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► To cite this version:

Laurent Busé, Marc Chardin. Implicitizing rational hypersurfaces using approximation complexes. Journal of Symbolic Computation, 2005, 40 (4-5), pp.1150–1168. inria-00098676

HAL Id: inria-00098676

<https://inria.hal.science/inria-00098676>

Submitted on 25 Sep 2006

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Implicitizing rational hypersurfaces using approximation complexes

LAURENT BUSÉ ^{*1} AND MARC CHARDIN²

¹*INRIA, 2004 route des Lucioles,
B.P. 93, 06902 Sophia-Antipolis cedex, France.
lbuse@sophia.inria.fr*

²*Institut de Mathématiques, CNRS et Université Paris 6,
4, place Jussieu, F-75252 PARIS CEDEX 05, France.
chardin@math.jussieu.fr*

Abstract

We describe an algorithm for implicitizing rational hypersurfaces with at most a finite number of base points, based on a technique described in Busé and Jouanolou [2003], where implicit equations are obtained as determinants of certain graded parts of an approximation complex. We detail and improve this method by providing an in-depth study of the cohomology of such a complex. In both particular cases of interest of curve and surface implicitization we also present algorithms which involve only linear algebra routines.

1. Introduction

The implicitization problem asks for the computation of an implicit equation of a rational hypersurface given by a parameterization map $\phi : \mathbb{P}^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^n$, with $n \geq 2$. This problem has recently received particular attention, especially in the cases $n = 2$ and $n = 3$, because it is a key-point in computer aided geometric design and modeling. There are basically three kinds of methods to compute such an implicit equation for rational curves and surfaces. The first kind of methods use Gröbner basis computations. Even if they work, they are known to be quite slow in practice and hence are rarely used in geometric modeling (see e.g. Hoffmann [1989]). The second kind of methods are based on resultant matrices. Such methods have the advantage of yielding square matrices whose determinant is an implicit equation. This more compact formulation of an implicit equation is very

^{*}Partially supported by european projects GAIA II IST-2001-35512, and ECG IST-2000-26473.

useful, and well behaved algorithms are known to work. However such methods are known only if there are no base points (see [Jouanolou, 1996, §5.3.17]), or the base points are isolated and local complete intersections with some additional technical hypothesis (see Busé [2001]). The third methods are based on the syzygies of the parameterization. This technique was introduced in Sederberg and Chen [1995] as the method of “moving surfaces”. For curve implicitization this method, also called “moving lines”, is very efficient and general. This generality is no longer true for surface implicitization, but the method remains very efficient. In Cox et al. [2000] and D’Andrea [2001] its validity is proved in the absence of base points. An extension in the presence of base points is presented in Busé et al. [2003], assuming five hypotheses on the geometry of the base points, one being that the base points are isolated and locally a complete intersection.

A similar approach involving syzygies was recently explored in Busé and Jouanolou [2003] using more systematic tools from algebraic geometry and commutative algebra, among them the approximation complexes (see Vasconcelos [1994]). A new method was given to solve the hypersurface (and hence curve and surface) implicitization problem in the case where the base points are isolated and locally a complete intersection, without any additional hypothesis.

In this paper we detail and improve the results described in Busé and Jouanolou [2003] for implicitizing rational hypersurfaces in the case where the ideal of base points is finite and a projective local almost complete intersection. We also give some other properties based on the exactness of approximation complexes. Section 2 and section 3 provide a complete and detailed description of our results in the particular cases of interest of curve and surface implicitization. Algorithms are completely described and we present some examples. Section 4 deals with the general case of hypersurface implicitization, and is much more technical than both previous sections. In particular all the proofs are given in this section.

Hereafter \mathbb{K} denotes any field.

2. Implicitization of rational parametric curves

In this section we present a method to implicitize any parameterized plane curve. Let f_0, f_1, f_2 be three homogeneous polynomials in $\mathbb{K}[s, t]$ of the same degree $d \geq 1$, and consider the rational map

$$\begin{aligned} \phi : \quad \mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{K}}^1 &\rightarrow \mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{K}}^2 \\ (s : t) &\mapsto (f_0(s, t) : f_1(s, t) : f_2(s, t)). \end{aligned}$$

We denote by x, y, z the homogeneous coordinates of \mathbb{P}^2 . The algebraic closure of the image of ϕ is a curve in \mathbb{P}^2 if and only if ϕ is generically finite onto its image, that is $\delta := \gcd(f_0, f_1, f_2)$ is not of degree d . We assume this minimal hypothesis and denote by \mathcal{C} the scheme-theoretic closed image of ϕ . It is known that \mathcal{C} is an irreducible and reduced curve of degree $(d - \deg(\delta))/\beta$, where β denotes the degree of ϕ onto its image (that is the number of points in a general

fiber). Thus any implicit equation of \mathcal{C} is of the form $P(x, y, z) = 0$ where P is an irreducible homogeneous polynomial of degree $(d - \delta)/\beta$ (actually there is a unique implicit equation of \mathcal{C} up to multiplication by a nonzero constant). By abuse of language, we will call $P(x, y, z)$ an implicit equation of \mathcal{C} .

In what follows we describe an algorithm for computing explicitly an implicit equation P of \mathcal{C} (in fact we will compute P^β) without any other hypothesis on the polynomials f_0, f_1, f_2 . In the case $\deg(\delta) = 0$ we recover the well-known method of moving lines (see Sederberg and Chen [1995], Cox et al. [1998]).

2.1. The method

Let us denote by A the polynomial ring $\mathbb{K}[s, t]$ with its natural grading obtained by setting $\deg(s) = \deg(t) = 1$. From the polynomials f_0, f_1, f_2 of the parameterization ϕ , we can build the following well-known graded Koszul complex (the notation $[-]$ stands for the degree shift in A)

$$0 \rightarrow A[-3d] \xrightarrow{d_3} A[-2d]^3 \xrightarrow{d_2} A[-d]^3 \xrightarrow{d_1} A, \quad (1)$$

where the differentials are given by

$$d_3 = \begin{pmatrix} f_2 \\ -f_1 \\ f_0 \end{pmatrix}, d_2 = \begin{pmatrix} f_1 & f_2 & 0 \\ -f_0 & 0 & f_2 \\ 0 & -f_0 & -f_1 \end{pmatrix}, d_1 = (f_0 \quad f_1 \quad f_2).$$

In what follows we will not consider exactly this complex, but the complex obtained by tensoring it by $A[x, y, z]$ over A . This complex, which we denote by $(K_\bullet(f_0, f_1, f_2), u_\bullet)$, is of the form

$$0 \rightarrow A[x, y, z][-3d] \xrightarrow{u_3} A[x, y, z][-2d]^3 \xrightarrow{u_2} A[x, y, z][-d]^3 \xrightarrow{u_1} A[x, y, z],$$

where the matrices of the differentials d_i and u_i are the same, for all $i = 1, 2, 3$. Note that the ring $A[x, y, z]$ is naturally bi-graded, having one grading coming from $A = \mathbb{K}[s, t]$, and another one coming from $\mathbb{K}[x, y, z]$ with $\deg(x) = \deg(y) = \deg(z) = 1$; we hereafter adopt the notation $(-)$ for the degree shift in $\mathbb{K}[x, y, z]$.

We form another bi-graded Koszul complex on $A[x, y, z]$, the one associated to the sequence (x, y, z) . We denote it by $(K_\bullet(x, y, z), v_\bullet)$, it is of the form

$$0 \rightarrow A[x, y, z](-3) \xrightarrow{v_3} A[x, y, z](-2)^3 \xrightarrow{v_2} A[x, y, z](-1)^3 \xrightarrow{v_1} A[x, y, z],$$

and the matrices of its differentials are obtained from the matrices of the differentials of (1) by replacing f_0 by x , f_1 by y and f_2 by z . Observe that since (x, y, z) is a regular sequence in $A[x, y, z]$, the previous complex $K_\bullet(x, y, z)$ is acyclic, that is to say all its homology groups $H_i(K_\bullet(x, y, z))$ vanish for $i > 0$.

