On a problem posed by Steve Smale

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Abstract

The 17th of the problems proposed by Steve Smale for the 21st century asks for the existence of a deterministic algorithm computing an approximate solution of a system of \( n \) complex polynomials in \( n \) unknowns in time polynomial, on the average, in the size \( N \) of the input system. A partial solution to this problem was given by Carlos Beltrán and Luis Miguel Pardo who exhibited a randomized algorithm doing so. In this paper we further extend this result in several directions. Firstly, we exhibit a linear homotopy algorithm that efficiently implements a nonconstructive idea of Mike Shub. This algorithm is then used in a randomized algorithm, call it \( \text{LV} \), à la Beltrán-Pardo. Secondly, we perform a smoothed analysis (in the sense of Spielman and Teng) of algorithm \( \text{LV} \) and prove that its smoothed complexity is polynomial in the input size and \( \sigma^{-1} \), where \( \sigma \) controls the size of of the random perturbation of the input systems. Thirdly, we perform a condition-based analysis of \( \text{LV} \). That is, we give a bound, for each system \( f \), of the expected running time of \( \text{LV} \) with input \( f \). In addition to its dependence on \( N \) this bound also depends on the condition of \( f \). Fourthly, and to conclude, we return to Smale’s 17th problem as originally formulated for deterministic algorithms. We exhibit such an algorithm and show that its average complexity is \( N^{O((\log \log N)} \). This is nearly a solution to Smale’s 17th problem.

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1. Introduction

In 2000, Steve Smale published a list of mathematical problems for the 21st century [29]. The 17th problem in the list reads as follows:

Can a zero of \( n \) complex polynomial equations in \( n \) unknowns be found approximately, on the average, in polynomial time with a uniform algorithm?

Smale pointed out that “it is reasonable” to homogenize the polynomial equations by adding a new variable and to work in projective space after which he made precise the different notions intervening in the question above. We
provide these definitions in full detail in Section 2. Before doing so, in the
remainder of this section, we briefly describe the recent history of Smale’s 17th
problem and the particular contribution of the present paper. The following
summary of notations should suffice for this purpose.

We denote by $\mathcal{H}_d$ the linear space of complex homogeneous polynomial
systems in $n + 1$ variables, with a fixed degree pattern $d = (d_1, \ldots, d_n)$. We
let $D = \max_i d_i$, $N = \dim_{\mathbb{C}} \mathcal{H}_d$, and $D = \prod_i d_i$. We endow this space with the
unitarily invariant Bombieri-Weyl Hermitian product and consider the unit
sphere $S(\mathcal{H}_d)$ with respect to the norm induced by this product. We then
make this sphere a probability space by considering the uniform measure on
it. The expression “on the average” refers to expectation on this probability
space. Also, the expression “approximate zero” refers to a point for which
Newton’s method, starting at it, converges immediately, quadratically fast.

This is the setting underlying the series of papers [22], [23], [24], [26], [25]—
commonly referred to as “the Bézout series” — written by Shub and Smale
during the first half of the 1990s, a collection of ideas, methods, and results that
pervade all the research done in Smale’s 17th problem since this was proposed.
The overall idea in the Bézout series is to use a linear homotopy. That is, one
starts with a system $g$ and a zero $\zeta$ of $g$ and considers the segment $E_{f,g}$ with
extremities $f$ and $g$. Here $f$ is the system whose zero we want to compute.
Almost surely, when one moves from $g$ to $f$, the zero $\zeta$ of $g$ follows a curve
in projective space to end in a zero of $f$. The homotopy method consists of
dividing the segment $E_{f,g}$ in a number, say $k$, of subsegments $E_i$ small enough
to ensure that an approximate zero $x_i$ of the system at the origin of $E_i$ can be
made into an approximate zero $x_{i+1}$ of the system at its end (via one step of
Newton’s method). The difficulty of this overall idea lies in the following issues:

1. How does one choose the initial pair $(g, \zeta)$?
2. How does one choose the subsegments $E_i$? In particular, how large
should $k$ be?

The state of the art at the end of the Bézout series, i.e., in [25], showed an
incomplete picture. For (2), the rule consisted of taking a regular subdivision of
$E_{f,g}$ for a given $k$, executing the path-following procedure, and repeating with
$k$ replaced by $2k$ if the final point could not be shown to be an approximate zero
of $f$. (Shub and Smale provided criteria for checking this.) Concerning (1),
Shub and Smale proved that good initial pairs $(g, \zeta)$ (in the sense that the
average number of iterations for the rule above was polynomial in the size
of $f$) existed for each degree pattern $d$, but they could not exhibit a procedure
to generate one such pair.

The next breakthrough took a decade to come. Beltrán and Pardo pro-
posed in [4], [5] that the initial pair $(g, \zeta)$ should be randomly chosen. The con-
sideration of randomized algorithms departs from the formulation of Smale’s
17th problem\footnote{In his description of Problem 17 Smale writes “Time is measured by the number of arithmetic operations and comparisons, \( \leq \), using real machines (as in Problem 3)” and in the latter he points that, “In [Blum-Shub-Smale,1989] a satisfactory definition [of these machines] is proposed.” The paper [9] quoted by Smale deals exclusively with deterministic machines. Furthermore, Smale adds that “a probability measure must be put on the space of all such \( f \), for each \( \mathbf{d} = (d_1, \ldots, d_n) \), and the time of an algorithm is averaged over the space of \( f \).” Hence, the expression ‘average time’ refers to expectation over the input data only.} but it is widely accepted that, in practical terms, such algorithms are as good as their deterministic siblings. And in the case at hand this departure turned out to pay off. The average (over \( f \)) of the expected (over \((g, \zeta)\)) number of iterations of the algorithm proposed in [5] is \( \mathcal{O}(n^5N^2D^3\log D) \). One of the most notable features of the ideas introduced by Beltrán and Pardo is the use of a measure on the space of pairs \((g, \zeta)\) which is friendly enough to perform a probabilistic analysis while, at the same time, does allow for efficient sampling.

Shortly after the publication of [4], [5] Shub wrote a short paper of great importance [21]. Complexity bounds in both the Bézout series and the Beltrán-Pardo results rely on condition numbers. Shub and Smale had introduced a measure of condition \( \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, \zeta) \) for \( f \in \mathcal{H}_d \) and \( \zeta \in \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \) which, in case \( \zeta \) is a zero of \( f \), quantifies how much \( \zeta \) varies when \( f \) is slightly perturbed. Using this measure they defined the condition number of a system \( f \) by taking

\[
\mu_{\text{max}}(f) := \max_{\zeta | f(\zeta) = 0} \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, \zeta).
\]

The bounds mentioned above make use of an estimate for the worst-conditioned system along the segment \( E_{f,g} \), that is, of the quantity

\[
\max_{q \in E_{f,g}} \mu_{\text{max}}(q).
\]

The main result in [21] shows that there exists a partition of \( E_{f,g} \) which successfully computes an approximate zero of \( f \) whose number \( k \) of pieces satisfies

\[
k \leq CD^{3/2} \int_{q \in E_{f,g}} \mu_2^2(q) \, dq,
\]

where \( C \) is a constant and \( \mu_2(q) \) is the mean square condition number of \( q \) given by

\[
\mu_2^2(q) := \frac{1}{D} \sum_{\zeta | q(\zeta) = 0} \mu_{\text{norm}}^2(q, \zeta).
\]

This partition is explicitly described in [21], but no constructive procedure to compute the partition is given there.
In an oversight of this nonconstructibility, Beltrán and Pardo [6] provided a new version of their randomized algorithm\(^2\) with an improved complexity of \(O(D^{3/2} n N)\).

A first goal of this paper is to validate Beltrán and Pardo’s analysis in [6] by exhibiting an efficiently constructible partition of \(E_{f,g}\) which satisfies a bound like (1.3). Our way of doing so owes much to the ideas in [21]. The path-following procedure ALH relying on this partition is described in detail in Section 3.1 together with a result, Theorem 3.1, bounding its complexity as in (1.3).

The second goal of this paper is to perform a smoothed analysis of a randomized algorithm (essentially Beltrán-Pardo randomization plus ALH) computing a zero of \(f\), which we call \(LV\). What smoothed analysis is, is succinctly explained in the citation of the Gödel prize 2008 awarded to its creators, Daniel Spielman and Teng Shang-Hua.\(^3\)

Smoothed Analysis is a novel approach to the analysis of algorithms. It bridges the gap between worst-case and average case behavior by considering the performance of algorithms under a small perturbation of the input. As a result, it provides a new rigorous framework for explaining the practical success of algorithms and heuristics that could not be well understood through traditional algorithm analysis methods.

In a nutshell, smoothed analysis is a probabilistic analysis which replaces the ‘evenly spread’ measures underlying the usual average-case analysis (uniform measures, standard normals, ...) by a measure centered at the input data. That is, it replaces the ‘average data input’ (an unlikely input in actual computations) by a small random perturbation of a worst-case data and substitutes the typical quantity studied in the average-case context,

\[
\mathbb{E}_{f \sim K} \varphi(f),
\]

by

\[
\sup_{J} \mathbb{E}_{f \sim c(J, r)} \varphi(f).
\]

\(^2\)The algorithm in [6] explicitly calls as a subroutine “the homotopy algorithm of [21]” without noticing that the partition in [21] is nonalgorithmic. Actually, the word ‘algorithm’ is never used in [21]. The main goal of [21], as stated in the abstract, is to motivate “the study of short paths or geodesics in the condition metric” —the proof of (1.3) does not require the homotopy to be linear and one may wonder whether other paths in \(H_d\) may substantially decrease the integral in the right-hand side. This goal has been addressed, but not attained, in [7]. As of today it remains a fascinating open problem.

\(^3\)See [http://www.fmi.uni-stuttgart.de/ti/personen/Diekert/citation08.pdf](http://www.fmi.uni-stuttgart.de/ti/personen/Diekert/citation08.pdf) for the whole citation.
Here \( \varphi(f) \) is the function of \( f \) one is interested in (e.g., the complexity of an algorithm over input \( f \)), \( \mathcal{R} \) is the ‘evenly spread’ measure mentioned above and \( C(\mathcal{T}, r) \) is an isotropic measure centered at \( \mathcal{T} \) with a dispersion (e.g., variance) given by a (small) parameter \( r > 0 \).

An immediate advantage of smoothed analysis is its robustness with respect to the measure \( C \) (see §3.4 below). This is in contrast with the most common critique to average-case analysis: “A bound on the performance of an algorithm under one distribution says little about its performance under another distribution, and may say little about the inputs that occur in practice” [31].

The precise details of the smoothed analysis we perform for zero finding are in Section 3.4.

To describe the third goal of this paper we recall Smale’s ideas of complexity analysis as exposed in [28]. In this program-setting paper Smale writes that he sees “much of the complexity theory […] of numerical analysis conveniently represented by a two-part scheme.” The first part amounts to obtain, for the running time \( \text{time}(f) \) of an algorithm on input \( f \), an estimate of the form

\[
\text{time}(f) \leq K(\text{size}(f) + \mu(f))^c,
\]

where \( K \) and \( c \) are positive constants and \( \mu(f) \) is a condition number for \( f \). The second takes the form

\[
\text{Prob}\{\mu(f) \geq T\} \leq T^{-c},
\]

“where a probability measure has been put on the space of inputs.” The first part of this scheme provides understanding on the behavior of the algorithm for specific inputs \( f \) (in terms of their condition as measured by \( \mu(f) \)). The second, combined with the first, allows one to obtain probability bounds for \( \text{time}(f) \) in terms of \( \text{size}(f) \) only. But these bounds say little about \( \text{time}(f) \) for actual input data \( f \).

Part one of Smale’s program is missing in the work related with his 17th problem. All estimates on the running time of path-following procedures for a given \( f \) occurring in both the Bézout series and the work by Beltrán and Pardo are expressed in terms of the quantity in (1.2) or the integral in (1.3), not purely in terms of the condition of \( f \). We fill this gap by showing for the expected running time of \( \text{LV} \) a bound like (1.5) with \( \mu(f) = \mu_{\text{max}}(f) \). The precise statement, Theorem 3.7, is in Section 3.6 below.

Last but not least, to close this introduction, we return to its opening theme: Smale’s 17th problem. Even though randomized algorithms are efficient in theory and reliable in practice, they do not offer an answer to the question of the existence of a deterministic algorithm computing approximate
zeros of complex polynomial systems in average polynomial time. The situation is akin to the development of primality testing. It was precisely with this problem that randomized algorithms became a means to deal with apparently intractable problems [30], [17]. Yet, the eventual display of a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm [1] was justly welcomed as a major achievement. The fourth main result in this paper exhibits a deterministic algorithm computing approximate zeros in average time $N^{O(\log \log N)}$. To do so we design and analyze a deterministic homotopy algorithm, call it $\text{MD}$, whose average complexity is polynomial in $n$ and $N$ and exponential in $D$. This already yields a polynomial-time algorithm when one restricts the degree $D$ to be at most $n^{1-\varepsilon}$ for any fixed $\varepsilon > 0$ (and, in particular, when $D$ is fixed as in a system of quadratic or cubic equations). Algorithm $\text{MD}$ is fast when $D$ is small. We complement it with an algorithm that uses a procedure proposed by Jim Renegar [18] and which computes approximate zeros similarly fast when $D$ is large.

In order to prove the results described above we have relied on a number of ideas and techniques. Some of them —e.g., the use of the coarea formula or of the Bombieri-Weyl Hermitian inner product— are taken from the Bézout series and are pervasive in the literature on the subject. Some others —notably the use of the Gaussian distribution and its truncations in Euclidean space instead of the uniform distribution on a sphere or a projective space— are less common. The blending of these ideas has allowed us a development which unifies the treatment of the several situations we consider for zero finding in this paper.

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2. Preliminaries

2.1. Setting and notation. For $d \in \mathbb{N}$ we denote by $\mathcal{H}_d$ the subspace of $\mathbb{C}[X_0, \ldots, X_n]$ of homogeneous polynomials of degree $d$. For $f \in \mathcal{H}_d$, we write

$$f(x) = \sum_{\alpha} \binom{d}{\alpha} a_\alpha X^\alpha,$$

where $\alpha = (\alpha_0, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ is assumed to range over all multi-indices such that $|\alpha| = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \alpha_k = d$, $\binom{d}{\alpha}$ denotes the multinomial coefficient, and $X^\alpha := X_0^{\alpha_0} X_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots X_n^{\alpha_n}$. That is, we take for basis of the linear space $\mathcal{H}_d$ the Bombieri-Weyl basis consisting of the monomials $\binom{d}{\alpha}^{1/2} X_\alpha$. A reason to do so is that the
Hermitian inner product associated to this basis is unitarily invariant. That is, if \( g \in \mathcal{H}_d \) is given by
\[
g(x) = \sum_\alpha (d^\alpha)^{1/2} b_\alpha X^\alpha,
\]
then the canonical Hermitian inner product
\[
\langle f, g \rangle = \sum_{|\alpha|=d} a_\alpha \overline{b_\alpha}
\]
satisfies, for all element \( \nu \) in the unitary group \( U(n+1) \), that
\[
\langle f, g \rangle = \langle f \circ \nu, g \circ \nu \rangle.
\]

Fix \( d_1, \ldots, d_n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \) and let \( \mathcal{H}_d = \mathcal{H}_{d_1} \times \cdots \times \mathcal{H}_{d_n} \) be the vector space of polynomial systems \( f = (f_1, \ldots, f_n) \) with \( f_i \in \mathbb{C}[X_0, \ldots, X_n] \) homogeneous of degree \( d_i \). The space \( \mathcal{H}_d \) is naturally endowed with a Hermitian inner product
\[
\langle f, g \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \langle f_i, g_i \rangle.
\]
We denote by \( \|f\| \) the corresponding norm of \( f \in \mathcal{H}_d \).

Recall that \( N = \dim \mathbb{C} \mathcal{H}_d \) and \( D = \max_i d_i \). Also, in the rest of this paper, we assume \( D \geq 2 \) (the case \( D = 1 \) being solvable with elementary linear algebra).

Let \( \mathbb{P}^n := \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{C}^{n+1}) \) denote the complex projective space associated to \( \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \) and \( S(\mathcal{H}_d) \) the unit sphere of \( \mathcal{H}_d \). These are smooth manifolds that naturally carry the structure of a Riemannian manifold (for \( \mathbb{P}^n \) the metric is called Fubini-Study metric). We will denote by \( d_{\mathbb{P}} \) and \( d_{S} \) their Riemannian distances which, in both cases, amount to the angle between the arguments. Specifically, for \( x, y \in \mathbb{P}^n \), one has
\[
\cos d_{\mathbb{P}}(x, y) = \frac{|\langle x, y \rangle|}{\|x\| \|y\|}.
\]

Occasionally, for \( f, g \in \mathcal{H}_d \setminus \{0\} \), we will abuse language and write \( d_{S}(f, g) \) to denote this angle, that is, the distance \( d_{S}(\frac{f}{\|f\|}, \frac{g}{\|g\|}) \).

We define the solution variety to be
\[
V_{\mathbb{P}} := \{(f, \zeta) \in \mathcal{H}_d \times \mathbb{P}^n \mid f \neq 0 \text{ and } f(\zeta) = 0\}.
\]
This is a smooth submanifold of \( \mathcal{H}_d \times \mathbb{P}^n \) and hence also carries a Riemannian structure. We denote by \( V_{\mathbb{P}}(f) \) the zero set of \( f \in \mathcal{H}_d \) in \( \mathbb{P}^n \). By Bézout’s theorem, it contains \( D \) points for almost all \( f \). Let \( Df(\zeta)|_{T_\zeta} \) denote the restriction of the derivative of \( f : \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \to \mathbb{C}^n \) at \( \zeta \) to the tangent space \( T_\zeta := \{v \in \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \mid \langle v, \zeta \rangle = 0\} \) of \( \mathbb{P}^n \) at \( \zeta \). The subvariety of ill-posed pairs is defined as
\[
\Sigma_{\mathbb{P}} := \{(f, \zeta) \in V_{\mathbb{P}} \mid \text{rank } Df(\zeta)|_{T_\zeta} < n\}.
\]
Note that \( (f, \zeta) \notin \Sigma_{\mathbb{P}} \) means that \( \zeta \) is a simple zero of \( f \). In this case, by the implicit function theorem, the projection \( V_{\mathbb{P}} \to \mathcal{H}_d \), \( (g, x) \mapsto g \) can be locally inverted around \( (f, \zeta) \). The image \( \Sigma \) of \( \Sigma_{\mathbb{P}} \) under the projection \( V_{\mathbb{P}} \to \mathcal{H}_d \) is called the discriminant variety.
2.2. Newton’s method. In [20], Mike Shub introduced the following projective version of Newton’s method. We associate to \( f \in \mathcal{H}_d \) (with \( Df(x) \) of rank \( n \) for some \( x \)) a map \( N_f : \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\} \to \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\} \) defined (almost everywhere) by

\[
N_f(x) = x - Df(x)^{-1} f(x).
\]

Note that \( N_f(x) \) is homogeneous of degree 0 in \( f \) and of degree 1 in \( x \) so that \( N_f \) induces a rational map from \( \mathbb{P}^n \) to \( \mathbb{P}^n \) (which we will still denote by \( N_f \)), and this map is invariant under multiplication of \( f \) by constants.

We note that \( N_f(x) \) can be computed from \( f \) and \( x \) very efficiently; since the Jacobian \( Df(x) \) can be evaluated with \( O(N) \) arithmetic operations [3], one can do with a total of \( O(N + n^3) \) arithmetic operations.

It is well known that when \( x \) is sufficiently close to a simple zero \( \zeta \) of \( f \), the sequence of Newton iterates beginning at \( x \) will converge quadratically fast to \( \zeta \). This property led Steve Smale to define the following intrinsic notion of approximate zero.

