

A Tale of Two Norms

The Weyl norm

$$f \in \mathcal{H}_d^{\mathbb{F}}[1] \quad f = \sum_{|\alpha|=d} f_{\alpha} X^{\alpha}$$

where $\alpha = (\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{N}^{n+1}$ and $|\alpha| = \alpha_0 + \dots + \alpha_n$.

$$\|f\|_W := \sqrt{\sum_{|\alpha|=d} \binom{d}{\alpha}^{-1} |f_{\alpha}|^2}$$

where $\binom{d}{\alpha}$ is the multinomial coefficient $\frac{d!}{\alpha_0! \dots \alpha_n!}$.

For $f = (f_1, \dots, f_q) \in \mathcal{H}_d[q]$ the Weyl norm extends as

$$\|f\|_W := \sqrt{\|f_1\|_W^2 + \dots + \|f_q\|_W^2}$$

The ∞ norm

$$\|f\|_{\infty}^{\mathbb{F}} := \begin{cases} \max_{x \in \mathbb{S}^n} \|f(x)\|_{\infty} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{S}^n} \max_i |f_i(x)| & \text{if } \mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R} \\ \max_{z \in \mathbb{P}^n} \|f(z)\|_{\infty} = \max_{z \in \mathbb{P}^n} \max_i |f_i(z)| & \text{if } \mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C} \end{cases}$$

Why bother to choose $\|f\|_{\infty}^{\mathbb{F}}$ over $\|f\|_w$?

Why bother?

Reason 1:

There is a huge gain for random data!

In the worst-case,

$$\|f\|_{\infty}^{\mathbb{E}} \leq \|f\|_w$$

In the random case,

Theorem

For random $f \in \mathcal{H}_d^{\mathbb{E}}[q]$,

$$\mathbb{E}_f \frac{\|f\|_{\infty}^{\mathbb{E}}}{\|f\|_w} \leq \mathcal{O}\left(\sqrt{\frac{n \ln(eD)}{N}}\right) \sim \mathcal{O}\left(\sqrt{\frac{\ln(eD)}{D^n}}\right) \text{ (for large } D)$$

Huge gain for 'typical' input

Why bother?

Reason 2:

The ∞ -norm can still control the derivatives!

Theorem

Let $\mathbb{F} \in \{\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}\}$, $f \in \mathcal{H}_d^{\mathbb{F}}[1]$, $x \in \mathbb{F}^{n+1}$ and $v \in \mathbb{F}^{n+1}$, then

$$|\overline{D}_x f v| \leq d^{\frac{1}{2}} \|f\|_W \|x\|_2^{d-1} \|v\|_2.$$

Theorem (Kellogg's Inequality)

Let $\mathbb{F} \in \{\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}\}$, $f \in \mathcal{H}_d^{\mathbb{F}}[1]$, $x \in \mathbb{F}^{n+1}$ and $v \in \mathbb{F}^{n+1}$, then

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Similar complexity analyses...

... with similar condition numbers

Complex setting:

$$\mu_{\text{norm}}(f, \zeta) := \|f\|_W \left\| D_\zeta f^\dagger \Delta^{1/2} \right\|_{2,2}.$$

↓

$$M(f, \zeta) = \sqrt{q} \|f\|_\infty^{\mathbb{C}} \left\| D_\zeta f^\dagger \Delta \right\|_{2,2}.$$

... with similar condition numbers

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Real setting:

$$\kappa(f) := \sup_{x \in \mathbb{S}^n} \frac{\|f\|_W}{\sqrt{\|f(x)\|_2^2 + \|D_x f^\dagger \Delta^{1/2}\|_{2,2}^{-2}}}.$$

↓

$$K(f) := \sup_{x \in \mathbb{S}^n} \frac{\sqrt{q} \|f\|_\infty^{\mathbb{R}}}{\max \left\{ \|f(x)\|, \|D_x f^\dagger \Delta\|_{2,2}^{-1} \right\}}.$$

Any problems?

