Burchnall-Chaundy polynomials and Dodgson's condensation method

Alexander P. Veselov Loughborough, UK

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Plan

- Burchnall-Chaundy polynomials
- Dodgson's condensation method and octahedral equation

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- ▶ Reductions: difference BCh and Dodgson equations
- Cauchy problem and Laurent property
- Explicit Casoratian form
- Continuum limit: Laurent form of BCh polynomials
- Discussion

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Reference

A.P. Veselov and R. Willox J Phys A. 48 (2015)

Burchnall and Chaundy (1930): remarkable sequence of polynomials defined by

$$P'_{n+1}(z)P_{n-1}(z) - P_{n+1}(z)P'_{n-1}(z) = P_n(z)^2$$

with $P_{-1}(z) = P_0(z) = 1$:

$$P_1 = z, \ P_2 = rac{1}{3}(z^3 + au_2), \ P_3 = rac{1}{45}(z^6 + 5 au_2 z^3 + au_3 z - 5 au_2^2),$$

$$P_4 = \frac{1}{4725} (z^{10} + 15\tau_2 z^7 + 7\tau_3 z^5 - 35\tau_2 \tau_3 z^2 + 175\tau_2^3 z - \frac{7}{3}\tau_3^2 + \tau_4 z^3 + \tau_4 \tau_2), \dots$$

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Later rediscovered by **Stellmacher ang Lagnese** (1967) and independently by **Adler and Moser** (1978).

The existence is not obvious at all: indeed the above relation is equivalent to

$$\frac{d}{dz}\frac{P_{n+1}}{P_{n-1}} = \frac{P_n^2}{P_{n-1}^2},$$

which means that all the residues of the right-hand side must be zero.

Fomin and Zelevinsky (2002): cluster algebras and Laurent phenomenon

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As an example consider the difference equation (related to cluster algebra of type A_1)

$$p_{n+1}p_{n-1}=p_n^2+1.$$

If we choose the initial data $p_0 = p_1 = 1$ then the corresponding p_n will be surprisingly integer for all n: 1, 2, 5, 13, 34, 89, ...

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In fact, there is a more general result, which is the simplest example of the Laurent phenomenon:

Theorem (FZ, 2002): p_n are Laurent polynomials of the initial data p_0 , p_1 with integer coefficients.

Difference Burchnall-Chaundy equation

Consider the following natural difference analogue of the Burchnall-Chaundy relation:

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$$Q_{n+1}(z+1)Q_{n-1}(z)-Q_{n+1}(z)Q_{n-1}(z+1)=Q_n(z)Q_n(z+1),$$
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Willox-AV (2015): The difference BCh equation has polynomial solutions $Q_n(z)$ with degree n(n+1)/2 and coefficients that are Laurent polynomials of the initial data $q_k = Q_k(0)$, such that

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$$A_n Q_n(z) \in \mathbb{Z}[z; q_1^{\pm 1}, \dots, q_{n-2}^{\pm 1}, q_{n-1}, q_n], \qquad A_n = \prod_{j=1}^n (2j-1)!!,$$

where $(2k+1)!! = 1 \times 3 \times 5 \times \cdots \times (2k+1)$.

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$$Q_{1} = z + q_{1}, \quad Q_{2} = \frac{z(z^{2} - 1)}{3} + q_{1}z^{2} + q_{1}^{2}z + q_{2},$$

$$Q_{3} = \frac{z^{2}(z^{2} - 1)(z^{2} - 4)}{45} + \frac{2q_{1}z^{5}}{15} + \frac{q_{1}^{2}z^{4}}{3} + \frac{(q_{1}^{3} - q_{1} + q_{2})z^{3}}{3} + \frac{(3q_{1}q_{2} - q_{1}^{2})z^{2}}{3} + (\frac{q_{3}}{q_{1}} + \frac{q_{2}^{2}}{q_{1}} + \frac{2q_{2}}{3} - \frac{q_{1}^{3}}{3} + \frac{q_{1}}{5})z + q_{3}.$$

Dodgson's method of computing determinants

Ch. Dodgson (aka L. Carroll) (1866): condensation method for computing determinants

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & -4 \\ 1 & 5 & 1 \\ -3 & 13 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

det A = 8
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Proof is based on **Desnanot-Jacobi identity**:

$$\Delta\Delta_{1,n}^{1,n} = \Delta_1^1 \Delta_n^n - \Delta_1^n \Delta_n^1,$$

where $\Delta = \det A$, $\Delta_i^j = \det A_i^j$ etc.

