

Computing Solutions of Linear Mahler Equations

Frédéric Chyzak



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Joint work with Th. Dreyfus, Ph. Dumas, and M. Mezzarobba

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- enumeration of words
- complexity analysis of divide-and-conquer algorithms
- partition theory
- transcendence theory

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In contrast, if $b = \text{char } \mathbb{K}$ and is prime, all solutions y are algebraic:
 $y(x^b) = y(x)^b$. (See Dumas's talk.)

Targeted classes

Given L of order r , with polynomial coefficients of degree $\leq d$, find algorithms of reasonable complexity for:

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← our focus in this talk

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$$\sum_{k=0}^r \ell_k M^k \left(\frac{p}{q} \right) = 0, \quad p \wedge q = 1, \quad q(0) \neq 0.$$

Initiating the Quest for Denominator Bounds

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$$q(\alpha) = 0 \text{ and } \beta^{b^r} = \alpha \implies \ell_r(\beta) = 0 \text{ or } (q(\alpha') = 0 \text{ for } \alpha' = \beta^{b^i}, i < r)$$

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Geometric intuition

If α , not a root of unity, is a root of q , it generates:

- a finite sequence $\alpha_0 = \alpha, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ of two by two distinct roots of q ,
- then, a b^r th root β_n of α_n that is a root of ℓ_r .

The Graeffe Operator: a Quasi-Inverse for the Mahler Operator

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \gamma = \alpha^b & (Gp)(\gamma) = 0 & Gp = \text{Res}_y(y^b - x, p(y)) \\ \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ \alpha \in \mathbb{C} & p(\alpha) = 0 & p \in \mathbb{K}[x] \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ \beta^b = \alpha & (Mp)(\beta) = 0 & Mp = p(x^b) \end{array}$$

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Key lemma

Given $\ell \in \mathbb{K}[x]$:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} q \in \mathbb{K}[x] \setminus \mathbb{K} \\ x \nmid q \\ M^r q \mid \ell \vee_{i=0}^{r-1} M^i q \end{array} \right. \implies \exists u \in \mathbb{K}[x] \setminus \mathbb{K}, \quad M^r u \mid \ell \quad \text{or} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} M^{r-1} u \mid \ell \\ q \mid Gu \end{array} \right.$$

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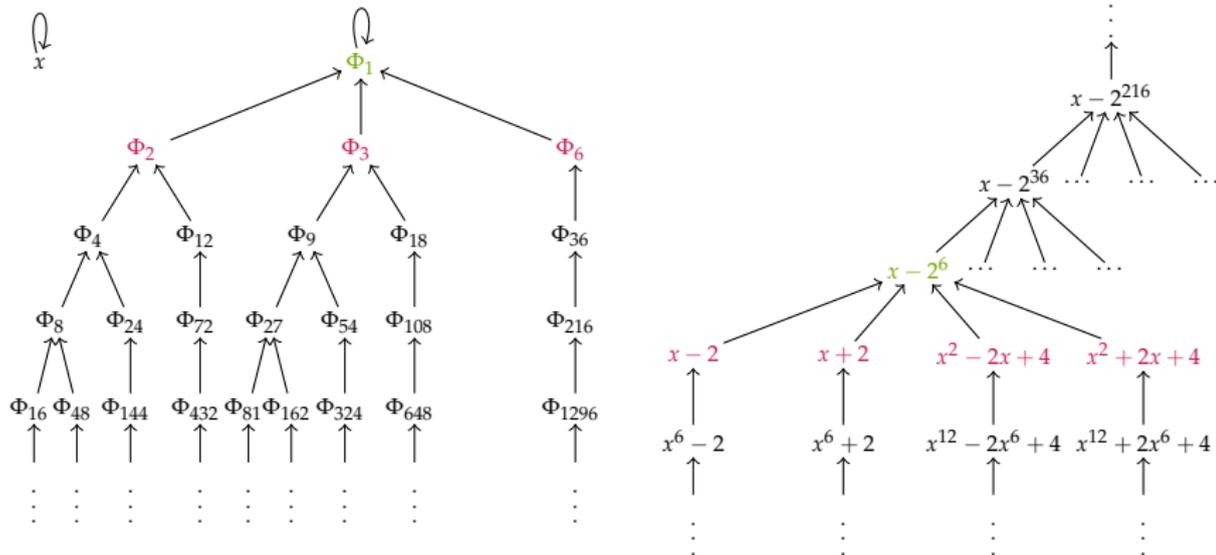
Remark: **left case** impossible $\implies q$ is a product of cyclotomic polynomials.

