# Parallel Homotopy Algorithms to Solve Polynomial Systems*

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**Abstract**

Homotopy continuation methods to compute numerical approximations to all isolated solutions of a polynomial system are known as "embarrassingly parallel", i.e.: because of their low communication overhead, these methods scale very well for a large number of processors. Because so many important problems remain unsolved mainly due to their intrinsic computational complexity, it would be embarrassing not to develop parallel implementations of polynomial homotopy continuation methods. The focus of this talk is the development of "parallel PHCpack", a project which started a couple of years ago in collaboration with Yusong Wang, and which currently continues with Anton Leykin (parallel irreducible decomposition) and Yan Zhuang (parallel polyhedral homotopies). We report on our efforts to make PHCpack ready to solve large polynomial systems which arise in applications.

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# 1 Motivation: we want to solve large systems

To solve a polynomial system $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$, a homotopy $h(\mathbf{x}, t) = \mathbf{0}$ connects $f$ to a start system $g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ ($g$ stands for "generic", i.e.: all start solutions are regular), typically of the form

$$h(\mathbf{x}, t) = \gamma(1-t)g(\mathbf{x}) + tf(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}, \quad \gamma \in \mathbb{C}, \tag{1}$$

where the random complex constant $\gamma$ ensures with probability one that all solution of $h(\mathbf{x}, t) = \mathbf{0}$ are regular for all $t \in [0, 1)$. Thanks to this regularity, predictor-corrector methods can track all solution paths defined by $h(\mathbf{x}(t), t) = 0$, as $t$ moves from 0 to 1, starting at $t = 0$ at the solution of $g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ and ending at $t = 1$, at approximate isolated solutions of $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$.

We say that the system $f$ is "*large*" if the homotopy we use to solve it requires more than 100,000 solutions to track. Although large does not always automatically imply "difficult", numerical problems are more likely to occur. This paper is concerned with three issues:

- For efficiency, it is undesirable to keep all solutions in main memory.
- Numerical stabilities may occur as dimensions grow.
- Quality control on the computed solutions must be done fast.

Recent work produced two different software systems: PHoMpara [7] (a parallel version of PHoM [8]) and POLSYS_GLP [27] (based upon HOMPACK [36]). The first software system uses polyhedral homotopies, while the second one applies linear-product start systems to solve polynomial systems. Regardless the performance of these programs relative to PHCpack, it matters that PHCpack [30] offers both types of homotopies.

The parallel implementation of the path trackers in PHCpack started in a joint work with Yusong Wang [33] and yielded a parallel version of the Pieri homotopies [10], (refined in [12], see also [17]). Parallel path tracking is discussed in [1], [4, 5], [9], [19], and [20]. Our computational experiments showed that distributing all path tracking jobs at the start performs well when all paths require the same amount of work. Otherwise, dynamic load balancing is needed to achieve an optimal performance.

The parallel PHCpack project is currently continued in collaboration with Anton Leykin [15] (see also [14]) and Yan Zhuang [34]. The work in [14] reports on the parallel implementation of methods to decompose a positive dimensional solution set, using monodromy [22] and traces [23], as needed in a numerical irreducible decomposition [21]. The techniques presented in this paper provide efficient homotopies to create *witness sets* of these positive dimensional solution sets, see [24] and [25] for introductions to numerical algebraic geometry. The development of parallel polyhedral homotopies (described in [34]) will lead increase the capabilities of PHCpack to deal with solution sets of larger degrees.

In this paper we present solutions to deal with the three issues raised above. To avoid the storage of all start solutions in the main memory, we propose to "jumpstart" homotopies, either by computing the roots when ever and where ever they are needed, or by reading the start solutions from file. For the sparsest class of polynomial systems, we discovered a numerically stable solver which computes the magnitudes of the roots separately, avoiding numerical overflow or underflow. Thirdly, for efficient quality control of the results, the programs are allowed only one linear sweep through the file which contain the solutions.

As noted before, what we call "large" does not automatically imply "difficult". The homotopies we consider in this paper are *optimal* (a notion introduced in [10]): no solution path diverges to infinity, so the overall cost of the solver is polynomial in the output size.

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## 2 Jumpstarting Homotopies

Homotopy continuation methods compute one solution at a time. Keeping all start solutions in main memory may decrease the overall performance, or even be impossible. Assuming a manager/worker protocol, our solution is the following:

1. The manager reads a start solution from file "just in time"
   when ever a worker needs another path tracking job.
2. For total degree and linear-product start systems,
   it is simple to compute the solutions when ever needed.
3. As soon as a worker reports the end of a solution path
   back to the manager, the solution is written to file.