**Definition 2.1.** By an approximate zero of \( f \in \mathcal{H}_d \) associated with a zero \( \zeta \in \mathbb{P}^n \) of \( f \), we understand a point \( x \in \mathbb{P}^n \) such that the sequence of Newton iterates (adapted to projective space)

\[
x_{i+1} := N_f(x_i)
\]

with initial point \( x_0 := x \) converges immediately quadratically to \( \zeta \), i.e.,

\[
d_{\mathbb{P}}(x_i, \zeta) \leq \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^{2^i - 1} d_{\mathbb{P}}(x_0, \zeta)
\]

for all \( i \in \mathbb{N} \).

2.3. Condition numbers. How close need \( x \) be from \( \zeta \) to be an approximate zero? This depends on how well conditioned the zero \( \zeta \) is.

For \( f \in \mathcal{H}_d \) and \( x \in \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\} \), we define the (normalized) condition number \( \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, x) \) by

\[
\mu_{\text{norm}}(f, x) := \|f\| \left\| (Df(x)|_{T_x})^{-1} \text{diag}(\sqrt{d_1}\|x\|^{d_1-1}, \ldots, \sqrt{d_n}\|x\|^{d_n-1}) \right\|
\]

where \( T_x \) denotes the Hermitian complement of \( \mathbb{C}x \), the right-hand side norm is the spectral norm, and \( \text{diag}(a_i) \) denotes the diagonal matrix with entries \( a_i \). Note that \( \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, x) \) is homogeneous of degree 0 in both arguments; hence it is well defined for \( (f, x) \in \mathcal{H}_d \times \mathbb{P}^n \). If \( x \) is a simple zero of \( f \), then \( \ker Df(x) = \mathbb{C}x \) and hence \( (Df(x)|_{T_x})^{-1} \) can be identified with the Moore-Penrose inverse \( Df(x)^{-1} \) of \( Df(x) \). We have \( \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, x) \geq 1 \); cf. [8, §12.4, Cor. 3].

The following result (essentially, a \( \gamma \)-Theorem in Smale’s theory of estimates for Newton’s method [27]) quantifies our claim above.

**Theorem 2.2.** Assume \( f(\zeta) = 0 \) and \( d_{\mathbb{P}}(x, \zeta) \leq \frac{u_0}{\sqrt{d_{\mathbb{P}}(f, \zeta)}} \), where \( u_0 := 3 - \sqrt{7} \approx 0.3542 \). Then \( x \) is an approximate zero of \( f \) associated with \( \zeta \).
Proof. This is an immediate consequence of the projective \( \gamma \)-Theorem in [8, p. 263, Th. 1] combined with the higher derivative estimate [8, p. 267, Th. 2]. \( \square \)

2.4. Gaussian distributions. The distribution of input data will be modelled with Gaussians. Let \( \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \) and \( \sigma > 0 \). We recall that the Gaussian distribution \( N(\mathbf{x}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}) \) on \( \mathbb{R}^n \) with mean \( \mathbf{x} \) and covariance matrix \( \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} \) is given by the density

\[
\rho(x) = \left( \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \right)^n \exp \left( -\frac{\|x - \mathbf{x}\|^2}{2\sigma^2} \right).
\]

3. Statement of main results

3.1. The homotopy continuation routine ALH. Suppose that we are given an input system \( f \in \mathcal{H}_d \) and an initial pair \( (g, \zeta) \) in the solution variety \( V_\Sigma \) such that \( f \) and \( g \) are \( \mathbb{R} \)-linearly independent. Let \( \alpha = d_\Sigma(f, g) \). Consider the line segment \( E_{f,g} \) in \( \mathcal{H}_d \) with endpoints \( f \) and \( g \). We parametrize this segment by writing

\[
E_{f,g} = \{ \mathbf{q}_\tau \in \mathcal{H}_d \mid \tau \in [0, 1] \},
\]

with \( \mathbf{q}_\tau \) being the only point in \( E_{f,g} \) such that \( d_\Sigma(g, \mathbf{q}_\tau) = \tau \alpha \) (see Figure 1). Explicitly, we have \( \mathbf{q}_\tau = tf + (1 - t)g \), where \( t = t(\tau) \) is given by equation (5.4) below. If \( E_{f,g} \) does not intersect the discriminant variety \( \Sigma \), there is a unique continuous map \( [0, 1] \to V_\Sigma, \tau \mapsto (\mathbf{q}_\tau, \zeta_\tau) \) such that \( (\mathbf{q}_0, \zeta_0) = (g, \zeta) \), called the lifting of \( E_{f,g} \) with origin \( (g, \zeta) \). In order to find an approximation of the zero \( \zeta_1 \) of \( f = q_1 \), we may start with the zero \( \zeta = \zeta_0 \) of \( g = q_0 \) and numerically follow the path \( (\mathbf{q}_\tau, \zeta_\tau) \) by subdividing \([0, 1] \) with points \( 0 = \tau_0 < \tau_1 < \cdots < \tau_k = 1 \) and by successively computing approximations \( x_i \) of \( \zeta_{\tau_i} \) by Newton’s method.

More precisely, we consider the following algorithm ALH (Adaptive Linear Homotopy) with the stepsize parameter \( \lambda = 6.67 \cdot 10^{-3} \).

Algorithm ALH

input \( f, g \in \mathcal{H}_d \) and \( \zeta \in \mathbb{P}^n \) such that \( g(\zeta) = 0 \)

\[
\alpha := d_\Sigma(f, g), \quad r := \|f\|, \quad s := \|g\|
\]

\[
\tau := 0, \quad q := g, \quad x := \zeta
\]

repeat

\[
\Delta \tau := \frac{\lambda}{\alpha D^{3/2} \mu_\Sigma^{3/2}(q,x)}
\]

\[
\tau := \min\{1, \tau + \Delta \tau\}
\]

\[
t := \frac{s}{\tau \sin \alpha \cot(\tau \alpha) - \tau \cos \alpha + s}
\]

\[
q := tf + (1 - t)g
\]

\[
x := N_q(x)
\]

until \( \tau = 1 \)

RETURN \( x \)
Our main result for this algorithm, which we will prove in Section 4, is the following.

**Theorem 3.1.** The algorithm ALH stops after at most \( k \) steps with

\[
k \leq 245 D^{3/2} d_5(f, g) \int_0^1 \mu_2^2(q_\tau, \zeta_\tau) d\tau.
\]

The returned point \( x \) is an approximate zero of \( f \) with associated zero \( \zeta_1 \).

**Remark 3.2.**
1. The bound in Theorem 3.1 is optimal up to a constant factor. This easily follows by an inspection of its proof given in Section 4.
2. Algorithm ALH requires the computation of \( \mu_\text{norm} \), which, in turn, requires the computation of the operator norm of a matrix. This cannot be done exactly with rational operations and square roots only. We can do, however, with a sufficiently good approximation of \( \mu_\text{norm}(q, x) \), and there exist several numerical methods efficiently computing such an approximation. We will therefore neglect this issue pointing, however, for the skeptical reader that another course of action is possible. Indeed, one may replace the operator by the Frobenius norm in the definition of \( \mu_\text{norm} \) and use the bounds \( \|M\| \leq \|M\|_F \leq \sqrt{\text{rank}(M)} \|M\| \) to show that this change preserves the correctness of ALH and adds a multiplicative factor \( n \) in the right-hand side of Theorem 3.1. A similar comment applies to the computation of \( \alpha \) and \( \cot(\tau\alpha) \) in algorithm ALH which cannot be done exactly with rational operations.

3.2. Randomization and complexity: the algorithm LV. ALH will serve as the basic routine for a number of algorithms computing zeros of polynomial systems in different contexts. In these contexts both the input system \( f \) and the origin \((g, \zeta)\) of the homotopy may be randomly chosen: in the case of \((g, \zeta)\) as a computational technique and in the case of \( f \) in order to perform a probabilistic analysis of the algorithm’s running time.

In both cases, a probability measure is needed: one for \( f \) and one for the pair \((g, \zeta)\). The measure for \( f \) will depend on the kind of probabilistic analysis (standard average-case or smoothed analysis) we perform. In contrast, we will consider only one measure on \( V_\mathbb{P} \) — which we denote by \( \rho_{\text{st}} \) — for the initial pair \((g, \zeta)\). It consists of drawing \( g \) from \( \mathcal{H}_d \) from the standard Gaussian distribution (defined via the isomorphism \( \mathcal{H}_d \simeq \mathbb{R}^{2N} \) given by the Bombieri-Weyl basis) and then choosing one of the (almost surely) \( D \) zeros of \( g \) from the uniform distribution on \( \{1, \ldots, D\} \). The formula for the density of \( \rho_{\text{st}} \) will be derived later; see Lemma 8.8(5). The above procedure is clearly nonconstructive as computing a zero of a system is the problem we wanted to solve in the first place. One of the major contributions in [4] was to show that this drawback can be repaired. The following result (a detailed version of the
effective sampling in [6]) will be proved in Section 9 as a special case of more
general results we will need in our development.

**Proposition 3.3.** We can compute a random pair \((g, \zeta) \in V_\mathcal{P}\) according to the density \(\rho_{st}\) with \(O(N)\) choices of random real numbers from the standard Gaussian distribution and \(O(DnN + n^3)\) arithmetic operations (including square roots of positive numbers).

Algorithms using randomly drawn data are called probabilistic (or randomized). Those that always return a correct output are said to be of type *Las Vegas*. The following algorithm (which uses Proposition 3.3) belongs to this class:

**Algorithm LV**

**input** \(f \in \mathcal{H}_d\)

*draw* \((g, \zeta) \in V_\mathcal{P}\) from \(\rho_{st}\)

*run* ALH on input \((f, g, \zeta)\)

For an input \(f \in \mathcal{H}_d\) algorithm LV either outputs an approximate zero \(x\) of \(f\) or loops forever. By the *running time* \(t(f, g, \zeta)\) we will understand the number of elementary operations (i.e., arithmetic operations, evaluations of the elementary functions \(\sin, \cos, \cot\), square root, and comparisons) performed by LV on input \(f\) with initial pair \((g, \zeta)\). For fixed \(f\), this is a random variable and its expectation \(t(f) := E_{(g, \zeta)\sim\rho_{st}}(t(f, g, \zeta))\) is said to be the *expected running time* of LV on input \(f\).

For all \(f, g, \zeta\), the running time \(t(f, g, \zeta)\) is given by the number of iterations \(K(f, g, \zeta)\) of ALH with input this triple times the cost of an iteration, the latter being dominated by that of computing one Newton iterate (which is \(O(N + n^3)\) independently of the triple \((f, g, \zeta)\); see §2.2). It therefore follows that analyzing the expected running times of LV amounts to do so for the expected value — over \((g, \zeta) \in V_\mathcal{P}\) drawn from \(\rho_{st}\) — of \(K(f, g, \zeta)\). We denote this expectation by

\[
K(f) := E_{(g, \zeta)\sim\rho_{st}}(K(f, g, \zeta)).
\]

3.3. **Average analysis of LV.** To talk about average complexity of LV requires specifying a measure for the set of inputs. The most natural choice is the standard Gaussian distribution on \(\mathcal{H}_d\). Since \(K(f)\) is invariant under scaling, we may equivalently assume that \(f\) is chosen in the unit sphere \(S(\mathcal{H}_d)\) from the uniform distribution. With this choice, we say a Las Vegas algorithm is *average polynomial time* when the average — over \(f \in S(\mathcal{H}_d)\) — of its expected running time is polynomially bounded in the size \(N\) of \(f\). The following result shows that LV is average polynomial time. It is essentially the main result in [6] (modulo the existence of ALH and with specific constants).
ON A PROBLEM POSEd BY STEve SMALE

Theorem 3.4. The average of the expected number of iterations of Algorithm LV is bounded as \( (n \geq 4) \)

\[
\mathbb{E}_{f \in S(H_d)} K(f) \leq 4185 D^{3/2} N(n + 1).
\]

3.4. Smoothed analysis of LV. A smoothed analysis of an algorithm consists of bounding, for all possible input data \( \tilde{f} \), the average of its running time (its expected running time if it is a Las Vegas algorithm) over small perturbations of \( \tilde{f} \). To perform such an analysis, a family of measures (parametrized by a parameter \( r \) controlling the size of the perturbation) is considered with the following characteristics:

1. The density of an element \( f \) depends only on the distance \( \| f - \tilde{f} \| \).
2. The value of \( r \) is closely related to the variance of \( \| f - \tilde{f} \| \).

Then, the average above is estimated as a function of the data size \( N \) and the parameter \( r \), and a satisfying result, which is described by the expression smoothed polynomial time, demands that this function is polynomially bounded in \( r^{-1} \) and \( N \). Possible choices for the measures’ family are the Gaussians \( N(\tilde{f}, \sigma^2 I) \) (used, for instance, in [14], [19], [32], [33]) and the uniform measure on disks \( B(\tilde{f}, r) \) (used in [2], [11], [12]). Other families may also be used and an emerging impression is that smoothed analysis is robust in the sense that its dependence on the chosen family of measures is low. This tenet was argued for in [15] where a uniform measure is replaced by an adversarial measure (one having a pole at \( f \)) without a significant loss in the estimated averages.

In this paper, for reasons of technical simplicity and consistency with the rest of the exposition, we will work with truncated Gaussians defined as follows. For \( \tilde{f} \in H_d \) and \( \sigma > 0 \), we shall denote by \( N(\tilde{f}, \sigma^2 I) \) the Gaussian distribution on \( H_d \simeq \mathbb{R}^{2N} \) (defined with respect to the Bombieri-Weyl basis) with mean \( \tilde{f} \) and covariance matrix \( \sigma^2 I \). Further, for \( A > 0 \), let \( P_{A,\sigma} := \text{Prob}\{\| f \| \leq A | f \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I)\} \). We define the truncated Gaussian \( N_A(\tilde{f}, \sigma^2 I) \) with center \( \tilde{f} \in H_d \) as the probability measure on \( H_d \) with density

\[
\rho(f) = \begin{cases} 
\frac{\rho_{\tilde{f},\sigma}(f)}{P_{A,\sigma}} & \text{if } \| f - \tilde{f} \| \leq A \\
0 & \text{otherwise},
\end{cases}
\]

where \( \rho_{\tilde{f},\sigma} \) denotes the density of \( N(\tilde{f}, \sigma^2 I) \). Note that \( N_A(\tilde{f}, \sigma^2 I) \) is isotropic around its mean \( \tilde{f} \).

For our smoothed analysis we will take \( A = \sqrt{2N} \). In this case, we have \( P_{A,\sigma} \geq \frac{1}{2} \) for all \( \sigma \leq 1 \) (Lemma 6.1). Note also that \( \text{Var}(\| f - \tilde{f} \|) \leq \sigma^2 \), so that any upper bound polynomial in \( \sigma^{-2} \) is also an upper bound polynomial in \( \text{Var}(\| f - \tilde{f} \|)^{-1} \).

We can now state our smoothed analysis result for LV.
Theorem 3.5. For any $0 < \sigma \leq 1$, Algorithm LV satisfies
\[ \sup_{f \in S(H_d)} \mathbb{E}_{f \sim N_A(f, \sigma^2 I)} K(f) \leq 4185 D^{3/2} \left( N + 2^{-1/2} \sqrt{N} \right) (n + 1) \frac{1}{\sigma}. \]

3.5. The main technical result. The technical heart of the proof of the mentioned results on the average and smoothed analysis of LV is the following smoothed analysis of the mean square condition number.

Theorem 3.6. Let $q \in H_d$ and $\sigma > 0$. For $q \in H_d$ drawn from $N(q, \sigma^2 I)$, we have
\[ \mathbb{E}_{H_d} \left( \mu_2^2(q) \right) \leq e(n + 1) \sigma. \]

We note that no bound on the norm of $q$ is required here. Indeed, using $\mu_2(\lambda q) = \mu_2(q)$, it is easy to see that the assertion for $q, \sigma$ implies the assertion for $\lambda q, \lambda \sigma$, for any $\lambda > 0$.

3.6. Condition-based analysis of LV. We are here interested in estimating $K(f)$ for a fixed input system $f \in S(H_d)$. Such an estimate will have to depend on, besides $N, n,$ and $D$, the condition of $f$. We measure the latter using Shub and Smale’s [22] $\mu_{\text{max}}(f)$ defined in (1.1). Our condition-based analysis of LV is summarized in the following statement.

Theorem 3.7. The expected number of iterations of Algorithm LV with input $f \in S(H_d) \setminus \Sigma$ is bounded as
\[ K(f) \leq 200411 D^3 N(n + 1) \mu_{\text{max}}^2(f). \]

3.7. A near solution of Smale’s 17th problem. We finally want to consider deterministic algorithms finding zeros of polynomial systems. Our goal is to exhibit one such algorithm working in nearly-polynomial average time, more precisely in average time $N^{O(\log \log N)}$. A first ingredient to do so is a deterministic homotopy algorithm which is fast when $D$ is small. This consists of algorithm ALH plus the initial pair $(\overline{U}, z_1)$, where $\overline{U} = (\overline{U}_1, \ldots, \overline{U}_n) \in S(H_d)$ with $\overline{U}_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2n}}(X_i^d - X_i^0)$ and $z_1 = (1 : 1 : \ldots : 1)$.

We consider the following algorithm MD (Moderate Degree):

Algorithm MD
\begin{algorithmic}
\Input $f \in H_d$
\Run ALH on input $(f, \overline{U}, z_1)$
\end{algorithmic}

We write $K_{\overline{U}}(f) := K(f, \overline{U}, z_1)$ for the number of iterations of algorithm MD with input $f$. We are interested in computing the average over $f$ of $K_{\overline{U}}(f)$ for $f$ randomly chosen in $S(H_d)$ from the uniform distribution.

The complexity of MD is bounded as follows.
Theorem 3.8. The average number of iterations of Algorithm MD is bounded as
\[ E_{f \in S(H_d)} K_{\text{MD}}(f) \leq 400821 D^3 N(n + 1)^{D+1}. \]

Algorithm MD is efficient when \( D \) is small, say, when \( D \leq n \). For \( D > n \) we use another approach, namely, a real number algorithm designed by Jim Renegar [18] which in this case has a performance similar to that of MD when \( D \leq n \). Putting both pieces together we will reach our last main result.

Theorem 3.9. There is a deterministic real number algorithm that on input \( f \in H_d \) computes an approximate zero of \( f \) in average time \( N^{O(\log \log N)} \), where \( N = \dim H_d \) measures the size of the input \( f \). Moreover, if we restrict data to polynomials satisfying
\[ D \leq n^{1+\varepsilon} \quad \text{or} \quad D \geq n^{1+\varepsilon} \]
for some fixed \( \varepsilon > 0 \), then the average time of the algorithm is polynomial in the input size \( N \).

4. Complexity analysis of ALH

The goal of this section is to prove Theorem 3.1. An essential component in this proof is an estimate of how much \( \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, \zeta) \) changes when \( f \) or \( \zeta \) (or both) are slightly perturbed. The following result gives upper and lower bounds on this variation. It is a precise version, with explicit constants, of Theorem 1 of [21].

Proposition 4.1. Assume \( D \geq 2 \). Let \( 0 < \varepsilon \leq 0.13 \) be arbitrary and \( C \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{5^2} \). For all \( f, g \in S(H_d) \) and all \( x, \zeta \in \mathbb{P}^n \), if \( d(f, g) \leq \frac{C}{D^{1/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, \zeta)} \) and \( d(\zeta, x) \leq \frac{C}{D^{1/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, \zeta)} \), then
\[ \frac{1}{1 + \varepsilon} \mu_{\text{norm}}(g, x) \leq \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, \zeta) \leq (1 + \varepsilon) \mu_{\text{norm}}(g, x). \]

In what follows, we will fix the constants as \( \varepsilon = 0.13 \) and \( C = \frac{\varepsilon}{5^2} = 0.025 \).

