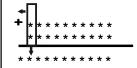
Great Theoretical Ideas In Computer Science				
Anupam Gupta		CS 15-251	Fall 2010	
Danny Sleator				
Lecture 22	Nov 4, 2010	Carnegie Mellor	n University	
Grade School Revisited: How To Multiply Two Numbers				

Time complexity of grade school addition



T(n) = amount of time grade school addition uses to add two n-bit numbers

T(n) is linear:

$$T(n) = c_1 n$$

Time complexity of grade school multiplication

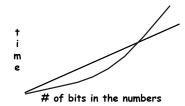


T(n) = The amount of time grade school multiplication uses to multiply two n-bit numbers

T(n) is quadratic:

$$T(n) = c_2 n^2$$

Grade School Addition: Linear time Grade School Multiplication: Quadratic time



No matter how dramatic the difference in the constants, the quadratic curve will eventually dominate the linear curve

<tangent on asymptotic notation>

Our Goal

We want to define "time" in a way that transcends implementation details and allows us to make assertions about grade school addition in a very general yet useful way.

Roadblock ???

A given algorithm will take different amounts of time on the same inputs depending on such factors as:

- Processor speed
- Instruction set
- Disk speed
- Brand of compiler

On any reasonable computer, adding 3 bits and writing down the two bit answer can be done in constant time

Pick any particular computer M and define c to be the time it takes to perform on that computer.

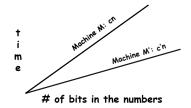
Total time to add two n-bit numbers using grade school addition:

cn [i.e., c time for each of n columns]

On another computer M', the time to perform \bigcap may be c'.

Total time to add two n-bit numbers using grade school addition:

c'n [c' time for each of n columns]



The fact that we get a line is invariant under changes of implementations. Different machines result in different slopes, but the time taken grows linearly as input size increases.

Thus we arrive at an implementation-independent insight:

Grade School Addition is a linear time algorithm

This process of abstracting away details and determining the rate of resource usage in terms of the problem size n is one of the fundamental ideas in computer science.

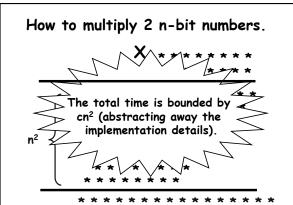
Time vs Input Size

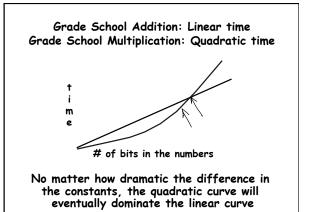
For any algorithm, define

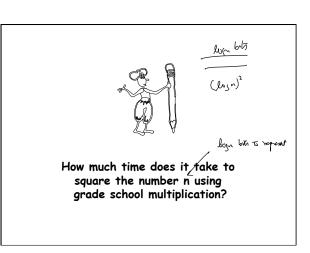
Input Size = # of bits to specify its inputs.

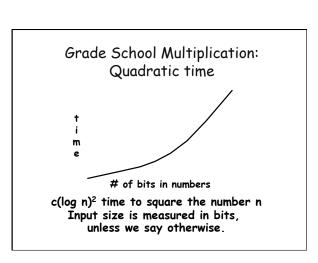
Define

TIME_n = the worst-case amount
of time used by the
algorithm
on inputs of size n
We often ask:
What is the growth rate of
Time_n?









Worst Case Time T(n) for algorithm A: T(n) = $Max_{[all\ permissible\ inputs\ X\ of\ size\ n]}$ Runtime(A,X) = Running time of algorithm A on input X.

Worst Case Time

If T(n) is not polynomial, the algorithm is not efficient: the run time scales too poorly with the input size.

This will be the yardstick with which we will measure "efficiency".

Multiplication is efficient, what about "reverse multiplication"?

Let's define FACTORING(N) to be any method to produce a non-trivial factor of N, or to assert that N is prime.

Factoring The Number N
By Trial Division

Trial division up to √N

for k = 2 to √N do
if k | N then
return "N has a non-trivial factor k"
return "N is prime"

 $c\sqrt{N}$ (logN)² time if division is c (logN)² time Is this efficient?

No! The input length n = log N. Hence we're using $c 2^{n/2} n^2$ time.

