

# CDMTCS <br> Research <br> Report Series 



# Computation with Finitely Generated Abelian Groups 



## Peter Huxford

University of Auckland, New Zealand


CDMTCS-517
January 2018


Centre for Discrete Mathematics and
Theoretical Computer Science

# Computation with Finitely Generated Abelian Groups 

Peter Huxford

## 0 Introduction

This aim of this report is to explain the theory of finitely generated abelian groups, and some computational methods pertaining to them. Knowledge of introductory group theory is required to understand the main ideas.

There is no algorithm to determine if a given finite presentation defines a group of finite order (or even defines the trivial group). However, such an algorithm exists if the group is also known to be abelian. We give a procedure in this report which, given a description of a finitely generated abelian group $G$, calculates integers $d_{1}, \ldots, d_{r}, k$ such that $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{d_{1}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{d_{r}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}^{k}$. The description of $G$ is given by an integer matrix, which we transform into a diagonal matrix, known as its Smith Normal Form.

Naive algorithms inspired by Gaussian elimination often fail because of integer overflow. Intermediate matrices have entries which are very large even for relatively small inputs, making calculations in practice far too expensive to carry out. We will explore some useful techniques, which allow us to perform calculations with respect to an appropriate modulus.

## 1 Preliminaries

In these notes, we will always write the group operation of an abelian group additively, unless otherwise stated.

Definition 1.1 (Universal Property). A group $G$ is free abelian on a subset $X \subseteq G$ if every map from $X$ to an abelian group $H$ extends to a unique homomorphism $G \rightarrow H$. We call $X$ a basis for $G$ if $G$ is free abelian on $X$.

There is a similarity with vector spaces: $B$ is a basis of a vector space $V$ if and only if every map from $B$ to a vector space $W$ extends uniquely to a linear map $V \rightarrow W$. The existence of such a linear map is equivalent to $B$ being a linearly independent set, and the uniqueness is equivalent to $B$ spanning $V$.

Theorem 1.2. The free abelian groups with finite basis, up to isomorphism, consist of the groups $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. Let $e_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n}$ be the $i$ th standard basis vector. Each element of $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ takes the form $m_{1} e_{1}+\cdots m_{n} e_{n}$, for unique integers $m_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$. Given a map from $\left\{e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}\right\}$ to a group $H$, we can extend it to a group homomorphism $\mathbb{Z}^{n} \rightarrow H$ as follows. If $e_{i} \mapsto h_{i}$, then define

$$
m_{1} e_{1}+\cdots+m_{n} e_{n} \mapsto m_{1} h_{1}+\cdots+m_{n} h_{n}
$$

It is readily seen that this defines a group homomorphism from $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ to $H$, sending $e_{i} \mapsto h_{i}$. Moreover each group homomorphism $\mathbb{Z}^{n} \rightarrow H$ which maps $e_{i} \mapsto h_{i}$ must agree with this. Hence $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ is free abelian on $\left\{e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}\right\}$.
Conversely, suppose that $G$ is free abelian on $X=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$. By the universal property, we obtain a homomorphism $\phi: G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{n}$ which maps $x_{i} \mapsto e_{i}$. Similarly we have a homomorphism $\psi: \mathbb{Z}^{n} \rightarrow G$ which maps $e_{i} \mapsto x_{i}$. Then $\psi \circ \phi$ is an endomorphism of $G$ fixing $X$. By the uniqueness in the universal property, $\psi \circ \phi$ must be the identity on $G$. Similarly $\phi \circ \psi$ is the identity on $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$. Hence $G \cong \mathbb{Z}^{n}$.

Let $G$ be an abelian group generated by $n$ elements. Since $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ is free abelian there is an epimorphism $\mathbb{Z}^{n} \rightarrow G$ with kernel $H$. By the first isomorphism theorem, $\mathbb{Z}^{n} / H$ is isomorphic to $G$. Thus understanding the structure of subgroups of $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ will give us insight into the structure of finitely generated abelian groups.

Theorem 1.3 (Dedekind). A subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ can be generated by at most $n$ elements.
Proof. We proceed by induction on $n$. Defining $\mathbb{Z}^{0}:=\{0\}$, the case $n=0$ becomes trivial. Let $n>0$, and let $\varphi: \mathbb{Z}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{n} /\left\langle e_{n}\right\rangle$ be the natural map. Note that $\mathbb{Z}^{n} /\left\langle e_{n}\right\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}^{n-1}$. If $H \leq \mathbb{Z}^{n}$, then $\varphi(H)$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}^{n-1}$. Inductively, we may assume $\varphi(H)=\left\langle h_{1}+\left\langle e_{n}\right\rangle, \ldots, h_{n-1}+\left\langle e_{n}\right\rangle\right\rangle$, for $h_{i} \in H$. Note that $H \cap\left\langle e_{n}\right\rangle$ is cyclic, so let $H \cap\left\langle e_{n}\right\rangle=\left\langle h_{n}\right\rangle$ for some $h_{n} \in H$. We claim $H=\left\langle h_{1}, \ldots, h_{n}\right\rangle$.
If $h \in H$, then $\varphi(h)=h^{\prime \prime}+\left\langle e_{n}\right\rangle$ for some $h^{\prime} \in\left\langle h_{1}, \ldots, h_{n-1}\right\rangle$. Now $h-h^{\prime} \in H \cap\left\langle e_{n}\right\rangle=\left\langle h_{n}\right\rangle$. Thus $h \in\left\langle h_{1}, \ldots, h_{n}\right\rangle$, and hence $H=\left\langle h_{1}, \ldots, h_{n}\right\rangle$. By induction the theorem follows.

Definition 1.4. The integer row space of an $m \times n$ integer matrix $A$ is $S(A):=\{x A$ : $\left.x \in \mathbb{Z}^{m}\right\}$, i.e. the set of all integral linear combinations of rows of $A$.
If $H=\left\langle h_{1}, \ldots, h_{m}\right\rangle \leq \mathbb{Z}^{n}$, then $H$ consists of all integral linear combinations of the $h_{i}$. Hence each finitely generated abelian group is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}^{n} / S(A)$ for some $m \times n$ integer matrix $A$. For most descriptions of finitely generated abelian groups, we can explicitly find such an $A$.

For example, consider the abelianisation $G_{a b}:=G /[G, G]$ of a finitely presented group $G$. If $G=\langle X \mid R\rangle$, then the abelianisation $G_{a b}$ is a finitely generated abelian group, with presentation $\langle X \mid R,[X, X]\rangle$. If $X=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$, then we can rewrite each of the relations in $R$ in the form $x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}, \alpha_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$. The epimorphism $\mathbb{Z}^{n} \rightarrow G_{a b}$ sending $e_{i} \mapsto x_{i}$ has kernel generated by the $\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}\right)$ appearing in the relations. Using these rows we can form a "relation matrix" $A$, and then $G_{a b} \cong \mathbb{Z}^{n} / S(A)$.

