# Computing Logarithmic Parts by Evaluation Homomorphisms* 

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#### Abstract

We present two evaluation-based algorithms: one for computing logarithmic parts and the other for determining complete logarithmic parts in transcendental function integration. Empirical results illustrate that the new algorithms are markedly faster than those based respectively on resultants, the contraction of ideals, subresultants and Gröbner bases. They may be used to accelerate Risch's algorithm for transcendental integrands, and help us to compute elementary integrals over logarithmic towers efficiently.


## CCS CONCEPTS

- Computing methodologies $\rightarrow$ Algebraic algorithms.


## KEYWORDS

Additive decomposition, Elementary integral, Evaluation homomorphism, Logarithmic part, Symbolic integration

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

Developing methods for indefinite integration has been active and challenging ever since the invention of calculus. It is neatlyformulated in terms of differential algebra by Ritt in [16] and Rosenlicht in [17, 18]. Risch [14, 15] presents a systematic approach to determining whether an elementary function has an elementary integral. See [13] for commentaries and details. His papers contain a complete algorithm for transcendental elementary integrands, in which computing logarithmic parts is a fundamental building

[^0]block. The algorithm is described, refined, improved and extended in $[1,3,6,11,19,20]$. Its implementations are available in computer algebra systems, e.g. Maple and Mathematica.
The integral of a rational function in $\mathbb{Q}(x)$ is the sum of another rational function and a linear combination of logarithmic functions over $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$. Such a linear combination is called the logarithmic part of the integral. It can be found by expanding a Rothstein-Trager resultant and performing gcd-computation over several algebraic number fields. See [21], [6, §11.5] and [1, §2.4] for details. Two alternative algorithms are presented to avoid gcd-computation over algebraic number fields in [9, 10] and [2], respectively. The former uses the subresultant algorithm. The latter needs to compute a Gröbner basis of some zero-dimensional ideal.

Logarithmic parts, Rothstein-Trager resultants and the abovementioned algorithms are valid for monomial extensions of various kinds due to the results in [20, Theorem 2], [1, §5.6] and [12, Theorem 4]. Moreover, Lemma 6 in [12] leads to another algorithm using the contraction of ideals. Elements of monomial extensions are multivariate polynomials and their fractions. So intermediate expression swell frequently occurs when resultants, subresultants or Gröbner bases are computed in such extensions.
For an element $f$ in a monomial extension, the logarithmic part of its integral can be constructed by the Rothstein-Trager resultant of $f$, which is a univariate polynomial over a differential field. The resultant can be factored as a product $u v$, where $u$ is a monic polynomial with constant coefficients, and each nontrivial monic factor of $v$ has nonconstant coefficients. The logarithmic part is determined by $u$, which is much smaller in size than the resultant. This observation makes it possible to control intermediate expression swell. We present two evaluation-based algorithms for computing logarithmic parts and for determining complete logarithmic parts, respectively. Some preliminary results of this paper are contained in the doctoral dissertation of the third author [7].
We had focused merely on determining complete logarithmic parts in Risch's algorithm. James Davenport raised a question about how to compute logarithmic parts in the same manner when part of this work was presented at the 27th International Conference on Applications of Computer Algebra, Gebze-Istanbul, 2022. His question widened the scope of this project and simplified our results.

The rest of this paper is organised as follows. We review basic notions for symbolic integration in Section 2, and define logarithmic parts in terms of residues in Section 3. Evaluation-based algorithms
and their comparison with known ones are presented in Section 4. With the help of the additive decomposition in [4], we compute elementary integrals over logarithmic towers, and compare our method with the Maple function int in Section 5.

## 2 PRELIMINARIES

Let $F$ be a field. For a nonzero polynomial $p \in F[t], \operatorname{deg}_{t}(p)$ and $\mathrm{lc}_{t}(p)$ stand for its degree and leading coefficient, respectively. We say that $p$ is monic $\operatorname{if} \mathrm{lc}_{t}(p)=1$. The monic associate of $p$ is defined to be $p / \mathrm{lc}_{t}(p)$, which is denoted by $\operatorname{ma}_{t}(p)$. For $p, q \in F[t] \backslash\{0\}$ with $\max \left(\operatorname{deg}_{t}(p), \operatorname{deg}_{t}(q)\right)>0$, their Sylvester resultant is denoted by resultant $t(p, q)$. An element of $F(t)$ is said to be $t$-proper if the degree of its numerator is lower than that of the denominator. In particular, zero is $t$-proper.

A derivation $\delta$ on a field $F$ is an additive map from $F$ to itself such that for all $x, y \in F, \delta(x y)=\delta(x) y+x \delta(y)$. The pair $(F, \delta)$ is called a differential field. An element $c$ of $F$ is called a constant if $\delta(c)=0$. Denote $\{c \in F \mid \delta(c)=0\}$ by $C_{F}$, which is a subfield of $F$. Let $(F, \delta)$ and $(E, \Delta)$ be two differential fields. We say that $E$ is a differential field extension of $F$, or, equivalently, $F$ is a differential subfield of $E$ if $F$ is a subfield of $E$ and $\delta=\left.\Delta\right|_{E}$. We still denote the derivation $\Delta$ on $E$ by $\delta$ when there is no confusion arising.
Notation. Throughout this paper we assume that ( $F,^{\prime}$ ) is a differential field of characteristic zero.

The derivation of $F$ can be uniquely extended to its algebraic closure $\bar{F}$, and $C_{\bar{F}}=\overline{C_{F}}$ by [1, Corollary 3.3.1]. An element $f$ of $F$ is called a logarithmic derivative in $F$ if it is equal to $g^{\prime} / g$ for some nonzero $g \in F$. Denote by $\mathcal{L}(F)$ the linear subspace spanned by all logarithmic derivatives over $C_{F}$. For $f \in \mathcal{L}(F)$, there exist $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n} \in C_{F}$ and $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{n} \in F \backslash\{0\}$ such that $f=\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} g_{i}^{\prime} / g_{i}$. Then the integral of $f$ can be expressed as $\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \log \left(g_{i}\right)$, where $\log \left(g_{i}\right)$ stands for an element in some differential field extension of $F$ whose derivative is equal to $g_{i}^{\prime} / g_{i}$.

Let $t$ belong to a differential field extension of $F$. Then $t$ is primitive if $t^{\prime} \in F$, and $t$ is hyperexponential if $t^{\prime} / t \in F$. We call $t$ a monomial over $F$ if it is transcendental over $F$ and its derivative belongs to $F[t]$.

Let $t$ be a monomial over $F$. Then $F(t)$ is called a monomial extension of $F$, and $t$ is said to be regular if $C_{F}=C_{F(t)}$. The ring $F[t]$ is closed under the derivation ${ }^{\prime}$. A polynomial $p \in F[t]$ is normal if $\operatorname{gcd}\left(p, p^{\prime}\right)=1$, and it is special if $p \mid p^{\prime}$ according to [1, Definition 3.4.2]. Normal polynomials are squarefree. Squarefree polynomials are normal if $t$ is both primitive and regular. An element $f \in F(t)$ is said to be $t$-simple if it is $t$-proper and has a normal denominator. Zero is $t$-simple because 1 is both normal and special.

Example 2.1. Let $C$ be a field of characteristic 0 . Then $(C(x), d / d x)$ is a differential field whose subfield of constants equals $C$.

The subspace $\mathcal{L}(\mathbb{C}(x))$ consists of all $x$-simple functions.
Let $t=\exp (x)$. Then $t+1$ is normal and $t$ is special as polynomials in $\mathbb{C}(x)[t]$. So $1 /(t+1)$ is $t$-simple but $1 / t$ is not.

