Fast Sparse Matrix Multiplication

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Abstract. Let A and B two $n \times n$ matrices over a ring R (e.g., the reals or the integers) each containing at most m nonzero elements. We present a new algorithm that multiplies A and B using $O(m^{0.7}n^{1.2} + n^{2+o(1)})$ algebraic operations (i.e., multiplications, additions and subtractions) over R. The naïve matrix multiplication algorithm, on the other hand, may need to perform $\Omega(mn)$ operations to accomplish the same task. For $m \le n^{1.14}$, the new algorithm performs an almost optimal number of only $n^{2+o(1)}$ operations. For $m \le n^{1.68}$, the new algorithm is also faster than the best known matrix multiplication algorithm for dense matrices which uses $O(n^{2.38})$ algebraic operations. The new algorithm is obtained using a surprisingly straightforward combination of a simple combinatorial idea and existing fast rectangular matrix multiplication algorithms. We also obtain improved algorithms for the multiplication of more than two sparse matrices. As the known fast rectangular matrix multiplication algorithms are far from being practical, our result, at least for now, is only of theoretical value.

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1. Introduction

The multiplication of two $n \times n$ matrices is one of the most basic algebraic problems and considerable effort was devoted to obtaining efficient algorithms for the task. The naïve matrix multiplication algorithm performs $O(n^3)$ operations. Strassen

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[1969] was the first to show that the naïve algorithm is not optimal, giving an $O(n^{2.81})$ algorithm for the problem. Many improvements then followed. The currently fastest matrix multiplication algorithm, with a complexity of $O(n^{2.38})$, was obtained by Coppersmith and Winograd [1990]. More information on the fascinating subject of matrix multiplication algorithms and its history can be found in Pan [1985] and Bürgisser et al. [1997]. An interesting new group theoretic approach to the matrix multiplication problem was recently suggested by Cohn and Umans [2003]. For the best available lower bounds, see Shpilka [2003] and Raz [2003].

Matrix multiplication has numerous applications in combinatorial optimization in general, and in graph algorithms in particular. Fast matrix multiplication algorithms can be used, for example, to obtain fast algorithms for finding simple cycles in graphs [Alon et al. 1995, 1997; Yuster and Zwick 2004], for finding small cliques and other small subgraphs [Nešetřil and Poljak 1985], for finding shortest paths [Seidel 1995; Shoshan and Zwick 1999; Zwick 2002], for obtaining improved dynamic reachability algorithms [Demetrescu and Italiano 2000; Roditty and Zwick 2002], and for matching problems [Mulmuley et al. 1987; Rabin and Vazirani 1989; Cheriyan 1997; Mucha and Sankowski 2004a, 2004b]. Other applications can be found in Chan [2002] and Kratsch and Spinrad [2003], and this list is not exhaustive.

In many cases, the matrices to be multiplied are *sparse*, that is, the number of nonzero elements in them is negligible compared to the number of zeros in them. For example, if G = (V, E) is a directed graph on n vertices containing m edges, then its adjacency matrix A_G is an $n \times n$ matrix with only m nonzero elements (1's in this case). In many interesting cases, $m = o(n^2)$. Unfortunately, the fast matrix multiplication algorithms mentioned above cannot utilize the sparsity of the matrices multiplied. The complexity of the algorithm of Coppersmith and Winograd [1990], for example, remains $O(n^{2.38})$ even if the multiplied matrices are extremely sparse. The naïve matrix multiplication algorithm, on the other hand, can be used to multiply two $n \times n$ matrices, each with at most m nonzero elements, using O(mn) operations (see next section). Thus, for $m = O(n^{1.37})$, the sophisticated matrix multiplication algorithms of Coppersmith and Winograd [1990] and others do not provide any improvement over the naïve matrix multiplication algorithm.

In this article, we show that the sophisticated algebraic techniques used by the fast matrix multiplication algorithms can nevertheless be used to speed-up the computation of the product of even extremely sparse matrices. More specifically, we present a new algorithm that multiplies two $n \times n$ matrices, each with at most m nonzero elements, using $O(m^{0.7}n^{1.2} + n^{2+o(1)})$ algebraic operations. (The exponents 0.7 and 1.2 are derived, of course, from the current 2.38 bound on the exponent of matrix multiplication, and from bounds on other exponents related to matrix multiplications, as will be explained in the sequel.) There are three important things to notice here:

- (i) If $m \ge n^{1+\epsilon}$, for any $\epsilon > 0$, then the number of operations performed by the new algorithm is o(mn), that is, less then the number of operations performed, in the worst-case, by the naïve algorithm.
- (ii) If $m \le n^{1.14}$, then the new algorithm performs only $n^{2+o(1)}$ operations. This is very close to optimal as all n^2 entries in the product may be nonzero, even if the multiplied matrices are very sparse.
- (iii) If $m \le n^{1.68}$, then the new algorithm performs only $o(n^{2.38})$, that is, fewer operations than the fastest known matrix multiplication algorithm.

