The integration of systems of linear PDEs using conservation laws of syzygies

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Abstract

A new integration technique is presented for systems of linear partial differential equations (PDEs) for which syzygies can be formulated that obey conservation laws. These syzygies come for free as a by-product of the differential Gröbner Basis computation. Compared with the more obvious way of integrating a single equation and substituting the result in other equations the new technique integrates more than one equation at once and therefore introduces temporarily fewer new functions of integration that in addition depend on fewer variables. Especially for high order PDE systems in many variables the conventional integration technique may lead to an explosion of the number of functions of integration which is avoided with the new method. A further benefit is that redundant free functions in the solution are either prevented or that their number is at least reduced.

1 A critical look at conventional integration

In this paper a new integration method is introduced that is suitable for the computerized solution of systems of linear PDEs that admit syzygies. In the text we will call the integration of single exact differential equations, i.e. equations which are total derivatives, the ‘conventional’ integration method (discussed, for example, in [11]). To highlight the difference with the new syzygy based integration method we have a closer look at the conventional method first. About notation: To distinguish symbolic subscripts from partial derivatives we indicate partial derivatives with a comma, for example, $\partial_{xy}e_i = e_{i,xy}$.

To solve, for example, the system

$$0 = f_{,xx} \quad (1)$$
$$0 = xf_{,y} + f_{,z} \quad (2)$$

for $f(x, y, z)$ one would, at first, integrate (1) with 2 new functions of integration $g(y, z), h(y, z)$, then substitute

$$f = xg + h \quad (3)$$
into (2), do a separation with respect to different powers of $x$ to obtain the system

\[
\begin{align*}
0 &= g, \\
0 &= g_z + h, \\
0 &= h, \\
\end{align*}
\]

and solve that to get the solution

\[
f = x(az + b) - ay + c, \quad a, b, c = \text{const}.
\]

The main gain of information on which the overall success was based did happen after the substitution at the stage of separating (2) into 3 equations. The integration of (1) itself did not provide new information. The equation $0 = f_{xx}$ is more compact than $f = xg + h$ and equally well usable in an ongoing elimination process (Gröbner Basis computation). (Similarly, in this sense, $f(x) = a\sin(x) + b\cos(x)$ would not provide new information compared to $0 = f'' + f$ as sin and cos are only defined as solutions of this ODE.) The main conclusion is: The integration of a single equation does not necessarily imply progress in the solution of a system of PDEs, especially if a direct separation does not become possible as the result of substituting a computed function.

This is the case in the example

\[
\begin{align*}
0 &= f_{yzz} \quad (=: e_1) \\
0 &= f_{xx} + f_{zz} \quad (=: e_2)
\end{align*}
\]

discussed in more detail in the next section. Integration of (1) to $f = g_1(x, y) + zg_2(x, y) + g_3(x, z)$ and substitution into (5) does not yield a separable equation and is therefore not as straightforward to utilize as in the first example.

There is another problem with the conventional method which seems insignificant at first sight but becomes severe for high order PDE systems in many independent variables, for example in the application in section 9.

Substituting $f = g_1(x, y) + zg_2(x, y) + g_3(x, z)$ into (5) as done in section 2.2 and finding the general solution for $g_1, g_2, g_3$ is, strictly speaking, a different problem from finding the general solution for $f$ of (1), (3)! The general solution for $g_1, g_2, g_3$ as determined in section 2.2 will involve among other functions the two essential free functions $g_6(x), g_7(x)$. From the point of view of the original system (1), (3) these are redundant functions as they can be absorbed by $g_3$. Redundancy is an inherent problem of the conventional integration method which has nothing to do of how efficient the remaining system after integration and substitution is solved. In section 9 this issue is discussed in more detail.

With the new syzygy based integration the situation is very different. Here the decision whether to integrate is based on syzygies, i.e. on relations between equations, like

\[
0 = (\partial_x^2 + \partial_z)e_1 - \partial_y\partial_x^2 e_2
\]

in the last example and is not based on the form of a single equation. This extra information content coming from the syzygies allows the method to perform useful integrations for systems like (1), (3) with an instantly useful result. As will be explained further below, syzygy based integration does not only integrate one single equation at a time, but in a sense, it performs an integration which is compatible with all the equations involved in the syzygy. (More exactly, it integrates all equations $0 = P^i$ at once one time where $P^i$ are the components of the conserved current of the conservation law of the syzygies.)
This restrictive ’compatibility constraint’ has the effect that the integral involves fewer new functions of integration which furthermore depend on fewer variables. Consequently fewer new functions have to be computed later on which shortens the computation. Also, fewer redundant functions are generated which not only avoids the explosion of the number of intermediately generated functions but also simplifies the final solution. These effects are especially important for high order PDEs in many variables as explained in section 6.

The above distinctions between both integration techniques are not purely academic. Section 9.2 describes how integrations can be combined with eliminations. To apply integrations early in the solution process is not new. This strategy has been pursued by the program CRACK for nearly 2 decades. What is interesting and new is how much more beneficial the syzygy based integration proves to be compared with conventional integration. In section 9.2 such a comparison has been made. One problem has been solved 3 times with a combination of different modules, including elimination and conventional and syzygy based integration. The 3 runs differ only in the priority of applying these modules and were compared by their running times as well as the number of redundant functions in the final solution.

About the remainder of the paper

In section 3 the algorithm is described in general and an overview is provided.

Using the information content of syzygies in the form of conservation laws seems to be the most direct and useful way but it is not the only one possible. In section 4 a variation of the algorithm is explained which is based on vanishing curls of syzygies.

Different aspects of the computation of conservation laws for syzygies are the subject of the following section.

The redundancy problem mentioned above is looked at in detail in section 6.

Even though conservation laws of syzygies might be known, it may not be advantageous to use them if the aim is the exact solution of the original PDE-system. In section 7 examples are given.

A short description of how syzygies are recorded in section 8 is followed by section 9 introducing the ‘real-life’ application which led to the development of syzygy based integration. In three computer runs it is shown that this integration method and elimination can be naturally combined for the solution of linear PDE systems.

In the following section the introductory example is continued and both integration methods are compared.

2 An introductory example

We continue the above example to explain the basic mechanism of syzygy based integration. A more complex example is given in section 9.

2.1 Treated with the new method

In applying integrability conditions for PDEs systematically, i.e. in computing a differential Gröbner basis, identities between equations $0 = e_a$ will result that take the form of differential expressions with the $e_a$ as dependent variables.

We consider the simple system (4), (5), i.e.

$$0 = f_{yyz} \quad (= e_1)$$
\[ 0 = f_{xx} + f_{,z}. \quad (= e_2) \]

Assuming, for example, a total ordering \( >_o \) of derivatives that implies \( \partial_x >_o \partial_z \) and \( \partial_y >_o \partial_z \), a differential Gröbner Basis computation would first eliminate \( f_{,xxzz} \) through cross-differentiation:

\[ 0 = e_{2,yyzz} - e_{1,xx} = f_{yyzzz} \quad (=: e_3) \quad \text{(6)} \]

then a substitution of \( f_{yyzz} \) using \( e_1 \) yields

\[ 0 = e_3 - e_{1,z} \]

and a substitution of \( e_3 \) using (6) provides the identity

\[ 0 = e_{2,yyzz} - (e_{1,xx} + e_{1,z}) \quad \text{(7)} \]

The choice of ordering does not matter here. Any ordering would have resulted in identity (7).

In this paper we concentrate ourselves to the integration of syzygies, like (7), which either have the form of a divergence or can be combined linearly to give a divergence \( 0 = D_i P_i \) with suitable vector components \( P_i(e_k) \) that are differential expressions in the \( e_k \). Only in section 4 we outline a variation of this principle to deal with a vanishing curl of syzygies.

The computation of conservation laws of syzygies has several aspects: how to do it in general, why the computation of conservation laws for syzygies is a relatively simple task and how to do it in less generality but much faster. In the interest of a compact example we postpone this discussion to section 5.

There are different ways to write (7) as a divergence. We choose any one with as few as possible components (here two: \( P^x, P^z \)). This preference is justified towards the end of this section below equation (20). The question how conservation laws with fewer components are computed is described in section 5 as well.