For a nonzero polynomial $p \in F[z]$, we can uniquely decompose $p$ as the product of $p_{S}$ and $p_{N}$, where $p_{S}$ is a monic polynomial in $C_{F}[z]$ and $p_{N}$ is either an element of $F$ or a polynomial whose monic factors have nonconstant coefficients. Regard $z$ as a constant indeterminate. Then $p_{S}$ is special, and every squarefree factor of $p_{N}$
is normal. We call $p_{S}$ and $p_{N}$ the special and non-special parts of $p$, respectively.

Example 2.2. Let $F$ be given in Example 2.1, and $z$ be an indeterminate over $F$. We set $z^{\prime}=0$. Then $F[z]$ is a differential ring. Monic special polynomials in $F[z]$ are the elements of $C[z]$.

Let $p=x z^{2}-z / x+z-x z+1 / x-1$. Then its special and non-special parts are $z-1$ and $x z-1 / x+1$, respectively. They can be computed by either Algorithm SplitFactor in [1, §3.5] or by taking the content and primitive part of the numerator of $p$ with respect to $x$.

## 3 LOGARITHMIC PARTS

Let $t$ be a monomial over $F$, and $f \in F(t)$ be nonzero and $t$-simple. Write $f$ as $a / b$, where $a, b \in F[t]$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$. For a root $\alpha$ of $b$, the residue of $f$ at $\alpha$ is defined to be

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{residue}_{t}(f, \alpha):=\frac{a(\alpha)}{b^{\prime}(\alpha)} \in \bar{F} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The normality of $b$ implies $b^{\prime}(\alpha) \neq 0$. The residue is independent of the choices of denominators by a straightforward verification. Moreover, $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$ implies residue $t(f, \alpha) \neq 0$. Our definition of residues is consistent with [1, Definition 4.4.1], which defines a residue as a natural projection. It appears that canonical images are more convenient to describe algorithms.

Let $\beta$ be a residue of $f$ and $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}$ be the distinct roots of $b$. The number of the appearances of $\beta$ in the sequence:

$$
\operatorname{residue}_{t}\left(f, \alpha_{1}\right), \operatorname{residue}_{t}\left(f, \alpha_{2}\right), \ldots, \operatorname{residue}_{t}\left(f, \alpha_{k}\right)
$$

is called the multiplicity of $\beta$ in [9]. Let $z$ be a constant indeterminate over $F(t)$. The Rothstein-Trager resultant of $f$ is defined to be resultant $_{t}\left(a-z b^{\prime}, b\right)$ and is denoted by $R_{f}$. It is a nonzero polynomial in $F[z]$ by the assumption that $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(b, b^{\prime}\right)=1$.

The following lemma collects relevant results in [1, Theorem 4.4.3] and [9, Proposition 2]. It also describes the degree and leading coefficient of a Rothstein-Trager resultant.

Lemma 3.1. Let $t$ be a monomial over $F$, and $f$ be a nonzero and $t$-simple element of $F(t)$. Write $f$ as $a / b$ with $a, b \in F[t]$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$. Assume that $k=\operatorname{deg}_{t}(b)$ and that $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k} \in \bar{F}$ are the roots of $b$. Then the following assertions hold.
(i) $f=\sum_{i=1}^{k} \operatorname{residue}_{t}\left(f, \alpha_{i}\right) \frac{\left(t-\alpha_{i}\right)^{\prime}}{t-\alpha_{i}}+u$ for some $u \in F[t]$.
(ii) Let $\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{\ell}$ be the distinct residues of $f$ with respective multiplicities $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{\ell}$, and let $g_{j}$ be the monic greatest common divisor of $a-\beta_{j} b^{\prime}$ and $b$ in $F\left(\beta_{j}\right)[t]$ for $j=1, \ldots, \ell$. With $u$ given in ( $i$ ), we have

$$
f=\sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \beta_{j} \frac{g_{j}^{\prime}}{g_{j}}+u \quad \text { and } \quad m_{j}=\operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(g_{j}\right)
$$

(iii) ${ }^{1} \operatorname{deg}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)=k$. With the $\beta_{j}$ and $m_{j}$ in (ii), we have

$$
R_{f}=(-1)^{n} \mathrm{lc}_{t}(b)^{d} \text { resultant }_{t}\left(b^{\prime}, b\right) \prod_{j=1}^{\ell}\left(z-\beta_{j}\right)^{m_{j}}
$$

$$
\text { where } n=k(d+1) \text { and } d=\operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(a-z b^{\prime}\right)-\operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(b^{\prime}\right) .
$$

[^1]Proof. (i) The irreducible partial fraction decomposition of $f$ is

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{k} \operatorname{residue}_{t}\left(f, \alpha_{i}\right) \frac{\gamma_{i}}{t-\alpha_{i}}, \quad \text { where } \gamma_{i}=\left.\left(t-\alpha_{i}\right)^{\prime}\right|_{t=\alpha_{i}}
$$

by (1) and a direct calculation. Then

$$
u=\sum_{i=1}^{k} \operatorname{residue}_{t}\left(f, \alpha_{i}\right) \frac{\gamma_{i}-\left(t-\alpha_{i}\right)^{\prime}}{t-\alpha_{i}}
$$

So $u \in \bar{F}[t]$ by $\left(t-\alpha_{i}\right) \mid \gamma_{i}-\left(t-\alpha_{i}\right)^{\prime}$ for all $i$ with $1 \leq i \leq k$. Moreover, $u \in F[t]$ because $u$ is symmetric in $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}$ over $F$.
(ii) For all $j$ with $1 \leq j \leq \ell$, we let

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{j}=\prod_{\operatorname{residue}_{t}\left(f, \alpha_{i}\right)=\beta_{j}}\left(t-\alpha_{i}\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (i), $f=\sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \beta_{j} h_{j}^{\prime} / h_{j}+u$. Note that $h_{j}=g_{j}$, because they are monic, squarefree and have the same roots. So (ii) holds.
(iii) Let $\lambda=\mathrm{lc}_{t}(b)$. Expressing $R_{f}$ by the roots of $b$ yields

$$
R_{f}=(-1)^{k e} \lambda^{e} \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(a\left(\alpha_{i}\right)-z b^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{i}\right)\right)
$$

where $e=\operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(a-z b^{\prime}\right)$. By (1), we have

$$
R_{f}=(-1)^{k e+k} \lambda^{e}\left(\prod_{i=1}^{k} b^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{i}\right)\right)\left(\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(z-\operatorname{residue}_{t}\left(f, \alpha_{i}\right)\right)\right)
$$

Since $b$ is normal, $\operatorname{deg}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)=k=\operatorname{deg}_{t}(b)$. Moreover,

$$
R_{f}=(-1)^{k e+k} \lambda^{e}\left(\prod_{i=1}^{k} b^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{i}\right)\right)\left(\prod_{j=1}^{\ell}\left(z-\beta_{j}\right)^{m_{j}}\right)
$$

which, together with

$$
\operatorname{resultant}_{t}\left(b^{\prime}, b\right)=(-1)^{k \operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(b^{\prime}\right)} \lambda^{\operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(b^{\prime}\right)}\left(\prod_{i=1}^{k} b^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{i}\right)\right)
$$

implies that (iii) holds.
With the notation introduced in Lemma 3.1, we assume further that $\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{s} \in \bar{C}_{F}$ and $\beta_{s+1}, \ldots, \beta_{\ell} \notin \bar{C}_{F}$. Then

$$
f=\sum_{j=1}^{s} \beta_{j} \frac{g_{j}^{\prime}}{g_{j}}+\sum_{j=s+1}^{\ell} \beta_{j} \frac{g_{j}^{\prime}}{g_{j}}+u
$$

for some $u \in F[t]$ by Lemma 3.1 (ii). Then

$$
\int f=\sum_{j=1}^{s} \beta_{j} \log \left(g_{j}\right)+\sum_{j=s+1}^{\ell} \int \beta_{j} \frac{g_{j}^{\prime}}{g_{j}}+\int u
$$

Definition 3.2. We call $\sum_{j=1}^{s} \beta_{j} \log \left(g_{j}\right)$ the logarithmic part of the integral of $f$ with respect to $t$. When $s=\ell$, the logarithmic part is said to be complete.

