CS 473: Algorithms

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Spring 2018

CS 473: Algorithms, Spring 2018

Polynomials, Convolutions and FFT

Lecture 2 Jan 16/18, 2018

Most slides are courtesy Prof. Chekuri

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Discrete Fourier Transfor (DFT) and Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) have many applications and are connected to important mathematics.

"One of top 10 Algorithms of 20th Century" according to IEEE. Gilbert Strang: "The most important numerical algorithm of our lifetime".

Our goal:

- Multiplication of two degree *n* polynomials in *O(n log n)* time.
 Surprising and non-obvious.
- Algorithmic ideas
 - change in representation
 - mathematical properties of polynomials
 - divide and conquer

Part I

Polynomials, Convolutions and FFT

Polynomials

Definition

A polynomial is a function of one variable built from additions, subtractions and multiplications (but no divisions).

$$p(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_j x^j$$

The numbers a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n are the coefficients of the polynomial. The degree is the highest power of x with a non-zero coefficient.

Example

$$p(x)=3-4x+5x^3$$

 $a_0 = 3, a_1 = -4, a_2 = 0, a_3 = 5$ and deg(p) = 3

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Polynomials

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Coefficient Representation

Polynomials represented by vector $\mathbf{a} = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$ of coefficients.

Evaluate Given a polynomial *p* and a value α, compute *p*(α)
Add Given (representations of) polynomials *p*, *q*, compute (representation of) polynomial *p* + *q*Multiply Given (representation of) polynomials *p*, *q*, compute (representation of) polynomial *p* • *q*.
Roots Given *p* find all *roots* of *p*.

Compute value of polynomial $a = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$ at α

```
power = 1

value = 0

for j = 0 to n - 1

// invariant: power = \alpha^j

value = value + a_j \cdot power

power = power \cdot \alpha

end for

return value
```

How many additions?

Compute value of polynomial $a = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$ at α

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How many additions? *n* How many multiplications?

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How many additions? *n* How many multiplications? *2n*

Compute value of polynomial $a = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$ at α

```
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value = 0

for j = 0 to n - 1

// invariant: power = \alpha^j

value = value + a_j \cdot power

power = power \cdot \alpha

end for

return value
```

How many additions? *n*

How many multiplications? 2n

Horner's rule can be used to cut the multiplications in half

 $a(x) = a_0 + x(a_1 + x(a_2 + x(\cdots + xa_{n-1})\cdots))$

Question

How long does evaluation really take? O(n) time?

Bits to represent α^n is $n \log \alpha$ while bits to represent α is only $\log \alpha$. Thus, need to pay attention to size of numbers and multiplication complexity.

Ignore this issue for now. Can get around it for applications of interest where one typically wants to compute $p(\alpha) \mod m$ for some number m.

Compute the sum of polynomials $a = (a_0, a_1, \dots a_{n-1})$ and $b = (b_0, b_1, \dots b_{n-1})$

Compute the sum of polynomials $a = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$ and $b = (b_0, b_1, \dots, b_{n-1})$ $a + b = (a_0 + b_0, a_1 + b_1, \dots, a_{n-1} + b_{n-1})$. Takes O(n) time.

Multiplication

Compute the product of polynomials $a = (a_0, a_1, \dots a_n)$ and $b = (b_0, b_1, \dots b_m)$ Recall $a \cdot b = (c_0, c_1, \dots c_{n+m})$ where

$$c_k = \sum_{i,j:\,i+j=k} a_i \cdot b_j$$

Takes $\Theta(nm)$ time; $\Theta(n^2)$ when n = m.

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Takes $\Theta(nm)$ time; $\Theta(n^2)$ when n = m. We will obtain a better algorithm! Compute the product of polynomials $a = (a_0, a_1, \dots a_n)$ and $b = (b_0, b_1, \dots b_m)$ Recall $a \cdot b = (c_0, c_1, \dots c_{n+m})$ where

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Takes $\Theta(nm)$ time; $\Theta(n^2)$ when n = m. We will obtain a better algorithm!

Better/Efficient/Easy (today's lecture): preferably O(n + m), but $O(n \log n)$ is also okay.

