

FACTORIZATION OF C-FINITE SEQUENCES



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joint work with Doron Zeilberger, Rutgers.

0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, ...

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$$f(n+2) - f(n+1) - f(n) = 0, \quad f(0) = 0, \quad f(1) = 1$$

0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, ...

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$$f(n+2) - 2f(n+1) + f(n) = 0, \quad f(0) = 0, \quad f(1) = 1$$

3, 0, 2, 3, 2, 5, 5, 7, 10, 12, 17, ...

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$$f(n+3) - f(n+1) - f(n) = 0, \quad f(0) = 3, f(1) = 0, f(2) = 2$$

A sequence is called **C-finite** if it satisfies a linear recurrence with constant coefficients:

$$c_r f(n+r) + c_{r-1} f(n+r-1) + \cdots + c_1 f(n+1) + c_0 f(n) = 0.$$

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We may assume without loss of generality that $c_r \neq 0$.

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A linear recurrence with constant coefficients is encoded by its **characteristic polynomial** $c_r x^r + c_{r-1} x^{r-1} + \cdots + c_1 x + c_0$.

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(n+1) &= f_1(n) - f_3(n) & f_1(0) &= 3 \\ f_2(n+1) &= 2f_2(n) + 3f_3(n) & f_2(0) &= 1 \\ f_3(n+1) &= 3f_1(n) + f_2(n) - f_3(n) & f_3(0) &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{pmatrix} f_1(\mathbf{n} + 1) \\ f_2(\mathbf{n} + 1) \\ f_3(\mathbf{n} + 1) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} f_1(\mathbf{n}) \\ f_2(\mathbf{n}) \\ f_3(\mathbf{n}) \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{array}{l} f_1(0) = 3 \\ f_2(0) = 1 \\ f_3(0) = 2 \end{array}$$

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$f_1 : 3, 1, -7, -10, -26, -69, -174, -443, -1129, -2875, \dots$

$f_2 : 1, 8, 40, 89, 226, 581, 1477, 3761, 9580, 24398, 62137, \dots$

$f_3 : 2, 8, 3, 16, 43, 105, 269, 686, 1746, 4447, 11326, \dots$

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$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}^{n+1} \begin{pmatrix} f_1(0) \\ f_2(0) \\ f_3(0) \end{pmatrix}$$

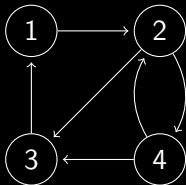
$$\begin{aligned}
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&= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}^{n+1} \begin{pmatrix} f_1(0) \\ f_2(0) \\ f_3(0) \end{pmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

Because of Cayley-Hamilton, solutions of such systems are always C-finite, and the characteristic polynomial of the matrix is a characteristic polynomial for all the coordinate sequences of the solution vector. ($\chi(A) = 0 \Rightarrow \chi(A)A^n\chi = 0$)

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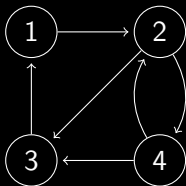
Example 1: Paths in a graph.



$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

The number of paths of length n from vertex i to vertex j is exactly the (i, j) -entry of A^n , when A is the adjacency matrix of the graph. For each choice of i and j , this is a C-finite sequence in n .

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Then the number of tilings of a $(2n) \times 3$ rectangle is the entry of A^n at position $(1, 1)$.

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But there is also a nice formula due to Fisher, Temperley and Kasteleyn. For even n and k we have

$$T_{n,k} = 2^{nk/2} \prod_{i=1}^{k/2} \prod_{j=1}^{n/2} \left(\cos^2 \left(\frac{i\pi}{k+1} \right) + \cos^2 \left(\frac{j\pi}{n+1} \right) \right)$$

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A similar formula was found by Onsager for the Ising model.

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$$h(n+4) = 44f(n)g(n) + 66f(n+1)g(n) \\ + 78f(n)g(n+1) + 117f(n+1)g(n+1)$$

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Proof by example:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 6 & 44 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 12 & 66 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 11 & 78 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 22 & 117 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \\ c_4 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

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$$(x^2 - x - 1) \otimes (x^2 - 3x - 2) = 4 - 6x - 15x^2 - 3x^3 + x^4.$$

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$$\underbrace{(x^2 - x - 1)}_{f(n)} \otimes \underbrace{(x^2 - 3x - 2)}_{g(n)} = \underbrace{4 - 6x - 15x^2 - 3x^3 + x^4}_{h(n)=f(n)g(n)}.$$

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Example: Given

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how can we find the recurrences for $f(n)$ and $g(n)$?

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how to find $x^2 - x - 1$ and $x^2 - 3x - 2$.

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$r = p \otimes q$ means that the solution space $V(r)$ of the recurrence corresponding to r is generated by all the product sequences $(a_n b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ where $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} \in V(p)$ and $(b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} \in V(q)$.

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Note that we have $V(r) \cong V(p) \otimes V(q)$ in the sense of linear algebra.

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We want something simpler for the simpler case of constant coefficients.

Recall: $f(n)$ is C-finite if and only if there are numbers ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_s and polynomials p_1, \dots, p_s such that

$$f(n) = p_1(n)\phi_1^n + p_2(n)\phi_2^n + \cdots + p_s(n)\phi_s^n$$

for all n .

