## CHAPTER IV

## AN APPLICATION OF DIFFERENTIAL ALGEBRA

In elementary calculus, there are many unsolvable problems, especially in integration. For a long time mathematicians suspected but were not sure that certain indefinite integrals could not be computed in finite form in terms of the "elementary functions." Until Liouville proved that the indefinite integral of certain functions such as $\int \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{x}^{2}} \mathrm{dx}$ cannot be so expressed. Later, Rosenlicht derived a criterion, due to Liouville, that if $f(z)$ and $g(z)$ are two given rational functions of a complex variable $z, f(z)$ being nonzero, and $g(z)$ being nonconstant, then $\int f(z) e^{g(z)} d z$ is elementary if and only if there exists a rational function of complex variable, say $a$, such that $f=a^{\prime}+a g^{\prime}$, where $a^{\prime}$ and $g^{\prime}$ are derivatives of $a$ and $\&$ respectively.

This final chapter contains results proved by Liouville and Rosenlicht as well as some examples of elementary functions with nonelementary indefinite integrals other than those given by Rosenlicht. To start with, we are not interested in arbitrary functions, but in "elementary functions." Intuitively, an elementary function is a function which is obtained from polynomials, exponentials, logarithms, trigonometric or inverse trigonometric functions by using the operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, radicals and composition a finite number of times. More precise definitions are given later.

Notation Throughout this chapter, $a^{\prime}$ will denote the derivative of $a$. Definition 4-1 Let $0 \neq \mathrm{d}$ and b be two elements of the differential field $\mathcal{F}$, $d$ is said to be an exponential of $b$, or $b$ a logorithm of $d$, if $b^{\prime}=\frac{d^{\prime}}{d}$.

Definition 4-2 By an integral of an element b of a differential field, we shall mean any solution of the differential equation $y^{\prime}=a$.

Remark Two integrals of $b$ which are contained in the same extension of the differential field containing b differ by a constant.

Proof . Let $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ be two integrals of $b$. That is,

$$
y_{1}^{\prime}=b, y_{2}^{\prime}=b .
$$

Since $\left(y_{1}-y_{2}\right)^{\prime}=y_{1}-y_{2}^{\prime}=b-b=0, y_{1}-y_{2}$ is a constant. Hence $y_{1}=y_{2}+$ constant.

Notation The integral of an element $b$ in $\mathscr{C}(z)$ is denoted by $\int b d z$. We now establish the following convenient result which will be needed later.

Lemma 4-1

where $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}$ are nonzero elements of the differential field $\mathcal{F}$ and $k_{1}, k_{2}, \ldots, k_{n}$ are integers.

We call this identity the "logarithmic derivative identity."

Proof The proof is by induction on the number of term $n$. It is clear that if $\mathrm{n}=1, \frac{\left(\mathrm{a}_{1}\right)^{\prime}}{\mathrm{a}_{1}}=\mathrm{k}_{1} \frac{\mathrm{a}_{1}}{a_{1}}$. Now we suppose that the 1emma is
true for $n-1, n \geqslant 2$, that is,

$$
\frac{\left(a_{1}^{k_{1}} a_{2}^{k_{2}} \cdots a_{n-1}^{k_{n-1}}\right)^{7}}{a_{1}^{k_{1}} a_{2}^{k_{2}} \cdots a_{n-1}^{k_{n-1}}}=k_{1} \frac{a_{1}^{\prime}}{a_{1}}+k_{2} \frac{a_{2}^{\prime}}{a_{2}}+\ldots+{ }^{k_{n-1}} \frac{a_{n-1}^{\prime}}{a_{n-1}}
$$

We have to prove that the equation is true for n . Consider

By the induction hypothesis, we obtain

This completes the proof.
Lemma 4-2 Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a differential field and $f[x]$ be the polynomial ring in one indeterminate $X$. (Do not confuse this with the set of forms.) If the maps $D_{0}$ and $D_{1}$ of $f[x]$ into itself are defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& D_{0}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} x^{i}\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} x^{i} \\
& n_{1}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} x^{i}\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} i a_{i} x^{i-1},
\end{aligned}
$$

for $a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in \mathcal{F}_{f}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { i) } D_{j}(A+B) & =D_{j} A+D_{j} B \\
\text { ii) } D_{j}(A B) & =\left(D_{j} A\right) B+A\left(D_{j} B\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

for $j=0,1$ and $A, B \in \sqrt{f}[x]$.
Proof The proof of this lemma for the case $j=1$ is very similar to the proof of theorem 1-5 and is omitted.

Now we prove the lemma for the case $j=0$. Let $A=\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} X^{i}$,
$B=\sum_{j=0}^{m} b_{j} x^{j}$ where $a_{n}$ and $b_{m} \neq 0$. To prove (i), suppose that $n>m$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
A+B & =\sum_{i=0}^{m}\left(a_{i}+b_{i}\right) x^{i}+\sum_{i=m+1}^{n} a_{i} x^{i} \\
D_{0}(A+B) & =\sum_{i=0}^{m}\left(a_{i}+b_{i}\right) x^{i}+\sum_{i=m+1}^{n} a_{1} x^{i} \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{m}\left(a_{i}+b_{i}\right) x^{i}+\sum_{i=m+1}^{n} a_{i} x^{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\sum_{i=0}^{m} a_{i}^{\prime} x^{i}+\sum_{i=m+1}^{n} a_{i}^{\prime} x^{i}+\sum_{i=0}^{m} b_{i}^{\prime} x^{i} \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i}^{\prime} x^{i}+\sum_{i=0}^{m} b_{i}^{\prime} x^{i} \\
& =D_{0} A+D_{0} B .
\end{aligned}
$$

In order to prove (ii), let $F=b X^{k}$. Consider

$$
\begin{aligned}
A . F & =\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} x^{i}\right) b x^{k}=\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} b x^{i+k} \\
D_{0}(A \cdot F) & =\sum_{i=0}^{n}\left(a_{i} b\right)^{\prime} y^{i+k}=\sum_{i=0}^{n}\left(a_{i}^{\prime} b+a_{i} b^{\prime}\right) x^{i+k} \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} b x^{i+k}+\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} b^{\prime} x^{i+k} \\
& =\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} x^{i}\right) b x^{k}+\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} x^{i}\right) b^{\prime} x^{k} \\
& =\left(D_{0} A\right) F+A \cdot D_{0} F \cdot
\end{aligned}
$$

In the general case, let $F_{i}=b_{i} X^{i}, 1=0,1, \ldots, m$, that is, $B=F_{o}+F_{1}+\ldots+F_{m}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
A \cdot B & =A F_{0}+A F_{1}+\ldots A F_{m} \\
D_{0}(A \cdot B) & =D_{0}\left(A F_{0}\right)+D_{0}\left(A F_{1}\right)+\ldots+D_{0}\left(A F_{m}\right) \\
& =\left(D_{0} A\right) F_{0}+A D F_{0}+\left(D_{0} A\right) F_{1}+A D_{0} F_{1}+\ldots+\left(D_{0} A\right) F_{n}+A D_{0} F_{m} \\
& =D_{0} A\left(F_{0}+F_{1}+\ldots+F_{m}\right)+A\left(D_{0} F_{0}+D_{0} F_{1}+\ldots+D_{0} F_{m}\right) \\
& =\left(D_{0} A\right) \cdot B+A D_{0} B .
\end{aligned}
$$

This completes the proof of the lemma.

Our first theorem establishes a basic connection between the ground differential field and its extension field.

Theorem 4-1 Let $\sigma$ be a differential field of characteristic zero and Y a countably infinite algebraic extension field of $\sigma \mathcal{F}$. (That is, $\mathcal{Y}\{$ can be written in the form $\}\left\{=\mathcal{F}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots\right)\right.$ where $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots \in \mathcal{G}$ ).