Definition

The convolution of vectors $a = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n)$ and $b = (b_0, b_1, \dots, b_m)$ is the vector $c = (c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{n+m})$ where

$$c_k = \sum_{i,j:\,i+j=k} a_i \cdot b_j$$

Convolution of vectors a and b is denoted by a * b. In other words, the convolution is the coefficients of the product of the two polynomials.

Revisiting Polynomial Representations

Representation

Polynomials represented by vector $\mathbf{a} = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$ of coefficients.

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Question

Are there other useful ways to represent polynomials?

Root of a polynomial p(x): r such that p(r) = 0. If $r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_{n-1}$ are roots then $p(x) = a_{n-1}(x - r_1)(x - r_2) \ldots (x - r_{n-1})$.

Valid representation because of:

Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra)

Every polynomial p(x) of degree d has exactly d roots r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_d where the roots can be complex numbers and can be repeated.

Representation

Representation

Polynomials represented by vector scale factor a_{n-1} and roots $r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_{n-1}$.

• Evaluating *p* at a given *x* is easy. Why?

Representation

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- Multiplication: given p, q with roots r_1, \ldots, r_{n-1} and s_1, \ldots, s_{m-1} the product $p \cdot q$ has roots $r_1, \ldots, r_{n-1}, s_1, \ldots, s_{m-1}$. Easy! O(n + m) time.

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- Addition: requires $\Omega(nm)$ time?
- Given coefficient representation, how do we go to root representation? No finite algorithm because of potential for irrational roots.

Representing Polynomials by Samples

Let
$$p$$
 be a polynomial of degree $n - 1$.
Pick n distinct samples $x_0, x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{n-1}$
Let $y_0 = p(x_0), y_1 = p(x_1), \ldots, y_{n-1} = p(x_{n-1})$.

Representation

Polynomials represented by $(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$.

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Representation

Polynomials represented by $(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$.

Is the above a valid representation? Why do we use 2n numbers instead of n numbers for coefficient and root representation?

Theorem

Given a list $\{(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})\}$ there is exactly one polynomial p of degree n - 1 such that $p(x_j) = y_j$ for $j = 0, 1, \dots, n - 1$.

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So representation is valid.

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So representation is valid.

Can use same $x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}$ for all polynomials of degree n-1. No need to store them explicitly and hence need only n numbers $y_0, y_1, \ldots, y_{n-1}$.

Lagrange Interpolation

Given $(x_0, y_0), \ldots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$ the following polynomial p satisfies the property that $p(x_j) = y_j$ for $j = 0, 1, 2, \ldots, n-1$.

$$p(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \left(\frac{y_j}{\prod_{k\neq j} (x_j - x_k)} \prod_{k\neq j} (x - x_k) \right)$$

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For n = 3, p(x) =

$$y_0 \frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_2)}{(x_0-x_1)(x_0-x_2)} + y_1 \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_2)}{(x_1-x_0)(x_1-x_2)} + y_2 \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)}{(x_2-x_0)(x_2-x_1)}$$

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Easy to verify that $p(x_j) = y_j$! Thus there exists one polynomial of degree n-1 that interpolates the values $(x_0, y_0), \ldots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$.
Given $(x_0, y_0), \ldots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$ there is a polynomial p(x) such that $p(x_i) = y_i$ for $0 \le i < n$. Can there be two distinct polynomials?

Given $(x_0, y_0), \ldots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$ there is a polynomial p(x) such that $p(x_i) = y_i$ for $0 \le i < n$. Can there be two distinct polynomials?

No! Use Fundamental Theorem of Algebra to prove it — exercise.

• Let $a = \{(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})\}$ and $b = \{(x_0, y'_0), (x_1, y'_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y'_{n-1})\}$ be two polynomials of degree n - 1 in sample representation.

