# Explicit equivalence of quadratic forms over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ 

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#### Abstract

We propose a randomized polynomial time algorithm for computing non-trivial zeros of quadratic forms in 4 or more variables over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$, where $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ is a finite field of odd characteristic. The algorithm is based on a suitable splitting of the form into two forms and finding a common value they both represent. We make use of an effective formula for the number of fixed degree irreducible polynomials in a given residue class. We apply our algorithms for computing a Witt decomposition of a quadratic form, for computing an explicit isometry between quadratic forms and finding zero divisors in quaternion algebras over quadratic extensions of $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$.


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## 1 Introduction

In this paper we consider algorithmic questions concerning quadratic forms over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ where $q$ denotes an odd prime power. The main focus is on the problem of finding a non-trivial zero of a quadratic form. The complexity of the problem of finding non-trivial zeros of quadratic forms in three variables has already been considered in ( 4, , 9 ). However the same problem concerning quadratic forms of higher dimensions remained open.

Similarly, in the the case of quadratic forms over $\mathbb{Q}$, the algorithmic problem of finding nontrivial zeros of 3 -dimensional forms was considered in several papers ( $5,[10$ ) and afterwards Simon and Castel proposed an algorithm for finding non-trivial zeros of quadratic forms of higher dimensions ([19], $3 \boldsymbol{3})$. The algorithms for the low-dimensional cases (dimension 3 and 4) run in polynomial time if one is allowed to call oracles for integer factorization. Surprisingly, the case where the quadratic form is of dimension at least 5, Castel's algorithm runs in polynomial time without the use of oracles. Note that, by the classical Hasse-Minkowski theorem, a 5dimensional quadratic form over $\mathbb{Q}$ is always isotropic if it is indefinite.

Here we consider the question of isotropy of quadratic forms in 4 or more variables over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. The main idea of the algorithm is to split the form into two forms and find a common value they both represent. Here we apply two important facts. There is an effective bound on the number of irreducible polynomials in an arithmetic progression of a given degree. An asymptotic formula, which is effective for large $q$, was proven by Kornblum [11], but for our purposes, we apply a version with a much better error term, due to Rhin [16, Chapter 2, Section 6, Theorem 4]. However, that statement is slightly more general; hence we cite a specialized version from [21]. A short survey on the history of this result can be found in [6, Section 5.3.]. The other fact we use is the local-global principle for quadratic forms over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ due to Rauter [15].

Finally we solve these two equations separately using the algorithm from [4] and our Algorithm 1 in the 5 -variable case. In the 4 -dimensional case we are also able to detect if a quadratic form is anisotropic; note that a 5 -dimensional form over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ is always isotropic. The algorithms are randomized and run in polynomial time. We also give several applications of these algorithms. Most importantly, we propose an algorithm which computes a transition matrix of two equivalent quadratic forms.

The paper is divided into five sections. Section 2 provides theoretical and algorithmic results concerning quadratic forms over fields. Namely, we give a general introduction over arbitrary fields and then over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$, which is followed by a version of the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization procedure which gives control of the size of the output.

In Section 3 we present the crucial ingredients of our algorithms. In Section 4 we describe the main algorithms and analyze their running time and the size of their output. In Section 5 we use the main algorithms to compute explicit equivalence of quadratic forms. In the final section we apply our results to find zero divisors in quaternion algebras over quadratic extensions of $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ or, equivalently, to find zeros of ternary quadratic forms over quadratic extensions of $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. The material of this part is the natural analogue of that presented in [12] over quadratic number fields.

## 2 Preliminaries

This section is divided into five parts. The first recalls the basics of the algebraic theory of quadratic forms and quadratic spaces over an arbitrary field of characteristic different from 2. In the second part we give a brief overview of valuations of the field $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ where $q$ denotes an odd prime power. The third part is devoted to some results about quadratic forms over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ that we will use later on. It is followed by a discussion of a version of the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization procedure over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ with complexity analysis. The section is concluded with some known algorithmic results about finding non-trivial zeros of binary and ternary quadratic forms over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$.

### 2.1 Quadratic forms over fields

This subsection is based on Chapter I of [13]. Here $\mathbb{F}$ will denote a field such that char $\mathbb{F} \neq 2$.
A quadratic form over $\mathbb{F}$ is a homogeneous polynomial $Q$ of degree two in $n$ variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ for some $n$. Two quadratic forms are called equivalent if they can be obtained from each other by a homogeneous linear change of the variables. By such a change we mean that each variable $x_{j}$ is substituted by the polynomial $\sum_{i=1}^{n} b_{i j} x_{i}(j=1, \ldots, n)$. The $n \times n$ matrix
$B=\left(b_{i j}\right)$ over $\mathbb{F}$ has to be invertible as otherwise there is no appropriate substitution in the reverse direction. The matrix of $Q$ is the unique symmetric $n$ by $n$ matrix $A=\left(a_{i j}\right)$ with $Q\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{i, j} x_{i} x_{j}$. We will also refer to this as the Gram matrix of the quadratic form. The determinant of a quadratic form is the determinant of its matrix. We call $Q$ regular if its matrix has non-zero determinant and diagonal if its matrix is diagonal. We say that $Q$ is isotropic if the equation $Q\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=0$ admits a non-trivial solution and anisotropic otherwise. Two quadratic forms with Gram matrices $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ are then equivalent if and only if there exists an invertible $n$ by $n$ matrix $B \in M_{n}(\mathbb{F})$, such that $A_{2}=B^{T} A_{1} B$; equivalently, $A_{1}=B^{-1^{T}} A_{2} B^{-1}$. Here $B$ is just the matrix of the change of variables defined above. We will use the term transition matrix for such a $B$. Two regular unary quadratic forms $a x^{2}$ and $b x^{2}$ are equivalent if and only if $a / b$ is a square in $\mathbb{F}^{*}$. In other words, equivalence classes of regular unary quadratic forms correspond to the elements of the factor group $\mathbb{F}^{*} /\left(\mathbb{F}^{*}\right)^{2}$.

Every quadratic form is equivalent to a diagonal one, see the discussion of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization in the context of quadratic spaces below and in Subsection [2.4. A regular diagonal quadratic form $Q\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}$ is isotropic if and only if $-a_{2} / a_{1}$ is a square in $\mathbb{F}^{*}$. Binary quadratic forms that are regular and isotropic at the same time are called hyperbolic. If $\left(\beta_{1}, \beta_{2}\right)$ is a non-trivial zero of $Q$ then $\gamma=2\left(a_{1} \beta_{1}^{2}-a_{2} \beta_{2}^{2}\right)$ is non-zero and the substitution $x_{1} \leftarrow \beta_{1} x_{1}+\frac{\beta_{1}}{\gamma} x_{2}, x_{2} \leftarrow \beta_{2} x_{1}-\frac{\beta_{2}}{\gamma} x_{2}$ provides an equivalence of $Q$ with the form $x_{1} x_{2}$. Another, diagonal standard hyperbolic is $x_{1}^{2}-x_{2}^{2}$. The standard forms $x_{1} x_{2}$ and $x_{1}^{2}-x_{2}^{2}$ are equivalent via the substitution $x_{1} \leftarrow \frac{1}{2} x_{1}+\frac{1}{2} x_{2}, x_{2} \leftarrow \frac{1}{2} x_{1}-\frac{1}{2} x_{2}$; the inverse of this substitution is $x_{1} \leftarrow x_{1}+x_{2}$, $x_{2} \leftarrow x_{1}-x_{2}$.

A regular ternary quadratic form is equivalent to a diagonal form $c\left(a x_{1}^{2}+b x_{2}^{2}-a b x_{3}^{2}\right)$ for some $a, b, c \in \mathbb{F}^{*}$. To see this, note that the diagonal form $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}$ is equivalent to

$$
-a_{1} a_{2} a_{3}\left(\frac{-a_{1}}{a_{1} a_{2} a_{3}} x_{1}^{2}+\frac{-a_{2}}{a_{1} a_{2} a_{3}} x_{2}^{2}-\frac{a_{1} a_{2}}{\left(a_{1} a_{2} a_{3}\right)^{2}} x_{3}^{2}\right)=a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+\frac{1}{a_{3}} x_{3}^{2}
$$

via the substitution $x_{3} \rightarrow \frac{1}{a_{3}} x_{3}$. A related object is the quaternion algebra $H_{\mathbb{F}}(a, b)$ with $a, b \in \mathbb{F}^{*}$. This is the associative algebra over $\mathbb{F}$ with identity element, generated by $u$ and $v$ with defining relations $u^{2}=a, v^{2}=b, u v=-v u$. It can be readily seen that $H_{\mathbb{F}}(a, b)$ is a four-dimensional algebra over $\mathbb{F}$ with basis $1, u, v, u v$ whose center is the subalgebra consisting of the multiples of 1 . It is also known that $H_{\mathbb{F}}(a, b)$ is either a division algebra or it is isomorphic to the full 2 by 2 matrix algebra over $\mathbb{F}$. Any non-zero element $z$ of $H_{\mathbb{F}}(a, b)$ with $z^{2}=0$ can be written as a linear combination of $u, v$ and $u v$. Also, $\left(\alpha_{1} u+\alpha_{2} v+\alpha_{3} u v\right)^{2}=\left(a \alpha_{1}^{2}+b \alpha_{2}^{2}-a b \alpha_{3}^{2}\right) 1$, where $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3} \in \mathbb{F}$. Hence finding a non-zero nilpotent element $z$ of $H_{\mathbb{F}}(a, b)$ is equivalent to computing a non-trivial zero of the quadratic form $a x_{1}^{2}+b x_{2}^{2}-a b x_{3}^{2}$. In particular, isotropy of $a x_{1}^{2}+b x_{2}^{2}-a b x_{3}^{2}$ is equivalent to $H_{\mathbb{F}}(a, b)$ being isomorphic to a full matrix algebra.

It will be convenient to present certain parts of this paper in the framework of quadratic spaces. These offer a coordinate-free approach to quadratic forms. A quadratic space over $\mathbb{F}$ is a pair $(V, h)$ consisting of a vector space $V$ over $\mathbb{F}$ and a symmetric bilinear function $h: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$. Throughout this paper all vector spaces will be finite dimensional. To a quadratic form $Q$ having Gram matrix $A$ the associated bilinear function $h$ is $h(u, v)=u^{T} A v$ for $u, v \in \mathbb{F}^{n}$. Conversely, if $(V, h)$ is an $n$-dimensional quadratic space, then, for any basis $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$, we can define its Gram matrix $A=\left(a_{i j}\right)$ with respect to the given basis by putting $a_{i j}=h\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$. Then $Q\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=\underline{x}^{T} A \underline{x}$ is a quadratic form where $\underline{x}$ stands for the column vector $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)^{T}$. The quadratic form obtained from $h$ using another basis will be a form equivalent to $Q$. Let $(V, h)$ and $\left(V^{\prime}, h^{\prime}\right)$ be quadratic spaces. Then a linear bijection $\phi: V \rightarrow V^{\prime}$ is an isometry if $h^{\prime}\left(\phi\left(v_{1}\right), \phi\left(v_{2}\right)\right)=h\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right)$ for every $v_{1}, v_{2} \in V$. We say that $(V, h)$ and $\left(V^{\prime}, h^{\prime}\right)$
are isometric if there is an isometry $\phi: V \rightarrow V^{\prime}$. Equivalent quadratic forms give isometric quadratic spaces and to isometric quadratic spaces equivalent quadratic forms are associated. Moreover, the following holds. Let $(V, h)$ and $\left(V^{\prime}, h^{\prime}\right)$ be quadratic spaces. Let $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$ be a basis of $V$ and let $v_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, v_{n}^{\prime}$ be a basis of $V^{\prime}$. Suppose that $\phi$ is an isometry between $V$ and $V^{\prime}$. Then $\phi\left(v_{i}\right)=\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{i j} v_{j}^{\prime}$ where $b_{i j} \in \mathbb{F}$. Let $A$ be the Gram matrix of $h$ in the basis $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$ and let $A^{\prime}$ be the Gram matrix of $h^{\prime}$ in the basis $v_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, v_{n}^{\prime}$. If $B \in M_{n}(\mathbb{F})$ is equal to the matrix $\left(b_{i j}\right)$ then $A=B^{T} A^{\prime} B$.

