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Solving bivariate systems: Efficient worst-case algorithm for computing Rational Univariate Representations and applications

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Solving bivariate systems: Efficient worst-case algorithm for computing Rational Univariate Representations and applications

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Abstract: We address the problem of solving systems of two bivariate polynomials of total degree at most d with integer coefficients of maximum bitsize τ . It is known that a linear separating form, that is a linear combination of the variables that takes different values at distinct solutions of the system, can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bit operations (where O_B refers to bit complexities and \tilde{O} to complexities where polylogarithmic factors are omitted) and we focus here on the computation of a Rational Univariate Representation (RUR) given a linear separating form.

We present an algorithm for computing a RUR with worst-case bit complexity in $\tilde{O}_B(d^7 + d^6\tau)$ and bound the bitsize of its coefficients by $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$. We show in addition that isolating boxes of the solutions of the system can be computed from the RUR with $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bit operations. Finally, we show how a RUR can be used to evaluate the sign of a bivariate polynomial (of degree at most d and bitsize at most τ) at one real solution of the system in $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bit operations and at all the $\Theta(d^2)$ real solutions in only $O(d)$ times that for one solution.

Key-words: computer algebra, polynomial system solving, Rational Univariate Representations

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Résolution de systèmes bivariés: algorithme efficace dans le pire cas pour le calcul de représentations univariées rationnelles et applications

Résumé : Nous abordons le problème de la résolution de systèmes de deux polynômes à deux variables de degré total au plus d à coefficients entiers de bitsize maximale τ . Il est connu que une forme linéaire séparante, c'est-à-dire une combinaison linéaire des variables qui prend des valeurs différentes quand elle est évaluée en des solutions (complexes) distinctes du système, peut être calculée en $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bits opérations (où \tilde{O} se réfère à la complexité où les facteurs polylogarithmiques sont omis et O_B se réfère à la complexité binaire) et nous nous concentrons ici sur le calcul d'une représentation univariée rationnelle (RUR) étant donné une forme linéaire séparante.

Nous présentons un algorithme pour le calcul d'une RUR de complexité $\tilde{O}_B(d^7 + d^6\tau)$ dans le pire cas et nous bornons la taille de ses coefficients par $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$. Nous montrons en outre que des boîtes d'isolation des solutions du système peuvent être calculées à partir de la RUR avec $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bits opérations. Enfin, nous montrons comment une RUR peut être utilisée pour évaluer le signe d'un polynôme à deux variables (de degré au plus d et bitsize au plus τ) en une solution réelle du système en $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bits opérations et en toutes les $\Theta(d^2)$ solutions réelles en seulement $O(d)$ fois plus que pour une solution.

Mots-clés : calcul formel, résolution de systèmes polynomiaux, représentation univariée rationnelle

1 Introduction

There exists many algorithms, in the literature, for “solving” algebraic systems of equations. Some focus on computing “*formal solutions*” such as rational parameterizations, Gröbner bases, and triangular sets, others focus on isolating the solutions. By isolating the solution, we mean computing isolating axis-parallel boxes sets such that every real solution lies in a unique box and conversely. In this paper, we focus on the worst-case bit complexity of these methods (in the RAM model) for systems of **bivariate polynomials of total degree d with integer coefficients of bitsize τ** .

It should be stressed that formal solutions do not necessarily yield, directly, isolating boxes of the solutions. In particular, from a theoretical complexity view, it is not proved that the knowledge of a triangular system or Gröbner basis of a system always simplifies the isolation of its solutions. The difficulty lies in the fact that isolating the solutions of a triangular system essentially amounts to isolating the roots of univariate polynomials with algebraic numbers as coefficients, which is not trivial when these polynomials have multiple roots. For recent work on this problem, we refer to [CGY07, FBM09] where no upper bound of complexity are given for the roots isolation. This difficulty also explains why it is not an easy task to define precisely what a formal solution of a system is, and why usage prevails in what is usually considered to be a formal solution.

For isolating the real solutions of systems of two bivariate polynomials, the algorithm with best known bit complexity was recently analyzed by Emeliyanenko and Sagraloff [ES12]. They solve the problem in $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bit operations (where \tilde{O} refers to the complexity where polylogarithmic factors are omitted and O_B refers to the bit complexity). Furthermore, the isolating boxes can easily be refined because the algorithm computes the univariate polynomials that correspond to the projections of the solutions on each axis (that is, the resultants of the two input polynomials with respect to each of the variables). The main drawback of their approach is, however, that their output (i.e., the isolating boxes and the two resultants) does not seem to help for performing some important operations on the solutions of the system, such as computing the sign of a polynomial at one of these real solutions (referred to as the *sign_at* operation), which is a critical operation in many problems, in particular in geometry.

Other widespread approaches that solve systems and allow for simple *sign_at* evaluations, are those that consist in computing rational parameterizations of the (complex) solutions. Recall that such a rational parameterization is a set of univariate polynomials and associated rational one-to-one mappings that send the roots of the univariate polynomials to the solutions of the system. The algorithm with the best known complexity for solving such systems via rational parameterizations was, in essence, first introduced by Gonzalez-Vega and El Kahoui [GVEK96] (see also [GVN02]). The algorithm first applies a generic linear change of variables to the two input polynomials, computes a rational parameterization using the subresultant sequence of the sheared polynomials and finally computes the isolating boxes of the solutions. Its initial bit complexity of $\tilde{O}_B(d^{16} + d^{14}\tau^2)$ was improved by Diochnos et al. [DET09, Theorem 19] to (i) $\tilde{O}_B(d^{10} + d^9\tau)$ for computing a generic shear (i.e., a separating linear form), to (ii) $\tilde{O}_B(d^7 + d^6\tau)$ for computing a rational parameterization and to (iii) $\tilde{O}_B(d^{10} + d^9\tau)$ for the isolation phase with a modification of the initial algorithm.¹

¹The complexity of the isolation phase in [DET09, Theorem 19] is stated as $\tilde{O}_B(d^{12} + d^{10}\tau^2)$ but it trivially decreases to $\tilde{O}_B(d^{10} + d^9\tau)$ with the recent result of Sagraloff [Sag12] which improves the complexity of isolating the real roots of a univariate polynomial. Note also that Diochnos et al. [DET09] present two algorithms, the M_RUR and G_RUR algorithms, both with bit complexity $\tilde{O}_B(d^{12} + d^{10}\tau^2)$. However, this complexity is worst case only for the M_RUR algorithm. As pointed out by Emeliyanenko and Sagraloff [ES12], the G_RUR algorithm uses a modular gcd algorithm over an extension field whose considered bit complexity is expected.

Main results. We addressed in [BLPR13] the first phase of the above algorithm and proved that, given two polynomials P and Q of degree at most d and bitsize at most τ , a separating linear form can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bit operations (improving by a factor d^2 the above complexity). We suppose computed such a separating linear form and address in this paper the second and third phase of the above algorithm, that is the computation of a rational parameterization and the isolation of the solutions of the system. We also consider two important related problems, namely, the evaluation of the sign of a polynomial at the real solutions of a system and the computation of a rational parameterization of over-constrained systems.

We first show that the Rational Univariate Representation (RUR for short) of Rouillier [Rou99] (i) can be expressed with simple polynomial formulas, that (ii) it has a total bitsize which is asymptotically smaller than that of Gonzalez-Vega and El Kahoui by a factor d , and that (iii) it can be computed with the same complexity, that is $\tilde{O}_B(d^7 + d^6\tau)$ (Theorem 6). Namely, we prove that the RUR consists of four polynomials of degree at most d^2 and bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ (instead of $O(d)$ polynomials with the same asymptotic degree and bitsize for Gonzalez-Vega and El Kahoui parameterization). Moreover, we prove that this bound holds for any ideal containing P and Q , that is, for instance the radical ideal of $\langle P, Q \rangle$ (Proposition 12).

We show that, given a RUR, isolating boxes of the solutions of the system can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bit operations (Proposition 19). This decreases by a factor d^2 the best known complexity for this isolation phase of the algorithm (see the discussion above). Globally, this brings the overall bit complexity of all three phases of the algorithm to $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$, which also improves by a factor d^2 the complexity.

Finally, we show how a rational parameterization can be used to perform efficiently two important operations on the input system. We first show how a RUR can be used to perform efficiently the *sign_at* operation. Given a polynomial F of total degree at most d with integer coefficients of bitsize at most τ , we show that the sign of F at one real solution of the system can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bit operations, while the complexity of computing its sign at all the $\Theta(d^2)$ solutions of the system is only $O(d)$ times that for one real solution (Theorem 24). This improves the best known complexities of $\tilde{O}_B(d^{10} + d^9\tau)$ and $\tilde{O}_B(d^{12} + d^{11}\tau)$ for these respective problems (see [DET09, Th. 14 & Cor. 24] with the improvement of [Sag12] for the root isolation). Similar to the *sign_at* operation, we show that a RUR can be split in two parameterizations such that F vanishes at all the solutions of one of them and at none of the other. We also show that these rational parameterizations can be transformed back into RURs in order to reduce their total bitsize (see above), within the same complexity, that is, $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ (Proposition 28).

The paper is organized as follows: in Section 3.1, we present our algorithm for computing the RUR based on the formulas of Proposition 7. We then use these formulas in Section 3.2 to prove new bounds on the bitsize of the coefficients of the polynomials of the RUR. The main results of Section 3 are summarized in Theorem 6. In Section 4, we present three applications of the RUR. We first describe in Section 4.1 an algorithm for isolating the real solutions. We then present in Section 4.2 an algorithm for computing the sign of a bivariate polynomial at these solutions and, finally, we show in Section 4.3 how a RUR can be split into rational parameterizations whose solutions satisfy some equality and inequality constraints.

2 Notation and preliminaries

We introduce notation and recall the definition of subresultant sequences and basics of complexity.

The bitsize of an integer p is the number of bits needed to represent it, that is $\lfloor \log p \rfloor + 1$ (log refer to the logarithm in base 2). For rational numbers, we refer to the bitsize as to the maximum bitsize of its numerator and denominator. The bitsize of a polynomial with integer or

rational coefficients is the *maximum* bitsize of its coefficients. We refer to τ_γ as the bitsize of a polynomial, rational or integer γ .

We denote by \mathbb{D} a unique factorization domain, typically $\mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$, $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ or \mathbb{Z} . We also denote by \mathbb{F} a field, typically \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{C} . For any polynomial $P \in \mathbb{D}[X]$, let $Lc_X(P)$ denote its leading coefficient with respect to the variable X (or simply $Lc(P)$ in the univariate case), $d_X(P)$ its degree with respect to X , and \overline{P} its squarefree part. The ideal generated by two polynomials P and Q is denoted $\langle P, Q \rangle$, and the affine variety of an ideal I is denoted by $V(I)$; in other words, $V(I)$ is the set of distinct solutions of the system $\{P, Q\}$. The solutions are always considered in the algebraic closure of the fraction field of \mathbb{D} , unless specified otherwise. For a point $\sigma \in V(I)$, $\mu_I(\sigma)$ denotes the multiplicity of σ in I . For simplicity, we refer indifferently to the ideal $\langle P, Q \rangle$ and to the corresponding system of polynomials.

We finally introduce the following notation which are extensively used throughout the paper. Given the two input polynomials P and Q , we consider the “generic” change of variables $X = T - SY$, and define the “sheared” polynomials $P(T - SY, Y)$, $Q(T - SY, Y)$, and their resultant with respect to Y ,

$$R(T, S) = \text{Res}_Y(P(T - SY, Y), Q(T - SY, Y)). \quad (1)$$

Let $L_R(S)$ be the leading coefficient of $R(T, S)$ seen as a polynomial in T . Let $L_P(S)$ and $L_Q(S)$ be the leading coefficients of $P(T - SY, Y)$ and $Q(T - SY, Y)$, seen as polynomials in Y ; it is straightforward that these leading coefficients do not depend on T . In other words:

$$\begin{aligned} L_P(S) &= Lc_Y(P(T - SY, Y)), & L_Q(S) &= Lc_Y(Q(T - SY, Y)) \\ L_R(S) &= Lc_T(R(T, S)) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Complexity. We recall some complexity bounds. In the sequel, we often consider the gcd of two univariate polynomials P and Q and the gcd-free part of P with respect to Q , that is, the divisor D of P such that $P = \text{gcd}(P, Q)D$. Note that when $Q = P'$, D is the squarefree part \overline{P} of P .

Lemma 1 ([BPR06, Corollary 10.12 & Remark 10.19]²). *Two polynomials P, Q in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ with maximum degree d and bitsize at most τ have a gcd in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ with coefficients of bitsize in $O(d + \tau)$ which can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B(d^2\tau)$ bit operations. The same bounds hold for the bitsize and the computation of the gcd-free part of P with respect to Q .*

The following is a refinement of the previous lemma for the case of two polynomials with different degrees and bitsizes. It is a straightforward adaptation of [LR01, Corollary 5.2] and it is only used in Section 4.3.

²[BPR06, Corollary 10.12] states that P and Q have a gcd in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ with bitsize in $O(d + \tau)$. [BPR06, Remark 10.19] claims that a gcd and gcd-free parts of P and Q can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^2\tau)$ bit operations. This remark refers to [LR01, Corollary 5.2] which proves that the last non-zero Sylvester-Habicht polynomial, which is a gcd of P and Q [BPR06, Corollary 8.32], can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^2\tau)$ bit operations. Moreover, the corollary proves that the Sylvester-Habicht transition matrices can be computed within the same bit complexity, which gives the cofactors of P and Q in the sequence of the Sylvester-Habicht polynomials (i.e., $U_i, V_i \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ such that $U_i P + V_i Q$ is equal to the i -th Sylvester-Habicht polynomials). The gcd-free part of P with respect to Q and conversely are the cofactors corresponding to the one-after-last non-zero Sylvester-Habicht polynomial [BPR06, Proposition 10.14], and can thus be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^2\tau)$ bit operations. The gcd (resp. gcd-free part) of P and Q computed this way is in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$, thus dividing it by the gcd of its coefficients yields a gcd (resp. gcd-free part) of P and Q of smallest bitsize in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ which is known to be in $O(d + \tau)$. The gcd of the coefficients, which are of bitsize $\tilde{O}(d\tau)$ [BPR06, Proposition 8.46], follows from $O(d)$ gcds of two integers of bitsize $\tilde{O}(d\tau)$ and each such gcd can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B(d\tau)$ bit operations [Yap00, §2.A.6]. Therefore, a gcd (resp. gcd-free part) of P and Q of bitsize $O(d + \tau)$ can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^2\tau)$ bit complexity.

