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Plan

1. Overview
2. Code organization and user interface
3. Core subprograms
4. Applications
Overview: building blocks in scientific software

- No symbolic computation software dedicated to *sequential polynomial arithmetic* managed to play the unification role that the BLAS play in numerical linear algebra.

- Could this work in the case of **hardware accelerators**?

- How to benefit from other successful projects related to polynomial arithmetic, like FFTW, SPIRAL and GMP?
Overview: the Basic Polynomial Algebra Subprograms

Driving observation

- Polynomial multiplication and matrix multiplication are at the core of many algorithms in symbolic computation.
- Algebraic complexity is often estimated in terms of multiplication time. At the software level, this reduction to multiplication is also common (Magma, NTL, FLINT, ...).
- BPAS design follows the principle reducing everything to multiplication.

Targeted functionalities

**Level 1**: core routines specific to a coefficient ring or a polynomial representation: multi-dimensional FFTs, SLP operations, ...

**Level 2**: basic arithmetic operations for dense or sparse polynomials with coefficients in \( \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q} \) or \( \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \): polynomial multiplication, Taylor shift, ...

**Level 3**: advanced arithmetic operations taking as input a zero-dimensional regular chains: normal form of a polynomial, multivariate real root isolation, ...
Overview: targeted architectures

- Programs on multi-core processors can be written in CilkPlus or OpenMP. Our Meta_Fork framework [http://www.metafork.org](http://www.metafork.org) performs automatic translation between the two as well as conversions to C/C++.
- Graphics Processing Units (GPUs) with code written in CUDA, provided by the CUMODP library [http://www.cumodp.org](http://www.cumodp.org).
- Unifying code for both multi-core processors and GPUs is conceivable (see the SPIRAL project) but highly complex (multi-core processors enforce memory consistency while GPUs do not, etc.)
### Overview: implementation techniques

#### Level 1: core routines
- Code is highly optimized in terms of work, data locality and parallelism,
- **Automatic code generation** is used at library installation time.

#### Level 2: basic arithmetic operations
- Functions provide a variety of algorithmic solutions for a given operation,
- The user can choose between algorithms **minimizing work** or algorithms **maximizing parallelism**.
- Example: Schönaghe-Strassen, divide-and-conquer, \( k \)-way Toom-Cook and the two-convolution method for integer polynomial multiplication.

#### Level 3: advanced arithmetic operations
- Functions combine several Level 2 algorithms for achieving a given task,
- This leads to **adaptive algorithms** that select appropriate Level 2 functions depending on available resources (number of cores, input data size).
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Subprojects

- Polynomial types with specified coefficient ring: `ModularPolynomial/`, `IntegerPolynomial/` and `RationalNumberPolynomial/`.
- Polynomial types with unspecified coefficient ring (template classes): `Polynomial/`.
- `ModularPolynomial/` is based on the `Modpn` library and includes our FFT code generator, which is inspired by `FFTW` and `SPIRAL`.
- `IntegerPolynomial/` relies on the `GMP` library.

User interface

- The UI currently exposes part of the polynomial types (the univariate ones and sparse multivariate polynomials)
- Exposing the other ones is work in progress.
- But the entire project is freely available in source at [www.bpaslib.org](http://www.bpaslib.org).
The above is a snapshot of the BPAS ring classes. This shows two multivariate polynomial concrete classes, namely `DistributedDenseMultivariateModularPolynomial<Field>` and `SMQP`, and three univariate polynomial ones, namely `DUZP`, `DUQP` and `SparseUnivariatePolynomial<Ring>`. The BPAS classes `Integer` and `RationalNumber` are BPAS wrappers for GMP’s `mpz` and `mpq` classes. Many other classes are provided like `Intervals`, `RegularChains`, ...
#include <bpas.h>

int main (int argc, char *argv[]) {
    DUZP a (4096), b (4096); // Initializing space
    for (int i = 0; i < 4096; ++i) { a.setCoefficient(i, rand() % 1000 + 1); }
    for (int i = 0; i < 4096; ++i) { b.setCoefficient(i, rand() % 1000 + 1); }
    DUZP c = (a^2) - (b^2), d = (a^3) - (b^3);
    DUZP g = c.gcd(d); // Gcd computation, g = a − b
    c /= g; // Exact division, c = a + b
    std::cout << "g = " << g << std::endl;

