Superfast Algorithms for Cauchy-like Matrix Computations and Extensions*†

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Summary. An effective algorithm of Morf, 1974, 1980, and Bitmead and Anderson, 1980, computes the solution $\vec{x} = T^{-1}\vec{b}$ to a strongly nonsingular Toeplitz or Toeplitz-like linear system $T\vec{x} = \vec{b}$, a short displacement generator for the inverse T^{-1} of T, and det T. We extend this algorithm to the similar computations with $n \times n$ Cauchy and Cauchy-like matrices. Recursive

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executing $O(nr^2\log^3 n)$ arithmetic operations, where r is the scaling rank of the input Cauchy-like matrix C (r=1 if C is a Cauchy matrix). Consequently, the same cost bound applies to the computation of the determinant of C, a short scaling generator of C^{-1} , and the solution to a nonsingular linear system of n equations with such a matrix C. (Our algorithm does not use the reduction to Toeplitz-like computations.) We also relax the assumptions of strong nonsingularity and even nonsingularity of the input not only for the computations in the field of complex or real numbers but even where the algorithm runs in an arbitrary field. We achieve this by using randomization, and we also show a certain improvement of the respective algorithm by Kaltofen for Toeplitz-like computations in an arbitrary field. Our subject has close correlation to rational tangential (matrix) interpolation under passivity condition (e.g., to Nevanlinna-Pick tangential interpolation problems) and has further impact on the decoding of algebraic codes.

Key words: Cauchy-like matrices, displacement rank, scaling rank, fast algorithms, matrix factorization, finite fields, rational interpolation.

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1 Introduction

There are several important classes of dense matrices whose entries (as well as the entries of their inverses) have simple expressions via a few parameters $(O(n) \text{ for } n \times n \text{ matrices})$ and whose special structure is used in order to accelerate computations with such matrices dramatically. For example, for an $n \times n$ Toeplitz matrix $T = [t_{i-j}]$, its product by a vector can be computed in

$$T_{Mv}(n) = O(n \log n) \tag{1.1}$$

arithmetic operations by using FFT, versus $2n^2-n$ such operations for general matrices. (Hereafter, we refer to arithmetic operations as to ops; for numerical computations we could have used the customary nomenclature of flops, but we prefer "ops" to cover also exact computations in finite fields.) Furthermore, the well-known algorithm of [M74], [M80], and [BA80] (hereafter, we refer to it as to the MBA algorithm) rapidly computes recursive triangular factorization of T, as well as T^{-1} , det T, and the solution $\vec{x} = T^{-1}\vec{b}$ to a linear system $T\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ or its least-squares (normal equations) solution $(T^HT)^{-1}T^H\vec{b}$, for T^H denoting the Hermitian transpose of

1. Namely, the algorithm uses a total of

$$T_{RF}(n) = O(T_{Mv}(n)\log n) = O(n \log^2 n)$$
 (1.2)

ops. Furthermore, the algorithm and the latter complexity bound can be applied to the wider class of Toeplitz-like matrices, having structure of Toeplitz type, which is formally defined in terms of the associated displacement operators [KKM79], and the power of the algorithm hinges of exploiting the fundamental concept of the displacement rank of matrices introduced in the seminal paper [KKM79]. It became a natural technical challenge to extend such an algorithm for the cited Toeplitz-like matrix computations to other classes of dense structured matrices, in particular, to Cauchy-like matrices (also called generalized Cauchy matrices [H95]). Such matrices appear, for example, in applications to rational interpolation [D74], [OP99] and rational matrix (tangential) interpolation under the passivity conditions (e.g., to Nevanlinna-Pick and Nehari matrix interpolation problems) [GO94c], [OP98], conformal mapping [T86], and numerical solution of integral equations [Rok85], [Re90] and have special structure naturally defined in terms of the associated scaling operators.

Due to the difference from Toeplitz-like structure, the Cauchy-like extension of the MBA algorithm is not straightforward. In particular, the treatment of the associated scaling operators (versus displacement operators) requires distinct techniques. Furthermore, additional techniques (not available in [M74], [M80], and [BA80]) are needed to ensure nonsingularity of the auxiliary block matrices that ought to be inverted, particularly, in the cases of computations in finite fields and/or with singular input matrices. We elaborate such an extension in our present paper, thus meeting the cited technical challenge. We use

$$C_{RF}(n) = O(C_{Mv}(n)\log n)$$
(1.3)

ops, where $C_{Mv}(n)$ denotes the complexity of multiplication of an $n \times n$ Cauchy matrix by a vector, well known as Trummer's problem. With application of FFT, Trummer's problem can be solved in

$$C_{Mv}(n) = O(n\log^2 n) \tag{1.4}$$

ops [Ger87], [GO94a], [GO94b], which is off by factor log n from the bound (1.1). Substitution of (1.4) into (1.3) yields the complexity bound of $C_{RF}(n) = O(n \log^3 n)$ ops for Cauchy-like recursive triangular factorization and, consequently, for the related Cauchy-like computations

The complexity bound is slightly inferior to the Toeplitz-like case bound (1.2), leaving some room for further improvement, but still keeps our algorithms in the class of the so called *superfast* algorithms, that is, running in nearly linear time, versus the straightforward algorithms using order of n^3 ops and various well known fast algorithms running in quardratic time.

If we only wished to extend the asymptotic bound $O(n \log^2 n)$ of (1.2) to the Cauchy and Cauchy-like matrix inversion and linear system solving, then it would have been sufficient to apply either the algorithm of [Gast60] in the Cauchy case or (in the more general Cauchy-like case) the techniques of [P89/90] for the reduction (at the cost of $O(n \log^2 n)$) from Cauchy-like to Toeplitz-like computations. In fact, the techniques of [P89/90] can be also applied to make the converse transition from Toeplitz-like to Cauchy-like computations, and here these techniques can be simplified [H95], [GKO95, Sec.3], [P99], [P2000], to yield the FFT based transition in $O(n \log n)$ time, which implies fundamental role of Cauchy-like computations. In particular, based on this transition, practically effective Toeplitz and Toeplitz-like solvers have been devised in [GKO95] and further studied in subsequent papers by M. Gu.

The transition from Cauchy-like to Toeplitz-like computations, however, has not been refined since [P89/90]; it requires order of $n \log^2 n$ ops and involves the solution of a Vandermonde linear system, which generally leads to some additional numerical problems. (In spite of several advanced Vandermonde solvers available [BP70], [H88], [H90], [L94], [L95], [GO96], [L96], Vandermonde linear systems are well-known for being ill-conditioned [Ga75], [Ga90].) Our algorithm may also lead to numerical difficulties at the stage of the solution of Trummer's problem, but here one at least has an option of applying Rokhlin's approximation algorithm of [Rok85] or Fast Multipole Algorithms [GR87], which substantially improve the known exact solution algorithms for Trummer's problem for a large class of inputs, in terms of both numerical stability and the ops count. It is an open problem how much Rokhlin's and Fast Multipole's restrictions on the input are restrictive in the context of solving Trummer's problem within our algorithm. Some techniques were proposed recently in [PACLS98], [PACPS98] in order to relax such restrictions. On the other hand, in some applications of Cauchy and Cauchy-like matrices (e.g., to Goppa codes), the computations are performed over the finite fields, where no numerical problems arise. In particular, numerical problems do not arise in sections 5, 6, and 7 of our paper, where we elaborate extension of our algorithm to computations in finite helds or any field. There we apply some special techniques for avoiding singularity of auxiliary blocks, in particular, randomization techniques, which replace symmetrization, applied in the real and complex cases. We cannot generally apply FFT over any field, so in sections 5-7 we rely on polynomial multiplication as our basic operation, instead of FFT. Then bounds (1.1) and (1.4) turn into the bounds

$$T_{Mv}(n) = O(P_M(n)),$$
 (1.5)

$$C_{Mv}(n) = O(P_M(n)\log n) \tag{1.6}$$

provided that $P_M(n)$ ops suffice for computing the product of two polynomials of degree at most n (or computing a polynomial product modulo x^{2n+1}). We have

$$P_M(n) = O(n\log n) \tag{1.7}$$

if the ground field of constants (assumed for the computations) supports FFT and the bound

$$P_M(n) = O((n \log n) \log \log n), \tag{1.8}$$

over any field of constants [CK91]. Thus, allowing computations over any field increases our cost estimates only by factor $O(\log \log n)$. To similify the expressions for the cost estimates, we will state them ignoring the latter factor.

