# PENCILS OF QUADRICS: OLD AND NEW 

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Two-dimensional linear spaces of symmetric matrices are classified by Segre symbols. After reviewing known facts from linear algebra and projective geometry, we address new questions motivated by algebraic statistics and optimization. We compute the reciprocal curve and the maximum likelihood degrees, and we study strata of pencils in the Grassmannian.

## 1. Introduction

A pencil of quadrics is a two-dimensional linear subspace $\mathcal{L}$ in the space $\mathbb{S}^{n}$ of (real or complex) symmetric $n \times n$ matrices. It is a point in the Grassmannian $\operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{n}\right)$, and it specifies a line $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}$ in the projective space $\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{S}^{n}\right) \simeq \mathbb{P}^{\binom{n+1}{2}-1}$. The group $\operatorname{GL}(n)$ acts on $\mathbb{S}^{n}$ by congruence and this induces an action on $\operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{n}\right)$. We say that two pencils are isomorphic if they lie in the same GL( $n$ )-orbit.

Fix a pencil $\mathcal{L}$ with basis $\{A, B\}$. The determinant $\operatorname{det}(\mathcal{L})=\operatorname{det}(\lambda A+\mu B)$ is well-defined up to the action of GL(2) by changing basis in $\mathcal{L}$. The zeros of this binary form are a multiset of size $n$ in the line $\mathbb{P}^{1}$, well-defined up to isomorphism of $\mathbb{P}^{1}$. We exclude pencils $\mathcal{L}$ that are singular, meaning that $\operatorname{det}(\mathcal{L})=0$. The singular pencils form a subvariety $\operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{n}\right)^{\text {sing }}$ in the Grassmannian. We are interested in a natural stratification of the open set of all regular pencils:

$$
\operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{n}\right)^{\mathrm{reg}}=\operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{n}\right) \backslash \operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{n}\right)^{\mathrm{sing}}
$$

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Each stratum is indexed by a Segre symbol $\sigma$. This is a multiset of partitions whose parts add up to $n$ in total. One exception: the singleton $[(1,1, \ldots, 1)]$ is not a Segre symbol. The number $S(n)$ of Segre symbols was already of interest to Arthur Cayley in 1855. In [2, p. 316], he derived the generating function

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} S(n) x^{n}=\prod_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{\left(1-x^{k}\right)^{P(k)}}-\frac{1}{1-x}=2 x^{2}+5 x^{3}+13 x^{4}+26 x^{5}+57 x^{6}+110 x^{7}+\cdots
$$

where $P(k)$ is the number of partitions of the integer $k$. The two Segre symbols for $n=2$ are [1,1] and [2]. For $n=3$ and $n=4$ they are shown in Figure 1 .

The Segre symbol $\sigma=\sigma(\mathcal{L})$ of a given pencil $\mathcal{L}$ can be computed as follows. Pick a basis $\{A, B\}$ of $\mathcal{L}$, where $B$ is invertible, and find the Jordan canonical form of $A B^{-1}$. Each eigenvalue of $A B^{-1}$ determines a partition, according to the sizes of its Jordan blocks. Then $\sigma$ is the associated multiset of partitions. It turns out that $\sigma$ does not depend on the choice of basis $\{A, B\}$. For the relevant background in linear algebra see [4, 13, 14] and Section 2 below.

The role of Segre symbols in projective geometry can be stated as follows.
Theorem 1.1 (Weierstrass-Segre). Two pencils of quadrics in $\mathbb{S}^{n}$ are isomorphic if and only if their Segre symbols agree and their determinants define the same multiset of $n$ points on the projective line $\mathbb{P}^{1}$, up to isomorphism of $\mathbb{P}^{1}$.

Example $1.2(n=2)$. All pencils $\mathcal{L}$ are regular. There are two GL(2)-orbits, given by the rank of a matrix $X$ that spans $\mathcal{L}^{\perp}=\left\{X \in \mathbb{S}^{2}: \operatorname{trace}(A X)=\operatorname{trace}(B X)=\right.$ $0\}$. If $X$ has rank 2 then $\operatorname{det}(\mathcal{L})$ has two distinct roots in $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ and the Segre symbol is $\sigma(\mathcal{L})=[1,1]$. If $X$ has rank 1 then it is a double root in $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ and $\sigma(\mathcal{L})=[2]$.

We learned about Theorem 1.1 from an unpublished note by Pieter Belmans, titled Segre symbols, which credits the 1883 PhD thesis of Corrado Segre. It appears in the textbooks on algebraic geometry by Dolgachev [6, §8.6.1] and Hodge-Pedoe [9, §XIII.10]. The idea goes back to at least the 1850s, in works of Cayley [2] and Sylvester [12]. One aim of this article is to revisit this history.

We begin in Section 2 with a linear algebra perspective on Theorem 1.1, with focus on normal forms for pencils. We denote by $\mathcal{L}^{-1}$ the set of the inverses of all invertible matrices in $\mathcal{L}$. Since we exclude singular pencils, this set is nonempty. Its closure in $\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{S}^{n}\right)$ is a projective curve, called the reciprocal curve and denoted $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$. In Section 3 we study the reciprocal curve $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$ of a pencil $\mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{n}\right)^{\text {reg }}$. This curve is parametrized by the inverses of all invertible matrices in $\mathcal{L}$. We prove that $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$ is a rational normal curve. We express its degree in terms of the Segre symbol $\sigma(\mathcal{L})$, and we determine its prime ideal.

In Section 4 we turn to maximum likelihood estimation for Gaussians. A linear Gaussian model is a set of multivariate Gaussian probability distributions
whose covariance or concentration matrices are linear combinations of some fixed symmetric matrices. Hence, when restricting to two-dimensional models, a pencil $\mathcal{L}$ plays two different roles in statistics, depending on whether it lives in the space of concentration matrices (as in [11]) or in the space of covariance matrices (as in [3]). This yields two numerical invariants, the ML degree $\operatorname{mld}(\mathcal{L})$ and the reciprocal ML degree $\operatorname{rmld}(\mathcal{L})$. We compute these in Theorem 4.2 .

In Section 5 we study the constructible set defined by a fixed Segre symbol:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Gr}_{\sigma}=\left\{\mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{n}\right)^{\mathrm{reg}}: \sigma(\mathcal{L})=\sigma\right\} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Its closure $\overline{\mathrm{Gr}}_{\sigma}$ is a variety. We study these varieties and their poset of inclusions, seen in Figure 1 . This extends the stratification of $\operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{R}^{n}\right)$ by matroids, see [7]. Indeed, if $\mathcal{L}$ consists of diagonal matrices then the Segre symbol $\sigma(\mathcal{L})$ specifies the rank 2 matroid of $\mathcal{L}$, up to permuting the ground set $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$.

