

Computing the multilinear factors of lacunary polynomials without heights

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Abstract

We present a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm which computes the multilinear factors of multivariate lacunary polynomials over number fields. It is based on a new Gap theorem which allows to test whether $P(X) = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X^{\alpha_j} (vX + t)^{\beta_j} (uX + w)^{\gamma_j}$ is identically zero in polynomial time. Previous algorithms for this task were based on Gap Theorems expressed in terms of the height of the coefficients. Our Gap Theorem is based on the valuation of the polynomial and is valid for any field of characteristic zero. As a consequence we obtain a faster and more elementary algorithm. Furthermore, we can partially extend the algorithm to other situations, such as absolute and approximate factorizations.

We also give a version of our Gap Theorem valid for fields of large characteristic, and deduce a randomized polynomial-time algorithm to compute multilinear factors with at least three monomials of multivariate lacunary polynomials of finite fields of large characteristic. We provide NP-hardness results to explain our inability to compute binomial factors.

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1 Introduction

The *lacunary*, or *supersparse*, representation of a polynomial

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X_1^{\alpha_{1,j}} \cdots X_n^{\alpha_{n,j}}$$

is the list of the tuples $(a_j, \alpha_{1,j}, \dots, \alpha_{n,j})$ for $1 \leq j \leq k$. This representation allows very high degree polynomials to be represented in a concise manner. The factorization of lacunary polynomials has been investigated in a series of papers. Cucker, Koiran and Smale first proved that integer roots of univariate integer lacunary polynomials can be found in polynomial time [10]. This result was generalized by Lenstra who proved that low-degree factors of univariate lacunary polynomials over algebraic number fields can also be found in polynomial time [27]. More recently, Kaltofen and Koiran generalized Lenstra's results to bivariate and then multivariate lacunary polynomials [17, 18]. A common point to these algorithms is that they all rely on a so-called *Gap Theorem*: If F is a factor of $P(X) = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X^{\alpha_j}$, then there exists ℓ such that F is a factor of both $\sum_{j=1}^{\ell} a_j X^{\alpha_j}$ and $\sum_{j=\ell+1}^k a_j X^{\alpha_j}$. (Here, X is a vector of variables of length at least 1, and the α_j 's are vector of exponents.) Moreover, the different Gap Theorems in these papers are all based on the notion of height of an algebraic number, and some of them use quite sophisticated results of number theory.

In this paper, we are interested in more elementary proofs for these results. We first focus on the case of linear factors of bivariate lacunary polynomials as in Kaltofen and Koiran's first paper [17]. Yet unlike their result our algorithm works over number fields, and is extended to multivariate polynomials, and to the computation of multilinear factors, with multiplicities. This was investigated in Kaltofen and Koiran's second paper [18], in which they also dealt with low-degree factors. Extending our results to the case of low-degree factors is a very natural perspective of our work.

We prove a new Gap Theorem that does not depend on the height of an algebraic number but only on the exponents. In particular, our Gap Theorem is valid for any field of characteristic zero and we also extend it to the case of multilinear factors of multivariate polynomials. As a result, we get a new, more elementary algorithm for finding multilinear factors of multivariate lacunary polynomials over an algebraic number field. In particular, this new algorithm is easier to implement since there is no need to explicitly compute some constants from number theory, and the

use of the Gap Theorem does not require to evaluate the heights of the coefficients of the polynomial. We also compute the multiplicities of the factors. With our method this comes for free, which makes our algorithm faster than the previous ones.

Our algorithm can also be used for absolute factorization, that is the factorization of a polynomial in an algebraic closure of the field generated by its coefficients. More precisely, it can be used to compute in polynomial time the multilinear factors with at least three monomials of a lacunary multivariate polynomial. Note that univariate factorization reduces to the computation of binomial factors. And since the absolute factorization of a univariate polynomial of degree d is a product of d linear factors, these factors cannot even be listed in polynomial time. We shall also discuss the application of our algorithms to other fields of characteristic zero.

We use the same methods to prove a Gap Theorem for polynomials over some fields of positive characteristic, yielding an algorithm to find multilinear factors of multivariate lacunary polynomials with at least three monomials. We show that detecting the existence of binomial factors, that is factors with exactly two monomials, is NP-hard. This follows from the fact that finding univariate linear factors over finite fields is NP-hard [25, 4, 20]. In algebraic number fields we can find *all* multilinear factors in polynomial time, even the binomial ones. For this we rely as Kalfoten and Koiran on Lenstra’s univariate algorithm [27].

Our Gap Theorems are based on the *valuation* of a univariate polynomial, that is the maximum integer v such that X^v divides the polynomial. We give an upper bound on the valuation of a nonzero polynomial

$$P(X) = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X^{\alpha_j} (vX + t)^{\beta_j} (uX + w)^{\gamma_j}.$$

This bound can be viewed as an extension of a result due to Hajós [16, 29]. We also note that Kayal and Saha recently used the valuation of square roots of polynomials to make some progress on the “Sum of Square Roots” problem [24].

Lacunary polynomials have been studied with respect to other computational tasks. For instance, Plaisted showed the NP-hardness of computing the greatest common divisor (GCD) of two univariate integer lacunary polynomials [31]. His results were extended to prove that testing the irreducibility of a lacunary polynomial is NP-hard for polynomials with coefficient in \mathbb{Z} or in a finite field [33, 23, 17]. On the other hand, some efficient algorithms for lacunary polynomials have been recently given, for instance for the detection of perfect powers [13, 14] or interpolation [21].

Another approach for computing with lacunary polynomials is to give algorithms with a polynomial complexity in the logarithm of the degree (that is in the size of the exponents) but not in the number of terms or the size of the coefficients. This approach has been used to circumvent Plaisted’s NP-hardness result on the GCD [11, 1].

Note that for all the problems we address, there exist algorithms with a polynomial complexity in the degree of the polynomials. They are used as subroutines of our algorithms. We refer the reader to [32] for details and references on these algorithms.

A preliminary version of this paper was published in the conference ISSAC 2013 [6] that contains the bivariate case of our results. The present paper gives more details on the algorithms especially for the computation of the multiplicities of the factors, and the generalization to multivariate polynomials is new. In positive characteristic, it includes a more general NP-hardness result. We also give a new Polynomial Identity Testing algorithm for sums of products of dense polynomials.

Organization of the paper

Section 2 is devoted to our main technical results. In Section 2.1, we give a bound on the valuation of a nonzero polynomial $P = \sum_j a_j X^{\alpha_j} (uX + v)^{\beta_j}$ over a field of characteristic 0. This result is extended in Section 2.2 to polynomials of the form $\sum_j a_j \prod_i f_i^{\alpha_{ij}}$ where the f_i ’s are low-degree polynomials. In Section 2.3, we discuss the tightness of these results.

In Section 3, we use these valuation bounds to get new Gap Theorems, respectively adapted to linear and multilinear factors. We also give in Section 3.2 a first application of these Gap Theorems: We give polynomial identity testing algorithms for the above mentioned families of polynomials.

Section 4 presents our main application: the factorization of lacunary polynomials. We begin with the computation of linear factors of bivariate polynomials over a number field in Section 4.1, and then extend it to multilinear factors in Section 4.2. Then, we generalize these algorithms to multivariate polynomials in Section 4.3. We briefly discuss absolute factorization and factorization in other fields of characteristic zero in Section 4.4.

Finally, the case of positive characteristic is investigated in Section 5. We show how to partially extend the results of Section 2 to positive characteristic, and we give similar algorithms as in Section 4. We note that these algorithms are less general, but we also give NP-hardness results

explaining this lack of generality.

To understand the basics of our method, one can focus on the computation of linear factors of bivariate polynomials over a number field. To this end, one only has to read Section 2.1, Theorem 3.1 and its proof in Section 3, and Section 4.1.

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2 Wronskian and valuation

In this section, we consider a field \mathbb{K} of characteristic zero and polynomials over \mathbb{K} .

2.1 Valuation upper bound

Theorem 2.1. *Let $P = \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} a_j X^{\alpha_j} (uX + v)^{\beta_j}$ with $\alpha_1 \leq \dots \leq \alpha_{\ell}$ and $uv \neq 0$. If P is nonzero, its valuation is at most $\max_j (\alpha_j + \binom{\ell+1-j}{2})$.*

Our proof of Theorem 2.1 is based on the so-called *Wronskian* of a family of polynomials. This is a classical tool for the study of differential equations but it has recently been used in the field of algebraic complexity [24, 26, 12].

Definition 2.2. Let $f_1, \dots, f_{\ell} \in \mathbb{K}[X]$. Their *Wronskian* is the determinant of the *Wronskian matrix*

$$\text{wr}(f_1, \dots, f_{\ell}) = \det \begin{bmatrix} f_1 & f_2 & \cdots & f_{\ell} \\ f_1' & f_2' & \cdots & f_{\ell}' \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ f_1^{(\ell-1)} & f_2^{(\ell-1)} & \cdots & f_{\ell}^{(\ell-1)} \end{bmatrix}.$$

The main property of the Wronskian is its relation to linear independence. The following result is classical (see [5] for a simple proof of this fact).

Proposition 2.3. *The Wronskian of f_1, \dots, f_{ℓ} is nonzero if and only if the f_j 's are linearly independent over \mathbb{K} .*

To prove Theorem 2.1, an easy lemma on the valuation of the Wronskian is needed.

Lemma 2.4. *Let $f_1, \dots, f_\ell \in \mathbb{K}[X]$. Then*

$$\text{val}(\text{wr}(f_1, \dots, f_\ell)) \geq \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \text{val}(f_j) - \binom{\ell}{2}.$$

Proof. Each term of the determinant is a product of ℓ terms, one from each column and one from each row. The valuation of such a term is at least $\sum_j \text{val}(f_j) - \sum_{i=1}^{\ell-1} i$ since for all i, j , $\text{val}(f_j^{(i)}) \geq \text{val}(f_j) - i$. The result follows. \square

The previous lemma is combined with a bound on the valuation of a specific Wronskian.