In other words, the new algorithm improves on the naïve algorithm even for extremely sparse matrices (i.e., $m = n^{1+\epsilon}$), and it improves on the fastest matrix multiplication algorithm even for relatively dense matrices (i.e., $m = n^{1.68}$).

The new algorithm is obtained using a surprisingly straightforward combination of a simple combinatorial idea, implicit in Eisenbrand and Grandoni [2003] and Yuster and Zwick [2004], with the fast matrix multiplication algorithm of Coppersmith and Winograd [1990], and the fast *rectangular* matrix multiplication algorithm of Coppersmith [1997]. It is interesting to note that a fast rectangular matrix multiplication algorithm for dense matrices is used to obtain a fast matrix multiplication algorithm for sparse square matrices.

As mentioned above, matrix multiplication algorithms are used to obtain fast algorithms for many different graph problems. We note (with some regret . . .) that our improved sparse matrix multiplication algorithm does not yield, automatically, improved algorithms for these problems on sparse graphs. These algorithms may need to multiply dense matrices even if the input graph is sparse. Consider for example the computation of the transitive closure of a graph by repeatedly squaring its adjacency matrix. The matrix obtained after the first squaring may already be extremely dense. Still, we expect to find many situations in which the new algorithm presented here could be useful.

In view of the above remark, we also consider the problem of computing the product $A_1A_2\cdots A_k$ of three or more sparse matrices. As the product of even very sparse matrices can be completely dense, the new algorithm for multiplying two matrices cannot be applied directly in this case. We show, however, that some improved bounds may also be obtained in this case. Our results here are less impressive, however. For k=3, we improve, for certain densities, on the performance of all existing algorithms. For $k\geq 4$, we get no worst-case improvements at the moment, but such improvements will be obtained if bounds on certain matrix multiplication exponents are sufficiently improved.

The problem of computing the product $A_1 A_2 \cdots A_k$ of k > 3 rectangular matrices, known as the chain matrix multiplication problem, was, of course, addressed before. The main concern, however, was finding an optimal way of parenthesizing the expression so that a minimal number of operations will be performed when the naïve algorithm is used to successively multiply pairs of intermediate results. Such an optimal placement of parentheses can be easily found in $O(k^3)$ time using dynamic programming (see, e.g., Chapter 15 of Cormen et al. [2001]). A much more complicated algorithm of Hu and Shing [1982, 1984] can do the same in $O(k \log k)$ time. An almost optimal solution can be found in O(k) time using a simple heuristic suggested by Chin [1978]. It is easy to modify the simple dynamic programming solution to the case in which fast rectangular matrix multiplication algorithm is used instead of the naïve matrix multiplication algorithm. It is not clear whether the techniques of Hu and Shing and of Chin can also be modified accordingly. Cohen [1997] suggests an interesting technique for predicting the nonzero structure of a product of two or more matrices. Using her technique, it is possible to exploit the possible sparseness of the intermediate products.

All these techniques, however, reduce the computation of a product like $A_1A_2A_3$ into the computation of A_1A_2 and then $(A_1A_2)A_3$, or to the computation of A_2A_3 and then $A_1(A_2A_3)$. We show that, for certain densities, a faster way exists.

The rest of the article is organized as follows. In the next section, we review the existing matrix multiplication algorithms. In Section 3, we present the main result of

this paper, that is, the improved sparse matrix multiplication algorithm. In Section 4, we use similar ideas to obtain an improved algorithm for the multiplication of three or more sparse matrices. We end, in Section 5, with some concluding remarks and open problems.

2. Existing Matrix Multiplication Algorithms

In this short section, we examine the worst-case behavior of the naïve matrix multiplication algorithm and state the performance of existing fast matrix multiplication algorithms.

