Symbolic Computation Algebraic Biology I

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Systems Biology

- Introduction to Biology
- Regulatory & Metabolic Processes
- Algebraic Models in Biology

Symbolic Computation Algebraic Biology II

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Model Checking

- Temporal Logic
- Kripke Models
- Model Checking
- Biologically Faithful Models

Symbolic Computation Algebraic Biology III

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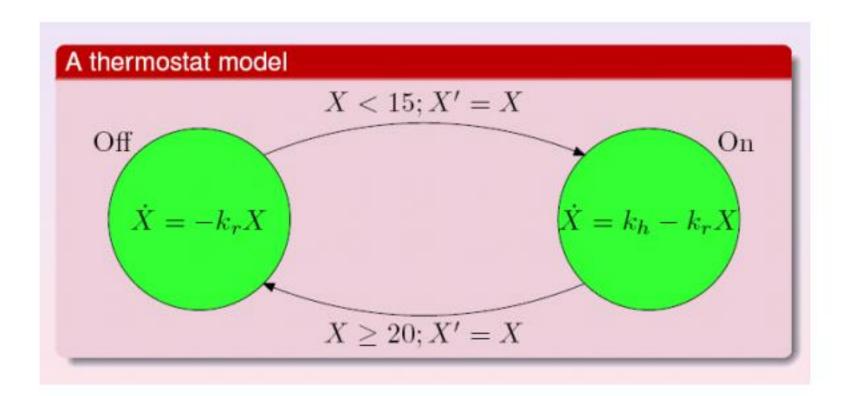
Semi-Algebraic Geometry

- Real Closed Field
- Tarski Algebra
- Decision Theories
- Hybrid Models
- Algorithmic Algebraic Model

Hybrid Automaton

- A hybrid automaton (of dimension k) H = \(\langle Z, Z', V\),
 E, Inv, Dyn, Act , Reset \(\rangle\) (over M), consists of the following components:
 - 1. $Z = (Z_1, ..., Z_k)$ and $Z' = (Z'_1, ..., Z'_k)$ are two vectors of variables ranging over the reals, \mathbb{R} ;
 - (V, E) is a finite directed graph; the vertices of V are called locations, or control modes, the directed edges in E, control switches;
 - Each v ∈ V is labeled by the two formulæ Inv(v)[Z] and Dyn(v)[Z,Z', T] such that if Inv(v)[p] holds (in M), then Dyn(v)[p, p, 0] holds as well;
 - Each e ∈ E is labeled by the formulæ Act(e)[Z] and Reset(e)[Z,Z'].

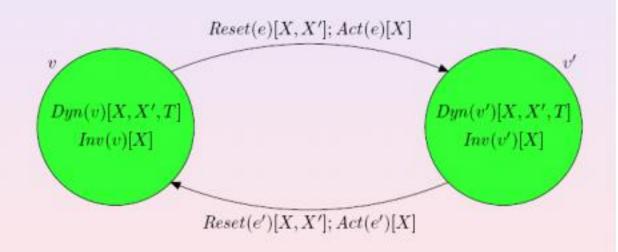
Thermostat



Intuition

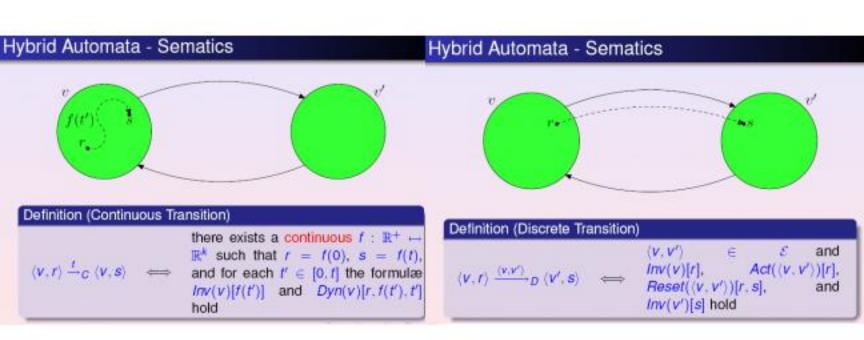
Hybrid Automata - Intuitively

Intuitively, a hybrid automaton is a finite state automaton H with continuous variables X