Lemma 2.5. *Let $f_j = X^{\alpha_j}(uX + v)^{\beta_j}$, $1 \leq j \leq \ell$, such that $\alpha_j, \beta_j \geq \ell$ for all j and $uv \neq 0$. If the f_j 's are linearly independent, then*

$$\text{val}(\text{wr}(f_1, \dots, f_\ell)) \leq \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \alpha_j.$$

Proof. By Leibniz rule, for all i, j

$$f_j^{(i)}(X) = \sum_{t=0}^i \binom{i}{t} (\alpha_j)_t (\beta_j)_{i-t} u^{i-t} X^{\alpha_j-t} (uX + v)^{\beta_j-i+t}$$

where $(m)_n = m(m-1)\dots(m-n+1)$ is the falling factorial. Since $\alpha_j - t \geq \alpha_j - i$ and $\beta_j - i + t \geq \beta_j - i$ for all t ,

$$f_j^{(i)}(X) = X^{\alpha_j-i} (uX + v)^{\beta_j-i} \times \sum_{t=0}^i \binom{i}{t} (\alpha_j)_t (\beta_j)_{i-t} u^{i-t} X^{i-1} (uX + v)^t.$$

Furthermore, since $\alpha_j \geq \ell \geq i$, we can write $X^{\alpha_j-i} = X^{\alpha_j-\ell} X^{\ell-i}$ and since $\beta_j \geq \ell \geq i$, $(uX + v)^{\beta_j-i} = (uX + v)^{\beta_j-\ell} (uX + v)^{\ell-i}$. Thus, $X^{\alpha_j-\ell} (uX + v)^{\beta_j-\ell}$ is a common factor of the entries of the j -th column of the Wronskian matrix, and $X^{\ell-i} (uX + v)^{\ell-i}$ is a common factor of the entries of the i -th row. Together, we get

$$\text{wr}(f_1, \dots, f_\ell) = X^{\sum_j \alpha_j - \binom{\ell}{2}} (uX + v)^{\sum_j \beta_j - \binom{\ell}{2}} \det(M)$$

where the matrix M is defined by

$$M_{i,j} = \sum_{t=0}^i \binom{i}{t} (\alpha_j)_t (\beta_j)_{i-t} u^{i-t} X^{i-t} (uX + v)^t.$$

The polynomial $\det(M)$ is nonzero since the f_j 's are supposed linearly independent and its degree is at most $\binom{\ell}{2}$. Therefore its valuation cannot be larger than its degree and is bounded by $\binom{\ell}{2}$.

Altogether, the valuation of the Wronskian is bounded by $\sum_j \alpha_j - \binom{\ell}{2} + \binom{\ell}{2} = \sum_j \alpha_j$. \square

Proof of Theorem 2.1. Let $P = \sum_j a_j X^{\alpha_j} (uX + v)^{\beta_j}$, and let $f_j = X^{\alpha_j} (uX + v)^{\beta_j}$. We assume first that $\alpha_j, \beta_j \geq \ell$ for all j , and that the f_j 's are linearly independent. Note that $\text{val}(f_j) = \alpha_j$ for all j .

Let W denote the Wronskian of the f_j 's. We can replace f_1 by P in the first column of the Wronskian matrix using column operations which multiply the determinant by a_1 (its valuation does not change). The matrix we obtain is the Wronskian matrix of P, f_2, \dots, f_ℓ . Now using Lemma 2.4, we get

$$\text{val}(W) \geq \text{val}(P) + \sum_{j \geq 2} \alpha_j - \binom{\ell}{2}.$$

This inequality combined with Lemma 2.5 shows that

$$\text{val}(P) \leq \alpha_1 + \binom{\ell}{2}. \quad (1)$$

We now aim to remove our two previous assumptions. If the f_j 's are not linearly independent, we can extract from this family a basis f_{j_1}, \dots, f_{j_d} . Then P can be expressed in this basis as $P = \sum_{l=1}^d \tilde{a}_l f_{j_l}$. We can apply Equation (1) to f_{j_1}, \dots, f_{j_d} and obtain $\text{val}(P) \leq \alpha_{j_1} + \binom{d}{2}$. Since $j_d \leq \ell$, we have $j_1 + d - 1 \leq \ell$ and $\text{val}(P) \leq \alpha_{j_1} + \binom{\ell+1-j_1}{2}$. The value of j_1 being unknown, we conclude that

$$\text{val}(P) \leq \max_{1 \leq j \leq \ell} \left(\alpha_j + \binom{\ell+1-j}{2} \right). \quad (2)$$

The second assumption is that $\alpha_j, \beta_j \geq \ell$. Given P , consider $\tilde{P} = X^\ell (uX + v)^\ell P = \sum_j a_j X^{\tilde{\alpha}_j} (uX + v)^{\tilde{\beta}_j}$. Then \tilde{P} satisfies $\tilde{\alpha}_j, \tilde{\beta}_j \geq \ell$, whence by Equation (2), $\text{val}(\tilde{P}) \leq \max_j (\tilde{\alpha}_j + \binom{\ell+1-j}{2})$. Since $\text{val}(\tilde{P}) = \text{val}(P) + \ell$ and $\tilde{\alpha}_j = \alpha_j + \ell$, the result follows. \square

2.2 Generalization

We first state a generalization of Theorem 2.1 to a sum of product of powers of low-degree polynomials. Then we state a special case of this generalization that is useful for computing multilinear factors.

For two polynomials F and P , we denote by $\mu_F(P)$ the multiplicity of F as a factor of P , that is the integer μ such that F^μ divides P but $F^{\mu+1}$ does not.

Theorem 2.6. *Let $(\alpha_{i,j}) \in \mathbb{Z}_+^{m \times \ell}$ and*

$$P = \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} a_j \prod_{i=1}^m f_i^{\alpha_{i,j}} \in \mathbb{K}[X],$$

where the degree of $f_i \in \mathbb{K}[X]$ is d_i for all i . Let $F \in \mathbb{K}[X]$ be an irreducible polynomial and let $\mu_i = \mu_F(f_i)$ for all i . Then the multiplicity $\mu_F(P)$ of F as a factor of P satisfies

$$\mu_F(P) \leq \max_{1 \leq j \leq \ell} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\mu_i \alpha_{i,j} + (d_i - \mu_i) \binom{\ell + 1 - j}{2} \right).$$

Proof. Let $P_j = \prod_{i=1}^m f_i^{\alpha_{i,j}}$ for $1 \leq j \leq \ell$. As in the proof of Theorem 2.1, we can assume without loss of generality that the P_j 's are linearly independent, and the $\alpha_{i,j}$'s not less than ℓ .

We can use a generalized Leibniz rule to compute the derivatives of the P_j 's. Namely

$$P_j^{(T)} = \sum_{t_1 + \dots + t_m = T} \binom{T}{t_1, \dots, t_m} \prod_{i=1}^m (f_i^{\alpha_{i,j}})^{(t_i)}, \quad (3)$$

where $\binom{T}{t_1, \dots, t_m} = T! / (t_1! \cdots t_m!)$ is the multinomial coefficient. Consider now a derivative of the form $(f^\alpha)^{(t)}$. This is a sum of terms, each of which contains a factor $f^{\alpha-t}$. (The worst case happens when t different copies of f have been each derived once.) In Equation (3), each t_i is bounded by T . This means that $P_j^{(T)} = Q_{T,j} \prod_i f_i^{\alpha_{i,j} - T}$ for some polynomial $Q_{T,j}$. Since the degree of $P_j^{(T)}$ equals $\sum_i d_i \alpha_{i,j} - T$, $Q_{T,j}$ has degree $\sum_i d_i \alpha_{i,j} - T - \sum_i (d_i \alpha_{i,j} - d_i T) = (\sum_i d_i - 1)T$.

Consider now $W = \text{wr}(P_1, \dots, P_\ell)$. We can factor out in each column $\prod_i f_i^{\alpha_{i,j} - \ell}$ and in each row $\prod_i f_i^{\ell - T}$. At row T and column j , we therefore

factor out $\prod_i f_i^{\alpha_{i,j}-\ell} \cdot \prod_i f_i^{\ell-T} = \prod_i f_i^{\alpha_{i,j}-T}$. Thus,

$$W = \prod_{i=1}^m f_i^{\sum_j \alpha_{i,j} - \binom{\ell}{2}} \det(M)$$

where $M_{T,j} = Q_{T,j}$. Thus, $\det(M)$ is a polynomial of degree at most $(\sum_i d_i - 1) \binom{\ell}{2}$.

Therefore, the multiplicity $\mu_F(W)$ of F as a factor of W is bounded by its multiplicity as a factor of $\prod_i f_i^{\sum_j \alpha_{i,j} - \binom{\ell}{2}}$ plus the degree of $\det(M)$. We get

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_F(W) &\leq \sum_i \mu_i \left(\sum_j \alpha_{i,j} - \binom{\ell}{2} \right) + \left(\sum_i d_i - 1 \right) \binom{\ell}{2} \\ &= \sum_i \left(\mu_i \sum_j \alpha_{i,j} + (d_i - \mu_i) \binom{\ell}{2} \right) - \binom{\ell}{2}. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

To conclude the proof, it remains to remember Lemma 2.4 and use the same proof technique as in Theorem 2.1. It was expressed in terms of the valuation of the polynomials, but remains valid with the multiplicity of any factor. In this case, it can be written as $\mu_F(W) \geq \sum_j \mu_F(P_j) - \binom{\ell}{2}$ where W is the Wronskian of the P_j 's. Using column operations, we can replace the first column of the Wronskian matrix of the P_j 's by the polynomial P and its derivatives. We get $\mu_F(W) \geq \mu_F(P) + \sum_{j \geq 2} \mu_F(P_j) - \binom{\ell}{2}$, where $\mu_F(P_j) = \sum_i \mu_i \alpha_{i,j}$.

Together with (4), we get

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_F(P) &\leq \mu_F(W) - \sum_{j \geq 2} \mu_F(P_j) + \binom{\ell}{2} \\ &\leq \sum_i \left(\mu_i \sum_j \alpha_{i,j} + (d_i - \mu_i) \binom{\ell}{2} \right) - \binom{\ell}{2} - \sum_{j \geq 2} \sum_i \mu_i \alpha_{i,j} + \binom{\ell}{2} \\ &\leq \sum_i \left(\mu_i \alpha_{i,1} + (d_i - \mu_i) \binom{\ell}{2} \right). \end{aligned}$$

To obtain the bound of the theorem, the two initial assumption have to be removed using the same technique as in Theorem 2.1. \square

As a special case, one obtains the following corollary.

Corollary 2.7. *Let $P = \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} a_j X^{\alpha_j} (vX + t)^{\beta_j} (uX + w)^{\gamma_j}$, $wt \neq 0$. If P is nonzero, its valuation is at most $\max_{1 \leq j \leq \ell} (\alpha_j + 2 \binom{\ell+1-j}{2})$.*

2.3 Is Theorem 2.1 tight?

Let P be as in Theorem 2.1, that is

$$P = \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} a_j X^{\alpha_j} (uX + v)^{\beta_j}$$

where $uv \neq 0$. Its valuation is at least α_1 , and this bound is attained when $\alpha_2 > \alpha_1$ for instance. As we show, if the family $(X^{\alpha_j}(1+X)^{\beta_j})_{1 \leq j \leq \ell}$ is linearly independent over \mathbb{K} , the valuation of P is at most $\alpha_1 + \binom{\ell}{2}$: At most the first $\binom{\ell}{2}$ lowest-degree monomials can be canceled. A natural question concerns the tightness of this bound. In other words, can this upper bound be attained? For instance in the special case $\alpha_j = \alpha_1$ for all j , Hajós' Lemma [16, 29] gives the better bound $\alpha_1 + (\ell - 1)$. (This bound can be shown to be tight by expanding $X^{\ell-1} = (-1 + (X + 1))^{\ell-1}$ with the binomial formula.)

