Reduction-Based Creative Telescoping for D-Finite Functions

Christoph Koutschan (joint with Shaoshi Chen, Mark van Hoeij, Manuel Kauers)

Johann Radon Institute for Computational and Applied Mathematics (RICAM)

Austrian Academy of Sciences

September 19, 2017 BIRS workshop "Lattice walks at the Interface of Algebra, Analysis and Combinatorics"





Motivation:

Motivation: skip

Motivation: skip

Symbolic Integration: given f(x) in some domain D, does there exist $g(x) \in D$ such that f(x) = g'(x)?

Motivation: skip

Symbolic Integration: given f(x) in some domain D, does there exist $g(x) \in D$ such that f(x) = g'(x)?

If not, one can relax the question:

- ▶ Does there exist an extension *E* of *D* that contains such a *g*?
- ▶ Does there exist an operator P such that $P \cdot f$ is integrable?

Motivation: skip

Symbolic Integration: given f(x) in some domain D, does there exist $g(x) \in D$ such that f(x) = g'(x)?

If not, one can relax the question:

- ▶ Does there exist an extension *E* of *D* that contains such a *g*?
- ▶ Does there exist an operator P such that $P \cdot f$ is integrable?

Creative Telescoping: if f depends on another variable t, find a linear differential operator P (w.r.t. t, free of x) such that $P \cdot f$ is integrable.

Motivation: skip

Symbolic Integration: given f(x) in some domain D, does there exist $g(x) \in D$ such that f(x) = g'(x)?

If not, one can relax the question:

- ▶ Does there exist an extension *E* of *D* that contains such a *g*?
- ▶ Does there exist an operator P such that $P \cdot f$ is integrable?

Creative Telescoping: if f depends on another variable t, find a linear differential operator P (w.r.t. t, free of x) such that $P \cdot f$ is integrable. Such an operator P is called a **telescoper**.

Motivation: skip

Symbolic Integration: given f(x) in some domain D, does there exist $g(x) \in D$ such that f(x) = g'(x)?

If not, one can relax the question:

- ▶ Does there exist an extension E of D that contains such a g?
- ▶ Does there exist an operator P such that $P \cdot f$ is integrable?

Creative Telescoping: if f depends on another variable t, find a linear differential operator P (w.r.t. t, free of x) such that $P \cdot f$ is integrable. Such an operator P is called a **telescoper**.

The telescoper P gives rise to a differential equation satisfied by the integral.

Assume that the x-constants $C = \operatorname{Const}_x(D) = \{ c \in D : c' = 0 \}$ form a field and that D is a vector space over C.

Assume that the x-constants $C = \operatorname{Const}_x(D) = \{ c \in D : c' = 0 \}$ form a field and that D is a vector space over C.

Definition: A **reduction** is a C-linear map $[\cdot]: D \to D$ such that for every $f \in D$ there exists a $g \in D$ with f - [f] = g'.

Assume that the x-constants $C = \operatorname{Const}_x(D) = \{ c \in D : c' = 0 \}$ form a field and that D is a vector space over C.

Definition: A **reduction** is a C-linear map $[\cdot]: D \to D$ such that for every $f \in D$ there exists a $g \in D$ with f - [f] = g'.

Strategy: For finding a telescoper

• compute [f], $[\partial_t \cdot f]$, $[\partial_t^2 \cdot f]$, ...,

Assume that the x-constants $C = \operatorname{Const}_x(D) = \{ c \in D : c' = 0 \}$ form a field and that D is a vector space over C.

Definition: A **reduction** is a C-linear map $[\cdot]: D \to D$ such that for every $f \in D$ there exists a $g \in D$ with f - [f] = g'.

Strategy: For finding a telescoper

- compute [f], $[\partial_t \cdot f]$, $[\partial_t^2 \cdot f]$, ...,
- ▶ until they become linearly dependent over C.

Assume that the x-constants $C = \operatorname{Const}_x(D) = \{ c \in D : c' = 0 \}$ form a field and that D is a vector space over C.

Definition: A **reduction** is a C-linear map $[\cdot]: D \to D$ such that for every $f \in D$ there exists a $g \in D$ with f - [f] = g'.

Strategy: For finding a telescoper

- compute [f], $[\partial_t \cdot f]$, $[\partial_t^2 \cdot f]$, ...,
- ▶ until they become linearly dependent over C.
- ▶ The relation $p_0[f] + \cdots + p_r[\partial_t^r \cdot f] = 0$ yields the telescoper $P = p_0 + \cdots + p_r\partial_t^r$, since by linearity we have

$$[p_0f + \dots + p_r\partial_t^r \cdot f] = 0,$$

and by definition of $[\cdot]$ we have that $P \cdot f$ is integrable.

There are two ways to guarantee that this method terminates.

There are two ways to guarantee that this method terminates.