Like MBA and the algorithms of [H95], [L94], [L95], and [L96], our algorithms include the divide-and-conquer techniques. In fact, some $n \times n$ Cauchy-like matrix inversion algorithms and a nonsingular Cauchy-like linear solver using $O(n\log^3 n)$ ops were presented in [H95] based on the known rational interpolation interpretation of these computations (cf. [BGR90] on the background and many details of this topic and cf. [OP98] for extensive bibliography). Furthermore, an improvement to using only $O(n\log^2 n)$ ops via transformation to rational interpolation at the roots of 1 was also shown in [H95]. Then again, the latter step is the straightforward interpolation interpretation of the transformations from Cauchy-like to Toeplitz-like matrices introduced in [P89/90]. Recall that Cauchy-like matrices whose basic pair of vectors is formed by the roots of 1 can be immediately transformed by means of FFT into Toeplitz-like matrices and vice versa (cf. [H95], [GKO95]). We believe that both approaches (that is, the matrix and interpolation ones) are important and may enrich each other. Conceptually, we are closer to MBA than to the latter cited algorithms because we do not use operations with the associated polynomials (e.g., such as their interpolation) but directly partition the input matrix

and exploit its structure expressed in terms of the associated linear operators. This enables us to apply the known matrix computation techniques in order to improve our computations further, for instance, to use symmetrization, randomization and other tools in order to handle singularity and degeneracy.

Furthermore, the matrix approach seems to be more universal, that is, more easily extendable to various classes of matrix structure, as this was demonstrated by the more recent study, covered in our section 8 (Conclusions and Further Progress), which briefly surveys some development during several years followed the submission of the present paper. In particular, this development showed interesting correlation of the directions proposed in this paper to the study of some celebrated problems of rational tangential (matrix) interpolation, whose numerically stable solutions requires recursive triangular factorization (and not just inversion) of Cauchy-like matrices, and to the decoding of algebraic codes, reduced to computations in finite fields with singular structured matrices.

Apart from section 8, we organize our paper as follows. In section 2, we recall some definitions and auxiliary facts. In sections 3 and 4, we present and analyze our main algorithm assuming strong nonsingularity of the input matrix. In section 5, we show how to apply symmetrization and/or randomization in order to ensure nonsingularity when we perform this algorithm in the real or complex fields and in arbitrary fields, respectively. In sections 6 and 7, we consider the extension of our Cauchy-like solvers to the case of a singular input as well as the related problem of the design of Toeplitz-like singular solvers. In Appendix A, we recall some algorithms for Trummer's problem of multiplication of a Cauchy matrix by a vector and for solving Cauchy linear systems of equations.

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2 Some Definitions and Basic Facts

Definition 2.1. Hereafter we will write $D(\vec{v}) = diag(v_0, v_1, \dots, v_{n-1})$ for $\vec{v} = (v_0, v_1, \dots, v_{n-1})^T$. W^T and \vec{v}^T will denote the transposes of a matrix W and a vector \vec{v} , respectively.

for a pair of n-dimensional vectors $\vec{q} = (q_i)$ and $\vec{t} = (t_j)$, $q_i \neq t_j$, $i, j = 0, \dots, n-1$, an $n \times n$ matrix $A \in \mathbf{F}^{n \times n}$ is called a Cauchy-like matrix if

$$F_{[D(\vec{q}),D(\vec{t})]}(A) = D(\vec{q})A - AD(\vec{t}) = GH^{T},$$
(2.1)

 $G, H \in \mathbf{F}^{n \times r}$, and the integer r is bounded by a constant independent of n or, more generally, if according to a certain fixed measure, r is small relatively to n. Furthermore, the pair of matrices (G, H^T) of (2.1) is called a $[D(\vec{q}), D(\vec{t})]$ -generator (or a scaling generator) of a length (at most) r for A and is hereafter denoted $s.g._r(A)$. The minimum r allowing the above representation (2.1) is equal to rank $F_{[D(\vec{q}),D(\vec{t})]}(A)$ and is called the $[D(\vec{q}),D(\vec{t})]$ -rank (or the scaling rank) of A.

We will next recall some known properties of Cauchy-like matrices.

Lemma 2.1 [GO94a]. Let $A, \ \vec{q}, \ \vec{t}, \ G = [\vec{g}_1, \cdots, \vec{g}_r] = (\vec{u_i}^T)_{i=0}^{n-1} \in \mathbf{F}^{n \times r}, \ H = [\vec{h}_1, \cdots, \vec{h}_r] = (\vec{v_j}^T)_{j=0}^{n-1} \in \mathbf{F}^{n \times r}$ be as in Definition 2.2, such that (2.1) holds. Then

$$A = \sum_{m=1}^{r} diag(\vec{g}_m) C(\vec{q}, \vec{t}) diag(\vec{h}_m) = \left(\frac{\vec{u}_i^T \vec{v}_j}{q_i - t_j}\right)_{i,j=0}^{n-1},$$
(2.2)

where $C(\vec{q}, \vec{t})$ is a Cauchy matrix. Conversely, (2.2) implies (2.1).

It follows from (2.2) that (2.1) is satisfied by matrices A of the form $\left(\frac{\vec{u_i}^T \vec{v_j}}{q_i - t_j}\right)_{i,j=0}^{n-1}$, where $\vec{u_i}$ and $\vec{v_j}$ are r-dimentional vectors for $i, j = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$. A Cauchy matrix and a Loewner matrix $\left(\frac{r_i - s_j}{q_i - t_j}\right)_{i,j=0}^{n-1}$ are two important special cases of Cauchy-like matrices; they have $[D(\vec{q}), D(\vec{t})]$ -ranks 1 and (at most) 2, respectively.

Lemma 2.2 (see appendix A, [Ger87], or [OP99]). Given an $n \times n$ Cauchy matrix A and an n-dimensional vector \vec{v} , the product $A\vec{v}$ can be computed in $O(n \log^2 n)$ ops. Consequently, if A is an $n \times n$ Cauchy-like matrix given with an $s.g._r(A)$, then the product $A\vec{v}$ can be computed in $O(nr\log^2 n)$ ops.

Lemma 2.3. Let $A_i \in \mathbf{F}^{n \times n}$, i = 1, 2, be two Cauchy-like matrices such that $F_{[D(\vec{q}_i),D(\vec{q}_{i+1})]}(A_i) = G_i H_i^T$, G_i , $H_i \in \mathbf{F}^{n \times r_i}$, i = 1, 2; $\vec{q}_j \in \mathbf{F}^{n \times 1}$, j = 1, 2, 3, and all components of the vector \vec{q}_1 are distinct from all components of the vector \vec{q}_3 . Then the matrix $A = A_1 A_2$ is a Cauchy-like matrix with $F_{[D(\vec{q}_1),D(\vec{q}_3)]}(A) = GH^T$, $G = [G_1,A_1G_2]$, $H = [A_2^T H_1,H_2]$, G, $H \in \mathbf{F}^{n \times r}$, $r = r_1 + r_2$. Furthermore, $O(nr_1r_2\log^2 n)$ ops suffice to compute its scaling generator of a length at most r.

Prooi. Observe that

$$F_{[D(\vec{q}_1),D(\vec{q}_3)]}(A_1A_2) = G_1H_1^TA_2 + A_1G_2H_2^T = GH^T,$$

 $G = [G_1, A_1G_2], H = [A_2^TH_1, H_2].$ To deduce the desired complexity bound of $O(nr_1r_2\log^2 n)$ ops for obtaining G and H, apply Lemmas 2.1 and 2.2.

Remark 2.1. Lemma 2.3 can be easily extended to the computation of the product of k Cauchy-like matrices for any fixed integer $k \geq 2$.

Lemma 2.4 [H95]. Let A denote an $n \times n$ nonsingular Cauchy-like matrix with $F_{[D(\vec{q}),D(\vec{t})]}(A) = GH^T$, $G = [\vec{g}_1, \dots, \vec{g}_r] \in \mathbf{F}^{n \times r}$, $H = [\vec{h}_1, \dots, \vec{h}_r] \in \mathbf{F}^{n \times r}$. Then A^{-1} is also a Cauchy-like matrix such that $F_{[D(\vec{t}),D(\vec{q})]}(A^{-1}) = -UV^T$, where the matrices $U = [\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_r] \in \mathbf{F}^{n \times r}$, $V = [\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_r] \in \mathbf{F}^{n \times r}$ satisfy AU = G, $V^T A = H^T$.

Proof. Pre- and post-multiply equation (2.1) by A^{-1} .

Corollary 2.1. Under the assumptions of Lemma 2.4, we have rank $F_{[D(\vec{t}),D(\vec{q})]}(A^{-1}) \leq r$.

Lemma 2.5. Let $I = [i_1, \dots, i_k]$, $J = [j_1, \dots, j_d]$, $D(\vec{q}_I) = diag(q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_k})$, $D(\vec{t}_J) = diag(t_{j_1}, \dots, t_{j_d})$. Let a Cauchy-like matrix A satisfy (2.1) and let $B_{I,J}$ be a $k \times d$ submatrix of A, $1 \leq k, d \leq n$. Then $B_{I,J}$ is a Cauchy-like matrix with a $[D(\vec{q}_I), D(\vec{t}_J)]$ -generator of a length at most r.