We can now construct a new bi-graded complex of $A[x, y, z]$ -modules, denoted \mathcal{Z}_\bullet , from both Koszul complexes $(K_\bullet(f_0, f_1, f_2), u_\bullet)$ and $(K_\bullet(x, y, z), v_\bullet)$ (observe that these complexes differ only by their differentials). Define $Z_i := \ker(d_i)$ for all

$i = 0, \dots, 3$ (with $d_0 : A \rightarrow 0$), and set $\mathcal{Z}_i := Z_i[id] \otimes_A A[x, y, z]$ for $i = 0, \dots, 3$, which are bi-graded $A[x, y, z]$ -modules. The map v_1 induces the bi-graded map, that we denote also by v_1 ,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{Z}_1(-1) &\xrightarrow{v_1} \mathcal{Z}_0 = A[x, y, z] \\ (g_1, g_2, g_3) &\mapsto g_1x + g_2y + g_3z. \end{aligned}$$

Using the differential v_2 of $K_\bullet(x, y, z)$ we can map \mathcal{Z}_2 to $A[x, y, z](-d)^3$, but since $u_1 \circ v_2 + v_1 \circ u_2 = 0$ (which follows from a straightforward computation), we have $v_2(\mathcal{Z}_2) \subset \mathcal{Z}_1$. And in the same way we can map \mathcal{Z}_3 to \mathcal{Z}_2 with the differential v_3 , since $u_2 \circ v_3 + v_2 \circ u_3 = 0$. Thus we obtain the following bi-graded complex (it is a complex since $(K_\bullet(x, y, z), v_\bullet)$ is):

$$(\mathcal{Z}_\bullet, v_\bullet) : 0 \rightarrow \mathcal{Z}_3(-3) \xrightarrow{v_3} \mathcal{Z}_2(-2) \xrightarrow{v_2} \mathcal{Z}_1(-1) \xrightarrow{v_1} \mathcal{Z}_0 = A[x, y, z].$$

This complex is known as the *approximation complex of cycles* associated to the polynomials f_0, f_1, f_2 in $\mathbb{K}[s, t]$. It was originally introduced in Simis and Vasconcelos [1981] for studying Rees algebras through symmetric algebras (see also Vasconcelos [1994]).

Remark: In the language of moving lines, the image of a triple $(g_1, g_2, g_3) \in \mathcal{Z}_{1[\nu](0)}$ by v_1 is nothing but a moving line of degree ν following the curve parameterized by the polynomials f_0, f_1, f_2 (see e.g. Cox [2001]).

Since we have supposed that at least one of f_0, f_1, f_2 is nonzero, we have $\mathcal{Z}_3 = 0$, and consequently $\mathcal{Z}_3 = 0$, and the following theorem (recall $\delta := \gcd(f_0, f_1, f_2)$):

THEOREM 2.1: *The determinant of the graded complex of free $\mathbb{K}[x, y, z]$ -modules*

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{Z}_{2[d-1]}(-2) \xrightarrow{v_2} \mathcal{Z}_{1[d-1]}(-1) \xrightarrow{v_1} \mathcal{Z}_{0[d-1]} = A[x, y, z]_{[d-1]},$$

is $P(x, y, z)^\beta$, where P is an implicit equation of the curve \mathcal{C} .

Moreover, if $\deg(\delta) = 0$ then $\mathcal{Z}_{2[d-1]} = 0$; thus the $d \times d$ determinant of the map $\mathcal{Z}_{1[d-1]}(-1) \xrightarrow{v_1} \mathcal{Z}_{0[d-1]}$ equals $P(x, y, z)^\beta$.

Proof: See section 5 in Busé and Jouanolou [2003] for a proof. We only mention how the last statement follows from the description of the approximation complex \mathcal{Z}_\bullet . If $\deg(\delta) = 0$ then $\text{depth}_{(s,t)}(f_0, f_1, f_2) = 2$, which means that f_0, f_1, f_2 have no base points in \mathbb{P}^1 . This implies that not only the third homology group of the Koszul complex (1) vanishes, but also the second. It follows that $\mathcal{Z}_2 \simeq A[-3d]$, and hence $\mathcal{Z}_2 \simeq A[x, y, z][-d]$. \square

The second assertion of this theorem gives exactly the matrix constructed by the method of moving lines. The first assertion shows that this method can be extended even if we do not assume $\deg(\delta) = 0$, P^β being obtained as the

quotient of two determinants of respective size d and δ . In Busé and Jouanolou [2003] it is in fact proved that for any integer $\nu \geq d - 1$ the determinant of the complex $(\mathcal{Z}_\bullet)_{[\nu]}$ equals P^β . In case $\deg(\delta) = 0$, this and the graded isomorphism $\mathcal{Z}_2 \simeq A[x, y, z][{-d}]$ explain clearly, in our point of view, why the method of moving lines works so well *only* with moving lines of degree $d - 1$.

2.2. The algorithm

Here we convert theorem 2.1 into an algorithm, where each step reduces to well-known and efficient linear algebra routines.

ALGORITHM (implicitization of a rational parametric curve):

Input: Three homogeneous polynomials $f_0(s, t), f_1(s, t), f_2(s, t)$ of the same degree $d \geq 1$ such that $\delta = \gcd(f_0, f_1, f_2)$ is not of degree d .

Output: Either:

- a square matrix Δ_1 such that $\det(\Delta_1)$ equals P^β , in case $\deg(\delta) = 0$,
- two square matrices Δ_1 and Δ_2 , respectively of size d and $\deg(\delta)$, such that $\frac{\det(\Delta_1)}{\det(\Delta_2)}$ equals P^β .

1. Compute the matrix F_1 of the first map of (1): $A_{d-1}^3 \xrightarrow{d_1} A_{2d-1}$. Each entry is either 0 or a coefficient of f_0, f_1 or f_2 , and F_1 is of size $2d \times 3d$.
2. Compute a kernel matrix K_1 of the transpose of F_1 . It has $3d$ columns and $\text{rank}(\mathcal{Z}_{1[d-1]})$ rows.
3. Construct the matrix Z_1 by $Z_1(i, j) = xK_1(j, i) + yK_1(j, i + d) + zK_1(j, i + 2d)$, with $i = 1, \dots, d$ and $j = 1, \dots, \text{rank}(\mathcal{Z}_{1[d-1]})$. It is the matrix of the map $\mathcal{Z}_{1[d-1]}(-1) \xrightarrow{v_1} \mathcal{Z}_{0[d-1]}$.
4. **If** Z_1 is square **then** set $\Delta_1 := Z_1$ **else**
 - (a) Compute a list L_1 of d integers indexing d independent columns in Z_1 . Let Δ_1 be the $d \times d$ submatrix of Z_1 obtained by removing columns not in L_1 .
 - (b) Compute the matrix F_2 of the second map of (1): $A_{d-1}^3 \xrightarrow{d_2} A_{2d-1}^3$, and a kernel matrix K_2 of its transpose. The matrix K_2 has $3d$ columns and $\text{rank}(\mathcal{Z}_{2[d-1]})$ rows.
 - (c) Construct the matrix Z'_2 by, for all $j = 1, \dots, \text{rank}(\mathcal{Z}_{2[d-1]})$,

$$\begin{aligned} i = 1, \dots, d & : Z'_2(i, j) = yK_2(j, i) + zK_2(j, i + d), \\ i = d + 1, \dots, 2d & : Z'_2(i, j) = -xK_2(j, i - d) + zK_2(j, i + d), \\ i = 2d + 1, \dots, 3d & : Z'_2(i, j) = -xK_2(j, i - d) - yK_2(j, i). \end{aligned}$$

- (d) Construct the $\text{rank}(\mathcal{Z}_{1[d-1]}) \times \text{rank}(\mathcal{Z}_{2[d-1]})$ matrix Z_2 whose j^{th} column $Z_2(\bullet, j)$ is the solution of the linear system ${}^t Z_2(\bullet, j) \cdot K_1 = Z'_2(\bullet, j)$. It is the matrix of the map $\mathcal{Z}_{2[d-1]}(-1) \xrightarrow{v_2} \mathcal{Z}_{1[d-1]}$.

- (e) Define Δ_2 to be the square submatrix of Z_2 obtained by removing the rows indexed by L_1 .

endif

Remark: In order to make this algorithm easy to understand, we kept the symbolic variables t and z , but they are of course unnecessary and should be specialized to 1.

2.3. An example

As we have already said, the previous algorithm is exactly the well-known method of moving lines in case $\deg(\delta) = 0$. The only thing new is its extension to the case where $\deg(\delta) > 0$. We illustrate the method with the following (very simple) example.