Then the derivation on $f$ can be extended to a derivation on $\mathcal{M}$, and this extension is unique.

Proof Let $\circ f[x]$ be the polynomial ring in one indeterminate $x$. Define the maps $D_{0}$ and $D_{1}$ of $\circ f[x]$ into itself by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& D_{0}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} x^{i}\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i}^{\prime} x^{i}, \\
& D_{1}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} x^{i}\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} i a_{i} x^{1-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

for $a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in \mathcal{F}$. If $\mathcal{F} K$ has a differential field structure extending that of of, then for any $x \in \mathcal{K}$ and $A(x)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} x^{i} \in f[x]$,
we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
(A(x))^{\prime} & =a_{0}^{\prime}+\left(a_{1} x\right)^{\prime}+\ldots+\left(a_{n} x^{n}\right)^{\prime} \\
& =a_{0}^{\prime}+a_{1}^{\prime} x+a_{1} x^{\prime}+\ldots+a_{n}^{\prime} x^{n}+a_{n} n x^{n-1} x^{\prime} \\
& =a_{0}^{\prime}+a_{1}^{\prime}+a_{2}^{\prime} x^{2}+\ldots+a_{n}^{\prime} x^{n}+\left(a_{1}+2 a_{2} x+\ldots+n a_{n} x^{n-1}\right) \cdot x^{\prime} \\
& =\left(D_{0} A\right)(x)+\left(D_{1} A\right)(x) \cdot x^{\prime} .
\end{aligned}
$$

If we replace $A(x)$ by the minimal polynomial $f(x)$ of $x$ over $\mathcal{J}$, then

$$
0=\left(D_{0} f\right)(x)+\left(D_{1} f\right)(x) \cdot x^{\prime}
$$

We have that $\left(D_{1} f\right)(x) \neq 0$, otherwise $x$ is a root of the polynomial which is of degree less than the minimal polynomial $f(X)$. Then

$$
x^{\prime}=-\frac{\left(D_{0} f\right)(x)}{\left(D_{1} f\right)(x)}
$$

According to theorem $1-12$, there exists a unique minimal polynomial $\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{x})$ of x over $\mathcal{G}$, it then follows that the differential structure on $\mathcal{K}$ extending that on ${ }_{\mathcal{F}}$ is unique whenever it exists. We now show that such a structure on $\eta$ exists, Assume first that $\mathcal{K}$ is a finite extension of $\mathcal{F}$, then $\mathcal{Y}=\mathcal{F}(x)$ (theorem 1-14).

By the preceding argument, we already know that if the derivation $D$ on $\mathcal{K}$ that extends the one on exists, the $D x$ is equal te $-\frac{\left(D_{0} f\right)(x)}{\left(D_{1} f\right)(x)}$. since ${ }^{\circ} f[x]={ }^{\circ} \mathcal{F}(x)=M\{$, by theorem $1-12$, there exists a polynomial $g(x) \in \mathcal{F}[x]$ such that $g(x)=-\frac{\left(D_{0} f\right)(x)}{\left(D_{1} f\right)(x)}$, Moreover, any element is $\mathcal{K}$ is of the form $A(x)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} i_{i} x^{1}$ where $a_{i} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $(A(x))^{\prime}=\left(B_{0} A\right)(x)+\left(B_{1} A\right)(x) \cdot D x$. Now we define the map $D$ of $\mathcal{F}[x]$ into into itself by

$$
D A=D_{0} A+g(X) D_{1} A
$$

for any $A \in \sigma^{\sigma}[X]$. By lemma 4-2, we have

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
D(A+B) & =D A+D B \\
D(A B) & =(D A) B+A(D B)
\end{array}
$$

and for any $a \in \mathcal{F}$, $D_{a}=D_{0} a=a^{\prime}$.
We claim that $D$ induces a derivation on $\gamma \mathcal{K}$ extending that on $\mathcal{F}$. To prove this, it is sufficient to show that $D$ is well-defined. Thus if $A, B \in \mathcal{C}^{G}[X], A \sim B$ 1.e, $A-B$ has $x$ as its root or $A-B=$ $C(X) f(x)$ for some $C(x) \in \mathcal{F}[x]$, we shall prove that $D A-D B$ also has x as its root. Consider

$$
\begin{aligned}
D A-D B & =D(A-B)=D(C(X) f(X)) \\
& =C(X)(D f)(X)+(D C)(X) f(X) \\
& =C(X)\left(\left(D_{0} f\right)(X)+g(X)\left(D_{1} f\right)(X)\right)+(D C)(X) f(X) \\
(D A)(x)-(D B)(x) & =C(x)\left(\left(D_{0} f\right)(x)+g(x)\left(D_{1} f\right)(x)\right) \\
& =C(x)\left(\left(D_{0} f\right)(x)-\frac{\left(D_{0} f\right)(x)}{\left(D_{1} f\right)(x)}\left(D_{1} f\right)(x)\right) \\
& =0
\end{aligned}
$$

This proves that $D$ is well-defined and thus proves the theorem for the case in which $\mathcal{K}$ is a finite extension of $\mathcal{F}$.

We come now to the case in which $J$ is countably infinite extension of $f$, that is $g=f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots\right)$. The proof of this case is by induction. Assume that the theorem is true for $m<n$, what we must show is it is also true for $n$. Let $\mathrm{K}_{1}=$ of $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)$, by the induction hypothesis, $K_{1}$ is a differential field. Since $f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=\mathcal{K}_{1}\left(x_{n}\right)$, we are back to the case of a finite extension of $\mathcal{F}$. This completes the proof of the theorem.

Definition 4-3 Let of be a differential field, A differential field $\mathbb{K}$ is said to be a differential extension field of if of is a differential subfield of $\mathfrak{K}$.

The following result will be the principal tool for proving the main theorem of this chapter.
Lemma 4-3 Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a differential field and $\mathcal{F}(t)$ a differential extension field of of having the same subfield of constants, with $t$ transcendental over $\circ$. Then
i) if $t^{\prime} \in \mathcal{F}^{\prime}$, then for any polynomial $f(t) \in \mathcal{F}[t]$ of positive degree, $(f(t))^{\prime}$ is a polynomial in ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{F}[t]$ of the same degree as $f(t)$ or degree one less, according as the highest coefficient of $f(t)$ is, or is not a constant,
ii) if $\frac{t^{\prime}}{t} \in \mathcal{F}$, then for any nonzero $a E^{\mathcal{F}}$ and any nonzero integer $n$ we have

$$
\left(a t^{n}\right)^{\prime}=h t^{n},
$$

for some nonzero $h \in \mathcal{F}$, implying that, for any polynomial $f(t) \in{ }^{\circ} f[t]$ of positive degree, $(f(t))^{\prime}$ is a polynomial in ${ }^{\circ} f[t]$ of the same degree. Furthermore, $(f(t))^{\prime}$ is a multiple of $f(t)$ only if $f(t)$ is a monomial.