Example $1.3(n=3)$. There are five strata $\mathrm{Gr}_{\sigma}$ in the $\operatorname{Grassmannian~} \operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{3}\right)$ :

| symbol | codim | degrees | $P$ | $Q$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $[1,1,1]$ | 0 | $(2,2,3)$ | $a x^{2}+b y^{2}+c z^{2}$ | $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}$ | variety in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ |
| $[2,1]$ | 1 | $(2,1,2)$ | $2 a x y+y^{2}+b z^{2}$ | $2 x y+z^{2}$ | one double point, two others |
| $[3]$ | 2 | $(2,0,1)$ | $2 a x z+a y^{2}+2 y z$ | $2 x z+y^{2}$ | one triple point, one other |
| $[(1,1), 1]$ | 2 | $(1,1,1)$ | $a x^{2}+a y^{2}+b z^{2}$ | $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}$ | two double points |
| $[(2,1)]$ | 3 | $(1,0,0)$ | $2 a x y+y^{2}+a z^{2}$ | $2 x y+z^{2}$ | quadruple point |

For each Segre symbol $\sigma$, we display $\operatorname{codim}\left(\mathrm{Gr}_{\sigma}\right)$, the triple of degrees $\left(\operatorname{deg}\left(\mathcal{L}^{-1}\right), \operatorname{mld}(\mathcal{L}), \operatorname{rmld}(\mathcal{L})\right)$, the basis $\{P, Q\}$ from Section 2 , and its variety in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$. Here, $x, y, z$ are coordinates on $\mathbb{P}^{2}$, and $a, b, c$ are distinct nonzero reals. This accounts for all regular pencils. A pencil is singular if $P$ and $Q$ share a linear factor. One such $\mathcal{L}$ is spanned by $x y$ and $x z$. This defines a line and a point in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$. We conclude that $\operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{3}\right)^{\text {sing }}$ is an irreducible variety of dimension 4.

## 2. Canonical Representatives

We identify symmetric $n \times n$ matrices $A$ with quadratic forms $\mathbf{x} A \mathbf{x}^{T}$ in unknowns $\mathbf{x}=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$. We fix the field to be $\mathbb{C}$. The $\binom{n+1}{2}$-dimensional vector space $\mathbb{S}^{n}$ is equipped with the trace inner product $(A, B) \mapsto \operatorname{trace}(A B)$. The group $\mathrm{GL}(n)$ acts on quadratic forms by linear changes of coordinates, via $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{x} g$. This corresponds to the action of GL( $n$ ) on symmetric matrices by congruence:

$$
\operatorname{GL}(n) \times \mathbb{S}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{n},(g, A) \mapsto g A g^{T}
$$

Let $\mathcal{L}=\mathbb{C}\{A, B\}$ be a regular pencil in $\operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{n}\right)$, with $\operatorname{det}(B) \neq 0$. The polynomial ring $\mathbb{C}[\lambda]$ in one variable $\lambda$ is a principal ideal domain. The cokernel of
the matrix $A-\lambda B$ is a module over this PID. Consider its elementary divisors

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\lambda-\alpha_{1}\right)^{e_{1}},\left(\lambda-\alpha_{2}\right)^{e_{2}}, \ldots,\left(\lambda-\alpha_{s}\right)^{e_{s}} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{s}$ are positive integers whose sum equals $n$. The list (2) is unordered and its product is $\operatorname{det}(\mathcal{L})= \pm \operatorname{det}(A-\lambda B)$. The complex numbers $\alpha_{i}$ are the eigenvalues of the pair $(A, B)$. They form a multiset of cardinality $n$ in $\mathbb{P}^{1}$.

Suppose there are $r$ distinct eigenvalues $\alpha_{i}$. We have $r \leq s \leq n$. The exponents $e_{i}$ corresponding to one fixed eigenvalue form a partition. This gives a multiset of $r$ partitions, with $s$ parts in total, where the sum of all parts is $n$. This multiset of partitions is the Segre symbol $\sigma=\sigma(\mathcal{L})$. It is thus visible in (2). We now paraphrase Theorem 1.1 using the elementary divisors of the matrix $A-\lambda B$.

Corollary 2.1. Consider two quadrics $\mathbf{x} A \mathbf{x}^{T}$ and $\mathbf{x} B \mathbf{x}^{T}$ with $\operatorname{det}(B) \neq 0$. There exists a change of coordinates $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{x} g$ which transforms them to $\mathbf{x} C \mathbf{x}^{T}$ and $\mathbf{x} D \mathbf{x}^{T}$ if and only if the matrices $A-\lambda B$ and $C-\lambda D$ have the same elementary divisors.

Proof. For a textbook proof of this classical fact see [9, Theorem 1, p. 278].
Corollary 2.1 is used to construct a canonical form for pencils. For $e \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$, we define a pair of symmetric $e \times e$ matrices by filling their antidiagonals:

$$
P_{e}(\alpha)=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \alpha  \tag{3}\\
0 & 0 & \cdots & \alpha & 1 \\
\vdots & \vdots & . & \therefore & \vdots \\
0 & \alpha & 1 & \vdots & 0 \\
\alpha & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad Q_{e}=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & \therefore & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

The $e \times e$ matrix $P_{e}(\alpha)-\lambda Q_{e}$ has only one elementary divisor, namely $(\lambda-\alpha)^{e}$.
Let us now start with the list in (2). For each elementary divisor $\left(\lambda-\alpha_{i}\right)^{e_{i}}$ we form the $e_{i} \times e_{i}$ matrices in (3), and we aggregate these blocks as follows:

$$
P=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
P_{e_{1}}\left(\alpha_{1}\right) & 0 & \cdots & 0  \tag{4}\\
0 & P_{e_{2}}\left(\alpha_{2}\right) & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & P_{e_{s}}\left(\alpha_{s}\right)
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad Q=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
Q_{e_{1}} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & Q_{e_{2}} & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & Q_{e_{s}}
\end{array}\right)
$$

The matrices $A-\lambda B$ and $P-\lambda Q$ have the same elementary divisors. Hence, by Corollary 2.1, the pair $\left(\mathbf{x} A \mathbf{x}^{T}, \mathbf{x} B \mathbf{x}^{T}\right)$ is isomorphic to ( $\left.\mathbf{x} P \mathbf{x}^{T}, \mathbf{x} Q \mathbf{x}^{T}\right)$ under the action by $\operatorname{GL}(n)$. As in Example 1.3 , every regular pencil $\mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{n}\right)$ has a normal form $\mathbb{C}\{P, Q\}$, where the matrices $P$ and $Q$ are defined by the unordered list (2). Given any Segre symbol $\sigma$, its canonical representative is $\mathcal{L}=\mathbb{C}\{P, Q\}$ where $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{r}$ are parameters. In what follows, we often use index-free notation for unknowns, like $\mathbf{x}=(x, y, z)$ and $\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}\right)=(a, b, c)$.

Example $2.2(n=5)$. Let $\sigma=[(2,1), 2]$. The list of elementary divisors equals

$$
(\lambda-a)^{2},(\lambda-a),(\lambda-b)^{2}
$$

Our canonical representative (4) for this class of pencils $\mathcal{L}$ is the matrix pair

$$
P=\left(\begin{array}{lllll}
0 & a & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
a & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & a & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & b \\
0 & 0 & 0 & b & 1
\end{array}\right) \text { and } Q=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

The quadrics $P=2 a x y+y^{2}+a z^{2}+2 b u v+v^{2}$ and $Q=2 x y+z^{2}+2 u v$ define a degenerate del Pezzo surface of degree four in $\mathbb{P}^{4}$. This surface has two singular points, $(0: 0: 0: 1: 0)$ and $(1: 0: 0: 0: 0)$; their multiplicities are one and three.