Let $f_0(s, t) = s^2$, $f_1(s, t) = st$ and $f_2(s, t) = t^2$. Applying our algorithm we found that the matrix Z_1 (step 3) is square:

$$Z_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -y & -z \\ x & y \end{pmatrix}.$$

We deduce that an implicit equation is given by $xz - y^2$. Now let us multiply artificially each f_i by s . We obtain new entries for our algorithm which are: $f_0(s, t) = s^3$, $f_1(s, t) = s^2t$ and $f_2(s, t) = st^2$. In this case the matrix Z_1 is not square, it is the 3×4 matrix:

$$Z_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -y & -z & -z & 0 \\ x & 0 & y & -z \\ 0 & x & 0 & y \end{pmatrix}.$$

The matrix Δ_1 can be chosen to be the submatrix of Z_1 given by $\begin{pmatrix} -y & -z & -z \\ x & 0 & y \\ 0 & x & 0 \end{pmatrix}$,

with determinant $-x^2z + xy^2$. Continuing the algorithm we obtain the matrices

$$Z_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -z \\ y \\ 0 \\ -x \end{pmatrix}, \text{ and } \Delta_2 = (-x). \text{ It follows that an implicit equation is } -xz + y^2.$$

3. Implicitization of rational parametric surfaces

We arrive at the much more intricate problem of surface implicitization. Let f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3 be four homogeneous polynomials in $\mathbb{K}[s, t, u]$ of the same degree $d \geq 1$, and consider the rational map

$$\begin{aligned} \phi : \quad \mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{K}}^2 &\rightarrow \mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{K}}^3 \\ (s : t : u) &\mapsto (f_0(s, t, u) : f_1(s, t, u) : f_2(s, t, u) : f_3(s, t, u)). \end{aligned}$$

We denote by x, y, z, w the homogeneous coordinates of \mathbb{P}^2 . The closure of the image of ϕ is a surface if and only if the map ϕ is generically finite onto its image, which we assume hereafter. Thus let \mathcal{S} denote the surface in \mathbb{P}^3 obtained as the closed image of ϕ . Our problem is to compute an implicit equation of \mathcal{S} , which is more difficult than curve implicitization because of the presence of isolated base points arising from the parameterization. If it exists, the one dimensionnal component of the base locus can be easily removed by substituting each f_i , $i = 0, \dots, 3$, by f_i/δ , where $\delta := \gcd(f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3)$. Consequently, we assume that the ideal $I = (f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3)$ in $\mathbb{K}[s, t, u]$ is at least of codimension 2, that is defines n isolated points p_1, \dots, p_n in \mathbb{P}^2 , and we have (see section 2 and theorem 2.5 in Busé and Jouanolou [2003] for a proof and more details):

THEOREM 3.1: *Let e_{p_i} denote the algebraic multiplicity of the point p_i for all $i = 1, \dots, n$, and β denote the degree of ϕ onto its image. Then*

$$d^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n e_{p_i} = \begin{cases} \beta \deg(\mathcal{S}) & \text{if } \phi \text{ is generically finite,} \\ 0 & \text{if } \phi \text{ is not generically finite.} \end{cases}$$

This theorem gives us the degree of the closed image of ϕ if it is a surface (which we have denoted by \mathcal{S}), and also that this image is not a surface if and only if $d^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n e_{p_i}$. We will call an *implicit equation* of \mathcal{S} an equation of its associated divisor, which is an irreducible and homogeneous polynomial $P(x, y, z, w)$ of total degree $(d^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n e_{p_i})/\beta$.

In the following subsections we mainly present a method based on approximation complexes for computing an implicit equation of \mathcal{S} (in fact we will compute P^β) in case the ideal I defines a zero-dimensionnal scheme in \mathbb{P}^2 locally defined by at most three equations (in other words, this scheme is locally an almost complete intersection), and we also give some other related results. Then we provide an explicit description of the algorithm and illustrate it with some examples.

3.1. The method

We denote by A the polynomial ring $\mathbb{K}[s, t, u]$ which is naturally graded by $\deg(s) = \deg(t) = \deg(u) = 1$. Let us consider the Koszul complex of f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3 in A :

$$0 \rightarrow A[-4d] \xrightarrow{d_4} A[-3d]^4 \xrightarrow{d_3} A[-2d]^6 \xrightarrow{d_2} A[-d]^4 \xrightarrow{d_1} A, \quad (2)$$

where the differentials are given by

$$d_4 = \begin{pmatrix} -f_3 \\ f_2 \\ -f_1 \\ f_0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad d_3 = \begin{pmatrix} f_2 & f_3 & 0 & 0 \\ -f_1 & 0 & f_3 & 0 \\ f_0 & 0 & 0 & f_3 \\ 0 & -f_1 & -f_2 & 0 \\ 0 & f_0 & 0 & -f_2 \\ 0 & 0 & f_0 & f_1 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$d_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -f_1 & -f_2 & 0 & -f_3 & 0 & 0 \\ f_0 & 0 & -f_2 & 0 & -f_3 & 0 \\ 0 & f_0 & f_1 & 0 & 0 & -f_3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & f_0 & f_1 & f_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad d_1 = (f_0 \ f_1 \ f_2 \ f_3).$$

As for curve implicitization, we denote with $(K_\bullet(f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3), u_\bullet)$ this Koszul complex tensored by $A[\underline{x}] := A[x, y, z, w]$ over A , which is of the form:

$$0 \rightarrow A[\underline{x}][-4d] \xrightarrow{u_4} A[\underline{x}][-3d]^4 \xrightarrow{u_3} A[\underline{x}][-2d]^6 \xrightarrow{u_2} A[\underline{x}][-d]^4 \xrightarrow{u_1} A[\underline{x}],$$

where the matrices of the differentials d_i and u_i are the same, $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$ (here again we set $\deg(x) = \deg(y) = \deg(z) = \deg(w) = 1$). We also consider the bi-graded Koszul complex on $A[\underline{x}]$ associated to the sequence (x, y, z, w) , and denote it $(K_\bullet(x, y, z, w), v_\bullet)$:

$$0 \rightarrow A[\underline{x}](-4) \xrightarrow{v_4} A[\underline{x}](-3)^4 \xrightarrow{v_3} A[\underline{x}](-2)^6 \xrightarrow{v_2} A[\underline{x}](-1)^4 \xrightarrow{v_1} A[\underline{x}].$$

The matrices of its differentials are obtained from the matrices of the differentials of (2) by replacing f_0 by x , f_1 by y , f_2 by z and f_3 by w . Note that since (x, y, z, w) is a regular sequence in $A[\underline{x}]$, the complex $K_\bullet(x, y, z, w)$ is acyclic. From both Koszul complexes $(K_\bullet(f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3), u_\bullet)$ and $(K_\bullet(x, y, z, w), v_\bullet)$ we can build, as we did for curves, the approximation complex \mathcal{Z}_\bullet . We define $Z_i := \ker(d_i)$ and $\mathcal{Z}_i := Z_i[id] \otimes_A A[\underline{x}]$ for all $i = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4$ (where $d_0 : A \rightarrow 0$), they are naturally bi-graded $A[\underline{x}]$ -modules. Since for all $i = 1, 2, 3$ we have $u_i \circ v_{i+1} + v_i \circ u_{i+1} = 0$, we obtain the bi-graded complex:

$$(\mathcal{Z}_\bullet, v_\bullet) : 0 \rightarrow \mathcal{Z}_4(-4) \xrightarrow{v_4} \mathcal{Z}_3(-3) \xrightarrow{v_3} \mathcal{Z}_2(-2) \xrightarrow{v_2} \mathcal{Z}_1(-1) \xrightarrow{v_1} \mathcal{Z}_0 = A[\underline{x}],$$

where, since we have supposed $d \geq 1$, $\mathcal{Z}_4 = 0$.

Remark: In the language of moving surfaces (see Sederberg and Chen [1995], Cox [2001]), an element $(g_1, g_2, g_3, g_4) \in \mathcal{Z}_{1[\nu](0)}$ is nothing but a moving plane of degree ν following the surface \mathcal{S} .

To state the main result of this section, we need some notation. If p is an isolated base point defined by the ideal I , we denote by d_p its geometric multiplicity (also called its degree); note that we have already denoted by e_p its algebraic multiplicity. Recall that if M is a \mathbb{Z} -graded R -module, where R is a \mathbb{Z} -graded ring, its initial degree is defined as $\text{indeg}(M) = \inf\{\nu \in \mathbb{Z} : M_\nu \neq 0\}$.