Graph of (Radical of) Graeffe Operator for $b = 6$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$

$$Mp = \prod_{q \text{ s.t. } \sqrt{G}(q)=p} q$$

$$M\Phi_1 = \Phi_1 \Phi_2 \Phi_3 \Phi_6$$

$$M(x-2^6) = (x-2)(x+2)(x^2-2x+4)(x^2+2x+4)$$

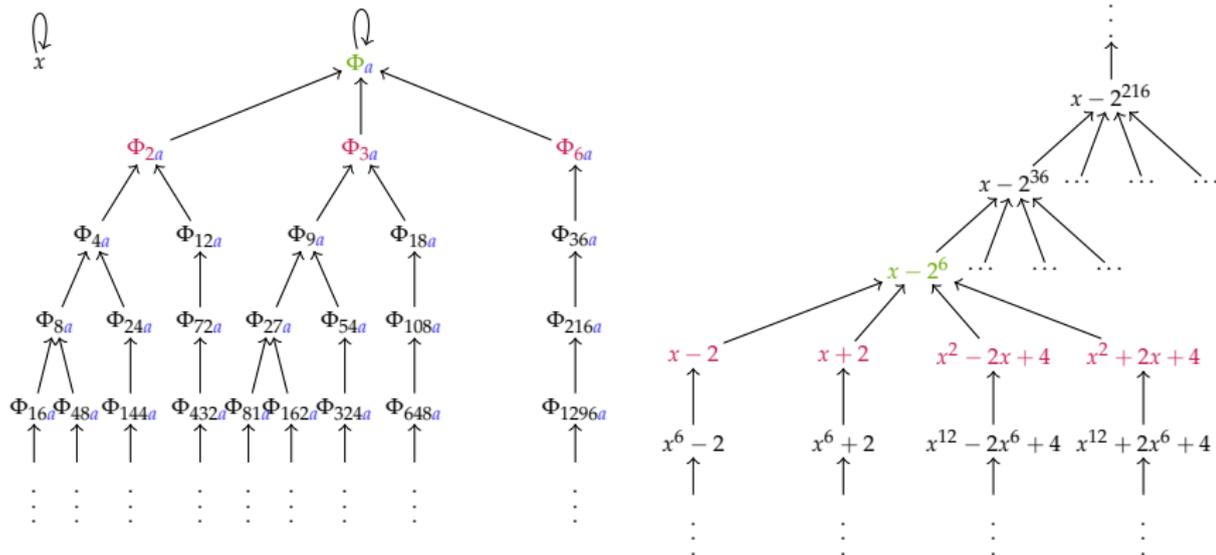


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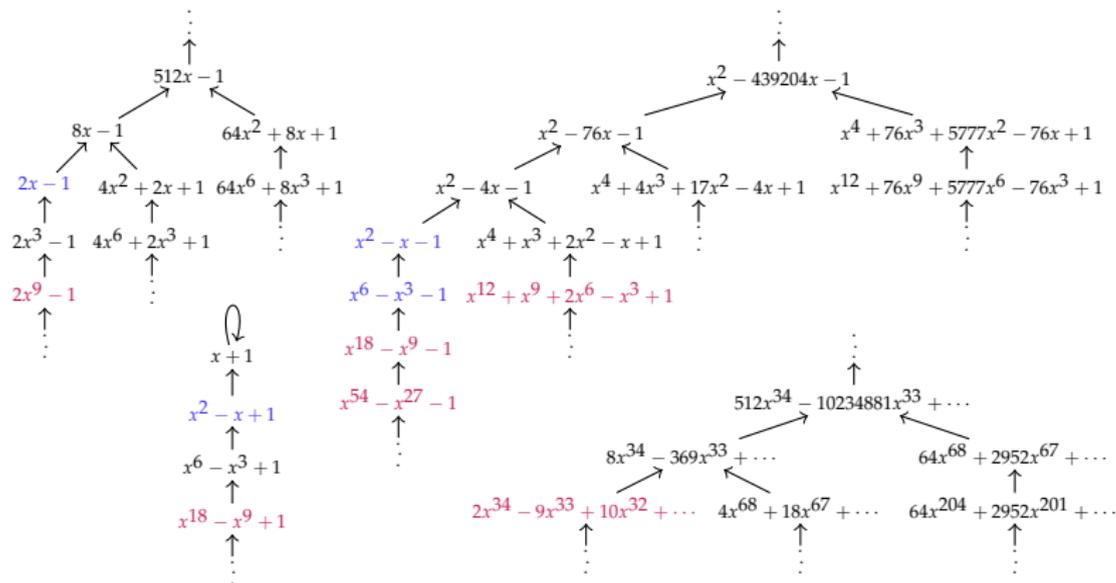
$$M(x - 2^6) = (x - 2)(x + 2)(x^2 - 2x + 4)(x^2 + 2x + 4)$$