Dodgson's condensation method and octahedral equation

One can view Dodgson's method as the solution of a very special Cauchy problem for the discrete **Dodgson octahedral equation**

 $u_{l,m+1,n+1}u_{l,m-1,n-1} - u_{l,m+1,n-1}u_{l,m-1,n+1} = u_{l-1,m,n}u_{l+1,m,n}$

where $m, n, l \in \mathbb{Z}$, $m \equiv n \equiv l \pmod{2}$.

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Figure: Dodgson's Cauchy pyramid for computing 3×3 determinants

Relation with Hirota-Miwa equation

Hirota (1981), Miwa (1982): a discrete version of KP equation on a standard cubic lattice

 $a v_{l+1,m,n} v_{l,m+1,n+1} + b v_{l,m+1,n} v_{l+1,m,n+1} + c v_{l,m,n+1} v_{l+1,m+1,n} = 0,$

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where $l, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and a, b, c are arbitrary non-zero parameters.

Formally the Hirota-Miwa equation may be considered as a version of the Dodgson equation if one interprets these six vertices of the cube as the vertices of the octahedron:



Reductions

It is however clear that from a geometric point of view Dodgson and Hirota-Miwa equations are different, which can be seen from their natural reductions.

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For the octahedral equation a natural reduction would be $u_{l+1,m,n} = u_{l-1,m,n}$ leading to the **discrete Dodgson equation**

$$u_{m+1,n+1}u_{m-1,n-1} - u_{m+1,n-1}u_{m-1,n+1} = u_{m,n}^2,$$

or, in the functional version, the difference Dodgson equation:

$$R_{n+1}(z+1)R_{n-1}(z-1) - R_{n+1}(z-1)R_{n-1}(z+1) = R_n^2(z).$$

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For Hirota-Miwa a natural reduction is $v_{l+1,m,n+1} = v_{l,m,n}$ which, for a = 1, b = c = -1, leads to the **discrete KdV equation**

$$Q_{m+1,n+1}Q_{m,n-1} - Q_{m,n+1}Q_{m+1,n-1} = Q_{m,n}Q_{m+1,n},$$

the functional version of which is the difference Burchnall-Chaundy equation

$$Q_{n+1}(z+1)Q_{n-1}(z) - Q_{n+1}(z)Q_{n-1}(z+1) = Q_n(z)Q_n(z+1).$$

Note that the support of the dKdV equation has a domino shape, while in the Dodgson case we have a 2×2 square, consisting of two dominos:



Figure: Domino-type support for the discrete KdV equation.

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Willox-AV (2015): The difference Burchnall-Chaundy and Dodgson equations are equivalent on the set of initial data satisfying $\Phi_0 = 0$, where

 $\Phi_n(z) := Q_n(z+1)Q_{n-1}(z-1) + Q_{n-1}(z+1)Q_n(z-1) - 2Q_{n-1}(z)Q_n(z).$

More precisely, if the initial data $Q_{-1}(z)$, $Q_0(z)$ of the Cauchy problem for the dBCh equation satisfy the constraint

 $Q_0(z+1)Q_{-1}(z-1) + Q_{-1}(z+1)Q_0(z-1) - 2Q_{-1}(z)Q_0(z) = 0,$

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then $R_n(z) = 2^{-\frac{n(n+1)}{2}}Q_n(z)$ satisfy the difference Dodgson equation.

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Remark. If we modify the Dodgson equation as

$$R_{n+1}(z+1)R_{n-1}(z-1) - R_{n+1}(z-1)R_{n-1}(z+1) = 2R_n^2(z),$$

then modulo constraint $\Phi_0 = 0$ we simply have $Q_n(z) = R_n(z)$.

