

Analytic Combinatorics via Fourier-like Integrals

Alexander Kroitor

University of Waterloo

June 2023

Outline

- 1 Analytic Combinatorics in One Variable
 - Fundamental Ideas of AC
 - Saddle-Point Integrals
- 2 Analytic Combinatorics in Several Variables
 - Fundamentals of ACSV
 - Setup and Hyperplanes
 - Height Functions and Critical Points
- 3 Pseudo Fourier-Laplace Integrals
 - Morse Lemma
 - Differentiation Approach
 - Negative Gaussian Moments

Generating Functions

Take a sequence $\{a_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and consider $A(z) = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} a_i z^i$.

Generating Functions

Take a sequence $\{a_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and consider $A(z) = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} a_i z^i$.

This sum is **formal** (we don't evaluate it).

Generating Functions

Take a sequence $\{a_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and consider $A(z) = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} a_i z^i$.

This sum is **formal** (we don't evaluate it).

Analytic Combinatorics

What if we evaluate it anyway? Treat these as complex-analytic functions ($\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$).

Generating Functions

Take a sequence $\{a_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and consider $A(z) = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} a_i z^i$.

This sum is **formal** (we don't evaluate it).

Analytic Combinatorics

What if we evaluate it anyway? Treat these as complex-analytic functions ($\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$).

Goal: find asymptotics of a_n .

Starting point is

Theorem (Cauchy's Residue Theorem)

Let $A(z) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_n z^n$. Then

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C A(z) \frac{dz}{z^{n+1}} - \sum_j \operatorname{Res}_{z=a_j} \left[\frac{A(z)}{z^{n+1}} \right]$$

where C is some closed curve containing 0 and non-0 singularities of $A(z)$ labelled a_j (and Res is some complex analytic tool that is usually quite computable).

Starting point is

Theorem (Cauchy's Residue Theorem)

Let $A(z) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_n z^n$. Then

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C A(z) \frac{dz}{z^{n+1}} - \sum_j \operatorname{Res}_{z=a_j} \left[\frac{A(z)}{z^{n+1}} \right]$$

where C is some closed curve containing 0 and non-0 singularities of $A(z)$ labelled a_j (and Res is some complex analytic tool that is usually quite computable).

Idea is to expand C and pick up more and more singularities, while the integral term vanishes.

Let $a_n =$ number of alternating permutations. Then

$$A(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{a_n}{n!} z^n = \tan(z).$$

Let $a_n =$ number of alternating permutations. Then

$$A(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{a_n}{n!} z^n = \tan(z).$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{a_n}{n!} &= -\operatorname{Res}_{\frac{\pi}{2}} \left[\frac{\tan(z)}{z^{n+1}} \right] - \operatorname{Res}_{-\frac{\pi}{2}} \left[\frac{\tan(z)}{z^{n+1}} \right] + \int_{|z|=2} \tan(z) \frac{dz}{z^{n+1}} \\ &= 2 \left(\frac{2}{\pi} \right)^{n+1} + O(2^{-n}) \quad (n \text{ odd}). \end{aligned}$$

Let $a_n =$ number of alternating permutations. Then

$$A(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{a_n}{n!} z^n = \tan(z).$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{a_n}{n!} &= -\operatorname{Res}_{\frac{\pi}{2}} \left[\frac{\tan(z)}{z^{n+1}} \right] - \operatorname{Res}_{-\frac{\pi}{2}} \left[\frac{\tan(z)}{z^{n+1}} \right] + \int_{|z|=2} \tan(z) \frac{dz}{z^{n+1}} \\ &= 2 \left(\frac{2}{\pi} \right)^{n+1} + O(2^{-n}) \quad (n \text{ odd}). \end{aligned}$$

If we make C bigger we get more residues and smaller O term.

What if $A(z)$ has no singularities to exploit?

What if $A(z)$ has no singularities to exploit?

If C contains no singularities other than the origin then

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C A(z) \frac{dz}{z^{n+1}}.$$

What if $A(z)$ has no singularities to exploit?

If C contains no singularities other than the origin then

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C A(z) \frac{dz}{z^{n+1}}.$$

Does not depend on C (besides singularities)! We can freely deform C (as long as we do not cross singularities).

What if $A(z)$ has no singularities to exploit?