We obtain:

\[ 0 = -e_{1,xx} + (e_{2,yz} - e_1)_z \quad \text{(8)} \]

\[ = P^x_{,x} + P^z_{,z} \quad \text{(9)} \]

\[ = (-f_{,xyzz})_{,x} + (f_{,xxyz})_{,z}. \quad \text{(10)} \]

In the following we will use the vector \( P^i \) in two representations, first in terms of \( e_i \), in our example from the syzygy (8):

\[ P^x = -e_{1,x} \quad P^z = e_{2,yz} - e_1 \quad \text{(11)} \]

and second the representation of \( P^i \) in terms of the function \( f \), in our example from the identity (10):

\[ P^x = -f_{,xyzz} \quad P^z = f_{,xxyz} \quad \text{(12)} \]

With \( P \) satisfying the conservation law condition (10) we can write \( P \) as a 2-dim. curl

\[ P^x = -Q_{,z} \quad P^z = Q_{,x} \quad \text{(13)} \]

for some potential \( Q \). Using for \( P^i \) the representation (12) we identify

\[ Q = f_{,xyz} \]

The existence of differential expressions in unknowns, say \( f^a \), for the potential \( Q \) is guaranteed because all syzygies and all their consequences like \( 0 = D_i P^i \) are satisfied identically for any \( f^a \). In
the appendix B an algorithm DivInt is given that computes potentials $Q^{ij}(f^\alpha)$ in general for an arbitrary number of independent variables.

To do the next step in this example, we are reminded that expressions $P^i(e_j)$ are linear homogeneous in the $e_j$ and that they therefore must be zero, i.e. $P^x = P^z = Q_{,x} = Q_{,z} = 0$. This means that $Q$ is independent of $x, z$, giving $Q = c_1(y)$ and the new equation

$$0 = Q - c_1 = f_{,xyz} - c_1 \quad (=: e_4)$$

with the new function of integration $c_1 = c_1(y)$.

Apart from the integral (13) we also get new syzygies. Having on one hand expressions for $P^i$ in terms of $e_1, e_2$ due to equations (11) and on the other hand $P^i$ in terms of $Q_{ij}$ from equations (13) and $Q$ in terms of $e_4$ from equation (14) we get two new identities

$$0 = P^x + Q_{,z} = -e_{1,x} + e_{4,z} \quad (15)$$
$$0 = P^z - Q_{,x} = e_{2,yz} - e_{1} - e_{4,x} \quad (16)$$

As equation $e_1$ turns up algebraically in at least one of the new identities, this equation $0 = e_1$ is redundant and can be dropped. Redundancy of an original equation due to integration need not always be the case but it is the case in this example because at least one of $P^x$ and $P^z$ happens to be algebraic in $e_1$ (in this case $P^z$). Identity (16) has already a conservation law form. Substituting $e_1$ from identity (16) into (15) preserves this form:

$$0 = (-e_{4,x})_{,x} + (e_{2,xy} - e_4)_{,x} \quad (17)$$

This completes one syzygy based integration step. Because the new system of equations $0 = e_2 = e_4$ obeys the syzygy (17) which has a conservation law form with only 2 components $P^x, P^z$ we can start another integration step without having to do a differential reduction or cross differentiation step. It turns out there are in total 3 more very similar syzygy integration steps to be performed which are summarized in appendix A. After these 3 steps the remaining system to solve consists of 2 equations

$$0 = f_{,xx} + f_{,zz} \quad (= e_2) \quad (18)$$
$$0 = f_{,y} + \frac{x^3}{6}c_1 - \frac{x^2}{2}c_2 - xzc_1 + zc_2 - xc_3 - c_4 \quad (= e_7) \quad (19)$$

which satisfy the identity

$$0 = -e_{2,yy} + e_{7,xx} + e_{7,z} \quad (20)$$

This is a divergence too but now in three differentiation variables. With three non-vanishing $P^i$ the condition $0 = D_i P^i$ has the solution $P^i = D_j Q^{ij}$ with more than one non-vanishing $Q^{ij}$ and the condition $0 = Q^i = D_j Q^{ij}$ has the solution $Q^{ij} = R^{ijk} x^n$ with free functions $R^{ijk}(x^n) = R^{[ijk]}(x^n)$ where $[ijk]$ stands for total antisymmetrization. In three dimensions this introduces one new function $R(x^n) = R^{xyz}$ through $Q^{xy} = R_{,z}$, $Q^{yz} = R_{,x}$, and $Q^{zx} = R_{,y}$. By performing a syzygy based integration again we would solve the remaining equations (18), (19) for one function $f$ but also introduce one new unknown function $R$ of all variables and therefore not make real progress. This is demonstrated in the first example in section 7. These considerations explain why we try to find conservation laws of syzygies with as few as possible non-zero $P^i$.

We return to our example and decide to integrate $0 = e_7$ (i.e. (19)) conventionally because

- identity (20) can not be written as a divergence with only 2 terms and
• equation (19) can be integrated conventionally with respect to only one integration variable, so we will not introduce redundant functions as discussed in the introduction and in section 6.

To $y$-integrate equation (19) we introduce four new functions $d_1(y), \ldots, d_4(y)$ through $c_i = d_{i,y}$ and one new function $d_5 = d_5(x, z)$ and obtain

$$f = -\frac{x^3}{6} d_1 + \frac{x^2}{2} d_2 + xzd_1 - zd_2 + xd_3 + d_4 + d_5$$

with the only remaining equation (18) now taking the shape

$$0 = d_5,xx + d_5,z.$$

A single equation does not have syzygies and the method cannot be applied further. What we achieved is the integration of equation (4) and the change of equation (5) for 3 independent variables into equation (22) for 2 variables.

2.2 The same example in a conventional treatment

For comparison, we solve the system (4), (5) again, this time in the conventional direct way. After integrating (4) to

$$f = g_1(x, y) + zg_2(x, y) + g_3(x, z)$$

and substitution of $f$ the equation (5) reads

$$0 = g_1(x, y),xx + zg_2(x, y),xx + g_3(x, z),xx + g_2(x, y) + g_3(x, z),z.$$

In equation (24) there is no function that does depend on all variables and each variable does occur in at least one function. An algorithm for such ‘indirectly separable equations’ (ISEs) is contained in the package CRACK (see [9] and sub-section 9.2). These equations undergo a series of differentiations and divisions (producing a list of divisors)

• to eliminate all functions of some variable,

• to do a direct separation with respect to this variable, and

• to use the same list of divisors now in reverse order as integrating factors to back-integrate the equations which resulted from direct separation.

In the case of equation (24) a single $y$-differentiation eliminates $g_3$ and allows a direct $z$ separation (as $g_1, g_2$ are independent of $z$) giving $0 = g_2(x, y),xy, 0 = g_1(x, y),xy + g_2(x, y),y$ and through back-integration with respect to $y$ further

$$0 = g_2(x, y),xx + g_4(x)$$

$$0 = g_1(x, y),xx + g_2(x, y) + g_5(x)$$

$$0 = g_3(x, z),xx + g_3(x, z),z - zg_4(x) - g_5(x)$$
with new functions of integration \(g_4, g_5\). Renaming \(g_4 = g_6(x)_{,xxx}, g_5 = g_7(x)_{,x}\) and integrating equations (25), (26) gives

\[
\begin{align*}
g_2 &= -g_6(x)_{,xx}xg_8(y) - g_9(y) \\
g_1 &= g_6(x) + \frac{x^3}{6}g_8(y) + \frac{x^2}{2}g_9(y) + xg_{10}(y) + g_{11}(y) - g_7(x) \\
0 &= g_3(x, z)_{,xx} + g_3(x, z)_{,z} - zg_6(x)_{,xxx} - g_7(x)_{,xx} \\
f &= g_3(x, z) + g_6(x) + \frac{x^3}{6}g_8(y) + \frac{x^2}{2}g_9(y) + xg_{10}(y) + g_{11}(y) - g_7(x) \\
&= z(g_6(x)_{,xx} + xg_8(y) + g_9(y)).
\end{align*}
\]

The solution (31) is identical to (21) and the remaining condition (30) is identical to (22) if we drop the redundant functions \(g_6, g_7\) which can be absorbed by \(g_3\) and substitute \(g_8 = -d_1, g_9 = d_2, g_{10} = d_3, g_{11} = d_4, g_3 = d_5\). A method to recognize redundancy is described in [13]. It involves the solution of an over-determined system of equations which involves even more effort.

The introduction of redundant functions \(g_6, g_7\) in the conventional method was unavoidable because after reaching system (25) - (27) with the task to compute \(g_1, \ldots, g_5\) the information was lost that, strictly speaking, not the most general expressions for \(g_1, \ldots, g_5\) need to be computed but only the most general expression for \(f = g_1(x, y) + zg_2(x, y) + g_3(x, z)\). Setting \(g_6 = g_7 = 0\) would be a restriction for \(g_2\) and \(g_1\) in (28), (29) but is not a restriction for \(f\) in (31).