THEOREM 3.2: *Suppose that the ideal $I = (f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3) \subset A$ is of codimension at least 2. Let $\mathcal{P} := \text{Proj}(A/I)$ and denote by $I_{\mathcal{P}}$ the saturated ideal of I w.r.t. the maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} = (s, t, u)$ of A . Then,*

- *The complex \mathcal{Z}_\bullet is acyclic if and only if \mathcal{P} is locally defined by (at most) 3 equations.*

- Assume that \mathcal{P} is locally defined by 3 equations, then for any integer

$$\nu \geq \nu_0 := 2(d-1) - \text{indeg}(I_{\mathcal{P}})$$

the determinant of the graded complex of free $\mathbb{K}[\underline{x}]$ -modules

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{Z}_{3[\nu]}(-3) \xrightarrow{v_3} \mathcal{Z}_{2[\nu]}(-2) \xrightarrow{v_2} \mathcal{Z}_{1[\nu]}(-1) \xrightarrow{v_1} \mathcal{Z}_{0[\nu]} = A_{[\nu]}[\underline{x}]$$

is a homogeneous element of $\mathbb{K}[\underline{x}]$ of degree $d^2 - \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} d_p$, and is a multiple of P^β independent of ν , where P is an implicit equation of \mathcal{S} . It is exactly P^β if and only if I is locally a complete intersection. Moreover, for all $\nu \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\mathcal{Z}_{3[\nu]}$ is always a free $\mathbb{K}[\underline{x}]$ -module of rank $\max(\binom{\nu-d+2}{2}, 0)$; in particular $\mathcal{Z}_{3[\nu]} = 0$ if and only if $\nu \leq d-1$.

Proof: See theorem 4.1 for the complete proof. Note that an argument similar to the one given in the proof of theorem 2.1 shows easily that $\mathcal{Z}_3 \simeq A[\underline{x}][-d]$, and hence the last statement of the second assertion of the theorem. \square

By standard properties of determinants of complexes (see e.g. appendix A in Gelfand et al. [1994]) we deduce the

COROLLARY 3.1: *Suppose that $I = (f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3) \subset A$ is of codimension at least 2, and $\mathcal{P} = \text{Proj}(A/I)$ is locally defined by 3 equations. Then for all $\nu \geq \nu_0 := 2(d-1) - \text{indeg}(I_{\mathcal{P}})$ any non-zero minor of (maximal) size $(\nu+2)(\nu+1)/2$ of the matrix of the surjective map*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathcal{Z}_{1[\nu]}(-1) & \xrightarrow{v_1} & A_{[\nu]}[\underline{x}] \\ (g_1, g_2, g_3, g_4) & \mapsto & xg_1 + yg_2 + zg_3 + wg_4 \end{array}$$

is a non-zero multiple of P^β . Moreover, if \mathcal{P} is locally a complete intersection, then the gcd of all these minors equals P^β .

Before going through an algorithmic version of this theorem we make few remarks on the integer ν_0 . First note that ν_0 depends geometrically on the ideal I , since $\text{indeg}(I_{\mathcal{P}})$ is the smallest degree of a hypersurface in \mathbb{P}^2 containing the closed subscheme defined by I .

Notice that this initial degree is very fastly determined by dedicated computer algebra softwares (for instance Macaulay, Singular or Cocoa) and the complexity of the computation is also proved to be small, as it follows from Chardin [2004] Corollary 3.3 that $\text{reg}(I) \leq 3(d-1) + 1$ and $\text{reg}(I_{\mathcal{P}}) \leq 2(d-1) + 1$.

Let us also give few observations on how the initial degree of $I_{\mathcal{P}}$ behaves. If I has no base points, that is $I_{\mathcal{P}} = A$, then $\text{indeg}(I_{\mathcal{P}}) = 0$. If there exists base points, then this initial degree is always greater than or equal to 1 since $I_{\mathcal{P}}$ is generated in degree at least 1, and is always bounded by d since the f_i 's are in $I_{\mathcal{P}}$. Also if I is saturated, then its initial degree is exactly d . We deduce that

- $\nu_0 = 2d - 2$ if I has no base point,

- $d - 2 \leq \nu_0 \leq 2d - 3$ if I has base points,
- $\nu_0 = d - 2$ if I is saturated (note that in this case we know that $\mathcal{Z}_{3[\nu_0]} = 0$, and hence $\det(\mathcal{Z}_{\bullet[\nu_0]})$ is always either a single determinant or a quotient of two determinants).

This shows, in particular, that the presence of base points simplifies the complexity of the computation of the implicit surface. Finally recall that the explicit bound (and not the theoretical one) given in Busé and Jouanolou [2003] is only $2d - 2$, no matter if there exists base points or not.

3.2. The algorithm

We now develop the algorithm suggested by theorem 3.2, and then discuss some computational aspects.

ALGORITHM (implicitization of a rational parametric surface with local almost complete intersection isolated base points, possibly empty):

Input: Four homogeneous polynomials f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3 in A of the same degree $d \geq 1$ such that the ideal $(f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3) \subset A$ is locally generated by 3 elements outside $V(s, t, u)$ and at least of codimension 2. An integer ν with default value $\nu := 2d - 2$.

Output: Either:

- a square matrix Δ_1 such that $\det(\Delta_1)$ is the determinant of $(\mathcal{Z}_{\bullet})_{[\nu]}$,
- two square matrices Δ_1 and Δ_2 such that $\frac{\det(\Delta_1)}{\det(\Delta_2)}$ is the determinant of $(\mathcal{Z}_{\bullet})_{[\nu]}$,
- three square matrices Δ_1, Δ_2 and Δ_3 such that $\frac{\det(\Delta_1)\det(\Delta_3)}{\det(\Delta_2)}$ is the determinant of $(\mathcal{Z}_{\bullet})_{[\nu]}$.

1. Compute the matrix F_1 of the first map of (2): $A_{\nu}^4 \xrightarrow{d_1} A_{\nu+d}$, and a kernel K_1 of its transpose which has $\text{rank}(\mathcal{Z}_{1[\nu]})$ rows.
2. Set $m := \frac{(\nu+2)(\nu+1)}{2}$. Construct the matrix Z_1 defined by:

$$Z_1(i, j) = xK_1(j, i) + yK_1(j, i + m) + zK_1(j, i + 2m) + wK_1(j, i + 3m),$$

with $i = 1, \dots, m$ and $j = 1, \dots, \text{rank}(\mathcal{Z}_{1[\nu]})$, which is the matrix of the map $\mathcal{Z}_{1[\nu]}(-1) \xrightarrow{v_1} \mathcal{Z}_{0[\nu]}$.

3. **If** Z_1 is square **then** set $\Delta_1 := Z_1$ **else**
 - (a) Compute a list L_1 of integers indexing independent columns in Z_1 . L_1 consists in m integers. Let Δ_1 be the $m \times m$ submatrix of Z_1 obtained by removing columns not in L_1 .
 - (b) Compute the matrix F_2 of the second map of (2): $A_{\nu}^6 \xrightarrow{d_2} A_{\nu+d}^3$, and a kernel K_2 of its transpose which has $\text{rank}(\mathcal{Z}_{2[\nu]})$ rows.

(c) Construct the matrix Z'_2 defined by, for all $j = 1, \dots, \text{rank}(\mathcal{Z}_{2[\nu]})$,

$$\begin{aligned} Z'_2(i, j) &= -yK_2(j, i) - zK_2(j, i + m) - wK_2(j, i + 3m), i = 1, \dots, m, \\ Z'_2(i, j) &= xK_2(j, i - m) - zK_2(j, i + m) - wK_2(j, i + 3m), i = m + 1, \dots, 2m, \\ Z'_2(i, j) &= xK_2(j, i - m) + yK_2(j, i) - wK_2(j, i + 3m), i = 2m + 1, \dots, 3m, \\ Z'_2(i, j) &= xK_2(j, i) + yK_2(j, i + m) + zK_2(j, i + 2m), i = 3m + 1, \dots, 4m. \end{aligned}$$

(d) Construct the $\text{rank}(\mathcal{Z}_{1[\nu]}) \times \text{rank}(\mathcal{Z}_{2[\nu]})$ matrix Z_2 whose j^{th} column $Z_2(\bullet, j)$ is the solution of the linear system ${}^tZ_2(\bullet, j) \cdot K_1 = Z'_2(\bullet, j)$, which is the matrix of the map $\mathcal{Z}_{2[\nu]}(-1) \xrightarrow{v_2} \mathcal{Z}_{1[\nu]}$.

