

CS711008Z Algorithm Design and Analysis

Lecture 5. FFT and Divide-and-Conquer ¹

Dongbo Bu

Institute of Computing Technology
Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China

¹The slides are prepared based on Lecture 35 of The Design and Analysis of Algorithms (by D. C. Kozen), Mathematical methods for physics (by Qiao Gu), and Chapter 5 of Algorithm Design (by J. Kleinburg and E. Tardos).

- DFT: evaluate a polynomial at n special points;
- FFT: an efficient implementation of DFT;
- Applications of FFT: multiplying two polynomials (and multiplying two n -bits integers); time-frequency transform; solving partial differential equations;
- Appendix: relationship between continuous and discrete Fourier transforms.

$$\omega^r \Rightarrow \frac{1}{n} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \bar{\omega}^1 & \dots & \bar{\omega}^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \bar{\omega}^2 & \dots & \vdots \\ 1 & \bar{\omega}^n & \dots & \bar{\omega}^{(n-1)^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$\bar{\omega}^i \Rightarrow \omega^i$ 的共轭

- DFT evaluates a polynomial $A(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}$ at n distinct points $1, \omega, \omega^2, \dots, \omega^{n-1}$, where $\omega = e^{-\frac{2\pi}{n}i}$ is the n -th complex root of unity.

- Thus, it transforms the complex vector a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1} into another complex vector y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1} , where $y_i = A(\omega^i)$, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} y_0 &= a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_{n-1} \\ y_1 &= a_0 + a_1\omega^1 + a_2\omega^2 + \dots + a_{n-1}\omega^{n-1} \\ \dots &\dots \dots \dots \dots \\ y_{n-1} &= a_0 + a_1\omega^{n-1} + a_2\omega^{2(n-1)} + \dots + a_{n-1}\omega^{(n-1)^2} \end{aligned}$$

- Matrix form:

$$y = W \cdot a \Rightarrow a = W^{-1}y \Rightarrow O(n^3)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega^1 & \omega^2 & \dots & \omega^{n-1} \\ 1 & \omega^2 & \omega^4 & \dots & \omega^{2(n-1)} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & \omega^{n-1} & \omega^{2(n-1)} & \dots & \omega^{(n-1)^2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

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FFT: a fast way to implement DFT [Cooley-Tukey 1965]

- Direct matrix-vector multiplication requires $O(n^2)$ operations when using the Horner's method, i.e.,
$$A(x) = a_0 + x(a_1 + x(a_2 + \dots + xa_{n-1})).$$
- FFT: reduce $O(n^2)$ to $O(n \log_2 n)$ using divide-and-conquer technique.
- How does FFT achieve this? Or what calculations are redundant in the direct matrix-vector multiplication approach?
- Note: The idea of FFT was proposed by Cooley and Tukey in 1965 when analyzing earth-quake data, but the idea can be dated back to F. Gauss.

Let's evaluate $A(x)$ at two special points first

- Consider evaluating a 7-degree polynomial $A(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_7x^7$ at two special points $1, -1$.
- **Divide:** Break the polynomial into even and odd terms, i.e.,
 - $A_{\text{even}}(x) = a_0 + a_2x + a_4x^2 + a_6x^3$
 - $A_{\text{odd}}(x) = a_1 + a_3x + a_5x^2 + a_7x^3$Then we have the following equations:
 - $A(x) = A_{\text{even}}(x^2) + xA_{\text{odd}}(x^2)$
 - $A(-x) = A_{\text{even}}(x^2) - xA_{\text{odd}}(x^2)$
- **Combine:** For two special points $1, -1$, we have
 - $A(1) = A_{\text{even}}(1) + A_{\text{odd}}(1)$
 - $A(-1) = A_{\text{even}}(1) - A_{\text{odd}}(1)$
- In other words, the values of $A(x)$ at **2 points** $1, -1$ can be calculated based on the values of $A_{\text{even}}(x), A_{\text{odd}}(x)$ at only **1 point**.

Let's evaluate $A(x)$ at four special points further

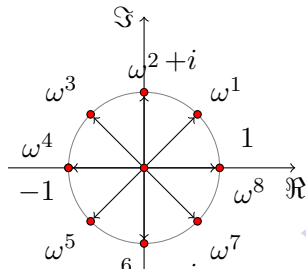
- Consider evaluating a 7-degree polynomial
 $A(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_7x^7$ at four special points
 $1, -i, -1, i$.
- **Divide:** Break the polynomial into even and odd terms, i.e.,
 - $A_{\text{even}}(x) = a_0 + a_2x + a_4x^2 + a_6x^3$
 - $A_{\text{odd}}(x) = a_1 + a_3x + a_5x^2 + a_7x^3$Then we have the following equations:
 - $A(x) = A_{\text{even}}(x^2) + xA_{\text{odd}}(x^2)$
 - $A(-x) = A_{\text{even}}(x^2) - xA_{\text{odd}}(x^2)$
- **Combine:** For 4 special points $1, -i, i, -1$, we have
 - $A(1) = A_{\text{even}}(1) + A_{\text{odd}}(1)$
 - $A(-i) = A_{\text{even}}(-1) - iA_{\text{odd}}(-1)$
 - $A(-1) = A_{\text{even}}(1) - A_{\text{odd}}(1)$
 - $A(i) = A_{\text{even}}(-1) + iA_{\text{odd}}(-1)$
- In other words, the values of $A(x)$ at **4 points** $1, -i, -1, i$ can be calculated based on the values of $A_{\text{even}}(x), A_{\text{odd}}(x)$ at **2 points** $1, -1$.

```
FFT( $n, a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}$ )
1: if  $n == 1$  then
2:   return  $a_0$  ;
3: end if
4:  $(E_0, E_1, \dots, E_{\frac{n}{2}-1}) = \text{FFT}(\frac{n}{2}, a_0, a_2, \dots, a_n);$ 
5:  $(O_0, O_1, \dots, O_{\frac{n}{2}-1}) = \text{FFT}(\frac{n}{2}, a_1, a_3, \dots, a_{n-1});$ 
6: for  $k = 0$  to  $\frac{n}{2} - 1$  do
7:    $\omega^k = e^{\frac{2\pi}{n}ki};$ 
8:    $y_k = E_k + \omega^k O_k;$ 
9:    $y_{\frac{n}{2}+k} = E_k - \omega^k O_k;$ 
10: end for
11: return  $(y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1})$  ;
```