3 The algorithm in general

In our notation \(x^i, i = 1, \ldots, p\) are the independent variables and \(f^\alpha\) are the unknown functions which do not need to depend on all \(x^i\). These functions satisfy equations \(0 = e_\alpha(x^n, f^\beta)\) where \(\beta\) is a multi-index (standing, for example, for \(112, i.e. \partial^2_{x^1x^2}\)) and where \(f^\alpha_j\) stands for a possible dependence on \(f^\alpha\) and any partial derivatives of \(f^\alpha\). Total derivatives appear as \(D_j\). Summation is performed over identical indices.

The following description is summarized in the overview underneath. The number(s) at the start of each item refer to the line number of the corresponding step in the overview.

(32), (33): For a given system of differential equations (32) the investigation of integrability conditions (e.g. Gröbner basis computation) yields identities (33), called syzygies. In these syzygies the \(e_\alpha\) take the role of dependent variables. The program CRACK has been used to compute syzygies for examples presented in this paper but many other computer algebra programs are available (for example, RIF [8], diffalg [2, 3, 4], diffgrob2 [6]) although only few generate syzygies automatically.

(34): To find conservation laws of syzygies one either can perform a more expensive but general search by using the package ConLaw [12] or other computer algebra software, or one can do a more specialized, less general but faster computation as described in section 5.3. In the conservation laws as in the syzygies the dependent variables are the \(e_\alpha\).

In order to introduce as few as possible new functions through a syzygy based integration, one aims at conservation laws with as few as possible non-zero \(P^i\) (see discussion towards the end of section 2.1). Possible methods to achieve this are described in section 5.2.

Most often syzygies are very simple expressions and already have a conservation law form. Computing conservation laws is not fully algorithmic but it is argued in section 5.1 that this task is relatively simple for under-determined systems of syzygies.
If a conservation law for the syzygies is known then the following steps can definitely be performed. The question is only whether it is beneficial for the purpose of the computation. If one has found a conservation law with only 2 components $P^i$ then the integration will introduce just one new constant and will always be beneficial. If the conservation law has 3 or more components $P^i$ then at least one new function of all variables will be introduced. In that case, if the purpose of the integration is the solution of the PDE system (32) then one would have to balance how many functions one can solve for due to the new integrated equations (39) against how many new functions are introduced and possible decide not to continue. Examples for syzygy based integrations which are useful from the point of solving PDE-systems and others that are not are shown in section 7. If usefulness can not be decided at this stage then the integration should be performed and decided afterwards. The computational complexity of the integration, i.e. of the algorithm DivInt is very low.

In the computed conserved currents $P^i(x,e_k)$ we replace the equation names $e_k$ by their expressions (32) in terms of $x,f^\alpha$.

The resulting $P^i(x,f^\alpha)$ in (36) are the input to the algorithm DivInt (given in the appendix B) to compute a special solution for the potentials $Q^{ij} = Q^{[ij]}(x,f^\alpha)$ satisfying $P^i = D_j Q^{ij}$. Here again $[ij]$ stands for anti-symmetrization. DivInt works because the kernel of a divergence $D_i P^i$ is a curl $D_j Q^{ij}$ with $Q^{ij} = -Q^{ji}$ and because $0 = D_i P^i$ is satisfied identically in all $f^\alpha$ and their derivatives.

Because the syzygies $0 = \Omega_m(x,e_k)$ are linear homogeneous expressions in the $e_k$, therefore $D_i P^i$ being a linear homogeneous expression in the $\Omega_m$ is also a linear homogeneous expression in the $e_k$. Hence the $P^i$ are linear homogeneous expressions in the $e_\alpha$. Consequently, we have $0 = P^i$ in the space of solutions of the original equations.\footnote{When computing a differential Gröbner Basis the equations in the final basis are also only differential consequences of the initial equations and one would not want to delete them. Here the situation is different. $0 = e_m$ has been integrated and can be deleted if $e_m$ occurs algebraically in other syzygies.}

On the other hand, the algorithm DivInt computes expressions $Q^{ij}$ satisfying $P^i = D_j Q^{ij}$ identically and therefore $0 = D_j Q^{ij}$ in the space of solutions of the original equations. The general solution of this condition for the $Q^{ij}$ is shown in (39) and is the result of the whole computation. Its form depends on the number $p$ of non-vanishing components $P^i$: for $p = 2$ a single constant of integration $R$ is introduced for $p > 2$ one or more functions $R^{ijk}(x)$ are introduced.

The formal integration of $0 = D_j Q^{ij}$ gives new equations whose right hand sides are abbreviated by $e_{ij}$.

We are instantly able to formulate syzygies which these new equations $0 = e_{ij}$ satisfy.

If any one of them can be solved for one $e_m$ (as indicated in (42)) then $e_m = \omega$ can be substituted in other syzygies and the original equation $0 = e_m(x,f^\alpha)$ can be deleted as it is a consequence of the equations $e_k,e_{ij}$ in $\omega(x,e_k,e_{ij})$.

1. As new syzygies have been generated in (41) there is a chance that anyone of them has already a conservation law form, like (15).

2. The substitution of a redundant equation in step (42) may also lead to a syzygy in conservation law form, either in the other newly generated syzygy or in any other syzygies.

1
3. Finally, there is always the possibility that the new syzygies combined with other syzygies take a conservation law form. This would have to be found out by a computation, for example using the program ConLaw.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Given system:} & \quad 0 = e_k(x, f^\alpha) \\
\text{CRACK} & \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{Syzygies:} & \quad 0 = \Omega_m(x, e_k) \\
\text{ConLaw} & \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{Cons. law form:} & \quad 0 = D_i P^i(x, e_k), \\
\text{Is CL useful?} & \quad \text{If not then stop.} \\
\text{Conserved current:} & \quad P^i = P^i(x, e_k)|_{e_k \rightarrow e_k(x, f^\alpha)} = P^i(x, f^\alpha) \\
\text{DIVINT} & \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{New potentials:} & \quad P^i(x, f^\alpha) = D_j Q^{ij} \quad \text{with} \quad Q^{ij} = Q^{ij}(x, f^\alpha) \\
\text{Integration of:} & \quad 0 = P^i = D_j Q^{ij} \\
\text{to new integral(s):} & \quad Q^{ij}(x, f^\alpha) = \begin{cases} R = \text{const} & \text{in 2 dim} \\
R^{i_{jk}} \text{ with } R^{i_{jk}} = R^{i_{jk}}(x) & \text{in } >2 \text{ dim} \end{cases} \\
\text{New equation names:} & \quad 0 = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} Q^{ij}(x, f^\alpha) - R \\ Q^{ij}(x, f^\alpha) - R^{i_{jk}} \end{array} \right\} =: e_{ij} \\
\text{New syzygies:} & \quad \rightarrow 0 = P^i(x, e_k) - e_{i_{j},j} \\
\text{Redundancies?} & \quad e_m = \omega(x, e_k, e_{i_{j},j}) \rightarrow \\
& \quad - \text{substitution of } e_m = \omega \text{ in any syzygy} \\
& \quad - \text{deleting equation } 0 = e_m \\
\text{return to the} & \quad \text{determination of conservation laws for syzygies} \\
\end{align*}
\]

The continuation of the introductory example in appendix A is itemized similar to the description above. This allows the reader to go through an example and compare it with the overview step by step.

4 An integration based on curls of syzygies

The described ansatz of extracting information out of syzygies in order to do integrations is not the only possible way. In this section we want to provide a different integration method, this time based on vanishing curls of syzygies. We will see that it is even more effective than divergence based integration but the required structure of the system of syzygies is more special which is the reason why it has not been implemented in CRACK. Also, the computation of conservation laws for syzygies was implemented so far because computer programs, like ConLaw, are available to compute conservation laws and because the existence of conservation laws is a relatively weak condition for syzygies. The method based on curls is shown in the following overview.
Given system: \[ 0 = e_k(x, f^\alpha) \]

Syzygies: \[ 0 = \Omega_m(x, e_k) \]

Vanishing curl cond.: \[ 0 = D_j P^{ij} \text{ with } P^{ij} = P^{[ij]}(x, e_k), \]

Curl free tensor: \[ P^{ij} = P^{ij}(x, e_k)|_{e_k \rightarrow e_k(x, f^\alpha)} = P^{ij}(x, f^\alpha) \]

New potentials: \[ P^{ij}(x, f^\alpha) = D_k Q^{ijk} \text{ with } Q^{ijk} = Q^{[ijk]}(x, f^\alpha) \]

Integration of: \[ 0 = P^{ij} = D_k Q^{ijk} \]

to new integral(s): \[ Q^{ijk}(x, f^\alpha) = \begin{cases} R = \text{const} \text{ in 3 dim} \\ R^{ijkl} = R^{[ijkl]}(x) \text{ in } > 3 \text{ dim} \end{cases} \]

New equation names: \[ 0 = \left\{ Q^{ijk}(x, f^\alpha) - R^{ijkl} = e_{ijk} \right\} \]

New syzygies: \[ e_m = \omega(x, e_k, e_{ijk}; k) \rightarrow \text{substitution of } e_m \]

Redundancies? \[ - \text{substitution of } e_m = \omega \text{ in any syzygy} \]

return to the determination of vanishing curls or divergences for syzygies

The superficial difference between divergence and curl based integration is that \( P, Q, R \) have one extra index for the curl based method. This method also needs at least 3 independent variables. The following two examples involve each 4 independent variables and allow a closer comparison of both methods.

