# Shape Interrogation II

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### Introduction

- Polynomials are used in various branches of computational science.
- They can be found in mathematics, computer science, engineering and many other fields.
- There are two basic reasons for that:
  - Most functions can be approximated by polynomial functions, and
  - They are rather easy to use in a computer code.
- Thus, they serve as good substitutes for functions that are difficult to deal with.

- In this talk we will discuss some of their applications in Computer Aided Geometric Design and Geometric Modeling.
- In particular, we will discuss:
  - Polynomial systems and their solutions
  - Elements of elimination theory
  - Polynomial maps
  - Some Problems of this Area.

# A Strange Example

- As an indication of the difference in moving from one dimension to the next, even for simple functions–like polynomials–let us consider the following:
- Example 1. Every polynomial function y = p(x) with p(x) > 0,  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$  has at least one (real) critical point.

$$\lim_{|x|\to\infty}p(x)=\infty.$$

• Example 2. The polynomial

$$p(x, y) = (x^2 y - x - 1)^2 + x^2$$

- has the property that, for every  $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , p(x,y) > 0,
- but the function p(x, y) does not have any (real) critical point.

 $\lim_{|(x,y)|\to\infty} p(x,y) \text{ Does not exist.}$ 





# **Polynomial Systems**

- Polynomials are popular in curve and surface representation.
- Thus, many critical problems in CAGD, such as surface interrogation, are reduced to finding the zero set of a system of polynomial equations

$$f(x) = 0$$

where  $f = (f_1, \dots, f_n)$  and each  $f_i$  is a polynomial of m independent variables  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_m)$ .

# **Polynomial Systems**

- Several root-finding methods for polynomial systems have been used in practice.
- These can be categorized as:
  - Algebraic and hybrid methods,
  - Homotopy methods, and
  - Subdivision methods.
- Among those types, the subdivision methods have been widely used in practice.
- The Interval Projected Polyhedral (IPP) algorithm is one example, and it has successfully been applied to various problems.

# Motivation

- Difficulties in handling roots with high multiplicity
  - Performance deterioration
  - Lack of robustness in numerical computation
  - Round-off errors during floating point arithmetic
- Limited research on root multiplicity of a system of equations
  - Heuristic approaches are needed for practical purposes.

## **Objectives**

- Develop practical algorithms to isolate and compute roots and their multiplicities.
- Improve the Interval Projected Polyhedron (IPP) algorithms.

# **Multiplicity of Roots**

- Univariate Case
  - A root a of f(x)=0 has multiplicity k if

$$f(a) = f'(a) = \dots = f^{(k-1)}(a) = 0, and f^{(k)}(a) \neq 0$$

- Bivariate Case
  - Define

$$V_{f} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{C} \mid f(x, y) = 0\}$$
$$V_{g} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{C} \mid g(x, y) = 0\}$$

- Suppose that  $z_0$  is the only common point of  $V_f$  and  $V_g$  lying above  $x_0$ . Consider  $h(x)=Res_y(f,g)$ , the resultant of f,g with respect to y. Then the multiplicity of  $z_0=(x_0,y_0)$  as a root of the system is the multiplicity of  $x_0$  as a zero of h(x).

# **Degree of the Gauss Map**

- Let p(x,y), q(x,y) be polynomials with rational coefficients without common factors, of degrees n<sub>1</sub> and n<sub>2</sub>, and let F=(p, q).
- Let **A** be a rectangle in the plane defined by  $a_1 \le x \le a_2$ ,  $a_3 \le y \le a_4$ ,
  - $a_1 < a_2, a_3 < a_4, a_i \in \mathbb{Q}, i = 1,2,3,4$  so that no zero of F lies its boundary  $\partial A$ , and  $p \cdot q$  does not vanish at its vertices.
    - Gauss map  $G: \partial A \to S^1$ , G = F / ||F||, where  $S^1$  is the unit circle.
    - G is continuous (  $||F|| \neq 0$  on  $\partial A$  ).
    - $\partial A$  and  $S^{1}$  carry the counterclockwise orientation.
- Degree d of G : an integer indicating how many times ∂A is wrapped around S<sup>1</sup> by G.

### Illustration of the Gauss Map



Slide No. 13

# The Cauchy Index

#### Preliminaries

- R(x): a rational function q(x)/p(x), where p, q are polynomials.
- [a,b]: a closed interval, a < b. R does not become infinite at the end points.

