

# Design and Analysis of Algorithm

## Divide-and-Conquer (II)

- 1 Fast Power/Exponentiation
- 2 Integer Multiplication
- 3 Matrix Multiplication
- 4 Polynomial Multiplication

# Outline

- 1 Fast Power/Exponentiation
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## Fast Power/Exponentiation Problem

Input.  $a \in \mathbb{R}, n \in \mathbb{N}$

Output.  $a^n$

Naive algorithm. Sequential multiplication

$$a^n = \underbrace{a \cdot a \cdot \dots \cdot a \cdot a}_n$$

$\#(\text{multiplication}) = n - 1$

## Divide-and-Conquer: Divide

$n$  is even

$$\underbrace{a \dots a}_{n/2} \mid \underbrace{a \dots a}_{n/2}$$

$n$  is odd

$$\underbrace{a \dots a}_{(n-1)/2} \mid \underbrace{a \dots a}_{(n-1)/2} \mid a$$

---

$$a^n = \begin{cases} a^{n/2} \times a^{n/2} & n \text{ is even} \\ a^{(n-1)/2} \times a^{(n-1)/2} \times a & n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

## Complexity Analysis

Basic operation. multiplication

- size of subproblem: smaller than  $n/2$
- two subproblems (with size roughly  $n/2$ ) are identical, only need computing once

$$W(n) = W(n/2) + \Theta(1)$$

master theorem (case 1)  $\Rightarrow W(n) = \Theta(\log n)$

*How to realize this algorithm? recursion vs. iteration*

## A Recursive Approach

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**Algorithm 1:**  $\text{Power}(a, n): a^n = (a^{-1})^{-n}$

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- 1: **if**  $n < 0$  **then return**  $\text{Power}(1/a, -n)$ ; //handle negative integer exponent
  - 2: **if**  $n = 0$  **then return** 1;
  - 3: **if**  $n = 1$  **then return**  $a$ ;
  - 4: **if**  $n$  is even **then return**  $\text{Power}(a^2, n/2)$ ;
  - 5: **if**  $n$  is odd **then return**  $a \times \text{Power}(a^2, (n - 1)/2)$ ;
- 

Naive implementation:  $x \leftarrow \text{Power}(a, n/2)$ , return  $x \times x$ .

- has the same effect as above: cause we have to compute  $a^2$

## An Iterative Approach

$$y = a^n = a^{\sum_{i=0}^k b_i 2^i} = \prod_{i=0}^k (a^{2^i})^{b_i}$$

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**Algorithm 2:** Square-and-Multiply( $a, n$ )