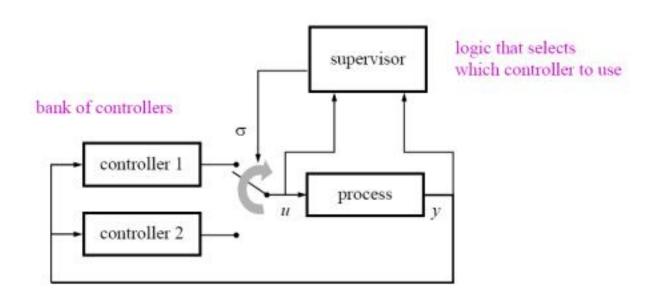


A state is a pair /v r/ where r is an evaluation for X

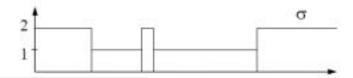
Semantics



Engineered Systems



 $\sigma \equiv$ switching signal taking values in the set $\{1,2\}$



Reachability

- Let H be a hybrid automaton of dimension k. A point r∈ R^k reaches a point s∈ R^k (in time t) if there exists a trace tr = ⟨ v, r ⟩, . . . , ⟨ u, s ⟩, for some v, u ∈ V (and t is simply the sum of the elapsed times in continuous transitions).
 - We use ReachSet (r) to denote the set of points reachable from r. Moreover, given a region R ⊆ R^k we use ReachSet (R) to denote the set ∪_{r∈R} ReachSet (r). □

Decidability

- It has been shown that "hybrid automata reachability problem" is not decidable.
- Characterizing subclasses of hybrid automata over which reachability is decidable
- A common approach for deciding reachability of hybrid automata employs the technique of discretizing the automata using
 - bisimulation: equivalence relations which strongly preserve reachability
 - abstractions (e.g., predicate abstraction).

Examples

- Examples: timed automata, multirate automata, rectangular automata, and ominimal automata...
- Rectangular automata are special cases of linear hybrid automata
- For a linear hybrid automata, its dynamics, invariants, and activation relations are all defined by linear expressions over the set Z of variables.

Linear Hybrid Automata

- For the control modes
 - The dynamics is defined by a differential equation of the form dz/dt = k, where k is a constant, one for each variable in Z
 - The invariants are defined by linear equalities and inequalities (corresponding to a convex polyhedron) in Z.
- For each transition, the set of reset assignments consists of linear formulæ in Z.
- Its trajectory is a piecewise linear function whose values at the points of discontinuity are finite sequences of discrete changes.

Nonlinear Hybrid Automata

- Changing linear descriptions to higher order algebraic descriptions...
- Semialgebraic Geometry
- Decidability through finite description via Tarski Algebra...

Computational Semialgebraic Geometry

- Study of various algorithmic questions dealing with the real solutions of a system of equalities, inequalities, and inequations of polynomials over the real numbers.
 - It is largely motivated by its applications to biology, robotics, vision, computer-aided design, geometric theorem proving, etc.

Tarski Formulas & Tarski Sentences

- Tarski formulas are formulas in a first-order language (defined by Tarski in 1930) constructed from equalities, inequalities, and inequations of polynomials over the reals.
- Such formulas may be constructed by introducing logical connectives and universal and existential quantifiers to the atomic formulas.
- Tarski sentences are Tarski formulas in which all variables are bound by quantification.

Theorem

- Let Y be a Tarski sentence. There is an effective decision procedure for Y.
 - Let Ψ be a Tarski formula. There is a quantifier-free formula Φ logically equivalent to Ψ .
- If Ψ involves only polynomials with rational coefficients, then so does the sentence Φ.

- **Term**: A constant, variable, or term combining two terms by an arithmetic operator: {+, -, ·, /}. A constant is a real number. A variable assumes a real number as its value. A term contains finitely many such algebraic variables: x₁, x₂, . . . , x_n.
- Atomic formula: A formula comparing two terms by a binary relational operator: {=, ≠, >,
 <, ≥, ≤}.