An example: $n = 8$

$$\begin{array}{rclclclcl}
 y_0 & = & a_0 & + & a_1 & + & a_2 & + & a_3 & + & a_4 & + & a_5 & + & a_6 & + & a_7 \\
 y_1 & = & a_0 & + & a_1\omega^1 & + & a_2\omega^2 & + & a_3\omega^3 & + & a_4\omega^4 & + & a_5\omega^5 & + & a_6\omega^6 & + & a_7\omega^7 \\
 y_2 & = & a_0 & + & a_1\omega^2 & + & a_2\omega^4 & + & a_3\omega^6 & + & a_4\omega^8 & + & a_5\omega^{10} & + & a_6\omega^{12} & + & a_7\omega^{14} \\
 y_3 & = & a_0 & + & a_1\omega^3 & + & a_2\omega^6 & + & a_3\omega^9 & + & a_4\omega^{12} & + & a_5\omega^{15} & + & a_6\omega^{18} & + & a_7\omega^{21} \\
 y_4 & = & a_0 & + & a_1\omega^4 & + & a_2 & + & a_3\omega^{12} & + & a_4\omega^{16} & + & a_5\omega^{20} & + & a_6\omega^{24} & + & a_7\omega^{28} \\
 y_5 & = & a_0 & + & a_1\omega^5 & + & a_2\omega^{10} & + & a_3\omega^{15} & + & a_4\omega^{20} & + & a_5\omega^{25} & + & a_6\omega^{30} & + & a_7\omega^{35} \\
 y_6 & = & a_0 & + & a_1\omega^6 & + & a_2\omega^{12} & + & a_3\omega^{18} & + & a_4\omega^{24} & + & a_5\omega^{30} & + & a_6\omega^{36} & + & a_7\omega^{42} \\
 y_7 & = & a_0 & + & a_1\omega^7 & + & a_2\omega^{14} & + & a_3\omega^{21} & + & a_4\omega^{28} & + & a_5\omega^{35} & + & a_6\omega^{42} & + & a_7\omega^{49}
 \end{array}$$

- Objective: Evaluate $A(x)$ at 8 points: $1, \omega, \omega^2, \dots, \omega^7$, where $\omega = e^{\frac{1}{8}2\pi i}$.



Step 1: Simplification

$$\begin{array}{rclclclcl} y_0 & = & a_0 & + & a_1 & + & a_2 & + & a_3 & + & a_4 & + & a_5 & + & a_6 & + & a_7 \\ y_1 & = & a_0 & + & a_1\omega^1 & + & a_2\omega^2 & + & a_3\omega^3 & + & a_4\omega^4 & + & a_5\omega^5 & + & a_6\omega^6 & + & a_7\omega^7 \\ y_2 & = & a_0 & + & a_1\omega^2 & + & a_2\omega^4 & + & a_3\omega^6 & + & a_4 & + & a_5\omega^2 & + & a_6\omega^4 & + & a_7\omega^6 \\ y_3 & = & a_0 & + & a_1\omega^3 & + & a_2\omega^6 & + & a_3\omega^1 & + & a_4\omega^4 & + & a_5\omega^7 & + & a_6\omega^2 & + & a_7\omega^5 \\ y_4 & = & a_0 & + & a_1\omega^4 & + & a_2\omega^8 & + & a_3\omega^4 & + & a_4 & + & a_5\omega^4 & + & a_6 & + & a_7\omega^4 \\ y_5 & = & a_0 & + & a_1\omega^5 & + & a_2\omega^2 & + & a_3\omega^7 & + & a_4\omega^4 & + & a_5\omega^1 & + & a_6\omega^6 & + & a_7\omega^3 \\ y_6 & = & a_0 & + & a_1\omega^6 & + & a_2\omega^4 & + & a_3\omega^2 & + & a_4 & + & a_5\omega^6 & + & a_6\omega^4 & + & a_7\omega^2 \\ y_7 & = & a_0 & + & a_1\omega^7 & + & a_2\omega^6 & + & a_3\omega^5 & + & a_4\omega^4 & + & a_5\omega^3 & + & a_6\omega^2 & + & a_7\omega^1 \end{array}$$

