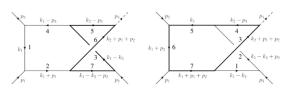
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Series expansions methods for Feynman integrals and
                 the DiffExp Mathematica package
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DiffExp: Expanding differential equations at order: HEP Phenomenology Seminar
                              @ Cambridge University
                              Based on: arXiv:2006.05510
                 Partly based on: arXiv:1907.13156, 1911.06308, in collaboration with:
                    R. Bonciani, V. Del Duca, H. Frellesvig, J. M. Henn, L. Maestri,
                            F. Moriello, G. Salvatori, V. A. Smirnov
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Outline of the talk

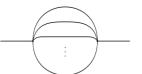
Introduction

- Overview of analytic vs numerical methods
- The method of differential equations
 - Canonical basis
 - Deriving boundary conditions
- Series solutions methods
 - Finding series solutions
 - Line segmentation
 - Analytic continuation
- The DiffExp Mathematica package
 - Usage and boundary conditions

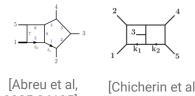


1911.06308

- Higgs plus jet integrals
- Banana graphs



- 3-Loop equal/unequal mass
- 4-Loop equal mass
- Examples from the literature
- Special functions
- Final remarks
 - Future prospects



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Overview of computational methods

Analytic methods for Feynman integrals

- Typical analytic methods involve expressing Feynman integrals in terms of classes of iterated integrals
 - Multiple polylogarithms
 - Iterated integrals over Eisenstein series
 - Elliptic multiple polylogarithms over the torus or an elliptic curve
 - Strengths of analytic methods:
 - Branch-cuts and analytic structure is manifest (through the symbol map)
 - Specialized algorithms can be developed for evaluating the relevant classes of functions

- Drawbacks of analytic methods:
 - The analytic continuation may be difficult to perform
 - Many Feynman integrals lie outside the known classes of functions

Numerical methods

- Prototypical example:
 - Sector decomposition and numerical integration (FIESTA, pySecDec)

- Strengths of numerical methods:
- Drawbacks of numerical methods:
- Numerical integration is fully algorithmic and
 Numbers might not expose symmetries general purpose
- Applicable to integrals with many scales
- and/or structures underlying the integrals
- Performance can lack behind analytic methods

Semi-numerical methods

- Semi-numerical methods perform as much as possible of the computation analytically, before resorting to numerical approximations
- We may set up differential equations in analytic form, and then solve these differential equations
 - Numerically using finite difference methods
 - Semi-analytically through one-dimensional series expansions
- Strengths of series expansion methods:
 - State of the art performance on many types of Feynman integrals
 - Speed improves as more points are computed
 - Analytic continuation of Feynman integrals becomes simple

[Mandal, Zhao, 1812.03060]

[1907.13156, 1907.13234, 1911.06308, 2006.05510]

- Drawbacks:
 - Simplification of the differential equations is not fully algorithmic
 - Derivation of boundary conditions requires

some manual effort

Series expansions

- Series expansions have been featured various times in the past literature.
- For single-scale problems, see e.g.
- S. Pozzorini and E. Remiddi, Precise numerical evaluation of the two loop sunrise graph master integrals in the equal mass case, Comput. Phys. Commun. 175 (2006) 381–387, [hep-ph/0505041].
- U. Aglietti, R. Bonciani, L. Grassi, and E. Remiddi, The Two loop crossed ladder vertex diagram with two massive exchanges, Nucl. Phys. B789 (2008) 45–83, [arXiv:0705.2616].
- R. Mueller and D. G. Öztürk, On the computation of finite bottom-quark mass effects in Higgs boson production, JHEP 08 (2016) 055, [arXiv:1512.08570].
- For multi-scale problems, see for example:
- K. Melnikov, L. Tancredi, and C. Wever, Two-loop $gg \to Hg$ amplitude mediated by a nearly massless quark, JHEP 11 (2016) 104, [arXiv:1610.03747].
- K. Melnikov, L. Tancredi, and C. Wever, Two-loop amplitudes for $qg \to Hq$ and $q\bar{q} \to Hg$ mediated by a nearly massless quark, Phys. Rev. **D95** (2017), no. 5 054012, [arXiv:1702.00426].
- R. Bonciani, G. Degrassi, P. P. Giardino, and R. Grober, Analytical Method for Next-to-Leading-Order QCD Corrections to Double-Higgs Production, Phys. Rev. Lett. 121 (2018), no. 16 162003, [arXiv:1806.11564].

- B. Mistlberger, *Higgs boson production at hadron colliders at N*³LO in QCD, JHEP **05** (2018) 028, [arXiv:1802.00833].
- R. N. Lee, A. V. Smirnov, and V. A. Smirnov, Solving differential equations for Feynman integrals by expansions near singular points, JHEP 03 (2018) 008, [arXiv:1709.07525].
- R. N. Lee, A. V. Smirnov, and V. A. Smirnov, Evaluating elliptic master integrals at special kinematic values: using differential equations and their solutions via expansions near singular points, JHEP 07 (2018) 102, [arXiv:1805.00227].
- R. Bonciani, G. Degrassi, P. P. Giardino, and R. Gröber, A Numerical Routine for the Crossed Vertex Diagram with a Massive-Particle Loop, Comput. Phys. Commun. 241 (2019) 122–131, [arXiv:1812.02698].
- R. Bruser, S. Caron-Huot, and J. M. Henn, Subleading Regge limit from a soft anomalous dimension, JHEP 04 (2018) 047, [arXiv:1802.02524].
- J. Davies, G. Mishima, M. Steinhauser, and D. Wellmann, *Double-Higgs boson production in the high-energy limit: planar master integrals*, *JHEP* **03** (2018) 048, [arXiv:1801.09696].
- J. Davies, G. Mishima, M. Steinhauser, and D. Wellmann, Double Higgs boson production at NLO in the high-energy limit: complete analytic results, JHEP **01** (2019) 176, [arXiv:1811.05489].
- B. Mistlberger, Higgs boson production at hadron colliders at N³LO in QCD, JHEP **05** (2018) 028 [1802.00833].

Series expansions

- Some of the previous literature was problem tailored. For example, by:
 - Treating single-scale problems by expanding only at singular points and deriving recurrence
 relations for the series coefficients [Lee, Smirnov, Smirnov, 1709.07525, 1805.00227]
 - Considering multi-scale cases by expanding in only one parameter [Anastasiou, Duhr, Dulat, Herzog, Mistlberger, 1503.06056]
- An (arguably) more general setup was demonstrated in [F. Moriello, 1907.13234] for the computation of planar integrals relevant to H+j production at NLO
- Simultaneously, in a larger collaboration, we applied these methods to the computation of non-planar H+j integrals

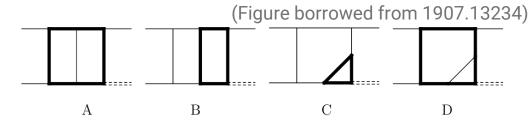
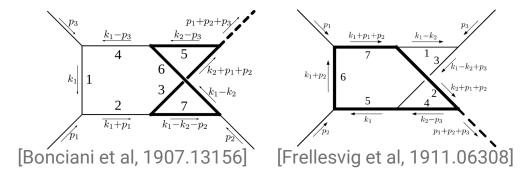


Figure 1: The four planar integral families contributing to two-loop H+j-production in QCD.



Series expansions

• The main steps of the series expansion method are as follows:

- Reduce multi-scale problems to a single-scale problem by integrating along a onedimensional contour
- Split up the contour into multiple segments such that series expansions converge on each segment
- Find series solutions of the integrals along each segment, and fix boundary conditions by matching neighbouring segments
- Cross thresholds by assigning $\pm i\delta$ to logarithms and algebraic roots in the solutions

DiffExp

- A general implementation of these methods was made into the Mathematica package DiffExp, introduced in arXiv:2006.05510, and hosted at https://gitlab.com/hiddingm/diffexp
- DiffExp accepts (any) system of differential equations of the form

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \vec{f}(\{S\}, \epsilon) = \mathbf{A}_s \vec{f}(\{S\}, \epsilon) \qquad \mathbf{A}_x(x, \epsilon) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathbf{A}_x^{(k)}(x) \epsilon^k$$

for which the matrix entries are combinations of rational and algebraic functions

- It enables one to numerically integrate various multi-scale Feynman integrals at arbitrary points in phase-space, and at precisions of tens of digits (or higher)
- The Feynman integrals do not have to be in canonical form and may also be of "elliptic"-type or associated with more complicated geometries.

The method of differential equations

Differential equations

• Start from a family of scalar Feynman integrals:

$$I_{a_1,\dots,a_{n+m}} = \int \left(\prod_{i=1}^l d^d k_i\right) \frac{\prod_{i=n+1}^{n+m} N_i^{-a_i}}{\prod_{i=1}^n D_i^{a_i}}, D_i = -q_i^2 + m_i^2 - i\delta$$

- Derivatives of Feynman integrals can be expressed in the same family.
- By IBP-reduction we may then obtain a closed system of the form:

$$d\vec{f} = \sum_{s \in S} \mathbf{M}_s \vec{f} ds$$

[Kotikov, 1991], [Remiddi, 1997] [Gehrmann, Remiddi, 2000]

• For some vector of master integrals f

Differential equations in a canonical basis

We may simplify the differential equations by a change of basis

• Let
$$\vec{B} = T\vec{f}$$
, then we have: $\frac{\partial}{\partial s_i}\vec{B} = \left[(\partial_{s_i}\mathbf{T})\,\mathbf{T}^{-1} + \mathbf{T}\mathbf{M}_{s_i}\mathbf{T}^{-1} \right]\vec{B}$.

