Exact Polynomial Factorization by Approximate High Degree Algebraic Numbers

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ABSTRACT

For factoring polynomials in two variables with rational coefficients, an algorithm using transcendental evaluation was presented by Hulst and Lenstra. In their algorithm, transcendence measure was computed. However, a constant c is necessary to compute the transcendence measure. The size of c involved the transcendence measure can influence the efficiency of the algorithm greatly.

In this paper, we overcome the problem arising in Hulst and Lenstra's algorithm and propose a new polynomial time algorithm for factoring bivariate polynomials with rational coefficients. Using an approximate algebraic number of high degree instead of a variable of a bivariate polynomial, we can get a univariate one. A factor of the resulting univariate polynomial can then be obtained by a numerical root finder and the purely numerical LLL algorithm. The high degree of the algebraic number guarantees that this factor corresponds to a factor of the original bivariate polynomial. We prove that our algorithm saves a $(\log^2(mn))^{2+\epsilon}$ factor in bit-complexity comparing with the algorithm presented by Hulst and Lenstra, where (n, m) represents the bi-degree of the polynomial to be factored. We also demonstrate on many significant experiments that our algorithm is practical. Moreover our algorithm can be generalized to polynomials with variables more than two.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The factorization of polynomials is a classical problem in computer algebra, which intervenes in many fields of application. Historical surveys about it can be found in [14, 15, 16, 17, 9]. In 1982 the first polynomial-time algorithm for factoring polynomials in one variable with rational coefficients was published (see [22]). The most important part of this factoring algorithm is the so-called basis reduction algorithm, i.e. the famous LLL algorithm due to Lenstra, Lenstra and Lovász. The LLL algorithm has many important applications, such as wireless communication, cryptography (see [25]), GPS (see [1]) and so on. Since then many generalizations of the original algorithm were published, for example [23, 5, 21, 30, 31, 24, 19], which applied the LLL lattice basis reduction technique to obtain polynomial time algorithms for factoring multivariate polynomials over various fields including finite fields, local fields and number fields. While there are also several other approaches for factoring polynomials. For instance E. Kaltofen presented algorithms for reducing the problem of finding the irreducible factors of a bivariate polynomial with integer coefficients in polynomial time to factoring a univariate integer polynomial (see [12, 13]). In recent years, many more efficient methods and algorithms have been introduced to factor polynomials. For univariate polynomials, van Hoeij proposed some algorithms (see [32, 33]) which follow the Berlekamp-Zassenhaus algorithm and use the LLL algorithm to solve a combinatorial problem which has smaller coefficients and dimensions rather than calculate coefficients of a factor of a univariate polynomial with integer coefficients. The latest advances

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about the van Hoeij algorithm are presented in [28, 29]. For multivariate polynomials, many references can be used. Using Hensel lifting and factor recombination technique, G. Lecerf et al presented some efficient factoring algorithms (see [2, 20, 4]). The differential equations was introduced to factor polynomials by S. Gao et al in [9, 10]. Chèze and Galligo proposed an algorithm for computing an exact absolute factorization of a bivariate polynomial from an approximate one (see [3]). There are several well-known techniques and variants for factoring bivariate polynomials. A classical and generic one consists in localizing one of the two variables at a suitable value, computing the local analytic factorization, and discovering the recombinations into the rational factors (see [2, 20, 4] and the references therein). In the particular case of integer coefficients, it is desirable to adapt a more direct strategy on the top of LLL.

Another aspect, the symbolic-numeric hybrid computation (see [7, 18, 35]) is at the intersection of applied and traditional mathematics and at the intersection of numerical analysis and computer algebra. Many methods in this field are playing more and more important role in computer algebra including factorization.

In this paper we adopt the both ideas: the lattice reduction and the symbolic-numeric hybrid computation to solve the problem of factoring a polynomial f(x, y) in $\mathbb{Q}[x, y]$. A method to obtain the minimal polynomial of an algebraic number was given in [19]. Using this method, Hulst and Lenstra presented an algorithm for factorization of polynomials in two variables with rational coefficients by transcendental evaluation (see [31]), in which transcendence measure was needed. However, a constant c is necessary to compute the transcendence measure. The size of c involved the transcendence measure can influence the efficiency of the algorithm greatly. In this paper, we overcome the problem arising in [31] and present a new polynomial-time algorithm for the factorization of bivariate polynomials with rational coefficients. Furthermore the running time of our algorithm is not only $(\log^2(mn))^{2+\epsilon}$ times less than the algorithm in [31], where (n, m) represents the bi-degree of the polynomial to be factored, but also less than or near to the running time of the order factor() in Maple 11 for many examples (see subsection 3.3). Moreover our algorithm can be generalized easily to factor polynomials with variables more than two. Although all of the intermediate computations are approximate, the input and output of our algorithm are both polynomials with exact coefficients.

The outline of our algorithm to factor a bivariate polynomial is as follows. First, we convert the bivariate polynomial to be factored to a univariate one by substituting an approximate algebraic number of high degree for a variable. After the substitution we can compute approximations to the complex roots of the resulting univariate polynomial, and look for the minimal polynomial (over some algebraic extension of \mathbb{Q}) of one of the approximated roots. Lemma 1 guarantees that this minimal polynomial corresponds to a factor of the original bivariate polynomial and Lemma 6 guarantees this polynomial is an irreducible one.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we present the notations and some preliminary lemmas. We describe our algorithm and analyze the correctness and the running time in Section 3, in which we also give several examples in detail. And we draw a conclusion of this paper in Section 4.

