### Integer multiplication in time $O(n \log n)$

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University of New South Wales Joint work with Joris van der Hoeven (École Polytechnique, Palaiseau)

### The basic problem

M(n) :=time needed to multiply n-bit integers.

Complexity model: any reasonable notion of counting "bit operations", e.g. multitape Turing machines or Boolean circuits.

### Long multiplication

691
0 1 1
389 x
- 0
6219
7
55280
2 0 0
207300
26'8799
260111



Long multiplication:  $M(n) = O(n^2)$ .

Goes back at least to ancient Egypt — probably much older.

### Kolmogorov's lower bound conjecture

### Conjecture (Kolmogorov, around 1956)

$$M(n) = \Theta(n^2).$$



In other words: long multiplication is asymptotically optimal.

### Progress in the 1960s

Luckily for us, Kolmogorov was wrong:

1962	Karatsuba	$n^{\log 3/\log 2} \ (\approx n^{1.58})$
1963	Toom	$n  2^{5\sqrt{\log n/\log 2}}$
1966	Schönhage	$n  2^{\sqrt{2\log n/\log 2}} (\log n)^{3/2}$
1969	Knuth	$n  2^{\sqrt{2 \log n / \log 2}} \log n$

Knuth's bound is  $O(n^{1+\epsilon})$  for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , but not  $O(n(\log n)^{C})$  for any C > 0.

### Schönhage and Strassen

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### Theorem (Schönhage-Strassen, 1971)

$$M(n) = O(n \log n \log \log n).$$

They also proposed their own conjecture:

Conjecture (Schönhage-Strassen, 1971)

$$M(n) = \Theta(n \log n).$$

### Fürer's algorithm

Nothing happened for 36 years!

Then:

### Theorem (Fürer, 2007)

$$M(n) = O(n \log n K^{\log^* n})$$

for some (unspecified) constant K > 1.

Here log\* is the iterated logarithm:

$$\log^* x = \begin{cases} 0 & x \le 1, \\ \log^* (\log x) + 1 & x > 1. \end{cases}$$

### Incremental progress over the last five years

		value of K
2014	H-vdH-Lecerf	8
2014	H-vdH-Lecerf	4 (†)
2015	Covanov–Thomé	4 (†)
2016	Н	6
2016	H-vdH	4 (†)
2017	H-vdH	$4\sqrt{2} \approx 5.66$
2018	H-vdH	4

(†) indicates conditional algorithms (depend on various conjectures about prime numbers of a special form)

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If the Schönhage–Strassen conjecture is correct, then the new algorithm is asymptotically optimal...

... but we shouldn't forget what happened to Kolmogorov's conjecture!



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"It passes the smell test."



### Media circus: personal highlights

(1) when my article in The Conversation was briefly the 2nd most popular story on ABC News

(but I didn't write the headline)

#### MOST POPULAR

#### Past Hour

'I have to reset my password': How the Lincoln Lewis catfish duped Optus

How my hack could change multiplication forever

'I will not set foot in the hospital for any reason' says mother of teen who died during labour

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(2) discussing logarithms (log-a-rhythms?) live on Triple J

### Plan for the rest of the talk

- 1. DFTs and FFTs
- 2. The first Schönhage-Strassen algorithm
- 3. Multidimensional DFTs and Nussbaumer's trick
- 4. The new algorithm: a first attempt
- 5. Gaussian resampling to the rescue
- 6. Final comments

## DFTs and FFTs

Let  $t \geqslant 1$ , and set  $\zeta := e^{2\pi i/t} \in \mathbb{C}$ .

