Computing Power Series Solutions of Polynomial Systems

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polynomial homotopy continuation

 $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ is a polynomial system we want to solve, $g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ is a start system (*g* is similar to *f*) with known solutions.

A homotopy $h(\mathbf{x}, t) = (1 - t)g(\mathbf{x}) + tf(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}, t \in [0, 1],$ to solve $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ defines solution paths $\mathbf{x}(t)$: $h(\mathbf{x}(t), t) \equiv \mathbf{0}$.

Numerical continuation methods track the paths $\mathbf{x}(t)$, from t = 0 to 1.

Predictor-corrector method operate in two stages:

- The predictor sets the new value for t and predicts $\mathbf{x}(t)$.
- 2 The corrector applies Newton's method to $h(\mathbf{x}, t) = \mathbf{0}$.

Current predictor methods apply higher-order extrapolation,

- which may cause path crossing: the predicted point lies so close to another path that it gets corrected to that other path;
- which may not be sufficient to reach convergence in the corrector.

Our solution: apply Newton's method on truncated power series.

numerical analysis and symbolic computation

- E. L. Allgower and K. Georg: Introduction to Numerical Continuation Methods. Volume 45 of *Classics in Applied Mathematics*, SIAM, 2003.
- A. Morgan: Solving polynomial systems using continuation for engineering and scientific problems. Volume 57 of *Classics in Applied Mathematics*, SIAM, 2009.

Newton-Hensel iteration is discussed in the following:

- J. Heintz, T. Krick, S. Puddu, J. Sabia, and A. Waissbein: Deformation techniques for efficient polynomial equation solving. *Journal of Complexity* 16(1):70-109, 2000.
- D. Castro, L.M. Pardo, K. Hägele, and J.E. Morais, Kronecker's and Newton's Approaches to Solving: A First Comparison. *Journal of Complexity* 17(1):212-303 2001.
- A. Bompadre, G. Matera, R. Wachenchauzer, and A. Waissbein: Polynomial equation solving by lifting procedures for ramified fibers. *Theoretical Computer Science* 315(2-3):335-369, 2004.

truncated power series

A series s(t) in t with coefficients $s_k \in \mathbb{C}$:

$$s(t) = s_0 + s_1 t + s_2 t^2 + \dots + s_n t^n + O(t^{n+1}),$$

is truncated to a polynomial of degree *n*, after dropping $O(t^{n+1})$. The inverse x(t) of s(t) is defined via $x(t) \times s(t) = 1 + O(t^{n+1})$. The coefficients x_k of the inverse x(t) are computed as

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x_0 &=& 1/s_0 \\ x_1 &=& -(s_1x_0)/s_0 \\ x_2 &=& -(s_1x_1+s_2x_0)/s_0 \\ &\vdots \\ x_n &=& -(s_1x_{n-1}+s_2x_{n-2}+\cdots+s_nx_0)/s_0 \end{array}$$

Newton's method on truncated power series

Given
$$c = c_0 + c_1 t + c_2 t^2 + \cdots + c_n t^n$$
, compute \sqrt{c} .

Apply Newton's method on the equation $x^2 - c = 0$, doubling the degrees of the truncated power series in each step:

$$\begin{aligned} x &:= \sqrt{c_0} + x_1 t \\ c &:= c_0 + c_1 t \\ k &:= 1 \end{aligned} \\ \text{while } (k \le n) \text{ do} \\ \Delta x &:= (x^2 - c)/(2x) \\ x &:= x - \Delta x \\ x &:= x + x_{k+1} t^{k+1} + \dots + x_{2k} t^{2k} \\ c &:= x + c_{k+1} t^{k+1} + \dots + c_{2k} t^{2k} \\ k &:= 2 \times k \end{aligned}$$

Quadratic convergence: the order of Δx doubles in each step.

the Viviani curve



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computing a power series solution

$$h(x(t), y(t), z(t), t) = \begin{cases} (1-t)y + t(y-1) = 0\\ x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 4 = 0\\ (x-1)^2 + y^2 - 1 = 0 \end{cases}$$