## 2 Integer Row Reduction

A notion of row space can be defined for matrices over an arbitrary ring. When working over a field, we can apply row operations to produce a matrix in reduced row echelon form
(e.g. using Gaussian elimination). We develop a similar theory for integer matrices below.

Definition 2.1. An integer row operation applied to a matrix is one of the following:

1. Swap two rows.
2. Multiply a row by -1 .
3. Add an integer multiple of one row to another row.

Two $m \times n$ integer matrices $A$ and $B$ are row equivalent if there is a sequence of integer row operations transforming one into the other, and in this case we write $A \sim B$.

We can reverse each integer row operation with another. The first two types are involutions. To reverse adding $q$ times row $i$ to row $j$, for $i \neq j$, we add $-q$ times row $i$ to row $j$. This makes $\sim$ an equivalence relation on integer $m \times n$ matrices.

In the above definition rows may only be multiplied by -1 , in contrast to row operations over a field, where rows may be multiplied by an arbitrary non-zero scalar. This is because multiplying a row by a scalar can be reversed when multiplying by a unit, and the units of a field are its non-zero elements, but the units of $\mathbb{Z}$ are just 1 and -1 .
Theorem 2.2. If $A$ and $B$ are integer matrices with $A \sim B$, then $S(A)=S(B)$.
Proof. If $B$ is obtained from $A$ by a single integer row operation, then the rows of $B$ are clearly in $S(A)$, so $S(B) \subseteq S(A)$. Moreover this row operation can be reversed, thus $S(A) \subseteq S(B)$.

The corresponding notion of reduced row echelon form for integer matrices is row Hermite Normal Form (HNF).

Definition 2.3. An integer $m \times n$ matrix $A$ is in row Hermite Normal Form (HNF) if

1. The nonzero rows of $A$ are the first $r$ rows of $A$, for some $r \leq m$.
2. If $j_{i}$ is minimal with $A_{i, j_{i}}$ nonzero, for $1 \leq i \leq r$, then $j_{1}<j_{2}<\cdots<j_{r}$.
3. If $1 \leq i \leq r$, then $A_{i, j_{i}}>0$.
4. If $1 \leq k<i \leq r$, then $0 \leq A_{k, j_{i}}<A_{i, j_{i}}$.

In the above definition, the entries $A_{i, j_{i}}$ behave similarly to the pivot entries in reduced row echelon form. Below is a sample matrix in row Hermite Normal Form.

$$
A:=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
2 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\
0 & 0 & 7 & 5 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 9
\end{array}\right] .
$$

Suppose we want to determine whether a given $u \in \mathbb{Z}^{4}$ is in $S(A)$. For instance, let $u=(4,2,-3,10)$. We seek $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $u=x a_{1}+y a_{2}+z a_{3}$, where $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}$ are the rows of $A$. Isolating the first column, we see $4=2 x$, so $x=2$. Next set $v=u-2 a_{1}=(0,0,-7,4)$. We require $v=y a_{2}+z a_{3}$. The second column holds no information. The third column tells us that $-7=7 y$, so $y=-1$. Set $w=v+a_{2}=(0,0,0,9)$. We require $w=z a_{3}$. Observing the last column shows $9=9 z$, so $z=1$. Hence $u=2 a_{1}-a_{2}+a_{3}$, and so $u \in S(A)$.

If at any stage we found an equation that was not solvable for integer $x, y, z$, then we would instead conclude that $u \notin S(A)$. Clearly, testing membership in $S(A)$ is easy when $A$ is in HNF. One can also show the nonzero rows of $A$ form a basis of $S(A)$ when $A$ is in HNF.

Theorem 2.4. If $A$ is an $m \times n$ integer matrix, then there is a unique $m \times n$ integer matrix $B$ with $A \sim B$ and $B$ in row Hermite Normal Form.

Proof. We prove this by induction. The result holds trivially when $m=0$ or $n=0$. Suppose that $m, n \geq 1$, and that the result holds for all smaller matrices. If there are two nonzero entries in the first column, say $0<\left|A_{k, 1}\right| \leq\left|A_{\ell .1}\right|$ with $k \neq \ell$, then we decrease the quantity $\left|A_{1,1}\right|+\cdots+\left|A_{m, 1}\right|$ as follows.

First multiply rows $k, \ell$ by -1 if necessary so that $A_{k, 1}, A_{\ell, 1}>0$. Next, subtract row $k$ away from row $\ell$. Since $0 \leq A_{\ell, 1}-A_{k, 1}<A_{\ell, 1}$, this strictly decreases the quantity $\left|A_{1,1}\right|+\cdots+\left|A_{m, 1}\right|$. This quantity is a non-negative integer, so it can only be decreased finitely many times. Hence we may assume that $A$ has at most one nonzero entry in the first column. If all entries in the first column are zero, then $A$ has the block form

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{c|cc}
0 & & \\
\vdots & & A^{\prime} \\
0 & &
\end{array}\right]
$$

By induction we can reduce $A^{\prime}$ to HNF by row operations, thus we can reduce $A$ to HNF by row operations. Suppose that $A$ has only one nonzero entry in the first column. By swapping rows and multiplying by -1 if necessary, we may assume that the nonzero entry is $A_{1,1}$ and $A_{1,1}>0$. Now $A$ has the block form

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{c|ccc}
A_{1,1} & A_{1,2} & \cdots & A_{1, n} \\
\hline 0 & & & \\
\vdots & & A^{\prime} & \\
0 & & &
\end{array}\right]
$$

By induction we can reduce $A^{\prime}$ to HNF by row operations, so we may assume that $A^{\prime}$ is in HNF. Suppose that the nonzero rows of $A$ are now the first $r$ rows, and that the first nonzero entry in each row is given by $A_{i, j_{i}}$, for $1 \leq i \leq r$. Let $2 \leq k \leq r$, and suppose we have already arranged for $0 \leq A_{1, j_{i}}<A_{i, j_{i}}$ to hold, for each $i=2, \ldots, k-1$.

