

Integral D-finite Functions

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Institute for Algebra
Johannes Kepler University Linz, Austria

joint work with Christoph Koutschan

Integral **D-finite** Functions

$$p_0(x)f(x) + p_1(x)f'(x) + \cdots + p_r(x)f^{(r)}(x) = 0$$

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$\mathbb{Z} \dots \dots \mathbb{Q}$

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$k[x] \dots\dots k(x)$
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$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathcal{O}_{k[x]} & \cdots \cdots & \overline{k(x)} \\ k[x] & \cdots \cdots & k(x) \\ \mathbb{Z} & \cdots \cdots & \mathbb{Q} \end{array}$$

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Such a basis is called an **integral basis** for K .

Classical Problem: Given an irreducible polynomial $M \in k(x)[y]$, find an integral basis for $K = k(x)[y]/\langle M \rangle$, i.e., a $k[x]$ -module basis for the set \mathcal{O} of all integral elements of K .

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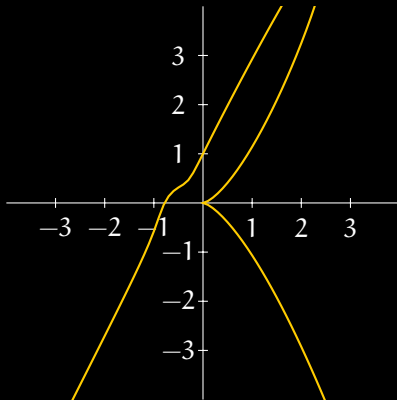
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Key Fact:

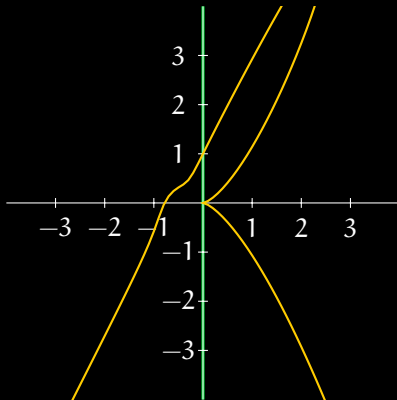
- An element $\alpha \in K$ is integral if and only if all its Puiseux series expansions at all places have nonnegative valuation.

Example: $M = \left(\frac{25}{16}x^3 + 2x^4\right) - x^3y - (2x + 1)y^2 + y^3$

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$x = 0$	y		
1st sol	$1 + 2x + \dots$		
2nd sol	$\frac{5}{4}x^{3/2} - \frac{9}{20}x^{5/2} + \dots$		
3rd sol	$-\frac{5}{4}x^{3/2} + \frac{9}{20}x^{5/2} + \dots$		

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$x = 0$	y	y^2
1st sol	$1 + 2x + \dots$	$1 + 4x + \dots$
2nd sol	$\frac{5}{4}x^{3/2} - \frac{9}{20}x^{5/2} + \dots$	$\frac{25}{16}x^3 + \dots$
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$x = 0$	y	y^2	$y^2 - y$
1st sol	$1 + 2x + \dots$	$1 + 4x + \dots$	$2x + \dots$
2nd sol	$\frac{5}{4}x^{3/2} - \frac{9}{20}x^{5/2} + \dots$	$\frac{25}{16}x^3 + \dots$	$\frac{25}{16}x^3 + \dots$
3rd sol	$-\frac{5}{4}x^{3/2} + \frac{9}{20}x^{5/2} + \dots$	$\frac{25}{16}x^3 + \dots$	$\frac{25}{16}x^3 + \dots$

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The element $\frac{1}{x}(y^2 - y)$ is integral but does not belong to $k[x] + k[x]y + k[x]y^2$.

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The element $\frac{1}{x}(y^2 - y)$ is integral but does not belong to $k[x] + k[x]y + k[x]y^2$.

In fact, an integral basis is given by $\left\{1, y, \frac{1}{x}(y^2 - y)\right\}$.

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- Existence of an element α can be decided by making a suitable ansatz, equating coefficients in the Puiseux series, and solving a linear system.

