

SOME LESSONS ON COMPUTER ALGEBRA



Manuel Kauers · Institute for Algebra · JKU

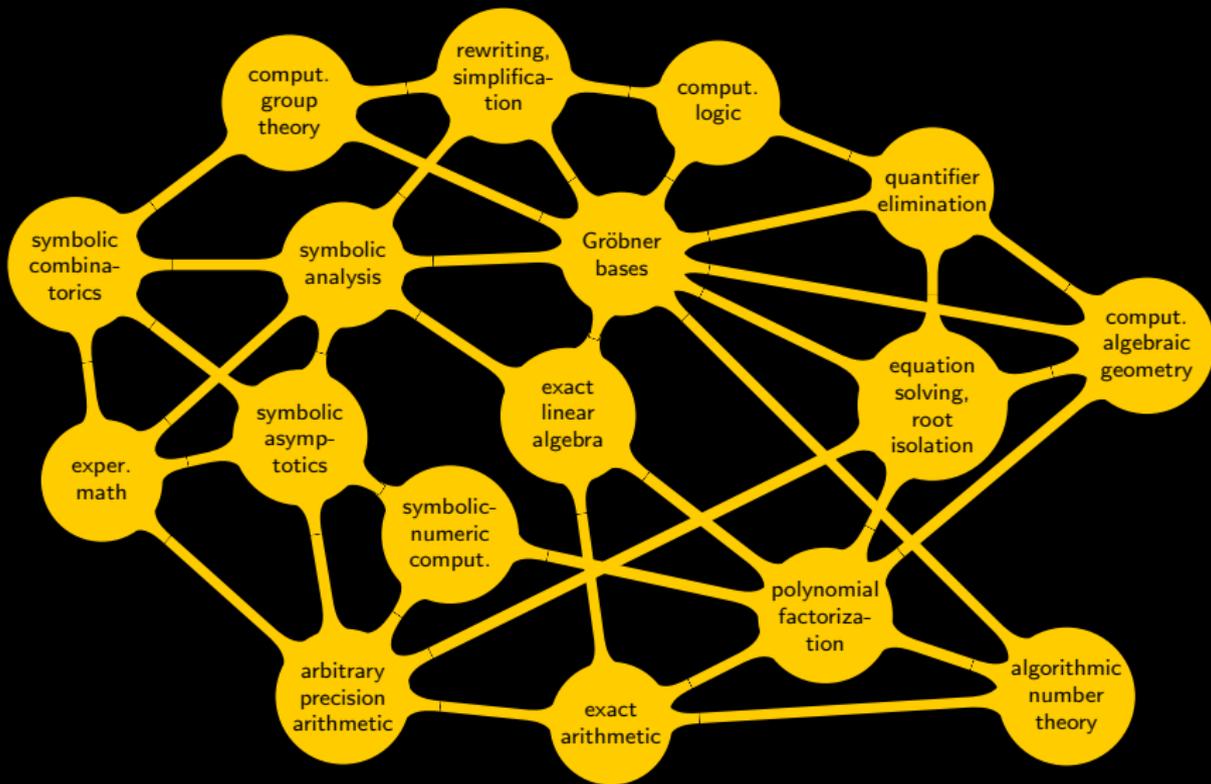
Slides available at <https://tinyurl.com/y8h6l6sp>

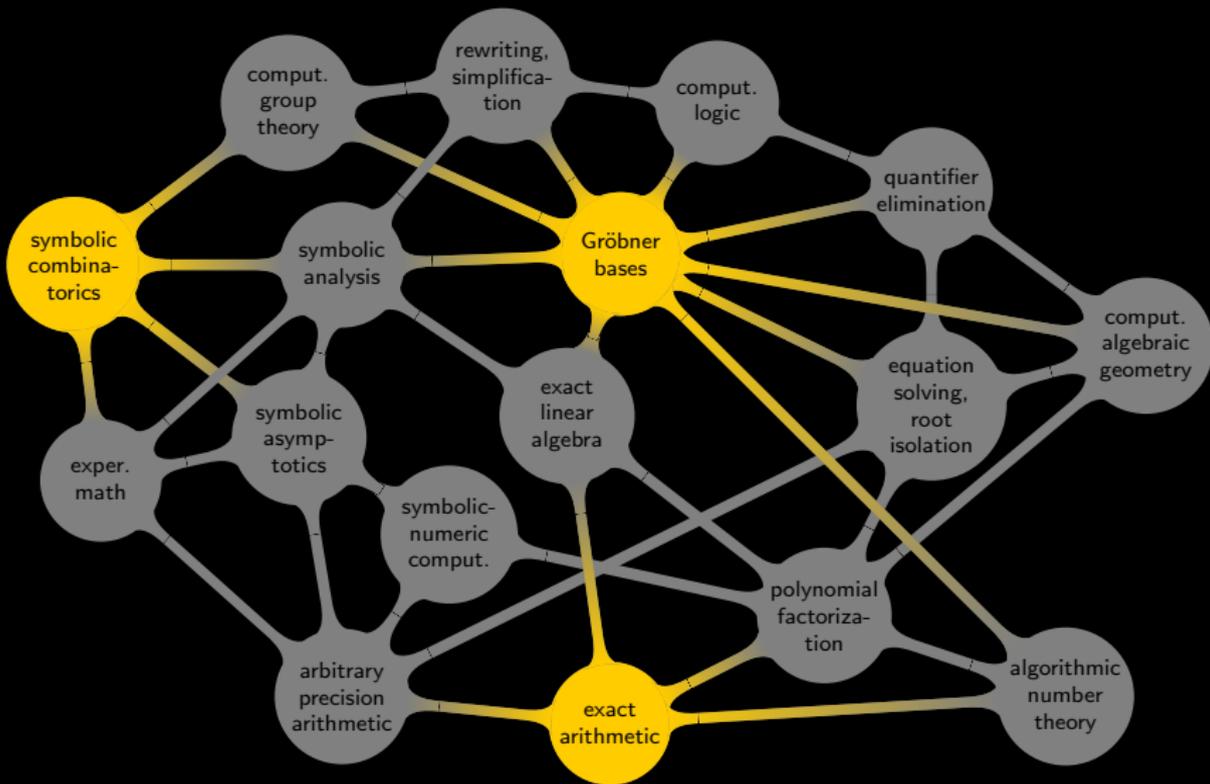
NINE LESSONS ON COMPUTER ALGEBRA

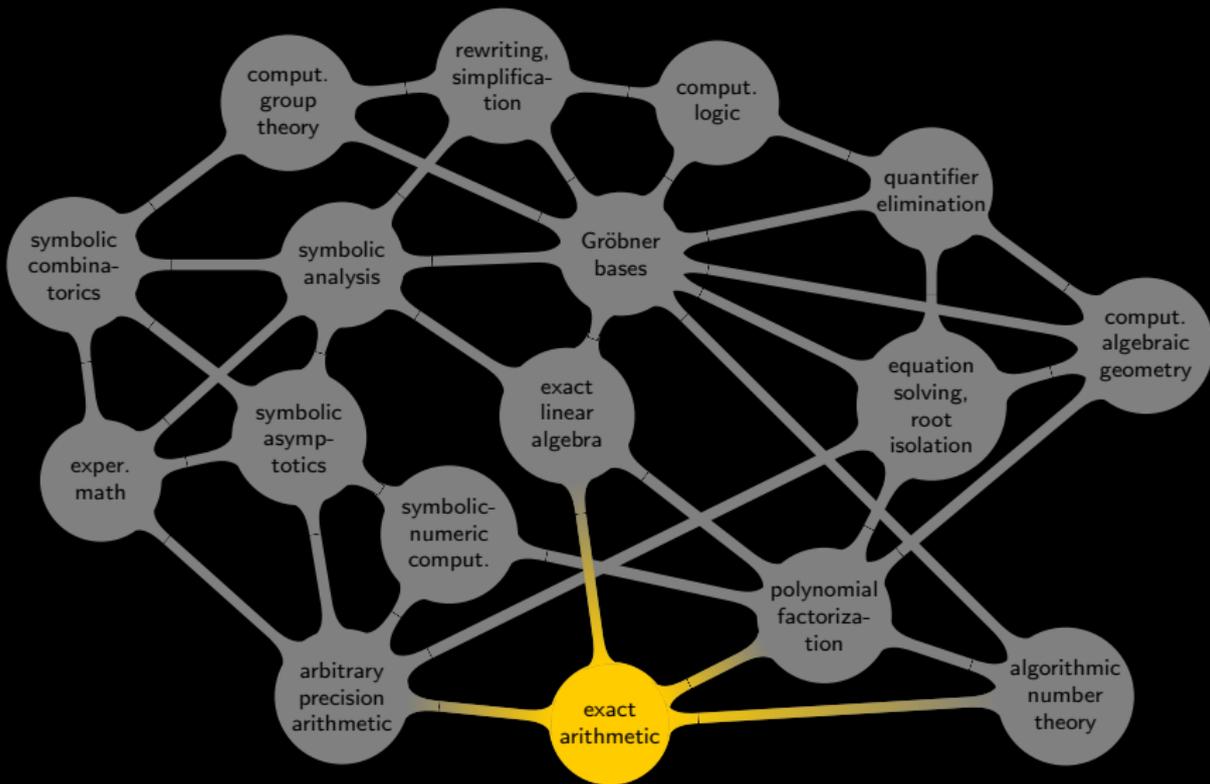


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+ - × ÷ quo rem gcd $\stackrel{?}{=}$

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$$2457234957927694576945792851 \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\frac{39376943576394575193475}{9763947613453694769351} \in \mathbb{Q}$$

$$2.718281828459045235360287471352662497 \dots \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\bullet x^6 + \bullet x^5 + \bullet x^4 + \bullet x^3 + \bullet x^2 + \bullet x + \bullet \in k[x]$$

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Computation time grows **quadratically** with the input size.

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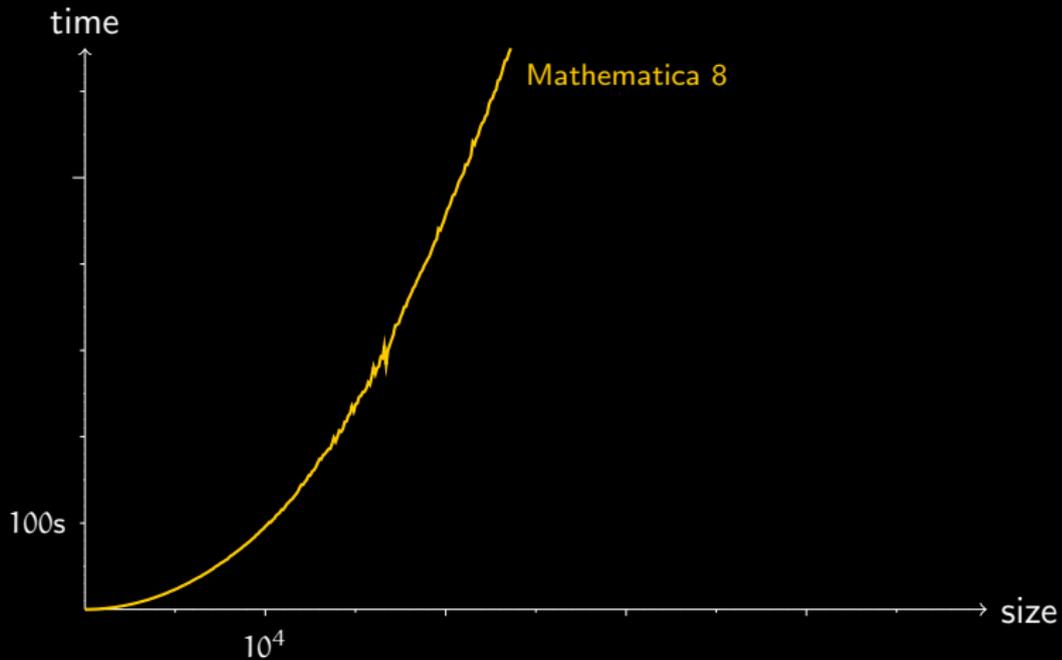
Modern algorithms have **(quasi-)linear** computation time.

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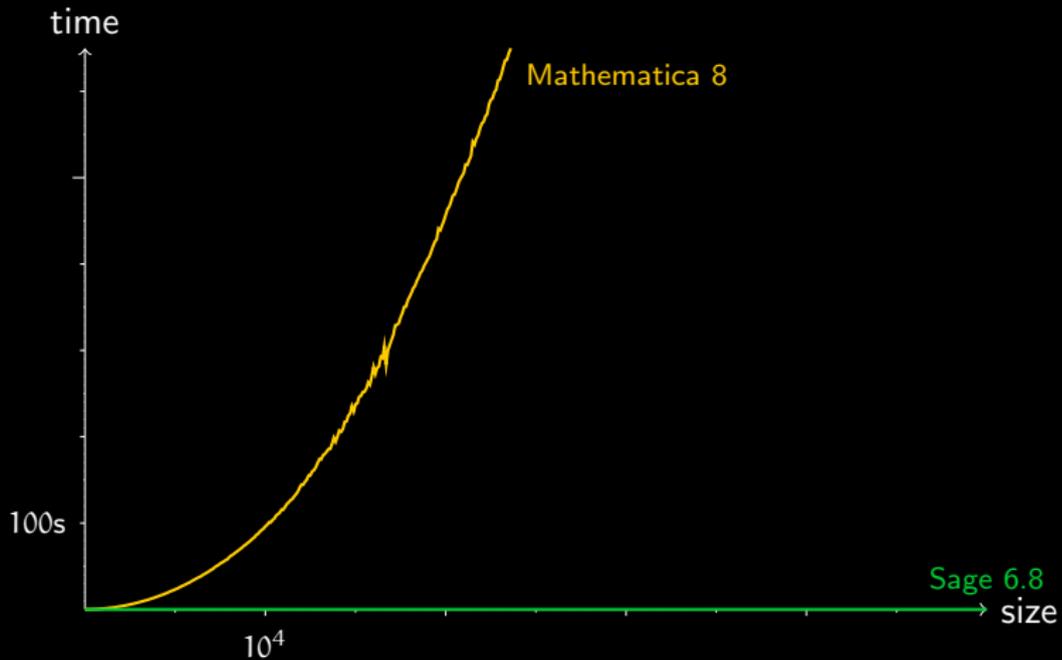
Modern algorithms have **(quasi-)linear** computation time.

