

# Polynomials & FFT

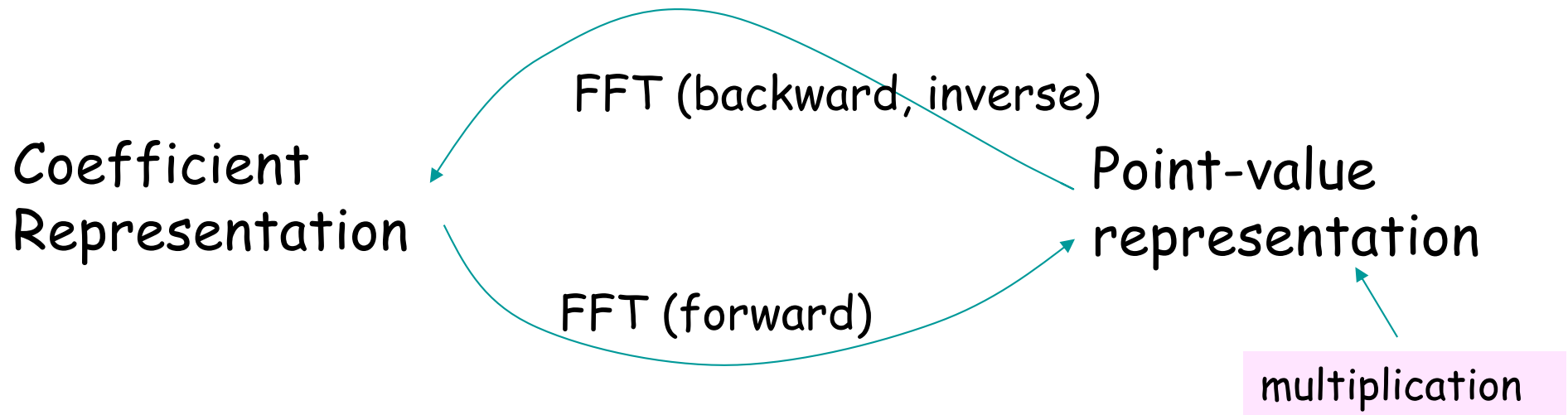
## Reading

Cormen et al. : Chapter 30 (recommended)

Dasgupta et al. : 2.6

Lipson, *Elements of Algebra & Algebraic Computing* (available in the library)

# Multiplying two degree- $n$ polynomials: $O(n^2)$ time $\rightarrow O(n \log n)$



FFT (forward): Evaluation at multi-points.

FFT (backward): Interpolation.

Either step takes  $O(n \log n)$  time.

Thus, two polynomials (represented by  $n$  coefficients) can be multiplied in  $O(n \log n)$  time.

# Polynomials

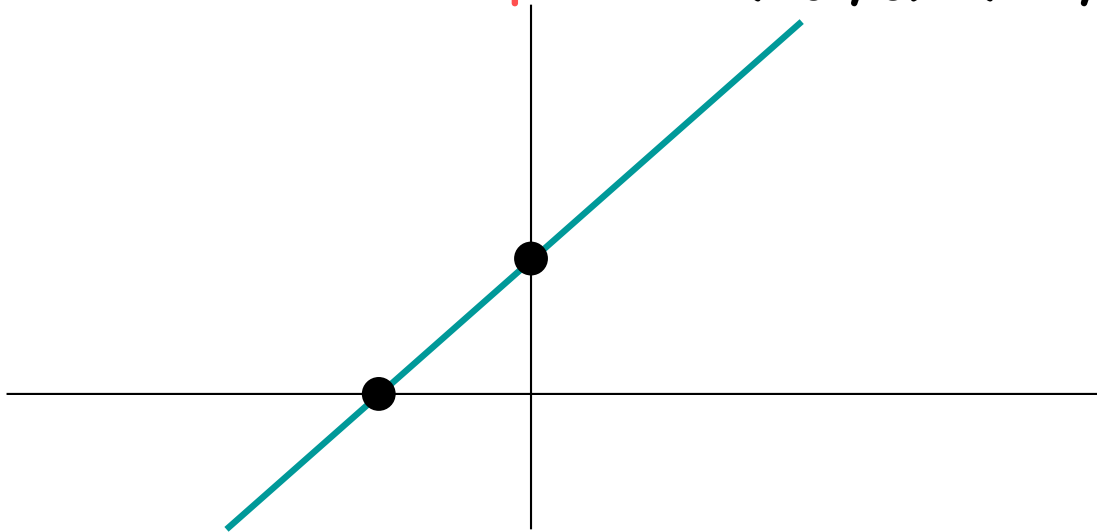
A degree  $n-1$  polynomial  $P(x)$  can be represented by

- $n$  coefficients  $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n-1}$

$$\text{I.e., } P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1};$$

or

- values at  $n$  points:  $(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$ , where  $y_i = P(x_i)$



Example

$P(x) = x + 1$  can be represented by two points  $(0, 1)$  and  $(-1, 0)$ .

In fact, any two points on the green line can represent  $p(x) = x+1$ :  $(1, 2)$  &  $(2, 3)$

