

# The changing $\times$ : Multiplication algorithms, new and old

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Addition is **easy**.

$$\begin{array}{r} 1 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 1 \\ 2 \quad 3 \quad 8 \quad 4 \quad 7 \quad 6 \quad 2 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 1 \\ + \quad 8 \quad 4 \quad 2 \quad 1 \quad 7 \quad 9 \quad 3 \quad 6 \quad 2 \quad 7 \\ \hline 1 \quad 0 \quad 8 \quad 0 \quad 6 \quad 5 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 0 \quad 7 \quad 8 \end{array}$$

Multiplication is **hard**.

$$\begin{array}{r} 2 \quad 3 \quad 8 \quad 4 \quad 7 \quad 6 \quad 2 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 1 \\ \times 8 \quad 4 \quad 2 \quad 1 \quad 7 \quad 9 \quad 3 \quad 6 \quad 2 \quad 7 \\ \hline 1 \quad 6 \quad 6 \quad 9 \quad 3 \quad 3 \quad 3 \quad 7 \quad 1 \quad 5 \quad 7 \\ 4 \quad 7 \quad 6 \quad 9 \quad 5 \quad 2 \quad 4 \quad 9 \quad 0 \quad 2 \\ 1 \quad 4 \quad 3 \quad 0 \quad 8 \quad 5 \quad 7 \quad 4 \quad 7 \quad 0 \quad 6 \\ 7 \quad 1 \quad 5 \quad 4 \quad 2 \quad 8 \quad 7 \quad 3 \quad 5 \quad 3 \\ 2 \quad 1 \quad 4 \quad 6 \quad 2 \quad 8 \quad 6 \quad 2 \quad 0 \quad 5 \quad 9 \\ 1 \quad 6 \quad 6 \quad 9 \quad 3 \quad 3 \quad 3 \quad 7 \quad 1 \quad 5 \quad 7 \\ 2 \quad 3 \quad 8 \quad 4 \quad 7 \quad 6 \quad 2 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 1 \\ 4 \quad 7 \quad 6 \quad 9 \quad 5 \quad 2 \quad 4 \quad 9 \quad 0 \quad 2 \\ 9 \quad 5 \quad 3 \quad 9 \quad 0 \quad 4 \quad 9 \quad 8 \quad 0 \quad 4 \\ 1 \quad 9 \quad 0 \quad 7 \quad 8 \quad 0 \quad 9 \quad 9 \quad 6 \quad 0 \quad 8 \\ \hline 2 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 8 \quad 3 \quad 9 \quad 7 \quad 7 \quad 2 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 7 \quad 4 \quad 0 \quad 6 \quad 9 \quad 9 \quad 7 \quad 7 \quad 7 \end{array}$$

## Question

What is the **fastest** way to multiply?

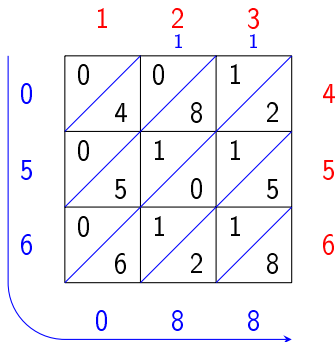
# The Standard Algorithm

$$\begin{array}{r} 123 \\ \times 456 \\ \hline 738 \\ 615 \\ 492 \\ \hline 56088 \end{array}$$

Requires:

- multiplying every digit in the first number by every digit in the second number;
- knowledge of a  $10 \times 10$  multiplication table.

The **lattice** or **grid method**:



$$123 \times 456 = 56088$$

The underlying process is the same as the standard algorithm (the same multiplications and additions are done but in a slightly different order).

The lattice method was used in various historical **computing devices**.

Napier's bones (1617)



Genaille-Lucas rulers (1891)

Index	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2	1	2	4	7	10	14	18	23	28	34
3	1	3	6	10	15	21	28	36	44	53
4	1	4	9	16	25	36	48	61	76	92
5	1	5	12	21	32	45	60	77	96	117
6	1	6	15	26	39	54	72	92	114	139
7	1	7	18	30	44	61	81	103	128	157
8	1	8	21	34	50	69	91	115	143	175
9	1	9	24	38	55	76	100	128	161	199

# Peasant multiplication

What if you don't have a multiplication table memorized?

Enter **Russian peasant multiplication**, based on doubling and halving.

$$\begin{array}{r} 41 \times 23 \\ \text{odd} \begin{array}{l} \rightarrow \\ \rightarrow \\ \rightarrow \end{array} \begin{array}{r} \cancel{20} \quad 46 \\ \cancel{10} \quad 92 \\ \cancel{2} \quad 368 \\ 1 \quad 736 \\ \hline 943 \end{array} \end{array}$$

Requires:

- Knowledge of addition and halving;
- More steps than the standard algorithm, but the steps are simpler.