Looking for a Denominator: an Example When $b = 3$

$$L = (2x^9 - 1)(x^{18} - x^9 - 1)(x^{12} + x^9 + 2x^6 - x^3 + 1)(x^{18} - x^9 + 1)(2x^{34} - 9x^{33} + 10x^{32} + \dots)(x^{54} - x^{27} - 1)M^2 + \dots$$

$$L\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = 0, \quad M^2q \mid \ell_2(q \vee Mq).$$

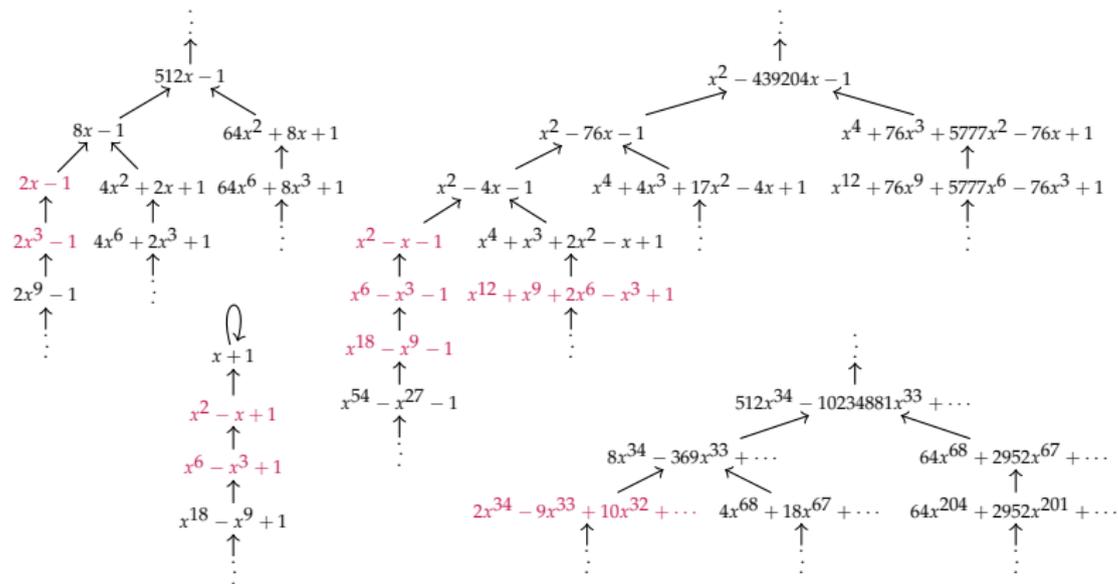


$$u_1 = (2x - 1)(x^2 - x + 1)(x^2 - x - 1)(x^6 - x^3 - 1) \implies M^2u_1 \mid \ell_2$$