- Quantifier-free formula: An atomic formula, a negation of a quantifier-free formula given by the unary Boolean connective {¬}, or a formula combining two quantifier-free formulas by a binary Boolean connective: {⇒, ∧, ∨}.
 - Example: The formula $(x^2 2 = 0)$ ∧ (x > 0) defines the (real algebraic) number $+\sqrt{2}$.

• Tarski formula: If $\Phi(y_1, \ldots, y_r)$ is a quantifier-free formula, then it is also a Tarski formula. All the variables y_i are free in Φ . Let (y_1, \ldots, y_r) and (z_1, \ldots, z_s) be two Tarski formulas (with free variables y_i and z_i , respectively), then a formula combining and by a Boolean connective is a Tarski formula with free variables $\{y_i\} \cup \{z_i\}$. Lastly, if Q stands for a quantifier (either universal \forall or existential \exists) and if (y_1, \ldots, y_r, x) is a Tarski formula (with free variables x and y's), then

$$(Q x)[\Phi(y_1,\ldots,y_r,x)]$$

is a Tarski formula with only the y's as free variables. The variable x is bound in $(Q x)[\Phi]$.

- Tarski sentence: A Tarski formula with no free variable.
 - Example: $(\exists x) (\forall y) [y^2 x < 0]$. This Tarski sentence is false.
- Prenex Tarski formula: A Tarski formula of the form
 (Q x₁) (Q x₂) ··· (Q x_n) [Φ(y₁, y₂, ..., y_r, x₁, ..., x_n)],
 where φ is quantifier-free. The string of quantifiers
 (Q x₁) (Q x₂) ··· (Q x_n) is called the *prefix* and Φ is called the *matrix*.
- Prenex form of a Tarski formula, Ψ: A prenex Tarski formula logically equivalent to Ψ.

- For every Tarski formula, one can find its prenex form using a simple procedure that works in four steps: (1) eliminate redundant quantifiers, (2) rename variables so that the same variable does not occur as free and bound, (3) move negations inward; and finally, (4) push quantifiers to the left.
- Extension of a Tarski formula, $\Phi(y_1, \ldots, y_r)$ with free variables $\{y_1, \ldots, y_r\}$: The set of all $\langle \zeta_1, \ldots, \zeta_r \rangle \in \mathbb{R}^r$ such that

$$\Phi(\zeta_1,\ldots,\zeta_r)$$
 = True.

General Decision Problem for the First-order Theory of Reals

- The general decision problem for the first-order theory of reals: is to determine if a given Tarski sentence is true or false.
- The existential problem for the first-order theory of reals: An interesting special case of the problem is when all the quantifiers are existential.
- The general decision problem was shown to be decidable by Tarski [1930; published 1951].

Complexity Issues

- Tarski's original algorithm has a high complexity: a very rapidly-growing function of the input size
 - (e.g., it could not be expressed as a bounded tower of exponents of the input size).
- The first substantial improvement over Tarski's algorithm was due to Collins [1975]
 - doubly-exponential time complexity in the input size—the number of variables appearing in the sentence.
- Further improvements
 - (Grigor'ev-Vorobjov [1988], Canny [1988-93], Heintz et al. [1989-90], Renegar [1992])
 - Basu et al. [1994].

Algorithmic Complexity

 Assume that a Tarski sentence is presented in its prenex form:

$$(Q_1x^{[1]})$$
 $(Q_2x^{[2]})$ \cdots $(Q_m x^{[m]})$ $[\Psi(x^{[1]}, \ldots, x^{[m]})]$, where the Q_i 's form a sequence of alternating quantifiers (i.e., \forall or \exists , with every pair of consecutive quantifiers distinct), with $x^{[i]}$ a partition of the variables

 $\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} x^{[i]} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}, x, \text{ and } |x^{[i]}| = n_i$, and where Ψ is a quantifier-free formula with atomic predicates consisting of polynomial equalities and inequalities of the form

$$g_i(x^{[1]},\ldots,x^{[n]} \ge 0, i = 1,\ldots,m.$$

Bit-complexity of the Decision Problem

- Here, g_i is a multivariate polynomial (over \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{Q} , as the case may be) of total degree bounded by d.
- There are a total of m such polynomials.
- The special case ω = 1 reduces the problem to that of the existential problem for the first-order theory of reals.
- If the polynomials of the basic equalities, inequalities, inequations, etc., are over the rationals, then we assume that their coefficients can be stored with at most L bits. Thus the arithmetic complexity can be described in terms of n, n_i, ω, m, and d, and the bit complexity will involve L as well.