1. Design a reduction $[\cdot]$ with the property that when $f \in D$ is integrable, then [f] = 0.

There are two ways to guarantee that this method terminates.

1. Design a reduction $[\cdot]$ with the property that when $f\in D$ is integrable, then [f]=0. Under this condition, the method will find the smallest telescoper, but for the termination we have to assume the existence of telescopers.

There are two ways to guarantee that this method terminates.

- 1. Design a reduction $[\cdot]$ with the property that when $f \in D$ is integrable, then [f] = 0. Under this condition, the method will find the smallest telescoper, but for the termination we have to assume the existence of telescopers.
- 2. Show that the C-vector space generated by $\{[\partial_t^i \cdot f] : i \in \mathbb{N} \}$ has finite dimension.

There are two ways to guarantee that this method terminates.

- 1. Design a reduction $[\cdot]$ with the property that when $f \in D$ is integrable, then [f] = 0. Under this condition, the method will find the smallest telescoper, but for the termination we have to assume the existence of telescopers.
- 2. Show that the C-vector space generated by $\{[\partial_t^i \cdot f] : i \in \mathbb{N}\}$ has finite dimension. This yields a bound for the order of the minimal telescoper, and it implies the existence of telescopers. It does not necessarily find the minimal telescoper.

There are two ways to guarantee that this method terminates.

- 1. Design a reduction $[\cdot]$ with the property that when $f \in D$ is integrable, then [f] = 0. Under this condition, the method will find the smallest telescoper, but for the termination we have to assume the existence of telescopers.
- 2. Show that the C-vector space generated by $\{[\partial_t^i \cdot f] : i \in \mathbb{N} \}$ has finite dimension. This yields a bound for the order of the minimal telescoper, and it implies the existence of telescopers. It does not necessarily find the minimal telescoper.

Our task consists in defining a reduction map that satisfies either Property 1 or Property 2 (or both).

Previous Work on Reduction-Based Telescoping

- ▶ Bostan, Chen, Chyzak, Li (2010): first reduction-based algorithm, for integrating bivariate rational functions
- ▶ Chen, Singer (2012): bivariate rational functions, was then extended to consider also summation and q-summation
- ► Chen, Kauers, Singer (2012): hybrid algorithm for integrating bivariate algebraic functions
- ▶ Bostan, Lairez, Salvy (2013, 2015): reduction technique for multivariate rational functions
- ▶ Bostan, Chen, Chyzak, Li, Xin (2013): Hermite reduction for hyperexponential functions
- ▶ Chen, Huang, Kauers, Li (2015, 2016): summation algorithm for hypergeometric terms
- ▶ Bostan, Dumont, Salvy (2016): integration of bivariate hypergeometric-hyperexponential terms
- ► Kauers, Koutschan (2015): integral bases for D-finite functions
- ► Chen, Kauers, Koutschan (2016): algebraic functions
- ► Chen, van Hoeij, Kauers, Koutschan (2017): fuchsian D-finite 4/17

Previous Work on Reduction-Based Telescoping

- ▶ Bostan, Chen, Chyzak, Li (2010): first reduction-based algorithm, for integrating bivariate rational functions
- ► Chen, Singer (2012): bivariate rational functions, was then extended to consider also summation and q-summation
- ► Chen, Kauers, Singer (2012): hybrid algorithm for integrating bivariate algebraic functions
- ► Bostan, Lairez, Salvy (2013, 2015): reduction technique for multivariate rational functions
- Bostan, Chen, Chyzak, Li, Xin (2013): Hermite reduction for hyperexponential functions
- ► Chen, Huang, Kauers, Li (2015, 2016): summation algorithm for hypergeometric terms
- ▶ Bostan, Dumont, Salvy (2016): integration of bivariate hypergeometric-hyperexponential terms
- ► Kauers, Koutschan (2015): integral bases for D-finite functions
- ► Chen, Kauers, Koutschan (2016): algebraic functions
- Chen, van Hoeij, Kauers, Koutschan (2017): fuchsian D-finite

Consider the domain of rational functions $D = \mathbb{Q}(t, x)$, i.e., we have $C = \operatorname{Const}_x(D) = \mathbb{Q}(t)$.

Consider the domain of rational functions $D=\mathbb{Q}(t,x)$, i.e., we have $C=\mathrm{Const}_x(D)=\mathbb{Q}(t)$.

Hermite reduction: decomposes any $f \in D$ into f = g' + h with $g, h \in D$ such that h is a proper rational function with a squarefree denominator. Hence, we can define a reduction map by [f] = h.

Consider the domain of rational functions $D=\mathbb{Q}(t,x)$, i.e., we have $C=\mathrm{Const}_x(D)=\mathbb{Q}(t)$.

