

Curriculum Vitae

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My research interests are computer algebra, symbolic computation, computational algebraic geometry, algorithmic combinatorics, and the applications of all that in the algebraic theory of differential equations, difference equations, knot theory and cryptography. The following sections describe my research plans in the future.

The algebraic-geometric method for solving algebraic difference equations

Fast computation of intersections of zero-dimensional ideals of linear partial differential operators

The improved holonomic gradient method via gauge transformation

1 Contraction of Ore ideals with applications

1.1 Introduction

Let \mathbb{K} be a field of characteristic 0. Consider the following linear recurrence equation:

$$a_0(n)f(n) + \cdots + a_r(n)f(n+r) = 0, \quad (1)$$

where $a_i \in \mathbb{K}[n]$ with $a_r \neq 0$, and $i = 0, \dots, r$. The roots of $a_r(n)$ is called the singularities of (1). There is a strong connection between the roots of a_r and the singularities of a solution of (1).

It is well know that every singularity of a solution of (1) must be a root of a_r . However, the converse is not true. Generally speaking, the leading coefficient a_r may have roots at a point where no solution is singular. Such points are called apparent singularities, and it is sometimes useful to identify them. The technique for doing so is called desingularization. For instance, consider the recurrence operator

$$L = (1 + 16n)^2 \partial^2 - 32(7 + 16n) \partial - (1 + n)(17 + 16n)^2,$$

which comes from [1, Section 4.1]. In this, we use ∂ to denote the shift operator $f(n) \mapsto f(n+1)$. For any choice of two initial values $u_0, u_1 \in \mathbb{Q}$, there is a unique sequence $u: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ with $u(0) = u_0$, $u(1) = u_1$ and L applied to u

gives the zero sequence. A priori, it is not obvious whether or not u is actually an integer sequence, if we choose u_0, u_1 from \mathbb{Z} , because the calculation of the $(n+2)$ nd term from the earlier terms via the recurrence encoded by L requires a division by $(1+16n)^2$, which could introduce fractions. In order to show that this division never introduces a denominator, we note that every solution of L is also a solution of its left multiple

$$\begin{aligned} T = & \partial^3 + (128n^3 - 104n^2 - 11n - 3) \partial^2 + \\ & (-256n^2 + 127n + 94) \partial - \\ & (128n^2 + 24n - 131)(1+n)^2, \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

The operator T has the interesting property that the factor $(1+16n)^2$ has been “removed” from the leading coefficient, which immediately certifies the integrality of its solutions. The process of obtaining the operator T from L is called desingularization, because there is a polynomial factor in the leading coefficient of L which does not appear in the leading coefficient of T .

In more algebraic terms, we consider the following problem. Given an operator $L \in \mathbb{Z}[x][\partial]$, where $\mathbb{Z}[x][\partial]$ is an Ore algebra, we consider the left ideal $\langle L \rangle = \mathbb{Q}(x)[\partial]L$ generated by L in the extended algebra $\mathbb{Q}(x)[\partial]$. The contraction of $\langle L \rangle$ to $\mathbb{Z}[x][\partial]$ is defined as $\text{Cont}(L) := \langle L \rangle \cap \mathbb{Z}[x][\partial]$. This is a left ideal of $\mathbb{Z}[x][\partial]$ which contains $\mathbb{Z}[x][\partial]L$, but in general more operators. Our goal is to compute a $\mathbb{Z}[x][\partial]$ -generating set of $\text{Cont}(L)$. In the example above, such a generating set is given by $\{L, T\}$. The traditional desingularization problem corresponds to computing a generating set of the $\mathbb{Q}[x][\partial]$ -left ideal $\langle L \rangle \cap \mathbb{Q}[x][\partial]$.

1.2 Main results

Given an Ore operator L with polynomial coefficients in x , it generates a left ideal I in the Ore algebra over the field $\mathbb{K}(x)$ of rational functions.