(e) Define Δ'_2 to be the submatrix of Z_2 obtained by removing the rows indexed by L_1 .

If Δ'_2 is square **then** set $\Delta_2 := \Delta'_2$ **else**

i. Compute a list L_2 of integers indexing independent columns in Δ'_2 . Define Δ_2 to be the square submatrix of Δ'_2 obtained by removing columns not in L_2 .

ii. Construct the matrix F_3 of the third map of (2): $A_\nu^4 \xrightarrow{d_3} A_{\nu+d}^6$, and the kernel K_3 of its transpose which has $\text{rank}(\mathcal{Z}_{3[\nu]})$ rows.

iii. Construct the matrix Z'_3 defined by, for all $j = 1, \dots, \text{rank}(\mathcal{Z}_{3[\nu]})$,

$$\begin{aligned} Z'_3(i, j) &= zK_3(j, i) + wK_3(j, i + m), i = 1, \dots, m, \\ Z'_3(i, j) &= -yK_3(j, i - m) + wK_3(j, i + m), i = m + 1, \dots, 2m, \\ Z'_3(i, j) &= xK_3(j, i - 2m) + wK_3(j, i + m), i = 2m + 1, \dots, 3m, \\ Z'_3(i, j) &= -yK_3(j, i - 2m) - zK_3(j, i - m), i = 3m + 1, \dots, 4m, \\ Z'_3(i, j) &= xK_3(j, i - 3m) - zK_3(j, i - m), i = 4m + 1, \dots, 5m, \\ Z'_3(i, j) &= xK_3(j, i - 3m) + yK_3(j, i - 2m), i = 5m + 1, \dots, 6m. \end{aligned}$$

iv. Construct the $\text{rank}(\mathcal{Z}_{2[\nu]}) \times \text{rank}(\mathcal{Z}_{3[\nu]})$ matrix Z_3 whose j^{th} column $Z_3(\bullet, j)$ is the solution of the linear system ${}^tZ_3(\bullet, j) \cdot K_2 = Z'_3(\bullet, j)$, which is the matrix of the map $\mathcal{Z}_{3[\nu]}(-1) \xrightarrow{v_3} \mathcal{Z}_{2[\nu]}$. Define Δ_3 to be the square submatrix of Z_3 obtained by removing the rows indexed by L_2 . Δ_3 is of size $\frac{(\nu-d+2)(\nu-d+1)}{2}$.

endif

endif.

In the language of moving surfaces, the matrix Z_1 obtained at step 2 gather all the moving *planes* of degree ν following the surface \mathcal{S} . Assume hereafter that \mathcal{P} is locally a complete intersection. From a computational point of view, corollary 3.1 implies that this matrix can be taken as a *representation* of the surface \mathcal{S} , replacing an expanded implicit equation (even if it is generally non-square). For instance, to test if a given point $p = (x_0 : y_0 : z_0 : w_0) \in \mathbb{P}^3$ is in the surface \mathcal{S} , we just have to substitute x, y, z, w respectively by x_0, y_0, z_0, w_0 in Z_1 and check its rank; p is on \mathcal{S} if and only if the rank of Z_1 does not drop. Of course some numerical aspects have to be taken into account here, but the use of numerical linear algebra seems to be very promising in this direction. Note

also that such matrices, whose computation is very fast, are much more compact representations of implicit equations compared to expanded polynomials which can have a lot of monomials.

Even if the use of \mathbf{Z}_1 seems to be, in the opinion of the authors, the best way to work quickly with implicit equations, the previous algorithm also returns an explicit description of P^β , where P is as usual an implicit equation of \mathcal{S} (always if \mathcal{P} is locally a complete intersection). With the convention $\det(\Delta_i) = 1$ if Δ_i does not exist, for $i = 2, 3$, P^β can be computed as the quotient $\frac{\det(\Delta_1)\det(\Delta_3)}{\det(\Delta_2)}$. Since $\det(\Delta_1)$ is always a multiple of P^β , we have $\det(\Delta_1) = P^\beta Q$, where Q is a homogeneous polynomial in $\mathbb{K}[\underline{x}]$. Notice that this extraneous factor Q divides $\det(\Delta_2)$; in fact $\det(\Delta_2) = Q \det(\Delta_3)$.

3.3. Examples

We illustrate our algorithm with four particular examples. The algorithm has been implemented in the software MAGMA, which offers very powerful tools to deal with linear algebra, and experimentally seems to be very efficient.

3.3.1. An example without base point

Consider the following example:

$$\begin{cases} f_0 &= s^2 t, \\ f_1 &= t^2 u, \\ f_2 &= s u^2, \\ f_3 &= s^3 + t^3 + u^3, \end{cases}$$

is a parameterization without base point of a surface of degree 9. Applying our algorithm we find, in degree $\nu = 2 \cdot 3 - 2 = 4$ a matrix \mathbf{Z}_1 of size 15×24 which represents our surface. Continuing the algorithm we obtain a matrix Δ_1 of size 15×15 , a matrix Δ_2 of size 9×9 and a matrix Δ_3 of size 3×3 . Computing the quotient $\frac{\det(\Delta_1)\det(\Delta_3)}{\det(\Delta_2)}$ we obtain an expanded implicit equation:

$$x^6 z^3 + 3x^5 y^2 z^2 + 3x^4 y^4 z + 3x^4 y z^4 + x^3 y^6 + 6x^3 y^3 z^3 + 3x^2 y^5 z^2 + 3x^2 y^2 z^5 - x^2 y^2 z^2 w^3 + 3x y^4 z^4 + y^3 z^6.$$

Trying our algorithm empirically with $\nu = 3$, we obtain a matrix Δ_1 which is not square, it has only 9 columns (instead of the expected 10). The algorithm hence fails here, showing that in this case the degree bound $2d - 2$ is the lowest possible.

3.3.2. An example where the ideal of base points is saturated

This example is taken from Sederberg and Chen [1995] (see also Busé et al. [2003]); it is the parameterization of a cubic surface with 6 local complete inter-

section base points:

$$\begin{cases} f_0 &= s^2t + 2t^3 + s^2u + 4stu + 4t^2u + 3su^2 + 2tu^2 + 2u^3, \\ f_1 &= -s^3 - 2st^2 - 2s^2u - stu + su^2 - 2tu^2 + 2u^3, \\ f_2 &= -s^3 - 2s^2t - 3st^2 - 3s^2u - 3stu + 2t^2u - 2su^2 - 2tu^2, \\ f_3 &= s^3 + s^2t + t^3 + s^2u + t^2u - su^2 - tu^2 - u^3. \end{cases}$$

The ideal $I = (f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3)$ is saturated, so that we have $\nu_0 = d - 2 = 1$, and we hence can apply the algorithm with $\nu = 1$. The matrix Z_1 is then square and the algorithm stops in step 2, giving

$$\begin{pmatrix} x & -z - w & y + w \\ y & x - 2y + z - 2w & 2y - z \\ z & -x - 2w & y + 2w \end{pmatrix}.$$

3.3.3. An example where the method of moving quadrics fails

We here consider the example 3.2 in Busé et al. [2003]. This example was introduced to show how the method of moving quadrics (introduced in Sederberg and Chen [1995]) generalized in this paper to the presence of base points may fail. Consider the parameterization

$$\begin{cases} f_0 &= su^2, \\ f_1 &= t^2(s + u), \\ f_2 &= st(s + u), \\ f_3 &= tu(s + u). \end{cases}$$

We can directly apply our algorithm in degree $\nu = 2.3 - 2 = 4$; we obtain a matrix Z_1 of size 15×30 , matrices Δ_1 and Δ_2 of size 15×15 , and a matrix Δ_3 of size 3×3 . An expanded implicit equation is then $xyz + xyw - zw^2$.

If now we take into account that the ideal $I = (f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3)$ has base points, we can apply the algorithm with $\nu = 3$. Even better, the saturated ideal of I , denoted $I_{\mathcal{P}}$, is generated by $t(s + u)$ and su^2 , showing that $\text{indeg}(I_{\mathcal{P}}) = 2$ (since $t(s + u)$ is of degree 2), and hence that we can apply the algorithm with $\nu = 2$. In this case Δ_1 is 6×6 , Δ_2 is 3×3 and the algorithm stops in step (e).