#### Definition of the Cauchy index

By the *Cauchy index*,  $I_a^b R$  of *R* over [*a*,*b*], we mean  $I_a^b R = N_-^+ - N_+^$ where  $N_-^+(N_+^-)$  denotes the number of points in (*a*,*b*) at which R(x) jumps from  $-\infty$  to  $+\infty$  ( $+\infty$  to  $-\infty$ ), respectively, as *x* is moving from *a* to *b*. Notice that  $I_a^b R = -I_b^a R$  from the definition.

# The Cauchy Index (continued)

#### **Preliminaries**

- A : a rectangle defined by  $[a_1, a_2] \times [a_3, a_4]$  which encloses a zero.
- -F = (p,q) does not vanish on the boundary of A,  $\partial A$ .
- $-p \cdot q$  is not zero at each vertex of A.
- Let

$$R_1 = \frac{q(a_1, y)}{p(a_1, y)}, R_2 = \frac{q(a_2, y)}{p(a_2, y)}, R_3 = \frac{q(x, a_3)}{p(x, a_3)}, R_4 = \frac{q(x, a_4)}{p(x, a_4)}.$$

Then, we set (for counterclockwise traversal of  $\partial A$ )

$$I_{A}F = I_{a_{4}}^{a_{3}}R_{1} + I_{a_{3}}^{a_{4}}R_{2} + I_{a_{1}}^{a_{2}}R_{3} + I_{a_{2}}^{a_{1}}R_{4}.$$

 ${\bullet}$ 

**Proposition**\* •T. Sakkalis, "The Euclidean Algorithm and the Degree of the Gauss Map", SIAM J. Computing. Vol. 19, No. 3, 1990.

 $I_{A}F$  is an even integer and the multiplicity  $d = -\frac{1}{2}I_A F.$ 

Slide No. 15

# Illustrative Example for Multiplicity Computation Using the Cauchy Index

- $p(x) = (x 1/2)^5 = 0$
- A root of p(x), [a] = [0.49, 0.51].
- P(z); (z = x + iy)

$$p(z) = (x + iy - \frac{1}{2})^5 = f(x, y) + ig(x, y)$$

#### Create

 $A = [0.49, 0.5 \ 1] \times [-0.01, 0.01], \ a_1 = 0.49, \ a_2 = 0.51, \ a_3 = -0.01, \ a_4 = 0.01$ 

- Calculate the Cauchy index
  - Roots of  $f(x, a_3) = 0$
  - Calculation of

$$I_{a_1}^{a_2} R_3 = -3$$

No.	<b>Roots of</b> $f(x,a_2) = 0$ in [0,1] (from the IPP)
1	[0.46922316412099, 0.46922316512099]
2	[0.49273457408967, 0.492734576204823]
3	[0.499999997363532, 0.500000001889623]
4	[0.507265424645288, 0.507265426808589]
5	[0.530776834861365, 0.530776835861365]

• Roots No. 2, 3, and 4 are selected since they lie within the interval [a].

### Illustrative Example (Continued)

- Similarly,  $I_{a_3}^{a_4}R_2 = -2$ ,  $I_{a_2}^{a_1}R_4 = 3$ ,  $I_{a_4}^{a_3}R_1 = 2$
- Calculate  $I_A F = I_{a_4}^{a_3} R_1 + I_{a_3}^{a_4} R_2 + I_{a_1}^{a_2} R_3 + I_{a_2}^{a_1} R_4 = -10$
- The multiplicity *m* of the root is  $d = -\frac{1}{2}I_AF = 5$

Note

$$- I_a^b R = -I_b^a R.$$

- Counterclockwise orientation of  $\partial A$  is assumed.

# **Direct Computation Method**



# **Direct Computation Method**

 $F: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ , F(x, y) = (f(x, y), g(x, y)).  $G: \partial A \to S^1$ , G = F / ||F||,



# Bisection Algorithm for Solving Univariate Polynomial Equations

Univariate polynomial in complex variable z.
 (Substitute x with a complex variable z = x+iy)

 $p(z) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 z^1 + a_0 = 0$ 

- Input :
  - initial domain :  $S = [a_1, b_1] \times [a_2, b_2]$
  - a complex polynomial : p(z)
  - tolerance, number of sample points
- Output
  - real and complex roots, multiplicities
- Algorithm
  - Quadtree decomposition
  - Direct degree computation method : complex interval arithmetic.

