



# Algorithms: COMP3121/3821/9101/9801

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TOPIC 2: FAST LARGE INTEGER MULTIPLICATION

# Basics revisited: how do we multiply two numbers?

- The primary school algorithm:

```

      X X X X  <- first input integer
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      X X X X  \
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- Can we do it faster than in  $n^2$  many steps??

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$$\begin{aligned} AB &= A_1 B_1 2^n + (A_1 B_0 + A_0 B_1) 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + A_0 B_0 \\ &= A_1 B_1 2^n + ((A_1 + A_0)(B_1 + B_0) - A_1 B_1 - A_0 B_0) 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + A_0 B_0 \end{aligned}$$

```

1: function MULT( $A, B$ )
2:   if  $|A| = |B| = 1$  then return  $AB$ 
3:   else
4:      $A_1 \leftarrow \text{MoreSignificantPart}(A)$ ;
5:      $A_0 \leftarrow \text{LessSignificantPart}(A)$ ;
6:      $B_1 \leftarrow \text{MoreSignificantPart}(B)$ ;
7:      $B_0 \leftarrow \text{LessSignificantPart}(B)$ ;
8:      $U \leftarrow A_0 + A_1$ ;
9:      $V \leftarrow B_0 + B_1$ ;
10:     $X \leftarrow \text{MULT}(A_0, B_0)$ ;
11:     $W \leftarrow \text{MULT}(A_1, B_1)$ ;
12:     $Y \leftarrow \text{MULT}(U, V)$ ;
13:    return  $W 2^n + (Y - X - W) 2^{n/2} + X$ 
14:  end if
15: end function

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- since  $1.5 < \log_2 3 < 1.6$  we have

$$f(n) = cn = O(n^{\log_2 3 - \varepsilon}) \quad \text{for any } 0 < \varepsilon < \log_2 3 - 1$$

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- Thus, the first case of the Master Theorem applies.
- Consequently,

$$T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_2 3}) \approx \Theta(n^{1.585})$$

without going through the messy calculations!



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- So,

$$AB = A_2 B_2 2^{4k} + (A_2 B_1 + A_1 B_2) 2^{3k} + (A_2 B_0 + A_1 B_1 + A_0 B_2) 2^{2k} + (A_1 B_0 + A_0 B_1) 2^k + A_0 B_0$$

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$$C_4 = A_2B_2$$

$$C_3 = A_2B_1 + A_1B_2$$

$$C_2 = A_2B_0 + A_1B_1 + A_0B_2$$

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- Can we get these with 5 multiplications only?
- Should we perhaps look at

$$(A_2 + A_1 + A_0)(B_2 + B_1 + B_0) = A_0B_0 + A_1B_0 + A_2B_0 + A_0B_1 + A_1B_1 + A_2B_1 + A_0B_2 + A_1B_2 + A_2B_2 \quad ???$$

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- Not clear at all how to get  $C_0 - C_4$  with 5 multiplications only ...

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- We form naturally corresponding polynomials:

$$P_A(x) = A_2 x^2 + A_1 x + A_0;$$

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- Note that

$$A = A_2 (2^k)^2 + A_1 2^k + A_0 = P_A(2^k);$$

$$B = B_2 (2^k)^2 + B_1 2^k + B_0 = P_B(2^k).$$



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with only 5 multiplications, we can then obtain the product of numbers  $A$  and  $B$  simply as

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- We choose **the smallest possible 5 integer values** (smallest by their absolute value), i.e.,  $-2, -1, 0, 1, 2$ .
- Thus, we compute  $P_A(-2), P_A(-1), P_A(0), P_A(1), P_A(2)$   
 $P_B(-2), P_B(-1), P_B(0), P_B(1), P_B(2)$

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- For  $P_A(x) = A_2x^2 + A_1x + A_0$  we have

$$P_A(-2) = A_2(-2)^2 + A_1(-2) + A_0 = 4A_2 - 2A_1 + A_0$$

$$P_A(-1) = A_2(-1)^2 + A_1(-1) + A_0 = A_2 - A_1 + A_0$$

$$P_A(0) = A_20^2 + A_10 + A_0 = A_0$$

$$P_A(1) = A_21^2 + A_11 + A_0 = A_2 + A_1 + A_0$$

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- Similarly, for  $P_B(x) = B_2x^2 + B_1x + B_0$  we have

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- These evaluations involve only additions because  $2A = A + A$ ;  $4A = 2A + 2A$ .