3.3.4. An example with a fat base point

With this example we would like to illustrate theorem 3.2 when there is a base point minimally generated by three polynomials. Consider the parameterization given by

$$\begin{cases} f_0 &= s^3 - 6s^2t - 5st^2 - 4s^2u + 4stu - 3t^2u, \\ f_1 &= -s^3 - 2s^2t - st^2 - 5s^2u - 3stu - 6t^2u, \\ f_2 &= -4s^3 - 2s^2t + 4st^2 - 6t^3 + 6s^2u - 6stu - 2t^2u, \\ f_3 &= 2s^3 - 6s^2t + 3st^2 - 6t^3 - 3s^2u - 4stu + 2t^2u. \end{cases}$$

The ideal $I = (f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3)$ defines exactly one *fat* base point p which is

defined by $(s, t)^2$. Therefore any implicit equation of our parameterized surface is of degree $d^2 - e_p = 9 - 4 = 5$, and the degree of the determinant of the complex $(\mathcal{Z}_\bullet)_{[\nu_0]}$ is of degree $d^2 - d_p = 9 - 3 = 6$. Applying our algorithm with $\nu_0 = 2(d - 1) - 2 = 2$ we find that the matrix Z_1 is already square, of size 6×6 . Expanding its determinant one obtains a product of a degree 5 irreducible polynomial (an implicit equation of our surface) and a linear (since $e_p - d_p = 1$) irreducible polynomial.

4. Implicitization of rational parametric hypersurfaces

We now turn to the general problem of hypersurface implicitization, always using approximation complexes. In this section we prove new results to solve this problem under suitable conditions, and obtain the proof of theorem 3.2 as a particular case.

We are going to consider hypersurfaces obtained as the closed image of maps from \mathbb{P}^{n-1} to \mathbb{P}^n , where $n \geq 3$. Consequently we set $A := \mathbb{K}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$, which will be the ring of the polynomials of the parameterizations we will consider. We also denote $\mathfrak{m} := (X_1, \dots, X_n)$, and set $-\vee := \text{Hom}_A(-, A[-n])$ and $-^* := \text{Homgr}_A(-, A/\mathfrak{m})$. Finally ω_- will denote the associated canonical module (see Bruns and Herzog [1993]). Our first result is a technical lemma on the cycles of certain Koszul complexes.

LEMMA 4.1: *Let f_0, \dots, f_n be $n+1$ polynomials of positive degrees d_0, \dots, d_n , I the ideal generated by them, $\mathbf{K}_\bullet(f; A)$ the Koszul complex of the f_i 's on A and denote by Z_i and H_i the i -th cycles and the i -th homology modules of $\mathbf{K}_\bullet(f; A)$, respectively. Denoting $\sigma := d_0 + \dots + d_n$, if $\dim(A/I) \leq 1$ then we have*

- $H_i \neq 0$ for $i = 0, 1$, $H_i = 0$ for $i > 2$ and H_2 is zero if and only if $\dim(A/I) = 0$. If $\dim(A/I) = 1$, $H_2 \simeq \omega_{A/I}[n - \sigma]$.
- If $n \geq 3$, then

$$H_{\mathfrak{m}}^i(Z_p) \simeq \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } i = 0, 1 \\ H_{\mathfrak{m}}^0(H_{i-p})^*[n - \sigma] & \text{for } i = 2 \\ H_{i-p}^*[n - \sigma] & \text{for } 2 < i < n \\ Z_{n-p}^*[n - \sigma] & \text{for } i = n. \end{cases}$$

Proof: The first bullet point is classical, see e.g. Bruns and Herzog [1993] 1.6.16 and 1.2.4. For the second point we consider the truncated complexes:

$$\mathbf{K}_\bullet^{>p} : \quad 0 \rightarrow K_{n+1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow K_{p+1} \rightarrow Z_p \rightarrow 0.$$

If $p > 2$ this complex is exact, and gives rise to a spectral sequence $H_{\mathfrak{m}}^\bullet(\mathbf{K}_\bullet^{>p}) \Rightarrow 0$,

which is at step 1:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
0 & & \cdots & & 0 & & H_{\mathfrak{m}}^0(Z_p) \\
\vdots & & & & \vdots & & H_{\mathfrak{m}}^1(Z_p) \\
\vdots & & & & \vdots & & \vdots \\
0 & & \cdots & & 0 & & H_{\mathfrak{m}}^{n-1}(Z_p)
\end{array}$$

$$H_{\mathfrak{m}}^n(K_{n+1}) \xrightarrow{H_{\mathfrak{m}}^n(\partial_{n+1})} \cdots \xrightarrow{H_{\mathfrak{m}}^n(\partial_{p+2})} H_{\mathfrak{m}}^n(K_{p+1}) \xrightarrow{H_{\mathfrak{m}}^n(\partial_{p+1})} H_{\mathfrak{m}}^n(Z_p),$$

and modulo the identifications

$$H_{\mathfrak{m}}^n(K_{\bullet}) \simeq (K_{\bullet}^{\vee})^* \simeq (K^{\bullet}[-n])^* \simeq (K_{n+1-\bullet}[\sigma - n])^*,$$

the last line becomes

$$K_0^*[n - \sigma] \xrightarrow{\partial_1^*} K_1^*[n - \sigma] \xrightarrow{\partial_2^*} \cdots \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-p}^*} K_{n-p}^*[n - \sigma] \rightarrow H_{\mathfrak{m}}^n(Z_p).$$

It follows

- $H_{\mathfrak{m}}^i(Z_p) = 0$ for $i < p$ and for $p + 2 < i < n$,
- $d_{n-p+1}^{>p} : H_0^*[n - \sigma] \xrightarrow{\simeq} H_{\mathfrak{m}}^p(Z_p)$,
- $d_{n-p}^{>p} : H_1^*[n - \sigma] \xrightarrow{\simeq} H_{\mathfrak{m}}^{p+1}(Z_p)$,
- $d_{n-p-1}^{>p} : H_2^*[n - \sigma] \xrightarrow{\simeq} H_{\mathfrak{m}}^{p+2}(Z_p)$,

where the upper index indicates from which spectral sequence the isomorphism comes, and the lower index indicates at which step of the spectral sequence the map is obtained. We also obtain a short exact sequence

$$K_{n-p-1}^*[n - \sigma] \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-p}^*} K_{n-p}^*[n - \sigma] \rightarrow H_{\mathfrak{m}}^n(Z_p) \rightarrow 0$$

that gives the isomorphism $H_{\mathfrak{m}}^n(Z_p) \simeq Z_{n-p}^*[n - \sigma]$.

For $p = 2$, we have a spectral sequence $H_{\mathfrak{m}}^{\bullet}(\mathbf{K}_{\bullet}^{>2}) \Rightarrow H_{\mathfrak{m}}^1(H_2)$ which shows as in the previous cases that $H_{\mathfrak{m}}^n(Z_2) \simeq Z_{n-2}^*[n - \sigma]$, and that

- $H_{\mathfrak{m}}^i(Z_2) = 0$ for $4 < i < n$,
- $d_{n-2}^{>2} : H_1^*[n - \sigma] \xrightarrow{\simeq} H_{\mathfrak{m}}^3(Z_2)$,
- $d_{n-3}^{>2} : H_2^*[n - \sigma] \xrightarrow{\simeq} H_{\mathfrak{m}}^4(Z_2)$.

It also provides an exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow H_{\mathfrak{m}}^1(Z_2) \xrightarrow{\text{can}} H_{\mathfrak{m}}^1(H_2) \xrightarrow{\tau} H_0^*[n - \sigma] \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}^{>2}} H_{\mathfrak{m}}^2(Z_2) \rightarrow 0, \quad (3)$$

where τ is the transgression map of the spectral sequence. If $H_2 \neq 0$, we also look at the complex

$$\mathbf{K}_\bullet^{\leq 2} : 0 \rightarrow Z_2 \rightarrow K_2 \rightarrow K_1 \rightarrow I \rightarrow 0,$$

whose only homology is H_1 and the corresponding spectral sequence $H_m^\bullet(\mathbf{K}_\bullet^{\leq 2}) \Rightarrow H_m^\bullet(H_1)$. Noticing that $H_m^i(H_1) = 0$ for $i > 1$, we get that $H_m^0(Z_2) = H_m^1(Z_2) = 0$ (this is also easily obtained by splitting $\mathbf{K}_\bullet^{\leq 2}$ into two short exact sequences, and taking cohomology). Together with (3) and local duality, which gives $H_m^1(H_2) \simeq \omega_{H_2}^* \simeq (A/I^{\text{sat}})^*[n - \sigma]$ where I^{sat} denotes the saturation of the ideal I , we get the asserted isomorphism for $H_m^2(Z_2)$.

