

The Discrete Fourier Transform

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Polynomials

The basics

A **polynomial** is an expression

$$P(X) = \sum_{i=0}^d a_i X^i$$

for some integer $d > 0$.

The degree of P is $\leq d$.

A word on the a_i

The a_i belong to a **field** K ,

for the time being we can think of $K = \mathbb{R}$ or $K = \mathbb{C}$.

Evaluation

For P a polynomial and $x \in K$, we can **evaluate** P at x :

$$P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^d a_i x^i$$

(addition and multiplication in K).

Computing $P(x)$

Computational complexity

The number of operations needed to compute $P(x)$:

- $d - 1$ multiplications to compute the x^i and
- another d multiplications and d additions to obtain $P(x)$.

A total of **$2d - 1$ multiplications and d additions**.

In practice, a multiplication is much more 'expensive' than an addition.

Another way of computing $P(x)$

We can do better!

In fact,

$$P(x) = a_0 + x(a_1 + x(a_2 + \cdots + x(a_{d-1} + xa_d))),$$

so starting from the innermost parenthesis we only need

d multiplications and d additions.

An improvement by a factor 2!

Addition ...

For two polynomials

$$P(X) = \sum_{i=0}^d a_i X^i \quad \text{and} \quad Q(X) = \sum_{i=0}^d b_i X^i,$$

the **sum** is

$$(P + Q)(X) = \sum_{i=0}^d (a_i + b_i) X^i.$$

It can be computed in just d additions.

The evaluation function associated to $P + Q$ is the sum of the functions defined by P and Q .

... and multiplication

The **product** PQ is

$$PQ(X) = \sum_{i=0}^{2d} c_i X^i,$$

where

$$c_i = \sum_{j=\max(0, i-d)}^{\min(i, d)} a_j b_{i-j}.$$

- This is a **convolution product**.
- The function associated to PQ is the product of the functions defined by P and Q .
- The degree of PQ may be $> d$, but is $\leq 2d$.

Computing PQ

Using the formula, c_i can be computed in $i + 1$ multiplications and i additions (for $i \leq d$) so the computation of PQ takes

$(d + 1)^2$ multiplications and d^2 additions.

NB. To compute $(PQ)(x)$ for $x \in K$, take $P(x)$ and $Q(x)$ and then multiply instead of first computing the polynomial PQ and then taking $(PQ)(x)$.

A silly idea?

Why not define a product

$$P * Q(X) = \sum_{i=0}^d (a_i b_i) X^i?$$

- Much easier to compute: $d + 1$ multiplications,
- but has **no meaning** in terms of functions.

Roots of unity

Assume that $d + 1 \neq 0$ (in K) and let $\zeta \in K$ be a primitive $(d + 1)$ th root of unity:

- $\zeta^{d+1} = 1$ but
- $\zeta^i \neq 1$ for $1 \leq i \leq d$.

We have:

- For $i = 0, \dots, d$, the ζ^i are the distinct $x \in K$ with $x^{d+1} = 1$.
- For $i = 1, \dots, d$:

$$\sum_{j=0}^d \zeta^{ij} = 0$$

The Discrete Fourier Transform

Definition

The **Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)** of P (of degree $\leq d$) is

$$\text{FD}_d(P) = \sum_{j=0}^d y_j X^{d-j}$$

where $y_j = P(\zeta^j)$.

The inverse of the DFT

Theorem

$$\text{FD}_d(P)(\zeta^k) = (d + 1) a_k \zeta^{-k}$$

so

$$\text{FD}_d(\text{FD}_d(P)) = (d + 1) X^d P \left(\frac{1}{\zeta X} \right).$$

(Which is indeed a polynomial!)

More properties of the DFT

- $\text{FD}_d \circ \text{FD}_d$ is bijective.
- Hence FD_d is bijective (on polynomials of degree $\leq d$).
- $(PQ)(\zeta^i) = P(\zeta^i)Q(\zeta^i)$ so $\text{FD}_d(PQ) = \text{FD}_d(P) * \text{FD}_d(Q)$.
- If $P = \text{FD}_d(\tilde{P})$ and $Q = \text{FD}_d(\tilde{Q})$ for \tilde{P}, \tilde{Q} of degree $\leq d/2$ then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{FD}_d(P * Q) &= \text{FD}_d(\text{FD}_d(\tilde{P}) * \text{FD}_d(\tilde{Q})) = \text{FD}_d(\text{FD}_d(\tilde{P}\tilde{Q})) = \\ &= (d+1)X^d \left(\tilde{P}\tilde{Q} \right) \left(\frac{1}{\zeta X} \right) = \frac{1}{(d+1)X^d} \text{FD}_d(P)\text{FD}_d(Q) \end{aligned}$$

Conclusion

A formula for PQ

For polynomials P, Q of degree $\leq d/2$

$$(PQ)(X) = \frac{X^d}{\zeta(d+1)} \text{FD}_d(\text{FD}_d(P) * \text{FD}_d(Q)) \left(\frac{1}{\zeta X} \right).$$

A useful algorithm?

