

Noncommutative Gröbner Bases

Theory, Applications, and Software



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RISC, JKU Linz, Austria
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Noncom. polynomial $c_1 \cdot w_1 + \dots + c_d \cdot w_d \in K\langle X \rangle$

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Noncom. polynomial

A diagram showing a central symbol $\in K$ with two lines extending downwards and outwards to two blue boxes containing c_1 and c_d respectively.

$$c_1 \cdot w_1 + \cdots + c_d \cdot w_d \in K\langle X \rangle$$

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$$\begin{array}{c} \in K \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ c_1 \cdot w_1 + \dots + c_d \cdot w_d \in K\langle X \rangle \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ \text{words over } X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \end{array}$$

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$$xyyx + 2xyz - zyx - 2zz \in \mathbb{Q}\langle x, y, z \rangle$$

Addition $(xy - z) + (yx + 2z) = xy + yx + z$

Multiplication $(xy - z) \cdot (yx + 2z) = xy yx + 2xyz - zyx - 2zz$

A nonempty set $I \subseteq K\langle X \rangle$ is a (two-sided) ideal if

$$f, g \in I \Rightarrow f + g \in I$$

$$f \in I, p, q \in K\langle X \rangle \Rightarrow p \cdot f \cdot q \in I$$

Ideal generated by $f_1, \dots, f_r$ denoted by $I = (f_1, \dots, f_r)$.

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$K\langle X \rangle$ is not Noetherian!

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This talk: Gröbner basis theory for finitely generated two-sided ideals.

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Noncomm. GB theory = comm. GB theory — finiteness

($\exists$ GB theory for fin. gen. **one-sided** ideals, but that is **trivial**.)

Good news Most of the commutative theory carries over.

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Reduction if $\text{lm}(f) = a \cdot \text{lm}(g) \cdot b$, then $f \rightarrow_g f - \frac{\text{lc}(f)}{\text{lc}(g)} \cdot agb$

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Gröbner basis

G is a Gröbner basis of I if $f \in I \iff f \xrightarrow{*}_G 0$

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commutative

$$f = \text{red} + \dots$$

$$g = \text{blue} + \dots$$

$$\text{SPol} = \frac{\text{red}}{\text{red}} f - \frac{\text{red}}{\text{blue}} g$$

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commutative

$$\begin{aligned} f &= \text{green} + \dots \\ g &= \text{blue} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

overlap

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{green red} + \dots \\ &\text{red blue} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

inclusion

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{red} + \dots \\ &\text{green red blue} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

SPol $\frac{\text{blue}}{\text{green}} f - \frac{\text{blue}}{\text{blue}} g$

$f \text{ blue} - \text{green } g$

$\text{green } f \text{ blue} - g$

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	commutative	overlap	inclusion
$f =$	 $+ \dots$	  $+ \dots$	 $+ \dots$
$g =$	 $+ \dots$	  $+ \dots$	   $+ \dots$
SPol	$\frac{\text{blue}}{\text{green}} f - \frac{\text{blue}}{\text{blue}} g$	$f \text{ blue} - \text{green } g$	$\text{green } f \text{ blue} - g$

Algorithms Buchberger, F4, F5 all generalize to $K\langle X \rangle$ (and $R\langle X \rangle$).

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Algorithms Buchberger, F4, F5 all generalize to $K\langle X \rangle$ (and $R\langle X \rangle$).

Bad news Algorithms need not terminate.



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is $K\langle X \mid R \rangle$ trivial, commutative,
fin. dim., etc.?