 $\mathbf{b}_1$ 

 $b_2$ 

 $S_1$ 

 $S_4$ 

 $S_2$ 

s<sub>3</sub>

a

 $a_1$ 

## **Examples**

Wilkinson polynomial

1	I	<i>i</i> =1 `````
No.	Multiplicity	Roots
1	1	[0.05, 0.05] + i[-5.769e - 10, 5.769e - 10]
2	1	[0.1, 0.1] + i[-5.866e - 10, 5.866e - 10]
3	1	[0.15, 0.15] + i[-5.947e - 10, 5.947e - 10]
4	1	[0.2, 0.2]+i $[-5.947e-10, 5.947e-10]$
5	1	[0.25, 0.25] + i[-5.898e - 10, 5.898e - 10]
6	1	[0.3, 0.3] + i[-5.792e-10, 5.792e-10]
7	1	[0.35, 0.35] + i[-5.792e - 10, 5.792e - 10]
8	1	[0.4, 0.4] + i[-5.792e-10, 5.792e-10]
9	1	[0.45, 0.45] + i[-5.792e - 10, 5.792e - 10]
10	1	[0.5, 0.5]+i $[-5.745e-10, 5.745e-10]$
11	1	[0.55, 0.55] + i[-5.745e - 10, 5.745e - 10]
12	1	[0.6, 0.6] + i[-5.745e-10, 5.745e-10]
13	1	[0.65, 0.65] + i[-5.745e - 10, 5.745e - 10]
14	1	[0.7, 0.7] + i[-5.745e-10, 5.745e-10]
15	1	[0.75, 0.75]+i $[-5.745e-10, 5.745e-10]$
16	1	[0.8, 0.8]+i $[-5.745e-10, 5.745e-10]$
17	1	[0.85, 0.85] + i[-5.745e - 10, 5.745e - 10]
18	1	[0.9, 0.9] + i[-5.745e - 10, 5.745e - 10]
19	1	[0.95, 0.95] + i[-5.745e - 10, 5.745e - 10]
20	1	[1,1]+i[-5.747e-10,5.747e-10]

• Complicated Polynomial (degree 22)  $p(t) = \prod^{20} \left( t - \frac{i}{20} \right)$ 

$$p(t) = (t^{2} + t + 1)^{2} (t - 1)^{4}$$
$$(t^{3} + t^{2} + t + 1)^{3} (t - 2)(t - 4)^{4}$$

No.	Multiplicity	Roots
1	3	[-5.956e-10, 5.956e-10] + i[1,1]
2	4	[1,1]+i[-5.956e-10,5.956e-10]
3	4	[4,4]+i[-5.939e-10,5.939e-10]
4	2	[-0.5, -0.5] + i[0.866, 0.866]
5	3	[-1, -1] + i[-5.956e - 10, 5.956e - 10]
6	2	[-0.5, -0.5] + i[-0.866, -0.866]
7	3	[-5.956e-10, 5.956e-10] + i[-1, -1]
8	1	[2,2]+i[-5.94e-10,0]

# Solving a Bivariate Polynomial System

- Change of Coordinates
  - CR : f and g are regular in y.
  - CU: whenever two points  $(x_0, y_0)$  and  $(x_1, y_1)$  satisfy f=g=0, then  $y_0=y_1$ .

#### Solving a Bivariate Polynomial System

- Let f,g satisfy CR and CU and let  $h(x)=Res_y(f,g)$ . Then the roots of the system f=g=0 are in a one to one correspondence with the roots of h(x). Moreover,  $z_i=(x_i,y_i)$  is a real root if and only if  $x_i$  is a real root of h(x).
- Let  $h(x)=Res_y(f,g)$  and  $l(y)=Res_x(f,g)$  and  $a_{ij}=[t_v,t_{i+1}]x[s_v,s_{j+1}]$ where in each subinterval  $[t_v,t_{i+1}]$  or  $[s_v,s_{j+1}]$  there exist precisely one root of h(x) and l(y), respectively. If  $a_{ij}$ encloses a real root of f=g=0, then the following must be true

 $0 \in f([t_i, t_{i+1}], [s_j, s_{j+1}]) \times g([t_i, t_{i+1}], [s_j, s_{j+1}])$ 