Proof For a proof of statement (i), set $t^{\prime}=b \in \mathcal{F}$. Let the degree of $f(t)$ be $n>0$, so that

$$
f(t)=a_{n} t^{n}+a_{n-1} t^{n-1}+\ldots+a_{0}
$$

with $a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in \sigma_{f}, a_{n} \neq 0$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
(f(t))^{\prime} & =a_{n}^{\prime} t^{n}+\left(n a_{n} t^{\prime}+a_{n-1}^{\prime}\right) t^{n-1}+\ldots+a_{0}^{\prime} \\
& =a_{n}^{\prime} t^{n}+\left(n a_{n} b+a_{n-1}^{\prime}\right) t^{n-1}+\ldots+a_{0}^{\prime} .
\end{aligned}
$$

This is a polynomial in ${ }^{\circ}[t]$ of degree $n$ if $a_{n}$ is not constant. If $a_{n}$ is constant and $n a_{n} b+a_{n-1}^{\prime}=0$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(n a_{n} t+a_{n-1}\right)^{\prime} & =n a_{n}^{\prime} t+n a_{n} t^{\prime}+a_{n-1}^{\prime} \\
& =n a_{n} b+a_{n-1}^{\prime} \\
& =0
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $a_{n}^{\prime}=0$, so $n a_{n} t+a_{n-1}$ is a constant and hence is in of. This implies that $t \in \mathscr{F}$, contrary to the assumption that $t$ is transcendental over $\quad \mathcal{f}$. Thus if $a_{n}$ is constant, $(f(t))^{\prime}$ has degree $n-1$.

In order to prove (ii), set $\frac{t^{\prime}}{t}=d \in \mathcal{F}$. Let $a \in \mathcal{F}, a \neq 0$ and let $n$ be a nonzero integer then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(a t^{n}\right)^{\prime} & =a^{\prime} t^{n}+n a t^{n-1} t^{\prime}=a^{\prime} t^{n}+n a \frac{t^{\prime}}{t} t^{n} \\
& =\left(a^{\prime}+n a d\right) t^{n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $a^{\prime}+$ nad $=0$, then $a t^{n}$ is a constant, therefore an element of $\mathcal{F}$, contradicting the fact that $t$ is transcendental over $\mathcal{F}$. Therefore $\left(a^{\prime}+n a d\right) \neq 0$. Hence $(f(t))^{\prime}$ has the same degree as $f(t)$. We now prove that if $(f(t))$ is a multiple of $f(t)$, then $f(t)$ is a monomial. To prove this, suppose that $f(t)$ is not a monomial, let $a_{n} t^{n}$ and $a_{m} t^{m}$ be two of its non-zero terms, $n>m \geqslant 0$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(a_{n} t^{n}\right)^{\prime}=\left(a_{n}^{\prime}+n a_{n} d\right) t^{n} \\
& \left(a_{m} t^{m}\right)^{\prime}=\left(a_{m}^{\prime}+m a_{m} d\right) t^{m}
\end{aligned}
$$

We already know that $(f(t))^{\prime}$ has the same degree as that of $f(t)$, so since $(f(t))^{\prime}$ is a multiple of $f(t)$ we must have that

$$
(f(t))^{\prime}=g f(t)
$$

with $g \in \mathcal{F}, \mathrm{~g} \neq 0$. Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{n}^{\prime}+n a_{n}^{d}=g a_{n} \text { and } a_{m}^{\prime}+m a_{m}^{d}=g a_{m} \text {, implying that } \\
& \frac{a_{n}^{\prime}+n a_{n}^{d}}{a_{n}}=\frac{a_{m}^{\prime}+m a_{m}^{d}}{a_{m}}
\end{aligned}
$$

which gives

$$
\frac{a_{n}}{a_{n}}+\frac{n t^{\prime}}{t}=\frac{a_{m}^{\prime}}{a_{m}}+\frac{m t}{t}
$$

and thus

$$
\frac{a_{n}^{\prime}}{a_{n}^{\prime}}-\frac{a_{m}^{\prime}}{a_{m}}+\frac{n t^{\prime}}{t}-\frac{m t^{\prime}}{t}-=0
$$

By the "logarithmic derivative identity",

$$
\frac{\left(a_{n} a_{m}^{-1} t^{n} t^{-m}\right)^{n}}{a_{n} a_{m}^{-1} t^{n} t^{-m}}
$$

which gives us $\left(\frac{a_{n} t^{n}}{a_{m} t^{m}}\right)^{\prime}=0$. This implies that $\frac{a_{n} t^{n}}{a_{m} t^{m}}$ is a constant and hence is in $\not \subset$, again contradicting the fact that $t$ is transcendental over of. This completes the proof.

Example 4-1 Let $\mathcal{F}=\mathbb{R}(x), t=\log x$ with $t^{\prime}=\frac{1}{x} \in \mathcal{F} . \quad$ is transcendental over $\sigma \mathcal{F}$; otherwise there exists a minimal polynomial $p(x)=x^{n}+a_{n-1} x^{n-1}+\ldots+a_{o} \in \sigma[x]$ such that $\log x$ is a root, that is

$$
(\log x)^{n}+a_{n-1}(\log x)^{n-1}+\cdots+a_{0}=0
$$

Differentiating this to get

$$
\begin{gathered}
n(\log x)^{n-1} \cdot \frac{1}{x}+a_{n-1}^{\prime}(\log x)^{n-1}+a_{n-1}(n-1)(\log x)^{n-2} \cdot \frac{1}{x}+\ldots+ \\
a_{0}^{\prime}=0 .
\end{gathered}
$$

or
(1) $\left(\frac{n}{x}+a_{n-1}^{n}\right)(\log x)^{n-1}+\left(\frac{(n-1) a_{n-1}}{x}+a_{n-2}^{\prime}\right)(\log x)^{n-2}+\ldots+a_{0}^{\prime}=0$.

We shall prove that $a_{n-1} \neq \frac{-n}{x}$. Let $a_{n-1}=\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ where $g(x) \neq 0$ and
$f(x) \in R[x]$ and they have no common factor.

$$
a_{n-1}^{\prime}=\frac{g(x)(f(x))^{\prime}-f(x)(g(x))^{\prime}}{(g(x))^{2}}
$$

We see that the denominator and numerator of $a_{n-1}^{\prime}$ have no common factor, thus the denominator of $\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{n}-1}^{\prime}$ cannot be of degree one, that is, $a_{n-1}^{\prime} \neq \frac{-n}{x}$. Hence $a_{n-1}^{\prime}+\frac{n}{x} \neq 0$. Dividing both sides of (1) by $\frac{n}{x}+a_{n-1}^{\prime}$ yields

$$
(\log x)^{n-1}+\frac{1}{a}\left(\frac{(n-1) a}{x}+a_{n-2}^{\prime}\right)(\log x)^{n-2}+\ldots+\frac{a_{o}^{\prime}}{a}=0
$$

where $a=a_{n-1}^{\prime}+\frac{n}{x}$, therefore the polynomial

$$
x^{n-1}+\frac{1}{a}\left(\frac{(n-1) a_{n-1}}{x}+a_{n-2}\right) x^{n-2}+\ldots+\frac{a_{0}^{\prime}}{a}
$$

has $\log x$ as its root, contrary to the assumption that $f(X)$ is the minimal polynomial of $\log x$. Hence $t$ is transcendental over $\mathcal{F}$.

If $t=e^{x}$ with $t^{\prime}=e^{x}$, then $\frac{t^{\prime}}{t} \in \mathcal{F}$. $t$ is also transcendental over ${ }^{\prime} f$ (The proof is given later). Let $a=(1+x)^{5}$. Then $a t^{n}=(1+x)^{5} e^{n x}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(a t^{n}\right)^{\prime} & =\left((1+x)^{5} e^{n x}\right)^{\prime} \\
& =5 x^{4} e^{n x}+n(1+x)^{5} e^{n x} \\
& =\left(5 x^{4}+n(1+x)^{5}\right) e^{n x} \\
& =\left(5 x^{4}+n(1+x)^{5}\right) t^{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

which satisfies the result of this lemma.

Definition 4-4 Let of be a differential field. By an elementary extension of of we mean a differential extension field of the form ${ }^{\sigma} f\left(t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots, t_{N}\right)$ where for each $i=1,2, \ldots, N$, the element $t_{i}$ is either algebraic over the fieid $\mathcal{F}\left(t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots, t_{i-1}\right)$, or the logarithm or exponential of an element of $\mathfrak{F}\left(t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots, t_{i-1}\right)$.

