# The Concrete Tetrahedron

Manuel Kauers · RISC

$a_1$	$a_2$	$a_3$										$a_n$	
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$a_i \leq a_1$	

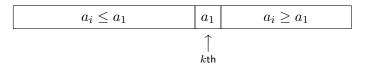
$a_1$	$a_2$	$a_3$										$a_n$	
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$a_i \leq a_1$		$a_i \ge a_1$
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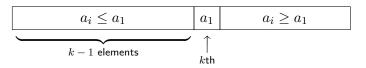
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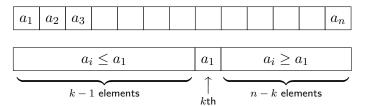
$a_i \le a_1$	$a_1$	$a_i \ge a_1$

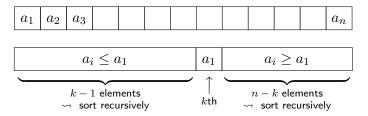
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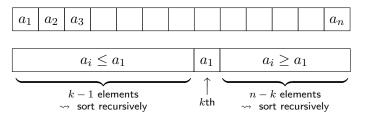


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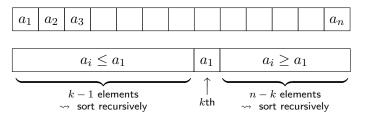




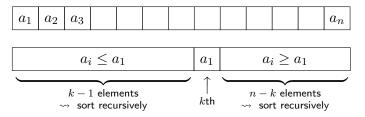




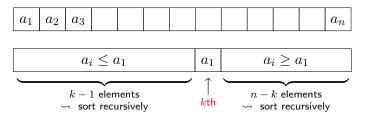
$$c_n =$$



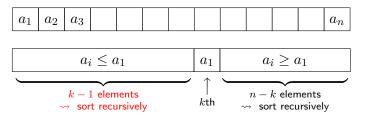
$$c_n = (n-1) +$$



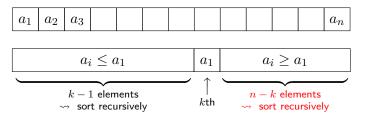
$$c_n = (n-1) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n (c_{k-1} + c_{n-k})$$



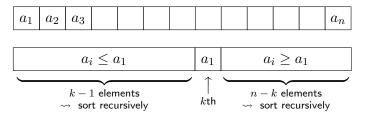
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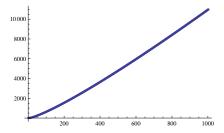
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 $0, \ 0, \ 1, \ \tfrac{8}{3}, \ \tfrac{29}{6}, \ \tfrac{37}{5}, \ \tfrac{103}{10}, \ \tfrac{472}{35}, \ \tfrac{2369}{140}, \ \tfrac{2593}{126}, \ \tfrac{30791}{1260}, \ \tfrac{32891}{1155}, \ \tfrac{452993}{13860}, \ \tfrac{476753}{12870}, \ \tfrac{499061}{12012},$ 18999103 124184839 , 2042040, 1939938, 369512, 117572, 2586584, 45045 2 , 171609900, 1487285800, 1434168450 , 40156716600 , ; 1164544781400, 4512611027925, 2187932619600, 193052878200,182327718300, 6563797858800 , 6391066336200 , 6227192840400 , 6071513019390 ' 237078127423800 , 1422468764542800 , , 14951727236194320, 14626689687581400 , 672827725628744400 , 31622903104550986800 , 

30990445042459967064 ,

 $\frac{7866679725761316320759}{30382789257313693200},$ 

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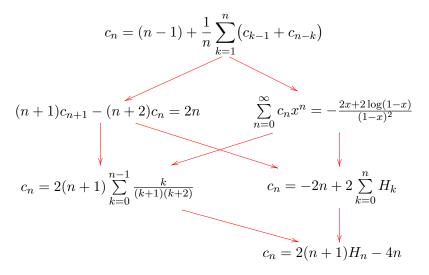
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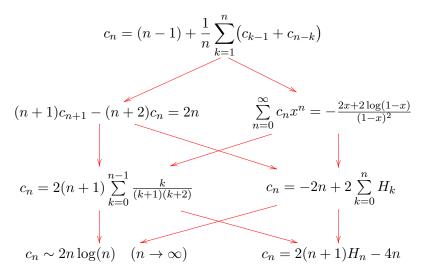
$$c_{n} = 2(n+1) \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{k}{(k+1)(k+2)}$$

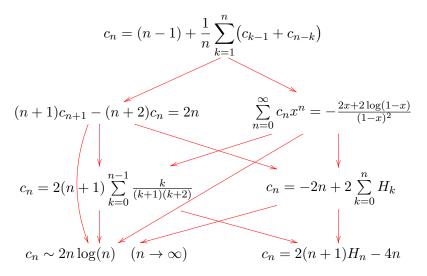
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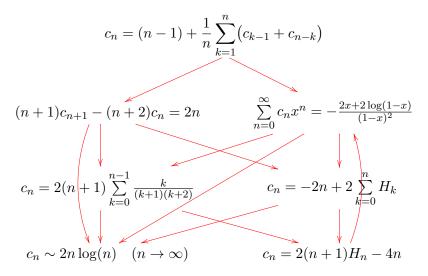
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How to do such conversions using computer algebra.

More precisely: We want algorithms for working with

Symbolic sums

- Symbolic sums
- Recurrence equations

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The interrelations between these four concepts form what we call *the concrete tetrahedron.* 

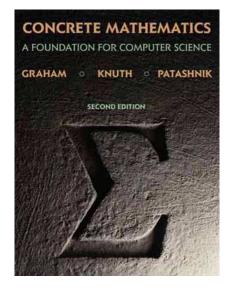
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Why "concrete"?



CONCRETE MATHEMATICS A FOUNDATION FOR COMPUTER SCIENCE GRAHAM • KNUTH • PATASHNIK

"But what exactly is Concrete Mathematics? It is a blend of CONtinuous and disCRETE mathematics. More concretely, it is the controlled manipulation of mathematical formulas, using a collection of techniques for solving problems. Once you, the reader, have learned the material in this book, all you will need is a cool head, a large sheet of paper, and a fairly decent handwriting in order to evaluate horrendous-looking sums, to solve complex recurrence equations, and to discover subtle patterns in data."

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Problem: Such algorithms cannot exist.

Reason:

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Consider algorithms applicable to *certain* infinite sequences only. (For suitably chosen meanings of "certain".)

In other words:

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It should not be too big, because the more special the elements in the class, the better we can compute with them.

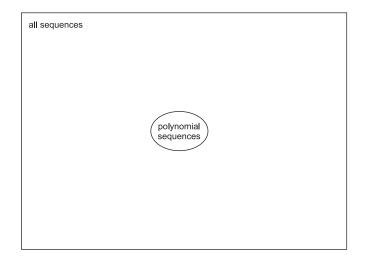
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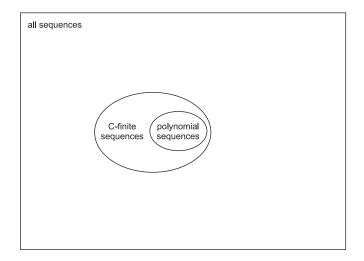
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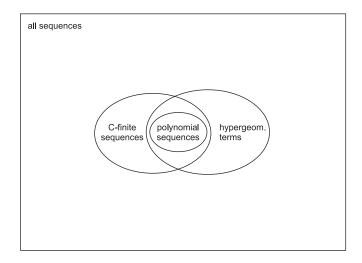
- It should not be too big, because the more special the elements in the class, the better we can compute with them.
- It should not be too small, because it should contain many sequences which arise in applications.