(comput.)
algebra

$f \stackrel{?}{\in} I$

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compute in $K\langle X \mid R \rangle$

Noncommut.
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"The Moore-Penrose
inverse is unique"



theorem
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"The Moore-Penrose inverse is unique"

Def.: A matrix B is **Moore-Penrose inverse** of a matrix A if

$$ABA = A, \quad BAB = B, \quad B^*A^* = AB, \quad A^*B^* = BA$$

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Proof $B = BAB = BACAB = \dots = C$

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$$\Longleftrightarrow$$

$$b - c \in (f_1, \dots, f_{12})$$

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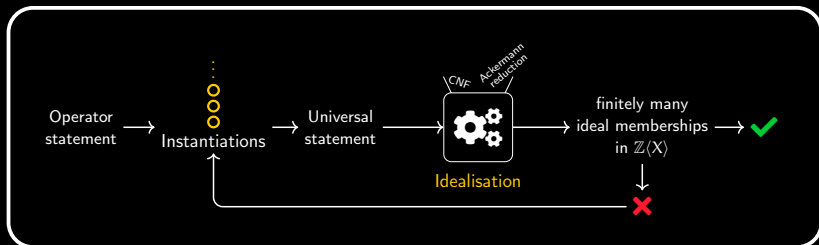
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$$b - c \in (f_1, \dots, f_{12})$$



Reverse order law for the Moore–Penrose inverse[☆]

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ABSTRACT

In this paper we present new results related to the reverse order law for the Moore–Penrose inverse of operators on Hilbert spaces. Some finite-dimensional results are extended to infinite-dimensional settings.

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1. Introduction

In this paper we extend some results from [15] to infinite-dimensional settings. Among other things, we obtain the reverse order law for the Moore–Penrose inverse as a corollary. We use the matrix form of a linear bounded operator, and this matrix form is induced by some natural decompositions of Hilbert spaces.

In the rest of the Introduction we formulate two auxiliary results. In Section 2 we present the results related to the reverse order rule for the Moore–Penrose inverse of Hilbert space operators with closed range. The present paper is the extension of results from [15] to infinite-dimensional settings.

2. Reverse order law

In this section we prove the results concerning the reverse order law for the Moore–Penrose inverse.

Theorem 2.2. Let X, Y, Z be Hilbert spaces, and let $A \in \mathcal{L}(Y, Z)$, $B \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ be such that A, B, AB have closed ranges. Then the following statements hold:

- ✓ $AB(AB)^{\dagger} = ABB^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \Leftrightarrow A^*AB = BB^{\dagger}A^*AB \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(A^*AB) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(B) \Leftrightarrow B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 3);$
- ✓ $(AB)^{\dagger}AB = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}AB \Leftrightarrow ABB^* = ABB^*A^{\dagger}A \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(BB^*A^*) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A^*) \Leftrightarrow B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 4);$
- ✓ The following statements are equivalent:
- ✓ $(AB)^{\dagger} = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger};$
- ✓ $AB(AB)^{\dagger} = ABB^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}$ and $(AB)^{\dagger}AB = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}A;$
- ✓ $A^*AB = B^{\dagger}A^*AB$ and $ABB^* = ABB^*A^{\dagger}A;$
- ✓ $\mathcal{R}(A^*AB) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(B)$ and $\mathcal{R}(BB^*A^*) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A^*).$

Proof. The operators A and B have the same matrix representations as in the previous theorem. The following products will be useful:

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} A_1B_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (AB)^{\dagger} = \begin{bmatrix} (A_1B_1)^{\dagger} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} = \begin{bmatrix} B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

First, we find the equivalent expressions for our statements in terms of A_1, A_2 and B_1 .

- (a) 1. $AB(AB)^{\dagger} = ABB^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \Leftrightarrow A_1B_1A_1^{\dagger}B_1^{\dagger} = A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}$. Here $A_1B_1(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}$ is Hermitian, so $[A_1A_2^{\dagger}, D^{-1}] = 0$.
2. $A^*AB = BB^{\dagger}A^*AB \Leftrightarrow A_2^{\dagger}A_1 = 0$.
3. Notice that $\mathcal{R}(A^*AB) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(B)$ if and only if $BB^{\dagger}A^*AB = A^*AB$, so $2 \Rightarrow 3$.
4. If we check properly the Penrose equations, then we see that: $B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 3) \Leftrightarrow A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1$ and $[A_1A_2^{\dagger}, D^{-1}] = 0$.