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```
1:  $(b_k, b_{k-1}, \dots, b_1, b_0) \leftarrow \text{BinaryDecomposition}(n)$ ;  
2:  $y \leftarrow 1$ ;  
3:  $power \leftarrow a$ ;  
4: for  $i = 0$  to  $k$  do  
5:   if  $b_i = 1$  then  $y \leftarrow y \times power$ ; //add  
6:    $power \leftarrow power \times power$  // double  
7: end  
8: return  $y$ 
```

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Also known as binary exponentiation

Naturally extend to additive semigroups: **double-and-add**

## Application of Power Algorithm

Fibonacci sequence: 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, ...

add  $F_0 = 0$ , we obtain:

$$0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, \dots$$

**Problem.** Given initial values  $F_0 = 0$ ,  $F_1 = 1$ , compute  $F_n$

**Naive algorithm.** From  $F_0, F_1, \dots$ , repeatedly compute

$$F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$$

**Complexity.** sequential addition:  $\Theta(n)$



## Properties of Fibonacci Sequence

*Better algorithm? How to derive the general formula?*

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**Observation:**  $F_n$  is a linear combination of  $F_{n-1}$  and  $F_{n-2}$ . This hints us to use linear algebra to express the recurrence relation.

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**Proposition.** Let  $\{F_n\}$  be a Fibonacci sequence, then

$$\begin{pmatrix} F_{n+1} & F_n \\ F_n & F_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^n$$

Proof by mathematical induction

**Basis.**  $n = 1$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} F_2 & F_1 \\ F_1 & F_0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Proof (Induction Step)

Suppose for any  $n$ , the formula is correct, i.e.:

$$\begin{pmatrix} F_{n+1} & F_n \\ F_n & F_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^n$$

Then for  $n + 1$ , according to the definition of Fibonacci sequence:

$$\begin{pmatrix} F_{n+2} & F_{n+1} \\ F_{n+1} & F_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} F_{n+1} & F_n \\ F_n & F_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Induction premise} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^n \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^{n+1}$$

## Improved Algorithm via Fast Power

Let

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Compute  $M^n$  using generalized fast power algorithm

### Time complexity

- The number of matrix multiplication  $T(n) = \Theta(\log n)$
- Each matrix multiplication requires 8 number multiplication
- The overall complexity is  $\Theta(\log n)$

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- 

### Further improvement

- $M$  can be diagonalized ( $M = PM'P^{-1}$ )  $\Rightarrow$  we could directly use fast power algorithm for better efficiency on basic computer step (matrix mul).

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## Integer Addition

**Addition.** Given two  $n$ -bit integers  $a$  and  $b$ , compute  $a + b$ .

**Subtraction.** Given two  $n$ -bit integers  $a$  and  $b$ , compute  $a - b$ .

**Grade-school algorithm.**  $\Theta(n)$  bit operations.

	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	
		1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
+		0	1	1	1	1	1	0	1
	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0

**Remark.** Grade-school addition and subtraction algorithms are asymptotically optimal.





## Divide-and-Conquer: First Attempt (1/2)

**Divide** Split two  $n$ -bit integer  $x$  and  $y$  into their left and right halves (low- and high-order bits). Let  $m = n/2$ .

$$\begin{array}{l} x \quad \boxed{\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline x_L & x_R \\ \hline \end{array}} \quad 2^{n/2}x_L + x_R \\ \\ y \quad \boxed{\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline y_L & y_R \\ \hline \end{array}} \quad 2^{n/2}y_L + y_R \end{array}$$

Use bit shifting to compute

$$\begin{aligned} x_L &= \lfloor x/2^m \rfloor, x_R = x \bmod 2^m \\ y_L &= \lfloor y/2^m \rfloor, y_R = y \bmod 2^m \end{aligned}$$

**Example.**  $x = \underbrace{1011}_{x_L} \underbrace{0110}_{x_R} = 1011 \times 2^4 + 0110$

## Divide-and-Conquer: First Attempt (2/2)

$$\begin{aligned}xy &= (2^{n/2}x_L + x_R)(2^{n/2}y_L + y_R) \\ &= 2^n \underline{x_L y_L} + 2^{n/2}(\underline{x_L y_R} + \underline{x_R y_L}) + \underline{x_R y_R}\end{aligned}$$

**Conquer.** Multiply four  $n/2$ -bit integers, recursively. (significant operations)

**Combine.** Add and shift to obtain result.

$$T(n) = \underbrace{4T(n/2)}_{\text{recursive calls}} + \underbrace{\Theta(n)}_{\text{add,shift}}$$

master theorem (case 1)  $\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$

# (Subproblems) too many  $\rightsquigarrow$  Same running time as traditional grade school method, no progress in efficiency.

*How can this method be sped up?*

## Gauss's Trick

Gauss once noticed that although the product of two complex numbers

$$(a + bi)(c + di) = ac - bd + (bc + ad)i$$

seems involving 4 multiplications, it can in fact be done with 3:

$$bc + ad = (a + b)(c + d) - ac - bd$$



Figure: Carl Friedrich Gauss

## Karatsuba's Algorithm

In 1960, Kolmogorov conjectured grade-school multiplication algorithm is optimal in a seminar. **Within a week**, Karatsuba, then a **23-year-old student**, found a much better algorithm thus disproving the conjecture. Kolmogorov was very excited about the discovery and published a paper in 1962.



Figure: Anatolii Karatsuba

**Karatsuba algorithm:** the first algorithm **asymptotically faster** than the quadratic “grade school” algorithm.

## Reduce the Number of Subproblem

**Idea.** Exploit the dependence among subproblems via Gauss's trick

$$\underbrace{x_L y_R + x_R y_L}_{\text{middle term}} = (x_L + x_R)(y_L + y_R) - x_L y_L - x_R y_R$$

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**Algorithm 3:** KARATSUBA( $x, y, n$ )

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- 1: **if**  $n = 1$  **then return**  $x \times y$ ;
  - 2: **else**  $m \leftarrow \lceil n/2 \rceil$ ;