Using the division algorithm we may write $A_{1, j_{k}}=q A_{k, j_{k}}+r$, where $0 \leq r<A_{k, j_{k}}$. We subtract $q$ times row $k$ away from row 1 . Because $A_{k, j_{k}}$ is the first nonzero entry in row $k$, and $1=j_{1}<j_{2}<\cdots<j_{k}$, we still have $0 \leq A_{1, j_{i}}<A_{i, j_{i}}$ for each $i=2, \ldots, k-1$.
Hence by induction we can reduce $A$ to some matrix $B$ in HNF, by integer row operations. Let $B^{\prime}$ be another matrix for which $A \sim B^{\prime}$ and $B^{\prime}$ is in HNF. Let $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}$ and $b_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, b_{m}^{\prime}$ be the rows of $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ respectively. If $B \neq B^{\prime}$, then there are entries with $B_{i, j} \neq B_{i, j}^{\prime}$. Choose such $i, j$ with $j$ minimal, without loss of generality $B_{i, j}>B_{i, j}^{\prime}$. We have $b_{i}, b_{i}^{\prime} \in S(B)=S(A)=S\left(B^{\prime}\right)$, hence $b_{i}-b_{i}^{\prime} \in S(B)$.
Suppose that only the first $r$ rows of $B$ are nonzero, and let $B_{i, j_{i}}$ be the first nonzero entry in $b_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq r$. The first $j-1$ entries of $b_{i}-b_{i}^{\prime}$ are zero, so $b_{i}-b_{i}^{\prime}$ is an integral
linear combination of the rows $b_{k}$ with $j_{k} \geq j$. However $b_{i j}-b_{i j}^{\prime} \neq 0$, and so we must have $j_{k}=j$ for some $k$ and $B_{k, j} \mid B_{i, j}-B_{i, j}^{\prime}$. Since $0 \leq B_{i, j}^{\prime}<B_{i, j}<B_{k, j}$, we must have $\left|B_{i, j}-B_{i, j}^{\prime}\right|<B_{k, j}$, so $B_{i, j}-B_{i, j}^{\prime}=0$, which is a contradiction. Therefore $B=B^{\prime}$, and so each integer matrix $A$ is row equivalent to a unique integer matrix $B$ in HNF.

Corollary 2.5. If $A$ and $B$ are $m \times n$ integer matrices with $S(A)=S(B)$, then $A \sim B$.
Proof. It suffices to prove that if $A$ and $B$ are in HNF, then $S(A)=S(B) \Longrightarrow A=B$. We refer the reader to [Sim94, Chapter 8, Proposition 1.1] for the proof of this.

The proof of this theorem is readily turned into an procedure, such as ROW_REDUCE given below (from [Sim94, Chapter 8, Section 1]).

Procedure: ROW_REDUCE( $\sim A)$;
Input: An $m \times n$ integer matrix $A$
Result: Integer row operations are applied to $A$ to reach row Hermite Normal Form
$A:=B ; i:=1 ; j:=1$;
while $i \leq m$ and $j \leq n$ do
if $A_{k, j}=0$ for $i \leq k \leq m$ then $j:=j+1$
else
while there exist distinct $k, \ell$ with $i \leq k, \ell \leq m$ and $0<\left|A_{k, j}\right| \leq\left|A_{\ell, j}\right|$ do $q:=A_{\ell, j} \operatorname{div} A_{k, j} ;$
Subtract $q$ times row $k$ of $A$ from row $\ell$
end
Let $A_{k j} \neq 0$ with $i \leq k \leq m$; (this $k$ is unique) if $k \neq i$ then
swap rows $i$ and $k$ of $A$
end if $A_{i, j}<0$ then
multiply row $i$ of $A$ by -1
end for $\ell:=1$ to $i-1$ do $q:=A_{\ell, j} \operatorname{div} A_{i, j} ;$ Subtract $q$ times row $i$ of $A$ from row $\ell$ end $i:=i+1 ; j:=j+1 ;$
end
end
There is some freedom when implementing the above algorithm. In the inner while loop, we must choose indices $k, \ell \geq i$ with $0<\left|A_{k, j}\right| \leq\left|A_{\ell, j}\right|$. If $k, \ell$ are chosen so that $\left|A_{\ell, j}\right|-\left|A_{k, j}\right|$ is maximized, then that the quantity $\left|A_{1, j}\right|+\cdots+\left|A_{m, j}\right|$ decreases as much as possible in each iteration. As described in the second paragraph of the previous proof, the condition in the while loop fails when this quantity can no longer decrease. Thus one might expect this strategy to be the most efficient.

In practice one finds that this strategy can result in $A$ having large entries, significantly increasing run time. This issue is discussed in [Ros52], where an alternative strategy is proposed. The Rosser strategy is to choose $\ell$ so that $\left|A_{\ell, j}\right|$ is as large as possible, and
then choose $k$ so that $\left|A_{k, j}\right|$ is as large as possible with $k \neq \ell$. Many authors recommend this because they expect it to control the size of the entries during the procedure. See Appendix A for a Magma implementation of the row reduction algorithm employing this strategy.

## 3 Smith Normal Form

In the previous section we showed that integer row operations applied to an $m \times n$ matrix $A$ do not change $S(A)$. We prove that column operations do not affect the isomorphism type of $\mathbb{Z}^{n} / S(A)$.
Definition 3.1. An integer column operation applied to a matrix is one of the following:

1. Swap two columns.
2. Multiply a row by -1 .
3. Add an integer multiple of one column to another column.

Definition 3.2. Two $m \times n$ integer matrices $A$ and $B$ are equivalent if there is a sequence of integer row and column operations transforming one into the other, and we write $A \approx B$.

Theorem 3.3. If $A, B$ are $m \times n$ integer matrices, then $A \approx B$ if and only if there exist matrices $P \in \mathrm{GL}_{m}(\mathbb{Z})$ and $Q \in \mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$ such that $B=P A Q$.

Proof. For each integer row operation on an $m \times n$ matrix, there is a corresponding matrix $P \in \mathrm{GL}_{m}(\mathbb{Z})$ such that the effect of applying the row operation is equivalent to left multiplication by $P$. Moreover these "elementary" matrices generate $\mathrm{GL}_{m}(\mathbb{Z})$. Similarly integer column operations correspond to right multiplication by matrices in $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$.
Theorem 3.4. If $A, B$ are equivalent integer $m \times n$ matrices, then $\mathbb{Z}^{n} / S(A) \cong \mathbb{Z}^{n} / S(B)$.
Proof. There exist $P \in \mathrm{GL}_{m}(\mathbb{Z}), Q \in \mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$ such that $B=P A Q$. Then $B \sim A Q$, hence $S(B)=S(A Q)$. Notice that $S(A) Q:=\{u Q: u \in S(A)\}=\left\{x A Q: x \in \mathbb{Z}^{m}\right\}=S(A Q)$. It follows that the mapping illustrated in the diagram is a well defined homomorphism $\mathbb{Z}^{n} / S(A) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{n} / S(A Q)=\mathbb{Z}^{n} / S(B)$. It is an isomorphism because $Q$ is invertible.


We now define a normal form which distinguishes the isomorphism types of $\mathbb{Z}^{n} / S(A)$.
Definition 3.5. An $m \times n$ integer matrix $A$ is in Smith Normal Form (SNF) if there is some $r$ such that $d_{i}:=A_{i, i}>0$ for each $1 \leq i \leq r$, all remaining entries of $A$ are zero, and $d_{1}\left|d_{2}\right| \cdots \mid d_{r}$. The integers $d_{1}, \ldots, d_{r}$ are the invariant factors of $A$.

Here is a sample matrix in Smith Normal Form

$$
A:=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 12 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right] .
$$

Note that $S(A)=\{(2 x, 4 y, 12 z, 0,0): x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. This is the kernel of the epimorphism

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{Z}^{5} & \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{2} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{4} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{12} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \\
(a, b, c, d, e) & \mapsto(a \bmod 2, b \bmod 4, c \bmod 12, d, e) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $\mathbb{Z}^{5} / S(A) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{4} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{12} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$. Determining the isomorphism type of $\mathbb{Z}^{n} / S(A)$ for an $m \times n$ matrix $A$ is easy when $A$ is in Smith Normal Form.
Theorem 3.6. Let $A$ be an $m \times n$ integer matrix in SNF, with invariant factors $d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{r}$. Then $\mathbb{Z}^{n} / S(A) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{d_{1}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{d_{r}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}^{n-r}$.