Step 2. Divide into odd- and even-terms

$$\begin{aligned}y_0 &= a_0 & + a_4 & + a_2 & + a_6 & + a_1 & + a_5 & + a_3 & + a_7 \\y_1 &= a_0 & + a_4\omega^4 & + a_2\omega^2 & + a_6\omega^6 & + a_1\omega^1 & + a_5\omega^5 & + a_3\omega^3 & + a_7\omega^7 \\y_2 &= a_0 & + a_4 & + a_2\omega^4 & + a_6\omega^4 & + a_1\omega^2 & + a_5\omega^2 & + a_3\omega^6 & + a_7\omega^6 \\y_3 &= a_0 & + a_4\omega^4 & + a_2\omega^6 & + a_6\omega^2 & + a_1\omega^3 & + a_5\omega^7 & + a_3\omega^1 & + a_7\omega^5 \\y_4 &= a_0 & + a_4 & + a_2 & + a_6 & + a_1\omega^4 & + a_5\omega^4 & + a_3\omega^4 & + a_7\omega^4 \\y_5 &= a_0 & + a_4\omega^4 & + a_2\omega^2 & + a_6\omega^6 & + a_1\omega^5 & + a_5\omega^1 & + a_3\omega^7 & + a_7\omega^3 \\y_6 &= a_0 & + a_4 & + a_2\omega^4 & + a_6\omega^4 & + a_1\omega^6 & + a_5\omega^6 & + a_3\omega^2 & + a_7\omega^2 \\y_7 &= a_0 & + a_4\omega^4 & + a_2\omega^6 & + a_6\omega^2 & + a_1\omega^7 & + a_5\omega^3 & + a_3\omega^5 & + a_7\omega^1\end{aligned}$$

The specific order of these terms will be explained later.

Key observation: redundant calculations

$$\begin{array}{lcl} y_0 = & a_0 + a_4 + a_2 + a_6 & + a_1 + a_5 + a_3 + a_7 \\ y_1 = & a_0 + a_4\omega^4 + a_2\omega^2 + a_6\omega^6 & + a_1\omega^1 + a_5\omega^5 + a_3\omega^3 + a_7\omega^7 \\ y_2 = & a_0 + a_4 + a_2\omega^4 + a_6\omega^4 & + a_1\omega^2 + a_5\omega^2 + a_3\omega^6 + a_7\omega^6 \\ y_3 = & a_0 + a_4\omega^4 + a_2\omega^6 + a_6\omega^2 & + a_1\omega^3 + a_5\omega^7 + a_3\omega^1 + a_7\omega^5 \\ y_4 = & a_0 + a_4 + a_2 + a_6 & + a_1\omega^4 + a_5\omega^4 + a_3\omega^4 + a_7\omega^4 \\ y_5 = & a_0 + a_4\omega^4 + a_2\omega^2 + a_6\omega^6 & + a_1\omega^5 + a_5\omega^1 + a_3\omega^7 + a_7\omega^3 \\ y_6 = & a_0 + a_4 + a_2\omega^4 + a_6\omega^4 & + a_1\omega^6 + a_5\omega^6 + a_3\omega^2 + a_7\omega^2 \\ y_7 = & a_0 + a_4\omega^4 + a_2\omega^6 + a_6\omega^2 & + a_1\omega^7 + a_5\omega^3 + a_3\omega^5 + a_7\omega^1 \end{array}$$

Note: the calculations in the two red frames are the same; and the two calculations in the blue frames are also identical after multiplying by ω^4 .

Step 3: Divide-and-conquer

$$\begin{array}{rclclclcl}
 y_0 & = & a_0 & + & a_4 & + & a_2 & + & a_6 & + & a_1 & + & a_5 & + & a_3 & + & a_7 \\
 y_1 & = & a_0 & + & a_4\omega^4 & + & a_2\omega^2 & + & a_6\omega^6 & + & a_1\omega^1 & + & a_5\omega^5 & + & a_3\omega^3 & + & a_7\omega^7 \\
 y_2 & = & a_0 & + & a_4 & + & a_2\omega^4 & + & a_6\omega^4 & + & a_1\omega^2 & + & a_5\omega^2 & + & a_3\omega^6 & + & a_7\omega^6 \\
 y_3 & = & a_0 & + & a_4\omega^4 & + & a_2\omega^6 & + & a_6\omega^2 & + & a_1\omega^3 & + & a_5\omega^7 & + & a_3\omega^1 & + & a_7\omega^5 \\
 y_4 & = & a_0 & + & a_4 & + & a_2 & + & a_6 & + & a_1\omega^4 & + & a_5\omega^4 & + & a_3\omega^4 & + & a_7\omega^4 \\
 y_5 & = & a_0 & + & a_4\omega^4 & + & a_2\omega^2 & + & a_6\omega^6 & + & a_1\omega^5 & + & a_5\omega^1 & + & a_3\omega^7 & + & a_7\omega^3 \\
 y_6 & = & a_0 & + & a_4 & + & a_2\omega^4 & + & a_6\omega^4 & + & a_1\omega^6 & + & a_5\omega^6 & + & a_3\omega^2 & + & a_7\omega^2 \\
 y_7 & = & a_0 & + & a_4\omega^4 & + & a_2\omega^6 & + & a_6\omega^2 & + & a_1\omega^7 & + & a_5\omega^3 & + & a_3\omega^5 & + & a_7\omega^1
 \end{array}$$