  - 3:  $x_L \leftarrow \lfloor x/2^m \rfloor$ ;  $x_R \leftarrow x \bmod 2^m$ ;
  - 4:  $y_L \leftarrow \lfloor y/2^m \rfloor$ ;  $y_R \leftarrow y \bmod 2^m$ ;
  - 5:  $e \leftarrow \text{KARATSUBA}(x_L, y_L, m)$ ;
  - 6:  $f \leftarrow \text{KARATSUBA}(x_R, y_R, m)$ ;
  - 7:  $g \leftarrow \text{KARATSUBA}(x_L + x_R, y_L + y_R, m)$ ;
  - 8: **return**  $2^{2m}e + 2^m(g - e - f) + f$ ;
-

## Theory

**Complexity Analysis.** Now, the recurrence relation is

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} T(n) = 3T(n/2) + \Theta(n) \\ T(1) = 1 \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_2 3}) = \Theta(n^{1.585})$$

Combining and dividing cost  $f(n)$  is cheap  $\rightsquigarrow h(n)$  dominates the overall complexity. The constant factor improvement from 4 to 3 occurs at the *every level of the recursion*, the compounding effect leads to a dramatically lower bound.

[Toom-Cook (1963)] faster generalization of Karatsuba's method  
[Schönhage-Strassen (1971)] even faster, for sufficiently large  $n$ .

## Some Notes

Practical note:

- It generally does not make sense to recurse all the way down to 1 bit. For most processors, 16- or 32-bit multiplication is single operation.
  - GNU Multiple Precision Library uses different algorithms depending on size of operands. (used in Maple, Mathematica, gcc, cryptography, ...)
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Theoretical recap (informal):

- Grad-school add/sub algorithms is optimal since they are **local**
- Grad-school mul algorithm is not optimal since it is not very **local**: divide helps to shrink locality



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## Inner Product

**Inner product.** Given two length  $n$  vectors  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$  and  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, \dots, b_n)$ , compute

$$c = \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i$$

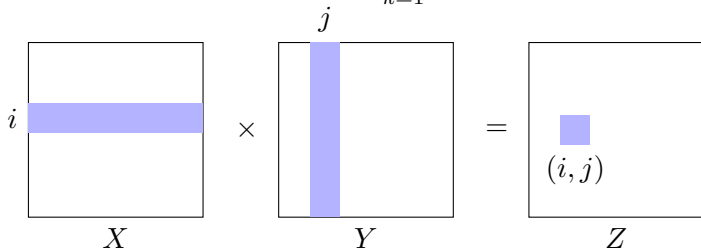
**Grade school.**  $\Theta(n)$  arithmetic operations.

**Remark.** Grade-school dot product algorithm is asymptotically optimal.

## Matrix Multiplication

**Matrix multiplication.** Given two  $n \times n$  matrix  $X$  and  $Y$ , compute

$$Z = XY, Z_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n X_{ik}Y_{kj}$$



**College-school method:**  $\Theta(n^3)$  arithmetic operations

- there are  $n^2$  elements in  $Z$
- computing each element requires  $n$  arithmetic multiplications

*Is college-school matrix multiplication algorithm asymptotically optimal? Can divide-and-conquer strategy do better?*

## Naive Divide-and-Conquer

Strategy. Split matrix into blocks:

$$\begin{pmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} Y_{11} & Y_{12} \\ Y_{21} & Y_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} Z_{11} & Z_{12} \\ Z_{21} & Z_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

in which:

$$\begin{aligned} Z_{11} &= X_{11}Y_{11} + X_{12}Y_{21} & Z_{12} &= X_{11}Y_{12} + X_{12}Y_{22} \\ Z_{21} &= X_{21}Y_{11} + X_{22}Y_{21} & Z_{22} &= X_{21}Y_{12} + X_{22}Y_{22} \end{aligned}$$

Recurrence relation: master theorem (case 1)

$$\left. \begin{aligned} T(n) &= \overbrace{8T(n/2)}^{\text{recursive calls}} + \overbrace{\Theta(n^2)}^{\text{add/form submatrices}} \\ T(1) &= 1 \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^3)$$

## Breakthrough

College algorithm:  $\Theta(n^3)$

Naive divide-and-conquer strategy:  $\Theta(n^3)$  (unimpressive)

For a quite while, this was widely believed to be the best running time possible, it was even proved that *in certain models* no algorithms can do better.

**Great excitement:** This efficiency can be further improved by some clever algebra.

## Strassen Algorithm (1/3)

Volker Strassen first published this algorithm in 1969

- proved that the  $\Theta(n^3)$  general matrix multiplication algorithm wasn't optimal
- faster than the standard matrix multiplication algorithm and is useful in practice for large matrices,
- inspire more research about matrix multiplication that led to faster approaches, e.g. the Coppersmith-Winograd algorithm.



Figure: Volker Strassen

## Strassen Algorithm (2/3)

$$\begin{pmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} Y_{11} & Y_{12} \\ Y_{21} & Y_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} Z_{11} & Z_{12} \\ Z_{21} & Z_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

Define 7 instead matrix:

$$M_1 = X_{11}(Y_{12} - Y_{22})$$

$$M_2 = (X_{11} + X_{12})Y_{22}$$

$$M_3 = (X_{21} + X_{22})Y_{11}$$

$$M_4 = X_{22}(Y_{21} - Y_{11})$$

$$M_5 = (X_{11} + X_{22})(Y_{11} + Y_{22})$$

$$M_6 = (X_{12} - X_{22})(Y_{21} + Y_{22})$$

$$M_7 = (X_{11} - X_{21})(Y_{11} + Y_{12})$$

Express  $Z_{ij}$  via instead matrices

$$Z_{11} = M_5 + M_4 - M_2 + M_6$$

$$Z_{12} = M_1 + M_2$$

$$Z_{21} = M_3 + M_4$$

$$Z_{22} = M_5 + M_1 - M_3 - M_7$$

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$$\begin{aligned} Z_{12} &= M_1 + M_2 = X_{11} \times (Y_{12} - Y_{22}) + (X_{11} + X_{12}) \times Y_{22} \\ &= X_{11} \times Y_{12} + X_{12} \times Y_{22} \end{aligned}$$

## Strassen Algorithm (3/3)

Reduce the number of subproblems from 8 to 7

Recurrence relation for time complexity (18 is number of additions/substraction performed at each application of the algorithm)

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} T(n) = 7T(n/2) + 18n^2 \\ T(1) = 1 \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_2 7}) = \Theta(n^{2.8075})$$



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Q. What if  $n$  is not the power of 2?

A. Could pad matrices with zeros.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 7 & 0 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 10 & 11 & 12 & 0 \\ 13 & 14 & 15 & 0 \\ 16 & 17 & 18 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 84 & 90 & 96 & 0 \\ 201 & 216 & 231 & 0 \\ 318 & 342 & 366 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

## More about Matrix Multiplication

The decomposition is *so tricky and intricate* that one wonders how Strassen was ever able to discover it!