**A typical example:**

For 4 unknown functions \( a, b, c, d \) depending on \( x, y, z, t \) a system of 6 equations

\[
\begin{align*}
0 &= d_{,z} - c_{,t} \quad (=: e_{xy}), &
0 &= b_{,t} - d_{,y} \quad (=: e_{xz}), &
0 &= c_{,y} - b_{,z} \quad (=: e_{xt}) \\
0 &= d_{,x} - a_{,t} \quad (=: e_{yz}), &
0 &= a_{,z} - c_{,x} \quad (=: e_{yt}), &
0 &= b_{,x} - a_{,y} \quad (=: e_{zt})
\end{align*}
\]

is given. It has syzygies

\[
\begin{align*}
0 &= e_{xy,y} + e_{xz,z} + e_{xt,t} \\
0 &= -e_{xy,x} + e_{yz,z} + e_{yt,t} \\
0 &= -e_{xz,x} - e_{yz,y} + e_{zt,t} \\
0 &= -e_{xt,x} - e_{yt,y} - e_{zt,z}
\end{align*}
\]

which take the form of a vanishing curl: \( 0 = D_j P^{ij} \) for \( P^{ij} = e_{ij} \) leading to potentials \( Q^{ijk} \)

\[
Q^{xyz} = d, \quad Q^{txy} = c, \quad Q^{xzt} = b, \quad Q^{ytz} = a
\]

and a single new free function of integration \( R^{xyz} = g(x, y, z, t) \). The resulting integrals are

\[
a = g_{,x}, \quad b = g_{,y}, \quad c = g_{,z}, \quad d = g_{,t}.
\]

**A related example for a conservation law syzygy:**

In comparison, the typical example using a conservation law syzygy in 4 independent variables would involve 6 unknown functions \( a, b, c, d, f, g \) and 4 equations, so a less over-determined system:

\[
\begin{align*}
0 &= a_{,y} + b_{,z} + c_{,t} \quad (=: e_1), &
0 &= -a_{,x} + d_{,z} + f_{,t} \quad (=: e_2) \\
0 &= -b_{,x} - d_{,y} + g_{,t} \quad (=: e_3), &
0 &= -c_{,x} - f_{,y} - g_{,z} \quad (=: e_4).
\end{align*}
\]
The conservation law \( 0 = e_{1,x} + e_{2,y} + e_{3,z} + e_{4,t} \) gives \( P^i = e_i \) and potentials

\[ Q^{xy} = a, \quad Q^{xz} = b, \quad Q^{xt} = c, \quad Q^{yz} = d, \quad Q^{yt} = f, \quad Q^{zt} = g. \]

The resulting integrals are

\[ a = r_z - s_t, \quad b = u_t - r_y, \quad c = s_y - u_z, \quad d = r_{tx} - w_{,t}, \quad f = w_{,z} - s_{,x}, \quad d = u_{,x} - w_{,y} \]

with new arbitrary functions \( r, s, u, w \).

If both methods would be applicable, i.e. if the system of syzygies would provide a vanishing divergence and a vanishing curl then one would prefer the curl based integration because it makes use of more syzygies.

The last two examples look very artificial but one could exchange the unknown functions \( a, b, c, \ldots \) by any functionally independent expressions, each of them involving at least one different function, and the computations and results would be unchanged.

The remainder of the paper is concerned with divergence based integration.

5  How to find conservation laws of syzygies

In order to find a combination of syzygies that is a divergence one could apply computer algebra programs ConLaw as described in \cite{12}, \cite{13} by regarding the syzygies as the equations and the \( e_a \) as unknown functions. In the following subsections we discuss why computing conservation laws of syzygies is simpler than computing conservation laws in general, how one can find conservation laws with fewer components than independent variables and how conservation laws for syzygies are determined in Crack.

5.1 Under-determination of syzygies

If one interprets syzygies as PDEs for unknowns \( e_k \), then the original equations \( e_k = e_k(x^i, f^a_j) \) are special solutions of these syzygies where the \( f^a \) play the role of arbitrary functions in these solutions. Because at least one of the \( f^a \) depends on all variables \( x^i \) (otherwise the original system consists only of ISEs to be treated differently, not by checking integrability conditions), the syzygies must be an under-determined PDE-system for the unknowns \( e_k \). Computing conservation laws for under-determined systems of PDEs is an even more over-determined problem. The conservation law conditions have to be satisfied identically in a jet space with coordinates \( x^a, e_a \) and all partial derivatives of all \( e_a \). The more \( e_a \) occur in the syzygies the more restrictive are their conservation law conditions. Another way to see this is that conditions for integrating factors to give conservation laws are obtained by applying the variational derivative (Euler-Lagrange operator) to the product of integrating factors and syzygies (see \cite{7}). Because there is one Euler operator for each \( e_a \) we get as many conditions as there are different \( e_a \). Finally, the more over-determined a system of conditions is, the easier it is to solve. Therefore the subtask of computing conservation laws of systems of syzygies is usually not a problem.

5.2 Choosing between different syzygy conservation laws

The integration of a syzygy \( 0 = D_x P^i \) with two derivatives \( 0 = D_x P^x + D_y P^y \) is always useful but not necessarily the integration of a syzygy with more than 2 derivatives because there is at least
one new function of integration of all variables (see the example in section 7). Sometimes there is a choice allowing to write a syzygy in different forms, for example

$$0 = e_{1,x} + (e_{2,x})_y + e_{3,z}$$
can also be written as

$$0 = (e_1 + e_{2,y})_x + e_{3,z}.$$ 
To find out whether a conservation law with fewer derivatives exists one has two options. First, one can make an ansatz for the conservation law with fewer derivatives and solves the resulting conditions (for example, with the programs ConLaW1 or ConLaW3). Alternatively, one computes the most general conservation law involving arbitrary functions. If a conservation law exists which does not contain derivatives $D_jP_j, \ j = m, \ldots, p$ then $0 = D_j(CP_j), \ j = 1, \ldots, m - 1$ is a conservation law with an arbitrary function $C = C(x^m, \ldots, x^p)$. Reversely, finding a conservation law involving an arbitrary function $C(x^m, \ldots, x^p)$ can be exploited to derive a conservation law involving no derivatives with respect to $x^m, \ldots, x^p$ as it is described in [10].

5.3 A faster method to find conservation laws

Methods described above decide whether a conservation law can be built from syzygies, i.e. whether there is one in the differential ideal of the syzygies. Computations to decide this general question are potentially much more expensive than the other steps of the syzygy based integration which are all very quick. In the program CRACK therefore a different, less general but much faster approach is taken. Instead of determining whether a linear combination of syzygies exists that makes up a conservation law, the program checks each individual syzygy whether it can be written as a divergence.

This is done by using conventional integration to integrate the syzygy with respect to the first variable, say $x$ to obtain $P^x$, then integrating the remainder with respect to the second variable, say $y$ to obtain $P^y$ and so on. A divergence is obtained when no remainder remains after the last variable. To find whether the syzygy can be written as a divergence with only two $P^i$ the above integration is tried at first with all pairs of two independent variables. For example, in the case of syzygy (7)

$$0 = e_{2, yzz} - (e_{1, xx} + e_{1, z})$$
an $x$-integration gives $P^x = -e_{1,x}$. The remainder $e_{2, yzz} - e_{1, z}$ can not be completely $y$-integrated but $z$-integrated to $P^z = e_{2, yz} - e_{1}$. 

6 The redundancy problem

Redundant functions are unavoidably generated as soon as an equation is conventionally integrated with respect to at least two different variables, for example, in the integration of $0 = A_{x_1 x_2}$ to $0 = A + g(x^1) + h(x^2)$ where $g, h$ depend in addition on all other independent variables occurring in the expression $A$. If $A$ contains $n$ variables $x^1, \ldots, x^n$ then the arbitrariness of $g$ and of $h$ overlap to the extend of one function of $x^3, \ldots, x^n$. In other words, if $g$ and $h$ are computed from further equations then there will be one redundant function of $n - 2$ variables in the solution of the original problem.