    DUQP p; // Initializing as a zero polynomial
    p = (p + mpq_class(1) << 4095) + mpq_class(4095); // p = x^{4095} + 4095
    Intervals boxes = p.realRootIsolation(0.5);
    std::cout << "boxes = " << boxes << std::endl;

    SMQP f(3), g(2); // Initializing with number of variables
    SMQP h = (f^2) + f * g * mpq_class(2) + (g^2);
    SparseUnivariatePolynomial<SMQP> s = h.convertToSUP("x");
    SMQP z (s);
    if (z != h) { std::cout << z << " & " << h << " should not differ " << std::endl; }
    return 0;
}
Plan

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Three core subprograms

- One-dimensional modular FFTs
- Parallel dense integer polynomial multiplication
- Parallel Taylor shift computation $f(x) \leftrightarrow f(x + 1)$
If the input vector does not fit in cache, a recursive algorithm is applied. Once the vector fits in cache, an iterative algorithm (not requiring shuffling) takes over. On an ideal cache of $Z$ words with $L$ words per cache line this yields a cache complexity of $\Omega\left(\frac{n}{L}(\log_2(n) - \log_2(Z))\right)$ which is not optimal.
Cache optimal 1-D FFT

- Instead of processing row-by-row, one computes as deep as possible while staying in cache (resp. registers): this yields a blocking strategy.
- On the left picture, assuming $Z = 4$, on the first (resp, last) two rows, we successively compute the red, green, blue, orange 4-point blocks.
- On an ideal cache of $Z$ words with $L$ words per cache line the cache complexity drops to $O(n/L(\log_2(n)/\log_2(Z)))$ which is optimal.
1-D FFTs in BPAS: putting Förer’s algorithm into practice

Modifying the previous blocking strategy such that each block is an FFT on $2^K$ points, for a given $K$ (small in practice), and

choosing a sparse radix prime $p$ (like $p = r^4 + 1$, for $r = 2^{16} - 2^8$) such that multiplying by the twiddle factors is cheap enough,

the algebraic complexity drops from $O(n \log_2(n))$ to $O(n \log_K(n))$ which is optimal on today’s desktop computers.

Second Strategy FFT

```
procedure FFT((a_0, a_1, ..., a_{N-1}), \omega, N = 2^{k-j} \cdot 2^j, \Omega = \omega^{2^{k-j}})
    for 0 ≤ i < 2^j - 1 do
        for 0 ≤ j' < 2^j - 1 do
            \gamma[i][j'] = a_{i \cdot 2^j + j'}
        end for
        \gamma[i] = FFT(\gamma[i], \omega^K, 2^{k-j}, \Omega)
    end for
    for 0 ≤ i < 2^{k-j} - 1 do
        for 0 ≤ j' < 2^j - 1 do
            \delta[i][j'] = \gamma[i][j'] \cdot \omega^{j'}
        end for
        \delta[i] = FFT(\delta[i], \omega^{2^{k-j}}, 2^j, \Omega)
    end for
end procedure
```

Cache-and-work optimal 1-D FFT
In addition to the above optimal blocking strategy, instruction level parallelism (ILP) is carefully considered: vectorized instructions are explicitly used (SSE2, SSE4) and instruction pipeline usage is highly optimized.

BPAS 1-D FFT code automatically generated by configurable Python scripts.