Solutions to total degree start systems can be computed very fast, faster than they can be retrieved from file. A lexicographical indexing scheme allows the manager to dictate only which node has to track which path. As all nodes know how to solve total degree start systems, they only need a number, reducing the communication overhead.

For example, a typical total degree start system may look like

$$g(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \begin{cases} x_1^4 - 1 = 0 \\ x_2^5 - 1 = 0 \\ x_3^3 - 1 = 0. \end{cases} \tag{2}$$

It has $4 \times 5 \times 3 = 60$ solutions.

We can get the 25th solution via a decomposition of 24 (start counting from 0): $24 = 1(5\times 3)+3(3)+0$. Let us verify this via lexicographic enumeration:

$$\begin{array}{c} 000 \to 001 \to 002 \to 010 \to 011 \to 012 \to 020 \to 021 \to 022 \to 030 \to 031 \to 032 \to 040 \to 041 \to 042 \\ 100 \to 101 \to 102 \to 110 \to 111 \to 112 \to 120 \to 121 \to 122 \to \boxed{130} \to 131 \to 132 \to 140 \to 141 \to 142 \\ 200 \to 201 \to 202 \to 210 \to 211 \to 212 \to 220 \to 221 \to 222 \to 230 \to 231 \to 232 \to 240 \to 241 \to 242 \\ 300 \to 301 \to 302 \to 310 \to 311 \to 312 \to 320 \to 321 \to 322 \to 330 \to 331 \to 332 \to 340 \to 341 \to 342 \end{array} \tag{3}$$

Although examples for which the total degree homotopy is optimal are fairly rare, one interesting application appears in magnetism, posed by Shigetoshi Katsura [13], see also [3]. This applications leads to a family of systems, which scales for up to any number of equations and variables. All equations in the systems are of degree two, except for one linear equation. The largest polynomial system in this family we considered has 21 equations and a total degree of $2^{20} = 1,048,576$. Recently, the `mpi2track` function in PHCpack tracked all 1,048,576 paths using a personal cluster of fourteen CPUs all running at a clockspeed of 2.4Ghz, in a traditional manager/worker dynamic load distribution model. It took 32 hours and 44 minutes to complete the tracking, leading to an output file of 1.3Gb.

While homotopies based on the total degree are rarely efficient, the sample principle of lexicographic enumeration of the start solutions applies to linear-product start systems. These start systems first occurred in [35], using multi-homogeneous homotopies [18] and were generalized in [31]. Compared to the total degree, homotopies using linear-product start systems typically follow far fewer solution paths than the total degree.

All equations in a linear-product start system are products of linear equations, of the form the system in (4). Every $\cdots$ in (4) corresponds to a linear polynomial with randomly chosen coefficients.

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} (\cdots)\cdot(\cdots)\cdot(\cdots)\cdot(\cdots) = 0 \\ (\cdots)\cdot(\cdots)\cdot(\cdots)\cdot(\cdots)\cdot(\cdots) = 0 \\ (\cdots)\cdot(\cdots)\cdot(\cdots) = 0 \end{cases} \tag{4}$$

The random choice of the coefficients of the linear factors of the products in the linear-product start systems implies that the maximal number of isolated solutions is attained. Moreover, if every monomial in the target system $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ also occurs in the corresponding equation of the start system $g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$, then all isolated solutions of $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ lie at the end of some solution path defined by a homotopy using a linear-product start system $g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$, see [31]. Efficient implementations of these type of homotopies are described in [37] and [27].

Just like (2), the solution of the start system in (4) can be enumerated lexicographically. As the linear-product start system is stored on file in its product form, one does not need to store the start solutions on file. Moreover, any node in a parallel computer can solve for one particular solution. While the main motivation is to avoid to store the complete list of start solutions in main memory, an additional advantage is a reduced communication overhead: instead of passing the start solution vector from manager to path tracking worker, the manager simply has to pass out the label (or group of labels) to the nodes.

While there are as many candidates as the total degree, the number of start solutions (and the corresponding generalized Bézout number) is typically much less than the total degree. For efficiency – as the sequential root counting procedures in PHCpack already do – an incremental LU factorization of the coefficient matrices for each linear system leading to a start solution is an effective technique to prune the tree of all possible combinations of factors in the products of $g$.

# 3 A Numerically Stable "Fewnomial" Solver

Homotopies implementing Bernshteĭn's theorem [2] are described in [32]. What we now call *polyhedral homotopies* follows from the more general treatment in [11]. In [16] these methods are explained in greater detail. Bernshteĭn showed in [2] that the mixed volume of the Newton polytopes of the polynomial system bound the number of solutions (with all variables different from zero). For systems with randomly chosen coefficients, this bound is sharp. The first stage of a polyhedral homotopy method consists in the calculation of this mixed volume, see [8] and [6] for efficient programs to perform this task.