Let us work out an estimate of how much redundancy is generated when integrating high order equations. If the conventional method integrates

$$0 = A_{(x^1)^{m_1}, \ldots, (x^n)^{m_n}}$$
to

\[ A = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{m_i-1} g_{ij} \left(x^i\right)^j \]

where \(g_{ij}\) are free functions of all variables apart from \(x^i\) then any two functions \(g_{ia}, g_{ib}, a \neq b\) have no overlap as their terms \(g_{ia} \left(x^i\right)^a, g_{ib} \left(x^i\right)^b\) involve different powers of \(x^i\). Any other pairs of functions \(g_{ab}, g_{cd}, a \neq c\) overlap. In total there is an overlap within pairs of functions \(g_{ij}\) equivalent to

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} m_i \times m_j \]  

functions of \(n - 2\) variables. In the introductory example the integration of \(0 = f_{yzz}\) gave rise to \(1 \times 2 = 2\) redundant functions of \(3 - 2 = 1\) variable and in the ‘real-life’ application in section 9 the integration of \(0 = c_4(t, r, x_1, x_2, x_3, y_1, y_2, y_3)\) generates an overlap within pairs of functions equivalent to \(2 \times 1 + 2 \times 1 + 1 \times 1 = 5\) functions of \(6\) variables and for \(0 = c_4(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_3, y_1, y_2, y_2)\) even an equivalent of \(21\) functions of \(6\) variables. The overlap of two functions is partially also an overlap with other third functions and so on and should not be counted twice when trying to account exactly for all the redundancy. But this correction concerns the arbitrariness content equivalent to functions of less than \(n - 2\) variables so the above formula (45) is a good initial approximation of redundancy. Keeping in mind that typically a few hundred such integrations may be necessary, the severity of the problem becomes obvious.

Is the redundancy problem an artifact of the chosen examples?

If one determines higher order symmetries of PDEs then the symmetry conditions may be linear PDEs in, say, 30 independent variables (coordinates in jet space). Usually the general solution of this overdetermined linear PDE-system involves constants (corresponding to individual symmetries) which means that 30 conventional ‘successive layers’ of integrations would have to be done, each ‘layer’ containing integrations that express a function of \(n\) variables through functions in \(n - 1\) variables. In total at least several hundred integrations may become necessary. From this point of view the above mentioned application in section 9 to compute \(c_4\) is typical.

Could redundancy be prevented otherwise?

Partial differential equations may contain symmetries involving arbitrary functions but if not then the general solution of the symmetry conditions contains only constants. In that case choosing a strictly lexicographical ordering of derivatives in the elimination process the differential Gröbner basis will involve ordinary differential equations (ODEs). They may not be in the form of total derivatives but at least in case they could be integrated, the redundancy problem would not appear as each ODE is integrated with respect to only one independent variable. The drawback is that Gröbner Basis computations are well known to be computationally much more expensive when performed with a lexicographical ordering of variables than when performed using a total degree ordering of variables. A total degree ordering will provide shorter equations of lower differential order but with mixed derivatives, leading to redundancy with conventional integration. The conclusion is that even in the special cases where the general solution of the linear PDE system contains essentially only constants, the syzygy based integration is superior allowing to use elimination schemes with total degree orderings that are more efficient than schemes using strictly lexicographical ordering and still being able to reduce the redundancy problem.

Does syzygy based integration cure the redundancy problem completely?

In the course of one syzygy based integration all equations \(0 = P^i\) are integrated at once one time. If \(0 = P^i(e_j)\) is equivalent to the whole system \(0 = e_k\), or, like in the introductory example (4), where successive syzygy based integration integrates the system, then redundancy is avoided. If,
on the other hand, only a subsystem of equations $0 = e_k$ is involved in $0 = P^i(e_j)$ and the result of a syzygy based integration has to be substituted in other equations then redundancy may still appear as recorded in table 1 in section 9.2 but to a clearly lesser extend.

**Is there another way to determine redundant functions or constants in order to delete them?**

In computations where each free constant in the solution of an overdetermined PDE-system corresponds to a symmetry or to a conservation law one is interested to determine and drop redundancy in order to get an accurate account of their number. For this purpose a method has been developed (see [13]) but this requires the solution of an overdetermined PDE-system on its own and may therefore be expensive.

## 7 Cases when a syzygy based integration is not useful

When applying the new integration method to solve a PDE-system it not only matters whether all steps are algorithmic but also whether its execution is beneficial. Information contained in syzygies is useful if it provides a factorization of differential operators. If they do not factorize (for example, if they are of first order) then a syzygy based integration can still be useful if more functions are solved for than new functions are introduced. If the divergence $D_iP^i$ contains more than two derivatives, i.e. the conserved current $P^i$ has more than 2 components, then the integral equations (39) contain at least one new function $R_{ijk}$ of all variables and we may not gain new information from the integration if we can not solve for at least 2 functions. This is demonstrated in the following series of 3 examples with successively more functions to be solve for and an increasing usefulness of the integration.

**Example:**

When computing the Gröbner basis of the two equations

$$0 = f, x + f, y \quad (=: e_1)$$

$$0 = f, z \quad (=: e_2)$$

for a function $f = f(x, y)$ (and in doing that confirming that they are already a Gröbner basis) one will generate the identity

$$0 = e_{2, x} + e_{2, y} - e_{1, z}. \quad (48)$$

From identifying $P^y = e_2$ from (48) and the general formula $P^i = D_yQ^{xy} + D_zQ^{xz}$ together with (17) we identify $Q^{xy} = 0, Q^{xz} = f, Q^{yz} = f$. With the new function $R^{yz} = c(x, y, z)$ substituted into the formula $Q^{ij} = R^{ijk}, k$ the new equations are

$$0 = c, z \quad (49)$$

$$0 = f - c, x \quad (50)$$

$$0 = f + c, y. \quad (51)$$

After a substitution of $f$ from (50) into (51) they are identical to the original set (46), (47), only now for a function $c$ instead of $f$. No progress was made. In contrast, for the following two similar examples the integration of syzygies is advantageous.

**Example:**

For the equations

$$0 = f, x + g, y \quad (=: e_1)$$

$$0 = f, z \quad (=: e_2)$$

$$0 = g, z \quad (=: e_3)$$

14
the identity
\[ 0 = e_{2;x} + e_{3;y} - e_{1;z} \]  \hspace{1cm} (55)
results. Integrated in the above manner it gives
\[
\begin{align*}
0 &= c_x + g \\
0 &= -c_y + f \\
0 &= c_z
\end{align*}
\hspace{1cm} (56) \hspace{1cm} (57) \hspace{1cm} (58)
leaving only equation (58) for \( c = c(x, y, z) \) to be solved, an improvement compared to the original system (52) – (54). In the next example no equations remain to be solved.

**Example:**
For the equations
\[
\begin{align*}
0 &= h_y - g_z \quad (=: e_1) \\
0 &= f_z - h_x \quad (=: e_2) \\
0 &= g_x - f_y \quad (=: e_3)
\end{align*}
\hspace{1cm} (59) \hspace{1cm} (60) \hspace{1cm} (61)
the identity
\[ 0 = e_{1;x} + e_{2;y} + e_{3;z} \]  \hspace{1cm} (62)
leads to
\[
\begin{align*}
0 &= f + c_x \\
0 &= g + c_y \\
0 &= h + c_z
\end{align*}
\hspace{1cm} (63) \hspace{1cm} (64) \hspace{1cm} (65)
with an arbitrary function \( c = c(x, y, z) \) and no remaining equation.

In order to incorporate this method of integration into a general program for solving overdetermined systems the usefulness of integration has to be judged automatically based on the number of derivatives in the divergence and the number of functions solved for. But also other adjustments to the whole program have to be made. These are discussed in the following short section.

### 8 Implementation

Apart from the implementation of the algorithm DivInt as shown in the appendix B, also changes to the package CRACK were needed in order to automate syzygy based integrations. When checking integrability conditions in a Gröbner basis computation the program had to keep track of any resulting identities (syzygies). This was done in the following way which is conceptually the same as the extended Buchberger algorithm (see, for example, the books [1] and [5]).

To each equation, for example \( e_3 \) in (4), we will assign not only a value, like \( f_{yzzzz} \), but also, what we will call a ‘history-value’ or short ‘history’, i.e. \( e_{2;yzzz} - e_{1;xz} \). This history of an equation expresses one equation in terms of other equations, i.e. how it was historically computed doing the algebraic or differential Gröbner basis computation. At the beginning the history of each equation \( e_a \) is \( e_a \) itself. Whenever a new equation is computed then not only its value but also its history is calculated. For example, when in this example \( f_{yzzzz} \) is eliminated from equation (6) using equation (4) then a new equation \( 0 = e_4 \) is generated where \( e_4 \) has the value 0 (as all terms cancel) and has
the history value $e_3 - e_{1,z}$ where $e_3$ and $e_1$ are replaced by their history values. The history of $e_1$ is $e_1$ whereas the history of $e_3$ is $e_{2,yzz} - e_{1,xx}$ giving for $e_4$ the history $e_{2,yzz} - e_{1,xx} - e_{1,z}$ as is shown in (7).

