Construction of Single-Valued Solutions for Nonintegrable Systems with the Help of the Painlevé Test

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Abstract. The Painlevé test is very useful to construct not only the Laurent-series solutions but also the elliptic and trigonometric ones. Such single-valued functions are solutions of some polynomial first order differential equations. To find the elliptic solutions we transform an initial nonlinear differential equation in a nonlinear algebraic system in parameters of the Laurent-series solutions of the initial equation. The number of unknowns in the obtained nonlinear system does not depend on number of arbitrary coefficients of the used first order equation. In this paper we describe the corresponding algorithm, which has been realized in REDUCE and Maple.

1 Introduction

The investigations of the exact special solutions of nonintegrable systems play an important role in the study of nonlinear physical phenomena. There are a few methods to construct such solutions [1–6] in terms of rational, hyperbolic, trigonometric or elliptic functions. These methods use the results of the Painlevé test, describing behavior of solutions in the neighbourhood of their singular points, but do not use local solutions obtained as the Laurent series. In 2003 R. Conte and M. Musette [7] have proposed the method, which uses such solutions. This method constructs global single-valued solutions in two steps. The first step is construction of the local special solutions as the Laurent series. The second step is construction of the first order polynomial autonomous differential equations which have the same Laurent series solutions. The general solutions of these equations are special solutions of the initial system. In this paper we present the computer algebra program, which realizes this method.

2 The Painlevé Analysis

When we study some mechanical problem the time is assumed to be real, whereas the integrability of motion equations is connected with the behavior of their solutions as functions of complex time. Solutions of a system of ordinary differential equations (ODE's) are regarded as analytic functions, maybe with isolated singular points. A singular point of a solution is said critical (as opposed to noncritical) if the solution is multi-valued (single-valued) in its neighborhood and movable if its location depends on initial conditions [8]. The general solution of an ODE of order N is the set of all solutions mentioned in the existence theorem of Cauchy, i.e. determined by the initial values. It depends on N arbitrary independent constants. A special solution is any solution obtained from the general solution by giving values to the arbitrary constants. A singular solution is any solution which is not special, i.e. which does not belong to the general solution. A system of ODE's has the Painlev'e property if its general solution has no movable critical singularity point [9].

The Painlevé test is any algorithm, which checks some necessary conditions for a differential equation to have the Painlevé property. The original algorithm, developed by P. Painlevé and used by him to find all the second order ODE's with Painlevé property, is known as the α -method. The method of S.V. Kovalevskaya [10] is not as general as the α -method, but much more simple. The remarkable property of this test is that it can be checked in a finite number of steps. This test can only detect the occurrence of logarithmic and algebraic branch points. To date there is no general

finite algorithmic method to detect the occurrence of essential singularities¹. In 1980, developing the Kovalevskaya method further, M.J. Ablowitz, A. Ramani and H. Segur [12] constructed a new algorithm of the Painlevé test for ODE's. This algorithm appears very useful to find solutions as a formal Laurent series. First of all, it allows to determine the dominant behavior of a solution in the neighborhood of the singularity point t_0 . If the solution tends to infinity as $(t - t_0)^{\beta}$, where β is a negative integer number, then substituting the Laurent series expansions one can transform nonlinear differential equations into a system of linear algebraic equations on coefficients of the Laurent series. All solutions of an autonomous system depend on the parameter t_0 , which characterizes the singular point location. If a single-valued solution depends on other parameters, then some coefficients of its Laurent series have to be arbitrary and the corresponding systems have to have zero determinants. The numbers of such systems (named resonances or Kovalevskaya exponents) can be determined due to the Painlevé test².

In [7] the following classical results have been used to construct the suitable form of the first order autonomous equation:

1. The Painlevé theorem [9]. Solutions of the equation

$$P(y(t), y_t(t), t) = 0,$$

where P is a polynomial in both y(t) and $y_t(t) \equiv \frac{dy(t)}{dt}$ has no movable essential singular point.

2. The Fuchs theorem [14]. If the equation

$$\sum_{k=0}^{m} P_k(y(t), t) y_t^k = 0,$$

where $P_k(y(t), t)$ are polynomials in y(t) and analytic functions in t, has no critical movable singular points, then the power of $P_k(y)$ is no more than 2m - 2k, in particular, $P_m(y)$ is a constant.