The discrete Fourier transform (DFT) of a vector

$$u = (u_0, \ldots, u_{t-1}) \in \mathbb{C}^t$$

is the vector

$$\hat{u} = (\hat{u}_0, \dots, \hat{u}_{t-1}) \in \mathbb{C}^t$$

defined by

$$\hat{u}_k := \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} u_i \zeta^{jk}.$$

Example: take t = 4. Then

$$\hat{u}_0 = u_0 + u_1 + u_2 + u_3,$$

$$\hat{u}_1 = u_0 + iu_1 - u_2 - iu_3,$$

$$\hat{u}_2 = u_0 - u_1 + u_2 - u_3,$$

$$\hat{u}_3 = u_0 - iu_1 - u_2 + iu_3.$$

Equivalently, the DFT evaluates a polynomial at the *t*-th roots of unity. If  $f(x) = u_0 + u_1x + \cdots + u_{t-1}x^{t-1}$ , then

$$\hat{u}=(f(1),f(\zeta),\ldots,f(\zeta^{t-1})).$$

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$$\hat{u}=(f(1),f(\zeta),\ldots,f(\zeta^{t-1})).$$

You should think of f(x) as living in the quotient ring

$$\mathbb{C}[x]/(x^t-1)$$
.

The DFT explicitly evaluates the isomorphism

$$\mathbb{C}[x]/(x^t-1) \longrightarrow \bigoplus_{k=0}^{t-1} \mathbb{C}[x]/(x-\zeta^k) \cong \mathbb{C}^t.$$

### The fast Fourier transform (FFT)

Evaluating the DFT in the naive way requires  $O(t^2)$  operations (additions, multiplications) in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

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I don't have time to explain the FFT in detail. Here is a nice picture of a butterfly instead.

### The fast Fourier transform (FFT)

The FFT can be used to quickly multiply polynomials.

Given polynomials  $f, g \in \mathbb{C}[x]$  of degree < t:

- 1. Use FFT to evaluate f and g at the t-th roots of unity.
- 2. Multiply their values at these points.
- 3. Use inverse FFT to interpolate at the *t*-th roots of unity.

Output is the product f(x)g(x) modulo  $x^t - 1$ , i.e., a cyclic convolution of length t.

Total cost:  $O(t \log t)$  operations in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Schönhage and Strassen (1971) described two different integer multiplication algorithms.

The most famous is the second one, which achieved

$$M(n) = O(n \log n \log \log n).$$

The first one has slightly worse complexity. I will explain it in this section, as a warm-up for the new algorithm.

We are given as input two n-bit integers u and v.

STEP #1: write  $u = f(2^b)$  and  $v = g(2^b)$  where  $f, g \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ , coefficients have  $b \approx \log n$  bits.

