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— Abstract

Border complexity measures are defined via limits (or topological closures), so that any function which can approximated arbitrarily closely by low complexity functions itself has low border complexity. Debordering is the task of proving an upper bound on some non-border complexity measure in terms of a border complexity measure, thus getting rid of limits.

Debordering is at the heart of understanding the difference between Valiant's determinant vs permanent conjecture, and Mulmuley and Sohoni's variation which uses border determinantal complexity. The debordering of matrix multiplication tensors by Bini played a pivotal role in the development of efficient matrix multiplication algorithms. Consequently, debordering finds applications in both establishing computational complexity lower bounds and facilitating algorithm design. Currently, very few debordering results are known.

In this work, we study the question of debordering the border Waring rank of polynomials. Waring and border Waring rank are very well studied measures in the context of invariant theory, algebraic geometry, and matrix multiplication algorithms. For the first time, we obtain a Waring rank upper bound that is exponential in the border Waring rank and only *linear* in the degree. All previous known results were exponential in the degree. For polynomials with constant border Waring rank, our results imply an upper bound on the Waring rank linear in degree, which previously was only known for polynomials with border Waring rank at most 5.

2012 ACM Subject Classification Theory of computation \rightarrow Algebraic complexity theory

Keywords and phrases border complexity, Waring rank, debordering, apolarity

Funding *Pranjal Dutta*: Funded under the project "Foundation of Lattice-based Cryptography", by NUS-NCS Joint Laboratory for Cyber Security.

Christian Ikenmeyer: Supported by EPSRC grant EP/W014882/1.

Vladimir Lysikov: Part of the work was done while V.L. was affiliated with the QMATH Centre, University of Copenhagen. V.L. acknowledges financial support from VILLUM FONDEN via the QMATH Centre of Excellence (Grant No. 10059) and the European Union (ERC Grant Agreements 818761 and 101040907). Views and opinions expressed are however those of the author(s) only and do not necessarily reflect those of the European Union or the European Research Council Executive Agency. Neither the European Union nor the granting authority can be held responsible for them.

1 Introduction

Given a homogeneous polynomial f of degree d over \mathbb{C} , its Waring rank WR(f) is defined as the smallest number r such that there exist homogeneous linear forms ℓ_1, \ldots, ℓ_r with

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \ell_i^d.$$

Equivalently, WR(f) is the minimal top fanin of a homogeneous $\Sigma \wedge \Sigma$ circuit computing f. In the case of quadratic forms (polynomials of degree 2), this notion is equivalent to the rank of the symmetric matrix associated with a quadratic form; hence Waring rank can be regarded as a generalization of the rank of a symmetric matrix. Unlike the case of matrices, when $d \geq 3$, Waring rank is in general not lower semicontinuous ¹, that is, a limit of a family of polynomials with low Waring rank can have higher Waring rank. The simplest example is given by the polynomial $x^{d-1}y$, which has Waring rank d (this is a classical result [50]), but can be presented as a limit

$$x^{d-1}y = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{d\epsilon} \left[(x + \epsilon y)^d - x^d \right]$$

of a family of Waring rank 2 polynomials (note that we work over \mathbb{C} , so this expression can be rearranged into a sum of two powers by moving constants inside the parentheses). The *border Waring rank* is a semicontinuous variation of Waring rank defined as follows: the border Waring rank of f, denoted $\underline{WR}(f)$, is the smallest r such that f can be written as a limit of a sequence of polynomials of Waring rank at most r. We have $\underline{WR}(x^{d-1}y) = 2$.

Waring rank was studied already in the eighteenth century [24, 53, 26] in the context of invariant theory, with the aim to determine normal forms for homogeneous polynomials. We mention the famous Sylvester Pentahedral Theorem, stating that a generic cubic form in four variables can be written uniquely as a sum of five cubes. At the beginning of the twentieth century, the early work on secant varieties in classical algebraic geometry [51, 54] implicitly commenced the study of border Waring rank. The notion of border rank for tensors was introduced in [12] to construct faster-than-Strassen matrix multiplication algorithms. In [11], Bini proved that tensor border rank and tensor rank define the same matrix multiplication exponent. Today this theory is deeply related to the study of Gorenstein algebras [38, 16], the Hilbert scheme of points [41], and deformation theory [19, 42].

In the context of algebraic complexity theory, Waring rank defines a model of computation known as the homogeneous diagonal depth 3 circuits or homogeneous $\Sigma \wedge \Sigma$ circuits, see e.g. [52]. This is a very weak computational model (determinants have provably exponential Waring rank [34]). Nevertheless, it is important as one of the simplest nontrivial computational models and has many unresolved open problems associated with it. The Waring rank of a generic homogeneous polynomial of degree $d \geq 3$ in n variables is $\lceil \frac{1}{n} \cdot \binom{n+d-1}{d} \rceil = \Omega(\frac{n^{d-1}}{d!})$ with finite number of exceptional values of (n, d) [2], but the best lower bounds obtained are of order $2n^{\lfloor d/2 \rfloor}$ (from tensor rank lower bounds in [3]). For a large class of lower bound methods, so called rank methods, there are barrier results showing that cannot give bounds significantly larger than $n^{\lfloor d/2 \rfloor}$ [28, 31, 30]. Waring rank can be useful when the degree of the polynomials considered is constant. For example, the results of [25] guarantee that the matrix multiplication exponent is controlled by the Waring rank or border Waring rank

¹ A function f is lower semicontinuous at a if $\liminf f(x) \ge f(a)$.

of the polynomial $\operatorname{Tr}(X^3)$ with $X \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, which is a symmetrized version of the matrix multiplication tensor.

The lack of semicontinuity is a common phenomenon in algebraic complexity not specific to Waring rank. Most complexity measures defined in terms of discrete structures (such as circuits or formulas) or in terms of decompositions (such as Waring rank or tensor rank) are not lower semicontinuous. To any algebraic complexity measure one can define the corresponding *border complexity measure* in the same way as border Waring rank arises from Waring rank: the border complexity of f is the smallest number s such that f can be approximated arbitrarily closely by polynomials of complexity at most s. Border tensor rank appears in the study of the computational complexity of matrix multiplication [12, 11], border complexity for algebraic circuits was first discussed in [48] and [21].

Replacing a complexity measure by its border measure in a complexity class, we obtain the *closure* of this class. For example, $\overline{\mathsf{VP}}$ is the class of all polynomial sequences with polynomially bounded degree and border circuit size, and $\overline{\mathsf{VF}}$ is defined analogously using formula size. Formally, the closure $\overline{\mathcal{C}}$ of a complexity class \mathcal{C} consists of all polynomial sequences $(f_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ such that there exists a bivariate sequence $(g_{n,m})_{n,m\in\mathbb{N}}$ with the property that $(g_{n,m})_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ lies in \mathcal{C} for every fixed m, and $f_n = \lim_{m\to\infty} g_{n,m}$. The operation of going to the closure is indeed a closure operator in the sense of topology, see [39].

The relationship between border and non-border complexity is far from straightforward. In some contexts taking a limit can be a very strong operation, which sometimes turns non-universal computational models into universal ones. For example, there are polynomials which cannot be computed by width 2 algebraic branching programs [4], but the corresponding border measure is related to border formula size [15], so every polynomial is a limit of width 2 ABPs. Kumar [45] gives an even easier example: every polynomial can be presented as a limit of a sum of 2 products of affine linear forms. On the other hand, there are examples of complexity measures which are lower semicontinuous, so that there is no difference between border and non-border complexity measures. A simplest example is the number of monomials in a polynomial (equivalently, top fanin of a $\Sigma\Pi$ circuit). Other examples are noncommutative ABP width (implicit in [49]) and read-once ABP width [27].

Semicontinuous complexity measures and closed complexity classes are easier to work with using geometric methods. Because of this, the geometric complexity theory program [48] proposes to study conjectures $VNP \not\subseteq \overline{VBP}$ and $VNP \not\subseteq \overline{VP}$ instead of Valiant's conjectures $VNP \neq VBP$ and $VNP \neq VP$. The $VNP \not\subseteq \overline{VP}$ conjecture was also proposed in [21]. These border variants of Valiant's conjecture are now usually referred to as the Mulmuley–Sohoni conjectures. Mulmuley–Sohoni conjectures are stronger that Valiant's conjectures, but it is not clear how much stronger, as most questions about the relations between complexity classes and their closures are wide open. It is unknown even whether or not $\overline{VF} \subseteq VNP$. Theorems of the form $\overline{C} \subseteq D$ for algebraic complexity classes C and D are called *debordering* results. These kind of results can also be proven directly on the complexity measures, by giving an upper bound on a non-border complexity in terms of border complexity. For example, $abpw(f) \leq \underline{WR}(f)$, where abpw(f) is the algebraic branching program width of f. This is proven using semicontinuity of noncommutative ABP width, see [13, Thm 4.2] and [29]. In terms of complexity classes, this means $\overline{VWaring} \subseteq VBP$, where VWaring is the class of p-families that have polynomially bounded Waring rank.