Now, we prove the following: $1 \Leftrightarrow 2, 4 \Rightarrow 2$ and $1 \Rightarrow 4$.

We prove $1 \Leftrightarrow 2$. Notice that

$$A_1B_1(A_1B_1)^{\dagger} = A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1} \Leftrightarrow (A_1B_1)^{\dagger} = (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}.$$

The last statement is obtained by multiplying the first expression by $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}$ from the left side, or multiplying the second expression by A_1B_1 from the left side, and using $A_1A_2^{\dagger} = A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}A_2^{\dagger}$. Now, there is a chain of the equivalences:

$$\begin{aligned} (A_1B_1)^{\dagger} &= (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1} \Leftrightarrow (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}[A_1A_2^{\dagger} + A_2A_2^{\dagger}] = (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1A_2^{\dagger} \\ &\Leftrightarrow (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_2A_2^{\dagger} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(A_2A_2^{\dagger}) \subseteq \mathcal{N}((A_1B_1)^{\dagger}) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(A_2) \subseteq \mathcal{N}((A_1B_1)^*) \Leftrightarrow B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}A_2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow A_1^{\dagger}A_2 = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we have just proved that $1 \Leftrightarrow 2$.

Now we prove $1 \Rightarrow 4$. If we multiply $A_1B_1(A_1B_1)^{\dagger} = A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}$ by A_1B_1 from the right side, we get $A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1$. Thus, 4 holds.

Finally, we prove $4 \Rightarrow 2$. If $A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1$ and $[A_1A_2^{\dagger}, D^{-1}] = 0$, then $A_1A_2^{\dagger}A_1 = DA_1 = A_1A_2^{\dagger}A_1 + A_2A_2^{\dagger}A_1$, implying that $A_2A_2^{\dagger}A_1 = 0$. Hence, $\mathcal{R}(A_1) \subseteq \mathcal{N}((A_2A_2^{\dagger})^*) = \mathcal{N}(A_2^{\dagger})$, so $A_2^{\dagger}A_1 = 0$. Thus, 2 holds.

Notice that the equivalence $3 \Leftrightarrow 4$ is proved in [8], also.

- (b) 1. $(AB)^{\dagger}AB = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}AB \Leftrightarrow (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1 = B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1B_1$. Moreover, $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1$ is Hermitian, so $[B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}, A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1] = 0$.
2. $ABB^* = ABB^*A^{\dagger}A \Leftrightarrow A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}$ and $A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_2 = 0$.
3. Notice that $\mathcal{R}(BB^*A^*) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A^*)$ if and only if $A^{\dagger}ABB^*A^* = BB^*A^*$, which is equivalent to $ABB^*A^{\dagger}A = ABB^*$. Hence, $2 \Rightarrow 3$.
4. The Penrose equations imply that: $B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 4) \Leftrightarrow A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1$ and $[B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}, A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1] = 0$.

We prove $1 \Rightarrow 4 \Rightarrow 2 \Rightarrow 1$.

Suppose that 1 holds. If we multiply $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1 = B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1B_1$ by A_1B_1 from the left side, we obtain $A_1 = A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1$. Furthermore, $[B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}, A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1] = 0$ holds. Therefore, $1 \Rightarrow 4$.

Suppose that 4 holds. Obviously, $A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger} = A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}$. Thus, the first equality of 2 holds. The second equality of 2 also holds, since $A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow A_1A_2^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1$, which is shown in the proof of Theorem 2.1. Here we use again $[B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}, A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1] = 0$. Consequently, $4 \Rightarrow 2$.

In order to prove that $2 \Rightarrow 1$, we multiply $A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger}$ by $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}$ from the left side. It follows that $B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1 = (A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1B_1^{\dagger} = 0$, so $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1 = B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1(B_1^{\dagger})^{-1}$ which is equivalent to $(A_1B_1)^{\dagger}A_1B_1 = B_1^{\dagger}A_1^{\dagger}D^{-1}A_1B_1$. Hence, $2 \Rightarrow 1$.

Notice that $3 \Rightarrow 4$ is also proved in [8].