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- Having obtained  $P_A(-2), P_A(-1), P_A(0), P_A(1), P_A(2)$  and  $P_B(-2), P_B(-1), P_B(0), P_B(1), P_B(2)$  we can now obtain  $P_C(-2), P_C(-1), P_C(0), P_C(1), P_C(2)$  with only 5 multiplications of large numbers:

$$\begin{aligned}P_C(-2) &= P_A(-2)P_B(-2) \\ &= (A_0 - 2A_1 + 4A_2)(B_0 - 2B_1 + 4B_2)\end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{aligned}P_C(0) &= P_A(0)P_B(0) \\ &= A_0B_0\end{aligned}$$

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- Thus, if we represent the product  $C(x) = P_A(x)P_B(x)$  in the coefficient form as  $C(x) = C_4x^4 + C_3x^3 + C_2x^2 + C_1x + C_0$  we get

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- Here is the complete algorithm:

```

1: function MULT(A, B)
2:   obtain  $A_0, A_1, A_2$  and  $B_0, B_1, B_2$  such that  $A = A_2 2^{2^k} + A_1 2^k + A_0$ ;  $B = B_2 2^{2^k} + B_1 2^k + B_0$ ;
3:   form polynomials  $P_A(x) = A_2 x^2 + A_1 x + A_0$ ;  $P_B(x) = B_2 x^2 + B_1 x + B_0$ ;
4:
       $P_A(-2) \leftarrow 4A_2 - 2A_1 + A_0$ 
       $P_B(-2) \leftarrow 4B_2 - 2B_1 + B_0$ 
       $P_A(-1) \leftarrow A_2 - A_1 + A_0$ 
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       $P_A(0) \leftarrow A_0$ 
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       $P_A(1) \leftarrow A_2 + A_1 + A_0$ 
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5:
       $P_C(-2) \leftarrow \text{MULT}(P_A(-2), P_B(-2));$ 
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6:
       $C_0 \leftarrow P_C(0);$ 
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7:   form  $P_C(x) = C_4 x^4 + C_3 x^3 + C_2 x^2 + C_1 x + C_0$ ; compute
       $P_C(2^k) = C_4 2^{4k} + C_3 2^{3k} + C_2 2^{2k} + C_1 2^k + C_0$ 

8:   return  $P_C(2^k) = A \cdot B$ .

9: end function

```

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- Clearly, the first case of the MT applies and we get  
 $T(n) = O(n^{\log_3 5}) < O(n^{1.47})$ .

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- The answer is, in a sense, BOTH yes and no, so lets see what happens if we slice numbers into  $n + 1$  many equal slices...

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- Slice  $A, B$  into  $n + 1$  pieces each:

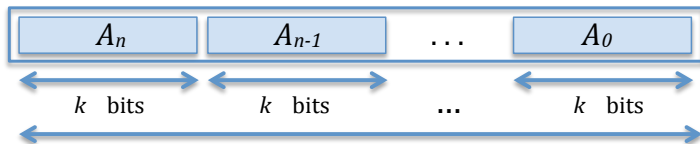
$$\begin{aligned} A &= A_n 2^{kn} + A_{n-1} 2^{k(n-1)} + \dots + A_0 \\ B &= B_n 2^{kn} + B_{n-1} 2^{k(n-1)} + \dots + B_0 \end{aligned}$$

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$A$  divided into  $n+1$  slices each slice  $k$  bits =  $(n+1)k$  bits in total