Figure: 1-D modular FFTs: Modpn (serial) vs BPAS (serial).
Reducing to Schönaghe-Strassen algorithm via Kronecker’s substitution (KS+SS)

0 Input: \( f = \sum_{i=0}^{n} f_i x^i \) and \( g = \sum_{i=0}^{m} g_i x^i \)

1 Choose: \( 2^\ell \geq \|f\|_\infty + \|g\|_\infty + \max(n, m) + 1 \)

2 Evaluation: \( Z_f = \sum_{i=0}^{n} f_i 2^{i\ell} \) and \( Z_g = \sum_{i=0}^{m} g_i 2^{i\ell} \);

3 Multiplying: \( Z_h = Z_f \times Z_g \), using GMP library;

4 Unpacking: \( h_i \) from \( Z_h = \sum_{i=0}^{n+m} h_i 2^{i\ell} \).

5 Return: \( f g = \sum_{i=0}^{n+m} h_i x^i \)

- its work in terms of bit operations is \( O(s \log_2(s) \log_2(\log_2(s))) \), where \( s \) is the maximum bit-size of \( f \) or \( g \);
- purely serial due to the difficulties of parallelizing 1-D FFTs on multicore processors.
Divide-and-conquer algorithm with reduction to GMP’s integer multiplication

1 **Division**: \( f(x) = f_0(x) + f_1(x) x^{n/2} \) and \( g(x) = g_0(x) + g_1(x) x^{n/2} \);

2 **Execute recursively**:
   - Store \( f_0 \times g_0 \) \& \( f_1 \times g_1 \) in the result array;
   - Store \( f_0 \times g_1 \) \& \( f_1 \times g_0 \) in the auxiliary arrays;

3 **Addition**: add the auxiliary arrays to the result one.

- use (one or) two levels of recursion, then use the KS+SS algorithm;
- its work in terms of bit operations is \( O(s \log_2(s) \log_2(\log_2(s))) \), where \( s \) is the maximum bit-size of \( f \) or \( g \), but the constant has been multiplied approximately by 4;
- static parallelism (close to 16).
### Parallel dense integer polynomial multiplication

**k-way Toom-Cook algorithm**

1. **Division**: \( f(x) = f_0(x) + f_1(x) \cdot x^{n/k} + \cdots + f_{k-1}(x) \cdot x^{(k-1)n/k} \) and \( g(x) = g_0(x) + g_1(x) \cdot x^{n/k} + \cdots + g_{k-1}(x) \cdot x^{(k-1)n/k} \);
2. **Conversion**: Set \( X = x^{n/k} \) and obtain \( F(X) = Z_{f_0} + Z_{f_1} \cdot X + \cdots + Z_{f_{k-1}} \cdot X^{k-1} \) and \( G(X) = Z_{g_0} + Z_{g_1} \cdot X + \cdots + Z_{g_{k-1}} \cdot X^{k-1} \);
3. **Evaluation**: Evaluate \( f, g \) at \( 2k - 1 \) points: \((0, X_1, \ldots, X_{2k-3}, \infty)\);
4. **Multiplying**: \((w_0, \ldots, w_{2k-2}) = (F(0) \cdot G(0), \ldots, F(\infty) \cdot G(\infty))\);
5. **Interpolation**: Recover \((Z_{h_0}, Z_{h_1}, \ldots, Z_{h_{2k-2}})\) where \( H(X) = f(X) \cdot g(X) = Z_{h_0} + Z_{h_1} \cdot X + \cdots + Z_{h_{2k-2}} \cdot X^{2k-2} \);
6. **Conversion**: Recover polynomial coefficients from \( Z_{h_0}, \ldots, Z_{h_{2k-2}} \), obtaining \( h(x) = h_0(x) + h_1(x) \cdot x^{n/k} + \cdots + h_{2k-2}(x) \cdot x^{(2k-2)n/k} \).