For which input sizes does the difference matter?

Polynomial Multiplication



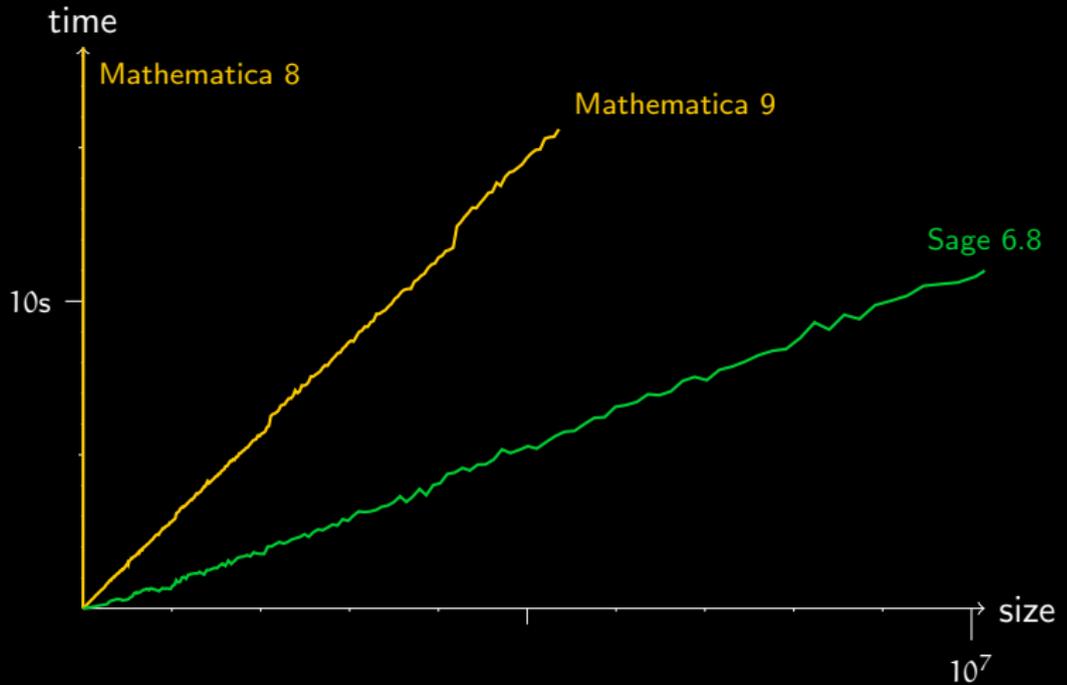
Polynomial Multiplication



Polynomial Multiplication

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Lesson 1: Fast algorithms are really fast

Fast multiplication has no advantage if the input is too unbalanced.

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good input:



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good input:



not so good input (naive multiplication also takes linear time):



Example: computing $n!$ for large n .

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Naive:

$$8! = \boxed{\boxed{\boxed{\boxed{\boxed{1 \cdot 2} \cdot 3} \cdot 4} \cdot 5} \cdot 6} \cdot 7 \cdot 8$$

$T(n) = \sum_{k=1}^n O(k) = O(n^2)$, even with fast multiplication.

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$T(n) = \sum_{k=1}^n O(k) = O(n^2)$, even with fast multiplication.

Balanced:

$$8! = \boxed{\boxed{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} \cdot \boxed{5 \cdot 6 \cdot 7 \cdot 8}}$$

$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n) \Rightarrow T(n) = O(n)$ with fast multiplication.

Take this into account when you need to compute terms of large index of a P-recursive sequence.

$$p_0(n)a_n + p_1(n)a_{n+1} + p_2(n)a_{n+2} = 0$$

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$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{n+1} \\ a_{n+2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -\frac{p_0(n)}{p_2(n)} & -\frac{p_1(n)}{p_2(n)} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_n \\ a_{n+1} \end{pmatrix}$$

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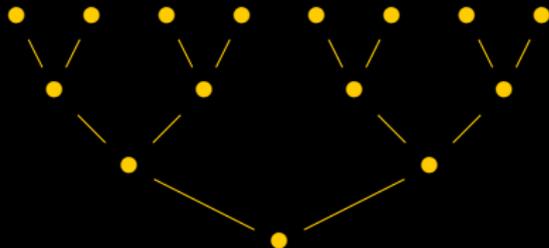
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$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{n+1} \\ a_{n+2} \end{pmatrix} = C(n-2)C(n-3)C(n-4) \cdots C(2) \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

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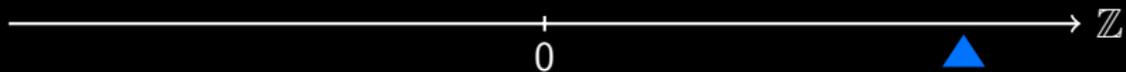


Lesson 2: Organize your computations well

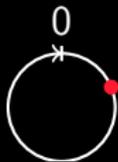




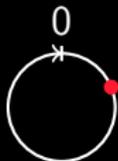
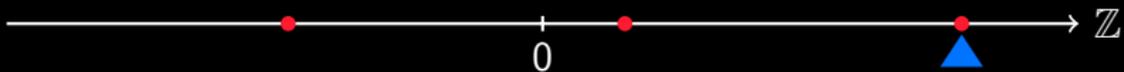
$$\mathbb{Z}_{1091} = \mathbb{Z}/1091\mathbb{Z}$$



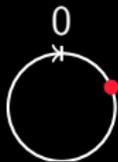
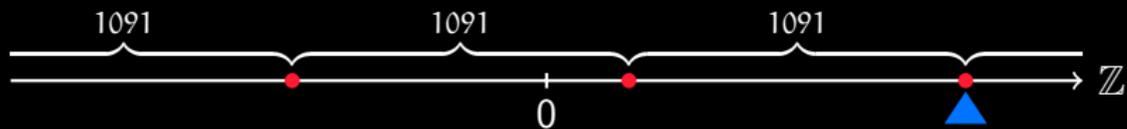
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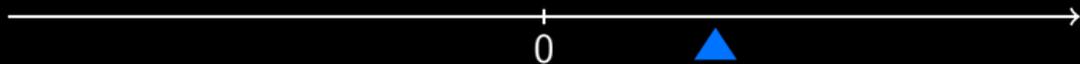
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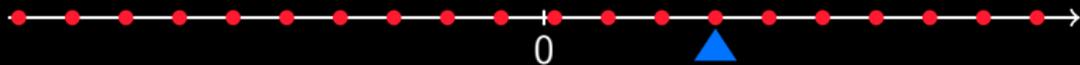
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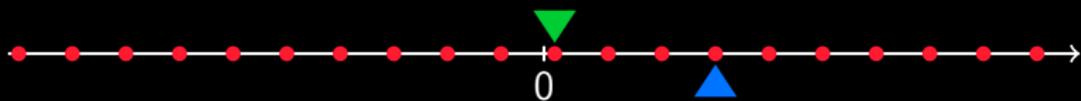
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f_m is a ring homomorphism. This means

$$\text{Mod}(\text{Answer}(\text{Question})) = \text{Answer}(\text{Mod}(\text{Question}))$$

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Represent $[x]_m$ by an element $\xi \in [x]_m$ for which $|\xi|$ is minimal.

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- $\xi \in [-m/2, m/2]$.

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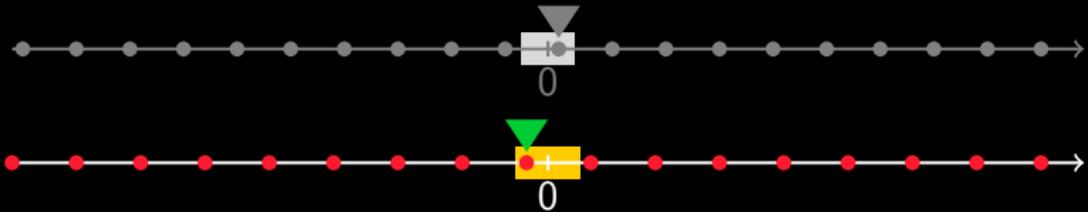
- $\xi \in [-m/2, m/2]$.
- If $m > 2|x|$ then $\xi = x$.

$$x \in [x]_m$$

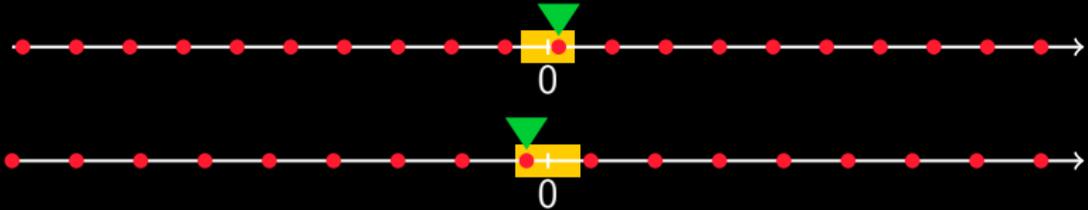
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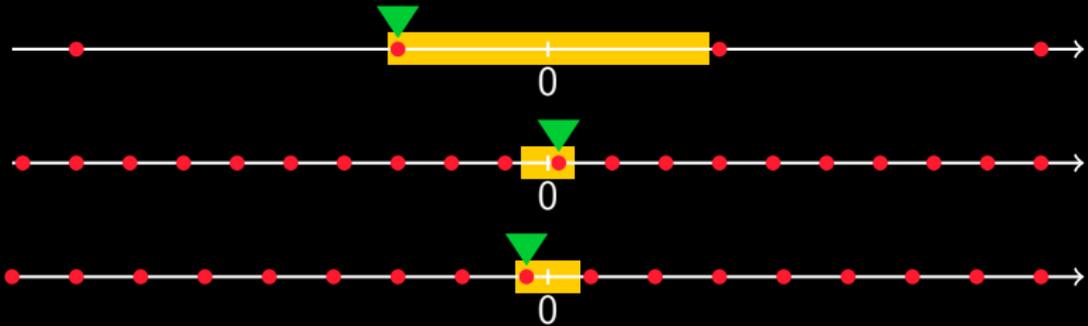
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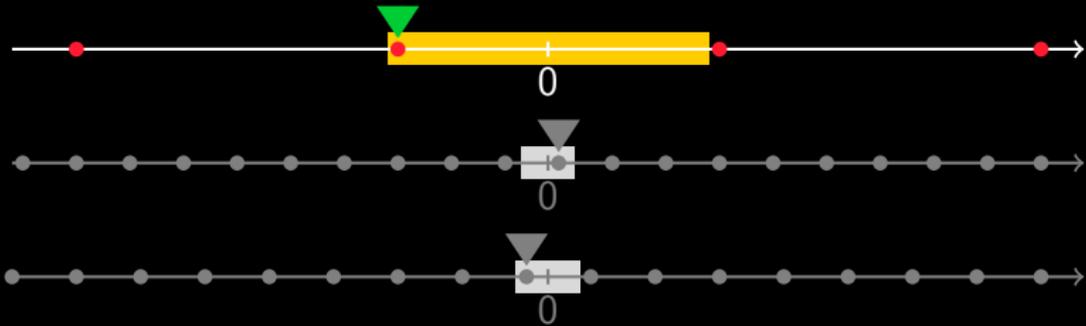
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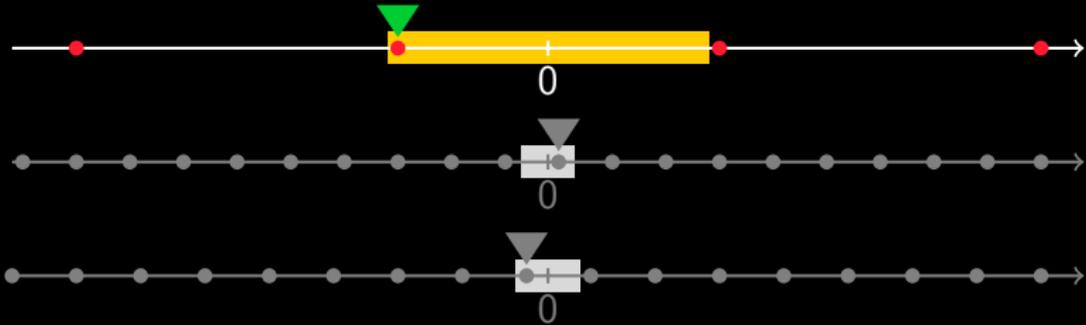


$$x \in [x]_m \cap [x]_n = [x]_{\text{lcm}(m,n)}$$



Chinese Remaindering

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Features:

- Even a **big** integer x can be recovered from sufficiently many images $[x]_{m_1}, [x]_{m_2}, \dots$ for **small** moduli m_1, m_2, \dots

Chinese Remaindering

$$x \in [x]_m \cap [x]_n = [x]_{\text{lcm}(m,n)}$$

Features:

- Even a **big** integer x can be recovered from sufficiently many images $[x]_{m_1}, [x]_{m_2}, \dots$ for **small** moduli m_1, m_2, \dots .
- Different modular images $[x]_{m_i}$ can be computed **in parallel** on different computers.