Bit-complexity of the Decision Problem

TABLE 29.1.1 Selected time complexity results.

GENERAL OR EXISTENTIAL	TIME COMPLEXITY	SOURCE
General	$L^3(md)^{2^{O(\Sigma n_i)}}$	[Col75]
Existential	$L^{O(1)}(md)^{O(n^2)}$	[GV92]
General	$L^{O(1)}(md)^{(O(\sum n_i))^{4\omega-2}}$	[Gri88]
Existential	$L^{1+o(1)}(m)^{(n+1)}(d)^{O(n^2)}$	[Can88b, Can93]
General	$(L \log L \log \log L)(md)^{(2^{O(\omega)}) \prod n_i}$	[Ren92a,b,c]
Existential	$(L \log L \log \log L) m (m/n)^n (d)^{O(n)}$	[BPR94]
General	$(L \log L \log \log L)(m)^{\Pi(n_i+1)}(d)^{\Pi O(n_i)}$	[BPR94]

Quantifier Elimination Problem

Given a Tarski formula of the form,
 Ψ(x^[0]) = (Q₁ x^[1]) (Q₂ x^[2]) ··· (Q₆ x^[6]) [ψ(x^[0], x^[1], ..., x^[6])],
 where ψ is a quantifier-free formula, the quantifier elimination problem is to construct another quantifier-free formula, φ(x^[0]), such that φ(x^[0]) holds if and only if φ(x^[0]) holds.

Quantifier-Free Formula

- Such a quantifier-free formula takes the form $\phi(x^{[0]}) \equiv \bigvee_{i=1}^{I} \bigwedge_{j=1}^{J_i} f_{i,j}(x^{[0]}) \gtrapprox 0,$ where $f_{i,j} \in \mathbb{R}[x^{[0]}]$ is a multivariate polynomial with real coefficients.
- Significantly improved bounds were given by Basu, Polack & and are summarized next

$$\begin{split} I &\leq (m)^{\prod (n_i+1)} (d)^{\prod O(n_i)} \\ J_i &\leq (m)^{\prod_{i>0} (n_i+1)} (d)^{\prod_{i>0} O(n_i)}. \end{split}$$

• The total degrees of the polynomials $f_{i,j}(x^{[0]})$ are bounded by

 $(d)^{\prod_{i>0} O(n_i)}$.

Quantifier-Free Formula

 The best bound for the size of the equivalent quantifier-free formula is now

$$I, J_i \leq (m)^{\prod_{i>0} (n_i+1)} (d)^{n'_0 \prod_{i>0} O(n_i)},$$

• where $n'_0 = \min(n_0, \tau \prod_{i>0}(n_i+1))$ and τ is a bound on the number of free-variables occurring in any polynomial in the original Tarski formula. The total degrees of the polynomials $f_{i,j}(x^{[0]})$ are still bounded by $(d)\Pi_{i>0} O(n_i)$.

Quantifier-Free Formula

 Furthermore, the algorithmic complexity of the new procedure involves only

 $(m)^{\prod_{i>0}(n_i+1)}(d)^{n'0\prod_{i>0}O(n_i)}$

arithmetic operations.

 Semialgebraic Set: A subset S ⊆ Rⁿ defined by a settheoretic expression involving a system of polynomial inequalities

$$S = \bigcup_{i=1}^{I} \bigcap_{j=1}^{J} i \left\{ \left\langle \xi_{1}, \ldots, \xi_{n} \right\rangle \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid sgn(f_{i,j}(\xi_{1}, \ldots, \xi_{n})) = s_{i,j} \right\},$$

- where the f_{i,j}'s are multivariate polynomials over R and the s_{i,j}'s are corresponding sets of signs in {-1, 0, +1}.
- Real algebraic set: A subset Z ⊆ Rⁿ defined by a system of algebraic equations.

$$Z = \{ \langle \xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n \rangle \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid f_1(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n) = \cdots = f_m(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n) = 0 \},$$

– where the f_i 's are multivariate polynomials over \mathbb{R} .