$\| \cdot \|_\infty$ is not cheap to estimate

Proposition

Given $(f, k) \in \mathcal{H}_d^{\mathbb{F}}[q] \times \mathbb{N}$ we can compute T such that

$$(1 - 2^{-k})T \leq \|f\|_\infty \leq T$$

with cost

$$\mathcal{O}\left(2^{n \log n} D^n 2^{\frac{(k+1)n}{2}} N\right).$$

Gains are big enough to compensate for this

THREE Applications

**1st Application:
Computing the Betti numbers
of (Semi-)Algebraic Sets**

State of the art

Theorem

There is a numerical algorithm BETTI that, given $f \in \mathcal{H}_d[q]$, returns the Betti numbers of its zero set $Z(f) \subset \mathbb{S}^n$. The cost of BETTI on input f is bounded as

$$\text{cost}(f) \leq 2^{\mathcal{O}(n^2 \log n)} D^{\mathcal{O}(n^2)} \kappa(f)^{\mathcal{O}(n^2)}.$$

Furthermore, it satisfies

$$\text{cost}(p) \leq q^{\mathcal{O}(n)} (nD)^{\mathcal{O}(n^3)}$$

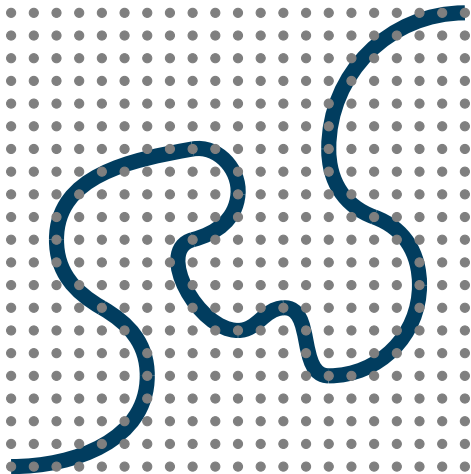
with probability at least $1 - (nqD)^{-n}$.

The result holds for a class of distributions extending the Gaussian
Outside a set of vanishingly small measure
this yields an exponential acceleration over all previous algorithms

The Algorithm

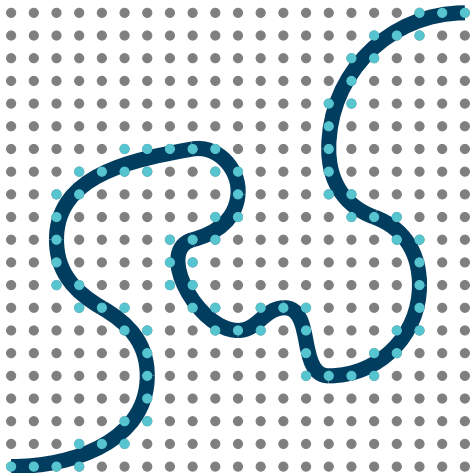


The Algorithm



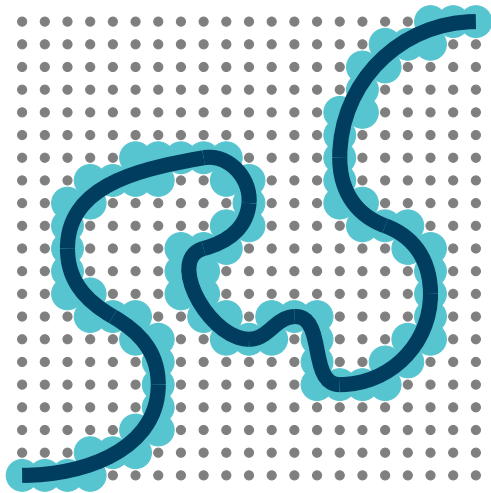
$\kappa(f)$ controls the mesh of the grid!

The Algorithm



$\kappa(f)$ is in the criterion to determine which points are near!

The Algorithm



$\kappa(f)$ determines how big we should take the balls!
(Through the Niyogi-Smale-Weinberger Theorem
and a bound on the reach!)

The Algorithm

Union of Balls



some TDA
(e.g. Nerve Lemma)



Betti numbers of zero set
(Even torsion coefficients!)

