

# Week 3: Matrices: manipulation and computation

Algorithmic Data Science

2025-26

# A puzzle for you

- The probability of it being sunny is  $\frac{2}{9}$
- The probability of it raining is  $\frac{4}{9}$
- The probability of it being overcast is  $\frac{1}{3}$
- The probability that I go to the park if it is sunny is  $\frac{3}{4}$
- The probability that I go to the park if it is raining is  $\frac{1}{2}$
- The probability that I go to the park if it is overcast is  $\frac{2}{3}$
- What is the probability that I go to the park?

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- What is the probability that I go to the park?

$$P(p) = P(p|s)P(s) + P(p|r)P(r) + P(p|o)P(o)$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} + \frac{2}{9} + \frac{2}{9} = \frac{11}{18}$$

# This session

- Empirical computation of time complexity.
- Another set of notes on the elementary matrix operations.
- An application of matrices
- Algorithms for matrix multiplication

# Time complexity O Notation: Loose definition.

A run-time is  $O(g(n))$  if:

For sufficiently large data,  $\text{const} \times g(n)$  approximates the run-time well,

and the approximation generally gets better and better the bigger the data.

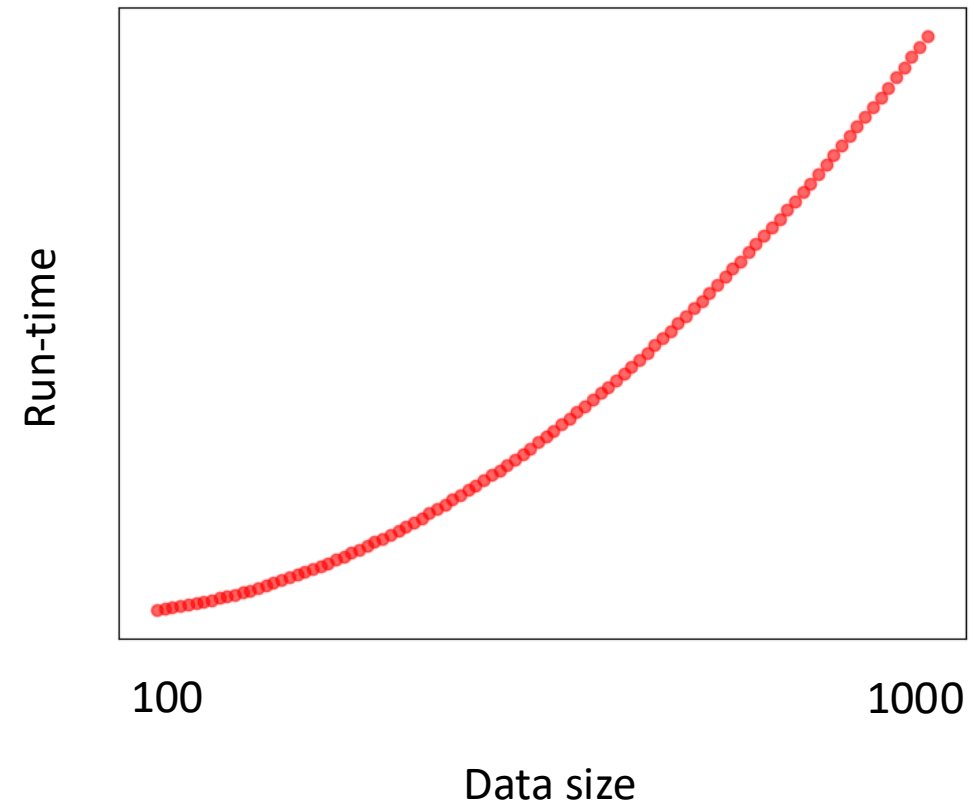
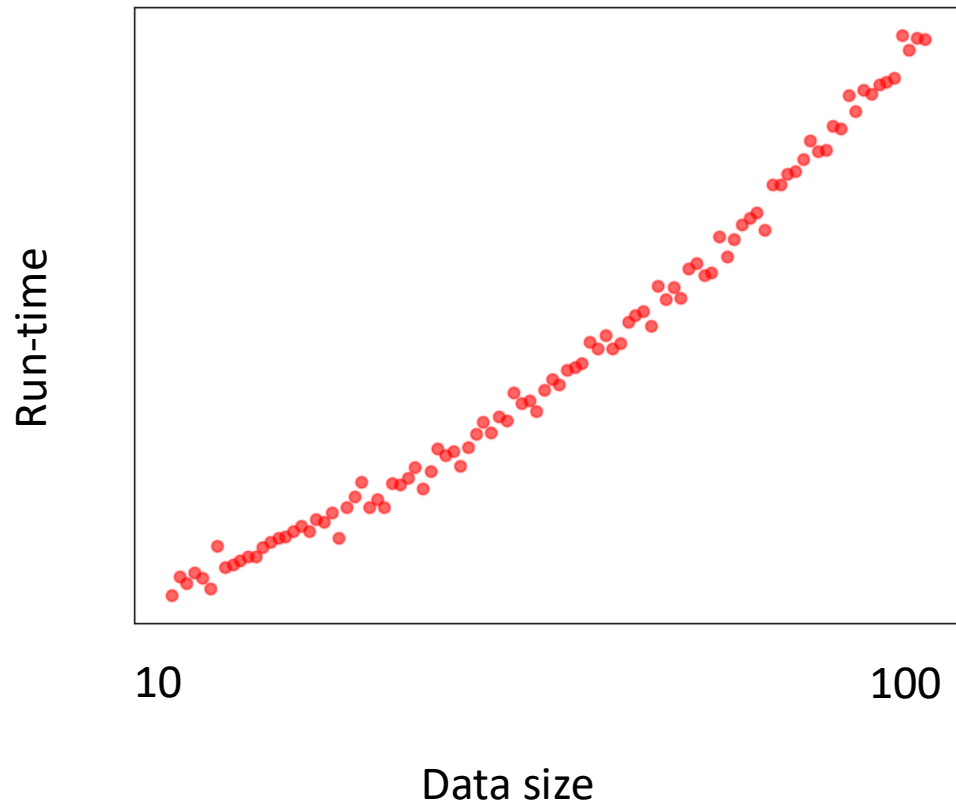
**Example:**  $17n^6 + 15n^4$  is  $O(n^6)$