Polyhedral homotopies require in their second stage the solution of a polynomial system with random coefficients. Choosing all complex coefficients on the unit circle in the complex plane naturally leads to a well-conditioned polynomial system. Despite this good choice of the coefficients, previous versions of our software failed for some large examples used for testing the parallel polyhedral homotopies [34].

Consider for example the 12-dimensional polynomial system below. It occurs as just one of the one of the 11,417 start systems generated by polyhedral homotopies to create a random coefficient start system occuring in the design of a robot (see [26], [29], [28]):

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} b_1 x_5 x_8 + b_2 x_6 x_9 = 0 \\ b_3 x_2^2 + b_4 = 0 \\ b_5 x_1 x_4 + b_6 x_2 x_5 = 0 \\ c_1^{(k)} x_1 x_4 x_7 x_{12} + c_2^{(k)} x_1 x_6 x_{10}^2 + c_3^{(k)} x_2 x_4 x_8 x_{10} + c_4^{(k)} x_2 x_4 x_{11}^2 \\ + c_5^{(k)} x_2 x_6 x_8 x_{11} + c_6^{(k)} x_3 x_4 x_9 x_{10} + c_7^{(k)} x_4^2 x_{12}^2 + c_8^{(k)} x_3 x_6 \\ + c_9^{(k)} x_4^2 + c_{10}^{(k)} x_9 = 0, \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots, 9 \end{array} \right. \tag{5}$$

The coefficients $b_i$, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, 6$, and $c_j^{(k)}$, $j = 1, 2, \ldots, 9$, $k = 1, 2, \ldots, 9$ are randomly chosen complex numbers, chosen so that $|b_i| = 1$ and $|c_j^{(k)}| = 1$. Because of this good choice of coefficients, all solutions are well conditioned. Despite the high degrees, there are only one hundred isolated solutions, because of the sparsity of the system: only 13 distinct monomials (after appropriate division).

We call such system a *fewnomial system* and we can solve it fast, reducing it to *binomial system* using LU factorization on the coefficient matrix of the system. Every equation in a binomial system has exactly two monomials with nonzero coefficients. In compact form, we denote a binomial system by $\mathbf{x}^A = \mathbf{b}$

and solve if via the Hermite normal form of $A$, computing a unimodular matrix $M$ ($\det(M) = \pm 1$), so that $MA = U$, with $U$ is an upper triangular matrix and $|\det(U)| = |\det(A)|$. Let $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{z}^M$, then $\mathbf{x}^A = \mathbf{z}^{MA} = \mathbf{z}^U$, so we have reduced $\mathbf{x}^A = \mathbf{b}$ to $\mathbf{z}^U = \mathbf{b}$.

For example, for two variables,

$$[z_1 \quad z_2] \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} \\ 0 & u_{22} \end{bmatrix} = [b_1 \quad b_2]. \quad \begin{cases} z_1^{u_{11}} & = & b_1 \\ z_1^{u_{12}} \, z_2^{u_{22}} & = & b_2 \end{cases} \tag{6}$$

Forward substitution on the triangular system shows there are exactly $|\det(A)|$ distinct isolated solutions, and $|b_k| = 1$ implies $z_k = 1$, for every solution component, $k = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. So our binomial systems are numerically very well conditioned.

A fewnomial system is denoted by $C\mathbf{x}^A = \mathbf{b}$, where $C$ is some coefficient matrix. The natural approach to reduce this fewnomial system to a binomial system is via a LU-factorization on $C$. Assuming $\det(C) \neq 0$, we compute a lower and an upper triangular matrix $L$ and $U$ so that $C = LU$ and solve two systems:

$$\begin{array}{ll} (1) & LU\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b} \quad \text{linear system} \\ (2) & \mathbf{x}^A = \mathbf{y} \quad \text{binomial system} \end{array} \tag{7}$$

However, this is a numerically unstable algorithm! Even if all coefficients for $C$ and $\mathbf{b}$ are chosen to lie on the complex unit circle, varying magnitudes in the intermediate values for $\mathbf{y}$ do occur. High powers, in the range of 50 and over occur in the Hermite normal form for larger systems and magnify the imbalance between the magnitudes in $\mathbf{y}$ up to the point where numerical underflow or overflow crashes the solver.

