# Automatic Geometric Theorem Proving: <br> Turning Euclidean Geometry into Algebra to Prove Theorems 

Dr. Heather Coughlin<br>California State University, Stanislaus

## Overview:

- polynomials, "zeros" of polynomials - varieties
- polynomial rings, ideals in polynomial rings, ideals of varieties
- translating Euclidean geometry into commutative algebra
- proving Euclidean geometry theorems with commutative algebra software
- troubles with the process: degenerate cases and how to handle them


## Polynomials:

## Examples:

1. $f(x, y)=x^{2}+y^{2}-4$
2. $g(x, y)=x y-x^{3}+1$
3. $h(x, y, z)=z-x^{2}-y^{2}$
4. $j(x, y, z)=z^{2}-x^{2}-y^{2}$

## (Algebraic Geometry) Varieties:

Let $k$ be a field, e.g. $\mathbb{R}$ (real numbers), or $\mathbb{C}$ (complex numbers).
Definition: Let $f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ be a polynomial in $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ with coefficients in $k$. Then set

$$
V(f)=\left\{\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \in k^{n} \mid f\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=0\right\}
$$

We call $V(f)$ the affine variety defined by $f$.

Note: $V(f)$ is the set of all solutions of $f=0$

## Examples:

1. $f(x, y)=x^{2}+y^{2}-4=0$

$$
x^{2}+y^{2}=4(V(f) \text { is a circle of radius } 2)
$$


2. $g(x, y)=x y-x^{3}+1=0$

$$
y=\frac{x^{3}-1}{x}
$$



3. $h(x, y, z)=z-x^{2}-y^{2}=0$

$$
z=x^{2}+y^{2}\left(V(f) \text { is the parabola } z=x^{2} \text { rotated about the } z\right. \text {-axis) }
$$

4. $j(x, y, z)=z^{2}-x^{2}-y^{2}=0$

$$
z^{2}=x^{2}+y^{2}(V(g) \text { is a cone })
$$

Notes:

- $V\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{s}\right)=\left\{\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \in k^{n} \mid f_{i}\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=0\right.$
for all $1 \leq i \leq s\}$
- $V\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{s}\right)=V\left(f_{1}\right) \cap V\left(f_{2}\right) \cap \cdots \cap V\left(f_{s}\right)$


## (Commutative Algebra) Polynomial Rings:

Definition: Let $k$ be a field, e.g. $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$. A polynomial ring in $n$ variables over $k$, denoted $k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ is the collection of all polynomials with coefficients from $k$ under polynomial addition and multiplication.

Definition: Let $I$ be a non-empty subset of $k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$. We say $I$ is an ideal of $k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ if

- $0 \in I$,
- if $f, g \in I$, then $f+g \in I$,
- if $f \in I$ and $h \in k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$, then $h f \in I$.

Example: Consider $\mathbb{R}[x]$, the polynomial ring consisting of all polynomials in $x$ with real coefficients. Define the ideal generated by $x$ to be

$$
I=\langle x\rangle=\{g(x) \cdot x \mid g(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]\}
$$

Then $I$, the set of all polynomials with zero constant terms, is an ideal of $\mathbb{R}[x]$.

Example: Let $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{s} \in k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$. Then the ideal generated by $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{s}$ is

$$
\left\langle f_{1}, \ldots, f_{s}\right\rangle=\left\{h_{1} f_{1}+\ldots+h_{s} f_{s} \mid h_{1}, \ldots, h_{s} \in k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]\right\}
$$

Example: $I=\langle x, 2\rangle$ in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ is the set of all polynomials with even constant term. Indeed,

$$
I=\langle x, 2\rangle=\{g(x) \cdot x+h(x) \cdot 2 \mid g, h \in \mathbb{R}[x]\}
$$

Example/Defn: Let $W \subset k^{n}$, a set of $n$-tuples. We want to consider the set of all polynomials which vanish on $W$. Define this set of polynomials as

$$
I(W)=\left\{f \in k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] \mid f(w)=0 \text { for all } w \in W\right\}
$$

## Note:

1. $I(W)$ is an ideal of $k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$
2. $W \subset B$ if and only if $I(W) \supset I(B)$

Recall: $V\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{s}\right)=\left\{\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \in k^{n} \mid f_{i}\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=0\right.$

$$
\text { for all } 1 \leq i \leq s\}
$$

$$
=V\left(\left\langle f_{1}, \ldots, f_{s}\right\rangle\right)
$$

The Big Deal: So $I(-)$ takes a set of $n$-tuples and gives an ideal, and $V(-)$ takes an ideal and gives a set of $n$-tuples. This relationship is inclusion reversing.

