Fast Fourier Transform

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Outline

- 1 FFT Applications
- 2 Long Arithmetics
- 3 Polynomial Multiplication
- 4 Roots of Unity
- **5** Discrete Fourier Transform
- **6** Recursive Version
- 1 Iterative Version

■ The most surprising algorithm

- The most surprising algorithm
- Used in many advanced competitive programming problems, and also...

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- Hardware
- Bioinformatics
- Convolutional Neural Networks

Outline

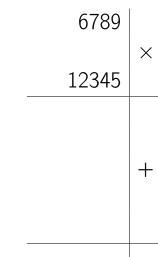
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Summation

	1111111111111111116789
+	
	22222222222222345
	3333333333333333319134

Summation

O(n), and can't be faster



6789	
	X
12345	
33945	
	+

	6789	
		X
	12345	
	33945	
	27156	
		+
•		

6789	
	×
12345	
33945	
27156	
20367	+
13578	

6789	
	×
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27156	
20367	+
13578	
6789	
	

6789	
	×
12345	
33945	
27156	
20367	+
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6789	
83810205	

 $O(n^2)$ — can we do better?

Yes, we can

- Yes, we can
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- You should use it for 1000s and low 10000s of digits

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- You should use it for 1000s and low 10000s of digits
- But we can do even better asymptotically
- And this solution is more general

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$$P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} p_i x^i, \deg(P) = n$$

$$Q(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{m} q_j x^j, \deg(Q) = m$$

 $R(x) = P(x)Q(x)$

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 $R(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{m+n} \left(\sum_{i=\max(0,k-m)}^{\min(n,k)} p_i q_{k-i}\right) x^k$

 $P(x) = \sum p_i x^i, \deg(P) = n$

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- How to multiply integers fast?

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$$a = \overline{d_n d_{n-1} \dots d_3 d_2 d_1 d_0} \rightarrow P_a(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n d_i x^i$$

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 $P_a(10) = a$

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 $P_a(10) = a$

Coeffs of P_aP_b are **almost** the digits of ab

NaivePolyMult(P, Q) $n \leftarrow \deg(P), m \leftarrow \deg(Q)$

 $R \leftarrow \text{array of length } m + n + 1$ for k from 0 to m+n:

for
$$k$$
 from 0 to $m+n$:
$$R[k] \leftarrow 0$$

 $I \leftarrow \max(0, k - m)$

 $r \leftarrow \min(n, k)$

for i from I to r:

 $R[k] \leftarrow R[k] + P[i]Q[k-i]$

return R

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$$\times (0, k - m)$$

 $n(n, k)$

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 for i from l to r :

r
$$i$$
 from l to r :
 $R[k] \leftarrow R[k] + P[i]Q[k - i]$

$$P[k-i]$$

$$O(n^2)$$
 — too slow again

return R

Alternative Representations

By coefficients:
$$P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i x^i$$

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How many values uniquely determine a polynomial of degree n?

■ Instead of computing R(x) = P(x)Q(x),

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- First compute values $P(x_i)$ and $Q(x_i)$ for some $x_i, 0 < i < k$

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- Then compute $R(x_i) = P(x_i)Q(x_i)$
- Then compute R(x) given its values
- How to choose k?

From Coefficients to Values

- Just compute the values
- Use Horner-Schema

ComputePoly(P, x)

for i from n down to 0:

result \leftarrow result $\cdot x + P[i]$

 $n \leftarrow \deg(P)$

result $\leftarrow 0$

return result

From Values to Coefficients

Given:

$$deg(P) = n$$

$$P(x_0) = y_0, P(x_1) = y_1, \dots, P(x_n) = y_n$$

Find:

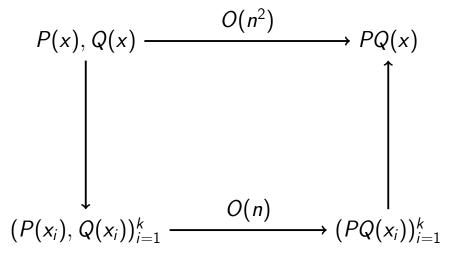
$$P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} p_i x^i$$

