A local decision test for sparse polynomials

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\textbf{Abstract}

An \(\ell\)-sparse (multivariate) polynomial is a polynomial containing at most \(\ell\)-monomials in its explicit description. We assume that a polynomial is implicitly represented as a black-box: on an input query from the domain, the black-box replies with the evaluation of the polynomial at that input. We provide an efficient, randomized algorithm, that can decide whether a polynomial \(f: \mathbb{F}_q^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q\) given as a black-box is \(\ell\)-sparse or not, provided that \(q\) is large compared to the polynomial’s total degree. The algorithm makes only \(O(\ell)\) queries, which is independent of the domain size. The running time of our algorithm (in the bit-complexity model) is \(\text{poly}(n, \log_d \ell, \ell)\), where \(d\) is an upper bound on the degree of each variable. Existing interpolation algorithms for polynomials in the same model run in time \(\text{poly}(n, d, \ell)\). We provide a similar test for polynomials with integer coefficients.

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1. Introduction

When dealing with massive data sets that encode information in a redundant manner, a typical goal is to efficiently retrieve qualitative properties of the encoded data. This task immediately excludes the possibility of reading the entire encoding, and brings up questions regarding the type of properties that can be decided from a very restricted view of the data. It is common to model such setting as a black-box interaction. Namely, the algorithm sends input-queries to a black-box that computes a function \(f: D \rightarrow R\) (for some finite or infinite domain \(D\) and range \(R\)) and receives back the evaluations of \(f\) at those inputs. An algorithm is called local if the number of queries it makes is independent of the size of the domain.

In our model, the black-box encodes \(n\)-variate polynomials over \(\mathbb{F}_q\) (where \(q\) is a prime power) or over \(\mathbb{Z}\), and we are interested in deciding whether \(f\) is \(\ell\)-sparse, or it is at least \((\ell + 1)\)-sparse in its explicit description as a sum of monomials. We propose a randomized, polynomial time algorithm that has the additional feature of locality, and we call such a test a local decision test.

The model considered in this work is related to the Property Testing model in which a local test distinguishes between objects satisfying a property from objects that are “far” from that property, under appropriate notions of distance. (For surveys on the area of Property Testing, see for example [11,20,21,7].) Note that unlike the Property Testing model, we are required to output “fail” even if a non-sparse polynomial is very “close” to some sparse polynomial (i.e. agrees on almost all inputs). From this point of view, our model is stronger, and thus certain tasks may require more computation.

1.1. Our results and techniques

We exhibit a local decision test which, on input \(\ell\), given query-access to a polynomial \(f: \mathbb{F}_q^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q\), of known degree \(d\) per individual variable, decides whether \(f\) is \(\ell\)-sparse. We assume that \(d\) and \(n\) are small compared to
the field’s size \( q \). Alternately, this can be interpreted as allowing \( d \) and \( n \) to be large, but also allowing queries over some extension field of \( \mathbb{F}_q \). The locality of the test is \( 2\ell + 1 \), which is independent of \( n \) or \( d \). We remark that our query complexity is the same as in the interpolation algorithm of Ben-Or and Tiwari [2]. However, since testing for sparsity is easier than interpolation, we achieve a better dependence on the degree \( d \): the running time of our algorithm is \( \text{poly}(n, \log d, \ell) \), while the current interpolation algorithms (in the same black-box model as ours) run in time \( \text{poly}(n, d, \ell) \).

Our proof relies on a common criteria for sparsity, based on so-called Wronskian matrices, often employed in the sparse interpolation literature [2,12,15]. We closely follow Ben-Or and Tiwari’s [2] approach, associating a Wronskian matrix \( H \) to the polynomial \( f \). The matrix \( H \) exhibits two nice properties: (1) its entries are evaluation points of \( f \), and (2) for some carefully chosen evaluation points, its determinant is 0 if \( f \) is sparse, and non-zero otherwise. In [2] the matrix \( H \) is further manipulated in order to obtain the explicit monomial degrees of \( f \).