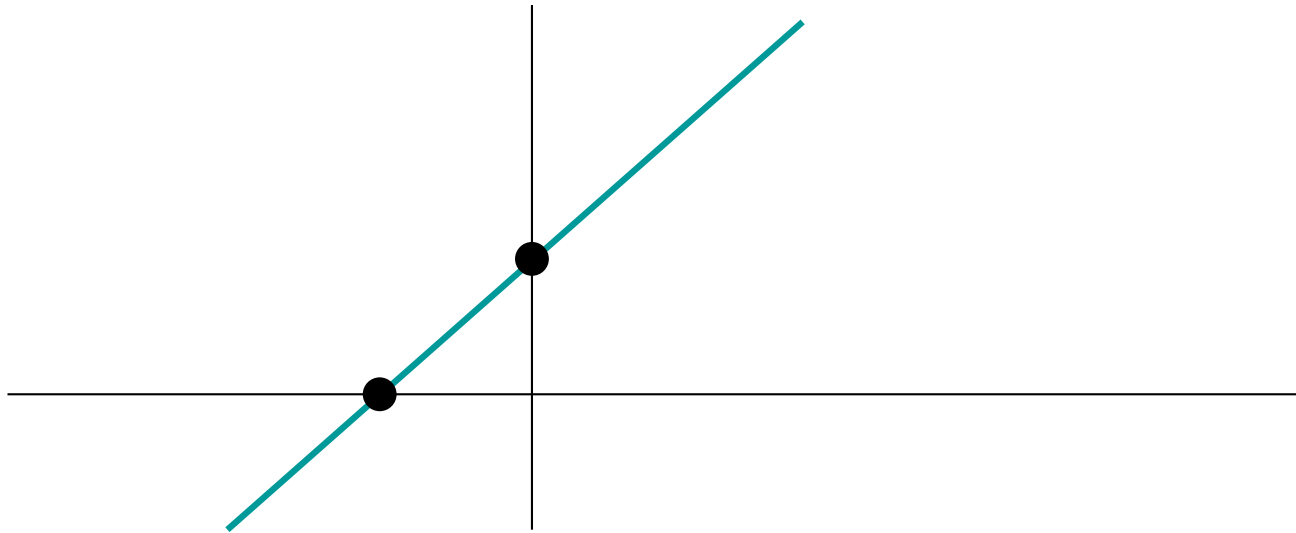
# Polynomials

A degree  $n-1$  polynomial  $P(x)$  can be represented by

- $n$  coefficients  $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n-1}$ .

I.e.,  $P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}$ ;

- values at  $n$  points:  $(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$ .



**Interpolation Theorem.** Given  $\{ (x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1}) \}$ , there is a **unique** degree- $(n-1)$  polynomial  $P(x)$  such that  $P(x_i) = y_i$  for all  $i$ .

# Evaluation of polynomials

How to evaluate  $P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}$  at a certain value, say,  $x_1$ .

- E.g.,  $P(x) = 3x^2 + 5x - 1$ ;  $P(x_1 = 0) = -1$ ;  $P(x_2 = 1) = 7$ ; ...

Horner's rule:  $n-1$  multiplications (plus  $n$  additions).

$$(a_{n-1}x_1 + a_{n-2})$$

$$(a_{n-1}x_1 + a_{n-2})x_1 + a_{n-3}$$

$$((a_{n-1}x_1 + a_{n-2})x_1 + a_{n-3})x_1 + a_{n-4}$$

.

.

$$((\dots((a_{n-1}x_1 + a_{n-2})x_1 + a_{n-3})x_1 + a_{n-4})x_1 + \dots)x_1 + a_0$$

# Polynomial multiplications (convolution)

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

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

computing  $P(x) \times Q(x)$  requires  $O(n^2)$  multiplications.

Degree of  $P(x) \times Q(x)$ :  $2n-2$ .

$$P(x) \times Q(x) =$$

$$a_0 b_0 + (a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0)x + (a_0 b_2 + a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_0)x^2$$

+ ...

$$+ (a_0 b_i + a_1 b_{i-1} + a_2 b_{i-2} + \dots + a_i b_0)x^i$$

+ ...

$$+ a_{n-1}b_{n-1}x^{2n-2}$$

# Point-Value representation

$P(x) \times Q(x)$ , a degree  $2n-2$  polynomial, can be represented by

- either  $2n-1$  coefficients;
- **or** its values at  $2n-1$  distinct points of  $x$ .

Suppose we know the values of  $P(x)$  and  $Q(x)$  at  $2n-1$  points.

$P(x)$ :  $(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_{2n-2}, y_{2n-2})$ .

$Q(x)$ :  $(x_0, z_0), (x_1, z_1), (x_2, z_2), \dots, (x_{2n-2}, z_{2n-2})$ .

Then computing  $P(x) \times Q(x)$  is easy:  $2n-1$  multiplications.

- $y_0 z_0$ ,
- $y_1 z_1$ ,
- ...
- $y_{2n-2} z_{2n-2}$ .

These  **$2n-1$**  point-values uniquely represent  $P(x) \times Q(x)$ .

# Which representation is better?

	Add	Multiply	Evaluate
Coefficient representation	$O(n)$	$O(n^2)$	$O(n)$
Point-value representation	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(n^2)$

$P(x)$ :  $(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$

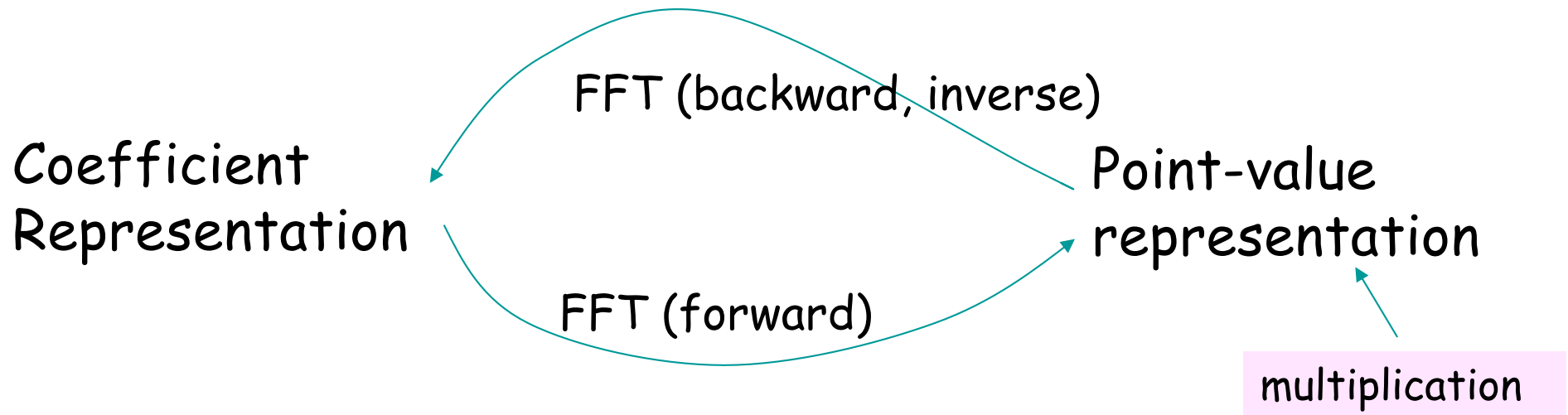
To evaluate  $P(x)$  with  $x = x_n$ , we calculate

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

Lagrange's formula



# Conversion



FFT (forward): Evaluation at multi-points.

FFT (backward): Interpolation.

Either step takes  $O(n \log n)$  time.

Thus, two polynomials (represented by coefficients) can be multiplied in  $O(n \log n)$  time.