Cauchy problem and Laurent property

Fomin and Zelevinsky (2002): Laurent property for discrete KdV

$$Q_{m+1,n+1}Q_{m,n-1} - Q_{m,n+1}Q_{m+1,n-1} = Q_{m,n}Q_{m+1,n}$$

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$$Q_{m+1,n+1}Q_{m,n-1} - Q_{m,n+1}Q_{m+1,n-1} = Q_{m,n}Q_{m+1,n}$$

For $Q_{m,-1} = Q_{m,0} = 1$, $Q_{0,n} = q_n$, $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, this means that $Q_{m,n}$ is a Laurent polynomial in q_i with integer coefficients. In particular, this implies that when all $q_i = 1$, all the $Q_{m,n}$ are integers:

12181	-507	-455	-91	21	5	1	21	397	6469	104145	1332565	15181325	
377	13	13	21	9	-3	1	13	149	1629	14001	115245	908245	
615	-26	-23	-4	3	2	1	8	59	350	2109	11492	52375	
249	51	5	1	1	$^{-1}$	1	5	21	91	329	977	2477	
-39	-19	-7	$^{-1}$	1	1	1	3	9	21	41	71	113	
-5	-4	-3	$^{-2}$	$^{-1}$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	$^{-1}$	-2	-3	-4	-5	
113	71	41	21	9	3	1	1	1	-1	-7	-19	-39	
2477	977	329	91	21	5	1	$^{-1}$	1	1	5	51	249	
52375	11492	2109	350	59	8	1	2	3	-4	-23	-26	615	
908245	115245	14001	1629	149	13	1	-3	9	21	13	13	377	
15181325	1332565	104145	6469	397	21	1	5	21	91 ▲ □ ▶	-455	-507	12181 E 🔊 🔍	.~

Explicit determinantal formulae

We follow essentially a difference analogue of Adler-Moser procedure. Let us define the polynomials $x_n(z)$ by the generating function

$$F(z,t,u)F(z,u) := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x_k(z)u^k = e^{\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{k+1}(z+t_k)\frac{u^k}{k}} :$$

$$x_0 = 1, \quad x_1 = z + t_1, \quad x_2 = \frac{1}{2}[(z + t_1)^2 - (z + t_2)], \quad \dots$$

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$$x_0 = 1, \quad x_1 = z + t_1, \quad x_2 = \frac{1}{2}[(z + t_1)^2 - (z + t_2)], \quad \dots$$

They satisfy the relation $x_n(z+1) - x_n(z) = x_{n-1}(z)$, $x_0 = 1$ and can be given as the determinants:

$$x_{k}(z) = \frac{1}{k!} \begin{vmatrix} z_{1} & -1 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ z_{2} & z_{1} & -2 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ z_{3} & z_{2} & z_{1} & -3 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ z_{k-1} & z_{k-2} & \dots & \dots & z_{1} & 1-k \\ z_{k} & z_{k-1} & \dots & \dots & z_{2} & z_{1} \end{vmatrix}, \qquad z_{k} = (-1)^{k+1}(z+t_{k}).$$

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Casoratians

Let now $y_k = x_{2k-1}$ and consider the **Casoratians** $Q_n(z) = C(y_1, \ldots, y_n)$, where by definition

$$C(f_1, \ldots, f_n) = \det ||f_i(z+j-1)||, \ i, j = 1, \ldots, n.$$

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The Casoratians $Q_k = C(y_1, \ldots, y_k)$ can be written as the determinants

$$Q_{k} = \begin{vmatrix} x_{1} & x_{3} & x_{5} & \dots & x_{2k-1} \\ 1 & x_{2} & x_{4} & \dots & x_{2k-2} \\ 0 & x_{1} & x_{3} & x_{5} & \dots & x_{2k-3} \\ 0 & 1 & x_{2} & x_{4} & \dots & x_{2k-4} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & x_{k-2} & x_{k} \end{vmatrix} .$$
(1)

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Willox-AV: The Casoratians $Q_k(z)$ satisfy the difference Burchnall-Chaundy equation.