We now come to the main theory which provides the key to our investigation.

Theorem 4-2 Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a differential field of characteristic zero and $\alpha \in \sigma$. If the equation $y^{\prime} \Rightarrow \alpha$ has a solution in some elementary differential extension field of $f /$ having the same subfield of constants, then there are constants $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{n} \& f$ and elements $u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{n}$, $v$ in $\mathfrak{F}$ such that

$$
\alpha=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{u_{i}}{c_{i}} \frac{u_{i}}{u_{i}}
$$

Proof Assume that the equation $y^{\prime}=\alpha$ has a solution in an elementary differential extension field $\mathcal{F}\left(t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots, t_{N}\right)$ of of having the same subfield of constants. Then there is a sequence of differential fields

$$
\text { जf } E \quad \operatorname{f}\left(t_{1}\right) \subset \quad \in \sigma f\left(t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots, t_{i T}\right)
$$

all with the same subfield of constants, each $t_{i}$ being algebraic over $\sigma^{F}\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{i-1}\right)$, or the logarithm or exponential of an element of this field.

We shall prove the theorem by induction on $N$. The case $N=0$ is trivial. (Since $y^{\prime}=\alpha, y \in f^{\prime}$ is an expression for $\alpha$ of the desired form.) So assume that $N>0$ and the theorem is true for $N-1$.

Applying the case $N-1$ to the differential fields $f\left(t_{1}\right) \subset \mathcal{F}_{1}\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{N}\right)$, therefore we can write $\alpha$ in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha=\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \frac{u_{i}^{\prime}}{u_{i}}+v^{\prime} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

but with $u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{n}, v$ in $f\left(t_{1}\right)$ and $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n} \in \mathcal{F}$ (If $N=1$, then $\alpha=y^{\prime}, y \in \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\left(\mathrm{t}_{1}\right)$. The proof of this case starts from now on.) Setting $t_{1}=t$, we have $t$ algebraic over $\mathcal{F}$, or the logarithm or exponential of an element of $\mathcal{F}$. What we now have to do is to find a similar expression for $\alpha$, possibly with a different $n$, but with the elements $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}, v$ belonging to of.

First suppose that $t$ is algebraic over $\sigma f$. Then, by theorem 1-12 : there are polynomials $U_{1}(x), \ldots, U_{n}(x), V(x) \in \mathcal{F}[x]$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{1}(t)=u_{1}, U_{2}(t)=u_{2}, \ldots, U_{n}(t)=u_{n}, V(t)=v \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let the distinct conjugates of $t$ over of in the algebraic closure of $f(t)$ be $\tau_{1}(=t), \tau_{2}, \ldots, \tau_{s}$. According to (2) and (3), we obtain

$$
\alpha=\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \frac{\left(U_{i}(t)\right)}{U_{i}(t)}+(v(t))
$$

Multiplying this equation by $U_{1}(t) U_{2}(t) \ldots U_{n}(t)$, gives us

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} U_{1}(t) \ldots\left(U_{i}(t)\right)^{\prime} \ldots U_{n}(t)+\left((v(t))^{\prime}-\alpha\right) U_{1}(t) U_{2}(t) \ldots U_{n}(t)=0
$$

Since $U_{i}(X),\left(U_{i}(X)\right)^{\prime}$ and $(V(X))^{\prime}$ are polynomials in $\sigma[X]$ and $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}$, $\alpha \in \mathcal{F}$, it follows that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n}
$$

$$
c_{i} U_{1}(x) \ldots\left(U_{i}(x)\right)^{\eta} \ldots U_{n}(x)+\left((V(X))^{\prime}-\alpha\right) U_{1}(X) \ldots U_{n}(X)
$$

is a polynomial in $\sigma[\mathrm{x}]$ such that t is a root. As $\tau_{2}, \ldots, \tau_{s}$ are conjugates of $t$ over $\mathcal{F}$, we must have that $\tau_{2}, \ldots, \tau_{s}$ are also the roots of this polynomial, then we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i=1}^{n} & c_{i} U_{1}\left(\tau_{j}\right) \ldots\left(U_{i}\left(\tau_{j}\right)\right)^{\prime} \ldots U_{n}\left(\tau_{j}\right)+\left(\left(V\left(\tau_{j}\right)\right)^{\prime}-\alpha\right) U_{1}\left(\tau_{j}\right) U_{2}\left(\tau_{j}\right) \ldots v_{i}\left(\tau_{j}\right) \\
& =0
\end{aligned}
$$

for every $j=\ddagger, 2, \ldots, s_{0} \quad\left(\left(U_{i}\left(\tau_{j}\right)\right)^{\prime}\right.$ makes sense for each $j=1,2, \ldots$, $s$ $i=1,2, \ldots, n$ since the derivation on $\sigma f(t)$ can be extended to a derivation on $\left.f\left(\tau_{1}, \tau_{2}, \ldots, \tau_{s}\right)\right)$. So

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \alpha=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{c_{i}}{} \frac{\left(U_{i}\left(\tau_{1}\right)\right)^{\prime}}{U_{i}\left(\tau_{1}\right)}+\left(V\left(\tau_{1}\right)\right)^{\prime} \\
& \alpha=\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \frac{\left(U_{i}\left(\tau_{2}\right)\right)^{\prime}}{U_{i}\left(\tau_{2}\right)}+\left(V\left(\tau_{2}\right)\right)^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

.
.


$$
\alpha=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{c_{i}\left(U_{i}\left(\tau_{s}\right)\right)^{\prime}}{U_{i}\left(\tau_{s}\right)}+\left(V\left(\tau_{s}\right)\right)^{\prime}
$$

Adding all these equations yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
s \alpha & =\sum_{j=1}^{s} c_{1} \frac{\left(U_{1}\left(\tau_{j}\right)\right)^{\prime}}{V_{1}\left(\tau_{j}\right)}+\sum_{j=1}^{s} c_{2} \frac{\left(U_{2}\left(\tau_{j}\right)\right)^{i}}{U_{2}\left(\tau_{j}\right)}+\ldots+\sum_{j=1}^{s} \frac{c_{n}\left(U_{n}\left(\tau_{j}\right)\right)^{\prime}}{U_{n}\left(\tau_{j}\right)} . \\
& +\sum_{j=1}^{s}\left(V\left(\tau_{j}\right)\right)^{\prime} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Using the "logarithm derivative identity", we get
for every $i=1,2, \ldots, n$. Hence we can write $\alpha$ in the form

$$
\alpha=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{c_{i}}{s} \frac{\left(U_{i}\left(\tau_{1}\right) U_{i}\left(\tau_{2}\right) \ldots U_{i}\left(\tau_{s}\right)\right)^{\prime}}{U_{i}\left(\tau_{1}\right) U_{i}\left(\tau_{2}\right) \ldots U_{i}\left(\tau_{s}\right)}+\frac{\left(V\left(\tau_{1}\right)+\ldots+v\left(\tau_{s}\right)\right)^{\prime}}{s} .
$$

Since $U_{i}\left(\tau_{1}\right) U_{i}\left(\tau_{2}\right) . . J_{i}\left(\tau_{s}\right)$ and $V\left(\tau_{1}\right)+1 \% . V\left(\tau_{s}\right)$ are symmetric polynomials in $\tau_{1}, \tau_{2}, \ldots, \tau_{s}$ with coefficients in of , by theorem $1-10$, each of these expressions is in $\mathcal{F}$. Hence the last equation is an expression for $\alpha$ of the required form,