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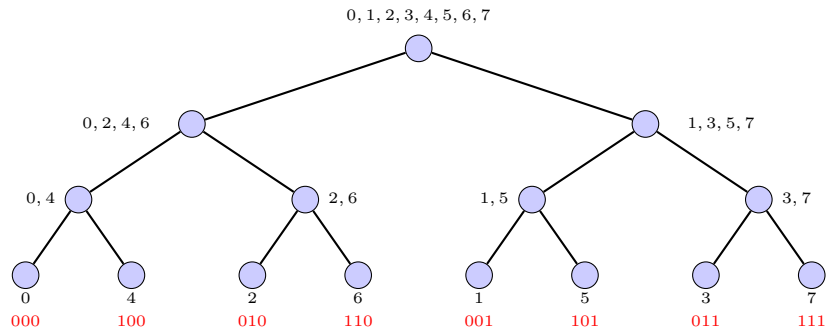
Note: the calculations in the top-left and bottom-right frames are redundant.

Step 3: divide-and-conquer

$$\begin{array}{rcll} y_0 = & a_0 & + a_4 & + a_2 & + a_6 & + a_1 & + a_5 & + a_3 & + a_7 \\ y_1 = & a_0 & + a_4\omega^4 & + a_2\omega^2 & + a_6\omega^6 & + a_1\omega^1 & + a_5\omega^5 & + a_3\omega^3 & + a_7\omega^7 \\ y_2 = & a_0 & + a_4 & + a_2\omega^4 & + a_6\omega^4 & + a_1\omega^2 & + a_5\omega^2 & + a_3\omega^6 & + a_7\omega^6 \\ y_3 = & a_0 & + a_4\omega^4 & + a_2\omega^6 & + a_6\omega^2 & + a_1\omega^3 & + a_5\omega^7 & + a_3\omega^1 & + a_7\omega^5 \\ y_4 = & a_0 & + a_4 & + a_2 & + a_6 & + a_1\omega^4 & + a_5\omega^4 & + a_3\omega^4 & + a_7\omega^4 \\ y_5 = & a_0 & + a_4\omega^4 & + a_2\omega^2 & + a_6\omega^6 & + a_1\omega^5 & + a_5\omega^1 & + a_3\omega^7 & + a_7\omega^3 \\ y_6 = & a_0 & + a_4 & + a_2\omega^4 & + a_6\omega^4 & + a_1\omega^6 & + a_5\omega^6 & + a_3\omega^2 & + a_7\omega^2 \\ y_7 = & a_0 & + a_4\omega^4 & + a_2\omega^6 & + a_6\omega^2 & + a_1\omega^7 & + a_5\omega^3 & + a_3\omega^5 & + a_7\omega^1 \end{array}$$

Finally, we need only $2 + 4 + 2 + 8 + 2 + 4 + 2 = 8 \times \log 8$ calculations.

The final order



- Inverse Discrete Fourier Transform: to determine coefficients of a polynomial a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1} based on n point-value pairs $(1, y_0), (\omega, y_1), \dots, (\omega^{n-1}, y_{n-1})$, where $y_i = A(\omega^i)$, and $A(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}$.
- Matrix form

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega^1 & \omega^2 & \dots & \omega^{n-1} \\ 1 & \omega^2 & \omega^4 & \dots & \omega^{2(n-1)} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & \omega^{n-1} & \omega^{2(n-1)} & \dots & \omega^{(n-1)^2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

- It takes $O(n^3)$ to calculate the inverse matrix when using the Gaussian elimination technique.

- Matrix form

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{n} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \bar{\omega}^1 & \bar{\omega}^2 & \dots & \bar{\omega}^{n-1} \\ 1 & \bar{\omega}^2 & \bar{\omega}^4 & \dots & \bar{\omega}^{2(n-1)} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & \bar{\omega}^{n-1} & \bar{\omega}^{2(n-1)} & \dots & \bar{\omega}^{(n-1)^2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Reason: it turns out that it is nearly its own inverse. More precisely, the conjugate transpose of this matrix is its own inverse.

IFFT($n, y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1}$)

1: **if** $n == 1$ **then**

2: **return** y_0 ;

3: **end if**

4: $(E_0, E_1, \dots, E_{\frac{n}{2}-1}) = \text{IFFT}(\frac{n}{2}, y_0, y_2, \dots, y_n);$

5: $(O_0, O_1, \dots, O_{\frac{n}{2}-1}) = \text{IFFT}(\frac{n}{2}, y_1, y_3, \dots, y_{n-1});$

6: **for** $k = 0$ to $\frac{n}{2} - 1$ **do**

7: $\omega^k = e^{-\frac{2\pi}{n}ki};$ 共轭

8: $a_k = E_k + \omega^k O_k;$

9: $a_{\frac{n}{2}+k} = E_k - \omega^k O_k;$

10: **end for**

11: **return** $\frac{1}{n}(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$;

Note: here we assume n is the power of 2 for simplicity. The normalization factors multiplying FFT and IFFT (here 1 and $\frac{1}{n}$) and the signs of exponents are merely conventions, and differ in some treatments.

