

**User's Guide**  
**to**  
**the PARI library**  
**(version 2.5.5)**

The PARI Group

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## Chapter 4:

# Programming PARI in Library Mode

The *User's Guide to Pari/GP* gives in three chapters a general presentation of the system, of the `gp` calculator, and detailed explanation of high level PARI routines available through the calculator. The present manual assumes general familiarity with the contents of these chapters and the basics of ANSI C programming, and focuses on the usage of the PARI library. In this chapter, we introduce the general concepts of PARI programming and describe useful general purpose functions; the following chapters describes all public low or high-level functions, underlying or extending the GP functions seen in Chapter 3 of the User's guide.

### 4.1 Introduction: initializations, universal objects.

To use PARI in library mode, you must write a C program and link it to the PARI library. See the installation guide or the Appendix to the *User's Guide to Pari/GP* on how to create and install the library and include files. A sample Makefile is presented in Appendix A, and a more elaborate one in `examples/Makefile`. The best way to understand how programming is done is to work through a complete example. We will write such a program in Section 4.9. Before doing this, a few explanations are in order.

First, one must explain to the outside world what kind of objects and routines we are going to use. This is done\* with the directive

```
#include <pari/pari.h>
```

In particular, this defines the fundamental type for all PARI objects: the type **GEN**, which is simply a pointer to `long`.

Before any PARI routine is called, one must initialize the system, and in particular the PARI stack which is both a scratchboard and a repository for computed objects. This is done with a call to the function

```
void pari_init(size_t size, ulong maxprime)
```

The first argument is the number of bytes given to PARI to work with, and the second is the upper limit on a precomputed prime number table; `size` should not reasonably be taken below 500000 but you may set `maxprime = 0`, although the system still needs to precompute all primes up to about  $2^{16}$ . For lower-level variants allowing finer control, e.g. preventing PARI from installing its own error or signal handlers, see Section 5.1.2.

We have now at our disposal:

- a PARI *stack* containing nothing. This is a big connected chunk of `size` bytes of memory, where all computations take place. In large computations, intermediate results quickly clutter up memory so some kind of garbage collecting is needed. Most systems do garbage collecting when the memory is getting scarce, and this slows down the performance. PARI takes a different approach,

---

\* This assumes that PARI headers are installed in a directory which belongs to your compiler's search path for header files. You might need to add flags like `-I/usr/local/include` or modify `C_INCLUDE_PATH`.

admittedly more demanding on the programmer: you must do your own cleaning up when the intermediate results are not needed anymore. We will see later how (and when) this is done.

- the following *universal objects* (by definition, objects which do not belong to the stack): the integers 0, 1, -1, 2 and -2 (respectively called `gen_0`, `gen_1`, `gen_m1`, `gen_2` and `gen_m2`), the fraction  $\frac{1}{2}$  (`ghalf`). All of these are of type `GEN`.

- a *heap* which is just a linked list of permanent universal objects. For now, it contains exactly the ones listed above. You will probably very rarely use the heap yourself; and if so, only as a collection of copies of objects taken from the stack (called clones in the sequel). Thus you need not bother with its internal structure, which may change as PARI evolves. Some complex PARI functions create clones for special garbage collecting purposes, usually destroying them when returning.

- a table of primes (in fact of *differences* between consecutive primes), called `diffptr`, of type `byteptr` (pointer to `unsigned char`). Its use is described in Section 4.8.2 below.

- access to all the built-in functions of the PARI library. These are declared to the outside world when you include `pari.h`, but need the above things to function properly. So if you forget the call to `pari_init`, you will get a fatal error when running your program.

## 4.2 Important technical notes.

**4.2.1 Backward compatibility.** The PARI function names evolved over time, and deprecated functions are eventually deleted. The file `pariold.h` contains macros implementing a weak form of backward compatibility. In particular, whenever the name of a documented function changes, a `#define` is added to this file so that the old name expands to the new one (provided the prototype didn't change also).

This file is included by `pari.h`, but a large section is commented out by default. Define `PARI_OLD_NAMES` before including `pari.h` to pollute your namespace with lots of obsolete names like `un*`: that might enable you to compile old programs without having to modify them. The preferred way to do that is to add `-DPARI_OLD_NAMES` to your compiler `CFLAGS`, so that you don't need to modify the program files themselves.

Of course, it's better to fix the program if you can!

### 4.2.2 Types.

Although PARI objects all have the C type `GEN`, we will freely use the word **type** to refer to PARI dynamic subtypes: `t_INT`, `t_REAL`, etc. The declaration

```
GEN x;
```

declares a C variable of type `GEN`, but its “value” will be said to have type `t_INT`, `t_REAL`, etc. The meaning should always be clear from the context.

---

\* For `(long)gen_1`. Since 2004 and version 2.2.9, typecasts are completely unnecessary in PARI programs.

### 4.2.3 Type recursivity.

Conceptually, most PARI types are recursive. But the **GEN** type is a pointer to **long**, not to **GEN**. So special macros must be used to access **GEN**'s components. The simplest one is **gel**(*V*, *i*), where **el** stands for **e**lement, to access component number *i* of the **GEN** *V*. This is a valid **lvalue** (may be put on the left side of an assignment), and the following two constructions are exceedingly frequent

```
gel(V, i) = x;  
x = gel(V, i);
```

where **x** and **V** are **GEN**s. This macro accesses and modifies directly the components of *V* and do not create a copy of the coefficient, contrary to all the library *functions*.

More generally, to retrieve the values of elements of lists of ... of lists of vectors we have the **gmael** macros (for **m**ultidimensional **a**rray **e**lement). The syntax is **gmael***n*(*V*, *a*<sub>1</sub>, ..., *a*<sub>*n*</sub>), where *V* is a **GEN**, the *a*<sub>*i*</sub> are indexes, and *n* is an integer between 1 and 5. This stands for *x*[*a*<sub>1</sub>][*a*<sub>2</sub>]...[*a*<sub>*n*</sub>], and returns a **GEN**. The macros **gel** (resp. **gmael**) are synonyms for **gmael1** (resp. **gmael2**).

Finally, the macro **gcoeff**(*M*, *i*, *j*) has exactly the meaning of *M*[*i*,*j*] in GP when *M* is a matrix. Note that due to the implementation of **t\_MATs** as horizontal lists of vertical vectors, **gcoeff**(*x*,*y*) is actually equivalent to **gmael**(*y*,*x*). One should use **gcoeff** in matrix context, and **gmael** otherwise.

**4.2.4 Variations on basic functions.** In the library syntax descriptions in Chapter 3, we have only given the basic names of the functions. For example **gadd**(*x*, *y*) assumes that *x* and *y* are **GEN**s, and *creates* the result *x*+*y* on the PARI stack. For most of the basic operators and functions, many other variants are available. We give some examples for **gadd**, but the same is true for all the basic operators, as well as for some simple common functions (a complete list is given in Chapter 6):

**GEN** **gaddgs**(**GEN** *x*, **long** *y*)

**GEN** **gaddsg**(**long** *x*, **GEN** *y*)

In the following one, *z* is a preexisting **GEN** and the result of the corresponding operation is put into *z*. The size of the PARI stack does not change:

**void** **gaddz**(**GEN** *x*, **GEN** *y*, **GEN** *z*)

(This last form is inefficient in general and deprecated outside of PARI kernel programming.) Low level kernel functions implement these operators for specialized arguments and are also available: Level 0 deals with operations at the word level (**longs** and **ulongs**), Level 1 with **t\_INT** and **t\_REAL** and Level 2 with the rest (modular arithmetic, polynomial arithmetic and linear algebra). Here are some examples of Level 1 functions:

**GEN** **addii**(**GEN** *x*, **GEN** *y*): here *x* and *y* are **GEN**s of type **t\_INT** (this is not checked).

**GEN** **addr**(**GEN** *x*, **GEN** *y*): here *x* and *y* are **GEN**s of type **t\_REAL** (this is not checked).

There also exist functions **addir**, **addri**, **mpadd** (whose two arguments can be of type **t\_INT** or **t\_REAL**), **addis** (to add a **t\_INT** and a **long**) and so on.

The Level 1 names are self-explanatory once you know that **i** stands for a **t\_INT**, **r** for a **t\_REAL**, **mp** for **i** or **r**, **s** for a signed C long integer, **u** for an unsigned C long integer; finally the suffix **z** means that the result is not created on the PARI stack but assigned to a preexisting **GEN** object passed as an extra argument. Chapter 6 gives a description of these low-level functions.

Level 2 names are more complicated, see Section 7.1 for all the gory details, and we content ourselves with a simple example used to implement `t_INTMOD` arithmetic:

`GEN Fp_add(GEN x, GEN y, GEN m)`: returns the sum of  $x$  and  $y$  modulo  $m$ . Here  $x, y, m$  are `t_INTs` (this is not checked). The operation is more efficient if the inputs  $x, y$  are reduced modulo  $m$ , but this is not a necessary condition.

**Important Note.** These specialized functions are of course more efficient than the generic ones, but note the hidden danger here: the types of the objects involved (which is not checked) must be severely controlled, e.g. using `addii` on a `t_FRAC` argument will cause disasters. Type mismatches may corrupt the PARI stack, though in most cases they will just immediately overflow the stack. Because of this, the PARI philosophy of giving a result which is as exact as possible, enforced for generic functions like `gadd` or `gmul`, is dropped in kernel routines of Level 1, where it is replaced by the much simpler rule: the result is a `t_INT` if and only if all arguments are integer types (`t_INT` but also `C long` and `ulong`) and a `t_REAL` otherwise. For instance, multiplying a `t_REAL` by a `t_INT` always yields a `t_REAL` if you use `mulir`, where `gmul` returns the `t_INT gen_0` if the integer is 0.

#### 4.2.5 Portability: 32-bit / 64-bit architectures.

PARI supports both 32-bit and 64-bit based machines, but not simultaneously! The library is compiled assuming a given architecture, and some of the header files you include (through `pari.h`) will have been modified to match the library.

Portable macros are defined to bypass most machine dependencies. If you want your programs to run identically on 32-bit and 64-bit machines, you have to use these, and not the corresponding numeric values, whenever the precise size of your `long` integers might matter. Here are the most important ones:

	64-bit	32-bit	
<code>BITS_IN_LONG</code>	64	32	
<code>LONG_IS_64BIT</code>	defined	undefined	
<code>DEFAULTPREC</code>	3	4	( $\approx 19$ decimal digits, see formula below)
<code>MEDDEFAULTPREC</code>	4	6	( $\approx 38$ decimal digits)
<code>BIGDEFAULTPREC</code>	5	8	( $\approx 57$ decimal digits)

For instance, suppose you call a transcendental function, such as

`GEN gexp(GEN x, long prec)`.

The last argument `prec` is an integer  $\geq 3$ , corresponding to the default floating point precision required. It is *only* used if `x` is an exact object, otherwise the relative precision is determined by the precision of `x`. Since the parameter `prec` sets the size of the inexact result counted in (`long`) *words* (including codewords), the same value of `prec` will yield different results on 32-bit and 64-bit machines. Real numbers have two codewords (see Section 4.5), so the formula for computing the bit accuracy is

$$\text{bit\_accuracy}(\text{prec}) = (\text{prec} - 2) * \text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}$$

(this is actually the definition of an inline function). The corresponding accuracy expressed in decimal digits would be

$$\text{bit\_accuracy}(\text{prec}) * \log(2) / \log(10).$$

For example if the value of `prec` is 5, the corresponding accuracy for 32-bit machines is  $(5 - 2) * \log(2^{32}) / \log(10) \approx 28$  decimal digits, while for 64-bit machines it is  $(5 - 2) * \log(2^{64}) / \log(10) \approx 57$  decimal digits.

Thus, you must take care to change the `prec` parameter you are supplying according to the bit size, either using the default precisions given by the various `DEFAULTPRECS`, or by using conditional constructs of the form:

```
#ifndef LONG_IS_64BIT
    prec = 4;
#else
    prec = 6;
#endif
```

which is in this case equivalent to the statement `prec = MEDDEFAULTPREC;`.

Note that for parity reasons, half the accuracies available on 32-bit architectures (the odd ones) have no precise equivalents on 64-bit machines.

**4.2.6 Using `malloc` / `free`.** You should make use of the PARI stack as much as possible, and avoid allocating objects using the customary functions. If you do, you should use, or at least have a very close look at, the following wrappers:

`void* pari_malloc(size_t size)` calls `malloc` to allocate `size` bytes and returns a pointer to the allocated memory. If the request fails, an error is raised. The `SIGINT` signal is blocked until `malloc` returns, to avoid leaving the system stack in an inconsistent state.

`void* pari_realloc(void* ptr, size_t size)` as `pari_malloc` but calls `realloc` instead of `malloc`.

`void* pari_calloc(size_t size)` as `pari_malloc`, setting the memory to zero.

`void pari_free(void* ptr)` calls `free` to liberate the memory space pointed to by `ptr`, which must have been allocated by `malloc` (`pari_malloc`) or `realloc` (`pari_realloc`). The `SIGINT` signal is blocked until `free` returns.

If you use the standard `libc` functions instead of our wrappers, then your functions will be subtly incompatible with the `gp` calculator: when the user tries to interrupt a computation, the calculator may crash (if a system call is interrupted at the wrong time).

## 4.3 Garbage collection.

### 4.3.1 Why and how.

As we have seen, `pari_init` allocates a big range of addresses, the *stack*, that are going to be used throughout. Recall that all PARI objects are pointers. Except for a few universal objects, they all point at some part of the stack.

The stack starts at the address `bot` and ends just before `top`. This means that the quantity

$$(\text{top} - \text{bot}) / \text{sizeof}(\text{long})$$

is (roughly) equal to the `size` argument of `pari_init`. The PARI stack also has a “current stack pointer” called `avma`, which stands for **a**vailab**l**e **m**emory **a**ddress. These three variables are global (declared by `pari.h`). They are of type `pari_sp`, which means *pari stack pointer*.

The stack is oriented upside-down: the more recent an object, the closer to `bot`. Accordingly, initially `avma = top`, and `avma` gets *decremented* as new objects are created. As its name indicates,

`avma` always points just *after* the first free address on the stack, and `(GEN)avma` is always (a pointer to) the latest created object. When `avma` reaches `bot`, the stack overflows, aborting all computations, and an error message is issued. To avoid this *you* need to clean up the stack from time to time, when intermediate objects are not needed anymore. This is called “*garbage collecting*.”

We are now going to describe briefly how this is done. We will see many concrete examples in the next subsection.

- First, PARI routines do their own garbage collecting, which means that whenever a documented function from the library returns, only its result(s) have been added to the stack, possibly up to a very small overhead (non-documented ones may not do this). In particular, a PARI function that does not return a `GEN` does not clutter the stack. Thus, if your computation is small enough (e.g. you call few PARI routines, or most of them return `long` integers), then you do not need to do any garbage collecting. This is probably the case in many of your subroutines. Of course the objects that were on the stack *before* the function call are left alone. Except for the ones listed below, PARI functions only collect their own garbage.

- It may happen that all objects that were created after a certain point can be deleted — for instance, if the final result you need is not a `GEN`, or if some search proved futile. Then, it is enough to record the value of `avma` just *before* the first garbage is created, and restore it upon exit:

```
pari_sp av = avma; /* record initial avma */
garbage ...
avma = av; /* restore it */
```

All objects created in the `garbage` zone will eventually be overwritten: they should no longer be accessed after `avma` has been restored.

- If you want to destroy (i.e. give back the memory occupied by) the *latest* PARI object on the stack (e.g. the latest one obtained from a function call), you can use the function

```
void cgiv(GEN z)
```

where `z` is the object you want to give back. This is equivalent to the above where the initial `av` is computed from `z`.

- Unfortunately life is not so simple, and sometimes you will want to give back accumulated garbage *during* a computation without losing recent data. We shall start with the lowest level function to get a feel for the underlying mechanisms, we shall describe simpler variants later:

`GEN gerepile(pari_sp ltop, pari_sp lbot, GEN q)`. This function cleans up the stack between `ltop` and `lbot`, where `lbot < ltop`, and returns the updated object `q`. This means:

1) we translate (copy) all the objects in the interval `[avma, lbot[`, so that its right extremity abuts the address `ltop`. Graphically

	bot		avma		lbot		ltop		top		
End of stack	-----[+++++[-/-/-/-/-/- ++++++]										Start
	free memory				garbage						

becomes:

	bot		avma		ltop		top	
End of stack	-----[+++++[+++++]							Start
	free memory							



where ++ denote significant objects, -- the unused part of the stack, and -/- the garbage we remove.

2) The function then inspects all the PARI objects between `avma` and `lbot` (i.e. the ones that we want to keep and that have been translated) and looks at every component of such an object which is not a codeword. Each such component is a pointer to an object whose address is either

- between `avma` and `lbot`, in which case it is suitably updated,
- larger than or equal to `ltop`, in which case it does not change, or
- between `lbot` and `ltop` in which case `gerepile` raises an error (“significant pointers lost in `gerepile`”).

3) `avma` is updated (we add `ltop - lbot` to the old value).

4) We return the (possibly updated) object `q`: if `q` initially pointed between `avma` and `lbot`, we return the updated address, as in 2). If not, the original address is still valid, and is returned!

As stated above, no component of the remaining objects (in particular `q`) should belong to the erased segment `[lbot, ltop[`, and this is checked within `gerepile`. But beware as well that the addresses of the objects in the translated zone change after a call to `gerepile`, so you must not access any pointer which previously pointed into the zone below `ltop`. If you need to recover more than one object, use the `gerepileall` function below.

**Remark.** As a consequence of the preceding explanation, if a PARI object is to be relocated by `gerepile` then, apart from universal objects, the chunks of memory used by its components should be in consecutive memory locations. All GENs created by documented PARI functions are guaranteed to satisfy this. This is because the `gerepile` function knows only about *two connected zones*: the garbage that is erased (between `lbot` and `ltop`) and the significant pointers that are copied and updated. If there is garbage interspersed with your objects, disaster occurs when we try to update them and consider the corresponding “pointers”. In most cases of course the said garbage is in fact a bunch of other GENs, in which case we simply waste time copying and updating them for nothing. But be wary when you allow objects to become disconnected.

In practice this is achieved by the following programming idiom:

```
ltop = avma; garbage(); lbot = avma; q = anything();
return gerepile(ltop, lbot, q); /* returns the updated q */
```

or directly

```
ltop = avma; garbage(); lbot = avma;
return gerepile(ltop, lbot, anything());
```

Beware that

```
ltop = avma; garbage();
return gerepile(ltop, avma, anything())
```

might work, but should be frowned upon. We cannot predict whether `avma` is evaluated after or before the call to `anything()`: it depends on the compiler. If we are out of luck, it is *after* the call, so the result belongs to the garbage zone and the `gerepile` statement becomes equivalent to `avma = ltop`. Thus we return a pointer to random garbage.

### 4.3.2 Variants.

GEN `gerepileupto(pari_sp ltop, GEN q)`. Cleans the stack between `ltop` and the *connected* object `q` and returns `q` updated. For this to work, `q` must have been created *before* all its components, otherwise they would belong to the garbage zone! Unless mentioned otherwise, documented PARI functions guarantee this.

GEN `gerepilecopy(pari_sp ltop, GEN x)`. Functionally equivalent to, but more efficient than  
`gerepileupto(ltop, gcopy(x))`

In this case, the GEN parameter `x` need not satisfy any property before the garbage collection: it may be disconnected, components created before the root, and so on. Of course, this is about twice slower than either `gerepileupto` or `gerepile`, because `x` has to be copied to a clean stack zone first. This function is a special case of `gerepileall` below, where  $n = 1$ .

void `gerepileall(pari_sp ltop, int n, ...)`. To cope with complicated cases where many objects have to be preserved. The routine expects  $n$  further arguments, which are the *addresses* of the GENs you want to preserve:

```
pari_sp ltop = avma;  
...; y = ...; ... x = ...; ...;  
gerepileall(ltop, 2, &x, &y);
```

It cleans up the most recent part of the stack (between `ltop` and `avma`), updating all the GENs added to the argument list. A copy is done just before the cleaning to preserve them, so they do not need to be connected before the call. With `gerepilecopy`, this is the most robust of the `gerepile` functions (the less prone to user error), hence the slowest.

void `gerepileallsp(pari_sp ltop, pari_sp lbot, int n, ...)`. More efficient, but trickier than `gerepileall`. Cleans the stack between `lbot` and `ltop` and updates the GENs pointed at by the elements of `gptr` without any further copying. This is subject to the same restrictions as `gerepile`, the only difference being that more than one address gets updated.

### 4.3.3 Examples.

#### 4.3.3.1 `gerepile`.

Let `x` and `y` be two preexisting PARI objects and suppose that we want to compute  $x^2 + y^2$ . This is done using the following program:

```
GEN x2 = gsqr(x);  
GEN y2 = gsqr(y), z = gadd(x2,y2);
```

The GEN `z` indeed points at the desired quantity. However, consider the stack: it contains as unnecessary garbage `x2` and `y2`. More precisely it contains (in this order) `z`, `y2`, `x2`. (Recall that, since the stack grows downward from the top, the most recent object comes first.)

It is not possible to get rid of `x2`, `y2` before `z` is computed, since they are used in the final operation. We cannot record `avma` before `x2` is computed and restore it later, since this would destroy `z` as well. It is not possible either to use the function `cgiv` since `x2` and `y2` are not at the bottom of the stack and we do not want to give back `z`.

But using `gerepile`, we can give back the memory locations corresponding to `x2`, `y2`, and move the object `z` upwards so that no space is lost. Specifically:

```
pari_sp ltop = avma; /* remember the current address of the top of the stack */
```

```

GEN x2 = gsqr(x);
GEN y2 = gsqr(y);
pari_sp lbot = avma; /* keep the address of the bottom of the garbage pile */
GEN z = gadd(x2, y2); /* z is now the last object on the stack */
z = gerepile(ltop, lbot, z);

```

Of course, the last two instructions could also have been written more simply:

```

z = gerepile(ltop, lbot, gadd(x2,y2));

```

In fact `gerepileupto` is even simpler to use, because the result of `gadd` is the last object on the stack and `gadd` is guaranteed to return an object suitable for `gerepileupto`:

```

ltop = avma;
z = gerepileupto(ltop, gadd(gsqr(x), gsqr(y)));

```

Make sure you understand exactly what has happened before you go on!

**Remark on assignments and `gerepile`.** When the tree structure and the size of the PARI objects which will appear in a computation are under control, one may allocate sufficiently large objects at the beginning, use assignment statements, then simply restore `avma`. Coming back to the above example, note that *if* we know that `x` and `y` are of type real fitting into `DEFAULTPREC` words, we can program without using `gerepile` at all:

```

z = cgetr(DEFAULTPREC); ltop = avma;
gaffect(gadd(gsqr(x), gsqr(y)), z);
avma = ltop;

```

This is often *slower* than a craftily used `gerepile` though, and certainly more cumbersome to use. As a rule, assignment statements should generally be avoided.

**Variations on a theme.** it is often necessary to do several `gerepiles` during a computation. However, the fewer the better. The only condition for `gerepile` to work is that the garbage be connected. If the computation can be arranged so that there is a minimal number of connected pieces of garbage, then it should be done that way.

For example suppose we want to write a function of two GEN variables `x` and `y` which creates the vector  $[x^2 + y, y^2 + x]$ . Without garbage collecting, one would write:

```

p1 = gsqr(x); p2 = gadd(p1, y);
p3 = gsqr(y); p4 = gadd(p3, x);
z = mkvec2(p2, p4); /* not suitable for gerepileupto! */

```

This leaves a dirty stack containing (in this order) `z`, `p4`, `p3`, `p2`, `p1`. The garbage here consists of `p1` and `p3`, which are separated by `p2`. But if we compute `p3` *before* `p2` then the garbage becomes connected, and we get the following program with garbage collecting:

```

ltop = avma; p1 = gsqr(x); p3 = gsqr(y);
lbot = avma; z = cgetg(3, t_VEC);
gel(z, 1) = gadd(p1,y);
gel(z, 2) = gadd(p3,x); z = gerepile(ltop,lbot,z);

```

Finishing by `z = gerepileupto(ltop, z)` would be ok as well. Beware that

```

ltop = avma; p1 = gadd(gsqr(x), y); p3 = gadd(gsqr(y), x);
z = cgetg(3, t_VEC);

```

```

gel(z, 1) = p1;
gel(z, 2) = p3; z = gerepileupto(ltop,z); /* WRONG */

```

is a disaster since `p1` and `p3` are created before `z`, so the call to `gerepileupto` overwrites them, leaving `gel(z, 1)` and `gel(z, 2)` pointing at random data! The following does work:

```

ltop = avma; p1 = gsqr(x); p3 = gsqr(y);
lbot = avma; z = mkvec2(gadd(p1,y), gadd(p3,x));
z = gerepile(ltop,lbot,z);

```

but is very subtly wrong in the sense that `z = gerepileupto(ltop, z)` would *not* work. The reason being that `mkvec2` creates the root `z` of the vector *after* its arguments have been evaluated, creating the components of `z` too early; `gerepile` does not care, but the created `z` is a time bomb which will explode on any later `gerepileupto`. On the other hand

```

ltop = avma; z = cgetg(3, t_VEC);
gel(z, 1) = gadd(gsqr(x), y);
gel(z, 2) = gadd(gsqr(y), x); z = gerepileupto(ltop,z); /* INEFFICIENT */

```

leaves the results of `gsqr(x)` and `gsqr(y)` on the stack (and lets `gerepileupto` update them for naught). Finally, the most elegant and efficient version (with respect to time and memory use) is as follows

```

z = cgetg(3, t_VEC);
ltop = avma; gel(z, 1) = gerepileupto(ltop, gadd(gsqr(x), y));
ltop = avma; gel(z, 2) = gerepileupto(ltop, gadd(gsqr(y), x));

```

which avoids updating the container `z` and cleans up its components individually, as soon as they are computed.

**One last example.** Let us compute the product of two complex numbers  $x$  and  $y$ , using the  $3M$  method which requires 3 multiplications instead of the obvious 4. Let  $z = x*y$ , and set  $x = x_r + i*x_i$  and similarly for  $y$  and  $z$ . We compute  $p_1 = x_r * y_r$ ,  $p_2 = x_i * y_i$ ,  $p_3 = (x_r + x_i) * (y_r + y_i)$ , and then we have  $z_r = p_1 - p_2$ ,  $z_i = p_3 - (p_1 + p_2)$ . The program is as follows:

```

ltop = avma;
p1 = gmul(gel(x,1), gel(y,1));
p2 = gmul(gel(x,2), gel(y,2));
p3 = gmul(gadd(gel(x,1), gel(x,2)), gadd(gel(y,1), gel(y,2)));
p4 = gadd(p1,p2);
lbot = avma; z = cgetg(3, t_COMPLEX);
gel(z, 1) = gsub(p1,p2);
gel(z, 2) = gsub(p3,p4); z = gerepile(ltop,lbot,z);

```

**Exercise.** Write a function which multiplies a matrix by a column vector. Hint: start with a `cgetg` of the result, and use `gerepile` whenever a coefficient of the result vector is computed. You can look at the answer in `src/basemath/RgV.c:RgM_RgC_mul()`.

#### 4.3.3.2 `gerepileall`.

Let us now see why we may need the `gerepileall` variants. Although it is not an infrequent occurrence, we do not give a specific example but a general one: suppose that we want to do a computation (usually inside a larger function) producing more than one PARI object as a result, say two for instance. Then even if we set up the work properly, before cleaning up we have a stack which has the desired results `z1`, `z2` (say), and then connected garbage from `lbot` to `ltop`. If we write

```
z1 = gerepile(ltop, lbot, z1);
```

then the stack is cleaned, the pointers fixed up, but we have lost the address of `z2`. This is where we need the `gerepileall` function:

```
gerepileall(ltop, 2, &z1, &z2)
```

copies `z1` and `z2` to new locations, cleans the stack from `ltop` to the old `avma`, and updates the pointers `z1` and `z2`. Here we do not assume anything about the stack: the garbage can be disconnected and `z1`, `z2` need not be at the bottom of the stack. If all of these assumptions are in fact satisfied, then we can call `gerepilemanysp` instead, which is usually faster since we do not need the initial copy (on the other hand, it is less cache friendly).

A most important usage is “random” garbage collection during loops whose size requirements we cannot (or do not bother to) control in advance:

```
pari_sp ltop = avma, limit = stack_lim(avma, 1);
GEN x, y;
while (...)
{
    garbage(); x = anything();
    garbage(); y = anything(); garbage();
    if (avma < limit) /* memory is running low (half spent since entry) */
        gerepileall(ltop, 2, &x, &y);
}
```

Here we assume that only `x` and `y` are needed from one iteration to the next. As it would be costly to call `gerepile` once for each iteration, we only do it when it seems to have become necessary. The macro `stack_lim(avma, n)` denotes an address where  $2^{n-1}/(2^{n-1}+1)$  of the remaining stack space is exhausted (1/2 for  $n = 1$ , 2/3 for  $n = 2$ ).

#### 4.3.4 Comments.

First, `gerepile` has turned out to be a flexible and fast garbage collector for number-theoretic computations, which compares favorably with more sophisticated methods used in other systems. Our benchmarks indicate that the price paid for using `gerepile` and `gerepile`-related copies, when properly used, is usually less than 1% of the total running time, which is quite acceptable!

Second, it is of course harder on the programmer, and quite error-prone if you do not stick to a consistent PARI programming style. If all seems lost, just use `gerepilecopy` (or `gerepileall`) to fix up the stack for you. You can always optimize later when you have sorted out exactly which routines are crucial and what objects need to be preserved and their usual sizes.

If you followed us this far, congratulations, and rejoice: the rest is much easier.

## 4.4 Creation of PARI objects, assignments, conversions.

**4.4.1 Creation of PARI objects.** The basic function which creates a PARI object is

`GEN cgetg(long l, long t)`  $l$  specifies the number of longwords to be allocated to the object, and  $t$  is the type of the object, in symbolic form (see Section 4.5 for the list of these). The precise effect of this function is as follows: it first creates on the PARI *stack* a chunk of memory of size `length` longwords, and saves the address of the chunk which it will in the end return. If the stack has been used up, a message to the effect that “the PARI stack overflows” is printed, and an error raised. Otherwise, it sets the type and length of the PARI object. In effect, it fills its first codeword (`z[0]`). Many PARI objects also have a second codeword (types `t_INT`, `t_REAL`, `t_PADIC`, `t_POL`, and `t_SER`). In case you want to produce one of those from scratch, which should be exceedingly rare, *it is your responsibility to fill this second codeword*, either explicitly (using the macros described in Section 4.5), or implicitly using an assignment statement (using `gaffect`).

Note that the length argument  $l$  is predetermined for a number of types: 3 for types `t_INTMOD`, `t_FRAC`, `t_COMPLEX`, `t_POLMOD`, `t_RFRAC`, 4 for type `t_QUAD` and `t_QFI`, and 5 for type `t_PADIC` and `t_QFR`. However for the sake of efficiency, `cgetg` does not check this: disasters will occur if you give an incorrect length for those types.

**Notes.** 1) The main use of this function is create efficiently a constant object, or to prepare for later assignments (see Section 4.4.3). Most of the time you will use `GEN` objects as they are created and returned by PARI functions. In this case you do not need to use `cgetg` to create space to hold them.

2) For the creation of leaves, i.e. `t_INT` or `t_REAL`,

```
GEN cgeti(long length)
```

```
GEN cgetr(long length)
```

should be used instead of `cgetg(length, t_INT)` and `cgetg(length, t_REAL)` respectively. Finally

```
GEN cgetc(long prec)
```

creates a `t_COMPLEX` whose real and imaginary part are `t_REALs` allocated by `cgetr(prec)`.

**Examples.** 1) Both `z = cgeti(DEFAULTPREC)` and `cgetg(DEFAULTPREC, t_INT)` create a `t_INT` whose “precision” is `bit_accuracy(DEFAULTPREC) = 64`. This means `z` can hold rational integers of absolute value less than  $2^{64}$ . Note that in both cases, the second codeword is *not* filled. Of course we could use numerical values, e.g. `cgeti(4)`, but this would have different meanings on different machines as `bit_accuracy(4)` equals 64 on 32-bit machines, but 128 on 64-bit machines.

2) The following creates a *complex number* whose real and imaginary parts can hold real numbers of precision `bit_accuracy(MEDDEFAULTPREC) = 96` bits:

```
z = cgetg(3, t_COMPLEX);
gel(z, 1) = cgetr(MEDDEFAULTPREC);
gel(z, 2) = cgetr(MEDDEFAULTPREC);
```

or simply `z = cgetc(MEDDEFAULTPREC)`.

3) To create a matrix object for  $4 \times 3$  matrices:

```
z = cgetg(4, t_MAT);
for(i=1; i<4; i++) gel(z, i) = cgetg(5, t_COL);
```

or simply `z = zeromatcopy(4, 3)`, which further initializes all entries to `gen_0`.

These last two examples illustrate the fact that since PARI types are recursive, all the branches of the tree must be created. The function `cgetg` creates only the “root”, and other calls to `cgetg` must be made to produce the whole tree. For matrices, a common mistake is to think that `z = cgetg(4, t_MAT)` (for example) creates the root of the matrix: one needs also to create the column vectors of the matrix (obviously, since we specified only one dimension in the first `cgetg`!). This is because a matrix is really just a row vector of column vectors (hence a priori not a basic type), but it has been given a special type number so that operations with matrices become possible.

Finally, to facilitate input of constant objects when speed is not paramount, there are four `varargs` functions:

`GEN mkintn(long n, ...)` returns the non-negative `t_INT` whose development in base  $2^{32}$  is given by the following `n` words (`unsigned long`). It is assumed that all such arguments are less than  $2^{32}$  (the actual `sizeof(long)` is irrelevant, the behavior is also as above on 64-bit machines).

```
mkintn(3, a2, a1, a0);
```

returns  $a_2 2^{64} + a_1 2^{32} + a_0$ .

`GEN mkpoln(long n, ...)` Returns the `t_POL` whose `n` coefficients (`GEN`) follow, in order of decreasing degree.

```
mkpoln(3, gen_1, gen_2, gen_0);
```

returns the polynomial  $X^2 + 2X$  (in variable 0, use `setvarn` if you want other variable numbers). Beware that `n` is the number of coefficients, hence *one more* than the degree.

`GEN mkvecn(long n, ...)` returns the `t_VEC` whose `n` coefficients (`GEN`) follow.

`GEN mkcoln(long n, ...)` returns the `t_COL` whose `n` coefficients (`GEN`) follow.

**Warning.** Contrary to the policy of general PARI functions, the latter three functions do *not* copy their arguments, nor do they produce an object a priori suitable for `gerepileupto`. For instance

```
/* gerepile-safe: components are universal objects */
z = mkvecn(3, gen_1, gen_0, gen_2);
/* not OK for gerepileupto: stoi(3) creates component before root */
z = mkvecn(3, stoi(3), gen_0, gen_2);
/* NO! First vector component x is destroyed */
x = gclone(gen_1);
z = mkvecn(3, x, gen_0, gen_2);
gclone(x);
```

The following function is also available as a special case of `mkintn`:

```
GEN uu32toi(ulong a, ulong b)
```

Returns the GEN equal to  $2^{32}a + b$ , *assuming* that  $a, b < 2^{32}$ . This does not depend on `sizeof(long)`: the behavior is as above on both 32 and 64-bit machines.

#### 4.4.2 Sizes.

`long gsizeword(GEN x)` returns the total number of BITS\_IN\_LONG-bit words occupied by the tree representing `x`.

`long gsizebyte(GEN x)` returns the total number of bytes occupied by the tree representing `x`, i.e. `gsizeword(x)` multiplied by `sizeof(long)`. This is normally useless since PARI functions use a number of *words* as input for lengths and precisions.

**4.4.3 Assignments.** Firstly, if `x` and `y` are both declared as GEN (i.e. pointers to something), the ordinary C assignment `y = x` makes perfect sense: we are just moving a pointer around. However, physically modifying either `x` or `y` (for instance, `x[1] = 0`) also changes the other one, which is usually not desirable.

**Very important note.** Using the functions described in this paragraph is inefficient and often awkward: one of the `gerepile` functions (see Section 4.3) should be preferred. See the paragraph end for one exception to this rule.

The general PARI assignment function is the function `gaffect` with the following syntax:

```
void gaffect(GEN x, GEN y)
```

Its effect is to assign the PARI object `x` into the *preexisting* object `y`. Both `x` and `y` must be *scalar* types. For convenience, vector or matrices of scalar types are also allowed.

This copies the whole structure of `x` into `y` so many conditions must be met for the assignment to be possible. For instance it is allowed to assign a `t_INT` into a `t_REAL`, but the converse is forbidden. For that, you must use the truncation or rounding function of your choice, e.g. `mpfloor`.

It can also happen that `y` is not large enough or does not have the proper tree structure to receive the object `x`. For instance, let `y` the zero integer with length equal to 2; then `y` is too small to accommodate any non-zero `t_INT`. In general common sense tells you what is possible, keeping in mind the PARI philosophy which says that if it makes sense it is valid. For instance, the assignment of an imprecise object into a precise one does *not* make sense. However, a change in precision of imprecise objects is allowed, even if it *increases* its accuracy: we complement the



“mantissa” with infinitely many 0 digits in this case. (Mantissa between quotes, because this is not restricted to `t_REALs`, it also applies for  $p$ -adics for instance.)

All functions ending in “z” such as **gaddz** (see Section 4.2.4) implicitly use this function. In fact what they exactly do is record **avma** (see Section 4.3), perform the required operation, **gaffect** the result to the last operand, then restore the initial **avma**.

You can assign ordinary C long integers into a PARI object (not necessarily of type `t_INT`) using

```
void gaffsg(long s, GEN y)
```

**Note.** Due to the requirements mentioned above, it is usually a bad idea to use **gaffect** statements. There is one exception: for simple objects (e.g. leaves) whose size is controlled, they can be easier to use than **gerepile**, and about as efficient.

**Coercion.** It is often useful to coerce an inexact object to a given precision. For instance at the beginning of a routine where precision can be kept to a minimum; otherwise the precision of the input is used in all subsequent computations, which is inefficient if the latter is known to thousands of digits. One may use the **gaffect** function for this, but it is easier and more efficient to call

`GEN gtotfp(GEN x, long prec)` converts the complex number  $x$  (`t_INT`, `t_REAL`, `t_FRAC`, `t_QUAD` or `t_COMPLEX`) to either a `t_REAL` or `t_COMPLEX` whose components are `t_REAL` of length `prec`.

**4.4.4 Copy.** It is also very useful to copy a PARI object, not just by moving around a pointer as in the  $y = x$  example, but by creating a copy of the whole tree structure, without pre-allocating a possibly complicated  $y$  to use with **gaffect**. The function which does this is called **gcopy**. Its syntax is:

```
GEN gcopy(GEN x)
```

and the effect is to create a new copy of  $x$  on the PARI stack.

Sometimes, on the contrary, a quick copy of the skeleton of  $x$  is enough, leaving pointers to the original data in  $x$  for the sake of speed instead of making a full recursive copy. Use `GEN shallowcopy(GEN x)` for this. Note that the result is not suitable for **gerepileupto** !

Make sure at this point that you understand the difference between  $y = x$ ,  $y = gcopy(x)$ ,  $y = shallowcopy(x)$  and **gaffect**( $x, y$ ).

**4.4.5 Clones.** Sometimes, it is more efficient to create a *persistent* copy of a PARI object. This is not created on the stack but on the heap, hence unaffected by **gerepile** and friends. The function which does this is called **gclone**. Its syntax is:

```
GEN gclone(GEN x)
```

A clone can be removed from the heap (thus destroyed) using

```
void gunclone(GEN x)
```

No PARI object should keep references to a clone which has been destroyed!

**4.4.6 Conversions.** The following functions convert C objects to PARI objects (creating them on the stack as usual):

GEN stoi(long s): C long integer (“small”) to t\_INT.

GEN dbltor(double s): C double to t\_REAL. The accuracy of the result is 19 decimal digits, i.e. a type t\_REAL of length DEFAULTPREC, although on 32-bit machines only 16 of them are significant.

We also have the converse functions:

long itos(GEN x): x must be of type t\_INT,

double rtodbl(GEN x): x must be of type t\_REAL,

as well as the more general ones:

long gtolong(GEN x),

double gtodouble(GEN x).

## 4.5 Implementation of the PARI types.

We now go through each type and explain its implementation. Let **z** be a GEN, pointing at a PARI object. In the following paragraphs, we will constantly mix two points of view: on the one hand, **z** is treated as the C pointer it is, on the other, as PARI’s handle on some mathematical entity, so we will shamelessly write  $z \neq 0$  to indicate that the *value* thus represented is nonzero (in which case the *pointer* **z** is certainly non-NULL). We offer no apologies for this style. In fact, you had better feel comfortable juggling both views simultaneously in your mind if you want to write correct PARI programs.

Common to all the types is the first codeword **z[0]**, which we do not have to worry about since this is taken care of by **cgetg**. Its precise structure depends on the machine you are using, but it always contains the following data: the *internal type number* associated to the symbolic type name, the *length* of the root in longwords, and a technical bit which indicates whether the object is a clone or not (see Section 4.4.5). This last one is used by **gp** for internal garbage collecting, you will not have to worry about it.

These data can be handled through the following *macros*:

long typ(GEN z) returns the type number of **z**.

void settyp(GEN z, long n) sets the type number of **z** to **n** (you should not have to use this function if you use **cgetg**).

long lg(GEN z) returns the length (in longwords) of the root of **z**.

long setlg(GEN z, long l) sets the length of **z** to **l** (you should not have to use this function if you use **cgetg**; however, see an advanced example in Section 4.9).

long isclone(GEN z) is **z** a clone?

void setisclone(GEN z) sets the *clone* bit.

void unsetisclone(GEN z) clears the *clone* bit.

**Remark.** The clone bit is there so that `gunclone` can check it is deleting an object which was allocated by `gclone`. Miscellaneous vector entries are often cloned by `gp` so that a GP statement like `v[1] = x` does not involve copying the whole of `v`: the component `v[1]` is deleted if its clone bit is set, and is replaced by a clone of `x`. Don't set/unset yourself the clone bit unless you know what you are doing: in particular *never* set the clone bit of a vector component when the said vector is scheduled to be uncloned. Hackish code may abuse the clone bit to tag objects for reasons unrelated to the above instead of using proper data structures. Don't do that.

These macros are written in such a way that you do not need to worry about type casts when using them: i.e. if `z` is a `GEN`, `typ(z[2])` is accepted by your compiler, as well as the more proper `typ(gel(z,2))`. Note that for the sake of efficiency, none of the codeword-handling macros check the types of their arguments even when there are stringent restrictions on their use.

Some types have a second codeword, used differently by each type, and we will describe it as we now consider each of them in turn.

**4.5.1 Type `t_INT (integer)`:** this type has a second codeword `z[1]` which contains the following information:

the sign of `z`: coded as 1, 0 or  $-1$  if  $z > 0$ ,  $z = 0$ ,  $z < 0$  respectively.

the *effective length* of `z`, i.e. the total number of significant longwords. This means the following: apart from the integer 0, every integer is “normalized”, meaning that the most significant mantissa longword is non-zero. However, the integer may have been created with a longer length. Hence the “length” which is in `z[0]` can be larger than the “effective length” which is in `z[1]`.

This information is handled using the following macros:

`long signe(GEN z)` returns the sign of `z`.

`void setsigne(GEN z, long s)` sets the sign of `z` to `s`.

`long lgefint(GEN z)` returns the effective length of `z`.

`void setlgefint(GEN z, long l)` sets the effective length of `z` to `l`.

The integer 0 can be recognized either by its sign being 0, or by its effective length being equal to 2. Now assume that  $z \neq 0$ , and let

$$|z| = \sum_{i=0}^n z_i B^i, \quad \text{where } z_n \neq 0 \text{ and } B = 2^{\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}}.$$

With these notations,  $n$  is `lgefint(z) - 3`, and the mantissa of `z` may be manipulated via the following interface:

`GEN int_MSW(GEN z)` returns a pointer to the most significant word of `z`,  $z_n$ .

`GEN int_LSW(GEN z)` returns a pointer to the least significant word of `z`,  $z_0$ .

`GEN int_W(GEN z, long i)` returns the  $i$ -th significant word of `z`,  $z_i$ . Accessing the  $i$ -th significant word for  $i > n$  yields unpredictable results.

`GEN int_W_lg(GEN z, long i, long lz)` returns the  $i$ -th significant word of `z`,  $z_i$ , assuming `lgefint(z)` is `lz` ( $= n + 3$ ). Accessing the  $i$ -th significant word for  $i > n$  yields unpredictable results.

`GEN int_precW(GEN z)` returns the previous (less significant) word of  $z$ ,  $z_{i-1}$  assuming  $z$  points to  $z_i$ .

`GEN int_nextW(GEN z)` returns the next (more significant) word of  $z$ ,  $z_{i+1}$  assuming  $z$  points to  $z_i$ .

Unnormalized integers, such that  $z_n$  is possibly 0, are explicitly forbidden. To enforce this, one may write an arbitrary mantissa then call

```
void int_normalize(GEN z, long known0)
```

normalizes in place a non-negative integer (such that  $z_n$  is possibly 0), assuming at least the first `known0` words are zero.

For instance a binary `and` could be implemented in the following way:

```
GEN AND(GEN x, GEN y) {
    long i, lx, ly, lout;
    long *xp, *yp, *outp; /* mantissa pointers */
    GEN out;

    if (!signe(x) || !signe(y)) return gen_0;
    lx = lgefint(x); xp = int_LSW(x);
    ly = lgefint(y); yp = int_LSW(y); lout = min(lx,ly); /* > 2 */
    out = cgeti(lout); out[1] = evalsigne(1) | evallgefint(lout);
    outp = int_LSW(out);
    for (i=2; i < lout; i++)
    {
        *outp = (*xp) & (*yp);
        outp = int_nextW(outp);
        xp = int_nextW(xp);
        yp = int_nextW(yp);
    }
    if ( !int_MSW(out) ) out = int_normalize(out, 1);
    return out;
}
```

This low-level interface is mandatory in order to write portable code since PARI can be compiled using various multiprecision kernels, for instance the native one or GNU MP, with incompatible internal structures (for one thing, the mantissa is oriented in different directions).

The following further functions are available:

`int mpodd(GEN x)` which is 1 if  $x$  is odd, and 0 otherwise.

`long mod2(GEN x)`

`long mod4(GEN x)`

`long mod8(GEN x)`

`long mod16(GEN x)`

`long mod32(GEN x)`

`long mod64(GEN x)` give the residue class of  $x$  modulo the corresponding power of 2, for *positive*  $x$ . By definition,  $\text{mod}n(x) := \text{mod}n(|x|)$  for  $x < 0$  (the functions disregard the sign), and the result is undefined if  $x = 0$ . As well,

`ulong mod2BIL(GEN x)` returns the least significant word of  $|x|$ , still assuming that  $x \neq 0$ .

These functions directly access the binary data and are thus much faster than the generic modulo functions. Besides, they return long integers instead of GENs, so they do not clutter up the stack.

**4.5.2 Type `t_REAL` (real number):** this type has a second codeword `z[1]` which also encodes its sign, obtained or set using the same functions as for a `t_INT`, and a binary exponent. This exponent is handled using the following macros:

`long expo(GEN z)` returns the exponent of  $z$ . This is defined even when  $z$  is equal to zero, see Section ??.

`void setexpo(GEN z, long e)` sets the exponent of  $z$  to  $e$ .

Note the functions:

`long gexpo(GEN z)` which tries to return an exponent for  $z$ , even if  $z$  is not a real number.

`long gsigne(GEN z)` which returns a sign for  $z$ , even when  $z$  is neither real nor integer (a rational number for instance).

The real zero is characterized by having its sign equal to 0. If  $z$  is not equal to 0, then  $z$  is represented as  $2^e M$ , where  $e$  is the exponent, and  $M \in [1, 2[$  is the mantissa of  $z$ , whose digits are stored in `z[2], ..., z[lg(z) - 1]`.

More precisely, let  $m$  be the integer `(z[2], ..., z[lg(z)-1])` in base  $2^{\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}}$ ; here, `z[2]` is the most significant longword and is normalized, i.e. its most significant bit is 1. Then we have  $M := m / 2^{\text{bit\_accuracy}(\lg(z)) - 1 - \text{expo}(z)}$ .

`GEN mantissa_real(GEN z, long *e)` returns the mantissa  $m$  of  $z$ , and sets  $*e$  to the exponent  $\text{bit\_accuracy}(\lg(z)) - 1 - \text{expo}(z)$ , so that  $z = m / 2^e$ .

Thus, the real number 3.5 to accuracy  $\text{bit\_accuracy}(\lg(z))$  is represented as `z[0]` (encoding `type = t_REAL, lg(z)`), `z[1]` (encoding `sign = 1, expo = 1`), `z[2] = 0xe0000000`, `z[3] = ... = z[lg(z) - 1] = 0x0`.

**4.5.3 Type `t_INTMOD`:** `z[1]` points to the modulus, and `z[2]` at the number representing the class  $z$ . Both are separate GEN objects, and both must be `t_INTs`, satisfying the inequality  $0 \leq z[2] < z[1]$ .

**4.5.4 Type `t_FRAC` (rational number):** `z[1]` points to the numerator  $n$ , and `z[2]` to the denominator  $d$ . Both must be of type `t_INT` such that  $n \neq 0$ ,  $d > 0$  and  $(n, d) = 1$ .

#### 4.5.5 Type `t_FFELT` (finite field element).: (Experimental)

Components of this type should normally not be accessed directly. Instead, finite field elements should be created using `ffgen`.

The second codeword `z[1]` determines the storage format of the element, among

- `t_FF_FpXq`: `A=z[2]` and `T=z[3]` are `FpX`, `p=z[4]` is a `t_INT`, where  $p$  is a prime number,  $T$  is irreducible modulo  $p$ , and  $\deg A < \deg T$ . This represents the element  $A \pmod{T}$  in  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]/T$ .
- `t_FF_Flxq`: `A=z[2]` and `T=z[3]` are `Flx`, `l=z[4]` is a `t_INT`, where  $l$  is a prime number,  $T$  is irreducible modulo  $l$ , and  $\deg A < \deg T$ . This represents the element  $A \pmod{T}$  in  $\mathbf{F}_l[X]/T$ .
- `t_FF_F2xq`: `A=z[2]` and `T=z[3]` are `F2x`, `l=z[4]` is the `t_INT` 2,  $T$  is irreducible modulo 2, and  $\deg A < \deg T$ . This represents the element  $A \pmod{T}$  in  $\mathbf{F}_2[X]/T$ .

**4.5.6 Type `t_COMPLEX` (complex number).**: `z[1]` points to the real part, and `z[2]` to the imaginary part. The components `z[1]` and `z[2]` must be of type `t_INT`, `t_REAL` or `t_FRAC`. For historical reasons `t_INTMOD` and `t_PADIC` are also allowed (the latter for  $p = 2$  or congruent to 3 mod 4 only), but one should rather use the more general `t_POLMOD` construction.

**4.5.7 Type `t_PADIC` ( $p$ -adic numbers).**: this type has a second codeword `z[1]` which contains the following information: the  $p$ -adic precision (the exponent of  $p$  modulo which the  $p$ -adic unit corresponding to `z` is defined if `z` is not 0), i.e. one less than the number of significant  $p$ -adic digits, and the exponent of `z`. This information can be handled using the following functions:

`long precp(GEN z)` returns the  $p$ -adic precision of `z`.

`void setprecp(GEN z, long l)` sets the  $p$ -adic precision of `z` to `l`.

`long valp(GEN z)` returns the  $p$ -adic valuation of `z` (i.e. the exponent). This is defined even if `z` is equal to 0, see Section ??.

`void setvalp(GEN z, long e)` sets the  $p$ -adic valuation of `z` to `e`.

In addition to this codeword, `z[2]` points to the prime  $p$ , `z[3]` points to  $p^{\text{precp}(z)}$ , and `z[4]` points to `at_INT` representing the  $p$ -adic unit associated to `z` modulo `z[3]` (and to zero if `z` is zero). To summarize, if  $z \neq 0$ , we have the equality:

$$z = p^{\text{valp}(z)} * (z[4] + O(z[3])), \quad \text{where} \quad z[3] = O(p^{\text{precp}(z)}).$$

**4.5.8 Type `t_QUAD` (quadratic number).**: `z[1]` points to the canonical polynomial  $P$  defining the quadratic field (as output by `quadpoly`), `z[2]` to the “real part” and `z[3]` to the “imaginary part”. The latter are of type `t_INT`, `t_FRAC`, `t_INTMOD`, or `t_PADIC` and are to be taken as the coefficients of `z` with respect to the canonical basis  $(1, X)$  or  $\mathbf{Q}[X]/(P(X))$ , see Section ??. Exact complex numbers may be implemented as quadratics, but `t_COMPLEX` is in general more versatile (`t_REAL` components are allowed) and more efficient.

Operations involving a `t_QUAD` and `t_COMPLEX` are implemented by converting the `t_QUAD` to a `t_REAL` (or `t_COMPLEX` with `t_REAL` components) to the accuracy of the `t_COMPLEX`. As a consequence, operations between `t_QUAD` and *exact* `t_COMPLEX`s are not allowed.

**4.5.9 Type `t_POLMOD (polmod)`:** as for `t_INTMODs`, `z[1]` points to the modulus, and `z[2]` to a polynomial representing the class of `z`. Both must be of type `t_POL` in the same variable, satisfying the inequality  $\deg z[2] < \deg z[1]$ . However, `z[2]` is allowed to be a simplification of such a polynomial, e.g. a scalar. This is tricky considering the hierarchical structure of the variables; in particular, a polynomial in variable of *lesser* priority (see Section ??) than the modulus variable is valid, since it is considered as the constant term of a polynomial of degree 0 in the correct variable. On the other hand a variable of *greater* priority is not acceptable; see Section ?? for the problems which may arise.

**4.5.10 Type `t_POL (polynomial)`:** this type has a second codeword. It contains a “*sign*”: 0 if the polynomial is equal to 0, and 1 if not (see however the important remark below) and a *variable number* (e.g. 0 for  $x$ , 1 for  $y$ , etc. ...).

These data can be handled with the following macros: **signe** and **setsigne** as for `t_INT` and `t_REAL`,

`long varn(GEN z)` returns the variable number of the object `z`,

`void setvarn(GEN z, long v)` sets the variable number of `z` to `v`.

The variable numbers encode the relative priorities of variables as discussed in Section ?. We will give more details in Section 4.6. Note also the function `long gvar(GEN z)` which tries to return a variable number for `z`, even if `z` is not a polynomial or power series. The variable number of a scalar type is set by definition equal to `NO_VARIABLE`, which has lower priority than any other variable number.

The components `z[2]`, `z[3]`, ..., `z[lg(z)-1]` point to the coefficients of the polynomial *in ascending order*, with `z[2]` being the constant term and so on.

For an object of type `t_POL`, `leading_term`, `constant_term`, `degpol` return a pointer to the leading term (with respect to the main variable of course), constant term, and degree of the polynomial (with the convention  $\deg(0) = -1$ ). Applied to any other type, the result is unspecified. Note that no copy is made on the PARI stack so the returned value is not safe for a basic `gerepile` call. Note that  $\degpol(z) = \lg(z) - 3$ .

The leading term is not allowed to be an exact rational 0 (*unnormalized polynomial*), an exact non-rational 0 (like `Mod(0,2)`) is possible for constant polynomials, and an inexact 0 (like `0.E-28`) is always possible. (The reason for this is that an inexact 0 may not be actually 0, and gives information on how much cancellation occurred; and an exact non-rational 0 carries information about the base ring for the polynomial.) To ensure this, one uses

`GEN normalizpol(GEN x)` applied to an unnormalized `t_POL x` (with all coefficients correctly set except that `leading_term(x)` might be zero), normalizes `x` correctly in place and returns `x`. For internal use.

`long degree(GEN x)` returns the degree of `x` with respect to its main variable even when `x` is not a polynomial (a rational function for instance). By convention, the degree of 0 is  $-1$ .

**Important remark.** A zero polynomial can be characterized by the fact that its sign is 0. However, its length may be greater than 2, meaning that all the coefficients of the polynomial are equal to zero, but the leading term  $z[\lg(z)-1]$  is not an exact integer zero. More precisely, `gequal0(x)` is true for all coefficients  $x$  of the polynomial, and `isrationalzero(x)` is false for the leading coefficient. The same remark applies to `t_SERs`.

**4.5.11 Type `t_SER` (power series):** This type also has a second codeword, which encodes a “*sign*”, i.e. 0 if the power series is 0, and 1 if not, a *variable number* as for polynomials, and an *exponent*. This information can be handled with the following functions: **signe**, **setsigne**, **varn**, **setvarn** as for polynomials, and **valp**, **setvalp** for the exponent as for  $p$ -adic numbers. Beware: do *not* use **expo** and **setexpo** on power series.

The coefficients  $z[2], z[3], \dots, z[\lg(z)-1]$  point to the coefficients of  $z$  in ascending order. As for polynomials (see remark there), the sign of a `t_SER` is 0 if and only all its coefficients are equal to 0. (The leading coefficient cannot be an integer 0.)

Note that the exponent of a power series can be negative, i.e. we are then dealing with a Laurent series (with a finite number of negative terms).

**4.5.12 Type `t_RFRAC` (rational function):**  $z[1]$  points to the numerator  $n$ , and  $z[2]$  on the denominator  $d$ . The denominator must be of type `t_POL`, with variable of higher priority than the numerator. The numerator  $n$  is not an exact 0 and  $(n, d) = 1$  (see `gred_rfac2`).

**4.5.13 Type `t_QFR` (indefinite binary quadratic form):**  $z[1], z[2], z[3]$  point to the three coefficients of the form and are of type `t_INT`.  $z[4]$  is Shanks’s distance function, and must be of type `t_REAL`.

**4.5.14 Type `t_QFI` (definite binary quadratic form):**  $z[1], z[2], z[3]$  point to the three coefficients of the form. All three are of type `t_INT`.

**4.5.15 Type `t_VEC` and `t_COL` (vector):**  $z[1], z[2], \dots, z[\lg(z)-1]$  point to the components of the vector.

**4.5.16 Type `t_MAT` (matrix):**  $z[1], z[2], \dots, z[\lg(z)-1]$  point to the column vectors of  $z$ , i.e. they must be of type `t_COL` and of the same length.

**4.5.17 Type `t_VECSMALL` (vector of small integers):**  $z[1], z[2], \dots, z[\lg(z)-1]$  are ordinary signed long integers. This type is used instead of a `t_VEC` of `t_INTs` for efficiency reasons, for instance to implement efficiently permutations, polynomial arithmetic and linear algebra over small finite fields, etc.

**4.5.18 Type `t_STR` (character string):**

`char * GSTR(z) (= (z+1))` points to the first character of the (NULL-terminated) string.

**4.5.19 Type `t_CLOSURE` (closure):** This type hold GP functions and closures, in compiled form. It is useless in library mode and subject to change each time the GP language evolves. Hence we do not describe it here and refer to the Developer’s Guide.

**4.5.20 Type `t_LIST` (list):** this type was introduced for specific `gp` use and is rather inefficient compared to a straightforward linked list implementation (it requires more memory, as well as many unnecessary copies). Hence we do not describe it here and refer to the Developer’s Guide.



**Implementation note.** For the types including an exponent (or a valuation), we actually store a biased non-negative exponent (bit-ORing the biased exponent to the codeword), obtained by adding a constant to the true exponent: either `HIGHEXPBIT` (for `t_REAL`) or `HIGHVALPBIT` (for `t_PADIC` and `t_SER`). Of course, this is encapsulated by the exponent/valuation-handling macros and needs not concern the library user.

## 4.6 PARI variables.

### 4.6.1 Multivariate objects.

We now consider variables and formal computations, and give the technical details corresponding to the general discussion in Section ???. As we have seen in Section 4.5, the codewords for types `t_POL` and `t_SER` encode a “variable number”. This is an integer, ranging from 0 to `MAXVARN`. Relative priorities may be ascertained using

```
int varncmp(long v, long w)
```

which is  $> 0$ ,  $= 0$ ,  $< 0$  whenever  $v$  has lower, resp. same, resp. higher priority than  $w$ .

The way an object is considered in formal computations depends entirely on its “principal variable number” which is given by the function

```
long gvar(GEN z)
```

which returns a variable number for  $z$ , even if  $z$  is not a polynomial or power series. The variable number of a scalar type is set by definition equal to `NO_VARIABLE` which has lower priority than any valid variable number. The variable number of a recursive type which is not a polynomial or power series is the variable number with highest priority among its components. But for polynomials and power series only the “outermost” number counts (we directly access `varn(x)` in the codewords): the representation is not symmetrical at all.

Under `gp`, one needs not worry too much since the interpreter defines the variables as it sees them\* and do the right thing with the polynomials produced (however, have a look at the remark in Section ??).

But in library mode, they are tricky objects if you intend to build polynomials yourself (and not just let PARI functions produce them, which is less efficient). For instance, it does not make sense to have a variable number occur in the components of a polynomial whose main variable has a lower priority, even though PARI cannot prevent you from doing it; see Section ?? for a discussion of possible problems in a similar situation.

---

\* The first time a given identifier is read by the GP parser a new variable is created, and it is assigned a strictly lower priority than any variable in use at this point. On startup, before any user input has taken place, ‘x’ is defined in this way and has initially maximal priority (and variable number 0).

**4.6.2 Creating variables.** A basic difficulty is to “create” a variable. Some initializations are needed before you can use a given integer  $v$  as a variable number.

Initially, this is done for 0 (the variable  $x$  under `gp`), and `MAXVARN`, which is there to address the need for a “temporary” new variable in library mode and cannot be input under `gp`. No documented library function can create from scratch an object involving `MAXVARN` (of course, if the operands originally involve `MAXVARN`, the function abides). We call the latter type a “temporary variable”. The regular variables meant to be used in regular objects, are called “user variables”.

**4.6.2.1 User variables.:** When the program starts,  $x$  is the only user variable (number 0). To define new ones, use

`long fetch_user_var(char *s):` inspects the user variable whose name is the string pointed to by  $s$ , creating it if needed, and returns its variable number.

```
long v = fetch_user_var("y");
GEN gy = pol_x(v);
```

The function raises an exception if the name is already in use for an `installed` or built-in function, or an alias.

**Caveat.** You can use `gp_read_str` (see Section 4.7.1) to execute a GP command and create GP variables on the fly as needed:

```
GEN gy = gp_read_str("'y"); /* returns pol_x(v), for some v */
long v = varn(gy);
```

But please note the quote `'y` in the above. Using `gp_read_str("y")` might work, but is dangerous, especially when programming functions to be used under `gp`. The latter reads the value of  $y$ , as *currently* known by the `gp` interpreter, possibly creating it in the process. But if  $y$  has been modified by previous `gp` commands (e.g.  $y = 1$ ), then the value of `gy` is not what you expected it to be and corresponds instead to the current value of the `gp` variable (e.g. `gen.1`).

`GEN fetch_var_value(long v)` returns a shallow copy of the current value of the variable numbered  $v$ . Returns `NULL` if that variable number is unknown to the interpreter, e.g. it is a user variable. Note that this may not be the same as `pol_x(v)` if assignments have been performed in the interpreter.

**4.6.2.2 Temporary variables.:** `MAXVARN` is available, but is better left to PARI internal functions (some of which do not check that `MAXVARN` is free for them to use, which can be considered a bug). You can create more temporary variables using

```
long fetch_var()
```

This returns a variable number which is guaranteed to be unused by the library at the time you get it and as long as you do not delete it (we will see how to do that shortly). This has *higher* priority than any temporary variable produced so far (`MAXVARN` is assumed to be the first such). After the statement `v = fetch_var()`, you can use `pol_1(v)` and `pol_x(v)`. The variables created in this way have no identifier assigned to them though, and are printed as `#<number>`, except for `MAXVARN` which is printed as `#`. You can assign a name to a temporary variable, after creating it, by calling the function

```
void name_var(long n, char *s)
```

after which the output machinery will use the name  $s$  to represent the variable number  $n$ . The GP parser will *not* recognize it by that name, however, and calling this on a variable known to `gp`

raises an error. Temporary variables are meant to be used as free variables, and you should never assign values or functions to them as you would do with variables under `gp`. For that, you need a user variable.

All objects created by `fetch_var` are on the heap and not on the stack, thus they are not subject to standard garbage collecting (they are not destroyed by a `gerepile` or `avma = ltop` statement). When you do not need a variable number anymore, you can delete it using

```
long delete_var()
```

which deletes the *latest* temporary variable created and returns the variable number of the previous one (or simply returns 0 if you try, in vain, to delete `MAXVARN`). Of course you should make sure that the deleted variable does not appear anywhere in the objects you use later on. Here is an example:

```
long first = fetch_var();
long n1 = fetch_var();
long n2 = fetch_var(); /* prepare three variables for internal use */
...
/* delete all variables before leaving */
do { num = delete_var(); } while (num && num <= first);
```

The (dangerous) statement

```
while (delete_var()) /* empty */;
```

removes all temporary variables in use, except `MAXVARN` which cannot be deleted.

## 4.7 Input and output.

Two important aspects have not yet been explained which are specific to library mode: input and output of PARI objects.

### 4.7.1 Input.

For input, PARI provides a powerful high level function which enables you to input your objects as if you were under `gp`. In fact, it *is* essentially the GP syntactical parser, hence you can use it not only for input but for (most) computations that you can do under `gp`. It has the following syntax:

```
GEN gp_read_str(const char *s)
```

Note that `gp`'s metacommands are not recognized.

**Note.** The obsolete form

```
GEN readseq(char *t)
```

still exists for backward compatibility (assumes filtered input, without spaces or comments). Don't use it.

To read a GEN from a file, you can use the simpler interface

```
GEN gp_read_stream(FILE *file)
```

which reads a character string of arbitrary length from the stream `file` (up to the first complete expression sequence), applies `gp_read_str` to it, and returns the resulting GEN. This way, you do not have to worry about allocating buffers to hold the string. To interactively input an expression, use `gp_read_stream(stdin)`.

Finally, you can read in a whole file, as in GP's `read` statement

```
GEN gp_read_file(char *name)
```

As usual, the return value is that of the last non-empty expression evaluated. There is one technical exception: if `name` is a *binary* file (from `writebin`) containing more than one object, a `t_VEC` containing them all is returned. This is because binary objects bypass the parser, hence reading them has no useful side effect.

#### 4.7.2 Output to screen or file, output to string.

General output functions return nothing but print a character string as a side effect. Low level routines are available to write on PARI output stream `pari_outfile` (`stdout` by default):

`void pari_putc(char c):` write character `c` to the output stream.

`void pari_puts(char *s):` write `s` to the output stream.

`void pari_flush():` flush output stream; most streams are buffered by default, this command makes sure that all characters output so are actually written.

`void pari_printf(const char *fmt, ...):` the most versatile such function. `fmt` is a character string similar to the one `printf` uses. In there, `%` characters have a special meaning, and describe how to print the remaining operands. In addition to the standard format types (see the GP function `printf`), you can use the *length modifier* `P` (for PARI of course!) to specify that an argument is a GEN. For instance, the following are valid conversions for a GEN argument

<code>%Ps</code>	<i>convert to char* (will print an arbitrary GEN)</i>
<code>%P.10s</code>	<i>convert to char*, truncated to 10 chars</i>
<code>%P.2f</code>	<i>convert to floating point format with 2 decimals</i>
<code>%P4d</code>	<i>convert to integer, field width at least 4</i>

```
pari_printf("x[%d] = %Ps is not invertible!\n", i, gel(x,i));
```

Here `i` is an `int`, `x` a GEN which is not a leaf (presumably a vector, or a polynomial) and this would insert the value of its *i*-th GEN component: `gel(x,i)`.

Simple but useful variants to `pari_printf` are

`void output(GEN x)` prints `x` in raw format, followed by a newline and a buffer flush. This is more or less equivalent to

```
pari_printf("%Ps\n", x);
```

```
pari_flush();
```

`void outmat(GEN x)` as above except if  $x$  is a `t_MAT`, in which case a multi-line display is used to display the matrix. This is prettier for small dimensions, but quickly becomes unreadable and cannot be pasted and reused for input. If all entries of  $x$  are small integers, you may use the recursive features of `%Pd` and obtain the same (or better) effect with

```
pari_printf("%Pd\n", x);
pari_flush();
```

A variant like `%5Pd` would improve alignment by imposing 5 chars for each coefficient. Similarly if all entries are to be converted to floats, a format like `%5.1Pf` could be useful.

These functions write on (PARI's idea of) standard output, and must be used if you want your functions to interact nicely with `gp`. In most programs, this is not a concern and it is more flexible to write to an explicit `FILE*`, or to recover a character string:

`void pari_fprintf(FILE *file, const char *fmt, ...)` writes the remaining arguments to stream `file` according to the format specification `fmt`.

`char* pari_sprintf(const char *fmt, ...)` produces a string from the remaining arguments, according to the PARI format `fmt` (see `printf`). This is the `libpari` equivalent of `Strprintf`, and returns a `malloc`'ed string, which must be freed by the caller. Note that contrary to the analogous `sprintf` in the `libc` you do not provide a buffer (leading to all kinds of buffer overflow concerns); the function provided is actually closer to the GNU extension `asprintf`, although the latter has a different interface.

Simple variants of `pari_sprintf` convert a `GEN` to a `malloc`'ed ASCII string, which you must still `free` after use:

`char* GENTostr(GEN x)`, using the current default output format (`prettymat` by default).

`char* GENToTeXstr(GEN x)`, suitable for inclusion in a `TeX` file.

