

CSE 548: Analysis of Algorithms

Lecture 4

(Divide-and-Conquer Algorithms: Polynomial Multiplication)

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Coefficient Representation of Polynomials

$$\begin{aligned} A(x) &= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_j x^j \\ &= a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \cdots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

$A(x)$ is a polynomial of degree bound n represented as a vector $a = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$ of coefficients.

The *degree* of $A(x)$ is k provided it is the largest integer such that a_k is nonzero. Clearly, $0 \leq k \leq n - 1$.

Evaluating $A(x)$ at a given point:

Takes $\Theta(n)$ time using Horner's rule:

$$\begin{aligned} A(x_0) &= a_0 + a_1 x_0 + a_2 (x_0)^2 + \cdots + a_{n-1} (x_0)^{n-1} \\ &= a_0 + x_0 \left(a_1 + x_0 \left(a_2 + \cdots + x_0 \left(a_{n-2} + x_0 (a_{n-1}) \right) \cdots \right) \right) \end{aligned}$$

Coefficient Representation of Polynomials

Adding Two Polynomials:

Adding two polynomials of degree bound n takes $\Theta(n)$ time.

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

where, $A(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_j x^j$ and $B(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} b_j x^j$.

Then $C(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} c_j x^j$, where, $c_j = a_j + b_j$ for $0 \leq j \leq n - 1$.

Coefficient Representation of Polynomials

Multiplying Two Polynomials:

The product of two polynomials of degree bound n is another polynomial of degree bound $2n - 1$.

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

$$\text{where, } A(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_j x^j \text{ and } B(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} b_j x^j .$$

$$\text{Then } C(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{2n-2} c_j x^j \text{ where, } c_j = \sum_{k=0}^j a_k b_{j-k} \text{ for } 0 \leq j \leq 2n - 2 .$$

The coefficient vector $c = (c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{2n-2})$, denoted by $c = a \otimes b$, is also called the *convolution* of vectors $a = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$ and $b = (b_0, b_1, \dots, b_{n-1})$.

Clearly, straightforward evaluation of c takes $\Theta(n^2)$ time.

Convolution

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc} & & & & & & & a_0 & + & a_1x & + & a_2x^2 & + & a_3x^3 \\ & & & & & & & \boxed{a_0} & & \boxed{a_1x} & & \boxed{a_2x^2} & & \boxed{a_3x^3} \\ & & & & & & & + & & + & & + & & + \\ \boxed{b_3x^3} & + & \boxed{b_2x^2} & + & \boxed{b_1x} & + & \boxed{b_0} & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & a_0b_0 & & & & & & & \end{array}$$

Convolution

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc} & & & & & & a_0 & + & a_1x & + & a_2x^2 & + & a_3x^3 \\ & & & & & & | & & | & & | & & | \\ b_3x^3 & + & b_2x^2 & + & b_1x & + & b_0 & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & | & & | & & | & & | \\ & & & & & & a_0b_1x & + & a_1b_0x & & & & \end{array}$$

Convolution

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & & a_0 & + & a_1x & + & a_2x^2 & + & a_3x^3 \\ & & \boxed{a_0} & + & \boxed{a_1x} & + & \boxed{a_2x^2} & + & \boxed{a_3x^3} \\ b_3x^3 & + & \boxed{b_2x^2} & + & \boxed{b_1x} & + & \boxed{b_0} & & \\ & & \boxed{a_0b_2x^2} & + & \boxed{a_1b_1x^2} & + & \boxed{a_2b_0x^2} & & \end{array}$$

Convolution

$$\begin{array}{cccc} a_0 & + & a_1x & + & a_2x^2 & + & a_3x^3 \\ b_3x^3 & + & b_2x^2 & + & b_1x & + & b_0 \\ a_0b_3x^3 & + & a_1b_2x^3 & + & a_2b_1x^3 & + & a_3b_0x^3 \end{array}$$

Convolution

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} a_0 & + & a_1x & + & a_2x^2 & + & a_3x^3 \\ & & & & b_3x^3 & + & b_2x^2 & + & b_1x & + & b_0 \\ & & & & a_2b_3x^5 & + & a_3b_2x^5 & & & & \end{array}$$

Coefficient Representation of Polynomials

Multiplying Two Polynomials:

We can use Karatsuba's algorithm (assume n to be a power of 2):

$$A(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_j x^j = \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{n}{2}-1} a_j x^j + x^{\frac{n}{2}} \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{n}{2}-1} a_{\frac{n}{2}+j} x^j = A_1(x) + x^{\frac{n}{2}} A_2(x)$$
$$B(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} b_j x^j = \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{n}{2}-1} b_j x^j + x^{\frac{n}{2}} \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{n}{2}-1} b_{\frac{n}{2}+j} x^j = B_1(x) + x^{\frac{n}{2}} B_2(x)$$

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

$$= A_1(x)B_1(x) + x^{\frac{n}{2}} [A_1(x)B_2(x) + A_2(x)B_1(x)] + x^n A_2(x)B_2(x)$$

But $A_1(x)B_2(x) + A_2(x)B_1(x)$

$$= [A_1(x) + A_2(x)][B_1(x) + B_2(x)] - A_1(x)B_1(x) - A_2(x)B_2(x)$$

3 recursive multiplications of polynomials of degree bound $\frac{n}{2}$.

Similar recurrence as in Karatsuba's integer multiplication algorithm leading to a complexity of $O(n^{\log_2 3}) = O(n^{1.59})$.

Point-Value Representation of Polynomials

A point-value representation of a polynomial $A(x)$ is a set of n point-value pairs $\{(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})\}$ such that all x_k are distinct and $y_k = A(x_k)$ for $0 \leq k \leq n - 1$.

A polynomial has many point-value representations.

Adding Two Polynomials:

Suppose we have point-value representations of two polynomials of degree bound n using the same set of n points.

$$A: \{(x_0, y_0^a), (x_1, y_1^a), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1}^a)\}$$

$$B: \{(x_0, y_0^b), (x_1, y_1^b), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1}^b)\}$$

If $C(x) = A(x) + B(x)$ then

$$C: \{(x_0, y_0^a + y_0^b), (x_1, y_1^a + y_1^b), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1}^a + y_{n-1}^b)\}$$

Thus polynomial addition takes $\Theta(n)$ time.

Point-Value Representation of Polynomials

Multiplying Two Polynomials:

Suppose we have *extended* (why?) point-value representations of two polynomials of degree bound n using the same set of $2n$ points.

$$A: \{(x_0, y_0^a), (x_1, y_1^a), \dots, (x_{2n-1}, y_{2n-1}^a)\}$$

$$B: \{(x_0, y_0^b), (x_1, y_1^b), \dots, (x_{2n-1}, y_{2n-1}^b)\}$$

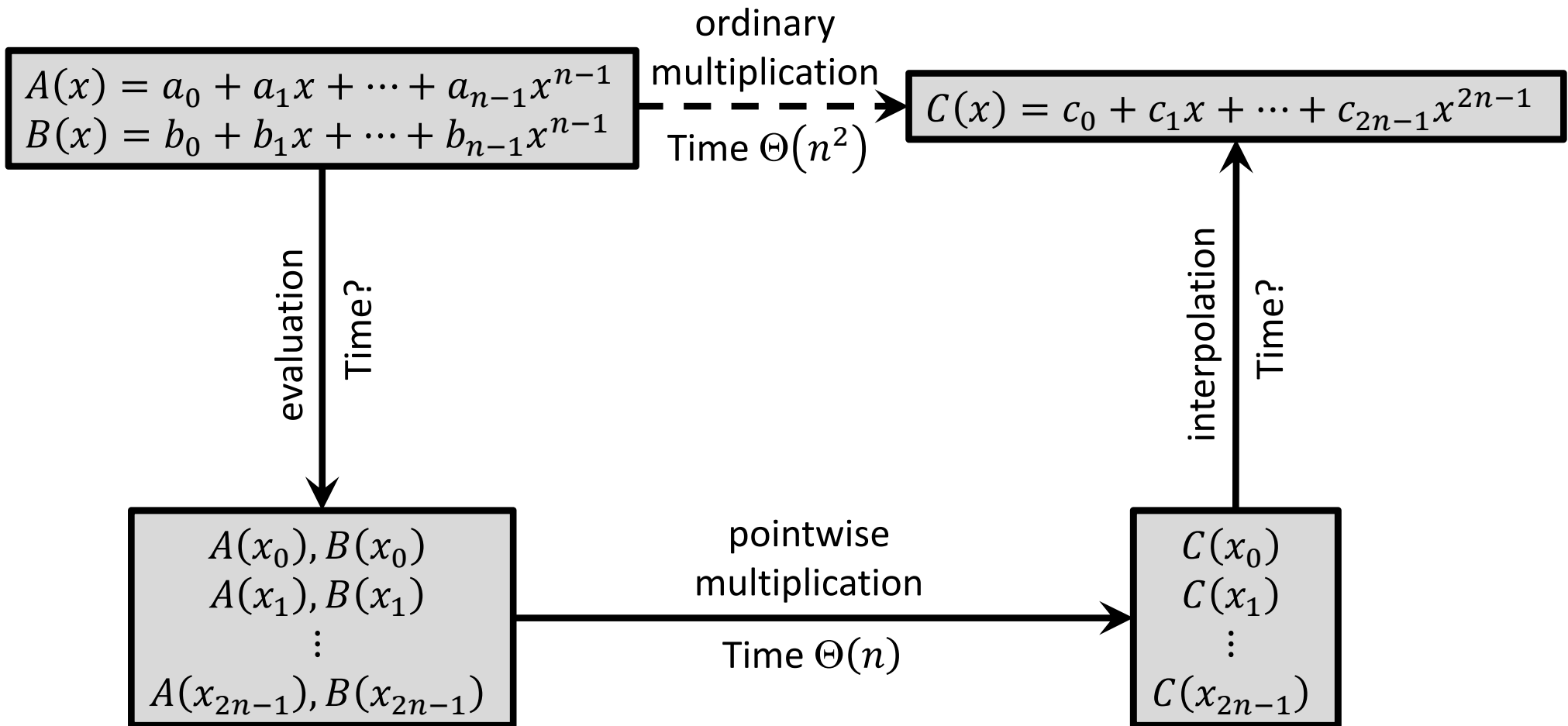
If $C(x) = A(x)B(x)$ then

$$C: \{(x_0, y_0^a y_0^b), (x_1, y_1^a y_1^b), \dots, (x_{2n-1}, y_{2n-1}^a y_{2n-1}^b)\}$$

Thus polynomial multiplication also takes only $\Theta(n)$ time!

(compare this with the $\Theta(n^2)$ time needed in the coefficient form)

Faster Polynomial Multiplication? (in Coefficient Form)



Faster Polynomial Multiplication? (in Coefficient Form)

Coefficient Representation \Rightarrow Point-Value Representation:

We select any set of n distinct points $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}\}$, and evaluate $A(x_k)$ for $0 \leq k \leq n - 1$.

Using Horner's rule this approach takes $\Theta(n^2)$ time.

Point-Value Representation \Rightarrow Coefficient Representation:

We can interpolate using Lagrange's formula:

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

This again takes $\Theta(n^2)$ time.

In both cases we need to do much better!

Coefficient Form \Rightarrow Point-Value Form

A polynomial of degree bound n : $A(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}$

A set of n distinct points: $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}\}$

Compute point-value form: $\{(x_0, A(x_0)), (x_1, A(x_1)), \dots, (x_{n-1}, A(x_{n-1}))\}$

Using matrix notation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A(x_0) \\ A(x_1) \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ A(x_{n-1}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_0 & (x_0)^2 & \dots & (x_0)^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_1 & (x_1)^2 & \dots & (x_1)^{n-1} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ 1 & x_{n-1} & (x_{n-1})^2 & \dots & (x_{n-1})^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

We want to choose the set of points in a way that simplifies the multiplication.

In the rest of the lecture on this topic we will assume:

n is a power of 2.

Coefficient Form \Rightarrow Point-Value Form

Let's choose $x_{n/2+j} = -x_j$ for $0 \leq j \leq n/2 - 1$. Then

$$\begin{bmatrix} A(x_0) \\ A(x_1) \\ \cdot \\ A(x_{n/2-1}) \\ \hline A(x_{n/2+0}) \\ A(x_{n/2+1}) \\ \cdot \\ A(x_{n/2+(n/2-1)}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_0 & (x_0)^2 & \cdots & (x_0)^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_1 & (x_1)^2 & \cdots & (x_1)^{n-1} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\ 1 & x_{n/2-1} & (x_{n/2-1})^2 & \cdots & (x_{n/2-1})^{n-1} \\ \hline 1 & -x_0 & (-x_0)^2 & \cdots & (-x_0)^{n-1} \\ 1 & -x_1 & (-x_1)^2 & \cdots & (-x_1)^{n-1} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\ 1 & -x_{n/2-1} & (-x_{n/2-1})^2 & \cdots & (-x_{n/2-1})^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Observe that for $0 \leq j \leq n/2 - 1$: $(x_{n/2+j})^k = \begin{cases} (x_j)^k, & \text{if } k = \text{even}, \\ -(x_j)^k, & \text{if } k = \text{odd}. \end{cases}$

Thus we have just split the original $n \times n$ matrix into two almost similar $\frac{n}{2} \times n$ matrices!

Coefficient Form \Rightarrow Point-Value Form

How and how much do we save?

$$\begin{aligned} A(x) &= \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} a_l x^l = \sum_{l=0}^{n/2-1} a_{2l} x^{2l} + \sum_{l=0}^{n/2-1} a_{2l+1} x^{2l+1} \\ &= \sum_{l=0}^{n/2-1} a_{2l} (x^2)^l + x \sum_{l=0}^{n/2-1} a_{2l+1} (x^2)^l = A_{\text{even}}(x^2) + x A_{\text{odd}}(x^2), \end{aligned}$$

where, $A_{\text{even}}(x) = \sum_{l=0}^{n/2-1} a_{2l} x^l$ and $A_{\text{odd}}(x) = \sum_{l=0}^{n/2-1} a_{2l+1} x^l$.

Observe that for $0 \leq j \leq n/2 - 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} A(x_j) &= A_{\text{even}}(x_j^2) + x_j A_{\text{odd}}(x_j^2) \\ A(x_{n/2+j}) &= A(-x_j) = A_{\text{even}}(x_j^2) - x_j A_{\text{odd}}(x_j^2) \end{aligned}$$

So in order to evaluate $A(x_j)$ for all $0 \leq j \leq n - 1$, we need:

$n/2$ evaluations of A_{even} and $n/2$ evaluations of A_{odd}

n multiplications

$n/2$ additions and $n/2$ subtractions

Thus we save about half the computation!

Coefficient Form \Rightarrow Point-Value Form

If we can recursively evaluate A_{even} and A_{odd} using the same approach, we get the following recurrence relation for the running time of the algorithm:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1), & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \Theta(n), & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
$$= \Theta(n \log n)$$

Our trick was to evaluate A at x (positive) and $-x$ (negative).

But inputs to A_{even} and A_{odd} are always of the form x^2 (positive)!

How can we apply the same trick?

Coefficient Form \Rightarrow Point-Value Form

Let us consider the evaluation of $A_{even}(x_j)$ for $0 \leq j \leq n/2 - 1$:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{even}(x_0) \\ A_{even}(x_1) \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ A_{even}(x_{n/2-1}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & (x_0)^2 & (x_0)^4 & \cdots & (x_0)^{n-2} \\ 1 & (x_1)^2 & (x_1)^4 & \cdots & (x_1)^{n-2} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\ 1 & (x_{n/2-1})^2 & (x_{n/2-1})^4 & \cdots & (x_{n/2-1})^{n-2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_2 \\ a_4 \\ \cdot \\ a_{n-2} \end{bmatrix}$$

In order to apply the same trick on A_{even} we must set:

$$(x_{n/4+j})^2 = -(x_j)^2 \text{ for } 0 \leq j \leq n/4 - 1$$

Coefficient Form \Rightarrow Point-Value Form

In A_{even} we set: $x_{n/4+j}^2 = -x_j^2$ for $0 \leq j \leq n/4 - 1$. Then

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{even}(x_0) \\ A_{even}(x_1) \\ \cdot \\ A_{even}(x_{n/4-1}) \\ \cdot \\ A_{even}(x_{n/4+0}) \\ A_{even}(x_{n/4+1}) \\ \cdot \\ A_{even}(x_{n/4+(n/4-1)}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_0^2 & (x_0^2)^2 & \cdots & (x_0^2)^{\frac{n}{2}-1} \\ 1 & x_1^2 & (x_1^2)^2 & \cdots & (x_1^2)^{\frac{n}{2}-1} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\ 1 & x_{n/4-1}^2 & (x_{n/4-1}^2)^2 & \cdots & (x_{n/4-1}^2)^{\frac{n}{2}-1} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\ 1 & -x_0^2 & (-x_0^2)^2 & \cdots & (-x_0^2)^{\frac{n}{2}-1} \\ 1 & -x_1^2 & (-x_1^2)^2 & \cdots & (-x_1^2)^{\frac{n}{2}-1} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\ 1 & -x_{n/4-1}^2 & (-x_{n/4-1}^2)^2 & \cdots & (-x_{n/4-1}^2)^{\frac{n}{2}-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_2 \\ a_4 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ a_{n-2} \end{bmatrix}$$

This means setting $x_{n/4+j} = ix_j$, where $i = \sqrt{-1}$ (imaginary)!

This also allows us to apply the same trick on A_{odd} .

Coefficient Form \Rightarrow Point-Value Form

We can apply the trick once if we set:

$$x_{n/2+j} = -x_j \text{ for } 0 \leq j \leq n/2 - 1$$

We can apply the trick (recursively) 2 times if we also set:

$$\left(x_{n/2^2+j} \right)^2 = -\left(x_j \right)^2 \text{ for } 0 \leq j \leq n/2^2 - 1$$

We can apply the trick (recursively) 3 times if we also set:

$$\left(x_{n/2^3+j} \right)^{2^2} = -\left(x_j \right)^{2^2} \text{ for } 0 \leq j \leq n/2^3 - 1$$

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We can apply the trick (recursively) k times if we also set:

$$\left(x_{n/2^k+j} \right)^{2^{k-1}} = -\left(x_j \right)^{2^{k-1}} \text{ for } 0 \leq j \leq n/2^k - 1$$

Coefficient Form \Rightarrow Point-Value Form

Consider the t^{th} primitive root of unity:

$$\omega_t = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{t}} = \cos \frac{2\pi}{t} + i \cdot \sin \frac{2\pi}{t} \quad (i = \sqrt{-1})$$

Then

$$x_{n/2+j} = -x_j \Rightarrow x_{n/2^1+j} = \omega_{2^1} \cdot x_j$$

$$\left(x_{n/2^2+j}\right)^2 = -(x_j)^2 \Rightarrow x_{n/2^2+j} = \omega_{2^2} \cdot x_j$$

$$\left(x_{n/2^3+j}\right)^{2^2} = -(x_j)^{2^2} \Rightarrow x_{n/2^3+j} = \omega_{2^3} \cdot x_j$$

⋮ ⋮ ⋮ ⋮ ⋮
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$$\left(x_{n/2^k+j}\right)^{2^{k-1}} = -(x_j)^{2^{k-1}} \Rightarrow x_{n/2^k+j} = \omega_{2^k} \cdot x_j$$

Coefficient Form \Rightarrow Point-Value Form

If $n = 2^k$ we would like to apply the trick k times recursively.

What values should we choose for $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}\}$?

Example: For $n = 2^3$ we need to choose $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_7\}$.

Choose: $x_0 = 1 = \omega_8^0$

$k = 3: x_1 = \omega_{2^3} \cdot x_0 = \omega_8^1$

$k = 2: x_2 = \omega_{2^2} \cdot x_0 = \omega_8^2$

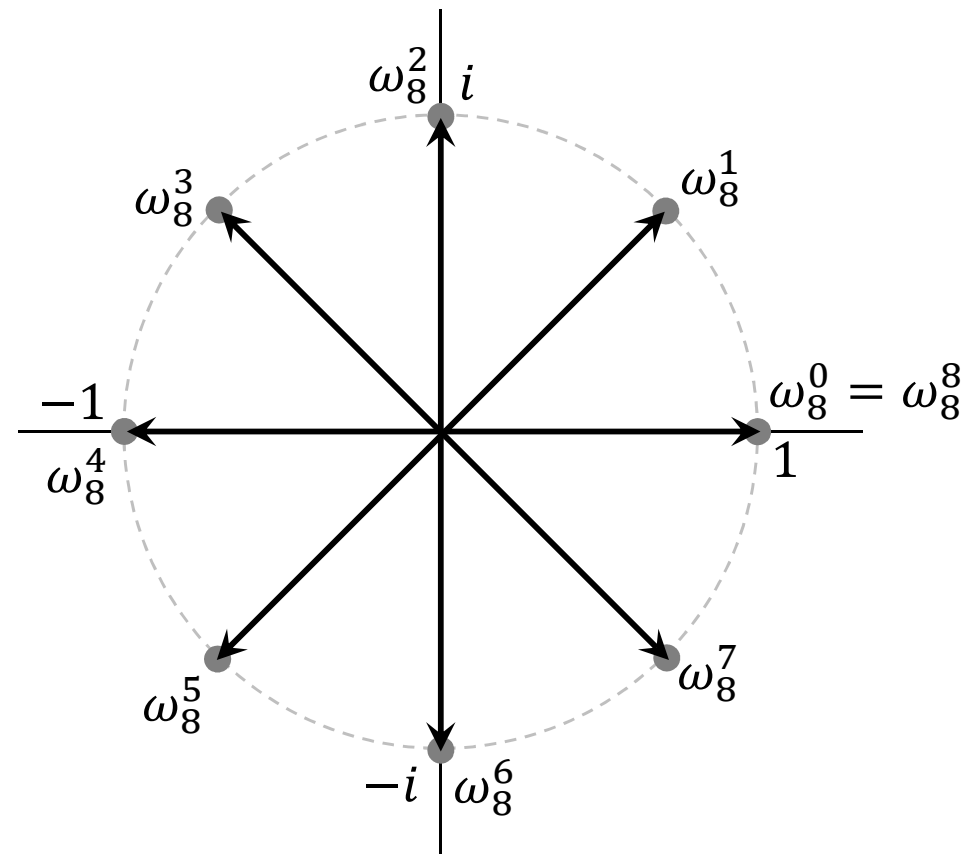
$x_3 = \omega_{2^2} \cdot x_1 = \omega_8^3$

$k = 1: x_4 = \omega_{2^1} \cdot x_0 = \omega_8^4$

$x_5 = \omega_{2^1} \cdot x_1 = \omega_8^5$

$x_6 = \omega_{2^1} \cdot x_2 = \omega_8^6$

$x_7 = \omega_{2^1} \cdot x_3 = \omega_8^7$



complex 8th roots of unity

Coefficient Form \Rightarrow Point-Value Form

For a polynomial of degree bound $n = 2^k$, we need to apply the trick recursively at most $\log n = k$ times.

We choose $x_0 = 1 = \omega_n^0$ and set $x_j = \omega_n^j$ for $1 \leq j \leq n - 1$.