Remark 4.2. The constants \( C \) and \( \varepsilon \) implicitly occur in the statement of Theorem 3.1 since the 245 therein is a function of these numbers. But their role is not limited to this since they also occur in the algorithm ALH in the parameter \( \lambda = \frac{C(1-\varepsilon)}{2(1+\varepsilon)^2} \), controlling the update \( \tau + \Delta \tau \) of \( \tau \). We note that for the former we could do without precise values by using the big Oh notation. In contrast, we cannot talk of a constructive procedure unless all of its steps are precisely given.

Proof of Theorem 3.1. Let \( 0 = \tau_0 < \tau_1 < \cdots < \tau_k = 1 \) and \( \zeta_0 = x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_k \) be the sequences of \( \tau \)-values and points in \( \mathbb{P}^n \) generated by the
algorithm ALH. To simplify notation we write $q_i$ instead of $q_{\tau_i}$ and $\zeta_i$ instead of $\zeta_{\tau_i}$. We claim that, for $i = 0, \ldots, k - 1$, the following inequalities are true:

(a) $d_p(x_i, \zeta_i) \leq \frac{C}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i)}$;
(b) $\frac{\mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, x_i)}{(1 + \varepsilon)} \leq \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i) \leq (1 + \varepsilon) \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, x_i)$;
(c) $d_S(q_i, q_{i+1}) \leq \frac{C}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i)}$;
(d) $d_p(\zeta_i, \zeta_{i+1}) \leq \frac{C}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i)} (1 - \varepsilon)$;
(e) $d_p(x_i, \zeta_{i+1}) \leq \frac{2C}{(1 + \varepsilon) D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i)}$.

We proceed by induction showing that $(a, i) \Rightarrow (b, i) \Rightarrow ((c, i) \text{ and } (d, i)) \Rightarrow (e, i) \Rightarrow (a, i + 1)$.

Inequality (a) for $i = 0$ is trivial. Assume now that (a) holds for some $i \leq k - 1$. Then, Proposition 4.1 (with $f = g = q_i$) implies

$$\frac{\mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, x_i)}{(1 + \varepsilon)} \leq \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i) \leq (1 + \varepsilon) \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, x_i)$$

and thus (b). We now show (c) and (d). To do so, put $p_\tau := \frac{q_\tau}{\|q_\tau\|}$ and let $\tau_* > \tau_i$ be such that $\int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_*} (\|\dot{p}_\tau\| + \|\dot{\zeta}_\tau\|) d\tau = \frac{C}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i)} (1 - \varepsilon)$ or $\tau_* = 1$, whichever the smallest. Then, for all $t \in [\tau_i, \tau_*]$, we have

$$d_p(\zeta_i, \zeta_t) = \int_{\tau_i}^{t} \|\dot{\zeta}_\tau\| d\tau \leq \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_*} (\|\dot{p}_\tau\| + \|\dot{\zeta}_\tau\|) d\tau$$

$$\leq \frac{C}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i)} (1 - \varepsilon)$$

and, similarly,

$$d_S(q_i, q_t) \leq \frac{C}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i)} (1 - \varepsilon) \leq \frac{C}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i)}.$$

It is therefore enough to show that $\tau_{i+1} \leq \tau_*$. This is trivial if $\tau_* = 1$. We therefore assume $\tau_* < 1$. The two bounds above allow us to apply Proposition 4.1 and to deduce, for all $\tau \in [\tau_i, \tau_*]$, $\mu_{\text{norm}}(q_\tau, \zeta_\tau) \leq (1 + \varepsilon) \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i)$. 


From $\|\dot{\tau}\| \leq \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_\tau, \zeta_\tau) \|\dot{p}_\tau\|$ (cf. [8, §12.3-12.4]) and $\mu_{\text{norm}}(q_\tau, \zeta_\tau) \geq 1$ it follows that

$$\frac{C}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i)} \left(1 - \frac{1 - \varepsilon}{1 + \varepsilon}\right) = \int_{t_i}^{t_i} (\|\dot{p}_\tau\| + \|\dot{\tau}\|) \, d\tau \leq \int_{t_i}^{t_i} 2\mu_{\text{norm}}(q_\tau, \zeta_\tau)\|\dot{p}_\tau\| \, d\tau \leq 2(1 + \varepsilon)\mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i) \int_{t_i}^{t_i} \|\dot{p}_\tau\| \, d\tau \leq 2\delta_S(q_i, q_{r_\varepsilon})(1 + \varepsilon)\mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i).$$

Consequently, using (b), we obtain

$$d_S(q_i, q_{r_\varepsilon}) \geq \frac{C(1 - \varepsilon)}{2(1 + \varepsilon)^2 D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}^2(q_i, \zeta_i)} \geq \frac{C(1 - \varepsilon)}{2(1 + \varepsilon)^4 D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}^2(q_i, x_{i})}.$$ 

The parameter $\lambda$ in ALH is chosen as $C(1 - \varepsilon)^2/(1 + \varepsilon)^2$ (or slightly less). By the definition of $\tau_{i+1} - \tau_i$ in ALH we have $\alpha(\tau_{i+1} - \tau_i) = \frac{\lambda}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}^2(q_i, x_{i})}$. So we obtain

$$d_S(q_i, q_{r_\varepsilon}) \geq \alpha(\tau_{i+1} - \tau_i) = d_S(q_i, q_{i+1}).$$

This implies $\tau_{i+1} \leq \tau_i$ as claimed and hence, inequalities (c) and (d). With them, we may apply Proposition 4.1 to deduce, for all $\tau \in [\tau_i, \tau_{i+1}]$,

$$\frac{\mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i)}{1 + \varepsilon} \leq \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_\tau, \zeta_\tau) \leq (1 + \varepsilon)\mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i). \tag{4.1}$$

Next we use the triangle inequality, (a), and (d), to obtain

$$d_P(x_i, \zeta_{i+1}) \leq d_P(x_i, \zeta_i) + d_P(\zeta_i, \zeta_{i+1}) \leq \frac{C}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i)} + \frac{C}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i)} \left(1 - \frac{1 - \varepsilon}{1 + \varepsilon}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2} d_P(x_i, \zeta_{i+1}).$$

which proves (e). Theorem 2.2 yields that $x_i$ is an approximate zero of $q_{i+1}$ associated with its zero $\zeta_{i+1}$. Indeed, by our choice of $C$ and $\varepsilon$, we have $2C \leq u_0(1 + \varepsilon)$ and hence $d_P(x_i, \zeta_{i+1}) \leq \frac{u_0}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i)}$. Therefore, $x_{i+1} = N_{q_{i+1}}(x_i)$ satisfies

$$d_P(x_{i+1}, \zeta_{i+1}) \leq \frac{1}{2} d_P(x_i, \zeta_{i+1}).$$

Using (e) and the right-hand inequality in (4.1) with $t = t_{i+1}$, we obtain

$$d_P(x_{i+1}, \zeta_{i+1}) \leq \frac{C}{(1 + \varepsilon) D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_i, \zeta_i)} \leq \frac{C}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_{i+1}, \zeta_{i+1})},$$

which proves (a) for $i + 1$. The claim is thus proved.

The estimate $d_P(x_k, \zeta_k) \leq \frac{C}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(q_k, \zeta_k)}$ just shown for $i = k - 1$ implies by Theorem 2.2 that the returned point $x_k$ is an approximate zero of $q_k = f$ with associated zero $\zeta_k$. 

Consider now any \(i \in \{0, \ldots, k-1\}\). Using (4.1) and (b) we obtain

\[
\int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_{i+1}} \mu_2^2(q_\tau, \zeta_\tau) d\tau \geq \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_{i+1}} \frac{\mu_2^2(q_{i}, \xi_i)}{(1+\varepsilon)^4} (\tau_{i+1} - \tau_i)
\]

\[
= \frac{\mu_2^2(q_{i}, x_i)}{(1+\varepsilon)^4} \alpha D^{3/2} \mu_2^2(q_{i}, x_i)
\]

\[
= \frac{\lambda}{(1+\varepsilon)^4 \alpha D^{3/2}} \geq \frac{1}{245 \alpha D^{3/2}}.
\]

This implies

\[
\int_0^1 \mu_2^2(q_\tau, \zeta_\tau) d\tau \geq \frac{k}{245 \alpha D^{3/2}},
\]

which proves the stated bound on \(k\). \(\square\)

5. A useful change of variables

We first draw a conclusion of Theorem 3.1, that we will need several times. Recall the definition (1.4) of the mean square condition number \(\mu_2(q)\).

**Proposition 5.1.** The expected number of iterations of \(\text{ALH}\) on input \(f \in \mathcal{H}_d \setminus \Sigma\) is bounded as

\[
K(f) \leq 245 D^{3/2} \mathbb{E}_{g \in S(\mathcal{H}_d)} \left( d_\Sigma(f, g) \int_0^1 \mu_2^2(q_\tau) d\tau \right).
\]

**Proof.** Fix \(g \in \mathcal{H}_d\) such that the segment \(E_{f,g}\) does not intersect the discriminant variety \(\Sigma\) (which is the case for almost all \(g\), as \(f \not\in \Sigma\)). To each of the zeros \(\zeta^{(i)}\) of \(g\) there corresponds a lifting \([0,1] \to V, \tau \mapsto (q_\tau, \zeta^{(i)}_\tau)\) of \(E_{f,g}\) such that \(\zeta^{(i)}_0 = \zeta^{(i)}\). Theorem 3.1 states that

\[
K(f, g, \zeta^{(i)}) \leq 245 D^{3/2} d_\Sigma(f, g) \int_0^1 \mu_2^2(q_\tau, \zeta^{(i)}_\tau) d\tau.
\]

Since \(\zeta^{(1)}, \ldots, \zeta^{(D)}\) are the zeros of \(q_\tau\), we have by the definition (1.4) of the mean square condition number

\[
\frac{1}{D} \sum_{i=1}^D K(f, g, \zeta^{(i)}) \leq 245 D^{3/2} d_\Sigma(f, g) \int_0^1 \mu_2^2(q_\tau) d\tau.
\]

The assertion follows now from (compare the forthcoming Lemma 8.8)

\[
K(f) = \mathbb{E}_{(g, \zeta) \sim \rho_{at}} K(f, g, \zeta) = \mathbb{E}_{g \in S(\mathcal{H}_d)} \left( \frac{1}{D} \sum_{i=1}^D K(f, g, \zeta^{(i)}) \right).
\]

\(\square\)
The remaining of this article is devoted to prove Theorems 3.4–3.9. All of them involve expectations — over random \(f\) and/or \(g\) — of the integral \(\int_0^1 \mu_2^2(q_r)d\tau\). In all cases, we will eventually deal with such an expectation with \(f\) and\(g\) Gaussian. Since a linear combination (with fixed coefficients) of two such Gaussian systems is Gaussian as well, it is convenient to parametrize the interval \(E_{f,g}\) by a parameter \(t \in [0,1]\) representing a ratio of Euclidean distances (instead of a ratio of angles as \(\tau\) does). Thus we write, abusing notation, \(q_t = tf + (1-t)g\). For fixed \(t\), as noted before, \(q_t\) follows a Gaussian law. For this new parametrization we have the following result.

**Proposition 5.2.** Let \(f, g \in H_d\) be \(\mathbb{R}\)-linearly independent and \(\tau_0 \in [0,1]\). Then
\[
\begin{align*}
    d_S(f, g) \int_{\tau_0}^1 \mu_2^2(q_r)d\tau &\leq \int_{t_0}^1 \|f\| \|g\| \frac{\mu_2^2(q_t)}{\|q_t\|^2} dt, \\
    t_0 &= \frac{\|g\|}{\|g\| + \|f\| (\sin \alpha \cot(\tau_0 \alpha) - \cos \alpha)}
\end{align*}
\]
is the fraction of the Euclidean distance \(\|f - g\|\) corresponding to the fraction \(\tau_0\) of the angle \(\alpha = d_S(f, g)\).

**Proof.** For \(t \in [0,1]\), abusing notation, we let \(q_t = tf + (1-t)g\) and \(\tau(t) \in [0,1]\) be such that \(\tau(t)\alpha\) is the angle between \(g\) and \(q_t\). This defines a bijective map \([t_0,1] \rightarrow [\tau_0,1], t \mapsto \tau(t)\). We denote its inverse by \(\tau \mapsto t(\tau)\). We claim that
\[
    \frac{d\tau}{dt} = \frac{\sin \alpha \cdot \|f\|}{\|q_t\|^2}.
\]
Note that the stated inequality easily follows from this claim by the transformation formula for integrals together with the bound \(\sin \alpha \leq 1\).

To prove Claim (5.2), denote \(r = \|f\|\) and \(s = \|g\|\). We will explicitly compute \(t(\tau)\) by some elementary geometry. For this, we introduce cartesian coordinates in the plane spanned by \(f\) and \(g\) and assume that \(g\) has the coordinates \((s,0)\) and \(f\) has the coordinates \((r \cos \alpha, r \sin \alpha)\); see Figure 1.

Then, the lines determining \(q_r\) have the equations
\[
    x = y \frac{\cos(\tau \alpha)}{\sin(\tau \alpha)} \quad \text{and} \quad x = y \frac{r \cos \alpha - s}{r \sin \alpha} + s
\]
from where it follows that the coordinate \(y\) of \(q_r\) is
\[
    y = \frac{rs \sin \alpha \sin(\tau \alpha)}{r \sin \alpha \cos(\tau \alpha) - r \cos \alpha \sin(\tau \alpha) + s \sin(\tau \alpha)}.
\]
Since \(t(\tau) = \frac{y}{r \sin \alpha}\) it follows that
\[
    t(\tau) = \frac{s}{r \sin \alpha \cot(\tau \alpha) - r \cos \alpha + s}.
\]
This implies the stated formula for \( t_0 = t(\tau_0) \). Differentiating with respect to \( \tau \), using (5.3) and \( \sin(\tau \alpha) = \frac{y}{\| q \|} \), we obtain from (5.4)

\[
\frac{dt}{d\tau} = \frac{\alpha rs \sin \alpha}{(r \sin \alpha \cos(\tau \alpha) - r \cos \alpha \sin(\tau \alpha) + s \sin(\tau \alpha))^2} = \frac{\alpha \| q(\tau) \|^2}{rs \sin \alpha}.
\]

This finishes the proof of Claim (5.2).

In all the cases we will deal with, the factor \( \| f \| \| g \| \) will be easily bounded and factored out the expectation. We will ultimately face the problem of estimating expectations of \( \mu_2^2(q_t) \| q_t \|^2 \) for different choices of \( q_t \) and \( \sigma_t \). This is achieved by Theorem 3.6 stated in Section 3.5.

6. Analysis of LV

We derive here from Theorem 3.6 our main results on the average and smoothed analysis of \( \text{LV} \) stated in Section 3. The proof of Theorem 3.6 is postponed to Sections 7–8.

6.1. Average-case analysis of LV (proof). To warm up, we first prove Theorem 3.4, which illustrates the blending of the previous results in a simpler setting.

In the following we set \( A := \sqrt{2N} \) and write \( P_{A,\sigma} = \text{Prob}\{\| f \| \leq A \mid f \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I)\} \) for \( \sigma > 0 \).

**Lemma 6.1.** We have \( P_{A,\sigma} \geq \frac{1}{2} \) for all \( 0 < \sigma \leq 1 \).

**Proof.** Clearly it suffices to assume \( \sigma = 1 \). The random variable \( \| f \|^2 \) is chi-square distributed with \( 2N \) degrees of freedom. Its mean equals \( 2N \). In [13, Cor. 6] it is shown that the median of a chi-square distribution is always less than its mean. \( \square \)
Proof of Theorem 3.4. We use Proposition 5.1 to obtain

$$
\mathbb{E}_{f \in S(H_d)} K(f) \leq 245 D^{3/2} \mathbb{E}_{f \in S(H_d)} \mathbb{E}_{g \in S(H_d)} \left( d_S(f, g) \int_0^1 \mu_2(q_\tau) d\tau \right)
$$

$$
= 245 D^{3/2} \mathbb{E}_{f \sim N_A(0, 1)} \mathbb{E}_{g \sim N_A(0, 1)} \left( d_S(f, g) \int_0^1 \mu_2(q_\tau) d\tau \right).
$$

The equality follows from the fact that, since both $d_S(f, g)$ and $\mu_2(q_\tau)$ are homogeneous of degree 0 in both $f$ and $g$, we may replace the uniform distribution on $S(H_d)$ by any rotationally invariant distribution on $H_d$, in particular by the centered truncated Gaussian $N_A(0, 1)$ defined in (3.1). Now we use Proposition 5.2 (with $\tau_0 = 0$) to get

$$
(6.1) \quad \mathbb{E}_{f \in S(H_d)} K(f) \leq 245 D^{3/2} A^2 \mathbb{E}_{f \sim N_A(0, 1)} \mathbb{E}_{g \sim N_A(0, 1)} \left( \int_0^1 \frac{\mu_2^2(q_\tau)}{q_\tau^2} dt \right).
$$

Denoting by $\rho_{0,1}$ the density of $N(0, I)$, the right-hand side of (6.1) equals

$$
245 D^{3/2} A^2 \int_{\|f\|\leq A} \int_{\|g\|\leq A} \left( \int_0^1 \frac{\mu_2^2(q_\tau)}{q_\tau^2} dt \right) \rho_{0,1}(g) \rho_{0,1}(f) dgd
$$

$$
\leq 245 D^{3/2} A^2 \int_{\|f\|\leq A} \int_{\|g\|\leq A} \left( \int_0^1 \frac{\mu_2^2(q_\tau)}{q_\tau^2} dt \right) dgd
$$

$$
= 245 D^{3/2} A^2 \int_0^1 \int_{q_\tau \sim N(0, (t^2 + (1 - t)^2)I)} \left( \frac{\mu_2^2(q_\tau)}{q_\tau^2} \right) dt,
$$

where the last equality follows from the fact that, for fixed $t$, the random polynomial system $q_\tau = tf + (1 - t)g$ has a Gaussian distribution with law $N(0, \sigma_\tau^2 I)$, where $\sigma_\tau^2 := t^2 + (1 - t)^2$. Note that we deal with nonnegative integrands, so the interchange of integrals is justified by Tonelli’s theorem. By Lemma 6.1 we have $\frac{A^2}{P_{A,1}} \leq 8N$.

We now apply Theorem 3.6 to deduce that

$$
\int_0^1 \mathbb{E}_{q_\tau \sim N(0, \sigma_\tau^2 I)} \left( \frac{\mu_2^2(q_\tau)}{\|q_\tau\|^2} \right) dt \leq \frac{e(n + 1)}{2} \int_0^1 \frac{dt}{t^2 + (1 - t)^2} = \frac{e\pi(n + 1)}{4}.
$$

Consequently,

$$
\mathbb{E}_{f \in S(H_d)} K(f) \leq 245 D^{3/2} \cdot 8N \cdot \frac{e\pi(n + 1)}{4} \leq 4185 D^{3/2} N(n + 1) \quad \square
$$

Remark 6.2. The proof (modulo the existence of ALH) for the average complexity of LV given by Beltrán and Pardo in [6] differs from the one above. It relies on the fact (elegantly shown by using integral geometry arguments) that, for all $\tau \in [0, 1]$, when $f$ and $g$ are uniformly drawn from the sphere, so is $q_\tau/\|q_\tau\|$. The extension of this argument to more general situations appears to be considerably more involved. In contrast, as we shall shortly see, the
argument based on Gaussians in the proof above carries over, mutatis mutandis, to the smoothed analysis context.

6.2. Smoothed analysis of \( \mathbf{LV} \) (proof). The smoothed analysis of \( \mathbf{LV} \) is shown similarly to its average-case analysis.