Interpolation

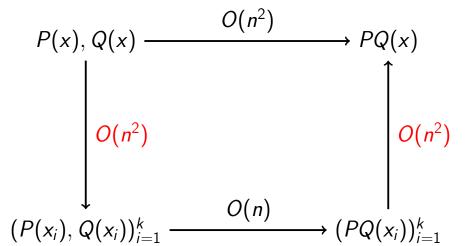
Solution:

$$P(x) = y_0 \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2) \dots (x - x_n)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2) \dots (x_0 - x_n)} + y_1 \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2) \dots (x - x_n)}{(x_1 - x_0)(x_1 - x_2) \dots (x_1 - x_n)} + \dots + y_n \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1) \dots (x - x_{n-1})}{(x_n - x_0)(x_n - x_1) \dots (x_n - x_{n-1})}$$

Alternative Multiplication



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- Can interpolate in $O(n^2)$: precompute $(x-x_0)(x-x_1)\dots(x-x_{n-1})(x-x_n),$

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- Can interpolate in $O(n^2)$: precompute $(x-x_0)(x-x_1)...(x-x_{n-1})(x-x_n),$
- then only divide
- Still too slow

- This approach enables us to choose any different x_i , $0 \le i \le k$
- Let's select the most convenient x_i s!

Take Consecutive Points

Compute consecutive values

Input: Polynomial P(x) of degree n given by values $P(0), P(1), \ldots, P(n)$

Output: P(n + 1), P(n + 2), ..., P(n + k)

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Idea: note that Q(x) = P(x+1) - P(x) is a polynomial of degree n-1

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Idea: note that Q(x) = P(x+1) - P(x) is a polynomial of degree n-1 Unfortunately, this would still take $O(n^2)$ for the first n+1 values

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Definition

 ε is called a complex root of unity of degree n iff $\varepsilon^n=1$

There are exactly n complex roots of unity

Definition

 ε_n is called a primitive root of unity of degree n iff $\varepsilon_n^n = 1$ and all complex roots of unity are $\varepsilon_n, \varepsilon_n^2, \varepsilon_n^3, \ldots, \varepsilon_n^{n-1}, \varepsilon_n^n = 1$.

Lemma

There exists a primitive root of unity

Proof

$$\varepsilon_n \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} e^{\frac{2\pi i}{n}} = \cos(\frac{2\pi}{n}) + i\sin(\frac{2\pi}{n})$$
 is a primitive root of unity

Lemma

If ε_{2k} is a primitive root of unity of degree 2k, then $\varepsilon_k = \varepsilon_{2k}^2$ is a primitive root of unity of degree k. Moreover,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_{2k}^0, \varepsilon_{2k}^1, \dots, \varepsilon_{2k}^{2k-1} \end{bmatrix}^2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \\ \left[(\varepsilon_{2k}^0)^2, (\varepsilon_{2k}^1)^2, (\varepsilon_{2k}^2)^2, \dots, (\varepsilon_{2k}^{2k})^2 \right] = \\ \left[\varepsilon_k^0, \varepsilon_k^1, \varepsilon_k^2, \dots, \varepsilon_k^{k-1}, \varepsilon_k^0, \varepsilon_k^1, \dots, \varepsilon_k^{k-1} \right]$$

Proof

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



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Unexpected Idea

Let's take $x_i = \varepsilon_n^i$ and compute $(P(x_i))_{i=1}^n$ faster than $O(n^2)$

Unexpected Idea

- Let's take $x_i = \varepsilon_n^i$ and compute $(P(x_i))_{i=1}^n$ faster than $O(n^2)$
- Assume for simplicity that $deg(P) = 2^k 1$ (otherwise pad with leading zero coefficients)

Matrix Transform
$$P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} p_i x^i$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} P(x_0) \\ P(x_1) \\ \dots \\ P(x_{n-1}) \end{pmatrix} =$$

$$(\varepsilon_n^0)^1 \quad \dots \quad (\varepsilon_n^0)^{n-1} \quad) \quad (\varepsilon_n^0)^{n-1} \quad$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} P(x_0) \\ P(x_1) \\ \dots \\ P(x_{n-1}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} (\varepsilon_n^0)^0 & (\varepsilon_n^0)^1 & \dots & (\varepsilon_n^0)^{n-1} \\ (\varepsilon_n^1)^0 & (\varepsilon_n^1)^1 & \dots & (\varepsilon_n^1)^{n-1} \\ \dots & & & & \\ (\varepsilon_n^{n-1})^0 & (\varepsilon_n^{n-1})^1 & \dots & (\varepsilon_n^{n-1})^{n-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p_0 \\ p_1 \\ \dots \\ p_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\overline{\varepsilon_n} = \varepsilon_n^{-1} = \cos(\frac{2\pi}{n}) - i\sin(\frac{2\pi}{n})$$