Replacing $\| \cdot \|_W$ with $\| \cdot \|_\infty$

(1) The same scheme can be applied using K instead of κ

$$(2) \frac{\text{cost}(\text{BETTI}_\infty, f)}{\text{cost}(\text{BETTI}_W, f)} \leq \left(\frac{K(f)}{\kappa(f)} \right)^{10n}$$

(3) For random f

$$\frac{\text{cost}(\text{BETTI}_\infty, f)}{\text{cost}(\text{BETTI}_W, f)} \leq \left(\frac{Cn\sqrt{qD \ln(eD)}}{\sqrt{N - 20n}} \right)^{10n}$$

with probability at least $1 - \frac{1}{N}$

For fixed n and large D , the ratio in the right-hand side is of the order of

$$\left(\frac{C\sqrt{\ln(eD)}}{D^{\frac{n-1}{2}}} \right)^{10n} .$$

**2nd Application:
The Plantinga-Vegter Algorithm**

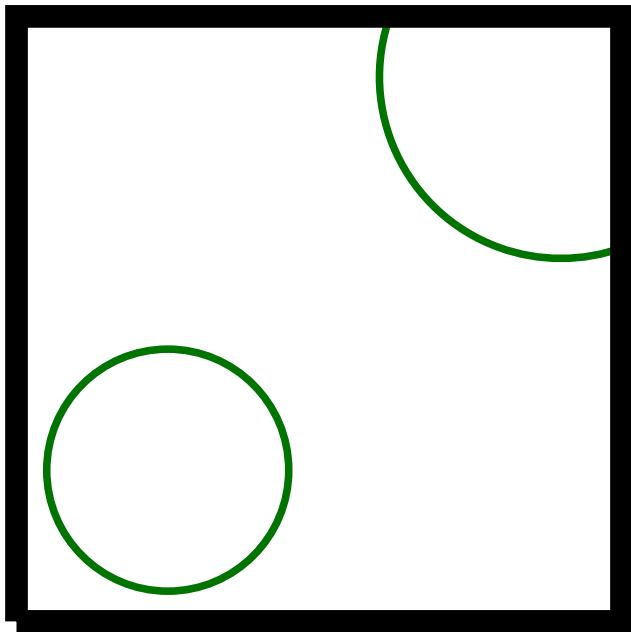
- Given a real polynomial f , the PV algorithm meshes the real zero set.
- Mostly used for two and three variables by computer graphics

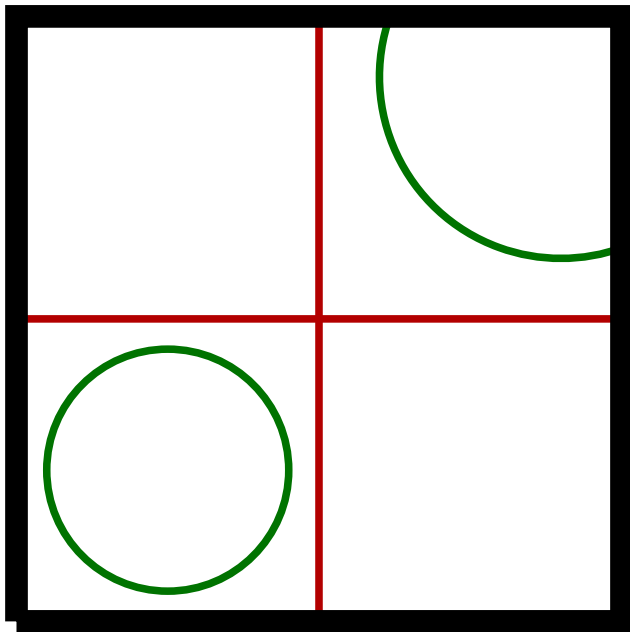
community, reported to be efficient, and quite popular