- (1) We present an algorithm for computing a generating set of the contraction ideal of I in the Ore algebra over the ring $R[x]$ of polynomials, where R may be either \mathbb{K} or a domain with \mathbb{K} as its fraction field.
- (2) Using a generating set of the contraction ideal, we compute a completely desingularized operator for L whose leading coefficient not only has minimal degree in x but also has minimal content.
- (3) Using completely desingularized operators, we study how to certify the integrality of a sequence and check special cases of a conjecture of Krattenthaler.

This work is published in ISSAC’16 [18].

1.3 Future work

- (1) Our algorithms rely heavily on the computation of Gröbner bases over a principal ideal domain R . At present, the computation of Gröbner bases over R is not fully available in a computer algebra system. So the algorithms are not yet implemented. We would like to implement our algorithm in Maple or Mathematica by using linear algebra over R as much as possible.

- (2) Design algorithms for determining a generating set of a contraction ideal in the multivariate Ore algebra.

2 Apparent singularities of D-finite systems

2.1 Introduction

A D-finite function is specified by a linear ordinary differential equation with polynomial coefficients and finitely many initial values. Each singularity of a D-finite function will be a root of the coefficient of the highest order derivative appearing in the corresponding differential equation. For instance, x^{-1} is a solution of the equation $xf'(x) + f(x) = 0$, and the singularity at the origin is also the root of the polynomial x . However, the converse is not true. For instance, the solution space of the differential equation $xf'(x) - 3f(x) = 0$ is spanned by x^3 as a vector space, but none of those functions has singularity at the origin.

More specifically, we consider the following ordinary differential equation

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

where $p_i \in \mathbb{K}[x]$ with $p_r \neq 0$, and \mathbb{K} is a field of characteristic 0. The roots of p_r are called the singularities of the equation. A root α of p_r is called *apparent* if the differential equation admits r linearly independent formal power series solutions in $x - \alpha$. Deciding whether a singularity is apparent is therefore the same as checking whether the equation admits a fundamental system of formal power series solutions at this point. This can be done by inspecting the so-called *indicial polynomial* of the equation at α and solving a system of finitely many linear equations. If a singularity α of an ordinary differential is apparent, then we can always construct a second ordinary differential equation whose solution space contains all the solutions of the first equation, and which does not have α as a singularity any more. This process is called *desingularization*. The purpose of our work is to generalize the facts sketched above to the multivariate setting.

2.2 Main results

- (1) We generalize the notions of singularities and ordinary points from linear ordinary differential equations to D-finite systems. Ordinary points of a D-finite system are characterized in terms of its formal power series solutions.
- (2) We show that apparent singularities can be removed like in the univariate case by adding suitable additional solutions to the system at hand.
- (3) Several algorithms are presented for removing and detecting apparent singularities of D-finite systems.
- (4) An algorithm is given for computing formal power series solutions of a D-finite system at apparent singularities.

This work is available in [2].

2.3 Future work

- (1) Generalize our algorithms for removing and detecting apparent singularities of D-finite systems to other singularities.
- (2) Study the desingularization problem for the multivariate linear difference equations with polynomial coefficients.

3 Laurent series solutions of algebraic ordinary differential equations

3.1 Introduction

An algebraic ordinary differential equation (AODE) is of the form

$$F(x, y, y', \dots, y^{(n)}) = 0,$$

where F is a polynomial in $y, y', \dots, y^{(n)}$ with coefficients in $\mathbb{K}(x)$, the field \mathbb{K} is algebraically closed field of characteristic zero, and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Many problems from applications (such as physics, combinatorics and statistics) can be characterized in terms of AODEs. Therefore, determining (closed form) solutions of an AODE is one of the central problems in mathematics and computer science.

Although linear ODEs [7] have been intensively studied, there are still many challenging problems for solving (nonlinear) AODEs. As far as we know, approaches for solving AODEs are only available for very specific subclasses. For example, Riccati equations, which have the form $y' = f_0(x) + f_1(x)y + f_2(x)y^2$ for some $f_0, f_1, f_2 \in \mathbb{K}(x)$, can be considered as the simplest form of nonlinear AODEs. In [11], Kovacic gives a complete algorithm for determining Liouvillian solutions of a Riccati equation with rational function coefficients.