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$$F = \begin{pmatrix} (\varepsilon_n^0)^0 & (\varepsilon_n^0)^1 & \dots & (\varepsilon_n^0)^{n-1} \\ (\varepsilon_n^1)^0 & (\varepsilon_n^1)^1 & \dots & (\varepsilon_n^1)^{n-1} \\ \dots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ (\varepsilon_n^{n-1})^0 & (\varepsilon_n^{n-1})^1 & \dots & (\varepsilon_n^{n-1})^{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$1 = \cos(\frac{2\pi}{n}) - i\sin(\frac{2\pi}{n})$$

 $F^{-1} = \frac{1}{n} \begin{pmatrix} (\overline{\varepsilon_n}^0)^0 & (\overline{\varepsilon_n}^0)^1 & \dots & (\overline{\varepsilon_n}^0)^{n-1} \\ (\overline{\varepsilon_n}^1)^0 & (\overline{\varepsilon_n}^1)^1 & \dots & (\overline{\varepsilon_n}^1)^{n-1} \\ \dots & & & \\ (\overline{\varepsilon_n}^{n-1})^0 & (\overline{\varepsilon_n}^{n-1})^1 & \dots & (\overline{\varepsilon_n}^{n-1})^{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$

$$= -c^{-1} - \cos(2\pi)$$
 $i\sin(2\pi)$

$$\overline{\varepsilon_n} = \varepsilon_n^{-1} = \cos(\frac{2\pi}{n}) - i\sin(\frac{2\pi}{n})$$

$$\int (\varepsilon_n^0)^0 (\varepsilon_n^0)^1 \dots (\varepsilon_n^0)^1$$

$$\overline{\varepsilon_n} = \varepsilon_n^{-1} = \cos(\frac{2\pi}{n}) - i\sin(\frac{2\pi}{n})$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (\varepsilon^0)^0 (\varepsilon^0)^1 (\varepsilon^0)^1$$

$$\overline{\varepsilon_n} = \varepsilon_n^{-1} = \cos(\frac{2\pi}{n}) - i\sin(\frac{2\pi}{n})$$

$$F = \begin{pmatrix} (\varepsilon_n^0)^0 & (\varepsilon_n^0)^1 & \dots & (\varepsilon_n^0)^{n-1} \\ (\varepsilon_n^1)^0 & (\varepsilon_n^1)^1 & \dots & (\varepsilon_n^1)^{n-1} \\ \dots & & & & \\ (\varepsilon_n^{n-1})^0 & (\varepsilon_n^{n-1})^1 & \dots & (\varepsilon_n^{n-1})^{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

Proof

Consider any element of the matrix product FF^{-1} .

$$x_{ij} = \sum_{n=0}^{n} (\varepsilon_n^{i-1})^{k-1} (\overline{\varepsilon_n}^{k-1})^{j-1} = 0$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n} \varepsilon_n^{(k-1)(i-1)-(k-1)(j-1)} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} (\varepsilon_n^{i-j})^{k-1}$$

Proof

If
$$i = j$$
, $x_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1^{k-1} = n$.

Otherwise, $x_{ij} = 0$: denote $\alpha = \varepsilon_n^{i-j}$. Then $\alpha \neq 1$ is a root of unity of degree n. Then

$$0 = (\alpha^{n} - 1) = (\alpha - 1) \sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha^{k-1} \Rightarrow$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{k} \alpha^{k-1} = 0$$

- Inverse transform is almost the same as direct transform
- Just replace ε_n with $\overline{\varepsilon_n}$, do the transform with such ε and multiply the result by $\frac{1}{n}$
- If we learn to perform the direct transform fast, we'll be able to perform the inverse transform fast as well

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Divide and Conquer

$$P(\varepsilon) = p_0 \varepsilon^0 + p_1 \varepsilon^1 + \dots + p_{2^{k}-1} \varepsilon^{2^{k}-1} =$$

$$= (p_0 \varepsilon^0 + p_2 \varepsilon^2 + \dots + p_{2^{k}-2} \varepsilon^{2^{k}-2}) +$$

$$+ \varepsilon (p_1 \varepsilon^0 + p_3 \varepsilon^2 + \dots + p_{2^{k}-1} \varepsilon^{2^{k}-2}) =$$

$$P_{even} \stackrel{def}{=} p_0 + p_2 x^2 + p_4 x^4 + \dots + p_{2^k - 2} x^{2^k - 2}$$

$$P_{odd} \stackrel{def}{=} p_1 + p_3 x^2 + p_5 x^4 + \dots + p_{2^k - 1} x^{2^k - 2}$$