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## Complexity of Matrix Multiplication

- Best upper-bound:  $O(n^{2.376})$  — Coppersmith-Winograd algorithm
- Known lower-bound:  $\Omega(n^2)$

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- Known lower-bound:  $\Omega(n^2)$

### Applications

- scientific computation, image processing, data mining (regression, aggregation, decision tree)

# More about Matrix Multiplication

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同在MIT进行春研的周任飞同学拜访了 Virginia V. Williams，开展矩阵乘法的相关研究。“矩阵乘法与其他理论计算机问题不同，需要‘做实验’才能得出成果。在论文中，我们要构造一个优化问题，并且证明该优化问题的每一个解都是矩阵乘法时间复杂度的上界，”他说。



周任飞与导师 Virginia Williams

周任飞表示，“由于这个优化问题的形式过于复杂，必须用计算机求解。我废寝忘食地工作了一个多月，编写了近 5000 行代码，终于完成了实验。最终，我们将矩阵乘法的时间复杂度从原先的 2.371866 降低到 2.371552，并在长方形矩阵乘法上也显著地提升了前人的算法。我们的文章投稿到算法方向顶级会议之一SODA。”

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We have studied how to multiply

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*How to multiply polynomials?*

Applications of polynomial multiplication

- Fastest polynomial multiplication implies fastest integers multiplication
  - polynomials and binary integers are quite similar — just replace the variable  $x$  by the base 2 and watch out for carries
- Multiplying polynomials is crucial for *signal processing*

## Polynomials: Coefficient Representation

Polynomial. [coefficient representation]

$$A(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

$$B(x) = b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 + \cdots + b_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

## Polynomial Operation

Add.  $\Theta(n)$

$$A(x) + B(x) = (a_0 + b_0) + (a_1 + b_1)x + \cdots + (a_{n-1} + b_{n-1})x^{n-1}$$

## Polynomial Operation

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Evaluate. three choices:

- Naive algorithm. compute each term one by one:  $\Theta(n^2)$
- Caching algorithm. cache  $x^i$ :  $\Theta(n)$
- Horner algorithm.

$$a_0 + (x(a_1 + x(a_2 + \cdots + x(a_{n-2} + x(a_{n-1}))))))): \Theta(n)$$

秦九韶 discovered this algorithm hundreds of years earlier

参考链接: <https://zhuanlan.zhihu.com/p/22166332>

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Multiply (convolve).  $\Theta(n^2)$  using brute force algorithm

$$\begin{aligned} A(x) \times B(x) &= a_0b_0 + (a_0b_1 + a_1b_0)x + \cdots + a_{n-1}b_{n-1}x^{2n-2} \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{2n-2} c_i x^i, \text{ where } c_i = \sum_{j=0}^i a_j b_{i-j} \end{aligned}$$

## Pictorial View of Convolution

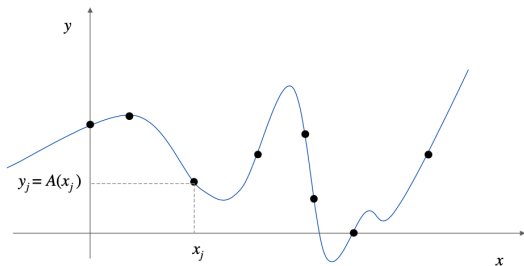
$$(c_0, \dots, c_{2n-2}) = (a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}) \otimes (b_0, \dots, b_{n-1})$$

$a_0 b_0$	$a_0 b_1$	$\dots$	$a_0 b_{n-2}$	$a_0 b_{n-1}$
$a_1 b_0$	$a_1 b_1$	$\dots$	$a_1 b_{n-2}$	$a_1 b_{n-1}$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$		
$a_{n-2} b_0$	$a_{n-2} b_1$	$\dots$	$a_{n-2} b_{n-2}$	$a_{n-2} b_{n-1}$
$a_{n-1} b_0$	$a_{n-1} b_1$	$\dots$	$a_{n-1} b_{n-2}$	$a_{n-1} b_{n-1}$

## Polynomials: Point-Value Representation

**Fundamental theorem of algebra.** [Gauss, PhD thesis] A degree  $n - 1$  polynomial with complex coefficients has exactly  $n$  complex roots.

**Corollary.** A degree  $n - 1$  polynomial  $A(x)$  is uniquely specified by its evaluation at  $n$  distinct values of  $x$ .



## Polynomials: Point-Value Representation

Polynomial. [point-value representation]

$$A(x) : (x_0, y_0), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$$

$$B(x) : (x_0, z_0), \dots, (x_{n-1}, z_{n-1})$$



## Polynomial Operation

Add.  $\Theta(n)$  add operations.

$$A(x) + B(x) : (x_0, y_0 + z_0), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1} + z_{n-1})$$

Multiply (convolve).  $\Theta(n)$ , but need  $2n - 1$  points.

$$A(x) \times B(x) : (x_0, y_0 \times z_0), \dots, (x_{2n-1}, y_{2n-1} \times z_{2n-1})$$

Evaluate.  $\Theta(n^2)$  using Lagrange's formula

$$A(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} y_k \frac{\prod_{j \neq k} (x - x_j)}{\prod_{j \neq k} (x_k - x_j)}$$

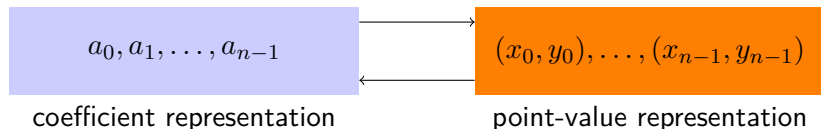
## Conversion Between Two Representations

Trade-off. Fast evaluation or Fast multiplication

representation	multiply	evaluate
coefficient	$\Theta(n^2)$	$\Theta(n)$
point-value	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(n^2)$



Goal. Efficient conversion between two representations  $\Rightarrow$  enjoy the best of two worlds: all operations are fast!



## Conversion Between Two Representations: Evaluation

### Coefficient $\Rightarrow$ Point-value

Given  $A(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}$ , evaluate it at  $n$  distinct points  $x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}$ .

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_0 & x_0^2 & \dots & x_0^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \dots & x_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & \dots & x_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n-1} & x_{n-1}^2 & \dots & x_{n-1}^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Running time.  $\Theta(n^2)$  for matrix-vector multiply (or  $n$  Horner's).

## Conversion Between Two Representations: Interpolation

### Point-value $\Rightarrow$ Coefficient

Given  $n$  distinct points  $x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}$  and values  $(y_0, \dots, y_{n-1})$ , find unique polynomial  $A(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}$ , that has given values at given points.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_0 & x_0^2 & \dots & x_0^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \dots & x_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & \dots & x_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n-1} & x_{n-1}^2 & \dots & x_{n-1}^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Vandermonde matrix is invertible iff  $x_i$ 's are distinct.

Running time.  $\Theta(n^3)$  for Gaussian elimination

## Restate Our Goal

Both known conversions are inefficient

- coefficients  $\Rightarrow$  point-value:  $\Theta(n^2)$
- point-value  $\Rightarrow$  coefficients:  $\Theta(n^3)$