Then we compute the following product:

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ y_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A(1) \\ A(\omega_n) \\ A(\omega_n^2) \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ A(\omega_n^{n-1}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega_n & (\omega_n)^2 & \cdots & (\omega_n)^{n-1} \\ 1 & \omega_n^2 & (\omega_n^2)^2 & \cdots & (\omega_n^2)^{n-1} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\ 1 & \omega_n^{n-1} & (\omega_n^{n-1})^2 & \cdots & (\omega_n^{n-1})^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

The vector $y = (y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1})$ is called the *discrete Fourier transform* (DFT) of $(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$.

This method of computing DFT is called the *fast Fourier transform* (FFT) method.

Coefficient Form \Rightarrow Point-Value Form

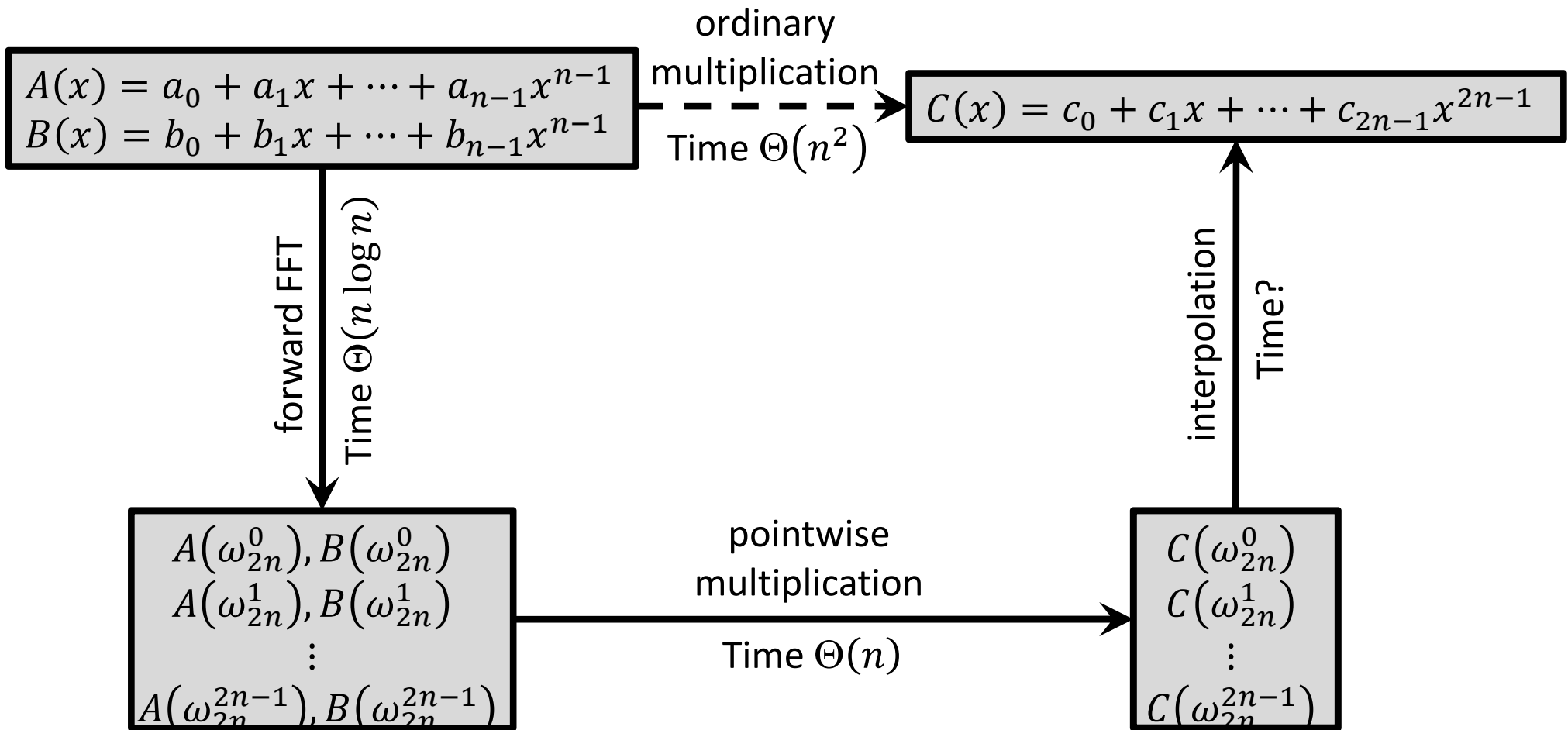
Rec-FFT ((a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})) { $n = 2^k$ for integer $k \geq 0$ }

1. *if* $n = 1$ *then*
2. *return* (a_0)
3. $\omega_n \leftarrow e^{2\pi i/n}$
4. $\omega \leftarrow 1$
5. $y^{\text{even}} \leftarrow \text{Rec-FFT} ((a_0, a_2, \dots, a_{n-2}))$
6. $y^{\text{odd}} \leftarrow \text{Rec-FFT} ((a_1, a_3, \dots, a_{n-1}))$
7. *for* $j \leftarrow 0$ *to* $n/2 - 1$ *do*
8. $y_j \leftarrow y_j^{\text{even}} + \omega y_j^{\text{odd}}$
9. $y_{n/2+j} \leftarrow y_j^{\text{even}} - \omega y_j^{\text{odd}}$
10. $\omega \leftarrow \omega \omega_n$
11. *return* y

Running time:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1), & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \Theta(n), & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
$$= \Theta(n \log n)$$

Faster Polynomial Multiplication? (in Coefficient Form)



Point-Value Form \Rightarrow Coefficient Form

$$\text{Given: } \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega_n & (\omega_n)^2 & \dots & (\omega_n)^{n-1} \\ 1 & \omega_n^2 & (\omega_n^2)^2 & \dots & (\omega_n^2)^{n-1} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ 1 & \omega_n^{n-1} & (\omega_n^{n-1})^2 & \dots & (\omega_n^{n-1})^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}}_{V(\omega_n)} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}}_{\bar{a}} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ y_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}}_{\bar{y}}$$

Vandermonde Matrix

$$\Rightarrow V(\omega_n) \cdot \bar{a} = \bar{y}$$

We want to solve: $\bar{a} = [V(\omega_n)]^{-1} \cdot \bar{y}$

It turns out that: $[V(\omega_n)]^{-1} = \frac{1}{n} V\left(\frac{1}{\omega_n}\right)$

That means $[V(\omega_n)]^{-1}$ looks almost similar to $V(\omega_n)$!

Point-Value Form \Rightarrow Coefficient Form

Show that: $[V(\omega_n)]^{-1} = \frac{1}{n} V\left(\frac{1}{\omega_n}\right)$

Let $U(\omega_n) = \frac{1}{n} V\left(\frac{1}{\omega_n}\right)$

We want to show that $U(\omega_n)V(\omega_n) = I_n$,
where I_n is the $n \times n$ identity matrix.

Observe that for $0 \leq j, k \leq n - 1$, the $(j, k)^{th}$ entries are:

$$[V(\omega_n)]_{jk} = \omega_n^{jk} \quad \text{and} \quad [U(\omega_n)]_{jk} = \frac{1}{n} \omega_n^{-jk}$$

Then entry (p, q) of $U(\omega_n)V(\omega_n)$,

$$[U(\omega_n)V(\omega_n)]_{pq} = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} [U(\omega_n)]_{pk} [V(\omega_n)]_{kq} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \omega_n^{k(q-p)}$$

Point-Value Form \Rightarrow Coefficient Form

$$[U(\omega_n)V(\omega_n)]_{pq} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \omega_n^{k(q-p)}$$

CASE $p = q$:

$$[U(\omega_n)V(\omega_n)]_{pq} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \omega_n^0 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} 1 = \frac{1}{n} \times n = 1$$

CASE $p \neq q$:

$$\begin{aligned} [U(\omega_n)V(\omega_n)]_{pq} &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (\omega_n^{q-p})^k = \frac{1}{n} \times \frac{(\omega_n^{q-p})^n - 1}{\omega_n^{q-p} - 1} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \times \frac{(\omega_n^n)^{q-p} - 1}{\omega_n^{q-p} - 1} = \frac{1}{n} \times \frac{(1)^{q-p} - 1}{\omega_n^{q-p} - 1} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Hence $U(\omega_n)V(\omega_n) = I_n$

Point-Value Form \Rightarrow Coefficient Form

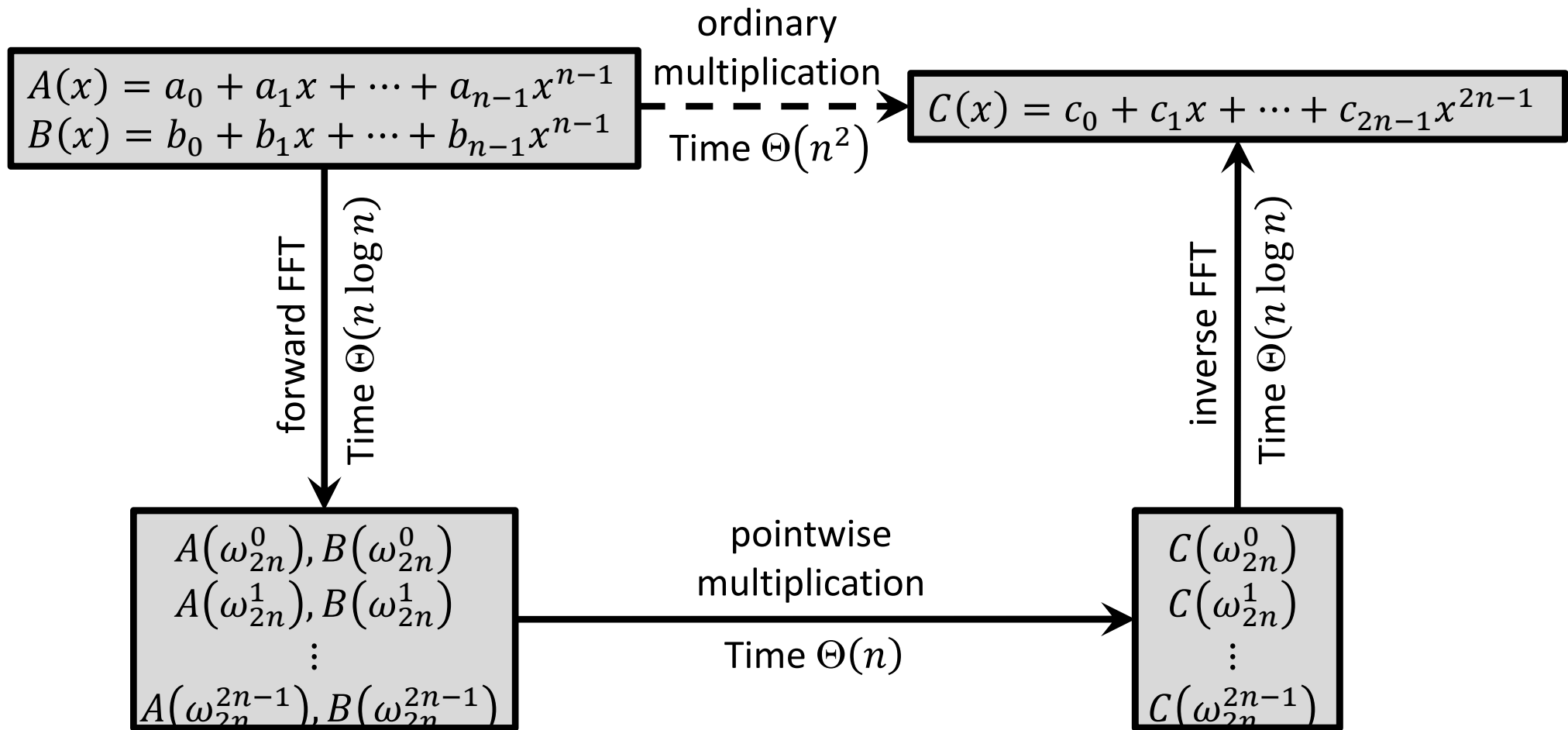
We need to compute the following matrix-vector product:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{n} \times \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \frac{1}{\omega_n} & \left(\frac{1}{\omega_n}\right)^2 & \dots & \left(\frac{1}{\omega_n}\right)^{n-1} \\ 1 & \frac{1}{\omega_n^2} & \left(\frac{1}{\omega_n^2}\right)^2 & \dots & \left(\frac{1}{\omega_n^2}\right)^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ 1 & \frac{1}{\omega_n^{n-1}} & \left(\frac{1}{\omega_n^{n-1}}\right)^2 & \dots & \left(\frac{1}{\omega_n^{n-1}}\right)^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}}_{[V(\omega_n)]^{-1}} \begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}}_{\bar{a}} \quad \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}}_{\bar{y}}$

This inverse problem is almost similar to the forward problem, and can be solved in $\Theta(n \log n)$ time using the same algorithm as the forward FFT with only minor modifications!

Faster Polynomial Multiplication? (in Coefficient Form)



Two polynomials of degree bound n given in the coefficient form can be multiplied in $\Theta(n \log n)$ time!

Some Applications of Fourier Transform and FFT

- Signal processing
- Image processing
- Noise reduction
- Data compression
- Solving partial differential equation
- Multiplication of large integers
- Polynomial multiplication
- Molecular docking

Some Applications of Fourier Transform and FFT

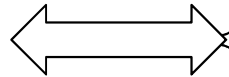
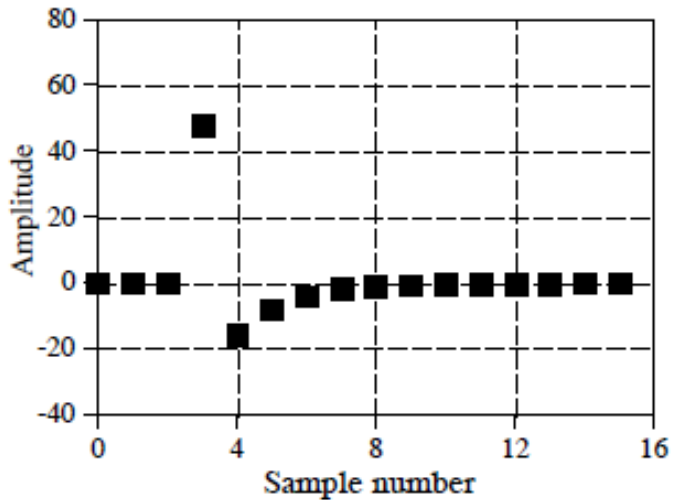


Any periodic signal can be represented as a sum of a series of sinusoidal (sine & cosine) waves. [1807]

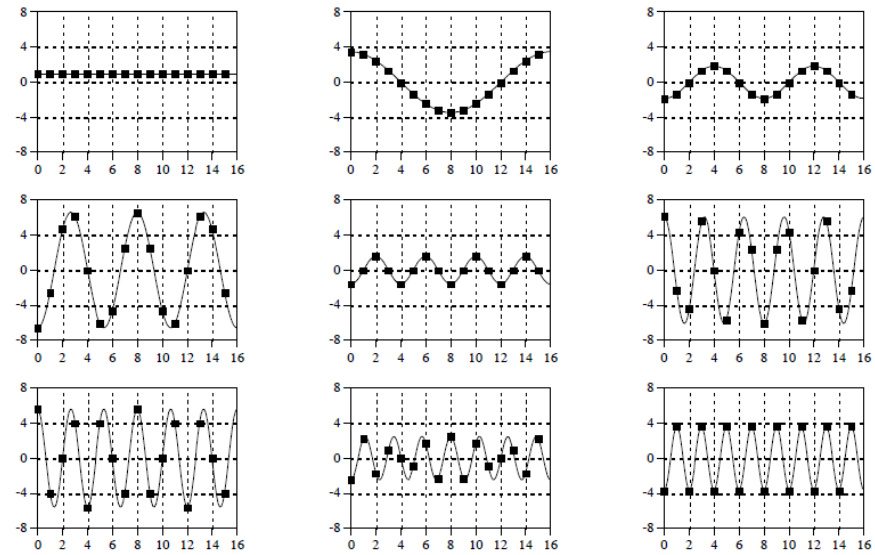
Spatial (Time) Domain \Leftrightarrow Frequency Domain

Frequency Domain

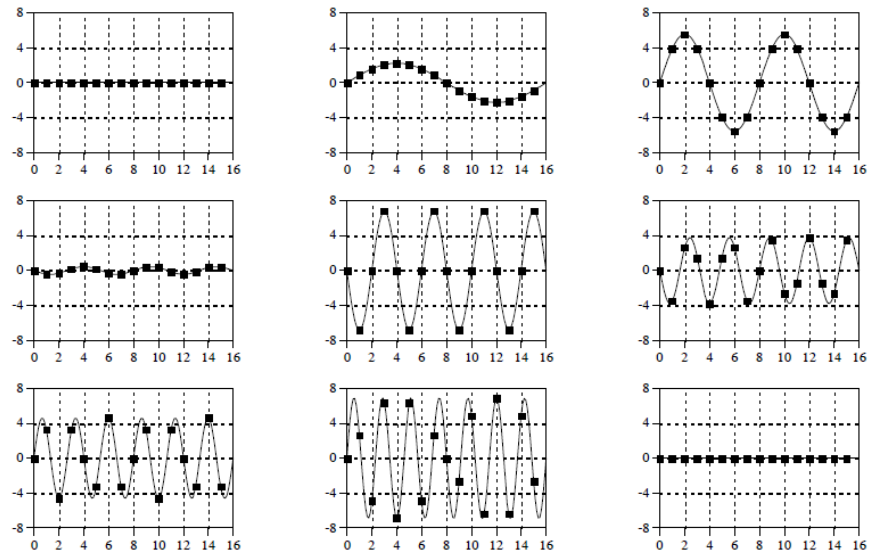
Spatial (Time) Domain



Cosine Waves



Sine Waves



Spatial (Time) Domain \Leftrightarrow Frequency Domain

$$s_6(x)$$



Function $s(x)$ (in red) is a sum of six sine functions of different amplitudes and harmonically related frequencies. The Fourier transform, $S(f)$ (in blue), which depicts amplitude vs frequency, reveals the 6 frequencies and their amplitudes.

Spatial (Time) Domain \Leftrightarrow Frequency Domain

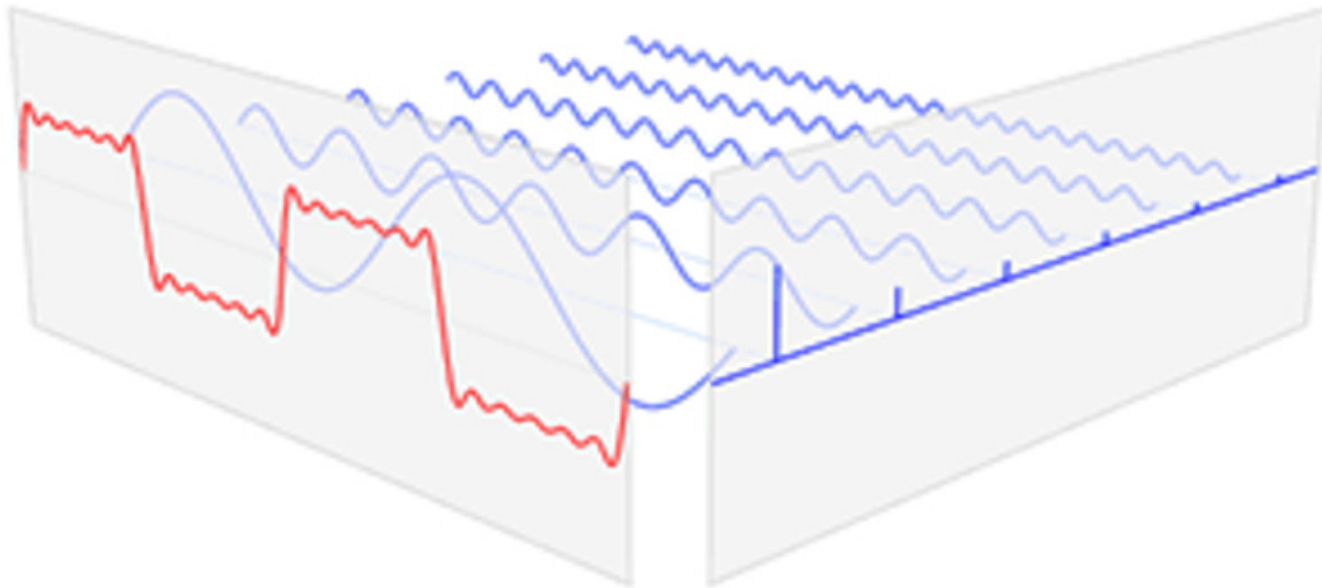
$$s_6(x)$$



$$a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx)$$

Function $s(x)$ (in red) is a sum of six sine functions of different amplitudes and harmonically related frequencies. The Fourier transform, $S(f)$ (in blue), which depicts amplitude vs frequency, reveals the 6 frequencies and their amplitudes.

Spatial (Time) Domain \Leftrightarrow Frequency Domain



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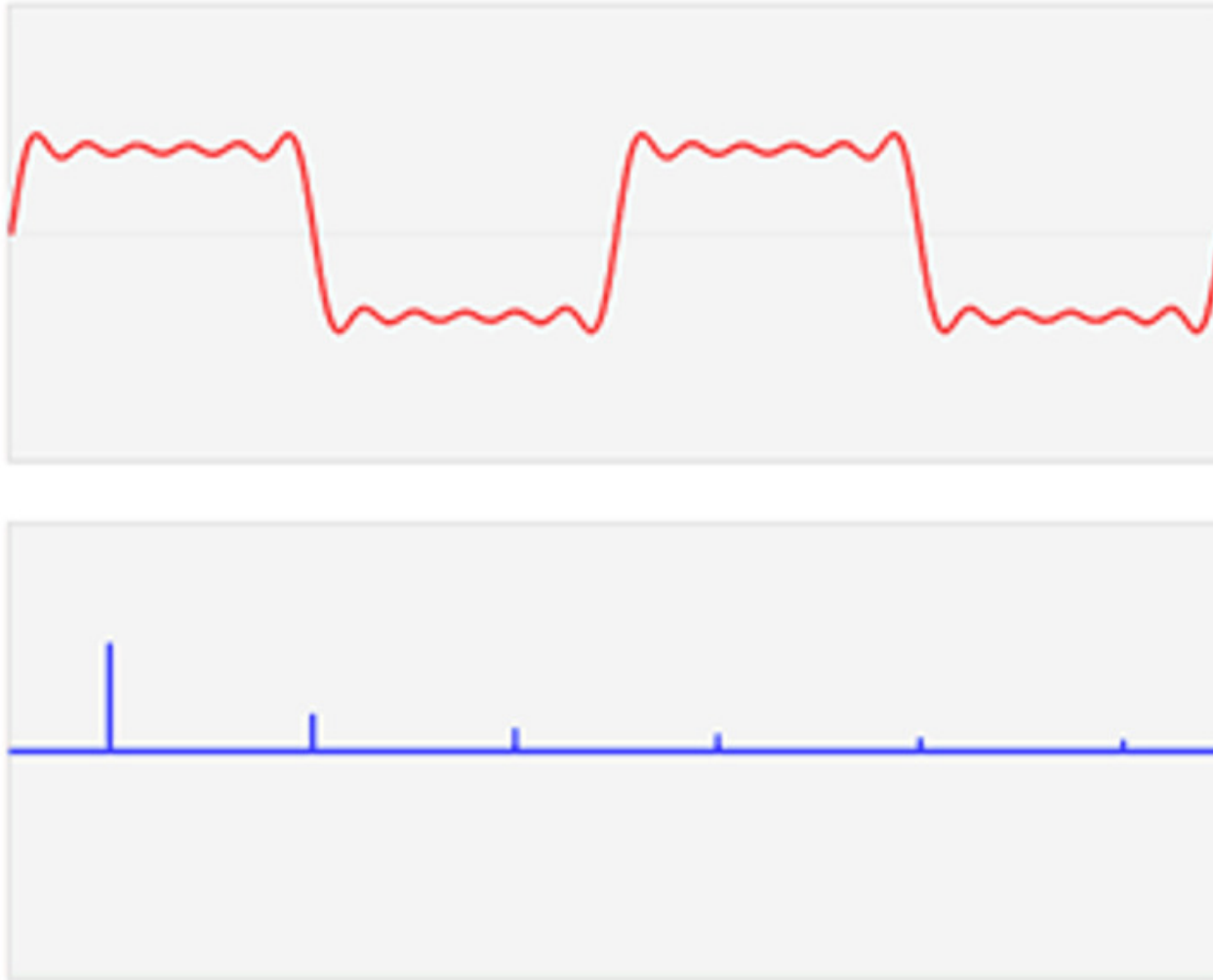
Spatial (Time) Domain \Leftrightarrow Frequency Domain



$S(f)$

Function $s(x)$ (in red) is a sum of six sine functions of different amplitudes and harmonically related frequencies. The Fourier transform, $S(f)$ (in blue), which depicts amplitude vs frequency, reveals the 6 frequencies and their amplitudes.