Proposition 3.3. Let $C=C_{F}$, t be a monomial over $F$, and $f$ be a nonzero and $t$-simple element of $F(t)$. Then the following assertions are equivalent.
(i) The integral off has a complete logarithmic part.
(ii) All residues of $f$ belong to $\bar{C}$.
(iii) All roots of $R_{f}$ belong to $\bar{C}$.
(iv) The monic associate of $R_{f}$ belongs to $C[z]$.

Assume further that $t$ is primitive and regular over $F$. Then the above assertions are equivalent to each of the following assertions.
(v) The integral of $f$ is equal to its logarithmic part.
(vi) The integral of $f$ is elementary over $F(t)$.

Proof. The equivalences among (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv) are immediate from Lemma 3.1.

In the rest of this proof, we set $f=a / b$, where $a, b \in F[t]$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$. Furthermore, let $\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{\ell}$ be the distinct residues of $f$, where $\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{s} \in \bar{C}$ and $\beta_{s+1}, \ldots, \beta_{\ell} \notin \bar{C}$. Furthermore, let $t$ be primitive and regular over $F$.

Since $t$ is primitive, $(t-\alpha)^{\prime} /(t-\alpha)$ is $t$-simple for every $\alpha \in \bar{F}$. By Lemma 3.1 (i) and (ii), $f=\sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \beta_{j} g_{j}^{\prime} / g_{j}$, where $g_{j}$ is the monic greatest common divisor of $a-\beta_{j} b^{\prime}$ and $b$. Then (ii) implies (v) due to $s=\ell$. Assume that (v) holds. So does (vi), because the integral of $f$ is equal to $\sum_{j=1}^{s} \beta_{j} \log \left(g_{j}\right)$. Assume that (vi) holds. Then (vi) implies (ii) by [12, Theorem 3 (ii)],

Theorem 3 in [12] corrects Theorem 5.6.1 in [1] by adding an assumption on regularity of $t$. Such an assumption is also indispensable in the above proposition, as illustrated below.

Example 3.4. Let $F=\mathbb{C}(x)$ and $t$ be a primitive monomial with $t^{\prime}=0$. Then $t$ is not regular. It is direct to see that $f(t)=t /\left(t^{2}+x\right)$ is $t$-simple and that $R_{f}=z^{2}+x$. So none of the residues of $f$ is a constant. But $\int f=t \log \left(t^{2}+x\right)$, which is elementary over $F(t)$.

## 4 ALGORITHMS

This section consists of three parts. First, we review known algorithms for computing logarithmic parts. Second, we present new algorithms using evaluation homomorphisms. At last, empirical results are given.

In this section, we let $C=C_{F}$, $t$ be a monomial over $F$, and $f$ be a nonzero and $t$-simple element of $F(t)$. To describe algorithms concisely, we further set $f=a / b$, where $a, b \in F[t]$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$. Moreover, let $z$ be a constant indeterminate over $F(t)$. For an irreducible polynomial $p \in F[z]$, the monic greatest common divisor of $a-z b^{\prime}$ and $b$ over $F[z] /(p)$ is denoted by $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a-z b^{\prime}, b\right) \bmod p$.

All the algorithms for computing logarithmic parts have the same input and output. Their input consists of a monomial extension $F(t)$ and an integrand $f \in F(t)$, and the output consists of the logarithmic part of the integral of $f$ with respect to $t$ and a boolean value indicating whether the logarithmic part is complete.

The first algorithm, named RT, expands $R_{f}$ and computes the special part of $\mathrm{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$ in $F[z]$. It then computes irreducible factors $p_{1}, \ldots p_{k}$ of the special part over $C$, and $g_{i}(z, t)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(a-z b^{\prime}, b\right)$ $\bmod p_{i}, i=1, \ldots, k$. Then the logarithmic part is equal to

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{p_{i}\left(\alpha_{i, j}\right)=0} \alpha_{i, j} \log \left(g_{i}\left(\alpha_{i, j}, t\right)\right)
$$

By Proposition 3.3, the logarithmic part is complete if and only if $\mathrm{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$ belongs to $C[z]$. Algorithm RT is essentially the same as Algorithm ResidueReduce based on Rothstein-Trager resultant reduction in [1, §5.6].

The second algorithm, named CI, is based on [12, Lemma 6], which asserts that the squarefree part of $\mathrm{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$ is the monic generator of $\left\langle a-z b^{\prime}, b\right\rangle \cap F[z]$, where $\left\langle a-z b^{\prime}, b\right\rangle$ stands for the
algebraic ideal generated by $a-z b^{\prime}$ and $b$ in $F[z, t]$. By [12, Lemma 5], the ideal has a Gröbner basis $\{b, z-p a\}$ with respect to the lexicographic order $t<z$, where $p b^{\prime} \equiv 1 \bmod b$. The Gröbner basis enables us to construct the generator by linear algebra. Then we proceed as Algorithm RT with the generator instead of $\mathrm{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$.

The third algorithm, named $\mathbf{S R}$, is essentially the same as Algorithm ResidueReduce based on Lazard-Rioboo-Rothstein-Trager resultant reduction in [1, §5.6]. It computes a subresultant sequence of $a-z b^{\prime}$ and $b$ with respect to $t$, and $R_{f}$. Then the algorithm extracts the logarithmic part from the subresultant sequence by a carefullydesigned process involving splitting factorization, squarefree factorization and gcd-computation in $F[z]$. But gcd-computation over any algebraic extension of $C$ is not needed.

The fourth algorithm, named GB, is described in [12, Theorem 8]. It computes a minimal Gröbner basis of $\left\langle a-z b^{\prime}, b\right\rangle$ with respect to the lexicographic ordering $z<t$ by the half-extended Euclidean algorithm and linear algebra according to remarks on [12, pp. 1294-1295]. Then the logarithmic part can be constructed by taking leading coefficients and performing exact division. Gcdcomputation over any algebraic extension of $C$ is not needed either.

Elimination techniques used in the above algorithms cause intermediate expression swell, as illustrated below.

Example 4.1. Let $F=\mathbb{Q}(x)$ and $t^{\prime}=1 / x$. Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
a= & \left(64 x^{4}+24 x^{3}-24 x^{2}+6 x\right) t^{2}+\left(32 x^{4}+88 x^{3}-40 x^{2}+8 x-1\right) t \\
& +16 x^{3}+32 x^{2}-22 x+2,
\end{aligned}
$$

and $b$ be the product of $x(2 x-1)\left(4 x^{2}+8 x-1\right),(2 x-1) t+1$ and $\left(4 x^{2}+8 x-1\right) t^{2}+(4 x+4) t+1$. Then $f=a / b$ is $t$-simple. Using Algorithm RT, we find

$$
R_{f}=p \cdot \underbrace{\left(z+\frac{1}{4}\right) \cdot\left(z^{2}-\frac{1}{4} z-\frac{1}{16}\right)}_{\operatorname{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)}
$$

where $p \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is of degree 27 and is irrelevant to the logarithmic part. The integral of $f$ has a complete logarithmic part

$$
-\frac{1}{4} \log \left(t+\frac{1}{2 x-1}\right)+\sum_{\beta^{2}-\frac{1}{4} \beta-\frac{1}{16}=0} \beta \log \left(t+\frac{2 x-8 \beta+3}{4 x^{2}+8 x-1}\right)
$$

Applying Algorithm CI to $f$, we need to compute the inverse of $b^{\prime}$ modulo $b$. It is a quadratic polynomial in $t$ whose coefficients are fractions of dense polynomials in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ with degrees up to 10. Similarly, $R_{f}$ is computed in Algorithm $\mathbf{S R}$, and the same modular inverse is computed in Algorithm GB.