# Forward transform: fast multi-point evaluation

**Input:**  $P(x)$ , represented by  $n$  **coefficients**  $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n-1}$

To compute:  $P(x)$  at **some**  $n$  points:  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}$

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_0 & x_0^2 & \dots & x_0^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \dots & x_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & \dots & x_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n-1} & x_{n-1}^2 & \dots & x_{n-1}^{n-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

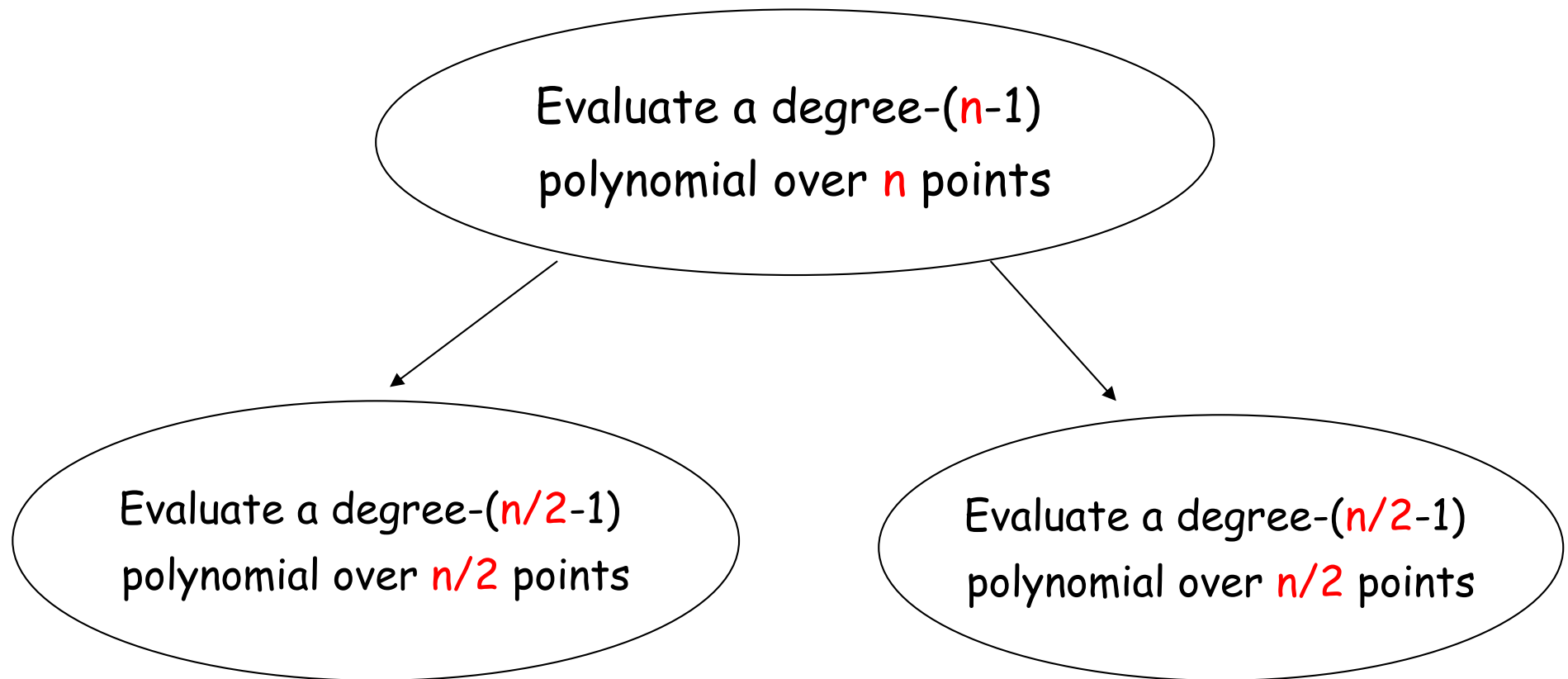
↑  
**Output**

Brute force: matrix-vector multiplication;  $O(n^2)$  steps.

Divide and conquer:  $O(n \log n)$ ? Yes, if the  $n$  points are **chosen** appropriately.

# Divide & Conquer

$$P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} \quad (n \text{ is a power of } 2).$$



# Divide & Conquer

$$P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} \quad (n \text{ is a power of } 2).$$

Define 2 polynomials with degree  $n/2 - 1$  (and  $n/2$  coefficients):

- $P_{\text{even}}(y) = a_0 + a_2y + a_4y^2 + \dots + a_{n-2}y^{n/2-1}$  (degree  $n/2-1$ );
- $P_{\text{odd}}(y) = a_1 + a_3y + a_5y^2 + \dots + a_{n-1}y^{n/2-1}$  (degree  $n/2-1$ )

$$\text{Fact. } P(x) = P_{\text{even}}(x^2) + x P_{\text{odd}}(x^2)$$

# Divide & Conquer

$$P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} \quad (n \text{ is a power of } 2).$$

Define 2 polynomials.

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- $P_{\text{odd}}(y) = a_1 + a_3y + a_5y^2 + \dots + a_{n-1}y^{n/2-1}$  (degree  $n/2-1$ )

$$\text{Fact. } P(x) = P_{\text{even}}(x^2) + x P_{\text{odd}}(x^2)$$

Smart choice of points to evaluate.

- e.g., choose two points  $x_i = 5$  and  $x_j = -5$ .

Then  $x_i^2 = x_j^2$ , and

- $P(x_i) = P_{\text{even}}(x_i^2) + x_i P_{\text{odd}}(x_i^2)$ , and

- $P(x_j) = P_{\text{even}}(x_j^2) + x_j P_{\text{odd}}(x_j^2) = P_{\text{even}}(x_i^2) - x_i P_{\text{odd}}(x_i^2).$

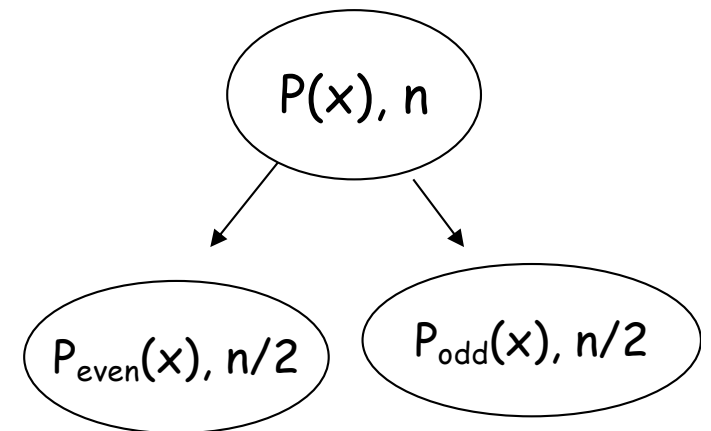
Almost for free



# Recursive formulation

In general, choose  $n$  distinct points  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}$  such that