- Semialgebraic decomposition of a semialgebraic set
 S: A finite collection K of disjoint connected semialgebraic subsets of S whose union is S. The collection of connected components of a semialgebraic set forms a semialgebraic decomposition. Thus, every semialgebraic set admits a semialgebraic decomposition.
- Set of sample points for S: A finite number of points meeting every nonempty connected component of S.

Sign assignment: A vector of sign values of a set of polynomials at a point p. More formally, let F be a set of real multivariate polynomials in n variables. Any point p = ⟨ξ₁, . . . , ξ_n⟩ ∈ ℝⁿ has a sign assignment with respect to F as follows:

$$\operatorname{sgn}_{\mathcal{F}}(p) = \langle \operatorname{sgn}(f(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n)) \mid f \in \mathcal{F} \rangle.$$

 A sign assignment induces an equivalence relation: Given two points p, q ∈ Rⁿ, we say p ~_F q, if and only if sgn_F(p) = sgn_F(q).

Glossary

- Sign class of F: An equivalence class in the partition of ℝⁿ defined by the equivalence relation ~_F.
- Semialgebraic decomposition for F: A finite collection of disjoint connected semialgebraic subsets {C_i} such that each C_i is contained in some semialgebraic sign class of F. That is, the sign of each f∈ F is invariant in each C_i. The collection of connected components of the sign-invariant sets for F forms a semialgebraic decomposition for F.

Glossary

- Cell decomposition for F: A semialgebraic decomposition for F into finitely many disjoint semialgebraic subsets {C_i} called cells, such that each cell C_i is homeomorphic to ℝ^{δ(i)}, 0 ≤ δ(i) ≤ n. δ(i) is called the dimension of the cell C_i, and C_i is called a δ(i)-cell.
- Cellular decomposition for F: A cell decomposition for F such that the closure C_i of each cell C_i is a union of cells C_j: C*_i = ∪_j C_j.

Univariate Decomposition

- One-dimensional case: A semialgebraic set is the union of finitely many intervals whose endpoints are real algebraic numbers.
- Given a set of univariate defining polynomials:

$$\mathcal{F} = \{ f_i(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x] \mid i = 1, \dots, m \},\$$

we may enumerate all the real roots of the fi's (i.e., the real roots of the single polynomial $\mathcal{F} = \prod f_i$) as

$$-\infty < \xi_1 < \xi_2 < \dots < \xi_{i-1} < \xi_i < \xi_{i+1} < \dots < \xi_s < +\infty$$

 Consider the following finite set K of elementary intervals defined by these roots:

$$[-^{\infty},\,\xi_1),\,[\xi_1,\,\xi_1],\,(\xi_1,\,\xi_2),\,\ldots\,,\,(\xi_{i-1},\,\xi_i),\,[\xi_{i'},\,\xi_{i}],\,(\xi_{i'},\,\xi_{i+1}),\,\ldots\,,\,[\xi_s,\,\xi_s],\,(\xi_{s'}+^{\infty}].$$

Univariate Decomposition

Note that K is, in fact, a cellular decomposition for F.
 Any semialgebraic set S defined by F is simply the
 union of a subset of elementary intervals in K.
 Furthermore, for each interval C ∈ K, we can
 compute a sample point α_C as follows:

$$\alpha_C = \begin{cases} \xi_1^{\text{I}} - 1, & \text{if } C = [-\infty, \xi_1); \\ \xi_i, & \text{if } C = [\xi_i, \xi_i]; \\ (\xi_i + \xi_{i+1})/2, & \text{if } C = (\xi_i, \xi_{i+1}); \\ \xi_s + 1, & \text{if } C = (\xi_s, +\infty]. \end{cases}$$

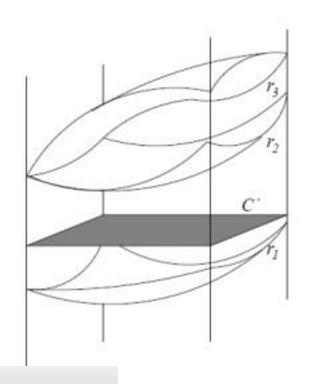
Multivariate Decomposition

- A generalization of the univariate decomposition to higher dimensions
- Collins's cylindrical algebraic decomposition.
- To represent a semialgebraic set S ⊆ ℝⁿ, assume recursively that we can construct a cell decomposition of its projection π(S) ⊆ ℝⁿ⁻¹ (also a semialgebraic set); ... then decompose S as a union of the sectors and sections in the cylinders above each cell of the projection, π(S). This also leads to a cell decomposition of S.