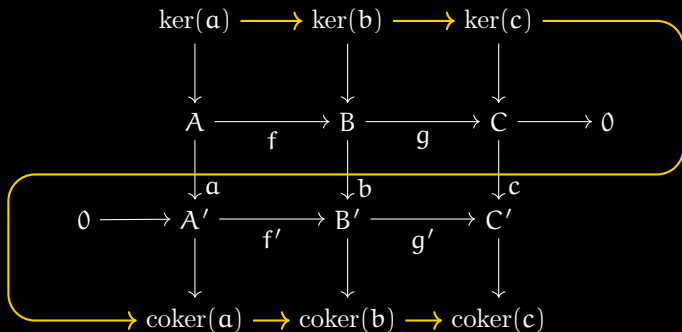
Finally, the part (c) follows from the parts (a) and (b). $\square$

We also prove the following result.

Theorem 2.3. Let X, Y, Z be Hilbert spaces, and let $A \in \mathcal{L}(Y, Z)$, $B \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ be such that A, B, AB have closed ranges. Then we have:

- ✓ $AB(AB)^{\dagger}A = ABB^{\dagger} \Leftrightarrow A^*AB = BB^{\dagger}A^*AB \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(A^*AB) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(B) \Leftrightarrow B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 3);$
- ✓ $B(AB)^{\dagger}AB = A^{\dagger}AB \Leftrightarrow A^{\dagger}ABB^* = BB^*A^{\dagger}A \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(BB^*A^*) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A^*) \Leftrightarrow B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} \in (AB)(1, 2, 4);$
- ✓ The following three statements are equivalent:
- ✓ $(AB)^{\dagger} = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger};$
- ✓ $AB(AB)^{\dagger}A = ABB^{\dagger}$ and $B(AB)^{\dagger}AB = A^{\dagger}AB;$
- ✓ $A^*ABB^{\dagger} = BB^{\dagger}A^*A$ and $A^{\dagger}ABB^* = BB^*A^{\dagger}A.$

Proof. The operators A and B have the same matrix representations as in the previous theorem. First, we find equivalent expressions, in the terms of A_1, A_2 and B_1 , for our assumptions.



"The Moore-Penrose
inverse is unique"



theorem
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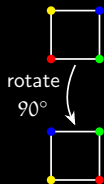
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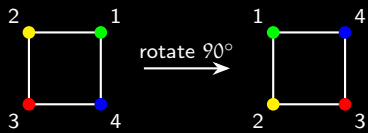
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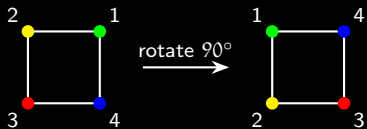
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Noncommut.
Gröbner bases

graph theory





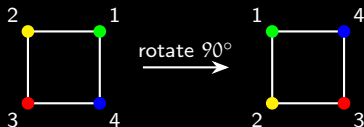


Classical symmetry

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

P permutation matrix s.t.

P commutes with adjacency matrix



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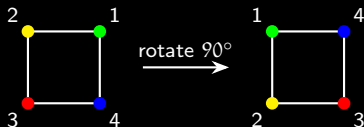
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Quantum symmetry

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & u_{13} & u_{14} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} & u_{23} & u_{24} \\ u_{31} & u_{32} & u_{33} & u_{34} \\ u_{41} & u_{42} & u_{43} & u_{44} \end{pmatrix}$$

u_{ij} are **noncommuting** objects s.t.

1. U commutes with adjacency matrix
2. $\sum_k u_{ik} = \sum_k u_{ki} = 1$
3. $u_{ij} = u_{ij}^* = u_{ij}^2$



Classical symmetry

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P commutes with adjacency matrix

Quantum symmetry

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & u_{13} & u_{14} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} & u_{23} & u_{24} \\ u_{31} & u_{32} & u_{33} & u_{34} \\ u_{41} & u_{42} & u_{43} & u_{44} \end{pmatrix}$$

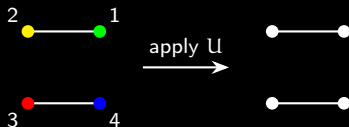
u_{ij} are **noncommuting** objects s.t.