Let $(V, h)$ be a quadratic space. We say that two vectors $u$ and $v$ from $V$ are orthogonal if $h(u, v)=0$. An orthogonal basis is a basis consisting of pairwise orthogonal vectors. The well-known Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization procedure provides an algorithm for constructing orthogonal bases. We will discuss some details in the context of quadratic spaces over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ in Subsection 2.4. With respect to an orthogonal basis, the Gram matrix is diagonal. Therefore the Gram-Schmidt procedure gives a way of computing diagonal forms equivalent to given quadratic forms. The orthogonal complement of a subspace $U \leq V$ is the subspace

$$
U^{\perp}=\{v: h(u, v)=0 \text { for every } u \in U\} .
$$

The subspace $V^{\perp}$ is called the radical of $(V, h)$; here, $(V, h)$ is called regular if its radical is zero. A quadratic space is regular if and only if at least one of, or equivalently, each of the quadratic forms associated to it using various bases is regular.

The orthogonal sum of $(V, h)$ and ( $V^{\prime}, h^{\prime}$ ) is the quadratic space $\left(V \oplus V^{\prime}, h \oplus h^{\prime}\right.$ ) where $h \oplus h^{\prime}\left(\left(v_{1}, v_{1}^{\prime}\right),\left(v_{2}, v_{2}^{\prime}\right)\right)=h\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right)+h^{\prime}\left(v_{1}^{\prime}, v_{2}^{\prime}\right)$; here, $v_{1}, v_{2} \in V$ and $v_{1}^{\prime}, v_{2}^{\prime} \in V^{\prime}$. The inner version of this is a decomposition of $V$ into the direct sum of two subspaces $V$ and $V^{\prime}$ with $V \leq V^{\prime \perp}$ and $V^{\prime} \leq V^{\perp}$. An orthogonal basis gives a decomposition into the orthogonal sum of one-dimensional quadratic spaces.

A non-zero vector in a quadratic space is called isotropic if it is orthogonal to itself. Isotropic vectors correspond to non-trivial zeros of quadratic forms. A quadratic space is isotropic if it admits isotropic vectors and anisotropic otherwise. A quadratic space $(V, h)$ is totally isotropic if $h$ is identically zero on $V \times V$. This is equivalent to that every non-zero vector in $V$ is isotropic; here, char $\mathbb{F} \neq 2$. Every subspace $U \leq V$ in a quadratic space $(V, h)$ is also a quadratic space with the restriction of $h$ to $U$. A subspace of $V$ is called isotropic, anisotropic, totally isotropy if it is isotropic, anisotropic, totally isotropic as a quadratic space with the restriction of $h$. A quadratic space can be decomposed as an orthogonal sum of a totally isotropic subspace, necessarily the radical of the whole space, and a regular space, which can actually be any of the direct complements of the radical. A two-dimensional quadratic space is called a hyperbolic plane if it is regular and isotropic. Such spaces correspond to hyperbolic binary forms.
Theorem 1 (Witt). Let ( $V, h$ ) be a quadratic space over $\mathbb{F}$. Then $V$ can be decomposed as the orthogonal sum of $V_{0}$, a totally isotropic space, $V_{h}$, which is an orthogonal sum of hyperbolic planes, and an anisotropic space $V_{a}$. Such a decomposition is called a Witt decomposition of $(V, h)$ and the number $\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{dim}\left(V_{h}\right)$ is called the Witt index of $(V, h)$. Here $V_{0}$ is the radical. The Witt index and the isometry class of the anisotropic part $V_{a}$ do not depend on the particular Witt decomposition. In turn, two quadratic spaces are isometric if and only if their radicals have the same dimension, their Witt indices coincide and their anisotropic parts are isometric.

A proof of this theorem can be found in [13, Chapter I, Theorem 4.1.]. There is another interpretation of the Witt index concerning totally isotropic subspaces.

Proposition 2. Let $(V, h)$ be a regular quadratic space with Witt index $m$. Then the dimension of every maximal totally isotropic subspace is $m$.

The proof of this proposition can be found in [13, Chapter I, Corollary 4.4.]. By the following fact, the Witt decomposition has implications to equivalence of quadratic forms.

Proposition 3. Two regular quadratic spaces $(V, h)$ and $\left(V^{\prime}, h^{\prime}\right)$ having the same dimension are isometric if and only if the orthogonal sum of $(V, h)$ and $\left(V^{\prime},-h^{\prime}\right)$ can be decomposed as an orthogonal sum of hyperbolic planes.

The proof of this proposition can be found in [7, Proposition 2.46.].
Thus, deciding isotropy of quadratic spaces or, equivalently, deciding equivalence of quadratic forms can be reduced to computing Witt decompostions. In Chapter 5 we will show that such a reduction exists even for computing isometries and explicitly for computing transition matrices.

### 2.2 Valuations and completions of $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$

We recall some facts about valuations ([14]). A discrete (exponential) valuation of a field $K$ is a map $v: K \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \cup\{\infty\}$ such that for every $a, b \in K$, (1) $v(a)=\infty$ if and only if $a=0$, (2) $v(a b)=v(a)+v(b)$ and $(3) v(a+b) \geq \min \{v(a), v(b)\}$. A valuation is called trivial if $v(a)$ is identically zero on $K \backslash\{0\}$. Let $v$ be a non-trivial discrete valuation of $K$ and let $r$ be any real number greater than one. Then $d_{v, r}(a, b)=r^{-v(a-b)}$ is a metric on $K$. The topology induced on $K$ by this metric does not depend on the choice of $r$ and will also remain the same if we replace $v$ with a multiple by any positive integer. Let $K_{v}$ be the completion of $K$ with respect to any of the metrics $d_{v, r}$. The natural extension of the field operations $K_{v}$ makes $K_{v}$ a field. Furthermore, a natural extension of $v$ is a discrete valuation of $K_{v}$. The elements $a$ of $K$ with $v(a) \geq 0$ form a subring of $K$, called the valuation ring corresponding to $v$. The valuation ring is a local ring in which every ideal is a power of the maximal ideal, called the valuation ideal, consisting of the elements $a$ with $v(a)>0$. The residue field is the factor of the valuation ring by the valuation ideal.

We define the degree of a non-zero rational function from $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ as the difference of the degrees of its numerator and denominator. Together with the convention that the degree of the zero polynomial is $-\infty$, the negative of the degree function, that is, the degree of the denominator minus the degree of the numerator, gives a discrete valuation of $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. This is the valuation at infinity. All the other non-trivial valuations are associated to irreducible polynomials from $\mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ via the following construction ( $\left[7\right.$, Theorem 3.15.]). If $f(t) \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ is an irreducible polynomial, then we can define $v_{f}(h(t))$ as the difference of the multiplicities of $f(t)$ in the denominator and numerator of $h(t)$. We will denote by $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)_{(f)}$ the completion of $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ with respect to $v_{f}$. As an example, for $f(t)=t, \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)_{(t)}$ is isomorphic to the field of Laurent series in $t$ over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ and the valuation ring inside this consists of the power series in $t$. We remark that the valuation at infinity can be obtained in a similar way: Put $t^{\prime}=1 / t$. Then every non-zero polynomial $g(t) \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ can be written as $t^{\prime-\operatorname{deg} g(t)}$ times a polynomial from $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left[t^{\prime}\right]$ with non-zero constant term. It follows that the degree of a rational function in $t$ coincides with the difference of the exponents of the highest power of $t^{\prime}$ dividing a pair polynomials in $t^{\prime}$ expressing the same function as a fraction. This implies that the completion of $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ with respect to the negative of the degree function is $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)$, the field of formal Laurent series in $\frac{1}{t}$.

We refer to equivalence classes of valuations as primes of $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. The term infinite prime or infinity is used for valuations equivalent to the negative of the degree, while the finite primes correspond to the monic irreducible polynomials of $\mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$. We shall refer to certain properties satisfied at the completion corresponding to a prime, for example, isotropy of a quadratic form over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$, as behaviors at the prime.

### 2.3 Quadratic forms over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$

In this subsection we recall some basic facts about quadratic forms over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ and its completions, where $q$ is an odd prime power. The main focus is on the question of isotropy of such forms. We start with two useful facts concerning quadratic forms over finite fields. The first one was already established earlier in Section 2.1.

Fact 4. (1) Let $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}$ be a non-degenerate quadratic form over a field $\mathbb{F}$. Then it is isotropic if and only if $-a_{1} a_{2}$ is a square in $\mathbb{F}$.
(2) Every non-degenerate quadratic form over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ with at least three variables is isotropic.

Remark 5. If $\mathbb{F}=\mathbb{F}_{q}$ then to check whether an element $s \neq 0$ in $\mathbb{F}$ is a square or not, compute $s^{\frac{q-1}{2}}$ and check whether it is 1 or -1 . Hence due to Fact 4 there is a deterministic polynomial time algorithm for checking whether $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}=0$ is solvable over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ or not.

Now we turn our attention to quadratic forms over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ and their completions. The first lemma deals with quadratic forms in three variables.

Lemma 6. Let $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ be non-zero polynomials. Let $f$ be a monic irreducible polynomial. Let $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)_{(f)}$ denote the $f$-adic completion of $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. Let $v_{f}\left(a_{i}\right)$ denote the multiplicity of $f$ in the prime decomposition of $a_{i}$.
(1) If $v_{f}\left(a_{1}\right) \equiv v_{f}\left(a_{2}\right) \equiv v_{f}\left(a_{3}\right)(\bmod 2)$ then the equation $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}=0$ is solvable in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)_{(f)}$.
(2) Suppose that not all the $v_{f}\left(a_{i}\right)$ have the same parity, and that $v_{f}\left(a_{i}\right) \equiv v_{f}\left(a_{j}\right)(\bmod 2)$. Then the equation $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}=0$ is solvable in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)_{(f)}$ if and only if $-f^{-v_{f}\left(a_{i} a_{j}\right)} a_{i} a_{j}$ is a square modulo $f$.

Proof. First assume that all $v_{f}\left(a_{i}\right)$ have the same parity. By a change of variables, we may assume that either $v_{f}\left(a_{i}\right)=0$ for all $i$ or $v_{f}\left(a_{i}\right)=1$. In the second case we can divide the equation by $f$ so we may assume that none of the $a_{i}$ are divisible by $f$. We obtain an equivalent form whose coefficients are units in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)_{(f)}$. An equation $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}=0$ where all $a_{i}$ are units in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)_{(f)}$ is solvable by [13, Chapter VI, Corollary 2.5.].

Now we turn to the second claim. By a change of variables we may assume that all the $a_{i}$ are square-free. This results in two cases. Either $f$ divides exactly one of the $a_{i}$ or $f$ divides exactly two of the $a_{i}$. First we consider the case where $f$ divides exactly one, say $a_{1}$ (hence now $v_{f}\left(a_{2}\right)=v_{f}\left(a_{3}\right)=0$ and $\left.v_{f}\left(a_{1}\right)=1\right)$.

The necessity of $-a_{2} a_{3}$ being a square modulo $f$ is trivial since otherwise the equation $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}=0$ is not solvable modulo $f$. Now assume that $-a_{2} a_{3}$ is a square modulo $f$. This implies that $-\frac{a_{2}}{a_{3}}$ is a square as well. Note that $-\frac{a_{2}}{a_{3}}$ is a unit in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)_{(f)}$. Hence, by Hensel's lemma, $-\frac{a_{2}}{a_{3}}$ is a square in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)_{(f)}$. Now solvability follows from Fact 4 .

Now let us consider the case where $f$ divides exactly two coefficients, say $a_{2}$ and $a_{3}$. We apply the following change of variables: $x_{2} \leftarrow x_{2} / f$ and $x_{3} \leftarrow x_{3} / f$. Now we have the equivalent equation $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2}\left(x_{2} / f\right)^{2}+a_{3}\left(x_{3} / f\right)^{2}=0$. We multiply this equation by $f$ and get the equation $f a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} / f x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} / f x_{3}^{2}=0$. This equation is solvable in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)_{(f)}$ if and only if $\frac{-a_{2} a_{3}}{f^{2}}$ is a square modulo $f$ by the previous point, since $f$ only divides one of the coefficients.

The previous lemma characterized solvability at a finite prime. The next one considers the question of solvability at infinity.

Lemma 7. Let $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ be non-zero polynomials. Then the following hold:
(1) If the degrees of the $a_{i}$ all have the same parity then the equation $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}=0$ admits a non-trivial solution in $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)\right)$.
(2) Assume that not all of the degrees of the $a_{i}$ have the same parity. Also assume that $\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right) \equiv$ $\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{j}\right)(\bmod 2)$. Let $c_{i}$ and $c_{j}$ be the leading coefficients of $a_{i}$ and $a_{j}$ respectively. Then the equation $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}=0$ has a non-trivial solution in $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)\right)$ if and only if $-c_{i} c_{j}$ is a square in $\mathbb{F}_{q}$.