Hermite reduction: decomposes any $f \in D$ into f = g' + h with $g, h \in D$ such that h is a proper rational function with a squarefree denominator. Hence, we can define a reduction map by [f] = h.

It is easy to see that this reduction map satisfies both properties:

Consider the domain of rational functions $D = \mathbb{Q}(t,x)$, i.e., we have $C = \mathrm{Const}_x(D) = \mathbb{Q}(t)$.

Hermite reduction: decomposes any $f \in D$ into f = g' + h with $g, h \in D$ such that h is a proper rational function with a squarefree denominator. Hence, we can define a reduction map by [f] = h.

It is easy to see that this reduction map satisfies both properties:

1. If $[f] \neq 0$ then f is not integrable (in D), since a rational function with a simple pole has no rational antiderivative (one would have to introduce logarithms).

Consider the domain of rational functions $D = \mathbb{Q}(t,x)$, i.e., we have $C = \mathrm{Const}_x(D) = \mathbb{Q}(t)$.

Hermite reduction: decomposes any $f \in D$ into f = g' + h with $g, h \in D$ such that h is a proper rational function with a squarefree denominator. Hence, we can define a reduction map by [f] = h.

It is easy to see that this reduction map satisfies both properties:

- 1. If $[f] \neq 0$ then f is not integrable (in D), since a rational function with a simple pole has no rational antiderivative (one would have to introduce logarithms).
- 2. Set $h_i = [\partial_t^i f]$. Since differentiating doesn't introduce new poles, there is a (squarefree) polynomial d that is a common denominator for all h_i . Since the h_i are proper, the dimension of the C-vector they generate is at most $\deg_x d$.

Consider a linear differential operator with polynomial coefficients:

$$L = \ell_0 + \dots + \ell_n \partial_x^n, \qquad \ell_0, \dots, \ell_n \in C[x].$$

In our context, we typically have $C = \mathbb{Q}(t)$.

Consider a linear differential operator with polynomial coefficients:

$$L = \ell_0 + \dots + \ell_n \partial_x^n, \qquad \ell_0, \dots, \ell_n \in C[x].$$

In our context, we typically have $C = \mathbb{Q}(t)$.

Definition: The operator L is called **fuchsian at a point** $a\in \bar{C}$ if it admits n linearly independent solutions in

$$\bar{C}[[[x-a]]] := \bigcup_{\nu \in C} (x-a)^{\nu} \bar{C}[[x-a]][\log(x-a)].$$

Consider a linear differential operator with polynomial coefficients:

$$L = \ell_0 + \dots + \ell_n \partial_x^n, \qquad \ell_0, \dots, \ell_n \in C[x].$$

In our context, we typically have $C = \mathbb{Q}(t)$.

Definition: The operator L is called **fuchsian at a point** $a\in \bar{C}$ if it admits n linearly independent solutions in

$$\bar{C}[[[x-a]]] := \bigcup_{\nu \in C} (x-a)^{\nu} \bar{C}[[x-a]][\log(x-a)].$$

It is called **fuchsian at** ∞ if it admits n l.i. solutions in

$$\bar{C}[[[x^{-1}]]] := \bigcup_{\nu \in C} x^{-\nu} \bar{C}[[x^{-1}]][\log(x)].$$

Consider a linear differential operator with polynomial coefficients:

$$L = \ell_0 + \dots + \ell_n \partial_x^n, \qquad \ell_0, \dots, \ell_n \in C[x].$$

In our context, we typically have $C = \mathbb{Q}(t)$.

Definition: The operator L is called **fuchsian at a point** $a\in \bar{C}$ if it admits n linearly independent solutions in

$$\bar{C}[[[x-a]]] := \bigcup_{\nu \in C} (x-a)^{\nu} \bar{C}[[x-a]][\log(x-a)].$$

It is called **fuchsian at** ∞ if it admits n l.i. solutions in

$$\bar{C}[[[x^{-1}]]] := \bigcup_{\nu \in C} x^{-\nu} \bar{C}[[x^{-1}]][\log(x)].$$

It is simply called **fuchsian** if it is fuchsian at all $a \in \bar{C} \cup \{\infty\}$.

Definition:

► Terms in these power series expansions, i.e., terms of the form

$$(x-a)^{\alpha}\log(x-a)^{\beta}$$
 or $(\frac{1}{x})^{\alpha}\log(x)^{\beta}$

are called **integral** if $\alpha \geqslant 0$.

Definition:

▶ Terms in these power series expansions, i.e., terms of the form

$$(x-a)^{\alpha}\log(x-a)^{\beta}$$
 or $(\frac{1}{x})^{\alpha}\log(x)^{\beta}$

are called **integral** if $\alpha \geqslant 0$.

▶ A series in $\bar{C}[[[x-a]]]$ or $\bar{C}[[[x^{-1}]]]$ is called integral if it only contains integral terms.