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Running example (in decimal):

```
u = 3141592653... [omit 999980 digits]... 0577945815, v = 2718281828... [omit 999980 digits]... 4769422818.
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Running example (in decimal):

$$u = 3141592653...$$
 [omit 999980 digits]... 0577945815,  $v = 2718281828...$  [omit 999980 digits]... 4769422818.

Write them as  $u = f(10^5)$  and  $v = g(10^5)$  where

$$f(x) = 31415x^{199999} + 92653x^{199998} + \dots + 45815,$$
  
$$g(x) = 27182x^{199999} + 81828x^{199998} + \dots + 22818.$$

STEP #2: multiply f(x) and g(x) in  $\mathbb{C}[x]$  using FFTs over  $\mathbb{C}$ , and round the coefficients of the result to obtain product in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ . Running example: the product f(x)g(x) is

 $853922530x^{399998} + 5089120466x^{399997} + \dots + 1045406670.$ 

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### During FFT:

· need to maintain working precision of  $O(\log n)$  bits, and

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### During FFT:

- need to maintain working precision of  $O(\log n)$  bits, and
- coefficient arithmetic in C reduces to integer arithmetic, which is handled recursively!

STEP #3: substitute  $x = 2^b$  into f(x)g(x) to obtain uv. This amounts to adding coefficients with suitable overlap.

Running example: plug  $x = 10^5$  into

$$f(x)g(x) = 853922530x^{399998} + 5089120466x^{399997} + \cdots$$

to get

uv = 8539734222...[omit 1999980 digits]...7628606670.

Complexity analysis: we have reduced an n-bit multiplication problem to O(n) multiplications of size  $O(\log n)$ .

So we get

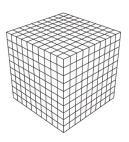
```
M(n) = O(n M(\log n))
= O(n \log n M(\log \log n))
= O(n \log n \log \log n M(\log \log \log n))
= \cdots
```

## Multidimensional DFTs and Nussbaumer's trick

Let  $t_1, \ldots, t_d \geqslant 1$  be integers.

I will write  $\mathbb{C}^{t_1,\dots,t_d}$  for the tensor product  $\mathbb{C}^{t_1}\otimes_{\mathbb{C}}\dots\otimes_{\mathbb{C}}\mathbb{C}^{t_d}$ .

An element of  $\mathbb{C}^{t_1,\dots,t_d}$  is basically a d-dimensional array of complex numbers of size  $t_1 \times \dots \times t_d$ .



Let  $u = (u_{j_1,\dots,j_d}) \in \mathbb{C}^{t_1,\dots,t_d}$  be such an array.

Set 
$$\zeta_{\ell} := e^{2\pi i/t_{\ell}} \in \mathbb{C}$$
 for  $\ell = 1, \dots, d$ .

The DFT of u is the array  $\hat{u} \in \mathbb{C}^{t_1,...,t_d}$  defined by

$$\hat{u}_{k_1,\dots,k_d} := \sum_{j_1=0}^{t_1-1} \cdots \sum_{j_d=0}^{t_d-1} u_{j_1,\dots,j_d} \zeta_1^{j_1k_1} \cdots \zeta_d^{j_dk_d}.$$

Multidimensional DFTs may be interpreted as evaluating *multivariate* polynomials at roots of unity.

lf

$$f(x_1,...,x_d) = \sum_{j_1,...,j_d} u_{j_1,...,j_d} x_1^{j_1} \cdots x_d^{j_d},$$

then

$$\hat{u}_{k_1,...,k_d} = f(\zeta_1^{k_1},...,\zeta_d^{k_d}).$$

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$$\hat{u}_{k_1,...,k_d} = f(\zeta_1^{k_1},...,\zeta_d^{k_d}).$$

The polynomial f naturally lives in

$$\mathbb{C}[x_1,\ldots,x_d]/(x_1^{t_1}-1,\ldots,x_d^{t_d}-1).$$

Multiplication in this ring corresponds to *d*-dimensional cyclic convolution.

The simplest way to evaluate a DFT of size  $t_1 \times \cdots \times t_d$  is to perform one-dimensional FFTs along each dimension.

For example, a DFT of size  $t_1 \times t_2 \times t_3$  can be decomposed into

- $t_2t_3$  transforms of length  $t_1$  (evaluate  $x_1$ ), plus
- $t_1t_3$  transforms of length  $t_2$  (evaluate  $x_2$ ), plus
- $t_1t_2$  transforms of length  $t_3$  (evaluate  $x_3$ ).

The total cost is

$$O(t_2t_3(t_1\log t_1) + t_1t_3(t_2\log t_2) + t_1t_2(t_3\log t_3)) = O(t_1t_2t_3\log(t_1t_2t_3)).$$

In general, a transform of size  $t_1 \times \cdots \times t_d$  can be performed in  $O(t \log t)$ 

operations in  $\mathbb{C}$ , where  $t := t_1 \cdots t_d$  is the total number of coefficients.

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Notice that this includes:

- $\cdot$   $O(t \log t)$  additions/subtractions, and also
- $O(t \log t)$  multiplications.

Nussbaumer made a crucial observation in the late 1970s (based on previous work of Schönhage and Strassen).

In the ring

$$\mathbb{C}[x_1,\ldots,x_d]/(x_1^{t_1}-1,\ldots,x_d^{t_d}-1),$$

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Nussbaumer showed that in some cases you can use the "fake" root of unity  $x_i$  to speed up the transforms with respect to the *other* variables.

The point is that it's much easier to multiply by a power of  $x_i$  than by a genuine complex  $t_i$ -th root of unity!

Important special case: suppose  $t_1, \ldots, t_d$  are all powers of two.