Lemma 2 ([LR01]³). *Let P and Q be two polynomials in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ of degrees p and q and of bitsizes τ_P and τ_Q , respectively. A gcd of P and Q of bitsize $O(\min(p + \tau_P, q + \tau_Q))$ in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$, can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(\max(p, q)(p\tau_Q + q\tau_P))$ bit operations. A gcd-free part of P with respect to Q , of bitsize $O(p + \tau_P)$ in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$, can be computed in the same bit complexity.*

We now state a bound on the complexity of evaluating a univariate polynomial which ought to be known, even though we were not able to find a proper reference to it. For completeness, we provide a very simple proof.

Lemma 3. *Let a be a rational of bitsize τ_a , the evaluation at a of a univariate polynomial f of degree d and rational coefficients of bitsize τ can be done in $\tilde{O}_B(d(\tau + \tau_a))$ bit operations, while the value $f(a)$ has bitsize in $O(\tau + d\tau_a)$.*

Proof. The complexity $\tilde{O}_B(d(\tau + \tau_a))$ can easily be obtained by recursively evaluating the polynomial $\sum_{i=0}^d a_i x^i$ as $\sum_{i=0}^{d/2} a_i x^i + x^{d/2} \sum_{i=1}^{d/2} a_{i+d/2} x^i$. Evaluating $x^{d/2}$ can be done in $O_B(d\tau_a \log^3 d\tau_a)$ time by recursively computing $\log \frac{d}{2}$ multiplications of rational numbers of bitsize at most $d\tau_a$, each of which can be done in $O_B(d\tau_a \log d\tau_a \log \log d\tau_a)$ time by Schönhage-Strassen algorithm (see e.g. [vzGG99, Theorem 8.24]). $\sum_{i=0}^{d/2} a_{i+d/2} x^i$ has bitsize at most $d\tau_a + \tau$, hence its multiplication with $x^{d/2}$ can be done in $O_B((d\tau_a + \tau) \log^2(d\tau_a + \tau))$ time. Hence, the total complexity of evaluating f is at most $T(d, \tau, \tau_a) = 2T(d/2, \tau, \tau_a) + O_B((d\tau_a + \tau) \log^3(d\tau_a + \tau))$ which is in $O_B(d(\tau_a + \tau) \log^4(d\tau_a + \tau))$ that is in $\tilde{O}_B(d(\tau_a + \tau))$. \square

Lemma 4 ([BLPR13, Lemma 5]). *Let P and Q in $\mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$ be of total degree at most d and maximum bitsize τ . The sheared polynomials $P(T - SY, Y)$ and $Q(T - SY, Y)$ can be expanded in $\tilde{O}_B(d^4 + d^3\tau)$ and their bitsizes are in $\tilde{O}(d + \tau)$. The resultant $R(T, S)$ can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^7 + d^6\tau)$ bit operations and $\tilde{O}(d^5)$ arithmetic operations in \mathbb{Z} ; its degree is at most $2d^2$ in each variable and its bitsize is in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$.*

3 Rational Univariate Representation

The idea of this section is to express the polynomials of a RUR of two polynomials in terms of a resultant defined from these polynomials. Given a separating form, this yields a new algorithm to compute a RUR and it also enables us to derive the bitsize of the polynomials of a RUR. In Section 3.1, we prove these expressions for the polynomials of a RUR and present the corresponding algorithm. We prove the bound on the bitsize of the RUR in Section 3.2. These results are summarized in Theorem 6.

Throughout this section we assume that the two input polynomials P and Q are coprime in $\mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$, that their maximum total degree d is at least 2 and that their coefficients have maximum bitsize τ .

³The algorithm in [LR01] uses the well-known half-gcd approach to compute any polynomial in the Sylvester-Habicht and cofactors sequence in a soft-linear number of arithmetic operations, and it exploits Hadamard's bound on determinants to bound the size of intermediate coefficients. When the two input polynomials have different degrees and bitsizes, Hadamard's bound reads as $\tilde{O}(p\tau_Q + q\tau_P)$ instead of simply $\tilde{O}(d\tau)$ and, similarly as in Lemma 1, the algorithm in [LR01] yields a gcd and gcd-free parts of P and Q in $\tilde{O}_B(\max(p, q)(p\tau_Q + q\tau_P))$ bit operations. Furthermore, the gcd and gcd-free parts computed this way are in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ with coefficients of bitsize $\tilde{O}(p\tau_Q + q\tau_P)$, thus, dividing them by the gcd of their coefficients can be done with $\tilde{O}_B(\max(p, q)(p\tau_Q + q\tau_P))$ bit operations and yields a gcd and gcd-free parts in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ with minimal bitsize, which is as claimed by Mignotte's bound (see e.g. [BPR06, Corollary 10.12]).

⁴Indeed, $T(d, \tau, \tau_a) = 2^{i+1}T(\frac{d}{2^{i+1}}, \tau, \tau_a) + O_B((d\tau_a + \tau) \log^3(d\tau_a + \tau) + \dots + 2^i(\frac{d}{2^i}\tau_a + \tau) \log^3(\frac{d}{2^i}\tau_a + \tau))$
 $\leq O_B(d\tau_a \log^3(d\tau_a + \tau) \log d + \tau \log^3(d\tau_a + \tau) \sum_{i=0}^{\log d} 2^i)$
 $\leq O_B(d(\tau_a + \tau) \log^4(d\tau_a + \tau)).$

We first recall the definition and main properties of Rational Univariate Representations. In the following, for any polynomial $v \in \mathbb{Q}[X, Y]$ and $\sigma = (\alpha, \beta) \in \mathbb{C}^2$, we denote by $v(\sigma)$ the image of σ by the polynomial function v (e.g. $X(\alpha, \beta) = \alpha$).

Definition 5 ([Rou99]). *Let $I \subset \mathbb{Q}[X, Y]$ be a zero-dimensional ideal, $V(I) = \{\sigma \in \mathbb{C}^2, v(\sigma) = 0, \forall v \in I\}$ its associated variety, and a linear form $T = X + aY$ with $a \in \mathbb{Q}$. The RUR-candidate of I associated to $X + aY$ (or simply, to a), denoted $RUR_{I,a}$, is the following set of four univariate polynomials in $\mathbb{Q}[T]$*

$$\begin{aligned} f_{I,a}(T) &= \prod_{\sigma \in V(I)} (T - X(\sigma) - aY(\sigma))^{\mu_I(\sigma)} \\ f_{I,a,v}(T) &= \sum_{\sigma \in V(I)} \mu_I(\sigma)v(\sigma) \prod_{\varsigma \in V(I), \varsigma \neq \sigma} (T - X(\varsigma) - aY(\varsigma)), \quad \text{for } v \in \{1, X, Y\} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where, for $\sigma \in V(I)$, $\mu_I(\sigma)$ denotes the multiplicity of σ in I . If $(X, Y) \mapsto X + aY$ is injective on $V(I)$, we say that the linear form $X + aY$ separates $V(I)$ (or is separating for I) and $RUR_{I,a}$ is called a RUR (the RUR of I associated to a) and it defines a bijection between $V(I)$ and $V(f_{I,a}) = \{\gamma \in \mathbb{C}, f_{I,a}(\gamma) = 0\}$:

$$\begin{aligned} V(I) &\rightarrow V(f_{I,a}) \\ (\alpha, \beta) &\mapsto \alpha + a\beta \\ \left(\frac{f_{I,a,X}}{f_{I,a,1}}(\gamma), \frac{f_{I,a,Y}}{f_{I,a,1}}(\gamma) \right) &\leftarrow \gamma \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, this bijection preserves the real roots and the multiplicities.

We prove in this section the following theorem on the RUR of two polynomials. We state it for any separating linear form $X + aY$ with integer a of bitsize $\tilde{O}(1)$ with the abuse of notation that polylogarithmic factors in d and τ are omitted. Note that it is known that there exists a separating form $X + aY$ with a positive integer $a < 2d^4$ and that such a separating form can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bit operations [BLPR13]. This theorem is a direct consequence of Propositions 8 and 12.

Theorem 6. *Let $P, Q \in \mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$ be two coprime bivariate polynomials of total degree at most d and maximum bitsize τ . Given a separating form $X + aY$ with integer a of bitsize $\tilde{O}(1)$, the RUR of $\langle P, Q \rangle$ associated to a can be computed using Proposition 7 with $\tilde{O}_B(d^7 + d^6\tau)$ bit operations. Furthermore, the polynomials of this RUR have degree at most d^2 and bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$.*

3.1 RUR computation

We show here that the polynomials of a RUR can be expressed as combinations of specializations of the resultant R and its partial derivatives. The seminal idea has already been used by several authors in various contexts (see e.g. [Can87, ABRW96, Sch01]) for computing rational parameterizations of the radical of a given zero-dimensional ideal and mainly for bounding the size of a Chow form. Based on the same idea but keeping track of multiplicities, we present a simple new formulation for the polynomials of a RUR, given separating form.

Proposition 7. *For any rational a such that $L_P(a)L_Q(a) \neq 0$ and such that $X + aY$ is a separating form of $I = \langle P, Q \rangle$, the RUR of $\langle P, Q \rangle$ associated to a is as follows:*

$$\begin{aligned} f_{I,a}(T) &= \frac{R(T, a)}{L_R(a)} & f_{I,a,1}(T) &= \frac{f'_{I,a}(T)}{\gcd(f_{I,a}(T), f'_{I,a}(T))} \\ f_{I,a,Y}(T) &= \frac{\frac{\partial R}{\partial S}(T, a) - f_{I,a}(T) \frac{\partial L_R}{\partial S}(a)}{L_R(a) \gcd(f_{I,a}(T), f'_{I,a}(T))} & f_{I,a,X}(T) &= T f_{I,a,1}(T) - d_T(f_{I,a}) \overline{f_{I,a}(T)} - a f_{I,a,Y}(T). \end{aligned}$$

We postpone the proof of Proposition 7 to Section 3.1.1 and first analyze the complexity of the computation of the expressions therein. Note that a separating form $X + aY$ as in Proposition 7 can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ [BLPR13].

Proposition 8. *Computing the polynomials in Proposition 7 can be done with $\tilde{O}_B(d^7 + d^6(\tau + \tau_a))$ bit operations, where τ_a is the bitsize of a .*

Proof of Proposition 8. According to Lemma 4, the resultant $R(T, S)$ of $P(T - SY, Y)$ and $Q(T - SY, Y)$ with respect to Y has degree $O(d^2)$ in T and S , has bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d(d + \tau))$, and that it can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^6(d + \tau))$ bit operations. We can now apply the formulas of Proposition 7 for computing the polynomials of the RUR.

Specializing $R(T, S)$ at $S = a$ can be done by evaluating $O(d^2)$ polynomials in S , each of degree in $O(d^2)$ and bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$. By Lemma 3, each of the $O(d^2)$ evaluations can be done in $\tilde{O}_B(d^2(d^2 + d\tau + \tau_a))$ bit operations and each result has bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau + d^2\tau_a)$. Hence, $R(T, a)$ and $f_{I,a}(T)$ have degree in $O(d^2)$, bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau + d^2\tau_a)$, and they can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B(d^4(d^2 + d\tau + \tau_a))$ bit operations.

The complexity of computing the numerators of $f_{I,a,1}(T)$ and $f_{I,a,Y}(T)$ is clearly dominated by the computation of $\frac{\partial R}{\partial S}(T, a)$. Indeed, computing the derivative $\frac{\partial R}{\partial S}(T, S)$ can trivially be done in $O(d^4)$ arithmetic operations of complexity $\tilde{O}_B(d^2 + d\tau)$, that is in $\tilde{O}_B(d^6 + d^5\tau)$. Then, as for $R(T, a)$, $\frac{\partial R}{\partial S}(T, a)$ has degree in $O(d^2)$, bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau + d^2\tau_a)$, and it can be computed within the same complexity as the computation of $R(T, a)$.

On the other hand, since $f_{I,a}(T)$ and $f'_{I,a}(T)$ have degree in $O(d^2)$ and bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau + d^2\tau_a)$, and $f_{I,a}(T) = \frac{R(T,a)}{L_R(a)}$, one can multiply these two polynomials by $L_R(a)$ which is of bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau + d^2\tau_a)$ and by the denominator of the rational a to the power of $d_S(R(T, S))$ which is an integer of bitsize in $O(d^2\tau_a)$, to obtain polynomials with coefficients in \mathbb{Z} . Hence, according to Lemma 1, the gcd of $f_{I,a}(T)$ and $f'_{I,a}(T)$ can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^4(d^2 + d\tau + d^2\tau_a))$ bit operations and it has bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau + d^2\tau_a)$.

Now, the bit complexity of the division of the numerators by the gcd is of the order of the square of their maximum degree times their maximum bitsize [vzGG99, Theorem 9.6 and subsequent discussion], that is, the divisions (and hence the computation of $f_{I,a,1}(T)$ and $f_{I,a,Y}(T)$) can be done in $\tilde{O}_B(d^4(d^2 + d\tau + d^2\tau_a))$ bit operations.

Finally, computing $f_{I,a,X}(T)$ can be done within the same complexity as for $f_{I,a,1}(T)$ and $f_{I,a,Y}(T)$ since it is dominated by the computation of the squarefree part of $f_{I,a}(T)$, which can be computed similarly and with the same complexity as above, by Lemma 1.

The overall complexity is thus that of computing the resultant which is in $\tilde{O}_B(d^6(d + \tau))$ plus that of computing the above gcd and Euclidean division which is in $\tilde{O}_B(d^4(d^2 + d\tau + d^2\tau_a))$. This gives a total of $\tilde{O}_B(d^7 + d^6(\tau + \tau_a))$. \square

3.1.1 Proof of Proposition 7

Proposition 7 expresses the polynomials $f_{I,a}$ and $f_{I,a,v}$ of a RUR in terms of specializations (by $S = a$) of the resultant $R(T, S)$ and its partial derivatives. Since the specializations are done after considering the derivatives of R , we study the relations between these entities before specializing S by a .