**Proof of Theorem 3.5.** Fix \( \bar{f} \in S(\mathcal{H}_d) \). Reasoning as in the proof of Theorem 3.4 and using \( \|f\| \leq \|\bar{f}\| + \|f - \bar{f}\| \leq 1 + \Lambda \), we show that

\[
E_{f \sim N(\Lambda, \sigma^2 I)} K(f) \leq 245 D^{3/2} (A + 1) A P_{A,\sigma} \mathbb{E}_{q \sim N(\sigma, \sigma^2)} \left( \int_0^1 \frac{\mu_2^2(q_t)}{\|q_t\|^2} dt \right)
\]

with \( \bar{q}_t = t \bar{f} \) and \( \sigma_t^2 = (1 - t)^2 + \sigma^2 t^2 \). We now apply Theorem 3.6 to deduce

\[
\int_0^1 \mathbb{E}_{q \sim N(\sigma, \sigma^2)} \left( \frac{\mu_2^2(q_t)}{\|q_t\|^2} \right) dt \leq \frac{e(n + 1)}{2} \int_0^1 \frac{dt}{(1 - t)^2 + \sigma^2 t^2} = \frac{e \pi (n + 1)}{4 \sigma}.
\]

Consequently, using Lemma 6.1, we get

\[
E_{f \sim N(\Lambda, \sigma^2 I)} K(f) \leq 245 D^{3/2} \cdot 4 \cdot (2N + 2N) \frac{e \pi (n + 1)}{4 \sigma},
\]

which proves the assertion. \( \square \)

The next two sections are devoted to the proof of Theorem 3.6. First, in Section 7, we give a particular smoothed analysis of a matrix condition number (Proposition 7.1). Then, in Section 8, we reduce Theorem 3.6 to this smoothed analysis of matrix condition numbers.

7. Smoothed analysis of a matrix condition number

In the following we fix \( \bar{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \), \( \sigma > 0 \) and denote by \( \rho \) the Gaussian density of \( N(\bar{A}, \sigma^2 I) \) on \( \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \). Moreover, we consider the related density

\[
(7.1) \quad \bar{\rho}(A) = c^{-1} \det A^2 \rho(A) \quad \text{where } c := \mathbb{E}_{A \sim \bar{\rho}} (|\det A|^2).
\]

The following result is akin to a smoothed analysis of the matrix condition number \( \kappa(A) = \|A\| \cdot \|A^{-1}\| \), with respect to the probability densities \( \bar{\rho} \) that are not Gaussian, but closely related to Gaussians.

**Proposition 7.1.** We have

\[
\mathbb{E}_{A \sim \bar{\rho}} (\|A^{-1}\|^2) \leq \frac{e(n+1)}{2 \sigma^2}.
\]

The proof is based on ideas in Sankar et al. [19, §3]; see also [10]. We will actually prove tail bounds from which the stated bound on the expectation easily follows.

We denote by \( \mathbb{S}^{n-1} := \{ \zeta \in \mathbb{C}^n \mid \|\zeta\| = 1 \} \) the unit sphere in \( \mathbb{C}^n \).
Lemma 7.2. For any $v \in S^{n-1}$ and any $t > 0$, we have
\[
\operatorname{Prob}_{A \sim \rho} \left\{ \|A^{-1}v\| \geq t \right\} \leq \frac{1}{4\sigma^4 t^4}.
\]

Proof. We first claim that, because of unitary invariance, we may assume that $v = e_n := (0, \ldots, 0, 1)$. To see this, take $S \in U(n)$ such that $v = Se_n$. Consider the isometric map $A \mapsto B = S^{-1}A$ which transforms the density $\tilde{\rho}(A)$ to a density of the same form, namely
\[
\tilde{\rho}(B) = \tilde{\rho}(A) = c^{-1}|\det A|^2 \rho(A) = c^{-1}|\det B|^2 \rho'(B),
\]
where $\rho'(B)$ denotes the density of $N(S^{-1}A, \sigma^2 I)$ and $c = \mathbb{E}_\rho(|\det A|^2) = \mathbb{E}_{\rho'}(|\det B|^2)$. Thus the assertion for $e_n$ and random $B$ (chosen from any isotropic Gaussian distribution) implies the assertion for $v$ and $A$, noting that $A^{-1}v = B^{-1}e_n$. This proves the claim.

Let $a_i$ denote the $i$th row of $A$. Almost surely, the rows $a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1}$ are linearly independent. We are going to characterize $\|A^{-1}e_n\|$ in a geometric way. Let $S_n := \text{span}\{a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1}\}$ and denote by $a_n^\perp$ the orthogonal projection of $a_n$ onto $S_n^\perp$. Consider $w := A^{-1}e_n$, which is the $n$th column of $A^{-1}$. Since $AA^{-1} = I$ we have $\langle w, a_i \rangle = 0$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n-1$ and hence $w \in S_n^\perp$. Moreover, $\langle w, a_n \rangle = 1$, so $\|w\|\|a_n^\perp\| = 1$ and we arrive at
\[
\|A^{-1}e_n\| = \frac{1}{\|a_n^\perp\|}.
\]

Let $A_n \in \mathbb{C}^{(n-1)\times n}$ denote the matrix obtained from $A$ by omitting $a_n$. We shall write $\text{vol}(A_n) = |\det(\overline{AA}^*)|^{1/2}$ for the $(n-1)$-dimensional volume of the parallelepiped spanned by the rows of $A_n$. Similarly, $|\det A|$ can be interpreted as the $n$-dimensional volume of the parallelepiped spanned by the rows of $A$.

Now we write $\rho(A) = \rho_1(A_n)\rho_2(a_n)$, where $\rho_1$ and $\rho_2$ are the density functions of $N(\overline{A}_n, \sigma^2 I)$ and $N(\overline{a}_n, \sigma^2 I)$, respectively (the meaning of $\overline{A}_n$ and $\overline{a}_n$ being clear). Moreover, note that
\[
\text{vol}(A)^2 = \text{vol}(A_n)^2 \|a_n^\perp\|^2.
\]

Fubini’s theorem combined with (7.2) yields for $t > 0$
\[
\int_{\|A^{-1}e_n\| \geq t} \text{vol}(A)^2 \rho(A) \, dA = \int_{A_n \in \mathbb{C}^{(n-1)\times n}} \text{vol}(A_n)^2 \rho_1(A_n) \cdot \left( \int_{\|a_n^\perp\| \leq 1/t} \|a_n^\perp\|^2 \rho_2(a_n) \, da_n \right) \, dA_n.
\]

We next show that for fixed, linearly independent $a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1}$ and $\lambda > 0$
\[
\int_{\|a_n^\perp\| \leq \lambda} \|a_n^\perp\|^2 \rho_2(a_n) \, da_n \leq \frac{\lambda^4}{2\sigma^2}.
\]
For this, note that \( a \perp_n \sim \mathcal{N}(a \perp_n, \sigma^2 I) \) in \( S_n^\perp \simeq \mathbb{C} \), where \( a \perp_n \) is the orthogonal projection of \( a_n \) onto \( S_n^\perp \). Thus, proving (7.4) amounts to showing
\[
\int_{|z| \leq \lambda} |z|^2 \rho_\overline{z}(z)dz \leq \frac{\lambda^4}{2\sigma^2}
\]
for the Gaussian density \( \rho_\overline{z}(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} |z|^2} \) of \( z \in \mathbb{C} \), where \( \overline{z} \in \mathbb{C} \).

Clearly, it is enough to show that
\[
\int_{|z| \leq \lambda} |z|^2 \rho_0(z)dz \leq \frac{\lambda^2}{2\sigma^2}.
\]
Without loss of generality we may assume that \( \overline{z} = 0 \), since the integral in the left-hand side is maximized at this value of \( \overline{z} \). The substitution \( z = \sigma w \) yields
\[
dz = \sigma^2 dw \quad (dz \text{ denotes the Lebesgue measure on } \mathbb{R}^2)
\]
and we get
\[
\int_{|z| \leq \lambda} |z|^2 \rho_0(z)dz = \int_{|w| \leq \lambda} \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} |w|^2} dw = \int_0^{\lambda} \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} r^2} 2\pi r dr
\]
\[
= -e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2} \bigg|_0^{\frac{\lambda}{\sigma}} = 1 - e^{-\frac{\lambda^2}{2\sigma^2}} \leq \frac{\lambda^2}{2\sigma^2},
\]
which proves inequality (7.4).

A similar argument shows that
\[
2\sigma^2 \leq \int |z|^2 \rho_0(z)dz = \int \|a_n\|^2 \rho_2(a_n) da_n.
\]
Plugging in this inequality into (7.3) (with \( t = 0 \)) we conclude that
\[
2\sigma^2 \mathbb{E}_{\hat{\rho}}(\text{vol}(A_n)^2) \leq \mathbb{E}_{\hat{\rho}}(\text{vol}(A)^2).
\]
On the other hand, plugging in (7.4) with \( \lambda = \frac{1}{t} \) into (7.3), we obtain
\[
\int_{\|A^{-1}e_n\| \geq t} \text{vol}(A)^2 \rho(A) dA \leq \frac{1}{2\sigma^2 t^4} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{\rho}}(\text{vol}(A_n)^2).
\]
Combined with (7.6) this yields
\[
\int_{\|A^{-1}e_n\| \geq t} \text{vol}(A)^2 \rho(A) dA \leq \frac{1}{4\sigma^4 t^4} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{\rho}}(\text{vol}(A)^2).
\]
By the definition of the density \( \hat{\rho} \), this means that
\[
\mathbb{P}_{A \sim \hat{\rho}} \left\{ \|A^{-1}e_n\| \geq t \right\} \leq \frac{1}{4\sigma^4 t^4},
\]
which was to be shown. \( \square \)

**Lemma 7.3.** For fixed \( u \in \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \), \( 0 \leq s \leq 1 \), and random \( v \) uniformly chosen in \( \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \), we have
\[
\mathbb{P}_v \left\{ |u^Tv| \geq s \right\} = (1 - s^2)^{n-1}.
\]
Proof. Recall the Riemannian distance $d_\mathbb{P}$ in $\mathbb{P}^{n-1} := \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{C}^n)$ from (2.1). Accordingly, for $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi/2$, we have

\[
\Pr_v \{ |u^T v| \geq \cos \theta \} = \frac{\text{vol}\{ [v] \in \mathbb{P}^{n-1} | d_\mathbb{P}([u],[v]) \leq \theta \}}{\text{vol} \mathbb{P}^{n-1}} = (\sin \theta)^2(n-1),
\]

where the last equality is due to [11, Lemma 2.1]. \hfill \Box

**Lemma 7.4.** For any $t > 0$, we have

\[
\Pr_{A \sim \tilde{\rho}} \{ \|A^{-1}\| \geq t \} \leq e^{2(n+1)^2} \frac{1}{16 \sigma^4 t^4}.
\]

**Proof.** We use an idea in Sankar et al. [19, §3]. For any invertible $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ there exists $u \in S^{n-1}$ such that $\|A^{-1} u\| = \|A^{-1}\|$. For almost all $A$, the vector $u$ is uniquely determined up to a scaling factor $\theta$ of modulus 1. We shall denote by $u_A$ a representative of such $u$.

The following is an easy consequence of the singular value decomposition of $\|A^{-1}\|$: for any $v \in S^{n-1}$, we have

(7.7) \[ \|A^{-1}v\| \geq \|A^{-1}\| \cdot |u_A^T v|. \]

We choose now a random pair $(A,v)$ with $A$ following the law $\tilde{\rho}$ and, independently, $v \in S^{n-1}$ from the uniform distribution. Lemma 7.2 implies that

\[
\Pr_{A,v} \{ \|A^{-1}v\| \geq t \sqrt{\frac{2}{n+1}} \} \leq \frac{(n+1)^2}{16 \sigma^4 t^4}.
\]

On the other hand, by (7.7) we have

\[
\Pr_{A,v} \{ \|A^{-1}v\| \geq t \sqrt{2/(n+1)} \}
\]

\[
\geq \Pr_{A,v} \{ \|A^{-1}\| \geq t \text{ and } |u_A^T v| \geq \sqrt{2/(n+1)} \}
\]

\[
\geq \Pr_A \{ \|A^{-1}\| \geq t \} \Pr_{A,v} \{ |u_A^T v| \geq \sqrt{2/(n+1)} \} \|A^{-1}\| \geq t \}.
\]

Lemma 7.3 tells us that for any fixed $u \in S^{n-1}$, we have

\[
\Pr_v \{ |u^T v| \geq \sqrt{2/(n+1)} \} = (1 - 2/(n+1))^{n-1} \geq e^{-2},
\]

the last inequality as $(\frac{n+1}{n-1})^{n-1} = (1 + \frac{2}{n-1})^{n-1} \leq e^2$. We thus obtain

\[
\Pr_A \{ \|A^{-1}\| \geq t \} \leq e^2 \Pr_{A,v} \{ \|A^{-1}v\| \geq t \sqrt{\frac{2}{n+1}} \} \leq \frac{e^2(n+1)^2}{16 \sigma^4 t^4},
\]

as claimed. \hfill \Box
Proof of Proposition 7.1. By Lemma 7.4 we obtain, for any $T_0 > 0$,

$$
\mathbb{E} \left( \| A^{-1} \|^2 \right) = \int_0^\infty \text{Prob} \{ \| A^{-1} \|^2 \geq T \} \, dT
\leq T_0 + \int_{T_0}^\infty \text{Prob} \{ \| A^{-1} \|^2 \geq T \} \, dT
\leq T_0 + \frac{e^{2(n+1)^2}}{16 \sigma^4} \frac{1}{T_0},
$$

using $\int_{T_0}^\infty T^{-2} \, dT = T_0^{-1}$. Now choose $T_0 = \frac{e(n+1)^2}{4 \sigma^2}$. □

8. Smoothed analysis of the mean square condition number

The goal of this section is to accomplish the proof of Theorem 3.6.

8.1. Orthogonal decompositions of $\mathcal{H}_d$. For reasons to become clear soon we have to distinguish points in $\mathbb{P}^n$ from their representatives $\zeta$ in the sphere $S^n = \{ \zeta \in \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \mid \| \zeta \| = 1 \}$.

For $\zeta \in S^n$ we consider the subspace $R_\zeta$ of $\mathcal{H}_d$ consisting of all systems $h$ that vanish at $\zeta$ of higher order:

$$
R_\zeta := \{ h \in \mathcal{H}_d \mid h(\zeta) = 0, Dh(\zeta) = 0 \}.
$$

We further decompose the orthogonal complement $R_\zeta^\perp$ of $R_\zeta$ in $\mathcal{H}_d$ (defined with respect to the Bombieri-Weyl Hermitian inner product). Let $L_\zeta$ denote the subspace of $R_\zeta^\perp$ consisting of the systems vanishing at $\zeta$ and let $C_\zeta$ denote its orthogonal complement in $R_\zeta^\perp$. Then we have an orthogonal decomposition

$$
(8.1) \quad \mathcal{H}_d = C_\zeta \oplus L_\zeta \oplus R_\zeta
$$

parametrized by $\zeta \in S^n$.

**Lemma 8.1.** The space $C_\zeta$ consists of the systems $(c_i \langle X, \zeta \rangle^{d_i})$ with $c_i \in \mathbb{C}$. The space $L_\zeta$ consists of the systems

$$
g = (\sqrt{d_i} \langle X, \zeta \rangle^{d_i-1} \ell_i),
$$

where $\ell_i$ is a linear form vanishing at $\zeta$. Moreover, if $\ell_i = \sum_{j=0}^n m_{ij} X_j$ with $M = (m_{ij})$, then $\| g \| = \| M \|_F$.

**Proof.** By unitary invariance it suffices to verify the assertions in the case $\zeta = (1, 0, \ldots, 0)$. In this case this follows easily from the definition of the Bombieri-Weyl inner product. □

The Bombieri-Weyl inner product on $\mathcal{H}_d$ and the standard metric on the sphere $S^n$ define a Riemannian metric on $\mathcal{H}_d \times S^n$ on which the unitary group $U(n+1)$ operates isometrically. The “lifting”

$$
V := \{ (q, \zeta) \in \mathcal{H}_d \times S^n \mid q(\zeta) = 0 \}
$$

of the solution variety $V_P$ is easily seen to be a $U(n+1)$-invariant Riemannian submanifold of $\mathcal{H}_d \times S^n$. 
The projection \( \pi_2 : V \to \mathbb{S}^n \), \((q, \zeta) \mapsto \zeta\) defines a vector bundle with fibers \( V_\zeta := \pi_2^{-1} (\zeta) \). In fact, (8.1) can be interpreted as an orthogonal decomposition of the trivial Hermitian vector bundle \( \mathcal{H}_d \times \mathbb{S}^n \to \mathbb{S}^n \) into subbundles \( \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{L}, \) and \( \mathcal{R} \) over \( \mathbb{S}^n \). Moreover, the vector bundle \( V \) is the orthogonal sum of \( \mathcal{L} \) and \( \mathcal{R} \): we have \( V_\zeta = \mathcal{L}_\zeta \oplus \mathcal{R}_\zeta \) for all \( \zeta \).

In the special case where all the degrees \( d_i \) are one, \( \mathcal{H}_d \) can be identified with the space \( \mathcal{M} := \mathbb{C}^{n \times (n+1)} \) of matrices and the solution manifold \( V \) specializes to the manifold

\[
W := \{(M, \zeta) \in \mathcal{M} \times \mathbb{S}^n \mid M \zeta = 0\}.
\]

The map \( \pi_2 \) specializes to the vector bundle \( p_2 : W \to \mathbb{S}^n \), \((M, \zeta) \mapsto \zeta\) with the fibers

\[
W_\zeta := \{M \in \mathcal{M} \mid M \zeta = 0\}.
\]

Lemma 8.1 tells us that for each \( \zeta \) we have isometrical linear maps

\[
W_\zeta \to \mathcal{L}_\zeta, \ M \mapsto g_{M,\zeta} := (\sqrt{d_i} \langle X, \zeta \rangle d_i^{-1} \sum_j m_{ij} X_j).
\]

In other words, the Hermitian vector bundles \( W \) and \( \mathcal{L} \) over \( \mathbb{S}^n \) are isometric. The fact that the map (8.2) depends on the choice of the representative of \( \zeta \) forces us to work over \( \mathbb{S}^n \) instead over \( \mathbb{P}^n \). (All other notions introduced so far only depend on the base point in \( \mathbb{P}^n \).)

We compose the orthogonal bundle projection \( V_\zeta = \mathcal{L}_\zeta \oplus \mathcal{R}_\zeta \to \mathcal{L}_\zeta \) with the bundle isometry \( \mathcal{L}_\zeta \simeq W_\zeta \) obtaining the map of vector bundles

\[
\Psi : V \to W, \ (g_{M,\zeta} + h, \zeta) \mapsto (M, \zeta)
\]

with fibers \( \Psi^{-1}(M, \zeta) \) isometric to \( \mathcal{R}_\zeta \).

**Lemma 8.2.** We have \( \Psi(q, \zeta) = (\Delta^{-1} Dq(\zeta), \zeta) \), where \( \Delta := \text{diag}(\sqrt{d_i}) \).

**Proof.** Let \( (q, \zeta) \in V \) and \( (M, \zeta) := \Psi(q, \zeta) \). Then we have the decomposition \( q = 0 + g_{M,\zeta} + h \in C_\zeta \oplus \mathcal{L}_\zeta \oplus \mathcal{R}_\zeta \). It is easily checked that \( Dg_{M,\zeta}(\zeta) = \Delta M \).