Remark 2.3. To appreciate Theorem 1.1 and Corollary 2.1, it helps to distinguish the two geometric figures associated with a pencil of quadrics, and how the groups GL(2) and GL $(n)$ act on these. First, there is the configuration of $n$ points in $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ defined by $\operatorname{det}(\mathcal{L})$. This configuration undergoes projective transformations via GL(2) but it is left invariant by GL(n). Second, there is the codimension 2 variety in $\mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ defined by the intersection of the two quadrics in $\mathcal{L}$. This variety undergoes projective transformations via GL( $n$ ) but it is left invariant by GL(2). Hence, combining Theorem 1.1 and Corollary 2.1, we want these two geometric figures to be invariant when looking at isomorphic pencils, and this is possible by acting on pencils with the two groups GL(2) and GL( $n$ ).

In this section, pencils $\mathcal{L}=\mathbb{C}\{A, B\}$ are studied by linear algebra over a PID. We use the relationship between elementary divisors and invariant factors. One can compute these with the Smith normal form algorithm over $\mathbb{C}[\lambda]$. We apply this to a specific torsion module, namely the cokernel of our matrix $A-\lambda B$.

Fix $n$ and a Segre symbol $\sigma=\left[\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}\right]$, where each entry is now a weakly decreasing vector $\sigma_{i}=\left(\sigma_{i 1}, \sigma_{i 2}, \ldots, \sigma_{i n}\right)$ of nonnegative integers. With this convention, the Segre symbol $\sigma=\left[\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}\right]$ in Example 2.2, with $n=5, s=3, r=2$, has $\sigma_{1}=(2,1,0)$ and $\sigma_{2}=(2,0,0)$. Write $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{r} \in \mathbb{C}$ for the distinct roots of $\operatorname{det}(A-\lambda B)$. Then the elementary divisors are $\left(\lambda-\alpha_{i}\right)^{\sigma_{i j}}$ for $i=1, \ldots, r$ and $j=1, \ldots, n$. Only $s$ of these are different from 1 . The invariant factors are

$$
d_{j}:=\prod_{i=1}^{r}\left(\lambda-\alpha_{i}\right)^{\sigma_{i j}} \quad \text { for } j=1, \ldots, n
$$

Note that $d_{n}\left|d_{n-1}\right| \cdots\left|d_{2}\right| d_{1}$. The number of nontrivial invariant factors is the maximum number of parts among the $r$ partitions $\sigma_{i}$. For instance, in Example 2.2, the invariant factors are $d_{1}=(\lambda-a)^{2}(\lambda-b)^{2}, d_{2}=\lambda-a, d_{3}=d_{4}=d_{5}=1$.

The ideal of $k \times k$ minors of $A-\lambda B$ is generated by the greatest common divisor $D_{k}$ of these minors. The theory of modules over a PID tells us that

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{k}:=\prod_{j=1}^{k} d_{n+1-j}=\prod_{i=1}^{r}\left(\lambda-\alpha_{i}\right)^{\sigma_{i, n-k+1}+\cdots+\sigma_{i, n-1}+\sigma_{i, n}} . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

The Segre symbol of a pencil $\mathcal{L}=\mathbb{C}\{A, B\}$ is determined by the ideal of $k \times k$ minors of $A-\lambda B$ for $k=1, \ldots, n$. In practice, we use the Smith normal form of $A-\lambda B$. In the Introduction we proposed a different method, namely the Jordan canonical form of $A B^{-1}$. This computation uses only linear algebra over $\mathbb{C}$, unlike the Smith normal form. To see that the Jordan canonical form of $A B^{-1}$ reveals the Segre symbol, consider the transformation from $(A, B)$ to $(P, Q)$ in Corollary 2.1. This preserves the conjugacy class of $A B^{-1}$. Therefore, $A B^{-1}$ and $P Q^{-1}$ have the same Jordan canonical form. We see in (4) that $Q$ is a permutation matrix, and hence so is $Q^{-1}$. Furthermore, $P$ is already in Jordan canonical form, after permuting rows and columns, and $\sigma$ is clearly visible in $P$.

## 3. The Reciprocal Curve

For any regular pencil $\mathcal{L}$, we are interested in the reciprocal curve $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$. We write $\operatorname{deg}\left(\mathcal{L}^{-1}\right)$ for the degree of this curve in $\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{S}^{n}\right)$. In Example 1.3, we have $\operatorname{deg}\left(\mathcal{L}^{-1}\right)=2$ in three cases, so $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$ is a plane conic. In the other two cases, $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$ is a line in $\mathbb{P}^{5}$. Here are the homogeneous prime ideals of these curves:

| Segre symbol | Ideal of the reciprocal curve $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$ | mingens |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $[1,1,1]$ | $\left\langle x_{12}, x_{13}, x_{23},(c-b) x_{11} x_{22}+(a-c) x_{11} x_{33}+(b-a) x_{22} x_{33}\right\rangle$ | $(3,1)$ |
| $[2,1]$ | $\left\langle x_{13}, x_{22}, x_{23}, x_{12}^{2}+(c-a) x_{11} x_{33}-2 x_{12} x_{33}\right\rangle$ | $(3,1)$ |
| $[3]$ | $\left\langle x_{23}, x_{33}, x_{13}-2 x_{22}, x_{12}^{2}-x_{11} x_{22}\right\rangle$ | $(3,1)$ |
| $[(1,1), 1]$ | $\left\langle x_{12}, x_{13}, x_{23}, x_{11}-x_{22}\right\rangle$ | $(4,0)$ |
| $[(2,1)]$ | $\left\langle x_{13}, x_{22}, x_{23}, x_{12}-2 x_{33}\right\rangle$ | $(4,0)$ |

The column "mingens" gives the numbers of linear and quadratic generators.

Example 3.1 $(n=4)$. Two quadrics $P$ and $Q$ in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$ meet in a quartic curve. There
are 13 cases, one for each Segre symbol. Here, $x, y, z, u$ are coordinates on $\mathbb{P}^{3}$.

