Computational Algebraic Geometry Numerical algebraic geometry

Kaie Kubjas

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February 17, 2021

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Overview

- Main goal: To solve a system of equations A.
- Take a similar system of equations *B* for which solutions are known.
- Deform the solutions of *B* to the solutions of *A*.
- This approach is called homotopy continuation.



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• A system of polynomial equations is called square if the number of equations is equal to the number of variables, i.e., the system has the form

$$f(z) := \begin{bmatrix} f_1(z_1, \ldots, z_N) \\ \vdots \\ f_N(z_1, \ldots, z_N) \end{bmatrix} = 0.$$

 We will first consider square systems and later explain how the results can be extended to general systems.

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- A solution z^{*} ∈ C^N is called isolated if it is the only solution in an open ball centered at z^{*}.

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Consider a square system

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We want to find a finite set S of solutions of this system containing every isolated solution of f(z) = 0.

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- Build and solve a start system g(z).
 - g(z) is related to f(z): it usually has the same degrees
 - It should be easy to solve *g*(*z*)
 - The solutions of g(z) are called the startpoints

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 - It should be easy to solve g(z)
 - The solutions of g(z) are called the startpoints
- 2 Construct a homotopy between f(z) and g(z).
 - Homotopy is a parametrized family of equations that specializes to f(z) and g(z) for different parameter values
 - The simplest homotopy is H(z, t) = tg(z) + (1 t)f(z), where *t* is a new parameter
 - H(z, 1) = g(z) and H(z, 0) = f(z)

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Solution paths from t = 1 to t = 0.

- Predictor-corrector methods are used most of the way
- Close to *t* = 0 more powerful endgames are used
- Some paths could approach infinity as t → 0; these paths are called divergent
- Other paths can merge at t = 0



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We want to solve f(z) = 0 for the polynomial

$$f(z) = -2z^3 - 5z^2 + 4z + 1.$$

This particular example can be solved by the cubic formula. We consider it to illustrate the steps of the homotopy continuation.

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- Start system
 - Any cubic polynomial with three distinct roots that can be solved easily.
 - We take $g(z) = z^3 + 1$.
 - The roots of g(z) are $z = -e^{2k\pi i/3}$, where k = 0, 1, 2, 3.

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- 2 Homotopy
 - We choose linear homotopy h(z, s) = sg(z) + (1 s)f(z).
 - h(z, 1) = g(z) and h(z, 0) = f(z)

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Follow the solution paths

- The variable *s* is complex, so there are infinitely many paths from 1 to 0.
- Although the real line segment [0, 1] seems like a natural choice, it can be problematic.
- Instead consider the following family of circular arcs: Let $\gamma \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$q(t) = \frac{\gamma t}{\gamma t + (1-t)}, \quad t \in [0,1]$$

connects s = 1 to s = 0.



Figure: Plots are for six different values of γ .

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- Following one of the arcs gives the homotopy h(z, q(t)) = 0.
- Substituting and clearing the denominators gives

$$H(z,t) = \gamma t g(z) + (1-t)f(z).$$

- Choosing γ = 0.40 + 0.77*i* gives three solution paths that never intersect.
- From $\mathbb{V}(g)$ we get $\mathbb{V}(f) = \{-3.0942, -0.2028, 0.7969\}.$



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- If γ is chosen randomly in C, then with probability one the homotopy defines three smooth paths.
- To see this, we consider the behavior of h(z, s) = 0 as s varies.
- For most s^{*} ∈ C, h(z, s^{*}) = 0 is a cubic equation with three distinct roots.
- For a few *s*^{*} there are only two distinct solutions.
- The use of circular arcs to obtain a path between s = 1 and s = 0 and choosing γ randomly is known as the "gamma trick".

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11.1:mediFatage("Numerical lagoratic@cometry") - Moding configuration for package "Mencical Lagoratic@cometry" from file /Users/Nabjask1/Library/Application Support/Meculay2/init=HumericalAlgobraic@cometry.m2 - Moding configuration for package "MECack" from file /Users/Nabjask1/Library/Application Support/Meculay2/init=Heffacet.m2 - Moding configuration for package "MECack" from file /Users/Nabjask1/Library/Application Support/Meculay2/init=Heffacet.m2 - Moding configuration for package "MECack" from file /Users/Nabjask1/Library/Application Support/Meculay2/init=Heffacet.m2
o1 = NumericalAlgebraicGeometry
o1 : Package
12 : R = CC[2];
13 : F = (-2+2^3-5+2^2+4+2+1);
i4 : s = solveSystem F
o4 = {{-3.0415}, {.796927}, {202773}}
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15 : realPoints s
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Given two continuous functions $f, g : \mathbb{C}^N \to \mathbb{C}^N$, a homotopy is a continuous function

$$H(z,t): \mathbb{C}^N \times [0,1] \to \mathbb{C}^N$$

satisfying H(z, 0) = f(z) and H(z, 1) = g(z).