2. NOTATIONS AND PRELIMINARIES

In this section, we first give some notations. And then we discuss the process of approximation in subsection 2.2. We introduce lattice and LLL Algorithm in subsection 2.3. In subsection 2.4, we give some preliminary lemmas which implies our main algorithm.

2.1 Notations

For a bivariate polynomial $f(x,y) = \sum_i \sum_j f_{i,j} x^i y^j$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x,y]$, we denote by $\deg_x(f)$ and $\deg_y(f)$ its degree in x and y respectively, $||f||_1 = \sum_i \sum_j |f_{i,j}|$ its one norm, $||f|| = (\sum_i \sum_j |f_{i,j}|^2)^{1/2}$ its Euclid length, and $height(f) = \max_{i,j} |f_{i,j}|$ its height. Throughout this paper $p_\lambda(x)$ is the minimal polynomial of an algebraic number λ over \mathbb{Q} , i.e. $p_\lambda(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ is the unique primitive polynomial of smallest degree such that $p_\lambda(\lambda) = 0$. The degree and height of an algebraic number are the degree and the height respectively of its minimal polynomial. And we denote the degree of the algebraic number λ by M, i.e. $M = [\mathbb{Q}(\lambda) : \mathbb{Q}] = \deg(p_\lambda)$. The real and imaginary parts of a complex number z will be denoted Re(z) and Im(z) respectively.

As is well known that factoring a polynomial over $\mathbb{Q}[x, y]$ is equivalent to factoring a primitive polynomial over $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$. Thus we denote by f(x, y) a primitive polynomial to be factored in $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ with $\deg_x(f) = n > 0$, $\deg_y(f) = m > 0$ for the rest of this paper.

Now we are ready to describe the idea behind our algorithm. We determine the irreducible factors of f in $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ as follows: At first we use an algebraic number λ with degree M > 2m(n+1) instead of the variable y in f(x, y) and compute an approximation to a root of $f(x, \lambda)$. We denote by α the root. And then we look for the minimal polynomial of α over $\mathbb{Q}(\lambda)$, which is denoted by $h(x, \lambda) \in \mathbb{Z}[\lambda][x]$. From Lemma 1 we know h(x, y) is a factor of f(x, y) in $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$. According to Lemma 6 we know h(x, y) is irreducible. This is repeated until all the factors are found.

Lemma 1. Let f(x, y) be an polynomial of $\deg_x(f) = n > 0$ and $\deg_y(f) = m > 0$ in $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$, λ an algebraic number with degree M > (n+2)m. If $h(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ with $\deg_x(h) \leq n$ and $\deg_y(h) \leq m$ satisfies $h(x, \lambda)$ is a factor of $f(x, \lambda)$ in $\mathbb{Z}[\lambda][x]$, then h(x, y) is a factor of f(x, y) in $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$.

PROOF. Since $h(x,\lambda)|f(x,\lambda)$, we have

$$f(x,\lambda) = h(x,\lambda)g(x,\lambda).$$
(1)

By the successive pseudo division of f(x, y) and h(x, y) with respect to x, we have

$$I(y)^{t} f(x,y) = q(x,y)h(x,y) + r(x,y),$$
(2)

where $I(y) = lc_x(h(x,y)), q, h, r \in \mathbb{Z}[x,y], t \in \mathbb{N}$, and $\deg_x(r) < \deg_x(h)$. So $I(\lambda)^t f(x,\lambda) = q(x,\lambda)h(x,\lambda) + r(x,\lambda)$. Together with (1) we have

$$h(x,\lambda)(I(\lambda)^{t}g(x,\lambda) - q(x,\lambda)) = r(x,\lambda).$$

Comparing the degrees of x in two sides gives $r(x, \lambda) = 0$. Set $r(x, y) = \sum_{i=0}^{\deg_x(r)} \sum_{j=0}^{\deg_y(r)} r_{i,j} x^i y^j$, then

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\deg_x(r)} (\sum_{j=0}^{\deg_y(r)} r_{i,j} \lambda^j) x^i = 0.$$
 (3)

From (2) we find

$$\deg_{y}(I(y)) \leq \deg_{y}(h),$$

$$\deg_{y}(r) \leq \deg_{y}(I(y)^{t}) + \deg_{y}(f)$$

$$\leq t \cdot \deg_{y}(h) + \deg_{y}(f),$$

and

$$t \le \deg_x(f) - \deg_x(h) + 1 \le n + 1,$$

so $\deg_y(r) \leq (n+2)m < M$. Thus $r_{i,j} = 0$ from (3), i.e. r(x,y) = 0. Simultaneously $q(x,y) = I(y)^t g(x,y)$, so h(x,y) is a factor of f(x,y). \Box

2.2 How to Approximate

To avoid intermediate expression swell problem we do not work with λ , but work with some approximation $\bar{\lambda}$ to λ . Therefore, we denote by $\bar{\lambda}_j$ for $0 \leq j \leq m$ approximations to λ^j where $\bar{\lambda}_0 = 1$. We introduce the following notation for the approximate value of f(x, y) at (x, λ) : $f_{\bar{\lambda}} = \sum_i \sum_j f_{i,j} x^i \bar{\lambda}_j$. In our algorithm we will work with $f_{\bar{\lambda}}$ instead of $f(x, \lambda)$. We may assume that $f_{\bar{\lambda}}$ has a root with absolute value at most 1, or we consider the polynomial $x^n f(\frac{1}{x}, y)$ instead of f(x, y).

