



Remaining Module-1

B Trees, Binomial Heap, Matrix Multiplication using DP

BCSC0012

Designing Techniques of Algorithms

Design and Analysis of Algorithms

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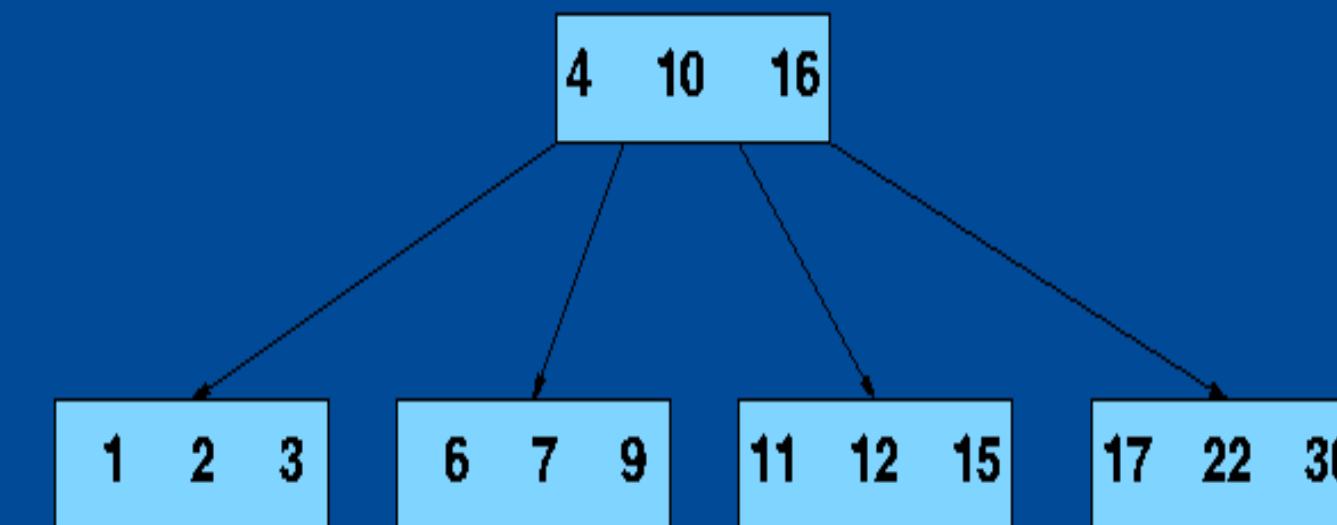
Designing Techniques of Algorithms

01
B Trees

02
Binomial Heap

03
Matrix Chain Multiplication using Dynamic
Programming





01

B Trees



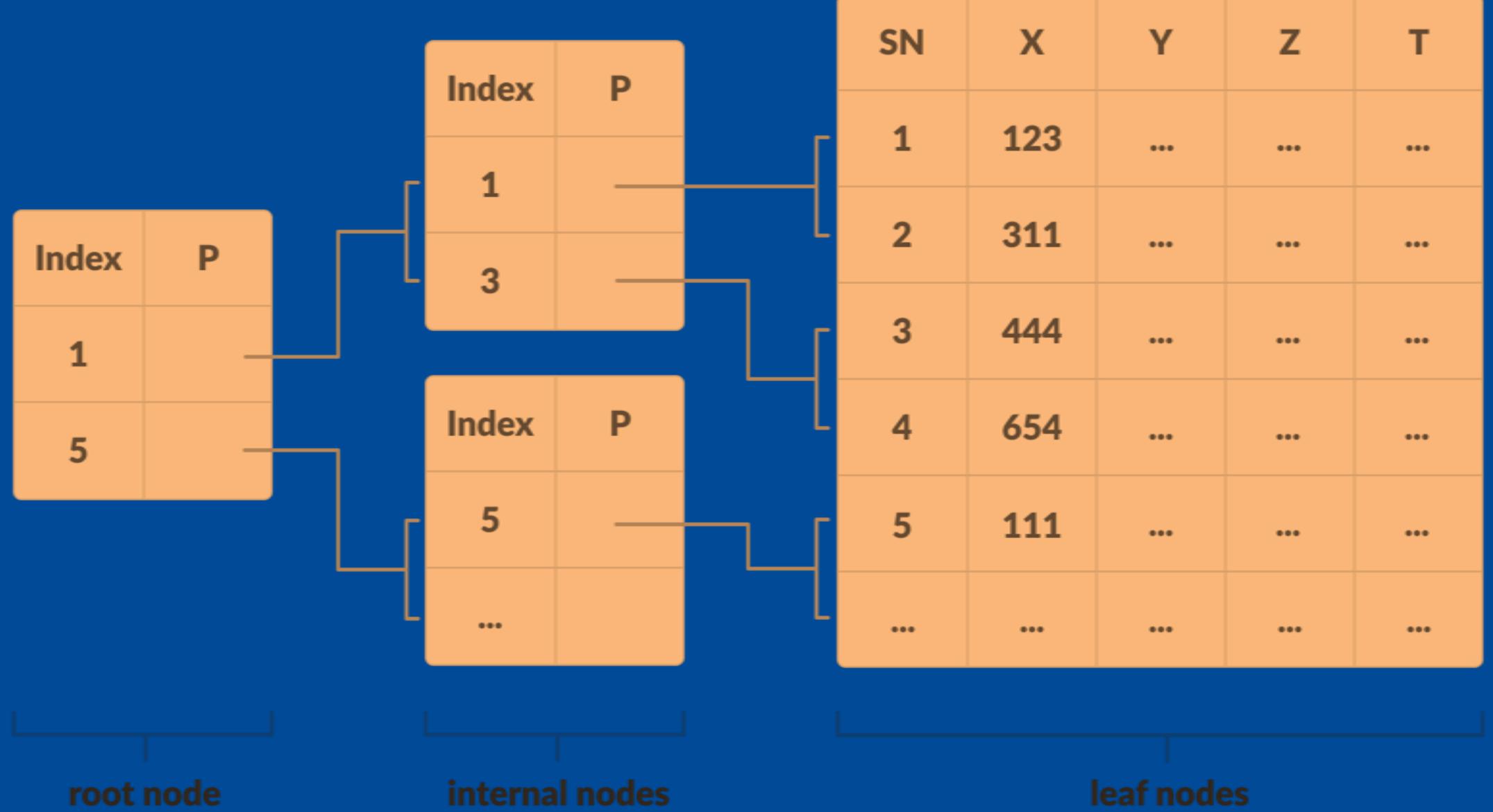
B Trees

- **B-Tree is a self-balancing search tree**, It is a specialized form of m-way search tree that can be widely used for disk access in the form of **multilevel indexing**.
- In most of the other self-balancing search trees (like AVL and Red-Black Trees), it is assumed that everything is in main memory.
- To understand the use of B-Trees,
 - we must think of the huge amount of data that cannot fit in main memory.
 - Disk access time is very high compared to the main memory access time.
- The **main idea of using B-Trees is to reduce the number of disk accesses**.
- Another **main reason of using B tree is its capability to store large number of keys in a single node** and large key values by keeping the height of the tree relatively small. It is **also called Fat Tree**.





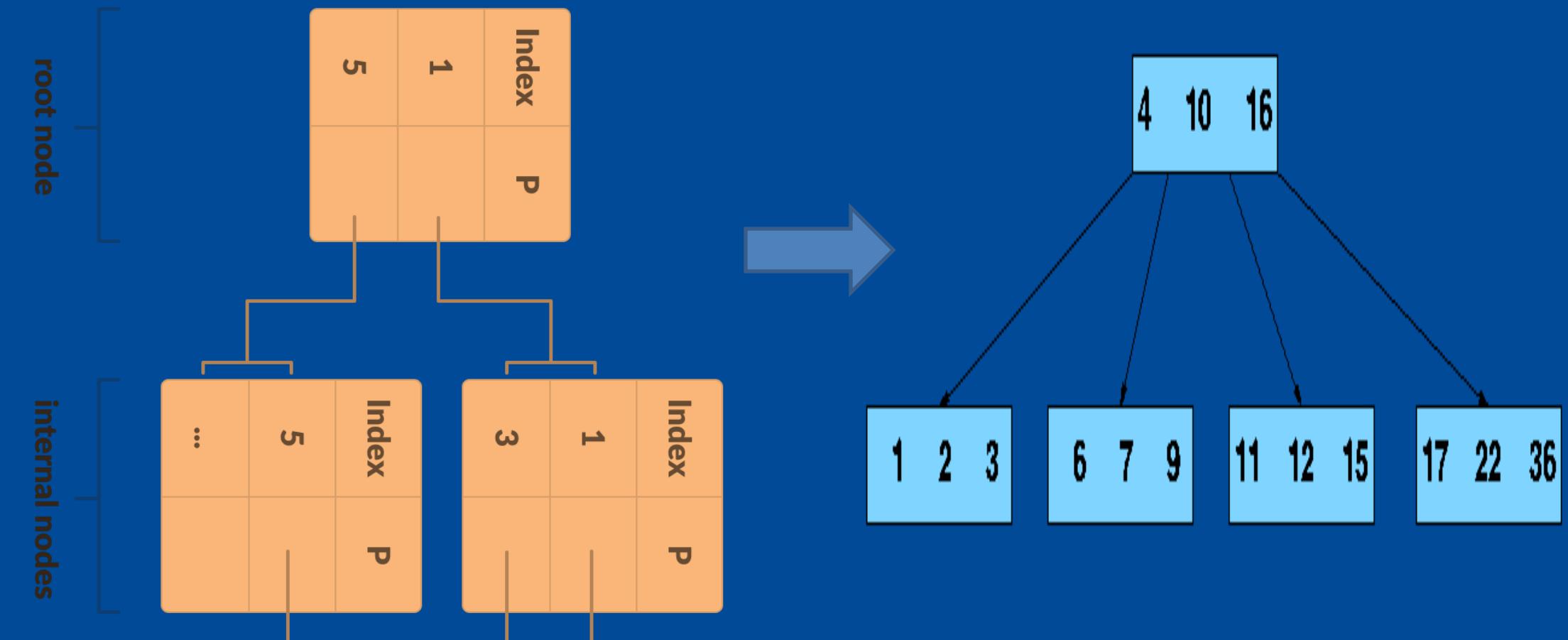
B Trees Multilevel Indexing





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Visualization of B Trees Multilevel Indexing





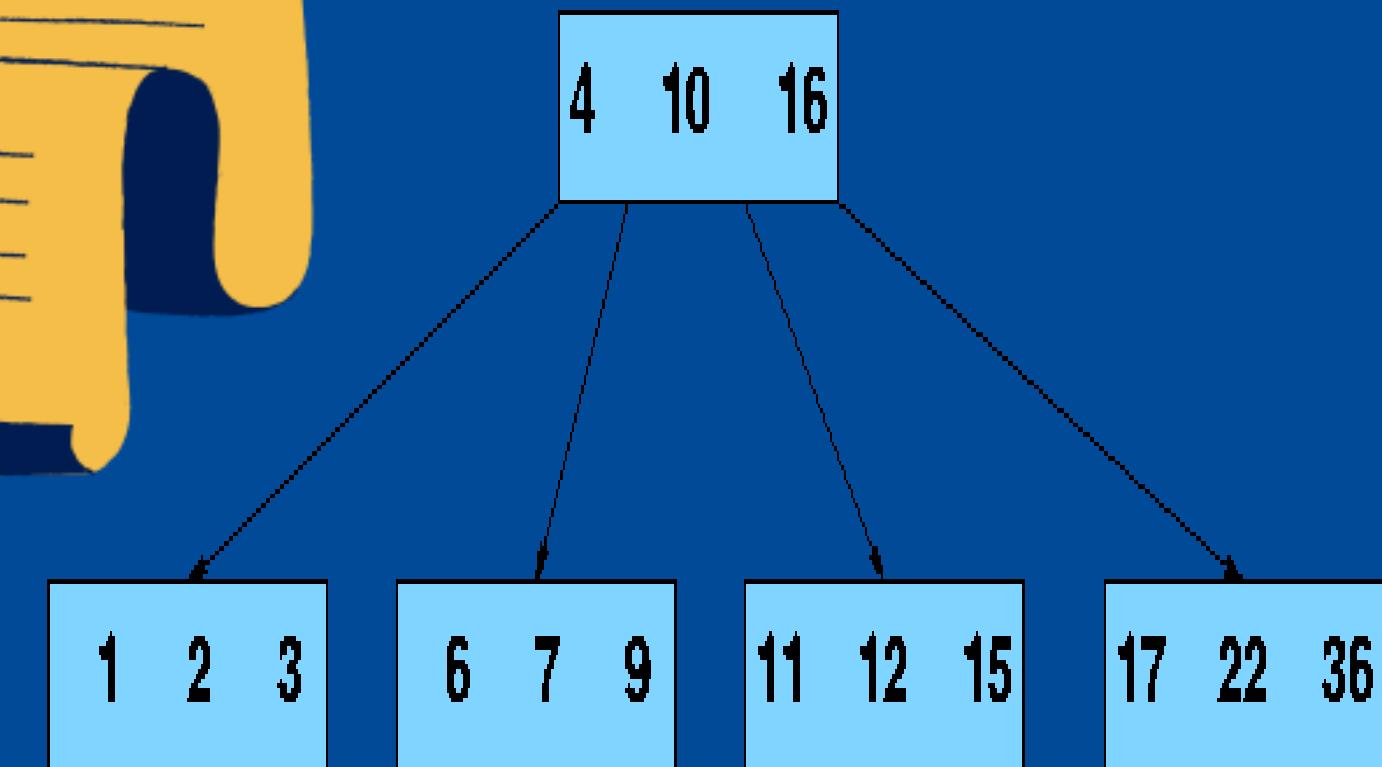
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Visualization of B Trees & Binary Search Tree

A B-Tree of order m can have at most $m-1$ keys and m children.

It is B Tree of order = 4

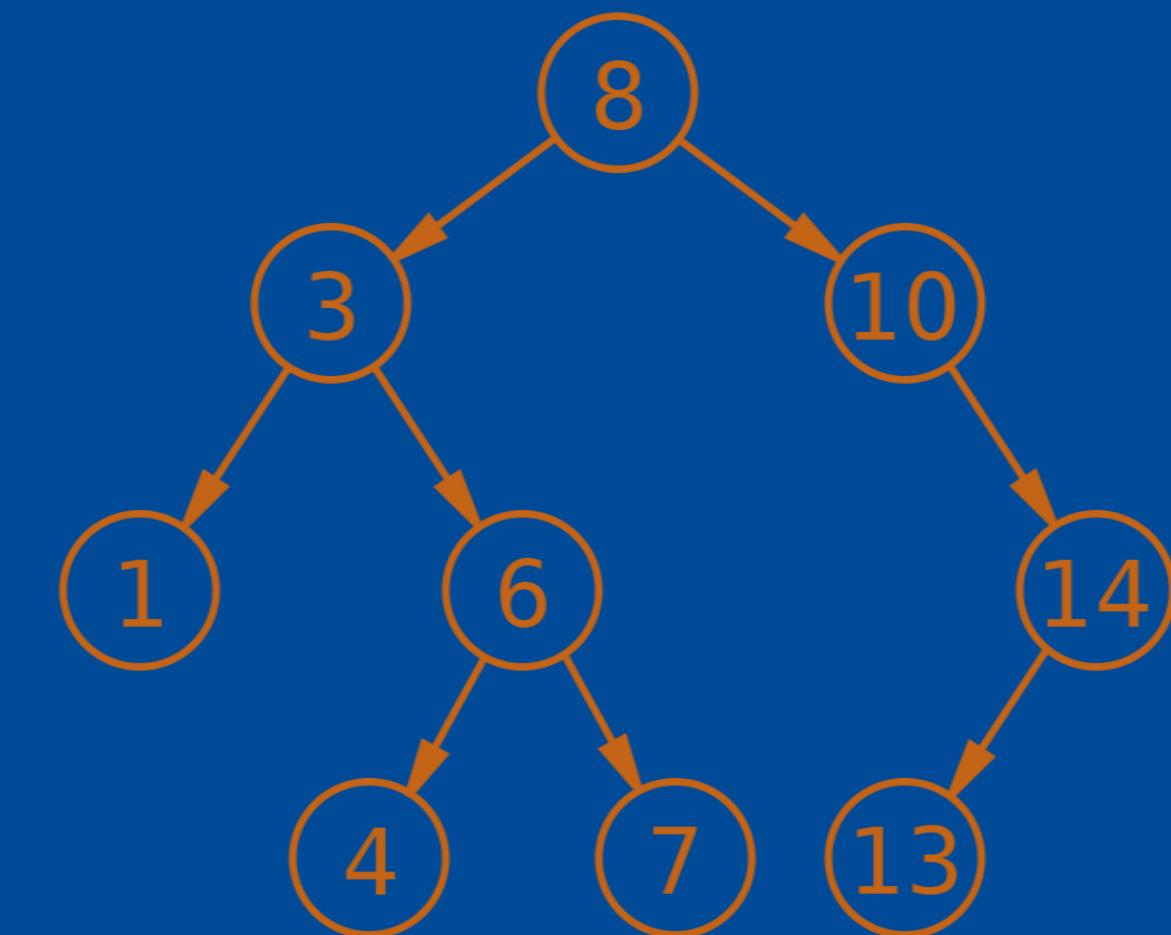
Means it can have maximum 4 children and each node can contain maximum 3 keys



B Tree
(Node contains max 3 Keys)

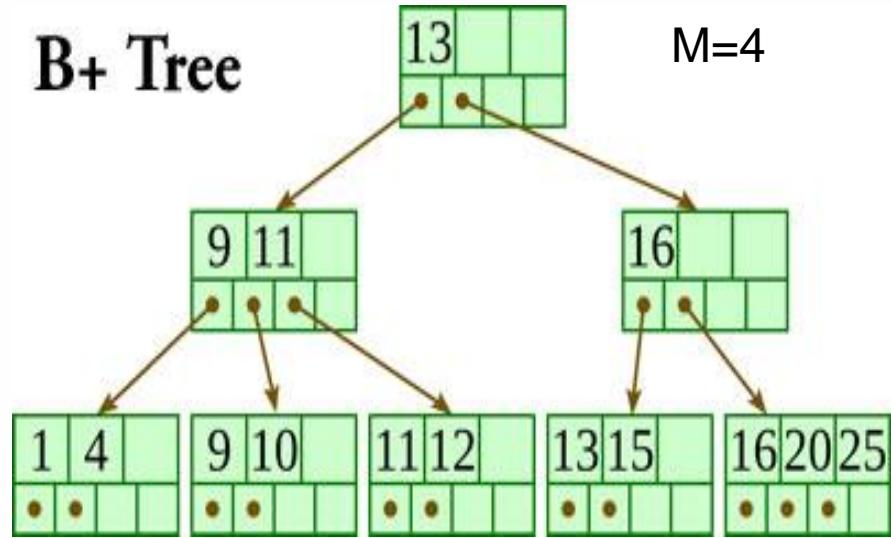
It is Binary Search Tree of order = 2

Means it can have maximum 2 children and each node can contain maximum 1 key



Binary Search Tree
(Node contains only one Key)

B Trees Properties



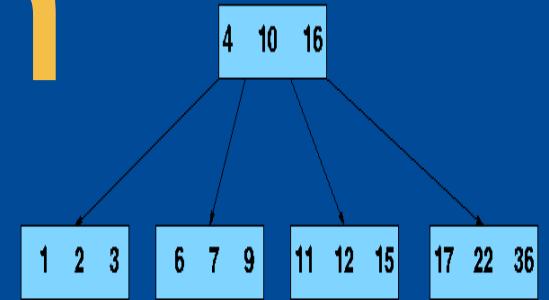
It contains the following properties.

- 1) Every node in a B-Tree of **order m** contains at most **m** children and **$m-1$ keys**.
- 2) Every non-leaf node (except root node) contain at least **$[m/2]$ children**.
- 3) The **root nodes must have at least 2 children**.
- 4) A node (except root node) should contain a **minimum of $[m/2] - 1$ keys**.
- 5) All keys of a node are sorted in increasing order. If an internal node has 3 child nodes (subtrees), then it must have 2 keys: a_1 and a_2 . All values in the leftmost subtree will be less than a_1 , all values in the middle subtree will be between a_1 and a_2 , and all values in the rightmost subtree will be greater than a_2 .
- 6) Insertion of a Node in B-Tree happens only at Leaf Node.
- 7) All leaf nodes must be at the same level.
- 8) Like other balanced Binary Search Trees, time complexity to search, insert and delete is $O(\log n)$.





B Trees Construction



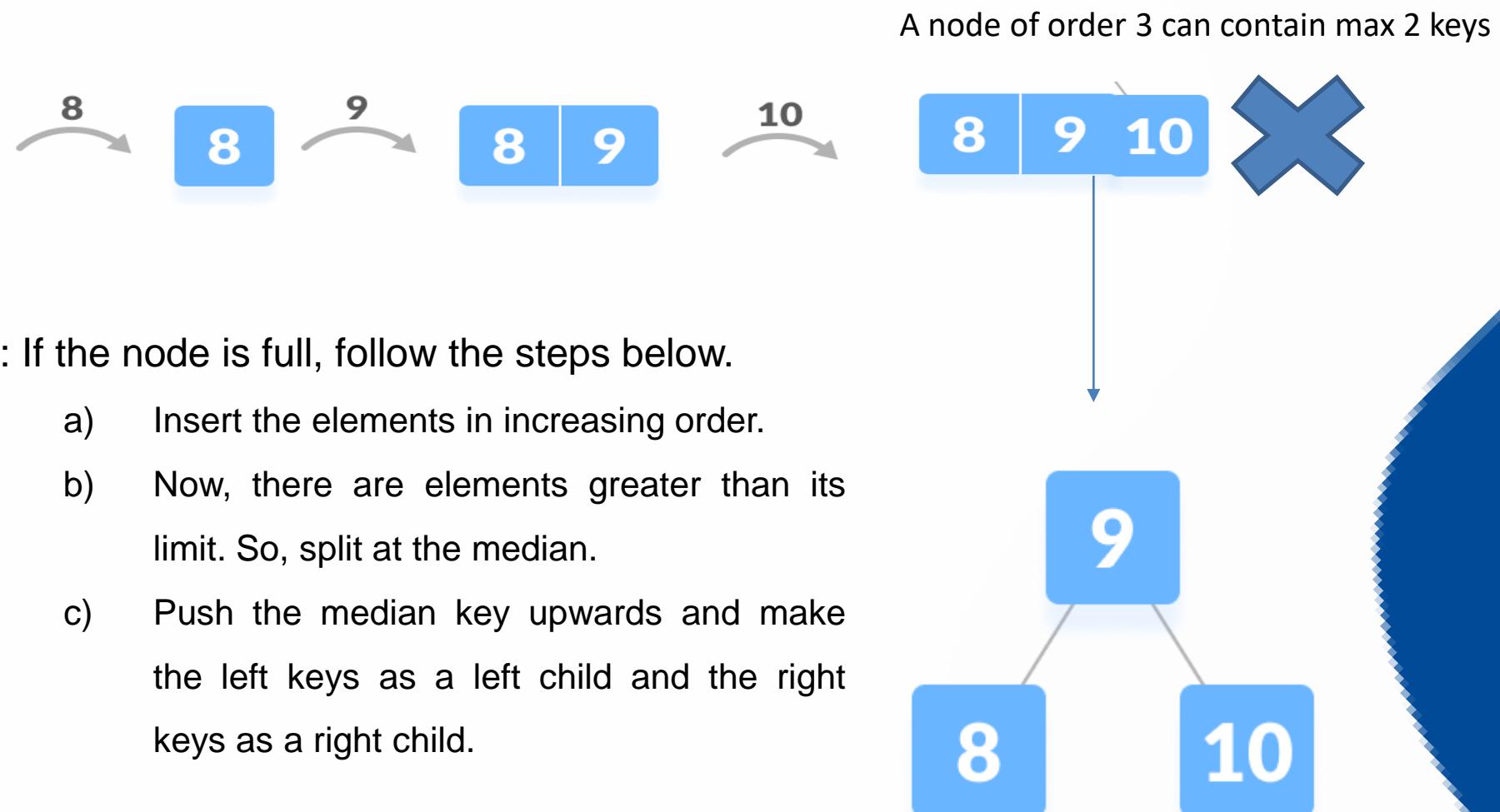
Insertion Operation

1. If the tree is empty, allocate a root node and insert the key.
2. Update the allowed number of keys in the node.
3. Search the appropriate node for insertion.
4. If the node is full, follow the steps below.
 - a) Insert the elements in increasing order.
 - b) Now, there are elements greater than its limit. So, split at the median.
 - c) Push the median key upwards and make the left keys as a left child and the right keys as a right child.
5. If the node is not full, follow the steps 2.