Proof. Deduce from (2.1) that

$$B_{I,J} = \left(\frac{\vec{u_i}^T \vec{v_j}}{q_i - t_j}\right)_{i=i_1, j=j_1}^{i_k, j_d}$$

and recall (2.2).

Lemma 2.6. Let A and B denote a pair of $n \times n$ Cauchy-like matrices. Let A satisfy (2.2) and let

$$F_{[D(\vec{q}),D(\vec{t})]}(B) = D(\vec{q})B - BD(\vec{t}) = XW^{T},$$

$$B = (\frac{\vec{x_i}^{T}\vec{w_j}}{q_i - t_j})_{i,i=0}^{n-1},$$

where $X^T = [\vec{x}_0, \dots, \vec{x}_{n-1}] \in \mathbf{F}^{r_1 \times n}$, $W^T = [\vec{w}_0, \dots, \vec{w}_{n-1}] \in \mathbf{F}^{r_1 \times n}$. Then the matrices A + B and A - B are Cauchy-like matrices associated with a $[D(\vec{q}), D(\vec{t})]$ -generator of length at most $r + r_1$.

Proof. We have

$$A - B = \left(\frac{\vec{z_i}^T \vec{y_j}}{q_i - t_j}\right)_{i,j=0}^{n-1},$$

where $z_i^- = (u_i^-, x_i^-), y_j^- = (v_j^-, -w_j^-)$, that is, $z_i, y_j \in \mathbf{F}^{(i+i+j)}$, which proves the lemma for the matrix A - B (the proof for the matrix A + B is similar).

Lemma 2.7 (cf. [C841]). An $n \times n$ Cauchy matrix $C(\vec{q}, \vec{t})$ is well-defined and nonsingular if and only if all the 2n components of the vectors \vec{q} and \vec{t} are distinct. Furthermore, every square submatrix of a nonsingular Cauchy matrix is nonsingular.

3 Recursive factorization of a strongly nonsingular matrix

Definition 3.1. A matrix W is strongly nonsingular if all its leading principal submatrices are nonsingular.

Hereafter I (or I_s) denotes the $s \times s$ identity matrix, O denotes a null matrix of appropriate size.

For an $n \times n$ strongly nonsingular matrix A, we have the following identities:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} I & O \\ EB^{-1} & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} B & O \\ O & S \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I & B^{-1}C \\ O & I \end{pmatrix}, \tag{3.1}$$

$$A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} I & -B^{-1}C \\ O & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} B^{-1} & O \\ O & S^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I & O \\ -EB^{-1} & I \end{pmatrix}, \tag{3.2}$$

where

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} B & C \\ E & J \end{pmatrix}, \qquad S = J - EB^{-1}C, \tag{3.3}$$

B is a $k \times k$ matrix, and S is an $(n-k) \times (n-k)$ matrix, called the *Schur complement of B* in A. Factorization (3.1) represents block Gauss-Jordan elimination applied to the 2×2 block matrix A of (3.3). If the matrix A is strongly nonsingular, then the Schur complement matrix S can be obtained in n-k steps of Gaussian elimination.

We have the following simple results (see, e.g., [BP94], Exercise 2.4 on page 212 and Proposition 2.2.3):

Lemma 3.1. If A is strongly nonsingular, so are B and S.

Lemma 3.2. Let A be an $n \times n$ strongly nonsingular matrix and let S be defined by (3.3). Let A_1 be a leading principal submatrix of S and let S_1 denote the Schur complement of A_1 in S. Then S^{-1} and S_1^{-1} form the respective southeastern blocks of A^{-1} .

Lemma 3.3. If (3.1) holds, then det A = (det B)det S.

Due to Lemma 3.1, we may extend the factorization (3.1) of a strongly nonsingular matrix A to the submatrix B and to its Schur complement S, and we may recursively continue this decomposition process until we complete it by arriving at 1×1 matrices (compare [St69], [M80], [BA80]). In this process, we descend from A to the matrices B, C, E, and S, and then we similarly descend recursively from B and S to their submatrices and Schur complements. At these descending stages, we only identify the matrices involved in the recursion but do not compute them. For their actual computation, we recursively proceed bottom up, that is, we first invert the 1×1 leading principal submatrix A_1 of A, then use A_1^{-1} to compute the Schur complement S_1 of A_1 in the 2×2 leading principal submatrix A_2 of A, then invert the 1×1 matrix S_1 and the 2×2 matrix A_2 . In the latter case, we rely on the factorization of A_2 in the form (3.2), where the inverses A_1^{-1} and S_1^{-1} have already been computed. We recursively continue this lifting process until we arrive at A^{-1} . As a by-product, we compute all the matrices defined in the recursive descending process. The entire computation will be called the CRF (or complete recursive factorization) of A. Besides the inversion of 1×1 matrices, the CRF only requires matrix multiplications and subtractions.

Hereafter, we will always assume balanced CRFs, that is, we will balance the factorization (3.1) in its first step, such that B is the $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor \times \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$ submatrix of A, and we will maintain the similar balancing property in all the subsequent recursive steps. The balanced CRF has depth at most $d = \lceil \log_2 n \rceil$.

Let us summarize and formalize our description in the form of a recursive algorithm.

Algorithm 3.1. Recursive triangular factorization and inversion of a strongly nonsingular matrix.

Input: a strongly nonsingular $n \times n$ matrix A of (2.2).

Output: balanced CRF of A, including the matrix A^{-1} .

Computations:

- 1. Apply Algorithm 3.1 to the matrix B (replacing A as its input) in order to compute the balanced CRF of B (including B^{-1}).
 - 2. Compute the Schur complement $S = J EB^{-1}C$.
- 3. Apply Algorithm 3.1 to the matrix S (replacing A as its input) to compute the balanced CRF of S (including S^{-1}).

4. Compute A = from (3.2).

Clearly, given A^{-1} and a vector \vec{b} , we may immediately compute the vector $\vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{b}$. If we also seek det A, then it suffices to add the request for computing det B, det S, and det A at stages 1, 3, and 4, respectively.

4 Recursive factorization of a strongly nonsingular Cauchylike matrix

Hereafter, we will assume for simplicity that $n=2^d$ is an integer power of 2. We write $\vec{q}=(q_i)_{i=0}^{n-1}, \ \vec{q}^{(1)}=(q_i)_{i=0}^{\frac{n}{2}-1}, \ \vec{q}^{(2)}=(q_i)_{i=\frac{n}{2}}^{n-1}, \ \vec{t}=(t_i)_{i=0}^{n-1}, \ \vec{t}^{(1)}=(t_i)_{i=0}^{\frac{n}{2}-1}, \ \vec{t}^{(2)}=(t_i)_{i=\frac{n}{2}}^{n-1}.$

We will start with some auxiliary results.

Lemma 4.1. Let A be an $n \times n$ strongly nonsingular Cauchy-like matrix with $F_{[D(\vec{q}),D(\vec{t})]}(A) = GH^T$, G, $H \in \mathbf{F}^{n \times r}$. Let A, B, C, E, J, and S satisfy (3.3). Then

$$rankF_{[D(\vec{t}), D(\vec{q})]}(A^{-1}) \le r, \qquad rankF_{[D(\vec{t}^{(1)}), D(\vec{q}^{(1)})]}(B^{-1}) \le r, \tag{4.1}$$

$$rankF_{[D(\vec{q}^{(2)}), D(\vec{t}^{(2)})]}(S) \le r,$$
 (4.2)

$$rankF_{[D(\vec{t}^{(2)}), D(\vec{q}^{(2)})]}(S^{-1}) \le r,$$
 (4.3)

$$rankF_{[D(\vec{q}^{(1)}), D(\vec{t}^{(2)})]}(C) \le r, \qquad rankF_{[D(\vec{q}^{(2)}), D(\vec{t}^{(1)})]}(E) \le r.$$

$$(4.4)$$

Proof. Deduce (4.4) from Lemma 2.5. By applying Corollary 2.1, obtain (4.1). Now, due to Lemmas 3.2 and 2.5, we have (4.3). Then we apply Corollary 2.1 to the matrix $S = (S^{-1})^{-1}$ and obtain (4.2).

Fact 4.1 (cf. Proposition A.6 of [P92b], [P93a], [BP94], Problem 2.2.11b, G-COMPRESS). Given an $s.g._{r^*}(A) = (G, H)$ and the scaling rank r of A, $r < r^* \le n$, one can compute an $s.g._{r}(A)$ by using $O(r^2n)$ ops.

Now we are ready to present the computational complexity estimates.