In the remaining cases, where $t$ is logarithm or exponential of an element of $\mathcal{F}$, we may assume that $t$ is transcendental over $\mathcal{F}$. Then we have

$$
\alpha=\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \frac{\left(u_{i}(t)\right)^{\prime}+(v(t))^{2}}{u_{i}(t)}+{ }^{n}
$$

with $u_{1}(t), \ldots, u_{n}(t), V(t) \in{ }^{\prime} f(t)$. We can assume that $u_{1}(t), \ldots$, $u_{n}(t), v(t)$, are distinct and none of the elements $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}$ are zero. Each $u_{i}(t)$ can be written as

$$
u_{i}(t)=\frac{\operatorname{arp}_{1}^{r_{1}}(t) \ldots{ }_{p_{k}}^{r_{k}}(t)}{q_{1}^{s_{1}}(t) \ldots q_{m}^{s_{m}}(t)}
$$

where $p_{1}(t), q_{j}(t)$ are monic irreducible polynomials ing $f[t], r_{1}, s_{j}$ are positive integers and $a \in \mathcal{F}$. Differentiating this equation yields
$\left(u_{i}(t)\right)^{\prime}=\frac{\left(q_{1}{ }^{s_{1}}(t) \ldots q_{m}^{s_{m}}(t)\right)\left(a_{p_{1}}{ }^{r_{1}}(t) \ldots p_{k}{ }_{k}(t)\right)^{\prime}-\left(a_{p}{ }_{1}{ }^{r_{1}}(t) \ldots p_{k}{ }_{k}{ }_{k}(t)\right)\left(q_{1}{ }_{1}(t) \ldots q_{m}{ }^{s_{m}}(t)\right)^{p}}{\left(q_{1}{ }^{s}(t) \ldots q_{m}{ }^{s_{m}}(t)\right)^{2}}$
Dividing this by $u_{i}(t)$, we obtain

The "logarithmic derivative identity", gives

Consequently, we rewrite $\sum \frac{\left(u_{i}(t)\right)}{u_{i}(t)}$ in a similar form, but with each $u_{i}(t)$ either in $\mathcal{F}$ or a monic irreducible of $\mathcal{F}[t]$. We now consider $v(t)$. The partial fraction decomposition of $v(t)$ allows us to express $v(t)$ as the sum of an element of $\mathcal{F}[t]$ plus various terms of the form $\frac{g(t)}{(f(t))^{r}}$, where
$f(t)$ is a monic irreducible, $r$ a positive integer : and $g(t)$ is a non-zero element of of $[t]$ of degree less than that of $f(t)$. What we must do now is to show that each of $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}, v$ does not involve $t$, that is

$$
\alpha=\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \frac{u_{i}^{\prime}}{u_{i}}+v^{\prime}
$$

where $c_{i}, u_{i}, v \in \mathcal{F}, i=1,2, \ldots, n$.
To start with, suppose first that $t$ is the logarithm of an element
of $\mathcal{F}$, so that $t^{2}=\frac{d}{d}$ for some $d \in \mathcal{F}$. Let $f(t)$ be an arbitrary monic irreducible element of $\mathcal{H}[t]$. Then $(f(t))^{\prime}$ is also in $\mathcal{F}[t]$ and it has degree less than that of $f(t)$, so that $f(t)$ does not divide $(f(t))^{\prime}$. Thus if
$u_{i}(t)=f(t)$, then $\frac{\left(u_{i}(t)\right)^{\prime}}{u_{i}(t)}$ is already in lowest terms, with denominator $f(t)$. If $\frac{g(t)}{(f(t))^{r}}$ appears in the partial fraction expression for $v(t)$ where $g(t) \in \mathcal{F}[t]$ is of degree less than that of $f(t)$ and $r>0$ is the maximum exponent of $f(t)$, then $(v(t))$ will consist of

$$
\left(\frac{g(t)}{(f(t))^{r}}\right)^{0}=\frac{(g(t))^{r}}{(f(t))^{r}}-r \frac{g(t)(f(t))^{\eta}}{(f(t))^{r+1}}
$$

and various terms having $(f(t))^{k}$ in the denominator for $k \leqslant r$. Since $f(t)$ does not divide $g(t)(f(t))^{\prime}$ (otherwise, $f(t)$ divides $g(t)$ or $\left.(f(t))^{\prime}\right)$. We see that a term with denominator $(f(t))^{r+1}$ actually appears in $(v(t))^{\prime}$. Hence if $f(t)$ appears as a denominator in the partial fraction expression of $f(t)$, it will appear in $\alpha$, which is impossible. Therefore, $f(t)$ does not appear in the denominator of $v(t)$. So $f(t)$ cannot be one of the $u_{i}(t)^{\prime} s$ either. We already know that each $u_{1}(t)$ is either in $\sigma f$ or a monic irreducible element of $\mathcal{F}[t]$. This implies that each $u_{i}(t) \in \mathcal{F}$ and $v(t) \in \mathcal{F}[t]$. Consequently,

$$
(v(t))^{\prime}=\alpha-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \frac{u_{i}^{\prime}}{u_{i}}
$$

belongs to of. Since $(v(t))^{\prime}$ is of the same degree as $v(t)$ or degree one less, according as the highest coefficient of $v(t)$ is, or is net a constant, by lemma $4-3$ (i) so $v(t)$ is of the form

$$
\mathrm{v}(\mathrm{t}) \quad=\mathrm{ct}+\mathrm{h}
$$

where $c$ is a constant and $h \in \sqrt[F]{F}$. Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha & =\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \frac{u_{i}^{\prime}}{u_{i}}+(c t+h)^{\prime} \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \frac{u_{i}^{\prime}}{u_{i}}+c \frac{d^{\prime}}{d}+h^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

is an expression for $\alpha$ of the desired form.
Finally, consider the case where $t$ is the exponential of an element of $\mathcal{F}$, say $\frac{t^{\prime}}{t}=b^{\prime}$ with $b \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. By virtue of lemma 4-3 (ii), if $f(t)$ is a monic irreducible element of $f[t]$ other than $t$ itself, then $(f(t))^{\prime} \in \sigma[t]$ and $f(t)$ does not divide $(f(t))^{\prime}$. By the same reasoning as above, we have that $f(t)$ cannot occur in the denominator of $v(t)$, nor can any $u_{i}(t)$ equal $f(t)$. This asserts that $v(t)$ can be written as

$$
v(t)=\sum_{a_{j}} t^{j}
$$

where $j$ ranges over a finite set of integers, $a_{j} \in \mathcal{F}$, and each of quantities $U_{1}(t), \ldots, U_{n}(t)$ is in of or equal to $t$ itself. However, if some $u_{i}(t)=t$, we have

$$
\frac{\left(u_{i}(t)\right)^{\prime}}{u_{i}(t)}=\frac{t^{\prime}}{t}=b^{\prime}
$$

which is in $\mathcal{F}$. Consequently, $(v(t))^{\prime} \in \mathcal{J}^{\prime}$. According to lemma 4-3 (ii) $v(t)$ and $(v(t))^{\circ}$ have the same degree, hence $v(t)$ is also in of. If each $u_{i}(t)$ is in $\mathcal{F}$, we already have $\alpha$ in the required form, and we are done. If not, we may thus limit ourselves to the case that only one $u_{i}(t)$, say $u_{1}(t)$ is not in of . Then $u_{1}(t)=t$ and $u_{2}(t), \ldots, u_{n}(t) \in \mathcal{F}$, so we can write

$$
\alpha=c_{1} \frac{t^{\prime}}{t}+\sum_{i=2}^{n} c_{i} \frac{u_{i}^{\prime}}{u_{i}}+v^{\prime}
$$

$$
=\sum_{i=2}^{n} c_{i} \frac{u_{i}^{\prime}}{u_{i}^{\prime}}+c_{1} b^{\prime}+v^{\prime}
$$

$$
=\sum_{i=2}^{n} c_{i} \frac{u_{i}^{\prime}}{u_{1}}+\left(c_{1} b+v\right)^{\prime}
$$

with $u_{2}, \ldots, u_{n}, c_{1} b+v$ all in $\mathcal{F}$. This completes the proof of the theorem.