The aim of this section is first to prove that Hajós' bound does not hold when the α_j 's are not all equal since for all $\ell \geq 3$ one can build explicit examples with valuation $\alpha_1 + (2\ell - 3)$ (see Proposition 2.8). Then we discuss possible ideas to get an improvement of Theorem 2.1. Nevertheless, the exact bound remains unknown. In particular, it is not known if a linear bound as in Hajós' Lemma holds, or if there exist examples with a superlinear valuation. As we shall see later on, the bound in Theorem 2.1 directly influences the complexity of our algorithm. This open question is thus very relevant to the problem we address.

In the whole section, the families (f_1, \dots, f_ℓ) are linearly independent.

To build examples of extremal valuation, one first notices that α_2 has to equal α_1 . Indeed, if $\alpha_1 < \alpha_j$ for all j , $\text{val}(P) = \alpha_1$. Then $\alpha_3 \leq 1$ since the bound of Theorem 2.1 with two terms is 1. Using similar arguments one can deduce, for small values of ℓ , conditions on the α_j 's, β_j 's and a_j 's to get the largest possible valuation. With some luck, we were able to conjecture from these small examples a general formula to build a polynomial with ℓ terms of valuation $(2\ell - 3)$, for every $\ell \geq 3$.

Proposition 2.8. *For $\ell \geq 3$, there exists a linearly independent family of polynomials $(X^{\alpha_j}(1+X)^{\beta_j})_{1 \leq j \leq \ell}$, $\alpha_1 \leq \dots \leq \alpha_\ell$ and a family of rational coefficients $(a_j)_{1 \leq j \leq \ell}$ such that the polynomial*

$$P(X) = \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} a_j X^{\alpha_j} (1+X)^{\beta_j}$$

is nonzero and has valuation $\alpha_1 + (2\ell - 3)$.

Proof. A polynomial that achieves this bound is

$$P_\ell(X) = -1 + (1 + X)^{2\ell+3} - \sum_{j=0}^{\ell} a_j X^{2j+1} (1 + X)^{\ell+1-j},$$

where

$$a_j = \frac{2\ell + 3}{2j + 1} \binom{\ell + 1 + j}{\ell + 1 - j}.$$

We aim to prove that $P_\ell(X) = X^{2\ell+3}$. Since it has $(\ell + 3)$ terms and $\alpha_1 = 0$, this proves the proposition. To prove the result for an arbitrary value of α_1 , it is sufficient to multiply P_ℓ by some power of X .

It is clear that P_ℓ has degree $(2\ell + 3)$ and is monic. Let $[X^m]P_\ell$ be the coefficient of the monomial X^m in P_ℓ . Then for $m > 0$

$$[X^m]P_\ell = \binom{2\ell + 3}{m} - \sum_{j=0}^{\ell} a_j \binom{\ell + 1 - j}{m - 2j - 1}.$$

We aim to prove that $[X^m]P_\ell = 0$ as soon as $m < 2\ell + 3$. Using the definition of the a_j 's, this is equivalent to proving

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\ell} \frac{2\ell + 3}{2j + 1} \binom{\ell + 1 + j}{\ell + 1 - j} \binom{\ell + 1 - j}{m - 2j - 1} = \binom{2\ell + 3}{m}. \quad (5)$$

To prove this equality, we rely on Wilf and Zeilberger's algorithm [30], and its implementation in the Maple package EKHAD of Doron Zeilberger (see [30] for more on this package). The program asserts the correctness of the equality and provides a recurrence relation satisfied by the summand that we can verify by hand. We insist on the fact that despite the program is used as an oracle providing the right recurrence, the validity of this recurrence and the fact that it implies the result are proved in a standard mathematical way. This means that there is no need to trust the program.

Let $F(m, j)$ be the summand in equation (5) divided by $\binom{2\ell+3}{m}$. We thus want to prove that $\sum_{j=0}^{\ell} F(m, j) = 1$. The EKHAD package provides

$$R(m, j) = \frac{2j(2j + 1)(\ell + j + 2 - m)}{(2\ell + 3 - m)(2j - m)}$$

and claims that

$$mF(m + 1, j) - mF(m, j) = F(m, j + 1)R(m, j + 1) - F(m, j)R(m, j). \quad (6)$$

In the rest of the proof, we show why this claim implies Equation (5), and then that the claim holds.

Suppose first that Equation (6) holds and let us prove Equation (5). If we sum Equation (6) for $j = 0$ to ℓ , we obtain

$$m \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\ell} F(m+1, j) - F(m, j) \right) = F(m, \ell+1)R(m, \ell+1) - F(m, 0)R(m, 0).$$

Since $R(m, 0) = 0$ and $F(m, \ell+1) = 0$, $\sum_j F(m, j)$ is constant with respect to m . One can easily check that the sum is 1 when $m = 2\ell + 2$. (Actually the only nonzero term in this case is for $j = \ell$.) Therefore, we deduce that for all $m < 2\ell + 3$,¹ $\sum_j F(m, j) = 1$, that is Equation (5) is true.

To prove Equation (6), note that

$$\frac{F(m+1, j)}{F(m, j)} = \frac{(j + \ell + 2 - m)(m + 1)}{(m - 2j)(2\ell + 3 - m)}$$

and

$$\frac{F(m, j+1)}{F(m, j)} = \frac{(\ell + 2 - j)(m - 2j - 1)(m - 2j - 2)}{(2j + 2)(2j + 3)(j + \ell + 3 - m)}.$$

Therefore, to prove the equality, it is sufficient to check that

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= m \frac{j + \ell + 2 - m}{m - 2j} \frac{m + 1}{2\ell + 3 - m} - m + R(m, j) \\ &\quad - \frac{(\ell + 2 - j)(m - 2j - 1)(m - 2j - 2)}{(2j + 2)(2j + 3)(j + \ell + 3 - m)} R(m, j + 1). \end{aligned}$$

This is done by a mere computation. □

We now address the question of improving the bound in Theorem 2.1. The bound is obtained as a combination of a lower bound, given by Lemma 2.4, and an upper bound, given by Lemma 2.5. We prove that none of these bounds is tight.

We begin with Lemma 2.4. The next proposition states that a better bound can be obtained if the valuations do not grow too fast.

Proposition 2.9. *Let $f_1, \dots, f_\ell \in \mathbb{K}[X]$ such that $\text{val}(f_{j-1}) \leq \text{val}(f_j) \leq \text{val}(f_1) + (j - 1)$ for all j . Then*

$$\text{val}(\text{wr}(f_1, \dots, f_\ell)) \geq \ell \text{val}(f_1).$$

¹The bound on m is given by the fact that $R(m, j)$ is undefined for $m = 2\ell + 3$.

We note that the bound is indeed better than Lemma 2.4: For all j , $\text{val}(f_1) \geq \text{val}(f_j) - (j - 1)$, whence $\ell \text{val}(f_1) \geq \sum_j \text{val}(f_j) - \sum_{j=1}^{\ell-1} j = \sum_j \text{val}(f_j) - \binom{\ell}{2}$.

Proof. Consider the Wronskian matrix M of f_1, \dots, f_ℓ . By adding a well-chosen multiple of the first column to the second one, the polynomial f_2 and its derivatives can be replaced by a polynomial g_2 and its derivatives, such that $\text{val}(g_2) \geq \text{val}(f_1) + 1$. Let $g_1 = f_1$. More generally, one can actually replace each f_j by a polynomial g_j , such that $\text{val}(g_{j+1}) > \text{val}(g_j)$ for all $j > 1$. In particular, $\text{val}(g_{j+1}) \geq \text{val}(g_1) + (j - 1)$. That is, one can obtain a matrix N which is the Wronskian matrix of g_1, \dots, g_ℓ , and such that $\text{wr}(f_1, \dots, f_\ell) = \det(M) = \det(N)$. Now, applying Lemma 2.4 to g_1, \dots, g_ℓ gives the lower bound

$$\text{wr}(f_1, \dots, f_\ell) \geq \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \text{val}(g_j) - \binom{\ell}{2} \geq \ell \text{val}(f_1). \quad \square$$

One can generalize the previous proposition. Consider that the f_j 's are ordered by increasing valuation. We define a *plateau* to be a set $\{f_{j_0}, \dots, f_{j_0+s}\}$ such that for $0 < t \leq s$, $\text{val}(f_{j_0+t}) \leq \text{val}(f_{j_0}) + (t - 1)$. The f_j 's are naturally partitioned into plateaux. Suppose that there are $(m + 1)$ plateaux, of length p_0, \dots, p_m respectively, and let f_{j_0}, \dots, f_{j_m} their respective first elements. Using the same argument as in the proof of Proposition 2.9, we get

$$\text{val}(\text{wr}(f_1, \dots, f_\ell)) \geq \sum_{i=0}^m \left(p_i \text{val}(f_{j_i}) + \binom{p_i}{2} \right) - \binom{\ell}{2}.$$

In the proof of Theorem 2.1, Lemma 2.4 is used to give the bound

$$\text{val}(\text{wr}(P, f_2, \dots, f_\ell)) \geq \text{val}(P) + \sum_{j>1} \text{val}(f_j) - \binom{\ell}{2}.$$

If the f_j 's have all the same valuation α , Proposition 2.9, and actually its generalization stated above, yields the bound $\text{val}(\text{wr}(P, f_2, \dots, f_\ell)) \geq \text{val}(P) + (\ell - 1)\alpha + \binom{\ell-1}{2} - \binom{\ell}{2}$. This translates into the upper bound $\text{val}(P) \leq \alpha + (\ell - 1)$, matching the bound of Hajós' Lemma. Yet, this improvement of Lemma 2.4 is not sufficient alone to improve Theorem 2.1 in the general case. For instance, in the case where $\text{val}(f_{j+1}) = \text{val}(f_1) + (j - 1)$, Proposition 2.9 yields the same bound as Lemma 2.4. It is thus necessary to also improve Lemma 2.5.

Unfortunately, we are not yet able to give such an improvement for Lemma 2.5. This requires a better understanding of the matrix M defined in the proof of the lemma. In the special case where all the f_j 's have pairwise distinct valuations, for instance in the case $\text{val}(f_{j+1}) = \text{val}(f_1) + (j - 1)$, the matrix can be better understood. One can consider the matrix M_0 made of the constant coefficients of the entries of M . In particular, the constant coefficient of $\det(M)$ equals $\det(M_0)$. Then the entry (i, j) of M_0 equals $(\alpha_j)_i$. Therefore, M_0 is similar to a Vandermonde matrix. If the α_j 's are pairwise distinct, the determinant of M_0 does not vanish. In particular, the valuation of $\det(M)$ is zero. Thus the valuation of the Wronskian equals in this case $\sum_j \alpha_j - \binom{\ell}{2}$, though the bound given by Lemma 2.5 is $\sum_j \alpha_j$. At the end, we get the (obvious) result that if the f_j 's have pairwise distinct valuations, the valuation of P equals $\text{val}(f_1)$.