Note that the coefficients of the polynomials $Q_k(z)$ are polynomial in the parameters t_j :

$$\begin{aligned} Q_1 &= z + t_1, \qquad Q_2 = \frac{1}{3} \big(z(z^2 - 1) + 3t_1 z^2 + 3t_1^2 z + t_1^3 - t_3 \big) \\ Q_3 &= \frac{1}{45} \big(z^2 (z^2 - 1)(z^2 - 4) + 6t_1 z^5 + 15t_1^2 z^4 + (20t_1^3 - 5t_3 - 15t_1) z^3 \\ &+ 15t_1 (t_1^3 - t_1 - t_3) z^2 + (9t_1 - 10t_3 + 9t_5 - 15t_1^2 t_3 - 5t_1^3 + 6t_1^5) z + t_1^6 - 5t_3^2 - 5t_1^3 t_3 + 9t_1 t_5 \big). \end{aligned}$$

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$$+ 15t_{1}(t_{1}^{3} - t_{1} - t_{3})z^{2} + (9t_{1} - 10t_{3} + 9t_{5} - 15t_{1}^{2}t_{3} - 5t_{1}^{3} + 6t_{1}^{5})z + t_{1}^{6} - 5t_{3}^{2} - 5t_{1}^{3}t_{3} + 9t_{1}t_{5}).$$

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We need to express now the KdV parameters t_j via Cauchy data $q_k = Q_k(0)$. Substituting z = 0 to Casoratian we have the relations

$$q_{1} = t_{1}, \quad q_{2} = -\frac{1}{3}t_{3} + \frac{1}{3}t_{1}^{3}, \quad q_{3} = \frac{1}{5}t_{1}t_{5} - \frac{1}{9}t_{3}^{2} - \frac{1}{9}t_{1}^{3}t_{3} + \frac{1}{45}t_{1}^{6},$$
$$q_{4} = \frac{1}{21}(t_{3} - t_{1}^{3})t_{7} - \frac{1}{25}t_{5}^{2} + \frac{1}{15}t_{1}^{2}t_{3}t_{5} + \frac{1}{75}t_{1}^{5}t_{5} - \frac{1}{27}t_{1}t_{3}^{3} - \frac{1}{315}t_{1}^{7}t_{3} + \frac{1}{4725}t_{1}^{10}, \dots$$

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Further analysis gives the following result:

Willox-AV: The polynomial q_k depends only on odd parameters t_{2i-1} with i = 1, ..., k and has the form

$$q_k = \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{2k-1} q_{k-2} t_{2k-1} + \psi_k(t_1, t_3, \dots, t_{2k-3}),$$

for some polynomials ψ_k with rational coefficients.

The parameter t_{2k-1} can be expressed in terms of q_j as a Laurent polynomial with integer coefficients

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As a corollary we have Laurent phenomenon for the difference Burchnall-Chaundy equation:

$$A_n Q_n(z) \in \mathbb{Z}[z; q_1^{\pm}, \ldots, q_{n-2}^{\pm}, q_{n-1}, q_n], \quad q_k = Q_k(0).$$

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Burchnall-Chaundy polynomials P_n are known to be the τ -functions

$$u(x, T_1, \ldots, T_n) = -2D^2 \log P_n(x, T_1, \ldots, T_n)$$

of the rational solutions of the KdVries equation $u_{T_1} = D^3 u - 6uDu$, $D = \frac{d}{dx}$ and its higher analogues $u_{T_k} = D^{2k+1}u + \dots$ Our parameters t_{2k+1} are simply related to the KdV times by the scaling $t_{2k+1} = 4^k (2k+1)T_k$.

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Willox-AV: The continuum limit

$$P_n(x, t_1, t_3, \ldots, t_{2n-1}) = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \varepsilon^{\frac{n(n+1)}{2}} Q_n(\frac{x}{\varepsilon}, \frac{t_3}{\varepsilon^3}, \ldots, \frac{t_{2n-1}}{\varepsilon^{2n-1}}),$$

yields the usual Burchnall-Chaundy polynomials parametrized by the scaled KdV times t_3, \ldots, t_{2n-1} .