0
170
57125
48268101
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mod 18446744073709551557 18446744073709551533 18446744073709551521 18446744073709551437
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48268101 48268101 48268101 48268101
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mod 18446744073709551557 18446744073709551533 18446744073709551521 18446744073709551437 18446744073709551427
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34260690332 34260690332 34260690332 34260690332 34260690332
28950283288564 28950283288564 28950283288564 28950283288564 28950283288564
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For hardware reasons, it's best to take primes of size $\approx 2^{64}$ or $\approx 2^{32}$ as moduli.

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The number of moduli needed is then proportional to the length of the numbers in the final result.

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Significant saving happens only when the numbers in intermediate expressions are much longer.

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The number of moduli needed is then proportional to the length of the numbers in the final result.

Significant saving happens only when the numbers in intermediate expressions are much longer.

Such intermediate expression swell is a common phenomenon in many calculations.

For example, the numbers on the previous slide satisfy a recurrence of order 4 and degree 10.

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Around 60 terms are needed to recover it. The 60th term has 180 decimal digits.

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Around 60 terms are needed to recover it. The 60th term has 180 decimal digits.

The longest integer coefficient appearing in the recurrence has only 20 decimal digits.

For example, the numbers on the previous slide satisfy a recurrence of order 4 and degree 10.

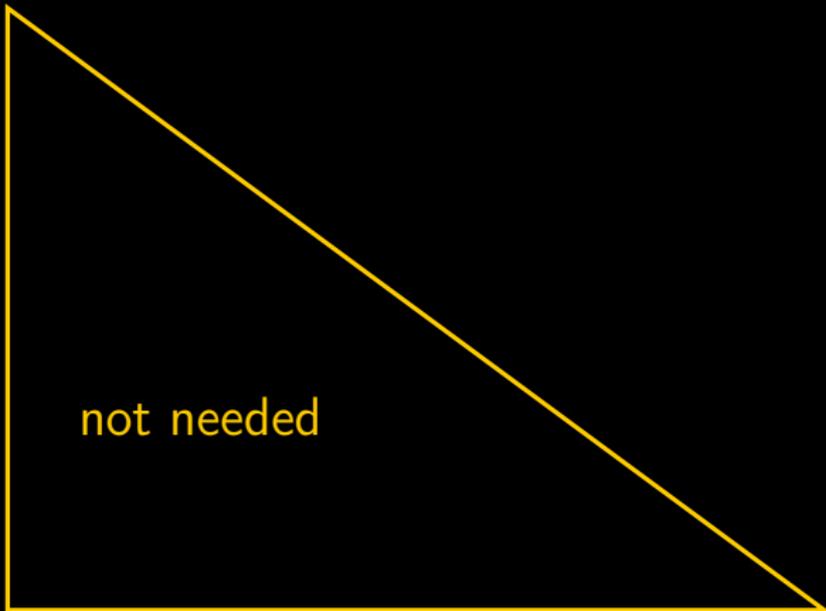
Around 60 terms are needed to recover it. The 60th term has 180 decimal digits.

The longest integer coefficient appearing in the recurrence has only 20 decimal digits.

The exact recurrence can be recovered from homomorphic images of the first 60 terms.

0
170
57125
48268101
34260690332
28950283288564
24602777889341700
21958748103044947821
19982460773770890734814
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But then we must be prepared that the coefficients of the preimage live in \mathbb{Q} rather than \mathbb{Z} .

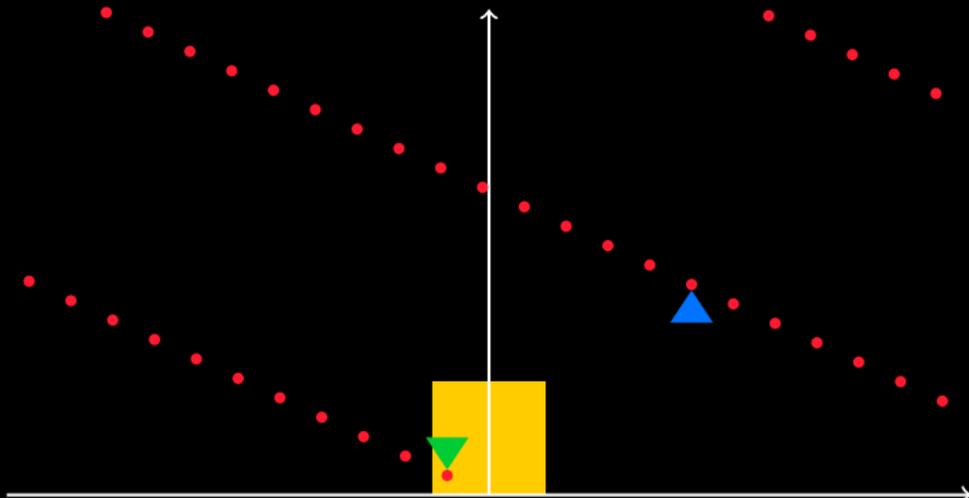
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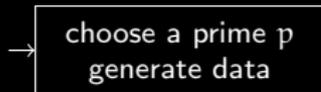


