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Computing Igusa's Local Zeta Functions of Univariate Polynomials, and Linear Feedback Shift Registers

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Abstract

We give a polynomial time algorithm for computing the Igusa local zeta function $Z(s,f)$ attached to a polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, in one variable, with splitting field $\mathbb{Q}$, and a prime number p. We also propose a new class of linear feedback shift registers based on the computation of Igusa's local zeta function.

1. Introduction

Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, $x = (x_1, \cdots, x_n)$ be a non-constant polynomial, and p a fixed prime number. We put $N_m(f,p) = N_m(f)$ for the number of solutions of the congruence $f(x) \equiv 0 \mod p^m$ in $(\mathbb{Z}/p^m\mathbb{Z})^n$, $m \geqq 1$, and $H(t,f)$ for the Poincaré series

$$H(t,f) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} N_m(f)(p^{-n}t)^m,$$

with $t \in \mathbb{C}$, $\mid t \mid < 1$, and $N_0(f) = 1$. This paper is dedicated to the computation of the sequence $\{N_m(f)\}_{m \geq 0}$ when f is an univariate polynomial with splitting field $\mathbb{Q}$.

Igusa showed that the Poincaré series $H(t,f)$ admits a meromorphic continuation to the complex plane as a rational function of t [14], [15]. In this paper we make a first step towards the solution of the following problem: given a polynomial $f(x)$ as above, how difficult is to compute the meromorphic continuation of the Poincaré series $H(t,f)$?

The computation of the Poincaré series $H(t,f)$ is equivalent to the computation of Igusa's local zeta function $Z(s,f)$, attached to f and p, defined as follows. We denote by $\mathbb{Q}_p$ the field of $p-$adic numbers, and by $\mathbb{Z}_p$ the ring of $p-$adic integers. For $x \in \mathbb{Q}_p$, $v_p(x)$ denotes

the $p-$adic order of x, and $|x|_p = p^{-v_p(x)}$ its absolute value. The Igusa local zeta function associated to f and p is defined as follows:

$$Z(s,f) = \int_{\mathbb{Z}_p^n} |f(x)|_p^s \mid dx \mid, \qquad s \in \mathbb{C},$$

where $\mathrm{Re}(s) > 0$, and $\mid dx \mid$ denotes the Haar measure on $\mathbb{Q}_p^n$ so normalized that $\mathbb{Z}_p^n$ has measure 1. The following relation between $Z(s,f)$ and $H(t,f)$ holds (see [14], theorem 8.2.2):

$$H(t,f) = \frac{1 - tZ(s,f)}{1-t}, \ t = p^{-s}.$$

Thus, the rationality of $Z(s,f)$ implies the rationality of the Poincaré series $H(t,f)$, and the computation of $H(t,f)$ is equivalent to the computation of$Z(s,f)$. Igusa [14, theorem 8.2.1] showed that the local zeta function $Z(s,f)$ admits a meromorphic continuation to the complex plane as a rational function of p^{-s}.

The first result of this paper is a polynomial time algorithm for computing the local zeta function $Z(s,f)$ attached to a polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, in one variable, with splitting field $\mathbb{Q}$, and a prime number p. We also give an explicit estimate for its complexity (see algorithm Compute_$Z(s,f)$ in section 2, and theorem 7.1).

Many authors have found explicit formulas for $Z(s,f)$, or $H(f,t)$, for several classes of polynomials, among them [6], [7], [10], [11], [[16] and the references therein], [19], [24], [25]. In all these works the computation of $Z(s,f)$, or $H(f,t)$, is reduced to the computation of other problems, as the computation of the number of solutions of polynomial equations with coefficients in a finite field. Currently, there is no polynomial time algorithm solving this problem [23], [22]. Moreover, none of the above mentioned works include complexity estimates for the computation of Igusa's local zeta functions.

Of particular importance is Denef's explicit formula for $Z(s,f)$, when f satisfies some generic conditions [6]. This formula involves the numerical data associated to a resolution of singularities of the divisor $f = 0$, and the number of rational points of certain non-singular varieties over finite fields. Thus the computation of $Z(s,f)$, for a generic polynomial f, is reduced to the computation of the numerical data associated to a resolution of singularities of the divisor $f = 0$, and the number of solutions of non-singular polynomials over finite fields. Currently, it is unknown if these problems can be solved in polynomial time on a Turing machine. However, during the last few years important achievements have been obtained in the computation of resolution of singularities of polynomials [2], [3], [4], [21].

The computation of the Igusa local zeta function for an arbitrary polynomial seems to be an intractable problem on a Turing machine. For example, for $p = 2$, the computation of the number of solutions of a polynomial equation with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ is an $\mathbf{NP}-$complete problem on a Turing Machine [9, page 251, problem AN9]. Then in the case of $2-$adic numbers, the computation of the Igusa local zeta function is an $\mathbf{NP}-$complete problem.

Recently, Anshel and Goldfeld have shown the existence of a strong connection between the computation of zeta functions and cryptography [1]. Indeed, they proposed a new class of candidates for one-way functions based on global zeta functions. A one-way function is a function F such that for each x in the domain of F, it is easy to compute $F(x)$; but for essentially all y in the range of F, it is an intractable problem to find an x such that $y = F(x)$. These functions play a central role, from a practical and theoretical point of view, in modern cryptography. Currently, there is no guarantee that one-way functions exist even

if $\mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{NP}$. Most of the present candidates for one-way functions are constructed on the intractability of problems like integer factorization and discrete logarithms [12]. Recently, P. Shor has introduced a new approach to attack these problems [20]. Indeed, Shor have shown that on a quantum computer the integer factorization and discrete logarithm problems can be computed in polynomial time.

We set

$$\mathcal{H} = \{H(t,f) \mid f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x], \text{ in one variable, with splitting field } \mathbb{Q}\},$$

and $N^{\infty}(\mathbb{Z})$ for the set of finite sequences of integers. For each positive integer u and a prime number p, we define

$$\begin{array}{rccc} F_{u,p}: & \mathcal{H} & \rightarrow & \mathbb{N}^{\infty}(\mathbb{Z}) \\ & H(t,f) & \rightarrow & \{N_0(f,p), N_1(f,p), \cdots, N_u(f,p)\}. \end{array}$$

Our second result asserts that $F_{u,p}(H(t,f))$ can be computed in polynomial time, for every $H(t,f)$ in $\mathcal{H}$ (see theorem 8.1). It seems interesting to study the complexity on a Turing machine of the following problem: given a list of positive integers $\{a_0, a_1, \cdots, a_u\}$, how difficult is it to determine whether or not there exists a Poincaré series $H(t,f) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} N_m(f)(p^{-1}t)^m$, such that $a_i = N_i(f)$, $i = 1, \cdots, u$?

Currently, the author does not have any result about the complexity of the above problem, however the mappings $F_{u,p}$ can be considered as new class of stream ciphers (see section 8).

2. The Algorithm Compute_$Z(s,f)$

In this section we present a polynomial time algorithm, Compute_$Z(s,f)$, that solves the following problem: given a polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, in one variable, whose splitting field is $\mathbb{Q}$, find an explicit expression for the meromorphic continuation of $Z(s,f)$. The algorithm is as follows.

