

Divide and Conquer

Reading: 5.1, 5.4-5.5, 13.5

Algorithm Design  
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PEARSON  
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Some of the slides were  
Adapted from Paul Beame

### Divide-and-Conquer

**Divide-and-conquer.**

- Break up problem into several parts.
- Solve each part recursively.
- Combine solutions to sub-problems into overall solution.

**Most common usage.**

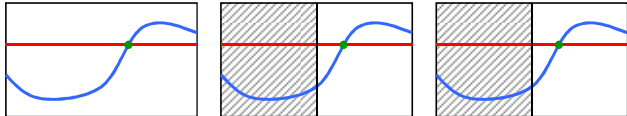
- Break up problem of size  $n$  into **two** equal parts of size  $\frac{1}{2}n$ .
- Solve two parts recursively.
- Combine two solutions into overall solution in **linear time**.

**Consequence.**

- Brute force:  $n^2$ .
- Divide-and-conquer:  $n \log n$ .

Divide et impera.  
Veni, vidi, vici.  
- Julius Caesar

### Binary search for roots (bisection method)



**Given:**

- continuous function  $f$  and two points  $a < b$  with  $f(a) \leq 0$  and  $f(b) > 0$

**Find:**

- approximation to  $c$  s.t.  $f(c) = 0$  and  $a \leq c < b$

### Bisection method

```

Bisection(a, b, ε)
if (a-b) < ε then
    return(a)
else
    c ← (a+b)/2
    if f(c) ≤ 0 then
        return(Bisection(c, b, ε))
    else
        return(Bisection(a, c, ε))
    
```

**Time Analysis:**

At each step we **halved** the size of the interval  
 It started at size  $b-a$   
 It ended at size  $\epsilon$

# of calls to  $f$  is  $\log_2((b-a)/\epsilon)$

### Old favorites

**Binary search**

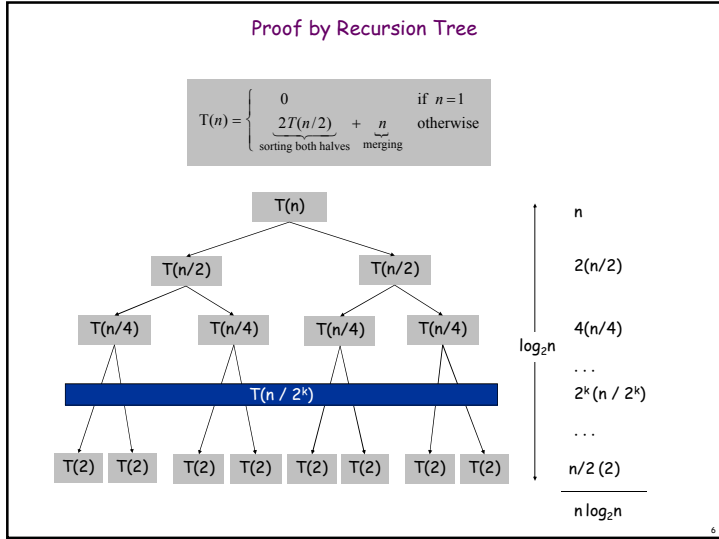
- One subproblem of half size plus one comparison
- Recurrence  $T(n) = T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + 1$  for  $n \geq 2$   
 $T(1) = 0$

So  $T(n)$  is  $\lceil \log_2 n \rceil + 1$

**Mergesort**

- Two subproblems of half size plus merge cost of  $n-1$  comparisons
- Recurrence  $T(n) \leq 2T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + n - 1$  for  $n \geq 2$   
 $T(1) = 0$

Roughly  $n$  comparisons at each of  $\log_2 n$  levels of recursion  
So  $T(n)$  is roughly  $2n \log_2 n$



### Proof by Telescoping

**Claim.** If  $T(n)$  satisfies this recurrence, then  $T(n) = n \log_2 n$ .  
↑ assumes  $n$  is a power of 2

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 2T(n/2) + n & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(under  $2T(n/2)$ : sorting both halves; under  $n$ : merging)