More efficient conversions are needed.

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Given  $n$  coefficients, computing  $n$  point-value tuples quickly.

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**High-level key idea:** consider the matrix as a whole to increase non-locality  $\rightsquigarrow$  reduce complexity



## Divide-and-Conquer for Evaluation

$$A(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + a_4x^4 + a_5x^5 + a_6x^6 + a_7x^7$$

two choices for dividing: frequency vs. time

**Decimation in frequency.** Break polynomial into low and high powers.

$$A_{\text{low}}(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3$$

$$A_{\text{high}}(x) = a_4 + a_5x + a_6x^2 + a_7x^3$$

$$A(x) = A_{\text{low}}(x) + x^4A_{\text{high}}(x).$$

**Decimation in time.** Break polynomial into even and odd powers.

$$A_{\text{even}}(x) = a_0 + a_2x + a_4x^2 + a_6x^3$$

$$A_{\text{odd}}(x) = a_1 + a_3x + a_5x^2 + a_7x^3$$

$$A(x) = A_{\text{even}}(x^2) + xA_{\text{odd}}(x^2)$$

radix-2 decimation-in-time (DIT)

## Clarification

We emphasize that the goal of dividing is not to improve the efficiency of polynomial evaluation at a single point, cause it is already optimal.

The ultimate goal is to improve the efficiency of evaluation of  $n$  points as a whole task.

## First Attempt

**Naive idea.** Randomly pick  $n$  distinct points  $x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}$ , then compute  $A(x)$  via  $A_{\text{even}}(x^2) + xA_{\text{odd}}(x^2)$ .

- $T(n)$ : evaluate degree- $(n - 1)$  polynomial at  $n$  points
- $E(n)$ : evaluate degree- $(n - 1)$  polynomial at 1 point

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- $T(n)$ : evaluate degree- $(n - 1)$  polynomial at  $n$  points
- $E(n)$ : evaluate degree- $(n - 1)$  polynomial at 1 point

**Issue.** Efficiency does not improve

- Evaluating  $A(x)$  of degree- $(n - 1)$  at  $n$  points:  
 $T(n) = n \cdot E(n)$
- Evaluating  $A_{\text{even}}(x)$  and  $A_{\text{odd}}(x)$  both of degree- $(n/2 - 1)$  at  $n$  points:  $2 \times n \cdot E(n/2) = 2n \cdot E(n/2)$

$E(n)$  is a linear function  $\rightsquigarrow$  no efficiency improvement

- The root is that the size of problem does not fully shrink by half.

**Solution.** Reduce the number of evaluated points

## Basic Idea (1/2)

**Basic idea.** Introduce simple structure by choosing the  $n$  points to be positive-negative pairs, that is,

$$\pm x_0, \pm x_1, \dots, \pm x_{n/2-1}$$

Note that the **even powers** of  $x_i$  coincide with those of  $-x_i \Rightarrow$  the computations required for each  $A(x_i)$  and  $A(-x_i)$  overlap a lot.

$$A(x_i) = A_{\text{even}}(x_i^2) + x_i A_{\text{odd}}(x_i^2)$$

$$A(-x_i) = A_{\text{even}}(x_i^2) - x_i A_{\text{odd}}(x_i^2)$$

Now, evaluating degree- $(n - 1)$  polynomial  $A(x)$  at  $n$  paired points  $\pm x_0, \dots, \pm x_{n/2-1} \Rightarrow$  evaluating degree- $(n/2 - 1)$  polynomials  $A_{\text{even}}(x)$  and  $A_{\text{odd}}(x)$  at just  $n/2$  points:  $x_0^2, \dots, x_{n/2-1}^2$ .

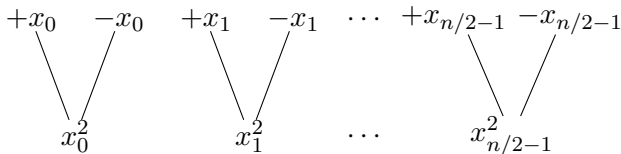
## Basic Idea (2/2)

$$A(x)$$

degree =  $n - 1$

$$A_{\text{even}}(x), A_{\text{odd}}(x)$$

degree =  $n/2 - 1$



Now, the original problem of size  $n$  is in this way recast as two subproblems of size  $n/2$  followed by some linear-time arithmetic.

$T(n)$ : evaluate a degree  $(n - 1)$  polynomial at  $n$  points

- If we could recurse, we would get a divide-and-conquer procedure with running time:

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n)$$

which is  $\Theta(n \log n)$ , exactly what we want.

## Technical Hurdle

**Technical hurdle.** The plus-minus trick only works at the top level of the recursion.

- To recurse at the next level, we need the  $n/2$  evaluation points  $x_0^2, x_1^2, \dots, x_{n/2-1}^2$  *themselves* to be plus-minus pairs.

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*But how can a square be negative?*

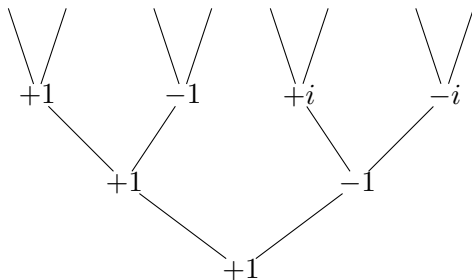


Unless, of course, we use complex numbers.

## Which Complex Numbers?

Fine, but which complex numbers? Let us figure out by “reverse engineer” the process.

- At the bottom of the recursion, we have a single point, say, 1.
- In the level above it must consist of its square roots,  $\pm 1$ .
- The next level up is  $(+1, -1)$  and  $(+i, -i)$ , until we reach  $n = 2^k$  leaf nodes.



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**Proof.**  $(\omega^k)^n = (e^{2\pi i k/n})^n = (e^{\pi i})^{2k} = (-1)^{2k} = 1$

$$e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$$

---

If  $n$  is even, the  $n$ th roots are plus-minus paired,  $\omega^{n/2+j} = -\omega^j$

- Squaring them produces the  $(n/2)$ -th roots of unity:

$$v^0, v^1, \dots, v^{n/2-1}, \text{ where } v = \omega^2 = e^{4\pi i/n}.$$

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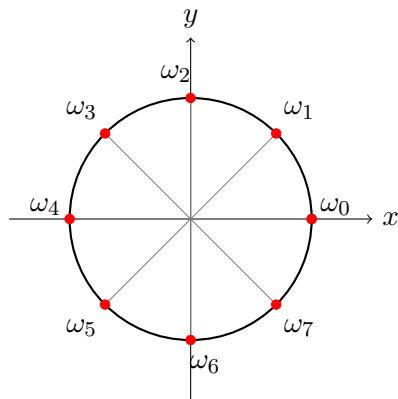
- Squaring them produces the  $(n/2)$ -th roots of unity:

$$v^0, v^1, \dots, v^{n/2-1}, \text{ where } v = \omega^2 = e^{4\pi i/n}.$$

If we start with  $\omega^0, \omega^1, \omega^2, \dots, \omega^{n-1}$  for some  $n = 2^k$ , then at  $k$ -level of recursion we will have the  $(n/2^k)$ -th roots of unity.

- All these sets of roots are plus-minus paired  $\Rightarrow$   
Divide-and-conquer algorithm will work perfectly

## Demo of $n = 8$



$$\omega_0 = 1$$

$$\omega_1 = e^{\frac{\pi}{4}i} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \cdot i$$

$$\omega_2 = e^{\frac{\pi}{2}i} = i$$

$$\omega_3 = e^{\frac{3\pi}{4}i} = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \cdot i$$

$$\omega_4 = e^{\pi i} = -1$$

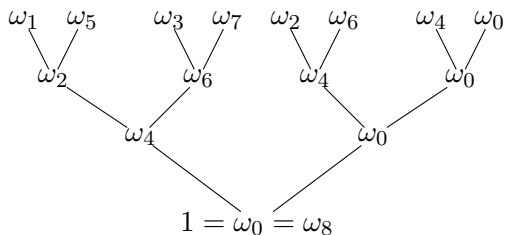
$$\omega_5 = e^{\frac{5\pi}{4}i} = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \cdot i$$

$$\omega_6 = e^{\frac{3\pi}{2}i} = -i$$

$$\omega_7 = e^{\frac{7\pi}{4}i} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \cdot i$$