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The transforms in the other d-1 dimensions collapse entirely to a sequence of additions and subtractions in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

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## Altogether:

- still need to perform  $O(t \log t)$  additions and subtractions,
- but only  $O\left(\frac{t \log t}{d}\right)$  multiplications (assuming the  $t_i$  are all about the same size).

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By taking d large enough, we can make an arbitrarily large fraction of the work into additions/subtractions.

# The new algorithm: a first attempt

We start just like Schönhage–Strassen: reduce the integer multiplication problem to polynomial multiplication in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ .

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To take advantage of Nussbaumer's trick, we then need to transport the problem to a multidimensional setting without "wasting" too much space.

Choose a dimension parameter d and a bunch of distinct primes  $s_1, \ldots, s_d$  so that

- the  $s_i$  are all roughly the same size,
- $s_1 \cdots s_d$  is bigger (but not too much bigger) than the degree of the product polynomial,
- and each  $s_i$  is slightly smaller than a power of two  $t_i$ .

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Running example: the target degree was 400000.

Take d = 3 and  $(s_1, s_2, s_3) = (59, 61, 127)$ .

Notice that  $s_1s_2s_3 = 457073 > 400000$ .

The corresponding powers of two are  $(t_1, t_2, t_3) = (64, 64, 128)$ .

It suffice to compute the polynomial product in

$$\mathbb{Z}[x]/(x^{s_1\cdots s_d}-1),$$

i.e., we may treat the problem as a cyclic convolution of length  $s_1 \cdots s_d$ .

In our running example this is just

$$\mathbb{Z}[x]/(x^{457073}-1).$$

Agarwal and Cooley pointed out (1977) that the Chinese remainder theorem induces an isomorphism

$$\mathbb{Z}[x]/(x^{s_1\cdots s_d}-1)\cong \mathbb{Z}[x_1,\ldots,x_d]/(x_1^{s_1}-1,\ldots,x_d^{s_d}-1).$$

In other words, a 1-dimensional cyclic convolution of length  $s_1 \cdots s_d$  is equivalent (after suitable data rearrangement) to a d-dimensional cyclic convolution of dimension  $s_1 \times \cdots \times s_d$ .

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(Note: for this step it is crucial that the  $s_i$  are relatively prime! A cyclic convolution of length 32 is definitely *not* equivalent to a 2-dimensional cyclic convolution of size  $4 \times 8!$ )

To compute this *d*-dimensional convolution, we use the usual evaluate–multiply–interpolate strategy.

So we have reduced to the problem of computing a few d-dimensional DFTs of size  $s_1 \times \cdots \times s_d$ .

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At this point we really want to apply Nussbaumer's trick... but we can't, because the lengths  $s_i$  are not powers of two!

## Gaussian resampling to the rescue



Suppose that we want to compute a DFT of length s, where s is an "inconvenient" transform length (e.g., a prime number).

Our paper introduces a technique called *Gaussian resampling*, that reduces such a DFT to another DFT of length t > s.

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Crucially, Gaussian resampling does not introduce any constant factor overhead, unlike alternatives such as Bluestein's algorithm.

It may be viewed as a refinement of a special case of the Dutt–Rokhlin algorithm for non-equispaced FFTs (1993).

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STEP #1: compute a "resampled" vector  $v \in \mathbb{C}^t$ :

$$V_k := \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi s^2 (\frac{j}{s} - \frac{k}{t})^2} u_{j \text{ mod } s}, \qquad k = 0, 1, \dots, t-1.$$

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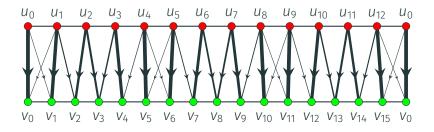
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Each  $v_k$  is a linear combination of the  $u_j$ 's. The weights follow a Gaussian law.

(Technical note: in the paper there is a parameter  $\alpha$  controlling the width of the Gaussian. I will ignore it in this talk.)

Example for s = 13, t = 16 (thicker lines means larger weights):



Due to the rapid Gaussian decay, each  $v_k$  depends mainly on the  $u_i$ 's that are "nearby" in the circle.

This allows us to approximate *v* from *u* very efficiently.

It turns out that the resampling map  $\mathbb{C}^s \to \mathbb{C}^t$  is injective (at least if the ratio t/s is not too close to 1).

In other words, the resampling process doesn't lose any information — it is possible to "deconvolve" v to recover u.