Forbes [55] conjectures that $\overline{\mathsf{VWaring}} = \mathsf{VWaring}$. Since this puts $\overline{\mathsf{VWaring}}$ in VF, a proof of this conjecture will also improve the results of Dutta, Dwivedi and Saxena [27] from $\overline{\Sigma^{[r]}\Pi\Sigma} \subset \mathsf{VBP}$ to $\overline{\Sigma^{[r]}\Pi\Sigma} \subset \mathsf{VF}$. Ballico and Bernardi [7] propose an even stronger conjecture stating that $\mathsf{WR}(f) \leq (\underline{\mathsf{WR}}(f) - 1) \cdot \deg f$. This was proven by case analysis for small values

of border Waring rank: for $\underline{WR}(f) \leq 3$ in [46], for $\underline{WR}(f) = 4$ in [6], and for $\underline{WR}(f) = 5$ and deg $f \geq 9$ in [5].

Main result

We prove the following improved debordering theorem for border Waring rank.

▶ **Theorem 1** (Fixed-parameter debordering). Let f be a homogeneous polynomial with deg f = d and $\underline{WR}(f) = r$. Then $WR(f) \le 4^r \cdot d$.

Note that the example of the polynomial $x^{d-1}y$ with $\underline{\mathsf{WR}}(x^{d-1}y) = 2$ and $\mathsf{WR}(x^{d-1}y) = d$ shows that any debordering bound must necessarily depend on both border Waring rank r and the degree d. We call our result a *fixed-parameter debordering* because the bound is polynomial (in this case even linear) in d, but exponential in the complexity parameter r. In the case of a fixed border Waring rank this gives a bound linear in the degree. This was previously known only for $\underline{\mathsf{WR}}(f) \leq 5$. Even for $r = O(\log d)$ we obtain an upper bound polynomial in d.

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first fixed-parameter debordering result. Previous methods applied to border Waring rank only allow upper bounds of the order d^r or r^d . To get $WR(f) \leq O(d^r)$, note that a polynomial with border Waring rank r can be transformed into a polynomial in only r variables using a linear change of variables (see Lemma 4), and then take the maximal possible Waring rank of an r-variate polynomial of degree d as an upper bound. Alternatively, an upper bound $WR(f) \leq 2^{d-1}r^d$ can be obtained by using the previously mentioned debordering into an ABP ($abpw(f) \leq \underline{WR}(f)$) and writing the ABP as a sum of at most r^d products, one for each path. Other known debordering techniques, such as the interpolation technique using the bound on the degree of ϵ in the approximation from the work of Lehmkuhl and Lickteig [47] (which is exponential in the degree of the polynomial), or the DiDIL technique from [27] can be applied in the border Waring rank setting, but do not improve over the simpler results discussed above.

Proof ideas

The main ideas for the proof come from *apolarity theory* and the study of 0-dimensional schemes in projective space (see Appendix A), but we managed to simplify the proof so that it is elementary and *does not use* the language of algebraic geometry and is based on partial derivative techniques (see Section 2.3).

To prove the debordering, we transform a border Waring rank decomposition for f into a generalized additive decomposition [37, 8, 10] of the form $f = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \ell_k^{d-r_k+1} g_k$, where ℓ_k are linear forms, and g_k are homogeneous polynomials of degrees $r_k - 1$. We then obtain an upper bound on the Waring rank, by first decomposing each g_k with respect to a basis consisting of powers of linear forms, and then using the classical fact (see also [20]) that $WR(\ell_1^a \ell_2^b) \leq \max(a+1,b+1)$.

To construct a generalized additive decomposition, we divide the summands of a border rank decomposition into several parts such that cancellations happen *only* between summands belonging to the same part; see Lemma 10. The key insight is that if the degree of polynomials involved is high enough, namely when deg $f \ge \underline{WR}(f) - 1$, then all parts of the decomposition are "local" in the sense that the lowest order term in each summand is a multiple of the same linear form. Each local part gives one term of the form $\ell^{d-r+1}g$, where r is the number of rank one summands in the part and ℓ is the common lowest order linear form; see Lemma 7.

For example, consider the family of polynomials $f_d = x_0^{d-1}y_0 + x_1^{d-1}y_1 + 2(x_0 + x_1)^{d-1}y_2$, adapted from [17]. If d > 3, then the border Waring rank of f is at most 6, as evidenced by the decomposition

$$f_d = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{d\epsilon} \left[(x_0 + \epsilon y_0)^d - x_0^d + (x_1 + \epsilon y_1)^d - x_1^d + 2(x_0 + x_1 + \epsilon y_2)^d - 2(x_0 + x_1)^d \right],$$
(1)

and a matching lower bound is obtained by considering the dimension of the space of second order partial derivatives. The summands of the decomposition (1) can be divided into three pairs. The lowest order term of the first pair is x_0^d , the one of the second pair is x_1^d and the one of the third pair is $(x_0 + x_1)^d$. For each pair, the sum of the two powers individually converges to a limit as $\epsilon \to 0$; these three limits are, respectively, $x_0^{d-1}y_0$, $x_1^{d-1}y_1$, and $2(x_0 + x_1)^{d-1}y_2$, which are the summands of a generalized additive decomposition for f_d .

When d = 3, the polynomial f_d is an example of a "wild form" [17]. It has border Waring rank 5 given for example by the decomposition

$$f_{3} = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{9\epsilon} \left[3(x_{0} + \epsilon y_{0})^{3} + 3(x_{1} + \epsilon y_{1})^{3} + 6(x_{0} + x_{1} + \epsilon y_{2})^{3} - (x_{0} + 2x_{1})^{3} - (2x_{0} + x_{3})^{3} \right].$$
(2)

Unlike the previous decomposition, this one cannot be divided into parts that have limits individually, and is not local — all summands have different lowest order terms. This is only possible if the degree is low.

The condition on the degree is related to algebro-geometric questions about regularity of 0-dimensional schemes [38, Thm. 1.69], but for the schemes arising from border rank decompositions, this is ultimately a consequence of the fact that r distinct linear forms have linearly independent d-th powers when $d \ge r - 1$.

2 Debordering border Waring rank

The goal of this section is to prove Theorem 1. Given a homogeneous degree d polynomial f, we provide upper bounds for WR(f) in terms of $\underline{WR}(f)$ and d.

2.1 Definitions

In this section we introduce some notation and give a formal definition of Waring rank and border Waring rank. We work over the field \mathbb{C} of complex numbers. The space of homogeneous polynomials of degree d in variables $\boldsymbol{x} = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is denoted by $\mathbb{C}[\boldsymbol{x}]_d$. We write $f \simeq g$ for $f, g \in \mathbb{C}(\epsilon)[\boldsymbol{x}]$ if $\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} f = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} g$ (in particular, both limits must exist). Recall that the projective space $\mathbb{P}V$ is defined as the set of lines through the origin in V, that is, for each nonzero $v \in V$ we have a corresponding line $[v] \in \mathbb{P}V$, and [v] = [w] if and only if $v = \alpha w$ for some α .

▶ Definition 2. A Waring rank decomposition of a homogeneous polynomial $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]_d$ is a decomposition of the form

$$f = \sum_{k=1}^{r} \ell_k^d$$

for some linear forms $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_r \in \mathbb{C}[\mathbf{x}]_1$. The minimal number of summands in a Waring rank decomposition is called the Waring rank of f and is denoted by WR(f).

It is known that every homogeneous polynomial over \mathbb{C} has finite Waring rank [50].

▶ **Definition 3.** A border Waring rank decomposition of a homogeneous polynomial $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]_d$ is an expression of the form

$$f = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \sum_{k=1}^{r} \ell_k^d$$

where $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_r \in \mathbb{C}(\epsilon)[\mathbf{x}]_1$, that is, ℓ_i are linear forms in \mathbf{x} with coefficients rationally dependent on ϵ . The border Waring rank $\underline{WR}(f)$ is the minimal number of summands in a border Waring rank decomposition.

Equivalently, the border Waring rank of $f \in \mathbb{C}[\mathbf{x}]_d$ can be defined as the minimal number r such that f lies in the closure of the set $W_{d,r} = \{g \in \mathbb{C}[\mathbf{x}]_d \mid \mathsf{WR}(g) \leq r\}$ of all polynomials with Waring rank at most r. The set $W_{d,r}$ is constructible, so its Zariski and Euclidean closures coincide, see e.g. [44, Anh.I.7.2 Folgerung]. The equivalence to the definition given above was established by Alder [1] (cited by [22, Ch.20]) for a similar notion of tensor rank, the proof remains essentially the same for Waring rank of polynomials.

2.2 Orbit closure and essential variables

The number of essential variables of a homogeneous polynomial f is the minimum integer m such that there is a linear change of coordinates after which f can be written as a polynomial in m variables. Denote the number of essential variables of f by $N_{ess}(f)$. It is a classical fact, which already appears in [53], that the number of essential variables of f equals the dimension of the linear span of its first order partial derivatives, or equivalently the rank of the first partial derivative map. In particular $N_{ess}(-)$ is a lower semicontinuous function. We refer to [23] and [43, Lemma B.1] for modern proofs of this result.

An immediate consequence of the semicontinuity of the number of essential variables is the following result.

