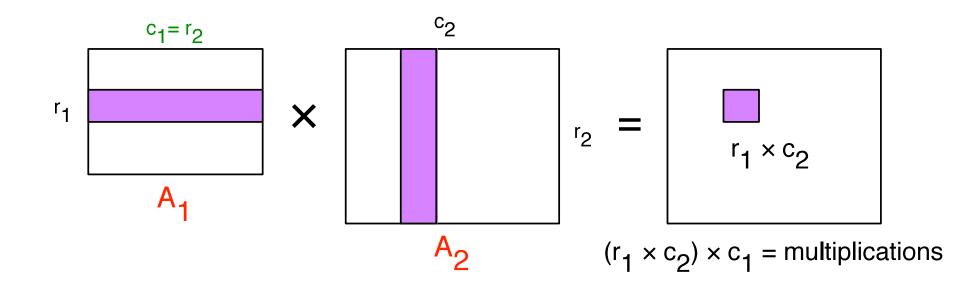
Matrix and Integer Multiplication

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(Thanks to Carl Kingsford for some of these slides)

Matrix Multiplication



If $r_1 = c_1 = r_2 = c_2 = N$, this standard approach takes $\Theta(N^3)$:

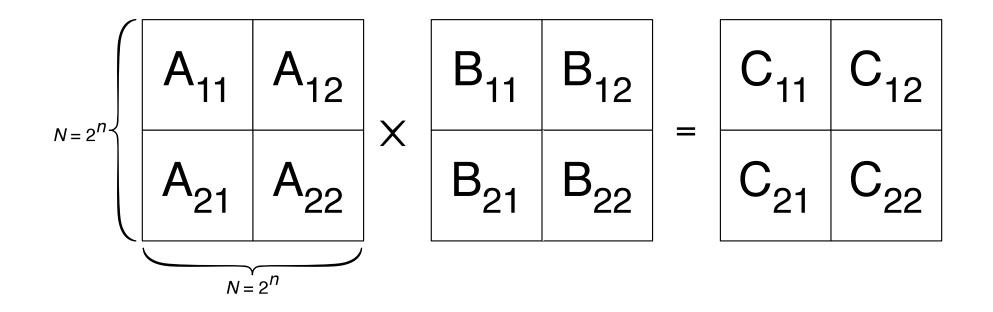
- For every row \vec{r} (*N* of them)
- For every column \vec{c} (*N* of them)
- Take their inner product: $r \cdot c$ using N multiplications

Matrix Multiplication Properties

- $\ensuremath{\,\bullet\)}$ Suppose A is in $R^{nx\,k}$ and B is in $R^{kx\,m}$
- In general AB \neq BA
- If C is in R^{mxt} , then (AB) C = A(BC)
- If C is in R^{kxm} , then A(B+C) = AB + AC

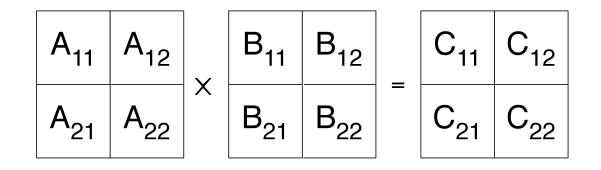
Can we multiply faster than $\Theta(N^3)$?

For simplicity, assume $N = 2^n$ for some *n*. The multiplication is:



$$C_{11} = A_{11}B_{11} + A_{12}B_{21}$$
 $C_{12} = A_{11}B_{12} + A_{12}B_{22}$
 $C_{21} = A_{21}B_{11} + A_{22}B_{21}$
 $C_{22} = A_{21}B_{12} + A_{22}B_{22}$
 Uses 8 multiplications
 T(N) = 8T(N/2) + c N^2 Master Formula => T(N) = Theta(N^2)

Strassen's Algorithm



$$P_{1} = (A_{11} + A_{22})(B_{11} + B_{22})$$

$$P_{2} = (A_{21} + A_{22})B_{11}$$

$$P_{3} = A_{11}(B_{12} - B_{22})$$

$$P_{4} = A_{22}(B_{21} - B_{11})$$

$$P_{5} = (A_{11} + A_{12})B_{22}$$

$$P_{6} = (A_{21} - A_{11})(B_{11} + B_{12})$$

$$P_{7} = (A_{12} - A_{22})(B_{21} + B_{22})$$

$$C_{11} = P_1 + P_4 - P_5 + P_7$$

$$C_{12} = P_3 + P_5$$

$$C_{21} = P_2 + P_4$$

$$C_{22} = P_1 - P_2 + P_3 + P_6$$

Uses only 7 multiplications!