Here  $g(n)$  is  $n^6$  and the constant is 17:

The bigger  $n$  gets,  
the better  $17n^6 = 17g(n)$  approximates  
the run-time.

# Empirically testing the run-time

- In the labs you will plot run-time against data size.
- Here is one that for small  $n$  looks maybe linear, but for larger  $n$ , we see that it is not-linear.



- If we assume this is  $O(n^\alpha)$ , how do we find  $\alpha$ ?

# Empirically testing the run-time

If  $t$  is  $O(n^\alpha)$  then the run-time is the following, for some constant  $c$ :

$$t = cn^\alpha$$

Take logs of both sides of the equation:

$$\log(t) = \log(cn^\alpha)$$

Using  $\log(xy) = \log(x) + \log(y)$

And  $\log(a^b) = b \log(a)$

$$\log(t) = \log(c) + \alpha \log(n)$$

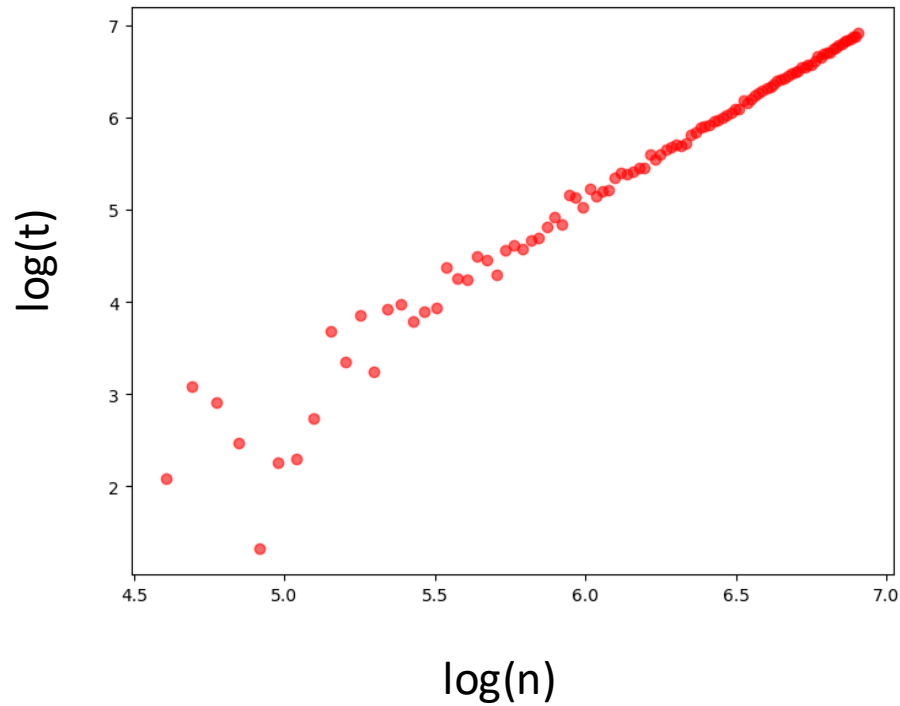
This means that if I plot  $y = \log(t)$  against  $x = \log(n)$ , I will get a straight line, with  $\alpha$  being the gradient (slope) and  $\log(c)$  being the intercept:

$$y = \log(c) + \alpha x$$

You can then use a stats library to find the gradient and intercept and hence  $\alpha$  and the constant.

