# Lecture 9 Multiplication

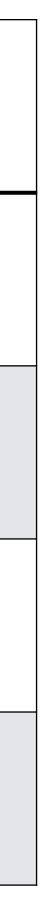
Chinmay Nirkhe | CSE 421 Spring 2025



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# The next couple of weeks

Sunday	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
	4/21 Lecture 10	Sets 4 & 4 ¾ released	4/23 Lecture 11 Set 3 due		4/25 Lecture 12	
	4/28 Lecture 13		4/30 Lecture 14 Set 4 due	Midterm Q&A 5:30-7:30pm	5/2 Lecture 15	
	5/5 <b>Midterm</b>	Set 5 released	5/7 Lecture 16 Set 4 ¾ due		5/9 Lecture 17	
	5/12 Lecture 18		5/14 Lecture 19 Set 5 due		5/16 Lecture 20	



# Problem set 4 <sup>3</sup>/<sub>4</sub>

- A set with one 10 point question
  - The problem is about dynamic programming
  - Dynamic programming is covered on the midterm
- It is due on Wednesday May 7th 11:59pm
  - But, I'm posting solutions on Saturday May 3rd (12:01am) before its due
  - You can look at the solution <u>after</u> you upload your solution to Gradescope
  - Not doing so is academic dishonesty. I'm trusting each of you here

# Previously in CSE 421...

# Principles of divide and conquer

- Identity a division of the problem into a self-similar parts of size n/b
- Recursively solve each subpart of the problem
- Stitch the solutions from each subpart together

Runtime is defined by the following recursively defined formula:

$$T(n) = a \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n) \text{ and } T( \prec n)$$

( < b ) = O(1)

### Analysis divide and conquer runtimes The master theorem

• For solving recursive equations of the form

$$T(n) = a \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + O(n^k)$$
 a

- Different cases based on how f(n), a, and b compare:
  - If  $a < b^k$ , then  $T(n) = O(n^k)$
  - If  $a = b^k$ , then  $T(n) = O(n^k \log n)$
  - If  $a > b^k$ , then  $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$

and T(< b) = O(1)

# Today: Matrix, integer, and polynomial multiplication

## Matrix multiplication

- Input: Two matrices  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$
- **Output:** The matrix  $AB \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

 $= \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} & C_{13} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} & C_{23} \\ C_{31} & C_{32} & C_{33} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{where} \qquad C_{ij} = \sum_{k} a_{ik} b_{kj} .$ 

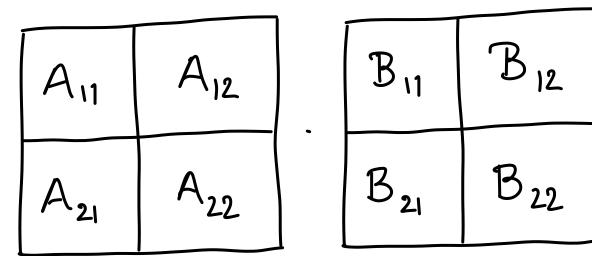
# **Trivial algorithm for matrix multiplication**

- Algorithm:
  - Initialize  $n \times n$  array C as zeroes
  - For  $i \in [n], j \in [n], k \in [n], \quad C_{ii} \leftarrow C_{ii} + A_{ik} \cdot B_{ki}$
  - Return C.

- **Runtime:**  $n^3$  multiplications +  $n^3$  additions
- Can we improve this with divide and conquer?

# Matrix multiplication naturally decomposes

Matrix multiplication of matrices



- Divide and conquer:
  - Decompose into 8 matrix multiplications on  $n/2 \times n/2$  matrices

$$T(n) = 8T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + 4\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)^2 \implies T(n) = O(n^{\log_2 8}) = O(n^3) \begin{array}{l} a = 8 \\ b = 2 \\ k = 2 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{l} a > b^{k} \\ b = 2 \\ k = 2 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{l} a > b^{k} \\ b = 2 \\ k = 2 \end{array}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}B_{11} + A_{12}B_{21} & A_{11}B_{12} + A_{12}B_{22} \\ A_{21}B_{11} + A_{22}B_{21} & A_{21}B_{12} + A_{22}B_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

Decompose into 8 matrix multiplications of  $n/2 \times n/2$  matrices and 4 matrix additions of



# Strassen's divide and conquer (1968)

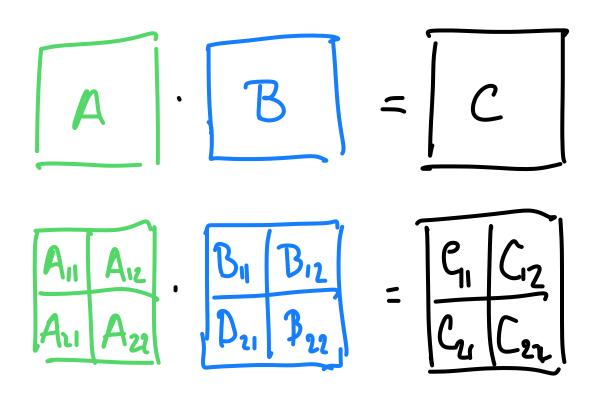
- Can we decrease the number of mini-multiplications at the cost of increasing the number of mini-additions?
- If we were to somehow decrease to 7 multiplications but 18 additions ...

• 
$$T(n) = 7T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \frac{18}{4}n^2 \implies T(n) = \frac{18}{4} \cdot O(n^{\log_2 7}) = O(n^{2.8074})$$
  
• But how do we achieve this decrease?  
b = 2 log a is smaller  
k = 2

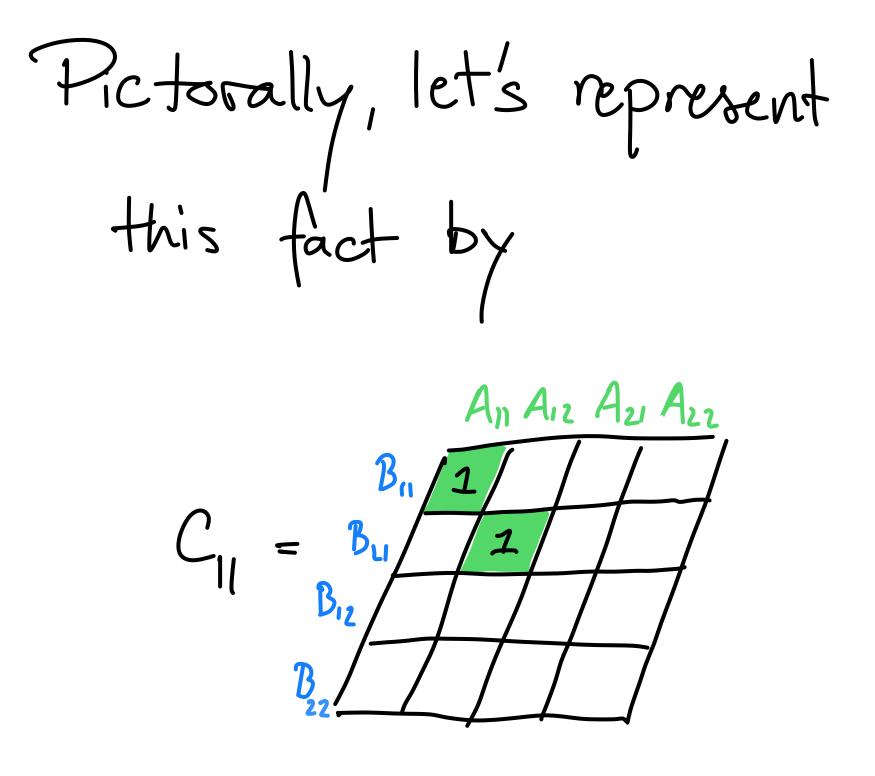
- Find repeated terms.



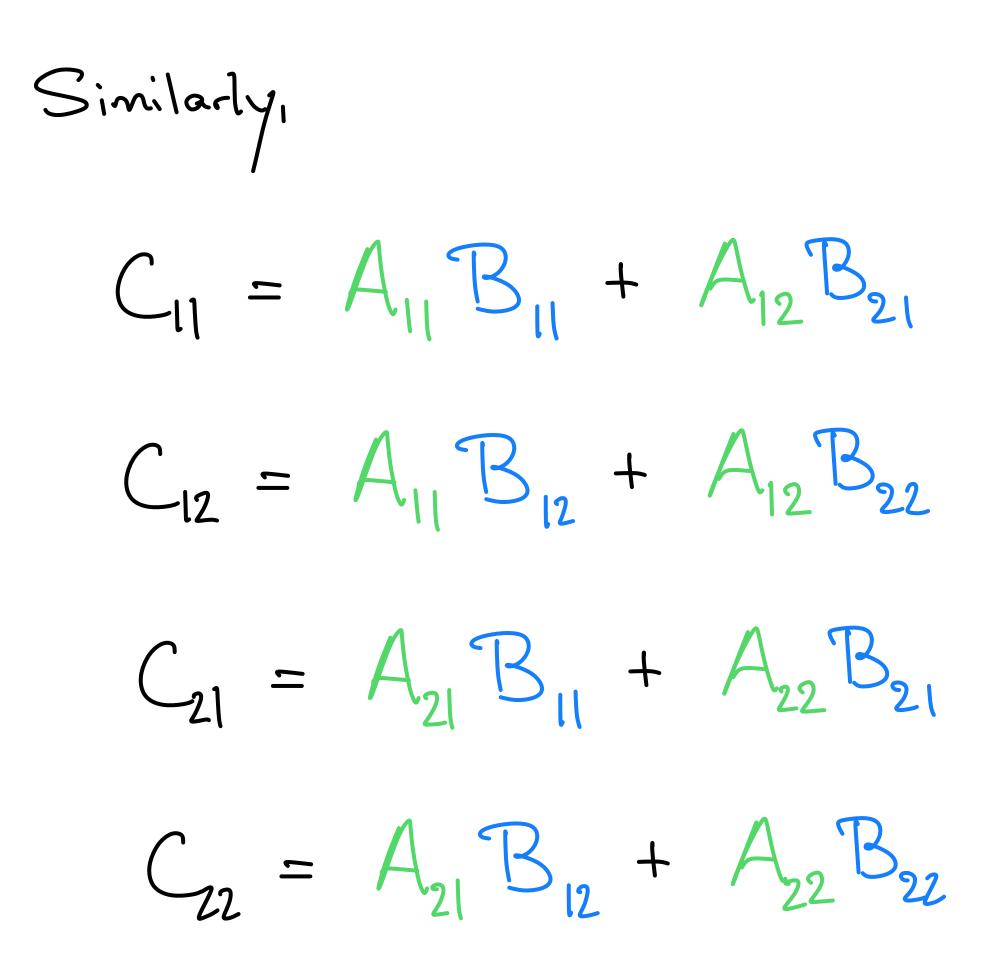
We know that if

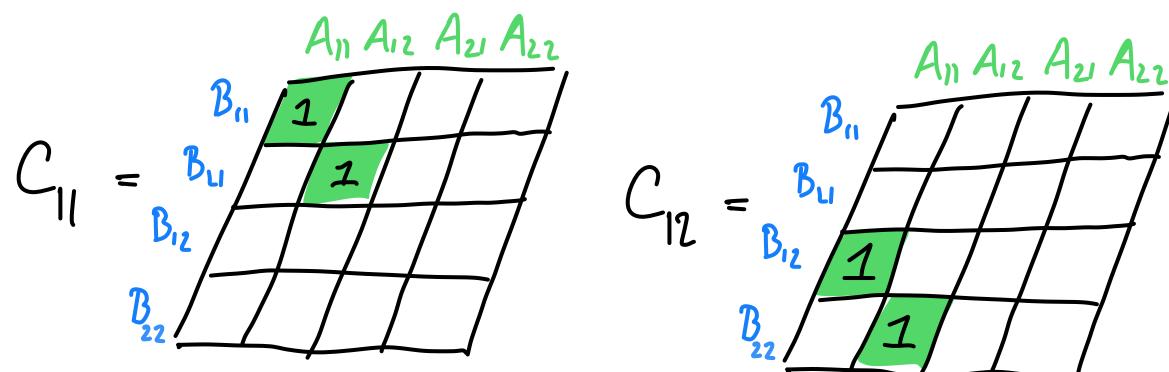


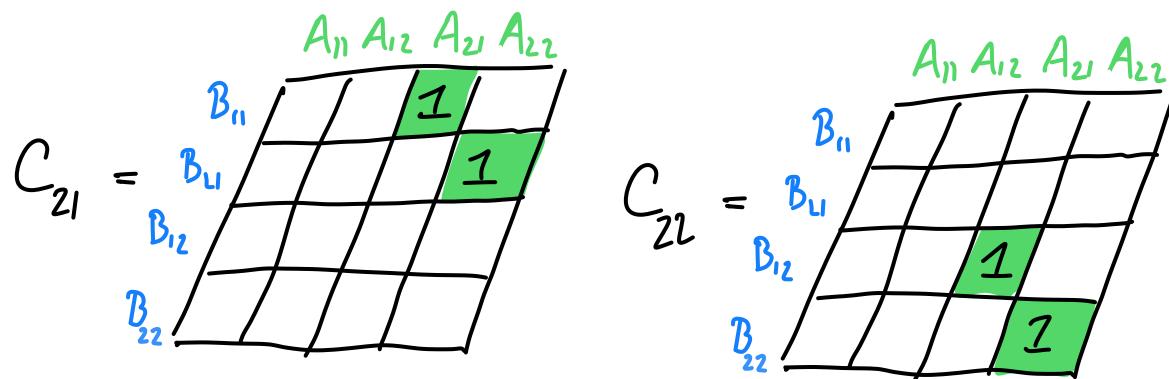
 $\gamma = A_{11}B_{11} + A_{12}B_{21}$ Hnen