Theorem 4.1. Let A denote an $n \times n$ strongly nonsingular Cauchy-like matrix with its F-generator of a length r for the operator $F = F_{[D(\vec{q}),D(\vec{t})]}$. Then the respective F-generators of all the matrices encountered in the balanced CRF of A (including an $s.g._r(A^{-1})$) can be computed in $O(nr^2 \log^3 n)$ ops and can be stored by using $O(nr \log n)$ words of storage space; furthermore,

 $O(nr^2 \log^2 n)$ ops and $O(nr \log n)$ words of storage space suffice in this case in order to compute $\det A$.

Proof. Let us apply the fast version of Algorithm 3.1 to the matrix A of Theorem 4.1, that is, instead of slower computations with more numerous entries of the matrices involved in the CRF, let us perform faster computations with much fewer entries of their short scaling generators. Let $\phi_r(n)$ ops be involved in computing the balanced CRF of A (including the computation of an $s.g._r(A^{-1})$). Furthermore, let $\sigma_r(n)$ ops be used for computing an $s.g._r(S)$ from given $s.g._r(B^{-1})$, $s.g._r(C)$, $s.g._r(-E)$, and $s.g._r(J)$ (cf. (3.3)), and let $\mu_r(n)$ ops be required for computing an $s.g._r(A^{-1})$ from given $s.g._r(B^{-1})$, $s.g._r(C)$, $s.g._r(E)$, and $s.g._r(S^{-1})$ (cf. (3.2)). This is summarized in the table 1.

Table 1

Input	s.gr(A)	$s.gr(B^{-1}), s.gr(C),$	$s.gr(B^{-1}), s.gr(C), =$
		s.gr(-E), s.gr(J)	s.gr(E), s.gr(S)
Output	CRF of A	s.gr(S)	$s.gr(A^{-1})$
ops	$\phi_r(n)$	$\sigma_r(n)$	$\mu_r(n)$

Let $\phi_r(k)$, $\sigma_r(k)$, and $\mu_r(k)$ denote the similar estimates where the input matrix A is replaced by a strongly nonsingular $k \times k$ matrix W given with an $s.g._r(W)$. For simplicity, let n be even. Then, in view of Lemma 4.1, the examination of Algorithm 3.1 gives us the bound

$$\phi_r(n) \le 2\phi_r(\frac{n}{2}) + \sigma_r(n) + \mu_r(n). \tag{4.5}$$

By expanding (3.2), we deduce that

$$A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} B^{-1} + B^{-1}CS^{-1}EB^{-1} & -B^{-1}CS^{-1} \\ -S^{-1}EB^{-1} & S^{-1} \end{pmatrix}.$$
(4.6)

Now we apply Lemmas 2.3, 2.5, 2.6, 4.1, and Fact 4.1 and deduce that

$$\sigma_r(n) = O(nr^2 \log^2 n), \quad \mu_r(n) = O(nr^2 \log^2 n).$$
 (4.7)

Substitute (4.7) into (4.5), recursively extend (4.5), and deduce that

$$\phi_r(n) = O(nr^2 \log^3 n),$$

which gives us the arithmetic time bound of Theorem 4.1. The storage space bound follows similarly when we inspect Algorithm 3.1 applied to the matrix A and apply Lemmas 2.3, 2.5, 2.6, and 4.1.

Remark 4.1. The proof of Theorem 4.1 actually gives us the bound $O(r^2C_{Mv}(n)\log n)$ on the number of ops involved in Algorithm 3.1 applied to an $n \times n$ strongly nonsingular matrix A given with an $s.g._r(A)$ (cf. (1.3), (1.4)). A similar argument leads to the bound $O(r^2T_{Mv}(n)\log n)$ for the MBA algorithm applied to an $n \times n$ Toeplitz-like matrix A given with its displacement generator of length at most r.

The computations by the algorithm supporting Theorem 4.1 can be a little simplified at the stage of computing Schur complements, based on the following simple but helpful result (this does not change the asymptotic complexity estimates of the theorem).

Proposition 4.2 [GO94c]. Let A be a Cauchy-like matrix of Lemma 2.4, partitioned into blocks according to (3.1). Let (G_0, H_0) , (G_0, H_1) , (G_1, H_0) , (G_1, H_1) and (G_S, H_S) denote the five induced scaling generators of the blocks B, C, E, J of A and of the Schur complement S of (3.3), respectively. Then $G_S = G_1 - EB^{-1}G_0$, $H_S^T = H_1^T - H_0^TB^{-1}C$.

Remark 4.2 The latter result appeared in [GO94c] in the context of a particular problem of rational interpolation, not as a tool for recursive factorization or superfast matrix computation. [P99] and [P2000] show some further extensions of this result to various other classes of structured matrices.

5 Ensuring strong nonsingularity of a nonsingular Cauchylike matrix by means of symmetrization or randomization

We have showed how to compute det A and the balanced CRF of A (including an $s.g._r(A^{-1})$), assuming strong nonsingularity of the matrix A. To extend this solution to the case of any nonsingular matrix A, we will seek a strongly nonsingular $n \times n$ preconditioner matrix X, such that the matrix AX is strongly nonsingular. Then we may apply our machinery to the matrices X and AX or XA, compute $(AX)^{-1} = X^{-1}A^{-1}$ or $(XA)^{-1} = A^{-1}X^{-1}$, det (AX)=det (XA), and det X, and obtain $A^{-1} = X(AX)^{-1} = (XA)^{-1}X$ and det $A = \det(AX)/\det X$. Further-

more, in the case where A is a singular matrix, the same algorithm will involve a division by 0 and thus will show us that det A = 0. In fact, we will also extend our algorithm to computing the rank of A, in Remark 5.2.

If our computation is performed in the field of real numbers (or in its subfield), then we can choose $X = A^T$. Indeed, the matrix $XA = A^TA$ is positive definite and consequently strongly nonsingular provided that A is nonsingular. Moreover, suppose that the matrix A is replaced by (A^TA) in (3.1)–(3.3). In this case, the condition numbers of the northwestern block B of A^TA , of the Schur complement S of the block B in A^TA (cf.(3.3)), and consequently of the similar matrices of smaller sizes computed in all subsequent steps of CRF do not exceed the condition number of A^TA (cf. [GL89/96] or [BP94], Fact 2.1.4 and page 237). As a byproduct, we immediately arrive at a least-squares (normal equations) solution $(A^TA)^{-1}A^T\vec{b}$ to a Cauchy-like linear system $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ for a Cauchy-like $m \times n$ rectangular matrix A having full rank $n, n \le m$.

A problem arises, however, when we apply Lemma 2.1 to the matrices A^TA and AA^T . Indeed, if we replace the matrix A in (2.1) by these matrices, then we also ought to replace $F_{[D(\vec{q}),D(\vec{t})]}$ by $F_{[D(\vec{t}),D(\vec{t})]}$ or $F_{[D(\vec{q}),D(\vec{q})]}$, respectively, and the assumption $q_i \neq t_j$ of Definition 2.2 is not extended. To exploit Cauchy-like structure of matrices W associated with the operators of the form $F_{[D(\vec{t}),D(\vec{t})]}$, we may operate with W represented as the product $C^{-1}(\vec{q},\vec{t})Y$, where $Y = C(\vec{q},\vec{t})W$ and $C^{-1}(\vec{q},\vec{t})$ are Cauchy-like matrices.

Symmetrization is easily extended to the case of computations in the field of complex numbers (use Hermitian transpose of A instead of A^T) but does not work for computations in finite fields. Over any field, however, we will solve our problem based on a distinct approach. Namely, we will obtain a desired preconditioner matrix X by using randomization based on the following simple but fundamental result (note that the estimate involved in this result is sharp and depends only on the total degree but not on the number m of variables):

Lemma 5.1 [DL78], [Sch80], [Z79]. Let $p(x) = p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m)$ be a nonzero m-variate polynomial of a total degree d. Let S be a finite set in the domain of the definition of p(x). Let $\vec{x}^* = (x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_m^*)$ be a point in S^m , where the random values x_1^*, \dots, x_m^* are chosen in S independently of each other and under the uniform probability distribution on S. Then

$$probability(p(\vec{x}^*) = 0) \le \frac{d}{|S|},$$

where |S| = cara(S) is the cardinality of S.