Algorithm Compute_$Z(s,f)$

Input : A polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, in one variable, whose splitting field is $\mathbb{Q}$.

Output : A rational function of p^{-s} that is the meromorphic continuation of $Z(s,f)$.

(1) Factorize $f(x)$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$: $f(x) = \alpha_0 \prod_{i=1}^{r} (x - \alpha_i)^{e_i} \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$.

(2) Compute

$$l_f = \begin{cases} 1 + \max\{v_p(\alpha_i - \alpha_j) \mid i \neq j,\ 1 \leq i,\ j \leq r\}, & \text{if } r \geqq 2; \\ 1, & \text{if } \quad r = 1. \end{cases}$$

(3) Compute the $p-$adic expansions of the numbers α_i, $i = 1, 2, \cdots, r$ modulo p^{l_f+1}.

(4) Compute the tree $T(f, l_f)$ associated to $f(x)$ and p (for the definition of $T(f, l_f)$ see (4.2)).

(5) Compute the generating function $G(s, T(f, l_f), p)$ attached to $T(f, l_f)$ (for the definition of $G(s, T(f, l_f), p)$ see (5.1)).

(6) Return $Z(s,f) = G(s, T(f, l_f), p)$.

(7) End

In section 6, we shall give a proof of the correctness and a complexity estimate for the algorithm Compute_$Z(s,f)$. The first step in our algorithm is accomplished by means of the

factoring algorithm by A.K. Lenstra, H. Lenstra and L. Lovász [17]. If d_f denotes the degree of $f(x)=\sum_i a_i x^i$, and

$$\|f\|=\sqrt{\sum_i a_i^2},$$

then the mentioned factoring algorithm needs $O\left(d_f^6+d_f^9(\log\|f\|)\right)$ arithmetic operations, and the integers on which these operations are performed each have a binary length

$$O\left(d_f^3+d_f^2(\log\|f\|)\right)$$

[17, theorem 3.6].

The steps 2, 3, 4, 5 reduce in polynomial time the computation of $Z(s,f)$ to the computation of a factorization of $f(x)$ over $\mathbb{Q}$. This reduction is accomplished by constructing a weighted tree from the $p-$adic expansion of the roots of $f(x)$ modulo a certain power of p (see section 4), and then associating a generating function to this tree (see section 5). Finally, we shall prove that the generating function constructed in this way coincides with the local zeta function of $f(x)$ (see section 5).

3. p-adic Stationary Phase Formula

Our main tool in the effective computing of Igusa's local zeta function of a polynomial in one variable will be the $p-$adic stationary phase formula, abbreviated SPF [16]. This formula is a recursive procedure for computing local zeta functions. By using this procedure it is possible to compute the local zeta functions for many classes of polynomials [[16] and the references therein], [19], [24], [25], [26].

Given a polynomial $f(x)\in\mathbb{Z}_p[x]\setminus p\mathbb{Z}_p[x]$, we denote by $\overline{f(x)}$ its reduction modulo $p\mathbb{Z}_p$, i.e., the polynomial obtained by reducing the coefficients of $f(x)$ modulo $p\mathbb{Z}_p$. We define for each $x_0\in\mathbb{Z}_p$,

$$f_{x_0}(x)=p^{-e_{x_0}}f(x_0+px),$$

where e_{x_0} is the minimum order of p in the coefficients of $f(x_0+px)$. Thus $f_{x_0}(x)\in\mathbb{Z}_p[x]\setminus p\mathbb{Z}_p[x]$. We shall call the polynomial $f_{x_0}(x)$ the *dilatation* of $f(x)$ at x_0. We also define

$$\nu(\overline{f})=\mathrm{Card}\{\overline{z}\in\mathbb{F}_p\mid\overline{f}(\overline{z})\neq 0\},$$

$$\delta(\overline{f})=\mathrm{Card}\{\overline{z}\in\mathbb{F}_p\mid\overline{z}\text{ is a simple root of }\overline{f}(\overline{z})=0\}.$$

We shall use $\{0,1,\cdots,p-1\}\subseteq\mathbb{Z}_p$ as a set of representatives of the elements of $\mathbb{F}_p=\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}=\{\overline{0},\overline{1},\cdots,\overline{p-1}\}$. Let $S=S(f)$ denote the subset of $\{0,1,\cdots,p-1\}\subseteq\mathbb{Z}_p$ which is mapped bijectively by the canonical homomorphism $\mathbb{Z}_p\to\mathbb{Z}_p/p\mathbb{Z}_p$ to the set of roots of $\overline{f}(\overline{z})=0$ with multiplicity greater than or equal to two.

With all the above notation we are able to state the $p-$adic stationary phase formula for polynomials in one variable.

Proposition 3.1 ([14, theorem 10.2.1]). *Let $f(x)\in\mathbb{Z}_p[x]\setminus p\mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ be a non-constant polynomial. Then*

$$Z(s,f)=p^{-1}\nu(\overline{f})+\delta(\overline{f})\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-1-s}}{(1-p^{-1-s})}+\sum_{\xi\in S}p^{-1-e_\xi s}\int\limits_{\mathbb{Z}_p}\mid f_\xi(x)\mid_p^s dx.$$

The following example illustrates the use of the $p-$adic stationary phase formula, and also the basic aspects of our algorithm for computing $Z(s,f)$.

3.1. **Example.** Let $f(x)=(x-\alpha_1)(x-\alpha_2)^3(x-\alpha_3)(x-\alpha_4)^2(x-\alpha_5)$ be a polynomial such that α_1, α_2 , α_3, α_4 , α_5 are integers having the following $p-$adic expansions:

$$\alpha_1 = a+dp+kp^2,$$

$$\alpha_2 = a+dp+lp^2,$$

$$\alpha_3 = b+gp+mp^2,$$

$$\alpha_4 = c+hp+np^2,$$

$$\alpha_5 = c+hp+rp^2,$$

where the p-adic digits a, b, c, d, g, h, l, m, n, r belong to $\{0,1,\cdots,p-1\}$. We assume the p-adic digits to be different by pairs. The local zeta function $Z(s,f)$ will be computed by using SPF iteratively.