Next we investigate how close λ should be approximated to enable a zero of $f_{\overline{\lambda}}$ to be an approximation to a root of $f(x, \lambda)$.

Lemma 2. ([31], Lemma 1.3) Let $f = \sum_{i=0}^{n} f_i x^i$, $\bar{f} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \bar{f}_i x^i \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ be two polynomials of degree n > 0, and let $\Delta = \max_{0 \le i \le n} |f_i - \bar{f}_i|$. Suppose that \bar{f} has a root $\beta \in \mathbb{C}$ satisfying $|\beta| \le 1$. Then there exists a zero $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ of f such that

$$|\beta - \alpha| \le \left(\frac{(n+1)\Delta}{|f_n|}\right)^{1/n}.$$

PROOF. Since $f(x) - \bar{f}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} (f_i - \bar{f}_i)x^i$, we get $|f(\beta)| \leq \Delta \sum_{i=0}^{n} |\beta|^i$. Also $|f(\beta)| = |f_n| \prod_{i=1}^{n} |\beta - \alpha_i|$, where $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n$ are the zeros of f. \square

Lemma 3. Let $f(x,y) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{m} f_{i,j} x^{i} y^{j}$ and λ be an algebraic number. If $f(x,\lambda) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} f_{i} x^{i}$ satisfy $f_{n} \neq 0$, then

$$|f_n| \ge ((1+m)height(f))^{1-M} ||p_\lambda||^{-m}$$

where p_{λ} is the minimal polynomial of λ and $\deg(p_{\lambda}) = M > m$.

PROOF. For any polynomial $g = \sum_{i=0}^{d} g_i x^i \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ of degree d with the complex roots z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_d we define the Mahler measure M(g) by

$$M(g) = |g_d| \prod_{j=1}^d \max\{1, |z_j|\}.$$

The Mahler measure of an algebraic number λ is defined to be the measure of its minimal polynomial, i.e. $M(\lambda) = M(p_{\lambda})$.

Since $0 \neq f_n = \sum_{j=0}^m f_{n,j}\lambda^j$. Hence for the polynomial $f_n(y) = \sum_{j=0}^m f_{n,j}y^j \in \mathbb{Z}[y]$, we have $f_n = f_n(\lambda) \neq 0$. So

$$|f_n| = |f_n(\lambda)| \ge ||f_n(y)||_1^{1-M} M(\lambda)^{-m}$$
 (4)

can be derived from Lemma 4. Since $||f_n(y)||_1 \leq (1 + m)height(f_n(y)), M(\lambda) \leq ||p_\lambda||$ (see [34], Theorem 6.31) and $height(f_n(y)) \leq height(f)$, combined with (4) the proof is complete. \Box

Lemma 4. ([26], lemma 3) Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_q$ be algebraic numbers of exact degree of d_1, \ldots, d_q respectively. Define $D = [\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_q) : \mathbb{Q}]$. Let $P \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \ldots, x_q]$ have degree at most N_h in $x_h (1 \le h \le q)$. If $P(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_q) \ne 0$, then

$$|P(\alpha_1,...,\alpha_q)| \ge ||P||_1^{1-D} \prod_{h=1}^q M(\alpha_h)^{-DN_h/d_h}.$$

PROOF. See Lemma 2 of [8]. \Box

Lemma 5. Let β be a 2^{-s-1} -approximation² of a zero of absolute value at most 1 of $f_{\bar{\lambda}}$. For all k, if

$$|\lambda^{k} - \bar{\lambda}_{k}| < (2^{sn+n}(n+1)((1+m)height(f))^{M} \|p_{\lambda}\|^{m})^{-1},$$
(5)

then β is also a 2^{-s} -approximation of a zero of $f(x, \lambda)$.

PROOF. Let $f(x, \lambda) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} f_i x^i$ and $f_{\bar{\lambda}}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \bar{f}_i x^i$. According to Lemma 2, there exists a root α of $f(x, \lambda)$ such that

$$|\beta - \alpha| \le (\frac{(n+1)\max_i |f_i - \bar{f}_i|}{|f_n|})^{1/n}.$$

According to Lemma 3 and

$$\max_{i} |f_i - \bar{f}_i| \le height(f) \sum_{j=1}^{m} |\lambda^j - \bar{\lambda}_j|,$$

the proof easily follows from (5). \Box

Remark 1. Suppose we have computed a 2^{-s-1} - approximation $\bar{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Q}(i)$ with $|\bar{\alpha}| \leq 1$, to a root of $f_{\bar{\lambda}}$. According to Lemma 5 $\bar{\alpha}$ is also a 2^{-s} -approximation to $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$, a root of $f(x, \lambda)$. So

$$|\alpha| \le 1 + 2^{-s} \tag{6}$$

since $|\alpha| - |\bar{\alpha}| \le |\alpha - \bar{\alpha}| \le 2^{-s}$.

2.3 Lattice

In the rest of this paper, we denote by $\beta_{ij} \in \mathbb{Q}(i)$ for $0 \leq i \leq n$ and $0 \leq j \leq m$ the approximations to $\alpha^i \lambda^j$, where $\beta_{00} = 1$.