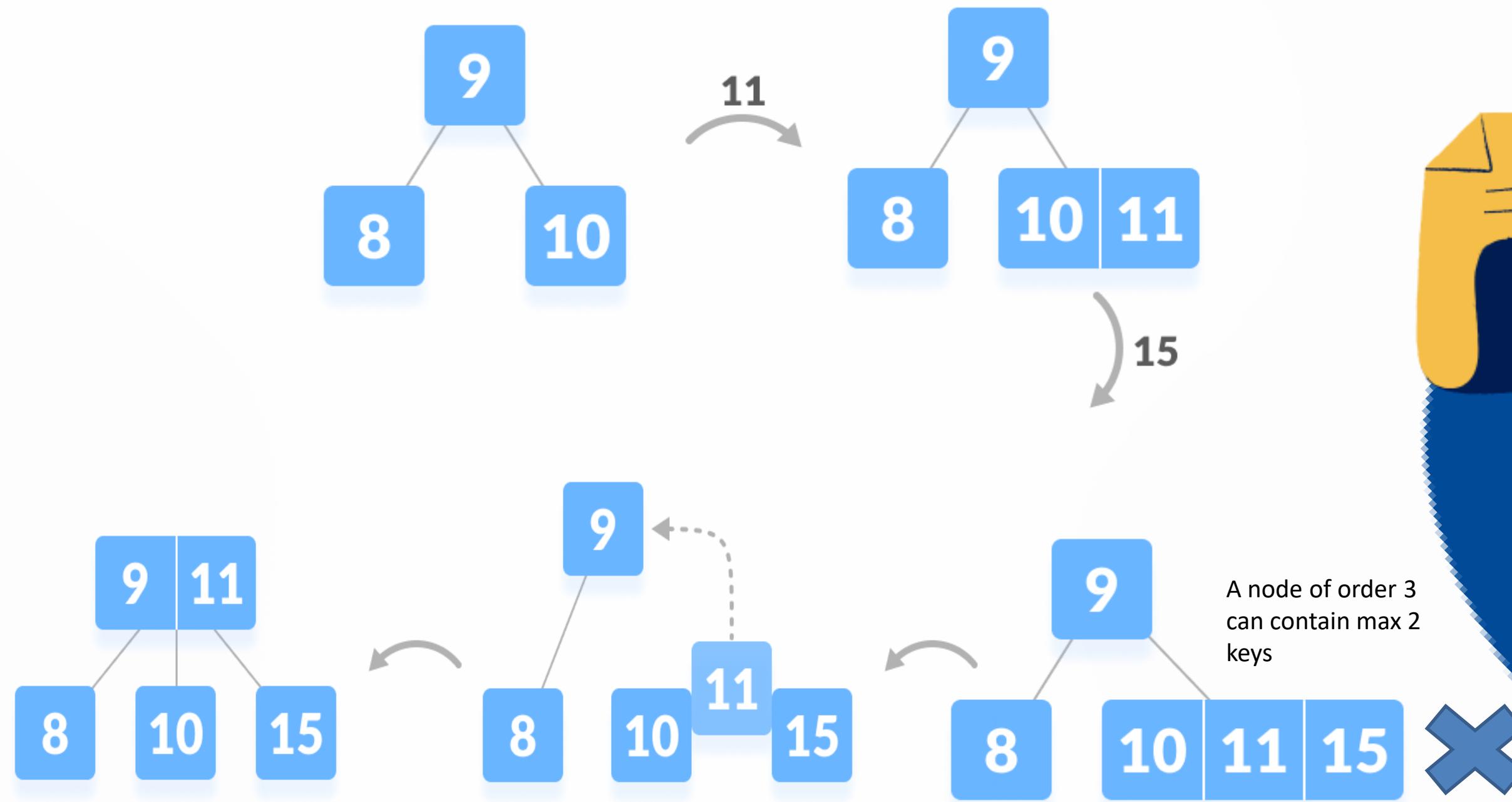
Example of B Trees Constructions

The keys are **8, 9, 10, 11, 15, 20, 17.** Order = 3



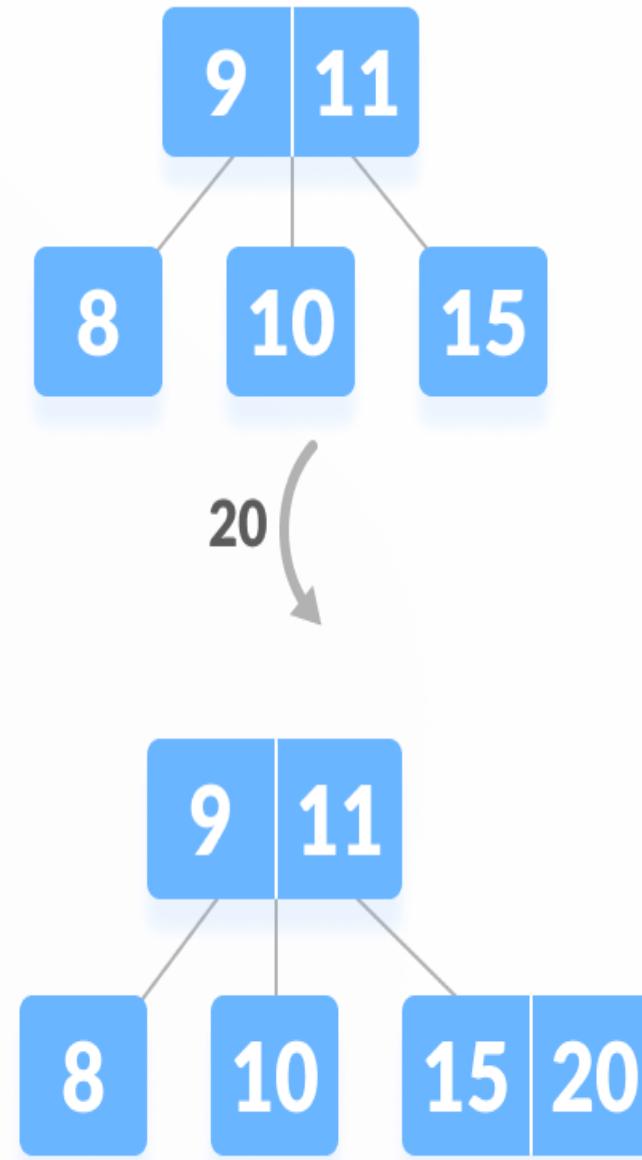
B Trees Constructions

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B Trees Constructions

The keys are **8, 9, 10, 11, 15, 20, 17**. Order = 3



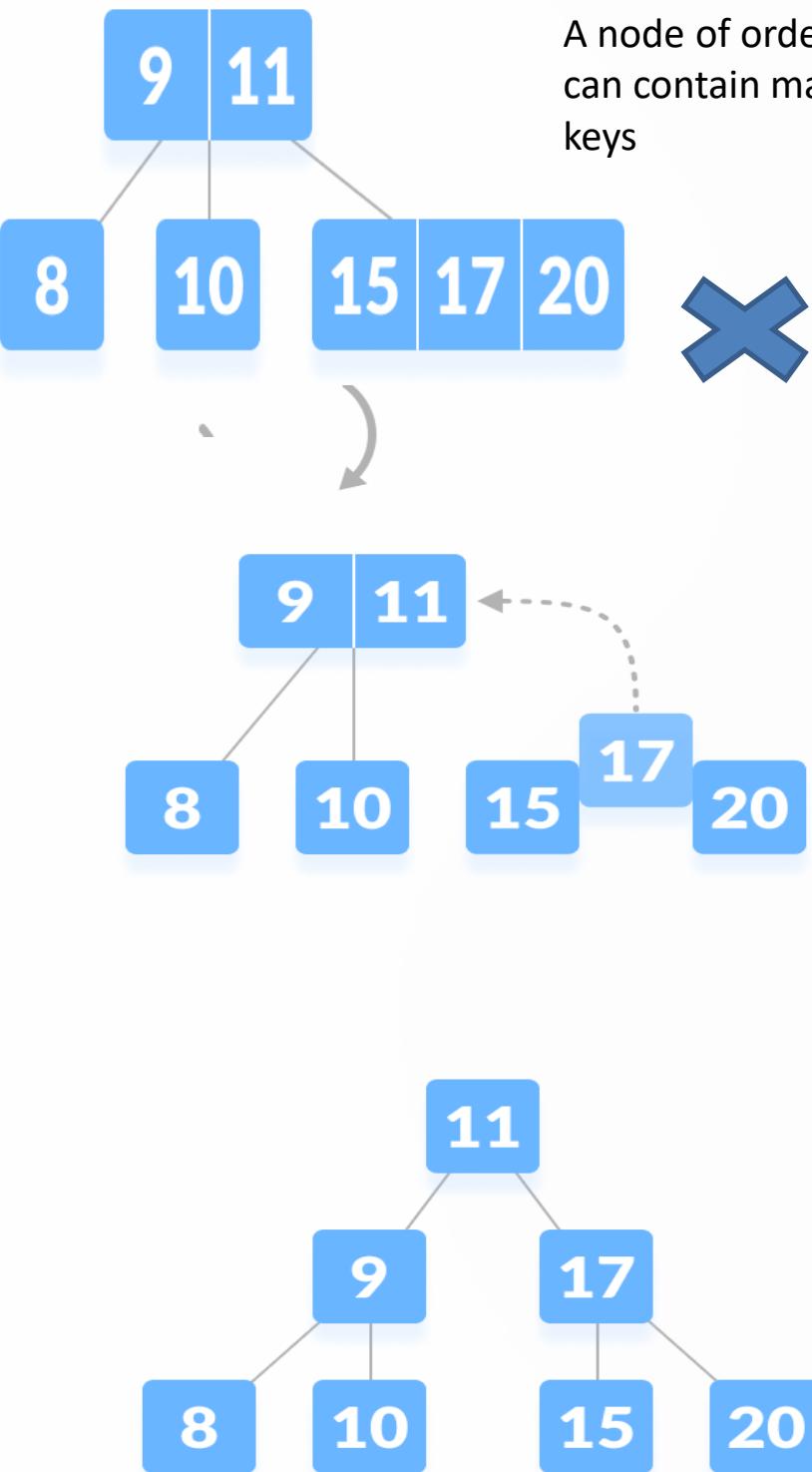
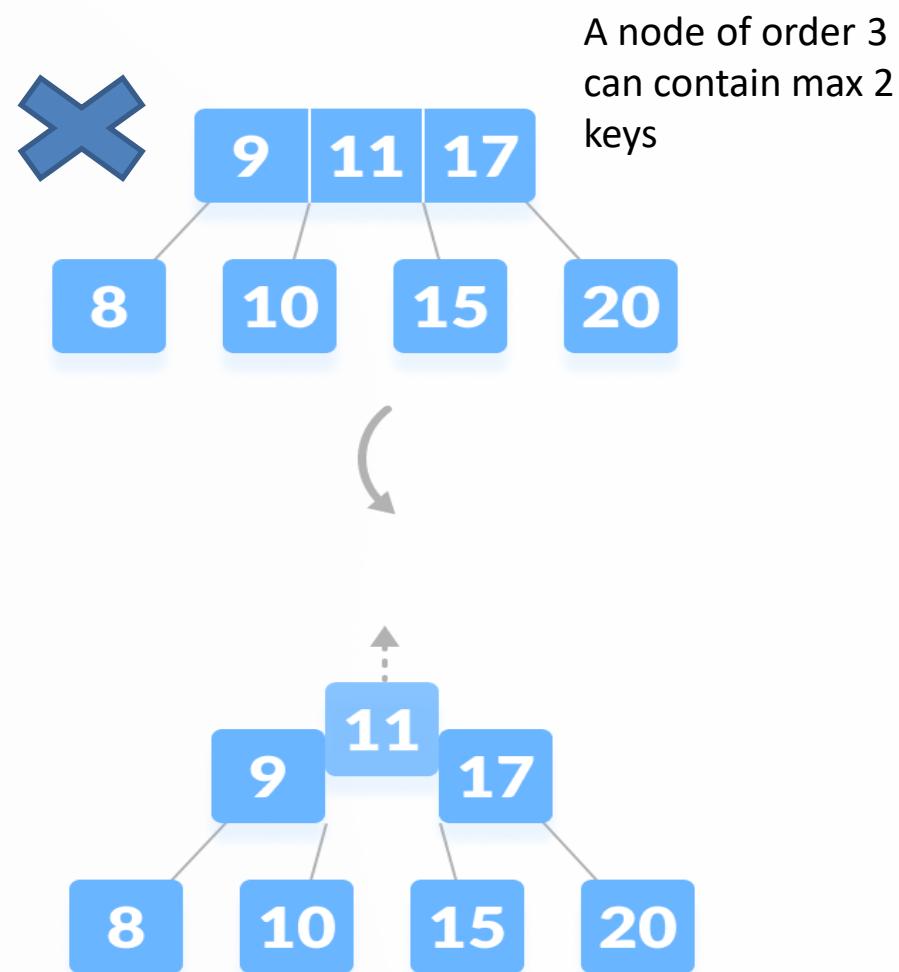
A node of order 3
can contain max 2
keys



B Trees Constructions

The keys are **8, 9, 10, 11, 15, 20, 17.**

Order = 3



Deletion from B Trees

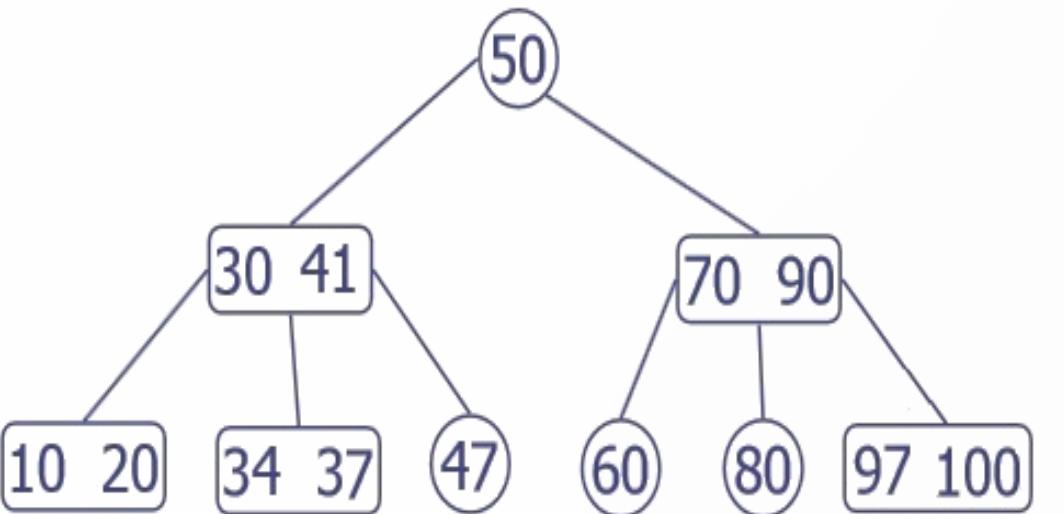
- Deleting an element on a B-tree consists of three main events:
 - I. searching the node where the key to be deleted exists,
 - II. deleting the key and
 - III. balancing the tree if required.
- While deleting a tree, a condition called **underflow** may occur.
- Underflow occurs when a node contains less than the minimum number of keys it should hold. A node (except root node) should contain a **minimum of $[m/2] - 1$ keys**.



Deletion from B Trees

The terms to be understood before studying deletion operation are:

- 1. Inorder Predecessor:** The largest key on the left child of a node is called its inorder predecessor.
Ex- inorder predecessor of 50 is 41.



- 2. Inorder Successor:** The smallest key on the right child of a node is called its inorder successor.
Ex- inorder successor of 50 is 70.



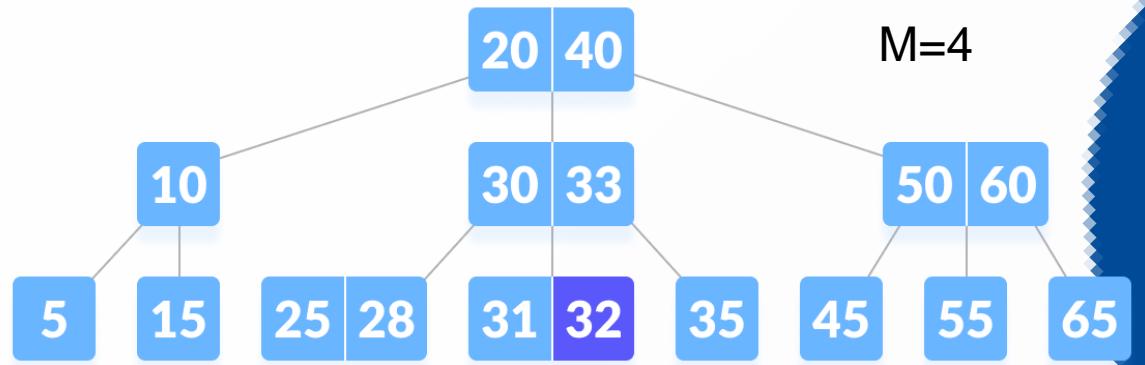
Deletion from B Trees

There are three main cases for deletion operation in a B tree.

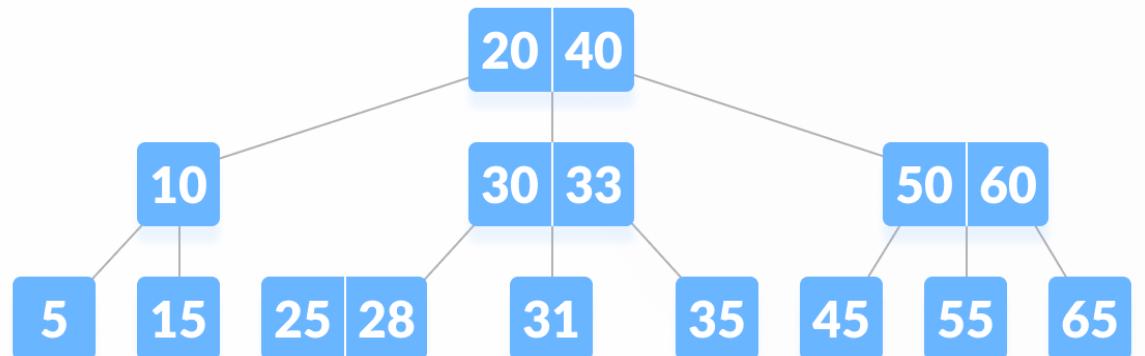
Case I

The key to be deleted lies in the leaf. There are two cases for it.

- I. The deletion of the key does not violate the property of the minimum number of keys a node should hold.



In the given tree, deleting 32 does not violate the above properties.



Deletion from B Trees

There are three main cases for deletion operation in a B tree.

Case I The key to be deleted lies in the leaf.

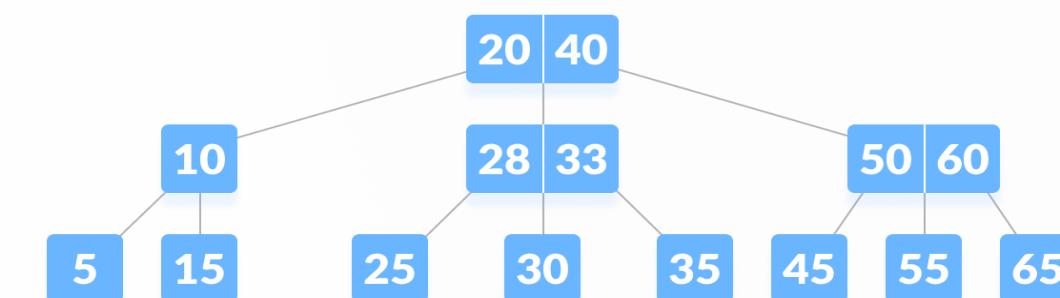
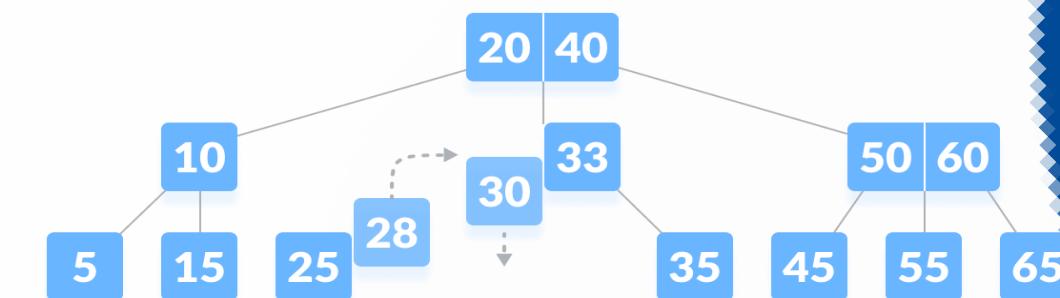
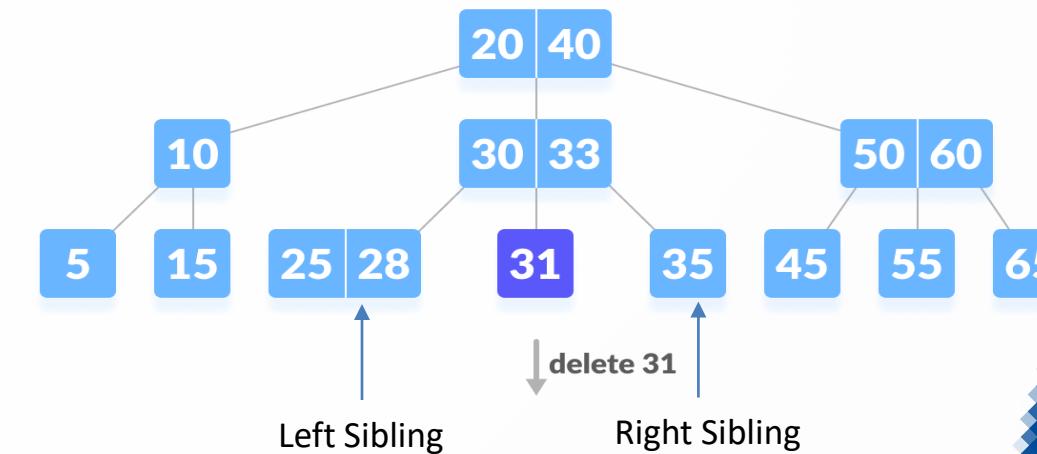
ii. The deletion of the key violates the property of the minimum number of keys a node should hold. In this case, We borrow a key from its immediate neighboring sibling node in the order of left to right.

- First, visit the immediate left sibling. If the left sibling node has more than a minimum number of keys, then borrow a key from this node.
- Else, check to borrow from the immediate right sibling node.

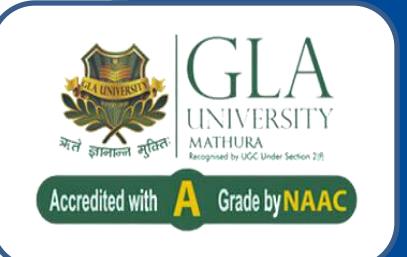


Deleting 31 results in the second condition.

Let us borrow a key from the left sibling node.



Deletion from B Trees



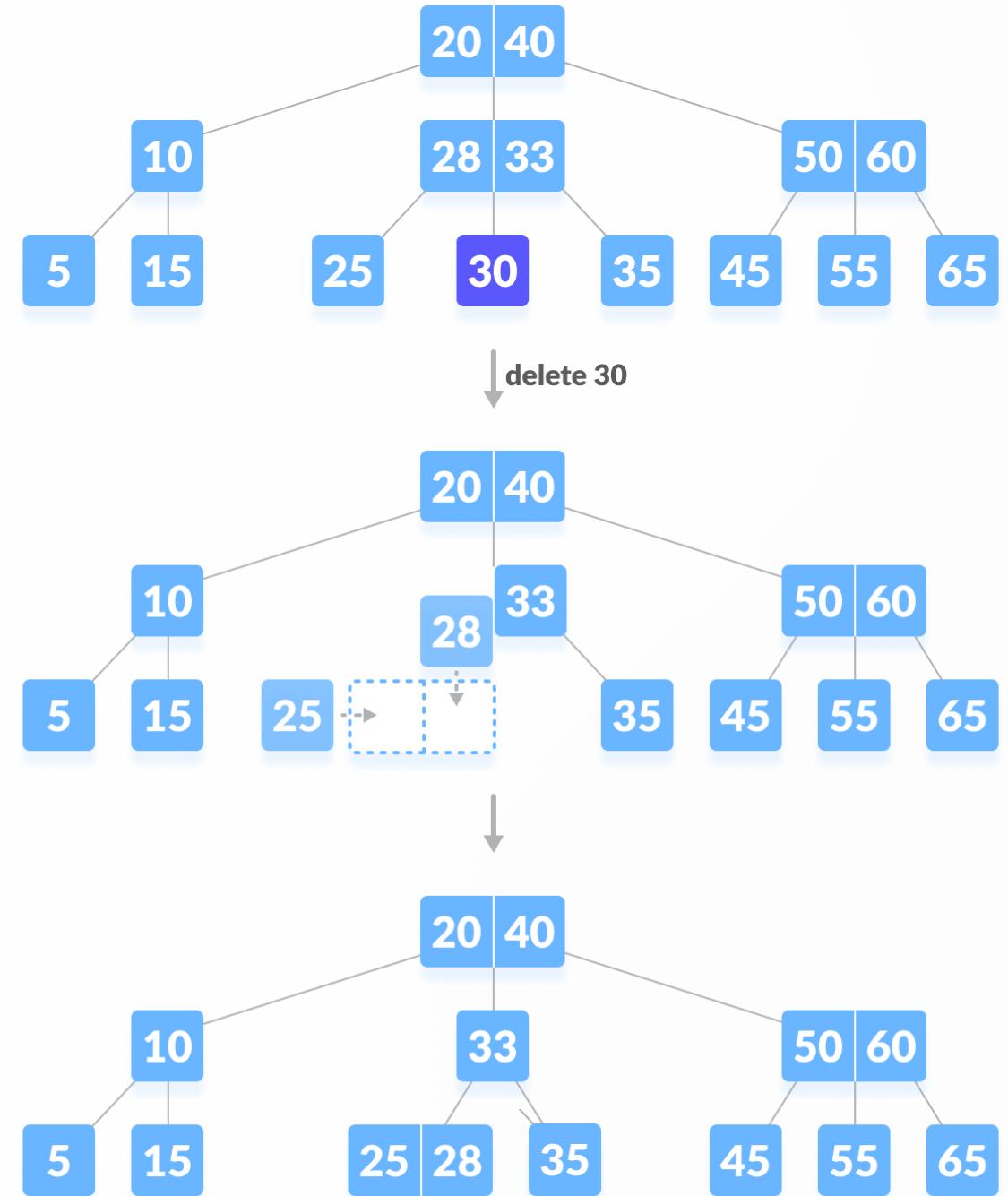
There are three main cases for deletion operation in a B tree.

Case I

The key to be deleted lies in the leaf.

c) If both the **immediate sibling nodes already have a minimum number of keys**, then merge the node with either the left sibling node or the right sibling node. This merging is done through the parent node.

Deleting 30 results of (C) case.



Deletion from B Trees

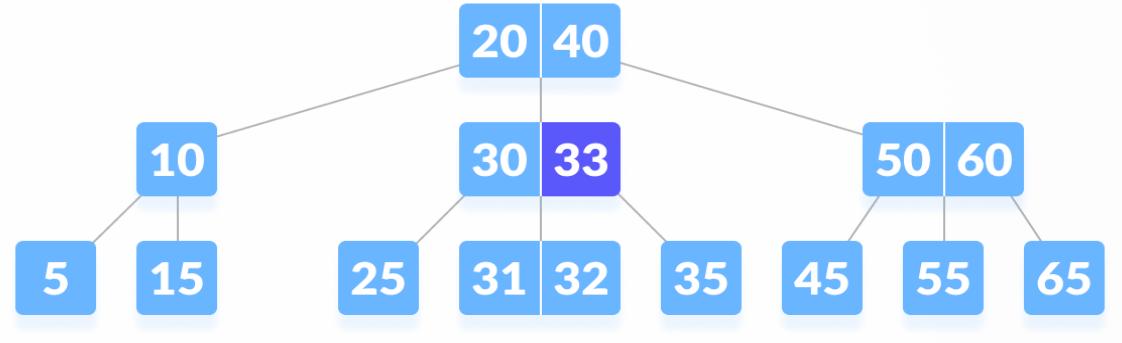
There are three main cases for deletion operation in a B tree.

Deleting 33 results of Case 2

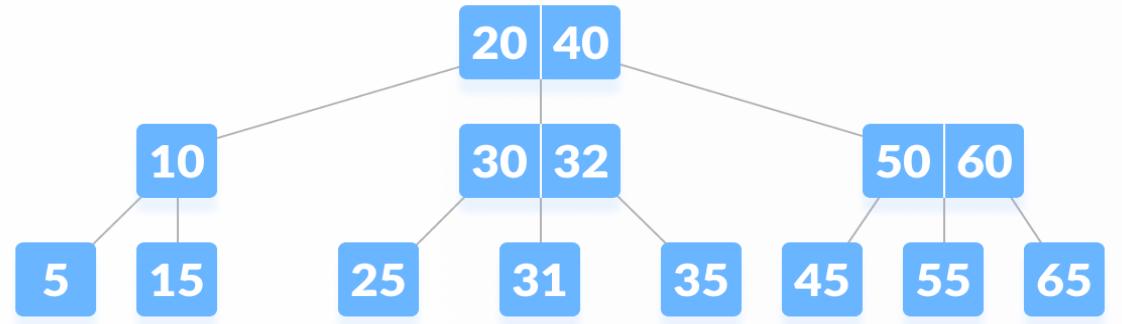
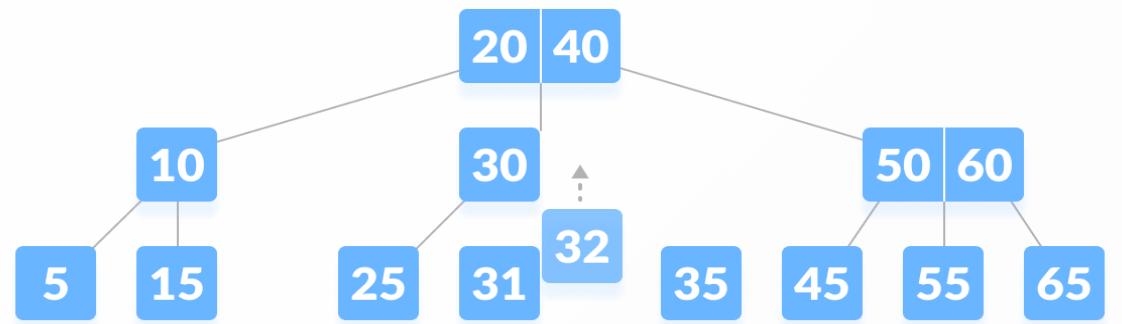
Case II

If the key to be deleted lies in the internal node, the following cases occur.

- 1) The internal node, which is deleted, is replaced by an inorder predecessor if the left child has more than the minimum number of keys.
- 2) The internal node, which is deleted, is replaced by an inorder successor if the right child has more than the minimum number of keys.



delete 33



* The largest key on the left child of a node is called its inorder predecessor.



Deletion from B Trees



There are three main cases for deletion operation in a B tree.

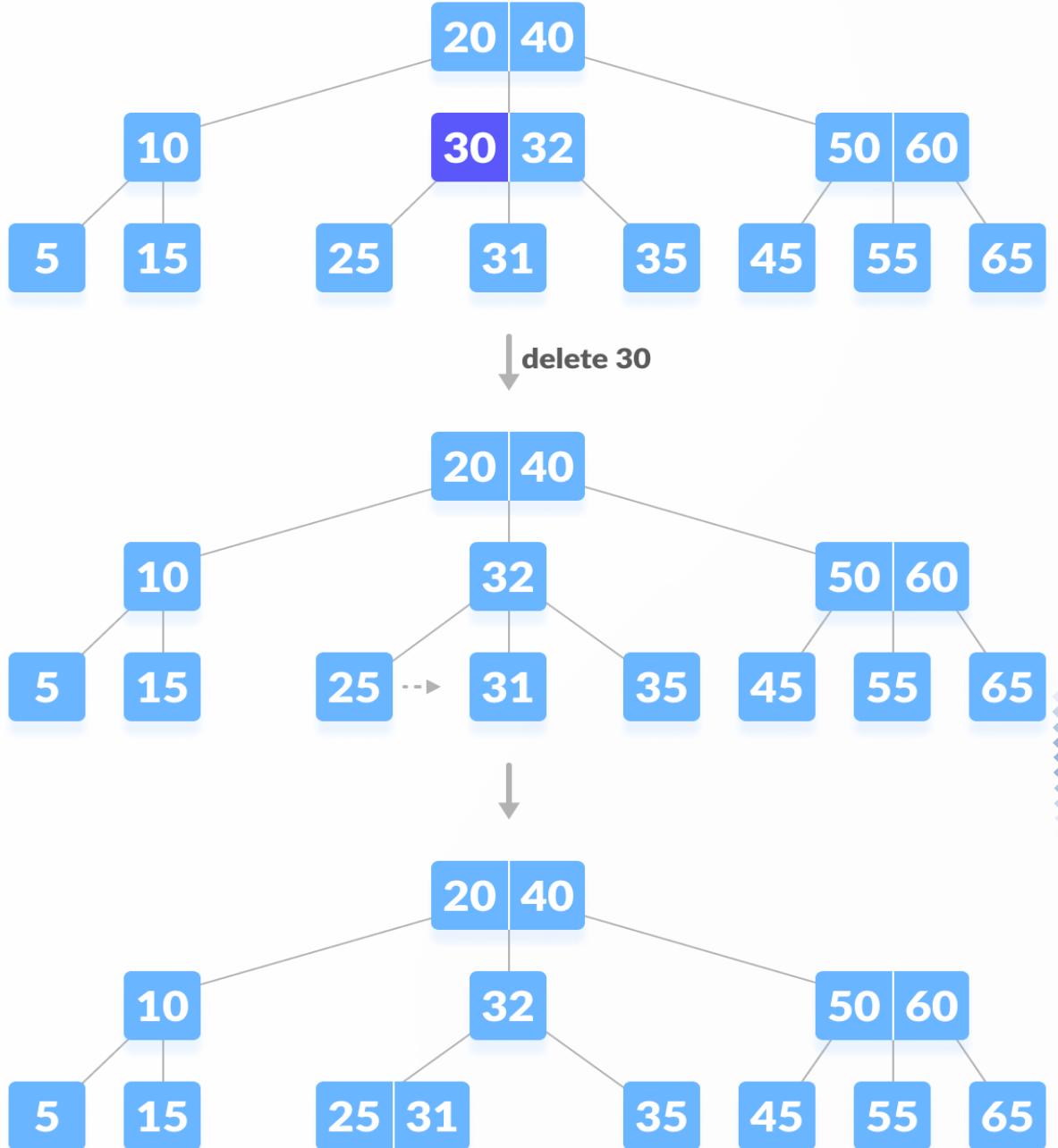
Deleting 30 results of third sub case of Case 2

Case II

If the key to be deleted lies in the internal node, the following cases occur.