Since the submatrix multiplications are the expensive operations, we save a lot by eliminating one of them.

Apply the above idea recursively to perform the 7 matrix multiplications contained in P_1, \ldots, P_7 .

Need to show how much savings this results in overall.

Recurrence

$$T(N) = T(2^{n}) = \underbrace{TT(2^{n}/2)}_{\text{recursive } \times} + \underbrace{C4^{n}}_{\text{additions}}$$

Solving the recurrence:

$$\frac{T(2^n)}{7^n} = \frac{7T(2^{n-1})}{7^n} + \frac{c4^n}{7^n} = \frac{T(2^{n-1})}{7^{n-1}} + \frac{c4^n}{7^n}$$

The red term is same as the left-hand side but with n - 1, so we can recursively expand:

$$\frac{T(2^n)}{7^n} = \gamma + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{c4^i}{7^i} = \gamma + c \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{4}{7}\right)^i \le \alpha \quad \text{for some constants } \alpha, \gamma$$

So:

$$T(2^n) \le 7^n \alpha = \alpha 2^{n \log_2(7)} = \alpha N^{2.807...} = O(N^{2.807...})$$

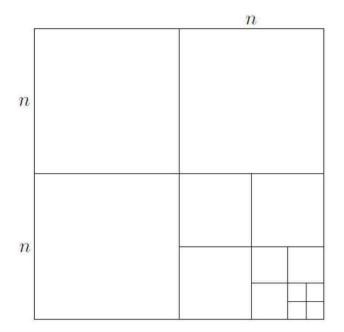
Space Complexity of Strassen's Algorithm

- Use the same memory for each recursive call
- Start with memory for the two input matrices and output matrix
- Let W(n) be the memory of Strassen's algorithm to multiply n x n matrices
- Allocate W $\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)$ memory for recursive computation of P₁
 - When done, add the output to C_{11} and C_{22}
 - Then *reuse* your $W\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)$ memory to compute each of $P_2, ..., P_7$
- W(n) = $3n^2 + W\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)$

Bounding the Space Complexity

$$W(n) = 3n^2 + W\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)$$

 $W(n) \le 4n^2$



Fast Matrix Multiplication: 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."

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

Remark. Can "Strassenize" Ax = b, determinant, eigenvalues, SVD,

Fast Matrix Multiplication: Theory

- Q. Multiply two 2-by-2 matrices with 7 scalar multiplications?
- A. Yes! [Strassen 1969]
- Q. Multiply two 2-by-2 matrices with 6 scalar multiplications?
- A. Impossible. [Hopcroft and Kerr 1971]
- Q. Two 3-by-3 matrices with 21 scalar multiplications?
- A. Also impossible.

$$\Theta(n^{\log_3 21}) = O(n^{2.77})$$

 $\Theta(n^{\log_2 6}) = O(n^{2.59})$

 $\Theta(n^{\log_2 7}) = O(n^{2.807})$

Begun, the decimal wars have. [Pan, Bini et al, Schönhage, ...]

- Two 20-by-20 matrices with 4,460 scalar multiplications.
- **Two** 48-by-48 matrices with 47,217 scalar multiplications.
- A year later.
 December, 1979.
 January, 1980.

$$O(n^{2.805})$$

$$O(n^{2.7801})$$

$$O(n^{2.7799})$$

$$O(n^{2.521813})$$

$$O(n^{2.521801})$$

Fast Matrix Multiplication: Theory

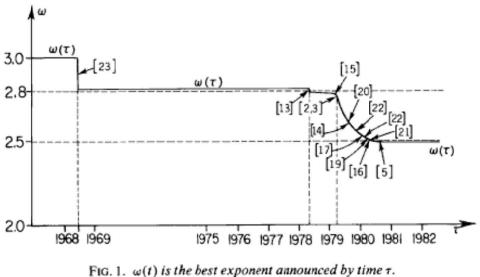


FIG. 1. $\omega(t)$ is the best exponent announced by time τ .