For that purpose, we first introduce the following polynomials which are exactly the polynomials $f_{I,a}$ and $f_{I,a,v}$ of (3) where the parameter a is replaced by the variable S . These polynomials

can be seen as the RUR polynomials of the ideal I with respect to a “generic” linear form $X + SY$.

$$\begin{aligned} f_I(T, S) &= \prod_{\sigma \in V(I)} (T - X(\sigma) - SY(\sigma))^{\mu_I(\sigma)} \\ f_{I,v}(T, S) &= \sum_{\sigma \in V(I)} \mu_I(\sigma) v(\sigma) \prod_{\varsigma \in V(I), \varsigma \neq \sigma} (T - X(\varsigma) - SY(\varsigma)), \quad v \in \{1, X, Y\}. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

These polynomials are obviously in $\mathbb{C}[T, S]$, but they are actually in $\mathbb{Q}[T, S]$ because, when S is specialized at any rational value a , the specialized polynomials are those of $RUR_{I,a}$ which are known to be in $\mathbb{Q}[T]$ (see e.g. [Rou99]).

Before proving Proposition 7, we express the derivatives of $f_I(T, S)$ in terms of $f_{I,v}(T, S)$, in Lemma 9, and show that $f_I(T, S)$ is the monic form of the resultant $R(T, S)$, seen as a polynomial in T , in Lemma 11.

Lemma 9. *Let $g_I(T, S) = \prod_{\sigma \in V(I)} (T - X(\sigma) - SY(\sigma))^{\mu_I(\sigma)-1}$. We have*

$$\frac{\partial f_I}{\partial T}(T, S) = g_I(T, S) f_{I,1}(T, S), \quad (5)$$

$$\frac{\partial f_I}{\partial S}(T, S) = g_I(T, S) f_{I,Y}(T, S). \quad (6)$$

Proof. It is straightforward that the derivative of f_I with respect to T is $\sum_{\sigma \in V(I)} \mu_I(\sigma) (T - X(\sigma) - SY(\sigma))^{\mu_I(\sigma)-1} \prod_{\varsigma \in V(I), \varsigma \neq \sigma} (T - X(\varsigma) - SY(\varsigma))^{\mu_I(\varsigma)}$, which can be rewritten as the product of $\prod_{\sigma \in V(I)} (T - X(\sigma) - SY(\sigma))^{\mu_I(\sigma)-1}$ and $\sum_{\sigma \in V(I)} \mu_I(\sigma) \prod_{\varsigma \in V(I), \varsigma \neq \sigma} (T - X(\varsigma) - SY(\varsigma))$ which is exactly the product of $g_I(T, S)$ and $f_{I,1}(T, S)$.

The expression of the derivative of f_I with respect to S is similar to that with respect to T except that the derivative of $T - X(\sigma) - SY(\sigma)$ is now $Y(\sigma)$ instead of 1. It follows that $\frac{\partial f_I}{\partial S}$ is the product of $\prod_{\sigma \in V(I)} (T - X(\sigma) - SY(\sigma))^{\mu_I(\sigma)-1}$ and $\sum_{\sigma \in V(I)} \mu_I(\sigma) Y(\sigma) \prod_{\varsigma \in V(I), \varsigma \neq \sigma} (T - X(\varsigma) - SY(\varsigma))$ which is the product of $g_I(T, S)$ and $f_{I,Y}(T, S)$. \square

For the proof of Lemma 11, we will need the following lemma which states that when two polynomials have no common solution at infinity in some direction, the roots of their resultant with respect to this direction are the projections of the solutions of the system with cumulated multiplicities.

Lemma 10 ([BKM05, Prop. 2 and 5]). *Let $P, Q \in \mathbb{F}[X, Y]$ defining a zero-dimensional ideal $I = \langle P, Q \rangle$, such that their leading terms $L_{c_Y}(P)$ and $L_{c_Y}(Q)$ do not have common roots. Then $\text{Res}_Y(P, Q) = c \prod_{\sigma \in V(I)} (X - X(\sigma))^{\mu_I(\sigma)}$ where c is nonzero in \mathbb{F} .*

The following lemma links the resultant of $P(T - SY, Y)$ and $Q(T - SY, Y)$ with respect to Y and the polynomial $f_I(T, S)$ as defined above.

Lemma 11. *$R(T, S) = L_R(S) f_I(T, S)$ and, for any $a \in \mathbb{Q}$, $L_P(a) L_Q(a) \neq 0$ implies that $L_R(a) \neq 0$.*

Proof. The proof is organized as follows. We first prove that for any rational a such that $L_P(a) L_Q(a)$ does not vanish, $R(T, a) = c(a) f_I(T, a)$ where $c(a) \in \mathbb{Q}$ is a nonzero constant depending on a . This is true for infinitely many values of a and, since $R(T, S)$ and $f_I(T, S)$ are polynomials, we can deduce that $R(T, S) = L_R(S) f_I(T, S)$. This will also implies the second statement of the lemma since, if $L_P(a) L_Q(a) \neq 0$, then $R(T, a) = c(a) f_I(T, a) = L_R(a) f_I(T, a)$ with $c(a) \neq 0$, thus $L_R(a) \neq 0$ (since $f_I(T, a)$ is monic).

If a is such that $L_P(a)L_Q(a) \neq 0$, the resultant $R(T, S)$ can be specialized at $S = a$, in the sense that $R(T, a)$ is equal to the resultant of $P(T - aY, Y)$ and $Q(T - aY, Y)$ with respect to Y [BPR06, Proposition 4.20].

We now apply Lemma 10 to these two polynomials $P(T - aY, Y)$ and $Q(T - aY, Y)$. These two polynomials satisfy the hypotheses of this lemma: first, their leading coefficients (in Y) do not depend on T , hence they have no common root in $\mathbb{Q}[T]$; second, the polynomials $P(T - aY, Y)$ and $Q(T - aY, Y)$ are coprime because $P(X, Y)$ and $Q(X, Y)$ are coprime by assumption and the change of variables $(X, Y) \mapsto (T = X + aY, Y)$ is a one-to-one mapping (and a common factor will remain a common factor after the change of variables). Hence Lemma 10 yields that $R(T, a) = c(a) \prod_{\sigma \in V(I_a)} (T - T(\sigma))^{\mu_{I_a}(\sigma)}$, where $c(a) \in \mathbb{Q}$ is a nonzero constant depending on a , and I_a is the ideal generated by $P(T - aY, Y)$ and $Q(T - aY, Y)$.

We now observe that $\prod_{\sigma \in V(I_a)} (T - T(\sigma))^{\mu_{I_a}(\sigma)}$ is equal to $f_I(T, a) = \prod_{\sigma \in V(I)} (T - X(\sigma) - aY(\sigma))^{\mu_I(\sigma)}$ since any solution (α, β) of $P(X, Y)$ is in one-to-one correspondence with the solution $(\alpha + a\beta, \beta)$ of $P(T - aY, Y)$ (and similarly for Q) and the multiplicities of the solutions also match, i.e. $\mu_I(\sigma) = \mu_{I_a}(\sigma_a)$ when σ and σ_a are in correspondence through the mapping [Ful08, §3.3 Proposition 3 and Theorem 3]. Hence,

$$L_P(a)L_Q(a) \neq 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad R(T, a) = c(a)f_I(T, a) \quad \text{with} \quad c(a) \neq 0. \quad (7)$$

Since there is finitely many values of a such that $L_P(a)L_Q(a)L_R(a) = 0$ and since $f_I(T, S)$ is monic with respect to T , (7) implies that $R(T, S)$ and $f_I(T, S)$ have the same degree in T , say D . We write these two polynomials as

$$R(T, S) = L_R(S)T^D + \sum_{i=0}^{D-1} r_i(S)T^i, \quad f_I(T, S) = T^D + \sum_{i=0}^{D-1} f_i(S)T^i. \quad (8)$$

If a is such that $L_P(a)L_Q(a)L_R(a) \neq 0$, (7) and (8) imply that $L_R(a) = c(a)$ and $r_i(a) = L_R(a)f_i(a)$, for all i . These equalities hold for infinitely many values of a , and $r_i(S), L_R(S)$ and $f_i(S)$ are polynomials in S , thus $r_i(S) = L_R(S)f_i(S)$ and, by (8), $R(T, S) = L_R(S)f_I(T, S)$. \square

We can now prove Proposition 7, which we recall, for clarity.

Proposition 7. *For any rational a such that $L_P(a)L_Q(a) \neq 0$ and such that $X + aY$ is a separating form of $I = \langle P, Q \rangle$, the RUR of $\langle P, Q \rangle$ associated to a is as follows:*

$$\begin{aligned} f_{I,a}(T) &= \frac{R(T, a)}{L_R(a)} & f_{I,a,1}(T) &= \frac{f'_{I,a}(T)}{\gcd(f_{I,a}(T), f'_{I,a}(T))} \\ f_{I,a,Y}(T) &= \frac{\frac{\partial R}{\partial S}(T, a) - f_{I,a}(T) \frac{\partial L_R}{\partial S}(a)}{L_R(a) \gcd(f_{I,a}(T), f'_{I,a}(T))} & f_{I,a,X}(T) &= T f_{I,a,1}(T) - d_T(f_{I,a}) \overline{f_{I,a}(T)} - a f_{I,a,Y}(T). \end{aligned}$$

Proof. Since we assume that a is such that $L_P(a)L_Q(a) \neq 0$, Lemma 11 immediately gives the first formula.

Equation 5 states that $f_{I,1}(T, S)g_I(T, S) = \frac{\partial f_I(T, S)}{\partial T}$, where $g_I(T, S) = \prod_{\sigma \in V(I)} (T - X(\sigma) - SY(\sigma))^{\mu_I(\sigma)-1}$. In addition, g_I being monic in T , it never identically vanishes when S is specialized, thus the preceding formula yields after specialization: $f_{I,a,1}(T) = \frac{f'_{I,a}(T)}{g_I(T, a)}$. Furthermore, $g_I(T, a) = \gcd(f_{I,a}(T), f'_{I,a}(T))$. Indeed, $f_{I,a}(T) = \prod_{\sigma \in V(I)} (T - X(\sigma) - aY(\sigma))^{\mu_I(\sigma)}$ and all values $X(\sigma) + aY(\sigma)$, for $\sigma \in V(I)$, are pairwise distinct since $X + aY$ is a separating form, thus the gcd of $f_{I,a}(T)$ and its derivative is $\prod_{\sigma \in V(I)} (T - X(\sigma) - aY(\sigma))^{\mu_I(\sigma)-1}$, that is $g_I(T, a)$. This proves the formula for $f_{I,a,1}$.

Concerning the third equation, Lemma 11 together with Equation 6 implies:

$$\begin{aligned} f_{I,Y}(T, S) &= \frac{\frac{\partial f_I(T, S)}{\partial S}}{g_I(T, S)} = \frac{\frac{\partial(R(T, S)/L_R(S))}{\partial S}}{g_I(T, S)} = \frac{\frac{\partial R(T, S)}{\partial S} L_R(S) - R(T, S) \frac{\partial L_R(S)}{\partial S}}{L_R(S)^2 g_I(T, S)} \\ &= \frac{\frac{\partial R(T, S)}{\partial S} - f_I(T, S) \frac{\partial L_R(S)}{\partial S}}{L_R(S) g_I(T, S)}. \end{aligned}$$

As argued above, when specialized, $g_I(T, a) = \gcd(f_{I,a}(T), f'_{I,a}(T))$ and it does not identically vanish. By Lemma 11, $L_R(a)$ does not vanish either, and the formula for $f_{I,a,Y}$ follows.

It remains to compute $f_{I,a,X}$. Definition 5 implies that, for any root γ of $f_{I,a}$: $\gamma = \frac{f_{I,a,X}}{f_{I,a,1}}(\gamma) + a \frac{f_{I,a,Y}}{f_{I,a,1}}(\gamma)$, and thus $f_{I,a,X}(\gamma) + a f_{I,a,Y}(\gamma) - \gamma f_{I,a,1}(\gamma) = 0$. Replacing γ by T , we have that the polynomial $f_{I,a,X}(T) + a f_{I,a,Y}(T) - T f_{I,a,1}(T)$ vanishes at every root of $f_{I,a}$, thus the squarefree part of $f_{I,a}$ divides that polynomial. In other words, $f_{I,a,X}(T) = T f_{I,a,1}(T) - a f_{I,a,Y}(T) \pmod{f_{I,a}(T)}$. We now compute $T f_{I,a,1}(T)$ and $a f_{I,a,Y}(T)$ modulo $f_{I,a}(T)$.

Equation (3) implies that $f_{I,a,v}(T)$ is equal to $T^{\#V(I)-1} \sum_{\sigma \in V(I)} \mu_I(\sigma) v(\sigma)$ plus some terms of lower degree in T , and that the degree of $f_{I,a}(T)$ is $\#V(I)$ (since $X + aY$ is a separating form). First, for $v = Y$, this implies that $d_T(f_{I,a,Y}) < d_T(f_{I,a})$, and thus that $a f_{I,a,Y}(T)$ is already reduced modulo $f_{I,a}(T)$. Second, for $v = 1$, $\sum_{\sigma \in V(I)} \mu_I(\sigma)$ is nonzero and equal to $d_T(f_{I,a})$. Thus, $T f_{I,a,1}(T)$ and $f_{I,a}(T)$ are both of degree $\#V(I)$, and their leading coefficients are $d_T(f_{I,a})$ and 1, respectively. Hence $T f_{I,a,1}(T) \pmod{f_{I,a}(T)} = T f_{I,a,1}(T) - d_T(f_{I,a}) f_{I,a}(T)$. We thus obtain the last equation, that is, $f_{I,a,X}(T) = T f_{I,a,1}(T) - d_T(f_{I,a}) f_{I,a}(T) - a f_{I,a,Y}(T)$. \square

3.2 RUR bitsize

We prove here, in Proposition 12, a new bound on the bitsize of the coefficients of the polynomials of a RUR. This bound is interesting in its own right and is instrumental for our analysis of the complexity of computing isolating boxes of the solutions of the input system, as well as for performing *sign* evaluations. We state our bound for RUR-candidates, that is even when the linear form $X + aY$ is not separating. We only use this result when the form is separating, for proving Theorem 6, but the general result is interesting in a probabilistic context when a RUR-candidate is computed with a random linear form. We also prove our bound, not only for the RUR-candidates of an ideal defined by *two* polynomials P and Q , but for any ideal of $\mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$ that contains P and Q (for instance the radical of $\langle P, Q \rangle$ or the ideals obtained by decomposing $\langle P, Q \rangle$ according to the multiplicity of the solutions).