Multivariate Decomposition

- One can further assign an algebraic sample point in each cell of S recursively in a straightforward manner.
- If F is a set of polynomials defining the semialgebraic set S ⊆ ℝⁿ, then at no additional cost, we may in fact compute a cell decomposition for F using the procedure described above.
- Such a decomposition leads to a cylindrical algebraic decomposition for F.

Cylindrical Algebraic Decomposition



Cylindrical Algebraic Decomposition (CAD)

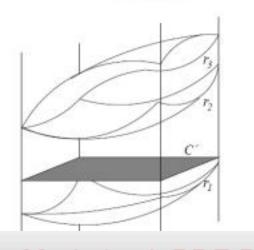
- A recursively defined cell decomposition of Rⁿ for F.
 The decomposition is a cellular decomposition if the set of defining polynomials F satisfies certain nondegeneracy conditions.
- In the recursive definition, the cells of n-dimensional CAD are constructed from an (n-1)-dimensional CAD: Every (n-1)-dimensional CAD cell C' has the property that the distinct real roots of F over C' vary continuously as a function of the points of C'.□

- Moreover, the following quantities remain invariant over a (n-1)-dimensional cell:
 - the total number of complex roots of each polynomial of F;
 - the number of distinct complex roots of each polynomial of F; and
 - the total number of common complex roots of every distinct pair of polynomials of F.
- These conditions can be expressed by a set Φ(F) of at most O(md)² polynomials in (n – 1) variables, obtained by considering principal subresultant coefficients (PSC's)..

- Thus, the conditions encoded by Φ(F) correspond roughly to resultants and discriminants, and ensure that the polynomials of F do not intersect or "fold" in a cylinder over an (n-1)-dimensional cell
- The polynomials in Φ(F) are each of degree no more than d².
- More formally, an F-sign-invariant cylindrical algebraic decomposition of ℝⁿ is:
- Base Case: n = 1. A univariate cellular decomposition of R1 as shown earlier

• Inductive Case: n > 1. Let K' be a $\Phi(\mathcal{F})$ -sign-invariant CAD of \mathbb{R}^{n-1} . For each cell $C' \in \mathcal{K}'$, define an auxiliary polynomial $g_{C'}(x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}, x_n)$ as the product of those polynomials of \mathcal{F} that do not vanish over the (n−1)-dimensional cell, C'. The real roots of the auxiliary polynomial g' over C' give rise to a finite number (perhaps zero) of semialgebraic continuous functions, which partition the cylinder $\mathbb{C}' \times (\mathbb{R} \cup \{\pm\})$ ∞) into finitely many \mathcal{F} -sign-invariant "slices." The auxiliary polynomials are of degree no larger than md.

- Assume that the polynomial g_C(p', x_n) has 1 distinct real roots for each p' ∈ C': r₁(p'), r₂(p'), . . . , r₁(p'), each r_i being a continuous function of p'.
- The following sectors and sections are cylindrical over C'



$$C_0^* = \left\{ \langle p', x_n \rangle \mid p' \in C' \land x_n \in [-\infty, r_1(p')) \right\},$$

$$C_1 = \left\{ \langle p', x_n \rangle \mid p' \in C' \land x_n \in [r_1(p'), r_1(p')] \right\},$$

$$C_1^* = \left\{ \langle p', x_n \rangle \mid p' \in C' \land x_n \in (r_1(p'), r_2(p')) \right\},$$

$$\vdots$$

Sample Points

- Cylindrical algebraic decomposition (CAD) provides a sample point in every sign-invariant connected component for $\mathcal F$
- However, the total number of sample points generated is doubly-exponential, while the number of connected components of all sign conditions is only singly-exponential.
- In order to avoid this high complexity (both algebraic and combinatorial) of a CAD, many efficient techniques have been proposed recently.