Best known. $O(n^{2.376})$ [Coppersmith-Winograd, 1987]

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

Caveat. Theoretical improvements to Strassen are progressively less practical.

Summary

- Strassen first to show matrix multiplication can be done faster than $O(N^3)$ time.
- Strassen's algorithm gives a performance improvement for large-ish N, depending on the architecture, e.g. N > 100 or N > 1000.
- Strassen's algorithm isn't optimal though! Over the years it's been improved:

Authors	Year	Runtime
Strassen	1969	$O(N^{2.807})$
: Coppersmith & Winograd Stothers	1990 2010	$O(N^{2.3754})$ $O(N^{2.3736})$
Williams	2011	$O(N^{2.3727})$

• Conjecture: an $O(N^2)$ algorithm exists.

Karatsuba's Algorithm for Integer Multiplication

Complex Multiplication

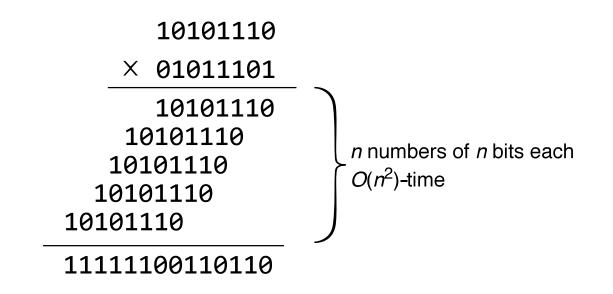
Complex multiplication. (a + bi) (c + di) = x + yi.

Grade-school.
$$x = ac - bd$$
, $y = bc + ad$.
4 multiplications, 2 additions

Q. Is it possible to do with fewer multiplications? A. Yes. [Gauss] x = ac - bd, y = (a + b)(c + d) - ac - bd. 3 multiplications, 5 additions

Remark. Improvement if no hardware multiply.

Integer Multiplication



Start similar to Strassen's algorithm, breaking the items into blocks (m = n/2):

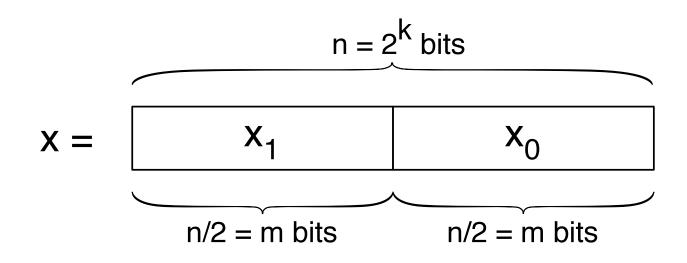
•
$$x = x_1 2^m + x_0$$

• $y = y_1 2^m + y_0$

Then:

$$xy = (x_12^m + x_0)(y_12^m + y_0) = x_1y_12^{2m} + (x_1y_0 + x_0y_1)2^m + x_0y_0$$

Breaking x and y into blocks



 $x_1 2^m$ can be computed via "shift right by m"

So this multiplication only costs O(n) operations.

T(n) = 4T(n/2) + O(n) Master Formula => $T(n) = Theta(n^2)$

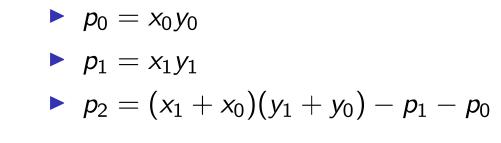
4 Multiplications \rightarrow 3 Multiplications

 $xy = x_1y_12^{2m} + (x_1y_0 + x_0y_1)2^m + x_0y_0$

We can write two multiplications as one, plus some subtractions:

$$x_1y_0 + x_0y_1 = (x_1 + x_0)(y_1 + y_0) - x_1y_1 - x_0y_0$$

But what we need to subtract is exactly what we need for the original multiplication!