$$P = P_{even} + x P_{odd}$$

$$FFT(P) = \begin{pmatrix} P(\varepsilon_{2^{k}}^{0}) \\ P(\varepsilon_{2^{k}}^{1}) \\ \dots \\ P(\varepsilon_{2^{k}}^{2^{k-1}}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} P_{even}((\varepsilon_{2^{k}}^{0})^{2}) \\ P_{even}((\varepsilon_{2^{k}}^{1})^{2}) \\ \dots \\ P_{even}((\varepsilon_{2^{k}}^{2^{k-1}})^{2}) \end{pmatrix} + \\ \varepsilon_{2^{k}} \begin{pmatrix} P_{odd}((\varepsilon_{2^{k}}^{0})^{2}) \\ P_{odd}((\varepsilon_{2^{k}}^{1})^{2}) \\ \dots \\ P_{odd}((\varepsilon_{2^{k}}^{2^{k-1}})^{2}) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} P_{even}((\varepsilon_{2^k}^0)^2) \\ P_{even}((\varepsilon_{2^k}^1)^2) \\ \dots \\ P_{even}((\varepsilon_{2^k}^{2^{k-1}})^2) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} P_{even}((\varepsilon_{2^k}^2)^0) \\ P_{even}((\varepsilon_{2^k}^2)^1) \\ \dots \\ P_{even}((\varepsilon_{2^k}^2)^{2^k-1}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} P_{even}((\varepsilon_{2^k}^2)^1) \\ \dots \\ P_{even}((\varepsilon_{2^k}^2)^{2^k-1}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} P_{even}(\varepsilon_{2^k}^2)^1 \\ \dots \\ P_{even}((\varepsilon_{2^k}^2)^{2^k-1}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} P_{even}(\varepsilon_{2^k}^2)^1 \\ \dots \\ P_{even}(\varepsilon_{2^k-1}^2) \\ \dots \\ P_{even}(\varepsilon_{2^k-1}^2) \\ \text{Same } 2^{k-1} \text{ rows again} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} FFT(P_{even}) \\ FFT(P_{even}) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$FFT(P) =$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} FFT(P_{even}) \\ FFT(P_{even}) \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_{2^k}^0 \\ \varepsilon_{2^k}^1 \\ \dots \\ \varepsilon_{2^k}^{2^k-1} \end{pmatrix} \odot \begin{pmatrix} FFT(P_{odd}) \\ FFT(P_{odd}) \end{pmatrix}$$

⊙ — component-wise multiplication

Note that
$$\varepsilon_{2^k}^{i+2^{k-1}} = -\varepsilon_{2^k}^i$$

FFT (*P*, invert)

$$k \leftarrow 1$$
 while $2^k \leq \deg(P)$:

$$k \leftarrow k + 1$$

P.resize
$$(2^k)$$

$$\varepsilon \leftarrow \cos(\frac{2\pi}{2^k}) + i\sin(\frac{2\pi}{2^k})$$

$$C \leftarrow 1$$

$$C \leftarrow 1$$

 $C \leftarrow \frac{1}{2^k}$

invert:
$$\varepsilon \leftarrow \cos(\frac{2\pi}{2^k}) - i\sin(\frac{2\pi}{2^k})$$

$$\left(\frac{2\pi}{2^k}\right)$$

return C · FFTRecursive(P, k, ε)

FFTRecursive (P, k, ε)

if k == 1: return [P[0] + P[1], P[0] - P[1]] $P_{even} \leftarrow [P[0], P[2], \dots, P[2^k - 2]]$ $P_{odd} \leftarrow [P[1], P[3], \dots, P[2^k - 1]]$ $F_{even} \leftarrow FFTRecursive(P_{even}, k-1, \varepsilon^2)$ $F_{odd} \leftarrow FFTRecursive(P_{odd}, k-1, \varepsilon^2)$ for *i* from 0 to $2^{k-1} - 1$:

 $F[i] \leftarrow F_{even}[i] + \varepsilon^i F_{odd}[i]$

 $F[i+2^{k-1}] \leftarrow F_{even}[i] - \varepsilon^i F_{odd}[i]$

return F

Asymptotics

$$T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + O(n)$$
$$T(n) = O(n \log n)$$

Fast Multiplication

$$P(x), Q(x) \xrightarrow{O(n^2)} PQ(x)$$

$$\downarrow O(n \log n) \qquad O(n \log n)$$

$$(P(x_i), Q(x_i))_{i=1}^k \xrightarrow{O(n)} (PQ(x_i))_{i=1}^k$$

Convolution

$$R(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{m+n} \left(\sum_{i=\max(0,k-m)}^{\min(n,k)} p_i q_{k-i} \right) x^k$$

