



Algorithm Design and Analysis
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Fast Fourier Transform - II



Gauss
(1777 - 1855)



Lagrange
(1736 -1813)



Fourier
(1768 -1830)

Applications

Signal Processing
 Image Compression
 Statistics, Finance
 Pattern Matching

History

Cooley and Tukey's paper 1965
 It was known to Gauss, 1805.

Tukey derived the basic reduction while in a meeting of President Kennedy's Science Advisory Committee for off-shore detection of nuclear tests in the Soviet Union.

The idea was to analyze time series obtained from seismometers. Other possible applications to national security included the long-range acoustic detection of nuclear submarines.


High Level Idea

To compute the product $A(x)B(x)$ of polynomials

- 1) evaluate $A(x)$ and $B(x)$ at roots of unity, using the Vandermonde matrix $O(n \log n)$
- 2) multiply $A(x_k)B(x_k)$, $O(n)$
- 3) then find the polynomial using Lagrange's interpolation via the Vandermonde matrix $O(n \log n)$

Lagrange's Interpolation formula can be represented via the Vandermonde Matrix.

Polynomial evaluation is also computed via the Vandermonde Matrix.



The Lagrange Interpolation

The Lagrange formula defines a polynomial $A(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k$ where coefficients a_k can be found by solving this

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_0 & x_0^2 & \dots & x_0^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \dots & x_1^{n-1} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & x_{n-1} & x_{n-1}^2 & \dots & x_{n-1}^{n-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \dots \\ a_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ \dots \\ y_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

or in short $V \cdot a = y$ Thus, $a = V^{-1} \cdot y$

Complexity of Interpolation

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \dots \\ a_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_0 & x_0^2 & \dots & x_0^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \dots & x_1^{n-1} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & x_{n-1} & x_{n-1}^2 & \dots & x_{n-1}^{n-1} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ \dots \\ y_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

It follows that the complexity of interpolation depends on how fast can we inverse the Vandermonde matrix.

Determinant of the Vandermonde Matrix

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_0 & x_0^2 & \dots & x_0^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \dots & x_1^{n-1} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & x_{n-1} & x_{n-1}^2 & \dots & x_{n-1}^{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \prod_{k=0}^{n-1} \prod_{j=0}^{k-1} (x_k - x_j)$$

Since the n points are distinct, the determinant can't be zero.

The proof (by induction on n) is left as an exercise to a reader ☺

Computing Polynomials

$$A(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k$$

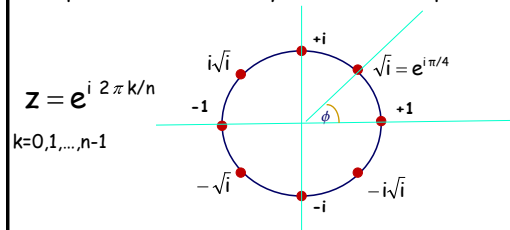
$$\begin{pmatrix} A(1) \\ A(w) \\ \dots \\ A(w^{n-1}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & w & w^2 & \dots & w^{n-1} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & w^{n-1} & w^{2(n-1)} & \dots & w^{(n-1)(n-1)} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \dots \\ a_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

We will prove that this matrix multiplication can be done in $O(n \log n)$

Roots of Unity

are solutions to $z^n = 1$

The n -th roots of unity are points on the complex unit circle every $2\pi/n$ radians apart



Primitive Roots of Unity

Definition: A complex number w is called a n -th primitive root of unity if

- 1) $w^n = 1$
- 2) $w^p \neq 1$, for $p = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$

Roots of Unity

Claim 1: Let w be a primitive root of $z^n = 1$ then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} w^k = 0$$

Proof. Multiply it by w

$$\begin{aligned} w \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} w^k &= w(1 + w + \dots + w^{n-1}) = \\ &= w + w^2 + \dots + w^{n-1} + w^n = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} w^k \end{aligned}$$

Roots of Unity

Claim 2: Let w be a primitive root of $z^n = 1$ and $p = 1, \dots, n-1$ then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} w^{kp} = 0$$

Proof.