Therefore, the necessary form of a polynomial autonomous first order ODE with the single-valued general solution is

$$\sum_{k=0}^{m} \sum_{j=0}^{2m-2k} a_{jk} y^{j} y_{t}^{k} = 0, \qquad a_{0m} = 1,$$
(1)

in which m is a positive integer number and a_{jk} are constants.

3. The Briot and Bouquet theorem [15]. If the general solution of a polynomial autonomous first order ODE is single-valued, then this solution is either an elliptic function, or a rational function of $e^{\gamma x}$, γ being some constant, or a rational function of x. Note that the third case is a degeneracy of the second one, which in its turn is a degeneracy of the first one.

3 The Algorithm and Its Realization

3.1 The Laurent-Series Solutions

To analyze the method of the Laurent series solutions construction let us consider the generalized Hénon–Heiles system with an additional non-polynomial term, which is described by the Hamiltonian:

$$H = \frac{1}{2} \left(x_t^2 + y_t^2 + \lambda_1 x^2 + \lambda_2 y^2 \right) + x^2 y - \frac{C}{3} y^3 + \frac{\mu}{2x^2}$$

and the corresponding system of the motion equations:

$$\begin{cases} x_{tt} = -\lambda_1 x - 2xy + \frac{\mu}{x^3}, \\ y_{tt} = -\lambda_2 y - x^2 + Cy^2, \end{cases}$$
 (2)

¹ Different variants of the Painlevé test are compared in [11, R. Conte paper]

² In such a way we obtain solutions only as formal series, but for some nonintegrable systems, for example, the generalized Hénon–Heiles system [13], the convergence of the Laurent- and psi-series solutions has been proved.

where $x_{tt} \equiv \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}$ and $y_{tt} \equiv \frac{d^2y}{dt^2}$, λ_1 , λ_2 , μ and C are arbitrary numerical parameters. Note that if $\lambda_2 \neq 0$, then one can put $\lambda_2 = sign(\lambda_2)$ without loss of generality. If C = 1, $\lambda_1 = 1$, $\lambda_2 = 1$ and $\mu = 0$, then (2) is the initial Hénon–Heiles system [16].

The function y, solution of system (2), satisfies the following fourth-order equation, which does not include μ :

$$y_{tttt} = (2C - 8)y_{tt}y - (4\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)y_{tt} + 2(C + 1)y_t^2 + \frac{20C}{3}y^3 + (4C\lambda_1 - 6\lambda_2)y^2 - 4\lambda_1\lambda_2y - 4H.$$
 (3)

We note that the energy of the system H is not an arbitrary parameter, but a function of initial data: y_0, y_{0t}, y_{0tt} and y_{0ttt} . The form of this function depends on μ :

$$H = \frac{1}{2}(y_{0t}^2 + y_0^2) - \frac{C}{3}y_0^3 + \left(\frac{\lambda_1}{2} + y_0\right)(Cy_0^2 - \lambda_2 y_0 - y_{0tt}) + \frac{(\lambda_2 y_{0t} + 2Cy_0 y_{0t} - y_{0ttt})^2 + \mu}{2(Cy_0^2 - \lambda_2 y_0 - y_{0tt})}.$$

This formula is correct only if $x_0 = Cy_0^2 - \lambda_2 y_0 - y_{0tt} \neq 0$. If $x_0 = 0$, what is possible only at $\mu = 0$, then we can not express x_{0t} through y_0 , y_{0t} , y_{0tt} and y_{0ttt} , so H is not a function of the initial data. If $y_{0ttt} = 2Cy_0y_{0t} - \lambda_2 y_{0t}$, then eq. (3) with an arbitrary H corresponds to system (2) with $\mu = 0$, in opposite case eq. (3) does not correspond to system (2).