Grade-school : $O(n^2)$

Karatsuba : $O(n^{\log_2 3})$

FFT : $O(n \log n)$

Application: fast multiplication of two polynomials (or two integers)

Multiply two polynomials: convolution

- Given two polynomials

$$A(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}, \text{ and}$$

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

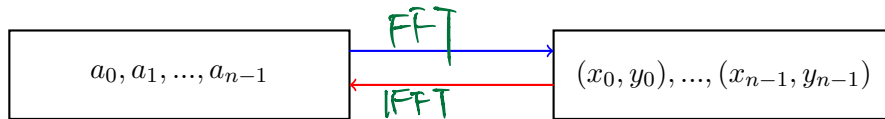
- Let's calculate its product

$$C(x) = A(x)B(x) = c_0 + c_1x + c_2x^2 + \dots + c_{2n-2}x^{2n-2}$$

- Brute-force (convolution): $c_k = \sum_{i=0}^k a_i b_{k-i}$.
- It costs $O(n^2)$ time if using the convolution technique.

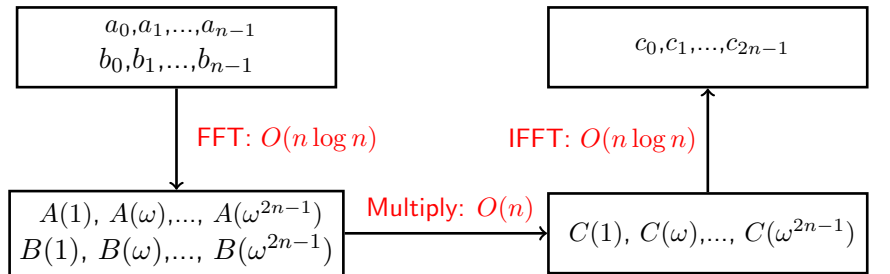
Conversion between two representations of polynomials

- An efficient conversion between these two representations is extremely useful when multiplying two polynomials.



Using FFT to speed up multiplication

- Given two polynomials
 $A(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}$, and
 $B(x) = b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 + \dots + b_{n-1}x^{n-1}$
- Let's calculate its product
 $C(x) = A(x)B(x) = c_0 + c_1x + c_2x^2 + \dots + c_{2n-2}x^{2n-2}$
- Brute-force: $c_k = \sum_{i=0}^k a_i b_{k-i}$. Cost $O(n^2)$ time
- Using FFT and IFFT: $O(n \log n)$



An example

- $A(x) = 1 + 2x$
- $B(x) = 3 + 4x$
- $C(x) = A(x)B(x) = c_0 + c_1x + c_2x^2 + c_3x^3$

x	1	$-i$	-1	i
$A(x)$	3	$1 - 2i$	-1	$1 + 2i$
$B(x)$	7	$3 - 4i$	-1	$3 + 4i$
$C(x)$	21	$-5 - 10i$	1	$-5 + 10i$

选特定点, 使计算方便.

- By running $\text{IFFT}(4, (21, -5 - 10i, 1, -5 + 10i))$, we obtained the coefficients as $c_0 = 3, c_1 = 10, c_2 = 8$, and $c_3 = 0$.
- Extension: given two n -bit integers $a = a_{n-1} \dots a_1 a_0$, and $b = b_{n-1} \dots b_1 b_0$, it takes $O(n \log n)$ complex arithmetic steps to calculate $c = a \times b$.

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Application: time-frequency transform

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- DFT, denoted as $\mathbf{X} = \mathcal{F}\{\mathbf{x}\}$, transforms a sequence of N complex numbers x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{N-1} (time-domain) into a N -periodic sequence of complex numbers X_0, X_1, \dots, X_{N-1} (frequency-domain):

频谱 $\rightarrow X_k = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x_n e^{-\frac{2\pi}{N} kn}$, $k = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$

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- Here, X_k encodes both amplitude and phase of a sinusoidal component $e^{-\frac{2\pi}{N} kn}$ of the function x_n (the sinusoid's frequency is k cycles per N samples).
- Inverse transform** of DFT:

$$x_n = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} X_k e^{\frac{2\pi}{N} kn}$$

An interpretation of DFT is that its inverse transform is the **discrete analogy** of the formula for **a Fourier series**:

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} F_n e^{inx}, \quad F_n = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-inx} dx$$

DFT: an example

- An example:

```
Fs = 8192;
```

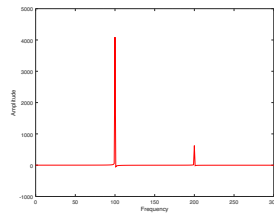
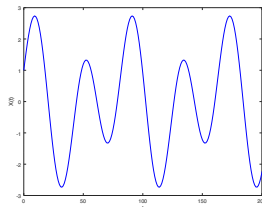
```
t=0:1/Fs:1;
```

```
x = 1*cos(2*pi*100*t) + 2*sin(2*pi*200*t);
```

```
N = length(x);
```

```
Freq = (0:N-1)*Fs/N;
```

```
plot( Freq, abs(fft(x)) );
```



Appendix: Relationship between continuous and discrete Fourier transforms

- Fourier series decomposes a periodic function into a set of sine/cosine waves, and one of the motivations of Fourier transform comes from the extension of Fourier series to non-periodic functions.
- DTFT uses discrete-time samples of a continuous function as input, and generates a continuous function of frequency.
- Using a finite sequence of equally-spaced samples of a function as input, DFT computes a sequence of identical length, representing equally-spaced samples of DTFT. The interval at which the DTFT is sampled is reciprocal of the duration of the input sequence.
- The inverse DFT is a Fourier series using the DTFT samples as coefficients of corresponding frequency, and it is essentially a periodic summation of the original input sequence.