Can we do better?

We know of methods for FACTORING that are sub-exponential (about 2^{n1/3} time) but nothing efficient.

Notation to Discuss Growth Rates

For any monotonic function f from the positive integers to the positive integers, we say

"f = O(n)" or "f is O(n)"

If some constant times n eventually dominates f

[Formally: there exists a constant c such that for all sufficiently large n: $f(n) \le cn$

f = O(n) means that there is a line that can be drawn that stays above f from some point on



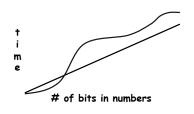
Other Useful Notation: Ω

For any monotonic function f from the positive integers to the positive integers, we say "f = $\Omega(n)$ " or "f is $\Omega(n)$ "

If f eventually dominates some constant times n

[Formally: there exists a constant c such that for all sufficiently large n: f(n) ≥ cn]

 $f = \Omega(n)$ means that there is a line that can be drawn that stays below f from some point on



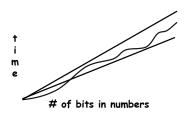
Yet More Useful Notation: O

For any monotonic function f from the positive integers to the positive integers, we say

"f =
$$\Theta(n)$$
" or "f is $\Theta(n)$ "

if:
$$f = O(n)$$
 and $f = \Omega(n)$

 $f = \Theta(n)$ means that f can be sandwiched between two lines from some point on.



Notation to Discuss Growth Rates

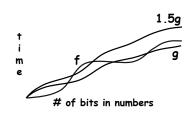
For any two monotonic functions f and g from the positive integers to the positive integers, we say

"f =
$$O(g)$$
" or "f is $O(g)$ "

If some constant times g eventually dominates f

[Formally: there exists a constant c such that for all sufficiently large n: $f(n) \le c g(n)$]

f = O(g) means that there is some constant c such that c g(n) stays above f(n) from some point on.



Other Useful Notation: Ω

For any two monotonic functions f and g from the positive integers to the positive integers, we say

"f =
$$\Omega(g)$$
" or "f is $\Omega(g)$ "

If f eventually dominates some constant times ${\bf g}$

[Formally: there exists a constant c such that for all sufficiently large n: $f(n) \ge c g(n)$]

Yet More Useful Notation: O

For any two monotonic functions f and g from the positive integers to the positive integers, we say

"f =
$$\Theta(g)$$
" or "f is $\Theta(g)$ "

If:
$$f = O(g)$$
 and $f = \Omega(g)$

</tangent on asymptotic notation>

Can we even break the quadratic time barrier?

In other words, can we do something very different than grade school multiplication?

Divide And Conquer

An approach to faster algorithms:

DIVIDE a problem into smaller subproblems CONQUER them recursively

GLUE the answers together so as to obtain the answer to the larger problem

Multiplication of 2 n-bit numbers

$$X = a 2^{n/2} + b$$
 $Y = c 2^{n/2} + d$
 $X \times Y = ac 2^n + (ad + bc) 2^{n/2} + bd$

Multiplication of 2 n-bit numbers

$$X = \begin{array}{c|c} a & b \\ \hline Y = \begin{array}{c|c} c & d \\ \hline & \frac{n/2 \text{ bits}}{} \end{array}$$

$$X \times Y = ac 2^{n} + (ad + bc) 2^{n/2} + bd$$

MULT(X,Y):

If |X| = |Y| = 1 then return XY
else break X into a;b and Y into c;d
return MULT(a,c) 2ⁿ + (MULT(a,d)
+ MULT(b,c)) 2^{n/2} + MULT(b,d)

Same thing for numbers in decimal

$$X = a \cdot 10^{n/2} + b$$
 $Y = c \cdot 10^{n/2} + d$

$$X \times Y = ac 10^n + (ad + bc) 10^{n/2} + bd$$

Multiplying (Divide & Conquer style)

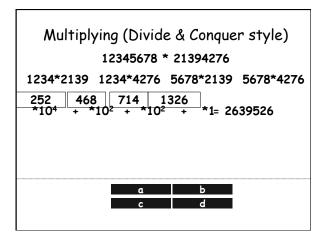
12345678 * 21394276

1234*2139 1234*4276 5678*2139 5678*4276

12*21 12*39 34*21 34*39

1*2 1*1 2*2 2*1
2 1 4 2

Hence: 12*21 = 2*10² + (1 + 4)10¹ + 2 = 252



Multiplying (Divide & Conquer style)