1. U commutes with adjacency matrix
2. $\sum_k u_{ik} = \sum_k u_{ki} = 1$
3. $u_{ij} = u_{ij}^* = u_{ij}^2$

Graph has quantum symmetries

$\iff$

$$[u_{ij}, u_{kl}] \notin (1., 2., 3.)$$



Classical symmetry

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

P permutation matrix s.t.

P commutes with adjacency matrix

Quantum symmetry

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} p & 1-p & 0 & 0 \\ 1-p & p & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & q & 1-q \\ 0 & 0 & 1-q & q \end{pmatrix}$$

u_{ij} are **noncommuting** objects s.t.

1. U commutes with adjacency matrix
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"The Moore-Penrose
inverse is unique"



theorem
proving

is $K\langle X \mid R \rangle$ trivial, commutative,
fin. dim., etc.?

(comput.)
algebra

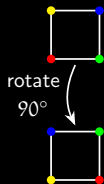
$f \stackrel{?}{\in} I$

$I \cap J$

compute in $K\langle X \mid R \rangle$

Noncommut.
Gröbner bases

graph theory



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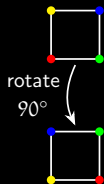
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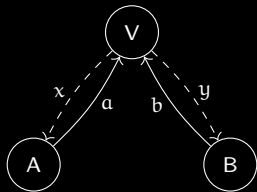
Noncommut.
Gröbner bases

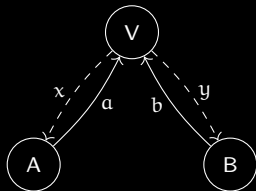
graph theory

game theory

$\exists$ perfect
operator strategy







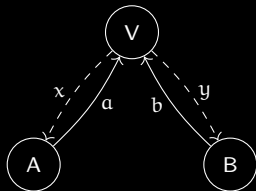
classical
no co-op

$\subsetneq$

quantum
 $H_A \otimes H_B$

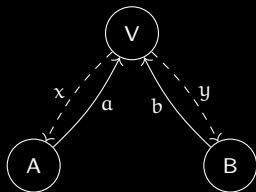
$\subsetneq$

operator
 H



classical	$\subsetneq$	quantum	$\subsetneq$	operator
no co-op		$H_A \otimes H_B$		H

$\exists$ perfect operator strategy $\Rightarrow -1 \notin \text{SOS} + I \subseteq \mathbb{C}\langle X \rangle$



classical $\subsetneq$ quantum $\subsetneq$ operator
 no co-op $H_A \otimes H_B$ H

$\exists$ perfect operator strategy $\Rightarrow -1 \notin \text{SOS} + I \subseteq \mathbb{C}\langle X \rangle$

noncomm. GB + SDP $\Rightarrow -1 \in \text{SOS} + I$
 $\Rightarrow \nexists$ perfect operator strategy

"The Moore-Penrose
inverse is unique"



theorem
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is $K\langle X \mid R \rangle$ trivial, commutative,
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algebra

$f \stackrel{?}{\in} I$

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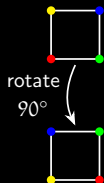
compute in $K\langle X \mid R \rangle$