| symbol | codims | degrees | mingens | quadrics $P, Q$ | variety in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [1, 1, 1, 1] | 0,0,0 | $(3,3,5)$ | $(6,3)$ | $\begin{gathered} a x^{2}+b y^{2}+c z^{2}+d u^{2} \\ x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+u^{2} \end{gathered}$ | elliptic curve |
| [2, 1, 1] | 1,1,1 | $(3,2,4)$ | $(6,3)$ | $\begin{gathered} 2 a x y+y^{2}+c z^{2}+d u^{2} \\ 2 x y+z^{2}+u^{2} \end{gathered}$ | nodal curve |
| [(1,1), 1, 1] | 3,2,2 | $(2,2,3)$ | $(7,1)$ | $\begin{gathered} a\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)+c z^{2}+d u^{2} \\ x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+u^{2} \end{gathered}$ | two conics meet twice |
| $[3,1]$ | 2,2,2 | $(3,1,3)$ | $(6,3)$ | $\begin{gathered} 2 a x z+a y^{2}+2 y z+d u^{2} \\ 2 x z+y^{2}+u^{2} \end{gathered}$ | cuspidal curve |
| [2,2] | 2,2,2 | $(3,1,3)$ | $(6,3)$ | $\begin{gathered} 2 a x y+y^{2}+2 b z u+u^{2} \\ 2 x y+2 z u \end{gathered}$ | twisted cubic with secant |
| $[(2,1), 1]$ | 4,3,3 | $(2,1,2)$ | $(7,1)$ | $\begin{gathered} 2 a x y+y^{2}+a z^{2}+d u^{2} \\ 2 x y+z^{2}+u^{2} \end{gathered}$ | two tangent conics |
| [4] | 3,3,3 | $(3,0,2)$ | $(6,3)$ | $\begin{gathered} 2 a x u+2 a y z+2 y u+z^{2} \\ 2 x u+2 y z \end{gathered}$ | twisted cubic with tangent |
| [2, (1, 1) ] | 4,3,3 | $(2,1,2)$ | $(7,1)$ | $\begin{gathered} 2 a x y+y^{2}+c\left(z^{2}+u^{2}\right) \\ 2 x y+z^{2}+u^{2} \end{gathered}$ | conic meets two lines |
| [(3,1)] | 5,4,4 | $(2,0,1)$ | $(7,1)$ | $\begin{gathered} 2 a x z+a y^{2}+2 y z+a u^{2} \\ 2 x z+y^{2}+u^{2} \end{gathered}$ | conic and two lines concur |
| $[(1,1),(1,1)]$ | 6,4,4 | $(1,1,1)$ | $(8,0)$ | $\begin{gathered} a\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)+c\left(z^{2}+u^{2}\right) \\ x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+u^{2} \end{gathered}$ | quadrangle of lines |
| $[(1,1,1), 1]$ | 8,5,5 | (1,1,1) | $(8,0)$ | $\begin{gathered} a\left(x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}\right)+d u^{2} \\ x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+u^{2} \end{gathered}$ | double conic |
| $[(2,2)]$ | 7,5,5 | $(1,0,0)$ | $(8,0)$ | $\begin{gathered} 2 a x y+y^{2}+2 a z u+u^{2} \\ 2 x y+2 z u \end{gathered}$ | double line and two lines |
| [(2, 1, 1) ] | 9,6,6 | $(1,0,0)$ | $(8,0)$ | $\begin{gathered} 2 a x y+y^{2}+a\left(z^{2}+u^{2}\right) \\ 2 x y+z^{2}+u^{2} \end{gathered}$ | two double lines |

We see that $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \subset \mathbb{P}^{9}$ is either a line, a plane conic, or a twisted cubic curve. This is explained by the next theorem, which is our main result in Section 3 .

Theorem 3.2. Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a regular pencil in $\mathbb{S}^{n}$ with Segre symbol $\sigma=\left[\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}\right]$. Then $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$ is a rational normal curve of degree $d$ in $\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{S}^{n}\right)$, where $d=\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_{i 1}-1$ is one less than the sum of the first parts of the partitions in $\sigma$. The ideal of $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$ is generated by $\binom{n+1}{2}-d-1$ linear forms and $\binom{d}{2}$ quadrics in $\binom{n+1}{2}$ unknowns.

Proof. The curve $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$ is parametrized by $\binom{n+1}{2}$ rational functions in one unknown $\lambda$, namely the entries in the inverse of matrix $P-\lambda Q$ in Section 2. We scale each entry by $D_{n}= \pm \operatorname{det}(P-\lambda Q)$ to get a polynomial parametrization by the adjoint of $P-\lambda Q$. This is an $n \times n$ matrix whose entries are the $(n-1) \times(n-1)$ minors of $P-\lambda Q$. These are polynomials of degree $\leq n-1$ in $\lambda$, which are divisible by the invariant factor $D_{n-1}$. Note that $D_{n-1}$ has degree $\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=2}^{n} \sigma_{i j}$ in $\lambda$. Subtracting this from the expected degree $n-1$, we obtain $d=\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_{i 1}-1$. We remove the factor $D_{n-1}$ from each entry of the adjoint. The resulting matrix $\left(D_{n} / D_{n-1}\right) \cdot(P-\lambda Q)^{-1}$ also parametrizes $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$. The entries of that matrix are
polynomials in $\lambda$ of degree $\leq d$. As a key step, we will show that these span the $(d+1)$-dimensional space $\mathbb{C}[\lambda]_{\leq d}$ of all polynomials in $\lambda$ of degree $\leq d$.

The inverse of $P-\lambda Q$ is a block matrix, where the blocks are the inverses of the $e \times e$ matrices $P_{e}(\alpha)-\lambda Q_{e}$ in (3), one for each elementary divisor. A computation shows that the entry of $\left(P_{e}(\alpha)-\lambda Q_{e}\right)^{-1}$ in row $i$ and column $j$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
-(\lambda-\alpha)^{i+j-e-2} \quad \text { if } i+j \leq e+1 \quad \text { and } \quad 0 \quad \text { if } i+j \geq e+2 \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows that the distinct nonzero entries in the $n \times n$ matrix $(P-\lambda Q)^{-1}$ are

$$
\begin{equation*}
\pm\left(\lambda-\alpha_{i}\right)^{-k} \quad \text { where } 1 \leq k \leq \sigma_{i 1} \text { and } 1 \leq i \leq r . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

The common denominator of these $d+1=\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_{i 1}$ rational functions in $\lambda$ is equal to $D_{n} / D_{n-1}=\prod_{i=1}\left(\lambda-\alpha_{i}\right)^{\sigma_{i 1}}$. Multiplying by that common denominator, we obtain $d+1$ polynomials in $\lambda$ of degree $\leq d$. Lemma 3.3 below tells us that these polynomials are linearly independent. Hence they span $\mathbb{C}[\lambda]_{\leq d} \simeq \mathbb{C}^{d+1}$.

The proof of Theorem 3.2 now concludes as follows. By recording which entries of $(P-\lambda Q)^{-1}$ are zero, and which pairs of entries are equal, we obtain $\binom{n+1}{2}-d-1$ independent linear forms that vanish on $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$. We know that there exist linear forms $u_{i}$ in the matrix entries which evaluate to $\lambda^{i}$ for $i=0,1,2, \ldots, d$. The $\binom{d}{2}$ quadrics that vanish on $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$ are the $2 \times 2$ minors of the $2 \times d$ matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
u_{0} & u_{1} & u_{2} & \cdots & u_{d-1}  \tag{8}\\
u_{1} & u_{2} & u_{3} & \cdots & u_{d}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

We have thus constructed an isomorphism between our curve $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$ and the rational normal curve $\left\{\left(1: \lambda: \cdots: \lambda^{d}\right)\right\}$, whose prime ideal is given by (8).

Notice that the final part of the proof gives an algorithm for computing generators of the homogeneous prime ideal that defines the reciprocal curve.

Lemma 3.3. A finite set of distinct rational functions $\left(\lambda-\alpha_{j}\right)^{-s_{i j}}$, each a negative power of one of the expressions $\lambda-\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \lambda-\alpha_{r}$, is linearly independent.