Theorem 3.7. If $A$ is an integer matrix, then there exists an integer matrix $B$ in Smith Normal Form with $A \approx B$.

Proof. Suppose $A$ is not the zero matrix. The first goal is to reduce $A$ to the block form

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c|ccc}
d & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
\hline 0 & & & \\
\vdots & & A^{\prime} & \\
0 & & &
\end{array}\right]
$$

with $d>0$. Let $A_{i, j}$ be a nonzero entry of $A$. Swap rows $i$ and 1 , and columns $j$ and 1 if required, to ensure $i=j=1$, and multiply row 1 by -1 if necessary to ensure $A_{1,1}>0$. If $A_{1,1}$ divides all entries in row and column 1 , then add multiples of row/column 1 to the other rows/columns, to reach the form ( $\star$ ).

If $A_{1,1}$ does not divide all entries in row and column 1 , then we decrease this entry as follows. Suppose that $A_{1,1} \nmid A_{i, 1}$ for some $i$. Write $A_{i, 1}=q A_{1,1}+r$ with $0<r<A_{1,1}$. Add $-q$ times row 1 to row $i$, and swap rows 1 and $i$. Similarly, if $A_{1,1} \nmid A_{1, j}$ for some $j$, then write $A_{1, j}=q A_{1,1}+r$ with $0<r<A_{1,1}$. Add $-q$ times column 1 to column $j$, and swap columns 1 and $j$.

If we repeat the operations in the previous paragraph, eventually $A_{1,1}$ will divide all entries in row and column 1, and thus we can reach the block form ( $\star$ ). Inductively, we reduce $A^{\prime}$ to SNF by row and column operations, so we can reduce $A$ to a matrix with block form

where $d_{i}>0$. If the divisibility condition $d_{1}\left|d_{2}\right| \cdots \mid d_{r}$ holds, then we have produced a matrix in SNF. If not, suppose that $d_{i} \nmid d_{j}$ for some $i<j$. Set $a:=d_{i}$ and $b:=d_{j}$.

The Euclidean algorithm produces integers $u, v$ with $d:=\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=u a+v b$, and then $\ell:=\operatorname{lcm}(a, b)=a b / d$. Now

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cc}
u & v \\
-b / d & a / d
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
a & 0 \\
0 & b
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & -v b / d \\
1 & u a / d
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
d & 0 \\
0 & \ell
\end{array}\right] .
$$

In this way, we can use row and column operations to replace $d_{i}$ and $d_{j}$ with $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d_{i}, d_{j}\right)$ and $\operatorname{lcm}\left(d_{i}, d_{j}\right)$ respectively. Repeating this will produce a matrix in Smith Normal Form.

Uniqueness follows from the uniqueness of the integers in the following important theorem. Note that the previous result implies the existence of such integers. To prove the uniqueness, we refer the reader to [DF04, Chapter 5, Theorem 3].

Theorem 3.8 (Fundamental Theorem of Finitely Generated Abelian Groups). Let $G$ be a finitely generated abelian group. There exist unique integers $n, d_{1}, \ldots, d_{r}>0$ with $d_{1}\left|d_{2}\right| \cdots \mid d_{r}$, and

$$
G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{d_{1}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{d_{r}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}^{n-r}
$$

Corollary 3.9. If $A$ is an $m \times n$ integer matrix, then there is a unique $m \times n$ integer matrix $B$ with $A \approx B$ and $B$ in Smith Normal Form.

Thus it makes sense to define the invariant factors of an integer matrix to be the invariant factors of the matrix equivalent to it which is in SNF.

Corollary 3.10. If $A$ and $B$ are $m \times n$ integer matrices with $\mathbb{Z}^{n} / S(A) \cong \mathbb{Z}^{n} / S(B)$, then $A \approx B$.

Proof. By Theorem 3.8, $A$ and $B$ have the same invariant factors. Because they have the same dimensions, they must be equivalent to the same matrix in SNF. Hence $A \approx B$.

The proof of Theorem 3.7 is readily transformed into a procedure for computing the Smith Normal Form of a given matrix. See Appendix B for a Magma implementation. However one quickly finds that it has certain defects. For example, I ran the implementation in Appendix B on a random $100 \times 100$ matrix with entries in $\{-1,0,1\}$, on the machine described in Section 5. After 13 hours the procedure had still not terminated. We investigate here what can happen with a smaller example. Consider the following matrix

$$
A:=\left[\begin{array}{cccccccc}
6 & 9 & 8 & 2 & 6 & 5 & 2 & 0 \\
5 & 10 & 1 & 4 & 8 & 5 & 4 & 8 \\
3 & 1 & 9 & 6 & 3 & 10 & 5 & 3 \\
6 & 10 & 3 & 2 & 5 & 0 & 3 & 10 \\
6 & 1 & 3 & 8 & 6 & 6 & 9 & 1 \\
6 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 8 & 1 & 10 & 10 \\
4 & 4 & 10 & 7 & 10 & 8 & 3 & 3 \\
7 & 0 & 1 & 9 & 8 & 5 & 5 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

If we run the Magma implementation given in Appendix B on $A$, then the intermediate matrix in which the entry with largest modulus appears is
$\left[\begin{array}{llllllcc}1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 48829330326663043031960 & -769507651269581073 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -9765866065332686254291 & 1539015302539162149 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 9403552434308768827094970352 & -148191783481495923038334\end{array}\right]$

The SNF of $A$ is given by
$\left[\begin{array}{llllllll}1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 10615254\end{array}\right]$

The entries of $A$ have modulus at most 10. However intermediate matrices appear with entries of modulus roughly $9.4 \times 10^{27}$, much larger than the entries in the resulting SNF. This "entry explosion" is only worsened by increasing the dimensions of the input matrix, and increasing the size of its entries. Row and column operations with entries so large is expensive, so circumventing this issue is of great importance if one wishes to compute the SNF of larger matrices in reasonable time.

## 4 Modular techniques

The methods discussed in the previous section to compute Smith Normal Form are inadequate for large matrices. The Magma intrinsic SmithForm is much more capable of computing the SNF of a large matrix. This is an indication that the approach taken earlier can be improved. We discuss some ideas described in [Sim94, Chapter 8, Section 4], which aim to reduce the maximum modulus entry of matrices produced along the way.

We redevelop some of the theory from the previous sections, so that computations can be carried out modulo a fixed integer. Many of the proofs of the following theorems are similar to ones already given, so we omit them. More detail can be found in [ $\operatorname{Sim} 94$, Chapter 8, Section 4]. Fix an integer $d>1$. We write $\bar{A}$ to denote the matrix $A$ with entries reduced modulo $d$.