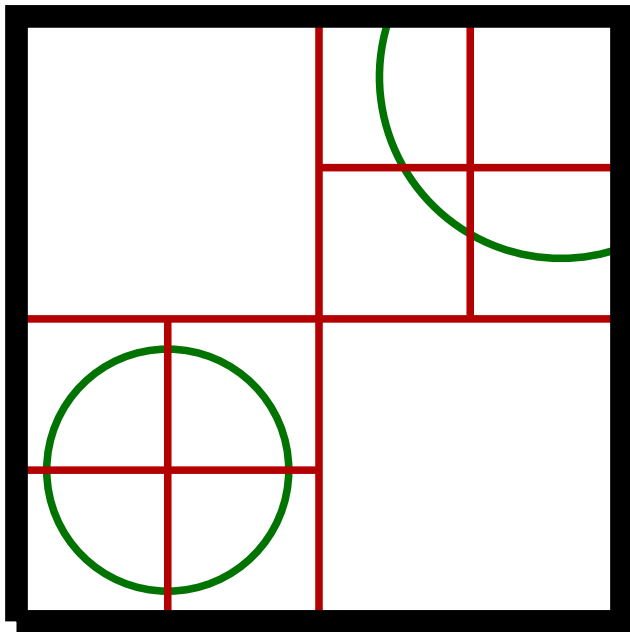
- Concretely speaking:

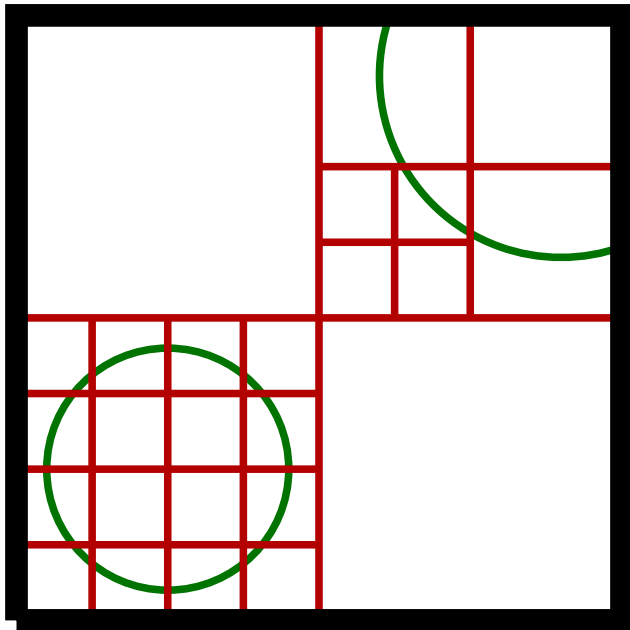
Given a polynomial $f \in \mathbb{R}[X, Y]$ (or $f \in \mathbb{R}[X, Y, Z]$) with degree d it computes an isotopic piecewise linear approximation of the zero set of f within a given square in \mathbb{R}^2 (cube in \mathbb{R}^3 , respectively).

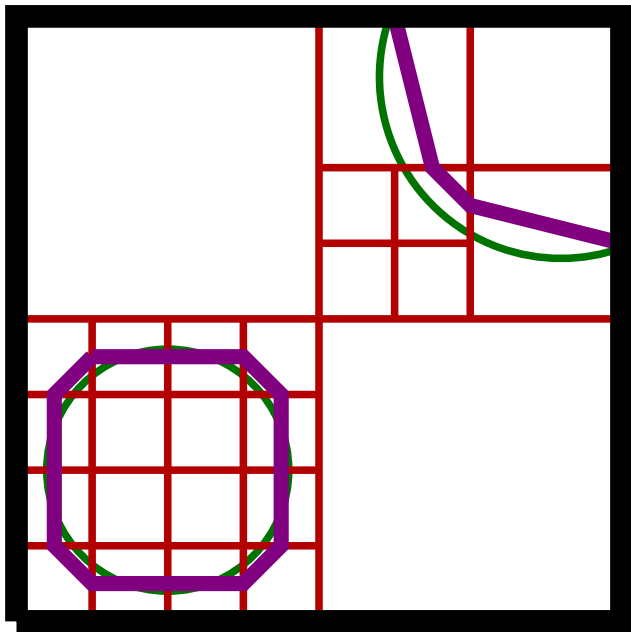
- Ambiguous for precision control
- Worst-case complexity analysis by Burr, Gao, Tsigaridas came after 14 years and predicted exponential running time
- We use condition numbers for precision control and beyond-worst-case complexity analysis