On the other hand, for almost all $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$,

$$
R_{f}(\alpha, z)=\operatorname{resultant}_{t}\left(a(\alpha, t)-z b^{\prime}(\alpha, t), b(\alpha, t)\right)
$$

Moreover, $R_{f}$ and $R_{f}(\alpha, z)$ have the same monic associate with respect to $z$ whenever $\alpha$ is not a root of $p$. So a substitution for $x$ may enable us to compute the monic associate by operations in $\mathbb{Q}[z, t]$.

This example motivates us to compute the logarithmic part without fully expanding $R_{f}$. Our idea is to choose a subring of $F[z, t]$ and a homomorphism from the subring to $C[z, t]$ properly. Then we compute the homomorphic image of $R_{f}$ in $C[z, t]$. Proposition 4.7 to be given in the sequel will guide us to find the logarithmic part
by the image, factorization over $C$ and gcd-computation over some algebraic extensions of $C$.

To this end, we impose some restrictions on $F$. From now on, let $F$ be the field of rational functions over $C$ in several indeterminates, say $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}$. For example, $C(x, \log (x))$ is understood as $C\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)$, where $y_{1}=x$ and $y_{2}=\log (x)$. The numerator and denominator of an element in $F(t)$ are taken to be two coprime polynomials in $C\left[y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}, t\right]$, respectively.

Definition 4.2. Let $\mathbf{v} \in C^{n}$ and the multiplicative subset

$$
S_{\mathbf{v}}=\left\{p \in C\left[y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right] \mid p(\mathbf{v}) \neq 0\right\}
$$

We call

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi_{\mathbf{v}}: S_{\mathbf{v}}^{-1} C\left[y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}, z, t\right] & \longrightarrow C[z, t] \\
g\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}, z, t\right) & \mapsto g(\mathbf{v}, z, t)
\end{aligned}
$$

the (evaluation) homomorphism for $\mathbf{v}$. We say that $\phi_{\mathbf{v}}$ is lucky for $f$ if the following three conditions are satisfied:
(i) the denominator of $b^{\prime}$ belongs to $S_{\mathrm{v}}$,
(ii) $\mathrm{lc}_{t}(a), \mathrm{lc}_{t}(b), \mathrm{lc}_{t}\left(b^{\prime}\right) \notin \operatorname{ker}\left(\phi_{\mathrm{v}}\right)$,
(iii) $\operatorname{resultant}_{t}\left(b^{\prime}, b\right) \notin \operatorname{ker}\left(\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\right)$.

REMARK 4.3. There is an $(n-1)$-dimensional algebraic set in $C^{n}$ containing every point $\mathbf{v} \in C^{n}$ such that $\phi_{\mathbf{v}}$ is unlucky for $f$.

The first and second conditions can be verified easily. The next lemma provides a way to verify the third.

Lemma 4.4. Let $f \in F(t)$ be nonzero and $t$-simple. Let $\mathbf{v} \in C^{n}$ satisfy ( $i$ ) and (ii) in Definition 4.2. Then $\phi_{\mathbf{v}}$ is a lucky homomorphism for $f$ if and only if $\operatorname{deg}_{z}\left(\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(R_{f}\right)\right)=\operatorname{deg}_{t} b$.

Proof. Let $k=\operatorname{deg}_{t}(b)$. By Definition 4.2 (i), $\phi_{\mathbf{v}}$ is applicable to both $b^{\prime}$ and $R_{f}$. By Lemma 3.1 (iii),

$$
R_{f}= \pm \operatorname{resultant}_{t}\left(b, b^{\prime}\right) \operatorname{lc}_{t}(b)^{m} z^{k}+\text { terms of degrees }<k
$$

for some nonnegative integer $m$. Thus, Definition 4.2 (ii) implies that $\operatorname{deg}_{z}\left(\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(R_{f}\right)\right)=k$ if and only if Definition 4.2 (iii) holds.

Below are some useful properties of lucky homomorphisms.
Lemma 4.5. Let $\phi_{\mathbf{v}}$ be a lucky homomorphism for $f$. Then the following assertions hold.
(i) $\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(R_{f}\right)=\operatorname{resultant}_{t}\left(\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(a-z b^{\prime}\right), \phi_{\mathbf{v}}(b)\right)$.
(ii) $\phi_{\mathrm{v}}\left(\operatorname{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)\right)=\operatorname{ma}_{z}\left(\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(R_{f}\right)\right)$.
(iii) Let $p_{S}$ be the special part of $\operatorname{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$. Then $p_{S}$ is a factor of $\mathrm{ma}_{z}\left(\phi_{\mathrm{v}}\left(R_{f}\right)\right)$ in $C[z]$.
Proof. (i) By Definition 4.2 (ii), we have
$\operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(a-z b^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(a-z b^{\prime}\right)\right)$ and $\operatorname{deg}_{t}(b)=\operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(\phi_{\mathbf{v}}(b)\right)$.
Then (i) holds, because the determinant formula for $R_{f}$ and that for resultant $_{t}\left(\phi_{\mathbf{V}}\left(a-z b^{\prime}\right), \phi_{\mathbf{v}}(b)\right)$ have the same order.
(ii) Let $q$ be the denominator of $b^{\prime}$. The denominator of $\mathrm{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$ divides a power of resultant $t_{t}\left(b^{\prime}, b\right) \operatorname{lc}_{t}(b) q$ by Lemma 3.1 (iii). It follows from Definition 4.2 that $\mathrm{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right) \in S_{\mathbf{v}}^{-1} C\left[y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}, z\right]$, that is, $\phi_{\mathrm{v}}$ is applicable to $\mathrm{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$. Consequently,

$$
\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(R_{f}\right)=\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(\mathrm{lc}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)\right) \phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(\operatorname{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)\right)
$$

Then (ii) holds by taking the monic parts of the both sides of the above equality.
(iii) Let $p_{N}$ be the non-special part of $\operatorname{maz}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$. We have that $p_{N} \in S_{\mathrm{v}}^{-1} C\left[y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right][z]$, because $p_{S}$ belongs to $C[z]$. It follows from $\operatorname{ma}_{z}(f)=p_{S} p_{N}$ and (ii) that

$$
\operatorname{ma}_{z}\left(\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(R_{f}\right)\right)=\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(p_{S}\right) \phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(p_{N}\right)=p_{S} \phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(p_{N}\right)
$$

Therefore, $p_{S} \mid \operatorname{ma}_{z}\left(\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(R_{f}\right)\right)$.
Example 4.6. In the situation described in Example 4.1, we further let $C=\mathbb{Q}$, and $y_{1}=x$. Then $\phi_{1}$ is lucky for $f$. Moreover,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\phi_{1}(a)=70 t^{2}+87 t+28, \phi_{1}(b)=11(t+1)\left(11 t^{2}+8 t+1\right) \\
\text { and } \phi_{1}\left(b^{\prime}\right)=957 t^{3}+1690 t^{2}+925 t+148 . \text { By Lemma } 4.5(i), \\
\phi_{1}\left(R_{f}\right)=\operatorname{resultant}_{t}\left(\phi_{1}(a)-z \phi_{1}\left(b^{\prime}\right), \phi_{1}(b)\right),
\end{gathered}
$$

which is $363170005(4 z+1)\left(16 z^{2}-4 z-1\right)$. Its monic associate is equal to the special part of $\mathrm{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$ by Lemma 4.5 (ii).

The last step towards our evaluation-based algorithms consists in forming a logarithmic part and deciding whether the logarithmic part is complete.