Note that we have `va_list` analogs of the functions of `printf` type seen so far:

```
void pari_vprintf(const char *fmt, va_list ap)
```

```
void pari_vfprintf(FILE *file, const char *fmt, va_list ap)
```

```
char* pari_vsprintf(const char *fmt, va_list ap)
```

### 4.7.3 Errors.

If you want your functions to issue error messages, you can use the general error handling routine `pari_err`. The basic syntax is

```
pari_err(talker, "error message");
```

This prints the corresponding error message and exit the program (in library mode; go back to the `gp` prompt otherwise). You can also use it in the more versatile guise

```
pari_err(talker, format, ...);
```

where `format` describes the format to use to write the remaining operands, as in the `pari_printf` function. For instance:

```
pari_err(talker, "x[%d] = %Ps is not invertible!", i, gel(x,i));
```

The simple syntax seen above is just a special case with a constant format and no remaining arguments. The general syntax is

```
void pari_err(numerr,...)
```

where `numerr` is a codeword which indicates what to do with the remaining arguments and what message to print. The list of valid keywords is in `language/errmessages.c` together with the basic corresponding message. For instance, `pari_err(typeer,"extgcd")` prints the message:

```
*** incorrect type in extgcd.
```

#### 4.7.4 Warnings.

To issue a warning, use

`void pari_warn(warnerr,...)` In that case, of course, we do *not* abort the computation, just print the requested message and go on. The basic example is

```
pari_warn(warner, "Strategy 1 failed. Trying strategy 2")
```

which is the exact equivalent of `pari_err(talker,...)` except that you certainly do not want to stop the program at this point, just inform the user that something important has occurred; in particular, this output would be suitably highlighted under `gp`, whereas a simple `printf` would not.

The valid *warning* keywords are `warner` (general), `warnprec` (increasing precision), `warnmem` (garbage collecting) and `warnfile` (error in file operation), used as follows:

```
pari_warn(warnprec, "bnfinit", newprec);
pari_warn(warnmem, "bnfinit");
pari_warn(warnfile, "close", "afile"); /* error when closing "afile" */
```

#### 4.7.5 Debugging output.

For debugging output, you can use the standard output functions, `output` and `pari_printf` mainly. Corresponding to the `gp` metacommand `\x`, you can also output the hexadecimal tree associated to an object:

`void dbgGEN(GEN x, long nb = -1)`, displays the recursive structure of `x`. If `nb = -1`, the full structure is printed, otherwise the leaves (non-recursive components) are truncated to `nb` words.

The function `output` is vital under debuggers, since none of them knows how to print PARI objects by default. Seasoned PARI developers add the following `gdb` macro to their `.gdbinit`:

```
define i
  call output((GEN)$arg0)
end
```

Typing `i x` at a breakpoint in `gdb` then prints the value of the `GEN x` (provided the optimizer has not put it into a register, but it is rarely a good idea to debug optimized code).

The global variables **DEBUGLEVEL** and **DEBUGMEM** (corresponding to the default **debug** and **debugmem**, see Section ??) are used throughout the PARI code to govern the amount of diagnostic and debugging output, depending on their values. You can use them to debug your own functions, especially if you `install` the latter under `gp` (see Section ??).

`void dbg_pari_heap(void)` print debugging statements about the PARI stack, heap, and number of variables used. Corresponds to `\s` under `gp`.

`void dbg_block()` Behave as if `DEBUGLEVEL = 0`, effectively blocking diagnostics linked to `DEBUGLEVEL`.

`void dbg_release()` Stop blocking diagnostics.

This pair is useful when your code uses high level functions like `bnfinit` which produce a lot of diagnostics even at low `DEBUGLEVELs`. You may want to brace the corresponding function calls with a `dbg_block()` and `dbg_release()` pair to suppress those.

#### 4.7.6 Timers and timing output.

To handle timings in a reentrant way, PARI defines a dedicated data type, `pari_timer`, together with the following methods:

`void timer_start(pari_timer *T)` start (or reset) a timer.

`long timer_delay(pari_timer *T)` returns the number of milliseconds elapsed since the timer was last reset. Resets the timer as a side effect.

`long timer_get(pari_timer *T)` returns the number of milliseconds elapsed since the timer was last reset. Does *not* reset the timer.

`long timer_printf(pari_timer *T, char *format,...)` This diagnostics function is equivalent to the following code

```
err_printf("Time ")
... prints remaining arguments according to format ...
err_printf(": %ld", timer_delay(T));
```

Resets the timer as a side effect.

They are used as follows:

```
pari_timer T;
timer_start(&T); /* initialize timer */
...
printf("Total time: %ldms\n", timer_delay(&T));
```

or

```
pari_timer T;
timer_start(&T);
for (i = 1; i < 10; i++) {
    ...
    timer_printf(&T, "for i = %ld (L[i] = %Ps)", i, gel(L,i));
}
```

The following functions provided the same functionality, in a non-reentrant way, and are now deprecated.

`long timer(void)`

`long timer2(void)`

`void msgtimer(const char *format, ...)`

The following function implements `gp`'s timer and should not be used in `libpari` programs:  
`long gettime(void)` equivalent to `timer_delay(T)` associated to a private timer `T`.

## 4.8 Iterators, Numerical integration, Sums, Products.

**4.8.1 Iterators.** Since it is easier to program directly simple loops in library mode, some GP iterators are mainly useful for GP programming. Here are the others:

- **fordiv** is a trivial iteration over a list produced by **divisors**.
- **forell** and **for subgroup** are currently not implemented as an iterator but as a procedure with callbacks.

`void forell(void *E, long fun(void*, GEN), GEN a, GEN b)` goes through the same curves as `forell(ell,a,b,)`, calling `fun(E, ell)` for each curves `ell`, stopping if `fun` returns a non-zero value.

`void for subgroup(void *E, long fun(void*, GEN), GEN G, GEN B)` goes through the same subgroups as `for subgroup(H = G, B,)`, calling `fun(E, H)` for each subgroup `H`, stopping if `fun` returns a non-zero value.

- **forprime**, for which we refer you to the next subsection.
- **forvec**, for which we provide a convenient iterator. To initialize the analog of `forvec(X = v, ..., flag)`, call

`GEN forvec_start(GEN v, long flag, GEN *D, GEN (**next)(GEN,GEN))` where `D` (state vector) and `next` (iterator function, depends on `flag` and the types of the bounds in `v[i]`) are set by the call. This returns the first element in the `forvec` sequence, or `NULL` if no such element exist. This is then used as follows:

```
GEN (*next)(GEN,GEN);
GEN D, X = forvec_start(x, flag, &D, &next);
while (X) {
    ...
    X = next(D, X);  \\ next element in the sequence, NULL if none left.
}
```

Note that the value of `X` must be used immediately or copied since the next call to the iterator destroys it (the relevant vector is updated in place). The iterator is working very hard to not use up PARI stack, and is more efficient when all lower bounds in the initialization vector `v` are integers. In that case, the cost is linear in the number of tuples enumerated, and you can expect to run over more than  $10^9$  tuples per minute. If speed is critical and you know that all integers involved are non-negative and going to remain less than  $2^{32}$  or  $2^{64}$ , write a simple direct backtracking algorithm using `C` longs.

### 4.8.2 Iterating over primes.

After `pari_init(size, maxprime)` is called, a “prime table” is initialized with the successive *differences* of primes up to (possibly just a little beyond) `maxprime`. The prime table occupies roughly `maxprime/log(maxprime)` bytes in memory, so be sensible when choosing `maxprime`; it is 500000 by default under `gp`. In any case, the implementation requires that `maxprime < 2BITS_IN_LONG - 2048`, whatever memory is available. If you need more primes, use `nextprime`.

Some convenience functions:

`ulong maxprime()` the largest prime computable using our prime table.



`void maxprime_check(ulong B)` raise an error if `maxprime()` is  $< B$ .

After the following initializations (the names *p* and *ptr* are arbitrary of course)

```
byteptr ptr = diffptr;
ulong p = 0;
```

calling the macro `NEXT_PRIME_VIADIFF(p, ptr)` repeatedly will assign the successive prime numbers to *p*. Overrunning the prime table boundary will raise the error `primer1`, which will just print the error message:

```
*** not enough precomputed primes
```

then abort the computation. The alternative macro `NEXT_PRIME_VIADIFF` operates in the same way, but will omit that check, and is slightly faster. It should be used in the following way:

```
byteptr ptr = diffptr;
ulong p = 0;

if (maxprime() < goal) pari_err(primer1, goal); /* not enough primes */
while (p <= goal) /* run through all primes up to goal */
{
    NEXT_PRIME_VIADIFF(p, ptr);
    ...
}
```

Here, we use the general error handling function `pari_err` (see Section 4.7.3), with the codeword `primer1`, raising the “not enough primes” error. This could be rewritten as

```
maxprime_check(goal);
while (p <= goal) /* run through all primes up to goal */
{
    NEXT_PRIME_VIADIFF(p, ptr);
    ...
}
```

but in that case, the error message is less helpful: it will not mention the largest needed prime.

`byteptr initprimes(ulong maxprime)` computes a prime table (of all prime differences for  $p < \text{maxp}$ ) on the fly. You may assign it to `diffptr` or to a similar variable of your own. Beware that before changing `diffptr`, you must free the (malloced) precomputed table first; and then all pointers into the old table will become invalid.

PARI currently guarantees that the first 6547 primes, up to and including 65557, are present in the table, even if you set `maxprime` to zero. in the `pari_init` call.

`ulong init_primepointer(ulong a, ulong p, byteptr *ptr)` assume *\*ptr* is inside of a `diffptr` containing the successive differences between primes, and *p* is the current prime (up to *\*ptr* excluded). Returns return the smallest prime  $\geq a$ , and update *ptr*.

### 4.8.3 Numerical analysis.

Numerical routines code a function (to be integrated, summed, zeroed, etc.) with two parameters named

```
void *E;
GEN (*eval)(void*, GEN)
```

The second is meant to contain all auxiliary data needed by your function. The first is such that `eval(x, E)` returns your function evaluated at `x`. For instance, one may code the family of functions  $f_t : x \rightarrow (x + t)^2$  via

```
GEN fun(void *t, GEN x) { return gsqr(gadd(x, (GEN)t)); }
```

One can then integrate  $f_1$  between  $a$  and  $b$  with the call

```
intnum((void*)stoi(1), &fun, a, b, NULL, prec);
```

Since you can set `E` to a pointer to any `struct` (typecast to `void*`) the above mechanism handles arbitrary functions. For simple functions without extra parameters, you may set `E = NULL` and ignore that argument in your function definition.

## 4.9 A complete program.

Now that the preliminaries are out of the way, the best way to learn how to use the library mode is to study a detailed example. We want to write a program which computes the gcd of two integers, together with the Bezout coefficients. We shall use the standard quadratic algorithm which is not optimal but is not too far from the one used in the PARI function **bezout**.

Let  $x, y$  two integers and initially  $\begin{pmatrix} s_x & s_y \\ t_x & t_y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ , so that

$$\begin{pmatrix} s_x & s_y \\ t_x & t_y \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}.$$

To apply the ordinary Euclidean algorithm to the right hand side, multiply the system from the left by  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -q \end{pmatrix}$ , with  $q = \text{floor}(x/y)$ . Iterate until  $y = 0$  in the right hand side, then the first line of the system reads

$$s_x x + s_y y = \gcd(x, y).$$

In practice, there is no need to update  $s_y$  and  $t_y$  since  $\gcd(x, y)$  and  $s_x$  are enough to recover  $s_y$ . The following program is now straightforward. A couple of new functions appear in there, whose description can be found in the technical reference manual in Chapter 5, but whose meaning should be clear from their name and the context.

This program can be found in `examples/extgcd.c` together with a proper `Makefile`. You may ignore the first comment

```
/*
GP;install("extgcd", "GG&&", "gcdex", "./libextgcd.so");
*/
```

which instruments the program so that `gp2c-run extgcd.c` can import the `extgcd()` routine into an instance of the `gp` interpreter (under the name `gcdex`). See the `gp2c` manual for details.

```

#include <pari/pari.h>
/*
GP;install("extgcd", "GG&&", "gcdex", "./libextgcd.so");
*/
/* return d = gcd(a,b), sets u, v such that au + bv = gcd(a,b) */
GEN
extgcd(GEN A, GEN B, GEN *U, GEN *V)
{
    pari_sp av = avma;
    GEN ux = gen_1, vx = gen_0, a = A, b = B;
    if (typ(a) != t_INT || typ(b) != t_INT) pari_err(typeer, "extgcd");
    if (signe(a) < 0) { a = negi(a); ux = negi(ux); }
    while (!gequal0(b))
    {
        GEN r, q = dvmdii(a, b, &r), v = vx;
        vx = subii(ux, mulii(q, vx));
        ux = v; a = b; b = r;
    }
    *U = ux;
    *V = diviexact( subii(a, mulii(A,ux)), B );
    gerepileall(av, 3, &a, U, V); return a;
}

int
main()
{
    GEN x, y, d, u, v;
    pari_init(1000000,2);
    printf("x = "); x = gp_read_stream(stdin);
    printf("y = "); y = gp_read_stream(stdin);
    d = extgcd(x, y, &u, &v);
    pari_printf("gcd = %Ps\nu = %Ps\nv = %Ps\n", d, u, v);
    pari_close();
    return 0;
}

```

For simplicity, the inner loop does not include any garbage collection, hence memory use is quadratic in the size of the inputs instead of linear. Here is a better version of that loop:

```

    pari_sp av = avma, lim = stack_lim(av,1);
    ...
    while (!gequal0(b))
    {
        GEN r, q = dvmdii(a, b, &r), v = vx;
        vx = subii(ux, mulii(q, vx));
        ux = v; a = b; b = r;
        if (low_stack(lim, stack_lim(av,1)))
            gerepileall(av, 4, &a, &b, &ux, &vx);
    }

```



## Chapter 5:

### Technical Reference Guide: the basics

In the following chapters, we describe all public low-level functions of the PARI library. These include specialized functions for handling all the PARI types. Simple higher level functions, such as arithmetic or transcendental functions, are described in Chapter 3 of the GP user's manual; we will eventually see more general or flexible versions in the chapters to come. A general introduction to the major concepts of PARI programming can be found in Chapter 4, which you should really read first.

We shall now study specialized functions, more efficient than the library wrappers, but sloppier on argument checking and damage control; besides speed, their main advantage is to give finer control about the inner workings of generic routines, offering more options to the programmer.

**Important advice.** Generic routines eventually call lower level functions. Optimize your algorithms first, not overhead and conversion costs between PARI routines. For generic operations, use generic routines first; do not waste time looking for the most specialized one available unless you identify a genuine bottleneck, or you need some special behavior the generic routine does not offer. The PARI source code is part of the documentation; look for inspiration there.

The type `long` denotes a `BITS_IN_LONG`-bit signed long integer (32 or 64 bits). The type `ulong` is defined as `unsigned long`. The word *stack* always refer to the PARI stack, allocated through an initial `pari_init` call. Refer to Chapters 1–2 and 4 for general background.

We shall often refer to the notion of *shallow* function, which means that some components of the result may point to components of the input, which is more efficient than a *deep* copy (full recursive copy of the object tree). Such outputs are not suitable for `gerepileupto` and particular care must be taken when garbage collecting objects which have been input to shallow functions: corresponding outputs also become invalid and should no longer be accessed.

#### 5.1 Initializing the library.

The following functions enable you to start using the PARI functions in a program, and cleanup without exiting the whole program.

##### 5.1.1 General purpose.

`void pari_init(size_t size, ulong maxprime)` initialize the library, with a stack of `size` bytes and a prime table up to the maximum of `maxprime` and  $2^{16}$ . Unless otherwise mentioned, no PARI function will function properly before such an initialization.

`void pari_close(void)` stop using the library (assuming it was initialized with `pari_init`) and frees all allocated objects.

### 5.1.2 Technical functions.

`void pari_init_opts(size_t size, ulong maxprime, ulong opts)` as `pari_init`, more flexible. `opts` is a mask of flags among the following:

`INIT_JMPm`: install PARI error handler. When an exception is raised, the program is terminated with `exit(1)`.

`INIT_SIGm`: install PARI signal handler.

`INIT_DFTm`: initialize the `GP_DATA` environment structure. This one *must* be enabled once. If you close pari, then restart it, you need not reinitialize `GP_DATA`; if you do not, then old values are restored.

`void pari_close_opts(ulong init_opts)` as `pari_close`, for a library initialized with a mask of options using `pari_init_opts`. `opts` is a mask of flags among

`INIT_SIGm`: restore `SIG_DFL` default action for signals tampered with by PARI signal handler.

`INIT_DFTm`: frees the `GP_DATA` environment structure.

`void pari_sig_init(void (*f)(int))` install the signal handler `f` (see `signal(2)`): the signals `SIGBUS`, `SIGFPE`, `SIGINT`, `SIGBREAK`, `SIGPIPE` and `SIGSEGV` are concerned.

`void pari_stackcheck_init(void *stackbase)` controls the system stack exhaustion checking code in the GP interpreter. This should be used when the system stack base address change or when the address seen by `pari_init` is too far from the base address. If `stackbase` is `NULL`, disable the check, else set the base address to `stackbase`. It is normally used this way

```
int thread_start (...)
{
    long first_item_on_the_stack;
    ...
    pari_stackcheck_init(&first_item_on_the_stack);
}
```

`int pari_daemon(void)` fork a PARI daemon, detaching from the main process group. The function returns 1 in the parent, and 0 in the forked son.

### 5.1.3 Notions specific to the GP interpreter.

An **entree** is the generic object associated to an identifier (a name) in GP's interpreter, be it a built-in or user function, or a variable. For a function, it has at least the following fields:

`char *name` : the name under which the interpreter knows us.

`void *value` : a pointer to the C function to call.

`long menu` : an integer from 1 to 11 (to which group of function help do we belong).

`char *code` : the prototype code.

`char *help` : the help text for the function.

A routine in GP is described to the analyzer by an **entree** structure. Built-in PARI routines are grouped in *modules*, which are arrays of **entree** structs, the last of which satisfy `name = NULL` (sentinel).

There are currently five modules in PARI/GP: general functions (`functions_basic`, known to `libpari`), gp-specific functions (`functions_gp`), gp-specific highlevel functions (`functions_highlevel`), and two modules of obsolete functions. The function `pari_init` initializes the interpreter and declares all symbols in `functions_basic`. You may declare further functions on a case by case basis or as a whole module using

`void pari_add_function(entree *ep)` adds a single routine to the table of symbols in the interpreter. It assumes `pari_init` has been called.

`void pari_add_module(entree *mod)` adds all the routines in module `mod` to the table of symbols in the interpreter. It assumes `pari_init` has been called.

For instance, `gp` implements a number of private routines, which it adds to the default set via the calls

```
pari_add_module(functions_gp);
pari_add_module(functions_highlevel);
```

`void pari_add_oldmodule(entree *mod)` adds all the routines in module `mod` to the table of symbols in the interpreter when running in "PARI 1.xx compatible" mode (see `default(compatible)`). It assumes that `pari_init` has been called.

A GP `default` is likewise associated to a helper routine, that is run when the value is consulted, or changed by `default0` or `setdefault`. Such routines are grouped into modules: `functions_default` containing all defaults that make sense in `libpari` context, `functions_gp_rl_default` containing defaults that are gp-specific and do not make sense unless we use `libreadline`, and `functions_gp_default` containing all other gp-specific defaults.

`void pari_add_defaults_module(entree *mod)` adds all the defaults in module `mod` to the interpreter. It assumes that `pari_init` has been called. From this point on, all defaults in module `mod` are known to `setdefault` and friends.

#### 5.1.4 Public callbacks.

The `gp` calculator associates elaborate functions (for instance the break loop handler) to the following callbacks, and so can you:

`void (*cb_pari_ask_confirm)(const char *s)` initialized to `NULL`. Called with argument `s` whenever PARI wants confirmation for action `s`, for instance in `secure` mode.

`extern int (*cb_pari_handle_exception)(long)` initialized to `NULL`. If not `NULL` called with argument `-1` on `SIGINT`, and argument `err` on error `err`. If it returns a non-zero value, the error or signal handler returns, in effect further ignoring the error or signal, otherwise it raises a fatal error.

`void (*cb_pari_sigint)(void)`. Function called when `SIGINT` is raised. By default, raises

```
pari_err(talker, "user interrupt");
```

`extern void (*cb_pari_err_recover)(long)` initialized to `pari_exit()`. This call-back must not return. This call-back is called after PARI has cleaned-up from an error. The error number is passed as argument, unless the PARI stack has been destroyed, in which case it is called with argument `-1`.

`int (*cb_pari_whatnow)(PariOUT *out, const char *s, int flag)` initialized to `NULL`. If not `NULL`, must check whether `s` existed in older versions of `pari` (the `gp` callback checks against `pari-1.39.15`). All output must be done via `out` methods.

- *flag* = 0: should print verbosely the answer, including help text if available.
- *flag* = 1: must return 0 if the function did not change, and a non-0 result otherwise. May print a help message.

### Utility function.

`void pari_ask_confirm(const char *s)` raise an error if the callback `cb_pari_ask_confirm` is NULL. Otherwise calls

```
cb_pari_ask_confirm(s);
```

### 5.1.5 Saving and restoring the GP context.

`void gp_context_save(struct gp_context* rec)` save the current GP context.

`void gp_context_restore(struct gp_context* rec)` restore a GP context. The new context must be an ancestor of the current context.

### 5.1.6 GP history.

These functions allow to control the GP history (the % operator).

`GEN pari_add_hist(GEN x)` adds *x* as the last history entry.

`GEN pari_get_hist(long p)`, if *p* > 0 returns entry of index *p* (i.e. %*p*), else returns entry of index *n* + *p* where *n* is the index of the last entry (used for %, %', %'', etc.).

`ulong pari_nb_hist(void)` return the index of the last entry.

## 5.2 Handling GENs.

Almost all these functions are either macros or inlined. Unless mentioned otherwise, they do not evaluate their arguments twice. Most of them are specific to a set of types, although no consistency checks are made: e.g. one may access the `sign` of a `t_PADIC`, but the result is meaningless.

### 5.2.1 Allocation.

`GEN cgetg(long l, long t)` allocates (the root of) a GEN of type *t* and length *l*. Sets *z*[0].

`GEN cgeti(long l)` allocates a `t_INT` of length *l* (including the 2 codewords). Sets *z*[0] only.

`GEN cgetr(long l)` allocates a `t_REAL` of length *l* (including the 2 codewords). Sets *z*[0] only.

`GEN cgetc(long prec)` allocates a `t_COMPLEX` whose real and imaginary parts are `t_REALs` of length *prec*.

`GEN cgetg_copy(GEN x, long *lx)` fast version of `cgetg`: allocate a GEN with the same type and length as *x*, setting *\*lx* to `lg(x)` as a side-effect. (Only sets the first codeword.) This is a little faster than `cgetg` since we may reuse the bitmask in *x*[0] instead of recomputing it, and we do not need to check that the length does not overflow the possibilities of the implementation (since an object with that length already exists). Note that `cgetg` with arguments known at compile time, as in

```
cgetg(3, t_INTMOD)
```

will be even faster since the compiler will directly perform all computations and checks.



`GEN vectrunc_init(long l)` perform `cgetg(1,t_VEC)`, then set the length to `l` and return the result. This is used to implement vectors whose final length is easily bounded at creation time, that we intend to fill gradually using:

`void vectrunc_append(GEN x, GEN y)` assuming  $x$  was allocated using `vectrunc_init`, appends  $y$  as the last element of  $x$ , which grows in the process. The function is shallow: we append  $y$ , not a copy; it is equivalent to

```
long lx = lg(x); gel(x, lx) = y; setlg(x, lx+1);
```

Beware that the maximal size of  $x$  (the  $l$  argument to `vectrunc_init`) is unknown, hence unchecked, and stack corruption will occur if we append more than  $l - 1$  elements to  $x$ . Use the safer (but slower) `shallowconcat` when  $l$  is not easy to bound in advance.

An other possibility is simply to allocate using `cgetg(1, t)` then fill the components as they become available: this time the downside is that we do not obtain a correct `GEN` until the vector is complete. Almost no PARI function will be able to operate on it.

`GEN vecsmalltrunc_init(long l)`

`void vecsmalltrunc_append(GEN x, long t)` analog to the above for a `t_VECSMALL` container.

### 5.2.2 Length conversions.

These routines convert a non-negative length to different units. Their behavior is undefined at negative integers.

`long ndec2nlong(long x)` converts a number of decimal digits to a number of words. Returns  $1 + \text{floor}(x \times \text{BITS\_IN\_LONG} \log_2 10)$ .

`long ndec2prec(long x)` converts a number of decimal digits to a number of codewords. This is equal to  $2 + \text{ndec2nlong}(x)$ .

`long prec2ndec(long x)` converts a number of of codewords to a number of decimal digits.

`long nbits2nlong(long x)` converts a number of bits to a number of words. Returns the smallest word count containing  $x$  bits, i.e  $\text{ceil}(x/\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG})$ .

`long nbits2prec(long x)` converts a number of bits to a number of codewords. This is equal to  $2 + \text{nbits2nlong}(x)$ .

`long nchar2nlong(long x)` converts a number of bytes to number of words. Returns the smallest word count containing  $x$  bytes, i.e  $\text{ceil}(x/\text{sizeof}(\text{long}))$ .

`long bit_accuracy(long x)` converts a `t_REAL` length into a number of significant bits. Returns  $(x - 2)\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}$ .

`double bit_accuracy_mul(long x, double y)` returns  $(x - 2)\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG} \times y$ .

### 5.2.3 Read type-dependent information.

`long typ(GEN x)` returns the type number of  $x$ . The header files included through `pari.h` define symbolic constants for the GEN types: `t_INT` etc. Never use their actual numerical values. E.g to determine whether  $x$  is a `t_INT`, simply check

```
if (typ(x) == t_INT) { }
```

The types are internally ordered and this simplifies the implementation of commutative binary operations (e.g addition, gcd). Avoid using the ordering directly, as it may change in the future; use type grouping functions instead (Section 5.2.6).

`const char* type_name(long t)` given a type number  $t$  this routine returns a string containing its symbolic name. E.g `type_name(t_INT)` returns `"t_INT"`. The return value is read-only.

`long lg(GEN x)` returns the length of  $x$  in `BITS_IN_LONG`-bit words.

`long lgefint(GEN x)` returns the effective length of the `t_INT`  $x$  in `BITS_IN_LONG`-bit words.

`long signe(GEN x)` returns the sign ( $-1$ ,  $0$  or  $1$ ) of  $x$ . Can be used for `t_INT`, `t_REAL`, `t_POL` and `t_SER` (for the last two types, only  $0$  or  $1$  are possible).

`long gsigne(GEN x)` returns the sign of a real number  $x$ , valid for `t_INT`, `t_REAL` as `signe`, but also for `t_FRAC`. Raise a type error if `typ(x)` is not among those three.

`long expi(GEN x)` returns the binary exponent of the real number equal to the `t_INT`  $x$ . This is a special case of `gexpo`.

`long expo(GEN x)` returns the binary exponent of the `t_REAL`  $x$ .

`long mpxpo(GEN x)` returns the binary exponent of the `t_INT` or `t_REAL`  $x$ .

`long gexpo(GEN x)` same as `expo`, but also valid when  $x$  is not a `t_REAL` (returns the largest exponent found among the components of  $x$ ). When  $x$  is an exact  $0$ , this returns `-HIGHEXPOBIT`, which is lower than any valid exponent.

`long valp(GEN x)` returns the  $p$ -adic valuation (for a `t_PADIC`) or  $X$ -adic valuation (for a `t_SER`, taken with respect to the main variable) of  $x$ .

`long precp(GEN x)` returns the precision of the `t_PADIC`  $x$ .

`long varn(GEN x)` returns the variable number of the `t_POL` or `t_SER`  $x$  (between  $0$  and `MAXVARN`).

`long gvar(GEN x)` returns the main variable number when any variable at all occurs in the composite object  $x$  (the smallest variable number which occurs), and `NO_VARIABLE` otherwise.

`long gvar2(GEN x)` returns the variable number for the ring over which  $x$  is defined, e.g. if  $x \in \mathbb{Z}[a][b]$  return (the variable number for)  $a$ . Return `NO_VARIABLE` if  $x$  has no variable or is not defined over a polynomial ring.

`long degpol(GEN x)` returns the degree of `t_POL`  $x$ , *assuming* its leading coefficient is non-zero (an exact  $0$  is impossible, but an inexact  $0$  is allowed). By convention the degree of an exact  $0$  polynomial is  $-1$ . If the leading coefficient of  $x$  is  $0$ , the result is undefined.

`long lgpol(GEN x)` is equal to `degpol(x) + 1`. Used to loop over the coefficients of a `t_POL` in the following situation:

```
GEN xd = x + 2;
long i, l = lgpol(x);
```

```
for (i = 0; i < l; i++) foo( xd[i] ).
```

**long precision**(GEN x) If x is of type `t_REAL`, returns the precision of x, namely the length of x in `BITS_IN_LONG`-bit words if x is not zero, and a reasonable quantity obtained from the exponent of x if x is numerically equal to zero. If x is of type `t_COMPLEX`, returns the minimum of the precisions of the real and imaginary part. Otherwise, returns 0 (which stands for infinite precision).

**long gprecision**(GEN x) as **precision** for scalars. Returns the lowest precision encountered among the components otherwise.

**long sizedigit**(GEN x) returns 0 if x is exactly 0. Otherwise, returns **gexpo**(x) multiplied by  $\log_{10}(2)$ . This gives a crude estimate for the maximal number of decimal digits of the components of x.

**5.2.4 Eval type-dependent information.** These routines convert type-dependent information to bitmask to fill the codewords of GEN objects (see Section 4.5). E.g for a `t_REAL` z:

```
z[1] = evalsigne(-1) | evalexpo(2)
```

Compatible components of a codeword for a given type can be OR-ed as above.

**ulong evaltyp**(long x) convert type x to bitmask (first codeword of all GENs)

**long evallg**(long x) convert length x to bitmask (first codeword of all GENs). Raise overflow error if x is so large that the corresponding length cannot be represented

**long \_evallg**(long x) as **evallg** *without* the overflow check.

**ulong evalvarn**(long x) convert variable number x to bitmask (second codeword of `t_POL` and `t_SER`)

**long evalsigne**(long x) convert sign x (in  $-1, 0, 1$ ) to bitmask (second codeword of `t_INT`, `t_REAL`, `t_POL`, `t_SER`)

**long evalprecp**(long x) convert  $p$ -adic ( $X$ -adic) precision x to bitmask (second codeword of `t_PADIC`, `t_SER`)

**long evalvalp**(long x) convert  $p$ -adic ( $X$ -adic) valuation x to bitmask (second codeword of `t_PADIC`, `t_SER`). Raise overflow error if x is so large that the corresponding valuation cannot be represented

**long \_evalvalp**(long x) same as **evalvalp** *without* the overflow check.

**long evalexpo**(long x) convert exponent x to bitmask (second codeword of `t_REAL`). Raise overflow error if x is so large that the corresponding exponent cannot be represented

**long \_evalexpo**(long x) same as **evalexpo** *without* the overflow check.

**long evallgefint**(long x) convert effective length x to bitmask (second codeword `t_INT`). This should be less or equal than the length of the `t_INT`, hence there is no overflow check for the effective length.

**5.2.5 Set type-dependent information.** Use these functions and macros with extreme care since usually the corresponding information is set otherwise, and the components and further codeword fields (which are left unchanged) may not be compatible with the new information.

`void settyp(GEN x, long s)` sets the type number of `x` to `s`.

`void setlg(GEN x, long s)` sets the length of `x` to `s`. This is an efficient way of truncating vectors, matrices or polynomials.

`void setlgefint(GEN x, long s)` sets the effective length of the `t_INT` `x` to `s`. The number `s` must be less than or equal to the length of `x`.

`void setsigne(GEN x, long s)` sets the sign of `x` to `s`. If `x` is a `t_INT` or `t_REAL`, `s` must be equal to  $-1$ ,  $0$  or  $1$ , and if `x` is a `t_POL` or `t_SER`, `s` must be equal to  $0$  or  $1$ . No sanity check is made; in particular, setting the sign of a  $0$  `t_INT` to  $\pm 1$  creates an invalid object.

`void togglesign(GEN x)` sets the sign `s` of `x` to  $-s$ , in place.

`void togglesign_safe(GEN *x)` sets the `s` sign of `*x` to  $-s$ , in place, unless `*x` is one of the integer universal constants in which case replace `*x` by its negation (e.g. replace `gen_1` by `gen_m1`).

`void setabssign(GEN x)` sets the sign `s` of `x` to  $|s|$ , in place.

`void affectsign(GEN x, GEN y)` shortcut for `setsigne(y, signe(x))`. No sanity check is made; in particular, setting the sign of a  $0$  `t_INT` to  $\pm 1$  creates an invalid object.

`void affectsign_safe(GEN x, GEN *y)` sets the sign of `*y` to that of `x`, in place, unless `*y` is one of the integer universal constants in which case replace `*y` by its negation if needed (e.g. replace `gen_1` by `gen_m1` if `x` is negative). No other sanity check is made; in particular, setting the sign of a  $0$  `t_INT` to  $\pm 1$  creates an invalid object.

`void normalize_frac(GEN z)` assuming `z` is of the form `mkfrac(a,b)` with  $b \neq 0$ , make sure that  $b > 0$  by changing the sign of `a` in place if needed (use `togglesign`).

`void setexpo(GEN x, long s)` sets the binary exponent of the `t_REAL` `x` to `s`. The value `s` must be a 24-bit signed number.

`void setvalp(GEN x, long s)` sets the  $p$ -adic or  $X$ -adic valuation of `x` to `s`, if `x` is a `t_PADIC` or a `t_SER`, respectively.

`void setprec(GEN x, long s)` sets the  $p$ -adic precision of the `t_PADIC` `x` to `s`.

`void setvarn(GEN x, long s)` sets the variable number of the `t_POL` or `t_SER` `x` to `s` (where  $0 \leq s \leq \text{MAXVARN}$ ).

**5.2.6 Type groups.** In the following functions, `t` denotes the type of a `GEN`. They used to be implemented as macros, which could evaluate their argument twice; *no longer*: it is not inefficient to write

```
is_intreal_t(typ(x))
```

`int is_recursive_t(long t)` true iff `t` is a recursive type (the non-recursive types are `t_INT`, `t_REAL`, `t_STR`, `t_VECSMALL`). Somewhat contrary to intuition, `t_LIST` is also non-recursive, ; see the Developer's guide for details.

`int is_intreal_t(long t)` true iff `t` is `t_INT` or `t_REAL`.

`int is_rational_t(long t)` true iff `t` is `t_INT` or `t_FRAC`.

`int is_vec_t(long t)` true iff `t` is `t_VEC` or `t_COL`.

`int is_matvec_t(long t)` true iff `t` is `t_MAT`, `t_VEC` or `t_COL`.

`int is_scalar_t(long t)` true iff `t` is a scalar, i.e. a `t_INT`, a `t_REAL`, a `t_INTMOD`, a `t_FRAC`, a `t_COMPLEX`, a `t_PADIC`, a `t_QUAD`, or a `t_POLMOD`.

`int is_extscalar_t(long t)` true iff `t` is a scalar (see `is_scalar_t`) or `t` is `t_POL`.

`int is_const_t(long t)` true iff `t` is a scalar which is not `t_POLMOD`.

`int is_noncalc_t(long t)` true if generic operations (`gadd`, `gmul`) do not make sense for `t` : corresponds to types `t_LIST`, `t_STR`, `t_VECSMALL`, `t_CLOSURE`

**5.2.7 Accessors and components.** The first two functions return GEN components as copies on the stack:

`GEN compo(GEN x, long n)` creates a copy of the `n`-th true component (i.e. not counting the codewords) of the object `x`.

`GEN truecoeff(GEN x, long n)` creates a copy of the coefficient of degree `n` of `x` if `x` is a scalar, `t_POL` or `t_SER`, and otherwise of the `n`-th component of `x`.

On the contrary, the following routines return the address of a GEN component. No copy is made on the stack:

`GEN constant_term(GEN x)` returns the address the constant term of `t_POL x`. By convention, a 0 polynomial (whose `sign` is 0) has `gen_0` constant term.

`GEN leading_term(GEN x)` returns the address the leading term of `t_POL x`. This may be an inexact 0.

`GEN gel(GEN x, long i)` returns the address of the `x[i]` entry of `x`. (`e1` stands for element.)

`GEN gcoeff(GEN x, long i, long j)` returns the address of the `x[i,j]` entry of `t_MAT x`, i.e. the coefficient at row `i` and column `j`.

`GEN gmael(GEN x, long i, long j)` returns the address of the `x[i][j]` entry of `x`. (`mael` stands for multidimensional array element.)

`GEN gmael2(GEN A, long x1, long x2)` is an alias for `gmael`. Similar macros `gmael3`, `gmael4`, `gmael5` are available.

## 5.3 Global numerical constants.

These are defined in the various public PARI headers.

### 5.3.1 Constants related to word size.

`long BITS_IN_LONG = 2TWOPOTBITS_IN_LONG`: number of bits in a `long` (32 or 64).

`long BITS_IN_HALFULONG`: `BITS_IN_LONG` divided by 2.

`long LONG_MAX`: the largest positive `long`.

`ulong ULONG_MAX`: the largest `ulong`.

`long DEFAULTPREC`: the length (`lg`) of a `t_REAL` with 64 bits of accuracy

`long MEDDEFAULTPREC`: the length (`lg`) of a `t_REAL` with 128 bits of accuracy

`long BIGDEFAULTPREC`: the length (`lg`) of a `t_REAL` with 192 bits of accuracy

`ulong HIGHBIT`: the largest power of 2 fitting in an `ulong`.

`ulong LOWMASK`: bitmask yielding the least significant bits.

`ulong HIGHMASK`: bitmask yielding the most significant bits.

The last two are used to implement the following convenience macros, returning half the bits of their operand:

`ulong LOWWORD(ulong a)` returns least significant bits.

`ulong HIGHWORD(ulong a)` returns most significant bits.

Finally

`long divsBIL(long n)` returns the Euclidean quotient of  $n$  by `BITS_IN_LONG` (with non-negative remainder).

`long remsBIL(n)` returns the (non-negative) Euclidean remainder of  $n$  by `BITS_IN_LONG`

`long dvmdsBIL(long n, long *r)`

`ulong dvmduBIL(ulong n, ulong *r)` sets  $r$  to `remsBIL(n)` and returns `divsBIL(n)`.

### 5.3.2 Masks used to implement the GEN type.

These constants are used by higher level macros, like `typ` or `lg`:

`EXP0numBITS`, `LGnumBITS`, `SIGNnumBITS`, `TYPnumBITS`, `VALPnumBITS`, `VARNnumBITS`: number of bits used to encode `expo`, `lg`, `signe`, `typ`, `valp`, `varn`.

`PRECPSHIFT`, `SIGNSHIFT`, `TYPSHIFT`, `VARNSHIFT`: shifts used to recover or encode `precp`, `varn`, `typ`, `signe`

`CLONEBIT`, `EXPOBITS`, `LGBITS`, `PRECPBITS`, `SIGNBITS`, `TYPBITS`, `VALPBITS`, `VARNBITS`: bitmasks used to extract `isclone`, `expo`, `lg`, `precp`, `signe`, `typ`, `valp`, `varn` from GEN codewords.

`MAXVARN`: the largest possible variable number.

`NO_VARIABLE`: sentinel returned by `gvar(x)` when  $x$  does not contain any polynomial; has a lower priority than any valid variable number.

`HIGHEXPBIT`: a power of 2, one more than the largest possible exponent for a `t_REAL`.

`HIGHVALPBIT`: a power of 2, one more than the largest possible valuation for a `t_PADIC` or a `t_SER`.

### 5.3.3 $\log 2$ , $\pi$ .

These are **double** approximations to useful constants:

LOG2:  $\log 2$ .

LOG10\_2:  $\log 2 / \log 10$ .

LOG2\_10:  $\log 10 / \log 2$ .

PI:  $\pi$ .

## 5.4 Handling the PARI stack.

### 5.4.1 Allocating memory on the stack.

GEN `cgetg(long n, long t)` allocates memory on the stack for an object of length `n` and type `t`, and initializes its first codeword.

GEN `cgeti(long n)` allocates memory on the stack for a `t_INT` of length `n`, and initializes its first codeword. Identical to `cgetg(n, t_INT)`.

GEN `cgetr(long n)` allocates memory on the stack for a `t_REAL` of length `n`, and initializes its first codeword. Identical to `cgetg(n, t_REAL)`.

GEN `cgetc(long n)` allocates memory on the stack for a `t_COMPLEX`, whose real and imaginary parts are `t_REALs` of length `n`.

GEN `cgetp(GEN x)` creates space sufficient to hold the `t_PADIC` `x`, and sets the prime  $p$  and the  $p$ -adic precision to those of `x`, but does not copy (the  $p$ -adic unit or zero representative and the modulus of) `x`.

GEN `new_chunk(size_t n)` allocates a GEN with  $n$  components, *without* filling the required code words. This is the low-level constructor underlying `cgetg`, which calls `new_chunk` then sets the first code word. It works by simply returning the address `((GEN)avma) - n`, after checking that it is larger than `(GEN)bot`.

`char* stackmalloc(size_t n)` allocates memory on the stack for  $n$  chars (*not*  $n$  GENs). This is faster than using `malloc`, and easier to use in most situations when temporary storage is needed. In particular there is no need to **free** individually all variables thus allocated: a simple `avma = oldavma` might be enough. On the other hand, beware that this is not permanent independent storage, but part of the stack.

Objects allocated through these last two functions cannot be **gerepile**'d, since they are not yet valid GENs: their codewords must be filled first.

GEN `cgetalloc(long t, size_t l)`, same as `cgetg(t, l)`, except that the result is allocated using `pari_malloc` instead of the PARI stack. The resulting GEN is now impervious to garbage collecting routines, but should be freed using `pari_free`.

### 5.4.2 Stack-independent binary objects.

`GENbin* copy_bin(GEN x)` copies  $x$  into a malloc'ed structure suitable for stack-independent binary transmission or storage. The object obtained is architecture independent provided, `sizeof(long)` remains the same on all PARI instances involved, as well as the multiprecision kernel (either native or GMP).

`GENbin* copy_bin_canon(GEN x)` as `copy_bin`, ensuring furthermore that the binary object is independent of the multiprecision kernel. Slower than `copy_bin`.

`GEN bin_copy(GENbin *p)` assuming  $p$  was created by `copy_bin(x)` (not necessarily by the same PARI instance: transmission or external storage may be involved), restores  $x$  on the PARI stack.

The routine `bin_copy` transparently encapsulate the following functions:

`GEN GENbinbase(GENbin *p)` the `GEN` data actually stored in  $p$ . All addresses are stored as offsets with respect to a common reference point, so the resulting `GEN` is unusable unless it is a non-recursive type; private low-level routines must be called first to restore absolute addresses.

`void shiftaddress(GEN x, long dec)` converts relative addresses to absolute ones.

`void shiftaddress_canon(GEN x, long dec)` converts relative addresses to absolute ones, and converts leaves from a canonical form to the one specific to the multiprecision kernel in use. The `GENbin` type stores whether leaves are stored in canonical form, so `bin_copy` can call the right variant.

**5.4.3 Garbage collection.** See Section 4.3 for a detailed explanation and many examples.

`void cgiv(GEN x)` frees object  $x$ , assuming it is the last created on the stack.

`GEN gerepile(pari_sp p, pari_sp q, GEN x)` general garbage collector for the stack.

`void gerepileall(pari_sp av, int n, ...)` cleans up the stack from  $av$  on (i.e from  $avma$  to  $av$ ), preserving the  $n$  objects which follow in the argument list (of type `GEN*`). For instance, `gerepileall(av, 2, &x, &y)` preserves  $x$  and  $y$ .

`void gerepileallsp(pari_sp av, pari_sp ltop, int n, ...)` cleans up the stack between  $av$  and  $ltop$ , updating the  $n$  elements which follow  $n$  in the argument list (of type `GEN*`). Check that the elements of  $g$  have no component between  $av$  and  $ltop$ , and assumes that no garbage is present between  $avma$  and  $ltop$ . Analogous to (but faster than) `gerepileall` otherwise.

`GEN gerepilecopy(pari_sp av, GEN x)` cleans up the stack from  $av$  on, preserving the object  $x$ . Special case of `gerepileall` (case  $n = 1$ ), except that the routine returns the preserved `GEN` instead of updating its address through a pointer.

`void gerepilemany(pari_sp av, GEN* g[], int n)` alternative interface to `gerepileall`. The preserved `GENs` are the elements of the array  $g$  of length  $n$ :  $g[0], g[1], \dots, g[n-1]$ . Obsolete: no more efficient than `gerepileall`, error-prone, and clumsy (need to declare an extra `GEN *g`).

`void gerepilemanysp(pari_sp av, pari_sp ltop, GEN* g[], int n)` alternative interface to `gerepileallsp`. Obsolete.

`void gerepilecoeffs(pari_sp av, GEN x, int n)` cleans up the stack from  $av$  on, preserving  $x[0], \dots, x[n-1]$  (which are `GENs`).

`void gerepilecoeffssp(pari_sp av, pari_sp ltop, GEN x, int n)` cleans up the stack from  $av$  to  $ltop$ , preserving  $x[0], \dots, x[n-1]$  (which are `GENs`). Same assumptions as in `gerepilemany`, of which this is a variant. For instance



```

z = cgetg(3, t_COMPLEX);
av = avma; garbage(); ltop = avma;
z[1] = fun1();
z[2] = fun2();
gerepilecoeffssp(av, ltop, z + 1, 2);
return z;

```

cleans up the garbage between `av` and `ltop`, and connects `z` and its two components. This is marginally more efficient than the standard

```

av = avma; garbage(); ltop = avma;
z = cgetg(3, t_COMPLEX);
z[1] = fun1();
z[2] = fun2(); return gerepile(av, ltop, z);

```

`GEN gerepileupto(pari_sp av, GEN q)` analogous to (but faster than) `gerepilecopy`. Assumes that `q` is connected and that its root was created before any component. If `q` is not on the stack, this is equivalent to `avma = av`; in particular, sentinels which are not even proper GENs such as `q = NULL` are allowed.

`GEN gerepileuptoint(pari_sp av, GEN q)` analogous to (but faster than) `gerepileupto`. Assumes further that `q` is a `t_INT`. The length and effective length of the resulting `t_INT` are equal.

`GEN gerepileuptoleaf(pari_sp av, GEN q)` analogous to (but faster than) `gerepileupto`. Assumes further that `q` is a leaf, i.e a non-recursive type (`is_recursive_t(typ(q))` is non-zero). Contrary to `gerepileuptoint` and `gerepileupto`, `gerepileuptoleaf` leaves length and effective length of a `t_INT` unchanged.

#### 5.4.4 Garbage collection : advanced use.

`void stackdummy(pari_sp av, pari_sp ltop)` inhibits the memory area between `av` *included* and `ltop` *excluded* with respect to `gerepile`, in order to avoid a call to `gerepile(av, ltop, ...)`. The stack space is not reclaimed though.

More precisely, this routine assumes that `av` is recorded earlier than `ltop`, then marks the specified stack segment as a non-recursive type of the correct length. Thus `gerepile` will not inspect the zone, at most copy it. To be used in the following situation:

```

av0 = avma; z = cgetg(t_VEC, 3);
gel(z,1) = HUGE(); av = avma; garbage(); ltop = avma;
gel(z,2) = HUGE(); stackdummy(av, ltop);

```

Compared to the orthodox

```

gel(z,2) = gerepile(av, ltop, gel(z,2));

```

or even more wasteful

```

z = gerepilecopy(av0, z);

```

we temporarily lose  $(av - ltop)$  words but save a costly `gerepile`. In principle, a garbage collection higher up the call chain should reclaim this later anyway.

Without the `stackdummy`, if the `[av, ltop]` zone is arbitrary (not even valid GENs as could happen after direct truncation via `setlg`), we would leave dangerous data in the middle of `z`, which would be a problem for a later

```
gerepile(..., ... , z);
```

And even if it were made of valid GENs, inhibiting the area makes sure `gerepile` will not inspect their components, saving time.

Another natural use in low-level routines is to “shorten” an existing GEN `z` to its first  $n - 1$  components:

```
setlg(z, n);
stackdummy((pari_sp)(z + lg(z)), (pari_sp)(z + n));
```

or to its last  $n$  components:

```
long L = lg(z) - n, tz = typ(z);
stackdummy((pari_sp)(z + L), (pari_sp)z);
z += L; z[0] = evaltyp(tz) | evallg(L);
```

The first scenario (safe shortening an existing GEN) is in fact so common, that we provide a function for this:

`void fixlg(GEN z, long ly)` a safe variant of `setlg(z, ly)`. If `ly` is larger than `lg(z)` do nothing. Otherwise, shorten `z` in place, using `stackdummy` to avoid later `gerepile` problems.

`GEN gcopy_avma(GEN x, pari_sp *AVMA)` return a copy of `x` as from `gcopy`, except that we pretend that initially `avma` is `*AVMA`, and that `*AVMA` is updated accordingly (so that the total size of `x` is the difference between the two successive values of `*AVMA`). It is not necessary for `*AVMA` to initially point on the stack: `gclone` is implemented using this mechanism.

`GEN icopy_avma(GEN x, pari_sp av)` analogous to `gcopy_avma` but simpler: assume `x` is a `t_INT` and return a copy allocated as if initially we had `avma` equal to `av`. There is no need to pass a pointer and update the value of the second argument: the new (fictitious) `avma` is just the return value (typecast to `pari_sp`).

#### 5.4.5 Debugging the PARI stack.

`int chk_gerepileupto(GEN x)` returns 1 if `x` is suitable for `gerepileupto`, and 0 otherwise. In the latter case, print a warning explaining the problem.

`void dbg_gerepile(pari_sp ltop)` outputs the list of all objects on the stack between `avma` and `ltop`, i.e. the ones that would be inspected in a call to `gerepile(..., ltop, ...)`.

`void dbg_gerepileupto(GEN q)` outputs the list of all objects on the stack that would be inspected in a call to `gerepileupto(..., q)`.

#### 5.4.6 Copies.

`GEN gcopy(GEN x)` creates a new copy of `x` on the stack.

`GEN gcopy_lg(GEN x, long l)` creates a new copy of `x` on the stack, pretending that `lg(x)` is `l`, which must be less than or equal to `lg(x)`. If equal, the function is equivalent to `gcopy(x)`.

`int isonstack(GEN x)` true iff `x` belongs to the stack.

`void copyifstack(GEN x, GEN y)` sets `y = gcopy(x)` if `x` belongs to the stack, and `y = x` otherwise. This macro evaluates its arguments once, contrary to

```
y = isonstack(x)? gcopy(x): x;
```

`void icopyifstack(GEN x, GEN y)` as `copyifstack` assuming `x` is a `t_INT`.

### 5.4.7 Simplify.

`GEN simplify(GEN x)` you should not need that function in library mode. One rather uses:

`GEN simplify_shallow(GEN x)` shallow, faster, version of `simplify`.

## 5.5 The PARI heap.

### 5.5.1 Introduction.

It is implemented as a doubly-linked list of `malloc`'ed blocks of memory, equipped with reference counts. Each block has type `GEN` but need not be a valid `GEN`: it is a chunk of data preceded by a hidden header (meaning that we allocate  $x$  and return  $x + \text{headersize}$ ). A *clone*, created by `gclone`, is a block which is a valid `GEN` and whose *clone bit* is set.

### 5.5.2 Public interface.

`GEN newblock(size_t n)` allocates a block of  $n$  words (not bytes).

`void killblock(GEN x)` deletes the block  $x$  created by `newblock`. Fatal error if  $x$  not a block.

`GEN gclone(GEN x)` creates a new permanent copy of  $x$  on the heap (allocated using `newblock`). The *clone bit* of the result is set.

`void gunclone(GEN x)` deletes a clone. In the current implementation, this is an alias for `killblock`, but it is cleaner to kill clones (valid `GENs`) using this function, and other blocks using `killblock`.

`void gunclone_deep(GEN x)` is only useful in the context of the GP interpreter which may replace arbitrary components of container types (`t_VEC`, `t_COL`, `t_MAT`, `t_LIST`) by clones. If  $x$  is such a container, the function recursively deletes all clones among the components of  $x$ , then unclones  $x$ . Useless in library mode: simply use `gunclone`.

`void traverseheap(void(*f)(GEN, void *), void *data)` this applies `f(x, data)` to each object  $x$  on the PARI heap, most recent first. Mostly for debugging purposes.

`GEN getheap()` a simple wrapper around `traverseheap`. Returns a two-component row vector giving the number of objects on the heap and the amount of memory they occupy in long words.

**5.5.3 Implementation note.** The hidden block header is manipulated using the following private functions:

`void* bl_base(GEN x)` returns the pointer that was actually allocated by `malloc` (can be freed).

`long bl_refc(GEN x)` the reference count of  $x$ : the number of pointers to this block. Decrement in `killblock`, incremented by the private function `void gclone_refc(GEN x)`; block is freed when the reference count reaches 0.

`long bl_num(GEN x)` the index of this block in the list of all blocks allocated so far (including freed blocks). Uniquely identifies a block until  $2^{\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}}$  blocks have been allocated and this wraps around.

`GEN bl_next(GEN x)` the block *after*  $x$  in the linked list of blocks (NULL if  $x$  is the last block allocated not yet killed).

`GEN bl_prev(GEN x)` the block allocated *before*  $x$  (never NULL).

We documented the last four routines as functions for clarity (and type checking) but they are actually macros yielding valid lvalues. It is allowed to write `bl_refc(x)++` for instance.

## 5.6 Handling user and temp variables.

Low-level implementation of user / temporary variables is liable to change. We describe it nevertheless for completeness. Currently variables are implemented by a single array of values divided in 3 zones: 0–`nvar` (user variables), `max_avail`–`MAXVARN` (temporary variables), and `nvar+1`–`max_avail-1` (pool of free variable numbers).

### 5.6.1 Low-level.

`void pari_var_init()`: a small part of `pari_init`. Resets variable counters `nvar` and `max_avail`, notwithstanding existing variables! In effect, this even deletes `x`. Don't use it.

`long pari_var_next()`: returns `nvar`, the number of the next user variable we can create.

`long pari_var_next_temp()` returns `max_avail`, the number of the next temp variable we can create.

`void pari_var_create(entree *ep)` low-level initialization of an EpVAR.

The obsolete function `long manage_var(long n, entree *ep)` is kept for backward compatibility only. Don't use it.

### 5.6.2 User variables.

`long fetch_user_var(char *s)` returns a user variable whose name is `s`, creating it is needed (and using an existing variable otherwise). Returns its variable number.

`entree* fetch_named_var(char *s)` as `fetch_user_var`, but returns an `entree*` suitable for inclusion in the interpreter hashlists of symbols, not a variable number. `fetch_user_var` is a trivial wrapper.

`GEN fetch_var_value(long v)` returns a shallow copy of the current value of the variable numbered `v`. Return NULL for a temporary variable.

`entree* is_entry(const char *s)` returns the `entree*` associated to an identifier `s` (variable or function), from the interpreter hashtables. Return NULL if the identifier is unknown.

### 5.6.3 Temporary variables.

`long fetch_var(void)` returns the number of a new temporary variable (decreasing `max_avail`).

`long delete_var(void)` delete latest temp variable created and return the number of previous one.

`void name_var(long n, char *s)` rename temporary variable number `n` to `s`; mostly useful for nicer printout. Error when trying to rename a user variable: use `fetch_named_var` to get a user variable of the right name in the first place.

## 5.7 Adding functions to PARI.

**5.7.1 Nota Bene.** As mentioned in the `COPYING` file, modified versions of the PARI package can be distributed under the conditions of the GNU General Public License. If you do modify PARI, however, it is certainly for a good reason, and we would like to know about it, so that everyone can benefit from your changes. There is then a good chance that your improvements are incorporated into the next release.

We classify changes to PARI into four rough classes, where changes of the first three types are almost certain to be accepted. The first type includes all improvements to the documentation, in a broad sense. This includes correcting typos or inaccuracies of course, but also items which are not really covered in this document, e.g. if you happen to write a tutorial, or pieces of code exemplifying fine points unduly omitted in the present manual.

The second type is to expand or modify the configuration routines and skeleton files (the `Configure` script and anything in the `config/` subdirectory) so that compilation is possible (or easier, or more efficient) on an operating system previously not catered for. This includes discovering and removing idiosyncrasies in the code that would hinder its portability.

The third type is to modify existing (mathematical) code, either to correct bugs, to add new functionality to existing functions, or to improve their efficiency.

Finally the last type is to add new functions to PARI. We explain here how to do this, so that in particular the new function can be called from `gp`.

**5.7.2 Coding guidelines.** Code your function in a file of its own, using as a guide other functions in the PARI sources. One important thing to remember is to clean the stack before exiting your main function, since otherwise successive calls to the function clutters the stack with unnecessary garbage, and stack overflow occurs sooner. Also, if it returns a `GEN` and you want it to be accessible to `gp`, you have to make sure this `GEN` is suitable for `gerepileupto` (see Section 4.3).

If error messages or warnings are to be generated in your function, use `pari_err` and `pari_warn` respectively. Recall that `pari_err` does not return but ends with a `longjmp` statement. As well, instead of explicit `printf` / `fprintf` statements, use the following encapsulated variants:

`void pari_putc(char c):` write character `c` to the output stream.

`void pari_puts(char *s):` write `s` to the output stream.

`void pari_printf(const char *fmt, ...):` write following arguments to the output stream, according to the conversion specifications in format `fmt` (see `printf`).

`void err_printf(char *s):` as `pari_printf`, writing to PARI's current error stream.

`void err_flush(void)` flush error stream.

Declare all public functions in an appropriate header file, if you want to access them from C. The other functions should be declared `static` in your file.

Your function is now ready to be used in library mode after compilation and creation of the library. If possible, compile it as a shared library (see the `Makefile` coming with the `extgcd` example in the distribution). It is however still inaccessible from `gp`.

**5.7.3 Interlude: parser codes.** A parser code is a character string describing all the GP parser needs to know about the function prototype. It contains a sequence of the following atoms:

- Return type: **GEN** by default (must be valid for **gerepileupto**), otherwise the following can appear as the *first* char of the code string:

i	return <b>int</b>
l	return <b>long</b>
v	return <b>void</b>
m	return <b>GEN</b> . Here it is allowed to directly return a component of the input (obviously not suitable for <b>gerepileupto</b> ). Used for member functions, to avoid costly copies.

- Mandatory arguments, appearing in the same order as the input arguments they describe:

G	<b>GEN</b>
&	<b>*GEN</b>
L	long (we implicitly typecast <b>int</b> to <b>long</b> )
V	loop variable
n	variable, expects a variable number (a <b>long</b> , not an <b>*entree</b> )
r	raw input (treated as a string without quotes). Quoted args are copied as strings Stops at first unquoted <b>'</b> or <b>,</b> . Special chars can be quoted using <b>'\'</b> Example: <b>aa"b\n)"c</b> yields the string <b>"aab\n)c"</b>
s	expanded string. Example: <b>Pi"x"2</b> yields <b>"3.142x2"</b> Unquoted components can be of any PARI type, converted to string following current output format
I	closure whose value is ignored, as in <b>for</b> loops, to be processed by <b>void closure_evalvoid(GEN C)</b>
E	closure whose value is used, as in <b>sum</b> loops, to be processed by <b>void closure_evalgen(GEN C)</b>

A *closure* is a GP function in compiled (bytecode) form. It can be efficiently evaluated using the **closure\_evalxxx** functions.

- Automatic arguments:

f	Fake <b>*long</b> . C function requires a pointer but we do not use the resulting <b>long</b>
p	real precision (default <b>realprecision</b> )
P	series precision (default <b>seriesprecision</b> , global variable <b>precd1</b> for the library)

- Syntax requirements, used by functions like **for**, **sum**, etc.:

=	separator = required at this point (between two arguments)
---	--

- Optional arguments and default values:

<b>s*</b>	any number of strings, possibly 0 (see <b>s</b> )
<b>Dxxx</b>	argument can be omitted and has a default value

The **s\*** code reads all remaining arguments in *string context* (see Section ??), and sends a (NULL-terminated) list of **GEN\*** pointing to these. The automatic concatenation rules in string context are implemented so that adjacent strings are read as different arguments, as if they had been comma-separated. For instance, if the remaining argument sequence is: **"xx" 1, "yy"**, the **s\*** atom sends a **GEN \*g = {&a, &b, &c, NULL}**, where *a*, *b*, *c* are GENs of type **t\_STR** (content **"xx"**), **t\_INT** (equal to 1) and **t\_STR** (content **"yy"**).

The format to indicate a default value (atom starts with a **D**) is **"Dvalue,type,"**, where *type* is the code for any mandatory atom (previous group), *value* is any valid GP expression which is converted according to *type*, and the ending comma is mandatory. For instance **D0,L,** stands for

“this optional argument is converted to a `long`, and is 0 by default”. So if the user-given argument reads `1 + 3` at this point, `4L` is sent to the function; and `0L` if the argument is omitted. The following special notations are available:

<code>DG</code>	optional <code>GEN</code> , send <code>NULL</code> if argument omitted.
<code>D&amp;</code>	optional <code>*GEN</code> , send <code>NULL</code> if argument omitted.
<code>Dr</code>	optional raw string, send <code>NULL</code> if argument omitted.
<code>Ds</code>	optional <code>char *</code> , send <code>NULL</code> if argument omitted.
<code>DV</code>	optional <code>*entree</code> , send <code>NULL</code> if argument omitted.
<code>DI</code>	optional closure, send <code>NULL</code> if argument omitted.
<code>Dn</code>	optional variable number, <code>-1</code> if omitted.

**Hardcoded limit.** C functions using more than 20 arguments are not supported. Use vectors if you really need that many parameters.

When the function is called under `gp`, the prototype is scanned and each time an atom corresponding to a mandatory argument is met, a user-given argument is read (`gp` outputs an error message if the argument was missing). Each time an optional atom is met, a default value is inserted if the user omits the argument. The “automatic” atoms fill in the argument list transparently, supplying the current value of the corresponding variable (or a dummy pointer).

For instance, here is how you would code the following prototypes, which do not involve default values:

```
GEN f(GEN x, GEN y, long prec)  ----> "GGp"
void f(GEN x, GEN y, long prec)  ----> "vGGp"
void f(GEN x, long y, long prec) ----> "vGLp"
long f(GEN x)                   ----> "lG"
int f(long x)                   ----> "iL"
```

If you want more examples, `gp` gives you easy access to the parser codes associated to all GP functions: just type `\h function`. You can then compare with the C prototypes as they stand in `paridecl.h`.

**Remark.** If you need to implement complicated control statements (probably for some improved summation functions), you need to know how the parser implements closures and lexicals and how the evaluator lets you deal with them, in particular the `push_lex` and `pop_lex` functions. Check their descriptions and adapt the source code in `language/sumiter.c` and `language/intnum.c`.

#### 5.7.4 Integration with `gp` as a shared module.

In this section we assume that your Operating System is supported by `install`. You have written a function in C following the guidelines in Section 5.7.2; in case the function returns a `GEN`, it must satisfy `gerepileupto` assumptions (see Section 4.3).

You then succeeded in building it as part of a shared library and want to finally tell `gp` about your function. First, find a name for it. It does not have to match the one used in library mode, but consistency is nice. It has to be a valid GP identifier, i.e. use only alphabetic characters, digits and the underscore character (`_`), the first character being alphabetic.

Then figure out the correct parser code corresponding to the function prototype (as explained in Section 5.7.3) and write a GP script like the following:

```
install(libname, code, gpname, library)
```

```
addhelp(gpname, "some help text")
```

(see Section ?? and ??). The `addhelp` part is not mandatory, but very useful if you want others to use your module. `libname` is how the function is named in the library, usually the same name as one visible from C.

Read that file from your `gp` session, for instance from your preferences file (Section ??), and that's it. You can now use the new function `gpname` under `gp`, and we would very much like to hear about it!

**Example.** A complete description could look like this:

```
{
  install(bnfinit0, "GD0,L,DGp", ClassGroupInit, "libpari.so");
  addhelp(ClassGroupInit, "ClassGroupInit(P,{flag=0},{data=[]}):
    compute the necessary data for ...");
}
```

which means we have a function `ClassGroupInit` under `gp`, which calls the library function `bnfinit0`. The function has one mandatory argument, and possibly two more (two 'D' in the code), plus the current real precision. More precisely, the first argument is a `GEN`, the second one is converted to a `long` using `itos` (0 is passed if it is omitted), and the third one is also a `GEN`, but we pass `NULL` if no argument was supplied by the user. This matches the C prototype (from `paridecl.h`):

```
GEN bnfinit0(GEN P, long flag, GEN data, long prec)
```

This function is in fact coded in `basemath/buch2.c`, and is in this case completely identical to the GP function `bnfinit` but `gp` does not need to know about this, only that it can be found somewhere in the shared library `libpari.so`.

**Important note.** You see in this example that it is the function's responsibility to correctly interpret its operands: `data = NULL` is interpreted *by the function* as an empty vector. Note that since `NULL` is never a valid `GEN` pointer, this trick always enables you to distinguish between a default value and actual input: the user could explicitly supply an empty vector!

### 5.7.5 Library interface for `install`.

There is a corresponding library interface for this `install` functionality, letting you expand the GP parser/evaluator available in the library with new functions from your C source code. Functions such as `gp_read_str` may then evaluate a GP expression sequence involving calls to these new function!

```
entree * install(void *f, char *gpname, char *code)
```

where `f` is the (address of the) function (cast to `void*`), `gpname` is the name by which you want to access your function from within your GP expressions, and `code` is as above.



### 5.7.6 Integration by patching gp.

If `install` is not available, and installing Linux or a BSD operating system is not an option (why?), you have to hardcode your function in the `gp` binary. Here is what needs to be done:

- Fetch the complete sources of the PARI distribution.
- Drop the function source code module in an appropriate directory (a priori `src/modules`), and declare all public functions in `src/headers/paridecl.h`.
- Choose a help section and add a file `src/functions/section/gpname` containing the following, keeping the notation above:

```
Function:  gpname
Section:   section
C-Name:    libname
Prototype: code
Help:      some help text
```

(If the help text does not fit on a single line, continuation lines must start by a whitespace character.) Two GP2C-related fields (`Description` and `Wrapper`) are also available to improve the code GP2C generates when compiling scripts involving your function. See the GP2C documentation for details.

- Launch `Configure`, which should pick up your C files and build an appropriate `Makefile`. At this point you can recompile `gp`, which will first rebuild the functions database.

**Example.** We reuse the `ClassGroupInit` / `bnfinit0` from the preceding section. Since the C source code is already part of PARI, we only need to add a file

```
functions/number_fields/ClassGroupInit
```

containing the following:

```
Function: ClassGroupInit
Section: number_fields
C-Name: bnfinit0
Prototype: GD0,L,DGp
Help: ClassGroupInit(P,{flag=0},{tech=[]}): this routine does ...
```

and recompile `gp`.

## 5.8 Globals related to PARI configuration.

### 5.8.1 PARI version numbers.

`paricfg_version_code` encodes in a single `long`, the Major and minor version numbers as well as the patchlevel.

`long PARI_VERSION(long M, long m, long p)` produces the version code associated to release  $M.m.p$ . Each code identifies a unique PARI release, and corresponds to the natural total order on the set of releases (bigger code number means more recent release).

`PARI_VERSION_SHIFT` is the number of bits used to store each of the integers  $M, m, p$  in the version code.

`paricfg_vcsversion` is a version string related to the revision control system used to handle your sources, if any. For instance `git-commit hash` if compiled from a git repository.

The two character strings `paricfg_version` and `paricfg_buildinfo`, correspond to the first two lines printed by `gp` just before the Copyright message.

`GEN pari_version()` returns the version number as a PARI object, a `t_VEC` with three `t_INT` and one `t_STR` components.

### 5.8.2 Miscellaneous.

`paricfg_datadir`: character string. The location of PARI's `datadir`.

## Chapter 6:

### Arithmetic kernel: Level 0 and 1

#### 6.1 Level 0 kernel (operations on ulongs).

**6.1.1 Micro-kernel.** The Level 0 kernel simulates basic operations of the 68020 processor on which PARI was originally implemented. They need “global” `ulong` variables `overflow` (which will contain only 0 or 1) and `hiremainder` to function properly. A routine using one of these lowest-level functions where the description mentions either `hiremainder` or `overflow` must declare the corresponding

```
LOCAL_HIREMAINDER; /* provides 'hiremainder' */
LOCAL_OVERFLOW;    /* provides 'overflow' */
```

in a declaration block. Variables `hiremainder` and `overflow` then become available in the enclosing block. For instance a loop over the powers of an `ulong` `p` protected from overflows could read

```
while (pk < lim)
{
    LOCAL_HIREMAINDER;
    ...
    pk = mulll(pk, p); if (hiremainder) break;
}
```

For most architectures, the functions mentioned below are really chunks of inlined assembler code, and the above ‘global’ variables are actually local register values.

`ulong addll(ulong x, ulong y)` adds `x` and `y`, returns the lower `BITS_IN_LONG` bits and puts the carry bit into `overflow`.

`ulong addllx(ulong x, ulong y)` adds `overflow` to the sum of the `x` and `y`, returns the lower `BITS_IN_LONG` bits and puts the carry bit into `overflow`.

`ulong subll(ulong x, ulong y)` subtracts `x` and `y`, returns the lower `BITS_IN_LONG` bits and put the carry (borrow) bit into `overflow`.

`ulong subllx(ulong x, ulong y)` subtracts `overflow` from the difference of `x` and `y`, returns the lower `BITS_IN_LONG` bits and puts the carry (borrow) bit into `overflow`.

`int bfffo(ulong x)` returns the number of leading zero bits in `x`. That is, the number of bit positions by which it would have to be shifted left until its leftmost bit first becomes equal to 1, which can be between 0 and `BITS_IN_LONG - 1` for nonzero `x`. When `x` is 0, the result is undefined.