Since \( Dq(\zeta) = Dg_{M,\zeta}(\zeta) \) we obtain \( M = \Delta^{-1} Dq(\zeta) \). \( \square \)

The lemma shows that the condition number \( \mu_{\text{norm}}(q, \zeta) \) (cf. §2.3) can be described in terms of \( \Psi \) as follows:

\[
\frac{\mu_{\text{norm}}(q, \zeta)}{\|q\|} = \|M^1\|, \text{ where } (M, \zeta) = \Psi(q, \zeta).
\]

**8.2. Outline of proof of Theorem 3.6.** Let \( \rho_{\mathcal{H}_d} \) denote the density of the Gaussian \( N(\bar{q}, \sigma^2 I) \) on \( \mathcal{H}_d \), where \( \bar{q} \in \mathcal{H}_d \) and \( \sigma > 0 \). For fixed \( \zeta \in \mathbb{S}^n \) we decompose the mean \( \bar{q} \) as

\[
\bar{q} = \bar{k}_\zeta + \bar{g}_\zeta + \bar{h}_\zeta \in C_\zeta \oplus \mathcal{L}_\zeta \oplus \mathcal{R}_\zeta
\]
according to (8.1). If we denote by $\rho_{C_\zeta}$, $\rho_{L_\zeta}$, and $\rho_{R_\zeta}$ the densities of the Gaussian distributions in the spaces $C_\zeta$, $L_\zeta$, and $R_\zeta$ with covariance matrices $\sigma^2 I$ and means $\bar{k}_\zeta, \bar{M}_\zeta,$ and $\bar{h}_\zeta$, respectively, then the density $\rho_{H_d}$ factors as
\begin{equation}
\rho_{H_d}(k + g + h) = \rho_{C_\zeta}(k) \cdot \rho_{L_\zeta}(g) \cdot \rho_{R_\zeta}(h).
\end{equation}

The Gaussian density $\rho_{L_\zeta}$ on $L_\zeta$ induces a Gaussian density $\rho_{W_\zeta}$ on the fiber $W_\zeta$ with the covariance matrix $\sigma^2 I$ via the isometrical linear map (8.2), so $\rho_{W_\zeta}(M) = \rho_{L_\zeta}(gM, \zeta)$.

We derive now from the given Gaussian distribution $\rho_{H_d}$ on $H_d$ a probability distribution on $V$ as follows (naturally extending $\rho_{H_d}$ introduced in §3.2). Think of choosing $(q, \zeta)$ at random from $V$ by first choosing $q \in H_d$ from $N(\bar{q}, \sigma^2 I)$, then choosing one of its $D$ zeros $[\zeta] \in \mathbb{P}^n$ at random from the uniform distribution on $\{1, \ldots, D\}$, and finally choosing a representative $\zeta$ in the unit circle $[\zeta] \cap S^n$ uniformly at random. (An explicit expression of the corresponding probability density $\rho_V$ on $V$ is given in (8.23).)

The plan to show Theorem 3.6 is as follows. The forthcoming Lemma 8.8 tells us that
\begin{equation}
\mathbb{E}_{H_d} \left( \frac{\mu^2(q)}{\|q\|^2} \right) = \mathbb{E}_V \left( \frac{\mu^2_{\text{norm}}(q, \zeta)}{\|q\|^2} \right),
\end{equation}
where $\mathbb{E}_{H_d}$ and $\mathbb{E}_V$ refer to the expectations with respect to the distribution $N(\bar{q}, \sigma^2 I)$ on $H_d$ and the probability density $\rho_V$ on $V$, respectively. Moreover, by equation (8.4),
\begin{equation}
\mathbb{E}_V \left( \frac{\mu^2_{\text{norm}}(q, \zeta)}{\|q\|^2} \right) = \mathbb{E}_M \left( \|M^\dagger\|^2 \right),
\end{equation}
where $\mathbb{E}_M$ denotes the expectation with respect to the pushforward density $\rho_M$ of $\rho_V$ with respect to the map $p_1 \circ \Psi : V \to M$ (for more on pushforwards, see §8.3).

Of course, we need to better understand the density $\rho_M$. Let $M \in M$ be of rank $n$ and $\zeta \in S^n$ with $M\zeta = 0$. The following formula
\begin{equation}
\rho_M(M) = \rho_{C_\zeta}(0) \cdot \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\lambda \in S^1} \rho_{W_\lambda}(M) dS^1
\end{equation}
can be heuristically explained as follows. We decompose a random $q \in H_d$ according to the decomposition $H_d = C_\zeta \oplus L_\zeta \oplus R_\zeta$ as $q = k + g + h$. Choose $\lambda \in C$ with $|\lambda| = 1$ uniformly at random in the unit circle. Then we have $\Psi(q, \lambda\zeta) = (M, \lambda\zeta)$ if and only if $k = 0$ and $g$ is mapped to $M$ under the isometry in (8.2). The probability density for the event $k = 0$ equals $\rho_{C_\zeta}(0)$.

The second event, conditionned on $\lambda$, has the probability density $\rho_{W_\lambda}(M)$.

By general principles (cf. §8.3) we have
\begin{equation}
\mathbb{E}_M \left( \|M^\dagger\|^2 \right) = \mathbb{E}_{\zeta \sim \rho_{C_\zeta}} \left( \mathbb{E}_{M \sim \rho_{W_\lambda}} \left( \|M^\dagger\|^2 \right) \right),
\end{equation}
where \( \rho_{S^n} \) is the pushforward density of \( \rho \) with respect to \( p_2 \circ \Psi : V \to S^n \) and \( \tilde{\rho}_{W_\zeta} \) denotes a “conditional density” on the fiber \( W_\zeta \). This conditional density turns out to be of the form

\[
(8.9) \quad \tilde{\rho}_{W_\zeta}(M) = c^{-1}_\zeta \cdot \det(MM^*) \rho_{W_\zeta}(M)
\]

(\( c_\zeta \) denoting a normalization factor). In the case \( \zeta = (1, 0, \ldots, 0) \) we can identify \( W_\zeta \) with \( C_n \times C_n \) and \( \tilde{\rho}_{W_\zeta} \) takes the form (7.1) studied in Section 7. Proposition 7.1 and unitary invariance imply that for all \( \zeta \in S^n \),

\[
(8.10) \quad \mathbb{E}_{M \sim \tilde{\rho}_{W_\zeta}} \left( \|M^\dagger\|^2 \right) \leq \frac{e(n + 1)}{2\sigma^2}.
\]

This implies by (8.8) that

\[
\mathbb{E}_y \left( \|M^\dagger\|^2 \right) \leq \frac{e(n + 1)}{2\sigma^2}
\]

and completes the outline of the proof of Theorem 3.6.

The formal proof of the stated facts (8.7)–(8.9) is quite involved and will be given in the remainder of this section.

8.3. Coarea formula. We begin by recalling the coarea formula that tells us how probability distributions on Riemannian manifolds transform.

Suppose that \( X, Y \) are Riemannian manifolds of dimensions \( m, n \), respectively such that \( m \geq n \). Let \( \varphi : X \to Y \) be differentiable. By definition, the derivative \( D\varphi(x) : T_x X \to T_{\varphi(x)} Y \) at a regular point \( x \in X \) is surjective. Hence the restriction of \( D\varphi(x) \) to the orthogonal complement of its kernel yields a linear isomorphism. The absolute value of its determinant is called the normal Jacobian of \( \varphi \) at \( x \) and denoted \( NJ_\varphi(x) \). We set \( NJ_\varphi(x) := 0 \) if \( x \) is not a regular point. We note that the fiber \( F_y := \varphi^{-1}(y) \) is a Riemannian submanifold of \( X \) of dimension \( m - n \) if \( y \) is a regular value of \( \varphi \). Sard’s lemma states that almost all \( y \in Y \) are regular values.

The following result is the coarea formula, sometimes also called Fubini’s theorem for Riemannian manifolds. A proof can be found e.g., in [16, Appendix].

**Proposition 8.3.** Suppose that \( X, Y \) are Riemannian manifolds of dimensions \( m \) and \( n \), respectively, and let \( \varphi : X \to Y \) be a surjective differentiable map. Put \( F_y = \varphi^{-1}(y) \). Then, for any function \( \chi : X \to \mathbb{R} \) that is integrable with respect to the volume measure of \( X \), we have that

\[
\int_X \chi \, dX = \int_{y \in Y} \left( \int_{F_y} \frac{\chi}{NJ_\varphi} \, dF_y \right) \, dY.
\]

Now suppose that we are in the situation described in the statement of Proposition 8.3, and we have a probability measure on \( X \) with density \( \rho_X \). For
a regular value \( y \in Y \) we set

\[(8.11) \quad \rho_Y(y) = \int_{F_y} \frac{\rho_X}{NJ} dF_y.\]

The coarea formula implies that for all measurable sets \( B \subseteq Y \), we have

\[\int_{\varphi^{-1}(B)} \rho_X dX = \int_B \rho_Y dY.\]

Hence \( \rho_Y \) is a probability density on \( Y \). We call it the pushforward of \( \rho_X \) with respect to \( \varphi \).

For a regular value \( y \in Y \) and \( x \in F_y \), we define

\[(8.12) \quad \rho_{F_y}(x) = \frac{\rho_X(x)}{\rho_Y(y)NJ \varphi(x)}.\]

Clearly, this defines a probability density on \( F_y \). The coarea formula implies that for all measurable functions \( \chi : X \to \mathbb{R} \),

\[\int_X \chi \rho_X dX = \int_{y \in Y} \left( \int_{F_y} \chi \rho_{F_y} dF_y \right) \rho_Y(y) dY,\]

provided the left-hand integral exists. Therefore, we can interpret \( \rho_{F_y} \) as the density of the conditional distribution of \( x \) on the fiber \( F_y \) and briefly express the formula above in probabilistic terms as

\[(8.13) \quad \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \rho_X} (\chi(x)) = \mathbb{E}_{y \sim \rho_Y} \left( \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \rho_{F_y}} (\chi(x)) \right).\]

To put these formulas at use in our context, we must compute the normal Jacobians of some maps.

8.4. Normal Jacobians. We start with a general comment. Note that the \( \mathbb{R} \)-linear map \( \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}, z \mapsto \lambda z \) with \( \lambda \in \mathbb{C} \) has determinant \( |\lambda|^2 \). More generally, let \( \varphi \) be an endomorphism of a finite dimensional complex vector space. Then \( |\det \varphi|^2 \) equals the determinant of \( \varphi \), seen as a \( \mathbb{R} \)-linear map.

We describe now the normal Jacobian of the projection \( p_1 : W \to \mathcal{M} \) following [23].

**Lemma 8.4.** We have \( NJp_1(M, \zeta) = \prod_{i=1}^n (1 + \sigma_i^{-2})^{-1} \), where \( \sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n \) are the singular values of \( M \).

**Proof.** First note that \( T_{\zeta} \mathbb{S}^n = \{ \dot{\zeta} \in \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \mid \text{Re}<\zeta, \zeta> = 0 \} \). The tangent space \( T_{(M, \zeta)}W \) consists of the \( (\dot{M}, \dot{\zeta}) \in \mathcal{M} \times T_{\zeta} \mathbb{S}^n \) such that \( \dot{M} \zeta + M \dot{\zeta} = 0 \).

By unitary invariance we may assume that \( \zeta = (1, 0, \ldots, 0) \). Then the first column of \( M \) vanishes, and we denote by \( A = [m_{ij}] \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \) the remaining part of \( M \). Without loss of generality we may assume that \( A \) is invertible. Further, let \( \dot{u} \in \mathbb{C}^n \) denote the first column of \( \dot{M} \) and \( \dot{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \) its remaining part. We
may thus identify $T_{(M,\xi)}W$ with the product $E \times \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ via $(\dot{M}, \dot{\xi}) \mapsto ((\dot{u}, \dot{\xi}), A)$, where $E$ denotes the subspace

$$E := \left\{(\dot{u}, \dot{\xi}) \in \mathbb{C}^n \times \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \mid \dot{u}_i + \sum_{j=1}^n m_{ij}\dot{\xi}_j = 0, 1 \leq i \leq n, \dot{\xi}_0 \in i\mathbb{R}\right\}.$$ 

We also note that $E \simeq \text{graph}(-A) \times i\mathbb{R}$. The derivative of $p_1$ is described by the following commutative diagram:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
T_{(M,\xi)}W & \xrightarrow{\simeq} & (\text{graph}(-A) \times i\mathbb{R}) \times \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \\
Dp_1(M,\xi) \downarrow \quad & & \downarrow \text{pr} \times \text{id} \\
\mathcal{M} & \xrightarrow{\simeq} & \mathbb{C}^n \times \mathbb{C}^{n \times n},
\end{array}
$$

where $\text{pr}(\dot{u}, \dot{\xi}) = \dot{u}$. Using the singular value decomposition we may assume that $A = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n)$. Then the pseudoinverse of the projection $\text{pr}$ is given by the $\mathbb{R}$-linear map

$$\varphi : \mathbb{C}^n \to \text{graph}(-A), \dot{u} \mapsto (\dot{u}, -\sigma_1^{-1}\dot{u}_1, \ldots, -\sigma_n^{-1}\dot{u}_n).$$

It is easy to see that $\det \varphi = \prod_{i=1}^n (1 + \sigma_i^{-2})$. To complete the proof we note that $1/NJp_1(M,\xi) = \det \varphi$. \qed

We have already seen that the condition number $\mu_{\text{norm}}(q, \xi)$ can be described in terms of the map $\Psi$ introduced in (8.3). As a stepping stone towards the analysis of the normal Jacobian of $\Psi$ we introduce now the related bundle map

$$\Phi : V \to W, (q, \xi) \mapsto (Dq(\xi), \xi),$$

whose normal Jacobian turns out to be constant. (This crucial observation is due to Beltrán and Pardo in [6].)

**Proposition 8.5.** We have $NJ\Phi(q, \xi) = \mathcal{D}^n$ for all $(q, \xi) \in V$.

**Proof.** By unitary invariance we may assume without loss of generality that $\xi = (1, 0, \ldots, 0)$. If we write $N = (n_{ij}) = Dq(\xi) \in \mathcal{M}$, then we must have $n_{i0} = 0$ since $N\xi = 0$. Moreover, according to the orthogonal decomposition (8.1) and Lemma 8.1, we have, for $1 \leq i \leq n$,

$$q_i = X_0^{d_i-1} \sum_{j=1}^n n_{ij}X_j + h_i$$

for some $h = (h_1, \ldots, h_n) \in R\xi$. We further express $\dot{q}_i \in T_q\mathcal{H}_d = \mathcal{H}_d$ as

$$\dot{q}_i = \dot{u}_iX_0^{d_i} + \sqrt{d_i}X_0^{d_i-1} \sum_{j=1}^n \dot{a}_{ij}X_j + \dot{h}_i.$$
in terms of the coordinates \( \dot{u} = (\dot{u}_i) \in \mathbb{C}^n \), \( \dot{A} = (\dot{a}_{ij}) \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \), and \( \dot{\pi} = (\dot{\pi}_i) \in R_\zeta \). The reason to put the factor \( \sqrt{\Delta} \) here is that

\[
(8.14) \quad \|\dot{q}\|^2 = \sum_i |\dot{u}_i|^2 + \sum_{ij} |\dot{a}_{ij}|^2 + \sum_i |\dot{\pi}_i|^2
\]

by the definition of the Bombieri-Weyl inner product.

The tangent space \( T_{(q,\zeta)}V \) consists of the \( (\dot{q},\dot{\zeta}) \in \mathcal{H}_d \times T_\zeta \mathcal{S}^n \) such that \( \dot{q}(\zeta) + N\dot{\zeta} = 0 \); see [8, §10.3, Prop. 1]. This condition can be expressed in coordinates as

\[
(8.15) \quad \dot{u}_i + \sum_{j=1}^n n_{ij} \dot{\zeta}_j = 0, \quad i = 1, \ldots, n.
\]

By (8.14) the inner product on \( T_{(q,\zeta)}V \) is given by the standard inner product in the chosen coordinates \( \dot{u}_i, \dot{a}_{ij}, \dot{\zeta}_j \) if \( \dot{\pi}_i = 0 \). Thinking of the description of \( T_{(N,\zeta)}W \) given in the proof of Lemma 8.4, we may therefore isometrically identify \( T_{(q,\zeta)}V \) with the product \( T_{(N,\zeta)}W \times R_\zeta \) via \( (\dot{q},\dot{\zeta}) \mapsto ((\dot{u},\dot{A},\dot{\zeta}),\dot{h}) \). The derivative of \( \pi_1 \) is then described by the commutative diagram

\[
\begin{align*}
T_{(q,\zeta)}V & \xrightarrow{\cong} T_{(N,\zeta)}W \times R_\zeta \\
\mathcal{H}_d & \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathcal{M} \times R_\zeta.
\end{align*}
\]

We shall next calculate the derivative of \( \Phi \). For this, we will use the shorthand \( \partial_h q \) for the partial derivative \( \partial_{X_h} q \), etc. A short calculation yields, for \( j > 0 \),

\[
(8.17) \quad \partial_0 \dot{q}_i(\zeta) = d_i \dot{u}_i, \quad \partial_j \dot{q}_i(\zeta) = \sqrt{d_i} \dot{a}_{ij}, \quad \partial^2_{ij} \dot{q}_i(\zeta) = (d_i - 1) n_{ij}.
\]

Similarly, we obtain \( \partial_0 \dot{q}_i(\zeta) = 0 \) and \( \partial_j \dot{q}_i(\zeta) = n_{ij} \) for \( j > 0 \).

The derivative of \( D\Phi(q,\zeta) : T_{(q,\zeta)}V \to T_{(N,\zeta)}W \) is determined by

\[
D\Phi(q,\zeta)(\dot{q},\dot{\zeta}) = (\dot{N},\dot{\zeta}), \quad \text{where} \quad \dot{N} = D\dot{q}(\zeta) + D^2 q(\zeta)(\dot{\zeta},\cdot).
\]

Introducing the coordinates \( \dot{N} = (\dot{n}_{ij}) \) this can be written as

\[
(8.18) \quad \dot{n}_{ij} = \partial_j \dot{q}_i(\zeta) + \sum_{k=1}^n \partial^2_{jk} \dot{q}_i(\zeta) \dot{\zeta}_k.
\]

For \( j > 0 \), this gives, using (8.17),

\[
(8.19) \quad \dot{n}_{ij} = \sqrt{d_i} \dot{a}_{ij} + \sum_{k=1}^n \partial^2_{jk} \dot{q}_i(\zeta) \dot{\zeta}_k.
\]

For \( j = 0 \), we obtain from (8.18), using (8.17) and (8.15),

\[
(8.20) \quad \dot{n}_{i0} = \partial_0 \dot{q}_i(\zeta) + \sum_{k=1}^n \partial^2_{ik} \dot{q}_i(\zeta) \dot{\zeta}_k = d_i \dot{u}_i + (d_i - 1) \sum_{k=1}^n n_{ik} \dot{\zeta}_k = \dot{u}_i.
\]

Note the crucial cancellation taking place here!
From (8.19) and (8.20) we see that the kernel $K$ of $D\Phi(q, \zeta)$ is determined by the conditions $\dot{\zeta} = 0, \dot{u} = 0, \dot{\bar{A}} = 0$. Hence, recalling $T_{(q, \zeta)}V \simeq T_{(N, \zeta)}W \times R_\zeta$, we have $K \simeq 0 \times R_\zeta$ and $K^\perp \simeq T_{(N, \zeta)}W \times 0$. Moreover, as in the proof of Lemma 8.4 (but replacing $K\zeta$ by $K\zeta_\alpha$ we have $K\zeta_\alpha \simeq \prod_{i=1}^n V_i$ and identify $T_{(N, \zeta)}W$ with $E \times \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$. Using this identification of spaces, (8.19) and (8.20) imply that $D\Phi(q, \zeta)|_{K^\perp}$ has the following structure:

$$D\Phi(q, \zeta)|_{K^\perp} : E \times \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \to E \times \mathbb{C}^{n \times n},$$

$$((\dot{u}, \dot{\zeta}), \dot{\bar{A}}) \mapsto ((\dot{u}, \dot{\zeta}), \lambda(\dot{A}) + \rho(\dot{\zeta})),$$

where the linear map $\lambda : \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \to \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}, \dot{A} \mapsto (\sqrt{a_{ij}} \dot{a}_{ij})$, multiplies the $i$th row of $\dot{A}$ with $\sqrt{a_{ij}}$ and $\rho : \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \to \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is given by $\rho(\dot{\zeta})_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n \partial_{\bar{A}^k} q_1(\dot{\zeta}) \dot{\zeta}_k$.