Definition 4.1. A row operation modulo $d$ applied to an integer matrix is one of the following:

1. Swap two rows.
2. Multiply a row by an integer $c$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(c, d)=1$, reducing entries modulo $d$.
3. Add an integral multiple of one row to another row, reducing entries modulo $d$.

We define column operations modulo $d$ in a similar fashion. Two $m \times n$ integer matrices $A$ and $B$ are row equivalent modulo $d$ if there is a sequence of row operations modulo $d$ transforming $\bar{A}$ to $\bar{B}$, and they are equivalent modulo $d$ if there is a sequence of row and column operations modulo $d$ transforming $\bar{A}$ to $\bar{B}$.

Definition 4.2. An integer matrix $A$ is in row Hermite Normal Form modulo d (HNF modulo d) if

1. $A=\bar{A}$.
2. $A$ is in row Hermite Normal Form.
3. The first nonzero entry in each nonzero row divides $d$.

When we work modulo a prime $p$, the third condition ensures that the first nonzero entry in each nonzero row is 1 , thus in this case the HNF modulo $p$ agrees with the reduced row echelon form over the field $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$.

Theorem 4.3. If $A$ is an $m \times n$ integer matrix, then there is a unique $m \times n$ integer matrix $B$ with $A \sim B$ and $B$ in row Hermite Normal Form modulo $d$.

Definition 4.4. An integer matrix $A$ is in Smith Normal Form modulo d (SNF modulo d) if

1. $A=\bar{A}$.
2. $A$ is in Smith Normal Form.
3. The nonzero entries of $A$ divide $d$.

Theorem 4.5. If $A$ is an $m \times n$ integer matrix, then there is a unique $m \times n$ integer matrix $B$ with $A \sim B$ and $B$ in Smith Normal Form modulo $d$.

The algorithms for computing Hermite and Smith Normal Form modulo an integer are similar to the corresponding procedures over $\mathbb{Z}$, except all operations are performed modulo $d$, and we multiply rows/columns by appropriate integers $c$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(c, d)=1$ where appropriate to ensure that the relevant entries divide $d$.
Definition 4.6. Let $A$ be an integer matrix, and let $B$ be the unique matrix in HNF modulo $d$ which is row equivalent modulo $d$ to $A$. The $d$-rank of $A$ is the number of nonzero rows of $B$.

Note that if $A \sim B$ and $B$ is in HNF, then the number of nonzero rows of $B$ is equal to the rank of $A$. Thus the $d$-rank of an integer matrix is a lower bound for its rank.
Definition 4.7. For an $m \times n$ integer matrix $A$, and $0 \leq k \leq m, n$, let $D_{k}(A)$ denote the greatest common divisor of all determinants of $k \times k$ submatrices of $A$. We adopt the convention that the determinant of a $0 \times 0$ matrix is 1 , so that $D_{0}(A)=1$ for every integer matrix $A$.

Theorem 4.8. If integer row or column operations are applied to $A$, then $D_{k}(A)$ is unchanged for each $0 \leq k \leq m, n$.

Proof. This is clear except when an integer multiple of a row or column is added to another row or column, respectively. See [Sim94, Chapter 8, Proposition 4.1] for the proof.

Corollary 4.9. Suppose that $A \sim B$, and $B$ is in SNF with invariant factors $d_{1}\left|d_{2}\right|$ $\cdots \mid d_{r}$. Then $D_{k}(A)=d_{1} \cdots d_{k}$ for $k \leq r$, and $D_{k}(A)=0$ for $k>r$. In particular $d_{k}=D_{k}(A) / D_{k-1}(A)$ when $1 \leq k \leq r$.
While this gives an alternative way of computing the SNF of a matrix, there are $\binom{m}{k}\binom{n}{k}$ different $k \times k$ submatrices of an $m \times n$ matrix. However consider the following theorem, which follows from noting that the SNF modulo $d$ can be computed by calculating the SNF over $\mathbb{Z}$, and then reducing entries modulo $d$.

Theorem 4.10. Let $A$ be an integer matrix, and let $B$ be in SNF with $A \approx B$. Suppose $B$ has invariant factors $d_{1}\left|d_{2}\right| \cdots \mid d_{r}$, and let $d>1$ with $d_{r} \mid d$. Let $C$ be the matrix equivalent to $A$ in SNF modulo $d$. If $C$ has invariant factors $c_{1}\left|c_{2}\right| \cdots \mid c_{s}$, then $s \leq r$, and $d_{i}=c_{i}$ for $i \leq s$, and $d_{i}=d$ for $s<i \leq r$.

This suggests the following algorithm for computing the SNF of a given matrix $A$.

1. Find the rank $r$ of $A$.
2. Find a small number of $r \times r$ submatrices of $A$ with nonzero determinant, and take their greatest common divisor $d$. By Corollary 4.9, this will be a multiple of the largest nonzero entry in the SNF of $A$.
3. Compute $C$, the SNF of $A$ modulo $d$.
4. If $C$ has $s$ nonzero entries, then by Theorem 4.10 we can recover the SNF of $A$ by adding in $r-s$ copies of $d$ on the diagonal after the nonzero entries of $C$.

We currently do not have a method to efficiently compute the rank of a matrix $A$. The HNF algorithm provided earlier also produces relatively large modulus entries for small inputs. We also do not have a method to compute the determinant of an $r \times r$ submatrix of $A$, and find the $r \times r$ submatrices with nonzero determinant.

We compute the $d$-rank of $A$ by computing the the HNF of $A$ modulo $d$. This is a lower bound for the rank of $A$. If we calculate the $d$-rank for various $d$, then their maximum is a lower bound of the rank of $A$. With some work, we can ensure that this is equal to the rank.

Theorem 4.11 (Hadamard's Inequality). Let $A$ be an $n \times n$ real matrix.

$$
|\operatorname{det} A| \leq \prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{i j}^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}
$$

Proof. See [Gar07, Theorem 14.1.1].
We use this to get an easily computable bound to the determinant of every square submatrix of an integer matrix.

Corollary 4.12. If $A$ is an $m \times n$ integer matrix with $m \leq n$, then the determinant of a square submatrix of $A$ has modulus at most

$$
\min \left\{\prod_{i}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{i j}^{2}\right)^{1 / 2},\left[\max _{j}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} A_{i j}^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}\right]^{m}\right\}
$$

where the product is taken over the nonzero rows.
Definition 4.13. Given an $m \times n$ matrix, we let $h(A)$ be the bound given by Corollary 4.12 on $A$ if $m \leq n$, and on $A^{t}$ if $m>n$.

Theorem 4.14. Let $A$ be an integer matrix. If $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k}$ are distinct primes with $p_{1} \cdots p_{k}>h(A)$, then the rank of $A$ is the maximum $p_{i}$-rank of $A$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$.