- $x_0 = -x_{n/2}$  (then  $x_0^2 = x_{n/2}^2$ ),
- $x_1 = -x_{n/2+1}$  (then  $x_1^2 = x_{n/2+1}^2$ )
- ...
- $x_{n/2-1} = -x_{n-1}$  (then  $x_{n/2-1}^2 = x_{n-1}^2$ )



Evaluate  $P(x)$  (degree  $n-1$ ) at  $n$  points

Evaluate  $P_{\text{even}}(x)$  &  $P_{\text{odd}}(x)$  at  $n$  points  $x_0^2, x_1^2, \dots, x_{n/2-1}^2, x_{n/2}^2, \dots, x_{n-1}^2$   
 $\Rightarrow$  Evaluate  $P_{\text{even}}(x)$  &  $P_{\text{odd}}(x)$  at  $n/2$  points  $x_0^2, x_1^2, \dots, x_{n/2-1}^2$

For  $0 \leq i \leq n/2 - 1$ ,

- $P(x_i) = P_{\text{even}}(x_i^2) + x_i P_{\text{odd}}(x_i^2)$ , and
- $P(x_{n/2+i}) = P_{\text{even}}(x_i^2) - x_i P_{\text{odd}}(x_i^2)$

# Recurrence

Evaluate two degree  $n/2-1$  polynomials at  $n/2$  points:

$P_{\text{even}}(x)$  at  $x_0^2, x_1^2, \dots, x_{n/2-1}^2$ ;  $P_{\text{odd}}(x)$  at  $x_0^2, x_1^2, \dots, x_{n/2-1}^2$

For  $0 \leq i \leq n/2 - 1$ ,

- $P(x_i) = P_{\text{even}}(x_i^2) + x_i P_{\text{odd}}(x_i^2)$ , and
- $P(x_{n/2+i}) = P_{\text{even}}(x_i^2) - x_i P_{\text{odd}}(x_i^2)$

Let  $T(n)$  be the number of operations to evaluate a degree  $n-1$  polynomial at some  $n$  points.

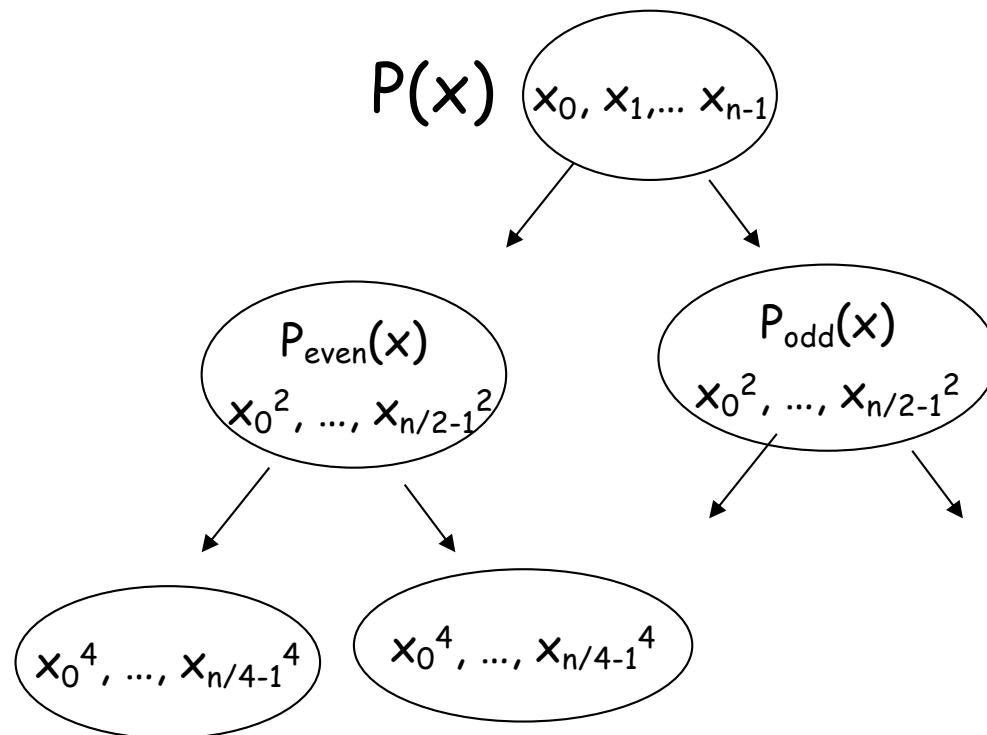
$$T(n) = 2 T(n/2) + c n$$

Therefore,  $T(n) = O(n \log n)$ .