Convolution

$$P = (p_i)_{i=1}^n, Q = (q_j)_{j=1}^m$$
 $P \circ Q = \left(\sum_{i=\max(0,k-m)}^{\min(n,k)} p_i q_{k-i}\right)$

Operation \circ — 1-d convolution

Convolution

$$P = (p_i)_{i=1}^n, Q = (q_j)_{j=1}^m$$

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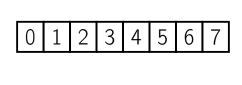
Operation ○ — 1-d convolution

Fourier Transform maps convolution to product and vice versa

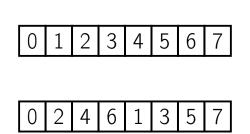
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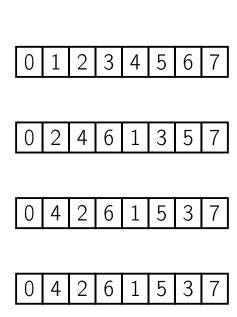


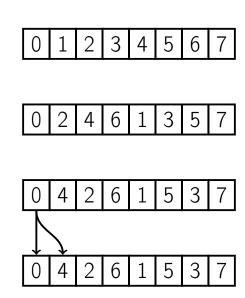


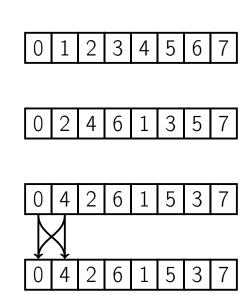
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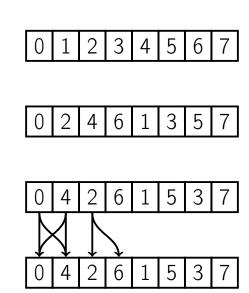


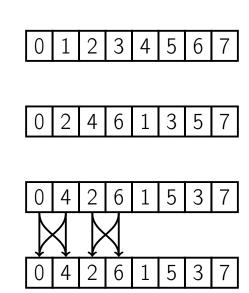
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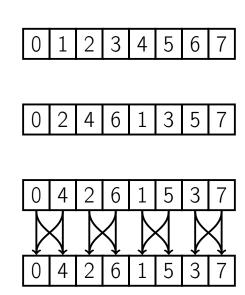