# Example

Doing this for the example:



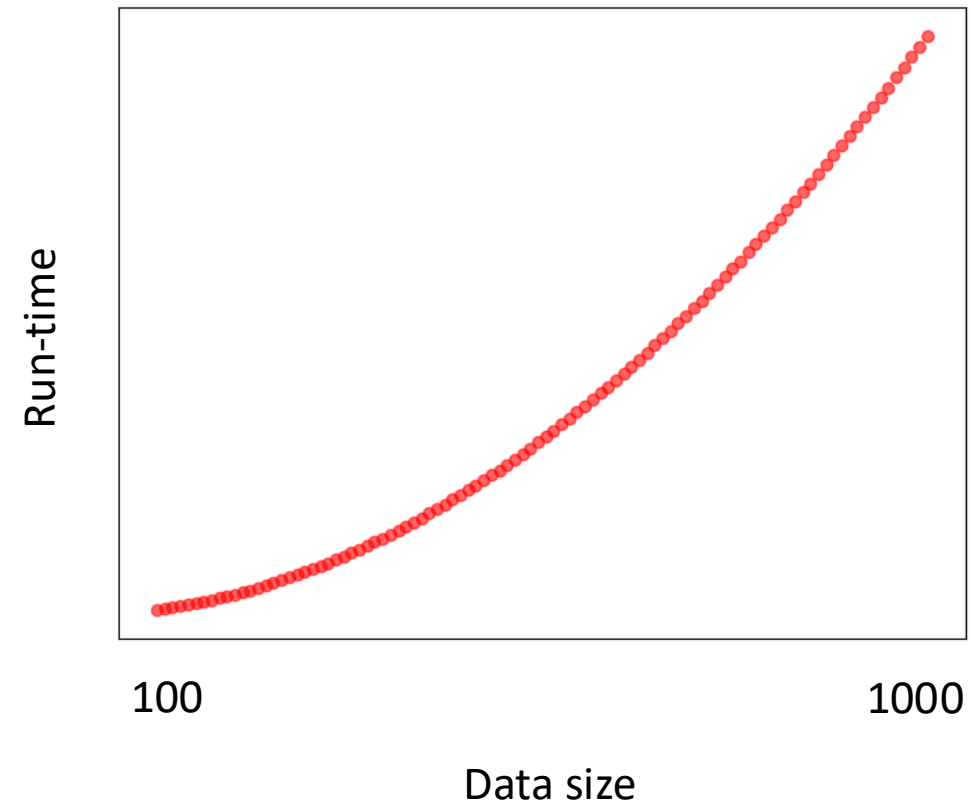
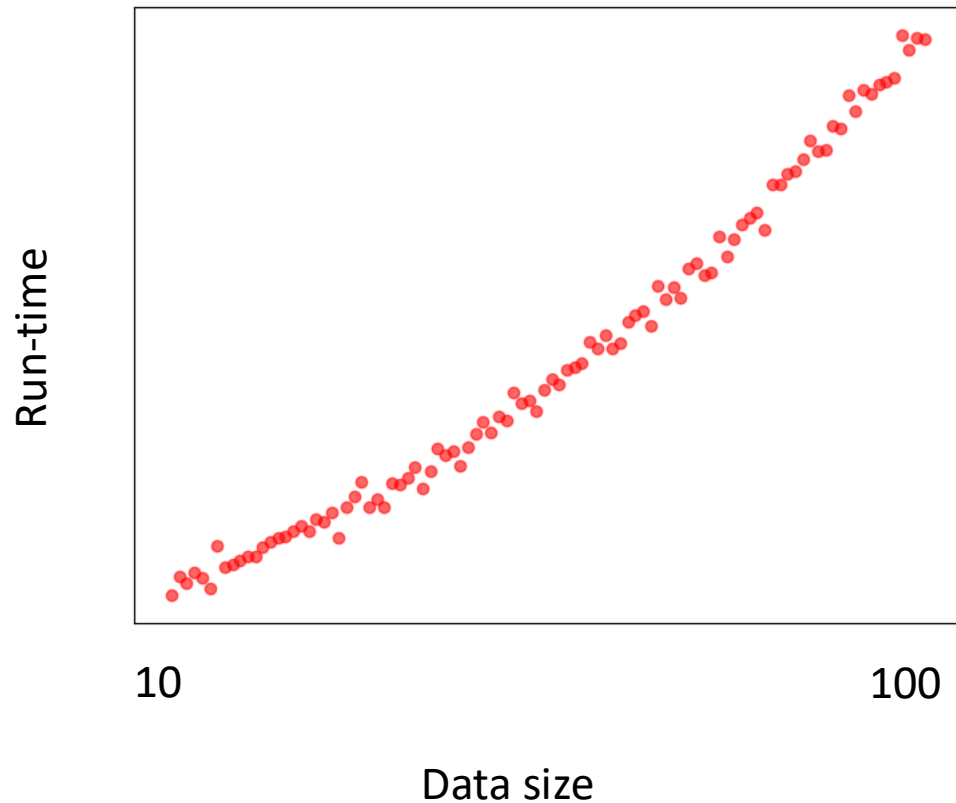
Use a stats library to find the slope and the intercept.