Proposition 12. *Let $P, Q \in \mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$ be two coprime polynomials of total degree at most d and maximum bitsize τ , let a be a rational of bitsize τ_a , and let J be any ideal of $\mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$ containing P and Q . The polynomials of the RUR-candidate of J associated to a have degree at most d^2 and bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 \tau_a + d\tau)$. Moreover, there exists an integer of bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 \tau_a + d\tau)$ such that the product of this integer with any polynomial in the RUR-candidate yields a polynomial with integer coefficients.⁵*

Before proving Proposition 12, we prove a corollary of Mignotte's lemma stating that the bitsize of a factor of a polynomial P with integer coefficients does not differ much than that of P . We also recall a notion of primitive part for polynomials in $\mathbb{Q}[X, Y]$ and some of its properties.

⁵In other words, the mapping $\gamma \mapsto \left(\frac{f_{J,a,X}}{f_{J,a,1}}(\gamma), \frac{f_{J,a,Y}}{f_{J,a,1}}(\gamma) \right)$ sending the solutions of $f_{J,a}(T)$ to those of J (see Definition 5) can be defined with polynomials with integer coefficients of bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^2 \tau_a + d\tau)$. This will be needed in the proof of Lemma 21.

Lemma 13 (Mignotte). *Let $P \in \mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$ be of degree at most d in each variable with coefficients bitsize at most τ . If $P = Q_1 Q_2$ with Q_1, Q_2 in $\mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$, then the bitsize of Q_i , $i = 1, 2$, is in $\tilde{O}(d + \tau)$.*

Proof. A polynomial can be seen as the vector of its coefficients and we denote by $\|P\|_k$ the L^k norm of P . Mignotte lemma [Mig89, Theorem 4bis p. 172] states that $\|Q_1\|_1 \|Q_2\|_1 \leq 2^{2d} \|P\|_2$. One always has $\|Q_i\|_\infty \leq \|Q_i\|_1$ and since the polynomials have integer coefficients, $1 \leq \|Q_i\|_\infty$. Thus $\|Q_j\|_\infty \leq 2^{2d} \|P\|_2$ and $\log \|Q_j\|_\infty \leq 2d + \log \|P\|_2$. Thus, by definition, the bitsize of Q_j is $\lfloor \log \|Q_j\|_\infty \rfloor + 1 \leq 2d + 1 + \log \|P\|_2$. Since P has degree at most d in each variable, it has at most $(d + 1)^2$ coefficients which are bounded by 2^τ , thus $\|P\|_2 < \sqrt{(d + 1)^2 2^{2\tau}}$ which yields that the bitsize of Q_j is less than $2d + 1 + \log(d + 1) + \tau$. \square

Primitive part. Consider a polynomial P in $\mathbb{Q}[X, Y]$ of degree at most d in each variable. It can be written $P = \sum_{i,j=0}^d \frac{a_{ij}}{b_{ij}} X^i Y^j$ with a_{ij} and b_{ij} coprime in \mathbb{Z} for all i, j . We define the *primitive part* of P , denoted $pp(P)$, as P divided by the gcd of the a_{ij} and multiplied by the least common multiple (lcm) of the b_{ij} . (Note that this definition is not entirely standard since we do not consider contents that are polynomials in X or in Y .) We also denote by τ_P the bitsize of P (that is, the maximum bitsize of all the a_{ij} and b_{ij}). We prove three properties of the primitive part which will be useful in the proof.

Lemma 14. *For any two polynomials P and Q in $\mathbb{Q}[X, Y]$, we have the following properties: (i) $pp(PQ) = pp(P)pp(Q)$. (ii) If P is monic then $\tau_P \leq \tau_{pp(P)}$ and, more generally, if P has one coefficient, ξ , of bitsize τ_ξ , then $\tau_P \leq \tau_\xi + \tau_{pp(P)}$. (iii) If P has coefficients in \mathbb{Z} , then $\tau_{pp(P)} \leq \tau_P$.*

Proof. Gauss Lemma states that if two univariate polynomials with integer coefficients are primitive, so is their product. This lemma can straightforwardly be extended to be used in our context by applying a change of variables of the form $X^i Y^j \rightarrow Z^{ik+j}$ with $k > 2 \max(d_Y(P), d_Y(Q))$. Thus, if P and Q in $\mathbb{Q}[X, Y]$ are primitive (i.e., each of them has integer coefficients whose common gcd is 1), their product is primitive. It follows that $pp(PQ) = pp(P)pp(Q)$ because, writing $P = \alpha pp(P)$ and $Q = \beta pp(Q)$, we have $pp(PQ) = pp(\alpha pp(P) \beta pp(Q)) = pp(pp(P) pp(Q))$ which is equal to $pp(P)pp(Q)$ since the product of two primitive polynomials is primitive.

Second, if $P \in \mathbb{Q}[X, Y]$ has one coefficient, ξ , of bitsize τ_ξ , then $\tau_P \leq \tau_\xi + \tau_{pp(P)}$. Indeed, We have $P = \xi \frac{P}{\xi}$ thus $\tau_P \leq \tau_\xi + \tau_{\frac{P}{\xi}}$. Since $\frac{P}{\xi}$ has one of its coefficients equal to 1, its primitive part is $\frac{P}{\xi}$ multiplied by an integer (the lcm of the denominators), thus $\tau_{\frac{P}{\xi}} \leq \tau_{pp(\frac{P}{\xi})}$ and $pp(\frac{P}{\xi}) = pp(P)$ by definition, which implies the claim.

Third, if P has coefficients in \mathbb{Z} , then $\tau_{pp(P)} \leq \tau_P$ since $pp(P)$ is equal to P divided by an integer (the gcd of the integer coefficients). \square

The idea of the proof of Proposition 12 is, for $J \supseteq I = \langle P, Q \rangle$, to first argue that polynomial f_J , that is the first polynomial of the RUR-candidate before specialization at $S = a$, is a factor of f_I which is a factor of the resultant $R(T, S)$ by Lemma 11. We then derive a bound of $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ on the bitsize of f_J from the bitsize of this resultant using Lemma 13. The bound on the bitsize of the other polynomials of the non-specialized RUR-candidate of J follows from the bound on f_J and we finally specialize all these polynomials at $S = a$ which yields the result. We decompose this proof in two lemmas to emphasize that, although the bound on the bitsize of f_J uses the fact that J contains polynomials P and Q , the second part of the proof only uses the bound on f_J .

Lemma 15. *Let $P, Q \in \mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$ be two coprime polynomials of total degree at most d and maximum bitsize τ , and J be any ideal of $\mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$ containing P and Q . Polynomials $f_J(T, S)$ (see (4)) and its primitive part have bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ and degree at most d^2 in each variable.*

Proof. Consider an ideal J containing $I = \langle P, Q \rangle$. Counted with multiplicity, the set of solutions of J is a subset of those of I thus, by Equation (4), polynomial $f_J(T, S)$ is monic in T and $f_J(T, S)$ divides $f_I(T, S)$. Furthermore, $f_I(T, S)$ divides $R(T, S)$ by Lemma 11. Thus $f_J(T, S)$ divides $R(T, S)$ and we consider $h \in \mathbb{Q}[T, S]$ such that $f_J h = R$. Taking the primitive part, we have $pp(f_J) pp(h) = pp(R)$ by Lemma 14. The bitsize of $pp(R)$ is in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ because R is of bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ (Lemma 4) and, since R has integer coefficients, $\tau_{pp(R)} \leq \tau_R$ (Lemma 14). This implies that $pp(f_J)$ also has bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ by Lemma 13 because the degree of $pp(R)$ is in $O(d^2)$ (Lemma 4). Furthermore, since $f_J(T, S)$ is monic in T , $\tau_{f_J} \leq \tau_{pp(f_J)}$ (Lemma 14) which implies that both f_J and its primitive part have bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$. Finally, the number of solutions (counted with multiplicity) of $\langle P, Q \rangle$ is at most d^2 by the Bézout bound, and this bound also holds for $J \supseteq \langle P, Q \rangle$. It then follows from Equation (4) that f_J has degree at most d^2 in each variable. \square

Lemma 16. *Let J be any ideal such that polynomials $f_J(T, S)$ (see (4)) and its primitive part have degree $O(d^2)$ and bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ and a is a rational of bitsize τ_a . Then all the polynomials of the RUR-candidate $RUR_{J,a}$ have bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2\tau_a + d\tau)$. Moreover, there exists an integer of bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2\tau_a + d\tau)$ such that its product with any polynomial in the RUR-candidate yields a polynomial with integer coefficients.*

Proof. Bitsize of $f_{J,v}$, $v \in \{1, Y\}$. We consider the equations of Lemma 9 which can be written as $\frac{\partial f_J}{\partial u}(T, S) = g_J(T, S)f_{J,v}(T, S)$ where u is T or S , and v is 1 or Y , respectively. We first bound the bitsize of one coefficient, ξ , of $f_{J,v}$ so that we can apply Lemma 14 which states that $\tau_{f_{J,v}} \leq \tau_\xi + \tau_{pp(f_{J,v})}$. We consider the leading coefficient ξ of $f_{J,v}$ with respect to the lexicographic order (T, S) . Since g_J is monic in T (see Lemma 9), the leading coefficient (with respect to the same ordering) of the product $g_J f_{J,v} = \frac{\partial f_J}{\partial u}$ is ξ which thus has bitsize in $\tilde{O}(\tau_{f_J})$ (since it is bounded by τ_{f_J} plus the log of the degree of f_J). It thus follows from the hypothesis on τ_{f_J} that $\tau_{f_{J,v}}$ is in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau + \tau_{pp(f_{J,v})})$.

We now take the primitive part of the above equation (of Lemma 9), which gives $pp(\frac{\partial f_J}{\partial u}(T, S)) = pp(g_J(T, S)) pp(f_{J,v}(T, S))$. By Lemma 13, $\tau_{pp(f_{J,v})}$ is in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + \tau_{pp(\frac{\partial f_J}{\partial u})})$. In order to bound the bitsize of $pp(\frac{\partial f_J}{\partial u})$, we multiply $\frac{\partial f_J}{\partial u}$ by the lcm of the denominators of the coefficients of f_J , which we denote by lcm_{f_J} . Multiplying by a constant does not change the primitive part and $\text{lcm}_{f_J} \frac{\partial f_J}{\partial u}$ has integer coefficients, so the bitsize of $pp(\frac{\partial f_J}{\partial u}) = pp(\text{lcm}_{f_J} \frac{\partial f_J}{\partial u})$ is thus at most that of $\text{lcm}_{f_J} \frac{\partial f_J}{\partial u}$ which is bounded by the sum of the bitsizes of lcm_{f_J} and $\frac{\partial f_J}{\partial u}$. By hypothesis, the bitsize of f_J is in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ so the bitsize of $\frac{\partial f_J}{\partial u}$ is also in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$. On the other hand, since f_J is monic (in T), $f_J \text{lcm}_{f_J} = pp(f_J)$ and $\tau_{\text{lcm}_{f_J}} \leq \tau_{pp(f_J)}$ which is in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ by hypothesis. It follows that $\tau_{pp(f_{J,v})}$ and $\tau_{f_{J,v}}$ are also in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ for $v \in \{1, Y\}$.

Bitsize of $f_{J,X}$. We obtain the bound for $f_{J,X}$ by symmetry. Similarly as we proved that $f_{J,Y}$ has bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$, we get, by exchanging the role of X and Y in Equation (4) and Lemma 9, that $\sum_{\sigma \in V(J)} \mu_J(\sigma) X(\sigma) \prod_{\varsigma \in V(J), \varsigma \neq \sigma} (T - Y(\varsigma) - SX(\varsigma))$ has bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$. This polynomial is of degree $O(d^2)$ in T and S , by hypothesis, thus after replacing S by $\frac{1}{S}$ and then T by $\frac{T}{S}$, the polynomial is of degree $O(d^2)$ in T and $\frac{1}{S}$. We multiply it by S to the power of $\frac{1}{S}$ and obtain $f_{J,X}$ which is thus of bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$.

Specialization at $S = a$. To bound the bitsize of the polynomials of $RUR_{J,a}$ (Definition 5), it remains to evaluate the polynomials f_J and $f_{J,v}$, $v \in \{1, X, Y\}$, at the rational value $S = a$ of bitsize τ_a . Since these polynomials have degree in S in $O(d^2)$ and bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$, it is straightforward that their specializations at $S = a$ have bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau + d^2\tau_a) = \tilde{O}(d^2\tau_a + d\tau)$.