`ulong mulll(ulong x, ulong y)` multiplies `x` by `y`, returns the lower `BITS_IN_LONG` bits and stores the high-order `BITS_IN_LONG` bits into `hiremainder`.

`ulong addmul(ulong x, ulong y)` adds `hiremainder` to the product of `x` and `y`, returns the lower `BITS_IN_LONG` bits and stores the high-order `BITS_IN_LONG` bits into `hiremainder`.

`ulong divll(ulong x, ulong y)` returns the quotient of  $(\text{hiremainder} * 2^{\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}}) + x$  by `y` and stores the remainder into `hiremainder`. An error occurs if the quotient cannot be represented by an `ulong`, i.e. if initially `hiremainder`  $\geq y$ .

**Obsolete routines.** Those functions are awkward and no longer used; they are only provided for backward compatibility:

`ulong shiftl(ulong x, ulong y)` returns  $x$  shifted left by  $y$  bits, i.e.  $x \ll y$ , where we assume that  $0 \leq y \leq \text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}$ . The global variable `hiremainder` receives the bits that were shifted out, i.e.  $x \gg (\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG} - y)$ .

`ulong shiftr(ulong x, ulong y)` returns  $x$  shifted right by  $y$  bits, i.e.  $x \gg y$ , where we assume that  $0 \leq y \leq \text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}$ . The global variable `hiremainder` receives the bits that were shifted out, i.e.  $x \ll (\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG} - y)$ .

**6.1.2 Modular kernel.** The following routines are not part of the level 0 kernel per se, but implement modular operations on words in terms of the above. They are written so that no overflow may occur. Let  $m \geq 1$  be the modulus; all operands representing classes modulo  $m$  are assumed to belong to  $[0, m - 1]$ . The result may be wrong for a number of reasons otherwise: it may not be reduced, overflow can occur, etc.

`int odd(ulong x)` returns 1 if  $x$  is odd, and 0 otherwise.

`int both_odd(ulong x, ulong y)` returns 1 if  $x$  and  $y$  are both odd, and 0 otherwise.

`ulong invmod2BIL(ulong x)` returns the smallest positive representative of  $x^{-1} \bmod 2^{\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}}$ , assuming  $x$  is odd.

`ulong Fl_add(ulong x, ulong y, ulong m)` returns the smallest positive representative of  $x + y$  modulo  $m$ .

`ulong Fl_neg(ulong x, ulong m)` returns the smallest positive representative of  $-x$  modulo  $m$ .

`ulong Fl_sub(ulong x, ulong y, ulong m)` returns the smallest positive representative of  $x - y$  modulo  $m$ .

`long Fl_center(ulong x, ulong m, ulong mo2)` returns the representative in  $] -m/2, m/2]$  of  $x$  modulo  $m$ . Assume  $0 \leq x < m$  and  $\text{mo2} = m \gg 1$ .

`ulong Fl_mul(ulong x, ulong y, ulong m)` returns the smallest positive representative of  $xy$  modulo  $m$ .

`ulong Fl_sqr(ulong x, ulong m)` returns the smallest positive representative of  $x^2$  modulo  $m$ .

`ulong Fl_inv(ulong x, ulong m)` returns the smallest positive representative of  $x^{-1}$  modulo  $m$ . If  $x$  is not invertible mod  $m$ , raise an exception.

`ulong Fl_div(ulong x, ulong y, ulong m)` returns the smallest positive representative of  $xy^{-1}$  modulo  $m$ . If  $y$  is not invertible mod  $m$ , raise an exception.

`ulong Fl_powu(ulong x, ulong n, ulong m)` returns the smallest positive representative of  $x^n$  modulo  $m$ .

`ulong Fl_sqrt(ulong x, ulong p)` returns the square root of  $x$  modulo  $p$  (smallest positive representative). Assumes  $p$  to be prime, and  $x$  to be a square modulo  $p$ .

`ulong Fl_order(ulong a, ulong o, ulong p)` returns the order of the `t_Fp`  $a$ . It is assumed that  $o$  is a multiple of the order of  $a$ , 0 being allowed (no non-trivial information).

`ulong random_Fl(ulong p)` returns a pseudo-random integer uniformly distributed in  $0, 1, \dots, p-1$ .

`ulong pgener_Fl(ulong p)` returns a primitive root modulo  $p$ , assuming  $p$  is prime.

`ulong pgener_Zl(ulong p)` returns a primitive root modulo  $p^k$ ,  $k > 1$ , assuming  $p$  is an odd prime. On a 64-bit machine, this function may fail and raise an exception, if  $p > 2^{63}$ ; namely when  $g := \text{pgener\_Fl}(p)$  is not a primitive element and  $g + p$  no longer fits in an `ulong`. (It turns out that this cannot happen on a 32-bit architecture.) Use `gener_Fp` if this is a problem.

`ulong pgener_Fl_local(ulong p, GEN L)`, see `gener_Fp_local`,  $L$  is an `Flv`.

### 6.1.3 Switching between `Fl_xxx` and standard operators.

Even though the `Fl_xxx` routines are efficient, they are slower than ordinary `long` operations, using the standard `+`, `%`, etc. operators. The following macro is used to choose in a portable way the most efficient functions for given operands:

`int SMALL_ULONG(ulong p)` true if  $2p^2 < 2^{\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}}$ . In that case, it is possible to use ordinary operators efficiently. If  $p < 2^{\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}}$ , one may still use the `Fl_xxx` routines. Otherwise, one must use generic routines. For instance, the scalar product of the GENs  $x$  and  $y$  mod  $p$  could be computed as follows.

```
long i, l = lg(x);
if (lgefint(p) > 3)
{ /* arbitrary */
  GEN s = gen_0;
  for (i = 1; i < l; i++) s = addii(s, mulii(gel(x,i), gel(y,i)));
  return modii(s, p).
}
else
{
  ulong s = 0, pp = itou(p);
  x = ZV_to_Flv(x, pp);
  y = ZV_to_Flv(y, pp);
  if (SMALL_ULONG(pp))
  { /* very small */
    for (i = 1; i < l; i++)
    {
      s += x[i] * y[i];
      if (s & HIGHBIT) s %= pp;
    }
    s %= pp;
  }
  else
  { /* small */
    for (i = 1; i < l; i++)
      s = Fl_add(s, Fl_mul(x[i], y[i], pp), pp);
  }
  return utoi(s);
}
```

In effect, we have three versions of the same code: very small, small, and arbitrary inputs. The very small and arbitrary variants use lazy reduction and reduce only when it becomes necessary: when overflow might occur (very small), and at the very end (very small, arbitrary).

## 6.2 Level 1 kernel (operations on longs, integers and reals).

**Note.** Some functions consist of an elementary operation, immediately followed by an assignment statement. They will be introduced as in the following example:

`GEN gadd[z](GEN x, GEN y[, GEN z])` followed by the explicit description of the function

`GEN gadd(GEN x, GEN y)`

which creates its result on the stack, returning a GEN pointer to it, and the parts in brackets indicate that there exists also a function

`void gaddz(GEN x, GEN y, GEN z)`

which assigns its result to the pre-existing object `z`, leaving the stack unchanged. These assignment variants are kept for backward compatibility but are inefficient: don't use them.

### 6.2.1 Creation.

`GEN cgeti(long n)` allocates memory on the PARI stack for a `t_INT` of length `n`, and initializes its first codeword. Identical to `cgetg(n,t_INT)`.

`GEN cgetipos(long n)` allocates memory on the PARI stack for a `t_INT` of length `n`, and initializes its two codewords. The sign of `n` is set to 1.

`GEN cgetineg(long n)` allocates memory on the PARI stack for a negative `t_INT` of length `n`, and initializes its two codewords. The sign of `n` is set to  $-1$ .

`GEN cgetr(long n)` allocates memory on the PARI stack for a `t_REAL` of length `n`, and initializes its first codeword. Identical to `cgetg(n,t_REAL)`.

`GEN cgetc(long n)` allocates memory on the PARI stack for a `t_COMPLEX`, whose real and imaginary parts are `t_REAL`s of length `n`.

`GEN real_1(long prec)` create a `t_REAL` equal to 1 to `prec` words of accuracy.

`GEN real_m1(long prec)` create a `t_REAL` equal to  $-1$  to `prec` words of accuracy.

`GEN real_0_bit(long bit)` create a `t_REAL` equal to 0 with exponent  $-\text{bit}$ .

`GEN real_0(long prec)` is a shorthand for

`real_0_bit( -bit_accuracy(prec) )`

`GEN int2n(long n)` creates a `t_INT` equal to  $1 < n$  (i.e  $2^n$  if  $n \geq 0$ , and 0 otherwise).

`GEN int2u(ulong n)` creates a `t_INT` equal to  $2^n$ .

`GEN real2n(long n, long prec)` create a `t_REAL` equal to  $2^n$  to `prec` words of accuracy.

`GEN strtol(char *s)` convert the character string `s` to a non-negative `t_INT`. The string `s` consists exclusively of digits (no leading sign).

`GEN strtod(char *s, long prec)` convert the character string `s` to a non-negative `t_REAL` of precision `prec`. The string `s` consists exclusively of digits and optional decimal point and exponent (no leading sign).

**6.2.2 Assignment.** In this section, the `z` argument in the `z`-functions must be of type `t_INT` or `t_REAL`.

`void mpaff(GEN x, GEN z)` assigns `x` into `z` (where `x` and `z` are `t_INT` or `t_REAL`). Assumes that  $\lg(z) > 2$ .

`void affii(GEN x, GEN z)` assigns the `t_INT` `x` into the `t_INT` `z`.

`void affir(GEN x, GEN z)` assigns the `t_INT` `x` into the `t_REAL` `z`. Assumes that  $\lg(z) > 2$ .

`void affiz(GEN x, GEN z)` assigns `t_INT` `x` into `t_INT` or `t_REAL` `z`. Assumes that  $\lg(z) > 2$ .

`void affsi(long s, GEN z)` assigns the `long` `s` into the `t_INT` `z`. Assumes that  $\lg(z) > 2$ .

`void affsr(long s, GEN z)` assigns the `long` `s` into the `t_REAL` `z`. Assumes that  $\lg(z) > 2$ .

`void affsz(long s, GEN z)` assigns the `long` `s` into the `t_INT` or `t_REAL` `z`. Assumes that  $\lg(z) > 2$ .

`void affui(ulong u, GEN z)` assigns the `ulong` `u` into the `t_INT` `z`. Assumes that  $\lg(z) > 2$ .

`void affur(ulong u, GEN z)` assigns the `ulong` `u` into the `t_REAL` `z`. Assumes that  $\lg(z) > 2$ .

`void affrr(GEN x, GEN z)` assigns the `t_REAL` `x` into the `t_REAL` `z`.

`void affgr(GEN x, GEN z)` assigns the scalar `x` into the `t_REAL` `z`, if possible.

The function `affrs` and `affri` do not exist. So don't use them.

`void affrr_fixlg(GEN y, GEN z)` a variant of `affrr`. First shorten `z` so that it is no longer than `y`, then assigns `y` to `z`. This is used in the following scenario: room is reserved for the result but, due to cancellation, fewer words of accuracy are available than had been anticipated; instead of appending meaningless 0s to the mantissa, we store what was actually computed.

Note that shortening `z` is not quite straightforward, since `setlg(z, 1y)` would leave garbage on the stack, which `gerepile` might later inspect. It is done using

`void fixlg(GEN z, long ly)` see `stackdummy` and the examples that follow.

### 6.2.3 Copy.

`GEN icopy(GEN x)` copy relevant words of the `t_INT` `x` on the stack: the length and effective length of the copy are equal.

`GEN rcopy(GEN x)` copy the `t_REAL` `x` on the stack.

`GEN leafcopy(GEN x)` copy the leaf `x` on the stack (works in particular for `t_INTs` and `t_REALs`). Contrary to `icopy`, `leafcopy` preserves the original length of a `t_INT`. The obsolete form `GEN mpcopy(GEN x)` is still provided for backward compatibility.

This function also works on recursive types, copying them as if they were leaves, i.e. making a shallow copy in that case: the components of the copy point to the same data as the component of the source; see also `shallowcopy`.

### 6.2.4 Conversions.

GEN itor(GEN x, long prec) converts the t\_INT x to a t\_REAL of length prec and return the latter. Assumes that  $\text{prec} > 2$ .

long itos(GEN x) converts the t\_INT x to a long if possible, otherwise raise an exception.

long itos\_or\_0(GEN x) converts the t\_INT x to a long if possible, otherwise return 0.

int is\_bigint(GEN n) true if itos(n) would succeed.

int is\_bigint\_lg(GEN n, long l) true if itos(n) would succeed. Assumes  $\text{lgfint}(n)$  is equal to l.

ulong itou(GEN x) converts the t\_INT |x| to an ulong if possible, otherwise raise an exception.

long itou\_or\_0(GEN x) converts the t\_INT |x| to an ulong if possible, otherwise return 0.

GEN stoi(long s) creates the t\_INT corresponding to the long s.

GEN stor(long s, long prec) converts the long s into a t\_REAL of length prec and return the latter. Assumes that  $\text{prec} > 2$ .

GEN utoi(ulong s) converts the ulong s into a t\_INT and return the latter.

GEN utoipos(ulong s) converts the *non-zero* ulong s into a t\_INT and return the latter.

GEN utoineg(ulong s) converts the *non-zero* ulong s into the t\_INT  $-s$  and return the latter.

GEN utor(ulong s, long prec) converts the ulong s into a t\_REAL of length prec and return the latter. Assumes that  $\text{prec} > 2$ .

GEN rtor(GEN x, long prec) converts the t\_REAL x to a t\_REAL of length prec and return the latter. If  $\text{prec} < \text{lg}(x)$ , round properly. If  $\text{prec} > \text{lg}(x)$ , pad with zeroes. Assumes that  $\text{prec} > 2$ .

The following function is also available as a special case of mkintn:

GEN uu32toi(ulong a, ulong b) returns the GEN equal to  $2^{32}a + b$ , assuming that  $a, b < 2^{32}$ . This does not depend on `sizeof(long)`: the behavior is as above on both 32 and 64-bit machines.

GEN uutoi(ulong a, ulong b) returns the GEN equal to  $2^{\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}}a + b$ .

GEN uutoineg(ulong a, ulong b) returns the GEN equal to  $-(2^{\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}}a + b)$ .

**6.2.5 Integer parts.** The following four functions implement the conversion from t\_REAL to t\_INT using standard rounding modes. Contrary to usual semantics (complement the mantissa with an infinite number of 0), they will raise an error *precision loss in truncation* if the t\_REAL represents a range containing more than one integer.

GEN ceilr(GEN x) smallest integer larger or equal to the t\_REAL x (i.e. the `ceil` function).

GEN floorr(GEN x) largest integer smaller or equal to the t\_REAL x (i.e. the `floor` function).

GEN roundr(GEN x) rounds the t\_REAL x to the nearest integer (towards  $+\infty$  in case of tie).

GEN truncr(GEN x) truncates the t\_REAL x (not the same as `floorr` if x is negative).

The following four function are analogous, but can also treat the trivial case when the argument is a t\_INT:

GEN mpceil(GEN x) as `ceilr` except that x may be a t\_INT.



GEN `mpfloor`(GEN `x`) as `floorr` except that `x` may be a `t_INT`.

GEN `mpround`(GEN `x`) as `roundr` except that `x` may be a `t_INT`.

GEN `mptrunc`(GEN `x`) as `truncr` except that `x` may be a `t_INT`.

GEN `diviiround`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) if `x` and `y` are `t_INT`s, returns the quotient  $x/y$  of `x` and `y`, rounded to the nearest integer. If  $x/y$  falls exactly halfway between two consecutive integers, then it is rounded towards  $+\infty$  (as for `roundr`).

GEN `ceil_safe`(GEN `x`), `x` being a real number (not necessarily a `t_REAL`) returns the smallest integer which is larger than any possible incarnation of `x`. (Recall that a `t_REAL` represents an interval of possible values.) Note that `gceil` raises an exception if the input accuracy is too low compared to its magnitude.

GEN `floor_safe`(GEN `x`), `x` being a real number (not necessarily a `t_REAL`) returns the largest integer which is smaller than any possible incarnation of `x`. (Recall that a `t_REAL` represents an interval of possible values.) Note that `gfloor` raises an exception if the input accuracy is too low compared to its magnitude.

GEN `trunc_safe`(GEN `x`), `x` being a real number (not necessarily a `t_REAL`) returns the integer with the largest absolute value, which is closer to 0 than any possible incarnation of `x`. (Recall that a `t_REAL` represents an interval of possible values.)

GEN `roundr_safe`(GEN `x`) rounds the `t_REAL` `x` to the nearest integer (towards  $+\infty$ ). Complement the mantissa with an infinite number of 0 before rounding, hence never raise an exception.

### 6.2.6 2-adic valuations and shifts.

long `vals`(long `s`) 2-adic valuation of the long `s`. Returns  $-1$  if `s` is equal to 0.

long `vali`(GEN `x`) 2-adic valuation of the `t_INT` `x`. Returns  $-1$  if `x` is equal to 0.

GEN `mpshift`(GEN `x`, long `n`) shifts the `t_INT` or `t_REAL` `x` by `n`. If `n` is positive, this is a left shift, i.e. multiplication by  $2^n$ . If `n` is negative, it is a right shift by  $-n$ , which amounts to the truncation of the quotient of `x` by  $2^{-n}$ .

GEN `shifti`(GEN `x`, long `n`) shifts the `t_INT` `x` by `n`.

GEN `shiftr`(GEN `x`, long `n`) shifts the `t_REAL` `x` by `n`.

GEN `trunc2nr`(GEN `x`, long `n`) given a `t_REAL` `x`, returns `truncr(shiftr(x,n))`, but faster, without leaving garbage on the stack and never raising a *precision loss in truncation* error. Called by `gtrunc2n`.

GEN `trunc2nr_lg`(GEN `x`, long `lx`, long `n`) given a `t_REAL` `x`, returns `trunc2nr(x,n)`, pretending that the length of `x` is `lx`, which must be  $\leq \lg(x)$ .

**Low-level.** In the following two functions,  $s(\text{source})$  and  $t(\text{target})$  need not be valid GENs (in practice, they usually point to some part of a `t_REAL` mantissa): they are considered as arrays of words representing some mantissa, and we shift globally  $s$  by  $n > 0$  bits, storing the result in  $t$ . We assume that  $m \leq M$  and only access  $s[m], s[m+1], \dots, s[M]$  (read) and likewise for  $t$  (write); we may have  $s = t$  but more general overlaps are not allowed. The word  $f$  is concatenated to  $s$  to supply extra bits.

`void shift_left(GEN t, GEN s, long m, long M, ulong f, ulong n)` shifts the mantissa

$$s[m], s[m+1], \dots, s[M], f$$

left by  $n$  bits.

`void shift_right(GEN t, GEN s, long m, long M, ulong f, ulong n)` shifts the mantissa

$$f, s[m], s[m+1], \dots, s[M]$$

right by  $n$  bits.

**6.2.7 Valuations.** `long Z_pvalrem(GEN x, GEN p, GEN *r)` applied to `t_INT`s  $x \neq 0$  and  $p$ ,  $|p| > 1$ , returns the highest exponent  $e$  such that  $p^e$  divides  $x$ . The quotient  $x/p^e$  is returned in  $*r$ . In particular, if  $p$  is a prime, this returns the valuation at  $p$  of  $x$ , and  $*r$  is the prime-to- $p$  part of  $x$ .

`long Z_pval(GEN x, GEN p)` as `Z_pvalrem` but only returns the “valuation”.

`long Z_lvalrem(GEN x, ulong p, GEN *r)` as `Z_pvalrem`, except that  $p$  is an `ulong` ( $p > 1$ ).

`long Z_lval(GEN x, ulong p)` as `Z_pval`, except that  $p$  is an `ulong` ( $p > 1$ ).

`long u_lvalrem(ulong x, ulong p, ulong *r)` as `Z_pvalrem`, except the inputs/outputs are now `ulongs`.

`long u_pvalrem(ulong x, GEN p, ulong *r)` as `Z_pvalrem`, except  $x$  and  $r$  are now `ulongs`.

`long u_lval(ulong x, ulong p)` as `Z_pval`, except the inputs are now `ulongs`.

`long u_pval(ulong x, GEN p)` as `Z_pval`, except  $x$  is now an `ulong`.

`long z_lval(long x, ulong p)` as `u_lval`, for signed  $x$ .

`long z_lvalrem(long x, ulong p)` as `u_lvalrem`, for signed  $x$ .

`long z_pval(long x, GEN p)` as `Z_pval`, except  $x$  is now a `long`.

`long z_pvalrem(long x, GEN p)` as `Z_pvalrem`, except  $x$  is now a `long`.

`long Q_pval(GEN x, GEN p)` valuation at the `t_INT`  $p$  of the `t_INT` or `t_FRAC`  $x$ .

`long factorial_lval(ulong n, ulong p)` returns  $v_p(n!)$ , assuming  $p$  is prime.

The following convenience functions generalize `Z_pval` and its variants to “containers” (`ZV` and `ZX`):

`long ZV_pvalrem(GEN x, GEN p, GEN *r)`  $x$  being a `ZV` (a vector of `t_INT`s), return the min  $v$  of the valuations of its components and set  $*r$  to  $x/p^v$ . Infinite loop if  $x$  is the zero vector. This function is not stack clean.

`long ZV_pval(GEN x, GEN p)` as `ZV_pvalrem` but only returns the “valuation”.

`long ZV_lvalrem(GEN x, ulong p, GEN *px)` as `ZV_pvalrem`, except that `p` is an `ulong` ( $p > 1$ ). This function is not stack-clean.

`long ZV_lval(GEN x, ulong p)` as `ZV_pval`, except that `p` is an `ulong` ( $p > 1$ ).

`long ZX_pvalrem(GEN x, GEN p, GEN *r)` as `ZV_pvalrem`, for a `ZX`  $x$  (a `t_POL` with `t_INT` coefficients). This function is not stack-clean.

`long ZX_pval(GEN x, GEN p)` as `ZV_pval` for a `ZX`  $x$ .

`long ZX_lvalrem(GEN x, ulong p, GEN *px)` as `ZV_lvalrem`, a `ZX`  $x$ . This function is not stack-clean.

`long ZX_lval(GEN x, ulong p)` as `ZX_pval`, except that `p` is an `ulong` ( $p > 1$ ).

**6.2.8 Generic unary operators.** Let “*op*” be a unary operation among

- **neg**: negation ( $-x$ ).
- **abs**: absolute value ( $|x|$ ).
- **sqr**: square ( $x^2$ ).

The names and prototypes of the low-level functions corresponding to *op* are as follows. The result is of the same type as  $x$ .

`GEN opi(GEN x)` creates the result of *op* applied to the `t_INT`  $x$ .

`GEN opr(GEN x)` creates the result of *op* applied to the `t_REAL`  $x$ .

`GEN mpop(GEN x)` creates the result of *op* applied to the `t_INT` or `t_REAL`  $x$ .

Complete list of available functions:

`GEN absi(GEN x), GEN absr(GEN x), GEN mpabs(GEN x)`

`GEN negi(GEN x), GEN negr(GEN x), GEN mpneg(GEN x)`

`GEN sqri(GEN x), GEN sqrr(GEN x), GEN mpsqr(GEN x)`

Some miscellaneous routines:

`GEN sqrs(long x)` returns  $x^2$ .

`GEN sqru(ulong x)` returns  $x^2$ .

**6.2.9 Comparison operators.**

`long minss(long x, long y)`

`ulong minuu(ulong x, ulong y)`

`double mindd(double x, double y)` returns the min of  $x$  and  $y$ .

`long maxss(long x, long y)`

`ulong maxuu(ulong x, ulong y)`

`double maxdd(double x, double y)` returns the max of  $x$  and  $y$ .

`int mpcmp(GEN x, GEN y)` compares the `t_INT` or `t_REAL`  $x$  to the `t_INT` or `t_REAL`  $y$ . The result is the sign of  $x - y$ .

`int cmpii(GEN x, GEN y)` compares the `t_INT` `x` to the `t_INT` `y`.  
`int cmpir(GEN x, GEN y)` compares the `t_INT` `x` to the `t_REAL` `y`.  
`int cmpis(GEN x, long s)` compares the `t_INT` `x` to the `long` `s`.  
`int cmpsi(long s, GEN x)` compares the `long` `s` to the `t_INT` `x`.  
`int cmpsr(long s, GEN x)` compares the `long` `s` to the `t_REAL` `x`.  
`int cmpri(GEN x, GEN y)` compares the `t_REAL` `x` to the `t_INT` `y`.  
`int cmpr(GEN x, GEN y)` compares the `t_REAL` `x` to the `t_REAL` `y`.  
`int cmprs(GEN x, long s)` compares the `t_REAL` `x` to the `long` `s`.  
`int equalii(GEN x, GEN y)` compares the `t_INT`s `x` and `y`. The result is 1 if  $x = y$ , 0 otherwise.  
`int equalrr(GEN x, GEN y)` compares the `t_REAL`s `x` and `y`. The result is 1 if  $x = y$ , 0 otherwise. Equality is decided according to the following rules: all real zeroes are equal, and different from a non-zero real; two non-zero reals are equal if all their digits coincide up to the length of the shortest of the two, and the remaining words in the mantissa of the longest are all 0.  
`int equalsi(long s, GEN x)`  
`int equalis(GEN x, long s)` compare the `t_INT` `x` and the `long` `s`. The result is 1 if  $x = y$ , 0 otherwise.

The remaining comparison operators disregard the sign of their operands:

`int equalui(ulong s, GEN x)`  
`int equaliu(GEN x, ulong s)` compare the absolute value of the `t_INT` `x` and the `ulong` `s`. The result is 1 if  $|x| = y$ , 0 otherwise.  
`int cmpui(ulong u, GEN x)`  
`int cmpiu(GEN x, ulong u)` compare the absolute value of the `t_INT` `x` and the `ulong` `s`.  
`int absi_cmp(GEN x, GEN y)` compares the `t_INT`s `x` and `y`. The result is the sign of  $|x| - |y|$ .  
`int absi_equal(GEN x, GEN y)` compares the `t_INT`s `x` and `y`. The result is 1 if  $|x| = |y|$ , 0 otherwise.  
`int absr_cmp(GEN x, GEN y)` compares the `t_REAL`s `x` and `y`. The result is the sign of  $|x| - |y|$ .  
`int absrnz_equal2n(GEN x)` tests whether a non-zero `t_REAL` `x` is equal to  $\pm 2^e$  for some integer  $e$ .  
`int absrnz_equal1(GEN x)` tests whether a non-zero `t_REAL` `x` is equal to  $\pm 1$ .

**6.2.10 Generic binary operators.** The operators in this section have arguments of C-type GEN, long, and ulong, and only t\_INT and t\_REAL GENs are allowed. We say an argument is a real type if it is a t\_REAL GEN, and an integer type otherwise. The result is always a t\_REAL unless both x and y are integer types.

Let “*op*” be a binary operation among

- **add:** addition ( $x + y$ ).
- **sub:** subtraction ( $x - y$ ).
- **mul:** multiplication ( $x * y$ ).

• **div:** division ( $x / y$ ). In the case where x and y are both integer types, the result is the Euclidean quotient, where the remainder has the same sign as the dividend x. It is the ordinary division otherwise. A division-by-0 error occurs if y is equal to 0.

The last two generic operations are defined only when arguments have integer types; and the result is a t\_INT:

• **rem:** remainder (“ $x \% y$ ”). The result is the Euclidean remainder corresponding to div, i.e. its sign is that of the dividend x.

• **mod:** true remainder ( $x \% y$ ). The result is the true Euclidean remainder, i.e. non-negative and less than the absolute value of y.

**Important technical note.** The rules given above fixing the output type (to t\_REAL unless both inputs are integer types) are subtly incompatible with the general rules obeyed by PARI’s generic functions, such as gmul or gdiv for instance: the latter return a result containing as much information as could be deduced from the inputs, so it is not true that if  $x$  is a t\_INT and  $y$  a t\_REAL, then gmul( $x, y$ ) is always the same as mulir( $x, y$ ). The exception is  $x = 0$ , in that case we can deduce that the result is an exact 0, so gmul returns gen\_0, while mulir returns a t\_REAL 0. Specifically, the one resulting from the conversion of gen\_0 to a t\_REAL of precision precision( $y$ ), multiplied by  $y$ ; this determines the exponent of the real 0 we obtain.

The reason for the discrepancy between the two rules is that we use the two sets of functions in different contexts: generic functions allow to write high-level code forgetting about types, letting PARI return results which are sensible and as simple as possible; type specific functions are used in kernel programming, where we do care about types and need to maintain strict consistency: it is much easier to compute the types of results when they are determined from the types of the inputs only (without taking into account further arithmetic properties, like being non-0).

The names and prototypes of the low-level functions corresponding to *op* are as follows. In this section, the z argument in the z-functions must be of type t\_INT when no r or mp appears in the argument code (no t\_REAL operand is involved, only integer types), and of type t\_REAL otherwise.

GEN mpop[z](GEN x, GEN y[, GEN z]) applies *op* to the t\_INT or t\_REAL x and y. The function mpdivz does not exist (its semantic would change drastically depending on the type of the z argument), and neither do mprem[z] nor mpmod[z] (specific to integers).

GEN opsi[z](long s, GEN x[, GEN z]) applies *op* to the long s and the t\_INT x. These functions always return the global constant gen\_0 (not a copy) when the sign of the result is 0.

GEN opsr[z](long s, GEN x[, GEN z]) applies *op* to the long s and the t\_REAL x.

GEN opss[z](long s, long t[, GEN z]) applies *op* to the longs s and t. These functions always return the global constant gen\_0 (not a copy) when the sign of the result is 0.

GEN *opii*[z](GEN x, GEN y[, GEN z]) applies *op* to the *t\_INT*s *x* and *y*. These functions always return the global constant *gen\_0* (not a copy) when the sign of the result is 0.

GEN *opir*[z](GEN x, GEN y[, GEN z]) applies *op* to the *t\_INT* *x* and the *t\_REAL* *y*.

GEN *opis*[z](GEN x, long s[, GEN z]) applies *op* to the *t\_INT* *x* and the long *s*. These functions always return the global constant *gen\_0* (not a copy) when the sign of the result is 0.

GEN *opri*[z](GEN x, GEN y[, GEN z]) applies *op* to the *t\_REAL* *x* and the *t\_INT* *y*.

GEN *oprr*[z](GEN x, GEN y[, GEN z]) applies *op* to the *t\_REAL*s *x* and *y*.

GEN *oprs*[z](GEN x, long s[, GEN z]) applies *op* to the *t\_REAL* *x* and the long *s*.

Some miscellaneous routines:

long *expu*(ulong *x*) assuming  $x > 0$ , returns the binary exponent of the real number equal to *x*. This is a special case of *gexpo*.

GEN *adduu*(ulong *x*, ulong *y*) adds *x* by *y*.

GEN *subuu*(ulong *x*, ulong *y*) subtracts *x* by *y*.

GEN *muluu*(ulong *x*, ulong *y*) multiplies *x* by *y*.

GEN *mului*(ulong *x*, GEN *y*) multiplies *x* by *y*.

GEN *muliu*(GEN *x*, ulong *y*) multiplies *x* by *y*.

void *addumului*(ulong *a*, ulong *b*, GEN *x*) return  $a + b|X|$ .

GEN *mulu\_interval*(ulong *a*, ulong *b*) returns  $a(a+1)\cdots b$ , assuming that  $a \leq b$ . Very inefficient when  $a = 0$ .

GEN *invr*(GEN *x*) returns the inverse of the non-zero *t\_REAL* *x*.

GEN *truedivii*(GEN *x*, GEN *y*) returns the true Euclidean quotient (with non-negative remainder less than  $|y|$ ).

GEN *truedivis*(GEN *x*, long *y*) returns the true Euclidean quotient (with non-negative remainder less than  $|y|$ ).

GEN *truedivsi*(long *x*, GEN *y*) returns the true Euclidean quotient (with non-negative remainder less than  $|y|$ ).

GEN *centermodii*(GEN *x*, GEN *y*, GEN *y2*), given *t\_INT*s *x*, *y*, returns *z* congruent to *x* modulo *y*, such that  $-y/2 \leq z < y/2$ . The function requires an extra argument *y2*, such that  $y2 = \text{shifti}(y, -1)$ . (In most cases, *y* is constant for many reductions and *y2* need only be computed once.)

GEN *remi2n*(GEN *x*, long *n*) returns  $x \bmod 2^n$ .

GEN *addii\_sign*(GEN *x*, long *sx*, GEN *y*, long *sy*) add the *t\_INT*s *x* and *y* as if their signs were *sx* and *sy*.

GEN *addir\_sign*(GEN *x*, long *sx*, GEN *y*, long *sy*) add the *t\_INT* *x* and the *t\_REAL* *y* as if their signs were *sx* and *sy*.

GEN *addr\_r\_sign*(GEN *x*, long *sx*, GEN *y*, long *sy*) add the *t\_REAL*s *x* and *y* as if their signs were *sx* and *sy*.

GEN *addsi\_sign*(long *x*, GEN *y*, long *sy*) add *x* and the *t\_INT* *y* as if its sign was *sy*.

### 6.2.11 Exact division and divisibility.

`void diviexact(GEN x, GEN y)` returns the Euclidean quotient  $x/y$ , assuming  $y$  divides  $x$ . Uses Jebelean algorithm (Jebelean-Krandick bidirectional exact division is not implemented).

`void diviueexact(GEN x, ulong y)` returns the Euclidean quotient  $x/y$ , assuming  $y$  divides  $x$  and  $y$  is non-zero.

The following routines return 1 (true) if  $y$  divides  $x$ , and 0 otherwise. (Error if  $y$  is 0, even if  $x$  is 0.) All GEN are assumed to be `t_INTs`:

```
int dvdi(GEN x, GEN y), int dvdis(GEN x, long y), int dvdiu(GEN x, ulong y),
int dvdsi(long x, GEN y), int dvdui(ulong x, GEN y).
```

The following routines return 1 (true) if  $y$  divides  $x$ , and in that case assign the quotient to  $z$ ; otherwise they return 0. All GEN are assumed to be `t_INTs`:

```
int dvdiiz(GEN x, GEN y, GEN z), int dvdisz(GEN x, long y, GEN z).
int dvdiuz(GEN x, ulong y, GEN z) if  $y$  divides  $x$ , assigns the quotient  $|x|/y$  to  $z$  and returns
1 (true), otherwise returns 0 (false).
```

### 6.2.12 Division with integral operands and `t_REAL` result.

`GEN rdivii(GEN x, GEN y, long prec)`, assuming  $x$  and  $y$  are both of type `t_INT`, return the quotient  $x/y$  as a `t_REAL` of precision `prec`.

`GEN rdiviiz(GEN x, GEN y, GEN z)`, assuming  $x$  and  $y$  are both of type `t_INT`, and  $z$  is a `t_REAL`, assign the quotient  $x/y$  to  $z$ .

`GEN rdivis(GEN x, long y, long prec)`, assuming  $x$  is of type `t_INT`, return the quotient  $x/y$  as a `t_REAL` of precision `prec`.

`GEN rdivsi(long x, GEN y, long prec)`, assuming  $y$  is of type `t_INT`, return the quotient  $x/y$  as a `t_REAL` of precision `prec`.

`GEN rdivss(long x, long y, long prec)`, return the quotient  $x/y$  as a `t_REAL` of precision `prec`.

**6.2.13 Division with remainder.** The following functions return two objects, unless specifically asked for only one of them — a quotient and a remainder. The quotient is returned and the remainder is returned through the variable whose address is passed as the `r` argument. The term *true Euclidean remainder* refers to the non-negative one (`mod`), and *Euclidean remainder* by itself to the one with the same sign as the dividend (`rem`). All GENs, whether returned directly or through a pointer, are created on the stack.

`GEN dvmdii(GEN x, GEN y, GEN *r)` returns the Euclidean quotient of the `t_INT`  $x$  by a `t_INT`  $y$  and puts the remainder into `*r`. If `r` is equal to `NULL`, the remainder is not created, and if `r` is equal to `ONLY_REM`, only the remainder is created and returned. In the generic case, the remainder is created after the quotient and can be disposed of individually with a `cgiv(r)`. The remainder is always of the sign of the dividend  $x$ . If the remainder is 0 set `r = gen_0`.

`void dvmdiiz(GEN x, GEN y, GEN z, GEN t)` assigns the Euclidean quotient of the `t_INTs`  $x$  and  $y$  into the `t_INT`  $z$ , and the Euclidean remainder into the `t_INT`  $t$ .

Analogous routines `dvmdis[z]`, `dvmdsi[z]`, `dvmdss[z]` are available, where `s` denotes a `long` argument. But the following routines are in general more flexible:

`long sdivss_rem(long s, long t, long *r)` computes the Euclidean quotient and remainder of the `long`s `s` and `t`. Puts the remainder into `*r`, and returns the quotient. The remainder is of the sign of the dividend `s`, and has strictly smaller absolute value than `t`.

`long sdivsi_rem(long s, GEN x, long *r)` computes the Euclidean quotient and remainder of the `long` `s` by the `t_INT` `x`. As `sdivss_rem` otherwise.

`long sdivsi(long s, GEN x)` as `sdivsi_rem`, without remainder.

`GEN divis_rem(GEN x, long s, long *r)` computes the Euclidean quotient and remainder of the `t_INT` `x` by the `long` `s`. As `sdivss_rem` otherwise.

`GEN diviu_rem(GEN x, ulong s, long *r)` computes the Euclidean quotient and remainder of the *absolute value* of the `t_INT` `x` by the `ulong` `s`. As `sdivss_rem` otherwise.

`ulong udivui_rem(ulong s, GEN y, ulong *rem)` computes the Euclidean quotient and remainder of the `x` by `y`. As `sdivss_rem` otherwise.

`GEN divsi_rem(long s, GEN y, long *r)` computes the Euclidean quotient and remainder of the `t_long` `s` by the `GEN` `y`. As `sdivss_rem` otherwise.

`GEN divss_rem(long x, long y, long *r)` computes the Euclidean quotient and remainder of the `t_long` `x` by the `long` `y`. As `sdivss_rem` otherwise.

`GEN truedvmdii(GEN x, GEN y, GEN *r)`, as `dvmdii` but with a non-negative remainder.

`GEN truedvmdis(GEN x, long y, GEN *z)`, as `dvmdis` but with a non-negative remainder.

`GEN truedvmdsi(long x, GEN y, GEN *z)`, as `dvmdsi` but with a non-negative remainder.

**6.2.14 Modulo to longs.** The following variants of `modii` do not clutter the stack:

`long smodis(GEN x, long y)` computes the true Euclidean remainder of the `t_INT` `x` by the `long` `y`. This is the non-negative remainder, not the one whose sign is the sign of `x` as in the `div` functions.

`long smodss(long x, long y)` computes the true Euclidean remainder of the `long` `x` by a `long` `y`.

`ulong umodiu(GEN x, ulong y)` computes the true Euclidean remainder of the `t_INT` `x` by the `ulong` `y`.

`ulong umodui(ulong x, GEN y)` computes the true Euclidean remainder of the `ulong` `x` by the `t_INT` `|y|`.

The routine `smodsi` does not exist, since it would not always be defined: for a *negative* `x`, if the quotient is  $\pm 1$ , the result `x + |y|` would in general not fit into a `long`. Use either `umodui` or `modsi`.



### 6.2.15 Powering, Square root.

GEN `powii`(GEN `x`, GEN `n`), assumes  $x$  and  $n$  are `t_INTs` and returns  $x^n$ .

GEN `powuu`(ulong `x`, ulong `n`), returns  $x^n$ .

GEN `powiu`(GEN `x`, ulong `n`), assumes  $x$  is a `t_INT` and returns  $x^n$ .

GEN `powis`(GEN `x`, long `n`), assumes  $x$  is a `t_INT` and returns  $x^n$  (possibly a `t_FRAC` if  $n < 0$ ).

GEN `powrs`(GEN `x`, long `n`), assumes  $x$  is a `t_REAL` and returns  $x^n$ . This is considered as a sequence of `mulrr`, possibly empty: as such the result has type `t_REAL`, even if  $n = 0$ . Note that the generic function `gpowgs(x,0)` would return `gen_1`, see the technical note in Section 6.2.10.

GEN `powru`(GEN `x`, ulong `n`), assumes  $x$  is a `t_REAL` and returns  $x^n$  (always a `t_REAL`, even if  $n = 0$ ).

GEN `powrshalf`(GEN `x`, long `n`), assumes  $x$  is a `t_REAL` and returns  $x^{n/2}$  (always a `t_REAL`, even if  $n = 0$ ).

GEN `powruhalf`(GEN `x`, ulong `n`), assumes  $x$  is a `t_REAL` and returns  $x^{n/2}$  (always a `t_REAL`, even if  $n = 0$ ).

GEN `powrfrac`(GEN `x`, long `n`, long `d`), assumes  $x$  is a `t_REAL` and returns  $x^{n/d}$  (always a `t_REAL`, even if  $n = 0$ ).

GEN `powIs`(long `n`) returns  $I^n \in \{1, I, -1, -I\}$  (`t_INT` for even  $n$ , `t_COMPLEX` otherwise).

ulong `upowuu`(ulong `x`, ulong `n`), returns  $x^n$  modulo  $2^{\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}}$ . This is meant to be used for tiny  $n$ , where in fact  $x^n$  fits into an `ulong`.

GEN `sqrtemi`(GEN `N`, GEN `*r`), returns the integer square root  $S$  of the non-negative `t_INT`  $N$  (rounded towards 0) and puts the remainder  $R$  into `*r`. Precisely,  $N = S^2 + R$  with  $0 \leq R \leq 2S$ . If `r` is equal to `NULL`, the remainder is not created. In the generic case, the remainder is created after the quotient and can be disposed of individually with `cgiv(R)`. If the remainder is 0 set `R = gen_0`.

Uses a divide and conquer algorithm (discrete variant of Newton iteration) due to Paul Zimmermann ("Karatsuba Square Root", INRIA Research Report 3805 (1999)).

GEN `sqrtni`(GEN `N`), returns the integer square root  $S$  of the non-negative `t_INT`  $N$  (rounded towards 0). This is identical to `sqrtemi(N, NULL)`.

### 6.2.16 GCD, extended GCD and LCM.

long `cgcd`(long `x`, long `y`) returns the GCD of  $x$  and  $y$ .

ulong `ugcd`(ulong `x`, ulong `y`) returns the GCD of  $x$  and  $y$ .

long `clcm`(long `x`, long `y`) returns the LCM of  $x$  and  $y$ , provided it fits into a `long`. Silently overflows otherwise.

GEN `gcdii`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`), returns the GCD of the `t_INTs`  $x$  and  $y$ .

GEN `lcmii`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`), returns the LCM of the `t_INTs`  $x$  and  $y$ .

GEN `bezout`(GEN `a`, GEN `b`, GEN `*u`, GEN `*v`), returns the GCD  $d$  of `t_INTs`  $a$  and  $b$  and sets  $u, v$  to the Bezout coefficients such that  $au + bv = d$ .

long `cbezout`(long `a`, long `b`, long `*u`, long `*v`), returns the GCD  $d$  of  $a$  and  $b$  and sets  $u, v$  to the Bezout coefficients such that  $au + bv = d$ .

### 6.2.17 Pure powers.

`long Z_issquare(GEN n)` returns 1 if the `t_INT`  $n$  is a square, and 0 otherwise. This is tested first modulo small prime powers, then `sqrtremi` is called.

`long Z_issquareall(GEN n, GEN *sqrtn)` as `Z_issquare`. If  $n$  is indeed a square, set `sqrtn` to its integer square root. Uses a fast congruence test mod  $64 \times 63 \times 65 \times 11$  before computing an integer square root.

`long uissquareall(ulong n, ulong *sqrtn)` as `Z_issquareall`, for an `ulong` operand  $n$ .

`long Z_isplayer(GEN x, ulong k)` returns 1 if the `t_INT`  $n$  is a  $k$ -th power, and 0 otherwise; assume that  $k > 1$ .

`long Z_isplayerall(GEN x, ulong k, GEN *pt)` as `Z_isplayer`. If  $n$  is indeed a  $k$ -th power, set `*pt` to its integer  $k$ -th root.

`long Z_isanypower(GEN x, GEN *ptn)` returns the maximal  $k \geq 2$  such that the `t_INT`  $x = n^k$  is a perfect power, or 0 if no such  $k$  exist; in particular `isplayer(1)`, `isplayer(0)`, `isplayer(-1)` all return 0. If the return value  $k$  is not 0 (so that  $x = n^k$ ) and `ptn` is not NULL, set `*ptn` to  $n$ .

The following low-level functions are called by `Z_isanypower` but can be directly useful:

`int is_357_power(GEN x, GEN *ptn, ulong *pmask)` tests whether the integer  $x > 0$  is a 3-rd, 5-th or 7-th power. The bits of `*pmask` initially indicate which test is to be performed; bit 0: 3-rd, bit 1: 5-th, bit 2: 7-th (e.g. `*pmask = 7` performs all tests). They are updated during the call: if the “ $i$ -th power” bit is set to 0 then  $x$  is not a  $k$ -th power. The function returns 0 (not a 3-rd, 5-th or 7-th power), 3 (3-rd power, not a 5-th or 7-th power), 5 (5-th power, not a 7-th power), or 7 (7-th power); if an  $i$ -th power bit is initially set to 0, we take it at face value and assume  $x$  is not an  $i$ -th power without performing any test. If the return value  $k$  is non-zero, set `*ptn` to  $n$  such that  $x = n^k$ .

`int is_pth_power(GEN x, GEN *ptn, ulong *pminp, ulong cutoff)`  $x > 0$  is an integer and we look for the smallest prime  $p \geq \max(11, *pminp)$  such that  $x = n^p$ . (The 11 is due to the fact that `is_357_power` and `issquare` are faster than the generic version for  $p < 11$ .) Fail and return 0 when the existence of  $p$  would imply  $2^{\text{cutoff}} > x^{1/p}$ , meaning that a possible  $n$  is so small that it should have been found by trial division; for maximal speed, you should start by a round of trial division, but the cut-off may also be set to 1 for a rigorous result without any trial division.

Otherwise returns the smallest suitable prime  $p$  and set `*ptn` to  $n$ . `*pminp` is updated to  $p$ , so that we may immediately recall the function with the same parameters after setting  $x = *ptn$ .

### 6.2.18 Factorization.

`GEN Z_factor(GEN n)` factors the `t_INT`  $n$ . The “primes” in the factorization are actually strong pseudoprimes.

`int is_Z_factor(GEN f)` returns 1 if  $f$  looks like the factorization of a positive integer, and 0 otherwise. Useful for sanity checks but not 100% foolproof. Specifically, this routine checks that  $f$  is a two-column matrix all of whose entries are positive integers.

`long Z_issquarefree(GEN x)` returns 1 if the `t_INT`  $n$  is square-free, and 0 otherwise.

`long Z_isfundamental(GEN x)` returns 1 if the `t_INT`  $x$  is a fundamental discriminant, and 0 otherwise.

GEN `Z_factor_until`(GEN `n`, GEN `lim`) as `Z_factor`, but stop the factorization process as soon as the unfactored part is smaller than `lim`. The resulting factorization matrix only contains the factors found. No other assumptions can be made on the remaining factors.

GEN `Z_factor_limit`(GEN `n`, ulong `lim`) trial divide  $n$  by all primes  $p < \text{lim}$  in the precomputed list of prime numbers and return the corresponding factorization matrix. In this case, the last “prime” divisor in the first column of the factorization matrix may well be a proven composite.

If `lim` = 0, the effect is the same as setting `lim` = `maxprime`() + 1: use all precomputed primes.

GEN `boundfact`(GEN `x`, ulong `lim`) as `Z_factor_limit`, applying to `t_INT` or `t_FRAC` inputs.

GEN `Z_smoother`(GEN `n`, GEN `L`, GEN `*pP`, GEN `*pE`) given a `t_VECSMALL`  $L$  containing a list of small primes and a `t_INT`  $n$ , trial divide  $n$  by the elements of  $L$  and return the cofactor. Return NULL if the cofactor is  $\pm 1$ . `*P` and `*E` contain the list of prime divisors found and their exponents, as `t_VECSMALL`s. Neither memory-clean, nor suitable for `gerepileupto`.

GEN `core`(GEN `n`) unique squarefree integer  $d$  dividing  $n$  such that  $n/d$  is a square.

GEN `core2`(GEN `n`) return  $[d, f]$  with  $d$  squarefree and  $n = df^2$ .

GEN `corepartial`(GEN `n`, long `lim`) as `core`, using `boundfact(n, lim)` to partially factor  $n$ . The result is not necessarily squarefree, but  $p^2 \mid n$  implies  $p > \text{lim}$ .

GEN `core2partial`(GEN `n`, long `lim`) as `core2`, using `boundfact(n, lim)` to partially factor  $n$ . The resulting  $d$  is not necessarily squarefree, but  $p^2 \mid n$  implies  $p > \text{lim}$ .

GEN `factor_pn_1`(GEN `p`, long `n`) returns the factorization of  $p^n - 1$ , where  $p$  is prime and  $n$  is a positive integer.

GEN `factor_Aurifeuille_prime`(GEN `p`, long `n`) an Aurifeuillian factor of  $\phi_n(p)$ , assuming  $p$  prime and an Aurifeuillian factor exists ( $p\zeta_n$  is a square in  $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_n)$ ).

GEN `factor_Aurifeuille`(GEN `a`, long `d`) an Aurifeuillian factor of  $\phi_n(a)$ , assuming  $a$  is a non-zero integer and  $n > 2$ . Returns 1 if no Aurifeuillian factor exists.

GEN `factoru`(ulong `n`), returns the factorization of  $n$ . The result is a 2-component vector  $[P, E]$ , where  $P$  and  $E$  are `t_VECSMALL` containing the prime divisors of  $n$ , and the  $v_p(n)$ .

GEN `factoru_pow`(ulong `n`), returns the factorization of  $n$ . The result is a 3-component vector  $[P, E, C]$ , where  $P$ ,  $E$  and  $C$  are `t_VECSMALL` containing the prime divisors of  $n$ , the  $v_p(n)$  and the  $p^{v_p(n)}$ .

### 6.2.19 Primality and compositeness tests.

int `uisprime`(ulong `p`), returns 1 if  $p$  is a prime number and 0 otherwise.

ulong `uprimepi`(ulong `n`), returns the number of primes  $p \leq n$ .

ulong `unextprime`(ulong `n`), returns the smallest prime  $\geq n$ . Return 0 if it cannot be represented as an ulong (bigger than  $2^{64} - 59$  or  $2^{32} - 5$  depending on the word size).

ulong `uprime`(long `n`) returns the  $n$ -th prime, assuming it belongs to the precomputed prime table. Error otherwise.

GEN `prime`(long `n`) same as `utoi(uprime(n))`.

GEN `primes_zv`(long `m`) returns the  $m$ -th first primes, in a `t_VECSMALL`, assuming they belong to the precomputed prime table. Error otherwise.

`int isprime(GEN n)`, returns 1 if the `t_INT` `n` is a (fully proven) prime number and 0 otherwise.

`long isprimeAPRCL(GEN n)`, returns 1 if the `t_INT` `n` is a prime number and 0 otherwise, using only the APRCL test — not even trial division or compositeness tests. The workhorse `isprime` should be faster on average, especially if non-primes are included!

`long BPSW_psp(GEN n)`, returns 1 if the `t_INT` `n` is a Baillie-Pomerance-Selfridge-Wagstaff pseudoprime, and 0 otherwise (proven composite).

`int BPSW_isprime(GEN x)` assuming `x` is a BPSW-pseudoprime, rigorously prove its primality. The function `isprime` is currently implemented as

```
BPSW_psp(x) && BPSW_isprime(x)
```

`long millerrabin(GEN n, long k)` performs  $k$  strong Rabin-Miller compositeness tests on the `t_INT` `n`, using  $k$  random bases. This function also caches square roots of  $-1$  that are encountered during the successive tests and stops as soon as three distinct square roots have been produced; we have in principle factored  $n$  at this point, but unfortunately, there is currently no way for the factoring machinery to become aware of it. (It is highly implausible that hard to find factors would be exhibited in this way, though.) This should be slower than `BPSW_psp` for  $k \geq 4$  and we would expect it to be less reliable.

**6.2.20 Pseudo-random integers.** These routine return pseudo-random integers uniformly distributed in some interval. The all use the same underlying generator which can be seeded and restarted using `getrand` and `setrand`.

`void setrand(GEN seed)` reseeds the random number generator using the seed `n`. The seed is either a technical array output by `getrand` or a small positive integer, used to generate deterministically a suitable state array. For instance, running a randomized computation starting by `setrand(1)` twice will generate the exact same output.

`GEN getrand(void)` returns the current value of the seed used by the pseudo-random number generator `random`. Useful mainly for debugging purposes, to reproduce a specific chain of computations. The returned value is technical (reproduces an internal state array of type `t_VECSMALL`), and can only be used as an argument to `setrand`.

`ulong pari_rand(void)` returns a random  $0 \leq x < 2^{\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}}$ .

`long random_bits(long k)` returns a random  $0 \leq x < 2^k$ . Assumes that  $0 \leq k \leq \text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}$ .

`ulong random_Fl(ulong p)` returns a pseudo-random integer in  $0, 1, \dots, p-1$ .

`GEN randomi(GEN n)` returns a random `t_INT` between 0 and `n-1`.

`GEN randomr(long prec)` returns a random `t_REAL` in  $[0, 1[$ , with precision `prec`.

**6.2.21 Modular operations.** In this subsection, all GENs are `t_INT`

`GEN Fp_red(GEN a, GEN m)` returns  $a$  modulo  $m$  (smallest non-negative residue). (This is identical to `modii`).

`GEN Fp_neg(GEN a, GEN m)` returns  $-a$  modulo  $m$  (smallest non-negative residue).

`GEN Fp_add(GEN a, GEN b, GEN m)` returns the sum of  $a$  and  $b$  modulo  $m$  (smallest non-negative residue).

`GEN Fp_sub(GEN a, GEN b, GEN m)` returns the difference of  $a$  and  $b$  modulo  $m$  (smallest non-negative residue).

`GEN Fp_center(GEN a, GEN p, GEN pov2)` assuming that `pov2` is `shifti(p,-1)` and that  $a$  is between 0 and  $p-1$  and, returns the representative of  $a$  in the symmetric residue system.

`GEN Fp_mul(GEN a, GEN b, GEN m)` returns the product of  $a$  by  $b$  modulo  $m$  (smallest non-negative residue).

`GEN Fp_mulu(GEN a, ulong b, GEN m)` returns the product of  $a$  by  $b$  modulo  $m$  (smallest non-negative residue).

`GEN Fp_sqr(GEN a, GEN m)` returns  $a^2$  modulo  $m$  (smallest non-negative residue).

`ulong Fp_powu(GEN x, ulong n, GEN m)` raises  $x$  to the  $n$ -th power modulo  $m$  (smallest non-negative residue). Not memory-clean, but suitable for `gerepileupto`.

`ulong Fp_pows(GEN x, long n, GEN m)` raises  $x$  to the  $n$ -th power modulo  $m$  (smallest non-negative residue). A negative  $n$  is allowed. Not memory-clean, but suitable for `gerepileupto`.

`GEN Fp_pow(GEN x, GEN n, GEN m)` returns  $x^n$  modulo  $m$  (smallest non-negative residue).

`GEN Fp_inv(GEN a, GEN m)` returns an inverse of  $a$  modulo  $m$  (smallest non-negative residue). Raise an error if  $a$  is not invertible.

`GEN Fp_invsafe(GEN a, GEN m)` as `Fp_inv`, but return `NULL` if  $a$  is not invertible.

`GEN FpV_inv(GEN x, GEN m)`  $x$  being a vector of `t_INTs`, return the vector of inverses of the  $x[i]$  mod  $m$ . The routine uses Montgomery's trick, and involves a single inversion mod  $m$ , plus  $3(N-1)$  multiplications for  $N$  entries. The routine is not stack-clean:  $2N$  integers mod  $m$  are left on stack, besides the  $N$  in the result.

`GEN Fp_div(GEN a, GEN b, GEN m)` returns the quotient of  $a$  by  $b$  modulo  $m$  (smallest non-negative residue). Raise an error if  $b$  is not invertible.

`int invmod(GEN a, GEN m, GEN *g)`, return 1 if  $a$  modulo  $m$  is invertible, else return 0 and set  $g = \gcd(a, m)$ .

`GEN Fp_log(GEN a, GEN g, GEN ord, GEN p)` Let  $g$  such that  $g^{ord} = 1 \pmod{p}$ . Return an integer  $e$  such that  $a^e = g \pmod{p}$ . If  $e$  does not exist, the result is currently undefined.

`GEN Fp_order(GEN a, GEN ord, GEN p)` returns the order of the `t_Fp`  $a$ . If `ord` is non-`NULL`, it is assumed that `ord` is a multiple of the order of  $a$ , either as a `t_INT` or a factorization matrix.

`GEN Fp_sqrt(GEN x, GEN p)` returns a square root of  $x$  modulo  $p$  (the smallest non-negative residue), where  $x, p$  are `t_INTs`, and  $p$  is assumed to be prime. Return `NULL` if  $x$  is not a quadratic residue modulo  $p$ .

`GEN Fp_sqrtn(GEN x, GEN n, GEN p, GEN *zn)` returns an  $n$ -th root of  $x$  modulo  $p$  (smallest non-negative residue), where  $x, n, p$  are `t_INTs`, and  $p$  is assumed to be prime. Return `NULL` if  $x$  is not an  $n$ -th power residue. Otherwise, if  $zn$  is non-`NULL` set it to a primitive  $n$ -th root of 1.

`GEN Zn_sqrt(GEN x, GEN n)` returns one of the square roots of  $x$  modulo  $n$  (possibly not prime), where  $x$  is a `t_INT` and  $n$  is either a `t_INT` or is given by its factorisation matrix. Return `NULL` if no such square root exist.

`long kross(long x, long y)` returns the Kronecker symbol  $(x|y)$ , i.e.  $-1, 0$  or  $1$ . If  $y$  is an odd prime, this is the Legendre symbol. (Contrary to `krouu`, `kross` also supports  $y = 0$ )

`long krouu(ulong x, ulong y)` returns the Kronecker symbol  $(x|y)$ , i.e.  $-1, 0$  or  $1$ . Assumes  $y$  is non-zero. If  $y$  is an odd prime, this is the Legendre symbol.

`long krois(GEN x, long y)` returns the Kronecker symbol  $(x|y)$  of `t_INT`  $x$  and `long`  $y$ . As `kross` otherwise.

`long krosi(long x, GEN y)` returns the Kronecker symbol  $(x|y)$  of `long`  $x$  and `t_INT`  $y$ . As `kross` otherwise.

`long kronecker(GEN x, GEN y)` returns the Kronecker symbol  $(x|y)$  of `t_INTs`  $x$  and  $y$ . As `kross` otherwise.

`GEN pgener_Fp(GEN p)` returns a primitive root modulo  $p$ , assuming  $p$  is prime.

`GEN pgener_Zp(GEN p)` returns a primitive root modulo  $p^k$ ,  $k > 1$ , assuming  $p$  is an odd prime.

`long Zp_issquare(GEN x, GEN p)` returns 1 if the `t_INT`  $x$  is a  $p$ -adic square, 0 otherwise.

`long Zn_issquare(GEN x, GEN n)` returns 1 if `t_INT`  $x$  is a square modulo  $n$  (possibly not prime), where  $n$  is either a `t_INT` or is given by its factorisation matrix. Return 0 otherwise.

`GEN pgener_Fp_local(GEN p, GEN L)`,  $L$  being a vector of primes dividing  $p-1$ , returns an integer  $x$  which is a generator of the  $\ell$ -Sylow of  $\mathbf{F}_p^*$  for every  $\ell$  in  $L$ . In other words,  $x^{(p-1)/\ell} \neq 1$  for all such  $\ell$ . In particular, returns `pgener_Fp(p)` if  $L$  contains all primes dividing  $p-1$ . It is not necessary, and in fact slightly inefficient, to include  $\ell = 2$ , since 2 is treated separately in any case, i.e. the generator obtained is never a square.

### 6.2.22 Extending functions to vector inputs.

The following functions apply  $f$  to the given arguments, recursively if they are of vector / matrix type:

`GEN map_proto_G(GEN (*f)(GEN), GEN x)` For instance, if  $x$  is a `t_VEC`, return a `t_VEC` whose components are the  $f(x[i])$ .

`GEN map_proto_lG(long (*f)(GEN), GEN x)` As above, applying the function `stoi( f() )`.

`GEN map_proto_GG(GEN (*f)(GEN,GEN), GEN x, GEN n)` If  $x$  and  $n$  are both vector types, expand  $x$  first, then  $n$ .

`GEN map_proto_lGG(long (*f)(GEN,GEN), GEN x, GEN n)`

`GEN map_proto_GL(GEN (*f)(GEN,long), GEN x, long y)`

`GEN map_proto_lGL(long (*f)(GEN,long), GEN x, long y)`

In the last function,  $f$  implements an associative binary operator, which we extend naturally to an  $n$ -ary operator  $f_n$  for any  $n$  : by convention,  $f_0() = 1$ ,  $f_1(x) = x$ , and

$$f_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(f_{n-1}(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}), x_n),$$

for  $n \geq 2$ .

**GEN gassoc\_proto(GEN (\*f)(GEN,GEN), GEN x, GEN y)** If  $y$  is not NULL, return  $f(x, y)$ . Otherwise,  $x$  must be of vector type, and we return the result of  $f$  applied to its components, computed using a divide-and-conquer algorithm. More precisely, return

$$f(f(x_1, \text{NULL}), f(x_2, \text{NULL})),$$

where  $x_1, x_2$  are the two halves of  $x$ .

### 6.2.23 Miscellaneous arithmetic functions.

**ulong eulerphiu(ulong n)**, Euler's totient function of  $n$ .

**GEN divisorsu(ulong n)**, returns the divisors of  $n$  in a **t\_VECSMALL**, sorted by increasing order.

**GEN hilbertii(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p)**, returns the Hilbert symbol  $(x, y)$  at the prime  $p$  (NULL for the place at infinity);  $x$  and  $y$  are **t\_INTs**.

**GEN sumdedekind(GEN h, GEN k)** returns the Dedekind sum associated to the **t\_INT**  $h$  and  $k$ ,  $k > 0$ .

**GEN sumdedekind\_coprime(GEN h, GEN k)** as **sumdedekind**, except that  $h$  and  $k$  are assumed to be coprime **t\_INTs**.





## Chapter 7:

### Level 2 kernel

These functions deal with modular arithmetic, linear algebra and polynomials where assumptions can be made about the types of the coefficients.

#### 7.1 Naming scheme.

A function name is built in the following way:  $A_1 \dots A_n \text{fun}$  for an operation *fun* with  $n$  arguments of class  $A_1, \dots, A_n$ . A class name is given by a base ring followed by a number of code letters. Base rings are among

**F1**:  $\mathbf{Z}/l\mathbf{Z}$  where  $l < 2^{\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}}$  is not necessarily prime. Implemented using `ulongs`

**Fp**:  $\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z}$  where  $p$  is a `t_INT`, not necessarily prime. Implemented as `t_INTs`  $z$ , preferably satisfying  $0 \leq z < p$ . More precisely, any `t_INT` can be used as an **Fp**, but reduced inputs are treated more efficiently. Outputs from `Fpxxx` routines are reduced.

**Fq**:  $\mathbf{Z}[X]/(p, T(X))$ ,  $p$  a `t_INT`,  $T$  a `t_POL` with **Fp** coefficients or `NULL` (in which case no reduction modulo  $T$  is performed). Implemented as `t_POLs`  $z$  with **Fp** coefficients,  $\deg(z) < \deg T$ , although  $z$  a `t_INT` is allowed for elements in the prime field.

**Z**: the integers  $\mathbf{Z}$ , implemented as `t_INTs`.

**z**: the integers  $\mathbf{Z}$ , implemented using (signed) `longs`.

**Q**: the rational numbers  $\mathbf{Q}$ , implemented as `t_INTs` and `t_FRACs`.

**Rg**: a commutative ring, whose elements can be `gadd`-ed, `gmul`-ed, etc.

Possible letters are:

**X**: polynomial in  $X$  (`t_POL` in a fixed variable), e.g. **FpX** means  $\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z}[X]$

**Y**: polynomial in  $Y \neq X$ . This is used to resolve ambiguities. E.g. **FpXY** means  $((\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z})[X])[Y]$ .

**V**: vector (`t_VEC` or `t_COL`), treated as a line vector (independently of the actual type). E.g. **ZV** means  $\mathbf{Z}^k$  for some  $k$ .

**C**: vector (`t_VEC` or `t_COL`), treated as a column vector (independently of the actual type). The difference with **V** is purely semantic: if the result is a vector, it will be of type `t_COL` unless mentioned otherwise. For instance the function `ZC_add` receives two integral vectors (`t_COL` or `t_VEC`, possibly different types) of the same length and returns a `t_COL` whose entries are the sums of the input coefficients.

**M**: matrix (`t_MAT`). E.g. **QM** means a matrix with rational entries

**E**: point over an elliptic curve, represented as two-component vectors `[x,y]`, except for the represented by the one-component vector `[0]`. Not all curve models are supported.

**Q**: representative (`t_POL`) of a class in a polynomial quotient ring. E.g. an **FpXQ** belongs to  $(\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z})[X]/(T(X))$ , **FpXQV** means a vector of such elements, etc.

**x**, **y**, **m**, **v**, **c**, **q**: as their uppercase counterpart, but coefficient arrays are implemented using **t\_VECSMALLs**, which coefficient understood as **ulongs**.

**x** and **y** (and **q**) are implemented by a **t\_VECSMALL** whose first coefficient is used as a code-word and the following are the coefficients, similarly to a **t\_POL**. This is known as a 'POLSMALL'.

**m** are implemented by a **t\_MAT** whose components (columns) are **t\_VECSMALLs**. This is known as a 'MATSMALL'.

**v** and **c** are regular **t\_VECSMALLs**. Difference between the two is purely semantic.

Omitting the letter means the argument is a scalar in the base ring. Standard functions *fun* are

**add**: add

**sub**: subtract

**mul**: multiply

**sqr**: square

**div**: divide (Euclidean quotient)

**rem**: Euclidean remainder

**divrem**: return Euclidean quotient, store remainder in a pointer argument. Three special values of that pointer argument modify the default behavior: **NULL** (do not store the remainder, used to implement **div**), **ONLY\_REM** (return the remainder, used to implement **rem**), **ONLY\_DIVIDES** (return the quotient if the division is exact, and **NULL** otherwise).

**gcd**: GCD

**extgcd**: return GCD, store Bezout coefficients in pointer arguments

**pow**: exponentiate

**eval**: evaluation / composition

## 7.2 Modular arithmetic.

These routines implement univariate polynomial arithmetic and linear algebra over finite fields, in fact over finite rings of the form  $(\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z})[X]/(T)$ , where  $p$  is not necessarily prime and  $T \in (\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z})[X]$  is possibly reducible; and finite extensions thereof. All this can be emulated with **t\_INTMOD** and **t\_POLMOD** coefficients and using generic routines, at a considerable loss of efficiency. Also, specialized routines are available that have no obvious generic equivalent.

**7.2.1 FpC / FpV, FpM, FqM.** A **ZV** (resp. a **ZM**) is a **t\_VEC** or **t\_COL** (resp. **t\_MAT**) with **t\_INT** coefficients. An **FpV** or **FpM**, with respect to a given **t\_INT** **p**, is the same with **Fp** coordinates; operations are understood over  $\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z}$ . An **FqM** is a matrix with **Fq** coefficients (with respect to given **T**, **p**), not necessarily reduced (i.e arbitrary **t\_INTs** and **ZXs** in the same variable as **T**).

### 7.2.1.1 Conversions.

`int Rg_is_Fp(GEN z, GEN *p)`, checks if  $z$  can be mapped to  $\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z}$ : a `t_INT` or a `t_INTMOD` whose modulus is equal to  $*p$ , (if  $*p$  not `NULL`), in that case return 1, else 0. If a modulus is found it is put in  $*p$ , else  $*p$  is left unchanged.

`int RgV_is_FpV(GEN z, GEN *p)`,  $z$  a `t_VEC` (resp. `t_COL`), checks if it can be mapped to a `FpV` (resp. `FpC`), by checking `Rg_is_Fp` coefficientwise.

`int RgM_is_FpM(GEN z, GEN *p)`,  $z$  a `t_MAT`, checks if it can be mapped to a `FpM`, by checking `RgV_is_FpV` columnwise.

`GEN Rg_to_Fp(GEN z, GEN p)`,  $z$  a scalar which can be mapped to  $\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z}$ : a `t_INT`, a `t_INTMOD` whose modulus is divisible by  $p$ , a `t_FRAC` whose denominator is coprime to  $p$ , or a `t_PADIC` with underlying prime  $\ell$  satisfying  $p = \ell^n$  for some  $n$  (less than the accuracy of the input). Returns `lift(z * Mod(1,p))`, normalized.

`GEN padic_to_Fp(GEN x, GEN p)` special case of `Rg_to_Fp`, for a  $x$  a `t_PADIC`.

`GEN RgV_to_FpV(GEN z, GEN p)`,  $z$  a `t_VEC` or `t_COL`, returns the `FpV` (as a `t_VEC`) obtained by applying `Rg_to_Fp` coefficientwise.

`GEN RgC_to_FpC(GEN z, GEN p)`,  $z$  a `t_VEC` or `t_COL`, returns the `FpC` (as a `t_COL`) obtained by applying `Rg_to_Fp` coefficientwise.

`GEN RgM_to_FpM(GEN z, GEN p)`,  $z$  a `t_MAT`, returns the `FpM` obtained by applying `RgC_to_FpC` columnwise.