2.1. THE NAÏVE MATRIX MULTIPLICATION ALGORITHM. Let A and B be two $n \times n$ matrices. The product C = AB is defined as follows: $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik}b_{kj}$, for $1 \le i, j \le n$. The naïve matrix multiplication algorithm uses this definition to compute the entries of C using n^3 multiplications and $n^3 - n^2$ additions. The number of operations can be reduced by avoiding the computation of products $a_{ik}b_{kj}$ for which $a_{ik} = 0$ or $b_{kj} = 0$. In general, if we let \bar{a}_k be the number of nonzero elements in the kth column of A, and \bar{b}_k be the number of nonzero elements in the kth row of k, then the number of multiplications that need to be performed is only $\sum_{k=1}^{n} \bar{a}_k \bar{b}_k$. The number of additions required is always bounded by the required number of multiplications. This simple sparse matrix multiplication algorithm may be considered folklore. It can also be found in Gustavson [1978].

be considered folklore. It can also be found in Gustavson [1978]. If A contains at most m nonzero entries, then $\sum_{k=1}^n \bar{a}_k \bar{b}_k \leq (\sum_{k=1}^n \bar{a}_k)n \leq mn$. The same bound is obtained when B contains at most m nonzero entries. Can we get an improved bound on the worst-case number of products required when both A and B are sparse? Unfortunately, the answer is no. Assume that $m \geq n$ and consider the case $\bar{a}_i = \bar{b}_i = n$, if $i \leq m/n$, and $\bar{a}_i = \bar{b}_i = 0$, otherwise. (In other words, all nonzero elements of A and B are concentrated in the first m/n columns of A and the first m/n columns of B.) In this case $\sum_{k=1}^n \bar{a}_k \bar{b}_k = (m/n) \cdot n^2 = mn$. Thus, the naïve algorithm may have to perform mn multiplications even if both matrices are sparse. It is instructive to note that the computation of AB in this worst-case example can be reduced to the computation of a much smaller rectangular product. This illustrates the main idea behind the new algorithm: When the naïve algorithm has to perform many operations, rectangular matrix multiplication can be used to speed up the computation.

To do justice with the naïve matrix multiplication algorithm, we should note that in many cases that appear in practice the matrices to be multiplied have a special structure, and the number of operations required may be much smaller than mn. For example, if the nonzero elements of A are evenly distributed among the columns of A, and the nonzero elements of B are evenly distributed among the rows of B, we have $\bar{a}_k = \bar{b}_k = m/n$, for $1 \le k \le n$, and $\sum_{k=1}^n \bar{a}_k \bar{b}_k = n \cdot (m/n)^2 = m^2/n$. We are interested here, however, in worst-case bounds that hold for any placement of nonzero elements in the input matrices.

2.2. FAST MATRIX MULTIPLICATION ALGORITHMS FOR DENSE MATRICES. Let M(a, b, c) be the minimal number of algebraic operations needed to multiply an $a \times b$ matrix by a $b \times c$ matrix over an arbitrary ring R. Let $\omega(r, s, t)$ be the minimal exponent ω for which $M(n^r, n^s, n^t) = O(n^{\omega + o(1)})$. We are interested here mainly in $\omega = \omega(1, 1, 1)$, the exponent of square matrix multiplication, and $\omega(1, r, 1)$, the

exponent of rectangular matrix multiplication of a particular form. The best bounds available on $\omega(1, r, 1)$, for $0 \le r \le 1$ are summarized in the following theorems:

THEOREM 2.1 [COPPERSMITH AND WINOGRAD 1990]. $\omega < 2.376$.

Next, we define two more constants, α and β , related to rectangular matrix multiplication.

Definition 2.2.
$$\alpha = \max\{0 \le r \le 1 \mid \omega(1, r, 1) = 2\}, \quad \beta = \frac{\omega - 2}{1 - \alpha}.$$

Theorem 2.3 [Coppersmith 1997]. $\alpha > 0.294$.

It is not difficult to see that these Theorems 2.1 and 2.3 imply the following theorem. A proof can be found, for example, in Huang and Pan [1998].

Theorem 2.4.
$$\omega(1, r, 1) \leq \begin{cases} 2 & \text{if } 0 \leq r \leq \alpha, \\ 2 + \beta(r - \alpha) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

COROLLARY 2.5.
$$M(n, \ell, n) \le n^{2-\alpha\beta+o(1)}\ell^{\beta} + n^{2+o(1)}$$
.

All the bounds in the rest of the paper will be expressed terms of α and β . Note that with $\omega=2.376$ and $\alpha=0.294$ we get $\beta\simeq0.533$. If $\omega=2$, as conjectured by many, then $\alpha=1$. (In this case, β is not defined, but also not needed.)

