Computer Algebra Lecture 6

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An example from Lecture 5

$$x^2 - 1 = 0 (1)$$

$$y^2 - 1 = 0 (2)$$

$$(x-1)(y-1) = 0 (3)$$

Solutions:

$$(-1,1),(1,-1),(1,1)$$

These equations *are* the simplest description of this variety. Solve equation (1).

x=1 (3) disappears, and we are left with (2): $y=\pm 1$.

x = -1 (3) becomes -2(y - 1) = 0, so y = 1, which also satisfies (2).

A bigger example from Lecture 5

$$x^{2000} - 1 = 0 (4)$$

$$y^{2000} - 1 = 0 (5)$$

$$(x^{1000} - 1)(y^{1000} - 1) = 0 (6)$$

We could consider each solution of (4) separately, but this is boring.

Instead consider

$$\gcd(x^{2000}-1, lc_y((x^{1000}-1)(y^{1000}-1))) = x^{1000}-1.$$

Then we have the same case analysis as before.

Can we generalise?

For zero-dimensional ideals, with a lex ordering a Gröbner base has to look like.

$$p_{n}(x_{n})$$

$$p_{n-1,1}(x_{n-1},x_{n}), \dots, p_{n-1,k_{n-1}}(x_{n-1},x_{n}),$$

$$p_{n-2,1}(x_{n-2},x_{n-1},x_{n}), \dots, p_{n-2,k_{n-2}}(x_{n-2},x_{n-1},x_{n}),$$

$$\dots$$

$$p_{1,1}(x_{1},\dots,x_{n-1},x_{n}), \dots, p_{1,k_{1}}(x_{1},\dots,x_{n-1},x_{n}),$$

where k_i is the number of polynomials involving x_i but not any x_j for j < i and

$$\deg_{x_i}(p_{i,j}) \le \deg_{x_i}(p_{i,j+1}) \tag{7}$$

and p_{i,k_i} is monic in x_i .

Another way of looking at this

$$x_1 ... x_{n-2} x_{n-1} x_n$$
 p_{1,k_1}
 $p_{1,k_1} ...$
 $p_{1,1} ...$
 $p_{n-2,k_{n-2}} ...$
 $p_{n-2,1} ...$
 $p_{n-1,k_{n-1}} ...$
 $p_{n-1,1} ...$

Essentially upper triangular. except that, for any i there may be several $p_{i,j}$. What do they do?

Those extra equations

As with (x-1)(y-1) in the example, they serve to rule out some of the solutions. If we had just the p_{i,k_i} , and these had degree d_i , the number of solutions would be $\prod_{i=1}^n d_i$. As it is, we have $\prod_{i=1}^n d_i - \#\{\text{those }\alpha \text{ barred by } k_{i,j}(\alpha) \neq 0\}$. Let $G_k = G \cap k[x_k,\ldots,x_n]$, i.e. those polynomials in x_k,\ldots,x_n only.

Theorem (Gianni-Kalkbrener [Gia89, Kal89])

Let α be a solution of G_{k+1} . Then if $\operatorname{lc}_{x_k}(p_{k,i})$ vanishes at α , then $(p_{k,i})$ vanishes at α . Furthermore, the lowest degree (in x_k) polynomial of the $p_{k,i}$ not to vanish at α , say $p_{k,m_{\alpha}}$, divides all of the other $p_{k,j}$ at α . Hence we can extend α to solutions of G_k by adding $x_k = \operatorname{RootOf}(p_{k,m_{\alpha}})$.

Put another way, if $p_{k,m_{\alpha}}$ allows a solution extending α , so do $p_{k,m_{\alpha}+1}$, $p_{k,m_{\alpha}+2}$,

The Algorithm

This gives us an algorithm to describe the solutions of a zero-dimensional ideal from such a Gröbner base G. This is essentially a generalisation of back-substitution into triangularised linear equations, except that there may be more than one solution, since the equations are non-linear, and possibly more than one equation to substitute into.