After 3 steps with Newton's method:

$$y = t$$

$$x = 0.5t^{2}$$

$$z = 2 - 0.25t^{2}$$

After 4 steps with Newton's method:

$$y = t$$

$$x = 0.5t^{2} + 0.125t^{4} + 0.0625t^{6} + 0.03125t^{8}$$

$$z = 2 - 0.25t^{2} - 0.078125t^{4} - 0.041015625t^{6} - 0.020751053125t^{6}$$

Gauss-Newton on truncated power series

Orthogonality is defined via an inner product on vectors:

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \overline{u}_1 v_1 + \overline{u}_2 v_2 + \cdots + \overline{u}_n v_n, \quad ||\mathbf{u}||_2^2 = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle.$$

To make a vector **x** parallel to $\mathbf{e}_1 = (1, 0, \dots, 0)^T$:

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{x} + ||\mathbf{x}||_2 \mathbf{e}_1, \quad H\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} - \frac{2\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle} \mathbf{v},$$

where H is a Householder transformation.

To transform a matrix A into an upper triangular matrix R, apply a sequence of Householder transformations:

$$H_nH_{n-1}\cdots H_1A = R$$
, $Q = H_1\cdots H_{n-1}H_n$, $A = QR$.

This is well defined for matrices of truncated power series.

biunimodular vectors and cyclic n-roots

$$\begin{cases} x_0 + x_1 + \dots + x_{n-1} = 0\\ i = 2, 3, 4, \dots, n-1 : \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \prod_{k=j}^{j+i-1} x_{k \mod n} = 0\\ x_0 x_1 x_2 \cdots x_{n-1} - 1 = 0. \end{cases}$$

The system arises in the study of biunimodular vectors. A vector $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ of a unitary matrix A is biunimodular if for k = 1, 2, ..., n: $|u_k| = 1$ and $|v_k| = 1$ for $\mathbf{v} = A\mathbf{u}$.

- J. Backelin: *Square multiples n give infinitely many cyclic n-roots.* Technical Report, 1989.
- H. Führ and Z. Rzeszotnik. On biunimodular vectors for unitary matrices. Linear Algebra and its Applications 484:86–129, 2015.

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series developments for cyclic 8-roots

Cyclic 8-roots has solution curves not reported by Backelin.

With Danko Adrovic (ISSAC 2012, CASC 2013): a tropism is $\mathbf{v} = (1, -1, 0, 1, 0, 0, -1, 0)$, the leading exponents of the series.

The corresponding unimodular coordinate transformation $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{z}^M$ is

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X_0 = Z_0$$

$$X_1 = Z_1 Z_0^{-1}$$

$$X_2 = Z_2$$

$$X_3 = Z_3 Z_0$$

$$X_4 = Z_4$$

$$X_5 = Z_5$$

$$X_6 = Z_6 Z_0^{-1}$$

$$X_7 = Z_7$$

Solving $in_{\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{f})(\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{z}^M) = \mathbf{0}$ gives the leading term of the series.

version 2.4.21 of PHCpack and 0.5.0 of phcpy

The source code (GNU GPL License) is available at github.

After 2 Newton steps with phc -u, the series for z_1 :

After 3 Newton steps with phc -u, the series for z_1 :

(7.1250000000000E+00 + 7.125000000000E+00*i)*z0^4 +(-1.52745512076048E-16 - 4.2500000000000E+00*i)*z0^3 +(-1.250000000000E+00 + 1.250000000000E+00*i)*z0^2 +(5.000000000000E-01 - 1.45255178343636E-17*i)*z0 +(-5.000000000000E-01 - 5.00000000000E-01*i);

Gauss-Newton power series predictor

To correct a solution, apply Gauss-Newton in complex arithmetic, on vectors of complex numbers.

The predictor is symbolic-numeric:

- Gauss-Newton on truncated power series: x(t), where x(t) is a vector of series, each series is of degree n.
- Step control via evaluation of the series, y(t) = f(x(t)).
 Let k be the order of y(t), k < n.

Let $\epsilon > 0$ be the tolerance on the residual $||f(\mathbf{x}(t))||$.