- Let $a = \{(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})\}$ and $b = \{(x_0, y'_0), (x_1, y'_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y'_{n-1})\}$ be two polynomials of degree n - 1 in sample representation.
- a + b can be represented by

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- a + b can be represented by { $(x_0, (y_0 + y'_0)), (x_1, (y_1 + y'_1)), \dots (x_{n-1}, (y_{n-1} + y'_{n-1}))$ }

• Thus, can be computed in **O(n)** time

- Let $a = \{(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})\}$ and $b = \{(x_0, y'_0), (x_1, y'_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y'_{n-1})\}$ be two polynomials of degree n - 1 in sample representation.
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• Thus, can be computed in **O(n)** time

• $a \cdot b$ can be evaluated at n samples

- Let $a = \{(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})\}$ and $b = \{(x_0, y'_0), (x_1, y'_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y'_{n-1})\}$ be two polynomials of degree n - 1 in sample representation.
- a + b can be represented by
 {(x₀, (y₀ + y'₀)), (x₁, (y₁ + y'₁)), ... (x_{n-1}, (y_{n-1} + y'_{n-1}))}

 Thus, can be computed in O(n) time
- $a \cdot b$ can be evaluated at n samples $\{(x_0, (y_0 \cdot y'_0)), (x_1, (y_1 \cdot y'_1)), \dots (x_{n-1}, (y_{n-1} \cdot y'_{n-1}))\}$

• Can be computed in **O(n)** time.

- Let $a = \{(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})\}$ and $b = \{(x_0, y'_0), (x_1, y'_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y'_{n-1})\}$ be two polynomials of degree n - 1 in sample representation.
- a + b can be represented by
 {(x₀, (y₀ + y'₀)), (x₁, (y₁ + y'₁)), ... (x_{n-1}, (y_{n-1} + y'_{n-1}))}

 Thus, can be computed in O(n) time
- a · b can be evaluated at n samples
 {(x₀, (y₀ · y'₀)), (x₁, (y₁ · y'₁)), ... (x_{n-1}, (y_{n-1} · y'_{n-1}))}

 Can be computed in O(n) time.

But what if p, q are given in coefficient form? Convolution requires p, q to be in coefficient form.

Sample representation:

- Fix x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1} .
- $a' = (x_0, a(x_0)), \dots, (x_{n-1}, a(x_{n-1}))$, similarly b' from b.
 - **Theorem.** Unique degree (n 1) polynomial corresponding to any given n samples.

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- $a' = (x_0, a(x_0)), \dots, (x_{n-1}, a(x_{n-1}))$, similarly b' from b.
 - **Theorem.** Unique degree (n 1) polynomial corresponding to any given n samples. a' is a valid representation of a.
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 - **Theorem.** Unique degree (n 1) polynomial corresponding to any given n samples. a' is a valid representation of a.
- $a' \cdot b'$ requires O(n) multiplications.

Plan. Convert to sample representation. Multiply. Convert back to coefficient representation.

Given a polynomial a as $(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1})$ can we obtain a sample representation $(x_0, y_0), \ldots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$ quickly? Also can we *invert* the representation quickly?

Given a polynomial a as $(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1})$ can we obtain a sample representation $(x_0, y_0), \ldots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$ quickly? Also can we *invert* the representation quickly?

- Suppose we choose $x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}$ arbitrarily.
- Take O(n) time to evaluate $y_j = a(x_j)$ given (a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1}) .
- Total time is $\Omega(n^2)$
- Inversion via Lagrange interpolation also $\Omega(n^2)$

Can choose $x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}$ carefully!

Total time to evaluate $a(x_0), a(x_1), \ldots, a(x_{n-1})$ should be better than evaluating each separately.

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Total time to evaluate $a(x_0), a(x_1), \ldots, a(x_{n-1})$ should be better than evaluating each separately.

How do we choose $x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}$ to save work?

$$a(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3 + \ldots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

Observation: $(-x)^{2j} = x^{2j}$. Can we exploit this?

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Example

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Example

$$a(c) = (3 + 6c^{2} + c^{4}) + c(4 + 2c^{2} + 10c^{4})$$

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 $a(-c) =$

$$a(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3 + \ldots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

Observation: $(-x)^{2j} = x^{2j}$. Can we exploit this?

