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# A probabilistic parallel modular algorithm for rational univariate representation. 

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#### Abstract

This article does not introduce new mathematical ideas, it is more a state of the art June 2021 picture about solving polynomial systems efficiently by reconstructing a rational univariate representation with a very high probability of correctness using Groebner revlex computation, Berlekamp-Massey algorithm and Hankel linear system solving modulo several primes in parallel.

This algorithm is implemented in Giac/Xcas since version 1.7.0-13, it has (June 2021) leading performances on multiple CPU, at least for an open-source software.


## 1 Introduction

Polynomial system solving can be performed by doing several eliminations. If the variables are $x_{1}, . ., x_{n}$, after eliminating $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}$, one has to solve one (large degree) univariate polynomial, and then one finds other unknowns by back substitution and univariate polynomial solving. Unfortunately this method, named regular chains, requires building tower of algebraic extensions over $\mathbb{Q}$, which is computation intensive.

It is more efficient to build one algebraic extension of $\mathbb{Q}$ (or more if the system factors) such that all components of the solutions of the system will live in this extension. This can be performed by computing a Gröbner basis of $I$, the ideal spanned by the multivariate polynomials of the system. Then, if the ideal is 0 dimensional, select one variable (say $x_{n}$ ), find the minimal polynomial of this variable. If this polynomial $m$ has the right degree (the dimension of the polynomials modulo the ideal as a vector space) and is square free, for all other variables, find $P_{i}$ such that $x_{i}-P_{i}\left(x_{n}\right)$ is inside the ideal. Then the system solutions are $P_{1}\left(x_{n}\right), P_{2}\left(x_{n}\right), \ldots, x_{n}$ for all roots $x_{n}$ of $m$.

Rouillier ([8]) found that it is more efficient to compute $Q_{i}$ such that $x_{i}-Q_{i}\left(x_{n}\right) / m^{\prime}\left(x_{n}\right)$ is inside the ideal, and this is called rational univariate representation.

If for all unknowns, the minimal polynomial degree is too small, a linear separating form (linear combination of the $x_{i}$ ), must be found such that the minimal polynomial is of degree the dimension of the vector space of the polynomials modulo the ideal. If
the ideal is not radical (i.e. if there is a polynomial $P$ that does not belongs to $I$ but $P^{k} \in I$ for some $k>0$ ), the method must be adapted.

Modular algorithms are well known techniques in CAS to make efficient computations, they are also good candidates for parallelization. In our context, algorithms were presented early, like in [6] (A Modular Method to Compute the Rational Univariate Representation of Zero-dimensional Ideals). For more recent results, see [2].

We will review some of these algorithms as well as some algorithms of Faugère and Mou ([4]) for rur computation in $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ in Section 2. Section 3 will give more informations on the implementation inside Giac/Xcas and gives some benchmarks.

## 2 Algorithms for RUR computations

### 2.1 Gröbner basis over $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ (degree rev. lex. ordering)

For a basis computation without additional hypothesis, it seems that F4 ([5]) is a very good choice. Since the same basis is computed several times for different primes, we can store some informations during the first run, like s-pairs reducing to 0 , in order to speed up computation for the next primes, this is described in more details in [7] (A probabilistic and deterministic modular algorithm for computing Groebner basis over $\mathbb{Q})$.

### 2.2 From Gröbner basis to RUR over $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$

If the ideal $I$ spanned by the polynomials of the system is 0 -dimensional, the polynomials modulo $I$ belong to $V$, a vector space of finite dimension $d$. We can compute a basis of $V$ by collecting all the monomials smaller than the leading ones in $G$.

The reduction of $1, x_{n}, . ., x_{n}^{d}$ with respect to the Gröbner basis is not free, there is a minimal polynomial $m$ of degree at most $d$ such that $m\left(x_{n}\right)=0(\bmod I)$. Computing $m$ is a linear algebra kernel computation (for a matrix with columns the components of the reduction $\bmod I$ of $x_{n}^{i}$ ). This is an $O\left(d^{3}\right)$ computation with a naive Gauss pivoting method. Fortunately, it can be computed faster, by observing that if

$$
\sum_{i} m_{i} x_{n}^{i}=0 \quad(\bmod I)
$$

then it's still true after multiplication by a power of $x_{n}$, and therefore the scalar product of a fixed vector and the reduced vector is 0 , then the $m_{i}$ coefficients can be found by mean of the Berlekam-Massey algorithm, using the half-gcd fast version in $O(d \log (d))$ operations (see e.g. [9], Yap), once the scalar products are computed.

