

## 3 Structured algorithms for structured matrices

Reading material FFT: Björck Numerical methods in matrix computations, 2014. chapter 1.8.5

### 3.1 Fast fourier transform

The discrete Fourier transform is defined as follows. Let  $f(x)$  be a function, with known function values at  $f_k = f(x_k)$ ,  $k = 0, \dots, N-1$ . Then, we can view the transform as an interpolation in the points  $x_0, \dots, x_{N-1}$

$$x_k = \frac{2\pi k}{N} \quad (3.1)$$

with the exponential as basis functions:

$$f^*(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} c_j e^{ijx}$$

The coefficients  $c_0, \dots, c_{N-1}$  are given by

$$c_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} f_k e^{-ijx_k}.$$

We now let  $\omega_N$  be the  $N$ th root of unity

$$\omega_N = e^{-2\pi i/N}. \quad (3.2)$$

The coefficients can also be expressed as

$$c_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} f_k \omega_N^{jk}. \quad (3.3)$$

The naive approach to compute the coefficients  $c_j$  would require  $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$  operations. The FFT is a procedure which achieves this in  $\mathcal{O}(N \log(N))$  operations. To ease the notation we define  $y_i = N c_i$ , such that the factor  $1/N$  in (3.3) can be removed.

The discrete Fourier transform (DFT) is defined from the DFT matrix.

**Definition 3.1.1** (DFT and DFT matrix). *The application of DFT to the vector  $f \in \mathbb{C}^N$  is*

$$y = F_N f$$

Note that we assume that the grid is (equi-spaced) uniform in (3.1). The techniques for the main algorithms are not trivially transferred to the non-uniform case. Non-uniform FFT is an active research area.

where

$$F_N = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_N^{00} & \dots & \omega_N^{0(N-1)} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \omega_N^{(N-1)0} & \dots & \omega_N^{(N-1)(N-1)} \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.4)$$

and  $\omega_N$  is given by (3.2).

It is easy to verify that

$$\frac{1}{N} F_N^H F_N = I$$

which implies that the inverse DFT transform satisfies

$$f = \frac{1}{N} F_N^H y$$

The hermitian transpose of the matrix is the same as the matrix (3.4), if we replace  $\omega_N$  with  $\bar{\omega}_N = e^{2\pi i/N}$ . Therefore, the algorithm developed below can analogously be applied to compute the inverse DFT.

The approach that follows assumes that the size of the matrix is  $N = 2^p$ . This is not a dramatic assumption in practice, since the matrix size can be increased by adding trivial equations. Let  $m = N/2$ . We now reorder the equations, by considering odd and even parts separately. For  $j = 0, \dots, N-1$ ,

$$y_j = \sum_{k_1=0}^{m-1} (\omega_N^2)^{jk_1} f_{2k_1} + \omega_N^j \sum_{k_1=0}^{m-1} (\omega_N^2)^{jk_1} f_{2k_1+1}. \quad (3.5)$$

Now let  $j = \beta m + j_1$ , where  $j_1$  is the remainder in the division  $j/m$ , such that

$$(\omega_N^2)^{jk_1} = \omega_m^{j_1 k_1}.$$

We can now define

$$\phi_{j_1} := \sum_{k_1=0}^{m-1} \omega_m^{j_1 k_1} f_{2k_1} \quad \text{and} \quad \psi_{j_1} := \sum_{k_1=0}^{m-1} \omega_m^{j_1 k_1} f_{2k_1+1} \quad (3.6)$$

The equations (3.6) is again an FFT-problem of half the size, and the solution can be constructed from (3.7).

and (3.5) can be reduced to  $y_j = \phi_{j_1} + \omega_N^j \psi_{j_1}$ .

The relations (3.7) are called the butterfly relations.

$$y_{j_1} = \phi_{j_1} + \omega_N^j \psi_{j_1} \quad (3.7a)$$

$$y_{j_1+N/2} = \phi_{j_1} - \omega_N^j \psi_{j_1} \quad (3.7b)$$

Note that the equations (3.6) are two fourier series which allows us to repeat the procedure on a smaller series. The recursion can be repeated until we obtain a small fourier series which can be computed directly.