- Work in terms of bit operations is \( O(s \log_2(s) \log_2(\log_2(s))) \), where \( s \) is the maximum bit-size of \( f \) or \( g \), but the constant has been multiplied approximately by 2 for \( k = 8 \);
- 4-way & 8-way Toom-Cook are available;
- **static parallelism** (about 7 and 13 when \( k = 4 \) and \( k = 8 \), resp).
Parallel dense integer polynomial multiplication

A new algorithm: the two-convolution method

- work is $O(s \log_K(s))$, where $s$ is the maximum bit-size of an input;
- parallelism is $O\left(\frac{\sqrt{s}}{\log_2(s)}\right)$. 
1. Convert $a(y)$, $b(y)$ to bivariate $A(x, y)$, $B(x, y)$ s. t. $a(y) = A(\beta, y)$ and $b(y) = B(\beta, y)$ hold at $\beta = 2^M$, $K = \deg(A, x) = \deg(B, x)$, where $K M$ is essentially the maximum bit size of a coefficient in $a$, $b$.

2. Consider $C^+(x, y) \equiv A(x, y) B(x, y) \mod <x^K + 1>$ and $C^-(x, y) \equiv A(x, y) B(x, y) \mod <x^K - 1>$, then compute $C^+(x, y)$ and $C^-(x, y)$ modulo machine-word primes so as to use efficient 2-D FFTs.

3. Consider $C(x, y) = \frac{C^+(x, y)}{2} (x^K - 1) + \frac{C^-(x, y)}{2} (x^K + 1)$, then evaluate $C(x, y)$ at $x = \beta$, which finally gives $c(y) = a(y) b(y)$.
Parallel dense integer polynomial multiplication

Our experimental results were obtained on an 48-core AMD Opteron 6168, running at 900Mhz with 256 GB of RAM and 512KB of L2 cache.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size</th>
<th>Work(KS+SS)*</th>
<th>Work(CVL₂)*</th>
<th>Span(CVL₂)*</th>
<th>Work(CVL₂)</th>
<th>Work(KS+SS)</th>
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<tr>
<td>2048</td>
<td>795,549,545</td>
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<td>5,663,423,709</td>
<td>96,032,325</td>
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<td>8192</td>
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<td>23,827,123,688</td>
<td>292,735,521</td>
<td>81.39</td>
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<tr>
<td>16384</td>
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<td>1.584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32768</td>
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<td>425,149,529,176</td>
<td>3,804,178,563</td>
<td>111.76</td>
<td>1.575</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: Cilkview analysis of CVL₂ and KS+SS. (* shows the number of instructions)
Figure: BPAS (parallel) vs FLINT (serial) vs Maple 18 (serial) with the logarithmic scale in radix 2 of the maximum bit-size of an input polynomial as the horizontal axis.
Figure: BPAS (parallel) vs FLINT (serial) vs Maple18 (serial) with the logarithmic scale in radix 2 of the maximum bit-size of an input polynomial as the horizontal axis.
Parallel dense integer polynomial multiplication

The adaptive algorithm based on the input size and available resources

- Very small: Plain multiplication
- Small or Single-core: KS+SS algorithm
- Big but a few cores: 4-way Toom-Cook
- Big: 8-way Toom-Cook
- Very big: Two-convolution method
Parallel Taylor shift $f(x) \leftrightarrow f(x + 1)$

Parallel Pascals triangle by blocking

<p>| | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
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<td>...</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>$f_d$</td>
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<td>$f_{d-1}$</td>
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<td>↓</td>
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<tr>
<td>$f_1$</td>
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<td>+</td>
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<tr>
<td>$f_0$</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>$g_0$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Let $n$ be the degree and $\ell$ be the maximum bit-size of a coefficient, the complexity in terms of bit operations: $O(n^2(n + \ell))$;
- highly effective when both the input data size and the number of available cores are small due to optimal cache complexity.
Algorithm E in [2]: a divide-and-conquer procedure, relying on polynomial multiplication

\[
(f_0 + f_1(x + 1)) \rightarrow (f_2 + f_3(x + 1)) \leftarrow (x + 1)^2
\]

\[
f_0 \rightarrow f_1
\]

\[
f_2 \leftarrow f_3
\]

Let \( n \) be the degree and \( \ell \) be the maximum bit-size of a coefficient, the complexity in terms of bit operations: \( O(M(n^2 + n\ell) \log n) \), where \( M \) is a multiplication time.