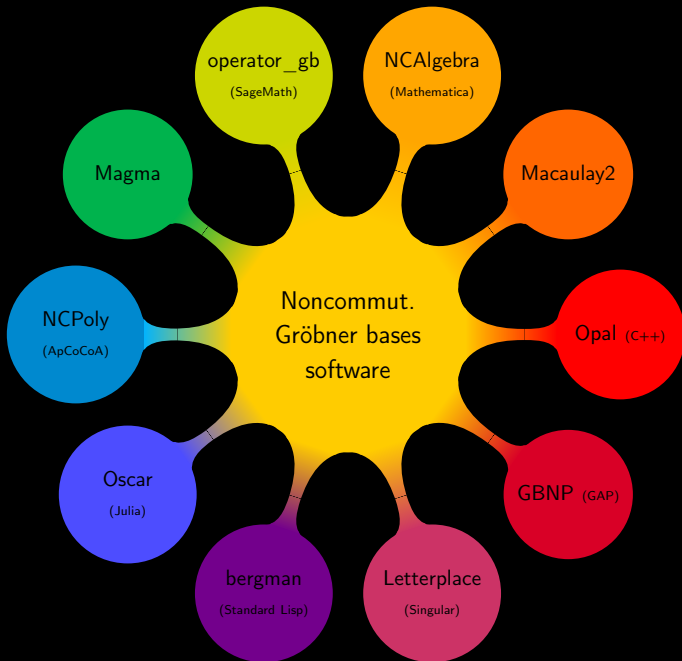
Noncommut.
Gröbner bases

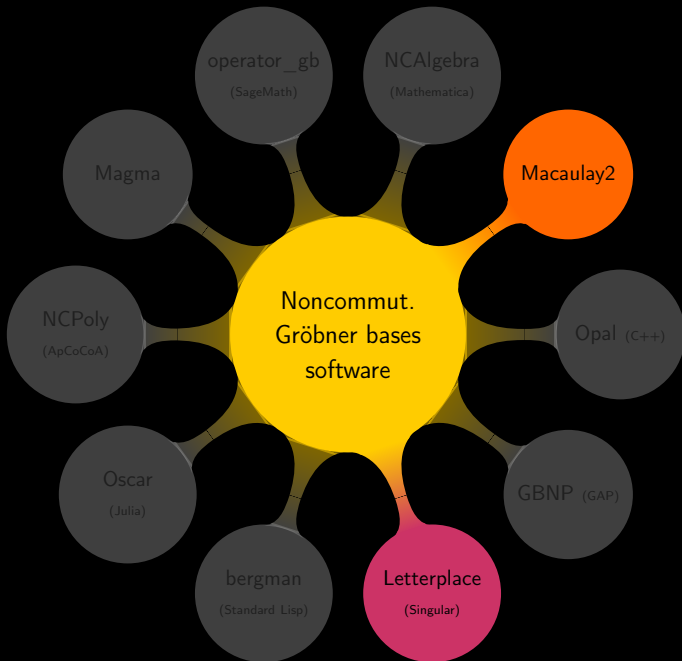
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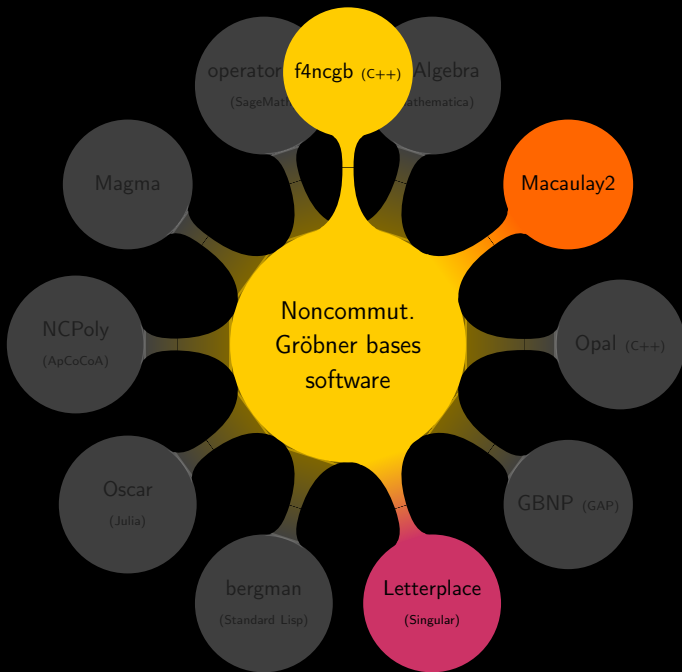
game theory