A general implementation for matrices of size  $N = 2^p$  is given in Algorithm 1.

```
function fftx(x);  
Input:  $x$   
Output:  $y$   
Input: The matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and vector  $b$ .  
n=length(x)  
omega = exp(-2i*pi/n);  
if rem(n,2)=0 then  
    k=(0:n/2-1)'; w=omega.^k;  
    u=fftx(x(1:2:n-1));  
    v=w.*fftx(x(2:2:n));  
    y=[u+v;u-v];  
else  
    j=0:n-1; k=j';  
    F=omega.^(k*j);  
    y=F*x;  
end
```

**Algorithm 1:** Recursive formulation of FFT. Algorithm 1.8.1 in Björck

Reading material: Cooley-Tukey FFT: Björck: pages 194-196.

## 3.2 Toeplitz matrices

Reading material: Golub & Van Loan, chapter 4.7

Levinson-Durbin: Golub and van Loan

## 3.3 Circulant matrices

Reading material: Golub & Van Loan, chapter 4.8

## 3.4 Hierarchical and semi-separable matrices

### 3.4.1 Semi-separable matrices

Many matrices stemming from data have some form of low-rank structure. The semi-separable is a low-rank structure where involving the lower triangular part.

**Definition 3.4.1.** A symmetric matrix is called semi-separable (of order  $p$ ), if all submatrices taken out of the low triangular part have rank  $\leq p$ .

Example: Banded matrices is semi-separable with order same as the band

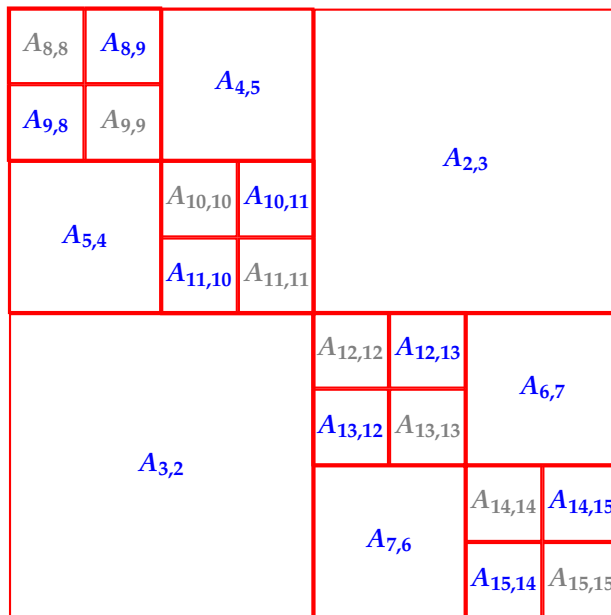
Example: The inverse of a tridiagonal matrix is semi-separable

Example: Electrostatics

Properties: Inverse of a semi-separable matrix is again semi-separable.

### 3.4.2 Hierarchical semi-separable matrices

We will now exploit the properties of semi-separable matrices, considering a particular type of partitioning of the matrix.



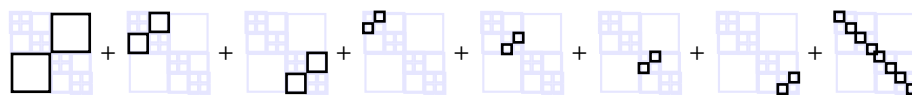
What follows will be based on two observations.

1. Due to the property that the matrix is semi-separable, all the matrices below the diagonal will be of low-rank. Therefore, the blocks in the nodes marked in blue above are of low-rank. We assume those blocks are given in terms of SVD-factorizations:

$$A_{\sigma,\tau} = U_{\sigma} \tilde{A}_{\sigma,\tau} V_{\tau}^T.$$

The matrix  $\tilde{A}_{\sigma,\tau}$  in the middle of the factorization can be (but does not have to be) a diagonal matrix and is called the **core** of the block.