12345678 * 21394276

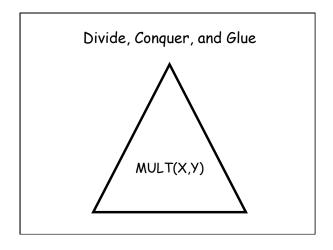
2639526 | 5276584 | 12145242 | 24279128

*108 + *104 + *104 +

= 264126842539128

Multiplying (Divide & Conquer style)
12345678 * 21394276

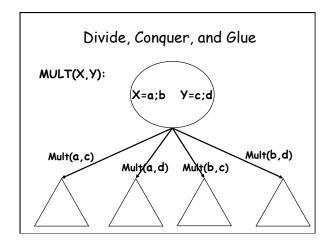
= 264126842539128

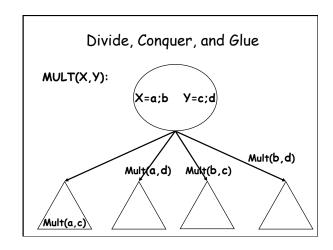


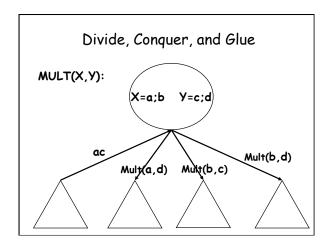
Divide, Conquer, and Glue

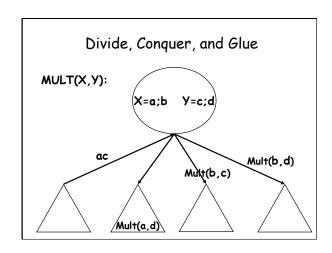
MULT(X,Y):

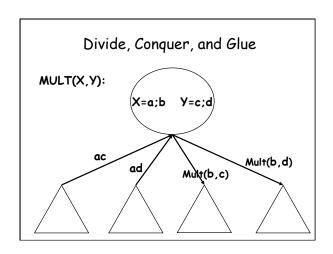
if |X| = |Y| = 1
then return XY,
else...