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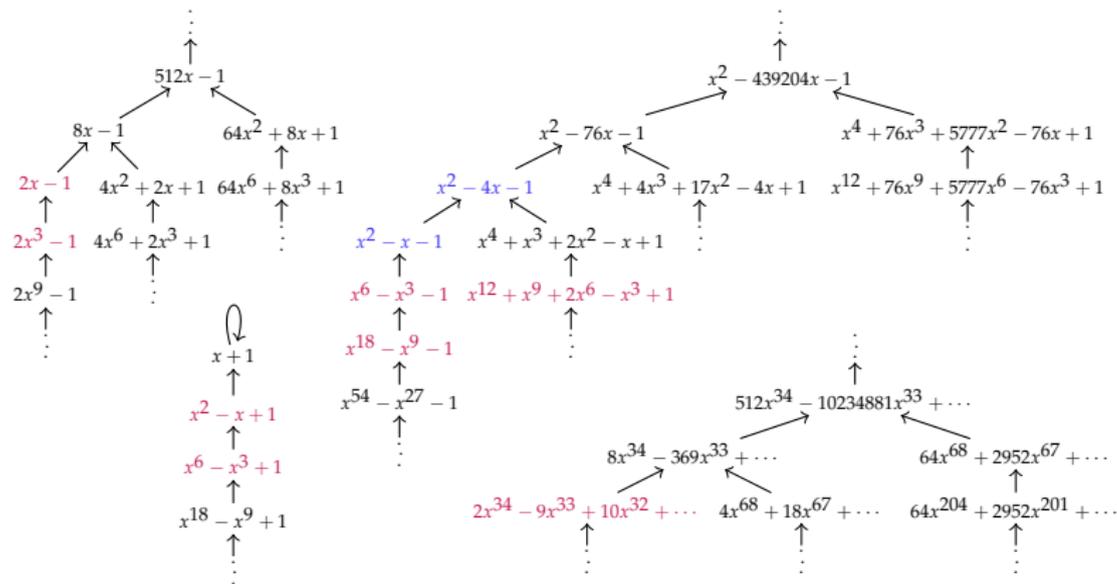
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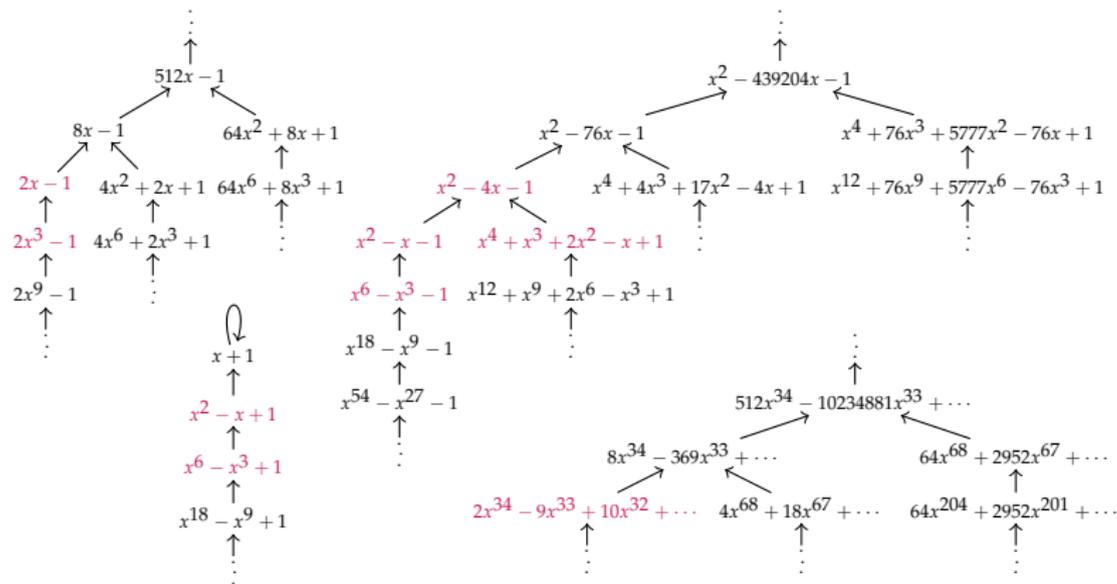