• The canonical basis conjecture claims that $\exists {f T}: |d ec{B} = \epsilon d ilde{{f A}} ec{B}$

[Henn, 2013]

Furthermore, if the integrals are polylogarithmic, we have:

$$d\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbf{C}_i d\log(l_i)$$

Canonical basis

 The formal solution can be written as a path-ordered exponential: [Chen, 1977]

$$d\vec{B} = \epsilon \left(d\tilde{\mathbf{A}} \right) \vec{B} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \vec{B} = \mathbb{P} \exp \left[\epsilon \int_{\gamma} d\tilde{\mathbf{A}} \right] \vec{B}_{\mathrm{boundary}} \qquad \gamma(x) : [0, 1] \to \mathbb{C}^{|S|}$$

Which can be expanded in terms of Chen's iterated integrals:

$$\vec{B} = \vec{B}^{(0)}(\gamma(0)) + \sum_{k>1} \epsilon^k \sum_{j=1}^k \int_0^1 \gamma^*(d\tilde{\mathbf{A}})(x_1) \int_0^{x_1} \gamma^*(d\tilde{\mathbf{A}})(x_2) \times \dots \times \int_0^{x_{j-1}} \gamma^*(d\tilde{\mathbf{A}})(x_j) \vec{B}^{(k-j)}(\gamma(0))$$

• More concisely, consider the ϵ expansion $\vec{B} = \sum \vec{B}^{(i)} \varepsilon^i$, then:

$$\vec{B}^{(i)}(\gamma(1)) = \int_0^1 \mathbf{A}_x \vec{B}^{(i-1)} dx + \vec{B}^{(i)}(\gamma(0)) \quad \text{where} \quad \mathbf{A}_x = \sum_{s \in S} \frac{\partial \tilde{\mathbf{A}}}{\partial s} (\gamma(x)) \frac{\partial \gamma_s(x)}{\partial x}$$

Canonical basis

• Thus, more compactly, we focus on integrals of the type:

$$\vec{B}^{(i)}(\gamma(1)) = \int_0^1 \mathbf{A}_x \vec{B}^{(i-1)} dx + \vec{B}^{(i)}(\gamma(0))$$

• When $d\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbf{C}_i d\log(l_i)$ and when \mathcal{A} contains only (simultaneously) rationalizable algebraic functions the results are expressible in terms of MPLs:

$$G(a_1, \dots, a_n; z) = \int_0^z \frac{dt}{t - a_1} G(a_2, \dots, a_n; t), \quad G(z) \equiv 1$$

• This provides a fully analytic solution of the differential equations, which can be evaluated using GiNaC [Vollinga, Weinzierl, hep-ph/0410259]

Series expansions - preview

- In the presence of non-rationalizable roots, the results may not be expressible in terms of MPLs at all orders in ϵ . [Brown, Duhr, arXiv:2006.09413]
- In this case, series expansions come to the rescue!
- Starting from $\vec{B}^{(i)}(\gamma(1)) = \int_0^1 \mathbf{A}_x \vec{B}^{(i-1)} dx + \vec{B}^{(i)}(\gamma(0))$, we may perform the expansion:

$$\mathbf{A}_{x} = x^{r} \left[\sum_{p=0}^{k} \mathbf{C}_{p} x^{p} + \mathcal{O}\left(x^{k+1}\right) \right]$$

- Then integration becomes straightforward: $\int x^m \log(x)^n = x^{m+1} \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \log(x)^i$
- E.g. $\int x^{-3/5} \log^2(x) dx = \frac{5}{4} x^{2/5} \left(2 \log^2(x) 10 \log(x) + 25 \right)$

Boundary conditions

- To solve the system of differential equations, we need to supply <u>boundary conditions</u> at some suitable kinematic point or limit
- One approach is to use sector decomposition to obtain numerical data at some point:
 - Start from a point in the Euclidean region, where FIESTA and (py) SecDec have favorable run time.
 - Obtain numerics in other regions by solving the differential equations
 - The precision is limited to the precision of the boundary data
- Alternatively, we may obtain boundary conditions <u>analytically</u>:
 - Consider some asymptotic limit where particles go on-shell, or internal masses vanish.
 - Obtain solutions in closed-form in ϵ , ideally in terms of ratio's of gamma functions
 - The precision is unlimited, and we may obtain results at any order in ϵ

Boundary conditions (Analytic form)

- Typically, we consider a limit where most of the external scales vanish, such that the Feynman integrals simplify as much as possible.
- However, we can not in general commute the limit and the integration.
- Let's consider the example of the massive bubble:

$$\frac{e^{\gamma_E \epsilon}}{i\pi^{1-\epsilon}} \int d^d k_1 \frac{1}{(-k_1^2 + m^2) \left(-(k_1 + p)^2 + m^2\right)} = \frac{2 \log \left(\frac{-\sqrt{-p^2 - \sqrt{4m^2 - p^2}}}{\sqrt{-p^2} \sqrt{4m^2 - p^2}}\right)}{\sqrt{-p^2} \sqrt{4m^2 - p^2}} + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon)$$

• In the limit
$$m^2 = x$$
, with $x \downarrow 0$, we obtain: $\sim -\frac{2\left(\log\left(-p^2\right) - \log(x)\right)}{p^2} + \mathcal{O}(x)$

Boundary conditions

$$-\frac{2\left(\log\left(-p^2\right) - \log(x)\right)}{p^2} + \mathcal{O}(x)^1$$

Now, suppose we had started directly in the massless limit. We'd find:

$$e^{\gamma_E \epsilon} \left(i \pi^{d/2} \right)^{-1} \int d^d k_1 \frac{1}{\left(-k_1^2 \right) \left(-\left(k_1 + p \right)^2 \right)} = \frac{2}{p^2 \epsilon} - \frac{2 \log \left(-p^2 \right)}{p^2} + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon)$$

- The kinematic singularity has been transformed into a dimensionally regulated pole, yielding a different result than before!
- How do we obtain boundary conditions without computing the integral in a generic mass configuration first? (which would defeat the purpose)

[See works by Beneke and Smirnov]

- The solution is to use the method of expansions by regions.
- There is a particularly simple formulation in the parametric representation, which is implemented in the publicly available Mathematica package asy.m

See e.g. [Jantzen, Smirnov, Smirnov, 1206.0546]

Recall the Feynman parametrization:

$$I_{a_1,\ldots,a_n} = \left(i\pi^{rac{d}{2}}
ight)^l\Gammaigg(a-rac{ld}{2}igg)\int_{\Delta^{n-1}}ig[d^{n-1}ec{lpha}ig]igg(\prod_{i=1}^nrac{lpha_i^{a_i-1}}{\Gamma(a_i)}igg)\mathcal{U}^{a-rac{d}{2}(l+1)}\mathcal{F}^{-a+rac{ld}{2}}$$

$$egin{aligned} \left[d^{n-1}ec{lpha}
ight] &\equiv \sum_{j=1}^n (-1)^{j-1}lpha_j dlpha_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dlpha}_j \wedge \dots \wedge dlpha_n \ \Delta^{n-1} &= \left\{\left[lpha_1:lpha_2:\dots:lpha_n
ight] \in \mathbb{RP}^{n-1} \mid lpha_i \geq 0, 1 \leq i \leq n
ight\} \end{aligned}$$

Expansion by regions

Kinematic invariants and masses

- Suppose we are interested in a kinematic limit $s_i o s_i' = x^{\gamma_i} s_i ext{ for } i = 1, \dots, |S|$
- Then there exists a set of regions $\{R_i\}$, where $R_i = (r_{i1}, \dots, r_{im})$ is a vector of rational numbers.
- For each region R_i we rescale the Feynman parametrized integral in the following manner: $\alpha_j \to x^{R_{ij}} \alpha_j$, $d\alpha_j \to x^{R_{ij}} d\alpha_j$, $s_j \to x^{\gamma_j} s_j$

Each Feynman parameter scales according to the given region

In addition, we take our desired kinematic limit

 The asymptotic limit is then given by summing over the contributions of each region, expanding on x, and integrating.