Proof. Let $u=1 / t$ and $d_{i}=\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)$. Substitute $x_{i} \leftarrow y_{i} u^{d_{i}}$. The coefficient of $y_{i}^{2}$ becomes $a_{i}^{\prime}=u^{2 d_{i}} a_{i}$. Notice that $a_{i}^{\prime}=u^{d_{i}} b_{i}$ where $b_{i}$ is a polynomial in $u$ with non-zero constant term $c_{i}$. It follows that $v_{u}\left(a_{i}^{\prime}\right)=d_{i}$ and the residue of $u^{-d_{i}} a_{i}$ modulo $u$ is $c_{i}$. Thus both statements follow from Lemma 6 applied to $f=u$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}[u]$.

Remark 8. A four-dimensional form is always isotropic at infinity if three of its coefficient have the same degree parity. Indeed, let $a_{i}$ be the coefficient whose degree parity is different. Then setting $x_{i}=0$ and applying Lemma 7, (1) implies the desired result.

The next lemmas deal with local solvability of quadratic forms in 4 variables.
Lemma 9. Let $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ be square-free polynomials. Let $f \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ be a monic irreducible dividing exactly two of the coefficients, $a_{i}$ and $a_{j}$. Let the other two coefficients be $a_{k}$ and $a_{l}$. Then the equation $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}+a_{4} x_{4}^{2}=0$ is solvable in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)_{(f)}$ if and only if at least one of the two conditions holds:
(1) $-a_{k} a_{l}$ is a square modulo $f$;
(2) $-\left(a_{i} / f\right)\left(a_{j} / f\right)$ is a square modulo $f$.

Proof. First we prove that if any of these conditions hold, the equation is locally solvable at $f$. If the first condition holds we apply Lemma 6 to show the existence of a non-trivial solution with $x_{i}=0$. If the second condition holds we apply the following change of variables: $x_{i} \leftarrow x_{i} / f, x_{j} \leftarrow x_{j} / f$. With these variables we have the following equation:

$$
a_{i}\left(x_{i} / f\right)^{2}+a_{j}\left(x_{j} / f\right)^{2}+a_{k} x_{k}^{2}+a_{l} x_{l}^{2}=0 .
$$

By multiplying this equation by $f$ we get an equation where the coefficients of $x_{i}$ and $x_{j}$ are not divisible by $f$ and the the other two are. Now applying Lemma 6 again proves the result.

Now we prove the converse. If the equation $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}+a_{4} x_{4}^{2}=0$ has a solution in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)_{(f)}$ then it has a solution in the valuation ring of $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)_{(f)}$. We denote this ring by $O$. Let $u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}, u_{4} \in O$ be a solution satisfying that not all of them are divisible by $f$. Let us consider the equation modulo $f$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{1} u_{1}^{2}+a_{2} u_{2}^{2}+a_{3} u_{3}^{2}+a_{4} u_{4}^{2} \equiv 0(\bmod f) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The rest of the proof is divided into subcases depending on how many of $u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}, u_{4}$ are divisible by $f$.

If none are divisible by $f$ then we get that $a_{k} u_{k}^{2}+a_{l} u_{l}^{2} \equiv 0(\bmod f)$. Therefore $-a_{k} a_{l}$ is a square modulo $f$.

Assume that $f$ divides exactly one of the $u_{r}$. If $r=i$ or $r=j$ we again have that $a_{k} u_{k}^{2}+a_{l} u_{l}^{2} \equiv 0(\bmod f)$, so $-a_{k} a_{l}$ is again a square modulo $f$. Observe that $r$ cannot be $k$ or $l$ since then equation (1) would not be satisfied.

Now consider the case where $f$ divides exactly two of the $u_{r}$. If $f$ divides $u_{i}$ and $u_{j}$ we have again that $a_{k} u_{k}^{2}+a_{l} u_{l}^{2} \equiv 0(\bmod f)$. The next subcase is when $f$ divides exactly one of $u_{i}$ and $u_{j}$, and exactly one of $u_{k}$ and $u_{l}$. Assume that $u_{i}$ and $u_{k}$ are the ones divisible by $f$. This cannot happen since then $a_{i} u_{i}^{2}+a_{j} u_{j}^{2}+a_{k} u_{k}^{2}+a_{l} u_{l}^{2} \equiv a_{l} u_{l}^{2}(\bmod f)$ and hence the left-hand side of equation (1) would not be divisible by $f$. Finally assume that $u_{k}$ and $u_{l}$ are divisible by $f$. Let $u_{k}^{\prime}:=u_{k} / f$ and $u_{l}^{\prime}:=u_{l} / f$. We have that $a_{1} u_{1}^{2}+a_{2} u_{2}^{2}+a_{3} u_{3}^{2}+a_{4} u_{4}^{2}=0$. We divide this equation by $f$ and obtain the equation $\left(a_{i} / f\right) u_{i}^{2}+\left(a_{j} / f\right) u_{j}^{2}+f a_{k} u_{k}^{\prime 2}+f a_{l} u_{l}^{\prime 2}=0$. We have already seen that this implies that $-\left(a_{i} / f\right)\left(a_{j} / f\right)$ is a square modulo $f$.

Now suppose that three of the $u_{r}$ are divisible by $f$. Observe that $u_{k}$ and $u_{l}$ must be divisible by $f$ since otherwise (1) would not be satisfied. Assume that $u_{i}$ is not divisible by $f$. However, this cannot happen, because $a_{1} u_{1}^{2}+a_{2} u_{2}^{2}+a_{3} u_{3}^{2}+a_{4} u_{4}^{2} \equiv a_{i} u_{i}^{2} \not \equiv 0\left(\bmod f^{2}\right)$.

The next lemma is the version of Lemma 9 at infinity.
Lemma 10. Let $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ be square-free polynomials. Assume that $a_{i}$ and $a_{j}$ are of even degree and the other two, $a_{k}$ and $a_{l}$ are of odd degree. Let $c_{m}$ be the leading coefficient of $a_{m}$ for $m=1 \ldots 4$. Then the quadratic form $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}+a_{4} x_{4}^{2}$ is anisotropic in $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)\right)$ if and only if $-c_{i} c_{j}$ and $-c_{k} c_{l}$ are both non-squares in $\mathbb{F}_{q}$.

Proof. Let $u=1 / t$. By the substitution $x_{r} \leftarrow x_{r} t^{\left\lceil\frac{-d e g(a r)}{2}\right\rceil}$ for $r=1,2,3,4$, we obtain new coefficients $a_{r}^{\prime} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[u]$. Observe that the $u$ does not divide $a_{i}^{\prime}$ and $a_{j}^{\prime}$ and the multiplicity of $u$ in $a_{k}^{\prime}$ and $a_{l}^{\prime}$ is 1 . The remainder of $a_{i}^{\prime}$ modulo $u$ is $c_{i}$, the remainder of $a_{j}^{\prime}$ modulo $u$ is $c_{j}$. The remainder of $a_{k}^{\prime} / u$ modulo $u$ is $c_{k}$ and the remainder $a_{l}^{\prime} / u$ modulo $u$ is $c_{l}$. Hence we may apply Lemma 9 with $f=u$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}[u]$.

Remark 11. If $q \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ then the lemma says that anisotropy occurs if and only if exactly one of $c_{i}$ and $c_{j}$ is a square and the same holds for $c_{k}$ and $c_{l}$. If $q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ then the lemma says that anisotropy occurs if and only $c_{i}$ and $c_{j}$ are either both squares or both non-squares and the same holds for $c_{k}$ and $c_{l}$. The reason for this is that -1 is a square in $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ if and only if $q \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$.

There is also the following fact [13, Chapter VI, Theorem 2.2].
Fact 12. Let $K$ be a complete field with respect to a discrete valuation whose residue field is a finite field with odd characteristic. Then every non-degenerate quadratic form over $K$ in 5 variables is isotropic.

We state a variant of the Hasse-Minkowski theorem over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ [13, Chapter VI, 3.1]. It was proved by Hasse's doctoral student Herbert Rauter in 1926 [15].

Theorem 13. A non-degenerate quadratic form over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ is isotropic over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ if and only if it is isotropic over every completion of $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$.

For ternary quadratic forms there exists a slightly stronger version of this theorem which is a consequence of the product formula for quaternion algebras or Hilbert's reciprocity law [13, Chapter IX, Theorem 4.6]:

Fact 14. Let $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}$ be a non-degenerate quadratic form over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. Then if it is isotropic in every completion except maybe one then it is isotropic over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$.

There is a useful fact about local isotropy of a quadratic form [13, Chapter VI, Corollary 2.5]:

Fact 15. Let $Q\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+\cdots+a_{n} x_{n}^{2}(n \geq 3)$ be a non-degenerate quadratic form over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ where $a_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$. If $f \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ is a monic irreducible not dividing $a_{1} \ldots a_{n}$ then $Q$ is isotropic in the $f$-adic completion.

We finish the subsection with a formula on the number of monic irreducible polynomials of given degree in a residue class ([21, Theorem 5.1.]):

Fact 16. Let $a, m \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ be such that $\operatorname{deg}(m)>0$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(a, m)=1$. Let $N$ be a positive integer and let

$$
S_{N}(a, m)=\#\left\{f \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t] \text { monic irreducible } \mid f \equiv a(\bmod m), \operatorname{deg}(f)=N\right\} .
$$

Let $M=\operatorname{deg}(m)$ and let $\Phi(m)$ denote the number of polynomials in $\mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ relative prime to $m$ whose degree is smaller than M. Then we have the following inequality:

$$
\left|S_{N}(a, m)-\frac{q^{N}}{\Phi(m) N}\right| \leq \frac{1}{N}(M+1) q^{\frac{N}{2}}
$$

As indicated in the Introduction, this fact is an extremely effective bound on the number of irreducible polynomials of a given degree in an arithmetic progression. A similar error term for prime numbers from an arithmetic progression in a given interval is not known.

### 2.4 Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization

We propose a version of the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalizition procedure and prove a bound on the size of its output over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$.

Lemma 17. Let $(V, h)$ be an $n$-dimensional quadratic space over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. We assume that $h$ is given by its Gram matrix with respect to a basis $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}$ whose entries are represented as fractions of polynomials. Suppose that all the numerators occurring in the Gram matrix have degree at most $\Delta$ while the degrees of the denominators are bounded by $\Delta^{\prime}$. Then there is a deterministic polynomial time algorithm which finds an orthogonal basis $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}$ with respect to $h$ such that the maximum of the degrees of the numerators and the denominators of the $h\left(w_{i}, w_{i}\right)$ is $O\left(n\left(\Delta+\Delta^{\prime}\right)\right)$.

Proof. We may assume that $h$ is regular. Indeed, we can compute the radical of $V$ by solving a system of linear equations and then continue in a direct complement of it. It is easy to select a basis for this direct complement as a subset of the original basis.

We find an anisotropic vector $v_{1}^{\prime}$ in the following way. If one of the $v_{i}$ is anisotropic then we choose $v_{1}^{\prime}:=v_{i}$. If all of them are isotropic then there must be an index $i$ such that $h\left(v_{i}, v_{1}\right) \neq 0$, otherwise $h$ would not be regular. Since $q$ is odd $v_{1}^{\prime}:=v_{i}+v_{1}$ will suffice.

Afterwards, we transform the basis $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$ into a basis $v_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, v_{n}^{\prime}$ which has the property that for every $k$, the subspace generated by $v_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, v_{k}^{\prime}$ is regular. We start with $v_{1}^{\prime}$ which is already anisotropic. Then we proceed inductively. We choose $v_{k+1}^{\prime}$ in the following way. If
some $j$ between $k+1$ and $n$ has the property that the subspace spanned by $v_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, v_{k}^{\prime}$ and $v_{j}$ is regular then we choose $v_{k+1}^{\prime}:=v_{j}$ where $j$ is the smallest such index. Otherwise we claim that there exists an index $j$ between $k+1$ and $n$, that $v_{k+1}^{\prime}=v_{k+1}+v_{j}$ is suitable. Note that if this is true then this can be checked in polynomial time. Indeed, the cost of the computation is dominated by that of computing the determinants of the Gram matrices of the restriction of $h$ to the subspace spanned by $v_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, v_{k}^{\prime}$ together with the candidate $v_{k+1}^{\prime}$. The number of these determinants is $O(n)$.