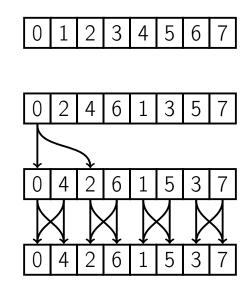


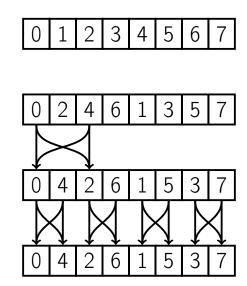


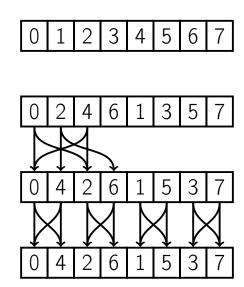


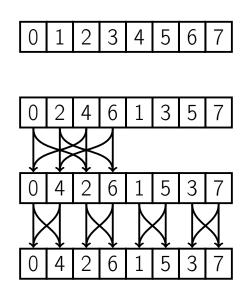


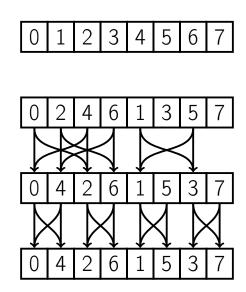


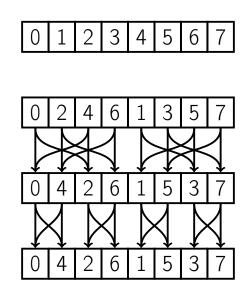


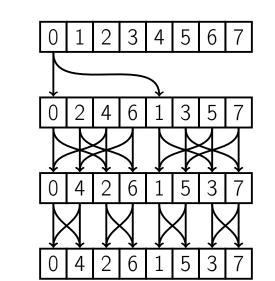


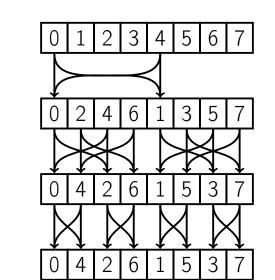


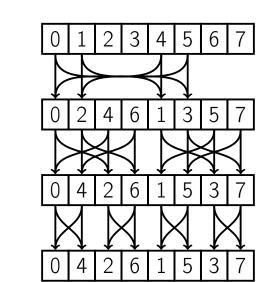


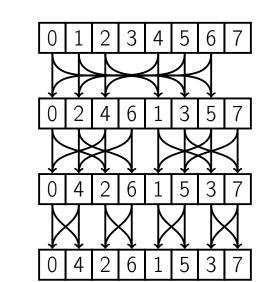


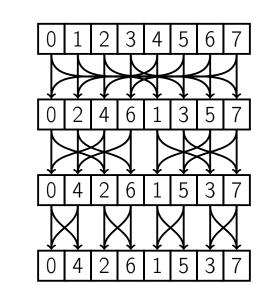












Final Order

$$\begin{pmatrix}
0 \\
4 \\
2 \\
6 \\
1 \\
5 \\
3 \\
7
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
000_2 \\
100_2 \\
010_2 \\
110_2 \\
001_2 \\
101_2 \\
011_2 \\
111_2
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
000^r \\
001^r \\
010^r \\
011^r \\
100^r \\
110^r \\
111^r
\end{pmatrix} = BitRev \begin{pmatrix}
0 \\
1 \\
2 \\
3 \\
4 \\
5 \\
6 \\
7
\end{pmatrix}$$

 $rev_k(a)$ — reverse a as k-bit binary number

$$\operatorname{rev}_k(\overline{a0}) = \overline{\operatorname{Orev}_{k-1}(a)} = \operatorname{rev}_{k-1}(a)$$

 $rev_k(\overline{a1}) = \overline{1rev_{k-1}(a)} = 2^{k-1} + rev_{k-1}(a)$

RevBits(k)

 $O(2^{k})$

```
a[0] \leftarrow 0
for i from 1 to a_i
for a_i from a_i
```

for i from 1 to k:
for j from $2^k - 1$ down to 0: $a[j] \leftarrow a[\lfloor \frac{j}{2} \rfloor] + 2^{k-1} \cdot \text{is_odd}(j)$ return a

```
PrepareFFT(P, invert, k, \varepsilon, roots)
k \leftarrow 1
while 2^k \leq \deg(P):
  k \leftarrow k + 1
P.resize(2^k)
r \leftarrow RevBits(k)
```

swap(P[i], P[r[i]]) $\varepsilon \leftarrow \cos(\frac{2\pi}{2^k}) + i\sin(\frac{2\pi}{2^k})$

 $\varepsilon \leftarrow \cos(\frac{2\pi}{2^k}) - i\sin(\frac{2\pi}{2^k})$

for i from k-1 down to 1: $roots[i] \leftarrow roots[i+1] \cdot roots[i+1]$

if invert:

 $roots[k] \leftarrow \bar{\varepsilon}$

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while 2^k \leq \deg(P):
 k \leftarrow k + 1
P.resize(2^k)
```

 $r \leftarrow RevBits(k)$ for i from 0 to $2^k - 1$: if i < r[i]:

if invert:

 $roots[k] \leftarrow \bar{\varepsilon}$

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 $\varepsilon \leftarrow \cos(\frac{2\pi}{2k}) - i\sin(\frac{2\pi}{2k})$

for i from k-1 down to 1: $roots[i] \leftarrow roots[i+1] \cdot roots[i+1]$

if invert:

 $roots[k] \leftarrow \varepsilon$

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PrepareFFT(P, invert, k, \varepsilon, roots)
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P.resize(2^k)
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```

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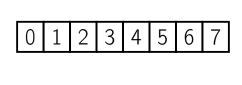
 $\varepsilon \leftarrow \cos(\frac{2\pi}{2^k}) - i\sin(\frac{2\pi}{2^k})$

for i from k-1 down to 1: $roots[i] \leftarrow roots[i+1] \cdot roots[i+1]$

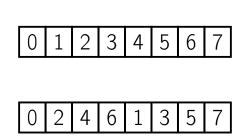
if invert:

 $roots[k] \leftarrow \bar{\varepsilon}$

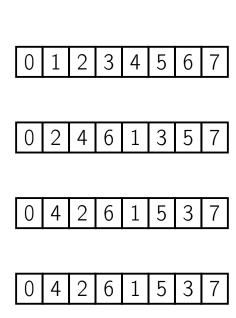


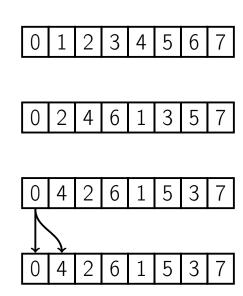


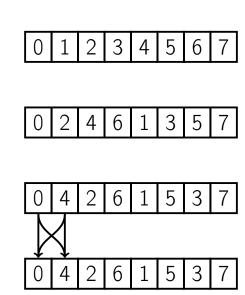
0 2 4 6 1 3 5 7

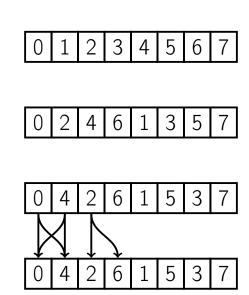


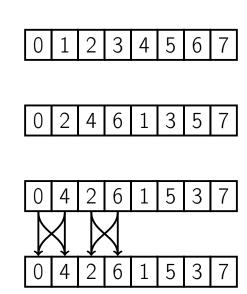
0 4 2 6 1 5 3 7

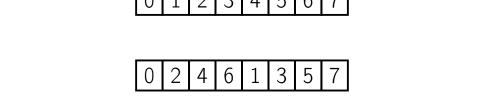




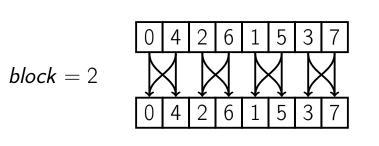


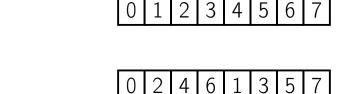


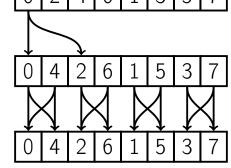




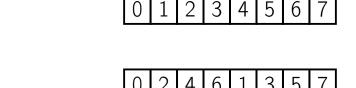
shift = 1

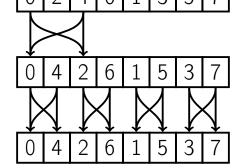




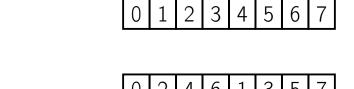


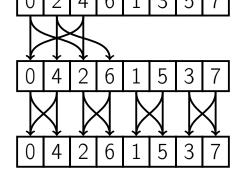




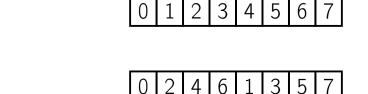


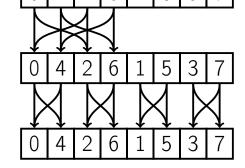




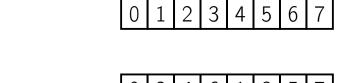


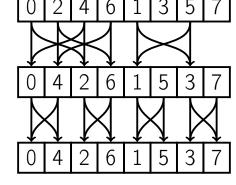




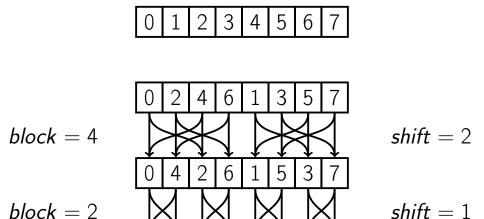


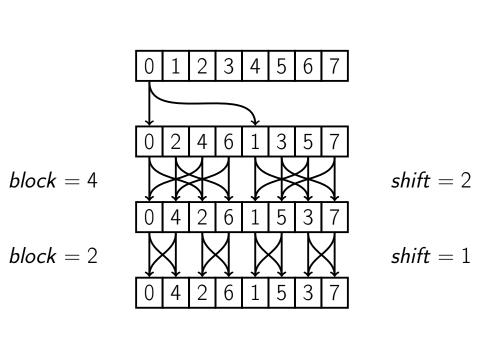


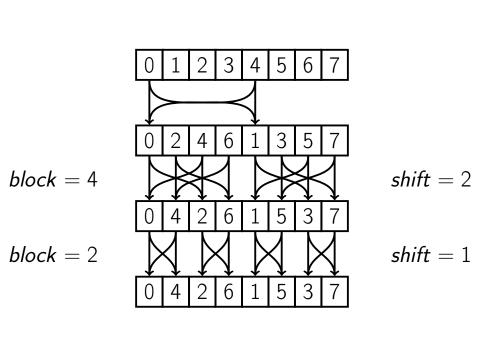


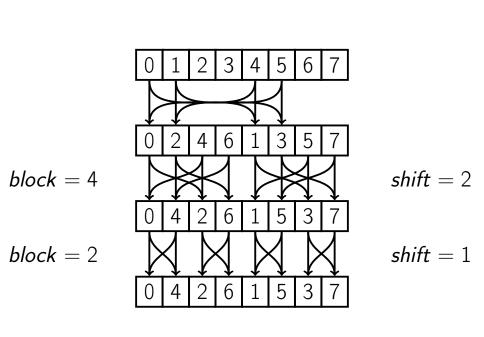


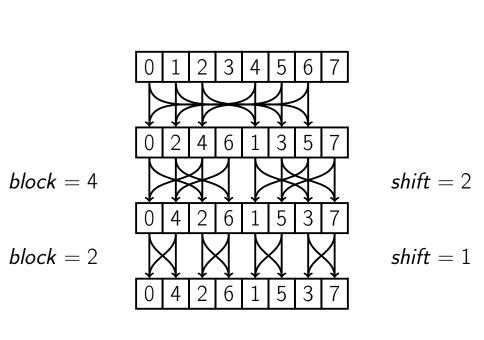


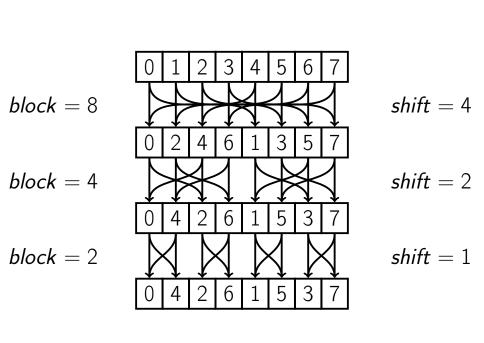












 $r \leftarrow P[i] - w \cdot P[i + shift]$

 $P[i] \leftarrow I$ $P[i + shift] \leftarrow r$ $w \leftarrow w \cdot roots[level]$

 $P[i] \leftarrow \frac{P[i]}{n}$

for i from 0 to $2^k - 1$:

if invert:

```
PrepareFFT(P, invert, k, \varepsilon, roots)
for level from 1 to k:
   block \leftarrow 2^{level}
  for start from 0 to 2^k with step block:
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```

Example

Input: Integer *n*

Output: For every i = 1..n, the number of

ways to represent i as sum of two

squares $i = a^2 + b^2$.

Naive Solution

■ For every i, try every $a^2 \le \frac{i}{2}$ as the smaller square

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- $O(n\sqrt{n})$

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- Coefficients $(Q[x^i])_{i=1}^n$ are the answers
- $O(n \log n)$
- What if we needed sums of 4 squares?

Precision Issues

Theorem

constant.

$$\begin{split} & \left\| f\!l(y) - y \right\|_{\infty} / \left\| y \right\|_2 < C \sqrt{n} \log_2 n \varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2), \\ & \text{where } \varepsilon \text{ is machine precision,} \\ & \left\| x \right\|_{\infty} = \max_{i=1..n} |x_i| - L_{\infty}\text{-norm,} \\ & \left\| x \right\|_2 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} - L_2\text{-norm,} \quad C - \text{some} \end{split}$$

In practical tests, precision is around 100 times more precise.

Precision Issues

For example, if multiplying two polynomials of degree $n = 10^6$ with coefficients up to 10^9 , with double precision $\varepsilon = 10^{-15}$, the error in the final coefficients of the product is below $C \cdot \sqrt{10^6} \cdot 10^9 \cdot \log_2 10^6 \varepsilon < 10 \cdot 10^3 \cdot 10^9 \cdot 10^8$ $20 \cdot 10^{-15} < 2 \cdot 10^{14} \cdot 10^{-15} = 2 \cdot 10^{-1} < 0.5$. so the result will be precise after rounding to the closest integer.

Precision Issues

Instead of using $\varepsilon = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{2^k}}$, we can choose a huge prime p of the form $p = a \cdot 2^k + 1$, choose ε as the primitive root modulo p and perform all computations modulo p.

"Two in One" Trick

If we only need FFT for real-valued vectors, we can do two FFTs at once.

$$P(x), Q(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$$

Take
$$R(x) = P(x) + iQ(x)$$

Then

$$Re(P(\varepsilon^{j})) = \frac{1}{2}Re(R(\varepsilon^{j}) + R(\varepsilon^{2^{k}-j})),$$

 $Im(P(\varepsilon^{j})) = \frac{1}{2}Im(R(\varepsilon^{j}) - R(\varepsilon^{2^{k}-j})),$ and symmetrically with $Q(\varepsilon^{j}).$