Can tell by eye that the slope is roughly 2 for large  $n$ , which is what we're interested in. So this is  $O(n^2)$ .



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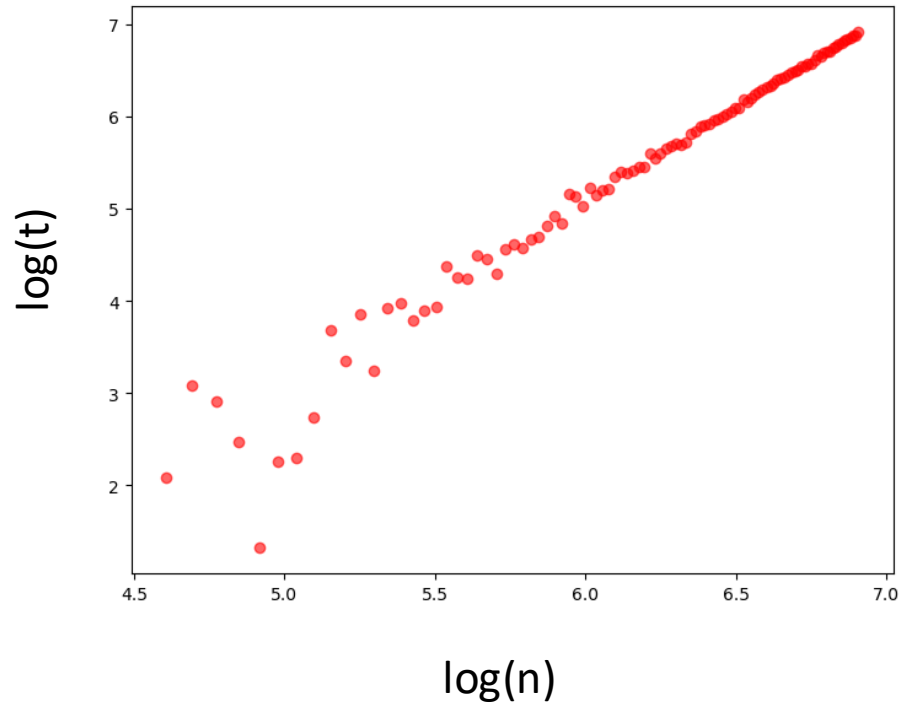
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Doing this for the example:



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# Main topics per week

Week	Topic
1	Data structures and data formats
2	Algorithmic complexity. Sorting.
3	<b>Matrices: Manipulation and computation</b>
4	Similarity analysis
5	Processes and concurrency
6	Distributed computation
7	Map/reduce
8	Graphs/networks
9	Graphs/networks, PageRank algorithm
10	Databases
11	<i>independent study</i>

# A matrix is ....

- a structured collection of numbers, e.g.,

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 3 \\ -2 & 5 \\ 0.2 & 10 \end{pmatrix}$$

- matrix  $A$  has 3 rows and 2 columns. Its **dimensionality** is 3x2
- Individual elements,  $a_{ij}$ , can be referred to by subscripts.
- $i$  refers to the row
- $j$  refers to the column
- So here,  $a_{21} = -2$

# Matrix terminology

- A **vector** is a 1 dimensional matrix (dimensionality =  $1 \times n$  or  $n \times 1$ )
- A **row vector** is  $1 \times n$  whereas a **column vector** is  $n \times 1$
- A **zero matrix** is a matrix where every entry is 0
- A **square** matrix has dimensionality  $n \times n$
- A **diagonal** matrix is a square matrix with  $a_{ij} = 0$  if  $i \neq j$
- An **identity** matrix,  $I$ , is a diagonal matrix with  $a_{ij} = 1$  if  $i = j$
- Let's see an example of each of these.

- A **row vector**:  $(5 \ 2 \ 3)$
- A **column vector**:  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$
- A **zero matrix**:  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
- A **square matrix**:  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$
- A **diagonal matrix**:  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$
- An **identity matrix**,  $I$ :  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

# Matrix operations: transpose

- The transpose of a matrix  $A$  is the matrix  $A^T$  obtained by exchanging the rows and columns of  $A$ .