复杂问题 \Rightarrow 简单问题之和



Figure: Jean-Baptiste Joseph Fourier (1768-1830)

- In 1807, Joseph Fourier proposed the idea of Fourier series when solving heat equation, a partial differential equation.
- Prior to Fourier's work, no solution to heat equation was known in the general case. However, when the heat source was a simple sine or cosine wave, solutions were known (called eigensolutions). \sin \cos
- Thus, Fourier modelled complicated heat source as a superposition of simple sine/cosine waves, and rewrote the solution as superposition of corresponding eigensolutions.

- Fourier series is a way to represent a **periodic function** of time as the sum of a set of simple sines and cosines (or, equivalently, complex exponentials). For example, the Fourier series of a periodic function $f(x)$ (period 2π) is:

$$f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos nx + b_n \sin nx) \text{ 基函数.}$$

where

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(t) dt$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(t) \cos ntdt \quad (n = 1, 2, \dots)$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(t) \sin ntdt \quad (n = 1, 2, \dots)$$

- Unlike Taylor's expansion, the basis functions of Fourier series are orthogonal over $[0, 2\pi]$, i.e.,

$$\int_0^{2\pi} 1 \cdot \sin x dx = 0, \quad \int_0^{2\pi} 1 \cdot \cos x dx = 0$$

基函数正交 ★

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \int_0^{2\pi} \sin mx \cdot \sin nx dx = 0, \quad \int_0^{2\pi} \cos mx \cdot \cos nx dx = 0 \quad (m \neq n) \\ \int_0^{2\pi} \cos mx \cdot \sin nx dx = 0 \end{array} \right.$$

- The orthogonality plays an important role in solving coefficients a_0, a_n, b_n .

Fourier series: complex exponential form

- According to the Euler's formula $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$, we have $\cos x = \frac{1}{2}(e^{ix} + e^{-ix})$, $\sin x = \frac{1}{2i}(e^{ix} - e^{-ix})$, and

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos nx + b_n \sin nx) \\ &= a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(a_n \frac{1}{2}(e^{ix} + e^{-ix}) + b_n \frac{1}{2i}(e^{ix} - e^{-ix}) \right) \\ &= a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}(a_n - ib_n)e^{ix} + \frac{1}{2}(a_n + ib_n)e^{-ix} \right) \end{aligned}$$

- Define $F_0 = a_0$, and $F_n = \frac{1}{2}(a_n - ib_n)$ ($n > 0$). We have $F_{-n} = \frac{1}{2}(a_n + ib_n)$, and thus rewrite the Fourier series as:

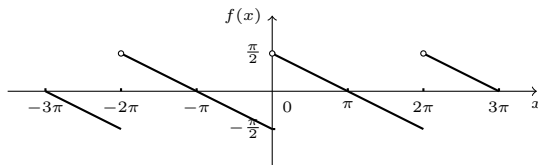
傅里叶 $f(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} F_n e^{inx}$, $F_n = \frac{1}{2}(a_n - ib_n) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(t) e^{-int} dt$

逆傅里叶变换.

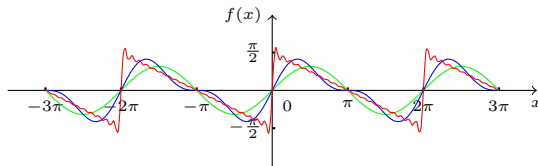
- Complex exponential form is necessary as the complex coefficients F_n (called *frequency spectrum*) could encode both amplitude and phase of basic waves.

Fourier series: example 1

- Periodic function $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}(\pi - x) & 0 < x \leq 2\pi \\ f(x + 2\pi) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$



- Fourier series: $f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} \sin nx$ (since $a_n = 0$, $b_n = \frac{1}{n}$)



Fourier series: extension to $f(x)$ with period of $2L$

- For a periodic function $f(x)$ with period of $2L$, the Fourier series is:

$$f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(a_n \cos \frac{\pi}{L} nx + b_n \sin \frac{\pi}{L} nx \right)$$

- The coefficients are:

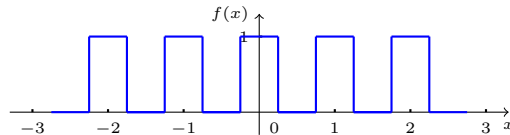
$$a_0 = \frac{1}{2L} \int_0^{2L} f(t) dt$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^{2L} f(t) \cos \frac{\pi}{L} n t dt$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^{2L} f(t) \sin \frac{\pi}{L} n t dt$$

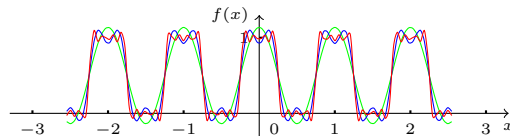
Fourier series: example 2

- Periodic function $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & |x| \leq \frac{1}{4} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{4} < |x| \leq \frac{T}{2} \end{cases}$, and $f(x)$ has a period $T = 1$.



- Fourier series:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2T} + \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2T}n\right) \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{T}nx\right)$$



Convergence of Fourier series: Dirichlet's conditions

- Dirichlet's theorem states the sufficient conditions for the convergence of Fourier series, i.e., if $f(x)$ satisfies the following conditions:
 - ① $f(x)$ is periodic, and absolutely integrable over a period;
 - ② $f(x)$ must have a finite number of maxima and minima in any bounded interval;
 - ③ $f(x)$ must have a finite number of discontinuities in any bounded interval, and the discontinuity cannot be infinite.