- 3) If either child has exactly a minimum number of keys then, merge the left and the right children.

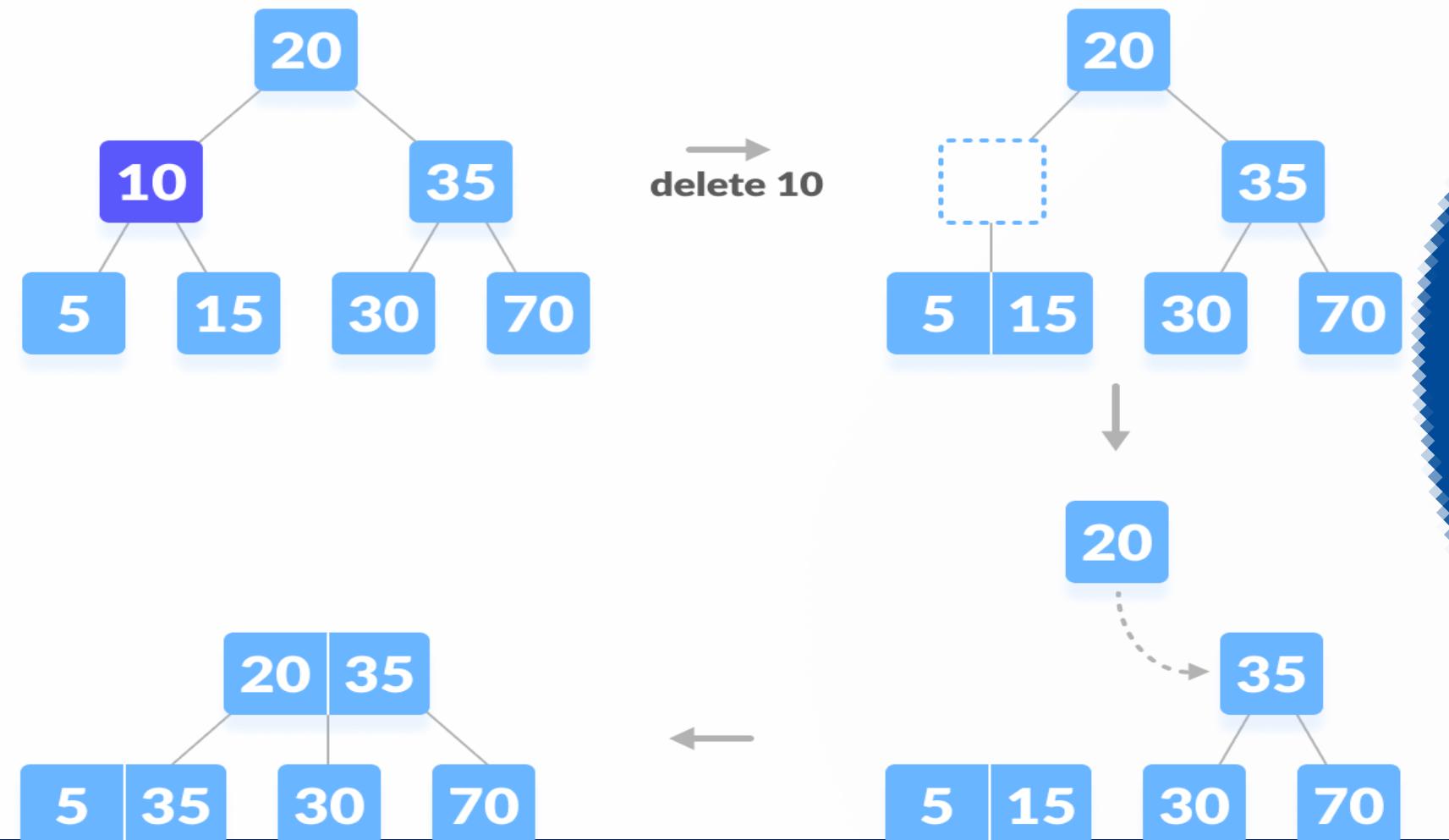
Note: After merging if the parent node has less than the minimum number of keys then, look for the siblings as in Case I.

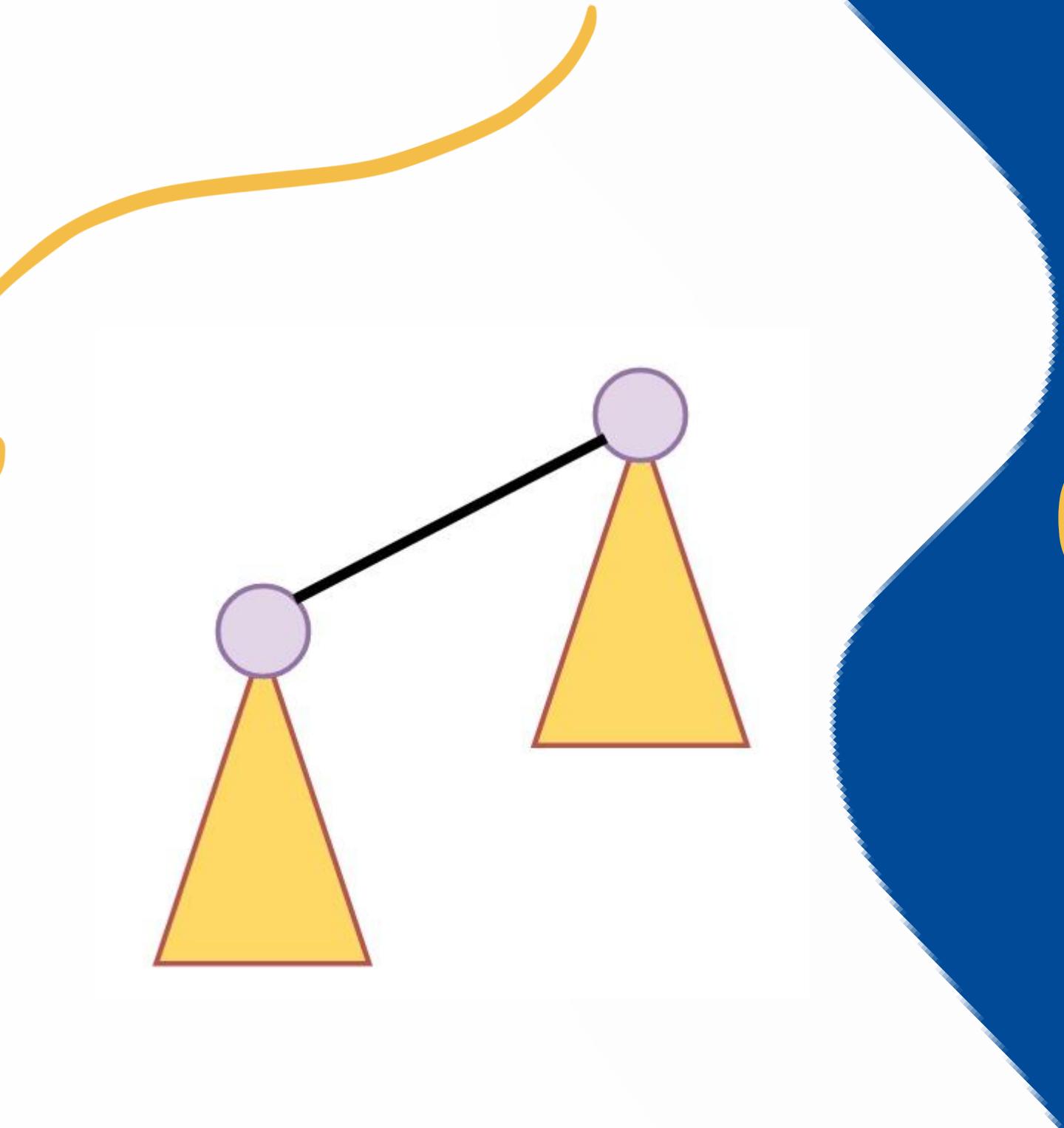


Deletion from B Trees

Case III In this case, the height of the tree shrinks.

- If the target key lies in an internal node, and the deletion of the key leads to a fewer number of keys in the node (i.e. less than the minimum required),
 - Then look for the inorder predecessor or the inorder successor for replacement (if child has more than one keys)
 - If both the children contain a minimum number of keys then, borrowing cannot take place. This leads to Case II(3) i.e. merging the children.
 - Again, look for the sibling to borrow a key. But, if the sibling also has only a minimum number of keys then, merge the node with the sibling along with the parent. Arrange the children accordingly (increasing order).

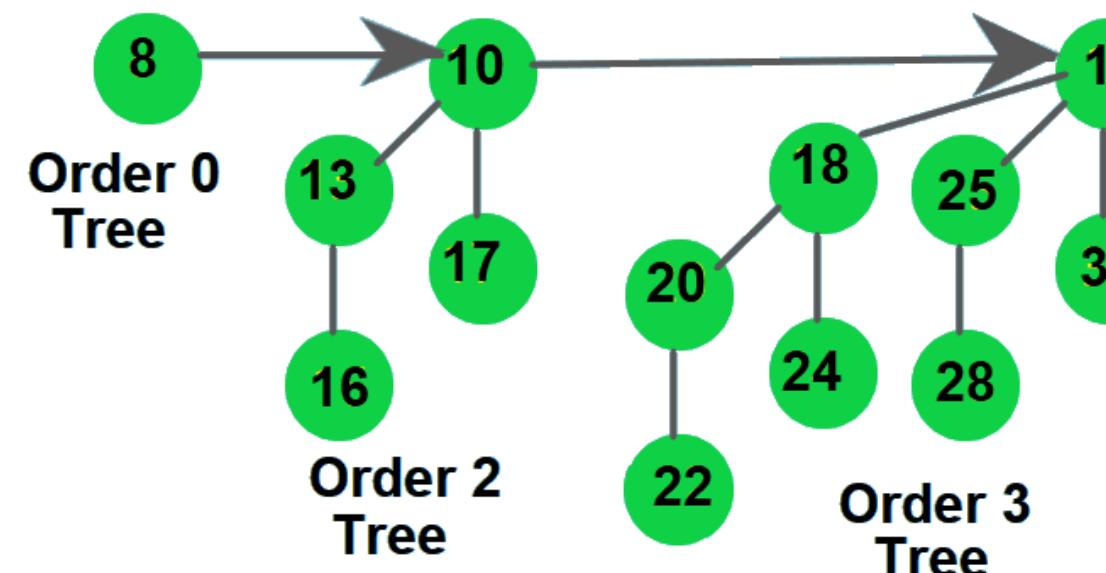




02. Binomial Heap

Binomial Heap

- A binomial heap can be defined as the collection of **binomial tree** that satisfies the min/max heap properties.
 - The min/max heap is a heap in which each node has a value lesser/greater than the value of its child nodes.



A Binomial Heap with 13 nodes

Properties

- 1) Each binomial heap obeys the min-heap properties.
- 2) For any non-negative integer k, there should be atmost one binomial tree in a heap where root has degree k.



Understanding Binomial Tree

- A Binomial Tree of **order k** can be constructed by **taking two binomial trees of order k-1** and making one as leftmost child of other.

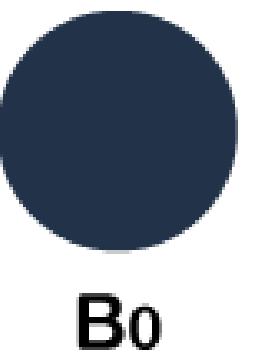
Or

- B_k consists of two binomial trees, i.e., B_{k-1} and B_{k-1} are linked together in which one tree becomes the left sub-tree of another binomial tree.

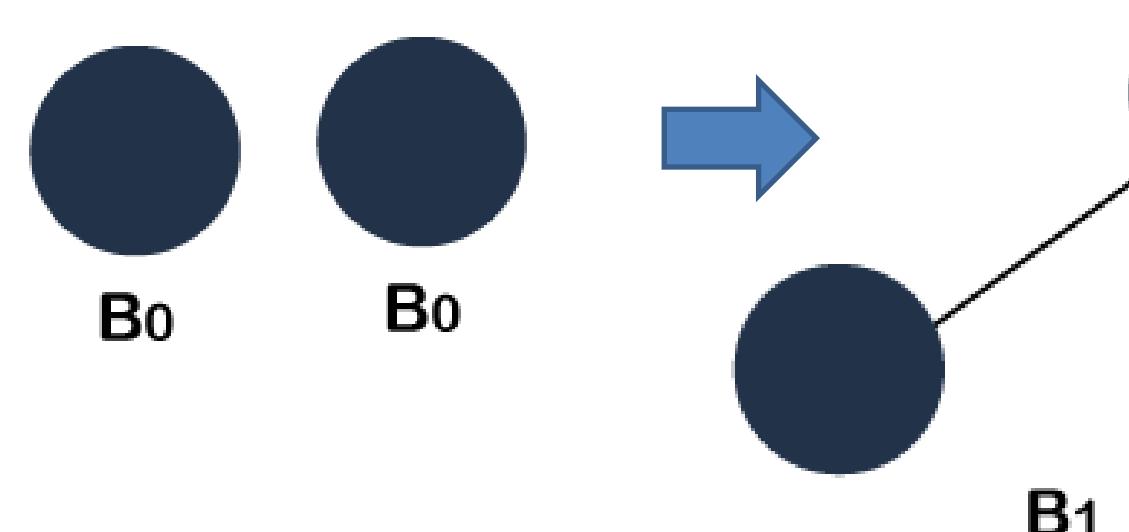


Example of Binomial Tree

- If B_0 where k is 0, means that there would exist only one node in the tree as shown.



- If B_1 , where k is 1, means $k-1$ equal to 0. Therefore, there would be two binomial trees of B_0 in which one B_0 becomes the left subtree of another B_0 .

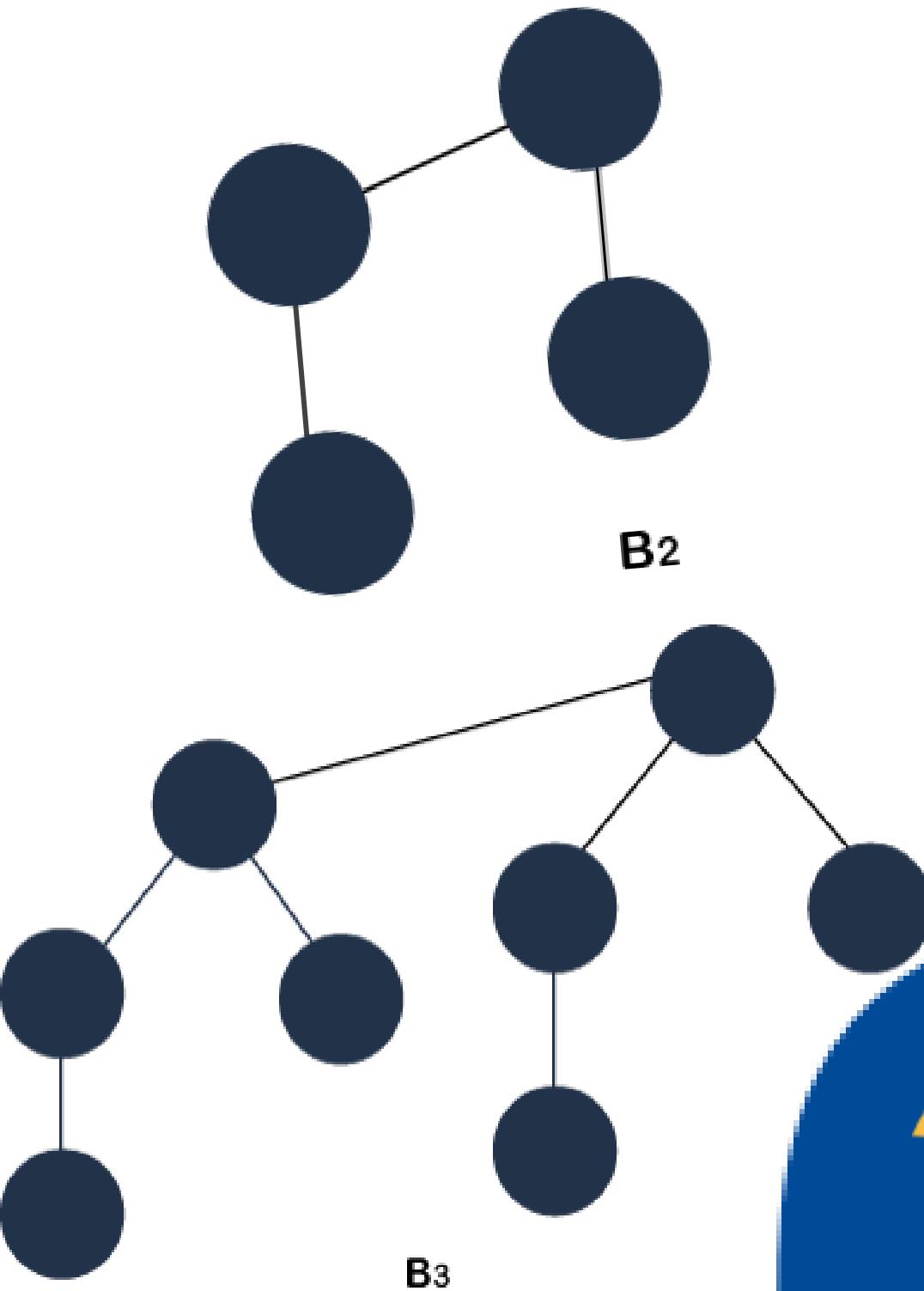


Note: A Binomial Tree of **order k** can be constructed by **taking two binomial trees of order k-1** and making one as leftmost child of other.



Example of Binomial Tree

- If B_2 , where k is 2, means k-1 equal to 1.
Therefore, there would be two binomial trees of B_1 in which one B_1 becomes the left subtree of another B_1 .
- If B_3 , where k is 3, means k-1 equal to 2.
Therefore, there would be two binomial trees of B_2 in which one B_2 becomes the left subtree of another B_2 .

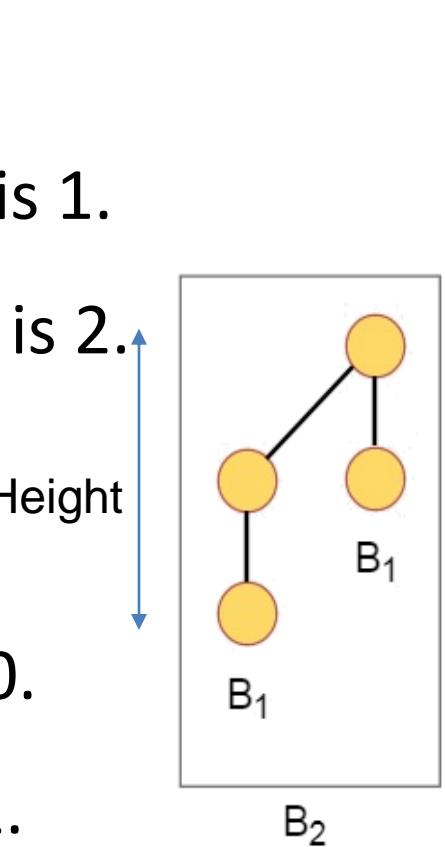


Properties of Binomial Tree

1) It has **exactly 2^k nodes**

- If $k=1$ then $2^0 = 1$. The number of nodes is 1.

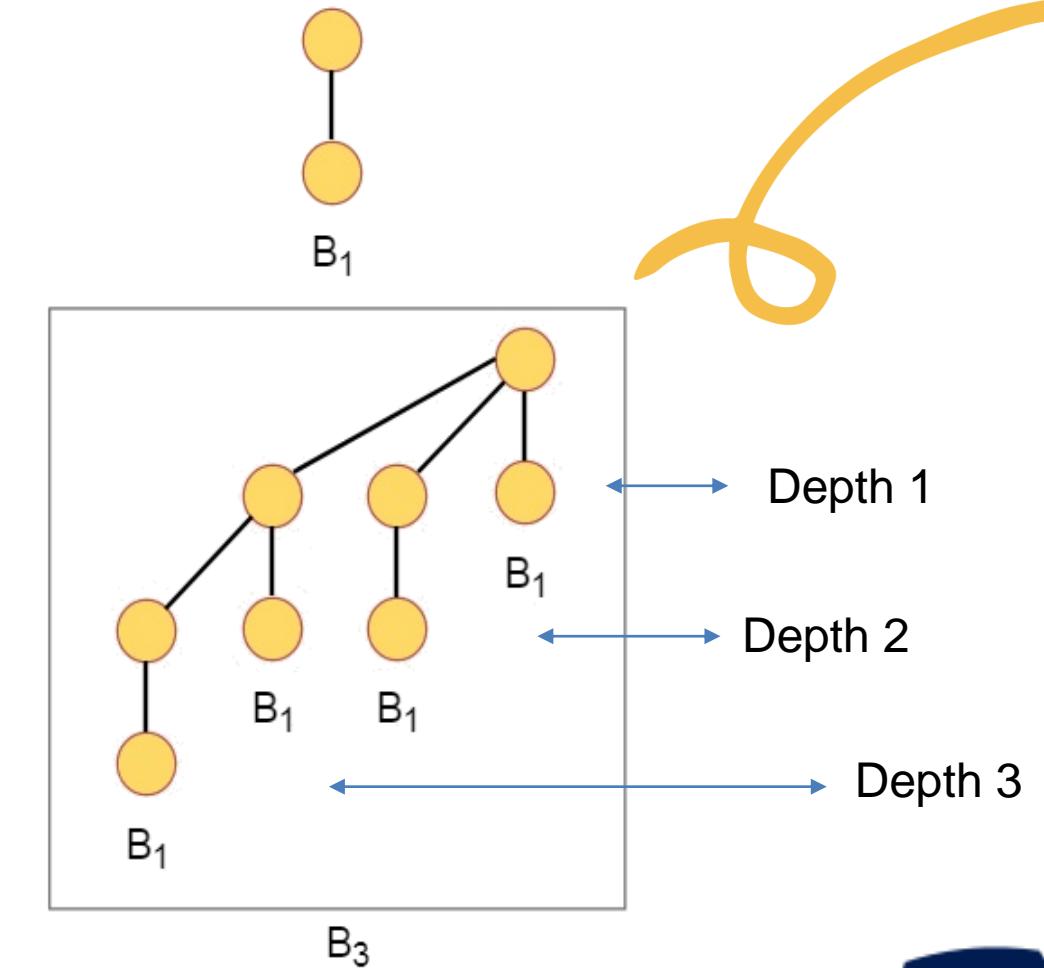
If $k = 2$ then $2^1 = 2$. The number of nodes is 2.



2) The **height of the tree is k**.

If $k=0$ then the height of the tree would be 0.

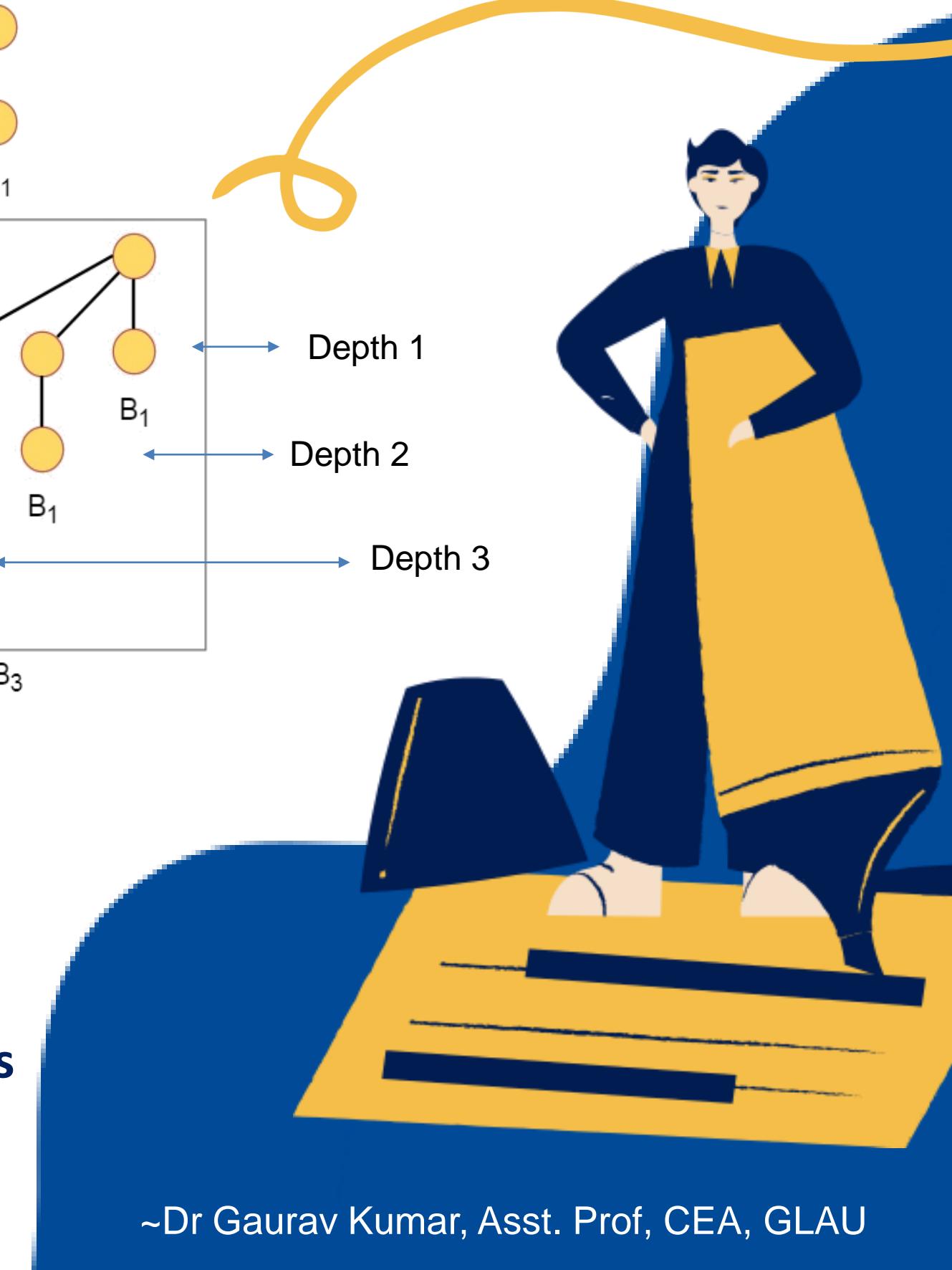
If $k=1$ then the height of the tree would be 1.



3) There are **exactly ${}^k C_i$ nodes at depth i for $i = 0, 1, \dots, k$** .

For example, if k is equal to 3 and at depth $i=2$, we have to determine the number of nodes. Here, ${}^3 C_2 = 3$

4) The **root has degree k and children of root are themselves Binomial Trees with order k-1, k-2,.. 0 from left to right**.