Now we prove the claim. Let $U$ be now the subspace generated by $v_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, v_{k}^{\prime}$ and let $\phi_{U}$ be the orthogonal projection onto the subspace $U$. Note that by our assumptions $U$ is a regular subspace and hence $V$ can be decomposed as the orthogonal sum of the subspaces $U$ and $U^{\perp}$. Let $v^{*}=v-\phi_{U}(v)$, so $v^{*}$ is in the orthogonal complement of $U$. We have to prove that if neither $v_{j}$ is a suitable choice for $v_{k+1}^{\prime}$ then there exists a $j$ such that $v_{k+1}+v_{j}$ is suitable. Note that if $v_{k+1}$ is not a suitable choice then the subspace generated by $U$ and $v_{k+1}^{*}$ is not regular (they generate the same subspace as $U$ and $v_{k+1}$ ) hence $v_{k+1}^{*}$ is isotropic because $U$ was regular. If for any $j$ between $k+1$ and $n$, the vector $v_{j}^{*}$ is anisotropic, we choose $v_{k+1}^{\prime}=v_{j}^{*}$. Otherwise there must be a $j$ between $k+1$ and $n$ such that $h\left(v_{k+1}^{*}, v_{j}^{*}\right) \neq 0$ since $h$ is regular. This implies that $v_{k+1}^{*}+v_{j}^{*}$ is anisotropic since $h\left(v_{k+1}^{*}+v_{j}^{*}, v_{k+1}^{*}+v_{j}^{*}\right)=2 h\left(v_{k+1}^{*}, v_{j}^{*}\right) \neq 0$. Observe that $v_{k+1}^{*}+v_{j}^{*}=\left(v_{k+1}+v_{j}\right)^{*}$ so $\left(v_{k+1}+v_{j}\right)^{*}$ is anisotropic. This implies that the subspace generated by $U$ and $v_{k+1}+v_{j}$ is regular.

Now we compute an orthogonal basis $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}$ from the starting basis $v_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, v_{n}^{\prime}$. We start with $w_{1}:=v_{1}^{\prime}$. Let $w_{k}:=v_{k}^{\prime}-u_{k}$ where $u_{k}$ is the unique vector from the subspace generated by $v_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, v_{k-1}^{\prime}$ with the property that $h\left(u_{i}, v_{j}^{\prime}\right)=h\left(v_{i}^{\prime}, v_{j}^{\prime}\right)$ for every $j$ between 1 and $k$. Uniqueness comes from the fact that $v_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, v_{k-1}^{\prime}$ spans a regular subspace.

Finding $u_{k}$ is solving a system of $k$ linear equations with $k$ variables. Since the coefficient matrix of the system is non-singular because we chose $v_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, v_{k}^{\prime}$ in this way, thus Cramer's rule applies. The same bounds on degrees apply to the Gram matrix obtained from the $v_{i}^{\prime}$ as the original Gram matrix obtained from the $v_{i}$, since the transition matrix $T \in G L_{n}\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)$. Hence Cramer's rule gives us the bounds on the $w_{i}$ as claimed.

### 2.5 Effective isotropy of binary and ternary quadratic forms over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$

We can efficiently diagonalize regular quadratic forms over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ using the version of the GramSchmidt orthoginalization procedure discussed in Subsection 2.4. Then a binary form can be made equivalent to $b\left(x_{1}^{2}-a x_{2}^{2}\right)$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. The coefficient $a$ is represented as the product of a scalar from $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ with the quotient of two monic polynomials. We can use the Euclidean algorithm to make the quotient reduced. Then testing whether $a$ is a square can be done in deterministic polynomial time by computing the squarefree factorization of the two monic polynomials and by computing the $\frac{q-1}{2}$ th power of the scalar. If $a$ is a square then a square root of it can be computed by a randomized polynomial time method, the essential part of this is computing a square root of the scalar constituent ([1],[18]). Using this square root, linear substitutions "standardizing" hyperbolic forms (making them equivalent to $x_{1}^{2}-x_{2}^{2}$ or to $x_{1} x_{2}$, whichever is more desirable) can be computed as discussed in Subsection 2.1.

Non-trivial zeros of isotropic ternary quadratic forms can be computed in randomized polynomial time using the method of of Cremona and van Hoeij from [4]. Through the connection with quaternion algebras described in Subsection [2.1, the paper [9] offers an alternative approach. Here we cite the explicit bound on the size of a solution from [4, Section 1].

Fact 18. Let $Q\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right)=a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}$ where $a_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$. Then there is a randomized polynomial time algorithm which decides if $Q$ is isotropic and if it is, then computes a non-zero solution $\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, b_{3}\right)$ to $Q\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right)=0$ with polynomials $b_{1}, b_{2}, b_{3} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ having the following degree bounds:
(1) $\operatorname{deg}\left(b_{1}\right) \leq \operatorname{deg}\left(a_{2} a_{3}\right) / 2$,
(2) $\operatorname{deg}\left(b_{2}\right) \leq \operatorname{deg}\left(a_{3} a_{1}\right) / 2$,
(3) $\operatorname{deg}\left(b_{3}\right) \leq \operatorname{deg}\left(a_{1} a_{2}\right) / 2$.

## 3 Minimization and splitting

In this section we describe the key ingredients needed for our algorithms for finding non-trivial zeros in 4 or 5 variables. First we do some basic minimization to the quadratic form. Then we split the form $Q\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ (where $n=4$ or $n=5$ ) into two forms and show the existence of a certain value they both represent, assuming the original form is isotropic. The section is divided in two parts. The first deals with quadratic forms in 4 variables, the second with quadratic forms in 5 variables.

### 3.1 The quaternary case

We consider a quadratic form $Q\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right)=a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}+a_{4} x_{4}^{2}$. We assume that all the $a_{i}$ are in $\mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ and are non-zero.

We now give a simple algorithm which minimizes $Q$ in a certain way. We start with definitions:

Definition 19. We call a polynomial $h \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ cube-free if there do not exist any monic irreducible $f \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ such that $f^{3}$ divides $h$.

Our goal is to replace $Q$ with another quadratic form $Q^{\prime}$ which is isotropic if and only if $Q$ was isotropic and which has the property that from a non-trivial zero of $Q^{\prime}$ a non-trivial zero of $Q$ can be retrieved in polynomial time. For instance if we apply a linear change of variables to $Q$ (i.e., we replace $Q$ with an explicitly equivalent form), then this will be the case. However, we may further relax the notion of equivalence by allowing to multiply the quadratic form with a non-zero element from $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$.

Definition 20. Let $Q$ and $Q^{\prime}$ be diagonal quadratic forms in $n$ variables. We call $Q$ and $Q^{\prime}$ projectively equivalent if $Q^{\prime}$ can be obtained from $Q$ using the following two operations:
(1) multiplication of $Q$ by a non-zero $g \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$
(2) linear change of variables

We call these two operations projective substitutions.
Definition 21. We call a diagonal quaternary quadratic form

$$
Q\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right)=a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}+a_{4} x_{4}^{2}
$$

minimized if it satisfies the following four properties:
(1) All the $a_{i}$ are square-free,
(2) The determinant of $Q$ is cube-free,
(3) If a monic irreducible $f$ does not divide $a_{i}$ and $a_{j}$ but divides the other two, then $-a_{i} a_{j}$ is a square modulo $f$,
(4) The number of square leading coefficients among the $a_{i}$ is at least the number of non-square leading coefficients among the $a_{i}$.

Remark 22. By Lemma 6 and Lemma 9, a minimized quadratic form is locally isotropic at any finite prime.

Lemma 23. There is a randomized algorithm running in polynomial time which either shows that $Q$ is anisotropic at a finite prime or returns the following data:
(1) a minimized diagonal quadratic form $Q^{\prime}$ which is projectively equivalent to $Q$,
(2) a projective substitution which turns $Q$ into $Q^{\prime}$.

Proof. We factor each $a_{i}$. If for a monic irreducible polynomial $f, f^{2 k}$ (where $k \geq 1$ ) divides $a_{i}$ then we substitute $x_{i} \leftarrow \frac{x_{i}}{f^{k}}$. By iterating this process through the list of primes dividing the $a_{i}$ we obtain a new equivalent diagonal quadratic form where all the coefficients are square-free polynomials.

Let $f$ be a monic irreducible polynomial in $\mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ dividing the determinant of $Q$. If every $a_{i}$ is divisible by $f$ then we divide $Q$ by $f$. Now let us assume that $a_{1}$ is the only coefficient not divisible by $f$. Then we make the following substitution: $x_{1} \leftarrow f x_{1}$. This new form is still diagonal, and every coefficient is divisible by $f$. Moreover, $f^{2}$ divides exactly one of the coefficients. Divide the form by $f$. Then the multiplicity of $f$ in the determinant of the new form is exactly 1 . If we do this for all monic irreducibles $f$, whose third power divides the determinant of $Q$, we obtain a new form whose determinant is cube-free.

Let us assume that each $a_{i}$ is square-free and that there exists a monic irreducible $f$ which divides exactly two of the $a_{i}$. We may assume that $f$ divides $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$ but does not divide the other two coefficients. If $-a_{3} a_{4}$ is a square modulo $f$ we do nothing. If not, we do a change of variables $x_{1} \leftarrow x_{1} / f, x_{2} \leftarrow x_{2} / f$. If $-\frac{a_{1}}{f} \frac{a_{2}}{f}$ is not a square modulo $f$ then we can conclude that $Q$ is anisotropic in the $f$-adic completion by Lemma 9. Otherwise we continue with the equivalent quadratic form $Q^{\prime}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right)=\frac{a_{1}}{f} x_{1}^{2}+\frac{a_{2}}{f} x_{2}^{2}+f a_{3} x_{3}^{2}+f a_{4} x_{4}^{2}$. This is locally isotropic at $f$ due to Lemma 9 ,

If the third condition is not satisfied then we multiply the quadratic form by a non-square element from $\mathbb{F}_{q}$.

Now we consider the running time of the algorithm. First we need to factor the determinant. There are factorisation algorithms which are randomized and run in polynomial time ([1], [2]). We might need a non-square element from $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. Such an element can be found by a randomized algorithm which runs in polynomial time. The rest of the algorithm runs in deterministic polynomial time (see Remark 1).

The next lemma is the key observation for our main algorithm.
Lemma 24. Assume that $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}+a_{4} x_{4}^{2}$ is an isotropic minimized quadratic form with the property that $a_{i} x_{i}^{2}+a_{j} x_{j}^{2}$ is anisotropic for every $i \neq j$. Let $D=a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4}$. Then there
exists a permutation $\sigma \in S_{4}$, an $\epsilon \in\{0,1\}$ and a residue class $b$ modulo $D$ such that for every monic irreducible $a \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ satisfying $a \equiv b(\bmod D)$ and $\operatorname{deg}(a) \equiv \epsilon(\bmod 2)$, the following equations are both solvable:

$$
\begin{align*}
& a_{\sigma(1)} x_{\sigma(1)}^{2}+a_{\sigma(2)} x_{\sigma(2)}^{2}=f_{1} \ldots f_{k} g_{1} \ldots g_{l} a  \tag{2}\\
& -a_{\sigma(3)} x_{\sigma(3)}^{2}-a_{\sigma(4)} x_{\sigma(4)}^{2}=f_{1} \ldots f_{k} g_{1} \ldots g_{l} a \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

Here $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{k}$ are the monic irreducible polynomials dividing both $a_{\sigma(1)}$ and $a_{\sigma(2)}$. Also $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{l}$ are the monic irreducibles dividing both $a_{\sigma(3)}$ and $a_{\sigma(4)}$. In addition, $b, \sigma$ and $\epsilon$ can be found by a randomized polynomial time algorithm.

Remark 25. The meaning of this lemma is that if we split the original quaternary form in an appropriate way into two binary quadratic forms then we can find this type of common value they both represent.

Proof. First we show that with an arbitrary splitting into equations (2) and (3) we can guarantee local solvability (of equations (2) and (3)) everywhere by choosing $a$ in a suitable way except at infinity and at $a$. Then we choose $\sigma$ and $\epsilon$ in a way that local solvability is satisfied at infinity as well. Finally, Fact 14 shows local solvability everywhere.

For the first part we assume that $\sigma$ is the identity as this simplifies notations.
Since $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}$ or $a_{3} x_{3}^{2}+a_{4} x_{4}^{2}$ are anisotropic over $\mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ the question whether equation (2) or (3) is solvable is equivalent to the following quadratic forms being isotropic over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
& a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}-f_{1} \ldots f_{k} g_{1} \ldots g_{l} a z^{2}  \tag{4}\\
& -a_{3} x_{3}^{2}-a_{4} x_{4}^{2}-f_{1} \ldots f_{k} g_{1} \ldots g_{l} a z^{2} \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

Due to the local-global principle (Theorem 13) the quadratic forms (4) and (5) are isotropic over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ if they are isotropic locally everywhere. Hence equations (2) and (3) are solvable if and only if they are solvable locally everywhere.