A similar method involving only doubling was used by the ancient Egyptians.

$$41 \times 23 = (32 + 8 + 1) \times 23$$

1	23
<del>2</del>	<del>46</del>
<del>4</del>	<del>92</del>
8	184
<del>16</del>	<del>368</del>
32	736
<hr/>	
41	943

Actually, this is essentially the standard algorithm in binary!

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \phantom{\times} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{0}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \\
 \times \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{0}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{0}} \phantom{\phantom{0}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \\
 \hline
 \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{0}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \\
 \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{0}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \\
 \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{0}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \\
 \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{0}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \\
 \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{0}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \phantom{\phantom{1}} \\
 \hline
 1 \phantom{0} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \\
 1 \phantom{0} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \phantom{1} \\
 \hline
 1 \phantom{0} 1 \phantom{1} 0 \phantom{1} 0 \phantom{1} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \phantom{1} \\
 \phantom{1} \phantom{0} 1 \phantom{1} 0 \phantom{1} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \phantom{1} \\
 \phantom{1} \phantom{0} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \\
 \phantom{1} \phantom{0} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \\
 \phantom{1} \phantom{0} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \\
 \phantom{1} \phantom{0} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \\
 \phantom{1} \phantom{0} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \\
 \phantom{1} \phantom{0} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \\
 \hline
 1 \phantom{0} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \phantom{1} 1 \phantom{1} 1
 \end{array}$$



# Table-based methods

Instead of a multiplication table, some methods used other tables.

1	0	6	9	11	30	16	64		156	6084
2	1	7	12	12	36	17	72		157	6162
3	2	8	16	13	42	18	81	...	158	6241
4	4	9	20	14	49	19	90		159	6320
5	6	10	25	15	56	20	100		160	6400

To multiply  $83 \times 74$ :

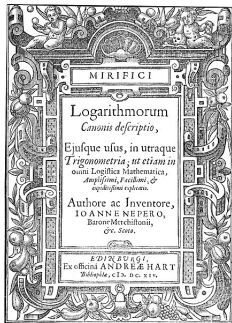
$$83 + 74 = 157 \rightarrow 6162$$

$$83 - 74 = 9 \rightarrow 20$$

$$\underline{\quad\quad}$$
$$6142$$



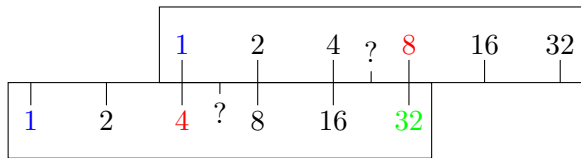
A different table-based method was introduced by John Napier in 1614.



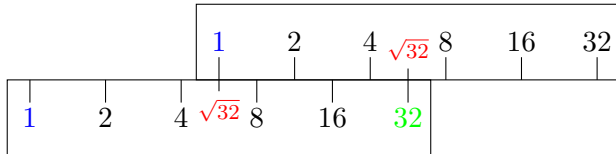
It was turned into a computing device by William Oughtred in 1622.



A simple **slide rule**:



What number should go here?



$$\sqrt{32} = 2^{2.5} \approx 5.657$$

In general, the number located  $d$  units from the left is  $2^d$ .

If  $x = 2^d$ , then  $d = \log_2 x$  is the **(base-2) logarithm** of  $x$ .

With a **table of logarithms**, you can do multiplication with just addition and a few lookups.

$x$	$\log_{10} x$				
1.0	.00000				
1.1	.04139				
1.2	.07918				
1.3	<b>.11394</b>				
1.4	<b>.14613</b>	$13 = 1.3 \times 10^1$	$\rightarrow$	<b>1.11394</b>	
1.5	.17609	$\times$	$14 = 1.4 \times 10^1$	$\rightarrow$	$+$
1.6	.20412	$\approx 180 = 1.8 \times 10^2$			
1.7	.23045	$\leftarrow$			
1.8	<b>.25527</b>				
1.9	.27875				
2.0	.30103				

It can be a bit imprecise...

## Question

What is the **fastest** way to multiply?

## Question

How do we judge the speed of an algorithm?

A: Count the number of operations required with  $n$  digit numbers as inputs.

For example, **adding** two  $n$  digit numbers requires  $n$  one-digit additions and potentially  $n$  carries, for a total of  $2n$  operations.

What about multiplication?

For the **standard method**:

- $n^2$  one-digit multiplications,
- $\approx n^2$  2-digit additions (equivalent to  $\approx 2n^2$  one-digit additions)

for a total of about  $3n^2$  operations.

For **peasant multiplication**:

- There are  $\approx 3.3n$  rows.
- For each row, we may have to do an  $\approx n$ -digit halving, doubling, and addition ( $\approx 3n$  operations),

for a total of about  $10n^2$  operations.

We say that both algorithms run in  $O(n^2)$  operations.

# Big O notation

$O$  is 'Big O' notation meaning roughly, "on the order of" or "up to a constant factor." Thus  $O(n)$  could mean  $2n$  or  $999n + 7$ .