Hereafter, we will fix a sufficiently large finite set S from which we will choose all random values that we need. We will always choose them from S independently of each other and assuming the uniform probability distribution of S, to be able to apply Lemma 5.1. Then application of Lemma 5.1 will ensure (with a high probability) that, for an $n \times n$ nonsingular Cauchy-like matrix A given with its $F_{[D(\vec{q}),D(\vec{t})]}$ -generator of a length r and for an $n \times n$ matrix X defined by its $F_{[D(\vec{t}),D(\vec{s})]}$ -generator with random entries, the matrix AX is strongly nonsingular. Namely, we will arrive at the following result (see an alternative approach in the next section):

Theorem 5.1. Let A be an $n \times n$ nonsingular Cauchy-like matrix satisfying the equation (2.2). Let X be a matrix satisfying $X = YC(\vec{q}, \vec{s})$,

$$Y = \sum_{m=1}^{r} diag(\vec{g_m}) C(\vec{t}, \vec{q}) diag(\vec{h}_m^*) , \qquad (5.1)$$

where $C(\vec{q}, \vec{s}) = (\frac{1}{q_i - s_j})_{i,j=0}^{n-1}$ is a fixed nonsingular Cauchy matrix, $\vec{q} \in C^{n \times 1}$, $\vec{t} \in C^{n \times 1}$, $\vec{s} \in C^{n \times 1}$, \vec{q} and \vec{t} are as in Lemma 2.4, $q_i \neq s_j$, $s_i \neq t_j$ for all pairs of i and j, $g_m^* \in C^{n \times 1}$, $h_m^* \in C^{n \times 1}$, $m = 1, \dots, r$, and the 2nr components of the 2r latter vectors are random values from a fixed finite set S. Then, with a probability at least $1 - \frac{n(n+1)}{|S|}$, AX is a strongly nonsingular Cauchy-like matrix having an $F_{[D(\vec{q}),D(\vec{s})]}$ -rank of at most 2r+1.

Proof. First consider matrix Y of (5.1), where the random vectors $\vec{g_m}$ and $\vec{h_m}$ are replaced by generic vectors whose components are indeterminates. Recall that the $F_{[D(\vec{t}),D(\vec{q})]}$ -rank of A^{-1} is at most r, due to Lemma 2.4. Therefore, there exists an assignment of values to the components of the vectors $\vec{g_m}$, $\vec{h_m}$, for which we have AY = I, and then the matrix $AX = C(\vec{q}, \vec{s})$ is strongly nonsingular (cf. Lemma 2.7). On the other hand, the determinants of the $k \times k$ leading principal submatrices $(AX)_k$ of AX are polynomials of degrees at most 2k in the coordinates of $\vec{g_m}$, $\vec{h_m}$. Since $AX = C(\vec{q}, \vec{s})$ for a particular assignment, these polynomials are not identically 0 if the components are indeterminates. Therefore, by Lemma 5.1, we obtain that

$$probability(det(AX)_k \neq 0, k = 1, \dots, n) \ge \prod_{k=1}^{n} (1 - \frac{2k}{|S|}) \ge 1 - \frac{n(n+1)}{|S|}.$$

By combining Theorems 4.1 and 5.1 with Lemma 5.1, we obtain the following result:

Corollary 5.1. Let an $n \times n$ nonsingular Cauchy-like matrix A be given with its F-generator of a length r for the operator $F = F_{[D(\vec{q}),D(\vec{t})]}$. Then an $F_{[D(\vec{t}),D(\vec{q})]}$ -generator of a length at most r for A^{-1} can be computed by means of a randomized algorithm using 2nr random parameters and $O(nr^2\log^3 n)$ ops and failing with a probability at most $\frac{n(n+1)}{|S|}$.

Proof. Let us define X as above, by using 2nr random parameters. By the virtue of Theorem 5.1, with a probability at least $1 - \frac{n(n+1)}{|S|}$, the Cauchy-like matrix AX is strongly nonsingular. If it is strongly nonsingular, then by the virtue of Theorem 4.1, we may compute the matrices $(AX)^{-1}$ and $A^{-1} = X(AX)^{-1}$ by using a total of $O(nr^2 \log^3 n)$ ops. Finally, we will decrease to r the length of the computed F-generator of A^{-1} by applying Fact 4.1.

Remark 5.1. Note that $C(\vec{t}, \vec{q})$ is a (strongly) nonsingular Cauchy matrix and easily deduce from Lemma 5.1 that the matrix X is strongly nonsingular as well, with a probability at least $1 - \frac{n(n+1)}{|S|}$. On the other hand, if X is a strongly nonsingular matrix, then by Theorem 4.1, we may compute det (AX), det X, and then det $A = \frac{\det(AX)}{\det X}$ at the randomized cost $O(nr^2 \log^3 n)$.

Remark 5.2. As we have already mentioned, we may extend the computation of det A to the case where A is singular. (Our algorithm either correctly computes det A or fails to compute the CRF of the matrix AX, that is, requires a division by 0 at some point, but in the latter case det A = 0 with a probability at least (1 - n(n+1)/|S|)(1 - n/|S|).) Furthermore, the algorithm can be easily extended to the computation of $\rho = \text{rank } A$. Indeed, with a probability at least $\frac{\rho(\rho+1)}{|S|}$, $\rho \times \rho$ is equal to the maximum size of a nonsingular leading principal submatrix of the matrix AX where X is the matrix X of Theorem 5.1. Such a maximum size is computed as by-product of our algorithm (of section 4) supporting Theorem 4.1 and applied to the matrix AX. This computation still has the same randomized cost of $O(n\rho^2 \log^3 n)$ ops.

Remark 5.3. Our algorithms and complexity estimates can be applied in any algebraic field in which a nonsingular $n \times n$ Cauchy-like matrix is defined. The definition of such a matrix requires at least 2n distinct components of \vec{q} and \vec{t} . To apply Theorem 5.1, we need at least 3n distinct components of \vec{q} , \vec{s} , and \vec{t} . The extra elements (up to n) can be added by means of algebraic extension of the original field. This entails minor increase of the computational cost (by a constant factor).

rasi Cauchy-like Computations - Singular Case

Studying the solution of a singular Cauchy-like linear system, we will use the next result and definition.

Lemma 6.1 [K94]. Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix of rank ρ with entries from a fixed field \mathbf{F} and with the nonsingular $\rho \times \rho$ leading principal submatrix A_{ρ} . Then for any vector \vec{y} from \mathbf{F}^n the vector

$$\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{\rho}^{-1} \vec{b}' \\ \vec{0} \end{pmatrix} - \vec{y}$$

is a solution to the linear system $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$, where the vector \vec{b} consists of the first ρ coordinates of $\vec{b} + A\vec{y}$ and $\vec{0}$ denotes the null vector of dimension $n - \rho$.

Definition 6.1. Let A_i be the $i \times i$ leading principal submatrix of A, where $1 \le i \le n$. We say that A has generic rank profile if the submatrices A_j are nonsingular for all integers j in the range $1 \le j \le \text{rank } A$.

The next theorem extends the results known in the Toeplitz-like case (cf. [KS91] or [BP94], p.206) to the Cauchy-like case and may also be applied as an alternative to Theorem 5.1 in the case where the input Cauchy-like matrix is nonsingular (see Remark 6.1 of this section).

Theorem 6.1. For an $n \times n$ Cauchy-like matrix A of rank ρ represented by an $s.g._r(A)$ and satisfying (2.1) and (2.2), consider the matrix product $\overline{A} = LAM$, where L and M are also Cauchy-like matrices with scaling generators of length 1. Assume the following relations:

$$F_{[D(\vec{s}),D(\vec{q})]}(L) = YZ^{T},$$

$$F_{[D(\vec{t}),D(\vec{p})]}(M) = XW^{T},$$

$$\vec{y}^{T} = [y_{1}, \dots, y_{n}] \in \mathbf{F}^{n}, \ \vec{z}^{T} = [z_{1}, \dots, z_{n}] \in \mathbf{F}^{n},$$

$$\vec{x}^{T} = [x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}] \in \mathbf{F}^{n}, \ \vec{w}^{T} = [w_{1}, \dots, w_{n}] \in \mathbf{F}^{n},$$

$$L = \left(\frac{y_{i+1}z_{j+1}}{s_{i} - q_{j}}\right)_{i,j=0}^{n-1}, \ M = \left(\frac{x_{i+1}w_{j+1}}{t_{i} - p_{j}}\right)_{i,j=0}^{n-1},$$

where the entries of the vectors \vec{y} , \vec{z} , \vec{x} , and \vec{w} are random and are selected independently of each other from a fixed finite subset S of the field \mathbf{F} assuming the uniform probability distribution on S, where S does not contain 0. Let s_i , q_j , p_k be all pairwise different for $i, j, k = 0, \dots, n-1$. Then

(1) L and M are strongly nonsingular matrices and

(2) with a provability no less than

$$1 - \frac{2\rho(\rho+1)}{|S|}$$

 \overline{A} has generic rank profile.