Proposition 4.7. Let $f=a / b \in F(t)$ be nonzero and $t$-simple. Assume that $p \in C[z]$ is the image of $\mathrm{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$ under a lucky homomorphism for $f$, and that the irreducible factorization of $p$ over $C$ is $p_{1}^{n_{1}} \cdots p_{d}^{n_{d}}$. Set $g_{i}(z, t)$ to be $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a-z b^{\prime}, b\right) \bmod p_{i}, i=1, \ldots, d$. Then the logarithmic part of the integral of $f$ is

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{d} \sum_{p_{i}(\beta)=0} \beta \log \left(g_{i}(\beta, t)\right)
$$

where $\log \left(g_{i}(\beta, t)\right)$ is set to be 0 if $g_{i}(\beta, t)=1$. Moreover, we have three equivalent assertions:
(i) the integral off has a complete logarithmic part,
(ii) $\sum_{i=1}^{d} \operatorname{deg}_{z}\left(p_{i}\right) \operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(g_{i}\right)=\operatorname{deg}_{t}(b)$,
(iii) $\operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(g_{i}\right)=n_{i}, i=1, \ldots, d$.

Proof. Let $q_{S}$ and $q_{N}$ be, respectively, the special and nonspecial parts of $\mathrm{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$. By Lemma 4.5 (iii), $q_{S}$ is a factor of $p$. So we further assume that the irreducible factors of $q_{S}$ are $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{e}$, and that each of $p_{e+1}, \ldots, p_{d}$ is coprime with $q_{S}$. Since every monic factor of $q_{N}$ has a nonconstant coefficient, each of $p_{e+1}, \ldots, p_{d}$ is coprime with $\operatorname{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$. In other words, none of the $p_{e+1}, \ldots, p_{d}$ divides $R_{f}$. It follows that $g_{j}(z, t)=1$ for all $j$ with $e+1 \leq j \leq d$. Then the logarithmic part of the integral of $f$ is

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{e} \sum_{p_{i}(\beta)=0} \beta \log \left(g_{i}(\beta, t)\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{d} \sum_{p_{i}(\beta)=0} \beta \log \left(g_{i}(\beta, t)\right)
$$

It remains to show that (i), (ii) and (iii) are equivalent.
By Lemma 3.1 (ii) and (iii), $q_{S}=\prod_{i=1}^{e} \prod_{p_{i}(\beta)=0}(z-\beta)^{\operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(g_{i}\right)}$. It follows from Lemma 4.5 (iii) and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(p_{j}, R_{f}\right)=1$ with $e+1 \leq j \leq d$ that $q_{S} \mid p_{1}^{n_{1}} \cdots p_{e}^{n_{e}}$. In addition, $g_{j}=1$ for $j$ with $e+1 \leq j \leq d$. So

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(g_{i}\right) \leq n_{i}, \quad i=1, \ldots, d \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, Lemma 3.1 (iii) and Lemma 4.4 imply that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{deg}_{t}(b)=\operatorname{deg}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)=\operatorname{deg}_{z}(p) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Assume that (i) holds. Then $e$ and $d$ are equal. So $p=\mathrm{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$ and $q_{S}=\operatorname{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$ since $\operatorname{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right) \in C[z]$. Consequently, we have that $\operatorname{deg}_{z}(p)=\operatorname{deg}_{z}\left(q_{S}\right)$, which, together with (4), implies (ii).

Assume that (ii) holds. By (4), we have

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{d} \operatorname{deg}_{z}\left(p_{i}\right) \operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(g_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{d} \operatorname{deg}_{z}\left(p_{i}\right) n_{i}
$$

So $\operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(g_{i}\right)=n_{i}$ for all $i$ with $1 \leq i \leq d$ by (3), and thus (iii) holds.
Assume that (iii) holds. Then $\operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(g_{i}\right)>0$ for all $i$ with $1 \leq i \leq d$. So $d=e$. By Lemma 3.1 (ii), every root of $p_{i}$ is a residue of $f$ with multiplicity $n_{i}$. It follows from Lemma 3.1 (iii) that $p$ is a divisor of $R_{f}$. Hence, $p=\mathrm{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$ by (4) and $\mathrm{lc}_{t}(p)=1$. Therefore, (i) holds by Proposition 3.3 (iv).

We are ready to present an evaluation-based algorithm for computing logarithmic parts.

```
Algorithm EH.
    Input: a monomial extension \(F(t)\),
        a nonzero and \(t\)-simple element \(f \in F(t)\)
    Output: \(L\), the logarithmic part of \(\int f\), and \(B \in\{0,1\}\) such
        that \(B=1\) if \(L\) is complete, and \(B=0\) otherwise
    1. \(a \leftarrow\) numerator of \(f, b \leftarrow\) denominator of \(f, w \leftarrow 0\)
    2. [choose a lucky homomorphism]
        for \(i\) from 1 to 10 do
        choose a point \(\mathbf{v} \in C^{n}\) randomly
        if \(\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\) satisfies both (i) and (ii) in Definition 4.2 then
            \(r \leftarrow \operatorname{resultant}_{t}\left(\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(a-z b^{\prime}\right), \phi_{\mathbf{v}}(b)\right)\)
            if \(\operatorname{deg}_{z}(r)=\operatorname{deg}_{t}(b)\) then
                \(p \leftarrow \operatorname{ma}_{z}(r), w \leftarrow 1\), break the loop
            end if
        end if
        end do
    3. [handle the unlucky case] if \(w=0\) then return the result
        of Algorithm RT( \(F(t), f)\) end if
    4. find the irreducible factors \(p_{1}, \ldots, p_{d}\) of \(p\) over \(C\)
    5. [form a logarithmic part] \(B \leftarrow 0, L \leftarrow 0, m \leftarrow 0\),
        for \(i\) from 1 to \(d\) do
            \(g_{i}(z, t) \leftarrow \operatorname{gcd}\left(a-z b^{\prime}, b\right) \bmod p_{i}\)
            \(L \leftarrow L+\sum_{p_{i}(\beta)=0} \beta \log \left(g_{i}(\beta, t)\right)\)
            \(m \leftarrow m+\operatorname{deg}_{z}\left(p_{i}\right) \operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(g_{i}\right)\)
        end do
    6. [check completeness] if \(m=\operatorname{deg}_{t}(b)\) then \(B \leftarrow 1\) end if
    return \(L, B\)
```

In step 2 of Algorithm EH, we try to choose a lucky homomorphism for $f$. The verification of lucky homomorphisms in step 2 is correct by Lemma 4.4. If we have failed to choose any lucky homomorphisms for ten times, then the algorithm will end by calling Algorithm $\mathbf{R T}(F(t), f)$ to compute the logarithmic part in step 3. In fact, Algorithms CI, SR and GB can also be applied in step 3. We choose Algorithm RT, because it performs better than other algorithms in our experiments. The correctness of steps 4, 5 and 6 is immediate from Proposition 4.7.

We are not aware of any way to find a point $\mathbf{v} \in C^{n}$ such that $\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(\operatorname{resultant}_{t}\left(b, b^{\prime}\right)\right) \neq 0$ without expanding the resultant. So we opt for choosing points in $C^{n}$ randomly and verify if there is a point leading to a lucky homomorphism. This strategy succeeds with probability one by Remark 4.3. We choose an evaluation point for
ten times without any particular reason. Usually, the first choice leads to a lucky homomorphism.

Next, we determine complete logarithmic parts. By Proposition 3.3, we modify Algorithms RT, CI, SR and GB as follows. Whenever $\mathrm{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$ or its squarefree part is obtained, we check whether it belongs to $C[z]$. If the answer is negative, then "false" is returned. Otherwise, they proceed in the same way. The modified algorithms are named $\mathbf{R T}^{*}, \mathbf{C I}^{*}, \mathbf{S R}^{*}$ and $\mathbf{G B}^{*}$, respectively.