# Solving a Bivariate Polynomial System : Example



$$\begin{array}{rcl} x,y) &=& x^3 - 3x^2 + 5x - 4 + y^3 \\ && -3y^2 + 5y - 2xy = 0, \\ x,y) &=& 2x^3 - 2x^2 + x - 4 - 4x^2y + 2xy \\ && +9y + 3xy^2 - 8y^2 + y^3 = 0, \end{array}$$

$$h(x) = 56x^9 - 704x^8 + 3880x^7 - 12304x^6 +24744x^5 - 32736x^4 + 28504x^3 -15760x^2 + 5024x - 704.$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} (y) &=& -56y^9 + 608y^8 - 2824y^7 + 7312y^6 \\ && -11496y^5 + 11136y^4 - 6328y^3 \\ && +1744y^2 - 32y - 64. \end{array}$$

Root (x,y)	d
[0.999999978, 1.00000001]x[0.99999994, 1.00000001]	5
[1.57142855, 1.57142859]x[-0.142857209, -0.142857134]	1
[1.99999999, 2.0000003]x[1.99999996, 2.00000003]	3

1

# **Elimination Theory**

#### I. Resultants

- Sylvester Resultant
- Macaulay Resultant
- Sparse Resultant
- D-Resultant
- II. Groebner Bases
- III. Symbolic System Solving

#### **Elements of Resultant Theory**

• Let:  

$$a(t) = a_n t^n + \dots + a_1 t + a_0$$

$$b(t) = b_m t^m + \dots + b_1 t + b_0$$

- non zero polynomials, with complex coefficients.
- The resultant of *a*,*b* wrt *t* (or the *t* -resultant),  $\text{Res}_t(a,b) = R$  is

$$R = \begin{vmatrix} a_{n} & a_{n-1} & \cdots & a_{0} \\ & a_{n} & \cdots & a_{1} & a_{0} \\ & & \ddots & & \ddots \\ & & & a_{n} & \cdots & \cdots & a_{0} \\ b_{m} & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & b_{0} \\ & \ddots & & & \ddots \\ & & & b_{m} & \cdots & \cdots & b_{0} \end{vmatrix}$$

• Observe that  $\operatorname{Res}_{t}(a,b) \in \mathbb{C}$ .

#### **Properties of the Resultant**

- Let us see some well known properties of the resultant:
- **Property 1.** There exist polynomials  $A(t), B(t) \in C[t]$  of degrees respectively, n' < m, m' < n so that

$$a(t)A(t) + b(t)B(t) = \operatorname{Res}_t(a,b).$$
<sup>(1)</sup>

- **Property 2.**  $\operatorname{Res}_t(a,b) = 0 \iff a(t)$  and b(t) have a common factor of positive degree.
- Property 3.

• Let, 
$$a(x, y) = a_n y^n + a_{n-1}(x) y^{n-1} + \dots + a_0(x)$$
  
 $b(x, y) = \sum_{i=0}^m b_{m-i}(x) y^{m-i} \in k[y][x]$ 

• with  $a_n$  or  $b_m \in \mathbb{C}^*$ , and consider  $p(x) = Res_y(a,b)$ . If  $x_0$  is a root of p(y), then there exists  $y_0 \in \mathbb{C}$  with the property  $a(x_0, y_0) = b(x_0, y_0) = 0$ 

1.4.1

### **Cramer's Rule**

• Let f(x,y),  $g(x,y) \in C[x,y]$  two nonconstant polynomials, and let be indeterminates.

• Consider

$$F: \mathbf{C}^2 \to \mathbf{C}^2, \quad F = (f, g)$$
$$A(x, u, v) = \operatorname{Res}_{y}(f - u, g - v),$$

$$B(y, u, v) = \operatorname{Res}_{x}(f - u, g - v)$$

• with F(0,0) = (0,0).

### **Cramer's Rule**

• **Theorem**[Cramer's Rule] *F* has a polynomial inverse if and only if:

$$A(x, u, v) = ax + A_0(u, v),$$

and

$$B(y, u, v) = by + B_0(u, v), \text{ with } ab \neq 0$$

• Moreover, if

$$G(x, y) \coloneqq \left(-\frac{A_0(x, y)}{a}, -\frac{B_0(x, y)}{b}\right),$$

- Then G is the inverse of F.
- In addition,

$$\deg F = \deg F^{-1}$$