▶ Lemma 4. For a homogeneous polynomial $f \in \mathbb{C}[\mathbf{x}]_d$ we have $N_{ess}(f) \leq \underline{WR}(f)$.

Proof. We first prove $N_{ess}(f) \leq WR(f)$. Let p be the dimension of the linear space spanned by the linear forms ℓ_k in the decomposition $f = \sum_{k=1}^r \ell_k^d$. Without loss of generality the linear forms ℓ_1, \ldots, ℓ_p are linearly independent, and $\ell_{p+1}, \ldots, \ell_r$ are linear combinations of ℓ_1, \ldots, ℓ_p . After applying a change of variables such that $y_k = \ell_k(\boldsymbol{x})$ for $k = 1, \ldots, p$ we see that $N_{ess}(f) \leq p \leq r$.

The inequality $N_{ess}(f) \leq \underline{WR}(f)$ now follows from the semicontinuity of N_{ess} : if

$$f = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \sum_{k=1}^{\prime} \ell_k^d ,$$

with $\ell_k \in \mathbb{C}(\epsilon)[\mathbf{x}]$, then $N_{ess}(f) \leq \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} N_{ess}(\sum_{k=1}^r \ell_k^d(\epsilon)) \leq r$.

2.3 Fixed-parameter debordering

The proof of Theorem 1 is based on generalized additive decompositions of polynomials, in the sense of [37]. These decompositions were studied in algebraic geometry, usually in connection to 0-dimensional schemes and the notion of cactus rank. We defer the discussion of connections to algebraic geometry to the next section. Here we provide elementary proofs of some statements on generalized additive decompositions based on partial derivatives

techniques, without using the language of 0-dimensional schemes. We bring from geometry a key insight: a border rank decomposition can be separated into *local* parts if the degree of the polynomial is large enough.

To define formally what it means for a border rank decomposition to be local, note that a rational family of linear forms $\ell \in \mathbb{C}(\epsilon)[x]_1$ always has a limit when viewed projectively. Specifically, expanding $\ell(\epsilon)$ as a Laurent series $\ell(\epsilon) = \sum_{i=q}^{\infty} \epsilon^i \ell_i$ with $\ell_q \neq 0$, we have $\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} [\ell(\epsilon)] = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} [\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \epsilon^i \ell_{q+i}] = [\ell_q]$. A border Waring rank decomposition is called local if for all summands in the decomposition this limit is the same. More precisely, we give the following definition.

▶ Definition 5. Let $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]_d$ be a homogeneous polynomial. A border Waring rank decomposition

$$f = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \sum_{k=1}^{r} \ell_k^d ,$$

with $\ell_k \in \mathbb{C}(\epsilon)[\mathbf{x}]_1$ is called a local border decomposition if there exists a linear form $\ell \in \mathbb{C}[\mathbf{x}]_1$ such that $\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} [\ell_k(\epsilon)] = [\ell]$ for all $k \in \{1, \ldots, r\}$. We call the point $[\ell] \in \mathbb{PC}[\boldsymbol{x}]_1$ the base of the decomposition. A local decomposition is called standard if $\ell_1 = \epsilon^q \gamma \ell$ for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\gamma \in \mathbb{C}$.

 \blacktriangleright Lemma 6. If f has a local border decomposition, then it has a standard local border decomposition with the same base and the same number of summands.

Proof. After applying a linear change of variables, we may assume that the base of the local decomposition for f is $[x_1]$. This means

$$f = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \sum_{k=1}^{r} \ell_k^d$$

with $\ell_k = \epsilon^{q_k} \cdot \gamma_k x_1 + \sum_{j=q_k+1}^{\infty} \epsilon^j \ell_{k,j}$. Write $\ell_1 = \epsilon^{q_1} (\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i x_i)$ where $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{C}(\epsilon)$. Let $\hat{x}_1 = \frac{\gamma_1}{\alpha_1} x_1 - \sum_{i=2}^n \frac{\alpha_n}{\alpha_1} x_i$. Note that $\alpha_1 \simeq \gamma_1$ and $\alpha_i \simeq 0$ for i > 1, hence $\hat{x}_1 \simeq x_1$ and

$$f \simeq f(\widehat{x}_1, \dots, x_n) \simeq \ell_1(\widehat{x}_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^d + \sum_{k=2}^r \ell_k(\widehat{x}_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^d = (\epsilon^{q_1} \gamma_1 x_1)^d + \sum_{k=2}^r \widehat{\ell}_k^d.$$

where $\hat{\ell}_k(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = \ell_k(\hat{x}_1,x_2,\ldots,x_n)$. This defines a new border rank decomposition of f. Moreover, notice that $\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} [\ell_k] = [x_1]$ for every k, so the new decomposition is again local with base $[x_1]$. Since the first summand is $\epsilon^{q_1}\gamma_1 x_1$, this is the desired standard local border decomposition.

▶ Lemma 7. Suppose $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]_d$ has a local border decomposition with r summands based at $[\ell]$. If $d \ge r-1$, then $f = \ell^{d-r+1}g$ for some homogeneous polynomial g of degree r-1.

Proof. After applying a linear change of variables we may assume $\ell = x_1$. We prove the statement by induction on r and the difference d - (r - 1).

The cases r = 1 and d = r - 1 are trivial.

If d > r-1, then by the previous Lemma there exists a standard local border decomposition

$$f = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \sum_{k=1}^{r} \ell_k(\epsilon)^d.$$

Write $\ell_k = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_{ki} x_i$ for some $\alpha_{ki} \in \mathbb{C}(\epsilon)$. Since the decomposition is standard, $\alpha_{1i} = 0$ for i > 1. For the derivatives of f we have the following border decompositions

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \sum_{k=1}^r d \cdot \alpha_{k1}(\epsilon) \ell_k(\epsilon)^{d-1},$$

and

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \sum_{k=2}^r d \cdot \alpha_{ki}(\epsilon) \ell_k(\epsilon)^{d-1}.$$

for $i \neq 1$. These decompositions involve the same linear forms ℓ_k with multiplicative coefficients, so they are local with the same base $[x_1]$. By inductive hypothesis $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} = x_1^{d-r}g_1$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = x_1^{d-r+1}g_i$ for some homogeneous polynomials g_1, \ldots, g_n of appropriate degrees. To get an analogous expression for f, combine these expressions using Euler's formula for homogeneous polynomials as follows

$$f = \frac{1}{d} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = \frac{1}{d} \left(x_1 \cdot x_1^{d-r} g_1 + \sum_{i=2}^{n} x_i x_1^{d-r+1} g_i \right) = \frac{1}{d} x_1^{d-r+1} \left(g_1 + \sum_{i=2}^{n} x_i g_i \right) . \quad \blacktriangleleft$$

We will now extend this result to non-local border Waring rank decompositions. As long as the degree of the approximated polynomial is high enough, every border rank decomposition can be divided into local parts and transformed into a sum of terms of the form $\ell^{d-r+1}g$.

 \blacktriangleright Definition 8. A generalized additive decomposition of f is a decomposition of the form

$$f = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \ell_k^{d-r_k+1} g_k$$

where ℓ_k are linear forms such that ℓ_i is not proportional to ℓ_j when $i \neq j$, and g_k are homogeneous polynomials of degrees deg $g_k = r_k - 1$.

To show that there are no cancellations between different local parts, we need the following lemma, which in the case of 2 variables goes back to Jordan [38, Lem. 1.35]. This lemma can be seen as a generalization of a well-known fact that m pairwise non-proportional linear forms ℓ_1, \ldots, ℓ_m have linearly independent powers $\ell_1^d, \ldots, \ell_m^d$ for $d \ge m - 1$.

▶ Lemma 9. Let $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_m \in \mathbb{C}[x]_1$ be linear forms such that ℓ_i is not proportional to ℓ_j when $i \neq j$. Let g_1, \ldots, g_m be homogeneous polynomials of degrees $r_1 - 1, \ldots, r_m - 1$ respectively. If

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} \ell_k^{d-r_k+1} g_k = 0$$

and $d \ge \sum_{k=1}^{m} r_i - 1$, then all g_k are zero.

Proof. We first prove the statement for polynomials in 2 variables y_1, y_2 by induction on the number of summands m; this part of the proof closely follows [32, Appx.III].

The case m = 1 with one summand is clear. Consider the case m > 2. We can assume $\ell_1 = y_1$ by applying a linear change of variables if required. Note two simple facts about partial derivatives. First, for a homogeneous polynomial $f \in \mathbb{C}[y_1, y_2]_d$ we have $\partial_2^r f = 0$ if and only if $f = y_1^{d-r+1}g$ (here $\partial_2 := \frac{\partial}{\partial y_2}$). Second, differentiating r times a homogeneous polynomial of the form $\ell^{d-s+1}g$, we obtain a polynomial of the form $\ell^{d-r-s+1}h$.