Now we go through the set of primes excluding $a$ and infinity. We check local solvability at every one of them. We have 4 subcases for equation (2): the primes $f_{i}$; the primes $g_{j}$; primes dividing exactly one of $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$; remaining primes. The list is similar for equation (3). First we show that (2) is solvable at all these primes.

## Solvability at the $f_{i}$

Equation (2) is solvable at any $f_{i}$ since we can divide by $f_{i}$ and obtain a quadratic form whose determinant is not divisible by $f_{i}$. By Fact 15 this is solvable at $f_{i}$.
Solvability at a prime $g$ which divides exactly one of $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$
We may assume that $g$ divides $a_{1}$. Due to Lemma 6 equation (2) is solvable in the $g$-adic completion if $a_{2} f_{1} \ldots f_{k} g_{1} \ldots g_{l} a$ is a square modulo $g$ (meaning in the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{q}[t] /(g)$ ). Since $\left(\frac{a_{2} f_{1} \ldots f_{k} g_{1} \ldots g_{l}}{g}\right)$ is fixed this gives the condition on $a$ that $\left(\frac{a}{g}\right)=\left(\frac{a_{2} f_{1} \ldots f_{k} g_{1} \ldots g_{l}}{g}\right)$. This can be thought of as a congruence condition on $a$ modulo $g$ (this gives a condition whether $a$ should be a square element modulo $g$ or not). Due to the Chinese Remainder Theorem these congruence conditions on $a$ can be satisfied simultaneously. This implies that $a$ has to be in one certain residue classes modulo the product of these primes. We choose $a$ to be in one of these residue classes.
Solvability at the $g_{i}$

Now consider equation (2) modulo the $g_{i}$. Note that due to minimization neither $a_{1}$ nor $a_{2}$ are divisible by the $g_{i}$. Hence equation (2) has a solution in the $g_{i}$-adic completion if and only if $-a_{1} a_{2}$ is a square modulo $g_{i}$. This is satisfied since we have a minimized quadratic form.

## Solvability at the remaining primes

Solvability at these primes is satisfied by Fact 15 .
Note that solvability of (2) holds independently of the choice of $a$ except for primes dividing exactly one of $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$. Thus, in the analogous case of the solvability of (3) we have only to consider the case of primes which divide exactly one of $a_{3}$ and $a_{4}$. These impose congruence conditions again on $a$. A problem can occur if these congruence conditions are contradictory. We show that this cannot happen. Assume that a monic irreducible polynomial $g$ divides one of $a_{1}, a_{2}$ and one of $a_{3}, a_{4}$, say $a_{1}$ and $a_{3}$. By the previous discussion we have that in this case $-a_{2} a f_{1} \ldots f_{k} g_{1} \ldots g_{l}$ should be a square modulo $g$ and that $a_{4} a f_{1} \ldots f_{k} g_{1} \ldots g_{l}$ should be a square modulo $g$. These can always be satisfied by choosing $a$ to be in a suitable residue class modulo $g$ except if $-a_{2} a_{4}$ is not a square modulo $g$. However, this cannot happen since our form was minimized.

Now we have proven that for any splitting, equations (2) and (3) are solvable locally everywhere for suitable primes $a$ except maybe at $a$ or at infinity. We now choose $\sigma$ and the parity of the degree of $a$ in a way that both (2) and (3) are solvable at infinity. Then, by Fact 14, (2) and (3) will be solvable at $a$ as well.

First assume that all $a_{i}$ have odd degrees. Then we can pick $\sigma$ arbitrarily and we choose $a$ in a way that $f_{1} \ldots f_{k} g_{1} \ldots g_{l} a$ has odd degree. Then both equations are solvable in $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)\right)$ by Lemma 7, (1).

Next assume that one coefficient is of even degree and all the others are of odd degree. Pick $\sigma$ in a way that $a_{\sigma(1)}$ is of even degree and the leading coefficient of $a_{\sigma(2)}$ is a square in $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. This can be achieved since we have a minimized quadratic form. Choose $a$ in a way that $f_{1} \ldots f_{k} g_{1} \ldots g_{l} a$ has odd degree. Then equation (3) is solvable in $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)\right)$ due to the same reason as before. Equation (2) is also solvable due to Lemma 7 , (2).

Now assume that there are two odd degree coefficients and two even degree ones among the $a_{i}$. We have that at least two of the $a_{i}$ have a leading coefficient which is a square due to the fact that the form is minimized. We choose $\sigma$ in such a way that in equation (2) and (3) one coefficient is of odd degree and the other is of even degree. Assume $a_{\sigma(1)}$ and $-a_{\sigma(3)}$ are of odd degree. Let the leading coefficient of $a_{i}$ be $c_{i}$. If $c_{\sigma(1)}$ and $-c_{\sigma(3)}$ are both squares then we pick $a$ in a way that $f_{1} \ldots f_{k} g_{1} \ldots g_{l} a$ has odd degree. If $c_{\sigma(2)}$ and $-c_{\sigma(4)}$ are both squares we pick $a$ in such a way that $f_{1} \ldots f_{k} g_{1} \ldots g_{l} a$ has even degree. It may occur that $c_{\sigma(1)}, c_{\sigma(2)},-c_{\sigma(3)},-c_{\sigma(4)}$ are all squares. In this case there is no degree constraint on $a$. In these two cases both equations are solvable at infinity by Lemma 7 . The only problem occurs if $c_{\sigma(1)}$ and $-c_{\sigma(3)}$ are not both squares and the same holds for $c_{\sigma(2)}$ and $-c_{\sigma(4)}$.

We distinguish two cases depending on whether $q \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ or $q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$. First suppose that $q \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$. In this case -1 is square element in $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. If neither $c_{\sigma(1)}$ nor $c_{\sigma(3)}$ is a square in $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ then $c_{\sigma(2)}$ and $c_{\sigma(4)}$ must be both squares. Therefore $-c_{\sigma(4)}$ is a square since -1 is a square and we have a contradiction because we assumed that one of $c_{\sigma(2)}$ and $-c_{\sigma(4)}$ is not a square. If neither $c_{\sigma(2)}$ nor $c_{\sigma(4)}$ is a square in $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ then $c_{\sigma(1)}$ and $c_{\sigma(3)}$ must be both squares which is again, a contradiction. The only problem occurs if exactly one of $c_{\sigma(1)}$ and $c_{\sigma(3)}$ is a square and the same is true for $c_{\sigma(2)}$ and $c_{\sigma(4)}$. However, in this case, the form $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}+a_{4} x_{4}^{2}$ is anisotropic by Remark 11 .

Suppose that $q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$. Note that in this case -1 is not a square in $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. If $c_{\sigma(1)}$ and $-c_{\sigma(3)}$ are non-squares then we have that $c_{\sigma(3)}$ is a square since -1 is not a square. Then let $\sigma^{\prime}=\sigma \circ(13)$ (i.e., swap $a_{\sigma(1)}$ with $\left.a_{\sigma(3)}\right)$. Now $c_{\sigma^{\prime}(1)}$ is a square and so is $-c_{\sigma^{\prime}(3)}$, hence again we choose $a$ in a way that $f_{1} \ldots f_{k} g_{1} \ldots g_{l} a$ has odd degree and equation (2) and (3) are solvable at infinity due to Lemma 7. If $c_{\sigma(2)}$ and $-c_{\sigma(4)}$ are non-squares then the situation is essentially the same (let $\sigma^{\prime}=\sigma \circ(24)$ and choose $a$ in a way that $f_{1} \ldots f_{k} g_{1} \ldots g_{l} a$ has even degree). If exactly one of $c_{\sigma(1)}$ and $-c_{\sigma(3)}$ is a square and the same holds for $c_{\sigma(2)}$ and $-c_{\sigma(4)}$ then the form $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}+a_{4} x_{4}^{2}$ is anisotropic by Remark 11. Indeed, $c_{\sigma(1)}$ and $c_{\sigma(3)}$ are either both squares or both non-squares and the same holds for $c_{\sigma(2)}$ and $c_{\sigma(4)}$.

The cases where there is 1 odd degree one or no odd degree ones amongst the $a_{i}$ are esentially the same when there are three odd degree ones, or all are of odd degree.

This shows that choosing $\sigma$ in this way equations (2) and (3) are solvable locally everywhere, except maybe at $a$, hence are solvable over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ as well by Fact 14 .

We conclude by verifying that $b, \sigma$ and $\epsilon$ can be found by a polynomial time algorithm. The computation of a residue class $b$ involves finding non-square elements in finite fields and Chinese remaindering. Both can be accomplished in polynomial time, the first using randomization. Choosing $\sigma$ and $\epsilon$ can be achieved in constant time by looking at the parity of the degrees of the $a_{i}$.

Remark 26. As seen in the proof there is not just one residue class $b$ modulo $D$ that would satisfy the necessary conditions. Assume that $D$ is divisible by $k$ different monic irreducible polynomials. Then $q^{\operatorname{deg}(D)} / 3^{k}$ is a lower bound on the number of appropriate residue classes. Indeed, since modulo each prime half of the non-zero residue classes are squares. However, we will not use this fact later on.

### 3.2 The 5 -variable case

We consider a quadratic form $Q\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}\right)=a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}+a_{4} x_{4}^{2}+a_{5} x_{5}^{2}$, where the $a_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ are non-zero polynomials.

Lemma 27. There exists a randomized polynomial time algorithm that returns a projectively equivalent diagonal quadratic form $Q^{\prime}$ whose coefficients are square-free polynomials and whose determinant is cube-free, and a projective substitution which transforms $Q$ into $Q^{\prime}$.

Proof. Making the coefficients of $Q^{\prime}$ square-free is done in a similar fashion as in Lemma 23. If every coefficient is divisible by a monic irreducible $f$ we divide $Q$ by $f$. If at most 2 coefficients are not divisible by $f$ we do the same trick as in Lemma 23. To implement this for every irreducible polynomial $f$, we need to factor the determinant. This can be achieved in polynomial time by a randomized algorithm [1]. All the other steps run in deterministic polynomial time.

Now we prove a lemma similar to Lemma 24.
Lemma 28. Let $Q\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}\right)=a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}+a_{4} x_{4}^{2}+a_{5} x_{5}^{2}$, where $D=a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4} a_{5}$ is cube-free and all the $a_{i}$ are square-free polynomials from $\mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$. Suppose, $a_{i} x_{i}^{2}+a_{j} x_{j}^{2}+a_{k} x_{k}^{2}$ is anisotropic for every $1 \leq i<j<k \leq 5$. Then there exists a permutation $\sigma \in S_{5}$, an $\epsilon \in\{0,1\}$ and a residue class $b$ modulo $D$ such that for every monic irreducible $a \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ satisfying $a \equiv b(\bmod D)$ and $\operatorname{deg}(a) \equiv \epsilon(\bmod 2)$ the following equations are both solvable:

$$
\begin{gather*}
a_{\sigma(1)} x_{\sigma(1)}^{2}+a_{\sigma(2)} x_{\sigma(2)}^{2}=f_{1} \ldots f_{k} a  \tag{6}\\
-a_{\sigma(3)} x_{\sigma(3)}^{2}-a_{\sigma(4)} x_{\sigma(4)}^{2}-a_{\sigma(5)} x_{\sigma(5)}^{2}=f_{1} \ldots f_{k} a \tag{7}
\end{gather*}
$$

Here $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{k}$ are the monic irreducible polynomials dividing both $a_{\sigma(1)}$ and $a_{\sigma(2)}$. In addition, $b, \sigma$ and $\epsilon$ can be found by a randomized polynomial time algorithm.
Remark 29. Assuming that $a_{i} x_{i}^{2}+a_{j} x_{j}^{2}+a_{k} x_{k}^{2}$ is anisotropic for every $i, j, k$ allows us to consider the solvability of equations (6) and (7) as finding nontrivial zeros of the quadratic forms $a_{\sigma(1)} x_{\sigma(1)}^{2}+a_{\sigma(2)} x_{\sigma(2)}^{2}-f_{1} \ldots f_{k} a z^{2}$ and $-a_{\sigma(3)} x_{\sigma(3)}^{2}-a_{\sigma(4)} x_{\sigma(4)}^{2}-a_{\sigma(5)} x_{\sigma(5)}^{2}-f_{1} \ldots f_{k} a z^{2}$ hence we can use our lemmas and theorems from the previous sections.