An evaluation-based algorithm, named $\mathbf{E H}^{*}$, determines complete logarithmic parts. It can be regarded as Algorithm EH equipped with some early detections of the nonexistence of complete logarithmic parts. In its pseudo-code, "[]" stands for the empty list, len $(S)$ for the length of a list $S$, and $S[i]$ for the $i$ th element of $S$.

```
Algorithm EH*
    Input: a monomial extension \(F(t)\),
            a nonzero and \(t\)-simple element \(f \in F(t)\)
Output: false if \(f\) has no complete logarithmic part;
            the complete logarithmic part of \(\int f\), otherwise
    1. \(a \leftarrow\) numerator of \(f, b \leftarrow\) denominator of \(f, S \leftarrow\) []
    2. [choose lucky homomorphisms]
        for \(i\) from 1 to 10 do
        choose a point \(\mathbf{v} \in C^{n}\) randomly
        if \(\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\) satisfies both (i) and (ii) in Definition 4.2 then
                \(r \leftarrow \operatorname{resultant}_{t}\left(\phi_{\mathbf{v}}\left(a-z b^{\prime}\right), \phi_{\mathbf{v}}(b)\right)\)
                if \(\operatorname{deg}_{z}(r)=\operatorname{deg}_{t}(b)\) then append \(\operatorname{ma}_{z}(r)\) to \(S\)
                    if len \((S)=2\) then break the loop end if
                end if
            end if
        end do
    3. [handle the unlucky case] if len \((S)<2\) then return the
        result of Algorithm \(\mathbf{R T}^{*}(F(t), f)\) end if
    4. [detect the nonexistence of complete logarithmic parts]
        if \(S[1] \neq S[2]\) then return FALSE end if
    5. compute the irreducible factorization \(p_{1}^{n_{1}} \cdots p_{d}^{n_{d}}\) of \(S[1]\)
        over \(C\)
    6. [form the complete logarithmic part] set \(L \leftarrow 0\)
        for \(i\) from 1 to \(d\) do
            \(g_{i}(z, t) \leftarrow \operatorname{gcd}\left(a-z b^{\prime}, b\right) \bmod p_{i}\)
            [detect the nonexistence of complete logarithmic parts]
            if \(\operatorname{deg}_{t}\left(g_{i}\right) \neq n_{i}\) then return FALSE end if
            \(L \leftarrow L+\sum_{p_{i}(\beta)=0} \beta \log \left(g_{i}(\beta, t)\right)\)
        end do
    7. return \(L\)
```

In step 2 of Algorithm $\mathbf{E H}^{*}$, we try to choose two lucky homomorphisms. The result of Algorithm $\mathbf{R T}^{*}(F(t), f)$ is returned in step 3 if we have failed to choose for ten times. Assume that two lucky homomorphisms are found. Note that $\operatorname{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$ is invariant under every lucky homomorphism if it belongs to $C[z]$. So Lemma 4.5 (ii) implies that the integral does not have any complete logarithmic part if $S[1]$ and $S[2]$ are unequal. Usually, they are unequal if $\operatorname{ma}_{z}\left(R_{f}\right)$ has a nonconstant coefficient. Thus, the algorithm filters out most of the integrands that have no complete logarithmic part in step 4. The correctness of steps 5 and 6 follows from Proposition 4.7. Moreover, the nonexistence of complete logarithmic parts
is disclosed as long as a degree constraint is not satisfied in step 6 by Proposition 4.7 (iii).

We now present empirical results. Maple scripts of the above algorithms and testing examples are available at
https://haodu007.github.io/publication/logpart-paper.
All timings given in the rest of this section are Maple CPU time and measured in seconds, where " $\varnothing$ " means that Maple CPU time exceeds an hour. Experiments were carried out with Maple 2021 on a computer with imac CPU 3.6GHZ, Intel Core i9, 16G memory.

Our experimental data is generated with the help of the Maple command randpoly. Each suite of data contains several groups. A group is indexed by an integer $i$ and consists of five examples.
For the algorithms to compute logarithmic parts, a suite of data was obtained as follows. We set $F=\mathbb{Q}\left(x, t_{1}\right)$, where $t_{1}=\log (x)$. Let $t_{2}=\log (\log (x))$. Then $t_{2}$ was a logarithmic monomial over $F$. We generated three dense polynomials $u_{i}, v_{i}$ and $w_{i}$ of respective total degrees $\lfloor i / 2\rfloor\lfloor i / 2\rfloor$, and $\lceil i / 2\rceil$ in $x, t_{1}$ and $t_{2}$. Set $f_{i}$ to be the $t_{2}$-proper part of $2 u_{i}^{\prime} / u_{i}-3 v_{i}^{\prime} / v_{i}+1 / w_{i}$. Then $f_{i}$ had two constant residues 2 and -3 . The average timings for $i=6,7, \ldots, 12$ are summarized in Figure 1.

| $i$ | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| EH | 0.08 | 0.07 | 0.10 | 0.19 | 0.27 | 0.45 | 0.65 |
| RT | 0.10 | 0.17 | 0.35 | 1.20 | 2.52 | 15.13 | 32.38 |
| CI | 105.21 | 511.76 | 1691.64 | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ |
| SR | 118.25 | 276.02 | 2073.99 | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ |
| GB | 547.97 | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ |

## Figure 1: Logarithmic parts (rational residues)

Next, we show the timings for the algorithms to determine complete logarithmic parts.

We set $F=\mathbb{Q}(x)$ and $t=\exp \left(-x^{2} / 2\right)$. Then $t$ was a hyperexponential monomial over $F$. We generated two dense polynomials $u_{i}$ and $v_{i}$ of total degrees $i$ in $x$ and $t$. Set $f_{i}$ to be the $t$-proper part of $4 u_{i}^{\prime} / u_{i}-6 v_{i}^{\prime} / v_{i}$. The residues of $f_{i}$ were 4 and -6 . Figure 2 contains the average timings for $i=11,12, \ldots, 16$.

| $i$ | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| EH $^{*}$ | 0.11 | 0.14 | 0.17 | 0.22 | 0.28 | 0.34 |
| RT $^{*}$ | 0.29 | 0.42 | 0.55 | 0.89 | 1.14 | 1.71 |
| CI $^{*}$ | 26.84 | 52.48 | 94.58 | 174.27 | 324.75 | 624.26 |
| SR $^{*}$ | 643.95 | 1505.84 | 3219.16 | $\varnothing$ | $\varnothing$ | $\varnothing$ |
| GB $^{*}$ | 114.86 | 205.93 | 326.97 | 632.11 | 1073.48 | $\varnothing$ |

Figure 2: Complete logarithmic parts (rational residues)
At last, we set $F=\mathbb{Q}\left(x, t_{1}\right)$ with $t_{1}=\log (x)$. Let $t_{2}$ be the integral of $1 / t_{1}$. Then $t_{2}$ was a primitive monomial over $F$. Let $p=5 z^{4}-z^{3}+2$, which was irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$. We generated a sparse polynomial $u_{i}$ of total degrees $i$ in $y, x, t_{1}$ and $t_{2}$. The option "sparse" was chosen because dense polynomials in four indeterminates occupied too much space when their degrees were high. Set $f_{i}$ to be the $t_{2}$-proper part of $\sum_{p(y)=0} y u_{i}^{\prime} / u_{i}$. The residues of $f_{i}$ were exactly the roots of $p$. The average timings are summarized in Figure 3, in which $i=1,2, \ldots, 6$.

| $i$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| EH $^{*}$ | 0.05 | 0.03 | 0.04 | 0.07 | 0.13 | 0.16 |
| RT $^{*}$ | 0.06 | 1.14 | 15.94 | 13.47 | 411.21 | 1767.90 |
| CI $^{*}$ | 0.06 | 1.10 | 63.47 | 39.72 | 3580.75 | $\oslash$ |
| SR $^{*}$ | 0.05 | 2.80 | 38.60 | 184.75 | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ |
| GB $^{*}$ | 0.08 | 297.51 | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ |

Figure 3: Complete logarithmic parts (quartic residues)

The high efficiency of Algorithms EH and EH* relies on good performance of the Maple function resultant for expanding the resultant of $a-z \tilde{b}$ and $b$ with $a, b, \tilde{b} \in \mathbb{Q}[t]$, and the function $\operatorname{Gcd}$ for computing greatest common divisors of univariate polynomials over algebraic number fields [ $5,8,22$ ].