Definition:

▶ Terms in these power series expansions, i.e., terms of the form

$$(x-a)^{\alpha}\log(x-a)^{\beta}$$
 or $(\frac{1}{x})^{\alpha}\log(x)^{\beta}$

are called **integral** if $\alpha \geqslant 0$.

- ▶ A series in $\bar{C}[[[x-a]]]$ or $\bar{C}[[[x^{-1}]]]$ is called integral if it only contains integral terms.
- ▶ A non-integral series is said to have a **pole** at a (or ∞).

Definition:

▶ Terms in these power series expansions, i.e., terms of the form

$$(x-a)^{\alpha}\log(x-a)^{\beta}$$
 or $(\frac{1}{x})^{\alpha}\log(x)^{\beta}$

are called **integral** if $\alpha \geqslant 0$.

- ▶ A series in $\bar{C}[[[x-a]]]$ or $\bar{C}[[[x^{-1}]]]$ is called integral if it only contains integral terms.
- ▶ A non-integral series is said to have a **pole** at a (or ∞).

Analogy with Algebraic Functions:

Consider an algebraic function field $A=C(x)[y]/\langle M\rangle$ with minimal polynomial M of y-degree n.

Definition:

▶ Terms in these power series expansions, i.e., terms of the form

$$(x-a)^{\alpha}\log(x-a)^{\beta}$$
 or $(\frac{1}{x})^{\alpha}\log(x)^{\beta}$

are called **integral** if $\alpha \geqslant 0$.

- A series in $\bar{C}[[[x-a]]]$ or $\bar{C}[[[x^{-1}]]]$ is called integral if it only contains integral terms.
- ▶ A non-integral series is said to have a **pole** at a (or ∞).

Analogy with Algebraic Functions:

Consider an algebraic function field $A=C(x)[y]/\langle M\rangle$ with minimal polynomial M of y-degree n. An element $f=f_0+f_1y+\cdots+f_{n-1}y^{n-1}\in A$ is called **integral** at a if the leading coefficient of the minimial polynomial of f in C[x][y] is not divisible by (x-a).

Definition:

▶ Terms in these power series expansions, i.e., terms of the form

$$(x-a)^{\alpha}\log(x-a)^{\beta}$$
 or $(\frac{1}{x})^{\alpha}\log(x)^{\beta}$

are called **integral** if $\alpha \geqslant 0$.

- A series in $\bar{C}[[[x-a]]]$ or $\bar{C}[[[x^{-1}]]]$ is called integral if it only contains integral terms.
- ▶ A non-integral series is said to have a **pole** at a (or ∞).

Analogy with Algebraic Functions:

Consider an algebraic function field $A=C(x)[y]/\langle M\rangle$ with minimal polynomial M of y-degree n. An element $f=f_0+f_1y+\cdots+f_{n-1}y^{n-1}\in A$ is called **integral** at a if the leading coefficient of the minimial polynomial of f in C[x][y] is not divisible by (x-a). This is the case if and only if if all Puiseux series expansions of f at x=a involve only nonnegative exponents.

For a fuchsian operator L, we consider the left $C(x)[\partial_x]$ -module $A=C(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L\rangle$, where $\langle L\rangle$ is the left ideal generated by L.

For a fuchsian operator L, we consider the left $C(x)[\partial_x]$ -module $A=C(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L\rangle$, where $\langle L\rangle$ is the left ideal generated by L.

Definition:

▶ An element $f = f_0 + f_1 \partial_x + \dots + f_{n-1} \partial_x^{n-1} \in A$ is called **locally integral** at $a \in \bar{C} \cup \{\infty\}$ if for every solution y of L in $\bar{C}[[[x-a]]]$ (or $\bar{C}[[[x^{-1}]]]$) the series $f \cdot y$ is integral.

For a fuchsian operator L, we consider the left $C(x)[\partial_x]$ -module $A=C(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L\rangle$, where $\langle L\rangle$ is the left ideal generated by L.

Definition:

- ▶ An element $f = f_0 + f_1 \partial_x + \cdots + f_{n-1} \partial_x^{n-1} \in A$ is called **locally integral** at $a \in \bar{C} \cup \{\infty\}$ if for every solution y of L in $\bar{C}[[[x-a]]]$ (or $\bar{C}[[[x^{-1}]]]$) the series $f \cdot y$ is integral.
- ▶ f is called **globally integral** if it is locally integral at every $a \in \bar{C}$ ("at all finite places").

For a fuchsian operator L, we consider the left $C(x)[\partial_x]$ -module $A=C(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L\rangle$, where $\langle L\rangle$ is the left ideal generated by L.