To compute the step size τ , solve $\epsilon = |y_k| \tau^k$:

$$\tau = \left(\frac{\epsilon}{|\mathbf{y}_k|}\right)^{1/k}$$

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one method to predict and correct

Polynomials in the homotopy, with support A, have the form

$$h(\mathbf{x},t) = \sum_{\mathbf{a}\in\mathcal{A}} c_{\mathbf{a}}(t) \mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{a}}, \quad \mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{a}} = x_1^{a_1} x_2^{a_2} \cdots x_n^{a_n}.$$

where the coefficients $c_a(t)$ are truncated power series.

Three stages in one step with the path tracker:

- Given a tolerance $\epsilon > 0$, set the step size τ : $||h(\mathbf{x}(\tau), \tau)||$ is $O(\epsilon)$.
- Shift the coefficient series $c_a(t)$ into $c_a(t \tau)$ in the homotopy.
- Correct the solution with Newton's method on series of degree 0. Continue with truncated power series of increasing degrees to compute solution series x(t), accurate up to a prescribed order.

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Linearization

Consider a *vector of power series* $\mathbf{v}(t)$, truncated to degree two:

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_{1}(t) \\ \mathbf{v}_{2}(t) \\ \mathbf{v}_{3}(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_{1,0} + v_{1,1}t + v_{1,2}t^{2} \\ v_{2,0} + v_{2,1}t + v_{2,2}t^{2} \\ v_{3,0} + v_{3,1}t + v_{3,2}t^{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

We can rewrite $\mathbf{v}(t)$ as

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} v_{1,0} \\ v_{2,0} \\ v_{3,0} \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{v}_0} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} v_{1,1} \\ v_{2,1} \\ v_{3,1} \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{v}_1} t + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} v_{1,2} \\ v_{2,2} \\ v_{3,2} \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{v}_2} t^2.$$

Then we have a *power series vector* $\mathbf{v}(t)$, truncated to degree two:

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{v}_0 + \mathbf{v}_1 t + \mathbf{v}_2 t^2, \quad \mathbf{v}_0, \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2 \in \mathbb{C}^3.$$

A truncated power series vector is a vector polynomial.

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Vector Series and Matrix Series

Instead of working with a vector of power series, consider a power series with vectors as coefficients.

A vector series $\mathbf{v}(t)$ is a series with vectors as coefficients:

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{v}_0 + \mathbf{v}_1 t + \mathbf{v}_2 t^2 + \cdots, \quad \mathbf{v}_k \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$$

A vector series, truncated to degree d, is represented by a column vector $\mathbf{v} = [\mathbf{v}_0 \ \mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_d]^T$, $\mathbf{v}_k \in \mathbb{C}^n$.

A matrix series $\mathbf{A}(t)$ is a series with matrices as coefficients:

$$\mathbf{A}(t) = \mathbf{A}_0 + \mathbf{A}_1 t + \mathbf{A}_2 t^2 + \cdots, \quad \mathbf{A}_k \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}.$$

A matrix series, truncated to degree d, is represented by a row vector $\mathbf{A} = [A_0 \ A_1 \ A_2 \ \cdots \ A_d], A_k \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$.

A truncated matrix series vector is a *matrix polynomial*.

Matrix Series and Linear Systems

Given a row vector $\mathbf{A} = [A_0 \ A_1 \ A_2 \ \cdots \ A_d], A_k \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, which represents a matrix series, truncated to degree *d*.

Given a column vector $\mathbf{b} = [\mathbf{b}_0 \ \mathbf{b}_1 \ \mathbf{b}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{b}_d]^T$, $\mathbf{b}_k \in \mathbb{C}^n$, which represents a vector series, truncated to degree *d*.

Denote $\mathbf{A}(t)\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{b}(t)$, with $\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{x}_1 t + \mathbf{x}_2 t^2 + \cdots + \mathbf{x}_d t^d$:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_0 \ A_1 t \ A_2 t^2 \ \cdots \ A_d t^d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_0 \\ \mathbf{x}_1 t \\ \mathbf{x}_2 t^2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_d t^d \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{b}_0 + \mathbf{b}_1 t + \mathbf{b}_2 t^2 + \cdots + \mathbf{b}_d t^d$$

as a linear system of vector and matrix series.