$\exists$ perfect
operator strategy



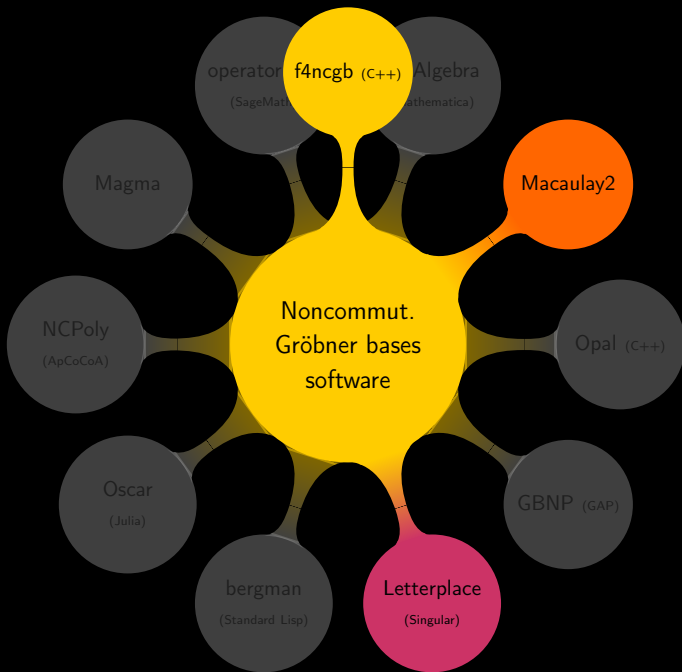


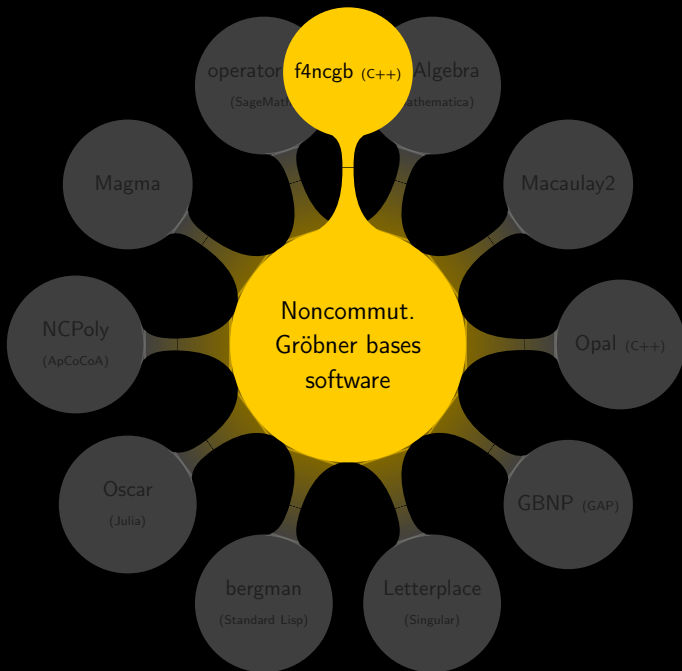


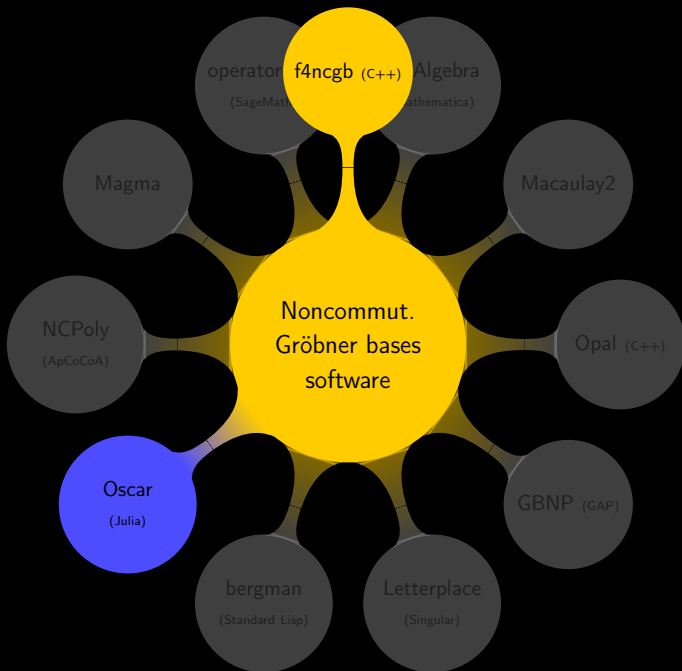


Example	Letterplace	Macaulay2	f4ncgb		
			1 core	4 cores	16 cores
4nilp5s-10	1217	875	30	18	12
braid3-16	18 314	14 291	10	5	4
braidX-18	>43 200	>43 200	140	55	30
braidXY-12	1608	18 887	10	7	6
holt_G3562h-17	>43 200	>43 200	45	38	36
lascale_neuh-13	167	37	1	1	1
lp1-15	24 166	33 923	111	86	83
lv2d10-100	>43 200	24 930	10	10	10
malle_G12h-100	3934	163	36	35	37

(Timings in sec)



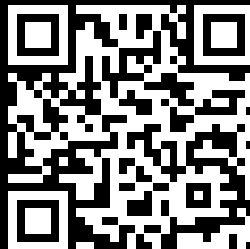




f4ncgb (read “fancy-gb”)

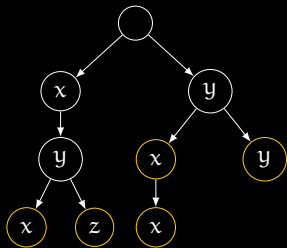
Open-source C++ library that ports commutative advancements to the noncommutative setting.

- Gröbner basis computation in $\mathbb{Q}\langle X \rangle$ and $\mathbb{Z}_p\langle X \rangle$ for prime $p < 2^{31}$
- Noncommutative F4 with specialized data structures, linear algebra, etc.
- Elimination orders & Proof logging
- Default implementation in



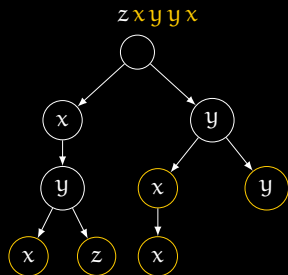