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$$(\chi - \phi_1)^{1+\deg p_1} \dots (\chi - \phi_s)^{1+\deg p_s}.$$

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Note: Closure under multiplication is obvious from the closed form representations:

$$\begin{aligned} & (p_1(n)\phi_1^n + \dots + p_s(n)\phi_s^n)(q_1(n)\psi_1^n + \dots + q_t(n)\psi_t^n) \\ &= p_1(n)q_1(n)(\phi_1\psi_1)^n + \dots + p_s(n)q_t(n)(\phi_s\psi_t)^n \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} & ((\chi - \phi_1)^{e_1} \dots (\chi - \phi_s)^{e_s}) \otimes ((\chi - \psi_1)^{e_1} \dots (\chi - \psi_t)^{e_t}) \\ &= (\chi - \phi_1\psi_1)^{\max(e_1, e_1)} \dots (\chi - \phi_s\psi_t)^{\max(e_s, e_t)} \end{aligned}$$

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$$(x - \phi_1)(x - \phi_2) \otimes (x - \psi_1)(x - \psi_2)(x - \psi_3) = \prod_{i=1}^2 \prod_{j=1}^3 (x - \phi_i \psi_j)$$

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Choose ψ_1 arbitrarily and set

$$\psi_2 = \psi_1 \frac{\rho_1 \rho_5}{\rho_2 \rho_4}, \quad \psi_3 = \psi_1 \frac{\rho_1 \rho_6}{\rho_2 \rho_4}, \quad \phi_1 = \frac{\rho_1}{\psi_1}, \quad \phi_2 = \phi_1 \frac{\rho_1 \rho_5}{\rho_4 \rho_2}.$$

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Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} & (x - \rho_1)(x - \rho_2)(x - \rho_3)(x - \rho_4)(x - \rho_5)(x - \rho_6) \\ &= (x - \phi_1)(x - \phi_2) \otimes (x - \psi_1)(x - \psi_2)(x - \psi_3), \end{aligned}$$

as desired.

The arbitrary choice of ψ_1 reflects the non-uniqueness of the factorization coming from $(x - \psi) \otimes (x - \psi^{-1}) = (x - 1)$ and $r \otimes (x - 1) = r$.

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There is more non-uniqueness than that. For example, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & (x - 2)(x + 2)(x - 3)(x + 3) \\ &= (x - 1)(x + 1) \otimes (x - 2)(x + 3) \\ &= (x - 1)(x + 1) \otimes (x - 2)(x - 3) \end{aligned}$$

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In this example, there are two distinct ways to number the roots $-2, 2, -3, 3$ that are consistent with the required equations.

In summary, in order to factor a square-free polynomial r of degree d , we search for a bijection

$$\pi: \{1, \dots, r\} \times \{1, \dots, s\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, d\}$$

such that for all j_1, j_2 we have

$$\frac{\rho_{\pi(1,j_1)}}{\rho_{\pi(1,j_2)}} = \frac{\rho_{\pi(2,j_1)}}{\rho_{\pi(2,j_2)}} = \dots = \frac{\rho_{\pi(r,j_1)}}{\rho_{\pi(r,j_2)}}$$

and for all i_1, i_2 we have

$$\frac{\rho_{\pi(i_1,1)}}{\rho_{\pi(i_2,1)}} = \frac{\rho_{\pi(i_1,2)}}{\rho_{\pi(i_2,2)}} = \dots = \frac{\rho_{\pi(i_1,s)}}{\rho_{\pi(i_2,s)}}.$$

Any such bijection can be translated into a factorization.

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- $(x - 1)(x - 2)(x - 4) \otimes (x - \frac{1}{2})(x - \frac{1}{4})$
= $\text{lcm}(x - \frac{1}{2}, x - \frac{1}{4}, x - 1, x - \frac{1}{2}, x - 2, x - 1)$
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= $(x-\frac{1}{2})(x-\frac{1}{4})(x-1)(x-2)$

To also find such factorizations, note that the map $\pi: \{1, \dots, r\} \times \{1, \dots, s\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, d\}$ need not be bijective. Surjective is enough.

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$$r = (x - 4)(x - 6)(x - 9), \text{ i.e., } \rho_1 = 4, \rho_2 = 6, \rho_3 = 9.$$

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π		1	2
1		1	2
2		2	3

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This gives the factorization $(x - 1)(x - \frac{3}{2}) \otimes (x - 4)(x - 6)$.

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Choose $\pi: \{1, 2\} \times \{1, 2, 3\} \rightarrow \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ according to

π	1	2	3
1	1	3	4
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Given the roots of r , we can test whether suitable functions $\pi: \{1, \dots, r\} \times \{1, \dots, s\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, d\}$ exist by exhaustive search.

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- The order of the roots in the factors is irrelevant, so we can restrict the search to maps π with

$$\pi(1, 1) \leq \pi(2, 1) \leq \dots \leq \pi(r, 1)$$

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- We can discard functions π with $\pi(i_1, j) = \pi(i_2, j)$ for some i_1, i_2, j with $i_1 \neq i_2$, because these just signal some root of a factor several times.

Given the roots of r , we can test whether suitable functions $\pi: \{1, \dots, r\} \times \{1, \dots, s\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, d\}$ exist by exhaustive search.

There are several possibilities to reduce the search space.

- The order of the roots in the factors is irrelevant, so we can restrict the search to maps π with

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- $p \otimes q = q \otimes p$, so we can restrict to $s \leq r$.

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$$\frac{\rho_{\pi(1,j_1)}}{\rho_{\pi(1,j_2)}} = \dots = \frac{\rho_{\pi(n,j_1)}}{\rho_{\pi(n,j_2)}}, \quad \frac{\rho_{\pi(i_1,1)}}{\rho_{\pi(i_2,1)}} = \dots = \frac{\rho_{\pi(i_1,m)}}{\rho_{\pi(i_2,m)}}$$

for all j_1, j_2 and all i_1, i_2 , then for each $p \in \{1, \dots, d\}$ there exists at most one extension

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This can be used to design a recursive search in which wrong branches are usually recognized rather early.

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- When no factorization exists, it may still be possible to write the given sequence as a linear combination of two products of simpler ones. We can also find such representations.