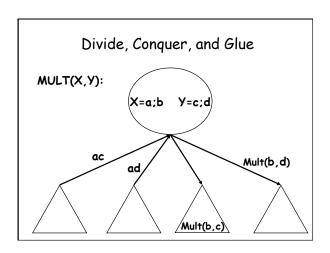


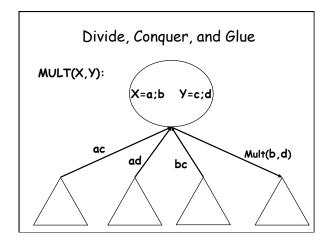


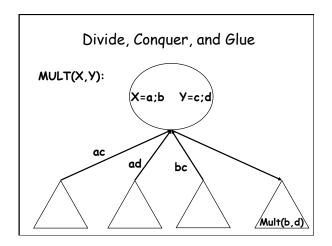


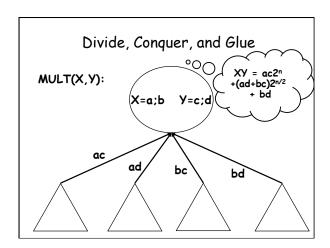


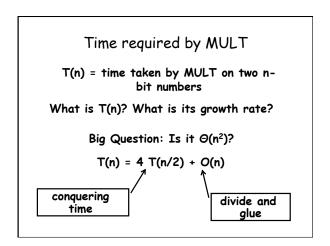


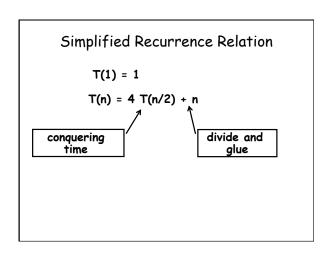


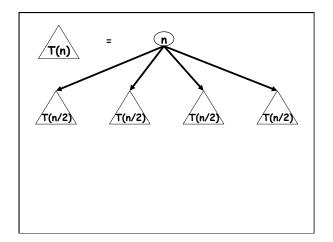


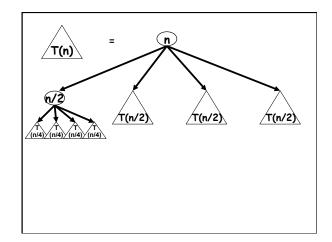


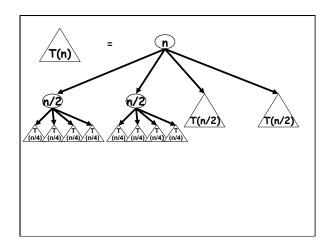


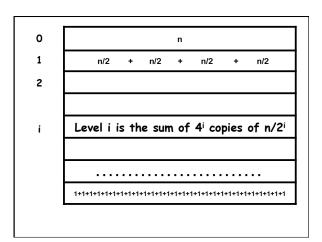


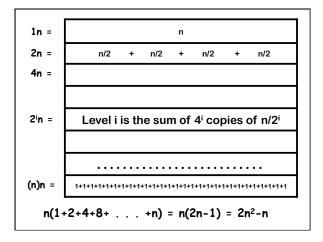












Divide and Conquer MULT: $\Theta(n^2)$ time Grade School Multiplication: $\Theta(n^2)$ time

Bummer!

MULT calls itself 4 times. Can you see a way to reduce the number of calls?

Gauss' Complex Puzzle

Remember how to multiply two complex numbers a + bi and c + di?

(a+bi)(c+di) = [ac - bd] + [ad + bc] i

Input: a,b,c,d Output: ac-bd, ad+bc

If multiplying two real numbers costs \$1 and adding them costs a penny, what is the cheapest way to obtain the output from the input?

Can you do better than \$4.03?

Gauss' \$3.05 Method

Input: a,b,c,d Output: ac-bd, ad+bc

 $x_1 = a + b$

 $X_3 = X_1 X_2$ = ac + ad + bc + bd

 $X_4 = ac$

 $X_5 = bd$ $X_6 = X_4 - X_5 = ac - bd$

 $C = X_7 = X_3 - X_4 - X_5 = bc + ad$

The Gauss optimization saves one multiplication out of four.

It requires 25% less work.

Karatsuba, Anatolii Alexeevich (1937-2008)



In 1962 Karatsuba had formulated the first mult. algorithm to break the n² barrier!

Gaussified MULT (Karatsuba 1962)

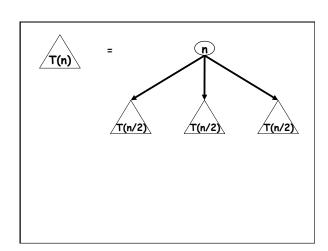
MULT(X,Y):

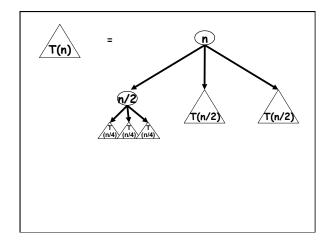
If |X| = |Y| = 1 then return XY else break X into a;b and Y into c;d

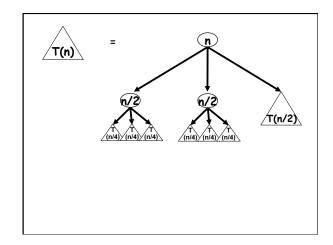
> e := MULT(a,c)f := MULT(b,d)

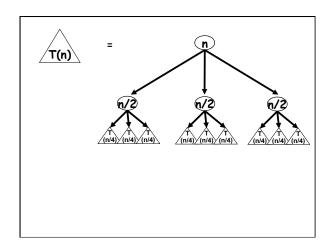
return $e^{2^n} + (MULT(a+b,c+d) - e - f)^{2^{n/2}} + f$