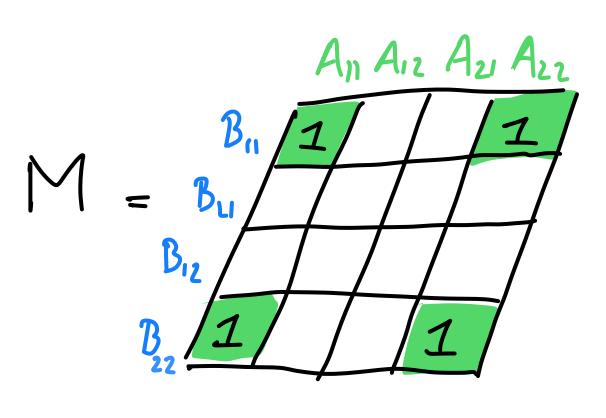






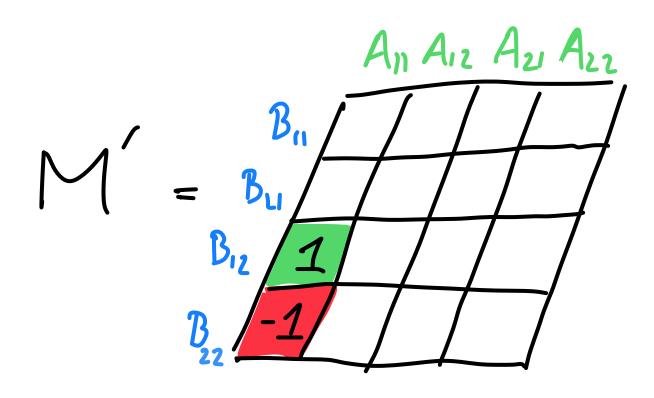
Now, what happens if we want to calculate.

 $M = (A_{11} + A_{22})(B_{11} + B_{22})$  $= A_{11}B_{11} + A_{11}B_{22} + A_{22}B_{11} + A_{22}B_{22}$ 



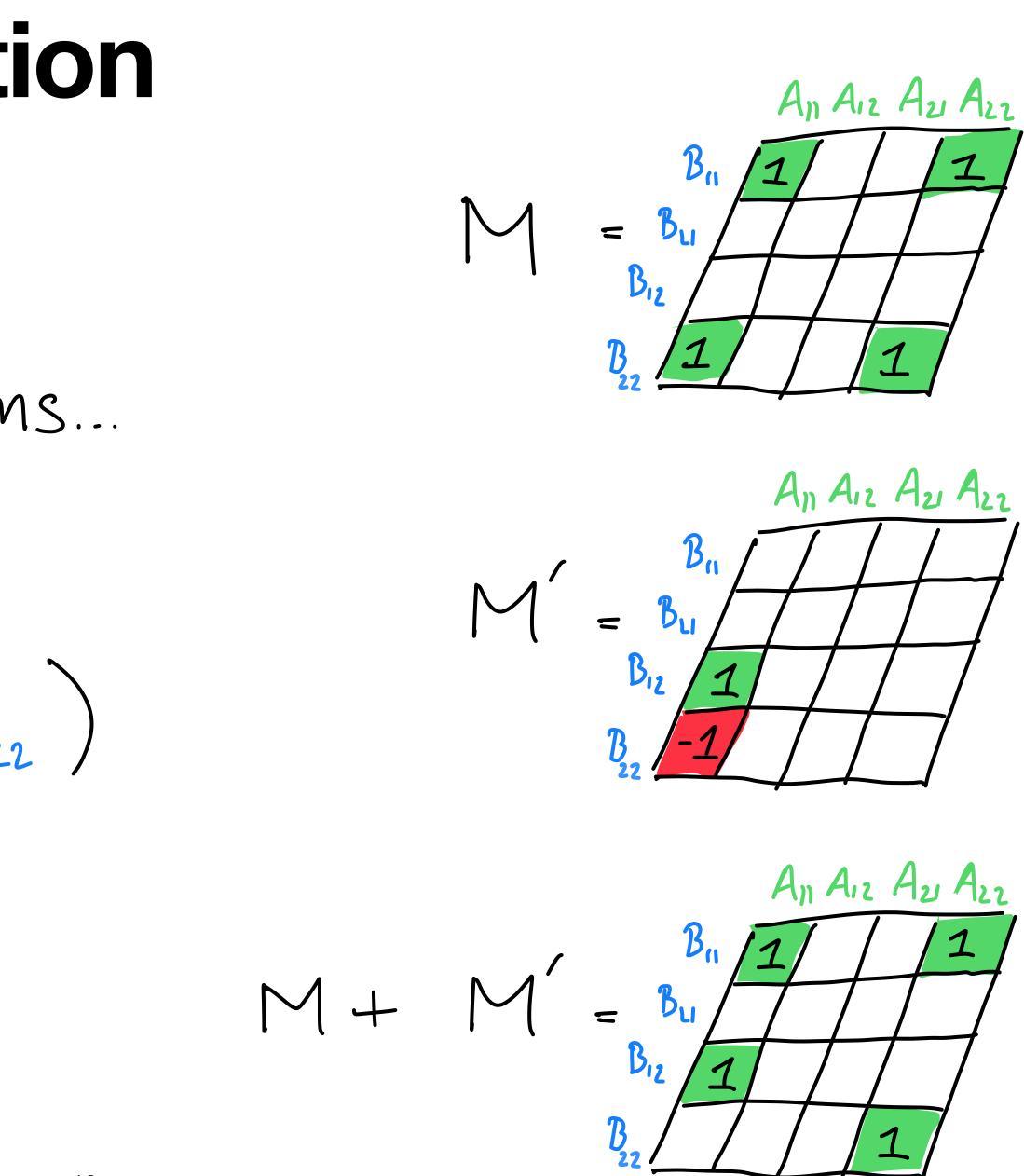
Another example...

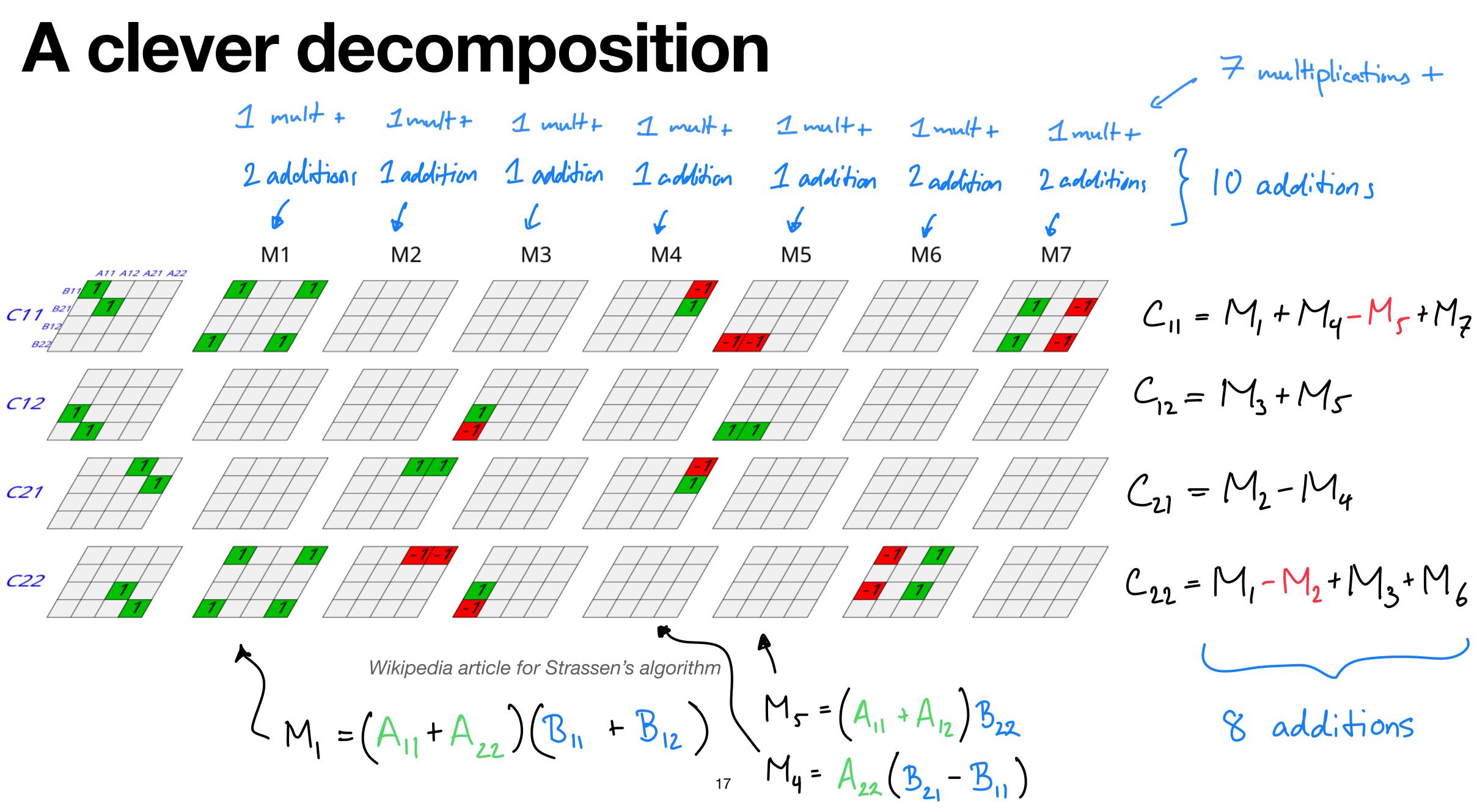
 $M' = A_{11}(B_{12} - B_{22})$  $= A_{11}B_{12} - A_{11}B_{12}$ 