**Pf.** For  $n > 1$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{T(n)}{n} &= \frac{2T(n/2)}{n} + 1 \\ &= \frac{T(n/2)}{n/2} + 1 \\ &= \frac{T(n/4)}{n/4} + 1 + 1 \\ &\dots \\ &= \frac{T(n/n)}{n/n} + \underbrace{1 + \dots + 1}_{\log_2 n} \\ &= \log_2 n \end{aligned}$$

### Proof by Induction

**Claim.** If  $T(n)$  satisfies this recurrence, then  $T(n) = n \log_2 n$ .  
↑ assumes  $n$  is a power of 2

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 2T(n/2) + n & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(under  $2T(n/2)$ : sorting both halves; under  $n$ : merging)

**Pf.** (by induction on  $n$ )

- Base case:  $n = 1$ .
- Inductive hypothesis:  $T(n) = n \log_2 n$ .
- Goal: show that  $T(2n) = 2n \log_2 (2n)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} T(2n) &= 2T(n) + 2n \\ &= 2n \log_2 n + 2n \\ &= 2n(\log_2(2n) - 1) + 2n \\ &= 2n \log_2(2n) \end{aligned}$$

Analysis of Mergesort Recurrence

Claim. If  $T(n)$  satisfies the following recurrence, then  $T(n) \leq n \lceil \lg n \rceil$ .

$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n=1 \\ T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + n & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$\uparrow$   
solve left half    solve right half    merging

Pf. (by induction on  $n$ )

- Base case:  $n = 1$ .
- Define  $n_1 = \lfloor n / 2 \rfloor$ ,  $n_2 = \lceil n / 2 \rceil$ .
- Induction step: assume true for  $1, 2, \dots, n-1$ .

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &\leq T(n_1) + T(n_2) + n \\ &\leq n_1 \lceil \lg n_1 \rceil + n_2 \lceil \lg n_2 \rceil + n \\ &\leq n_1 \lceil \lg n_2 \rceil + n_2 \lceil \lg n_2 \rceil + n \\ &= n \lceil \lg n_2 \rceil + n \\ &\leq n(\lceil \lg n \rceil - 1) + n \\ &= n \lceil \lg n \rceil \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} n_2 &= \lfloor n/2 \rfloor \\ &\leq \lfloor 2^{\lceil \lg n \rceil} / 2 \rfloor \\ &= 2^{\lceil \lg n \rceil - 1} \\ \Rightarrow \lg n_2 &\leq \lceil \lg n \rceil - 1 \end{aligned}$$

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Master Divide and Conquer Recurrence

Let  $a$  and  $b$  be positive constants.

If  $T(n) \leq a \cdot T(n/b) + c \cdot n^k$  for  $n > b$  then

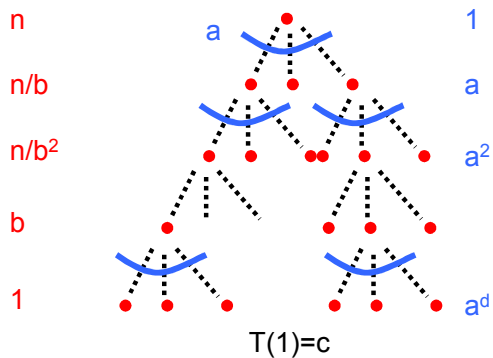
- if  $a > b^k$  then  $T(n)$  is  $\Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- if  $a < b^k$  then  $T(n)$  is  $\Theta(n^k)$
- if  $a = b^k$  then  $T(n)$  is  $\Theta(n^k \log n)$

Works even if it is  $\lceil n/b \rceil$  instead of  $n/b$ .