Note that we also get an isomorphism $H_m^0(H_0)^*[n - \sigma] \simeq H_m^2(Z_2) \simeq H_m^0(H_1)$, and an exact sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow H_m^1(H_1) \rightarrow H_m^3(Z_2) \rightarrow H_m^1(I) \rightarrow 0.$$

Finally for $p = 1$, the exact sequence

$$\mathbf{K}_\bullet^{\leq 1} : 0 \rightarrow Z_1 \rightarrow K_1 \rightarrow I \rightarrow 0$$

shows that $H_m^{i-2}(H_0) \simeq H_m^{i-1}(I) \simeq H_m^i(Z_1)$ for $i < n$, so that $H_m^0(Z_1) = H_m^1(Z_1) = 0$, $H_m^2(Z_1) \simeq H_m^0(H_0) \simeq H_m^0(H_1)^*[n - \sigma]$, $H_m^3(Z_1) \simeq H_m^1(H_0) \simeq H_m^2[n - \sigma]$ and $H_m^i(Z_1) = 0$ for $3 < i < n$.

The spectral sequence $H_m^\bullet(\mathbf{K}_\bullet^{\leq 1}) \Rightarrow H_m^\bullet(H_\bullet)$ (because only $H_m^1(H_2)$, $H_m^0(H_1)$ and $H_m^1(H_1)$ may not be zero) gives $H_m^n(Z_1) \simeq Z_{n-1}^*[n - \sigma]$, and this concludes the proof. \square

Remark: Note that the last spectral sequence of the proof also identifies $H_m^2(Z_1)$ in another way by providing the exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow H_m^1(H_1) \xrightarrow{\tau'} H_1^*[n - \sigma] \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}^{>1}} H_m^2(Z_1) \rightarrow 0$$

which shows that if $\dim(A/I) = 1$

$$H_1/H_m^0(H_1) \simeq \omega_{H_1}[n - \sigma].$$

Thus in this case $H_1/H_m^0(H_1)$ has a symmetric free resolution. Also, the spectral sequences derived from the complexes $\mathbf{K}_\bullet^{\leq p}$ provide exact sequences

$$0 \rightarrow H_m^0(H_1) \rightarrow H_m^p(Z_p) \rightarrow H_m^1(H_2) \rightarrow 0$$

for $p < n$, and

$$0 \rightarrow H_m^1(H_1) \rightarrow H_m^{p+1}(Z_p) \rightarrow H_m^0(H_0) \rightarrow 0$$

for $p < n - 1$, as well as an isomorphism $H_m^{p+2}(Z_p) \simeq H_m^1(H_0)$ for $p < n - 2$.

As we have already done in previous sections, we now consider approximation complexes. To do this, we introduce new variables T_0, \dots, T_n that represent the homogeneous coordinates of the target $\mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{K}}^n$ of a given parameterization. Let f_0, \dots, f_n be $n+1$ homogeneous polynomials in A of the same degree $d \geq 1$. Denoting by Z_i the i^{th} -cycles of the Koszul complex of the f_i 's on A , we set $\mathcal{Z}_i := Z_i[id] \otimes_A A[\underline{T}]$, where $[-]$ stands for the degree shift in the X_i 's and $(-)$ for the one in the T_i 's. The differentials v_{\bullet} of the Koszul complex $K_{\bullet}(T_0, \dots, T_n; A[\underline{T}])$ induce maps between the \mathcal{Z}_i 's, and hence we can define the approximation complex (note that $\mathcal{Z}_{n+1} = 0$)

$$(\mathcal{Z}_{\bullet}, v_{\bullet}) : 0 \rightarrow \mathcal{Z}_n(-n) \xrightarrow{v_n} \dots \xrightarrow{v_3} \mathcal{Z}_2(-2) \xrightarrow{v_2} \mathcal{Z}_1(-1) \xrightarrow{v_1} \mathcal{Z}_0 = A[\underline{T}].$$

This complex is naturally bi-graded, and $H_0(\mathcal{Z}_{\bullet}) \simeq \text{Sym}_A(I)$. We now give some acyclicity criteria in case $I = (f_0, \dots, f_n)$ define isolated points in $\text{Proj}(A)$. Recall that a sequence x_1, \dots, x_m of elements in a ring R is said to be a *proper sequence* if

$$x_{i+1}H_j(x_1, \dots, x_i; A) = 0 \quad \text{for } i = 0, \dots, m-1 \text{ and } j > 0,$$

where the H_j 's denote the homology groups of the associated Koszul complex.

LEMMA 4.2: *Suppose that $I = (f_0, \dots, f_n)$ is of codimension at least $n-1$, \mathbb{K} is infinite, and let $\mathcal{P} := \text{Proj}(A/I)$. Then the following are equivalent:*

- (1) \mathcal{Z}_{\bullet} is acyclic,
- (2) \mathcal{Z}_{\bullet} is acyclic outside $V(\mathfrak{m})$,
- (3) I is generated by a proper sequence,
- (4) \mathcal{P} is locally defined by a proper sequence,
- (5) \mathcal{P} is locally defined by n equations.

Proof: By Herzog et al. [1983], (1) \Leftrightarrow (3) and (2) \Leftrightarrow (4). Moreover (1) \Rightarrow (2) and (3) \Rightarrow (4). We will show that (4) \Rightarrow (5) \Rightarrow (3).

Assume (4). For each $p \in \mathcal{P}$ there exists a non empty open set Ω_p in $\mathbb{K}^{(n+1)^2}$ such that if $(a_{ij}) \in \Omega_p$ and $g_i := \sum_j a_{ij}f_j$, the g_i 's form a proper sequence locally at p . Taking $(a_{ij}) \in \Omega := \bigcap_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \Omega_p$, this gives g_1, \dots, g_{n+1} so that the g_i 's form a proper sequence outside $V(\mathfrak{m})$. We may also assume, by shrinking Ω if necessary, that g_1, \dots, g_{n-1} is a regular sequence, so that g_1, \dots, g_n is clearly a proper sequence. Now g_1, \dots, g_{n+1} is proper if and only if g_{n+1} annihilates $H_1(g_1, \dots, g_n; A) \simeq \omega_{A/J}$ (locally outside $V(\mathfrak{m})$, *a priori*), where J denotes the saturated ideal of (g_1, \dots, g_n) w.r.t. \mathfrak{m} . But $\text{Ann}_A(\omega_{A/J}) = J$, so that $g_{n+1} \in J$, which proves (5).

Now assume (5). One considers (in the same spirit as above) g_1, \dots, g_{n+1} so that g_1, \dots, g_{n-1} is a regular sequence and g_1, \dots, g_n defines \mathcal{P} . Then $g_{n+1} \in I_{\mathcal{P}}$, and therefore annihilates $\omega_{A/I_{\mathcal{P}}}$, so that the g_i 's forms a proper sequence. \square

Notice that conditions (1), (2) and (5) of the lemma above are unaffected by extension of the base field. Therefore the equivalence of these three assertions remains if we drop the hypothesis that \mathbb{K} is infinite.

We are now able to state our main result on the hypersurface implicitization problem.