# We can add these diagrams...

# $M = (A_{11} + A_{22})(B_{11} + B_{22})$ $M' = A_{11}(B_{12} - B_{22})$





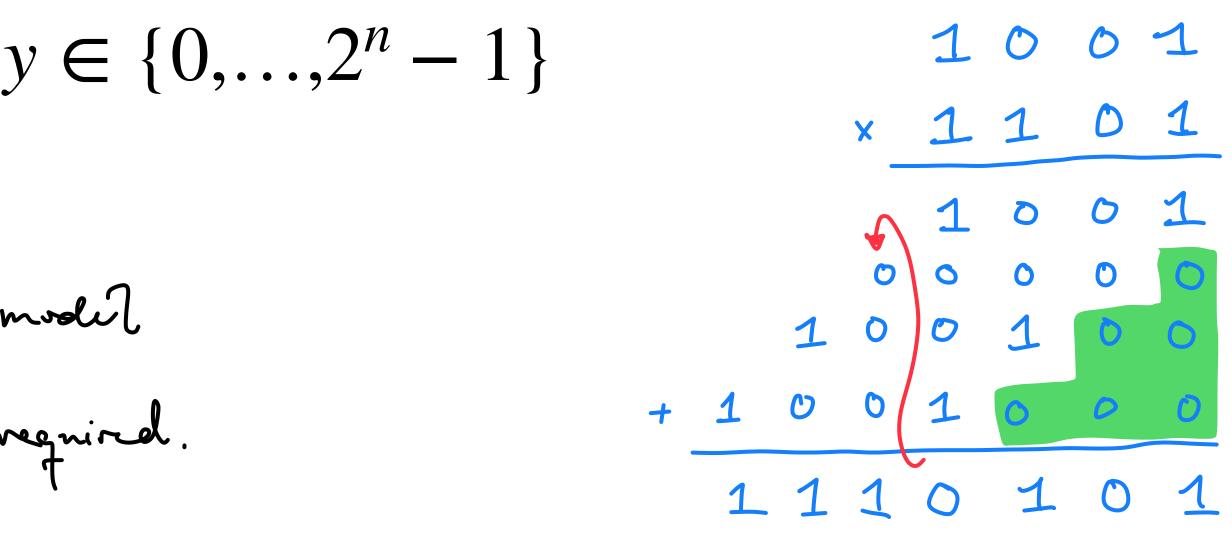
# Strassen's algorithm details

- Best for matrices of size  $2^m \times 2^m$ . Pad the matrix with zeroes until it is.
- Strassen's has 18 mini-additions. Only beneficial if  $n \ge 32$ .
  - For smaller matrices, use  $O(n^3)$  algorithm.
  - Still a base case for the recursive definition. Only adjust  $O(\cdot)$  constants.
- Is there an even cleverer decomposition into fewer mini-multiplications?
  - Not for dividing into  $n/2 \times n/2$  mini-matrices
  - Other divisions plus clever tricks have gotten algorithms down to  $O(n^{2.371339})$ ) [May 2024]
  - Major open question:  $O(n^{2+\epsilon})$  time algorithm possible for all  $\epsilon > 0$ .

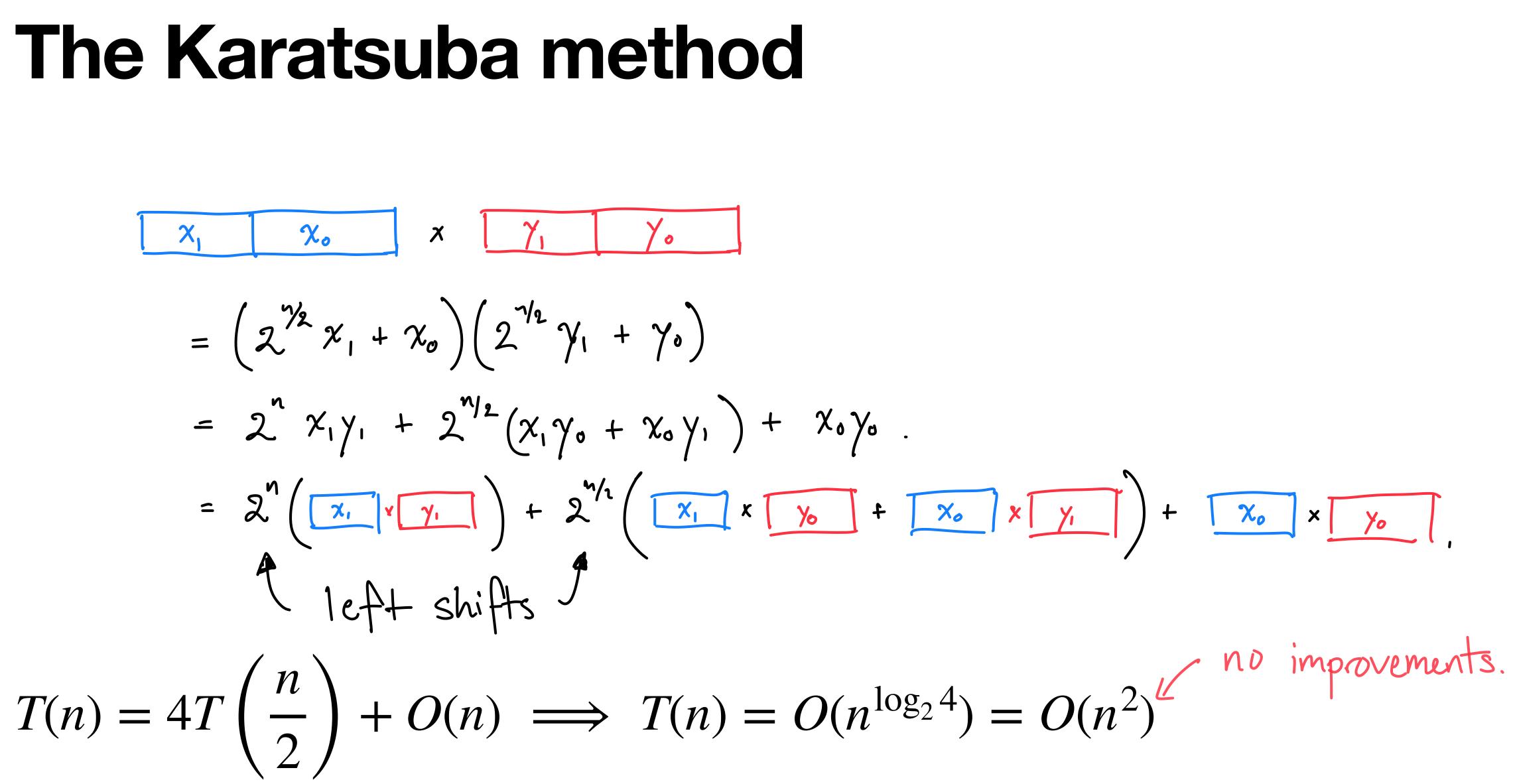
# Integer multiplication

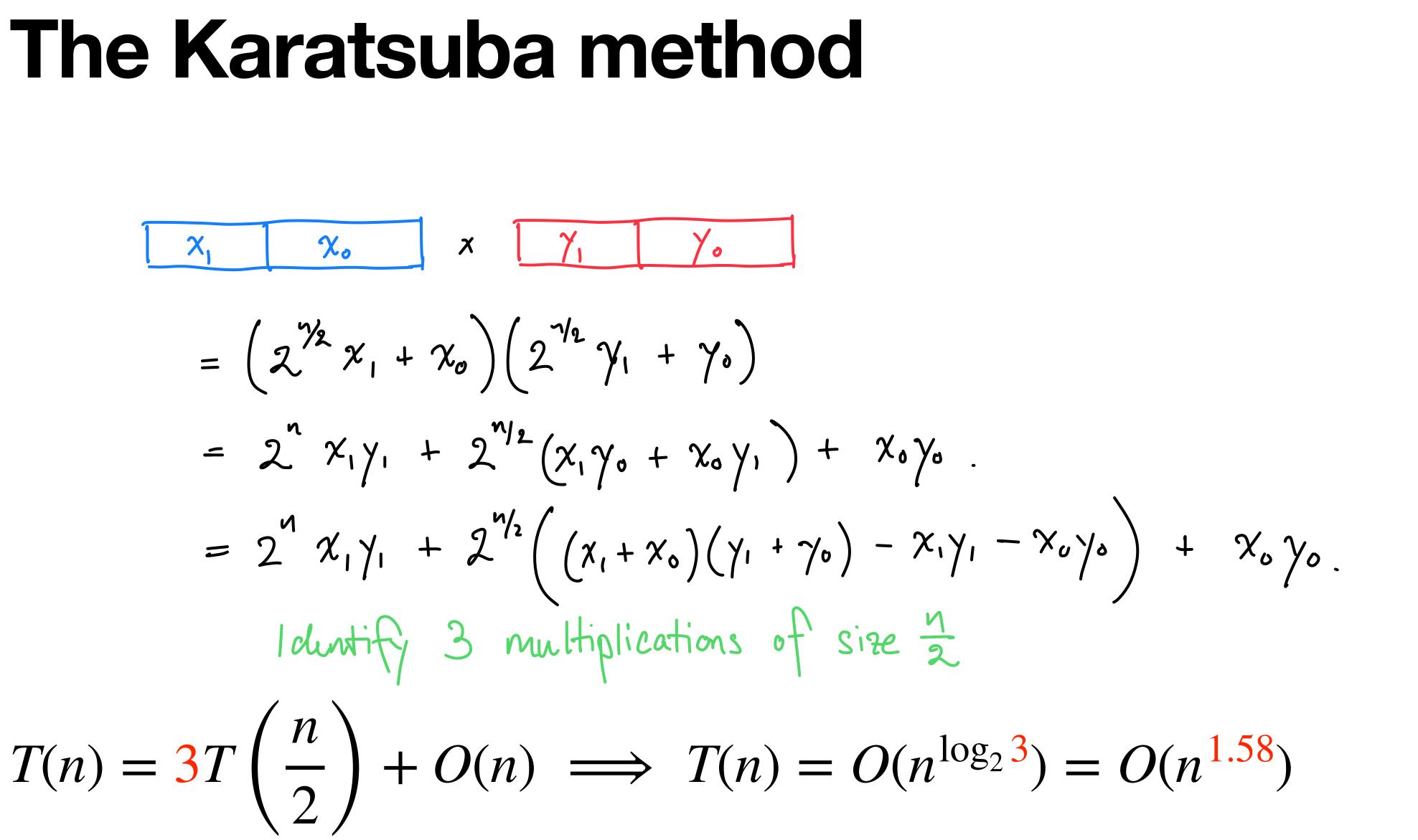
- Input: Two *n*-bit binary numbers  $x, y \in \{0, \dots, 2^n 1\}$
- Output: A 2*n*-bit binary number
- Complexity is not measured in RAM model Instead by number of binary operations required.

• Gradeschool multiplication algorithm takes  $O(n^2)$  time









# Improving integer multiplication

- Fast integer multiplication is used in high-precision arithmetic
- Storing a number to *n*-bits of precision is equal to  $2^{-n}$  precision
- Karatsuba's algorithm is not the fastest
  - Fastest is  $O(n \log n)$  based on the fast Fourier transform (next!)
  - These are galactic algorithms (not useful in practice)

# **Polynomial multiplication**

- Input: polynomials  $p, q \in \mathbb{C}[x]$  of deg < n expressed by their coefficients i.e.  $p(x) = a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + a_{n-2}x^{n-2} + \dots + a_1x + a_0$  $q(x) = b_{n-1}x^{n-1} + b_{n-2}x^{n-2} + \dots + b_1x + b_0$
- Output: The poly.  $pq \in \mathbb{C}[x]$  of deg < 2n 1 expressed in coefficients. + ... +  $c_1 x + c_0$  where  $c_j = \sum_{j=1}^{J} a_k b_{j-k}$ k=0

$$pq(x) = c_{2n-1}x^{2n-1} + c_{2n-2}x^{2n-2} - \frac{1}{2n-2}x^{2n-2} - \frac{1$$

# Why is polynomial multiplication useful?

- This algorithm is used as a subroutine in
  - signal processing, image processing, audio compression
  - Many public-key cryptosystems rely on polynomial arithmetic
  - Computing Reed-Solomon (5G) error-correcting codes
  - Polynomial-based error-detection codes
- The major subroutine is equivalent to convolution, a fundamental mathematical computation

# **Polynomial multiplication**

$$pq(x) = c_{2n-1}x^{2n-1} + c_{2n-2}x^{2n-2} - \frac{1}{2n-2}x^{2n-2} - \frac{1$$

- Can be solved using  $1 + 2 + \ldots + n + \ldots + 2 + 1 = O(n^2)$  multiplications
- Can we be any faster? Perhaps using divide and conquer?