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 3 \\ -2 & 5 \\ 0.2 & 10 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow A^T = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -2 & 0.2 \\ 3 & 5 & 10 \end{pmatrix}$$

- A **symmetric** matrix satisfies the condition  $A = A^T$
- Write down a symmetric matrix.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$



# Matrix operations: addition

- Addition can only be carried out for matrices which have the same dimensions
- Addition is defined component-wise:

$$C = A + B \leftrightarrow \forall_{ij} (c_{ij} = a_{ij} + b_{ij})$$

- For example:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 5 \\ 7 & 5 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1+0 & 3+0 & 1+5 \\ 1+7 & 0+5 & 0+0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 6 \\ 8 & 5 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- For an  $m \times n$  matrix, what is the asymptotic run-time of matrix addition in  $O$  notation?

$$O(m\ n)$$

# Matrix operations: multiplication by a scalar

- If  $\lambda$  is a scalar and  $A = (a_{ij})$  is a matrix, then  $\lambda A = (\lambda a_{ij})$  is the scalar multiple of  $A$  obtained by multiplying each of its elements by  $\lambda$ .
- The **negative** of a matrix is defined as  $-A = -1.A$
- Hence  $-A = (-a_{ij})$
- Hence,  $A + (-A) = 0 = (-A) + A$
- For an  $n \times n$  matrix, what is the asymptotic run-time of multiplication by a scalar?

$$O(n^2)$$

# Matrix operations: matrix subtraction

- **matrix subtraction** is defined as the addition of the negative of a matrix:  $B-A = B+(-A)$

$$1. \begin{pmatrix} 10 & 0 \\ 3 & -2 \\ 5 & -9 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 8 \\ -2 & -2 \\ 5 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 10 & -8 \\ 5 & 0 \\ 0 & -10 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$2. \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 5 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 & -5 \end{pmatrix} = \text{Doesn't exist (not compatible)}$$

$$3. 4 \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} - 2I = \begin{pmatrix} 10 & -4 \\ 0 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Matrix operations: matrix multiplication

- Two matrices,  $A$  and  $B$ , can only be multiplied if they are **compatible**: the number of columns of  $A$  equals the number of rows of  $B$ .
- If  $A = (a_{ij})$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix and  $B = (b_{jk})$  is an  $n \times p$  matrix, then their matrix product  $C = AB$  is the  $m \times p$  matrix  $C = (c_{ik})$  where: 
$$c_{ik} = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}b_{jk}$$
- For example: 
$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & -4 \\ -1 & -5 \end{pmatrix}$$
- Note that matrix multiplication is **not commutative**: 
$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 2 & -3 \\ 2 & -5 & 16 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
- For  $n \times n$  matrices, what is the asymptotic run-time of (naïve method) matrix multiplication?

$$O(n^3)$$

# Identity matrix is multiplicative identity

- Check for yourselves by example, that for any square matrix  $A$ , and identity matrix  $I$  of the same dimensions as  $A$ ,

$$AI = IA = A.$$

- *Exercise: Can you prove this in general, using algebra?*

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

# Matrix operations: matrix division?

- How do you find  $B$  such that  $AB = C$ ?
- There is no 'division' operator for matrices.
- However, we define the **inverse** of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  to be the  $n \times n$  matrix, denoted  $A^{-1}$  (if it exists), such that  $AA^{-1} = I = A^{-1}A$
- Hence, in the above example where  $AB = C$ , it follows that  $B = A^{-1}C$

# Matrix inverses

- We can test whether  $B$  is the inverse of  $A$  using matrix multiplication e.g.,

$$AB = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0.6 & -0.7 \\ -0.2 & 0.4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \times 0.6 + 7 \times -0.2 & 4 \times -0.7 + 7 \times 0.4 \\ 2 \times 0.6 + 6 \times -0.2 & 2 \times -0.7 + 6 \times 0.4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = I$$

- So  $A = B^{-1}$  and  $B = A^{-1}$
- Many nonzero square matrices do not have inverses. A matrix without an inverse is called **noninvertible** or **singular**.
- If a matrix has an inverse, it is called **invertible** or **non-singular**.
- The transpose operation commutes with the inverse operation:

$$(A^{-1})^T = (A^T)^{-1}$$

- Test this for yourself.

# Finding inverses: 2x2 matrices

1. Find the determinant. For a 2x2 matrix A this is:

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$$

2. If (and only if) the determinant is 0 (which it will be if any row or column contains only 0's), then A is singular. Otherwise:

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$$

3. It is straightforward to prove that this is the inverse for a 2x2 matrix.

Example:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$



# Finding inverses: larger matrices

- The  $ij$ th **minor** of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$ , for  $n > 1$ , is the  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  matrix  $A_{[ij]}$  obtained by deleting the  $i$ th row and the  $j$ th column of  $A$ .
- The determinant of  $A$  is given by the recursive procedure:

$$|A| = \begin{cases} a_{11} & \text{if } n = 1 \\ a_{11}|A_{[11]}| - a_{12}|A_{[12]}| + \cdots + (-1)^{n+1}a_{1n}|A_{[1n]}| & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

- Make a matrix where each element is replaced by the determinant of its minor
- Change the signs of alternate cells (this is called the matrix of cofactors)
- Transpose this matrix (this is called the adjugate or adjoint)
- Multiply by the reciprocal of the determinant.