Definition:

- ▶ An element $f = f_0 + f_1 \partial_x + \cdots + f_{n-1} \partial_x^{n-1} \in A$ is called **locally integral** at $a \in \bar{C} \cup \{\infty\}$ if for every solution y of L in $\bar{C}[[[x-a]]]$ (or $\bar{C}[[[x^{-1}]]]$) the series $f \cdot y$ is integral.
- ▶ f is called **globally integral** if it is locally integral at every $a \in \bar{C}$ ("at all finite places").

The globally integral elements $f \in A$ form a $\bar{C}[x]$ -submodule of A.

For a fuchsian operator L, we consider the left $C(x)[\partial_x]$ -module $A=C(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L\rangle$, where $\langle L\rangle$ is the left ideal generated by L.

Definition:

- ▶ An element $f = f_0 + f_1 \partial_x + \cdots + f_{n-1} \partial_x^{n-1} \in A$ is called **locally integral** at $a \in \bar{C} \cup \{\infty\}$ if for every solution y of L in $\bar{C}[[[x-a]]]$ (or $\bar{C}[[[x^{-1}]]]$) the series $f \cdot y$ is integral.
- ▶ f is called **globally integral** if it is locally integral at every $a \in \bar{C}$ ("at all finite places").

The globally integral elements $f \in A$ form a $\bar{C}[x]$ -submodule of A.

Definition: A basis $\{\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n\}$ of this module is called an **integral basis** for A.

For a fuchsian operator L, we consider the left $C(x)[\partial_x]$ -module $A=C(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L\rangle$, where $\langle L\rangle$ is the left ideal generated by L.

Definition:

- ▶ An element $f = f_0 + f_1 \partial_x + \cdots + f_{n-1} \partial_x^{n-1} \in A$ is called **locally integral** at $a \in \bar{C} \cup \{\infty\}$ if for every solution y of L in $\bar{C}[[[x-a]]]$ (or $\bar{C}[[[x^{-1}]]]$) the series $f \cdot y$ is integral.
- ▶ f is called **globally integral** if it is locally integral at every $a \in \bar{C}$ ("at all finite places").

The globally integral elements $f \in A$ form a $\bar{C}[x]$ -submodule of A.

Definition: A basis $\{\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n\}$ of this module is called an **integral basis** for A.

- algorithm to compute integral bases (Kauers/Koutschan 2015)
- algorithm for algebraic function fields (van Hoeij 1994)

Examples:
$$(A = C(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L \rangle)$$

▶ $1 \in A$ represents a solution y of $L \cdot y = 0$; indeed, $L \cdot 1 = L = 0$ in A.

Examples:
$$(A = C(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L \rangle)$$

▶ $1 \in A$ represents a solution y of $L \cdot y = 0$; indeed, $L \cdot 1 = L = 0$ in A.

Analogy with Algebraic Functions: $(A = C(x)[y]/\langle M \rangle)$

 $\begin{tabular}{l} \flat $y \in A$ represents a formal solution of $M(y)=0$; indeed, $M(y)=M=0$ in A. \end{tabular}$

Examples: $(A = C(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L \rangle)$

- ▶ $1 \in A$ represents a solution y of $L \cdot y = 0$; indeed, $L \cdot 1 = L = 0$ in A.
- " $1 \in A$ is integral at 0" means that all solutions y of L have integral series expansions at x = 0.

Analogy with Algebraic Functions: $(A = C(x)[y]/\langle M \rangle)$

• $y \in A$ represents a formal solution of M(y) = 0; indeed, M(y) = M = 0 in A.

Examples: $(A = C(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L \rangle)$

- ▶ $1 \in A$ represents a solution y of $L \cdot y = 0$; indeed, $L \cdot 1 = L = 0$ in A.
- " $1 \in A$ is integral at 0" means that all solutions y of L have integral series expansions at x = 0.

Analogy with Algebraic Functions: $(A = C(x)[y]/\langle M \rangle)$

- $y \in A$ represents a formal solution of M(y) = 0; indeed, M(y) = M = 0 in A.
- " $y \in A$ is integral at 0" means that all solutions of M = 0 have Puiseux series expansions at x = 0 with exponents ≥ 0 .

Examples: $(A = C(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L \rangle)$

- ▶ $1 \in A$ represents a solution y of $L \cdot y = 0$; indeed, $L \cdot 1 = L = 0$ in A.
- " $1 \in A$ is integral at 0" means that all solutions y of L have integral series expansions at x = 0.
- " $\partial_x \in A$ is integral" means that for any solution y of L and any point $a \in \bar{C}$, the series expansion of y' at x = a is integral.

Analogy with Algebraic Functions: $(A = C(x)[y]/\langle M \rangle)$

- $y \in A$ represents a formal solution of M(y) = 0; indeed, M(y) = M = 0 in A.
- " $y \in A$ is integral at 0" means that all solutions of M = 0 have Puiseux series expansions at x = 0 with exponents ≥ 0 .