The lcm of the denominators of all the coefficients in the polynomials of $RUR_{J,a}$ has bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^2\tau_a + d\tau)$. We have already argued that lcm_{f_J} , the lcm of the denominators of the coefficients of f_J , is in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$. For each of the other polynomials $f_{J,v}$, $v \in \{1, X, Y\}$, denote by $\text{lcm}_{f_{J,v}}$ and $\text{gcd}_{f_{J,v}}$ the lcm of the denominators of its coefficients and the gcd of their numerators. By definition, $pp(f_{J,v}) = \frac{\text{lcm}_{f_{J,v}}}{\text{gcd}_{f_{J,v}}} f_{J,v}$. Let c be any coefficient of $pp(f_{J,v}) \in \mathbb{Z}[S, T]$ and $\frac{a}{b}$ be the corresponding coefficient of $f_{J,v} \in \mathbb{Q}[S, T]$ (with a and b coprime integers); we have $\text{lcm}_{f_J} = c \frac{b}{a} \text{gcd}_{f_{J,v}} \leq cb$ since $\text{gcd}_{f_{J,v}}$ divides a . It follows that $\tau_{\text{lcm}_{f_J}} \leq \tau_{pp(f_{J,v})} + \tau_{f_{J,v}}$ which are both in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$, as proved above. Hence the lcm of the denominators of all the coefficients in $RUR_{J,a}$ has bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$. Finally, since all these polynomials have degree $O(d^2)$, when specializing by $S = a$, the bitsize of the denominators of the coefficients of the polynomials increase by at most $O(d^2\tau_a)$ and thus the bitsize of their lcm also increases by at most $O(d^2\tau_a)$, which concludes the proof. \square

Proof of Proposition 12. By Lemma 15, f_J has degree at most d^2 in each variable, so has $f_{J,v}$, $v \in \{1, X, Y\}$ by Equation (4). It follows from Equation (3) that all the polynomials of any RUR-candidate of J have degree at most d^2 . The rest of the proposition is a corollary of Lemmas 15 and 16. \square

4 Applications

We present three applications enlightening the advantages of computing a RUR of a system. The first one is the isolation of the solutions, that is computing boxes with rational coordinates that isolate the solutions. The second one is the evaluation of the sign of a bivariate polynomial at a real solution of the system. Finally, we address the problem of computing a rational parameterization of a system defined by several equality and inequality constraints. In all these applications, we take advantage of the RUR to transform bivariate operations on the system into univariate operations. We assume that the polynomials of the RURs satisfy the bitsize bound of Theorem 6.

We start by recalling the complexity of isolating the real roots of a univariate polynomial. Here, f denotes a univariate polynomial of degree d with integer coefficients of bitsize at most τ .

Lemma 17 ([Sag12, Theorem 10]⁶). *Let f be squarefree. The bit complexity of isolating all the real roots of f is in $\tilde{O}_B(d^3\tau)$. Then, the bit complexity of refining any of these isolating intervals up to a precision of L bits is in $\tilde{O}_B(d^2\tau + dL)$.*

Lemma 18 ([Rum79, Theorem 4]). *Let the minimum root separation bound of f (or simply the separation bound of f) be the minimum distance between two different complex roots of f : $\text{sep}(f) = \min_{\{\gamma, \delta \text{ roots of } f, \gamma \neq \delta\}} |\gamma - \delta|$. One has $\text{sep}(f) > 1/(2d^{d/2+2}(d2^\tau + 1)^d)$, which yields $\text{sep}(f) > 2^{-\tilde{O}(d\tau)}$.*

⁶Theorem 10 of [Sag12] states that isolating the real roots of f and refining *all* the isolating intervals up to a precision of L bits can be done with $\tilde{O}_B(d^3\tau + d^2L)$ bit operations. However, its proof establishes the stronger result, which we stated in Lemma 17. Note that the proof is currently only available in the manuscript corresponding to [Sag12] which is available on the author's webpage.

4.1 Computation of isolating boxes

By Definition 5, the RUR of an ideal I defines a mapping between the roots of a univariate polynomial and the solutions of I , which yields an algorithm to compute isolating boxes. Given a RUR of the ideal I , $\{f_{I,a}, f_{I,a,1}, f_{I,a,X}, f_{I,a,Y}\}$, isolating boxes for the real solutions can be computed by first computing isolating intervals for the real roots of the univariate polynomial $f_{I,a}$ and then, evaluating the rational fractions $\frac{f_{I,a,X}}{f_{I,a,1}}$ and $\frac{f_{I,a,Y}}{f_{I,a,1}}$ by interval arithmetic. However, for the simplicity of the proof, instead of evaluating by interval arithmetic each of these fractions of polynomials, we instead compute the product of its numerator with the inverted denominator modulo $f_{I,a}$, and then evaluate this resulting polynomial on the isolating intervals of the real roots of $f_{I,a}$ (note that we obtain the same complexity bound if we directly evaluate the fractions, but the proof is more technical, although not difficult, and we omit it here). When these isolating intervals are sufficiently refined, the computed boxes are necessarily disjoint and thus isolating. The following proposition analyzes the bit complexity of this algorithm.

Proposition 19. *Given a RUR of $\langle P, Q \rangle$, isolating boxes for the solutions of $\langle P, Q \rangle$ can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bit operations, where d bounds the total degree of P and Q , and τ bounds the bitsize of their coefficients. The vertices of these boxes have bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^3\tau)$.*

Proof. For every real solution α of $I = \langle P, Q \rangle$, let $J_{X,\alpha} \times J_{Y,\alpha}$ be a box containing it. A sufficient condition for these boxes to be isolating is that the width of every interval $J_{X,\alpha}$ and $J_{Y,\alpha}$ is less than half the separation bound of the resultant of P and Q with respect to X and Y , respectively. Such a resultant has degree at most $2d^2$ and bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d\tau)$ by [BPR06, Proposition 8.46]. Lemma 18 thus yields a lower bound of $2^{-\varepsilon}$ with ε in $\tilde{O}(d^3\tau)$ on the separating bound of such a resultant. It is thus sufficient to compute, for every α , a box $J_{X,\alpha} \times J_{Y,\alpha}$ that contains α and such that the widths of these intervals are smaller than half of $2^{-\varepsilon}$. For clarity and technical reasons, we define $\varepsilon' = \varepsilon + 2$. In fact, an explicit value of ε is not needed to compute isolating boxes since the algorithm uses adaptive refinements of the boxes and a test of box disjointness. On the other hand, an explicit value of ε will be used to reduce the bitsize of the box endpoints and an asymptotic estimate will be used for the complexity analysis. More precisely, the algorithm proceeds as follows. First, the real roots of $f_{I,a}$ are isolated. Then, we refine these intervals and, during the refinement, we routinely evaluate the polynomials of the mapping at these intervals, and we stop when all the resulting boxes are pairwise disjoint. It is of course critical not to evaluate the polynomials of the mapping too often; for every real root of $f_{I,a}$, we perform these evaluations every time the number of identical consecutive first bits of the two interval boundaries doubles or, in other words, every time the width of the interval becomes smaller than 2^{-2^k} for some positive integer k .

According to Definition 5, given a RUR $\{f_{I,a}, f_{I,a,1}, f_{I,a,X}, f_{I,a,Y}\}$ of I , the mapping $\gamma \mapsto \left(\frac{f_{I,a,X}}{f_{I,a,1}}(\gamma), \frac{f_{I,a,Y}}{f_{I,a,1}}(\gamma)\right)$ defines a one-to-one correspondence between the real roots of $f_{I,a}$ and those of I . Thus every isolating interval J_γ of the real roots of $f_{I,a}$ is mapped through this mapping to a box that contains the corresponding solution of I . We first show how to modify this rational mapping into a polynomial one. Second, we bound, in terms of the width of J_γ , the side length of the box obtained by interval arithmetic as the image of J_γ through the mapping. We will then deduce an upper bound on the width of J_γ that ensures that the side length of its box image is less than $2^{-\varepsilon'}$. This thus gives a worst-case refinement precision on the isolating intervals of $f_{I,a}$ for the boxes to be disjoint. We then analyze the complexity of the proposed algorithm.

Polynomial mapping. By Proposition 7, the polynomials $f_{I,a}$ and $f_{I,a,1}$ are coprime and thus $f_{I,a,1}$ is invertible modulo $f_{I,a}$. The rational mapping can thus be transformed into a polynomial one by replacing $\frac{1}{f_{I,a,1}}$ by $\frac{1}{f_{I,a,1}} \bmod f_{I,a}$. Since $\frac{1}{f_{I,a,1}}$ and its inverse modulo $f_{I,a}$ coincide when

$f_{I,a}$ vanishes (by Bézout's identity), this polynomial mapping still maps the real roots of $f_{I,a}$ to those of I .

This polynomial mapping can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^6 + d^5\tau)$ bit operations and these polynomials have degree less than $4d^2$ and bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^4 + d^3\tau)$. Indeed, the bit complexity of computing the inverse $\frac{1}{f_{I,a,1}}$ modulo $f_{I,a}$ is soft linear in the square of their maximum degree times their maximum bitsize [vzGG99, Corollary 11.11(ii)],⁷ which yields a complexity of $\tilde{O}_B((d^2)^2(d^2 + d\tau))$ by Theorem 6. The bitsize of this inverse is soft linear in the product of their maximum degree and maximum bitsize [vzGG99, Corollary 6.52], that is $\tilde{O}(d^2(d^2 + d\tau))$. Furthermore, the product of this inverse and of $f_{I,a,X}$ or $f_{I,a,Y}$ can also be done with a bit complexity that is soft linear in the product of their maximum degree and maximum bitsize [vzGG99, Corollary 8.27], that is in $\tilde{O}_B(d^2(d^4 + d^3\tau))$. This concludes the proof of the claim since the degree of the inverse modulo $f_{I,a}$ is less than that of $f_{I,a}$ and all the polynomials of the RUR have degrees at most d^2 by Theorem 6.

Width expansion through interval arithmetic evaluation. We recall a standard straightforward property of interval arithmetic for polynomial evaluation. We consider here exact interval arithmetic, that is, the arithmetic operations on the interval boundaries are considered exact. Let $J = [a, b]$ be an interval with rational endpoints such that $\max(|a|, |b|) \leq 2^\sigma$ and let $f \in \mathbb{Z}[T]$ be a polynomial of degree d_f with coefficients of bitsize τ_f . Denoting the width of J by $w(J) = |b - a|$, $f(J)$ can be evaluated by interval arithmetic into an interval $f_\square(J)$ whose width is at most $2^{\tau_f + d_f\sigma} d_f^2 w(J)$ (see e.g. [CLP⁺10, Lemma 8]).⁸ In other words, if $w(J) \leq 2^{-\varepsilon' - \tau_f - d_f\sigma - 2 \log d_f}$, then $w(f_\square(J)) \leq 2^{-\varepsilon'}$.

We now apply this property on the polynomials of the mapping evaluated on isolating intervals of $f_{I,a}$. We denote by d_f and τ_f the maximum degree and bitsize of the polynomials of the mapping; as shown above $d_f < 4d^2$ and $\tau_f \in \tilde{O}(d^4 + d^3\tau)$. The polynomial $f_{I,a}$ has bitsize $\tau_{f_{I,a}}$ in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ (Theorem 6), thus, by Cauchy's bound (see e.g. [Yap00, §6.2]), the maximum absolute value of its roots is smaller than $1 + 2^{2\tau_{f_{I,a}}}$. Considering intervals of isolation for $f_{I,a}$ whose widths are bounded by a constant, we thus have that the maximum absolute value of the boundaries of the isolating intervals are smaller than 2^σ with $\sigma = \tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$. Now, consider any isolating interval of $f_{I,a}$ of width less than $2^{-\varepsilon' - \tau_f - d_f\sigma - 2 \log d_f}$. The above property implies that we can evaluate by interval arithmetic the polynomials of the mapping on any such intervals and obtain an interval of width less than $2^{-\varepsilon'}$. In other words, the worst-case refinement precision of the isolating intervals of $f_{I,a}$ for the boxes to be disjoint is $L = \varepsilon' + \tau_f + d_f\sigma + 2 \log d_f$. In addition, since ε' is in $\tilde{O}(d^3\tau)$, L is in $\tilde{O}(d^4 + d^3\tau)$.

Analysis of the algorithm. For isolation and refinement, we consider the polynomial $\overline{pp(f_{I,a})}$,

⁷[vzGG99, Corollary 11.11(ii)] applies because this inverse is the cofactor of $f_{I,a,1}$ in the last line of the extended Euclidean algorithm corresponding to the resultant of $f_{I,a,1}$ and $f_{I,a}$. Note that this assumes that $f_{I,a,1}$ and $f_{I,a}$ have integer coefficients but this is not an issue because, by Proposition 12, all polynomials of the RUR can be transformed into integer polynomials with the same asymptotic bitsize by multiplying them by one and the same integer.

⁸For completeness, we recall the proof which is rather straightforward. We apply basic formulas for the sum and the product of intervals [AH83, Theorem 9, p.15]. For any real number a and integer $n \geq 1$, $w(A \pm B) = w(A) + w(B)$, $w(aA) = |a|w(A)$, $w(AB) \leq w(A)|B| + |A|w(B)$, and $w(A^n) \leq n|A|^{n-1}w(A)$. Writing $f(T) = \sum_{i=0}^{d_f} c_i T^i$ with $|c_i| \leq 2^{\tau_f}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} w(f_\square(J)) &= \sum_{i=1}^{d_f} |c_i| w(J^i) \leq 2^{\tau_f} \sum_{i=1}^{d_f} i |J|^{i-1} w(J) \leq 2^{\tau_f} w(J) d_f \sum_{i=1}^{d_f} |J|^{i-1} \\ &\leq 2^{\tau_f} w(J) d_f^2 \max(1, |J|^{d_f-1}) \leq 2^{\tau_f} w(J) d_f^2 2^{d_f\sigma}. \end{aligned}$$

instead of $f_{I,a}$, which is also of degree bounded by d^2 and bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$. Indeed, Proposition 12 implies that the integer polynomial $pp(f_{I,a})$ has bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ and Lemma 1 yields that its squarefree part (which the gcd-free part of itself and its derivative) is of the same bitsize and can be computed in $\tilde{O}(d^6 + d^5\tau)$. According to Lemma 17, the first step of the algorithm, the isolation of the roots of $pp(f_{I,a})$ can be done in $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bit operations. Then, according to the above discussion, these roots will be refined to a maximum precision $L = \tilde{O}(d^4 + d^3\tau)$. Again, Lemma 17 yields a complexity of $\tilde{O}_B((d^2)^3(d^2 + d\tau) + (d^2)^2L) = \tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ for all these refinements.