We have shown that in the two extremal cases, a unique valuation or pairwise distinct valuations, we are able to give the exact value for the valuation of P . A better understanding of the Wronskian matrix could yield an improvement of Lemma 2.5 and possibly an improvement of Theorem 2.1. Of course, it may also be possible to improve Theorem 2.1 using completely different techniques.

3 Gap Theorems and their application to PIT

In this section, we first prove our Gap Theorems. Then we give very direct applications of these theorems in the form of Polynomial Identity Testing algorithms for some families of univariate polynomials.

3.1 Two Gap Theorems

We still assume that the coefficients of the polynomials we consider lie in some field \mathbb{K} of characteristic zero.

The bound on the valuation obtained in the Section 2.1 translates into a Gap Theorem for linear factors.

Theorem 3.1 (Gap Theorem for linear factors). *Let $P = Q + R$ where*

$$Q = \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} a_j X^{\alpha_j} Y^{\beta_j} \text{ and } R = \sum_{j=\ell+1}^k a_j X^{\alpha_j} Y^{\beta_j}$$

such that $\alpha_1 \leq \dots \leq \alpha_k$. Suppose that ℓ is the smallest index such that $\alpha_{\ell+1} > \alpha_1 + \binom{\ell}{2}$. Then, for every $F = uX + vY + w$ with $uvw \neq 0$,

$$\mu_F(P) = \min(\mu_F(Q), \mu_F(R)).$$

Proof. Let $F = uX + vY + w$, $uvw \neq 0$. Then F divides P if and only if $P(X, -\frac{1}{v}(uX + w)) = 0$, and the same holds for the polynomials Q and R . Let $P^*(X) = P(X, -\frac{1}{v}(uX + w))$, and define Q^* and R^* in the same way from Q and R .

Let us first prove that F divides P if and only if it divides both Q and R . For suppose that F does not divide Q , that is Q^* is nonzero. By Theorem 2.1, its valuation is at most $\max_{j \leq \ell} (\alpha_j + \binom{\ell+1-j}{2})$. Furthermore, $\alpha_{j+1} \leq \alpha_1 + \binom{j}{2}$ for all $j < \ell$ by hypothesis. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{val}(Q^*) &\leq \max_{1 \leq j \leq \ell} \left(\alpha_j + \binom{\ell+1-j}{2} \right) \\ &\leq \max_{1 \leq j \leq \ell} \left(\alpha_1 + \binom{j-1}{2} + \binom{\ell+1-j}{2} \right) \\ &\leq \alpha_1 + \binom{\ell}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

The last inequality holds since $\binom{j-1}{2} + \binom{\ell-(j-1)}{2} \leq \binom{\ell}{2}$ for $1 \leq j \leq \ell$.

The valuation of R^* is at least $\alpha_{\ell+1}$ which is by hypothesis larger than $\alpha_1 + \binom{\ell}{2}$. Therefore, if Q^* is not identically zero, its monomial of lowest degree cannot be canceled by a monomial of R^* . In other words, $P^* = Q^* + R^*$ is nonzero and F does not divide P .

To show that $\mu_F(P) = \min(\mu_F(Q), \mu_F(R))$, we remark that F is a factor of multiplicity μ of P if and only if it divides $\partial^m P / \partial X^m$ for all $m \leq \mu$. Since $\mu = \mu_F(P) = \mu_F(X^d P)$ for all d , one can assume that $\alpha_1 \geq \mu$. Then

$$\frac{\partial^m P}{\partial X^m} = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j (\alpha_j)_m X^{\alpha_j - m} Y^{\beta_j}$$

for $1 \leq m \leq \mu$. The hypothesis $\alpha_{\ell+1} > \alpha_1 + \binom{\ell}{2}$ in the theorem only depends on the difference between the exponents. By linearity of the derivative, the previous argument actually shows that F divides $\partial^m P / \partial X^m$ if and only if it divides both $\partial^m Q / \partial X^m$ and $\partial^m R / \partial X^m$. This proves that $\mu_F(P) = \min(\mu_F(Q), \mu_F(R))$. \square

It is straightforward to extend this theorem to more *gaps*. The theorem can be recursively applied to Q and R (as defined in the proof). Then, if $P = P_1 + \dots + P_s$ where there is a *gap* between P_t and P_{t+1} for $1 \leq t < s$, then any linear polynomial $(uX + vY + w)$ is a factor of multiplicity μ of P if and only if it is a factor of multiplicity at least μ of each P_t . Moreover,

one can write every P_t as $X^{q_t}Q_t$ such that X does not divide Q_t . Then the degree of Q_t is bounded by $\binom{\ell_t-1}{2}$ where ℓ_t is its number of terms.

The following definition makes this discussion formal.

Definition 3.2. Let P as in Theorem 3.1. A set $\mathcal{Q} = \{Q_1, \dots, Q_s\}$ is a *decomposition of P with respect to X* if there exist integers q_1, \dots, q_s such that $P = X^{q_1}Q_1 + \dots + X^{q_s}Q_s$ with $q_t > q_{t-1} + \deg_X(Q_{t-1})$ for $1 < t \leq s$.

A decomposition is *compatible* with a set \mathcal{F} of polynomials if for all $F \in \mathcal{F}$, $\mu_F(P) = \min_{1 \leq t \leq s} \mu_F(Q_t)$.

The *degree* in X (resp. in Y) of a decomposition is the sum of the degrees in X (resp. in Y) of the Q_t 's.

The Gap Theorem implies a decomposition of P of degree at most $\binom{k-1}{2}$ in X . Indeed, the degree of each Q_t is at most $\binom{\ell_t-1}{2}$, with $\sum_t \ell_t = k$, and the function $k \mapsto \binom{k}{2}$ is super-additive.

Remark 3.3. Let \mathcal{Q}' be the decomposition obtained from \mathcal{Q} by replacing Q_t and Q_{t+1} by $Q'_t = Q_t + X^{q_{t+1}-q_t}Q_{t+1}$. It is easy to see that if \mathcal{Q} is compatible with a set \mathcal{F} , then so does \mathcal{Q}' . More generally, one obtains compatible decompositions by grouping together any number of consecutive polynomials in a decomposition.

Using the generalization of Theorem 2.1 given in Section 2.2, one can also prove a similar Gap Theorem, but for multilinear factors.

Theorem 3.4 (Gap Theorem for multilinear factors). *Let $P = Q + R$ where*

$$Q = \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} a_j X^{\alpha_j} Y^{\beta_j} \text{ and } R = \sum_{j=\ell+1}^k a_j X^{\alpha_j} Y^{\beta_j},$$

such that $\alpha_1 \leq \dots \leq \alpha_k$. If ℓ is the smallest index such that $\alpha_{\ell+1} > \alpha_1 + 2\binom{\ell}{2}$ then for every $F = uXY + vX + wY + t$ with $wt \neq 0$,

$$\mu_F(P) = \min(\mu_F(Q), \mu_F(R)).$$

Proof. Let $F = uXY + vX + wY + t$, $wt \neq 0$. Then F divides P if and only if $P(X, -\frac{vX+t}{uX+w}) = 0$. This is equivalent to the fact that the polynomial

$$(uX+w)^B P(X, -\frac{vX+t}{uX+w}) = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X^{\alpha_j} (-vX-t)^{\beta_j} (uX+w)^{B-\beta_j}$$

vanishes, where $B = \max_j \beta_j$. The rest of the proof is identical to the proof of the Gap Theorem for linear factors, using the valuation bound of Corollary 2.7 instead of Theorem 2.1. \square

3.2 Polynomial Identity Testing

We give the first algorithmic application of our technical results. We give two polynomial identity testing algorithms. The first algorithm deals with a pretty simple family of polynomials. It is then generalized to a far larger class of polynomials. The polynomials in this section have coefficients in an algebraic number field $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{Q}[\zeta]/\langle\varphi\rangle$ where $\varphi \in \mathbb{Q}[\zeta]$ is irreducible. An element e of \mathbb{K} is uniquely represented by a polynomial $p_e \in \mathbb{Q}[\zeta]$ of degree smaller than $\deg(\varphi)$. In the algorithms, a coefficient $c \in \mathbb{K}$ of a lacunary polynomial is given as the dense representation of p_c , that is the list of all its coefficients including the zero ones. Moreover, the algorithms are uniform in \mathbb{K} in the sense that they can take as input the polynomial φ defining \mathbb{K} .

Theorem 3.5. *Let \mathbb{K} be an algebraic number field and*

$$P = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X^{\alpha_j} (uX + v)^{\beta_j} \in \mathbb{K}[X].$$

There exists a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm to decide if P vanishes.

Proof. We assume without loss of generality that $\alpha_{j+1} \geq \alpha_j$ for all j and $\alpha_1 = 0$. If α_1 is nonzero, X^{α_1} divides P and we consider P/X^{α_1} .

Suppose first that $u = 0$. Then P is given as a sum of monomials, and we only have to test each coefficient for zero. Note that the α_j 's are not distinct. Thus the coefficients are of the form $\sum_j a_j v^{\beta_j}$. Lenstra [27] gives an algorithm to find low-degree factors of univariate lacunary polynomials. It is easy to deduce from his algorithm an algorithm to test such sums for zero. A strategy could be to simply apply Lenstra's algorithm to $\sum_j a_j X^{\beta_j}$ and then check whether $(X - v)$ is a factor, but one can actually improve the complexity by extracting from his algorithm the relevant part (we omit the details). The case $v = 0$ is similar.

We assume now that $uv \neq 0$. Then $P = 0$ if and only if $(Y - uX - v)$ divides $\sum_j a_j X^{\alpha_j} Y^{\beta_j}$. Recursively using the Gap Theorem for linear factors (Theorem 3.1), one computes a decomposition $P = X^{q_1} Q_1 + \dots + X^{q_s} Q_s$ such that P is identically zero if and only if each Q_t in this sum also. Therefore, we are left with testing if each Q_t is identically zero.

To this end, let Q be one these polynomials. With a slight abuse of notation, it can be written $Q = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X^{\alpha_j} (uX + v)^{\beta_j}$. It satisfies $\alpha_1 = 0$ and $\alpha_{j+1} \leq \binom{j}{2}$ for all j . In particular, $\alpha_k \leq \binom{k-1}{2}$. Consider the change of

variables $Y = uX + v$. Then

$$Q(Y) = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j u^{-\alpha_j} (Y - v)^{\alpha_j} Y^{\beta_j}$$

is identically zero if and only if $Q(X)$ is. We can express $Q(Y)$ as a sum of powers of Y :

$$Q(Y) = \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{\ell=0}^{\alpha_j} a_j u^{-\alpha_j} \binom{\alpha_j}{\ell} (-v)^\ell Y^{\alpha_j + \beta_j - \ell}.$$

There are at most $k \binom{k-1}{2} = \mathcal{O}(k^3)$ monomials. Then, testing if $Q(Y)$ is identically zero consists in testing each coefficient for zero. Moreover, each coefficient has the form $\sum_j \binom{\alpha_j}{\ell_j} a_j u^{-\alpha_j} (-v)^{\ell_j}$ where the sum ranges over at most k indices. Since $\ell_j, \alpha_j \leq \binom{k-1}{2}$ for all j , the terms in these sums have polynomial bit-lengths. Therefore, the coefficients can be tested for zero in polynomial time.