3. The New Sparse Matrix Multiplication Algorithm

Let A_{*k} be the kth column of A, and let B_{k*} be the kth row of B, for $1 \le k \le n$. Clearly $AB = \sum_k A_{*k} B_{k*}$. (Note that A_{*k} is a column vector, B_{k*} a row vector, and $A_{*k} B_{k*}$ is an $n \times n$ matrix.) Let a_k be the number of nonzero elements in A_{*k} and let b_k be the number of nonzero elements in B_{k*} . (For brevity, we omit the bars over a_k and b_k used in Section 2.1. No confusion will arise here.) As explained in Section 2.1, we can naively compute AB using $O(\sum_k a_k b_k)$ operations. If A and B each contain m nonzero elements, then $\sum_k a_k b_k$ may be as high as mn. (See the example in Section 2.1.)

For any subset $I \subseteq [n]$ let A_{*I} be the submatrix composed of the columns of A whose indices are in I and let B_{I*} the submatrix composed of the rows of B whose indices are in I. If J = [n] - I, then we clearly have $AB = A_{*I}B_{I*} + A_{*J}B_{J*}$. Note that $A_{*I}B_{I*}$ and $A_{*J}B_{J*}$ are both *rectangular* matrix multiplications. Recall that $M(n, \ell, n)$ is the cost of multiplying an $n \times \ell$ matrix by an $\ell \times n$ matrix using the fastest available rectangular matrix multiplication algorithm.

Let π be a permutation for which $a_{\pi(1)}b_{\pi(1)} \geq a_{\pi(2)}b_{\pi(2)} \geq \cdots \geq a_{\pi(n)}b_{\pi(n)}$. A permutation π satisfying this requirement can be easily found in O(n) time using radix sort. The algorithm chooses a value $1 \leq \ell \leq n$, in a way that will be specified shortly, and sets $I = \{\pi(1), \ldots, \pi(\ell)\}$ and $J = \{\pi(\ell+1), \ldots, \pi(n)\}$. The product $A_{*I}B_{I*}$ is then computed using the fastest available rectangular matrix multiplication algorithm, using $M(n,\ell,n)$ operations, while the product $A_{*I}B_{J*}$ is computed naively using $O(\sum_{k>\ell} a_{\pi(k)}b_{\pi(k)})$ operations. The two matrices $A_{*I}B_{I*}$ and $A_{*J}B_{J*}$ are added using $O(n^2)$ operations. We naturally choose the value ℓ that minimizes $M(n,\ell,n)+\sum_{k>\ell} a_{\pi(k)}b_{\pi(k)}$. (This can easily be done in O(n) time by simply checking all possible values.) The resulting algorithm, which we call SMP (Sparse Matrix Multiplication), is given in Figure 1. We now claim:

Algorithm SMP(A, B)

Input: Two $n \times n$ matrices A and B.

Output: The product AB.

- (1) Let a_k be the number of non-zero elements in A_{*k} , for $1 \le k \le n$.
- (2) Let b_k be the number of non-zero elements in B_{k*} , for $1 \leq k \leq n$.
- (3) Let π be a permutation for which $a_{\pi(1)}b_{\pi(1)} \geq \ldots \geq a_{\pi(n)}b_{\pi(n)}$.
- (4) Find an $0 \le \ell \le n$ that minimizes $M(n,\ell,n) + \sum_{k>\ell} a_{\pi(k)} b_{\pi(k)}$.
- (5) Let $I = {\pi(1), \dots, \pi(\ell)}$ and $J = {\pi(\ell+1), \dots, \pi(n)}$.
- (6) Compute $C_1 \leftarrow A_{*I}B_{I*}$ using a fast dense rectangular matrix multiplication algorithm.
- (7) Compute $C_2 \leftarrow A_{*J}B_{J*}$ using the naive sparse matrix multiplication algorithm.
- (8) Output $C_1 + C_2$.

FIG. 1. The new fast sparse matrix multiplication algorithm.

THEOREM 3.1. Algorithm SMP(A, B) computes the product of two $n \times n$ matrices over a ring R, with m_1 and m_2 nonzero elements respectively, using at most

$$O\left(\min\left\{(m_1m_2)^{\frac{\beta}{\beta+1}}n^{\frac{2-\alpha\beta}{\beta+1}+o(1)}+n^{2+o(1)},\ m_1n,\ m_2n,\ n^{\omega+o(1)}\right\}\right)$$

ring operations.