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Proving Master recurrence

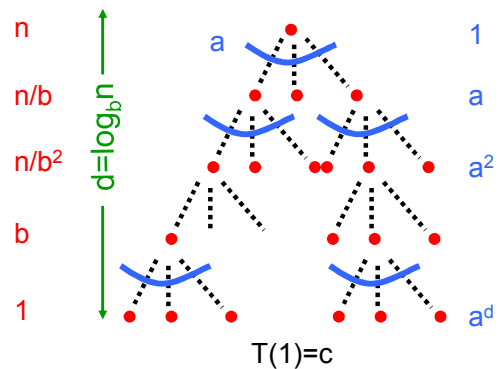
Problem size  $T(n) = a \cdot T(n/b) + cn^k$  # probs



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Proving Master recurrence

Problem size  $T(n) = a \cdot T(n/b) + c \cdot n^k$  # probs



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Proving Master recurrence

Problem size	$T(n) = a \cdot T(n/b) + c \cdot n^k$	# probs	cost
$n$		1	$cn^k$
$n/b$		$a$	$c \cdot a \cdot n^k / b^k$
$n/b^2$		$a^2$	$c \cdot a^2 \cdot n^k / b^{2k}$ $= c \cdot n^k (a/b^k)^2$
$b$		$a^d$	$c \cdot n^k (a/b^k)^d$ $= c \cdot a^d$
1			$T(1) = c$

Geometric Series

$$S = t + tr + tr^2 + \dots + tr^{n-1}$$

$$r \cdot S = tr + tr^2 + \dots + tr^{n-1} + tr^n$$


---


$$(r-1)S = tr^n - t$$

so  $S = t(r^n - 1)/(r - 1)$  if  $r \neq 1$ .

Simple rule

- If  $r \neq 1$  then  $S$  is a constant times the largest term in series

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Total Cost

*Geometric series*

- ratio  $a/b^k$
- $d+1 = \log_b n + 1$  terms
- first term  $cn^k$ , last term  $ca^d$

If  $a/b^k = 1$

- all terms are equal  $T(n)$  is  $\Theta(n^k \log n)$

If  $a/b^k < 1$

- first term is largest  $T(n)$  is  $\Theta(n^k)$

If  $a/b^k > 1$

- last term is largest  $T(n)$  is  $\Theta(a^d) = \Theta(a^{\log_b n}) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$   
(To see this take  $\log_b$  of both sides)

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## 13.5 Median Finding and Quicksort

Order problems: Find the  $k^{\text{th}}$  largest

Runtime models

- Machine Instructions
- Comparisons

Maximum

- $O(n)$  time
- $n-1$  comparisons

2<sup>nd</sup> Largest

- $O(n)$  time
- ? Comparisons

$k^{\text{th}}$  largest for  $k = n/2$

- Easily done in  $O(n \log n)$  time with sorting
- How can the problem be solved in  $O(n)$  time?

QuickSelect( $k, n$ ) - find the  $k$ -th largest from a list of length  $n$

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Announcements

- Homework 4 will be out later today, due date in **2 weeks** on Wednesday 2/15
- The midterm is next Wednesday 2/8/2012
- Divide and conquer is not included in the midterm but **recurrences are included.**
- We will post sample exercises for recurrences on the webpage along with their solutions for practice.
- Remember **NO outside sources** (Google, other textbooks, people not in the class, etc.) may not be consulted on the homework

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Divide and Conquer

Linear time solution:  $T(n) = n + T(\alpha n)$  for  $\alpha < 1$

QuickSelect algorithm - in linear time, reduce the problem from selecting the  $k$ -th largest of  $n$  to the  $j$ -th largest of  $\alpha n$ , for  $\alpha < 1$

QSelect( $k, S$ )

Choose element  $x$  from  $S$

$S_L = \{y \text{ in } S \mid y < x\}$

$S_E = \{y \text{ in } S \mid y = x\}$

$S_G = \{y \text{ in } S \mid y > x\}$

if  $|S_L| \geq k$

return QSelect( $k, S_L$ )

else if  $|S_L| + |S_E| \geq k$

return  $y$  in  $S_E$

else

return QSelect( $k - |S_L| - |S_E|, S_G$ )

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"Choose an element  $x$ ": Random Selection

Ideally, we would choose an  $x$  in the middle, to reduce both sets in half and guarantee progress. But it's enough to choose  $x$  **at random**

Consider a call to QSelect( $k, S$ ), and let  $S'$  be the elements passed to the recursive call.

With probability at least  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $|S'| < \frac{3}{4}|S|$

$\Rightarrow$  On average only **2** recursive calls before the size of  $S'$  is at most  $\frac{3n}{4}$



elements of  $S$  listed in sorted order

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Expected runtime is  $O(n)$

Given  $x$ , one pass over  $S$  to determine  $S_L$ ,  $S_E$ , and  $S_G$  and their sizes:  $cn$  time.