Our main observation is that one can treat \( \det H \) as a polynomial function which can be evaluated over the entire field. Using the sparsity criteria based on the value of \( \det H \), our test simply chooses uniformly random evaluation points from the field and outputs a positive answer only when the determinant evaluates to 0.

In addition, we show a similar test for \( f : \mathbb{Z}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \), when a bound \( L \) on the coefficients is known.

Its running time is \( \text{poly}(n, \log d, \ell, \log L) \), and its query complexity is again \( 2\ell + 1 \).

1.2. Related work

In the algebraic context, a property class is usually a collection of polynomials sharing a common feature, as for example, linearity, symmetry, homogeneity, or low degree. In these cases a natural test simply verifies the defining condition of the property, under a uniformly random choice of the evaluation points. Consider for instance the class of multivariate polynomials \( \{ f : \mathbb{F}_q^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q \mid f(x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots, x_n) \equiv f(x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots, x_n) \} \), i.e. polynomials that are symmetric in the first two variables. A quick local decision test simply picks a \( n \)-tuple \((r_1, r_2, r_3, \ldots, r_n) \in \mathbb{F}_q^n \) and checks if \( f(r_1, r_2, r_3, \ldots, r_n) = f(r_2, r_3, r_4, \ldots, r_n) \).

While the algebraic properties mentioned above have natural explicit tests, in the case of sparsity it is not a priori clear what a good test might look like. In fact the question has been previously explored in the Property Testing context by [5] and [6] who employed a heavy Fourier analytic machinery and ideas drawn from the area of “testing by implicit learning” both to describe the tests and to analyze them. In contrast, the decision test we propose has the merit of being rather clean and elegant: it simply computes the determinant of a certain matrix consisting of entries that are evaluations of \( f \). In addition, while our model seems harder to test than their Property Testing model, the two running times as well as query complexities are comparable. Note however that in [6] the authors assume that the degree of \( f \) is unknown. Formally, for polynomials \( f : \mathbb{F}_q^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q \) [6] exhibited an algorithm which runs in time \( \text{poly}(\ell, \frac{1}{\epsilon}) \), makes \( \text{poly}(\ell, \frac{1}{\epsilon}) \) queries and decides if \( f \) is an \( \epsilon \)-sparse polynomial or differs in an \( \epsilon \) fraction of inputs from any \( \epsilon \)-sparse polynomial. We remark that in their case \( q \) is a constant.

The related interpolation problem has been intensely studied under a wide variety of models: deterministic [2, 17] and randomized [19], algebraic (with unit time per operation) [2,17] and bit-probe [19], over the integers [19, 2] as well as over fields [2,13,18,12]. Depending on the focus of the result, different tradeoffs between the number of black-box queries and the running time have been achieved. The initial Zippel’s randomized algorithm over the integers runs in time (bit-probe model) \( \text{poly}(n, d, \ell, \log L) \) (where \( L \) is an upper bound on the absolute value of the integer coefficients) and makes \( n \ell \) queries. Ben-Or and Tiwari’s [2] deterministic interpolation algorithm runs also in \( \text{poly}(n, d, \ell, \log L) \) time, and makes \( 2\ell + 1 \) evaluations. Mansour [19], and later Alon and Mansour [1] exhibit a deterministic interpolation algorithm, which runs in time \( \text{poly}(n, \log d, \ell, \log L) \). However, its query complexity depends on \( d \) and their black-box model is different from ours. Namely, even though the polynomial is defined over the integers, the black-box can be queried over the complexes, with some good accuracy parameter. Grigoriev, Karpinski and Singer [14] study the interpolation problem for rational functions and they achieve a number of queries linear in the number of variables, and the usual running time \( \text{poly}(n, d, \ell, \log L) \). Recently, Garg and Schost [9], propose an interpolation result in the easier, “straight-line program” model, with time complexity \( \text{poly}(n, \log d, \ell, T) \), where \( T \) is the length of the straight-line program.

2. Preliminaries

First, recall a standard definition. A polynomial \( f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i x_1^{d_1} \ldots x_n^{d_n} \), with \( a_i \neq 0 \) for \( i = 1, 2, \ldots, k \) is called \( \ell \)-sparse if \( k \leq \ell \).