Proof. Let $r$ be the maximum $p_{i}$-rank. It suffices to prove that all square submatrices of $A$ with more than $r$ rows have determinant 0 . Let $B$ be such a matrix. The $p_{i}$-rank of $A$ is at most $r$, so $\operatorname{det} B \equiv 0\left(\bmod p_{i}\right)$, for $1 \leq i \leq k$. Hence $\operatorname{det} B \equiv 0\left(\bmod p_{1} \cdots p_{k}\right)$. But by Corollary 4.12, $|\operatorname{det} B| \leq h(A)<p_{1} \cdots p_{k}$, thus $\operatorname{det} B=0$.

Once we compute the rank $r$ of an integer matrix $A$, we can exploit Hadamard's Inequality to compute efficiently the determinants of $r \times r$ submatrices.

Theorem 4.15. Let $A$ be an integer matrix, and let $B$ be a square submatrix of $A$. Let $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k}$ be distinct primes with $p_{1} \cdots p_{k}>2 h(A)$. If $\operatorname{det} B \equiv b_{i}\left(\bmod p_{i}\right)$, for $1 \leq i \leq k$, then $\operatorname{det} B$ is the integer $b$ satisfying $b \equiv b_{i}\left(\bmod p_{i}\right)$, with least absolute value.

Proof. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, the conditions determine $\operatorname{det} B$ modulo $p_{1} \cdots p_{k}$. Also $-h(A) \leq \operatorname{det} B \leq h(A)$, and since $p_{1} \cdots p_{k}>2 h(A)$, no two integers between $-h(A)$ and $h(A)$ are congruent modulo $p_{1} \cdots p_{k}$.

We now discuss how to compute the $p$-rank of a matrix, and its determinant modulo $p$, for some prime $p$. When $p$ is prime, $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ is a field, so standard methods (e.g. row reduction to row echelon form over a field) can be used to compute the $p$-rank and determinant modulo $p$.

Moreover, [Sim94] suggests slightly modifying the procedure of row reduction modulo $p$, to find $r \times r$ submatrices of nonzero determinant, where $r$ is the rank. For a matrix $A$ with reduced row echelon form $R$, let $S$ denote the row indices in $A$ which are eventually swapped into a nonzero row position in $R$, and let $T$ denote the column indices which contain the first nonzero entry in some row of $R$. The $r \times r$ submatrix of $A$ with rows indexed by $S$ and columns indexed by $T$ has nonzero determinant.
Using the above ideas, we produce an improved Smith Normal Form procedure. See Appendix C for a Magma implementation.

## 5 Empirical Results and Discussion

We now compare three methods to compute the Smith Normal Form of a given integer matrix in Magma [BCP97]. These are

- SmithNormalForm given in Appendix B (described in Section 3),
- SmithNormalFormImproved given in Appendix C (described in Section 4),
- the Magma intrinsic SmithForm.

We generated a random $n \times n$ matrix with entries in $\{-1,0,1\}$ for $n=10,20, \ldots, 100$, and computed the Smith Normal Form of each of the matrices with each method. The machine used had a clock speed of $2.6 \mathrm{GHz}, 690 \mathrm{~GB}$ of RAM, and was running Magma version V2.23-3. If a given computation took longer than 30 minutes to halt, it was terminated.

Our results are recorded in the following table. In each computation, the time taken to compute the SNF, and total memory used in the MAGMA session were recorded. For the computations using SmithNormalForm, the maximum modulus of an entry appearing in some intermediate matrix was recorded (see the "Max" column). For the computations using SmithNormalFormImproved, the modulus with respect to which calculations were performed is recorded (see the "Modulus" column). There is no corresponding measurement available for the Magma intrinsic SmithForm.

|  | SmithNormalForm |  |  | SmithNormalFormImproved |  |  | SmithForm |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Dimensions | Time | Memory | Max | Time | Memory | Modulus | Time | Memory |
| $10 \times 10$ | 0.00 s | 32.0 MB | 68 | 0.01 s | 32.0 MB | 40 | 0.00 s | 32.0 MB |
| $20 \times 20$ | 0.00 s | 32.0 MB | $6.0 \cdot 10^{42}$ | 0.01 s | 32.0 MB | $1.7 \cdot 10^{7}$ | 0.00 s | 32.0 MB |
| $30 \times 30$ | 0.04 s | 32.0 MB | $7.8 \cdot 10^{4056}$ | 0.02 s | 32.0 MB | $2.5 \cdot 10^{13}$ | 0.00 s | 32.0 MB |
| $40 \times 40$ | 0.31 s | 32.0 MB | $\sim 10^{1.4 \cdot 10^{5}}$ | 0.05 s | 32.0 MB | $1.3 \cdot 10^{19}$ | 0.02 s | 32.0 MB |
| $50 \times 50$ | $>30 \mathrm{~m}$ | 384 MB | $\sim 10^{2.5 \cdot 10^{6}}$ | 0.08 s | 32.0 MB | $3.6 \cdot 10^{27}$ | 0.02 s | 32.0 MB |
| $60 \times 60$ | $>30 \mathrm{~m}$ | 928 MB | $\sim 10^{2.5 \cdot 10^{6}}$ | 0.15 s | 32.0 MB | $7.0 \cdot 10^{34}$ | 0.02 s | 32.0 MB |
| $70 \times 70$ | $>30 \mathrm{~m}$ | 2.89 GB | $\sim 10^{5.4 \cdot 10^{6}}$ | 0.24 s | 32.0 MB | $5.0 \cdot 10^{42}$ | 0.02 s | 32.0 MB |
| $80 \times 80$ | $>30 \mathrm{~m}$ | 25.0 GB | $\sim 10^{1.2 \cdot 10^{7}}$ | 0.38 s | 32.0 MB | $2.0 \cdot 10^{51}$ | 0.03 s | 32.0 MB |
| $90 \times 90$ | $>30 \mathrm{~m}$ | 2.56 GB | $\sim 10^{8.9 \cdot 10^{5}}$ | 0.60 s | 64.0 MB | $1.9 \cdot 10^{60}$ | 0.07 s | 32.0 MB |
| $100 \times 100$ | $>30 \mathrm{~m}$ | 14.8 GB | $\sim 10^{2.3 \cdot 10^{6}}$ | 0.79 s | 64.0 MB | $1.6 \cdot 10^{58}$ | 0.06 s | 32.0 MB |

SmithNormalFormImproved outperforms the original procedure SmithNormalForm only when the dimensions of the input are sufficiently large. This is because some extra computation, e.g. the bound given by Corollary 4.12, is performed by SmithNormalFormImproved. The cost of these additional calculations are only outweighed by the benefit of performing row operations with respect to an appropriate modulus when the entries appearing in intermediate matrices are very large.

Observe that the Magma intrinsic SmithForm always performs better than the procedure SmithNormalFormImproved. One reason is that SmithForm is a compiled C program, but SmithNormalFormImproved is written in MAGMA, an interpreted language.

Moreover, there are other techniques beyond those discussed in Section 4 which can be used to more efficiently compute the SNF, many of which are discussed in [HHR93]. Recall the beginning of the proof of Theorem 3.7. First a nonzero entry is selected. If it does not divide every entry in its row and column, then we produce a smaller nonzero entry in the same position by applying appropriate row and column operations. Eventually this entry will divide all entries in its row and column.