2.3.1 LLL Algorithm

For convenience of our description, we state the following definitions and LLL Algorithm.

Definition 1. A lattice $L \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a set of the form

$$\{\sum_{i=1}^k r_i b_i : r_i \in \mathbb{Z}\},\$$

where b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_k are independent vectors in \mathbb{R}^n . The lattice L is said to be generated by the vectors b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_k which form a *basis* for L, and k is the *rank* or *dimension* of L.

Definition 2. Let $b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be linearly independent and $(b_1^*, b_2^*, \ldots, b_k^*)$ the corresponding Gram-Schmidt orthogonal basis. Then b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_k is reduced if $|b_i^*|^2 \leq 2|b_{i+1}^*|^2$ for $1 \leq i < n$.

Remark 2. Roughly speaking, a reduced basis is a basis made of reasonably short vectors which are almost orthogonal. There exist many different notions of reduction, such as those of Hermite, Minkowski, Korkine-Zolotarev, Venkov, Lenstra-Lenstra- Lovász, etc (see [27]).

²We call b is a 2^{-s} -approximation of a if $|a - b| < 2^{-s}$.

In our algorithm we need the last one, LLL reduction, which is implemented as follows.

Algorithm 1. (LLL, [34] ALGORITHM 16.10)

Input: Linearly independent vectors $b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_k \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ **Output:** A reduced basis (v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k) of lattice $L = \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbb{Z}b_i$.

1. for i = 1 to k

- (a) $v_i \leftarrow b_i$
- (b) compute the GSO (Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization)
- (c) $i \leftarrow 2$

2. while $i \leq k$

(a) for j = i - 1 to 1 i. $v_i \leftarrow v_i - \lceil \mu_{ij} \rfloor v_j$. ii. update the GSO.

endfor

- (b) if i > 1 and $|v_{i-1}^*|^2 > 2|b_i^*|^2$ then
 - i. exchange g_{i-1} and g_i
 - ii. update the GSO
 - iii. $i \leftarrow i 1$
 - else $i \leftarrow i+1$
- 3. return (v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k)

2.3.2 Relations between LLL Algorithm and Ours'

For each positive integer s, we define the lattice $L_s \subset \mathbb{R}^{(n+1)(m+1)+2}$ generated by $b_{00}, b_{01}, \ldots, b_{0,m}, b_{10}, \ldots, b_{nm}$ which are the rows of the following $[(n+1)(m+1)] \times [(n+1)(m+1)+2]$ matrix

$$B_{s} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 2^{s} Re(\beta_{00}) & 2^{s} Im(\beta_{00}) \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 2^{s} Re(\beta_{01}) & 2^{s} Im(\beta_{01}) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & 2^{s} Re(\beta_{nm}) & 2^{s} Im(\beta_{nm}) \end{pmatrix}.$$

We consider a map $\mathbb{Z}[x,y] \to L_s$. Corresponding to a polynomial $g(x,y) = \sum_i \sum_j g_{i,j} x^i y^j \in \mathbb{Z}[x,y]$ of $\deg_x(g) \leq n$ and $\deg_y(g) \leq m$, we have a vector in L_s defined by $\bar{g} = \sum_i \sum_j g_{i,j} b_{ij}$. We denote $g_\beta = \sum_{i=0}^n \sum_{j=0}^m g_{i,j} \beta_{ij}$, where $g_{i,j} = 0$ for $\deg_x(g) < i \leq n$ or $\deg_y(g) < j \leq m$. Clearly we have

$$\|\bar{g}\|^{2} = \|g\|^{2} + 2^{2s}|g_{\beta}|^{2}.$$
(7)

We run the celebrated LLL algorithm on b_{00} , b_{01} , ..., $b_{0,m}$, b_{10} , ..., b_{nm} to get a reduced basis of L_s . Suppose \bar{v} is the first vector of the reduced basis. Then we have (see [22], Proposition (1.11))

$$\|\bar{v}\|^2 \le 2^{(n+1)(m+1)-1} \|\bar{h}\|^2, \tag{8}$$

where \bar{h} is the corresponding vector of h(x, y) such that $h(x, \lambda) \in \mathbb{Z}[\lambda][x]$ is the minimal polynomial of α over $\mathbb{Q}(\lambda)$. If $g \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ with $\deg_x(g) \leq n$ and $\deg_y(g) \leq m$ such that $g(\alpha, \lambda) \neq 0$ then we will show that

$$\|\bar{g}\|^2 > 2^{(n+1)(m+1)-1} \|\bar{h}\|^2 \tag{9}$$

for a suitable choice of s (Lemma 9).

By v(x, y) we denote the corresponding polynomial of \bar{v} . From (8) and (9) we know $v(\alpha, \lambda) = 0$, thus $h(x, \lambda)|v(x, \lambda)$. In fact $h(x, \lambda)$ must be $\pm v(x, \lambda)$ since \bar{v} belongs to the basis of L_s of which \bar{h} is an element.

So far we have found $h(x, \lambda)$ which is the minimal polynomial of α over $\mathbb{Q}(\lambda)$, where α is a root of $f(x, \lambda)$ with $|\alpha| \leq 1$. Then the polynomial $h(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ can be obtained by replacing λ of $h(x, \lambda)$ by y. Obviously $h(x, \lambda)$ divides $f(x, \lambda)$. From Lemma 1 we know h(x, y) is a factor of f(x, y) such that $h(\alpha, \lambda) = 0$, and the following lemma guarantees the irreducibility of h(x, y) in $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$.