- We form the naturally corresponding polynomials:

$$\begin{aligned} P_A(x) &= A_n x^n + A_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + A_0 \\ P_B(x) &= B_n x^n + B_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + B_0 \end{aligned}$$

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- Example:

$$\begin{aligned}(a_3x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0)(b_3x^3 + b_2x^2 + b_1x + b_0) = \\ a_3b_3x^6 + (a_2b_3 + a_3b_2)x^5 + (a_1b_3 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_1)x^4 \\ + (a_0b_3 + a_1b_2 + a_2b_1 + a_3b_0)x^3 + (a_0b_2 + a_1b_1 + a_2b_0)x^2 \\ + (a_0b_1 + a_1b_0)x + a_0b_0\end{aligned}$$

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- In general: for

$$P_A(x) = A_nx^n + A_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + A_0$$

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$$\begin{aligned}(a_3x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0)(b_3x^3 + b_2x^2 + b_1x + b_0) = \\ a_3b_3x^6 + (a_2b_3 + a_3b_2)x^5 + (a_1b_3 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_1)x^4 \\ + (a_0b_3 + a_1b_2 + a_2b_1 + a_3b_0)x^3 + (a_0b_2 + a_1b_1 + a_2b_0)x^2 \\ + (a_0b_1 + a_1b_0)x + a_0b_0\end{aligned}$$

- In general: for

$$P_A(x) = A_nx^n + A_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + A_0$$

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$$P_A(x) \cdot P_B(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{2n} \left( \sum_{i+k=j} A_i B_k \right) x^j = \sum_{j=0}^{2n} C_j x^j$$

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- We need to find the coefficients  $C_j = \sum_{i+k=j} A_i B_k$  without performing  $(n+1)^2$  many multiplications necessary to get all products of the form  $A_i B_k$ .

# A VERY IMPORTANT DIGRESSION:

If you have two sequences  $\vec{A} = (A_0, A_1, \dots, A_{n-1}, A_n)$  and  $\vec{B} = (B_0, B_1, \dots, B_{m-1}, B_m)$ , and if you form the two corresponding polynomials

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then the sequence  $\vec{C} = (C_0, C_1, \dots, C_{n+m})$  of the coefficients of the product polynomial, with these coefficients given by

$$C_j = \sum_{i+k=j} A_i B_k, \quad \text{for } 0 \leq j \leq n+m,$$

is **EXTREMELY IMPORTANT** and is called **the linear convolution** of sequences  $\vec{A}$  and  $\vec{B}$  and is denoted by  $\vec{C} = \vec{A} \star \vec{B}$ .

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- In signal processing these degrees can be greater than 1000.
- This is the main reason for us to study methods of fast computation of convolutions (aside of finding products of large integers, which is what we are doing at the moment).

# Coefficient vs value representation of polynomials

- Every polynomial  $P_A(x)$  of degree  $n$  is uniquely determined by its values at any  $n + 1$  distinct input values  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$ :

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- Such a matrix is called *the Vandermonde matrix*.

# Coefficient vs value representation of polynomials - ctd.

- Thus, if all  $x_i$  are all distinct, given any values  $P_A(x_0), P_A(x_1), \dots, P_A(x_n)$  the coefficients  $A_0, A_1, \dots, A_n$  of the polynomial  $P_A(x)$  are uniquely determined:

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  - ① a representation of a polynomial  $P_A(x)$  via its coefficients  $A_n, A_{n-1}, \dots, A_0$ , i.e.  $P_A(x) = A_n x^n + \dots + A_1 x + A_0$

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  - ② a representation of a polynomial  $P_A(x)$  via its values

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# Coefficient vs value representation of polynomials- ctd.

- If we fix the inputs  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  then commuting between a representation of a polynomial  $P_A(x)$  via its coefficients and a representation via its values at these points is done via the following two matrix multiplications, with matrices made up from **constants**:

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- Thus, for fixed input values  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  this switch between the two kinds of representations is done in **linear time**!