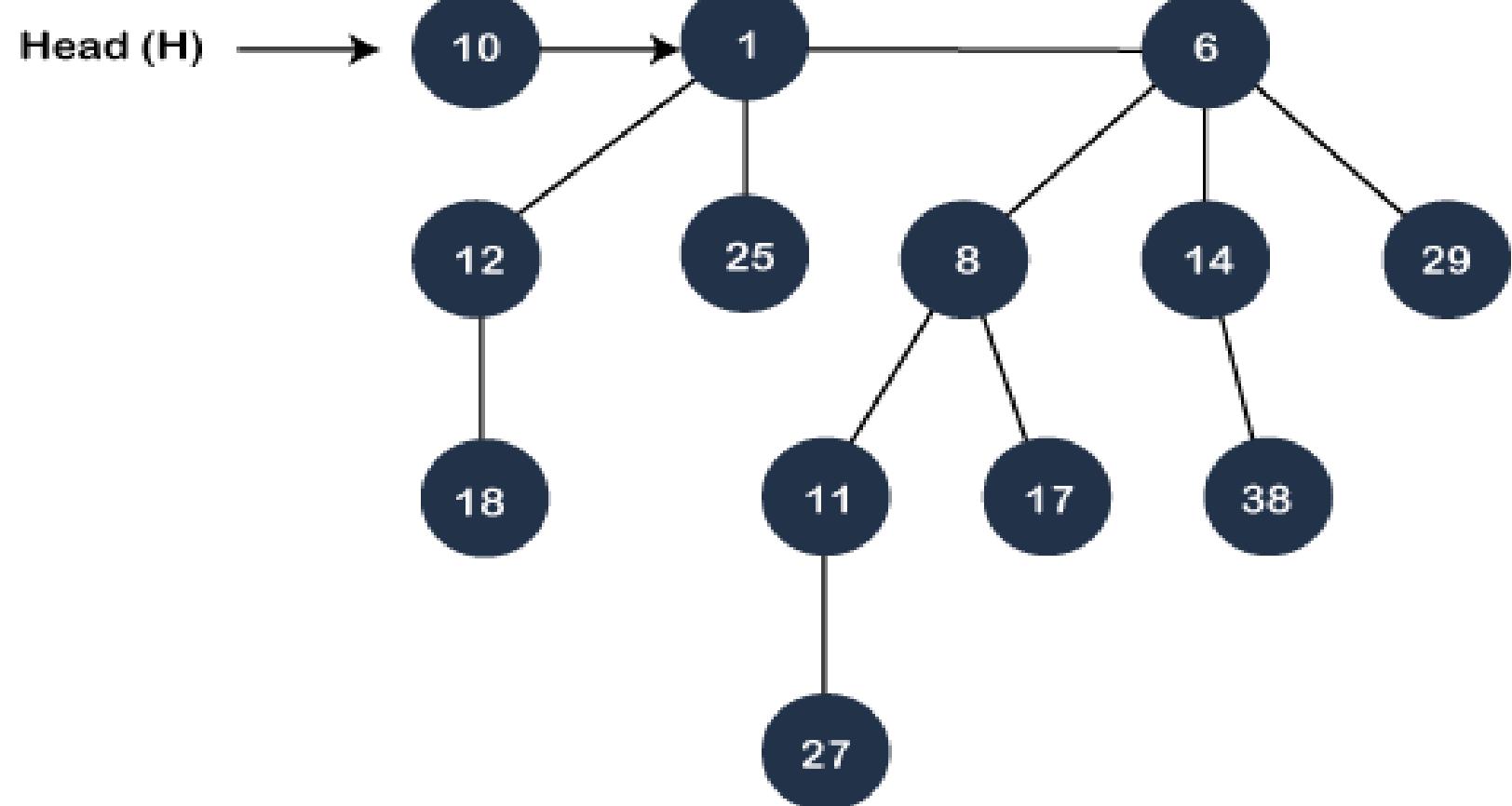


Understanding Binomial Heap

- A binomial heap can be defined as the collection of **binomial tree** that satisfies the min heap properties.

Properties

- 1) Each binomial heap obeys the min-heap properties.
- 2) For any non-negative integer k, there should be at-most one binomial tree in a heap where root has degree k.

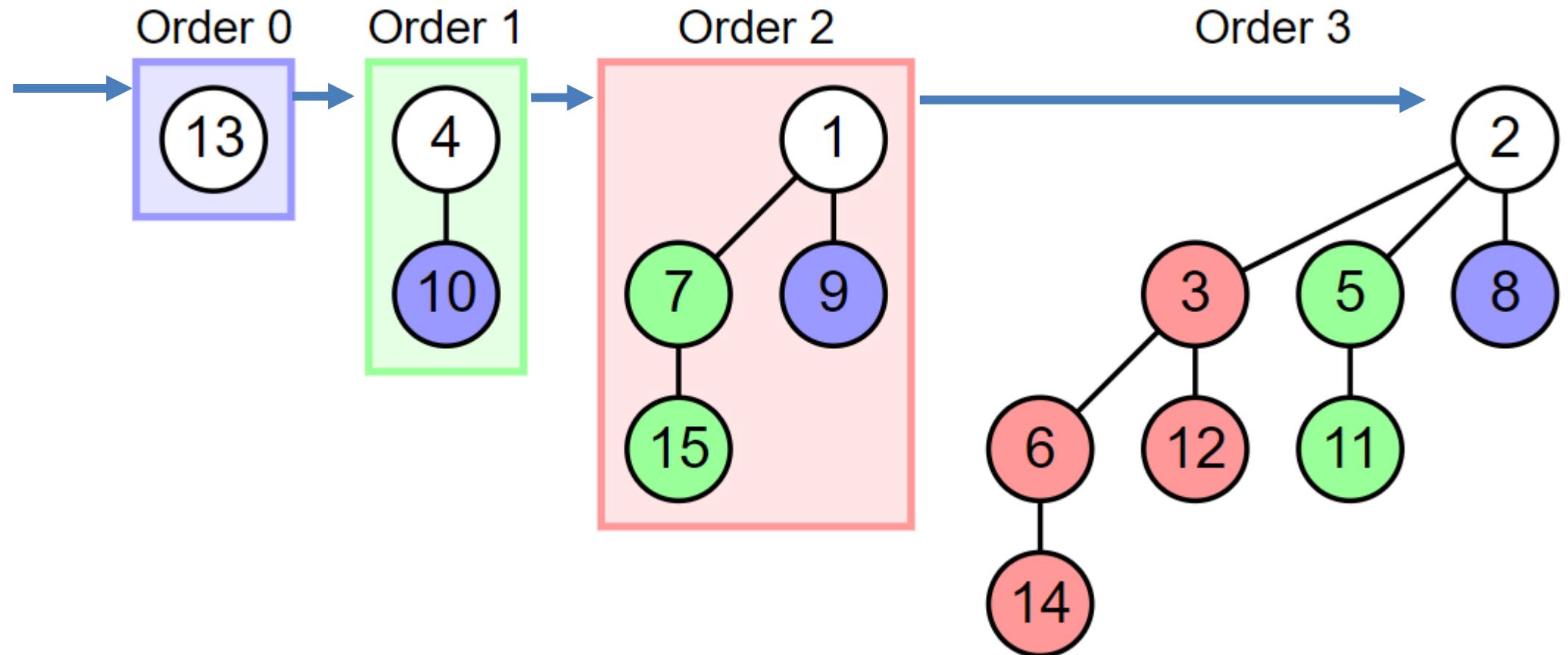
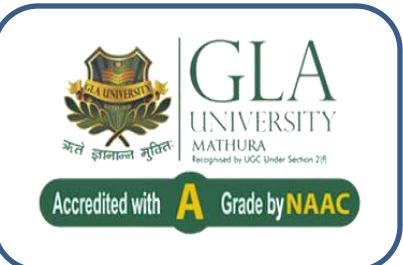


- Three binomial trees, i.e., B_0 , B_2 , B_3 .
- The all three binomial trees satisfy the min heap's property as all the nodes have a smaller value than the child nodes.
- It also satisfies the second property of the binomial heap.

For example, if we consider the value of k as 3, then we can observe in the figure that the only one binomial tree of degree 3 exists.



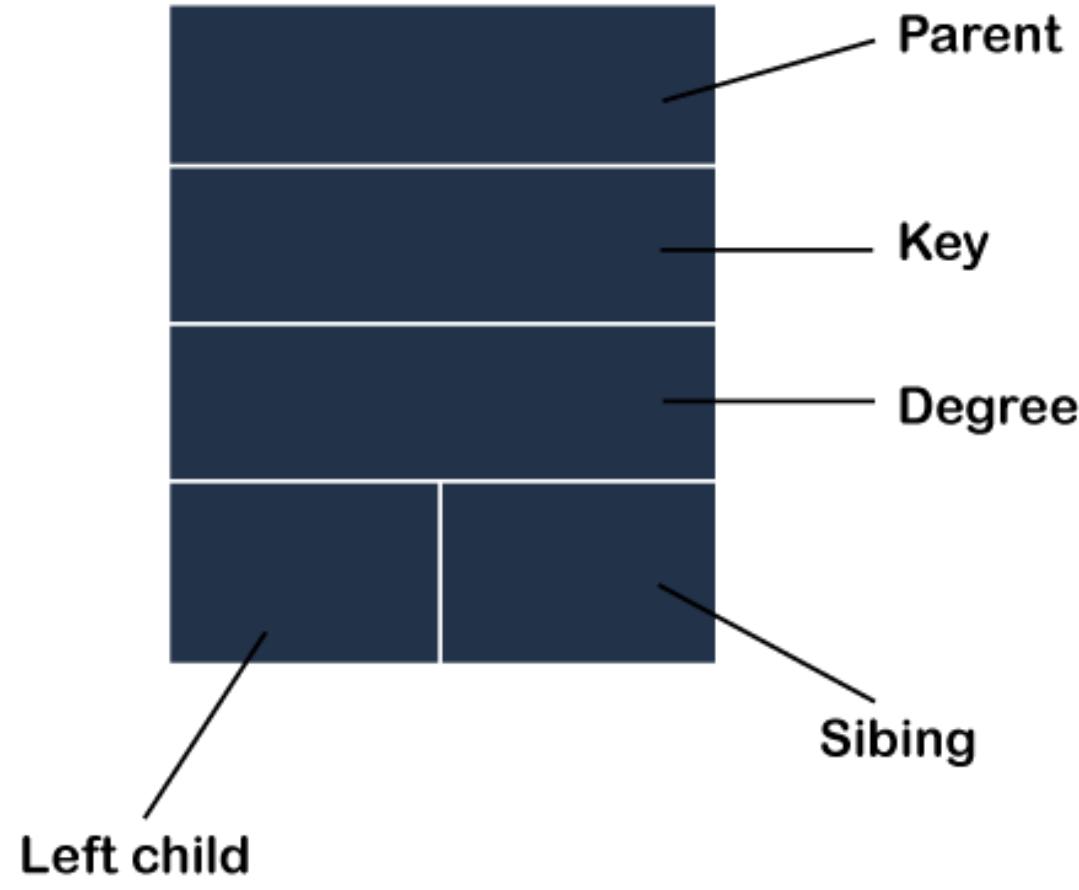
Understanding Binomial Heap



For n number of nodes, the binomial heap can contain **at-most $\log(n)$** binomial tree.



Representation of Binomial Heap in Memory



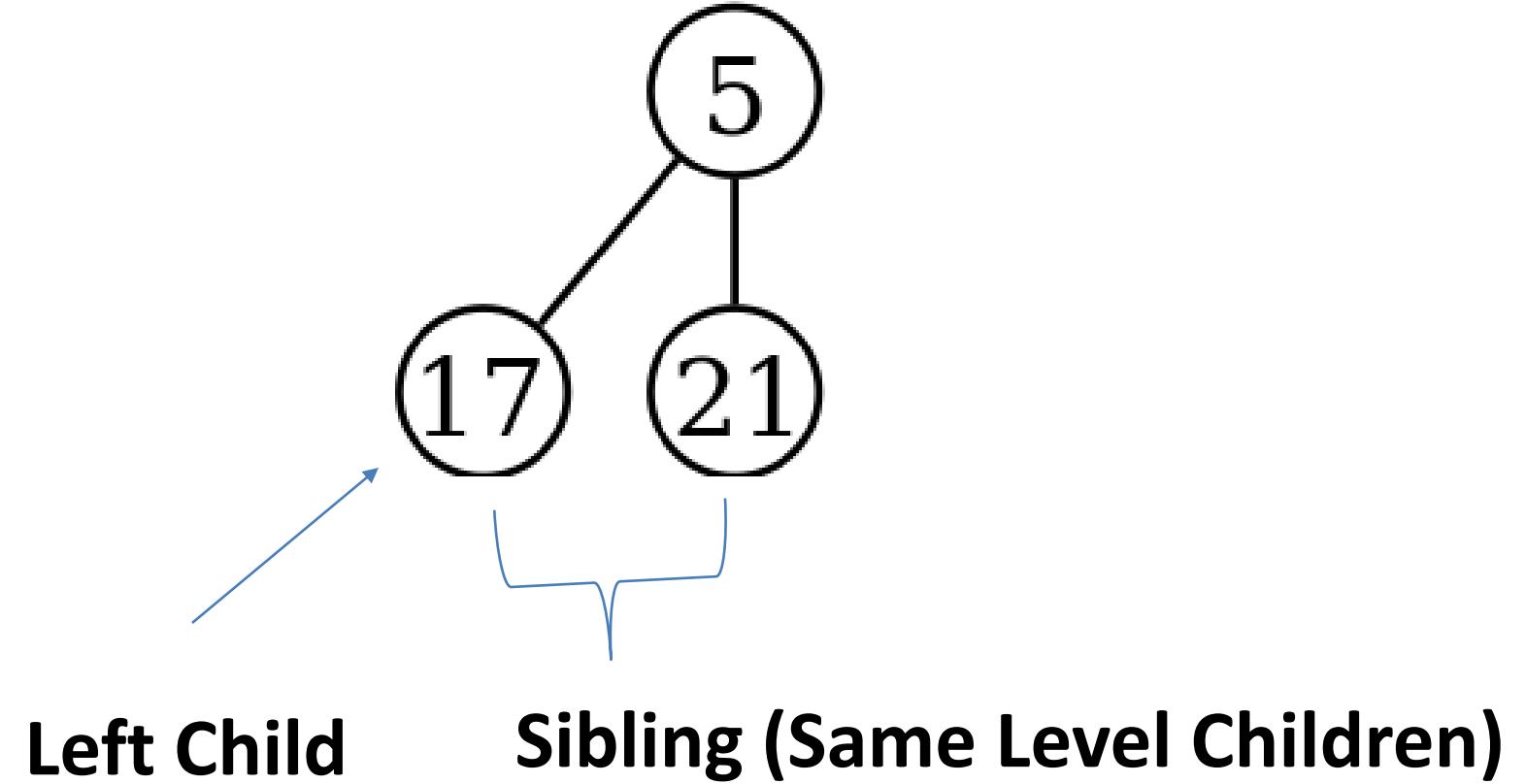
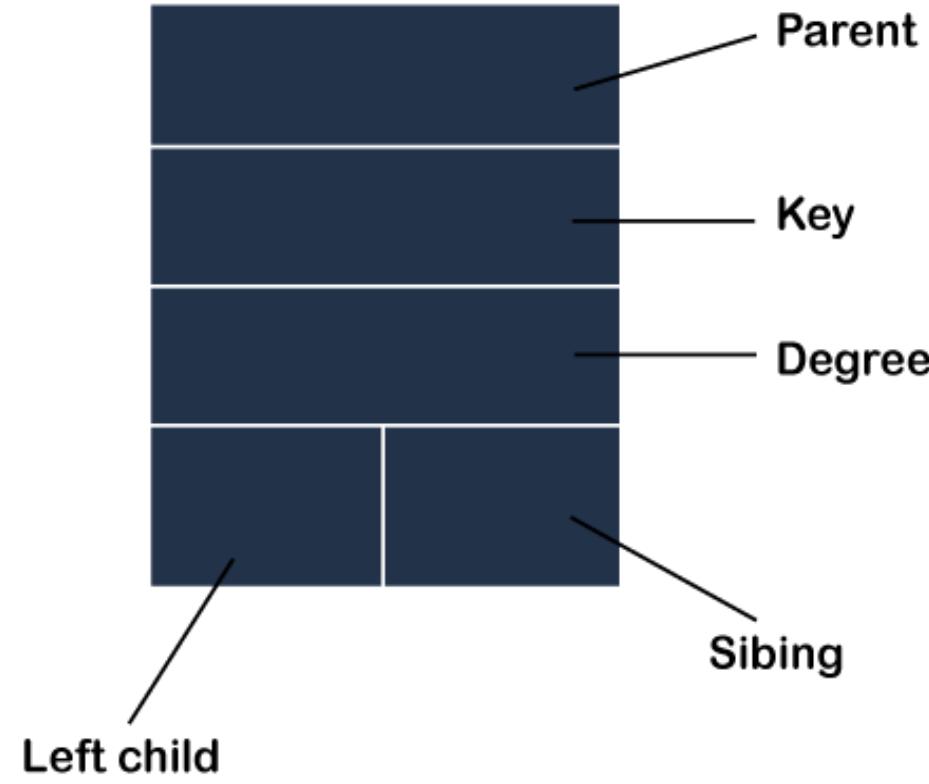
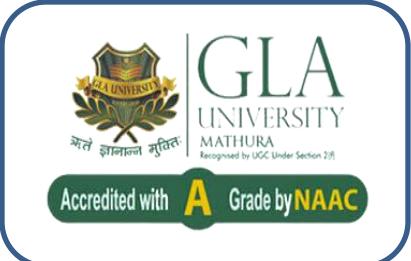
- 1) The first block in the memory contains the pointer that stores the address of the parent of the node.
- 2) The second block stores the key value of the node.
- 3) The third block contains the degree of the node.
- 4) The fourth block is divided into two parts, i.e., left child and sibling. The left child contains the address of the left child of a node, whereas the **sibling** contains the address of the sibling.

Pointers in each node: Each node has the following pointers:

1. A parent pointer pointing to the immediate parent of the node
2. A left pointer pointing to the first child of the node
3. A right pointer pointing to the next sibling of the node.



Understanding the Binomial Heap in Memory

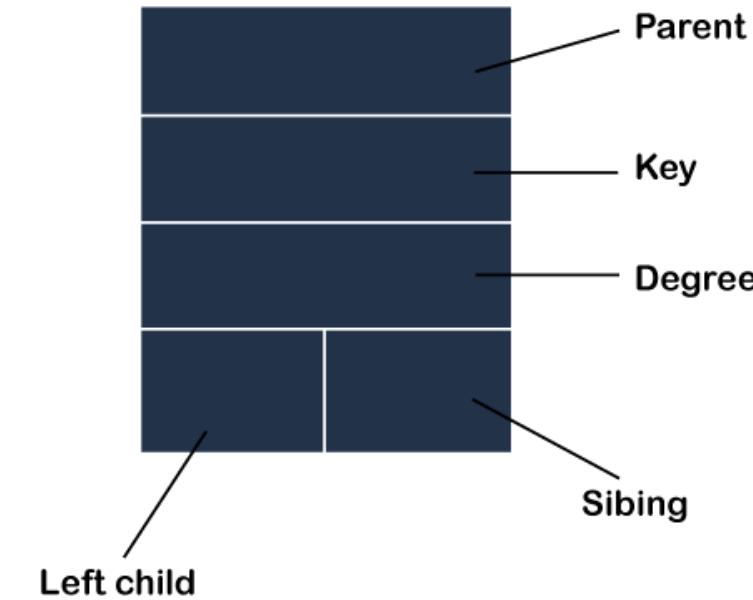
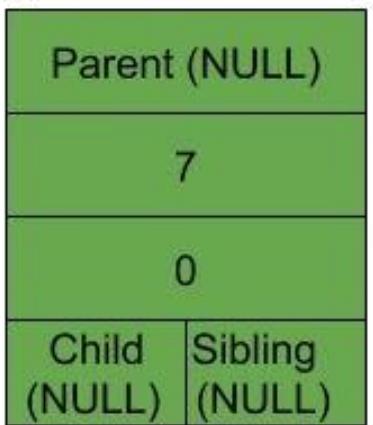


Understanding the Representation of Binomial Heap in Memory

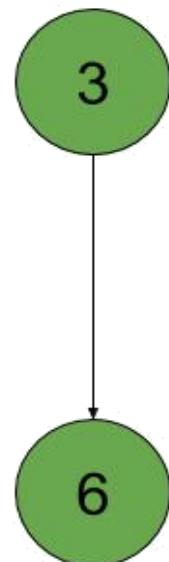
Single node in the Heap



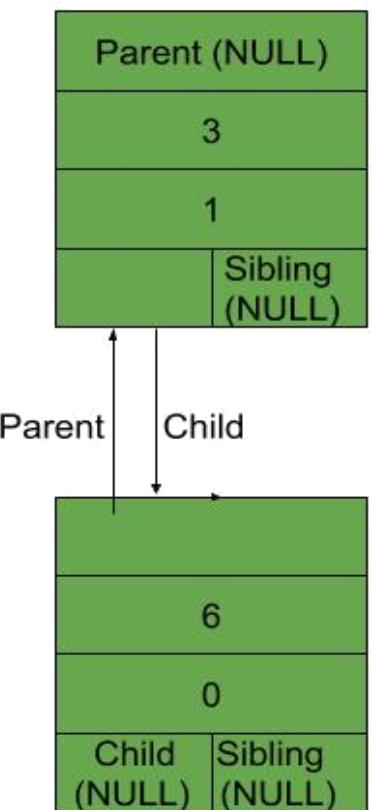
Representation



Parent – Child relationship between nodes

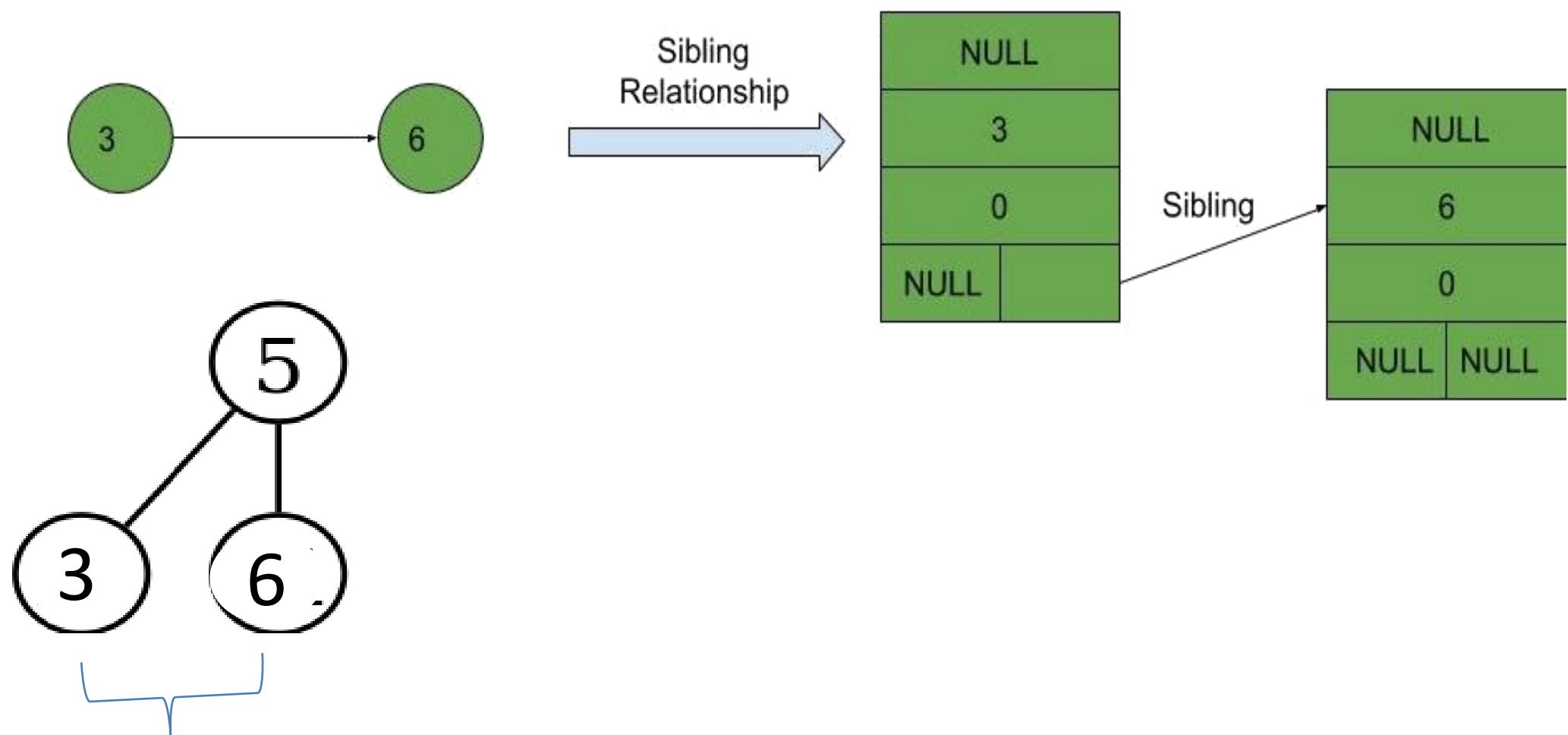


Parent - Child Representation

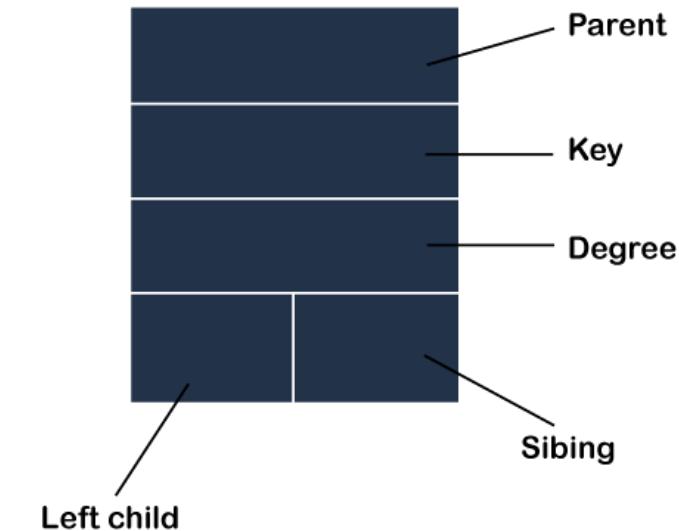


Understanding the Representation of Binomial Heap in Memory

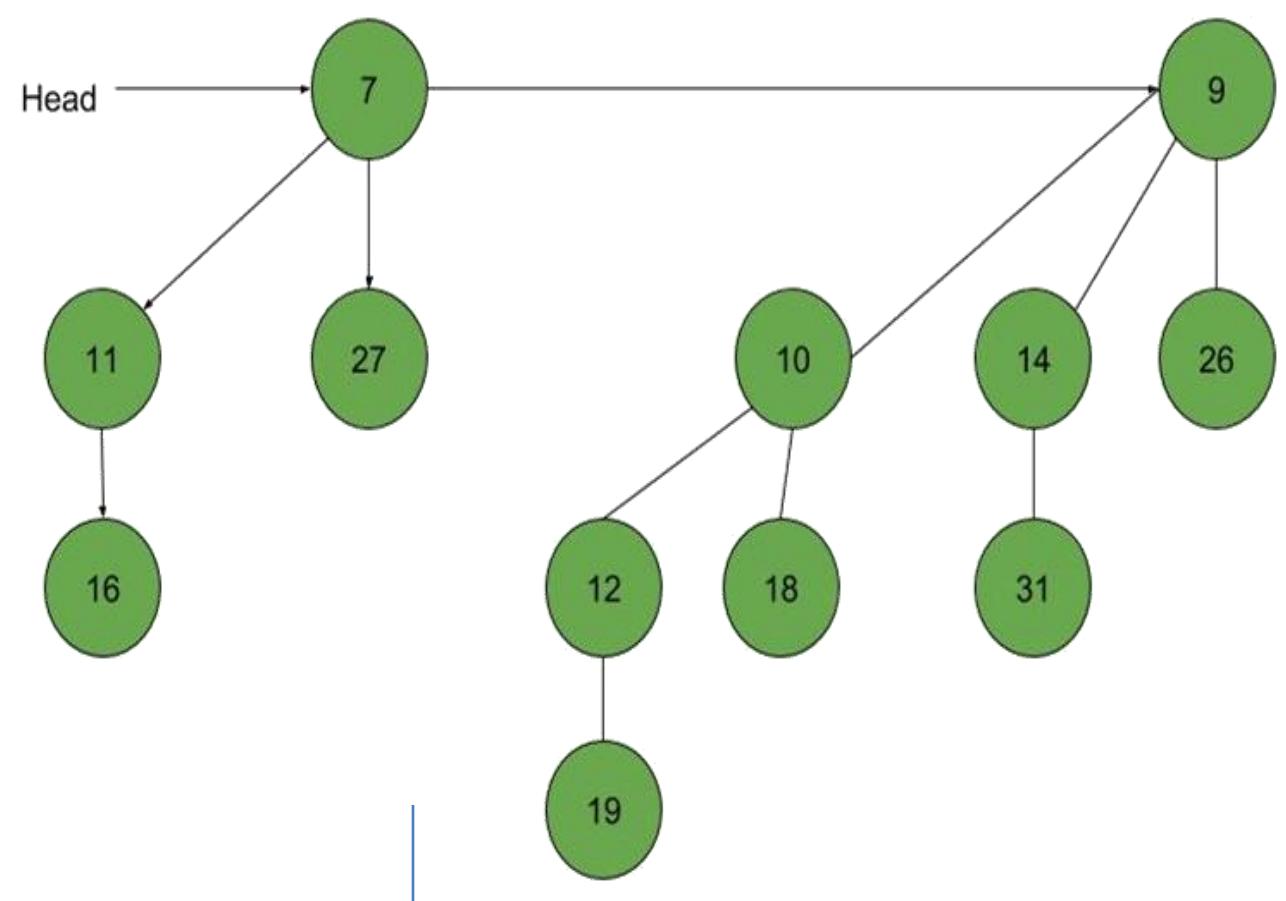
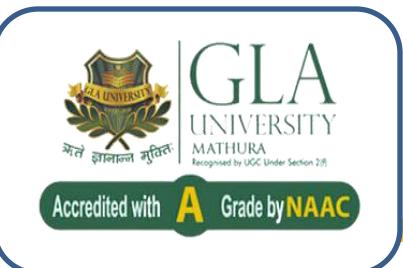
Sibling relationship between nodes