- Expect  $2cn$  cost before size of  $S'$  drops to at most  $3|S|/4$

Let  $T(n)$  be the expected running time:  $T(n) \leq T(3n/4) + 2cn$

By Master's Theorem,  $T(n) = O(n)$

Making the algorithm deterministic

- In  $O(n)$  time, find an element that guarantees that the larger set in the split has size at most  $\frac{3}{4}n$
- BFPRT (Blum-Floyd-Pratt-Rivest-Tarjan) Algorithm

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Quicksort

Sorting. Given a set of  $n$  distinct elements  $S$ , rearrange them in ascending order.

```

RandomizedQuicksort(S) {
  if |S| = 0 return

  choose a splitter  $a_i \in S$  uniformly at random
  foreach (a  $\in S$ ) {
    if (a <  $a_i$ ) put a in  $S^-$ 
    else if (a >  $a_i$ ) put a in  $S^+$ 
  }
  RandomizedQuicksort( $S^-$ )
  output  $a_i$ 
  RandomizedQuicksort( $S^+$ )
}
    
```

Remark. Can implement in-place.

$\uparrow$   
 $O(\log n)$  extra space

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Quicksort

Running time.

- [Best case.] Select the median element as the splitter: quicksort makes  $\Theta(n \log n)$  comparisons.
- [Worst case.] Select the smallest element as the splitter: quicksort makes  $\Theta(n^2)$  comparisons.

Randomize. Protect against worst case by choosing splitter at random.

Intuition. If we always select an element that is bigger than 25% of the elements and smaller than 25% of the elements, then quicksort makes  $\Theta(n \log n)$  comparisons.

Notation. Label elements so that  $x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n$ .

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Expected run time for QuickSort:  
 "Global analysis"

Count comparisons

$a_i, a_j$  - elements in positions  $i$  and  $j$  in the final sorted list.  $p_{ij}$  the probability that  $a_i$  and  $a_j$  are compared

Expected number of comparisons:  $\sum_{i < j} p_{ij}$

Prob  $a_i$  and  $a_j$  are compared:

- If  $a_i$  and  $a_j$  are compared then it must be during the call when they end up in different subproblems
  - Before that, they aren't compared to each other
  - After they aren't compared to each other
- During this step they are only compared if one of them is the pivot
- Since all elements between  $a_i$  and  $a_j$  are also in the subproblem this is 2 out of at least  $j-i+1$  choices

Lemma:  $p_{ij} \leq 2/(j-i+1)$

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Quicksort: Expected Number of Comparisons

Theorem. Expected # of comparisons is  $O(n \log n)$ .  
 Pf.

$$\sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \frac{2}{j-i+1} = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=2}^i \frac{1}{j} \leq 2n \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{j} \approx 2n \int_{x=1}^n \frac{1}{x} dx = 2n \ln n$$

↑  
 probability that i and j are compared

Theorem. [Knuth 1973] Stdev of number of comparisons is  $\sim 0.65n$ .

Ex. If  $n = 1$  million, the probability that randomized quicksort takes less than  $4n \ln n$  comparisons is at least 99.94%.

Chebyshev's inequality.  $\Pr[|X - \mu| \geq k\sigma] \leq 1 / k^2$ .

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5.4 Closest Pair of Points

Closest Pair of Points

Closest pair. Given  $n$  points in the plane, find a pair with smallest Euclidean distance between them.

Fundamental geometric primitive.

- Graphics, computer vision, geographic information systems, molecular modeling, air traffic control.
- Special case of nearest neighbor, Euclidean MST, Voronoi.

↑  
 fast closest pair inspired fast algorithms for these problems

Brute force. Check all pairs of points  $p$  and  $q$  with  $\Theta(n^2)$  comparisons.

1-D version.  $O(n \log n)$  easy if points are on a line.