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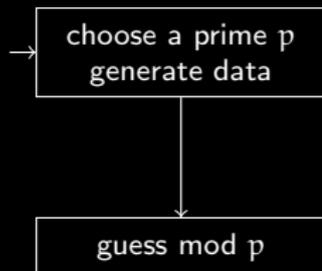
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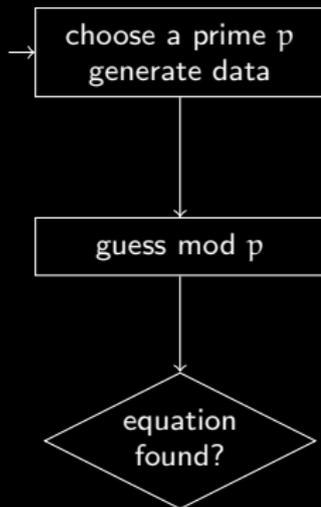
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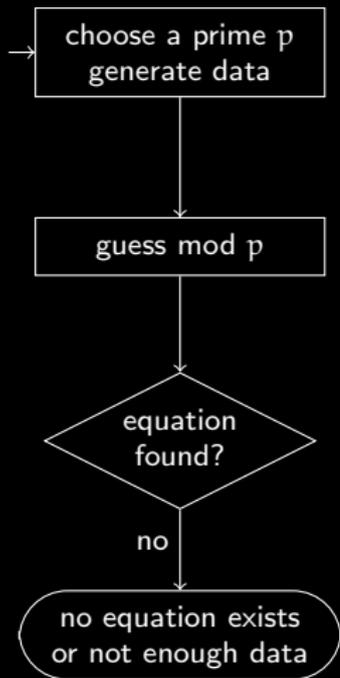
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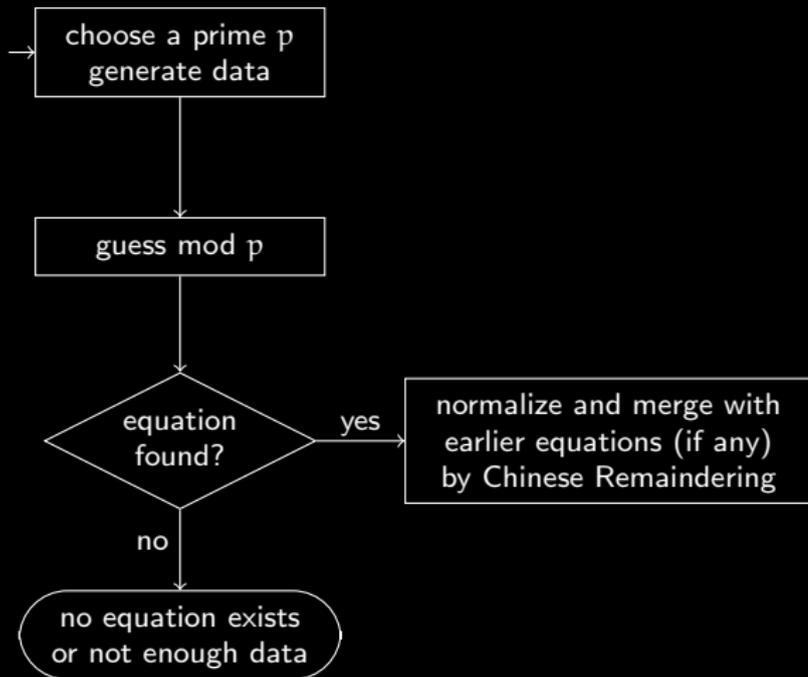
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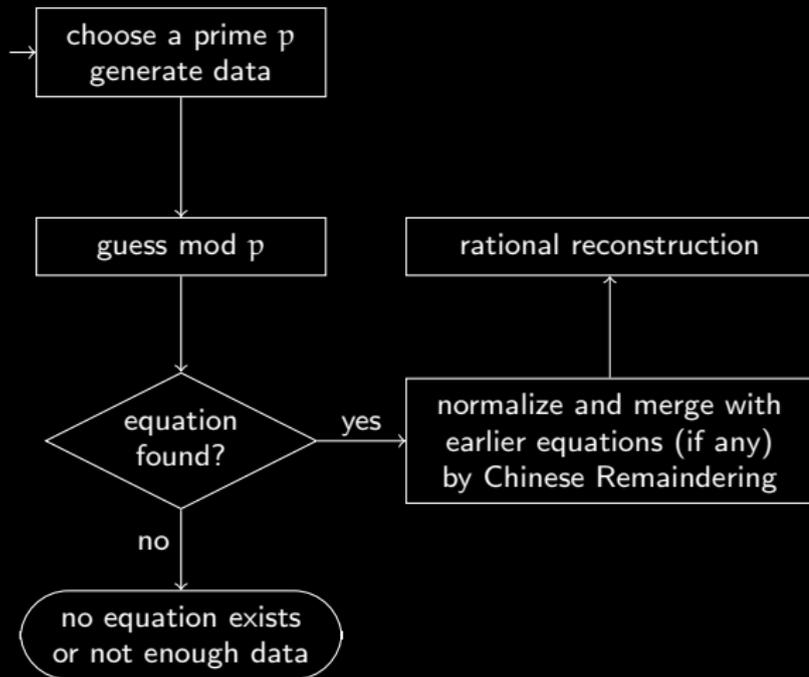
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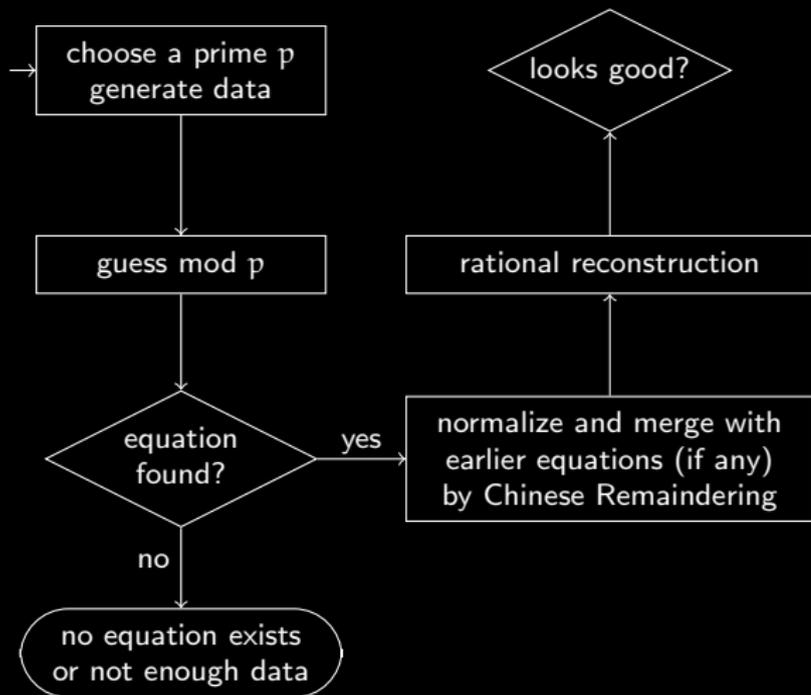
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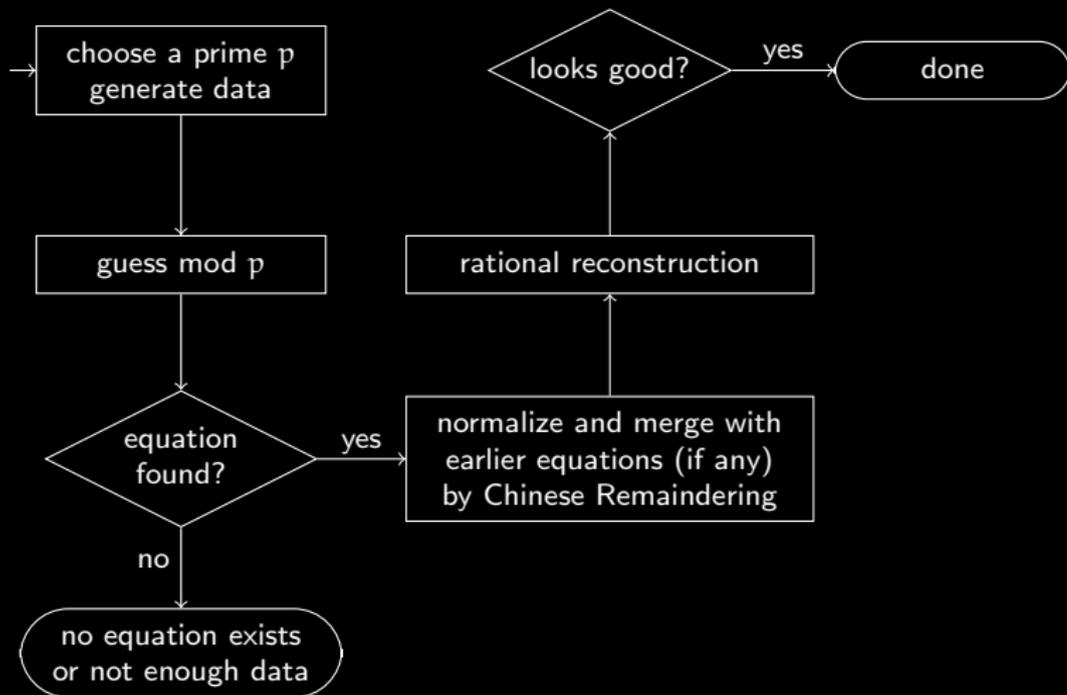
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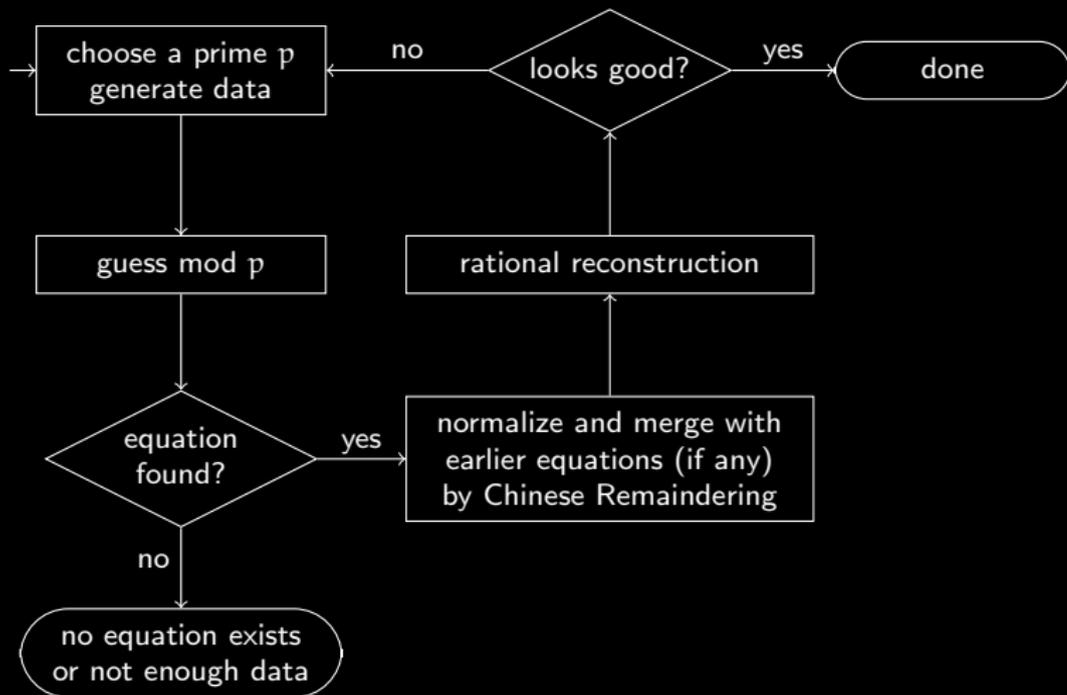
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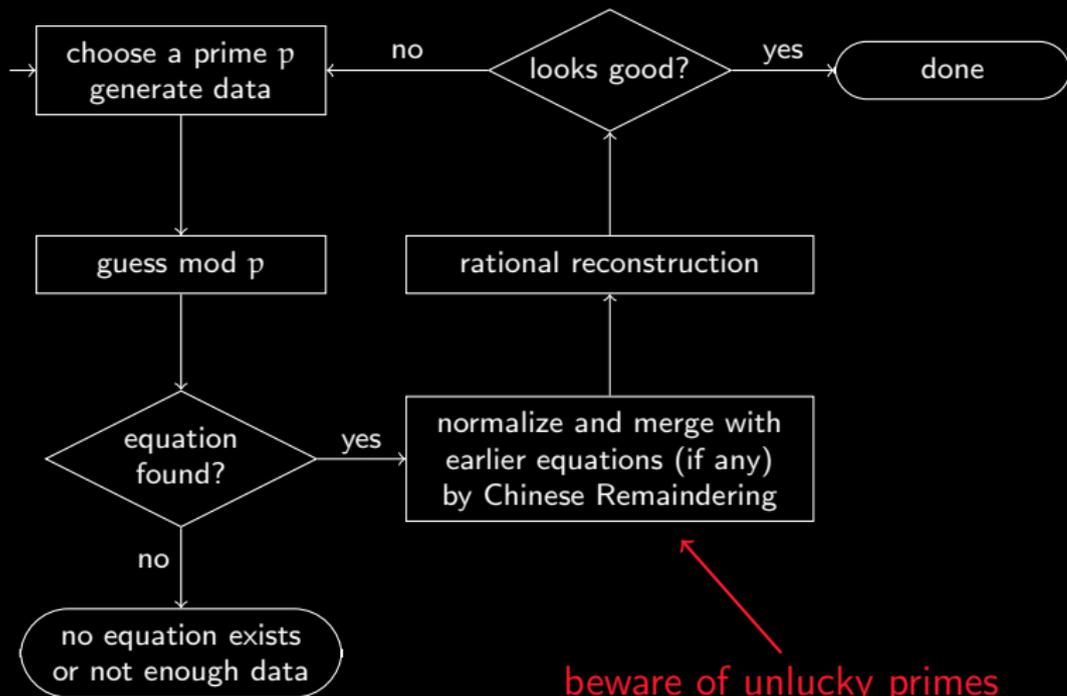
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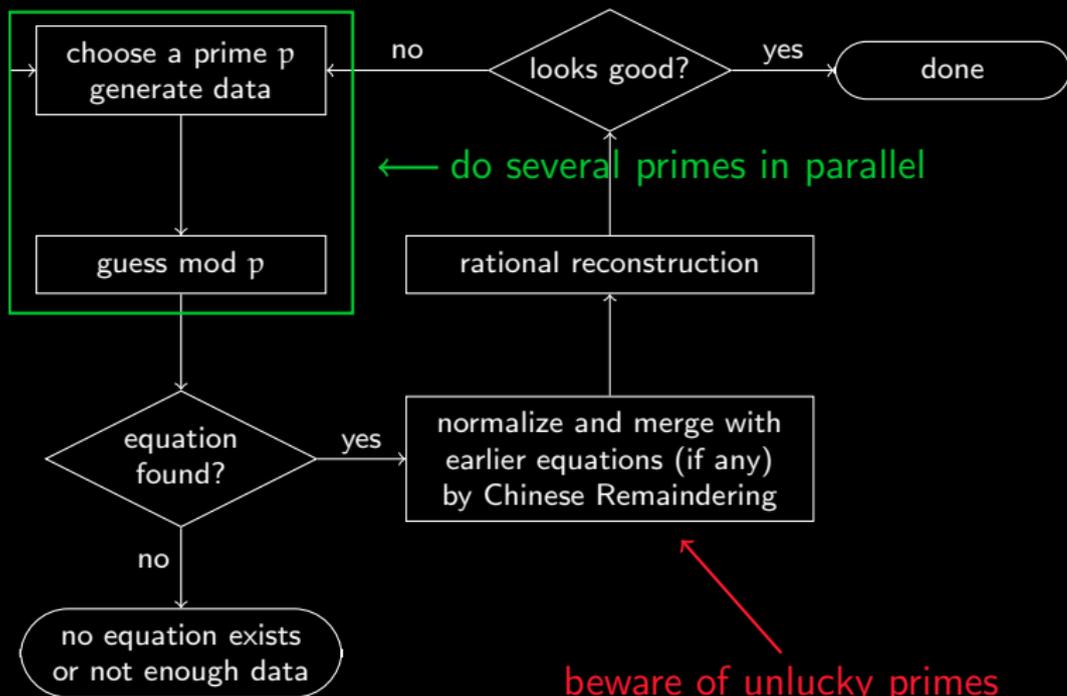
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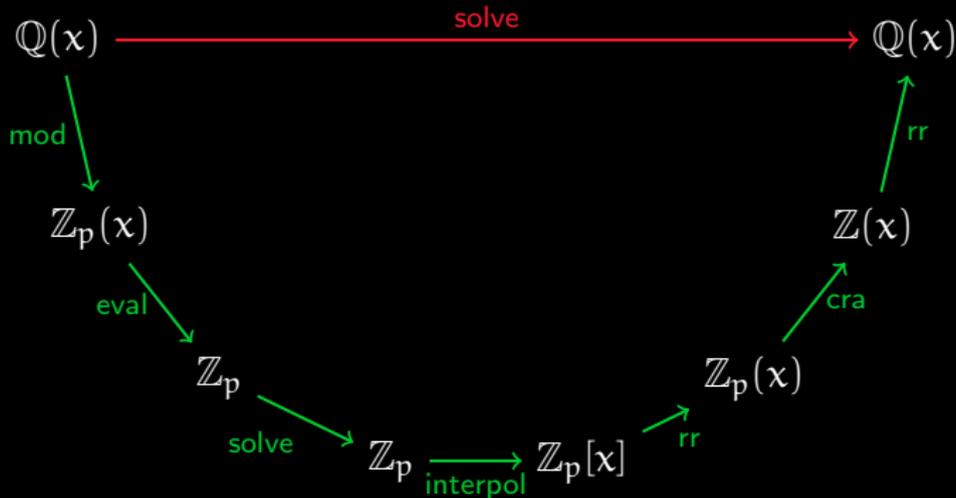
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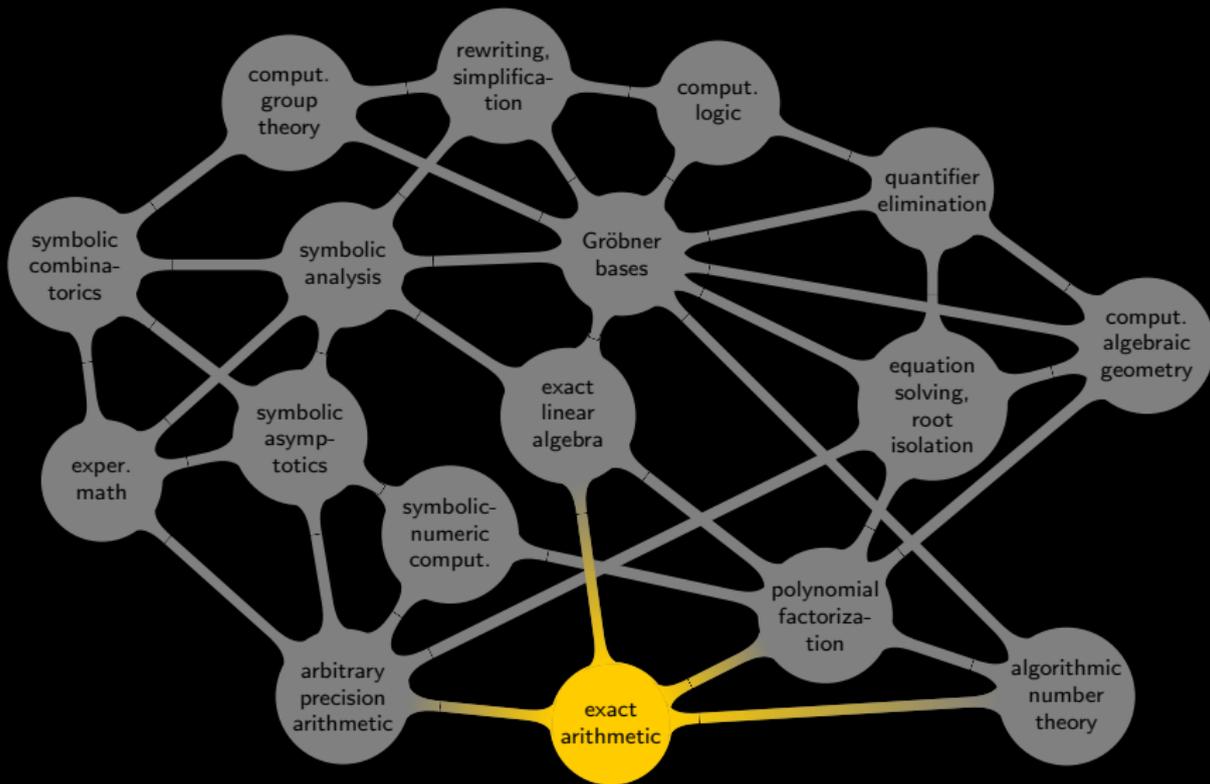
When there are also parameters, also use evaluation/interpolation and rational function reconstruction.