Algorithms RT and RT* outperform other elimination-based algorithms for most of examples. One reason is that the denominators of our input functions are expressed as the products of several polynomials due to the way to generate them. Resultant computation takes advantage of multiplicative expressions, but the other algorithms ignore any factored form of denominators.

At present, our maple scripts are only applicable to integrands whose constant coefficients are rational numbers. In fact, Algorithms EH and EH* are both valid as long as one can factor univariate polynomials over $C$ and perform gcd-computation of a finite algebraic extension of $C$. Assume further that $C=\mathbb{Q}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{m}\right)$, where $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{m}$ are constant indeterminates over $\mathbb{Q}$. We are not yet able to modify Algorithms EH and EH* so that evaluation homomorphisms can be applied to $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{m}$ nontrivially, because the special part of a Rothstein-Trager resultant may have coefficients involving some of the $w_{i}$ 's.

## 5 APPLICATIONS

In this section, we describe some applications arising from additive decompositions in logarithmic and S-primitive towers.

We denote $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ by $[n]$. Let $K_{0}$ be a field of characteristic zero, $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}$ be $n$ indeterminates, and $K_{i}=K_{0}\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{i}\right)$ for $i \in[n]$. An element of $K_{n}$ is said to be $t_{i}$-proper if it is free of $t_{i+1}, \ldots, t_{n}$ and is proper as a univariate rational function in $K_{i-1}\left(t_{i}\right)$.

Set $P_{0}$ to be $K_{0}\left[t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right], P_{i}$ to be the additive subgroup consisting of all polynomials in $K_{i}\left[t_{i+1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right]$ whose coefficients are $t_{i}$-proper for $i \in[n-1]$, and $P_{n}$ to be the additive subgroup consisting of all $t_{n}$-proper elements. Then $K_{n}=\bigoplus_{i=0}^{n} P_{i}$. Let $\pi_{i}$ be the projection from $K_{n}$ to $P_{i}$ with respect to the above direct sum. For an element $f \in K_{n}$, we have $f=\sum_{i=0}^{n} \pi_{i}(f)$, which is called the Matryoshka decomposition of $f$ with respect to $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}$ in [4].

From now on, we assume that $K_{0}=C(x)$, where $C(x)$ is the differential field given in Example 2.1. The Matryoshka decomposition of an element in $K_{n}$ is always with respect to $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}$. Assume further that $t_{i}$ is a primitive and regular monomial over $K_{i-1}$ for each $i \in[n]$. Then we have a primitive tower

| $K_{0}$ | $\subset$ | $K_{1}$ | $\subset$ | $\cdots$ | $\subset$ | $K_{n}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\\|$ |  | $\\|$ |  |  |  | $"$ |
| $C(x)$ |  | $K_{0}\left(t_{1}\right)$ |  |  |  |  |

whose subfield of constants is equal to $C$.

An element $f$ of $K_{n}$ is said to be simple if $\pi_{0}(f)$ is $x$-simple and $\pi_{i}(f)$ is $t_{i}$-simple in $K_{i-1}\left(t_{i}\right)$ for all $i \in[n]$. Every element of $\mathcal{L}\left(K_{n}\right)$ is simple by [4, Proposition 3.5].

Algorithms in Section 4 helps us determine whether a simple element of $K_{n}$ belongs to $\mathcal{L}\left(\bar{C} K_{n}\right)$, where $\bar{C} K_{n}$ stands for the smallest field containing both $\bar{C}$ and $K_{n}$. Since each of the $t_{i}$ is regular over $K_{i-1}$, the subfield of constants in $\bar{C} K_{n}$ is equal to $\bar{C}$.

Proposition 5.1. Let $K_{n}$ be the tower given in (5), and $r \in K_{n}$ be simple. Then $r \in \mathcal{L}\left(\bar{C} K_{n}\right)$ if and only if the integral of $\pi_{i}(r)$ has a complete logarithmic part with respect to $t_{i}$ for all $i \in[n]$.

Proof. Assume that the integral of $\pi_{i}(r)$ has a complete logarithmic part with respect to $t_{i}$ for all $i \in[n]$. Then the integral equals its complete logarithmic part with respect to $t_{i}$ by Proposition 3.3. Differentiating the integral, we see that $\pi_{i}(r) \in \mathcal{L}\left(\bar{C} K_{n}\right)$. In addition, $\pi_{0}(r) \in \mathcal{L}\left(\bar{C} K_{0}\right)$ by Example 2.1. So $r \in \mathcal{L}\left(\bar{C} K_{n}\right)$.

Conversely, let $r \in \mathcal{L}\left(\bar{C} K_{n}\right)$. By [4, Lemma 2.6 (ii)], there exist a $t_{n}$-simple element $s \in \mathcal{L}\left(\bar{C} K_{n}\right) \cap K_{n}$ and $h \in \mathcal{L}\left(\bar{C} K_{n-1}\right) \cap K_{n-1}$ such that $r=s+h$. Then $s=\pi_{n}(r)$. It follows from a direct induction that $\pi_{i}(h) \in \mathcal{L}\left(\bar{C} K_{i}\right) \cap K_{i}$ for $i \in[n-1]$. By the Matryoshka decomposition, $\pi_{i}(r)=\pi_{i}(h)$ for $i \in[n-1]$. So the integral of $\pi_{i}(r)$ has a complete logarithmic part w.r.t. $t_{i}$ for $i \in[n]$.

The tower $K_{n}$ in (5) is said to be $S$-primitive if $t_{i}^{\prime}$ is simple for $i \in[n]$. It is logarithmic if $t_{i}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{L}\left(K_{i-1}\right)$ for $i \in[n]$. Logarithmic towers are S-primitive by [4, Proposition 3.5].

Let $K_{n}$ be S-primitive. Then Algorithm AddDecompInField in [4] computes two elements $g, r \in K_{n}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f=g^{\prime}+r \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

with three properties: (i) $r$ is minimal in some sense, (ii) $f$ is a derivative in $K_{n}$ if and only if $r=0$, and (iii) $r$ is simple if $f$ has an elementary integral over $K_{n}$. The last property is due to the remark below [4, Theorem 4.10]. We call $r$ a remainder of $f$ in $K_{n}$.

Let $K_{n}$ be logarithmic. By [4, Theorem 4.10], $f \in K_{n}$ has an elementary integral over $K_{n}$ if and only if $r$ in (6) belongs to $\mathcal{L}\left(\bar{C} K_{n}\right)$, which is equivalent to that the integral of $\pi_{i}(r)$ has a complete logarithmic part with respect to $t_{i}$ for $i \in[n]$ by Proposition 5.1.

Example 5.2. Let $K_{0}=\mathbb{C}(x)$ and $t=\arctan (x)$. Since $t$ is a $\mathbb{C}$ linear combination of two logarithmic derivatives, $K_{1}=K_{0}(t)$ is logarithmic. Let $a=-x\left(2 x^{2}+2\right) t^{3}-x^{4} t^{2}+x\left(2 x^{4}+5 x^{2}+2\right) t-\left(x^{3}+2 x\right) x$ and $b=t^{2}\left(x^{2}+1\right)\left(x^{2}+2\right)(t+x)$. Algorithm AddDecompInField yields $a / b=(x / t)^{\prime}+r$, where

$$
r=\pi_{0}(r)+\pi_{1}(r)=-\frac{2 x}{x^{2}+2}+\frac{-t+x^{3}+x}{\left(x^{2}+1\right) t(t+x)}
$$

The remainder $r$ is simple. But the integral of $\pi_{1}(r)$ has an incomplete logarithmic part, which is $-\log (t+x)$. Hence, $f$ has no elementary integral over $K_{1}$. In fact,

$$
\int \frac{a}{b}=\frac{x}{t}-\log \left(x^{2}+2\right)-\log (t+x)+\int \frac{1}{\arctan (x)}
$$

Using AddDecompInField and EH*, we present an algorithm for determining elementary integrals over a logarithmic tower.