Smoothed Analysis of Algorithms

- Perturb a deterministic input g with a random input h :

$$g + \sigma \|g\| h$$

where $\sigma \in (0, \infty)$ controls the “variance”

- For the algorithm of interest, we bound the quantity

$$\sup_g \mathbb{E}_h \text{cost}(g + \sigma \|g\| h)$$

- ▶ $\sigma = 0$ gives the worst-case complexity analysis
- ▶ $\sigma \rightarrow \infty$ gives the average case complexity analysis
- ▶ $\sigma \in (0, \infty)$ gives the **smoothed complexity analysis**
- Smoothed analysis explains run-time in practice!
- Note that we need to choose a probability distribution for h
In our case, h is a dobro random polynomial, i.e., subgaussian coefficients with bounded continuous density

Worst-case case complexity of the PV algorithm

$$2^{\mathcal{O}(d^n)}$$

Smoothed complexity of the PV algorithm

With the Weyl norm,

$$d^{\mathcal{O}(n^2)}$$

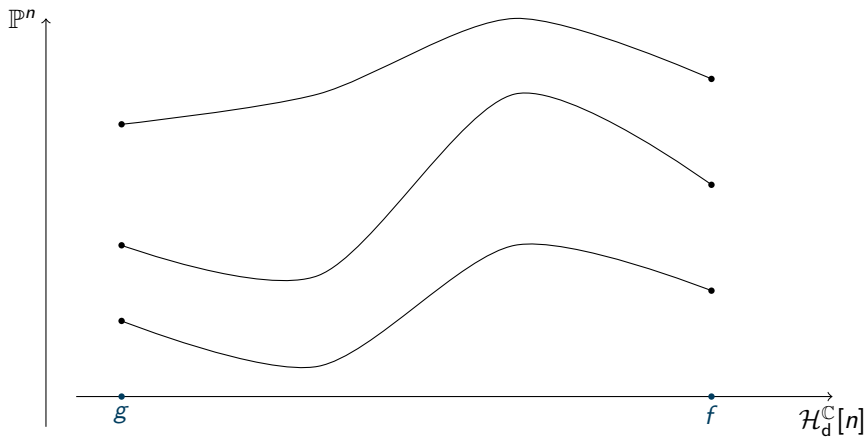
With the ∞ -norm,

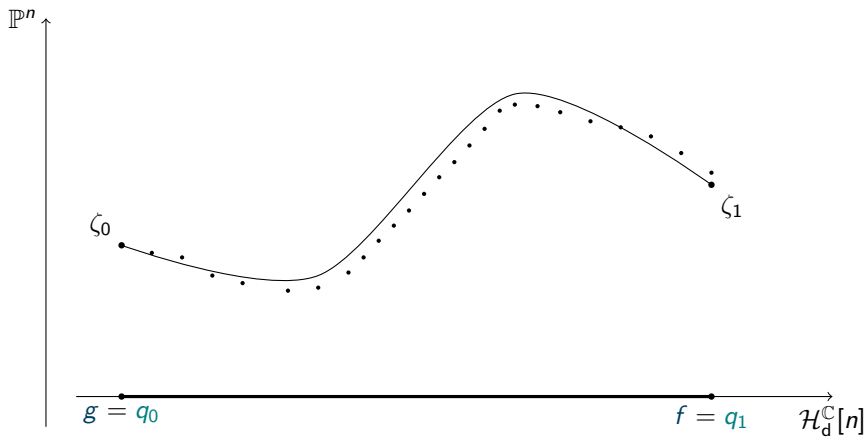
$$(d \log d)^{\mathcal{O}(n)}$$

Smoothed complexity of the PV algorithm for low dimensions

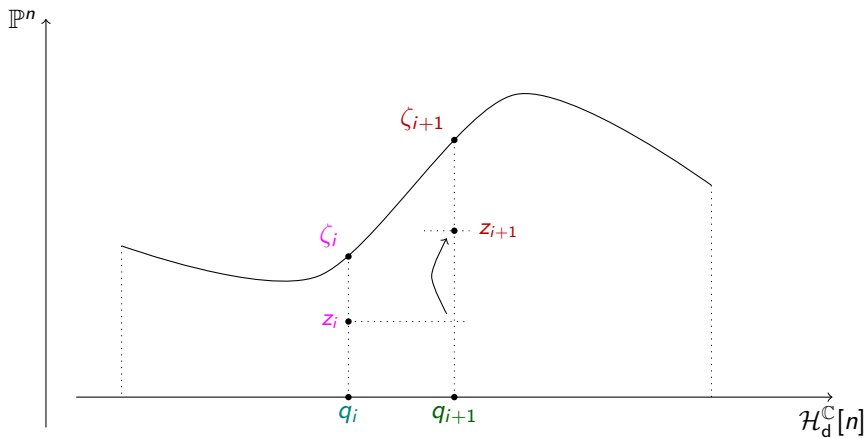
	$n = 2$	$n = 3$