Suppose

$$y_1^{d-r_1+1}g_1 + \sum_{k=2}^m \ell_k^{d-r_k+1}g_k = 0.$$

Differentiating r_1 times with respect to y_2 , we obtain

$$\sum_{k=2}^{m} \ell_k^{d-r_1-r_k+1} h_k = 0,$$

where $\ell_k^{d-r_1-r_k+1}h_k = \partial_2^{r_1}(\ell_k^{d-r_k+1}g_k)$. The degree condition $d-r_1 \ge \sum_{k=2}^m r_k - 1$ holds for this new expression. Therefore, by induction hypothesis we have $h_k = 0$ and thus $\partial_2^{r_1}(\ell_k^{d-r_k+1}g_k) = 0$. It follows that $\ell_k^{d-r_k+1}g_k = y_1^{d-r_1+1}\widehat{g}_k$ for some homogeneous polynomial \widehat{g}_k . This implies that $y_1^{d-r_1+1}$ divides g_k , which is impossible since $d-r_1+1 \ge \sum_{k=2}^m r_k \ge r_k > \deg g_k$.

Consider now the general case where the number of variables $n \ge 2$ (the case n = 1 is trivial). Suppose $\sum_{k=1}^{m} \ell_k^{d-r_k+1} g_k = 0$. The set of linear maps $A: (y_1, y_2) \mapsto (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ such that $\ell_i \circ A$ and $\ell_j \circ A$ are not proportional to each other is a nonempty Zariski open set given by the condition rank $(\ell_i \circ A, \ell_j \circ A) > 1$. Hence for a nonempty Zariski open (and therefore dense) set of linear maps A the linear forms $\ell_k \circ A$ are pairwise non-proportional. From the binary case above we have $g_k \circ A = 0$ if A lies in this open set. By continuity this implies $g_k \circ A = 0$ for all A. Since every point lies in the image of some linear map A we have $g_k = 0$.

▶ Lemma 10. Let $f \in \mathbb{C}[\mathbf{x}]_d$ be such that $\underline{WR}(f) = r$. If $d \ge r - 1$, then there exists a partition $r = r_1 + \cdots + r_m$ such that f has a generalized additive decomposition

$$f = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \ell_k^{d-r_k+1} g_k$$

and moreover $\underline{\mathsf{WR}}(\ell_k^{d-r_k+1}g_k) \leq r_k$.

Proof. Consider a border Waring rank decomposition

$$f = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \sum_{k=1}^{r} \ell_k^d$$

Divide the summands between several local decompositions as follows. Define an equivalence relation ~ on the set of indices $\{1, 2, \ldots, r\}$ as $i \sim j \Leftrightarrow \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} [\ell_i] = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} [\ell_j]$ and let I_1, \ldots, I_m be the equivalence classes with respect to this relation. Further, let $r_k = |I_k|$ and let $[L_k] = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} [\ell_i]$ for $i \in I_k$.

Consider the sum of all summands with indices in I_k . Let q_k be the power of ϵ in the lowest order term, that is,

$$\sum_{i\in I_k}\ell_i^d = \epsilon^{q_k}f_k + \sum_{j=q_k+1}^{\infty}\epsilon^j f_{k,j} ,$$

with $f_k \in \mathbb{C}[\mathbf{x}]_d$ nonzero. This expression can be transformed into a local border decomposition

$$f_k = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \sum_{i \in I_k} \left(\frac{\ell_i(\epsilon^d)}{\epsilon^{q_k}} \right)^a$$

based at $[L_k]$. By Lemma 7 we have $f_k = L_k^{d-r_k+1}g_k$ for some homogeneous polynomial g_k of degree $r_k - 1$. The decomposition also gives $\underline{WR}(f_k) \leq r_k$.

Note that $q_k \leq 0$ since otherwise the summands ℓ_i with $i \in I_k$ can be removed from the original border rank decomposition of f without changing the limit. Let $q = \min\{q_1, \ldots, q_m\}$. Note that if q < 0, then, comparing the terms before ϵ^q in the left and right hand sides of the equality

$$f + O(\epsilon) = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \sum_{i \in I_k} \ell_i^d$$

we get

$$0 = \sum_{k: q_k = q} f_k = \sum_{k: q_k = q} L_k^{d - r_k + 1} g_k$$

From Lemma 9 we obtain $g_k = 0$ and $f_k = 0$, in contradiction with the definition of f_k .

We conclude that q = 0 and

$$f = \sum_{k=1}^{m} f_k = \sum_{k=1}^{m} L_k^{d-r_k+1} g_k,$$

obtaining the required generalized additive decomposition.

We will now take a brief detour to define a function M(r) which we use to upper bound the Waring rank of generalized additive decomposition.

▶ Definition 11. Let $\max(n, d)$ denote the maximum Waring rank of a degree d homogeneous polynomial in n variables, that is $\max(n, d) = \max\{\operatorname{WR}(f) \mid f \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]_d\}$. Define the partition-maxrank function as

$$M(r) = \max_{r_1 + \dots + r_m = r} \sum_{k=1}^m \max \mathsf{R}(r_k, r_k - 1).$$

Since every homogeneous polynomial has finite Waring rank, the space $\mathbb{C}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]_d$ is spanned by powers of linear forms. This implies a trivial upper bound on the maximum Waring rank: $\max(n, d) \leq \dim \mathbb{C}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]_d = \binom{n+d-1}{d}$. Improved upper bounds were proven in [14, 40].

▶ **Proposition 12.** $\max R(n, d_1) \leq \max R(n, d_2)$ when $d_1 \leq d_2$.

Proof. Every form f of degree d_1 can be represented as a partial derivative of some form g of degree d_2 . By differentiating a Waring rank decomposition of g we obtain a Waring rank decomposition of f, thus $WR(f) \leq WR(g) \leq maxR(n, d_2)$. Since f is arbitrary, $maxR(n, d_1) \leq maxR(n, d_2)$.

We are now ready to prove a debordering theorem for Waring rank.

▶ Theorem 13. Let $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]_d$ be such that $\underline{\mathsf{WR}}(f) = r$. Then

 $\mathsf{WR}(f) \le M(r) \cdot d.$

Proof. We consider two cases depending on relation of degree d and border Waring rank r.

Case d < r - 1. Since $\underline{WR}(f) = r$, the number of essential variables of f is at most r. Taking the maximum Waring rank as an upper bound, we obtain

$$\mathsf{WR}(f) \le \max \mathsf{R}(r, d) < \max \mathsf{R}(r, r-1) \le M(r) \le M(r) \cdot d.$$

Case $d \ge r - 1$. By Lemma 10 f has a generalized additive decomposition

$$f = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \ell_k^{d-r_k+1} g_k$$

with $r_1 + \cdots + r_m = r$, deg $g_k = r_k - 1$ and $\underline{WR}(\ell_k^{d-r_k+1}g_k) \leq r_k$. Since $\underline{WR}(\ell_k^{d-r_k+1}g_k) \leq r_k$, the number of essential variables $N_{ess}(g_k) \leq r_k$. If $r_k = 1$, then

$$\mathsf{WR}(\ell_k^{d-r_k+1}g_k) = \mathsf{WR}(\ell_k^d) = 1 \le d.$$

If $r_k \geq 2$, then we upper bound $WR(g_k)$ by $\max R(N_{ess}(g_k), \deg g_k) = \max R(r_k, r_k - 1)$. Taking a Waring rank decomposition $g_k = \sum_{i=1}^{WR(g_k)} L_i^{r_k-1}$ and multiplying it by $\ell_k^{d-r_k+1}$, we obtain a decomposition

$$\ell_k^{d-r_k+1} g_k = \sum_{i=1}^{\mathsf{WR}(g_k)} \ell_k^{d-r_k+1} \cdot L_i^{r_k-1}.$$

It is known that $WR(y_1^a y_2^b) = \max\{a, b\} + 1$ (this is a classical fact known at least to Oldenburger [50], see also [20])². It follows that

$$\mathsf{WR}(\ell_k^{d-r_k+1}L_i^{r_k-1}) \le \mathsf{WR}(y_1^{d-r_k+1}y_2^{r_k-1}) = \max\{d-r_k+2, r_k\} \le d$$

Hence we have $\mathsf{WR}(\ell_k^{d-r_k+1}g_k) \le d \cdot \mathsf{WR}(g_k) \le d \cdot \mathsf{maxR}(r_k-1,r_k).$

Combining all parts of the decomposition together, we get

$$\mathsf{WR}(f) \le d \sum_{k=1}^{m} \mathsf{maxR}(r-k-1,r_k) \le M(r) \cdot d.$$

A more explicit upper bound is provided by the following immediate corollary.

▶ Theorem 14. Let $f \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]_d$ and let $\underline{\mathsf{WR}}(f) = r$. Then

$$\mathsf{WR}(f) \le \binom{2r-2}{r-1} \cdot d$$

Proof. The space of homogeneous polynomials of degree r-1 in r variables has dimension $\binom{2r-2}{r-1}$ and is spanned by powers of linear forms. Therefore, $\max(r-1,r) \leq \binom{2r-2}{r-1}$. Note that if r = p + q with $p, q \neq 0$, then the space $\mathbb{C}[x_1, \ldots, x_r]_{r-1}$ contains a direct sum of $x_1^q \cdot \mathbb{C}[x_1, \ldots, x_p]_{p-1}$ and $x_1^{p+1} \cdot \mathbb{C}[x_{p+1}, \ldots, x_r]_{q-1}$. Taking the dimensions of these spaces, we obtain $\binom{2r-2}{r-1} \geq \binom{2p-2}{p-1} + \binom{2q-2}{q-1}$. It follows that $M(r) \leq \binom{2r-2}{r-1}$.