Lemma 6. Let $h(x, \lambda) \in \mathbb{Z}[\lambda][x]$ be the minimal polynomial over $\mathbb{Q}(\lambda)$ of an algebraic number α and $[\mathbb{Q}(\lambda) : \mathbb{Q}] = M > \deg_y(h(x, y))$, where h(x, y) is obtained by replacing λ of $h(x, \lambda)$ by y. Then h(x, y) is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$.

PROOF. Suppose $h(x, y) = h_1(x, y)h_2(x, y)$ where $h_1, h_2 \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$. Then $h(x, \lambda) = h_1(x, \lambda)h_2(x, \lambda)$. Since $h(x, \lambda)$ is the minimal polynomial of α in $\mathbb{Q}(\lambda)[x]$, we have $h_1(x, \lambda) = 1$ or $h_2(x, \lambda) = 1$. Without loss of generality we set $h_1(x, \lambda) = 1$. Since $M > \deg_y(h(x, y))$ and by using the same technique in the proof of Lemma 1 we have $h_1(x, y) = 1$. Therefore h(x, y) is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$. \Box

2.4 A Lower Bound of $\|\bar{g}\|$

For proving (9) we need some lemmas below.

Lemma 7. Let $n, m, \lambda, s, \alpha, \beta_{ij}$ be as above and $g \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ with $\deg_x(g) \leq n, \deg_y(g) \leq m$ such that $g(\alpha, \lambda) \neq 0$. If

$$|\alpha^i \lambda^j - \beta_{ij}| \le 2^{-s+1} \tag{10}$$

for $0 \le i \le n$ and $0 \le j \le m$, then

$$|g(\alpha, \lambda) - g_{\beta}| \le 2^{-s+1}(mn + m + n)height(g).$$

PROOF. Obviously.

The following lemma gives a lower bound for $|g(\alpha, \lambda)|$ when $g(\alpha, \lambda) \neq 0$.

Lemma 8. Let f(x, y) be a polynomial in $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ with $\deg_x(f) = n$ and $\deg_y(f) = m$, $g(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ with $\deg_x(g) \leq n$ and $\deg_y(g) \leq m$. Let λ be an algebraic number of degree $M \geq 2mn$ and $|\lambda| \leq 1/2$, α a root of $f(x, \lambda)$, $h(x, \lambda)$ the minimal polynomial³ of α in $\mathbb{Z}[\lambda][x]$. If $g(\alpha, \lambda) \neq 0$, then

$$|g(\alpha,\lambda)| \ge \frac{((2mn+1)^{\frac{1}{2}}B)^{1-M} ||p_{\lambda}||^{-2mn}}{4nB}, \qquad (11)$$

where $B = (2^{m+n}height(f)height(g)(n+1)^{\frac{3}{2}}(m+1)^{\frac{5}{2}})^n$.

PROOF. If $\deg_x(g) = 0$, then $g(\alpha, y) = g(y) \in \mathbb{Z}[y]$. And $g(\lambda) \neq 0$ since $M \geq 2mn > m \geq \deg_y(g)$. According to Lemma 4, we have

$$|g(\lambda)| \ge ||g||_1^{1-M} ||p_\lambda||^{-m}.$$
 (12)

So (11) follows from (12), which can be easily checked.

Now let $\deg_x(g) > 0$. Since $h(x, \lambda)$ is the minimal polynomial of α in $\mathbb{Q}(\lambda)[x]$ and $g(\alpha, \lambda) \neq 0$ we have $\gcd(h, g) = 1$ if

³Here, $h(x,\lambda)$ is the minimal polynomial in $\mathbb{Q}(\lambda)[x]$ of α such that $h(x,\lambda)$ is of the minimal degree in λ . So $\deg_{\lambda}(h(x,\lambda)) \leq m$.

we regard h and g as polynomials in $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$, and there exist polynomials $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ such that

$$a \cdot h + b \cdot g = R,\tag{13}$$

where $R = Res_x(g,h) \in \mathbb{Z}[y]$. Since $\deg_x(h) \leq n$ and $\deg_y(h) \leq m, \text{ we have } \deg_y(\widetilde{R}) \leq m \deg_x(\widetilde{g)} + n \deg_u(g) \leq$ 2mn, $\deg_x(a) \le \deg_x(g) - 1$, $\deg_y(a) \le m(\deg_x(g) - 1) +$ $n \deg_y(g), \ \deg_x(b) \le n-1 \ \text{and} \ \deg_y(b) \le m \deg_x(g) + (n-1)$ 1) $\deg_y(g)$.

Substituting α for x and λ for y in (13), we get

$$b(\alpha, \lambda)g(\alpha, \lambda) = R(\lambda),$$

hence

$$|g(\alpha,\lambda)| = \frac{|R(\lambda)|}{|b(\alpha,\lambda)|}.$$
(14)

Since $R(\lambda) \neq 0$ we have

$$|R(\lambda)| \ge ||R||_{1}^{1-M} |p_{\lambda}|^{-deg_{y}(R)}$$

$$\ge ((1+2mn)^{1/2} ||R||)^{1-M} ||p_{\lambda}||^{-2mn} \qquad (15)$$

$$\ge ((1+2mn)^{1/2} B)^{1-M} ||p_{\lambda}||^{-2mn}.$$

The first part of (15) is from Lemma 4. The second is from $||R||_1 \le (1 + \deg_y(R))^{1/2} ||R||$ and $\deg_u(R) \le 2mn$.