## Recursion Structure and FFT



DFT: Fourier Matrix  $M_n(\omega)$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \omega_0 & \omega_0^1 & \dots & \omega_0^{n-1} \\ 1 & \omega_1 & \omega_1^2 & \dots & \omega_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & \omega_2 & \omega_2^2 & \dots & \omega_2^{n-1} \\ 1 & \omega_3 & \omega_3^2 & \dots & \omega_3^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \omega_{n-1} & \omega_{n-1}^2 & \dots & \omega_{n-1}^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

## Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)

**Refined Goal.** Evaluate  $A(x) = a_0 + \cdots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}$  at its  $n$ th root of unity:  $\omega^0, \omega^1, \dots, \omega^{n-1}$

**Divide.** Break up polynomial into even and odd powers:

$$A_{\text{even}}(x) = a_0 + a_2x + a_4x^2 + \cdots + a_{n-2}x^{n/2-1}$$

$$A_{\text{odd}}(x) = a_1 + a_3x + a_5x^2 + \cdots + a_{n-1}x^{n/2-1}$$

$$A(x) = A_{\text{even}}(x^2) + xA_{\text{odd}}(x^2)$$

**Conquer.** Evaluate  $A_{\text{even}}(x)$  and  $A_{\text{odd}}(x)$  at the  $n/2$ th roots of unity:  $v^0, v^1, \dots, v^{n/2-1}$

**Combine.**

$$v^k = (\omega^k)^2$$

$$A(\omega^k) = A_{\text{even}}(v^k) + \omega^k A_{\text{odd}}(v^k), 1 \leq k < n/2$$

$$A(\omega^{k+n/2}) = A_{\text{even}}(v^k) - \omega^k A_{\text{odd}}(v^k), 1 \leq k < n/2$$

$$v^k = (\omega^{k+n/2})^2$$

$$(\omega^{k+n/2}) = -\omega^k$$

## Pseudocode of FFT Algorithm

---

### Algorithm 4: FFT( $A, n, \omega$ )

---

**Input:** coefficient representation of degree  $n - 1$  polynomial  $A$ , principal  $n$ -th root of unity  $\omega = e^{2\pi i/n}$

**Output:** value representation  $A(\omega^0), \dots, A(\omega^{n-1})$

- 1: **if**  $n = 1$  **then return**  $a_0$ ;
  - 2: express  $A(x) = A_{\text{even}}(x^2) + xA_{\text{odd}}(x^2)$ ;
  - 3: FFT( $A_{\text{even}}, \frac{n}{2}, \omega^2$ )  $\rightarrow$  ( $A_{\text{even}}((\omega^2)^0), \dots, A_{\text{even}}((\omega^2)^{n/2-1})$ );
  - 4: FFT( $A_{\text{odd}}, \frac{n}{2}, \omega^2$ )  $\rightarrow$  ( $A_{\text{odd}}((\omega^2)^0), \dots, A_{\text{odd}}((\omega^2)^{n/2-1})$ );
  - 5: **for**  $j = 0$  **to**  $n - 1$  **do**
  - 6:      $A(\omega^j) = A_{\text{even}}(\omega^{2j}) + \omega^j A_{\text{odd}}(\omega^{2j})$  //  $\Theta(n)$ ;
  - 7: **end**
  - 8: **return**  $A(\omega^0), \dots, A(\omega^{n-1})$ ;
-

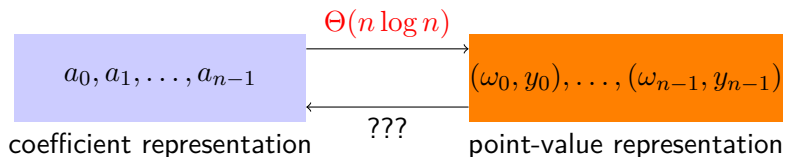
## FFT Summary

**Theorem.** Assume  $n = 2^k$ . FFT algorithm evaluates a degree  $n - 1$  polynomial at each of the  $n$ -th roots of unity in  $\Theta(n \log n)$  steps.

### Running time

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n \log n)$$

**Essence:** choose  $n$  points with special structure to accelerate DFT computation.



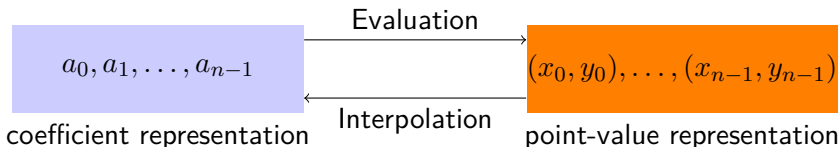
## Recap

We first developed a high-level method for multiplying polynomials  
coefficient representation  $\Rightarrow$  point-value representation

Point-value representation makes it trivial to multiply polynomials, but the input-output form of algorithm is specified as coefficient representation.

- So we designed FFT: coefficient  $\Rightarrow$  point-value in time just  $\Theta(n \log n)$ , where the points  $\{x_i\}_n$  are complex  $n$ -th roots of unity  $(1, \omega, \omega^2, \dots, \omega^{n-1})$ .

$$\langle \text{values} \rangle = \text{FFT}(\langle \text{coefficients} \rangle, \omega)$$



## Interpolation

The last remaining piece of the puzzle is the inverse operation — interpolation. It turns out amazingly that:

$$\langle \text{coefficients} \rangle = \frac{1}{n} \text{FFT}(\langle \text{values} \rangle, \omega^{-1})$$

Interpolation is thus solved in the most simple and elegant way, using the same FFT algorithm, but called with  $\omega^{-1}$  in place of  $\omega$ !

This might seem like a miraculous coincidence, but it will make a lot more sense when recasting polynomial operations in the language of linear algebra.

## Inverse Discrete Fourier Transform

Point-value  $\Rightarrow$  Coefficient

Given  $n$  distinct points  $x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}$  and values  $y_0, \dots, y_{n-1}$ , find unique polynomial  $A(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}$ , that has given values at given points.

Inverse DFT: Fourier Matrix inverse  $F_n(\omega)^{-1}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \omega_0 & \omega_0^2 & \dots & \omega_0^{n-1} \\ 1 & \omega_1 & \omega_1^2 & \dots & \omega_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & \omega_2 & \omega_2^2 & \dots & \omega_2^{n-1} \\ 1 & \omega_3 & \omega_3^2 & \dots & \omega_3^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \omega_{n-1} & \omega_{n-1}^2 & \dots & \omega_{n-1}^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$F_n(\omega) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega^1 & \omega^2 & \dots & \omega^{n-1} \\ 1 & \omega^2 & \omega^4 & \dots & \omega^{2(n-1)} \\ 1 & \omega^3 & \omega^6 & \dots & \omega^{3(n-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \omega^{n-1} & \omega^{2(n-1)} & \dots & \omega^{(n-1)(n-1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$F_n(\omega^{-1}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega^{-1} & \omega^{-2} & \dots & \omega^{-(n-1)} \\ 1 & \omega^{-2} & \omega^{-4} & \dots & \omega^{-2(n-1)} \\ 1 & \omega^{-3} & \omega^{-6} & \dots & \omega^{-3(n-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \omega^{-(n-1)} & \omega^{-2(n-1)} & \dots & \omega^{-(n-1)(n-1)} \end{bmatrix}$$



## Key Fact

$$G_n = \frac{1}{n} F_n(\omega^{-1}) = F_n(\omega)^{-1}$$

**Claim.**  $F_n$  and  $G_n$  are inverses

**Proof.** Examine  $F_n G_n$

$$(F_n G_n)_{kk'} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \omega^{kj} \omega^{-jk'} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \omega^{(k-k')j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = k' \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

**Summation lemma.** Let  $\omega$  be the principal  $n$ -th root of unity. Then

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \omega^{kj} = \begin{cases} n & \text{if } k = 0 \pmod n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- If  $k$  is the multiple of  $n$  then  $\omega^k = 1 \Rightarrow$  series sums to  $n$