Using the Blekherman–Teitler bound on the maximum rank [14], we can get a slightly better bound. The proof is essentially the same as for the previous theorem.

▶ Corollary 15. Let $f \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]_d$ and let $\underline{\mathsf{WR}}(f) = r$. Then

$$\operatorname{WR}(f) \le 2 \left\lceil \frac{1}{r} \binom{2r-2}{r-1} \right\rceil \cdot d.$$

² it is easy to see that for $a \ge b$ the monomial $y_1^a y_2^b$ is proportional to $\sum_{k=0}^a \zeta^k (\zeta^k y_1 + y_2)^{a+b}$ where ζ is a primitive root of unity of order a + 1.

2.4 Scheme-theoretic proof

In this section we give a proof of Lemma 10 based on the theory of 0-dimensional schemes and apolarity. This short section assumes familiarity with these topics, we review them in more details in Appendix A.

▶ Lemma 10. Let $f \in \mathbb{C}[\mathbf{x}]_d$ be such that $\underline{\mathsf{WR}}(f) = r$. If $d \ge r - 1$, then there exists a partition $r = r_1 + \cdots + r_m$ such that f has a generalized additive decomposition

$$f = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \ell_k^{d-r_k+1} g_k,$$

and moreover $\underline{\mathsf{WR}}(\ell_k^{d-r_k+1}g_k) \leq r_k.$

Alternative proof. Denote by V the space of linear forms $\mathbb{C}[\mathbf{x}]_1$.

Since $d \ge r - 1$, the border Waring rank of f is equal to its smoothable rank SR(f) [17], that is, there exists a 0-dimensional scheme $Z \subset \mathbb{P}V$ of degree r which is smoothable (obtained as a flat limit of the family of r-point subsets of $\mathbb{P}V$) and f is apolar to Z. Let I be the ideal of Z and let $I = I^{(1)} \cap \cdots \cap I^{(m)}$ be the primary decomposition of this ideal. The primary ideals $I^{(j)}$ correspond to irreducible components Z_i of the scheme Z.

ideals $I^{(j)}$ correspond to irreducible components Z_j of the scheme Z. Since f is apolar to I, we have $f \in I_d^{\perp} = (I_d^{(1)})^{\perp} + \dots + (I_d^{(m)})^{\perp}$. In particular, there exist $f_j \in (I_d^{(j)})^{\perp}$ such that $f = f_1 + \dots + f_m$. Let r_j be the degree of Z_j . By the definition of degree, $r = r_1 + \dots + r_m$. If Z_j is supported at the point $[\ell_j] \in \mathbb{P}V$, then for the ideal $I^{(j)}$ we have $(\ell_j^{\perp})^{r_j} \subset I^{(j)} \subset \ell_j^{\perp}$ and $(I_d^{(j)})^{\perp} \subset \ell_j^{d-r_j+1} \cdot \mathbb{C}[\boldsymbol{x}]_{r_j-1}$. Therefore the polynomials f_j have the form $\ell_j^{d-r_j+1}g_j$ for some g_j of degree deg $g_j = r_j - 1$.

Additionally, all irreducible components of a smoothable scheme Z are smoothable [18, Thm. 1.1], and since f_j is apolar to Z_j , we have $\underline{WR}(f_j) \leq SR(f_j) \leq r_j$.

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A Behind the scenes: generalized additive decompositions and schemes

We will now discuss how the results similar to these of the Section 2 can be obtained from apolarity theory and the study of 0-dimensional schemes in projective space. The connection between variations of Waring rank, apolar schemes and generalized additive decompositions is explored in detail by Bernardi, Brachat and Mourrain in [8] (they use a subtly different notion of generalized affine decomposition). In particular, there exists a much stronger version of Lemma 10 (although with a slightly worse restriction on degree), which tightly relates generalized additive decompositions of a homogeneous polynomial f to its *cactus rank* CR(f), a variation of Waring rank arising in apolarity theory defined in terms of 0-dimensional schemes in the space of linear forms in place of finite sets of linear forms. We will formally define the notions of cactus rank and size of a generalized additive decomposition later, for not let us state the theorem, which is based on [8, Thm. 3.5].

▶ **Theorem 16.** If deg $f \ge 2 \cdot CR(f) - 1$, then the cactus rank of a homogeneous polynomial f is equal to the minimal possible size of a generalized additive decomposition for f.

To connect cactus rank to border rank we need and intermediate notion of *smoothable* rank SR(f). Smoothable rank is an upper bound on cactus rank, and it coincides with border rank for polynomials of high enough degree.

▶ Theorem 17 ([17]). If deg $f \ge \underline{\mathsf{WR}}(f) - 1$, then $\underline{\mathsf{WR}}(f) = \mathsf{SR}(f)$.

The goal of this section is to review the basic notions of apolarity theory, define cactus rank, smoothable rank and size of a generalized additive decomposition, and explain the ideas behind the proof of Theorem 16 stated above.

A.1 Some notation

Let us fix the notation. Let $S = \mathbb{C}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ be the algebra of polynomials and $T = \mathbb{C}[\partial_1, \ldots, \partial_n]$ be the algebra of polynomial differential operators with constant coefficients (referred to as *diffoperators* in what follows), which acts on S in the standard way.

Denote by V the space of linear forms S_1 . We identify T_1 with the dual space V^* . More generally, the action of T on S gives rise to a nondegenerate pairing between the homogeneous parts S_d and T_d for every d. We use orthogonality with respect to this pairing, that is, for a subset $F \subset S_d$ we denote $F^{\perp} = \{\alpha \in T_d \mid \alpha \cdot f = 0 \text{ for all } f \in F\}$, and vice versa, for a subset $D \subset T_d$ we let $D^{\perp} = \{f \in S_d \mid \alpha \cdot f = 0 \text{ for all } \alpha \in D\}$

A.2 Projective geometry

The algebra T is isomorphic to $\mathbb{C}[V]$, the algebra of polynomials in the coefficients of linear forms. The isomorphism maps a homogeneous element $\alpha \in T_d$ to $\overline{\alpha} \in \mathbb{C}[V]_d$ defined as $\overline{\alpha}(\ell) = \alpha \cdot \frac{\ell^d}{d!}$.

Recall that a homogeneous ideals in $T \cong \mathbb{C}[V]$ are in correspondence with subsets of the projective space $\mathbb{P}V$. More specifically, projective varieties are subsets of $\mathbb{P}V$ defined by vanishing of some set of polynomials. The set of all polynomials vanishing on a projective variety Z is a homogeneous ideal I, which is saturated ($\alpha T_1 \subset I \Rightarrow \alpha \in I$) and radical ($\alpha^n \in I \Rightarrow \alpha \in I$). If we consider an ideal I which is saturated but not radical, it defines a projective scheme, which coincides with the variety defined by I as a topological space, but has additional structure which distinguishes it from this variety.

If $I \subset T$ is a homogeneous ideal, then the function $h_I(p) = \dim(T_p/I_p)$ is called the *Hilbert function* of I. The Hilbert function of a homogeneous ideal I always coincides with some polynomial $H_I(p)$ for p large enough. This polynomial is called the *Hilbert polynomial* of I. Many topological and geometric properties of a projective variety or a scheme can be deduced from its Hilbert polynomial, in particular, its dimension and degree [36, §I.7]. We are specifically interested in ideals with constant Hilbert polynomials. These ideals corresponds to schemes of dimension 0. This means that a variety with Hilbert polynomial $H_I = r$ are referred to as *ideals of Krull dimension* 1 (the mismatch with the dimension of a scheme is because in algebra dimension is counted in affine space). The number r is referred to as the *length* of the ideal or the *degree* of the corresponding 0-dimensional scheme.

A.3 Apolarity theory

The connection between Waring rank and algebraic geometry is provided by the apolarity theory, which has its source in the works of Sylvester and Macaulay.

▶ **Definition 18.** The apolar ideal of a polynomial $f \in S$ is an ideal in T defined as $Ann(f) = \{\alpha \in T \mid \alpha \cdot f = 0\}$. The apolar algebra of f is A(f) = T/Ann(f). An ideal $I \subset T$ is said to be apolar to f if it lies in Ann(f). A scheme $Z \subset \mathbb{P}V$ is apolar to f if its defining ideal is.

Note that as a vector space, A(f) is isomorphic to the space of all partial derivatives $T \cdot f$ via $(\alpha + \operatorname{Ann}(f)) \mapsto \alpha \cdot f$.