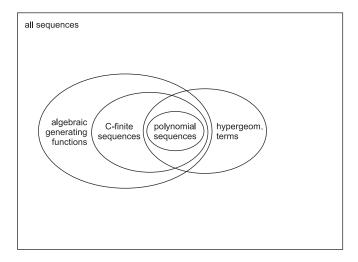
#### Introduction \_\_\_\_

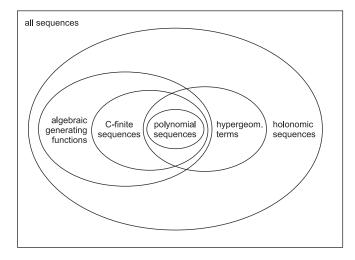
all sequences

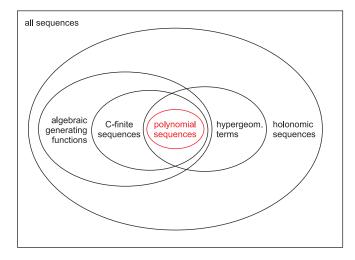


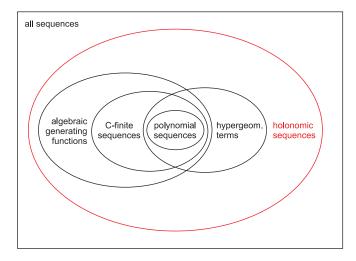












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- ► The concrete tetrahedron:
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- Classes of infinite sequences:
   Polynomial sequences
  - C-finite sequences
  - Hypergeometric terms
  - Algebraic generating functions
  - Holonomic sequences

# **Polynomial Sequences**

(Don't confuse with sequences of polynomials!)

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Examples:

- ►  $a_n = n^6 7n^5 + 108n^4 23n^3 + \frac{432}{309}n^2 + 349n 1923478$ ►  $a_n = (n-1)^{30}$
- $a_n =$  number of  $3 \times 3$  magic squares with magic constant n

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- ▶  $a_n$  = number of  $3 \times 3$  magic squares with magic constant n=  $\frac{1}{8}(n+1)(n+2)(n^2+3n+4)$

By the coefficient list ("in closed form")

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- ► By the coefficient list with respect to some special basis Example: a<sub>n</sub> = 6 (<sup>n</sup><sub>2</sub>) - (<sup>n</sup><sub>1</sub>) + 2 (<sup>n</sup><sub>0</sub>)
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► By its generating function ("in closed form") Example:  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = \frac{9x^2 - 5x + 2}{(1-x)^3}$ 

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Easy: initial values by evaluation, and the recurrence for a polynomial sequence of degree d is always

$$a_n - (d+1)a_{n+1} + {\binom{d+1}{2}}a_{n+2} - {\binom{d+1}{3}}a_{n+3} \pm \cdots + (-1)^i {\binom{d+1}{i}}a_{n+i} \pm \cdots + (-1)^{d+1}a_{n+d+1} = 0.$$

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► recurrence and initial values → closed form: Also easy: interpolation of initial values.

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$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} nx^n = \frac{x}{(1-x)^2} \qquad \left| \begin{array}{c} \frac{d}{dx} \\ \frac{d}{dx} \end{array} \right| \cdot x$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n^2 x^n = \frac{x(x+1)}{(1-x)^3} \qquad \left| \begin{array}{c} \frac{d}{dx} \\ \frac{d}{dx} \end{array} \right| \cdot x$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n^3 x^n = \frac{x(x^2+4x+1)}{(1-x)^4} \quad \cdots$$

#### • closed form $\rightarrow$ generating function:

$$5 - 3n + n^2 + 2n^3$$

#### ► closed form → generating function:

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#### ► closed form → generating function:

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#### ▶ generating function → closed form:

Easy: interpolate the first d+1 terms of the Taylor expansion. Or: Ansatz and coefficient comparison.

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- How to find trustworthy candidates?

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► Interpolation.

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# Interpolation.

If the interpolating polynomial of the first N terms has degree  $d <\!\!< N$ , then this is a strong indication for a polynomial sequence.

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If the Pade approximant of the first N terms has the form  $\frac{\mathrm{poly}(x)}{(1-x)^{d+1}}$ , then this hints at a polynomial sequence of degree  $\leq d.$ 

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If the given data matches the linear recurrence for polynomials of degree d, then this is perhaps not just a coincidence.

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If  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a polynomial sequence of degree d, then  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{n(a_{n+1}-a_n)}{a_n}=d.$ 

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$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{n(a_{n+1}-a_n)}{a_n}=d.$$

Therefore, if  $n(a_{n+1} - a_n)/a_n$  does not seem to converge to a nonnegative integer, our sequence is probably not polynomial.

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- ► From the generating function:

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- A pole of multiplicity d at  $x = \xi$  implies  $a_n^{\downarrow l} = O(n^{d-1}\xi^{-n})$ .
- For polynomial sequences of degree d, it follows  $a_n = O(n^d)$ .

D Summation

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$$n^{\underline{d}} := n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-d+1)$$

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- 1. via basis conversion
  - Define  $n^{\underline{d}} := n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-d+1)$
  - Then  $1, n, n^2, n^3, n^3, \dots$  is a vector space basis of K[n].

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$$\begin{array}{c} k^{3} + 4k - 7 \xrightarrow{\sum} \frac{1}{4}n^{4} - \frac{1}{2}n^{3} + \frac{9}{4}n^{2} - 9n \\ \downarrow & \uparrow \\ k^{3} + 3k^{2} + 5k - 7 \xrightarrow{\sum} \frac{1}{4}n^{4} + \frac{3}{3}n^{3} + \frac{5}{2}n^{2} - 7n \end{array}$$

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Mnemonic:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k^{\underline{d}} = \frac{1}{d+1} n^{\underline{d+1}} \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad \int_0^x t^d dt = \frac{1}{d+1} x^{d+1}$$

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### 2. via the generating function

Use the multiplication law for power series:

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$$\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n\right) \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n\right) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{k=0}^n a_k b_{n-k}\right) x^n$$

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• For  $b_n = 1$  this turns into

$$\frac{1}{1-x}\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}a_nx^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left(\sum_{k=0}^n a_k\right)x^n$$

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#### 3. via the initial values

Note: if (a<sub>n</sub>)<sup>∞</sup><sub>n=0</sub> is a polynomial sequence of degree d then (∑<sup>n</sup><sub>k=0</sub> a<sub>k</sub>)<sup>∞</sup><sub>n=0</sub> is a polynomial sequence of degree d + 1.

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► Then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} k^{d} = \frac{1}{d+1} \sum_{k=0}^{d} B_{k} \binom{d+1}{k} (n+1)^{d-k+1}.$$

Given a polynomial sequence  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ , find  $\sum_{k=0}^{n} a_k$ .