Proof. We use induction on $r$. The base case is $r=1$. We claim that $(\lambda-$ $\alpha)^{-s_{1}}, \ldots,(\lambda-\alpha)^{-s_{n}}$ are linearly independent when $0<s_{1}<\cdots<s_{n}$. Suppose

$$
k_{1}(\lambda-\alpha)^{-s_{1}}+\cdots+k_{n}(\lambda-\alpha)^{-s_{n}}=0 \quad \text { for some } k_{1}, \ldots, k_{n} \in \mathbb{C}
$$

Clearing denominators, we obtain $k_{1}(\lambda-\alpha)^{s_{n}-s_{1}}+\cdots+k_{n}=0$. Setting $\lambda=\alpha$ we find $k_{n}=0$. Repeating this computation $n$ times, we conclude $k_{1}=k_{2}=\cdots=k_{n}=0$.

For the induction step from $r-1$ to $r$, we consider distinct negative powers

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
\left(\lambda-\alpha_{1}\right)^{-s_{1,1}}, & \left(\lambda-\alpha_{1}\right)^{-s_{1,2}}, & \ldots, & \left(\lambda-\alpha_{1}\right)^{-s_{1, n_{1}}}  \tag{9}\\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
\left(\lambda-\alpha_{r}\right)^{-s_{r, 1}}, & \left(\lambda-\alpha_{r}\right)^{-s_{r, 2}}, & \ldots, & \left(\lambda-\alpha_{r}\right)^{-s_{r, n}}
\end{array}
$$

where $0 \leq s_{i, j}<s_{i, j+1}$ for $i=1, \ldots, r$ and $j=1, \ldots, n_{i}$. Consider a linear combination of (9) with coefficients $k_{1,1}, \ldots, k_{r, n_{r}}$. Multiplying by $\left(\lambda-\alpha_{r}\right)^{s_{r, n_{r}}}$ and setting $\lambda=\alpha_{r}$, we find $k_{r, n_{r}}=0$. Repeating with $\left(\lambda-\alpha_{r}\right)^{s_{r, i}}$ for $i=n_{r}-1, n_{r}-2, \ldots, 1$, we get $k_{r, 1}=\cdots=k_{r, n_{r}}=0$. By the induction hypothesis, the first $r-1$ rows of 9 ) are linearly independent. This proves that all $k_{i, j}$ are zero. Lemma 3.3 follows.

The last paragraph in the proof of Theorem 3.2 gives an algorithm for computing generators of the ideal of $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$. We show this for our running example.

Example 3.4. Let $\sigma=[(2,1), 2]$ as in Example 2.2. We have $d=\sigma_{11}+\sigma_{21}-1=$ 3 , so $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$ is a twisted cubic curve in $\mathbb{P}^{14}$. The inverse of $P-\lambda Q$ satisfies the $\binom{6}{2}-3-1=11$ linear forms $x_{13}, x_{14}, x_{15}, x_{22}, x_{23}, x_{24}, x_{25}, x_{34}, x_{35}, x_{55}, x_{12}-x_{33}$. The quadratic ideal generators are $u_{0} u_{2}-u_{1}^{2}, u_{0} u_{3}-u_{1} u_{2}$ and $u_{1} u_{3}-u_{2}^{2}$, where

$$
\begin{array}{llc}
u_{0}= & (a-b) x_{11}-2 x_{12}+(a-b) x_{44}+2 x_{45}, \\
u_{1} & = & \left(a^{2}-a b\right) x_{11}-(a+b) x_{12}+\left(a b-b^{2}\right) x_{44}+(a+b) x_{45}, \\
u_{2} & = & \left(a^{3}-a^{2} b\right) x_{11}-2 a b x_{12}+\left(a b^{2}-b^{3}\right) x_{44}+2 a b x_{45}, \\
u_{3} & = & \left(a^{4}-a^{3} b\right) x_{11}+\left(a^{3}-3 a^{2} b\right) x_{12}+\left(a b^{3}-b^{4}\right) x_{44}+\left(3 a b^{2}-b^{3}\right) x_{45} .
\end{array}
$$

Note that $x_{11}=-(\lambda-a)^{-2}, x_{12}=(\lambda-a)^{-1}, x_{44}=-(\lambda-b)^{-2}, x_{45}=(\lambda-b)^{-1}$.

## 4. Maximum Likelihood Degrees

Let $\mathbb{S}_{>0}^{n}$ denote the open convex cone of positive definite real symmetric $n \times n$ matrices. For any fixed $S \in \mathbb{S}^{n}$, we consider the following log-likelihood function:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ell_{S}: \mathbb{S}_{\succ 0}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, M \mapsto \log (\operatorname{det}(M))-\operatorname{trace}(S M) \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

We seek to compute the critical points of $\ell_{S}$ restricted to a smooth subvariety of $\mathbb{S}^{n}$. Here, by a critical point we mean a nonsingular matrix $M$ in the subvariety whose normal space contains the gradient vector of $\ell_{S}$ at $M$. This is an algebraic problem because the $\binom{n+1}{2}$ partial derivatives of $\ell_{S}$ are rational functions.

The determinant and the trace of a square matrix are invariant under conjugation. This implies the following identity for all invertible $n \times n$ matrices $g$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ell_{g^{-1} S\left(g^{-1}\right)^{T}}\left(g^{T} M g\right)=\log \left(\operatorname{det}\left(g^{T} M g\right)\right)-\operatorname{trace}\left(g^{-1} S M g\right)=\ell_{S}(M)+\text { const. } \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a linear subspace of $\mathbb{S}^{n}$, and fix a generic matrix $S \in \mathbb{S}^{n}$. The $M L$ degree $\operatorname{mld}(\mathcal{L})$ is the number of complex critical points of $\ell_{S}$ on $\mathcal{L}$. The reciprocal ML degree $\operatorname{rmld}(\mathcal{L})$ of $\mathcal{L}$ is the number of complex critical points of $\ell_{S}$ on $\mathcal{L}^{-1}$. Both ML degrees do not depend on the choice of $S$, as long as $S$ is generic. The ML degrees are invariant under the action of $\operatorname{GL}(n)$ by congruence on $\mathbb{S}^{n}$ :

Lemma 4.1. The ML degree and the reciprocal ML degree of a subspace $\mathcal{L} \subset$ $\mathbb{S}^{n}$ are determined by its congruence class. In particular, this holds for twodimensional subspaces $\mathcal{L}$, i.e. for pencils of quadrics.
Proof. Fix $g$ and $\mathcal{L}$. If the matrix $S$ is generic in $\mathbb{S}^{n}$ then so is $g^{-1} S\left(g^{-1}\right)^{T}$. The image of $\mathcal{L}$ under congruence by $g^{T}$ consists of all matrices $g^{T} M g$ where $M \in \mathcal{L}$. By 11 , the likelihood function of $S$ on $\mathcal{L}$ agrees with that of $g^{-1} S\left(g^{-1}\right)^{T}$ on $g^{T} \mathcal{L} g$, up to an additive constant. The two functions have the same number of critical points, so the subspaces $\mathcal{L}$ and $g^{T} \mathcal{L} g$ have the same ML degree. The same argument works if $\mathcal{L}$ is replaced by any nonlinear variety, such as $\mathcal{L}^{-1}$.