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- For homotopy continuation, the homotopy *H* is obtained from composing the family of systems *H*(*z*; *s*) with a path *s* = *q*(*t*).
- *H*(*z*; *s*) : C^N × U → C^N, where U ⊆ C^M is an open set, *H* is polynomial in *z* and analytic in *s*
- $q: [0,1] \rightarrow U$ is a differentiable map

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Path tracking is the numerical process of approximating the paths from startpoints to endpoints.

Path tracking gives approximations of the solutions of H(z, 0) = 0 from the known solutions of H(z, 1) = 0.

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A good homotopy for

$$f(z) := \begin{bmatrix} f_1(z_1, \ldots, z_N) \\ \vdots \\ f_N(z_1, \ldots, z_N) \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

and a set of *D* distinct solutions S_1 of g(z) is a system of infinitely differentiable functions

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- for any $t \in [0, 1]$, H(z, t) is a system of polynomials;
- ② for any $w \in S_1$, there is a smooth map $p_j(t) : (0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^N$ satisfying $p_j(1) = w$;

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- ② for any $w \in S_1$, there is a smooth map $p_j(t) : (0, 1] \to \mathbb{C}^N$ satisfying $p_j(1) = w$;
- the associated paths do not cross;
- for each $t^* \in (0, 1]$ the points $p_j(t^*)$ are smooth isolated solutions of $H(z, t^*)$.

We say that the above homotopy is a good homotopy for the system

$$f(z) := \begin{bmatrix} f_1(z_1, \dots, z_N) \\ \vdots \\ f_N(z_1, \dots, z_N) \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

if one can choose *D* distinct solutions S_1 of g(z) = H(z, 1) such that the set

$$\mathcal{S}_0 = \left\{ z \in \mathbb{C}^{\mathcal{N}} : \| z \|_2 < \infty ext{ and } z = \lim_{t o 0} p_j(t)
ight\}$$

contains every isolated solution of f(z) = 0.

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Theorem (Bezout's theorem)

Assume that the system of polynomial equations

$$f(z) := \begin{bmatrix} f_1(z_1, \ldots, z_N) \\ \vdots \\ f_N(z_1, \ldots, z_N) \end{bmatrix} = 0.$$

has finitely many solutions in \mathbb{C}^N . Let $d_i = \deg f_i$. Then the system f has at most $d_1 \cdots d_N$ solutions.

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- For general systems of polynomial equations the number of solutions equals this bound.
- The Bernstein–Kushnirenko Theorem gives better upper bounds for special systems, but it is more complicated.

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Bezout's theorem





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Total-degree homotopies

We construct a good homotopy

$$H(z,t) = (1-t) \begin{bmatrix} f_1(z_1,\ldots,z_N) \\ \vdots \\ f_N(z_1,\ldots,z_N) \end{bmatrix} + \gamma t \begin{bmatrix} g_1(z_1,\ldots,z_N) \\ \vdots \\ g_N(z_1,\ldots,z_N) \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

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as follows:

- Let $d_i = \deg f_i$.
- Choose polynomials g₁,..., g_N such that they have degrees d₁,..., d_N, the system g(z) = 0 is easy to solve and it has exactly D := d₁d₂ ··· d_N solutions.

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- Let $d_i = \deg f_i$.
- Choose polynomials g_1, \ldots, g_N such that they have degrees d_1, \ldots, d_N , the system g(z) = 0 is easy to solve and it has exactly $D := d_1 d_2 \cdots d_N$ solutions.
- For example, one can take $g_i(z) = z_i^{d_i} 1$.
- In this case, the solution set of g(z) = 0 is given by

$$\left\{ \left(e^{(j_1/d_1)2\pi i}, \dots, e^{(j_N/d_N)2\pi i} \right) : 0 \le j_i \le d_i \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, N \right\}.$$

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- Choose a random complex number $\gamma \neq 0$.
- In practice γ is chosen in a small band around the unit circle.
- If γ is chosen randomly, then with probability one we get a good homotopy.
- Total-degree homotopies are the simplest of all homotopies. Alternatively, one can use more special degree bounds.