- In the general case, the decision procedure follows a search process that proceeds only on the coordinates of the sample points in the CAD
- This follows because a sample point in a cell acts as a representative for any point in the cell as far as the sign conditions are concerned.
- Consider a Tarski sentence

$$(Q_1x^{[1]}) (Q_2x^{[2]}) \cdots (Q_m x^{[m]}) [\psi(x^{[1]}, \dots, x^{[m]}],$$

with \mathcal{F} the set of polynomials appearing in the matrix ψ . Let \mathcal{K} be a cylindrical algebraic decomposition of \mathbb{R}^n for \mathcal{F} .

 Since the cylindrical algebraic decomposition produces a sequence of decompositions:

$$\mathcal{K}_1$$
 of \mathbb{R}^1 , \mathcal{K}_2 of \mathbb{R}^2 , ..., \mathcal{K}_n of \mathbb{R}^n ,

• such that the each cell $C_{i-1,j}$ of \mathcal{K}_i is cylindrical over some cell C_{i-1} of \mathcal{K}_{i-1} , the search progresses by first finding cells C_1 of \mathcal{K}_1 such that

$$(Q_2x_2) \cdots (Q_n x_n) [\psi(\alpha_{C_1}, x_2, \dots, x_n)] = True.$$

• For each C_1 , the search continues over cells C_{12} of \mathcal{K}_2 cylindrical over C_1 such that

$$(Q_3x_3) \cdots (Q_nx_n) [\psi(\alpha_{C_1}, \alpha_{C_{12}}, x_3, \dots, x_n)] = True,$$
 etc.

- Finally, at the bottom level the truth properties of the matrix ψ are determined by evaluating at all the coordinates of the sample points.
- This produces a tree structure, where each node at the (i-1)-th level corresponds to a cell $C_{i-1} \in \mathcal{K}_{i-1}$ and its children correspond to the cells $C_{i-1,j} \in \mathcal{K}_i$ that are cylindrical over C_{i-1} . The leaves of the tree correspond to the cells of the final decomposition $\mathcal{K} = \mathcal{K}_n$. Because we only have finitely many sample points, the universal quantifiers can be replaced by finitely many conjunctions and the existential quantifiers by disjunctions.

- Thus, we label every node at the (i-1)-th level "AND" (respectively, "OR") if Q_i is a universal quantifier ∀ (respectively, ∃) to produce a so-called AND-OR tree. The truth of the Tarski sentence is thus determined by simply evaluating this AND-OR tree.
- A quantifier elimination algorithm can be devised by a similar reasoning and a slight modification of the CAD algorithm described earlier.

Next Step

- Explore possible confluence of the theory of hybrid automata and the techniques of algorithmic algebra and model checking to create a computational basis for systems biology.
- Simplest Scenario:
- Devise a method to compute bounded reachability by combining Taylor polynomials and cylindric algebraic decomposition algorithms.
- What are the power and limitations of this framework.

Algorithmic Algebraic Model Checking

- Replacing numerical integration by a symbolic step:
- Generalizing Euler forward Numerical integration:
 f(X,t+h) ~ f(X,t) + c₁.f'(X,t) h + ··· + c_k.f"(X,t) h^k
- Expression in "X", "t" and "h"
- Error: integration discretization approximation
- Model Checking = iterative process of checking what is true now and at "next" time
- Possible over "semi-algebraic sets" using "quantifier elimination"

Symbolic Model Checking

- Take the following question: Is a semialgebraic formula Φ an invariant of the system?
- Given Φ is true at t, is it true at t+h?

$$\forall_t \Phi(s(t)) \Rightarrow \Phi(s(t+h))$$
?

The above statement can be expressed as a Tarski sentence...