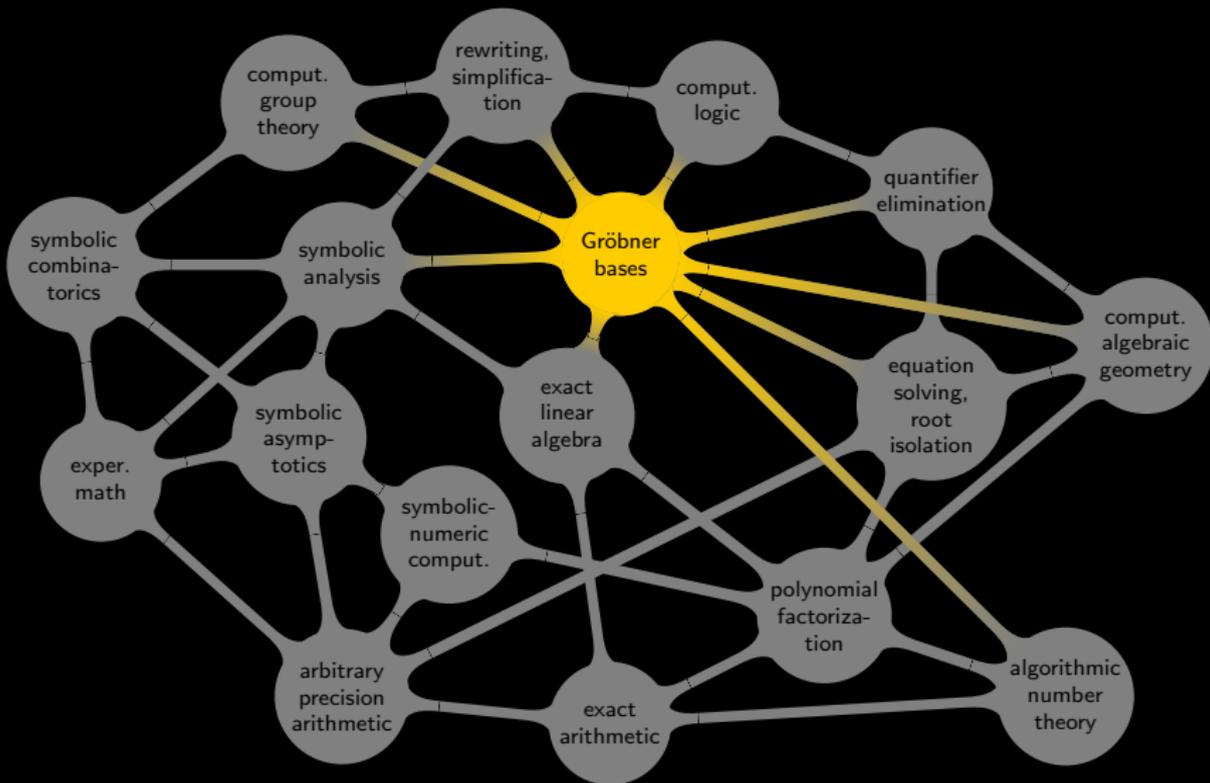


Lesson 3: Sometimes it's faster to take a detour

Exercises.

- If $F(n)$ is the n th Fibonacci number, then $F(2^{1000})$ is an integer with 10^{300} decimal digits. Determine the 20 least significant decimal digits of $F(2^{1000})$.
- Fix a random matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}^{100 \times 101}$ and a set of primes p_1, \dots, p_{100} with $p_i \approx 2^i$. For each i check how long your computer needs to find a basis of $\ker A \pmod{p_i}$.
- Use Chinese remaindering and rational reconstruction to find a basis vector of $\ker A$ in \mathbb{Q}^{101} . How can we tell in advance how many primes are needed?





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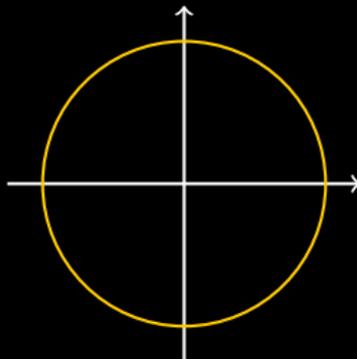
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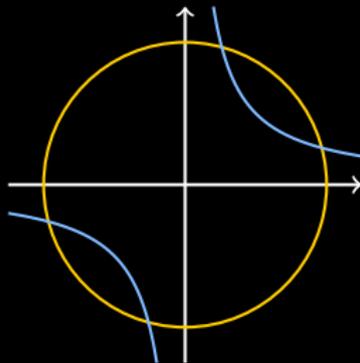
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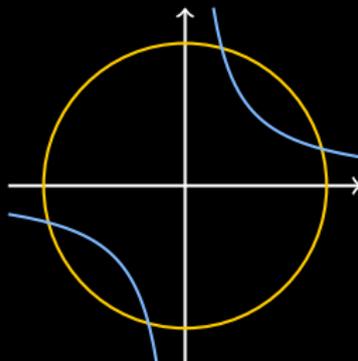
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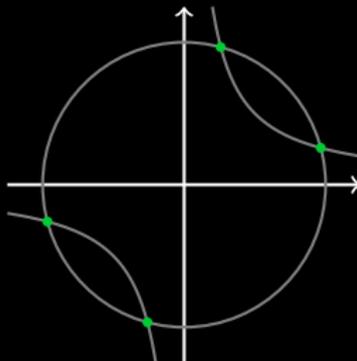
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All these questions can be answered using **Gröbner bases**.

Lesson 4: Gröbner bases can not only solve nonlinear systems

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Given $p_1, \dots, p_k \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, we therefore consider

$$\langle p_1, \dots, p_k \rangle := \{q_1 p_1 + \dots + q_k p_k : q_1, \dots, q_k \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]\},$$

the ideal generated by p_1, \dots, p_k in the ring $K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. We call $\{p_1, \dots, p_k\}$ a basis of the ideal.

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Intuition: the ideal is a “theory” of equations of the form “poly = 0” in which p_1, \dots, p_k are the “axioms” and implications quoted above are the “deduction rules”.

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Among all the bases of a given ideal, the Gröbner basis is one that satisfies a certain minimality condition.

For $n > 1$, divisibility on the set of monomials $x_1^{e_1} x_2^{e_2} \cdots x_n^{e_n}$ is no longer a total ordering, e.g., x^2y and xy^2 are not comparable.

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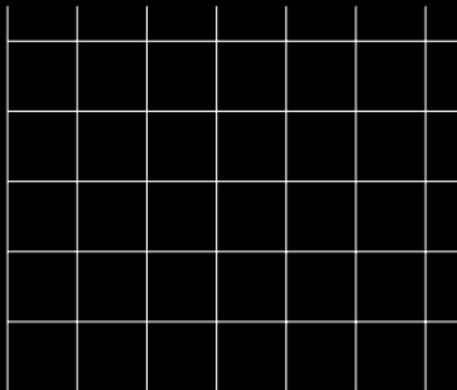
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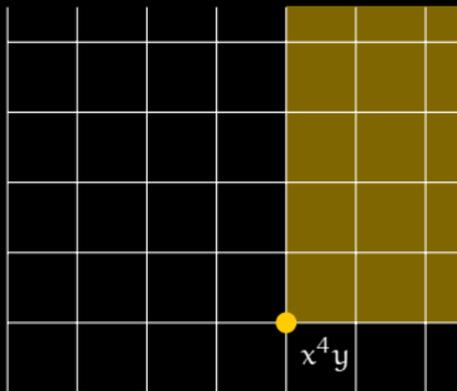
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Among all the bases of an ideal, the Gröbner basis is such that the leading terms of its elements are as small as possible.

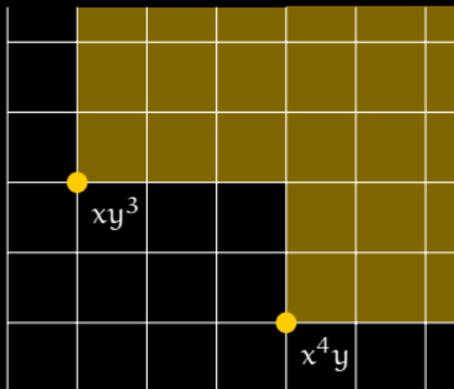
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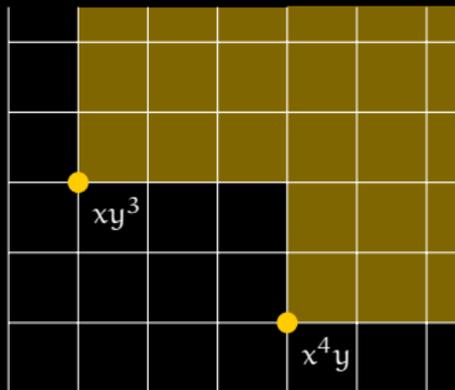
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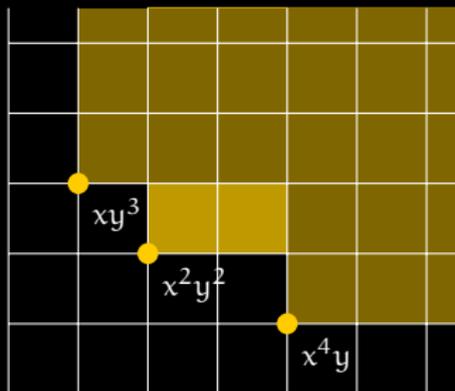


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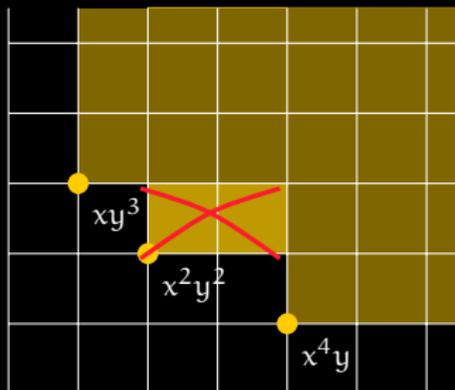
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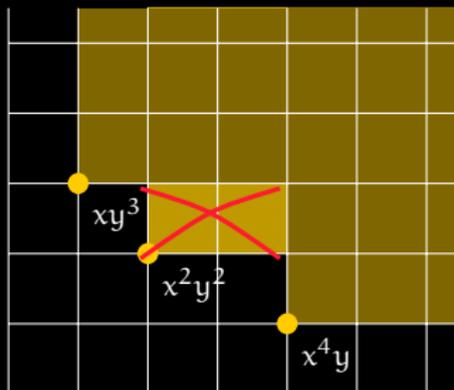
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The basis is called a Gröbner basis if this does not happen.

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$\{g_1, \dots, g_k\}$ is a Gröbner basis \iff

$\forall p \in \langle g_1, \dots, g_k \rangle \setminus \{0\} \exists i \in \{1, \dots, k\} : \text{Head}(g_i) \mid \text{Head}(p)$.

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Its elements can be interpreted as polynomial functions restricted to the zero set of I .

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Its elements can be interpreted as polynomial functions restricted to the zero set of I .

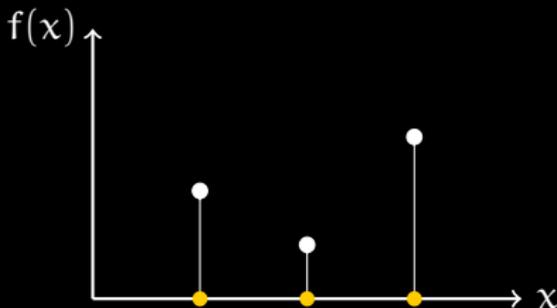


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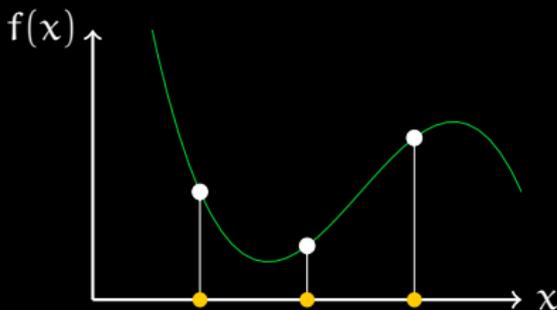


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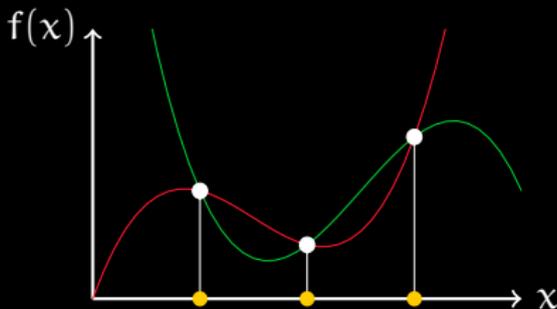


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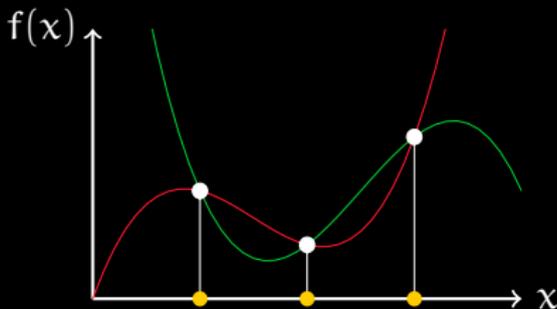


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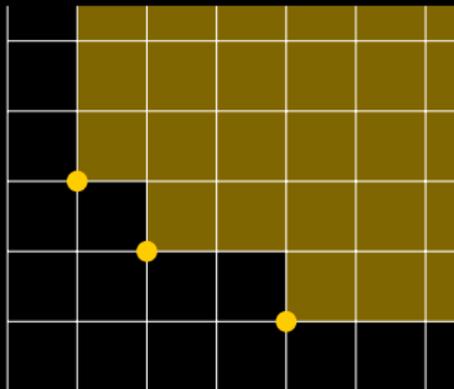
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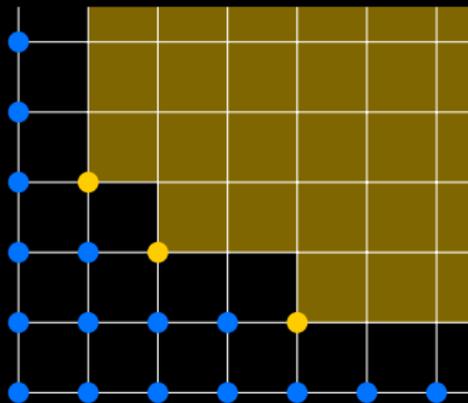


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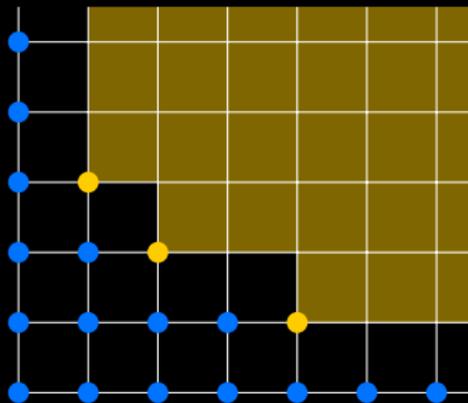


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The ideal basis is a Gröbner basis iff the blue terms form a vector space basis of $\mathbb{Q}[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I$.