Proof: Part (1) follows from (2.2) and Lemma 2.7 since S does not contain 0. Let us prove part (2). For an $n \times n$ matrix D, denote by $D_{I,J}$ the determinant of the submatrix of D formed by removing from D all rows not contained in the set I and all columns not contained in the set J. First, let $\vec{y}, \vec{z}, \vec{x}$, and \vec{w} be generic vectors. For $I = [1, 2, \dots, i], J = [j_1, j_2, \dots, j_i], K = [k_1, k_2, \dots, k_i], i = 1, 2, \dots, \rho$, we have from the Cauchy-Binet formula that

$$\overline{A}_{I,I} = \sum_{J} \sum_{K} L_{I,J} A_{J,K} M_{K,I}.$$

Let us prove that

$$\overline{A}_{I,I} \neq 0 \ for \ i = 1, \ 2, \ \cdots, \ \rho \ .$$
 (6.1)

Observe that, for a fixed pair of $J = [j_1, j_2, \dots, j_i]$ and $K = [k_1, k_2, \dots, k_i]$, the determinant $L_{I,J}$ has the unique term

$$ay_1y_2\cdots y_iz_{j_1}\cdots z_{j_i},$$

where $a \neq 0$ is a constant. Likewise, $M_{K,I}$ has the unique term

$$bx_{k_1}\cdots x_{k_i}w_1\cdots w_i$$
,

where $b \neq 0$ is a constant. Therefore, $\overline{A}_{I,I} \neq 0$ provided that there exists a pair J, K such that $A_{J,K} \neq 0$. This is true for all $i \leq \rho$, since A has rank ρ , and we arrive at (6.1).

Now we are ready to deduce part (2) of Theorem 6.1. Indeed, $\overline{A}_{I,I}$ is a polynomial of degree at most 4i in the coordinates of the variables y_m, z_m, x_m, w_m . Therefore, under the random choice of the values of these variables specified in Theorem 6.1, we apply Lemma 5.1 and obtain that

$$probability(\overline{A}_{I,I} \neq 0, i = 1, \dots, \rho) \geq \prod_{i=1}^{\rho} (1 - \frac{4i}{|S|}) \geq 1 - \frac{2\rho(\rho+1)}{|S|}.$$

This proves part (2) of Theorem 6.1.

Remark 6.1. If the input Cauchy-like matrix is nonsingular, we may apply Theorem 6.1 as an alternative to Theorem 5.1. The application of Theorem 6.1 rather than Theorem 5.1, requires

by factor 2/r fewer random parameters (4n versus 2nr), involves scaling generators of roughly half length (r+2 versus 2r+1), but doubles the probability of errors ($\frac{2n(n+1)}{|S|}$ versus $\frac{n(n+1)}{|S|}$).

To prove Theorem 6.1, we devised an algorithm that for an $n \times n$ Cauchy-like matrix A of rank ρ given with an $s.g._r(A)$, computes a random pair $s.g._1(L)$ and $s.g._1(M)$, where L and M are $n \times n$ Cauchy-like matrices having scaling rank 1 and such that, with a probability no less than $1 - \frac{2\rho(\rho+1)}{|S|}$, the matrix $\overline{A} = LAM$ has generic rank profile. Furthermore, by using Lemma 2.3, we compute $s.g._{r+2}(\overline{A})$ at the cost of performing at most $O(r^2n\log^2 n)$ ops.

Now, we assume that we have been already given $s.g._1(L)$, $s.g._1(M)$, and $s.g._{r+2}(\overline{A})$ for a pair of nonsingular matrices L and M and an $n \times n$ matrix $\overline{A} = LAM$ having generic rank profile and propose the following algorithm:

Algorithm 6.1. Computing the largest nonsingular leading principal inverse.

Input: vectors $\vec{q} = (q_i)_{i=0}^{n-1}$, $\vec{t} = (t_j)_{j=0}^{n-1}$, $q_i \neq t_j$, $i, j = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$, and $\vec{g}_1, \dots, \vec{g}_{r+2}, \vec{h}_1, \dots, \vec{h}_{r+2}$ such that the Cauchy-like matrix

$$\overline{A} = \sum_{m=1}^{r+2} diag(\vec{g}_m) C(\vec{q}, \vec{t}) diag(\vec{h}_m)$$

has generic rank profile.

Output: An integer $\rho \leq n$ and vectors $\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_{\overline{r}}, \vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_{\overline{r}}, \vec{u}_m, \vec{v}_m \in C^{n \times 1}, m = 1, 2, \dots, \overline{r}, \overline{r} \leq r + 2$, such that $\rho = \operatorname{rank} \overline{A}$ and

$$\overline{A}_{\rho}^{-1} = \sum_{m=1}^{\overline{r}} diag(\vec{u}_m) C(\vec{t}, \vec{q}) diag(\vec{v}_m).$$

- 1. Represent \overline{A} as $\overline{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \overline{B} & \overline{C} \\ \overline{E} & \overline{J} \end{pmatrix}$, cf. (3.3), where $k = \lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil$, and the $k \times k$ submatrix \overline{B} of \overline{A} is singular if and only if $k > \rho$ (since \overline{A} has generic rank profile). Apply Algorithm 6.1 recursively to the input matrix \overline{B} replacing \overline{A} . (Note that we are given an $s.g._r(\overline{B})$.) If $\rho < k$, the output of this stage is the desired output of the algorithm. Otherwise, the matrix \overline{B} is nonsingular, and then we obtain $s.g._r(\overline{B}^{-1})$.
 - **2.** Apply Algorithm 3.1 to compute an $s.g._r(\overline{S})$ for the matrix $\overline{S} = \overline{J} \overline{E} \ \overline{B}^{-1} \overline{C}$.
- 3. Apply the algorithm recursively to the Cauchy-like input matrix \overline{S} , replacing \overline{A} . Output $\rho = \operatorname{rank} \overline{A} = k + \operatorname{rank} \overline{S}$.
- **4.** By using the definitions and the results of section 2, compute an $s.g._{2r+4}(\overline{A}_{\rho}^{-1})$ (see our further comments below).

5. Apply Fact 4.1, to compute and output $s.g._{r+2}(A_{\rho})$.

Let us specify stage 4. Consider the
$$\rho \times \rho$$
 leading principal submatrix, $\overline{A}_{\rho} = \begin{pmatrix} \overline{B} & \overline{G} \\ \overline{D} & \overline{R} \end{pmatrix}$,

$$\overline{G}, \ \overline{D}^T \in C^{k \times (\rho - k)}, \ \overline{R} \in C^{(\rho - k) \times (\rho - k)}.$$

Write $\hat{S} = \overline{R} - \overline{D} \ \overline{B}^{-1} \overline{G}$. Note that at the preceding stages we have computed $s.g._{r+2}(\overline{G})$, $s.g._{r+2}(\overline{D}), \ s.g._{r+2}(\overline{B}^{-1}), \ s.g._{r+2}(\overline{DB}^{-1}), \ s.g._{r+2}(\overline{B}^{-1}\overline{G}), \ \text{and} \ s.g._{r+2}(\hat{S}^{-1}) \ (\text{cf. Theorem 4.1}).$ Represent \overline{A}_{ρ}^{-1} as follows:

$$\overline{A}_{\rho}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} B_{1,1} & B_{1,2} \\ B_{2,1} & \overline{S}^{-1} \end{pmatrix},$$

where $B_{1,2} = -\overline{B}^{-1}\overline{G} \ \overline{S}^{-1}$, $B_{2,1} = -\overline{S}^{-1}\overline{D} \ \overline{B}^{-1}$, $B_{1,1} = \overline{B}^{-1} - B_{1,2}\overline{D} \ \overline{B}^{-1}$ (cf. (4.6)). Due to Lemma 2.5 and Corollary 2.1, the matrices $B_{1,1}$, $B_{1,2}$, $B_{2,1}$, and \overline{S}^{-1} have scaling rank at most r+2, and we may apply Fact 4.1, Algorithm 3.1, and the results of section 2 in order to compute the respective short scaling generators of these matrices. Let us specify the operators defining these generators. Write $\vec{q}^{\;(1)} = (q_i)_{i=0}^{k-1}$, $\vec{q}^{\;(2)} = (q_i)_{i=k}^{\rho-1}$, $\vec{t}^{\;(1)} = (t_i)_{i=0}^{k-1}$, $\vec{t}^{\;(2)} = (t_i)_{i=0}^{k-1}$, $\vec{t}^{\;(2)} = (t_i)_{i=0}^{k-1}$, $\vec{t}^{\;(2)} = (t_i)_{i=0}^{\rho-1}$, $\vec{t}^{\;(2)} = (t$

$$F_{[D(\vec{t}^{(0)}),\ D(\vec{q}^{(0)})]}(\overline{A}_{\rho}^{-1}) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} diag(\vec{t}^{(1)}) & O \\ O & diag(\vec{t}^{(2)}) \end{array} \right) \overline{A}_{\rho}^{-1} - \overline{A}_{\rho}^{-1} \left(\begin{array}{cc} diag(\vec{q}^{(1)}) & O \\ O & diag(\vec{q}^{(2)}) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ O & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ O & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ O & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ O & -1 \\ O & -1 & -1 \\ O & -1 \\$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc} F_{[D(\vec{t}^{\;(1)}),\;D(\vec{q}^{\;(1)})]}(B_{1,1}) & F_{[D(\vec{t}^{\;(1)}),\;D(\vec{q}^{\;(2)})]}(B_{1,2}) \\ F_{[D(\vec{t}^{\;(2)}),\;D(\vec{q}^{\;(1)})]}(B_{2,1}) & F_{[D(\vec{t}^{\;(2)}),\;D(\vec{q}^{\;(2)})]}(\hat{S}^{-1}) \end{array} \right),$$

which gives us an $s.g._{2r+4}(\overline{A}_{\rho}^{-1})$.