Expansion by regions

• Let's have another look at the massive bubble. The Feynman parametrization is:

$$\frac{e^{\gamma_E \epsilon} \Gamma(\epsilon + 1)}{i\pi^{1 - \epsilon}} \int_{\Delta} d\alpha_1 d\alpha_2 \left(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2\right)^{2\epsilon} \left(\alpha_1^2 m^2 + \alpha_2^2 m^2 + 2\alpha_1 \alpha_2 m^2 - \alpha_1 \alpha_2 p^2\right)^{-1 - \epsilon}$$

• We feed asy.m the $\mathcal U$ and $\mathcal F$ polynomials, and obtain the regions:

$$R_1 = \{0, 0\}, \quad R_2 = \{0, -1\}, \quad R_3 = \{0, 1\}$$

- Leading to: $\frac{e^{\gamma_E \epsilon} \Gamma(\epsilon+1)}{i\pi^{1-\epsilon}} \int_{\Delta} d\alpha_1 d\alpha_2 \left(x^{-\epsilon} \left(x\alpha_1+\alpha_2\right)^{2\epsilon} \left(x^2\alpha_1^2-p^2\alpha_1\alpha_2+2x\alpha_1\alpha_2+\alpha_2^2\right)^{-1-\epsilon}\right)$ $+(\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2})^{2\epsilon}(x\alpha_{1}^{2}-p^{2}\alpha_{1}\alpha_{2}+2x\alpha_{1}\alpha_{2}+x\alpha_{2}^{2})^{-1-\epsilon}$ $+x^{-\epsilon} (\alpha_1 + x\alpha_2)^{2\epsilon} (\alpha_1^2 - p^2\alpha_1\alpha_2 + 2x\alpha_1\alpha_2 + x^2\alpha_2^2)^{-1-\epsilon})$
- For the purpose of computing boundary conditions, we often only need the <u>leading</u> term of the expansion with respect to the line parameter

Expansion by regions

• At leading order in x, we obtain:

$$\frac{e^{\gamma_E \epsilon} \Gamma(\epsilon+1)}{i\pi^{1-\epsilon}} \int_{\Delta} d\alpha_1 d\alpha_2 \left(x^{-\epsilon} \alpha_2^{-1+\epsilon} \left(-p^2 \alpha_1 + m^2 \alpha_2 \right)^{-1-\epsilon} + \alpha_1^{-\epsilon-1} \alpha_2^{-\epsilon-1} \left(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \right)^{2\epsilon} \left(-p^2 \right)^{-1-\epsilon} + x^{-\epsilon} \alpha_1^{\epsilon-1} \left(\alpha_1 m^2 - \alpha_2 p^2 \right)^{-\epsilon-1} \right)$$

 Although we have a sum of terms, each piece is simpler to integrate than the Feynman parametrization of the massive bubble. Performing the integrations yields:

$$\frac{\epsilon \left(-p^2\right)^{-\epsilon-1} \Gamma(-\epsilon)^2 \Gamma(\epsilon)}{\Gamma(-2\epsilon)} - \frac{2x^{-\epsilon} \Gamma(\epsilon)}{p^2} = -\frac{2\left(\log\left(-p^2\right) - \log(x)\right)}{p^2} + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon)$$

- Which agrees with the result we found before!
- Note as well that the boundary conditions are just ratios of gamma functions

Series solutions to differential equations

- We saw previously how to find series expansions for a canonical-form system
- Next consider a more general system of partial differential equations of the form:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial s_i} \vec{f}(\{S\}, \epsilon) = \mathbf{A}_{s_i} \vec{f}(\{S\}, \epsilon) \overset{\gamma(x) : [0, 1] \to \mathbb{C}^{|S|}}{\Rightarrow} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \vec{f}(x, \epsilon) = \mathbf{A}_x \vec{f}(x, \epsilon),$$

• We will restrict ourselves to the following conditions on the ϵ expansion:

$$\mathbf{A}_{x}(x,\epsilon) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathbf{A}_{x}^{(k)}(x)\epsilon^{k}, \quad \vec{f}(x,\epsilon) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \vec{f}^{(k)}(x)\epsilon^{k}$$

- The condition on the basis integrals \vec{f} is trivial, as we can always multiply out the highest pole.
- The finiteness condition on $A_{x}(x,\epsilon)$ can typically also be instated by performing appropriate ϵ rescalings of the basis integrals.

• After plugging in the ϵ expansions, we have that:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \vec{f}(x, \epsilon) = \mathbf{A}_x \vec{f}(x, \epsilon) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \partial_x \vec{f}^{(k)} = \mathbf{A}_x^{(0)} \vec{f}^{(k)} + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \mathbf{A}_x^{(k-j)} f^{(j)}$$

- We can decompose these differential equation further
- Let $\{f_{\sigma_1}, \dots, f_{\sigma_n}\}$ be a set of "coupled" integrals, and relabel $f_{\sigma_1} \to g_1, f_{\sigma_2} \to g_2, \dots$
- Then $\partial_x \vec{g}^{(k)} = \mathbf{M} \vec{g}^{(k)} + \vec{b}^{(k)}$

Where:
$$\mathbf{M}_{ij} = \left(\mathbf{A}_x^{(0)}\right)_{\sigma_i,\sigma_j}, \quad \vec{b}_i^{(k)} = \sum_{j \notin \Sigma} \left[\left(\mathbf{A}_x^{(0)}\right)_{\sigma_i j} f_j^{(k)} + \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} \left(\mathbf{A}_x^{(k-l)}\right)_{\sigma_i j} f_j^{(l)} \right]$$

Homogeneous part: the same at all orders in ϵ

- We consider integrals to be "coupled" when they depend on each other at finite order in ϵ upon repeated differentiation. For example, if $\partial_x f_i$ contains a component of integral f_j , and vice-versa, then f_i and f_j are coupled together.
- To integrate the differential equations, we should proceed at the lowest order in ϵ and integrate from the lowest sectors / topologies, up to the highest. We then move to the next order in ϵ and continue.

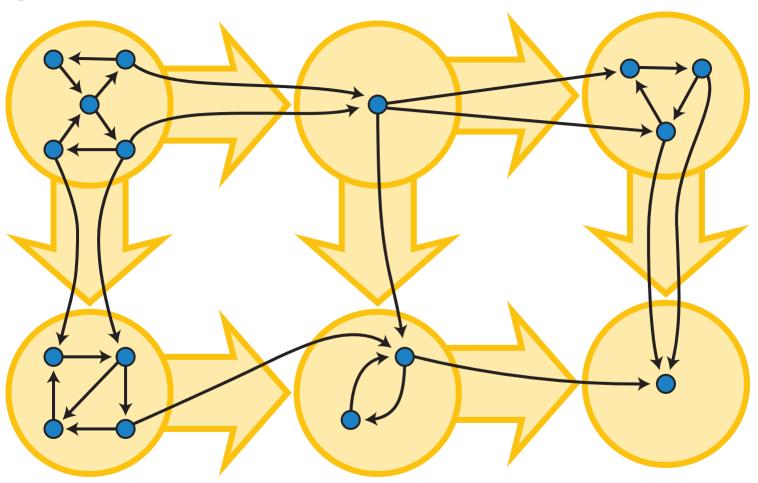
• How do we read off an integration order directly from ${f A}_{x}^{(0)}$, satisfying these observations?

Integration sequence

- Consider a graph G, which has an edge $f_j \to f_i$, if the derivative of f_i includes a contribution from f_i at order ϵ^0 .
- Next, determine the <u>strongly connected components</u> of *G*
 - These are sets of vertices for which there is a <u>directed path</u> between every pair of vertices.
 - Note: every vertex is connected to itself by definition
- The strongly connected components are the coupled integrals. Next, we consider the graph of strongly connected components, called the "condensation" of G

Integration sequence

- Example of the condensation of a directed cyclic graph:
- The condensation has edges between two str. conn. components, when there is an edge between its integrals in the original graph G
- The condensation is an acyclic graph defining a partial ordering, from which we read off the integration order.



- We have now decomposed the differential equation such that we have to solve for each coupled block \vec{g} at order ϵ^k a system of the form: $\partial_x \vec{g}^{(k)} = \mathbf{M} \vec{g}^{(k)} + \vec{b}^{(k)}$
- Following the previously described integration order, $\vec{b}^{(k)}$ is always available from previously computed data.
- We can split up the task in two parts:
 - 1: Solve the homogeneous diff. eqns: $\partial_x \vec{q}^{(k)} = \mathbf{M} \vec{q}^{(k)}$
 - 2. Obtain solutions to the full system of diff. eqns
- In the following we will drop the subscripts for brevity.

Homogeneous differential equations

- Consider $\partial_x \vec{q} = \mathbf{M} \vec{q}$
- Strategy (based on combination of standard techniques):
 - Combine the system into a p-th order differential equation for g_i
 - Find p (homogeneous) solutions for q_i using the Frobenius method and reduction of order
 - 3. Solve for the remaining g_i in terms of g_i
- Detailed steps can be found in [MH, 2006.05510].
- The result is a matrix of solutions **F**, satisfying $\partial \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{F}$

Inhomogeneous differential equations

- Next, we consider the full system $\partial_x \vec{g} = \mathbf{M} \vec{g} + \vec{b}$
- We leave out the derivation, and provide the solution below:

$$ec{g} = \sum_{j=1}^p ec{\mathbf{G}}_j, \mathbf{G} = \mathbf{F} igg(\int \mathbf{F}^{-1} \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{E} igg)$$

Where $\mathbf{B} = \frac{1}{n}(\vec{b}, \dots, \vec{b})$ contains the inhomogeneous terms along the columns, and where $\mathbf{E} = \mathrm{diag}(e_1, \ldots, e_p)$ is a diagonal matrix of integration constants to be determined by boundary values.