By applying SPF with $\overline{f(x)}=(x-\overline{a})^4(x-\overline{b})(x-\overline{c})^3$, $\nu(\overline{f})=p-3$, $\delta(\overline{f})=1, S=\{a,c\}$, $f_a(x)=p^{-4}f(a+px)$, and $f_c(x)=p^{-3}f(c+px)$, we obtain that

$$\begin{aligned} Z(s,f) &= p^{-1}(p-3)+\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-1-s}}{1-p^{-1-s}}+p^{-1-4s}\int_{\mathbb{Z}_p}|f_a(x)|_p^s \mid dx \mid \\ &\quad +p^{-1-3s}\int_{\mathbb{Z}_p}|f_c(x)|_p^s \mid dx \mid . \end{aligned} \tag{3.1}$$

We apply SPF to the integrals involving $f_a(x)$ and $f_c(x)$ in (3.1). First, we consider the integral corresponding to $f_a(x)$. Since $\overline{f_a(x)}=(x-\overline{d})^4(\overline{a}-\overline{b})(\overline{a}-\overline{c})^3$, $S=\{d\}$, $f_{a,d}(x)=p^{-4}f_a(d+px)$, $\nu(\overline{f_a})=p-1$, and $\delta(\overline{f_a})=0$, it follows from (3.1) using SPF that

$$\begin{aligned} Z(s,f) &= p^{-1}(p-3)+\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-1-s}}{1-p^{-1-s}}+p^{-1}(p-1)p^{-1-4s} \\ &\quad +p^{-2-8s}\int_{\mathbb{Z}_p}|f_{a,d}(x)|_p^s \mid dx \mid +p^{-1-3s}\int_{\mathbb{Z}_p}|f_c(x)|_p^s \mid dx \mid . \end{aligned} \tag{3.2}$$

Now, we apply SPF to the integral involving $f_c(x)$ in (3.2). Since $\overline{f_c(x)}=(\overline{c}-\overline{a})^4(\overline{c}-\overline{b})(x-\overline{h})^3$, $S=\{h\}$, $f_{c,h}(x)=p^{-3}f_c(h+px)$, $\nu(\overline{f_c})=p-1$, and $\delta(\overline{f_c})=0$, it follows from (3.2) using SPF that

$$\begin{aligned} Z(s,f) &= p^{-1}(p-3)+\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-1-s}}{1-p^{-1-s}}+p^{-1}(p-1)p^{-1-4s} \\ &\quad +p^{-2-8s}\int_{\mathbb{Z}_p}|f_{a,d}(x)|_p^s \mid dx \mid +p^{-1}(p-1)p^{-1-3s} \\ &\quad +p^{-2-6s}\int_{\mathbb{Z}_p}|f_{c,h}(x)|_p^s \mid dx \mid . \end{aligned} \tag{3.3}$$

By applying SPF to the integral involving $f_{a,d}(x)$ in (3.3), with $\overline{f_{a,d}(x)}=(x-\overline{k})(x-\overline{l})^3(\overline{d}-\overline{b})(\overline{d}-\overline{c})^3$, $S=\{k,l\}$, $f_{a,d,k}(x)=p^{-1}f_{a,d}(k+px)$, $|f_{a,d,k}(x)|_p^s=|x|_p^s$, $f_{a,d,l}(x)=p^{-3}f_{a,d}(l+px)$, $|f_{a,d,l}(x)|_p^s=|x|_p^{3s}$, $\nu(\overline{f_{a,d}})=p-2$, and $\delta(\overline{f_{a,d}})=1$, we obtain that

$$\begin{aligned} Z(s,f) &= p^{-1}(p-3)+\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-1-s}}{1-p^{-1-s}}+p^{-1}(p-1)p^{-1-4s} \\ &+p^{-1}(p-1)p^{-1-3s}+p^{-1}(p-2)p^{-2-8s}+\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-3-9s}}{1-p^{-1-s}} \\ &+\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-3-11s}}{1-p^{-1-3s}}+p^{-2-6s}\int_{\mathbb{Z}_p}|f_{c,h}(x)|_p^s \mid dx \mid . \end{aligned} \tag{3.4}$$

Finally, by applying SPF to the integral involving $f_{c,h}(x)$ in (3.4), we obtain that

$$\begin{aligned} Z(s,f) &= p^{-1}(p-3)+\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-1-s}}{1-p^{-1-s}}+p^{-1}(p-1)p^{-1-4s} \\ &+p^{-1}(p-1)p^{-1-3s}+p^{-1}(p-2)p^{-2-8s}+\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-3-9s}}{1-p^{-1-s}} \\ &+\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-3-11s}}{1-p^{-1-3s}}+p^{-1}(p-2)p^{-2-6s}+\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-3-7s}}{1-p^{-1-s}} \\ &+\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-3-8s}}{1-p^{-1-2s}}. \end{aligned} \tag{3.5}$$

Remark 3.1. *If $\alpha=\frac{a}{b}\in\mathbb{Q}$, and $v_p(\alpha)<0$, then*

$$\mid x-\alpha\mid_p = \mid \alpha\mid_p, \text{ for every } x\in\mathbb{Z}_p. \tag{3.6}$$

On the other hand, a polynomial of the form

$$f(x)=\alpha_0\prod_{i=1}^{r}(x-\alpha_i)^{e_i}\in\mathbb{Q}[x],$$

can be decomposed as $f(x)=\alpha_0 f_-(x)f_+(x)$, where

$$f_-(x)=\prod_{\{\alpha_i\mid v_p(\alpha_i)<0\}}(x-\alpha_i)^{e_i}, \text{ and } f_+(x)=\prod_{\{\alpha_i\mid v_p(\alpha_i)\geqq 0\}}(x-\alpha_i)^{e_i}. \tag{3.7}$$

From (3.6) and (3.7) follow that

$$Z(s,f)=\mid \alpha_0\prod_{\{\alpha_i\mid v_p(\alpha_i)<0\}}{\alpha_i}^{e_i}\mid_p^s Z(s,f_+).$$

Thus, from a computational point of view, we may assume without loss of generality that all roots of $f(x)$ are $p-$adic integers.

4. Trees and p-adic Numbers

The tree $U=U(p)$ of residue classes modulo powers of a given prime number p is defined as follows. Consider the diagram

$$\{0\}=\mathbb{Z}/p^0\mathbb{Z}\underleftarrow{\phi_1}\ \mathbb{Z}/p^1\mathbb{Z}\ \underleftarrow{\phi_2}\ \mathbb{Z}/p^2\mathbb{Z}\ \underleftarrow{\phi_3}\cdots$$

where ϕ_l the are the natural homomorphisms. The vertices of U are the elements of $\mathbb{Z}/p^l\mathbb{Z}$, for $l=0,1,2,\cdots$, and the directed edges are $u\to v$ where $u\in\mathbb{Z}/p^l\mathbb{Z}$ and $\phi_l(u)=v$, for some $l>0$. Thus U is a rooted tree with root $\{0\}$. Exactly one directed edge emanates from

each vertex of U; except from the vertex $\{0\}$, from which no edge emanates. In addition, every vertex is the end point of exactly p directed edges.

Given two vertices u, v the notation $u > v$ will mean that there is a sequence of vertices and edges of the form

$$u \to u^{(1)} \to \cdots \to u^{(m)} = v.$$

The notation $u \geqq v$ will mean that $u = v$ or $u > v$. The *level* $l(u)$ of a vertex u is m if $u \in \mathbb{Z}/p^m\mathbb{Z}$. The *valence* $Val(u)$ of a vertex u is defined as the number of directed edges whose end point is u.

A subtree, or simply a tree, is defined as a nonempty subset T of vertices of U, such that when $u \in T$ and $u > v$, then $v \in T$. Thus T together with the directed edges $u \to v$, where $u, v \in T$, is again a tree with root $\{0\}$.

A tree T is named a *weighted tree*, if there exists a weight function $W : T \to \mathbb{N}$. The value $W(u)$ is called the weight of vertex u.