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Moreover, this deconvolution can be performed efficiently, again thanks to the rapid Gaussian decay.

STEP #2: compute DFT of  $v \in \mathbb{C}^t$  to obtain  $\hat{v} \in \mathbb{C}^t$ .

This is a DFT of "convenient" length *t*, so presumably more efficient than original DFT of "inconvenient" length *s*.

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## Gaussian resampling in one dimension

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This implies the following relation between  $\hat{v}$  and  $\hat{u}$ :

$$\hat{\mathbf{v}}_{-\mathsf{s} \mathsf{k} \bmod \mathsf{t}} = \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi \mathsf{t}^2 (\frac{\mathsf{k}}{\mathsf{t}} - \frac{j}{\mathsf{s}})^2} \hat{u}_{\mathsf{t} \mathsf{j} \bmod \mathsf{s}}.$$

In other words, after a suitable permutation of the coefficients,  $\hat{v}$  is simply a "resampled" version of  $\hat{u}!$ 

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$$\hat{\mathbf{V}}_{-\mathsf{sk} \bmod t} = \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi t^2 (\frac{k}{t} - \frac{j}{s})^2} \hat{\mathbf{U}}_{tj \bmod s}.$$

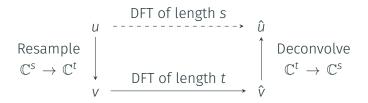
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STEP #3: "deconvolve"  $\hat{v}$  to obtain  $\hat{u}$ .

And we're finished!

## Gaussian resampling in one dimension

Expressed as a commutative diagram:



## Back to integer multiplication

Gaussian resampling also works for multidimensional transforms: we just apply the 1-dimensional version in each dimension separately.

So a transform of "inconvenient" size  $s_1 \times \cdots \times s_d$  can be reduced to a more convenient one of size  $t_1 \times \cdots \times t_d$ .

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Running example: we reduce each DFT of size  $59 \times 61 \times 127$  to a DFT of size  $64 \times 64 \times 128$ .

As the  $t_i$  are all powers of two, we can finally apply Nussbaumer's trick.

We get an  $O(n \log n)$  contribution coming mainly from the additions/subtractions in the d-dimensional Nussbaumer FFTs (also covers cost of Gaussian resampling, etc).

The 1-dimensional transforms in the "long" dimension are handled recursively, by converting them to integer multiplication problems of size roughly  $n^{1/d}$ .

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The factor 1728 is just a product of a bunch of small factors that show up at various stages of the analysis. Can probably be improved to 8 + o(1) with some work.

Now we take any fixed d > 1728 (for example d = 1729).

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Another point of view: the total cost of the FFTs decreases by the constant factor d/1728 at each recursion level, so overall we get

$$n\log n + \frac{1728}{d}n\log n + \left(\frac{1728}{d}\right)^2 n\log n + \cdots = O(n\log n).$$

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By contrast, in all previous integer multiplication algorithms, the total FFT cost *increases* (or stays constant) at each level.

## Final comments

#### For what *n* do we win?

The argument in our paper only kicks in for

$$n \geqslant 2^{1729^{12}} \approx 10^{214857091104455251940635045059417341952}$$

This can probably be improved (a lot).

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$$n \geqslant 2^{1729^{12}} \approx 10^{214857091104455251940635045059417341952}$$

This can probably be improved (a lot).

But actually this says nothing about the threshold for when our algorithm starts to beat existing algorithms.

The threshold could be much bigger than this, or much smaller.

We have no idea.

## Advertisement for another paper

Two main results in Polynomial multiplication over finite fields in time  $O(n \log n)$ :

- An  $O(n \log n)$  algorithm for multiplying polynomials of degree n in  $\mathbb{F}_q[x]$ .
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Unfortunately both algorithms depend on a conjecture about primes in arithmetic progressions (essentially that Linnik's theorem holds for an exponent *L* that is very close to 1).

#### Open question

Is there an unconditional  $O(n \log n)$  multiplication algorithm for  $\mathbb{F}_q[x]$ ?

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It has always been a hassle to write down the complexity of integer multiplication or algorithms based on integer multiplication by introducing soft-O notation, little-o exponents, epsilons greater than 0, or iterated logarithms.

From now on I can just write O(n log n) in my papers and be done with it!"

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# Thank you!