In the next section a substantial application is described which is suitable to demonstrate the advantages of the new integration method.

9 The application that led to the development of the syzygy based integration

9.1 The problem

A problem introduced to the author by Stephen Anco concerns the computation of all conservation laws of the radial SU(2) chiral equation in 2 spatial dimensions where the integrating factors are of at most 2nd order. The equation can be written as a first order system for two 3-component vectors $j(r,t), k(r,t)$:

\[
\begin{align*}
k_{t} & = j_{r} + j \times k \\
\dot{j}_{t} & = (rk)_{r}/r. \tag{66}
\end{align*}
\]

Equation (66) is already in conservation law form:

\[(rj)_{t} + (-rk)_{r} = 0\]

and the only other known conservation law (of energy) has zeroth order integrating factors:

\[rk \cdot [k_{t} - j_{r} - j \times k] + j \cdot [j_{t} - (rk)_{r}/r] = \left(\frac{r}{2}(j \cdot j + k \cdot k)\right)_{t} + (-rj \cdot k)_{r} = 0 \tag{68}\]

The existence conditions for conservation laws below were generated with the program CONLAW2 described in [12]. It generates conditions for 6 integrating factors $Q_1, \ldots, Q_6$ (like the multipliers $rk_1, rk_2, rk_3, j_1, j_2, j_3$ on the left hand side of (68)). Each of the $Q_i$ is an unknown function of 20 independent variables $t, r, j, k, l (= j_{rr},) m (= k_{rr},) u (= j_{rrr},) w (= k_{rrr}).$ The system consists of 18 conditions of the form

\[0 = Q_{1,w1} - Q_{4,w1} \quad r\]

and 6 conditions of the form

\[0 = Q_{3,j1} l_{1}r^{2} + Q_{3,i1} u_{1}r^{2} + Q_{3,j2} l_{2}r^{2} + Q_{3,i2} w_{2}r^{2} + Q_{3,i3} u_{3}r^{2} + Q_{3,k1} m_{1}r^{2} + Q_{3,m1} w_{1}r^{2} + Q_{3,k2} m_{2}r^{2} + Q_{3,m2} w_{2}r^{2} + Q_{3,m3} w_{3}r^{2} + Q_{3,s} l_{4}r^{2} + Q_{3,k3} m_{3}r^{2} + Q_{3,m3} \]

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After introducing new unknown functions \( x_i, y_i \) through \( u_i = x_i + y_i, w_i = x_i - y_i \) the 18 short equations took the form of a total derivative and each one could be integrated on its own but when the computed functions were substituted only indirectly separable equations (ISEs) like \( c_2(t, r, x_1, x_2, x_3, y_1, y_2, y_3) \) where some of the equations are easy to integrate:

\[
\begin{align*}
0 &= c_4 x_3 x_4 y_2 y_3 = c_4 x_1 x_2 y_1 y_3 = c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 y_1 y_3 = c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 \\
&= c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 = c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_2 y_3 = c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 - c_4 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 \\
&= c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_2 - 2c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 y_1 y_3 = c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 y_1 y_3 - 2c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 x_3 \\
&= c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 x_1 - c_4 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_3 y_3 + c_4 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_3 y_3 \\
&= c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 y_3 y_3 x_3 + c_4 x_1 x_3 y_3 y_3 y_3 \\
&= c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 x_1 + c_4 x_1 x_3 y_3 y_3 y_3 y_3 \\
&= c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 y_3 + 2c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 y_1 y_2 y_3 y_3 - 2c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 y_3 + 2c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 y_3 x_3 \\
&= c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 y_3 + 2c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 y_1 y_3 y_3 + 2c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 y_3 = c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 y_1 y_3 y_3 x_3 \\
&= c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 x_1 x_3 - 3c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 x_1 + 6c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 x_1 \\
&= -c_4 x_1 x_2 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 x_3^2 + c_4 x_2 x_3 x_3 x_3 y_1 y_3 x_3^2 
\end{align*}
\]

Even the solution or at least simplification of this sub-system was not possible. The problem was not to find equations with the form of a total derivative and to integrate them. The problem was the growing number of new functions of integration (which did still depend on 7 variables) and the appearance of too many only indirectly separable equations (ISEs).

Since 1999 the module for handling ISEs has been improved considerably. The current version of CRACK (Dec. 2001) can simplify the above system quickly using the conventional integration of total derivatives. Nevertheless, by adding the ability of performing syzygy based integrations the computation speeds up further and the solution involves fewer redundant arbitrary functions. Tests described below show that syzygy based integrations are well suited to be performed along the computation of a differential Gröbner basis without the negative side effect of introducing too many redundant functions. By that Gröbner basis computations can be cut short and the risk of a memory explosion be lowered.

### 9.2 A comparison of three computer runs

Before describing the details of 3 different computer runs, a few comments about the setup have to be made. The package CRACK for solving and simplifying over-determined PDE-systems contains about 30 modules for different actions to be taken either with individual equations or with groups of equations of the system. Modules used to solve systems like \( \text{(69)} \) are

1. Direct separation of an equation with respect to some variable that occurs only explicitly in the equation.

---

2 Although each of the ISEs is over-determined on its own, this over-determination can not be utilized easily because there is no independent variable which occurs only explicitly that would lead to direct separations.

3 New constants and functions of integration are all called \( c_i \) in CRACK with successively increasing subscript.
2. Substitution of a function $f$ either by zero or by at most 2 terms and only if other functions occurring in these 2 terms depend on fewer variables than $f$.

3. Integration of an equation if it consists of a single derivative with respect to only one variable.

4. Elimination of a function $f$ from any equation if $f$ occurs only algebraically and linearly and if $f$ depends on all variables occurring in this equation. Substitution of $f$ in all other equations.

5. Deleting of any redundant equations as described on the bottom of the overview in section 3.

6. Integration based on a syzygy in conservation law form.

7. Conventional integration of a PDE but only if sufficiently many integrations are possible such that the integrated equation can be used for a substitution.

8. Indirect separation of an equation (ISE). (This is a complex step which can invoke other direct separations and indirect separations of resulting equations.)

9. Reduction of the leading derivative of one equation with the help of another equation or formulation of an integrability condition between two equations. (This is a typical step in a Gröbner basis computation.)

10. Any integration of any equation even if not complete.

These modules are called in a specific sequence which can be chosen by specifying a list of numbers, each number representing one module. For example, if in table 1, column 2 the priority list of run 1 is chosen to be 1 2 3 4 8 9 7 10 then the modules as numbered above are tried in this order until one module is successful and then they are again tried beginning with 1 and so on. This is only a simplified description of the operation of CRACK but it is sufficient for the purpose of this section.

| run | priority list of actions | # of steps in sec | # of terms in equ. | # of redundant functions |
|-----|--------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|
|     |                          |                   |                   |                         |
|     |                          |                   |                   |                         |

Table 1. A comparison of three different runs on the system.

In table 1 three computer runs are compared. Column 3 gives the number of successful calls of the modules in the priority lists. Times shown in column 4 have been measured in a session of the computer algebra system REDUCE version 3.7 with 120 MByte memory (although only a few MByte are needed for this computation) on a 1.7 GHz PC Pentium 4 under Linux. Column 5 gives the number of terms in the single unsolved equation which in the solution below is the equation (71). In the remaining 4 columns the number of redundant functions of 6, 5, 4, or 3 variables is shown. For example, if two functions $f(x,y,z)$ and $zg(x)$ occur always together such that a substitution $f + zg \rightarrow f$ has the same effect as $g \rightarrow 0$ then $g$ can be set to zero without loss of generality.
9.3 Conclusions from the test

The central issue in these runs is, whether integrations (modules 6 and 7) are given a higher priority than the formulation of integrability conditions (module 9) or a lower priority. If integrability conditions have a higher priority than integrations, as in run 1, then at first a complete differential Gröbner basis is computed before integrations start. The benefit is that the differential order of equations is as low as possible when integrations start (assuming a total degree ordering is used in the differential Gröbner basis computation). Consequently fewer integrations are necessary and fewer functions will be generated which turn out later to be redundant. The disadvantage is that the computation of integrability conditions may take very long and blow up the systems size, or may even be practically impossible.

