# A simple algorithm for cyclic vectors 

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February 14, 2022

## Outline

(1) Introduction

(2) Complex ODE in one variable
(3) Classical theory of regular singular points
(4) A simple algorithm for cyclic vectors

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- A theorem of Fuchs, Turrittin and Lutz shows that finding regular singular points is equivalent to searching for cyclic vectors.
- In a paper, Katz gives an explicit formula for cyclic vectors in "good" cases as well as provides a number of examples.


## ODE on nonsingular curve

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- $U^{a n}$ : the complex manifold corresponds to $U$ in the GAGA principle.


## Definition 2.1

Define an ODE of rank $n$ over $U$ to be a pair of $(M, \nabla)$ consisting of a locally free coherent sheaf $M$ of rank $n$ on $U$ together with a connection $\nabla: M \rightarrow M \otimes \Omega_{U / \mathbb{C}}^{1}$. The solution of an ODE $(M, \nabla)$ is defined to be the kernel of $\nabla$.

## Example

## Example 2.2

Let $X=\mathbb{P}^{1}, U \subset \mathbb{P}^{1}-\{\infty\}$, then an equation over $U$ is simply means a $(n \times n)$-system

$$
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by taking the matrix $P(z)$ to be a particular choice

$$
P(z)=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \cdot & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & & 0 & 1 \\
p_{0} & p_{1} & \cdots & p_{n-2} & p_{n-1}
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## Monodromy representation

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- Given a loop $\gamma$ in $U^{a n}$ starting and ending at $z_{0}$, then the analytic continuation along $\gamma$ defines an automorphism of $S$.
In this way the fundamental group $\pi_{1}\left(U^{a n}, z_{0}\right)$ acts on $S$, this is called the monodromy representation of the differential equation.


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$$
z \frac{d f}{d z}=\alpha f, \alpha \in \mathbb{C}
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If we take the analytic continuation along the homotopy class of the curve $\gamma$ looping counterclockwise around the origin an angle of $2 \pi$ then the solution turns out to be $e^{2 \pi \mathbf{i} \alpha} z^{\alpha}$.

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If we take the analytic continuation along the homotopy class of the curve $\gamma$ looping counterclockwise around the origin an angle of $2 \pi$ then the solution turns out to be $e^{2 \pi \mathbf{i} \alpha} z^{\alpha}$.
We have $\pi_{1}(\mathbb{C}-\{0\}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ with generator $[\gamma]$, the corresponding monodromy representation in $\mathbb{C}^{\times}=\mathrm{GL}(1, \mathbb{C})$ is given by $\gamma \mapsto e^{2 \pi \mathrm{i} \alpha}$.

## Regular singular points

Consider a ODE in one complex variable $z \in \mathbb{C}$

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$$
D^{(n)} f=b_{n-1} D^{(n-1)} f+\ldots+b_{0} f,
$$

where $D=(z-a) \frac{d}{d z}$. The original one has a regular singular point at $a$ iff all $b_{i}$ are holomorphic at $a$.

## Hilbert's twenty-first problem

Hilbert's twenty-first problem. Let $X$ be a nonsingular curve over $\mathbb{C}, ~ U$ one of its non-empty Zariski open set. Hilbert's twenty-first problem asks whether any finite-dimensional representation of $\pi_{1}\left(U^{a n}\right)$ can be obtained as a monodromy representation of a differential equation on $U$ with regular singular points.

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Let $U=\mathbb{A}^{1}, U^{a n}=\mathbb{C}$, and consider $\pi_{1}\left(U^{a n}\right)=0 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{\times}$the trivial representation. For any polynomial $P \in \mathbb{C}[z]$, the equation

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\frac{d f}{d z}=P(z) \cdot f \text { has solution } f(z)=\exp \left(\int_{0}^{z} P(t) d t\right)
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which is an entire function, so without monodromy. But as differential equations on the algebraic variety $\mathbb{A}^{1}$, these are pairwise non-isomorphic; only the choice $P \equiv 0$ gives regular singular points (include $\infty$ ).

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which is an entire function, so without monodromy. But as differential equations on the algebraic variety $\mathbb{A}^{1}$, these are pairwise non-isomorphic; only the choice $P \equiv 0$ gives regular singular points (include $\infty$ ). Indeed, if $z=1 / w$ then the equation

$$
\frac{d f}{d w}=-\frac{Q(w)}{w^{\operatorname{deg}(P)+2}} \cdot f \text { where } w^{\operatorname{deg}} P(1 / w)=Q(w)
$$

has a regular singular point at $w=0$ iff $Q(w) \equiv 0$.