THEOREM 4.1: *Let $n \geq 3$. Let I be the ideal (f_0, \dots, f_n) , $\mathcal{P} := \text{Proj}(A/I)$ and $I_{\mathcal{P}}$ the saturation of I w.r.t. \mathfrak{m} . Assume that $\dim \mathcal{P} \leq 0$, that is \mathcal{P} is supported on a finite number of points in $\text{Proj}(A)$. Then we have*

- \mathcal{Z}_{\bullet} is acyclic if and only if \mathcal{P} is locally defined by n equations.
- Let $\nu \geq \nu_0 := (n-1)(d-1) - \text{indeg}(I_{\mathcal{P}})$. Then $H_{\mathfrak{m}}^0(\text{Sym}_A(I))_{[\nu]} = 0$. Moreover $(\mathcal{Z}_{\bullet})_{[\nu]} \otimes_{\mathbb{K}[\underline{T}]} \mathbb{K}(\underline{T})$ is acyclic if and only if \mathcal{Z}_{\bullet} is acyclic.
- Let $\nu \geq \nu_0$ and assume that \mathcal{P} is locally defined by n equations. Then $D := \det((\mathcal{Z}_{\bullet})_{[\nu]})$ is a non zero homogeneous element of $\mathbb{K}[\underline{T}]$, independent of ν (modulo \mathbb{K}^{\times}), of degree $d^{n-1} - \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} d_p$. Denoting by \mathcal{H} the closed image of the rational map $\phi : \mathbb{P}^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^n$, $D = H^{\deg(\phi)} G$ where H is an implicit equation of \mathcal{H} and $G \in \mathbb{K}[\underline{T}]$ is a nonzero polynomial. Moreover $G \in \mathbb{K}^{\times}$ if and only if \mathcal{P} is locally of linear type, and if and only if \mathcal{P} is locally a complete intersection.

Before giving the proof of the theorem we recall that, by definition, \mathcal{P} is said to be locally of linear type if $\text{Proj}(\text{Sym}_A(I)) = \text{Proj}(\text{Rees}_A(I)) \subset \mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{K}}^{n-1} \times_{\mathbb{K}} \mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{K}}^n$. By Busé and Jouanolou [2003] theorem 2.5, $\deg(H^{\deg(\phi)}) = d^{n-1} - \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} e_p$, and consequently we always have $\deg(G) = \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} (e_p - d_p)$. Also $e_p \geq d_p$ with equality if and only if \mathcal{P} is locally a complete intersection at $p \in \mathcal{P}$.

Proof: The first bullet point follows from lemma 4.2. For the second point we consider the two spectral sequences associated to the double complex $H_{\mathfrak{m}}^{\bullet}(\mathcal{Z}_{\bullet})$, both abutting to the hypercohomology of \mathcal{Z}_{\bullet} . One of them abuts at step two with:

$${}_2'E_q^p = {}_{\infty}'E_q^p = \begin{cases} H_{\mathfrak{m}}^p(H_q(\mathcal{Z}_{\bullet})) & \text{for } p = 0, 1 \text{ and } q > 0 \\ H_{\mathfrak{m}}^p(\text{Sym}_A(I)) & \text{for } q = 0 \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

The other one gives at step one:

$${}_1''E_q^p = H_{\mathfrak{m}}^p(Z_q)[qd] \otimes_A A[\underline{T}](-q).$$

By lemma 4.1, $H_{\mathfrak{m}}^p(Z_q) = 0$ for $p < q$ and for $p < 2$. This shows that $H_{\mathfrak{m}}^p(H_q(\mathcal{Z}_{\bullet})) = 0$ for $q > 0$ except possibly for $p = q = 1$, by comparing the two spectral sequences. Therefore, $H_q(\mathcal{Z}_{\bullet}) = 0$ for $q > 1$ and $H_{\mathfrak{m}}^0(H_1(\mathcal{Z}_{\bullet})) = 0$.

If $p > 2$

$${}_1''E_p^p \simeq H_0^*[n - (n+1-p)d] \otimes_A A[\underline{T}](-p)$$

so that $({}_1''E_p^p)_\nu = 0$ if $\nu > (n-2)d - n$. Also,

$$({}_1''E_2^2) \simeq (I_{\mathcal{P}}/I)^*[n - (n-1)d] \otimes_A A[\underline{T}](-2),$$

so that $({}_1''E_2^2)_\nu = 0$ for $\nu > (n-1)d - n - \text{indeg}(I_{\mathcal{P}}/I)$.

Therefore, if $\nu \geq \nu_0$, $({}_1''E_q^p)_\nu = 0$ for $p \leq q$. Note also that we have the equalities

$$\min\{d, \text{indeg}(I_{\mathcal{P}}/I)\} = \min\{d, \text{indeg}(I_{\mathcal{P}})\} = \text{indeg}(I_{\mathcal{P}}).$$

By comparing with the other spectral sequence, we have $H_{\mathfrak{m}}^1(H_1(\mathcal{Z}_\bullet))_\nu = 0$ and $H_{\mathfrak{m}}^0(\text{Sym}_A(I))_\nu = 0$.

As $H_{\mathfrak{m}}^0(\text{Sym}_A(I))_\nu = 0$ for $\nu \geq \nu_0$ we have

$$\text{Ann}_{\mathbb{K}[\underline{T}]}(\text{Sym}_A(I)_\nu) = \text{Ann}_{\mathbb{K}[\underline{T}]}(\text{Sym}_A(I)_{\nu_0})$$

for any $\nu \geq \nu_0$ (see for instance Busé and Jouanolou [2003], the proof of 5.1), so that this module is torsion if and only if \mathcal{P} is locally defined by at most n equations (because $\text{Ann}_{\mathbb{K}[\underline{T}]}(\text{Sym}_A(I)_\nu)$ is torsion for $\nu \gg 0$ if and only if I is defined by $< n+1$ equations outside $V(\mathfrak{m})$; one may also use the study of the minimal primes of $\text{Sym}_A(I)$ in Huneke and Rossi [1986]). Also in the case where \mathcal{P} is locally defined by at most n equations, the divisor associated to this module is independent of $\nu \geq \nu_0$. This finishes the proof of the second bullet point.

We come to the third bullet point. Note that we have just shown that D is independent of ν (up to an element of \mathbb{K}^\times). To compute the degree of D , we may then take $\nu \gg 0$.

The matrices of the maps of \mathcal{Z}_\bullet have entries which are linear forms in the T_i 's, so that the determinant of $(\mathcal{Z}_\bullet)_{[\nu]}$ is a form in the T_i 's of degree

$$\delta := \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i+1} i \dim_{\mathbb{K}}(Z_{i[\nu+id]}).$$

We have canonical exact sequences, $i = 0, \dots, n$,

$$0 \rightarrow Z_{i+1} \rightarrow K_{i+1} \rightarrow B_i \rightarrow 0$$

and

$$0 \rightarrow B_i \rightarrow Z_i \rightarrow H_i \rightarrow 0$$

which shows that δ can be expressed in terms of the Hilbert polynomials of the K_i 's and the H_i 's. The contribution of the K_i 's only depends on n and d , and the one of the H_i 's only comes from Z_1 and Z_2 and is :

$$(H_0)_{\nu+d} - 2((H_1)_{\nu+2d} - (H_0)_{\nu+2d})$$

as $\deg H_1 = 2 \deg \mathcal{P}$ (one may use for example that $(H_0)_\nu - (H_1)_\nu + (H_2)_\nu = 0$

for $\nu \gg 0$ and that $H_2 \simeq \omega_{R/I_{\mathcal{P}}}$ up to a degree shift), this contribution is equal to $-\deg \mathcal{P}$ for $\nu \gg 0$. The contribution of the K'_i 's is d^{n-1} (for $\nu \gg 0$) in the case where the H_i 's are 0 for $\nu \gg 0$, and we get $\delta = d^{n-1} - \deg \mathcal{P}$.

Let $X := \text{Proj}(\text{Rees}_I(A)) \subseteq Y := \text{Proj}(\text{Sym}_A(I)) \subset \mathbb{P}^{n-1} \times \mathbb{P}^n$. The scheme X is the closure of the graph of ϕ in $\mathbb{P}^{n-1} \times \mathbb{P}^n$. Therefore, the closed image of ϕ is $p_2(X)$, and $p_2(X) \subseteq p_2(Y)$. As $D \neq 0$, $p_2(Y) \neq \mathbb{P}^n$. If \mathcal{P} is locally of linear type, then $X = Y$, so that $G \in \mathbb{K}^\times$ which implies that $d_p = e_p$ for any $p \in \mathcal{P}$ and therefore \mathcal{P} is locally a complete intersection. If \mathcal{P} is not locally a complete intersection at $p \in \mathcal{P}$, $d_p \neq e_p$ so that $\deg G > 0$ and $X \neq Y$. Note that these last facts also follow from the study of the minimal primes associated to $\text{Sym}_A(I)$ in Huneke and Rossi [1986]. \square

This theorem easily yields an algorithm for implicitizing parameterized hypersurfaces under suitable assumptions, using only linear algebra routines. The case $n = 3$ has been made completely explicit in section 3.

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