

Parallel solution of linear systems and optimal multiplication of polynomials over $\text{GF}(2)$

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Linear system

$$Bx = f.$$

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Known methods

- Conjugate gradients
- GMRES
- Lanczos

Number of steps: $N_{\text{iter}}N$, usually we do not allow $N_{\text{iter}} = N$

Linear system

$$Bx = f.$$

B is **sparse**.

Finite fields

$GF(2) = \{0, 1\}$, **no norm**:

$$x = (1, 1, 1, 1)^T, \|x\| = 0$$

Number of iterations is $\mathcal{O}(N)$. And if $N = 10^8$?

We focus on $\text{GF}(2)$ — no stability issues

Can use any “unstable” algorithm.

Parallel solution of linear systems, Toeplitz matrices and polynomial multiplication

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Wiedemann algorithm

Minimal polynomial: $\sum_k c_k B^k = 0$,

Instead: two vectors x, y and solve for

$$\sum_j (x^\top B^{i+j} y) c_j = 0).$$

Hankel system! If found, c_j — coefficient of minimal polynomial of B

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For parallel computations — **block version**

Coppersmith algorithm

$$a_i = X^\top B^i Y, \quad i = 0, \dots,$$

Kernel of block Hankel matrix:

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Simple justification:

$$(X^\top B^{i-1}) \sum_{j=0} B^{j+1} Y c_j = 0,$$

If block Krylov subspace $X^\top B^i$ has full dimension, then

$$Bw = 0, \quad w = \sum_{j=0} B^j Y c_j.$$

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Many interesting questions ...

- Dimensions of binary block Krylov subspaces
- Matrix-by-vector product efficiently
- **Kernel of the block Hankel matrix**

We will focus only on the last

Block Hankel-kernel

$$\sum_j A_{i+j} c_j = 0,$$

A_i is $q \times q$, usually $q = 512, 1024$.

GF(2): Challenge for Toeplitz-Hankel specialists!

$O(N \log^\alpha N)$ methods are hard to find.

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GF(2): Challenge for Toeplitz-Hankel specialists!

$O(N \log^\alpha N)$ methods are hard to find.

- No Fourier transform
- No nonsingularity of leading submatrices (even for HH^*)

Division-free algorithms

- D.Coppersmith, 1994 — $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$
- E. Thome, Fast computations of linear generators for matrix sequences 2001 — $\mathcal{O}(M(n) \log n)$,

$M(n)$ — time to multiply two matrix polynomials with $q \times q$ matrix coefficients.

That is what we are going to discuss

Classical polynomial multiplication problem:

Main problem

$$c(x) = a(x)b(x),$$
$$a(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i x^i, \quad b(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i x^i.$$

Coefficients can be complex, integer, matrices ...

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Schoolbook: n^2 multiplications, $n(n-1)/2$ additions.

Usually
multiplication time **is much larger** addition time.

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You can ask: **What is unusual here?**

Fourier: interpolation

«Forward» step: $c(w^j) = a(w^j)b(w^j), \quad j = 0, \dots, 2n-1$

$$w = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{2n-1}}$$

«Backward» step: Inverse Fourier transform.

Computational complexity

$O(n \log n)$ operations.

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It work only in complex field.

And what in $\text{GF}(2)$, only two elements available?

- There are $2n - 1$ roots of unity — Fourier.
- There are $2n - 1$ different elements — Toom-Cook,
 $a(i) = b(i)c(i), i = 0, \dots, \dots 2n - 2$. Division is needed.
- Karatsuba-type algorithms.

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The most interesting case — field with two elements, 0 — 1, which we will study.

Please, remember that

$$a - b = a + b.$$

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Karatsuba algorithm

$$a(x) = a_0 + a_1 x, \quad b(x) = b_0 + b_1 x,$$
$$p_0 = a_0 b_0, \quad p_1 = (a_0 + b_0)(a_1 + b_1), \quad p_2 = a_1 b_1,$$
$$c_0 = p_0, \quad c_1 = p_0 + p_1 + p_2, \quad c_2 = p_2.$$

Karatsuba algorithm

$$\begin{aligned}a(x) &= a_0 + a_1x, & b(x) &= b_0 + b_1x, \\p_0 &= a_0b_0, & p_1 &= (a_0 + b_0)(a_1 + b_1), & p_2 &= a_1b_1, \\c_0 &= p_0, & c_1 &= p_0 + p_1 + p_2, & c_2 &= p_2.\end{aligned}$$

Requires 3 multiplications and 4 additions.

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What for?

Recursive application: $O(n^{\log_2 3}) \approx O(n^{1.58})$

Matrix polynomials: a_i, b_i — binary matrices

Then multiplication time is thousand times more than addition time

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Recursive application: $O(n^{\log_2 3}) \approx O(n^{1.58})$

Matrix polynomials: a_i, b_i — **binary matrices**

Then multiplication time is **thousand times** more than addition time

We will talk about algorithm with **minimal number of multiplication** over $\text{GF}(2)$.

There are no roots of 1, no divisions, we can not even divide by 2! ($a + a = 0$).

As an application, we consider:

Matrix polynomial multiplication

$c(x) = a(x)b(x)$, Coefficients a_i — bit matrices of size, say 512×512 .

