

CSCI203

Algorithms and Data Structures



Big Numbers

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Standard Integers in C/C++

type	Storage size	Value range
char	1 byte	-128 to 127
unsigned char	1 byte	0 to 255
signed char	1 byte	-128 to 127
int	4 bytes	-2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647
unsigned int	4 bytes	0 to 4,294,967,295
short	2 bytes	-32,768 to 32,767
unsigned short	2 bytes	0 to 65,535
long	8 bytes	-9223372036854775808 to 9223372036854775807
unsigned long	8 bytes	0 to 18446744073709551615

Big Numbers



- ▶ Big numbers, numbers larger than 2^{64} , are important in many applications in computing:
 - Perfect hashing - needs a prime number $> |U|$ the size of the universe of keys.
 - Cryptography - operates with numbers of 512, 1024 or even more bits.
 - Arbitrary precision arithmetic, e.g. calculating π to a million decimal digits.
- ▶ Efficient calculation using big numbers is worth examining as it is useful in its own right and provides some useful methods that have wider application.
 - Divide and Conquer.

Big Numbers



- ▶ We will start by looking at:
 - How to represent large numbers;
 - How to add them;
 - How to multiply them;
 - How to raise them to large powers.

Large Number Representation

- ▶ This is the easiest question to address:
- ▶ We simply break the number into an ordered sequence of manageable chunks.
- ▶ We do this already...
- ▶ ...It is called decimal notation.
 - e.g. we represent 2^{20} as 1048576
 - where each digit is a chunk in a sequence of powers of ten.

Decimal Numbers

▶ 1048576

- $1 \times 10^6 + 0 \times 10^5 + 4 \times 10^4 + 8 \times 10^3 + 5 \times 10^2 + 7 \times 10^1 + 6 \times 10^0$

▶ We can do the same using any numeration base:

▶ The same number can be written as:

- 1000000000000000000000000 in base 2 (digits are 01);
- 1222021101011 in base 3 (digits are 012);
- 232023301 in base 5 (digits are 01234);
- 11625034 in base 7 (digits are 0123456);
- *c974g* in base 17 (digits are 0123456789~~abc~~defg);
- 18*p2g* in base 30 (digits are 0123456789~~abc~~defghijklmnopqrst).

Big Numbers - Big bases



- ▶ If we wish to represent large numbers we can break them up into chunks, each of which fits a computer word:
 - 32 bits;
 - 64 bits.
- ▶ In this way a 1024-bit number can be represented as a sequence of:
 - 32 32-bit integers;
 - 16 64-bit integers.
- ▶ We choose the largest integer for which we can easily and accurately calculate sums and products.

Addition



- ▶ To add two large integers we note:
- ▶ Integers x and y can be written in base b as follows:
 - $x = x_k \times b^k + x_{k-1} \times b^{k-1} + \dots + x_0 \times b^0$
 - $y = y_k b^k + y_{k-1} \times b^{k-1} + \dots + y_0 \times b^0$
- ▶ We can then write $x + y$ as:
 - $x + y = (x_k + y_k) \times b^k + (x_{k-1} + y_{k-1}) \times b^{k-1} + \dots + (x_0 + y_0) \times b^0$
- ▶ We simply add the corresponding chunks of the two numbers (plus any possible carry) to get the equivalent chunk of the result.

Addition's Efficiency



- ▶ If we add two k -chunk integers this involves calculating k additions, each of b -digit integers.
- ▶ We can add two integers in k operations.
 - $k = \log_b n$.
- ▶ This is pretty good.

Multiplication

- ▶ Multiplication is a bit harder.
- ▶ The product $x \times y$ involves calculating products of all of the chunks of each number taken in pairs, each product being multiplied by an appropriate power of the base:

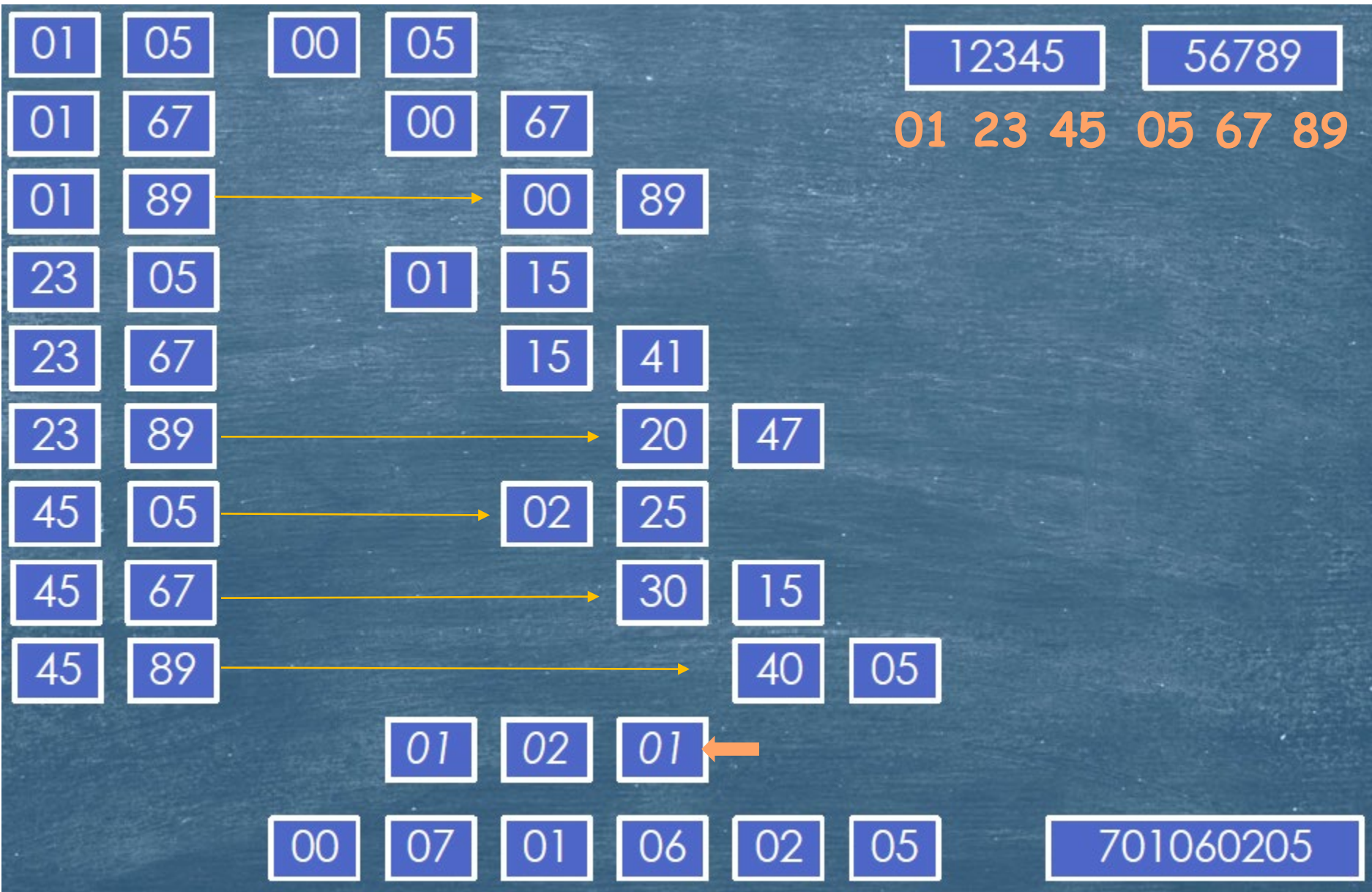
$$\begin{aligned} x \times y &= (x_k \times b^k + x_{k-1} \times b^{k-1} + \dots + x_0 \times b^0) \times (y_k \times b^k + y_{k-1} \times b^{k-1} + \dots + y_0 \times b^0) \\ &= x_k \times y_k \times b^{2k} + (x_k \times y_{k-1} + x_{k-1} \times y_k) \times b^{2k-1} + \dots + x_0 \times y_0 \times b^0 \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Note: each product of two numbers has up to twice as many bits as the original numbers.

An Example



- ▶ Let us calculate the product of 12345×56789 using base- 100 chunks.
- ▶ 12345 consists of 3 chunks: 01 23 45
- ▶ 56789 consists of 3 chunks: 05 67 89
- ▶ We calculate the product as follows:



56789 X 12345

			05	67	89
		×	01	23	45
				40	05
			30	15	
	02		25		
			20	47	
	15		41		
	01		15		
		00	89		
	00		67		
00	05				
	01	02	01		
00	07	01	06	02	05

56789			12345		
05	67	89	01	23	45

701060205

Analysis



- ▶ To multiply two 3-chunk integers involved:
 - 9 multiplications;
 - A similar number of additions.
- ▶ In general multiplying two n -digit integers together involves:
 - $O(n^2)$ multiplications;
 - $O(n^2)$ additions.
- ▶ Can we do better?
 - Multiplication is much slower than addition.