If $m_1=m_2=m$, then the first term in the bound above becomes $m^{\frac{2\beta}{\beta+1}} n^{\frac{2-\alpha\beta}{\beta+1}+o(1)}$. It is easy to check that for $m=O(n^{1+\frac{\alpha}{2}})$, the number of operations performed by the algorithm is only $n^{2+o(1)}$. It is also not difficult to check that for $m=O(n^{\frac{\omega+1}{2}-\epsilon})$, for any $\epsilon>0$, the algorithm performs only $o(n^\omega)$ operations. Using the currently best available bounds on ω , α and β , namely $\omega\simeq 2.376$, $\alpha\simeq 0.294$, and $\beta\simeq 0.533$, we get that the number of operations performed by the algorithm is at most $O(m^{0.7}n^{1.2}+n^{2+o(1)})$, justifying the claims made in the abstract and the introduction.

LEMMA 3.2. For any
$$1 \le \ell < n$$
 we have $\sum_{k>\ell} a_{\pi(k)} b_{\pi(k)} \le \frac{m_1 m_2}{\ell}$.

The proof of Theorem 3.1 relies on the following simple lemma:

PROOF. Assume, without loss of generality, that $a_1 \geq a_2 \geq \cdots \geq a_n$. Let $1 \leq \ell < n$. We then have $\sum_{k>\ell} a_{\pi(k)} b_{\pi(k)} \leq \sum_{k>\ell} a_k b_k$, as by the definition of π , the terms on the left hand side are the smallest $n-\ell$ terms of their kind. Also $\ell \ a_{\ell+1} \leq \sum_{k<\ell} a_k \leq m_1$. Thus, $a_{\ell+1} \leq m_1/\ell$. Putting this together, we get

$$\sum_{k>\ell} a_{\pi(k)} b_{\pi(k)} \leq \sum_{k>\ell} a_k b_k \leq a_{\ell+1} \sum_{k>\ell} b_k \leq \frac{m_1}{\ell} m_2 = \frac{m_1 m_2}{\ell}.$$

We are now ready for the proof of Theorem 3.1.

PROOF OF THEOREM 3.1. We first examine the two extreme possible choices of ℓ . When $\ell=0$, the naïve matrix multiplication algorithm is used. When $\ell=n$, a fast dense square matrix multiplication algorithm is used. As the algorithm chooses the value of ℓ that minimized the cost, it is clear that the number of operations performed by the algorithm is $O(\min\{m_1n, m_2n, n^{\omega+o(1)}\})$.

All that remains, therefore, is to show that the number of operations performed by the algorithm is also $O((m_1m_2)^{\frac{\beta}{\beta+1}}n^{\frac{2-\alpha\beta}{\beta+1}+o(1)}+n^{2+o(1)})$. If $m_1m_2 \leq n^{2+\alpha}$, let

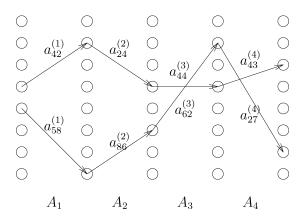


FIG. 2. A layered graph corresponding to the product $A_1A_2A_3A_4$.

 $\ell = m_1 m_2 / n^2$. As $\ell \le n^{\alpha}$, we have,

$$M(n, \ell, n) + \sum_{k>\ell} a_{\pi(k)} b_{\pi(k)} \le n^{2+o(1)} + \frac{m_1 m_2}{\ell} = n^{2+o(1)}.$$

If $m_1m_2 \ge n^{2+\alpha}$, let $\ell = (m_1m_2)^{\frac{1}{\beta+1}} n^{\frac{\alpha\beta-2}{\beta+1}}$. It is easy to verify that $\ell \ge n^{\alpha}$, and therefore

$$M(n, \ell, n) \leq n^{2-\alpha\beta+o(1)}\ell^{\beta} = (m_1m_2)^{\frac{\beta}{\beta+1}}n^{\frac{2-\alpha\beta}{\beta+1}+o(1)},$$

$$\sum_{k>\ell} a_{\pi(k)} b_{\pi(k)} \leq \frac{m_1 m_2}{\ell} = (m_1 m_2)^{1-\frac{1}{\beta+1}} n^{\frac{2-\alpha\beta}{\beta+1}} = (m_1 m_2)^{\frac{\beta}{\beta+1}} n^{\frac{2-\alpha\beta}{\beta+1}}.$$