PV_W	$\mathcal{O}(d^8)$	$\mathcal{O}(d^{13})$
PV_∞	$\mathcal{O}(d^7 \log^{1.5}(d))$	$\mathcal{O}(d^{10} \log^2(d))$

**3rd Application:
Systems
of
complex quadratic equations**



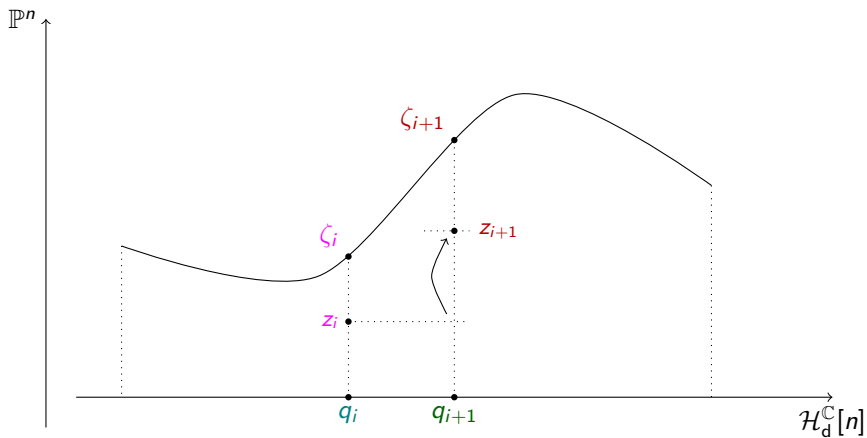


$$q_t := tf + (1 - t)g$$



$$d_{\mathbb{S}}(q_i, q_{i+1}) := \frac{0.008535284}{\text{dist}_{\mathbb{S}}(f, g) D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, z_i)^2}$$

$$z_{i+1} := N_{q_{i+1}}(z_i).$$



$$d_S(q_i, q_{i+1}) := \frac{0.03}{\frac{\|f-g\|_\infty^C}{\|q_i\|_\infty^C}} \text{DM}(q_i, z_i)^2$$

$$z_{i+1} := N_{q_{i+1}}(z_i).$$

	EXPECTED # STEPS	COST OF STEP	TOTAL COST
W	$\mathcal{O}(nD^{3/2}N)$	$\mathcal{O}(N)$	$\mathcal{O}(nD^{3/2}N^2)$
∞	$\mathcal{O}(n^3D \log(eD))$	Large	Large

The case of quadratic equations: $D = 2$ ($N = \mathcal{O}(n^3)$)

	EXPECTED # STEPS	COST OF STEP	TOTAL COST
W	$\mathcal{O}(n^4)$	$\mathcal{O}(n^3)$	$\mathcal{O}(n^7)$
∞	$\mathcal{O}(n^3)$	$\mathcal{O}(n^{1.5+\omega})$	$\mathcal{O}(n^{4.5+\omega})$

Note that $\omega < 2.375!$

Conclusion

As in the case of numerical linear algebra,
a careful choice of norms can improve algorithm efficiency

¡Muchas Gracias!

Teşekkürler!

Eskerrik asko!