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Assume that we have:

• a family of functions on \mathbb{C}^N

$$H(z;q) = \begin{bmatrix} H_1(z_1,\ldots,z_N;q_1\ldots,q_M)\\ \vdots\\ H_N(z_1,\ldots,z_N;q_1\ldots,q_M) \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

such that H_i is a polynomial in $z \in \mathbb{C}^N$ and analytic in $q \in \mathbb{C}^M$;

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such that H_i is a polynomial in $z \in \mathbb{C}^N$ and analytic in $q \in \mathbb{C}^M$;

• differentiable maps $\phi : t \in [0, 1] \rightarrow q \in \mathbb{C}^M$ and $\psi : t \in [0, 1] \rightarrow z \in \mathbb{C}^N$ satisfying

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$$H(\psi(t), \phi(t)) = 0$$
 for $t \in (0, 1]$ and

② the Jacobian of *H* with respect to $z_1, ..., z_N$ has rank *N* for the points ($\psi(t), \phi(t)$) with *t* ∈ (0, 1].

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- differentiable maps $\phi : t \in [0, 1] \rightarrow q \in \mathbb{C}^M$ and $\psi : t \in [0, 1] \rightarrow z \in \mathbb{C}^N$ satisfying
 - $H(\psi(t), \phi(t)) = 0$ for $t \in (0, 1]$ and
 - ② the Jacobian of *H* with respect to $z_1, ..., z_N$ has rank *N* for the points ($\psi(t), \phi(t)$) with *t* ∈ (0, 1].
- We construct *H* and φ in such a way that ψ exists and ψ(1) = p₀. The objective is to compute p^{*} = ψ(0).

Path tracking

• Assume that M = 1 and $q_1 = t$. Denote $\psi(t)$ by z(t).

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Path tracking

- Assume that M = 1 and $q_1 = t$. Denote $\psi(t)$ by z(t).
- Differentiating H(z(t), t) = 0 with respect to t gives

$$\frac{\partial H(z(t),t)}{\partial t} + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\partial H(z(t),t)}{\partial z_i} \frac{dz_i(t)}{dt} = 0 \text{ with } z(1) = p_0.$$

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• Let *JH*(*z*, *t*) denote the Jacobian matrix of *H* with respect to the variables *z*

$$JH := \frac{\partial H}{\partial z} := \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial H_1}{\partial z_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial H_1}{\partial z_N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial H_N}{\partial z_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial H_N}{\partial z_N} \end{bmatrix}$$

evaluated at (z, t) and let $z(t) = [z_1(t), \dots, z_N(t)]^T$ denote the solution of the above differential equation.

 Using this notation, the above differential equation becomes

$$\frac{\partial H(z(t),t)}{\partial t} + JH(z(t),t) \cdot \frac{dz(t)}{dt} = 0.$$

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Using this notation, the above differential equation becomes

$$\frac{\partial H(z(t),t)}{\partial t} + JH(z(t),t) \cdot \frac{dz(t)}{dt} = 0.$$

• Since JH(z(t), t) is invertible on the path, this is equivalent to $dz(t) = \frac{\partial H(z(t), t)}{\partial t}$

$$\frac{dz(t)}{dt} = -[JH(z(t),t)]^{-1}\frac{\partial H(z(t),t)}{\partial t}.$$

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• This is an initial value problem that can be solved using numerical methods.

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First-order tracking

• We solve the initial value problem using Euler's method starting at $t_0 = 1$ with p_0 as the initial value and successively computing the approximations p_1, p_2, \ldots at values $t_0 > t_1 > t_2 > \cdots > 0$.

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First-order tracking

- We solve the initial value problem using Euler's method starting at t₀ = 1 with p₀ as the initial value and successively computing the approximations p₁, p₂,... at values t₀ > t₁ > t₂ > ··· > 0.
- The approximations are computed as

$$p_{i+1} = p_i - JH(p_i, t_i)^{-1} \frac{\partial H(p_i, t_i)}{\partial t} \Delta t_i,$$

where $\Delta t_i = t_{i+1} - t_i$.