Remark The condition that $\mathcal{F}$ and its elementary differential extension fleld have the same subfield of constants is essential. This can be seen from the following example.

Example 4-2 Let of $=\mathbb{R}(x)$ with $x=1$ and $\alpha=\frac{1}{1+x^{2}} \in \mathbb{R}(x)$. Then the equation $y^{2}=\alpha=\frac{1}{1+x^{2}}$ has a solution in the elementary differential extension field $\mathbb{R}(i, x, \log (x+i y))=\mathbb{C}(z, \log z)$ of $\mathcal{F}$. We see that $\mathbf{C}(z, \log z)$ has a different subfield of constants from that of $\mathbb{R}(x)$, since the subfieid of constants of $\mathbb{C}(z, \log z)$ is $\mathbb{C}$, whereas $\mathbb{R}(x)$ has $\mathbb{R}$ for its subficid of constants. claim that $\frac{1}{1+x^{2}}$ cannot be written in the form

$$
\frac{1}{1+x^{2}}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \frac{u_{i}}{u_{i}}+v^{i}
$$

where $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}, v \in \mathbb{R}(x)$. To see this, suppose that $\frac{1}{1+x^{2}}$ can be written in this form. Let

$$
u_{i}=\left(1+x^{2}\right)^{r} i_{Q_{i}}(x)
$$

where each $r_{i}$ is an integer and $1+x^{2}$ is not a factor of both numerator and denominator of $Q_{i}(x)$ in $\mathbb{R}(x) i=1,2, \ldots, n$. We have

$$
\frac{u_{i}^{\prime}}{u_{i}}=\frac{2 r_{i} x}{1+x^{2}}+\frac{\left(Q_{i}(x)\right)^{i}}{Q_{i}(x)}
$$

Therefore,

$$
\frac{1}{1+x^{2}}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{2 r c_{i} x}{1+x^{2}}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \frac{\left(0_{i}(x)\right)^{\prime}}{Q_{i}(x)}+v^{\prime},
$$

that is,
(4) $\frac{1-\sum_{i=1}^{n} 2 r c_{i} x}{1+x^{2}}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{c_{i}\left(Q_{i}(x)\right)^{\prime}}{Q_{i}(x)}+v^{\prime}$.

It is clear that $1+x^{2}$ does not appear in the denominator of
$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{c_{i}\left(Q_{i}(x)\right)^{\prime}}{Q_{i}(x)}$. Now we consider $v \in R(x)$. If $1+x^{2}$ does not appear in the denominator of $v$, then the expression on the right hand side of (4) has no $1+x^{2}$ In its denominator. This implies that $1+x^{2}$ must divide $1-\sum_{i=1}^{n_{i}} 2 r_{i} c_{i} x$ which is impossible.

If $1+x^{2}$ occurs in the denominator of $v$, it will occur at least twice in the denominator of $\mathrm{v}^{\prime}$, then $\mathrm{v}^{\prime}$ will be balanced neither by $\frac{1-\sum_{i=1}^{n} 2 r_{i} c_{i} x}{1+x^{2}}$ nor by $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{c_{i}\left(Q_{i}(x)\right)}{Q_{i}(x)}$. This proves our claim.

From this example if we replaces $\mathbb{R}(x)$ by $\mathbb{C}(z)$, with $z^{\prime}=1$, the equation $y^{\prime}=\frac{1}{1+z^{2}} \in \mathbb{C}(z)$ has a solution in the elementary differential extension field $\mathcal{C}(z, n z)$. It is not difficult to verify that $\frac{1}{1+z^{2}}$ can be written in the form

$$
\frac{1}{1+z^{2}}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \frac{u_{i}^{\prime}}{u_{i}}+v^{\prime}
$$

with $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n} \in \mathbb{C}$ and $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}, v \in \mathbb{C}(z)$. To do this, note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{1+z^{2}} & =\frac{1}{(z+i)(z-i)}=\frac{1}{2 i} \cdot \frac{1}{z-i}-\frac{1}{2 i} \cdot \frac{1}{z+i} \\
& =\frac{i}{2} \frac{(z+i)^{\prime}}{z+i}-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(z-i)}{z-i} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We see that $\frac{1}{1+z^{2}}$ can be written in the required form.

In the remainder of this chapter we shall find a simple device which tells us whether or not a function in the elementary differential extension of $\mathbb{C}(z)$ is a nonelementary indefinite integral. The preliminary lemma below provides the key to establishing the needed theorem.

Lemma 4-4 If $g$ is a nonconstant element of $\mathbf{C}(z)$, then $e^{g}$ is not algebraic over $\mathbb{C}(z)$.

Proof Assume that $e^{g}$ is algebraic over $C(z)$, then there is a minimal polynomial $P(x)=X^{n 2}+a_{1} x^{n-1}+\ldots a_{n}$ in $\mathbb{C}(z)[x]$ such that $e^{g}$ is a root, thus

$$
e^{n g}+a_{1} e^{(n-1) g}+\ldots+a_{n}=0
$$

Differentiating this to get

$$
n g^{\prime} e^{n g}+\left(a_{1}^{\prime}+(n-1) a_{1} g^{\prime}\right) e^{(n-1) g}+\ldots+a_{n}^{\prime}=0
$$

Since $g^{\prime} \neq 0$, dividing this by $n g^{\prime}$ yields

$$
e^{n g}+\frac{\left(a_{1}^{\prime}+(n-1) a_{1} g^{\prime}\right)}{n g} e^{(n-1) g}+\ldots+\frac{a_{n}^{\prime}}{n g}=0,
$$

therefore, the polynomial

$$
x^{n}+\frac{\left(a_{1}^{\prime}+(n-1) a_{1} g^{\prime}\right)}{n g} x^{n-1}+\ldots+\frac{a_{n}^{\prime}}{n g}
$$

has $e^{g}$ as its root, then by theorem 1-12

$$
x^{n}+a_{1} x^{n-1}+\ldots+a_{n}=x^{n}+\frac{\left(a_{1}^{\prime}+(n-1) a_{1} g^{g}\right)}{n g} x^{n-1}+\ldots+\frac{a_{n}^{\prime}}{n g}
$$