If C contains no singularities other than the origin then

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C A(z) \frac{dz}{z^{n+1}}.$$

Does not depend on C (besides singularities)! We can freely deform C (as long as we do not cross singularities).

How do we deal with this integral? **Saddle points.**

Definition (Saddle Points)

A saddle point of $f(z)$ is a point z where $df(z) = 0$, but z is neither a local maximum or minimum.

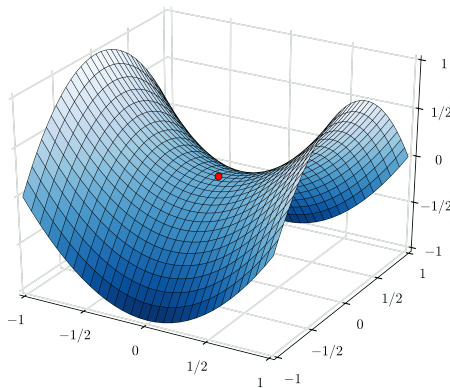


Figure: Saddle Point [kos23]

We exploit the fact that at a saddle point $f(z)$ is well-approximated by just the integral around the saddle point.

We exploit the fact that at a saddle point $f(z)$ is well-approximated by just the integral around the saddle point.

Idea:

We exploit the fact that at a saddle point $f(z)$ is well-approximated by just the integral around the saddle point.

Idea:

1. Move contour to saddle point

We exploit the fact that at a saddle point $f(z)$ is well-approximated by just the integral around the saddle point.

Idea:

1. Move contour to saddle point
2. Rewrite the integral in form $\int_C F(z) \exp[-n\phi(z)] dz$

We exploit the fact that at a saddle point $f(z)$ is well-approximated by just the integral around the saddle point.

Idea:

1. Move contour to saddle point
2. Rewrite the integral in form $\int_C F(z) \exp[-n\phi(z)] dz$
3. Approximate integral

Stirling's Approximation

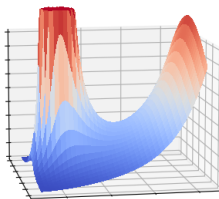
We derive Stirling's Approximation.

$$\frac{1}{n!} = [z^n]e^z = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C e^z \frac{dz}{z^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C e^{z-(n+1)\log(z)} dz.$$

Stirling's Approximation

We derive Stirling's Approximation.

$$\frac{1}{n!} = [z^n]e^z = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C e^z \frac{dz}{z^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C e^{z-(n+1)\log(z)} dz.$$



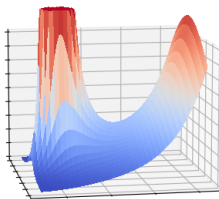
Stirling's Approximation

We derive Stirling's Approximation.

$$\frac{1}{n!} = [z^n]e^z = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C e^z \frac{dz}{z^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C e^{z-(n+1)\log(z)} dz.$$

Saddle point at (around) $z = n$. In polar coords,

$$\left(\frac{e}{n}\right)^n \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{ne^{i\theta}-1-i\theta} d\theta \sim \left(\frac{e}{n}\right)^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi n}}$$



Here we are using the study of (single-variable) **Fourier-like integrals**, of the form

$$\int_{\gamma} A(z) \exp[-n\phi(z)] dz.$$

Here we are using the study of (single-variable) **Fourier-like integrals**, of the form

$$\int_{\gamma} A(z) \exp[-n\phi(z)] dz.$$

These integrals are deeply connected with saddle-point techniques.

Here we are using the study of (single-variable) **Fourier-like integrals**, of the form

$$\int_{\gamma} A(z) \exp[-n\phi(z)] dz.$$

These integrals are deeply connected with saddle-point techniques.

Well studied in a single variable, what about in several variables?