# Our strategy to multiply polynomials fast:

- 1 Given two polynomials of degree at most  $n$ ,

$$P_A(x) = A_n x^n + \dots + A_0; \quad P_B(x) = B_n x^n + \dots + B_0$$

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- 2 Multiply these two polynomials point-wise, using  $2n + 1$  multiplications only.

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- **Note:** since the product of the two polynomials will be of degree  $2n$  we need the values of  $P_A(x)$  and  $P_B(x)$  at  $2n + 1$  points, rather than just  $n + 1$  points!

- ❷ Multiply these two polynomials point-wise, using  $2n + 1$  multiplications only.

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# Our strategy to multiply polynomials fast:

- 1 Given two polynomials of degree at most  $n$ ,

$$P_A(x) = A_n x^n + \dots + A_0; \quad P_B(x) = B_n x^n + \dots + B_0$$

convert them into value representation at  $2n + 1$  distinct points  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{2n}$ :

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- 3 Convert such value representation of  $P_C(x) = P_A(x)P_B(x)$  back to coefficient form

$$P_C(x) = C_{2n}x^{2n} + C_{2n-1}x^{2n-1} + \dots + C_1x + C_0;$$

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- So we find the values  $P_A(m)$  and  $P_B(m)$  for all  $m$  such that  $-n \leq m \leq n$ .
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- Thus, all the values

$$P_A(m) = A_n m^n + A_{n-1} m^{n-1} + \dots + A_0 : \quad -n \leq m \leq n,$$

$$P_B(m) = B_n m^n + B_{n-1} m^{n-1} + \dots + B_0 : \quad -n \leq m \leq n.$$

can be found in time linear in the number of bits of the input numbers!

# Fast multiplication of polynomials - ctd.

- We now perform  $2n + 1$  **multiplications of large numbers** to obtain

$$P_A(-n)P_B(-n), \dots, P_A(-1)P_B(-1), P_A(0)P_B(0), P_A(1)P_B(1), \dots, P_A(n)P_B(n)$$

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- For  $P_C(x) = P_A(x)P_B(x)$  these products are  $2n + 1$  many values of  $P_C(x)$ :

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- We now have:

$$C_{2n}(-n)^{2n} + C_{2n-1}(-n)^{2n-1} + \dots + C_0 = P_C(-n)$$

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$$\vdots$$

$$C_{2n}(n-1)^{2n} + C_{2n-1}(n-1)^{2n-1} + \dots + C_0 = P_C(n-1)$$

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# Fast multiplication of polynomials - ctd.

- This is just a system of linear equations, that can be solved for  $C_0, C_1, \dots, C_{2n}$ :

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- So here is the algorithm we have just described:

```

1: function MULT( $n, A, B$ )
2:   if  $|A| = |B| = 1$  then return  $AB$ 
3:   else
4:     obtain  $n + 1$  slices  $A_0, A_1, \dots, A_n$  and  $B_0, B_1, \dots, B_n$  such that

```

$$A = A_n 2^{n k} + A_{n-1} 2^{(n-1) k} + \dots + A_0$$

$$B = B_n 2^{n k} + B_{n-1} 2^{(n-1) k} + \dots + B_0$$

```

5:   form polynomials

```

$$P_A(x) = A_n x^n + A_{n-1} x^{(n-1)} + \dots + A_0$$

$$P_B(x) = B_n x^n + B_{n-1} x^{(n-1)} + \dots + B_0$$

```

6:   for  $m = -n$  to  $m = n$  do
7:     compute  $P_A(m)$  and  $P_B(m)$ ;
8:      $P_C(m) \leftarrow \text{MULT}(n, P_A(m)P_B(m))$ 
9:   end for
10:  compute  $C_0, C_1, \dots, C_{2n}$  via