In [HHR93], this process is called pivoting, and the nonzero entry which is selected is called a pivot. In SmithNormalForm, the way a pivot is selected is to initially choose the smallest modulus entry, and thereafter select the first entry in the current pivot's row and column which is not divisible by the current pivot. Havas et al. [HHR93] suggest some alternate pivoting strategies which can improve performance. In particular it is recommended to try certain pivoting strategies first, and only resort to modular methods if these are unsuccessful.

There is an additional deficiency in both of the procedures described in this report. Given an $m \times n$ integer matrix $A$, computing the SNF of $A$ determines the rank $r$ and positive integers $d_{1}\left|d_{2}\right| \cdots \mid d_{r}$ such that $\mathbb{Z}^{n} / S(A) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{d_{1}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{d_{r}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}^{n-r}$. However the SNF alone does not provide an explicit description of such isomorphism, which is often useful.

When only row and column operations and no modular techniques are used to compute the SNF of $A$, we can find $P \in \mathrm{GL}_{m}(\mathbb{Z}), Q \in \mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$ such that $P A Q$ is in SNF , by applying the row operations to $I_{m}$ to produce $P$, and the column operations to $I_{n}$ to produce $Q$. As in the proof of Theorem 3.4, $P$ and $Q$ can be used to describe such an isomorphism.

Unfortunately, when modular techniques are applied, such an isomorphism can only be recovered in this way if $r=n$. If we define $T:=\mathbb{Z}_{d_{1}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{d_{r}}$ and $F:=\mathbb{Z}^{n-r}$, then $\mathbb{Z}^{n} / S(A) \cong T \oplus F$, and $T$ is torsion (every element has finite order), and $\mathbb{Z}^{n-r}$ is torsion
free (all non-identity elements have infinite order). Havas et al. [HHR93] describe how Lattice Basis Reduction algorithms such as MLLL can be used together with the modular methods described here, to completely describe an isomorphism $\mathbb{Z}^{n} / S(A) \rightarrow T \oplus F$.

## References

[Ros52] J.B. Rosser. "A method of computing exact inverses of matrices with integer coefficients". Journal of Research of the National Bureau of Standards 49.5 (1952), p. 349.
[HHR93] George Havas, Derek F. Holt, and Sarah Rees. "Recognizing badly presented Z-modules". Linear Algebra and its Applications 192 (1993), pp. 137-163.
[Sim94] C.C. Sims. Computation with Finitely Presented Groups. Encyclopedia of Mathematics and its Applications. Cambridge University Press, 1994.
[BCP97] Wieb Bosma, John Cannon, and Catherine Playoust. "The Magma algebra system. I. The user language". J. Symbolic Comput. 24.3-4 (1997), pp. 235-265.
[DF04] D.S. Dummit and R.M. Foote. Abstract Algebra. Wiley, 2004.
[Gar07] D. J. H. Garling. Inequalities: A Journey into Linear Analysis. Cambridge University Press, 2007.

## Appendix A Hermite Normal Form

```
RowReduce := procedure(~A)
    m := NumberOfRows(A); n := NumberOfColumns(A);
    i := 1; j := 1;
    while i le m and j le n do
        AbsEntries := [ Abs(A[k,j]) : k in [i..m] ];
        Indices := [i..m];
        ParallelSort(~AbsEntries, ~Indices);
        while true do
            if AbsEntries[#AbsEntries] eq O then
                j +:= 1;
                break;
            elif i eq m or AbsEntries[#AbsEntries-1] eq O then
                k := Indices[#Indices];
                if k ne i then
                    SwapRows(~A,i,k);
            end if;
            if A[i,j] lt 0 then
                    MultiplyRow(~A,-1,i);
                end if;
                for l in [1..i-1] do
                    q := A[l,j] div A[i,j];
                    AddRow(~A,-q,i,l);
                end for;
                i +:= 1; j +:= 1;
                break;
                else
                        k := Indices[#Indices-1]; l := Indices[#Indices];
                q := A[l,j] div A[k,j];
                AddRow(~A,-q,k,l);
                AbsEntries[#AbsEntries] := Abs(A[l,j]);
                ParallelSort(~AbsEntries, ~Indices);
                end if;
            end while;
    end while;
end procedure;
```


## Appendix B Smith Normal Form

```
// Uses row and column operations to diagonalise A
// max records maximum modulus entry
// overtime is a flag which is set to true if Cputime() exceeds maxtime
// computation halts shortly after overtime is set to true
procedure Diagonalise(~A, ~max, ~overtime, maxtime)
    m := NumberOfRows(A); n := NumberOfColumns(A);
    if not IsZero(A) and m ne O and n ne O then
        // find min nonzero modulus entry A[i,j]
        // store max modulus entry
        r := 1; s := 1;
        while A[r,s] eq 0 do
            if s lt n then
                s +:= 1;
            else
                r +:= 1; s := 1;
            end if;
        end while;
        i := r; j := s;
        max := Abs(A[r,s]);
        min := max;
        while r le n do
            if A[r,s] ne O and Abs(A[r,s]) lt min then
                min := Abs(A[r,s]);
                i := r; j := s;
            elif Abs(A[r,s]) gt max then
                    max := Abs(A[r,s]);
            end if;
            if s lt n then
                s +:= 1;
            else
                r +:= 1; s := 1;
            end if;
        end while;
        // ensure A[i,j] divides everything in its row and column
        r := 1; s := 1;
        while r le m or s le n do
            if Cputime() gt maxtime then
                overtime := true;
                print "overtime";
                break;
            else
                if r le m then
                        if A[r,j] mod A[i,j] ne 0 then
                                    q := A[r,j] div A[i,j];
                AddRow(~A,-q,i,r);
                i := r; r := 1;
                for k in [1..n] do
                        if Abs(A[i,k]) gt max then
                                    max := Abs(A[i,k]);
                                    end if;
                end for;
            else
                r +:= 1;
                end if;
            elif A[i,s] mod A[i,j] ne 0 then
```

```
                    q := A[i,s] div A[i,j];
            AddColumn(~A,-q,j,s);
            j := s; r := 1; s := 1;
            for k in [1..m] do
                    if Abs(A[k,j]) gt max then
                                    max := Abs(A[k,j]);
                    end if;
                end for;
        else
            s +:= 1;
        end if;
        end if;
    end while;
    if not overtime then
        SwapRows(~A,i,1);
        SwapColumns(~A,j,1);
        // make entries below and to the right of A[1,1] zero
        for i in [2..m] do
            q := A[i,1] div A[1,1];
            AddRow(~A,-q,1,i);
            for k in [1..n] do
            if Abs(A[i,k]) gt max then
                max := Abs(A[i,k]);
            end if;
        end for;
        end for;
        for j in [2..n] do
            q := A[1,j] div A[1,1];
            AddColumn(~A,-q,1,j);
            for k in [1..m] do
            if Abs(A[k,j]) gt max then
                max := Abs(A[k,j]);
            end if;
        end for;
        end for;
        if A[1,1] lt O then
            A[1,1] := -A[1,1];
        end if;
        C := Submatrix(A, 2, 2, m-1, n-1);
        submax := 0;
        Diagonalise(~C, ~submax, ~overtime, maxtime);
        InsertBlock(~A,C,2,2);
        if submax gt max then
            max := submax;
    end if;
        end if;
    end if;
    end procedure;
    // Computes the SNF of A by a Gaussian elimnation inspired method
// max stores the maximum modulus entry in computation
// maxtime is the time in seconds before the computation halts
procedure SmithNormalForm(~A, ~max : maxtime := 1800)
    overtime := false;
```

```
115
    m := NumberOfRows(A); n := NumberOfColumns(A);
    Diagonalise(~A,~max, ~overtime,maxtime);
    if not overtime then
        r := 1;
        while r le Min(m,n) do
            if A[r,r] eq 0 then
                break;
            else
                r +:= 1;
            end if;
        end while;
        r -:= 1;
        // enforce divisibility condition
        for i in [1..r] do
            for j in [i+1..r] do
                if A[j,j] mod A[i,i] ne 0 then
                d := Gcd(A[i,i],A[j,j]);
                l := A[i,i]*A[j,j] div d;
                A[i,i] := d; A[j,j] := l;
            end if;
            end for;
    end for;
    end if;
end procedure;
```