• Output: The poly.  $pq \in \mathbb{C}[x]$  of deg < 2n - 1 expressed in coefficients. + ... +  $c_1 x + c_0$  where  $c_j = \sum_{j=1}^{J} a_k b_{j-k}$ k = ()

# When is polynomial multiplication fast?

 Fundamental theorem of algebra: A degree < n polynomial p is uniquely</li> specified by any n distinct evaluation points.

• Let 
$$\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_n \in \mathbb{C}$$
 be distinct.

Then  $\{(\xi_i, p(\xi_i))\}$  uniquely define p. • Let p be the poly defined by  $\{(\xi_i, y_i)\}$ . Let q be the poly defined by  $\{(\xi_i, z_i)\}$ . For every x,  $(pq)(x) = p(x) \cdot q(x)$ . So,  $(pq)(\xi_i) = y_i \cdot z_i$ . Then pq is a poly defined by  $\{(\xi_i, y_i \cdot z_i)\}$ . Only n interpolation points. digree < 2n poly

# When is polynomial multiplication fast?

- specified by any n distinct evaluation points.
  - Let  $\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_{2n} \in \mathbb{C}$  be distinct. Then  $\{(\xi_i, p(\xi_i))\}_{i \in [2n]}$  uniquely define p.
- Let p be the poly defined by  $\{(\xi_i, y_i)\}_{i \in [2n]}$ . Let q be the poly defined by  $\{(\xi_i, z_i)\}_{i \in [2n]}$ .
- Then pq is the unique poly defined by  $\{(\xi_i, y_i \cdot z_i)\}_{i \in [2n]}$ .

Fundamental theorem of algebra: A degree < n polynomial p is uniquely</li>

# **Polynomial multiplication algorithm**

- **New algorithm:** 
  - Pick evaluation points  $\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_{2n}$ .
  - Evaluate p and q to compute  $y_i \leftarrow q_i$
  - Calculate  $w_i \leftarrow y_i \cdot z_i \cdot \leftarrow O(n) \downarrow o$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Compute } \xi_{i}^{\prime}, \xi_{i}^{2}, \xi_{i}^{3}, \dots, \xi_{i}^{n} & \text{in time } O(n) \\ \text{compute } p(\xi_{i}) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} a_{j} \xi_{i}^{j} & \text{in time } O(n) \\ \text{total time } O(n^{2}) \\ \text{total time } O$$

• Compute the coefficients of polynomial uniquely defined by  $\{(\xi_i, w_i)\}_{i \in [2n]}$ .

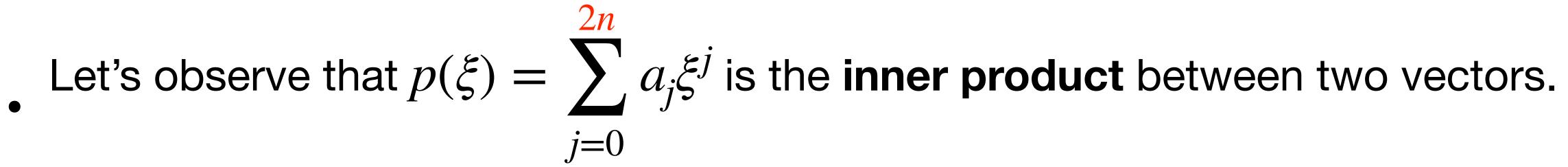
I we still haven't discussed how to do this. this is prohibitive. We need to do this faster to improve on naive alg. 28



# **Polynomial multiplication algorithm**

- New idea: Pick interpolation points  $\{\xi_j\}$  intelligently.
  - If done correctly, we can speed up computing  $p(\xi_j), q(\xi_j)$ .
  - Also will give us a way of un-doing interpolation after multiplication.
- Choose related points to parallelize the computation
- Writing down all the partial computations will take too long

# Change of basis

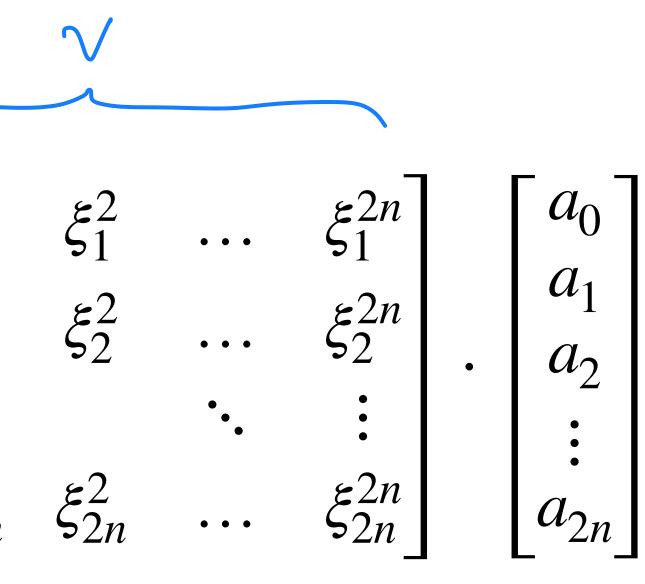


$$p(\xi) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \xi & \xi^2 & \dots & \xi^{2n} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{2n} \end{bmatrix}$$
 Solv depends on the polynomial coefficients.

# Change of basis

$$\begin{bmatrix} p(\xi_{1}) \\ p(\xi_{2}) \\ \vdots \\ p(\xi_{2n}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \xi_{1} & \xi_{1}^{2} & \cdots & \xi_{1}^{2n} \\ 1 & \xi_{2} & \xi_{2}^{2} & \cdots & \xi_{2}^{2n} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \xi_{2n} & \xi_{2n}^{2} & \cdots & \xi_{2n}^{2n} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} a_{0} \\ a_{1} \\ a_{2} \\ \vdots \\ a_{2n} \end{bmatrix}$$
  

$$\begin{bmatrix} special type of matrix called a Vandermonde matrix \\ a Vandermonde matrix \\ det V = \prod_{i \neq j} (\xi_{i} - \xi_{j}) \leftarrow non-zero \text{ iff } \xi_{i} \text{ ore distinct.} \\ \text{ if det V is non-zero, V is invertible.} \end{bmatrix}$$



# **Polynomial multiplication algorithm**

- New new algorithm:
  - Pick interpolation points  $\{\xi_i\}_{i \in [2n]}$ .
  - Compute Vandermonde matrix V and it's inverse  $V^{-1}$ .
  - Compute  $\vec{y} \leftarrow V\vec{a}, \vec{z} \leftarrow V\vec{b}$ .
  - Compute  $\vec{w} \leftarrow \vec{a} \odot \vec{b}$ , point-wise multiplication.
  - Return  $V^{-1} \overrightarrow{w}$ .

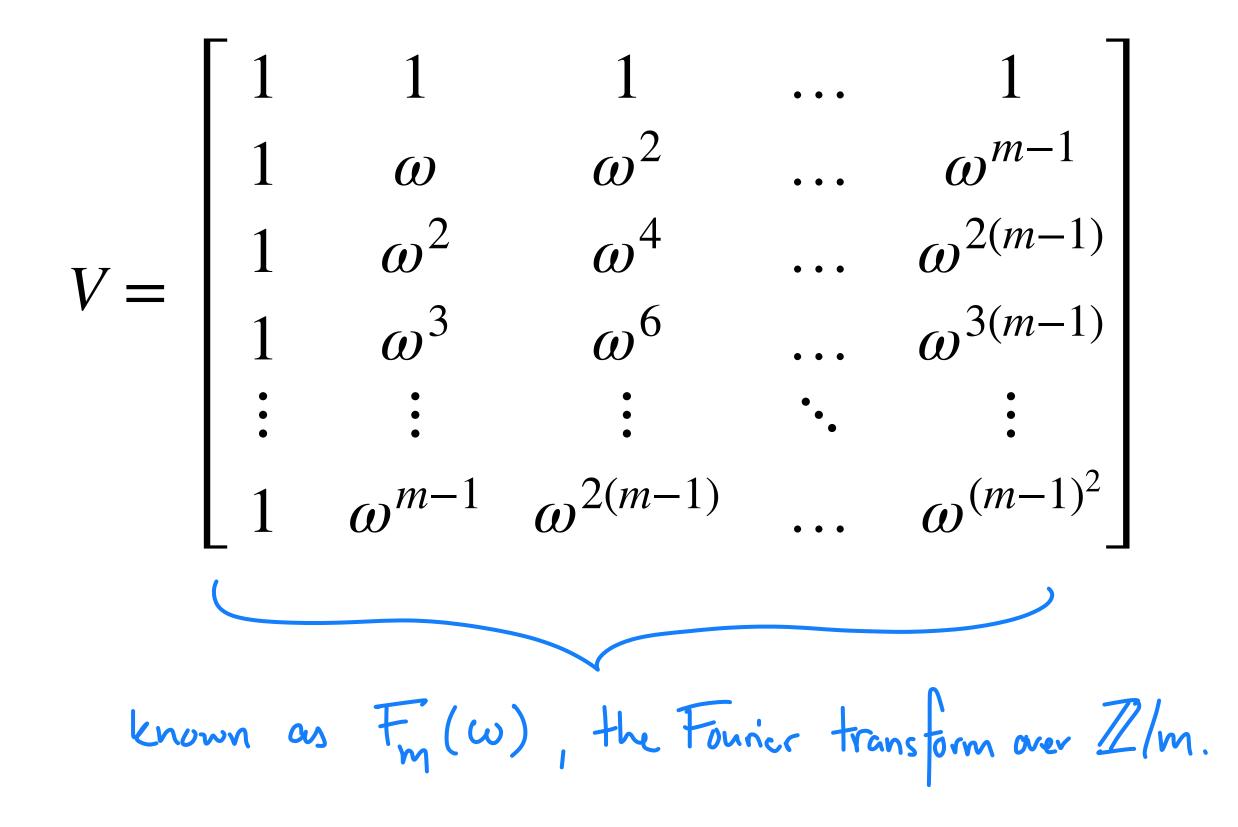
Still too slow if we are spending the time writing out V and V<sup>-1</sup>. Need to do the Vā, Vī, V'~ Computations "in place".



# Choice of interpolation points

- To speed up the algorithm, we are going to pick  $\{\xi_i\}$  creatively.
- Let *m* be the smallest power of 2 that is  $\geq 2n$ .
- Choose  $\omega := e^{2\pi i/m}$ , a primitive *m* -th root of unity.

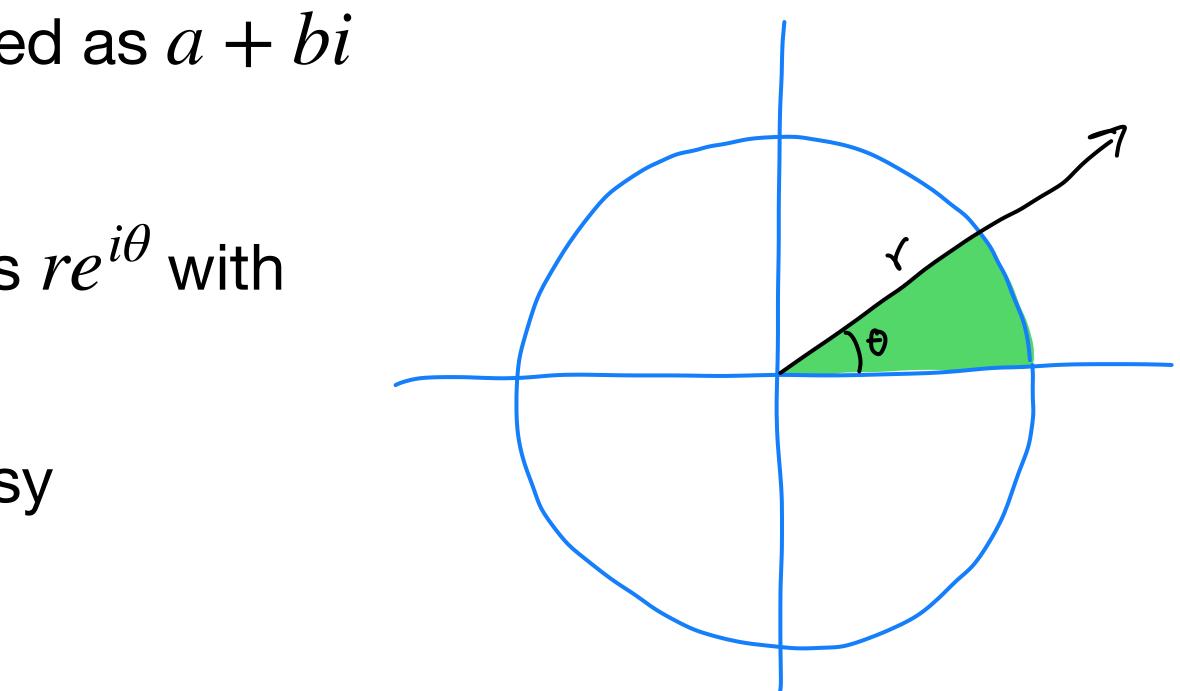
• Define 
$$\xi_j = \omega^{j-1}$$
.