- (Compressed) monomials in bump-pointer allocator + hash map
- Prefix tree of GB-LMs for divisibility tests

$$\text{LM}(G) = \{xyx, xyz, yx, yxx, yy\}$$



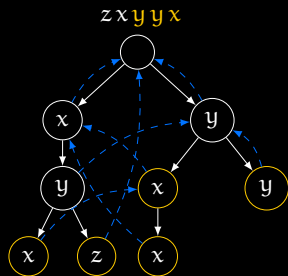
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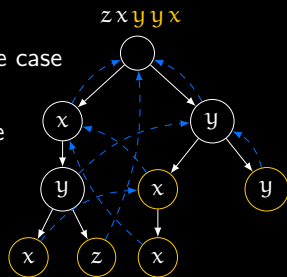
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$$\text{LM}(G) = \{xyx, xyz, yx, yxx, yy\}$$

- Multimodular linear algebra over $\mathbb{Q}$
 - Uses (almost) all tricks from commutative case
 - Sparser than in the commutative case
 - Lift the matrices $\rightsquigarrow$ correctness guarantee

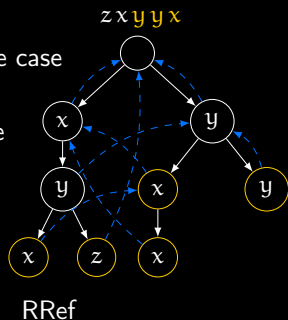


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$$LM(G) = \{xyx, xyz, yx, yxx, yy\}$$

- Multimodular linear algebra over $\mathbb{Q}$
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- Proof logging via cofactor representations



$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc} - & p_1 & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & p_k & - \end{array} \right) \rightsquigarrow$$

