

## Introduction

Polynomial interpolation is the problem of fitting a polynomial to a set of data. We represent this process with the Black Box model of polynomial interpolation.

### The Black Box Model

Let  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$ . The goal is to interpolate  $f$  from a set of evaluations.

$$\xrightarrow{(\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n} \blacksquare \xrightarrow{f(\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_n) \in \mathbb{Z}}$$

The interpolation method presented in this poster is a sparse interpolation method.

**Definition** Let  $f \in R[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$ , where  $R$  is a ring and  $\deg f = d$ . Let  $t$  denote the number of non-zero terms of  $f$  and  $T_{max}$  denote the maximum possible terms of  $f$ .  $f$  is sparse if  $t \ll T_{max} = \binom{n+d}{d}$ .

We interpolate  $f$  modulo a set of primes  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_s$  and use **Chinese remaindering** to recover the integer coefficients. We use a **Kronecker substitution** to reduce multivariate interpolation to a univariate interpolation.

**Definition** Let  $D$  be an integral domain. Let  $f \in D[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$ ,  $f \neq 0$ . Let  $r = [r_1, r_2, \dots, r_{n-1}] \in \mathbb{Z}^{n-1}$ ,  $r_i > 0$ . Let  $K_r : D[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \rightarrow D[x]$  be the Kronecker substitution  $K_r(f) = f(x, x^{r_1}, x^{r_1 r_2}, \dots, x^{r_1 r_2 \dots r_{n-1}})$ . Let  $d_i = \deg_{x_i} f$  be the partial degrees of  $f$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .  $K_r$  is invertible if  $r_i > d_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n-1$ .

**Example** Let  $f(x, y, z) = 2x^4y^3z^2 + 3x^2yz + 7x^2z^3 + 5$ .  $K_r(f) = f(x, x^5, x^{5 \cdot 4}) = 2x^{59} + 3x^{27} + 7x^{62} + 5x^0$ .

After applying the Kronecker substitution the degree of the polynomial becomes exponential in  $n$ . In this poster we present a modular algorithm for recovering the exponents.

## Problem

Let  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ , with  $K_r(f) = g(x) = a_1x^{e_1} + a_2x^{e_2} + \dots + a_t x^{e_t}$ , and  $\deg g = d$ . Let  $E = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_t\}$ . Our goal is to interpolate  $E$ .

We first interpolate the exponents modulo a set of primes minus 1.

$$\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} E \pmod{p_1 - 1} \\ E \pmod{p_2 - 1} \\ \vdots \\ E \pmod{p_s - 1} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{The order is unknown.}$$

**Question:** How do we pair up the exponents mod p-1?

We recover the exponents from their images mod  $p-1$ , and therefore first need to pair the images into sets that correspond to the right exponents. This is a challenge because their order is unknown.

$$\begin{pmatrix} E \pmod{p_1 - 1} \\ E \pmod{p_2 - 1} \\ \vdots \\ E \pmod{p_s - 1} \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{?} \begin{pmatrix} e_{11} & e_{12} & e_{13} & \dots & e_{1t} \\ e_{21} & e_{22} & e_{23} & \dots & e_{2t} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ e_{s1} & e_{s2} & e_{s3} & \dots & e_{st} \end{pmatrix}$$

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓  
e<sub>1</sub> e<sub>2</sub> e<sub>3</sub> ... e<sub>t</sub>

Goal  
Interpolate  $E$

**Question:** How do we recover the exponents?

How do we recover the exponents  $e_i$  from their images modulo  $p_i - 1$ ? We recover the exponents by applying a generalized form of Chinese remaindering which does not require relatively prime moduli.

## Method

Our method requires that we use smooth primes.

**Definition** A prime  $p$  is  $y$ -smooth if for every prime  $q|p-1$  we have  $q \leq y$ .

We pick  $s$  smooth primes of the form  $p = 2^k r + 1$ , so that  $LCM(p_1 - 1, p_2 - 1, \dots, p_s - 1) > d$ .

For each prime we interpolate a set  $E \pmod{p-1}$  by running the following procedure. See [4]

### Procedure Interpolate Exponents mod p-1:

INPUT: Black Box polynomial  $g$  and a prime  $p$ .

OUTPUT:  $E \pmod{p-1}$ .