# **Complex number review**

- A complex number can be expressed as a + bi with  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$
- Alternatively, it can be expressed as  $re^{i\theta}$  with  $r \in \mathbb{R}^{\geq 0}, \theta \in [0, 2\pi)$
- Multiplying complex numbers is easy

$$((r_i e^{i\theta_1})(r_2 e^{i\theta_2}) = (r_1 r_2) e^{i(\theta_1 + \theta_2)})$$

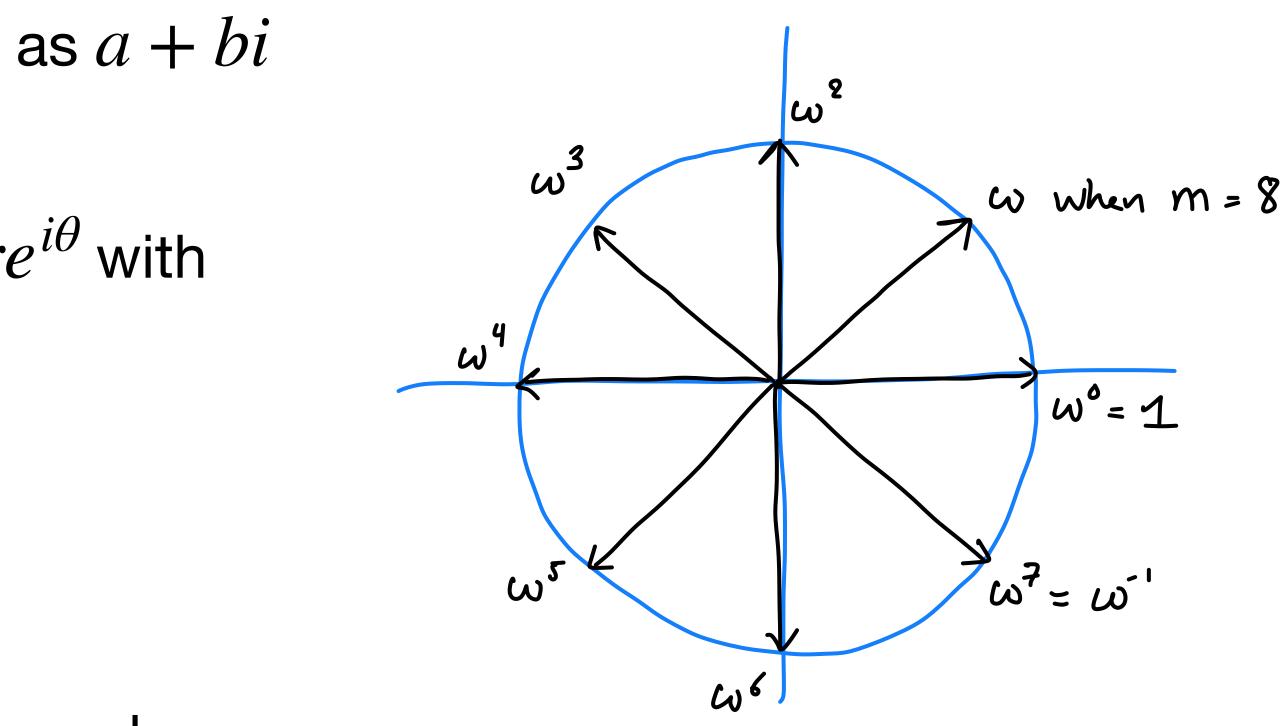


# **Complex number review**

- A complex number can be expressed as a + biwith  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$
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- Multiplying complex numbers is easy

$$((r_i e^{i\theta_1})(r_2 e^{i\theta_2}) = (r_1 r_2) e^{i(\theta_1 + \theta_2)})$$

•  $\omega$ , the *m*-th root of unity can be expressed as  $r = 1, \theta = 2\pi/m$ 





# **Polynomial multiplication algorithm**

- New new new algorithm:
  - Let *m* be the smallest power of 2 that is  $\geq 2n$ .  $\omega = e^{2\pi i/m}$ .
  - Pad vectors  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  with zeroes till length m.
  - Compute  $\vec{y} \leftarrow F_m(\omega)\vec{a}, \vec{z} \leftarrow F_m(\omega)\vec{b}$ .
  - Compute  $\vec{w} \leftarrow \vec{a} \odot \vec{b}$ , point-wise multiplication.
  - Return  $F_m(\omega)^{-1} \overrightarrow{w}$ .

- Theorem: 
$$\overline{F_m(\omega)}^{-1} = \frac{1}{m} \overline{F_m(\omega^{-1})}$$
.

### **Polynomial multiplication algorithm**

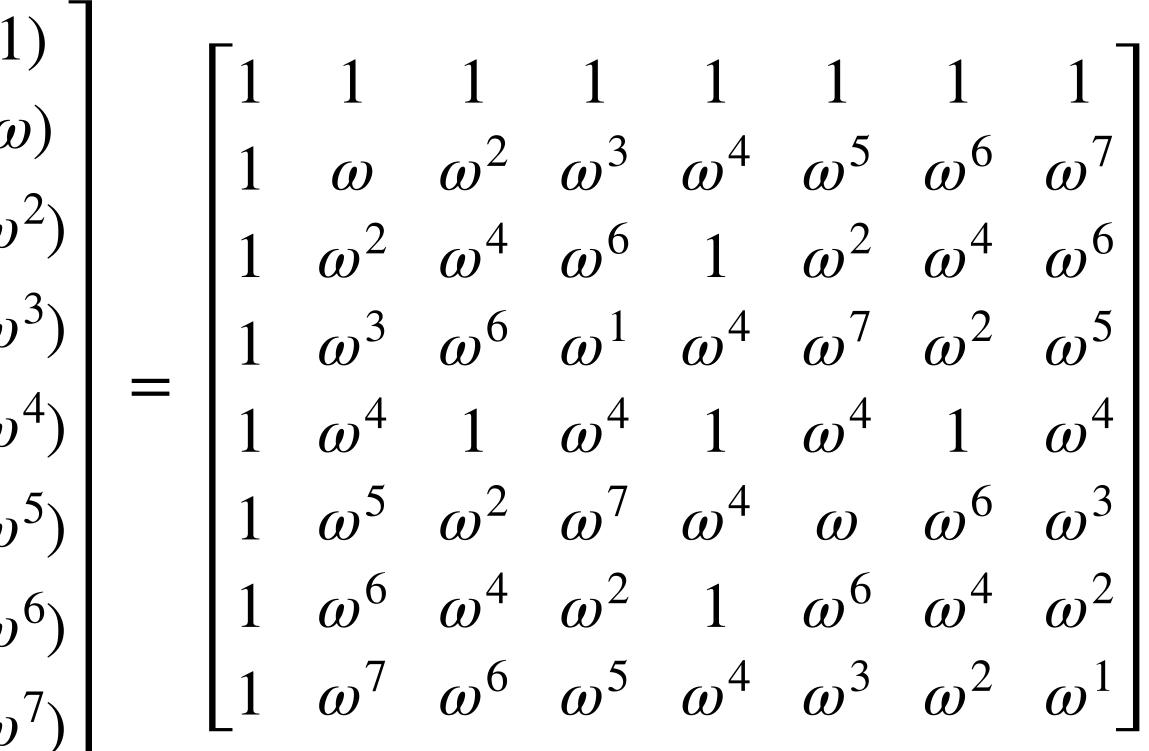
- New new new algorithm:
  - Let *m* be the smallest power of 2 that is  $\geq 2n$ .  $\omega = e^{2\pi i/m}$ .
  - Pad vectors  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  with zeroes till length m.
  - Compute  $\vec{y} \leftarrow F_m(\omega)\vec{a}, \vec{z} \leftarrow F_m(\omega)\vec{a}$
  - Compute  $\vec{w} \leftarrow \vec{a} \odot \vec{b}$ , point-wise multiplication.

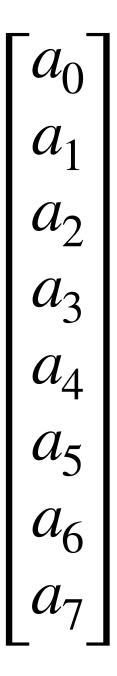
• Return 
$$\frac{1}{m} F_m(\omega^{-1}) \overrightarrow{w}$$
.

$$(v)\vec{b}$$
 .

- Goal is to use divide and conquer to do this computation efficiently
- To do so, we need to find similar components to break the problem into smaller parts
- Let's analyze this for m = 8 and then generalize.

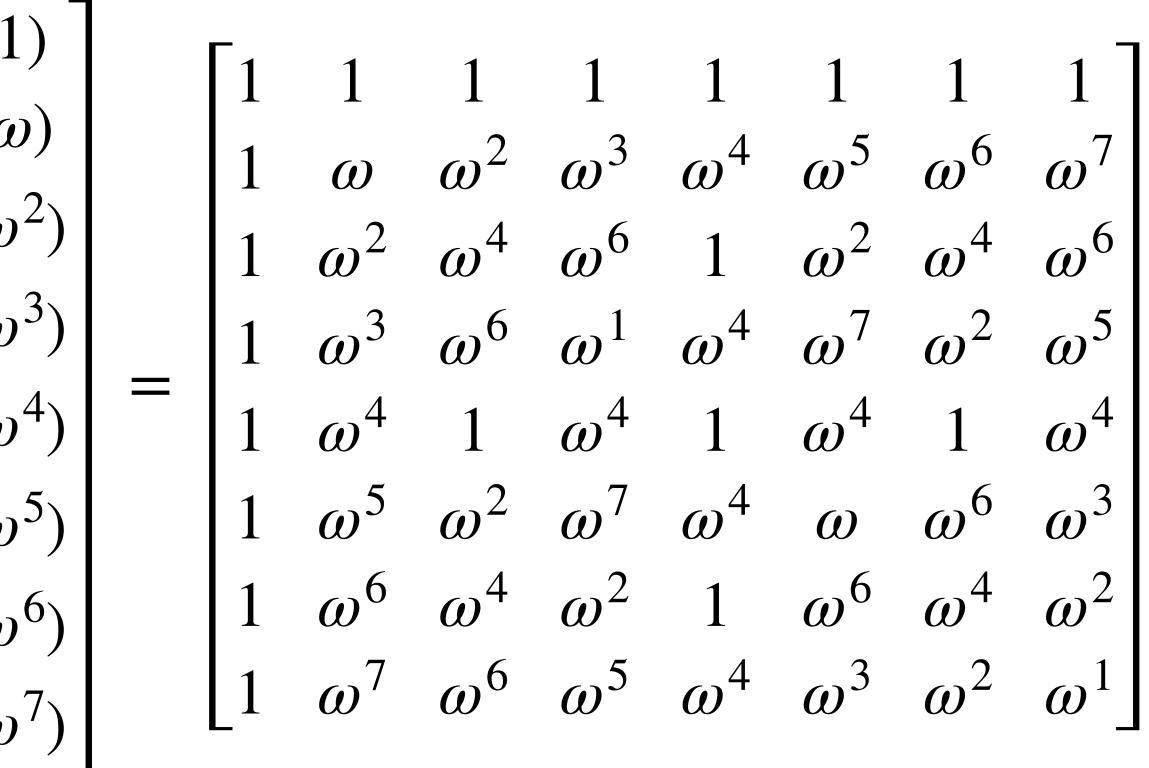
p(1) $p(\omega)$  $p(\omega^2)$  $p(\omega^3)$  $p(\omega^4)$  $p(\omega^5)$  $p(\omega^6)$  $p(\omega^7)$ 

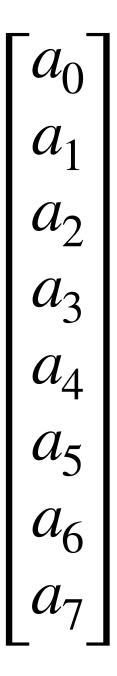




- Nothing says we have to calculate the evaluations in this order!
- Is there a better order in which a pattern emerges?