Our new solver separates the magnitudes of the solutions from their angles. Using the following notations $\mathbf{z} = |\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{e}_\mathbf{z}$, $\mathbf{e}_\mathbf{z} = \exp(i\theta_\mathbf{z})$, $\mathbf{y} = |\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{e}_\mathbf{y}$, $\mathbf{e}_\mathbf{y} = \exp(i\theta_\mathbf{y})$, $i = \sqrt{-1}$, we rewrite the binomial system and solve

$$\mathbf{z}^U = \mathbf{y} : |\mathbf{z}|^U \mathbf{e}_\mathbf{z}^U = |\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{e}_\mathbf{y} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{e}_\mathbf{z}^U = \mathbf{e}_\mathbf{y} \\ |\mathbf{z}|^U = |\mathbf{y}| \end{cases} \tag{8}$$

The first binomial system $\mathbf{e}_z^U = \mathbf{e}_\mathbf{y}$ is well conditioned because all components of the right hand side vector have modulus one. To find the magnitudes $|\mathbf{z}|$ we solve $|\mathbf{z}|^U = |\mathbf{y}|$, using a logarithmic scale, i.e.: $U\log(|\mathbf{z}|) = \log(|\mathbf{y}|)$. Even as the magnitude of the values $\mathbf{y}$ may be extreme, $\log(|\mathbf{y}|)$ will be modest in size.

Our new numerically stable fewnomial solver to solve $C\mathbf{x}^A = \mathbf{b}$ executes the following steps:

1. The LU factorization of $C$ yields $\mathbf{x}^A = \mathbf{y}$, where $C\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b}$.
2. Use the Hermite normal form of $A$: $MA = U$, $\det(M) = \pm 1$,
   to solve the binomial system $\mathbf{e}_\mathbf{z}^U = \mathbf{e}_\mathbf{y}$, $\mathbf{z} = |\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{e}_\mathbf{z}$, $\mathbf{y} = |\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{e}_\mathbf{y}$.
3. Solve the upper triangular linear system $U\log(|\mathbf{z}|) = \log(|\mathbf{y}|)$.
4. Compute the magnitude of $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{z}^M$ via $\log(|\mathbf{x}|) = M\log(|\mathbf{z}|)$.
5. As $|\mathbf{e}_\mathbf{z}| = 1$, let $\mathbf{e}_\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_\mathbf{z}^M$.

Even as $\mathbf{z}$ may be extreme, we deal with $|\mathbf{z}|$ at a logarithmic scale and never raise small or large number to high powers. Only at the very end do we calculate $|\mathbf{x}| = 10^{\log(|\mathbf{x}|)}$ and $\mathbf{x} = |\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{e}_\mathbf{x}$.

For more on the parallel implementation of polyhedral homotopy methods in PHCpack, we refer to [34].

## 4 Scanning Solution Files into Frequency Tables

During runtime, we often want to monitor the progress of a large path tracking job, and get an impression about the "quality" of the solutions which have been already computed, but again, we do not want store all solutions in main memory. For each solution at the end of path, Newton's method reports three floating-point numbers:

1. the magnitude of the last update to the solution vector;
2. an estimate for the inverse condition number of the Jacobian matrix at the solution;
3. the magnitude of the residual.

These three numbers determine the quality of a solution.

To determine the overall quality of the list of solutions, The program builds frequency tables, e.g.: counting #solutions with condition number between $10^{k-1}$ and $10^k$, for some range of $k$. These frequency tables used to judge the quality of solution lists are a first step to emply so-called endgames, eventually with some reruns of the paths at tighter tolerances. We refer to [25, Chapter 10] for an overview of endgames.

As the quality analysis of solution lists can already be done while the lists are still incomplete, remedial action or more computationally demanding endgames will lead to extra jobs to be distributed among the worker nodes.

## 5 Towards High Performance Continuation ...

The polynomial systems we typically consider have a number $n$ of variables which is relatively modest, averaging around 8 or 10. The nonlinearity results in a large number of solution paths, which we denote by $R$ for the root count used in the homotopy. In this paper we considered $R$ in the range of 100,000 and higher. Because $R \gg n$, several issues must be addressed to improve the performance of parallel homotopies. In particular, we avoid storing all start solutions in main memory by jumpstarting the homotopies. We discovered a numerical instability in the polyhedral homotopies which was not treated before and emphasized the need for fast quality control of large solution lists.

The "parallel PHCpack" effort has led to good speedups of running times on existing benchmark systems, essentially leaving the basic path tracking facilities and homotopy constructors intact, calling the routines in PHCpack in conjunction with message passing primitives. To solve polynomial systems which are too large to handle by one single computer, an internal reorganization of PHCpack is needed, in an effort to turn Polynomial Homotopy Continuation into High Performance Continuation.

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