- (1) Pick a generator  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ .  
For  $1 \leq j \leq 2t-1$  compute  $v_j = g(\alpha^j)$ .
- (2) Compute  $\lambda(z) = \prod_{i=1}^t (z - \alpha^{e_i \pmod{p-1}})$  from the evaluations  $v_j$  with the Berlekamp Massey algorithm.
- (3) Compute the roots of  $\lambda(z) : \alpha^{e_1}, \alpha^{e_2}, \dots, \alpha^{e_t} \pmod{p}$ .
- (4) Solve mod p-1 by taking the discrete logarithm:  
 $\log_\alpha(\alpha^{e_i} \pmod{p}) = e_i \pmod{p-1}$ . [1]

$$(Exponents \pmod{p-1}) \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} E \pmod{p_1 - 1} \\ E \pmod{p_2 - 1} \\ \vdots \\ E \pmod{p_s - 1} \end{pmatrix}$$

## Sorting the Exponents mod p-1

$$p = \delta x + 1$$

The moduli we choose share a common divisor  $\delta$ . That is, for all  $1 \leq i \leq s$ ,  $p_i = \delta x_i + 1$ . If we make  $\delta$  large enough then the birthday paradox tells us

$$\delta > t^2 \Rightarrow \text{Prob}\{\text{unique exponents}\} > .6.$$

If the exponents are unique mod  $\delta$  then their images mod  $\delta x$  are unique mod  $\delta$ , and therefore we can sort them mod  $\delta$ .

$$\begin{pmatrix} E \pmod{p_1 - 1} \\ E \pmod{p_2 - 1} \\ \vdots \\ E \pmod{p_s - 1} \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Sort mod } \delta} \begin{pmatrix} e_{11} & e_{12} & e_{13} & \dots & e_{1t} \\ e_{21} & e_{22} & e_{23} & \dots & e_{2t} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ e_{s1} & e_{s2} & e_{s3} & \dots & e_{st} \end{pmatrix}$$

## Recovering the Exponents

Once we have sorted the images, we can apply a generalized form of the Chinese remainder theorem to recover the exponents.

**Generalized Chinese Remainder Theorem** Let  $m_1, \dots, m_s$  be positive integers. Let  $M = LCM(m_1, \dots, m_s)$ , and let  $u_1, \dots, u_s$  be any integers. There exists exactly one integer  $\mathbf{u}$  such that,  
 i)  $\mathbf{u} \equiv u_i \pmod{m_i}$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq s$ , and  
 ii)  $0 \leq \mathbf{u} < M$ ,  
 iff  $u_i \equiv u_j \pmod{\gcd(m_i, m_j)}$ ,  $1 \leq i < j \leq s$ . [2]

The theorem below encapsulates that if the exponents are unique mod  $\delta$ , then their modular images are unique mod  $\delta$  and pair up into sets from which we can recover the exponents.

**Theorem** Let  $m_1 = \delta x_1, m_2 = \delta x_2, \dots, m_s = \delta x_s$ , and  $M = LCM(m_1, \dots, m_s)$ . Let  $E$  be a set of  $t$  non negative integers. Let  $E_1, \dots, E_s$  be sets such that,  $E_k = \{x \pmod{m_k} : x \in E\}$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq s$ . If  $E$  contains distinct elements modulo  $\delta$ , then there exists exactly  $t$  integers,  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_t$  such that  
 (i)  $0 \leq u_i < M$ ,  
 (ii) for each  $u_i$ , there exist exactly  $s$  integers  $u_{1i}, u_{2i}, \dots, u_{si}$  such that  $u_{1i} \in E_1, u_{2i} \in E_2, \dots, u_{si} \in E_s$ , and  $u_i \equiv u_{ki} \pmod{m_k}$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq s$ .

### Example:

$$\begin{aligned} E_1 &= \{65, 97, 124, 189, 300\} & p_1 &= 10 \cdot 31 + 1 \\ E_2 &= \{377, 394, 509, 680, 965\} & p_2 &= 10 \cdot 97 + 1 \\ E_3 &= \{20, 34, 57, 89, 115\} & p_3 &= 10 \cdot 13 + 1 \\ E_4 &= \{35, 100, 119, 217, 254\} & p_4 &= 10 \cdot 33 + 1 \end{aligned}$$

**Notice**  $E_1 \pmod{\delta}$  gives  $E_1 = \{65, 97, 124, 189, 300\} \pmod{10} = \{5, 7, 4, 9, 0\}$ , and therefore the exponents are unique mod  $\delta = 10$ . Now the images can be sorted mod  $\delta$ .