There is still a naive $O\left(d^{3}\right)$ part in this algorithm, computing the $x_{n}^{k}(\bmod I)$. This is done by computing the matrix of the multiplication by $x_{n}(\bmod I)$ in the basis of $V$, by reducing all monomials of this basis multiplied by $x_{n}$. In many situations, the multiplication by $x_{n}$ will give a monomial of the basis of $V$, and the corresponding column of $M$ is trivial (one 1 and all other coefficients 0 ). Or the multiplication by $x_{n}$ will return the leading monomial of one element of $G$ and the reduction is trivial (take the opposite of all remaining monomials of this element of $G$ ). The remaining
products by $x_{n}$ must be reduced $\bmod G$, this can be done simultaneously for all these products like in the F4 algorithm. The multiplication of a vector by $M$ is still $O\left(d^{2}\right)$, but it becomes faster if the matrix has many trivial columns, and it's a simple operation that can benefit from the CPU instruction set.

In a generic situation, the minimal polynomial of $x_{n}$ is of maximal degree $d$ the dimension of $V$ the vector space of polynomials modulo $I$ and every element of $V$ (i.e. any polynomial modulo the ideal $I$ ) can be expressed as a polynomial in $x_{n}$, of degree $<d$. Finding the polynomial corresponding to $x_{1}, . ., x_{n-1}$ will give the solution to the initial system. It can be seen as a linear system of matrix with columns the powers 0 to $d-1$ of $x_{n}$ reduced modulo $I$ and with second member $x_{i}$ modulo $I$. Which means solving $n-1$ systems with the same $d \times d$ matrix, where $n \ll d$, at a $O\left(d^{3}\right)$ cost (naive algorithm). Fortunately, this can be improved, by observing that if $x_{i}=P_{i}\left(x_{n}\right)$ $(\bmod I)$ then $x_{n}^{k} x_{i}=x_{n}^{k} P_{i}\left(x_{n}\right)(\bmod I)$, then one can do the scalar product of this equation with any fixed vector, and get a linear equation in the coefficients of $P_{i}$ that we are computing. Doing that for $k=0, \ldots, d-1$ will bring a linear system with a structured matrix. This matrix is named a Hankel matrix, it's coefficients are already computed: it's the coefficients of the Berlekamp-Massey algorithm that returned the minimal polynomial of $x_{n}$. Hankel matrices can be inverted using an extended GCD and a Bezoutian matrix, cf. for example wikipedia and the cost for computing a Bezoutian matrix is $O\left(d^{2}\right)$, cf. e.g. [3] (Fast computation of the Bezout and Dixon resultant matrices)

### 2.3 Non generic situations

If the minimal polynomial of $x_{n}$ is not of maximal degree, one can try the other monomials $x_{1}$ to $x_{n-1}$ and if it does not work, a random linear combination of $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$, this is called a separating linear form.

If the minimal polynomial is of maximal degree $d$ but is not squarefree, then the ideal $I$ is not radical, in that case one can add the squarefree part of the minimal polynomial to the generators of the ideal and compute a new Gröbner basis, until the ideal is radical. Cf. Faugère and Mou ([4]) for alternative methods.

### 2.4 Rational reconstruction

It is of course possible to compute a Gröbner basis over $\mathbb{Q}$ and run the same kind of computations, but field operations in $\mathbb{Q}$ are not performed in $O(1)$ time, that's why a multi-modular algorithm is most of the time more efficient.

The first step is to cancel denominators so that the coefficients belong to $\mathbb{Z}$. A prime $p$ is said to be a good reduction prime if the steps of the computation over $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ are the reduction modulo $p$ of the steps over $\mathbb{Q}$. This is true if the leading monomials of the s-pairs do not cancel mod $p$, if the basis of the vector space of the polynomials modulo the ideal remains the same, if the degree of the minimal polynomial of the separating linear form remains $d$. Therefore before trying to reconstruct a rur in $\mathbb{Q}$ from several primes, we must check the consistency of these primes. Two primes are compatible if the leading monomials of the Gröbner basis have the same power exponents. If one
prime has a gbasis with less elements, or a basis of $V$ with less elements, it must be discarded.

