

# Sparse bivariate polynomial factorization

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**Abstract** Motivated by Sasaki's work on the extended Hensel construction for solving multivariate algebraic equations, we present a generalized Hensel lifting, which takes advantage of sparsity, for factoring bivariate polynomial over the rational number field. Another feature of the factorization algorithm presented in this article is a new recombination method, which can solve the extraneous factor problem before lifting based on numerical linear algebra. Both theoretical analysis and experimental data show that the algorithm is efficient, especially for sparse bivariate polynomials.

**Keywords** polynomial factorization, sparse polynomial, generalized Hensel lifting

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## 1 Introduction

Polynomial factorization has been one of the most attractive areas in symbolic computation for a long time. Roughly speaking, it can be dated back to the Babylonians' algorithm to solve quadratic equations, around 1900–1600 BC [18]. The first polynomial-time algorithm for univariate polynomial factorization is due to Lenstra et al. [44], and the first kind of polynomial-time algorithms for multivariate polynomial factorization are due to Kaltofen [29–31]. Nowadays, polynomial factorization plays a significant role for both challenges and open problems and it addresses as well its usefulness in applications in various fields including the simplification, primary decomposition, solving polynomial equations, algebraic coding theory, cryptography, etc.

In this article, we present an efficient method for computing the irreducible factorization of any bivariate polynomial over the rationals satisfying Hypothesis (H) (see Subsection 1.1.1 for the hypothesis).

We start this introduction with some preliminaries and hypotheses. Then we present our main results and give an overview of the main steps of our algorithm. At the end of this section, we conclude with discussing related works.

### 1.1 Preliminaries

Let  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  represent the integer ring and the rational number field, respectively. Throughout this article, let  $f$  be the bivariate polynomial in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$  that we want to factorize, and we assume that it is squarefree; it has no univariate factors; its degrees are  $d_x$  in  $x$  and  $d_y$  in  $y$ .

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## 1.1.1 Hypothesis (H)

Among so many different methods for bivariate polynomial factorization, the most popular strategy is the so-called *lifting and recombination*. One firstly factorizes  $f(x, 0)$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , then lifts the resulting univariate factors over a power series algebra, and lastly retrieves the bivariate factorization from recombination of the lifted factors. The lifting is the *classical Hensel lifting* (see, e.g., [21, Chapter 6]), and we call the univariate factors of  $f(x, 0)$  the *initial factors* for the classical Hensel lifting. For the *generalized Hensel lifting* presented in this article, the initial factors play a similar role, but they are different from that for the classical Hensel lifting. We will redefine the initial factors in this section. Before we do that, we need some basic concepts.

The *convex hull* of a set  $V$  of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  ( $n$ -dimensional real vector space) is defined to be

$$\text{conv}(V) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i : \mathbf{v}_i \in V, \lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}, \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i = 1 \right\},$$

where  $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  denotes the non-negative real numbers. If  $|V|$  is finite, then the convex hull of  $V$  is called a *convex polytope*, where  $|V|$  denotes the cardinality of  $V$ . A point of a polytope is called a *vertex* if it is not on the line segment of any two other points of the polytope. An edge of a polytope is the line segment of two vertices. It is well known that a polytope is always the convex hull of its vertices. The *Newton polytope* of a bivariate polynomial  $f = \sum f_{i,j} x^i y^j$  is defined to be the convex hull in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  of all the points  $(i, j)$  with  $f_{i,j} \neq 0$ , and denoted by  $N_f$ .

**Definition 1.1.** The low degree of a univariate polynomial is the lowest degree of non-zero terms in the polynomial expressed in canonical form, i.e., as a sum of terms.

**Definition 1.2.** The *Newton line* of  $f$  is defined to be an edge of  $N_f$  decided by the right-bottom-most point of  $N_f$  and another point such that no vertex of  $N_f$  is below this edge. The sum of all non-zero terms of  $f$  lying on the Newton line is called *Newton polynomial* of  $f$ , denoted by  $f^{(0)}(x, y)$ .

From this definition, the Newton line and the corresponding Newton polynomial of a given bivariate polynomial are unique, respectively. Let  $\hat{\delta}$  and  $\hat{d} > 0$  be two integers such that  $\text{gcd}(\hat{\delta}, \hat{d}) = 1$  and  $\hat{\delta}/\hat{d}$  is the slope of the Newton line of  $f$ . If the slope is 0 then  $\hat{\delta} = 0$  and  $\hat{d} = 1$ .

**Definition 1.3.** Let  $\hat{\delta}$  and  $\hat{d} > 0$  be the two integers as above. For an integer  $k \geq 0$  and an integer  $n > 0$ , define

$$I_k(n) := \{x^j y^{-(n-j)\hat{\delta}/\hat{d}} \cdot y^{k/\hat{d}} : j = 0, \dots, n\}.$$

**Definition 1.4.** Let  $f$  and  $g$  be two polynomials in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ . For an integer  $k \geq 0$  and an integer  $n > 0$ , define  $f - g \equiv 0 \pmod{I_k(n)}$  (or written as  $f \equiv g \pmod{I_k(n)}$ ) such that the low degree with respect to  $y$  of the coefficient of  $x^j$  in  $f - g$  is greater than or equal to  $(k - \hat{\delta}(n - j))/\hat{d}$ , where  $j$  ranges from 0 to  $n$ .

We note that the meaning of *mod* in this article is completely different from the convention, where  $f \equiv g \pmod{I}$  usually indicates  $f - g$  belongs to an ideal  $I$ . We shall give more details about these definitions in Subsection 2.2.

**Definition 1.5.** Let  $f$  be a bivariate polynomial in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ ,  $G_1, \dots, G_r$  its irreducible factors over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , and  $d_i$  the degree of  $G_i$  with respect to  $x$ . For  $i = 1, \dots, r$ , define the *initial factors* of  $f$ , denoted by  $G_i^{(0)}$ , as the polynomials such that

$$\begin{cases} G_i^{(0)} \equiv 0 \pmod{I_0(d_i)}, \\ G_i^{(0)} \equiv G_i \pmod{I_1(d_i)}. \end{cases}$$

**Example 1.6.** Let  $f = x^8 - 3x^4y^2 + 5x^4y^5 - 4y^4 + 5y^7 + 2y^3x^4 - 8y^5 + 10y^8$ . Over  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $f$  has 2 irreducible factors  $G_1 = x^4 + y^2 + 2y^3$  and  $G_2 = x^4 - 4y^2 + 5y^5$ .

Figure 1 illustrates the Newton polytope and the Newton line of  $f$ , where  $e_x$  and  $e_y$  represent the exponents of the monomial  $x^{e_x} y^{e_y}$  in  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively. Hence, the Newton polynomial of  $f$  is

$$f^{(0)}(x, y) = x^8 - 3x^4y^2 - 4y^4,$$

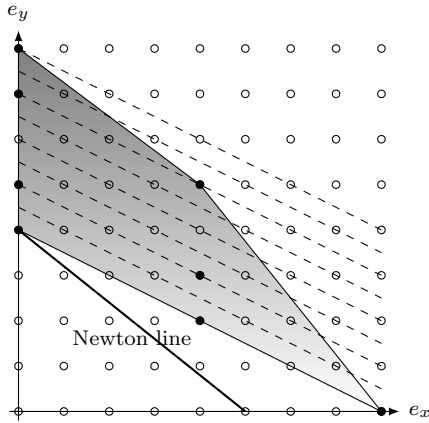


Figure 1 The Newton polytope of  $f$

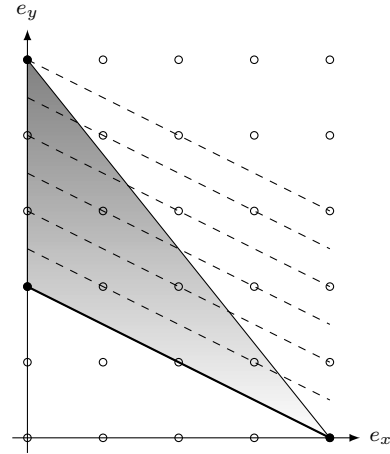


Figure 2 The Newton polytope of  $G_2$

each of whose monomials corresponds to an integral point on the Newton line (see Figure 1). Here,  $\hat{\delta} = -1$  and  $\hat{d} = 2$ . Thus

$$I_0(4) = \{y^2, xy^{\frac{3}{2}}, x^2y, x^3y^{\frac{1}{2}}, x^4\},$$

which corresponds to points with integral  $e_x$  on the Newton line of  $G_2$ , as in Figure 2, and

$$I_1(4) = \{y^{\frac{5}{2}}, xy^2, x^2y^{\frac{3}{2}}, x^3y, x^4y^{\frac{1}{2}}\}.$$

It follows from Definition 1.5 that  $G_2^{(0)} = x^4 - 4y^2$  is an initial factor of  $f$ . Note that  $G_2^{(0)}$  is reducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

It is worth mentioning that the Newton polynomial and some similar definitions were introduced by Sasaki et al. [25–28, 49–51, 53] for solving multivariate algebraic equation and Puiseux series factorization of multivariate polynomials. In Subsection 1.2, we will discuss the differences between the work of Sasaki et al. [49–54] and that in this article.

Throughout this article, we assume on  $f(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$  and its initial factors such that the following hypothesis hold:

- (H<sub>a</sub>)  $f$  is squarefree and has no univariate factors;
- (H<sub>b</sub>)  $f$  is non-constant and monic in  $x$ ;
- (H<sub>c</sub>) the initial factors of  $f$  are mutually coprime.

Note that (H<sub>a</sub>) and (H<sub>b</sub>) are not really restrictive, but for simple illustration: For any  $f$  having univariate factors, we can reduce it to (H<sub>a</sub>) by computing  $f/\gcd(f, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x})$  or  $f/\gcd(f, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y})$ ; the leading coefficient problem can also be solved by the methods in [32, 55, 56]. However, (H<sub>c</sub>) is crucial since it indicates the applicability of our method.