#### 4. via Faulhaber's formula

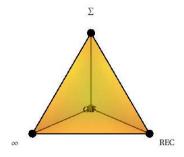
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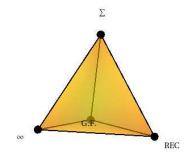
This can be used to sum a polynomial termwise in the standard basis.

#### **Polynomial Sequences**

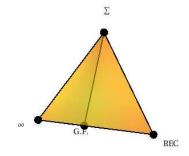
## Summary.



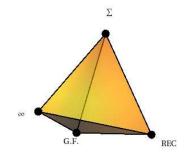
## Summary.

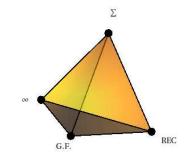


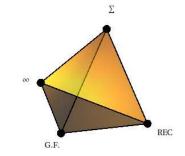
## Summary.

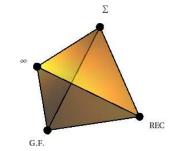


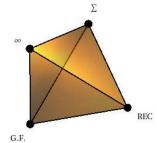
#### **Polynomial Sequences**

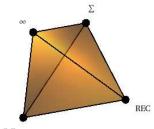




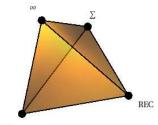




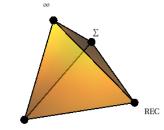




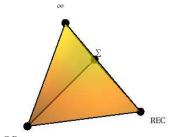




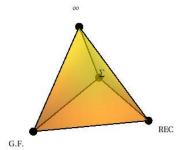
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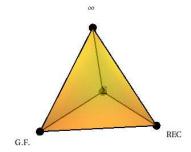


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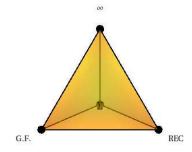


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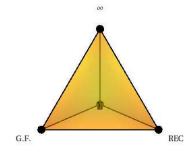


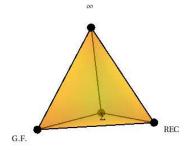


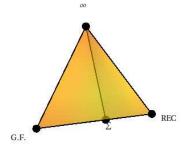
#### **Polynomial Sequences**



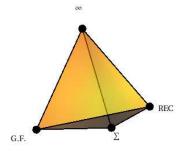
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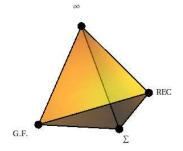


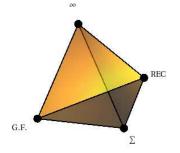


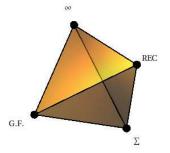


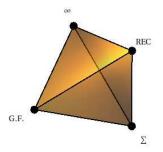
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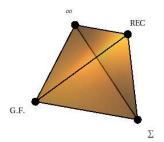


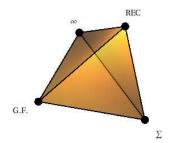


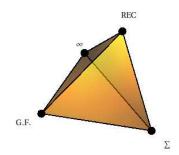


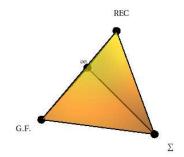


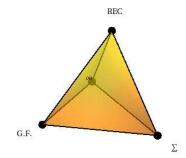


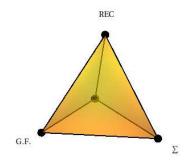


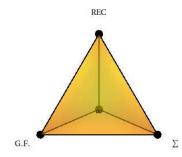


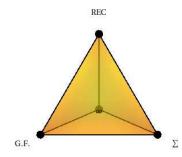


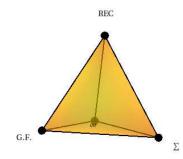


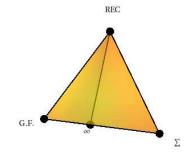


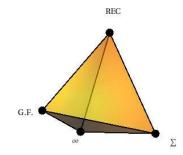


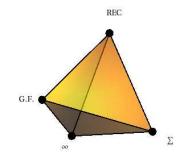


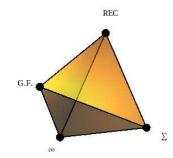


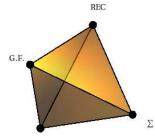




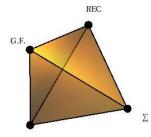




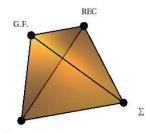




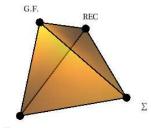


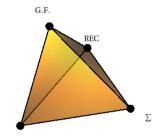


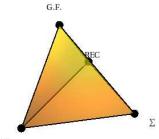
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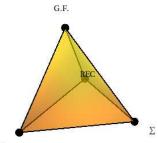


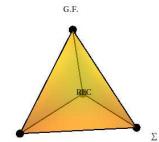
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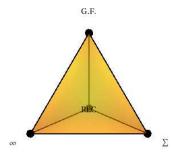


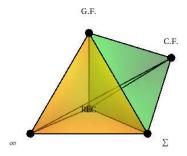


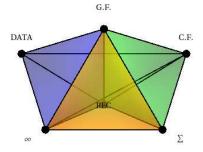


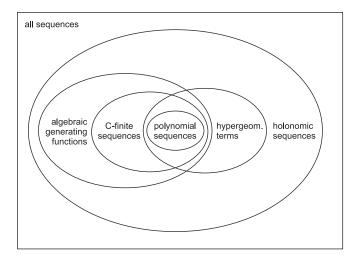


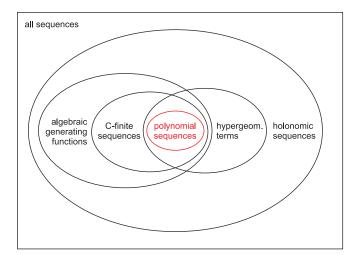


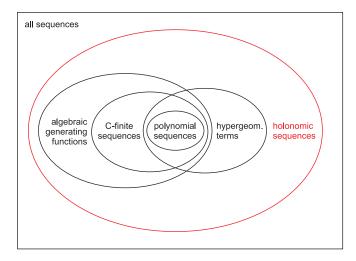


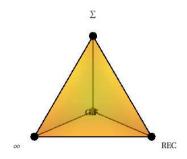


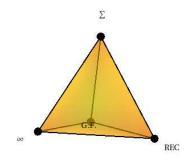


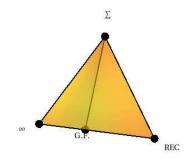


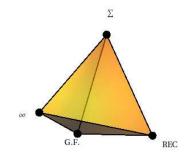


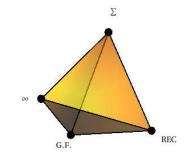


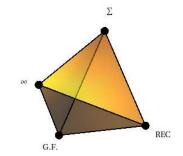


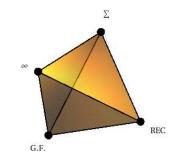


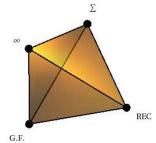


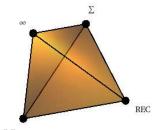






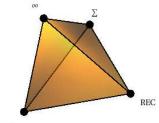




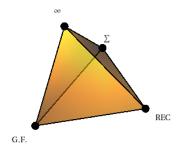


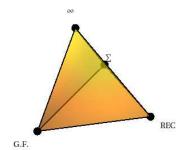
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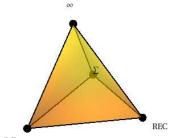