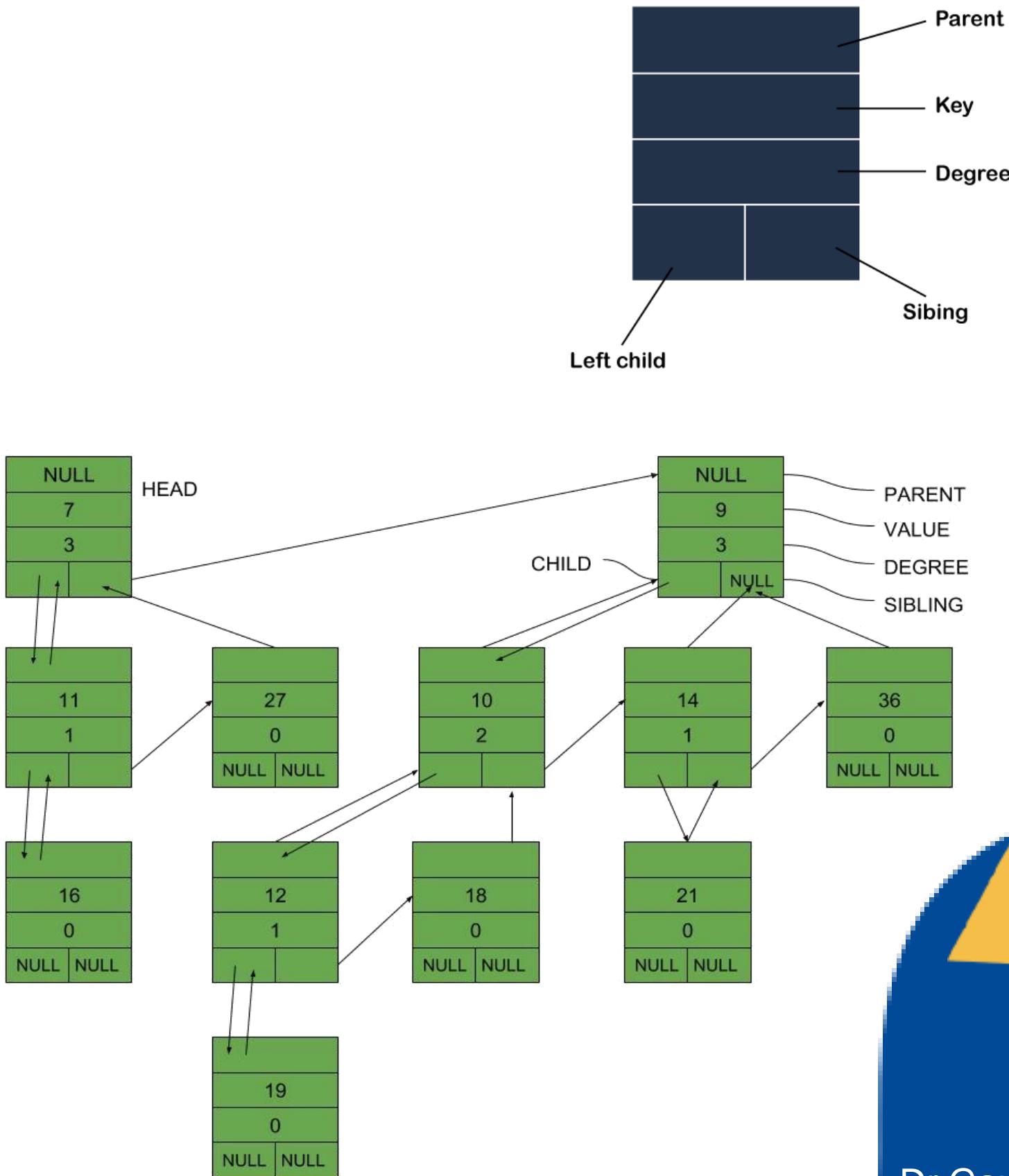
Sibling (Same Level Children)



Understanding the Representation of Binomial Heap in Memory



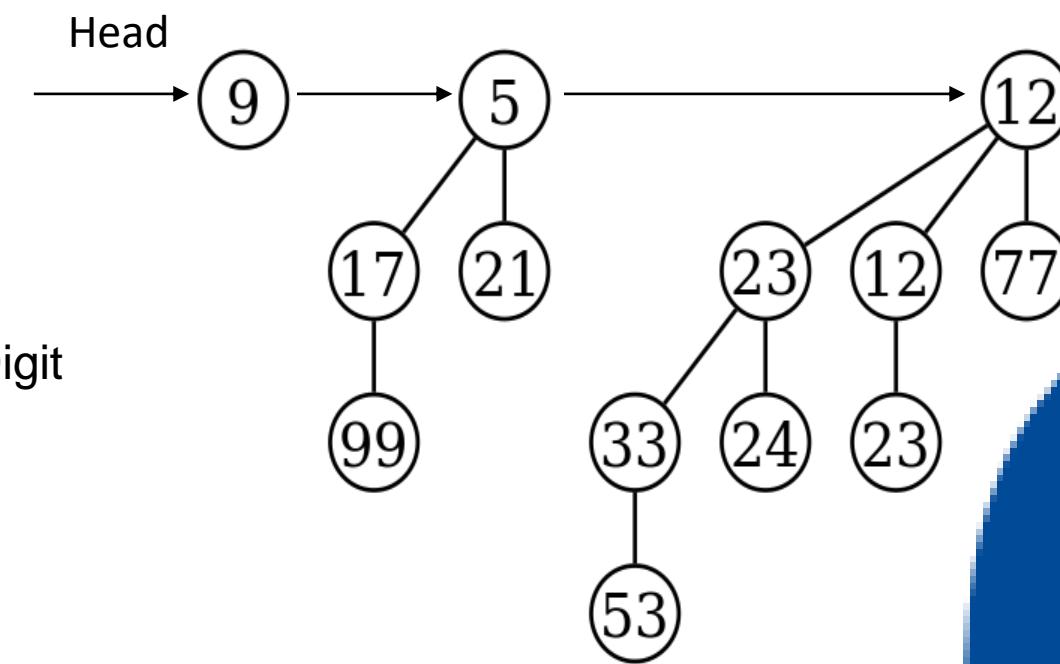
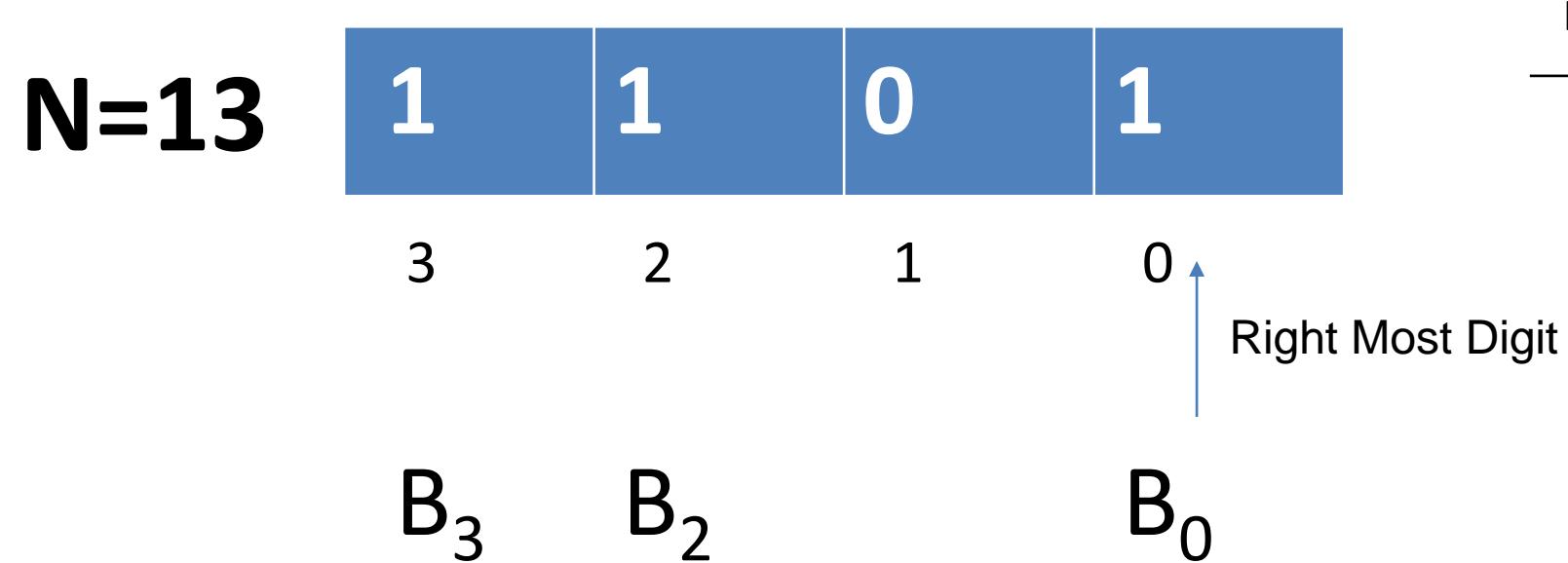
Memory Representation



Construction of Binomial Heap

We want to create the **binomial heap of 'n' nodes**, **convert the number into binary form**, and then **start the numbering from right most digit**, and **the 1's position number will represents the binomial tree of that order**.

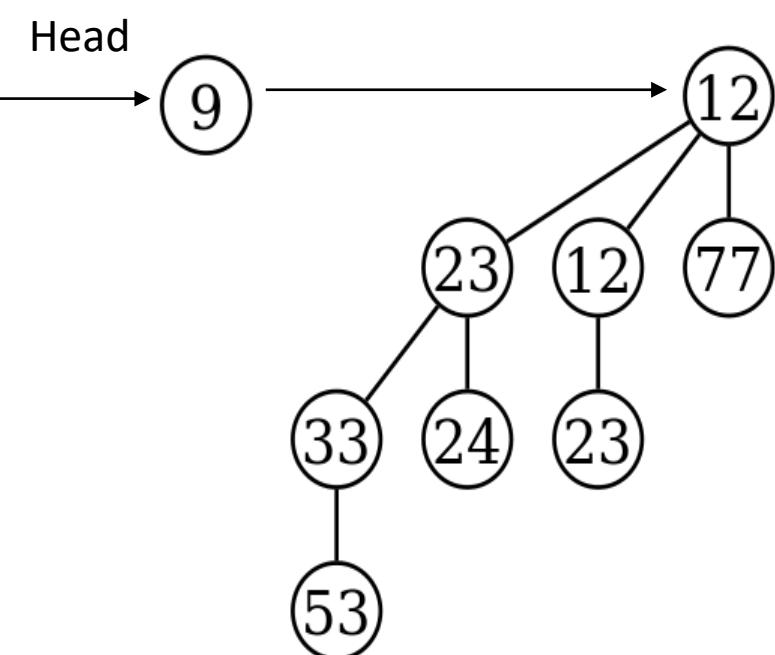
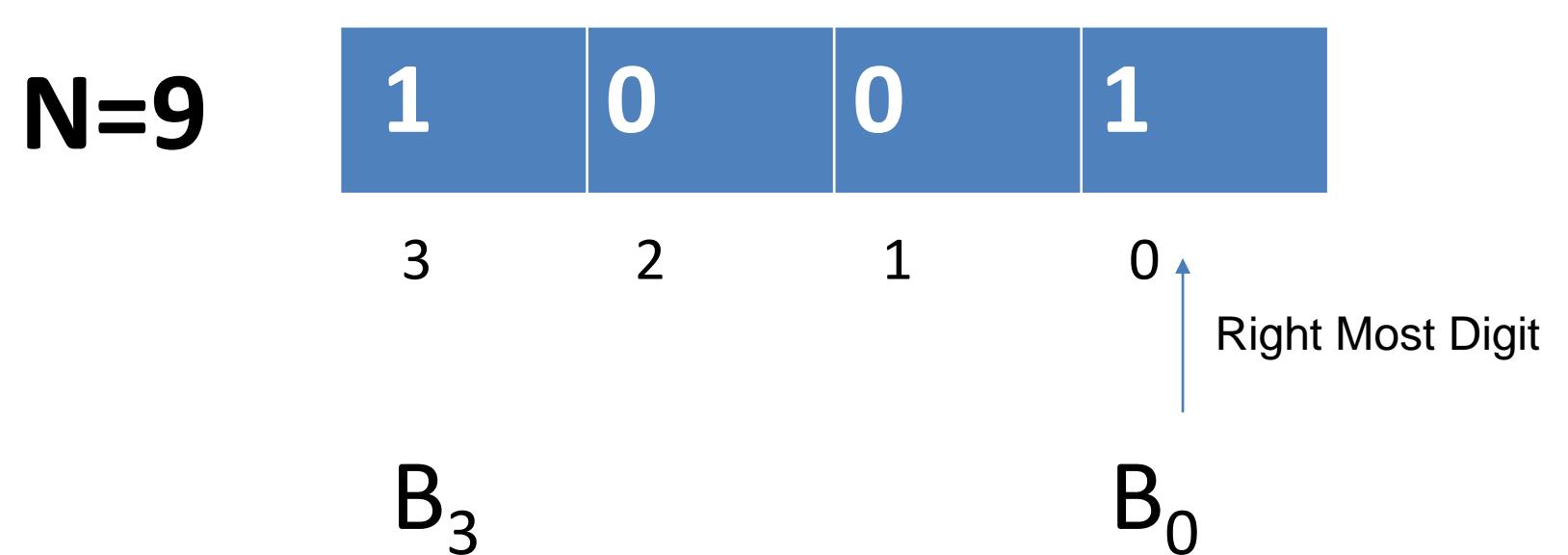
For example: binomial heap of 13 nodes; the **binary form of 13 is 1101**, so if we start the numbering from the rightmost digit, then we can observe that 1 is available at the 0, 2, and 3 positions; therefore, the binomial heap with 13 nodes will have B_0 , B_2 , and B_3 binomial trees in increasing order.



Construction of Binomial Heap



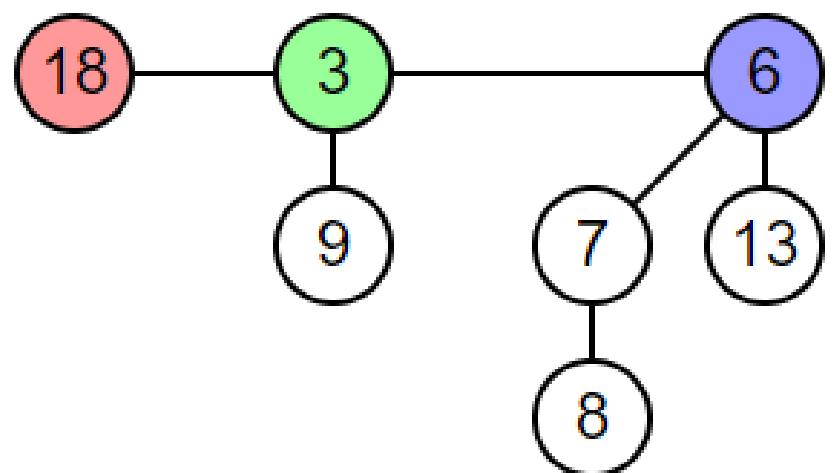
For example: binomial heap of 9 nodes; the binary form of 9 is 1001, so if we start the numbering from the rightmost digit, then we can observe that 1 is available at the 0 and 3 positions; therefore, the binomial heap with 9 nodes will have B_0 and B_3 binomial trees in increasing order.



Operations on Binomial Heap

1. Finding the minimum key

- As we know that binomial heap is a collection of binomial trees and each binomial tree satisfies the property of min heap means root node contains the minimum value.
- We need to compare only root node of all the binomial trees to find the minimum key.

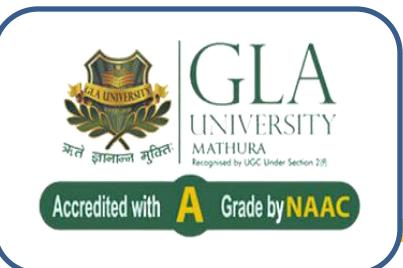


In this case, maximum 3 comparisons is required to find the minimum key.

- There are at-most $\log n$ binomial tree for n nodes. The time complexity for finding a minimum key is $O(\log n)$.



Operations on Binomial Heap



2. Union Operation

Given two Binomial Heaps H_1 and H_2 , $\text{union}(H_1, H_2)$ creates a single Binomial Heap.

First Step - The first step is to simply merge the two Heaps in non-decreasing order of degrees. After the simple merge, we need to make sure that there is at most one Binomial Tree of any order (i.e. Binomial heap should not contain same order binomial trees). To do this, we need to combine Binomial Trees of the same order.

Second Step- Define and keep track of three-pointers x , $\text{next}-x$ and $\text{next}-(\text{next}-x)$ or sibling ($\text{next}-x$) and follow the following cases:

Case 1: If $\text{degree}[x]$ is not equal to $\text{degree}[\text{next}-x]$ then move the pointer ahead.

Case 2: if $\text{degree}[x] = \text{degree}[\text{next}-x]$

Case 2.1 if $\text{degree}[\text{next}-(\text{next}-x)]$ is also same (same with case 2) then Move the pointer ahead.

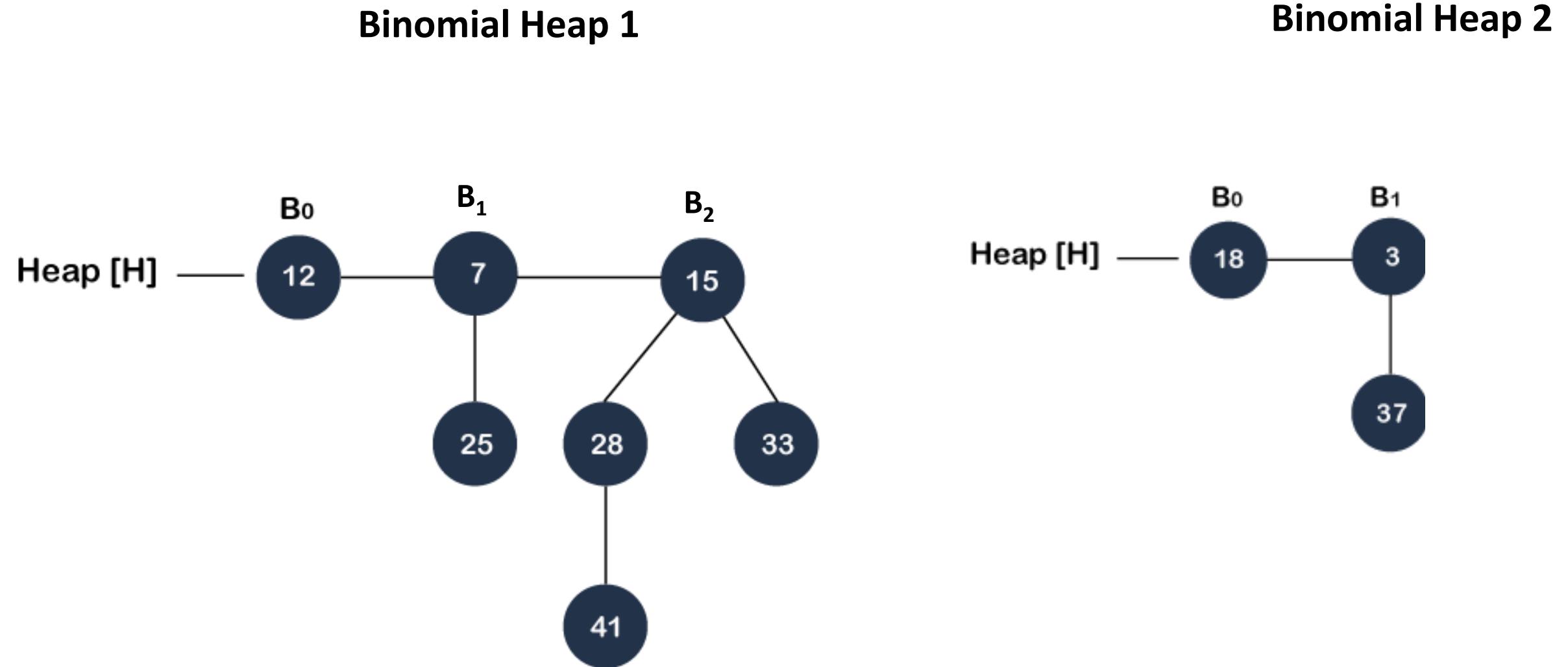
Case 2.2: If $\text{degree} [\text{next}-(\text{next}-x)]$ is not same (not same with case 2) and $\text{key}[x]$ is smaller than $\text{key}[\text{next}-x]$ then remove $[\text{next}-x]$ from root and attached to the child of x by linking to it.

Case 2.3 : If $\text{degree} [\text{next}-(\text{next}-x)]$ is not same (not same with case 2) and $\text{key}[x]$ is larger than $\text{key}[\text{next}-x]$ then remove x from the root and attached to the child of $\text{next}-x$.



Operations on Binomial Heap

2. Union Operation



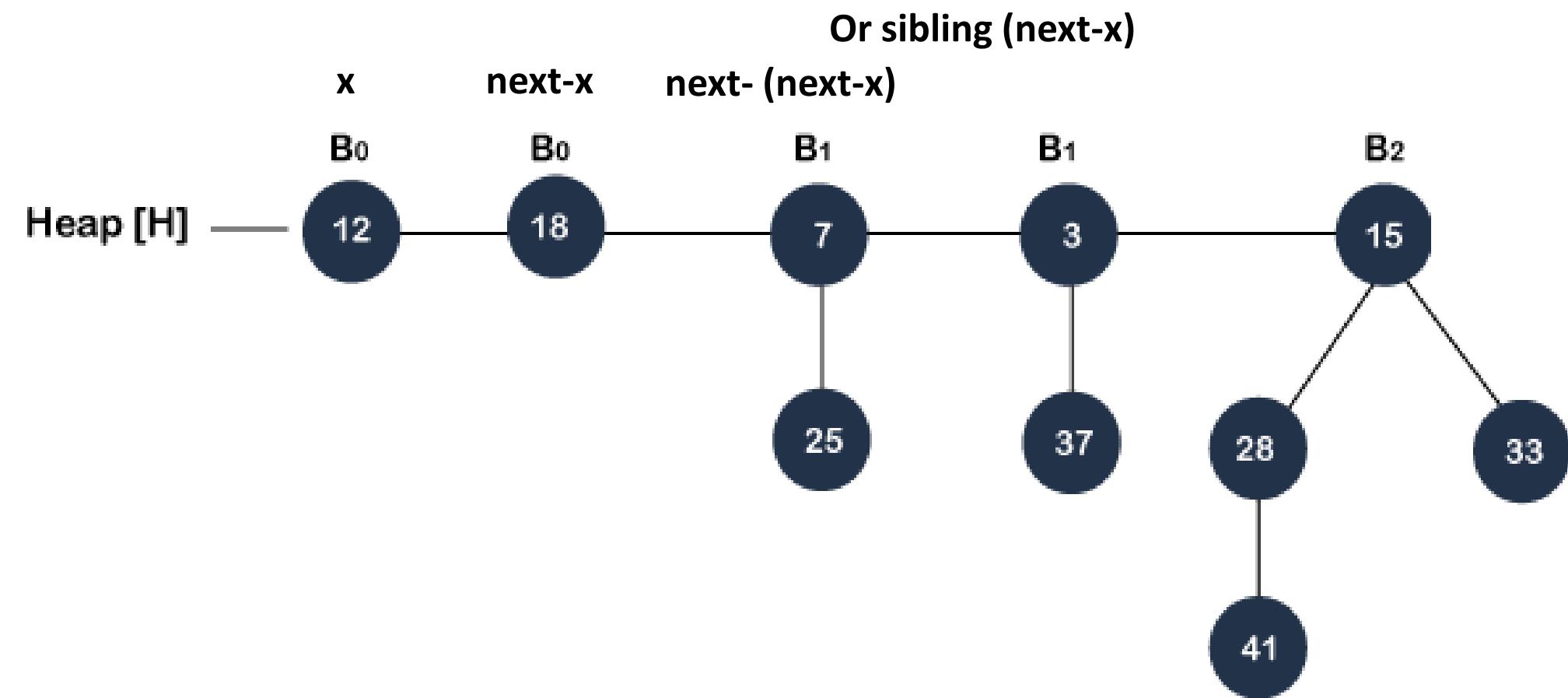
Step 1- The first step is to simply merge the two Heaps in non-decreasing order of degrees



Operations on Binomial Heap

2. Union Operation

Step 1- The first step is to simply merge the two Heaps in non-decreasing order of degrees

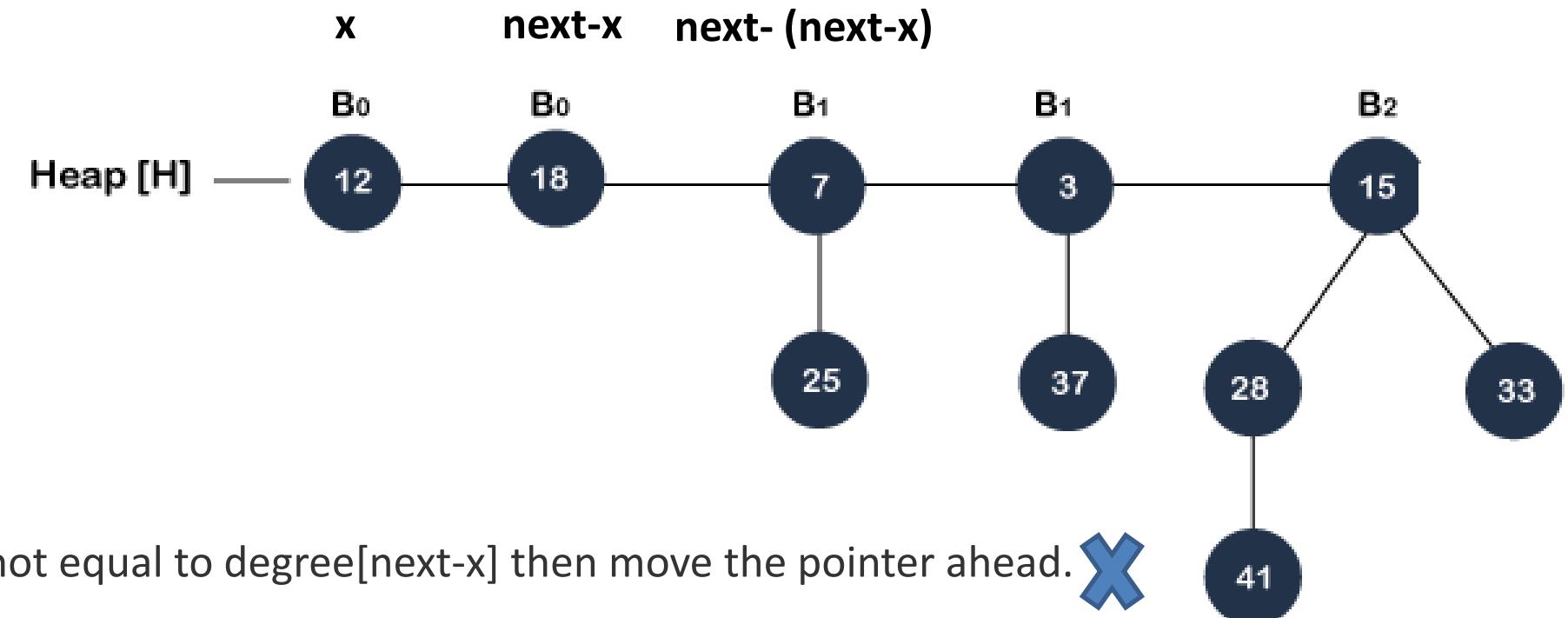


Step 2- Define Initially, x points to the B₀ having value 12, and next-x points to B₀ having value 18. The B₁ is the sibling of B₀ having node value 18. Therefore, the sibling B₁ is represented as sibling[next x] or next- (next-x)



Operations on Binomial Heap

2. Union Operation



Step-3

Case 1: If degree[x] is not equal to degree[next-x] then move the pointer ahead.

Case 2: if degree[x] = degree[next-x]

Case 2.1 if degree[next-(next-x)] is also same (same with case 2) then Move the pointer ahead.