Examples: $(A = C(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L \rangle)$

- ▶ $1 \in A$ represents a solution y of $L \cdot y = 0$; indeed, $L \cdot 1 = L = 0$ in A.
- " $1 \in A$ is integral at 0" means that all solutions y of L have integral series expansions at x = 0.
- " $\partial_x \in A$ is integral" means that for any solution y of L and any point $a \in \bar{C}$, the series expansion of y' at x = a is integral.

Analogy with Algebraic Functions: $(A = C(x)[y]/\langle M \rangle)$

- $y \in A$ represents a formal solution of M(y) = 0; indeed, M(y) = M = 0 in A.
- " $y \in A$ is integral at 0" means that all solutions of M = 0 have Puiseux series expansions at x = 0 with exponents ≥ 0 .
- " $y^2 \in A$ is integral" means that for any solution y of M=0 and any $a \in \bar{C}$, the Puiseux series of y^2 at x=a is integral.

Key Feature of Integral Bases

Feature: Integral bases make poles explicit!

Key Feature of Integral Bases

Feature: Integral bases make poles explicit!

Lemma: Let L be a fuchsian operator and let $\{\omega_1,\ldots,\omega_n\}$ be a local integral basis of $A=C(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L\rangle$ at $a\in \bar C\cup \{\infty\}$. Let $f=\sum_{i=1}^n f_i\omega_i\in A$ with $f_1,\ldots,f_n\in C(x)$. Then f is integral at a if and only if each $f_i\omega_i$ is integral at a.

Key Feature of Integral Bases

Feature: Integral bases make poles explicit!

Lemma: Let L be a fuchsian operator and let $\{\omega_1,\ldots,\omega_n\}$ be a local integral basis of $A=C(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L\rangle$ at $a\in \bar C\cup \{\infty\}$. Let $f=\sum_{i=1}^n f_i\omega_i\in A$ with $f_1,\ldots,f_n\in C(x)$. Then f is integral at a if and only if each $f_i\omega_i$ is integral at a.

Note: An integral basis $\{\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n\}$ is always also a C(x)-vector space basis of A.

- ▶ We have that $f \in A$ has a pole at $a \in \overline{C}$ if and only if at least one of the f_i has a pole at a.
- In particular the poles of the coefficients f_i cannot cancel each other.

Hermite-Trager Reduction

Task: For given $f \in A$ find $g, h \in A$ such that

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{f_i}{d} \omega_i = g' + h$$
 and $h = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{h_i}{d^*} \omega_i$,

where $f_i, h_i \in C[x]$ and where d^* is the squarefree part of d.

Hermite-Trager Reduction

Task: For given $f \in A$ find $g, h \in A$ such that

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{f_i}{d} \omega_i = g' + h \qquad \text{ and } \qquad h = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{h_i}{d^*} \omega_i,$$

where $f_i, h_i \in C[x]$ and where d^* is the squarefree part of d.

One step of the reduction consists in reducing the multiplicity $\mu>1$ of some nontrivial squarefree factor $v\in C[x]$ of d:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{f_i}{uv^{\mu}} \omega_i = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{g_i}{v^{\mu-1}} \omega_i\right)' + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{h_i}{uv^{\mu-1}} \omega_i \qquad (d = uv^{\mu}).$$

Hermite-Trager Reduction

Task: For given $f \in A$ find $g, h \in A$ such that

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{f_i}{d} \omega_i = g' + h \qquad \text{ and } \qquad h = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{h_i}{d^*} \omega_i,$$

where $f_i, h_i \in C[x]$ and where d^* is the squarefree part of d.

One step of the reduction consists in reducing the multiplicity $\mu>1$ of some nontrivial squarefree factor $v\in C[x]$ of d:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{f_i}{uv^{\mu}} \omega_i = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{g_i}{v^{\mu-1}} \omega_i\right)' + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{h_i}{uv^{\mu-1}} \omega_i \qquad (d = uv^{\mu}).$$

By a repeated application of such reduction steps one can decompose any $f \in A$ as f = g' + h, where the denominators of the coefficients of h are squarefree.

Task: Decompose
$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{f_i}{uv^{\mu}} \omega_i = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{g_i}{v^{\mu-1}} \omega_i\right)' + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{h_i}{uv^{\mu-1}} \omega_i.$$

In order to determine the unknown polynomials g_1, \ldots, g_n , we clear the denominator uv^{μ} :

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i \omega_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(uv g_i' \omega_i + uv^{\mu} g_i \left(v^{1-\mu} \omega_i \right)' + v h_i \omega_i \right).$$

In order to determine the unknown polynomials g_1, \ldots, g_n , we clear the denominator uv^{μ} :

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i \omega_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(uv g_i' \omega_i + uv^{\mu} g_i \left(v^{1-\mu} \omega_i \right)' + v h_i \omega_i \right).$$

Then this equation is reduced modulo v:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i \omega_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} g_i u v^{\mu} \left(v^{1-\mu} \omega_i \right)' \mod v.$$

In order to determine the unknown polynomials g_1, \ldots, g_n , we clear the denominator uv^{μ} :

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i \omega_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(uv g_i' \omega_i + uv^{\mu} g_i \left(v^{1-\mu} \omega_i \right)' + v h_i \omega_i \right).$$

Then this equation is reduced modulo v:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i \omega_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} g_i u v^{\mu} \left(v^{1-\mu} \omega_i \right)' \mod v.$$

Using $\gcd(u,v)=1$ we can prove that the elements $uv^{\mu}\left(v^{1-\mu}\omega_{i}\right)'$ form a local integral basis at each root of v.

