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A novel approach to integration by parts reduction

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ABSTRACT

Integration by parts reduction is a standard component of most modern multi-loop calculations in quantum field theory. We present a novel strategy constructed to overcome the limitations of currently available reduction programs based on Laporta's algorithm. The key idea is to construct algebraic identities from numerical samples obtained from reductions over finite fields. We expect the method to be highly amenable to parallelization, show a low memory footprint during the reduction step, and allow for significantly better run-times.

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Over the past few decades, it has often been the case that new developments in computer technology have sparked advances in theoretical high energy particle physics. This has been especially true with regard to the application of integration by parts (IBP) identities in *d* dimensional spacetime to the reduction of multiloop scalar Feynman integrals in quantum field theory to a basis of irreducible master integrals [1,2]. From the MINCER program written long ago for the reduction of three-loop propagator-type integrals [3], to the more recent general-purpose algorithm introduced by Laporta [4], automated approaches to integration by parts reduction have long been favored because of the enormous amount of algebra involved. This is also reflected in the fact that, in recent years, quite a few dedicated IBP solvers have been written and made publicly available [5–10].

While many integral reductions of phenomenological interest have been successfully performed in the past, improvements are required for the calculation of many precision observables relevant to the physics program of the Large Hadron Collider. For example, solving all of the IBP relations relevant for the calculation of the two-loop virtual corrections to the $pp \rightarrow t\bar{t}$ cross section in Quantum Chromodynamics will take currently available reduction programs at least several weeks to run on a desktop computer. In order to handle future problems, which are likely to be significantly more demanding due to either the presence of additional kinematical scales or additional loop integrations, it is worth understanding what makes IBP solving computationally expensive.

Let us point out three major performance shortcomings of standard IBP solvers based on Laporta's algorithm. First of all, for a process on the edge of feasibility, the algorithm will typically re-

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quire finding a reduced row echelon form for a sparse system of millions of linear equations with coefficients that are polynomial in the available independent ratios of dimensionful scales and the spacetime dimension. Solving such linear systems using standard techniques (*e.g.* variants of Gaussian elimination) leads to coefficients which are rational functions of high degree at intermediate stages of the calculation [11]. Depending on the exact order of the reduction steps, the coefficient complexity and the number of nonzero coefficients per row vector may grow dramatically.

This type of phenomenon is commonly referred to in the literature as intermediate expression swell and leads to performance problems since the expressions become expensive to manipulate and, en masse, even to store in memory. For IBP reductions, a standard operation performed on the coefficients to recognize zeros and to simplify the resulting expressions is the computation of greatest common divisors, which becomes increasingly expensive as the coefficients get more and more complicated. To get a feeling for how severe spurious intermediate expression swell can become during an IBP reduction, one can mask a single relation between integrals while performing some set of integral reductions. Carrying out this experiment, we observed cases where, as a consequence of the masking, the reduction result grew by more than an order of magnitude in size. While heuristic rules to avoid expression swell can be found in available IBP solvers, there is obvious motivation for improvement.

Second, a large fraction of the identities computed in the conventional approach reduce *auxiliary integrals* which do not occur in the actual calculation of interest (*e.g.* some component of a cross section). However, considering identities involving auxiliary integrals is unavoidable for a complete reduction of the required integrals. Clearly, it is of considerable interest to avoid expensive computations for purely auxiliary quantities whenever possible.

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Third, in an effort to improve upon the run-time requirements of the Laporta algorithm, it is natural to attempt a dedicated *parallelization* of the reduction procedure. Among the publicly available IBP solvers, Reduze 2 [9] is distinguished by the fact that it was designed to be run on a computer cluster. While the optimal number of cores is problem specific, it is often the case that one observes a significant speed-up only when utilizing up to at most a few tens of cores. Modern computer clusters available at research institutions and laboratories may provide a considerably larger number of cores which can therefore not be fully exploited.

In this Letter, we describe a new approach to automated integration by parts reduction based on well-known ideas in computational mathematics which should significantly ameliorate the issues discussed above which one typically encounters in practical applications. Roughly speaking, the strategy is to sample over many distinct prime fields for most of the calculation and then, at the end, reconstruct the symbolic rational coefficients for the identities of interest by combining the samples together. Remarkably, the requisite mathematical techniques are simple, well-tested, and can be found in expository form in many modern computer algebra textbooks (e.g. [11]). Our work is similar in spirit to that of Kant [12] and, in fact, we expect that his ICE package will serve as a useful preprocessor for IBP relations. The key idea is to systematically avoid manipulating polynomials or rational functions at intermediate stages of the calculation in an effort to avoid intermediate expression swell.

The outline of this Letter is as follows. First, we review the reconstruction of rational numbers from samples obtained over finite fields. Next, we discuss how this can be exploited for fast rational linear system solving. It is possible to work entirely with samples over small (machine-sized) prime fields, since the information from samples over distinct fields can be combined by using the well-known Chinese remainder algorithm. Finally, we promote the rational reconstruction method to the case of univariate rational functions through interpolating polynomials and discuss various generalizations and improvements.