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} w^{kp} = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} w^{p \cdot k} = \frac{w^{p \cdot n} - 1}{w^p - 1} = \frac{1^p - 1}{w^p - 1} = 0$$

Modular Arithmetic

Consider a set of powers of 2

$$1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128$$

modulo 17

$$1, 2, 4, 8, -1, -2, -4, -8$$

Square and then do mod 17 again

$$\{1, 2, 4, 8\}^2 = \{1, 4, 16, 64\} = \{1, 4, -1, -4\}$$

Computing Polynomials

$$A(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} A(1) \\ A(w) \\ \dots \\ A(w^{n-1}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & w & w^2 & \dots & w^{n-1} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & w^{n-1} & w^{2(n-1)} & \dots & w^{(n-1)(n-1)} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \dots \\ a_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

Consider $n = 4$

Computing Polynomials, $n = 4$

$$V_4 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & i & -1 & -i \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -i & -1 & i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_2 \\ a_1 \\ a_3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \text{even} \\ \text{odd} \end{matrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} V_2 & \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{pmatrix} V_2 \\ V_2 & -\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{pmatrix} V_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Computing Polynomials

$$V_{2n} = \begin{pmatrix} V_n & D_n V_n \\ V_n & -D_n V_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_{\text{even}} \\ a_{\text{odd}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} V_n a_{\text{even}} + D_n V_n a_{\text{odd}} \\ V_n a_{\text{even}} - D_n V_n a_{\text{odd}} \end{pmatrix}$$

where D_n is a diagonal matrix

$$D_n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & w & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & w^{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

Proof

$$A(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} A(1) \\ A(w) \\ \dots \\ A(w^{n-1}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & w & w^2 & \dots & w^{n-1} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & w^{n-1} & w^{2(n-1)} & \dots & w^{(n-1)(n-1)} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \dots \\ a_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

Consider j -th row

$$A(w^j) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} w^{jk} a_k = \sum_{k \text{ is even}} + \sum_{k \text{ is odd}}$$

Computing Polynomials

$$A(w^j) = \sum_{k=0}^{n/2-1} w^{j2k} a_{2k} + \sum_{k=0}^{n/2-1} w^{j(2k+1)} a_{2k+1}$$

Let w_n denote a root of $z^n = 1$.

Since $w_n^2 = w_{n/2}$, (it follows from $(z^2)^{n/2} = z^n$)

$$A(w^j) = \sum_{k=0}^{n/2-1} w_{n/2}^{jk} a_{2k} + w_n^j \sum_{k=0}^{n/2-1} w_{n/2}^{jk} a_{2k+1} = F_1(j) + w_n^j F_2(j)$$

here F_j is a $n/2$ size problem.

Computing Polynomials

$$A(w^j) = \sum_{k=0}^{n/2-1} w_{n/2}^{jk} a_{2k} + w_n^j \sum_{k=0}^{n/2-1} w_{n/2}^{jk} a_{2k+1}$$

Let us compute $A(w^{j+n/2})$

$$A(w^{j+n/2}) = \sum_{k=0}^{n/2-1} w_{n/2}^{(j+n/2)k} a_{2k} + w_n^{j+n/2} \sum_{k=0}^{n/2-1} w_{n/2}^{(j+n/2)k} a_{2k+1}$$

Observe $w_{n/2}^{j+n/2} = w_{n/2}^j$ and $w_n^{n/2} = -1$ for even n

Periodic property Symmetry property

Computing Polynomials

$$A(w^j) = F_1(j) + w_n^j F_2(j), \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, n/2-1$$

$$A(w^{j+n/2}) = F_1(j) - w_n^j F_2(j), \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, n/2-1$$

This outlines the divide and conquer algorithm.

Therefore, V.a can be computed in $O(n \log n)$

Complexity of Interpolation

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \dots \\ a_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_0 & x_0^2 & \dots & x_0^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \dots & x_1^{n-1} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & x_{n-1} & x_{n-1}^2 & \dots & x_{n-1}^{n-1} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ \dots \\ y_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

We know that the complexity of interpolation depends on how fast can we inverse the Vandermonde matrix.