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Facts: $\alpha = \frac{1}{x-\alpha}(\beta_0 b_0 + \dots + \beta_{i-1} b_{i-1} + b_i)$

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- Termination of the algorithm can be shown by considering a certain polynomial whose degree decreases whenever some b_i is replaced by an α .

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$$\text{disc}(b_0, \dots, b_{d-1})$$

```
\end{old}
```

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\begin{new}
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For any α , such an operator L admits a fundamental system of generalized series solutions of the form

$$\exp(P((x - \alpha)^{1/s})) (x - \alpha)^\nu Q((x - \alpha)^{1/s}, \log(x - \alpha))$$

for some $s \in \mathbb{N}$, $P \in k[t]$, $\nu \in k$, and $Q \in k[[u]][v]$.

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Fact: The integral elements of A form a $k[x]$ -submodule of A .

Consider the algebra $A = k(x)[\partial]/\langle L \rangle$, where $\langle L \rangle = k(x)[\partial]L$ is the left ideal generated by L .

This is a $k(x)$ -vector space generated by $1, \partial, \dots, \partial^{r-1}$.

An element $q_0 + q_1\partial + \dots + q_{r-1}\partial^{r-1} \in A$ is called **integral** if for every series solution f of L at any $\alpha \in k$ the corresponding series

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Fact: The integral elements of A form a $k[x]$ -submodule of A .

Want: A $k[x]$ -module basis of this module.

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$x = 0$	1		
1st sol	$1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \dots$		
2nd sol	$x^{1/2} + \dots$		

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$x = 0$	1	∂	
1st sol	$1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \dots$	$1 + x + \dots$	
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1 and $x\partial$ are integral elements of $k(x)[\partial]/\langle L \rangle$, but ∂ is not.

Example: $L = 2x(2x - 1)\partial^2 - (4x^2 + 1)\partial + (2x + 1)$.

$x = 1/2$	1	$x\partial$	
1st sol	$\frac{1}{2} + (x - \frac{1}{2}) + \dots$	$\frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{4}(x - \frac{1}{2}) + \dots$	
2nd sol	$1 + (x - \frac{1}{2}) + \dots$	$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{2}(x - \frac{1}{2}) + \dots$	

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$x = 1/2$	1	$x\partial$	$2x\partial - 1$
1st sol	$\frac{1}{2} + (x - \frac{1}{2}) + \dots$	$\frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{4}(x - \frac{1}{2}) + \dots$	$\frac{1}{2}(x - \frac{1}{2}) + \dots$
2nd sol	$1 + (x - \frac{1}{2}) + \dots$	$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{2}(x - \frac{1}{2}) + \dots$	$2(x - \frac{1}{2}) + \dots$

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$x = 1/2$	1	$x\partial$	$\frac{1}{2x-1}(2x\partial - 1)$
1st sol	$\frac{1}{2} + (x - \frac{1}{2}) + \dots$	$\frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{4}(x - \frac{1}{2}) + \dots$	$\frac{1}{4} + \dots$
2nd sol	$1 + (x - \frac{1}{2}) + \dots$	$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{2}(x - \frac{1}{2}) + \dots$	$1 + \dots$

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2nd sol	$1 + (x - \frac{1}{2}) + \dots$	$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{2}(x - \frac{1}{2}) + \dots$	$1 + \dots$

$\frac{1}{2x-1}(2x\partial - 1)$ is an integral element of $k(x)[\partial]/\langle L \rangle$, but does not belong to $k[x] + k[x]x\partial$

Main result: The idea of van Hoeij's algorithm carries over from the algebraic case to the D-finite case.

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In view of $\text{ALGEBRAIC} \subseteq \text{D-FINITE}$, our version may be viewed as a generalization of van Hoeij's original algorithm.

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For a solution y of L , let $\omega_0 := 1 \cdot y$, $\omega_1 := \frac{1}{2x-1}(2x\partial - 1) \cdot y$ and consider

$$f = \frac{(4x^2 + 37x - 11)\omega_0 - (28x^3 - 40x^2 + x + 1)\omega_1}{4(x - 1)^2x^2}.$$

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So far, we have not worked out whether this works in general.