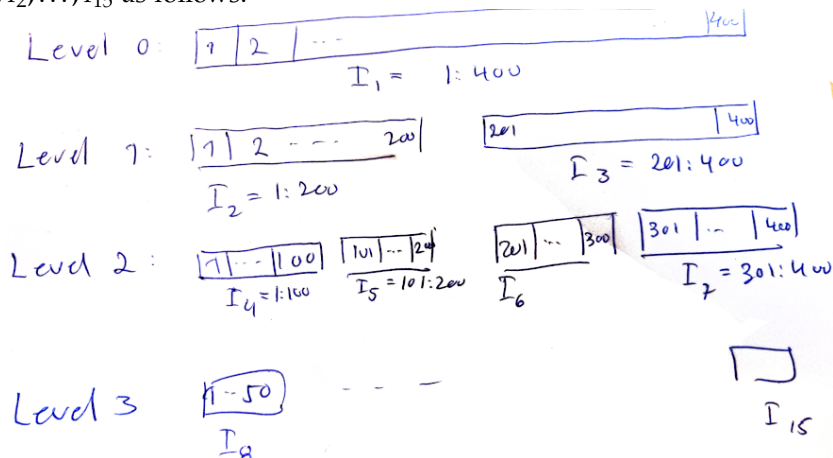
2. In order to implement operations with this matrix, we separate the matrix into a sum of blocks. We will loop through all the blocks of the matrix in the following way. Note that the final matrix is just a diagonal matrix.



The system for the number of the blocks is explained by the recursive subdivision formulation in Section 3.4.3.

### 3.4.3 Recursive index vector formulation

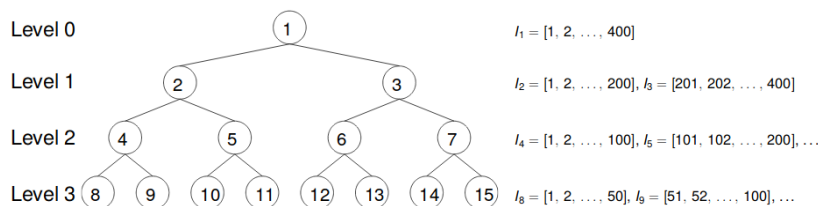
In order to exploit the second observation, we will formulate it in a recursive way in terms of index vectors. First, define the index vectors  $I_1, I_2, \dots, I_{15}$  as follows:



With this notation, we can denote the blocks of the matrix as

$$A_{\sigma, \tau} = A(I_{\sigma}, I_{\tau}), \quad \sigma, \tau = 1, \dots, 15.$$

Algorithms for this matrix are naturally formulated in a recursive way, so we draw the corresponding tree:



Credit for the image: PGM. Will be replaced.

### 3.4.4 A recursive algorithm for the matrix vector product $Ac$

The above tools can be used to carry out several operations associated with  $A$ . Most importantly, we now show how it can be combined into an algorithm to compute the matrix times a vector  $c$ .

**\*\* Matrix-vector multiply using tree and index vectors \*\***

loop  $\tau$  is a node in the tree

if  $\tau$  is a leaf

$$b(I_{\tau}) = b(I_{\tau}) + A_{\tau, \tau} c(I_{\tau})$$

else

Let  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  be children of  $\tau$

Compute the following by a recursive call

$$b(I_{\tau}) = b(I_{\tau}) + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & A_{\sigma_1, \sigma_2} \\ A_{\sigma_2, \sigma_1} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c(I_{\sigma_1}) \\ c(I_{\sigma_2}) \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.8)$$

Note that the matrix product in (3.8) can be computed with computation of  $A_{\sigma_1, \sigma_2} c(\sigma_2)$  and  $A_{\sigma_2, \sigma_1} c(\sigma_1)$ , which can be computed by two recursive calls.

end  
end

### 3.5 *Other structures*