Reconstruction is done coefficient by coefficient using Farey algorithm. If the reconstructed rur modulo the next prime $p$ matches the computation over $\mathbb{Z} / P \mathbb{Z}$ (where $P$ is the product of the previous primes), then the probability of a bad rur reconstruction is very low and can be as low as desired by checking with a few other primes rur computations. Certifying a rur is however very costly, because we must either reduce the rur elements modulo the $\mathbb{Q}$-gbasis (which must be certified as well) or check that the solutions verify the initial system, and that's a very large computation with univariate fractions with rational coefficients.

My estimate for the probability to have a bad prime for a today-large computation is less than $1 e-4$ (with about $1 e 4$ leading coefficients for a prime of size about 5 e 8 in Giac), hence if a few thousands primes are required to stabilize the computation over $\mathbb{Q}$, the probability to meet one bad prime would be less than 0.1 .

## 3 Giac/Xcas implementation and benchmarks

### 3.1 Implementation

- Step 1: compute the gbasis for revlex order modulo a prime $p$. Giac implementation details of the gbasis algorithm with learning are described in [7]. If $p$ is not the first prime, compare if the current prime is compatible with previous one (leading monomials of the gbasis must be the same), if not discard it (or all previous primes).
- Step 2 (for the first prime): find the dimension and a basis of $V$ made of monomials. We collect the leading monomials of the gbasis. For every variable $x_{i}$ we search a leading monomial $x_{i}^{d_{i}}$ that is a power of this variable. This will bound any monomial exponent in $V$ by $\left(d_{1}, \ldots, d_{n}\right)$. The dimension $d$ of $V$ is smaller than $D$ the product of $d_{i}$. For any integer $0 \leq i<D$, write $i$ in multi-basis $d_{1}, \ldots, d_{n}$

$$
i=\left(. .\left(i_{1} d_{2}+i_{2}\right) d_{3}+\ldots+i_{n-1}\right) d_{n}+i_{n}, \quad 0 \leq i_{k}<d_{k}
$$

and check if $x_{1}^{i_{1}} \ldots x_{n}^{i_{n}}$ is greater than a leading monomial of the gbasis, if not add it to the basis.

- Step 3: compute the matrix of multiplication by $x_{n}$ in our basis of $V$. If $x_{n}$ times the monomial is itself a monomial in $V$, we do not store a column with one 1 and $d-1$ zeros, instead we store the pairs of indices of the monomials, this is a mixed storage (dense part/sparse part).
- Step 4: compute the coefficients of the Hankel matrix (the dense multiplication part can take advantage of the AVX2 instruction set if available). For the dense part of the multiplication, we avoid divisions (except the final one) by computing representants $0 \leq r<p^{2}$, after an addition of a multiplication of coefficients in $[0, p)$ we substract $-p^{2}$ and add $p^{2}$ if the result is negative without testing (for a

63 bits signed integer $i$ this is done by $i+=(i \gg 63) \& p 2)$. In Giac, we do that for 4 additions at a time (using representants in $\left[0,4 p^{2}\right.$ ) where $p<2^{29}$ ).

- Step 5: find $m$ the minimal polynomial of $x_{n}$ by the halfgcd Berlekamp-Massey algorithm. If it is not of maximal degree $d$, replace $x_{n}$ by another variable $x_{1}, . ., x_{n-1}$ and go to step 3 . If none of the variables fill the degree condition, try with a random integer linear combination of $x_{i}$. The separating linear form will be recorded for further primes.
- Step 6: if the minimal polynomial $m$ is not squarefree, add the square free part $\mathrm{m} / \operatorname{gcd}\left(\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{m}^{\prime}\right)$ to the gbasis, and go to step 1 .
- Step 7: find the polynomials $P_{i}$ such that $x_{i}-P_{i}\left(x_{n}\right)=0(\bmod I)$ by solving Hankel systems (using fast inversion of the Hankel matrix with bezoutians).
- Step 8: compute $Q_{i}=P_{i} m^{\prime}(\bmod m)$
- Step 9: (if not at the first prime) Check if the Farey rational reconstruction for previous primes matches this prime for $Q_{i}(\bmod p)$ (check for a few monomials before doing a complete reconstruction check). If so, return the Farey reconstruction. Otherwise, apply the Chinese Remainder Theorem for $Q_{i}(\bmod p)$ and previous primes and go to step 1 for a next prime.