### 1.1.2 Complexity model

Following a popular way, such as in [8, 40, 43], we use computational tree model (see [9, Chapter 4]) for our complexity analysis. Roughly speaking, this means that the cost of each arithmetic operation ( $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $\times$ ,  $\div$ ) or the equality test is a constant in the ground field. Denote by  $\mathbf{M}(n)$  the complexity of multiplying two polynomials of degree at most  $n$ . As in [19, Chapter 8], we assume that  $\mathbf{M}$  is super-additive: For two positive integers  $m$  and  $n$ ,  $\mathbf{M}(m + n) \geq \mathbf{M}(m) + \mathbf{M}(n)$ . The constant  $\omega$  represents the linear algebra exponent, i.e., the multiplication of two  $n \times n$  matrices can be computed in  $\mathcal{O}(n^\omega)$  operations ( $2 < \omega \leq 3$ ), and so can the matrix inversion of an  $n \times n$  matrix (see, e.g., [48, Chapter 2]). The  $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}$  notation ignores logarithmic factors. As in [19, Chapter 25], we write  $f \in \tilde{\mathcal{O}}(g)$  if there exist two positive integer  $c$  and  $N$  such that  $f(n) \leq g(n)(\log(3 + g(n)))^c$  for all  $n \geq N$ .

## 1.2 Overview of the algorithm and contributions

Under Hypothesis (H), we consider the following three-stage bivariate polynomial factorization algorithm:

1. *Factorize Newton polynomial.* Factorize the Newton polynomial  $f^{(0)}(x, y)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, \hat{y}]$ , denoted by  $f^{(0)} = g_1 \cdots g_s$ , where  $\hat{y} = y^{-\delta/\tilde{d}}$ .
2. *Combine.* Combine  $g_1, \dots, g_s$  to the initial factors  $G_1^{(0)}, \dots, G_r^{(0)}$ .
3. *Lift.* Lift the initial factors to the irreducible factors of  $f$  over  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

Obviously, this algorithm is different from the traditional lifting and recombination strategy, since the recombination is performed before lifting. The first stage is essentially a univariate factorization (see Proposition 3.1). Therefore we focus on the last two stages.

Our first contribution is the generalized Hensel lifting. As mentioned in Subsection 1.1.1, some concepts are motivated by the *extended Hensel construction* in [25–28, 49–51, 53]. Besides the similarities, there are two main differences between ours and Sasaki et al.'s. The one is that we introduce a parameter  $n$  in the definition of  $I_k(n)$ , which can be considered as a generalization of that in the work of Sasaki et al. [49–54]. More importantly, we correct [51, (3.11)], which is crucial in the lifting stage (see Remark 2.8 for detail). Thus the generalized Hensel lifting in this article is not only a simple generalization, but also a modification of the work of Sasaki et al. [49–54]. Meanwhile, we redefine the initial factors of  $f$ . The advantage is that if the lifting stage starts with the initial factors (see Definition 1.5), then, during the lifting stage, all the lifted factors are exactly in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ , not in a power series algebra. Moreover, the sparsity is preserved (see Section 2), in the sense that no extra term appears during lifting. Therefore, there does not exist the expression swell problem during the generalized Hensel lifting.

For computing the initial factors, our second contribution is a novel recombination method which is based on the use of numerical linear algebra. As in many common recombination methods in factorization, such as [5, 8, 23, 39, 43], we employ logarithm to linearize the problem. Since  $f^{(0)} = G_1^{(0)} \cdots G_r^{(0)}$  (see Lemma 2.6), there must exist a unique vector  $\mu_i = (\mu_{j,i}) \in \{0, 1\}^s$  such that  $G_i^{(0)} = \prod_{j=1}^s g_j^{\mu_{j,i}}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, r$ . After taking natural logarithm, we have

$$\text{Ln } G_i^{(0)} = \sum_{j=1}^s \mu_{j,i} \text{Ln } g_j.$$

Here  $\text{Ln}z$  represents the complex natural logarithm function for  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ . Differently from existing methods, we use neither trace recombination nor logarithmic derivative recombination to construct the linear system. Instead, we simply construct a linear system with full rank Jacobian by evaluating the equations at some appropriate points. Thus, the solution  $\mu_i$  can be easily obtained by numerical computation. We prove the combination method is correct under certain error controls.

Here we need to point out that this combination method is not deterministic, since its validity depends on an effective version of the Hilbert irreducibility theorem for bivariate polynomials. This is the only one reason that causes our algorithm non-deterministic. More precisely, suppose  $g(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$  is irreducible and let  $S$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{Q}$  with  $|S| = N$ . We need an explicit bound on

$$\frac{|\{b \in S : g(x, b) \text{ is irreducible in } \mathbb{Q}[x]\}|}{N},$$

which is the probability that  $g(x, b)$  is irreducible when  $b$  is picked randomly from  $S$ . Finding a good bound for this ratio in terms of  $N$  and the height of  $g$  is well-known open; see for example [19, pp. 469–472]. However, experiments indicate that this probability is near to 1 when  $N$  is large enough. Totally, our algorithm is not deterministic, but with a very highly successful probability in practice.

We have the following theorem to summarize the main result of this article, and its proof will be given in Section 4.

**Theorem 1.7.** *Assume that there exists an effective version of the Hilbert irreducibility theorem for bivariate polynomials over  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Given a bivariate polynomial  $f$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  satisfying Hypothesis (H), there exists an algorithm which reduces the computation of the irreducible factors of  $f$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  to univariate polynomial factorization with degree at most  $d_x$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  in  $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}(Td_x d_y + s^\omega)$  arithmetic operations in  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,*

where  $T$  is the number of non-zero terms of  $f$ ,  $d_x$  and  $d_y$  are the degrees of  $f$  in  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively, and  $s$  ( $\leq d_x$ ) is the number of the irreducible factors in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, \hat{y}]$  of the Newton polynomial of  $f$ .

To the authors' knowledge, the best complexities for the reduction from bivariate polynomial factorization over  $\mathbb{Q}$  to univariate polynomial factorization are due to Lecerf [43],  $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}((d_x d_y)^{(\omega+1)/2})$  in the deterministic case and  $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}((d_x d_y)^{1.5})$  in the probabilistic case. We note that Lecerf's algorithm is for dense polynomials. The main algorithm in this article also works in dense case, but we have  $T = \mathcal{O}(d_x d_y)$ . However, in sparse case, especially for those polynomials satisfying  $T < (d_x d_y)^{1/2}$ , we have  $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}(T d_x d_y + s^\omega) \subset \tilde{\mathcal{O}}((d_x d_y)^{1.5})$ , i.e., the present algorithm outperforms that in [43]. In [58], a sparse version of a Lecerf's algorithm was presented, which is based on polytope method. The complexity of the reduction is  $\mathcal{O}(\text{Vol}(N_f)^\omega)$ , where  $\text{Vol}(N_f)$  is the volume of the Newton polytope of  $f$ . However,  $\text{Vol}(N_f)$  is near to  $d_x d_y$  in the worst case, even though the input polynomial is sparse. Moreover, Hypothesis (H1) in [58] is that the Newton polytope must contain  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ , and  $(0, 1)$ , which is somewhat strict and limits its applicability.

Our last contribution is the Maple implementation of our algorithm. The experimental results show that our algorithm is efficient in practice (see Section 5).

### 1.3 Related works

We refer to [11, 18, 33–35, 38] and references therein for details on existing algorithms and the history of polynomial factorization. We only discuss related methods.

The work of Sasaki et al. [52–54] not only introduced the idea of extended Hensel construction, but also initiated the trace recombination technique. The extended Hensel construction was then used for solving multivariate algebraic equation and Puiseux series factorization of multivariate polynomials in [25–28, 49–51]. The generalized Hensel lifting in this article is a generalization and also a modification of the extended Hensel construction. It preserves the sparsity of the input polynomial during the lifting stage.

The idea of trace recombination has been successfully applied to polynomial factorization, such as van Hoeij's trace recombination [23] for univariate polynomial factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ , the logarithmic derivative recombination of Belabas et al. [5] for factoring polynomials over global fields, etc. We refer to [8] for more historical notes in this area. The combination method in this article commonly employs logarithm to linearize the problem, but uses a different method to construct the linear system, which is then solved by numerical linear algebra.

For multivariate polynomial factorization over number fields, many effective approaches, which are various Hensel lifting based algorithms, have been developed over the past few decades. These sophisticated techniques and their complexity analysis have been studied extensively in [8, 16, 24, 33, 34, 40–43, 47, 56, 57]. However, it is well known that the Hensel lifting usually destroys the sparsity and leads to expression swell. Although Bernardin worked on bivariate Hensel lifting and its parallelization [6], his work also focuses on the dense case. The first attempt to this problem was addressed in [61, 62]. The author presented a probabilistic method to detect zero coefficient terms, namely the sparse structure, then convert the lifting stage to solve linear systems with much smaller size by using sparsity. Von zur Gathen and Kaltofen [17, 20, 32] substantially contributed to this subject and gave rigorous proofs for the probability and the complexity of this scheme based on effective Hilbert Irreducibility Theorem.

In 1999, a polynomial-time approach to find factors of fixed degree, especially linear and quadratic factors, in an algebraic extension of fixed degree, in particular to compute rational roots of univariate supersparse polynomials, was given in [45, 46] based on the result in [13]. The further study generalizing to bivariate supersparse polynomials has been made by other researchers in [4, 36, 37]. We refer to [10] for the most recent progress in this direction.

Another important direction for sparse polynomial factorization is by using Newton polytopes to obtain the information about the supports. Gao's work [15] initiated such a first step. Later on a new type of factorization method appeared in [1, 3]. Abu Salem [2] presented a sparse adaptation of the polytope method to factorize bivariate polynomials over finite fields, which also can be adapted to fields

of arbitrary characteristic. Such polytope methods can perform well for sparse polynomials when their Newton polytopes have very few Minkowski decompositions.

As mentioned previously, the algorithm having the currently best complexity for dense bivariate polynomial factorization is due to Lecerf [43]. Weimann [58] presented a sparse version of Lecerf’s algorithm and showed that sparse bivariate polynomial factorization has a polynomial complexity in the volume of the Newton polytope of the input. But Weimann’s algorithm requires that the input must have the constant term and the linear terms. The most recent advance [7] improves Weimann’s results and gives a reduction algorithm which reduces the volume of the Newton polytope based on the use of unimodular transformation. Recently, Weimann [59] presented an interesting method for bivariate polynomial factorization without using Hensel lifting.

**Note.** The abstract of this paper was presented as a poster at the 37th International Symposium on Symbolic and Algebraic Computation [60].

## 2 Generalized Hensel lifting

Let  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$  satisfy Hypothesis (H) and  $G_1, \dots, G_r$  be its irreducible factors over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . In this section, we assume that initial factors  $G_1^{(0)}, \dots, G_r^{(0)}$  are given. Under these assumptions, we give the generalized Hensel lifting algorithm, which preserves the sparsity of the input polynomial. Moreover, the lifted factors are always in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ .

### 2.1 Moses-Yun polynomial

**Lemma 2.1.** Let  $h_i(x, y)$  ( $i = 1, \dots, r$ ) be homogeneous polynomials in  $x$  and  $y$  with  $r \geq 2$  and  $\deg_x(h_i) = d_i \geq 1$  such that

$$\gcd(h_i, h_j) = 1 \quad \text{for any } i \neq j. \tag{2.1}$$

Then for each  $l \in \{0, \dots, d_x - 1\}$ , where  $d_x = \sum_{i=1}^r d_i$ , there exists a unique set of polynomials  $\{W_i^{(l)}(x, y)\}$  satisfying

$$\begin{aligned} W_1^{(l)}[h_1 \cdots h_r/h_1] + \cdots + W_r^{(l)}[h_1 \cdots h_r/h_r] &= x^l y^{d_x - l}, \\ \deg_x(W_i^{(l)}) < \deg_x(h_i), \quad i &= 1, \dots, r. \end{aligned} \tag{2.2}$$

Moreover, each  $W_i^{(l)}$  is a homogeneous polynomial in  $x$  and  $y$  of total degree  $d_i$ .

Following [49], we call  $W_i^{(l)}$  ( $i = 1, \dots, r, l = 0, \dots, d_x - 1$ ) Moses-Yun (interpolation) polynomials, which are used to represent the monomials lying on Newton line by initial factors. This lemma was presented in [51] and its proof can be found there. In addition, its univariate version was presented in [53, 54]. From the proof of this lemma, we can get the following algorithm to compute Moses-Yun polynomials.

**Algorithm 2.2** (Moses-Yun polynomials). Input:  $h_i(x, y)$  ( $i = 1, \dots, r$ ) satisfying the conditions in Lemma 2.1. Output: The Moses-Yun polynomials  $W_i^{(l)}$ .

**Step 1** (Compute  $W_i^{(l)}(x, 1)$ ). For  $i$  from 1 to  $r$  do the following: Let  $G := h_i(x, 1)$  and

$$H := \prod_{j=1}^r h_j(x, 1)/G.$$

Call extended Euclidean algorithm to compute  $V$  and  $W$  such that  $VG + WH = 1$ ,  $\deg(V) < \deg(H)$  and  $\deg(W) < \deg(G)$ ; for  $l$  from 1 to  $d_x - 1$ , let  $W_i^{(l)}(x, 1) := \text{rem}(xW_i^{(l-1)}, G, x)$ , where  $W_i^{(0)}(x, 1) = W$ .

**Step 2** (Homogenize  $W_i^{(l)}(x, 1)$ ). Homogenize each  $W_i^{(l)}(x, 1)$  such that  $W_i^{(l)}(x, y)$  is homogeneous polynomial with total degree  $d_i$  with respect to  $x$  and  $y$ . Return  $W_i^{(l)}(x, y)$ .

**Remark 2.3.** If  $G, H \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ , then  $\|W\|_\infty \leq \max\{\|G\|_\infty, \|H\|_\infty\}^{\deg G + \deg H - 1}$  by the resultant theory (see e.g., [12, Subsection 3.5, Proposition 9]). Therefore,  $\|W_i^{(l)}\|_\infty \leq \max\{\|G\|_\infty, \|H\|_\infty\}^{\deg G + \deg H}$ . Here  $\|\cdot\|_\infty$  represents the  $\infty$ -norm for a polynomial, i.e., the maximum of the absolute values of the coefficients of a polynomial.

**Proposition 2.4.** *Algorithm 2.2 works correctly and requires  $\mathcal{O}(r \log d_x \mathbf{M}(d_x) + d_x^2)$  arithmetic operations.*

*Proof.* The correctness of Algorithm 2.2 follows from Lemma 2.1 and its proof. In Step 1, for computing  $H$  we can first compute  $\prod h_i(x, 1)$ . The product of  $r$  univariate polynomials whose degree sum is  $d_x$  takes  $\mathcal{O}(\mathbf{M}(d_x) \log r)$  operations [19, Chapter 10]. We then compute  $H$  for  $i$  from 1 to  $r$  with at most  $r\mathbf{M}(d_x)$  operations. From [19, Chapter 11], the extended Euclidean algorithm costs  $\mathcal{O}(\mathbf{M}(d_x) \log d_x)$  operations. Here we call extended Euclidean algorithm  $r$  times. This needs  $\mathcal{O}(r\mathbf{M}(d_x) \log d_x)$  operations. Furthermore, computing all  $W_i^{(l)}(x, 1)$  by division with remainder costs  $\mathcal{O}(r\mathbf{M}(d_x))$ . From Lemma 2.1,  $W_i^{(l)}(x, y)$  is homogeneous polynomial of total degree  $d_i$  with respect to  $x$  and  $y$ . Thus for each  $l$ , it costs at most  $d_1 + \dots + d_r = d_x$  operations to homogenize  $W_i^{(l)}(x, y)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, r$ , and hence Step 2 of the above algorithm costs at most  $\mathcal{O}(d_x^2)$  operations. Thus Algorithm 2.2 uses in total  $\mathcal{O}(r \log d_x \mathbf{M}(d_x) + d_x^2)$  operations.  $\square$

### 2.2 Lifting

Recall the mod operation (Definition 1.4) and

$$I_k(n) := \{x^j y^{-(n-j)\hat{\delta}/\hat{d}} \cdot y^{k/\hat{d}} : j = 0, \dots, n\}, \tag{2.3}$$

where  $\hat{\delta}$  and  $\hat{d} > 0$  are two integers such that  $\gcd(\hat{\delta}, \hat{d}) = 1$  and  $\hat{\delta}/\hat{d}$  is the slope of the Newton line of  $f$ ; if the slope is 0 then  $\hat{\delta} = 0$  and  $\hat{d} = 1$ .

In what follows, let  $\hat{y} = y^{-\hat{\delta}/\hat{d}}$ . Then each element in  $I_k(n)$  can be seen as a product of  $y^{k/\hat{d}}$  and an  $n$  degree homogeneous part  $x^j \hat{y}^{n-j}$ .

If  $n = d_x$ , then we denote  $I_k$  by  $I_k(d_x)$ , where  $d_x$  is the degree of  $f$  in  $x$ . From Definition 1.3, it follows that any monomial of  $f$  is contained in  $I_k$  for some integer  $k$ . For instance, each monomial of  $f^{(0)}(x, y)$  lies in  $I_0$ , i.e.,

$$f^{(0)} \equiv 0 \pmod{I_0} \quad \text{and} \quad f^{(0)} \equiv f \pmod{I_1}. \tag{2.4}$$

From the geometric point of view, each  $I_k$  corresponds to a line parallel to the Newton line, and  $f \equiv g \pmod{I_k}$  means all monomials of  $f - g$  lie above the line corresponding to  $I_{k-1}$  (see Example 1.6).

**Lemma 2.5.** *Let all notations be as above. Let  $\hat{G}_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, r$ ) be polynomials in  $x$  and  $\hat{y}$  with  $r \geq 2$  and  $\deg_x(\hat{G}_i) = d_i \geq 1$ . For a fixed integer  $2 \leq m \leq r$ , if each monomial of  $\hat{G}_i$  lies in  $I_k(d_i)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, m$ , and  $\hat{G}_j \equiv G_j^{(0)} \pmod{I_1(d_j)}$  for  $j = m + 1, \dots, r$ , then*

$$\prod_{i=1}^m \hat{G}_i \prod_{j=m+1}^r \hat{G}_j \equiv 0 \pmod{I_{k+1}(d_x)}, \tag{2.5}$$

where  $d_x = \deg_x(\hat{G}_1 \cdots \hat{G}_r)$  and  $k \geq 1$ .

*Proof.* Denote the product in (2.5) by  $P = P_1 \cdot P_2$ . We consider the low degree in  $y$  of the coefficient of  $x^j$  of  $P$ , denoted by  $\text{ldeg}(\text{coeff}(P, x^j), y)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ldeg}(\text{coeff}(P, x^j), y) &= \text{ldeg}\left(\sum_{\ell_1 + \ell_2 = j} \text{coeff}(P_1, x^{\ell_1}) \cdot \text{coeff}(P_2, x^{\ell_2}), y\right) \\ &\geq \frac{(d_1 + \dots + d_m - \ell_1) \cdot (-\hat{\delta})}{\hat{d}} + \frac{mk}{\hat{d}} + \frac{(d_{m+1} + \dots + d_r - \ell_2) \cdot (-\hat{\delta})}{\hat{d}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\geq \frac{(2k - \hat{\delta}(d_x - j))}{\hat{d}} \geq \frac{(k + 1 - \hat{\delta}(d_x - j))}{\hat{d}},$$

where the first inequality is from that each monomial of  $\hat{G}_i$  lies in  $I_k(d_i)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, m$  and that  $\hat{G}_j \equiv G_j^{(0)} \pmod{I_1(d_j)}$  for  $j = m + 1, \dots, r$ , the second inequality is from  $m \geq 2$ , and the last one is from  $k \geq 1$ . Then this lemma follows from Definition 1.4.  $\square$

This lemma plays an important role during the lifting stage. Although the proof of Lemma 2.5 does not work for  $k = 0$ , we still have the following lemma about the relation between the Newton polynomial and the initial factors of  $f$ .

**Lemma 2.6.** *Let  $f$  be a bivariate polynomial in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ ,  $f^{(0)}$  its Newton polynomial,  $G_i$  its irreducible factors, and  $G_i^{(0)}$  its initial factors for  $i = 1, \dots, r$ . Then*

$$f^{(0)} = G_1^{(0)} \cdots G_r^{(0)}.$$

*Proof.* From Definition 1.5, we have

$$\begin{aligned} G_i^{(0)} &\equiv 0 \pmod{I_0(d_i)}, \\ G_i^{(0)} &\equiv G_i \pmod{I_1(d_i)}. \end{aligned}$$

Then, by Definition 1.4, it is easy to check

$$\begin{aligned} G_1^{(0)} \cdots G_r^{(0)} &\equiv 0 \pmod{I_0}, \\ G_1^{(0)} \cdots G_r^{(0)} &\equiv G_1 \cdots G_r \pmod{I_1}. \end{aligned}$$

Then this lemma follows from (2.4).  $\square$

We now present the generalized Hensel lifting, in which we use  $I_k$  ( $k = 1, 2, \dots$ ) as moduli. Geometrically speaking, we lift all factors by  $y^{1/\hat{d}}$ , along the positive direction of  $e_y$  axis (see Figure 2), in each lifting step.