Even Bigger Deal: Now $V(I(W))=W$. However, in general $I\left(V\left(\left\langle f_{1}, \ldots, f_{s}\right\rangle\right)\right) \supseteq\left\langle f_{1}, \ldots, f_{s}\right\rangle$. Hilbert's Nullstellensatz will save the day!

Theorem: (Hilbert's Nullstellensatz) Let $k$ be an algebraically closed field. For any ideal $J \subset k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$,

$$
I(V(J))=\sqrt{J}=\left\{f \mid f^{m} \in J \text { for some integer } m \geq 1\right\}
$$

Note:

- $V(\langle x\rangle)=V\left(\left\langle x^{2}\right\rangle\right)$
- Over $\mathbb{R}, V\left(\left\langle x^{2}+1\right\rangle\right)=V(\langle 1\rangle)=\emptyset$


## Biggest Deal:

Computational Commutative Algebra allows us to compute examples. If we know what elements generate an ideal $I$, i.e. $I=\left\langle f_{1}, \ldots, f_{s}\right\rangle$, then we can program a computer to

- compute $\sqrt{I}$,
- (more importantly) determine if any given polynomial $g$ is in $I$. That is, if we can find polynomials $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{s}$ such that

$$
g=h_{1} f_{1}+h_{2} f_{2}+\cdots+h_{s} f_{s} .
$$

In fact, if such a decomposition exists, we can actually compute $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{s}$.

- determine if any given polynomial $g$ is in $\sqrt{I}$.


## Translating a Euclidean Geometry Theorem into Algebra

Example: Consider a circle with points $O, A, B$ on the circle. Suppose the line segment $O A$ is a diameter of the circle. Then line determined by $O B$ is perpendicular to line determined by $B A$.

Automatic Proof: Place a coordinate system so that

$$
O=(0,0), A=\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right), B=\left(b_{1}, b_{2}\right) .
$$

We must translate the theorem into commutative algebra/algebraic geometry.

- Let $r$ be the radius of the circle.
- (hypothesis 1) $O A$ is a diameter of the circle. By the distance formula:

$$
2 r=\sqrt{a_{1}^{2}+a_{2}^{2}}
$$

This gives our first hypothesis equation:

$$
h_{1}:=a_{1}^{2}+a_{2}^{2}-4 r^{2}=0
$$

- (hypothesis 2) $B$ is a point on the circle with radius $r$ and center $\left(\frac{a_{1}}{2}, \frac{a_{2}}{2}\right)$.

The equation of the circle is: $\left(x-\frac{a_{1}}{2}\right)^{2}+\left(y-\frac{a_{2}}{2}\right)^{2}=r^{2}$.
Then $\left(b_{1}-\frac{a_{1}}{2}\right)^{2}+\left(b_{2}-\frac{a_{2}}{2}\right)^{2}=r^{2}$.
So $\left(\frac{2 b_{1}-a_{1}}{2}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{2 b_{2}-a_{2}}{2}\right)^{2}-r^{2}=0$,
which gives our second hypothesis equation:

$$
h_{2}:=\left(2 b_{1}-a_{1}\right)^{2}+\left(2 b_{2}-a_{2}\right)^{2}-4 r^{2}=0
$$

- (conclusion) Finally, we must translate the thesis statement (i.e. what we are trying to prove): line $O B$ is perpendicular to line $B A$.

The equation of line $O B$ is

$$
y=\left(\frac{b_{2}}{b_{1}}\right) x
$$

The equation of line $B A$ is

$$
y-a_{2}=\frac{b_{2}-a_{2}}{b_{1}-a_{1}}\left(x-a_{1}\right)
$$

The lines are perpendicular if the product of their slopes is -1 :

$$
\frac{b_{2}}{b_{1}}\left(\frac{b_{2}-a_{2}}{b_{1}-a_{1}}\right)=-1
$$

So $b_{2}\left(b_{2}-a_{2}\right)=-b_{1}\left(b_{1}-a_{1}\right)$.