If $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p$, and x_l denotes its residue class modulo p^l, then every vertex of U is of the type x_l with $l \in \mathbb{N}$.

A *stalk* is defined as a tree K having at most one vertex at each level. Thus a stalk is either finite, of the type

$$\{0\} \longleftarrow u^{(1)} \longleftarrow \cdots \longleftarrow u^{(l)},$$

or infinite, of the type

$$\{0\} \longleftarrow u^{(1)} \longleftarrow \cdots.$$

Clearly a finite stalk may be written as

$$\{0\} \longleftarrow x_1 \longleftarrow \cdots \longleftarrow x_l,$$

with $x \in \mathbb{Z}$, and infinite stalks as

$$\{0\} \longleftarrow x_1 \longleftarrow x_2 \longleftarrow \cdots,$$

with $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. Thus there is a $1-1$ correspondence between infinite stalks and $p-$adic integers.

4.1. **Tree Attached to a Polynomial.** Let

$$f(x) = \alpha_0 \prod_{i=1}^{r} (x - \alpha_i)^{e_i} \in \mathbb{Q}[x] \tag{4.1}$$

be a non-constant polynomial, in one variable, of degree d_f, such that $v_p(\alpha_i) \geqslant 0$, $i = 1, 2, \cdots, r$. We associate to $f(x)$ and a prime number p the integer

$$l_f = \begin{cases} 1 + \max\{v_p(\alpha_i - \alpha_j) \mid i \neq j,\, 1 \leq i,\, j \leq r\}, & \text{if } \ r \geqq 2; \\ 1, & \text{if } \ r = 1. \end{cases}$$

We set

$$\alpha_i = a_{0,i} + a_{1,i}\, p + \cdots + a_{j,i}\, p^j + \cdots + a_{l_f,i}\, p^{l_f} \bmod p^{l_f+1},$$

$a_{j,i} \in \{0, 1, \cdots, p-1\}$, $j = 0, 1, \cdots, l_f$, $i = 1, 2, \cdots, r$, for the $p-$adic expansion modulo p^{l_f+1} of α_i. We attach a weighted tree $T(f,\, l_f)$ to f as follows:

$$T(f, l_f, p) = T(f, l_f) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{r} K(\alpha_i, l_f), \tag{4.2}$$

where $K(\alpha_i, l_f)$ denotes the stalk corresponding to the $p-$adic expansion of α_i modulo p^{l_f+1}. Thus $T(f,\, l_f)$ is a rooted tree. We introduce a weight function on $T(f,\, l_f)$, by defining the weight of a vertex u of level m as

$$W(u) = \begin{cases} \sum\limits_{\{i|\alpha_i \equiv u \bmod p^m\}} e_i, & \text{if } m \geqq 1; \\ 0, & \text{if } m = 0. \end{cases} \tag{4.3}$$

Given a vertex $u \in T(f, l_f)$, we define the stalk generated by u to be

$$B_u = \{v \in T(f, l_f) \mid u \geqq v\}.$$

We associate a weight $W^*(B_u)$ to B_u as follows:

$$W^*(B_u) = \sum_{v \in B_u} W(v). \tag{4.4}$$

4.2. **Computation of Trees Attached to Polynomials.** Our next step is to show that a tree $T(f, l_f)$ attached to a polynomial $f(x)$, of type (4.1), can be computed in polynomial time. There are well known programming techniques to construct and manipulate trees and forests (see e.g. [8, Volume 1]), for this reason, we shall focus on showing that such computations can be carry out in polynomial time, and set aside the implementation details of a particular algorithm for this task. We shall include in the computation of $T(f, l_f)$, the computation of the weights of the stalks generated by its vertices; because all these data will be used in the computation of the local zeta function of f.

Proposition 4.1. *The computation of a tree $T(f, l_f)$ attached to a polynomial $f(x)$, of type (4.1), from the $p-$adic expansions modulo p^{l_f+1} of its roots*

$$\alpha_i = a_{0,i} + a_{1,i}\, p + \cdots + a_{l_f,i} p^{l_f} \ \ mod\ p^{l_f+1}$$

and multiplicities e_i, $i = 1, 2, \cdots, r$, involves $O(l_f^2\, d_f^3)$ arithmetic operations on integers with binary length

$$O(\max\{\log p, \log(l_f d_f)\}).$$

Proof. We assume that $T(f, l_f)$ is finite set of the form

$$T = \{\text{Level}_0, \cdots, \text{Level}_j, \cdots, \text{Level}_{l_f+1}\}, \tag{4.5}$$

where Level_j represents the set of all vertices with level j. Each Level_j is a set of the form

$$Level_j = \{u_{j,1}, \cdots, u_{j,i}, \cdots, u_{j,m_j}\},$$

and each $u_{j,i}$ is a weighted vertex for every $i = 1, \cdots, m_j$. A weighted vertex $u_{j,i}$ is a set of the form

$$u_{j,i} = \{\, W(u_{j,i}),\, Val(u_{j,i}), W^*(B_{u_{j,i}})\},$$

where $W(u_{j,i})$ is the weight of $u_{j,i}$, $Val(u_{j,i})$ is its valence, and $W^*(B_{ui})$ is the weight of stalk $B_{u_{j,i}}$. The weight of the stalk generated by $u_{j,i}$ can be written as

$$W^*(B_{u_{j,i}}) = \sum_{v \in B_{u_{j,i}}} W(v).$$

For the computation of a vertex $u_{j,i}$ of level j, we proceed as follows. We put $I = \{1, 2, \cdots, r\}$, and

$$M_j = \{\alpha_i \bmod p^j \mid i \in I\}.$$

For each $0 \leq j \leq l_f + 1$, we compute a partition of I of type

$$I = \bigcup_{i=1}^{l_j} I_{j,i}, \tag{4.6}$$

such that

$$\alpha_t \bmod p^j = \alpha_s \bmod p^j,$$

for every $t, s \in I_{j,i}$. Each subset $I_{j,i}$ corresponds to a vertex $u_{j,i}$ of level j. This computation requires $O(l_f r^2)$ arithmetic operations on integers with binary length $O(\log p)$. Indeed, the cost of computing a "yes or no" answer for the question: $\alpha_t \bmod p^j = \alpha_s \bmod p^j$? is $O(j)$ comparisons of integers with binary length $O(\log p)$. In the worst case, there are r vectors M_j, and the computation of partition (4.6), for a fixed j, involves the comparison of α_t with α_l for $l = t+1, t+2, \cdots, r$. This computation requires $O(jr^2)$ arithmetic operations on integers with binary length $O(\log p)$. Since $j \leqq l_f + 1$, the computation of partition (4.6) requires $O(l_f r^2)$ arithmetic operations on integers with binary length $O(\log p)$.

The weight of the vertex $u_{j,i}$ is given by the expression

$$W(u_{j,i}) = \sum_{k \in I_{j,i}} e_k.$$

Thus the computation of the weight of a vertex requires $O(r)$ additions of integers with binary length $O(\log d_f r)$.