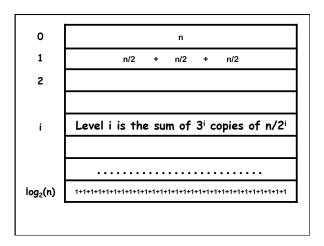
T(n) = 3 T(n/2) + n

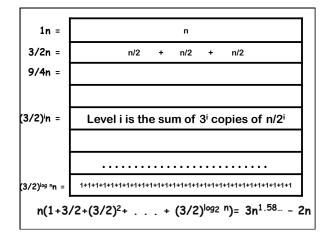








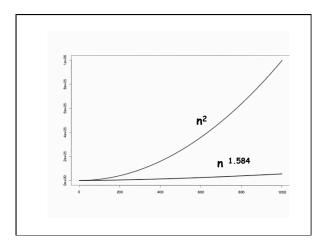




Dramatic Improvement for Large n

 $T(n) = 3n^{\log_2 3} - 2n$ = $\Theta(n^{\log_2 3})$ = $\Theta(n^{1.58...})$

A huge savings over $\Theta(n^2)$ when n gets large.



3-Way Multiplication

The key idea of the algorithm is to divide a large integer into 3 parts (rather than 2) of size approximately n/3 and then multiply those parts.

$$154517766 = 154 * 10^6 + 517 * 10^3 + 766$$

3-Way Multiplication

Let

$$X = x_2 10^{2p} + x_1 10^p + x_0$$

 $Y = y_2 10^{2p} + y_1 10^p + y_0$

Then

 $\begin{array}{l} X^{*}Y = 10^{4p} \; x_{2}y_{2} + 10^{3p} \; (x_{2}y_{1} + x_{1}y_{2}) + \\ 10^{2p} \; (x_{2}y_{0} + x_{1}y_{1} + x_{0}y_{2}) + 10^{p} \; (x_{1}y_{0} + x_{0}y_{1}) + x_{0}y_{0} \end{array}$

$$T(n) = 9 T(n/3) + \Theta(n)$$
$$T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$$

3-Way Multiplication

Consider the equation in general form p > 3

$$T(n) = p T(n/3) + O(n)$$

Its solution is given by

$$T(n) = O(n^{\log_3 p})$$

Thus, this is faster if p = 5 or less

$$T(n) = O(n^{\log_3 5}) = O(n^{1.46...})$$

Is it possible to reduce the number of multiplications to 5?

Here is the system of new variables:

5 Multiplications Suffice

Here are the values of Z_k which make this work:

$$Z_0 = x_0 y_0$$

 $Z_1 = (x_0+x_1+x_2) (y_0+y_1+y_2)$
 $Z_2 = (x_0+2 x_1+4 x_2) (y_0+2 y_1+4 y_2)$
 $Z_3 = (x_0-x_1+x_2) (y_0-y_1+y_2)$
 $Z_4 = (x_0-2 x_1+4 x_2) (y_0-2 y_1+4 y_2)$

We leave checking this to the reader. Note that multiplying and dividing by small constants (eg:2,4,12,24) are O(n) time and absorbed by the constant term in the recurrence.

Further Generalizations

It is possible to develop a faster algorithm by increasing the number of splits.

A 4-way splitting:

$$T(n) = 7 T(n/4) + O(n)$$

$$T(n) = O(n^{1.403...})$$

Further Generalizations

In similar fashion, the k-way split requires 2k-1 multiplications. (We do not show that here. See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Toom-Cook_multiplication)

A k-way splitting:

$$T(n) = (2k-1) T(n/k) + O(n)$$

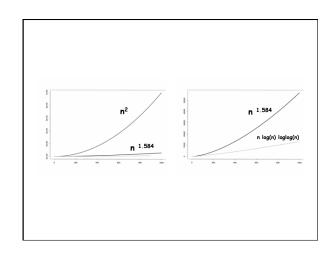
$$T(n) = O(n \log_k (2k-1))$$

$$n^{1.58}$$
, $n^{1.46}$, $n^{1.40}$, $n^{1.36}$, $n^{1.33}$, ...

Note, we will never get a linear performance

Multiplia	cation ,	Algorithms
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Marriphearion Algorithms		
Grade School	O(n²)	
Karatsuba	O(n ^{1.58})	
3-way split	O(n ^{1.46})	
K-way split	O(n log _k (2k-1))	
Fast Fourier Transform	O(n logn loglogn)	





- · Asymptotic notation
- · Divide and Conquer
- · Karatsuba Multiplication
- · Solving Recurrences