Since h(x, y)|f(x, y), from [31] we have

$$\begin{aligned} height(h) &\leq \|h\| \leq 2^{m+n} \|f\| \\ &\leq 2^{m+n} (1+n)^{\frac{1}{2}} (1+m)^{\frac{1}{2}} height(f), \end{aligned}$$

and from a Hadamard-type bound on the coefficients of a determinant of polynomials [11], we know

$$height(R) \le \|R\| \le B. \tag{16}$$

So the third part of (15) follows.

From (6) we have $|\alpha|^i \leq (1+2^{-s})^n \leq 2$, and combining with $|\lambda| \leq 1/2$ we derive

$$b(\alpha, \lambda)| \leq height(b) \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \sum_{j=0}^{2mn-1} |\alpha^{i}| |\lambda^{j}|$$

$$\leq 4n \cdot height(b)$$

$$\leq 4nB.$$
 (17)

The last part of (17) is from (16) also holds with R replaced by b. Therefore (11) follows from (14), (15) and (17). \Box

Remark 3. As a matter of fact, (17) holds not only from (16) but also from $M \geq 2mn$. Combined with the condition M > (n+2)m in Lemma 1, we choose the algebraic number λ such that $|\lambda| \leq 1/2$ and M = 2m(n+1) in our algorithm.

The following lemma shows how s should be chosen.

Lemma 9. Let $f, g, h, \bar{g}, \bar{h}, m, n, \alpha, \lambda, \beta_{ij}, B, M$ be as above. If

$$2^{s} \ge \frac{2^{\frac{mn+3(m+n)+10}{2}} \|f\|(m+1)^{2}(n+1)^{2}}{(1+2mn)^{\frac{1-M}{2}} \|p_{\lambda}\|^{-2mn}} \cdot A^{M}, \quad (18)$$

where $A = \left(2^{\frac{mn+5(m+n)+2}{2}} \|f\|^2 (n+1)^{\frac{5}{2}} (m+1)^{\frac{7}{2}}\right)^n$, then the following inequalities hold:

$$\|\bar{h}\| < 2^{m+n+1} \|f\|(n+1)(m+1), \tag{19}$$

$$\|\bar{g}\| > 2^{(mn+3(m+n)+2)/2} \|f\|(n+1)(m+1).$$
 (20)

PROOF. Since h divides f we have $\deg_r(h) \leq n$ and $\deg_u(h) \leq m$ so that ||h|| is well defined, and from [31] we have $height(h) \le ||h|| \le 2^{m+n} ||f||$. Together with $h(\alpha, \lambda) =$ 0 and Lemma 7, the upper bound on $\|\bar{h}\|$ follows:

$$\begin{split} \|\bar{h}\|^2 &= \|h\|^2 + 2^{2s} |h_{\beta}|^2 \\ &\leq (2^{m+n} \|f\|)^2 + 2^{2s} (2^{-s+1} 2^{m+n} \|f\| (mn+n+m))^2 \\ &= (2^{m+n} \|f\|)^2 (1 + 4(mn+n+m)^2) \\ &< (2^{m+n+1} \|f\| (n+1)(m+1))^2. \end{split}$$

We now wish to prove (20). Since $\|\bar{g}\|^2 = \|g\|^2 + 2^{2s} |g_\beta|^2$, we consider two cases: If $||g|| > 2^{(mn+3(m+n)+2)/2} ||f|| (n+1)(m+1)$, so is $|\bar{g}|$.

If $||g|| < 2^{(mn+3(m+n)+2)/2} ||f|| (n+1)(m+1)$, we then prove

$$2^{s}|g_{\beta}| > 2^{(mn+3(m+n)+2)/2} ||f|| (n+1)(m+1).$$
(21)

From Lemma 7 and Lemma 8 we have

$$\begin{aligned} |g_{\beta}| &\geq |g(\alpha, \lambda)| - 2^{-s+1} height(g)(mn+m+n) \\ &\geq \frac{(1+2mn)^{\frac{1-M}{2}} ||p_{\lambda}||^{-2mn}}{4nA^{M}} \\ &- 2^{-s+1} 2^{(mn+3(m+n)+2)/2} ||f||(m+1)^{2} (n+1)^{2} \\ &\geq \frac{(1+2mn)^{\frac{1-M}{2}} ||p_{\lambda}||^{-2mn}}{8nA^{M}}. \end{aligned}$$

So (21) holds from choosing s as (18).

Lemma 10. Let f, h, n, m, λ , s, L_s be as above such that (18) holds. If $\overline{h} \in L_s$, then $h = \pm v$ and in particular

$$\|\bar{v}\| < 2^{(mn+3(m+n)+2)/2} \|f\|(n+1)(m+1).$$
 (22)

PROOF. If $\bar{h} \in L_s$ then $\|\bar{v}\| \leq 2^{((m+1)(n+1)-1)/2} |\bar{h}|$ by (8). So with (19), (20) and from Lemma 9 we have $\|\bar{v}\| <$ $2^{(mn+3(m+n)+2)/2} ||f||(n+1)(m+1)$. This implies h divides v. Since $\bar{h} \in L_s$ and \bar{v} is contained in a basis for L_s we conclude that $h = \pm v$.