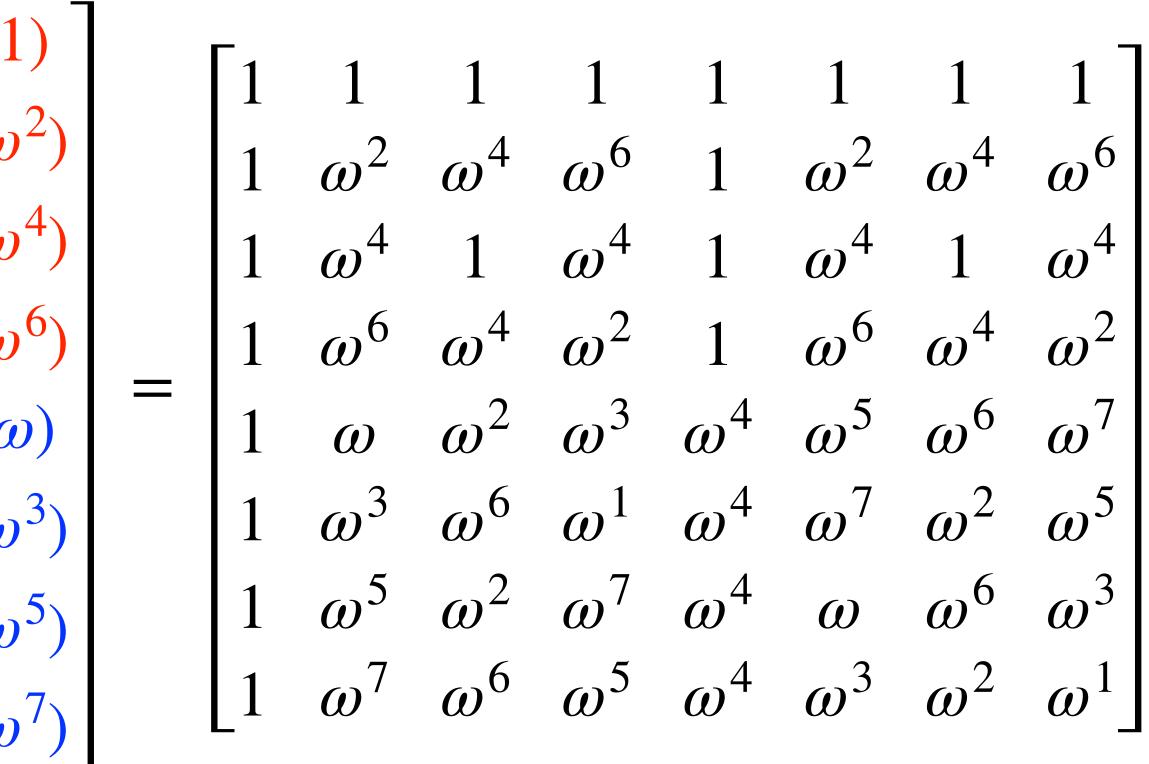
p(1) $p(\omega)$  $p(\omega^2)$  $p(\omega^3)$  $p(\omega^4)$  $p(\omega^5)$  $p(\omega^7)$ 

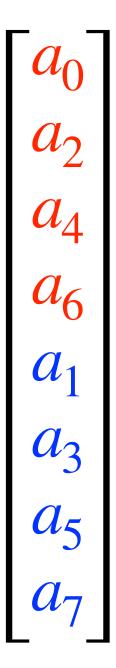




- Nothing says we have to calculate the evaluations in this order!
- Is there a better order in which a pattern emerges?
- Even rows then odd rows

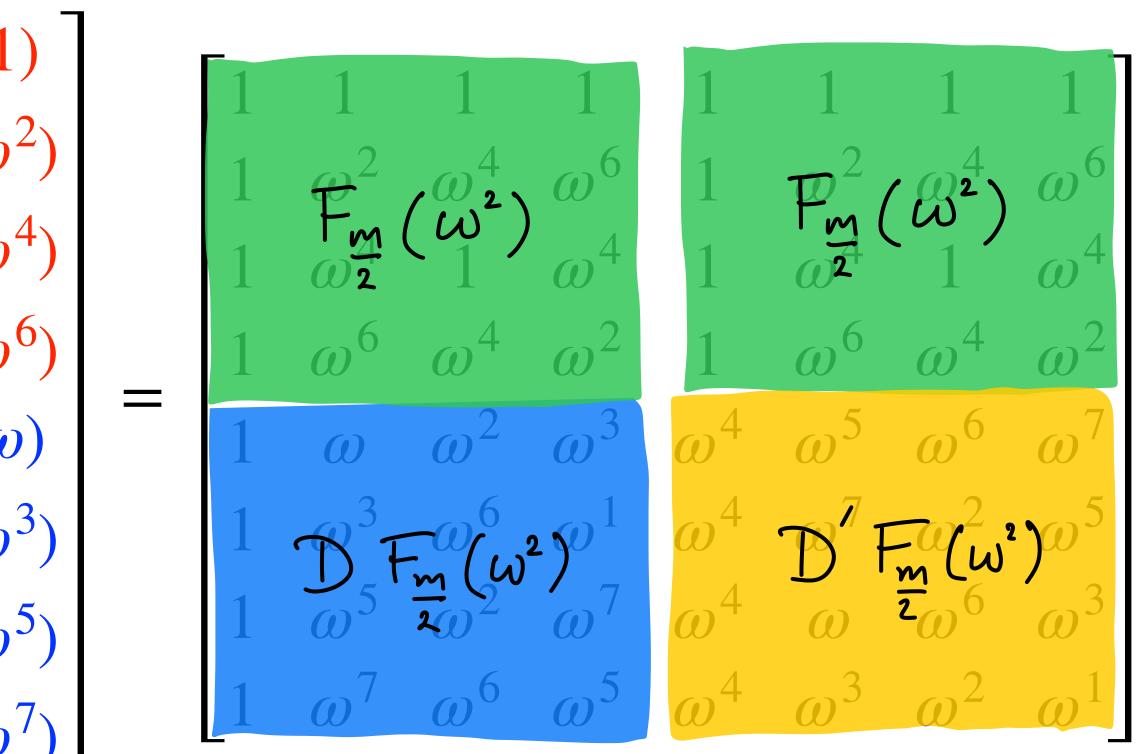
 $p(\omega^4)$  $p(\omega^6)$  $p(\omega)$  $p(\omega^3)$  $p(\omega)$ 

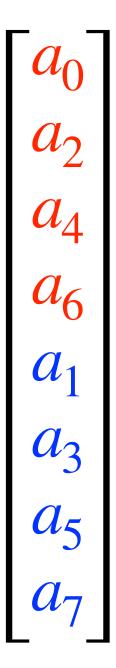




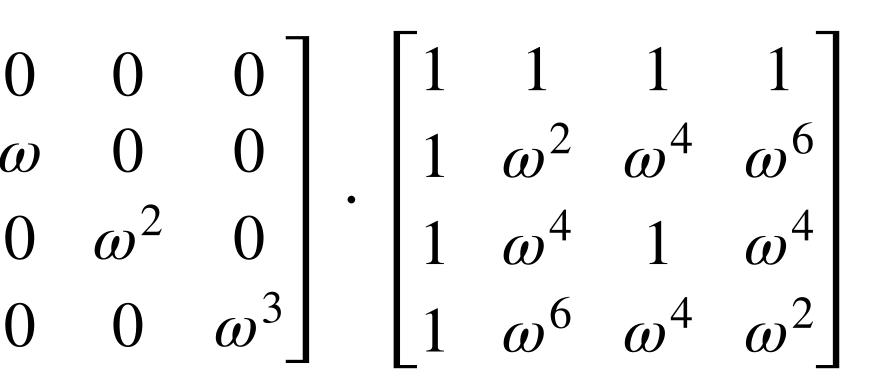
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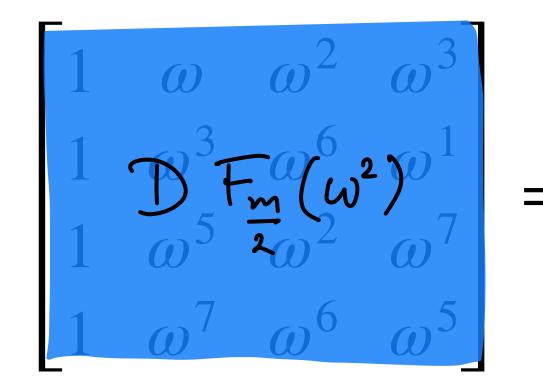
p(1) $p(\omega^2)$  $p(\omega^4)$  $p(\omega^6)$  $p(\omega)$  $p(\omega^3)$  $p(\omega^{2})$  $p(\omega')$ 