Proof. First we show that for any $\sigma \in S_{5}$ equation (6) is solvable for suitable $a$ at any prime except maybe at infinity and at $a$. Also if $a$ is suitably chosen then equation (7) is solvable everywhere except maybe at infinity. In order to simplify notation we can assume that $\sigma$ is the identity.

First consider equation (6). It is solvable at any of the $f_{i}$ since $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$ are square-free (Lemma 6). It is solvable at any prime not dividing $a_{1} a_{2} f_{1} \ldots f_{k} a$ by Fact 15. Let $g$ be a prime that divides $a_{1}$ but not $a_{2}$. In order to ensure that (6) is solvable in the $g$-adic completion $-a_{2} a f_{1} \ldots f_{k}$ has to be a square modulo $g$. This imposes a congruence condition on $a$. The situation is the same when looking at a prime dividing $a_{2}$ but not $a_{1}$.

Now consider equation (7). Again if a prime does not divide any of the coefficients then the equation is locally solvable at that prime. The equation is solvable at every $f_{i}$ (using (1) of Lemma 6 with $z=0$ ) since none of the $f_{i}$ divide $a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}$. Similarly it is also solvable at $a$ because we choose $a$ to differ from the primes occurring in $a_{3} a_{4} a_{5}$. If a prime $g$ divides exactly one of $a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}$ then similarly the equation is locally solvable at that prime. Finally consider the case where a prime $h$ divides exactly two out of $a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}$ (say $a_{3}$ and $a_{4}$ ). This gives a congruence condition on $a$. Specifically, $-a f_{1} \ldots f_{k} a_{5}$ has to be a square modulo $h$. Note that since for every prime $f, f^{3}$ does not divide the determinant of the original quadratic form, the congruence conditions on $a$ coming from equations (6) and (7) cannot be contradictory.

Now we choose $\sigma$ and $\epsilon$ in a way that both (6) and (7) become solvable at infinity at the cost of possibly restricting the parity of the degree of $a$. Then by Fact 14 equation (6) will become solvable at $a$ as well. Finally by the local-global principle (Theorem 13) both equations are solvable over $\mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$.

First if all $a_{i}$ have odd degree then $\sigma$ can be chosen arbitrarily and we choose $a$ in a way that $f_{1} \ldots f_{k} a$ has odd degree. This way both equations are solvable at infinity by Lemma 7 , (1).

Now consider the case where one coefficient has even degree and the others are of odd degree. Then we choose $\sigma$ in a way that $a_{\sigma(3)}$ has even degree and the others are of odd degree. We choose $a$ in a way that $f_{1} \ldots f_{k} a$ has an odd degree. Due to Lemma 77 both equations are solvable at infinity (with $x_{\sigma(3)}=0$ ).

Finally assume that there are two $a_{i}$-s with even degree. We choose $\sigma$ in a way that $a_{\sigma(1)}$ and $a_{\sigma(2)}$ are of even degree. We choose $a$ in such a way that $f_{1} \ldots f_{k} a$ has even degree. Now equations (6) and (7) are solvable at infinity. The remaining cases are essentially the same, we systematically swap "odd" and "even" in the preceding arguments.

Note that $b, \sigma$ and $\epsilon$ can be found in polynomial time using randomization by the same reasoning as described at the end of the proof of Lemma 24.

## 4 The main algorithms

In this section we describe two algorithms. One for solving a quadratic equation in 4 variables and one for 5 variables. The algorithms are similar, however, the second uses the first algorithm. The idea of the algorithms is the following. Split the original equation into two and find a common value they both represent and then solve the two equations.

The input of the first algorithm is a diagonal quadratic form

$$
Q\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right)=a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}+a_{4} x_{4}^{2},
$$

where all $a_{i}$ are in $\mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$.

Algorithm 1 (Quaternary case). (1) Minimize $Q$ using the algorithm from Lemma [23. Minimization either yields that $Q$ is anisotropic (then stop) or returns a new projectively equivalent quadratic form $Q^{\prime}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right)=b_{1} x_{1}^{2}+b_{2} x_{2}^{2}+b_{3} x_{3}^{2}+b_{4} x_{4}^{2}$ which is minimized. If $b_{1}, b_{2}, b_{3}, b_{4} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}$ then return a non-trivial zero of $Q^{\prime}$ using the algorithm of [22].
(2) Check solvability at infinity (Remark 8 and Lemma 10). Check if $b_{i} x_{i}^{2}+b_{j} x_{j}^{2}$ is isotropic for every pair $i \neq j$. If it is for a pair $(i, j)$ then return a solution.
(3) Split the quadratic form into equations (2) and (3) (i.e., find a suitable permutation $\sigma \in S_{4}$ ) as discussed in Lemma 24.
(4) List the congruence conditions on a as described in Lemma 24 and solve this system of linear congruences. Obtain a residue class $b$ modulo $b_{1} b_{2} b_{3} b_{4}$ as a result.
(5) Let $d$ be the degree of $b_{1} b_{2} b_{3} b_{4}$ and let $N=4 d$ or $N=4 d+1$ depending on the degree parity $\epsilon$ we need by Lemma 24, Pick a random polynomial $f$ of degree $N$ of the residue class $b$ modulo $b_{1} b_{2} b_{3} b_{4}$ and check whether it is irreducible. If $f$ is irreducible, then proceed. If not, then repeat this step.
(6) Solve equations (2) and (3) using the method of [4].
(7) By subtracting equation (3) from equation (2) find a non-trivial zero of $Q^{\prime}$.
(8) Return a non-trivial zero of $Q$ using the inverse substitutions of the substitutions obtained by the algorithm from Lemma [23.

The input of the second algorithm is a quadratic form

$$
Q\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}\right)=a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+a_{2} x_{2}^{2}+a_{3} x_{3}^{2}+a_{4} x_{4}^{2}+a_{5} x_{5}^{2},
$$

where all $a_{i}$ are non-zero polynomials in $\mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$.

Algorithm 2. (1) Minimize $Q$ using the algorithm from Lemma 27. Minimization returns a new projectively equivalent diagonal quadratic form $Q^{\prime}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}\right)=b_{1} x_{1}^{2}+b_{2} x_{2}^{2}+$ $b_{3} x_{3}^{2}+b_{4} x_{4}^{2}+b_{5} x_{5}^{2}$ whose determinant is cube-free and whose coefficients are square-free. If $b_{1}, b_{2}, b_{3}, b_{4}, b_{5} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}$ then return a non-trivial zero of $Q^{\prime}$ using the algorithm of [20].
(2) Split the quadratic form into equations (6) and (7) as discussed in the proof of Lemma 28, Check if the quadratic forms on the left-hand side of equations of (6) and (7) are isotropic or not. If one of them is, then return a non-trivial solution. Use the algorithm from [4].
(3) List the congruence conditions on a as described in Lemma 28 and solve this system of linear congruences. Obtain a residue class $b$ modulo $b_{1} b_{2} b_{3} b_{4} b_{5}$ as a result.
(4) Let $d$ be the degree of $b_{1} b_{2} b_{3} b_{4} b_{5}$ and let $N=4 d$ or $N=4 d+1$ according to degree parity $\epsilon$ we need by Lemma 28. Pick a random polynomial $f$ of degree $N$ of the residue class $b$ modulo $b_{1} b_{2} b_{3} b_{4} b_{5}$ and check whether it is irreducible. If $f$ is irreducible, then proceed. If not, then repeat this step.
(5) Solve equations (6) and (7) using the method of [4] and Algorithm 1 .
(6) By subtracting equation (3) from equation (2) find a non-trivial zero of $Q^{\prime}$.
(7) Return a non-trivial zero of $Q$ using the inverse substitutions of the substitutions obtained by the algorithm from Lemma 27.

Theorem 30. Algorithm 1 and Algorithm 2 are randomized algorithms of Las Vegas type which run in polynomial time in the size of the quadratic form (the largest degree of the coefficients) and in $\log q$. Let $D$ be the determinant of the quadratic form. Let $d=\operatorname{deg}(D)$. Algorithm 1 either detects that the form is anisotropic or returns a solution of size $O(d)$, that is an array of 4 polynomials of degree $O(d)$. Algorithm 2 always returns a solution of size $O(d)$, that is an array of 5 polynomials of degree $O(d)$.

Proof. The correctness of the algorithms follows from Lemmas 24 and 28, We start analyzing the running times of the algorithms. First we deal with Algorithm 1. We consider its running time step by step. The first part of Step 1 runs in polynomial time (is however randomized) as proven in Lemma [23. The second part of Step 1 is deterministic and runs in polynomial time (see [22]). From now on we suppose that the determinant of the minimized form has degree at least 1. The first part of Step 2 can be executed in deterministic polynomial time (using Fact 4 combined with Lemma 7 and (10). The second part is checking whether a polynomial is a square due to Fact 4. This can be done in polynomial time by computing the square-free factorization of the polynomial ([23]) and checking whether the leading coefficient is a square or not (Remark 54). Step 3 runs in deterministic polynomial time since we only need to check whether certain leading coefficients are squares in $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ or not. In Step 4 in order to obtain congruence conditions we may have to present a non-square element in a finite field (an extension of $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ which has degree smaller than the determinant of $Q^{\prime}$ ). This can be done by a randomized algorithm which runs in polynomial time. Note that the probability that a non-zero random element in a finite field of odd characteristic is a square is $1 / 2$. In the other part of Step 4 we have to solve a system of linear congruences. This can be done in deterministic polynomial time by Chinese remaindering.

Step 5 needs more explanation. After solving the linear congruences we obtain a residue class $b$ modulo $D$ (Lemma 24). By Fact [16 we have that (note that $d \geq 1$ ):

$$
\left|S_{N}(b, D)-\frac{q^{N}}{\Phi(D) N}\right| \leq \frac{1}{N}(d+1) q^{\frac{N}{2}} .
$$

We choose the degree of $a$ to be $N=4 d$ or $N=4 d+1$ depending on the parity we need for the degree of $a$ which is discussed in the proof of Lemma [24. We give an estimate on the probability that a polynomial in this given residue class is irreducible. We have the following:

$$
\frac{S_{N}(b, D)}{q^{N-d}} \geq \frac{q^{N}}{q^{N-d} \Phi(D) N}-\frac{(d+1) q^{\frac{N}{2}}}{N q^{N-d}} \geq \frac{1}{N}-\frac{d+1}{N q^{\frac{N}{2}-d}} \geq \frac{1}{N}-\frac{d+1}{N q^{d}} \geq \frac{1}{3 N}
$$

Here we used the fact that $\frac{d+1}{q^{d}} \leq 2 / 3$ since $q \geq 3$ and the function $\frac{d+1}{q^{d}}$ is decreasing (as a function of $d$ ). We also used that $q^{d} \geq \Phi(D)$.

We pick a uniform random monic element $a$ from the residue class $b$ modulo $D$. This can be done in the following way. We pick a random polynomial $r(t) \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$ of degree $N-d$ whose leading coefficient is the inverse of the leading coefficient of $D$. We consider the polynomial $r^{\prime}:=r D+b$. Then $r^{\prime}$ has degree $N$, is monic and is congruent to $b$ modulo $D$.

The probability that $a$ is irreducible is at least $1 / 3 N$ by the previous calculation. Irreducibility can be checked in deterministic polynomial time [1]. This means that the probability that we do not obtain an irreducible polynomial after $3 N$ tries is smaller than $1 / 2$. Hence this step runs in polynomial time (it is, however, randomized).

The last two steps use the algorithm from [4]. This algorithm is randomized and runs in polynomial time.

The discussion for Algorithm 2 is similar.
Now we turn to the question of the size of solutions. First we consider Algorithm 1. The previous discussion shows that $N$ (the degree of $a$ ) can be chosen to be of size $O(d)$. Finally when solving equations (2) and (3) we use the algorithm from [4]. By Fact 18 we obtain that the solution for (2) and (3) have size $O(d)$. In the case of Algorithm 2 the same reasoning is valid, except that we have to use Algorithm 1 for solving (7).

Remark 31. Due to Fact 12 and Theorem 13 we have that every quadratic form in 5 or more variables is isotropic over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. Hence Algorithm naturally works for diagonal quadratic forms in more than 5 variables. Indeed, we set some variables to zero and use Algorithm 2.