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Lesson 5: Computing a Gröbner basis is not hopeless

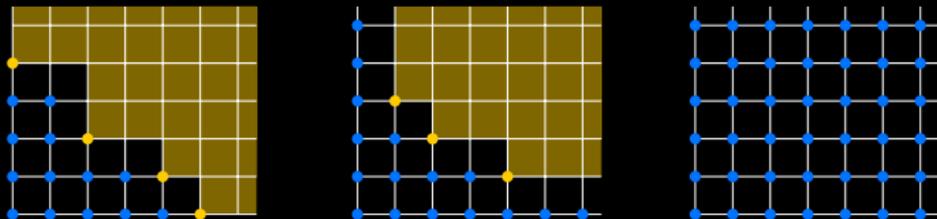
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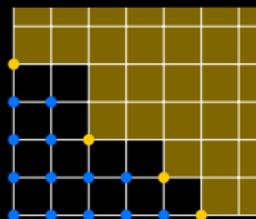
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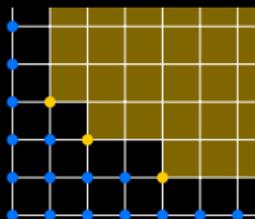
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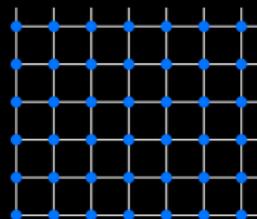
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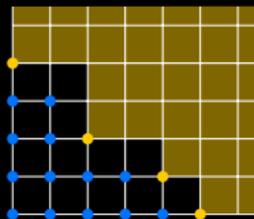


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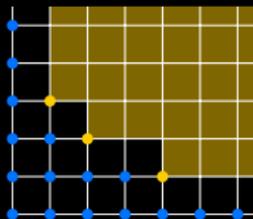
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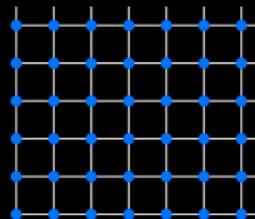
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isolated points



$\dim(I) = 1$
curves

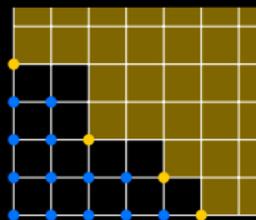


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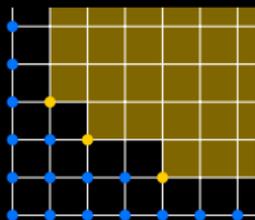
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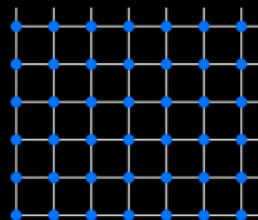
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$\dim(I) = 1$
curves



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Note: $\dim(I) = 0 \iff \dim \mathbb{Q}[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I < \infty$.

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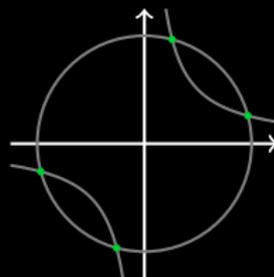
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Example:

$$\langle x^2 + y^2 - 4, xy - 1 \rangle \cap \mathbb{Q}[x]$$

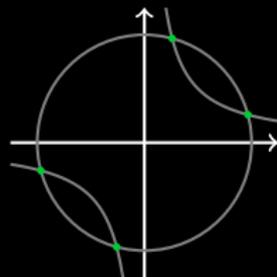


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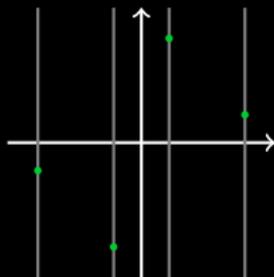


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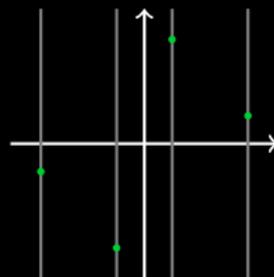


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Fact*: If G is a Gröbner basis of I , then $G \cap \mathbb{Q}[x, y]$ is a Gröbner basis of $I \cap \mathbb{Q}[x, y]$.

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Closure properties for algebraic functions via elimination.

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Example: Let $f(x), g(x)$ be power series satisfying

$$f(x)^2 - (2x + 3)f(x) + 1 = 0, \quad g(x)^2 + g(x) - x^3 = 0.$$

We want to find a polynomial equation for $h(x) = f(x) + g(x)$.

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$$\begin{aligned} & \langle f^2 - (2x + 3)f + 1, g^2 + g - x^3, h - (f + g) \rangle \cap \mathbb{Q}[x, h] \\ &= \langle h^4 - 4(x+1)h^3 - (2x^3 - 4x^2 - 6x - 3)h^2 \\ & \quad + 2(2x^3 + 2x + 1)(x+1)h + (x+1)^2(x^4 - 6x^3 + x^2 - 1) \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

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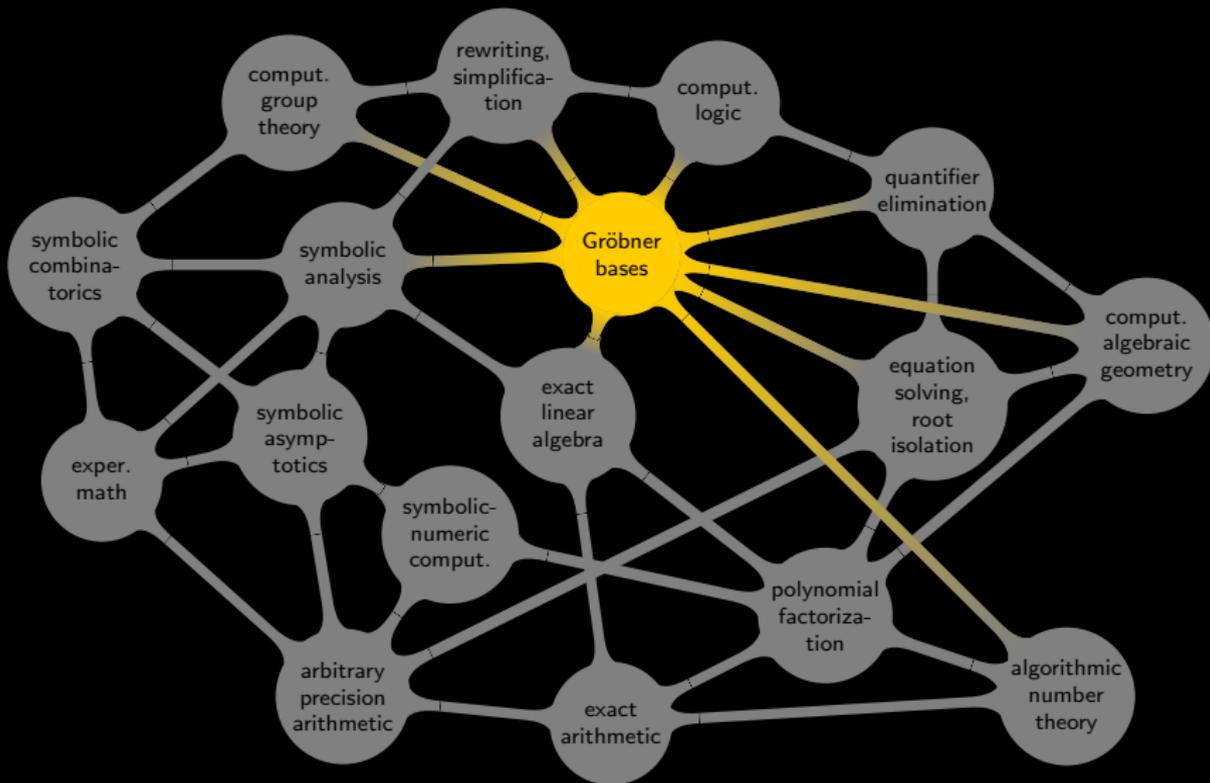
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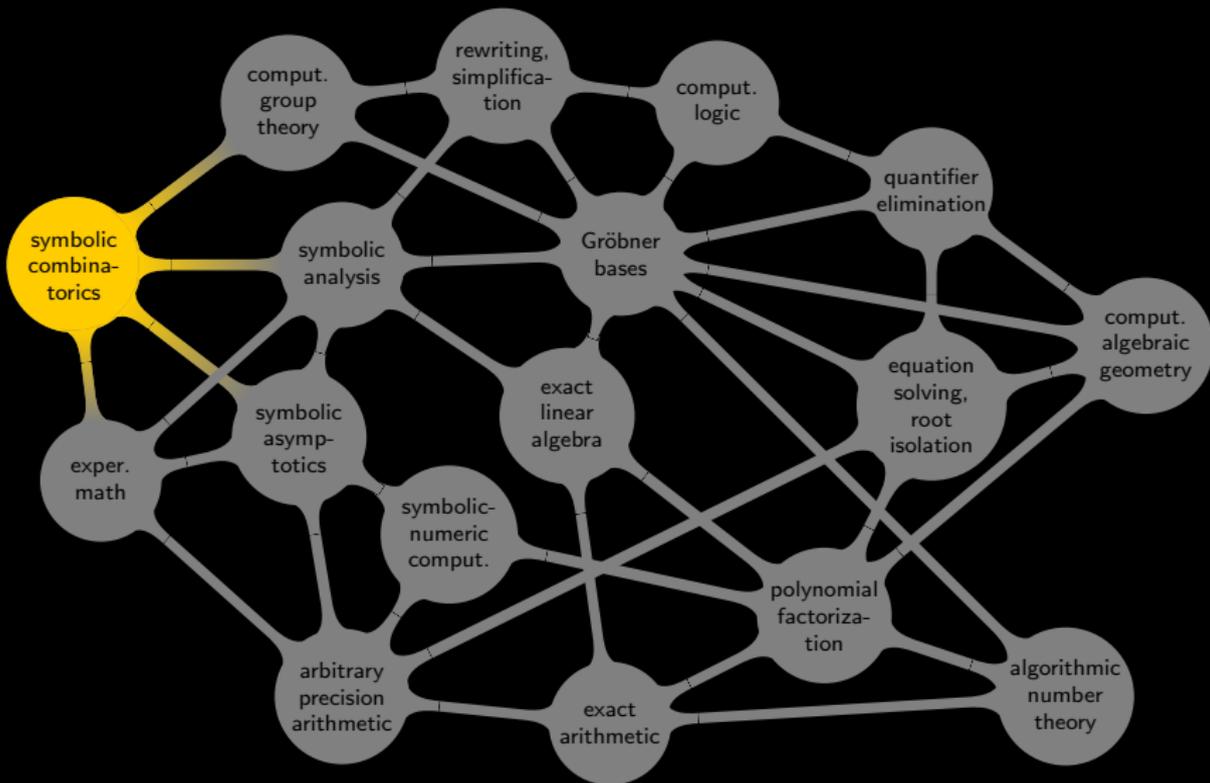
$$\begin{aligned} &\langle \alpha^2 - a, 2\alpha\beta - b, 3\beta^2 - c \rangle \cap \mathbb{Q}[a, b, c] \\ &= \langle 3b^2 - 4ac \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Lesson 6: Gröbner bases are useful

Exercises.

- How long does it take on your computer to compute a Gröbner basis for 3 random polynomials in 4 variables of total degree 5?
- Let $I, J \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[x, y, z]$ be ideals. Show that $I \cap J$ is also an ideal, and that $\dim I = \dim J = 0 \iff \dim(I \cap J) = 0$. What does this mean geometrically?
- Given the minimal polynomials of two algebraic functions $f(x), g(x)$, how can we find the minimal polynomial of their composition $h(x) := f(g(x))$?





Definition.

- 1 A function $f(x)$ is called **D-finite** if there exist polynomials $c_0(x), \dots, c_r(x)$, not all zero, such that

$$c_0(x)f(x) + c_1(x)f'(x) + \cdots + c_r(x)f^{(r)}(x) = 0.$$

- 2 A sequence $(f_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is called **D-finite** if there exist polynomials $c_0(n), \dots, c_r(n)$, not all zero, such that

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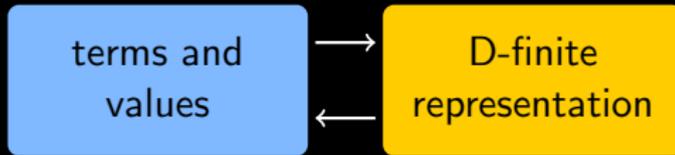
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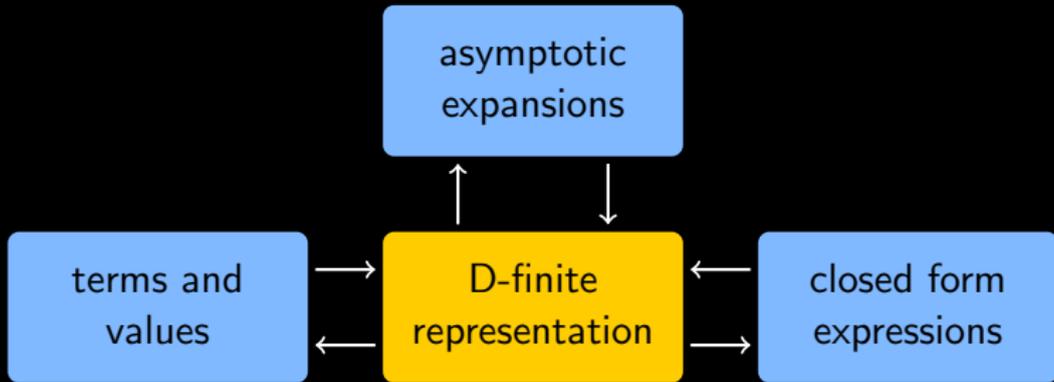
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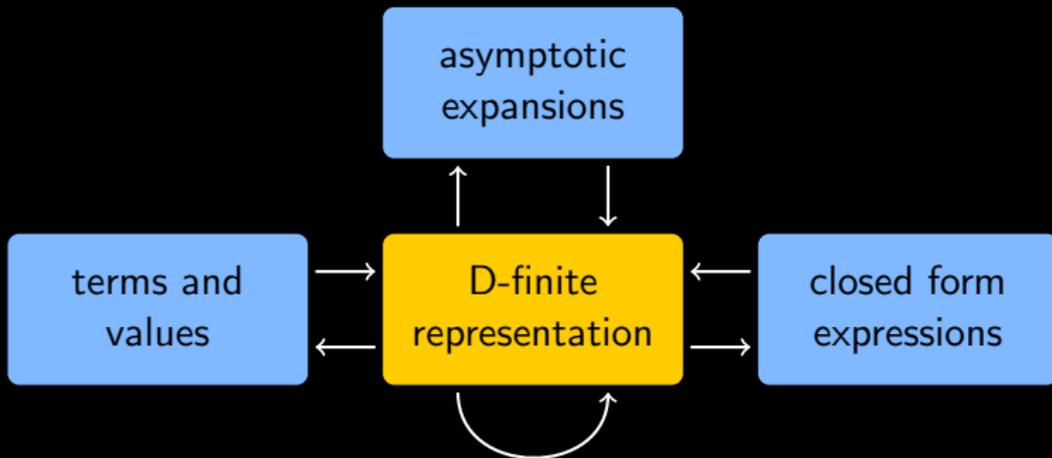
Key feature: a D-finite object is uniquely determined by a defining equation plus a finite number of initial terms.