Altogether, this gives a polynomial-time algorithm to test if P is identically zero. \square

One can actually replace the linear polynomial $(uX + v)$ in the previous theorem by any binomial polynomial. Without loss of generality, one can consider that this binomial is $(uX^d + v)$, and we assume that it is represented in lacunary representation. In other words, its size is polynomial in $\log(d)$.

Corollary 3.6. *Let \mathbb{K} be an algebraic number field and*

$$P = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X^{\alpha_j} (uX^d + v)^{\beta_j} \in \mathbb{K}[X].$$

There exists a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm to decide if the polynomial P vanishes.

Proof. For all j we consider the Euclidean division of α_j by d : $\alpha_j = q_j d + r_j$ with $r_j < d$. We rewrite P as

$$P = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X^{r_j} (X^d)^{q_j} (uX^d + v)^{\beta_j}.$$

Let us group in the sum all the terms with a common r_j . That is, let

$$P_i(Y) = \sum_{\substack{1 \leq j \leq k \\ r_j = i}} a_j Y^{q_j} (uY + v)^{\beta_j}$$

for $0 \leq i < d$. We remark that regardless of the value of d , the number of nonzero P_i 's is bounded by k . We have $P(X) = \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} X^i P_i(X^d)$. Each monomial X^α of $X^i P_i(X^d)$ satisfies $\alpha \equiv i \pmod{d}$. Therefore, P is identically zero if and only if all the P_i 's are identically zero.

Since each P_i has the same form as in Theorem 3.5, and there are at most k of them, the previous algorithm can be applied to each of them to decide the nullity of P . \square

Using Theorem 2.6 instead of Theorem 2.1, one can give a polynomial identity testing algorithm for a larger class of polynomials. In the next algorithm, we use the *dense representation* for univariate polynomials, that is the list of all their coefficients (including the zero ones). Then *dense size* of a univariate polynomial is then the sum of the sizes of its coefficients.

Theorem 3.7. *Let f_1, \dots, f_m be monic univariate polynomials over a number field. Let*

$$P = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j \prod_{i=1}^m f_i^{\alpha_{i,j}}.$$

There is a deterministic algorithm to decide if P is zero whose running time is polynomial in k, m , the dense sizes of the f_i 's and the bitsizes of the a_j 's and the $\alpha_{i,j}$'s.

With an oracle to decide the nullity of sums of the form $\sum_j \prod_i \lambda_i^{\alpha_{i,j}}$ where the λ_i 's are in the number field, the above algorithm can be used with non monic polynomials f_1, \dots, f_m .

Proof. Let us suppose that the f_i 's are not monic. In time polynomial in the degree of the f_i 's, one can compute their monic irreducible factorizations. Then we can write $f_i = \lambda_i \prod_{t=1}^n g_t^{\beta_{i,t}}$ for all i , where the g_t 's are distinct monic irreducible polynomials and $\beta_{i,t} \geq 0$. Then, the polynomial P can be written as

$$P = \sum_{j=1}^k \left[a_j \left(\prod_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^{\alpha_{i,j}} \right) \left(\prod_{t=1}^n g_t^{\sum_i \beta_{i,t} \alpha_{i,j}} \right) \right].$$

For all j and t , let $\gamma_{j,t} = \sum_i \beta_{i,t} \alpha_{i,j}$ and $\Lambda_j = \prod_i \lambda_i^{\alpha_{i,j}}$. Note that the case of monic polynomials is the case where $\Lambda_j = 1$.

If $n = 1$, that is all the f_i 's are powers of a same polynomial g , then $P = \sum_j a_j \Lambda_j g^{\gamma_j}$. It is thus sufficient to find the subsets of indices for which γ_j is constant, and test for zero sums of the form $\sum_j a_j \Lambda_j$. These sums can be easily tested for zero if $\Lambda_j = 1$, and using the oracle otherwise.

If $n > 1$, we use a Gap Theorem. To this end, we use the bound on the multiplicity of the irreducible polynomial g_1 given by Theorem 2.6. Let

$$Q = \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} a_j \Lambda_j \prod_{t=1}^n g_t^{\gamma_{j,t}} \text{ and } R = \sum_{j=\ell+1}^k a_j \Lambda_j \prod_{t=1}^n g_t^{\gamma_{j,t}}$$

and suppose that ℓ is the smallest index such that

$$\gamma_{\ell+1,1} > \gamma_{1,1} + \left(\sum_{t>1} \deg(g_t) \right) \binom{\ell}{2}. \quad (7)$$

Since $\mu_{g_1}(g_t) = 0$ for all $t > 1$ and $\mu_{g_1}(g_1) = 1$, Theorem 2.6 implies that

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_{g_1}(Q) &\leq \max_{j \leq \ell} \left(\gamma_{1,j} + \sum_{t>1} \deg(g_t) \binom{\ell-j+1}{2} \right) \\ &\leq \gamma_{1,1} + \left(\sum_{t>1} \deg(g_t) \right) \binom{\ell}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

The second inequality can be proved exactly as in the proof of the Gap Theorem for linear factors. In particular, one has $\gamma_{\ell+1,1} > \mu_{g_1}(Q)$. Therefore, if Q is nonzero, since $\mu_{g_1}(R) \geq \gamma_{\ell+1,1}$, then $P = Q + R$ is nonzero. The same argument of course works for any g_t .

Algorithmically, we can decompose P into $Q + R$ using Equation (7), and recursively decompose R . In each polynomial of the decomposition we factor out the largest possible power of g_1 . We obtain $P = g_1^{\gamma(1)} Q_1 + \dots + g_1^{\gamma(p)} Q_p$ for some p such that $P = 0$ if and only if each $Q_1 = \dots = Q_p = 0$. Furthermore, the exponents of g_1 in Q_1, \dots, Q_p are bounded by $\binom{k}{2}$. Let us call $\{Q_1, \dots, Q_p\}$ the decomposition of P with respect to g_1 .

The algorithm is then as follows. We initially consider the set $\mathcal{Q} = \{P\}$. Then for $t = 1$ to n , we replace each member of \mathcal{Q} by its decomposition with respect to g_t . We obtain a set \mathcal{Q} of polynomials such that $P = 0$ if and only if $Q = 0$ for all $Q \in \mathcal{Q}$.

It remains to test whether each polynomial of \mathcal{Q} vanishes. To this end, one can expand these polynomials as sums of monomials since their degrees are polynomially bounded. The coefficients of the monomials will have the form $\sum_j a_j \Lambda_j c_{j,\delta}$ where $c_{j,\delta}$ is the coefficient of X^δ in the

polynomial $\prod_t g_t^{\gamma_{j,t}}$. Therefore, it has a polynomial bitsize. Testing the nullity of these coefficients is then easy if $\Lambda_j = 1$ and done using the oracle otherwise.

This proves the theorem. \square

Note that an alternative algorithm for the same class of polynomials is given by Koiran, Portier and Tavenas [26], in the case where the f_i 's are not monic. Yet the complexity of their algorithm is exponential in k and m . We also remark that our algorithm uses, for non monic polynomials, an oracle to decide the nullity of a sum of products of powers of integers (or elements of a number field). In a polynomial identity testing algorithm for a similar class of polynomials given in [15], the exact same oracle was needed. It would then be very interesting to study this kind of sums from an algorithmic viewpoint.

4 Factoring lacunary polynomials

We now turn to the main applications of our Gap Theorems of Section 3. We expose how to compute linear and multilinear factors of lacunary polynomials over number fields. We first focus on bivariate polynomials. In Section 4.3, we explain that our algorithms can be easily extended to multivariate polynomials. We discuss the case of other fields of characteristic zero in Section 4.4.

The input polynomials in our algorithms are given in lacunary representation. A monomial is represented by its coefficient and its vector of exponents written in binary. For the representation of elements of a number field, we refer to the discussion opening Section 3.2. The size of the lacunary representation is the sum of the sizes of the representations of the nonzero monomials. In particular, note that it is polynomial in the logarithm of the degree.

As we shall see, finding binomial factors is a special case in our algorithms. To simplify the next proofs, we first prove a lemma on the computation of these factors.

Lemma 4.1. *Let \mathbb{K} be an algebraic number field and*

$$P = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X^{\alpha_j} Y^{\beta_j} \in \mathbb{K}[X, Y].$$

There exists a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm that computes all the multilinear binomial factors of P , together with their multiplicities.

Proof. Let F be an irreducible binomial factor of P . Without loss of generality, let us assume that it depends on X . Otherwise, invert the roles of X and Y in what follows. Then F can be written $F = uXY^\gamma + vY^\delta$ with $u, v \in \mathbb{K}$ and $\gamma + \delta \leq 1$. Then F divides P if and only if $P(-\frac{v}{u}Y^{\delta-\gamma}, Y) = 0$. In other words, F divides P if and only if $G = uZ + v$ is a factor of the polynomial $Q(Y, Z) = Y^{\max_j \alpha_j} P(ZY^{\delta-\gamma}, Y)$. One can view Q as an element of $\mathbb{K}[Z][Y]$ and write it as $Q = \sum_\epsilon q_\epsilon(Z)Y^\epsilon$. Then G divides Q if and only if it divides each q_ϵ . More precisely, the multiplicity $\mu_F(P)$ of F as a factor of P equals $\min_\epsilon \mu_G(q_\epsilon)$. Therefore, it is sufficient to compute the linear factors of each q_ϵ , with multiplicities, using Lenstra's algorithm [27].

To find all the multilinear binomial factors of P depending on X , one has to apply the above algorithm with $(\gamma, \delta) = (1, 0)$, $(0, 1)$ and $(0, 0)$. For the factors depending only on Y , one has to invert the roles of X and Y and apply to above algorithm once more. \square

Note that in the previous algorithm, it is not possible to first compute the gcd of the polynomials q_ϵ before the computation of their common linear factors since this task is NP-hard to perform [31].

4.1 Finding linear factors

Theorem 4.2. *Let \mathbb{K} be a number field and*

$$P(X, Y) = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X^{\alpha_j} Y^{\beta_j} \in \mathbb{K}[X, Y].$$

There exists a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm that finds all the linear factors of P , together with their multiplicities.

Proof. The algorithm has three distinct parts. The first part is the obvious computation of monomial factors, the second part is for binomial factors using Lemma 4.1, and the third part for trinomial factors.