Spatial (Time) Domain \Leftrightarrow Frequency Domain



Function $s(x)$ (in red) is a sum of six sine functions of different amplitudes and harmonically related frequencies. The Fourier transform, $S(f)$ (in blue), which depicts amplitude vs frequency, reveals the 6 frequencies and their amplitudes.

Spatial (Time) Domain \Leftrightarrow Frequency Domain (Fourier Transforms)

Let $s(t)$ be a signal specified in the time domain.

The strength of $s(t)$ at frequency f is given by:

$$S(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(t) \cdot e^{-2\pi i f t} dt$$

Evaluating this integral for all values of f gives the frequency domain function.

Now $s(t)$ can be retrieved by summing up the signal strengths at all possible frequencies:

$$s(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(f) \cdot e^{2\pi i f t} df$$

Why do the Transforms Work?

Let's try to get a little intuition behind why the transforms work.
We will look at a very simple example.

Suppose: $s(t) = \cos(2\pi h \cdot t)$

$$\frac{1}{T} \int_{-T}^T s(t) \cdot e^{-2\pi i f t} dt = \begin{cases} 1 + \frac{\sin(4\pi f T)}{4\pi f T}, & \text{if } f = h, \\ \frac{\sin(2\pi(h-f)T)}{2\pi(h-f)T} + \frac{\sin(2\pi(h+f)T)}{2\pi(h+f)T}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{T} \int_{-T}^T s(t) \cdot e^{-2\pi i f t} dt \right) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } f = h, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

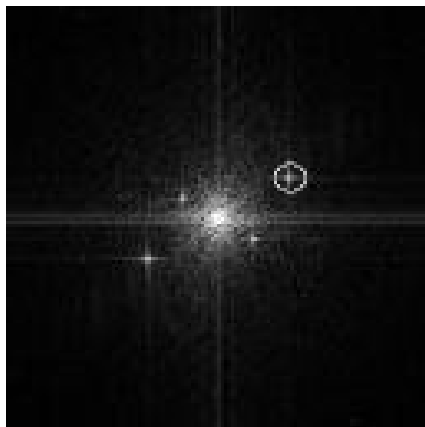
So, the transform can detect if $f = h$!

Noise Reduction

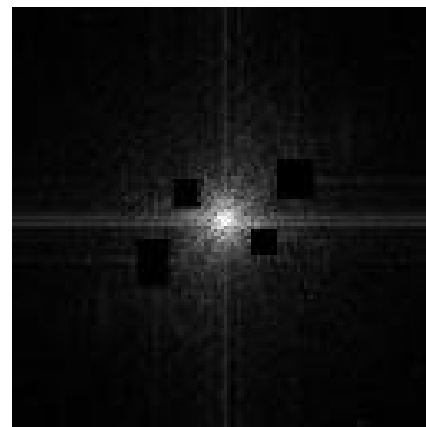


FFT
↓

↑
inverse FFT



→
remove
noise



Source: http://www.mediacy.com/index.aspx?page=AH_FFTEExample

Data Compression

- Discrete Cosine Transforms (DCT) are used for lossy data compression (e.g., MP3, JPEG, MPEG)
- DCT is a Fourier-related transform similar to DFT (Discrete Fourier Transform) but uses only real data (uses cosine waves only instead of both cosine and sine waves)
- Forward DCT transforms data from spatial to frequency domain
- Each frequency component is represented using a fewer number of bits (i.e., truncated / quantized)
- Low amplitude high frequency components are also removed
- Inverse DCT then transforms the data back to spatial domain
- The resulting image compresses better

Data Compression

Transformation to frequency domain using cosine transforms work in the same way as the Fourier transform.

Suppose: $s(t) = \cos(2\pi h \cdot t)$

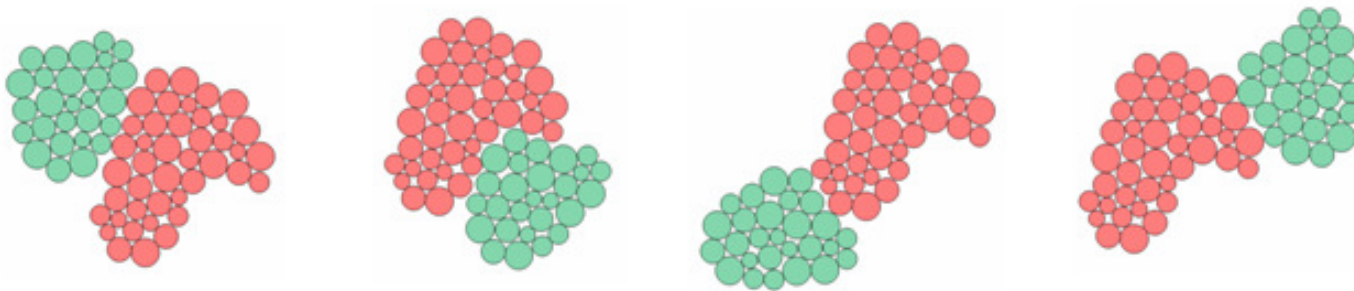
$$\frac{1}{T} \int_{-T}^T s(t) \cdot \cos(2\pi f t) dt = \begin{cases} 1 + \frac{\sin(4\pi f T)}{4\pi f T}, & \text{if } f = h, \\ \frac{\sin(2\pi(h-f)T)}{2\pi(h-f)T} + \frac{\sin(2\pi(h+f)T)}{2\pi(h+f)T}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{T} \int_{-T}^T s(t) \cdot \cos(2\pi f t) dt \right) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } f = h, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

So, this transform can also detect if $f = h$.

Protein-Protein Docking

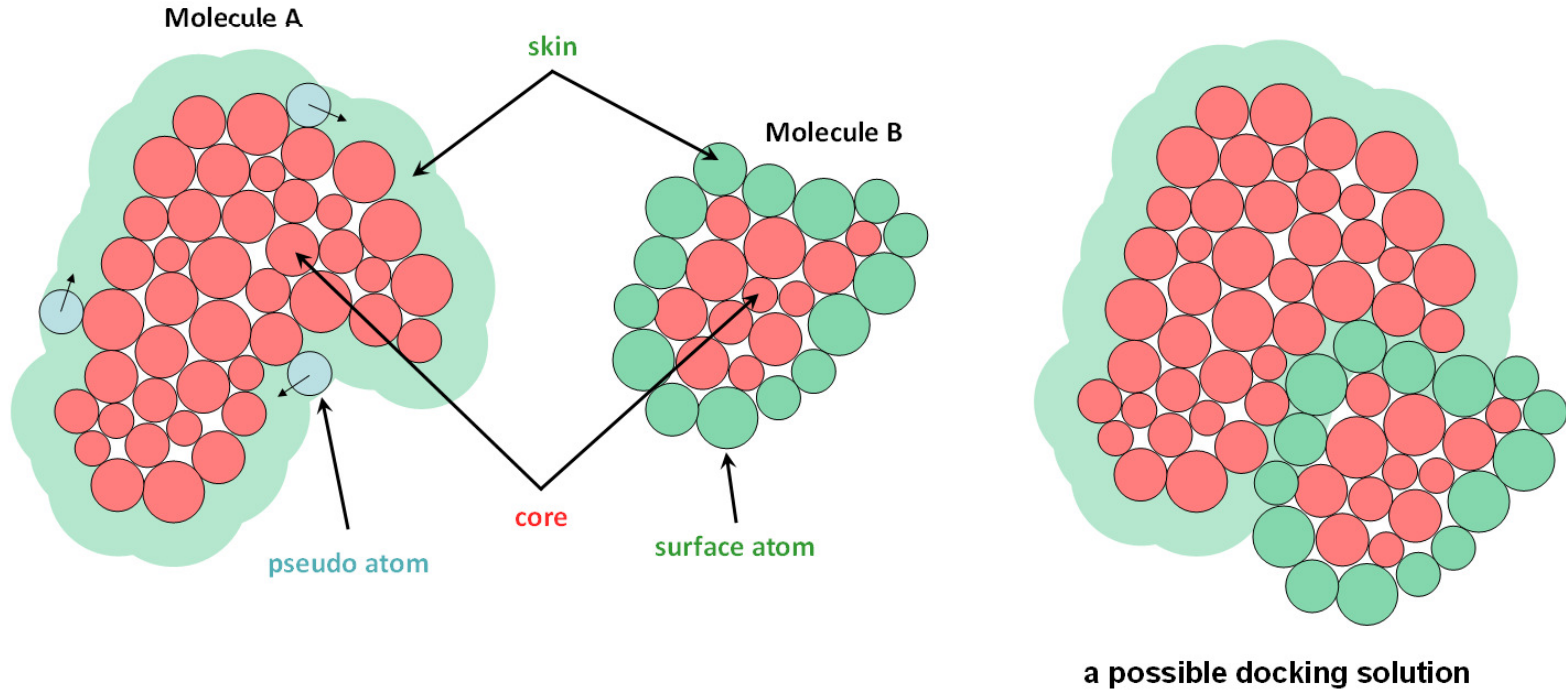
- ❑ Knowledge of complexes is used in
 - Drug design
 - Studying molecular assemblies
 - Structure function analysis
 - Protein interactions
- ❑ **Protein-Protein Docking:** Given two proteins, find the best relative transformation and conformations to obtain a stable complex.



- ❑ Docking is a hard problem
 - Search space is huge (6D for rigid proteins)
 - Protein flexibility adds to the difficulty

Shape Complementarity

[Wang'91, Katchalski-Katzir et al.'92, Chen et al.'03]



To maximize skin-skin overlaps and minimize core-core overlaps

- assign positive real weights to skin atoms
- assign positive imaginary weights to core atoms

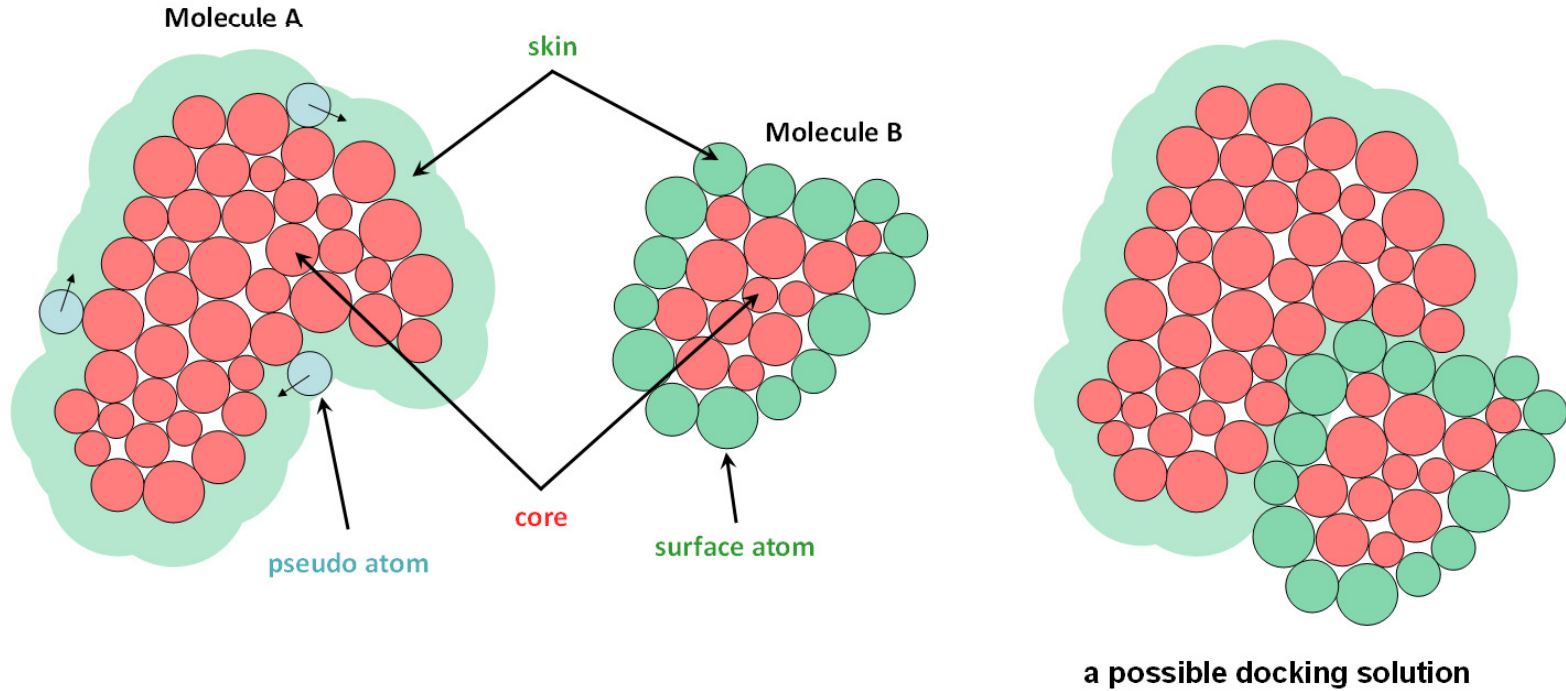
Let A' denote molecule A with the pseudo skin atoms.

For $P \in \{A', B\}$ with M_P atoms, affinity function: $f_P(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{M_P} w_k \cdot g_k(x)$

Here $g_k(x)$ is a Gaussian representation of atom k , and w_k its weight.

Shape Complementarity

[Wang'91, Katchalski-Katzir et al.'92, Chen et al.'03]



Let A' denote molecule A with the pseudo skin atoms.

For $P \in \{A', B\}$ with M_P atoms, affinity function:

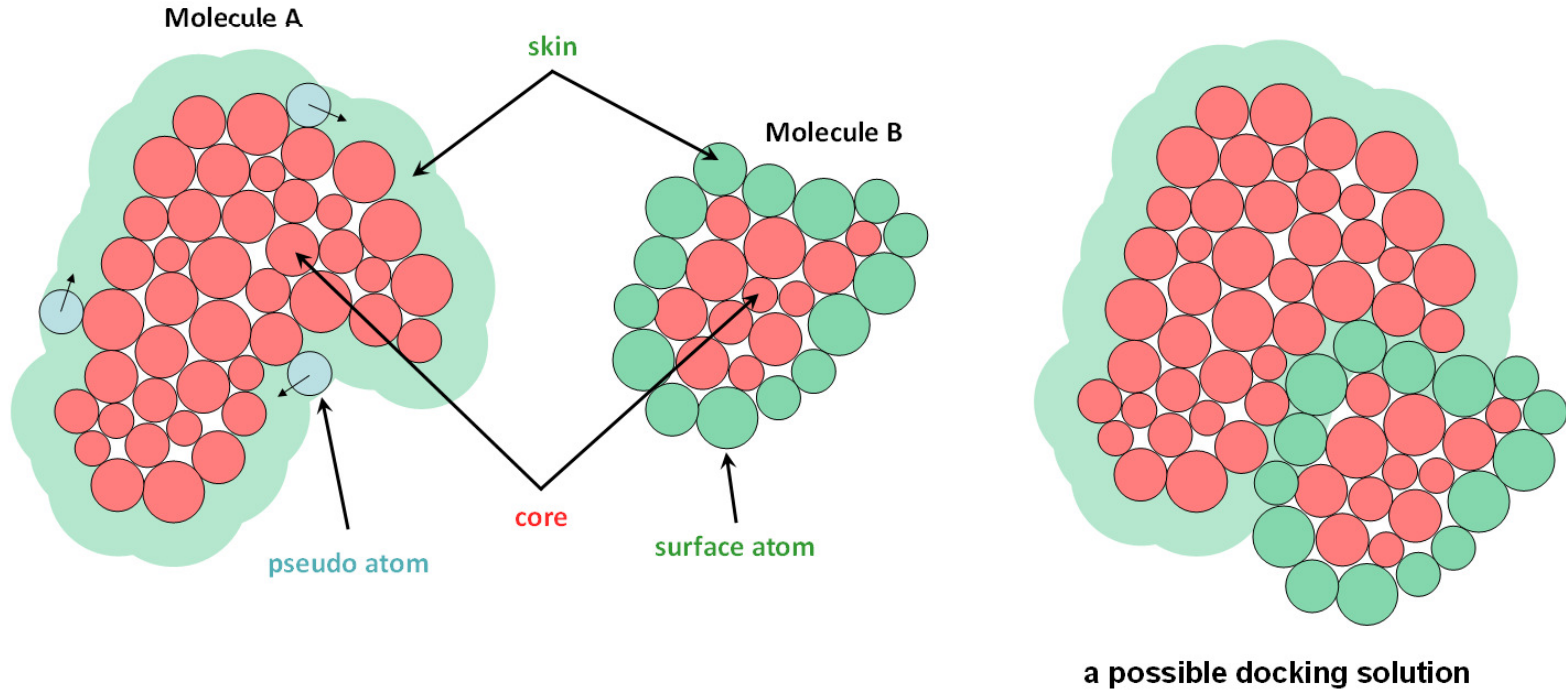
$$f_P(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{M_P} w_k \cdot g_k(x)$$

For rotation r and translation t of molecule B (i.e., $B_{t,r}$),

the interaction score, $F_{A,B}(t,r) = \int_x f_{A'}(x) f_{B_{t,r}}(x) dx$

Shape Complementarity

[Wang'91, Katchalski-Katzir et al.'92, Chen et al.'03]



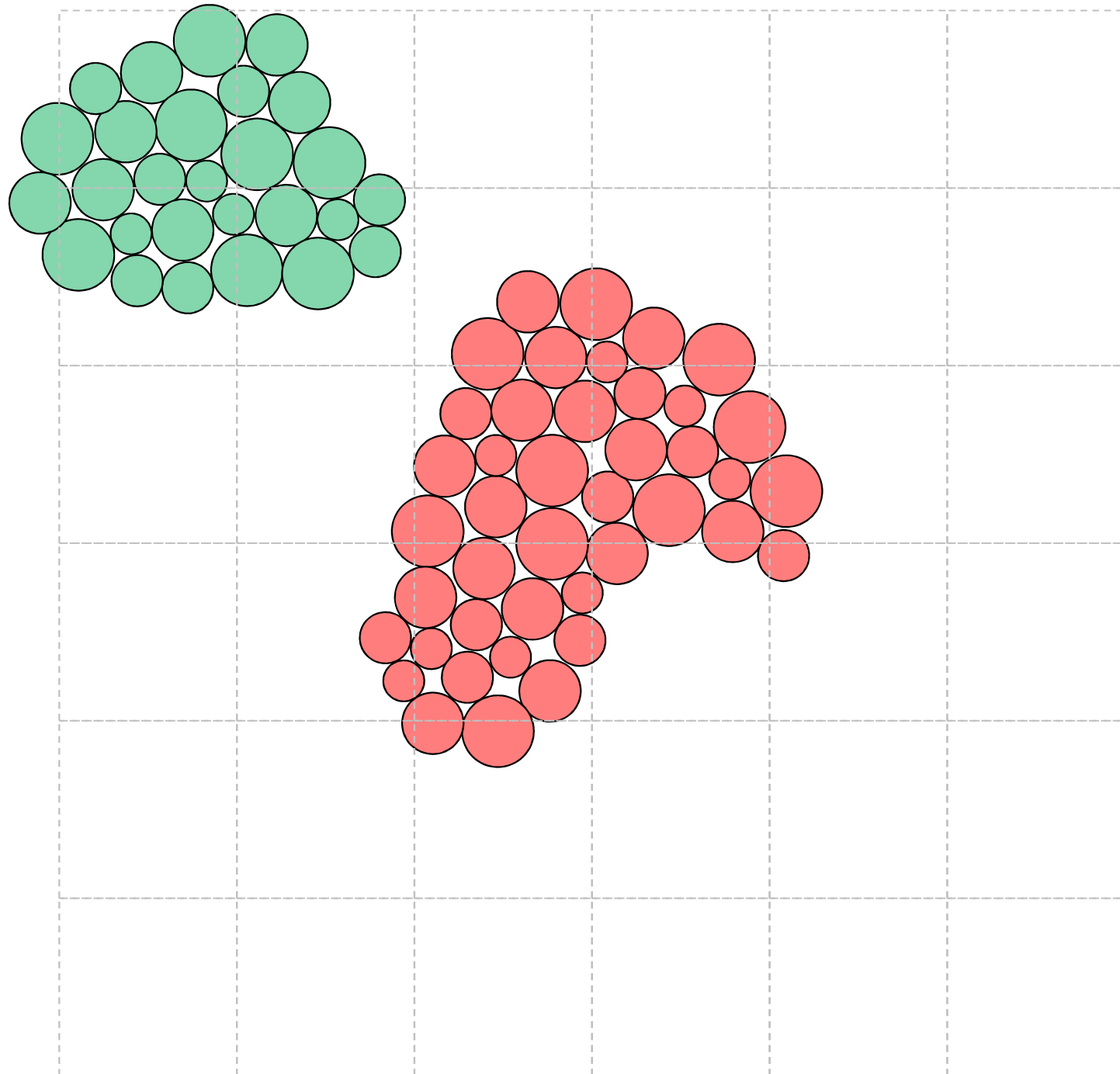
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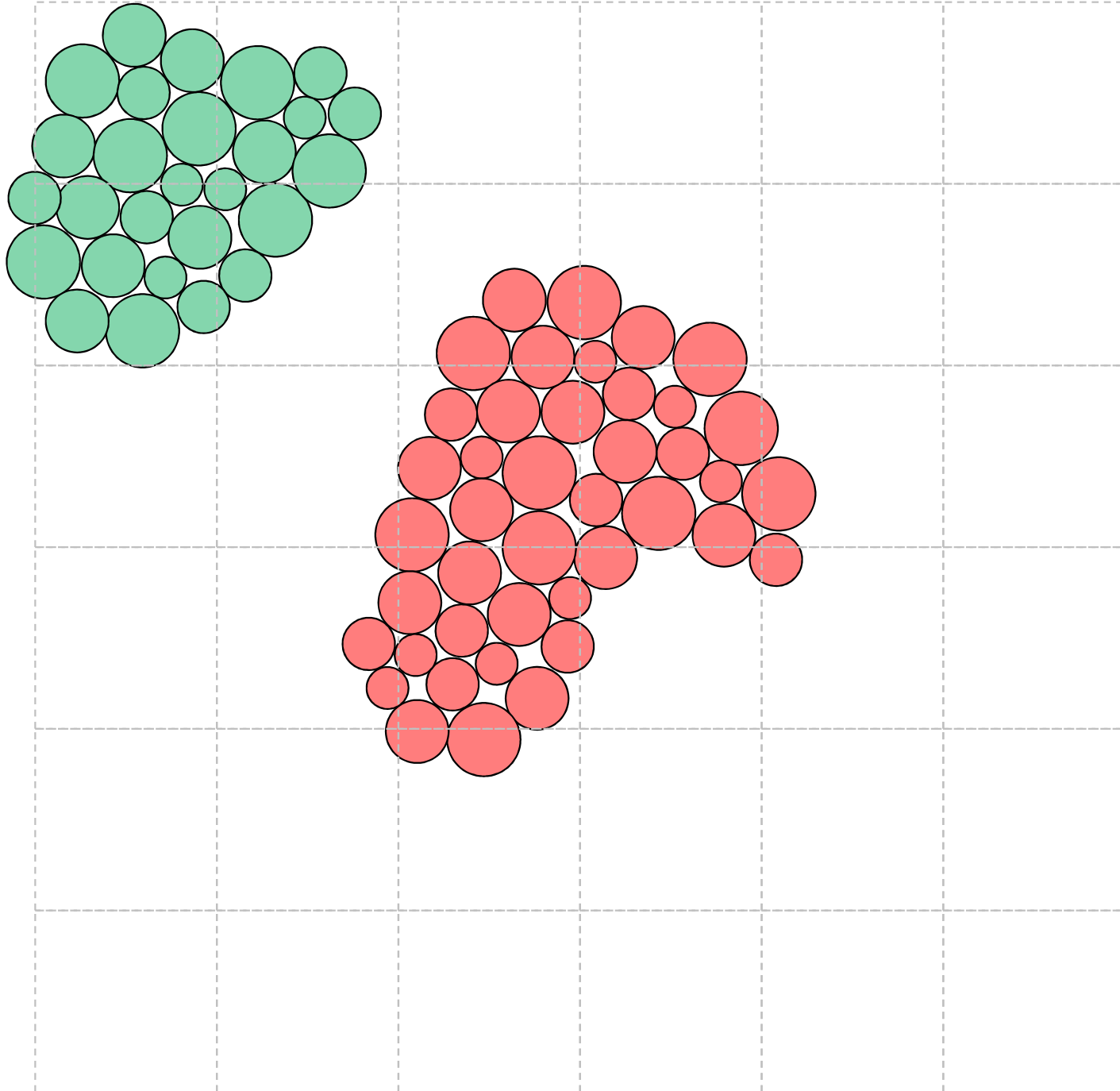
$Re \left(F_{A,B}(t,r) \right) = \text{skin-skin overlap score} - \text{core-core overlap score}$