- Each  $\omega^k$  is a root of  $x^n - 1$   
 $x^n - 1 = (x - 1)(1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^{n-1}) \Rightarrow$  if  $\omega^k \neq 1$  we have:  $1 + \omega^k + \omega^{k(2)} + \dots + \omega^{k(n-1)} = 0 \Rightarrow$  series sums to  $0$

## Consequence

To compute inverse FFT, apply same algorithm but use

- $\omega^{-1} = e^{-2\pi i/n}$  as principal  $n$ -th root of unity (and divide the result by  $n$ ).
- switch the role of  $\langle a_0, \dots, a_{n-1} \rangle$  and  $\langle y_0, \dots, y_{n-1} \rangle$

## Interpolation Resolved

$$\langle \text{values} \rangle = \text{FFT}(\langle \text{coefficients} \rangle, \omega)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A(\omega_0) \\ A(\omega_1) \\ A(\omega_2) \\ \vdots \\ A(\omega_{n-1}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \omega_0 & \omega_0^2 & \dots & \omega_0^{n-1} \\ 1 & \omega_1 & \omega_1^2 & \dots & \omega_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & \omega_2 & \omega_2^2 & \dots & \omega_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \omega_{n-1} & \omega_{n-1}^2 & \dots & \omega_{n-1}^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

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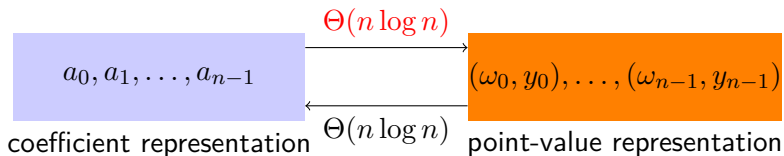
$$\langle \text{coefficients} \rangle = \frac{1}{n} \text{FFT}(\langle \text{values} \rangle, \omega^{-1})$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{n} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & (\omega_0^{-1})^1 & (\omega_0^{-1})^2 & \dots & (\omega_0^{-1})^{n-1} \\ 1 & (\omega_1^{-1})^1 & (\omega_1^{-1})^2 & \dots & (\omega_1^{-1})^{n-1} \\ 1 & (\omega_2^{-1})^1 & (\omega_2^{-1})^2 & \dots & (\omega_2^{-1})^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & (\omega_{n-1}^{-1})^1 & (\omega_{n-1}^{-1})^2 & \dots & (\omega_{n-1}^{-1})^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A(\omega_0) \\ A(\omega_1) \\ A(\omega_2) \\ \vdots \\ A(\omega_{n-1}) \end{bmatrix}$$

## Inverse FFT Summary

**Theorem.** Assume  $n = 2^k$ . Inverse FFT algorithm interpolated a degree  $n - 1$  polynomial given values at each of the  $n$ -th roots of unity in  $\Theta(n \log n)$  steps.

**Running time.** Almost the same algorithm as FFT.



## Polynomial Multiplication

**Theorem.** Two degree  $(n - 1)$ -polynomials can be multiplied in  $\Theta(n \log n)$  steps. (pad with 0s to make  $n$  a power of 2)

coefficient representation

$a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}$   
 $b_0, b_1, \dots, b_{n-1}$

2 FFTs  $\Theta(n \log n)$

$A(\omega_0), \dots, A(\omega_{2n-1})$   
 $B(\omega_0), \dots, B(\omega_{2n-1})$

point-value  
multiplication  
 $\Theta(n)$

coefficient representation

$c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{2n-2}, c_{2n-1} = 0$

1 inverse FFT  $\Theta(n \log n)$

$C(\omega_0), \dots, C(\omega_{2n-1})$

Actually,  $2n - 1$  point-value tuples are sufficient.  
But, FFT requires the input size to be  $2^k$ , so is the output size

## Remarks

**Standard FFT.** Evaluating degree  $(n - 1)$ - $A(x)$  at its  $n$ -th root of unity  $\omega^0, \omega^1, \dots, \omega^{n-1}$  by evaluating degree  $n/2 - 1$  polynomials  $A_{\text{even}}(x)$  and  $A_{\text{odd}}(x)$  at their  $n/2$ -th root of unity.

We choose the degree of polynomial as input size, since it determines the depth of recursion call.

---

Standard FFT can be easily extended to evaluating degree  $(n - 1)$  polynomial  $A(x)$  at its  $2n$ -th root of unity  $\omega^0, \omega^1, \dots, \omega^{2n-1}$  by evaluating degree  $(n/2 - 1)$  polynomials  $A_{\text{even}}(x)$  and  $A_{\text{odd}}(x)$  at their  $n$ -th root of unity.

We still choose the degree of polynomial as input size, the recurrence relation is similar,

$$f(n) : \Theta(n) \rightsquigarrow \Theta(2n)$$

The overall complexity does not change in asymptotic sense.

## Extension of FFT

FFT works in the field of complex numbers  $\mathbb{C}$ , the roots might be complex numbers  $\leadsto$  precision loss is inevitable

Sometimes we only need to work in a finite field, e.g.  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{Z}/p$ , the integers modulo a prime  $p$ .

- Primitive  $n$ -th roots of unity exist whenever  $n$  divides  $p - 1$ , so we have  $p = \xi n + 1$  for a positive integer  $\xi$ .
- Specially, let  $\omega$  be a primitive  $(p - 1)$ -th root of unity, then an  $n$ -th root of unity —  $\alpha$  can be found by letting  $\alpha = \omega^\xi$

Extension  $\Rightarrow$  **Number-Theoretic Transform (NTT)**: obtained by specializing the discrete Fourier transform to  $\mathbb{F}$ .

- no precision loss & much faster
- used extensively in the implementation of SNARK, e.g. `libsnark`

### libqfft

C++ library for FFTs in Finite Fields

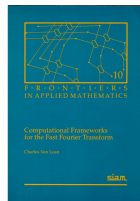
*libqfft* is a C++ library for Fast Fourier Transforms (FFTs) in finite fields with multithreading support (via OpenMP). The library is developed by SCIPR Lab and contributors (see [AUTHORS](#) file) and is released under the MIT License (see [LICENSE](#) file). The library provides functionality for fast multipoint polynomial evaluation, fast polynomial interpolation, and fast computation of Lagrange polynomials. Check out the [Performance](#) section for memory, runtime, and field operation profiling data.

## Applications of FFT

- Optics, acoustics, quantum physics, telecommunications, radar, control systems, signal processing, speech recognition, data compression, image processing, seismology, mass spectrometry...
- Digital media. [DVD, JPEG, MP3, H.264]
- Medical diagnostics. [MRI, CT, PET scans, ultrasound]
- Numerical solutions to Poisson's equation.
- Shor's quantum factoring algorithm.

*“The FFT is one of the truly great computational developments of [the 20th] century. It has changed the face of science and engineering so much that it is not an exaggeration to say that life as we know it would be very different without the FFT.”*

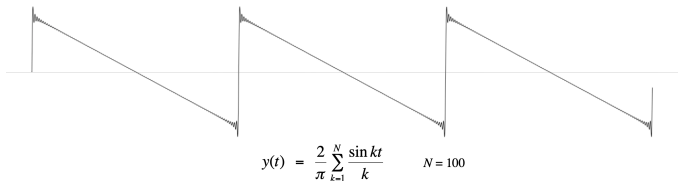
— Charles van Loan