Consider the factors of the form $F = uX + vY + w$, $uvw \neq 0$. Using recursively the Gap Theorem for linear factors (Theorem 3.1), we can compute a decomposition of P with respect to X of degree at most $\binom{k-1}{2}$, compatible with the linear trinomial factors. That is, P can be written $P = X^{q_1} Q_1 + \dots + X^{q_s} Q_s$ such that $\mu_F(P) = \min_t \mu_F(Q_t)$, and the sum of the degrees of the Q_t 's is bounded by $\binom{k-1}{2}$. Inverting the roles of X and Y , one can compute a compatible decomposition of each Q_t with respect to Y . Globally, the polynomial P can be expressed as

$$P = \sum_{t=1}^s X^{\alpha(t)} Y^{\beta(t)} R_t$$

where each R_t has ℓ_t terms, $\sum_t \ell_t = k$, and its degree in both X and Y is at most $\binom{\ell_t-1}{2}$. The linear factors of P are the common linear factors of all the R_t 's, or equivalently the linear factors of $\gcd(R_1, \dots, R_s)$. One can thus apply standard algorithms to compute this gcd and then factor it in time polynomial in $\binom{k}{2}$. Moreover, $\mu_F(P) = \mu_F(\gcd(R_1, \dots, R_s))$. Therefore, this describes an algorithm to compute the linear trinomial factors of P and their multiplicities. \square

We aim to compare our techniques with Kaltofen and Koiran's [17, 18]. Their first result deals with linear factors of bivariate lacunary polynomials over the rational numbers, while the second one is an extension to the case of low-degree factors, with multiplicities, of multivariate lacunary polynomials over number fields. For the sake of the comparison, we therefore consider the algorithm to compute linear factors with multiplicities of bivariate lacunary polynomials over number fields that one obtains using Kaltofen and Koiran's techniques presented in their two papers.

As Kaltofen and Koiran's algorithm, our algorithm uses Lenstra's algorithm for univariate lacunary polynomials [27] to find binomial factors of the input polynomial. To compare both techniques, let us focus on the task of finding trinomial factors.

A first remark concerns the simplicity of the algorithm. The computation of the gap function is much simpler in our case since we do not have to compute the height of the coefficients. This means that the task of finding the gaps in the input polynomial is reduced to completely combinatorial considerations on the exponents. Moreover, to compute the multiplicities of the factors using their algorithm, one computes the factors of the successive derivatives (or sparse derivatives). To the contrary, our algorithm directly gives the multiplicities of the factors with no extra work.

Both our and Kaltofen and Koiran's algorithms use a low-degree factorization algorithm as a subroutine. This is in both cases the main computational task since the rest of the algorithm is devoted to the computation of the gaps in the input polynomial. Thus, a relevant measure to compare the complexity of these algorithms is the maximum degree of the polynomials given as input to the low-degree factorization algorithm. This maximum degree is given by the values of the gaps in the Gap Theorems. In our algorithm, the maximum degree is $\binom{k-1}{2}$. In Kaltofen and Koiran's, it is $\mathcal{O}(k \log k + k \log h_P)$ where h_P is the *height* of the polynomial P and the value $\log(h_P)$ is a bound on the size of the coefficients of P . For instance, if the coefficients of P are integers, then h_P is the maximum of their absolute values. Though, as previously mentioned, their algorithm does not give

at the same price the multiplicities. To this end, one needs to compute $(k - 1)$ sparse derivatives and apply the algorithm to them. This adds a factor k to the complexity. Therefore, our algorithm is always faster to compute the factors with multiplicities.

Note that an improvement of Theorem 2.1, as explained in Subsection 2.3, to a linear bound instead of a quadratic one would give us a better complexity than Kaltofen and Koiran's algorithm even for finding factor without multiplicity. Finally, it is naturally possible to combine both Gap Theorems in order to obtain the best complexity in all cases.

4.2 Finding multilinear factors

Theorem 4.3. *Let \mathbb{K} be a number field and*

$$P = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X^{\alpha_j} Y^{\beta_j} \in \mathbb{K}[X, Y].$$

There exists a deterministic polynomial time algorithm to compute all the multilinear factors of P , with their multiplicities.

Proof. As for computing linear factors, the task of computing multilinear factors can be split into three parts: computing the obvious monomial factors, computing the binomial factors using Lemma 4.1, and computing factors with at least three monomials.

One can find all factors of the form $uXY + vX + wY + t$ with $wt \neq 0$ using the Gap Theorem for multilinear factors (Theorem 3.4). As for linear factors, one can compute a decomposition of P with respect to both X and Y in the sense of Definition 3.2: $P = X^{\alpha(1)}Y^{\beta(1)}R_1 + \dots + X^{\alpha(s)}Y^{\beta(s)}R_s$ such that for all $F = uXY + vX + wY + t$ with $wt \neq 0$, $\mu_F(P) = \min(\mu_F(R_1), \dots, \mu_F(R_s))$. Moreover the sum of the degrees of the R_t 's (with respect to X or Y) is bounded by $2^{\binom{k-1}{2}}$. Then, finding such factors with their multiplicities is reduced to computing the multilinear factors of $\gcd(R_1, \dots, R_s)$ with multiplicities.

There are two other cases to consider: $t = 0$ and $w = 0$. Both cases can be treated in the same way. Let us first concentrate on the case $t = 0$.

Suppose that $uXY + vX + wY$ divides P , $uvw \neq 0$. Let P_{XY} the reciprocal polynomial of P with respect to its two variables:

$$P_{XY} = X^A Y^B P(1/X, 1/Y) = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X^{A-\alpha_j} Y^{B-\beta_j},$$

where $A = \max_j \alpha_j$ and $B = \max_j \beta_j$. Then $uXY + vX + wY$ divides P if and only if $u + vY + wX$ divides P_{XY} . Therefore, one can compute the linear factors of P_{XY} with three monomials and deduce the factors of P of the form $uXY + vX + wY$ from them.

One treats in the same way the remaining case $w = 0$. Let $P_X = X^A P(1/X, Y)$, we have that $uXY + vX + t$ divides P if and only if $uY + v + tX$ divides P_X . Therefore, this case is also reduced to the computation of linear factors.

Altogether, this gives a polynomial-time algorithm to compute multilinear factors of bivariate lacunary polynomials. \square

In the previous algorithm, factors with at least three monomials are computed in several steps, using different Gap Theorems. There are three cases: the general case $wt \neq 0$, and the special cases $t = 0$ and $w = 0$. Each time, a first decomposition of the polynomial is computed with respect to the variable X , and then refined with respect to the variable Y .

We aim to show that these three distinct steps can be performed in only one step. That is, one can first compute a decomposition with respect to the variable X which is compatible with all the multilinear factors with at least three monomials, and then refine this decomposition with respect to the variable Y .

The following proposition does not necessarily improve the running time of the algorithm, and makes it more sequential. Yet the implementation becomes easier. And most importantly, it will be crucial for the generalization to multivariate polynomials.

In the previous algorithms, some order on the monomials has been implicitly used. To compute a decomposition of a polynomial with respect to X , the monomials have to be ordered with an order compatible with the natural order on the exponents of the variable X . In particular, we assume in the next proposition that the indices are ordered such that $j < \ell$ implies $\alpha_j \leq \alpha_\ell$ for all j and ℓ .

Proposition 4.4. *Let P be as in Theorem 4.3. There exists a deterministic polynomial time algorithm to compute a decomposition of P with respect to X , compatible with the set of all multilinear polynomials with at least three monomials, and of degree at most $3\binom{k-1}{2}$.*

Proof. A decomposition $\mathcal{Q} = \{Q_1, \dots, Q_s\}$ is completely determined by a set of indices: for each Q_t , we consider its smallest index j_t . Then $J = \{j_1, \dots, j_s\} \subseteq \{1, \dots, k\}$ determines \mathcal{Q} . In the following, the decompositions are represented by their corresponding set of indices. To build

a unique decomposition, we take the intersection of several decompositions viewed as sets of indices. If J defines a decomposition compatible with a set \mathcal{F} then by Remark 3.3 any subset $I \subset J$ of indices defines a decomposition of P compatible with \mathcal{F} . Therefore, the intersection of two decompositions, respectively compatible with sets \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{G} , is compatible with $\mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{G}$.

It remains to show that the intersection of the decompositions compatible with the different kinds of multilinear factors with at least three monomials has degree at most $3\binom{k-1}{2}$. In the following, we consider only decompositions with respect to X . The decomposition $J = \{j_1, \dots, j_s\}$ compatible with $uXY + vX + wY + t$, $wt \neq 0$, is defined by $j_1 = 1$ and for all $t \geq 2$, j_t is the smallest index such that $\alpha_{j_t} - \alpha_{j_{t-1}} > 2\binom{j_t - j_{t-1}}{2}$.

The decompositions compatible with $uXY + vX + wY$ and $uXY + wY + t$ are the same, that is defined by a same set of indices. To prove this, let us first consider factors of the form $uXY + vX + wY$. A decomposition \mathcal{Q} compatible with such factors is defined as follows. The polynomial $uXY + vX + wY$ divides P if and only if $u + vY + wX$ divides P_{XY} . Then one can compute a decomposition of P_{XY} compatible with linear factors based on the Gap Theorem for linear factors. This decomposition is determined by a set L of indices. This set in turn defines the decomposition \mathcal{Q} of P . This means that L is defined as follows: The Gap Theorem for linear factors applied to P_{XY} gives the first gap between two indices ℓ and $\ell + 1$ such that ℓ is the largest index such that $A - \alpha_\ell > A - \alpha_k + \binom{k-\ell}{2}$, that is $\alpha_k - \alpha_\ell > \binom{k-\ell}{2}$. Now, one can apply the same reasoning with factors of the form $uXY + vX + t$, corresponding to linear factors of P_X . It is easy to see that the condition to define the gaps is the same as before. In other words, the decomposition compatible with factors of the form $uXY + vX + t$ is also determined by L .

Now, the set of indices L is the set of smallest indices of the polynomials in the decomposition: If there is a gap between indices ℓ and $\ell + 1$, the index $\ell + 1$ belongs to L (and $\ell \notin L$). To sum up, the set $L = \{\ell_1, \dots, \ell_p\}$ of indices defining the common decomposition for $uXY + vX + wY$ and $uXY + wY + t$ can be defined as follows: ℓ_p is the largest index such that $\alpha_k - \alpha_{\ell_p} \leq \binom{k-\ell_p}{2}$; for $1 < t < p$, ℓ_t is the largest index such that $\alpha_{\ell_{t+1}-1} - \alpha_{\ell_t} \leq \binom{\ell_{t+1}-\ell_t-1}{2}$; and $\ell_1 = 1$.