- It takes d multiplications to compute $\text{FD}_d(P) * \text{FD}_d(Q)$,
- so everything depends on the complexity of FD_d ,
- but the obvious algorithm evaluates P for $d+1$ values so it takes $\frac{3}{2}(d^2 + d)$ multiplications...

A special case

From now on: $d+1 = 2^e$ is a power of 2.

Write $d' = (d-1)/2$ and

$$P^{(\text{even})}(X) = \sum_{i=0}^{d'} a_{2i} X^i \quad \text{and} \quad P^{(\text{odd})}(X) = \sum_{i=0}^{d'} a_{2i+1} X^i$$

so

$$P(X) = P^{(\text{even})}(X^2) + X P^{(\text{odd})}(X^2).$$

Fast Fourier Transform

Theorem

$$\begin{aligned} \text{FD}_d(P)(X) &= \\ X^{d'+1} &\left(\text{FD}_{d'}(P^{(\text{even})})(X) - \zeta^{-1} \text{FD}_{d'}(P^{(\text{odd})})(\zeta^{-1}X) \right) + \\ &\left(\text{FD}_{d'}(P^{(\text{even})})(X) + \zeta^{-1} \text{FD}_{d'}(P^{(\text{odd})})(\zeta^{-1}X) \right). \end{aligned}$$

So FD_d can be computed by induction!

Computing the FFT

- $M(d)$ = number of multiplications to compute $\text{FD}_d(P)$
(for P of degree d).
- By the theorem $M(d) = 2M(d') + d + 1$.
- Hence
 $M(d) = Cd \log d + \text{lower order terms}$
for some constant $C > 0$.
- Notation: $M(d) = \Theta(d \log d)$.

A useful algorithm!

Theorem

Using the Fast Fourier Transform, the formula

$$(PQ)(X) = \frac{X^d}{\zeta(d+1)} \text{FD}_d(\text{FD}_d(P) * \text{FD}_d(Q)) \left(\frac{1}{\zeta X} \right).$$

computes the product PQ in

$\Theta(d \log d)$ multiplications.

But in practice?

- For $K = \mathbb{C}$ we need floating point arithmetic, **that's not good**.
- For p a prime number, $\mathbb{F}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ is a field.
- \mathbb{F}_p contains a **primitive $(p-1)$ th root of unity**.
- Choose p such that **$p-1$ is divisible by a large power of 2**.
- For example

$$12289 = 3 \cdot 2^{12} + 1, \quad 40961 = 5 \cdot 2^{13} + 1, \quad 61441 = 15 \cdot 2^{12} + 1.$$

FFT with coefficients in \mathbb{F}_p

- Take p prime with **$p-1$ divisible by 2^e** .
- The multiplication algorithm applies to polynomials of **degree $< 2^{e-1}$ with coefficients in \mathbb{F}_p** .

Applications

- Error correcting codes
- Cryptography
- Integer arithmetic

Multiplication of integers

- Write integers in **base R** ,
for example $R = 2^{64}$ on a 64 bit processor.
- $N > 0$ is expressed as

$$N = a_0 + a_1R + \cdots + a_dR^d = P_N(R)$$

with $a_i \in \{0, \dots, R - 1\}$.

- Multiplying integers amounts to multiplying polynomials.
- Want to take $p > R$ and work with **coefficients in \mathbb{F}_p** .

Avoid pitfalls

- The coefficients of $P_N P_M$ may be $\geq R$ so:
 - Take $p \gg R$ such that the **coefficients stay $< p$** .
 - The coefficients are determined by their reduction modulo p .
 - **Treat carries** to obtain a valid representation in base R .
(Computationally easy.)
- Choose R close to the word-size of the computer.
- Best to have p within the word-size as well.
- But that is **too small** to get the necessary precision.

A final trick

- Use **several primes** p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k and start by computing PQ modulo p_1 , modulo p_2, \dots
- By the **Chinese Remainder Theorem** this determines PQ modulo the product $p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k$.
- For $p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k$ large enough this determines the **coefficients in \mathbb{Z}** .
- Can treat integers up to $R^{2^{e-1}-1}$,
think of $R = 2^{64}$ and $e = 12!$

This is **Pollard's method** for integer multiplication.

References

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