By definition we have $NJ\Phi(q, \zeta) = |\det D\Phi(q, \zeta)|_{K^\perp}$. The triangular form of $D\Phi(q, \zeta)|_{K^\perp}$ shown above implies that $|\det D\Phi(q, \zeta)|_{K^\perp} = \det \lambda$. Finally, using the diagonal form of $\lambda$, we obtain $\det \lambda = \prod_{i=1}^n \sqrt{a_{ii}}^2 = \mathcal{D}^n$, which completes the proof. \hfill \Box

**Remark 8.6.** An inspection of the proof of Proposition 8.5 reveals that the second order derivatives occurring in $D\Phi$ do not have any impact on the normal Jacobian $NJ\Phi$. Its value $\mathcal{D}^n$ occurs as a result of the chosen Bombieri-Weyl inner product on $H_d$. With respect to the naive inner product on $H_d$ (where the monomials form an orthonormal basis), the normal Jacobian of $\Phi$ at $(q, \zeta)$ would be equal to one at $\zeta = (1, 0, \ldots, 0)$. However unitary invariance would not hold and the normal Jacobian would take different values elsewhere.

Before proceeding we note the following consequence of equation (8.16):

$$NJ\pi_1(q, \zeta) = NJp_1(N, \zeta), \text{ where } N = Dq(\zeta).$$

The normal Jacobian of the map $\Psi : V \to W$ is not constant and takes a more complicated form in terms of the normal Jacobians of the projection $p_1 : W \to \mathcal{M}$. For obtaining an expression for $NJ\Psi$ we need the following lemma.

**Lemma 8.7.** The scaling map $\gamma : W \to W, (N, \zeta) \mapsto (M, \zeta)$ with $M = \Delta^{-1}N$ of rank $n$ satisfies

$$\det D\gamma(N, \zeta) = \frac{1}{\mathcal{D}^{n+1}} \cdot \frac{NJp_1(N, \zeta)}{NJp_1(M, \zeta)}.$$

**Proof.** If $W_\mathcal{M}$ denotes the solution variety in $\mathcal{M} \times \mathbb{P}^n$ analogous to $W$, then we have $T_{(M, \zeta)}W = T_{(M, \zeta)}W_\mathcal{M} \oplus R\zeta$. Let $p'_1 : W_\mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{M}$ denote the projection.
The derivative $D\gamma_{\mathbb{P}}(N,\zeta)$ of the corresponding scaling map $\gamma_{\mathbb{P}}: W_{\mathbb{P}} \to W_{\mathbb{P}}$ is determined by the commutative diagram
\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
T_{(N,\zeta)}W_{\mathbb{P}} & \xrightarrow{D\gamma_{\mathbb{P}}(N,\zeta)} & T_{(M,\zeta)}W_{\mathbb{P}}
\end{array}
\]
where the vertical arrows are linear isomorphisms. The assertion follows by observing that $NJ_{p_1}(N,\zeta) = \det Dp_1'(N,\zeta)$, $NJ_\gamma(N,\zeta) = \det D\gamma_{\mathbb{P}}(N,\zeta)$, and using that the $\mathbb{R}$-linear map $sc: \mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{M}$, $N \mapsto -\frac{1}{D_{n+1}} N$ has the determinant $1/D$. □

Proposition 8.5 combined with Lemma 8.7 immediately gives
\[
NJ_{\Psi}(q,\zeta) = \frac{1}{D} \cdot \frac{NJ_{p_1}(N,\zeta)}{NJ_\pi_1(N,\zeta)}
\]
for $N = Dq(\zeta) = \Delta^{-1} N$.

8.5. Induced probability distributions. By Bézout’s theorem, the fiber $V(q)$ of the projection $\pi_1: V \to \mathcal{H}_d$ at $q \in \mathcal{H}_d$ is a disjoint union of $D = d_1 \cdots d_n$ unit circles and therefore has the volume $2\pi D$, provided $q$ does not lie in the discriminant variety.

Recall that $\rho_{\mathbb{H}_d}$ denotes the density of the Gaussian distribution $N(\bar{q},\sigma^2 I)$ for fixed $\bar{q} \in \mathcal{H}_d$ and $\sigma > 0$ and $E_{\mathbb{H}_d}$ stands for expectation taken with respect to that density. We associate with $\rho_{\mathbb{H}_d}$ the function $\rho_V : V \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by
\[
\rho_V(q,\zeta) := \frac{1}{2\pi D} \rho_{\mathbb{H}_d}(q) NJ_\pi_1(q,\zeta).
\]
The next result shows that $\rho_V$ is the probability density function of the distribution on $V$ we described in §8.2.

**Lemma 8.8.**
\begin{enumerate}
\item The function $\rho_V$ is a probability density on $V$.
\item The expectation of a function $\varphi: V \to \mathbb{R}$ with respect to $\rho_V$ can be expressed as $E_V(\varphi) = E_{\mathbb{H}_d}(\varphi_{av})$, where $\varphi_{av}(q) := \frac{1}{2\pi D} \int_{V(q)} \varphi dV(q)$.
\item The pushforward of $\rho_V$ with respect to $\pi_1: V \to \mathcal{H}_d$ equals $\rho_{\mathbb{H}_d}$.
\item For $q \notin \Sigma$, the conditional density on the fiber $V(q)$ is the density of the uniform distribution on $V(q)$.
\item The probability density $\rho_{st}$ on $V_{\mathbb{P}}$ introduced in Section 3.2 is obtained from the density $\rho_V$ in the case $\bar{q} = 0$, $\sigma = 1$ as the pushforward under the canonical map $V \to V_{\mathbb{P}}$, $(f,\zeta) \mapsto (f, [\zeta])$. Explicitly, we have
\[
\rho_{st}(q,[\zeta]) = \frac{1}{D} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^N} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \|q\|^2} NJ_\pi_1(q,\zeta).
\]
\end{enumerate}
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Proof. The coarea formula (Proposition 8.3) applied to \( \pi_1 : V \to \mathcal{H}_d \) implies

\[
\int_V \varphi \rho_V dV = \int_{q \in \mathcal{H}_d} \left( \int_{\zeta \in V(q)} \varphi(q, \zeta) \frac{\rho_V(q, \zeta)}{NJ\pi_1(q, \zeta)} dV(q) \right) d\mathcal{H}_d
= \int_{q \in \mathcal{H}_d} \varphi_{av}(q) \rho_{\mathcal{H}_d}(q) d\mathcal{H}_d.
\]

Taking \( \varphi = 1 \) reveals that \( \rho_V \) is a density, proving the first assertion. The above formula also shows the second assertion.

By equation (8.11) the pushforward density \( \rho \) of \( \rho_V \) with respect to \( \pi_1 \) satisfies

\[
\rho(q) = \int_{\zeta \in V(q)} \frac{\rho_V(q, \zeta)}{NJ\pi_1(q, \zeta)} dV(q) = \rho_{\mathcal{H}_d}(q),
\]
as \( \int dV(q) = 2\pi D \). This shows the third assertion. By (8.12) the conditional density satisfies

\[
\rho_V(q|\zeta) = \frac{\rho_V(q, \zeta)}{\rho_{\mathcal{H}_d}(q) NJ\pi_1(q, \zeta)} = \frac{1}{2\pi D},
\]
which shows the fourth assertion. The fifth assertion is trivial. \( \square \)

We can now determine the various probability distributions induced by \( \rho_V \).

**Proposition 8.9.** We have

\[
\frac{\rho_V}{NJ\Psi}(g_{M\zeta} + h, \zeta) = \rho_W(M, \zeta) \cdot \rho_{R_{\zeta}}(h),
\]
where the pushforward density \( \rho_W \) of \( \rho_V \) with respect to \( \Psi : V \to W \) satisfies

\[
\rho_W(M, \zeta) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \rho_{C_{\zeta}}(0) \cdot \rho_{W_{\zeta}}(M) \cdot NJp_1(M, \zeta).
\]

Proof. Using the factorization of Gaussians (8.5) and equation (8.21), the density \( \rho_V \) can be written as

\[
\rho_V(g_{M\zeta} + h, \zeta) = \frac{1}{2\pi D} \rho_{C_{\zeta}}(0) \rho_{W_{\zeta}}(M) \rho_{R_{\zeta}}(h) NJp_1(N, \zeta),
\]
where \( N = \Delta M \). It follows from (8.22) that

\[
(8.24) \quad \frac{\rho_V}{NJ\Psi}(g_{M\zeta} + h, \zeta) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \rho_{C_{\zeta}}(0) \rho_{W_{\zeta}}(M) \rho_{R_{\zeta}}(h) NJp_1(M, \zeta).
\]

This implies, using (8.11) for \( \Psi : V \to W \) and the isometry \( \Psi_1^{-1}(M, \zeta) \simeq R_{\zeta} \) for the fiber at \( \zeta \), that

\[
\rho_W(M, \zeta) = \int_{h \in R_{\zeta}} \frac{\rho_V}{NJ\Psi}(g_{M\zeta} + h, \zeta) dR_{\zeta}
= \frac{1}{2\pi} \rho_{C_{\zeta}}(0) \cdot \rho_{W_{\zeta}}(M) \cdot NJp_1(M, \zeta) \int_{h \in R_{\zeta}} \rho_{R_{\zeta}}(h) dR_{\zeta}
= \frac{1}{2\pi} \rho_{C_{\zeta}}(0) \cdot \rho_{W_{\zeta}}(M) \cdot NJp_1(M, \zeta)
\]
as claimed. Replacing in (8.24) we therefore obtain
\[ \frac{\rho_V}{NJ^\Psi}(g_{M,\zeta} + h, \zeta) = \rho_W(M, \zeta) \rho_{R_\zeta}(h). \]

The claimed formula (8.7) for the pushforward density \( \rho_M \) of \( \rho_W \) with respect to \( p_1 : W \to \mathcal{M} \) immediately follows from Proposition 8.9 by integrating \( \frac{\rho_W}{NJ_{p_1}} \) over the fibers of \( p_1 \).

**Lemma 8.10.** Let \( c_\zeta \) denote the expectation of \( \det(\mathbb{M}^*) \) with respect to \( \rho_W \). We have
\[ \frac{\rho_W}{NJ_{p_2}}(M, \zeta) = c_\zeta \cdot \rho_{W_\zeta}(M), \]
where \( \rho_{S^n}(\zeta) = \frac{c_\zeta}{2\pi} \rho_{C_\zeta}(0) \) is the pushforward density of \( \rho_W \) with respect to \( p_2 : W \to S^n \), and where the conditional density \( \tilde{\rho}_{W_\zeta} \) on the fiber \( W_\zeta \) of \( p_2 \) is given by
\[ \tilde{\rho}_{W_\zeta}(M) = c_\zeta^{-1} \cdot \det(\mathbb{M}^*) \rho_{W_\zeta}(M). \]

**Proof.** In [23] (see also [8, §13.2, Lemmas 2–3]) it is shown that
\[ \frac{\rho_W}{NJ_{p_2}}(M, \zeta) = \det(\mathbb{M}^*). \]
Combining this with Proposition 8.9 we get
\[ \frac{\rho_W}{NJ_{p_2}}(M, \zeta) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \rho_{C_\zeta}(0) \cdot \rho_{W_\zeta}(M) \cdot \det(\mathbb{M}^*). \]
Integrating over \( W_\zeta \) we get \( \rho_{S^n}(\zeta) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \rho_{C_\zeta}(0) \cdot c_\zeta \), and finally (cf. (8.12))
\[ \tilde{\rho}_{W_\zeta}(M) = \frac{\rho_{W_\zeta}(M, \zeta)}{\rho_{S^n}(\zeta) \frac{\rho_W}{NJ_{p_2}}(M, \zeta)} = c_\zeta^{-1} \cdot \rho_{W_\zeta}(M) \cdot \det(\mathbb{M}^*) \]
as claimed. □

This lemma shows that the conditional density \( \tilde{\rho}_{W_\zeta} \) has the form stated in (8.9) and therefore completes the proof of Theorem 3.6.

**8.6. Expected number of real zeros.** As a further illustration of the interplay of Gaussians with the coarea formula in our setting, we give a simplified proof of one of the main results of [23]. This subsection is not needed for understanding the remainder of the paper.

Our developments so far took place over the complex numbers \( \mathbb{C} \), but much of what has been said carries over the situation over \( \mathbb{R} \). However, we note that algorithm ALH would not work over \( \mathbb{R} \) since the lifting of the segment \( E_{f,g} \) will likely contain a multiple zero (over \( \mathbb{C} \) this happens with probability zero since the real codimension of the discriminant variety equals two).

Let \( \mathcal{H}_{d,\mathbb{R}} \) denote the space of real polynomial systems in \( \mathcal{H}_d \) endowed with the Bombieri-Weyl inner product. The standard Gaussian distribution on \( \mathcal{H}_{d,\mathbb{R}} \) is well defined, and we denote its density with \( \rho_{\mathcal{H}_{d,\mathbb{R}}} \).
COROLLARY 8.11. The average number of zeros of a standard Gaussian random $f \in H_{d, \mathbb{R}}$ in the real projective space $\mathbb{P}^n(\mathbb{R})$ equals $\sqrt{D}$.

Proof. Let $\chi(q)$ denote the number of real zeros in $\mathbb{P}^n(\mathbb{R})$ of $q \in H_{d, \mathbb{R}}$. Thus the number of real zeros in the sphere $S^n = S(\mathbb{R}^{n+1})$ equals $2\chi(q)$. The real solution variety $V_\mathbb{R} \subseteq H_{d, \mathbb{R}} \times S^n$ is defined in the obvious way and so is $W_\mathbb{R} \subseteq \mathcal{M} \times S^n$, where $\mathcal{M} = \mathbb{R}^{n \times (n+1)}$.

The same proof as for Proposition 8.5 shows that the normal Jacobian of the map $\Phi_\mathbb{R} : V_\mathbb{R} \to W_\mathbb{R}, (q, \zeta) \mapsto (Dq(\zeta), \zeta)$ has the constant value $D^{n/2}$ (the 2 in the exponent due to the considerations opening §8.4).

Applying the coarea formula to the projection $\pi_1 : V_\mathbb{R} \to H_{d, \mathbb{R}}$, yields

$$\int_{H_{d, \mathbb{R}}} \chi dH_{d, \mathbb{R}} = \int_{q \in H_{d, \mathbb{R}}} \rho_{H_{d, \mathbb{R}}}(q) \frac{1}{2} \int_{\pi_1^{-1}(q)} d\pi_1^{-1}(q) dH_{d, \mathbb{R}}$$

$$= \int_{V_\mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{2} \rho_{H_{d, \mathbb{R}}} NJ\pi_1 dV_\mathbb{R}.$$ 

We can factor the standard Gaussian $\rho_{H_{d, \mathbb{R}}}$ into standard Gaussian densities $\rho_{C_\zeta}$ and $\rho_{L_\zeta}$ on $C_\zeta$ and $L_\zeta$, respectively, as was done in Section 8.5 over $\mathbb{C}$ (denoting them by the same symbol will not cause any confusion). We also have an isometry $W_\zeta \to L_\zeta$ as in (8.2) and $\rho_{L_\zeta}$ induces the standard Gaussian density $\rho_{W_\zeta}$ on $W_\zeta$. The fiber of $\Phi_\mathbb{R} : V_\mathbb{R} \to W_\mathbb{R}, (q, \zeta) \mapsto (N, \zeta)$ over $(N, \zeta)$ has the form $\Phi_{\mathbb{R}}^{-1}(N, \zeta) = \{(g_M, h, \zeta) : h \in R_\zeta\}$, where $M = \Delta^{-1}N$; cf. Lemma 8.2. We therefore have $\rho_{H_{d, \mathbb{R}}}(g_M, h) = \rho_{C_\zeta}(0) \rho_{W_\zeta}(M) \rho_{R_\zeta}(h)$.

The coarea formula applied to $\Phi_\mathbb{R} : V_\mathbb{R} \to W_\mathbb{R}$, using equation (8.21), yields

$$\int_{V_\mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{2} \rho_{H_{d, \mathbb{R}}} NJ\pi_1 dV_\mathbb{R}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2 NJ\Phi_\mathbb{R}} \int_{(N, \zeta) \in W_\mathbb{R}} \rho_{C_\zeta}(0) \rho_{W_\zeta}(M) NJp_1(N, \zeta) \int_{h \in R_\zeta} \rho_{R_\zeta}(h) dR_\zeta dW_\mathbb{R}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2 NJ\Phi_\mathbb{R}} \int_{(N, \zeta) \in W_\mathbb{R}} \rho_{C_\zeta}(0) \rho_{W_\zeta}(M) NJp_1(N, \zeta) dW_\mathbb{R}.$$ 

Applying the coarea formula to the projection $p_1 : W_\mathbb{R} \to \mathcal{M}$, we can simplify the above to

$$\frac{1}{NJ\Phi_\mathbb{R}} \int_{N \in \mathcal{M}} \rho_{C_\zeta}(0) \rho_{W_\zeta}(M) \frac{1}{2} \int_{\zeta \in p_1^{-1}(N)} dp_1^{-1}(N) d\mathcal{M}$$

$$= \frac{1}{NJ\Phi_\mathbb{R}} \int_{N \in \mathcal{M}} \rho_{C_\zeta}(0) \rho_{W_\zeta}(M) d\mathcal{M}$$

$$= \frac{D^{n+1}}{NJ\Phi_\mathbb{R}} \int_{M \in \mathcal{M}} \rho_{C_\zeta}(0) \rho_{W_\zeta}(M) d\mathcal{M},$$

where the last equality is due to the change of variables $\mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{M}, N \mapsto M$ that has the Jacobian determinant $D^{-\frac{n+1}{2}}$. Now we note that

$$\rho_{C_\zeta}(0) \rho_{W_\zeta}(M) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} (2\pi)^{-n^2/2} \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} ||M||^2 \right)$$

where $M = g_M, h, \zeta$.
is the density of the standard Gaussian distribution on $\mathcal{M}_\mathbb{R} \simeq \mathbb{R}^{n \times (n+1)}$, so that the last integral (over $M \in \mathcal{M}_\mathbb{R}$) equals one. Altogether, we obtain, using $\text{NJ}_\Phi = D^{n/2}$,
\[
\int_{\mathcal{H}_{d,\mathbb{R}}} \chi \rho_{\mathcal{H}_{d,\mathbb{R}}} \, d\mathcal{H}_{d,\mathbb{R}} = \frac{D^{n+1}}{\text{NJ}_\Phi} = \sqrt{D}.
\]

9. Effective sampling in the solution variety

We turn now to the question of effective sampling in the solution variety endowed with the measure $\rho_{\text{st}}$ introduced in Section 3.2. The goal is to provide the proof of Proposition 3.3.

**Proposition 9.1.** In the setting of Section 8.5 suppose $\overline{q} = 0, \sigma = 1$. Then the pushforward density $\rho_{\mathcal{M}}$ of $\rho_W$ with respect to $p_1 : W \to \mathcal{M}$ equals the standard Gaussian distribution in $\mathcal{M}$. The conditional distributions on the fibers of $p_1$ are uniform distributions on unit circles. Finally, the conditional distribution on the fibers of $\Psi : V \to W$ is induced from the standard Gaussian in $R_\mathcal{C}$ via the isometry (8.2).