Now we aim to prove that the decomposition induced by $J \cap L$ has degree in X at most $3\binom{k-1}{2}$. To this end, we assume that $J \cap L = \emptyset$ and we aim to prove that $\alpha_k - \alpha_1 \leq 3\binom{k-1}{2}$. The result then follows by superadditivity of the function $k \mapsto 3\binom{k-1}{2}$. Let us take the convention that

$j_{s+1} = k + 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
\alpha_k - \alpha_1 &= (\alpha_k - \alpha_{j_s}) + \sum_{t=2}^s (\alpha_{j_t} - \alpha_{j_{t-1}}) \\
&= (\alpha_k - \alpha_{j_s}) + \sum_{t=2}^s \left[(\alpha_{j_t} - \alpha_{j_{t-1}}) + (\alpha_{j_{t-1}} - \alpha_{j_{t-1}}) \right] \\
&= \sum_{t=1}^s (\alpha_{j_{t+1}-1} - \alpha_{j_t}) + \sum_{t=2}^s (\alpha_{j_t} - \alpha_{j_{t-1}}).
\end{aligned}$$

For all t , $\alpha_{j_{t+1}-1} - \alpha_{j_t} \leq 2^{\binom{j_{t+1}-j_t-1}{2}}$ since j_{t+1} is the smallest index j such that $\alpha_j - \alpha_{j_t} > 2^{\binom{j-j_t}{2}}$. Therefore, by super-additivity of the function $k \mapsto \binom{k}{2}$, the first sum is bounded by $2^{\binom{k-1}{2}}$. For the second sum, we consider the second set L of indices. Since $J \cap L = \emptyset$, we can consider for each $2 < t \leq s$ the consecutive indices ℓ_q and ℓ_{q+1} of L such that $\ell_q < j_t < \ell_{q+1}$ (if no such ℓ_{q+1} exists, then $q = p$ and $\ell_{p+1} = k + 1$ by convention). In particular, $\ell_{q+1} - 1 \geq j_t$ and $\ell_q \leq j_t - 1$. Whence $\alpha_{j_t} - \alpha_{j_t-1} \leq \alpha_{\ell_{q+1}-1} - \alpha_{\ell_q} \leq 2^{\binom{\ell_{q+1}-\ell_q-1}{2}}$. By super-additivity again, the second sum is bounded by $2^{\binom{k-1}{2}}$. \square

4.3 Generalization to multivariate polynomials

We state the generalization to multivariate polynomials only for multilinear factors. This covers in particular the case of linear factors.

Finding multilinear factors of multivariate polynomials can be performed in three distinct steps as in the case of bivariate polynomials. The first step is the obvious computation of the monomial factors. The second step deals with binomial factors and reduces to univariate factorization. The third step reduces the computation of multilinear factors with at least three monomials to low-degree factorization.

Let us begin with the third step, which is very close to the bivariate case.

Theorem 4.5. *Let \mathbb{K} be an algebraic number field and*

$$P = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X_0^{\alpha_{0,j}} \cdots X_n^{\alpha_{n,j}} \in \mathbb{K}[X_0, \dots, X_n]$$

There exists a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm that finds all the multilinear factors of P with at least three monomials, together with their multiplicities.

Proof. The idea of the algorithm is as before to compute a decomposition of P , compatible with the set of multilinear factors with at least three monomials. To this end, we first compute a decomposition with respect to the variable X_0 , and then refine the decomposition using the other variables, sequentially. The computation of the decomposition for each variable is based on Proposition 4.4.

Without loss of generality, we describe the computation of the decomposition with respect to the variable X_0 . Any irreducible multilinear polynomial F with at least three monomials can be written as $F = F_0X_0 + F_1$ with $F_0, F_1 \in \mathbb{K}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ and $F_1 \neq 0$. First assume that $F_0 \neq 0$. Since F has at least three monomials, at least one of F_0 and F_1 must have two monomials. If F_0 has at least two monomials, there exists a variable, say X_1 , such that $F_0 = uX_1 + v$ for some nonzero $uv \in \mathbb{K}[X_2, \dots, X_n]$. If F_1 has two monomials, $F_1 = wX_1 + t$ for some nonzero $w, t \in \mathbb{K}[X_2, \dots, X_n]$. In both cases, F can be viewed as a polynomial in X_0 and X_1 , with at least three monomials, with coefficients in $\mathbb{K}[X_2, \dots, X_n]$. Therefore, one can view P as a bivariate polynomial in X_0 and X_1 over the field $\mathbb{K}(X_2, \dots, X_n)$ and apply Proposition 4.4 to compute a decomposition of P with respect to X_0 , compatible with all multilinear polynomials with at least three monomials. In particular, this decomposition is compatible with the multilinear polynomials in X_0, \dots, X_n over \mathbb{K} with at least three monomials, and such that the coefficient of X_0 is nonzero. Now the decomposition is also compatible with factors $F \in \mathbb{K}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ since such factors have to divide every coefficient of P viewed as an element of $\mathbb{K}[X_1, \dots, X_n][X_0]$.

Applying this algorithm sequentially with respect to every variable gives a decomposition of P compatible with all multilinear polynomials with at least three monomials. Its total degree is at most $3^{\binom{k-1}{2}}$ in each variable and the total number of polynomials in the decomposition is bounded by the number k of terms in P . One can therefore compute the gcd of the polynomials in the decomposition and the irreducible factorization of the gcd using classical algorithms. Then we return the multilinear factors, together with their multiplicities. This completes the proof. \square

For the computation of binomial multilinear factors, we extend Lemma 4.1. The main difference comes from the fact that in Lemma 4.1 we used four times a same algorithm, once for each possible choice of exponents. In the case of multivariate polynomials, there is an exponential number of choices of exponents. Thus the same strategy yields an algorithm of exponential complexity in the number of variables. Therefore, one has to determine in advance a smaller number of possible vectors of exponents.

The proof is inspired by the proof of [18, Lemma 5].

Theorem 4.6. *Let \mathbb{K} be an algebraic number field and*

$$P = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X_0^{\alpha_{0,j}} \cdots X_n^{\alpha_{n,j}} \in \mathbb{K}[X_0, \dots, X_n]$$

There exists a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm that finds all the multilinear factors of P with two monomials, together with their multiplicities.

Proof. In this proof, we denote by X the tuple of variables (X_0, \dots, X_n) . The strategy is to compute a set of candidate pairs of monomials (X^β, X^γ) such that P may have a factor of the form $uX^\beta + vX^\gamma$, and then to actually compute the factors. For the first step, we write what it means for $uX^\beta + vX^\gamma$ to be a factor of P and deduce conditions on β and γ . The second step is then a reduction to finding linear factors of univariate polynomials.

We begin with the first step. Let F be an irreducible multilinear binomial. One can write

$$F = u \prod_{i=0}^n X_i^{\beta_i} + v \prod_{i=0}^n X_i^{\gamma_i}$$

with $\beta_i, \gamma_i \in \{0, 1\}$ and $\beta_i + \gamma_i \leq 1$ for all i . Without loss of generality, let us assume that $\beta \neq 0$, and let i_0 be an index such that $\beta_{i_0} = 1$. Then F is a factor of P if and only if the polynomial

$$\prod_{i \neq i_0} X_i^{A_{i_0}} P(X_0, \dots, X_{i_0-1}, -\frac{v}{u} \prod_{i \neq i_0} X_i^{\gamma_i - \beta_i}, X_{i_0+1}, \dots, X_n)$$

vanishes, where $A_{i_0} = \max_j \alpha_{i_0,j}$. That is, F divides P if and only if

$$\sum_{j=1}^k a_j \left(-\frac{v}{u}\right)^{\alpha_{i_0,j}} \prod_{i \neq i_0} X_i^{\alpha_{i,j} + \alpha_{i_0,j}(\gamma_i - \beta_i) + A_{i_0}} = 0.$$

In particular, the term for $j = 1$ has to be canceled out by at least another term. In other words, there must exist $j \in \{2, \dots, k\}$ such that

$$\forall i, \alpha_{i,1} + \alpha_{i_0,1}(\gamma_i - \beta_i) = \alpha_{i,j} + \alpha_{i_0,j}(\gamma_i - \beta_i). \quad (8)$$

Furthermore $\alpha_{i_0,1} \neq \alpha_{i_0,j}$, for it would imply that $\alpha_{i,1} = \alpha_{i,j}$ for all i otherwise. Thus Equation (8) uniquely determines $\gamma_i - \beta_i$, hence uniquely determines both β_i and γ_i .

The variable X_{i_0} does not play a special role in the previous discussion and the same reasoning applies with any variable X_i such that $\beta_i \neq 0$. In

the same way, β and γ play symmetric roles. This means that for every $j \geq 2$, if the system defined by Equation (8) has a nonzero solution (β, γ) , it defines a candidate pair (X^β, X^γ) and its symmetric pair (X^γ, X^β) . The symmetric pair is redundant and we may only consider the pair (X^β, X^γ) . More precisely, for $j \geq 2$, if there exists an integer $q > 0$ such that for all i , either $\alpha_{i,j} - \alpha_{i,1} = 0$ or $\alpha_{i,j} - \alpha_{i,1} = \pm q$, then one can define β_i and γ_i for all i as follows:

$$(\beta_i, \gamma_i) = \begin{cases} (0, 0) & \text{if } \alpha_{i,j} - \alpha_{i,1} = 0, \\ (1, 0) & \text{if } \alpha_{i,j} - \alpha_{i,1} = q, \\ (0, 1) & \text{if } \alpha_{i,j} - \alpha_{i,1} = -q. \end{cases}$$

Therefore, we can compute at most $(k-1)$ candidate pairs. It remains to prove that, given a candidate pair (X^β, X^γ) , one can indeed compute all the factors of P of the form $uX^\beta + vX^\gamma$.

The algorithm for the second step is actually almost the same as in the proof of Lemma 4.1. Suppose that $\beta \neq 0$. (Otherwise, invert β and γ .) Let i_0 be any index such that $\beta_{i_0} = 1$. Let

$$Q(Y, X) = \prod_{i \neq i_0} X_i^{A_{i_0}} P(X_0, \dots, X_{i_0-1}, Y \prod_{i \neq i_0} X_i^{\gamma_i - \beta_i}, X_{i_0+1}, \dots, X_n)$$

where $A_{i_0} = \max_j \alpha_{i_0,j}$, viewed as an element of $\mathbb{K}[Y][X_0, \dots, X_n]$. That is, let us write $Q = \sum_\delta q_\delta(Y) X^\delta$.

Let $F = uX^\beta + vX^\gamma$ be a candidate factor. Then F divides P if and only if $G = uY + v$ divides Q , if and only if G divides each q_δ . More precisely, $\mu_F(P) = \mu_G(Q) = \min_\delta \mu_G(q_\delta)$. Therefore, factors of the form $uX^\beta + vX^\gamma$ can be computed in deterministic polynomial-time by computing the factors of the univariate polynomials q_δ , using Lenstra's algorithm [27]. \square

Note that in the previous algorithm, one could actually decrease the number of candidate pairs. To compute these pairs, we used the fact that the term for $j = 1$ has to be canceled by at least another term. One could then use the same argument for every term: Each term has to be canceled by another one. Applying the same reasoning for all terms would imply more conditions on (β, γ) , thus potentially decrease the number of candidate pairs.