Corollary 32. Assume that $Q$ is a regular quadratic form (not necessarily diagonal) in either 4 or 5 variables. Let $D$ be the determinant of $Q$. Let $d_{1}$ be the largest degree of all numerators of entries of the Gram matrix of $Q$. Let $d_{2}$ be the largest degree of all denominators of entries of the Gram matrix of $Q$. Then there is randomized polynomial time algorithm which finds a non-trivial zero of $Q$ of size $O\left(d_{1}+d_{2}\right)$.

Proof. First we diagonalize $Q$ using Lemma 17. As a result we obtain a quadratic form with determinant $D^{\prime}$. The degree of the numerator and the denominator of $D^{\prime}$ are both of size $O\left(d_{1}+d_{2}\right)$. By clearing the denominators we obtain a quadratic form $Q^{\prime \prime}$ with polynomial coefficients and determinant of degree $O\left(d_{1}+d_{2}\right)$. Using Algorithm 1 or 2 (depending on the dimension) we find an isotropic vector. By Theorem 30 the size of the solution vector is $O\left(d_{1}+d_{2}\right)$.

Remark 33. Corollary 32 can be extended to higher dimensions as well. We diagonalize the quadratic form and then set all $x_{i}$ to zero except 5. Then apply Algorithm 2. Due to diagonalization the size of the solution in this case is $O\left(n\left(d_{1}+d_{2}\right)\right)$.

## 5 Equivalence of quadratic forms

In this section we use the algorithms from the previous sections to compute the following: the Witt decomposition of a quadratic form, a maximal totally isotropic subspace and the transition matrix for two equivalent quadratic forms. We use a presentation in the context of quadratic spaces. We assume that a quadratic space is input by the Gram matrix with respect to a basis.

Theorem 34. Let $(V, h)$ be a regular quadratic space, $V=\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)^{n}$. There exists a randomized polynomial time algorithm which finds a Witt decomposition of $(V, h)$.

Proof. First we find an orthogonal basis using Lemma 17. This basis can be used to decompose the space into the orthogonal sum of subspaces of dimension 5 and possibly one quadratic form of dimension at most 4 , each with an already computed orthogonal basis. In every 5 dimensional subspace we find an isotropic vector using Algorithm 2. Then we find a hyperbolic plane in each of these subspaces. The subspace generated by this isotropic vector and one of the basis elements from the orthogonal basis of the subspace will be suitable because otherwise $h$ would not be regular restricted to this subspace. We compute its orthogonal complement inside this 5 dimensional subspace. These are all of dimension 3. We find an orthogonal basis in each of these 3 dimensional subspaces using Lemma 17. For their direct sum we again have an orthogonal basis and we iterate the process (we again group by 5 and find hyperbolic planes). We have that $V$ is the orthogonal sum of hyperbolic planes and a subspace of dimension at most 4. Using Algorithm 1 for the quaternary case, the algorithm from [4] for the ternary case, and the method of Subsection 2.5 if the dimension is 2 , we either conclude that it is anisotropic or find a decomposition into hyperbolic planes and anisotropic part.

Now consider the running time of the algorithm. Assume that $h$ was given by a Gram matrix where the maximum degree of the numerators is $\Delta$ and the maximum degree of the denominators is $\Delta^{\prime}$. Diagonalization is done in polynomial time via Lemma 17. Also, it produces a diagonal Gram matrix where every numerator and denominator has degree at most $n\left(\Delta+\Delta^{\prime}\right)$. Afterwards we only diagonalize in dimension at most 5 . Hence in each step the degrees only grow by a constant factor by Corollary 32. The number of iterations is $O(\log n)$ so the algorithm will run in polynomial time (it is however randomized since Algorithm 1 and 2 are randomized).

Corollary 35. Let $h$ be a regular bilinear form on the vector space $V=\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)^{n}$. Then, there exists a randomized polynomial time algorithm which finds a maximal totally isotropic subspace for $h$.

Proof. We compute the Witt decomposition of $h$ using Theorem 34. Then we take an isotropic vector from each hyperbolic plane. They generate a maximal totally isotropic subspace [13, Chapter I, Corollary 4.4.].

Here we only considered regular bilinear forms. Now we deal with the case where $h$ is not regular.

Corollary 36. Let ( $V, h$ ) be a quadratic space. There exists a randomized polynomial time algorithm which finds a Witt decomposition of $h$.

Proof. The radical of $V$ can be computed by solving a system of linear equations. Then $h$ restricted to a direct complement of the radical is regular, thus Theorem 34 applies.

We conclude the section by proposing an algorithm for explicit equivalence of quadratic forms. For simplicity we restrict our attention to regular bilinear forms.

Theorem 37. Let $\left(V_{1}, h_{1}\right)$ and $\left(V_{2}, h_{2}\right)$ be regular quadratic forms over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. Then there exists a randomized polynomial time algorithm which decides whether they are isometric, and, in case they are, computes an isometry between them.

Proof. The quadratic spaces $\left(V_{1}, h_{1}\right)$ and $\left(V_{2}, h_{2}\right)$ are equivalent if and only if the orthogonal sum of $\left(V_{1}, h_{1}\right)$ and $\left(V_{2},-h_{2}\right)$ can be decomposed into the orthogonal sum of hyperbolic planes ( $\boxed{13}$, Chapter I, Section 4]). Hence the question of deciding isometry can be solved using Theorem 34. We turn our attention to the second part of the theorem, to computing an isometry.

First we consider the case of quadratic spaces whose Witt decomposition consist only of the orthogonal sum of hyperbolic planes (i.e., hyperbolic spaces). As shown in Subsection 2.1, we can transform each of the corresponding binary forms into the standard diagonal form, $x_{1}^{2}-x_{2}^{2}$. This results in new bases for the two spaces in which $h_{1}$ and $h_{2}$ have block diagonal matrices with $2 \times 2$ diagonal blocks

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right) .
$$

The linear extension of an approriate bijection between these bases is an isometry. We can efficiently compute the matrix of this map in terms of the original bases.

Let us assume now that $\left(V_{1}, h_{1}\right)$ and $\left(V_{2}, h_{2}\right)$ are isometric anisotropic quadratic spaces. Isometry implies that ( $V_{1} \oplus V_{2}, h_{1} \oplus-h_{2}$ ) is the orthogonal sum of hyperbolic planes. We find a basis of $V_{1} \oplus V_{2}$ in which the Gram matrix of $h_{1} \oplus-h_{2}$ is of a block diagonal form like above. Then the substitution described in Subsection 2.1 for equivalence of the two standard binary hyperbolic forms $x_{1}^{2}-x_{2}^{2}$ and $x_{1} x_{2}$ can be used to construct a new basis $b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{2 n}$ in which the Gram matrix becomes block diagonal with blocks

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2} & 0
\end{array}\right) .
$$

(Here $n$ is the common dimension of $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$.) Every $b_{i}$ can be uniquely written in the form $b_{i}=u_{i}+v_{i}$ where $u_{i} \in V_{1}$ and $v_{i} \in V_{2}$. These can be found by orthogonal projection. We claim that the vectors $u_{1}, u_{3} \ldots, u_{2 n-1}$ are linerly independent. To see this, assume that

$$
\lambda_{1} u_{1}+\lambda_{3} u_{3}+\ldots+\lambda_{2 n-1} u_{2 n-1}=0
$$

for some $\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{2 n-1}$ not all zero. Then the vector $b=\lambda_{1} b_{1}+\lambda_{3} b_{3}+\ldots+\lambda_{2 n-1} b_{2 n-1}$ is non-zero as the $b_{i}$ are linearly independent. The orthogonal projection of $b$ to $V_{1}$ is zero, whence $b$ is a non-zero vector from $V_{2}$. The vector $b$, as a member of the totally isotropic subspace spanned by $b_{1}, b_{3}, \ldots, b_{2 n-1}$, must be isotropic. This however contradicts to the anisotropy of $\left(V_{2},-h_{2}\right)$. Therefore $u_{1}, u_{3}, \ldots, u_{2 n-1}$ is a basis of $V_{1}$. By symmetry, $v_{1}, v_{3}, \ldots, v_{2 n-1}$ is a basis of $V_{2}$. Now we prove that the Gram matrix of the quadratic form $h_{1}$ in the basis $u_{1}, u_{3} \ldots, u_{2 n-1}$ is the same as the Gram matrix of $h_{2}$ in the basis $v_{1}, v_{3} \ldots, v_{2 n-1}$. Observe that since the Gram matrix of $h_{1} \oplus-h_{2}$ had zeros in the diagonal $h_{1}\left(u_{i}, u_{i}\right)=h_{2}\left(v_{i}, v_{i}\right)$. Since we chose only the odd indices (i.e there are no two indices which differ by 1 ) we also have that $h_{1}\left(u_{i}, u_{j}\right)=h_{2}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$. Thus the linar extension of the map $u_{i} \rightarrow v_{i}(i=1,3, \ldots, 2 n-1)$ is an isometry between $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$. One only has to compute the matrix of this map in terms of the original bases for $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$.

In order to find isometries of possibly isotropic quadratic spaces we first compute their Witt decomposition. Then by [13, Chapter I, Section 4] we know that they are isometric if and only
if their hyperbolic and anisotropic parts are isometric respectively. An isometry can be found by taking the direct sum of a pair of isometries between the respective parts. Again, one can finish with computing the matrix of this direct sum map in terms of the original bases for $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$.

Remark 38. Theorem 37 can be extended to degenerate quadratic spaces by using Corollary 36. Also, the proof actually shows existence of a reduction from computing isometries to three instances of computing Witt decompositions of quadratic spaces over an arbitrary field of characteristic different from 2 .

## 6 An application

Besides equivalence of quadratic forms, the explicit isomorphism problem with full $2 \times 2$ matrix algebras for global function fields provides further motivation for solving homogeneous quadratic equations in 4 and 5 variables. We now describe the explicit isomorphism problem in more detail. Let $\mathbb{K}$ be a field, $\mathcal{A}$ an associative algebra over $\mathbb{K}$. Suppose that $\mathcal{A}$ is isomorphic to the full matrix algebra $M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$. The task is to construct explicitly an isomorphism $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow M_{n}(K)$. Or, equivalently, give an irreducible $\mathcal{A}$-module.

Recall, that for an algebra $\mathcal{A}$ over a field $\mathbb{K}$ and for a $\mathbb{K}$-basis $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}$ of $\mathcal{A}$ over $\mathbb{K}$, the products $a_{i} a_{j}$ can be expressed as linear combinations of the $a_{i}$ :

$$
a_{i} a_{j}=\gamma_{i j 1} a_{1}+\gamma_{i j 2} a_{2}+\cdots+\gamma_{i j m} a_{m}
$$

The elements $\gamma_{i j k} \in \mathbb{K}$ are called structure constants. We consider $\mathcal{A}$ to be given by a collection of structure constants.

The case when $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ is considered in [9], where a randomized polynomial time algorithm is proposed for computing an explicit isomorphism. However, when $\mathbb{K}$ is a finite extension of $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$, the same problem remained open. The only known algorithms for this task run in time exponential in the degree of the extension and the degree of the discriminant of the extension. The first interesting case is when $n=2$ and $\mathbb{K}$ is a quadratic extension of $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. Here we solve this problem using Algorithms 1 and 2. The method is a straightforward analogue of the algorithm from [12].

Let $\mathbb{K}$ be a quadratic extension of $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. Let $\mathcal{A}$, an algebra isomorphic to $M_{2}(\mathbb{K})$, be given by structure constants. First we find a subalgebra in $\mathcal{A}$ which is quaternion algebra over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. This is done in two steps. We begin with finding an element $u$ in $\mathcal{A}$ such that $u^{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ and $u$ is not in the center of $\mathcal{A}$. Then we find an element $v$ such that $u v+v u=0$ and $v^{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. Finally, the $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$-vector space generated by $1, u, v, u v$ yields the desired subalgebra. In the first step of this algorithm we make use of Algorithm 2. In the second part we make use of Algorithm 1.

Recall, that we denoted by $H_{\mathbb{F}}(\alpha, \beta)$ the quaternion algebra over the field $\mathbb{F}($ if $\operatorname{char}(\mathbb{F}) \neq 2)$ with parameters $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}^{*}$.

Let $K=\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)(\sqrt{d})$, where $d$ is a square-free polynomial in $\mathbb{F}_{q}[t]$.
Proposition 39. Let $\mathcal{A} \cong M_{2}(\mathbb{K})$ be given by structure constants. Then there exists a randomized polynomial time algorithm which finds a non-central element l, such that $l^{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$.