Thus, $M(n,\ell,n)+\sum_{k>\ell}a_{\pi(k)}b_{\pi(k)}=(m_1m_2)^{\frac{\beta}{\beta+1}}n^{\frac{2-\alpha\beta}{\beta+1}+o(1)}$. As the algorithm chooses the value of ℓ that minimizes the number of operations, this completes the proof of the theorem. \square

4. Multiplying Three or More Matrices

In this section, we extend the results of the previous section to the product of three or more matrices. Let A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_k be $n \times n$ matrices, and let m_r , for $1 \le r \le k$ be the number of nonzero elements in A_r . Let $B = A_1 A_2 \cdots A_k$ be the product of the k matrices. As the product of two sparse matrices is not necessarily sparse, we cannot use the algorithm of the previous section directly to efficiently compute the product of more than two sparse matrices. Nevertheless, we show that the algorithm of the previous section can be generalized to efficiently handle the product of more than two matrices.

Let $A_r = (a_{ij}^{(r)})$, for $1 \le r \le k$, and $B = A_1 A_2 \cdots A_k = (b_{ij})$. It follows easily from the definition of matrix multiplication that

$$b_{ij} = \sum_{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_{k-1}} a_{i, r_1}^{(1)} a_{r_1, r_2}^{(2)} \cdots a_{r_{k-2}, r_{k-1}}^{(k-1)} a_{r_{k-1}, j}^{(k)} . \tag{1}$$

It is convenient to interpret the computation of b_{ij} as the summation over paths in a layered graph, as shown (for the case k=4) in Figure 2. More precisely,

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Algorithm SCMP(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k)
Input: n \times n matrices A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k.
Output: The product A_1A_2 \cdots A_k.

(1) Let \ell = (\prod_{r=1}^k m_r)^{\frac{1}{k-1+\beta}} n^{\frac{\alpha\beta-2}{k-1+\beta}}.

(2) Let I_r be the set of indices of \ell rows of A_r with the largest number of non-zero elements, and let J_r = [n] - I_r, for 2 \le r \le k.

(3) Compute P_r \leftarrow (A_1)_{*J_2}(A_2)_{J_2J_3} \cdots (A_r)_{J_{r^*}} by enumerating all corresponding paths, for 1 \le r \le k.

(4) Compute S_r \leftarrow A_r \cdots A_k, for 2 \le r \le k, using recursive calls to the algorithm.

(5) Compute B_r \leftarrow (P_{r-1})_{*I_r}(S_r)_{I_{r^*}} using the fastest available rectangular matrix multiplication algorithm, for 2 \le r \le k.

(6) Output (\sum_{r=2}^k B_r) + P_k.
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FIG. 3. Computing the product of several sparse matrices.

the layered graph corresponding to the product $A_1A_2\cdots A_k$ is composed of k+1 layers V_1,V_2,\ldots,V_{k+1} . Each layer V_r , where $1\leq r\leq k+1$ is composed of n vertices $v_{r,i}$, for $1\leq i\leq n$. For each nonzero element $a_{ij}^{(r)}$ in A_r , there is an edge $v_{r,i}\to v_{r+1,j}$ in the graph labeled by the element a_{ij}^r . The element b_{ij} of the product is then the sum over all directed paths in the graph from $v_{1,i}$ to $v_{k+1,j}$ of the product of the elements labelling the edges of the path.

Algorithm SCMP (Sparse Chain Matrix Multiplication) given in Figure 3 is a generalization of the variant of algorithm SMP given in the previous section for the product of two matrices. The algorithm starts by setting ℓ to $(\prod_{r=1}^k m_r)^{\frac{1}{k-1+\beta}} n^{\frac{\alpha\beta-2}{k-1+\beta}}$, where m_r is the number of nonzero entries in A_r , for $1 \le r \le k$. (Note that when k=2, we have $\ell=(m_1m_2)^{\frac{1}{\beta+1}}n^{\frac{\alpha\beta-2}{\beta+1}}$, as in the proof of Theorem 3.1.) Next, the algorithm lets I_r be the set of indices of the ℓ rows of A_r with the largest number of nonzero elements, ties broken arbitrarily, for $2 \le r \le k$. It also lets $J_r = [n] - I_r$ be the set of indices of the $n - \ell$ rows of A_r with the smallest number of nonzero elements. The rows of A_r with indices in I_r are said to be the heavy rows of A_r , while the rows of A_r with indices in J_r are said to be *light* rows. The algorithm is then ready to do some calculations. For every $1 \le r \le k$, it computes $P_r \leftarrow (A_1)_{*J_2}(A_2)_{J_2J_3}\cdots (A_r)_{J_r*}$. This is done by enumerating all the corresponding paths in the layered graph corresponding to the product. The matrix P_r is an $n \times n$ matrix that gives the contribution of the *light* paths, that is, paths that do not use elements from heavy rows of A_2, \ldots, A_r , to the prefix product $A_1 A_2 \cdots A_r$. Next, the algorithm computes the suffix products $S_r \leftarrow A_r \cdots A_k$, for $2 \le r \le k$, using recursive calls to the algorithm. The cost of these recursive calls, as we shall see, will be overwhelmed by the other operations performed by the algorithm. The crucial step of the algorithm is the computation of $B_r \leftarrow (P_{r-1})_{*I_r}(S_r)_{I_r*}$, for $2 \le r \le k$, using the fastest available rectangular matrix multiplication algorithm. The algorithm then computes and outputs the matrix $(\sum_{r=2}^k B_r) + P_k.$