The functions above are generally used as follow:

```
GEN add(GEN x, GEN y)
{
  GEN p = NULL;
  if (Rg_is_Fp(x, &p) && Rg_is_Fp(y, &p) && p)
  {
    x = Rg_to_Fp(x, p); y = Rg_to_Fp(y, p);
    z = Fp_add(x, y, p);
    return Fp_to_mod(z);
  }
  else return gadd(x, y);
}
```

`GEN FpC_red(GEN z, GEN p)`,  $z$  a `ZC`. Returns `lift(Col(z) * Mod(1,p))`, hence a `t_COL`.

`GEN FpV_red(GEN z, GEN p)`,  $z$  a `ZV`. Returns `lift(Vec(z) * Mod(1,p))`, hence a `t_VEC`.

`GEN FpM_red(GEN z, GEN p)`,  $z$  a `ZM`. Returns `lift(z * Mod(1,p))`, which is an `FpM`.

### 7.2.1.2 Basic operations.

GEN FpC\_center(GEN z, GEN p, GEN pov2) returns a  $\mathbf{t\_COL}$  whose entries are the  $\mathbf{Fp\_center}$  of the  $\mathbf{gel}(z, i)$ .

GEN FpM\_center(GEN z, GEN p, GEN pov2) returns a matrix whose entries are the  $\mathbf{Fp\_center}$  of the  $\mathbf{gcoeff}(z, i, j)$ .

GEN FpC\_add(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) adds the  $\mathbf{ZC}$   $x$  and  $y$  and reduce modulo  $p$  to obtain an  $\mathbf{FpC}$ .

GEN FpV\_add(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) same as  $\mathbf{FpC\_add}$ , returning an  $\mathbf{FpV}$ .

GEN FpC\_sub(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) subtracts the  $\mathbf{ZC}$   $y$  to the  $\mathbf{ZC}$   $x$  and reduce modulo  $p$  to obtain an  $\mathbf{FpC}$ .

GEN FpV\_sub(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) same as  $\mathbf{FpC\_sub}$ , returning an  $\mathbf{FpV}$ .

GEN FpC\_Fp\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) multiplies the  $\mathbf{ZC}$   $x$  (seen as a column vector) by the  $\mathbf{t\_INT}$   $y$  and reduce modulo  $p$  to obtain an  $\mathbf{FpC}$ .

GEN FpC\_FpV\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) multiplies the  $\mathbf{ZC}$   $x$  (seen as a column vector) by the  $\mathbf{ZV}$   $y$  (seen as a row vector, assumed to have compatible dimensions), and reduce modulo  $p$  to obtain an  $\mathbf{FpM}$ .

GEN FpM\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) multiplies the two  $\mathbf{ZMs}$   $x$  and  $y$  (assumed to have compatible dimensions), and reduce modulo  $p$  to obtain an  $\mathbf{FpM}$ .

GEN FpM\_FpC\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) multiplies the  $\mathbf{ZM}$   $x$  by the  $\mathbf{ZC}$   $y$  (seen as a column vector, assumed to have compatible dimensions), and reduce modulo  $p$  to obtain an  $\mathbf{FpC}$ .

GEN FpM\_FpC\_mul\_FpX(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p, long v) is a memory-clean version of

```
GEN tmp = FpM_FpC_mul(x,y,p);  
return RgV_to_RgX(tmp, v);
```

GEN FpV\_FpC\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) multiplies the  $\mathbf{ZV}$   $x$  (seen as a row vector) by the  $\mathbf{ZC}$   $y$  (seen as a column vector, assumed to have compatible dimensions), and reduce modulo  $p$  to obtain an  $\mathbf{Fp}$ .

GEN FpV\_dotproduct(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) scalar product of  $x$  and  $y$  (assumed to have the same length).

GEN FpV\_dotsquare(GEN x, GEN p) scalar product of  $x$  with itself. has  $\mathbf{t\_INT}$  entries.

**7.2.1.3 Fp-linear algebra.** The implementations are not asymptotically efficient ( $O(n^3)$  standard algorithms).

GEN FpM\_deplin(GEN x, GEN p) returns a non-trivial kernel vector, or  $\mathbf{NULL}$  if none exist.

GEN FpM\_det(GEN x, GEN p) as  $\mathbf{det}$

GEN FpM\_gauss(GEN a, GEN b, GEN p) as  $\mathbf{gauss}$

GEN FpM\_image(GEN x, GEN p) as  $\mathbf{image}$

GEN FpM\_intersect(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) as  $\mathbf{intersect}$

GEN FpM\_inv(GEN x, GEN p) returns the inverse of  $x$ , or  $\mathbf{NULL}$  if  $x$  is not invertible.

GEN FpM\_invimage(GEN m, GEN v, GEN p) as  $\mathbf{inverseimage}$

GEN FpM\_ker(GEN x, GEN p) as ker  
 long FpM\_rank(GEN x, GEN p) as rank  
 GEN FpM\_indexrank(GEN x, GEN p) as indexrank but returns a t\_VECSMALL  
 GEN FpM\_suppl(GEN x, GEN p) as suppl

#### 7.2.1.4 Fq-linear algebra.

GEN FqM\_gauss(GEN a, GEN b, GEN T, GEN p) as gauss  
 GEN FqM\_ker(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p) as ker  
 GEN FqM\_suppl(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p) as suppl

#### 7.2.2 Flc / Flv, Flm. See FpV, FpM operations.

GEN Flv\_copy(GEN x) returns a copy of x.  
 GEN Flm\_copy(GEN x) returns a copy of x.  
 GEN Flm\_Flc\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, ulong p) multiplies x and y (assumed to have compatible dimensions).  
 GEN Flm\_Fl\_mul(GEN x, ulong y, ulong p) multiplies the Flm x by y.  
 void Flm\_Fl\_mul\_inplace(GEN x, ulong y, ulong p) replaces the Flm x by  $x * y$ .  
 GEN Flc\_Fl\_mul(GEN x, ulong y, ulong p) multiplies the Flv x by y.  
 void Flc\_Fl\_mul\_inplace(GEN x, ulong y, ulong p) replaces the Flc x by  $x * y$ .  
 GEN Flc\_Fl\_div(GEN x, ulong y, ulong p) divides the Flv x by y.  
 void Flc\_Fl\_div\_inplace(GEN x, ulong y, ulong p) replaces the Flv x by  $x/y$ .  
 GEN Flv\_add(GEN x, GEN y, ulong p) adds two Flv.  
 void Flv\_add\_inplace(GEN x, GEN y, ulong p) replaces x by  $x + y$ .  
 GEN Flv\_sub(GEN x, GEN y, ulong p) subtracts y to x.  
 void Flv\_sub\_inplace(GEN x, GEN y, ulong p) replaces x by  $x - y$ .  
 ulong Flv\_dotproduct(GEN x, GEN y, ulong p) returns the scalar product of x and y  
 ulong Flv\_sum(GEN x, ulong p) returns the sums of the components of x.  
 GEN zero\_Flm(long m, long n) creates a Flm with m x n components set to 0. Note that the result allocates a *single* column, so modifying an entry in one column modifies it in all columns.  
 GEN zero\_Flm\_copy(long m, long n) creates a Flm with m x n components set to 0.  
 GEN zero\_Flv(long n) creates a Flv with n components set to 0.  
 GEN row\_Flm(GEN A, long x0) return  $A[i, ]$ , the i-th row of the Flm (or zm) A.  
 GEN Flm\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, ulong p) multiplies x and y (assumed to have compatible dimensions).  
 GEN Flm\_charpoly(GEN x, ulong p) return the characteristic polynomial of the square Flm x, as a Flx.

GEN Flm\_deplin(GEN x, ulong p)  
 ulong Flm\_det(GEN x, ulong p)  
 ulong Flm\_det\_sp(GEN x, ulong p), as Flm\_det, in place (destroys x).  
 GEN Flm\_gauss(GEN a, GEN b, ulong p)  
 GEN Flm\_indexrank(GEN x, ulong p)  
 GEN Flm\_inv(GEN x, ulong p)  
 GEN Flm\_ker(GEN x, ulong p)  
 GEN Flm\_ker\_sp(GEN x, ulong p, long deplin), as Flm\_ker (if deplin=0) or Flm\_deplin (if deplin=1), in place (destroys x).  
 long Flm\_rank(GEN x, ulong p)  
 GEN Flm\_image(GEN x, ulong p)  
 GEN Flm\_transpose(GEN x)  
 GEN Flm\_hess(GEN x, ulong p) upper Hessenberg form of  $x$  over  $\mathbf{F}_p$ .

**7.2.3 F2c / F2v, F2m.** An F2v  $v$  is a `t_VECSMALL` representing a vector over  $\mathbf{F}_2$ . Specifically  $z[0]$  is the usual codeword,  $z[1]$  is the number of components of  $v$  and the coefficients are given by the bits of remaining words by increasing indices.

ulong F2v\_coeff(GEN x, long i) returns the coefficient  $i \geq 1$  of  $x$ .  
 void F2v\_clear(GEN x, long i) sets the coefficient  $i \geq 1$  of  $x$  to 0.  
 void F2v\_flip(GEN x, long i) adds 1 to the coefficient  $i \geq 1$  of  $x$ .  
 void F2v\_set(GEN x, long i) sets the coefficient  $i \geq 1$  of  $x$  to 1.  
 ulong F2m\_coeff(GEN x, long i, long j) returns the coefficient  $(i, j)$  of  $x$ .  
 void F2m\_clear(GEN x, long i, long j) sets the coefficient  $(i, j)$  of  $x$  to 0.  
 void F2m\_flip(GEN x, long i, long j) adds 1 to the coefficient  $(i, j)$  of  $x$ .  
 void F2m\_set(GEN x, long i, long j) sets the coefficient  $(i, j)$  of  $x$  to 1.  
 void F2m\_copy(GEN x) returns a copy of  $x$ .  
 GEN zero\_F2v(long n) creates a F2v with  $n$  components set to 0.  
 GEN zero\_F2m(long m, long n) creates a F2m with  $m \times n$  components set to 0. Note that the result allocates a *single* column, so modifying an entry in one column modifies it in all columns.  
 GEN zero\_F2m\_copy(long m, long n) creates a F2m with  $m \times n$  components set to 0.  
 GEN F2c\_to\_ZC(GEN x)  
 GEN ZV\_to\_F2v(GEN x)  
 GEN F2m\_to\_ZM(GEN x)  
 GEN Flv\_to\_F2v(GEN x)  
 GEN Flm\_to\_F2m(GEN x)

GEN ZM\_to\_F2m(GEN x)

void F2v\_add\_inplace(GEN x, GEN y) replaces  $x$  by  $x + y$ . It is allowed for  $y$  to be shorter than  $x$ .

ulong F2m\_det(GEN x)

ulong F2m\_det\_sp(GEN x), as F2m\_det, in place (destroys  $x$ ).

GEN F2m\_deplin(GEN x)

GEN F2m\_ker(GEN x)

GEN F2m\_ker\_sp(GEN x, long deplin), as F2m\_ker (if deplin=0) or F2m\_deplin (if deplin=1), in place (destroys  $x$ ).

**7.2.4 FlxqV, FlxqM.** See FqV, FqM operations.

GEN FlxqM\_ker(GEN x, GEN T, ulong p)

**7.2.5 FpX.** Let  $p$  an understood  $t\_INT$ , to be given in the function arguments; in practice  $p$  is not assumed to be prime, but be wary. Recall that an  $Fp$  object is a  $t\_INT$ , preferably belonging to  $[0, p - 1]$ ; an  $FpX$  is a  $t\_POL$  in a fixed variable whose coefficients are  $Fp$  objects. Unless mentioned otherwise, all outputs in this section are  $FpX$ s. All operations are understood to take place in  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})[X]$ .

**7.2.5.1 Conversions.** In what follows  $p$  is always a  $t\_INT$ , not necessarily prime.

int RgX\_is\_FpX(GEN z, GEN \*p),  $z$  a  $t\_POL$ , checks if it can be mapped to a  $FpX$ , by checking  $Rg\_is\_Fp$  coefficientwise.

GEN RgX\_to\_FpX(GEN z, GEN p),  $z$  a  $t\_POL$ , returns the  $FpX$  obtained by applying  $Rg\_to\_Fp$  coefficientwise.

GEN FpX\_red(GEN z, GEN p),  $z$  a  $ZX$ , returns  $\text{lift}(z * \text{Mod}(1, p))$ , normalized.

GEN FpXV\_red(GEN z, GEN p),  $z$  a  $t\_VEC$  of  $ZX$ . Applies  $FpX\_red$  componentwise and returns the result (and we obtain a vector of  $FpX$ s).

**7.2.5.2 Basic operations.** In what follows  $p$  is always a  $t\_INT$ , not necessarily prime.

Now, except for  $p$ , the operands and outputs are all  $FpX$  objects. Results are undefined on other inputs.

GEN FpX\_add(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) adds  $x$  and  $y$ .

GEN FpX\_neg(GEN x, GEN p) returns  $-x$ , the components are between 0 and  $p$  if this is the case for the components of  $x$ .

GEN FpX\_renormalize(GEN x, long l), as  $\text{normalizepol}$ , where  $l = \text{lg}(x)$ , in place.

GEN FpX\_sub(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) returns  $x - y$ .

GEN FpX\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) returns  $xy$ .

GEN FpX\_sqr(GEN x, GEN p) returns  $x^2$ .

GEN FpX\_divrem(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p, GEN \*pr) returns the quotient of  $x$  by  $y$ , and sets  $pr$  to the remainder.

GEN FpX\_div(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) returns the quotient of  $x$  by  $y$ .

GEN FpX\_div\_by\_X\_x(GEN A, GEN a, GEN p, GEN \*r) returns the quotient of the FpX  $A$  by  $(X - a)$ , and sets  $r$  to the remainder  $A(a)$ .

GEN FpX\_rem(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) returns the remainder  $x \bmod y$ .

long FpX\_valrem(GEN x, GEN t, GEN p, GEN \*r) The arguments  $x$  and  $e$  being non-zero FpX returns the highest exponent  $e$  such that  $t^e$  divides  $x$ . The quotient  $x/t^e$  is returned in  $*r$ . In particular, if  $t$  is irreducible, this returns the valuation at  $t$  of  $x$ , and  $*r$  is the prime-to- $t$  part of  $x$ .

GEN FpX\_deriv(GEN x, GEN p) returns the derivative of  $x$ . This function is not memory-clean, but nevertheless suitable for gerepileupto.

GEN FpX\_gcd(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) returns a (not necessarily monic) greatest common divisor of  $x$  and  $y$ .

GEN FpX\_halfgcd(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) returns a two-by-two FpXM  $M$  with determinant  $\pm 1$  such that the image  $(a, b)$  of  $(x, y)$  by  $M$  has the property that  $\deg a \geq \frac{\deg x}{2} > \deg b$ .

GEN FpX\_extgcd(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p, GEN \*u, GEN \*v) returns  $d = \text{GCD}(x, y)$  (not necessarily monic), and sets  $*u, *v$  to the Bezout coefficients such that  $*ux + *vy = d$ . If  $*u$  is set to NULL, it is not computed which is a bit faster. This is useful when computing the inverse of  $y$  modulo  $x$ .

GEN FpX\_center(GEN z, GEN p, GEN pov2) returns the polynomial whose coefficient belong to the symmetric residue system. Assumes the coefficients already belong to  $[0, p - 1]$  and  $\text{pov2}$  is  $\text{shifti}(p, -1)$ .

**7.2.5.3 Mixed operations.** The following functions implement arithmetic operations between FpX and Fp operands, the result being of type FpX. The integer  $p$  need not be prime.

GEN FpX\_Fp\_add(GEN y, GEN x, GEN p) add the Fp  $x$  to the FpX  $y$ .

GEN FpX\_Fp\_add\_shallow(GEN y, GEN x, GEN p) add the Fp  $x$  to the FpX  $y$ , using a shallow copy (result not suitable for gerepileupto)

GEN FpX\_Fp\_sub(GEN y, GEN x, GEN p) subtract the Fp  $x$  from the FpX  $y$ .

GEN FpX\_Fp\_sub\_shallow(GEN y, GEN x, GEN p) subtract the Fp  $x$  from the FpX  $y$ , using a shallow copy (result not suitable for gerepileupto)

GEN Fp\_FpX\_sub(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) returns  $x - y$ , where  $x$  is a  $t\_INT$  and  $y$  an FpX.

GEN FpX\_Fp\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) multiplies the FpX  $x$  by the Fp  $y$ .

GEN FpX\_Fp\_mul\_to\_monic(GEN y, GEN x, GEN p) returns  $y * x$  assuming the result is monic of the same degree as  $y$  (in particular  $x \neq 0$ ).



#### 7.2.5.4 Miscellaneous operations.

GEN FpX\_normalize(GEN z, GEN p) divides the FpX z by its leading coefficient. If the latter is 1, z itself is returned, not a copy. If not, the inverse remains uncollected on the stack.

GEN FpX\_invMontgomery(GEN T, GEN p), returns the Montgomery inverse  $M$  of  $T$  defined by  $M(x)x^nT(1/x) \equiv 1 \pmod{x^{n-1}}$  where  $n$  is the degree of  $T$ .

GEN FpX\_rem\_Montgomery(GEN x, GEN mg, GEN T, GEN p), returns  $x$  modulo  $T$ , assuming that  $\deg x \leq 2(\deg T - 1)$  where  $mg$  is the Montgomery inverse of  $T$ .

GEN FpX\_rescale(GEN P, GEN h, GEN p) returns  $h^{\deg(P)}P(x/h)$ .  $P$  is an FpX and  $h$  is a non-zero Fp (the routine would work with any non-zero t\_INT but is not efficient in this case).

GEN FpX\_eval(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) evaluates the FpX  $x$  at the Fp  $y$ . The result is an Fp.

GEN FpXY\_eval(GEN Q, GEN y, GEN x, GEN p)  $Q$  an FpXY, i.e. a t\_POL with Fp or FpX coefficients representing an element of  $\mathbf{F}_p[X][Y]$ . Returns the Fp  $Q(x, y)$ .

GEN FpXY\_evalx(GEN Q, GEN x, GEN p)  $Q$  an FpXY, i.e. a t\_POL with Fp or FpX coefficients representing an element of  $\mathbf{F}_p[X][Y]$ . Returns the FpY  $Q(x, Y)$ .

GEN FpXY\_evaly(GEN Q, GEN y, GEN p, long vy)  $Q$  an FpXY, i.e. a t\_POL with Fp or FpX coefficients representing an element of  $\mathbf{F}_p[X][Y]$ . Returns the FpX  $Q(X, y)$ .

GEN FpXV\_FpC\_mul(GEN V, GEN W, GEN p) multiplies a non-empty line vector of FpX by a column vector of Fp of compatible dimensions. The result is an FpX.

GEN FpXV\_prod(GEN V, GEN p),  $V$  being a vector of FpX, returns their product.

GEN FpV\_roots\_to\_pol(GEN V, GEN p, long v),  $V$  being a vector of INTs, returns the monic FpX  $\prod_i (\text{pol\_x}[v] - V[i])$ .

GEN FpX\_chinese\_coprime(GEN x, GEN y, GEN Tx, GEN Ty, GEN Tz, GEN p): returns an FpX, congruent to  $x \bmod Tx$  and to  $y \bmod Ty$ . Assumes  $Tx$  and  $Ty$  are coprime, and  $Tz = Tx * Ty$  or NULL (in which case it is computed within).

GEN FpV\_polint(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) returns the FpX interpolation polynomial with value  $y[i]$  at  $x[i]$ . Assumes lengths are the same, components are t\_INTs, and the  $x[i]$  are distinct modulo  $p$ .

int FpX\_is\_squarefree(GEN f, GEN p) returns 1 if the FpX  $f$  is squarefree, 0 otherwise.

int FpX\_is\_irred(GEN f, GEN p) returns 1 if the FpX  $f$  is irreducible, 0 otherwise. Assumes that  $p$  is prime. If  $f$  has few factors,  $\text{FpX\_nbfact}(f, p) == 1$  is much faster.

int FpX\_is\_totally\_split(GEN f, GEN p) returns 1 if the FpX  $f$  splits into a product of distinct linear factors, 0 otherwise. Assumes that  $p$  is prime.

GEN FpX\_factor(GEN f, GEN p), factors the FpX  $f$ . Assumes that  $p$  is prime. The returned value  $v$  is a t\_VEC with two components:  $v[1]$  is a vector of distinct irreducible (FpX) factors, and  $v[2]$  is a t\_VECSMALL of corresponding exponents. The order of the factors is deterministic (the computation is not).

long FpX\_nbfact(GEN f, GEN p), assuming the FpX  $f$  is squarefree, returns the number of its irreducible factors. Assumes that  $p$  is prime.

long FpX\_degfact(GEN f, GEN p), as FpX\_factor, but the degrees of the irreducible factors are returned instead of the factors themselves (as a t\_VECSMALL). Assumes that  $p$  is prime.

`long FpX_nbroots(GEN f, GEN p)` returns the number of distinct roots in  $\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z}$  of the FpX  $f$ . Assumes that  $p$  is prime.

`GEN FpX_oneroot(GEN f, GEN p)` returns one root in  $\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z}$  of the FpX  $f$ . Return NULL if no root exists. Assumes that  $p$  is prime.

`GEN FpX_roots(GEN f, GEN p)` returns the roots in  $\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z}$  of the FpX  $f$  (without multiplicity, as a vector of Fps). Assumes that  $p$  is prime.

`GEN random_FpX(long d, long v, GEN p)` returns a random FpX in variable  $v$ , of degree less than  $d$ .

`GEN FpX_resultant(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p)` returns the resultant of  $x$  and  $y$ , both FpX. The result is a `t_INT` belonging to  $[0, p-1]$ .

`GEN FpX_FpXY_resultant(GEN a, GEN b, GEN p)`,  $a$  a `t_POL` of `t_INTs` (say in variable  $X$ ),  $b$  a `t_POL` (say in variable  $X$ ) whose coefficients are either `t_POLs` in  $\mathbf{Z}[Y]$  or `t_INTs`. Returns  $\text{Res}_X(a, b)$  in  $\mathbf{F}_p[Y]$  as an FpY. The function assumes that  $X$  has lower priority than  $Y$ .

**7.2.6 FpXQ, Fq.** Let  $p$  a `t_INT` and  $T$  an FpX for  $p$ , both to be given in the function arguments; an FpXQ object is an FpX whose degree is strictly less than the degree of  $T$ . An Fq is either an FpXQ or an Fp. Both represent a class in  $(\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z}[X])/(T)$ , in which all operations below take place. In addition, Fq routines also allow  $T = \text{NULL}$ , in which case no reduction mod  $T$  is performed on the result.

For efficiency, the routines in this section may leave small unused objects behind on the stack (their output is still suitable for `gerepileupto`). Besides  $T$  and  $p$ , arguments are either FpXQ or Fq depending on the function name. (All Fq routines accept FpXQs by definition, not the other way round.)

`GEN Rg_is_FpXQ(GEN z, GEN *T, GEN *p)`, checks if  $z$  is a GEN which can be mapped to  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]/(T)$ : anything for which `Rg_is_Fp` return 1, a `t_POL` for which `RgX_to_FpX` return 1, a `t_POLMOD` whose modulus is equal to  $*T$  if  $*T$  is not NULL (once mapped to a FpX). If an integer modulus is found it is put in  $*p$ , else  $*p$  is left unchanged. If a polynomial modulus is found it is put in  $*T$ , else  $*T$  is left unchanged.

`int RgX_is_FpXQX(GEN z, GEN *T, GEN *p)`,  $z$  a `t_POL`, checks if it can be mapped to a FpXQX, by checking `Rg_is_FpXQ` coefficientwise.

`GEN Rg_to_FpXQ(GEN z, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $z$  a GEN which can be mapped to  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]/(T)$ : anything `Rg_to_Fp` can be applied to, a `t_POL` to which `RgX_to_FpX` can be applied to, a `t_POLMOD` whose modulus is divisible by  $T$  (once mapped to a FpX), a suitable `t_RFRAC`. Returns  $z$  as an FpXQ, normalized.

`GEN RgX_to_FpXQX(GEN z, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $z$  a `t_POL`, returns the FpXQ obtained by applying `Rg_to_FpXQ` coefficientwise.

`GEN RgX_to_FqX(GEN z, GEN T, GEN p)`: let  $z$  be a `t_POL`; returns the FpXQ obtained by applying `Rg_to_FpXQ` coefficientwise and simplifying scalars to `t_INTs`.

`GEN Fq_red(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $x$  a ZX or `t_INT`, reduce it to an Fq ( $T = \text{NULL}$  is allowed iff  $x$  is a `t_INT`).

`GEN FqX_red(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $x$  a `t_POL` whose coefficients are ZXs or `t_INTs`, reduce them to Fqs. (If  $T = \text{NULL}$ , as `FpXX_red(x, p)`.)

`GEN FqV_red(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $x$  a vector of  $\mathbb{Z}X$ s or  $\mathbb{t\_INT}$ s, reduce them to  $\mathbb{F}_q$ s. (If  $T = \text{NULL}$ , only reduce components mod  $p$  to  $\mathbb{F}_pX$ s or  $\mathbb{F}_p$ s.)

`GEN FpXQ_red(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p)`  $x$  a  $\mathbb{t\_POL}$  whose coefficients are  $\mathbb{t\_INT}$ s, reduce them to  $\mathbb{F}_pX$ s.

`GEN FpXQ_add(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p)`

`GEN FpXQ_sub(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p)`

`GEN FpXQ_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p)`

`GEN FpXQ_sqr(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p)`

`GEN FpXQ_div(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p)`

`GEN FpXQ_inv(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p)` computes the inverse of  $x$

`GEN FpXQ_invsafe(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p)`, as `FpXQ_inv`, returning `NULL` if  $x$  is not invertible.

`GEN FpXQX_renormalize(GEN x, long lx)`

`GEN FpXQ_pow(GEN x, GEN n, GEN T, GEN p)` computes  $x^n$ .

`GEN FpXQ_log(GEN a, GEN g, GEN ord, GEN T, GEN p)` Let  $g$  be of order `ord` in the finite field  $\mathbb{F}_p[X]/(T)$ . Return  $e$  such that  $a^e = g$ . If  $e$  does not exist, the result is currently undefined. Assumes that  $T$  is irreducible mod  $p$ .

`GEN Fp_FpXQ_log(GEN a, GEN g, GEN ord, GEN T, GEN p)` As `FpXQ_log`,  $a$  being a  $\mathbb{F}_p$ .

`int FpXQ_issquare(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p)` returns 1 if  $x$  is a square and 0 otherwise. Assumes that  $T$  is irreducible mod  $p$ .

`GEN FpXQ_order(GEN a, GEN ord, GEN T, GEN p)` returns the order of the  $\mathbb{t\_FpXQ}$   $a$ . If `o` is non-`NULL`, it is assumed that `o` is a multiple of the order of  $a$ , either as a  $\mathbb{t\_INT}$  or a factorization matrix. Assumes that  $T$  is irreducible mod  $p$ .

`GEN FpXQ_sqrtn(GEN x, GEN n, GEN T, GEN p, GEN *zn)` returns an  $n$ -th root of  $x$ . Return `NULL` if  $x$  is not an  $n$ -th power residue. Otherwise, if  $zn$  is non-`NULL` set it to a primitive  $n$ -th root of the unity. Assumes that  $T$  is irreducible mod  $p$ .

`GEN Fq_add(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T/*unused*/, GEN p)`

`GEN Fq_sub(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T/*unused*/, GEN p)`

`GEN Fq_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p)`

`GEN Fq_Fp_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p)` multiplies the  $\mathbb{F}_q$   $x$  by the  $\mathbb{t\_INT}$   $y$ .

`GEN Fq_sqr(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p)`

`GEN Fq_neg(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p)`

`GEN Fq_neg_inv(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p)` computes  $-x^{-1}$

`GEN Fq_inv(GEN x, GEN pol, GEN p)` computes  $x^{-1}$ , raising an error if  $x$  is not invertible.

`GEN Fq_invsafe(GEN x, GEN pol, GEN p)` as `Fq_inv`, but returns `NULL` if  $x$  is not invertible.

`GEN FqV_inv(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p)`  $x$  being a vector of  $\mathbb{t\_Fq}$ s, return the vector of inverses of the  $x[i]$ . The routine uses Montgomery's trick, and involves a single inversion, plus  $3(N - 1)$

multiplications for  $N$  entries. The routine is not stack-clean:  $2N$  FpXQ are left on stack, besides the  $N$  in the result.

GEN Fq\_pow(GEN x, GEN n, GEN pol, GEN p) returns  $x^n$ .

GEN Fq\_sqrt(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p) returns a square root of  $x$ . Return NULL if  $x$  is not a square.

GEN FpXQ\_charpoly(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p) returns the characteristic polynomial of  $x$

GEN FpXQ\_minpoly(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p) returns the minimal polynomial of  $x$

GEN FpXQ\_norm(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p) returns the norm of  $x$

GEN FpXQ\_trace(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p) returns the trace of  $x$

GEN FpXQ\_conjvec(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p) returns the vector of conjugates  $[x, x^p, x^{p^2}, \dots, x^{p^{n-1}}]$  where  $n$  is the degree of  $T$ .

GEN gener\_FpXQ(GEN T, GEN p, GEN \*po) returns a primitive root modulo  $(T, p)$ .  $T$  is an FpX assumed to be irreducible modulo the prime  $p$ . If  $po$  is not NULL it is set to  $[o, fa]$ , where  $o$  is the order of the multiplicative group of the finite field, and  $fa$  is its factorization.

GEN FpXQ\_powers(GEN x, long n, GEN T, GEN p) returns  $[x^0, \dots, x^n]$  as a t\_VEC of FpXQs.

GEN FpXQ\_matrix\_pow(GEN x, long m, long n, GEN T, GEN p), as FpXQ\_powers( $x, n-1, T, p$ ), but returns the powers as a  $m \times n$  matrix. Usually, we have  $m = n = \deg T$ .

GEN FpX\_FpXQ\_eval(GEN f, GEN x, GEN T, GEN p) returns  $f(x)$ .

GEN FpX\_FpXQV\_eval(GEN f, GEN V, GEN T, GEN p) returns  $f(x)$ , assuming that  $V$  was computed by FpXQ\_powers( $x, n, T, p$ ).

**7.2.7 FpXX.** Contrary to what the name implies, an FpXX is a t\_POL whose coefficients are either t\_INTs or t\_FpXs. This reduces memory overhead at the expense of consistency.

GEN FpXX\_red(GEN z, GEN p),  $z$  a t\_POL whose coefficients are either ZXs or t\_INTs. Returns the t\_POL equal to  $z$  with all components reduced modulo  $p$ .

GEN FpXX\_renormalize(GEN x, long l), as normalizepol, where  $l = \lg(x)$ , in place.

GEN FpXX\_add(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) adds  $x$  and  $y$ .

GEN FpXX\_sub(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) returns  $x - y$ .

GEN FpXX\_Fp\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) multiplies the FpXX  $x$  by the Fp  $y$ .

**7.2.8 FpXQX, FqX.** Contrary to what the name implies, an FpXQX is a t\_POL whose coefficients are Fqs. So the only difference between FqX and FpXQX routines is that  $T = \text{NULL}$  is not allowed in the latter. (It was thought more useful to allow t\_INT components than to enforce strict consistency, which would not imply any efficiency gain.)

### 7.2.8.1 Basic operations.

GEN FqX\_add(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p)

GEN FqX\_sub(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p)

GEN FqX\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p)

GEN FqX\_Fq\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p) multiplies the FqX  $x$  by the Fq  $y$ .

GEN FqX\_Fp\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p) multiplies the FqX  $x$  by the  $t\_INT$   $y$ .

GEN FqX\_Fq\_mul\_to\_monic(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p) returns  $x * y$  assuming the result is monic of the same degree as  $x$  (in particular  $y \neq 0$ ).

GEN FqX\_normalize(GEN z, GEN T, GEN p) divides the FqX  $z$  by its leading term.

GEN FqX\_sqr(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p)

GEN FqX\_divrem(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p, GEN \*z)

GEN FqX\_div(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p)

GEN FqX\_rem(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p)

GEN FqX\_deriv(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p) returns the derivative of  $x$ . (This function is suitable for gerepilupto but not memory-clean.)

GEN FqX\_translate(GEN P, GEN c, GEN T, GEN p) let  $c$  be an Fq defined modulo  $(p, T)$ , and let  $P$  be an FqX; returns the translated FqX of  $P(X + c)$ .

GEN FqX\_gcd(GEN P, GEN Q, GEN T, GEN p) returns a (not necessarily monic) greatest common divisor of  $x$  and  $y$ .

GEN FqX\_extgcd(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p, GEN \*ptu, GEN \*ptv) returns  $d = \text{GCD}(x, y)$  (not necessarily monic), and sets  $*u, *v$  to the Bezout coefficients such that  $*ux + *vy = d$ .

GEN FqX\_eval(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p) evaluates the FqX  $x$  at the Fq  $y$ . The result is an Fq.

GEN FpXQX\_red(GEN z, GEN T, GEN p)  $z$  a  $t\_POL$  whose coefficients are ZXs or  $t\_INT$ s, reduce them to FpXQs.

GEN FpXQX\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p)

GEN FpXQX\_FpXQ\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p)

GEN FpXQX\_sqr(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p)

GEN FpXQX\_divrem(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p, GEN \*pr)

GEN FpXQX\_div(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p)

GEN FpXQX\_rem(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p)

GEN FpXQXV\_prod(GEN V, GEN T, GEN p),  $V$  being a vector of FpXQX, returns their product.

GEN FpXQX\_gcd(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p)

GEN FpXQX\_extgcd(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN p, GEN \*ptu, GEN \*ptv)

GEN FpXQXQ\_div(GEN x, GEN y, GEN S, GEN T, GEN p),  $x, y$  and  $S$  being FpXQXs, returns  $x * y^{-1}$  modulo  $S$ .

`GEN FpXQXQ_inv(GEN x, GEN S, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $x$  and  $S$  being  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$ s, returns  $x^{-1}$  modulo  $S$ .  
`GEN FpXQXQ_invsafe(GEN x, GEN S, GEN T, GEN p)`, as `FpXQXQ_inv`, returning NULL if  $x$  is not invertible.  
`GEN FpXQXQ_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN S, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $S$  being  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$ s, returns  $xy$  modulo  $S$ .  
`GEN FpXQXQ_sqr(GEN x, GEN S, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $x$  and  $S$  being  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$ s, returns  $x^2$  modulo  $S$ .  
`GEN FpXQXQ_pow(GEN x, GEN n, GEN S, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $x$  and  $S$  being  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$ s, returns  $x^n$  modulo  $S$ .  
`GEN FqXQ_add(GEN x, GEN y, GEN S, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $S$  being  $\mathbf{F}_q[X]$ s, returns  $x+y$  modulo  $S$ .  
`GEN FqXQ_sub(GEN x, GEN y, GEN S, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $S$  being  $\mathbf{F}_q[X]$ s, returns  $x-y$  modulo  $S$ .  
`GEN FqXQ_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN S, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $S$  being  $\mathbf{F}_q[X]$ s, returns  $xy$  modulo  $S$ .  
`GEN FqXQ_div(GEN x, GEN y, GEN S, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $x$  and  $S$  being  $\mathbf{F}_q[X]$ s, returns  $x/y$  modulo  $S$ .  
`GEN FqXQ_inv(GEN x, GEN S, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $x$  and  $S$  being  $\mathbf{F}_q[X]$ s, returns  $x^{-1}$  modulo  $S$ .  
`GEN FqXQ_invsafe(GEN x, GEN S, GEN T, GEN p)`, as `FqXQ_inv`, returning NULL if  $x$  is not invertible.  
`GEN FqXQ_sqr(GEN x, GEN S, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $x$  and  $S$  being  $\mathbf{F}_q[X]$ s, returns  $x^2$  modulo  $S$ .  
`GEN FqXQ_pow(GEN x, GEN n, GEN S, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $x$  and  $S$  being  $\mathbf{F}_q[X]$ s, returns  $x^n$  modulo  $S$ .  
`GEN FqV_roots_to_pol(GEN V, GEN T, GEN p, long v)`,  $V$  being a vector of  $\mathbf{F}_q$ s, returns the monic  $\mathbf{F}_q[X] \prod_i (\text{pol\_x}[v] - V[i])$ .  
`GEN FpXYQQ_pow(GEN x, GEN n, GEN S, GEN T, GEN p)`,  $x$  being a  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$ ,  $T$  being a  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$  and  $S$  being a  $\mathbf{F}_p[Y]$ , return  $x^n \pmod{S, T, p}$ .

### 7.2.8.2 Miscellaneous operations.

`GEN init_Fq(GEN p, long n, long v)` returns an irreducible polynomial of degree  $n > 0$  over  $\mathbf{F}_p$ , in variable  $v$ .  
`int FqX_is_squarefree(GEN P, GEN T, GEN p)`  
`GEN FqX_roots(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p)` return the roots of  $x$  in  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]/(T)$ . Assumes  $p$  is prime and  $T$  irreducible in  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$ .  
`GEN FqX_factor(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p)` same output convention as `FpX_factor`. Assumes  $p$  is prime and  $T$  irreducible in  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$ .  
`GEN FpX_factorff(GEN P, GEN p, GEN T)`. Assumes  $p$  prime and  $T$  irreducible in  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$ . Factor the  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$   $P$  over the finite field  $\mathbf{F}_p[Y]/(T(Y))$ . See `FpX_factorff_irred` if  $P$  is known to be irreducible of  $\mathbf{F}_p$ .  
`GEN FpX_rootsff(GEN P, GEN p, GEN T)`. Assumes  $p$  prime and  $T$  irreducible in  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$ . Returns the roots of the  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$   $P$  belonging to the finite field  $\mathbf{F}_p[Y]/(T(Y))$ .

`GEN FpX_factorff_irred(GEN P, GEN T, GEN p)`. Assumes  $p$  prime and  $T$  irreducible in  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$ . Factors the *irreducible*  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$   $P$  over the finite field  $\mathbf{F}_p[Y]/(T(Y))$  and returns the vector of irreducible  $\mathbf{F}_q[X]$ s factors (the exponents, being all equal to 1, are not included).

`GEN FpX_ffisom(GEN P, GEN Q, GEN p)`. Assumes  $p$  prime,  $P, Q$  are ZXs, both irreducible mod  $p$ , and  $\deg(P) \mid \deg(Q)$ . Outputs a monomorphism between  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]/(P)$  and  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]/(Q)$ , as a polynomial  $R$  such that  $Q \mid P(R)$  in  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$ . If  $P$  and  $Q$  have the same degree, it is of course an isomorphism.

`void FpX_ffintersect(GEN P, GEN Q, long n, GEN p, GEN *SP, GEN *SQ, GEN MA, GEN MB)`  
Assumes  $p$  is prime,  $P, Q$  are ZXs, both irreducible mod  $p$ , and  $n$  divides both the degree of  $P$  and  $Q$ . Compute  $SP$  and  $SQ$  such that the subfield of  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]/(P)$  generated by  $SP$  and the subfield of  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]/(Q)$  generated by  $SQ$  are isomorphic of degree  $n$ . The polynomials  $P$  and  $Q$  do not need to be of the same variable. If  $MA$  (resp.  $MB$ ) is not NULL, it must be the matrix of the Frobenius map in  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]/(P)$  (resp.  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]/(Q)$ ).

`GEN FpXQ_ffisom_inv(GEN S, GEN T, GEN p)`. Assumes  $p$  is prime,  $T$  a ZX, which is irreducible modulo  $p$ ,  $S$  a ZX representing an automorphism of  $\mathbf{F}_q := \mathbf{F}_p[X]/(T)$ . ( $S(X)$  is the image of  $X$  by the automorphism.) Returns the inverse automorphism of  $S$ , in the same format, i.e. an  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$   $H$  such that  $H(S) \equiv X$  modulo  $(T, p)$ .

`long FqX_nbfact(GEN u, GEN T, GEN p)`. Assumes  $p$  is prime and  $T$  irreducible in  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$ .

`long FqX_nbroots(GEN f, GEN T, GEN p)` Assumes  $p$  is prime and  $T$  irreducible in  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$ .

**7.2.9 Flx.** Let  $p$  an understood `ulong`, assumed to be prime, to be given the the function arguments; an `F1` is an `ulong` belonging to  $[0, p-1]$ , an `Flx`  $z$  is a `t_VECSMALL` representing a polynomial with small integer coefficients. Specifically  $z[0]$  is the usual codeword,  $z[1] = \text{evalvarn}(v)$  for some variable  $v$ , then the coefficients by increasing degree. An `FlxX` is a `t_POL` whose coefficients are `Flxs`.

In the following, an argument called `sv` is of the form `evalvarn(v)` for some variable number  $v$ .

### 7.2.9.1 Basic operations.

`ulong Rg_to_F1(GEN z, ulong p)`,  $z$  which can be mapped to  $\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z}$ : a `t_INT`, a `t_INTMOD` whose modulus is divisible by  $p$ , a `t_FRAC` whose denominator is coprime to  $p$ , or a `t_PADIC` with underlying prime  $\ell$  satisfying  $p = \ell^n$  for some  $n$  (less than the accuracy of the input). Returns `lift(z * Mod(1, p))`, normalized, as an `F1`.

`ulong padic_to_F1(GEN x, ulong p)` special case of `Rg_to_F1`, for a  $x$  a `t_PADIC`.

`GEN Flx_red(GEN z, ulong p)` converts from `zx` with non-negative coefficients to `Flx` (by reducing them mod  $p$ ).

`int Flx_equal1(GEN x)` returns 1 (true) if the `Flx`  $x$  is equal to 1, 0 (false) otherwise.

`GEN Flx_copy(GEN x)` returns a copy of  $x$ .

`GEN Flx_add(GEN x, GEN y, ulong p)`

`GEN Flx_F1_add(GEN y, ulong x, ulong p)`

`GEN Flx_neg(GEN x, ulong p)`

`GEN Flx_neg_inplace(GEN x, ulong p)`, same as `Flx_neg`, in place ( $x$  is destroyed).

`GEN Flx_sub(GEN x, GEN y, ulong p)`

`GEN Flx_mul(GEN x, GEN y, ulong p)`  
`GEN Flx_Fl_mul(GEN y, ulong x, ulong p)`  
`GEN Flx_Fl_mul_to_monic(GEN y, ulong x, ulong p)` returns  $y*x$  assuming the result is monic of the same degree as  $y$  (in particular  $x \neq 0$ ).  
`GEN Flx_sqr(GEN x, ulong p)`  
`GEN Flx_divrem(GEN x, GEN y, ulong p, GEN *pr)`  
`GEN Flx_div(GEN x, GEN y, ulong p)`  
`GEN Flx_rem(GEN x, GEN y, ulong p)`  
`GEN Flx_deriv(GEN z, ulong p)`  
`GEN Flx_gcd(GEN a, GEN b, ulong p)` returns a (not necessarily monic) greatest common divisor of  $x$  and  $y$ .  
`GEN Flx_halfgcd(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p)` returns a two-by-two `FlxM`  $M$  with determinant  $\pm 1$  such that the image  $(a, b)$  of  $(x, y)$  by  $M$  has the property that  $\deg a \geq \frac{\deg x}{2} > \deg b$ .  
`GEN Flx_extgcd(GEN a, GEN b, ulong p, GEN *ptu, GEN *ptv)`  
`GEN Flx_pow(GEN x, long n, ulong p)`  
`GEN Flx_roots_naive(GEN f, ulong p)` returns the vector of roots of  $f$  as a `t_VEC` (multiple roots are not repeated), found by an exhaustive search. Efficient for small  $p$  and small degrees!

### 7.2.9.2 Miscellaneous operations.

`GEN pol0_Flx(long sv)` returns a zero `Flx` in variable  $v$ .  
`GEN zero_Flx(long sv)` alias for `pol0_Flx`  
`GEN pol1_Flx(long sv)` returns the unit `Flx` in variable  $v$ .  
`GEN polx_Flx(long sv)` returns the variable  $v$  as degree 1 `Flx`.  
`GEN Flx_normalize(GEN z, ulong p)`, as `FpX_normalize`.  
`GEN random_Flx(long d, long sv, ulong p)` returns a random `Flx` in variable  $v$ , of degree less than  $d$ .  
`GEN Flx_recip(GEN x)`, returns the reciprocal polynomial  
`ulong Flx_resultant(GEN a, GEN b, ulong p)`, returns the resultant of  $a$  and  $b$   
`ulong Flx_extresultant(GEN a, GEN b, ulong p, GEN *ptU, GEN *ptV)` given two `Flx`  $a$  and  $b$ , returns their resultant and sets Bezout coefficients (if the resultant is 0, the latter are not set).  
`GEN Flx_invMontgomery(GEN T, ulong p)`, returns the Montgomery inverse  $M$  of  $T$  defined by  $M(x)x^nT(1/x) \equiv 1 \pmod{x^{n-1}}$  where  $n$  is the degree of  $T$ .  
`GEN Flx_rem_Montgomery(GEN x, GEN mg, GEN T, ulong p)`, returns  $x$  modulo  $T$ , assuming that  $\deg x \leq 2(\deg T - 1)$  where  $mg$  is the Montgomery inverse of  $T$ .  
`GEN Flx_renormalize(GEN x, long l)`, as `FpX_renormalize`, where  $l = \lg(x)$ , in place.  
`GEN Flx_shift(GEN T, long n)` returns  $T * x^n$  if  $n \geq 0$ , and  $T \setminus x^{-n}$  otherwise.



`long Flx_val(GEN x)` returns the valuation of  $x$ , i.e. the multiplicity of the 0 root.  
`long Flx_valrem(GEN x, GEN *Z)` as `RgX_valrem`, returns the valuation of  $x$ . In particular, if the valuation is 0, set  $*Z$  to  $x$ , not a copy.  
`GEN FlxYqQ_pow(GEN x, GEN n, GEN S, GEN T, ulong p)`, as `FpXYQQ_pow`.  
`GEN Flx_div_by_X_x(GEN A, ulong a, ulong p, ulong *rem)`, returns the Euclidean quotient of the `Flx`  $A$  by  $X - a$ , and sets `rem` to the remainder  $A(a)$ .  
`ulong Flx_eval(GEN x, ulong y, ulong p)`, as `FpX_eval`.  
`GEN Flx_deflate(GEN P, long d)` assuming  $P$  is a polynomial of the form  $Q(X^d)$ , return  $Q$ .  
`GEN Flx_inflate(GEN P, long d)` returns  $P(X^d)$ .  
`GEN FlxV_Flc_mul(GEN V, GEN W, ulong p)`, as `FpXV_FpC_mul`.  
`int Flx_is_squarefree(GEN z, ulong p)`  
`long Flx_nbfact(GEN z, ulong p)`, as `FpX_nbfact`.  
`GEN Flx_nbfact_by_degree(GEN z, long *nb, ulong p)` Assume that the `Flx`  $z$  is squarefree mod the prime  $p$ . Returns a `t_VECSMALL`  $D$  with `deg z` entries, such that  $D[i]$  is the number of irreducible factors of degree  $i$ . Set `nb` to the total number of irreducible factors (the sum of the  $D[i]$ ).  
`long FpX_nbfact(GEN f, GEN p)`, assuming the `FpX`  $f$  is squarefree, returns the number of its irreducible factors. Assumes that  $p$  is prime.  
`long Flx_nbroots(GEN f, ulong p)`, as `FpX_nbroots`.  
`GEN Flv_polint(GEN x, GEN y, ulong p, long sv)` as `FpV_polint`, returning an `Flx` in variable  $v$ .  
`GEN Flv_roots_to_pol(GEN a, ulong p, long sv)` as `FpV_roots_to_pol` returning an `Flx` in variable  $v$ .  
**7.2.10 Flxq.** See `FpXQ` operations.  
`GEN Flxq_add(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, ulong p)`  
`GEN Flxq_sub(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, ulong p)`  
`GEN Flxq_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, ulong p)`  
`GEN Flxq_sqr(GEN y, GEN T, ulong p)`  
`GEN Flxq_inv(GEN x, GEN T, ulong p)`  
`GEN Flxq_invsafe(GEN x, GEN T, ulong p)`  
`GEN Flxq_div(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, ulong p)`  
`GEN Flxq_pow(GEN x, GEN n, GEN T, ulong p)`  
`GEN Flxq_powers(GEN x, long n, GEN T, ulong p)`  
`GEN Flxq_matrix_pow(GEN x, long m, long n, GEN T, ulong p)`, see `FpXQ_matrix_pow`.  
`GEN FlxqV_roots_to_pol(GEN V, GEN T, ulong p, long v)` as `FqV_roots_to_pol` returning an `FlxqX` in variable  $v$ .

`GEN Flxq_order(GEN a, GEN ord, GEN T, ulong p)` returns the order of the `t_Flxq` `a`. If `o` is non-NULL, it is assumed that `o` is a multiple of the order of `a`, either as a `t_INT` or a factorization matrix.

`int Flxq_issquare(GEN x, GEN T, ulong p)` returns 1 if  $x$  is a square and 0 otherwise. Assumes that `T` is irreducible mod `p`.

`GEN Flxq_log(GEN a, GEN g, GEN ord, GEN T, ulong p)` Let  $g$  of exact order `ord` in the field  $F_p[X]/(T)$ . Return  $e$  such that  $a^e = g$ . If  $e$  does not exist, the result is currently undefined. Assumes that `T` is irreducible mod `p`.

`GEN Flxq_sqrtn(GEN x, GEN n, GEN T, ulong p, GEN *zn)` returns an  $n$ -th root of  $x$ . Return NULL if  $x$  is not an  $n$ -th power residue. Otherwise, if `zn` is non-NULL set it to a primitive  $n$ -th root of 1. Assumes that `T` is irreducible mod `p`.

`GEN Flxq_charpoly(GEN x, GEN T, ulong p)` returns the characteristic polynomial of  $x$

`GEN Flxq_minpoly(GEN x, GEN T, ulong p)` returns the minimal polynomial of  $x$

`ulong Flxq_norm(GEN x, GEN T, ulong p)` returns the norm of  $x$

`ulong Flxq_trace(GEN x, GEN T, ulong p)` returns the trace of  $x$

`GEN Flxq_conjvec(GEN x, GEN T, ulong p)` returns the conjugates  $[x, x^p, x^{p^2}, \dots, x^{p^{n-1}}]$  where  $n$  is the degree of  $T$ .

`GEN gener_Flxq(GEN T, ulong p, GEN *po)` returns a primitive root modulo  $(T, p)$ .  $T$  is an `Flx` assumed to be irreducible modulo the prime  $p$ . If `po` is not NULL it is set to  $[o, fa]$ , where  $o$  is the order of the multiplicative group of the finite field, and  $fa$  is its factorization.

#### 7.2.11 FlxX. See FpXX operations.

`GEN pol1_FlxX(long vX, long sx)` returns the unit `FlxX` as a `t_POL` in variable `vX` which only coefficient is `pol1_Flx(sx)`.

`GEN FlxX_add(GEN P, GEN Q, ulong p)`

`GEN FlxY_Flx_div(GEN x, GEN y, ulong p)`

`GEN FlxX_renormalize(GEN x, long l)`, as `normalizepol`, where  $l = \lg(x)$ , in place.

`GEN FlxX_resultant(GEN u, GEN v, ulong p, long sv)` Returns  $\text{Res}_X(u, v)$ , which is an `Flx`. The coefficients of `u` and `v` are assumed to be in the variable `v`.

`GEN Flx_FlxY_resultant(GEN a, GEN b, ulong p)` Returns  $\text{Res}_x(a, b)$ , which is an `Flx` in the main variable of `b`.

`GEN FlxX_shift(GEN a, long n)`

**7.2.12 FlxqX.** See FpXQX operations.

GEN FlxqX\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, ulong p)

GEN FlxqX\_Flxq\_mul(GEN P, GEN U, GEN T, ulong p)

GEN FlxqX\_Flxq\_mul\_to\_monic(GEN P, GEN U, GEN T, ulong p) returns  $P * U$  assuming the result is monic of the same degree as  $P$  (in particular  $U \neq 0$ ).

GEN FlxqX\_red(GEN z, GEN T, ulong p)

GEN FlxqX\_normalize(GEN z, GEN T, ulong p)

GEN FlxqX\_sqr(GEN x, GEN T, ulong p)

GEN FlxqX\_divrem(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, ulong p, GEN \*pr)

GEN FlxqX\_div(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, ulong p)

GEN FlxqX\_rem(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, ulong p)

GEN FlxqX\_gcd(GEN x, GEN y, ulong p) returns a (not necessarily monic) greatest common divisor of  $x$  and  $y$ .

GEN FlxqX\_extgcd(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, ulong p, GEN \*ptu, GEN \*ptv)

GEN FlxqXV\_prod(GEN V, GEN T, ulong p)

GEN FlxqX\_safegcd(GEN P, GEN Q, GEN T, ulong p) Returns the *monic* GCD of  $P$  and  $Q$  if Euclid's algorithm succeeds and NULL otherwise. In particular, if  $p$  is not prime or  $T$  is not irreducible over  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]$ , the routine may still be used (but will fail if non-invertible leading terms occur).

**7.2.13 FlxqXQ.** See FpXQXQ operations.

GEN FlxqXQ\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN S, GEN T, ulong p)

GEN FlxqXQ\_sqr(GEN x, GEN S, GEN T, ulong p)

GEN FlxqXQ\_inv(GEN x, GEN S, GEN T, ulong p)

GEN FlxqXQ\_invsafe(GEN x, GEN S, GEN T, ulong p)

GEN FlxqXQ\_pow(GEN x, GEN n, GEN S, GEN T, ulong p)

**7.2.14 F2x.** An F2x  $z$  is a t\_VECSMALL representing a polynomial over  $\mathbf{F}_2[X]$ . Specifically  $z[0]$  is the usual codeword,  $z[1] = \text{evalvarn}(v)$  for some variable  $v$  and the coefficients are given by the bits of remaining words by increasing degree.

### 7.2.14.1 Basic operations.

`ulong F2x_coeff(GEN x, long i)` returns the coefficient  $i \geq 0$  of  $x$ .

`void F2x_clear(GEN x, long i)` sets the coefficient  $i \geq 0$  of  $x$  to 0.

`void F2x_flip(GEN x, long i)` adds 1 to the coefficient  $i \geq 0$  of  $x$ .

`void F2x_set(GEN x, long i)` sets the coefficient  $i \geq 0$  of  $x$  to 1.

`GEN Flx_to_F2x(GEN x)`

`GEN Z_to_F2x(GEN x, long sv)`

`GEN ZX_to_F2x(GEN x)`

`GEN ZXX_to_F2xX(GEN x, long v)`

`GEN F2x_to_Flx(GEN x)`

`GEN F2x_to_ZX(GEN x)`

`GEN pol0_F2x(long sv)` returns a zero F2x in variable  $v$ .

`GEN zero_F2x(long sv)` alias for `pol0_F2x`.

`GEN pol1_F2x(long sv)` returns the F2x in variable  $v$  constant to 1.

`GEN polx_F2x(long sv)` returns the variable  $v$  as degree 1 F2x.

`GEN random_F2x(long d, long sv)` returns a random F2x in variable  $v$ , of degree less than  $d$ .

`long F2x_degree(GEN x)` returns the degree of the F2x  $x$ . The degree of 0 is defined as  $-1$ .

`int F2x_equal1(GEN x)`

`GEN F2x_1_add(GEN y)` returns  $y+1$  where  $y$  is a Flx.

`GEN F2x_add(GEN x, GEN y)`

`GEN F2x_mul(GEN x, GEN y)`

`GEN F2x_sqr(GEN x)`

`GEN F2x_divrem(GEN x, GEN y, GEN *pr)`

`GEN F2x_rem(GEN x, GEN y)`

`GEN F2x_div(GEN x, GEN y)`

`GEN F2x_renormalize(GEN x, long lx)`

`GEN F2x_deriv(GEN x)`

`GEN F2x_extgcd(GEN a, GEN b, GEN *ptu, GEN *ptv)`

`GEN F2x_gcd(GEN a, GEN b)`

**7.2.15 F2xq.** See FpXQ operations.

GEN F2xq\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN pol)

GEN F2xq\_sqr(GEN x, GEN pol)

GEN F2xq\_div(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T)

GEN F2xq\_inv(GEN x, GEN T)

GEN F2xq\_invsafe(GEN x, GEN T)

GEN F2xq\_pow(GEN x, GEN n, GEN pol)

ulong F2xq\_trace(GEN x, GEN T)

GEN F2xq\_conjvec(GEN x, GEN T) returns the vector of conjugates  $[x, x^2, x^{2^2}, \dots, x^{2^{n-1}}]$  where  $n$  is the degree of  $T$ .

GEN F2xq\_log(GEN a, GEN g, GEN ord, GEN T)

GEN F2xq\_order(GEN a, GEN ord, GEN T)

GEN F2xq\_sqrt(GEN a, GEN T)

GEN F2xq\_sqrtn(GEN a, GEN n, GEN T, GEN \*zeta)

GEN gener\_F2xq(GEN T, GEN \*po)

GEN F2xq\_powers(GEN x, long n, GEN T)

GEN F2xq\_matrix\_pow(GEN x, long m, long n, GEN T)

## 7.2.16 Functions returning objects with t\_INTMOD coefficients.

Those functions are mostly needed for interface reasons: t\_INTMODs should not be used in library mode since the modular kernel is more flexible and more efficient, but GP users do not have access to the modular kernel. We document them for completeness:

GEN Fp\_to\_mod(GEN z, GEN p),  $z$  a t\_INT. Returns  $z * \text{Mod}(1, p)$ , normalized. Hence the returned value is a t\_INTMOD.

GEN FpX\_to\_mod(GEN z, GEN p),  $z$  a ZX. Returns  $z * \text{Mod}(1, p)$ , normalized. Hence the returned value has t\_INTMOD coefficients.

GEN FpC\_to\_mod(GEN z, GEN p),  $z$  a ZC. Returns  $\text{Col}(z) * \text{Mod}(1, p)$ , a t\_COL with t\_INTMOD coefficients.

GEN FpV\_to\_mod(GEN z, GEN p),  $z$  a ZV. Returns  $\text{Vec}(z) * \text{Mod}(1, p)$ , a t\_VEC with t\_INTMOD coefficients.

GEN FpM\_to\_mod(GEN z, GEN p),  $z$  a ZM. Returns  $z * \text{Mod}(1, p)$ , with t\_INTMOD coefficients.

GEN FpXQC\_to\_mod(GEN V, GEN T, GEN p)  $V$  being a vector of FpXQ, converts each entry to a t\_POLMOD with t\_INTMOD coefficients, and return a t\_COL.

GEN QXQV\_to\_mod(GEN V, GEN T)  $V$  a vector of QXQ, which are lifted representatives of elements of  $\mathbf{Q}[X]/(T)$  (number field elements in most applications) and  $T$  is in  $\mathbf{Z}[X]$ . Return a vector where all non-rational entries are converted to t\_POLMOD modulo  $T$ ; no reduction mod  $T$  is attempted: the representatives should be already reduced. Used to normalize the output of nroots.

GEN QXQXV\_to\_mod(GEN V, GEN T)  $V$  a vector of polynomials whose coefficients are QXQ. Analogous to QXQV\_to\_mod. Used to normalize the output of nffactor.

The following functions are obsolete and should not be used: they receive a polynomial with arbitrary coefficients, apply RgX\_to\_FpX, a function from the modular kernel, then \*\_to\_mod:

GEN rootmod(GEN f, GEN p), applies FpX\_roots.

GEN rootmod2(GEN f, GEN p), applies ZX\_to\_flx then Flx\_roots\_naive.

GEN factmod(GEN f, GEN p) applies FpX\_factor.

GEN simplefactmod(GEN f, GEN p) applies FpX\_degfact.

### 7.2.17 Chinese remainder theorem over $\mathbb{Z}$ .

GEN Z\_chinese(GEN a, GEN b, GEN A, GEN B) returns the integer in  $[0, \text{lcm}(A, B)[$  congruent to  $a \bmod A$  and  $b \bmod B$ , assuming it exists; in other words, that  $a$  and  $b$  are congruent mod  $\text{gcd}(A, B)$ .

GEN Z\_chinese\_all(GEN a, GEN b, GEN A, GEN B, GEN \*pC) as Z\_chinese, setting \*pC to the lcm of  $A$  and  $B$ .

GEN Z\_chinese\_coprime(GEN a, GEN b, GEN A, GEN B, GEN C), as Z\_chinese, assuming that  $\text{gcd}(A, B) = 1$  and that  $C = \text{lcm}(A, B) = AB$ .

void Z\_chinese\_pre(GEN A, GEN B, GEN \*pC, GEN \*pU, GEN \*pd) initializes chinese remainder computations modulo  $A$  and  $B$ . Sets \*pC to  $\text{lcm}(A, B)$ , \*pd to  $\text{gcd}(A, B)$ , \*pU to an integer congruent to 0 mod  $(A/d)$  and 1 mod  $(B/d)$ . It is allowed to set  $\text{pd} = \text{NULL}$ , in which case,  $d$  is still computed, but not saved.

GEN Z\_chinese\_post(GEN a, GEN b, GEN C, GEN U, GEN d) returns the solution to the chinese remainder problem  $x$  congruent to  $a \bmod A$  and  $b \bmod B$ , where  $C, U, d$  were set in Z\_chinese\_pre. If  $d$  is NULL, assume the problem has a solution. Otherwise, return NULL if it has no solution.

The following pair of functions is used in homomorphic imaging schemes, when reconstructing an integer from its images modulo pairwise coprime integers. The idea is as follows: we want to discover an integer  $H$  which satisfies  $|H| < B$  for some known bound  $B$ ; we are given pairs  $(H_p, p)$  with  $H$  congruent to  $H_p \bmod p$  and all  $p$  pairwise coprime.

Given  $H$  congruent to  $H_p$  modulo a number of  $p$ , whose product is  $q$ , and a new pair  $(H_p, p)$ ,  $p$  coprime to  $q$ , the following incremental functions use the chinese remainder theorem (CRT) to find a new  $H$ , congruent to the preceding one modulo  $q$ , but also to  $H_p$  modulo  $p$ . It is defined uniquely modulo  $qp$ , and we choose the centered representative. When  $P$  is larger than  $2B$ , we have  $H = H$ , but of course, the value of  $H$  may stabilize sooner. In many applications it is possible to directly check that such a partial result is correct.

GEN Z\_init\_CRT(ulong Hp, ulong p) given a Fl Hp in  $[0, p - 1]$ , returns the centered representative  $H$  congruent to  $H_p$  modulo  $p$ .

int Z\_incremental\_CRT(GEN \*H, ulong Hp, GEN q, GEN qp, ulong p) given a t\_INT \*H, centered modulo  $q$ , a new pair  $(H_p, p)$  with  $p$  coprime to  $q$ , and the product  $qp = p \cdot q$ , this function updates \*H so that it also becomes congruent to  $(H_p, p)$ . It returns 1 if the new value is equal to the old one, and 0 otherwise.

GEN chinese1\_coprime\_Z(GEN v) an alternative divide-and-conquer implementation:  $v$  is a vector of t\_INTMOD with pairwise coprime moduli. Return the t\_INTMOD solving the corresponding chinese remainder problem. This is a streamlined version of

GEN chinese1(GEN v), which solves a general chinese remainder problem (not necessarily over  $\mathbf{Z}$ , moduli not assumed coprime).

As above, for  $H$  a ZM: we assume that  $H$  and all  $H_p$  have dimension  $> 0$ . The original  $*H$  is destroyed.

```
GEN ZM_init_CRT(GEN Hp, ulong p)
```

```
int ZM_incremental_CRT(GEN *H, GEN Hp, GEN q, GEN qp, ulong p)
```

As above for  $H$  a ZX: note that the degree may increase or decrease. The original  $*H$  is destroyed.

```
GEN ZX_init_CRT(GEN Hp, ulong p, long v)
```

```
int ZX_incremental_CRT(GEN *H, GEN Hp, GEN q, GEN qp, ulong p)
```

### 7.2.18 Rational reconstruction.

int Fp\_ratlift(GEN x, GEN m, GEN amax, GEN bmax, GEN \*a, GEN \*b). Assuming that  $0 \leq x < m$ ,  $amax \geq 0$ , and  $bmax > 0$  are t\_INTs, and that  $2amaxbmax < m$ , attempts to recognize  $x$  as a rational  $a/b$ , i.e. to find t\_INTs  $a$  and  $b$  such that

- $a \equiv bx$  modulo  $m$ ,
- $|a| \leq amax$ ,  $0 < b \leq bmax$ ,
- $\gcd(m, b) = \gcd(a, b)$ .

If unsuccessful, the routine returns 0 and leaves  $a$ ,  $b$  unchanged; otherwise it returns 1 and sets  $a$  and  $b$ .

In almost all applications, we actually know that a solution exists, as well as a non-zero multiple  $B$  of  $b$ , and  $m = p^\ell$  is a prime power, for a prime  $p$  chosen coprime to  $B$  hence to  $b$ . Under the single assumption  $\gcd(m, b) = 1$ , if a solution  $a, b$  exists satisfying the three conditions above, then it is unique.

int ratlift(GEN x, GEN m, GEN amax, GEN bmax, GEN \*a, GEN \*b). Calls Fp\_ratlift after explicitly checking all preconditions.

GEN FpM\_ratlift(GEN M, GEN m, GEN amax, GEN bmax, GEN denom) given an FpM modulo  $m$  with reduced or Fp\_center-ed entries, reconstructs a matrix with rational coefficients by applying Fp\_ratlift to all entries. Assume that all preconditions for Fp\_ratlift are satisfied, as well  $\gcd(m, b) = 1$  (so that the solution is unique if it exists). Return NULL if the reconstruction fails, and the rational matrix otherwise. If denom is not NULL check further that all denominators divide denom.

The functions is not stack clean if one coefficients of  $M$  is negative (centered residues), but still suitable for gerepileupto.

GEN FpX\_ratlift(GEN P, GEN m, GEN amax, GEN bmax, GEN denom) as FpM\_ratlift, where  $P$  is an FpX.

### 7.2.19 Hensel lifts.

**GEN Zp\_sqrtlift**(GEN *a*, GEN *S*, GEN *p*, long *e*) let  $a, b, p$  be  $\mathbf{t\_INTs}$ , with  $p > 1$  odd, such that  $a^2 \equiv b \pmod{p}$ . Returns a  $\mathbf{t\_INT}$   $A$  such that  $A^2 \equiv b \pmod{p^e}$ . Special case of **Zp\_sqrtnlift**.

**GEN Zp\_sqrtnlift**(GEN *b*, GEN *n*, GEN *a*, GEN *p*, long *e*) let  $a, b, n, p$  be  $\mathbf{t\_INTs}$ , with  $n, p > 1$ , and  $p$  coprime to  $n$ , such that  $a^n \equiv b \pmod{p}$ . Returns a  $\mathbf{t\_INT}$   $A$  such that  $A^n \equiv b \pmod{p^e}$ . Special case of **ZpX\_liftroot**.

**GEN ZpXQ\_sqrtnlift**(GEN *b*, GEN *n*, GEN *a*, GEN *T*, GEN *p*, long *e*) let  $n, p$  be  $\mathbf{t\_INTs}$ , with  $n, p > 1$  and  $p$  coprime to  $n$ , and  $a, b$  be  $\mathbf{Fqs}$  (modulo  $T$ ) such that  $a^n \equiv b \pmod{(p, T)}$ . Returns an  $\mathbf{Fq}$   $A$  such that  $A^n \equiv b \pmod{(p^e, T)}$ . Special case of **ZpXQ\_liftroot**.

**GEN rootpadicfast**(GEN *f*, GEN *p*, long *e*)  $f$  a  $\mathbf{ZX}$  with leading term prime to  $p$ , and without multiple roots mod  $p$ . Return a vector of  $\mathbf{t\_INTs}$  which are the roots of  $f \pmod{p^e}$ . This is a very important special case of **rootpadic**.

**GEN ZpX\_liftroot**(GEN *f*, GEN *a*, GEN *p*, long *e*)  $f$  a  $\mathbf{ZX}$  with leading term prime to  $p$ , and  $a$  a simple root mod  $p$ . Return a  $\mathbf{t\_INT}$  which are the root of  $f \pmod{p^e}$  congruent to  $a \pmod{p}$ .

**GEN ZpX\_liftroots**(GEN *f*, GEN *S*, GEN *q*, long *e*)  $f$  a  $\mathbf{ZX}$  with leading term prime to  $p$ , and  $S$  a vector of simple roots mod  $p$ . Return a vector of  $\mathbf{t\_INTs}$  which are the root of  $f \pmod{p^e}$  congruent to the  $S[i] \pmod{p}$ .

**GEN ZpXQX\_liftroot**(GEN *f*, GEN *a*, GEN *T*, GEN *p*, long *e*) as **ZpX\_liftroot**, but  $f$  is now a polynomial in  $\mathbf{Z}[X, Y]$  and we find roots in the unramified extension of  $\mathbf{Q}_p$  with residue field  $\mathbf{F}_p[Y]/(T)$ .

**GEN ZpX\_liftfact**(GEN *A*, GEN *B*, GEN *T*, GEN *p*, long *e*, GEN *pe*) is the routine underlying **polhensellift**. Here,  $p$  is prime,  $T(Y)$  defines a finite field  $\mathbf{F}_q$ , either  $\mathbf{F}_q = \mathbf{F}_p$  ( $T$  is **NULL**) or a non-prime finite field ( $T$  an  $\mathbf{FpX}$ ).  $A$  is a polynomial in  $\mathbf{Z}[X]$  ( $T$  **NULL**) or  $\mathbf{Z}[X, Y]$ , whose leading coefficient is non-zero in  $\mathbf{F}_q$ .  $B$  is a vector of monic  $\mathbf{FpX}$  ( $T$  **NULL**) or  $\mathbf{FqX}$ , pairwise coprime in  $\mathbf{F}_q[X]$ , whose product is congruent to  $A/\text{lc}(A)$  in  $\mathbf{F}_q[X]$ . Lifts the elements of  $B \pmod{\mathbf{pe} = p^e}$ , such that the congruence now holds mod  $(T, p^e)$ .