**Theorem 2.7** (Generalized Hensel lifting). *Let  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$  satisfy Hypothesis (H) and  $G_1, \dots, G_r$  be its irreducible factors. Let  $f^{(0)}$  be the Newton polynomial of  $f$ ,  $G_1^{(0)}, \dots, G_r^{(0)}$  ( $r \geq 2$ ) the initial factors of  $f$  with  $\deg_x G_i^{(0)} = d_i \geq 1$ , and  $I_k$  ( $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ ) as in (2.3). Then, for any nonnegative integer  $k$ , we can construct  $\Delta G_i^{(k)} \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ , with each monomial lying in  $I_k(d_i)$ , satisfying*

$$\begin{aligned} G_i &\equiv G_i^{(0)} + \sum_{j=0}^k \Delta G_i^{(j)} \pmod{I_{k+1}(d_i)}, \\ f &\equiv \prod_{i=1}^r \left( G_i^{(0)} + \sum_{j=0}^k \Delta G_i^{(j)} \right) \pmod{I_{k+1}}. \end{aligned} \tag{2.6}$$

Moreover, this construction is unique.

*Proof.* By induction on  $k$ . When  $k = 0$ , let  $\Delta G_i^{(0)} = 0$  for  $i = 1, \dots, r$ . Then this theorem follows from Lemma 2.6. Suppose this theorem is true up to  $k - 1$  ( $k \geq 1$ ). Let

$$G_i^{(k-1)} = G_i^{(0)} + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \Delta G_i^{(j)}.$$

By induction assumptions,

$$f(x, y) \equiv \prod_{i=1}^r G_i^{(k-1)}(x, y) \pmod{I_k}.$$

Let

$$\Delta f^{(k)}(x, y) = f(x, y) - \prod_{i=1}^r G_i^{(k-1)}(x, y) \pmod{I_{k+1}}. \tag{2.7}$$



Then  $\Delta f^{(k)}(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$  can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta f^{(k)}(x, y) &= c_{d_x-1}^{(k)} \cdot x^{d_x-1} \hat{y} + \cdots + c_0^{(k)} \cdot \hat{y}^{d_x}, \\ c_l^{(k)} &= a_l^{(k)} y^{k/\hat{d}}, \quad a_l^{(k)} \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad l = 0, \dots, d_x - 1. \end{aligned} \tag{2.8}$$

From Lemma 2.1, we compute the corresponding  $W_i^{(l)}$  for  $G_i^{(0)}$ , where  $i = 1, \dots, r$  and  $l = 0, \dots, d_x - 1$ . Then we construct  $\Delta G_i^{(k)}$  as

$$\Delta G_i^{(k)}(x, y) = \sum_{l=0}^{d_x-1} W_i^{(l)}(x, \hat{y}) c_l^{(k)}, \tag{2.9}$$

whose monomials are obviously in  $I_k(d_i)$ . Now, let  $G_i^{(k)}(x, y) = G_i^{(k-1)}(x, y) + \Delta G_i^{(k)}(x, y)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} f - \prod_{i=1}^r G_i^{(k)} &= f - \prod_{i=1}^r (G_i^{(k-1)} + \Delta G_i^{(k)}) \pmod{I_{k+1}} \\ &\equiv f - \left( \prod_{i=1}^r G_i^{(k-1)} + \sum_{i=1}^r \frac{\Delta G_i^{(k)}}{G_i^{(0)}} \prod_{j'=1}^r G_{j'}^{(0)} \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \sum_{i=1}^r \sum_{j=1}^r \frac{\Delta G_i^{(k)} \Delta G_j^{(k)}}{G_i^{(0)} G_j^{(0)}} \prod_{j'=1}^r G_{j'}^{(0)} + \cdots \right) \pmod{I_{k+1}}. \end{aligned}$$

Since each monomial of  $\Delta G_i^{(k)}(x, y)$  is in  $I_k(d_i)$ , from Lemma 2.5 we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^r \sum_{j=1}^r \frac{\Delta G_i^{(k)} \Delta G_j^{(k)}}{G_i^{(0)} G_j^{(0)}} \prod_{j'=1}^r G_{j'}^{(0)} + \cdots \equiv 0 \pmod{I_{k+1}}.$$

Hence,

$$f - \prod_{i=1}^r G_i^{(k)} \equiv \Delta f^{(k)} - \sum_{i=1}^r \frac{\Delta G_i^{(k)}}{G_i^{(0)}} \prod_{j'=1}^r G_{j'}^{(0)} \pmod{I_{k+1}},$$

and then substituting  $\Delta G_i^{(k)}$  by the expression in (2.9) to this equation gives

$$\begin{aligned} f - \prod_{i=1}^r G_i^{(k)} &\equiv \Delta f^{(k)} - \sum_{i=1}^r \frac{\sum_{l=0}^{d_x-1} c_l^{(k)} W_i^{(l)}}{G_i^{(0)}} \prod_{j'=1}^r G_{j'}^{(0)} \pmod{I_{k+1}} \\ &\equiv \Delta f^{(k)} - \sum_{l=0}^{d_x-1} c_l^{(k)} \sum_{i=1}^r W_i^{(l)} \frac{\prod_{j'=1}^r G_{j'}^{(0)}}{G_i^{(0)}} \pmod{I_{k+1}} \\ &\equiv \Delta f^{(k)} - \sum_{l=0}^{d_x-1} c_l^{(k)} x^l \hat{y}^{d_x-l} \pmod{I_{k+1}}, \end{aligned}$$

where the last equality is from the property of Moses-Yun polynomials in Lemma 2.1. From (2.8) we have

$$f(x, y) \equiv \prod_{i=1}^r G_i^{(k)}(x, y) \pmod{I_{k+1}}.$$

Moreover, the uniqueness of  $\Delta G_i^{(k)}$  follows directly from the uniqueness of Moses-Yun polynomials. Meanwhile, the uniqueness of the construction of  $\Delta G_i^{(k)}$  implies (2.6) holds, and hence  $\Delta G_i^{(k)} \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ .  $\square$

**Remark 2.8.** The basic idea of Theorem 2.7 is similar to the extended Hensel construction in the work of Sasaki et al., such as [51, Theorem 1], but they are different in the following aspects. Firstly, our initial factors of  $f$  are redefined to be  $G_1^{(0)}, \dots, G_r^{(0)}$  in this article. In [51], the initial factors are the irreducible factors in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, \hat{y}]$  of the Newton polynomial  $f^{(0)}$ . Secondly, [51, Theorem 1, (3.11)] claims that  $G_i^{(k)} \equiv G_i^{(0)} \pmod{I_1}$ , which is not true. From Theorem 2.7, we can only infer that  $G_i^{(k)} \equiv G_i^{(0)}$

mod  $I_1(d_i)$  holds for  $i = 1, \dots, r$ . Thirdly, this theorem implies that all  $G_i^{(k)} = G_i^{(0)} + \Delta G_i^{(1)} + \dots + \Delta G_i^{(k)}$  are in always  $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ , while  $G_i^{(k)}$  lies in  $\mathbb{C}\{y^{1/\hat{d}}\}[x]$  in the work of Sasaki et al. The reason is the new definition of initial factors, which makes the results of each lifting step be always in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ . From these points of view, the generalized Hensel lifting is not only a simple generalization, but also a modification of the extended Hensel construction in the work of Sasaki et al.

**Remark 2.9.** From (2.6), we have  $G_i \equiv G_i^{(k)} \pmod{I_{k+1}(d_i)}$ , i.e., each lifted factor  $G_i^{(k)}$  is always a part of  $G_i$  and tends to  $G_i$  when  $k$  increases. We then have some benefits. It is obvious but important that the lifting process do not impact on the sparsity of  $\Delta f^{(k)}$ , since it follows from (2.6) that  $\Delta f^{(k)}$  is always a part of  $f$ , too. Moreover, the number of terms of  $\Delta f^{(k)}$  will be smaller and smaller when  $k$  tends to be larger and larger. Therefore, the lifting process terminates as soon as  $\Delta f^{(k)} = 0$ . This property is different from the classical Hensel lifting and the extended Hensel construction, in both of which the expression swell may occur.

**Remark 2.10.** The uniqueness of the Moses-Yun polynomial is a very important part in the proof of Theorem 2.7. From Lemma 2.1, the uniqueness is a direct consequence of Hypothesis (H<sub>c</sub>). In other words, Hypothesis (H<sub>c</sub>) guarantees the uniqueness of the generalized Hensel lifting.

As a by-product of Theorem 2.7, we can prove the following interesting result, which will be used in Section 3.

**Corollary 2.11.** *Let  $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x, y]$  satisfy Hypothesis (H) and  $G_1, \dots, G_r$  be its irreducible factors over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Then the number of non-zero terms of  $G_i$  is not more than  $(T + 1)(d_i + 1)$ , where  $T$  is the number of non-zero terms of  $f$ , and  $d_i$  is the degree of  $G_i$  with respect to  $x$ .*

*Proof.* From the generalized Hensel lifting, there exists some positive integer  $k$  such that  $G_i = G_i^{(0)} + \Delta G_i^{(1)} + \dots + \Delta G_i^{(k)}$ . Here  $k \leq T$  as the number of layers of  $G_i$  is always less than that of  $f$  (see Figures 1 and 2), and the number of layers of  $f$  is less than  $T$ . Furthermore, since  $G_i^{(0)}$  is homogeneous with degree  $d_i$  in  $x$  and  $y$ , the number of non-zero terms is not more than  $d_i + 1$ . By (2.9), each  $\Delta G_i^{(j)}$  has at most  $d_i + 1$  non-zero terms, which completes the proof. □

Based on Theorem 2.7, we present the following algorithm to lift all factors by  $y^{1/\hat{d}}$ .

**Algorithm 2.12 (Lifting).** Input: A bivariate polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$  satisfying Hypothesis (H), Moses-Yun polynomials  $W_i^{(l)}(x, \hat{y})$  of its initial factors for  $i = 1, \dots, r, l = 0, \dots, d_x - 1$  and  $G_1^{(k-1)}, \dots, G_r^{(k-1)}$  such that  $f \equiv G_1^{(k-1)} \dots G_r^{(k-1)} \pmod{I_k}$ . Output:  $G_1^{(k)}, \dots, G_r^{(k)}$  such that  $f \equiv G_1^{(k)} \dots G_r^{(k)} \pmod{I_{k+1}}$ .