It remains to analyze the cost of the evaluations of the mapping and the cost of the box-disjointness tests. For a given root, an evaluation of the polynomials of the mapping is performed each time its isolating interval precision is doubled, the number of evaluations is thus logarithmic in the maximum precision reached, that is L . One evaluation by interval arithmetic of the polynomials of the mapping, which have degree $O(d^2)$ and bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^4 + d^3\tau)$, on one isolating intervals whose endpoints have bitsize at most $L \in \tilde{O}(d^4 + d^3\tau)$ can be done in $\tilde{O}_B(d^2(d^4 + d^3\tau))$ bit operations by Lemma 3 and the resulting intervals have endpoints of bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2(d^4 + d^3\tau))$. The cost of the $O(\log L)$ evaluations for the $O(d^2)$ roots is then in $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$. Moreover, the algorithm requires testing $O(\log L)$ times whether some of the $O(d^2)$ boxes intersect, which can be done, in total, with $O(\log L)$ times $\tilde{O}(d^2)$ arithmetic operations (see e.g. [ZE02, §3]) and thus with $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bit operations since the vertices of the box vertices have bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^6 + d^5\tau)$.

Therefore, we can compute isolating boxes for the solutions of $\langle P, Q \rangle$ in $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bit operations, and the box vertices have bitsize in $\tilde{O}_B(d^6 + d^5\tau)$.

Bitsize of the box vertices. We finally show how to compute, from the isolated boxes with vertices of bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^6 + d^5\tau)$, some larger isolating boxes whose vertices have bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^3\tau)$. The method is identical for the X or the Y -coordinates of the boxes, thus we only consider the x -coordinates. We iteratively refine the boxes as describe above except that, once none of the boxes intersect, we carry on with the iterative refinement of the boxes until the distance in X between any two boxes that do not overlap in X is larger than $\frac{1}{2}2^{-\varepsilon}$ where ε , as defined at the beginning of the proof, is such that the distance between any two roots of the resultant of P and Q with respect to X is at least $2^{-\varepsilon}$; we use here an explicit value for ε which is given by Lemma 18. On the other hand, if we were to refine all the boxes until their width are less than $2^{-\varepsilon'} = \frac{1}{4}2^{-\varepsilon}$, the distance between any two boxes that do not overlap in X would be ensured to be larger than $\frac{1}{2}2^{-\varepsilon}$. Hence the above analysis of the algorithm still applies since we considered that all boxes could be refined until their width (and height) do not exceed $2^{-\varepsilon'}$.

Now, for every box, all the other boxes that do not overlap in X are at distance more than $\frac{1}{2}2^{-\varepsilon}$ in X (before enlargement), so the considered box can be enlarged in X using coordinates in intervals of length at least $\frac{1}{4}2^{-\varepsilon}$ on the left and on the right sides of the box. We conclude the argument by noting that, given any such interval $[a, b]$ of width at least $2^{-\varepsilon'}$ with $\varepsilon' = \varepsilon + 2 \in \tilde{O}(d^3\tau)$ and such that $|a|$ and $|b|$ are smaller than 2^σ with $\sigma = \tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ (by Cauchy bound, as noted above), we can easily compute in that interval a rational of bitsize at most $\varepsilon' + \sigma \in \tilde{O}(d^3\tau)$.⁹ \square

⁹A rational of bitsize at most $\varepsilon' + \sigma$ can be constructed as follows. We can assume without loss of generality that a and b are both positive since the case where they are both negative is symmetric and, otherwise, the problem is trivial. Let q_k be the truncation of b after the k -th digits of the mantissa, i.e. $q_k = \lfloor b2^k \rfloor 2^{-k}$, and let k_1 be the smallest nonnegative integer such that $q_{k_1} \geq a$. By construction $q_{k_1} \in [a, b]$ and we prove that its bitsize is at most $\varepsilon' + \sigma$. If $k_1 = 0$, $q_{k_1} = \lfloor b \rfloor \leq 2^\sigma$ thus q_{k_1} has bitsize at most σ . Otherwise, with $k_0 = k_1 - 1$, we have $q_{k_0} < a$ which implies that $b - q_{k_0} > b - a \geq 2^{-\varepsilon'}$. On the other hand, $b - q_{k_0} = 2^{-k_0}(b2^{k_0} - \lfloor b2^{k_0} \rfloor) < 2^{-k_0}$, thus $2^{-\varepsilon'} < 2^{-k_0}$ and $\varepsilon' > k_0$. It follows that the bitsize of q_{k_1} , which is k_1 plus the bitsize of $\lfloor b \rfloor$, is less than

Remark 20. *It is straightforward that the above proof and proposition also hold if a parameterization of Gonzalez-Vega and El Kahoui [GVEK96] is given instead of a RUR.*

4.2 Sign of a polynomial at the solutions of a system

This section addresses the problem of computing the sign (+, − or 0) of a given polynomial F at the solutions of a bivariate system defined by two polynomials P and Q . We consider in the following that all input polynomials, P , Q and F are in $\mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$, have degree at most d and coefficients of bitsize at most τ . We assume without loss of generality that the bound d is *even*. Recall that, as mentioned in the introduction, the best known complexity for this problem is to our knowledge $\tilde{O}_B(d^{10} + d^9\tau)$ for the sign at one real solution and $\tilde{O}_B(d^{12} + d^{11}\tau)$ for the sign at all the solutions (see [DET09, Th. 14 & Cor. 24] with the improvement of [Sag12] for the root isolation). We first describe a naive RUR-based *sign_* algorithm for computing the sign at one real solution of the system, which runs in $\tilde{O}_B(d^9 + d^8\tau)$ time. Then, using properties of generalized Sturm sequences, we analyze a more efficient algorithm that runs in $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ time. We also show that the sign of F at the $O(d^2)$ solutions of the system can be computed in only $O(d)$ times that for one real solution.

Once the RUR $\{f_{I,a}, f_{I,a,1}, f_{I,a,X}, f_{I,a,Y}\}$ of $I = \langle P, Q \rangle$ is computed, we can use it to translate a bivariate sign computation into a univariate sign computation. Indeed, let $F(X, Y)$ be the polynomial to be evaluated at the solution (α, β) of I that is the image of the root γ of $f_{I,a}$ by the RUR mapping. We first define the polynomial $f_F(T)$ roughly as the numerator of the rational fraction obtained by substituting $X = \frac{f_{I,a,X}(T)}{f_{I,a,1}(T)}$ and $Y = \frac{f_{I,a,Y}(T)}{f_{I,a,1}(T)}$ in the polynomial $F(X, Y)$, so that the sign of $F(\alpha, \beta)$ is the same as that of $f_F(\gamma)$.

Lemma 21. *The primitive part¹⁰ of $f_F(T) = f_{I,a,1}^d(T)F(T - aY, Y)$, with $Y = \frac{f_{I,a,Y}(T)}{f_{I,a,1}(T)}$, has degree $O(d^3)$, bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^3 + d^2\tau)$, and it can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B(d^7 + d^6\tau)$ bit operations. The sign of F at a real solution of $I = \langle P, Q \rangle$ is equal to the sign of $pp(f_F)$ at the corresponding root of $f_{I,a}$ via the mapping of the RUR.*

Proof. We first compute the polynomial $F(T - aY, Y)$ in the form $\sum_{i=0}^d a_i(T)Y^i$. Then, $f_F(T)$ is equal to $\sum_{i=0}^d a_i(T)f_{I,a,Y}(T)^i f_{I,a,1}(T)^{d-i}$. Consequently, computing an expanded form of $f_F(T)$ can be done by computing the $a_i(T)$, the powers $f_{I,a,Y}(T)^i$ and $f_{I,a,1}(T)^i$, and their appropriate products and sum.

Computing $a_i(T)$. According to Lemma 4, $P(T - SY, Y)$ can be expanded with $\tilde{O}_B(d^4 + d^3\tau)$ bit operations and its bitsize is in $\tilde{O}(d + \tau)$. These bounds also apply to $F(T - SY, Y)$ and we deduce $F(T - aY, Y)$ by substituting S by a . Writing $F(T - SY, Y) = \sum_{i=0}^d f_i(T, Y)S^i$, the computation of $F(T - aY, Y)$ can be done by computing and summing the $f_i(T, Y)a^i$. Since a has bitsize in $O(\log d)$ by hypothesis, a^i has bitsize in $O(d \log d) \subseteq \tilde{O}(d)$, and computing all the a^i can be done with $\tilde{O}_B(d^2)$ bit operations. For each a^i , computing $f_i(T, Y)a^i$ can be done with $O(d^2)$ multiplications between integers of bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d + \tau)$, and thus with $\tilde{O}_B(d^2(d + \tau))$ bit operations. Thus, computing all the $f_i(T, Y)a^i$ can be done with $\tilde{O}_B(d^3(d + \tau))$ bit operations, and summing, for every of the $O(d^2)$ monomials in (T, Y) , d coefficients (corresponding to every i) of bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d + \tau)$ can also be done with $\tilde{O}_B(d^3(d + \tau))$ bit operations, in total. It follows that, $F(T - aY, Y)$ and thus all the $a_i(T)$ can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B(d^4 + d^3\tau)$ bit operations.

^{ε'} + 1 plus σ .

¹⁰See definition in Section 3.2.

Computing $f_{I,a,Y}(T)^i$ and $f_{I,a,1}(T)^i$. $f_{I,a,Y}(T)$ has degree $O(d^2)$ and bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ (by Theorem 6), thus $f_{I,a,Y}(T)^i$ has degree in $O(d^3)$ and bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^3 + d^2\tau)$. Computing all the $f_{I,a,Y}(T)^i$ can be done with $O(d)$ multiplications between these polynomials. Every multiplication can be done with a bit complexity that is soft linear in the product of the maximum degrees and maximum bitsizes [vzGG99, Corollary 8.27], thus all the multiplications can be done with $\tilde{O}_B(d^4(d^3 + d^2\tau))$ bit operations in total. It follows that all the $f_{I,a,Y}(T)^i$, and similarly all the $f_{I,a,1}(T)^i$, can be computed using $\tilde{O}_B(d^7 + d^6\tau)$ bit operations and their bitsize is in $\tilde{O}(d^3 + d^2\tau)$.

Computing $f_F(T)$. Computing $a_i(T)f_{I,a,Y}(T)^i f_{I,a,1}(T)^{d-i}$, for $i = 0, \dots, d$, amounts to multiplying $O(d)$ times, univariate polynomials of degree $O(d^3)$ and bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^3 + d^2\tau)$, which can be done, similarly as above, with $\tilde{O}(d^7 + d^6\tau)$ bit operations. Finally, their sum is the sum of d univariate polynomials of degree $O(d^3)$ and bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^3 + d^2\tau)$, which can also be computed within the same bit complexity. Hence, $f_F(T)$ can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B(d^7 + d^6\tau)$ bit operations and its coefficients have bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^3 + d^2\tau)$.

Primitive part of $f_F(T)$. According to Proposition 12, there exists an integer r of bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ such that its product with the RUR polynomials gives polynomials in $\mathbb{Z}[T]$ of bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$. Consider the polynomial $r^d f_F(T) = (r f_{I,a,1}(T))^d F(T - aY, Y)$ with $Y = \frac{r f_{I,a,Y}(T)}{r f_{I,a,1}(T)}$. This polynomial has its coefficients in \mathbb{Z} since $r f_{I,a,Y}(T)$ and $r f_{I,a,1}(T)$ are in $\mathbb{Z}[T]$. Moreover, since $r f_{I,a,Y}(T)$ and $r f_{I,a,1}(T)$ have bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$, $r^d f_F(T)$ can be computed, similarly as above, in $\tilde{O}_B(d^7 + d^6\tau)$ and it has bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^3 + d^2\tau)$. The primitive part of $f_F(T)$ has also bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^3 + d^2\tau)$ (since it is smaller than or equal to that of $r^d f_F(T)$) and it can be computed from $r^d f_F(T)$ with $\tilde{O}_B(d^3(d^3 + d^2\tau))$ bit operations by computing $O(d^3)$ gcd of coefficients of bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^3 + d^2\tau)$ [Yap00, §2.A.6].

Signs of F and f_F . It remains to show that the sign of F at a real solution of $I = \langle P, Q \rangle$ is the sign of f_F at the corresponding root of $f_{I,a}$ via the mapping of the RUR. By Definition 5, there is a one-to-one mapping between the roots of $f_{I,a}$ and those of $I = \langle P, Q \rangle$ that maps a root γ of $f_{I,a}$ to a solution $(\alpha, \beta) = (\frac{f_{I,a,X}(\gamma)}{f_{I,a,1}(\gamma)}, \frac{f_{I,a,Y}(\gamma)}{f_{I,a,1}(\gamma)})$ of I such that $\gamma = \alpha + a\beta$ and $f_{I,a,1}(\gamma) \neq 0$. For any such pair of γ and (α, β) , $f_F(\gamma) = f_{I,a,1}^d(\gamma) F(\gamma - a\frac{f_{I,a,Y}(\gamma)}{f_{I,a,1}(\gamma)}, \frac{f_{I,a,Y}(\gamma)}{f_{I,a,1}(\gamma)})$ by definition of $f_F(T)$, and thus $f_F(\gamma) = f_{I,a,1}^d(\gamma) F(\alpha, \beta)$. It follows that $f_F(\gamma)$ and $F(\alpha, \beta)$ have the same sign since $f_{I,a,1}(\gamma) \neq 0$ and d is even by hypothesis. \square

Naive algorithm. The knowledge of a RUR $\{f_{I,a}, f_{I,a,1}, f_{I,a,X}, f_{I,a,Y}\}$ of $I = \langle P, Q \rangle$ yields a straightforward algorithm for computing the sign of F at a real solution of I . Indeed, it is sufficient to isolate the real roots of $f_{I,a}$, so that the intervals are also isolating for $f_{I,a} f_F$, and then to evaluate the sign of f_F at the endpoints of these isolating intervals. We analyze the complexity of this straightforward algorithm before describing our more subtle and more efficient algorithm. We provide this analysis for several reasons: first it answers a natural question, second it shows that even a RUR-based naive algorithm performs better than the state of the art.