$Im \left(F_{A,B}(t,r) \right) = \text{skin-core overlap score}$

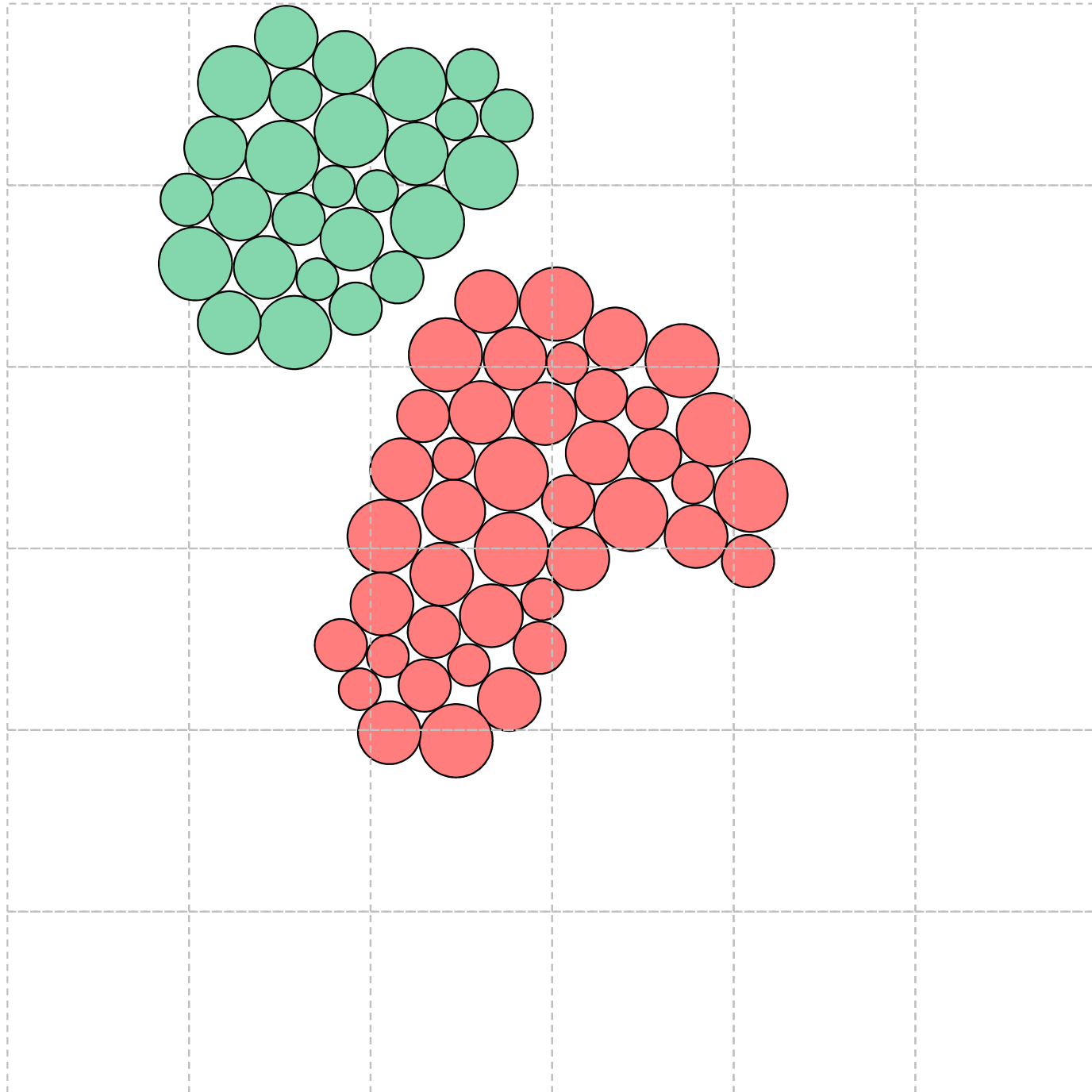
Docking: Rotational & Translational Search