Remark 4. Actually, we try the values for $n_0 = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ and for each $m_0 = 0, 1, ..., m$ in our algorithm, i.e. the rank of L_s is $N = n_0(m+1) + m_0 + 1$. If N is the minimal such that $\overline{h} \in L_s$, then (22) also holds. A factor of f(x, y) has obtained. If $\bar{h} \notin L_s$, then N is too small and we need another lattice whose rank is greater than N. If (22) does not hold for any N, then h = f.

THE MAIN ALGORITHM 3.

In this section, we first describe our main algorithm, and then analyze the correctness and the cost of the algorithm. We also give some examples to illustrate our algorithm more clearly and generalize our algorithm to more general cases.

3.1 Description of Our Algorithm

Lemma 10 clearly leads to the following algorithm for factoring a bivariate polynomial.

Algorithm 2.

Input: a bivariate primitive polynomial $f(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ with $\deg_x(f) = n$ and $\deg_y(f) = m$, an algebraic number λ with degree M = 2m(n+1) and $|\lambda| \le 1/2$. **Output**: all the irreducible factors of f(x, y) in $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$.

- 1. Let $i_0, j_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ be the maximal degrees of $x^i y^j$ such that $x^i y^j | f(x, y)$. Then $f \leftarrow f(x, y) / x^{i_0} y^{j_0}$.
- 2. repeat
 - (a) Compute $\bar{\lambda}_j \in \mathbb{Q}$ for $0 \leq j \leq m$ such that (5) holds.
 - (b) $f_{\bar{\lambda}} \leftarrow \sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{m} f_{i,j} x^i \bar{\lambda}_j$.
 - (c) If $f_{\bar{\lambda}}$ has not a root α such that $|\alpha| < 1$, then $f_{\bar{\lambda}} \leftarrow x^n f_{\bar{\lambda}}(1/x)$.
 - (d) Apply the algorithm from [30] to compute a 2^{-s-1} -approximation $\bar{\alpha}$ to a root α with absolute value at most 1 of $f_{\bar{\lambda}}$.
 - (e) Compute β_{ij} for $0 \le i \le n$ and $0 \le j \le m$ such that (10) holds.
 - (f) for $n_0 = 1$ to nfor $m_0 = 0$ to m
 - i. Take $s \in \mathbb{Z}$ minimal such that (18) holds and **call Algorithm 1** to compute a reduced basis for L_s of rank N.
 - ii. If (22) holds, then
 - A. Output h = v.
 - B. $f \leftarrow f/h$.
 - C. If f is not a univariate polynomial, then goto step 2 else

call Factor(f) and output.

 $\mathbf{end}\mathbf{for}$

- endfor
- (g) Output h = f.
- (h) $f \leftarrow f/h$.
- 3. **until** f = 1.

Remark 5. Firstly, Algorithm 2 processes a simple case in the step 1, which guarantees that any root of f_{λ} is not equal to 0. This implies that β_{ij} are also not equal to 0. Thus Algorithm 1 can be applied to L_s correctly.

Remark 6. It is possible that f is a univariate polynomial after running the step $2\rightarrow$ (f) \rightarrow (ii) \rightarrow B. When this case happened, Algorithm 2 calls an arbitrary algorithm **Factor** which is used to factorize univariate polynomials and then outputs the result directly.

3.2 Correctness and Time Analysis

We now analyze the running time of our algorithm. From (18) we have

$$s = O(n^3 m^2 + n^2 m \log ||f||).$$
(23)

According to [31] a 2^{-s-1} -approximation $\bar{\alpha}$ to a root of absolute value at most 1 of $f_{\bar{\lambda}}$ can be computed in

$$O(n^2(\max\{s, n \log \|f_{\bar{\lambda}}\|\})^{1+\epsilon})$$

bit operations. Since $\log ||f_{\bar{\lambda}}|| = O(mn^2(n^3m^2 + n^2m\log||f||))$ (cf. (5) and (23)), it will cost

$$O(mn^5(n^3m^2 + n^2m\log||f||)^{1+\epsilon})$$

bit operations to compute $\bar{\alpha}$.

From [31] we know that $O(\bar{n}n^2m^3(n^3m^2+n^2m\log||f||)^{2+\epsilon})$, where $\bar{n} = \deg_x(h)$, bit operations suffice to compute h. Since $||f/h|| \leq 2^{m+n} ||f||$, the complete factorization of f can be found in $O(n^3 m^3 (n^3 m^2 + n^2 m \log ||f||)^{2+\epsilon})$ bit operations. So we have

Theorem 1. Algorithm 2 correctly computes a factorization of $f(x, y) \in \mathbb{Q}[x, y]$ and runs in polynomial time. It uses

$$O(n^3m^3(n^3m^2 + n^2m\log ||f||)^{2+\epsilon})$$

bit operations.

PROOF. From Sect. 2 and the analysis above, this proof is obvious. $\hfill\square$

3.3 Experiments

The described algorithm has been successfully carried out many times in Maple 11 on the same PC (Pentium IV 2.53G CPU, 384Mb of main memory). Here we only use several simple examples to better illustrate some steps of Algorithm 2 in detail.