Karatsuba Multiplication

- ▶ Instead of breaking each number into chunks (with length n) let us simply split them into two pieces.
 - $x = b^{n/2} \times x_H + x_L$
 - $y = b^{n/2} \times y_H + y_L$
 - Then $x \times y =$
 - $b^n (x_H \times y_H) + b^{\frac{n}{2}} \times ((x_H \times y_L) + (x_L \times y_H)) + (x_L \times y_L)$
 - This involves 4 multiplications, 2 additions and 2 shifts (assuming b is a power of 2).
 - If we keep dividing into smaller chunks we still end up with $O(n^2)$.
- ▶ Let us look at the multiplications in more detail.

Karatsuba Multiplication...

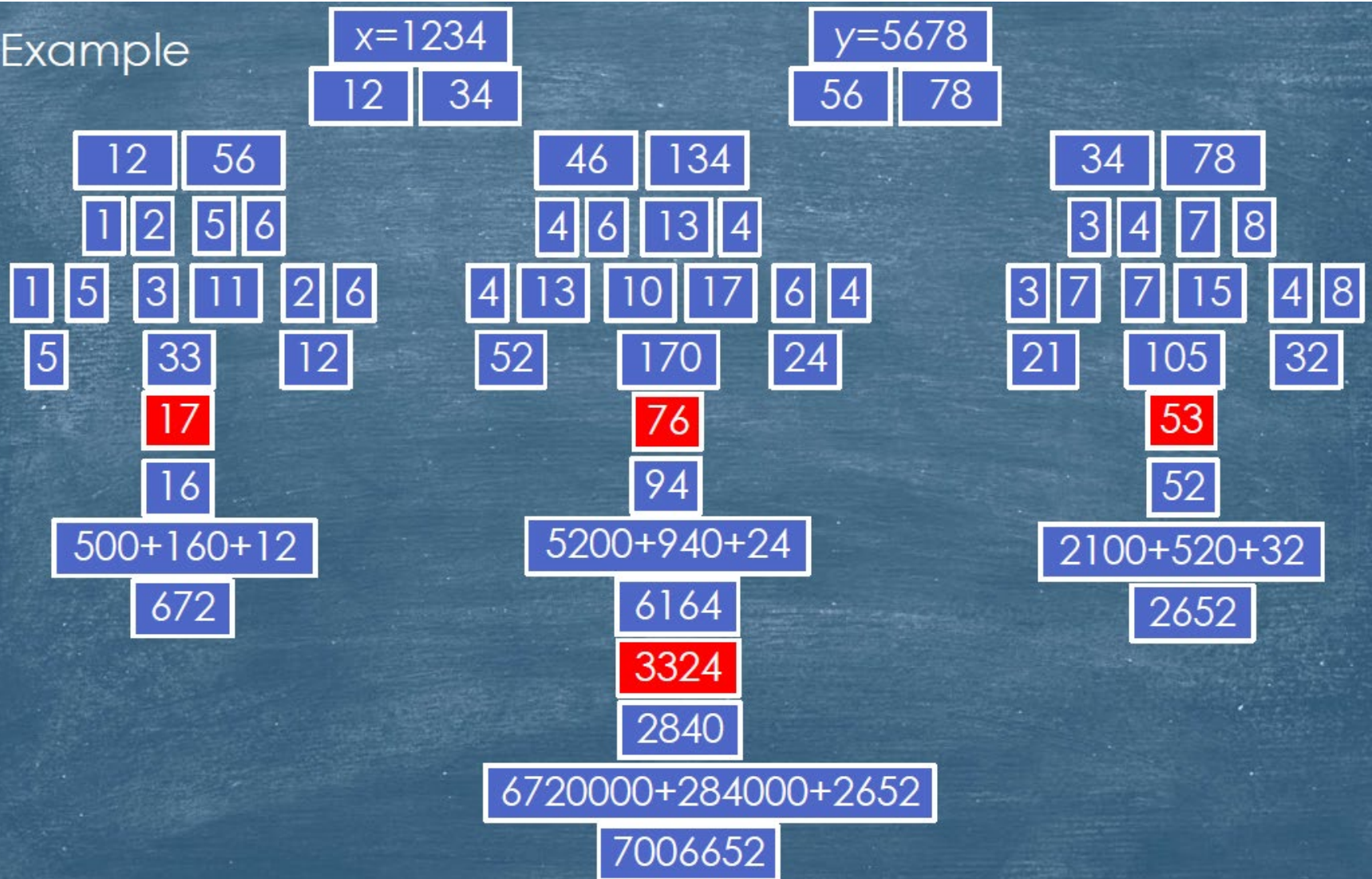


- ▶ We calculated four results;
 - $x_H \times y_H$;
 - $x_H \times y_L$;
 - $x_L \times y_H$;
 - $x_L \times y_L$.
- ▶ We actually only need three;
 - $x_H \times y_H$;
 - $(x_H + x_L) \times (y_H + y_L)$;
 - $x_L \times y_L$.
- ▶ Why is this?

Karatsuba Multiplication...

- ▶ Consider the three terms we need to calculate the product:
 - $x_H \times y_H$;
 - $x_H \times y_L + x_L \times y_H$;
 - $x_L \times y_L$.
- ▶ Our three multiplications allow us to evaluate all of these terms as follows:
 - $x_H \times y_H$;
 - $(x_H + x_L) \times (y_H + y_L) - (x_H \times y_H + x_L \times y_L)$;
 - $x_L \times y_L$.
- ▶ Now, if we keep dividing down, our multiplication takes $O(n^{\log_2 3})$, instead of $O(n^2)$

An Example



Analysis



- ▶ Our example required 9 multiplications.
 - $4^{\log_2 3} = 9$
- ▶ Brute force would need 16 multiplications
 - $4^2 = 16$
- ▶ If we have longer numbers, the advantage becomes greater:
 - 10 digits: 100 vs. ~38
 - 100 digits: 10000 vs. ~1479

Further Analysis



- ▶ Note that, although we perform fewer multiplications we perform many more additions.
- ▶ The break-even point will vary, depending on the processor characteristics.
- ▶ Generally, when the numbers to be multiplied are more than 320 bits long (10 words) we get an advantage.
- ▶ Typically, multiplications of this type are calculated modulo a number which is also of similar size.
- ▶ This further reduces the number of operations required.

Powers