The Painlevé test of eq. (3) gives the following dominant behaviors and resonance structures near the singular point t_0 :

- 1. The function y tends to infinity as $b_{-2}(t-t_0)^{-2}$, where $b_{-2}=-3$ or $b_{-2}=\frac{6}{C}$.
- **2.** For $b_{-2} = -3$ (Case 1) the values of resonances are

$$r = -1, 10, (5 \pm \sqrt{1 - 24(1 + C)})/2.$$

In Case 2
$$(b_{-2} = \frac{6}{C})$$

 $r = -1, 5, 5 \pm \sqrt{1 - 48/C}$

The resonance r = -1 corresponds to an arbitrary parameter t_0 . Other values of r determine powers of t (their values are r - 2), at which new arbitrary parameters can appear as solutions of the linear systems with zero determinant. For integrability of system (2) all values of r have to be integer and all systems with zero determinants have to have solutions at any values of free parameters included in them. It is possible only in integrable cases.

For the search for special solutions, it is interesting to consider such values of C, for which r are integer numbers either only in Case 1 or only in Case 2. If there exist negative integer resonances, different from r=-1, then such Laurent series expansion corresponds rather to special than general solution. We demand that all values of r, but one, are nonnegative integer numbers and all these values are different. From these conditions we obtain the following values of C: C=-1

and C=-4/3 (Case 1), or C=-16/5, C=-6 and C=-16 (Case 2, $\alpha=\frac{1-\sqrt{1-48/C}}{2}$), and also C=-2, in which these two Cases coincide. It has been shown in [17] (for $\mu=0$) and [6] (for an arbitrary value of μ) that single-valued three-parameter special solutions can exist only in two nonintegrable cases: C=-16/5 and C=-4/3 (λ is arbitrary).

When the resonance structure is known it is easy to write the computer algebra program, which finds the Laurent series solutions with an arbitrary accuracy. For example, we have found 65 coefficients of the Laurent series for both above-mentioned values of C, the sizes of the corresponding output files are about 10 Mb.

3.2 Two Methods for Construction of Global Single-Valued Solutions

We have found local single-valued solutions. Of course, the existence of local single-valued solutions is a necessary, but not a sufficient condition for the existence of global ones, because solutions, which are single-valued in the neighborhood of one singular point, can be multi-valued in the neighborhood of another singular point. So, we can only assume that global three-parameter solutions are single-valued. If we assume this and moreover that these solutions are elliptic functions (or some degenerations of them), then we can seek them as solutions of some polynomial first order equations.

The classical method to find special analytic solutions for the generalized Hénon–Heiles system is the following:

- 1) Transform system (2) into eq. (3).
- 2) Assume that y satisfies some first order equation, substitute this equation in (3) and obtain a nonlinear algebraic system.
 - 3) Solve the obtained system.

The second way proposed by R. Conte and M. Musette, is the following:

- 1) Choose a positive integer m and define the first order ODE (6), which contains unknown constants a_{ik} .
- 2) Compute coefficients of the Laurent series solutions for (2) or (3) with some fixed C. The number of coefficients has to be greater than the number of unknowns.
- 3) Substituting the obtained coefficients, transform eq. (8) into a linear and overdetermined system in a_{jk} with coefficients depending on arbitrary parameters.
 - 4) Eliminate the a_{jk} and obtain the nonlinear system in five parameters.
 - 5) Solve the obtained system.

To obtain the explicit form of the elliptic function, which satisfies the known first order ODE, one can use the classical method due to Poincaré, which has been implemented in Maple [19] as the package "algourves" [18].

The second way has a few preferences. The first preference is that one does not need to transform system (2) to one differential equation either in y or in x. Moreover at C = -16/5 not x, but x^2 may be an elliptic function. To construct the Laurent series for x^2 is easier than to find the fourth order equation in x^2 . The main preference of the second method is that the number of unknowns in the resulting algebraic system does not depend on number of coefficients of the first order equation. For example, eq. (6) with m = 8 includes 60 unknowns a_{jk} , and it is not possible to use the first way to find similar solutions. Using the second method we obtain nonlinear system in four variables: λ , H and two arbitrary coefficients of the Laurent-series solutions independently of the value of m.

The first way also has one important preference. It allows to obtain solutions for an arbitrary C, whereas using the second method one has to fix value of C to construct the Laurent series solutions, because the resonance structure depends on C.