## Connections and regular singular points

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## Definition 3.1 (Connections)

A connection $\nabla$ on $W$ is an additive mapping $\nabla: W \rightarrow \Omega_{F / k}^{1} \otimes W$ satisfying the Leibniz rule

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\nabla(f w)=d f \otimes w+f \nabla(w) \forall f \in K, w \in W
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Equivalently, $\nabla$ can be defined as a $F$-linear mapping

$$
\nabla: \operatorname{Der}_{k}(F, F) \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{k}(W)
$$

such that

$$
(\nabla(D))(f w)=D(f) w+f(\nabla(D)) w \forall D \in \operatorname{Der}_{k}(F, F), f \in F, w \in W
$$

For every closed point $\mathfrak{p}$ (we also call a closed point a place) we do have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{O}_{\mathfrak{p}} & =\left\{f \in K \mid \operatorname{ord}_{\mathfrak{p}}(f) \geq 0\right\} \\
\mathfrak{m}_{\mathfrak{p}} & =\left\{f \in K \mid \operatorname{ord}_{\mathfrak{p}}(f) \geq 1\right\}
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where $\operatorname{ord}_{\mathfrak{p}}: F \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \cup\{\infty\}$ is the discrete valuation at $\mathfrak{p}$.

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## Definition 3.2 (Regular singular points)

Let $\mathfrak{p}$ be a place of $F / k$, let $\nabla$ be a connection on $W$. We say that $\nabla$ has a regular singular point at $\mathfrak{p}$ if there exists a basis $\mathbf{e}$ of $W$ and a matrix $P \in M_{n}\left(\mathcal{O}_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)$ such that

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\nabla\left(h \frac{d}{d h}\right) \mathbf{e}=P \mathbf{e}
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## Definition 3.3 (Cyclic vectors)

Let $\nabla$ be a connection on $W$. A vector $w \in W$ is said to be cyclic if there exists a non-zero derivation $D \in \operatorname{Der}_{k}(F, F)$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Span}_{K}\left\langle w,(\nabla(D))(w), \ldots,(\nabla(D))^{n-1}(w)\right\rangle=W
$$

In that case, we call $(W, \nabla)$ a cyclic object.

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Suppose that $(W, \nabla)$ has a cyclic vector $w \in W, \mathfrak{p}$ is a place of $F / k, h$ is a uniformizer at $\mathfrak{p}$ and $n=\operatorname{dim}_{F}(W)$. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

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- $(W, \nabla)$ does not have a regular singular point at $\mathfrak{p}$.
- In terms of the basis

$$
\mathbf{e}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
w \\
\nabla\left(h \frac{d}{d h}\right)(w) \\
\vdots \\
\left(\nabla\left(h \frac{d}{d h}\right)\right)^{n-1}(w)
\end{array}\right)
$$

of $W$, the connection matrix is expressed as

$$
\nabla\left(h \frac{d}{d h}\right) \mathbf{e}=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \cdot & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
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p_{0} & p_{1} & \cdots & p_{n-2} & p_{n-1}
\end{array}\right) \mathbf{e}
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and, for some value of $i$, we have $\operatorname{ord}_{\mathfrak{p}}\left(p_{i}\right)<0$.

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- A fixed integer $n \geq 1$ and a triple ( $V, D, \mathbf{e}$ ) consisting of a free $R$-module $V$ of rank $n$, an additive mapping $D: V \rightarrow V$ satisfying

$$
D(f v)=\partial(f) v+f D(v)
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for all $f \in R, v \in V$, and a $R$-basis $\mathbf{e}=\left(e_{0}, \ldots, e_{n-1}\right)$ of $V$.

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An element $v \in V$ is said to be a cyclic vector if $v, D v, \ldots, D^{n-1}(v)$ is a $R$-basis of $V$.
Suppose now that $(n-1)$ ! is invertible in $R$. For each constant $a \in R^{\partial}$, we define an element $c(\mathbf{e}, t-a)$ in $V$ by the following formula

$$
c(\mathbf{e}, t-a)=\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{(t-a)^{j}}{j!} \sum_{k=0}^{j}(-1)^{k}\binom{j}{k} D^{k}\left(e_{n-k}\right) .
$$

## First main result

## Theorem 4.2 (N. M. Katz, [1])

Suppose $R$ is a local $\mathbb{Z}[1 /(n-1)!]$-algebra whose maximal ideal contains $t-a$. Then $c(\mathbf{e}, t-a)$ is a cyclic vector.

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## Proof.

Define elements $c(i, j)$ inductively by the formulas

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\begin{aligned}
c(0, j) & = \begin{cases}\sum_{k=0}^{j}(-1)^{k}\binom{j}{k} D^{k}\left(e_{j-k}\right) & j \leq n-1, \\
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By definition of $c(\mathbf{e}, t-a)$, we have

$$
c(\mathbf{e}, t-a)=\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{(t-a)^{j}}{j!} c(0, j)
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By induction,

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D^{i} c(\mathbf{e}, t-a)=\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{(t-a)^{j}}{j!} c(i, j)=c(i, 0)+(t-a)(\text { smth }) \forall i, j \geq 0
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In particular, $c(i, 0)=e_{i} \forall i=\overline{0, n-1}$, which implies that