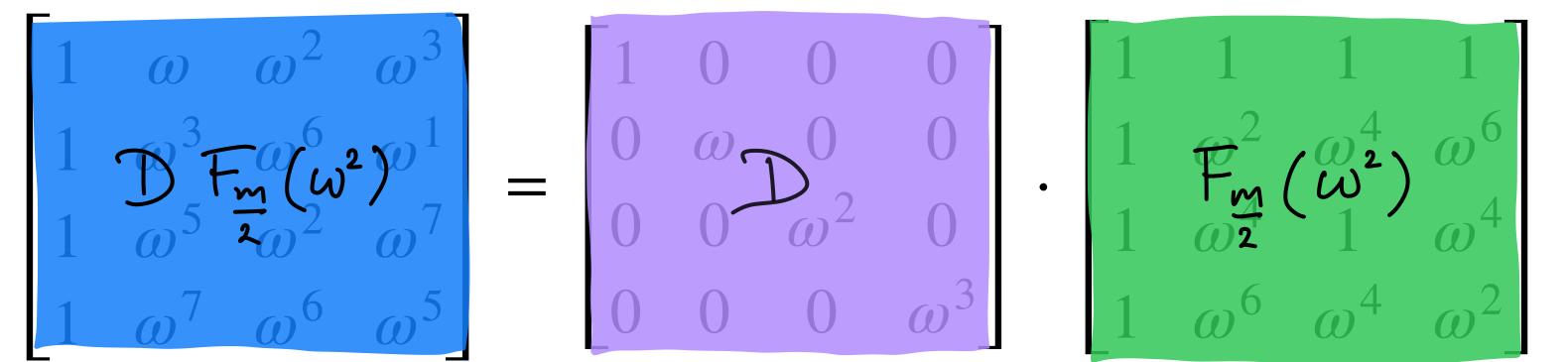


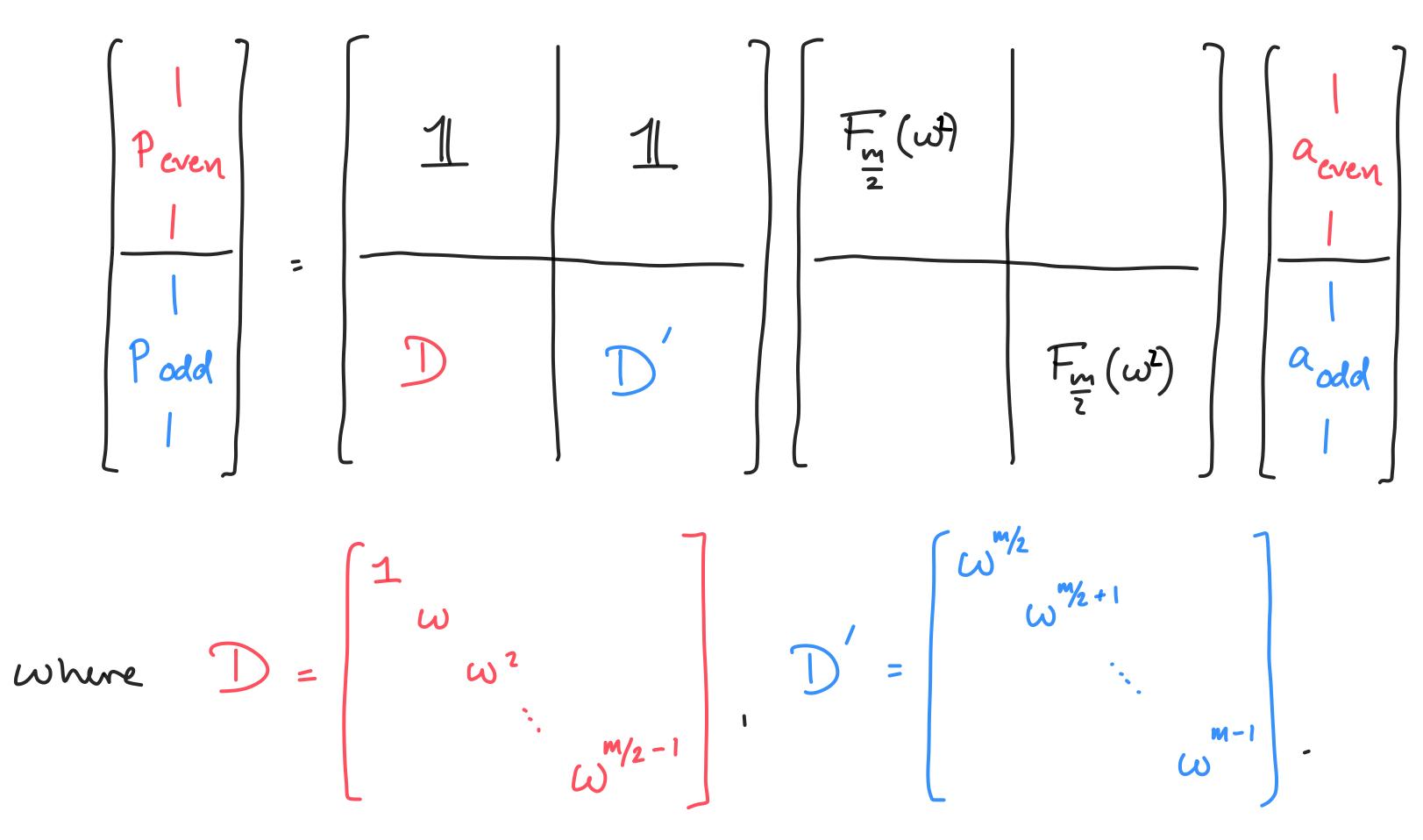


$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \omega & \omega^2 & \omega^3 \\ 1 & \omega^3 & \omega^6 & \omega^1 \\ 1 & \omega^5 & \omega^2 & \omega^7 \\ 1 & \omega^7 & \omega^6 & \omega^5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \omega \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$





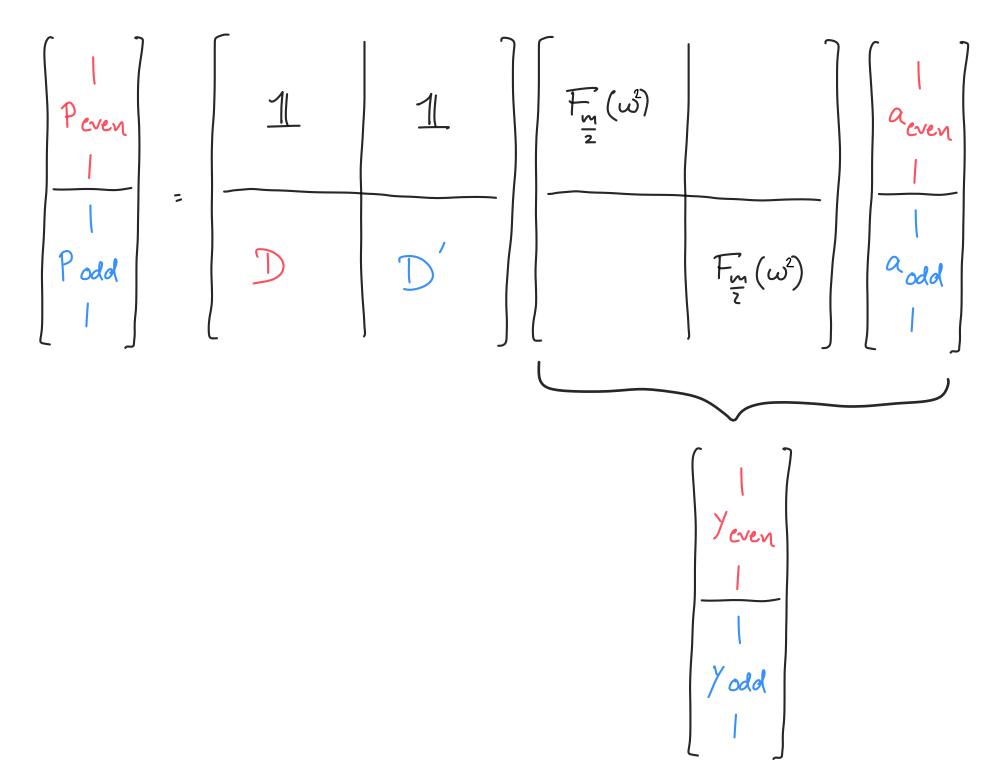




- Divide and conquer algorithm:
  - Split  $\vec{a}$  into  $\vec{a}_{even}$  and  $\vec{a}_{odd}$  coordinates.
  - Compute  $\vec{y}_{\text{even}} \leftarrow F_{m/2}(\omega^2)\vec{a}_{\text{even}}$  and  $\vec{y}_{\text{odd}} \leftarrow F_{m/2}(\omega^2)\vec{a}_{\text{odd}}$ .
  - Compute  $D\vec{y}_{even}$  and  $D'\vec{y}_{odd}$ .

• Compute 
$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{y}_{\text{even}} + \vec{y}_{\text{odd}} \\ D\vec{y}_{\text{even}} + \vec{D}'y_{\text{odd}} \end{bmatrix}$$

• Rearrange coordinates to original format.



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- Divide and conquer algorithm:
  - Split  $\vec{a}$  into  $\vec{a}_{even}$  and  $\vec{a}_{odd}$  coordinates.  $\leftarrow O(m)$  time.
  - Compute  $\vec{y}_{even} \leftarrow F_{m/2}(\omega^2)\vec{a}_{even}$  and  $\vec{y}_{odd} \leftarrow F_{m/2}(\omega^2)\vec{a}_{odd}$

• Compute 
$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{y}_{\text{even}} + \vec{y}_{\text{odd}} \\ D\vec{y}_{\text{even}} + \vec{D}' y_{\text{odd}} \end{bmatrix}$$

• Rearrange coordinates to original format.  $\leftarrow O(m) + m$ 

Total time: 
$$T(m) = 2T(\frac{m}{2}) + O(m)$$
  
 $T(m) = O(m \log m)$ 

$$\in \operatorname{Recursion}: 2T(\frac{m}{2})$$
 time.

• Compute  $D\vec{y}_{even}$  and  $D'\vec{y}_{odd}$ .  $\leftarrow D, D'$  diagonal so O(m) time.

 $\leftarrow O(m)$  time.

### Returning to the full algorithm

- New new new algorithm:
  - Let *m* be the smallest power of 2 that is  $\geq 2n$ .  $\omega = e^{2\pi i/m}$ .
  - Pad vectors  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  with zeroes till length *m*.
  - Compute  $\vec{y} \leftarrow F_m(\omega)\vec{a}, \vec{z} \leftarrow F_m(\omega)\vec{a}, \vec$
  - Compute  $\vec{w} \leftarrow \vec{a} \odot \vec{b}$ , point-wise multiplication.
  - Return  $F_m(\omega)^{-1} \overrightarrow{w}$ .

$$(\omega)\vec{b}$$
 .

- Theorem: 
$$F_m(\omega)^{-1} = \frac{1}{m} F_m(\omega^{-1})$$
.

### Returning to the full algorithm

- New new new algorithm:
  - Let *m* be the smallest power of 2 that is  $\geq 2n$ .  $\omega = e^{2\pi i/m}$ .
  - Pad vectors  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  with zeroes till length m.
  - Compute  $\vec{y} \leftarrow F_m(\omega)\vec{a}, \vec{z} \leftarrow F_m(\omega)\vec{b}$ .  $\leftarrow \text{Runtime O(n log n)}$
  - Compute  $\vec{w} \leftarrow \vec{a} \odot \vec{b}$ , point-wise multiplication.  $\leftarrow \text{Runtime } O(n)$
  - Return  $\frac{1}{m}F_m(\omega^{-1})\overrightarrow{w}$ .  $\leftarrow$  Runtine

### **Fast Fourier Transform**

- The algorithm for computing  $F_m(\omega)\vec{a}$  is known as the Fast Fourier **Transform (FFT)**
- polynomial computations
- and the hype behind quantum computers.

• It serves as a major component in many algorithms particularly dealing with

 Quantum computers are capable of "implementing" the FFT on matrices in time O(polylog m). This is the major step in the quantum factoring algorithm

### Final remaining theorem

• Theorem: 
$$F_m(\omega)^{-1} = \frac{1}{m}F_m(\omega^{-1})$$

• Proof: Suffices to show that  $F_m(\omega) \cdot F_m(\omega') = m 1$ .

$$\left( F_{m}(\omega) \cdot F_{m}(\omega^{-1}) \right)_{ij} = \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} (i)$$

$$matrix \text{ coordinate } ij = \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} (i)$$

 $(F_{m}(\omega))_{ik}(F_{m}(\omega'))_{kj}$ 

 $\sum_{k=0}^{i} \omega^{ik} \cdot (\omega^{-1})^{kj}$ 

 $= \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \omega^{k}(i-j) = \begin{cases} m & \text{if } i=j \\ 0 & \text{if } i\neq j \end{cases}$  sum of all roots of unity is 0.