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First-order tracking

- We solve the initial value problem using Euler's method starting at t₀ = 1 with p₀ as the initial value and successively computing the approximations p₁, p₂,... at values t₀ > t₁ > t₂ > ··· > 0.
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$$\boldsymbol{p}_{i+1} = \boldsymbol{p}_i - \boldsymbol{J}\boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{p}_i, t_i)^{-1} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{p}_i, t_i)}{\partial t} \Delta t_i,$$

where $\Delta t_i = t_{i+1} - t_i$.

 Geometrically this means predicting along the tangent line to the solution path at the current point of the path.



Correction

- The prediction is often followed by the correction using the Newton's method.
- This means Newton's method is used for H(z, t_{i+1}) starting with z₀ = p_{i+1}.
- Newton's method uses the iterative formula

$$z_{i+1} = z_i - [JH(z_i, t_{i+1})]^{-1}H(z_i, t).$$

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- One or two iterations of Newton's method usually improves the prediction of $z(t_{i+1})$.
- *p*_{i+1} is replaced with the corrected value before starting the next predictor-corrector cycle.



- In practice Δt_i is chosen adaptively.
- If the error after the correction is larger than the desired tracking accuracy, then Δt_i is halved.

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- In practice Δt_i is chosen adaptively.
- If the error after the correction is larger than the desired tracking accuracy, then Δt_i is halved.
- Often higher-order methods (e.g. Runge-Kutta methods) are used in practice.
- They have the advantage that they often allow larger step sizes.

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Consider a general system

$$f(z) := \begin{bmatrix} f_1(z_1,\ldots,z_N) \\ \vdots \\ f_n(z_1,\ldots,z_N) \end{bmatrix} = 0.$$

 If n < N, then the system is underdetermined and the solution set has positive-dimensional solution components.

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- If n < N, then the system is underdetermined and the solution set has positive-dimensional solution components.
- If n > N, let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times n}$ be a random matrix. Instead of the system

$$f = \begin{bmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ \vdots \\ f_n \end{bmatrix},$$

we consider the system

 $A \cdot f$.

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• Every polynomial in the system A · f has the form

 $a_{i1}f_1+a_{i2}f_2+\ldots+a_{in}f_n,$

where a_{ii} are random complex numbers.

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• With probability one, all the isolated solutions of *f* are isolated solutions of *A* · *f*.

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Every polynomial in the system A · f has the form

$$a_{i1}f_1+a_{i2}f_2+\ldots+a_{in}f_n,$$

where a_{ii} are random complex numbers.

- With probability one, all the isolated solutions of *f* are isolated solutions of *A* · *f*.
- The system $A \cdot f$ could have more solutions than f.
- The extra solutions can be detected because they do not satisfy *f*.

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Example

- Let p(z) = (z + 1)(z 1) and q(z) = z(z 1).
- The system p(z) = q(z) = 0 has one solution z = 1.

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- The system p(z) = q(z) = 0 has one solution z = 1.
- Consider

$$2p(z)-3q(z) = 2(z+1)(z-1)-3z(z-1) = (2-z)(z-1).$$

- This system has two solutions z = 1 and z = 2.
- For z = 2, we have p(2) = 3 and q(2) = 2, so it is not a solution of the original system.

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Example

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$$2p(z) - 3q(z) = 2(z+1)(z-1) - 3z(z-1) = (2-z)(z-1).$$

- This system has two solutions z = 1 and z = 2.
- For z = 2, we have p(2) = 3 and q(2) = 2, so it is not a solution of the original system.
- Since for most choices of constants we get a degree two polynomial, there are necessarily two solutions.
- This second solution changes when different coefficients are used.

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- Bertini
- Julia Homotopy Continuation
- NumericalAlgebraicGeometry package in Macaulay2
- PHCpack

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Julia Homotopy Continuation



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An introduction to the numerical solution of polynomial systems

The basics of the theory and techniques behind HomotopyContinuation.jl



Kaie Kubjas Numerical algebraic geometry

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- Today's lecture was based on Chapter 2 in "Numerically Solving Polynomial Systems with Bertini" by Bates, Sommese, Hauenstein and Wampler.
- Exam will take place on Friday, February 26 at 13:00-17:00 in MyCourses. More information will be posted soon.
- Please fill out the course feedback form. You will get 1.5 extra points for filling it out.
- Check out the Algebraic Geometry I and II courses taught by Alexander Engström in the fall of 2021.
- Thank you for attending the course!!!

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