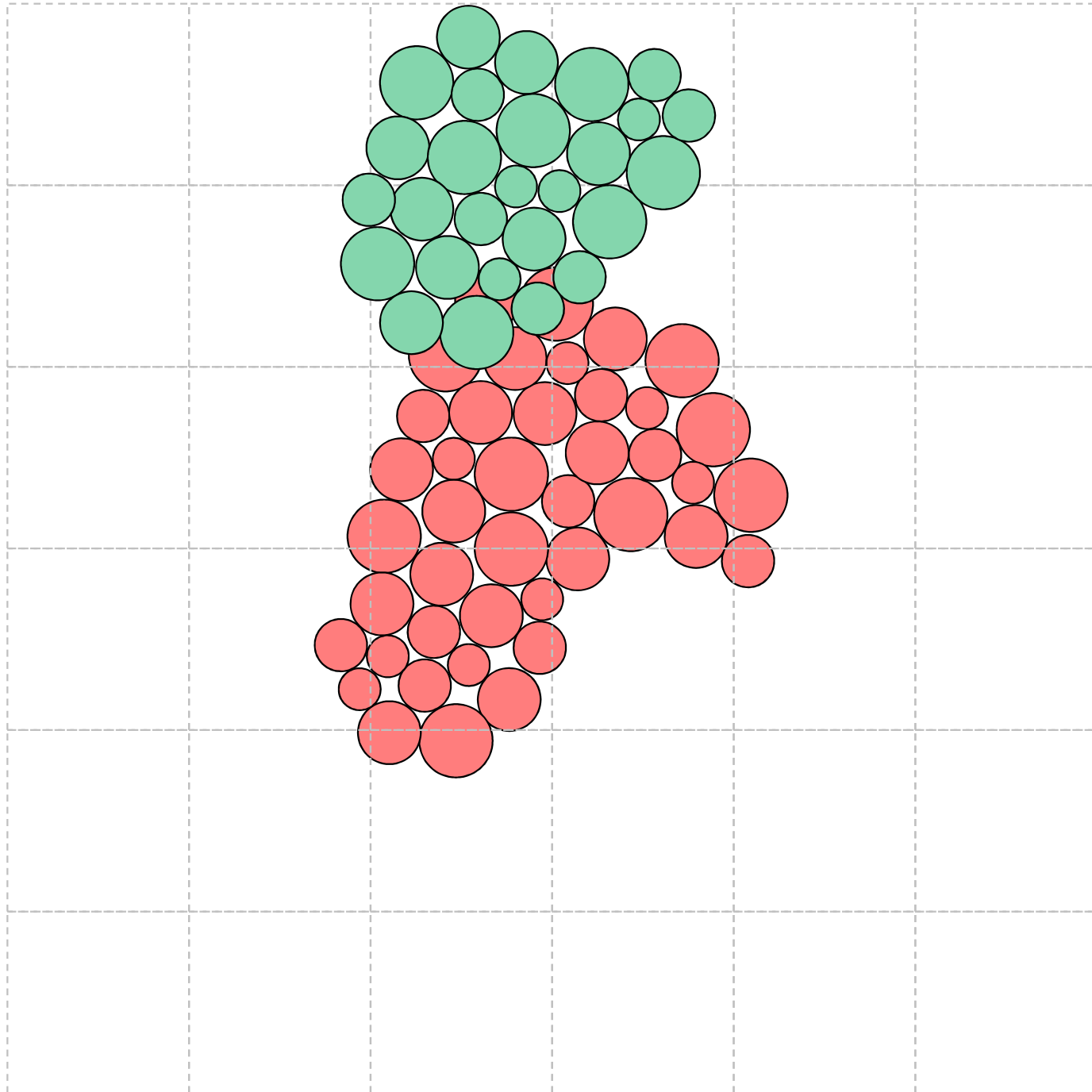
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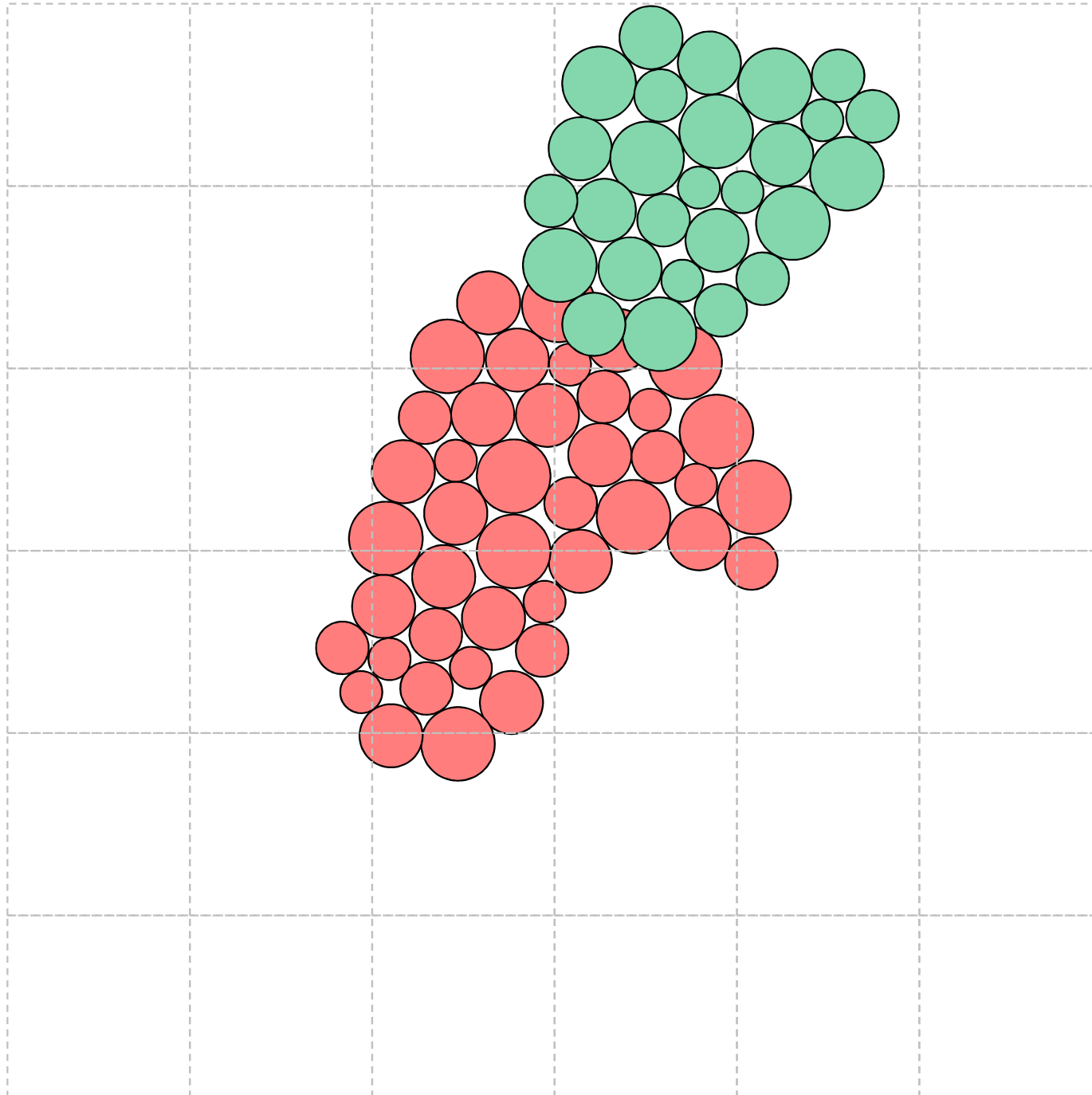
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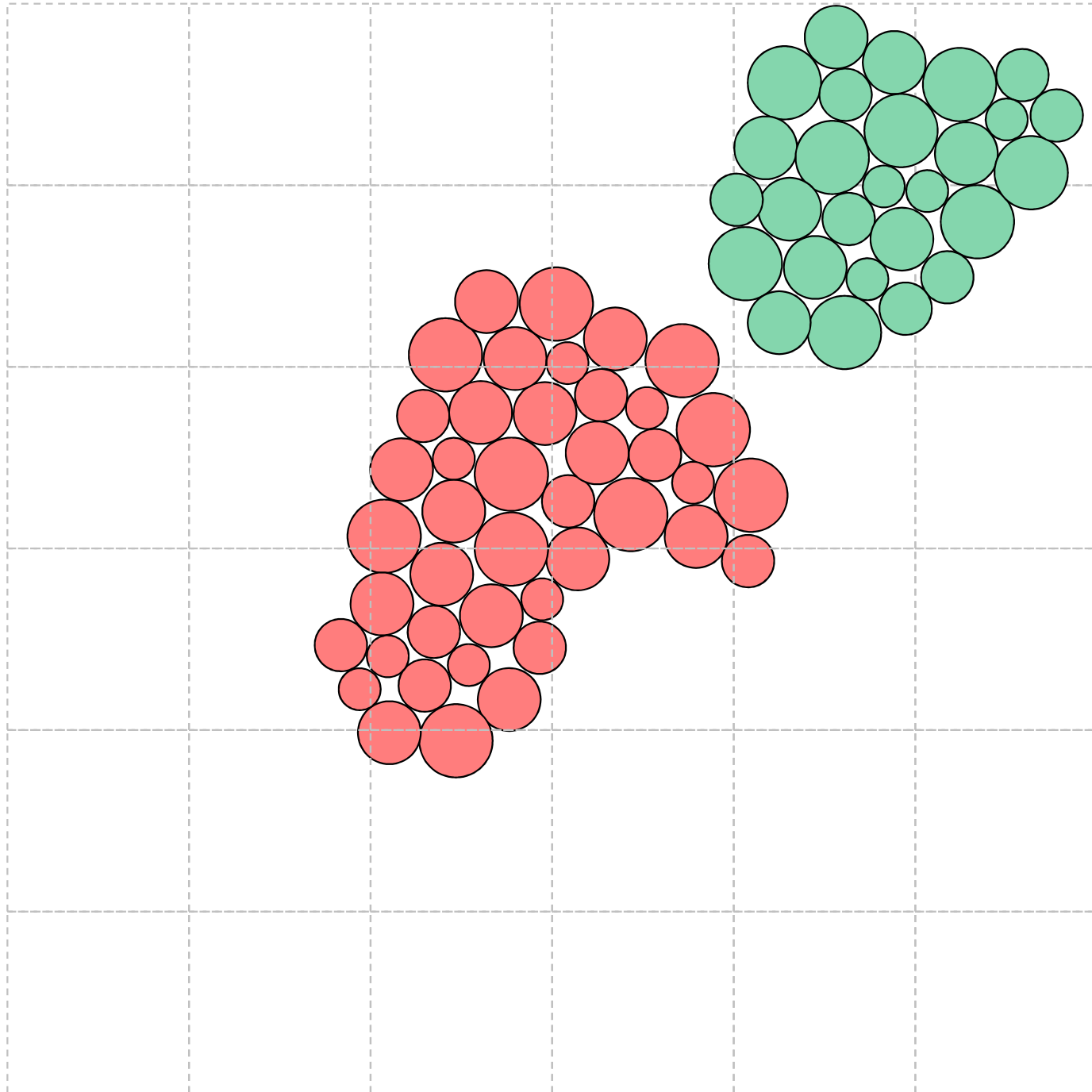
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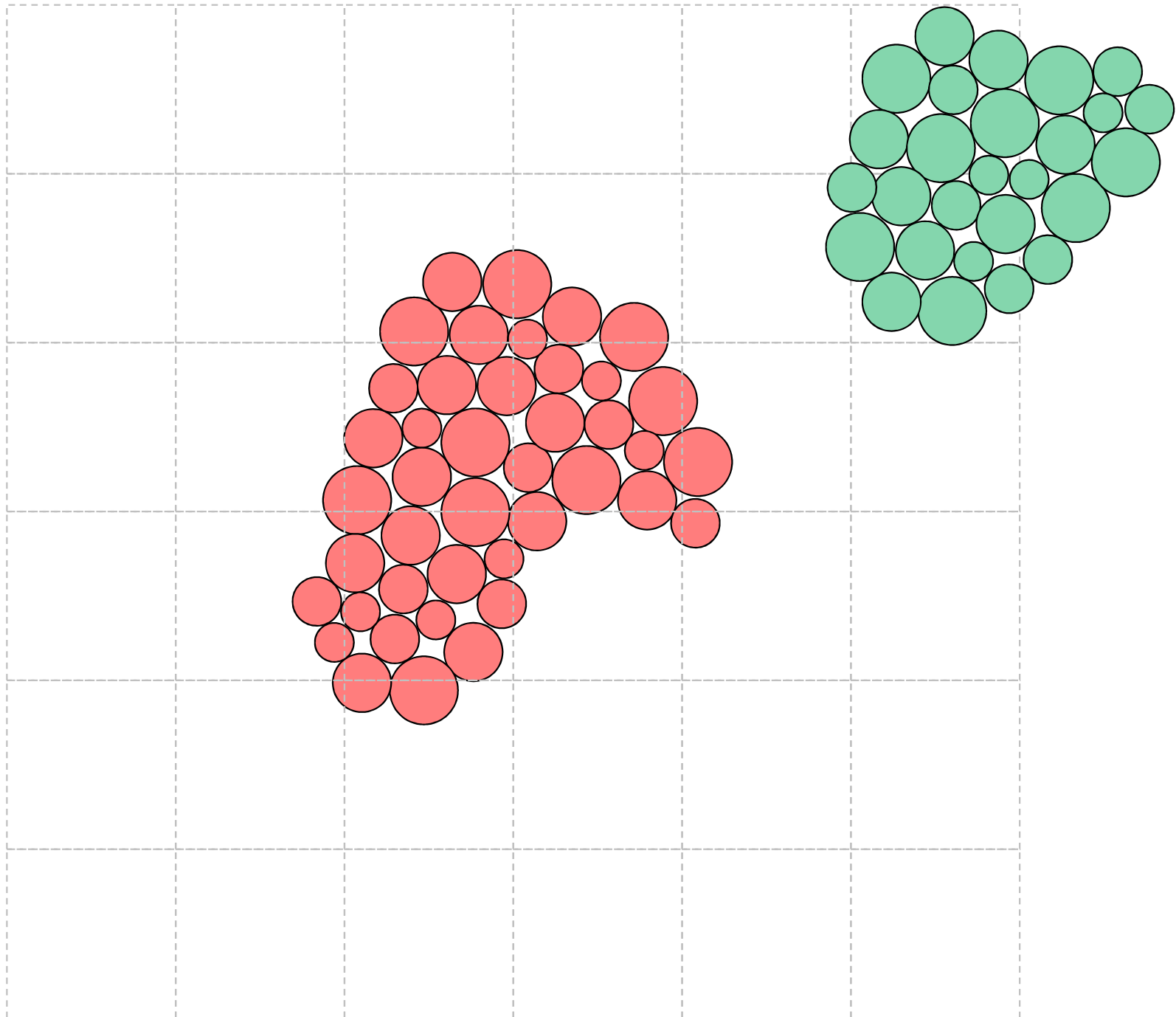
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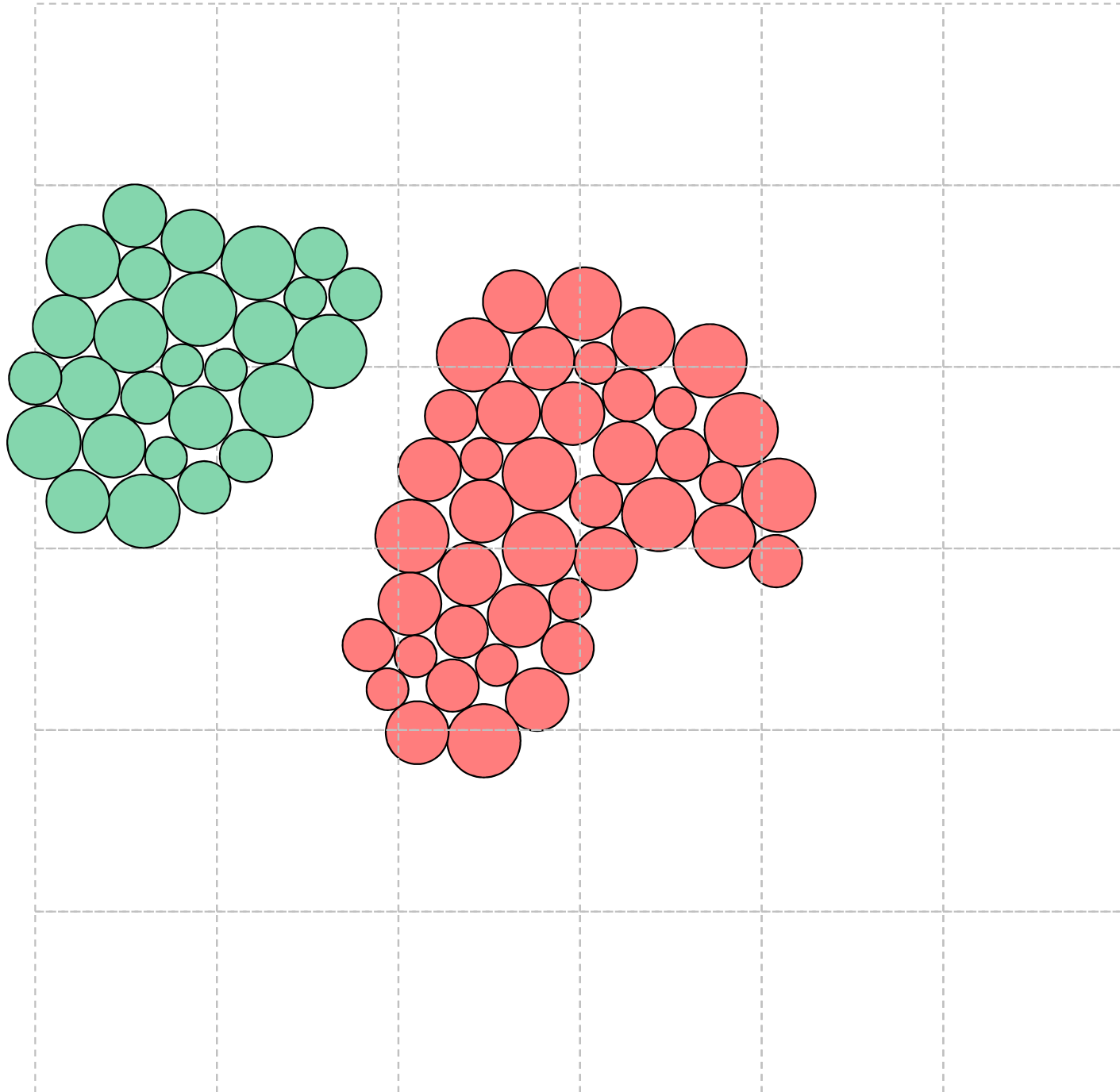
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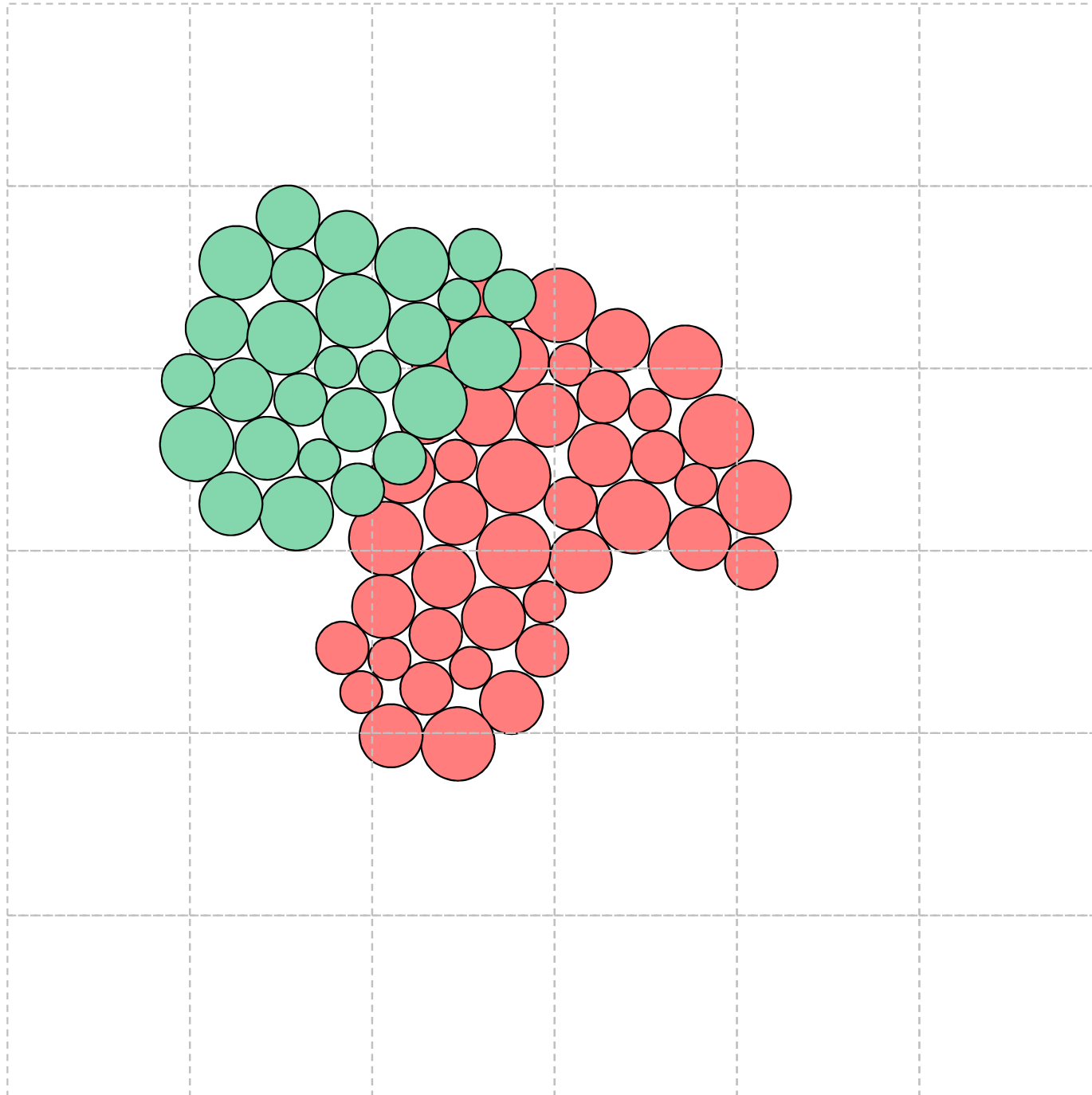
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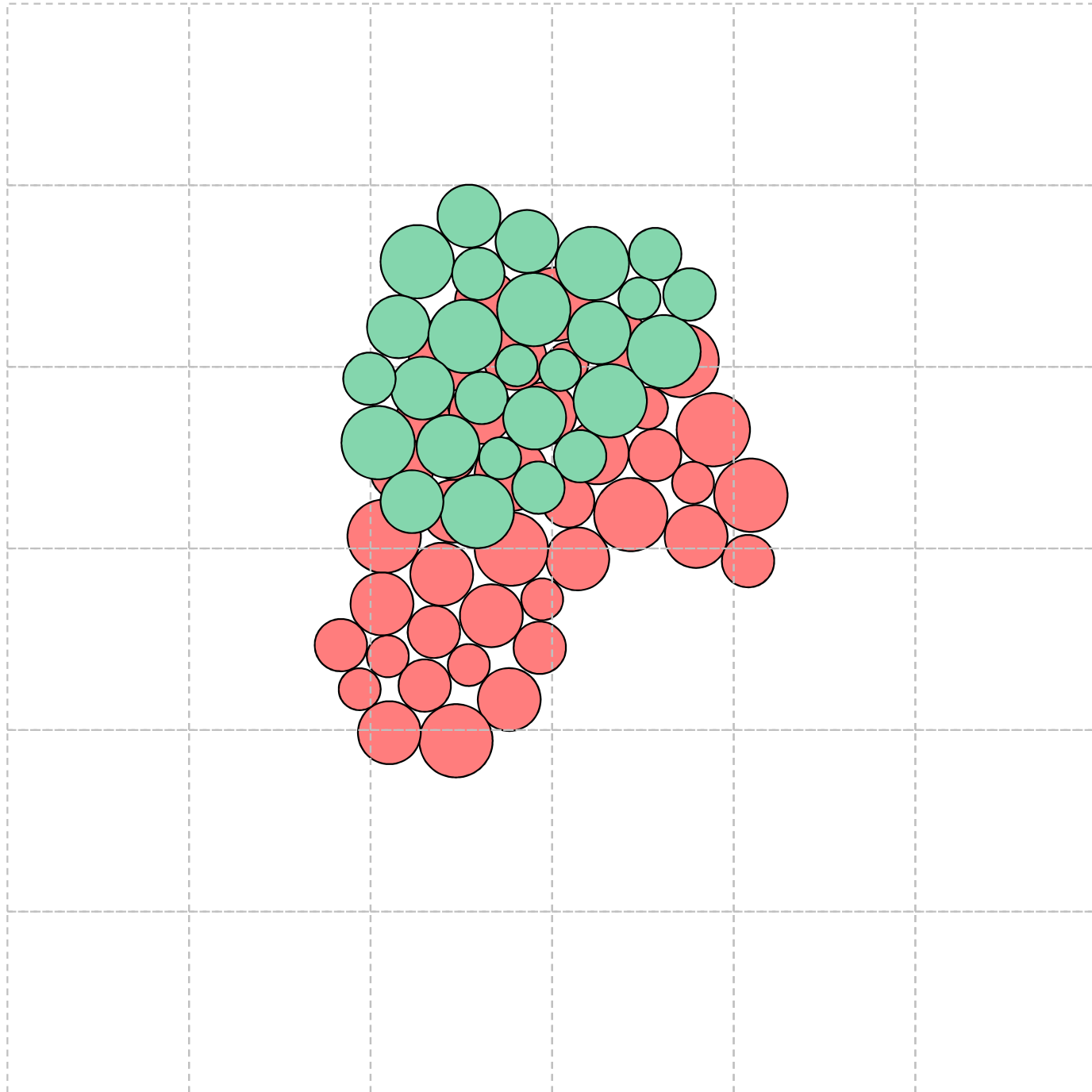
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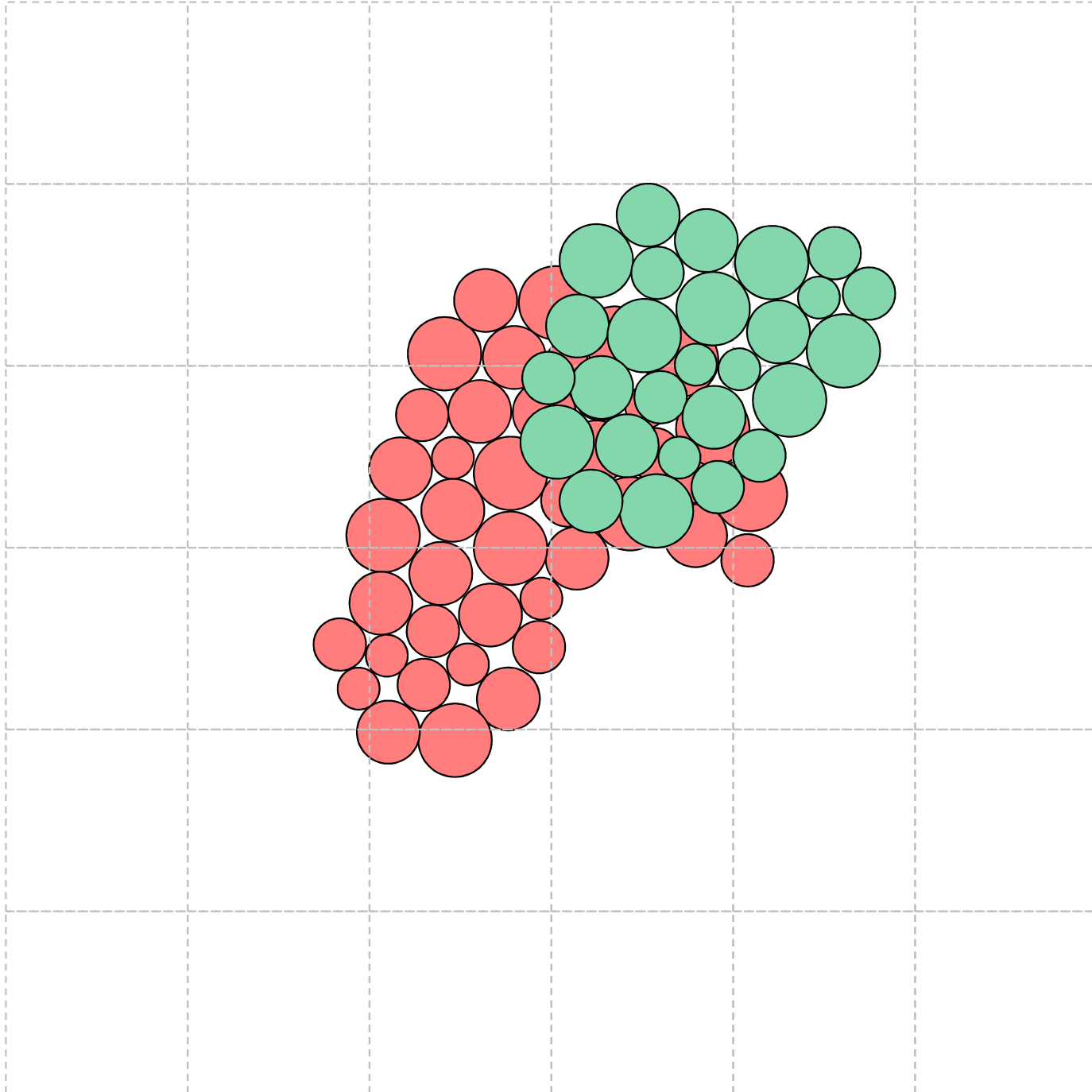