$$xy = p_1 2^{2m} + p_2 2^m + p_0$$

Analysis

Assume $n = 2^k$ for some k (this is the common case when the integers are stored in computer words):

 $T(2^{k}) = 3T(2^{k-1}) + c2^{k}$ $\frac{T(2^{k})}{3^{k}} = \frac{T(2^{k-1})}{3^{k-1}} + \frac{c2^{k}}{3^{k}}$ $= \gamma + c\sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{2^{i}}{3^{i}}$ $\leq \beta \quad \text{for some constants } \gamma, \beta$

(γ handles the constant work for the base case.) So:

$$T(2^k) \le \beta 3^k = \beta (2^k)^{\log_2(3)} = \beta n^{\log_2(3)} = O(n^{1.58...})$$

Implementation Details

- Karatsuba is usually faster than naïve multiplication for 320-640 bit numbers
- $p_2 = (x_1 + x_0)(y_1 + y_0) p_1 p_0$
- $(x_1 + x_0)$ and $(y_1 + y_0)$ could be a number of size 2^{m+1} , which might need an extra bit
- But note $p_2 = (x_0 x_1)(y_1 y_0) + p_1 + p_0$
- We might need a bit to encode the sign of $(x_0 x_1)$ and of $(y_1 y_0)$
- You can instead record the sign, and multiply the absolute values of these numbers
- One advantage is the final computation of p_2 now involves no subtractions

Toom-Cook Multiplication

- Karatsuba's algorithm reduces 4 multiplications to 3
 - Runs in $\Theta(n^{(\log 3)/(\log 2)}) = \Theta(n^{1.58})$ time
- The Toom-3 algorithm splits numbers into 3 parts and reduces 9 multiplications to 5
 - Runs in $\Theta(n^{(\log 5)/(\log 3)}) = \Theta(n^{1.46})$ time
- The Toom-k algorithm splits numbers into k parts
 - Runs in $\Theta(c(k) n^{\frac{\log(2k-1)}{\log(k)}})$
 - Optimizing gives $\Theta(n2^{\sqrt{(2 \log n)}} \log n)$ time

What's Really Going On?

- $\bullet \ x = \ x_1 \cdot 2^m + x_0 \quad \text{and} \quad y = y_1 \cdot 2^m + y_0$
- $P(z) = x_1 z + x_0$ and $Q(z) = y_1 z + y_0$
- $x \cdot y = P(2^m) \cdot Q(2^m)$, so integer multiplication can be solved with polynomial multiplication!
- Karatsuba's algorithm is a special case of a fast algorithm for polynomial multiplication. We will discuss polynomials more the next few lectures.
- Using the Fast Fourier Transform to multiply polynomials:
 - Schonage-Strassen algorithm for integer multiplication: O(n log n log log n) time
 - Harvey-van der Hoeven algorithm for integer multiplication: O(n log n) time

Polynomials

- Polynomial: $p(x) = c_d x^d + c_{d-1} x^{d-1} + \dots + c_1 x + c_0$
- $(c_d, c_{d-1}, ..., c_0)$ completely describes p
- Addition can be done in O(d) time
- Multiplication can be done in O(d log d) time using the FFT
- Evaluation can be done in O(d) time

Evaluating a Polynomial Quickly

- Polynomial: $p(x) = c_d x^d + c_{d-1} x^{d-1} + \dots + c_1 x + c_0$
- Evaluate at a point b in time O(d) using Horner's Rule:
- Compute: c_d

$$c_{d-1} + c_d \cdot b$$

$$c_{d-2} + c_{d-1} \cdot b + c_d \cdot b^2$$

...

• Each step has O(1) operations – multiply by and add coefficient

Polynomial Degree

- Polynomial: $p(x) = c_d x^d + c_{d-1} x^{d-1} + \dots + c_1 x + c_0$
- If $c_d \neq 0$, the degree is d
- If A(x) has degree d and B(x) has degree d, then A(x) + B(x) has degree at most d

Why is the degree at most d?