Then

$$a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^m (a_n \cos nx + b_n \sin nx) \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}(f(x+0) + f(x-0))$$

when $m \rightarrow \infty$.

- A succinct proof using Dirac's δ function can be found in *Mathematical Methods for Physics* (by Q. Gu).

Proof.

- Since $a_n \cos nx + b_n \sin nx = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \cos n(x-t) dt$, the partial sum of Fourier series is:

$$\begin{aligned} S_m(x) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \left[1 + 2 \sum_{n=1}^m \cos n(x-t) \right] dt \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \frac{\sin((m + \frac{1}{2})(x-t))}{2\pi \sin \frac{1}{2}(x-t)} dt \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) D_m(x-t) dt \end{aligned}$$

- Here $D_m(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} (1 + 2 \cos x + 2 \cos 2x + \dots + 2 \cos mx)$.
- Note that $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} D_m(x) = \delta(x)$ since $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} D_m(x) dx = 1$ and $D_m(0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} (2m+1) \rightarrow \infty$.
- Thus, we have $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} S_m(x) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \delta(x-t) = f(x)$ (when $f(x)$ is continuous at x). Please refer to *Mathematical Methods for Physics* (by Q. Gu) for complete proof

Fourier transform (in terms of angular frequency ω)

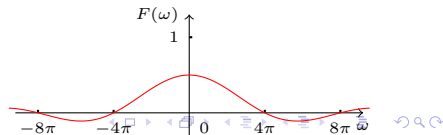
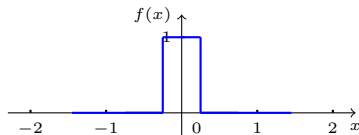
- Fourier transform of a function of time (a *signal*) is a complex-valued function of frequency (represented as *angular frequency* ω), whose absolute value represents the amount of that frequency present in the original function.

$$F(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)e^{-i\omega x} dx, \quad f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\omega)e^{i\omega x} d\omega$$

- Fourier transform, denoted as $F(\omega) = \mathcal{F}\{f(x)\}$, is called *frequency representation of the original signal*, and $F(\omega)$ is called *spectral density*.

- For example, the Fourier transform of $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & |x| \leq \frac{1}{4} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ is

$$F(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)e^{-i\omega x} dx = \frac{2}{\omega} \sin\left(\frac{\omega}{4}\right)$$



Fourier transform (in terms of ordinary frequency ν)

- For a sinusoidal wave with period T (measured in *seconds*), its frequency can be measured using angular frequency ω (measured in *radians per second*) or using ordinary frequency ν (measured in *cycles per second*, or hertz), where $\omega = 2\pi\nu$, and $\nu = \frac{1}{T}$.
- When using angular frequency ω , Fourier transform is defined as:

$$F(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)e^{-i\omega x} dx$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\omega)e^{i\omega x} d\omega$$

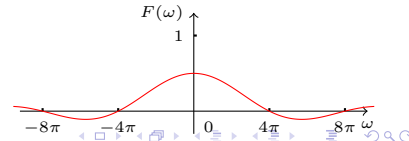
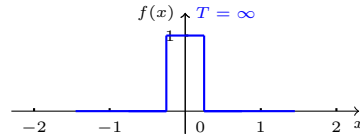
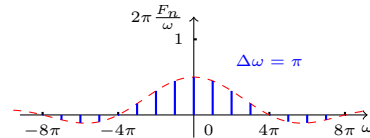
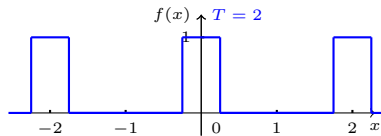
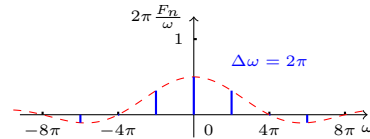
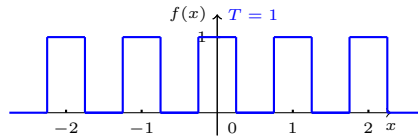
- Replacing ω with $\omega = 2\pi\nu$, we obtain another representation of Fourier transform in terms of ordinary frequency ν :

$$F(\nu) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)e^{-2\pi i x \nu} dx$$

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\nu)e^{2\pi i x \nu} d\nu$$

Connection between Fourier series and Fourier transform

- For a function that are zero outside an interval, we can calculate Fourier series on any larger interval. As we lengthen the interval, the coefficients of Fourier series will approach Fourier transform.



- Consider a periodic function $f(x)$ with period $2L$. Its Fourier series $f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos \frac{\pi}{L} nx + b_n \sin \frac{\pi}{L} nx)$ can be rewritten as $f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos \omega_n x + b_n \sin \omega_n x)$, where $\omega_n = \frac{\pi}{L} n$ represents angular frequency.
- Intuitively, when $L \rightarrow \infty$, $f(x)$ becomes a non-periodic function over $(-\infty, \infty)$, and

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \dots \Delta\omega \rightarrow \int_0^{\infty} \dots d\omega$$

- In particular, we have $a_0 = \frac{1}{2L} \int_{-L}^L f(t) dt \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow \infty} 0$ since $f(x)$ is absolutely integrable, and

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos \omega_n x &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{L} \left[\int_{-L}^L f(t) \cos \omega_n t dt \right] \cos \omega_n x \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Delta\omega}{\pi} \left[\int_{-L}^L f(t) \cos \omega_n t dt \right] \cos \omega_n x \\ &\rightarrow \int_0^{\infty} d\omega \left[\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) \cos \omega t dt \right] \cos \omega x \end{aligned}$$