Generating Functions in Several Variables

Take a sequence $\{a_{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_d}\}_{n_i \in \mathbb{N}}$ and consider

$$\begin{aligned} A(\mathbf{z}) &= \sum_{n_1, \dots, n_d \in \mathbb{N}} a_{n_1, \dots, n_d} z_1^{n_1} \cdots z_d^{n_d} \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{n} \in \mathbb{N}^d} a_{\mathbf{n}} \mathbf{z}^{\mathbf{n}} \end{aligned}$$

Generating Functions in Several Variables

Take a sequence $\{a_{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_d}\}_{n_i \in \mathbb{N}}$ and consider

$$\begin{aligned} A(\mathbf{z}) &= \sum_{n_1, \dots, n_d \in \mathbb{N}} a_{n_1, \dots, n_d} z_1^{n_1} \cdots z_d^{n_d} \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{n} \in \mathbb{N}^d} a_{\mathbf{n}} \mathbf{z}^{\mathbf{n}} \end{aligned}$$

What are asymptotics of $a_{\mathbf{n}}$? Not as clear now.

Solution:

Solution:

Find asymptotics of

$$a_{\mathbf{r}n} = a_{r_1n, \dots, r_dn} = [\mathbf{z}^{\mathbf{r}n}]A(\mathbf{z}) = [z_1^{r_1n} \cdots z_d^{r_dn}]A(\mathbf{z}),$$

where $\mathbf{r} \in \mathbb{N}^d$.

Solution:

Find asymptotics of

$$a_{\mathbf{r}n} = a_{r_1n, \dots, r_dn} = [\mathbf{z}^{\mathbf{r}n}]A(\mathbf{z}) = [z_1^{r_1n} \cdots z_d^{r_dn}]A(\mathbf{z}),$$

where $\mathbf{r} \in \mathbb{N}^d$.

If $\mathbf{r} = (3, 2)$, we consider the 1 dimensional subsequence $a_{3n, 2n}$.

Solution:

Find asymptotics of

$$a_{\mathbf{r}n} = a_{r_1n, \dots, r_dn} = [\mathbf{z}^{\mathbf{r}n}]A(\mathbf{z}) = [z_1^{r_1n} \cdots z_d^{r_dn}]A(\mathbf{z}),$$

where $\mathbf{r} \in \mathbb{N}^d$.

If $\mathbf{r} = (3, 2)$, we consider the 1 dimensional subsequence $a_{3n, 2n}$.

This is called a **direction**.

Solution:

Find asymptotics of

$$a_{\mathbf{r}n} = a_{r_1n, \dots, r_dn} = [\mathbf{z}^{\mathbf{r}n}]A(\mathbf{z}) = [z_1^{r_1n} \cdots z_d^{r_dn}]A(\mathbf{z}),$$

where $\mathbf{r} \in \mathbb{N}^d$.

If $\mathbf{r} = (3, 2)$, we consider the 1 dimensional subsequence $a_{3n, 2n}$.

This is called a **direction**.

From now on we normalize by dividing \mathbf{r} by $\|\mathbf{r}\|_1$.

For the remainder of this talk we assume that our generating function is of the form

$$A(\mathbf{z}) = \frac{1}{\prod_{j=1}^m \ell_j(\mathbf{z})^{p_j}},$$

- $\ell_j(\mathbf{z})$ is a real-linear function $1 - \mathbf{b}^{(j)} \cdot \mathbf{z}$,
- p_j are natural numbers.

For the remainder of this talk we assume that our generating function is of the form

$$A(\mathbf{z}) = \frac{1}{\prod_{j=1}^m \ell_j(\mathbf{z})^{p_j}},$$

- $\ell_j(\mathbf{z})$ is a real-linear function $1 - \mathbf{b}^{(j)} \cdot \mathbf{z}$,
- p_j are natural numbers.

Let $\mathbb{V} = \{\mathbf{z} \mid \prod_{j=1}^m \ell_j(\mathbf{z}) = 0\} =$ union of hyperplanes.

For the remainder of this talk we assume that our generating function is of the form

$$A(\mathbf{z}) = \frac{1}{\prod_{j=1}^m \ell_j(\mathbf{z})^{p_j}},$$

- $\ell_j(\mathbf{z})$ is a real-linear function $1 - \mathbf{b}^{(j)} \cdot \mathbf{z}$,
- p_j are natural numbers.

Let $\mathbb{V} = \{\mathbf{z} \mid \prod_{j=1}^m \ell_j(\mathbf{z}) = 0\} =$ union of hyperplanes.

The set \mathbb{V} is the singular set of A .