In the following examples, we always set $\lambda = (\frac{1}{3})^{1/2m(n+1)}$. Then $p_{\lambda}(x) = 3x^{2m(n+1)} - 1$, hence $||p_{\lambda}|| = \sqrt{10}$. A vector $v = (v_{00}, \ldots, v_{0m}, v_{10}, \ldots, v_{nm})$ we get from LLL algorithm corresponds to a polynomial $\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{m} v_{ij}x^{i}y^{j}$.

Example 1. $f := 2x^2 + 3xy + 2x + y + y^2$. Then n = 2, m = 2, height(f) = 3 and $||f|| = \sqrt{19}$. We can first compute the minimal s such that (18) holds. In this example, s should be 32, while s should be 148 at least if we adopt the method in [31]. Secondly, we compute the approximate roots of $f_{\bar{\lambda}}$ with Maple 11.

 $\begin{bmatrix} -.44254407603573012077377941295814, \\ -1.8850881520714602415475588259163 \end{bmatrix}$

- 1.88508815207140024154755882591

Obviously, we choose

$$\bar{\alpha} = -.44254407603573012077377941295814$$

with absolute value ≤ 1 .

By running Algorithm 2 we get a vector (0., 1., 0., 2., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0.) which corresponds to 2y + x, a factor of f. After that the algorithm updates f by $f \leftarrow f/(2y+x) = 1 + y + x$. Obviously, the irreducible factorization of f is (2y + x)(1 + y + x).

Example 2. $f := 6x^3 + 8x^2 + 9x^2y + 6xy + 2x + y + 3y^2x + y^2$.

s should be chosen to be 76 in this example. This is about 7 times smaller than the method in [31]. After root finding and LLL computing, Algorithm 2 could give us 3x + 1 which is a factor of f. Updating f and computing another factor y + 2x gives a complete factorization of f as (1 + y + x)(y + 2x)(1 + 3x). Worthy of being mentioned, Algorithm 2 has a more acceptable running time in this example, which is slightly faster than factor() in Maple 11. factor() needs 0.125 s, while Algorithm 2 needs only 0.015 s to factor f completely.

In Table 1, we show the performance of Algorithm 2 for some randomly generated polynomials on the same PC. Here (n,m) represents the bi-degree of the input polynomial, Hrepresents the height of f and s_{HL} is the s that the method in [31] should choose, and s_{al} is the minimal s satisfied (18) in Algorithm 2. t_{fa} is the running time of the built-in function factor() in Maple 11. However, as can be seen from Theorem 1, the running time of Algorithm 2 is decided by

| i | (n,m) | Н | s_{HL} | s_{al} | s_l | $t_{al}(s)$ | $t_{fa}(s)$ |
|---|-------|-------|----------|----------|-------|-------------|-------------|
| 1 | (2,2) | 3 | 148 | 32 | 10 | 0. | 0. |
| 2 | (3,2) | 9 | 507 | 76 | 16 | 0.015 | 0.125 |
| 3 | (4,4) | 3 | 8000 | 1024 | 30 | 0.047 | 0.032 |
| 4 | (4,5) | 6 | 10000 | 2000 | 38 | 0.030 | 0.047 |
| 5 | (2,2) | 79247 | 4100 | 1024 | 71 | 0.125 | 0.187 |
| 6 | (3,2) | 782 | 500 | 72 | 63 | 0.014 | 0. |
| 7 | (4,4) | 25382 | 8000 | 1024 | 108 | 0.047 | 0.063 |
| 8 | (3,6) | 3542 | 31104 | 1944 | 77 | 0.046 | 0.032 |

Table 1: Performance of Algorithm 2

the scale of s and ||f||. Moreover s from (18) has a scale as in (23) and grows very fast when n, m or ||f|| grows. That can greatly affect the performance of Algorithm 2. By a lot of tests, we find that s can be smaller than that from (18) in most examples. In Table 1, s_l represents the minimal s such that Algorithm 2 correctly gives all the irreducible factors of f. In fact, every t_{al} in Table 1 is the running time, obtained by the corresponding s_l , of Algorithm 2. From Table 1, we can see the running time of the examples above is slightly less than or near to the running time of factor() in Maple 11. The performance of Algorithm 2 can be improved if the problem of finding the best choice for the parameter shas been solved. Unfortunately, one such problem is being considered but can not be attempted at this time.

In addition, Algorithm 2 can be applied to factor multivariate polynomials with rational coefficients. By using the Hilbert irreducibility theorem, we can reduce a multivariate polynomial to a bivariate one. The basic idea was described in [6]. After this reduction and running Algorithm 2 we can find the bivariate polynomial's factors, from which the factors of the original multivariate polynomial can be recovered by using Hensel lifting.

4. CONCLUSION

We overcome the problem arising from the algorithm in [31] and present a new algorithm for completely factoring bivariate polynomials in $\mathbb{Q}[x, y]$. The key step of our algorithm is reducing a bivariate polynomial to a univariate polynomial by substituting an algebraic number of high degree for a variable. And then we use the lattice reduction basis algorithm to get the desired factors. The running time of our algorithm is not only $(\log^2(mn))^{2+\epsilon}$ times less than the algorithm in [31] but also less than or near to the running time of the order factor() in Maple 11 for some examples. Furthermore, our algorithm can be generalized easily to polynomials with variables more than two.

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