**Step 1** (Compute  $\Delta f^{(k)}$ ). Compute  $\Delta f^{(k)} := f - G_1^{(k-1)} \dots G_r^{(k-1)} \pmod{I_{k+1}}$ .

**Step 2** (Produce  $\Delta G_i^{(k)}$ ). Express  $\Delta f^{(k)}$  as

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta f^{(k)}(x, y) &= c_{d_x-1}^{(k)} \cdot x^{d_x-1} \hat{y} + \dots + c_0^{(k)} \cdot \hat{y}^{d_x}, \\ c_l^{(k)} &= a_l^{(k)} y^{k/\hat{d}}, \quad a_l^{(k)} \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad l = 0, \dots, d_x - 1. \end{aligned}$$

For  $i$  from 1 to  $r$ , let  $\Delta G_i^{(k)}(x, y) := \sum_{l=0}^{d_x-1} W_i^{(l)} c_l^{(k)}$ , and  $G_i^{(k)} := G_i^{(k-1)} + \Delta G_i^{(k)}$ . Return  $G_i^{(k)}$ .

**Proposition 2.13.** *Algorithm 2.12 works correctly. It requires  $\mathcal{O}(\mathbf{M}(d_x d_y) + r d_x)$  arithmetic operations.*

*Proof.* The correction follows from Theorem 2.7. By Kronecker substitution, two polynomials in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$  of degree less than  $n$  in  $x$  and  $d$  in  $y$  can be multiplied using  $\mathcal{O}(\mathbf{M}(nd))$  operations. Since the degrees of  $G_1^{(k-1)} \dots G_r^{(k-1)}$  in  $x$  and  $y$  are not more than  $d_x$  and  $d_y$ , respectively, Step 1 can be done by means of the sub-product tree technique in [19, Chapter 10] with  $\mathcal{O}(\mathbf{M}(d_x d_y))$  operations. Since each  $W_i^{(l)}$  is a homogeneous polynomial in  $x$  and  $\hat{y}$  of total degree  $d_i$ , it has at most  $d_i + 1$  non-zero terms. Moreover, each  $c_l^{(k)}$  is monomial. So all  $G_i^{(k)}$  can be computed with  $\mathcal{O}(r d_x)$  operations. Totally, Algorithm 2.12 uses  $\mathcal{O}(\mathbf{M}(d_x d_y) + r d_x)$  operations. □

So far, we have proposed an efficient method to lift the initial factors towards the irreducible factors. The lifting method preserves the sparsity of the input polynomial, and hence no intermediate expression swell happens. In next section, we will give a recombination strategy to obtain the correct initial factors.

### 3 Recombination for initial factors

Recall that  $\hat{\delta}$  and  $\hat{d} > 0$  are two integers such that  $\gcd(\hat{\delta}, \hat{d}) = 1$  and  $\hat{\delta}/\hat{d}$  is the slope of the Newton line of  $f$ . If the slope is 0 then  $\hat{\delta} = 0$  and  $\hat{d} = 1$ . If  $\hat{\delta} = 0$  then the Newton polynomial  $f^{(0)}$  is a univariate polynomial in  $x$  (because of Hypothesis (H<sub>a</sub>),  $f$  has no univariate factors, including power of  $y$ ), else  $f^{(0)}$  is a homogeneous polynomial with respect to  $x$  and  $\hat{y} = y^{-\hat{\delta}/\hat{d}}$ . Therefore, the irreducible factorization of the Newton polynomial can be deduced from that of the univariate polynomial  $f^{(0)}(x, 1)$ , denoted by  $f^{(0)}(x, y) = f^{(0)}(x, \hat{y}) = g_1(x, \hat{y}) \cdots g_s(x, \hat{y})$ , where  $g_i(x, \hat{y})$  for  $i = 1, \dots, s$  are in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, \hat{y}]$ . Consequently we have the following result.

**Proposition 3.1.** *Factoring the Newton polynomial  $f^{(0)}(x, y)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, \hat{y}]$  is equivalent to factoring a univariate polynomial over  $\mathbb{Z}$  whose degree is at most  $d_x$ .*

However, it is not always the case that  $g_1, \dots, g_s$  are exactly the initial factors.

**Example 3.2.** For the polynomial in Example 1.6, we have  $\hat{y} = y^{1/2}$  and  $f^{(0)}(x, \hat{y}) = (x^4 + \hat{y}^4)(x^2 + \hat{y}^2)(x^2 - 2\hat{y}^2) \triangleq g_1 g_2 g_3$ , but the initial factors are  $G_1^{(0)} = x^4 + y^2 = g_1$  and  $G_2^{(0)} = x^4 - 4y^2 = g_2 g_3$ .

This is somewhat similar to the extraneous factors problem. Here it is unavoidable, too. That is to say,  $f^{(0)}(x, y)$  may have more factors than  $f(x, y)$  does, i.e.,  $r \leq s$ . In this section, we introduce a method, based on approximation theory and linear algebra, which combines  $g_1, \dots, g_s$  to the initial factors  $G_1^{(0)}, \dots, G_r^{(0)}$  of  $f$  when  $r < s$ .

#### 3.1 Recombination method

For simplicity, we only discuss the case that the slope of the Newton line of  $f$  is  $-1$ , i.e.,  $\hat{\delta} = -1, \hat{d} = 1$  and  $\hat{y} = y$ . The same strategy works for any other case. Then the factorization of the Newton polynomial is now

$$f^{(0)}(x, y) = g_1(x, y) \cdots g_s(x, y). \tag{3.1}$$

We now describe the idea behind the combination method. From Lemma 2.6, the product of the initial factors is the Newton polynomial. Thus there must exist a unique vector  $\mu_i = (\mu_{j,i}) \in \{0, 1\}^s$  such that  $G_i^{(0)} = \prod_{j=1}^s g_j^{\mu_{j,i}}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, r$ . After taking natural logarithm, we have

$$\text{Ln } G_i^{(0)} = \sum_{j=1}^s \mu_{j,i} \text{Ln } g_j, \tag{3.2}$$

where  $\text{Ln } z$  represents the complex natural logarithm function for  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ . Thus if we can evaluate (3.2) at some points  $(x_i, y_i)$ , then we can construct a linear system, from which it is possible to solve for the 0-1 vector  $\mu_i$ . However, we do not know  $G_i^{(0)}$  in advance, but fortunately, we can approximate it.

Let  $f$  have  $r$  irreducible rational factors  $G_1, \dots, G_r$ . By Theorem 2.7, there exists an integer  $k_i$  such that  $G_i = G_i^{(0)} + \sum_{k=1}^{k_i} \Delta G_i^{(k)}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, r$ , where each monomial of  $\Delta G_i^{(k)}$  lies in  $I_k(d_i)$  and  $d_i = \deg_x G_i^{(0)}$ . By the definition of Newton line and Hypothesis (H<sub>a</sub>), we have  $\deg_x G_i = d_i$ . Let  $w = y/x$ . Then  $G_i/x^{d_i}$  can be expressed as

$$\frac{G_i}{x^{d_i}} = \frac{G_i^{(0)}}{x^{d_i}} + \sum_{k=1}^{k_i} \frac{\Delta G_i^{(k)}}{x^{d_i}} = G_i^{(0)}(w) + g_i^{(1)}(w) \cdot y + \cdots + g_i^{(k_i)}(w) \cdot y^{k_i}, \tag{3.3}$$

where  $g_i^{(k)} \in \mathbb{Z}[w]$  satisfies  $x^{d_i} y^k \cdot g_i^{(k)} = \Delta G_i^{(k)}$  for  $k \geq 1$ . Thus if we choose an evaluation point  $(x, y)$  such that  $w \sim \mathcal{O}(1)$  and  $y \sim o(1)$ , then

$$\left| \frac{G_i}{x^{d_i}} - \frac{G_i^{(0)}}{x^{d_i}} \right| \sim o(1), \tag{3.4}$$

where  $y \sim o(1)$  means that  $y$  is sufficiently small.

Now, we give the following combination algorithm.

**Algorithm 3.3** (Combine). Input: A bivariate polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$  satisfying Hypothesis (H) with degree  $d_x$  in  $x$ ,  $g_1, \dots, g_s$ , the factors of  $f^{(0)}$ , and an arbitrary positive number  $M$ . Output:  $G_1^{(0)}, \dots, G_r^{(0)}$ , i.e., the initial factors of  $f$ .

**Step 1** (Construct coefficient matrix). Let  $z = y/x$ . Then  $g_j(x, y)/x^{\deg_x g_j} = g_j(1, z)$  by the homogeneity of the Newton line. Choose  $s$  random numbers  $z_1, \dots, z_s \in \mathbb{C}$  uniformly with absolute value  $\leq M$ , set  $A := (a_{i,j})_{s \times s}$  with  $a_{i,j} := \text{Re}(\text{Ln}(g_j(1, z_i)))$ , and let  $\tilde{A} = (\tilde{a}_{i,j}) = A + \delta A$  with  $\tilde{a}_{i,j} \in \mathbb{Q}$  and

$$\|\delta A\|_\infty \leq \frac{1}{10\|A^{-1}\|_\infty}. \tag{3.5}$$

Compute  $\tilde{A}^{-1}$  and its infinity norm  $\|\tilde{A}^{-1}\|_\infty$ .

**Step 2** (Determine evaluation points). Let  $T$  be the number of nonzero terms of  $f$ . Set

$$\delta_i = \prod_{j=1}^s \min\{|\tilde{a}_{i,j}|, 1\}.$$

Let  $y_0$  be a random rational number such that

$$|y_0| < \min \left\{ \min_{1 \leq i \leq s} \{1/\delta_i\} (4\|\tilde{A}^{-1}\|_\infty (T+1)(d_x+1)M^{d_x}N)^{-1}, 1 \right\}, \tag{3.6}$$

where  $N = 2^{d_x^2}(d_x+1)^{d_x/2}\|f\|_\infty^{d_x+1}$ . Call a symbolic algorithm to factorize  $f(x, y_0)$  over  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  and denote by the factors  $\tilde{G}_1(x), \dots, \tilde{G}_r(x)$ . If  $r = s$  then return  $g_1, \dots, g_s$ . Set  $x_i := y_0/z_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, s$  and  $B := (b_{i,j})_{s \times r}$ , where  $b_{i,j} := \text{Re}(\text{Ln}(\tilde{G}_j(x_i)/x_i^{d_j}))$ .

**Step 3** (Solve linear system). Compute  $U := \tilde{A}^{-1}B = (u_{i,j})_{s \times r}$ , let  $\mu_{i,j} := \lfloor u_{i,j} + 0.5 \rfloor$  and  $G_i^{(0)} := \prod_{j=1}^s g_j^{\mu_{j,i}}$ . Return  $G_1^{(0)}, \dots, G_r^{(0)}$ .