Similar to before

$$a_{rn} = \left(\frac{1}{2\pi i} \right)^d \int_T A(\mathbf{z}) \frac{d\mathbf{z}}{\mathbf{z}^{rn+1}},$$

where T is some product of sufficiently small circles (we can deform this, as long as we do not cross singularities).

Similar to before

$$a_{rn} = \left(\frac{1}{2\pi i} \right)^d \int_T A(\mathbf{z}) \frac{d\mathbf{z}}{\mathbf{z}^{\mathbf{r}n+1}},$$

where T is some product of sufficiently small circles (we can deform this, as long as we do not cross singularities).

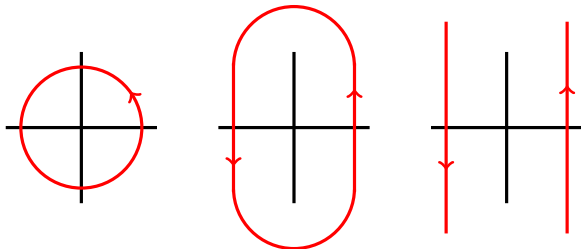
In one variable, we deform the circle T to $C_\epsilon - C_{-\epsilon}$, where $C_x = x + i\mathbb{R}$ and the sign indicates direction.

Similar to before

$$a_{rn} = \left(\frac{1}{2\pi i} \right)^d \int_T A(\mathbf{z}) \frac{dz}{\mathbf{z}^{rn+1}},$$

where T is some product of sufficiently small circles (we can deform this, as long as we do not cross singularities).

In one variable, we deform the circle T to $C_\epsilon - C_{-\epsilon}$, where $C_x = x + i\mathbb{R}$ and the sign indicates direction.



In several dimensions we get something similar, deforming T to

$$\sum_{\alpha \in \{-1,1\}^d} \text{sign}(\alpha) C_{\alpha\epsilon}$$

where $C_{\alpha\epsilon} = (\alpha_1\epsilon, \dots, \alpha_d\epsilon) + i\mathbb{R}^d$.

In several dimensions we get something similar, deforming T to

$$\sum_{\alpha \in \{-1, 1\}^d} \text{sign}(\alpha) C_{\alpha \epsilon}$$

where $C_{\alpha \epsilon} = (\alpha_1 \epsilon, \dots, \alpha_d \epsilon) + i\mathbb{R}^d$.

In two complex dimensions T deforms to

$$C_{(\epsilon, \epsilon)} - C_{(-\epsilon, \epsilon)} - C_{(\epsilon, -\epsilon)} + C_{(-\epsilon, -\epsilon)}.$$

Definition (Strata)

A **stratum** is an intersection of hyperplanes with all smaller intersections removed.

We would like to proceed in a similar saddle-point way to before (looking at saddle points of $A(\mathbf{z})$ and deforming to them).

We would like to proceed in a similar saddle-point way to before (looking at saddle points of $A(\mathbf{z})$ and deforming to them).

This is achieved via **Morse theory**.

Pick a direction $\mathbf{r} = (r_1, \dots, r_d)$. Define the height function

$$h_{\mathbf{r}}(\mathbf{z}) := - \sum_{i=1}^d r_i \log |z_i|.$$

We would like to proceed in a similar saddle-point way to before (looking at saddle points of $A(\mathbf{z})$ and deforming to them).

This is achieved via **Morse theory**.

Pick a direction $\mathbf{r} = (r_1, \dots, r_d)$. Define the height function

$$h_{\mathbf{r}}(\mathbf{z}) := - \sum_{i=1}^d r_i \log |z_i|.$$

This captures the size of the Cauchy integrand when n is large

We would like to proceed in a similar saddle-point way to before (looking at saddle points of $A(\mathbf{z})$ and deforming to them).

This is achieved via **Morse theory**.

Pick a direction $\mathbf{r} = (r_1, \dots, r_d)$. Define the height function

$$h_{\mathbf{r}}(\mathbf{z}) := - \sum_{i=1}^d r_i \log |z_i|.$$

This captures the size of the Cauchy integrand when n is large

$$\left| \frac{1}{\mathbf{z}^{\mathbf{r}n}} \right| = \left| \exp \left[\log \mathbf{z}^{-\mathbf{r}n} \right] \right| = \exp \left[-n \sum_{i=1}^d r_i \log |z_i| \right]$$

Definition (Critical Points)

Let S be a stratum. Then $\mathbf{p} \in S$ is a **critical point** of S (relative to \mathbf{r}) if

$$-\nabla h_{\mathbf{r}}|_S(\mathbf{p}) = 0.$$

These are our saddle points!