Example

$$a(c) = (3 + 6c^{2} + c^{4}) + c(4 + 2c^{2} + 10c^{4})$$

$$a(-c) = (3 + 6c^{2} + c^{4}) - c(4 + 2c^{2} + 10c^{4})$$

Odd and Even Decomposition

- Let $a = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$ be a polynomial.
- Let $a_{odd} = (a_1, a_3, a_5, ...)$ be the (n/2 1) degree polynomial defined by the odd coefficients; so

$$a_{\rm odd}(x)=a_1+a_3x+a_5x^2+\cdots$$

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• Similarly, let $a_{\text{even}}(x) = a_0 + a_2 x + \dots$ be the (n/2 - 1) degree polynomial defined by the even coefficients.

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- Similarly, let $a_{even}(x) = a_0 + a_2x + \dots$ be the (n/2 1) degree polynomial defined by the even coefficients.
- Observe

$$a(x) = a_{\text{even}}(x^2) + xa_{\text{odd}}(x^2)$$

• Thus, evaluating *a* at *x* can be reduced to evaluating lower degree polynomials plus constantly many arithmetic operations.

$$a(x) = a_{\text{even}}(x^2) + xa_{\text{odd}}(x^2)$$

• Choose *n* samples

 $x_0, x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{n/2-1}, -x_0, -x_1, \ldots, -x_{n/2-1}$

• Evaluate a_{even} and a_{odd} at $x_0^2, x_1^2, x_2^2, \dots, x_{n/2-1}^2$.

$$a(x) = a_{\text{even}}(x^2) + xa_{\text{odd}}(x^2)$$

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• For each
$$i = 0$$
 to $(n/2 - 1)$, evaluate
 $a(x_i) = a_{\text{even}}(x_i^2) + x_i a_{\text{odd}}(x_i^2)$
 $a(-x_i) = a_{\text{even}}(x_i^2) - x_i a_{\text{odd}}(x_i^2)$

$$a(x) = a_{\text{even}}(x^2) + xa_{\text{odd}}(x^2)$$

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Total of $O(n)$ work!

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• Choose *n* samples

 $x_0, x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{n/2-1}, -x_0, -x_1, \ldots, -x_{n/2-1}$

• Evaluate a_{even} and a_{odd} at $x_0^2, x_1^2, x_2^2, \dots, x_{n/2-1}^2$.

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 $a(-x_i) = a_{even}(x_i^2) - x_i a_{odd}(x_i^2)$
Total of $O(n)$ work!

• Suppose we can make this work recursively. Then

T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n) which implies $T(n) = O(n \log n)$

Collapsible sets

Definition

Given a set X of numbers square(X) (for square of X) is the set $\{x^2 \mid x \in X\}$.

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Definition

A set X of n numbers is collapsible if square(X) \subset X and |square(X)| = n/2.

Collapsible sets

Definition

Given a set X of numbers square(X) (for square of X) is the set $\{x^2 \mid x \in X\}$.

Definition

A set X of n numbers is collapsible if square(X) \subset X and |square(X)| = n/2.

Definition

A set X of n numbers (for n a power of 2) is recursively collapsible if n = 1 or if X is collapsible and square(X) is recursively collapsible.

Given a *recursively collapsible* set X of size n, compute sample representation of polynomial a of degree (n - 1) as follows:

SampleRepresentation(*a*, *X*, *n*)

If n = 1 return $a(x_0)$ where $X = \{x_0\}$

Compute square(X) in O(n) time %note:|square(X)| = n/2

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SampleRepresentation(*a*, *X*, *n*)

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SampleRepresentation (a, X, n) If n = 1 return $a(x_0)$ where $X = \{x_0\}$ Compute square(X) in O(n) time %note:|square(X)| = n/2 $\begin{array}{l} \{y_0, y_1, y_1, y_2, y_{n/2-1}\} = & \mathsf{SampleRepresentation}(a_{\circ dd}, \mathsf{square}(X), n/2) \\ \{y'_0, y'_1, y'_1, y'_{n/2-1}\} = & \mathsf{SampleRepresentation}(a_{even}, \mathsf{square}(X), n/2) \end{array}$ For each i from 0 to (n-1) compute $z_i = a_{even}(x_i^2) + x_i a_{odd}(x_i^2)$ Return $\{z_0, z_1, ..., z_{n-1}\}$ $\frac{q(x_{j}) = q_{2}(x_{j}) + x_{j} a_{0}(x_{j})}{= q_{2}(x_{j}) + x_{j} q_{0}(x_{j})}$ Ruta (UIUC) CS473 Spring 2018 27 / 55