 \longrightarrow This implies that the g_i are uniquely determined modulo v.

Obstacle

Chevalley's theorem: The only algebraic functions which are integral at all finite places and at infinity are the constant ones.

Obstacle

Chevalley's theorem: The only algebraic functions which are integral at all finite places and at infinity are the constant ones.

Problem: This does not hold for fuchsian D-finite functions: there exist functions that are integral at all places without being constant.

Obstacle

Chevalley's theorem: The only algebraic functions which are integral at all finite places and at infinity are the constant ones.

Problem: This does not hold for fuchsian D-finite functions: there exist functions that are integral at all places without being constant.

Fortunately, we can show that there are not too many such cases:

Lemma: Let $\{\omega_1,\ldots,\omega_n\}$ be an integral basis of A that is normal at infinity, and let $\tau_1,\ldots,\tau_n\in\mathbb{Z}$ be such that $\{x^{\tau_1}\omega_1,\ldots,x^{\tau_n}\omega_n\}$ is a local integral basis at infinity. Then the set of all $f\in A$ which are integral everywhere is a C-vector space with basis

$$\{x^j\omega_i: i=1,\ldots,n; j=0,\ldots,\tau_i\}.$$

Main Result: Property 1

Theorem:

Suppose that $f\in A$ has at least a double root at infinity, i.e., every series in $\bar{C}[[[x^{-1}]]]$ associated to f only contains monomials $(1/x)^{\alpha}\log(x)^{\beta}$ with $\alpha\geqslant 2$.

Let $W = \{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n\}$ be an integral basis for A that is normal at infinity, and let f = g' + h be the result of the Hermite reduction with respect to W.

Let $V \subseteq A$ be the C-vector space of all elements that are integral at all places, including infinity, and let $U = \{v' : v \in V\}$ be the space of all elements of A that are integrable in V.

Then f is integrable in A if and only if $h \in U$.

Main Result: Property 1

Theorem:

Suppose that $f \in A$ has at least a double root at infinity, i.e., every series in $\bar{C}[[[x^{-1}]]]$ associated to f only contains monomials $(1/x)^{\alpha}\log(x)^{\beta}$ with $\alpha\geqslant 2$.

Let $W=\{\omega_1,\ldots,\omega_n\}$ be an integral basis for A that is normal at infinity, and let f=g'+h be the result of the Hermite reduction with respect to W.

Let $V \subseteq A$ be the C-vector space of all elements that are integral at all places, including infinity, and let $U = \{v' : v \in V\}$ be the space of all elements of A that are integrable in V.

Then f is integrable in A if and only if $h \in U$.

Note: In the special case of algebraic functions we get

f is integrable if and only if h=0

since V is the set of constant functions (according to Chevalley).

Property 2: Confinement

Proposition: Let $W = \{\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n\}$, $f = \sum_{i=1}^n (f_i/D)\omega_i \in A$, $\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $D, f_1, \ldots, f_n \in C[x]$, $e \in C[x]$, $E = \operatorname{lcm}(e, D^*)$. Then f admits a telescoper of order at most

$$n\left(\deg_x(E) - 1 - \min(0, \min_j(\tau_j))\right) + \sum_{i=1}^n \tau_i.$$

Property 2: Confinement

Proposition: Let $W = \{\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n\}$, $f = \sum_{i=1}^n (f_i/D)\omega_i \in A$, $\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $D, f_1, \ldots, f_n \in C[x]$, $e \in C[x]$, $E = \operatorname{lcm}(e, D^*)$. Then f admits a telescoper of order at most

$$n\left(\deg_x(E) - 1 - \min(0, \min_j(\tau_j))\right) + \sum_{i=1}^n \tau_i.$$

Polynomial Reduction: the idea is to decompose h further:

$$f = g' + h = g' + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{h_i}{de} \omega_i = g' + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{r_i}{d} \omega_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{s_i}{e} \omega_i,$$

where $\deg_x(r_i) < \deg_x(d)$. The goal is to confine the s_i to a finite-dimensional vector space over C.