Steps 1 to 8 can be parallelized. Trying to parallelize step 9 does not speed up the computation because it requires a lot of memory allocations, and this seems to always be thread-mutually exclusive.

### 3.2 Benchmarks

- Giac/Xcas 1.7.0-13 timings are for a rur computation with AVX2 enabled, on an $\operatorname{Intel}(\mathrm{R})$ Xeon(R) CPU E5-2640 v3 @ 2.60 GHz . The computation were run with 16 threads in parallel, with a few exceptions with 8 threads in order to spare memory.
- msolve timings are for fglm computation with AVX2 enabled, on an Intel (R) Xeon (R) CPU E7-4820v4 @ 2.00 GHz , as reported by the msolve authors, they should be multipled by about 0.77 to account for the different frequencies. On the other hand, CPU time for multi-threaded implementations are always greater than for one-threaded implementations, especially for relatively small computations or for computations requiring much memory for each prime. For examples, Katsura 9 computation takes 4.2 s CPU time with 1 thread instead of 8.4 s with 16 threads (real time 1.36s), Katsura 10 takes 35 s with 1 thread instead of 55 s with 16 threads (real time 7.9s) and Katsura 11 takes 359 s with 1 thread instead of 496 s with 16 threads (real time 61s)
- The current version of msolve does not support multiple CPUs, but it will certainly do in the near future.
- In order to compile Giac/Xcas with AVX2 support with gcc, install VCL vectorclass by Agner Fog and run
export CXXFLAGS=' -02 -g -mfma -mavx2 -fabi-version=0' before running . / configure in the Giac/Xcas source root directory.
- The Giac/Xcas script files for these benchmarks are available here
- The last 2 columns give the time required to isolate all real roots of the minimial polynomial of the separating linear form. The algorithm is a C++-transcription of Xcas user code sent by Alkis Akritas ([1]). It is a little bit parallelized, by running isolation of positive and negative real roots in separate threads. It is most of the time one at least one order of magnitude faster than computing the polynomial, and is therefore not a priority for further optimizations.

|  | threads | real | msolve | CPU | RAM | realroot real | CPU |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Kat9 | 16 | 1.36 | 4.89 | 8.41 | 67 M | 0.5 | 0.5 |
| Kat10 | 16 | 7.9 | 43.7 | 55 | 181 M | 1.7 | 2.6 |
| Kat11 | 16 | 61 | 424 | 496 | 573 M | 19.6 | 31.3 |
| Kat12 | 16 | 734 | 6262 | 7922 | 2.4 G | 154 | 276 |
| Kat13 | 16 | 11.2 e 3 | 89 e 3 | 136 e 3 | 9 G | 1640 | 2870 |
| Kat14 | 8 | 0.21 e 6 | 1.3 e 6 | 1.49 e 6 | 21.5 G | 16 e 3 | 29.7 e 3 |
| Noon7 | 16 | 452 | 4040 | 4000 | 1.4 G | 24.2 | 43.1 |
| Noon8 | 8 | 0.155 e 6 | 0.599 e 6 | 1.1 e 6 | 13 G | 413 | 814 |
| Phuoc | 16 | 236 | 4467 | 4026 | 1.9 G | 7.66 | 13 |
| Henrion6 | 16 | 6.08 | 138 | 52.6 | 147 M | 1.37 | 1.39 |
| Henrion7 | 16 | 7.2 e 3 | 118 e 3 | 87.8 e 3 | 3.7 G | 309 | 314 |
| Eco10 | 16 | 1.33 | 12.5 | 9.21 | 106 M | 0.057 | 0.07 |
| Eco11 | 16 | 7.6 | 90.3 | 70.2 | 280 M | 0.37 | 0.39 |
| Eco12 | 16 | 64 | 877 | 724 | 1.06 G | 2.52 | 2.82 |
| Eco13 | 16 | 712 | 12137 | 9370 | 4 G | 25 | 27.5 |
| Eco14 | 16 | 11.3 e 3 | 168 e 3 | 154 e 3 | 15 G | 112 | 123 |
| cp352 | 16 | 3.6 | 18.1 | 23 | 81 M | 0.21 | 0.26 |
| cp362 | 16 | 49 | 390 | 429 | 270 | 1.25 | 1.75 |
| cp372 | 16 | 1.39 e 3 | 9.64 e 3 | 15 e 3 | 1.4 G | 52 | 91 |
| cp382 | 8 | 32.5 e 3 | 270 e 3 | 213 e 3 | 4.9 G | 992 | 1655 |
| cp443 | 16 | 6 | 40.9 | 45 | 115 M | 0.47 | 0.6 |
| cp453 | 16 | 3.5 e 3 | 21.5 e 3 | 47 e 3 | 2.7 G | 178 | 200 |
| cp366 | 16 | 36 | 255 | 290 | 232 M | 1.33 | 2.14 |
| cp377 | 16 | 1.77 e 3 | 12.4 e 3 | 22 e 3 | 1.7 G | 45 | 68 |