# Example

$$\begin{vmatrix} 4 & 3 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 4 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} - 3 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 4 & 2 \end{vmatrix} + 5 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= 4(2 \times 2 - 3 \times 1) - 3(1 \times 2 - 3 \times 4) + 5(1 \times 1 - 2 \times 4)$$
$$= 4 + 30 - 35 = -1$$

- For an  $n \times n$  matrix, what is the asymptotic run-time of naïve computation of the determinant?

$O(n^2)$

$O(n^3)$

$O(n!)$  ✓

$O(2^n)$

# Applications of matrices: solving systems of linear equations

Imagine we have a set of 3 simultaneous linear equations:

$$\begin{aligned}3x + 2y - z &= 10 \\ -x + 5y - 3z &= -2 \\ 2x - y + 2z &= 0\end{aligned}$$

This can be written as a matrix equation:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 5 & -3 \\ 2 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 10 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Therefore the solution can be found (if there is one) by calculating:

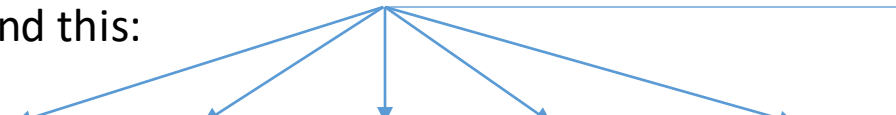
$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 5 & -3 \\ 2 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 10 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Applications of matrices: calculating marginal distributions

The example from the beginning of the lecture can be written:

$$\begin{pmatrix} P(\text{park}|\text{sunny}) & P(\text{park}|\text{raining}) & P(\text{park}|\text{overcast}) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} P(\text{sunny}) \\ P(\text{raining}) \\ P(\text{overcast}) \end{pmatrix} = (P(\text{park}))$$

We can easily extend this:



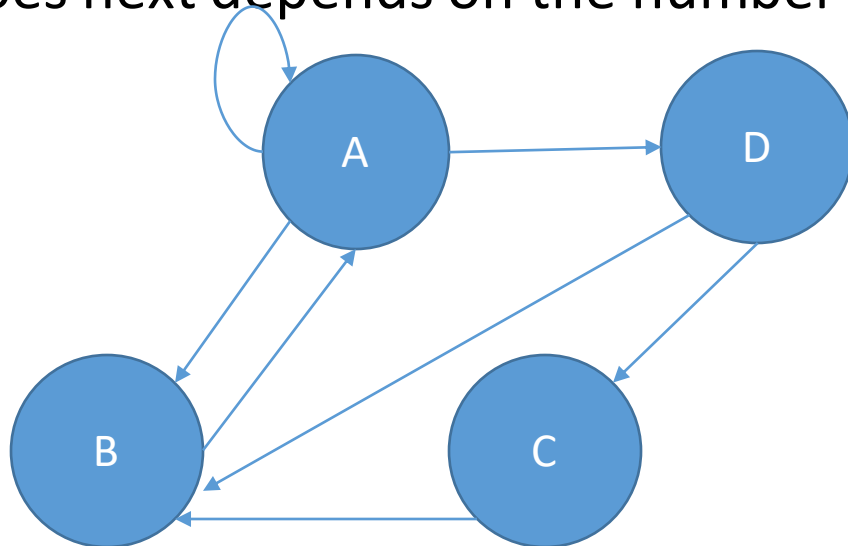
$$\begin{pmatrix} P(p|s) & P(p|r) & P(p|o) \\ P(b|s) & P(b|r) & P(b|o) \\ P(h|s) & P(h|r) & P(h|o) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} P(s) \\ P(r) \\ P(o) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} P(p) \\ P(b) \\ P(h) \end{pmatrix}$$

This is **stochastic** if each column sums to 1, i.e., represents a complete probability distribution over the variables (variables must be mutually exclusive and exhaustive)

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3/4 & 1/2 & 2/3 \\ 1/8 & 0 & 1/9 \\ 1/8 & 1/2 & 2/9 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2/9 \\ 4/9 \\ 1/3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 66/108 \\ 7/108 \\ 35/108 \end{pmatrix}$$

# The PageRank Algorithm

- Ranks pages on the web by their perceived importance
- Pages are considered more important if they have more links TO them from other more important pages ....
- Imagine a random surfer on a web with 4 pages. If he is truly random, then there is a uniform probability of him starting anywhere. The probability of where he goes next depends on the number of outlinks from a page



At time 0,  $t_0$ :  $P(A) = P(B) = P(C) = P(D) = 1/4$

At time 1,  $t_1$ :

$$P(A|A_0) = 1/3$$

$$P(B|A_0) = 1/3$$

$$P(C|A_0) = 0$$

$$P(D|A_0) = 1/3$$

$$P(A|B_0) = 1$$

$$P(B|B_0) = 0$$

$$P(C|B_0) = 0$$

$$P(D|B_0) = 0$$

....