### 3.2 Analysis of recombination

**Lemma 3.4.** *The matrix  $A$  in Step 1 of Algorithm 3.3 is invertible with probability 1.*

*Proof.* Denote  $g_j(z) = g_j(1, z)$  for  $j = 1, \dots, s$ . From complex analysis,  $\text{Ln}z = \ln|z| + I \cdot \text{Arg}z$ , where  $I = \sqrt{-1}$  and  $\text{Arg}z$  is the argument of  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then  $a_{i,j} = \ln|g_j(z_i)|$  in Step 1 of Algorithm 3.3. Assume the rank of

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \ln|g_1(z_1)| & \ln|g_2(z_1)| & \cdots & \ln|g_s(z_1)| \\ \ln|g_1(z_2)| & \ln|g_2(z_2)| & \cdots & \ln|g_s(z_2)| \\ \dots & \dots & \ddots & \dots \\ \ln|g_1(z_s)| & \ln|g_2(z_s)| & \cdots & \ln|g_s(z_s)| \end{pmatrix}$$

is  $k < s$  for  $z_1, \dots, z_s$  in Step 1 of Algorithm 3.3. Without loss of generality, we assume that the  $k \times k$  principal minor is not singular. We now consider the following equation system with respect to  $\lambda_j \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\lambda_1 \ln|g_1(z_i)| + \cdots + \lambda_{s-1} \ln|g_{s-1}(z_i)| = \ln|g_s(z_i)|, \tag{3.7}$$

where  $i = 1, \dots, s-1$  and  $j = 1, \dots, s-1$ . From linear algebra, we know the system (3.7) has at least one solution. Let  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{s-1}$  be an arbitrary solution of the system. Then for  $z_1, \dots, z_{s-1}$ , we have  $|g_1(z_i)^{\lambda_1} \cdots g_{s-1}(z_i)^{\lambda_{s-1}}| = |g_s(z_i)|$ .

For  $z = x + Iy \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ , let  $C(z) = |c(z)| - |g_s(z)|$ , where  $c(z) = g_1(z)^{\lambda_1} \cdots g_{s-1}(z)^{\lambda_{s-1}}$ . Let  $z_s = x_s + Iy_s$  be the  $s$ -th complex number selected in Step 1 of Algorithm 3.3. By the assumption on the rank of  $A$  we have  $C(z_s) = 0$ .

However,  $C(z)$  can be considered as a bivariate real function with respect to the real and the imaginary part of  $z$ , written  $C(x, y)$ . We assert that  $C(x, y)$  is not a zero function. In fact, if  $z_0 = x_0 + Iy_0$  is a

zero point of  $c(z)$ , then  $g_s(z_0)$  is not zero since the initial factors of the input polynomial are co-prime, and hence  $C(x_0, y_0) \neq 0$ . Note that the selection of  $z_s$  is independent of  $z_1, \dots, z_{s-1}$ , and the selection of  $x_s$  is independent of  $y_s$ . Thus for a random  $x_s \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $C(x_s, y)$  is also not a zero function, and hence for a random  $y_s \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $C(x_s, y_s) \neq 0$  holds with probability 1. This contradicts  $C(z_s) = 0$ .  $\square$

**Remark 3.5.** From the analysis above, the positive integer  $M$  is to ensure the matrix  $A$  is invertible with probability 1. The proof works for any  $M > 0$ .

**Proposition 3.6.** *Algorithm 3.3 works correctly if the random  $y_0$  satisfies that*

$$f(x, y_0) = \tilde{G}_1(x) \cdots \tilde{G}_r(x),$$

where  $G_i(x, y_0) = \tilde{G}_i(x)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, r$ .

*Proof.* From Lemma 3.4, the matrix  $A$  is invertible with probability 1, and hence the infinity norm of  $A^{-1}$  is finite. From the condition in this proposition, we have  $G_i(x, y_0) = \tilde{G}_i(x)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, r$ .

From another aspect, we have to control the error of the solutions of  $AU = B$  such that we can get the correct  $\mu_{i,j}$ 's by rounding the solutions. For simplicity, we only consider the first initial factor  $G_1^{(0)}$ . Denote  $Au = b$  for the exact case and  $\tilde{A} \cdot (u + \delta u) = b + \delta b$  for the perturbed case, where  $\tilde{A} = A + \delta A$ ,  $u$  and  $b$  are the first column of  $U$  and  $B$ , respectively, and  $\delta A$ ,  $\delta u$  and  $\delta b$  are the perturbations.

We have  $\|A^{-1} \cdot \delta A\| < 1$  from (3.5), and hence by [22, Theorem 2.3.4],  $\tilde{A}$  is also invertible, which means  $\|\tilde{A}^{-1}\|_\infty$  is computable. We now analyze

$$\begin{aligned} \|\delta b\|_\infty &= \max_{1 \leq j \leq s} \{ |\operatorname{Re}(\operatorname{Ln}(G_1(x_j, y_0)/x_j^{d_1})) - \operatorname{Re}(\operatorname{Ln}(G_1^{(0)}(x_j, y_0)/x_j^{d_1}))| \} \\ &= \max_{1 \leq j \leq s} \{ | \ln |G_1(x_j, y_0)/x_j^{d_1}| - \ln |G_1^{(0)}(x_j, y_0)/x_j^{d_1}| \}. \end{aligned}$$

Let us recall (3.3),

$$\frac{G_1}{x^{d_1}} = \frac{G_1^{(0)}}{x^{d_1}} + \sum_{k=1}^{k_1} \frac{\Delta G_1^{(k)}}{x^{d_1}} = G_1^{(0)}(w) + g_1^{(1)}(w) \cdot y + \cdots + g_1^{(k_1)}(w) \cdot y^{k_1}.$$

Denote  $G_1(x_j, y_0)/x_j^{d_1} = G_1^{(0)}(z_j) + \tilde{G}_1(z_j, y_0) \cdot y_0$ , where  $\tilde{G}_1(z_j, y_0) = \sum_{k=1}^{k_1} g_1^{(k)}(z_j) \cdot y_0^{k-1}$ . So we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|\delta b\|_\infty &= \max_{1 \leq j \leq s} \left\{ \left| \ln \left| \frac{G_1^{(0)}(z_j) + \tilde{G}_1(z_j, y_0) \cdot y_0}{G_1^{(0)}(z_j)} \right| \right| \right\} \\ &= \max_{1 \leq j \leq s} \left\{ \left| \ln \left| 1 + \frac{\tilde{G}_1(z_j, y_0) \cdot y_0}{G_1^{(0)}(z_j)} \right| \right| \right\} \\ &\leq \max_{1 \leq j \leq s} \left\{ \ln \left( 1 + \left| \frac{\tilde{G}_1(z_j, y_0) \cdot y_0}{G_1^{(0)}(z_j)} \right| \right) \right\} \\ &\leq \max_{1 \leq j \leq s} \left\{ \left| \frac{\tilde{G}_1(z_j, y_0) \cdot y_0}{G_1^{(0)}(z_j)} \right| \right\} \\ &\leq \max_{1 \leq j \leq s} \left\{ |\tilde{G}_1(z_j, y_0) \cdot y_0| \cdot \min_{1 \leq i \leq s} \{\delta_i\} \right\} \\ &\leq (T + 1) \cdot (d_x + 1) \cdot M^{d_x} \cdot N \cdot \delta_1 \cdot |y_0|. \end{aligned}$$

The first inequality is from  $|1 + z| \leq 1 + |z|$  for  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ ; the second inequality is from  $\ln(1 + x) \leq x$  for  $x > -1$ ; the third one is from  $|G_1^{(0)}(z_j)| \geq \delta_1 \geq \min_{1 \leq i \leq s} \{\delta_i\}$  and  $G_1^{(0)} = \prod_{j=1}^s g_j^{\mu_{j,1}}$ . Additionally, for each monomial  $z_j^a y_0^b$  in  $\tilde{G}_1(z_j, y_0)$ , we have  $|z_j^a y_0^b| \leq |z_j^{d_1}| \leq M^{d_x}$  since  $|y_0| < 1$  and  $|z_j| \leq M$ . From Remark 2.3 and (2.9), we have  $\|G_1\|_\infty \leq N$ , so that the last inequality is from the number of nonzero terms of factors is not more than  $(T + 1) \cdot (d_x + 1)$ , by Corollary 2.11. Therefore if  $y_0$  satisfies (3.6), we have

$$\|\tilde{A}^{-1}\|_\infty \cdot \|\delta b\|_\infty < \frac{1}{4}. \tag{3.8}$$

Furthermore, from [22, Theorem 2.3.4] and (3.5),

$$\begin{aligned} \|\tilde{A}^{-1}\|_\infty \cdot \|\delta A\|_\infty &\leq \left( \|A^{-1}\|_\infty + \|\delta A\|_\infty \frac{\|A^{-1}\|_\infty^2}{1 - \|A^{-1}\delta A\|_\infty} \right) \cdot \|\delta A\|_\infty \\ &\leq 2(\|A^{-1}\|_\infty \|\delta A\|_\infty)^2 + (\|A^{-1}\|_\infty \|\delta A\|_\infty) < \frac{1}{4}. \end{aligned} \tag{3.9}$$

Now we have  $\|\delta u\|_\infty = \|\tilde{A}^{-1}(\delta b + \delta A \cdot u)\|_\infty \leq \|\tilde{A}^{-1}\|_\infty(\|\delta b\|_\infty + \|\delta A\|_\infty) < 1/2$ , where the first inequality is from  $\|u\|_\infty = 1$ , and the second one is from (3.8) and (3.9). This completes the proof.  $\square$

**Proposition 3.7.** *Algorithm 3.3 requires  $\mathcal{O}(s^\omega + M(d_x) \log s)$  operations to reduce the combination to the computation of univariate polynomial factorization over  $\mathbb{Q}$  whose degree is at most  $d_x$ .*

*Proof.* For  $i \leq s$ , we first evaluate  $g_j(1, z_i)$  by fast multipoint evaluation. This requires  $\mathcal{O}(M(d_j) \log s)$  operations, and hence constructing  $A$  has cost  $\mathcal{O}(M(d_1) \log s + \dots + M(d_s) \log s) \subset \mathcal{O}(M(d_x) \log s)$  by the super-additivity of  $M$ . Similarly, constructing  $B$  requires the same operations. Computing  $A^{-1}$  and multiplying  $A^{-1}$  and  $B$  have cost  $\mathcal{O}(s^\omega)$ . By Hypothesis (H<sub>b</sub>),  $f$  is monic, and hence the degree of  $f(x, y_0)$  is  $d_x$ .  $\square$

Our combination algorithm is in fact based on the idea of “linearization”, i.e., reducing the problem of combination to solving a system of linear equations. The basic idea is the use of logarithms, which has been successfully applied to polynomial factorization, such as trace recombination [23, 52–54] and logarithmic derivative recombination [5, 8, 39, 43]. However, we use a novel strategy to construct the linear system after taking logarithm. We choose some different points to evaluate the equation (3.2). Although we only get some approximate equations, we analyze the error control. If we choose the evaluation points satisfying the error controlling conditions, we can solve correctly for these 0–1 vectors. This is different from existing methods in literature.