We will also make use of the following well-known result.

**Lemma 1** (Schwartz–Zippel). Let \( f \in \mathbb{F}(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \) have degree \( d \) in each variable, and let \( S \subseteq \mathbb{F} \) be a finite set. Then

\[
\Pr_{r_i \in S} \left[ f(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n) = 0 \right] \leq \frac{dn}{|S|^d},
\]

where the \( r_i \)s are uniformly distributed over \( S \).

Finally, we formally define a local decision test.

**Definition 2** (Local decision test). An algorithm \( T \) is a \((s, \epsilon, T)\)-local decision test for a class \( \mathcal{P} \) if, given black-box access to \( f \in \mathbb{F}[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \) (denoted \( T^f \)),

1. \( T^f \) makes \( s \) queries,
2. \( T^f \) runs in time \( T \) (in the bit-complexity model),
3. if \( f \in \mathcal{P} \), \( \Pr[T^f \text{ accepts}] = 1 \),
4. if \( f \notin \mathcal{P} \), \( \Pr[T^f \text{ rejects}] \geq 1 - \epsilon \).
serve that most choices of variables with small probability.

We follow the same initial steps as in [2] and start writing the sparsity of \( \ell \)-sparse polynomials \( f \in \mathbb{F}_q[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \) with degrees at most \( d \) in each variable.

**Proof.** We follow the same initial steps as in [2] and start by introducing some useful notations. For a given \( n \)-tuple \( u = (u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n) \in \mathbb{F}_q^n \), and a positive integer \( i \), define the tuple \( u' = (u_1, u_2', \ldots, u_i'). \)

Moreover, for a polynomial \( f \in \mathbb{F}_q[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \), \( n \)-tuple \( u \in \mathbb{F}_q^n \), and integer \( \ell > 0 \), define the Hankel matrix associated to \( f \) at evaluation point \( u \) by

\[
H_\ell(f, u) = \begin{pmatrix}
 f(u^0) & f(u^1) & \cdots & f(u^\ell) \\
 f(u^1) & f(u^2) & \cdots & f(u^{\ell+1}) \\
 \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
 f(u^{\ell-1}) & f(u^{\ell}) & \cdots & f(u^{2\ell-2})
\end{pmatrix}
\]

These objects constitute the main tool in Ben-Or and Tiwari’s algorithm. In the interpolation context, the problem of determining the individual monomial degrees reduces to inverting such a Hankel matrix for some very special choice of the initial tuple \( u \). In our case, we observe that most choices of \( u \in \mathbb{F}_q^n \) can be used to describe the sparsity of \( f \), by inspecting the determinant of \( H_\ell(f, u) \).

Fig. 1 describes our test in the finite field case.

**Analysis.** It is clear that the test makes \( 2\ell + 1 \) queries. The proof of correctness, as well as the test’s error probability, are based on our main observation that one can treat \( \det H_{\ell+1}(f, u) \) as a multivariate polynomial in the variables \( u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n \). Since \( q \) is assumed to be large, the Schwartz–Zippel Lemma will then imply that the test fails with small probability.

The sharp criteria for sparsity from [2] is only stated there for a fixed value of \( u \). However, the result holds in general, for any value of \( u \in \mathbb{F}_q^n \).

**Lemma 4.** (See [2]) Let \( f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i M_i(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \), where \( a_i \in \mathbb{F}_q \), and \( M_i(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \) are the monomials of \( f \). Let \( u = (u_1, \ldots, u_n) \).