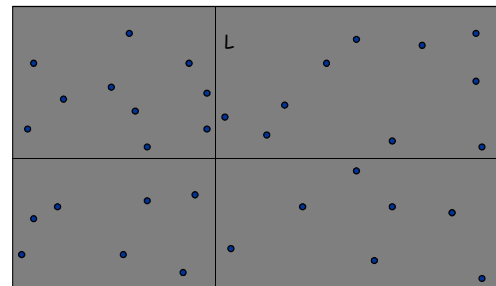
Assumption. No two points have same  $x$  coordinate.

↑  
 to make presentation cleaner

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Closest Pair of Points: First Attempt

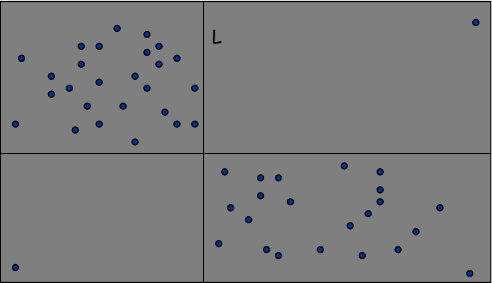
Divide. Sub-divide region into 4 quadrants.



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### Closest Pair of Points: First Attempt

**Divide.** Sub-divide region into 4 quadrants.  
**Obstacle.** Impossible to ensure  $n/4$  points in each piece.

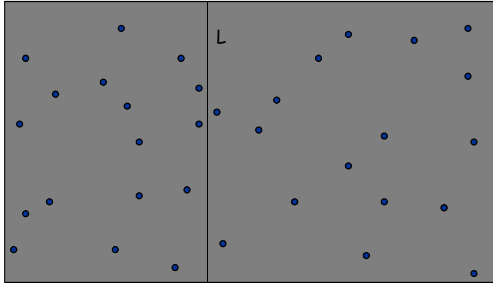


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### Closest Pair of Points

**Algorithm.**

- Divide:** draw vertical line L so that roughly  $\frac{1}{2}n$  points on each side.

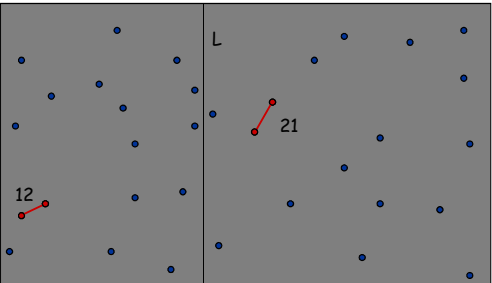


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### Closest Pair of Points

**Algorithm.**

- Divide:** draw vertical line L so that roughly  $\frac{1}{2}n$  points on each side.
- Conquer:** find closest pair in each side recursively.

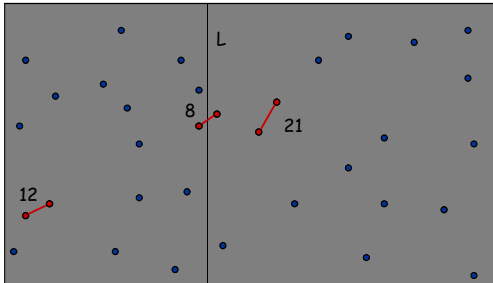


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### Closest Pair of Points

**Algorithm.**

- Divide:** draw vertical line L so that roughly  $\frac{1}{2}n$  points on each side.
- Conquer:** find closest pair in each side recursively.
- Combine:** find closest pair with one point in each side. ← seems like  $\Theta(n^2)$
- Return** best of 3 solutions.



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### Closest Pair of Points

Find closest pair with one point in each side, **assuming that distance  $< \delta$** .

$\delta = \min(12, 21)$

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### Closest Pair of Points

Find closest pair with one point in each side, **assuming that distance  $< \delta$** .

- Observation: only need to consider points within  $\delta$  of line L.

$\delta = \min(12, 21)$

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### Closest Pair of Points

Find closest pair with one point in each side, **assuming that distance  $< \delta$** .

- Observation: only need to consider points within  $\delta$  of line L.
- Sort points in  $2\delta$ -strip by their y coordinate.

$\delta = \min(12, 21)$

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### Closest Pair of Points

Find closest pair with one point in each side, **assuming that distance  $< \delta$** .