Algorithm (Gianni-Kalkbrener)

```
1: procedure GK(G, n) \triangleright G 0-dim, lex GB
2: S := \{x_n = \text{RootOf}(p_n)\}
3: for k = n - 1, ..., 1 do
4: S := GKstep(G, k, S)
5: end for
6: return S
7: end procedure
```

The Single Step

```
1: procedure GKSTEP(G, k, A) \triangleright A a list of solutions of G_{k+1}.
                                            \triangleright Output A list of solutions of G_k.
 2:
          B := \emptyset
 3:
 4:
          for \alpha \in A do
              i := 1
 5:
               while (L := (lc_{x_{k}}(p_{k,i}))(\alpha)) = 0 do
 6:
                   i := i + 1
 7:
               end while
 8:
               if L is invertible with respect to \alpha then
 9:
                   B := B \cup \{(\alpha \cup \{x_k = \text{RootOf}(p_{k,i}(\alpha))\})\}\
10:
               else
                                                            \triangleright \alpha is split as \alpha_1 \cup \alpha_2
11:
                    B := B \cup GKstep(G, k, \{\alpha_1\}) \cup GKstep(G, k, \{\alpha_2\})
12:
               end if
13:
          end for
14:
15:
          return B
16: end procedure
```

What does step 9 mean?

"if L is invertible with respect to α "

$$p_2 = x^2 - 1 (8)$$

$$p_{1,1} = (x-1)(y-1) (9)$$

$$p_{1,2} = y^2 - 1 (10)$$

(8) says $x = \text{RootOf}(x^2 - 1)$. Next polynomial is (9) Is x - 1 invertible when $x = \text{RootOf}(x^2 - 1)$?

Common sense $x = \pm 1$ and x - 1 = 0 when x = 1: not invertible. but x - 1 = -2 when x = -1: invertible.

Algorithm $x - 1 = \gcd(x - 1, x^2 - 1)$, so write $x^2 - 1 = (x - 1)(x + 1)$ and consider the factors separately α_1 and α_2



But if α is $(x_n = \text{RootOf}(p_n), x_{n-1} = \text{RootOf}(p_{n-1,i_{n-1}}), \dots, x_{k+1} = \text{RootOf}(f))$ this gcd(L, f) has to be computed allowing for $x_n = \text{RootOf}(p_n), x_{n-1} = RootOf(p_{n-1,i_{n-1}}), \ldots$

Theorem only true in dimension 0

Example ([FGT01, Example 3.6])

Let $I = \langle ax^2 + x + y, bx + y \rangle$ with the order $a \prec b \prec y \prec x$. The Gröbner base is $B_1 \cup B_2$ and there are no polynomials in (a,b) only, in (a,b,y) we have $B_2 := \{ay^2 + b^2y - by\}$, and in all variables $B_1 := \{ax^2 + x + y, axy - by + y, bx + y\}$.

- normally B_2 gives y (generally as the solution of a quadratic), then x=-y/b except when b=0, when $ay^2=0$ so y=0, and $ax^2+x=0$, so x=0 or x=-1/a.
- a=b=0 B_2 vanishes, so we would be tempted, by analogy with Theorem 1, to deduce that y is undetermined. But in fact $B_1|_{a=b=0}=\{x+y,y,y\}$, so y=0 (and then x=0).
- a=0, b=1 Again B_2 vanishes. This time, $B_1|_{a=0,b=1}=\{x+y,0,x+y\}$, and y is undetermined, with x=-y.

Lexicographic orderings are great

They are essentially the equivalent of "upper triangular" for matrices.

But they are much more expensive to compute.

Algorithm (Faugère-Gianni-Lazard-Mora [FGLM93])

Input A Gröbner base G for a zero-dimensional ideal I with respect to >'; an ordering >''.

Output A Gröbner base H for I with respect to >".

Details in the paper, but we see it as a "black box". There is also an algorithm for non-zero-dimensional ideals: "The Gröbner Walk" [CKM97]

Proposition (Lecture 5 Slide 19)

If it's finite, the number (counted with multiplicity) of solutions of a system with Gröbner basis G is equal to the number of monomials which are not reducible by G.

Algorithm (Solve Polynomial Equations)

```
1: procedure Solve(S)

▷ A set S of polynomials

       G := Buchberger(S, \prec_{tdeg})
2:
       if G is not zero-dimensional then
3.
           return "not zero-dimensional"
4.
       else Proposition says how many solutions
5:
           H := FGLM(G, \prec_{lex})
6:
           Use Gianni-Kalkbrener to solve H
7.
           We can check the solution count against Proposition
8:
9:
       end if
10: end procedure
```

In the author's experience, describing the solutions of a set of polynomial equations when the dimension is not zero is still rather an art form (Slide 10), but much aided by the computation of Gröbner bases

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