$$\xrightarrow[\text{(mod } \delta)]{\text{Sort}} \begin{pmatrix} 300 & 124 & 65 & 97 & 189 \\ 680 & 394 & 965 & 377 & 509 \\ 20 & 34 & 115 & 57 & 89 \\ 100 & 254 & 35 & 217 & 119 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{matrix} E \pmod{10 \cdot 31} \\ E \pmod{10 \cdot 97} \\ E \pmod{10 \cdot 13} \\ E \pmod{10 \cdot 33} \end{matrix}$$

Now apply the Generalized Chinese remainder theorem.

$$\begin{matrix} \downarrow & \downarrow & \searrow & \searrow & \searrow \\ 4126090 & 10826564 & 1918655 & 264217 & 7269689 \end{matrix}$$

$$E = \{264217, 1918655, 4126090, 7269689, 10826564\}$$

$$g(x) = a_1 x^{264217} + a_2 x^{1918655} + a_3 x^{4126090} + a_4 x^{7269689} + a_5 x^{10826564}$$

## Smooth Primes

In step 4 of procedure InterpolateExponents we solve a discrete logarithm.

**Question:** How do we solve the discrete logarithm efficiently?

If  $p = p_1^{f_1} p_2^{f_2} \dots p_k^{f_k} + 1$ , then the cost of running the Pohlig-Hellman algorithm is  $O(\sum_{i=1}^k f_i (\log p + \sqrt{p_i}))$  [1]. Therefore to maintain an efficient algorithm we need that  $p$  is smooth.

Our application uses 63 bit primes. We need that there are enough smooth primes less than  $2^{63}$ .

**Definition** An integer  $x$  is  $y$ -smooth if for every prime  $p|x$  we have  $p \leq y$ . The number of  $y$ -smooth primes is

$$\pi(x, y) = \sum_{\text{primes } p \leq x \text{ such that } p-1 \text{ is } y\text{-smooth}} 1.$$

**Example** We computed  $\pi(2^{30}, 1024) = 4816780$ .

**Theorem** (Friedlander J.B., 1989 [3]). If  $\alpha > \sqrt{e}/2 = 0.303\dots$  and  $y > x^\alpha$  then there exists  $c > 0$  such that

$$\pi(x, y) > c \frac{x}{\log x}$$

We know by the prime number theorem that  $\pi(x) \sim \frac{x}{\log x}$ . Therefore, the above theorem tells us that, for every  $\alpha > .303$ , we can find a constant such that  $\pi(x, y) > c\pi(x)$ . We computed a few of these constants which are listed in the following table.

	$\alpha = 0.5$		$\alpha = 0.33$		$\alpha = 0.25$	
$y$	$x$	$c$	$x$	$c$	$x$	$c$
$2^{16}$	$2^{32}$	0.33746	$2^{48}$	0.05600	$2^{64}$	0.00591
$2^{18}$	$2^{36}$	0.33272	$2^{54}$	0.05578	$2^{72}$	0.00558
$2^{20}$	$2^{40}$	0.33081	$2^{60}$	0.05418	$2^{80}$	0.00568
$2^{22}$	$2^{44}$	0.32957	$2^{66}$	0.05355	$2^{88}$	0.00594
$2^{24}$	$2^{48}$	0.32604	$2^{72}$	0.05307	$2^{96}$	0.00563
$2^{26}$	$2^{52}$	0.32665	$2^{78}$	0.05297	$2^{104}$	0.00545
$2^{28}$	$2^{56}$	0.32400	$2^{84}$	0.05171	$2^{112}$	0.00568
$2^{30}$	$2^{60}$	0.31983	$2^{90}$	0.05195	$2^{120}$	0.00529

## References

- [1] S. Pohlig and M. Hellman (1978), "An Improved Algorithm for Computing Logarithms over GF(p) and its Cryptographic Significance."
- [2] D. Knuth (1981), "The Art of Computer Programming - Volume 2: Semi-Numerical Algorithms", 2nd ed., 1981.
- [3] J. B. Friedlander, "Shifted Primes without Large Prime Factors", pp. 393-401 in Number Theory and Applications (Banff, AB, 1988)
- [4] J. Hu and M. Monagan (2016), "A Fast Parallel Sparse Polynomial GCD Algorithm", Proc. ISSAC 2016, pp. 271-278, ACM Press, 2016.