- Observation: only need to consider points within  $\delta$  of line L.
- Sort points in  $2\delta$ -strip by their y coordinate.
- Only check distances of those within 11 positions in sorted list!

$\delta = \min(12, 21)$

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### Closest Pair of Points

**Def.** Let  $s_i$  be the point in the  $2\delta$ -strip, with the  $i^{\text{th}}$  smallest  $y$ -coordinate.

**Claim.** If  $|i - j| \geq 12$ , then the distance between  $s_i$  and  $s_j$  is at least  $\delta$ .

**Pf.**

- No two points lie in same  $\frac{1}{2}\delta$ -by- $\frac{1}{2}\delta$  box.
- Two points at least 2 rows apart have distance  $\geq 2(\frac{1}{2}\delta)$ .

**Corollary** For each point  $s_i$ , we only need to check its distance to the 11 points that precedes it in the  $y$ -coordinate order.

**Fact.** Still true if we replace 11 with 6.

### Closest Pair Algorithm

```

Closest-Pair( $p_1, \dots, p_n$ ) {
  Compute separation line  $L$  such that half the points
  are on one side and half on the other side.
   $\delta_1 = \text{Closest-Pair}(\text{left half})$ 
   $\delta_2 = \text{Closest-Pair}(\text{right half})$ 
   $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$ 
  Delete all points further than  $\delta$  from separation line  $L$ 
  Sort remaining points by  $y$ -coordinate.
  Scan points in  $y$ -order and compare distance between
  each point and next 11 neighbors. If any of these
  distances is less than  $\delta$ , update  $\delta$ .
  return  $\delta$ .
}
    
```

$O(n \log n)$   
 $2T(n/2)$   
 $O(n)$   
 $O(n \log n)$   
 $O(n)$

### Closest Pair of Points: Analysis

**Running time.**

$$T(n) \leq 2T(n/2) + O(n \log n) \Rightarrow T(n) = O(n \log^2 n)$$

**Q.** Can we achieve  $O(n \log n)$ ?

**A.** Yes. Don't sort points in strip from scratch each time.

- Each recursive returns two lists: all points sorted by  $y$  coordinate, and all points sorted by  $x$  coordinate.
- Sort by **merging** two pre-sorted lists.

$$T(n) \leq 2T(n/2) + O(n) \Rightarrow T(n) = O(n \log n)$$

## 5.5 Integer Multiplication

### Integer Arithmetic

**Add.** Given two n-digit integers a and b, compute a + b.

- $O(n)$  bit operations.

**Multiply.** Given two n-digit integers a and b, compute a × b.

- Brute force solution:  $\Theta(n^2)$  bit operations.

Add

```

1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1
+ 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 1
-----
1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0
            
```

Multiply

```

          1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1
        * 0 1 1 1 1 0 1
        -----
          1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0
         0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
        1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0
       1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0
      1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0
     1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0
    0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
   -----
  0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0
            
```

### Multiplying Faster

If you analyze our usual grade school algorithm for multiplying numbers

- $\Theta(n^2)$  time
- On real machines each "digit" is, e.g., 32 bits long but still get  $\Theta(n^2)$  running time with this algorithm when run on n-bit multiplication

**We can do better!**

- We'll describe the basic ideas by multiplying polynomials rather than integers
- Advantage is we don't get confused by worrying about carries at first

### Notes on Polynomials

These are just formal sequences of coefficients

- when we show something multiplied by  $x^k$  it just means shifted  $k$  places to the left - basically no work

Usual polynomial multiplication

$$\begin{array}{r}
 4x^2 + 2x + 2 \\
 \underline{x^2 - 3x + 1} \\
 4x^2 + 2x + 2 \\
 -12x^3 - 6x^2 - 6x \\
 \underline{4x^4 + 2x^3 + 2x^2} \\
 4x^4 - 10x^3 + 0x^2 - 4x + 2
 \end{array}$$

### Polynomial Multiplication

Given:

- Degree  $n-1$  polynomials  $P$  and  $Q$
- $P = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_{n-2} x^{n-2} + a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$
- $Q = b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 x^2 + \dots + b_{n-2} x^{n-2} + b_{n-1} x^{n-1}$

Compute:

- Degree  $2n-2$  Polynomial  $PQ$
- $PQ = a_0 b_0 + (a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0) x + (a_0 b_2 + a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_0) x^2 + \dots + (a_{n-2} b_{n-1} + a_{n-1} b_{n-2}) x^{2n-3} + a_{n-1} b_{n-1} x^{2n-2}$

**Obvious Algorithm:**

- Compute all  $a_i b_j$  and collect terms
- $\Theta(n^2)$  time

### Naive Divide and Conquer

Assume  $n=2k$

- $P = (a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_{k-2} x^{k-2} + a_{k-1} x^{k-1}) + (a_k + a_{k+1} x + \dots + a_{n-2} x^{k-2} + a_{n-1} x^{k-1}) x^k$   
 $= P_0 + P_1 x^k$  where  $P_0$  and  $P_1$  are degree  $k-1$  polynomials
- Similarly  $Q = Q_0 + Q_1 x^k$
- $PQ = (P_0 + P_1 x^k)(Q_0 + Q_1 x^k) = P_0 Q_0 + (P_1 Q_0 + P_0 Q_1) x^k + P_1 Q_1 x^{2k}$
- 4 sub-problems of size  $k=n/2$  plus linear combining  
 $T(n)=4 \cdot T(n/2)+cn$  Solution  $T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$

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### Karatsuba's Algorithm

A better way to compute the terms

- Compute
  - $A \leftarrow P_0 Q_0$
  - $B \leftarrow P_1 Q_1$
  - $C \leftarrow (P_0 + P_1)(Q_0 + Q_1) = P_0 Q_0 + P_1 Q_0 + P_0 Q_1 + P_1 Q_1$
- Then
  - $P_0 Q_1 + P_1 Q_0 = C - A - B$
  - So  $PQ = A + (C - A - B)x^k + Bx^{2k}$
- 3 sub-problems of size  $n/2$  plus  $O(n)$  work
  - $T(n) = 3 T(n/2) + cn$
  - $T(n) = O(n^\alpha)$  where  $\alpha = \log_2 3 = 1.59\dots$

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### Multiplication

#### Polynomials

- Naïve:  $\Theta(n^2)$
- Karatsuba:  $\Theta(n^{1.59\dots})$
- Best known:  $\Theta(n \log n)$ 
  - "Fast Fourier Transform"
  - FFT widely used for signal processing

#### Integers

- Similar, but some ugly details re: carries, etc. gives  $\Theta(n \log n \log \log n)$ ,
  - mostly unused in practice except for symbolic manipulation systems like Maple

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### Matrix Multiplication



### Multiplying Matrices

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} & a_{44} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} & b_{14} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} & b_{24} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33} & b_{34} \\ b_{41} & b_{42} & b_{43} & b_{44} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 b_{11} + a_2 b_{21} + a_3 b_{31} + a_4 b_{41} & a_1 b_{12} + a_2 b_{22} + a_3 b_{32} + a_4 b_{42} & a_1 b_{13} + a_2 b_{23} + a_3 b_{33} + a_4 b_{43} & a_1 b_{14} + a_2 b_{24} + a_3 b_{34} + a_4 b_{44} \\ a_2 b_{11} + a_3 b_{21} + a_4 b_{31} + a_1 b_{41} & a_2 b_{12} + a_3 b_{22} + a_4 b_{32} + a_1 b_{42} & a_2 b_{13} + a_3 b_{23} + a_4 b_{33} + a_1 b_{43} & a_2 b_{14} + a_3 b_{24} + a_4 b_{34} + a_1 b_{44} \\ a_3 b_{11} + a_4 b_{21} + a_1 b_{31} + a_2 b_{41} & a_3 b_{12} + a_4 b_{22} + a_1 b_{32} + a_2 b_{42} & a_3 b_{13} + a_4 b_{23} + a_1 b_{33} + a_2 b_{43} & a_3 b_{14} + a_4 b_{24} + a_1 b_{34} + a_2 b_{44} \\ a_4 b_{11} + a_1 b_{21} + a_2 b_{31} + a_3 b_{41} & a_4 b_{12} + a_1 b_{22} + a_2 b_{32} + a_3 b_{42} & a_4 b_{13} + a_1 b_{23} + a_2 b_{33} + a_3 b_{43} & a_4 b_{14} + a_1 b_{24} + a_2 b_{34} + a_3 b_{44} \end{bmatrix}$$