### 4 Main algorithm and analysis

In this section, we describe our factorization algorithm, give a typical example to better illustrate the key steps of the algorithm, and analyze its complexity.

**Algorithm 4.1** (BiFactor). **Input:** A bivariate polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$  satisfying Hypothesis (H). **Output:** A factorization of  $f$  over  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Step 1** (Determine Newton polynomial). Compute  $L = (l_1, l_2)$  and  $R = (r_1, r_2)$  the two endpoints of the Newton line,  $f^{(0)}(x, y)$  the Newton polynomial of  $f$ . Set  $d_x := \deg_x f$  and  $d_y := \deg_y f$ .

**Step 2** (Factorize Newton polynomial). If  $l_2 = r_2 = 0$  then  $f^{(0)}$  is a univariate polynomial, else  $f^{(0)}$  is a homogeneous polynomial of total degree  $\frac{r_2 l_1 - r_1 l_2}{r_2 - l_2}$  with respect to  $x$  and  $\hat{y}$ , where  $\hat{y} = y^{-\frac{l_2 - r_2}{l_1 - r_1}}$ . Let  $\hat{d}$  and  $\hat{\delta}$  be nonnegative integers such that  $\frac{\hat{\delta}}{\hat{d}} = \frac{l_2 - r_2}{l_1 - r_1}$  is an irreducible fraction. If  $\frac{l_2 - r_2}{l_1 - r_1} = 0$  then let  $\hat{\delta} := 0$  and  $\hat{d} := 1$ . Let  $I_k := \{x^j \hat{y}^{d_x - j} \cdot y^{k/\hat{d}} : j = 0, \dots, d_x\}$ . Factorize  $f^{(0)}(x, 1)$  using a univariate polynomial factorization algorithm and then get the factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, \hat{y}]$ :  $f^{(0)}(x, y) = g_1(x, \hat{y}) \cdots g_s(x, \hat{y})$ .

**Step 3** (Combine). Call Algorithm 3.3 with  $g_1(x, \hat{y}), \dots, g_s(x, \hat{y})$  and  $f$ . Let the combined factors be  $G_1(x, y), \dots, G_r(x, y)$ . Let  $\Delta f := f - f^{(0)}$ . If  $\Delta f = 0$  then return  $G_1, \dots, G_r$ .

**Step 4** (Moses-Yun). Call Algorithm 2.2 feeding with initial factors to compute  $W_i^{(l)}(x, \hat{y})$ .

**Step 5** (Determine moduli). Let  $k$  be the maximum integer such that  $\Delta f \equiv 0 \pmod{I_k}$  and use  $I_{k+1}$  as the modulus of the generalized Hensel lifting.

**Step 6** (Lifting). Compute  $\Delta f^{(k)} := \Delta f \pmod{I_{k+1}}$ . For  $i$  from 1 to  $r$ , let

$$\Delta G_i(x, y) := \sum_{l=0}^{d_x-1} W_i^{(l)} c_l^{(k)}$$

and update  $G_i := G_i + \Delta G_i$ .

**Step 7 (Finished).** Set  $\Delta f := f - G_1 \cdots G_r$ . If  $\Delta f = 0$  then return  $G_1, \dots, G_r$ , else go to Step 5.

**Remark 4.2.** In practice, we use one technique to deal with the case that the evaluation point is not good: If  $\Delta f$  in the step 7 of Algorithm 4.1 includes some terms that do not appear in the input polynomial  $f(x, y)$ , we then stop lifting and choose another evaluation point for redoing recombination. Thus, if the algorithm returns a factorization, then it must be the irreducible factors of the input bivariate polynomial. In fact, the number of irreducible factors of the image of the evaluation homomorphism will never be less than the exact number of irreducible factors of the original polynomial. So, a bad evaluation must imply that  $r$ , in Step 3 of Algorithm 4.1, is strictly larger than the exact number of irreducible factors, and then during the lifting step, there will be at least one extra term that does not appear in the input bivariate polynomial. This phenomenon is easy to check in practice. Once this happens, we choose another evaluation point and redo recombination.

Here, we use the following simple example to illustrate the main steps of our factorization algorithm.

**Example 4.3.** We consider again the polynomial in Example 1.6:  $f = x^8 - 3x^4y^2 + 5x^4y^5 - 4y^4 + 5y^7 + 2y^3x^4 - 8y^5 + 10y^8$ . The Newton polynomial of  $f$  is

$$f^{(0)}(x, y) = x^8 - 3x^4y^2 - 4y^4 = (x^2 + \hat{y}^2)(x^2 + 2\hat{y}^2)(x^2 - 2\hat{y}^2) \triangleq g_1g_2g_3,$$

where  $\hat{\delta} = -1$ ,  $\hat{d} = 2$  and hence  $\hat{y} = y^{\frac{1}{2}}$ . Thus

$$I_0 = \{y^4, xy^{\frac{7}{2}}, x^2y^3, x^3y^{\frac{5}{2}}, x^4y^2, x^5y^{\frac{3}{2}}, x^6y, x^7y^{\frac{1}{2}}, x^8\}.$$

In the combination stage, we construct a linear system by specialization. First, letting  $z_1 = \frac{2}{5}e^{\frac{\pi}{11}I}$ ,  $z_2 = \frac{7}{5}e^{\frac{27\pi}{55}I}$ ,  $z_3 = e^{\frac{49\pi}{55}I}$  and  $y_0 = 1/223$ , we can get the following linear system

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{200466}{6353} & \frac{355429}{21663} & \frac{120385}{7398} \\ \frac{88198}{3365} & \frac{47978}{4353} & \frac{185008}{12743} \\ \frac{120647}{4175} & \frac{79463}{5347} & \frac{100672}{7121} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_{1,1} & \mu_{1,2} \\ \mu_{2,1} & \mu_{2,2} \\ \mu_{3,1} & \mu_{3,2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{272848}{8645} & \frac{117484}{3595} \\ \frac{68722}{2621} & \frac{296190}{11597} \\ \frac{615298}{21291} & \frac{60868}{2099} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Solving this linear system and rounding the solutions give two 0-1 vectors  $(1, 0, 0)$  and  $(0, 1, 1)$ , which means the initial factors are  $G_1^{(0)} = g_1 = x^4 + y^2$  and  $G_2^{(0)} = g_2g_3 = x^4 - 4y^2$ . Now,  $\Delta f = 5x^4y^5 + 5y^7 + 2y^3x^4 - 8y^5 + 10y^8$ . Since only  $x^0$  and  $x^4$  appear in  $\Delta f$ , we only need to compute  $W_i^{(l)}$  for  $l = 0, 4$  instead of  $l$  from 0 to 7 ( $= d_x - 1$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} W_1^{(0)} &= \frac{1}{5}y^2, & W_2^{(0)} &= -\frac{1}{5}y^2, \\ W_1^{(4)} &= \frac{4}{5}y^2, & W_2^{(4)} &= \frac{1}{5}y^2. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\Delta f = x^4y^2 \cdot (5y^{6/\hat{d}}) + y^4 \cdot (5y^{6/\hat{d}}) + x^4y^2 \cdot (2y^{2/\hat{d}}) + y^4 \cdot (-8y^{2/\hat{d}}) + y^4 \cdot (10y^{8/\hat{d}})$ , we have  $k = 2$  is the maximum integer satisfying  $\Delta f \equiv 0 \pmod{I_k}$ . Then compute  $\Delta f^{(2)} \equiv \Delta f \pmod{I_3} \equiv x^4y^2 \cdot (2y^{2/\hat{d}}) + y^4 \cdot (-8y^{2/\hat{d}})$ . Hence,  $c_7^{(2)} = c_6^{(2)} = c_5^{(2)} = 0$ ,  $c_4^{(2)} = 2y$ ,  $c_3^{(2)} = c_2^{(2)} = c_1^{(2)} = 0$ ,  $c_0^{(14)} = -8y$ . Thus, we have

$$\begin{aligned} G_1 &:= G_1 + \Delta G_1 = G_1 + (W_1^{(0)}c_0^{(2)} + W_1^{(4)}c_4^{(2)}) = x^4 + 2x^2y + y^2 + 2y^3, \\ G_2 &:= G_2 + \Delta G_2 = G_2 + (W_2^{(0)}c_0^{(2)} + W_2^{(4)}c_4^{(2)}) = x^4 - 4y^2. \end{aligned}$$

Update  $\Delta f = 5x^4y^5 + 10x^2y^6 + 5y^7 + 10y^8 \neq 0$ . Then go to Step 5. After one more lifting step, the algorithm returns the irreducible factors of  $f$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ :  $G_1 = x^4 + 2x^2y + y^2 + 2y^3$  and  $G_2 = x^4 - 4y^2 + 5y^5$ .

**Remark 4.4.** Note that the condition for  $y_0$  in (3.6) is a little bit heavy. But it is just sufficient to make sure that  $\|\delta u\| < \frac{1}{2}$ , and may not be necessary in practice. When implementing, one can try  $y_0$  with small size first, and if necessary, then use  $y_0$  with larger size, as in the above example.

From this example, we get an intuition on how the BiFactor algorithm takes advantage of sparsity. On the one hand, it may not always hold that all degrees from 0 to  $d_x$  with respect to  $x$  appear for a generic sparse polynomial. Thus we need not to compute all  $W_i^{(l)}$ , but only to compute those  $W_i^{(l)}$  such that  $x^l$  appears in  $\Delta f$ . If the number of nonzero terms of the input polynomial  $T$  is less than  $d_x$ , then Step 4 requires at most  $\mathcal{O}(r \log d_x \mathbf{M}(d_x) + T d_x)$  operations, instead of  $\mathcal{O}(r \log d_x \mathbf{M}(d_x) + d_x^2)$  operations in Proposition 2.4. On the other hand, when the polynomial is dense, each lifting stage lifts the factors only by  $y^{1/\hat{d}}$ . However, for a generic sparse polynomial, it usually holds that there exists no term lying in  $I_k$  for some  $k$ . That's to say for those  $k$  we have  $\Delta f^{(k)} = 0$ , which means  $\Delta G_i^{(k)} = 0$  for  $i = 1, \dots, r$ . We thus can directly handle with the smallest  $k$  such that  $\Delta f^{(k)} \neq 0$ .