Some facts:

Some facts:

- Exactly one of these per stratum per orthant (quadrant)

Some facts:

- Exactly one of these per stratum per orthant (quadrant)
- These are always real

Some facts:

- Exactly one of these per stratum per orthant (quadrant)
- These are always real
- For a critical point σ on a single hyperplane given by $\ell_j(\mathbf{z}) = 1 - \mathbf{b}^{(j)}\mathbf{z}$, this is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} & -\nabla h_r(\mathbf{p}) \parallel -\nabla \ell_j(\mathbf{z}) \\ \implies & -\nabla h_r(\mathbf{p}) \in \left\{ \lambda \mathbf{b}^{(j)} \mid \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

Some facts:

- Exactly one of these per stratum per orthant (quadrant)
- These are always real
- For a critical point σ on a single hyperplane given by $\ell_j(\mathbf{z}) = 1 - \mathbf{b}^{(j)}\mathbf{z}$, this is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} & -\nabla h_r(\mathbf{p}) \parallel -\nabla \ell_j(\mathbf{z}) \\ \implies & -\nabla h_r(\mathbf{p}) \in \left\{ \lambda \mathbf{b}^{(j)} \mid \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

- For a critical point σ on the intersection of multiple hyperplanes this is equivalent to

$$-\nabla h_r(\mathbf{p}) \in \left\{ \sum_j \lambda_j \mathbf{b}^{(j)} \mid \lambda_j \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

$$-\nabla h_{\mathbf{r}}(\mathbf{p}) \in \left\{ \sum_j \lambda_j \mathbf{b}^{(j)} \mid \lambda_j \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

What does it mean if $\lambda_j > 0$ or $\lambda_j = 0$ or $\lambda_j < 0$?

$$-\nabla h_{\mathbf{r}}(\mathbf{p}) \in \left\{ \sum_j \lambda_j \mathbf{b}^{(j)} \mid \lambda_j \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

What does it mean if $\lambda_j > 0$ or $\lambda_j = 0$ or $\lambda_j < 0$?

1. If we cross that hyperplane our height will go down

$$-\nabla h_{\mathbf{r}}(\mathbf{p}) \in \left\{ \sum_j \lambda_j \mathbf{b}^{(j)} \mid \lambda_j \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

What does it mean if $\lambda_j > 0$ or $\lambda_j = 0$ or $\lambda_j < 0$?

1. If we cross that hyperplane our height will go down
2. If we cross that hyperplane our height will stay the same

$$-\nabla h_{\mathbf{r}}(\mathbf{p}) \in \left\{ \sum_j \lambda_j \mathbf{b}^{(j)} \mid \lambda_j \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

What does it mean if $\lambda_j > 0$ or $\lambda_j = 0$ or $\lambda_j < 0$?

1. If we cross that hyperplane our height will go down
2. If we cross that hyperplane our height will stay the same
3. If we cross that hyperplane our height will go up

$$-\nabla h_{\mathbf{r}}(\mathbf{p}) \in \left\{ \sum_j \lambda_j \mathbf{b}^{(j)} \mid \lambda_j \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

What does it mean if $\lambda_j > 0$ or $\lambda_j = 0$ or $\lambda_j < 0$?

1. If we cross that hyperplane our height will go down
2. If we cross that hyperplane our height will stay the same
3. If we cross that hyperplane our height will go up

We want to reduce height! Height going up is counterproductive.

$$-\nabla h_{\mathbf{r}}(\mathbf{p}) \in \left\{ \sum_j \lambda_j \mathbf{b}^{(j)} \mid \lambda_j \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

What does it mean if $\lambda_j > 0$ or $\lambda_j = 0$ or $\lambda_j < 0$?

1. If we cross that hyperplane our height will go down
2. If we cross that hyperplane our height will stay the same
3. If we cross that hyperplane our height will go up

We want to reduce height! Height going up is counterproductive.
Define the **positive normal cone** at σ as

$$N(\sigma) = \left\{ \sum_j \lambda_j \mathbf{b}^{(j)} \mid \lambda_j \geq 0 \right\},$$

where j runs over planes σ is on.