- effective when the two-convolution multiplication dominates its counterparts.

Parallel Taylor shift $f(x) \mapsto f(x + 1)$

The adaptive algorithm based on the input size

- Small: Parallel Pascals triangle
- Big: Algorithm E in [2], but for multiplication in small degree, using parallel Pascals triangle as the base case

A third alternative algorithm is work in progress.

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Applications

- Parallel univariate real root isolation
- Parallel multivariate real root isolation
- Symbolic integration
Parallel univariate real root isolation

**Input:** A univariate squarefree polynomial \( f(x) = c_d x^d + \cdots + c_1 x + c_0 \) with rational number coefficients

**Output:** A list of pairwise disjoint intervals \([a_1, b_1], \ldots, [a_e, b_e]\) with rational endpoints such that
- each real root of \( f(x) \) is contained in one and only one \([a_i, b_i]\);
- if \( a_i = b_i \), the real root \( x_i = a_i(b_i) \); otherwise, the real root \( a_i < x_i < b_i \) (\( f(x) \) doesn’t vanish at either endpoint).
The most costly operation is the Taylor Shift operation, that is, the map \( f(x) \mapsto f(x + 1) \).
Parallel univariate real root isolation

We run two parallel real root algorithms, BPAS and CMY [3], which are both implemented in CilkPlus, against Maple 18 serial `realroot` command (interface of the RUR-based code implemented in C by F. Rouillier) which implements a state-of-the-art algorithm.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Size</th>
<th>BPAS (Parallel)</th>
<th>CMY [3] (Parallel)</th>
<th><code>realroot</code> (Serial)</th>
<th>$\frac{T_{CMY}}{T_{BPAS}}$</th>
<th>$\frac{T_{realroot}}{T_{BPAS}}$</th>
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<td>Laguerre</td>
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<td>2.83</td>
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Table: Running time (in sec.) on a 48-core AMD Opteron 6168 node for four examples.

### Parallel multivariate real root isolation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>BPAS (parallel)</th>
<th>RealRootIsolate (serial)</th>
<th>Isolate (serial)</th>
<th>Speedup</th>
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<td>4-Body-Homog</td>
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<td>0.608</td>
<td>0.382</td>
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<td>R-6</td>
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<td>0.048</td>
<td>20.612</td>
<td>3.429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rose</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td>0.336</td>
<td>0.599</td>
<td>12.923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Takeuchi-Lu</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>1.148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilkinsonxy</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>0.165</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nld-10-3</td>
<td>1.249</td>
<td>8.993</td>
<td>707.334</td>
<td>7.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: Running time (in sec.) on a 12-core Intel Xeon 5650 node for BPAS vs. Maple 17 RealRootIsolate vs. C (with Maple 17 interface) Isolate.
R. H. C. Moir, R. M. Corless, and D. J. Jeffrey (2014, July) present an implementation based on the BPAS library, computing

\[ F(x) = \int f(x) \, dx. \]

For instance, it evaluates \( \int \frac{x^4 - 3x^2 + 6}{x^6 - 5x^4 + 5x^2 + 4} \, dx = \text{invtan}(x^3 - 3x, x^2 - 2). \)
Concluding remarks

- The BPAS library is the first polynomial algebra library which emphasizes performance aspects (cache complexity, parallelism) on multi-core architectures.
- Its core operations (dense integer polynomial multiplication, real root isolation) outperform their counterparts in recognized computer algebra software (FLINT, Maple).
- Its companion library CUDA Modular Polynomial (CUMODP) has similar goals on GPGPUs [www.cumodp.org](http://www.cumodp.org).
- Together, they are designed to support the implementation of polynomial system solvers on hardware accelerators.
- The BPAS library is available in source at [www.bpaslib.org](http://www.bpaslib.org).