Since the problem of solving an arbitrary AODE is very difficult, it is natural to ask whether a given AODE admits some special kinds of solutions, such as polynomials, rational functions, or formal power series. During the last two decades, an algebraic-geometric approach for finding symbolic solutions of AODEs has been developed. The work by Feng and Gao in [4, 5] for computing rational general solutions of first-order autonomous AODEs can be considered as the starting point. The authors of [12, 6, 16, 15] developed methods for finding different kinds of solutions of non-autonomous, higher-order AODEs. For formal power series solutions, we refer to [3, 14]. As far as we know, there is few results concerning Laurent series solutions of AODEs. Our main purpose is to give a method for determining such solutions.

3.2 Main results

- (1) We present several approaches to compute formal power series solutions of a given AODE.
- (2) Given an AODE, we determine a bound for the order of its Laurent series solutions. Using the order bound, one can transform a given AODE into a new one whose Laurent series solutions are only formal power series.
- (3) As applications, new algorithms are presented for determining all particular polynomial and rational solutions of certain classes of AODEs.

This work is available in [17].

3.3 Future work

- (1) Design algorithms for computing formal power series solutions of AODEs, which extends the classic Implicit Function Theorem of AODEs.
- (2) Compute rational solutions of first-order algebraic difference equations by using the parametrization of algebraic curves.

4 Desingularization in the q -Weyl algebra

4.1 Introduction

Prof. Stavros Garoufalidis, who is an expert for knot theory, presented the following conjecture in an email with the author:

Conjecture 4.1. (*Garoufalidis*): Let $J_{K,n}(q)$ denote the Jones polynomial of a knot colored by the n -dimensional irreducible representation of \mathfrak{sl}_2 and normalized by $J_{Unknot,n}(q) = 1$. Then, (a) $(1 - q^n) * J_{K,n}(q)$ satisfies a bimonic recursion relation. (b) $J_{K,n}(q)$ does not satisfy a monic recursion relation.

Using q -holonomic summation methods (as implemented in the `qMultiSum` package [13] or `HolonomicFunctions` package [9]) or by guessing (as implemented in the `Guess` package [8]), we can always compute q -holonomic recurrence equations for $(1 - q^n) * J_{K,n}(q)$ and $J_{K,n}(q)$, respectively. However, the equation for $(1 - q^n) * J_{K,n}(q)$ usually does not satisfy the property in Conjecture 4.1. Furthermore, we can not see immediately that $J_{K,n}(q)$ does not satisfy a monic recursion relation.

In order to certify Conjecture 4.1 for some specific $J_{K,n}(q)$, we develop the desingularization technique in the q -Weyl algebra.

As an example, consider the q -holonomic sequence

$$f(n) = [n]_q := \frac{q^n - 1}{q - 1}$$

that is a q -analog of the natural numbers. The minimal-order homogeneous q -recurrence satisfied by $f(n)$ is

$$(q^n - 1)f(n + 1) - (q^{n+1} - 1)f(n) = 0,$$

in operator notation:

$$((q^n - 1)\partial - q^{n+1} + 1) \cdot f(n) = 0. \quad (3)$$

When we multiply this operator by a suitable left factor, we obtain a monic (and hence: desingularized) operator of order 2:

$$\frac{1}{q^{n+1} - 1} (\partial - q) ((q^n - 1)\partial - q^{n+1} + 1) = \partial^2 - (q + 1)\partial + q. \quad (4)$$

The process of deriving (4) from (3) is called desingularization in the q -Weyl algebra.

4.2 Main results

- (1) We give an order bound for desingularized operators, and thus derive an algorithm for computing desingularized operators in the first q -Weyl algebra.
- (2) An algorithm is presented for computing a generating set of the first q -Weyl closure of a given q -difference operator.
- (3) As an application, we certify that several instances of $J_{K,n}(q)$ always satisfy the properties specified in Conjecture 4.1.

This work is available in [10].

4.3 Future work

- (1) Study the desingularization problem in the multivariate q -Weyl algebra.
- (2) Develop the desingularization technique for linear Mahler equations.

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