**Proposition 4.5.** *Assume that there exists an effective version of the Hilbert irreducibility theorem for bivariate polynomials over  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Given a bivariate polynomial  $f$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  satisfying Hypothesis (H), the BiFactor algorithm reduces the computation of the irreducible factors of  $f$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  to factoring univariate polynomials with degree  $d_x$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  in  $\mathcal{O}(\text{Tr}d_x + T \log r \mathbf{M}(d_x d_y) + d_x^2 + s^\omega + r \log d_x \mathbf{M}(d_x))$  or  $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}(\text{Tr}d_x + T d_x d_y + d_x^2 + s^\omega)$  arithmetic operations in  $\mathbb{Q}$ , where  $T$  is the number of non-zero terms of  $f$ ,  $d_x$  and  $d_y$  are the degree of  $f$  with respect to  $x$  and  $y$  respectively,  $r$  is the number of irreducible factors of  $f$ , and  $s$  is the number of factors in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$  of the Newton polynomial of  $f$ .*

*Proof.* By the assumption, Proposition 3.6 holds. Hypothesis (H<sub>a</sub>) implies that  $d_i = \deg_x G_i^{(0)} \geq 1$ . Then the correctness of Algorithm 4.1 follows from Propositions 2.13, 3.1 and 3.6. We consider its complexity in the following.

From Definition 1.2, it costs at most  $\mathcal{O}(T)$  operations to determine the Newton line of  $f$ . By Corollary 3.1 and Proposition 3.7, it requires  $\mathcal{O}(s^\omega + \mathbf{M}(d_x) \log s)$  operations to reduce Steps 2 and 3 to factoring univariate polynomials whose degree is at most  $d_x$ . By Proposition 2.4, it has cost  $\mathcal{O}(r \log d_x \mathbf{M}(d_x) + d_x^2)$  to compute the Moses-Yun interpolation polynomials, where  $r$  is the number of irreducible factors of  $f$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Step 6 has cost  $\mathcal{O}(r d_x)$  to compute  $\Delta G_i$  by Proposition 2.13, and Step 7 has cost  $\mathcal{O}(\mathbf{M}(d_x d_y))$  according to the proof of Proposition 2.13. Furthermore, the number of lifting is not larger than  $T$  since the number of non-zero terms of  $\Delta f$  decreases at least by 1 in each lifting. At last Step 5 totally has cost  $\mathcal{O}(T)$ .

Therefore, Algorithm 4.1 needs  $\mathcal{O}(\text{Tr}d_x + T \mathbf{M}(d_x d_y) + d_x^2 + s^\omega + r \log d_x \mathbf{M}(d_x))$  or  $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}(\text{Tr}d_x + T d_x d_y + d_x^2 + s^\omega)$  operations to reduce the computation of a bivariate polynomial factorization under Hypotheses (H) to factoring univariate polynomials with degree at most  $d_x$ .  $\square$

*Proof of Theorem 1.7.* Without loss of generality we can assume that  $d_x \leq d_y$ . Then, by Proposition 4.5 the computation of the irreducible factorization of  $f$  satisfying Hypothesis (H) reduces to the univariate polynomials factorization over  $\mathbb{Q}$  whose degree is at most  $d_x$ , plus  $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}(\text{Tr}d_x + T d_x d_y + d_x^2 + s^\omega) \subset \tilde{\mathcal{O}}(T d_x d_y + s^\omega)$  arithmetic operations, where  $r \leq d_x$  and  $2 < \omega \leq 3$  are used.  $\square$

Again, we note that the main algorithm is not deterministic, since its validity depends on a good specialization  $y_0$ . Actually, if one has such a good choice, one can use directly the classical Hensel lifting along the fiber  $y = y_0$ , and its total complexity of the reduction from bivariate polynomial factorization to univariate case would be in  $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}(d_x d_y)$  rather than in  $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}(T d_x d_y + s^\omega)$ . But, as explained before, the classical Hensel lifting does not use the sparsity of the input polynomial, which usually leads to expression swell. Moreover, the experimental results in next section show the main algorithm in this article is efficient in practice.

## 5 Experimental results

We have implemented the BiFactor algorithm in the computer algebra system Maple. In this section, we give some details of our implementation and report some experimental results which show the efficiency of our algorithm. All the test polynomials and the Maple package are available from <http://sites.google.com/site/jingweichen84>.



**Table 1** Experimental results when recombination happening

no.	$d_x$	$d_y$	$T$	$s$	time <sub>Maple</sub>	time <sub>BiFactor</sub>
1	16	27	56	5	0.064	0.113
2	32	55	88	6	0.266	0.160
3	64	113	135	7	3.273	0.417
4	128	230	194	8	36.071	0.663
5	256	478	253	9	685.706	2.433

**Table 2** Experimental results for Maple’s factor and BiFactor

no.	$d$	$d_x$	$d_y$	$T$	time <sub>Maple</sub>	time <sub>BiFactor</sub>
1	50	46	29	135	0.281	0.157
2	100	95	89	143	2.125	0.109
3	200	156	152	144	7.578	0.235
4	400	335	305	144	87.297	0.218
5	800	580	595	144	943.094	0.422
6	50	39	50	705	0.532	0.437
7	100	100	65	827	4.282	1.468
8	200	193	179	890	50.750	2.156
9	400	306	302	746	208.515	2.110
10	800	784	613	912	10301.844	4.578

It is well known that there exists the phenomenon of intermediate expression swell in many applications, for example computing gcd of two polynomials with rational coefficients. Thus we use modular arithmetic to compute Moses-Yun polynomials. As seen from previous sections, the total efficiency of our algorithm heavily depends on the factorization of univariate polynomials over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . For sparse case, there exists many efficient algorithm, such as [14, 45, 46]. In our implementation, we call Maple’s built-in function **factor** to compute all univariate polynomials. Moreover, for a polynomial  $f$  which does not satisfy Hypothesis (H<sub>c</sub>), we introduce the following kind of affine transformations  $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} := \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \end{pmatrix}$ , where  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$  is an element of the group generated by  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$  under matrix multiplication, and then compute the factorization of  $F(X, Y) = X^m Y^n f(X, Y)$  if  $F(X, Y)$  satisfies Hypothesis (H<sub>c</sub>), where  $m$  and  $n$  are such integers that  $F(X, Y)$  satisfies Hypothesis (H<sub>a</sub>) and (H<sub>b</sub>). Then the factorization of  $f(x, y)$  can be inferred from that of  $F(X, Y)$ . Even though the affine transformation can be used to extend the applicability of the BiFactor algorithm, the algorithm remains incomplete. The reason is one can construct some polynomials, such as  $f = (xy + x^3 + x^2y^5 + y^4)(xy + x^4 + x^2y^6 + y^3)$ , which do not satisfy Hypothesis (H<sub>c</sub>) under any above affine transformation.

We now report some experimental results. All of these tests were run on an AMD Athlon™ 7750 processor (2.70 GHz) with 2GB memory. In the following tables, time<sub>Maple</sub> represents the running time of Maple’s built-in function factor and time<sub>BiFactor</sub> represents the running time of the BiFactor algorithm. Time is shown in seconds. All univariate polynomial factorizations are computed directly by calling Maple’s factor.

In Table 1, we investigate the efficiency of the BiFactor algorithm when the combination step is designed to happen, i.e.,  $s > r = 2$ . Each polynomial in Table 1 has only two irreducible factors, and its Newton polynomial is  $x^{d_x} - y^{d_x}$  which can be factorized as  $s$  factors in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ . Hence we have to go into the combination step. We note that the factorization of the Newton polynomial is easy to compute, however, we have to factorize a univariate polynomial with degree  $d_x$  during the combination stage. In spite of this fact, we can learn from Table 1 that the BiFactor algorithm is efficient in this case.

The purpose of the trials in Table 2 is to compare the performances of Maple’s built-in function factor with the BiFactor algorithm for some random polynomials. All test polynomials in Table 2 are of total degree  $d$  and constructed by multiplying two random polynomials with total degree  $d/2$ . Both of them

**Table 3** Experiments for polynomials with more than two irreducible factors

$r$	$d$	$d_x$	$d_y$	$T$	time <sub>Maple</sub>	time <sub>BiFactor</sub>
3	94	90	49	54	0.562	0.483
4	167	160	103	189	3.931	0.811
5	255	250	102	623	16.786	6.271
6	376	360	231	8336	151.711	56.239

are generated from the following Maple code. The first two terms are to ensure the input polynomial is of degree  $d$  and has no monomial factors.

```
[> a := rand(0..d/2());
```

```
[> rand(1..100)()*x^a*y^(d/2 - a) + rand(1..100)() + randpoly([x, y], terms = t, degree = d/2).
```

The first 5 polynomials are generated with  $t := 10$ , i.e., each factor of the polynomials has  $10 \sim 12$  non-zero terms. The last 5 polynomials are generated with  $t := 4$  for the first factor and  $t := 150$  for the second factor. Evidently, our algorithm outperforms the Maple built-in factor.

The last test set in Table 3 is to investigate the performance of BiFactor when the input polynomial has more than two irreducible factors. The number of irreducible factors ranges from 3 to 6. Accordingly, the number of terms ranges from 54 to 8336. For these tests, BiFactor seems slower than that in Tables 1 and 2, because the test polynomials are denser than those in Tables 1 and 2. However, it is still much faster than the Maple built-in function factor.

## 6 Conclusion

In this article, we present an algorithm, BiFactor, which factorizes bivariate polynomials over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . It can be seen as a polytope method. Unlike the traditional Hensel lifting based methods, it takes advantage of sparsity because of the generalized Hensel lifting scheme. Another feature is that a novel recombination strategy for computing the initial factors is used before the lifting stage. Although the validity of the algorithm is based on Hypothesis (H), both theoretic analysis and experimental data show its efficiency. Unfortunately, it is non-deterministic. We cannot even give a success probability because of lacking a proven randomized Hilbert irreducibility theorem for bivariate polynomials. It is beyond the scope of this article.

Our future work is to give a deterministic or probabilistic recombination methods for computing the initial factors. The future directions also include: to weaken the Hypothesis ( $H_c$ ), to analyze the bit-complexity of our algorithm when using floating-point arithmetic operations, and to generalize the method to polynomials with variables more than two.

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