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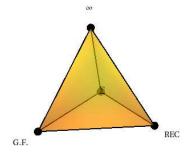


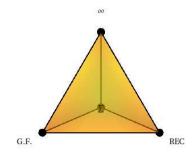


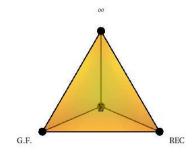
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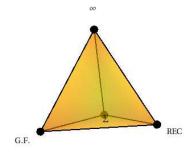


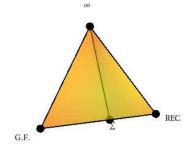
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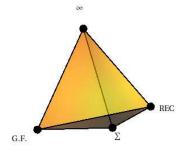


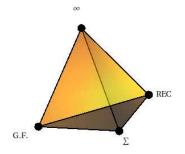


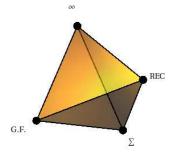


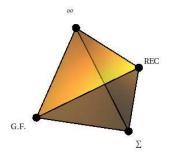


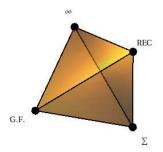


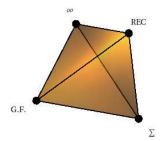


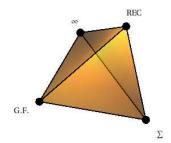


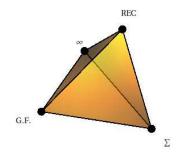


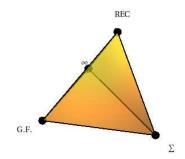


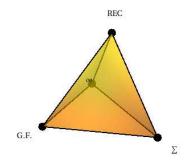


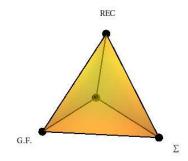


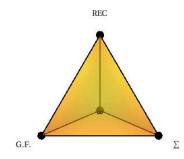


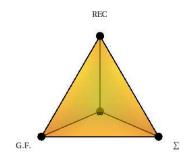


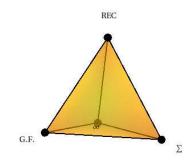


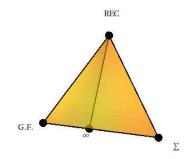


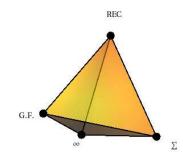


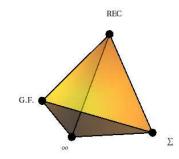


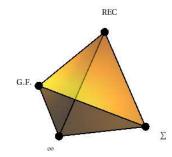




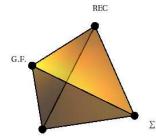




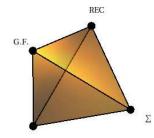




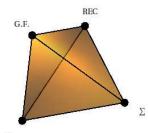
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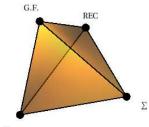
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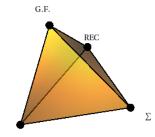
Recall:



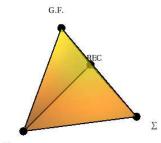
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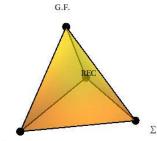
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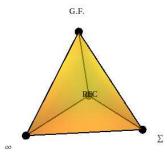


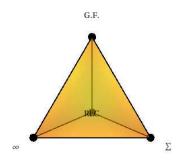
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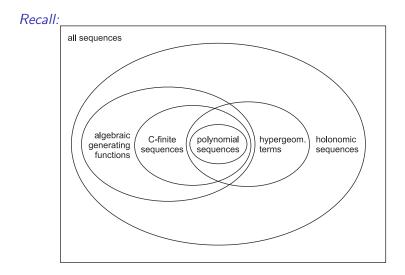


Recall:









Definition (discrete case). A sequence  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  in a field K is called holonomic (or *P*-finite or *D*-finite or *P*-recursive) if there exist polynomials  $p_0, \ldots, p_r$ , not all zero, such that

 $p_0(n)a_n + p_1(n)a_{n+1} + p_2(n)a_{n+2} + \dots + p_r(n)a_{n+r} = 0.$ 

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► 
$$2^n$$
:  $a_{n+1} - 2a_n = 0$ 

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Examples:

▶  $2^n$ :  $a_{n+1} - 2a_n = 0$ ▶ n!:

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Examples:

2<sup>n</sup>: a<sub>n+1</sub> − 2a<sub>n</sub> = 0
 n!: a<sub>n+1</sub> − (n + 1)a<sub>n</sub> = 0
 ∑<sup>n</sup><sub>k=0</sub> (-1)<sup>k</sup>/k!: (n + 2)a<sub>n+2</sub> − (n + 1)a<sub>n+1</sub> − a<sub>n</sub> = 0

Definition (discrete case). A sequence  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  in a field K is called holonomic (or *P*-finite or *D*-finite or *P*-recursive) if there exist polynomials  $p_0, \ldots, p_r$ , not all zero, such that

$$p_0(n)a_n + p_1(n)a_{n+1} + p_2(n)a_{n+2} + \dots + p_r(n)a_{n+r} = 0.$$

- ►  $2^n$ :  $a_{n+1} 2a_n = 0$
- ▶ n!:  $a_{n+1} (n+1)a_n = 0$
- $\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} : \qquad (n+2)a_{n+2} (n+1)a_{n+1} a_n = 0$
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Approximately 25% of the sequences in Sloane's Online Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences fall into this category.

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$$a_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(-1)^k}{k!}$$
  
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$$a_n = 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, ...$$
  
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Definition ("continuous" case). A formal power series  $f \in K[[x]]$  is called *holonomic* (or *D*-finite or *P*-finite) if there exist polynomials  $p_0, \ldots, p_r$ , not all zero, such that

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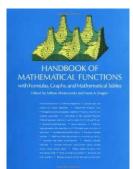
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Approximately 60% of the functions in Abramowitz and Stegun's handbook fall into this category.

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### Examples.

• f(x) = the fifth modified Bessel function of the first kind

### Examples.

► f(x) = the fifth modified Bessel function of the first kind  $\iff x^2 f''(x) + x f'(x) - (x^2 + 25) f(x) = 0,$  $f(0) = f'(0) = \cdots = f^{(4)}(0) = 0, f^{(5)}(0) = \frac{1}{32}$ 

Is this a holonomic sequence?

Let's see whether the data satisfies a recurrence of the form

$$(c_{0,0}+c_{0,1}n)a_{n,n}+(c_{1,0}+c_{1,1}n)a_{n+1,n+1}+(c_{2,0}+c_{2,1}n)a_{n+2,n+2}=0$$

where the  $c_{i,j}$  are some as yet unknown numbers.