To relate apolarity to Waring rank, we also define an ideal associated with a set of linear forms. Given r linear forms ℓ_1, \ldots, ℓ_r , consider the sequences of subspaces $E_p = \text{Span}(\{\ell_1^p, \ldots, \ell_r^p\}) \subset S_p$ and $I_p = E_p^{\perp} \subset T_p$. An important fact is that $I = \bigoplus_{p=0}^{\infty} I_p$ is a homogeneous ideal in T. From the geometric point of view it can be described as the vanishing ideal of the set $Z = \{[\ell_1], \ldots, [\ell_r]\}$ in the projective space $\mathbb{P}V$. Algebraically, the fact that I is a homogeneous ideal follows from the following useful proposition.

▶ **Proposition 19.** A sequence of subspaces $E_p \subset S_p$ satisfies the property $T_1 \cdot E_{p+1} \subset E_p$ if and only if $I = \bigoplus_{p=0}^{\infty} E_p^{\perp}$ is a homogeneous ideal. If this is the case, then $h_I(p) = \dim E_p$.

Proof. Let $I_p = E_p^{\perp}$. The fact that I is a homogeneous ideal can be written as $I_{p+1} \supset T_1 \cdot I_p$, which is equivalent to $T_1 \cdot E_{p+1} \subset E_p$, as both of these statements reduce to

$$(\alpha \partial) \cdot f = \alpha \cdot (\partial f) = 0$$
 for all $\alpha \in I_p, \partial \in T_1, f \in E_{p+1}$.

For the Hilbert function, note that $\dim(T_p/I_p) = \dim T_p - \dim I_p = \dim I_p^{\perp} = \dim E_p$.

▶ Lemma 20 (Apolarity lemma). $f \in S_d$ is a polar to a homogeneous ideal $I = \bigoplus_{p=0}^{\infty} E_p^{\perp}$ if and only if $f \in E_d$.

Proof. If I is applar to f, then $I_d \subset \operatorname{Ann}(f)_d$ and therefore $E_d \supset (\operatorname{Ann}(f)_d)^{\perp} = f^{\perp \perp} \ni f$.

For the other direction, let $f \in E_d$. Note that $\operatorname{Ann}(f)_p = T_p$ for p > d, so we only need to check $I_p \subset \operatorname{Ann}(f)$ for $p \leq d$. Note that if we have $\alpha \cdot f \neq 0$ for $\alpha \in T_p$ with p < d, then there exists $\partial \in T_1$ such that $\partial \alpha \cdot f = \partial \cdot (\alpha \cdot f) \neq 0$. This can be restated as $T_1 \alpha \subset \operatorname{Ann}(f) \Rightarrow \alpha \in \operatorname{Ann}(f)$ for all $\alpha \in T_p$ with p < d.

 $\begin{array}{l} T_1 \alpha \subset \operatorname{Ann}(f) \Rightarrow \alpha \in \operatorname{Ann}(f) \text{ for all } \alpha \in T_p \text{ with } p < d. \\ \text{ For } p \leq d \text{ we have } \alpha \in I_p \Rightarrow T_1^{d-p} \alpha \subset I_d = E_d^{\perp} \Rightarrow T_1^{d-p} \alpha \cdot f = 0 \Rightarrow \alpha \in \operatorname{Ann}(f), \text{ which } \\ \text{ proves } I_p \subset \operatorname{Ann}(f). \end{array}$

▶ Corollary 21 (Apolarity for Waring rank). $f \in S_d$ has $WR(f) \leq r$ if and only if f is a polar to the vanishing ideal of r points in $\mathbb{P}V$.

Proof. By definition, $WR(f) \leq r$ if and only if there exists linear forms ℓ_1, \ldots, ℓ_r such that $f \in \text{Span}(\{\ell_1^d, \ldots, \ell_r^d\})$. As was discussed before, the vanishing ideal I of the set $Z = \{[\ell_1], \ldots, [\ell_r]\}$ has $E_d = I_d^{\perp} = \text{Span}(\{\ell_1^d, \ldots, \ell_r^d\})$, and by apolarity lemma $f \in E_d$ is equivalent to f being apolar to I.

A.4 Families of subspaces, ideals and their limits

Before considering border Waring rank, we need to define limits of families of subspaces and families of ideals.

Let W be a vector space. We consider two types of families of subspaces in W. First is a family of subspaces of the form $E(\epsilon) = \text{Span}(\{w_1(\epsilon), \ldots, w_r(\epsilon)\})$ where $w_k(\epsilon)$ are families of vectors in W with coordinates given by rational functions of ϵ . We write $w_k \in W(\epsilon)$ in this case. The second type is a family $E(\epsilon) = \{w \mid y_1(\epsilon; w) = \cdots = y_q(\epsilon; w) = 0\}$ of vector spaces defined by linear forms $y_1, \ldots, y_q \in W^*(\epsilon)$ which again depend rationally on the parameter ϵ .

In both cases we define the limit $E = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} E(\epsilon)$ as the subspace containing the limits of all families $w \in W(\epsilon)$ such that $w(\epsilon) \in E(\epsilon)$ for $\epsilon \neq 0$ (whenever $E(\epsilon)$ and $w(\epsilon)$ are defined).

For $E(\epsilon) = \text{Span}(\{w_1(\epsilon), \ldots, w_r(\epsilon)\})$ from semicontinuity of rank we have that the maximal possible value of dim $E(\epsilon)$ is attained on an open set of values of ϵ . The situation is opposite for the family of the second type $E(\epsilon) = \text{Span}(\{y_1(\epsilon), \ldots, y_q(\epsilon)\})^{\perp}$. In both cases the dimension of \hat{E} cannot be higher then the generic dimension. Indeed, if \hat{E} contains linearly indecendent vectors v_1, \ldots, v_m , then there are families $v_1(\epsilon), \ldots, v_m(\epsilon)$ which have them as limits, and these families will be linearly independent for an open subset of values of ϵ . Considering two families $E(\epsilon) \subset W$ and $E(\epsilon)^{\perp} \subset W^*$ together, we see that dim \hat{E} is actually equal to the generic dimension of $E(\epsilon)$ (maximal dimension for the families of the first type, and minimal — for the families of the second type).

Alternatively, we may associate with a family of subspaces a family of points in the *Grassmannian* – the space of all k-dimensional subspaces in W. The Grassmannian can be defined as the projective variety in $\mathbb{P}\Lambda^k W$ consisting of all points of the form $[w_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge w_k]$, which represent k-dimensional subspaces spanned by w_1, \ldots, w_k respectively. If $E(\epsilon)$ is a family with generic dimension k and $v_1(\epsilon), \ldots, v_k(\epsilon) \in E(\epsilon)$ are linearly independent for generic values of ϵ , then we can define a rational map $\epsilon \mapsto [v_1(\epsilon) \wedge \cdots \wedge v_k(\epsilon)]$ and take the limit of this map in the Grassmannian.

Suppose $I(\epsilon)$ is a family of homogeneous ideals in T, that is, $I(\epsilon) = \bigoplus_{p=0}^{\infty} I_p(\epsilon)$ for the families of subspaces $I_p(\epsilon) \subset T_p$ such that $I_{p+1}(\epsilon) \supset I_p(\epsilon) \cdot T_1$. By continuity of multiplication for the limit subspaces $\widehat{I}_p = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} I_p(\epsilon)$ we still have $\widehat{I}_{p+1} \supset \widehat{I}_p \cdot T_1$. Hence \widehat{I} is again a homogeneous ideal in T. This notion of limit of ideals corresponds to taking limits in the

multigraded Hilbert scheme, which is a space of ideals with given Hilbert function, see [35]. We refer to this limit as the *multigraded limit of a family of ideals*. The problem is that the limit in the multigraded Hilbert scheme can be non-saturated and thus not correspond to a geometric object in projective space.

For example, consider three families of points $(1:0:1), (-1:0:1), (0:\epsilon:1)$ in \mathbb{P}^2 . The family of vanishing ideals is $\langle x_1x_2, x_2(x_2 - \epsilon x_3), \epsilon(x_1^2 - x_3^2) + x_2x_3, x_1^3 - x_1x_3^2 \rangle$. Taking $\epsilon \to 0$ we obtain the ideal $\langle x_1x_2, x_2^2, x_2x_3, x_1^3 - x_1x_3^2 \rangle$, which is not saturated, since it contains x_1x_2, x_2^2, x_2x_3 but not x_2 . Taking the saturation, we obtain $\langle x_2, x_1^3 - x_1x_3^2 \rangle$ which corresponds to three points (1:0:1), (-1:0:1), (0:0:1) as expected.

We can take saturation after obtaining the limit ideal. This notion of limit corresponds to limits in the *Hilbert scheme*, which is the space of ideals with the fixed Hilbert polynomial. It was defined by Grothendieck [33], see also [38, Appx.C].

A.5 Border apolarity

We will now describe the basic idea of the apolarity theory for border Waring rank, which was developed by Buczyńska and Buczyński in [19].

Let $f = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \sum_{k=1}^{r} \ell_k^d$ be a border Waring rank decomposition. Consider the families of subspaces $E_p(\epsilon) = \text{Span}(\{\ell_1(\epsilon)^p, \ldots, \ell_r(\epsilon)^p\}) \subset S_p$ and the family of homogeneous ideals $I(\epsilon) = \bigoplus_{p=0}^{\infty} E_p(\epsilon)^{\perp}$ in T.