The following technical function returns an optimal sequence of  $p$ -adic accuracies, for a given target accuracy:

**ulong quadratic\_prec\_mask**(long *n*) we want to reach accuracy  $n \geq 1$ , starting from accuracy 1, using a quadratically convergent, self-correcting, algorithm; in other words, from inputs correct to accuracy  $l$  one iteration outputs a result correct to accuracy  $2l$ . For instance, to reach  $n = 9$ , we want to use accuracies  $[1, 2, 3, 5, 9]$  instead of  $[1, 2, 4, 8, 9]$ . The idea is to essentially double the accuracy at each step, and not overshoot in the end.

Let  $a_0 = 1, a_1 = 2, \dots, a_k = n$ , be the desired sequence of accuracies. To obtain it, we work backwards and set

$$a_k = n, \quad a_{i-1} = (a_i + 1) \setminus 2.$$

This is in essence what the function returns. But we do not want to store the  $a_i$  explicitly, even as a  $\mathbf{t\_VECSMALL}$ , since this would leave an object on the stack. Instead, we store  $a_i$  implicitly in a bitmask **MASK**: let  $a_0 = 1$ , if the  $i$ -th bit of the mask is set, set  $a_{i+1} = 2a_i - 1$ , and  $2a_i$  otherwise; in short the bits indicate the places where we do something special and do not quite double the accuracy (which would be the straightforward thing to do).

In fact, to avoid returning separately the mask and the sequence length  $k + 1$ , the function returns **MASK** +  $2^{k+1}$ , so the highest bit of the mask indicates the length of the sequence, and the



following ones give an algorithm to obtain the accuracies. This is much simpler than it sounds, here is what it looks like in practice:

```

ulong mask = quadratic_prec_mask(n);
long l = 1;
while (mask > 1) {
    /* here, the result is known to accuracy l */
    l = 2*l; if (mask & 1) l--; /* new accuracy l for the iteration */
    mask >>= 1; /* pop low order bit */
    /* ... lift to the new accuracy ... */
}
/* we are done. At this point l = n */

```

We just pop the bits in `mask` starting from the low order bits, stop when `mask` is 1 (that last bit corresponds to the  $2^{k+1}$  that we added to the mask proper). Note that there is nothing specific to Hensel lifts in that function: it would work equally well for an Archimedean Newton iteration.

Note that in practice, we rather use an infinite loop, and insert an

```
if (mask == 1) break;
```

in the middle of the loop: the loop body usually includes preparations for the next iterations (e.g. lifting Bezout coefficients in a quadratic Hensel lift), which are costly and useless in the *last* iteration.

### 7.2.20 Other $p$ -adic functions.

`long ZpX_disc_val(GEN f, GEN p)` returns the valuation at  $p$  of the discriminant of  $f$ . Assume that  $f$  is a monic *separable* ZX and that  $p$  is a prime number. Proceeds by dynamically increasing the  $p$ -adic accuracy; infinite loop if the discriminant of  $f$  is 0.

`GEN ZpX_gcd(GEN f, GEN g, GEN pm)`  $f$  a monic ZX,  $g$  a ZX,  $pm = p^m$  a prime power. There is a unique integer  $r \geq 0$  and a monic  $h \in \mathbf{Q}_p[X]$  such that

$$p^r h \mathbf{Z}_p[X] + p^m \mathbf{Z}_p[X] = f \mathbf{Z}_p[X] + g \mathbf{Z}_p[X] + p^m \mathbf{Z}_p[X].$$

Return the 0 polynomial if  $r \geq m$  and a monic  $h \in \mathbf{Z}[1/p][X]$  otherwise (whose valuation at  $p$  is  $> -m$ ).

`GEN ZpX_reduced_resultant(GEN f, GEN g, GEN pm)`  $f$  a monic ZX,  $g$  a ZX,  $pm = p^m$  a prime power. The  $p$ -adic *reduced resultant* of  $f$  and  $g$  is 0 if  $f, g$  not coprime in  $\mathbf{Z}_p[X]$ , and otherwise the generator of the form  $p^d$  of

$$(f \mathbf{Z}_p[X] + g \mathbf{Z}_p[X]) \cap \mathbf{Z}_p.$$

Return the reduced resultant modulo  $p^m$ .

`GEN ZpX_reduced_resultant_fast(GEN f, GEN g, GEN p, long M)`  $f$  a monic ZX,  $g$  a ZX,  $p$  a prime. Returns the the  $p$ -adic reduced resultant of  $f$  and  $g$  modulo  $p^M$ . This function computes resultants for a sequence of increasing  $p$ -adic accuracies (up to  $M$   $p$ -adic digits), returning as soon as it obtains a non-zero result. It is very inefficient when the resultant is 0, but otherwise usually more efficient than computations using a priori bounds.

## 7.2.21 Conversions involving single precision objects.

### 7.2.21.1 To single precision.

GEN RgX\_to\_Flx(GEN x, ulong p), x a t\_POL, returns the Flx obtained by applying Rg\_to\_Fl coefficientwise.

GEN ZX\_to\_Flx(GEN x, ulong p) reduce ZX x modulo p (yielding an Flx). Faster than RgX\_to\_Flx.

GEN ZV\_to\_Flv(GEN x, ulong p) reduce ZV x modulo p (yielding an Flv).

GEN ZXV\_to\_FlxV(GEN v, ulong p), as ZX\_to\_Flx, repeatedly called on the vector's coefficients.

GEN ZXX\_to\_FlxX(GEN B, ulong p, long v), as ZX\_to\_Flx, repeatedly called on the polynomial's coefficients.

GEN ZXXV\_to\_FlxXV(GEN V, ulong p, long v), as ZXX\_to\_FlxX, repeatedly called on the vector's coefficients.

GEN ZM\_to\_Flm(GEN x, ulong p) reduce ZM x modulo p (yielding an Flm).

GEN ZV\_to\_zv(GEN z), converts coefficients using itos

GEN ZV\_to\_nv(GEN z), converts coefficients using itou

GEN ZM\_to\_zm(GEN z), converts coefficients using itos

GEN FqC\_to\_FlxC(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p), converts coefficients in Fq to coefficient in Flx, result being a column vector.

GEN FqV\_to\_FlxV(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p), converts coefficients in Fq to coefficient in Flx, result being a line vector.

GEN FqM\_to\_FlxM(GEN x, GEN T, GEN p), converts coefficients in Fq to coefficient in Flx.

### 7.2.21.2 From single precision.

GEN Flx\_to\_ZX(GEN z), converts to ZX (t\_POL of non-negative t\_INTs in this case)

GEN Flx\_to\_ZX\_inplace(GEN z), same as Flx\_to\_ZX, in place (z is destroyed).

GEN FlxX\_to\_ZXX(GEN B), converts an FlxX to a polynomial with ZX or t\_INT coefficients (repeated calls to Flx\_to\_ZX).

GEN FlxC\_to\_ZXC(GEN x), converts a vector of Flx to a column vector of polynomials with t\_INT coefficients (repeated calls to Flx\_to\_ZX).

GEN FlxM\_to\_ZXM(GEN z), converts a matrix of Flx to a matrix of polynomials with t\_INT coefficients (repeated calls to Flx\_to\_ZX).

GEN zx\_to\_ZX(GEN z), as Flx\_to\_ZX, without assuming coefficients are non-negative.

GEN Flc\_to\_ZC(GEN z), converts to ZC (t\_COL of non-negative t\_INTs in this case)

GEN Flv\_to\_ZV(GEN z), converts to ZV (t\_VEC of non-negative t\_INTs in this case)

GEN Flm\_to\_ZM(GEN z), converts to ZM (t\_MAT with non-negative t\_INTs coefficients in this case)

GEN zc\_to\_ZC(GEN z) as Flc\_to\_ZC, without assuming coefficients are non-negative.

GEN zv\_to\_ZV(GEN z) as Flv\_to\_ZV, without assuming coefficients are non-negative.

GEN zm\_to\_ZM(GEN z) as Flm\_to\_ZM, without assuming coefficients are non-negative.

**7.2.21.3 Mixed precision linear algebra.** Assumes dimensions are compatible. Multiply a multiprecision object by a single-precision one.

GEN RgM\_zc\_mul(GEN x, GEN y)

GEN RgM\_zm\_mul(GEN x, GEN y)

GEN RgV\_zc\_mul(GEN x, GEN y)

GEN RgV\_zm\_mul(GEN x, GEN y)

GEN ZM\_zc\_mul(GEN x, GEN y)

GEN ZM\_zm\_mul(GEN x, GEN y)

GEN ZC\_z\_mul(GEN x, long y)

#### 7.2.21.4 Miscellaneous involving Fl.

GEN Fl\_to\_Flx(ulong x, long evx) converts a unsigned long to a scalar Flx. Assume that  $evx = evalvarn(vx)$  for some variable number vx.

GEN Z\_to\_Flx(GEN x, ulong p, long v) converts a  $t\_INT$  to a scalar polynomial in variable  $v$ .

GEN Flx\_to\_Flv(GEN x, long n) converts from Flx to Flv with  $n$  components (assumed larger than the number of coefficients of  $x$ ).

GEN zx\_to\_zv(GEN x, long n) as Flx\_to\_Flv.

GEN Flv\_to\_Flx(GEN x, long sv) converts from vector (coefficient array) to (normalized) polynomial in variable  $v$ .

GEN zv\_to\_zx(GEN x, long n) as Flv\_to\_Flx.

GEN matid\_Flm(long n) returns an Flm which is an  $n \times n$  identity matrix.

GEN Flm\_to\_FlxV(GEN x, long sv) converts the columns of Flm  $x$  to an array of Flx in the variable  $v$  (repeated calls to Flv\_to\_Flx).

GEN zm\_to\_zxV(GEN x, long n) as Flm\_to\_FlxV.

GEN Flm\_to\_FlxX(GEN x, long sw, long sv) same as Flm\_to\_FlxV( $x, sv$ ) but returns the result as a (normalized) polynomial in variable  $w$ .

GEN FlxV\_to\_Flm(GEN v, long n) reverse Flm\_to\_FlxV, to obtain an Flm with  $n$  rows (repeated calls to Flx\_to\_Flv).

GEN FlxX\_to\_Flm(GEN v, long n) reverse Flm\_to\_FlxX, to obtain an Flm with  $n$  rows (repeated calls to Flx\_to\_Flv).

GEN Fly\_to\_FlxY(GEN a, long sv) convert coefficients of  $a$  to constant Flx in variable  $v$ .

#### 7.2.21.5 Miscellaneous involving F2.

GEN F2x\_to\_F2v(GEN x, long n) converts from F2x to F2v with  $n$  components (assumed larger than the number of coefficients of  $x$ ).

GEN F2xC\_to\_ZXC(GEN x), converts a vector of F2x to a column vector of polynomials with  $t\_INT$  coefficients (repeated calls to F2x\_to\_ZX).

GEN F2xV\_to\_F2m(GEN v, long n) F2x\_to\_F2v to each polynomials to get an F2m with  $n$  rows.

## 7.3 Arithmetic on elliptic curve over a finite field in simple form.

### 7.3.1 FpE.

Let  $p$  a prime number and  $E$  the elliptic curve given by the equation  $E : y^2 = x^3 + a_4x + a_6$ . A  $\text{FpE}$  is a point of  $E(\mathbf{F}_p)$ .

`GEN FpE_add(GEN P, GEN Q, GEN a4, GEN p)` returns the sum  $P + Q$  in the group  $E(\mathbf{F}_p)$ , where  $E$  is defined by  $E : y^2 = x^3 + a_4x + a_6$ , for any value of  $a_6$  compatible with the points given.

`GEN FpE_sub(GEN P, GEN Q, GEN a4, GEN p)` returns  $P - Q$ .

`GEN FpE_dbl(GEN P, GEN a4, GEN p)` returns  $2.P$ .

`GEN FpE_neg(GEN P, GEN p)` returns  $-P$ .

`GEN FpE_mul(GEN P, GEN n, GEN a4, GEN p)` return  $n.P$ .

`GEN random_FpE(GEN a4, GEN a6, GEN p)` returns a random point on  $E(\mathbf{F}_p)$ , where  $E$  is defined by  $E : y^2 = x^3 + a_4x + a_6$ .

`GEN FpE_order(GEN P, GEN o, GEN a4, GEN p)` returns the order of  $P$  in the group  $E(\mathbf{F}_p)$ , where  $o$  is a multiple of the order of  $P$ , or its factorization.

`GEN FpE_tatepairing(GEN P, GEN Q, GEN m, GEN a4, GEN p)` returns the reduced Tate pairing of the point of  $m$ -torsion  $P$  and the point  $Q$ .

`GEN FpE_weilpairing(GEN P, GEN Q, GEN m, GEN a4, GEN p)` returns the Weil pairing of the points of  $m$ -torsion  $P$  and  $Q$ .

## 7.4 Integral, rational and generic linear algebra.

**7.4.1 ZC / ZV, ZM.** A  $\text{ZV}$  (resp. a  $\text{ZM}$ , resp. a  $\text{ZX}$ ) is a `t_VEC` or `t_COL` (resp. `t_MAT`, resp. `t_POL`) with `t_INT` coefficients.

### 7.4.1.1 ZC / ZV.

`void RgV_check_ZV(GEN A, const char *s)` Assuming  $x$  is a `t_VEC` or `t_COL` raise an error if it is not a  $\text{ZV}$  ( $s$  should point to the name of the caller).

`int ZV_equal0(GEN x)` returns 1 if all entries of the  $\text{ZV}$   $x$  are zero, and 0 otherwise.

`int ZV_cmp(GEN x, GEN y)` compare two  $\text{ZV}$ , which we assume have the same length (lexicographic order, comparing absolute values).

`int ZV_abscmp(GEN x, GEN y)` compare two  $\text{ZV}$ , which we assume have the same length (lexicographic order).

`int ZV_equal(GEN x, GEN y)` returns 1 if the two  $\text{ZV}$  are equal and 0 otherwise. A `t_COL` and a `t_VEC` with the same entries are declared equal.

`GEN ZC_add(GEN x, GEN y)` adds  $x$  and  $y$ .

`GEN ZC_sub(GEN x, GEN y)` subtracts  $x$  and  $y$ .

`GEN ZC_Z_add(GEN x, GEN y)` adds  $y$  to  $x[1]$ .

`GEN ZC_Z_sub(GEN x, GEN y)` subtracts  $y$  to  $x[1]$ .

GEN ZC\_copy(GEN x) returns a (t\_COL) copy of x.

GEN ZC\_neg(GEN x) returns  $-x$  as a t\_COL.

void ZV\_neg\_inplace(GEN x) negates the ZV x in place, by replacing each component by its opposite (the type of x remains the same, t\_COL or t\_ROW). If you want to save even more memory by avoiding the implicit component copies, use ZV\_togglesign.

void ZV\_togglesign(GEN x) negates x in place, by toggling the sign of its integer components. Universal constants gen\_1, gen\_m1, gen\_2 and gen\_m2 are handled specially and will not be corrupted. (We use togglesign\_safe.)

GEN ZC\_Z\_mul(GEN x, GEN y) multiplies the ZC or ZV x (which can be a column or row vector) by the t\_INT y, returning a ZC.

GEN ZC\_Z\_divexact(GEN x, GEN y) returns  $x/y$  assuming all divisions are exact.

GEN ZV\_dotproduct(GEN x, GEN y) as RgV\_dotproduct assuming x and y have t\_INT entries.

GEN ZV\_dotsquare(GEN x) as RgV\_dotsquare assuming x has t\_INT entries.

GEN ZC\_lincomb(GEN u, GEN v, GEN x, GEN y) returns  $ux + vy$ , where u, v are t\_INT and x, y are ZC or ZV. Return a ZC

void ZC\_lincomb1\_inplace(GEN X, GEN Y, GEN v) sets  $X \leftarrow X + vY$ , where v is a t\_INT and X, Y are ZC or ZV. (The result has the type of X.) Memory efficient (e.g. no-op if  $v = 0$ ), but not gerpile-safe.

GEN ZC\_ZV\_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN p) multiplies the ZC x (seen as a column vector) by the ZV y (seen as a row vector, assumed to have compatible dimensions).

GEN ZV\_content(GEN x) returns the GCD of all the components of x.

GEN ZV\_prod(GEN x) returns the product of all the components of x (1 for the empty vector).

GEN ZV\_sum(GEN x) returns the sum of all the components of x (0 for the empty vector).

long ZV\_max\_lg(GEN x) returns the effective length of the longest entry in x.

int ZV\_dvd(GEN x, GEN y) assuming x, y are two ZVs of the same length, return 1 if  $y[i]$  divides  $x[i]$  for all i and 0 otherwise. Error if one of the  $y[i]$  is 0.

GEN ZV\_sort(GEN L) sort the ZV L. Returns a vector with the same type as L.

GEN ZV\_sort\_uniq(GEN L) sort the ZV L, removing duplicate entries. Returns a vector with the same type as L.

long ZV\_search(GEN L, GEN y) look for the t\_INT y in the sorted ZV L. Return an index i such that  $L[i] = y$ , and 0 otherwise.

GEN ZV\_indexsort(GEN L) returns the permutation which, applied to the ZV L, would sort the vector. The result is a t\_VECSMALL.

GEN ZV\_union\_shallow(GEN x, GEN y) given two sorted ZV (as per ZV\_sort, returns the union of x and y. Shallow function. In case two entries are equal in x and y, include the one from x.

#### 7.4.1.2 ZM.

`void RgM_check_ZM(GEN A, const char *s)` Assuming  $x$  is a `t_MAT` raise an error if it is not a ZM ( $s$  should point to the name of the caller).

`GEN ZM_copy(GEN x)` returns a copy of  $x$ .

`int ZM_equal(GEN A, GEN B)` returns 1 if the two ZM are equal and 0 otherwise.

`GEN ZM_add(GEN x, GEN y)` returns  $x + y$  (assumed to have compatible dimensions).

`GEN ZM_sub(GEN x, GEN y)` returns  $x - y$  (assumed to have compatible dimensions).

`GEN ZM_neg(GEN x)` returns  $-x$ .

`GEN ZM_mul(GEN x, GEN y)` multiplies  $x$  and  $y$  (assumed to have compatible dimensions).

`GEN ZM_Z_mul(GEN x, GEN y)` multiplies the ZM  $x$  by the `t_INT`  $y$ .

`GEN ZM_ZC_mul(GEN x, GEN y)` multiplies the ZM  $x$  by the ZC  $y$  (seen as a column vector, assumed to have compatible dimensions).

`GEN ZMrow_ZC_mul(GEN x, GEN y, long i)` multiplies the  $i$ -th row of ZM  $x$  by the ZC  $y$  (seen as a column vector, assumed to have compatible dimensions). Assumes that  $x$  is non-empty and  $0 < i < \lg(x[1])$ .

`GEN ZV_ZM_mul(GEN x, GEN y)` multiplies the ZV  $x$  by the ZM  $y$ . Returns a `t_VEC`.

`GEN ZM_Z_divexact(GEN x, GEN y)` returns  $x/y$  assuming all divisions are exact.

`GEN ZM_pow(GEN x, GEN n)` returns  $x^n$ , assuming  $x$  is a square ZM and  $n \geq 0$ .

`GEN ZM_detmult(GEN M)` if  $M$  is a ZM, returns a multiple of the determinant of the lattice generated by its columns. This is the function underlying `detint`.

`GEN ZM_supnorm(GEN x)` return the sup norm of the ZM  $x$ .

`GEN ZM_charpoly(GEN M)` returns the characteristic polynomial (in variable 0) of the ZM  $M$ .

`long ZM_max_lg(GEN x)` returns the effective length of the longest entry in  $x$ .

`GEN ZM_inv(GEN M, GEN d)` if  $M$  is a ZM and  $d$  is a `t_INT` such that  $M' := dM^{-1}$  is integral, return  $M'$ . It is allowed to set  $d = \text{NULL}$ , in which case, the determinant of  $M$  is computed and used instead.

`GEN QM_inv(GEN M, GEN d)` as above, with  $M$  a QM. We still assume that  $M'$  has integer coefficients.

`GEN ZM_det_triangular(GEN x)` returns the product of the diagonal entries of  $x$  (its determinant if it is indeed triangular).

`int ZM_isidentity(GEN x)` return 1 if  $x$  is the identity matrix, and 0 otherwise.

`int ZM_ishnf(GEN x)` return 1 if  $x$  is in HNF form, i.e. is upper triangular with positive diagonal coefficients, and for  $j > i$ ,  $x_{i,i} > x_{i,j} \geq 0$ .

### 7.4.2 zv, zm.

GEN `zv_neg`(GEN `x`) return  $-x$ . No check for overflow is done, which occurs in the fringe case where an entry is equal to  $2^{\text{BITS\_IN\_LONG}-1}$ .

long `zv_content`(GEN `x`) returns the gcd of the entries of `x`.

long `zv_prod`(GEN `x`) returns the product of all the components of `x` (assumes no overflow occurs).

long `zv_sum`(GEN `x`) returns the sum of all the components of `x` (assumes no overflow occurs).

int `zv_cmp0`(GEN `x`) returns 1 if all entries of the `zv x` are 0, and 0 otherwise.

int `zv_equal`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) returns 1 if the two `zv` are equal and 0 otherwise.

GEN `zv_copy`(GEN `x`) as `Flv_copy`.

GEN `zm_transpose`(GEN `x`) as `Flm_transpose`.

GEN `zm_copy`(GEN `x`) as `Flm_copy`.

GEN `zero_zm`(long `m`, long `n`) as `zero_Flm`.

GEN `zero_zv`(long `n`) as `zero_Flv`.

GEN `row_zm`(GEN `A`, long `x0`) as `row_Flm`.

### 7.4.3 RgC / RgV, RgM.

`RgC` and `RgV` routines assume the inputs are `VEC` or `COL` of the same dimension. `RgM` assume the inputs are `MAT` of compatible dimensions.

GEN `RgC_add`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) returns  $x + y$  as a `t_COL`.

GEN `RgC_neg`(GEN `x`) returns  $-x$  as a `t_COL`.

GEN `RgC_sub`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) returns  $x - y$  as a `t_COL`.

GEN `RgV_add`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) returns  $x + y$  as a `t_VEC`.

GEN `RgV_neg`(GEN `x`) returns  $-x$  as a `t_VEC`.

GEN `RgV_sub`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) returns  $x - y$  as a `t_VEC`.

GEN `RgM_add`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) return  $x + y$ .

GEN `RgM_neg`(GEN `x`) returns  $-x$ .

GEN `RgM_sub`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) returns  $x - y$ .

GEN `RgM_Rg_add`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) assuming `x` is a square matrix and `y` a scalar, returns the square matrix  $x + y * \text{Id}$ .

GEN `RgM_Rg_add_shallow`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) as `RgM_Rg_add` with much fewer copies. Not suitable for `gerepileupto`.

GEN `RgC_Rg_add`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) assuming `x` is a non-empty column vector and `y` a scalar, returns the vector  $[x_1 + y, x_2, \dots, x_n]$ .

GEN `RgC_Rg_div`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`)

GEN `RgM_Rg_div`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) returns  $x/y$  (`y` treated as a scalar).

`GEN RgC_Rg_mul(GEN x, GEN y)`  
`GEN RgV_Rg_mul(GEN x, GEN y)`  
`GEN RgM_Rg_mul(GEN x, GEN y)` returns  $x \times y$  ( $y$  treated as a scalar).  
`GEN RgV_RgC_mul(GEN x, GEN y)` returns  $x \times y$ .  
`GEN RgV_RgM_mul(GEN x, GEN y)` returns  $x \times y$ .  
`GEN RgM_RgC_mul(GEN x, GEN y)` returns  $x \times y$ .  
`GEN RgM_mul(GEN x, GEN y)` returns  $x \times y$ .  
`GEN RgM_mulreal(GEN x, GEN y)` returns the real part of  $x \times y$  (whose entries are `t_INT`, `t_FRAC`, `t_REAL` or `t_COMPLEX`).  
`GEN RgM_sqr(GEN x)` returns  $x^2$ .  
`GEN RgC_RgV_mul(GEN x, GEN y)` returns  $x \times y$  (the square matrix  $(x_i y_j)$ ).

The following two functions are not well defined in general and only provided for convenience in specific cases:

`GEN RgC_RgM_mul(GEN x, GEN y)` returns  $x \times y[1, ]$  if  $y$  is a row matrix  $1 \times n$ , error otherwise.  
`GEN RgM_RgV_mul(GEN x, GEN y)` returns  $x \times y[, 1]$  if  $y$  is a column matrix  $n \times 1$ , error otherwise.  
`GEN RgM_powers(GEN x, long n)` returns  $[x^0, \dots, x^n]$  as a `t_VEC` of `RgMs`.  
`GEN RgV_sum(GEN v)` sum of the entries of  $v$   
`GEN RgV_sumpart(GEN v, long n)` returns the sum  $v[1] + \dots + v[n]$  (assumes that  $\lg(v) > n$ ).  
`GEN RgV_sumpart2(GEN v, long m, long n)` returns the sum  $v[m] + \dots + v[n]$  (assumes that  $\lg(v) > n$  and  $m > 0$ ). Returns `gen_0` when  $m > n$ .  
`GEN RgV_dotproduct(GEN x, GEN y)` returns the scalar product of  $x$  and  $y$   
`GEN RgV_dotsquare(GEN x)` returns the scalar product of  $x$  with itself.  
`GEN RgM_inv(GEN a)` returns a left inverse of  $a$  (which needs not be square), or `NULL` if this turns out to be impossible. The latter happens when the matrix does not have maximal rank (or when rounding errors make it appear so).  
`GEN RgM_inv_upper(GEN a)` as `RgM_inv`, assuming that  $a$  is a non-empty invertible upper triangular matrix, hence a little faster.  
`GEN RgM_solve(GEN a, GEN b)` returns  $a^{-1}b$  where  $a$  is a square `t_MAT` and  $b$  is a `t_COL` or `t_MAT`. Returns `NULL` if  $a^{-1}$  cannot be computed, see `RgM_inv`.  
`GEN RgM_solve_realimag(GEN M, GEN b)`  $M$  being a `t_MAT` with  $r_1 + r_2$  rows and  $r_1 + 2r_2$  columns,  $y$  a `t_COL` or `t_MAT` such that the equation  $Mx = y$  makes sense, returns  $x$  under the following simplifying assumptions: the first  $r_1$  rows of  $M$  and  $y$  are real (the  $r_2$  others are complex), and  $x$  is real. This is stabler and faster than calling `RgM_solve(M, b)` over  $\mathbf{C}$ . In most applications,  $M$  approximates the complex embeddings of an integer basis in a number field, and  $x$  is actually rational.  
`GEN split_realimag(GEN x, long r1, long r2)`  $x$  is a `t_COL` or `t_MAT` with  $r_1 + r_2$  rows, whose first  $r_1$  rows have real entries (the  $r_2$  others are complex). Return an object of the same type as  $x$



and  $r_1 + 2r_2$  rows, such that the first  $r_1 + r_2$  rows contain the real part of  $x$ , and the  $r_2$  following ones contain the imaginary part of the last  $r_2$  rows of  $x$ . Called by `RgM_solve_realimag`.

`GEN RgM_det_triangular(GEN x)` returns the product of the diagonal entries of  $x$  (its determinant if it is indeed triangular).

`GEN RgM_diagonal(GEN m)` returns the diagonal of  $m$  as a `t_VEC`.

`GEN RgM_diagonal_shallow(GEN m)` shallow version of `RgM_diagonal`

`GEN gram_matrix(GEN v)` returns the Gram matrix  $(v_i \cdot v_j)$  associated to the entries of  $v$  (matrix or vector).

`GEN RgC_gtofp(GEN x, GEN prec)` returns the `t_COL` obtained by applying `gtofp(gel(x,i), prec)` to all coefficients of  $x$ .

`GEN RgC_fpnorml2(GEN x, long prec)` returns (a stack-clean variant of)

`gnorml2( RgC_gtofp(x, prec) )`

`GEN RgM_gtofp(GEN x, GEN prec)` returns the `t_MAT` obtained by applying `gtofp(gel(x,i), prec)` to all coefficients of  $x$ .

`GEN RgM_fpnorml2(GEN x, long prec)` returns (a stack-clean variant of)

`gnorml2( RgM_gtofp(x, prec) )`

The following routines check whether matrices or vectors have a special shape, using `gequal1` and `gequal0` to test components. (This makes a difference when components are inexact.)

`int RgV_isscalar(GEN x)` return 1 if all the entries of  $x$  are 0 (as per `gequal0`), except possibly the first one. The name comes from vectors expressing polynomials on the standard basis  $1, T, \dots, T^{n-1}$ , or on `nf.zk` (whose first element is 1).

`int QV_isscalar(GEN x)` as `RgV_isscalar`, assuming  $x$  is a QV (`t_INT` and `t_FRAC` entries only).

`int ZV_isscalar(GEN x)` as `RgV_isscalar`, assuming  $x$  is a ZV (`t_INT` entries only).

`int RgM_isscalar(GEN x, GEN s)` return 1 if  $x$  is the scalar matrix equal to  $s$  times the identity, and 0 otherwise. If  $s$  is NULL, test whether  $x$  is an arbitrary scalar matrix.

`int RgM_isidentity(GEN x)` return 1 is the `t_MAT`  $x$  is the identity matrix, and 0 otherwise.

`int RgM_isdiagonal(GEN x)` return 1 is the `t_MAT`  $x$  is a diagonal matrix, and 0 otherwise.

`int RgM_is_ZM(GEN x)` return 1 is the `t_MAT`  $x$  has only `t_INT` coefficients, and 0 otherwise.

`long RgV_isin(GEN v, GEN x)` return the first index  $i$  such that  $v[i] = x$  if it exists, and 0 otherwise. Naive search in linear time, does not assume that  $v$  is sorted.

`GEN Frobeniusform(GEN V, long n)` given the vector  $V$  of elementary divisors for  $M - x\text{Id}$ , where  $M$  is an  $n \times n$  square matrix. Returns the Frobenius form of  $M$ . Used by `matfrobenius`.

#### 7.4.4 Obsolete functions.

The functions in this section are kept for backward compatibility only and will eventually disappear.

`GEN image2(GEN x)` compute the image of  $x$  using a very slow algorithm. Use `image` instead.

## 7.5 Integral, rational and generic polynomial arithmetic.

### 7.5.1 ZX, QX.

`void RgX_check_ZX(GEN x, const char *s)` Assuming  $x$  is a `t_POL` raise an error if it is not a ZX ( $s$  should point to the name of the caller).

`void RgX_check_ZXY(GEN x, const char *s)` Assuming  $x$  is a `t_POL` raise an error if it one of its coefficients is not an integer or a ZX ( $s$  should point to the name of the caller).

`GEN ZX_copy(GEN x, GEN p)` returns a copy of  $x$ .

`GEN scalar_ZX(GEN x, long v)` returns the constant ZX in variable  $v$  equal to the `t_INT`  $x$ .

`GEN scalar_ZX_shallow(GEN x, long v)` returns the constant ZX in variable  $v$  equal to the `t_INT`  $x$ . Shallow function not suitable for `gerepile` and friends.

`GEN ZX_renormalize(GEN x, long l)`, as `normalizpol`, where  $l = \lg(x)$ , in place.

`int ZX_equal(GEN x, GEN y)` returns 1 if the two ZX are equal and 0 otherwise.

`GEN ZX_add(GEN x, GEN y)` adds  $x$  and  $y$ .

`GEN ZX_sub(GEN x, GEN y)` subtracts  $x$  and  $y$ .

`GEN ZX_neg(GEN x, GEN p)` returns  $-x$ .

`GEN ZX_Z_add(GEN x, GEN y)` adds the integer  $y$  to the ZX  $x$ .

`GEN ZX_Z_sub(GEN x, GEN y)` subtracts the integer  $y$  to the ZX  $x$ .

`GEN Z_ZX_sub(GEN x, GEN y)` subtracts the ZX  $y$  to the integer  $x$ .

`GEN ZX_Z_mul(GEN x, GEN y)` multiplies the ZX  $x$  by the integer  $y$ .

`GEN ZX_Z_divexact(GEN x, GEN y)` returns  $x/y$  assuming all divisions are exact.

`GEN ZXV_Z_mul(GEN x, GEN y)` multiplies the vector of ZX  $x$  by the integer  $y$ .

`GEN ZX_mul(GEN x, GEN y)` multiplies  $x$  and  $y$ .

`GEN ZX_sqr(GEN x, GEN p)` returns  $x^2$ .

`GEN ZX_mulspec(GEN a, GEN b, long na, long nb)`. Internal routine:  $a$  and  $b$  are arrays of coefficients representing polynomials  $\sum_{i=0}^{na-1} a[i]X^i$  and  $\sum_{i=0}^{nb-1} b[i]X^i$ . Returns their product (as a true GEN).

`GEN ZX_sqrspec(GEN a, long na)`. Internal routine:  $a$  is an array of coefficients representing polynomial  $\sum_{i=0}^{na-1} a[i]X^i$ . Return its square (as a true GEN).

`GEN ZX_rem(GEN x, GEN y)` returns the remainder of the Euclidean division of  $x \bmod y$ . Assume that  $x, y$  are two ZX and that  $y$  is monic.

`GEN ZXQ_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T)` returns  $x*y \bmod T$ , assuming that all inputs are ZXs and that  $T$  is monic.

`GEN ZXQ_sqr(GEN x, GEN T)` returns  $x^2 \bmod T$ , assuming that all inputs are ZXs and that  $T$  is monic.

`long ZX_valrem(GEN P, GEN *z)` as `RgX_valrem`, but assumes  $P$  has `t_INT` coefficients.

`long ZX_val(GEN P)` as `RgX_val`, but assumes  $P$  has `t_INT` coefficients.

`GEN ZX_gcd(GEN x, GEN y)` returns a gcd of the ZX  $x$  and  $y$ . Not memory-clean, but suitable for `gerepileupto`.

`GEN ZX_gcd_all(GEN x, GEN y, GEN *pX)`. returns a gcd  $d$  of  $x$  and  $y$ . If  $pX$  is not NULL, set  $*pX$  to a (non-zero) integer multiple of  $x/d$ . If  $x$  and  $y$  are both monic, then  $d$  is monic and  $*pX$  is exactly  $x/d$ . Not memory clean if the gcd is 1 (in that case  $*pX$  is set to  $x$ ).

`GEN ZX_content(GEN x)` returns the content of the ZX  $x$ .

`GEN QX_gcd(GEN x, GEN y)` returns a gcd of the QX  $x$  and  $y$ .

`GEN ZX_to_monic(GEN q, GEN *L)` given  $q$  a non-zero ZX, returns a monic integral polynomial  $Q$  such that  $Q(x) = Cq(x/L)$ , for some rational  $C$  and positive integer  $L > 0$ . If  $L$  is not NULL, set  $*L$  to  $L$ ; if  $L = 1$ ,  $*L$  is set to `gen_1`. Not suitable for `gerepileupto`.

`GEN ZX_primitive_to_monic(GEN q, GEN *L)` as `ZX_to_monic` except  $q$  is assumed to have trivial content, which avoids recomputing it. The result is suboptimal if  $q$  is not primitive ( $L$  larger than necessary), but remains correct.

`GEN ZX_Z_normalize(GEN q, GEN *L)` a restricted version of `ZX_primitive_to_monic`, where  $q$  is a *monic* ZX of degree  $> 0$ . Finds the largest integer  $L > 0$  such that  $Q(X) := L^{-\deg q} q(Lx)$  is integral and return  $Q$ ; this is not well-defined if  $q$  is a monomial, in that case, set  $L = 1$  and  $Q = q$ . If  $L$  is not NULL, set  $*L$  to  $L$ .

`GEN ZX_Q_normalize(GEN q, GEN *L)` a variant of `ZX_Z_normalize` where  $L > 0$  is allowed to be rational, the monic  $Q \in \mathbf{Z}[X]$  has possibly smaller coefficients.

`GEN ZX_rescale(GEN P, GEN h)` returns  $h^{\deg(P)} P(x/h)$ .  $P$  is a ZX and  $h$  is a non-zero integer. (Leaves small objects on the stack. Suitable but inefficient for `gerepileupto`.)

`long ZX_max_lg(GEN x)` returns the effective length of the longest component in  $x$ .

`long ZXY_max_lg(GEN x)` returns the effective length of the longest component in  $x$ ; assume all coefficients are `t_INT` or ZXs.

`GEN ZXQ_charpoly(GEN A, GEN T, long v)`: let  $T$  and  $A$  be ZXs, returns the characteristic polynomial of  $\text{Mod}(A, T)$ . More generally,  $A$  is allowed to be a QX, hence possibly has rational coefficients, *assuming* the result is a ZX, i.e. the algebraic number  $\text{Mod}(A, T)$  is integral over  $\mathbf{Z}$ .

`GEN ZX_deriv(GEN x)` returns the derivative of  $x$ .

`GEN ZX_disc(GEN T)` returns the discriminant of the ZX  $T$ .

`GEN QX_disc(GEN T)` returns the discriminant of the QX  $T$ .

`int ZX_is_squarefree(GEN T)` returns 1 if the ZX  $T$  is squarefree, 0 otherwise.

`GEN ZX_factor(GEN T)` returns the factorization of the primitive part of  $T$  over  $\mathbf{Q}[X]$  (the content is lost).

`GEN QX_factor(GEN T)` as `ZX_factor`.

`long ZX_is_irred(GEN T)` returns 1 if  $T$  is irreducible, and 0 otherwise.

`GEN ZX_squff(GEN T, GEN *E)` write  $T$  as a product  $\prod T_i^{e_i}$  with the  $e_1 < e_2 < \dots$  all distinct and the  $T_i$  pairwise coprime. Return the vector of the  $T_i$ , and set  $*E$  to the vector of the  $e_i$ , as a `t_VECSMALL`.

GEN ZX\_resultant(GEN A, GEN B) returns the resultant of the ZX A and B.

GEN QX\_resultant(GEN A, GEN B) returns the resultant of the QX A and B.

GEN QXQ\_norm(GEN A, GEN B)  $A$  being a QX and  $B$  being a ZX, returns the norm of the algebraic number  $A \bmod B$ , using a modular algorithm. To ensure that  $B$  is a ZX, one may replace it by Q\_primpart(B), which of course does not change the norm.

If  $A$  is not a ZX — it has a denominator —, but the result is nevertheless known to be an integer, it is much more efficient to call QXQ\_intnorm instead.

GEN QXQ\_intnorm(GEN A, GEN B)  $A$  being a QX and  $B$  being a ZX, returns the norm of the algebraic number  $A \bmod B$ , *assuming* that the result is an integer, which is for instance the case is  $A \bmod B$  is an algebraic integer, in particular if  $A$  is a ZX. To ensure that  $B$  is a ZX, one may replace it by Q\_primpart(B) (which of course does not change the norm).

If the result is not known to be an integer, you must use QXQ\_norm instead, which is slower.

GEN ZX\_ZXY\_resultant(GEN A, GEN B) under the assumption that  $A$  in  $\mathbf{Z}[Y]$ ,  $B$  in  $\mathbf{Q}[Y][X]$ , and  $R = \text{Res}_Y(A, B) \in \mathbf{Z}[X]$ , returns the resultant  $R$ .

GEN ZX\_ZXY\_rnfequation(GEN A, GEN B, long \*lambda), assume  $A$  in  $\mathbf{Z}[Y]$ ,  $B$  in  $\mathbf{Q}[Y][X]$ , and  $R = \text{Res}_Y(A, B) \in \mathbf{Z}[X]$ . If  $\text{lambda} = \text{NULL}$ , returns  $R$  as in ZY\_ZXY\_resultant. Otherwise,  $\text{lambda}$  must point to some integer, e.g. 0 which is used as a seed. The function then finds a small  $\lambda \in \mathbf{Z}$  (starting from \*lambda) such that  $R_\lambda(X) := \text{Res}_Y(A, B(X + \lambda Y))$  is squarefree, resets \*lambda to the chosen value and returns  $R_\lambda$ .

GEN nfgcd(GEN P, GEN Q, GEN T, GEN den) given  $P$  and  $Q$  in  $\mathbf{Z}[X, Y]$ ,  $T$  monic irreducible in  $\mathbf{Z}[Y]$ , returns the primitive  $d$  in  $\mathbf{Z}[X, Y]$  which is a gcd of  $P, Q$  in  $K[X]$ , where  $K$  is the number field  $\mathbf{Q}[Y]/(T)$ . If not NULL, den is a multiple of the integral denominator of the (monic) gcd of  $P, Q$  in  $K[X]$ .

GEN nfgcd\_all(GEN P, GEN Q, GEN T, GEN den, GEN \*Pnew) as nfgcd. If Pnew is not NULL, set \*Pnew to a non-zero integer multiple of  $P/d$ . If  $P$  and  $Q$  are both monic, then  $d$  is monic and \*Pnew is exactly  $P/d$ . Not memory clean if the gcd is 1 (in that case \*Pnew is set to  $P$ ).

GEN QXQ\_inv(GEN A, GEN B) returns the inverse of  $A$  modulo  $B$  where  $A$  is a QX and  $B$  is a ZX. Should you need this for a QX  $B$ , just use

```
QXQ_inv(A, Q_primpart(B));
```

But in all cases where modular arithmetic modulo  $B$  is desired, it is much more efficient to replace  $B$  by Q\_primpart(B) once and for all.

GEN QXQ\_powers(GEN x, long n, GEN T) returns  $[x^0, \dots, x^n]$  as RgXQ\_powers would, but in a more efficient way when  $x$  has a huge integer denominator (we start by removing that denominator). Meant to be used to precompute powers of algebraic integers in  $\mathbf{Q}[t]/(T)$ . The current implementation does not require  $x$  to be a QX: any polynomial to which Q\_remove\_denom can be applied is fine.

GEN QXQ\_reverse(GEN f, GEN T) as RgXQ\_reverse, assuming  $f$  is a QX.

### 7.5.2 zx.

GEN zero\_zx(long sv) returns a zero **zx** in variable  $v$ .

GEN polx\_zx(long sv) returns the variable  $v$  as degree 1 **Flx**.

GEN zx\_renormalize(GEN x, long l), as **Flx\_renormalize**, where  $l = \lg(x)$ , in place.

GEN zx\_shift(GEN T, long n) returns  $T$  multiplied by  $x^n$ , assuming  $n \geq 0$ .

### 7.5.3 RgX.

long RgX\_type(GEN x, GEN \*ptp, GEN \*ptpol, long \*ptprec) returns the “natural” base ring over which the polynomial  $x$  is defined. Raise an error if it detects consistency problems in modular objects: incompatible rings (e.g.  $\mathbf{F}_p$  and  $\mathbf{F}_q$  for primes  $p \neq q$ ,  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]/(T)$  and  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]/(U)$  for  $T \neq U$ ). Minor discrepancies are supported if they make general sense (e.g.  $\mathbf{F}_p$  and  $\mathbf{F}_{p^k}$ , but not  $\mathbf{F}_p$  and  $\mathbf{Q}_p$ ); **t\_FFELT** and **t\_POLMOD** of **t\_INTMOD**s are considered inconsistent, even if they define the same field : if you need to use simultaneously these different finite field implementations, multiply the polynomial by a **t\_FFELT** equal to 1 first.

- 0: none of the others (presumably multivariate, possibly inconsistent).
- **t\_INT**: defined over  $\mathbf{Q}$  (not necessarily  $\mathbf{Z}$ ).
- **t\_INTMOD**: defined over  $\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z}$ , where **\*ptp** is set to  $p$ . It is not checked whether  $p$  is prime.
- **t\_COMPLEX**: defined over  $\mathbf{C}$  (at least one **t\_COMPLEX** with at least one inexact floating point **t\_REAL** component). Set **\*ptprec** to the minimal accuracy (as per **precision**) of inexact components.
- **t\_REAL**: defined over  $\mathbf{R}$  (at least one inexact floating point **t\_REAL** component). Set **\*ptprec** to the minimal accuracy (as per **precision**) of inexact components.
- **t\_PADIC**: defined over  $\mathbf{Q}_p$ , where **\*ptp** is set to  $p$  and **\*ptprec** to the  $p$ -adic accuracy.
- **t\_FFELT**: defined over a finite field  $\mathbf{F}_{p^k}$ , where **\*ptp** is set to the field characteristic  $p$  and **\*ptpol** is set to a **t\_FFELT** belonging to the field.
- other values are composite corresponding to quotients  $R[X]/(T)$ , with one primary type **t1**, describing the form of the quotient, and a secondary type **t2**, describing  $R$ . If **t** is the **RgX\_type**, **t1** and **t2** are recovered using

void RgX\_type\_decode(long t, long \*t1, long \*t2)

**t1** is one of

**t\_POLMOD** : at least one **t\_POLMOD** component, set **\*ppol** to the modulus,

**t\_QUAD** : no **t\_POLMOD**, at least one **t\_QUAD** component, set **\*ppol** to the modulus ( $-\text{.pol}$ ) of the **t\_QUAD**,

**t\_COMPLEX** : no **t\_POLMOD** or **t\_QUAD**, at least one **t\_COMPLEX** component, set **\*ppol** to  $y^2 + 1$ .

and the underlying base ring  $R$  is given by **t2**, which is one of **t\_INT**, **t\_INTMOD** (set **\*ptp**) or **t\_PADIC** (set **\*ptp** and **\*ptprec**), with the same meaning as above.

int RgX\_type\_is\_composite(long t)  $t$  as returned by **RgX\_type**, return 1 if  $t$  is a composite type, and 0 otherwise.

GEN RgX\_get\_0(GEN x) returns 0 in the base ring over which  $x$  is defined, to the proper accuracy (e.g. 0, Mod(0,3), 0(5^10)).

GEN RgX\_get\_1(GEN x) returns 1 in the base ring over which  $x$  is defined, to the proper accuracy (e.g. 0, Mod(0,3),

int RgX\_isscalar(GEN x) return 1 if  $x$  all the coefficients of  $x$  of degree  $> 0$  are 0 (as per `gequal0`).

GEN RgX\_add(GEN x, GEN y) adds  $x$  and  $y$ .

GEN RgX\_sub(GEN x, GEN y) subtracts  $x$  and  $y$ .

GEN RgX\_neg(GEN x) returns  $-x$ .

GEN RgX\_Rg\_add(GEN y, GEN x) returns  $x + y$ .

GEN RgX\_Rg\_add\_shallow(GEN y, GEN x) returns  $x + y$ ; shallow function.

GEN Rg\_RgX\_sub(GEN x, GEN y)

GEN RgX\_Rg\_sub(GEN y, GEN x) returns  $x - y$

GEN RgX\_mul(GEN x, GEN y) multiplies the two `t_POL` (in the same variable)  $x$  and  $y$ . Uses Karatsuba algorithm.

GEN RgX\_mulspec(GEN a, GEN b, long na, long nb). Internal routine:  $a$  and  $b$  are arrays of coefficients representing polynomials  $\sum_{i=0}^{na-1} a[i]X^i$  and  $\sum_{i=0}^{nb-1} b[i]X^i$ . Returns their product (as a true GEN).

GEN RgX\_sqr(GEN x) squares the `t_POL`  $x$ . Uses Karatsuba algorithm.

GEN RgX\_sqrspec(GEN a, long na). Internal routine:  $a$  is an array of coefficients representing polynomial  $\sum_{i=0}^{na-1} a[i]X^i$ . Return its square (as a true GEN).

GEN RgX\_divrem(GEN x, GEN y, GEN \*r) by default, returns the Euclidean quotient and store the remainder in  $r$ . Three special values of  $r$  change that behavior • `NULL`: do not store the remainder, used to implement `RgX_div`,

- `ONLY_REM`: return the remainder, used to implement `RgX_rem`,
- `ONLY_DIVIDES`: return the quotient if the division is exact, and `NULL` otherwise.

GEN RgX\_div(GEN x, GEN y)

GEN RgX\_div\_by\_X\_x(GEN A, GEN a, GEN \*r) returns the quotient of the `RgX`  $A$  by  $(X - a)$ , and sets  $r$  to the remainder  $A(a)$ .

GEN RgX\_rem(GEN x, GEN y)

GEN RgX\_pseudodivrem(GEN x, GEN y, GEN \*ptr) compute a pseudo-quotient  $q$  and pseudo-remainder  $r$  such that  $\text{lc}(y)^{\deg(x)-\deg(y)+1}x = qy + r$ . Return  $q$  and set `*ptr` to  $r$ .

GEN RgX\_pseudorem(GEN x, GEN y) return the remainder in the pseudo-division of  $x$  by  $y$ .

GEN RgXQX\_pseudorem(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T) return the remainder in the pseudo-division of  $x$  by  $y$  over  $R[X]/(T)$ .

GEN RgXQX\_pseudodivrem(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN \*ptr) compute a pseudo-quotient  $q$  and pseudo-remainder  $r$  such that  $\text{lc}(y)^{\deg(x)-\deg(y)+1}x = qy + r$  in  $R[X]/(T)$ . Return  $q$  and set `*ptr` to  $r$ .

GEN `RgX_mulXn`(GEN `x`, long `n`) returns  $x * t^n$ . This may be a `t_FRAC` if  $n < 0$  and the valuation of `x` is not large enough.

GEN `RgX_shift`(GEN `x`, long `n`) returns  $x * t^n$  if  $n \geq 0$ , and  $x \backslash t^{-n}$  otherwise.

GEN `RgX_shift_shallow`(GEN `x`, long `n`) as `RgX_shift`, but shallow (coefficients are not copied).

long `RgX_valrem`(GEN `P`, GEN `*pz`) returns the valuation  $v$  of the `t_POL` `P` with respect to its main variable  $X$ . Check whether coefficients are 0 using `gequal0`. Set `*pz` to `RgX_shift_shallow(P, -v)`.

long `RgX_val`(GEN `P`) returns the valuation  $v$  of the `t_POL` `P` with respect to its main variable  $X$ . Check whether coefficients are 0 using `gequal0`.

long `RgX_valrem_inexact`(GEN `P`, GEN `*z`) as `RgX_valrem`, using `isexactzero` instead of `gequal0`.

GEN `RgX_deriv`(GEN `x`) returns the derivative of `x` with respect to its main variable.

GEN `RgX_gcd`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) returns the GCD of `x` and `y`, assumed to be `t_POLs` in the same variable.

GEN `RgX_gcd_simple`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) as `RgX_gcd` using a standard extended Euclidean algorithm. Usually slower than `RgX_gcd`.

GEN `RgX_extgcd`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`, GEN `*u`, GEN `*v`) returns  $d = \text{GCD}(x, y)$ , and sets `*u`, `*v` to the Bezout coefficients such that  $*ux + *vy = d$ . Uses a generic subresultant algorithm.

GEN `RgX_extgcd_simple`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`, GEN `*u`, GEN `*v`) as `RgX_extgcd` using a standard extended Euclidean algorithm. Usually slower than `RgX_extgcd`.

GEN `RgX_disc`(GEN `x`) returns the discriminant of the `t_POL` `x` with respect to its main variable.

GEN `RgX_resultant_all`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`, GEN `*sol`) returns `resultant(x, y)`. If `sol` is not NULL, sets it to the last non-zero remainder in the polynomial remainder sequence if it exists and to `gen_0` otherwise (e.g. one polynomial has degree 0). Compared to `resultant_all`, this function always uses the generic subresultant algorithm, hence always computes `sol`.

GEN `RgX_modXn_shallow`(GEN `x`, long `n`) return  $x \% t^n$ , where  $n \geq 0$ . Shallow function.

GEN `RgX_renormalize`(GEN `x`) remove leading terms in `x` which are equal to (necessarily inexact) zeros.

GEN `RgX_gtofp`(GEN `x`, GEN `prec`) returns the polynomial obtained by applying

`gtofp(gel(x, i), prec)`

to all coefficients of  $x$ .

GEN `RgX_fpnorml2`(GEN `x`, long `prec`) returns (a stack-clean variant of)

`gnorml2( RgX_gtofp(x, prec) )`

GEN `RgX_recip`(GEN `P`) returns the reverse of the polynomial  $P$ , i.e.  $X^{\deg P} P(1/X)$ .

GEN `RgX_recip_shallow`(GEN `P`) shallow function of `RgX_recip`.

GEN `RgX_deflate`(GEN `P`, long `d`) assuming  $P$  is a polynomial of the form  $Q(X^d)$ , return  $Q$ . Shallow function, not suitable for `gerepileupto`.

`long RgX_deflate_max(GEN P, long *d)` sets  $d$  to the largest exponent such that  $P$  is of the form  $P(x^d)$  (use `gequal0` to check whether coefficients are 0), 0 if  $P$  is the zero polynomial. Returns `RgX_deflate(P,d)`.

`GEN RgX_inflate(GEN P, long d)` return  $P(X^d)$ . Shallow function, not suitable for `gerepileupto`.

`GEN RgX_rescale(GEN P, GEN h)` returns  $h^{\deg(P)} P(x/h)$ .  $P$  is an `RgX` and  $h$  is non-zero. (Leaves small objects on the stack. Suitable but inefficient for `gerepileupto`.)

`GEN RgX_unscale(GEN P, GEN h)` returns  $P(hx)$ . (Leaves small objects on the stack. Suitable but inefficient for `gerepileupto`.)

`GEN RgXV_unscale(GEN v, GEN h)` apply `RgX_unscale` to a vector of `RgX`.

`int RgX_is_rational(GEN P)` return 1 if the `RgX`  $P$  has only rational coefficients (`t_INT` and `t_FRAC`), and 0 otherwise.

`int RgX_is_ZX(GEN P)` return 1 if the `RgX`  $P$  has only `t_INT` coefficients, and 0 otherwise.

`int RgX_is_monomial(GEN x)` returns 1 (true) if  $x$  is a non-zero monomial in its main variable, 0 otherwise.

`long RgX_equal(GEN x, GEN y)` returns 1 if the `t_POLs`  $x$  and  $y$  have the same `degpol` and their coefficients are equal (as per `gequal`). Variable numbers are not checked. Note that this is more stringent than `gequal(x,y)`, which only checks whether  $x - y$  satisfies `gequal0`; in particular, they may have different apparent degrees provided the extra leading terms are 0.

`long RgX_equal_var(GEN x, GEN y)` returns 1 if  $x$  and  $y$  have the same variable number and `RgX_equal(x,y)` is 1.

`GEN RgXQ_mul(GEN y, GEN x, GEN T)` computes  $xy \bmod T$

`GEN RgXQ_sqr(GEN x, GEN T)` computes  $x^2 \bmod T$

`GEN RgXQ_inv(GEN x, GEN T)` return the inverse of  $x \bmod T$ .

`GEN RgXQ_pow(GEN x, GEN n, GEN T)` computes  $x^n \bmod T$

`GEN RgXQ_powu(GEN x, ulong n, GEN T)` computes  $x^n \bmod T$ ,  $n$  being an `ulong`.

`GEN RgXQ_powers(GEN x, long n, GEN T)` returns  $[x^0, \dots, x^n]$  as a `t_VEC` of `RgXQs`.

`int RgXQ_ratlift(GEN x, GEN T, long amax, long bmax, GEN *P, GEN *Q)` Assuming that  $\text{amax} + \text{bmax} < \deg T$ , attempts to recognize  $x$  as a rational function  $a/b$ , i.e. to find `t_POLs`  $P$  and  $Q$  such that

- $P \equiv Qx \bmod T$ ,
- $\deg P \leq \text{amax}$ ,  $\deg Q \leq \text{bmax}$ ,
- $\gcd(T, P) = \gcd(P, Q)$ .

If unsuccessful, the routine returns 0 and leaves  $P$ ,  $Q$  unchanged; otherwise it returns 1 and sets  $P$  and  $Q$ .

`GEN RgXQ_reverse(GEN f, GEN T)` returns a `t_POL`  $g$  of degree  $< n = \deg T$  such that  $T(x)$  divides  $(g \circ f)(x) - x$ , by solving a linear system. Low-level function underlying `modreverse`: it returns a lift of `[modreverse(f,T)]`; faster than the high-level function since it needs not compute



the characteristic polynomial of  $f \bmod T$  (often already known in applications). In the trivial case where  $n \leq 1$ , returns a scalar, not a constant `t_POL`.

`GEN RgXQ_matrix_pow(GEN y, long n, long m, GEN P)` returns `RgXQ_powers(y,m-1,P)`, as a matrix of dimension  $n \geq \deg P$ .

`GEN RgXQ_norm(GEN x, GEN T)` returns the norm of  $\text{Mod}(x, T)$ .

`GEN RgXQ_charpoly(GEN x, GEN T, long v)` returns the characteristic polynomial of  $\text{Mod}(x, T)$ , in variable  $v$ .

`GEN RgX_RgXQ_eval(GEN f, GEN x, GEN T)` returns  $f(x)$  modulo  $T$ .

`GEN RgX_RgXQV_eval(GEN f, GEN V)` as `RgX_RgXQ_eval(f, x, T)`, assuming  $V$  was output by `RgXQ_powers(x, n, T)`.

`GEN QX_ZXQV_eval(GEN f, GEN nV, GEN dV)` as `RgX_RgXQV_eval`, except that  $f$  is assumed to be a `QX`,  $V$  is given implicitly by a numerator `nV` (`ZV`) and denominator `dV` (a positive `t_INT` or `NULL` for trivial denominator). Not memory clean, but suitable for `gerepileupto`.

`GEN RgX_translate(GEN P, GEN c)` assume  $c$  is a scalar or a polynomials whose main variable has lower priority than the main variable  $X$  of  $P$ . Returns  $P(X + c)$  (optimized for  $c = \pm 1$ ).

`GEN RgXQX_translate(GEN P, GEN c, GEN T)` assume the main variable  $X$  of  $P$  has higher priority than the main variable  $Y$  of  $T$  and  $c$ . Return a lift of  $P(X + \text{Mod}(c(Y), T(Y)))$ .

`GEN RgXQC_red(GEN z, GEN T)`  $z$  a vector whose coefficients are `RgXs` (arbitrary `GENs` in fact), reduce them to `RgXQs` (applying `gre`m coefficientwise) in a `t_COL`.

`GEN RgXQV_red(GEN z, GEN T)`  $z$  a `t_POL` whose coefficients are `RgXs` (arbitrary `GENs` in fact), reduce them to `RgXQs` (applying `gre`m coefficientwise) in a `t_VEC`.

`GEN RgXQX_red(GEN z, GEN T)`  $z$  a `t_POL` whose coefficients are `RgXs` (arbitrary `GENs` in fact), reduce them to `RgXQs` (applying `gre`m coefficientwise).

`GEN RgXQX_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T)`

`GEN RgX_Rg_mul(GEN y, GEN x)` multiplies the `RgX`  $y$  by the scalar  $x$ .

`GEN RgX_muls(GEN y, long s)` multiplies the `RgX`  $y$  by the `long`  $s$ .

`GEN RgX_Rg_div(GEN y, GEN x)` divides the `RgX`  $y$  by the scalar  $x$ .

`GEN RgX_divs(GEN y, long s)` divides the `RgX`  $y$  by the `long`  $s$ .

`GEN RgX_Rg_divexact(GEN x, GEN y)` exact division of the `RgX`  $y$  by the scalar  $x$ .

`GEN RgXQX_RgXQ_mul(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T)` multiplies the `RgXQX`  $y$  by the scalar (`RgXQ`)  $x$ .

`GEN RgXQX_sqr(GEN x, GEN T)`

`GEN RgXQX_divrem(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN *pr)`

`GEN RgXQX_div(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN *r)`

`GEN RgXQX_rem(GEN x, GEN y, GEN T, GEN *r)`



## Chapter 8:

### Operations on general PARI objects

#### 8.1 Assignment.

It is in general easier to use a direct conversion, e.g. `y = stoi(s)`, than to allocate a target of correct type and sufficient size, then assign to it:

```
GEN y = cgeti(3); affsi(s, y);
```

These functions can still be moderately useful in complicated garbage collecting scenarios but you will be better off not using them.

`void gaffsg(long s, GEN x)` assigns the `long s` into the object `x`.

`void gaffect(GEN x, GEN y)` assigns the object `x` into the object `y`. Both `x` and `y` must be scalar types. Type conversions (e.g. from `t_INT` to `t_REAL` or `t_INTMOD`) occur if legitimate.

`int is_universal_constant(GEN x)` returns 1 if `x` is a global PARI constant you should never assign to (such as `gen_1`), and 0 otherwise.

#### 8.2 Conversions.

##### 8.2.1 Scalars.

`double rtodbl(GEN x)` applied to a `t_REAL x`, converts `x` into a `double` if possible.

`GEN dbltor(double x)` converts the `double x` into a `t_REAL`.

`long dblexpo(double x)` returns `expo(dbltor(x))`, but faster and without cluttering the stack.

`ulong dblmantissa(double x)` returns the most significant word in the mantissa of `dbltor(x)`.

`double gtodouble(GEN x)` if `x` is a real number (not necessarily a `t_REAL`), converts `x` into a `double` if possible.

`long gtos(GEN x)` converts the `t_INT x` to a small integer if possible, otherwise raise an exception. This function is similar to `itos`, slightly slower since it checks the type of `x`.

`double dbllog2r(GEN x)` assuming `x` is a non-zero `t_REAL`, returns an approximation to `log2(|x|)`.

`long gtolong(GEN x)` if `x` is an integer (not necessarily a `t_INT`), converts `x` into a `long` if possible.

`GEN fractor(GEN x, long l)` applied to a `t_FRAC x`, converts `x` into a `t_REAL` of length `prec`.

`GEN quadtofp(GEN x, long l)` applied to a `t_QUAD x`, converts `x` into a `t_REAL` or `t_COMPLEX` depending on the sign of the discriminant of `x`, to precision `l BITS_IN_LONG`-bit words.

`GEN cxtofp(GEN x, long prec)` converts the `t_COMPLEX x` to a complex whose real and imaginary parts are `t_REAL` of length `prec` (special case of `gtofp`).

GEN `cxcompotor`(GEN `x`, long `prec`) converts the `t_INT`, `t_REAL` or `t_FRAC` `x` to a `t_REAL` of length `prec`. These are all the real types which may occur as components of a `t_COMPLEX`; special case of `gtofp` (introduced so that the latter is not recursive and can thus be inlined).

GEN `gtofp`(GEN `x`, long `prec`) converts the complex number `x` (`t_INT`, `t_REAL`, `t_FRAC`, `t_QUAD` or `t_COMPLEX`) to either a `t_REAL` or `t_COMPLEX` whose components are `t_REAL` of precision `prec`; not necessarily of *length* `prec`: a real 0 may be given as `real_0(...)`. If the result is a `t_COMPLEX` extra care is taken so that its modulus really has accuracy `prec`: there is a problem if the real part of the input is an exact 0; indeed, converting it to `real_0(prec)` would be wrong if the imaginary part is tiny, since the modulus would then become equal to 0, as in  $1.E-100+0.E-28=0.E-28$ .

GEN `gcvtop`(GEN `x`, GEN `p`, long `l`) converts `x` into a `t_PADIC` of precision `l`. Works componentwise on recursive objects, e.g. `t_POL` or `t_VEC`. Converting 0 yields  $O(p^l)$ ; converting a non-zero number yield a result well defined modulo  $p^{v_p(x)+l}$ .

GEN `cvtop`(GEN `x`, GEN `p`, long `l`) as `gcvtop`, assuming that `x` is a scalar.

GEN `cvtop2`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) `y` being a  $p$ -adic, converts the scalar `x` to a  $p$ -adic of the same accuracy. Shallow function.

GEN `cvstop2`(long `s`, GEN `y`) `y` being a  $p$ -adic, converts the scalar `s` to a  $p$ -adic of the same accuracy. Shallow function.

GEN `gprec`(GEN `x`, long `l`) returns a copy of `x` whose precision is changed to `l` digits. The precision change is done recursively on all components of `x`. Digits means *decimal*,  $p$ -adic and  $X$ -adic digits for `t_REAL`, `t_SER`, `t_PADIC` components, respectively.

GEN `gprec_w`(GEN `x`, long `l`) returns a shallow copy of `x` whose `t_REAL` components have their precision changed to `l words`. This is often more useful than `gprec`.

GEN `gprec_wtrunc`(GEN `x`, long `l`) returns a shallow copy of `x` whose `t_REAL` components have their precision *truncated* to `l words`. Contrary to `gprec_w`, this function may never increase the precision of `x`.

### 8.2.2 Modular objects.

GEN `gmodulo`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) creates the object **Mod**(`x`,`y`) on the PARI stack, where `x` and `y` are either both `t_INT`s, and the result is a `t_INTMOD`, or `x` is a scalar or a `t_POL` and `y` a `t_POL`, and the result is a `t_POLMOD`.

GEN `gmodulgs`(GEN `x`, long `y`) same as **gmodulo** except `y` is a long.

GEN `gmodulsg`(long `x`, GEN `y`) same as **gmodulo** except `x` is a long.

GEN `gmodulss`(long `x`, long `y`) same as **gmodulo** except both `x` and `y` are longs.

### 8.2.3 Between polynomials and coefficient arrays.

GEN `gtopoly`(GEN `x`, long `v`) converts or truncates the object `x` into a `t_POL` with main variable number `v`. A common application would be the conversion of coefficient vectors (coefficients are given by decreasing degree). E.g. `[2,3]` goes to  $2*v + 3$

GEN `gtopolyrev`(GEN `x`, long `v`) converts or truncates the object `x` into a `t_POL` with main variable number `v`, but vectors are converted in reverse order compared to `gtopoly` (coefficients are given by increasing degree). E.g. `[2,3]` goes to  $3*v + 2$ . In other words the vector represents a polynomial in the basis  $(1, v, v^2, v^3, \dots)$ .

GEN `normalizpol`(GEN `x`) applied to an unnormalized `t_POL` `x` (with all coefficients correctly set except that `leading_term(x)` might be zero), normalizes `x` correctly in place and returns `x`. For internal use. Normalizing means deleting all leading *exact* zeroes (as per `isexactzero`), except if the polynomial turns out to be 0, in which case we try to find a coefficient `c` which is a non-rational zero, and return the constant polynomial `c`. (We do this so that information about the base ring is not lost.)

GEN `normalizpol_lg`(GEN `x`, long `l`) applies `normalizpol` to `x`, pretending that `lg(x)` is `l`, which must be less than or equal to `lg(x)`. If equal, the function is equivalent to `normalizpol(x)`.

GEN `normalizpol_approx`(GEN `x`, long `lx`) as `normalizpol_lg`, with the difference that we just delete all leading zeroes (as per `gequal0`). This rougher normalization is used when we have no other choice, for instance before attempting a Euclidean division by `x`.

The following routines do *not* copy coefficients on the stack (they only move pointers around), hence are very fast but not suitable for `gerepile` calls. Recall that an `RgV` (resp. an `RgX`, resp. an `RgM`) is a `t_VEC` or `t_COL` (resp. a `t_POL`, resp. a `t_MAT`) with arbitrary components. Similarly, an `RgXV` is a `t_VEC` or `t_COL` with `RgX` components, etc.

GEN `RgV_to_RgX`(GEN `x`, long `v`) converts the `RgV` `x` to a (normalized) polynomial in variable `v` (as `gtopolyrev`, without copy).

GEN `RgX_to_RgV`(GEN `x`, long `N`) converts the `t_POL` `x` to a `t_COL` `v` with `N` components. Other types than `t_POL` are allowed for `x`, which is then considered as a constant polynomial. Coefficients of `x` are listed by increasing degree, so that `y[i]` is the coefficient of the term of degree  $i - 1$  in `x`.

GEN `RgM_to_RgXV`(GEN `x`, long `v`) converts the `RgM` `x` to a `t_VEC` of `RgX`, by repeated calls to `RgV_to_RgX`.

GEN `RgXV_to_RgM`(GEN `v`, long `N`) converts the vector of `RgX` `v` to a `t_MAT` with `N` rows, by repeated calls to `RgX_to_RgV`.

GEN `RgM_to_RgXX`(GEN `x`, long `v`, long `w`) converts the `RgM` `x` into a `t_POL` in variable `v`, whose coefficients are `t_POL`s in variable `w`. This is a shortcut for

```
RgV_to_RgX( RgM_to_RgXV(x, w), v );
```

There are no consistency checks with respect to variable priorities: the above is an invalid object if `varncmp(v, w) ≥ 0`.

GEN `RgXX_to_RgM`(GEN `x`, long `N`) converts the `t_POL` `x` with `RgX` (or constant) coefficients to a matrix with `N` rows.

GEN `RgXY_swap`(GEN `P`, long `n`, long `w`) converts the bivariate polynomial  $P(u, v)$  (a `t_POL` with `t_POL` coefficients) to  $P(\text{pol\_x}[w], u)$ , assuming `n` is an upper bound for  $\deg_v(P)$ .

GEN `RgX_to_ser`(GEN `x`, long `l`) applied to a `t_POL` `x`, creates a *shallow* `t_SER` of length  $l \geq 2$  starting with `x`. Unless the polynomial is an exact zero, the coefficient of lowest degree  $T^d$  of the result is not an exact zero (as per `isexactzero`). The remainder is  $O(T^{d+l})$ .

GEN `RgX_to_ser_inexact`(GEN `x`, long `l`) applied to a `t_POL` `x`, creates a *shallow* `t_SER` of length `l` starting with `x`. Unless the polynomial is zero, the coefficient of lowest degree  $T^d$  of the result is not zero (as per `gequal0`). The remainder is  $O(T^{d+l})$ .

GEN `gtoser`(GEN `x`, long `v`) converts the object `x` into a `t_SER` with main variable number `v`.

GEN `gtocol`(GEN `x`) converts the object `x` into a `t_COL`

GEN `gtomat`(GEN `x`) converts the object `x` into a `t_MAT`.