# FFT Property: to realize the recursion

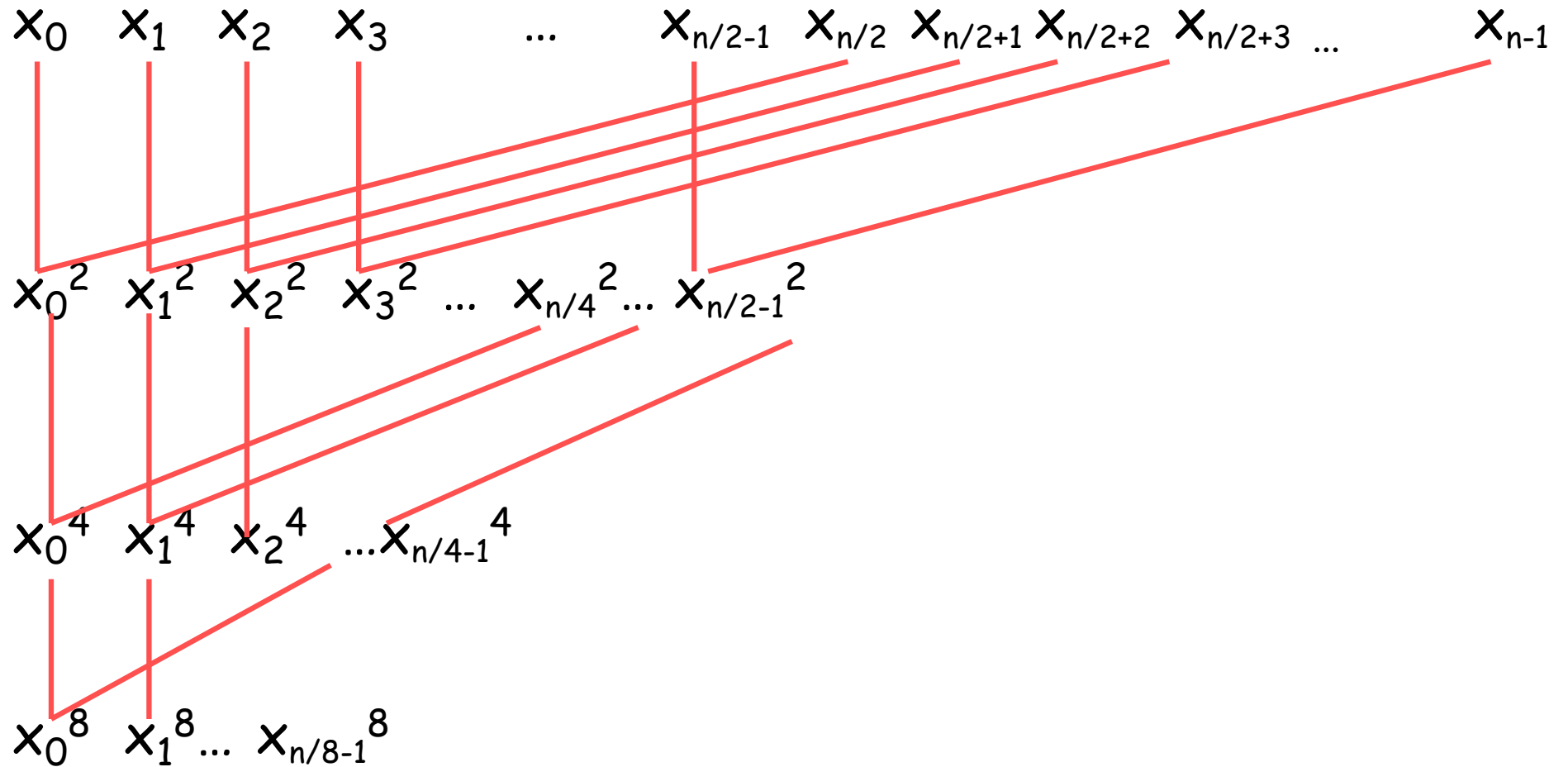
The points  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}$  ( $n$  is a power of 2) are said to satisfy the **FFT Property** if

- $x_0 = -x_{n/2}, x_1 = -x_{n/2+1}, \dots, x_{n/2-1} = -x_{n-1}$ , and
- the  $n/2$  (if  $> 1$ ) points  $x_0^2, x_1^2, \dots, x_{n/2-1}^2$  also satisfies the FFT Property.





# FFT Graph



# FFT Property: to realize the recursion

The points  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}$  ( $n$  is a power of 2) are said to satisfy the FFT Property if

- $x_0 = -x_{n/2}, x_1 = -x_{n/2+1}, \dots, x_{n/2-1} = -x_{n-1}$ , and
- the  $n/2$  (if  $> 1$ ) points  $x_0^2, x_1^2, \dots, x_{n/2-1}^2$  also satisfies the FFT Property.

For example,  $n = 4$ .

Consider  $(x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3) = (1, 2, -1, -2)$ .

Then  $x_0 = -x_2, x_1 = -x_3$

However, does  $(x_0^2, x_1^2) = (1, 4)$  satisfies FFT Property?

**No.**  $x_0^4 = 1 \neq x_1^4 = 16$

What can be  $x_0^2$  and  $x_1^2$  so that  $x_0^2 = -x_1^2$ ?

•

# Complex numbers

# Mathematics background

**Def.**  $w$  is called an  **$n$ -th root of unity** if  $w$  is a root of the equation  $x^n - 1 = 0$ . That is,  $w^n = 1$ .

**Def.**  $w$  is called a **primitive  $n$ -th root of unity** if  $w^n = 1$ , and  $w^k \neq 1$  for all  $k = 1, \dots, n-1$ .

Example 1.  $n = 2$ . **1** is a 2<sup>nd</sup> root of unity.

**-1** is a **primitive** 2<sup>nd</sup> root of unity.

For  $n > 2$ , the primitive  $n$ -th roots of unity are non-real complex numbers. Let  **$i$**  =  $\sqrt{-1}$ .

# Background: Complex numbers

Note that  $e^{i2\pi} = 1$ ,  $e^{i\pi/2} = i$  and  $e^{i\pi} = -1$  (polar representation), where Let  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ .

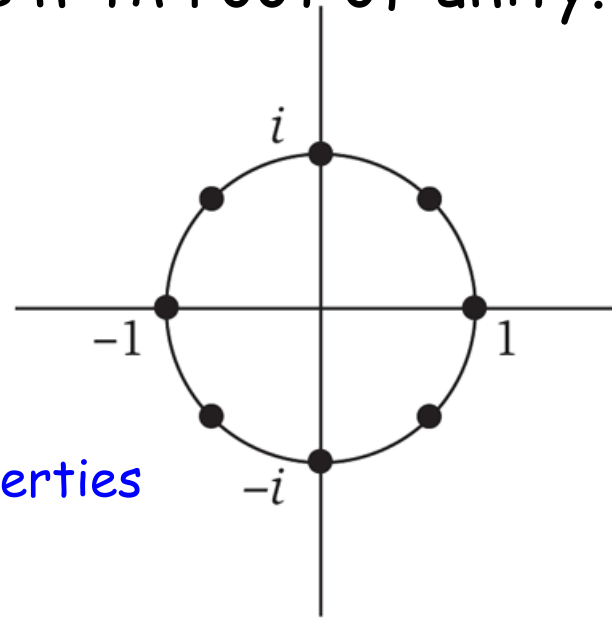
**Fact.**  $\omega = e^{i2\pi/n}$  is a primitive  $n$ -th root of unity.

Example 2.

$$n = 4, e^{i2\pi/n} = i$$

- $i^1 = i, i^2 = -1, i^3 = -i, i^4 = 1$
- **!?**  $i, -1, -i, 1$  satisfy the FFT properties

$$n = 8, e^{i2\pi/n} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} i$$



The 8<sup>th</sup> roots of unity in the complex plane.

# Background: primitive n-th root of unity

Assume  $n$  is an even number.

**Lemma 1.** If  $\omega$  is a primitive  $n$ -th root of unity, then  $\omega^2$  is a primitive  $n/2$ -th root of unity.

Proof.

- $(\omega^2)^{n/2} = \omega^n = 1$ .
- For any  $0 < k < n/2$ ,  
 $(\omega^2)^k = \omega^{2k} \neq 1$  because  $0 < 2k < n$ .