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Exercise: show that algorithm runs in $O(n \log n)$ time

- *n* samples $x_0, x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{n/2-1}, -x_0, -x_1, \ldots, -x_{n/2-1}$
- Next step in recursion $x_0^2, x_1^2, \ldots, x_{n/2-1}^2$
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- To continue recursion, we need

$$\{x_0^2, x_1^2, \dots, x_{\frac{n}{2}-1}^2\} = \{z_0, z_1, \dots, z_{\frac{n}{4}-1}, -z_0, -z_1, \dots, -z_{\frac{n}{4}-1}\}$$

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• If $z_0 = x_0^2$ and $-z_0 = x_{n/4}^2$ then $x_0 = \sqrt{-1}x_{n/4}$ That is $x_0 = ix_{n/4}$ where *i* is the imaginary number.

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- Can continue recursion but need to go to *complex* numbers.

Notation

For the rest of lecture, i stands for $\sqrt{-1}$

Definition

Complex numbers are points lying in the complex plane represented as Cartesian $a + ib = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}e^{(\arctan(b/a))i}$ Polar $re^{\theta i} = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$ Thus, $e^{\pi i} = -1$ and $e^{2\pi i} = 1$. What is e^z when z is a real number? When z is a complex number?

$$e^{z} = 1 + z/1! + z^{2}/2! + \ldots + z^{j}/j! + \ldots$$

Therefore

$$e^{i\theta} = 1 + i\theta/1! + (i\theta)^2/2! + (i\theta)^3/3! + \dots$$

= $(1 - \theta^2/2! + \theta^4/4! - \dots +) + i(\theta - \theta^3/3! + \dots +)$
= $\cos \theta + i \sin \theta$

What are the roots of the polynomial $x^k - 1$?

$$(e^{2\pi i}=1)$$

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- Let $\omega_k = e^{2\pi i/k}$. The roots are $1 = \omega_k^0, \omega_k^2, \dots, \omega_k^{k-1}$ where $\omega_k^j = e^{2\pi j i/k}$.

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Proposition

Let ω_k be $e^{2\pi i/k}$. The equation $x^k = 1$ has k distinct complex roots given by $\omega_k^j = e^{(2\pi j)i/k}$ for $j = 0, 1, \dots, k-1$

Proof.

$$(\omega_k^j)^k = (e^{2\pi j i/k})^k = e^{2\pi j i} = (e^{2\pi i})^j = (1)^j = 1$$

Observation 1: $\omega_k^j = \omega_k^{j \mod k}$



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$$\omega_k^j = \omega_k^{j \mod k}$$

Lemma

Assume n is a power of 2. The n'th roots of unity are a recursively collapsible set.

Proof.

Let
$$X_n = \{1, \omega_n, \omega_n^2, \ldots, \omega_n^{n-1}\}.$$

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•
$$X_1 = \{1\}, X_2 = \{1, -1\}$$

• $X_4 = \{1, -1, i, -i\}$
• $X_8 = \{1, -1, i, -i, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\pm 1 \pm i)\}$

Definition

Given vector $\mathbf{a} = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$ the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) of \mathbf{a} is the vector $\mathbf{a}' = (a'_0, a'_1, \dots, a'_{n-1})$ where $a'_j = \mathbf{a}(\omega_n^j)$ for $\mathbf{0} \le j < n$.

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a' is a sample representation of polynomial with coefficient reprentation a at n'th roots of unity.

We have shown that a' can be computed from a in $O(n \log n)$ time. This divide and conquer *algorithm* is called the *Fast Fourier Transform* (FFT).