THEOREM 4.1. Let $A_1, A_2, ..., A_k$ be $n \times n$ matrices each with $m_1, m_2, ..., m_k$ nonzero elements, respectively, where $k \geq 2$ is a constant. Then, algorithm

 $SCMP(A_1, A_2, ..., A_k)$ correctly computes the product $A_1A_2 \cdots A_k$ using

$$O\left(\left(\prod_{r=1}^{k} m_r\right)^{\frac{\beta}{k-1+\beta}} n^{\frac{(2-\alpha\beta)(k-1)}{k-1+\beta} + o(1)} + n^{2+o(1)}\right)$$

algebraic operations.

PROOF. It is easy to see that the outdegree of a vertex $v_{r,j}$ is the number of nonzero elements in the jth row of A_r . We say that a vertex $v_{r,j}$ is heavy if $j \in I_r$, and light otherwise. (Note that vertices of V_{k+1} are not classified as light or heavy. The classification of V_1 vertices is not used below.) A path in the layered graph is said to be light if all its intermediate vertices are light, and heavy if at least one of its intermediate vertices is heavy.

Let $a_{i,s_1}^{(1)}a_{s_1,s_2}^{(2)}\cdots a_{s_{k-2},s_{k-1}}^{(k)}a_{s_{k-1},j}^{(k)}$ be one of the terms appearing in the sum of b_{ij} given in (1). To prove the correctness of the algorithm we show that this term appears in exactly one of the matrices B_2, \ldots, B_k and P_k which are added up to produce the matrix returned by the algorithm. Indeed, if the path corresponding to the term is light, then the term appears in P_k . Otherwise, let v_{r,j_r} be the first heavy vertex appearing on the path. The term then appears in P_k and in no other product. This completes the correctness proof.

We next consider the complexity of the algorithm. As mentioned, the outdegree of a vertex $v_{r,j}$ is equal to the number of nonzero elements in the jth row of A_r . The total number of nonzero elements in A_r is m_r . Let d_r be the maximum outdegree of a light vertex of V_r . The outdegree of every heavy vertex of V_r is then at least d_r . As there are ℓ heavy vertices, it follows that $d_r \leq m_r/\ell$, for $2 \leq r \leq k$.

The most time-consuming operations performed by the algorithm are the computation of

$$P_k \leftarrow (A_1)_{*,I_2}(A_2)_{I_2,I_3} \cdots (A_k)_{I_k*}$$

by explicitly going over all light paths in the layered graph, and the k-1 rectangular products

$$B_r \leftarrow (P_{r-1})_{*I} (S_r)_{I*}, \text{ for } 2 < r < k.$$

The number of light paths in the graph is at most $m_1 \cdot d_2 d_3 \cdots d_k$. Using the bounds we obtained on the d_r 's, and the choice of ℓ we get that the number of light paths is at most

$$m_1 \cdot d_2 d_3 \cdots d_k \leq \left(\prod_{r=1}^k m_r \right) / \ell^{k-1}$$

$$\leq \left(\prod_{r=1}^{k} m_{r}\right) \left[\left(\prod_{r=1}^{k} m_{r}\right)^{-\frac{k-1}{k-1+\beta}} n^{\frac{(2-\alpha\beta)(k-1)}{k-1+\beta}} \right] = \left(\prod_{r=1}^{k} m_{r}\right)^{\frac{\beta}{k-1+\beta}} n^{\frac{(2-\alpha\beta)(k-1)}{k-1+\beta}}.$$

Thus, the time taken to compute P_k is $O((\prod_{r=1}^k m_r)^{\frac{\beta}{k-1+\beta}} n^{\frac{(2-\alpha\beta)(k-1)}{k-1+\beta}})$. (Computing the product of the elements along a path requires k operations, but we consider k to be a constant.)