**Proof.** Since $\rho_{\mathcal{H}_{d}}$ is standard Gaussian, the induced distributions on $C_\mathcal{C}$, $L_\mathcal{C}$, and $R_\mathcal{C}$ are standard Gaussian as well. Hence $\rho_{W_\mathcal{C}}$ equals the standard Gaussian distribution on the fiber $W_\mathcal{C}$. Moreover, $\rho_{C_\mathcal{C}}(0) = (\sqrt{2\pi})^{-n}$. Equation (8.7) implies that
\[
\rho_{\mathcal{M}}(M) = \rho_{C_\mathcal{C}}(0) \cdot \rho_{W_\mathcal{C}}(M) = (2\pi)^{-n} (2\pi)^{-n^2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \|M\|_F^2\right),
\]
which equals the density of the standard Gaussian distribution on $\mathcal{M}$.

Lemma 8.10 combined with (8.25) gives
\[
\frac{\rho_W}{NJ_{p_1}}(M, \zeta) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \rho_{C_\mathcal{C}}(0) \cdot \rho_{W_\mathcal{C}}(M) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \rho_{\mathcal{M}}(M).
\]
Hence the conditional distributions on the fibers of $p_1$ are uniform. (Note that this is not true in the case of nonstandard Gaussians.) The assertion on the conditional distributions on the fibers of $\Psi$ follows from Proposition 8.9. \[\square\]

**Proof of Proposition 3.3.** Proposition 9.1 (with Lemma 8.8) shows that the following procedure generates the distribution $\rho_{\text{st}}$:

1. choose $M \in \mathcal{M}$ from the standard Gaussian distribution (almost surely $M$ has rank $n$),
2. compute the unique $[\zeta] \in \mathbb{P}^n$ such that $M\zeta = 0$,
3. choose a representative $\zeta$ uniformly at random in $[\zeta] \cap S^n$,
4. compute $g_{M,\zeta}$, cf. (8.2),
5. choose $h \in R_\mathcal{C}$ from the standard Gaussian distribution,
6. compute $q = g_{M,\zeta} + h$ and return $(q, [\zeta])$. 


An elegant way of choosing $h$ in step 5 is to draw $f \in H_d$ from $N(0, I)$ and then to compute the image $h$ of $f$ under the orthogonal projection $H_\zeta \to R_\zeta$. Since the orthogonal projection of a standard Gaussian is a standard Gaussian, this amounts to draw $h$ from a standard Gaussian in $R_\zeta$. For computing the projection $h$ we note that the orthogonal decomposition $f = k + g_{M, \zeta} + h$ with $k \in C_\zeta$, $M = [m_{ij}] \in \mathcal{M}$, and $h \in R_\zeta$ is obtained as

$$k_i = f_i(\zeta)\langle X, \zeta \rangle^{d_i},$$

$$m_{ij} = d_i^{-1/2}(\partial_X f_i(\zeta) - d_i f_i(\zeta)\zeta_j),$$

$$h = f - k - g_{M, \zeta}.$$

(Recall $D_{g_{M, \zeta}}(\zeta) = \Delta M$ and note $\frac{\partial}{\partial \zeta}(X, \zeta)^{d_i}(\zeta) = \partial_i \zeta_j$.)

It is easy to check that $O(N)$ samples from the standard Gaussian distribution on $\mathbb{R}$ are sufficient for implementing this procedure. As for the operation count: step (4) turns out to be the most expensive one and can be done, e.g., as follows. Suppose that all the coefficients of $\langle X, \zeta \rangle^{k-1}$ have already been computed. Then each coefficient of $\langle X, \zeta \rangle^k = (X_0\zeta_0 + \cdots + X_n\zeta_n)\langle X, \zeta \rangle^{k-1}$ can be obtained by $O(n)$ arithmetic operations, hence all the coefficients of $\langle X, \zeta \rangle^k$ are obtained with $O(n^{n+k})$ operations. It follows that $\langle X, \zeta \rangle^{d_i}$ can be computed with $O(d_i n N_i)$ operations, hence $O(Dn N)$ operations suffice for the computation of $g_{M, \zeta}$. It is clear that this is also an upper bound on the cost of computing $(q, \zeta)$. □

10. Homotopies with a fixed extremity

We provide now the proof of the remaining results stated in Section 3. The next two cases we wish to analyze (the condition-based analysis of LV and a solution for Smale’s 17th problem with moderate degrees) share the feature that one endpoint of the homotopy segment is fixed, not randomized. This sharing actually allows one to derive both corresponding results (Theorems 3.7 and 3.8, respectively) as a consequence of the following statement.

**Theorem 10.1.** For $g \in S(H_d) \setminus \Sigma$, we have

$$\mathbb{E}_{f \in S(H_d)} \left( \int_0^1 \mu_2^2(q_\tau) d\tau \right) \leq 818 D^{3/2} N(n + 1) \mu_{\max}^2(g) + 0.01.$$

The idea to prove Theorem 10.1 is simple. For small values of $\tau$, the system $q_\tau$ is close to $g$ and therefore, the value of $\mu_2^2(q_\tau)$ can be bounded by a small multiple of $\mu_{\max}^2(g)$. For the remaining values of $\tau$, the corresponding $t = t(\tau)$ is bounded away from 0 and therefore so is the variance $\sigma_t^2$ in the distribution $N(\bar{q}_t, \sigma_t^2 I)$ for $q_t$. This allows one to control the denominator in the right-hand side of Theorem 3.6 when using this result. Here are the precise details.
In the following fix \( g \in S(\mathcal{H}_d) \setminus \Sigma \). First note that we may again replace
the uniform distribution of \( f \) on \( S(\mathcal{H}_d) \) by the truncated Gaussian \( N_A(0,1) \).
As before we chose \( A := \sqrt{2N} \). We therefore need to bound the quantity
\[
Q_g := \mathbb{E}_{f \sim N_A(0,1)} \left( d_S(f, g) \int_0^1 \mu_2^2(q_\tau) d\tau \right).
\]
To simplify notation, we set as before \( \varepsilon = 0.13, C = 0.025, \lambda = 6.67 \cdot 10^{-3} \),
and define
\[
\delta_0 := \frac{\lambda}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\max}(g)}, \quad t_A := \frac{1}{1 + A + 1.00001 \frac{A}{\delta_0}}.
\]

**Proposition 10.2.** We have
\[
Q_g \leq (1 + \varepsilon)^2 \delta_0 \mu_{\max}^2(g) + \frac{A}{P_{A,1}} \int_{1}^{A} \mathbb{E}_{q_\tau \sim N[2,1]} \left( \mu_2^2(q_\tau) \right) dt,
\]
where \( q_t = (1-t)g \).

*Proof.* Let \( \zeta^{(1)}, \ldots, \zeta^{(D)} \) be the zeros of \( g \) and denote by \( (q_\tau, \zeta^{(j)})_{\tau \in [0,1]} \)
the lifting of \( E_{f,g} \) in \( V \) corresponding to the initial pair \( (g, \zeta^{(j)}) \) and final
system \( f \in \mathcal{H}_d \setminus \Sigma \).

Equation (4.1) for \( i = 0 \) in the proof of Theorem 3.1 shows the following:
for all \( j \) and all \( \tau \leq \frac{\lambda}{d_S(f,g) D^{3/2} \mu_{\norm}(g, \zeta^{(j)})} \), we have
\[
\mu_{\norm}(q_\tau, \zeta^{(j)}) \leq (1 + \varepsilon) \mu_{\norm}(g, \zeta^{(j)}) \leq (1 + \varepsilon) \mu_{\max}(g).
\]
In particular, this inequality holds for all \( j \) and all \( \tau \leq \frac{\delta_0}{d_S(f,g)} \) and hence, for
all such \( \tau \), we have
(10.1) \[
\mu_2(q_\tau) \leq (1 + \varepsilon) \mu_{\max}(g).
\]
Splitting the integral in \( Q_g \) at \( \tau_0(f) := \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\delta_0}{d_S(f,g)} \right\} \) we obtain
\[
Q_g = \mathbb{E}_{f \sim N_A(0,1)} \left( d_S(f, g) \int_0^{\tau_0(f)} \mu_2^2(q_\tau) d\tau \right) + \mathbb{E}_{f \sim N_A(0,1)} \left( d_S(f, g) \int_{\tau_0(f)}^1 \mu_2^2(q_\tau) d\tau \right).
\]
Using (10.1) we bound the first term in the right-hand side as follows:
\[
\mathbb{E}_{f \sim N_A(0,1)} \left( d_S(f, g) \int_0^{\tau_0(f)} \mu_2^2(q_\tau) d\tau \right) \leq (1 + \varepsilon)^2 \delta_0 \mu_{\max}(g)^2.
\]
To bound the second term, we without loss of generality assume that \( \tau_0(f) \leq 1 \).
We apply Proposition 5.2 to obtain, for a fixed \( f \),
\[
d_S(f, g) \int_{\tau_0(f)}^1 \mu_2^2(q_\tau) d\tau \leq \int_{\tau_0(f)}^1 \|f\| \frac{\mu_2^2(q_\tau)}{\|q_\tau\|^2} dt,
\]
where \( t_0(f) \) is given by

\[
t_0(f) = \frac{1}{1 + \|f\| (\sin \alpha \cot \delta_0 - \cos \alpha)}, \quad \alpha := d_3(f, g).
\]

Now note that \( \|f\| \leq A \) since we draw \( f \) from \( N_A(0, I) \). This will allow us to bound \( t_0(f) \) from below by a quantity independent of \( f \). For \( \|f\| \leq A \), we have

\[
0 \leq \sin \alpha \cot \delta_0 - \cos \alpha \leq \frac{1}{\sin \delta_0} - \cos \alpha \leq \frac{1}{\sin \delta_0} + 1,
\]

and, moreover, \( \sin \delta_0 \geq 0.99999 \delta_0 \) since \( \delta_0 \leq 2^{-3/2} \lambda \leq 0.00236 \). We can therefore bound \( t_0(f) \) as

\[
t_0(f) \geq \frac{1}{1 + A + \frac{A}{\sin(\delta_0)}} \geq \frac{1}{1 + A + 1.00001 \frac{A}{\delta_0}} = t_A.
\]

We can now bound the second term in \( Q_g \) as follows:

\[
\mathbb{E}_{f \sim N_A(0, I)} \left( d_3(f, g) \int_{\tau_0(f)}^1 \mu_2^2(q_\tau) \, d\tau \right) \leq \mathbb{E}_{f \sim N_A(0, I)} \left( A \int_{t_A}^1 \frac{\mu_2^2(q_t)}{\|g_t\|^2} \, dt \right)
\]

\[
= A \int_{t_A}^1 \mathbb{E}_{f \sim N_A(0, I)} \left( \frac{\mu_2^2(q_t)}{\|g_t\|^2} \right) \, dt \leq \frac{A}{P_{A,1}} \int_{t_A}^1 \mathbb{E}_{f \sim N(0, I)} \left( \frac{\mu_2^2(q_t)}{\|g_t\|^2} \right) \, dt.
\]

To conclude, note that, for fixed \( t \) and when \( f \) is distributed following \( N(0, I) \), the variable \( q_t = (1 - t)g + tf \) follows the Gaussian \( N(g_t, t^2I) \), where \( g_t = (1 - t)g \).

**Proof of Theorem 10.1.** By homogeneity we can replace the uniform distribution on \( S(\mathcal{H}_A) \) by \( N_A(0, I) \), so that we only need to estimate \( Q_g \) by the right-hand side of Proposition 10.2. In order to bound the first term there we note that

\[
(1 + \varepsilon)^2 \delta_0 \mu_{\max}^2(g) = (1 + \varepsilon)^2 \lambda D^{-3/2} \leq (1 + \varepsilon)^2 \lambda \leq 0.01.
\]

For bounding the second term we apply Theorem 3.6 to deduce that

\[
\int_{t_A}^1 \mathbb{E}_{q_t \sim N(0, I)} \left( \frac{\mu_2^2(q_t)}{\|g_t\|^2} \right) \, dt \leq \int_{t_A}^1 \frac{e(n + 1)}{2t^2} \, dt = \frac{e(n + 1)}{2} \left( \frac{1}{t_A} - 1 \right)
\]

\[
= \frac{e(n + 1)A}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{1.00001}{\delta_0} \right).
\]

Replacing this bound in Proposition 10.2 we obtain

\[
Q_g \leq \frac{eA^2(n + 1)}{2P_{A,1}} \left( 1 + \frac{1.00001}{\lambda} \right) D^{3/2} \mu_{\max}^2(g) + 0.01
\]

\[
\leq 2eN(n + 1)D^{3/2} \mu_{\max}^2(g) \left( 1 + \frac{1.00001}{D^{3/2} \lambda} \right) + 0.01
\]

\[
\leq 818 N(n + 1)D^{3/2} \mu_{\max}^2(g) + 0.01,
\]

where we used \( D \geq 2 \) for the last inequality. \( \square \)
10.1. Condition-based analysis of \( LV \) (proof).

**Proof of Theorem 3.7.** The result follows immediately by combining Proposition 5.1 with Theorem 10.1, with the roles of \( f \) and \( g \) swapped. \( \square \)

10.2. The complexity of a deterministic homotopy continuation. We next prove Theorem 3.8, beginning with some general considerations. The unitary group \( U(n+1) \) naturally acts on \( \mathbb{P}^n \) as well as on \( \mathcal{H}_d \) via \( (\nu, f) \mapsto f \circ \nu^{-1} \). The following lemma results from the unitary invariance of our setting. The proof is immediate.

**Lemma 10.3.** Let \( g \in \mathcal{H}_d \), \( \zeta \in \mathbb{P}^n \) be a zero of \( g \), and \( \nu \in U(n+1) \). Then \( \mu_{\text{norm}}(g, \zeta) = \mu_{\text{norm}}(g \circ \nu^{-1}, \nu \zeta) \). Moreover, for \( f \in \mathcal{H}_d \), we have \( K(f, g, \zeta) = K(f \circ \nu^{-1}, g \circ \nu^{-1}, \nu \zeta) \). \( \square \)

Recall \( \overline{U}_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}n}(X_0^{d_i} - X_i^{d_i}) \) and denote by \( z_{(i)} \) a \( d_i \)th primitive root of unity. The \( D \) zeros of \( \overline{U} = (\overline{U}_1, \ldots, \overline{U}_n) \) are the points \( z_j = (1 : z_{j_1}^{(1)} : \ldots : z_{j_n}^{(n)}) \in \mathbb{P}^n \) for all the possible tuples \( j = (j_1, \ldots, j_n) \) with \( j_i \in \{0, \ldots, d_i - 1\} \). Clearly, each \( z_j \) can be obtained from \( z_1 := (1 : 1 : \ldots : 1) \) by a unitary transformation \( \nu_j \), which leaves \( \overline{U} \) invariant; that is,

\[
\nu_j z_1 = z_j, \quad \overline{U} \circ \nu_j^{-1} = \overline{U}.
\]

Hence Lemma 10.3 implies \( \mu_{\text{norm}}(\overline{U}, z_j) = \mu_{\text{norm}}(\overline{U}, z_1) \) for all \( j \). In particular, \( \mu_{\text{max}}(\overline{U}) = \mu_{\text{norm}}(\overline{U}, z_1) \).

**Proposition 10.4.** \( K_{\overline{U}}(f) = K(f, \overline{U}, z_1) \) satisfies

\[
\mathbb{E}_{f \in S(\mathcal{H}_d)} K_{\overline{U}}(f) = \mathbb{E}_{f \in S(\mathcal{H}_d)} \frac{1}{D} \sum_{j=1}^{D} K(f, \overline{U}, z_j).
\]

**Proof.** Lemma 10.3 implies, for all \( j \),

\[
K(f, \overline{U}, z_1) = K(f \circ \nu_j^{-1}, \overline{U} \circ \nu_j^{-1}, \nu_j z_1) = K(f \circ \nu_j^{-1}, \overline{U}, z_j).
\]

It follows that

\[
K_{\overline{U}}(f) = K(f, \overline{U}, z_1) = \frac{1}{D} \sum_{j=1}^{D} K(f \circ \nu_j^{-1}, \overline{U}, z_j).
\]

The assertion follows now since, for all measurable functions \( \varphi: S(\mathcal{H}_d) \to \mathbb{R} \) and all \( \nu \in U(n+1) \), we have

\[
\mathbb{E}_{f \in S(\mathcal{H}_d)} \varphi(f) = \mathbb{E}_{f \in S(\mathcal{H}_d)} \varphi(f \circ \nu),
\]

due to the isotropy of the uniform measure on \( S(\mathcal{H}_d) \), \( \square \)
Lemma 10.5. We have

\[ \mu_2^2(\mathcal{U}) \leq 2n \max_i \frac{1}{d_i} (n + 1)^{d_i - 1} \leq 2(n + 1)^D. \]

Proof. Recall \( \mu_2(\mathcal{U}) = \mu_{\text{norm}}(\mathcal{U}, z_1) \), so it suffices to bound \( \mu_{\text{norm}}(\mathcal{U}, z_1) \).

Consider \( M := \text{diag}(d_i^{-\frac{1}{2}} \|z_1\|^{1-d_i}) D\mathcal{U}(z_1) \in \mathbb{C}^{n\times(n+1)} \). By definition we have (cf. §2.3)

\[ \mu_{\text{norm}}(\mathcal{U}, z_1) = \|U\| \|M\|^1 = \|M\|^1 = \frac{1}{\sigma_{\min}(M)}, \]

where \( \sigma_{\min}(M) \) denotes the smallest singular value of \( M \). It can be characterized as a constrained minimization problem as follows:

\[ \sigma_{\min}^2(M) = \min_u \|Mu\|^2 \text{ subject to } u \in (\ker M)^\perp, \|u\|^2 = 1. \]

In our situation, \( \ker M = \mathbb{C}(1, \ldots, 1) \) and \( D\mathcal{U}(z_1) \) is given by the following matrix, shown here for \( n = 3 \):

\[
D\mathcal{U}(z_1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2n}} \begin{bmatrix}
    d_1 & -d_1 & 0 & 0 \\
    d_2 & 0 & -d_2 & 0 \\
    d_3 & 0 & 0 & -d_3
\end{bmatrix}.
\]

Hence for \( u = (u_0, \ldots, u_n) \in \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \),

\[
\|Mu\|^2 = \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{d_i}{(n + 1)^{d_i - 1}} |u_i - u_0|^2 \geq \frac{1}{2n} \min_i \frac{d_i}{(n + 1)^{d_i - 1}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |u_i - u_0|^2.
\]

A straightforward calculation shows that

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{n} |u_i - u_0|^2 \geq 1 \quad \text{if} \quad \sum_{i=0}^{n} u_i = 0, \quad \sum_{i=0}^{n} |u_i|^2 = 1.
\]

The assertion follows by combining these observations. \( \square \)

Proof of Theorem 3.8. Equation (5.1) in the proof of Proposition 5.1 implies for \( g = \mathcal{U} \) that

\[
\frac{1}{D} \sum_{i=1}^{D} K(f, \mathcal{U}, z_i) \leq 245 D^{3/2} d_{\mathcal{U}}(f, \mathcal{U}) \int_0^1 \mu_2^2(q_{\tau}) d\tau.
\]

Using Proposition 10.4 we get

\[
\mathbb{E}_{f \in S(H_d)} K_{\mathcal{U}}(f) \leq 245 D^{3/2} \mathbb{E}_{f \in S(H_d)} \left( d_{\mathcal{U}}(f, \mathcal{U}) \int_0^1 \mu_2^2(q_{\tau}) d\tau \right).
\]

Applying Theorem 10.1 with \( g = \mathcal{U} \) we obtain

\[
\mathbb{E}_{f \in S(H_d)} K_{\mathcal{U}}(f) \leq 245 D^{3/2} \left( 818 D^{3/2} N(n + 1) \mu_{\max}(\mathcal{U}) + 0.01 \right).
\]
We now plug in the bound $\mu_{\max}(U)^2 \leq 2(n + 1)^D$ of Lemma 10.5 to obtain
\[ \mathbb{E}_{f \in S(H_d)} K_T(f) \leq 400820 D^3 N(n + 1)^{D+1} + 2.45 D^{3/2}. \]
This is bounded from above by $400821 D^3 N(n + 1)^{D+1}$, which completes the proof. \[\square\]

11. A near solution to Smale’s 17th problem

We finally proceed with the proof of Theorem 3.9. The algorithm we will exhibit uses different routines for $D \leq n$ and $D > n$. Our exposition reflects this structure.