Thus, our thesis equation is:

$$
t:=b_{2}\left(b_{2}-a_{2}\right)+b_{1}\left(b_{1}-a_{1}\right)=0
$$

## Main Idea

We have the following polynomials equations in the variables $a_{1}, a_{2}, b_{1}, b_{2}, s$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
h_{1} & :=a_{1}^{2}+a_{2}^{2}-4 r^{2}=0 \\
h_{2} & :=\left(2 b_{1}-a_{1}\right)^{2}+\left(2 b_{2}-a_{2}\right)^{2}-4 r^{2}=0 \\
t & :=b_{2}\left(b_{2}-a_{2}\right)+b_{1}\left(b_{1}-a_{1}\right)=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

To prove the theorem, it is enough to show that the values of $a_{1}, a_{2}, b_{1}, b_{2}, s$ which make $h_{1}=h_{2}=0$ also make $t=0$. That is the points which make the hypothesis polynomials vanish also make the thesis polynomial vanish.

Set $H$ to be the "hypotheses ideal," $H=\left\langle h_{1}, h_{2}\right\rangle$.
Set $T$ to be the "thesis ideal," $T=\langle t\rangle$.
We must show $V\left(h_{1}, h_{2}\right) \subseteq V(t)$, or equivalently $I(V(H)) \supseteq I(V(T))$.
That is $\sqrt{T} \subseteq \sqrt{H}$.

It is enough to show that the generators of $T$ (for this example, $t$ ) are elements of $\sqrt{H}$.

For this example, it happens to turn out that $t \in H \subseteq \sqrt{H}$.

We may use a computer algebra system, such as CoCoA to determine this. The code (with output) looks like:

Use $\mathrm{R}::=\mathrm{Q}[\mathrm{a}[1 . .2], \mathrm{b}[1 . .2], \mathrm{r}]$;
$\mathrm{I}:=\operatorname{Ideal}\left(\mathrm{a}[1]^{\wedge} 2+\mathrm{a}[2]^{\wedge} 2-4 \mathrm{r}^{\wedge} 2,(2 \mathrm{~b}[1]-\mathrm{a}[1])^{\wedge} 2+(2 \mathrm{~b}[2]-\mathrm{a}[2])^{\wedge} 2-4 \mathrm{r}^{\wedge} 2\right) ;$
$\mathrm{T}:=\mathrm{b}[1](\mathrm{b}[1]-\mathrm{a}[1])+\mathrm{b}[2](\mathrm{b}[2]-\mathrm{a}[2])$;
NFsAreZero([T],I);
TRUE
Hence the theorem is true.

## Degenerate Cases

The previous example was very nice in that the degenerate situation did not hinder the algebra. However, this is not always the case.

Example: Theorem: The diagonals of a parallelogram bisect each other.
Let $A, B, C, D$ be the vertices of the parallelogram, and $N$ be the point of intersection of the diagonals.
We must prove $A N=D N$ and $B N=C N$.

Automatic Proof: Introduce a coordinate system with

$$
A=(0,0), B=\left(u_{1}, 0\right), C=\left(u_{2}, u_{3}\right)
$$

Inherent in this setup, we need $u_{1} \neq 0$ and $u_{3} \neq 0$.
Let $D=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$. To require that we indeed have a parallelogram, we need:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \overline{A B} \| \overline{C D}: \quad 0=\frac{x_{2}-u_{3}}{x_{1}-u_{2}} \\
& \overline{A C} \| \overline{B D}: \frac{u_{3}}{u_{2}}=\frac{x_{2}}{x_{1}-u_{1}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Clear denominators to get the hypothesis equations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
h_{1} & :=x_{2}-u_{3}=0 \\
h_{2} & :=\left(x_{1}-u_{1}\right) u_{3}-x_{2} u_{2}=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now for $N=\left(x_{3}, x_{4}\right)$. It must satisfy

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A, N, D \text { are collinear : } \quad \frac{x_{4}}{x_{3}}=\frac{u_{3}}{x_{1}} \\
& B, N, C \text { are collinear : } \frac{x_{4}}{x_{3}-u_{1}}=\frac{u_{3}}{u_{2}-u_{1}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Clear denominators to get the hypothesis equations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
h_{3} & :=x_{4} x_{1}-x_{3} u_{3}=0 \\
h_{4} & :=x_{4}\left(u_{2}-u_{1}\right)-\left(x_{3}-u_{1}\right) u_{3}=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