As $|I_r| = \ell$, for $2 \le r \le k$, the product $(P_{r-1})_{*I_r}(S_r)_{I_r*}$ is the product of an $n \times \ell$ matrix by an $\ell \times n$ matrix whose cost is $M(n, \ell, n)$. Using Corollary 2.5 and the choice of ℓ made by the algorithm, we get that

$$\begin{split} M(n,\ell,n) &\leq n^{2-\alpha\beta+o(1)}\ell^{\beta} + n^{2+o(1)} \\ &= n^{2-\alpha\beta+o(1)} \left[\left(\prod_{r=1}^{k} m_r \right)^{\frac{\beta}{k-1+\beta}} n^{\frac{(\alpha\beta-2)\beta}{k-1+\beta}} \right] + n^{2+o(1)} \\ &= \left(\prod_{r=1}^{k} m_r \right)^{\frac{\beta}{k-1+\beta}} n^{(2-\alpha\beta)(1-\frac{\beta}{k-1+\beta})+o(1)} + n^{2+o(1)} \\ &= \left(\prod_{r=1}^{k} m_r \right)^{\frac{\beta}{k-1+\beta}} n^{\frac{(2-\alpha\beta)(k-1)}{k-1+\beta}+o(1)} + n^{2+o(1)} \; . \end{split}$$

Finally, it is easy to see that the cost of computing the suffix products $S_r \leftarrow A_r \cdots A_k$, for $2 \le r \le k$, using recursive calls to the algorithm, is dominated by the cost of the other operations performed by the algorithm. (Recall again that k is a constant.) This completes the proof of the theorem. \square

There are two alternatives to the use of algorithm SCMP for computing the product $A_1A_2\cdots A_k$. The first is to ignore the sparsity of the matrices and multiply the matrices in $O(n^\omega)$ time. The second is to multiply the matrices, one by one, using the naïve algorithm. As the naïve algorithm uses at most O(mn) operations when *one* of the matrices contains only m nonzero elements, the total number of operations in this case is at most $O((\sum_{i=1}^k m_r)n)$. (Actually, it is not difficult to see that the largest m_r can be omitted from the sum here.) For simplicity, let us consider the case in which each one of the matrices A_1, \ldots, A_k contains m nonzero elements. A simple calculation then shows that SCMP is faster than the fast dense matrix multiplication algorithm for

$$m \leq n^{\frac{k-1+\omega}{k}}$$
,

and that it is faster than the naïve matrix multiplication algorithm for

$$m \geq \max \left\{ n^{\frac{k-\beta(1+(k-1)\alpha)-1}{(k-1)(1-\beta)}}, \ n^{1+o(1)} \right\}.$$

For k=2, these bounds coincide with the bounds obtained in Section 3. For k=3, with the best available bounds on ω , α and β , we get that SCMP is the fastest algorithm when $n^{1.24} \le m \le n^{1.45}$. For smaller values of m the naïve algorithm is the fastest, while for larger values of m the fast dense algorithm is the fastest. Sadly, for $k \ge 4$, with the current values of ω , α and β , the new algorithm never improves on both the naïve and the dense algorithms. But, this may change if improved bounds on ω , and especially on α , are obtained.

5. Concluding Remarks and Open Problems

We obtained an improved algorithm for the multiplication of two sparse matrices. The algorithm does not rely on any specific structure of the matrices to be multiplied,

just on the fact that they are sparse. The algorithm essentially partitions the matrices to be multiplied into a dense part and a sparse part and uses a fast algebraic algorithm to multiply the dense parts, and the naïve algorithm to multiply the sparse parts. We also discussed the possibility of extending the ideas to the product of $k \geq 3$ matrices. For k = 3, we obtained some improved results. The new algorithms were presented for square matrices. It is not difficult, however, to extend them to work on rectangular matrices.

The most interesting open problem is whether it is possible to speed up the running time of other operations on sparse matrices. In particular, is it possible to compute the transitive closure of a directed graph on n vertices with m edges in, say, $O(m^{1-\epsilon}n^{1+\epsilon})$ time, for some $\epsilon > 0$?

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