Solving a Linear Matrix Series System Consider $\mathbf{A}(t)\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{b}(t)$, for d = 2:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_0 & A_1t & A_2t^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_0 \\ \mathbf{x}_1t \\ \mathbf{x}_2t^2 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{b}_0 + \mathbf{b}_1t + \mathbf{b}_2t^2$$

Expanding along powers of *t*, ignoring powers higher than two:

$$t^{0} : A_{0}\mathbf{x}_{0} = \mathbf{b}_{0}$$

$$t^{1} : A_{0}\mathbf{x}_{1} + A_{1}\mathbf{x}_{0} = \mathbf{b}_{1}$$

$$t^{2} : A_{0}\mathbf{x}_{2} + A_{1}\mathbf{x}_{1} + A_{2}\mathbf{x}_{0} = \mathbf{b}_{2}$$

which gives a triangular system. Suppose A_0 is invertible:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}_0 &= A_0^{-1} \mathbf{b}_0 \\ \mathbf{x}_1 &= A_0^{-1} (\mathbf{b}_1 - A_1 \mathbf{x}_0) \\ \mathbf{x}_2 &= A_0^{-1} (\mathbf{b}_2 - A_1 \mathbf{x}_1 - A_2 \mathbf{x}_0) \end{aligned}$$

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Numerical Linear Algebra

A power series is invertible if the leading coefficient is invertible.

If the leading coefficient A_0 of a matrix series $\mathbf{A}(t)$ is invertible, then we solve $\mathbf{A}(t)\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{b}(t)$ via

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}_0 &= A_0^{-1} \mathbf{b}_0 \\ \mathbf{x}_1 &= A_0^{-1} (\mathbf{b}_1 - A_1 \mathbf{x}_0) \\ \mathbf{x}_2 &= A_0^{-1} (\mathbf{b}_2 - A_1 \mathbf{x}_1 - A_2 \mathbf{x}_0) \\ &\vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_d &= A_0^{-1} (\mathbf{b}_d - A_1 \mathbf{x}_{d-1} - A_2 \mathbf{x}_{d-2} - \dots - A_d \mathbf{x}_0) \end{aligned}$$

The solving of $\mathbf{A}(t)\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{b}(t)$ is in that case reduced to the solving of d + 1 regular linear systems, using LU, QR, or SVD.

Numerical Conditioning

We apply the following numerical algorithm:

solve
$$A_0 \mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{b}_0$$

solve $A_0 \mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{b}_1 - A_1 \widetilde{\mathbf{x}_0}$
solve $A_0 \mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{b}_2 - A_1 \widetilde{\mathbf{x}_1} - A_2 \widetilde{\mathbf{x}_0}$
 \vdots
solve $A_0 \mathbf{x}_d = \mathbf{b}_d - A_1 \widetilde{\mathbf{x}_{d-1}} - A_2 \widetilde{\mathbf{x}_{d-2}} - \dots - A_d \widetilde{\mathbf{x}_0}$

Because of roundoff, solving $A_0 \mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{b}_0$ does not give the exact \mathbf{x}_0 but an approximate $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}_0}$. The approximation errors are propagated to the right hand sides of the other linear systems, so we compute not the exact $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, ..., \mathbf{x}_d$ but approximate $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}_1}, \widetilde{\mathbf{x}_2}, ..., \widetilde{\mathbf{x}_d}$.

The condition number of A_0 predicts the size of the error.

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What if A_0 is singular? Who cares?

A special position of the circles of Appolonius problem:



The given circles are double solutions to the problem. With Puiseux power series solutions of the special position, we can predict the solutions to perturbed instances of the problem.

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Computing Power Series Solutions

conclusions

Solving polynomial systems with power series is inspired by tropical algebraic geometry. The leading exponents of series are *tropisms*.

Predicting the solution on a path defined by a homotopy with Gauss-Newton on truncated power series is promising.

One future research direction:

- shared memory parallel implementations,
- acceleration with Graphics Processing Units (GPUs),
- quality up: compensate extra cost with parallel computations.