- Similarly, we have

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin \omega_n x \rightarrow \int_0^{\infty} d\omega \left[\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) \sin \omega t dt \right] \sin \omega x$$

and rewrite Fourier series as:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{\omega=0}^{\infty} \int_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) (\cos \omega x \cos \omega t + \sin \omega x \sin \omega t) dt d\omega \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{\omega=0}^{\infty} \int_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) \cos \omega(x-t) dt d\omega \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\omega=0}^{\infty} \int_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) (e^{i\omega(x-t)} + e^{-i\omega(x-t)}) dt d\omega \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\int_0^{\infty} f(t) e^{i\omega(x-t)} d\omega + \int_0^{\infty} f(t) e^{-i\omega(x-t)} d\omega \right] dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{i\omega(x-t)} d\omega dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\omega) dt \end{aligned}$$

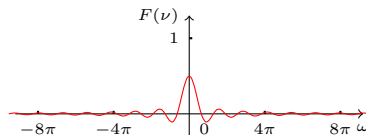
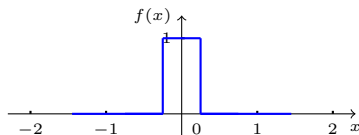
- Linear operations performed in one domain (time or frequency) have corresponding operations in the other domain.
- Differentiation in time domain corresponds to multiplication in the frequency domain, usually making it easier to analyze.
- Convolution in the time domain corresponds to the ordinary multiplication in the frequency domain.
- Functions that are localized in one domain have Fourier transforms that are spread out across the other domain, known as the *uncertainty principle*.
- The Fourier transform of a Gaussian function is another Gaussian function.

Fourier transform: Poisson summation formula

- For an approximate function $f(x)$ with its Fourier transform (in terms of ordinary frequency) $F(\nu) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)e^{-2\pi i x \nu} dx$, the Poisson summation formula states $\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f(k) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} F(k)$.
- For example, the Fourier transform of $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & |x| \leq \frac{1}{4} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ is

$$F(\nu) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)e^{-2\pi i \nu x} dx = \frac{1}{\pi \nu} \sin\left(\frac{\pi \nu}{2}\right)$$

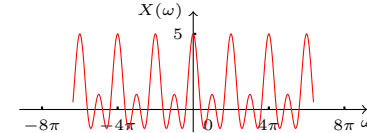
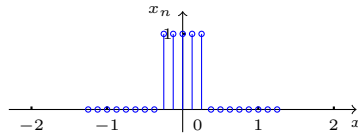
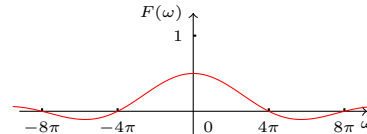
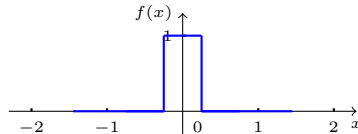
- Poisson summation formula states that $\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f(k) = 1 = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} F(k)$.



- Discrete-time Fourier transform (DTFT) refers to Fourier analysis on the uniformly-spaced samples of a continuous function, i.e., a Fourier series with x_n as coefficients:

$$X(\omega) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_n e^{-in\omega}$$

Here, the frequency variable ω has normalized units of *radians/sample*.



Inverse transform of DTFT

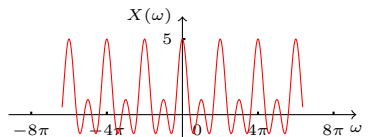
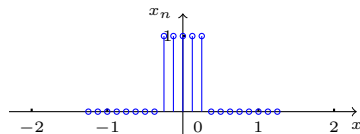
- DTFT is itself a periodic function of frequency $X(\omega)$. From this function, the original samples x_n can be readily recovered as below:

$$x_n = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(\omega) e^{in\omega} d\omega$$

- For example, the DTFT is $X(\omega) = 1 + 2 \cos \omega + 2 \cos 2\omega$. The original samples can be recovered as:

$$x_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (1 + 2 \cos \omega + 2 \cos 2\omega) d\omega = 1$$

Similarly, we obtained $x_{-1} = x_1 = x_2 = x_{-2} = 1$.



- From these samples, DTFT produces a function of frequency that is a periodic summation of the Fourier transform of the original continuous function.
- The sampling theorem states the theoretical conditions under which the original function can be perfectly recovered from DTFT of the samples.
- When the input data sequence x_n is N -periodic, DTFT reduces to DFT, i.e.,

$$X_k = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x_n e^{-\frac{2\pi}{N} kni}$$

- Alternatively, DTFT is itself a continuous function, and the discrete samples of it can be efficiently calculated using DFT.

Appendix: Dirac's δ function

- Dirac's δ function has the following two properties:

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \delta(x) = \begin{cases} \infty & x = 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(x) dx = 1$$

- We can prove the following properties:

- For any continuous function $f(x)$,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) \delta(x - x_0) dx = f(x_0)$$

- $\delta(x)$ is the Fourier transform of 1 since

$$\mathcal{F}\{\delta(x)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(x) e^{-ix\omega} dx = 1$$

- According to the inverse Fourier transform of 1, we have:

$$\delta(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i\omega x} d\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i\omega x} d\omega$$