## Background: primitive n-th root of unity

Assume  $n$  is an even number.

**Lemma 2.** if  $\omega$  is a **primitive**  $n$ -th root of unity, then  $\omega^{n/2} = -1$ .

Proof.

Recall that  $\omega^n = (\omega^{n/2})^2 = 1$ .

Thus,  $(\omega^{n/2})$  satisfies the equation  $x^2 = 1$ .

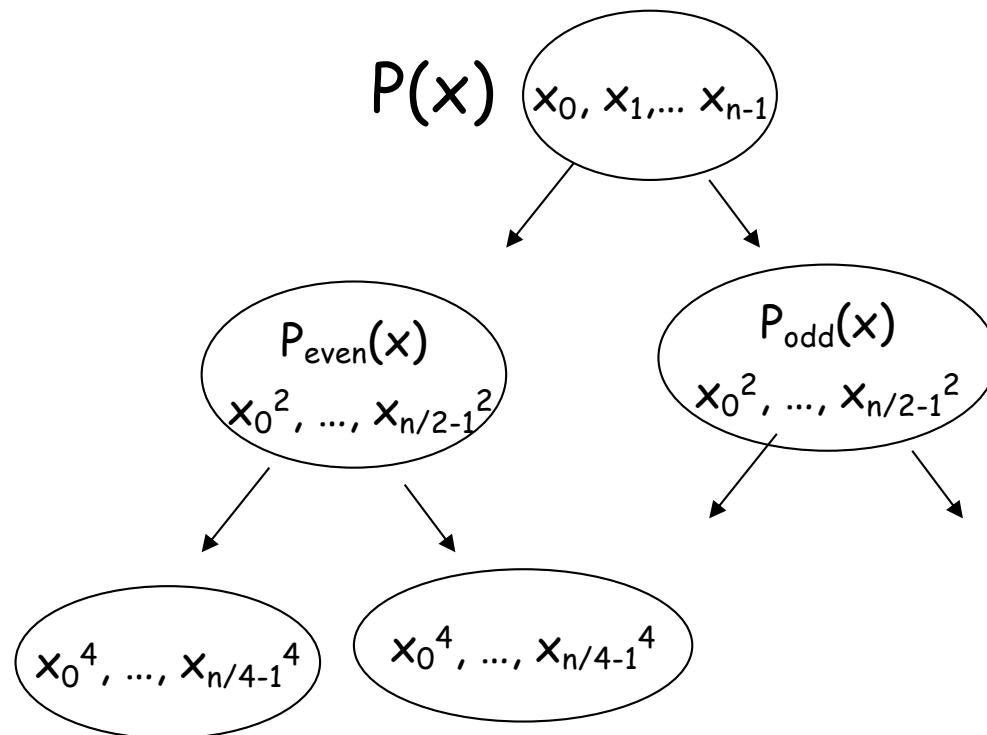
The equation  $x^2 = 1$  has two roots, namely, 1 and -1.

Since  $\omega^{n/2} \neq 1$ ,  $\omega^{n/2} = -1$ .

# FFT Property

The points  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}$  ( $n$  is a power of 2) are said to satisfy the **FFT Property** if

- $x_0 = -x_{n/2}, x_1 = -x_{n/2+1}, \dots, x_{n/2-1} = -x_{n-1}$ , and
- the  $n/2$  (if  $> 1$ ) points  $x_0^2, x_1^2, \dots, x_{n/2-1}^2$  also satisfies the FFT Property.





# Complex numbers

Let  $n$  be a power of 2, and let  $\omega = e^{i2\pi/n}$ , where  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ .

Claim. If  $\omega$  is a primitive  $n$ -th root of unity.  $(1, \omega^1, \omega^2, \dots, \omega^{n-1})$  satisfies the FFT property.

By induction on  $n = 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, \dots$ . Base case  $n = 1$  is trivial. Lemma 2

$\omega$  is a primitive  $n$ -th root of unity  $\Rightarrow$

$$\text{for any } 0 \leq k \leq n/2 - 1, \quad \omega^{n/2+k} = \omega^{n/2}\omega^k = (-1)\omega^k = -\omega^k;$$

$$\text{therefore, } (\omega^{n/2+k})^2 = (\omega^k)^2.$$

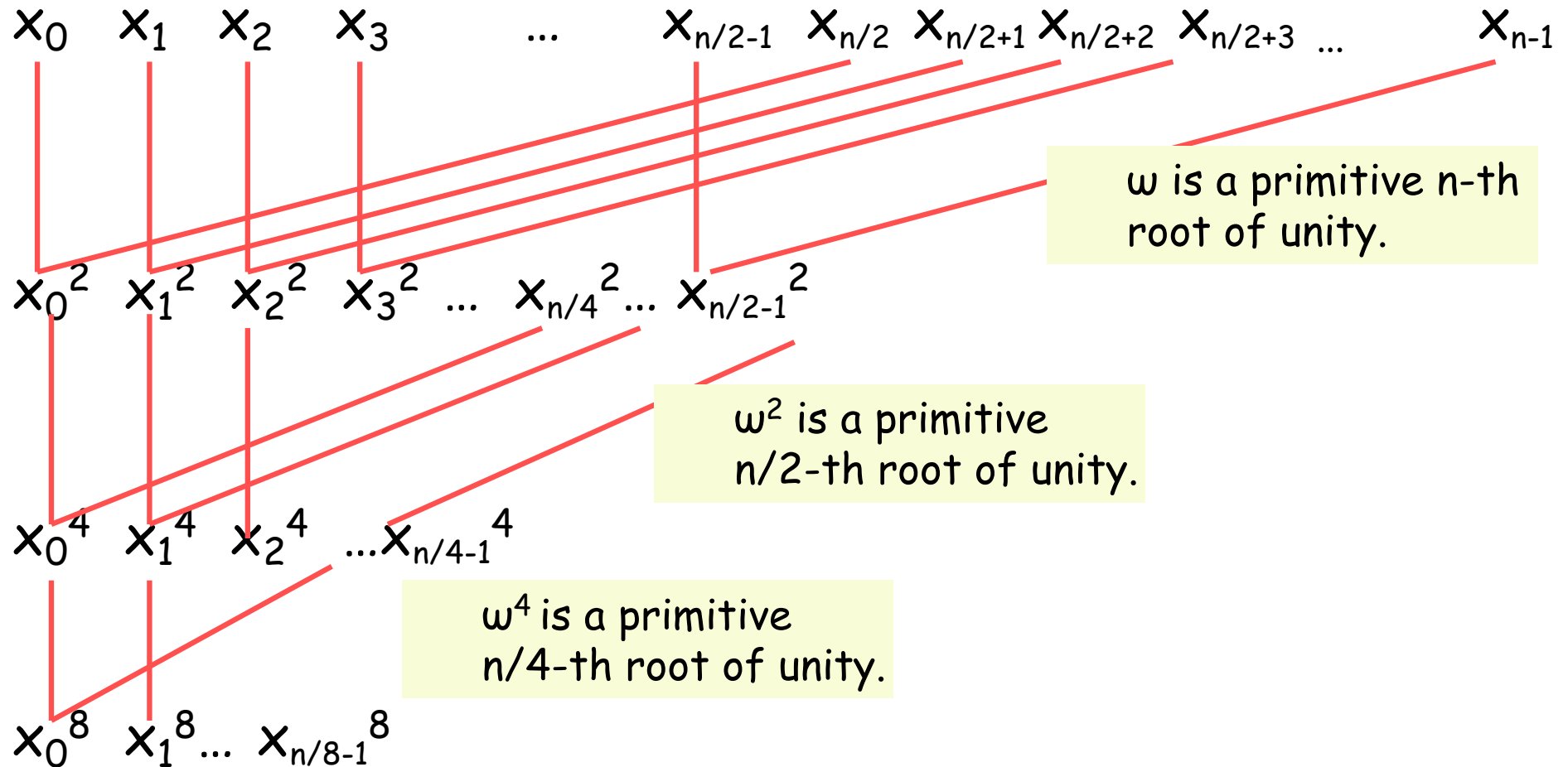
By Lemma 1,  $\omega$  is a primitive  $n$ -th root of unity  $\Rightarrow$