This implies that

$$
a_{n}=\frac{a_{n}^{\prime}}{n g} \text { or } n g
$$

$\frac{a_{n}^{\prime}}{a_{n}}$ may be either zero or non-zero element of $\mathbb{C}(z)$, we now suppose that
$\frac{a_{n}^{\prime}}{a_{n}} \neq 0$, let $a_{n}=\frac{r(z)}{g(z)}$ where $0 \neq g(z)$ and $r(z) \in \mathbb{C}[z]$. Fy the
Fundamental theorem of algebra, we can write $a_{n}$ as

$$
a_{n}=\frac{c\left(z-c_{1}\right)^{r_{1}}\left(z-c_{2}\right)^{r_{2}} \cdots\left(z-c_{n}\right)^{r_{n}}}{\left(z-d_{1}\right)^{k_{1}}\left(z-d_{2}\right)^{k^{2}} \cdots\left(z-d_{m}\right)^{k_{m}}}
$$

where $c, c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}, d_{1}, \ldots, d_{m} \in \quad \mathbb{C}$ and $r_{i}, k_{j}$ are positive integers. By the "logarithmic derivative identity", we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{a_{n}^{\prime}}{a_{n}} & =\frac{c r_{1}\left(z-c_{1}\right)^{\prime}}{z-c c_{1}}+\ldots+\frac{c r_{n}\left(z-c_{n}\right)^{\prime}}{z-c_{n}}-\frac{c k_{1}\left(z-d_{1}\right)^{\prime}}{z-d_{1}} \cdots-\frac{c k_{m}\left(z-d_{m}\right)^{\prime}}{z-d_{m}} \\
& =\frac{c r_{1}}{z-c_{1}}+\ldots+\frac{c r_{n}}{z-c_{n}}-\frac{c k_{1}}{z-d_{1}}-\ldots-\frac{c k_{m}}{z-d_{m}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $\frac{a_{n}}{a_{n}}$ is a sum of fractions with constant numerators and linear
denominators, whereas $n g^{9}$ can have no linear denominator since if $f(z)$ occurs in the denominator of ng, it will occur at least twice in the denominator of $n g^{\prime}$. This yields $\frac{a_{n}^{\prime}}{a_{n}}=n g^{\prime}=0$, contradicting the assumption that $g$ is nonconstant. This proves the lemma.

As an application of the foregoing ideas, we now come to the theorem which provides a convenient criterion to tell us whether a certain function is a nonelementary indefinite integral or not.

Theorem 4-3 Let $f(z)$ be a nonzero element of $\mathbb{C}(z)$ and $g(z)$ a nonconstant element of $\mathbb{C}(z)$, then $\int f(z) e^{g(z)} d z$ is elementary if and only if there exists $a(z) \in \mathbb{C}(z)$ such that

$$
\mathbf{f}=a^{\prime}+a g
$$

Proof Setting $e^{g}=t$, we have $\frac{t^{f}}{t}=g$, by the preceeding lemma, $t$ is transcendental over $\mathbb{C}(x)$. Now let $\mathscr{F}=\mathbb{C}(z)$ and $\mathcal{F}(t)=\mathbb{C}(z, t)$. Suppose first that $\int f(z) e^{g(z)} d z$ is elementary, in other words, the equation $y^{\prime}=f e^{g} E{ }^{\circ} \mathcal{F}(t)$ has a solution in some elementary differential extension field of $\sigma(t)$, it then follows from theorem $4-2$ that we can write

$$
t f=\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \frac{u_{i}^{\prime}}{u_{i}}+v^{\prime}
$$

with $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n} \in \mathbb{E}$ and $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}, v \in \sigma(t)$. By factoring numerator and denominator of each $u_{i}$ as a product of irreducible elements of ${ }^{\sigma} f[t]$ and using the "logarithmic derivative identity", if necessary, we can guarantee that the $u_{i}$ 's which are not in $\mathcal{F}$ are distinct monic irreducible elements of of $[t]$. We decompose $v$ into partial fractions
with respect to $o f[t]$. By the same reasoning as used in the proof of theorem 4-2, we have that the only possible monic irreducible factor of a denominator in $v$ is $t$, which is also the only possible $u_{i}$ not in $f f$. That is, $v$ is of the form

$$
v=\Sigma b_{j} t^{j}
$$

where $j$ ranges over a finite set of integers and each $b_{j} \in \mathcal{F}$. If $u_{i}=t$ for some $i, \frac{u_{i}^{\prime}}{u_{i}}=\frac{t^{\prime}}{t}=g \in \mathcal{F}$, then $\sum_{i}^{c_{i}} \frac{u_{i}^{i}}{u_{i}} \in F_{j}$. We let $\sum_{i}^{c_{i}^{i} u_{i}} \frac{u_{i}}{}$ $=\mathrm{d}$ for some $\mathrm{d} E G \mathrm{~F}$. Therefore

$$
t f=d+v^{p}
$$

or

$$
v^{\prime}=t f-d
$$

Lemma 4-3 (ii) implies that $v$ is a polynomial in ${ }^{G}[t]$ or the same degree as that of $v^{\prime}$, thus there exist $a, b \in$ f such that

$$
v=a t+b
$$

Differentiating this, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
v^{\prime} & =a^{\prime} t+a t^{\prime}+b^{\circ} \\
& =\left(a^{\prime}+a g^{\prime}\right) t+b^{\prime} \text {.GKORN UNIVERSITY タาวทยาลัย }
\end{aligned}
$$

This implies that $f=a^{\circ}+a_{g}{ }^{\circ}$.
As regards the converse, if there is an a $E C(z)$ such that $f=a^{\circ}+a \varepsilon^{\circ}$.

Multiplying this by $t$, we obtain

$$
t f=a^{\prime} t+a t g^{\prime}=(a t)^{\prime}
$$

Thus one elementary integral of $\int f e^{g}$ is ae $e^{g}$. This completes the proof of the theorem.

Now, at last, we can illustrate the use of these ideas with several examples.
Example 4-3 Consider $\int \mathrm{e}^{z^{2}} \mathrm{~d} z$, if this integral is elementary then there is an $a \neq 0 \in \mathbb{C}(z)$ such that

$$
1=a^{0}+2 a z
$$

or

$$
2 z=\frac{1}{a}-\frac{a^{\prime}}{a} .
$$

Let $a=\frac{P(z)}{Q(z)}$ where $0 \neq Q(z)$ and $P(z)$ are in $C[z]$, we have

$$
2 z=\frac{Q(z)}{P(z)}-\frac{(P(z))^{\prime}}{P(z)}+\frac{(Q(z))^{\prime}}{Q(z)} .
$$

We can write

$$
\frac{Q(z)}{P(z)}=A(z)+\frac{R(z)}{P(z)}
$$

with degree $R(z)$ < degree $P(z)$, so
(5) $\quad 2 z=A(z)+\frac{R(z)}{P(z)}-\frac{(P(z))^{\prime}}{P(z)}+\frac{(Q(z))^{\prime}}{Q(z)}$

We see that, since $P(z)$ and $Q(z)$ do not divide $(P(z))^{\prime}$ and $(Q(z))^{\prime}$ respectively. $P(z)$ and $Q(z)$ occur in the denominator of the expression in the right hand side of (5) which is not balanced by $2 z$. We can thus assert that $\int e^{z^{2}} d z$ is a nonelementary indefinite integral.
Example 4-4 For $\int \frac{e^{z}}{z} d z$, if this integral is elementary, then there exists a $\in \mathbb{C}(z)$ such that

$$
\frac{1}{z}=a^{\prime}+a
$$

Assume first that $z$ occurs in the denominator of $a$, then it occurs at least twice in the denominator of $a^{\prime}$ and $a^{\prime}+a$ which is not balanced by $\frac{1}{z}$. If $z$ does not occur in the denominator of $a$, then if is clear that $z$ does not occur in the denominator of both $a^{\text {s }}$ and $a+a^{\prime}$. This case is impossible. Thus, in either case this equation has no solution. Hence $\int \frac{e^{z}}{z} d z$ is not an elementary indefinite integral.

As an immediate cousequence of the above examples, we get that $\int e^{e^{z}} d z$ and $\int \frac{1}{\log z} d z$ are nonelementary. The first assertion proved by replacing $z$ with $e^{z}$ and the second integral by replacing $z$ with log $z$.

For $\int \log \log \mathrm{z} \mathrm{dz}$, wo use integration by parts to reduce this
integral to the previous integral, ice.

$$
\int \log \log z d z=z \log \log z-\int \frac{d z}{\log z} .
$$

Since $\int \frac{d z}{\log z}$ is nonelenentary, this implies that $\int \log \log z d z$ is also nonelementary.