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If we won't find any recurrence of this form, we can try again with higher order and/or higher degree.

$$n = 0$$
:  $(c_{0,0} + c_{0,1}0)1 + (c_{1,0} + c_{1,1}0)2 + (c_{2,0} + c_{2,1}0)14 = 0$ 

$$\begin{split} n &= 0: \ (c_{0,0} + c_{0,1} 0) 1 + (c_{1,0} + c_{1,1} 0) 2 + (c_{2,0} + c_{2,1} 0) 14 = 0 \\ n &= 1: \ (c_{0,0} + c_{0,1} 1) 2 + (c_{1,0} + c_{1,1} 1) 14 + (c_{2,0} + c_{2,1} 1) 106 = 0 \end{split}$$

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Match the recurrence template ("ansatz") against the data.

$$\begin{split} n &= 0: \ (c_{0,0} + c_{0,1}0)1 + (c_{1,0} + c_{1,1}0)2 + (c_{2,0} + c_{2,1}0)14 = 0 \\ n &= 1: \ (c_{0,0} + c_{0,1}1)2 + (c_{1,0} + c_{1,1}1)14 + (c_{2,0} + c_{2,1}1)106 = 0 \\ n &= 2: \ (c_{0,0} + c_{0,1}2)14 + (c_{1,0} + c_{1,1}2)106 + (c_{2,0} + c_{2,1}2)838 = 0 \end{split}$$

$$n = 8: (c_{0,0} + c_{0,1}8)3968310 + (c_{1,0} + c_{1,1}8)33747490 + (c_{2,0} + c_{2,1}8)288654574 = 0$$

÷

/ 1	0	2	0	14	0 )		
2	2	14	14	106	106	(- )	(0)
14	28	106	212	838	1676	$ \begin{pmatrix} c_{0,0} \\ c_{0,1} \\ c_{1,0} \\ c_{1,1} \end{pmatrix} $	$= \begin{pmatrix} 0\\0\\0\\0\\0 \end{pmatrix}$
106	318	838	2514	6802	20406		
838	3352	6802	27208	56190	224760		
6802	34010	56190	280950	470010	2350050		
56190	337140	470010	2820060	3968310	23809860	$(c_{2,0})$	1 - 1
470010	3290070	3968310	27778170	33747490	236232430	$(c_{2,1})$	(0/
3968310	31746480	33747490	269979920	288654574	2309236592/		

Solve this linear system!

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Solve this linear system!

Since there are more equations than variables, we expect 0 solutions.

$$(c_{0,0}, c_{0,1}, c_{1,0}, c_{1,1}, c_{2,0}, c_{2,1}) = (0, 9, -14, -10, 2, 1)$$

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*Either* we witness a **veeeery** unlikely coincidence, *or* we have indeed found a recurrence which has some meaning.

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*Naive question:* What are the roots of the polynomial  $x^5 - 3x + 1$ ?

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Expert answer: RootOf( $_Z^5 - 3_Z + 1$ , index = 1), RootOf( $_Z^5 - 3_Z + 1$ , index = 2), RootOf( $_Z^5 - 3_Z + 1$ , index = 3), RootOf( $_Z^5 - 3_Z + 1$ , index = 4), RootOf( $_Z^5 - 3_Z + 1$ , index = 5).

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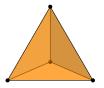
A holonomist's answer: There is exactly one solution with  $a_0 = 0$ ,  $a_1 = 1$ , exactly one solution with  $a_0 = 1$ ,  $a_1 = 0$ , and every other solution is a K-linear combination of those two.

When computing with holonomic objects, we compute with the equations through which they are defined.

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Like before, our goal is to establish computational links between

- recurrence equations
- generating functions
- asymptotic estimates
- symbolic sums



Holonomic Sequences and Power Series

A Recurrence equations:

## A Recurrence equations:

Trivial: Holonomic sequences are *given* in terms of a recurrence.

Holonomic Sequences and Power Series

**B** Generating Functions

Theorem. Let 
$$a(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$$
. Then:

 $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is holonomic as sequence  $\iff a(x)$  is holonomic as a power series

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INPUT: 
$$a'(x) - a(x) = 0, a(0) = 1$$
 (i.e.,  $a(x) = \exp(x)$ )

Theorem. Let 
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UTPUT:  $(n + 1)a_{n+1} - a_n = 0, a_0 = 1$  (i.e.,  $a_n = \frac{1}{n!}$ )

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#### Examples.

INPUT:  $2a_{n+3} + na_{n+2} - 3(n+2)a_{n+1} - (n+1)(n+2)a_n = 0$ 

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$$2a_{n+3} + na_{n+2} - 3(n+2)a_{n+1} - (n+1)(n+2)a_n = 0$$

OUTPUT: 
$$x^5 a^{(5)}(x) + (19x^2 + 3x - 1)x^2 a^{(4)}(x)$$
  
+  $2(55x^3 + 15x^2 - 2x - 1)a^{(3)}(x) + 6(37x + 12)xa''(x)$   
+  $12(11x + 3)a'(x) + 12a(x) = 0$ 

Holonomic Sequences and Power Series

C Asymptotic Estimates

*C* Asymptotic Estimates *Theorem.* 

Theorem.

• If  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is holonomic, then

$$a_n \sim c e^{P(n^{1/r})} n^{\gamma n} \phi^n n^\alpha \log(n)^\beta \quad (n \to \infty)$$

Theorem.

• If  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is holonomic, then

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where c is a constant, P is a polynomial,  $r \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\gamma, \phi, \alpha$  are constants, and  $\beta \in \mathbb{N}$ .

 If a(x) is holonomic and, as an analytic function, has a singularity at ζ, then

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Holonomic Sequences and Power Series

C Asymptotic Estimates

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#### Example.

INPUT:

 $2a_{n+3} + na_{n+2} - 3(n+2)a_{n+1} - (n+1)(n+2)a_n = 0, a_0 = a_1 = 1$ 

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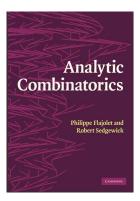
 $2a_{n+3} + na_{n+2} - 3(n+2)a_{n+1} - (n+1)(n+2)a_n = 0, a_0 = a_1 = 1$ 



OUTPUT:  $c e^{\sqrt{n} - \frac{n}{2}} n^{n/2} \left( 1 - \frac{119}{1152} n^{-1} + \frac{7}{24} n^{-1/2} + \frac{1967381}{39813120} n^{-2} + O(n^{-3/2}) \right)$ with  $c \approx 0.55069531490318374761598106274964784671382...$ 

An excellent reference for modern techniques for computing asymptotic estimates is:

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Holonomic Sequences and Power Series

D Symbolic Summation

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• Let 
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,  $b(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$ .

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Proof:

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•  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is holonomic by assumption.

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- This means a(x) satisfies a differential equation.
- Apply the substitution a(x) = (1 x)b(x).
- It follows that b(x) satisfies a differential equation.
- This means b(x) is holonomic.
- ► Therefore  $(b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is holonomic. ■

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► 
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$$\begin{array}{l} \bullet \quad a_{n+3} + na_{n+2} - (3n+6)a_{n+1} - (n+1)(n+2)a_n = 0 \\ \bullet \quad \Longrightarrow (x+1)(2x-1)x^5a^{(3)}(x) + (\dots)a''(x) + (\dots)a'(x) + \\ (4x^4 + 4x^3 - 7x^2 - 2x - 1)a(x) = 0 \\ \bullet \quad \Longrightarrow (x-1)(x+1)(2x-1)x^5b^{(3)}(x) + (\dots)b''(x) + \\ (\dots)b'(x) + 2(12x^5 + 13x^4 - 8x^3 - 4x^2 + 1)b(x) = 0 \\ \bullet \quad \Longrightarrow 2(n+3)(n+2)^2b_n - (n+3)(n^2 - 6n - 20)b_{n+1} - (n+10)(2n^2 + 11n + 16)b_{n+2} + (n-1)(n^2 + 11n + 26)b_{n+3} + \\ (n+4)(5n+29)b_{n+4} - (n^2 + 7n + 8)b_{n+5} - (n+6)b_{n+6} = 0 \end{array}$$

If  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is holonomic and  $b_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k$  then  $(b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is holonomic.