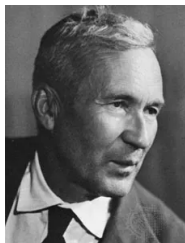
Why don't we care about **constant factors**?

For **really really big  $n$** , the constant is not important: any  $O(n)$  algorithm will be faster than any  $O(n^2)$  algorithm for  $n \gg 0$ , even if it is slower for small  $n$  due to more "overhead."

For instance,  $999n < n^2$  when  $n > 999$ .



# Kolmogorov's conjecture



In 1960, Russian mathematician **Andrey Kolmogorov** made the following conjecture at a conference.

## Conjecture

*Any algorithm to multiply two  $n$ -digit numbers requires **at least**  $O(n^2)$  steps.*

This conjecture intrigued 23-year-old student **Anatoly Karatsuba**.



Within a week, Karatsuba had **disproved** the conjecture by finding a way to multiply two  $n$ -digit numbers using  $O(n^{1.58})$  operations!

Kolmogorov was so pleased by the result that he wrote it up and had it published on Karatsuba's behalf.

# Karatsuba multiplication

Consider multiplying two-digit numbers using the standard method (before performing carries).

$$\begin{array}{r} \times \qquad \qquad a \qquad \qquad b \\ \qquad \qquad \qquad c \qquad \qquad d \\ \hline \qquad \qquad \qquad a \times d \qquad b \times d \\ a \times c \qquad b \times c \\ \hline a \times c \quad (a \times d) + (b \times c) \quad b \times d \end{array}$$

To multiply  $ab \times cd$ , we need to find:

- $X = a \times c$
- $Y = b \times d$
- $Z = (a \times d) + (b \times c)$

It seems like we need to do 4 multiplications.

But there is **another way**: note that

$$\begin{aligned}(a + b) \times (c + d) &= (a \times c) + (a \times d) + (b \times c) + (b \times d) \\ &= X + Z + Y\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$Z = (a + b) \times (c + d) - X - Y.$$

Then we can find  $X$ ,  $Y$ , and  $Z$  using only **3 multiplications instead of 4** at the expense of more additions/subtractions.

$$\begin{array}{r} \phantom{\times} \phantom{00} 53 \\ \times \phantom{00} 27 \\ \hline \phantom{00} 21 \\ \phantom{0} 41 \\ 10 \\ \hline 1431 \end{array}$$

$$X = 5 \times 2 = 10$$

$$Y = 3 \times 7 = 21$$

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= (5 + 3) \times (2 + 7) - X - Y \\ &= 8 \times 9 - 10 - 21 = 41 \end{aligned}$$

We traded a multiplication for a bunch of additions. **Is this really faster?**

Not for two-digit numbers...

But we can also use this idea for numbers with **more digits!**

$$\begin{array}{r} \times \quad 3825 \quad 4926 \\ \hline 2937 \quad 6328 \\ \hline 3117 \quad 1728 \\ \quad \text{????} \quad \text{????} \\ 1123 \quad 4025 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

(standard)

$$Z = 3825 \times 6328 + 4926 \times 2937$$

(Karatsuba)

$$Z = (3825 + 4926) \times (2937 + 6328) \\ - 31171728 - 11234025$$

We're replacing a **hard** multiplication with **easy** additions/subtractions, which are **much faster!**

We can **divide and conquer** to get more savings by using Karatsuba's algorithm for the smaller multiplications.

To multiply two 16-digit numbers, Karatsuba would do:

- 1 16-digit multiplication  $\rightarrow$  3 8-digit multiplications
- 3 8-digit multiplications  $\rightarrow$  9 4-digit multiplications
- 9 4-digit multiplications  $\rightarrow$  27 2-digit multiplications
- 27 2-digit multiplications  $\rightarrow$  **81** 1-digit multiplications

Compare with  $16^2 = \mathbf{256}$  1-digit multiplications for the standard algorithm.

For 1000-digit numbers, the standard algorithm needs **1000000** 1-digit multiplications while Karatsuba needs only **60000**.

In general, Karatsuba's algorithm uses only

$$O(n^{\log_2 3}) \approx O(n^{1.58})$$

operations.

Can we do better?

- Karatsuba (1960)  $O(n^{1.58})$ 
  - Can multiply 2-digit numbers with 3 multiplications instead of 4
- Toom-Cook (1963)  $O(n^{1.46})$ 
  - Can multiply 3-digit numbers with 5 multiplications instead of 9
  - Can make 1.46 close to 1 with more pieces but a lot of overhead
- Schönhage and Strassen (1971)  $O(n \cdot \log n \cdot \log \log n)$ 
  - Based on Fast Fourier Transform
  - Faster for numbers  $> 10000$  digits
- Fürer (2007)  $O(n \cdot \log n \cdot 2^{O(\log^* n)})$ 
  - Slower for practical applications due to large overhead
- Harvey and van der Hoeven (2021)  $O(n \cdot \log n)$

## Open question

Is there an algorithm for multiplying  $n$ -digit numbers that is faster than  $O(n \cdot \log n)$ ?