To solve a singular Cauchy-like linear system $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$, first compute a vector \vec{y} that satisfies $LAM\vec{y} = L\vec{b}$ and then recover the vector $\vec{x} = M\vec{y}$ that satisfies $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$. Since L and M are nonsingular, rank $A = \operatorname{rank}(LAM)$. By using $O(rn\log^2 n)$ ops we may verify if $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$.

7 Extension to Solving Singular Toeplitz-like Linear Systems

If we need to solve a singular Toeplitz-like linear system, which is a major operation in signal processing and computing Padé approximation, we may reduce the problem to Cauchy-like innear system [H95], [GKO95] and then apply our algorithm of section 6. It is more effective, however, to extend the techniques of section 6 directly to solving singular Toeplitz-like system, and we will next do this, improving the previous best randomized algorithm of [K94]. (We use fewer ops and random parameters and yield lower failure probability. In particular, we use 2n parameters versus order of $n \log n$ used in [K94]; we achieve this improvement based on a tool from [P92], cf. our Lemma 7.4.)

Definition 7.1 (cf., e.g., [BP94], Definition 2.11.1). For an $n \times n$ matrix T, define the two displacement operators,

$$F_{-}(T) = T - \tilde{Z}^{T}T\tilde{Z}, \quad F_{+}(T) = T - \tilde{Z}T\tilde{Z}^{T}, \tag{7.1}$$

where

$$ilde{Z} = \left(egin{array}{cccc} 0 & & & & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & & & & \\ & 1 & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ 0 & & & 1 & 0 \end{array}
ight)$$

is a down shift $n \times n$ matrix. If for $F = F_+$ or $F = F_-$, we have

$$F(T) = G^* H^{*T}, (7.2)$$

where G^* , $H^* \in \mathbf{F}^{n \times r}$ for a fixed field \mathbf{F} (say, for $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{C}$), then the pair of matrices (G^*, H^*) is called an F-generator or a displacement generator of T of length r and will be denoted $d.g._r(T)$. The minimum r allowing the above representation (7.2) is called the F-rank or the displacement rank of T. T is called a Toeplitz-like matrix if r is small relative to n.

Next, we will recall some known properties of Toeplitz-like matrices.

Lemma 7.1 [BA80]. For any $n \times n$ matrix A,

rank
$$F_{-}(A) - 2 \le \text{rank } F_{+}(A) \le \text{rank } F_{-}(A) + 2.$$

Furthermore, given a $d.g._r(T)$ under $F = F_+$ (resp. $F = F_-$), it suffices to use $O(rT_{Mv}(n))$ ops (for $T_{Mv}(n)$ of (1.5), (1.7), (1.8)) in order to compute a $d.g._{r+2}(T)$ under $F = F_-$ (resp. $F = F_+$).

Lemma 7.2 [KKM79]. Let F_-, F_+, T, G^*, H^* , and r be as in (7.1) and (7.2). Then $F(T) = G^*H^{*T} = \sum_{i=1}^r \vec{g_i^*}(\vec{h_i^*})^T$ if and only if

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^{r} L^{T}(\vec{g_{i}^{*}}) L(\vec{h}_{i}^{*}) \text{ for } F = F_{-}, \ T = \sum_{i=1}^{r} L(\vec{g_{i}^{*}}) L^{T}(\vec{h}_{i}^{*}) \text{ for } F = F_{+},$$
 (7.3)

where $G^* = [g_1, \dots, g_r^*]$, $H^* = [h_1, \dots, h_r^*]$, and L(v) is a lower triangular Toeplitz matrix with the first column \vec{v} .

Lemma 7.4 (cf. Proposition A.6 of [P92], [P93], or [BP94], Problem 2.2.11b, G-COMPRESS). Given an $d.g._{r^*}(A) = (G, H)$ and the displacement rank r of A, $r < r^* \le n$, one can compute $d.g._r(A)$ by using $O(r^2n)$ ops.

Lemma 7.5 [KKM79]. Let T be a nonsingular Toeplitz-like matrix. Then rank $F_{+}(T^{-1}) = \operatorname{rank} F_{-}(T)$.

Lemma 7.6 (cf. [M80], [BA80], [BP94]). Let T be an $n \times n$ strongly nonsingular Toeplitz-like matrix such that

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} B & C \\ E & J \end{pmatrix}, \qquad S = J - EB^{-1}C,$$

B is a $k \times k$ matrix, and S is the $(n-k) \times (n-k)$ Schur complement of B in T (cf. (3.3)). Let $r = \operatorname{rank} F_+(T)$. Then

rank
$$F_{-}(S^{-1}) = \operatorname{rank} F_{+}(S) \leq r$$
,
rank $F_{-}(B^{-1}) = \operatorname{rank} F_{+}(B) \leq r$,
rank $F_{+}(S^{-1}) = \operatorname{rank} F_{-}(S) \leq r + 2$,
rank $F_{+}(B^{-1}) = \operatorname{rank} F_{-}(B) \leq r + 2$.

Proof. Definition 7.1 implies that rank $F_+(B) \leq r$ and, together with Lemma 3.2, that rank $F_-(S^{-1}) \leq \text{rank } F_-(T^{-1})$. The lemma now follows from Lemmas 7.1 and 7.5. \Box Theorem 7.1 (cf. [K94]). For an $n \times n$ matrix T of rank ρ , consider the matrix product $\tilde{T} = UTL$, where U^T and L are two unit lower triangular Toeplitz matrices whose 2n-2

elements are randomly and independently of each other selected from a subset S of a fixed field containing the entries of T, under the uniform probability distribution on S. Then \tilde{T} has generic rank profile with a probability no less than

$$1 - \frac{\rho(\rho+1)}{|S|}.$$

Now, suppose that in Theorem 7.1 we have a Toeplitz-like matrix T represented by its $s.g._r(T)$ satisfying (7.1) and (7.2) for $F = F_+$. Then, due to Lemma 7.3, we may compute $d.g._r(\tilde{T})$ at the cost of performing at most $2r^2P_{M,\mathbf{F}}(n)$ ops.

Now, we assume that we have been already given a $d.g._r(\tilde{T})$ for an $n \times n$ matrix \tilde{T} having generic rank profile. We propose the following algorithm:

Algorithm 7.1. Computing the largest nonsingular leading principal inverse.

Input: a field \mathbf{F} and vectors $\vec{\tilde{g}}_1, \dots, \vec{\tilde{g}}_r, \vec{\tilde{h}}_1, \dots, \vec{\tilde{h}}_r$ from \mathbf{F}^n such that the Toeplitz-like matrix

$$\tilde{T} = \sum_{i=1}^{r} L^{T}(\vec{\tilde{g}}_{i})L(\vec{\tilde{h}}_{i})$$

has generic rank profile.

Output: An integer $\rho \leq n$ and vectors $\vec{\tilde{u}}_1, \dots, \vec{\tilde{u}}_r, \ \vec{\tilde{v}}_1, \dots, \vec{\tilde{v}}_r$, such that $\vec{\tilde{u}}_m, \vec{\tilde{v}}_m \in \mathbf{F}^n, \ m = 1, 2, \dots, r, \ \rho = \mathrm{rank} \ \tilde{T}$, and

$$\tilde{T}_{\rho}^{-1} = \sum_{m=1}^{r} L(\vec{\tilde{u}}_m) L^T(\vec{\tilde{v}}_m).$$

- 1. Represent \tilde{T} as $\tilde{T} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{B} & \tilde{C} \\ \tilde{E} & \tilde{J} \end{pmatrix}$, as in (3.3), for $k = \lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil$, where the $k \times k$ submatrix \tilde{B} of \tilde{T} is singular if and only if $k > \rho$ (since \tilde{T} has generic rank profile). Apply Algorithm 7.1 recursively to the input matrix \tilde{B} replacing \tilde{T} . (Note that the first k components of the given vectors $\vec{\tilde{g}}_i$ and $\vec{\tilde{h}}_i$ define a $d.g._r(\tilde{B})$.) If $\rho \geq k$, the output of this stage is the desired output of the algorithm. Otherwise, the matrix \tilde{B} is nonsingular, and then we obtain a $d.g._{r+2}(\tilde{B}^{-1})$ for $F = F_-$ and a $d.g._r(\tilde{B}^{-1})$ for $F = F_+$.
- **2.** Apply Lemma 7.3 to compute a $d.g._r(\tilde{S})$ for the matrix $\tilde{S} = \tilde{J} \tilde{E} \ \tilde{B}^{-1}\tilde{C}$ and for $F = F_+$.
- 3. Apply the algorithm recursively to the Toeplitz-like input matrix \tilde{S} , replacing \tilde{T} . Output $\rho = \operatorname{rank} \tilde{T} = k + \operatorname{rank} \tilde{S}$.