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▶ This is not the algorithm of choice.

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- With a less brutal algorithm one can find for every sum a recurrence whose order is at most one more than the order of the recurrence of the summand.

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Remarks:

- This is not the algorithm of choice.
- With a less brutal algorithm one can find for every sum a recurrence whose order is at most one more than the order of the recurrence of the summand.
- There is also an algorithm due to Abramov and van Hoeij for computing "closed form" solutions of holonomic sums in terms of the summand, such as

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} \left(\frac{2k+5}{k+2}F_k - \frac{k+4}{k+3}F_{k+1}\right) = F_n - \frac{1}{n+3}F_{n+1} - 1.$$

Holonomic Sequences and Power Series

Closure properties:

We have just seen: summation preserves holonomy.

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Theorem. Let  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  and  $(b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be holonomic sequences. Then: •  $(a_n + b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is holonomic.

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- ▶ if  $u, v \in \mathbb{Q}$  are positive, then  $(a_{|un+v|})_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is holonomic.

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- $(\sum_{k=0}^{n} a_k)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is holonomic.
- ▶ if  $u, v \in \mathbb{Q}$  are positive, then  $(a_{\lfloor un+v \rfloor})_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is holonomic.

Recurrence equations for all these sequences can be computed from given defining equations of  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  and  $(b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ .

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Differential equations for all these functions can be computed from given defining equations of a(x) and b(x).

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has a finite dimension.

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Therefore,  $c(x), c'(x), c''(x), \ldots, c^{(r)}(x)$  must be linearly dependent over K(x) as soon as  $r > \dim V$ .

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In other words, c(x) must be holonomic.

The other closure properties are proved by similar arguments.

When defining equations for a(x) and b(x) are available, the linear algebra reasoning of the proof can be made explicit:

► Make an ansatz p<sub>0</sub>(x)c(x) + p<sub>1</sub>(x)c'(x) + ··· + p<sub>r</sub>(x)c<sup>(r)</sup>(x) with undetermined coefficients p<sub>k</sub>(x).

- ▶ Make an ansatz  $p_0(x)c(x) + p_1(x)c'(x) + \cdots + p_r(x)c^{(r)}(x)$ with undetermined coefficients  $p_k(x)$ .
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Packages like gfun (for Maple) or GeneratingFunctions.m (for Mathematica) do this for you.

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Let's see two examples.

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{2k+1}{k+1} P_k^{(1,-1)}(x) = \frac{1}{1-x} \Big( 2 - P_n(x) - P_{n+1}(x) \Big)$$

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Legendre polynomials:



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Legendre polynomials:

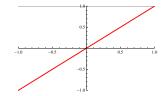
▶  $P_0(x) = 1$ 



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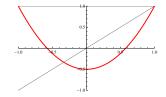
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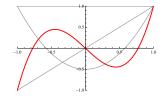
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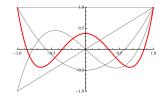
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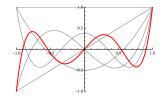
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- $P_5(x) = \frac{1}{8}(15x 70x^3 + 63x^5)$



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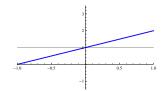
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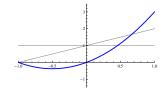


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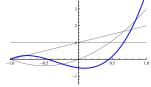


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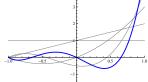


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$$P_{4}^{(1,-1)}(x) = \frac{5}{8}(-3x - 3x^{2} + 7x^{3} + 7x^{4})$$

$$P_{5}^{(1,-1)}(x) = \frac{3}{8}(1 + x - 14x^{2} - 14x^{3} + 21x^{4} + 21x^{5})$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{2k+1}{k+1} P_{k}^{(1,-1)}(x) = \frac{1}{1-x} \Big( 2 - P_{n}(x) - P_{n+1}(x) \Big)$$

Jacobi polynomials:

$$P_{n+2}^{(1,-1)}(x) = -\frac{n}{n+1}P_n^{(1,-1)}(x) + \frac{2n+3}{n+2}xP_{n+1}^{(1,-1)}(x)$$

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How to prove this identity?

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How to prove this identity?  $\longrightarrow$  By induction!

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{2k+1}{k+1} P_k^{(1,-1)}(x) - \frac{1}{1-x} \Big(2 - P_n(x) - P_{n+1}(x)\Big) = 0$$

How to prove this identity?  $\longrightarrow$  By induction!

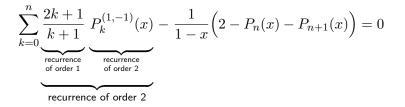
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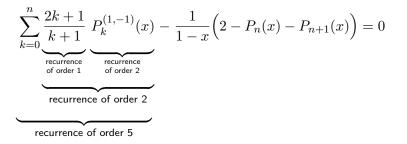
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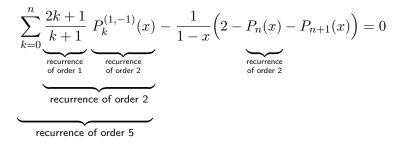
Compute a recurrence for the left hand side from the defining equations of its building blocks.

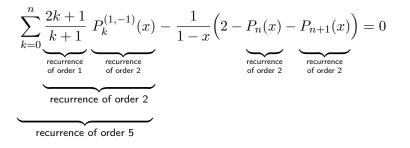
$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} \underbrace{\frac{2k+1}{k+1}}_{\substack{\text{recurrence} \\ \text{of order 1}}} P_k^{(1,-1)}(x) - \frac{1}{1-x} \Big(2 - P_n(x) - P_{n+1}(x)\Big) = 0$$

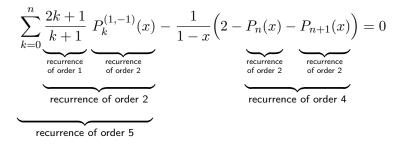
$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} \underbrace{\frac{2k+1}{k+1}}_{\substack{\text{recurrence} \\ \text{of order 1}}} \underbrace{P_{k}^{(1,-1)}(x)}_{\substack{\text{recurrence} \\ \text{of order 2}}} - \frac{1}{1-x} \Big(2 - P_{n}(x) - P_{n+1}(x)\Big) = 0$$

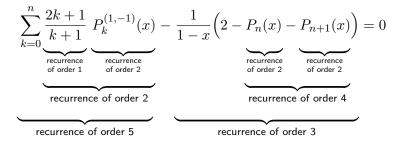


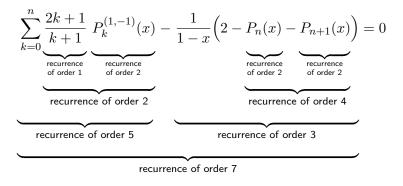












$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{2k+1}{k+1} P_k^{(1,-1)}(x) - \frac{1}{1-x} \Big( 2 - P_n(x) - P_{n+1}(x) \Big) = 0$$
  

$$\operatorname{lhs}_{n+7} = (\cdots \operatorname{messy} \cdots) \operatorname{lhs}_{n+6} + (\cdots \operatorname{messy} \cdots) \operatorname{lhs}_{n+5} + (\cdots \operatorname{messy} \cdots) \operatorname{lhs}_{n+4} + (\cdots \operatorname{messy} \cdots) \operatorname{lhs}_{n+3} + (\cdots \operatorname{messy} \cdots) \operatorname{lhs}_{n+2} + (\cdots \operatorname{messy} \cdots) \operatorname{lhs}_{n+1} + (\cdots \operatorname{messy} \cdots) \operatorname{lhs}_n + 1$$

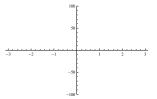
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Therefore the identity holds for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ if and only if it holds for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 6$ .