We now focus on pencils $(m=2)$, and we state our main result in Section 4 ,
Theorem 4.2. Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a pencil with Segre symbol $\sigma=\left[\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}\right]$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{mld}(\mathcal{L})=r-1 \text { and } \operatorname{rmld}(\mathcal{L})=\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_{i 1}+r-3=\operatorname{deg}\left(\mathcal{L}^{-1}\right)+\operatorname{mld}(\mathcal{L})-1 \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

For generic subspaces $\mathcal{L}$, with Segre symbol $\sigma=[1, \ldots, 1]$, this implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{mld}(\mathcal{L})=\operatorname{deg}\left(\mathcal{L}^{-1}\right)=n-1 \quad \text { and } \quad \operatorname{rmld}(\mathcal{L})=2 n-3 \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

The left formula in (13) appears in [11, Section 2.2]. The right formula in (13) is due to Coons, Marigliano and Ruddy [3]. We here generalize these results to arbitrary pencils $\mathcal{L}$. The proof of Theorem 4.2 appears at the end of this section.

The log-likelihood function (10) is important in statistics. The sample covariance matrix $S$ encodes data points in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. The matrix $M$ is the concentration matrix. Its inverse $M^{-1}$ is the covariance matrix. These represent Gaussian distributions on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. The subspace $\mathcal{L}$ encodes linear constraints, either on $M$ or on $M^{-1}$. For the former, we get the ML degree. For the latter, we get the reciprocal ML degree. These degrees measure the algebraic complexity of maximum likelihood estimation. In the language in [3, 10], $\operatorname{mld}(\mathcal{L})$ refers to the linear concentration model, while $\operatorname{rmld}(\mathcal{L})$ refers to the linear covariance model.

If $\mathcal{L}$ is a statistical model, then it contains a positive definite matrix. In symbols, $\mathcal{L} \cap \mathbb{S}_{>0}^{n} \neq \varnothing$. If this holds and $\operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{L})=2$ then $\mathcal{L}$ is called a d-pencil [15]. Thus, our numbers $\operatorname{mld}(\mathcal{L})$ and $\operatorname{rmld}(\mathcal{L})$ are interesting for statistics when $\mathcal{L}$ is a $d$-pencil. Here, we can take advantage of the following linear algebra fact.

Lemma 4.3. Every $d$-pencil $\mathcal{L}$ can be simultaneously diagonalized over $\mathbb{R}$. After a change of coordinates, $\mathcal{L}$ is spanned by the quadrics $\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} x_{i}^{2}$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2}$.

Proof. We assume $n \geq 3$. A pencil is a $d$-pencil if and only if it has no zeros in the real projective space $\mathbb{P}^{n-1}$. This is the Main Theorem in [15]. It was also proved by Calabi in [1]. The fact that pencils without real zeros in $\mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ can be diagonalized is [15, page 221, (PM)]. It is also Remark 2 in [1, page 846].

Suppose there are $r$ distinct elements in $\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\}$. Theorem 4.2 implies:
Corollary 4.4. If $\mathcal{L}$ is a $d$-pencil then $\operatorname{mld}(\mathcal{L})=\operatorname{deg}\left(\mathcal{L}^{-1}\right)=r-1$ and $\operatorname{rmld}(\mathcal{L})=$ $2 r-3$, where $\mathcal{L}$ has $r$ distinct eigenvalues. This holds for all subspaces $\mathcal{L}$ that represent statistical models, since such an $\mathcal{L}$ contains positive definite matrices.

The log-likelihood function for our $d$-pencil $\mathcal{L}$ can be written as follows:

$$
\ell_{S}(x, y)=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\log \left(a_{i} x+y\right)-s_{i}\left(a_{i} x+y\right)\right)
$$

Here $s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n} \in \mathbb{R}$ represent data. The MLE is the maximizer of $\ell_{S}(x, y)$ over the cone $\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: a_{i} x+y>0\right.$ for $\left.i=1, \ldots, n\right\}$. Corollary 4.4 says that $\ell_{S}(x, y)$ has $r-1$ critical points. One of them is the MLE. The reciprocal log-likelihood is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{\ell}_{S}(x, y)=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(-\log \left(a_{i} x+y\right)-\frac{s_{i}}{a_{i} x+y}\right) . \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

The invariant $\operatorname{rmld}(\mathcal{L})$ is the number of critical points $\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)$ of this function with $\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(a_{i} x^{*}+y^{*}\right) \neq 0$, provided $s=\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right)$ is generic in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. Corollary 4.4 states that $\tilde{\ell}_{S}(x, y)$ has $2 r-3$ complex critical points. One of them is the MLE.

The following is an extension of a conjecture stated by Coons et al. [3, §6].
Conjecture 4.5. Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a $d$-pencil with $r$ distinct eigenvalues. There exists $s=$ $\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ such that the function 14 has $2 r-3$ distinct real critical points.

We can prove this conjecture for small values of $n$ by explicit computation.
Example 4.6. Fix the pencil $\mathcal{L}$ with $n=r$ and $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=(1, \ldots, n)$. For $n \leq 7$ we found $s \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ such that the reciprocal log-likelihood function $\tilde{\ell}_{s}$ has $2 n-3$ distinct real critical points. For $n=7$ we can take $s=\left(-\frac{74}{39}, \frac{13}{47}, \frac{61}{40}, \frac{1}{7}, \frac{23}{18},-73,-\frac{27}{43}\right)$.

We now return to arbitrary Segre symbols $\sigma$. While non-diagonalizable pencils $\mathcal{L}$ do not arise in applied statistics, their likelihood geometry is interesting.

Proof of Theorem 4.2. By Lemma 4.1, we may assume that $\mathcal{L}$ is parametrized by $(x, y) \mapsto x P-y Q$ with $P$ and $Q$ as in (4). For generic $S \in \mathbb{S}^{n}$, we seek the number $\operatorname{mld}(\mathcal{L})$ of critical points in $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ of the following function in two variables:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ell_{S}(x, y)=\log (\operatorname{det}(x P-y Q))-\operatorname{trace}(S(x P-y Q)) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

After multiplying by $d=\prod_{i=1}^{r}\left(\alpha_{i} x-y\right)$, the two partial derivatives of $\ell_{S}(x, y)$ have the form $f(x, y)=\lambda_{S} d+C$ and $g(x, y)=\mu_{S} d+D$. Here $\lambda_{S}=-\operatorname{trace}(S P)$ and $\mu_{S}=\operatorname{trace}(S Q)$ are constants, and the following are binary forms of degree $r-1$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
C=\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sigma_{i j} \alpha_{i} \prod_{k=1, k \neq i}^{r}\left(\alpha_{k} x-y\right) \quad \text { and } \quad D=-\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sigma_{i j} \prod_{k=1, k \neq i}^{r}\left(\alpha_{k} x-y\right) . \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

The variety of critical points of $\ell_{S}$ in $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ is $V(f, g) \backslash V(d)$. We adapt the method introduced in [3] to enumerate this set. Let $F(x, y, z)$ and $G(x, y, z)$ denote the homogenizations of $f$ and $g$ with respect to $z$. Both $F$ and $G$ define curves of degree $r$ in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$. Since $F$ and $G$ do not share a common component, we can apply Bézout's Theorem to count their intersection points. This tells us that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{mld}(\mathcal{L})=r^{2}-I_{[0: 0: 1]}(F, G)-\sum_{q \in V(F, G, z)} I_{q}(F, G) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