3.3 The Computer Algebra Algorithm

Let us consider computer algebra procedures, which assist to construct the first order equation in the form (1) with the given Laurent-series solutions:

$$y = \sum_{k=-p}^{N} c(k)t^k,$$

where p is some integer number. We can eliminate from eq. (1) terms more singular than y_t^m :

$$F(y_t, y) \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{m} \sum_{j=0}^{j < =(m-k)(p+1)/p} a_{jk} y^j y_t^k = 0, \qquad a_{0m} = 1.$$
 (4)

At singular points y_t^m tends to infinity as $t^{m(p+1)}$, so we can present $F(y_t, y)$ as the Laurent series, beginning from this term:

$$F(y_t, y) = \sum_{s=-m(p+1)}^{N_m ax} K(s)t^s$$
 (5)

and transform (4) in overdetermined algebraic system: $K_s = 0$ in a_{ij} . We choose N_{max} to be more than the number of coefficients a_{ij} . The Maple procedures, which make this transformation are presented in Appendix. The trivial variant is the following: Procedure quvar(m,p) calculates the number of coefficients a_{ij} , procedure equa(a,m,p,yp2,dyp2) constructs the first order equation in the form (4) and procedure equalaur(a,m,p,Nmax) constructs the Laurent series (5). Nmax should be more than quvar(m,p). The first computer algebra realization, which generates only

terms used in future, has been written in AMP [20] by R. Conte. This algorithm bases on the α -method of the Painlevé test. Our realization bases on transformations of the Laurent series and generates only useful terms as well. There exist Maple [19] and REDUCE [21] realizations of our algorithm. The Maple realization {procedure equiatrist(a, m, p, ove, c)} is presented in Appendix.

Let us consider how this procedure works. We put a(0, m) = 1, other a(i, j) are unknown. The procedure equlaurlist(a, m, p, ove, c) does the following:

- 1) Calculates Nmax := quvar(m, p) + ove;
- 2) Constructs the list which corresponds to eq. (5): fequlist := equalist(a, m, p); For example, if m = 2 and p = 2 we obtain

fequlist := [[a[0,0],0,0],[a[1,0],1,0],[a[2,0],2,0],[a[3,0],3,0],[a[0,1],0,1],[a[1,1],1,1],[1,0,2]];

3) To simplify the following procedures puts

$$\forall k = -m(p+1)... - p - 1 : c(k) = 0;$$

4) Constructs the list of the Laurent series coefficients of $F(y_t, y)$ (laurlist). Coefficient corresponding t^k is constructed due to procedure one equlaur(c, fequlist, k, p) as the sum of the corresponding coefficients of terms $a[i, j]y^jy_t^j$. These coefficients are calculated by procedure monomlaur(c, mon, k, p), where mon = [a[k, j], i, j].

The obtained system is linear in a[i,j] and nonlinear in parameters of the Laurent series. This system can be transformed into a nonlinear system in parameters of the Laurent series, so the number of unknowns does not depend on m. The resulting nonlinear system can be solved using the standard Gröbner basis method.

4 Conclusion

The Painlevé test is a very useful tool to find single-valued solution. The corresponding computer algebra algorithm has been constructed in Maple and REDUCE. The "naive" algorithm calculates many terms to be discarded on the following step. Our algorithm calculates only useful terms.