11.1. The case $D \leq n$. Theorem 3.8 bounds the number of iterations of Algorithm MD as
\[ \mathbb{E}_{f \in S(H_d)} K_T(f) = \mathcal{O}(D^3 Nn^{D+1}). \]
For comparing the order of magnitude of this upper bound to the input size $N = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \frac{n+d_i}{n} \right)$ we need the following technical lemma (which will be useful for the case $D > n$ as well).

**Lemma 11.1.**

1. For $D \leq n$, $n \geq 4$, we have
   \[ n^D \leq \left( \frac{n+D}{D} \right)^{\ln n}. \]

2. For $D^2 \geq n \geq 1$, we have
   \[ \ln n \leq 2 \ln \ln \left( \frac{n+D}{n} \right) + 4. \]

3. For $0 < c < 1$, there exists $K$ such that for all $n, D$
   \[ D \leq n^{1-c} \implies n^D \leq \left( \frac{n+D}{n} \right)^{K}. \]

4. For $D \leq n$, we have
   \[ n^D \leq N^{2 \ln \ln N + \mathcal{O}(1)}. \]

5. For $n \leq D$, we have
   \[ D^n \leq N^{2 \ln \ln N + \mathcal{O}(1)}. \]

**Proof.** Stirling’s formula states $n! = \sqrt{2\pi n} n^{n+1/2} e^{-n} e^{\Theta n}$ with $0 < \Theta < 1$. Let $H(x) = x \ln \frac{1}{x} + (1 - x) \ln \frac{1}{1-x}$ denote the binary entropy function, defined for $0 < x < 1$. By a straightforward calculation we get from Stirling’s formula
the following asymptotics for the binomial coefficient: for any $0 < m < n$, we have

$$\ln \binom{n}{m} = nH\left(\frac{m}{n}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{n}{m(n-m)} - 1 + \varepsilon_{n,m},$$

where $-0.1 < \varepsilon_{n,m} < 0.2$. This formula holds as well for the extension of binomial coefficients on which $m$ is not necessarily integer.

(1) The first claim is equivalent to $e^D \leq \binom{n+D}{D}$. The latter is easily checked for $D \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $n \geq 4$. So assume $n \geq D \geq 4$. By monotonicity it suffices to show that $e^D \leq \left(\frac{2D}{D}\right)$ for $D \geq 4$. Equation (11.1) implies

$$\ln \binom{n+D}{D} > 2D \ln 2 + \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{2}{D} - 1.1,$$

and the right-hand side is easily checked to be at least $D$ for $D \geq 4$.

(2) Put $m := \sqrt{n}$. If $D \geq m$, then $\binom{n+D}{n} \geq \binom{n+\lceil m \rceil}{n}$, so it is enough to show that $\ln n \leq \ln \binom{n+\lceil m \rceil}{n} + 4$. Equation (11.1) implies

$$\ln \binom{n+\lceil m \rceil}{n} \geq \ln \binom{n+m}{n} \geq (n+m)H\left(\frac{m}{n+m}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{m} - 1.1.$$

The entropy function can be bounded as

$$H\left(\frac{m}{n+m}\right) \geq \frac{m}{n+m} \ln \left(1 + \frac{n}{m}\right) \geq \frac{m}{n+m} \ln m.$$

It follows that

$$\ln \binom{n+\lceil m \rceil}{n} \geq \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{n} \ln n - \frac{1}{4} \ln n - 1.1 \geq \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{n} \ln n,$$

where the right-hand inequality holds for $n \geq 10$. Hence, for $n \geq 10$,

$$\ln \ln \binom{n+\lceil m \rceil}{n} \geq \frac{1}{2} \ln n + \ln \ln n - \ln 4 \geq \frac{1}{2} \ln n - 2.$$

This shows the second claim for $n \geq 10$. The cases $n \leq 9$ are easily directly checked.

(3) Writing $D = n\delta$ we obtain from equation (11.1)

$$\ln \binom{n+D}{n} = (n+D)H\left(\frac{\delta}{1+\delta}\right) - \frac{1}{2} \ln D + \mathcal{O}(1).$$

Estimating the entropy function yields

$$H\left(\frac{\delta}{1+\delta}\right) \geq \frac{\delta}{1+\delta} \ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{\delta}\right) \geq \frac{\delta}{2} \ln \frac{1}{\delta} = \frac{\delta\varepsilon}{2} \ln n,$$

where $\varepsilon$ is defined by $\delta = n^{-\varepsilon}$. By assumption, $\varepsilon \geq c$. From the last two lines we get

$$\frac{1}{D \ln n} \ln \binom{n+D}{n} \geq \frac{c}{2} - \frac{1-c}{2D} + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{\ln n}\right).$$
In the case $c \leq \frac{3}{4}$ we have $D \geq n^{1/4}$ and we bound the above by

$$\frac{c}{2} - \frac{1}{2n^{1/4}} + O\left(\frac{1}{\ln n}\right),$$

which is greater than $c/4$ for sufficiently large $n$. In the case $c \geq \frac{3}{4}$ we bound as follows:

$$\frac{1}{D \ln n} \ln \left(\frac{n + D}{n}\right) \geq \frac{c}{2} - \frac{1 - c}{2} + O\left(\frac{1}{\ln n}\right) = c - \frac{1}{2} + O\left(\frac{1}{\ln n}\right) \geq \frac{1}{5},$$

for sufficiently large $n$.

We have shown that for $0 < c < 1$, there exists $n_c$ such that for $n \geq n_c$, $D \leq n^{1-c}$, we have

$$n^D \leq \left(\frac{n + D}{n}\right)^{K_c},$$

where $K_c := \max\{4/c, 5\}$. By increasing $K_c$ we can achieve that the above inequality holds for all $n, D$, with $D \leq n^{1-c}$.

(4) Clearly, $N \geq \left(\binom{n+D}{n}\right)$. If $D \leq \sqrt{n}$ then, by part (3), there exists $K$ such that

$$n^D \leq \left(\frac{n + D}{n}\right)^K \leq N^K.$$

Otherwise $D \in [\sqrt{n}, n]$ and the desired inequality is an immediate consequence of parts (1) and (2).

(5) Use $\binom{n+D}{n} = \binom{n+D}{D}$ and swap the roles of $n$ and $D$ in part (4) above. □

Theorem 3.8 combined with Lemma 11.1(4) implies that

(11.2) \hspace{1cm} \mathbb{E}_{f} K_{\varphi}(f) = N^{2\ln \ln N + O(1)} \quad \text{if } D \leq n.

Note that this bound is nearly polynomial in $N$. Moreover, if $D \leq n^{1-c}$ for some fixed $0 < c < 1$, then Lemma 11.1(3) implies

(11.3) \hspace{1cm} \mathbb{E}_{f} K_{\varphi}(f) = N^{O(1)}.

In this case, the expected running time is polynomially bounded in the input size $N$.

11.2. The case $D > n$. The homotopy continuation algorithm MD is not efficient for large degrees — the main problem being that we do not know how to deterministically compute a starting system $g$ with small $\mu_{\text{max}}(g)$. However, it turns out that an algorithm due to Jim Renegar [18], based on the factorization of the $u$-resultant, computes approximate zeros and is fast for large degrees.
Before giving the specification of Renegar’s algorithm, we need to fix some notation. We identify \( P_0^n \) with \( C^n \) via the bijection \((x_0: \cdots: x_n) \mapsto x := (x_1/x_0, \ldots, x_n/x_0)\). If \( x \in P_0^n \), then we denote by \( \|x\|_{\text{aff}} \) the Euclidean norm of \( x \), i.e.,
\[
\|x\|_{\text{aff}} := \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{|x_i|^2}{|x_0|^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}},
\]
and we put \( \|x\|_{\text{aff}} = \infty \) if \( x \in P^n \setminus P_0^n \). Furthermore, for \( x, y \in P_0^n \), we shall write \( d_{\text{aff}}(x, y) := \|x - y\| \) and we set \( d_{\text{aff}}(x, y) := \infty \) otherwise. An elementary argument shows that \( d_{\text{aff}}(x, y) \leq d_{\text{P}}(x, y) \) for \( x, y \in P^n \).

By a \( \delta \)-approximation of a zero \( \zeta \in P_0^n \) of \( f \in H_d \) we understand an \( x \in P_0^n \) such that \( d_{\text{aff}}(x, \zeta) \leq \delta \). The following result relates \( \delta \)-approximations to the approximate zeros in the sense of Definition 2.1.

**Proposition 11.2.** Let \( x \) be a \( \delta \)-approximation of a zero \( \zeta \) of \( f \). Recall \( C = 0.025 \). If \( D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, x) \delta \leq C \), then \( x \) is an approximate zero of \( f \).

**Proof.** We have \( d_{P}(x, \zeta) \leq d_{\text{aff}}(x, \zeta) \leq \delta \). Suppose that \( D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, x) \delta \leq C \). Then, by Proposition 4.1 with \( g = f \), we have
\[
\mu_{\text{norm}}(f, \zeta) \leq (1 + \varepsilon) \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, x)
\]
with \( \varepsilon = 0.13 \). Hence
\[
D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, \zeta) d_{P}(x, \zeta) \leq (1 + \varepsilon) D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, x) \delta \leq (1 + \varepsilon) C.
\]
We have \( (1 + \varepsilon) C \leq u_0 = 3 - \sqrt{7} \). Now use Theorem 2.2. \( \square \)

Consider now \( R \geq \delta > 0 \). Renegar’s Algorithm \( \text{Ren}(R, \delta) \) from [18] takes as input \( f \in H_d \), decides whether its zero set \( V(f) \subseteq P^n \) is finite, and if so, computes \( \delta \)-approximations \( x \) to at least all zeros \( \zeta \) of \( f \) satisfying \( \|\zeta\|_{\text{aff}} \leq R \). (The algorithm even finds the multiplicities of those zeros \( \zeta \); see [18] for the precise statement.)

Renegar’s Algorithm can be formulated in the BSS-model over \( \mathbb{R} \). Its running time on input \( f \) (the number of arithmetic operations and inequality tests) is bounded by
\[
O\left( nD^4(\log D)\left( \log \log \frac{R}{\delta} \right) + n^2D^4\left( 1 + \sum_{i} d_i \right)^4 \right).
\]
To find an approximate zero of \( f \) we may use \( \text{Ren}(R, \delta) \) together with Proposition 11.2 and iterate with \( R = 4^k \) and \( \delta = 2^{-k} \) for \( k = 1, 2, \ldots \) until we are successful. More precisely, we consider the following algorithm:
Algorithm \texttt{ItRen}

\textbf{input} \( f \in \mathcal{H}_d \)

\textbf{for} \( k = 1, 2, \ldots \) \textbf{do}

\textbf{run} \( \text{Re}(4^k, 2^{-k}) \) \textbf{on} \( f \)

\textbf{for all} \( \delta \)-approximations \( x \) \textbf{found}

\textbf{if} \( D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, x) \delta \leq C \) \textbf{stop} \textbf{and RETURN} \( x \)

Let \( \Sigma_0 := \Sigma \cup \{ f \in \mathcal{H}_d \mid V(f) \cap \mathbb{P}_0^n = \emptyset \} \). It is obvious that \texttt{ItRen} stops on inputs \( f \not\in \Sigma_0 \). In particular, \texttt{ItRen} stops almost surely.

The next result bounds the probability \( \text{Probfail} \) that the main loop of \texttt{ItRen}, with parameters \( R \) and \( \delta \), fails to output an approximate zero for a standard Gaussian input \( f \in \mathcal{H}_d \) (and given \( R, \delta \)). We postpone its proof to Section 11.3.

\textbf{Lemma 11.3.} We have \( \text{Probfail} = O(n^3 N^2 D^6 D^4 + n R^{-2}) \).

Let \( T(f) \) denote the running time of algorithm \texttt{ItRen} on input \( f \).

\textbf{Proposition 11.4.} We have for standard Gaussian \( f \in \mathcal{H}_d \)

\[ \mathbb{E} T(f) = (nN D)^O(1). \]

\textbf{Proof.} The probability that \texttt{ltRen} stops in the \((k+1)\)th loop is bounded above by the probability \( p_k \) that \( \text{Re}(4^k, 2^{-k}) \) fails to produce an approximate zero. Lemma 11.3 tells us that

\[ p_k = O(n^3 N^2 D^6 D 16^{-k}). \]

If \( A_k \) denotes the running time of the \((k+1)\)th loop, then we conclude

\[ \mathbb{E} T(f) \leq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k p_k. \]

According to (11.4), \( A_k \) is bounded by

\[ O\left(n D^4 (\log D) (\log k) + n^2 D^4 \left(1 + \sum_i d_i \right)^4 + (N + n^3) D \right), \]

where the last term accounts for the cost of the tests. The assertion now follows by distributing the products \( A_k p_k \) and using that the series \( \sum_{k \geq 1} 16^{-k} \) and \( \sum_{k \geq 1} 16^{-k} \log k \) have finite sums. \hfill \Box

\textbf{Proof of Theorem 3.9.} We use Algorithm MD if \( D \leq n \) and Algorithm \texttt{ltRen} if \( D > n \). We have already shown (see (11.2), (11.3)) that the assertion holds if \( D \leq n \). For the case \( D > n \) we use Proposition 11.4 together with the inequality \( D^O(1) \leq D^O(n) \leq N^{O(\log \log N)} \) which follows from Lemma 11.1(5). Moreover, in the case \( D \geq n^{1+\varepsilon} \), Lemma 11.1(3) implies \( D \leq D^n \leq N^{O(1)} \). \hfill \Box
11.3. Proof of Lemma 11.3. Let $\mathcal{E}$ denote the set of $f \in \mathcal{H}_d$ such that there is an $x$ on the output list of $\text{Ren}(R, \delta)$ on input $f$ that satisfies $C < D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, x) \delta$. Then

$$\text{Prob}_{\text{fail}} \leq \text{Prob} \left\{ \min_{f \in \mathcal{H}_d} \| \zeta \|_{\text{aff}} \geq R \right\} + \text{Prob} \mathcal{E}.\]$$

Lemma 11.3 follows immediately from the following two results.

**Lemma 11.5.** For $R > 0$ and standard Gaussian $f \in \mathcal{H}_d$, we have

$$\text{Prob} \left\{ \min_{f \in \mathcal{H}_d} \| \zeta \|_{\text{aff}} \geq R \right\} \leq \frac{n}{R^2}.$$

**Proof.** Choose $f \in \mathcal{H}_d$ standard Gaussian and pick one of the $D$ zeros $\zeta_f^{(1)}, \ldots, \zeta_f^{(D)}$ of $f$ uniformly at random, call it $\zeta$. Then the resulting distribution of $(f, \zeta)$ in $V_{\mathcal{E}}$ has the density $\rho_{st}$. Lemma 8.8 implies that $\zeta$ is uniformly distributed in $\mathbb{P}^n$. Therefore,

$$\text{Prob} \left\{ \min_{f \in \mathcal{H}_d} \| \zeta_f \|_{\text{aff}} \geq R \right\} \leq \text{Prob} \left\{ \| \zeta \|_{\text{aff}} \geq R \right\}.$$

To estimate the right-hand side probability we observe that

$$\| \zeta \|_{\text{aff}} \geq R \iff d_{\rho}(\zeta, \mathbb{P}^{n-1}) \leq \frac{\pi}{2} - \theta,$$

where $\theta$ is defined by $R = \tan \theta$ and $\mathbb{P}^{n-1} := \{ x \in \mathbb{P}^n \mid x_0 = 0 \}$. Therefore,

$$\text{Prob} \left\{ \| \zeta \|_{\text{aff}} \geq R \right\} = \frac{\text{vol} \{ x \in \mathbb{P}^n \mid d_{\rho}(x, \mathbb{P}^{n-1}) \leq \frac{\pi}{2} - \theta \}}{\text{vol}(\mathbb{P}^n)}.$$

Due to [11, Lemma 2.1] and using $\text{vol}(\mathbb{P}^n) = \pi^n / n!$, this can be bounded by

$$\frac{\text{vol}(\mathbb{P}^{n-1}) \text{vol}(\mathbb{P}^1)}{\text{vol}(\mathbb{P}^n)} \sin^2 \left( \frac{\pi}{2} - \theta \right) = n \cos^2 \theta = \frac{n}{1 + R^2} \leq \frac{n}{R^2}. \quad \square$$

**Lemma 11.6.** We have $\text{Prob} \mathcal{E} = O(n^3 N^2 D^6 D^4)$.

**Proof.** Assume that $f \in \mathcal{E}$. Then, there exist $\zeta, x \in \mathbb{P}_0^n$ such that $f(\zeta) = 0$, $\| \zeta \|_{\text{aff}} \leq R$, $d_{\text{aff}}(x, \zeta) \leq \delta$, $\text{Ren}$ returns $x$, and $D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, x) \delta > C$.

We proceed by cases. Suppose first that $\delta \leq \frac{C}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, \zeta)}$. Then, by Proposition 4.1,

$$(1 + \varepsilon)^{-1} C < (1 + \varepsilon)^{-1} D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, x) \delta \leq D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, \zeta) \delta,$$

hence

$$\mu_{\text{max}}(f) \geq \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, \zeta) \geq (1 + \varepsilon)^{-1} CD^{-3/2} \delta^{-1}.$$

If, on the other hand, $\delta > \frac{C}{D^{3/2} \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, \zeta)}$, then we have

$$\mu_{\text{max}}(f) \geq \mu_{\text{norm}}(f, \zeta) \geq CD^{-3/2} \delta^{-1}.$$

Therefore, for any $f \in \mathcal{E}$,

$$\mu_{\text{max}}(f) \geq (1 + \varepsilon)^{-1} CD^{-3/2} \delta^{-1}.$$
Theorem C of [23] states that Prob \( \{ \mu_{\max}(f) \geq \rho^{-1} \} = \mathcal{O}(n^3N^2D\rho^4) \) for all \( \rho > 0 \). Therefore, as claimed, we get

\[
\text{Prob } \mathcal{E} \leq \text{Prob } \{ \mu_{\max}(f) \geq (1 + \varepsilon)^{-1}CD^{-3/2}\delta^{-1} \} = \mathcal{O}(n^3N^2DD\delta^4).
\]

\[\square\]

Note added in proof. Since the posting of this manuscript on September 2009, at arXiv:0909.2114, a number of references have been added to the literature. The nonconstructive character of the main result in [21] — the bound in (1.3) — had also been noticed by Carlos Beltrán. In a recent paper (A continuation method to solve polynomial systems, and its complexity, Num. Math. 117 (2011), 89–113), Beltrán proves a very general constructive version of this result. Our Theorem 3.1 can be seen as a particular case (with a correspondingly shorter proof) of Beltrán’s paper main result. We understand that yet another constructive version for the bound in (1.3) is the subject of a paper in preparation by J.-P. Dedieu, G. Malajovich, and M. Shub.

Also, Beltrán and Pardo have recently rewritten their paper [6] (Fast linear homotopy to find approximate zeros of polynomial systems, Found. Comput. Math. 11, (2011), 95–129). This revised version, which increases the length of the manuscript by a factor of about three, adds considerable detail to a number of issues only briefly sketched in [6]. In particular, the effective sampling from the solution variety is now given a full description (which is slightly different to the one we give in §9).

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