Setup is finally done!

Definition (Genericity of Direction)

We say a direction is **generic** if for all critical points, $\lambda_j > 0$. We say a direction is **non-generic** if some $\lambda_j = 0$.

Taking Residues

If we are at a critical point, we can use the same logic used to write

$$T = C_\epsilon - C_{-\epsilon}$$

to write

$$\int_{C_\epsilon} = \int_T + \int_{C_{-\epsilon}}.$$

\int_T is computable and if $\lambda > 0$ for this hyperplane, our remaining integral is smaller.

Consider $A(z) = \frac{1}{(1-\frac{2x+y}{3})(1-\frac{x+2y}{3})}$ with $\mathbf{r} = (1, 1)$. Draw critical points Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 [z^{\mathbf{r}n}]A(\mathbf{z}) &= \int_T A(\mathbf{z}) \frac{dx dy}{x^{n+1}y^{n+1}} \\
 &= \int_{\sigma+(-\epsilon, -\epsilon)+i\mathbb{R}^2} A(\mathbf{z}) \frac{dx dy}{x^{n+1}y^{n+1}} \\
 &= \int_{T_\sigma} - \int_{\sigma+(\epsilon, \epsilon)+i\mathbb{R}^2} \\
 &+ \int_{\sigma+(\epsilon, -\epsilon)+i\mathbb{R}^2} + \int_{\sigma+(-\epsilon, \epsilon)+i\mathbb{R}^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

Non-genericity arises when one or more $\lambda_j = 0$

Non-genericity arises when one or more $\lambda_j = 0$

Without $\lambda > 0$, we don't know that $\int_{C_{-\epsilon}}$ is smaller

Non-genericity arises when one or more $\lambda_j = 0$

Without $\lambda > 0$, we don't know that $\int_{C_{-\epsilon}}$ is smaller

- Number of $\lambda_j = 0$ is the number of dimensions we cannot kill by taking residues,

Non-genericity arises when one or more $\lambda_j = 0$

Without $\lambda > 0$, we don't know that $\int_{C-\epsilon}$ is smaller

- Number of $\lambda_j = 0$ is the number of dimensions we cannot kill by taking residues,
- Case where exactly one of $\lambda_j = 0$ was already done by Baryshnikov, Melczer, Pemantle 2023 [BMP23].

Consider $A(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{(1-2x-y-z)(1-x-2y-z)(1-x-y-2z)}$ in the direction $\mathbf{r} = (1, 1, 2)$.

$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = (\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4})$ is a critical point with

$$-\nabla h_{\mathbf{r}}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}) = (4, 4, 8) = 0\mathbf{b}^{(1)} + 0\mathbf{b}^{(2)} + 4\mathbf{b}^{(3)}$$

After some work

$$\begin{aligned}
 [\mathbf{z}^n]A(\mathbf{z}) &= \frac{1}{(2\pi i)^3} \int_{\sigma + (-\epsilon, -\epsilon, -\epsilon) + i\mathbb{R}^3} A(x, y, z) \frac{dx dy dz}{x^{n+1} y^{n+1} z^{2n+1}} \\
 &\sim \frac{1}{(2\pi i)^2} \int \frac{1}{(y + 3z - 1)(z - y)} \frac{dy dz}{(1 - y - 2z)^n y^n z^{2n}} \\
 &= \frac{64^n}{(2\pi i)^2} \int \frac{1}{AB} \frac{dA dB}{(1 - 3A + B)^n (1 + A - 3B)^n (1 + A + B)^{2n}} \\
 &\sim \frac{64^n}{(2\pi i)^2} \int_D \frac{1}{AB} \exp \left[-n(6A^2 - 4AB + 6B^2) \right] dA dB
 \end{aligned}$$

where $D = \mathbb{R}^2 + i(\epsilon, \epsilon)$.