## Appendix C Smith Normal Form Improved

```
// returns the bound given by Hadamard's inequality
function hadamard(A)
    m := NumberOfRows(A); n := NumberOfColumns(A);
    if m gt n then
        return hadamard(Transpose(A));
    else
        prod := 1;
        for i in [1..m] do
            sum := 0;
            for j in [1..n] do
                sum +:= A[i,j]~2;
            end for;
            if sum ne 0 then
                prod *:= sum;
            end if;
            end for;
            max := 0;
            for j in [1..n] do
            sum := 0;
            for i in [1..m] do
                sum +:= A[i,j]^2;
            end for;
            max := Max(max,sum);
            end for;
            return Sqrt(Min(prod, max^m));
    end if;
end function;
// Uses row and column operations modulo d to diagonalise A
procedure DiagonaliseMod(~A,d)
    Z := IntegerRing(); Zd := IntegerRing(d);
    m := NumberOfRows(A); n := NumberOfColumns(A);
    if not IsZero(A) and m ne 0 and n ne 0 then
        A := ChangeRing(A, Zd);
        // find a nonzero entry
        i := 1; j := 1;
        while A[i,j] eq 0 do
            if j lt n then
                j +:= 1;
            else
                i +:= 1; j := 1;
            end if;
        end while;
        // ensure A[i,j] divides everything in its row and column
        r := 1; s := 1;
        while r le m or s le n do
            if r le m then
                if (Z ! A[r,j]) mod (Z ! A[i,j]) ne O then
                    q := (Z ! A[r,j]) div (Z ! A[i,j]);
                AddRow(~A,-q,i,r);
                i := r; r := 1;
                else
```

```
                r +:= 1;
            end if;
        elif (Z ! A[i,s]) mod (Z ! A[i,j]) ne O then
            q := (Z ! A[i,s]) div (Z ! A[i,j]);
            AddColumn(~A,-q,j,s);
            j := s; r := 1; s := 1;
        else
            s +:= 1;
        end if;
    end while;
    SwapRows(~A,i,1);
    SwapColumns(~A,j,1);
    // clear out entries below and to the right of A[1,1]
    for i in [2..m] do
        q := (Z ! A[i,1]) div (Z ! A[1,1]);
        AddRow(~A,-q,1,i);
        end for;
        for j in [2..n] do
        q := (Z ! A[1,j]) div (Z ! A[1,1]);
        AddColumn(~A,-q,1,j);
        end for;
        A := ChangeRing(A, Z);
        C := Submatrix(A, 2, 2, m-1, n-1);
        DiagonaliseMod(~C,d);
        InsertBlock(~A,C,2,2);
    end if;
end procedure;
// Computes the SNF of A using Modular techniques
// primestart is where to begin looking for primes to do calculations
// dnumber is the number of nonzero rxr determinants we find,
// where r is the rank of A
procedure SmithNormalFormImproved(~A : primestart := 1000, dnumber := 3)
    X := SmithForm(A);
    m := NumberOfRows(A); n := NumberOfColumns(A);
    if not IsZero(A) and m ne O and n ne O then
        b := hadamard(A);
        // find sequence of distinct primes whose product exceeds 2*b
        primes := [NextPrime(primestart)];
        prod := primes[1];
        while prod le 2*b do
            Append(~ primes, NextPrime(primes[#primes]));
            prod *:= primes[#primes];
        end while;
        submatrices := {};
        rank := 0;
        for p in primes do
            // row reduction modulo p
            // find the p-rank r of A
            // and an rxr submatrix with full rank
            rows := [1..m];
```

    columns := [];
    Zp := IntegerRing(p);
    Ap := ChangeRing(A, Zp);
    i := 1; j := 1;
    while i le m and j le n do
        k := i;
        while k le m do
        if Ap[k,j] eq 0 then
                k +:= 1;
            else
                break;
            end if;
        end while;
        if k le m then
            Append(~ columns, j);
            if k ne i then
                SwapRows(~Ap, i, k);
                tmp := rows[k];
                rows[k] := rows[i];
                rows[i] := tmp;
            end if;
            c := -1/Ap[i,j];
            for l in [i+1..m] do
                AddRow(~Ap, Ap[l,j]*c, i, l);
            end for;
            i +:= 1;
        end if;
        j +:= 1;
    end while;
    r := i - 1;
    rows := rows[[1..r]];
    Sort(~rows);
    if r gt rank then
        rank := r;
        submatrices := {[rows, columns]};
    elif r eq rank and #submatrices lt dnumber then
        Include(~submatrices, [rows, columns]);
    end if;
    end for;
// compute determinants of submatrices
dets := [];
for indices in submatrices do
rows := indices[1]; columns := indices[2];
detsprimes := [];
for p in primes do
Z := IntegerRing(); Zp := IntegerRing(p);
Ap := ChangeRing(A, Zp);
detp := Z ! Determinant(Submatrix(Ap, rows, columns));
Append(~detsprimes, detp);
end for;
sol := CRT(detsprimes, primes);
altsol := sol - prod;
if Abs(altsol) lt sol then

```
```

173
173 175
end while;
s -:= 1;
// enforce divisibility condition
for i in [1..s] do
for j in [i+1..s] do
if A[j,j] mod A[i,i] ne 0 then
g := Gcd(A[i,i],A[j,j]);
l := A[i,i]*A[j,j] div g;
A[i,i] := g; A[j,j] := l;
end if;
end for;
end for;
// Recover SNF of A
for i in [s+1..rank] do
A[i,i] := d;
end for;
end if;
end procedure;

```
```