- ▶ To evaluate x^y where x and y are both large integers is a daunting task.
- ▶ We recall that:
 - $x^y = x \times x \times x \times \cdots \times x$
 - $y - 1$ multiplications.
- ▶ This will take an unacceptable number of operations to complete.
- ▶ Can we improve on $O(y)$ multiplications?

Fast Powers

► We can represent x^y recursively as follows:

- $x^y = \left(x^{\frac{y}{2}}\right)^2$ if y is even;
- $x^y = x \times x^{y-1}$ if y is odd.

► Thus, for example,

$$\begin{aligned}a^{29} &= a \times a^{28} = a \times (a^{14})^2 \\&= a \times ((a^7)^2)^2 \\&= a \times ((a \times a^6)^2)^2 \\&= a \times ((a \times (a^3)^2)^2)^2 \\&= a \times \left(\left(a \times (a \times (a^2)) \right)^2 \right)^2\end{aligned}$$

Analysis

- ▶ We note that at least half of the operations involved in `fast_power` reduce the power by a factor of two.
 - If y is odd at some iteration, it is even next time.
 - If y is even, there is 50% chance that it will be even next time.
 - Even in the worst case, alternating odd and even values, the value of x^y will be computed in $O(\log y)$ multiplications.
- ▶ This is a big improvement on $O(y)$, e.g. for 1000-bit numbers:
 - Conventional power computation would take $O(2^{1000})$ operations;
 - Fast power computation would take $O(1000) = O(2^{10})$ operations;
 - This is a factor of 2^{990} times faster!

Even Faster



- ▶ We can also create an iterative version:

```
procedure fast_power_iter(x, y)
  i = y
  result = 1
  a = x
  while i > 0 do
    if i is odd result = big_mult(result, a)
    a = big_mult(a, a)
    i = [i/2]
  return result
```

- ▶ This version removes the cost of the recursive calls.

Modular Powers

- ▶ In practice, we compute all of these results modulo m , where m is yet another large integer.
- ▶ $(ab) \bmod m = ((a \bmod m) (b \bmod m)) \bmod m$
- ▶ This gives us the modular power procedure:

```
procedure mod_power(x, y)
    i = y
    result = 1
    a = x
    while i > 0 do
        if i is odd result = mod(big_mult(result,
            a), m)
        a = mod(big_mult(a, a), m)
        i = [i/2]
    return result
```