, C is an $(m-k) \times k$ matrix, D is an $(m-k) \times(n+1)$ matrix such that the first row of D is nonzero.

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.3 POLYNOMIAL ALGORITHMS FOR HNF \& SYSTEMS LINEAR DIOPHANTINE EQUATIONS

(3) Writing $\mathrm{D}=:\left(\delta_{\mathrm{ij}}\right)_{\mathrm{i}=1, \mathrm{j}, \mathrm{j}=1}^{\mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{n}+1}$ :
if there are $\mathrm{i} \neq \mathrm{j}$ with $\delta_{\mathrm{li}} \geq \delta_{\mathrm{lj}}>0$, then:
(i) subtract $\left\lfloor\delta_{\mathrm{ii}} / \delta_{\mathrm{lj}}\right\rfloor$ times the $\mathrm{j}^{\text {th }}$ column of D from the $\mathrm{i}^{\text {th }}$ column of D ;
(ii) add integral multiples of the last $(m-k-1)$ columns of $(*)$ to the other colunms to bring all components between 0 and M .
(4) Repeat (i) and (ii) while the first row of D has more than one nonzero entry. When D obtains exactly one nonzero entry, repeat for $(k+1)$.

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.3 POLYNOMIAL ALGORITHMS FOR HNF \& SYSTEMS LINEAR DIOPHANTINE EQUATIONS

(4) If $k=m$, then the matrix $(*)$ is in the form [B 0] with B lower triangular.
(5) HNF: for $i=2, \ldots n$, do for $j=1, \ldots, i-1$, add an integral multiple of the
$i^{\text {th }}$ column of B to the $j^{\text {th }}$ column of B to get the $(i, j)^{\text {th }}$ entry of B nonnegative and less than $\beta_{\mathrm{ij}}$.
(6) Then the HNF is obtained by deleting the last $m$ columns.

## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.3 POLYNOMIAL ALGORITHMS FOR HNF \& SYSTEMS LINEAR DIOPHANTINE EQUATIONS

Theorem 5.3. The described mathod finds the HNF in polynomial time.

Proof: - Executions on the matrix D is polynomially bounded by $n$ and $\log _{2} M$

- Procedure on first row of $D$ : 。one more zero entry in the row or - reduce the row by a factor of at least $2\left(\delta_{1 \mathrm{i}}-\left\lfloor\delta_{1 i} / \delta_{1 j}\right\rfloor \delta_{1 j} \leq \frac{1}{2} \delta_{1 i}\right)$
$\Rightarrow$ after at most $n \log _{2} M$ iterations, D has at most one nonzero entry in the first row and $k \rightarrow k+1$
- Then $k=m$ ( B is upper triangular form) after at most $m n \log _{2} M$ iterations, we begin to transform [B0] into HNF $\Rightarrow$ polynomial-time
- Thus, the algorithm is polynomially bounded


## Algorithms for linear diophantine equations 5.3 POLYNOMIAL ALGORITHMS FOR HNF \& SYSTEMS LINEAR DIOPHANTINE EQUATIONS

Corollary 5.3a. Given a rational matrix A of full row rank, we can find in polynomial time a unimodular matrix $U$ such that $A U$ is in HNF.

Corollary 5.3b. Given a system of rational linear equations, we can decide if it has an integral solution, and if so, find one, in polynomial time.

Corollary 5.3c. Given a feasible system $\mathrm{Ax}=\mathrm{b}$ of rational linear diophantine equations, we can find in polynomial time integral vectors $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{t}$ such that

$$
\{x \mid A x=b ; x \text { is integral }\}=\left\{x_{0}+\lambda_{1} x_{1}+\cdots+\lambda_{t} x_{t} \mid \lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{t} \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}
$$

with $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{t}$ linearly independent.