### General algorithm: Convolution

- Input: Two vectors  $f = (f_0, ..., f_{n-1}), g = (g_0, ..., g_{n-1}) \in \mathbb{C}^n$
- Output: The convolution vector  $f \ast g$  is defined by

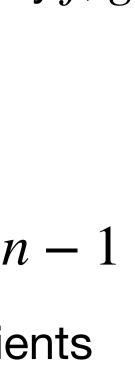
$$(f * g)_k := \sum_{j=0}^n f_j \cdot g_{n-j}$$

• Algorithm: Exact same alg. as that of poly. mult.:

$$f * g = \frac{1}{n} F_n(\omega^{-1}) \left( F_n(\omega) f \odot F_n(\omega) g \right) \text{ for } \omega = e^{2\pi i/m}.$$

• **Runtime:**  $O(n \log n)$ 

- Proof:
  - Let p, q be the poly. with coeffs. given by f, g
  - Then f \* g are the coeffs. of the poly.  $r = pq \pmod{x^n}$
  - Then  $r(\omega^j) = p(\omega^j)q(\omega^j)$  for j = 0 to n 1
  - So, prev algorithm will find the coefficients of the unique polynomial

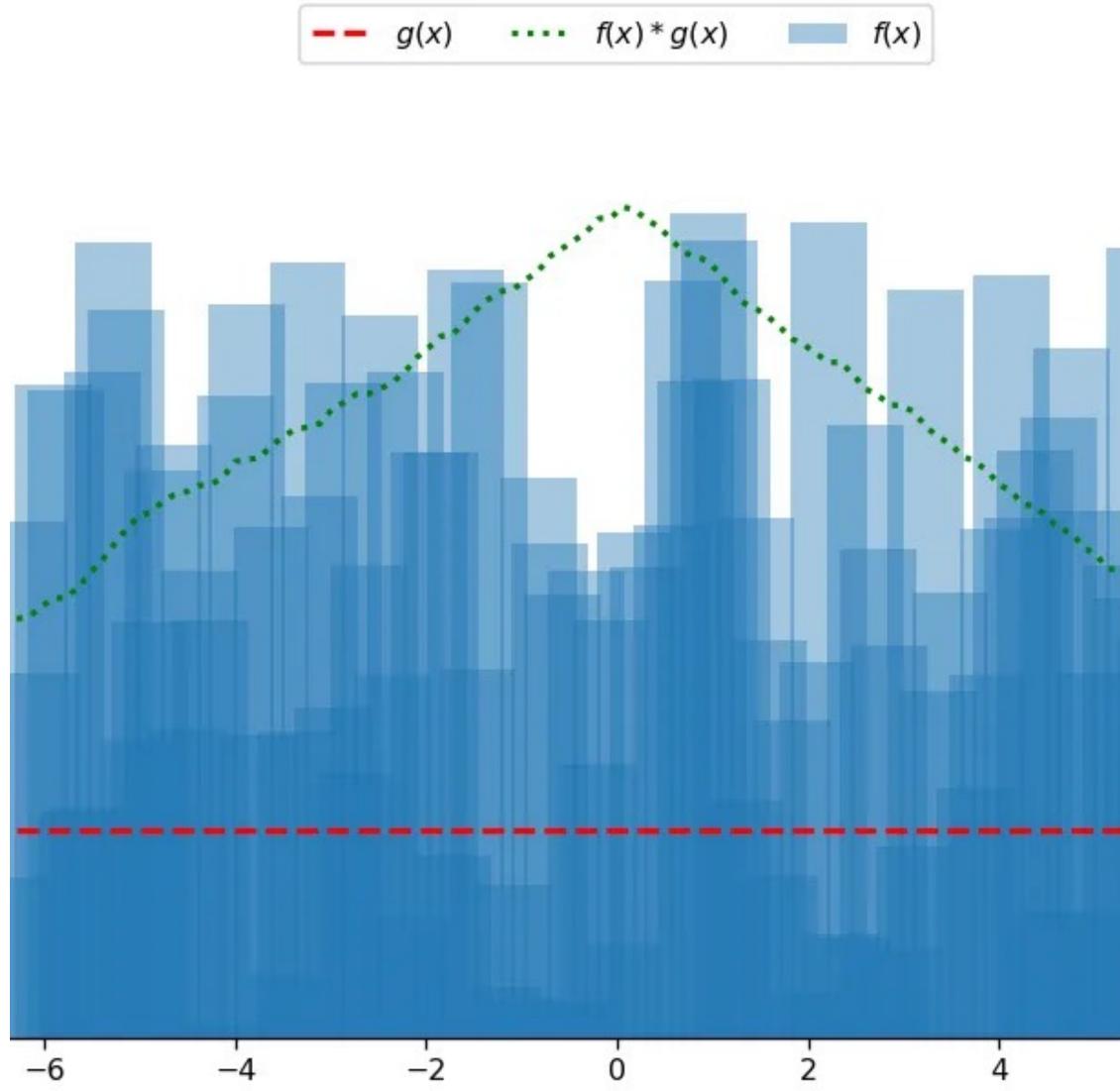


# Overtime (stay if interested)

- An algorithm for combining two signals to form a third signal
- Shows up most commonly now in *convolution neural networks*

• 
$$(f * g)_k := \sum_{j=0}^n f_j \cdot g_{n-j} \operatorname{vs}$$
  
•  $(f * g)(x) = \int_{-\infty}^\infty f(\tau)g(x - \tau)d\tau$ 

- This is the area under the curve f with weights defined by g
- Let's you smooth out the curve f by picking g



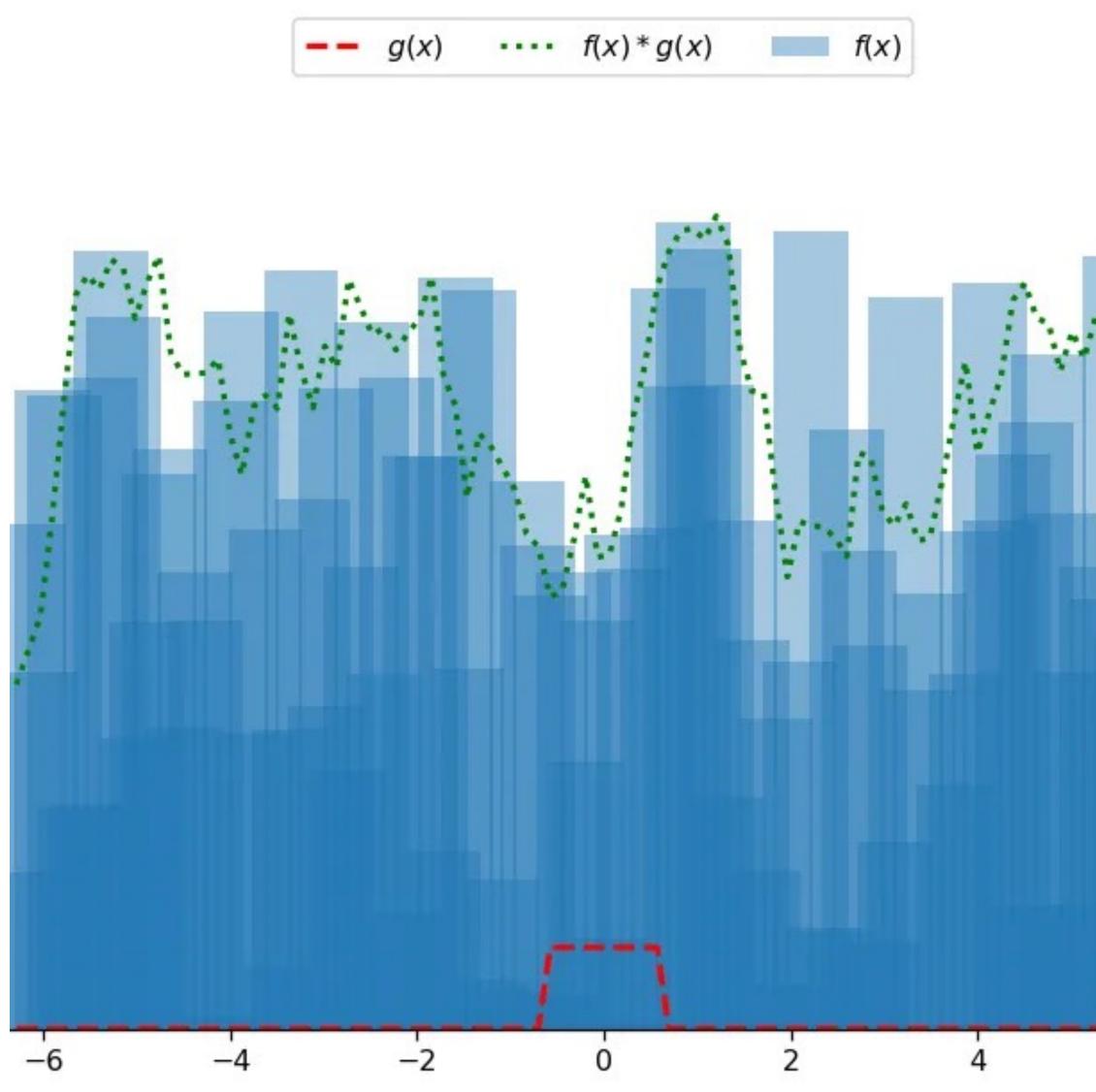
Source: Medium post by TDS archive.



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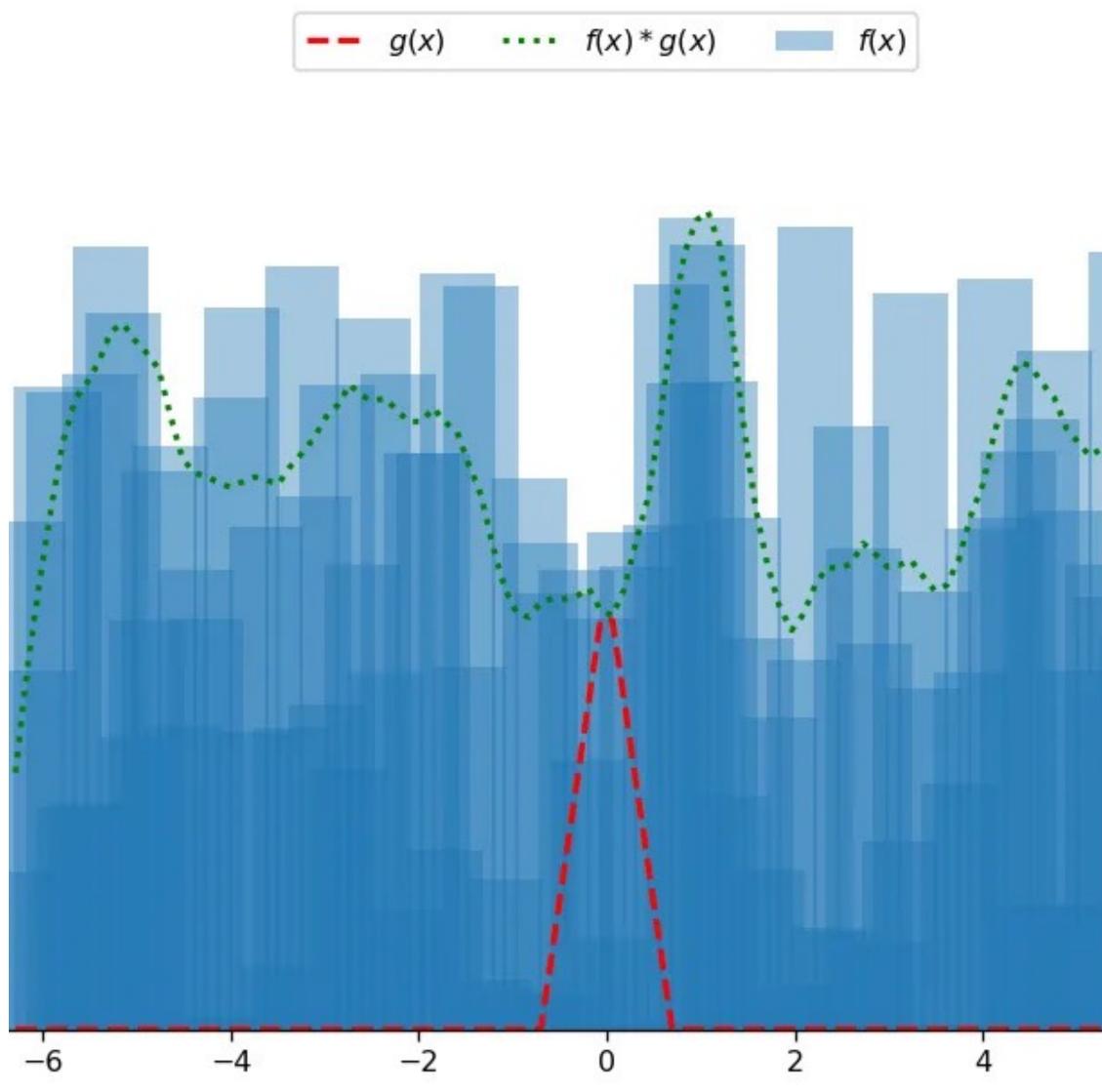
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Source: Medium post by TDS archive.



### Convolution Gaussian blurring and edge detection

• Ex. We can also apply a 2D version of convolution for image processing



Source: Stanford 315b lectures

- Filtering signals (low-pass, high-pass)
  - Convolve with a signal to filter out certain frequencies
- Audio effects (reverb, echo, suppression)
- Image processing
- And more!