This leads to the following observations :

- One bad prime (over 1352) was observed for noon $7, p=534856027$, and 5 bad primes (over 4060) for noon 8.
- Some examples above do not require as many primes as msolve. Probably because the rur stabilizes earlier than fglm.
- Except for noon7 and 8 where maple reported timings in [2] are better, the real multi-threaded timings of giac are currently the best timings. Once msolve is multi-threaded, I expect that it should be a little bit faster than Giac for most examples.

Example of Giac/Xcas code:

```
threads:=16;
//debug_infolevel:=1;
kat10:=[x1 + 2*x2 + 2*x3 + 2*x4 + 2*x5 + 2*x6 + 2*x7 + 2*x8 + 2*x9
    + 2*x10 - 1, x1^2 + 2*x2^2 + 2*x3^2 + 2*x4^2 + 2*x5^2 + 2*x6^2 +
    2*x7^2 + 2*x8^2 + 2*x9^2 + 2*x10^2 - x1, 2*x1*x2 + 2*x 2*x3 +
    2*x3*x4 + 2*x4*x5 + 2*x5*x6 + 2*x6*x7 + 2*x7*x8 + 2*x8*x9 +
    2*x9*x10 - x2, x2^2 + 2*x1*x3 + 2*x 2*x4 + 2*x 3*x5 + 2*x4*x6 +
    2*x5*x7 + 2*x6*x8 + 2*x7*x9 + 2*x8*x10 - x 3, 2*x 2*x3 + 2*x1*x4 +
    2*x2*x5 + 2*x3*x6 + 2*x4*x7 + 2*x5*x8 + 2*x6*x9 + 2*x7*x10 - x4,
    x3^2 + 2*x 2*x4 + 2*x1*x5 + 2*x 2*x6 + 2*x 3*x7 + 2*x4*x8 + 2*x5*x9 +
    2*x6*x10 - x5, 2*x 3*x4 + 2*x 2*x5 + 2*x1*x6 + 2*x 2*x7 + 2*x 3*x8 +
    2*x4*x9 + 2*x5*x10 - x6, x4^2 + 2*x 3*x5 + 2*x 2*x6 + 2*x1*x7 +
    2*x2*x8 + 2*x }3*x9+2*x4*x10-x7, 2*x4*x5 + 2*x 3*x6 + 2*x 2*x7 +
    2*x1*x8 + 2*x 2*x9 + 2*x3*x10 - x8, x5^2 + 2*x4*x6 + 2*x **x7 +
    2*x2*x8 + 2*x1*x9 + 2*x2*x10 - x9];
vars:=[x1,x2,x3,x4,x5,x6,x7,x8,x9,x10];
proba_epsilon:=1e-7;
time(H:=gbasis(kat10 ,vars,rur));
write("Hkat10",H); // use archive instead of write for fast read
// check, this is very slow
debug_infolevel:=0;
l:=subst(kat10,vars,H[4..size(H)-1]/H[3]):;
map(l, x->rem(numer(x), H[2],H[1]));
// real root isolation
time(R:=realroot(eval(H[2],1)));
write("Rkat10",R);
size(R);
```


## 4 Conclusion

We have now efficient probabilistic algorithms for rur computations over $\mathbb{Q}$. The probability to return a wrong solution is very low and may be as low as desired. Moreover, it is always possible to make a numerical check with high precision on the initial polynomial system. But certifying as fast as computing is still open and is maybe impossible.

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