Property 2: Confinement

Proposition: Let $W = \{\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n\}$, $f = \sum_{i=1}^n (f_i/D)\omega_i \in A$, $\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $D, f_1, \ldots, f_n \in C[x]$, $e \in C[x]$, $E = \operatorname{lcm}(e, D^*)$. Then f admits a telescoper of order at most

$$n\left(\deg_x(E) - 1 - \min(0, \min_j(\tau_j))\right) + \sum_{i=1}^n \tau_i.$$

Polynomial Reduction: the idea is to decompose h further:

$$f = g' + h = g' + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{h_i}{de} \omega_i = g' + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{r_i}{d} \omega_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{s_i}{e} \omega_i,$$

where $\deg_x(r_i) < \deg_x(d)$. The goal is to confine the s_i to a finite-dimensional vector space over C.

Alternative bound: Every $f \in A$ has a telescoper of order at most

$$n(\deg_x(d) + \deg_x(e) + \tau + \lambda + 1).$$

Let
$$L=3(x^3-x)D_x^2+2(3x^2-1)D_x$$
 with solutions
$$y_1(x)=1 \qquad \text{and} \qquad y_2(x)=x^{1/3}\,{}_2F_1\big(\tfrac{1}{6},\tfrac{2}{3};\tfrac{7}{6};x^2\big).$$

Let
$$L=3(x^3-x)D_x^2+2(3x^2-1)D_x$$
 with solutions
$$y_1(x)=1 \qquad \text{and} \qquad y_2(x)=x^{1/3}\,{}_2F_1\big(\tfrac{1}{6},\tfrac{2}{3};\tfrac{7}{6};x^2\big).$$

An integral basis for $A=\mathbb{Q}(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L\rangle$ that is also normal at infinity is given by $\omega_1=1$ and $\omega_2=(x^3-x)\partial_x$.

Let
$$L=3(x^3-x)D_x^2+2(3x^2-1)D_x$$
 with solutions
$$y_1(x)=1 \qquad \text{and} \qquad y_2(x)=x^{1/3}\,{}_2F_1\big(\tfrac{1}{6},\tfrac{2}{3};\tfrac{7}{6};x^2\big).$$

An integral basis for $A=\mathbb{Q}(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L\rangle$ that is also normal at infinity is given by $\omega_1=1$ and $\omega_2=(x^3-x)\partial_x$.

Both solutions are integral everywhere, and hence $\omega_1 \in V$ (actually V is spanned by ω_1).

Let
$$L = 3(x^3 - x)D_x^2 + 2(3x^2 - 1)D_x$$
 with solutions

$$y_1(x) = 1$$
 and $y_2(x) = x^{1/3} {}_2F_1(\frac{1}{6}, \frac{2}{3}; \frac{7}{6}; x^2).$

An integral basis for $A = \mathbb{Q}(x)[\partial_x]/\langle L \rangle$ that is also normal at infinity is given by $\omega_1 = 1$ and $\omega_2 = (x^3 - x)\partial_x$.

Both solutions are integral everywhere, and hence $\omega_1 \in V$ (actually V is spanned by ω_1).

A straightforward calculation yields

$$W' = \frac{1}{e}MW = \frac{1}{x^3 - x} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & x^2 - \frac{1}{3} \end{pmatrix} W \quad \text{for } W = \begin{pmatrix} \omega_1 \\ \omega_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Example (continued)

Consider the following integrand (which has a double root at ∞):

$$f = \frac{3}{x^2}\omega_1 + \frac{2(2x+1)}{(x^3 - x)^2}\omega_2.$$

Example (continued)

Consider the following integrand (which has a double root at ∞):

$$f = \frac{3}{x^2}\omega_1 + \frac{2(2x+1)}{(x^3-x)^2}\omega_2.$$

The result of the Hermite reduction has nonzero remainder:

$$f = \left(-\frac{3}{x}\omega_1 - \frac{3(2x+1)}{2(x^3-x)}\omega_2\right)' - \frac{3}{x^3-x}\omega_2,$$

Example (continued)

Consider the following integrand (which has a double root at ∞):

$$f = \frac{3}{x^2}\omega_1 + \frac{2(2x+1)}{(x^3 - x)^2}\omega_2.$$

The result of the Hermite reduction has nonzero remainder:

$$f = \left(-\frac{3}{x}\omega_1 - \frac{3(2x+1)}{2(x^3-x)}\omega_2\right)' - \frac{3}{x^3-x}\omega_2,$$

According to the theorem, f is integrable if this remainder lies in the subspace $U=\{v':v\in V\}$. Using the matrix M, we find that $\omega_1'=\frac{1}{x^3-x}\omega_2$, which is indeed a scalar multiple of the remainder. Hence, f is integrable:

$$f = \left(-\frac{3(x+1)}{x}\omega_1 - \frac{3(2x+1)}{2(x^3-x)}\omega_2\right)'.$$