$$u_2 = (x^2 - x - 1)(x^2 - 4x - 1) \implies M^2u_2 \mid \ell_2$$

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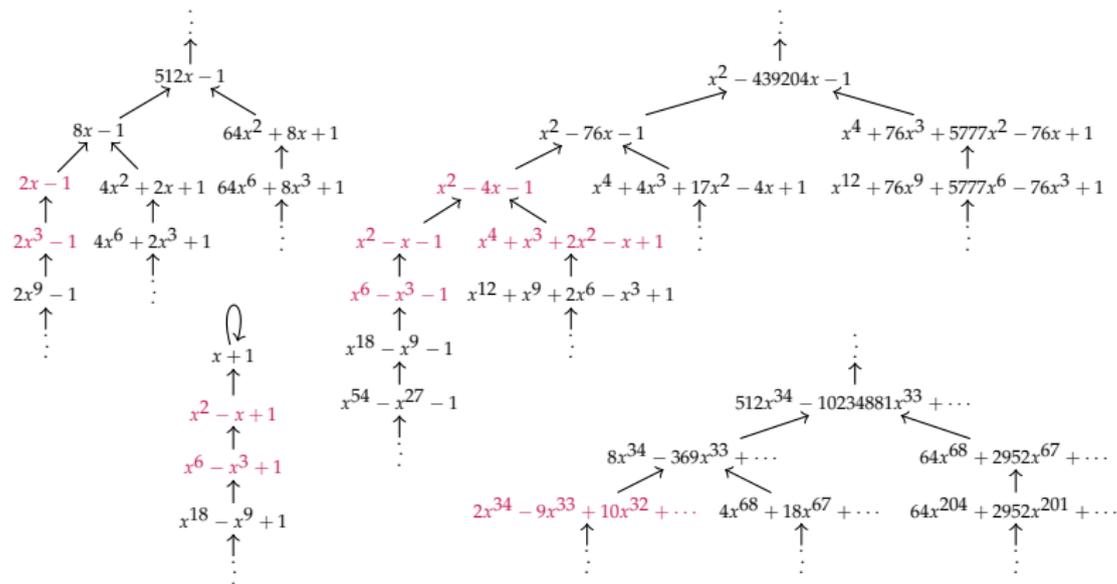
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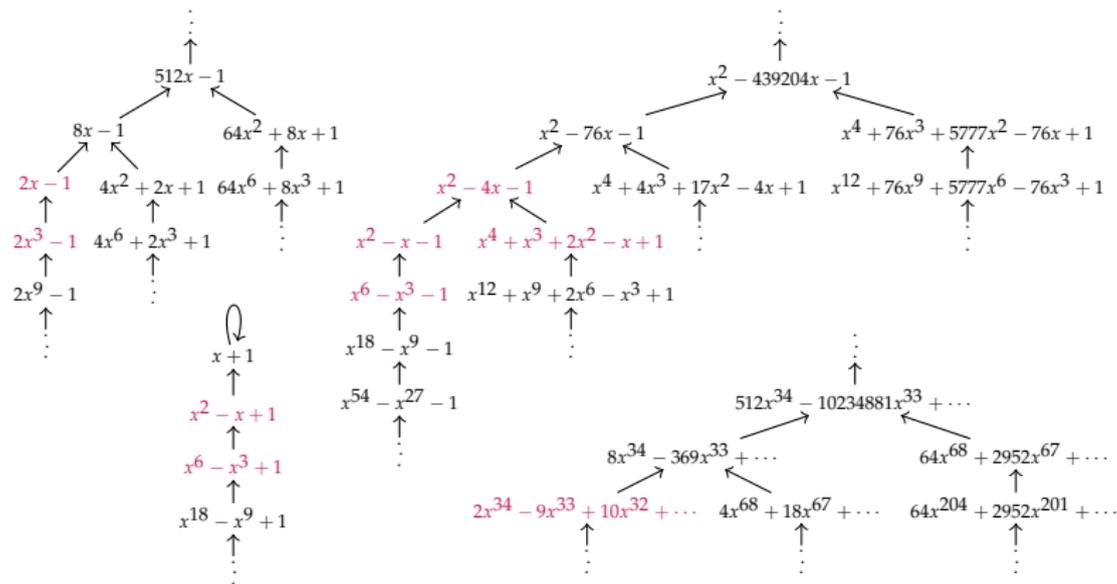