1. If \( k < \ell + 1 \), then \( \det H_{\ell+1}(f, u) = 0 \) (as a polynomial in \( u_1, \ldots, u_n \)).
2. If \( k \geq \ell + 1 \), the following expression holds:

\[
\det H_{\ell+1}(f, u) = \sum_{S \subseteq [k], |S| = \ell + 1} \prod_{i,j \in S, i < j} (M_i(u) - M_j(u))^2.
\]

For the sake of intuition, we mention that the proof of Lemma 4 is based on the fact that \( H_\ell(f, u) \) can be expressed as follows:

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
 M_1(u) & M_2(u) & \cdots & M_k(u) \\
 M_1(u^2) & M_2(u^2) & \cdots & M_k(u^2) \\
 \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
 M_1(u^{\ell-1}) & M_2(u^{\ell-1}) & \cdots & M_k(u^{\ell-1})
\end{pmatrix}
\times
\begin{pmatrix}
 a_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
 0 & a_2 & \cdots & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
 \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_k
\end{pmatrix}
\]

From Lemma 4, if \( f \) is \( \ell \)-sparse, then our test always outputs the right answer. Now suppose that \( f \) is at least \( (\ell + 1) \)-sparse. In that case, \( \det H_{\ell+1}(f, u) \) is a polynomial in \( u_1, \ldots, u_n \), and each variable has degree at most \( 2(\ell + 1) \). Our test makes an error only when a uniformly random \( u \in \mathbb{F}_q^n \) is a root of the \( n \)-variate polynomial \( \det H_{\ell+1}(f, u) \). Applying the Schwartz–Zippel Lemma, it follows that this happens with probability at most \( e^{-\epsilon} \), since \( q > 2^{(\ell+1)^2dn} \).

We now argue the computation time in the bit-complexity model. Since the evaluations of \( f \) are provided by the black-box, the only operations performed by the testing algorithm are during the computation of \( \det H_{\ell+1}(f, u) \). In general, computing the determinant of an \( \ell \times \ell \) matrix takes time \( \epsilon^\omega \) (where \( \epsilon \approx 2.37 \) is the exponent of matrix multiplication). However, since \( H_{\ell+1}(f, u) \) is a Hankel matrix, its determinant can be computed in time \( O(\ell^2) \) (by [16]). The complexity of our test is then \( \tilde{O}( (n + \ell^2) \log(\frac{\ell^2dn}{\epsilon}) ) \). This follows by taking into account the input size of each black-box call and the fact

\footnote{\( \tilde{O}(F) \) refers to \( F \cdot \text{poly} (\log F) \).}
that multiplication and addition take $O(q \log q \log q)$ bit-operations [10] for rings of size $q$ that support Fast Fourier Transform.

A similar result holds for polynomials over $\mathbb{Z}$.

**Theorem 5.** Let $0 < \varepsilon < 1$, and $\ell, n, d, L$ be positive integers. Then there exists a $(2\ell + 1, \varepsilon, O((kn + \ell^2) \log(L + \ell^2dn)))$ local decision test for the class of $\ell$-sparse polynomials $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ with degrees at most $d$ in each variable, and whose coefficients are bounded in absolute value by $L$.

**Proof.** The proof of Theorem 5 is very similar to the proof of Theorem 3. Here we pick a prime number $p$ larger than $\max\{\ell+1, L\}$ and compute modulo $p$. Fig. 2 describes our local decision test for sparsity of polynomials $f$ over $\mathbb{Z}$.

First notice that Lemma 4 still holds over $\mathbb{Z}$. Since $p > L$ and $p$ is prime, the coefficient of the highest degree monomial (in a lexicographic order of the variables) in $\det H_{\ell+1}(f, (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n))$ remains non-zero even after the modulo operation. Hence, if $\det H_{\ell+1}(f, (x_1, \ldots, x_n))$ is a non-zero polynomial over $\mathbb{Z}$, then $\det H_{\ell+1}(f, (x_1, \ldots, x_n)) \mod p$ is a non-zero polynomial over $\mathbb{Z}_p$. The same argument as before finishes the proof.

**4. Conclusions and open problems**

A variety of open questions could be interesting in the context of local decision testing for sparsity. First, our test works in a restrictive setting when the total degree is small, and one could try and remove this relaxation if possible. Furthermore, showing lower bounds on the number of evaluation points necessary to test sparsity is a direction we have not explored.

It would also be interesting to exhibit local decision tests for other problems in which the tests are not obvious from the definition of the property class. In particular, a good such example is the problem of testing “juntas” (polynomials that only depend on a few variables). This question has been recently completely resolved in the Property Testing model [8,3].

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**References**