## Fourier Analysis

**Fourier theorem.** [Fourier, Dirichlet, Riemann] Any (sufficiently smooth) periodic function can be expressed as the sum of a series of sinusoids.



**Euler's identity.**

$$e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x.$$

**Sinusoids.** Sum of sine and cosines = sum of complex exponentials.

# Fourier Transform

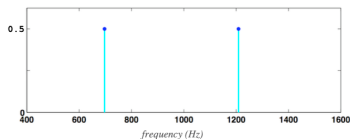
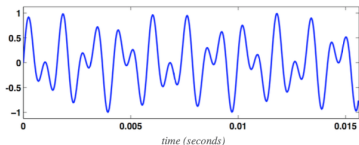


Figure: time domain vs. frequency domain

## FFT.

Fast way to convert between time-domain and frequency-domain

## Alternate viewpoint.

Fast way to multiply and evaluate polynomials

## FFT: Brief History

**Gauss.** Analyzed periodic motion of asteroid Ceres (in Latin)

**Runge-König (1924).** Laid theoretical groundwork.

**Danielson-Lanczos (1942).** Efficient algorithm, x-ray crystallography.

**Cooley-Tukey (1965).** Monitoring nuclear tests in Soviet Union and tracking submarines. Rediscovered and popularized FFT.

### An Algorithm for the Machine Calculation of Complex Fourier Series

By James W. Cooley and John W. Tukey

An efficient method for the calculation of the interactions of a  $2^n$  factorial experiment was introduced by Yates and is widely known by his name. The generalization to  $3^n$  was given by Box et al. [1]. Good [2] generalised these methods and gave elegant algorithms for which one class of applications is the calculation of Fourier series. In their full generality, Good's methods are applicable to certain problems in which one must multiply an  $N$ -vector by an  $N \times N$  matrix which can be factored into  $m$  sparse matrices, where  $m$  is proportional to  $\log N$ . This results in a procedure requiring a number of operations proportional to  $N \log N$  rather than  $N^2$ .

paper published only after IBM lawyers decided not to set precedent of patenting numerical algorithms  
(conventional wisdom: nobody could make money selling software!)

**Importance** not fully realized until advent of digital computers.

## FFT in Practice

Fastest Fourier transform in the West. [Frigo and Johnson]

- Optimized C library.
- Features: DFT, DCT, real, complex, any size, any dimension.
- Won Wilkinson Prize '99.

Implementation details.

- Instead of executing predetermined algorithm, it evaluates your hardware and uses a special-purpose compiler to generate an optimized algorithm catered to “shape” of the problem.
- Core algorithm is nonrecursive version of Cooley-Tukey.
- $\Theta(n \log n)$ , even for prime sizes.

The logo for FFTW consists of the letters 'FFT' in a bold, black, sans-serif font, followed by a large, stylized 'W' in a bright red color. The 'W' is drawn with thick, rounded strokes, giving it a hand-drawn or brush-painted appearance. The entire logo is set against a light gray background.

## Integer Multiplication, Redux

**Integer multiplication.** Given two  $n$  bit integers  $a = a_{n-1} \dots a_1 a_0$  and  $b = b_{n-1} \dots b_1 b_0$ , compute their product  $ab$ .

- 1 Form two polynomials (base-2 representation  $\Rightarrow a = A(2)$ ,  $b = B(2)$ )

$$A(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

$$B(x) = b_0 + b_1x + \dots + b_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

- 2 Compute  $C(x) = A(x)B(x)$  via FFT, evaluate  $C(2) = ab$

**Running time:**  $\Theta(n \log n)$  complex **arithmetic** operations.

**Practice.** GMP uses brute force, Karatsuba, and FFT, depending on the size of  $n$ .



**Figure:** the fastest bignum library on the planet

## Summary of This Lecture (1/3)

Concept of Divide-and-Conquer

**Main Idea.** Reduce problems to subproblems

**Principle.** Subproblems should be of the same type of the original problem, and can be solved individually.

- Direct dividing: splitting original problem into subproblems with roughly same size
  - FindMinMax, Merge Sort
- Sophisticated dividing
  - General selection: using median of median as pivot (finding the pivot itself requires effort)
  - Closest pair of points: analysis of the strip around the midline
  - Convex hull: sometime it is hard to split in a balance manner (convex hull)

## Summary of This Lecture (2/3)

**Implementation.** Recursion or iteration (be careful of the smallest subproblem which can be solved outright)

### Time complexity

- Finding the recurrence relation and initial values, solving the recurrence relation

Recurrence relation of divide-and-conquer algorithm

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$$

- $a$ : #(subproblems),  $n/b$ : size of subproblems
- $f(n)$ : cost of dividing and combining

## Summary of This Lecture (3/3)

**Optimization trick 1.** Reduce the number of subproblems: when  $f(n)$  is not very large,  $h(n) = n^{\log_b a}$  dominates the overall complexity  $\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(h(n))$

- Reduce  $a$  can immediately lowering the order of  $T(n)$
- When subproblems are related  $\rightsquigarrow$  exploit relations to solve some subproblems by combining the solutions to other subproblems

### Examples

- power algorithm: subproblems are same
  - simple algebraic trick: integer multiplication ( $f(n)$  is still low)
  - exploit dependence: matrix multiplication ( $f(n)$  may increase but does not affect the order)
- 

**Optimization trick 2.** Reduce the cost of dividing and combining  $f(n)$ : add global preprocessing

- closest pair of points



## Important Divide-and-Conquer Algorithms

Searching algorithm: binary search

Sorting algorithm: quick sort, merge sort

Selection algorithm: find min/max, general selection algorithm

Closest pair of points, Convex hull

---

Fast Power algorithm

Multiplying matrices: Strassen algorithm

Multiplying integers, polynomials: FFT

## 从前慢

随着算法不断拨快生活的节奏，内心越希望可以偶尔慢下来，松下烹茶、雨夜听琴，享受一份从容安宁。

——我的心声

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——我的心声



Figure: 木心

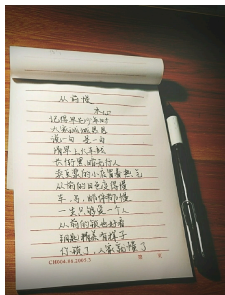


Figure: 云雀叫了一整天

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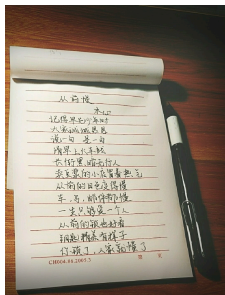


Figure: 云雀叫了一整天

从前慢，慢的不仅是车、马与邮件，还有在等待中默默酝酿的心。一封薄薄的信，装着一份炽热的情，翻过山淌过水送至一生唯一的爱人手中，信上的折痕都是那么饱含爱意...

——网易云音乐评论