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Hence,

$$
V=(t-a) V+\left\langle D^{i} c(\mathbf{e}, t-a)\right\rangle \subset \mathfrak{m} V+\left\langle D^{i} c(\mathbf{e}, t-a)\right\rangle \subset V
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\begin{gathered}
D^{i} c(\mathbf{e}, t-a)=\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{(t-a)^{j}}{j!} c(i, j)=c(i, 0)+(t-a)(\text { smth }) \forall i, j \geq 0 \\
c(i, j)=\sum_{k=0}^{j}(-1)^{k}\binom{j}{k} D\left(e_{i+j-k}\right) \forall i+j \leq n-1 .
\end{gathered}
$$

In particular, $c(i, 0)=e_{i} \forall i=\overline{0, n-1}$, which implies that

$$
D^{i} c(\mathbf{e}, t-a) \equiv e_{i} \bmod (t-a) V
$$

Hence,

$$
V=(t-a) V+\left\langle D^{i} c(\mathbf{e}, t-a)\right\rangle \subset \mathfrak{m} V+\left\langle D^{i} c(\mathbf{e}, t-a)\right\rangle \subset V
$$

Since $V$ is finitely generated, we can apply Nakayama's lemma to conclude that $V=\left\langle D^{i} c(\mathbf{e}, t-a)\right\rangle ;$ in other words, $c(\mathbf{e}, t-a)$ is a cyclic vector.

## Second main result

## Theorem 4.3 (N. M. Katz, [1])

Let $R$ be a ring in which $(n-1)$ ! is invertible, and let $k$ be a subfield of $R^{\partial}$. Suppose that $|k|>n(n-1)$, and let $a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n(n-1)}$ be $n(n-1)+1$ distinct elements of $k$. Then Zarisky locally on $\operatorname{Spec}(R)$, one of the vectors $c\left(\mathbf{e}, t-a_{i}\right), i=\overline{0, n(n-1)}$, is a cyclic vector.

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## Proof.

For $i=\overline{0, n-1}, X \in R$, we define elements $c_{i}(\mathbf{e}, X)$ by

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Taking wedge product gives us

$$
c_{0}(\mathbf{e}, X) \wedge \cdots \wedge c_{n-1}(\mathbf{e}, X)=P(X) e_{0} \wedge \cdots \wedge e_{n-1}
$$

where $P$ is a polynomial of degree $\leq n(n-1)$ in $R[T]$.

## Frame Title

## Proof.

We do have

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\begin{aligned}
c_{i}(\mathbf{e}, 0)=e_{i} & \Rightarrow P(0)=1 \\
c_{i}(\mathbf{e}, t-a) & =D^{i} c(\mathbf{e}, t-a)
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$$
\operatorname{det}\left(\left(t-a_{i}\right)_{0 \leq i, j \leq n(n-1)}^{j}\right)=\prod_{0 \leq i<j \leq n(n-1)}\left(a_{i}-a_{j}\right) \in k^{\times} \subset R^{\times}
$$

Consequently, $R \stackrel{P(0)=1}{=}\langle P(0)\rangle \stackrel{r_{0}=P(0)}{=}\left\langle r_{i}\right\rangle=\left\langle P\left(t-a_{i}\right)\right\rangle$.

## Motivation for the chosen formula

Consider $R=\mathbb{C}[[t]]$, the formal power series over $\mathbb{C}$ in one variable, $\partial=d / d t$ is the formal derivative. If $\left(h_{0}, \ldots, h_{n-1}\right)$ is a horizontal basis of $V$, i.e. a $R$-basis such that $D h_{i}=0 \forall i=\overline{0, n-1}$. Then it can be seen easily that

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\widetilde{v}=\sum_{k \geq 0}(-1)^{k} \frac{t^{k}}{k!} D^{k}(v)
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Therefore if $\mathbf{e}=\left(e_{0}, \ldots, e_{n-1}\right)$ is any $R$-basis of $V$, then $\left(\widetilde{e}_{0}, \ldots, \widetilde{e}_{n-1}\right)$ is, by Nakayama's lemma, a horizontal $R$-basis, and consequently

$$
\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{t^{j}}{j!} \widetilde{!}_{j}=\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{t^{j}}{j!} \sum_{k \geq 0}(-1)^{k} \frac{t^{k}}{k!} D^{k}\left(e_{j}\right)
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## Motivation for the chosen formula

But if $v$ is a cyclic vector, then so, by Nakayama's lemma, is $v+t^{n} v_{0}$ for any $v_{0} \in V$, simply because, for $i=\overline{0, n-1}$,

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Therefore in the above double sum, we may neglect all terms with $j+k \geq n$, to conclude that

$$
\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{t^{j}}{j!} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1-j}(-1)^{k} \frac{t^{k}}{k!} D^{k}\left(e_{j}\right)
$$

is a cyclic vector. But this last vector is easily seen to be $c(\mathbf{e}, t)$.

## Thank you for your listening!

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