The negated expressions are the intersection multiplicities of $F$ and $G$ at the origin and on the line at infinity. By computing these two quantities, we obtain

$$
\operatorname{mld}(\mathcal{L})=r^{2}-(r-1)^{2}-r=r-1
$$

The proof of the second formula in (12) is analogous but the details are more delicate. We present an outline. The log-likelihood function for $\mathcal{L}^{-1}$ equals

$$
\tilde{\ell}_{S}(x, y)=-\log \left(\prod_{i=1}^{r}\left(\alpha_{i} x-y\right)^{\sigma_{i 1}+\cdots+\sigma_{i n}}\right)-\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{\sigma_{i 1}} \tilde{s}_{i j} \frac{x^{j-1}}{\left(\alpha_{i} x-y\right)^{j}},
$$

where the $\tilde{s}_{i j}$ are linear combinations of the entries in the matrix $S$. This is obtained by replacing the matrix $x P-y Q$ in $\sqrt{15}$ with its inverse. We find

$$
\begin{gather*}
\tilde{\ell}_{S_{x}}=-\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\sigma_{i j} \alpha_{i}}{\alpha_{i} x-y}+\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{\sigma_{i 1}} \tilde{s}_{i j} \frac{(j-1) x^{j-2}\left(\alpha_{i} x-y\right)-j x^{j-1} \alpha_{i}}{\left(\alpha_{i} x-y\right)^{j+1}},  \tag{18}\\
\tilde{\ell}_{S_{y}}=\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\sigma_{i j}}{\alpha_{i} x-y}+\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{\sigma_{i 1}} \tilde{s}_{i j} \frac{j x^{j-1}}{\left(\alpha_{i} x-y\right)^{j+1}} .
\end{gather*}
$$

We claim that the number of common zeros of the two partial derivatives $\tilde{\ell}_{S_{x}}$ and $\tilde{\ell}_{S_{y}}$ in $\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash V(d)$ is equal to $\varphi+r-3$ where $\varphi=\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_{i 1}=\operatorname{deg}\left(\mathcal{L}^{-1}\right)+1$,

Clearing denominators in yields polynomials $-d^{\prime} C+U$ and $-d^{\prime} D+V$, where $d^{\prime}=\prod_{i=1}^{r}\left(\alpha_{i} x-y\right)^{\sigma_{i 1}}$, the binary forms $U, V$ have degree $\varphi+r-2$, and $C, D$ are precisely as in 16. Hence $\operatorname{deg}\left(d^{\prime}\right)=\varphi$ and $\operatorname{deg}(C)=\operatorname{deg}(D)=r-1$. As before, these are sums of binary forms in consecutive degrees. We use (17) to count their zeros in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$. We find $(\varphi+r-1)^{2}-(\varphi+r-2)^{2}-(\varphi+r)=\varphi+r-3 \quad \square$

Example $4.7(n=5)$. Let $\sigma=[(2,1), 2]$ as in Example 2.2. The ML degrees are $\operatorname{mld}(\mathcal{L})=1$ and $\operatorname{rmld}(\mathcal{L})=3$. Restricting the log-likelihood function to $\mathcal{L}$ gives $\ell_{S}=\log \left((a x-y)^{3}(b x-y)^{2}\right)+2 s_{12}(a x-y)+s_{22} x+s_{33}(a x-y)+2 s_{45}(b x-y)+s_{55} x$. Its two partial derivatives are rational functions in $x$ and $y$. Equating these to zero, we find that $\ell_{S}$ has a unique critical point $\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)$ in $\mathcal{L}$. Its coordinates are

$$
\begin{aligned}
x^{*} & =\left(4(a-b) s_{12}+5 s_{22}+2(a-b) s_{33}-6(b-a) s_{45}+5 s_{55}\right) / \Delta \\
y^{*} & =\left(4 a(a-b) s_{12}+(2 a+3 b) s_{22}+2 a(a-b) s_{33}+6 b(b-a) s_{45}+(2 a+3 b) s_{55}\right) / \Delta \\
\Delta & =\left(-s_{22}+2(a-b) s_{45}-s_{55}\right) \cdot\left(2(a-b) s_{12}+s_{22}+(a-b) s_{33}+s_{55}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The restriction of the log-likelihood function to the reciprocal variety $\mathcal{L}^{-1}$ is
$\tilde{\ell}_{S}(x, y)=-\log \left((a x-y)^{3}(b x-y)^{2}\right)-\frac{s_{11} x}{(a x-y)^{2}}+\frac{2 s_{12}}{a x-y}+\frac{s_{33}}{a x-y}-\frac{s_{44} x}{(b x-y)^{2}}+\frac{2 s_{45}}{b x-y}$.
The two partial derivatives have 3 zeros, expressible in radicals in $a, b, s_{11}, \ldots, s_{45}$.

## 5. Strata in the Grassmannian

We now define a partial order on the set Segre $_{n}$ of all Segre symbols for fixed $n$. If $\sigma$ and $\tau$ are in Segre ${ }_{n}$ then we say that $\sigma$ is above $\tau$ if $|\sigma|>|\tau|$ and $\tau$ is obtained from $\sigma$ by replacing two partitions $\sigma_{i}, \sigma_{j}$ by their sum, or if $|\sigma|=|\tau|$ and $\sigma$ and $\tau$ differ in precisely one partition, with index $i$, and $\tau_{i} \triangleleft \sigma_{i}$ in the dominance order on partitions. The partial order on Segre ${ }_{n}$ is the transitive closure of the relation "is above". The top element of our poset is $[1,1, \ldots, 1]$, and the bottom element is $[(2,1, \ldots, 1)]$. The Hasse diagrams for $n=3,4$ are shown in Figure 1 .


Figure 1: The posets of all Segre symbols for $n=3$ (left) and $n=4$ (right).

We wish to study the strata $\mathrm{Gr}_{\sigma}$ in (1). Recall that $\mathrm{Gr}_{\sigma}$ is the constructible subset of $\operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{n}\right)$ whose points are the pencils $\mathcal{L}$ with $\sigma(\mathcal{L})=\sigma$. Its closure $\overline{\operatorname{Gr}}_{\sigma}$ is a subvariety of the Grassmannian $\operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{n}\right)$. Its defining equations can be written either in the $\frac{1}{8}(n+2)(n+1) n(n-1)$ Plücker coordinates, or in the $(n+1) n$ Stiefel coordinates which are the matrix entries in a basis $\{A, B\}$ of $\mathcal{L}$.

Consider the related Jordan stratification. For each $\sigma \in \operatorname{Segre}_{n}$, the Jordan stratum $\mathrm{Jo}_{\sigma}$ is the set of $n \times n$ matrices whose Jordan canonical form has pat-
tern $\sigma$. Its closure $\overline{\mathrm{Jo}}_{\sigma}$ is an affine variety in $\mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$. Its defining prime ideal consists of homogeneous polynomials in the entries of an $n \times n$ matrix $X=\left(x_{i j}\right)$.

Theorem 5.1. Our poset models inclusions of both Grassmann strata and Jordan strata. That is, $\sigma \geq \tau$ in Segre ${ }_{n}$ if and only if $\overline{\operatorname{Gr}}_{\sigma} \supseteq \overline{\operatorname{Gr}}_{\tau}$ if and only if $\overline{\mathrm{Jo}}_{\sigma} \supseteq \overline{\mathrm{Jo}}_{\tau}$.