Inhomogeneous differential equations

• If we reintroduce a superscript for the order in ϵ we have that:

$$\vec{g}^{(k)} = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \vec{\mathbf{G}}_{j}^{(k)}, \mathbf{G}^{(k)} = \mathbf{F}(\int \mathbf{F}^{-1} \mathbf{B}^{(k)} + \mathbf{E}^{(k)})$$

- We need to compute **F** and \mathbf{F}^{-1} only once. Higher orders in ϵ are obtained by two matrix multiplications, and a single integration (which is implemented using an efficient replacement rule.)
- This compares favorably to a straightforward "variation of parameters" implementation, which involves computing p determinants of matrices of size $(p-1) \times (p-1)$ for each order in ϵ . (Take into account the matrix entries are themselves series expansion.)

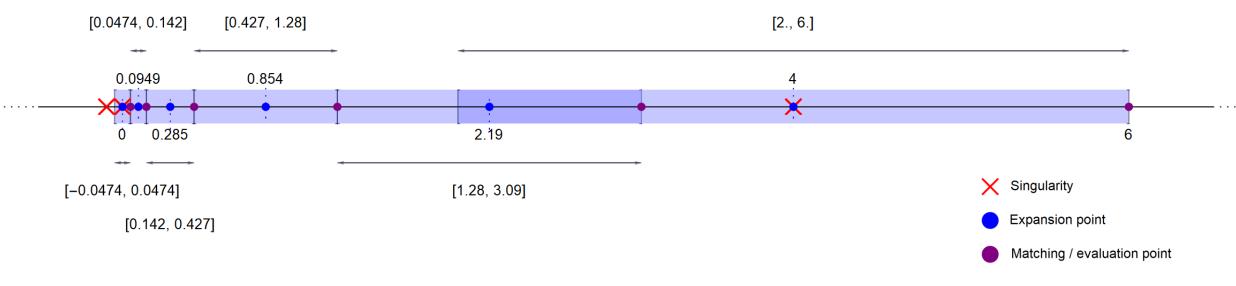
Line segmentation

- The series solutions have a <u>finite radius of convergence</u>.
- By <u>concatenating</u> solutions centered at different line segments we can reach any point in phase-space. How do we choose where to center them?

- We may choose the line segments such that each expansion is evaluated at most 1/k the distance to the nearest singularity, where k > 1.
- To cross singularities, we center an expansion <u>at the singularity</u>

Line segmentation

- For example, suppose: $X_{sing} = (..., -0.095, 0, 4, 16, ...)$ $x_{\text{start}} = 0$, $x_{\text{end}} = 6$
- Then we may pick the following partitioning into 6 line segments, such that each evaluation happens at most ½ the distance to the nearest singularity:



Analytic continuation

- The series solutions centered at singularities may contain logarithms and square roots.
 - Logarithms appear by integration of poles 1/x.
 - Square roots can arise from the homogeneous solutions (when the indicial equation has a half-integer root), or from the basis definition.
- By transferring an $i\delta$ -prescription to the line parameter, we can perform the analytic continuation of these functions. In particular we can let:

$$\log(x + i\delta) = \log(x), \qquad \sqrt{x + i\delta} = \sqrt{x}$$
$$\log(x - i\delta) = \log(x) - 2\pi i\theta_m, \qquad \sqrt{x - i\delta} = (\theta_p - \theta_m)\sqrt{x}$$

Analytic continuation

- We don't like to carry theta functions around in the series expansions (for performance reasons), so we may instead use replacement rules.
- For example, if x carries $-i\delta$, and we evaluate at a point x < 0, we let:

$$\log(x) \to \log(x) - 2\pi i, \quad \sqrt{x} \to -\sqrt{x}$$

- Additional comments:
 - The $i\delta$ -prescriptions can be determined from the Feynman prescription
 - Typically, we should avoid crossing two singular regions at the same time

Möbius transformations

- Using Möbius transformations we may improve the convergence of the expansions. For example, consider: $f(x) = \frac{1}{1/10 + x} + \frac{1}{1-x}$
- Then: $f(x) = 9 101x + 999x^2 10001x^3 + 99999x^4 1000001x^5 + \mathcal{O}(x)^6$
- Next, consider the Möbius transformation: $x = \frac{2y}{11-9y}$, so that for $y \in [-1,1]$, we have $x \in [-1/10,1]$.
- We then have: $f(y) = 9 \frac{202y}{11} + 18y^2 \frac{202y^3}{11} + 18y^4 \frac{202y^5}{11} + \mathcal{O}(y)^6$
- And numerically we find: $S_{100}f(y=11/13)=-0.335377$ f(x=1/2)=1/3, $S_{100}f(x=1/2)=-1.31477...\cdot 10^{70}$,

Möbius transformations

- Thus, we may improve the integration strategy in the following way:
 - Find the singularity whose <u>real</u> part is nearest on the left of the origin
 - Find the singularity whose <u>real</u> part is nearest on the right of the origin
 - Map these respective singularities to -1, and 1.
- Disadvantages:
 - Möbius transformations may slow down the series expansions of the matrices, partly negating their speedup. (Perhaps this can be improved in future versions of DiffExp.)

Padé approximants

 Lastly, we may use (diagonal) Padé approximants to accelerate the convergence of our series. These are rational functions, whose series expansion matches the original series. For example:

$$\sqrt{1+x} = 1 + \frac{x}{2} - \frac{x^2}{8} + \frac{x^3}{16} - \frac{5x^4}{128} + \frac{7x^5}{256} - \frac{21x^6}{1024} + \frac{33x^7}{2048} - \frac{429x^8}{32768} + \frac{715x^9}{65536} - \frac{2431x^{10}}{262144} + O(x^{11})$$

$$S_{10}(\sqrt{1+x})|_{x=1/2} - \sqrt{1+1/2} = -2.72 \cdot 10^{-6}$$

• Padé approximant:

$$\sqrt{1+x} \approx \frac{1 + \frac{22x}{9} + \frac{33x^2}{16} + \frac{11x^3}{16} + \frac{55x^4}{768}}{1 + \frac{35x}{18} + \frac{175x^2}{144} + \frac{25x^3}{96} + \frac{25x^4}{2304} - \frac{x^5}{4608}}$$
$$(P_{4,5}(\sqrt{1+x})|_{x=1/2} - \sqrt{1+1/2}) = -3.47 \cdot 10^{-10}$$

- Downsides: 1. Requires higher working precision
 - 2. Computation of the Padé approximants takes time

Examples

Higgs plus jet production @ NLO

- Main production mode of the Higgs boson @ LHC is via gluon-gluon fusion
- The Higgs particle does not couple directly to gluons. The interaction is mediated by a heavy quark loop, so that next-to-leading order concerns two-loop diagrams
- To this date, no NLO computation is available of the whole p_T -spectrum, including quark-mass effects for all quark flavors
 - An NLO computation including the top-quark mass but neglecting bottom-quark mass has been
 performed using sector decomposition for the integrals

 [Jones, Kerner, Luisoni, 2018]
 - Various computations have also been done in HEFT (some up to N³LO)

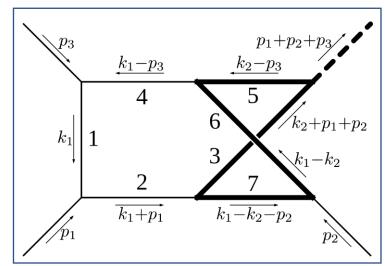
 e.g.: [Anastasiou, Duhr, Dulat, Herzog, Mistlberger, 1503.06056].
 [Chen, Gehrmann, Glover, Huss, Mistlberger, Pelloni, 2102.07607]
 (Chen, Gehrmann, Glover, Huss, Mistlberger, Pelloni, 2102.07607)
 (Chen, Gehrmann, Glover, Huss, Mistlberger, Pelloni, 2102.07607)

Higgs + jet integrals

- Integrals relevant for H+j production at NLO with full heavy quark mass dependence
- Dependence on three scales (after normalizing out mass dependence)
- Families A, F, and G contain elliptic sectors

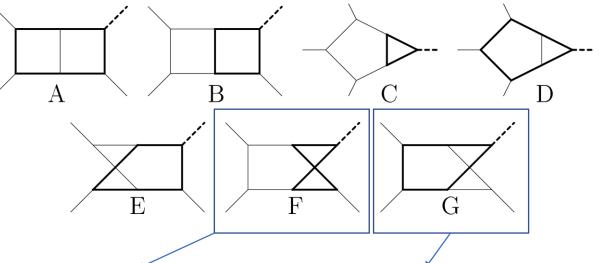
$$s = (p_1 + p_2)^2, \quad t = (p_1 + p_3)^2$$

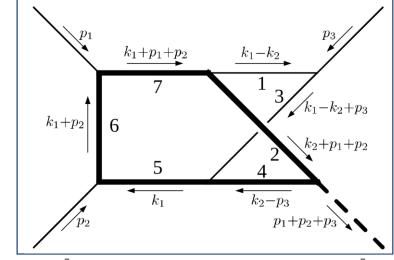
 $p_4^2 = (p_1 + p_2 + p_3)^2 = s + t + u$
 m_q



[Bonciani et al, 1907.13156]

R. Bonciani, V. Del Duca, H. Frellesvig, J. M. Henn, MH, L. Maestri, F. Moriello, G. Salvatori, V. A. Smirnov [Bonciani et al, 1609.06685]





[Frellesvig et al, 1911.06308]