Back to Convolutions and Polynomial Multiplication

Convolutions (products)

Compute convolution $c = (c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_{2n-2})$ of

- $a = (a_0, a_1, \dots a_{n-1})$ and $b = (b_0, b_1, \dots b_{n-1})$
 - Evaluate a and b at some n sample points.
 - Compute sample representation of product. That is $c' = (a'_0 b'_0, a'_1 b'_1, \dots, a'_{n-1} b'_{n-1}).$
 - Compute coefficients of unique polynomial associated with sample representation of product. That is compute c from c'.

Back to Convolutions and Polynomial Multiplication

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Can we really compute c from c'?

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Can we really compute c from c'? We only have n sample points and c' has 2n - 1 coefficients!

Convolutions and Polynomial Multiplication

Convolutions

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• Pad a with n zeroes to make it a (2n - 1) degree polynomial $a = (a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1}, a_n, a_{n+1}, \ldots, a_{2n-1})$. Similarly for b.

Convolutions and Polynomial Multiplication

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- Compute coefficients of unique polynomial associated with sample representation of product. That is compute *c* from *c'*.
 - Step 2 takes $O(n \log n)$ using divide and conquer algorithm
 - Step 3 takes O(n) time
 - Step 4?

Part II

Inverse Fourier Transform

Input Given the evaluation of a n - 1-degree polynomial a on the nth roots of unity specified by vector a' Goal Compute the coefficients of a We saw that a' can be computed from a in O(n log n) time. Can we compute a from a' in O(n log n) time?

A Matrix Point of View

$$a(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

 $a'_0 = a(x_0), a'_1 = a(x_1), \ldots, a'_{n-1} = a(x_{n-1}).$



A Matrix Point of View

$$a(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$
 x^{n-1} (=0)

Denote
$$\omega = \omega_n^1 = e^{2\pi/n}$$
. Let $x_j = \omega^j$
 $a'_0 = a(1), a'_1 = a(\omega), \dots, a'_{n-1} = a(\omega^{n-1})$.
 $\frac{1, \omega, \omega^2, \dots, \omega^{n-1}}{\gamma^{th}}$ and so we try



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Inverting the Matrix



Inverting the Matrix



Replace ω by ω^{-1} which is also a root of unity! Since $\omega^j = \omega^j \mod n$, we get $\omega^{-j} = e^{-j2\pi/n} = \omega^{(n-j)2\pi/n}$.

Inverting the Matrix



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Inverse matrix is simply a permutation of the original matrix modulo scale factor 1/n.

Check $VV^{-1} = I$ where I is the $n \times n$ identity matrix.

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Observation: $\sum_{s=0}^{n-1} (\omega^j)^s = (1 + \omega^j + \omega^{2j} + \ldots + \omega^{(n-1)j}) = 0, j \neq 0$

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• ω^j is root of $x^n - 1 = (x - 1)(x^{n-1} + x^{n-2} + \ldots + 1)$

• Thus, ω^j is root of $(x^{n-1} + x^{n-2} + \ldots + 1)$

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$$(1,\omega^j,\omega^{2j},\ldots,\omega^{j(n-1)})\cdot(1,\omega^{-k},\omega^{-2k},\ldots,\omega^{-k(n-1)})=\sum_{s=0}^{n-1}\omega^{s(j-k)}$$

Note that ω^{j-k} is a **n**'th root of unity. If j = k then sum is **n**, otherwise by previous observation sum is **0**.

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Note that ω^{j-k} is a **n**'th root of unity. If j = k then sum is **n**, otherwise by previous observation sum is $\mathbf{0}$.

Rows of matrix V (and hence also those of V^{-1}) are *orthogonal*. Thus a' = Va can be thought of transforming the vector a into a new Fourier basis with basis vectors corresponding to rows of V.

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- Input Given the evaluation of a n 1-degree polynomial a on the nth roots of unity specified by vector a'Goal Compute the coefficients of a
- We saw that a' can be computed from a in $O(n \log n)$ time. Can we compute a from a' in $O(n \log n)$ time?

Yes! $a = V^{-1}a'$ which is simply a permuted and scaled version of DFT. Hence can be computed in $O(n \log n)$ time.