For the computation of the valence of $u_{j,i}$, we proceed as follows. The valence of $u_{j,i}$ can be expressed as

$$Val(u_{j,i}) = \text{Card}\{I_{j+1,l} \mid I_{j+1,l} \subseteq I_{j,i}\},$$

where $I_{j+1,l}$ runs through all possible sets that correspond to the vertices $u_{j+1,l}$, with level $j+1$. Thus the computation of $Val(u_{j,m})$ involves the computation of a "yes or no" answer for the question $I_{j+1,l} \subseteq I_{j,i}$? The computation of a "yes or no" answer involves $O(r)$ comparisons of integers with binary length $O(\log r)$. Therefore the computation of $Val(u_{j,i})$ involves $O(r)$ comparisons and $O(r)$ additions of integers with binary length $O(\log r)$.

For the computation of the weight of $B_{u_{j,i}}$, we observe that $W^*(B_{u_{j,i}})$ is given by the formula

$$W^*(B_{u_{j,i}}) = \sum_{l=0}^{j-1} \sum_{I_{j,i} \subseteq I_{l,k}} W(I_{l,k}),$$

where $W(I_{l,k}) = W(v_{l,k})$, and $v_{l,k}$ is the vertex corresponding to $I_{l,k}$. Thus the computation of $W^*(B_{u_{j,i}})$ involves $O(l_f)$ additions of integers with binary length $O(\log(l_f\ d_f))$, and $O(l_f\ r)$ comparisons of integers with binary length $O(\log r)$.

From the above reasoning follows that the computation of a vertex of a tree $T(f, l_f)$ involves at most $O(l_f\ r^2)$ arithmetic operations (additions and comparisons) on integers with binary length $O(\max\{\log p, \log(\ l_f\ d_f)\})$. Finally, since the number of vertices of $T(f, l_f)$ is at most $O(l_f\ d_f)$, it follows that the computation of a tree of type $T(f, l_f)$ involves $O(l_f^2\ d_f^3)$ arithmetic operations on integers with binary length $O(\max\{\log p, \log(\ l_f\ d_f)\})$. ∎

5. Generating Functions and Trees

In this section we attach to a weighted tree $T(f,l_f)$ and a prime p a generating function $G(s,T(f,l_f),p)\in\mathbb{Q}(p^{-s})$ defined as follows.

We set

$$\mathcal{M}_{T(f,l_f)}=\left\{u\in T(f,l_f)\;\middle|\;\begin{array}{c}W(u)=1,\text{ and there no exists } v\in T(f,l_f)\\ \text{with } W(v)=1,\text{ such that } u>v.\end{array}\right\},$$

and

$$L_u(p^{-s})=\begin{cases}\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-l(u)-W^*(B_u)s}}{(1-p^{-1-W(u)s})}, & \text{if } \quad l(u)=1+l_f,\text{ and } W(u)\geqq 2;\\ p^{-1}(p-Val(u))p^{-l(u)-W^*(B_u)s}, & \text{if } \quad 0\leqq l(u)\leqq l_f,\text{ and } W(u)\neq 1;\\ \frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-l(u)-W^*(B_u)s}}{1-p^{-1-s}}, & \text{if } \quad u\in\mathcal{M}_{T(f,l_f)};\\ 0, & \text{if } \quad W(u)=1,\text{ and } u\notin\mathcal{M}_{T(f,l_f)}.\end{cases}$$

With all the above notation, we define the generating function attached to $T(f,l_f)$ and p as

$$G(s,T(f,l_f),p)=\sum_{u\in T(f,l_f)}L_u(p^{-s}). \tag{5.1}$$

Our next goal is to show that $G(s,T(f,l_f),p)=Z(s,f)$. The proof of this fact requires the following preliminary result.

Proposition 5.1. *The generating function attached to a tree $T(f,l_f)$ and a prime p satisfies*

$$\begin{aligned}G(s,T(f,l_f),p) &= p^{-1}\nu(\overline{f})+\delta(\overline{f})\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-1-s}}{(1-p^{-1-s})}\\ &\quad+\sum_{\xi\in S}p^{-1-e_\xi s}G(s,T(f_\xi,l_f-1),p).\end{aligned} \tag{5.2}$$

Proof. Let $A_f=\{u\in T(f,l_f)\mid l(u)=1,\ W(u)=1\}$, and $B_f=\{u\in T(f,l_f)\mid l(u)=1,\ W(u)\geqq 2\}$. We have the following partition for $T(f,l_f)$:

$$T(f,l_f)=\{0\}\bigcup A_f\bigcup\left(\bigcup_{u\in B_f}T_u\right), \tag{5.3}$$

with

$$T_u=\{v\in T(f,l_f)\mid v\geqq u\}.$$

Each T_u is a rooted tree with root $\{u\}$. From partition (5.3) and the definition of $G(s,T(f,l_f),p)$, it follows that

$$\begin{aligned}G(s,T(f,l_f),p) &= p^{-1}\left(p-Val(\{0\})\right)+\mathrm{Card}\{A_f\}\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-1-s}}{(1-p^{-1-s})}+\\ &\quad\sum_{u\in B_f}G(s,T_u),\end{aligned} \tag{5.4}$$

with $G(s,T_u)=\sum_{v\in T_u} L_v(p^{-s})$.

Since there exists a bijective correspondence between the roots of $\overline{f}(x)\equiv 0 \bmod p$ and the vertices of $T(f,l_f)$ with level 1,

$$p-Val(\{0\})=\nu(\overline{f}), \text{ and } \ \mathrm{Card}\{A_f\}=\delta(\overline{f}). \tag{5.5}$$

Now, if the vertex u corresponds to the root $\overline{f}(\xi)\equiv 0 \bmod p$, then

$$T_u=\left(\bigcup_{\{\alpha_i|\alpha_i\equiv\xi \bmod p\}} K(\alpha_i,l_f)\right)\setminus\{0\}. \tag{5.6}$$

On the other hand, we have that

$$T(f_\xi,l_f-1)=\bigcup_{\{\alpha_i|\alpha_i\equiv\xi \bmod p\}} K(\frac{\alpha_{i-\xi}}{p},l_f-1). \tag{5.7}$$

Now we remark that the map $\alpha_i\to\frac{\alpha_i-\xi}{p}$ induces a isomorphism between the trees T_u and $T(f_\xi,l_f-1)$, that preserves the weights of the vertices; and thus we may suppose that $T_u=T(f_\xi,l_f-1)$. The level function l_T of $T(f_\xi,l_f-1)$ is related to the level function l_{T_u} of T_u by means of the equality $l_T-l_{T_u}=-1$. In addition, $B_f=S$, where S is the subset of $\{0,1,\cdots,p-1\}\subseteq\mathbb{Z}_p$ whose reduction modulo pZ_p is equal to the set of roots of $\overline{f}(\xi)=0$ with multiplicity greater or equal than two. Therefore, it holds that

$$G(s,T_u)=p^{-1-e_\xi s}G(s,T(f_\xi,l_f-1),p). \tag{5.8}$$

The result follows from (5.4) by the identities (5.5) and (5.8). ∎

Lemma 5.1. *Let p be a fixed prime number and v_p the corresponding $p-$adic valuation, and*

$$f(x)=\alpha_0\prod_{i=1}^{r}(x-\alpha_i)^{e_i}\in\mathbb{Q}[x]\setminus\mathbb{Q},$$

a polynomial such that $v_p(\alpha_i)\geqq 0$, for $i=1,\cdots,r$. Then

$$Z(s,f)=G(s,T(f,l_f),p).$$

Proof. We proceed by induction on l_f.