$$u_3 = 1$$

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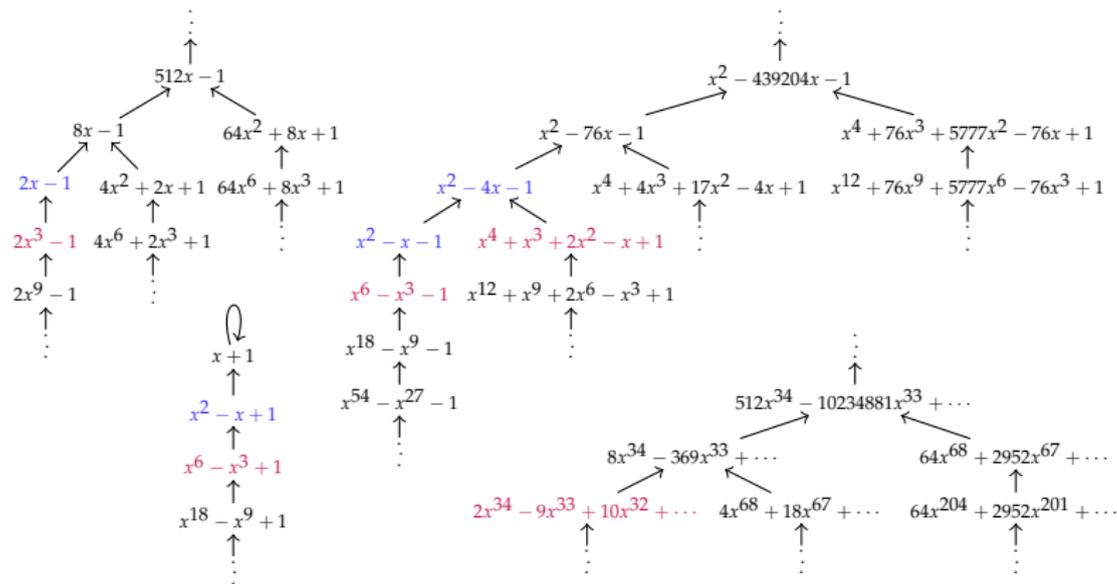
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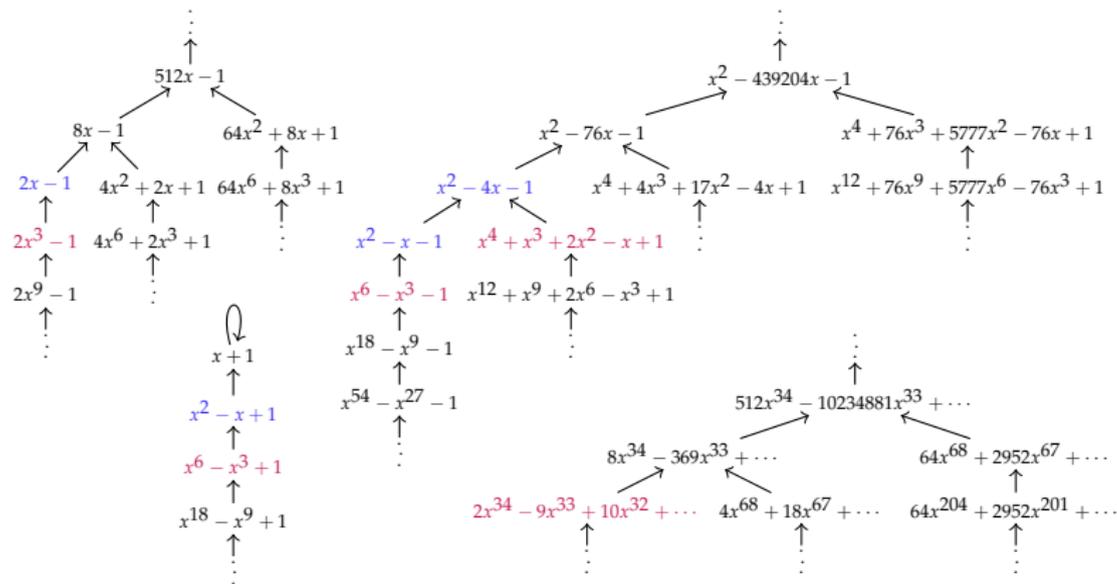


$$\tilde{u} = (2x-1)(x^2-x+1)(x^2-x-1)(x^2-4x-1) \implies M\tilde{u} \mid \ell_2 \text{ and } q \mid G\tilde{u}$$