## Algorithm AddInt_log.

Input: $K_{n}$ as in (5), a logarithmic tower over $K_{0}$ and $f \in K_{n}$
Output: false if $f$ has no elementary integral over $K_{n}$; an elementary integral of $f$, otherwise

1. [decompose] compute $g, r \in K_{n}$ such that $f=g^{\prime}+r$ by Algorithm AddDecompInField
2. [detect in-field and non-elementary integrability]
if $r=0$ then return $g$ end if
if $r$ is not simple then return FALSE end if
3. [determine complete logarithmic parts] $s \leftarrow g$
for $i$ from 1 to $n$ do
if $\pi_{i}(r) \neq 0$ then
$u \leftarrow$ Algorithm $\mathbf{E H}^{*}\left(K_{i-1}\left(t_{i}\right), \pi_{i}(r)\right)$
if $u=$ FALSE then return false end if
$s \leftarrow s+u$
end if
end do
4. return $s+\int \pi_{0}(r)$

The correctness of this algorithm is due to properties (ii) and (iii) of Algorithm AddDecompInField, and Proposition 5.1.

We compared efficiency of the above algorithm with the Maple function int. Every integrand in our experimental data had an elementary integral over $\mathbb{Q}(x)$ so that int would not need to look for any closed-form beyond elementary functions.

In the first suite of experimental data, we set $K_{2}=\mathbb{Q}\left(x, t_{1}, t_{2}\right)$, where $t_{1}=\log (x)$ and $t_{2}=\log (\log (x))$. We generated four dense polynomials $p_{i}, q_{i}, r_{i}, s_{i}$ in $x, t_{1}$ and $t_{2}$ of respective total degrees $\lceil i / 2\rceil,\lfloor i / 2\rfloor, i$ and $i$. Set the integrand $f_{i}=\left(p_{i} / q_{i}\right)^{\prime}-3 r_{i}^{\prime} / r_{i}+2 s_{i}^{\prime} / s_{i}$. The average timings are summarized in Figure 4, in which A stands for our maple scripts for Algorithm AddInt_log.

| $i$ | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{A}$ | 0.50 | 6.86 | 27.71 | 17.37 | 32.65 | 402.75 | 506.58 |
| int | 0.70 | 7.61 | 31.35 | 29.47 | 51.74 | 376.05 | 574.73 |

Figure 4: Elementary integrals (rational residues)
All residues of the nonzero projections of remainders were rational numbers in this suite. Algorithm AddInt_log and int performed almost equally well.

In the second suite, the monomial extension of $\mathbb{Q}(x)$ is the same as that in the first. We generated two dense polynomials $p_{i}$ and $q_{i}$ of total degree $i$ in $x, t_{1}$ and $t_{2}$, a sparse polynomial $r_{i}$ of total degrees $\lfloor i / 2+1\rfloor$ in $y, x, t_{1}$ and $t_{2}$, and a sparse polynomial $s_{i}$ of total degree $\lceil i / 2+1\rceil$ in $y, x$ and $t_{1}$. Set the integrand to be

$$
f_{i}=\left(\frac{p_{i}}{q_{i}}\right)^{\prime}+\sum_{3 y^{2}+y-1=0} y \frac{r_{i}^{\prime}}{r_{i}}+\sum_{y^{2}+1=0} y \frac{s_{i}^{\prime}}{s_{i}} .
$$

The average timings are summarized in Figure 5.
The nonzero projections of remainders may have quadratic residues in this suite. Algorithm AddInt_log outperformed int as the index $i$ was increasing.

For the examples in the two suites, Algorithm AddInt_log only slowed down slightly when Algorithm EH* was replaced with Algorithm $\mathbf{R T}^{*}$. But this was not the case for the last suite of data.

| $i$ | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{A}$ | 4.58 | 4.33 | 8.17 | 26.22 | 84.77 | 170.99 | 492.85 |
| int | 11.14 | 16.54 | 37.31 | 101.88 | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ | $\oslash$ |

Figure 5: Elementary integrals (quadratic residues)

We set $K_{1}=\mathbb{Q}(x, t)$ with $t=\log (x)$, and generated two dense polynomials $a_{i}$ and $b_{i}$ of total degrees $i$ in $x$ and $t$. Moreover, a dense polynomial $g_{i}$ was generated in $\mathbb{Q}[x, y, t]$ whose total degree is $i$. Set the integrand $f_{i}=\left(a_{i} / b_{i}\right)^{\prime}+\sum_{y^{3}+y-1=0} y g_{i}^{\prime} / g_{i}$. The average timings are summarized in Figure 6, where AR stands for the algorithm that replaces Algorithm $\mathbf{E H}$ * in step 3 of Algorithm AddInt_log by Algorithm RT* given in Section 4.

| $i$ | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{A}$ | 5.45 | 11.48 | 16.61 | 27.06 | 49.30 | 72.42 |
| $\mathbf{A R}$ | 129.06 | 233.77 | 361.06 | 541.10 | 901.61 | 1239.29 |
| int | 325.64 | 697.95 | 1275.67 | 2048.20 | 3331.69 | $\varnothing$ |

Figure 6: Elementary integrals (EH* vs RT*)
The timings in this figure reveal that Algorithm EH* improves the efficiency of algorithms for indefinite integration as far as integrals have dense logarithmic parts involving irrational residues.

Remark 5.3. We also used Mathematica 12 and 13.1 to compute the integrals of examples in our data. Unfortunately, the command Integrate returned unevaluated integrals from time to time. So it is difficult for us to make any further comparison.

Let $K_{n}$ be S-primitive but not logarithmic, and $f \in K_{n}$. By (6) and [4, Theorem 4.10], $f$ has an elementary integral over $K_{n}$ if and only if $r \in \operatorname{span}_{C}\left\{t_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, t_{n}^{\prime}\right\}+\mathcal{L}\left(\bar{C} K_{n}\right)$. The latter condition can be verified by [11, Theorem 3.9].

Example 5.4. Let $K_{0}=\mathbb{Q}(x)$ and $K_{3}$ be generated by $t_{1}=\log (x)$, $t_{2}=\operatorname{Li}(x)$ and $t_{3}=\log (\log (x))$. We determine an elementary integral of $f$ whose additive decomposition is equal to $g^{\prime}+r$, where

$$
g=x t_{3}+\frac{t_{2}^{2}}{2}-\frac{t_{2} x}{t_{1}}-\frac{x^{2}}{t_{1}} \quad \text { and } \quad r=\frac{2}{x}-\frac{24 x-11}{6 x t_{1}}+\frac{1}{t_{1} t_{2}} .
$$

By a minor variation of the algorithm contained in the proof of [11, Theorem 3.9], we see that $r$ belongs to $-4 t_{2}^{\prime}+\mathcal{L}\left(\overline{\mathbb{Q}} K_{3}\right)$. In other words, $r+4 t_{2}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{L}\left(\overline{\mathbb{Q}} K_{3}\right)$. Note that each $\int \pi_{j}\left(r+4 t_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ has a complete logarithmic part with respect to $t_{j}, j=1,2,3$. Indeed, Algorithm EH yields the complete logarithmic parts of the integrals of the three projections. It turns out $\int f=g+2 \log (x)+11 / 6 \log \left(t_{1}\right)+\log \left(t_{2}\right)-4 t_{2}$. The integral of $f$ is elementary over $K_{3}$ but not over $K_{0}$.

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ Shaoshi Chen reminded us that the assertions in (iii) were obtained in a seminar on symbolic integration at our lab in 2008.