Example 4-5 As another application of these ideas, consider $\int \frac{\sin z}{z} d z$. As we know, $\operatorname{Sin} z=\frac{e^{i z}-e^{-i z}}{2 i}$. We first change variables $i z=w$, thus

$$
\int \frac{\sin z}{z} d z=\int \frac{e^{w}-e^{-w}}{2 w} d w
$$

Let $t=e^{w}, \mathbb{C}(w)=\mathscr{F}$. Working in $\sigma(t)$, if $\int \frac{e^{w}-e^{-w}}{w} d w$ is elementary, by theorem $4 \sim 2$, we can write

$$
\frac{t^{2}-1}{t w}=\sum_{i=1}^{z} c_{i} \frac{u_{i}^{\prime}}{u_{i}}+v^{\prime}
$$

with $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{n} \in \mathbb{C}$ and $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}, v \in \mathcal{F}(t)$. By the same reasoning as before we have that the $u_{i}$ 's which are not in $\mathcal{F}$ are distinct monic irreducible elements of $\sigma \mathcal{F}[t]$, and the only possible $u_{i}$ not in of is $t$, and the only possible monic irreducible factor of a denominator in $v$ is $t$, that is, we can write $v=\sum b_{j} t^{j}$, where $j$ ranges over a finite set of integers, $b_{j} \in \mathcal{F}$. If $u_{i}=t$, then $\frac{u_{i}^{\prime}}{u_{i}}=\frac{t^{\prime}}{t}=1 \in \mathcal{F}$. Hence $\sum^{c}{ }_{i} \frac{u_{i}^{\prime}}{u_{i}} \in f$, let $\sum c_{i} \frac{u_{i}^{\prime}}{u_{i}}=d$ for some $d \in$ of. Differentiating
v yields

$$
v^{\prime}=\sum t^{j}\left(j b_{j}+b_{j}^{\eta}\right)
$$

Therefore

$$
\frac{t^{2}-1}{t w}=a+\sum t^{j}\left(j b_{j}+b_{j}^{\prime}\right),
$$

or

$$
\frac{t^{2}-1}{w}=d t+\sum t^{j+1}\left(j b_{j}+b_{j}^{\prime}\right)
$$

We thus see that j must be $-1,0$ and 1. That is,

$$
\frac{t^{2}-1}{w}=d t+\left(-b_{-1}+b_{-1}^{\prime}\right)+b_{0}^{8} t+\left(b_{1}+b_{1}^{s}\right) t^{2},
$$

hence $d+b_{0}^{\prime}=0, b_{1}+b_{1}^{\prime}=\frac{1}{w},-b_{-1}+b_{-1}^{\prime}=\frac{-1}{w}$.
But we have proven that the equation

$$
b_{1}+b_{1}^{\prime}=\frac{1}{w}
$$

has no solution. Therefore $\int \frac{\operatorname{Sin} z}{z} d z$ is not elementary.

As an immediate consequence of this example, we have that $\int \operatorname{Sin} e^{z} d z$ is also nonelementary. To see this, let $e^{z}=w$, then

$$
\int \sin e^{z} d z=\int \frac{\operatorname{Sin} w}{w} d w .
$$

Since $\int \frac{\operatorname{Sin} w}{w} d w$ is nonelementary, (see example $4-5$ ) hence $\int \operatorname{Sin} e^{z} d z$ is also nonelementary.
Example 4-6 For $\int e^{\operatorname{Sin} z} d z$, since $\operatorname{Sin} z=\frac{e^{i z}-e^{-i z}}{2 i}$, let $t=\frac{e^{i z}}{2 i}$,
then we have

$$
\left(\frac{e^{i z}-e^{-i z}}{2 i}\right)
$$

$\int e^{\left(\frac{e^{i z}-e^{-i z}}{2 i}\right)}$ We claim that $\int \frac{e^{z+\frac{1}{2}}}{e^{2 z}} d z$ is nonelementary. To do this, assume that this integral in elementary, by theorem $4-3$ we have that there exists an a $\in \mathbb{C}(z)$ such that

$$
\frac{1}{z}=a^{\prime}+a\left(1-\frac{1}{4 z^{2}}\right)
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{a^{\prime}}{a}=\frac{1}{a z}+\frac{1}{4 z^{2}}-1 \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is clear that the expression in the right hand side of (6) cannot be written as a sum of fractions with constant numerators and linear denominators, whereas $\frac{a}{a}$ (see the proof of lemma 4-4) is a sum of fractions with constant numerators and linear denominators. This is a contradiction. Hence $\int e^{\sin z} d z$ is a nonelementary indefinite integral.

## APPENDIX

Definition Let $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{r}$ be non-negative integers such that $n_{1}+n_{2}+\ldots+n_{r}=n$. Then the expression ( $n_{n_{1}}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{r}$ ) will denote $\frac{n!}{n_{1}!n_{2}!\cdots n_{r}!}$.

These numbers are called the multinomial coefficients in view of the following theorem which generalizes the Binomial theorem.

## Theorem

$$
\left(a_{1}+a_{2}+\ldots+a_{r}\right)^{n}=\sum_{n_{1}+n_{2}+\ldots+n_{r}=n_{1}}\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{r}\right) a_{1}^{n_{1}} a_{2}^{n_{2}} \ldots a_{r}^{n_{r}}
$$

Proof The proof is by induction on $r$. It is trivial for $r=1$. Assume that the theorem is true for $r$. Let $a_{1}+a_{2}+\ldots+a_{r}=b$. Then, by the Binomial theorem, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(a_{1}+a_{2}+\ldots+a_{r}+a_{r+1}\right)^{n} & =\left(b+a_{r+1}\right)^{n} \\
\text { © } & =\sum_{k=0}^{n}\binom{n}{k} a_{r+1}^{n-k} b^{k} \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{n}\binom{n}{k} a_{r+1}^{n-k}\left(a_{1}+a_{2}+\ldots+a_{r}\right)^{k} .
\end{aligned}
$$

By the induction hypothesis

$$
\left(a_{1}+a_{2}+\ldots+a_{r}+a_{r+1}\right)^{n}=\sum_{k=0}^{n}\binom{n}{k} a_{r+1}^{n-k} \sum_{n_{1}+n_{2}+\ldots+n_{r}=k}\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{r}\right) a_{1}^{n_{1}}{ }^{n_{2}}{ }_{2} \ldots a_{r}^{n}
$$

$$
=\sum_{k=0}^{n} \sum_{n_{1}+\ldots+n_{r}=k}\binom{n}{k}\left(n_{n_{1}}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{r}\right) a_{1}^{n_{1}} a_{2}^{n_{2}} \ldots a_{r}^{n_{r}}, a_{r+1}^{n-k}
$$

$$
\binom{n}{k}\binom{k}{n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{r}}=\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \frac{k!}{n_{1}!\cdots n_{r}!}
$$

$$
=\frac{n!}{n_{1}!\ldots n_{r}!(n-k)!}
$$

$$
=\left(a_{1, \ldots, n}, n, n-k\right) .
$$

Therefore

$$
\left(a_{1}+a_{2}+\ldots a_{r+1}\right)^{n}=\sum_{k=0}^{n} \sum_{n_{1}+\ldots+n_{r}=k}\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}, n-k\right) a_{1}^{n}{ }_{1} \ldots a_{r}^{n} r_{r+1}^{n-k}{ }_{r} .
$$

Let $n_{r+1}=n-k$, then $n_{x+1}$ ranges from 0 to $n$ and hence

$$
\left(a_{1}+a_{2}+\ldots+a_{r+1}\right)^{n}=\sum_{n_{1}+\ldots n_{r+1}=n}\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}, n_{r+1}\right) a_{1}^{n_{1}} \ldots a_{r}^{n} r_{a_{r+1}}^{n_{r+1}} .
$$

This completes the proof.