Karatsuba-like algorithms for high degrees

$n = 3$ — 6 multiplications,

$n = 4$ — 9 multiplications,

$n = 5$ — 13 multiplications,

$n = 6$ — 17 multiplications.

These are results from year 2005!

Montgomery P.L., Five, six and seven Karatsuba-like formulae, IEEE Trans on Computers.

What to say about practical algorithms for the multiplication of polynomials of degree, for example, 100.

- A general approach was obtained for the construction of algorithms with minimal number of multiplications.
- Code generator was written (for $n = 128$ the program length is ~ 25000 lines
It is faster (10 times) than recursive Karatsuba.

Let us give main ideas.

General scheme for bilinear algorithms

Output vector: c_i , length $2n - 1$

Input vector: a_i, b_i length n .

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All fast algorithms has the form

$$c = V ((Ua) \circ (Ub)),$$

U, V — matrices of size $r \times n$ and $m \times r$ respectively,

\circ — elementwise product of vectors.

r — rank of the algorithm (minimal number of multiplications).

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$$c = V ((Ua) \circ (Ub)),$$

It should be an identity: setting $a = e_i$, $b = e_j$:

Trilinear decomposition:

$$C_{ijk} = (x^i x^j)_k = \delta_{(i+j)k} = \sum_{\alpha=1}^r u_{i\alpha} u_{j\alpha} w_{k\alpha}.$$

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Three-dimensional tensor is conveniently represented as a set of
 $2n - 1$ matrices:
 $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_{2n-1}$.

It is easy to see, that

Equivalent formulation

$$C_k = \sum_{\alpha=1}^r w_{k\alpha} R_{\alpha},$$

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For complex or real number the answer is known and easy:

$$r = 2n - 1,$$

because there are $2n - 1$ linearly independent matrices of rank 1:

$$(H_k)_{i+j} = \rho_k^{i+j},$$

ρ_k — different nodes.

In GF(2) situation is different: Too few rank-1 matrices

Theorem

There are 3 matrices of rank 1, 5 matrices of rank 2, 9 matrices of rank 3, $\dots 2^k + 1$ matrices of rank k , such that they are linearly independent altogether.

Corollary: $M(n) = \mathcal{O}(n \log n)$, but with a very big constant:

If $\alpha = \log_n M(n)$ then $\alpha = 1.01$ when

$$n \sim 10^{334},$$

i.e. estimate is purely theoretic.

$$C_k = \sum_{\alpha=1}^r w_{k\alpha} R_{\alpha},$$

Finite number of variants — exhaustive search!

For example: $n = 3$ there are only $2^3 - 1 = 7$ different rank-1 matrices,

You have to select 6, only 7 different sets R_{α}

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- For $n = 4$ — 5005 variants.
- For $n = 5$ — 206 253 075 variants.

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For large — general theory of low-rank Hankel matrices.

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For large — general theory of low-rank Hankel matrices.

Hankel matrix $H = [h_{i+j}]$ has rank r , when its generating vector h satisfies a short recurrence relationship of order k :

$$h_{i+r} = \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} \alpha_s h_{i+s}.$$

Polynomial $\sum_{s=0}^{r-1} \alpha_s x^s$ is called generating — it plays a key role.

In the end, everything is reduced to the right selection of polynomials.

Another interpretation

We select some set of polynomials p_1, \dots, p_s , and compute

$$a(x)b(x) \mod p_i,$$

then reconstruct everything back using Chinese remainder theorem.

You can loose one or two multiplications:

For $n = 5$ optimal CRT method gives 14 multiplications (not 13)

For $n = 6$ — 18 multiplications (not 17),

These numbers can be obtained by our exhaustive search method.

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It is solved by integer programming (long, but one time).

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n	M_{old}	M_{new}
2	3	3
3	6	6
4	9	9
5	13	13
6	17	17
7	22	22
8	26	26
9	31	30
16	64	62
34	243	159
128	2187	749
1000	~ 50000	~ 3000

After the construction of U , V matrices nothing is finished.

What about additions?

For $n = 128$ matrix V has size 128×749 and contains approximately 50000 nonzeros, i.e. 50000 additions are needed.

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Fast multiplication by a given bit-matrix:

As an input — matrix, on the output — program to multiply on it.

Result

Instead of 50000 additions around 5000 additions, but tens of thousand auxiliary variables.

Then we reduce the number of auxiliary variables with the help of

Program graph decomposition:

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These are analogues of two known “compiler” techniques:

- Common expression elimination
- Register allocation via graph coloring

Both of them for these problem are inefficient

Everything consists from parts:

Summary

- Optimal algorithms for small polynomials
- Selecting of polynomial set for large n
- Optimizing multiplication by U and V («Fourier without Fourier»)
- Program graph decomposition

As a result — 10 times faster for $n = 128$.
Not only in theory, but in practice.

- I.V. Oseledets, Optimal Karatsuba-like formulae for certain bilinear forms in $GF(2)$, Linear Algebra Appl. 2008
- I.V. Oseledets, Improved n-term Karatsuba-like formulae, IEEE Trans. Comp., submitted (2008)

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Papers can be obtained from the author or from

<http://spring.inm.ras.ru/osel>

Thank you! Questions?