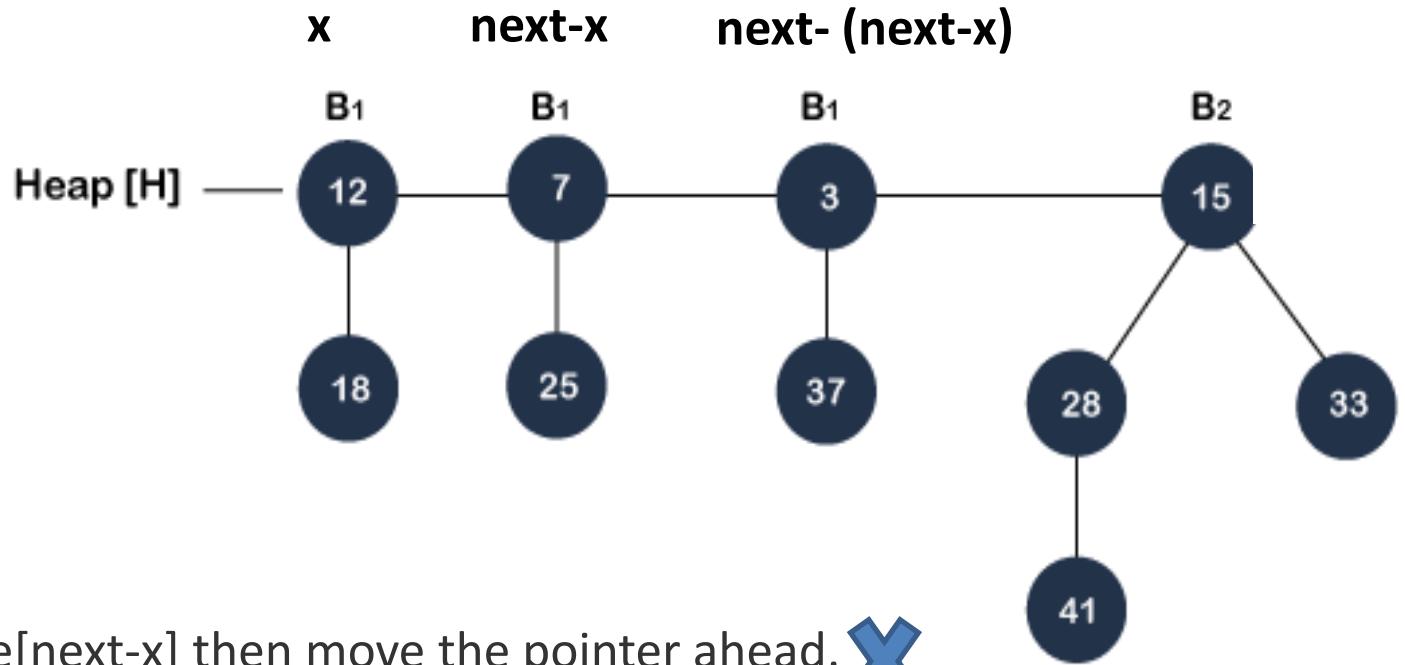
Case 2.2: If degree [next-(next-x)] is not same (not same with case 2) and key[x] is smaller than key[next-x] then remove [next-x] from root and attached to the child of x by linking to it.

Case 2.3 : If degree [next-(next-x)] is not same (not same with case 2) and key[x] is larger than key[next-x] then remove x from the root and attached to the child of next-x.



Operations on Binomial Heap

2. Union Operation



Step-3

Case 1: If $\text{degree}[x]$ is not equal to $\text{degree}[\text{next}-x]$ then move the pointer ahead.

Case 2: if $\text{degree}[x] = \text{degree}[\text{next}-x]$

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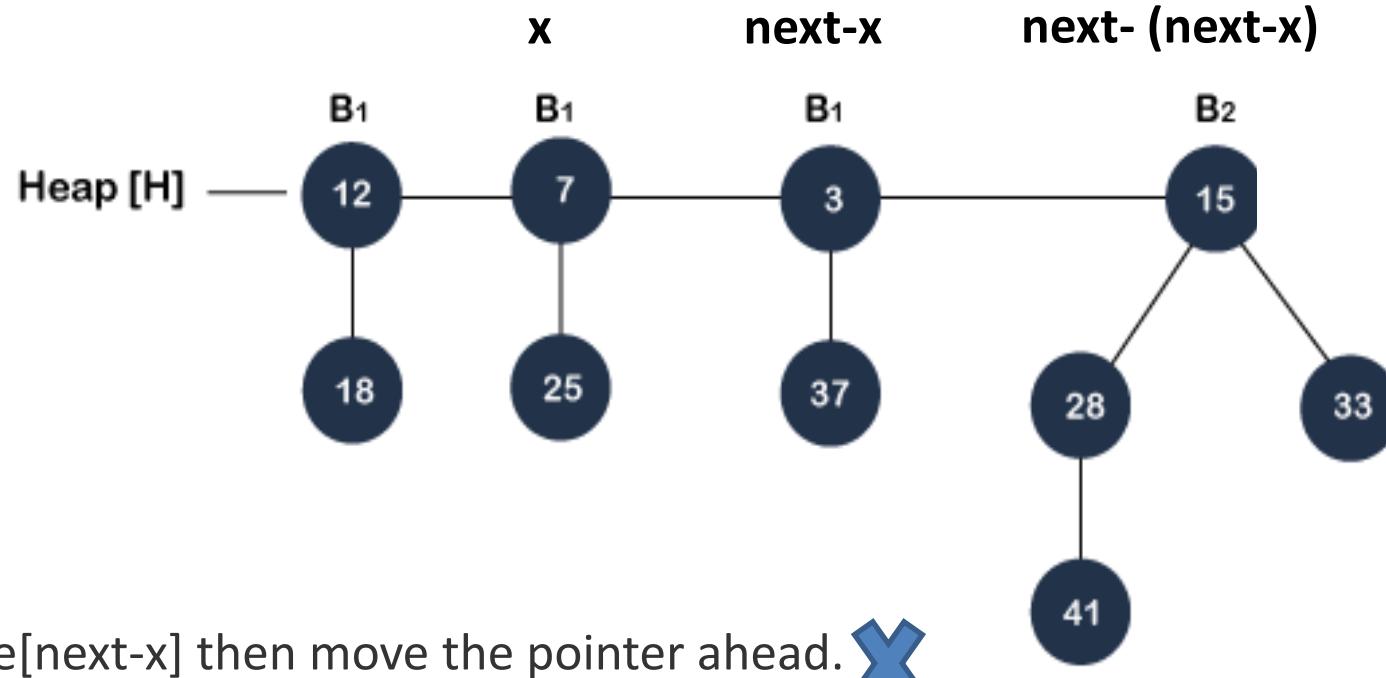
Case 2.2: If $\text{degree} [\text{next}-(\text{next}-x)]$ is not same (not same with case 2) and $\text{key}[x]$ is smaller than $\text{key}[\text{next}-x]$ then remove $[\text{next}-x]$ from root and attached to the child of x by linking to it.

Case 2.3 : If $\text{degree} [\text{next}-(\text{next}-x)]$ is not same (not same with case 2) and $\text{key}[x]$ is larger than $\text{key}[\text{next}-x]$ then remove x from the root and attached to the child of $\text{next}-x$.



Operations on Binomial Heap

2. Union Operation



Step-3

Case 1: If degree[x] is not equal to degree[next-x] then move the pointer ahead. 

Case 2: if degree[x] = degree[next-x]

Case 2.1 if degree[next-(next-x)] is also same (same with case 2) then Move the pointer ahead.

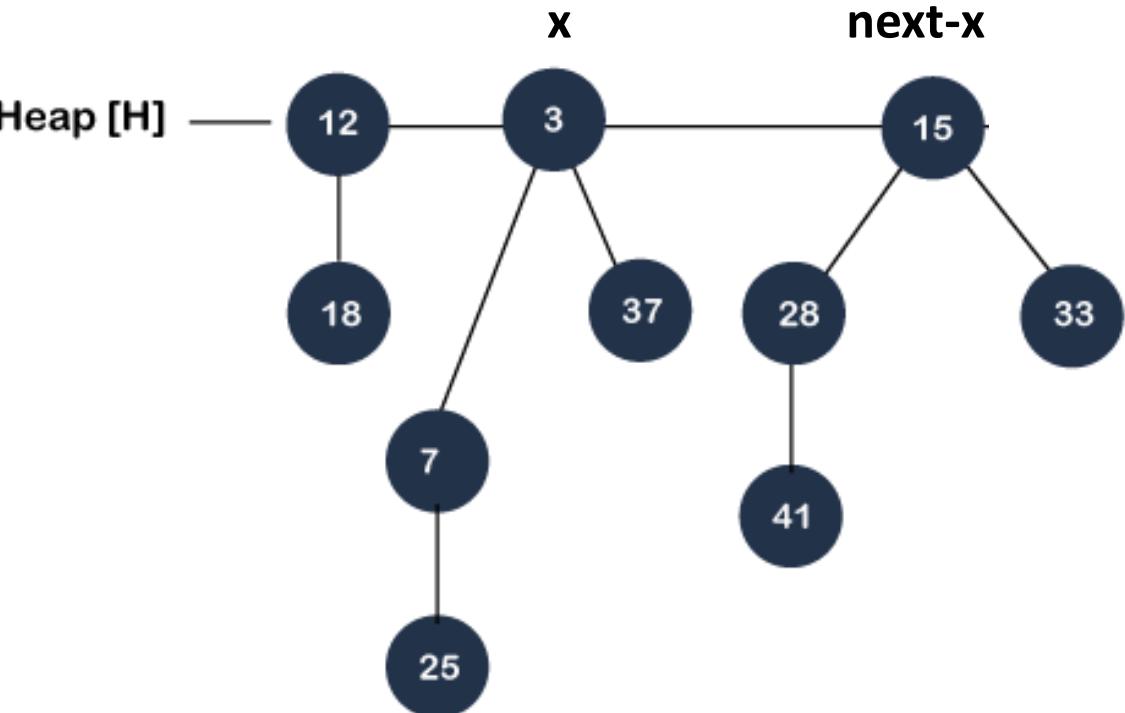
Case 2.2: If degree [next-(next-x)] is not same (not same with case 2) and key[x] is smaller than key[next-x] then remove [next-x] from root and attached to the child of x by linking to it.

Case 2.3 : If degree [next-(next-x)] is not same (not same with case 2) and key[x] is larger than key[next-x] then remove x from the root and attached to the child of next-x.



Operations on Binomial Heap

2. Union Operation



Step-3

Case 1: If $\text{degree}[x]$ is not equal to $\text{degree}[\text{next}-x]$ then move the pointer ahead.

Case 2: if $\text{degree}[x] = \text{degree}[\text{next}-x]$

Case 2.1 if $\text{degree}[\text{next}-(\text{next}-x)]$ is also same (same with case 2) then Move the pointer ahead.

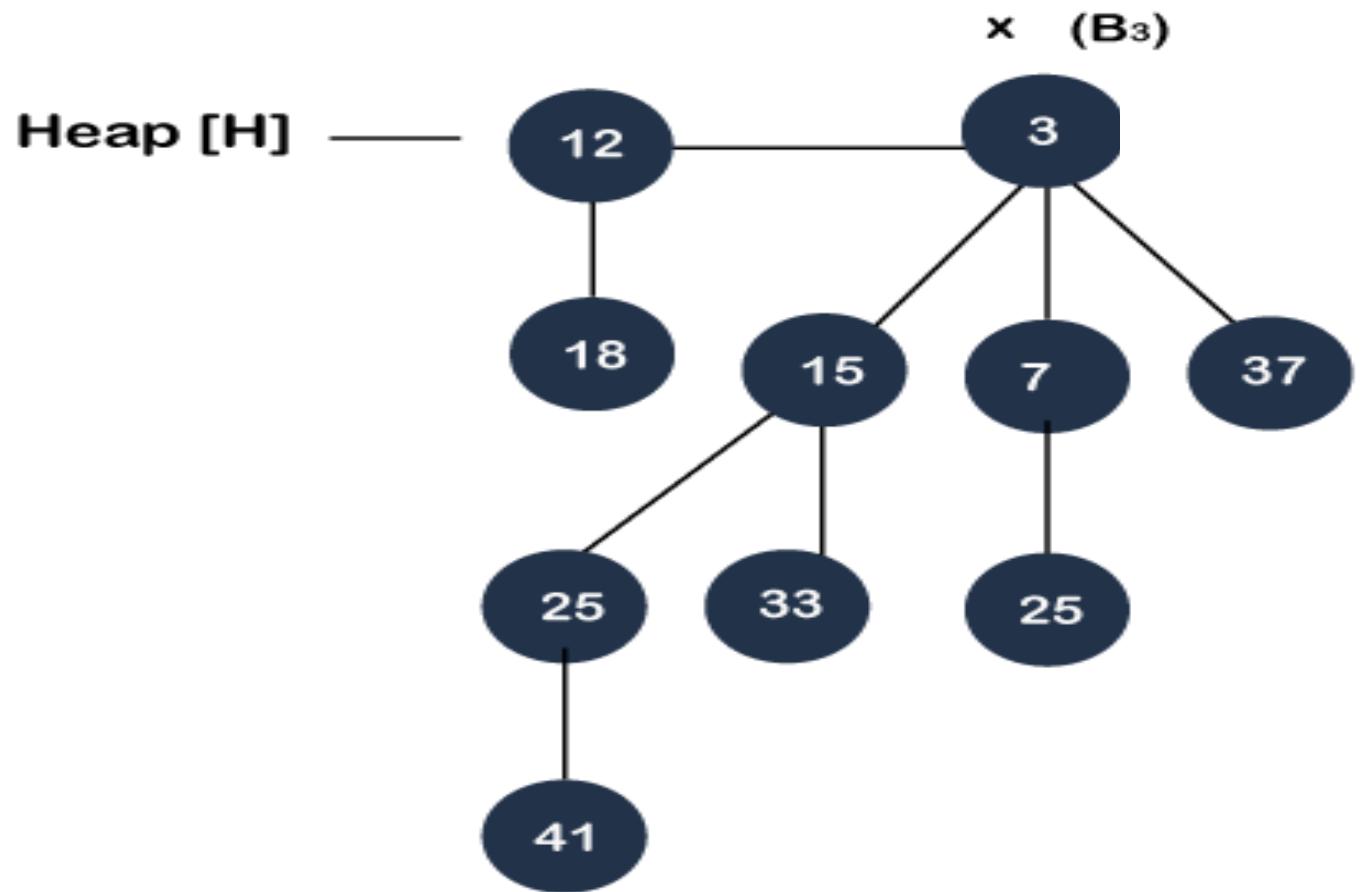
Case 2.2: If $\text{degree} [\text{next}-(\text{next}-x)]$ is not same (not same with case 2) and $\text{key}[x]$ is smaller than $\text{key}[\text{next}-x]$ then remove $[\text{next}-x]$ from root and attached to the child of x by linking to it.

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Operations on Binomial Heap

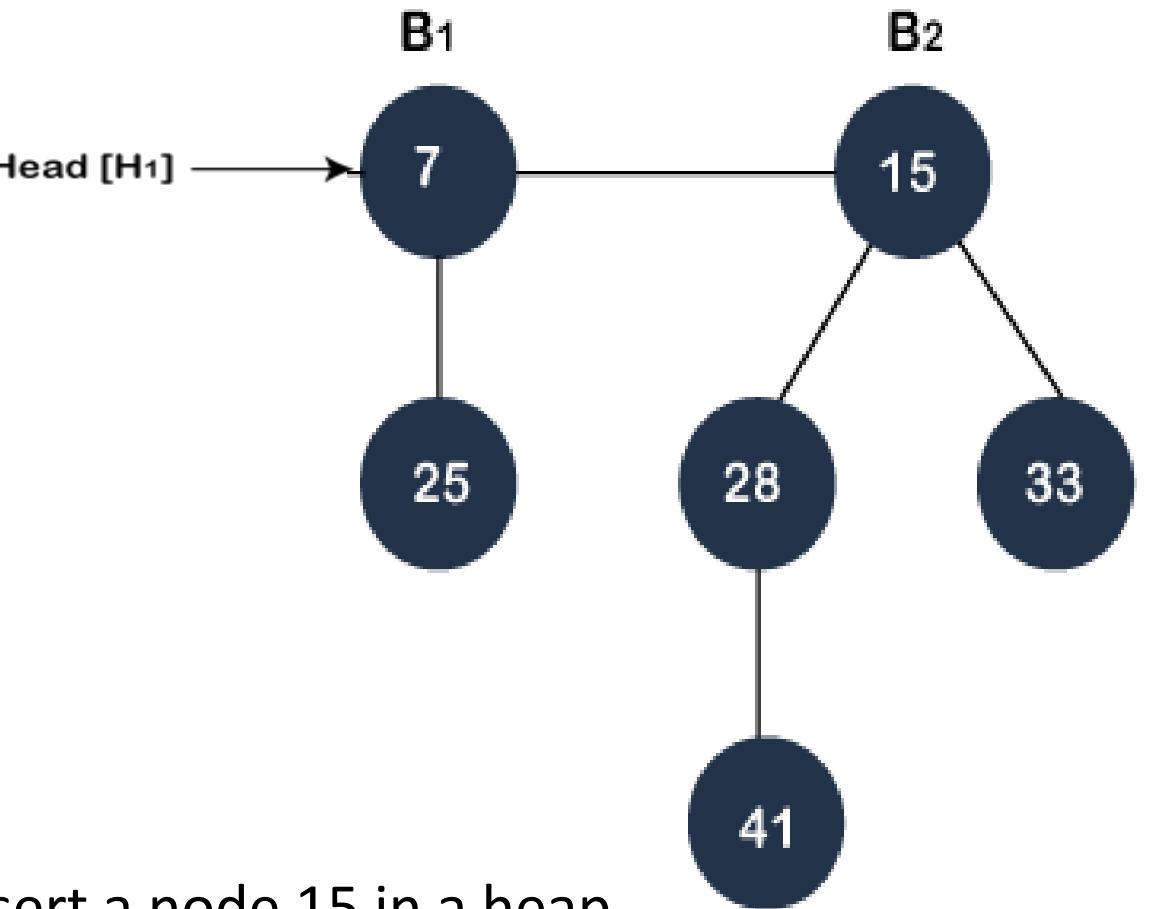
2. Union Operation



- The above tree is the final tree after the union of two binomial heaps.
- It is satisfying the properties of Binomial Heap. (For any non-negative integer k, there should be atmost one binomial tree in a heap where root has degree k.)
- The time complexity for finding a union is O(log n).

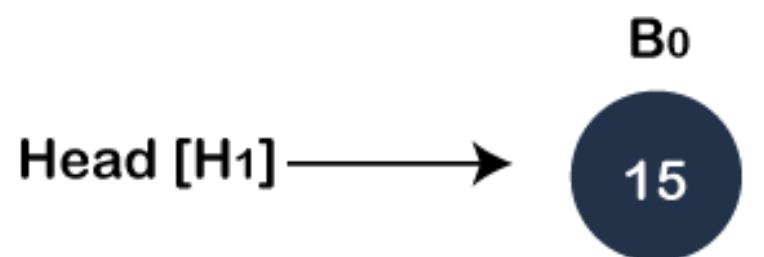
Operations on Binomial Heap

3. Insert Operation



Consider the above heap, and we want to insert a node 15 in a heap.

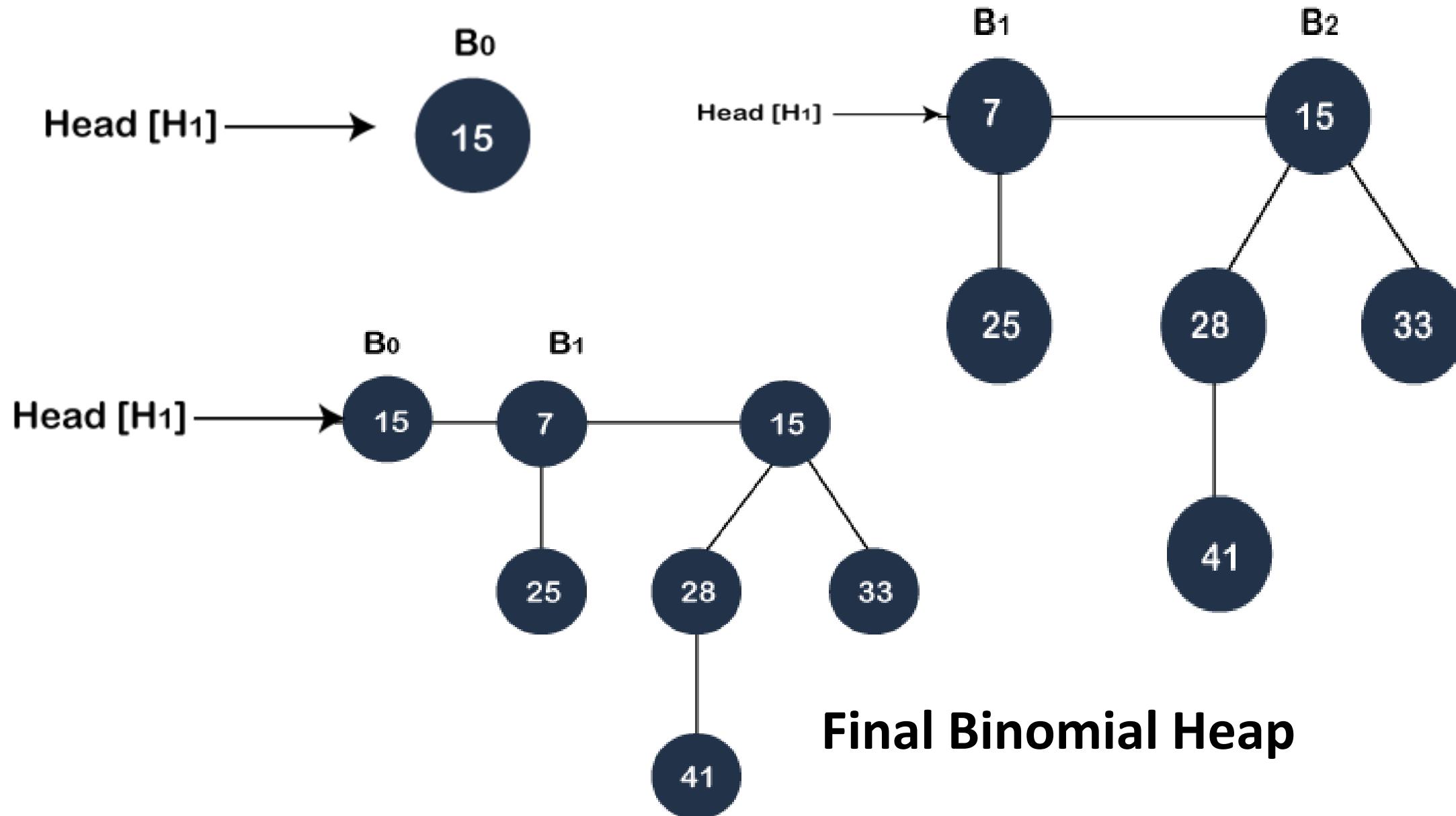
- Create a new binomial heap of 1 node (the node to be inserted) and make union with the other heap.



Operations on Binomial Heap

3. Insert Operation

Perform union operation



If after performing the union operation, final heap satisfies the Binomial heap properties, then this is the final heap otherwise balance it using different union case.

The time complexity for inserting a node is $O(\log n)$.

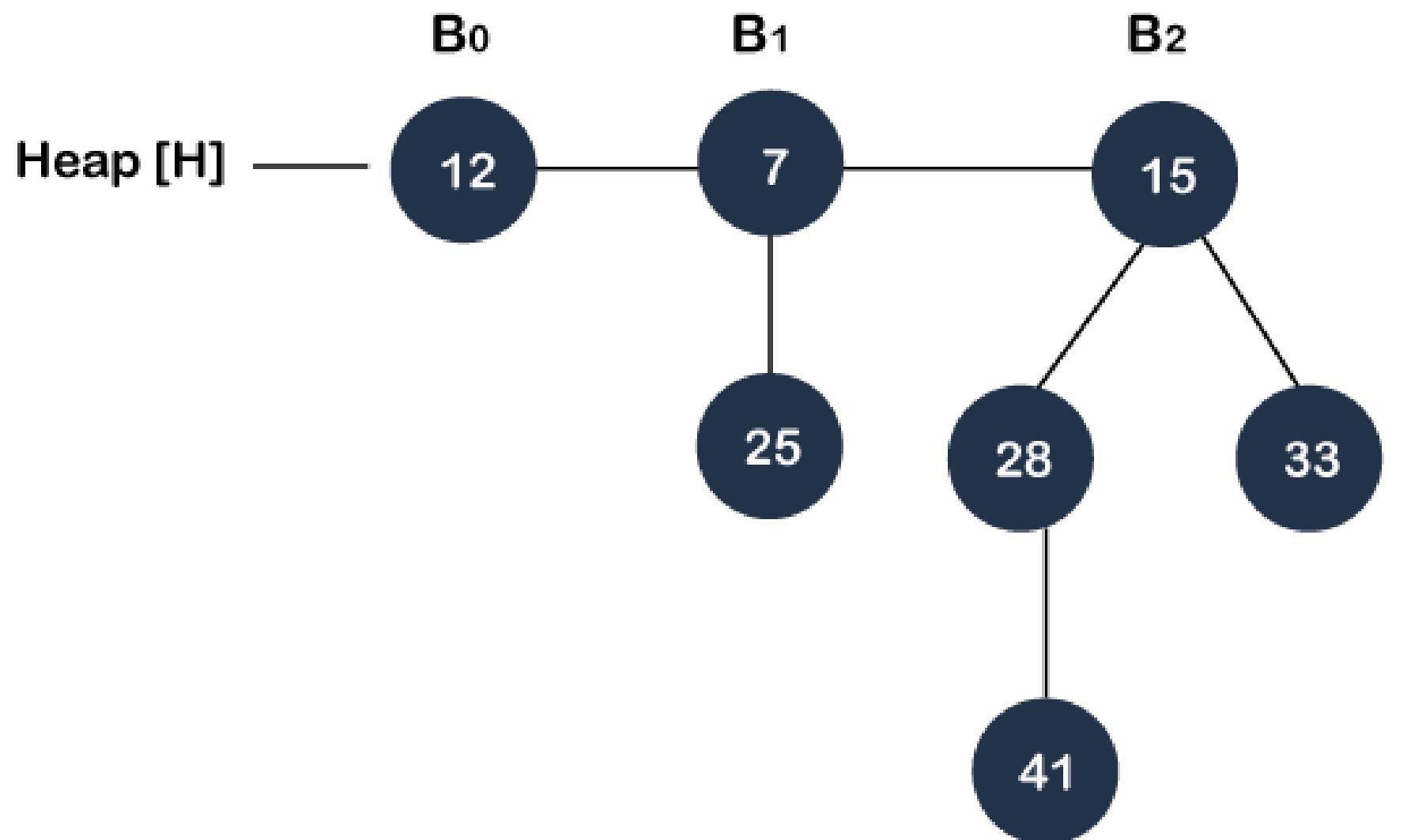


Operations on Binomial Heap

4. Extracting a minimum key

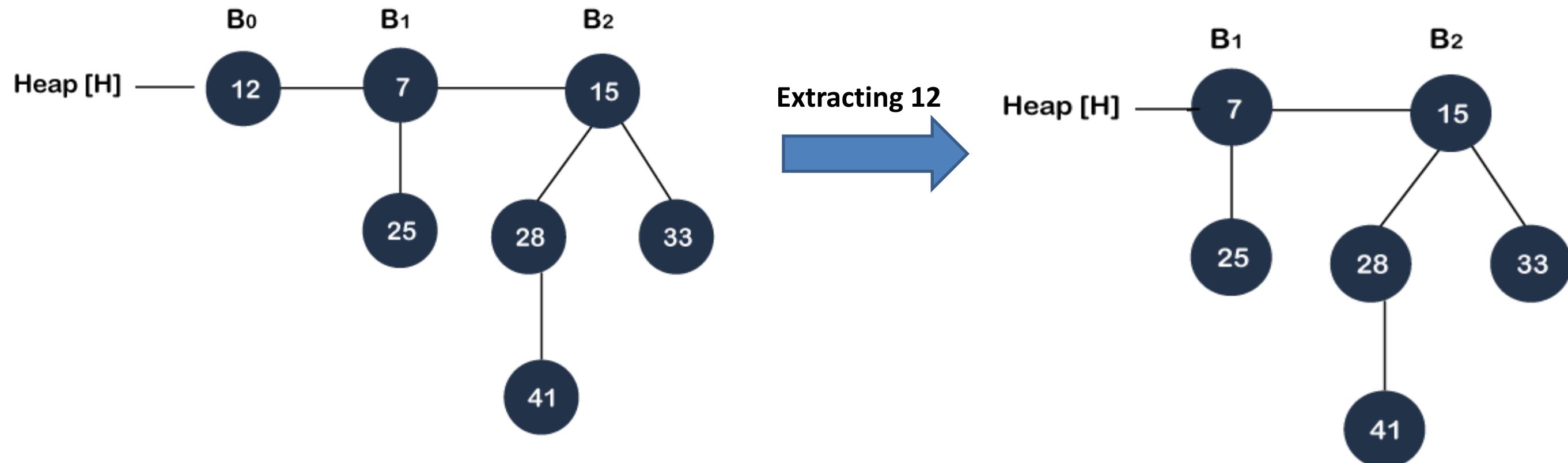
Extracting a minimum key means that we need to remove the element which has minimum key value.

We already know that in min heap, the root element contains the minimum key value. Therefore, we have to compare the key value of root node of all the binomial trees.