4. By using the Definition 7.1 and Lemmas 7.1-7.6, compute $s.g._r(I_{\rho}^{-1})$ for $F = F_+$ (see some further comments below).

Let us specify stage 4. Consider the $\rho \times \rho$ leading principal submatrix, $\tilde{T}_{\rho} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{B} & \tilde{G} \\ \tilde{D} & \tilde{R} \end{pmatrix}$,

$$\tilde{G}, \ \tilde{D}^T \in C^{k \times (\rho - k)}, \ \tilde{R} \in C^{(\rho - k) \times (\rho - k)}$$

Write $\check{S} = \tilde{R} - \tilde{D} \ \tilde{B}^{-1} \tilde{G}$. Note that at the preceding stages we have computed $d.g._r(\tilde{G})$ and $d.g._r(\tilde{D})$ for $F = F_-$, $d.g._r(\tilde{B}^{-1})$, $d.g._{2r+1}(-\tilde{B}^{-1}\tilde{G})$, $d.g._{2r+1}(-\tilde{D}\tilde{B}^{-1})$, and $d.g._r(\check{S}^{-1})$ for $F = F_+$. We obtain the following block representation:

$$ilde{T}_{
ho}^{-1} = \left(egin{array}{ccc} & M_{1,1} & M_{1,2} \ & & & reve{S}^{-1} \end{array}
ight),$$

where $M_{1,2} = -\tilde{B}^{-1}\tilde{G}\ \check{S}^{-1},\ M_{2,1} = -\check{S}^{-1}\tilde{D}\ \tilde{B}^{-1},\ M_{1,1} = \tilde{B}^{-1} - M_{1,2}\tilde{D}\ \tilde{B}^{-1}$. By applying Lemmas 7.1-7.6, we compute $d.g._r(\tilde{T}_{\rho}^{-1})$ for $F = F_+$.

8 Conclusions and Further Progress

Our superfast algorithms for recursive factorization of a Cauchy-like matrix were motivated by a natural technical challenge of extending the superfast MBA algorithm of [M74], [M80], and [BA80] from the case of a Toeplitz-like input. We completed this task and also included the extension and improvement of the known techniques for the treatment of a singular input and/or for the computations over finite fields. Our work turned out to lead much farther than the authors originally thought. In [OP98], it was shown that exactly the same algorithm yields superfast solution (in nearly linear time) for some highly important problems of rational tangential (matrix) interpolation (including the tangential and the tangential boundary Nevanlinna-Pick problems and the matrix Nehari problem), thus improving dramatically the known quadratic bounds on the running time of their solution. It is interesting also that the numerical stability requirements dictated that the computation of the cascade solution to the rational matrix interpolation problems be represented by the entire recursive decomposition of the input Cauchy-like matrix, and not only by its inverse. In particular, this means that the original MBA algorithm for the Toeplitz-like matrices would not suffice even if we apply matrix transformations suggested in [P89/90].

Another advantage of our matrix approach to the solution of these problems was its generality, that is, the same algorithm covered simultaneously various rational matrix interpolation problems. This also motivated further extension of the algorithm to other classes of structured input matrices, covering the input matrices of Vandermonde, Cauchy, Toeplitz, Hankel, and Hankel+Toeplitz types as its particular cases [PACPZ98], [OP98], [PZACP99], [P99], [P2000]. In particular, [OP98] focused on correlation between the matrix version and the rational interpolation version of the algorithm and described the matrix factorization algorithm by following the line of the present paper though with much more sparse elaboration of operations with structured matrices. The rational matrix interpolation applications deal with positive definite input matrices, so the issues of singularities do not arise there and were not treated in [OP98]. A unified superfast algorithm covering simultaneously recursive factorization of structured matrices of various classes (including all classes cited above) was first presented (and fully elaborated) in [P99] and [P2000]. This automatically implied superfast solution of various other problems of rational matrix interpolation and apparently of all such major problems reducible to the computations with structured matrices along the line of [OP98].

The presentation in [P99] and [P2000] includes some novel extensions of our techniques, in particular, of Proposition 4.2, transformations among various classes of structured matrices as a means of algorithm design (cf. [P89/90]), and our randomization techniques. This enabled superfast randomized computation in finite fields of a generator for a matrix whose columns formed a basis for the null space of a structured singular matrix. The latter result immediately implied superfast list decoding of algebraic and algebraic-geometric codes, versus the recent fast (quadratic time) list decoding algorithm proposed in [S99], where the problem was reduced to the computation in finite fields of a vector from the null space of a given matrix of a Vandermonde type, and versus cubic time decoding algorithms known earlier.

Appendix A. Computations with Cauchy Matrices.

Our algorithms of sections 3-5 ultimately reduce Cauchy-like computations to multiplications of Cauchy matrices by vectors (Trummer's problem). For the computation of the solution $\vec{x} = C^{-1}(\vec{s}, \vec{t})\vec{f}$ to a nonsingular Cauchy linear system $C(\vec{s}, \vec{t})\vec{x} = \vec{f}$, the reduction is much simplified due to the following formula (cf., e.g., [Gast60]):

$$C^{-1}(\vec{s}, \vec{t}) = -diag(\frac{\Gamma_{\vec{s}}(t_i)}{\Gamma_{\vec{t}}'(t_i)})_{i=0}^{n-1}C^T(\vec{s}, \vec{t})diag(\frac{\Gamma_{\vec{t}}(s_i)}{\Gamma_{\vec{s}}'(s_i)})_{i=0}^{n-1}, \tag{A.1}$$

where $I_{\vec{x}}(u)$ denotes the polynomial

$$\prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (u - x_i) = u^n + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} r_i u^i,$$

for a vector $\vec{x} = [x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}]^T$, and where " ' " denotes the derivative. On the other hand, we have the following well-known matrix equation (cf. [FHR93], [GO94b], and [Ger87]):

$$C(\vec{s}, \vec{t}) = diag(1/\Gamma_{\vec{t}}(s_i))_{i=0}^{n-1} V(\vec{s}) V^{-1}(\vec{t}) diag(\Gamma_{\vec{t}}'(t_k))_{k=0}^{n-1}, \tag{A.2}$$

where $V(\vec{x})$ is a Vandermonde matrix.

The latter equation reduces the computation of the product $C(\vec{s}, \vec{t}\)\vec{v}$, for any vector \vec{v} , to the computation of the product of the Vandermonde matrix $V(\vec{s}\)$ by a vector and to the solution of a Vandermonde linear system of n equations. These two operations are equivalent to multipoint polynomial evaluation and to polynomial interpolation, respectively. (Note that the computation of the values of the polynomial $\Gamma_{\vec{t}}(s_i)$, for $i=0,\cdots,n-1$ and for a given vector of the coefficients of this polynomial, is also the problem of multipoint polynomial evaluation.) Since the known fast algorithms (cf. [BP94]) perform the latter operations, as well as the computation of the coefficients of $\Gamma_{\vec{t}}(x)$ for a given vector \vec{t} , in $O(n \log^2 n)$ ops, we arrive at Lemma 2.2.

Furthermore, we immediately obtain from (A.2) that

$$C^{-1}(\vec{s}, \vec{t}') = diag(1/\Gamma'_{\vec{t}}(t_i))_{i=0}^{n-1} V(\vec{t}') V^{-1}(\vec{s}') diag(\Gamma_{\vec{t}'}(s_i))_{i=0}^{n-1}.$$

Based on this formula, we deduce the following result.

Fact A.1 [Gast60]. A nonsingular Cauchy linear system of n equations can be solved by using $O(n \log^2 n)$ ops.

Alternatively, we may immediately deduce Fact A.1 from the formula (A.1), which has an advantage of reducing the solution of a Cauchy linear system to the multiplication of a Cauchy matrix by a vector (Trummer's problem). (Recall that our algorithms of sections 3-6 show a similar reduction of Cauchy-like computations.)

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