Convolutions

- Compute convolution of $a = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$ and $b = (b_0, b_1, \dots, b_{n-1})$
 - Compute values of a and b at the 2nth roots of unity
 - 2 Compute sample representation c' of product $c = a \cdot b$
 - Sompute c from c' using inverse Fourier transform.
 - Step 1 takes O(n log n) using two FFTs
 - Step 2 takes O(n) time
 - Step 3 takes O(n log n) using one FFT
FFT Circuit



The recursive structure of the FFT algorithm.

- As noted earlier evaluating a polynomial *p* at a point *x* makes numbers big
- Are we cheating when we say $O(n \log n)$ algorithm for convolution?
- Can get around numerical issues work in finite fields and avoid numbers growing too big.
- Outside the scope of lecture
- We will assume for reductions that convolution can be done in O(n log n) time.

Numerical Issues: Puzzle



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Part III

Application to String Matching

Basic string matching problem:

Input Given a pattern string P on length m and a text string T of length n over a fixed alphabet Σ

Goal Does *P* occur as a substring of *T*? Find all "matches" of *P* in *T*.

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Several generalizations. Matching with don't cares.

Input Given a pattern string P on length m over $\Sigma \cup \{*\}$ (* is a don't care) and a text string T of length n over Σ Goal Find all "matches" of P in T. * matches with any character of Σ Basic string matching problem:

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Example: P = a * *, T = aardvark

Matches?

Shifted products via Convolution

Given two arrays A and B with say with A[0..m-1] and B[0..n-1] with $m \leq n$

Input Two arrays: A[0..(m-1)] and B[0..(n-1)]. Goal Compute all shifted products in array C[0..(n-m-1)] where $C[i] = \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} A[j]B[i+j]$.

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Lemma

Reverse of C is the convolution of the vectors A and reverse of B.

Proof.	
Exercise.	

Assume first that $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$

Goal:

- Convert $P = a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-1}$ to binary array A of size m.
- Convert $T = b_0 b_1 \dots b_{n-1}$ to binary array B of size n.
- So that we can use shifted product *C* of *A* and *B* to count "mismatches".

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- Type 1 mismatches: C[i] counts # j's where P[j] = 0 and T[i+j] = 1, when P is aligned with T at T[i].

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Example: T = 10110010...P = 010

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Example:
$$T = 10110010...$$

 $P = 010$

- Finding Type 1 mismatches:
 - B[j] = T[j]
 - If P[j] = 0 set A[j] = 1, if P[j] = 1 or * set A[j] = 0.

• Type 2 mismatches: C[i] counts # j's where P[j] = 1 and T[i+j] = 0, when P is aligned with T at T[i].

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Example:
$$T = 10110010...$$

 $P = 010$

- Finding Type 2 mismatches:
 - B[j] = (1 T[j]) (flip the bits)
 - If P[j] = 0 or * set A[j] = 0, if P[j] = 1 set A[j] = 1.

• Type 2 mismatches: C[i] counts # j's where P[j] = 1 and T[i + j] = 0, when P is aligned with T at T[i].

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- Finding Type 2 mismatches:
 - B[j] = (1 T[j]) (flip the bits)
 - If P[j] = 0 or * set A[j] = 0, if P[j] = 1 set A[j] = 1.

There is a match at position i of T iff both types of mismatches are **0**.

Running time analysis

- Reducing to shift product is O(n).
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Running time analysis

- Reducing to shift product is O(n).
- Need to compute two convolutions with polynomials of size n and m. Total run time is O(n log n) (here we assume m ≤ n).
- Can reduce to O(n log m) as follows. Break text T into
 O(n/m) overlapping substrings of length 2m each and compute matches of P with these substrings. Total time is O(n log m).

Exercise: work out the details of this improvement.

General Alphabet

If Σ is not binary replace each character $\alpha \in \Sigma$ by its binary representation. Need $s = \lceil \log |\Sigma| \rceil$ bits. Running time increases to $O(n \log m \log s)$.

Can remove dependence on *s* and obtain $O(n \log m)$ time where m = |P| using more advanced ideas and/or randomization.

FFT algorithm is used billions of times everyday: image/sound processing – jpeg, mp3, MRI scans, etc.

Even your brain is running FFT!

A fun video on FFT applications: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=aqa6vyGSdos