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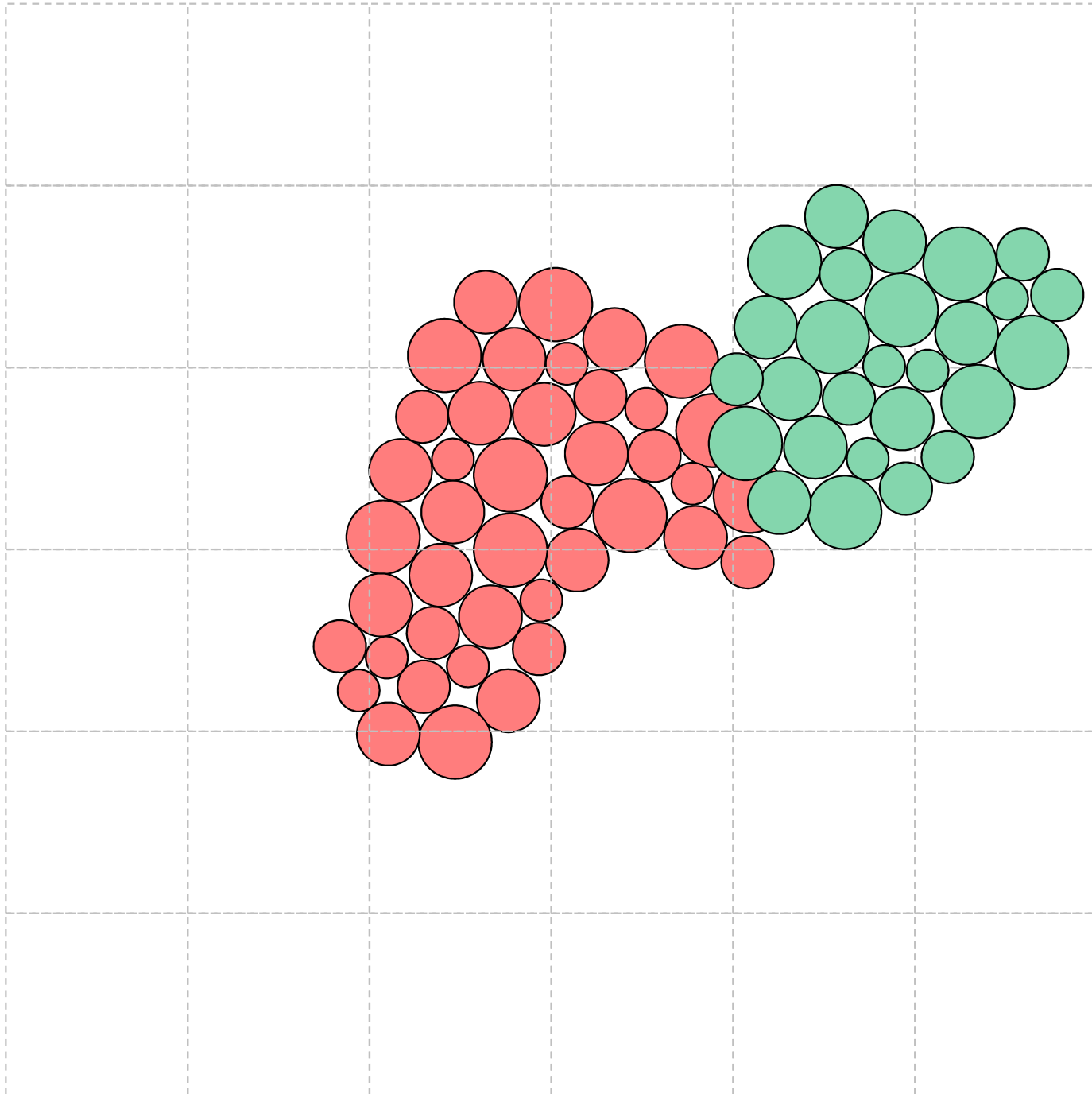
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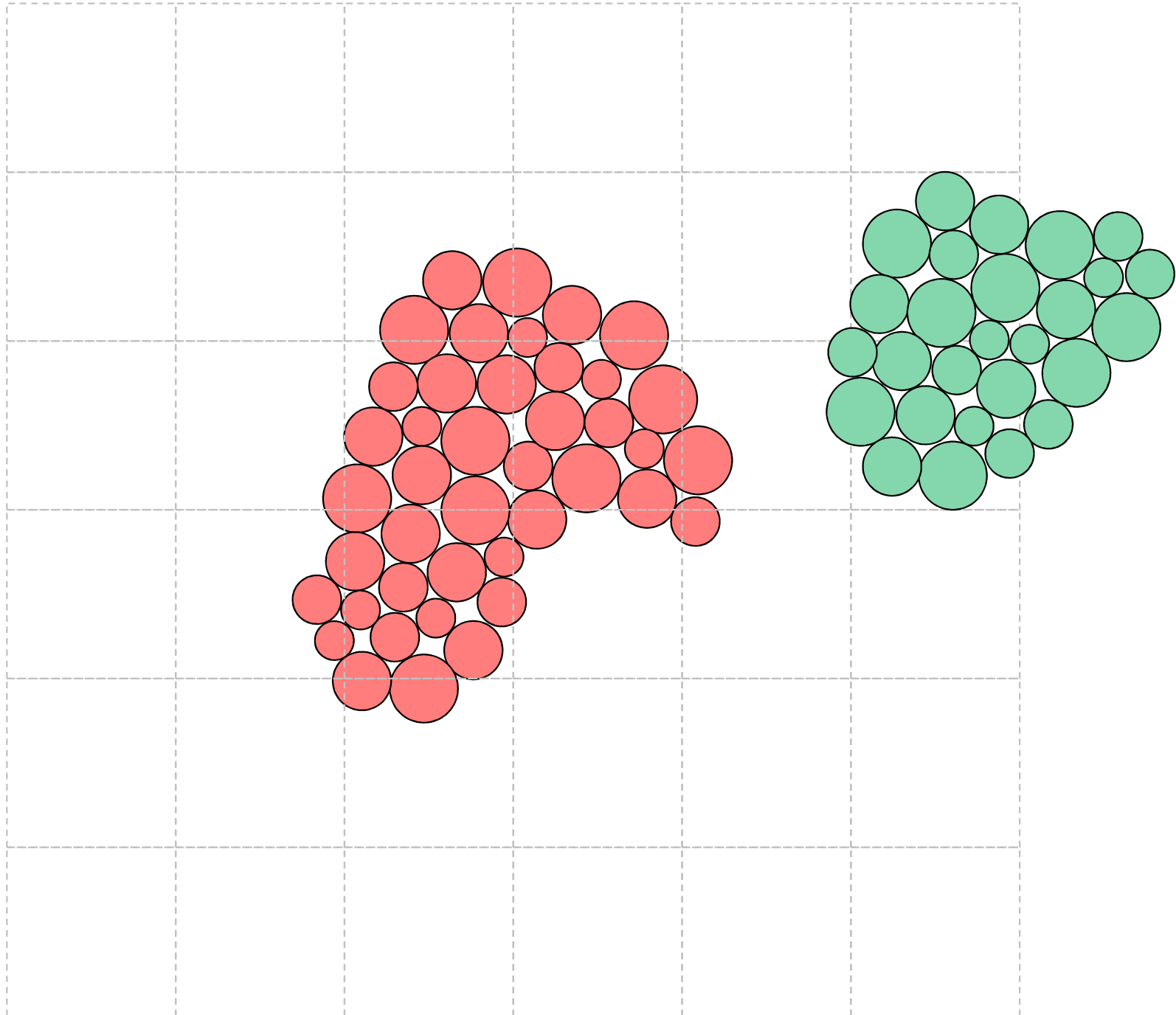
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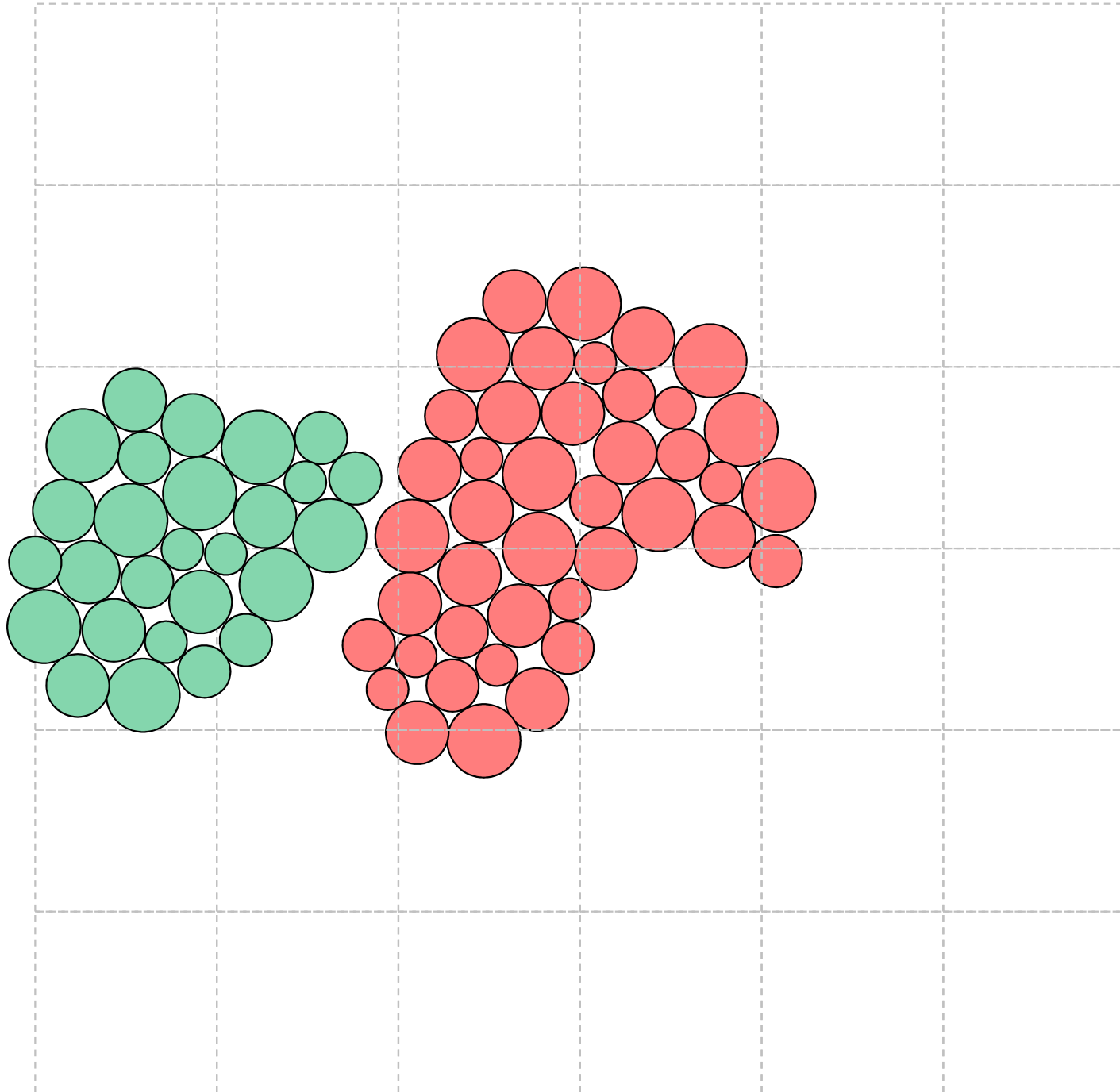
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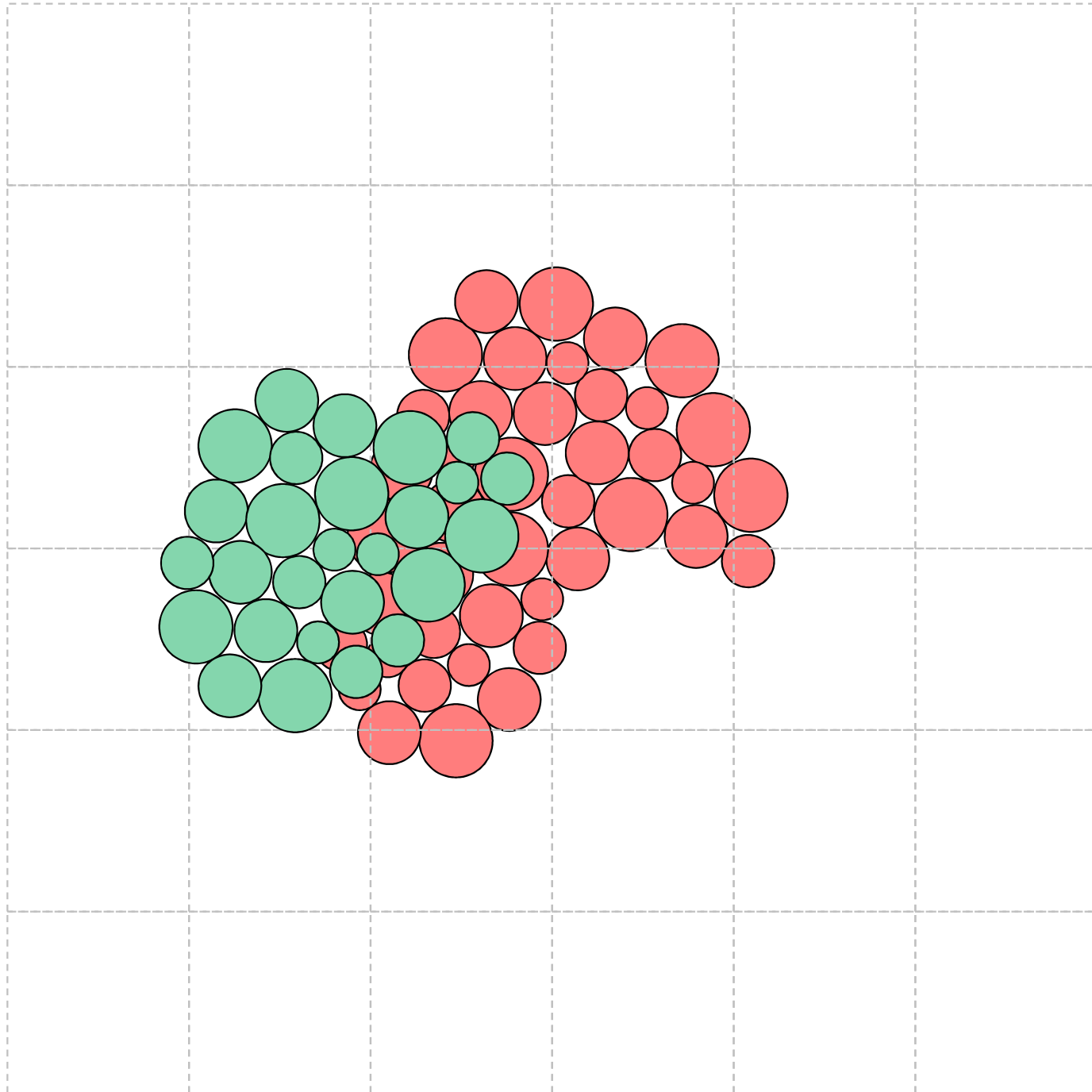
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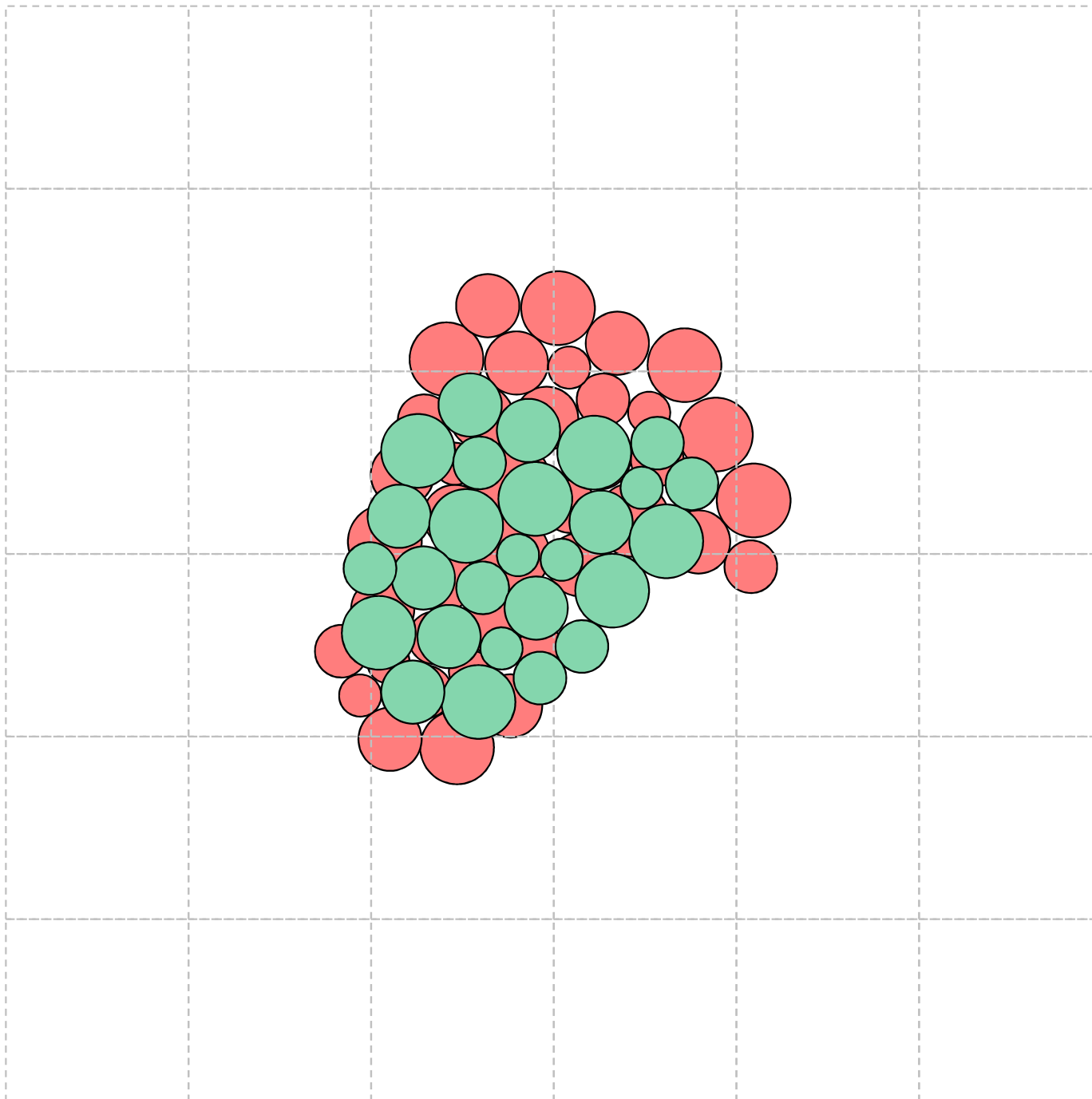
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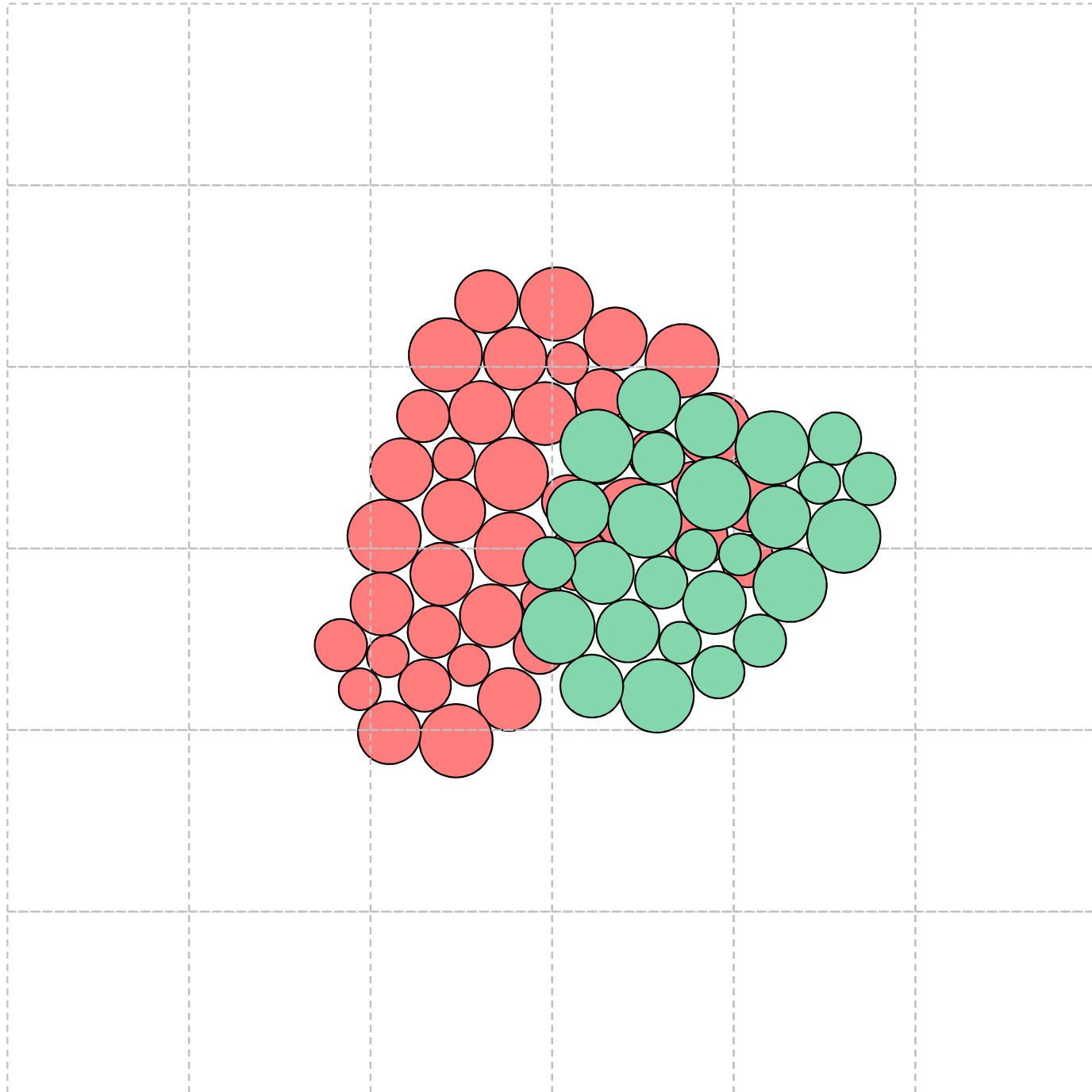
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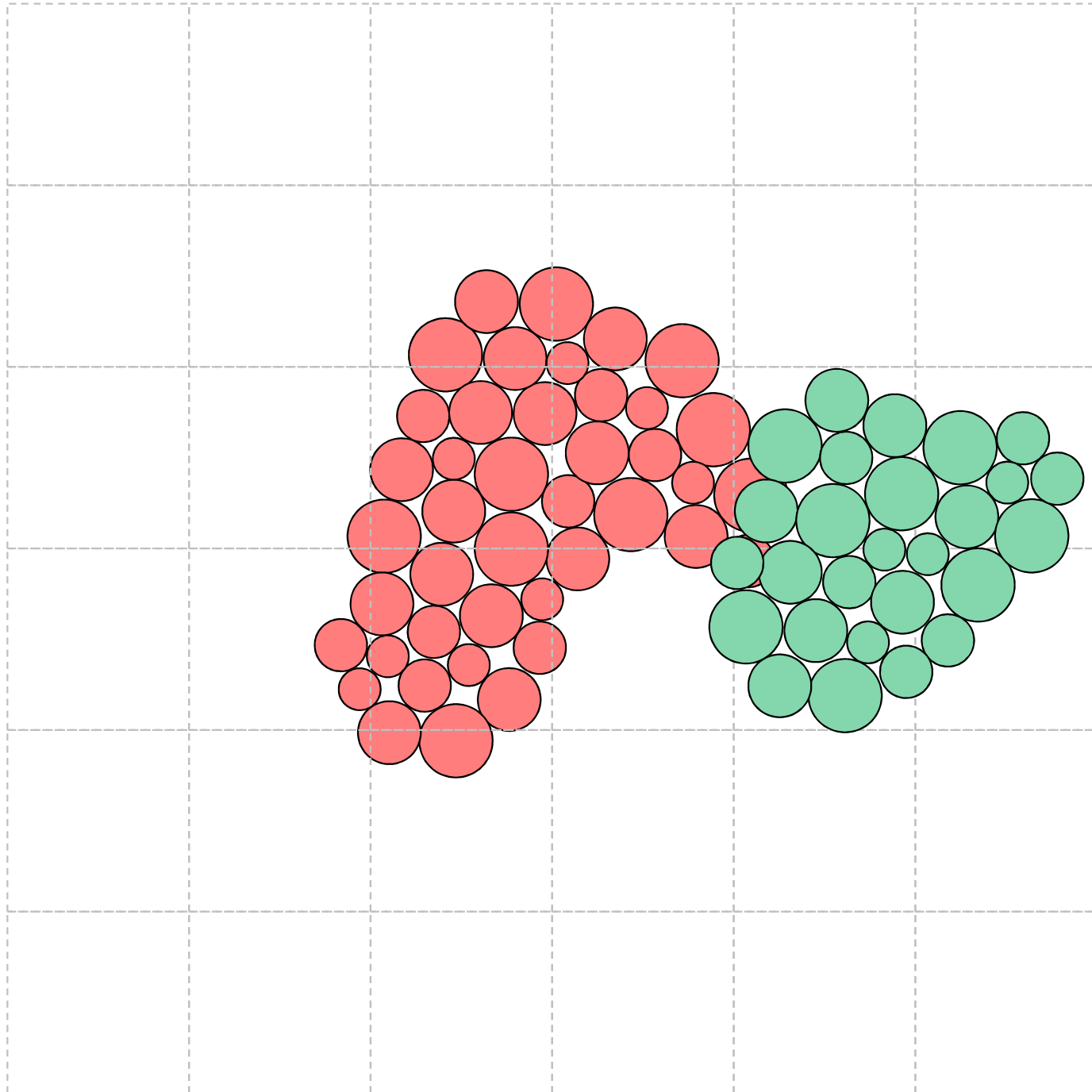
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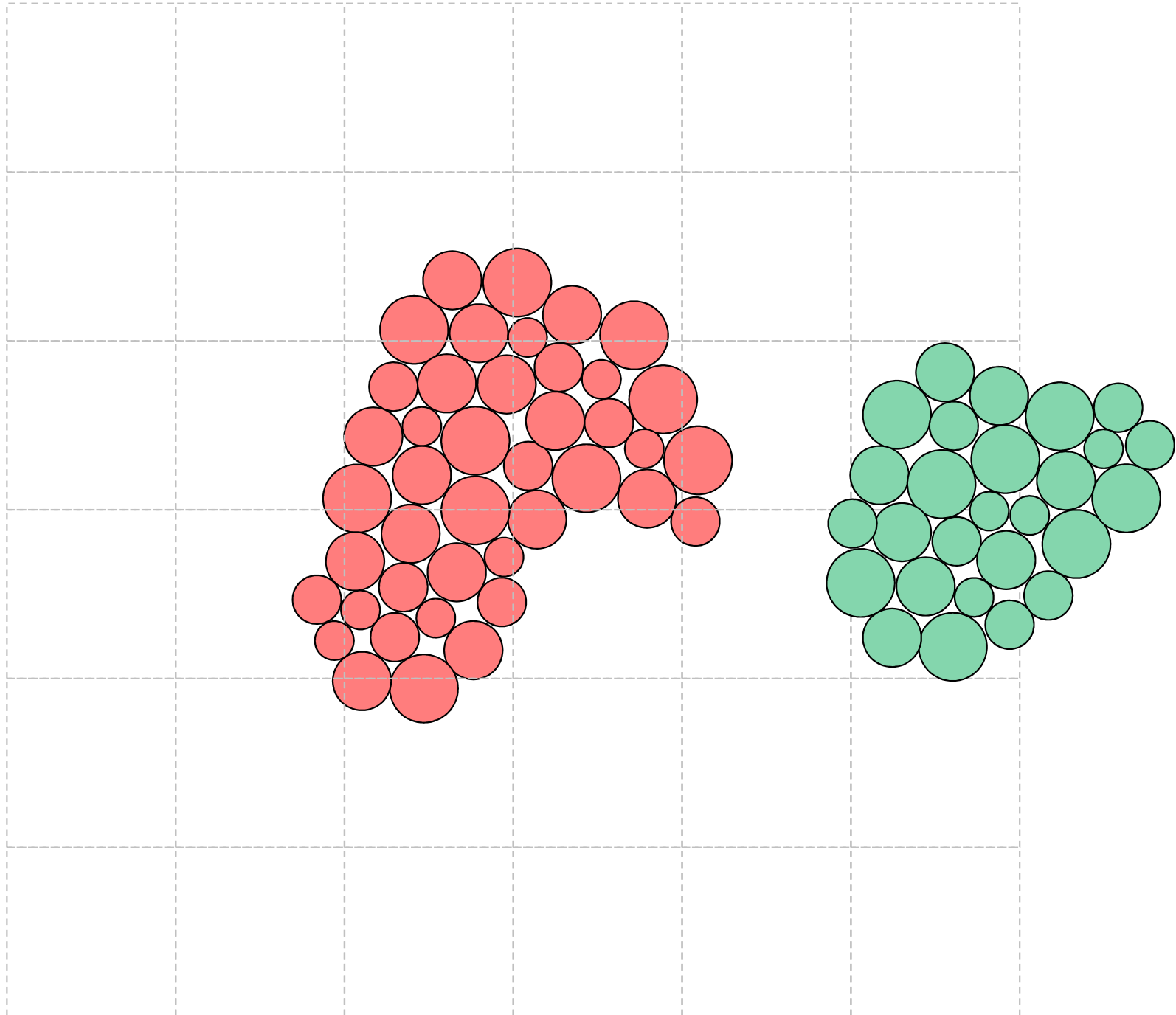