To create the thesis polynomials, we use the distance formula, then square each side.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A N=N D: \quad x_{3}^{2}+x_{4}^{2}=\left(x_{3}-x_{1}\right)^{2}+\left(x_{4}-x_{2}\right)^{2} \\
& B N=N C:\left(x_{3}-u_{1}\right)^{2}+x_{4}^{2}=\left(x_{3}-u_{2}\right)^{2}+\left(x_{4}-u_{3}\right)^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Cancel like terms, then write the thesis equations as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& t_{1}:=x_{1}^{2}-2 x_{1} x_{3}-2 x_{4} x_{2}+x_{2}^{2}=0 \\
& t_{2}:=2 x_{3} u_{1}-2 x_{3} u_{2}-2 x_{4} u_{3}-u_{1}^{2}+u_{2}^{2}+u_{3}^{2}=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Again, we create the "hypothesis ideal" $H=\left\langle h_{1}, h_{2}, h_{3}, h_{4}\right\rangle$ in the polynomial $\operatorname{ring} \mathbb{R}\left[u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}, x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right]$.

We must show $t_{1}, t_{2} \in \sqrt{H}$.

If we run to a computer algebra system (like CoCoA ) and do some computations which involve Gröbner bases, we will find the inclusion is false.

Why? The variety $V=V\left(h_{1}, h_{2}, h_{3}, h_{4}\right)$ is reducible, that is it is the union of other affine varieties.

With the use of Gröbner bases computations, it turns out that

$$
V=V^{\prime} \cup U_{1} \cup U_{2} \cup U_{3}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
V^{\prime} & =V\left(x_{1}-u_{1}-u_{2}, x_{2}-u_{3}, x_{3}-\frac{u_{1}+u_{2}}{2}, x_{4}-\frac{u_{3}}{2}\right) \\
U_{1} & =V\left(x_{2}, x_{4}, u_{3}\right) \\
U_{2} & =V\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, u_{1}-u_{2}, u_{3}\right) \\
U_{3} & =V\left(x_{1}-u_{2}, x_{2}-u_{3}, x_{3} u_{3}-x_{4} u_{2}, u_{1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Notice that on $U_{1}, U_{2}, U_{3}$, we have $u_{1}=0$ or $u_{3}=0$, which were the degenerate cases. So we may restrict to $V^{\prime}$. Using our computer algebra system, we conclude $t_{1}, t_{2} \in I\left(V^{\prime}\right)$, thus proving the theorem.

## The Process of Automatic Proofs

1. Translate the hypotheses into the vanishing of a set of polynomials, $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{n} \in \mathbb{R}\left[u_{1}, \ldots, u_{m}, x_{1}, \ldots x_{n}\right]$, with $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{m}$ being the parameters of the geometric problem (and the variables $x_{i}$ depend upon the $u_{j}$ 's.
2. Translate the conclusion into the vanishing of a set of polynomials, $t_{j}, j=$ $1, \ldots, s$.
3. Compare $V\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{s}\right)$ and $V\left(h_{1}, \ldots, h_{n}\right)$, that is $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{s}$ and $\sqrt{H}$, where $H=\left\langle h_{1}, \ldots, h_{n}\right\rangle$.
(a) We say a conclusion $t$ follows strictly from the hypotheses if $t \in \sqrt{H}$.
(b) We say a conclusion $t$ follows generically from the hypotheses if $t \in$ $I\left(V^{\prime}\right)$, where $V^{\prime}$ is the union of irreducible components of $V\left(h_{1}, \ldots, h_{n}\right)$ on which the $u_{i}$ are algebraically independent.

Proposition: $g$ follows generically from $h_{1}, \ldots h_{n}$ when there is some nonzero polynomial $c\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{m}\right) \in \mathbb{R}\left[u_{1}, \ldots, u_{m}\right]$ such that $c \cdot g \in \sqrt{H}$.

Note: There is an algorithm to find such a polynomial $c$.

## References

[1] Cox, Little, O'Shea, Ideals, Varieties, and Algorithms, Second Edition,Undergraduate Texts in Mathematics, Springer, 1997.
[2] Bazzotti, Dalzotto, Robbiano, Remarks on Geometric Theorem Proving, Proceedings of the CoCoA Conference, Kingston, Ontario, 2001.
[3] Recio, Vélez-Melón, Automatic Discovery of Theorems in Elementary Geometry, Proceedings of the CoCoA Conference, Kingston, Ontario, 2001.
[4] Roozemond, $2 J 008$ Bachelorproject: Automatic Geometric Theorem Proving, Eindhoven University of Technology, 2003
[5] Giovini, Niesi, Capani, http://cocoa.dima.unige.it