We will show that this step is also $O(n \log n)$

Inverse Vandermonde

Theorem.

$$V^{-1}(w) = \frac{1}{n} V\left(\frac{1}{w}\right)$$

where $w^n = 1$.

Inverse Vandermonde

$$V(w) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & w_0 & w_0^2 & \dots & w_0^{n-1} \\ 1 & w_1 & w_1^2 & \dots & w_1^{n-1} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & w_{n-1} & w_{n-1}^2 & \dots & w_{n-1}^{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

Let V^* be V where $w \rightarrow 1/w$.

Compute $V^* \cdot V$ Each element of the product is

$$\{1, w^{-i}, w^{-2i}, \dots, w^{-(n-1)i}\} \cdot \{1, w^j, w^{2j}, \dots, w^{j(n-1)}\}$$

$$= 1 + w^{j-i} + w^{2(j-i)} + \dots + w^{(n-1)(j-i)}$$

Inverse Vandermonde

$$(V^* \cdot V)(i, j) = 1 + w^{j-i} + w^{2(j-i)} + \dots + w^{(n-1)(j-i)}$$

Recall

$$1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^{n-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} x^k = \frac{1 - x^n}{1 - x}$$

It follows, that

$$(V^* \cdot V)(i, i) = n$$

$$V^* \cdot V = n I$$

$$(V^* \cdot V)(i, j \neq i) = 0$$

$$V(1/w) \cdot V(w) = n I$$

Polynomial multiplication

$$a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}$$

$$b_0, b_1, \dots, b_{n-1}$$

FFT

$$A(1), A(w), A(w^2), \dots, A(w^{2^{n-1}})$$

$$B(1), B(w), B(w^2), \dots, B(w^{2^{n-1}})$$

Point-value multiplication

$$A(1)B(1), A(w)B(w), \dots, A(w^{2^{n-1}})B(w^{2^{n-1}})$$

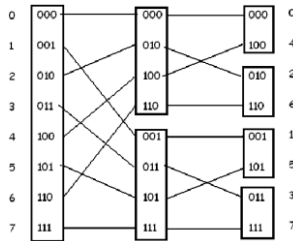
Inverse FFT

$$C(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-2} c_k x^k$$

FFT in place

Let $n = 8$

The right column is a bit reversal!



The recursive algorithm can simply call on the left and right halves, rather than on the odd and even indices.

All DSP processors include a hardware bit reversal capability

Discrete Fourier Transform

DFT converts a set of sample points into another set ordered by frequencies. It reveals periodicities in input data.

A DFT of $\{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}\}$ is defined by

$$b_j = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k w^{kj}$$

where $w^n = 1$. In a matrix form $V \cdot a = b$

FFT is an algorithm for computing DFT.

Convolution

The convolution of two vectors a_k and b_k is a third vector $c = a \otimes b$ which represents an overlap between the two vectors.

$$c_j = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k b_{j-k}$$

The Convolution Theorem says that the DFT of a convolution of two vectors is the point-wise product of the DFT of the two vectors

$$DFT(a \otimes b) = DFT(a) DFT(b)$$

Convolution

$$DFT(a \oplus b) = DFT(a) DFT(b)$$

$$a \oplus b = DFT^{-1}(DFT(a) DFT(b))$$

It follows, using FFT we can compute convolution in $O(n \log n)$.

Note that inverse DFT is just a regular DFT with w replaced by w^{-1} .

Polynomial multiplication

$$A(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k \quad B(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} b_k x^k$$

$$A(x)B(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{2n-2} c_k x^k \quad c_k = \sum_{j=0}^k a_j b_{k-j}$$

this is just a convolution of two vectors a and b



Given two n-bit integers

$$a = a_{n-1} \dots a_0$$

$$b = b_{n-1} \dots b_0$$

compute their product

$$A(x) = a_0 + \dots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

$$B(x) = b_0 + \dots + b_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

$$a = A(2), \quad b = B(2)$$

Compute $C(x) = A(x) B(x)$

Evaluate $C(2)$