Lemma 22. *Given a RUR $\{f_{I,a}, f_{I,a,1}, f_{I,a,X}, f_{I,a,Y}\}$ of $I = \langle P, Q \rangle$ (satisfying the bounds of Theorem 6) and an isolating interval for a real root γ of $f_{I,a}$, the sign of F at the real solution of I that corresponds to γ can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B(d^9 + d^8\tau)$ bit operations.*

Proof. By Lemma 21, $pp(f_F)$ has degree $O(d^3)$ and bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^3 + d^2\tau)$, and it can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B(d^7 + d^6\tau)$ bit operations. By Theorem 6, $f_{I,a}$ has degree $O(d^2)$ and bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$, thus the product $pp(f_F) f_{I,a}$ has degree $O(d^3)$ and bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^3 + d^2\tau)$. By Lemma 18, the

root separation bound of $pp(f_F) f_{I,a}$ has bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^6 + d^5\tau)$. We refine the isolating interval of γ for $f_{I,a}$ to the precision of the root separation bound of $pp(f_F) f_{I,a}$, which can be done with $\tilde{O}_B((d^2)^2(d^2 + d\tau) + d^2(d^6 + d^5\tau)) = \tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bit operations according to Lemma 17. Furthermore, we can ensure that the new interval has rational endpoints with bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^6 + d^5\tau)$, similarly as in the proof of Proposition 19. On the other hand, by Lemma 1, since $pp(f_F)$ has bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^3 + d^2\tau)$, its squarefree part $\overline{pp(f_F)}$ can be computed in complexity $\tilde{O}_B((d^3)^2(d^3 + d^2\tau)) = \tilde{O}_B(d^9 + d^8\tau)$ and it has bitsize in $\tilde{O}_B(d^3 + d^2\tau)$. It then follows from Lemma 3 that the evaluation of $\overline{pp(f_F)}$ at the boundaries of the refined interval can be done with $\tilde{O}_B(d^3(d^6 + d^5\tau))$ bit operations which concludes the proof by Lemma 21. \square

Improved algorithm. Our more subtle algorithm is, in essence the one presented by Diochnos et al. for evaluating the sign of a univariate polynomial (here $pp(f_F)$) at the roots of a squarefree univariate polynomial (here $\overline{f_{I,a}}$) [DET09, Corollary 5]. The idea of this algorithm comes originally from [LR01], where the Cauchy index of two polynomials is computed by means of sign variations of a particular remainder sequence called the Sylvester-Habicht sequence. In [DET09], this approach is slightly adapted to deduce the sign from the Cauchy index ([Yap00, Theorem 7.3]) and the bit complexity is given in terms of the two initial degrees and bitsizes. Unfortunately, the corresponding proof is problematic because the authors refer to two complexity results for computing parts of the Sylvester-Habicht sequences and none of them actually applies.¹¹ Following the spirit of their approach, we present in Lemma 23 a new (weaker) complexity result for evaluating the sign of a univariate polynomial at the roots of a squarefree univariate polynomial. This result is used to derive the bit complexity of evaluating the sign of a bivariate polynomial at the roots of the system. For clarity, we postpone the proof of this lemma to Section 4.2.1 after Theorem 24.

Lemma 23. *Let $f \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ be a squarefree polynomial of degree d_f and bitsize τ_f , and (a, b) be an isolating interval of one of its real roots γ with a and b distinct rationals of bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d_f\tau_f)$ and $f(a)f(b) \neq 0$. Let $g \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ be of degree d_g and bitsize τ_g . The sign of $g(\gamma)$ can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B((d_f^3 + d_g^2)\tau_f + (d_f^2 + d_f d_g)\tau_g)$ bit operations. The sign of g at all the real roots of f can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B((d_f^3 + d_f^2 d_g + d_g^2)\tau_f + (d_f^3 + d_f d_g)\tau_g)$ bit operations.*

Theorem 24. *Given a RUR $\{f_{I,a}, f_{I,a,1}, f_{I,a,X}, f_{I,a,Y}\}$ of $I = \langle P, Q \rangle$ (satisfying the bounds of Theorem 6), the sign of F at a real solution of I can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bit operations. The sign of F at all the solutions of I can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B(d^9 + d^8\tau)$ bit operations.*

Proof. By Lemma 21, the sign of F at the real solutions of I , is equal to the sign of $pp(f_F)$ at the corresponding roots of $f_{I,a}$, or equivalently at those of $\overline{pp(f_{I,a})}$. Furthermore, $pp(f_F)$ has degree $O(d^3)$, bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^3 + d^2\tau)$, and it can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B(d^7 + d^6\tau)$ bit operations. On the other hand, by Theorem 6 and Proposition 12, the primitive part of $f_{I,a}$ has degree at most d^2 and bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$. Since $f_{I,a}$ is monic (see Equation (3)), its primitive part can be computed by multiplying it by the lcm of the denominators of its coefficients. This lcm can be computed with $O(d^2)$ lcms of integers whose bitsizes remain in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ (since $f_{I,a}$ is monic and its primitive part has bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$). Each lcm can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B(d^2 + d\tau)$ bit

¹¹Precisely, their proof is based on their Proposition 1 which claims, based on [LR01] and [Rei97] that given two polynomials f and g of degree $p > q$ and bitsize in $O(\tau)$, any of their polynomial subresultants as well as the whole quotient chain corresponding to the subresultant sequence can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B(pq\tau)$ bit operations. However, in [LR01] the complexity results are not stated in terms of p and q but only in terms of the maximum degree while in [Rei97], the result assumes that the $(q-1)^{th}$ subresultant of f and g is known.

operations [Yap00, §2.A.6], thus $pp(f_{I,a})$ can be computed in $\tilde{O}(d^4 + d^3\tau)$ bit operations.¹² The squarefree part of $pp(f_{I,a})$ can thus be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^4(d^2 + d\tau))$ bit operations and it has bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$, by Lemma 1. By Lemmas 17 and 18, the isolating intervals (if not given) of $\overline{pp(f_{I,a})}$ can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B((d^2)^3(d^2 + d\tau))$ bit operations with intervals boundaries of bitsize satisfying the hypotheses of Lemma 23. Indeed, we can ensure during the isolation of the roots of $f = \overline{pp(f_{I,a})}$ that the isolating intervals have endpoints with bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d_f\tau_f)$, similarly as in the proof of Proposition 19. Applying Lemma 23 then concludes the proof. \square

Remark 25. *Theorem 24 holds also if the solutions of $I = \langle P, Q \rangle$ are described by the rational parameterization of Gonzalez-Vega and El Kahoui [GVEK96] instead of a RUR. Indeed, such parameterization is defined, in the worst case, by $\Theta(d)$ univariate polynomials f_i of degree d_{f_i} whose sum d_f is at most d^2 , and by associated rational one-to-one mappings which are defined, as for the RUR, by polynomials of degree $O(d^2)$ and bitsize $O(d^2 + d\tau)$. The result of Theorem 24 on the sign of F at one real solution of I thus trivially still holds. For the sign of F at all real solutions of I the result also holds from the following observation. In the proofs of Lemmas 26 and 23, the computation of one sequence of unevaluated Sylvester-Habicht transition matrices has complexity $\tilde{O}_B(pH)$ (in proof of Lemma 26) where p is in $O(d_{f_i} + d_g)$ in the proof of Lemma 23. The sum of the pH over all i is thus $O((d_f + dd_g)H)$ instead of $O((d_f + d_g)H)$ as for the RUR. However, d_gH writes in the proof of Lemma 23 as $\tilde{O}(d_g((d_f + d_g)\tau_f + d_f(\tau_f + \tau_g))) = \tilde{O}(d_f d_g(\tau_f + \tau_g) + d_g^2\tau_f)$ which writes in the proof of Theorem 24 as $\tilde{O}(d^2 d^3(d^3 + d^2\tau) + (d^3)^2(d^2 + d\tau)) = \tilde{O}(d^8 + d^7\tau)$. Thus multiplying this by d remains within the targeted bit complexity. On the other hand, the complexity of the evaluation phase in the proofs of Lemmas 26 and 23 does not increase when considering the representation of Gonzalez-Vega and El Kahoui instead of the RUR because the total complexity of the evaluations depends only on the number of solutions at which we evaluate the sign of the other polynomial and on the degree and bitsize of the polynomials involved, and both of them are in the same complexity in both representations (only the number of polynomials is larger in Gonzalez-Vega and El Kahoui representation).*

4.2.1 Proof of Lemma 23

As shown in [BPR06, Theorem 2.61], the sign of $g(\gamma)$ is $V(SRemS(f, f'g; a, b))$ where $V(SRemS(P, Q; a, b))$ is the number of sign variations in the signed remainder sequence of P and Q evaluated at a minus the number of sign variations in this sequence evaluated at b (see Definition 1.7 in [BPR06] for the sequence and Notation 2.32 for the sign variation). On the other hand, for any P and Q such that $\deg(P) > \deg(Q)$ and $P(a)P(b) \neq 0$ or $Q(a)Q(b) \neq 0$, we have according to [Roy96, Theorems 3.2, 3.18 & Remarks 3.9, 3.25]¹³ that $V(SRemS(P, Q; a, b)) = W(SylH(P, Q; a, b))$ where $SylH$ is the Sylvester-Habicht sequence of P and Q , and W is the related sign variation function.¹⁴ The following intermediate result is a consequence of an adaptation of [LR01, Theorem 5.2] in the case where the polynomials P and Q have different degrees and bitsizes.

¹²Note that is if $f_{I,a}$ has been computed using Proposition 7, then instead of computing $pp(f_{I,a})$ one can consider $R(T, a) = f_{I,a}(T) L_R(a)$ which is a polynomial of degree $O(d^2)$ with integer coefficients of bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ by Lemma 4.

¹³The same result can be found directly stated, in French, in [Lom90, Theorem 4].

¹⁴The Sylvester-Habicht sequence, defined in [BPR06, §8.3.2.2] as the Signed Subresultant sequence, can be derived from the classical subresultant sequence [EK03] by multiplying the two starting subresultants by $+1$ the next two by -1 and so on. W is defined as the usual sign variation with the following modification for groups of two consecutive zeros: count *one* sign variation for the groups $[+, 0, 0, -]$ and $[-, 0, 0, +]$, and *two* sign variations for the $[+, 0, 0, +]$ and $[-, 0, 0, -]$ (see [BPR06, §9.1.3 Notation 9.11]).

Lemma 26. *Let P and Q in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ with $\deg(P) = p > q = \deg(Q)$ and bitsize respectively τ_P, τ_Q . If a and b are two rational numbers of bitsize bounded by σ , the computation of $W(\text{SylH}(P, Q; a, b))$ can be performed with $\tilde{O}_B((p+q^2)\sigma + p(p\tau_Q + q\tau_P))$ bit operations.*

Moreover, if a_ℓ and b_ℓ , $1 \leq \ell \leq u$, are rational numbers of bitsizes that sum to σ , the computation of $W(\text{SylH}(P, Q; a_\ell, b_\ell))$ can be performed for all ℓ with $\tilde{O}_B((p+q^2)\sigma + (p+qu)(p\tau_Q + q\tau_P) + pu\tau_P)$ bit operations.

Proof. Following the algorithm in [LR01], we first compute the consecutive Sylvester-Habicht transition matrices of P and Q denoted by $\mathcal{N}_{j,i}$ with $0 \leq j < i \leq p$. These matrices link consecutive regular couples¹⁵ (Sh_i, Sh_{i-1}) and (Sh_j, Sh_{j-1}) in the Sylvester-Habicht sequence as follows:

$$\begin{pmatrix} Sh_j \\ Sh_{j-1} \end{pmatrix} = \mathcal{N}_{j,i} \begin{pmatrix} Sh_i \\ Sh_{i-1} \end{pmatrix} \text{ such that } i \leq p \text{ and } (Sh_p, Sh_{p-1}) = (P, Q). \quad (9)$$

According to [LR01, Theorem. 5.2 & Corollary 5.2], computing all the matrices $\mathcal{N}_{j,i}$ of P and Q can be done with $\tilde{O}_B(pH)$ bit operations, where $H \in \tilde{O}(q\tau_P + p\tau_Q)$ is an upper bound on the bitsize appearing in the computations given by Hadamard's inequality.

We evaluate the Sylvester-Habicht sequence at a rational a by first evaluating P, Q , and all the matrices $\mathcal{N}_{j,i}$ at a , and then by applying iteratively the above formula. Doing the same at b yields $W(\text{SylH}(P, Q; a, b))$.

First, note that the evaluation of $P(a)$ and $Q(a)$ can be done with $\tilde{O}_B(p(\tau_P + \sigma))$ plus $\tilde{O}_B(q(\tau_Q + \sigma))$, that is $\tilde{O}_B(p(\tau_P + \tau_Q + \sigma))$ bit operations (since $p > q$), by Lemma 3. The polynomials appearing in the matrices $\mathcal{N}_{j,i}$ have bitsize at most H and the sum of their degrees is equal to p [LR01, Corollary 4.3].¹⁶ Thus, all $\mathcal{N}_{j,i}(a)$ have bitsize $\tilde{O}(p\sigma + H)$ and they can be computed in a total of $\tilde{O}_B(p(\sigma + H))$ bit operations, by Lemma 3. Moreover, by considering the matrices $\mathcal{N}_{j,i}$ other than the first one $\mathcal{N}_{k,p}$, as the consecutive transition matrices of the Sylvester-Habicht sequence of the first regular couple (Sh_k, Sh_{k-1}) after (Sh_p, Sh_{p-1}) , we have that the polynomials appearing in these matrices have the sum of their degrees equal to that of Sh_k which is at most q (since $k \leq p-1$ and $Sh_{p-1} = Q$). Thus, except the first one $\mathcal{N}_{k,p}(a)$, all evaluated matrices $\mathcal{N}_{j,i}(a)$ have bitsize $\tilde{O}(q\sigma + H)$ and they can be computed in a total of $\tilde{O}_B(q(\sigma + H))$ bit operations.

We now apply iteratively Equation (9) for computing all the $Sh_i(a)$. Since all Sylvester-Habicht polynomials have bitsize at most H and degree at most q except the first one $Sh_p = P$, the bitsize of $Sh_{i < p}(a)$ is in $O(q\sigma + H)$ and that of $Sh_p(a)$ is in $O(p\sigma + \tau_P)$. Given $P(a), Q(a)$ and all $\mathcal{N}_{j,i}(a)$, it follows from their bitsizes that we can compute iteratively the $Sh_i(a)$ in time $\tilde{O}_B(p\sigma + H)$ for the first regular couple after $(Sh_p, Sh_{p-1}) = (P, Q)$ and in time $\tilde{O}_B(q\sigma + H)$ for each of the others. Thus, for computing of $W(\text{SylH}(P, Q; a, b))$, the initial computation of all $\mathcal{N}_{j,i}$ takes $\tilde{O}_B(pH)$ bit operations and the evaluation phase takes $\tilde{O}_B(p(\tau_P + \tau_Q + \sigma))$ plus $\tilde{O}_B(p(\sigma + H) + q(q\sigma + H))$ bit operations, which gives a total of $\tilde{O}_B(p(\sigma + H) + q^2\sigma)$ bit operations.