As $\epsilon \to 0$, we obtain a sequence of subspaces $\widehat{E}_p = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} E_p(\epsilon) \subset S_p$ and a homogeneous ideal $\widehat{I} = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} I(\epsilon)$ (taking the limit in the multigraded Hilbert scheme). Let $\overline{f} = \sum_{k=1}^r \ell_k^d \in S_d(\epsilon)$, so that $f = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \overline{f}(\epsilon)$. By the Apolarity Lemma the ideal $I(\epsilon)$ is apolar to $\overline{f}(\epsilon)$ for $\epsilon \neq 0$, which means that $\alpha(\epsilon) \cdot \overline{f}(\epsilon) = 0$ for every $\alpha(\epsilon) \in I(\epsilon)$. Since the action of T on S is continuous, we obtain from this $(\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \alpha(\epsilon)) \cdot f = 0$, if the limit exists. Thus \widehat{I} is apolar to f.

On the other hand, suppose that $f \in S_d$ is apolar to an ideal \widehat{I} which is a *limit of ideals* of r points, that is, there exists a family $I(\epsilon)$ such that $I(\epsilon)$ is the vanishing ideal of a set of r points in $\mathbb{P}V$. Define $E_d(\epsilon) = I(\epsilon)_d^{\perp} \subset S_d$. For $\epsilon \neq 0$ the subspace $E_d(\epsilon)$ is a span of powers of r linear forms, so it consists of polynomials with Waring rank at most r. Since f is orthogonal to \widehat{I}_d , it lies in the limit $\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} E_d(\epsilon)$ and thus has border Waring rank at most r.

▶ **Theorem 22** (Border apolarity, [19]). $f \in S_d$ has $\underline{WR}(f) \leq r$ if and only if f is apolar to an ideal \widehat{I} which is a limit of ideals of r points.

A.6 Various ranks via apolarity.

The apolarity lemma provides a template for defining different notions of rank for homogeneous polynomials by varying the class of ideals apolar to f.

▶ **Definition 23.** Let C be a class of ideals of Krull dimension 1. If $f \in S_d$ is a homogeneous polynomial, we define the C-rank of f as the minimal r such that there exists an ideal $I \subset C$ apolar to f with length r.

As we have seen, Waring rank and border Waring rank are special cases of this definition corresponding to ideals of points and their limits.

We are now ready to define cactus rank and smoothable rank. The cactus rank CR(f) is obtained from the template definition above if we consider the class of all saturated ideals with constant Hilbert polynomial, that is, ideals of 0-dimensional schemes. The smoothable rank SR(f) corresponds to saturated limits of ideals of points. In addition, the border cactus rank $\underline{CR}(f)$ is defined by considering limits of saturated ideals.

Class of ideals	Rank	Notation
Ideals of points (radical saturated ideals)	Waring rank	WR(f)
Limits of ideals of points	Border Waring rank	$\underline{WR}(f)$
Smoothable ideals (saturated limits of ideals of points)	Smoothable rank	SR(f)
Saturated ideals	Cactus rank	CR(f)
Saturable ideals (limits of saturated ideals)	Border cactus rank	$\underline{CR}(f)$

The unified definition allows us to determine relations between these different ranks.

▶ **Theorem 24** ([8]). The following inequalities hold: $\underline{CR}(f) \leq CR(f) \leq SR(f) \leq WR(f)$ and $\underline{CR}(f) \leq \underline{WR}(f) \leq SR(f) \leq WR(f)$.

Proof. The inequality $\underline{WR}(f) \leq SR(f)$ follows from the fact that if the saturation $I^{\text{sat}} \supset I$ is apolar to f, then I is also apolar to f. Other inequalities follow from the containments between corresponding classes of ideals.

In addition, for high enough degree the border Waring rank coincides with smoothable rank, and border cactus rank coincides with cactus rank. To prove this, we will need the following property of ideals of Krull dimension 1.

▶ Theorem 25 ([38, Thm. 1.69]). If I is a saturated ideal with $H_I = r$, then h_I is nondecreasing and $h_I(p) = r$ for $p \ge r - 1$.

Note that this applying this to the ideal of r points $\{[\ell_1], \ldots, [\ell_r]\}$ we get the well-known property that p-th powers of pairwise non-proportional linear forms are linearly independent for $p \ge r - 1$.

▶ **Theorem 26** ([16, Prop. 2.5]). If deg $f \ge \underline{WR}(f) - 1$, then $\underline{WR}(f) = SR(f)$. Similarly, if deg $f \ge \underline{CR}(f) - 1$, then $\underline{CR}(f) = CR(f)$.

Proof. Suppose $\underline{WR}(f) = r$. Let I be the ideal apolar to f which is a limit of ideals of r points, and let $J = I^{\text{sat}}$ be its saturation. We have $h_I(p) = r$ for $p \ge r-1$, because this property is true for ideals of points and I is a limit of ideals of points. In particular, $h_I(d) = r$ for $d = \deg f$. It is known that $J_p = I_p$ for p large enough, thus $H_J = H_I = r$. We have $r = h_I(d) \le h_J(d) \le r$, where the first inequality follows from $I \subset I^{\text{sat}} = J$, and the second one from the monotonicity of h_J . Therefore $I_d = J_d$, and thus $f \in J_d^{\perp} = I_d^{\perp}$, that is, f is apolar to J, the saturated limit of ideals of points. We obtain $SR(f) \le r = \underline{WR}(f)$. Together with the opposite inequality from Theorem 24, this gives us the required equality.

The proof of the second statement is the same, with ideal of r points replaces by saturated ideals of length r.

A.7 Size of generalized additive decompositions

We now describe how to measure the size of a generalized additive decomposition in a way compatible with various notions of rank.

▶ Definition 27. The partial derivative space of a polynomial $f \in S$ (not necessarily homogeneous) is the vector space $T \cdot f$ spanned by f and all its partial derivatives of all orders.

▶ **Definition 28.** Let ℓ be a linear form and let $\partial \in T_1$ be a partial derivative such that $\partial \ell = 1$. Denote $T' = \mathbb{C}[\ell^{\perp}] \subset T$ and $S' = \mathbb{C}[\partial^{\perp}] \subset S$. We define the compression $f_{(\partial,\ell)}$ of a

homogeneous polynomial $f \in S_d$ with respect to ℓ and ∂ as follows. Write

$$f = \sum_{i=0}^{d} \frac{\ell^i}{i!} f_i.$$

with $f_i \in S'_{d-i}$. Then $f_{(\partial,\ell)} = \sum_{i=0}^d f_i$. The compressed size of f with respect to (∂,ℓ) is the dimension of the partial derivative space $T' \cdot f_{(\partial,\ell)}$

One can check that the compressed does not depend on the choice of ∂ as long as $\partial \ell = 1$; this can be proved by hand, and it is obtained in [9] in a more intrinsic way.

▶ Definition 29. The size of a generalized additive decomposition

$$f = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \ell_k^{d-r_k+1} g_k$$

is defined as the sum of compressed sizes of the summands $\ell_k^{d-r_k+1}g_k$ with respect to the corresponding linear forms ℓ_k .

A.8 Schemes and generalized additive decompositions

We will now prove several lemmas which connect generalized additive decompositions and apolar ideals, finishing the proof of Theorem 16.

▶ Lemma 30 ([9]). Let ℓ be a linear form and let $f \in S_d$ be a homogeneous polynomial. There exists a homogeneous ideal I apolar to f with length equal to the compressed size of f with respect to ℓ .

Proof. Let $\partial \in T_1$ be such that $\partial \ell = 1$. Denote $S' = \mathbb{C}[\partial^{\perp}]$ and $T' = \mathbb{C}[\ell^{\perp}]$ as above. The rings S' and T' are in the same dual relationship as S and T, and T is generated by T' and ∂ .

We start from the ideal $J = \operatorname{Ann}(f_{(\partial, \ell)}) \subset T'$ and homogenize it using ∂ . That is, define the homogenization map from $T'_{\leq p} = \bigoplus_{j=0}^{p} T'_{j}$ to T_{p} sending $\alpha = \sum_{j=0}^{p} \alpha_{j}$ to $\sum_{j=0}^{p} \partial^{p-j} \alpha_{j}$. The homogeneous part I_{p} of the ideal I is then the image of $J_{\leq p}$ under this homogenization map.

To show that the ideal I is apolar to f, write $f = \sum_{i=0}^{d} \frac{\ell^i}{i!} f_{d-i}$ with $f_i \in S'_i$. Then $f_{(\partial,\ell)} = \sum_{i=0}^{d} f_i$. If $\alpha' = \sum_{j=0}^{p} \alpha_j \in T'$ and $\alpha = \sum_{j=0}^{p} \partial^{p-j} \alpha_j$ is the α' homogenized, then the statement $\alpha' \cdot f_{(\partial,\ell)} = 0$ is equivalent to $\alpha \cdot f = 0$, since they are both equivalent to α' $\sum_{j=0}^{p} \alpha_j f_{j+e} = 0 \text{ for all } e \ge 0. \text{ Since } J \text{ is apolar to } f_{(\partial,\ell)}, I \text{ is apolar to } f.$ Since $f_{(\partial,\ell)}$ has degree at most d, J contains T'_p for p > d. Hence

$$T' \cdot f_{(\partial,\ell)} \cong A(f_{(\partial,\ell)}) = T'/J \cong T'_{\leq d}/J_{\leq d}$$

as vector spaces, and for p > d we have $T_p/I_p \cong T'_{\leq p}/J_{\leq p} \cong T'_{\leq d}/J_{\leq d}$. Therefore, for p large enough dim $T_p/I_p = \dim T' \cdot f_{(\partial,\ell)}$, and $H_I = \dim T' \cdot f_{(\partial,\ell)}$ as required.