$\omega^2$  is a primitive  $(n/2)$ -th root of unity.

By induction hypothesis,  $(1, \omega^2, (\omega^2)^2, \dots, (\omega^2)^{n/2-1})$  satisfies the FFT property.

Therefore,  $(1, \omega^1, \omega^2, \dots, \omega^{n-1})$  satisfies the FFT property.

# FFT Graph: choosing $x_i = \omega^i$



# DFT: evaluate $P(x)$ at $1, \omega^1, \omega^2, \dots, \omega^{n-1}$

Let  $\omega$  be a primitive  $n$ -th root of unity.

$$\begin{pmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega^1 & \omega^{1 \cdot 2} & \dots & \omega^{1 \cdot (n-1)} \\ 1 & \omega^2 & \omega^{2 \cdot 2} & \dots & \omega^{2 \cdot (n-1)} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & \omega^{n-1} & \omega^{(n-1) \cdot 2} & \dots & \omega^{(n-1) \cdot (n-1)} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

???

given

The vector  $(b_0, b_1, \dots, b_{n-1})$  is called the Discrete Fourier Transform of the vector  $(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$ .

# Fast Fourier Transform: divide & conquer

FFT ( $n, a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n-1}$ ):  $y_0, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{n-1}$

if  $n = 1$  then **return**  $a_0$

$(z_0, z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{n/2-1}) = \text{FFT}(n/2, a_0, a_2, a_4, \dots, a_{n-2})$

$(v_0, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{n/2-1}) = \text{FFT}(n/2, a_1, a_3, a_5, \dots, a_{n-1})$

For  $k = 0$  to  $n/2 - 1$

$$y_k = z_k + \omega^k v_k$$

$$y_{k+n/2} = z_k - \omega^k v_k$$

**return**  $(y_0, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{n-1})$ .

$P_{\text{even}}$



$P_{\text{odd}}$



## A summary

Given 2 degree  $n-1$  polynomials  $P(x)$  and  $Q(x)$ ,  
compute  $R(x) = P(x) Q(x)$ .

To compute  $R(x)$  efficiently,

**Step 0.** Let  $N$  be a power of 2 such that  $N-1 \geq 2n-2$ . Treat  $P(x)$  and  $Q(x)$  as degree  $N-1$  polynomials.

**Step 1.** Evaluate  $P(x)$  and  $Q(x)$  at  $N$  points  $(1, \omega, \omega^2, \dots, \omega^N)$ , where  $\omega$  is a primitive  $N$ -th root of unity.

**Step 2.** Multiply the two values at each of these  $N$  points.

**Step 3.** Interpolation: Find a polynomial that evaluates to the above values at the  $N$  points.

Step 1: FFT takes  $O(n \log n)$  operations.

Step 2:  $O(n)$  operations.



Step 3: Inverse transform  $O(n \log n)$  operations.

# Inverse Transform: interpolation

Suppose we know that a degree  $n-1$  polynomial  $P(x)$ , when evaluated at points  $(1, \omega^1, \omega^2, \dots, \omega^{n-1})$ , yields the values  $b_0, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_{n-1}$ .

We want to find the coefficients  $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n-1}$  of  $P(x)$ .  
I.e.,

$$\begin{pmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega^1 & \omega^{1 \cdot 2} & \dots & \omega^{1 \cdot n-1} \\ 1 & \omega^2 & \omega^{2 \cdot 2} & \dots & \omega^{2 \cdot n-1} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & \omega^{n-1} & \omega^{(n-1) \cdot 2} & \dots & \omega^{(n-1) \cdot n-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

 given  ???

# Inverse of $\omega$

**Lemma.** If  $\omega$  is a primitive  $n$ -th root of unity, then  $\omega^{-1}$  is also a primitive  $n$ -th root of unity.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}(\omega^{-1})^n &= (\omega^{-1})^n \cdot 1 \\ &= (\omega^{-1})^n (\omega)^n \\ &= (\omega^{-1}\omega)^n \\ &= 1\end{aligned}$$

For any  $0 < k < n$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}(\omega^{-1})^k &= (\omega^{-1})^k \cdot (\omega)^n \\ &= (\omega^{-1}\omega)^k \cdot (\omega)^{n-k} \\ &= \omega^{n-k} \\ &\neq 1 \quad (\text{because } 0 < n - k < n)\end{aligned}$$

# Inverse transform

Let  $w$  be a primitive  $n$ -th root of unity.

$$\begin{pmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega^1 & \omega^{1 \cdot 2} & \dots & \omega^{1 \cdot n-1} \\ 1 & \omega^2 & \omega^{2 \cdot 2} & \dots & \omega^{2 \cdot n-1} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & \omega^{n-1} & \omega^{(n-1) \cdot 2} & \dots & \omega^{(n-1) \cdot n-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