Topics in Semi-Algebraic Hybrid Systems

- Algorithmic Algebraic Model Checking
- Semi-Algebraic subclass & TCTL
- Undecidability in the "real" Turing Machine
- Approximate Methods: Extended Bisimulation Partitioning, Polytopes, Grids, Time Discretization

History

Algorithmic Algebra

- A mathematician in the court of Caliph Harun Al Rasid of Abassid Dynasty
- Two of his books:
 - Al-Kitab al-Mukhtasar fi-hisab al-Jabr al_Muqabalah (Algebra)
 - Kitab al-Jam'a wal-Tafreeq bil-Hisab al-Hindi (Algorithm)
 - Translated into Latin in the twelfth century, as Algoritmi de numero Indorum
 - Translated Aryabhatta's Siddhanta into Arabic (SindHind)
- Amalgamation of Indian & Greek mathematics



- 820: The word algebra is derived from operations described in the treatise of al-Khwārizmī titled Al-Kitab al-Jabr wa-l-Muqabala
- Circa 850: Persian mathematician al-Mahani conceived the idea of reducing geometrical problems such as duplicating the cube to problems in algebra.
- Circa 850: Indian mathematician Mahavira solves various quadratic, cubic, quartic, quintic and higher-order equations, as well as indeterminate quadratic, cubic and higher-order equations.

- Circa 990: Persian Abu Bakr al-Karaji, in his treatise al-Fakhri, further develops algebra ... He replaces geometrical operations of algebra with modern arithmetical operations, and defines the monomials x, x₂, x₃, ... and 1/x, 1/x₂, 1/x₃, ... and gives rules for the products of any two of these.
- Circa 1050: Chinese mathematician Jia Xian finds numerical solutions of polynomial equations.
- 1072: Persian mathematician Omar Khayyam develops algebraic geometry and, in the Treatise on Demonstration of Problems of Algebra, gives a complete classification of cubic equations

- 1114: Indian mathematician Bhaskara, in his Bijaganita (Algebra), solves various cubic, quartic and higher-order polynomial equations, as well as the general quadratic indeterminant equation.
- 1202: Algebra is introduced to Europe largely through the work of Leonardo Fibonacci of Pisa in his work Liber Abaci.
- Circa 1300: Chinese mathematician Zhu Shijie deals with polynomial algebra, solves simultaneous equations etc.
- Circa 1400: Indian mathematician Madhava of Sangamagramma finds iterative methods for approximate solution of non-linear equations.

- 1545: Girolamo Cardano publishes Ars magna -The great art which gives Fontana's solution to the general quartic equation.
- 1591: François Viete develops improved symbolic notation *In artem analyticam isagoge*.
- 1682: Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz develops his notion of symbolic manipulation with formal rules which he calls characteristica generalis.

- 1750: Gabriel Cramer, in his treatise Introduction to the analysis of algebraic curves, states Cramer's rule and studies algebraic curves, matrices and determinants.
- 1824: Niels Henrik Abel proved that the general quintic equation is insoluble by radicals.
- 1832: Galois theory is developed by Évariste Galois in his work on abstract algebra.



Semialgebraic Geomtery

- 1950: Tarski's work on a decision method for elementary algebra and geometry
 - Tarski's method is rather prohibitive, as its complexity cannot be bound by a tower of exponential functions, i.e. is not even elementary recursive.
 - This asymptotic complexity is also the one of the methods described by Seidenberg and Cohen.
- The first elementary recursive method was found by Collins using the technique of Cylindrical Algebraic Decomposition (CAD), whose complexity is doubly exponential.

Practicality

- For purely existentially or universally quantified problems methods of single exponential complexity was described first by Renegar.
- A practically working quantifier-elimination methods have been the so called "virtual substitution" methods. Based on ideas of Ferrante and Rackoff for decision problems, virtual substitution methods for quantifier elimination was created by Weispfenning.
- Implemented in Redlog

Quantifier Elimination (QE)

- Hong implemented Qepcad
- Other Tools: Redlog, Maple, Mathematica, AQCS
 - Input: $(\exists x) [x^2 + bx + c = 0]$
 - Output: $[b^2 4c >= 0]$

..to be continued...

Symbolic Computation Algebraic Biology IV

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Hybrid Systems

- Hybrid Models
- Algorithmic Algebraic Models & Model Checking
- O-minimal Systems & SaCoRe
- IDA
- Open Problems

The End