Proof. First we construct a quaternion basis $1, w, w^{\prime}, w w^{\prime}$ of $\mathcal{A}$ in the following way. We find a non-central element $w$ such that $w^{2} \in \mathbb{K}$ by completing the square and then find an element
$w^{\prime}$ such that $w w^{\prime}+w^{\prime} w=0$. This can be found by solving a system of linear equations. Such a $w^{\prime}$ exists by the following reasoning. The map $\sigma: s \mapsto w s+s w$ is $\mathbb{K}$-linear and has a nontrivial kernel since its image is contained in the centralizer of $w$ (which is not $\mathcal{A}$ since $w$ was non-central). Then $1, w, w^{\prime}, w w^{\prime}$ will be a quaternion basis. Details can be found in [17.

We have the following:

$$
w^{2}=r_{1}+t_{1} \sqrt{d}, w^{\prime 2}=r_{2}+t_{2} \sqrt{d} .
$$

Here $r_{1}, r_{2}, t_{1}, t_{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. In order to ensure that the square of $l$ is in $\mathbb{K}$ it has to be in the $\mathbb{K}$-subspace generated by $w, w^{\prime}$ and $w w^{\prime}$ ([20, Section 1.1.]). In other words the element $l$ is of the form $l=\left(s_{1}+s_{2} \sqrt{d}\right) w+\left(s_{3}+s_{4} \sqrt{d}\right) w^{\prime}+\left(s_{5}+s_{6} \sqrt{d}\right) w w^{\prime}$, where $s_{1}, \ldots, s_{6} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. The condition $l^{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ is equivalent to the following:

$$
\left(\left(s_{1}+s_{2} \sqrt{d}\right) w+\left(s_{3}+s_{4} \sqrt{d}\right) w^{\prime}+\left(s_{5}+s_{6} \sqrt{d}\right) w w^{\prime}\right)^{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t) .
$$

If we expand this we obtain:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\left(\left(s_{1}+s_{2} \sqrt{d}\right) w+\left(s_{3}+s_{4} \sqrt{d}\right) w^{\prime}+\left(s_{5}+s_{6} \sqrt{d}\right) w w^{\prime}\right)^{2}= \\
\left(s_{1}^{2}+d s_{2}^{2}+2 s_{1} s_{2} \sqrt{d}\right)\left(r_{1}+t_{1} \sqrt{d}\right)+\left(s_{3}^{2}+d s_{4}^{2}+2 s_{3} s_{4} \sqrt{d}\right)\left(r_{2}+t_{2} \sqrt{d}\right)- \\
\left(s_{5}^{2}+d s_{6}^{2}+2 s_{5} s_{6} \sqrt{d}\right)\left(r_{1}+t_{1} \sqrt{d}\right)\left(r_{2}+t_{2} \sqrt{d}\right) .
\end{array}
$$

In order for $l$ to be in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ the coefficient of $\sqrt{d}$ has to be zero:

$$
\begin{aligned}
t_{1} s_{1}^{2}+t_{1} d s_{2}^{2}+2 r_{1} s_{1} s_{2}+ & t_{2} s_{3}^{2}+t_{2} d s_{4}^{2}+2 r_{2} s_{3} s_{4}-\left(r_{1} t_{2}+t_{1} r_{2}\right) s_{5}^{2}- \\
& \left(r_{1} t_{2}+t_{1} r_{2}\right) d s_{6}^{2}-2\left(r_{1} r_{2}+t_{1} t_{2} d\right) s_{5} s_{6}=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

The previous equation can be solved by Algorithm 2. Note that a quadratic form in 6 variables over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ is always isotropic.

Now we turn to the second step:
Proposition 40. Let $B=H_{\mathbb{K}}(a, b+c \sqrt{d})$ given by: $u^{2}=a, v^{2}=b+c \sqrt{d}$, where $a, b, c \in$ $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t), c \neq 0$. Then one can find a $v^{\prime}$ (if it exists) in randomized polynomial time such that $u v^{\prime}+v^{\prime} u=0$ and $v^{\prime 2} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$.

Proof. Since $v^{\prime}$ anticommutes with $u$ (i.e. $u v^{\prime}+v^{\prime} u=0$ ) it must be a $\mathbb{K}$-linear combination of $v$ and $u v$. Indeed, the map $\sigma: B \rightarrow B$ defined by $s \mapsto u s+s u$ is linear whose image has dimension at least 2 over $K$ ( $2 u$ and $2 a$ are in the image). Therefore its kernel has dimension at most 2 and actually exactly 2 since $v$ and $u v$ are in the kernel.

This means that we have to search for $s_{1}, s_{2}, s_{3}, s_{4} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ such that:

$$
\left(\left(s_{1}+s_{2} \sqrt{d}\right) v+\left(s_{3}+s_{4} \sqrt{d}\right) u v\right)^{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)
$$

Expanding this expression we obtain the following:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\left(\left(s_{1}+s_{2} \sqrt{d}\right) v+\left(s_{3}+s_{4} \sqrt{d}\right) u v\right)^{2}= \\
\left(s_{1}^{2}+s_{2}^{2} d+2 s_{1} s_{2} \sqrt{d}\right)(b+c \sqrt{d})-\left(s_{3}^{2}+s_{4}^{2} d+2 s_{3} s_{4} \sqrt{d}\right) a(b+c \sqrt{d}) .
\end{array}
$$

In order for this to be in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$, the coefficient of $\sqrt{d}$ has to be zero. So we obtain the following equation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
c\left(s_{1}^{2}+s_{2}^{2} d\right)+2 b s_{1} s_{2}-a c\left(s_{3}^{2}+s_{4}^{2} d\right)-2 a b s_{3} s_{4}=0 . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus we have proven that finding a $v^{\prime}$ satisfying the conditions of the proposition is equivalent to solving equation (8). We either detect that equation (8) is not solvable or return a solution using Algorithm 1.

Remark 41. Actually a little bit of calculation shows that one only needs the algorithm from [4] to solve equation (8) ([12]).

Finally we state these results in one proposition:
Proposition 42. Let $\mathcal{A} \cong M_{2}(\mathbb{K})$ be given by structure constants. Then one can find either a four dimensional subalgebra over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ which is a quaternion algebra, or a zero divisor, by a randomized algorithm which runs in polynomial time.

Proof. First we find a non-central element $l$ such that $l^{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. If $l^{2}=r^{2}$, where $r \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ then we return the zero divisor $l-r$ which is non-zero since $l$ is non-central. Otherwise, when $l^{2}$ is not a square in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$, one finds an element $l^{\prime}$ such that $l l^{\prime}+l^{\prime} l=0$ and $l^{\prime 2} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. These can be done using Proposition 39 and 40. If $l^{\prime 2}=0$ we again have a zero divisor. If not, then the $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$-space generated by $1, l, l^{\prime}, l l^{\prime}$ is a quaternion algebra over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. The only thing we need to show is that for any $l$ such an $l^{\prime}$ exists.

There exists a subalgebra $\mathcal{A}_{0}$ in $\mathcal{A}$ which is isomorphic to $M_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)\right)$. In this subalgebra there is an element $l_{0}$ for which $l$ and $l_{0}$ have the same minimal polynomial over $K$. This means that there exists an $m \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $l=m^{-1} l_{0} m$ ([20, Theorem 1.2.1.]). There exists a non-zero $l_{0}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}_{0}$ such that $l_{0} l_{0}^{\prime}+l_{0}^{\prime} l_{0}=0$ (the existence of such an $l_{0}^{\prime}$ was already proven at the beginning of the proof of Proposition (39). Let $l^{\prime}=m^{-1} l_{0}^{\prime} m$. We have that $l^{\prime 2}=m^{-1} l_{0}^{\prime} m m^{-1} l_{0} m=$ $m^{-1} l_{0}^{2} m=l_{0}^{2}$, hence $l^{\prime 2} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. Since conjugation by $m$ is an automorphism we have that $l l^{\prime}+l^{\prime} l=m^{-1}\left(l_{0} l_{0}^{\prime}+l_{0}^{\prime} l_{0}\right) m=m^{-1} 0 m=0$. Thus we have proven the existence of a suitable element $l^{\prime}$.

Now we show how to apply this result to find a zero divisor in $\mathcal{A}$ :
Proposition 43. Let $\mathcal{A} \cong M_{2}(\mathbb{K})$ be given by structure constants. Then there exists a randomized polynomial time algorithm which finds a zero divisor in $\mathcal{A}$.

Proof. We invoke the algorithm from Proposition 42, If it returns a zero divisor, then we are done. If not, then we have quaternion subalgebra $H$ over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$. If $H$ is isomorphic to $M_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)\right)$, then one can find a zero divisor in it by using the algorithm form [4] (or [9). If not, then there exists an element $s \in H$ such that $s^{2}=d$. Indeed, $H$ is split by $\mathbb{K}$ and therefore contains $\mathbb{K}$ as a subfield [20, Theorem 1.2.8]. Let $1, u, v, u v$ be a quaternion basis of $H$ with $u^{2}=a, v^{2}=b$. Every non-central element whose square is in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ is an $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$-linear combination of $u, v$ and $u v$. Hence finding an element $s$ such that $s^{2}=d$ is equivalent to solving the following equation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
a x_{1}^{2}+b x_{2}^{2}-a b x_{3}^{2}=d . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $H$ is a division algebra, the quadratic form $a x_{1}^{2}+b x_{2}^{2}-a b x_{3}^{2}$ is anisotropic. Thus solving equation (9) is equivalent to finding an isotropic vector for the quadratic form $a x_{1}^{2}+$ $b x_{2}^{2}-a b x_{3}^{2}-d x_{4}^{2}$. One can find such a vector using Algorithm 1. We have found an element $s$ in $H$ such that $s^{2}=d$. Since $H$ is a central simple algebra over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ and $d$ is not a square in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$, the element $s$ is not in the center of $\mathcal{A}$. Hence $s-\sqrt{d}$ is a zero divisor in $\mathcal{A}$.

Remark 44. Let $\mathbb{F}$ be any field whose characteristic is different from 2 and let $\mathbb{K}$ be a quadratic extension of $\mathbb{F}$. The above described procedure reduces the question of finding a non-trivial zero of a ternary quadratic form over $\mathbb{K}$ to finding non-trivial zeros of quadratic forms of 4 or more variables over $\mathbb{F}$.

We also give another application of Algorithm 2 concerning quaternion algebras.
Definition 45. Let $\mathbb{F}$ be field such that char $\mathbb{F} \neq 2$. We call two quaternion algebras $A_{1}=$ $H_{\mathbb{F}}\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right), A_{2}=H_{\mathbb{F}}\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)$ linked if there exist an element $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$ such that $A_{1}=H_{\mathbb{F}}(\alpha, x)$ and $A_{2}=H_{\mathbb{F}}(\alpha, y)$.

It is known ([13, Chapter III, Theorem 4.8.]) that over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ any two quaternion algebras are linked. We now propose an algorithm which finds such a presentation.

Proposition 46. Let $A_{1}=H_{\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)}\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right), A_{2}=H_{\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)}\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)$, with $a_{1}, a_{2}, b_{1}, b_{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)^{*}$. Then, there exists a randomized polynomial time algorithm which finds $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(t)$ such that $A_{1}=$ $H_{\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)}(\alpha, x)$ and $A_{1}=H_{\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)}(\alpha, y)$.

Proof. Consider the quadratic form $a_{1} x_{1}^{2}+b_{1} x_{2}^{2}-a_{1} b_{1} x_{3}^{2}-a_{2} x_{4}^{2}-b_{2} x_{5}^{2}+a_{2} b_{2} x_{6}^{2}$. Find an isotropic vector for this quadratic form using Algorithm 2. Let the solution vector be $\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{6}\right)$. Then let $\alpha=a_{1} y_{1}^{2}+b_{1} y_{2}^{2}-a_{1} b_{1} y_{3}^{2}=a_{2} y_{4}^{2}+b_{2} y_{5}^{2}-a_{2} b_{2} y_{6}^{2}$. If $\alpha=0$ then $A_{1} \cong A_{2} \cong M_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}(t)\right)$, hence such a presentation can be found using the algorithm from [4]. If $\alpha \neq 0$ then let $1, u_{1}, v_{1}, u_{1} v_{1}$ be the quaternion basis of $A_{1}$. Then the task of finding a suitable presentation reduces to finding an element which anticommutes with $y_{1} u_{1}+y_{2} v_{1}+y_{3}\left(u_{1} v_{1}\right)$. This can be done in polynomial time. The same goes for $A_{2}$.

Remark 47. This problem can also be thought of as calculating a common splitting field of two quaternion algebras.

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