We now consider the case of computing $W(\text{SylH}(P, Q; a_\ell, b_\ell))$ for $1 \leq \ell \leq u$. We slightly change the above algorithm as follows. We only change the way to evaluate the first regular couple (Sh_k, Sh_{k-1}) after (Sh_p, Sh_{p-1}) at the a_ℓ (and b_ℓ). Once the matrices $\mathcal{N}_{j,i}$ have been computed,

¹⁵Regular couples in the Sylvester-Habicht sequence are the nonzero Sylvester-Habicht polynomials (Sh_i, Sh_{i-1}) such that $\deg(Sh_i) > \deg(Sh_{i-1})$.

¹⁶[LR01, Corollary 4.3] states that consecutive Sylvester-Habicht transition matrices consist of one zero, two integers and a polynomial which is, up to a coefficient, the quotient of the division of two consecutive Sylvester-Habicht polynomials. These polynomials being proportional to polynomials in the remainder sequence of (P, Q) , the sum of the degrees of their quotients is equal to the degree of P .

we compute the (non-evaluated) first regular couple $(Sh_k, Sh_{k-1}) = \mathcal{N}_{k,p}(Sh_p, Sh_{p-1})$. Since the polynomials in $\mathcal{N}_{k,p}$ have degree at most p and bitsize at most H , the couple (Sh_k, Sh_{k-1}) can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(p(H + \tau_P + \tau_Q)) = \tilde{O}_B(pH)$ time [vzGG99, Corollary 8.27]. As noted above, Sh_k , and thus also Sh_{k-1} , have degree at most q and they have bitsize at most H , so they can be evaluated at a given a_ℓ in time $\tilde{O}_B(q(\sigma_\ell + H))$ where σ_ℓ is the bitsize of a_ℓ . Now, the polynomials appearing in the matrices $\mathcal{N}_{j,i}$, other than the first one $\mathcal{N}_{k,p}$, have bitsize at most H and the sum of their degrees is at most q , so similarly as above, all the $\mathcal{N}_{j,i}(a_\ell)$, except $\mathcal{N}_{k,p}(a_\ell)$, can be computed in total bit complexity $\tilde{O}_B(q(\sigma_\ell + H))$. Then, we compute as above each of the other regular couples evaluated at a_ℓ in time $\tilde{O}_B(q\sigma_\ell + H)$. Hence, the initial computation of all $\mathcal{N}_{j,i}$ and of (Sh_k, Sh_{k-1}) takes $\tilde{O}_B(pH)$ bit operations and the evaluation phase at all the a_ℓ takes the sum over ℓ , $1 \leq \ell \leq u$, of $\tilde{O}_B(p(\tau_P + \tau_Q + \sigma_\ell))$ plus $\tilde{O}_B(q(\sigma_\ell + H) + q(q\sigma_\ell + H))$ bit operations, that is $\tilde{O}_B(p(\tau_P + \tau_Q) + (p + q^2)\sigma_\ell + qH)$ which sums to $\tilde{O}_B(pu(\tau_P + \tau_Q) + (p + q^2)\sigma + quH)$. Hence the total bit complexity for computing all the $W(\text{Syl}H(P, Q; a_\ell, b_\ell))$ for $1 \leq \ell \leq u$ is $\tilde{O}_B((p + q^2)\sigma + (p + qu)H + pu\tau_P)$ which concludes the proof. \square

Proof of Lemma 23. We may assume that g has degree greater than one since, if g is a constant the problem is trivial and, if $g(X) = cX - d$, then the sign of $g(\gamma)$ follows from (i) the sign of c if $\frac{d}{c} \notin (a, b)$ and from (ii) the signs of c , $f(a)$, and $f(\frac{d}{c})$ if $\frac{d}{c} \in (a, b)$; indeed, the signs of $f(a) \neq 0$ and $f(\frac{d}{c})$ determine whether γ lies in $(a, \frac{d}{c})$, $\{\frac{d}{c}\}$, or $(\frac{d}{c}, b)$. Hence, when g has degree one, the sign of $g(\gamma)$ can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B(d_f(\tau_g + d_f\tau_f))$ bit operations according to Lemma 3.

Recall that the sign of $g(\gamma)$ is $V(\text{SRem}S(f, f'g; a, b))$ [BPR06, Theorem 2.61]. When g has degree greater than one, we cannot directly apply Lemma 26 since $\deg(f) < \deg(f'g)$. However, knowing the sign of f and $f'g$ at a and b and noticing that their signed remainder sequence starts with $[f, f'g, -f, -\text{rem}(f'g, -f), \dots]$, we can easily compute the value c such that $V(\text{SRem}S(f, f'g; a, b)) = V(\text{SRem}S(f'g, -f; a, b)) + c$. Furthermore, as observed at the beginning of this section and since $f(a)f(b) \neq 0$ by hypothesis, $V(\text{SRem}S(f'g, -f; a, b)) = W(\text{Syl}H(f'g, -f; a, b))$. We can now apply Lemma 26 which thus yields the sign of $g(\gamma)$ with a bit complexity in $\tilde{O}_B((p+q^2)\sigma + p(p\tau_Q + q\tau_P))$ which simplifies into $\tilde{O}_B((d_f^3 + d_g^2)\tau_f + (d_f^2 + d_f d_g)\tau_g)$.

For the sign of g at all the real roots of f , isolating intervals of these roots can be computed in complexity $\tilde{O}_B(d_f^3\tau_f)$ (see Lemma 17) such that the bitsizes of the interval boundaries sum up to $\tilde{O}(d_f^2 + d_f\tau_f)$ (a consequence of Davenport-Mahler-Mignotte bound, see e.g. [DET09, Lemma 6]). Similarly as for one root, Lemma 26 then yields that the sign of g at all the real roots of f can be computed with a bit complexity in $\tilde{O}_B((p + q^2)\sigma + (p + qu)(p\tau_Q + q\tau_P) + pu\tau_P)$ which writes as $\tilde{O}_B((d_f + d_g + d_f^2)d_f\tau_f + (d_f + d_g + d_f^2)((d_f + d_g)\tau_f + d_f(\tau_f + \tau_g)) + (d_f + d_g)d_f(\tau_g + \tau_f))$ and simplifies into $\tilde{O}_B((d_f^3 + d_f^2 d_g + d_g^2)\tau_f + (d_f^3 + d_f d_g)\tau_g)$ bit operations. \square

4.3 Over-constrained systems

So far, we focused on systems defined by exactly two coprime polynomials. We now extend our results to compute rational parameterizations of zero-dimensional systems defined with additional equality or inequality. Let $P, Q \in \mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$ be two coprime polynomials of total degree at most d and maximum bitsize τ . In this section, we assume given $RUR_{I,a} = \{f_{I,a}, f_{I,a,1}, f_{I,a,X}, f_{I,a,Y}\}$ the RUR of the ideal $I = \langle P, Q \rangle$ associated to the separating form $X + aY$, we also assume that the polynomials of this RUR satisfy the bitsize bound of Theorem 6. Given another polynomial $F \in \mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$, we have seen in the previous section how to compute the sign of F at the solutions of I . With a similar approach, we now explain how to split $RUR_{I,a}$ according to whether F vanishes or not at the solutions of I .

Let $F \in \mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$ be of total degree at most d and maximum bitsize τ . Identifying the roots of $f_{I,a}$ with the solutions of the system I via the RUR, let $f_{F=0}$ (resp. $f_{F \neq 0}$) be the squarefree factor of $f_{I,a}$ such that its roots are exactly the solutions of the system I at which the polynomial F vanishes (resp. does not vanish).

Lemma 27. *Given $RUR_{I,a}$, the bit complexity of computing $f_{F=0}$ (resp. $f_{F \neq 0}$) is in $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ and these polynomials have bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$.*

Proof. The polynomial f_F (not to be confused with $f_{F=0}$ or $f_{F \neq 0}$), as defined in Lemma 21, has the same sign as F at the real solutions of the system I . The same holds for complex solutions by considering the “sign” as zero or nonzero. The roots of the squarefree polynomial $f_{F=0} = \gcd(\overline{f_{I,a}}, f_F)$ thus are the $\alpha + a\beta$ with (α, β) solution of I and $F(\alpha, \beta) = 0$. The polynomial $f_{F \neq 0}$ defined as the gcd-free part of $\overline{f_{I,a}}$ with respect to f_F is also squarefree and encodes the solutions such that $F(\alpha, \beta) \neq 0$.

According to Lemma 21 and the proof of Theorem 24, the primitive part of f_F and $\overline{f_{I,a}}$ can be computed in, respectively, $\tilde{O}_B(d^7 + d^6\tau)$ and $\tilde{O}_B(d^4(d^2 + d\tau))$ bit operations. Moreover, these integer polynomials have, respectively, bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^3 + d^2\tau)$ and $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$ and degree $O(d^3)$ and $O(d^2)$. Thus, by Lemma 2, their gcd and the gcd-free part of $\overline{f_{I,a}}$ with respect to f_F , i.e. $f_{F=0}$ and $f_{F \neq 0}$, can be computed with $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bit operations and they have bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$. \square

For several equality or inequality constraints, iterating this splitting process gives a parameterization of the corresponding set of constraints. It is worth noticing that the set of polynomials $\{f_{F=0}, f_{I,a,1}, f_{I,a,X}, f_{I,a,Y}\}$ defines a rational parameterization of the solutions of the ideal $\langle P, Q, F \rangle$, but this is not a RUR of this ideal (in the sense of Definition 5). First, because multiplicities are lost in the splitting process and second because the coordinate polynomials of the parameterization are still those of the ideal I . Still, it is possible to compute a RUR of the radical of the corresponding ideal (and similarly for the ideal corresponding to $F \neq 0$):

Proposition 28. *Given $RUR_{I,a}$ and $F \in \mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$ of total degree at most d and maximum bitsize τ , the bit complexity of computing the RUR of the radical of the ideal $\langle P, Q, F \rangle$ is in $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$.*

Proof. Denote by J the radical of the ideal $\langle P, Q, F \rangle$. The polynomial $f_{F=0}$ computed in Lemma 27 is the first polynomial $f_{J,a}$ of $RUR_{J,a}$. Indeed, it vanishes at the solutions of this ideal (with identification of the roots of $f_{J,a}$ with the solutions of the system J) and it is squarefree. Then Proposition 7 yields that $f_{J,a,1}$ is the gcd-free part of $f'_{J,a}$ with respect to $f_{J,a}$. As in the proof of Theorem 24, $pp(f_{J,a})$ can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^4 + d^3\tau)$ and has bitsize in $\tilde{O}(d^2 + d\tau)$. By Lemma 2, applied to $pp(f_{J,a})$ and its derivative, $f_{J,a,1}$ can be computed in $\tilde{O}_B(d^6 + d^5\tau)$.

According to Definition 5 of a RUR, the X -coordinates of the solutions of J are given by the polynomial fraction $\frac{f_{J,a,X}}{f_{J,a,1}}$ at the roots of $f_{J,a}$. On the other hand, the solutions of J , seen as solutions of I , have their X -coordinates defined by the polynomial fraction $\frac{f_{I,a,X}}{f_{I,a,1}}$. This thus implies that $f_{J,a,X} = f_{I,a,1}^{-1} f_{I,a,X} f_{J,a,1}$ modulo $f_{J,a}$. The computation of $f_{I,a,1}^{-1}$ together with the multiplication with other polynomials of the RUR has already been studied in the proof of Proposition 19; this can be done in $\tilde{O}_B(d^6 + d^5\tau)$ time and gives a polynomial of degree $O(d^2)$ and bitsize $\tilde{O}(d^4 + d^3\tau)$. It remains to compute the remainder of the division of this polynomial with $f_{J,a}$, which can be done in a soft bit complexity of the order of the square of the maximum degree times the maximum bitsize, i.e. $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ [vzGG99, Theorem 9.6 and subsequent discussion]. A similar computation gives the polynomial $f_{I,a,Y}$, hence the computation of $RUR_{J,a}$ can be done in $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ bit operations. \square

5 Conclusion

We studied the problem of solving systems of bivariate polynomials with integer coefficients using Rational Univariate Representations. We first showed that the polynomials of the RUR of a system of two polynomials can be expressed by simple formulas which yield a new simple method for computing the RUR and also yield a new bound on the bitsize of these polynomials. This new bound implies, in particular, that the total space complexity of such RURs is, in the worst case, $\Theta(d)$ smaller than the alternative rational parameterization introduced by Gonzalez-Vega and El Kahoui [GVEK96]. Given a RUR, this new bound also yields some improvements on the complexity of computing isolating boxes and performing sign_ at evaluations. Furthermore, these improvements also hold for the rational parameterization of Gonzalez-Vega and El Kahoui. We also addressed the problem of computing RURs of over-constrained systems.

The algorithm we presented for computing a RUR is more of a theoretical than a practical interest. Indeed, the computation of the resultant $R(T, S)$ of trivariate polynomials is not very efficient in practice. One particular problem of interest is thus the design of a practical efficient algorithm for computing RURs of bivariate systems whose bit complexity is as close as possible to the one presented here. Our complexity analysis shows that our new algorithm for computing a RUR is dominated by that of finding a separating form which is in $\tilde{O}_B(d^8 + d^7\tau)$ [BLPR13]. However, in a Monte-Carlo probabilistic setting, one can choose a candidate separating form randomly. On the other hand, in a Las-Vegas probabilistic setting, it is also possible to choose a candidate separating form randomly, compute a RUR-candidate using multi-modular arithmetic and taking advantage of our new bound on its bitsize, and verify a posteriori using the RUR-candidate if the chosen candidate separating form is actually separating. Such approach is the topic of current research and we refer to [BLPR11] for preliminary work on the subject. Another problem of interest is to generalize our bounds on the bitsize of RURs to higher dimensions.

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