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} H_n(x) H_n(y) \frac{1}{n!} t^n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-4t^2}} \exp\left(\frac{4t(xy-t(x^2+y^2))}{1-4t^2}\right)$$

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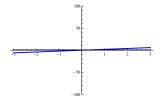
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► 
$$H_0(x) = 1$$



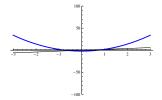
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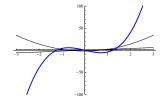
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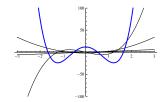
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- $H_4(x) = 16x^4 48x^2 + 12$

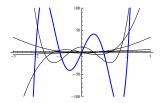


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Hermite polynomials:

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- $H_4(x) = 16x^4 48x^2 + 12$
- $H_5(x) = 32x^5 160x^3 + 120x$

••••



$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} H_n(x) H_n(y) \frac{1}{n!} t^n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-4t^2}} \exp\left(\frac{4t(xy-t(x^2+y^2))}{1-4t^2}\right)$$

$$H_{n+2}(x) = 2xH_{n+1}(x) - 2(n+1)H_n(x)$$

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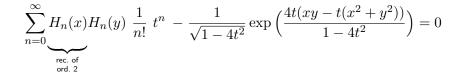
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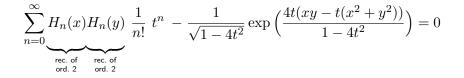
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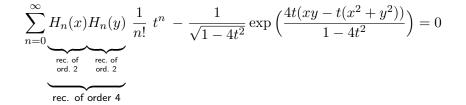
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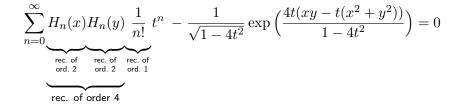
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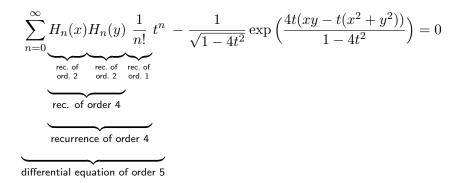


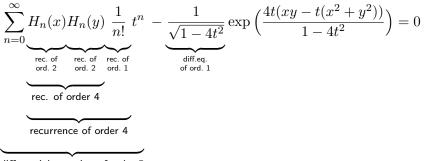




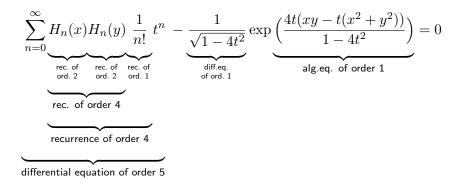


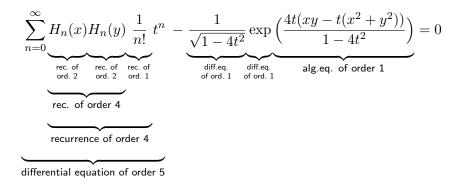
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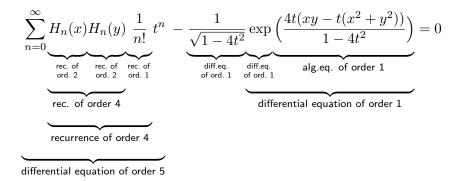


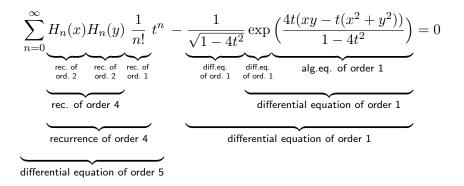


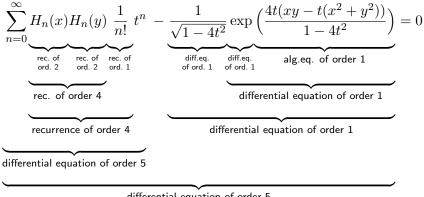
differential equation of order 5



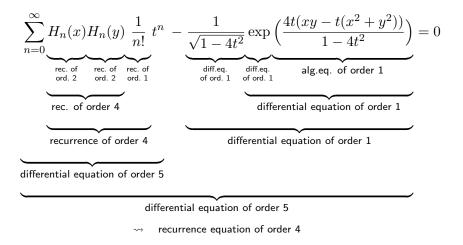








differential equation of order 5



$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} H_n(x) H_n(y) \frac{1}{n!} t^n - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-4t^2}} \exp\left(\frac{4t(xy-t(x^2+y^2))}{1-4t^2}\right) = 0$$

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Because of  $lhs_0 = lhs_1 = lhs_2 = lhs_3 = 0$ , we have  $lhs_n = 0$  for all n.

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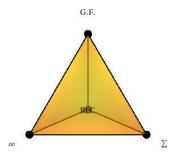
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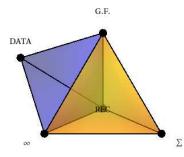
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This completes the proof.

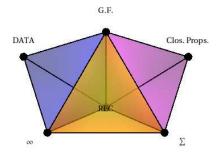
Summary.

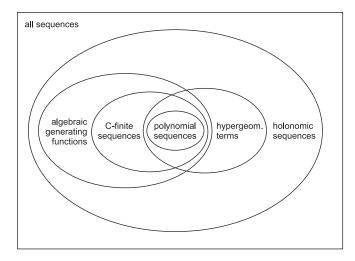


Summary.



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# Recall:

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▶ A formal power series  $a \in K[[x]]$  is called *holonomic* if there exist polynomials  $p_0, \ldots, p_r$ , not all zero, such that

 $p_0(x)a(x) + p_1(x)a'(x) + p_2(x)a''(x) + \dots + p_r(x)a^{(r)}(x) = 0.$ 

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Examples.

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 (<sup>n</sup><sub>k</sub>): 0 continuous and 2 discrete variables.

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Examples.

- $\exp(x-y)$ :
- $\blacktriangleright \binom{n}{k}:$
- $\blacktriangleright P_n(x)$

- 2 continuous and 0 discrete variables.0 continuous and 2 discrete variables.
- 1 continuous and 1 discrete variable.