```

$$\begin{pmatrix} C_0 \\ C_1 \\ \vdots \\ C_{2n} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -n & (-n)^2 & \dots & (-n)^{2n} \\ 1 & -(n-1) & -(n-1)^2 & \dots & -(n-1)^{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & n & n^2 & \dots & n^{2n} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} P_C(-n) \\ P_C(-(n-1)) \\ \vdots \\ P_C(n) \end{pmatrix}.$$

```

11:   form  $P_C(x) = C_{2n} x^{2n} + \dots + C_0$  and compute  $P_C(2^k)$ 
12:   return  $P_C(2^k) = A \cdot B$ 
13: end if
14: end function

```

# How fast is our algorithm?

- For each  $m$  such that  $-n \leq m \leq n$ , the value of  $P_A(m)$  is a sum of  $n+1$  values;
- Each value is a product of a  $k$ -bit number  $A_j$  with a constant  $m^j$ ,  $-n \leq m \leq n$ :

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- The number of bits of each  $P_A(m)$  for  $-n \leq m \leq n$  is at most

$$\begin{aligned} \log_2((n+1)2^k n^n) &= k + \log_2((n+1) \cdot n^n) \\ &= k + \log_2(n+1) + n \log_2 n \end{aligned}$$

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- **Each  $P_A(m)$  has  $k + s$  bits, where  $s$  is a constant independent of  $k$ .**



# Generalizing Karatsuba's algorithm

- Recall that

$$P_A(x) \cdot P_B(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{2n} \underbrace{\left( \sum_{i+m=j} A_i B_m \right)}_{C_j} x^j = \sum_{j=0}^{2n} C_j x^j, \quad \text{where} \quad C_j = \sum_{i+m=j} A_i B_m$$

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- Thus,  $C_j$  **has at most**  $2k + \log_2(n+1)$  **many bits**

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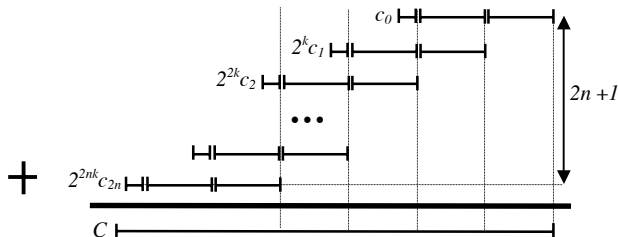
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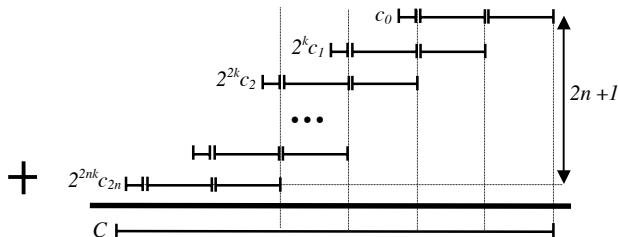
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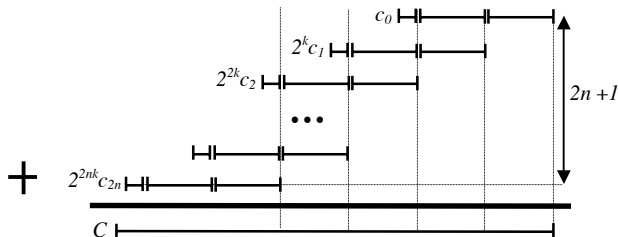


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- $n$  is constant: it is the number of pieces we slice input numbers;
- Thus, **evaluation of  $P_C(2^k)$  takes  $O(k)$  many steps.**

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- so we get:

$$T(N) = \Theta(N^{\log_b a}) = \Theta(N^{\log_{n+1}(2n+1)})$$

- Note that

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- Thus, we would have to slice the input numbers into  $2^{10} = 1024$  pieces!!

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- Consequently, slicing the input numbers in more than just a few slices results in a hopelessly slow algorithm, despite the fact that the asymptotic bounds improve as we increase the number of slices!
- The moral is: **In practice, asymptotic estimates are useless if the size of the constants hidden by the  $O$ -notation are not estimated and found to be reasonably small!!!**

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- After we study the FFT we will have a guest lecture by a Dolby engineer to demonstrate to you some cool applications of FFT.