Case $l_f=1$

If $r=1$ the proof follows immediately, thus we may assume that $r\geqq 2$. Since $l_f=1$, it holds that $v_p(\alpha_i-\alpha_j)=0$, for every i, j, satisfying $i\neq j$, and thus $\overline{\alpha_i}\neq\overline{\alpha_j}$, if $i\neq j$. By applying SPF, we have that

$$Z(s,f)=p^{-1}\nu(\overline{f})+\delta(\overline{f})\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-1-s}}{(1-p^{-1-s})}+\sum_{\xi\in S}p^{-1-e_\xi s}\frac{(1-p^{-1})}{(1-p^{-1-e_\xi s})}, \tag{5.9}$$

where each $e_\xi=e_j\geqq 2$, for some j, and $\alpha_j=\xi+p\beta_j$.

On the other hand, $T(f,l_f)$ is a rooted tree with r vertices v_j, satisfying $l(v_j)=1$, and $W(v_j)=e_j$, for $j=1,\cdots,r$. These observations allow one to deduce that $Z(s,f)=G(s,T(f,l_f),p)$.

By induction hypothesis, we may assume that $Z(s,f)=G(s,T(f,l_f),p)$, for every polynomial f satisfying both the hypothesis of the lemma, and the condition $1\leqq l_f\leqq k$, $k\in\mathbb{N}$.

Case $l_f = k+1$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$

Let $f(x)$ be a polynomial satisfying the lemma's hypothesis, and $l_f = k+1$, $k \geqq 1$. By applying SPF, we obtain that

$$Z(s,f) = p^{-1}\nu(\overline{f}) + \delta(\overline{f})\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-1-s}}{(1-p^{-1-s})} + \sum_{\xi \in S} p^{-1-e_\xi s}\int \mid f_\xi(x) \mid_p^s dx. \tag{5.10}$$

Now, since $l_{f_\xi} = l_f - 1$, for every $\xi \in S$, it follows from the induction hypothesis applied to each $f_\xi(x)$ in (5.10), that

$$Z(s,f) = p^{-1}\nu(\overline{f}) + \delta(\overline{f})\frac{(1-p^{-1})p^{-1-s}}{(1-p^{-1-s})} + \sum_{\xi \in S} p^{-1-e_\xi s} G(s, T(f_\xi, l_f - 1),\ p). \tag{5.11}$$

Finally, from identity (5.2), and (5.11), we conclude that

$$Z(s,f) = G(s, T(f, l_f), p). \tag{5.12}$$

∎

The following proposition gives a complexity estimate for the computation of $G(s, T(f, l_f), p)$.

Proposition 5.2. *The computation of the generating function*

$$G(s, T(f, l_f), p)$$

from $T(f, l_f)$, involves $O(l_f\ d_f)$ arithmetic operations on integers with binary length $O(\max\{\log p,$ $\log(\ l_f\ d_f)\})$.

Proof. This is a consequence of proposition 4.1, and the definition of generating function. ∎

6. Computation of p-adic Expansions

In this section we estimate the complexity of the steps 2 and 3 in the algorithm Compute_$Z(s,f)$.

Proposition 6.1. *Let*

$$B = \max_{\substack{1 \leq i,\ j \leq r \\ i \neq j}} \{ \mid c_{j,i} \mid, \mid d_{j,i} \mid \quad \mid \alpha_j - \alpha_i = \frac{c_{j,i}}{d_{j,i}},\ c_{j,i},\ d_{j,i} \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}\}.$$

The computation of the integer l_f involves $O(d_f^2 \frac{\log B}{\log p})$ arithmetic operations on integers with binary length $O(\max\{\log B, \log p\})$.

Proof. First, we observe that for $c \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$, the computation of $v_p(c)$ involves $O(\frac{\log|c|}{\log p})$ divisions of integers of binary length $O(\max\{\log \mid c \mid, \log p\})$. Thus the computation of $v_p(\frac{c}{d}) = v_p(c) - v_p(d)$, involves $O(\frac{\max\{\log|c|,\ \log|d|\}}{\log p})$ divisions and subtractions of integers with binary length

$$O(\max\{\log \mid c \mid, \log \mid d \mid, \log p\}).$$

From these observations follow that the computation of $v_p(\alpha_j - \alpha_i)$, $i \neq j$, $1 \leq i,\ j \leq r$, involves $O(r^2 \frac{\log B}{\log p})$ arithmetic operations on integers with binary length $O(\max\{\log B, \log p\})$. Finally, the computation of the maximum of the $v_p(\alpha_j - \alpha_i)$, $i \neq j$, $1 \leq i,\ j \leq r$, involves $O(\log r)$ comparisons of integers with binary length $O(\max\{\log B, \log p\})$. Therefore the

computation of the integer l_f involves at most $O(d_f^2 \frac{\log B}{\log p})$ arithmetic operations on integers with binary length $O(\max\{\log B, \log p\})$. ∎

Proposition 6.2. *Let p be a fixed prime and $\gamma = \frac{c}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$, with $c, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$, and $v_p(\gamma) \geqq 0$. The $p-$adic expansion*

$$\gamma = a_0 + a_1\, p + \cdots + a_j p^j + \cdots + a_m p^m,$$

modulo p^{m+1} involves $O(m+\log(\max\{\mid b \mid, p\}))$ arithmetic operations on integers with binary length $O(\max\{\log \mid c \mid, \log \mid b \mid, \log p\})$.

Proof. Let $y \in \{1, \cdots, p-1\}$ be an integer such that $yb \equiv 1 \bmod p$. This integer can be computed by means of the Euclidean algorithm in $O(\log(\max\{\mid b \mid, p\}))$ arithmetic operations involving integers of binary length $O(\max\{\log \mid b \mid, \log p\})$ (cf. [8, Volume 2, section 4.5.2]).

We set $\gamma = \gamma_0 = \frac{c}{b}$, $c_0 = c$, and define $a_0 \equiv yc \bmod p$. With this notation, the $p-$adic digits $a_i, i = 1, \cdots, m$, can be computed recursively as follows:

$$\gamma_i = \frac{\frac{(c_{i-1} - a_{i-1} b)}{p}}{b} = \frac{c_i}{b},$$

$$a_i = y c_i \bmod p.$$

Thus the computation of the $p-$adic expansion of γ needs $O(m + \log(\max\{\mid b \mid, p\}))$ arithmetic operations on integers with binary length

$$O(\max\{\log \mid c \mid,\ \log \mid b \mid,\ \log p\}).$$

∎

Corollary 6.1. *Let p be a fixed prime number and v_p the corresponding $p-$adic valuation, and*

$$f(x) = \alpha_0 \prod_{i=1}^{r} (x - \alpha_i)^{e_i} \in \mathbb{Q}[x],$$

a non-constant polynomial such that $v_p(\alpha_i) \geqq 0$, $i = 1, \cdots, r$. The computation of the $p-$adic expansions modulo p^{l_f+1} of the roots α_i, $i = 1, 2, \cdots, r$, of $f(x)$ involves $O(d_f\ l_f + d_f \log(\max\{B, p\}))$ arithmetic operations on integers with binary length $O(\max\{\log B, \log p\})$.