Operations on Binomial Heap

4. Extracting a minimum key

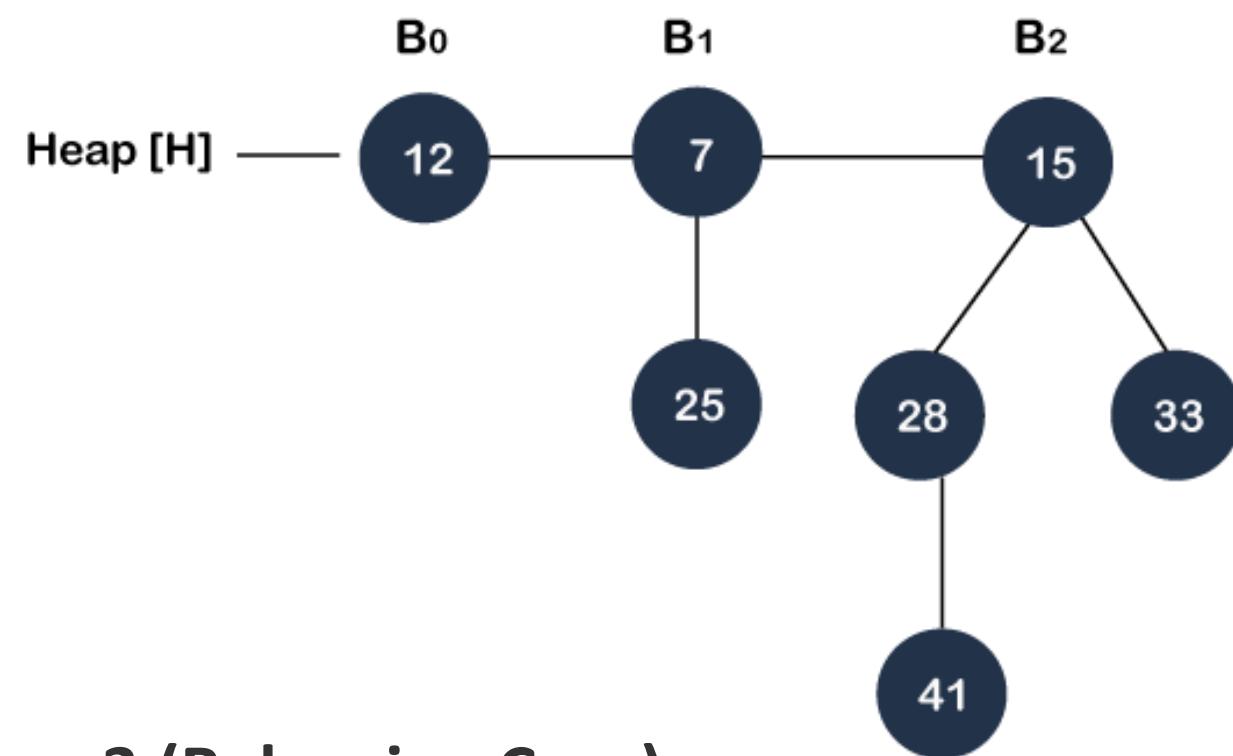


Operations on Binomial Heap

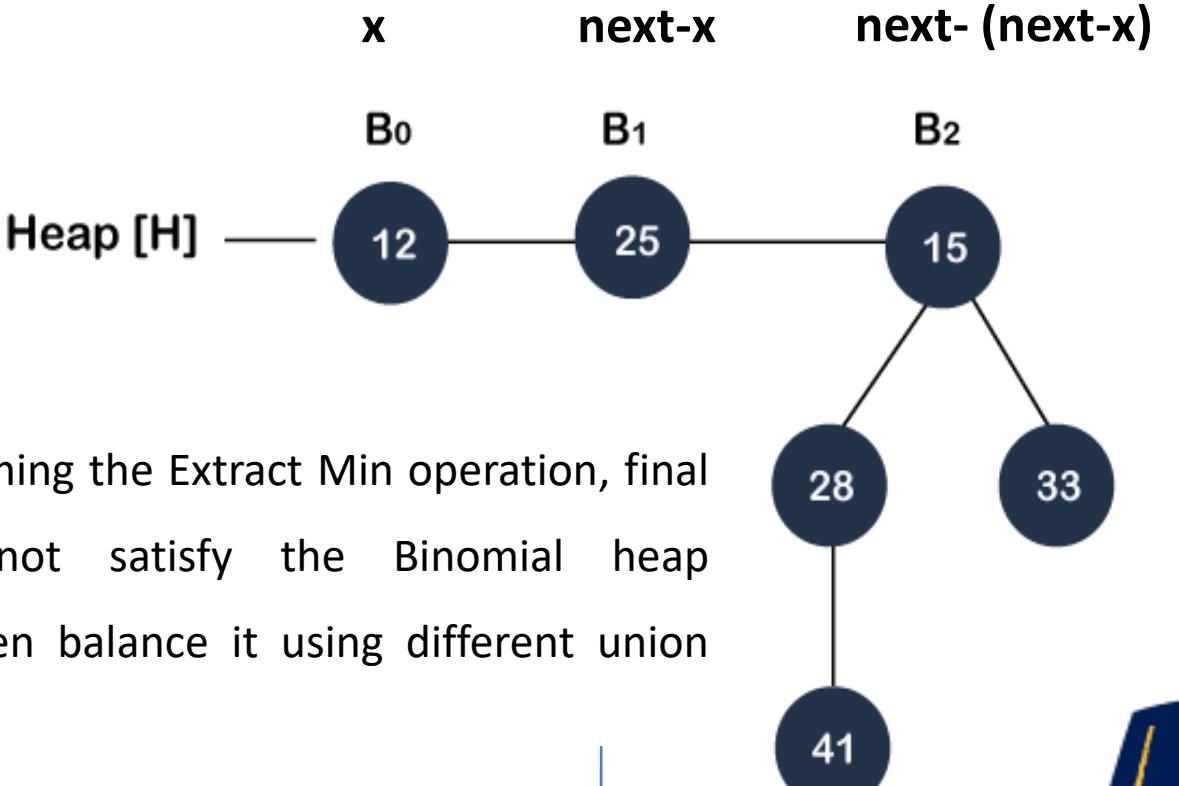
The time complexity for removing a minimum key is $O(\log n)$.



4. Extracting a minimum key



Extracting 7



If after performing the Extract Min operation, final heap does not satisfy the Binomial heap properties, then balance it using different union cases.

Step-3 (Balancing Case)

Case 1: If $\text{degree}[x] \neq \text{degree}[\text{next}-x]$ then move the pointer ahead.

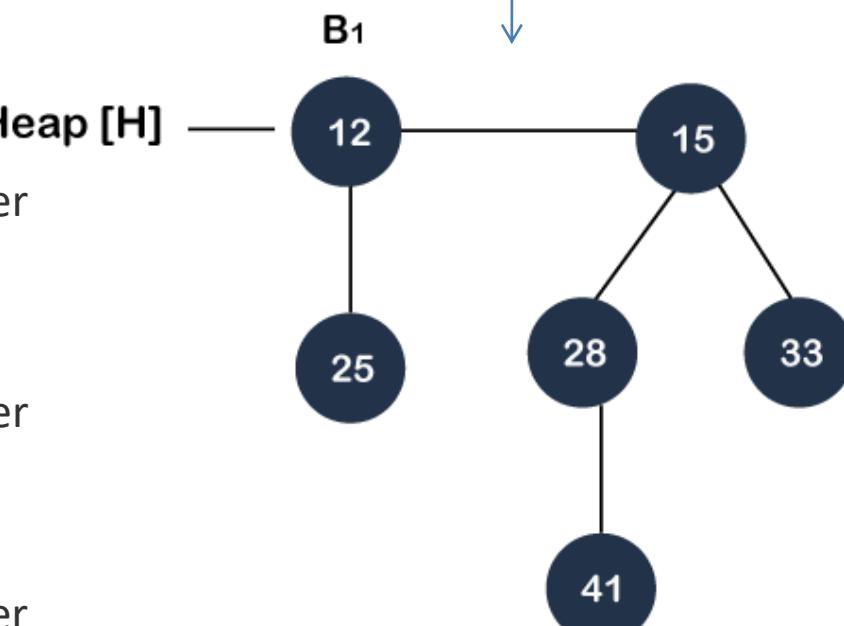
Case 2: if $\text{degree}[x] = \text{degree}[\text{next}-x]$

Case 2.1 if $\text{degree}[\text{next}-(\text{next}-x)]$ is also same (same with case 2) then Move the pointer ahead.

Case 2.2: If $\text{degree}[\text{next}-(\text{next}-x)]$ is not same (not same with case 2) and $\text{key}[x] < \text{key}[\text{next}-x]$ then remove $[\text{next}-x]$ from root and attached to the child of x by linking to it.

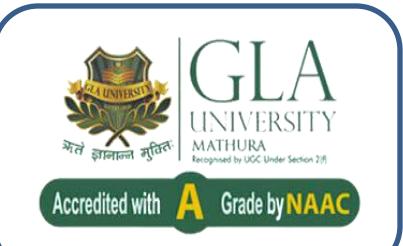
Case 2.3 : If $\text{degree}[\text{next}-(\text{next}-x)]$ is not same (not same with case 2) and $\text{key}[x] > \text{key}[\text{next}-x]$ then remove $\text{next}-x$ from the root and attached to the child of x.

Case 2.2 is applied.



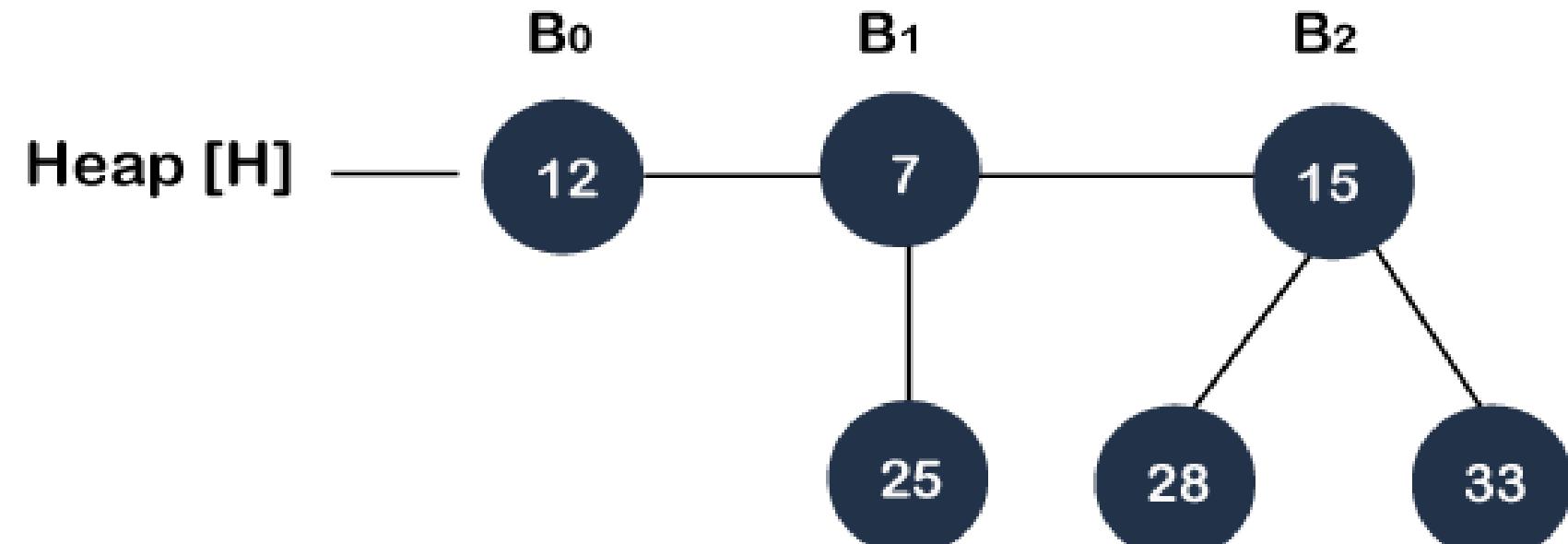
Operations on Binomial Heap

The time complexity for deleting a node is $O(\log n)$.



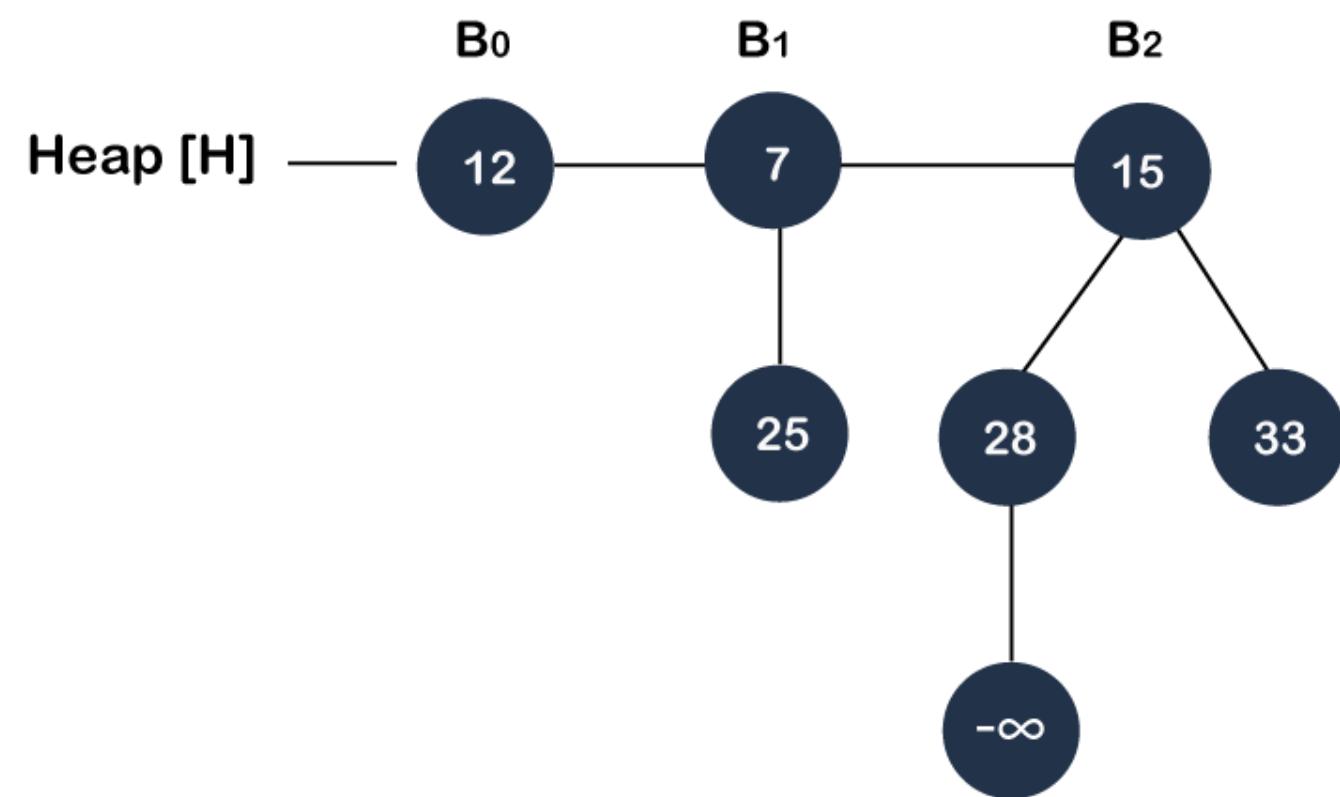
5. Deleting a node

We want to delete node 41



Step- 1

We replace node 41 with the smallest value, and the smallest value is -infinity, shown as below:



Operations on Binomial Heap

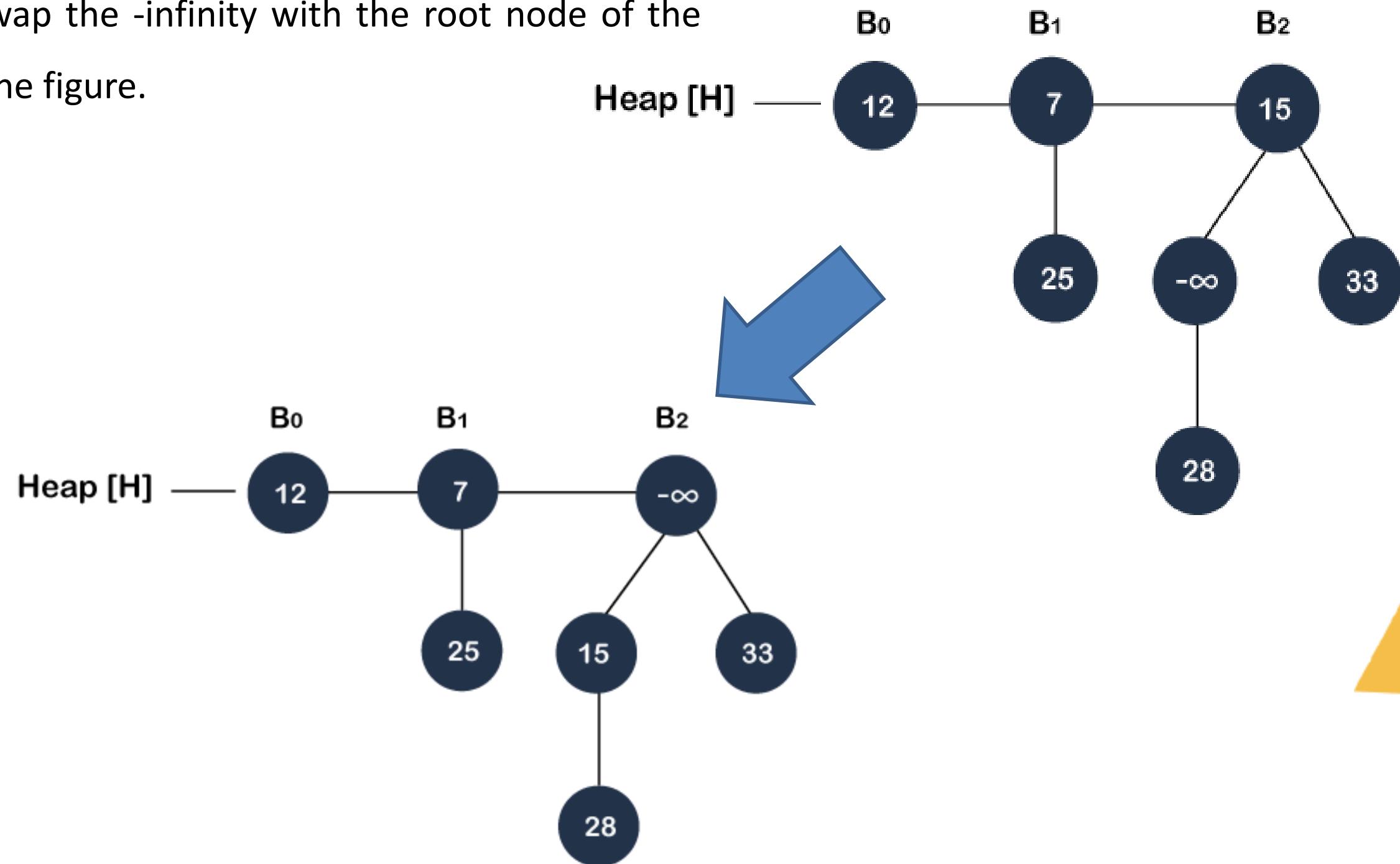
The time complexity for deleting a node is $O(\log n)$.



5. Deleting a node

Step- 2

Now we will swap the $-\infty$ with the root node of the tree shown in the figure.



Operations on Binomial Heap

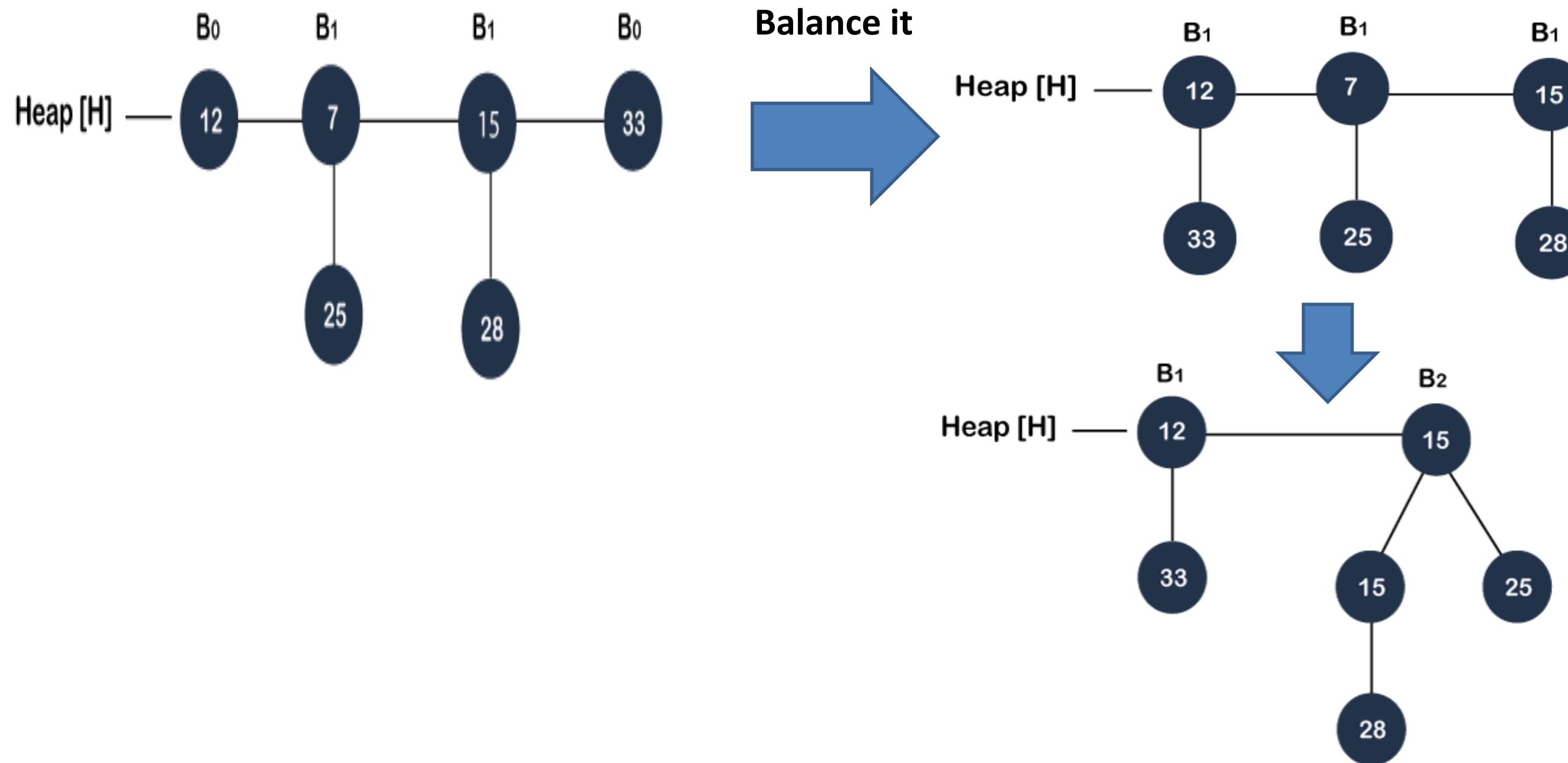
The time complexity for deleting a node is $O(\log n)$.

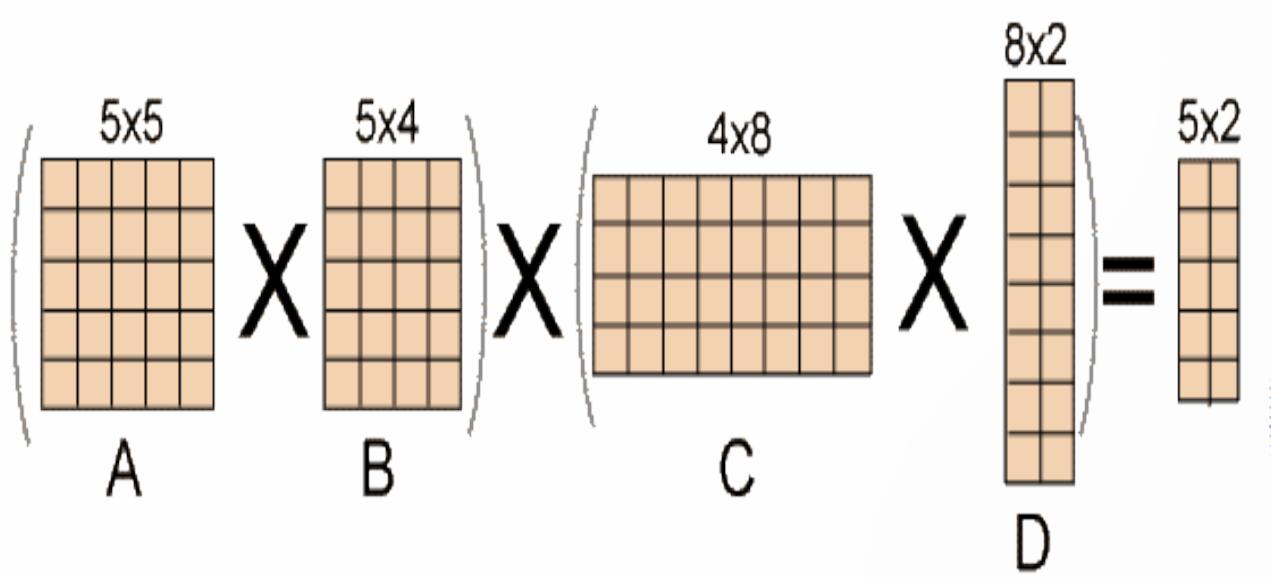


5. Deleting a node

Step- 3

The next step is to extract the minimum key. Since the minimum key in a heap is -infinity so we will extract this key, and the heap would be:





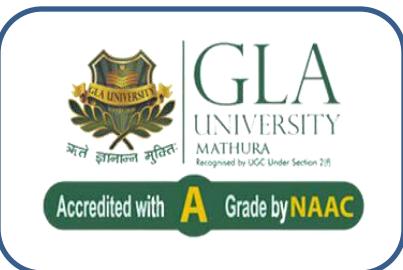
The diagram illustrates the multiplication of four matrices, A, B, C, and D, resulting in matrix E. Matrix A is 5x5, matrix B is 5x4, matrix C is 4x8, and matrix D is 8x2. The matrices are arranged in a chain: A is multiplied by B, which is then multiplied by C, and finally by D. The result is matrix E, which is 5x2.

$$\begin{matrix} 5 \times 5 \\ A \end{matrix} \times \begin{matrix} 5 \times 4 \\ B \end{matrix} \times \begin{matrix} 4 \times 8 \\ C \end{matrix} \times \begin{matrix} 8 \times 2 \\ D \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} 5 \times 2 \\ E \end{matrix}$$

03. Matrix Chain Multiplication

Using Dynamic Programming

Matrix Chain Multiplication



Problem Statement

Given a chain $\langle M_1, M_2 \dots M_n \rangle$ of n two-dimensional matrices.

Find the most efficient way (**parenthesize the product or order of product**) to multiply these matrices together $M_1 \times M_2 \times \dots \times M_n$ that **minimizes the number of multiplications**. Also calculate the total number of multiplications.



Understanding Matrix Chain Multiplication



Due to associative nature of matrix multiplication, we have many ways to multiply a chain of matrices.

In other words, no matter how we parenthesize the product, the result will be the same.

For example, if we had four matrices A, B, C, and D, we would have:

$$(ABC)D = (AB)(CD) = A(BCD) = \dots \dots \text{(the result will be the same in all cases)}$$



Understanding Matrix Chain Multiplication

In order to Multiply two matrices, number of columns in first matrix should be equal to number of rows in second matrix.

For example- There are two matrices A and B with dimensions

A (2×3) and B (3×2).

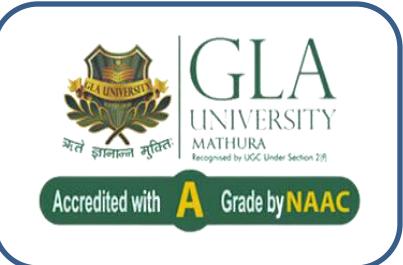
$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 4 \\ \text{A} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 7 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 1 & 9 \\ \text{B} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (5*1)+(2*2)+(3*1) & (5*7)+(2*5)+(3*9) \\ (2*1)+(0*2)+(4*1) & (2*7)+(0*5)+(4*9) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 72 \\ 6 & 50 \\ \text{C} \end{bmatrix}$$

Total number of multiplication of A (2×3) and B (3×2) to obtain C (2×2) matrix = $2 \times 3 \times 2 = 12$

In generalized way matrices A ($P \times Q$) and B($Q \times R$) will result matrix ($P \times R$) which contains $P * R$ elements. To calculate each element need “Q” number of multiplications.

Total multiplications needed are $P * Q * R$

Understanding Matrix Chain Multiplication



Let assume there are 3 matrices A (1×2), B (2×3), C (3×2).

We can find the final result in two ways **(AB)C** or **A(BC)**. We get same result in any way since **matrix multiplication satisfies associativity property**. It is not commutative i.e. $A * (B*C)$ not equal to $A * (C * B)$

If we follow first way, i.e. (AB)C way.

To calculate (AB) we need $1*2*3 = 6$ multiplications.

Now resultant AB get dimensions 1×3 this multiplied with C need $1*3*2 = 6$ multiplications.

Total $6+6 = 12$ multiplications needed.