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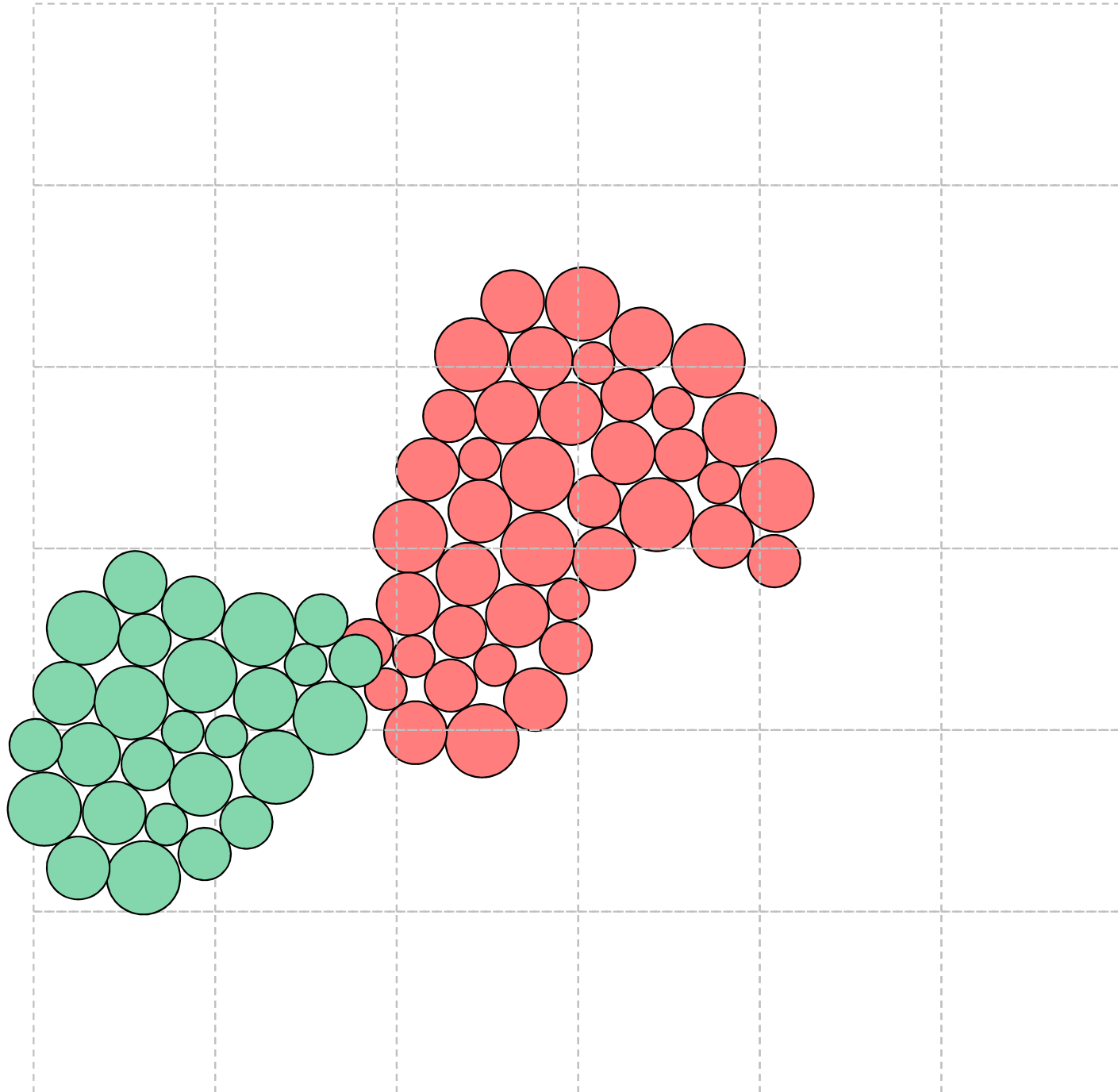
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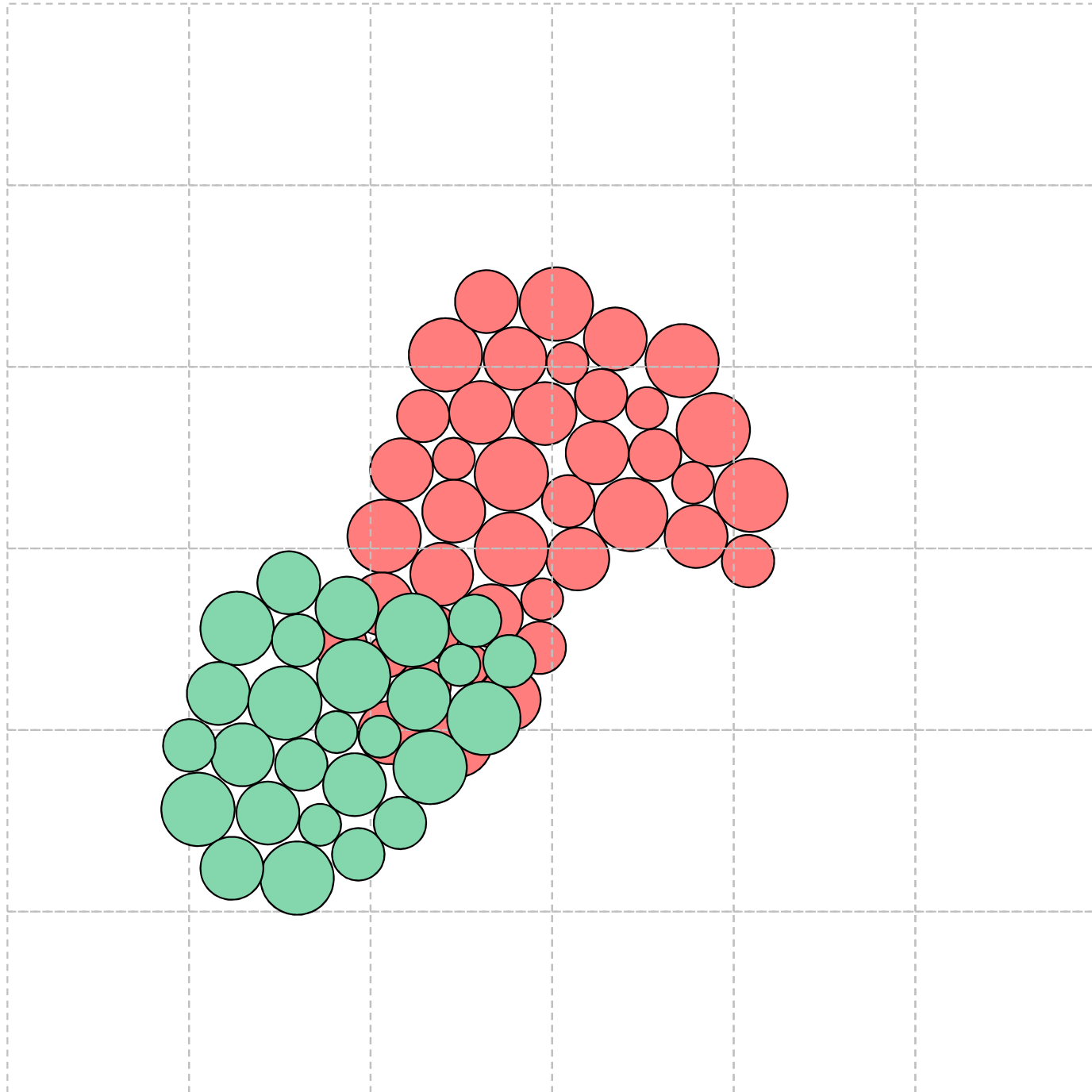
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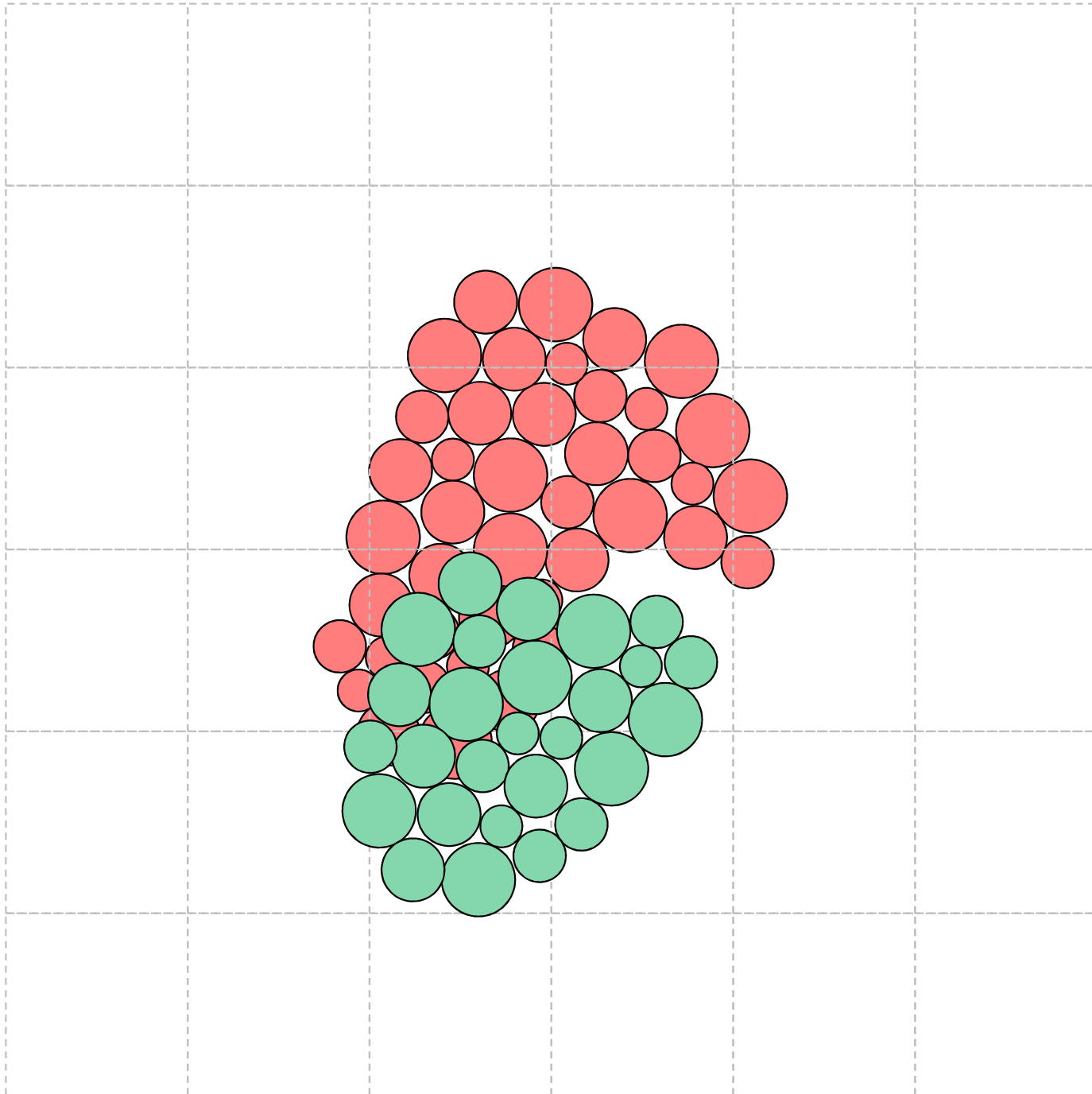
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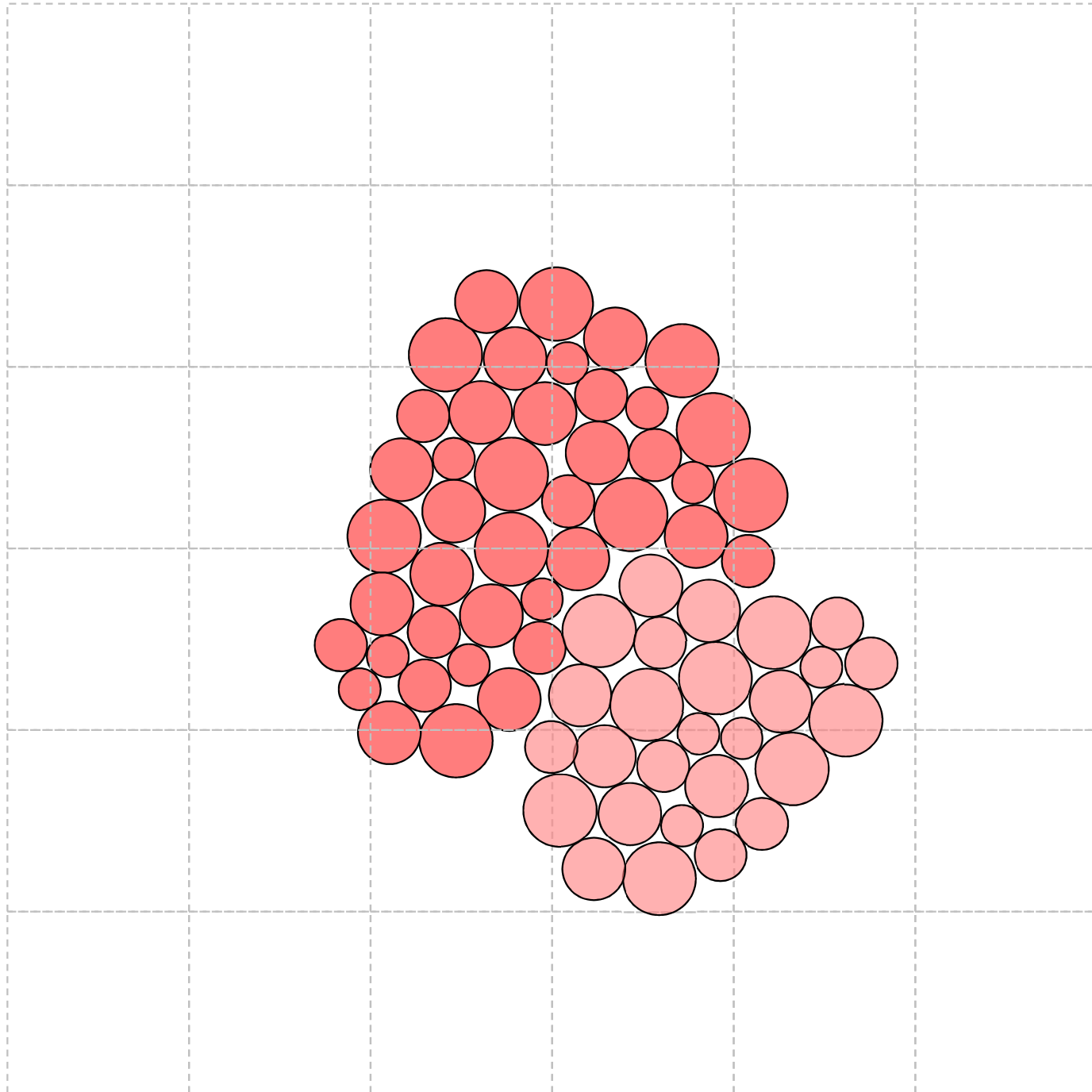
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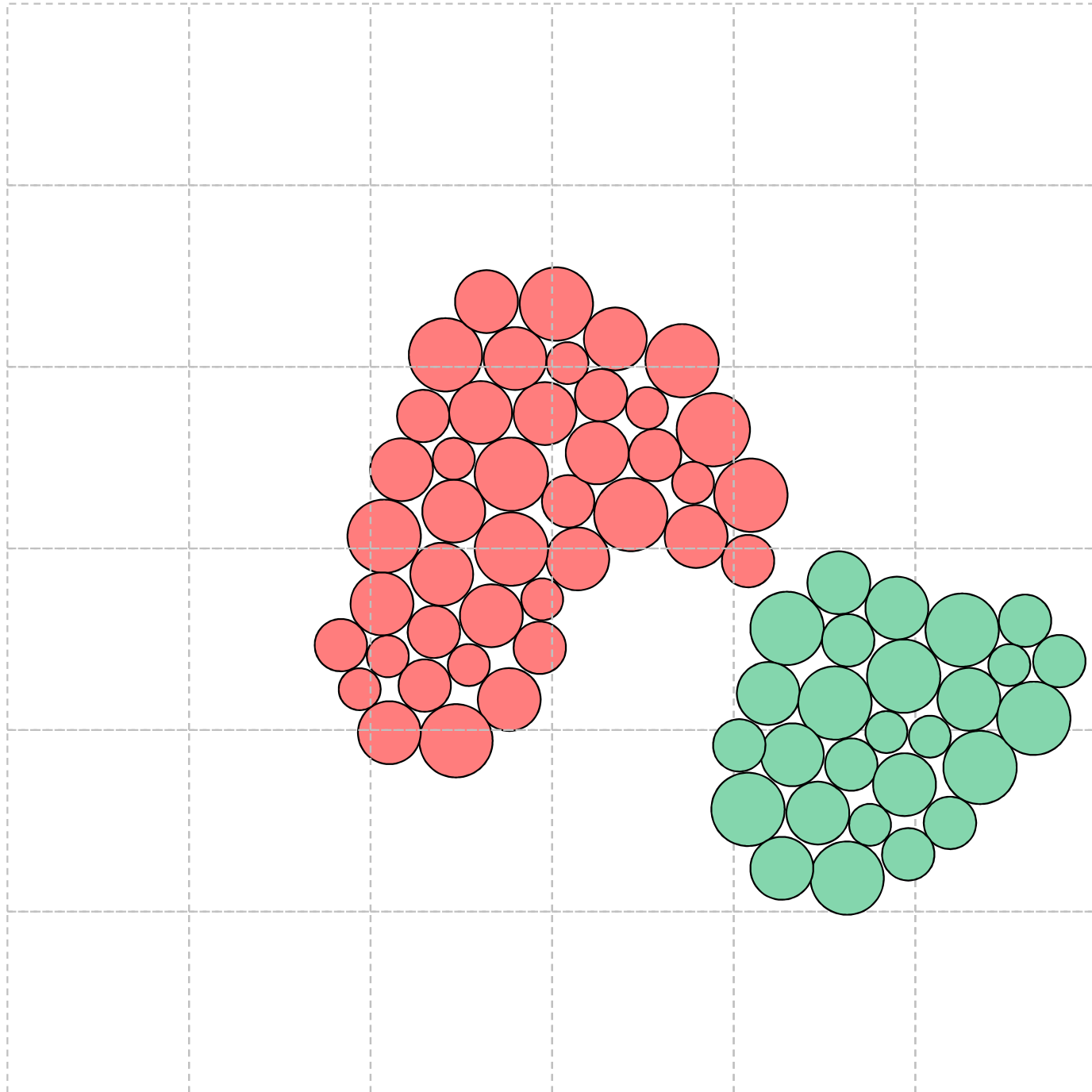
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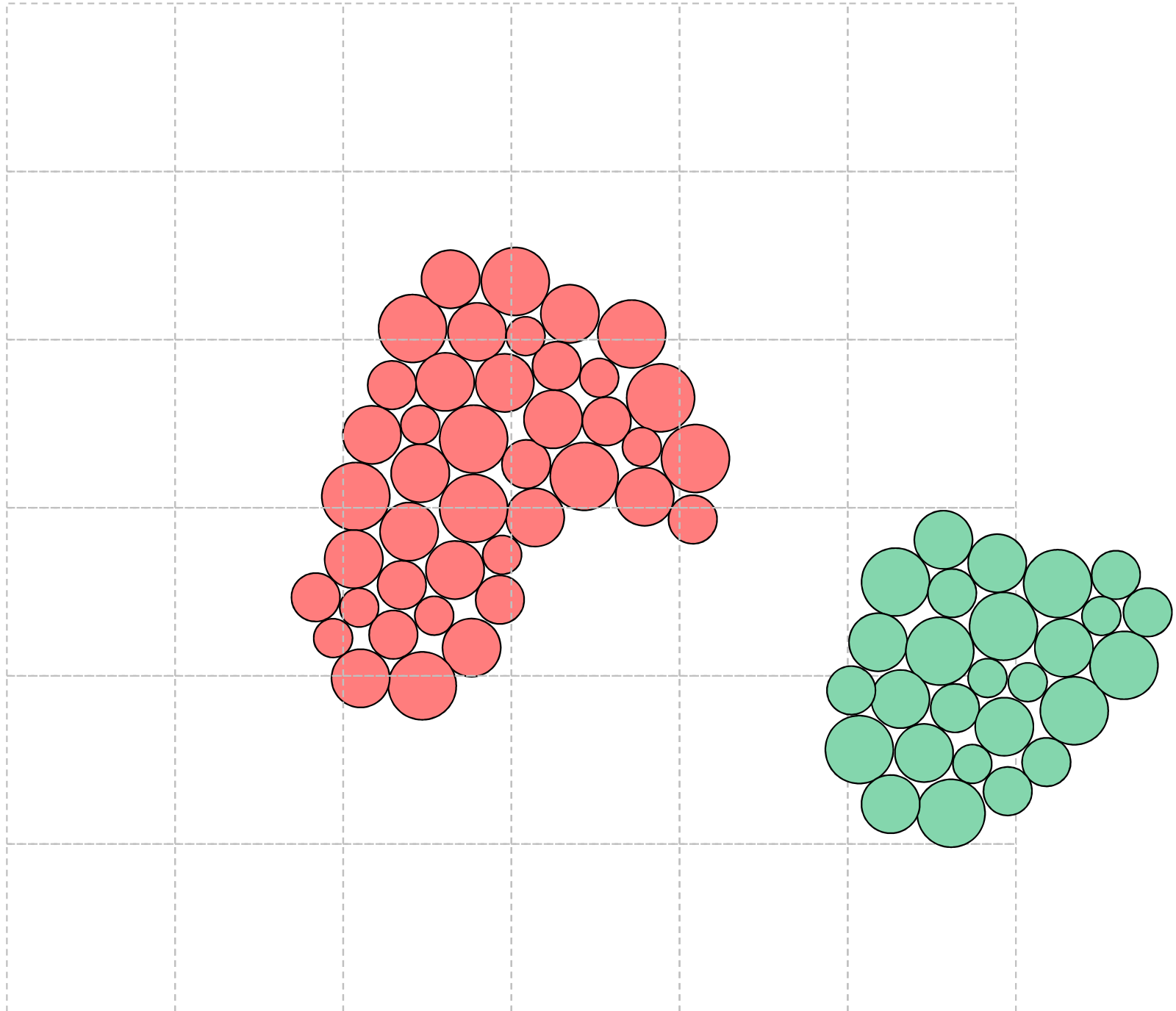
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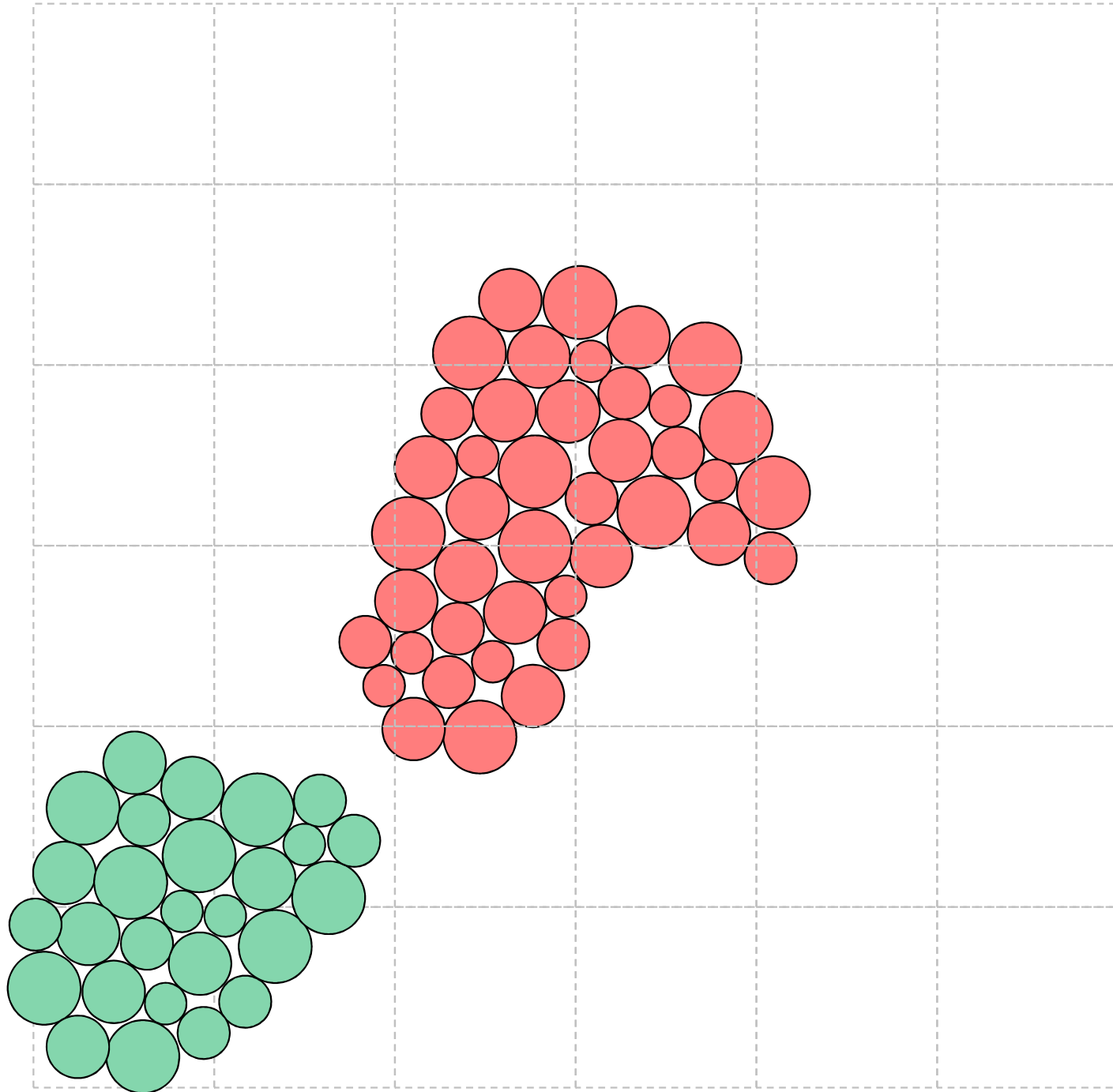
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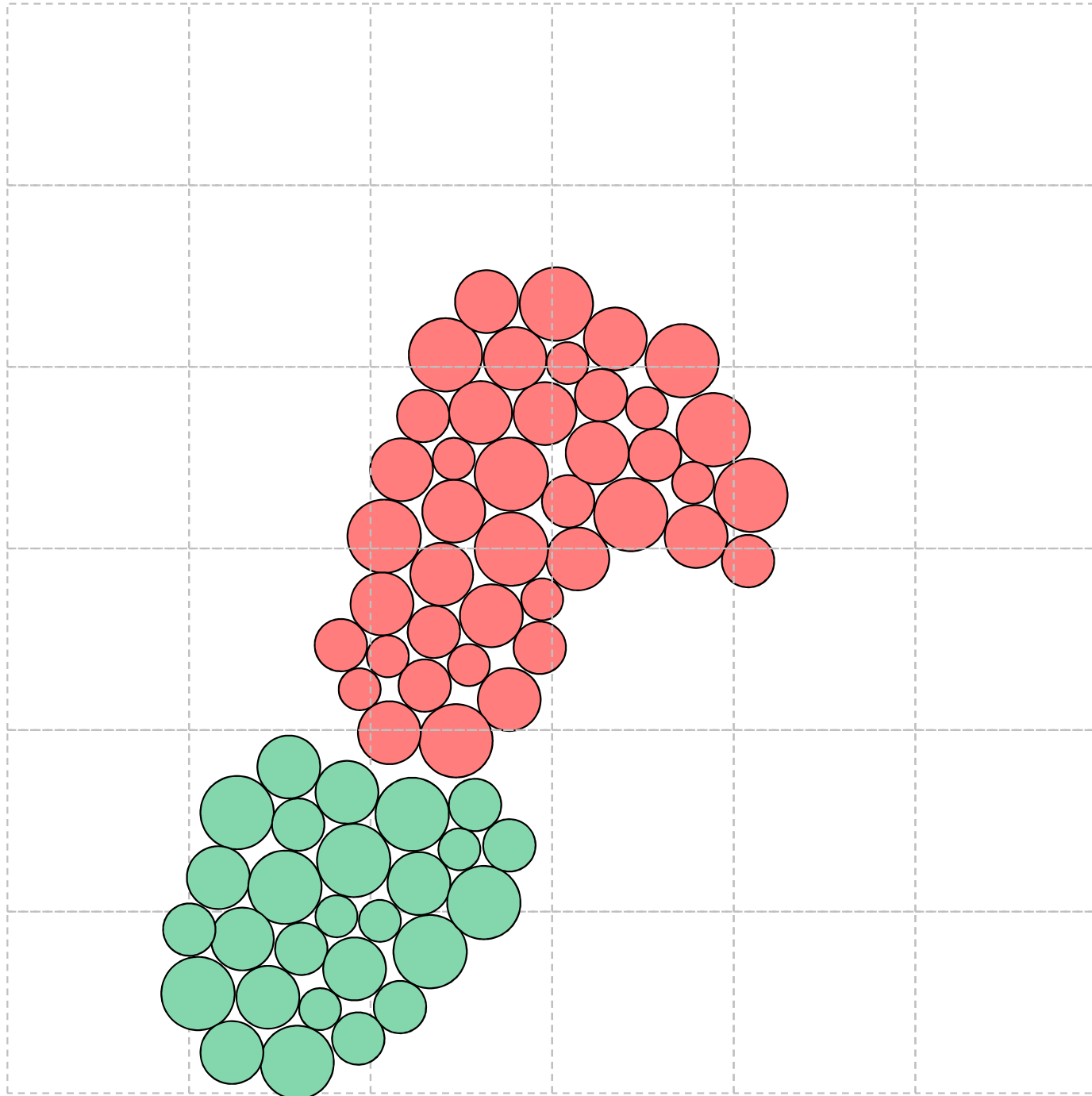