Proof. The corollary follows directly from the two previous propositions. ∎

7. Computing local zeta functions of polynomials with splitting $\mathbb{Q}$

In this section we prove the correctness of the algorithm Compute_$Z(s, f)$ and estimate its complexity.

Theorem 7.1. *The algorithm Compute_$Z(s, f)$ outputs the meromorphic continuation of the Igusa local zeta function $Z(s, f)$ of a polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, in one variable, with splitting field $\mathbb{Q}$. The number of arithmetic operations needed by the algorithm is*

$$O\left(d_f^6 + d_f^9 \log(\|f\|) + l_f^2 d_f^3 + d_f^2 \log\left(\max\{B, p\}\right)\right),$$

and the integers on which these operations are performed have a binary length

$$O\left(\max\{\log p,\ \log l_f d_f,\ \log B,\ d_f^3 + d_f^2 \log(\|f\|)\}\right).$$

Proof. By remark (3.1), we may assume without loss of generality that

$$f(x) = \alpha_0 \prod_{i=1}^{r} (x - \alpha_i)^{e_i} \in \mathbb{Q}[x] \setminus \mathbb{Q},$$

with $v_p(\alpha_i) \geqq 0$, $i = 1, \cdots, r$. The correctness of the algorithm follows from lemma 5.1. The complexity estimates are obtained as follows: the number of arithmetic operations needed in the steps 2 (cf. proposition 6.1), 3 (cf. corollary 6.1), 4 (cf. proposition 4.1), 5 (proposition 5.2), and 6 is at most

$$O\left(l_f^2 d_f^3 + d_f^2 \log\left(\max\{B, p\}\right)\right);$$

and these operations are performed on integers whose binary length is at most

$$O\left(\max\{\log p,\ \log l_f d_f, \log B\}\right).$$

The estimates for the whole algorithm follow from the above estimates and those of the factoring algorithm by A. K. Lenstra, H. Lenstra and L. Lovász (see theorem 3.6 of [17]). ∎

8. Stream Ciphers and Poincaré series

There is a natural connection between Poincaré series and stream ciphers. In order to explain this relation, we recall some basic facts about stream ciphers [18]. Let $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ be a finite field with p^n elements, with p a prime number. For any integer $r > 0$ and r fixed elements $q_i \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$, $i = 1, \cdots, r$ (called taps), a Linear Feedback Shift Register, abbreviated LFSR, of length r consists of r cells with initial contents $\{a_i \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n} \mid i = 1, \cdots, r\}$. For any $n \geqslant r$, if the current state is $(a_{n-1}, \cdots, a_{n-r})$, then a_n is determined by the linear recurrence relation

$$a_n = -\sum_{i=1}^{r} a_{n-i} q_i.$$

The device outputs the rightmost element a_{n-r}, shifts all the cells one unit right, and feeds a_n back to the leftmost cell.

Any configuration of the r cells forms a state of the LSFR. If $q_r \neq 0$, the following polynomial $q(x) \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n}[x]$ of degree r appears in the analysis of LFSRs:

$$q(x) = q_0 + q_1 x + \cdots . + q_r x^r \quad \text{with } q_0 = -1.$$

This polynomial is called the connection polynomial. An infinite sequence $A = \{a_i \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n} \mid i \in \mathbb{N}\}$ has period T if for any $i \geqslant 0$, $a_{i+T} = a_i$. Such a sequence is called periodic. If this is only true for i greater than some index i_0, then the sequence is called eventually periodic. The following facts about an LFSR of length r are well-known [18].

(1) There are only finitely many possible states, and the state with all the cells zero will produce a 0−sequence. The output sequence is eventually periodic and the maximal period is $p^{nr} - 1$.
(2) The Poincaré series $g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i x^i$ associated with the output sequence is called the generating function of the sequence. It is a rational function over $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ of the form $g(x) = \frac{L(x)}{R(x)}$, with $L(x)$, $R(X) \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n}[x]$, $\deg(R(X)) < r$. The output sequence is strictly periodic if and only if $\deg(L(X)) < \deg(R(X))$.
(3) There is a one-to-one correspondence between LFSRs of length r with $q_r \neq 0$ and rational functions $\frac{L(x)}{R(x)}$ with $\deg(R(X)) = r$ and $\deg(L(X)) < r$.

We set $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}(x)$ for the field of rational functions over $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$, and $N^{\infty}(\mathbb{F}_{p^n})$ for the set of sequences of the form $\{b_0, \cdots, b_u\}$, $b_i \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$, $0 \leq i \leq u$, $u \in \mathbb{N}$. From the above considerations, it is possible to identify an LFSR with a function F_u, $u \in \mathbb{N}$, defined as follows:

$$\begin{array}{rccc} F_u: & \mathbb{F}_{p^n}(x) & \rightarrow & N^{\infty}(\mathbb{F}_{p^n}) \\ & \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i x^i & \rightarrow & \{a_0, \cdots, a_u\}. \end{array} \tag{8.1}$$

We set

$$\mathcal{H} = \{H(t,f) \mid f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x], \text{ in one variable, with splitting field } \mathbb{Q}\},$$

and $N^{\infty}(\mathbb{Z})$ for the set of finite sequences of integers. Also, for each $u \in \mathbb{N}$, and a prime number p, we define

$$\begin{array}{rccc} F_{u,p}: & \mathcal{H} & \rightarrow & \mathbb{N}^{\infty}(\mathbb{Z}) \\ & H(t,f) & \rightarrow & \{N_0(f,p), N_1(f,p), \cdots, N_u(f,p)\}. \end{array} \tag{8.2}$$

Thus the mappings $F_{u,p}$ can be seen as LFSRs, or stream ciphers, over $\mathbb{Z}$. If we replace each $N_u(f,p)$ by its binary representation, then the $F_{u,p}$ are LFSRs. For practical purposes it is necessary that $F_{u,p}$ can be computed efficiently, i.e., in polynomial time. With the above notation our second result is the following.

Theorem 8.1. *For every $H(t,f) \in \mathcal{H}$, the computation of $F_{u,p}(H(t,f))$ involves $O(u^2 d_f l_f)$ arithmetic operations, and the integers on which these operations are performed have binary length*

$$O(\max\{\ (l_f + u)\log p,\ \ \log(d_f l_f)\}).$$

The proof of this theorem will be given at the end of this section. This proof requires some preliminary results. We set $t = q^{-s}$, and

$$Z(s,f) = Z(t,f) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} c_m(f,p) t^m,$$

with $c_m(f,p) = vol(\{x \in \mathbb{Z}_p \mid v_p(f(x)) = m\})$.