D-finite
representation









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$$\begin{aligned} &x(4x - 1)(27x - 4)(6x^2 - 14x - 1)f^{(3)}(x) \\ &+ 6(486x^4 - 1472x^3 + 182x^2 + 24x - 1)f''(x) \\ &+ 12(174x^3 - 636x^2 - 46x + 9)f'(x) \\ &+ 72(x^2 - 6x - 2)f(x) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

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Yes, it is. It can be shown using the guess-and-prove paradigm.

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- Because of uniqueness, we have $f(x) = g(x)$. It follows that $f(x)$ is D-finite.

Lesson 7: Guessing is easy, but proving is not necessarily harder.

f is a D-finite function, i.e., a solution of a linear differential equation

$$p_0(x)f(x) + \cdots + p_r(x)f^{(r)}(x) = 0$$

with polynomial coefficients p_0, \dots, p_r , **if and only if** the vector space generated by f, f', f'', \dots over the rational function field has finite dimension:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{Q}(x)f + \mathbb{Q}(x)f' + \mathbb{Q}(x)f'' + \cdots \\ &= \mathbb{Q}(x)f + \mathbb{Q}(x)f' + \cdots + \mathbb{Q}(x)f^{(r-1)}. \end{aligned}$$

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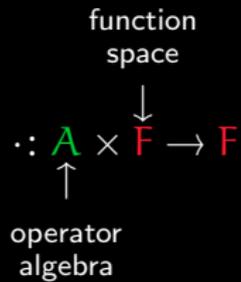
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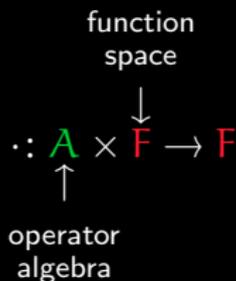
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This argument, and in fact the whole idea of D-finiteness, extends to a more general setting.

Let us consider **operators** acting on **functions**.



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- differential operators: $\mathbf{x} \cdot (t \mapsto f(t)) := (t \mapsto t f(t))$
 $\partial \cdot (t \mapsto f(t)) := (t \mapsto f'(t))$
- recurrence operators: $\mathbf{x} \cdot (a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} := (n a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$
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- q-recurrence operators: $\mathbf{x} \cdot (a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} := (q^n a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$
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Want: Action should be compatible with polynomial arithmetic

$$(L + M) \cdot f = (L \cdot f) + (M \cdot f)$$

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We need to change multiplication so as to fit to the action.

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- Then A together with this $+$ and \cdot is called an **Ore Algebra**.

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This is a C -subspace of F , where $C = \{ c \in K : c\partial = \partial c \}$.

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- Note also:

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Example: $\mathbb{Q}(x, y, z)[D_x, D_y, D_z]$ acts naturally on the space F of meromorphic functions in three variables.

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$$K[\partial_1, \dots, \partial_m] / \text{ann}(f) \cong K[\partial_1, \dots, \partial_m] \cdot f \subseteq F$$

as K -vector spaces.

- f is called **D-finite** if

$$\dim_K K[\partial_1, \dots, \partial_m] / \text{ann}(f) < \infty$$

- This is the case if and only if $\text{ann}(f) \cap K[\partial_i] \neq \{0\}$ for all i .

Example:

For $f(x, y) = \sqrt{x + y^2} - 3x^2 + y$ and $A = \mathbb{Q}(x, y)[D_x, D_y]$ we have

$$\text{ann}(f) = \langle (9x^2 + y + 12xy^2)D_y + (2x + 6x^2y)D_x - (1 + 12xy), \\ (x + 3x^2y + y^2 + 3xy^3)D_y^2 + (y - 3x^2)D_y - 1 \rangle.$$

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This function is D-finite because

$$\text{ann}(f) \cap \mathbb{Q}(x, y)[D_y] \\ = \langle (x + 3x^2y + y^2 + 3xy^3)D_y^2 + (y - 3x^2)D_y - 1 \rangle \neq \{0\}$$

$$\text{ann}(f) \cap \mathbb{Q}(x, y)[D_x] \\ = \langle 2(x + y^2)(9x^2 + y + 12xy^2)D_x^2 - (27x^2 - y + 48xy^2 + 24y^4)D_x \\ + (18x + 12y^2) \rangle \neq \{0\}.$$

Example:

For $f(n, k) = 2^k + \binom{n}{k}$ and $A = \mathbb{Q}(n, k)[S_n, S_k]$ we have

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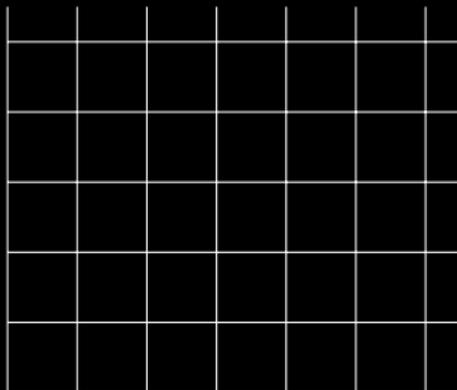
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In particular, a vector space basis of $K[\partial_1, \dots, \partial_m]/\text{ann}(f)$ is given by the terms $\partial_1^{e_1} \cdots \partial_m^{e_m}$ which are not the leading term of any element of $\text{ann}(f)$.

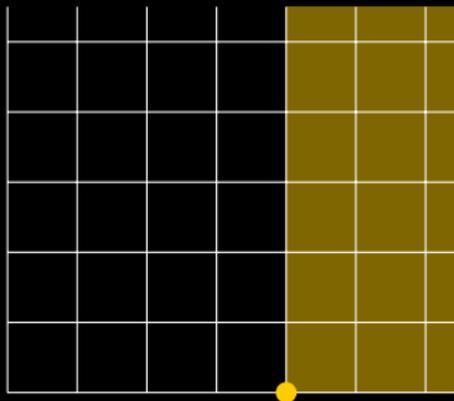
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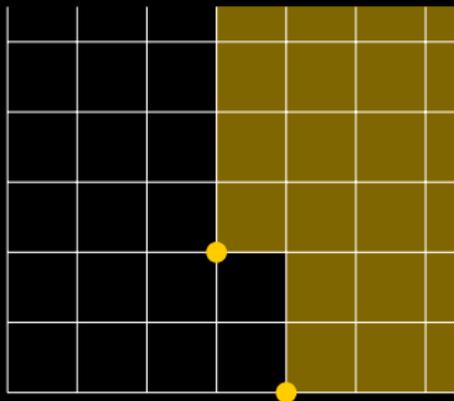
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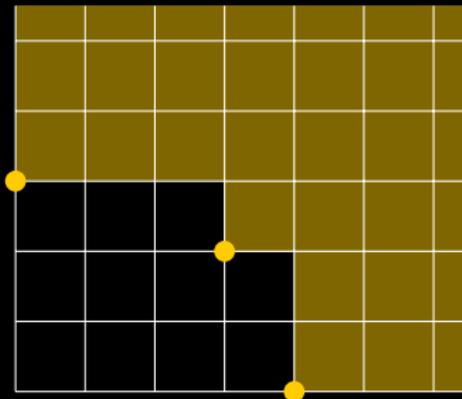
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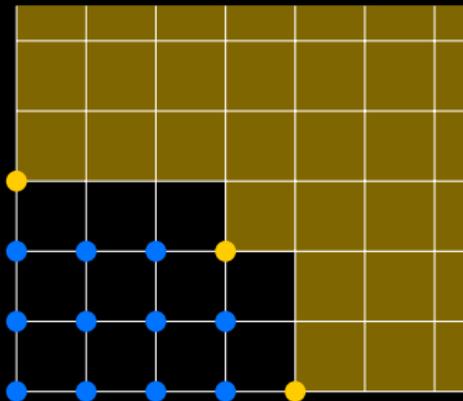
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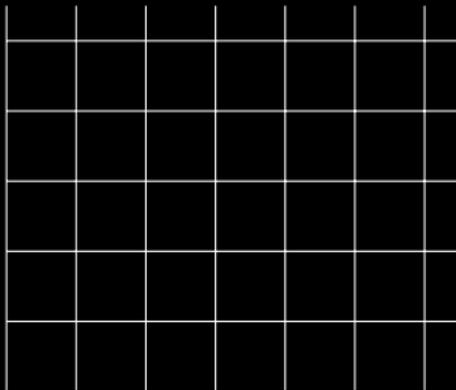
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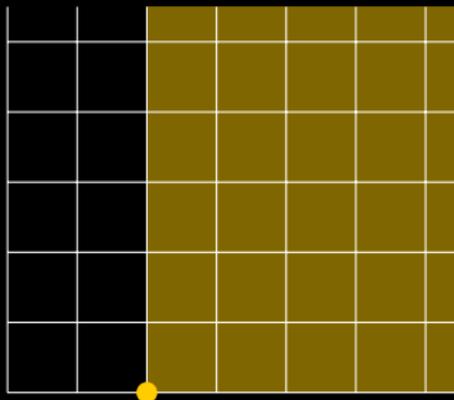
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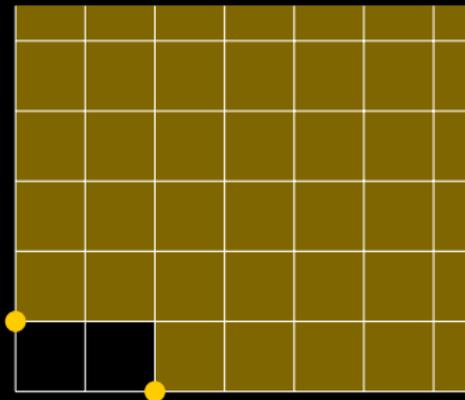
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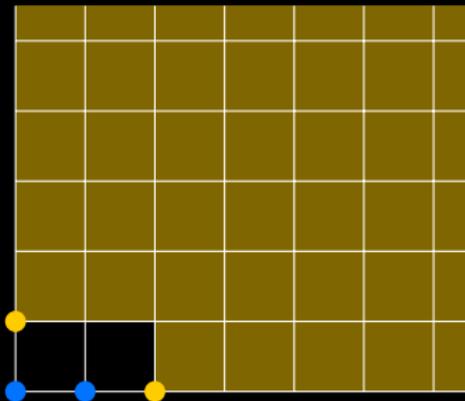
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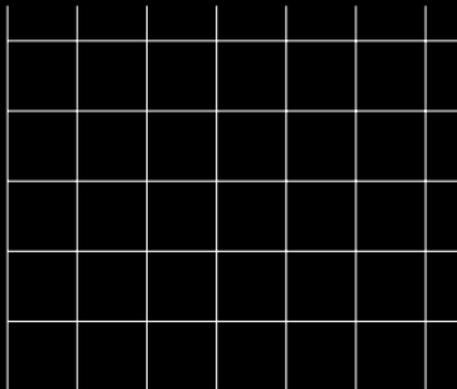
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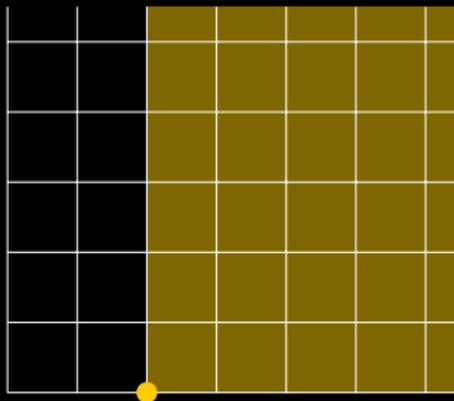
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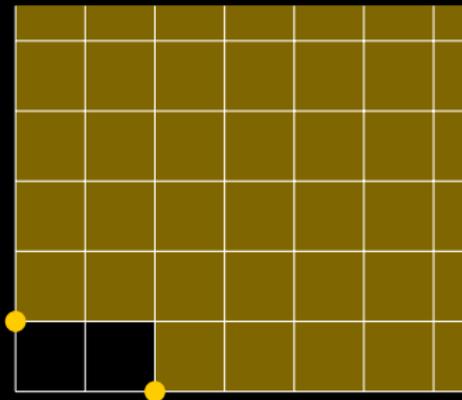
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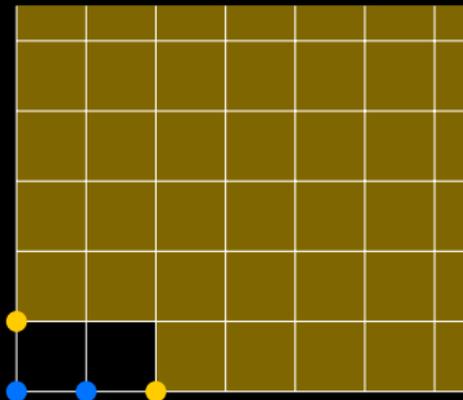
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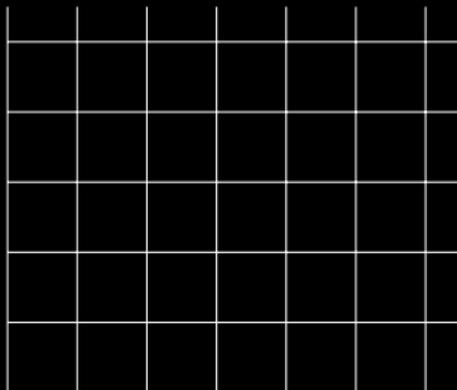
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$P_n(x)$ = the n th Legendre polynomial