▶ Lemma 31. Suppose $f \in S_d$ is a polar to a saturated primary homogeneous ideal I with length r. If $d \ge 2r - 1$, then f has a one-summand generalized additive decomposition of size at most r.

Proof. If I is an ideal of Krull dimension 1, then it defines a 0-dimensional scheme, and if it is primary, then this scheme is supported at one point $[\ell] \in \mathbb{P}V$. The ideal corresponding to this point is $J = \operatorname{Ann}(\ell) = \langle \ell^{\perp} \rangle$ and we have $J^m \subset I \subset J$ for some $m \leq r$. For the

corresponding dual space E_p with $p \ge m$ we have $E_p \subset (J^m)_p^{\perp} = \{\ell^{p-m}g \mid g \in S_{\le m}\}$. Since

 $f \in E_d$, it has a one-summand generalized additive decomposition $f = \ell^{d-m}g$. Choose $\partial \in T_1$ such that $\partial \ell = 1$. Write $f = \sum_{i=0}^m \frac{\ell^{d-i}}{(d-i)!} f_i$ with $f_i \in \mathbb{C}[\partial^{\perp}]_i$. Then $f_{(\partial,\ell)} = \sum_{i=0}^m f_i$ has degree at most m. For every $\alpha' = \sum_{j=0}^m \in \mathbb{C}[\ell^{\perp}]_{\leq m}$ and the corresponding homogeneous $\alpha = \sum_{j=0}^{m} \partial^{m-j} \alpha_j$ we have

$$\alpha' \cdot f_{(\partial,\ell)} = \sum_{j \ge i} \alpha_j \cdot f_i$$

and

$$\alpha \cdot f = \sum_{j \le i} \frac{\ell^{d-m+j-i}}{(d-m+j-i)!} \alpha_j \cdot f_i.$$

Therefore, there is an isomorphism between $\partial^* f_{(\partial,\ell)}$ and $T^m \cdot f \subset E_{d-m}$. Note that $d-m \geq r$. By Theorem 25 we have $r = H_I = \dim E_{d-m} \ge \dim \partial^* f_{(\partial,\ell)}$.

Proof of Theorem 16. If $CR(f) \leq r$, then there exists a saturated homogeneous ideal I apolar to f with Hilbert polynomial r. This ideal corresponds to a 0-dimensional scheme Z, which consists of several points. Each point corresponds to a primary ideal in the primary decomposition $I = I^{(1)} \cap \cdots \cap I^{(m)}$, and for the Hilbert polynomials it is true that Finally decomposition $I = I^{(1)} + \cdots + I^{(m)}$, and for the finite polynomials it is true that $H_I = H_{I^{(1)}} + \cdots + H_{I^{(m)}}$. Defining $E_d = I_d^{\perp}$ and $E_d^{(k)} = (I_d^{(k)})^{\perp}$ we have $E_d = E_d^{(1)} + \cdots + E_d^{(m)}$. Therefore, $f = f^{(1)} + \cdots + f^{(m)}$ where $f^{(k)} \in E_d^{(k)}$. By Lemma 31 each $f^{(k)}$ contributes one summand to the generalized additive decomposition. The sizes of these summands are bounded by $H_{I^{(k)}}$, and the total size is bounded by r.

Conversely, if f has a generalized additive decomposition of size r, then from each summand we can construct an ideal using Lemma 30 and take the intersection of these ideals to get an ideal applar to f with Hilbert function at most r.

В Characterizing small border Waring rank

The results on generalized additive decompositions from §2.3 can be used to describe the polynomials of border rank 2 and 3, reproving the results of Landsberg and Teitler [46, Sec. 10].

▶ **Theorem 32.** A polynomial f with $\underline{WR}(f) = 2$ must have the form $\ell_1^d + \ell_2^d$ or $\ell_1^{d-1}\ell_2$ where ℓ_1 and ℓ_2 are linear forms.

In the first case, every border rank decomposition for f has the form

$$f = (\ell_1 + \epsilon \hat{\ell}_1)^d + (\ell_2 + \epsilon \hat{\ell}_2)^d$$

for some $\hat{\ell}_1, \hat{\ell}_2 \in \mathbb{C}[[\epsilon]][\boldsymbol{x}]_1$.

In the second case, every border rank decomposition for f has the form

$$f = \frac{1}{\epsilon^M} \left(a\ell_1 + \epsilon \widehat{\ell}_1 + \epsilon^M (\frac{1}{a^{d-1}d}\ell_2 + \ell_3) \right)^d - \frac{1}{\epsilon^M} \left(a\ell_1 + \epsilon \widehat{\ell}_1 + \epsilon^M (\ell_3 + \epsilon \widehat{\ell}_2) \right)^d$$

for some $a \in \mathbb{C}$, $\ell_3 \in \mathbb{C}[\mathbf{x}]_1$ and $\hat{\ell}_1, \hat{\ell}_2 \in \mathbb{C}[[\epsilon]][\mathbf{x}]_1$.

Proof. By Lemma 10 f has a generalized additive decomposition

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \ell_i^{d-r_i+1} g_i$$

with $\sum_{i=1}^{m} r_i = \underline{\mathsf{WR}}(f) = 2$, deg $g_i = r_i - 1$ There are only two possible partitions $\sum r_i = 2$. In the case $m = 2, r_1 = r_2 = 1$ the generalized additive decomposition is actually a Waring rank decomposition $f = \ell_1^d + \ell_2^d$. In the case $m = 1, r_1 = 2$ the polynomial g_1 is a linear form, renaming it we have $f = \ell_1^{d-1}\ell_2$.

From the proof of Lemma 10 it is clear that in the first case the decomposition must be a sum of two local decompositions of rank 1, and a local decomposition of rank 1 is just a power of $\ell + \epsilon \hat{\ell}$ for some $\hat{\ell} \in \mathbb{C}[[\epsilon]][\boldsymbol{x}]_1$.

In the second case the decomposition must be local, which means that both summands in the decomposition have the form $\epsilon^{-M}(a\ell_1 + \epsilon \hat{\ell})$. To obtain $\ell_1^{d-1}\ell_2$ in the limit, the first M terms in each summand must cancel, and the terms in ϵ^M must differ by $\frac{1}{a^{d-1}d}\ell_2$.

▶ **Theorem 33.** A polynomial with $\underline{WR}(f) = 3$ must have one of the three normal forms: $\ell_1^d + \ell_2^d + \ell_3^d$ or $\ell_1^d + \ell_2^{d-1}\ell_3^d$ or $\ell_1^{d-1}\ell_2 + \ell_1^{d-2}\ell_3^2$ (with $\ell_1^{d-2}\ell_3^2$ as a special case).

Proof. By Lemma 10 f has a generalized additive decomposition

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \ell_i^{d-r_i+1} g_i$$

with $\sum_{i=1}^{m} r_i = \underline{\mathsf{WR}}(f) = 3$, deg $g_i = r_i - 1$, and $\underline{\mathsf{WR}}(\ell_i^{d-r_i+1}g_i) \leq r_i$.

In the case m = 3, $r_1 = r_2 = r_3 = 1$ this is a Waring rank decomposition $f = \ell_1^d + \ell_2^d + \ell_3^d$. In the case m = 2, we can assume $r_1 = 1$, $r_2 = 2$. The generalized additive decomposition becomes $\ell_1^d + \ell_2^{d-1}\ell_3$, where $\ell_3 = g_2$ is a linear form.

becomes $\ell_1^d + \ell_2^{d-1}\ell_3$, where $\ell_3 = g_2$ is a linear form. In the case m = 1, $r_1 = 3$ we have $f = \ell_1^{d-2}g_1$ where g_1 is a quadratic form, and $\ell_1^{d-2}g_1$ has at most three-dimensional space of essential variables. The quadratic form g_1 can be presented in one of the following forms: $a\ell_1^2$, ℓ_2^2 , $\ell_1\ell_2$, $\ell_1\ell_2 + \ell_3^2$, or $a\ell_1^2 + \ell_2\ell_3$ for some linear forms ℓ_2, ℓ_3 linearly independent from ℓ_1 .

If d > 2, then all cases except the last are covered by the given normal forms, and in the last case the border rank of $\ell_1^{d-2}g_1$ is at least 4 if d > 2, which can be seen by computing the dimension of the second order partial derivative space, so it cannot appear. If d = 2 then all forms have rank 3 and are covered by the case $\ell_1^d + \ell_2^d + \ell_3^d$.