Proposition 8.1. *Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x] \setminus \mathbb{Z}$ be a polynomial in one variable and p a prime number. The following formula holds for $N_n(f,p)$:*

$$N_n(f,p) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \ n = 0; \\ p^n \left(1 - \sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{j-1}(f,p)\right), & \text{if } \ n \geqslant 1. \end{cases} \tag{8.3}$$

Proof. The result follows by comparing the coefficient of t^n of the series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{N_n(f,p)}{p^n} t^n \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_n t^n,$$

in the following equality :

$$H(t,f) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{N_n(f,p)}{p^n} t^n = \frac{1 - t\left(\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} c_m(f,p) t^m\right)}{1-t} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_n t^n.$$

∎

We associate to each $u \in T(f, l_f)$, and $j \in \mathbb{N}$, a rational integer $a_j(u)$ defined as follows:

$$a_j(u) = \begin{cases} \frac{(p-1)}{p^{l(u)+1+y(u)}}, & \text{if} \quad l(u) = 1 + l_f,\ W(u) \geqq 2,\ j = W^*(B_u) + y(u)W(u), \\ & \qquad \text{for some } y(u) \in \mathbb{N}; \\ \frac{(p-Val(u))}{p^{l(u)+1}}, & \text{if} \quad 0 \leqq l(u) \leqq l_f,\ W(u) \neq 1,\ j = W^*(B_u); \\ \frac{(p-1)}{p^{l(u)+1+y(u)}}, & \text{if} \quad u \in \mathcal{M}_{T(f,l_f)}, j = W^*(B_u) + y(u), \\ & \qquad \text{for some } y(u) \in \mathbb{N}; \\ 0, & \text{if} \quad W(u) = 1, \text{ and } u \notin \mathcal{M}_{T(f,l_f)}; \\ 0, & \qquad \text{in other cases.} \end{cases} \tag{8.4}$$

Proposition 8.2. *Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x] \setminus \mathbb{Z}$ be a polynomial in one variable, with splitting field $\mathbb{Q}$, and p a prime number. The following formula holds:*

$$c_j(f, p) = \sum_{u \in T(f,l_f)} a_j(u),\ j \geqq 0. \tag{8.5}$$

Proof. As a consequence of lemma (5.1), we have the following identity:

$$Z(t, f) = \sum_{u \in T(f,l_f)} L_u(t), \tag{8.6}$$

with

$$L_u(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{(p-1)t^{W^*(B_u)}}{p^{l(u)+1}(1-p^{-1}t^{\,W(u)})}, & \text{if} \quad l(u) = 1 + l_f,\ W(u) \geqq 2; \\ \frac{(p-Val(u))}{p^{l(u)+1}} t^{W^*(B_u)}, & \text{if} \quad 0 \leqq l(u) \leqq l_f,\ W(u) \neq 1; \\ \frac{(p-1)t^{W^*(B_u)}}{p^{l(u)+1}(1-p^{-1}t)}, & \text{if} \quad u \in \mathcal{M}_{T(f,l_f)}; \\ 0, & \text{if} \quad W(u) = 1, \text{ and } u \notin \mathcal{M}_{T(f,l_f)}. \end{cases} \tag{8.7}$$

The result follows by comparing the coefficient of t^j in the series $Z(t, f) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} c_m(f, p)t^m$, and $Z(t, f) = \sum_{u \in T(f,l_f)} L_u(t)$. ∎

Proposition 8.3. *Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x] \setminus \mathbb{Z}$ be a polynomial in one variable, with splitting field $\mathbb{Q}$, and p a prime number.*

1. *The computation of $N_n(f, p)$, $n \geqq 1$, from the $c_{j-1}(f, p)$, $j = 1, \cdots, n$, involves $O(n)$ arithmetic operations on integers with binary length $O(n \log p)$.*
2. *The computation of $c_j(f, p)$, $j \geqq 0$, from $Z(t, f)$, involves $O(d_f l_f)$ arithmetic operations on integers with binary length*

$$O(\max\{(j + l_f) \log p, \log p, \log(d_f l_f)\}).$$

(3) *The computation of any* $N_n(f,p)$, $n \geqq 1$, *from* $Z(t,f)$, *involves* $O(nd_f l_f)$ *arithmetic operations on integers with binary length*

$$O(\max\{(n+l_f)\log p, \log(d_f l_f)\}).$$

Proof. (1) By (8.4) and (8.5), $c_j(f,p) = \frac{v_j}{p^{m_j}}$, $v_j, m_j \in \mathbb{N}$. In addition,

$$c_{j-1}(f,p) = p^{-j+1}N_{j-1}(f,p) - p^{-j}N_j(f,p).$$

Thus $p^n c_{j-1}(f,p) \in \mathbb{N}$, for $j = 1, \cdots, n$, and $m_j \leq n$, for $j = 1, \cdots, n$. From (8.3), it follows that

$$N_n(f,p) = p^n - \sum_{j=1}^{n} p^n c_{j-1}(f,p), \ n \geqslant 1. \tag{8.8}$$

The above formula implies that the computation of $N_n(f,p)$, $n \geqq 1$, from the $c_{j-1}(f,p)$, $j = 1, \cdots, n$, involves $O(n)$ arithmetic operations on integers with binary length $O(n \log p)$.

(2) The computation of $a_j(u)$ from $L_u(t)$ (i.e. from $Z(t,f)$, cf. (8.6)) involves $O(1)$ arithmetic operations (cf. (8.4), (8.7)) on integers of binary length $O(\max\{\log p, \log(d_f l_f)\})$. Indeed, since the numbers $l(u)$, $W^*(B_u)$, $W(u)$, $u \in T(f,l_f)$ are involved in this computation, we know by proposition 4.1 that their binary length is bounded by $O(\max\{\log p, \log(d_f l_f)\})$.

The cost of computing $c_j(f,p)$ from $L_u(t)$, $u \in T(f,l_f)$ (i.e. from $Z(t,f)$) is bounded by the number of vertices of $T(f,l_f)$ multiplied by an upper bound for the cost of computing $a_j(u)$ from $L_u(t)$, for any j, and u (cf. (8.5)). Therefore, from the previous discussion the cost of computing $c_j(f,p)$ from $Z(t,f)$ is bounded by $O(d_f\, l_f)$ arithmetic operations. These arithmetic operations are performed on integers of binary length bounded by $O(\max\{(j+l_f)\log p, \log p, \log(d_f l_f)\})$. Indeed, the binary lengths of the numerator and the denominator of $a_j(u) + a_j(u')$, u, $u' \in T(f,l_f)$ are bounded by $(l_f + 1 + j)\log p$ (cf. (8.4)). Thus, the mentioned arithmetic operations for calculating $c_j(f,p)$ from $L_u(t)$ are performed on integers whose binary length is bounded by $O(\max\{(j+l_f)\log p, \log p, \log(d_f l_f)\})$.

(3) The third part follows the first and second parts by (8.8). ∎

8.1. **Proof of Theorem 8.1.** The theorem follows from proposition 8.3 (3).

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