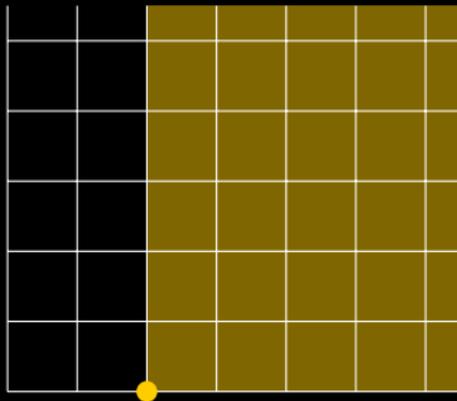
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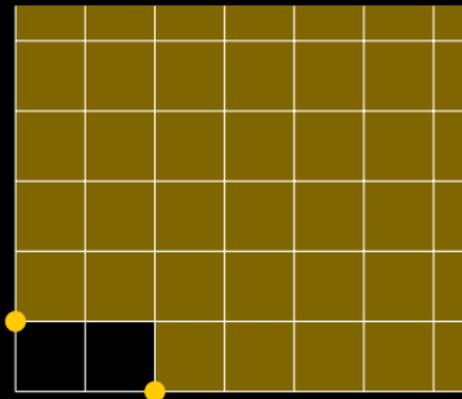
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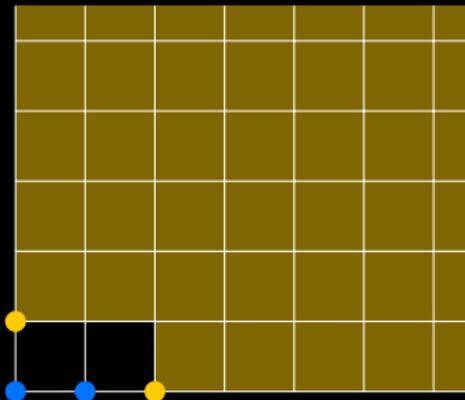
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Closure properties work as in the univariate case:

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- $f(x, y)$ D-finite and g nonconstant algebraic $\Rightarrow f(x, g)$ D-finite
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These properties are realized by creative telescoping.

Lesson 8: We are not limited to one variable and shift or derivation

The functional equation

$$2xf(x) + (x + 1)f(x)^2 + (2x - 1)f'(x) = 0$$

has a unique power series solution

$$f(x) = 1 + x + \frac{7}{2}x^2 + \dots$$

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This series does not seem to be D-finite.

But it is **differentially algebraic**.

Definition.

A power series $f(x)$ is called **differentially algebraic (ADE)** if there is a nonzero polynomial $p \in \mathbb{Q}[x, y_0, y_1, \dots, y_r]$ such that

$$p(x, f(x), f'(x), \dots, f^{(r)}(x)) = 0.$$

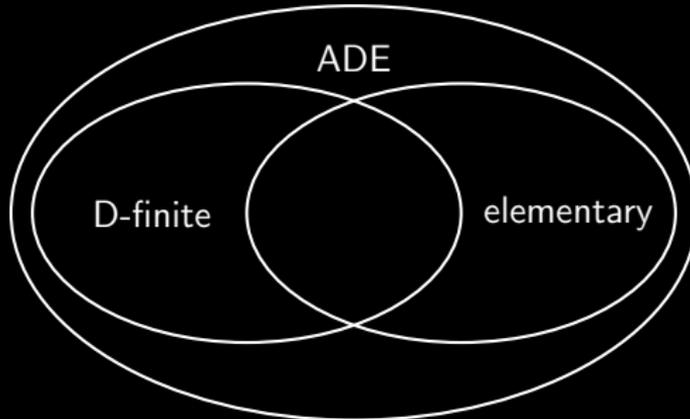
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- The generating function counting the number quarter plane walks with step set $\{\swarrow, \leftarrow, \uparrow, \rightarrow\}$ is differentially algebraic. (The equation is rather big, though.)

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- **Guessing:** algebraic differential equations can be reconstructed from initial values.
→ Ansatz, coefficient comparison, linear system solving.
- **Closure properties:** many operations preserve differentially-algebraic-ness.
→ Closure properties can be executed via Gröbner bases.

Example: Let B_n be the Bernoulli numbers defined through

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{B_n}{n!} x^n$$

with $xf'(x) - (1-x)f(x) + f(x)^2 = 0$.

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We want to prove the identity

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (1 - 2^{1-k})(1 - 2^{1-(n-k)}) B_k B_{n-k} = (1 - n) B_n$$

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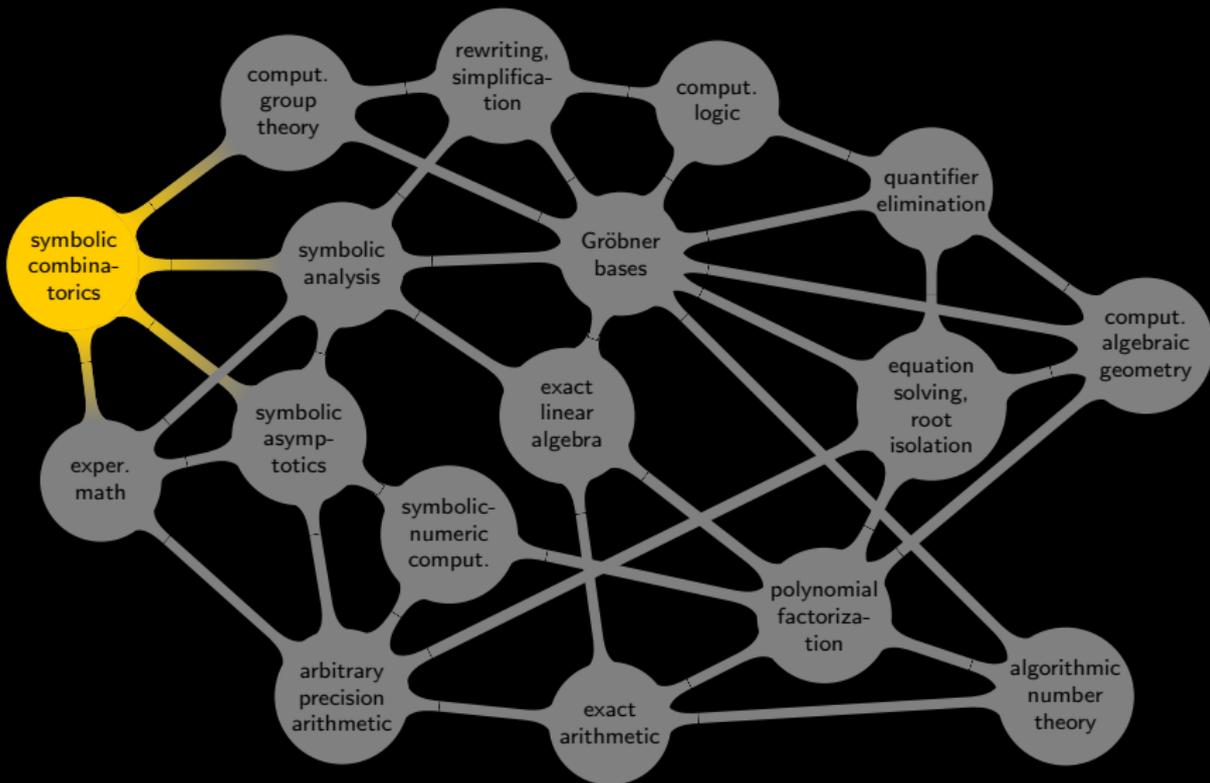
Compute an ADE for $h(x)$ and check that its unique power series solution starting like $0 + 0x + 0x^2 + \dots$ is the zero series. ■

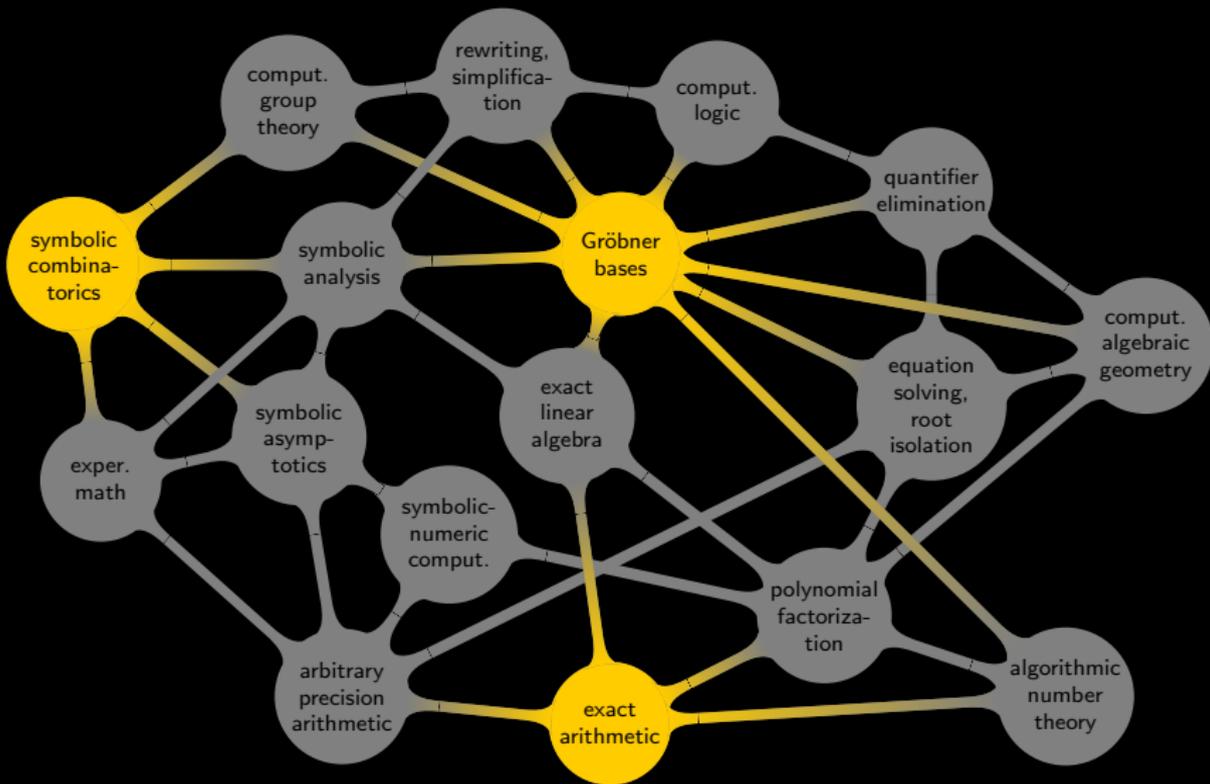
$$\begin{aligned}
& 12x^4h(x)^2h''(x)^2 - 12x^2h(x)^4h''(x) + (12x^4 - 16x^2)h(x)^3h''(x) \\
& + 32x^4h'(x)^4 + 28x^3h(x)^3h'(x) - 96x^3h(x)h'(x)^3 \\
& + 16x^2h(x)^3h'(x)^2 + (80x^2 - 19x^4)h(x)^2h'(x)^2 \\
& - 16xh(x)^4h'(x) - 40x^4h(x)h'(x)^2h''(x) + 64x^3h(x)^2h'(x)h''(x) \\
& - (6x^2 + 8)h(x)^5 + (3x^4 - 4x^2 - 16)h(x)^4 + 3h(x)^6 = 0.
\end{aligned}$$

Lesson 9: We are not limited to D-finite functions

Exercises.

- Find a linear recurrence equation for $\binom{2n}{n} + 2^n - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{1+k^2}$, and a differential equation for its generating function.
- How do we need to define σ and δ in order to obtain an Ore algebra where ∂ acts like $\partial \cdot f(x) = f(x+1) - f(x)$?
- Show that when $f(x)$ is differentially algebraic, then so are $1/f(x)$, $\sqrt{f(x)}$, $\exp(f(x))$, and $\log(f(x))$.





Lesson 1: Fast algorithms are really fast

Lesson 2: Organize your computations well

Lesson 3: Sometimes it's faster to take a detour

Lesson 4: Gröbner bases can not only solve nonlinear systems

Lesson 5: Computing a Gröbner basis is not hopeless

Lesson 6: Gröbner bases are useful

Lesson 7: Guessing is easy, but proving is not necessarily harder

Lesson 8: We are not limited to one variable and shift or derivation

Lesson 9: We are not limited to D-finite functions