One can attempt to give integrations a higher priority at the price of more redundant functions in the solution. This was done in run 2. The benefit may be considerable, only in our small system the Gröbner basis computation is not expensive at all, so the advantage of early integrations does not become obvious here. But the disadvantage becomes obvious. Integrating higher order equations generates more new functions with many of them turning out to be redundant at the end.

Finally, in the third run we get the best of both previous runs. Here, early integrations use syzygies in conservation law form as soon as they become available. The lowered differential order may even be practically impossible.

The following solution is obtained in run 3 after redundant functions have been deleted (by hand) leaving 11 functions of 6 variables, 8 functions of 5 variables and 2 functions of 4 variables. It is equivalent to the solutions returned in runs 1 and 2.

\[
c_4 = c_{100, x_2} x_3 y_1 y_2 + \frac{1}{2} c_{100, x_3} x_1 y_3^2 + c_{125, x_2} x_2 x_3 y_1 + c_{125, y_2} x_3 y_1 y_3 + c_{133, x_2} x_3 y_1 + c_{133, y_2} y_1 y_3 + c_{193, x_3} + c_{193, y_3} + c_{200, x_2} + c_{205, -\frac{1}{2} c_{65, y_3}^2 y_3 - c_{65, x_3} - c_{65}}
\]

All functions depend on \( t, r \) and in addition on further variables in the following way:

\[
c_{83}(x_2, x_3, y_1, y_2), \quad c_{81}(x_2, y_1, y_2, y_3), \quad c_{173}(x_1, x_2, y_2, y_3), \quad c_{172}(x_1, x_2, y_2, y_3), \quad c_{170}(x_1, x_2, x_3, y_2), \quad c_{194}(x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2), \quad c_{193}(x_1, y_1, y_2, y_3), \quad c_{192}(x_1, y_1, y_2, y_3), \quad c_{191}(x_1, x_3, y_1, y_2), \quad c_{205}(x_2, y_1, y_2, y_3), \quad c_{200}(x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2), \quad c_{100}(x_1, x_2, x_3), \quad c_{125}(x_1, x_2, y_2), \quad c_{133}(x_1, x_2, y_2), \quad c_{181}(x_1, x_2, x_3), \quad c_{213}(x_2, x_3, y_3), \quad c_{230}(x_1, y_1, y_3), \quad c_{229}(x_1, y_1, y_3), \quad c_{228}(x_1, x_3, y_1), \quad c_{65}(x_2, y_1), \quad c_{109}(x_1, y_2).
\]

The function \( c_{194} \) has to satisfy the condition

\[
0 = c_{194, x_3} x_3 + c_{194, y_3} y_3 + c_{228} + c_{229} - c_{330, x_3},
\]

all other functions are free. The result of the conservation law investigation for the SU(2) chiral equation in the form \([33], [67]\) is that no other conservation laws with integrating factors of at most 2nd order exist.

More remarks concerning the collaboration of modules:

- Syzygy based integration can not replace conventional integration. If equations become decoupled then no integrability conditions apply and the equations have to be integrated conventionally if possible.
• The usefulness of conventional integration relies very much on the efficiency of a module for the indirect separation (module 8 in the above list). The corresponding implementation in Crack will be described elsewhere.

• The issue of avoiding redundant functions is serious when a system like \( \text{(69)} \) is only a subsystem of a larger system and the solution of the smaller system is to be substituted in the larger one. Redundant functions would complicate the solution of the larger system unnecessarily. On the other hand, the identification and deletion of redundant functions using a method described in \([13]\), is difficult and may be more expensive than the solution/simplification of the system itself. This method does not prevent redundancy, it only can identify it in the solution.

The package Crack is distributed together with the computer algebra system REDUCE. A newer version can be downloaded from http://lie.math.brocku.ca/twolf/crack

10 Summary

An integration method has been proposed that is applicable for linear PDE-systems that admit syzygies, i.e. systems which are overdetermined as a whole or contain an overdetermined subsystem. It therefore can not replace the straightforward integration of exact PDEs but when applicable it has a number of advantages:

• The information on which the integration is based is taken from syzygies in conservation law form. Syzygies are a by-product of the computation of differential Gröbner Basis.

• Because not a single equation is integrated but a number of equations \( (0 = P^i) \) at once, fewer functions of integration, depending on fewer variables are introduced in the process.

• The problem of conventional integration to introduce redundant functions when integrating with respect to different variables is either prevented or significantly reduced.

• The new integration produces apart from integrated equations also new syzygies which are often the basis for continuing the integration further without having to compute new syzygies through a new Gröbner basis computation.

• Syzygy based integration, conventional integration and elimination complement one another well in solving overdetermined linear PDE-systems if given the right priorities.
Appendix A: Continuation of the introductory example

In this appendix we continue the introductory example by performing three more syzygy based integration steps. The computation is broken up into items. The number(s) at the start of each item refer to the line number of the corresponding step in the overview at the end of section 3.

(32): The remaining system to solve consists of

\[
0 = f_{,xx} + f_{,z} \quad (= e_2) \\
0 = f_{,xyz} - c_1. \quad (= e_4)
\]

(33), (34): satisfying the identity in conservation law form

\[
0 = (-e_{4,x})_{,x} + (e_{2,xy} - e_4)_{,z}
\]

(35): with only 2 derivatives.

(36): Proceeding as in the first integration step we now identify as the conserved current

\[
\hat{P}^x = -e_{4,x} = -f_{,xy}z = -\hat{Q}_{,z} \quad (72) \\
\hat{P}^z = e_{2,xy} - e_4 = f_{,xyz} + c_1 = \hat{Q}_{,x} \quad (73)
\]

(37): and as the new potential \(\hat{Q}\) we either identify or compute using algorithm DIVINT in appendix B

\[
\hat{Q} = f_{,xy} + xc_1
\]

(39), (40): giving the new equation

\[
0 = \hat{Q} - c_2 = f_{,xy} + xc_1 - c_2 \quad (=: e_5) \quad (74)
\]

with the new function of integration \(c_2 = c_2(y)\).

(41), (42): Equation \(e_4\) is redundant as it turns up purely algebraically in

\[
0 = \hat{P}^z - \hat{Q}_{,x} = e_{2,xy} - e_4 - e_{5,x}.
\]

(43): Substitution of \(e_4\) in (72) gives the new identity

\[
0 = -e_{2,xy} + e_{5,xx} + e_{5,z}\quad (75)
\]

(46): This is as well a divergence with only two terms

\[
\bar{P}^x = -e_{2,xy} + e_{5,x} = -f_{,xyz} + c_1 = -\hat{Q}_{,z} \quad (76) \\
\bar{P}^z = e_{5} = f_{,xy} + xc_1 - c_2 = \hat{Q}_{,x} \quad (77)
\]

(37): and the new potential \(\bar{Q}\)

\[
\bar{Q} = f_{,xy} + \frac{x^2}{2} c_1 - xc_2 - z c_1
\]
\[ 0 = \tilde{Q} - c_3 = f_{,xy} + \frac{x^2}{2}c_1 - xc_2 - zc_1 - c_3 \quad (=: e_6) \quad (78) \]

with the new function of integration \( c_3 = c_3(y) \).

\[ 0 = \tilde{P}^z - \tilde{Q}^;x = e_5 - e_{6,x} . \quad (41),(42) \]

\[ 0 = -e_{2,xy} + e_{6,xx} + e_{6,z} . \quad (79) \]

\[ \tilde{P}^x = -e_{2,xy} + e_{6,x} = -f_{,y} + xc_1 - c_2 = -\tilde{Q}^;z \quad (80) \]
\[ \tilde{P}^z = e_6 = f_{,xy} + \frac{x^2}{2}c_1 - xc_2 - zc_1 - c_3 = \tilde{Q}^;x \quad (81) \]

\[ \tilde{Q} = f_{,y} + \frac{x^3}{6}c_1 - \frac{x^2}{2}c_2 - xzc_1 + zc_2 - xc_3 \quad (37) \]

\[ 0 = \tilde{Q} - c_4 = f_{,y} + \frac{x^3}{6}c_1 - \frac{x^2}{2}c_2 - xzc_1 + zc_2 - xc_3 - c_4 \quad (=: e_7) \quad (82) \]

with the new function of integration \( c_4 = c_4(y) \).

\[ 0 = \tilde{P}^z - \tilde{Q}^;x = e_6 - e_{7,x} . \quad (41),(42) \]

\[ 0 = -e_{2,xy} + e_{7,xx} + e_{7,z} . \quad (83) \]

The conclusion of this example is shown in section 2.1 below equation (20). As argued there the syzygy based integration of equation (83) is not advantageous as (83) has a conservation law form with 3 derivatives instead of two. Instead one rather integrates (82) with respect to \( y \) and substitutes \( f \) in the remaining equation (5).
Appendix B: The algorithm \textsc{DivInt}

The following algorithm computes expressions \(Q^{ij}(x^n, f^α_j) = Q^{[ij]}\) that satisfy \(D_j Q^{ij} = P^i\). The given \(P^i = P^i(x^n, f^α_j)\) are assumed to satisfy \(D_i P^i = 0\) identically in all \(f^α_j\).