After some work

$$\begin{aligned}
 [z^{rn}]A(z) &= \frac{1}{(2\pi i)^3} \int_{\sigma + (-\epsilon, -\epsilon, -\epsilon) + i\mathbb{R}^3} A(x, y, z) \frac{dx dy dz}{x^{n+1} y^{n+1} z^{2n+1}} \\
 &\sim \frac{1}{(2\pi i)^2} \int \frac{1}{(y + 3z - 1)(z - y) (1 - y - 2z)^n y^n z^{2n}} dy dz \\
 &= \frac{64^n}{(2\pi i)^2} \int \frac{1}{AB} \frac{dA dB}{(1 - 3A + B)^n (1 + A - 3B)^n (1 + A + B)^{2n}} \\
 &\sim \frac{64^n}{(2\pi i)^2} \int_D \frac{1}{AB} \exp \left[-n(6A^2 - 4AB + 6B^2) \right] dA dB
 \end{aligned}$$

where $D = \mathbb{R}^2 + i(\epsilon, \epsilon)$.

How to evaluate?

We have a need to evaluate integrals like

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2+i(\epsilon,\epsilon)} \frac{1}{x^{k_1} y^{k_2}} \exp[-n\phi(x, y)] dx dy.$$

We have a need to evaluate integrals like

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2 + i(\epsilon, \epsilon)} \frac{1}{x^{k_1} y^{k_2}} \exp[-n\phi(x, y)] dx dy.$$

These are negative Gaussian moments!

In the numerator case we use the Morse lemma.

In the numerator case we use the Morse lemma.

Theorem

Let $\phi(\mathbf{0}) = 0$. If $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ has vanishing gradient and non-singular Hessian at $\mathbf{0}$, there is a change of variables $\mathbf{x} = \psi(\mathbf{y})$ such that

$$\phi(\psi(\mathbf{y})) = \sum_i y_i^2.$$

In the numerator case we use the Morse lemma.

Theorem

Let $\phi(\mathbf{0}) = 0$. If $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ has vanishing gradient and non-singular Hessian at $\mathbf{0}$, there is a change of variables $\mathbf{x} = \psi(\mathbf{y})$ such that

$$\phi(\psi(\mathbf{y})) = \sum_i y_i^2.$$

$$\int A(\mathbf{x}) \exp[-n\phi(\mathbf{x})] d\mathbf{x} = \int A(\psi(\mathbf{y})) \det d\psi(\mathbf{y}) \exp\left[-n \sum y_i^2\right] d\mathbf{y}$$

Then $A(\phi(\mathbf{y})) \det d\psi(\mathbf{y})$ is a power series; use Fubini to separate

Spent a long time trying this for denominator, does not seem to work.

Spent a long time trying this for denominator, does not seem to work.

Get integrals of the form

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2 + i(\epsilon, \epsilon)} \frac{1}{A(x, y)} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + y^2) \right] dx dy.$$

Spent a long time trying this for denominator, does not seem to work.

Get integrals of the form

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2+i(\epsilon,\epsilon)} \frac{1}{A(x,y)} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + y^2) \right] dx dy.$$

Tried a lot with

$$\int \frac{1}{x+y} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + y^2) \right] dx dy,$$

Spent a long time trying this for denominator, does not seem to work.

Get integrals of the form

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2+i(\epsilon,\epsilon)} \frac{1}{A(x,y)} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + y^2) \right] dx dy.$$

Tried a lot with

$$\int \frac{1}{x+y} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + y^2) \right] dx dy,$$

did not get anywhere.

In the 1-variable case we differentiate.

$$I(n) = \int \frac{1}{y^k} \exp[-ny^2] dy$$
$$\implies \frac{d}{dn} I(n) = \int \frac{-1}{y^{k-2}} \exp[-ny^2] dy$$

In the 1-variable case we differentiate.

$$I(n) = \int \frac{1}{y^k} \exp[-ny^2] dy$$
$$\implies \frac{d}{dn} I(n) = \int \frac{-1}{y^{k-2}} \exp[-ny^2] dy$$

Eventually get some positive power, which we can evaluate.