Given  $B$                        $V(\omega)$                       Compute  $A$

Lemma.  $A = n^{-1} V(\omega^{-1}) B$

We use forward transform for  $\omega^{-1}$  to perform inverse transform for  $\omega$



# Vandermonde Matrix

$$\text{Let } V(\omega) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega^1 & \omega^{1 \cdot 2} & \dots & \omega^{1 \cdot (n-1)} \\ 1 & \omega^2 & \omega^{2 \cdot 2} & \dots & \omega^{2 \cdot (n-1)} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & \omega^{n-1} & \omega^{(n-1) \cdot 2} & \dots & \omega^{(n-1)(n-1)} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega^1 & \omega^2 & \omega^3 & \dots & \omega^{n-1} \\ 1 & \omega^2 & \omega^{2 \cdot 2} & \omega^{2 \cdot 3} & \dots & \omega^{2 \cdot (n-1)} \\ 1 & \omega^3 & \omega^{3 \cdot 2} & \omega^{3 \cdot 3} & \dots & \omega^{3(n-1)} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & \omega^{n-1} & \omega^{(n-1) \cdot 2} & \dots & \omega^{(n-1)(n-1)} \end{pmatrix}$$

$V(\omega)$  is called the Vandermonde matrix.

**Fact.** In  $V(\omega)$ , The  $k$ -th row is identical to the  $k$ -th column.

A couple of lemmas about Vandermonde matrix would enable us to perform inverse transform easily!

# Inverse of $\omega$

**Lemma.** If  $\omega$  is a primitive  $n$ -th root of unity, then  $\omega^{-1}$  is also a primitive  $n$ -th root of unity.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}(\omega^{-1})^n &= (\omega^{-1})^n \cdot 1 \\ &= (\omega^{-1})^n (\omega)^n \\ &= (\omega^{-1}\omega)^n \\ &= 1\end{aligned}$$

For any  $0 < k < n$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}(\omega^{-1})^k &= (\omega^{-1})^k \cdot (\omega)^n \\ &= (\omega^{-1}\omega)^k \cdot (\omega)^{n-k} \\ &= \omega^{n-k} \\ &\neq 1 \quad (\text{because } 0 < n - k < n)\end{aligned}$$

# Inverse of Vandermonde matrix

**Lemma.** If  $\omega$  is a primitive  $n$ -th root of unity, then  
$$V(\omega)^{-1} = n^{-1}V(\omega^{-1}).$$

That is,  $V(\omega) \cdot n^{-1}V(\omega^{-1}) = I$ , where  $I =$  the identity matrix.

$$I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

**Proof.** Let  $M = V(\omega) \cdot V(\omega^{-1})$ . Label the row and columns of  $M$  from 0 to  $n-1$ .

**Case 1.** What is  $M[k,j]$  if  $0 \leq k = j < n$ ?

- The  $k$ -th row of  $V(\omega) = [1 \ \omega^k \ \omega^{k^2} \ \dots \ \omega^{k(n-1)}]$ , and the  $j$ -th column of  $V(\omega^{-1}) = [1 \ (\omega^{-1})^k \ (\omega^{-1})^{k^2} \ \dots \ (\omega^{-1})^{k(n-1)}]$ .
- $M[k,j] = 1 + \omega^k (\omega^{-1})^k + \omega^{k^2} (\omega^{-1})^{k^2} \dots + \omega^{k(n-1)} (\omega^{-1})^{k(n-1)} = n.$

# Proof

Let  $M = V(\omega) \cdot V(\omega^{-1})$ .

**Case 2.** What is  $M[k,j]$  if  $0 \leq k \neq j < n$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} M[k,j] &= 1 + \omega^k (\omega^{-1})^j + \omega^{k^2} (\omega^{-1})^{j^2} \dots + \omega^{k(n-1)} (\omega^{-1})^{j(n-1)} \\ &= 1 + \omega^{k-j} + (\omega^{k-j})^2 \dots + (\omega^{k-j})^{n-1} \quad (\text{G.P. Sum}) \\ &= \frac{(\omega^{k-j})^n - 1}{(\omega^{k-j}) - 1} = \frac{(\omega^n)^{k-j} - 1}{(\omega^{k-j}) - 1} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

PS. Recall that  $\omega$  and  $\omega^{-1}$  are primitive  $n$ -th roots of unity.  
Since  $k \neq j$ , then  $0 < |k-j| < n$  and  $\omega^{k-j} \neq 1$ .

# Conclusion

Let  $M = V(\omega) \cdot V(\omega^{-1})$ .

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} n & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & n & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & & & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & n \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus  $V(\omega) \cdot n^{-1}V(\omega^{-1}) = n^{-1}M = I$ .

# Inverse transform $\rightarrow$ Forward transform

Let  $A$  be the coefficient vector  $(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n-1})$ , and let  $B$  be the value vector  $(b_0, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_{n-1})$ .

Then  $B = V(\omega)A \Leftrightarrow V(\omega)^{-1}B = A$ .

Thus given the value vector  $B$ , we can compute  $A$  by computing  $V(\omega)^{-1}B$ .

How to compute  $V(\omega)^{-1}B$ ?

Use forward transform.

Intuitively,  $V(\omega)^{-1}B$  corresponds to the evaluation of a polynomial **with  $B$  as coefficients** at the points  $(1, \omega^{-1}, \omega^{-1 \cdot 2}, \dots, \omega^{-1 \cdot (n-1)})$ , where  $\omega^{-1}$  is a primitive  $n$ -th root of unity.

## Other than complex numbers

$Z$  = the set of integers isn't a "field" and the primitive  $n$ -th root of unit is not well defined.

However, for any **prime** number  $p$ ,  $Z_p = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$  is a field (w.r.t. mod  $p$  arithmetic).

For example, consider  $Z_{13} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 12\}$ .

8 is a primitive **4-th** root unity.

$$8^1 = 8; \quad 8^2 = 12 \pmod{13}; \quad 8^3 = 5; \quad 8^4 = 1.$$

$$8^{-1} = 5 \quad (8 \times 5 = 1 \pmod{13}).$$

$8^{-1}$  is also a primitive 4-th root unity.

# $Z_{13}$

$$V(8) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 8 & 12 & 5 \\ 1 & 12 & 1 & 12 \\ 1 & 5 & 12 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$V(5) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 & 12 & 8 \\ 1 & 12 & 1 & 12 \\ 1 & 8 & 12 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$V(8) V(5) = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$