Let us begin with a brief review of the mathematical prerequisites. At the heart of everything is the extended Euclidean algorithm (EEA). This algorithm computes the greatest common divisor (GCD) of two integers, a and b, together with their associated *Bézout coefficients*, integers s and t such that

$$GCD(a, b) = s a + t b.$$
⁽¹⁾

Initially, one begins with the triples $(g_0, s_0, t_0) = (a, 1, 0)$ and $(g_1, s_1, t_1) = (b, 0, 1)$ such that |a| > |b|. Then one iterates according to

$$q_i = g_{i-1} \operatorname{quo} g_i \tag{2}$$

 $g_{i+1} = g_{i-1} - q_i g_i \tag{3}$

$$s_{i+1} = s_{i-1} - q_i s_i \tag{4}$$

$$t_{i+1} = t_{i-1} - q_i t_i \,, \tag{5}$$

where $g_{i-1} \operatorname{quo} g_i$ denotes the integer quotient of g_{i-1} by g_i (*i.e.* $g_{i-1} = g_i q_i + r_i$ for some remainder r_i). The modulus of g_i decreases according to $0 \le |g_{i+1}| < |g_i|$ until the algorithm terminates with $g_{k+1} = 0$ for some index k. At this point, $g_k = \operatorname{GCD}(a, b)$, $s_k = s$, and $t_k = t$. It should be emphasized that the version of the EEA presented above is not guaranteed to be optimal for all integers a and b; it will certainly be the case, for example, that a different variant performs better for a and b with asymptotically large absolute values [11]. Throughout this Letter, we will often choose to describe classical versions of algorithms for the sake of clarity and then point out various optimizations or alternatives which may prove useful.

It turns out that the EEA has a number of useful applications. For example, it is possible to use the EEA to define multiplicative inverses in prime fields, $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ (hereafter we use the shorthand \mathbb{Z}_p). If we apply the EEA to *b* and *p*, we find that

$$1 = s p + t b \tag{6}$$

for some *s* and *t*. By definition, this implies that $1 \equiv t \ b \mod p$ and we are therefore led to the definition

$$\frac{1}{b} \equiv t \mod p \,. \tag{7}$$

If we denote the canonical homomorphism from \mathbb{Z} onto \mathbb{Z}_p by $\phi_p(z) = z \mod p$, then (7) implies that the *p*-homomorphic image of a rational number a/b can be consistently written as

$$\phi_p(a/b) = \phi_p(a)\phi_p(1/b).$$
(8)

The natural question that arises now is whether one can go the other way under certain conditions and reconstruct a/b from its p-homomorphic image. Actually, for our purposes, we must first generalize and replace the prime p with a possibly non-prime positive integer m such that GCD(m, b) = 1. Obviously, for the reconstruction to be possible, m must be chosen large enough. An algorithm to reconstruct a/b from its m-homomorphic image was first provided long ago by Wang [13] without proof and then subsequently understood in [14]. More recently, this so-called rational reconstruction (RR) algorithm has been improved upon and generalized in a number of important directions ([15] and [16] are of particular interest to us). Before commenting on the state-of-the-art, it is worth saying a few words about how the classical RR algorithm works.

Given two integers *m* and *u* fulfilling $u \equiv a/b \mod m$ we want to reconstruct the rational number a/b. The crucial observation is that, when one applies the EEA to *m* and *u*, one obtains an identity of the form

$$g_i = s_i m + t_i u \tag{9}$$

at every step of the algorithm because the g_i , s_i , and t_i are computed via exactly the same linear recurrence. Now, if m and the t_i have no common factors, $\phi_m(g_i/t_i) = u$ by definition and it therefore follows that the integers g_i and t_i obtained at each step of the EEA will *all* furnish a rational number, g_i/t_i , which is congruent to u modulo m. However, one iteration j turns out to be special and allows one to recover a/b from g_j/t_j . Note that, in practice, m will be chosen to be a (relatively large) machine-sized prime or a product of such primes. This choice for m has the desirable consequence that m and t_i are almost always relatively prime; exceptional cases are very rare and, in any case, easily dealt with [17].

We now describe RR as originally envisioned in [13]. Employing the EEA for a generic *m* as discussed in the previous paragraph, it can be shown [14] that the RR problem will be well-posed when the modulus *m* is greater than $2 \max\{a^2, b^2\}$. In this situation, the unique solution to the RR problem is given by

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{g_j}{t_j},\tag{10}$$

where the number g_j is distinguished by the fact that it is the first g_i in the EEA to violate the inequality $|g_i| > \lfloor \sqrt{m/2} \rfloor$. In practical applications, one will usually not know the values |a| and |b| in advance and therefore one needs to veto reconstructions which satisfy either $|t_j| > \lfloor \sqrt{m/2} \rfloor$ or $\text{GCD}(t_j, g_j) \neq 1$ since, by design, the conditions $|g_j| \le \lfloor \sqrt{m/2} \rfloor$, $|t_j| \le \lfloor \sqrt{m/2} \rfloor$, and $\text{GCD}(t_j, g_j) = 1$ hold when the RR procedure succeeds. The point is that, for sufficiently large m, all steps of the EEA still yield integers g_i and t_i

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