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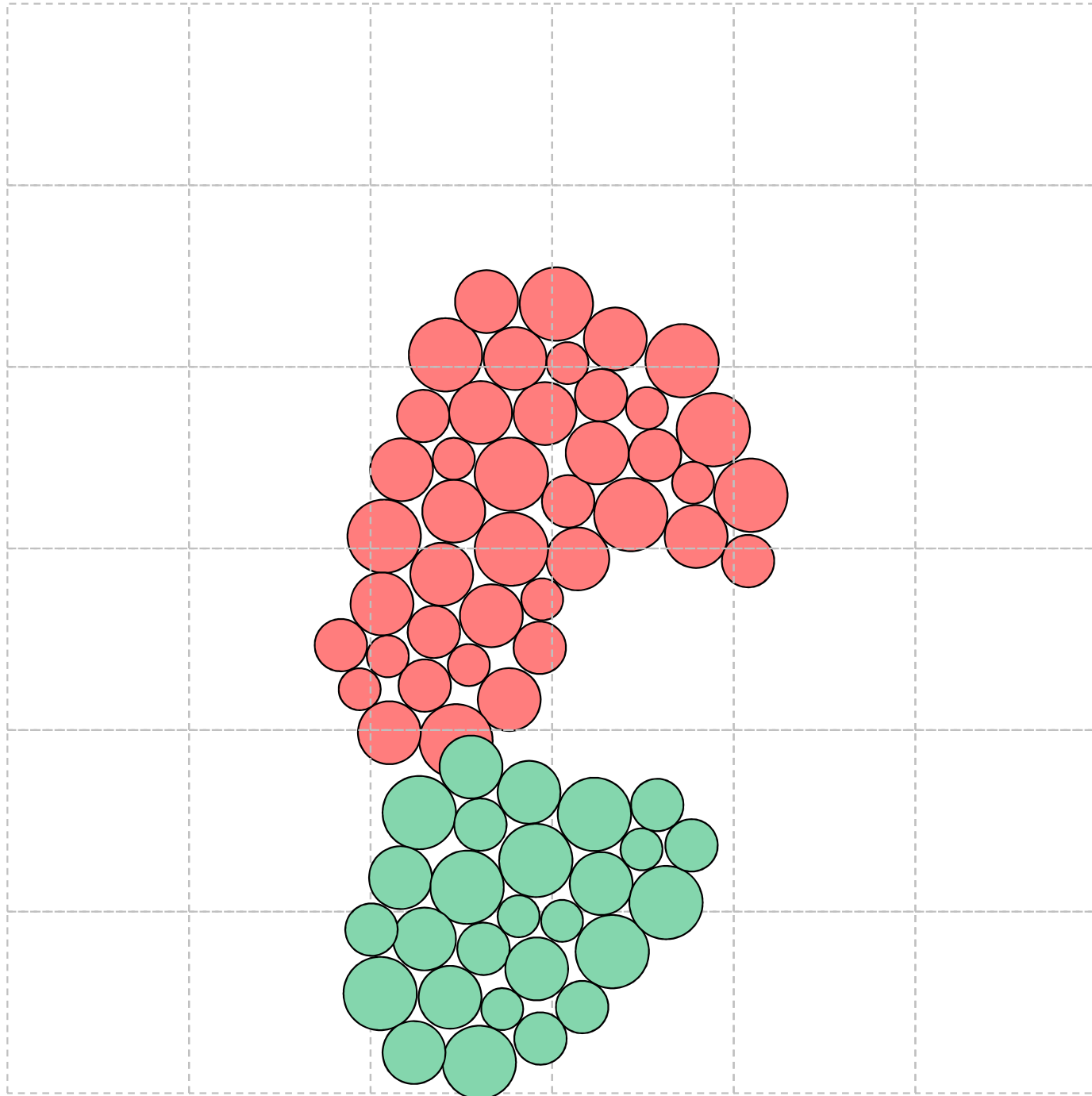
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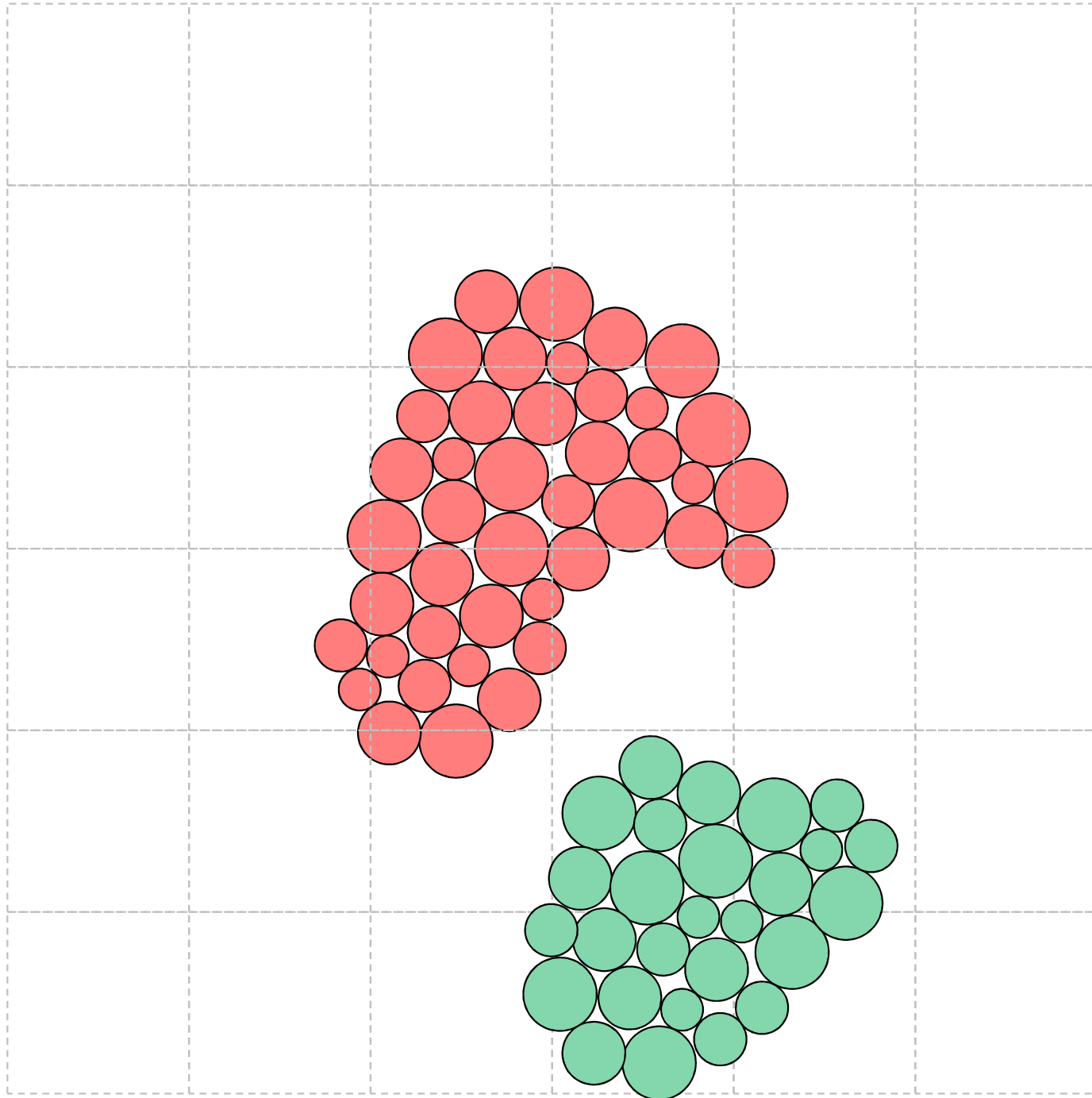
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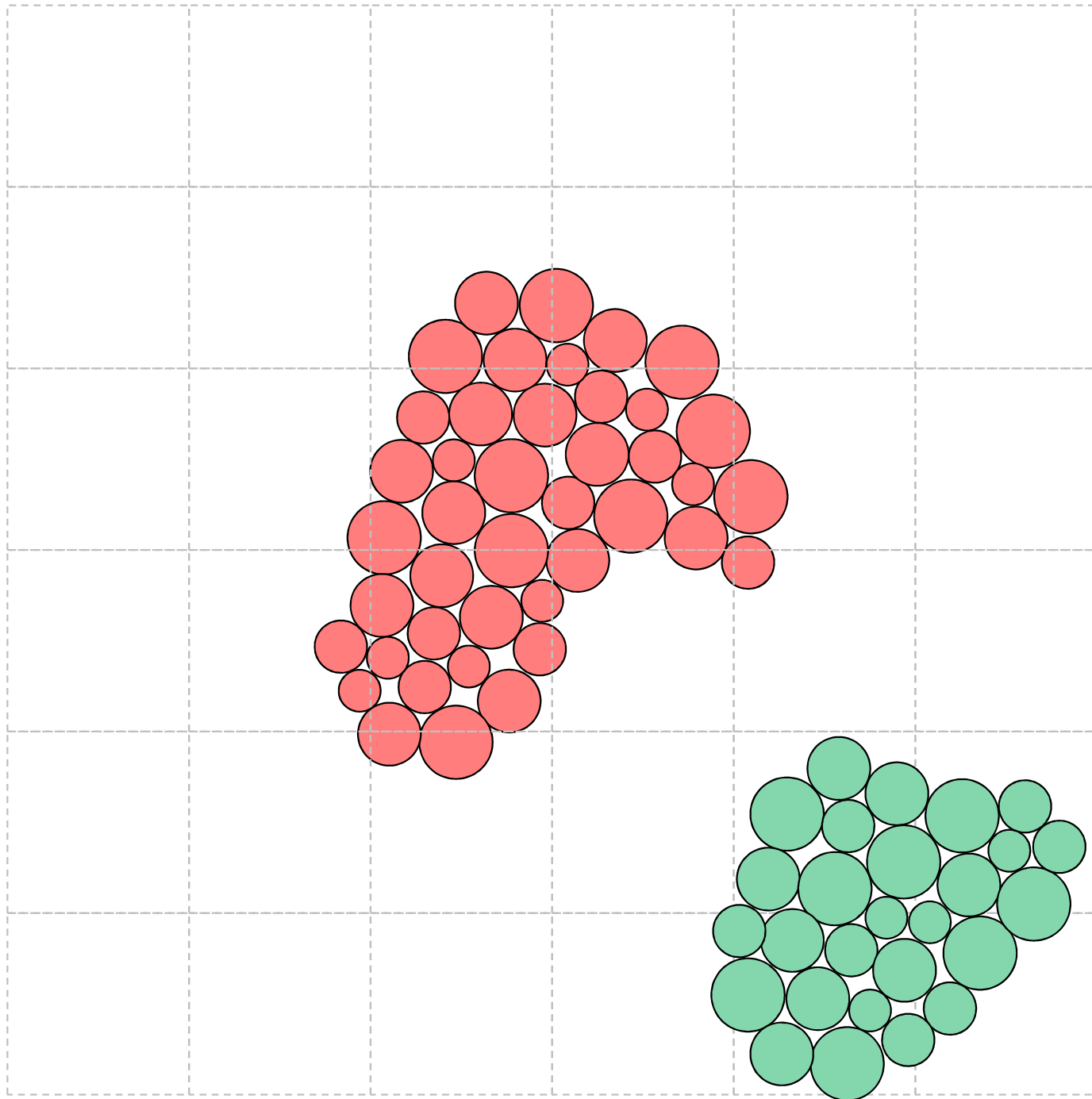
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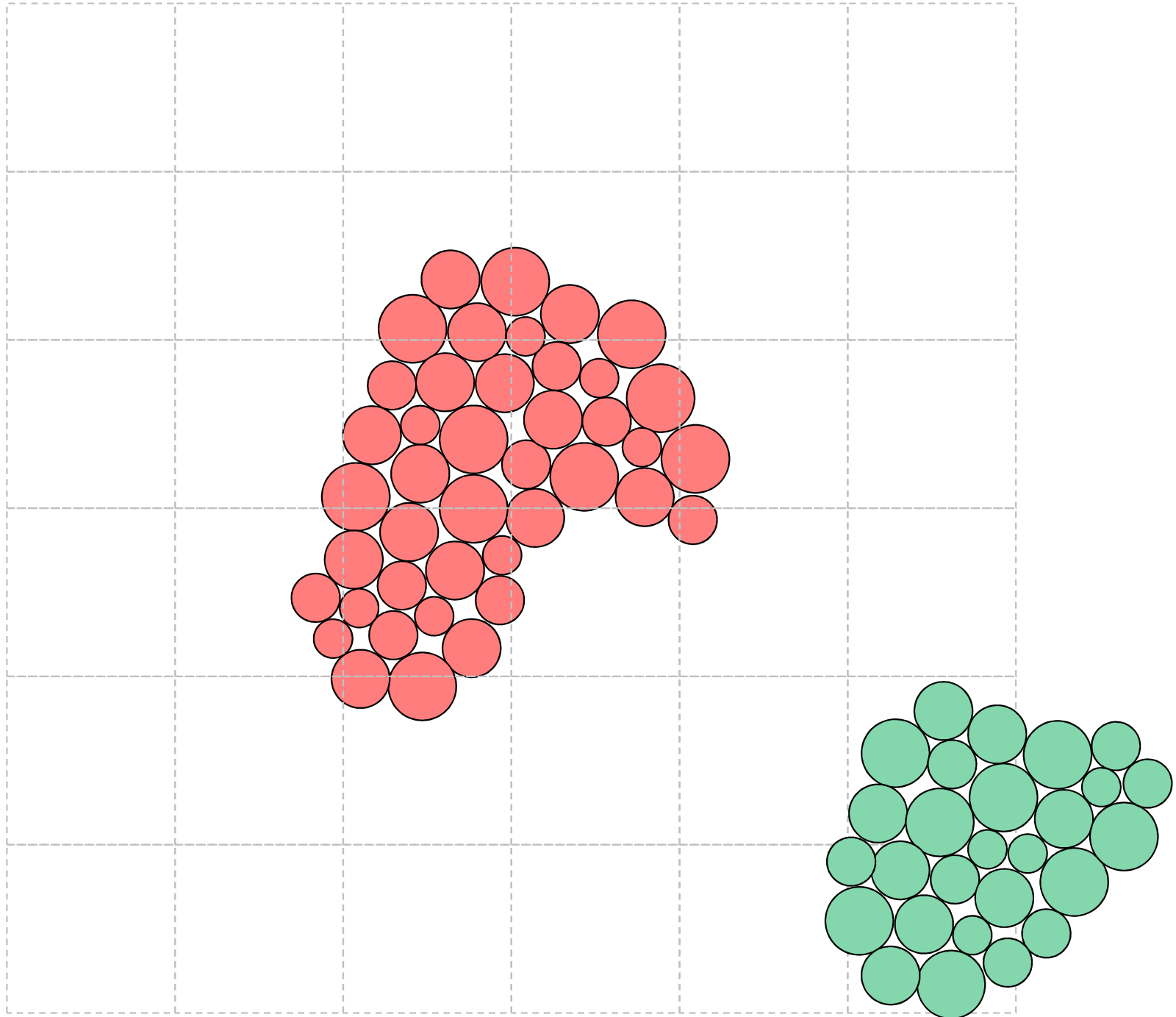
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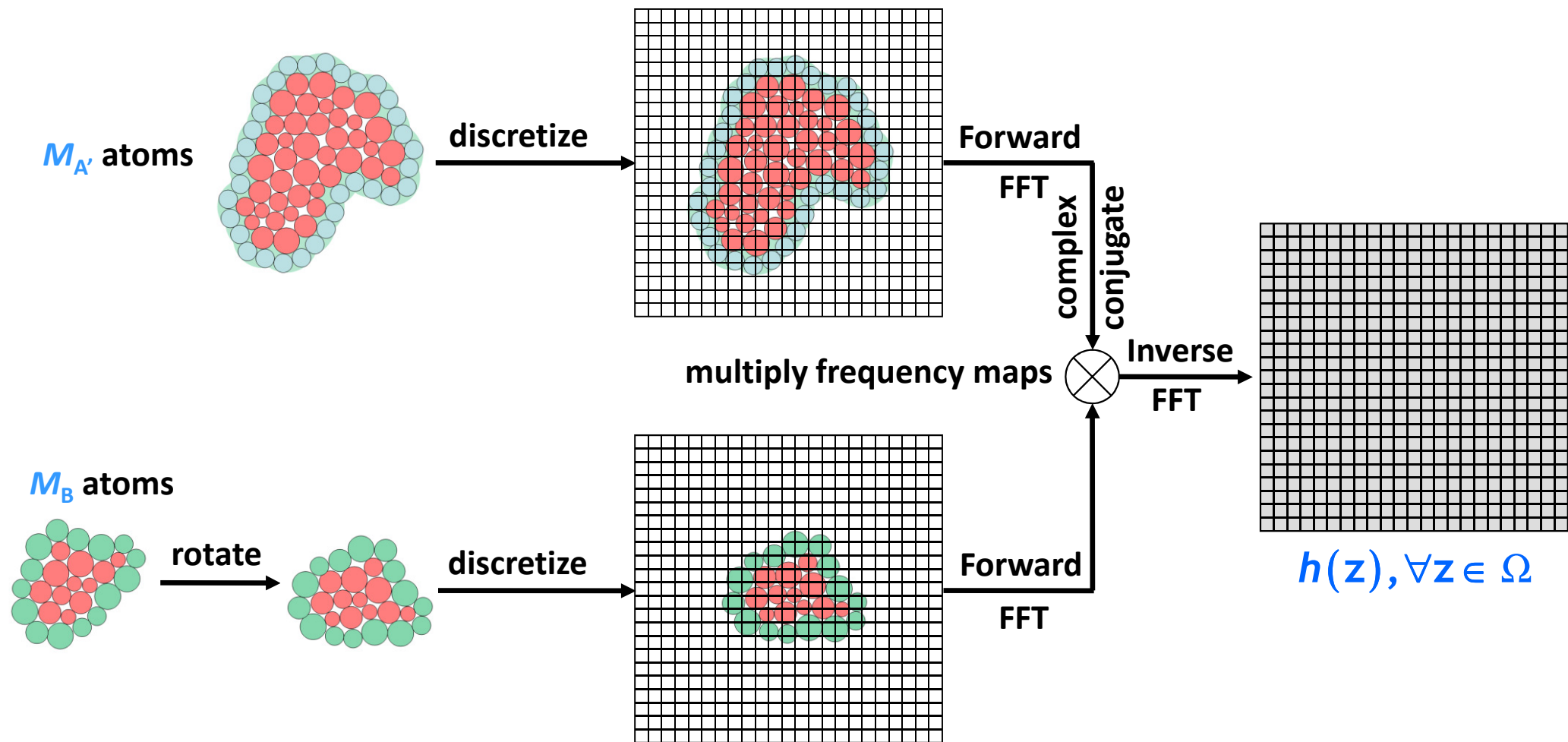
Docking: Rotational & Translational Search



Docking: Rotational & Translational Search



Translational Search using FFT



$$\forall z \in \Omega = [-n, n]^3, \quad h(z) = \int_{x \in \Omega} f_{A'}(x) f_{B_r}(z - x) dx$$