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Appendix

```
quvar:=proc(m::integer, p::integer)
# 10.10.2003
# This procedure constructs the first order autonomous ODE, which
# solutions tend to infinity as 1/t^p. The maximal degree of dy is m.
local k, j, numterm;
numterm:=0;
for k from 0 to m-1
    do for j from 0 while p*j \le (p+1)*(m-k)
       do numterm:=numterm+1;
    od;
return numterm;
end;
equa:=proc(a, m::integer, p::integer, yp2, dyp2)
# 10.10.2003
# This procedure constructs the first order autonomous ODE, which
# solutions tend to infinity as 1/t^p. The maximal degree of dy is m.
local equ, k, j, numterm;
equ:=0;
for k from 0 to m
```

```
do for j from 0 while p*j \le (p+1)*(m-k)
       do equ := equ+a[j,k]*yp2^j*dyp2^k;
   od;
return equ;
end;
equalaur:=proc(a, m::integer, p::integer, Nmax::integer)
# 10.10.2003
# This procedure expands the first order polynomial autonomous ODE in
# the Laurent series, including terms from 1/t^p to t^Nmax.
# The maximal degree of dy is m.
local max,equ,k,j,y,dy,equlist,t;
equ:=equa(a,m,p,yp,dyp);
y:=0;
for k from -p to Nmax-p do y:=y+c(k)*t^k od;
dy:=diff(y,t);
max:=quvar(m,p)+1;
if Nmax > max then max:=Nmax fi;
for k from 0 to m
    dyp(k):=convert(taylor(eval(dy**k*t^((p+1)*m)),t,max),polynom)
for k from 0 to iquo(m*(p+1),p)
   yp(k):=convert(taylor(eval(y**k*t^((p+1)*m)),t, max),polynom)
  od:
equlist:=[];
equ:=expand(eval(equ*t^(-(p+1)*m)));
for k from 1 to max
    equlist:=[op(equlist),asubs(t=0,equ)];
   equ:=diff(equ,t)/k;
 od;
return equlist;
end;
equalist:=proc(a, m::integer, p::integer)
# 30.10.2003
# This procedure constructs the first order autonomous ODE is a list.
\# solutions tend to infinity as 1/t^p. The maximal degree of dy is m.
local fequlist, k, j;
fegulist:=[];
for k from 0 to m
   do for j from 0 while p*j \le (p+1)*(m-k)
       do fequlist:=[op(fequlist),[a[j,k],j,k]];
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       od
   od;
return fequlist
end;
ydegree:=proc(c,n,j,p)
# 1.11.2003
# This procedure constructs the Laurent series for y^n;
# solutions tend to infinity as 1/t^p. mon:=[a[i,j],i,j].
local sumy, k;
if n=1 then return c(j)
  else sumy:=0;
        for k from -p to j+p*n
        do sumy:=sumy+c(k)*ydegree(c,n-1,j-k,p);
        return sumy;
fi;
end;
dydegree:=proc(c,n,j,p)
# 1.11.2003
# This procedure constructs the Laurent series for y^n;
# solutions tend to infinity as 1/t^p. mon:=[a[i,j],i,j].
local sumdy,k;
if n=1 then return (j+1)*c(j+1)
   else sumdy:=0;
        for k from -(p+1) to j+(p+1)*n
        do sumdy:=sumdy+(k+1)*c(k+1)*dydegree(c,n-1,j-k,p);
        return sumdy;
fi;
end;
monomlaur:=proc(c,mon,j::integer,p::integer)
# 1.11.2003
# This procedure constructs the Laurent series
# solutions tend to infinity as 1/t^p. mon:=[a[i,j],i,j]
local k,coef,ydeg,dydeg,sum;
coef:=op(1,mon);
ydeg:=op(2,mon);
dydeg:=op(3,mon);
if ydeg=0 then
  if dydeg=0 then
     if j=0 then return coef
     else return 0
     fi:
  else return coef*dydegree(c,dydeg,j,p)
```

```
fi;
else if dydeg=0 then return coef*ydegree(c,ydeg,j,p)
    else sum:=0;
          for k from -p*ydeg to j+(p+1)*dydeg
             do sum:=sum+ydegree(c,ydeg,k,p)*dydegree(c,dydeg,j-k,p);
         return coef*sum;
    fi;
fi;
end;
oneequlaur:=proc(c, fequlist, j::integer, p::integer)
# 7.11.2003
# This procedure constructs the j-th term of the Laurent series of the
# first order autonomous ODE (the list fequlist).
# solutions tend to infinity as 1/t^p.
local equj,k,test;
equj:=0;
test:=nops(fequlist);
for k from 1 to nops(fequlist)
  do equj:=equj+monomlaur(c,op(k,fequlist),j,p);
return equj;
end;
equlaurlist:=proc(a,m::integer,p::integer,ove::integer,c)
# 10.11.2003
# This procedure constructs the Laurent series of the
# first order autonomous ODE with maximal degree of y' is equal to m.
# Solutions tend to infinity as 1/t^p.
# c(k) are the Laurent series coefficients of y.
# The length of the resulting list is quvar(m,p)+ove.
local k, laurlist, fequlist, Nmax;
Nmax:=quvar(m,p)+ove;
fequlist:=equalist(a,m,p);
for k from -m*(p+1) to-p-1 do c(k):=0 od;
laurlist:=[];
for k from -m*(p+1) to Nmax-m*(p+1) do
     laurlist:=[op(laurlist),oneequlaur(c,fequlist,k,p)] od;
return laurlist;
end;
```