GEN `gtovec`(GEN `x`) converts the object `x` into a `t_VEC`.

GEN `gtovecsmall`(GEN `x`) converts the object `x` into a `t_VECSMALL`.

GEN `normalize`(GEN `x`) applied to an unnormalized `t_SER` `x` (i.e. type `t_SER` with all coefficients correctly set except that `x[2]` might be zero), normalizes `x` correctly in place. Returns `x`. For internal use.

## 8.3 Constructors.

### 8.3.1 Clean constructors.

GEN `zeropadic`(GEN `p`, long `n`) creates a 0 `t_PADIC` equal to  $O(p^n)$ .

GEN `zeroser`(long `v`, long `n`) creates a 0 `t_SER` in variable `v` equal to  $O(X^n)$ .

GEN `scalarser`(GEN `x`, long `v`, long `prec`) creates a constant `t_SER` in variable `v` and precision `prec`, whose constant coefficient is (a copy of) `x`, in other words  $x + O(v^{\text{prec}})$ . Assumes that `x` is non-zero.

GEN `pol_0`(long `v`) Returns the constant polynomial 0 in variable `v`.

GEN `pol_1`(long `v`) Returns the constant polynomial 1 in variable `v`.

GEN `pol_x`(long `v`) Returns the monomial of degree 1 in variable `v`.

GEN `pol_x_powers`(long `N`, long `v`) returns the powers of `pol_x(v)`, of degree 0 to `N`, in a vector with `N + 1` components.

GEN `scalarpol`(GEN `x`, long `v`) creates a constant `t_POL` in variable `v`, whose constant coefficient is (a copy of) `x`.

GEN `deg1pol`(GEN `a`, GEN `b`, long `v`) creates the degree 1 `t_POL`  $a + b\text{pol}_x(v)$

GEN `zeropol`(long `v`) is identical `pol_0`.

GEN `zerocol`(long `n`) creates a `t_COL` with `n` components set to `gen_0`.

GEN `zerovec`(long `n`) creates a `t_VEC` with `n` components set to `gen_0`.

GEN `col_ei`(long `n`, long `i`) creates a `t_COL` with `n` components set to `gen_0`, but for the `i`-th one which is set to `gen_1` (`i`-th vector in the canonical basis).

GEN `vec_ei`(long `n`, long `i`) creates a `t_VEC` with `n` components set to `gen_0`, but for the `i`-th one which is set to `gen_1` (`i`-th vector in the canonical basis).

GEN `Rg_col_ei`(GEN `x`, long `n`, long `i`) creates a `t_COL` with `n` components set to `gen_0`, but for the `i`-th one which is set to `x`.

GEN `vecsmall_ei`(long `n`, long `i`) creates a `t_VECSMALL` with `n` components set to 0, but for the `i`-th one which is set to 1 (`i`-th vector in the canonical basis).

GEN `scalarcol`(GEN `x`, long `n`) creates a `t_COL` with `n` components set to `gen_0`, but the first one which is set to a copy of `x`. (The name comes from `RgV_isscalar`.)

GEN `mkintmodu`(ulong `x`, ulong `y`) creates the `t_INTMOD` `Mod(x, y)`. The inputs must satisfy  $x < y$ .

GEN `zeromat`(long `m`, long `n`) creates a `t_MAT` with `m` x `n` components set to `gen_0`. Note that the result allocates a *single* column, so modifying an entry in one column modifies it in all columns. To fully allocate a matrix initialized with zero entries, use `zeromacopy`.

GEN `zeromacopy`(long `m`, long `n`) creates a `t_MAT` with `m` x `n` components set to `gen_0`.

GEN `matid`(long `n`) identity matrix in dimension `n` (with components `gen_1` and `gen_0`).

GEN `scalarmat`(GEN `x`, long `n`) scalar matrix, `x` times the identity.

GEN `scalarmat_s`(long `x`, long `n`) scalar matrix, `stoi(x)` times the identity.

See also next section for analogs of the following functions:

GEN `mkfraccopy`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) creates the `t_FRAC`  $x/y$ . Assumes that  $y > 1$  and  $(x, y) = 1$ .

GEN `mkcolcopy`(GEN `x`) creates a 1-dimensional `t_COL` containing `x`.

GEN `mkmatcopy`(GEN `x`) creates a 1-by-1 `t_MAT` containing `x`.

GEN `mkveccopy`(GEN `x`) creates a 1-dimensional `t_VEC` containing `x`.

GEN `mkvec2copy`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) creates a 2-dimensional `t_VEC` equal to `[x,y]`.

GEN `mkvecs`(long `x`) creates a 1-dimensional `t_VEC` containing `stoi(x)`.

GEN `mkvec2s`(long `x`, long `y`) creates a 2-dimensional `t_VEC` containing `[stoi(x), stoi(y)]`.

GEN `mkvec3s`(long `x`, long `y`, long `z`) creates a 3-dimensional `t_VEC` containing `[stoi(x), stoi(y), stoi(z)]`.

GEN `mkvecsmall`(long `x`) creates a 1-dimensional `t_VECSMALL` containing `x`.

GEN `mkvecsmall2`(long `x`, long `y`) creates a 2-dimensional `t_VECSMALL` containing `[x, y]`.

GEN `mkvecsmall3`(long `x`, long `y`, long `z`) creates a 3-dimensional `t_VECSMALL` containing `[x, y, z]`.

GEN `mkvecsmall4`(long `x`, long `y`, long `z`, long `t`) creates a 4-dimensional `t_VECSMALL` containing `[x, y, z, t]`.

GEN `mkvecsmalln`(long `n`, ...) returns the `t_VECSMALL` whose `n` coefficients (long) follow.

### 8.3.2 Unclean constructors.

Contrary to the policy of general PARI functions, the functions in this subsection do *not* copy their arguments, nor do they produce an object a priori suitable for `gerepileupto`. In particular, they are faster than their clean equivalent (which may not exist). *If* you restrict their arguments to universal objects (e.g `gen_0`), then the above warning does not apply.

`GEN mkcomplex(GEN x, GEN y)` creates the `t_COMPLEX`  $x + iy$ .

`GEN mulcxI(GEN x)` creates the `t_COMPLEX`  $ix$ . The result in general contains data pointing back to the original  $x$ . Use `gcopy` if this is a problem. But in most cases, the result is to be used immediately, before  $x$  is subject to garbage collection.

`GEN mulcxmI(GEN x)`, as `mulcxI`, but returns the `t_COMPLEX`  $-ix$ .

`GEN mkquad(GEN n, GEN x, GEN y)` creates the `t_QUAD`  $x + yw$ , where  $w$  is a root of  $n$ , which is of the form `quadpoly(D)`.

`GEN mkfrac(GEN x, GEN y)` creates the `t_FRAC`  $x/y$ . Assumes that  $y > 1$  and  $(x, y) = 1$ .

`GEN mkrfrac(GEN x, GEN y)` creates the `t_RFRAC`  $x/y$ . Assumes that  $y$  is a `t_POL`,  $x$  a compatible type whose variable has lower or same priority, with  $(x, y) = 1$ .

`GEN mkcol(GEN x)` creates a 1-dimensional `t_COL` containing  $x$ .

`GEN mkcol2(GEN x, GEN y)` creates a 2-dimensional `t_COL` equal to  $[x, y]$ .

`GEN mkintmod(GEN x, GEN y)` creates the `t_INTMOD`  $\text{Mod}(x, y)$ . The inputs must be `t_INTs` satisfying  $0 \leq x < y$ .

`GEN mkpolmod(GEN x, GEN y)` creates the `t_POLMOD`  $\text{Mod}(x, y)$ . The input must satisfy  $\deg x < \deg y$  with respect to the main variable of the `t_POL`  $y$ .  $x$  may be a scalar.

`GEN mkmat(GEN x)` creates a 1-column `t_MAT` with column  $x$  (a `t_COL`).

`GEN mkmat2(GEN x, GEN y)` creates a 2-column `t_MAT` with columns  $x, y$  (`t_COLS` of the same length).

`GEN mkvec(GEN x)` creates a 1-dimensional `t_VEC` containing  $x$ .

`GEN mkvec2(GEN x, GEN y)` creates a 2-dimensional `t_VEC` equal to  $[x, y]$ .

`GEN mkvec3(GEN x, GEN y, GEN z)` creates a 3-dimensional `t_VEC` equal to  $[x, y, z]$ .

`GEN mkvec4(GEN x, GEN y, GEN z, GEN t)` creates a 4-dimensional `t_VEC` equal to  $[x, y, z, t]$ .

`GEN mkvec5(GEN a1, GEN a2, GEN a3, GEN a4, GEN a5)` creates the 5-dimensional `t_VEC` equal to  $[a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5]$ .

`GEN mkintn(long n, ...)` returns the non-negative `t_INT` whose development in base  $2^{32}$  is given by the following  $n$  words (`unsigned long`). It is assumed that all such arguments are less than  $2^{32}$  (the actual `sizeof(long)` is irrelevant, the behavior is also as above on 64-bit machines).

`mkintn(3, a2, a1, a0);`

returns  $a_2 2^{64} + a_1 2^{32} + a_0$ .

`GEN mkpoln(long n, ...)` Returns the `t_POL` whose  $n$  coefficients (`GEN`) follow, in order of decreasing degree.



`mkpoln(3, gen_1, gen_2, gen_0);`

returns the polynomial  $X^2 + 2X$  (in variable 0, use `setvarn` if you want other variable numbers). Beware that  $n$  is the number of coefficients, hence *one more* than the degree.

GEN `mkvecn(long n, ...)` returns the `t_VEC` whose  $n$  coefficients (GEN) follow.

GEN `mkcoln(long n, ...)` returns the `t_COL` whose  $n$  coefficients (GEN) follow.

GEN `scalarcol_shallow(GEN x, long n)` creates a `t_COL` with  $n$  components set to `gen_0`, but the first one which is set to a shallow copy of `x`. (The name comes from `RgV_isscalar`.)

GEN `scalarmat_shallow(GEN x, long n)` creates an  $n \times n$  scalar matrix whose diagonal is set to shallow copies of the scalar `x`.

GEN `diagonal_shallow(GEN x)` returns a diagonal matrix whose diagonal is given by the vector `x`. Shallow function.

GEN `deg1pol_shallow(GEN a, GEN b, long v)` returns the degree 1 `t_POL`  $a + b\text{pol\_x}(v)$

### 8.3.3 From roots to polynomials.

GEN `deg1_from_roots(GEN L, long v)` given a vector  $L$  of scalars, returns the vector of monic linear polynomials in variable  $v$  whose roots are the  $L[i]$ , i.e. the  $x - L[i]$ .

GEN `roots_from_deg1(GEN L)` given a vector  $L$  of monic linear polynomials, return their roots, i.e. the  $-L[i](0)$ .

GEN `roots_to_pol(GEN L, long v)` given a vector of scalars  $L$ , returns the monic polynomial in variable  $v$  whose roots are the  $L[i]$ . Calls `divide_conquer_prod`, so leaves some garbage on stack, but suitable for `gerepileupto`.

GEN `roots_to_pol_r1(GEN L, long v, long r1)` as `roots_to_pol` assuming the first  $r_1$  roots are “real”, and the following ones are representatives of conjugate pairs of “complex” roots. So if  $L$  has  $r_1 + r_2$  elements, we obtain a polynomial of degree  $r_1 + 2r_2$ . In most applications, the roots are indeed real and complex, but the implementation assumes only that each “complex” root  $z$  introduces a quadratic factor  $X^2 - \text{trace}(z)X + \text{norm}(z)$ . Calls `divide_conquer_prod`. Calls `divide_conquer_prod`, so leaves some garbage on stack, but suitable for `gerepileupto`.

## 8.4 Integer parts.

GEN `gfloor(GEN x)` creates the floor of `x`, i.e. the (true) integral part.

GEN `gfrac(GEN x)` creates the fractional part of `x`, i.e. `x` minus the floor of `x`.

GEN `gceil(GEN x)` creates the ceiling of `x`.

GEN `ground(GEN x)` rounds towards  $+\infty$  the components of `x` to the nearest integers.

GEN `grndtoi(GEN x, long *e)` same as `ground`, but in addition sets `*e` to the binary exponent of  $x - \text{ground}(x)$ . If this is positive, all significant bits are lost. This kind of situation raises an error message in `ground` but not in `grndtoi`.

GEN `gtrunc(GEN x)` truncates `x`. This is the false integer part if `x` is a real number (i.e. the unique integer closest to `x` among those between 0 and `x`). If `x` is a `t_SER`, it is truncated to a `t_POL`; if `x` is a `t_RFRAC`, this takes the polynomial part.

GEN `gtrunc2n`(GEN `x`, long `n`) creates the floor of  $2^n x$ , this is only implemented for `t_INT`, `t_REAL`, `t_FRAC` and `t_COMPLEX` of those.

GEN `gcvtoi`(GEN `x`, long `*e`) analogous to `grndtoi` for `t_REAL` inputs except that rounding is replaced by truncation. Also applies componentwise for vector or matrix inputs; otherwise, sets `*e` to `-HIGHEXPOBIT` (infinite real accuracy) and return `gtrunc(x)`.

## 8.5 Valuation and shift.

GEN `gshift`[`z`](GEN `x`, long `n`[, GEN `z`]) yields the result of shifting (the components of) `x` left by `n` (if `n` is non-negative) or right by  $-n$  (if `n` is negative). Applies only to `t_INT` and vectors/matrices of such. For other types, it is simply multiplication by  $2^n$ .

GEN `gmul2n`[`z`](GEN `x`, long `n`[, GEN `z`]) yields the product of `x` and  $2^n$ . This is different from `gshift` when `n` is negative and `x` is a `t_INT`: `gshift` truncates, while `gmul2n` creates a fraction if necessary.

long `ggval`(GEN `x`, GEN `p`) returns the greatest exponent  $e$  such that  $p^e$  divides `x`, when this makes sense.

long `gval`(GEN `x`, long `v`) returns the highest power of the variable number `v` dividing the `t_POL` `x`.

## 8.6 Comparison operators.

### 8.6.1 Generic.

long `gcmp`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) comparison of `x` with `y` (returns the sign ( $-1$ ,  $0$  or  $1$ ) of  $x - y$ ).

long `lexcmp`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) comparison of `x` with `y` for the lexicographic ordering.

int `gcmpX`(GEN `x`) return  $1$  (true) if `x` is a variable (monomial of degree  $1$  with `t_INT` coefficients equal to  $1$  and  $0$ ), and  $0$  otherwise

long `gequal`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) returns  $1$  (true) if `x` is equal to `y`,  $0$  otherwise. A priori, this makes sense only if `x` and `y` have the same type, in which case they are recursively compared componentwise. When the types are different, a `true` result means that  $x - y$  was successfully computed and that `gequal0` found it equal to  $0$ . In particular

```
gequal(cgetg(1, t_VEC), gen_0)
```

is true, and the relation is not transitive. E.g. an empty `t_COL` and an empty `t_VEC` are not equal but are both equal to `gen_0`.

long `gidentical`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`) returns  $1$  (true) if `x` is identical to `y`,  $0$  otherwise. In particular, the types and length of `x` and `y` must be equal. This test is much stricter than `gequal`, in particular, `t_REAL` with different accuracies are tested different. This relation is transitive.

### 8.6.2 Comparison with a small integer.

`int isexactzero(GEN x)` returns 1 (true) if `x` is exactly equal to 0 (including `t_INTMODs` like `Mod(0,2)`), and 0 (false) otherwise. This includes recursive objects, for instance vectors, whose components are 0.

`int isrationalzero(GEN x)` returns 1 (true) if `x` is equal to an integer 0 (excluding `t_INTMODs` like `Mod(0,2)`), and 0 (false) otherwise. Contrary to `isintzero`, this includes recursive objects, for instance vectors, whose components are 0.

`int ismpzero(GEN x)` returns 1 (true) if `x` is a `t_INT` or a `t_REAL` equal to 0.

`int isintzero(GEN x)` returns 1 (true) if `x` is a `t_INT` equal to 0.

`int isint1(GEN x)` returns 1 (true) if `x` is a `t_INT` equal to 1.

`int isintm1(GEN x)` returns 1 (true) if `x` is a `t_INT` equal to  $-1$ .

`int equali1(GEN n)` Assuming that `x` is a `t_INT`, return 1 (true) if `x` is equal to 1, and return 0 (false) otherwise.

`int equalim1(GEN n)` Assuming that `x` is a `t_INT`, return 1 (true) if `x` is equal to  $-1$ , and return 0 (false) otherwise.

`int is_pm1(GEN x)`. Assuming that `x` is a *non-zero* `t_INT`, return 1 (true) if `x` is equal to  $-1$  or 1, and return 0 (false) otherwise.

`int gequal0(GEN x)` returns 1 (true) if `x` is equal to 0, 0 (false) otherwise.

`int gequal1(GEN x)` returns 1 (true) if `x` is equal to 1, 0 (false) otherwise.

`int gequalm1(GEN x)` returns 1 (true) if `x` is equal to  $-1$ , 0 (false) otherwise.

`long gcmpsg(long s, GEN x)`

`long gcmpgs(GEN x, long s)` comparison of `x` with the `long s`.

`GEN gmaxsg(long s, GEN x)`

`GEN gmaxgs(GEN x, long s)` returns the largest of `x` and the `long s` (converted to `GEN`)

`GEN gminsg(long s, GEN x)`

`GEN gminggs(GEN x, long s)` returns the smallest of `x` and the `long s` (converted to `GEN`)

`long gequalsg(long s, GEN x)`

`long gequalgs(GEN x, long s)` returns 1 (true) if `x` is equal to the `long s`, 0 otherwise.

## 8.7 Miscellaneous Boolean functions.

`int isrationalzeroscalar(GEN x)` equivalent to, but faster than,

```
is_scalar_t(typ(x)) && isrationalzero(x)
```

`int isinexact(GEN x)` returns 1 (true) if  $x$  has an inexact component, and 0 (false) otherwise.

`int isinexactreal(GEN x)` return 1 if  $x$  has an inexact `t_REAL` component, and 0 otherwise.

`int isrealappr(GEN x, long e)` applies (recursively) to complex inputs; returns 1 if  $x$  is approximately real to the bit accuracy  $e$ , and 0 otherwise. This means that any `t_COMPLEX` component must have imaginary part  $t$  satisfying `gexpo(t) < e`.

`int isint(GEN x, GEN *n)` returns 0 (false) if  $x$  does not round to an integer. Otherwise, returns 1 (true) and set  $n$  to the rounded value.

`int issmall(GEN x, long *n)` returns 0 (false) if  $x$  does not round to a small integer (suitable for `itos`). Otherwise, returns 1 (true) and set  $n$  to the rounded value.

`long iscomplex(GEN x)` returns 1 (true) if  $x$  is a complex number (of component types embeddable into the reals) but is not itself real, 0 if  $x$  is a real (not necessarily of type `t_REAL`), or raises an error if  $x$  is not embeddable into the complex numbers.

### 8.7.1 Obsolete.

The following less convenient comparison functions and Boolean operators were used by the historical GP interpreter. They are provided for backward compatibility only and should not be used:

`GEN gle(GEN x, GEN y)`

`GEN glt(GEN x, GEN y)`

`GEN gge(GEN x, GEN y)`

`GEN ggt(GEN x, GEN y)`

`GEN geq(GEN x, GEN y)`

`GEN gne(GEN x, GEN y)`

`GEN gor(GEN x, GEN y)`

`GEN gand(GEN x, GEN y)`

`GEN gnot(GEN x, GEN y)`

## 8.8 Sorting.

### 8.8.1 Basic sort.

GEN `sort`(GEN `x`) sorts the vector `x` in ascending order using a mergesort algorithm, and `gcmp` as the underlying comparison routine (returns the sorted vector). This routine copies all components of `x`, use `gen_sort_inplace` for a more memory-efficient function.

GEN `lexsort`(GEN `x`), as `sort`, using `lexcmp` instead of `gcmp` as the underlying comparison routine.

GEN `vecsort`(GEN `x`, GEN `k`), as `sort`, but sorts the vector `x` in ascending *lexicographic* order, according to the entries of the `t_VECSMALL` `k`. For example, if `k` = [2, 1, 3], sorting will be done with respect to the second component, and when these are equal, with respect to the first, and when these are equal, with respect to the third.

### 8.8.2 Indirect sorting.

GEN `indexsort`(GEN `x`) as `sort`, but only returns the permutation which, applied to `x`, would sort the vector. The result is a `t_VECSMALL`.

GEN `indexlexsort`(GEN `x`), as `indexsort`, using `lexcmp` instead of `gcmp` as the underlying comparison routine.

GEN `indexvecsort`(GEN `x`, GEN `k`), as `vecsort`, but only returns the permutation that would sort the vector `x`.

**8.8.3 Generic sort and search.** The following routines allow to use an arbitrary comparison function `int (*cmp)(void* data, GEN x, GEN y)`, such that `cmp(data,x,y)` returns a negative result if  $x < y$ , a positive one if  $x > y$  and 0 if  $x = y$ . The `data` argument is there in case your `cmp` requires additional context.

GEN `gen_sort`(GEN `x`, void `*data`, int `(*cmp)(void *,GEN,GEN)`), as `sort`, with an explicit comparison routine.

GEN `gen_sort_uniq`(GEN `x`, void `*data`, int `(*cmp)(void *,GEN,GEN)`), as `gen_sort`, removing duplicate entries.

GEN `gen_indexsort`(GEN `x`, void `*data`, int `(*cmp)(void*,GEN,GEN)`), as `indexsort`.

GEN `gen_indexsort_uniq`(GEN `x`, void `*data`, int `(*cmp)(void*,GEN,GEN)`), as `indexsort`, removing duplicate entries.

void `gen_sort_inplace`(GEN `x`, void `*data`, int `(*cmp)(void*,GEN,GEN)`, GEN `*perm`) sort `x` in place, without copying its components. If `perm` is non-NULL, it is set to the permutation that would sort the original `x`.

GEN `gen_setminus`(GEN `A`, GEN `B`, int `(*cmp)(GEN,GEN)`) given two sorted vectors `A` and `B`, returns the vector of elements of `A` not belonging to `B`.

GEN `sort_factor`(GEN `y`, void `*data`, int `(*cmp)(void *,GEN,GEN)`): assuming `y` is a factorization matrix, sorts its rows in place (no copy is made) according to the comparison function `cmp` applied to its first column.

GEN `merge_factor`(GEN `fx`, GEN `fy`, void `*data`, int `(*cmp)(void *,GEN,GEN)`) let `fx` and `fy` be factorization matrices for `X` and `Y` sorted with respect to the comparison function `cmp` (see

`sort_factor`), returns the factorization of  $X * Y$ . Zero exponents in the latter factorization are preserved, e.g. when merging the factorization of 2 and  $1/2$ , the result is  $2^0$ .

`long gen_search(GEN v, GEN y, long flag, void *data, int (*cmp)(void*,GEN,GEN)).`  
 Let  $v$  be a vector sorted according to `cmp(data,a,b)`; look for an index  $i$  such that  $v[i]$  is equal to  $y$ . `flag` has the same meaning as in `setsearch`: if `flag` is 0, return  $i$  if it exists and 0 otherwise; if `flag` is non-zero, return 0 if  $i$  exists and the index where  $y$  should be inserted otherwise.

`long tablesearch(GEN T, GEN x, int (*cmp)(GEN,GEN))` is a faster implementation for the common case `gen_search(T,x,0,cmp,cmp_nodata)`.

#### 8.8.4 Further useful comparison functions.

`int cmp_universal(GEN x, GEN y)` a somewhat arbitrary universal comparison function, devoid of sensible mathematical meaning. It is transitive, and returns 0 if and only if `gidentical(x,y)` is true. Useful to sort and search vectors of arbitrary data.

`int cmp_nodata(void *data, GEN x, GEN y)`. This function is a hack used to pass an existing basic comparison function lacking the `data` argument, i.e. with prototype `int (*cmp)(GEN x, GEN y)`. Instead of `gen_sort(x, NULL, cmp)` which may or may not work depending on how your compiler handles typecasts between incompatible function pointers, one should use `gen_sort(x, (void*)cmp, cmp_nodata)`.

Here are a few basic comparison functions, to be used with `cmp_nodata`:

`int ZV_cmp(GEN x, GEN y)` compare two ZV, which we assume have the same length (lexicographic order).

`int cmp_RgX(GEN x, GEN y)` compare two polynomials, which we assume have the same main variable (lexicographic order). The coefficients are compared using `gcmp`.

`int cmp_prime_over_p(GEN x, GEN y)` compare two prime ideals, which we assume divide the same prime number. The comparison is ad hoc but orders according to increasing residue degrees.

`int cmp_prime_ideal(GEN x, GEN y)` compare two prime ideals in the same  $nf$ . Orders by increasing primes, breaking ties using `cmp_prime_over_p`.

Finally a more elaborate comparison function:

`int gen_cmp_RgX(void *data, GEN x, GEN y)` compare two polynomials, ordering first by increasing degree, then according to the coefficient comparison function:

```
int (*cmp_coeff)(GEN,GEN) = (int (*)(GEN,GEN)) data;
```

## 8.9 Divisibility, Euclidean division.

`GEN gdivexact(GEN x, GEN y)` returns the quotient  $x/y$ , assuming  $y$  divides  $x$ . Not stack clean if  $y = 1$  (we return  $x$ , not a copy).

`int gdvd(GEN x, GEN y)` returns 1 (true) if  $y$  divides  $x$ , 0 otherwise.

`GEN gdiventres(GEN x, GEN y)` creates a 2-component vertical vector whose components are the true Euclidean quotient and remainder of  $x$  and  $y$ .

`GEN gdivent[z](GEN x, GEN y[, GEN z])` yields the true Euclidean quotient of  $x$  and the `t_INT` or `t_POL`  $y$ .

`GEN gdiventsg(long s, GEN y[, GEN z])`, as `gdivent` except that  $x$  is a `long`.

`GEN gdiventgs[z](GEN x, long s[, GEN z])`, as `gdivent` except that  $y$  is a `long`.

`GEN gmod[z](GEN x, GEN y[, GEN z])` yields the remainder of  $x$  modulo the `t_INT` or `t_POL`  $y$ . A `t_REAL` or `t_FRAC`  $y$  is also allowed, in which case the remainder is the unique real  $r$  such that  $0 \leq r < |y|$  and  $y = qx + r$  for some (in fact unique) integer  $q$ .

`GEN gmodsg(long s, GEN y[, GEN z])` as `gmod`, except  $x$  is a `long`.

`GEN gmodgs(GEN x, long s[, GEN z])` as `gmod`, except  $y$  is a `long`.

`GEN gdivmod(GEN x, GEN y, GEN *r)` If  $r$  is not equal to `NULL` or `ONLY_REM`, creates the (false) Euclidean quotient of  $x$  and  $y$ , and puts (the address of) the remainder into  $*r$ . If  $r$  is equal to `NULL`, do not create the remainder, and if  $r$  is equal to `ONLY_REM`, create and output only the remainder. The remainder is created after the quotient and can be disposed of individually with a `cgiv(r)`.

`GEN poldivrem(GEN x, GEN y, GEN *r)` same as `gdivmod` but specifically for `t_POLs`  $x$  and  $y$ , not necessarily in the same variable. Either of  $x$  and  $y$  may also be scalars (treated as polynomials of degree 0)

`GEN gdeuc(GEN x, GEN y)` creates the Euclidean quotient of the `t_POLs`  $x$  and  $y$ . Either of  $x$  and  $y$  may also be scalars (treated as polynomials of degree 0)

`GEN grem(GEN x, GEN y)` creates the Euclidean remainder of the `t_POL`  $x$  divided by the `t_POL`  $y$ .

`GEN gdivround(GEN x, GEN y)` if  $x$  and  $y$  are `t_INT`, as `diviiround`. Operate componentwise if  $x$  is a `t_COL`, `t_VEC` or `t_MAT`. Otherwise as `gdivent`.

`GEN centermod_i(GEN x, GEN y, GEN y2)`, as `centermodii`, componentwise.

`GEN centermod(GEN x, GEN y)`, as `centermod_i`, except that  $y2$  is computed (and left on the stack for efficiency).

`GEN ginvmod(GEN x, GEN y)` creates the inverse of  $x$  modulo  $y$  when it exists.  $y$  must be of type `t_INT` (in which case  $x$  is of type `t_INT`) or `t_POL` (in which case  $x$  is either a scalar type or a `t_POL`).

## 8.10 GCD, content and primitive part.

### 8.10.1 Generic.

`GEN resultant(GEN x, GEN y)` creates the resultant of the `t_POLs` `x` and `y` computed using Sylvester's matrix (inexact inputs), a modular algorithm (inputs in  $\mathbf{Q}[X]$ ) or the subresultant algorithm, as optimized by Lazard and Ducos. Either of `x` and `y` may also be scalars (treated as polynomials of degree 0)

`GEN ggcd(GEN x, GEN y)` creates the GCD of `x` and `y`.

`GEN glcm(GEN x, GEN y)` creates the LCM of `x` and `y`.

`GEN gbezout(GEN x, GEN y, GEN *u, GEN *v)` returns the GCD of `x` and `y`, and puts (the addresses of) objects `u` and `v` such that  $ux + vy = \gcd(x, y)$  into `*u` and `*v`.

`GEN subresex(GEN x, GEN y, GEN *U, GEN *V)` returns the GCD of `x` and `y`, and puts (the addresses of) objects `u` and `v` such that  $ux + vy = \text{Res}(x, y)$  into `*U` and `*V`.

`GEN content(GEN x)` returns the GCD of all the components of `x`.

`GEN primitive_part(GEN x, GEN *c)` sets `c` to `content(x)` and returns the primitive part  $x / c$ . A trivial content is set to `NULL`.

`GEN primpart(GEN x)` as above but the content is lost. (For efficiency, the content remains on the stack.)

### 8.10.2 Over the rationals.

`long Q_pval(GEN x, GEN p)` valuation at the `t_INT` `p` of the `t_INT` or `t_FRAC` `x`.

`GEN Q_abs(GEN x)` absolute value of the `t_INT` or `t_FRAC` `x`.

`GEN Q_gcd(GEN x, GEN y)` gcd of the `t_INT` or `t_FRAC` `x` and `y`.

In the following functions, arguments belong to a  $M \otimes_{\mathbf{Z}} \mathbf{Q}$  for some natural  $\mathbf{Z}$ -module  $M$ , e.g. multivariate polynomials with integer coefficients (or vectors/matrices recursively built from such objects), and an element of  $M$  is said to be *integral*. We are interested in contents, denominators, etc. with respect to this canonical integral structure; in particular, contents belong to  $\mathbf{Q}$ , denominators to  $\mathbf{Z}$ . For instance the  $\mathbf{Q}$ -content of  $(1/2)xy$  is  $(1/2)$ , and its  $\mathbf{Q}$ -denominator is 2, whereas `content` would return  $y/2$  and `denom` 1.

`GEN Q_content(GEN x)` the  $\mathbf{Q}$ -content of  $x$

`GEN Q_denom(GEN x)` the  $\mathbf{Q}$ -denominator of  $x$

`GEN Q_primitive_part(GEN x, GEN *c)` sets `c` to the  $\mathbf{Q}$ -content of `x` and returns  $x / c$ , which is integral.

`GEN Q_primpart(GEN x)` as above but the content is lost. (For efficiency, the content remains on the stack.)

`GEN Q_remove_denom(GEN x, GEN *ptd)` sets `d` to the  $\mathbf{Q}$ -denominator of `x` and returns  $x * d$ , which is integral.

`GEN Q_div_to_int(GEN x, GEN c)` returns  $x / c$ , assuming  $c$  is a rational number (`t_INT` or `t_FRAC`) and the result is integral.



GEN `Q_mul_to_int`(GEN `x`, GEN `c`) returns  $x * c$ , assuming  $c$  is a rational number (`t_INT` or `t_FRAC`) and the result is integral.

GEN `Q_muli_to_int`(GEN `x`, GEN `d`) returns  $x * c$ , assuming  $c$  is a `t_INT` and the result is integral.

GEN `mul_content`(GEN `cx`, GEN `cy`) `cx` and `cy` are as set by `primitive_part`: either a GEN or NULL representing the trivial content 1. Returns their product (either a GEN or NULL).

GEN `mul_denom`(GEN `dx`, GEN `dy`) `dx` and `dy` are as set by `Q_remove_denom`: either a `t_INT` or NULL representing the trivial denominator 1. Returns their product (either a `t_INT` or NULL).

## 8.11 Generic arithmetic operators.

### 8.11.1 Unary operators.

GEN `gneg`[`z`](GEN `x`[, GEN `z`]) yields  $-x$ .

GEN `gneg_i`(GEN `x`) shallow function yielding  $-x$ .

GEN `gabs`[`z`](GEN `x`[, GEN `z`]) yields  $|x|$ .

GEN `gsqr`(GEN `x`) creates the square of  $x$ .

GEN `ginv`(GEN `x`) creates the inverse of  $x$ .

### 8.11.2 Binary operators.

Let “*op*” be a binary operation among

*op*=**add**: addition ( $x + y$ ).

*op*=**sub**: subtraction ( $x - y$ ).

*op*=**mul**: multiplication ( $x * y$ ).

*op*=**div**: division ( $x / y$ ).

The names and prototypes of the functions corresponding to *op* are as follows:

GEN `gop`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`)

GEN `gopgs`(GEN `x`, long `s`)

GEN `gopsg`(long `s`, GEN `y`)

Explicitly

GEN `gadd`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`), GEN `gaddgs`(GEN `x`, long `s`), GEN `gaddsg`(GEN `s`, GEN `x`)

GEN `gmul`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`), GEN `gmulgs`(GEN `x`, long `s`), GEN `gmulsg`(GEN `s`, GEN `x`)

GEN `gsub`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`), GEN `gsubgs`(GEN `x`, long `s`), GEN `gsubsg`(GEN `s`, GEN `x`)

GEN `gdiv`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`), GEN `gdivgs`(GEN `x`, long `s`), GEN `gdivsg`(GEN `s`, GEN `x`)

GEN `gpow`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`, long `l`) creates  $x^y$ . If  $y$  is a `t_INT`, return `powgi`( $x, y$ ) (the precision  $l$  is not taken into account). Otherwise, the result is  $\exp(y * \log(x))$  where exact arguments are converted to floats of precision  $l$  in case of need; if there is no need, for instance if  $x$  is a `t_REAL`,  $l$  is ignored. Indeed, if  $x$  is a `t_REAL`, the accuracy of  $\log x$  is determined from the accuracy of  $x$ , it

is no problem to multiply by  $y$ , even if it is an exact type, and the accuracy of the exponential is determined, exactly as in the case of the initial  $\log x$ .

GEN `gpowgs(GEN x, long n)` creates  $x^n$  using binary powering. To treat the special case  $n = 0$ , we consider `gpowgs` as a series of `gmul`, so we follow the rule of returning result which is as exact as possible given the input. More precisely, we return `• gen_1` if  $x$  has type `t_INT`, `t_REAL`, `t_FRAC`, or `t_PADIC`

- `Mod(1,N)` if  $x$  is a `t_INTMOD` modulo  $N$ .
- `gen_1` for `t_COMPLEX`, `t_QUAD` unless one component is a `t_INTMOD`, in which case we return `Mod(1, N)` for a suitable  $N$  (the gcd of the moduli that appear).
- `FF_1(x)` for a `t_FFELT`.
- `RgX_get_1(x)` for a `t_POL`.
- `qfi_1(x)` and `qfr_1(x)` for `t_QFI` and `t_QFR`.
- the identity permutation for `t_VECSMALL`.
- etc. Of course, the only practical use of this routine for  $n = 0$  is to obtain the multiplicative neutral element in the base ring (or to treat marginal cases that should be special cased anyway if there is the slightest doubt about what the result should be).

GEN `powgi(GEN x, GEN y)` creates  $x^y$ , where  $y$  is a `t_INT`, using left-shift binary powering. The case where  $y = 0$  (as all cases where  $y$  is small) is handled by `gpowgs(x, 0)`.

In addition we also have the obsolete forms:

```
void gaddz(GEN x, GEN y, GEN z)
void gsubz(GEN x, GEN y, GEN z)
void gmulz(GEN x, GEN y, GEN z)
void gdivz(GEN x, GEN y, GEN z)
```

## 8.12 Generic operators: product, powering, factorback.

GEN `divide_conquer_prod(GEN v, GEN (*mul)(GEN,GEN))`  $v$  is a vector of objects, which can be “multiplied” using the `mul` function. Return the “product” of the  $v[i]$  using a product tree: by convention return `gen_1` if  $v$  is the empty vector, a copy of  $v[1]$  if it has a single entry; and otherwise apply the function recursively on the vector (twice smaller)

`mul(v[1],v[2]), mul(v[3],v[4]), ...`

Only requires that `mul` is an associative binary operator, which need not correspond to a true multiplication. `D` is meant to encode an arbitrary evaluation context, set it to `NULL` in simple cases where you do not need this. Leaves some garbage on stack, but suitable for `gerepileupto` if `mul` is.

To describe the following functions, we use the following private typedefs to simplify the description:

```
typedef (*F1)(void *, GEN);
typedef (*F2)(void *, GEN, GEN);
```

They correspond to generic functions with one and two arguments respectively (the `void*` argument provides some arbitrary evaluation context).

`GEN divide_conquer_assoc(GEN v, void *D, F2 op)` general version of `divide_conquer_prod`. Given two objects  $x, y$ , assume that `op(D, x, y)` implements an associative binary operator. If  $v$  has  $k$  entries, return

$$v[1] \text{ op } v[2] \text{ op } \dots \text{ op } v[k];$$

returns `gen_1` if  $k = 0$  and a copy of  $v[1]$  if  $k = 1$ .

`GEN gen_pow(GEN x, GEN n, void *D, F1 sqr, F2 mul)`  $n > 0$  a `t_INT`, returns  $x^n$ ; `mul(D, x, y)` implements the multiplication in the underlying monoid; `sqr` is a (presumably optimized) shortcut for `mul(D, x, x)`.

`GEN gen_powu(GEN x, ulong n, void *D, F1 sqr, F2 mul)`  $n > 0$ , returns  $x^n$ . See `left-right_pow`.

`GEN leftright_pow_fold(GEN x, GEN n, void *D, F1 sqr, F1 msqr)` as `gen_pow`, `mul` being replaced by `msqr`, with `msqr(D, y)` returning  $xy^2$ . In particular  $D$  must implicitly contain  $x$ .

`GEN leftright_pow_u_fold(GEN x, ulong n, void *D, F1 sqr, F1 msqr)`, see the previous `leftright_pow_fold`

`GEN gen_factorback(GEN L, GEN e, F2 mul, F2 pow, void *D)` generic form of `factorback`. The pair  $[L, e]$  is of the form

- $[fa, \text{NULL}]$ ,  $fa$  a two-column factorization matrix: expand it.
- $[v, \text{NULL}]$ ,  $v$  a vector of objects: return their product.
- or  $[v, e]$ ,  $v$  a vector of objects,  $e$  a vector of integral exponents: return the product of the  $v[i]^{e[i]}$ .

`mul(D, x, y)` and `pow(D, x, n)` return  $xy$  and  $x^n$  respectively.

## 8.13 Matrix and polynomial norms.

This section concerns only standard norms of  $\mathbf{R}$  and  $\mathbf{C}$  vector spaces, not algebraic norms given by the determinant of some multiplication operator. We have already seen type-specific functions like `ZM_supnorm` or `RgM_fpnorml2` and limit ourselves to generic functions assuming nothing about their `GEN` argument; these functions allow the following scalar types: `t_INT`, `t_FRAC`, `t_REAL`, `t_COMPLEX`, `t_QUAD` and are defined recursively (in terms of norms of their components) for the following “container” types: `t_POL`, `t_VEC`, `t_COL` and `t_MAT`. They raise an error if some other type appears in the argument.

`GEN gnorml2(GEN x)` The norm of a scalar is the square of its complex modulus, the norm of a recursive type is the sum of the norms of its components. For polynomials, vectors or matrices of complex numbers one recovers the *square* of the usual  $L^2$  norm. In most applications, the missing square root computation can be skipped.

`GEN gnorml1(GEN x, long prec)` The norm of a scalar is its complex modulus, the norm of a recursive type is the sum of the norms of its components. For polynomials, vectors or matrices of complex numbers one recovers the the usual  $L^1$  norm. One must include a real precision `prec` in case the inputs include `t_COMPLEX` or `t_QUAD` with exact rational components: a square root must be computed and we must choose an accuracy.

GEN `gnorml1_fake`(GEN `x`) as `gnorml1`, except that the norm of a `t_QUAD`  $x + wy$  or `t_COMPLEX`  $x + Iy$  is defined as  $|x| + |y|$ , where we use the ordinary real absolute value. This is still a norm of **R** vector spaces, which is easier to compute than `gnorml1` and can often be used in its place.

GEN `gsupnorm`(GEN `x`, long `prec`) The norm of a scalar is its complex modulus, the norm of a recursive type is the max of the norms of its components. A precision `prec` must be included for the same reason as in `gnorml1`.

void `gsupnorm_aux`(GEN `x`, GEN `*m`, GEN `*m2`) Low-level function underlying `gsupnorm`, used as follows:

```
GEN m = NULL, m2 = NULL;
gsupnorm_aux(x, &m, &m2);
```

After the call, the sup norm of  $x$  is the min of `m` and the square root of `m2`; one or both of `m`, `m2` may be NULL, in which case it must be omitted. You may initially set `m` and `m2` to non-NULL values, in which case, the above procedure yields the max of (the initial) `m`, the square root of (the initial) `m2`, and the sup norm of  $x$ .

The strange interface is due to the fact that  $|z|^2$  is easier to compute than  $|z|$  for a `t_QUAD` or `t_COMPLEX`  $z$ : `m2` is the max of those  $|z|^2$ , and `m` is the max of the other  $|z|$ .

## 8.14 Substitution and evaluation.

GEN `gsubst`(GEN `x`, long `v`, GEN `y`) substitutes the object  $y$  into  $x$  for the variable number `v`.

GEN `poleval`(GEN `q`, GEN `x`) evaluates the `t_POL` or `t_RFRAC`  $q$  at  $x$ . For convenience, a `t_VEC` or `t_COL` is also recognized as the `t_POL` `gtovecrev(q)`.

GEN `RgX_RgM_eval`(GEN `q`, GEN `x`) evaluates the `t_POL`  $q$  at the square matrix  $x$ .

GEN `RgX_RgMV_eval`(GEN `f`, GEN `V`) returns the evaluation  $f(x)$ , assuming that  $V$  was computed by `FpXQ_powers(x, n)` for some  $n > 1$ .

GEN `RgX_RgM_eval_col`(GEN `q`, GEN `x`, long `c`) evaluates the `t_POL`  $q$  at the square matrix  $x$  but only returns the `c`-th column of the result.

GEN `qfeval`(GEN `q`, GEN `x`) evaluates the quadratic form  $q$  (symmetric matrix) at  $x$  (column vector of compatible dimensions).

GEN `qfevalb`(GEN `q`, GEN `x`, GEN `y`) evaluates the polar bilinear form associated to the quadratic form  $q$  (symmetric matrix) at  $x, y$  (column vectors of compatible dimensions).

GEN `hqfeval`(GEN `q`, GEN `x`) evaluates the Hermitian form  $q$  (a Hermitian complex matrix) at  $x$ .

GEN `qf_apply_RgM`(GEN `q`, GEN `M`)  $q$  is a symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix,  $M$  an  $n \times k$  matrix, return  $M'qM$ .

GEN `qf_apply_ZM`(GEN `q`, GEN `M`) as above assuming that  $M$  has integer entries.

## Chapter 9:

### Miscellaneous mathematical functions

#### 9.1 Fractions.

GEN `absfrac(GEN x)` returns the absolute value of the `t_FRAC`  $x$ .

GEN `sqrfrac(GEN x)` returns the square of the `t_FRAC`  $x$ .

#### 9.2 Complex numbers.

GEN `imag(GEN x)` returns a copy of the imaginary part of  $x$ .

GEN `real(GEN x)` returns a copy of the real part of  $x$ . If  $x$  is a `t_QUAD`, returns the coefficient of 1 in the “canonical” integral basis  $(1, \omega)$ .

The last two functions are shallow, and not suitable for `gerepileupto`:

GEN `imag_i(GEN x)` as `gimag`, returns a pointer to the imaginary part. GEN `real_i(GEN x)` as `greal`, returns a pointer to the real part.

GEN `mulreal(GEN x, GEN y)` returns the real part of  $xy$ ;  $x, y$  have type `t_INT`, `t_FRAC`, `t_REAL` or `t_COMPLEX`. See also `RgM.mulreal`.

GEN `cxnorm(GEN x)` norm of the `t_COMPLEX`  $x$  (modulus squared).

#### 9.3 Quadratic numbers and binary quadratic forms.

GEN `quad_disc(GEN x)` returns the discriminant of the `t_QUAD`  $x$ .

GEN `quadnorm(GEN x)` norm of the `t_QUAD`  $x$ .

GEN `qfb_disc(GEN x)` returns the discriminant of the `t_QFI` or `t_QFR`  $x$ .

GEN `qfb_disc3(GEN x, GEN y, GEN z)` returns  $y^2 - 4xz$  assuming all inputs are `t_INTs`. Not stack-clean.

## 9.4 Polynomial and power series.

`GEN derivser(GEN x)` returns the derivative of the `t_SER` `x` with respect to its main variable.

`GEN truecoeff(GEN x, long n)` returns `polcoeff(x,n, -1)`, i.e. the coefficient of the term of degree `n` in the main variable.

`long degree(GEN x)` returns `poldegree(x, -1)`, the degree of `x` with respect to its main variable.

`GEN resultant(GEN x, GEN y)` resultant of `x` and `y`, with respect to the main variable of highest priority. Uses either the subresultant algorithm (generic case), a modular algorithm (inputs in  $\mathbf{Q}[X]$ ) or Sylvester's matrix (inexact inputs).

`GEN resultant2(GEN x, GEN y)` resultant of `x` and `y`, with respect to the main variable of highest priority. Computes the determinant of Sylvester's matrix.

`GEN resultant_all(GEN u, GEN v, GEN *sol)` returns `resultant(x,y)`. If `sol` is not `NULL`, sets it to the last non-zero remainder in the polynomial remainder sequence if such a sequence was computed, and to `gen_0` otherwise (e.g. polynomials of degree 0,  $u, v$  in  $\mathbf{Q}[X]$ ).

## 9.5 Functions to handle `t_FFELT`.

These functions define the public interface of the `t_FFELT` type to use in generic functions. However, in specific functions, it is better to use the functions class `FpXQ` and/or `Flxq` as appropriate.

`GEN FF_p(GEN a)` returns the characteristic of the definition field of the `t_FFELT` element `a`.

`GEN FF_p_i(GEN a)` shallow version of `FF_p`.

`GEN FF_mod(GEN a)` returns the polynomial (with reduced `t_INT` coefficients) defining the finite field, in the variable used to display `a`.

`GEN FF_to_FpXQ(GEN a)` converts the `t_FFELT` `a` to a polynomial  $P$  with reduced `t_INT` coefficients such that  $a = P(g)$  where  $g$  is the generator of the finite field returned by `ffgen`, in the variable used to display  $g$ .

`GEN FF_to_FpXQ_i(GEN a)` shallow version of `FF_to_FpXQ`.

`GEN FF_1(GEN a)` returns the unity in the definition field of the `t_FFELT` element `a`.

`GEN FF_zero(GEN a)` returns the zero element of the definition field of the `t_FFELT` element `a`.

`int FF_equal0(GEN a), int FF_equal1(GEN a), int FF_equalm1(GEN a)` returns 1 if the `t_FFELT` `a` is equal to 0 (resp. 1, resp.  $-1$ ) else 0.

`int FF_equal(GEN a, GEN b)` return 1 if the `t_FFELT` `a` and `b` have the same definition field and are equal, else 0.

`int FF_samefield(GEN a, GEN b)` return 1 if the `t_FFELT` `a` and `b` have the same definition field, else 0.

`GEN FF_add(GEN a, GEN b)` returns  $a + b$  where `a` and `b` are `t_FFELT` having the same definition field.

`GEN FF_Z_add(GEN a, GEN x)` returns  $a + x$ , where `a` is a `t_FFELT`, and `x` is a `t_INT`, the computation being performed in the definition field of `a`.

GEN FF\_Q\_add(GEN a, GEN x) returns  $a + x$ , where  $a$  is a  $t\_FFELT$ , and  $x$  is a  $t\_RFRAC$ , the computation being performed in the definition field of  $a$ .

GEN FF\_sub(GEN a, GEN b) returns  $a - b$  where  $a$  and  $b$  are  $t\_FFELT$  having the same definition field.

GEN FF\_mul(GEN a, GEN b) returns  $ab$  where  $a$  and  $b$  are  $t\_FFELT$  having the same definition field.

GEN FF\_Z\_mul(GEN a, GEN b) returns  $ax$ , where  $a$  is a  $t\_FFELT$ , and  $x$  is a  $t\_INT$ , the computation being performed in the definition field of  $a$ .

GEN FF\_div(GEN a, GEN b) returns  $a/b$  where  $a$  and  $b$  are  $t\_FFELT$  having the same definition field.

GEN FF\_neg(GEN a) returns  $-a$  where  $a$  is a  $t\_FFELT$ .

GEN FF\_neg\_i(GEN a) shallow function returning  $-a$  where  $a$  is a  $t\_FFELT$ .

GEN FF\_inv(GEN a) returns  $a^{-1}$  where  $a$  is a  $t\_FFELT$ .

GEN FF\_sqr(GEN a) returns  $a^2$  where  $a$  is a  $t\_FFELT$ .

GEN FF\_mul2n(GEN a, long n) returns  $a^{2^n}$  where  $a$  is a  $t\_FFELT$ .

GEN FF\_pow(GEN x, GEN n) returns  $a^n$  where  $a$  is a  $t\_FFELT$  and  $n$  is a  $t\_INT$ .

GEN FF\_Z\_Z\_muldiv(GEN a, GEN x, GEN y) returns  $ay/z$ , where  $a$  is a  $t\_FFELT$ , and  $x$  and  $y$  are  $t\_INT$ , the computation being performed in the definition field of  $a$ .

GEN Z\_FF\_div(GEN x, GEN a) return  $x/a$  where  $a$  is a  $t\_FFELT$ , and  $x$  is a  $t\_INT$ , the computation being performed in the definition field of  $a$ .

GEN FF\_norm(GEN a) returns the norm of the  $t\_FFELT$   $a$  with respect to its definition field.

GEN FF\_trace(GEN a) returns the trace of the  $t\_FFELT$   $a$  with respect to its definition field.

GEN FF\_conjvec(GEN a) returns the vector of conjugates  $[a, a^p, a^{p^2}, \dots, a^{p^{n-1}}]$  where the  $t\_FFELT$   $a$  belong to a field with  $p^n$  elements.

GEN FF\_charpoly(GEN a) returns the characteristic polynomial) of the  $t\_FFELT$   $a$  with respect to its definition field.

GEN FF\_minpoly(GEN a) returns the minimal polynomial of the  $t\_FFELT$   $a$ .

GEN FF\_sqrt(GEN a) returns an  $t\_FFELT$   $b$  such that  $a = b^2$  if it exist, where  $a$  is a  $t\_FFELT$ .

long FF\_issquareall(GEN x, GEN \*pt) returns 1 if  $x$  is a square, and 0 otherwise. If  $x$  is indeed a square, set  $pt$  to its square root.

long FF\_issquare(GEN x) returns 1 if  $x$  is a square and 0 otherwise.

long FF\_isplayer(GEN x, GEN K, GEN \*pt) Given  $K$  a positive integer, returns 1 if  $x$  is a  $K$ -th power, and 0 otherwise. If  $x$  is indeed a  $K$ -th power, set  $pt$  to its  $K$ -th root.

GEN FF\_sqrtn(GEN a, GEN n, GEN \*zetan) returns an  $n$ -th root of  $a$  if it exist. If  $zn$  is non-NULL set it to a primitive  $n$ -th root of the unity.

GEN FF\_log(GEN a, GEN g, GEN o) the  $t\_FFELT$   $g$  being a generator for the definition field of the  $t\_FFELT$   $a$ , returns a  $t\_INT$   $e$  such that  $a^e = g$ . If  $e$  does not exists, the result is currently undefined. If  $o$  is not NULL it is assumed to be a factorization of the multiplicative order of  $g$  (as set by FF\_primroot)

`GEN FF_order(GEN a, GEN o)` returns the order of the `t_FFELT` `a`. If `o` is non-NULL, it is assumed that `o` is a multiple of the order of `a`.

`GEN FF_primroot(GEN a, GEN *o)` returns a generator of the multiplicative group of the definition field of the `t_FFELT` `a`. If `o` is not NULL, set it to the factorization of the order of the primitive root (to speed up `FF_log`).

`GEN FFX_factor(GEN f, GEN a)` returns the factorization of the univariate polynomial `f` over the definition field of the `t_FFELT` `a`. The coefficients of `f` must be of type `t_INT`, `t_INTMOD` or `t_FFELT` and compatible with `a`.

`GEN FFX_roots(GEN f, GEN a)` returns the roots (`t_FFELT`) of the univariate polynomial `f` over the definition field of the `t_FFELT` `a`. The coefficients of `f` must be of type `t_INT`, `t_INTMOD` or `t_FFELT` and compatible with `a`.

## 9.6 Transcendental functions.

The following two functions are only useful when interacting with `gp`, to manipulate its internal default precision (expressed as a number of decimal digits, not in words as used everywhere else):

`long getrealprecision(void)` returns `realprecision`.

`long setrealprecision(long n, long *prec)` sets the new `realprecision` to `n`, which is returned. As a side effect, set `prec` to the corresponding number of words `ndec2prec(n)`.

### 9.6.1 Transcendental functions with `t_REAL` arguments.

In the following routines,  $x$  is assumed to be a `t_REAL` and the result is a `t_REAL` (sometimes a `t_COMPLEX` with `t_REAL` components), with the largest accuracy which can be deduced from the input. The naming scheme is inconsistent here, since we sometimes use the prefix `mp` even though `t_INT` inputs are forbidden:

`GEN sqrtr(GEN x)` returns the square root of  $x$ .

`GEN sqrtnr(GEN x, long n)` returns the  $n$ -th root of  $x$ , assuming  $n \geq 1$  and  $x > 0$ . Not stack clean.

`GEN mpcos[z](GEN x[, GEN z])` returns  $\cos(x)$ .

`GEN mpisin[z](GEN x[, GEN z])` returns  $\sin(x)$ .

`GEN mplog[z](GEN x[, GEN z])` returns  $\log(x)$ . We must have  $x > 0$  since the result must be a `t_REAL`. Use `glog` for the general case, where you want such computations as  $\log(-1) = I$ .

`GEN mpexp[z](GEN x[, GEN z])` returns  $\exp(x)$ .

`GEN mpexp1(GEN x)` returns  $\exp(x) - 1$ , but is more accurate than `subrs(mpexp(x), 1)`, which suffers from catastrophic cancellation if  $|x|$  is very small.

`GEN mpveceint1(GEN C, GEN eC, long n)` as `veceint1`; assumes that  $C > 0$  is a `t_REAL` and that `eC` is NULL or `mpexp(C)`.

`GEN mpeint1(GEN x, GEN expx)` returns `eint1(x)`, for a `t_REAL`  $x \geq 0$ , assuming that `expx` is `mpexp(x)`.

`GEN szeta(long s, long prec)` returns the value of Riemann's zeta function at the (possibly negative) integer  $s \neq 1$ , in relative accuracy `prec`.



Useful low-level functions which *disregard* the sign of  $x$ :

GEN `sqrtr_abs`(GEN  $x$ ) returns  $\sqrt{|x|}$  assuming  $x \neq 0$ .

GEN `exp1r_abs`(GEN  $x$ ) returns  $\exp(|x|) - 1$ , assuming  $x \neq 0$ .

GEN `logr_abs`(GEN  $x$ ) returns  $\log(|x|)$ , assuming  $x \neq 0$ .

A few variants on `sin` and `cos`:

void `mpsincos`(GEN  $x$ , GEN  $*s$ , GEN  $*c$ ) sets  $s$  and  $c$  to  $\sin(x)$  and  $\cos(x)$  respectively, where  $x$  is a `t_REAL`

GEN `exp_Ir`(GEN  $x$ ) returns  $\exp(ix)$ , where  $x$  is a `t_REAL`. The return type is `t_COMPLEX` unless the imaginary part is equal to 0 to the current accuracy (its sign is 0).

void `gsincos`(GEN  $x$ , GEN  $*s$ , GEN  $*c$ , long `prec`) general case.

A generalization of `affrr_fixlg`

GEN `affc_fixlg`(GEN  $x$ , GEN  $res$ ) assume  $res$  was allocated using `cgetc`, and that  $x$  is either a `t_REAL` or a `t_COMPLEX` with `t_REAL` components. Assign  $x$  to  $res$ , first shortening the components of  $res$  if needed (in a `gerepile`-safe way). Further convert  $res$  to a `t_REAL` if  $x$  is a `t_REAL`.

### 9.6.2 Transcendental functions with `t_PADIC` arguments.

GEN `Qp_exp`(GEN  $x$ ) shortcut for `gexp`( $x$ , /\*ignored\*/`prec`)

GEN `Qp_gamma`(GEN  $x$ ) shortcut for `ggamma`( $x$ , /\*ignored\*/`prec`)

GEN `Qp_log`(GEN  $x$ ) shortcut for `glog`( $x$ , /\*ignored\*/`prec`)

GEN `Qp_sqrt`(GEN  $x$ ) shortcut for `gsqrt`( $x$ , /\*ignored\*/`prec`)

GEN `Qp_sqrtn`(GEN  $x$ , GEN  $n$ , GEN  $*z$ ) shortcut for `gsqrtn`( $x$ ,  $n$ ,  $z$ , /\*ignored\*/`prec`)

### 9.6.3 Cached constants.

The cached constant is returned at its current precision, which may be larger than `prec`. One should always use the `mpxxx` variant: `mppi`, `mpeuler`, or `mplog2`.

GEN `consteuler`(long `prec`) precomputes Euler-Mascheroni's constant at precision `prec`.

GEN `constpi`(long `prec`) precomputes  $\pi$  at precision `prec`.

GEN `constlog2`(long `prec`) precomputes  $\log(2)$  at precision `prec`.

void `mpbern`(long  $n$ , long `prec`) precomputes the even Bernoulli numbers  $B_0, \dots, B_{2n-2}$  as `t_REALS` of precision `prec`.

GEN `bern`(long  $i$ ) is a macro returning the Bernoulli number  $B_{2i}$  at precision `prec`, assuming that `mpbern`( $n$ , `prec`) was called previously with  $n > i$ . The macro does not check whether  $0 \leq i < n$ . If cached Bernoullis were initialized to a larger accuracy than desired, use e.g. `rtor(bern(i), prec)`.

The following functions use cached data if `prec` is not too large; otherwise the newly computed data replaces the old cache.

GEN `mppi`(long `prec`) returns  $\pi$  at precision `prec`.

GEN `Pi2n`(long  $n$ , long `prec`) returns  $2^n \pi$  at precision `prec`.

GEN `PiI2(long n, long prec)` returns the complex number  $2\pi i$  at precision `prec`.

GEN `PiI2n(long n, long prec)` returns the complex number  $2^n\pi i$  at precision `prec`.

GEN `mpeuler(long prec)` returns Euler-Mascheroni's constant at precision `prec`.

GEN `mplog2(long prec)` returns  $\log 2$  at precision `prec`.

## 9.7 Permutations .

Permutation are represented in two different ways

- (`perm`) a `t_VECSMALL`  $p$  representing the bijection  $i \mapsto p[i]$ ; unless mentioned otherwise, this is the form used in the functions below for both input and output,
- (`cyc`) a `t_VEC` of `t_VECSMALLs` representing a product of disjoint cycles.

GEN `identity_perm(long n)` return the identity permutation on  $n$  symbols.

GEN `cyclic_perm(long n, long d)` return the cyclic permutation mapping  $i$  to  $i + d \pmod{n}$  in  $S_n$ . Assume that  $d \leq n$ .

GEN `perm_mul(GEN s, GEN t)` multiply  $s$  and  $t$  (composition  $s \circ t$ )

GEN `perm_conj(GEN s, GEN t)` return  $sts^{-1}$ .

int `perm_commute(GEN p, GEN q)` return 1 if  $p$  and  $q$  commute, 0 otherwise.

GEN `perm_inv(GEN p)` returns the inverse of  $p$ .

GEN `perm_pow(GEN p, long n)` returns  $p^n$

GEN `cyc_pow_perm(GEN p, long n)` the permutation  $p$  is given as a product of disjoint cycles (`cyc`); return  $p^n$  (as a `perm`).

GEN `cyc_pow(GEN p, long n)` the permutation  $p$  is given as a product of disjoint cycles (`cyc`); return  $p^n$  (as a `cyc`).

GEN `perm_cycles(GEN p)` return the cyclic decomposition of  $p$ .

long `perm_order(GEN p)` returns the order of the permutation  $p$  (as the lcm of its cycle lengths).

GEN `vecperm_orbits(GEN p, long n)` the permutation  $p \in S_n$  being given as a product of disjoint cycles, return the orbits of the subgroup generated by  $p$  on  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ .

## 9.8 Small groups.

The small (finite) groups facility is meant to deal with subgroups of Galois groups obtained by `galoisinit` and thus is currently limited to weakly super-solvable groups.

A group *grp* of order *n* is represented by its regular representation (for an arbitrary ordering of its element) in  $S_n$ . A subgroup of such group is represented by the restriction of the representation to the subgroup. A *small group* can be either a group or a subgroup. Thus it is embedded in some  $S_n$ , where *n* is the multiple of the order. Such *n* is called the *domain* of the small group. The domain of a trivial subgroup cannot be derived from the subgroup data, so some functions require the subgroup domain as argument.

The small group *grp* is represented by a `t_VEC` with two components:

*grp*[1] is a generating subset  $[s_1, \dots, s_g]$  of *grp* expressed as a vector of permutation of length *n*.

*grp*[2] contains the relative orders  $[o_1, \dots, o_g]$  of the generators *grp*[1].

See `galoisinit` for the technical details.

`GEN checkgroup(GEN gal, GEN *elts)` checks whether *gal* is a small group or a Galois group. Returns the underlying small group and set *elts* to the list of elements or to NULL if it is not known.

`GEN galois_group(GEN gal)` return the underlying small group of the Galois group *gal*.

`GEN cyclicgroup(GEN g, long s)` returns the cyclic group with generator *g* of order *s*.

`GEN trivialgroup(void)` returns the trivial group.

`GEN dicyclicgroup(GEN g1, GEN g2, long s1, long s2)` returns the group with generators *g1*, *g2* with respecting relative orders *s1*, *s2*.

`GEN abelian_group(GEN v)` let *v* be a `t_VECSMALL` seen as the SNF of a small abelian group, return its regular representation.

`long group_domain(GEN grp)` returns the domain of the *non-trivial* small group *grp*. Return an error if *grp* is trivial.

`GEN group_elts(GEN grp, long n)` returns the list of elements of the small group *grp* of domain *n* as permutations.

`GEN group_set(GEN grp, long n)` returns a  $F2v$  *b* such that *b*[*i*] is set if and only if the small group *grp* of domain *n* contains a permutation sending 1 to *i*.

`GEN groupeelts_set(GEN elts, long n)`, where *elts* is the list of elements of a small group of domain *n*, returns a  $F2v$  *b* such that *b*[*i*] is set if and only if the small group contains a permutation sending 1 to *i*.

`long group_order(GEN grp)` returns the order of the small group *grp* (which is the product of the relative orders).

`long group_isabelian(GEN grp)` returns 1 if the small group *grp* is Abelian, else 0.

`GEN group_abelianHNF(GEN grp, GEN elts)` if *grp* is not Abelian, returns NULL, else returns the HNF matrix of *grp* with respect to the generating family *grp*[1]. If *elts* is no NULL, it must be the list of elements of *grp*.

GEN `group_abelianSNF`(GEN `grp`, GEN `elts`) if `grp` is not Abelian, returns NULL, else returns its cyclic decomposition. If `elts` is no NULL, it must be the list of elements of `grp`.

long `group_subgroup_isnormal`(GEN `G`, GEN `H`),  $H$  being a subgroup of the small group  $G$ , returns 1 if  $H$  is normal in  $G$ , else 0.

long `group_isA4S4`(GEN `grp`) returns 1 if the small group `grp` is isomorphic to  $A_4$ , 2 if it is isomorphic to  $S_4$  and 0 else. This is mainly to deal with the idiosyncrasy of the format.

GEN `group_leftcoset`(GEN `G`, GEN `g`) where  $G$  is a small group and  $g$  a permutation of the same domain, the the left coset  $gG$  as a vector of permutations.

GEN `group_rightcoset`(GEN `G`, GEN `g`) where  $G$  is a small group and  $g$  a permutation of the same domain, the the right coset  $Gg$  as a vector of permutations.

long `group_perm_normalize`(GEN `G`, GEN `g`) where  $G$  is a small group and  $g$  a permutation of the same domain, return 1 if  $gGg^{-1} = G$ , else 0.

GEN `group_quotient`(GEN `G`, GEN `H`), where  $G$  is a small group and  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , returns the quotient map  $G \rightarrow G/H$  as an abstract data structure.

GEN `quotient_perm`(GEN `C`, GEN `g`) where  $C$  is the quotient map  $G \rightarrow G/H$  for some subgroup  $H$  of  $G$  and  $g$  an element of  $G$ , return the image of  $g$  by  $C$  (i.e. the coset  $gH$ ).

GEN `quotient_group`(GEN `C`, GEN `G`) where  $C$  is the quotient map  $G \rightarrow G/H$  for some *normal* subgroup  $H$  of  $G$ , return the quotient group  $G/H$  as a small group.

GEN `quotient_subgroup_lift`(GEN `C`, GEN `H`, GEN `S`) where  $C$  is the quotient map  $G \rightarrow G/H$  for some group  $G$  normalizing  $H$  and  $S$  is a subgroup of  $G/H$ , return the inverse image of  $S$  by  $C$ .

GEN `group_subgroups`(GEN `grp`) returns the list of subgroups of the small group `grp` as a `t_VEC`.

GEN `subgroups_tableset`(GEN `S`, long `n`) where  $S$  is a vector of subgroups of domain  $n$ , returns a table which matches the set of elements of the subgroups against the index of the subgroups.

long `tableset_find_index`(GEN `tbl`, GEN `set`) searches the set `set` in the table `tbl` and returns its associated index, or 0 if not found.

GEN `groupeelts_abelian_group`(GEN `elts`) where `elts` is the list of elements of an *Abelian* small group, returns the corresponding small group.

GEN `groupeelts_center`(GEN `elts`) where `elts` is the list of elements of a small group, returns the list of elements of the center of the group.

GEN `group_export`(GEN `grp`, long `format`) exports a small group to another format, see `galoi-sexport`.

long `group_ident`(GEN `grp`, GEN `elts`) returns the index of the small group `grp` in the GAP4 Small Group library, see `galoisidentify`. If `elts` is no NULL, it must be the list of elements of `grp`.

long `group_ident_trans`(GEN `grp`, GEN `elts`) returns the index of the regular representation of the small group `grp` in the GAP4 Transitive Group library, see `polgalois`. If `elts` is no NULL, it must be the list of elements of `grp`.

## Chapter 10: Standard data structures

### 10.1 Character strings.

#### 10.1.1 Functions returning a `char *`.

`char* pari_strdup(const char *s)` returns a malloc'ed copy of *s* (uses `pari_malloc`).

`char* pari_strndup(const char *s, long n)` returns a malloc'ed copy of at most *n* chars from *s* (uses `pari_malloc`). If *s* is longer than *n*, only *n* characters are copied and a terminal null byte is added.

`char* stack_strdup(const char *s)` returns a copy of *s*, allocated on the PARI stack (uses `stackmalloc`).

`char* itostr(GEN x)` writes the `t_INT` *x* to a `stackmalloc`'ed string.

`char* GENTostr(GEN x)`, using the current default output format (`GP_DATA->fmt`, which contains the output style and the number of significant digits to print), converts *x* to a malloc'ed string. Simple variant of `pari_sprintf`.

`char* GENToTeXstr(GEN x)`, as `GENTostr`, except that `f_TEX` overrides the output format from `GP_DATA->fmt`.

`char* RgV_to_str(GEN g, long flag)` *g* being a vector of GENs, returns a malloc'ed string, the concatenation of the `GENTostr` applied to its elements, except that `t_STR` are printed without enclosing quotes. *flag* determines the output format: `f_RAW`, `f_PRETTYMAT` or `f_TEX`.

#### 10.1.2 Functions returning a `t_STR`.

`GEN strtogenstr(const char *s)` returns a `t_STR` with content *s*.

`GEN strntogenstr(const char *s, long n)` returns a `t_STR` containing the first *n* characters of *s*.

`GEN chartogenstr(char c)` returns a `t_STR` containing the character *c*.

`GEN GENTogenstr(GEN x)` returns a `t_STR` containing the printed form of *x* (in `raw` format). This is often easier to use than `GENTostr` (which returns a malloc-ed `char*`) since there is no need to free the string after use.

`GEN GENTogenstr_nospace(GEN x)` as `GENTogenstr`, removing all spaces from the output.

`GEN Str(GEN g)` as `RgV_to_str` with output format `f_RAW`, but returns a `t_STR`, not a malloc'ed string.

`GEN Strtex(GEN g)` as `RgV_to_str` with output format `f_TEX`, but returns a `t_STR`, not a malloc'ed string.

`GEN Strexpand(GEN g)` as `RgV_to_str` with output format `f_RAW`, performing tilde and environment expansion on the result. Returns a `t_STR`, not a malloc'ed string.