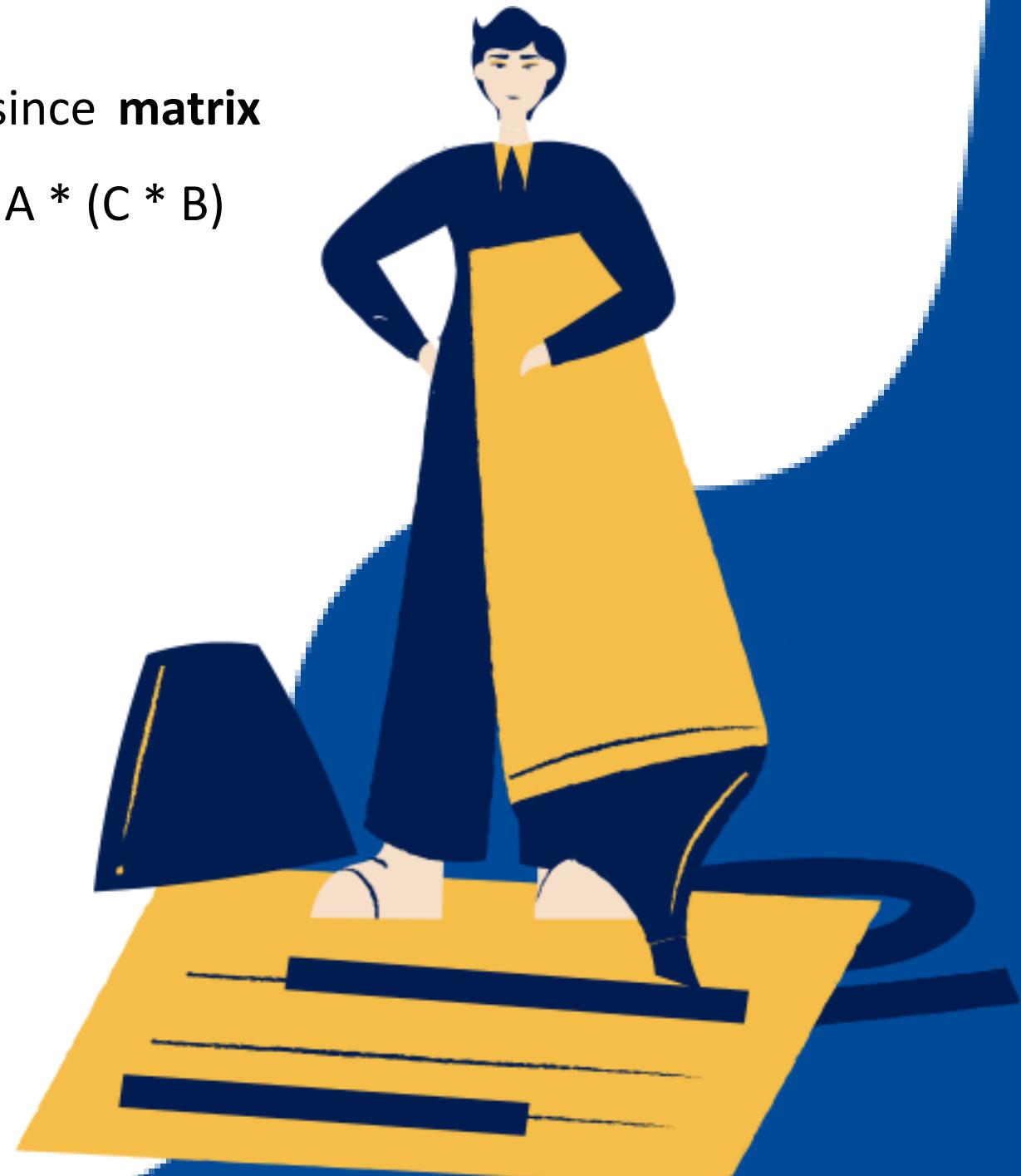
If we follow second way, i.e. A(BC) way.

To calculate (BC) we need $2*3 *2 = 12$ multiplications.

Now resultant BC get dimensions 2×3 . A multiplied with this result need $1*2*2 = 4$.

Total $12+4 = 16$ multiplications needed.

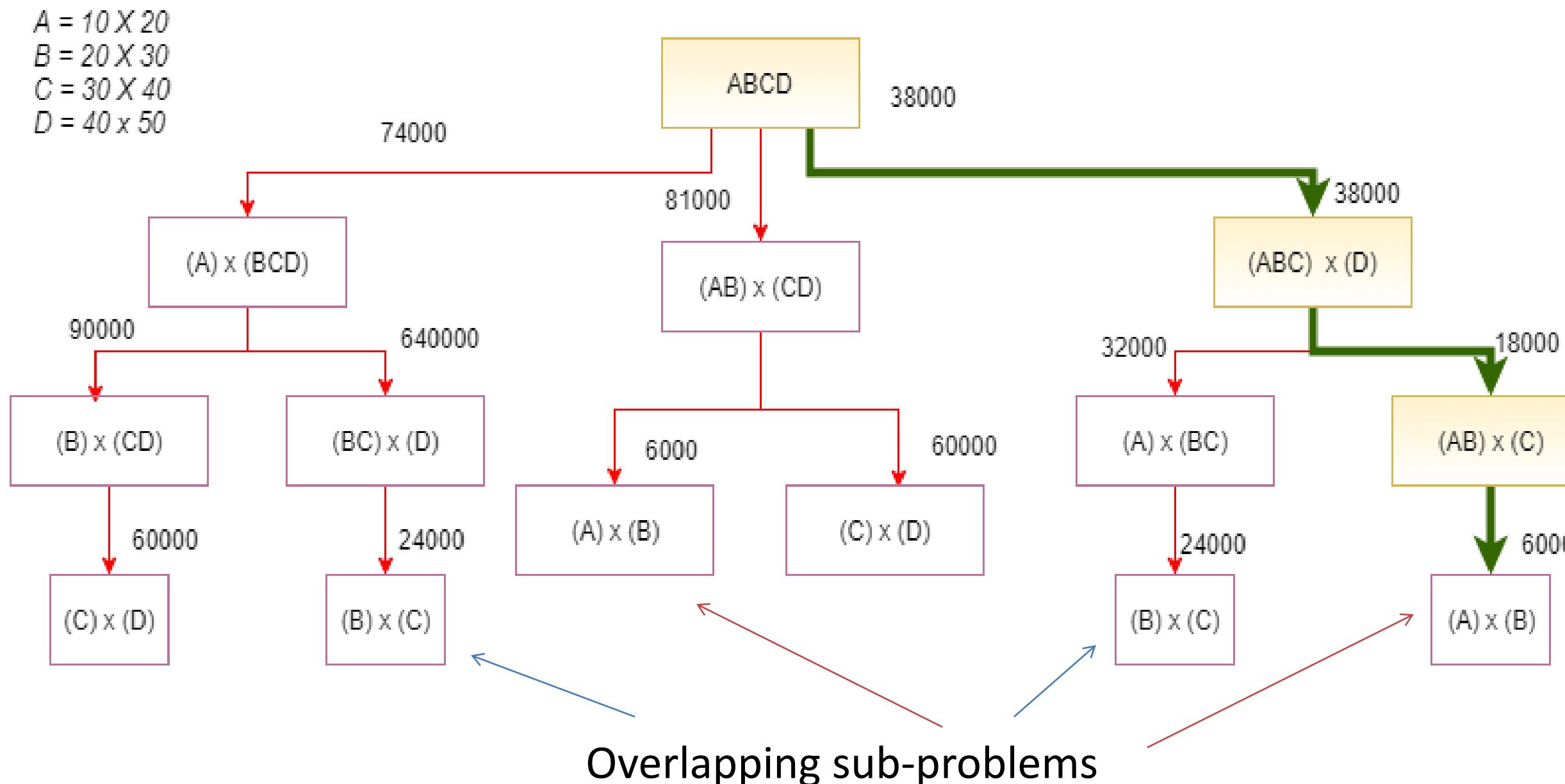
We can observe that based on the way we parenthesize the matrices total number of multiplications are changing.



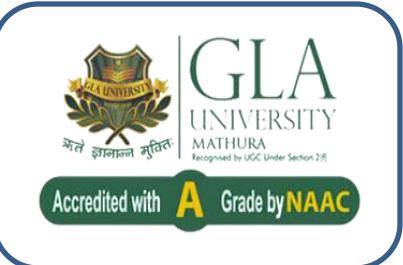
Understanding Matrix Chain Multiplication

Now, Lets assume there are 4 matrices A, B, C, D of size given below.

We can find the final result in different ways **as shown in the graph.**



Matrix Chain Multiplication using Dynamic Programming

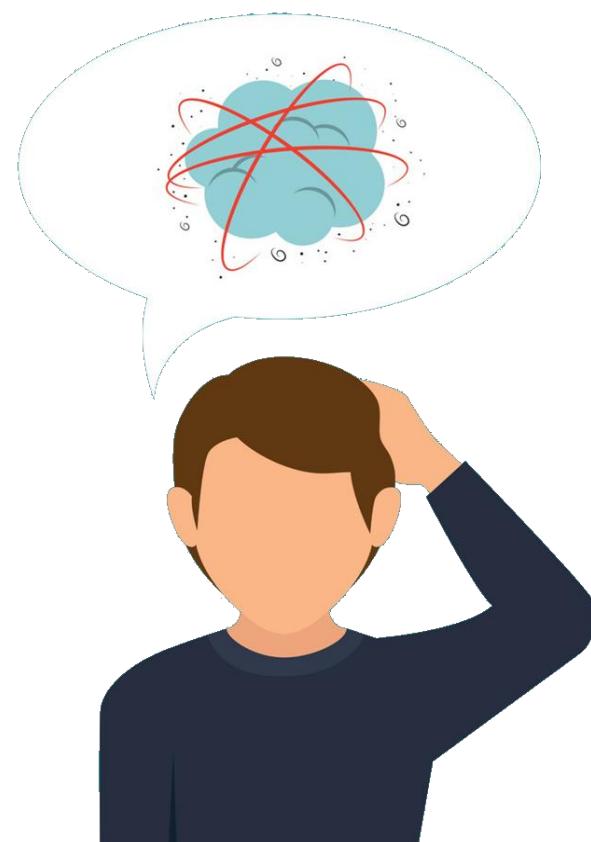


Let we have “n” number of matrices $A_1, A_2, A_3 \dots A_n$ and

dimensions are $d_0 \times d_1, d_1 \times d_2, d_2 \times d_3 \dots d_{n-1} \times d_n$ i.e Dimension of Matrix A_i is $d_{i-1} \times d_i$

Solving a chain of matrix that,

$$A_i \ A_{i+1} \ A_{i+2} \ A_{i+3} \dots A_j = (A_i \ A_{i+1} \ A_{i+2} \ A_{i+3} \dots A_k) (A_{k+1} \ A_{k+2} \dots A_j) + d_{i-1} \ d_k \ d_j \text{ where } i \leq k < j.$$



Confused??



Understanding Matrix Chain Multiplication using Dynamic Programming



Solving a chain of matrix that,

$$A_i \ A_{i+1} \ A_{i+2} \ A_{i+3} \dots \ A_j = (A_i \ A_{i+1} \ A_{i+2} \ A_{i+3} \dots \ A_k) (A_{k+1} \ A_{k+2} \dots \ A_j) + d_{i-1} \ d_k \ d_j \text{ where } i \leq k < j.$$

(dimensions are $d_0 \times d_1, d_1 \times d_2, d_2 \times d_3, \dots, d_{n-1} \times d_n$)

Example

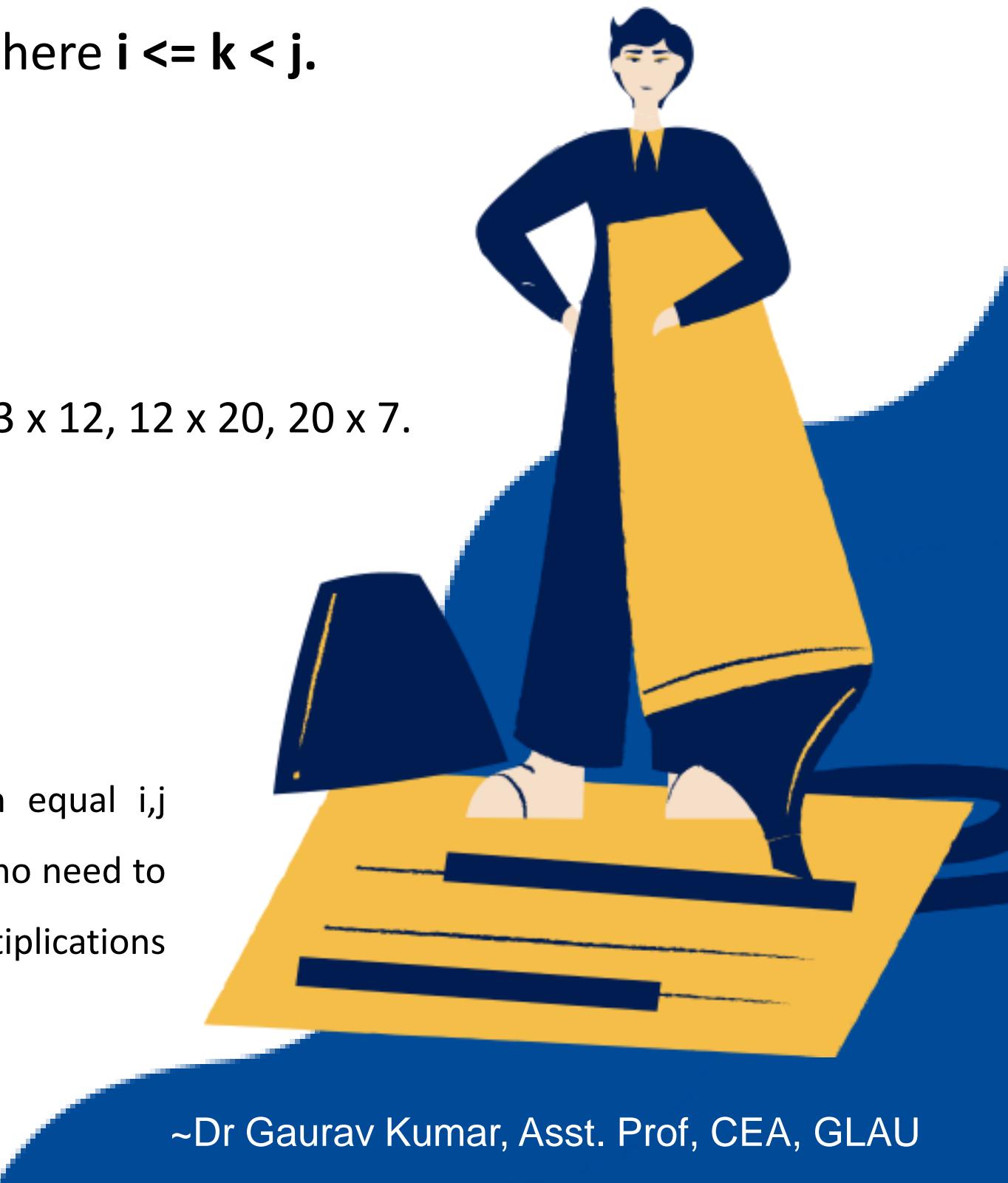
We are given the sequence {4, 10, 3, 12, 20, and 7}. The matrices have size $4 \times 10, 10 \times 3, 3 \times 12, 12 \times 20, 20 \times 7$.

We need to compute $M[i,j], 0 \leq i, j \leq 5$. We know $M[i, i] = 0$ for all i .

To store results, in dynamic programming we create a table

1	2	3	4	5
0				
0				
0				
0				
0				

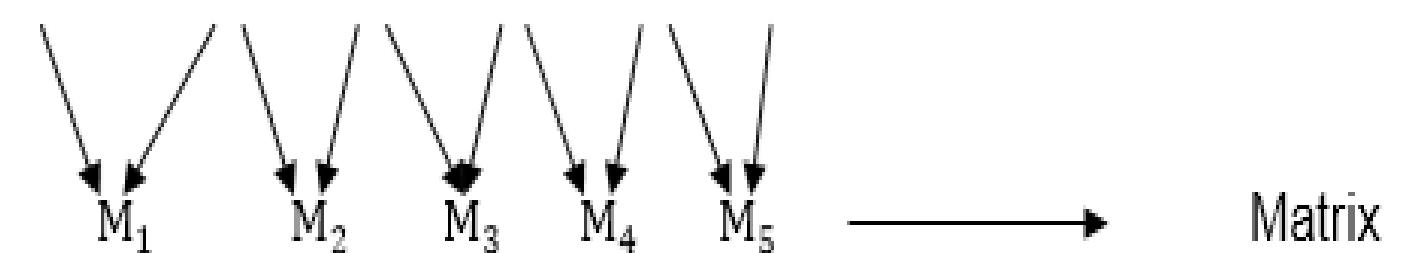
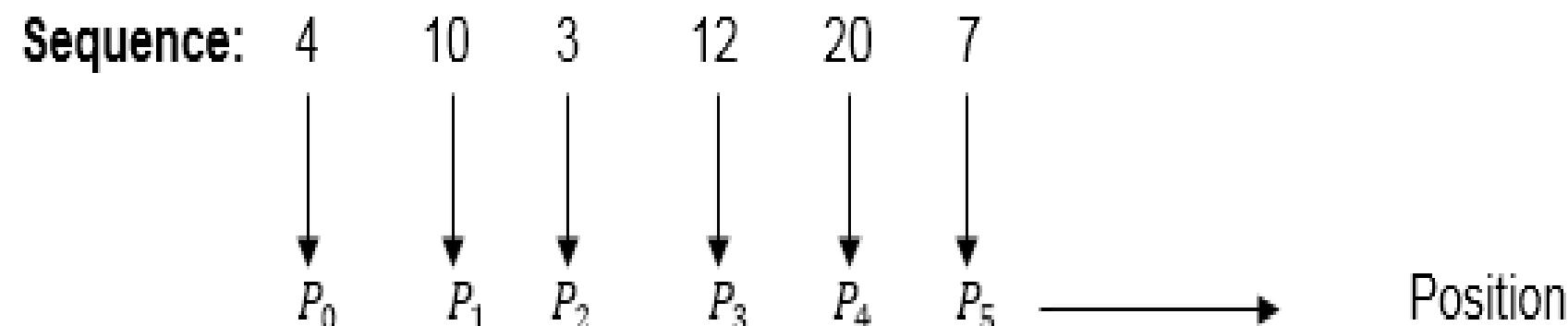
- 1 We initialize the diagonal element with equal i, j value with '0'. (If there is only one matrix no need to multiply with any other. So 0 (zero) multiplications required.)
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5



Understanding Matrix Chain Multiplication using Dynamic Programming

We are given the sequence {4, 10, 3, 12, 20, and 7}. The matrices have size 4×10 , 10×3 , 3×12 , 12×20 , 20×7 .

We need to compute $M[i, j]$, $0 \leq i, j \leq 5$. We know $M[i, i] = 0$ for all i .



1	2	3	4	5
0				
	0			
		0		
			0	
				0

M (row x column)

$M_1 (4 \times 10) \rightarrow M_1 (P_0 \times P_1)$

$M_2 (10 \times 3) \rightarrow M_2 (P_1 \times P_2)$

$M_3 (3 \times 12) \rightarrow M_3 (P_2 \times P_3)$

$M_4 (12 \times 20) \rightarrow M_4 (P_3 \times P_4)$

$M_5 (20 \times 7) \rightarrow M_5 (P_4 \times P_5)$

For $M_i \rightarrow p[i]$ as column

$p[i-1]$ as row



Understanding Matrix Chain Multiplication using Dynamic Programming



We are given the sequence {4, 10, 3, 12, 20, and 7}. The matrices have size 4×10 , 10×3 , 3×12 , 12×20 , 20×7 .

We need to compute $M[i, j]$, $0 \leq i, j \leq 5$. We know $M[i, i] = 0$ for all i .

Step-1 We have to sort out all the combination, First Calculate Product of 2 matrices

1. $m(1,2) = m_1 \times m_2 = 4 \times 10 \times 3 = 120$
2. $m(2,3) = m_2 \times m_3 = 10 \times 3 \times 12 = 360$
3. $m(3,4) = m_3 \times m_4 = 3 \times 12 \times 20 = 720$
4. $m(4,5) = m_4 \times m_5 = 12 \times 20 \times 7 = 1680$

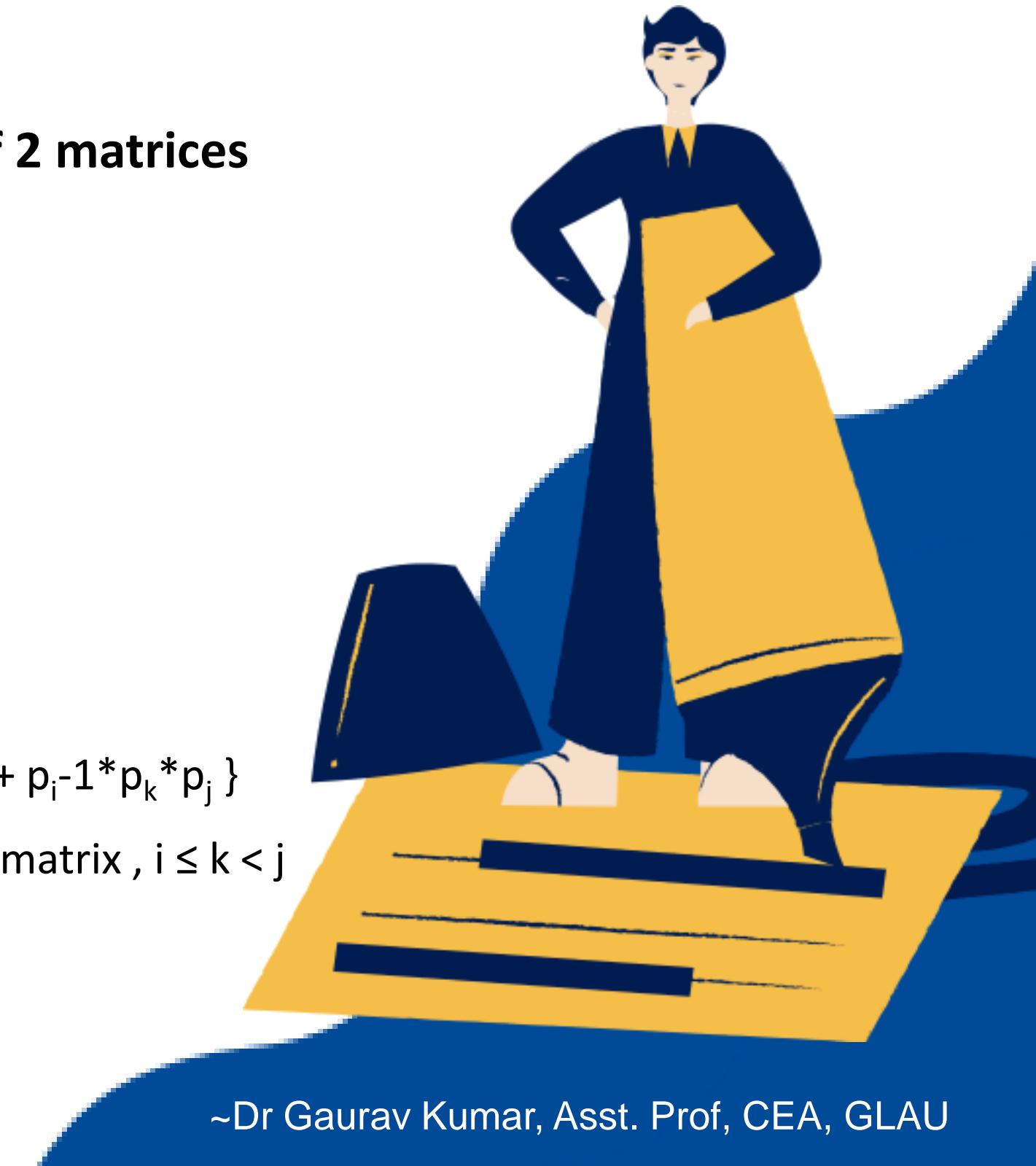
M (row x column)
 $M_1 (4 \times 10) \rightarrow M_1 (P_0 \times P_1)$
 $M_2 (10 \times 3) \rightarrow M_2 (P_1 \times P_2)$
 $M_3 (3 \times 12) \rightarrow M_3 (P_2 \times P_3)$
 $M_4 (12 \times 20) \rightarrow M_4 (P_3 \times P_4)$
 $M_5 (20 \times 7) \rightarrow M_5 (P_4 \times P_5)$

1	2	3	4	5
0	120			
1	0	360		
2	0		720	
3	0		0	1680
4				0
5				0

We can also use this Formula

$$m[i, j] = \min \{ m[i, k] + m[i+k, j] + p_{i-1} * p_k * p_j \}$$

if $i < j$ where p is dimension of matrix, $i \leq k < j$



Understanding Matrix Chain Multiplication using Dynamic Programming



Step-2 Calculate Product of 3 matrices

$$M[1, 3] = M_1 M_2 M_3$$

There are two cases by which we can solve this multiplication:

$$\text{Case 1: } (M_1 \times M_2) + M_3$$

$$\text{Case 2: } M_1 + (M_2 \times M_3)$$

After solving both cases we choose the case in which minimum output is there.

$$M[1, 3] = \min \begin{cases} M[1, 2] + M[2, 3] + P_0 P_2 P_3 &= 120 + 0 + 4 \times 3 \times 12 = 264 \rightarrow M[1, 3] = 264 \\ M[1, 1] + M[2, 3] + P_0 P_1 P_3 &= 0 + 360 + 4 \times 10 \times 12 = 840 \end{cases}$$

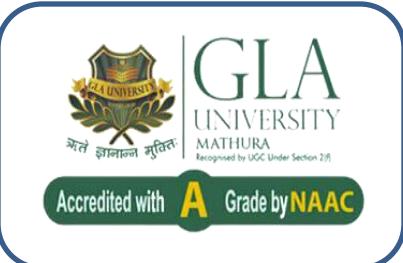
$$M[2, 4] = \min \begin{cases} M[2, 3] + M[3, 4] + P_1 P_3 P_4 &= 360 + 0 + 10 \times 12 \times 20 = 2760 \rightarrow M[2, 4] = 1320 \\ M[2, 2] + M[3, 4] + P_1 P_2 P_4 &= 0 + 720 + 10 \times 3 \times 20 = 1320 \end{cases}$$

$$M[3, 5] = M_3 M_4 M_5 \rightarrow 1140$$

1	2	3	4	5
0	120			
0	360			
0	720			
0	1680			
0				

1	2	3	4	5	1
0	120	264			0
0	360	360	1320		0
0	720	720	1140		0
0	1680				0
0					0

Understanding Matrix Chain Multiplication using Dynamic Programming



Step-3 Now Calculate Product of 4 matrices

$$M[1, 4] = M_1 M_2 M_3 M_4$$

There are three cases by which we can solve this multiplication:

$$\text{Case 1: } (M_1 \times M_2 \times M_3) + M_4$$

$$\text{Case 2: } M_1 \times (M_2 \times M_3 \times M_4)$$

$$\text{Case 3: } (M_1 \times M_2) \times (M_3 \times M_4)$$

After solving both cases we choose the case in which minimum output is there.

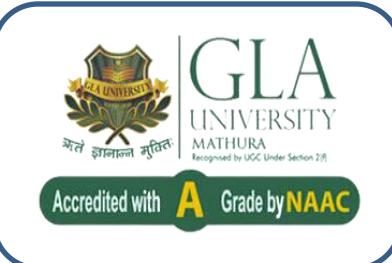
$$M[1, 4] = \min \left\{ \begin{array}{l} M[1, 3] + M[3, 4] + P_0 P_3 P_4 = 264 + 0 + 4 \times 12 \times 20 = 1224 \\ M[1, 1] + M[1, 4] + P_0 P_1 P_4 = 0 + 1320 + 4 \times 10 \times 20 = 2120 \rightarrow M[1, 4] = 1080 \\ M[1, 2] + M[2, 4] + P_0 P_2 P_4 = 120 + 720 + 4 \times 3 \times 20 = 1080 \end{array} \right.$$

$$M[2, 5] = M_2 M_3 M_4 M_5 \rightarrow 1350$$

	1	2	3	4	5
1	0	120	264		
2	0	360	1320		
3	0	720	1140		
4	0	1680			
5	0				

	1	2	3	4	5
1	0	120	264	1080	
2	0	360	1320	1350	
3	0	720	1140		
4	0	1680			
5	0				

Understanding Matrix Chain Multiplication using Dynamic Programming



Step-4 Now Calculate Product of 5 matrices

$$M[1, 5] = M_1 M_2 M_3 M_4 M_5$$

There are four cases by which we can solve this multiplication:

Case 1: $(M_1 \times M_2 \times M_3 \times M_4) \times M_5$ Case 2: $(M_1 \times M_2 \times M_3) \times (M_4 \times M_5)$

Case 3: $(M_1 \times M_2) \times (M_3 \times M_4 \times M_5)$ Case 4: $(M_1 \times (M_2 \times M_3 \times M_4 \times M_5))$

After solving both cases we choose the case in which minimum output is there.

$$M[1,5] = \min \left\{ \begin{array}{l} M[1,4] + M[5,5] + P_0 P_4 P_5 = 1080 + 0 + 4 \times 20 \times 7 = 1544 \\ M[1,3] + M[4,5] + P_0 P_3 P_5 = 264 + 1680 + 4 \times 12 \times 7 = 2016 \\ M[1,2] + M[3,5] + P_0 P_2 P_5 = 120 + 1140 + 4 \times 3 \times 7 = 1344 \rightarrow M[1, 5] = 1344 \\ M[1,1] + M[2,5] + P_0 P_1 P_5 = 0 + 1350 + 4 \times 10 \times 7 = 1630 \end{array} \right.$$

1	2	3	4	5
0	120	264	1080	
0	360	1320	1350	
0	720	1140		
0	1680			
0				

1	2	3	4	5
0	120	264	1080	1344
0	360	1320	1350	
0	720	1140		
0	1680			
0				

Final Output





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Happy Learning!

If you have any doubts, or queries , can be discussed in the C-11, Room 310, AB-1.

or share it on WhatsApp 8586968801

if there is any suggestion or feedback about slides, please write it on gaurav.kumar@glau.ac.in