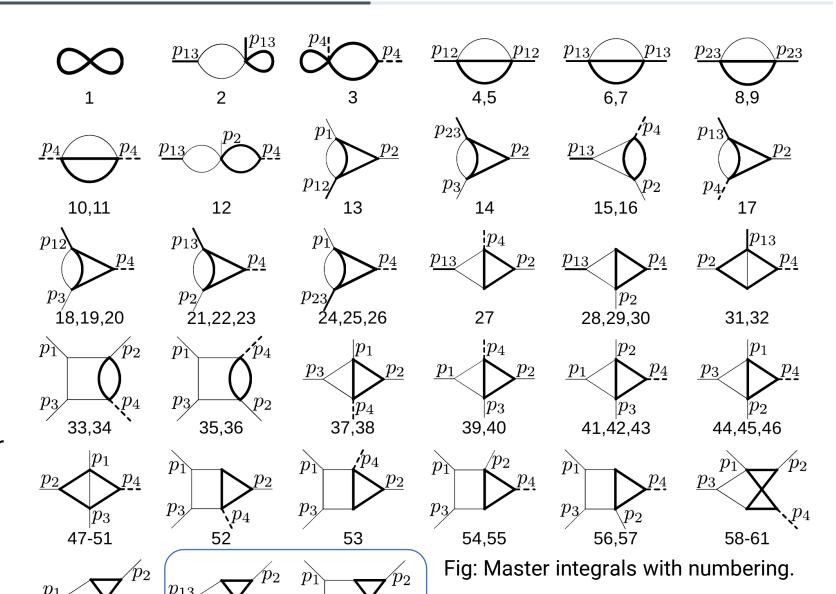
62-65

66,67

68-73

Family F Master integrals

- IBP-reduction:
 - 73 master integrals
 - Default FIRE basis: O(1 GB)
 - More suitable (precanonical) basis: $\mathcal{O}(100 \text{ MB})$
 - Possible using either FIRE or KIRA
- Differential eqns: O(10 MB)[Bonciani et al, 1907.13156]

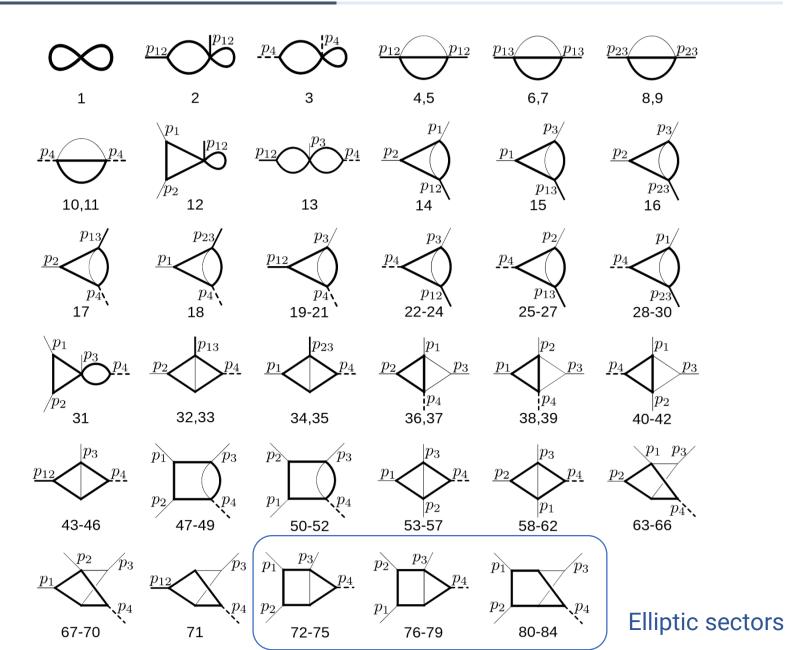


Elliptic sectors

Family G Master integrals

- IBP-reduction:
 - 84 master integrals
 - Default FIRE basis: O(1 GB)
 - More suitable (pre-canonical) basis: $\mathcal{O}(100 \text{ MB})$
 - Possible using either FIRE or KIRA
- Differential eqns: O(10 MB)

[Bonciani et al, 1911.06308]



Boundary conditions of family F

• All boundary conditions for family F: $(s, t, p_4^2, m^2) \rightarrow (xs, xt, xp_4^2, m^2)$

$$\lim_{x \to 0} B_1 = e^{2\gamma \epsilon} \Gamma(\epsilon + 1)^2 (m^2)^{-2\epsilon} ,$$

$$\lim_{x \to 0} B_2 \sim x^{-\epsilon} \left(\pi e^{2\gamma \epsilon} \epsilon (m^2)^{-\epsilon} (-t)^{-\epsilon} \Gamma(2\epsilon + 1) \cot(\pi \epsilon) \right) ,$$

$$\lim_{x \to 0} B_i = 0 \quad \text{for } i = 3, \dots, 72 .$$

$$\lim_{x \to 0} B_{73} \sim x^{-\epsilon} \left(-4\pi e^{2\gamma \epsilon} \epsilon^3 \frac{(p_4^2 - 4s - t)}{(p_4^2 - 2s - t)} (m^2)^{-\epsilon} (-t)^{-\epsilon} \Gamma(2\epsilon) \cot(\pi \epsilon) \right) .$$

Requires computation of numerous integrals:

Boundary conditions of family F

```
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         11;
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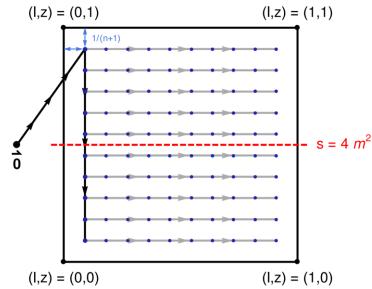
Higgs + jet integrals

[1907.13156, 1911.06308]

 We can obtain 3-dimensional plots, if we sample enough points. Consider the parametrization:

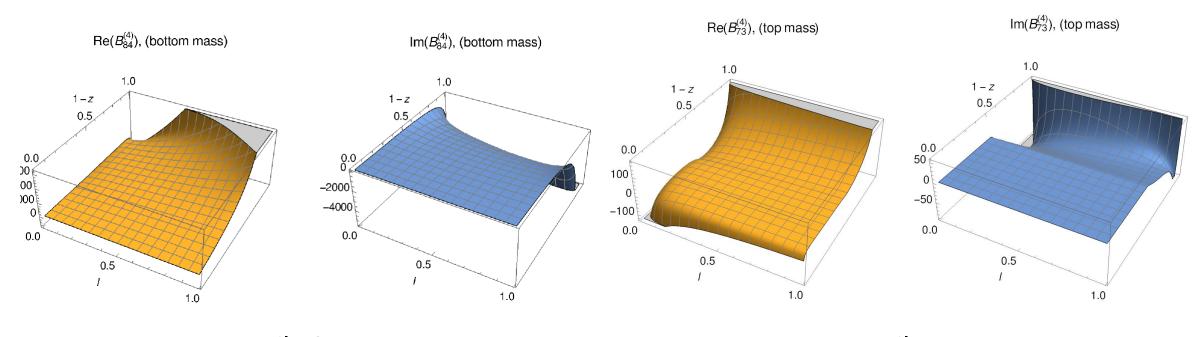
top
$$(l,z)_t$$
: $s = \frac{87 - 74z}{25z}$, $t = \frac{87 l (z - 1)}{25z}$, $p_4^2 = \frac{13}{25}$, bottom $(l,z)_b$: $s = \frac{323761}{361z}$, $t = \frac{323761 l (z - 1)}{361z}$, $p_4^2 = \frac{323761}{361}$.

 Which maps the physical regions of the top quark and bottom quark contributions to the unit square:



Higgs + jet integrals

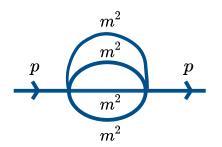
Plots sampled from 10000 points on an evenly spaced grid.



Family G Family F

Example of timing: obtaining 10000 points for family G, on a 4-core laptop CPU took about 19.5 hours for the top quark contributions.

First, we consider the equal-mass case:



$$I_{a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4}^{\text{banana}} = \left(\frac{e^{\gamma_E \epsilon}}{i\pi^{d/2}}\right)^3 (m^2)^{a - \frac{3}{2}(2 - 2\epsilon)} \left(\prod_{i=1}^4 \int d^d k_i\right) D_1^{-a_1} D_2^{-a_2} D_3^{-a_3} D_4^{-a_4}$$

$$D_1 = -k_1^2 + m^2$$
, $D_2 = -k_2^2 + m^2$, $D_3 = -k_3^2 + m^2$, $D_4 = -(k_1 + k_2 + k_3 + p_1)^2 + m^2$

The differential equations are given by:

$$\vec{B}^{\text{banana}} = \left(\epsilon I_{2211}^{\text{banana}}, \epsilon (1+3\epsilon) I_{2111}^{\text{banana}}, \epsilon (1+3\epsilon) (1+4\epsilon) I_{1111}^{\text{banana}}, \epsilon^3 I_{1110}^{\text{banana}}\right)$$

$$\partial_t \vec{B}^{\text{banana}} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{64 - 2t + t^2 + (8 + t)^2 \epsilon}{t(t - 16)(t - 4)} & \frac{2(t + 20)(2\epsilon + 1)}{t(t - 16)(t - 4)} & -\frac{6(2\epsilon + 1)}{t(t - 16)(t - 4)} & -\frac{2\epsilon}{t(t - 16)} \\ \frac{3t(3\epsilon + 1)}{t(t - 4)} & -\frac{2(t + 8)\epsilon + t + 4}{t(t - 4)} & \frac{3\epsilon + 1}{t(t - 4)} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{4(4\epsilon + 1)}{t} & \frac{-3\epsilon - 1}{t} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \vec{B}^{\text{banana}}$$

• With $t = p_1^2/m^2$

- Next, let us obtain suitable boundary conditions
- The Feynman parametrization is given by:

$$I_{1111}^{\text{banana}} = ie^{3\gamma\epsilon} \Gamma(3\epsilon + 1) \left(m^2\right)^{-3\epsilon - 1} x^{3\epsilon + 1} \int_{\Delta} d\alpha_1 d\alpha_2 d\alpha_3 d\alpha_4 \left(\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 + \alpha_1 \alpha_4 \alpha_3 + \alpha_2 \alpha_4 \alpha_3 + \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_4\right)^{4\epsilon} \left(\alpha_2 \alpha_3 \alpha_1^2 x + \alpha_2 \alpha_4 \alpha_1^2 x + \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \alpha_1^2 x + \alpha_2 \alpha_3^2 \alpha_1 x + \alpha_2 \alpha_4^2 \alpha_1 x + \alpha_3 \alpha_4^2 \alpha_1 x + \alpha_2^2 \alpha_3 \alpha_1 x + \alpha_2^2 \alpha_4 \alpha_1 x + \alpha_3^2 \alpha_4 \alpha_1 x + 4\alpha_2 \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \alpha_1 x + \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \alpha_4^2 x + \alpha_2 \alpha_3^2 \alpha_4 x + \alpha_2^2 \alpha_3 \alpha_4 x + \alpha_2^2 \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \alpha_1\right)^{-3\epsilon - 1}$$

- Where we let t = -1/x.
- We will compute boundary conditions in the limit $x \to 0$, which is equivalent to the limit where the mass vanishes.

- We use the method of expansions by regions and asy.m to obtain the regions.
- They are given by:

$$R_1 = \{0, -1, -1, -1\}, \quad R_2 = \{0, -1, -1, 0\}, \quad R_3 = \{0, 0, 0, 0\},$$

 $R_4 = \{0, 0, 0, -1\}, \quad R_5 = \{0, 1, 1, 0\}, \quad R_6 = \{0, 0, 1, 0\},$
 $R_7 = \{0, -1, 0, -1\}, \quad R_8 = \{0, -1, 0, 0\}, \quad R_9 = \{0, 0, 0, 1\},$
 $R_{10} = \{0, 1, 1, 1\}, \quad R_{11} = \{0, 0, 1, 1\}, \quad R_{12} = \{0, 1, 0, 0\},$
 $R_{13} = \{0, 0, -1, -1\}, \quad R_{14} = \{0, 1, 0, 1\}, \quad R_{15} = \{0, 0, -1, 0\}.$

Their contributions work out to:

$$\begin{split} & I_{1111}^{R_1} \sim xe^{3\gamma\epsilon}\Gamma(\epsilon)^3\,, \qquad I_{1111}^{R_2} \sim \frac{e^{3\gamma\epsilon}\epsilon x^{\epsilon+1}\Gamma(-\epsilon)^2\Gamma(\epsilon)^3}{\Gamma(-2\epsilon)}\,, \qquad I_{1111}^{R_3} \sim \frac{3e^{3\gamma\epsilon}\epsilon x^{3\epsilon+1}\Gamma(-\epsilon)^4\Gamma(3\epsilon)}{\Gamma(-4\epsilon)}\,, \\ & I_{1111}^{R_4} \sim \frac{2e^{3\gamma\epsilon}\epsilon x^{2\epsilon+1}\Gamma(-\epsilon)^3\Gamma(\epsilon)\Gamma(2\epsilon)}{\Gamma(-3\epsilon)}\,, \qquad I_{1111}^{R_5} \sim \frac{e^{3\gamma\epsilon}\epsilon x^{\epsilon+1}\Gamma(-\epsilon)^2\Gamma(\epsilon)^3}{\Gamma(-2\epsilon)}\,, \qquad I_{1111}^{R_6} \sim xe^{3\gamma\epsilon}\Gamma(\epsilon)^3\,, \\ & I_{1111}^{R_7} \sim \frac{e^{3\gamma\epsilon}\epsilon x^{\epsilon+1}\Gamma(-\epsilon)^2\Gamma(\epsilon)^3}{\Gamma(-2\epsilon)}\,, \qquad I_{1111}^{R_8} \sim \frac{2e^{3\gamma\epsilon}\epsilon x^{2\epsilon+1}\Gamma(-\epsilon)^3\Gamma(\epsilon)\Gamma(2\epsilon)}{\Gamma(-3\epsilon)}\,, \qquad I_{1111}^{R_9} \sim xe^{3\gamma\epsilon}\Gamma(\epsilon)^3\,, \\ & I_{1111}^{R_{10}} \sim \frac{2e^{3\gamma\epsilon}\epsilon x^{2\epsilon+1}\Gamma(-\epsilon)^3\Gamma(\epsilon)\Gamma(2\epsilon)}{\Gamma(-3\epsilon)}\,, \qquad I_{1111}^{R_{11}} \sim \frac{e^{3\gamma\epsilon}\epsilon x^{\epsilon+1}\Gamma(-\epsilon)^2\Gamma(\epsilon)^3}{\Gamma(-2\epsilon)}\,, \qquad I_{1111}^{R_{12}} \sim xe^{3\gamma\epsilon}\Gamma(\epsilon)^3\,, \\ & I_{1111}^{R_{13}} \sim \frac{e^{3\gamma\epsilon}\epsilon x^{\epsilon+1}\Gamma(-\epsilon)^2\Gamma(\epsilon)^3}{\Gamma(-2\epsilon)}\,, \qquad I_{1111}^{R_{14}} \sim \frac{e^{3\gamma\epsilon}\epsilon x^{\epsilon+1}\Gamma(-\epsilon)^2\Gamma(\epsilon)^3}{\Gamma(-2\epsilon)}\,, \qquad I_{1111}^{R_{15}} \sim \frac{2e^{3\gamma\epsilon}\epsilon x^{2\epsilon+1}\Gamma(-\epsilon)^3\Gamma(\epsilon)\Gamma(2\epsilon)}{\Gamma(-3\epsilon)}\,. \end{split}$$

Summing over all contributions, we obtain the following result:

$$I_{1111}^{\text{banana}} \stackrel{x\downarrow 0}{\sim} \frac{6e^{3\gamma\epsilon}\epsilon x^{\epsilon+1}\Gamma(-\epsilon)^{2}\Gamma(\epsilon)^{3}}{\Gamma(-2\epsilon)} + \frac{8e^{3\gamma\epsilon}\epsilon x^{2\epsilon+1}\Gamma(-\epsilon)^{3}\Gamma(\epsilon)\Gamma(2\epsilon)}{\Gamma(-3\epsilon)} + \frac{3e^{3\gamma\epsilon}\epsilon x^{3\epsilon+1}\Gamma(-\epsilon)^{4}\Gamma(3\epsilon)}{\Gamma(-4\epsilon)} + \frac{4xe^{3\gamma\epsilon}\Gamma(\epsilon)^{3} + \mathcal{O}(x^{2})}{\Gamma(-4\epsilon)}.$$

$$I_{1110}^{\text{banana}} = e^{3\gamma\epsilon}\Gamma(\epsilon)^{3}$$

• Next, we show how to obtain results for any values of p^2 using DiffExp

DiffExp

- Typical usage of the package:
 - Set configuration options using the method LoadConfiguration [opts_]
 - Prepare a list of boundary conditions using PrepareBoundaryConditions[bcs_, line_]
 - Then we can find series solutions along a line using the function:

```
IntegrateSystem[bcsprepared_, line_]
```

• Or one can transport the boundary conditions to a new point using:

```
TransportTo[bcsprepared , point ]
```

Load DiffExp:

```
Get[FileNameJoin[{NotebookDirectory[], "..", "DiffExp.m"}]];
Loading DiffExp version 1.0.2
Author: Martijn Hidding. Email: hiddingm@tcd.ie.
```

Set the configuration options and load the matrices

```
EqualMassConfiguration = {
    DeltaPrescriptions → {t - 16 + I δ},
    MatrixDirectory → NotebookDirectory[] <> "Banana_EqualMass_Matrices/",
    UseMobius → True, UsePade → True
    };

LoadConfiguration[EqualMassConfiguration];

DiffExp: Loading matrices.

DiffExp: Found files: {dt_0.m, dt_1.m, dt_2.m, dt_3.m, dt_4.m}

DiffExp: Kinematic invariants and masses: {t}

DiffExp: Getting irreducible factors..