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### Simple Divide and Conquer

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

$T(n) = 8T(n/2) + 4(n/2)^2 = 8T(n/2) + n^2$   
 •  $8 > 2^2$  so  $T(n)$  is  $\Theta(n^{\log_2 8}) = \Theta(n^3)$

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### Strassen's Divide and Conquer Algorithm

Strassen's algorithm

- Multiply  $2 \times 2$  matrices using 7 instead of 8 multiplications (and lots more than 4 additions)
- $T(n) = 7T(n/2) + cn^2$   
 -  $7 > 2^2$  so  $T(n)$  is  $\Theta(n^{\log_2 7})$  which is  $O(n^{2.81...})$
- Fastest algorithms theoretically use  $O(n^{2.376})$  time  
 - not practical but Strassen's is practical provided calculations are exact and we stop recursion when matrix has size about 100 (maybe 10)

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### The algorithm

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_1 &\leftarrow A_{12}(B_{11} + B_{21}); & P_2 &\leftarrow A_{21}(B_{12} + B_{22}) \\
 P_3 &\leftarrow (A_{11} - A_{12})B_{11}; & P_4 &\leftarrow (A_{22} - A_{21})B_{22} \\
 P_5 &\leftarrow (A_{22} - A_{12})(B_{21} - B_{22}) \\
 P_6 &\leftarrow (A_{11} - A_{21})(B_{12} - B_{11}) \\
 P_7 &\leftarrow (A_{21} - A_{12})(B_{11} + B_{22})
 \end{aligned}$$

7 multiplications.  
18 = 10 + 8 additions (or subtractions).

$$\begin{aligned}
 C_{11} &\leftarrow P_1 + P_3; & C_{12} &\leftarrow P_2 + P_3 + P_6 - P_7 \\
 C_{21} &\leftarrow P_1 + P_4 + P_5 + P_7; & C_{22} &\leftarrow P_2 + P_4
 \end{aligned}$$

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### Fast Matrix Multiplication in Practice

#### Implementation issues.

- Sparsity.
- Caching effects.
- Numerical stability.
- Odd matrix dimensions.
- Crossover to classical algorithm around  $n = 128$ .

#### Common misperception: "Strassen is only a theoretical curiosity."

- Advanced Computation Group at Apple Computer reports 8x speedup on G4 Velocity Engine when  $n \sim 2,500$ .
- Range of instances where it's useful is a subject of controversy.

**Remark.** Can "Strassenize"  $Ax=b$ , determinant, eigenvalues, and other matrix ops.

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### Fast Matrix Multiplication in Theory

Q. Multiply two 2-by-2 matrices with only 7 scalar multiplications?

A. Yes! [Strassen, 1969]  $\Theta(n^{\log_2 7}) = O(n^{2.81})$

Q. Multiply two 2-by-2 matrices with only 6 scalar multiplications?

A. Impossible. [Hopcroft and Kerr, 1971]  $\Theta(n^{\log_2 6}) = O(n^{2.59})$

Q. Two 3-by-3 matrices with only 21 scalar multiplications?

A. Also impossible.  $\Theta(n^{\log_3 21}) = O(n^{2.77})$

Q. Two 70-by-70 matrices with only 143,640 scalar multiplications?

A. Yes! [Pan, 1980]  $\Theta(n^{\log_{70} 143640}) = O(n^{2.80})$

#### Decimal wars.

- December, 1979:  $O(n^{2.521813})$ .
- January, 1980:  $O(n^{2.521801})$ .

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### Fast Matrix Multiplication in Theory

Until Oct 2011.  $O(n^{2.376})$  [Coppersmith-Winograd, 1987.]

Best known.  $O(n^{2.373})$  [V. Williams, Nov 2011]

Conjecture.  $O(n^{2+\epsilon})$  for any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

**Caveat.** not practical but Strassen's is practical provided calculations are exact and we stop recursion when matrix has size about 100 (maybe 10)

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