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Operator to solve:

$$L = (2x^9 - 1)(x^{18} - x^9 - 1)(x^{12} + x^9 + 2x^6 - x^3 + 1)(x^{18} - x^9 + 1)(2x^{34} - 9x^{33} + 10x^{32} + \dots)(x^{54} - x^{27} - 1)M^2 \\ - (x^2 + 1)(x^2 - x - 1)(2x^3 - 1)(x^4 + 1)(x^4 + x^3 + 2x^2 - x + 1)(x^6 - x^3 + 1)(x^6 - x^3 - 1)(x^{18} - x^9 - 1)(2x^{88} - 9x^{87} + 8x^{86} + \dots)M \\ + x^2(2x - 1)(x^2 - x + 1)^2(x^2 - x - 1)(x^2 + x + 1)(x^2 - 4x - 1)(2x^{102} - 9x^{99} + 10x^{96} + \dots)$$

Denominator bound found:

$$q^* = u_1 u_2 G \tilde{u} = (2x - 1)(x^2 - x + 1)^2(x^2 - x - 1)^2(x^2 - 4x - 1)(x^6 - x^3 - 1)$$

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Remark: $\deg \ell_2 = 145 > \deg \ell_2[u_1] = 84 > \deg \ell_2[u_1 u_2] = 62$.

Computing Denominator Bounds

$$\ell = \sum_{n \geq 0} c_n x^n \xrightarrow{\text{ith section in radix } b} \sum_{n \geq 0} c_{b^r n + i} x^n =: f_i$$

Algorithm

- ① Set $\ell = \ell_r$, then repeat for $k = 1, 2, \dots$:
 - ① set $u_k = \bigwedge_{i=0}^{b^r-1} f_i$ where $\ell = \sum_{i=0}^{b^r-1} x^i M^r f_i$ with $f_i \in \mathbb{K}[x]$;
 - ② set $\ell = (\ell / M^r u_k) \bigvee_{i=0}^{r-1} M^i u_k$until $\deg u_k = 0$.
- ② Set $\tilde{u} = \bigwedge_{i=0}^{b^r-1-1} f_i$ where $\ell = \sum_{i=0}^{b^r-1-1} x^i M^{r-1} f_i$ with $f_i \in \mathbb{K}[x]$.
- ③ Return $q^* = u_1 \cdots u_{k-1} G \tilde{u}$.

Theorem (correctness)

Assume $Ly = 0$ with $y = \frac{p}{x^{\bar{v}}q}$ and $q(0) \neq 0$. Then, $q \mid q^*$.

Computing Denominator Bounds

$$\ell = \sum_{n \geq 0} c_n x^n \xrightarrow{\text{ith section in radix } b} \sum_{n \geq 0} c_{b^r n + i} x^n =: f_i$$

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Theorem (complexity and degree bounds)

- algorithm runs in $O(d M(d) \log d)$ ops
- $\deg q^* \leq d$ if $b = 2$, $\deg q^* \leq d/b^{r-1}$ if $b \geq 3$

L of order r , with polynomial coefficients ℓ_k of valuation v_k and degree $\leq d$.

Valuation and degree bounds

Introducing suitable Newton polygons:

- valuation v of series solutions: $-\frac{v_r}{b^{r-1}(b-1)} \leq v \leq \frac{v_0}{b-1}$,
- degree δ of polynomial solutions: $\delta \leq \frac{d}{b^{r-1}(b-1)}$.

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Complexity

- basis of approximate series solutions in $O(rv_0^2 + r^2 M(v_0))$ ops,
- basis of polynomial solutions in $\tilde{O}(d^2/b^r + M(d))$ ops.

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In particular: reasonable complexity for numerators.

Summary

- theory of Newton polygons
- algorithms for denominator bounds:
 - good: complexity is polynomial in r and d ,
 - bad: quadratic in output size.
- other algorithms for series solutions, polynomial solutions, and rational-function solutions.

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 - good: complexity is polynomial in r and d ,
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Future work

- the case $\ell_0 = 0$,
- infinite-product solutions,
- rational solutions of Riccati-type equation.