1 Algorithm \textsc{DivInt}
2 Input variables: \(x^n\), functions: \(f^α\) and conserved current: \(P^i = P^i(x^n, f^α_j)\)
3 Output \(Q^{ij}(x^n, f^α_j), \ j > i \ % \) satisfying \(D_j Q^{ij} = P^i\)
4 \(E, F\) \ % \(E\): list of new additional equations
5 \% \(F\): list of new additional functions
6 Body \% no summation over double indices below
7 \(E := \{\}, \ F := \{\}, \ Q^{ij} := 0, \ \text{with} \ i, j \in 1, \ldots, p, \ j > i\)
8 \% Integrate all terms with functions \(f^α\) depending on all variables
9 for \(i := 1\) to \((p - 1)\) do
10 \ for \(j := i + 1\) to \(p\) do
11 \ % \(i.e.\) while any derivative of any \(f^α\)
12 \ \% \(i.e.\) that involves \(\partial_j\)
13 \(P^i \rightarrow P^i - D_j (a^{ij} f^α_j)\)
14 \(P^j \rightarrow P^j + D_i (a^{ij} f^α_j)\)
15 \(Q^{ij} \rightarrow Q^{ij} + a^{ij} f^α_j\)
16 \% Integrate all derivatives involving functions \(f^α\) not depending on all variables
17 for \(i := 2\) to \(p\) do
18 \ for \(j := 1\) to \(i - 1\) do
19 \ % \(i.e.\) while any derivative of any \(f^α\)
20 \ % \(i.e.\) that involves \(\partial_j\)
21 \(P^i \rightarrow P^i - D_j (a^{ij} f^α_j)\)
22 \(Q^{ij} \rightarrow Q^{ij} - a^{ij} f^α_j\)
23 \% Integrate remaining terms
24 for \(i := 1\) to \(p\) do
25 \ % \(i.e.\) that involves \(\partial_j f^α = 0\)
26 \ if \(P^i \neq 0\) then
27 \ % \(i.e.\) that involves \(\partial_j f^α = 0\)
28 \ if \(\partial_j f^α = 0\) then
29 \ % \(i.e.\) that involves \(\partial_j f^α = 0\)
30 \ if \(j > i\) then \(Q^{ij} \rightarrow Q^{ij} + q\)
31 \ \% \(\alpha = 0\)
32 \ if \\(\partial_j f^α = 0\) then
33 \(q := f^α_j \int a^{ij} dx^j\)
34 \(P^i \rightarrow P^i - D_j q\)
35 \ if \(j > i\) then \(Q^{ij} \rightarrow Q^{ij} + q\)
36 \ \% \(i.e.\) that involves \(\partial_j f^α = 0\)
37 \ if \(\partial_j f^α = 0\) then
38 \(F \rightarrow F \cup \{f^β\}\)
39 \(E \rightarrow E \cup \{0 = \partial_j f^β - a^{ij} f^α_j\}\)
40 \(P^i \rightarrow P^i - a^{ij} f^α_j\)
41 \ if \(j > i\) then \(Q^{ij} \rightarrow Q^{ij} + f^β\)
42 \ \% \(i.e.\) that involves \(\partial_j f^α = 0\)
43 \ if \(\partial_j f^α = 0\) then
44 \(Q^{ij} \rightarrow Q^{ij} - f^β\)
45 \% return \(Q^{ij}(x^n, f^α_j), \ E\) (list of new equations), \(F\) (list of new functions)
Explanation of the algorithm

Lines 9 - 16
This part of the procedure is sufficient if the input expressions $P^i(x^n, f^j)$ do only contain functions $f^\alpha$ depending on all $p$ independent variables $x^1, \ldots, x^p$.

A typical example: If an expression $P^y$ contains a term $f_{xz}$ then $D_x P^y$ (no summation) contains $\partial_y f_{xz}$ which has to be cancelled by $-\partial_z f_{xy}$ from $D_z P^z$ (no summation) to give $0 = D_k P^k$ (summation) identically in all $f_j$. This means $P^z$ contains $-f_{xy}$. In this short example the lines 14 - 16 would subtract $f_{xz}$ from $P^y$, subtract $-f_{xy}$ from $P^z$ and add $f$ to $Q^{yz}$. There is no principal difference between $P^y$ containing a term $f_{xz}$ or $P^y$ containing $a^{ij} \partial_z f^\alpha_{ij}$.

As both, $P^i$ and $P^j$ are updated in lines 14 and 15, $j$ does not run over indices $1 \ldots i-1$. Because $Q^{ij} = 0$ ($Q^{ij}$ is antisymmetric) there is no need to integrate an $i$-derivative in $P^i$ and therefore $j$ starts from $i+1$ in line 11.

If all terms in all $P^i$ contain a function $f^\alpha$ of all variables then any term in any $Q^{ij}$ occurs twice, once with an $x^i$-derivative in $P^i$ and once as negative $x^i$-derivative in $P^j$. When the program completes lines 10 - 16, all $P^i$ have the value zero and the solution $Q^{ij}$ is found (for $i < j$, values for $Q^{ij}$ follow from the antisymmetry).

Lines 18 - 42
The only possibility that after completing lines 10 - 16 not all $P^i$ are already zero occurs if some $f^\alpha$ do not depend on all variables. That is, for example, the case if functions entered the problem due to running DIVINT previously in earlier integrations. In general, if terms remain in some $P^i$ which necessarily depend on less than all variables then one can always complete the integrations by introducing new functions (collected in a list $F$ in line 38) that have to satisfy additional equations (collected in a list $E$ in line 39). In order to minimize the number of additional functions and additional equations the lines 19 - 24 integrate terms that are $x^j$-derivatives in $P^i$ ($j \neq i$) and lines 31 - 35 integrate terms by changing the explicit appearance of $x^j$. This is shown in the following examples.

Example: Independent variables: $x, y, z$, initial values:

\[
\begin{align*}
P^x &= A(y, z)_y + B(y, z)_z + C(y, z) + D(y) + G(z) \\
P^y &= H(x, z)_x + K(x, z)_z + L(x) + M(x, z) + N(z) \\
P^z &= R(x, y)_x + S(x, y)_y + T(x) + U(y) + W(x, y) \\
Q^{xy} &= Q^{yx} = Q^{xz} = Q^{yz} = 0
\end{align*}
\]

containing undetermined functions $A, B, C, D, G, H, K, L, M, N, R, S, T, U$ and $W$. After completing the program up to line 18 the values are

\[
\begin{align*}
P^x &= C(y, z) + D(y) + G(z) \\
P^y &= H(x, z)_x + L(x) + M(x, z) + N(z) \\
P^z &= R(x, y)_x + S(x, y)_y + T(x) + U(y) + W(x, y) \\
Q^{xy} &= A(y, z) \\
Q^{xz} &= B(y, z) \\
Q^{yz} &= K(x, z)
\end{align*}
\]

After completing the program up to line 26 the values are

\[
P^x = C(y, z) + D(y) + G(z)
\]
\[ P^y = L(x) + M(x, z) + N(z) \]
\[ P^z = T(x) + U(y) + W(x, y) \]
\[ Q^{xy} = A(y, z) - H(x, z) \]
\[ Q^{xz} = B(y, z) - R(x, y) \]
\[ Q^{yz} = K(x, z) - S(x, y) \]

The loop beginning in line 27 will integrate the remaining terms in \( P^i \). The lines 32 - 35 will integrate the terms \( D, G, L, N, T, U \) and lines 37 - 42 the terms \( C, M, W \) to obtain

\[ P^x = P^y = P^z = 0 \]
\[ Q^{xy} = A(y, z) - H(x, z) + yG(z) - xN(z) + F_1^1(y, z) \]
\[ Q^{xz} = B(y, z) - R(x, y) + zD(y) - xU(y) - F_3^3(x, y) \]
\[ Q^{yz} = K(x, z) - S(x, y) + zL(x) - yT(x) + F_2^2(x, z) \]

with a list \( F \) of new additional functions \( F_1^1(y, z), F_2^2(x, z), F_3^3(x, y) \) and list \( E \) of new additional equations

\[ F_1^1(y, z)_{,y} = C(y, z) \]
\[ F_2^2(x, z)_{,z} = M(x, z) \]
\[ F_3^3(x, y)_{,x} = W(x, y) \]

each in less than 3 variables.

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