This also does not work for us.

$$\begin{aligned} I(n) &= \int \frac{1}{xy} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + xy + y^2) \right] dx dy \\ \implies \frac{d}{dn} I(n) &= - \int \frac{x^2}{xy} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + xy + y^2) \right] dx dy \\ &\quad - \int \frac{xy}{xy} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + xy + y^2) \right] dx dy \\ &\quad - \int \frac{y^2}{xy} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + xy + y^2) \right] dx dy \end{aligned}$$

This also does not work for us.

$$\begin{aligned} I(n) &= \int \frac{1}{xy} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + xy + y^2) \right] dx dy \\ \implies \frac{d}{dn} I(n) &= - \int \frac{x^2}{xy} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + xy + y^2) \right] dx dy \\ &\quad - \int \frac{xy}{xy} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + xy + y^2) \right] dx dy \\ &\quad - \int \frac{y^2}{xy} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + xy + y^2) \right] dx dy \end{aligned}$$

Differentiating $\int \frac{x}{y}$ gets us nowhere!

Morse lemma is inductive; first does x substitution, then y etc.

Morse lemma is inductive; first does x substitution, then y etc.

Idea: differentiate until we get positive power on top, then apply Morse lemma to only the variable on top.

Let

$$I(n) = \iint \frac{1}{x^2 y} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + xy + y^2) \right] dx dy$$
$$I'(n) = - \iint \frac{1}{y} - \iint \frac{1}{x} - \iint \frac{y}{x^2}$$
$$= I_1(n) + I_2(n) + I_3(n)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 I_3(n) &= - \iint \frac{y}{x^2} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + xy + y^2) \right] dx dy \\
 &= - \frac{1}{2} \iint \frac{1}{x} \exp \left[-n(b^2 + \frac{3}{4}x^2) \right] dx db \\
 &= - \frac{1}{2} \int \exp \left[-n(b^2) \right] db \int \frac{1}{x} \exp \left[-n(\frac{3}{4}x^2) \right] dx \\
 &= \frac{i\pi^{3/2}}{2} n^{-1/2}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 l_3(n) &= - \iint \frac{y}{x^2} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + xy + y^2) \right] dx dy \\
 &= - \frac{1}{2} \iint \frac{1}{x} \exp \left[-n(b^2 + \frac{3}{4}x^2) \right] dx db \\
 &= - \frac{1}{2} \int \exp \left[-n(b^2) \right] db \int \frac{1}{x} \exp \left[-n(\frac{3}{4}x^2) \right] dx \\
 &= \frac{i\pi^{3/2}}{2} n^{-1/2} \\
 \rightsquigarrow l'(n) &= \frac{3i\pi^{3/2}}{2} n^{-1/2}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 I_3(n) &= - \iint \frac{y}{x^2} \exp \left[-n(x^2 + xy + y^2) \right] dx dy \\
 &= - \frac{1}{2} \iint \frac{1}{x} \exp \left[-n(b^2 + \frac{3}{4}x^2) \right] dx db \\
 &= - \frac{1}{2} \int \exp \left[-n(b^2) \right] db \int \frac{1}{x} \exp \left[-n(\frac{3}{4}x^2) \right] dx \\
 &= \frac{i\pi^{3/2}}{2} n^{-1/2} \\
 \rightsquigarrow I'(n) &= \frac{3i\pi^{3/2}}{2} n^{-1/2} \\
 \implies I(n) &= 3i\pi^{3/2} n^{1/2}
 \end{aligned}$$

Applying same procedure gives

$$\begin{aligned} [z^{rn}]A(z) &\sim \frac{64^n}{(2\pi i)^2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^2+i\epsilon} \frac{1}{AB} \exp \left[-n(6A^2 - 4AB + 6B^2) \right] dA dB \\ &\sim \frac{64^n}{(2\pi i)^2} \frac{\sqrt{2} - 6\sqrt{3}}{2} \pi \log n \\ &= \frac{6\sqrt{3} - \sqrt{2}}{8\pi} 64^n \log n \end{aligned}$$

Conclusion

We have a method to compute these integrals

Conclusion

We have a method to compute these integrals

→ Simplify and theoremize

Conclusion

We have a method to compute these integrals

- Simplify and theoremize
- Apply to problems

Conclusion

We have a method to compute these integrals

- Simplify and theoremize
- Apply to problems
- Implement

Bibliography



Y. Baryshnikov, S. Melczer, and R. Pemantle.

Asymptotics of multivariate sequences iv: generating functions with poles on a hyperplane arrangement.

Accepted to Annals of Combinatorics, 2023.



kostas.

Understanding Fastai's fit_one_cycle method, June 2023.

[Online; accessed 28. Jun. 2023].