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As a corollary we have Laurent phenomenon for the usual Burchnall-Chaundy equation:

$$A_n P_n(z) \in \mathbb{Z}[z; c_1^{\pm}, \ldots, c_{n-2}^{\pm}, c_{n-1}, c_n], \quad c_k = P_k(0).$$

In terms of the initial values $c_k = P_k(0)$ we have the new Laurent formulae

$$P_{1} = z + c_{1}, P_{2} = \frac{1}{3} (z^{3} + 3c_{1}z^{2} + 3c_{1}^{2}z + 3c_{2}),$$

$$P_{3} = \frac{1}{45} (z^{6} + 6c_{1}z^{5} + 15c_{1}^{2}z^{4} + 15(c_{1}^{3} + c_{2})z^{3} + 45c_{1}c_{2}z^{2} + 45(\frac{c_{2}^{2}}{c_{1}} + \frac{c_{3}}{c_{1}})z + 45c_{3}),$$

$$P_{4} = \frac{1}{4725} (z^{10} + 10c_{1}z^{9} + 45c_{1}^{2}z^{8} + 15(7c_{1}^{3} + 3c_{2})z^{7} + 105(c_{1}^{4} + 3c_{2}c_{1})z^{6} + 315(\frac{c_{2}^{2}}{c_{1}} + \frac{c_{3}}{c_{1}} + 2c_{1}^{2}c_{2})z^{5} + 1575(c_{2}^{2} + c_{3})z^{4} + 1575(\frac{c_{2}^{3}}{c_{1}^{2}} + c_{1}c_{3} + \frac{c_{4}}{c_{2}} + \frac{c_{3}^{2}}{c_{1}^{2}c_{2}} + 2\frac{c_{3}c_{2}}{c_{1}^{2}})z^{3} + 4725(\frac{c_{3}^{2}}{c_{1}c_{2}} + \frac{c_{2}c_{3}}{c_{1}} + \frac{c_{1}c_{4}}{c_{2}})z^{2} + 4725(\frac{c_{3}^{2}}{c_{1}} + \frac{c_{2}c_{3}}{c_{1}} + \frac{c_{1}c_{4}}{c_{2}})z^{2} + 4725(\frac{c_{3}^{2}}{c_{2}} + \frac{c_{1}c_{4}}{c_{2}})z + 4725c_{4}), \dots$$

One of the main open questions in the theory of integrable systems is the role of the Cauchy problem, especially at the discrete level.

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One of the main open questions in the theory of integrable systems is the role of the Cauchy problem, especially at the discrete level.

As an example, consider discrete KdV in the m direction, and its functional version by replacing n by x:

 $F_{m+1}(x+1)F_m(x-1) - F_{m+1}(x)F_m(x) - F_{m+1}(x-1)F_m(x+1) = 0$ with $F_0(x) = 1$.

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For Cauchy data satisfying $F_m(1) = \varphi^m F_m(0)$ we have an explicit solution

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Question. What is the analytic structure of the solutions for general Cauchy data (in particular, for $F_m(1) = F_m(0) = 1$)?

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In particular, what is the "right" interpolation of the numbers on the vertical lines of the next table? Note that on the second line we have the Fibonacci sequence $F_{n+1} = F_n + F_{n-1}$, on the third line the sequence satisfying

$$F_{n-1}G_{n+1} = F_{n+1}G_{n-1} + F_nG_n, \quad G_{-1} = G_0 = 1.$$

Table

12181	-507	-455	-91	21	5	1	21	397	6469	104145	1332565	15181325
377	13	13	21	9	-3	1	13	149	1629	14001	115245	908245
615	-26	-23	-4	3	2	1	8	59	350	2109	11492	52375
249	51	5	1	1	$^{-1}$	1	5	21	91	329	977	2477
-39	-19	-7	$^{-1}$	1	1	1	3	9	21	41	71	113
-5	-4	-3	-2	$^{-1}$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	$^{-1}$	-2	-3	-4	-5
113	71	41	21	9	3	1	1	1	$^{-1}$	-7	-19	-39
2477	977	329	91	21	5	1	$^{-1}$	1	1	5	51	249
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Figure: Solution to the dKdV equation with Cauchy data $Q_{0,n} = Q_{m,-1} = Q_{m,0} = 1$. The axes are given by the column of 1's (*n* axis) and the top row of 1's (*m* axis).