DiffExp: Configuration updated.
```

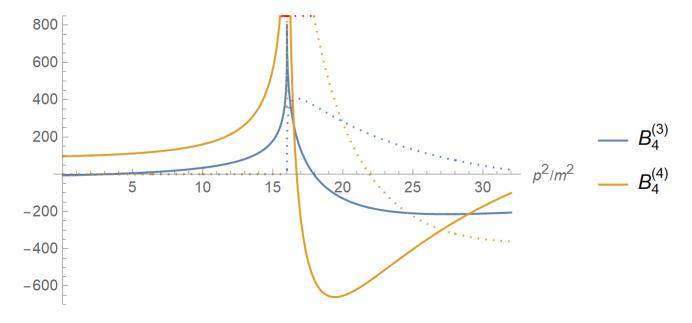
• Prepare the boundary conditions along an asymptotic limit:

```
EqualMassBoundaryConditions = {
                                           "?",
                                           "?",
                                     \varepsilon (1+3\varepsilon) (1+4\varepsilon) \left( -\frac{4 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \operatorname{Gamma} [\varepsilon]^{3}}{t} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{2} \operatorname{Gamma} [\varepsilon]^{3}}{\operatorname{Gamma} [-2\varepsilon]} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{2} \operatorname{Gamma} [\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{2} \operatorname{Gamma} [\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{2} \operatorname{Gamma} [\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{2} \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3} \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3} \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3} \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3} \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \left( -\frac{1}{t} \right)^{1+\varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + \frac{6 e^{3 \operatorname{EulerGamma} \varepsilon} \varepsilon \operatorname{Gamma} [-\varepsilon]^{3}}{\varepsilon} + 
                                                                     \frac{8 \, e^{3 \, \text{EulerGamma} \, \epsilon} \, \left(-\frac{1}{t}\right)^{1+2 \, \epsilon} \, \epsilon \, \text{Gamma} \left[-\epsilon\right]^{3} \, \text{Gamma} \left[\epsilon\right] \, \text{Gamma} \left[2 \, \epsilon\right]}{\text{Gamma} \left[-3 \, \epsilon\right]} \, + \, \frac{3 \, e^{3 \, \text{EulerGamma} \, \epsilon} \, \left(-\frac{1}{t}\right)^{1+3 \, \epsilon} \, \epsilon \, \text{Gamma} \left[-\epsilon\right]^{4} \, \text{Gamma} \left[3 \, \epsilon\right]}{\text{Gamma} \left[-4 \, \epsilon\right]}
                                         e^{3 \text{ EulerGamma } \epsilon} e^{3 \text{ Gamma } [\epsilon]^3}
                                              // PrepareBoundaryConditions [#, <|t \rightarrow -1/x|>] &;
    DiffExp: Integral 1: Ignoring boundary conditions.
   DiffExp: Integral 2: Ignoring boundary conditions.
    DiffExp: Assuming that integral 3 is exactly zero at epsilon order 0.
   DiffExp: Prepared boundary conditions in asymptotic limit, of the form:
```

Next, we transport the boundary conditions:

```
Transport1 = TransportTo [EqualMassBoundaryConditions, \langle |t \rightarrow -1| \rangle];
Transport2 = TransportTo [Transport1, \langle |t \rightarrow x| \rangle, 32, True];
DiffExp: Transporting boundary conditions along \langle \left| t \rightarrow -\frac{1}{x} \right| \rangle from x = 0. to x = 1.
DiffExp: Preparing partial derivative matrices along current line..
DiffExp: Determining positions of singularities and branch-cuts.
DiffExp: Possible singularities along line at positions {0.}.
DiffExp: Analyzing integration segments.
DiffExp: Segments to integrate: 3.
DiffExp: Integrating segment: \langle \left| t \rightarrow \frac{8 \cdot (-1 \cdot + 1 \cdot x)}{x} \right| \rangle.
DiffExp: Integrated segment 1 out of 3 in 20.8565 seconds.
DiffExp: Evaluating at x = 0.0625
DiffExp: Current segment error estimate: 5.14483 \times 10^{-31}
DiffExp: Total error estimate: 5.14483 \times 10^{-31}
                                              -1. + 1. x
DiffEyn. Intognating cogmont. / | + \
```

• Lastly, we plot the result:



• Timing:

- Moving from $p^2 = -\infty$ to $p^2 = 30$ at a precision of 25 digits takes about 90 sec, where we computed the top sector integrals up to and including order ϵ^3 .
- Moving from $p^2 = -\infty$ to $p^2 = 30$ at a precision of 100 digits takes a bit under 20 min, where we computed the top sector integrals up to and including order ϵ^3 .
- Obtaining 100+ digits at $p^2 = -100$ up to and including order ϵ^3 takes about 2.5 min.
- $B_3^{(k)}$:

U
4.082413202704059607801991461045097339855501253774222434496563798314848283907330199489603248642178129
-0.7713150915227857546258559692543676298350939151980774607908277236769934490973612004866036340787026038
-15.52268532416518855576696548019433617730937578226039207428302008586262767404183548619606743796239099
78.12509728148001692986790482079302619114776011817121195506011258285334682242128391076363566162968586

• In the unequal mass case, we may choose the "precanonical" basis:

$$\vec{B}^{\text{banana}} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \epsilon I_{1122}^{\text{banana}}, \, \epsilon I_{1212}^{\text{banana}}, \, \epsilon I_{1221}^{\text{banana}}, \, \epsilon I_{2112}^{\text{banana}}, \, \epsilon I_{2121}^{\text{banana}}, \, \epsilon I_{2211}^{\text{banana}}, \\ \epsilon (1+3\epsilon)I_{1112}^{\text{banana}}, \, \epsilon (1+3\epsilon)I_{1121}^{\text{banana}}, \, \epsilon (1+3\epsilon)I_{1211}^{\text{banana}}, \\ \epsilon (1+3\epsilon)I_{2111}^{\text{banana}}, \, \epsilon (1+3\epsilon)(1+4\epsilon)I_{1111}^{\text{banana}}, \\ \epsilon^3 I_{0111}^{\text{banana}}, \, \epsilon^3 I_{1011}^{\text{banana}}, \, \epsilon^3 I_{1101}^{\text{banana}}, \, \epsilon^3 I_{1110}^{\text{banana}} \end{array} \right\}$$

- The unequal mass case is significantly more difficult to compute for DiffExp, due to the presence of 11 coupled master integrals.
- The series expansions grow wildly at intermediate stages of the calculations, which puts the linear algebra routines off track.
- Therefore, we must work at a high working precision (1000+), and rescale the line parameters in a way that the series coefficients don't become too large at high orders

• We provide 55 digits of basis integral B_{11} below, in the point

$$(p^2 = 50, m_1^2 = 2, m_2^2 = 3/2, m_3^2 = 4/3, m_4^2 = 1)$$

```
B_{11}^{(0)} = 0
B_{11}^{(1)} = 5.1972521136965043170129578538563652405618939122389078645
       +i 6.8755169535390207501370685645538902299559024551830956594
B_{11}^{(2)} = -17.9580108112094060899523361698928478948780687053899075733
       +i \ 31.7436703633693090908402932299011971913508950649494231047
B_{11}^{(3)} = -121.5101152068177565203392807541216084962880772908306370668
       -i\ 40.7690762360202766453775999917172226537428258529145754746
B_{11}^{(4)} = 125.6113388023605534745593764004798958232118632681257073923
       -i\ 229.9200257172388589952062757571215176834471783495112755027
```

This point can be obtained in about 23 min.

We can also compute higher loop banana graphs.

$$I_{a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4}^{\text{banana}} = \left(\frac{e^{\gamma_E \epsilon}}{i\pi^{d/2}}\right)^4 \left(m^2\right)^{a-2(2-2\epsilon)} \left(\prod_{i=1}^5 \int d^d k_i\right) D_1^{-a_1} D_2^{-a_2} D_3^{-a_3} D_4^{-a_4} D_5^{-a_5}$$

$$D_1 = -k_1^2 + m^2, \quad D_2 = -k_2^2 + m^2, \quad D_3 = -k_3^2 + m^2$$

$$D_4 = -k_4^2 + m^2, \quad D_5 = -\left(k_1 + k_2 + k_3 + k_4 + p_1\right)^2 + m^2$$

We consider the following basis of "precanonical" masters:

$$B_{1} = \epsilon I_{11222}^{\text{banana}}$$
 $B_{2} = \epsilon (2\epsilon + 1) I_{11122}^{\text{banana}}$
 $B_{3} = \epsilon (2\epsilon + 1) (4\epsilon + 1) I_{11112}^{\text{banana}}$
 $B_{4} = \epsilon (2\epsilon + 1) (4\epsilon + 1) (5\epsilon + 1) I_{11111}^{\text{banana}}$
 $B_{5} = \epsilon^{4} I_{11110}^{\text{banana}}$

- We may find boundary conditions by <u>imposing the vanishing of non-physical singularities</u>.
- This allows a determination of the integrals completely from the differential equations, without any need for asymptotic expansions.
- This follows the approach of:
 - [Chicherin, Gehrmann, Henn, Lo Presti, Mitev, Wasser, 1809.06240]
 - [Abreu, Ita, Moriello, Page, Tschernow, Zeng, 2005.04195]
- First, we need to provide an overall normalization for the basis. This is provided by the tadpole integral which is equal to: $I_{11110}^{\rm banana}=e^{4\gamma_E\epsilon}\epsilon^4\Gamma(\epsilon)^4$

- Then we do the following:
 - We compute the general solution of the top sector integrals at t=0.
 - The expansions contain powers of logarithms, we set their coefficients to zero, which solves some of the indeterminate constants.
 - Next, we transport and center an expansion at t=1. There are again logarithms in the expansions, and we set their coefficients to zero.
 - We repeat this a final time and get rid of a non-physical singularity at t=9.

• Only the physical singularity at t=25 remains at the end and all coefficients are fixed

• Our original expansion was centered at t=0, where we now find the results:

```
0
                     0.5626161626035411
                                          0.3475481638835365
                                                                1.911555944481455
                                                                                       0.2718352134528369
                     1.923605373745244
                                           0.6752648394943755
                                                                 6.876325052991839
                                                                                       -1.339280364786555
                     7.989117602399249
                                          10.23095239518146
                                                                7,206853721986161
                                                                                       86.05832181407076
                     39.94558801199625
                                          91.10034998790354
                                                                -72.59332146214688
                                                                                       900.8362379685953
                                                                -1.602742537546126
1.0000000000000000
                                           3.289868133696453
                                                                                       6.493939402266829
```

• Or, moving to the point t = 50, we have:

```
-0.127301395 + 0.060055594 i
                                             0.44510796 + 0.05196919 i
                                                                          -3.6356361 + 2.3160967 i
                                                                                                      -3.337360 - 16.053530 i
0
             -0.6629555 + 1.5090835 i
                                             -4.6446551 - 6.2746996 i
                                                                          24.255982 - 2.263457 i
                                                                                                      -9.971355 + 57.386664 i
0
             4.6398127 + 9.9513277 i
                                             -41.998524 + 31.366660 i
                                                                          -130.68313 - 120.45461 i
                                                                                                      327.35602 - 310.64441 i
             50.934939 + 28.927728 i
                                             77.63780 + 297.73512 i
                                                                          -952.72123 + 736.44670 i
                                                                                                      -1977.1722 - 1153.1457 i
1.0000000
                                             3.2898681
                                                                          -1.6027425
                                                                                                      6,4939394
```

• As a simple exercise, we can also use DiffExp for evaluating MPLs. For example:

$$\partial_z egin{pmatrix} G(1,2;z) \ G(2;z) \ 1 \end{pmatrix} = egin{pmatrix} 0 & rac{1}{t-1} & 0 \ 0 & 0 & rac{1}{t-2} \ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} egin{pmatrix} G(1,2;z) \ G(2;z) \ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- For which the boundary conditions are (0,0,1) at z=0.
- After building a wrapper function, we can evaluate any MPL:

```
G[1, 2, 3] /. G \rightarrow GEvaluate // AbsoluteTiming  \left\{ 0.210704, \left( -3.770321147614654297611933 + 0. \times 10^{-27} \, \text{i} \right) + 9.59146 \times 10^{-25} \, \text{pm} \right\}  G[-1 + I, 1/2, 1/4] /. G \rightarrow GEvaluate // AbsoluteTiming  \left\{ 0.224892, \left( -0.037843655542722548767317976280272 - 0.032401313158193018998614285553716 \, \text{i} \right) + 2.91955 \times 10^{-34} \, \text{pm} \right\}
```

- Under normal circumstances, the timing lacks (considerably) behind GiNaC.
- But, in certain edge cases, we can beat GiNaC:

```
G[1, 2, 3, 4, 5] /. G \rightarrow GEvaluate // AbsoluteTiming
G[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6] /. G \rightarrow GEvaluate // AbsoluteTiming
G[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7] /. G \rightarrow GEvaluate // AbsoluteTiming
G[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8] / G GEvaluate // AbsoluteTiming
G[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9] / G \rightarrow GEvaluate // AbsoluteTiming
G[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10,
    11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20] /.G \rightarrow GEvaluate // AbsoluteTiming
\{1.08976, (1.60952262244033111588101496665449269230020513047 + 0. \times 10^{-49} i) + 3.70371 \times 10^{-48} pm\}
\left\{\textbf{1.67828, } \left(\textbf{0.}\times\textbf{10}^{-49} + \textbf{0.71789987161399442910474431842108605646469682529 \pm\right) + 5.19787\times\textbf{10}^{-48}~\text{pm}\right\}
\left\{	exttt{2.41852, } \left(-0.26582341298336027219930343877387480773417067112 + 0.	imes10^{-50}~i
ight) + 4.73081 	imes 10^{-48}~pm
ight\}
 \left\{\textbf{3.32486, } \left(\textbf{0.}\times\textbf{10}^{-49}-\textbf{0.084172382298875420168544610304946321745592846631} \pm\right) + \textbf{2.6084}\times\textbf{10}^{-48}~\text{pm}\right\}
\{4.45558, (0.023286104182601022207577211044712620080786210006 + 0. \times 10^{-51} i) + 6.62625 \times 10^{-49} pm\}
 \{26.3489, (0. 	imes 10^{-57} - 4.6560546132501809204467164540854133971365381 	imes 10^{-11} \pm ) + 3.59355 	imes 10^{-55} \, \mathrm{pm} \}
```

```
Ginsh[G[1, 2, 3, 4, 5], \{x \rightarrow x\}] // AbsoluteTiming
Ginsh[G[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6], \{x \rightarrow x\}] // AbsoluteTiming
Ginsh[G[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7], \{x \rightarrow x\}] // AbsoluteTiming
Ginsh[G[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8], \{x \rightarrow x\}] // AbsoluteTiming
Ginsh[G[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9], \{x \rightarrow x\}] // AbsoluteTiming
{0.091646, 1.6095226224403311158810149666544926923}
\{0.390622, 0.71789987161399442910474431842108605647 i\}
{2.40738, -0.26582341298336027219930343877387480812}
\{14.3798, -0.0841723822988754201685446103049463215116 i\}
{84.4906, 0.023286104182601022207577211044712622530}
```

 We can also evaluate generalized hypergeometric functions, such as the Appell functions. For example, we have with $F_1(x,y) \equiv F_1(a,b_1,b_2,c;x,y)$

$$x(1-x)rac{\partial^2 F_1(x,y)}{\partial x^2} + y(1-x)rac{\partial^2 F_1(x,y)}{\partial x \partial y} + [c-(a+b_1+1)x]rac{\partial F_1(x,y)}{\partial x} - b_1yrac{\partial F_1(x,y)}{\partial y} - ab_1F_1(x,y) = 0$$
 $y(1-y)rac{\partial^2 F_1(x,y)}{\partial y^2} + x(1-y)rac{\partial^2 F_1(x,y)}{\partial x \partial y} + [c-(a+b_2+1)y]rac{\partial F_1(x,y)}{\partial y} - b_2xrac{\partial F_1(x,y)}{\partial x} - ab_2F_1(x,y) = 0$

$$\begin{array}{l} \bullet \text{ This can be combined into:} \\ \partial_x \begin{pmatrix} F_1(x,y) \\ \partial_y F_1(x,y) \\ \partial_x F_1(x,y) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -\frac{b_1}{x-y} & \frac{b_2}{x-y} \\ \frac{ab_1}{x-x^2} & \frac{(-1+y)yb_1}{(-1+x)x(x-y)} & -\frac{-c+x+ax+xb_1+\frac{(-1+x)yb_2}{x-y}}{(-1+x)x} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} F_1(x,y) \\ \partial_y F_1(x,y) \\ \partial_x F_1(x,y) \end{pmatrix} \\ \partial_y \begin{pmatrix} F_1(x,y) \\ \partial_y F_1(x,y) \\ \partial_x F_1(x,y) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{ab_2}{y-y^2} & \frac{(x-xy)b_1+(x-y)(-c+y+ay+yb_2)}{(-1+y)y(-x+y)} & \frac{(-1+x)xb_2}{(-1+y)y(-x+y)} \\ 0 & -\frac{b_1}{x-y} & \frac{b_2}{x-y} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} F_1(x,y) \\ \partial_x F_1(x,y) \\ \partial_x F_1(x,y) \end{pmatrix} \\ \partial_x F_1(x,y) \end{pmatrix} \\ \partial_x F_1(x,y) \end{pmatrix}$$

- Using the boundary conditions $(1,ab_2/c,ab_1/c)$ at x=y=0, we may use DiffExp to evaluate the Appell F1 for arbitrary (real) x, y.
- For example, $F_1(1, 1/2, -3/2, 5; 3/20, 1/2)$:

```
F1BoundaryConditions = \left\{1, \frac{a \ b2}{c}, \frac{a \ b1}{c}\right\} /. \left\{a \rightarrow 1, \ b1 \rightarrow 1/2, \ b2 \rightarrow -3/2, \ c \rightarrow 5\right\} //

PrepareBoundaryConditions[#, \left\{x1 \rightarrow 3/20 \ x, \ y1 \rightarrow 1/2 \ x\right\}\right\} &;

Res = TransportTo[F1BoundaryConditions, F1BoundaryConditions[[1]]]; // EchoTiming Res[[2, 1, 1]] + pm Res[[3, 1, 1]] // N[#, 40] &

0.437219

41= 0.8683725567150101477163534326556218507347 + 1.78536 \times 10<sup>-34</sup> pm
```

• Although the timing is not competitive with other methods, this approach might be straightforward to generalize to other hypergeometric functions. In addition, we can do ϵ expansions of HGFs. Lastly, the analytic continuation is straightforward in this approach.

Conclusion

- Series expansion methods provide an efficient way to evaluate
 Feynman integrals
- Series expansion methods allow for obtaining high-precision numerical results for beyond elliptic type integrals
- The Mathematica package DiffExp can be used for computing userprovided systems of differential equations

Thank you for listening!