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$$\frac{\partial^5}{\partial x^5}\frac{\partial^3}{\partial y^3}f(x,y,n+4,k+23)$$

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Operator notation:

 $D_x^5 D_y^3 S_n^4 S_k^{23} f$ 

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- *f*(*n*, *k*) = *S*<sub>1</sub>(*n*, *k*) [Stirling numbers] is not D-finite.
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$$\left(S_n S_k + n S_n - 1\right) \cdot f = 0,$$

but no "pure" recurrence in  $S_k$  or  $S_n$ .

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Simiarly for differential equations and for systems containing mixed equations.

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These equations imply

$$\left( (n+2)S_n^2 - (2nx - 3x)S_n + (n+1) \right) \cdot f = 0.$$

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$$D_{x_i} D_{x_j} = D_{x_j} D_{x_i}, \qquad D_{x_i} x_i = x_i D_{x_i} + 1, S_{n_i} S_{n_j} = S_{n_j} S_{n_i}, \qquad S_{n_i} n_i = (n_i + 1) S_{n_i}.$$

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It is called the *annihilator* of f.

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By definition, f is D-finite iff for all i, j we have

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This is the case iff  $\mathfrak{a}$  has Hilbert-dimension 0.

Closure properties. Let f and g be D-finite. Then:

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- ▶ If  $h_1, \ldots, h_q$  are integer-linear functions in  $n_1, \ldots, n_q$ , free of  $x_1, \ldots, x_p$ , then  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_p, h_1, \ldots, h_q)$  is D-finite.

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  - ► For Mathematica: HolonomicFunctions.m by Koutschan, available from the RISC combinatorics software website.

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$$\operatorname{Out}[2] = \left\{ (-9x^2 - \dots)D_x + (4n^2 + \dots)S_n + (13nx^4 + \dots), \\ (16n^3 + \dots)S_n^2 + (64n^4x^3 + \dots)S_n + (16n^5x^2 + \dots) \right\}$$

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$$\begin{array}{l} \bullet \quad f(n,k) = \binom{n}{k} + \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{1}{k!} \\ \\ \mbox{ln[3]:=} \quad \mathbf{Annihilator}[\mathbf{Binomial}[n,k] + \\ \quad \mathbf{Sum}[1/k!, \{k, 0, n\}], \{S[n], S[k]\}] \end{array}$$

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In[3]:= Annihilator[Binomial[ $n, k$ ] +  
Sum[ $1/k!, \{k, 0, n\}$ ],  $\{S[n], S[k]\}$ ]  
out[3]=  $\{(2k^{2} + ...)S_{k}^{2} + (n^{2} + ...)S_{k} + (3kn + ...),$   
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D-finite in the variables  $x_1, \ldots, x_p, z_1, \ldots, z_q$ ? Not necessarily! And conversely? Also not!

Definition:  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_p, n_1, \ldots, n_q)$  is called *holonomic* if its generating function wrt. all discrete variables,

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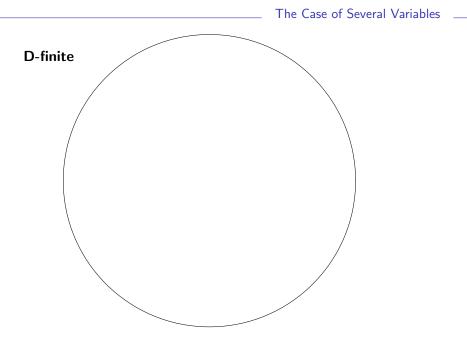
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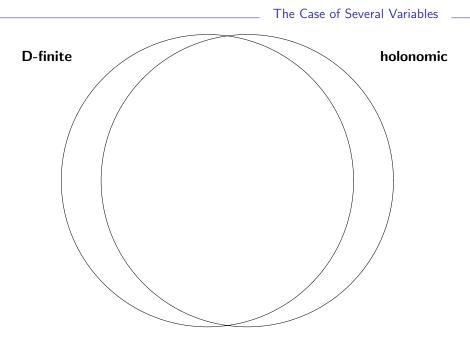
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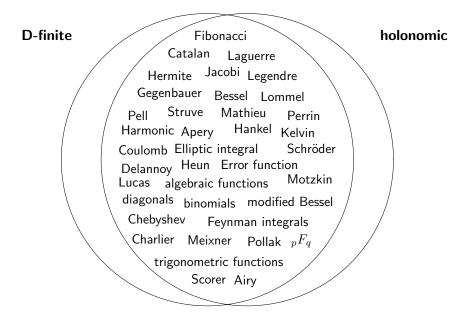
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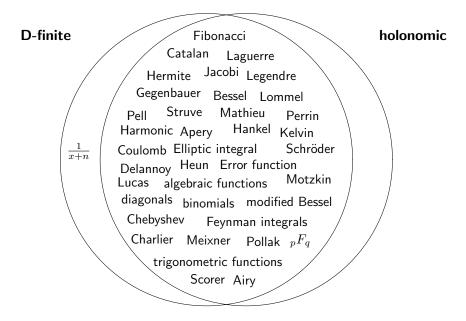
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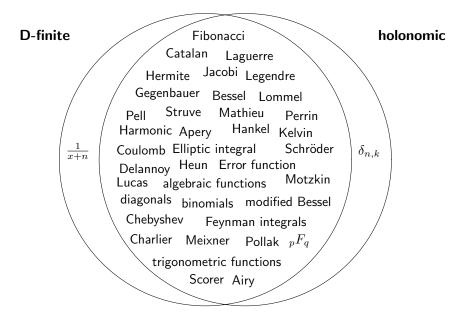
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- ► If there is only one discrete variable and no continuous ones (p = 0, q = 1), then holonomic and D-finite are the same.
- ► In general, holonomic and D-finite are *practically the same*.











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▶ If *f* is holonomic, then so is

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provided that this sum exists.

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$$f(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} 4^k {\binom{n}{k}}^2$$
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•  $f(x,t) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty P_n(t)x^n$  satisfies  
 $((x^2 - 2tx + 1)D_t - x)f = 0$  and  
 $((x^2 - 2tx + 1)D_x + (x - t))f = 0.$ 

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$$f(n) = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{w^{-1-\epsilon/2}(1-z)^{\epsilon/2}z^{-\epsilon/2}}{(z+w-wz)^{1-\epsilon}} (1-w^{n+1}-(1-w)^{n+1})dw dz$$
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this is the coefficient of 
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How to construct a creative telescoping relation?

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There are algorithms for this task.

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Depending on the problem at hand, any of these algorithms may be much more efficient than the others.

# Summary and Outlook

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We want to solve problems in discrete mathematics using computer algebra.

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- ► Classes of infinite sequences:
  - Polynomial sequences
  - C-finite sequences
  - Hypergeometric terms
  - Algebraic generating functions
  - Holonomic sequences

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Ideally, any piece of research on one of these sides will also stimulate interesting developments on the other.

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 If you can solve a problem with computer algebra for univariate sequences, I will probably claim that there is no reason to solve it by other means.

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Algorithms for the univariate case can already be considered folklore. Rule of thumb:

- If you can solve a problem with computer algebra for univariate sequences, I will probably claim that there is no reason to solve it by other means.
- If you can solve a problem only with computer algebra for multivariate sequences, I will probably urge you to write an article about it.

#### Summary and Outlook

#### Further reading:



#### Further listening:

- Peter Paule's slot on January 25 in this lecture series
- The course "Analytic Combinatorics" taught by Veronika Pillwein