The codimensions of the Jordan strata generally differ from those of the Grassmann strata. While the $\overline{\mathrm{Jo}}_{\sigma}$ are familiar from linear algebra [4], the $\overline{\mathrm{Gr}}_{\sigma}$ capture the geometry of the varieties listed on the right in Examples 1.3 and 3.1 . The codimensions are $\geq 1$, unless $\sigma=[1, \ldots, 1]$ where both strata are dense.

Example $5.2(n=3)$. We computed the prime ideals for the Jordan strata in $\mathbb{C}^{3 \times 3}$, for the Plücker strata in $\operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{3}\right) \subset \mathbb{P}^{14}$, and for the Stiefel strata in $\mathbb{P}^{5} \times \mathbb{P}^{5}$ :

| symbol | Jordan | Plücker | Stiefel | codims | degrees |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $[2,1]$ | $6_{1}$ | $6_{1}$ | $(6,6)_{1}$ | $1,1,1$ | $6,6,[6,6]$ |
| $[3]$ | $2_{1}, 3_{1}$ | $4_{21}$ | $(2,4)_{1},(3,3)_{1},(4,2)_{1}$ | $2,2,2$ | $6,99,[6,15,6]$ |
| $[(1,1), 1]$ | $3_{20}$ | $3_{20}$ | $(3,3)_{20}$ | $3,2,2$ | $6,36,[4,4,4]$ |
| $[(2,1)]$ | $2_{9}$ | $2_{6}$ | $(2,2)_{6}$ | $4,3,3$ | $6,56,[4,12,12,4]$ |

The sextic in the first row is the discriminant of the characteristic polynomial of $X$. We shall explain the last row, indexed by $\sigma=[(2,1)]$. The Jordan stratum $\mathrm{Jo}_{\sigma}$ has codimension 4 and degree 6 . Its ideal is generated by nine quadrics, like $x_{11} x_{31}-2 x_{22} x_{31}+3 x_{21} x_{32}+x_{31} x_{33}$. Under the substitution $X=A B^{-1}$, these transform into six quadrics in Plücker coordinates, like $p_{04} p_{14}+p_{12} p_{14}-p_{03} p_{15}-$ $p_{12} p_{23}-3 p_{02} p_{34}+2 p_{01} p_{35}$. Here $p_{01}, p_{02}, \ldots, p_{45}$ denote the $2 \times 2$ minors of

$$
\left(\begin{array}{llllll}
a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{33} \\
b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} & b_{22} & b_{23} & b_{33}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

The stratum $\mathrm{Gr}_{\sigma}$ has codimension 3 in $\operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{3}\right)$ and degree 56 in the ambient $\mathbb{P}^{14}$. The six Plücker quadrics give six polynomials of bidegree $(2,2)$ in $(A, B)$. These define a variety of multidegree $4 a^{3}+12 a^{2} b+12 a b^{2}+4 b^{3} \in H^{*}\left(\mathbb{P}^{5} \times \mathbb{P}^{5}\right)$.

Example 5.3 ( $n=4$ ). The column "codims" in Example 3.1 gives the codimensions of Jordan strata, Plücker strata and Stiefel strata. The last two agree; they quantify the moduli of quartic curves in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$ listed on the right. We found equations of low degree for the 13 strata. For instance, $\mathrm{Jo}_{[4]}$ lies on a unique quadric:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 3 x_{11}^{2}-2 x_{11} x_{22}-2 x_{11} x_{33}-2 x_{11} x_{44}+8 x_{12} x_{21}+8 x_{13} x_{31}+8 x_{14} x_{41}+3 x_{22}^{2} \\
& -2 x_{22} x_{33}-2 x_{22} x_{44}+8 x_{23} x_{32}+8 x_{24} x_{42}+3 x_{33}^{2}-2 x_{33} x_{44}+8 x_{34} x_{43}+3 x_{44}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof of Theorem 5.1] For Segre symbols $\sigma$ with one partition $\sigma_{1}$, the Jordan strata $\mathrm{Jo}_{\sigma}$ are the nilpotent orbits of Lie type $A_{n-1}$. Gerstenhaber's Theorem [8] states that inclusion of nilpotent orbit closures corresponds to the dominance
order $\triangleleft$ among the partitions $\sigma_{1}$. This explains the second condition in our definition of "is above" for the poset Segre $_{n}$. The other condition captures the degeneration that occurs when two eigenvalues come together. Generally, this leads to a fusion of Jordan blocks, made manifest by adding partitions $\sigma_{i}$ and $\sigma_{j}$. For a precise algebraic version of this argument we refer to [8, Theorem 4].

The inclusions of orbit closures are preserved under the map $X \mapsto A B^{-1}$ that links Stiefel strata to Jordan strata. Furthermore, the Plücker stratification is obtained from the Stiefel stratification by taking the quotient modulo GL(2). This operation also preserves the combinatorics of orbit closure inclusions.

We close with formulas for the dimensions of our strata. For each partition $\sigma_{i}$ occurring in a Segre symbol $\sigma=\left[\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}\right]$, we write $\sigma_{i}^{*}=\left(\sigma_{i 1}^{*}, \ldots, \sigma_{i n}^{*}\right)$ for the conjugate partition. For instance, if $n=5$ and $\sigma_{i}=(4,1)$ then $\sigma_{i}^{*}=(2,1,1,1)$.

Proposition 5.4. The codimension of the Jordan strata (in $\mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ ) and Grassmann strata (in $\operatorname{Gr}\left(2, \mathbb{S}^{n}\right)$ ) are:

$$
\operatorname{codim}\left(\mathrm{Jo}_{\sigma}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n}\left(\sigma_{i j}^{*}\right)^{2}-r \quad \text { and } \quad \operatorname{codim}\left(\mathrm{Gr}_{\sigma}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n}\binom{\sigma_{i j}^{*}+1}{2}-r
$$

Proof. The dimension is the number $r$ of distinct eigenvalues plus the dimension of the GL( $n$ )-orbit of the general matrix or pencil in the stratum of interest. Thus, the codimension is the dimension of its stabilizer subgroup minus $r$. The codimension for Grassmann strata agrees with the codimension for Stiefel strata, so we may consider pairs of matrices $(A, B)$ when determining $\operatorname{codim}\left(\mathrm{Gr}_{\sigma}\right)$.

The stabilizer on the left is found in [4, Theorem 2.1] or [8, Proposition 8], using the identity $\sum_{k=1}^{s}(2 k-1)=s^{2}$. The stabilizer dimension on the right is calculated in [5, Corollary 2.2] for general symmetric matrix pencils. For regular pencils, the case studied here, the Kronecker canonical form in [5] eqn. (2.4)] only has $H$-components. Thus the dimension formula in [5] becomes $d_{A, B}=$ $d_{H}+d_{H H}$, where $d_{H}=0$ and $d_{H H}=\sum_{i \leq i^{\prime}, \lambda_{i}=\lambda_{i^{\prime}}} \min \left(h_{i}, h_{i^{\prime}}\right)$. In our notation, this is

$$
\sum_{i \leq k, \alpha_{i}=\alpha_{k}} \min \left(e_{i}, e_{k}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k \sigma_{i k}=\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{\sigma_{i k}} k=\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{\sigma_{i j}^{*}} k=\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n}\binom{\sigma_{i j}^{*}+1}{2} .
$$

In conclusion, our proof consists of specific pointers to the articles [4, 5, 8].

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