## 10.2 Output.

### 10.2.1 Output contexts.

An output context, of type `PariOUT`, is a `struct` that models a stream and contains the following function pointers:

```
void (*putch)(char);          /* fputc()-alike */
void (*puts)(const char*);    /* fputs()-alike */
void (*flush)(void);          /* fflush()-alike */
```

The methods `putch` and `puts` are used to print a character or a string respectively. The method `flush` is called to finalize a messages.

The generic functions `pari_putc`, `pari_puts`, `pari_flush` and `pari_printf` print according to a *default output context*, which should be sufficient for most purposes. Lower level functions are available, which take an explicit output context as first argument:

`void out_putc(PariOUT *out, char c)` essentially equivalent to `out->putc(c)`. In addition, registers whether the last character printed was a `\n`.

`void out_puts(PariOUT *out, const char *s)` essentially equivalent to `out->puts(s)`. In addition, registers whether the last character printed was a `\n`.

`void out_printf(PariOUT *out, const char *fmt, ...)`

`void out_vprintf(PariOUT *out, const char *fmt, va_list ap)`

N.B. The function `out_flush` does not exist since it would be identical to `out->flush()`

`int pari_last_was_newline(void)` returns a non-zero value if the last character printed via `out_putc` or `out_puts` was `\n`, and 0 otherwise.

`void pari_set_last_newline(int last)` sets the boolean value to be returned by the function `pari_last_was_newline` to *last*.

**10.2.2 Default output context.** They are defined by the global variables `pariOut` and `pariErr` for normal outputs and warnings/errors, and you probably do not want to change them. If you *do* change them, diverting output in non-trivial ways, this probably means that you are rewriting `gp`. For completeness, we document in this section what the default output contexts do.

**pariOut.** writes output to the `FILE*` `pari_outfile`, initialized to `stdout`. The low-level methods are actually the standard `putc` / `fputs`, plus some magic to handle a log file if one is open.

**pariErr.** prints to the `FILE*` `pari_errfile`, initialized to `stderr`. The low-level methods are as above.

You can stick with the default `pariOut` output context and change PARI's standard output, redirecting `pari_outfile` to another file, using

`void switchout(const char *name)` where `name` is a character string giving the name of the file you want to write to; the output is *appended* at the end of the file. To close the file and revert to outputting to `stdout`, call `switchout(NULL)`.

**10.2.3 PARI colors.** In this section we describe the low-level functions used to implement GP's color scheme, associated to the `colors` default. The following symbolic names are associated to gp's output strings:

- `c_ERR` an error message
- `c_HIST` a history number (as in `%1 = ...`)
- `c_PROMPT` a prompt
- `c_INPUT` an input line (minus the prompt part)
- `c_OUTPUT` an output
- `c_HELP` a help message
- `c_TIME` a timer
- `c_NONE` everything else

If the `colors` default is set to a non-empty value, before gp outputs a string, it first outputs an ANSI colors escape sequence — understood by most terminals —, according to the `colors` specifications. As long as this is in effect, the following strings are rendered in color, possibly in bold or underlined.

`void term_color(long c)` prints (as if using `pari_puts`) the ANSI color escape sequence associated to output object `c`. If `c` is `c_NONE`, revert to default printing style.

`void out_term_color(PariOUT *out, long c)` as `term_color`, using output context `out`.

`char* term_get_color(char *s, long c)` returns as a character string the ANSI color escape sequence associated to output object `c`. If `c` is `c_NONE`, the value used to revert to default printing style is returned. The argument `s` is either `NULL` (string allocated on the PARI stack), or preallocated storage (in which case, it must be able to hold at least 16 chars, including the final `\0`).

#### 10.2.4 Obsolete output functions.

These variants of `void output(GEN x)`, which prints `x`, followed by a newline and a buffer flush are complicated to use and less flexible than what we saw above, or than the `pari_printf` variants. They are provided for backward compatibility and are scheduled to disappear.

`void brute(GEN x, char format, long dec)`

`void matbrute(GEN x, char format, long dec)`

`void texe(GEN x, char format, long dec)`

## 10.3 Files.

The following routines are trivial wrappers around system functions (possibly around one of several functions depending on availability). They are usually integrated within PARI's diagnostics system, printing messages if `DEBUGFILES` is high enough.

`int pari_is_dir(const char *name)` returns 1 if `name` points to a directory, 0 otherwise.

`int pari_is_file(const char *name)` returns 1 if `name` points to a directory, 0 otherwise.

`int file_is_binary(FILE *f)` returns 1 if the file `f` is a binary file (in the `writebin` sense), 0 otherwise.

`void pari_unlink(const char *s)` deletes the file named `s`. Warn if the operation fails.

`char* path_expand(const char *s)` perform tilde and environment expansion on `s`. Returns a malloc'ed buffer.

`void strftime_expand(const char *s, char *buf, long max)` perform time expansion on `s`, storing the result (at most `max` chars) in buffer `buf`. Trivial wrapper around

```
time_t t = time(NULL);
strftime(buf, max, s, localtime(&t));
```

`char* pari_get_homedir(const char *user)` expands `~user` constructs, returning the home directory of user `user`, or NULL if it could not be determined (in particular if the operating system has no such concept). The return value may point to static area and may be overwritten by subsequent system calls: use immediately or `strdup` it.

`int pari_stdin_isatty(void)` returns 1 if our standard input `stdin` is attached to a terminal. Trivial wrapper around `isatty`.

### 10.3.1 pariFILE.

PARI maintains a linked list of open files, to reclaim resources (file descriptors) on error or interrupts. The corresponding data structure is a `pariFILE`, which is a wrapper around a standard `FILE*`, containing further the file name, its type (regular file, pipe, input or output file, etc.). The following functions create and manipulate this structure; they are integrated within PARI's diagnostics system, printing messages if `DEBUGFILES` is high enough.

`pariFILE* pari_fopen(const char *s, const char *mode)` wrapper around `fopen(s, mode)`, return NULL on failure.

`pariFILE* pari_fopen_or_fail(const char *s, const char *mode)` simple wrapper around `fopen(s, mode)`; error on failure.

`pariFILE* pari_fopengz(const char *s)` opens the file whose name is `s`, and associates a (read-only) `pariFILE` with it. If `s` is a compressed file (`.gz` suffix), it is uncompressed on the fly. If `s` cannot be opened, also try to open `s.gz`. Returns NULL on failure.

`void pari_fclose(pariFILE *f)` closes the underlying file descriptor and deletes the `pariFILE` struct.

`pariFILE* pari_saferopen(const char *s, const char *mode)` creates a *new* file `s` (a priori for writing) with 600 permissions. Error if the file already exists. To avoid symlink attacks, a symbolic link exists, regardless of where it points to.



### 10.3.2 Temporary files.

PARI has its own idea of the system temp directory derived from an environment variable (`$GPTMPDIR`, else `$TMPDIR`), or the first writable directory among `/tmp`, `/var/tmp` and `..`.

`char* pari_unique_dir(const char *s)` creates a “unique directory” and return its name built from the string `s`, the user id and process pid (on Unix systems). This directory is itself located in

The name returned is `malloc`'ed.

`char* pari_unique_filename(const char *s)`

## 10.4 Hashtables.

A **hashtable**, or associative array, is a set of pairs  $(k, v)$  of keys and values. PARI implements general extensible hashtables for fast data retrieval, independently of the PARI stack. A hashtable is implemented as a table of linked lists, each list containing all entries sharing the same hash value. The table length is a prime number, which roughly doubles as the table overflows by gaining new entries; both the current number of entries and the threshold before the table grows are stored in the table. Finally the table remembers the functions used to hash the entries's keys and to test for equality two entries hashed to the same value.

An entry, or **hashentry**, contains

- a key/value pair  $(k, v)$ , both of type `void*` for maximal flexibility,
- the hash value of the key, for the table hash function. This hash is mapped to a table index (by reduction modulo the table length), but it contains more information, and is used to bypass costly general equality tests if possible,
- a link pointer to the next entry sharing the same table cell.

```
typedef struct {
    void *key, *val;
    ulong hash; /* hash(key) */
    struct hashentry *next;
} hashentry;

typedef struct {
    ulong len; /* table length */
    hashentry **table; /* the table */
    ulong nb, maxnb; /* number of entries stored and max nb before enlarging */
    ulong pindex; /* prime index */
    ulong (*hash) (void *k); /* hash function */
    int (*eq) (void *k1, void *k2); /* equality test */
} hashtable;
```

`hashtable* hash_create(ulong size, ulong (*hash)(void*), int (*eq)(void*,void*))` creates a hashtable with enough room to contain `size` entries. The functions `hash` and `eq` will be used to compute the hash value of keys and test keys for equality, respectively.

`void hash_insert(hashtable *h, void *k, void *v)` inserts  $(k, v)$  in hashtable `h`. No copy is made: `k` and `v` themselves are stored. The implementation does not prevent one to insert two entries with equal keys `k`, but which of the two is affected by later commands is undefined.

`hashentry* hash_search(hashtable *h, void *k)` look for an entry with key  $k$  in  $h$ . Return it if it one exists, and NULL if not.

`hashentry* hash_remove(hashtable *h, void *k)` deletes an entry  $(k, v)$  with key  $k$  from  $h$  and return it. (Return NULL if none was found.) Only the linking structures are freed, memory associated to  $k$  and  $v$  is not reclaimed.

`void hash_destroy(hashtable *h)` deletes the hashtable, by removing all entries.

Some interesting hash functions are available:

`ulong hash_str(const char *s)`

`ulong hash_str2(const char *s)` is the historical PARI string hashing function and seems to be generally inferior to `hash_str`.

`ulong hash_GEN(GEN x)`

## 10.5 Dynamic arrays.

A **dynamic array** is a generic way to manage stacks of data that need to grow dynamically. It allocates memory using `pari_malloc`, and is independent of the PARI stack; it even works before the `pari_init` call.

### 10.5.1 Initialization.

To create a stack of objects of type `foo`, we proceed as follows:

```
foo *t_foo;
pari_stack s_foo;
stack_init(&s_foo, sizeof(*t_foo), (void**)t_foo);
```

Think of `s_foo` as the controlling interface, and `t_foo` as the (dynamic) array tied to it. The value of `t_foo` may be changed as you add more elements.

**10.5.2 Adding elements.** The following function pushes an element on the stack.

```
/* access globals t_foo and s_foo */
void push_foo(foo x)
{
    long n = stack_new(&s_foo);
    t_foo[n] = x;
}
```

### 10.5.3 Accessing elements.

Elements are accessed naturally through the `t_foo` pointer. For example this function swaps two elements:

```
void swapfoo(long a, long b)
{
    foo x;
    if (a > s_foo.n || b > s_foo.n) pari_err(bugparier, "swapfoo");
    x = t_foo[a];
    t_foo[a] = t_foo[b];
    t_foo[b] = x;
}
```

**10.5.4 Stack of stacks.** Changing the address of `t_foo` is not supported in general, however changing both the address of `t_foo` and `s_foo` is supported as long as the offset `&t_foo-&s_foo` do not change. This allow to create stacks of stacks as follow:

```
struct foo_s
{
    foo t_foo;
    pari_stack s_foo;
} tt_foo;
pari_stack st_foo;
stack_init(&st_foo, sizeof(*tt_foo), (void**)&tt_foo);
long new_stack(void)
{
    long n = stack_new(&st_foo);
    struct foo_s *st = tt_foo+n;
    stack_init(&st->s_foo, sizeof(*st->t_foo), (void**)&st->t_foo);
    return n;
}
```

When a reallocation of `tt_foo` occurs, the offset between the components `.t_foo` and `.s_foo` does not change.

**10.5.5 Public interface.** Let `s` be a `pari_stack` and `data` the data linked to it. The following public fields are defined:

- `s.alloc` is the number of elements allocated for `data`.
- `s.n` is the number of elements in the stack and `data[s.n-1]` is the topmost element of the stack. `s.n` can be changed as long as  $0 \leq s.n \leq s.alloc$  holds.

`void stack_init(pari_stack *s, size_t size, void **data)` links `*s` to the data pointer `*data`, where `size` is the size of data element. The pointer `*data` is set to `NULL`, `s->n` and `s->alloc` are set to 0: the array is empty.

`void stack_alloc(pari_stack *s, long nb)` makes room for `nb` more elements, i.e. makes sure that  $s.alloc \geq s.n + nb$ , possibly reallocating `data`.

`long stack_new(pari_stack *s)` increases `s.n` by one unit, possibly reallocating `data`, and returns `s.n - 1`.

**Caveat.** The following construction is incorrect because `stack_new` can change the value of `t_foo`:

```
t_foo[ stack_new(&s_foo) ] = x;
```

`void stack_delete(pari_stack *s)` frees `data` and resets the stack to the state immediately following `stack_init` (`s->n` and `s->alloc` are set to 0).

`void * stack_pushp(pari_stack *s, void *u)` This function assumes that `*data` is of pointer type. Pushes the element `u` on the stack `s`.

`void ** stack_base(pari_stack *s)` returns the address of `data`, typecast to a `void **`.

## 10.6 Vectors and Matrices.

**10.6.1 Access and extract.** See Section 8.3.1 and Section 8.3.2 for various useful constructors. Coefficients are accessed and set using `gel`, `gcoeff`, see Section 5.2.7. There are many internal functions to extract or manipulate subvectors or submatrices but, like the accessors above, none of them are suitable for `gerepileupto`. Worse, there are no type verification, nor bound checking, so use at your own risk.

`GEN shallowcopy(GEN x)` returns a `GEN` whose components are the components of  $x$  (no copy is made). The result may now be used to compute in place without destroying  $x$ . This is essentially equivalent to

```
GEN y = cgetg(lg(x), typ(x));
for (i = 1; i < lg(x); i++) y[i] = x[i];
return y;
```

except that `t_MAT` is treated specially since shallow copies of all columns are made. The function also works for non-recursive types, but is useless in that case since it makes a deep copy. If  $x$  is known to be a `t_MAT`, you may call `RgM_shallowcopy` directly; if  $x$  is known not to be a `t_MAT`, you may call `leafcopy` directly.

`GEN RgM_shallowcopy(GEN x)` returns `shallowcopy(x)`, where  $x$  is a `t_MAT`.

`GEN shallowtrans(GEN x)` returns the transpose of  $x$ , *without* copying its components, i. e., it returns a `GEN` whose components are (physically) the components of  $x$ . This is the internal function underlying `gtrans`.

`GEN shallowconcat(GEN x, GEN y)` concatenate  $x$  and  $y$ , *without* copying components, i. e., it returns a `GEN` whose components are (physically) the components of  $x$  and  $y$ .

`GEN shallowconcat1(GEN x)`  $x$  must be `t_VEC` or `t_LIST`, concatenate its elements from left to right. Shallow version of `concat1`.

`GEN shallowextract(GEN x, GEN y)` extract components of the vector or matrix  $x$  according to the selection parameter  $y$ . This is the shallow analog of `extract0(x, y, NULL)`, see `vecextract`.

`GEN RgM_minor(GEN A, long i, long j)` given a square `t_MAT`  $A$ , return the matrix with  $i$ -th row and  $j$ -th column removed.

`GEN vconcat(GEN A, GEN B)` concatenate vertically the two `t_MAT`  $A$  and  $B$  of compatible dimensions. A `NULL` pointer is accepted for an empty matrix. See `shallowconcat`.

`GEN row(GEN A, long i)` return  $A[i, ]$ , the  $i$ -th row of the `t_MAT`  $A$ .

`GEN row_i(GEN A, long i, long j1, long j2)` return part of the  $i$ -th row of `t_MAT`  $A$ :  $A[i, j_1], A[i, j_1 + 1] \dots, A[i, j_2]$ . Assume  $j_1 \leq j_2$ .

`GEN rowcopy(GEN A, long i)` return the row  $A[i, ]$  of the `t_MAT`  $A$ . This function is memory clean and suitable for `gerepileupto`. See `row` for the shallow equivalent.

`GEN rowslice(GEN A, long i1, long i2)` return the `t_MAT` formed by the  $i_1$ -th through  $i_2$ -th rows of `t_MAT`  $A$ . Assume  $i_1 \leq i_2$ .

`GEN rowpermute(GEN A, GEN p)`,  $p$  being a `t_VECSMALL` representing a list  $[p_1, \dots, p_n]$  of rows of `t_MAT`  $A$ , returns the matrix whose rows are  $A[p_1, ], \dots, A[p_n, ]$ .

GEN rowslicepermute(GEN A, GEN p, long x1, long x2), short for

```
rowslice(rowpermute(A,p), x1, x2)
```

(more efficient).

GEN vecslice(GEN A, long j1, long j2), return  $A[j_1], \dots, A[j_2]$ . If  $A$  is a `t_MAT`, these correspond to *columns* of  $A$ . The object returned has the same type as  $A$  (`t_VEC`, `t_COL` or `t_MAT`). Assume  $j_1 \leq j_2$ .

GEN vecsplice(GEN A, long j) return  $A$  with  $j$ -th entry removed (`t_VEC`, `t_COL`) or  $j$ -th column removed (`t_MAT`).

GEN vecreverse(GEN A). Returns a GEN which has the same type as  $A$  (`t_VEC`, `t_COL` or `t_MAT`), and whose components are the  $A[n], \dots, A[1]$ . If  $A$  is a `t_MAT`, these are the *columns* of  $A$ .

GEN vecpermute(GEN A, GEN p)  $p$  is a `t_VECSMALL` representing a list  $[p_1, \dots, p_n]$  of indices. Returns a GEN which has the same type as  $A$  (`t_VEC`, `t_COL` or `t_MAT`), and whose components are  $A[p_1], \dots, A[p_n]$ . If  $A$  is a `t_MAT`, these are the *columns* of  $A$ .

GEN vecslicepermute(GEN A, GEN p, long y1, long y2) short for

```
vecslice(vecpermute(A,p), y1, y2)
```

(more efficient).

### 10.6.2 Componentwise operations.

The following convenience routines automate trivial loops of the form

```
for (i = 1; i < lg(a); i++) gel(v,i) = f(gel(a,i), gel(b,i))
```

for suitable  $f$ :

GEN vecinv(GEN a). Given a vector  $a$ , returns the vector whose  $i$ -th component is  $\text{ginv}(a[i])$ .

GEN vecmul(GEN a, GEN b). Given  $a$  and  $b$  two vectors of the same length, returns the vector whose  $i$ -th component is  $\text{gmul}(a[i], b[i])$ .

GEN vecdiv(GEN a, GEN b). Given  $a$  and  $b$  two vectors of the same length, returns the vector whose  $i$ -th component is  $\text{gdiv}(a[i], b[i])$ .

GEN vecpow(GEN a, GEN n). Given  $n$  a `t_INT`, returns the vector whose  $i$ -th component is  $a[i]^n$ .

GEN vecmodii(GEN a, GEN b). Assuming  $a$  and  $b$  are two ZV of the same length, returns the vector whose  $i$ -th component is  $\text{modii}(a[i], b[i])$ .

Note that `vecadd` or `vecsub` do not exist since `gadd` and `gsub` have the expected behavior. On the other hand, `ginv` does not accept vector types, hence `vecinv`.

### 10.6.3 Low-level vectors and columns functions.

These functions handle `t_VEC` as an abstract container type of GENs. No specific meaning is attached to the content. They accept both `t_VEC` and `t_COL` as input, but `col` functions always return `t_COL` and `vec` functions always return `t_VEC`.

**Note.** All the functions below are shallow.

GEN `const_col(long n, GEN x)` returns a `t_COL` of `n` components equal to `x`.

GEN `const_vec(long n, GEN x)` returns a `t_VEC` of `n` components equal to `x`.

int `vec_isconst(GEN v)` Returns 1 if all the components of `v` are equal, else returns 0.

void `vec_setconst(GEN v, GEN x)` `v` a pre-existing vector. Set all its components to `x`.

int `vec_is1to1(GEN v)` Returns 1 if the components of `v` are pair-wise distinct, i.e. if  $i \mapsto v[i]$  is a 1-to-1 mapping, else returns 0.

GEN `vec_shorten(GEN v, long n)` shortens the vector `v` to `n` components.

GEN `vec_lengthen(GEN v, long n)` lengthens the vector `v` to `n` components. The extra components are not initialized.

## 10.7 Vectors of small integers.

### 10.7.1 `t_VECSMALL`.

These functions handle `t_VECSMALL` as an abstract container type of small signed integers. No specific meaning is attached to the content.

GEN `const_vecsmall(long n, long c)` returns a `t_VECSMALL` of `n` components equal to `c`.

GEN `vec_to_vecsmall(GEN z)` identical to `ZV_to_zv(z)`.

GEN `vecsmall_to_vec(GEN z)` identical to `zv_to_ZV(z)`.

GEN `vecsmall_to_col(GEN z)` identical to `zv_to_ZC(z)`.

GEN `vecsmall_copy(GEN x)` makes a copy of `x` on the stack.

GEN `vecsmall_shorten(GEN v, long n)` shortens the `t_VECSMALL` `v` to `n` components.

GEN `vecsmall_lengthen(GEN v, long n)` lengthens the `t_VECSMALL` `v` to `n` components. The extra components are not initialized.

GEN `vecsmall_indexsrt(GEN x)` performs an indirect sort of the components of the `t_VECSMALL` `x` and return a permutation stored in a `t_VECSMALL`.

void `vecsmall_sort(GEN v)` sorts the `t_VECSMALL` `v` in place.

long `vecsmall_max(GEN v)` returns the maximum of the elements of `t_VECSMALL` `v`, assumed non-empty.

long `vecsmall_min(GEN v)` returns the minimum of the elements of `t_VECSMALL` `v`, assumed non-empty.

long `vecsmall_isin(GEN v, long x)` returns the first index  $i$  such that  $v[i]$  is equal to `x`. Naive search in linear time, does not assume that `v` is sorted.

GEN `vecsmall_uniq(GEN v)` given a `t_VECSMALL` `v`, return the vector of unique occurrences.

GEN `vecsmall_uniq_sorted(GEN v)` same as `vecsmall_uniq`, but assumes `v` sorted.

long `vecsmall_duplicate(GEN v)` given a `t_VECSMALL` `v`, return 0 if there is no duplicates, or the index of the first duplicate (`vecsmall_duplicate([1,1])` returns 2).

`long vecsmall_duplicate_sorted(GEN v)` same as `vecsmall_duplicate`, but assume `v` sorted.  
`int vecsmall_lexcmp(GEN x, GEN y)` compares two `t_VECSMALL` lexically.  
`int vecsmall_prefixcmp(GEN x, GEN y)` truncate the longest `t_VECSMALL` to the length of the shortest and compares them lexicographically.  
`GEN vecsmall_prepend(GEN V, long s)` prepend `s` to the `t_VECSMALL` `V`.  
`GEN vecsmall_append(GEN V, long s)` append `s` to the `t_VECSMALL` `V`.  
`GEN vecsmall_concat(GEN u, GEN v)` concat the `t_VECSMALL` `u` and `v`.  
`long vecsmall_coincidence(GEN u, GEN v)` returns the numbers of indices where `u` and `v` agree.  
`long vecsmall_pack(GEN v, long base, long mod)` handles the `t_VECSMALL` `v` as the digit of a number in base `base` and return this number modulo `mod`. This can be used as an hash function.

**10.7.2 Vectors of `t_VECSMALL`.** These functions manipulate vectors of `t_VECSMALL` (`vecvecsmall`).

`GEN vecvecsmall_sort(GEN x)` sorts lexicographically the components of the vector `x`.  
`GEN vecvecsmall_indexsort(GEN x)` performs an indirect lexicographic sorting of the components of the vector `x` and return a permutation stored in a `t_VECSMALL`.  
`long vecvecsmall_search(GEN x, GEN y, long flag)` `x` being a sorted `vecvecsmall` and `y` a `t_VECSMALL`, search `y` inside `x`. `fla` has the same meaning as for `setsearch`.





## Chapter 11:

### Functions related to the GP interpreter

#### 11.1 Handling closures.

##### 11.1.1 Functions to evaluate `t_CLOSURE`.

`void closure_disassemble(GEN C)` print the `t_CLOSURE` `C` in GP assembly format.

`GEN closure_callgenall(GEN C, long n, ...)` evaluate the `t_CLOSURE` `C` with the `n` arguments (of type `GEN`) following `n` in the function call. Assumes `C` has arity  $\geq n$ .

`GEN closure_callgenvec(GEN C, GEN args)` evaluate the `t_CLOSURE` `C` with the arguments supplied in the vector `args`. Assumes `C` has arity  $\geq \text{lg}(\text{args}) - 1$ .

`GEN closure_callgen1(GEN C, GEN x)` evaluate the `t_CLOSURE` `C` with argument `x`. Assumes `C` has arity  $\geq 1$ .

`GEN closure_callgen2(GEN C, GEN x, GEN y)` evaluate the `t_CLOSURE` `C` with argument `x`, `y`. Assumes `C` has arity  $\geq 2$ .

`void closure_callvoid1(GEN C, GEN x)` evaluate the `t_CLOSURE` `C` with argument `x` and discard the result. Assumes `C` has arity  $\geq 1$ .

The following technical functions are used to evaluate *inline* closures and closures of arity 0.

The control flow statements (`break`, `next` and `return`) will cause the evaluation of the closure to be interrupted; this is called below a *flow change*. When that occurs, the functions below generally return `NULL`. The caller can then adopt three positions:

- raises an exception (`closure_evalnobrk`).
- passes through (by returning `NULL` itself).
- handles the flow change.

`GEN closure_evalgen(GEN code)` evaluates a closure and returns the result, or `NULL` if a flow change occurred.

`GEN closure_evalnobrk(GEN code)` as `closure_evalgen` but raise an exception if a flow change occurs. Meant for iterators where interrupting the closure is meaningless, e.g. `intnum` or `sumnum`.

`void closure_evalvoid(GEN code)` evaluates a closure whose return value is ignored. The caller has to deal with eventual flow changes by calling `loop_break`.

The remaining functions below are for exceptional situations:

`GEN closure_evalres(GEN code)` evaluates a closure and returns the result. The difference with `closure_evalgen` being that, if the flow end by a `return` statement, the result will be the returned value instead of `NULL`. Used by the main GP loop.

GEN `closure_evalbrk`(GEN `code`, long `*status`) as `closure_evalres` but set `status` to a non-zero value if a flow change occurred. This variant is not stack clean. Used by the break loop.

GEN `closure_trapgen`(long `numerr`, GEN `code`) evaluates closure, while trapping error `numerr`. Return (GEN)1L if error trapped, and the result otherwise, or NULL if a flow change occurred. Used by trap.

### 11.1.2 Functions to handle control flow changes.

long `loop_break`(void) processes an eventual flow changes inside an iterator. If this function return 1, the iterator should stop.

### 11.1.3 Functions to deal with lexical local variables.

Function using the prototype code 'V' need to manually create and delete a lexical variable for each code 'V', which will be given a number  $-1, -2, \dots$

void `push_lex`(GEN `a`, GEN `code`) creates a new lexical variable whose initial value is `a` on the top of the stack. This variable get the number  $-1$ , and the number of the other variables is decreased by one unit. When the first variable of a closure is created, the argument `code` must be the closure that references this lexical variable. The argument `code` must be NULL for all subsequent variables (if any). (The closure contains the debugging data for the variable).

void `pop_lex`(long `n`) deletes the `n` topmost lexical variables, increasing the number of other variables by `n`. The argument `n` must match the number of variables allocated through `push_lex`.

GEN `get_lex`(long `vn`) get the value of the variable with number `vn`.

void `set_lex`(long `vn`, GEN `x`) set the value of the variable with number `vn`.

### 11.1.4 Functions returning new closures.

GEN `closure_deriv`(GEN `code`) returns a closure corresponding to the numerical derivative of the closure `code`.

GEN `snm_closure`(entree `*ep`, GEN `data`) Let `data` be a vector of length `m`, `ep` be an entree pointing to a C function `f` of arity  $n + m$ , returns a `t_CLOSURE` object `g` of arity `n` such that  $g(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(x_1, \dots, x_n, \text{gel}(\text{data}, 1), \dots, \text{gel}(\text{data}, m))$ . If `data` is NULL, then  $m = 0$  is assumed. This function has a low overhead since it does not copy `data`.

GEN `strtofunction`(char `*str`) returns a closure corresponding to the built-in or install'ed function named `str`.

GEN `strtoclosure`(char `*str`, long `n`, ...) returns a closure corresponding to the built-in or install'ed function named `str` with the `n` last parameters set to the `n` GENs following `n`, see `snm_closure`. This function has an higher overhead since it copies the parameters and does more input validation.

In the example code below, `agm1` is set to the function `x->agm(x,1)` and `res` is set to `agm(2,1)`.

```
GEN agm1 = strtoclosure("agm",1, gen_1);
GEN res = closure_callgen1(agm1, gen_2);
```

**11.1.5 Functions used by the gp debugger (break loop).** `long closure_context(long s)` restores the compilation context starting at frame `s+1`, and returns the index of the topmost frame. This allow to compile expressions in the topmost lexical scope.

`void closure_err(void)` prints a backtrace of the last 20 stack frames.

**11.1.6 Standard wrappers for iterators.** Two families of standard wrappers are provided to interface iterators like `intnum` or `sumnum` with GP.

**11.1.6.1 Standard wrappers for inline closures.** Theses wrappers are used to implement GP functions taking inline closures as input. The object `(GEN)E` must be an inline closure which is evaluated with the lexical variable number `-1` set to `x`.

`GEN gp_eval(void *E, GEN x)` is used for the prototype code ‘E’.

`long gp_evalvoid(void *E, GEN x)` is used for the prototype code ‘I’. The resulting value is discarded. Return a non-zero value if a control-flow instruction request the iterator to terminate immediatly.

**11.1.6.2 Standard wrappers for true closures.** Theses wrappers are used to implement GP functions taking true closures as input.

`GEN gp_call(void *E, GEN x)` evaluates the closure `(GEN)E` on `x`.

`long gp_callbool(void *E, GEN x)` evaluates the closure `(GEN)E` on `x`, returns 1 if its result is non-zero, and 0 otherwise.

`long gp_callvoid(void *E, GEN x)` evaluates the closure `(GEN)E` on `x`, discarding the result. Return a non-zero value if a control-flow instruction request the iterator to terminate immediatly.

## 11.2 Defaults.

`int pari_is_default(const char *s)` return 1 if `s` is the name of a default, 0 otherwise.

`GEN setdefault(const char *s, const char *v, long flag)` is the low-level function underlying `default0`. If `s` is `NULL`, call all default setting functions with string argument `NULL` and flag `d_ACKNOWLEDGE`. Otherwise, check whether `s` corresponds to a default and call the corresponding default setting function with arguments `v` and `flag`.

We shall describe these functions below: if `v` is `NULL`, we only look at the default value (and possibly print or return it, depending on `flag`); otherwise the value of the default to `v`, possibly after some translation work. The flag is one of

- `d_INITRC` called while reading the `gprc` : print and return `gnil`, possibly defer until `gp` actually starts.
- `d_RETURN` return the current value, as a `t_INT` if possible, as a `t_STR` otherwise.
- `d_ACKNOWLEDGE` print the current value, return `gnil`.
- `d_SILENT` print nothing, return `gnil`.

Low-level functions called by `setdefault`:

`GEN sd_TeXstyle(const char *v, long flag)`

`GEN sd_colors(const char *v, long flag)`

```

GEN sd_compatible(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_datadir(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_debug(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_debugfiles(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_debugmem(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_factor_add_primes(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_factor_proven(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_format(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_histsize(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_log(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_logfile(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_new_galois_format(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_output(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_parisize(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_path(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_prettyprinter(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_primelimit(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_realprecision(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_recover(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_secure(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_seriesprecision(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_simplify(const char *v, long flag)
GEN sd_strictmatch(const char *v, long flag)

```

Generic functions used to implement defaults: most of the above routines are implemented in terms of the following generic ones. In all routines below

- **v** and **flag** are the arguments passed to **default** : **v** is a new value (or the empty string: no change), and **flag** is one of **d\_INITRC**, **d\_RETURN**, etc.
- **s** is the name of the default being changed, used to display error messages or acknowledgements.

```

GEN sd_toggle(const char *v, long flag, const char *s, int *ptn)

```

- if **v** is neither "0" nor "1", an error is raised using **pari\_err**.
- **ptn** points to the current numerical value of the toggle (1 or 0), and is set to the new value (when **v** is non-empty).

For instance, here is how the timer default is implemented internally:

GEN

```
sd_timer(const char *v, long flag)
{ return sd_toggle(v, flag, "timer", &(GP_DATA->chrono)); }
```

The exact behavior and return value depends on `flag`:

- `d_RETURN`: returns the new toggle value, as a GEN.
- `d_ACKNOWLEDGE`: prints a message indicating the new toggle value and return `gnil`.
- other cases: print nothing and return `gnil`.

GEN `sd_ulong(const char *v, long flag, const char *s, ulong *ptn, ulong Min, ulong Max, const char **msg)`

• `ptn` points to the current numerical value of the toggle, and is set to the new value (when `v` is non-empty).

• `Min` and `Max` point to the minimum and maximum values allowed for the default.

• `v` must translate to an integer in the allowed ranger, a suffix among `k/K` ( $\times 10^3$ ), `m/M` ( $\times 10^6$ ), or `g/G` ( $\times 10^9$ ) is allowed, but no arithmetic expression.

• `msg` is a [NULL]-terminated array of messages or NULL (ignored). If `msg` is not NULL, `msg[i]` contains a message associated to the value `i` of the default. The last entry in the `msg` array is used as a message associated to all subsequent ones.

The exact behavior and return value depends on `flag`:

• `d_RETURN`: returns the new toggle value, as a GEN.

• `d_ACKNOWLEDGE`: prints a message indicating the new value, possibly a message associated to it via the `msg` argument, and return `gnil`.

• other cases: print nothing and return `gnil`.

GEN `sd_string(const char *v, long flag, const char *s, char **pstr)` • `v` is subject to environment expansion, then time expansion.

• `pstr` points to the current string value, and is set to the new value (when `v` is non-empty).

## Chapter 12:

# Technical Reference Guide for Algebraic Number Theory

## 12.1 General Number Fields.

### 12.1.1 Number field types.

None of the following routines thoroughly check their input: they distinguish between *bona fide* structures as output by PARI routines, but designing perverse data will easily fool them. To give an example, a square matrix will be interpreted as an ideal even though the  $\mathbf{Z}$ -module generated by its columns may not be an  $\mathbf{Z}_K$ -module (i.e. the expensive `nfisideal` routine will *not* be called).

`long nftyp(GEN x)`. Returns the type of number field structure stored in `x`, `typ_NF`, `typ_BNF`, or `typ_BNR`. Other answers are possible, meaning `x` is not a number field structure.

`GEN get_nf(GEN x, long *t)`. Extract an *nf* structure from `x` if possible and return it, otherwise return `NULL`. Sets `t` to the `nftyp` of `x` in any case.

`GEN get_bnf(GEN x, long *t)`. Extract a *bnf* structure from `x` if possible and return it, otherwise return `NULL`. Sets `t` to the `nftyp` of `x` in any case.

`GEN get_nfpol(GEN x, GEN *nf)` try to extract an *nf* structure from `x`, and sets `*nf` to `NULL` (failure) or to the *nf*. Returns the (monic, integral) polynomial defining the field.

`GEN get_bnfpol(GEN x, GEN *bnf, GEN *nf)` try to extract a *bnf* and an *nf* structure from `x`, and sets `*bnf` and `*nf` to `NULL` (failure) or to the corresponding structure. Returns the (monic, integral) polynomial defining the field.

`GEN checknf(GEN x)` if an *nf* structure can be extracted from `x`, return it; otherwise raise an exception. The more general `get_nf` is often more flexible.

`GEN checkbnf(GEN x)` if an *bnf* structure can be extracted from `x`, return it; otherwise raise an exception. The more general `get_bnf` is often more flexible.

`void checkbnr(GEN bnr)` Raise an exception if the argument is not a *bnr* structure.

`void checkbnrgen(GEN bnr)` Raise an exception if the argument is not a *bnr* structure, complete with explicit generators for the ray class group. This is normally useless and `checkbnr` should be instead, unless you are absolutely certain that the generators will be needed at a later point, and you are about to embark in a costly intermediate computation. PARI functions do check that generators are present in *bnr* before accessing them: they will raise an error themselves; many functions that may require them, e.g. `bnrconductor`, often do not actually need them.

`void checkrnf(GEN rnf)` Raise an exception if the argument is not an *rnf* structure.

`void checkbid(GEN bid)` Raise an exception if the argument is not a *bid* structure.

`GEN checkgal(GEN x)` if a *galoisinit* structure can be extracted from `x`, return it; otherwise raise an exception.

`void checksqmat(GEN x, long N)` check whether `x` is a square matrix of dimension `N`. May be used to check for ideals if `N` is the field degree.

`void checkprid(GEN pr)` Raise an exception if the argument is not a prime ideal structure.

`GEN get_prid(GEN ideal)` return the underlying prime ideal structure if one can be extracted from `ideal` (ideal or extended ideal), and return `NULL` otherwise.

`void checkmodpr(GEN modpr)` Raise an exception if the argument is not a prime ideal structure.

**GEN checknfelt\_mod**(GEN *nf*, GEN *x*, const char *\*s*) given an *nf* structure *nf* and a *t\_POLMOD* *x*, return the associated polynomial representative (shallow) if *x* and *nf* are compatible. Raise an exception otherwise. Set *s* to the name of the caller for a meaningful error message.

**void check\_ZKmodule**(GEN *x*, const char *\*s*) check whether *x* looks like  $\mathbf{Z}_K$ -module (a pair  $[A, I]$ , where *A* is a matrix and *I* is a list of ideals; *A* has as many columns as *I* has elements. Otherwise raises an exception. Set *s* to the name of the caller for a meaningful error message.

**long idealtyp**(GEN *\*ideal*, GEN *\*fa*) The input is *ideal*, a pointer to an ideal (or extended ideal), which is usually modified, *fa* being set as a side-effect. Returns the type of the underlying ideal among *id\_PRINCIPAL* (a number field element), *id\_PRIME* (a prime ideal) *id\_MAT* (an ideal in matrix form).

If *ideal* pointed to an ideal, set *fa* to NULL, and possibly simplify *ideal* (for instance the zero ideal is replaced by *gen\_0*). If it pointed to an extended ideal, replace *ideal* by the underlying ideal and set *fa* to the factorization matrix component.

### 12.1.2 Extracting info from a *nf* structure.

These functions expect a true *nf* argument associated to a number field  $K = \mathbf{Q}[x]/(T)$ , e.g. a *bnf* will not work. Let  $n = [K : \mathbf{Q}]$  be the field degree.

**GEN nf\_get\_pol**(GEN *nf*) returns the polynomial *T* (monic, in  $\mathbf{Z}[x]$ ).

**long nf\_get\_varn**(GEN *nf*) returns the variable number of the number field defining polynomial.

**long nf\_get\_r1**(GEN *nf*) returns the number of real places  $r_1$ .

**long nf\_get\_r2**(GEN *nf*) returns the number of complex places  $r_2$ .

**void nf\_get\_sign**(GEN *nf*, long *\*r1*, long *\*r2*) sets  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  to the number of real and complex places respectively. Note that  $r_1 + 2r_2$  is the field degree.

**long nf\_get\_degree**(GEN *nf*) returns the number field degree,  $n = r_1 + 2r_2$ .

**GEN nf\_get\_disc**(GEN *nf*) returns the field discriminant.

**GEN nf\_get\_index**(GEN *nf*) returns the index of *T*, i.e. the index of the order generated by the power basis  $(1, x, \dots, x^{n-1})$  in the maximal order of *K*.

**GEN nf\_get\_zk**(GEN *nf*) returns a basis  $(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n)$  for the maximal order of *K*. Those are polynomials in  $\mathbf{Q}[x]$  of degree  $< n$ ; it is guaranteed that  $w_1 = 1$ .

**GEN nf\_get\_invzk**(GEN *nf*) returns the matrix  $(m_{i,j}) \in M_n(\mathbf{Z})$  giving the power basis  $(x^i)$  in terms of the  $(w_j)$ , i.e such that  $x^{j-1} = \sum_{i=1}^n m_{i,j} w_i$  for all  $1 \leq j \leq n$ ; since  $w_1 = 1 = x^0$ , we have  $m_{i,1} = \delta_{i,1}$  for all *i*. The conversion functions in the *algtobasis* family essentially amount to a left multiplication by this matrix.

**GEN nf\_get\_roots**(GEN *nf*) returns the  $r_1$  real roots of the polynomial defining the number fields: first the  $r_1$  real roots (as *t\_REALs*), then the  $r_2$  representatives of the pairs of complex conjugates.

**GEN nf\_get\_allroots**(GEN *nf*) returns all the complex roots of *T*: first the  $r_1$  real roots (as *t\_REALs*), then the  $r_2$  pairs of complex conjugates.

**GEN nf\_get\_M**(GEN *nf*) returns the  $(r_1 + r_2) \times n$  matrix *M* giving the embeddings of *K*:  $M[i, j]$  contains  $w_j(\alpha_i)$ , where  $\alpha_i$  is the *i*-th element of *nf\_get\_roots*(*nf*). In particular, if *v* is an *n*-th dimensional *t\_COL* representing the element  $\sum_{i=1}^n v[i] w_i$  of *K*, then *RgM\_RgC\_mul*(*M*, *v*) represents the embeddings of *v*.

`GEN nf_get_G(GEN nf)` returns a  $n \times n$  real matrix  $G$  such that  $Gv \cdot Gv = T_2(v)$ , where  $v$  is an  $n$ -th dimensional `t_COL` representing the element  $\sum_{i=1}^n v[i]w_i$  of  $K$  and  $T_2$  is the standard Euclidean form on  $K \otimes \mathbf{R}$ , i.e.  $T_2(v) = \sum_{\sigma} |\sigma(v)|^2$ , where  $\sigma$  runs through all  $n$  complex embeddings of  $K$ .

`GEN nf_get_roundG(GEN nf)` returns a rescaled version of  $G$ , rounded to nearest integers, specifically `RM_round_maxrank(G)`.

`GEN nf_get_Tr(GEN nf)` returns the matrix of the Trace quadratic form on the basis  $(w_1, \dots, w_n)$ : its  $(i, j)$  entry is  $\text{Tr}w_iw_j$ .

`GEN nf_get_diff(GEN nf)` returns the primitive part of the inverse of the above Trace matrix.

`long nf_get_prec(GEN nf)` returns the precision (in words) to which the  $nf$  was computed.

### 12.1.3 Extracting info from a `bnf` structure.

These functions expect a true *bnf* argument, e.g. a *bnr* will not work.

`GEN bnf_get_nf(GEN bnf)` returns the underlying  $nf$ .

`GEN bnf_get_clgp(GEN bnf)` returns the class group in  $bnf$ , which is a 3-component vector  $[h, cyc, gen]$ .

`GEN bnf_get_cyc(GEN bnf)` returns the elementary divisors of the class group (cyclic components)  $[d_1, \dots, d_k]$ , where  $d_k \mid \dots \mid d_1$ .

`GEN bnf_get_gen(GEN bnf)` returns the generators  $[g_1, \dots, g_k]$  of the class group. Each  $g_i$  has order  $d_i$ , and the full module of relations between the  $g_i$  is generated by the  $d_i g_i = 0$ .

`GEN bnf_get_no(GEN bnf)` returns the class number.

`GEN bnf_get_reg(GEN bnf)` returns the regulator.

`GEN bnf_get_logfu(GEN bnf)` returns (complex floating point approximations to) the logarithms of the complex embeddings of our system of fundamental units.

`GEN bnf_get_fu(GEN bnf)` returns the fundamental units. Raise an error if the *bnf* does not contain units in algebraic form.

`GEN bnf_get_fu_nocheck(GEN bnf)` as `bnf_get_fu` without checking whether units are present. Do not use this unless you initialize the *bnf* yourself!

`GEN bnf_get_tuU(GEN bnf)` returns a generator of the torsion part of  $\mathbf{Z}_K^*$ .

`long bnf_get_tuN(GEN bnf)` returns the order of the torsion part of  $\mathbf{Z}_K^*$ , i.e. the number of roots of unity in  $K$ .



#### 12.1.4 Extracting info from a *bnr* structure.

These functions expect a true *bnr* argument.

GEN `bnr_get_bnf`(GEN *bnr*) returns the underlying *bnf*.

GEN `bnr_get_nf`(GEN *bnr*) returns the underlying *nf*.

GEN `bnr_get_clgp`(GEN *bnr*) returns the ray class group.

GEN `bnr_get_no`(GEN *bnr*) returns the ray class number.

GEN `bnr_get_cyc`(GEN *bnr*) returns the elementary divisors of the ray class group (cyclic components)  $[d_1, \dots, d_k]$ , where  $d_k \mid \dots \mid d_1$ .

GEN `bnr_get_gen`(GEN *bnr*) returns the generators  $[g_1, \dots, g_k]$  of the ray class group. Each  $g_i$  has order  $d_i$ , and the full module of relations between the  $g_i$  is generated by the  $d_i g_i = 0$ . Raise a generic error if the *bnr* does not contain the ray class group generators.

GEN `bnr_get_gen_nocheck`(GEN *bnr*) as `bnr_get_gen` without checking whether generators are present. Do not use this unless you initialize the *bnr* yourself!

GEN `bnr_get_bid`(GEN *bnr*) returns the *bid* associated to the *bnr* modulus.

GEN `bnr_get_mod`(GEN *bnr*) returns the modulus associated to the *bnr*.

#### 12.1.5 Extracting info from an *rnf* structure.

These functions expect a true *rnf* argument.

long `rnf_get_degree`(GEN *rnf*) returns the *relative* degree of the extension.

#### 12.1.6 Extracting info from a *bid* structure.

These functions expect a true *bid* argument, associated to a modulus  $I$  in a number field  $K$ .

GEN `bid_get_mod`(GEN *bid*) returns the modulus associated to the *bid*.

GEN `bid_get_ideal`(GEN *bid*) return the finite part of the *bid* modulus (an integer ideal).

GEN `bid_get_arch`(GEN *bid*) return the Archimedean part of the *bid* modulus (a vector of real places).

GEN `bid_get_cyc`(GEN *bid*) returns the elementary divisors of the group  $(\mathbf{Z}_K/I)^*$  (cyclic components)  $[d_1, \dots, d_k]$ , where  $d_k \mid \dots \mid d_1$ .

GEN `bid_get_gen`(GEN *bid*) returns the generators of  $(\mathbf{Z}_K/I)^*$  contained in *bid*. Raise a generic error if *bid* does not contain generators.

GEN `bid_get_gen_nocheck`(GEN *bid*) as `bid_get_gen` without checking whether generators are present. Do not use this unless you initialize the *bid* yourself!

### 12.1.7 Increasing accuracy.

GEN `nfnewprec`(GEN `x`, long `prec`). Raise an exception if `x` is not a number field structure (*nf*, *bnf* or *bnr*). Otherwise, sets its accuracy to `prec` and return the new structure. This is mostly useful with `prec` larger than the accuracy to which `x` was computed, but it is also possible to decrease the accuracy of `x` (truncating relevant components, which may speed up later computations). This routine may modify the original `x` (see below).

This routine is straightforward for *nf* structures, but for the other ones, it requires all principal ideals corresponding to the *bnf* relations in algebraic form (they are originally only available via floating point approximations). This in turn requires many calls to `bnfisprincipal0`, which is often slow, and may fail if the initial accuracy was too low. In this case, the routine will not actually fail but recomputes a *bnf* from scratch!

Since this process may be very expensive, the corresponding data is cached (as a *clone*) in the *original* `x` so that later precision increases become very fast. In particular, the copy returned by `nfnewprec` also contains this additional data.

GEN `bnfnewprec`(GEN `x`, long `prec`). As `nfnewprec`, but extracts a *bnf* structure from `x` before increasing its accuracy, and returns only the latter.

GEN `bnrnewprec`(GEN `x`, long `prec`). As `nfnewprec`, but extracts a *bnr* structure from `x` before increasing its accuracy, and returns only the latter.

GEN `nfnewprec_shallow`(GEN `nf`, long `prec`)

GEN `bnfnewprec_shallow`(GEN `bnf`, long `prec`)

GEN `bnrnewprec_shallow`(GEN `bnr`, long `prec`) Shallow functions underlying the above, except that the first argument must now have the corresponding number field type. I.e. one cannot call `nfnewprec_shallow`(`nf`, `prec`) if `nf` is actually a *bnf*.

**12.1.8 Number field arithmetic.** The number field  $K = \mathbf{Q}[X]/(T)$  is represented by an `nf` (or `bnf` or `bnr` structure). An algebraic number belonging to  $K$  is given as

- a `t_INT`, `t_FRAC` or `t_POL` (implicitly modulo  $T$ ), or
- a `t_POLMOD` (modulo  $T$ ), or
- a `t_COL` `v` of dimension  $N = [K : \mathbf{Q}]$ , representing the element in terms of the computed integral basis  $(e_i)$ , as

`sum(i = 1, N, v[i] * nf.zk[i])`

The preferred forms are `t_INT` and `t_COL` of `t_INT`. Routines can handle denominators but it is much more efficient to remove denominators first (`Q_remove_denom`) and take them into account at the end.

**Safe routines.** The following routines do not assume that their `nf` argument is a true *nf* (it can be any number field type, e.g. a *bnf*), and accept number field elements in all the above forms. They return their result in `t_COL` form.

`GEN nfadd(GEN nf, GEN x, GEN y)` returns  $x + y$ .

`GEN nfdiv(GEN nf, GEN x, GEN y)` returns  $x/y$ .

`GEN nfinv(GEN nf, GEN x)` returns  $x^{-1}$ .

`GEN nfmul(GEN nf, GEN x, GEN y)` returns  $xy$ .

`GEN nfpow(GEN nf, GEN x, GEN k)` returns  $x^k$ ,  $k$  is in  $\mathbf{Z}$ .

`GEN nfpow_u(GEN nf, GEN x, ulong k)` returns  $x^k$ ,  $k \geq 0$ .

`GEN nfsqr(GEN nf, GEN x)` returns  $x^2$ .

`long nfval(GEN nf, GEN x, GEN pr)` returns the valuation of  $x$  at the maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{p}$  associated to the *prid* `pr`. Returns `LONG_MAX` if  $x$  is 0.

`GEN nfnorm(GEN nf, GEN x)` absolute norm of  $x$ .

`GEN nftrace(GEN nf, GEN x)` absolute trace of  $x$ .

`GEN nfpoleval(GEN nf, GEN pol, GEN a)` evaluate the `t_POL` `pol` (with coefficients in `nf`) on the algebraic number  $a$  (also in *nf*).

`GEN FpX_FpC_nfpoleval(GEN nf, GEN pol, GEN a, GEN p)` evaluate the `t_FpX` `pol` on the algebraic number  $a$  (also in *nf*).

The following three functions implement trivial functionality akin to Euclidean division for which we currently have no real use. Of course, even if the number field is actually Euclidean, these do not in general implement a true Euclidean division.

`GEN nfdiveuc(GEN nf, GEN a, GEN b)` returns the algebraic integer closest to  $x/y$ . Functionally identical to `ground( nfdiv(nf,x,y) )`.

`GEN nfdivrem(GEN nf, GEN a, GEN b)` returns the vector  $[q, r]$ , where

```
q = nfdiveuc(nf, a,b);
r = nfadd(nf, a,nfmul(nf,q,gneg(b)));    \\ or r = nfmod(nf,a,b);
```

`GEN nfmod(GEN nf, GEN a, GEN b)` returns  $r$  such that

```
q = nfdiveuc(nf, a,b);
r = nfadd(nf, a, nfmul(nf,q, gneg(b)));
```

`GEN nf_to_scalar_or_basis(GEN nf, GEN x)` let  $x$  be a number field element. If it is a rational scalar, i.e. can be represented by a `t_INT` or `t_FRAC`, return the latter. Otherwise returns its basis representation (`nfbasistoalg`). Shallow function.

`GEN nf_to_scalar_or_alg(GEN nf, GEN x)` let  $x$  be a number field element. If it is a rational scalar, i.e. can be represented by a `t_INT` or `t_FRAC`, return the latter. Otherwise returns its lifted `t_POLMOD` representation (lifted `nfbasistoalg`). Shallow function.

`GEN RgX_to_nfX(GEN nf, GEN x)` let  $x$  be a `t_POL` whose coefficients are number field elements; apply `nf_to_scalar_or_basis` to each coefficient and return the resulting new polynomial. Shallow function.

GEN RgM\_to\_nfM(GEN nf, GEN x) let  $x$  be a `t_MAT` whose coefficients are number field elements; apply `nf_to_scalar_or_basis` to each coefficient and return the resulting new matrix. Shallow function.

GEN RgC\_to\_nfC(GEN nf, GEN x) let  $x$  be a `t_COL` or `t_VEC` whose coefficients are number field elements; apply `nf_to_scalar_or_basis` to each coefficient and return the resulting new `t_COL`. Shallow function.

**Unsafe routines.** The following routines assume that their `nf` argument is a true *nf* (e.g. a *bnf* is not allowed) and their argument are restricted in various ways, see the precise description below.

GEN nfinvmodideal(GEN nf, GEN x, GEN A) given an algebraic integer  $x$  and a non-zero integral ideal  $A$  in HNF, returns a  $y$  such that  $xy \equiv 1$  modulo  $A$ .

GEN nfpowmodideal(GEN nf, GEN x, GEN n, GEN ideal) given an algebraic integer  $x$ , an integer  $n$ , and a non-zero integral ideal  $A$  in HNF, returns an algebraic integer congruent to  $x^n$  modulo  $A$ .

GEN nfmuli(GEN nf, GEN x, GEN y) returns  $x \times y$  assuming that both  $x$  and  $y$  are either `t_INTs` or ZVs of the correct dimension.

GEN nfsqri(GEN nf, GEN x) returns  $x^2$  assuming that  $x$  is a `t_INT` or a ZV of the correct dimension.

GEN nfC\_nf\_mul(GEN nf, GEN v, GEN x) given a `t_VEC` or `t_COL`  $v$  of elements of  $K$  in `t_INT`, `t_FRAC` or `t_COL` form, multiply it by the element  $x$  (arbitrary form). This is faster than multiplying coordinatewise since pre-computations related to  $x$  (computing the multiplication table) are done only once. The components of the result are in most cases `t_COLs` but are allowed to be `t_INTs` or `t_FRACs`.

GEN zk\_multable(GEN nf, GEN x) given a ZC  $x$  (implicitly representing an algebraic integer), returns the ZM giving the multiplication table by  $x$ . Shallow function (the first column of the result points to the same data as  $x$ ).

GEN zk\_scalar\_or\_multable(GEN nf, GEN x) given a `t_INT` or ZC  $x$ , returns a `t_INT` equal to  $x$  if the latter is a scalar (`t_INT` or `ZV_isscalar(x)` is 1) and `zk_multable(nf, x)` otherwise. Shallow function.

The following routines implement multiplication in a commutative  $R$ -algebra, generated by  $(e_1 = 1, \dots, e_n)$ , and given by a multiplication table  $M$ : elements in the algebra are  $n$ -dimensional `t_COLs`, and the matrix  $M$  is such that for all  $1 \leq i, j \leq n$ , its column with index  $(i-1)n + j$ , say  $(c_k)$ , gives  $e_i \cdot e_j = \sum c_k e_k$ . It is assumed that  $e_1$  is the neutral element for the multiplication (a convenient optimization, true in practice for all multiplications we needed to implement). If  $x$  has any other type than `t_COL` where an algebra element is expected, it is understood as  $x e_1$ .

GEN multable(GEN M, GEN x) given a column vector  $x$ , representing the quantity  $\sum_{i=1}^N x_i e_i$ , returns the multiplication table by  $x$ . Shallow function.

GEN ei\_multable(GEN M, long i) returns the multiplication table by the  $i$ -th basis element  $e_i$ . Shallow function.

GEN tablemul(GEN M, GEN x, GEN y) returns  $x \cdot y$ .

GEN tablesqr(GEN M, GEN x) returns  $x^2$ .

GEN tablemul\_ei(GEN M, GEN x, long i) returns  $x \cdot e_i$ .

GEN `tablemul_ei_ej`(GEN `M`, long `i`, long `j`) returns  $e_i \cdot e_j$ .

GEN `tablemulvec`(GEN `M`, GEN `x`, GEN `v`) given a vector  $v$  of elements in the algebra, returns the  $x \cdot v[i]$ .

### 12.1.9 Elements in factored form.

Computational algebraic theory performs extensively linear algebra on  $\mathbf{Z}$ -modules with a natural multiplicative structure ( $K^*$ , fractional ideals in  $K$ ,  $\mathbf{Z}_K^*$ , ideal class group), thereby raising elements to horrendously large powers. A seemingly innocuous elementary linear algebra operation like  $C_i \leftarrow C_i - 10000C_1$  involves raising entries in  $C_1$  to the 10000-th power. Understandably, it is often more efficient to keep elements in factored form rather than expand every such expression. A *factorization matrix* (or *famat*) is a two column matrix, the first column containing *elements* (arbitrary objects which may be repeated in the column), and the second one contains *exponents* (`t_INT`s, allowed to be 0). By abuse of notation, the empty matrix `cgetg(1, t_MAT)` is recognized as the trivial factorization (no element, no exponent).

Even though we think of a *famat* with columns  $g$  and  $e$  as one meaningful object when fully expanded as  $\prod g[i]^{e[i]}$ , *famats* are basically about concatenating information to keep track of linear algebra: the objects stored in a *famat* need not be operation-compatible, they will not even be compared to each other (with one exception: `famat_reduce`). Multiplying two *famats* just concatenates their elements and exponents columns. In a context where a *famat* is expected, an object  $x$  which is not of type `t_MAT` will be treated as the factorization  $x^1$ . The following functions all return *famats*:

GEN `famat_mul`(GEN `f`, GEN `g`)  $f, g$  are *famat*, or objects whose type is *not* `t_MAT` (understood as  $f^1$  or  $g^1$ ). Returns  $fg$ . The empty factorization is the neutral element for *famat* multiplication.

GEN `famat_mul_shallow`(GEN `f`, GEN `g`)  $f, g$  are *famat*, returns  $fg$ . Shallow function.

GEN `famat_pow`(GEN `f`, GEN `n`)  $n$  is a `t_INT`. If  $f$  is a `t_MAT`, assume it is a *famat* and return  $f^n$  (multiplies the exponent column by  $n$ ). Otherwise, understand it as an element and returns the 1-line *famat*  $f^n$ .

GEN `famat_sqr`(GEN `f`) returns  $f^2$ .

GEN `famat_inv`(GEN `f`) returns  $f^{-1}$ .

GEN `to_famat`(GEN `x`, GEN `k`) given an element  $x$  and an exponent  $k$ , returns the *famat*  $x^k$ .

GEN `to_famat_shallow`(GEN `x`, GEN `k`) same, as a shallow function.

Note that it is trivial to break up a *famat* into its two constituent columns: `gel(f,1)` and `gel(f,2)` are the elements and exponents respectively. Conversely, `mkmat2` builds a (shallow) *famat* from two `t_COL`s of the same length.

The last two functions makes an assumption about the elements: they must be regular algebraic numbers (not *famats*) over a given number field:

GEN `famat_reduce`(GEN `f`) given a *famat*  $f$ , returns a *famat*  $g$  without repeated elements or 0 exponents, such that the expanded forms of  $f$  and  $g$  would be equal.

GEN `famat_to_nf`(GEN `nf`, GEN `f`) You normally never want to do this ! This is a simplified form of `nfactorback`, where we do not check the user input for consistency.

The description of `famat_to_nf` says that you do not want to use this function. Then how do we recover genuine number field elements? Well, in most cases, we do not need to: most of

the functions useful in this context accept *famats* as inputs, for instance `nfsign`, `nfsign_arch`, `ideallog` and `bnfisunit`. Otherwise, we can generally make good use of a quotient operation (modulo a fixed conductor, modulo  $\ell$ -th powers); see the end of Section 12.1.17.

**Caveat.** Receiving a *famat* input, `bnfisunit` assumes that it is an algebraic integer, since this is expensive to check, and normally easy to ensure from the user's side; do not feed it ridiculous inputs.

### 12.1.10 Ideal arithmetic.

#### Conversion to HNF.

`GEN idealhnf(GEN nf, GEN x)` returns the HNF of the ideal defined by  $x$ :  $x$  may be an algebraic number (defining a principal ideal), a maximal ideal (as given by `idealprimedec` or `idealfactor`), or a matrix whose columns give generators for the ideal. This last format is complicated, but useful to reduce general modules to the canonical form once in a while:

- if strictly less than  $N = [K : Q]$  generators are given,  $x$  is the  $\mathbf{Z}_K$ -module they generate,
- if  $N$  or more are given, it is assumed that they form a  $\mathbf{Z}$ -basis (that the matrix has maximal rank  $N$ ). This acts as `mathnf` since the  $\mathbf{Z}_K$ -module structure is (taken for granted hence) not taken into account in this case.

Extended ideals are also accepted, their principal part being discarded.

`GEN idealhnf0(GEN nf, GEN x, GEN y)` returns the HNF of the ideal generated by the two algebraic numbers  $x$  and  $y$ .

The following low-level functions underlie the above two: they all assume that `nf` is a true *nf* and perform no type checks:

`GEN idealhnf_principal(GEN nf, GEN x)` returns the ideal generated by the algebraic number  $x$ .

`GEN idealhnf_shallow(GEN nf, GEN x)` is `idealhnf` except that the result may not be suitable for `gerepile`: if  $x$  is already in HNF, we return  $x$ , not a copy !

`GEN idealhnf_two(GEN nf, GEN v)` assuming  $a = v[1]$  is a non-zero `t_INT` and  $b = v[2]$  is an algebraic integer, possibly given in regular representation by a `t_MAT` (the multiplication table by  $b$ , see `zk_multable`), returns the HNF of  $a\mathbf{Z}_K + b\mathbf{Z}_K$ .

## Operations.

The basic ideal routines accept all **nfs** (*nf*, *bnf*, *bnr*) and ideals in any form, including extended ideals, and return ideals in HNF, or an extended ideal when that makes sense:

**GEN idealadd**(GEN *nf*, GEN *x*, GEN *y*) returns  $x + y$ .

**GEN idealdiv**(GEN *nf*, GEN *x*, GEN *y*) returns  $x/y$ . Returns an extended ideal if  $x$  or  $y$  is an extended ideal.

**GEN idealmul**(GEN *nf*, GEN *x*, GEN *y*) returns  $xy$ . Returns an extended ideal if  $x$  or  $y$  is an extended ideal.

**GEN idealsqr**(GEN *nf*, GEN *x*) returns  $x^2$ . Returns an extended ideal if  $x$  is an extended ideal.

**GEN idealinv**(GEN *nf*, GEN *x*) returns  $x^{-1}$ . Returns an extended ideal if  $x$  is an extended ideal.

**GEN idealpow**(GEN *nf*, GEN *x*, GEN *n*) returns  $x^n$ . Returns an extended ideal if  $x$  is an extended ideal.

**GEN idealpows**(GEN *nf*, GEN *ideal*, long *n*) returns  $x^n$ . Returns an extended ideal if  $x$  is an extended ideal.

**GEN idealmulred**(GEN *nf*, GEN *x*, GEN *y*) returns an extended ideal equal to  $xy$ .

**GEN idealpowred**(GEN *nf*, GEN *x*, GEN *n*) returns an extended ideal equal to  $x^n$ .

More specialized routines suffer from various restrictions:

**GEN idealdivexact**(GEN *nf*, GEN *x*, GEN *y*) returns  $x/y$ , assuming that the quotient is an integral ideal. Much faster than **idealdiv** when the norm of the quotient is small compared to  $Nx$ . Strips the principal parts if either  $x$  or  $y$  is an extended ideal.

**GEN idealdivpowprime**(GEN *nf*, GEN *x*, GEN *pr*, GEN *n*) returns  $x\mathfrak{p}^{-n}$ , assuming  $x$  is an ideal in HNF, and *pr* a *prid* associated to  $\mathfrak{p}$ . Not suitable for **gerepileupto** since it returns  $x$  when  $n = 0$ .

**GEN idealmulpowprime**(GEN *nf*, GEN *x*, GEN *pr*, GEN *n*) returns  $x\mathfrak{p}^n$ , assuming  $x$  is an ideal in HNF, and *pr* a *prid* associated to  $\mathfrak{p}$ . Not suitable for **gerepileupto** since it returns  $x$  when  $n = 0$ .

**GEN idealprodprime**(GEN *nf*, GEN *P*) given a list *P* of prime ideals in *prid* form, return their product.

**GEN idealmul\_HNF**(GEN *nf*, GEN *x*, GEN *y*) returns  $xy$ , assuming that *nf* is a true *nf*,  $x$  is an integral ideal in HNF and  $y$  is an integral ideal in HNF or precompiled form (see below). For maximal speed, the second ideal  $y$  may be given in precompiled form  $y = [a, b]$ , where  $a$  is a non-zero **t\_INT** and  $b$  is an algebraic integer in regular representation (a **t\_MAT** giving the multiplication table by the fixed element): very useful when many ideals  $x$  are going to be multiplied by the same ideal  $y$ . This essentially reduces each ideal multiplication to an  $N \times N$  matrix multiplication followed by a  $N \times 2N$  modular HNF reduction (modulo  $xy \cap \mathbf{Z}$ ).

## Approximation.

GEN `idealaddtoone`(GEN `nf`, GEN `A`, GEN `B`) given to coprime integer ideals  $A, B$ , returns  $[a, b]$  with  $a \in A, b \in B$ , such that  $a + b = 1$ . The result is reduced mod  $AB$ , so  $a, b$  will be small.

GEN `idealaddtoone_i`(GEN `nf`, GEN `A`, GEN `B`) as `idealaddtoone` except that `nf` must be a true `nf`, and only  $a$  is returned.

GEN `hnfmerge_get_1`(GEN `A`, GEN `B`) given two square upper HNF integral matrices  $A, B$  of the same dimension  $n > 0$ , return  $a$  in the image of  $A$  such that  $1 - a$  is in the image of  $B$ . (By abuse of notation we denote  $1$  the column vector  $[1, 0, \dots, 0]$ .) If such an  $a$  does not exist, return `NULL`. This is the function underlying `idealaddtoone`.

GEN `idealaddmultoone`(GEN `nf`, GEN `v`) given a list of  $n$  (globally) coprime integer ideals  $(v[i])$  returns an  $n$ -dimensional vector  $a$  such that  $a[i] \in v[i]$  and  $\sum a[i] = 1$ . If  $[K : \mathbf{Q}] = N$ , this routine computes the HNF reduction (with  $GL_{nN}(\mathbf{Z})$  base change) of an  $N \times nN$  matrix; so it is well worth pruning "useless" ideals from the list (as long as the ideals remain globally coprime).

GEN `idealappr`(GEN `nf`, GEN `x`) given a fractional ideal  $x$ , returns an algebraic number  $\alpha$  such that  $v(x) = v(\alpha)$  for all valuations such that  $v(x) > 0$ , and  $v(\alpha) \geq 0$  at all others.

GEN `idealapprfact`(GEN `nf`, GEN `fx`) same as `idealappr`,  $x$  being given in factored form, as after `fx = idealfactor(nf, x)`, except that we allow 0 exponents in the factorization. Returns an algebraic number  $\alpha$  such that  $v(x) = v(\alpha)$  for all valuations associated to the prime ideal decomposition of  $x$ , and  $v(\alpha) \geq 0$  at all others.

GEN `idealcoprime`(GEN `nf`, GEN `x`, GEN `y`). Given 2 integral ideals  $x$  and  $y$ , returns an algebraic number  $\alpha$  such that  $\alpha x$  is an integral ideal coprime to  $y$ .

GEN `idealcoprimefact`(GEN `nf`, GEN `x`, GEN `fy`) same as `idealcoprime`, except that  $y$  is given in factored form, as from `idealfactor`.

GEN `idealchinese`(GEN `nf`, GEN `x`, GEN `y`)  $x$  being a prime ideal factorization (i.e. a 2 by 2 matrix whose first column contain prime ideals, and the second column integral exponents),  $y$  a vector of elements in `nf` indexed by the ideals in  $x$ , computes an element  $b$  such that  $v_\varphi(b - y_\varphi) \geq v_\varphi(x)$  for all prime ideals in  $x$  and  $v_\varphi(b) \geq 0$  for all other  $\varphi$ .

### 12.1.11 Maximal ideals.

The PARI structure associated to maximal ideals is a *prid* (for *prime ideal*), usually produced by `idealprimedec` and `idealfactor`. In this section, we describe the format; other sections will deal with their daily use.

A *prid* associated to a maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{p}$  stores the following data: the underlying rational prime  $p$ , the ramification degree  $e \geq 1$ , the residue field degree  $f \geq 1$ , a  $p$ -uniformizer  $\pi$  with valuation 1 at  $\mathfrak{p}$  and valuation 0 at all other primes dividing  $p$  and a rescaled "anti-uniformizer"  $\tau$  used to compute valuations. This  $\tau$  is an algebraic integer such that  $\tau/p$  has valuation  $-1$  at  $\mathfrak{p}$  and valuation 0 at all other primes dividing  $p$ ; in particular, the valuation of  $x \in \mathbf{Z}_K$  is positive if and only if the algebraic integer  $x\tau$  is divisible by  $p$  (easy to check for elements in `t_COL` form).

The following functions are shallow and return directly components of the *prid* `pr`:

GEN `pr_get_p`(GEN `pr`) returns  $p$ . Shallow function.

GEN `pr_get_gen`(GEN `pr`) returns  $\pi$ . Shallow function.

long `pr_get_e`(GEN `pr`) returns  $e$ .



`long pr_get_f(GEN pr)` returns  $f$ .

`GEN pr_get_tau(GEN pr)` returns  $\tau$ . Shallow function.

`int pr_is_inert(GEN pr)` returns 1 if  $p$  is inert, 0 otherwise.

`GEN pr_norm(GEN pr)` returns the norm  $p^f$  of the maximal ideal.