# The PageRank Algorithm

Transition matrix: T

$$\text{At } t_1: \begin{pmatrix} P(A) \\ P(B) \\ P(C) \\ P(D) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/3 & 0 & 1 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 1/3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1/4 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 8/24 \\ 11/24 \\ 3/24 \\ 2/24 \end{pmatrix}$$

- This tells us where the random surfer is likely to be after n steps.
- So matrix-vector multiplication is the foundation of the PageRank algorithm, named after Larry Page, one of the co-founders of Google.
- Without it, we would still be using Yahoo, Altavista and other search engines which have now all but vanished ....
- And the matrices are very large at Google ....

$$\text{At } t_n: \begin{pmatrix} P(A) \\ P(B) \\ P(C) \\ P(D) \end{pmatrix} = T^n \begin{pmatrix} 1/4 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/4 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Addition and multiplication, simple exercise

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & 9 \\ 4 & 7 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} & \\ & \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ b & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} & \\ & \end{pmatrix}$$



# Algorithms for matrix multiplication: naïve method

```
Matrix-Multiply (A,B):  
  if A and B are nxn matrices:  
    let C be an nxn matrix  
    for i from 1 to n:  
      for j from 1 to n:  
         $c_{ij} = 0$   
        for k from 1 to n:  
           $c_{ij} += a_{ik} * b_{kj}$   
    return C
```

The number of multiplications is  $n^3$ .  
The number of additions is  $n^3$

So it is straightforward to see that an upper bound on the running time of this algorithm is  $O(n^3)$

# Strassen's Method

First we note that any multiplication of 2  $n \times n$  matrices where  $n$  is a power of 2 can be broken down recursively into the multiplication of  $(n/2) \times (n/2)$  matrices.

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b & c & d \\ e & f & g & h \\ i & j & \dots & \dots \\ k & l & \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta & \gamma & \delta \\ \varepsilon & \zeta & \eta & \theta \\ \lambda & \mu & \dots & \dots \\ \nu & \rho & \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a\alpha + b\varepsilon + c\lambda + d\nu & a\beta + b\zeta + c\mu + d\rho & \dots & \dots \\ e\alpha + f\varepsilon + g\lambda + h\nu & e\beta + f\zeta + g\mu + h\rho & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix}$$

This can alternatively be written as:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ e & f \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} c & d \\ g & h \end{pmatrix} \\ \begin{pmatrix} i & j \\ k & l \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \varepsilon & \zeta \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & \delta \\ \eta & \theta \end{pmatrix} \\ \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & \mu \\ \nu & \rho \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ e & f \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \varepsilon & \zeta \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} c & d \\ g & h \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & \mu \\ \nu & \rho \end{pmatrix} & \dots \\ \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix}$$

# Strassen's Method

So for any  $n \times n$  matrix, where  $n$  is a power of 2, it is straightforward to write matrix multiplication as a recurrence, where the components of the matrices may be numbers or matrices:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} e & g \\ f & h \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} r & s \\ t & u \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\begin{aligned} r &= ae + bf \\ s &= ag + bh \\ t &= ce + df \\ u &= cg + dh \end{aligned}$$

This is an example of a divide-and-conquer strategy. We split the problem into smaller problems, solve each smaller problem and then combine the results. Here the smaller problem is of size  $n/2$ . There are  $2^3$  of them to solve. Combining requires 4 matrix additions.

# Strassen's method

- The running time for this basic recursive approach is given by solving the recurrence formula:

$$T(n) = 8T(n/2) + O(n^2)$$

Since matrix addition is  $O(n^2)$ . Doing 4 of them only affects the constant.

- The solution of this recurrence formula is:  $T(n) = O(8^{\log_2 n}) = O(n^{\log_2 8}) = O(n^3)$
- This is no faster than the naïve method for matrix multiplication
- However Strassen discovered a recursive method which requires only 7 recursive multiplications at each step (but many more additions and subtractions)

$$T(n) = 7T(n/2) + O(n^2) = O(n^{\log_2 7})$$

# Strassen's Method

Remember:

$$r = ae + bf$$

$$s = ag + bh$$

$$t = ce + df$$

$$u = cg + dh$$

Calculate (recursively):

$$P_1 = a(g - h)$$

$$P_2 = (a + b)h$$

$$P_3 = (c + d)e$$

$$P_4 = d(f - e)$$

$$P_5 = (a + d)(e + h)$$

$$P_6 = (b - d)(f + h)$$

$$P_7 = (a - c)(e + g)$$

These are equivalent to:

$$P_1 = ag - ah$$

$$P_2 = ah + bh$$

$$P_3 = ce + de$$

$$P_4 = df - de$$

$$P_5 = ae + ah + de + dh$$

$$P_6 = bf + bh - df - dh$$

$$P_7 = ae + ag - ce - cg$$



7 multiplications and 10 additions/subtractions

# Strassen's Method

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$$P_3 = ce + de$$

$$P_4 = df - de$$

$$P_5 = ae + ah + de + dh$$

$$P_6 = bf + bh - df - dh$$

$$P_7 = ae + ag - ce - cg$$

$$P_1 + P_2 = ag - ah + ah + bh = s$$

1 addition

# Strassen's Method

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$$P_2 = ah + bh$$

$$P_3 = ce + de$$

$$P_4 = df - de$$

$$P_5 = ae + ah + de + dh$$

$$P_6 = bf + bh - df - dh$$

$$P_7 = ae + ag - ce - cg$$

$$P_3 + P_4 = ce + \cancel{de} + df - \cancel{de} = t$$

1 addition

# Strassen's Method

Remember:

$$r = ae + bf$$

$$s = ag + bh$$

$$t = ce + df$$

$$u = cg + dh$$

Calculate (recursively):

$$P_1 = a(g - h)$$

$$P_2 = (a + b)h$$

$$P_3 = (c + d)e$$

$$P_4 = d(f - e)$$

$$P_5 = (a + d)(e + h)$$

$$P_6 = (b - d)(f + h)$$

$$P_7 = (a - c)(e + g)$$

These are equivalent to:

$$P_1 = ag - ah$$

$$P_2 = ah + bh$$

$$P_3 = ce + de$$

$$P_4 = df - de$$

$$P_5 = ae + ah + de + dh$$

$$P_6 = bf + bh - df - dh$$

$$P_7 = ae + ag - ce - cg$$

$$P_5 + P_4 - P_2 + P_6 = ae + \cancel{ah} + \cancel{de} + \cancel{dh} + \cancel{df} - \cancel{de} - \cancel{ah} - \cancel{bh} + \cancel{bf} + \cancel{bh} - \cancel{df} - \cancel{dh} = r$$

3 additions / subtractions



# Strassen's Method

Remember:

$$r = ae + bf$$

$$s = ag + bh$$

$$t = ce + df$$

$$u = cg + dh$$

Calculate (recursively):

$$P_1 = a(g - h)$$

$$P_2 = (a + b)h$$

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These are equivalent to:

$$P_1 = ag - ah$$

$$P_2 = ah + bh$$

$$P_3 = ce + de$$

$$P_4 = df - de$$

$$P_5 = ae + ah + de + dh$$

$$P_6 = bf + bh - df - dh$$

$$P_7 = ae + ag - ce - cg$$

$$P_5 - P_3 - P_7 + P_1 = \cancel{ae} + \cancel{ah} + \cancel{de} + dh - \cancel{ce} - \cancel{de} - \cancel{ae} - \cancel{ag} + \cancel{ce} + cg + \cancel{ag} - \cancel{ah} = u$$

3 additions / subtractions

# Strassen's Method

- So we can carry out matrix multiplication with just 7 recursive multiplications of matrices size  $n/2$  (but we now have 18 additions / subtractions rather than 4). So:

$$T(n) = 7T(n/2) + O(n^2) = O(n^{\log_2 7}) = O(n^{2.81})$$

- It is possible to modify Strassen's algorithm to work when  $n$  is not a power of 2
- In practice, the large constant hidden in the running time makes Strassen's algorithm impractical unless  $n$  is large ( $>45$ ) and dense (few zero entries).
- For sparse matrices, there are special sparse-matrix algorithms which can beat this.
- There are even more advanced techniques which can beat Strassen for dense matrices -  $O(n^{2.376})$  is achievable, maybe even better.

# Preview of an application: All Pairs Similarity

- If  $A$  is an  $n \times m$  matrix containing *the*  $n$ -dimensional vectors (purchase histories) for  $m$  customers, we can compute all pairs similarity very straightforwardly.
- First compute all of the dot products using  $A^T A$  e.g.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ -1 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 14 & 8 \\ 8 & 10 \end{pmatrix}$$

This is almost the covariance matrix – BUT we haven't subtracted the means of individual variables before doing the dot products.

- Then take every element on the leading diagonal and divide all of the elements in its containing row and column by it's square root:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 14/\sqrt{14 \times 14} & 8/\sqrt{14 \times 10} \\ 8/\sqrt{10 \times 14} & 10/\sqrt{10 \times 10} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4/\sqrt{35} \\ 4/\sqrt{35} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

[ Divide  $i, j$  component by (length of vector  $i$  times length of vector  $j$ ) ]

# All Pairs similarity

- Matrix multiplication can be done in  $O(m^2n)$ , but can use Strassen's algorithm for large data.
- Dividing every element is  $O(m^2)$  so...
- All pairs similarity can be done in less than  $O(m^2n)$
- Very important if we want to find clusters of similar objects (where objects are represented by vectors of real-valued features).

# Summary

- Empirical computation of time complexity.
- Another set of notes on the elementary matrix operations.
- An application of matrices
- Algorithms for matrix multiplication