4.4 Factorization in other fields of characteristic zero

We have given algorithms to compute the multilinear factors of multivariate polynomials over number fields. Nevertheless, the Gap Theorems

these algorithms are based on are valid over any field of characteristic zero. This means that we actually give a reduction algorithm from the problem of computing multilinear factors of lacunary polynomials to the two problems of computing linear factors of univariate polynomials on the one hand, and multilinear factors of low-degree polynomials on the other hand. And this algorithm is valid over any field of characteristic zero. In other words, as soon as there exist algorithms for these two latter problems over some field \mathbb{K} , our reduction yields an algorithm for the former problem as well. The complexity of the new algorithm is then polynomial in the complexity of the two other algorithms.

To the best of our knowledge, the only fields for which polynomial-time algorithms for both problems are known are number fields. More precisely, the only known algorithm to compute linear factors of univariate lacunary polynomials is Lenstra's algorithm, working over number fields. But there exist several other fields for which low-degree factorization algorithms are known.

Let us first consider the algebraic closure $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ of the field of rational numbers. Given a polynomial P with coefficients in a number field \mathbb{K} , one can seek factors of P with coefficients in $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$. This so-called *absolute factorization* can be computed in time polynomial in the degree of the input polynomial [8], see also [9]. Therefore, our algorithms can be extended to the computation of multilinear factors with at least three monomials over $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ of multivariate lacunary polynomials. Note that since the absolute factorization of a univariate polynomial of degree d consists in d linear polynomials, it cannot be computed in time polynomial in the lacunary representation of the polynomial. Therefore, binomial factors over $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ cannot be computed in polynomial-time either.

For other fields of characteristic zero, our algorithms can also be used to compute the multilinear factors with at least three monomials. This includes approximate factors with complex coefficients [19], factors over a p -adic field [7], and factors over fields with parameters [2, 3].

5 Positive characteristic

To extend the previous results to positive characteristic, one needs an equivalent of Theorem 2.1. Unfortunately, Theorem 2.1 does not hold in positive characteristic. In characteristic 2, the polynomial $(1 + X)^{2^n} + (1 + X)^{2^{n+1}} = X^{2^n}(X + 1)$ has only two terms, but its valuation equals 2^n . Therefore, its valuation cannot be bounded by a function of the number of terms. Note that this can be generalized to any positive characteristic. In

characteristic p , one can consider the polynomial $\sum_{i=1}^p (1+X)^{p^{n+i}}$.

Nevertheless, the exponents used in all these examples depend on the characteristic. In particular, the characteristic is always smaller than the largest exponent that appears. We shall show that in large characteristic, Theorem 2.1 still holds and can be used to give factorization algorithms. This contrasts with the previous results that use the notion of height of an algebraic number, hence are not valid in any positive characteristic.

In fact, Theorem 2.1 holds as soon as $\text{wr}(f_1, \dots, f_k)$ does not vanish. The difficulty in positive characteristic is that it is not true anymore that the Wronskian does not vanish as soon as $(f_j)_j$ is a linearly independent family. Consider for instance the family $f_1 = 1$ and $f_2 = X^2$ in characteristic 2. Yet, the Wronskian is still related to linear independence by the following result (see [22]):

Proposition 5.1. *Let \mathbb{K} be a field of characteristic p and $f_1, \dots, f_k \in \mathbb{K}[X]$. Then f_1, \dots, f_k are linearly independent over $\mathbb{K}[X^p]$ if and only if their Wronskian does not vanish.*

This allows us to give an equivalent of Theorem 2.1 in large positive characteristic.

Theorem 5.2. *Let $P = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X^{\alpha_j} (1+X)^{\beta_j} \in \mathbb{K}[X]$ with $\alpha_1 \leq \dots \leq \alpha_k$. If the characteristic p of \mathbb{K} satisfies $p > \max_j(\alpha_j + \beta_j)$, then the valuation of P is at most $\max_j(\alpha_j + \binom{k+1-j}{2})$, provided P is nonzero.*

Proof. Let $f_j = X^{\alpha_j} (1+X)^{\beta_j}$ for $1 \leq j \leq k$. The proof of Theorem 2.1 has two steps: We prove that we can assume that the Wronskian of the f_j 's does not vanish, and under this assumption we get a bound of the valuation of the polynomial. The second part only uses the non-vanishing of the Wronskian and can be used here too. We are left with proving that the Wronskian of the f_j 's can be assumed to be nonzero when the characteristic is large enough.

Assume that the Wronskian of the f_j 's is zero: By Proposition 5.1, there is a vanishing linear combination of the f_j 's with coefficients b_j in $\mathbb{K}[X^p]$. Let us write $b_j = \sum b_{i,j} X^{ip}$. Then $\sum_i X^{ip} \sum_j b_{i,j} f_j = 0$. Since $\deg f_j = \alpha_j + \beta_j < p$, $\sum_j b_{i,j} f_j = 0$ for all i . We have thus proved that there is a linear combination of the f_j 's equal to zero with coefficients in \mathbb{K} . Therefore, we can assume we have a basis of the f_j 's whose Wronskian is nonzero and use the same argument as for the characteristic zero. \square

Based on this result, the algorithms we develop in characteristic zero for PIT and factorization can be used for large enough characteristics.

Computing with lacunary polynomials in positive characteristic has been shown to be hard in many cases [33, 23, 25, 17, 4, 20]. In particular, Bi, Cheng and Rojas have recently shown that it is NP-hard to find roots in \mathbb{F}_p for polynomials over \mathbb{F}_p [4].

Let \mathbb{F}_{p^s} be the field with p^s elements for p a prime number and $s > 0$. It is represented as $\mathbb{F}_p[\zeta]/\langle\varphi\rangle$ where φ is a monic irreducible polynomial of degree s with coefficients in \mathbb{F}_p . As for number fields, φ can be given as input of the algorithms, and a coefficient $c \in \mathbb{F}_{p^s}$ is represented by a polynomial of degree smaller than $\deg(\varphi)$.

Theorem 5.3. *Let \mathbb{F}_{p^s} be a finite field, and*

$$P = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X^{\alpha_j} (uX + v)^{\beta_j} \in \mathbb{F}_{p^s}[X],$$

where $p > \max_j(\alpha_j + \beta_j)$. *There exists a polynomial-time deterministic algorithm to test if P vanishes identically.*

Proof idea. The proof of this theorem is very similar to the proof of Theorem 3.5, using Theorem 5.2 instead of Theorem 2.1. The main difference occurs when $u = 0$ or $v = 0$. In these cases, we rely in characteristic zero on Lenstra's algorithm to test sums of the form $\sum_j a_j v^{\beta_j}$ for zero. There is no equivalent of Lenstra's algorithm in positive characteristic, but these tests are actually much simpler. These sums can be evaluated using repeated squaring in time polynomial in $\log(\beta_j)$, that is polynomial in the input length.

The basic operations in the algorithm are operations in the ground field \mathbb{F}_p . Therefore, the result also holds if bit operations are considered. The only place where computations in \mathbb{F}_{p^s} have to be performed in the algorithm is the tests for zero of coefficients of the form $\sum_j \binom{\alpha_j}{\ell_j} a_j u^{-\alpha_j} (-v)^{\ell_j}$ where the α_j 's and ℓ_j 's are integers and $a_j \in \mathbb{F}_{p^s}$, and the sum has at most k terms. The binomial coefficient is to be computed *modulo* p using for instance Lucas' Theorem [28]. \square

Note that the condition $p > \max_j(\alpha_j + \beta_j)$ means that p has to be greater than the degree of P . This condition is a fairly natural condition for many algorithms dealing with polynomials over finite fields, especially prime fields, for instance for root finding algorithms [4].

We now turn to the problem of factoring lacunary polynomials with coefficients in fields of large characteristic. We state it in the most general case of finding multilinear factors of multivariate polynomials.

Theorem 5.4. Let \mathbb{F}_{p^s} be the field with p^s elements, and

$$P = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X_0^{\alpha_{0,j}} \cdots X_n^{\alpha_{n,j}} \in \mathbb{F}_{p^s}[X_0, \dots, X_n],$$

where $p > \max_j(\alpha_j + \beta_j)$. There exists a probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm to find all the multilinear factors of P with at least three monomials, together with their multiplicities.

On the other hand, deciding whether P has a binomial factor is NP-hard under randomized reductions. More precisely, for every pair of relatively prime multilinear monomials (X^β, X^γ) , deciding whether there exist nonzero u and v such that $uX^\beta + vX^\gamma$ divides P is NP-hard under randomized reductions.

Proof. The second part of the theorem is the consequence of the NP-hardness (under randomized reductions) of finding roots in \mathbb{F}_{p^s} of lacunary univariate polynomials with coefficients in \mathbb{F}_{p^s} [25, 4, 20]: Let Q be a lacunary univariate polynomial over \mathbb{F}_{p^s} , and let $d = \deg(Q)$. Let us define $P(X_0, \dots, X_n) = (X^\beta)^d Q(X^{\gamma-\beta})$ where $X^{\gamma-\beta} = \prod_i X_i^{\gamma_i-\beta_i}$. Then P is a polynomial. We aim to show that Q has a nonzero root if and only if P has a binomial factor of the form $uX^\beta + vX^\gamma$. Let $F = uX^\beta + vX^\gamma$. Without loss of generality, we can assume that $\beta \neq 0$ and $\beta_0 = 1$. Then F divides P if and only if

$$(X^\gamma)^{\max_j \alpha_{0,j}} P \left(-\frac{v}{u} \prod_{i>0} X_i^{\gamma_i-\beta_i}, X_1, \dots, X_n \right) = 0.$$

Let $X^\delta = (X^\gamma)^{\max_j \alpha_{0,j}} (X^\beta)^d$. Since $\beta_0 = 1$ and $\gamma_0 = 0$, the previous equality is equivalent to

$$X^\delta Q \left(\left(-\frac{v}{u} \prod_{i>0} X_i^{\gamma_i-\beta_i} \right)^{-1} \prod_{i>0} X_i^{\gamma_i-\beta_i} \right) = X^\delta Q \left(-\frac{u}{v} \right) = 0.$$

In other words, this is equivalent with the fact that $-u/v$ is a root of Q . Deciding whether $uX^\beta + vX^\gamma$ divides P is thus NP-hard under randomized reductions.

For the first part, the algorithm we propose is actually the same as in characteristic zero (Theorem 4.2). This means that it relies on known results for factorization of dense polynomials. Yet, the only polynomial-time algorithms known for factorization in positive characteristic are probabilistic [32]. Therefore our algorithm is probabilistic and not deterministic as in characteristic zero. \square

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