### 12.1.12 Reducing modulo maximal ideals.

`GEN nfmodprinit(GEN nf, GEN pr)` returns an abstract `modpr` structure, associated to reduction modulo the maximal ideal `pr`, in `idealprimedec` format. From this data we can quickly project any `pr`-integral number field element to the residue field. This function is almost useless in library mode, we rather use:

`GEN nf_to_Fq_init(GEN nf, GEN *ppr, GEN *pT, GEN *pp)` concrete version of `nfmodprinit`: `nf` and `*ppr` are the inputs, the return value is a `modpr` and `*ppr`, `*pT` and `*pp` are set as side effects.

The input `*ppr` is either a maximal ideal or already a `modpr` (in which case it is replaced by the underlying maximal ideal). The residue field is realized as  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]/(T)$  for some monic  $T \in \mathbf{F}_p[X]$ , and we set `*pT` to  $T$  and `*pp` to  $p$ . Set  $T = \text{NULL}$  if the prime has degree 1 and the residue field is  $\mathbf{F}_p$ .

In short, this receives (or initializes) a `modpr` structure, and extracts from it  $T$ ,  $p$  and `p`.

`GEN nf_to_Fq(GEN nf, GEN x, GEN modpr)` returns an `Fq` congruent to  $x$  modulo the maximal ideal associated to `modpr`. The output is canonical: all elements in a given residue class are represented by the same `Fq`.

`GEN Fq_to_nf(GEN x, GEN modpr)` returns an `nf` element lifting the residue field element  $x$ , either a `t_INT` or an algebraic integer in `algtobasis` format.

`GEN modpr_genFq(GEN modpr)` Returns an `nf` element whose image by `nf_to_Fq` is  $X \pmod{T}$ , if  $\deg T > 1$ , else 1.

`GEN zkmodprinit(GEN nf, GEN pr)` as `nfmodprinit`, but we assume we will only reduce algebraic integers, hence do not initialize data allowing to remove denominators. More precisely, we can in fact still handle an  $x$  whose rational denominator is not 0 in the residue field (i.e. if the valuation of  $x$  is non-negative at all primes dividing  $p$ ).

`GEN zk_to_Fq_init(GEN nf, GEN *pr, GEN *T, GEN *p)` as `nf_to_Fq_init`, able to reduce only  $p$ -integral elements.

`GEN zk_to_Fq(GEN x, GEN modpr)` as `nf_to_Fq`, for a  $p$ -integral  $x$ .

`GEN nfM_to_FqM(GEN M, GEN nf, GEN modpr)` reduces a matrix of `nf` elements to the residue field; returns an `FqM`.

`GEN FqM_to_nfM(GEN M, GEN modpr)` lifts an `FqM` to a matrix of `nf` elements.

`GEN nfV_to_FqV(GEN A, GEN nf, GEN modpr)` reduces a vector of `nf` elements to the residue field; returns an `FqV` with the same type as `A` (`t_VEC` or `t_COL`).

`GEN FqV_to_nfV(GEN A, GEN modpr)` lifts an `FqV` to a vector of `nf` elements (same type as `A`).

`GEN nfX_to_FqX(GEN Q, GEN nf, GEN modpr)` reduces a polynomial with `nf` coefficients to the residue field; returns an `FqX`.

`GEN FqX_to_nfX(GEN Q, GEN modpr)` lifts an `FqX` to a polynomial with coefficients in `nf`.

### 12.1.13 Signatures.

“Signs” of the real embeddings of number field element are represented in additive notation, using the standard identification  $(\mathbf{Z}/2\mathbf{Z}, +) \rightarrow (\{-1, 1\}, \times), s \mapsto (-1)^s$ .

With respect to a fixed **nf** structure, a selection of real places (a divisor at infinity) is normally given as a **t\_VECSMALL** of indices of the roots **nf.roots** of the defining polynomial for the number field. For compatibility reasons, in particular under GP, the (obsolete) **vec01** form is also accepted: a **t\_VEC** with **gen\_0** or **gen\_1** entries.

The following internal functions go back and forth between the two representations for the Archimedean part of divisors (GP: 0/1 vectors, library: list of indices):

**GEN vec01\_to\_indices(GEN v)** given a **t\_VEC**  $v$  with **t\_INT** entries equal to 0 or 1, return as a **t\_VECSMALL** the list of indices  $i$  such that  $v[i] = 1$ . If  $v$  is already a **t\_VECSMALL**, return it (not suitable for **gerepile** in this case).

**GEN indices\_to\_vec01(GEN p, long n)** return the 0/1 vector of length  $n$  with ones exactly at the positions  $p[1], p[2], \dots$

**GEN nfsign(GEN nf, GEN x)**  $x$  being a number field element and **nf** any form of number field, return the 0 – 1-vector giving the signs of the  $r_1$  real embeddings of  $x$ , as a **t\_VECSMALL**. Linear algebra functions like **Flv\_add\_inplace** then allow keeping track of signs in series of multiplications.

If  $x$  is a **t\_VEC** of number field elements, return the matrix whose columns are the signs of the  $x[i]$ .

**GEN nfsign\_arch(GEN nf, GEN x, GEN arch)** **arch** being a list of distinct real places, either in **vec01** (**t\_VEC** with **gen\_0** or **gen\_1** entries) or **indices** (**t\_VECSMALL**) form (see **vec01\_to\_indices**), returns the signs of  $x$  at the corresponding places. This is the low-level function underlying **nfsign**.

**GEN nfsign\_units(GEN bnf, GEN archp, int add\_tu)** **archp** being a divisor at infinity in **indices** form (or **NULL** for the divisor including all real places), return the signs at **archp** of a system of fundamental units for the field, in the same order as **bnf.tufu** if **add\_tu** is set; and in the same order as **bnf.fu** otherwise.

**GEN nfsign\_from\_logarch(GEN L, GEN invpi, GEN archp)** given  $L$  the vector of the  $\log \sigma(x)$ , where  $\sigma$  runs through the (real or complex) embeddings of some number field, **invpi** being a floating point approximation to  $1/\pi$ , and **archp** being a divisor at infinity in **indices** form, return the signs of  $x$  at the corresponding places. This is the low-level function underlying **nfsign\_units**; the latter is actually a trivial wrapper **bnf** structures include the  $\log \sigma(x)$  for a system of fundamental units of the field.

**GEN set\_sign\_mod\_divisor(GEN nf, GEN x, GEN y, GEN module, GEN sarch)** let  $f = f_0 f_\infty$  be the divisor represented by **module**,  $x, y$  two number field elements. Returns  $yt$  with  $t = 1 \bmod^* f$  such that  $x$  and  $ty$  have the same signs at  $f_\infty$ ; if  $x = \text{NULL}$ , make  $ty$  totally positive at  $f_\infty$ . **sarch** is the output of **nfarchstar**(**nf**, **f0**, **finf**).

**GEN nfarchstar(GEN nf, GEN f0, GEN finf)** for a divisor  $f = f_0 f_\infty$  represented by the integral ideal **f0** in HNF and the **finf** in **indices** form, returns  $(\mathbf{Z}_K/f_\infty)^*$  in a form suitable for computations mod  $f$ . More precisely, returns  $[c, g, M]$ , where  $c = [2, \dots, 2]$  gives the cyclic structure of that group ( $\#f_\infty$  copies of  $\mathbf{Z}/2\mathbf{Z}$ ),  $g$  a minimal system of independent generators, which are furthermore congruent to 1 mod  $f_0$  (no condition if  $f_0 = \mathbf{Z}_K$ ), and  $M$  is the matrix of signs of the  $g[i]$  at  $f_\infty$ , which is square and invertible over  $\mathbf{F}_2$ .

#### 12.1.14 Maximal order and discriminant.

A number field  $K = \mathbf{Q}[X]/(T)$  is defined by a monic  $T \in \mathbf{Z}[X]$ . The low-level function computing a maximal order is

`void nfmaxord(nfmaxord_t *S, GEN T, long flag, GEN fa)`, where the polynomial  $T$  is as above.

The structure `nfmaxord_t` is initialized by the call; it has the following fields:

```
GEN dT, dK; /* discriminants of T and K */
GEN index; /* index of power basis in maximal order */
GEN dTP, dTE; /* factorization of |dT|, primes / exponents */
GEN dKP, dKE; /* factorization of |dK|, primes / exponents */
GEN basis; /* Z-basis for maximal order */
```

The exponent vectors are `t_VECSMALL`. The primes in `dTP` and `dKP` are pseudoprimes, not proven primes.

The `flag` is an or-ed combination of the binary flags:

**nf\_PARTIALFACT**: do not try to fully factor `dT` and only look for primes less than `primelimit`. In that case, the elements in `dTP` and `dKP` need not all be primes. But the resulting `dK`, `index` and `basis` are correct provided there exists no prime  $p > \text{primelimit}$  with  $p^2$  divides the field discriminant `dK`.

**nf\_ROUND2**: use the ROUND2 algorithm instead of the default ROUND4 (do not use that, it is slower).

If `fa` is not NULL, it is assumed to be the factorization of the absolute value of the discriminant of  $T$ . It is not mandatory that all entries in the first column be primes; this is useful if only a local integral basis for some small set of places is desired: only factors with exponents greater or equal to 2 will be considered.

`GEN indexpartial(GEN T, GEN dT)`  $T$  a monic separable  $\mathbf{Z}[X]$ , `dT` is either NULL (no information) or a multiple of the discriminant of  $T$ . Let  $K = \mathbf{Q}[X]/(T)$  and  $\mathbf{Z}_K$  its maximal order. Returns a multiple of the exponent of the quotient group  $\mathbf{Z}_K/(\mathbf{Z}[X]/(T))$ . In other word, a *denominator*  $d$  such that  $dx \in \mathbf{Z}[X]/(T)$  for all  $x \in \mathbf{Z}_K$ .

#### 12.1.15 Computing in the class group.

We compute with arbitrary ideal representatives (in any of the various formats seen above), and call

`GEN bnfisprincipal0(GEN bnf, GEN x, long flag)`. The `bnf` structure already contains information about the class group in the form  $\bigoplus_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{Z}/d_i\mathbf{Z})g_i$  for canonical integers  $d_i$  (with  $d_n \mid \dots \mid d_1$  all  $> 1$ ) and essentially random generators  $g_i$ , which are ideals in HNF. We normally do not need the value of the  $g_i$ , only that they are fixed once and for all and that any (non-zero) fractional ideal  $x$  can be expressed uniquely as  $x = (t) \prod_{i=1}^n g_i^{e_i}$ , where  $0 \leq e_i < d_i$ , and  $(t)$  is some principal ideal. Computing  $e$  is straightforward, but  $t$  may be very expensive to obtain explicitly. The routine returns (possibly partial) information about the pair  $[e, t]$ , depending on `flag`, which is an or-ed combination of the following symbolic flags:

- **nf\_GEN** tries to compute  $t$ . Returns  $[e, t]$ , with  $t$  an empty vector if the computation failed. This flag is normally useless in non-trivial situations since the next two serve analogous purposes in more efficient ways.

- **nf\_GENMAT** tries to compute  $t$  in factored form, which is much more efficient than **nf\_GEN** if the class group is moderately large; imagine a small ideal  $x = (t)g^{10000}$ : the norm of  $t$  has 10000 as many digits as the norm of  $g$ ; do we want to see it as a vector of huge meaningless integers? The idea is to compute  $e$  first, which is easy, then compute  $(t)$  as  $x \prod g_i^{-e_i}$  using successive **idealmulred**, where the ideal reduction extracts small principal ideals along the way, eventually raised to large powers because of the binary exponentiation technique; the point is to keep this principal part in factored *unexpanded* form. Returns  $[e, t]$ , with  $t$  an empty vector if the computation failed; this should be exceedingly rare, unless the initial accuracy to which **bnf** was computed was ridiculously low (and then **bnfinit** should not have succeeded either). Setting/unsetting **nf\_GEN** has no effect when this flag is set.

- **nf\_GEN\_IF\_PRINCIPAL** tries to compute  $t$  *only* if the ideal is principal ( $e = 0$ ). Returns **gen\_0** if the ideal is not principal. Setting/unsetting **nf\_GEN** has no effect when this flag is set, but setting/unsetting **nf\_GENMAT** is possible.

- **nf\_FORCE** in the above, insist on computing  $t$ , even if it requires recomputing a **bnf** from scratch. This is a last resort, and normally the accuracy of a **bnf** can be increased without trouble, but it may be that some algebraic information simply cannot be recovered from what we have: see **bnfnewprec**. It should be very rare, though.

In simple cases where you do not care about  $t$ , you may use

**GEN isprincipal(GEN bnf, GEN x)**, which is a shortcut for **bnfisprincipal0(bnf, x, 0)**.

The following low-level functions are often more useful:

**GEN isprincipalfact(GEN bnf, GEN C, GEN L, GEN f, long flag)** is about the same as **bnfisprincipal0** applied to  $C \prod L[i]^{f[i]}$ , where the  $L[i]$  are ideals, the  $f[i]$  integers and  $C$  is either an ideal or **NULL** (omitted). Make sure to include **nf\_GENMAT** in **flag**!

**GEN isprincipalfact\_or\_fail(GEN bnf, GEN C, GEN L, GEN f)** is for delicate cases, where we must be more clever than **nf\_FORCE** (it is used when trying to increase the accuracy of a *bnf*, for instance). It performs

```
isprincipalfact(bnf,C, L, f, nf_GENMAT);
```

but if it fails to compute  $t$ , it just returns a **t\_INT**, which is the estimated precision (in words, as usual) that would have been sufficient to complete the computation. The point is that **nf\_FORCE** does exactly this internally, but goes on increasing the accuracy of the **bnf**, then discarding it, which is a major inefficiency if you intend to compute lots of discrete logs and have selected a precision which is just too low. (It is sometimes not so bad since most of the really expensive data is cached in **bnf** anyway, if all goes well.) With this function, the *caller* may decide to increase the accuracy using **bnfnewprec** (and keep the resulting **bnf**!), or avoid the computation altogether. In any case the decision can be taken at the place where it is most likely to be correct.

### 12.1.16 Ideal reduction, low level.

In the following routines  $nf$  is a true **nf**, associated to a number field  $K$  of degree  $n$ :

**GEN nf\_get\_Gtwist(GEN nf, GEN v)** assuming  $v$  is a **t\_VECSMALL** with  $r_1 + r_2$  entries, let

$$||x||_v^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{r_1+r_2} 2^{v_i} \varepsilon_i |\sigma_i(x)|^2,$$

where as usual the  $\sigma_i$  are the (real and) complex embeddings and  $\varepsilon_i = 1$ , resp. 2, for a real, resp. complex place. This is a twisted variant of the  $T_2$  quadratic form, the standard Euclidean form on  $K \otimes \mathbf{R}$ . In applications, only the relative size of the  $v_i$  will matter.

Let  $G_v \in M_n(\mathbf{R})$  be a square matrix such that if  $x \in K$  is represented by the column vector  $X$  in terms of the fixed  $\mathbf{Z}$ -basis of  $\mathbf{Z}_K$  in  $nf$ , then

$$||x||_v^2 = {}^t(G_v X) \cdot G_v X.$$

(This is a kind of Cholesky decomposition.) This function returns a rescaled copy of  $G_v$ , rounded to nearest integers, specifically `RM_round_maxrank( $G_v$ )`. Suitable for `gerepileupto`, but does not collect garbage.

`GEN nf_get_Gtwist1(GEN nf, long i)`. Simple special case. Returns the twisted  $G$  matrix associated to the vector  $v$  whose entries are all 0 except the  $i$ -th one, which is equal to 10.

`GEN idealpseudomin(GEN x, GEN G)`. Let  $x, G$  be two  $\mathbf{Z}$ Ms, such that the product  $Gx$  is well-defined. This returns a “small” integral linear combinations of the columns of  $x$ , given by the LLL-algorithm applied to the lattice  $Gx$ . Suitable for `gerepileupto`, but does not collect garbage.

In applications,  $x$  is an integral ideal,  $G$  approximates a Cholesky form for the  $T_2$  quadratic form as returned by `nf_get_Gtwist`, and we return a small element  $a$  in the lattice  $(x, T_2)$ . This is used to implement `idealred`.

`GEN idealpseudomin_nonscalar(GEN x, GEN G)`. As `idealpseudomin`, but we insist of returning a non-scalar  $a$  (`ZV_isscalar` is false), if the dimension of  $x$  is  $> 1$ .

In the interpretation where  $x$  defines an integral ideal on a fixed  $\mathbf{Z}_K$  basis whose first element is 1, this means that  $a$  is not rational.

`GEN idealred_elt(GEN nf, GEN x)` shortcut for

`idealpseudomin(x, nf_get_roundG(nf))`

### 12.1.17 Ideal reduction, high level.

Given an ideal  $x$  this means finding a “simpler” ideal in the same ideal class. The public GP function is of course available

`GEN idealred0(GEN nf, GEN x, GEN v)` finds a small  $a \in x$  and returns the primitive part of  $x/(a)$ , as an ideal in HNF. What “small” means depends on the parameter  $v$ , see the GP description. More precisely,  $a$  is returned by `idealpseudomin( $x, G$ )`, where  $G$  is `nf_get_Gtwist( $nf, v$ )` for  $v \neq \text{NULL}$  and `nf_get_roundG( $nf$ )` otherwise.

Usually one sets  $v = \text{NULL}$  to obtain an element of small  $T_2$  norm in  $x$ :

`GEN idealred(GEN nf, GEN x)` is a shortcut for `idealred0(nf, x, NULL)`.

The function `idealred` remains complicated to use: in order not to lose information  $x$  must be an extended ideal, otherwise the value of  $a$  is lost. There is a subtlety here: the principal ideal  $(a)$  is easy to recover, but  $a$  itself is an instance of the principal ideal problem which is very difficult given only an  $nf$  (once a  $bnf$  structure is available, `bnfisprincipal0` will recover it). It is in general simpler to use directly `idealred_elt`.

`GEN idealmoddivisor(GEN bnr, GEN x)` A proof-of-concept implementation, useless in practice. If  $bnr$  is associated to some modulus  $f$ , returns a “small” ideal in the same class as  $x$  in the ray

class group modulo  $f$ . The reason why this is useless is that using extended ideals with principal part in a computation, there is a simple way to reduce them: simply reduce the generator of the principal part in  $(\mathbf{Z}_K/f)^*$ .

`GEN famat_to_nf_moddivisor(GEN nf, GEN g, GEN e, GEN bid)` given a true  $nf$  associated to a number field  $K$ , a  $bid$  structure associated to a modulus  $f$ , and an algebraic number in factored form  $\prod g[i]^{e[i]}$ , such that  $(g[i], f) = 1$  for all  $i$ , returns a small element in  $\mathbf{Z}_K$  congruent to it mod  $f$ . Note that if  $f$  contains places at infinity, this includes sign conditions at the specified places.

A simpler case when the conductor has no place at infinity:

`GEN famat_to_nf_modideal_coprime(GEN nf, GEN g, GEN e, GEN f, GEN expo)` as above except that the ideal  $f$  is now integral in HNF (no need for a full  $bid$ ), and we pass the exponent of the group  $(\mathbf{Z}_K/f)^*$  as `expo`; any multiple will also do, at the expense of efficiency. Of course if a  $bid$  for  $f$  is available, it is easy to extract  $f$  and the exact value of `expo` from it (the latter is the first elementary divisor in the group structure). A useful trick: if you set `expo` to *any* positive integer, the result is correct up to `expo`-th powers, hence exact if `expo` is a multiple of the exponent; this is useful when trying to decide whether an element is a square in a residue field for instance! (take `expo` = 2).

What to do when the  $g[i]$  are not coprime to  $f$ , but only  $\prod g[i]^{e[i]}$  is? Then the situation is more complicated, and we advise to solve it one prime divisor of  $f$  at a time. Let  $v$  the valuation associated to a maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{pr}$  and assume  $v(f) = k > 0$ :

`GEN famat_makecoprime(GEN nf, GEN g, GEN e, GEN pr, GEN prk, GEN expo)` returns an element in  $(\mathbf{Z}_K/\mathfrak{pr}^k)^*$  congruent to the product  $\prod g[i]^{e[i]}$ , assumed to be globally coprime to  $f$ . As above, `expo` is any positive multiple of the exponent of  $(\mathbf{Z}_K/\mathfrak{pr}^k)^*$ , for instance  $(Nv - 1)p^{k-1}$ , if  $p$  is the underlying rational prime. You may use other values of `expo` (see the useful trick in `famat_to_nf_modideal_coprime`).

### 12.1.18 Class field theory.

Under GP, a class-field theoretic description of a number field is given by a triple  $A, B, C$ , where the defining set  $[A, B, C]$  can have any of the following forms:  $[bnr]$ ,  $[bnr, subgroup]$ ,  $[bnf, modulus]$ ,  $[bnf, modulus, subgroup]$ . You can still use directly all of (`libpari`'s routines implementing) GP's functions as described in Chapter 3, but they are often awkward in the context of `libpari` programming. In particular, it does not make much sense to always input a triple  $A, B, C$  because of the fringe  $[bnf, modulus, subgroup]$ . The first routine to call, is thus

`GEN Buchray(GEN bnf, GEN mod, long flag)` initializes a  $bnr$  structure from  $bnf$  and modulus  $mod$ . `flag` is an or-ed combination of `nf_GEN` (include generators) and `nf_INIT` (if omitted, do not return a  $bnr$ , only the ray class group as an abelian group). In fact, a single value of `flag` actually makes sense: `nf_GEN | nf_INIT` to initialize a proper  $bnr$ : removing `nf_GEN` saves very little time, but the corresponding crippled  $bnr$  structure will raise errors in most class field theoretic functions. Possibly also 0 to quickly compute the ray class group structure; `bnrclassno` is faster if we only need the *order* of the ray class group.

Now we have a proper  $bnr$  encoding a  $bnf$  and a modulus, we no longer need the  $[bnf, modulus]$  and  $[bnf, modulus, subgroup]$  forms, which would internally call `Buchray` anyway. Recall that a subgroup  $H$  is given by a matrix in HNF, whose column express generators of  $H$  on the fixed generators of the ray class group that stored in our  $bnr$ . You may also code the trivial subgroup by `NULL`.

`GEN bnrconductor(GEN bnr, GEN H, long flag)` see the documentation of the GP function.

`long bnrisc conductor(GEN bnr, GEN H)` returns 1 if the class field defined by the subgroup  $H$  (of the ray class group mod  $f$  coded in `bnr`) has conductor  $f$ . Returns 0 otherwise.

`GEN bnrdisc(GEN bnr, GEN H, long flag)` returns the discriminant and signature of the class field defined by `bnr` and  $H$ . See the description of the GP function for details. *flag* is an or-ed combination of the flags `rnf_REL` (output relative data) and `rnf_COND` (return 0 unless the modulus is the conductor).

`GEN bnrsurjection(GEN BNR, GEN bnr)` `BNR` and `bnr` defined over the same field  $K$ , for moduli  $F$  and  $f$  with  $F \mid f$ , returns the matrix of the canonical surjection  $\text{Cl}_K(F) \rightarrow \text{Cl}_K(f)$  (giving the image of the fixed ray class group generators of `BNR` in terms of the ones in `bnr`). `BNR` must include the ray class group generators.

`GEN ABC_to_bnr(GEN A, GEN B, GEN C, GEN *H, int addgen)` This is a quick conversion function designed to go from the too general (inefficient)  $A, B, C$  form to the preferred *bnr*,  $H$  form for class fields. Given  $A, B, C$  as explained above (omitted entries coded by `NULL`), return the associated *bnr*, and set  $H$  to the associated subgroup. If `addgen` is 1, make sure that if the *bnr* needed to be computed, then it contains generators.

### 12.1.19 Relative equations, Galois conjugates.

`GEN rnfequationall(GEN A, GEN B, long *pk, GEN *pLPRS)`  $A$  is either an *nf* type (corresponding to a number field  $K$ ) or an irreducible `ZX` defining a number field  $K$ .  $B$  is an irreducible polynomial in  $K[X]$ . Returns an absolute equation  $C$  (over  $\mathbf{Q}$ ) for the number field  $K[X]/(B)$ .  $C$  is the characteristic polynomial of  $b + ka$  for some roots  $a$  of  $A$  and  $b$  of  $B$ , and  $k$  is a small rational integer. Set `*pk` to  $k$ .

If `pLPRS` is not `NULL` set it to  $[h_0, h_1]$ ,  $h_i \in \mathbf{Q}[X]$ , where  $h_0 + h_1 Y$  is the last non-constant polynomial in the pseudo-Euclidean remainder sequence associated to  $A(Y)$  and  $B(X - kY)$ , leading to  $C = \text{Res}_Y(A(Y), B(Y - kX))$ . In particular  $a := -h_0/h_1$  is a root of  $A$  in  $\mathbf{Q}[X]/(C)$ , and  $X - ka$  is a root of  $B$ .

`GEN rnf_fix_pol(GEN T, GEN B, int lift)` check whether  $B$  is a polynomials with coefficients in the number field defined by the absolute equation  $T(y) = 0$ , where  $T$  is a `ZX` and returned a cleaned up version of  $B$ . This means that  $B$  is a `t_POL` whose coefficients are `t_INT`, `t_FRAC`, `t_POL` in the variable  $y$  with rational coefficients, or `t_POLMOD` modulo  $T$  which lift to a rational `t_POL` as above. The cleanup consists in the following improvements:

- `t_POL` coefficients are reduced modulo  $T$ .
- `t_POL` and `t_POLMOD` coefficients belonging to the base field are converted to rationals.
- if `lift` is non-zero, lift all `t_POLMOD`, otherwise convert all `t_POL` to `t_POLMODs` modulo  $T$ .

For instance, `rnfequationall` applies `rnf_fix_pol` to its argument  $B$  (with `lift` equal to 1).

`long numberofconjugates(GEN T, long pinit)` returns a quick multiple for the number of  $\mathbf{Q}$ -automorphism of the (integral, monic) `t_POL`  $T$ , from modular factorizations, starting from prime `pinit` (you can set it to 2). This upper bounds often coincides with the actual number of conjugates. Of course, you should use `nfgaloisconj` to be sure.

### 12.1.20 Miscellaneous routines.

`GEN bnfisintnormabs(GEN bnf, GEN a)` as `bnfisintnorm`, but returns a complete system of solutions modulo units of the absolute norm equation  $|\text{Norm}(x)| = |a|$ . As fast as `bnfisintnorm`, but solves the two equations  $\text{Norm}(x) = \pm a$  simultaneously.

### 12.1.21 Obsolete routines.

Still provided for backward compatibility, but should not be used in new programs. They will eventually disappear.

GEN zidealstar(GEN nf, GEN x) short for Idealstar(nf,x,nf\_GEN)

GEN zidealstarinit(GEN nf, GEN x) short for Idealstar(nf,x,nf\_INIT)

GEN zidealstarinitgen(GEN nf, GEN x) short for Idealstar(nf,x,nf\_GEN|nf\_INIT)

GEN buchimag(GEN D, GEN c1, GEN c2, GEN gC0) short for

Buchquad(D,gtodouble(c1),gtodouble(c2), /\*ignored\*/0)

GEN buchreal(GEN D, GEN gsens, GEN c1, GEN c2, GEN RELSUP, long prec) short for

Buchquad(D,gtodouble(c1),gtodouble(c2), prec)

The following use a naming scheme which is error-prone and not easily extensible; besides, they compute generators as per nf\_GEN and not nf\_GENMAT. Don't use them:

GEN isprincipalforce(GEN bnf,GEN x)

GEN isprincipalgen(GEN bnf, GEN x)

GEN isprincipalgenforce(GEN bnf, GEN x)

GEN isprincipalraygen(GEN bnr, GEN x), use bnrprincipal.

Variants on polred: use polredabs0. You almost certainly want to include the nf\_PARTIALFACT flag.

GEN factoredpolred(GEN x, GEN fa)

GEN factoredpolred2(GEN x, GEN fa)

GEN polred2(GEN x)

GEN smallpolred(GEN x)

GEN smallpolred2(GEN x), use Polred.

GEN polredabs(GEN x)

GEN polredabs2(GEN x)

GEN polredabsall(GEN x, long flun)

Superseded by bnrdisc:

GEN discrayabs(GEN bnr,GEN subgroup)

GEN discrayabscond(GEN bnr,GEN subgroup)

GEN discrayrel(GEN bnr,GEN subgroup)

GEN discrayrelcond(GEN bnr,GEN subgroup)

Superseded by bnrdisclist0:

GEN discrayabslist(GEN bnf,GEN listes)

GEN discrayabslistarch(GEN bnf, GEN arch, long bound)

GEN discrayabslistlong(GEN bnf, long bound)



## 12.2 Galois extensions of $\mathbb{Q}$ .

This section describes the data structure output by the function `galoisinit`. This will be called a `gal` structure in the following.

### 12.2.1 Extracting info from a `gal` structure.

The functions below expect a `gal` structure and are shallow. See the documentation of `galoisinit` for the meaning of the member functions.

`GEN gal_get_pol(GEN gal)` returns `gal.pol`

`GEN gal_get_p(GEN gal)` returns `gal.p`

`GEN gal_get_e(GEN gal)` returns the integer  $e$  such that `gal.mod==gal.pe`.

`GEN gal_get_mod(GEN gal)` returns `gal.mod`.

`GEN gal_get_roots(GEN gal)` returns `gal.roots`.

`GEN gal_get_invvdm(GEN gal)` `gal[4]`.

`GEN gal_get_den(GEN gal)` return `gal[5]`.

`GEN gal_get_group(GEN gal)` returns `gal.group`.

`GEN gal_get_gen(GEN gal)` returns `gal.gen`.

`GEN gal_get_orders(GEN gal)` returns `gal.orders`.

### 12.2.2 Miscellaneous functions.

`GEN nfgaloismatrix(GEN nf, GEN s)` returns the ZM associated to the automorphism  $s$ , seen as a linear operator expressed on the number field integer basis. This allows to use

```
M = nfgaloismatrix(nf, s);
sx = ZM_ZC_mul(M, x);    /* or RgM_RgC_mul(M, x) if x is not integral */
```

instead of

```
sx = nfgaloisapply(nf, s, x);
```

for an algebraic integer  $x$ .

## 12.3 Quadratic number fields and quadratic forms.

### 12.3.1 Checks.

`void check_quaddisc(GEN x, long *s, long *mod4, const char *f)` checks whether the GEN  $x$  is a quadratic discriminant (`t_INT`, not a square, congruent to 0,1 modulo 4), and raise an exception otherwise. Set  $*s$  to the sign of  $x$  and  $*mod4$  to  $x$  modulo 4 (0 or 1).

`void check_quaddisc_real(GEN x, long *mod4, const char *f)` as `check_quaddisc`; check that `signe(x)` is positive.

`void check_quaddisc_imag(GEN x, long *mod4, const char *f)` as `check_quaddisc`; check that `signe(x)` is negative.

### 12.3.2 `t_QFI`, `t_QFR`.

`GEN qfi(GEN x, GEN y, GEN z)` creates the `t_QFI`  $(x, y, z)$ .

`GEN qfr(GEN x, GEN y, GEN z, GEN d)` creates the `t_QFR`  $(x, y, z)$  with distance component  $d$ .

`GEN qfr_1(GEN q)` given a `t_QFR`  $q$ , return the unit form  $q^0$ .

`GEN qfi_1(GEN q)` given a `t_QFI`  $q$ , return the unit form  $q^0$ .

#### 12.3.2.1 Composition.

`GEN qficomp(GEN x, GEN y)` compose the two `t_QFI`  $x$  and  $y$ , then reduce the result. This is the same as `gmul(x,y)`.

`GEN qfrcomp(GEN x, GEN y)` compose the two `t_QFR`  $x$  and  $y$ , then reduce the result. This is the same as `gmul(x,y)`.

`GEN qfisqr(GEN x)` as `qficomp(x,y)`.

`GEN qfrsqr(GEN x)` as `qfrcomp(x,y)`.

Same as above, *without* reducing the result:

`GEN qficompraw(GEN x, GEN y)`

`GEN qfrcompraw(GEN x, GEN y)`

`GEN qfisqrraw(GEN x)`

`GEN qfrsqrraw(GEN x)`

`GEN qfbcompraw(GEN x, GEN y)` compose two `t_QFIs` or two `t_QFRs`, without reduce the result.

#### 12.3.2.2 Powering.

`GEN powgi(GEN x, GEN n)` computes  $x^n$  (will work for many more types than `t_QFI` and `t_QFR`, of course). Reduce the result.

`GEN qfrpow(GEN x, GEN n)` computes  $x^n$  for a `t_QFR`  $x$ , reducing along the way. If the distance component is initially 0, leave it alone; otherwise update it.

`GEN qfbpowraw(GEN x, long n)` compute  $x^n$  (pure composition, no reduction), for a `t_QFI` or `t_QFR`  $x$ .

`GEN qfipowraw(GEN x, long n)` as `qfbpowraw`, for a `t_QFI`  $x$ .

`GEN qfrpowraw(GEN x, long n)` as `qfbpowraw`, for a `t_QFR`  $x$ .

### 12.3.2.3 Solve, Cornacchia.

The following functions underly `qfbsolve`;  $p$  denotes a prime number.

`GEN qfisolvp(GEN Q, GEN p)` solves  $Q(x, y) = p$  over the integers, for a `t_QFI`  $Q$ . Return `gen_0` if there are no solutions.

`GEN qfrsolvp(GEN Q, GEN p)` solves  $Q(x, y) = p$  over the integers, for a `t_QFR`  $Q$ . Return `gen_0` if there are no solutions.

`long cornacchia(GEN d, GEN p, GEN *px, GEN *py)` solves  $x^2 + dy^2 = p$  over the integers, where  $d > 0$ . Return 1 if there is a solution (and store it in `*x` and `*y`), 0 otherwise.

`long cornacchia2(GEN d, GEN p, GEN *px, GEN *py)` as `cornacchia`, for the equation  $x^2 + dy^2 = 4p$ .

### 12.3.2.4 Prime forms.

`GEN primeform_u(GEN x, ulong p)` `t_QFI` whose first coefficient is the prime  $p$ .

`GEN primeform(GEN x, GEN p, long prec)`

**12.3.3 Efficient real quadratic forms.** Unfortunately, `t_QFRs` are very inefficient, and are only provided for backward compatibility.

- they do not contain needed quantities, which are thus constantly recomputed (the discriminant  $D$ ,  $\sqrt{D}$  and its integer part),
- the distance component is stored in logarithmic form, which involves computing one extra logarithm per operation. It is much more efficient to store its exponential, computed from ordinary multiplications and divisions (taking exponent overflow into account), and compute its logarithm at the very end.

Internally, we have two representations for real quadratic forms:

- `qfr3`, a container  $[a, b, c]$  with at least 3 entries: the three coefficients; the idea is to ignore the distance component.
- `qfr5`, a container with at least 5 entries  $[a, b, c, e, d]$ : the three coefficients a `t_REAL`  $d$  and a `t_INT`  $e$  coding the distance component  $2^{Ne}d$ , in exponential form, for some large fixed  $N$ .

It is a feature that `qfr3` and `qfr5` have no specified length or type. It implies that a `qfr5` or `t_QFR` will do whenever a `qfr3` is expected. Routines using these objects all require a global context, provided by a `struct qfr_data *`:

```
struct qfr_data {
    GEN D;          /* discriminant, t_INT */
    GEN sqrtD;      /* sqrt(D), t_REAL */
    GEN isqrtD;     /* floor(sqrt(D)), t_INT */
};
```

`void qfr_data_init(GEN D, long prec, struct qfr_data *S)` given a discriminant  $D > 0$ , initialize  $S$  for computations at precision `prec` ( $\sqrt{D}$  is computed to that initial accuracy).

All functions below are shallow, and not stack clean.

`GEN qfr3_comp(GEN x, GEN y, struct qfr_data *S)` compose two `qfr3`, reducing the result.

`GEN qfr3_pow(GEN x, GEN n, struct qfr_data *S)` compute  $x^n$ , reducing along the way.

GEN `qfr3_red`(GEN `x`, struct `qfr_data *S`) reduce  $x$ .

GEN `qfr3_rho`(GEN `x`, struct `qfr_data *S`) perform one reduction step; `qfr3_red` just performs reduction steps until we hit a reduced form.

GEN `qfr3_to_qfr`(GEN `x`, GEN `d`) recover an ordinary `t_QFR` from the `qfr3`  $x$ , adding distance component  $d$ .

Before we explain `qfr5`, recall that it corresponds to an ideal, that reduction corresponds to multiplying by a principal ideal, and that the distance component is a clever way to keep track of these principal ideals. More precisely, reduction consists in a number of reduction steps, going from the form  $(a, b, c)$  to  $\rho(a, b, c) = (c, -b \bmod 2c, *)$ ; the distance component is multiplied by (a floating point approximation to)  $(b + \sqrt{D})/(b - \sqrt{D})$ .

GEN `qfr5_comp`(GEN `x`, GEN `y`, struct `qfr_data *S`) compose two `qfr5`, reducing the result, and updating the distance component.

GEN `qfr5_pow`(GEN `x`, GEN `n`, struct `qfr_data *S`) compute  $x^n$ , reducing along the way.

GEN `qfr5_red`(GEN `x`, struct `qfr_data *S`) reduce  $x$ .

GEN `qfr5_rho`(GEN `x`, struct `qfr_data *S`) perform one reduction step.

GEN `qfr5_dist`(GEN `e`, GEN `d`, long `prec`) decode the distance component from exponential (`qfr5`-specific) to logarithmic form (as in a `t_QFR`).

GEN `qfr_to_qfr5`(GEN `x`, long `prec`) convert a `t_QFR` to a `qfr5` with initial trivial distance component ( $= 1$ ).

GEN `qfr5_to_qfr`(GEN `x`, GEN `d`), assume  $x$  is a `qfr5` and  $d$  was the original distance component of some `t_QFR` that we converted using `qfr_to_qfr5` to perform efficiently a number of operations. Convert  $x$  to a `t_QFR` with the correct (logarithmic) distance component.

## 12.4 Linear algebra over $\mathbb{Z}$ .

### 12.4.1 Hermite and Smith Normal Forms.

GEN `ZM_hnf`(GEN `x`) returns the upper triangular Hermite Normal Form of the `ZM`  $x$  (removing 0 columns), using the `ZM_hnfall` algorithm. If you want the true HNF, use `ZM_hnfall(x, NULL, 0)`.

GEN `ZM_hnfmod`(GEN `x`, GEN `d`) returns the HNF of the `ZM`  $x$  (removing 0 columns), assuming the `t_INT`  $d$  is a multiple of the determinant of  $x$ . This is usually faster than `ZM_hnf` (and uses less memory) if the dimension is large,  $> 50$  say.

GEN `ZM_hnfmodid`(GEN `x`, GEN `d`) returns the HNF of the matrix  $(x \mid d\text{Id})$  (removing 0 columns), for a `ZM`  $x$  and a `t_INT`  $d$ .

GEN `ZM_hnfmodall`(GEN `x`, GEN `d`, long `flag`) low-level function underlying the `ZM_hnfmod` variants. If `flag` is 0, calls `ZM_hnfmod(x, d)`; `flag` is an or-ed combination of:

- `hnf_MODID` call `ZM_hnfmodid` instead of `ZM_hnfmod`,
- `hnf_PART` return as soon as we obtain an upper triangular matrix, saving time. The pivots are non-negative and give the diagonal of the true HNF, but the entries to the right of the pivots need not be reduced, i.e. they may be large or negative.

- `hnf_CENTER` returns the centered HNF, where the entries to the right of a pivot  $p$  are centered residues in  $[-p/2, p/2[$ , hence smallest possible in absolute value, but possibly negative.

`GEN ZM_hnfall(GEN x, GEN *U, long remove)` returns the upper triangular HNF  $H$  of the ZM  $x$ ; if  $U$  is not NULL, set it to the matrix  $U$  such that  $xU = H$ . If `remove` = 0,  $H$  is the true HNF, including 0 columns; if `remove` = 1, delete the 0 columns from  $H$  but do not update  $U$  accordingly (so that the integer kernel may still be recovered): we no longer have  $xU = H$ ; if `remove` = 2, remove 0 columns from  $H$  and update  $U$  so that  $xU = H$ . The matrix  $U$  is square and invertible unless `remove` = 2.

This routine uses a naive algorithm which is potentially exponential in the dimension (due to coefficient explosion) but is fast in practice, although it may require lots of memory. The base change matrix  $U$  may be very large, when the kernel is large.

`GEN ZM_hnfperm(GEN A, GEN *ptU, GEN *ptperm)` returns the hnf  $H = PAU$  of the matrix  $PA$ , where  $P$  is a suitable permutation matrix, and  $U \in \text{Gl}_n(\mathbf{Z})$ .  $P$  is chosen so as to (heuristically) minimize the size of  $U$ ; in this respect it is less efficient than `ZM_hnfall` but usually faster. Set `*ptU` to  $U$  and `*ptperm` to a `t_VECSMALL` representing the row permutation associated to  $P = (\delta_{i, \text{perm}[i]})$ . If `ptU` is set to NULL,  $U$  is not computed, saving some time; although useless, setting `ptperm` to NULL is also allowed.

`GEN ZM_hnfall1(GEN x, GEN *U, int remove)` returns the HNF  $H$  of the ZM  $x$ ; if  $U$  is not NULL, set it to the matrix  $U$  such that  $xU = H$ . The meaning of `remove` is the same as in `ZM_hnfall`.

This routine uses the LLL variant of Havas, Majewski and Mathews, which is polynomial time, but rather slow in practice because it uses an exact LLL over the integers instead of a floating point variant; it uses polynomial space but lots of memory is needed for large dimensions, say larger than 300. On the other hand, the base change matrix  $U$  is essentially optimally small with respect to the  $L_2$  norm.

`GEN ZM_hnfcenter(GEN M)`. Given a ZM in HNF  $M$ , update it in place so that non-diagonal entries belong to a system of *centered* residues. Not suitable for `gerepile`.

Some direct applications: the following routines apply to upper triangular integral matrices; in practice, these come from HNF algorithms.

`GEN hnf_divscale(GEN A, GEN B, GEN t)`  $A$  an upper triangular ZM,  $B$  a ZM,  $t$  an integer, such that  $C := tA^{-1}B$  is integral. Return  $C$ .

`GEN hnf_solve(GEN A, GEN B)`  $A$  a ZM in upper HNF (not necessarily square),  $B$  a ZM or ZC. Return  $A^{-1}B$  if it is integral, and NULL if it is not.

`GEN hnf_invimage(GEN A, GEN b)`  $A$  a ZM in upper HNF (not necessarily square),  $b$  a ZC. Return  $A^{-1}B$  if it is integral, and NULL if it is not.

`int hnfddivide(GEN A, GEN B)`  $A$  and  $B$  are two upper triangular ZM. Return 1 if  $A^{-1}B$  is integral, and 0 otherwise.

### Smith Normal Form.

GEN `ZM_snf`(GEN `x`) returns the Smith Normal Form (vector of elementary divisors) of the ZM `x`.

GEN `ZM_snfall`(GEN `x`, GEN `*U`, GEN `*V`) returns `ZM_smith(x)` and sets `U` and `V` to unimodular matrices such that  $U x V = D$  (diagonal matrix of elementary divisors). Either (or both) `U` or `V` may be NULL in which case the corresponding matrix is not computed.

GEN `ZM_snfall_i`(GEN `x`, GEN `*U`, GEN `*V`, int `returnvec`) same as `ZM_snfall`, except that, depending on the value of `returnvec`, we either return a diagonal matrix (as in `ZM_snfall`, `returnvec` is 0) or a vector of elementary divisors (as in `ZM_snf`, `returnvec` is 1) .

void `ZM_snfclean`(GEN `d`, GEN `U`, GEN `V`) assuming `d`, `U`, `V` come from `d = ZM_snfall(x, &U, &V)`, where `U` or `V` may be NULL, cleans up the output in place. This means that elementary divisors equal to 1 are deleted and `U`, `V` are updated. The output is not suitable for `gerepileupto`.

GEN `ZM_snf_group`(GEN `H`, GEN `*U`, GEN `*Uinv`) this function computes data to go back and forth between an abelian group (of finite type) given by generators and relations, and its canonical SNF form. Given an abstract abelian group with generators  $g = (g_1, \dots, g_n)$  and a vector  $X = (x_i) \in \mathbf{Z}^n$ , we write  $gX$  for the group element  $\sum_i x_i g_i$ ; analogously if  $M$  is an  $n \times r$  integer matrix  $gM$  is a vector containing  $r$  group elements. The group neutral element is 0; by abuse of notation, we still write 0 for a vector of group elements all equal to the neutral element. The input is a full relation matrix  $H$  among the generators, i.e. a ZM (not necessarily square) such that  $gX = 0$  for some  $X \in \mathbf{Z}^n$  if and only if  $X$  is in the integer image of  $H$ , so that the abelian group is isomorphic to  $\mathbf{Z}^n / \text{Im} H$ . *The routine assumes that  $H$  is in HNF; replace it by its HNF if it is not the case.* (Of course this defines the same group.)

Let  $G$  a minimal system of generators in SNF for our abstract group: if the  $d_i$  are the elementary divisors ( $\dots \mid d_2 \mid d_1$ ), each  $G_i$  has either infinite order ( $d_i = 0$ ) or order  $d_i > 1$ . Let  $D$  the matrix with diagonal  $(d_i)$ , then

$$GD = 0, \quad G = gU_{\text{inv}}, \quad g = GU,$$

for some integer matrices  $U$  and  $U_{\text{inv}}$ . Note that these are not even square in general; even if square, there is no guarantee that these are unimodular: they are chosen to have minimal entries given the known relations in the group and only satisfy  $D \mid (UU_{\text{inv}} - \text{Id})$  and  $H \mid (U_{\text{inv}}U - \text{Id})$ .

The function returns the vector of elementary divisors  $(d_i)$ ; if `U` is not NULL, it is set to  $U$ ; if `Uinv` is not NULL it is set to  $U_{\text{inv}}$ . The function is not memory clean.

The following 3 routines underly the various `matrixqz` variants. In all case the  $m \times n$  `t_MAT`  $x$  is assumed to have rational (`t_INT` and `t_FRAC`) coefficients

GEN `QM_ImQ_hnf`(GEN `x`) returns an HNF basis for  $\text{Im}_{\mathbf{Q}} x \cap \mathbf{Z}^n$ .

GEN `QM_ImZ_hnf`(GEN `x`) returns an HNF basis for  $\text{Im}_{\mathbf{Z}} x \cap \mathbf{Z}^n$ .

GEN `QM_minors_coprime`(GEN `x`, GEN `D`), assumes  $m \geq n$ , and returns a matrix in  $M_{m,n}(\mathbf{Z})$  with the same  $\mathbf{Q}$ -image as  $x$ , such that the GCD of all  $n \times n$  minors is coprime to  $D$ ; if  $D$  is NULL, we want the GCD to be 1.

The following routines are simple wrappers around the above ones and are normally useless in library mode:

GEN `hnf`(GEN `x`) checks whether  $x$  is a ZM, then calls `ZM_hnf`. Normally useless in library mode.

GEN `hnfmod`(GEN `x`, GEN `d`) checks whether  $x$  is a ZM, then calls `ZM_hnfmod`. Normally useless in library mode.

GEN `hnfmodid`(GEN `x`, GEN `d`) checks whether  $x$  is a ZM, then calls `ZM_hnfmodid`. Normally useless in library mode.

GEN `hnfall`(GEN `x`) calls `ZM_hnfall`(`x`, `&U`, 1) and returns  $[H, U]$ . Normally useless in library mode.

GEN `hnflll`(GEN `x`) calls `ZM_hnflll`(`x`, `&U`, 1) and returns  $[H, U]$ . Normally useless in library mode.

GEN `hnfperm`(GEN `x`) calls `ZM_hnfperm`(`x`, `&U`, `&P`) and returns  $[H, U, P]$ . Normally useless in library mode.

GEN `smith`(GEN `x`) checks whether  $x$  is a ZM, then calls `ZM_smith`. Normally useless in library mode.

GEN `smithall`(GEN `x`) checks whether  $x$  is a ZM, then calls `ZM_smithall`(`x`, `&U`, `&V`) and returns  $[U, V, D]$ . Normally useless in library mode.

Some related functions over  $K[X]$ ,  $K$  a field:

GEN `gsmith`(GEN `A`) the input matrix must be square, returns the elementary divisors.

GEN `gsmithall`(GEN `A`) the input matrix must be square, returns the  $[U, V, D]$ ,  $D$  diagonal, such that  $UAV = D$ .

GEN `smithclean`(GEN `z`) cleanup the output of `smithall` or `gsmithall` (delete elementary divisors equal to 1, updating base change matrices).

#### 12.4.2 The LLL algorithm.

The basic GP functions and their immediate variants are normally not very useful in library mode. We briefly list them here for completeness, see the documentation of `qflll` and `qflllgram` for details:

- GEN `qflll0`(GEN `x`, long `flag`)

GEN `lll`(GEN `x`) *flag*= 0

GEN `lllint`(GEN `x`) *flag*= 1

GEN `lllkerim`(GEN `x`) *flag*= 4

GEN `lllkeringen`(GEN `x`) *flag*= 5

GEN `lllgen`(GEN `x`) *flag*= 8

- GEN `qflllgram0`(GEN `x`, long `flag`)

GEN `lllgram`(GEN `x`) *flag*= 0

GEN `lllgramint`(GEN `x`) *flag*= 1

GEN `lllgramkerim`(GEN `x`) *flag*= 4

GEN `lllgramkeringen`(GEN `x`) *flag*= 5

GEN `lllgramgen`(GEN `x`) *flag*= 8

The basic workhorse underlying all integral and floating point LLLs is

GEN `ZM_lll`(GEN `x`, double `D`, long `flag`), where  $x$  is a ZM;  $D \in ]1/4, 1[$  is the Lovász constant determining the frequency of swaps during the algorithm: a larger values means better guarantees for the basis (in principle smaller basis vectors) but longer running times (suggested value:  $D = 0.99$ ).

**Important.** This function does not collect garbage and its output is not suitable for either `gerepile` or `gerepileupto`. We expect the caller to do something simple with the output (e.g. matrix multiplication), then collect garbage immediately.

`flag` is an or-ed combination of the following flags:

- **LLL\_GRAM.** If set, the input matrix  $x$  is the Gram matrix  ${}^t v v$  of some lattice vectors  $v$ .
- **LLL\_INPLACE.** If unset, we return the base change matrix  $U$ , otherwise the transformed matrix  $xU$  or  ${}^t U x U$  (**LLL\_GRAM**). Implies **LLL\_IM** (see below).
- **LLL\_KEEP\_FIRST.** The first vector in the output basis is the same one as was originally input. Provided this is a shortest non-zero vector of the lattice, the output basis is still LLL-reduced. This is used to reduce maximal orders of number fields with respect to the  $T_2$  quadratic form, to ensure that the first vector in the output basis corresponds to 1 (which is a shortest vector).

The last three flags are mutually exclusive, either 0 or a single one must be set:

- **LLL\_KER** If set, only return a kernel basis  $K$  (not LLL-reduced).
- **LLL\_IM** If set, only return an LLL-reduced lattice basis  $T$ . (This is implied by **LLL\_INPLACE**).
- **LLL\_ALL** If set, returns a 2-component vector  $[K, T]$  corresponding to both kernel and image.

`GEN lllfp(GEN x, double D, long flag)` is a variant for matrices with inexact entries:  $x$  is a matrix with real coefficients (types `t_INT`, `t_FRAC` and `t_REAL`),  $D$  and  $flag$  are as in `ZM_lll`. The matrix is rescaled, rounded to nearest integers, then fed to `ZM_lll`. The flag **LLL\_INPLACE** is still accepted but less useful (it returns an LLL-reduced basis associated to rounded input, instead of an exact base change matrix).

`GEN ZM_lll_norms(GEN x, double D, long flag, GEN *ptB)` slightly more general version of `ZM_lll`, setting `*ptB` to a vector containing the squared norms of the Gram-Schmidt vectors ( $b_i^*$ ) associated to the output basis ( $b_i$ ),  $b_i^* = b_i + \sum_{j < i} \mu_{i,j} b_j^*$ .

`GEN lllintpartial_inplace(GEN x)` given a `ZM x` of maximal rank, returns a partially reduced basis ( $b_i$ ) for the space spanned by the columns of  $x$ :  $|b_i \pm b_j| \geq |b_i|$  for any two distinct basis vectors  $b_i, b_j$ . This is faster than the LLL algorithm, but produces much larger bases.

`GEN lllintpartial(GEN x)` as `lllintpartial_inplace`, but returns the base change matrix  $U$  from the canonical basis to the  $b_i$ , i.e.  $xU$  is the output of `lllintpartial_inplace`.

### 12.4.3 Reduction modulo matrices.

`GEN ZC_hnfremdiv(GEN x, GEN y, GEN *Q)` assuming  $y$  is an invertible `ZM` in HNF and  $x$  is a `ZC`, returns the `ZC R` equal to  $x \bmod y$  (whose  $i$ -th entry belongs to  $[-y_{i,i}/2, y_{i,i}/2[$ ). Stack clean *unless*  $x$  is already reduced (in which case, returns  $x$  itself, not a copy). If  $Q$  is not `NULL`, set it to the `ZC` such that  $x = yQ + R$ .

`GEN ZM_hnfremdiv(GEN x, GEN y, GEN *Q)` reduce each column of the `ZM x` using `ZC_hnfremdiv`. If  $Q$  is not `NULL`, set it to the `ZM` such that  $x = yQ + R$ .

`GEN ZC_hnfrem(GEN x, GEN y)` alias for `ZC_hnfremdiv(x,y,NULL)`.

`GEN ZM_hnfrem(GEN x, GEN y)` alias for `ZM_hnfremdiv(x,y,NULL)`.

`GEN ZC_reducemodmatrix(GEN v, GEN y)` Let  $y$  be a `ZM`, not necessarily square, which is assumed to be LLL-reduced (otherwise, very poor reduction is expected). Size-reduces the `ZC v` modulo the  $\mathbf{Z}$ -module  $Y$  spanned by  $y$ : if the columns of  $y$  are denoted by  $(y_1, \dots, y_{n-1})$ , we return  $y_n \equiv v$



modulo  $Y$ , such that the Gram-Schmidt coefficients  $\mu_{n,j}$  are less than  $1/2$  in absolute value for all  $j < n$ . In short,  $y_n$  is almost orthogonal to  $Y$ .

**GEN ZM\_reducemodmatrix**(GEN  $v$ , GEN  $y$ ) Let  $y$  be as in **ZC\_reducemodmatrix**, and  $v$  be a ZM. This returns a matrix  $v$  which is congruent to  $v$  modulo the  $\mathbf{Z}$ -module spanned by  $y$ , whose columns are size-reduced. This is faster than repeatedly calling **ZC\_reducemodmatrix** on the columns since most of the Gram-Schmidt coefficients can be reused.

**GEN ZC\_reducemodlll**(GEN  $v$ , GEN  $y$ ) Let  $y$  be an arbitrary ZM, LLL-reduce it then call **ZC\_reducemodmatrix**.

**GEN ZM\_reducemodlll**(GEN  $v$ , GEN  $y$ ) Let  $y$  be an arbitrary ZM, LLL-reduce it then call **ZM\_reducemodmatrix**.

Besides the above functions, which were specific to integral input, we also have:

**GEN reducemodinvertible**(GEN  $x$ , GEN  $y$ )  $y$  is an invertible matrix and  $x$  a **t\_COL** or **t\_MAT** of compatible dimension. Returns  $x - y[y^{-1}x]$ , which has small entries and differs from  $x$  by an integral linear combination of the columns of  $y$ . Suitable for **gerepileupto**, but does not collect garbage.

**GEN closemodinvertible**(GEN  $x$ , GEN  $y$ ) returns  $x - \text{reducemodinvertible}(x, y)$ , i.e. an integral linear combination of the columns of  $y$ , which is close to  $x$ .

**GEN reducemodlll**(GEN  $x$ , GEN  $y$ ) LLL-reduce the non-singular ZM  $y$  and call **reducemodinvertible** to find a small representative of  $x \bmod y\mathbf{Z}^n$ . Suitable for **gerepileupto**, but does not collect garbage.

#### 12.4.4 Miscellaneous.

**GEN RM\_round\_maxrank**(GEN  $G$ ) given a matrix  $G$  with real floating point entries and independent columns, let  $G_e$  be the rescaled matrix  $2^e G$  rounded to nearest integers, for  $e \geq 0$ . Finds a small  $e$  such that the rank of  $G_e$  is equal to the rank of  $G$  (its number of columns) and return  $G_e$ . This is useful as a preconditioning step to speed up LLL reductions, see **nf\_get\_Gtwist**. Suitable for **gerepileupto**, but does not collect garbage.



## Chapter 13:

### Technical Reference Guide for Elliptic curves and arithmetic geometry

This chapter is quite short, but is added as a placeholder, since we expect the library to expand in that direction.

#### 13.1 Elliptic curves.

Elliptic curves are represented in the Weierstrass model

$$(E) : y^2z + a_1xyz + a_3yz = x^3 + a_2x^2z + a_4xz^2 + a_6z^3,$$

by the 5-tuple  $[a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_6]$ . Points in the projective plane are represented as follows: the point at infinity  $(0 : 1 : 0)$  is coded as `[0]`, a finite point  $(x : y : 1)$  outside the projective line at infinity  $z = 0$  is coded as  $[x, y]$ . Note that other points at infinity than  $(0 : 1 : 0)$  cannot be represented; this is harmless, since they do not belong to any of the elliptic curves  $E$  above.

*Points on the curve* are just projective points as described above, they are not tied to a curve in any way: the same point may be used in conjunction with different curves, provided it satisfies their equations (if it does not, the result is usually undefined). In particular, the point at infinity belongs to all elliptic curves.

As with `factor` for polynomial factorization, the 5-tuple  $[a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_6]$  implicitly defines a base ring over which the curve is defined. Point coordinates must be operation-compatible with this base ring (`gadd`, `gmul`, `gdiv` involving them should not give errors).

##### 13.1.1 Types of elliptic curves.

There are three types of elliptic curves structures: by increasing order of complexity, `ell5` (a 5-tuple as above), `smallell` (containing algebraic data defined over any domain), and `ell` (contains additional analytic data for curves defined over  $\mathbf{R}$  or  $\mathbf{Q}_p$ ). The last two types are produced by :

```
GEN smallellinit(GEN x)
```

```
GEN ellinit(GEN x, long prec), where x is an ell5
```

The last function `ellinit` generates a  $p$ -adic curve if and only if one of  $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_6$  has type `t_PADIC`, at the accuracy which is the minimum of their  $p$ -adic accuracy; otherwise a curve over  $\mathbf{R}$ . You may also call directly the underlying functions, which are not memory-clean:

```
GEN ellinit_padic(GEN x, GEN p, long e) initializes an ell over  $\mathbf{Q}_p$ , computing mod  $p^e$ . In this case the entries of  $x$  may have arbitrary type, provided that they can be converted to t_PADICs of accuracy  $e$  (via cvtop). Shallow function.
```

```
GEN ellinit_real(GEN x, long prec) initializes an ell over  $\mathbf{R}$ . Shallow function.
```

```
GEN ell_to_small_red(GEN e, GEN *N) takes an ell or smallell over the rationals, and returns a global minimal model for e, as a smallell. Sets *N to the conductor.
```

### 13.1.2 Extracting info from an `ell` structure.

These functions expect either a `smallell` or an `ell` argument. Both  $p$ -adic and real curves are supported in the latter case.

```
GEN ell_get_a1(GEN e)
GEN ell_get_a2(GEN e)
GEN ell_get_a3(GEN e)
GEN ell_get_a4(GEN e)
GEN ell_get_a6(GEN e)
GEN ell_get_b2(GEN e)
GEN ell_get_b4(GEN e)
GEN ell_get_b6(GEN e)
GEN ell_get_b8(GEN e)
GEN ell_get_c4(GEN e)
GEN ell_get_c6(GEN e)
GEN ell_get_disc(GEN e)
GEN ell_get_j(GEN e)
GEN ell_get_roots(GEN e)
```

### 13.1.3 Type checking.

```
void checkell(GEN e) raise an error unless  $e$  is a ell.
void checksmallell(GEN e) raise an error unless  $e$  is an ell or a smallell.
void checkell5(GEN e) raise an error unless  $e$  is an ell, a smallell or an ell5.
int ell_is_padic(GEN e) return 1 if  $e$  is an ell defined over  $\mathbf{Q}_p$ .
int ell_is_real(GEN e) return 1 if  $e$  is an ell defined over  $\mathbf{R}$ .
void checkell_real(GEN e) combines checkell and ell_is_real.
void checkell_padic(GEN e) combines checkell and ell_is_padic.
void checkellpt(GEN z) raise an error unless  $z$  is a point (either finite or at infinity).
```

### 13.1.4 Points.

```
int ell_is_inf(GEN z) tests whether the point  $z$  is the point at infinity.
GEN ellinf() returns the point at infinity [0].
```

### 13.1.5 Point counting.

`GEN ellap(GEN E, GEN p)` computes the trace of Frobenius  $a_p = p + 1 - \#E(\mathbf{F}_p)$  for the elliptic curve  $E/\mathbf{F}_p$  and the prime number  $p$ . The coefficients of the curve may belong to an arbitrary domain that `Rg_to_Fp` can handle. The equation must be minimal at  $p$ .

`GEN ellsea(GEN E, GEN p, long s)` available if the `seadata` package is installed. This function returns directly  $\#E(\mathbf{F}_p)$ , by computing it modulo  $\ell$  for many small  $\ell$ ; it is called by `ellap`: same conditions as above for  $E$ . The extra flag `s`, if set to a non-zero value, causes the computation to return `gen_0` (an impossible cardinality) if one of the small primes  $\ell > s$  divides the curve order. For cryptographic applications, where one is usually interested in curves of prime order, setting  $s = 1$  efficiently weeds out most uninteresting curves (if curves of order twice a prime are acceptable set  $s = 2$ ); there is no guarantee that the resulting cardinality is prime, only that it has no small prime divisor larger than  $s$ .

## 13.2 Other curves.

The following functions deal with hyperelliptic curves in weighted projective space  $\mathbf{P}_{(1,d,1)}$ , with coordinates  $(x, y, z)$  and a model of the form  $y^2 = T(x, z)$ , where  $T$  is homogeneous of degree  $2d$ , and squarefree. Thus the curve is nonsingular of genus  $d - 1$ .

`long hyperell_locally_soluble(GEN T, GEN p)` assumes that  $T \in \mathbf{Z}[X]$  is integral. Returns 1 if the curve is locally soluble over  $\mathbf{Q}_p$ , 0 otherwise.

`long nf_hyperell_locally_soluble(GEN nf, GEN T, GEN pr)` let  $K$  be a number field, associated to `nf`, `pr` a *prid* associated to some maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{p}$ ; assumes that  $T \in \mathbf{Z}_K[X]$  is integral. Returns 1 if the curve is locally soluble over  $K_{\mathfrak{p}}$ .



## Appendix A:

### A Sample program and Makefile

We assume that you have installed the PARI library and include files as explained in Appendix A or in the installation guide. If you chose differently any of the directory names, change them accordingly in the Makefiles.

If the program example that we have given is in the file `extgcd.c`, then a sample Makefile might look as follows. Note that the actual file `examples/Makefile` is more elaborate and you should have a look at it if you intend to use `install()` on custom made functions, see Section ??.

```
CC = cc
INCDIR = /usr/include
LIBDIR = /usr/lib
CFLAGS = -O -I$(INCDIR) -L$(LIBDIR)

all: extgcd

extgcd: extgcd.c
        $(CC) $(CFLAGS) -o extgcd extgcd.c -lpari -lm
```

We then give the listing of the program `examples/extgcd.c` seen in detail in Section 4.9.

```
#include <pari/pari.h>
/*
GP;install("extgcd", "GG&&", "gcdex", "./libextgcd.so");
*/

/* return d = gcd(a,b), sets u, v such that au + bv = gcd(a,b) */
GEN
extgcd(GEN A, GEN B, GEN *U, GEN *V)
{
    pari_sp av = avma;
    GEN ux = gen_1, vx = gen_0, a = A, b = B;
    if (typ(a) != t_INT || typ(b) != t_INT) pari_err(typeer, "extgcd");
    if (signe(a) < 0) { a = negi(a); ux = negi(ux); }
    while (!gequal0(b))
    {
        GEN r, q = dvmdii(a, b, &r), v = vx;
        vx = subii(ux, mulii(q, vx));
        ux = v; a = b; b = r;
    }
    *U = ux;
    *V = diviiexact( subii(a, mulii(A,ux)), B );
    gerepileall(av, 3, &a, U, V); return a;
}

int
main()
```

```

{
    GEN x, y, d, u, v;
    pari_init(1000000,2);
    printf("x = "); x = gp_read_stream(stdin);
    printf("y = "); y = gp_read_stream(stdin);
    d = extgcd(x, y, &u, &v);
    pari_printf("gcd = %Ps\nu = %Ps\nv = %Ps\n", d, u, v);
    pari_close();
    return 0;
}

```



## Appendix B:

### PARI and threads

To use PARI in multi-threaded programs, you must configure it using `Configure --enable-tls`. Your system must implement the `__thread` storage class. As a major side effect, this breaks the `libpari` ABI: the resulting library is not compatible with the old one, and `-tls` is appended to the PARI library `soname`. On the other hand, this library is now thread-safe.

PARI provides some functions to set up PARI subthreads. In our model, each concurrent thread needs its own PARI stack. The following scheme is used:

Child thread:

```
void *child_thread(void *arg)
{
    GEN data = pari_thread_start((struct pari_thread*)arg);
    GEN result = ...; /* Compute result from data */
    pari_thread_close();
    return (void*)result;
}
```

Parent thread:

```
pthread_t th;
struct pari_thread pth;
GEN data, result;

pari_thread_alloc(&pth, s, data);
pthread_create(&th, NULL, &child_thread, (void*)&pth); /* start child */
... /* do stuff in parent */
pthread_join(th, (void*)&result); /* wait until child terminates */
result = gcopy(result); /* copy result from thread stack to main stack */
pari_thread_free(&pth); /* ... and clean up */
```

`void pari_thread_alloc(struct pari_thread *pth, size_t s, GEN arg)` Allocate a PARI stack of size `s` and associate it, together with the argument `arg`, with the PARI thread data `pth`.

`void pari_thread_free(struct pari_thread *pth)` Free the PARI stack associated with the PARI thread data `pth`. This is called after the child thread terminates, i.e. after `pthread_join` in the parent. Any GEN objects returned by the child in the thread stack need to be saved before running this command.

`void pari_thread_init(void)` Initialize the thread-local PARI data structures. This function is called by `pari_thread_start`.

`GEN pari_thread_start(struct pari_thread *t)` Initialize the thread-local PARI data structures and set up the thread stack using the PARI thread data `pth`. This function returns the thread argument `arg` that was given to `pari_thread_alloc`.

`void pari_thread_close(void)` Free the thread-local PARI data structures, but keeping the thread stack, so that a GEN returned by the thread remains valid.

Under this model, some PARI states are reset in new threads. In particular

- the random number generator is reset to the starting seed;
- the system stack exhaustion checking code, meant to catch infinite recursions, is disabled (use `pari_stackcheck_init()` to reenale it);
- cached real constants (returned by `mppi`, `mpeuler` and `mplog2`) are not shared between threads and will be recomputed as needed;
- error handlers (set with `trap()`) are reset.

The following sample program can be compiled using

```
cc thread.c -o thread.o -lpari -lpthread
```

(Add `-I/-L` paths as necessary.)

```
#include <pari/pari.h> /* Include PARI headers */
#include <pthread.h>    /* Include POSIX threads headers */

void *
mydet(void *arg)
{
    GEN F, M;
    /* Set up thread stack and get thread parameter */
    M = pari_thread_start((struct pari_thread*) arg);
    F = det(M);
    /* Free memory used by the thread */
    pari_thread_close();
    return (void*)F;
}

void *
myfactor(void *arg) /* same principle */
{
    GEN F, N;
    N = pari_thread_start((struct pari_thread*) arg);
    F = factor(N);
    pari_thread_close();
    return (void*)F;
}

int
main(void)
{
    GEN M,N1,N2, F1,F2,D;
    pthread_t th1, th2, th3; /* POSIX-thread variables */
    struct pari_thread pth1, pth2, pth3; /* pari thread variables */

    /* Initialise the main PARI stack and global objects (gen_0, etc.) */
    pari_init(4000000,500000);
```

```

/* Compute in the main PARI stack */
N1 = addis(int2n(256), 1); /*  $2^{256} + 1$  */
N2 = subis(int2n(193), 1); /*  $2^{193} - 1$  */
M = mathilbert(80);
/* Allocate pari thread structures */
pari_thread_alloc(&pth1,4000000,N1);
pari_thread_alloc(&pth2,4000000,N2);
pari_thread_alloc(&pth3,4000000,M);
/* pthread_create() and pthread_join() are standard POSIX-thread
   * functions to start and get the result of threads. */
pthread_create(&th1,NULL, &myfactor, (void*)&pth1);
pthread_create(&th2,NULL, &myfactor, (void*)&pth2);
pthread_create(&th3,NULL, &mydet, (void*)&pth3); /* Start 3 threads */
pthread_join(th1,(void*)&F1);
pthread_join(th2,(void*)&F2);
pthread_join(th3,(void*)&D); /* Wait for termination, get the results */
pari_printf("F1=%Ps\nF2=%Ps\nlog(D)=%Ps\n", F1, F2, glog(D,3));
pari_thread_free(&pth1);
pari_thread_free(&pth2);
pari_thread_free(&pth3); /* clean up */
return 0;
}

```

## Index

*SomeWord* refers to PARI-GP concepts.  
*SomeWord* is a PARI-GP keyword.  
*SomeWord* is a generic index entry.

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