



# FFTs in Graphics and Vision

Fast String Matching  
and  
Math Review

*Fast Pattern Matching in Strings*  
Knuth *et al.*, 1977



# Outline

Fast Substring Matching

Math Review

- Complex Numbers
- Vector Spaces
- Linear Operators



# Fast Substring Matching

Challenge:

Given strings  $S$  and  $T$ , find all occurrences of  $T$  as a substring of  $S$ .



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Example:

$S = \text{A} \boxed{\text{CDB}} \text{EF} \boxed{\text{CDB}} \text{E}$

$T = \text{CDB}$



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## Brute Force:

- For each position in  $S$ :
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$S = \text{ACDBEFCDDBE}$        $T = \text{CDB}$



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$$O(|S| \times |T|)$$



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Can we do this more efficiently?



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Comparisons: 1



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Given strings  $S$  and  $T$ , find all occurrences of  $T$  as a substring of  $S$ .

## Observation:

What if the situation is more complex?

$S = \text{AAAAAAAAAAB}$

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Comparisons: 4



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$$O(|S| + |T|)$$



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Knuth *et al.* (1977):

On a failed match, we don't have to re-start the matching.

The key is to know where in  $T$  we have to start comparing.



# Fast Substring Matching

## Challenge:

Given strings  $S$  and  $T$ , find all occurrences of  $T$  as a substring of  $S$ .

## Knuth *et al.* (1977):

The size of the shift on a mismatch is determined by the repetitions in  $T$ , is independent of  $S$ , and can be computed in  $O(|T|)$  time.

For more details, see:

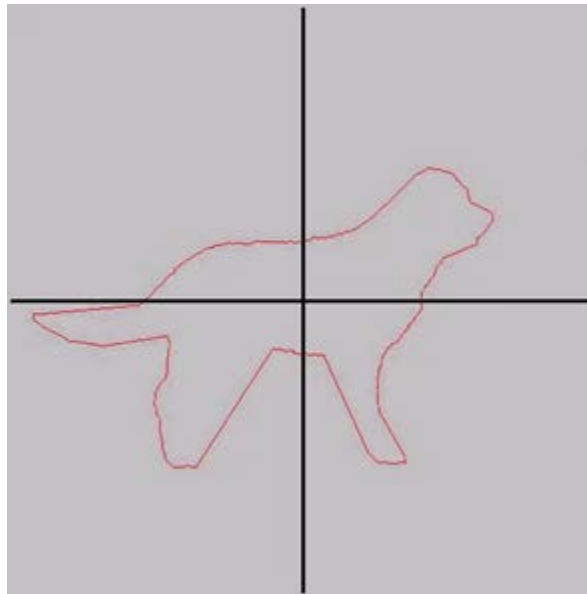
*Fast Pattern Matching in Strings.*



# Fast Substring Matching

Recall:

Our goal is to perform registration and symmetry detection on the circle.





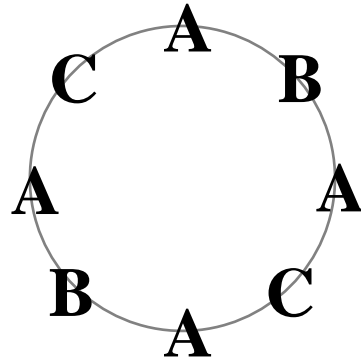
# Fast Substring Matching

## Applications:

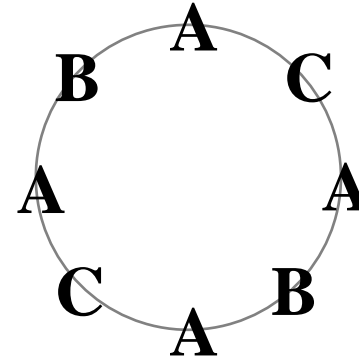
If we think of a string as a signal on a circle:

- We can test if signal  $T$  is a rotation of  $S$  by testing if  $T$  is a substring of  $SS$

$S=ABACABAC$



$T=ACABACAB$



$SS=ABACABACABACABAC$



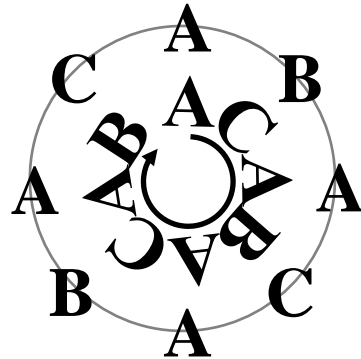
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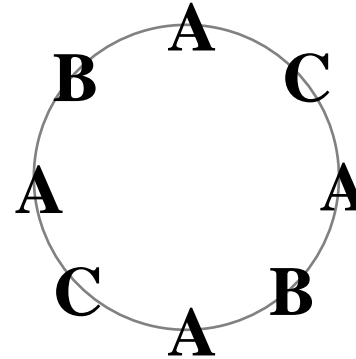
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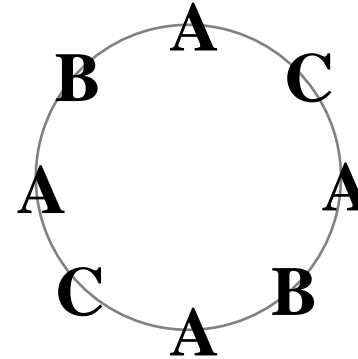
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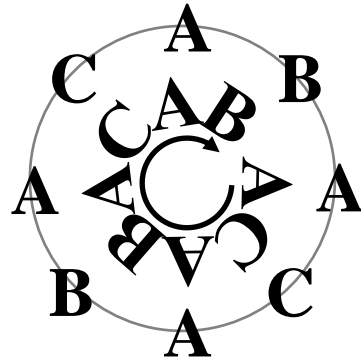
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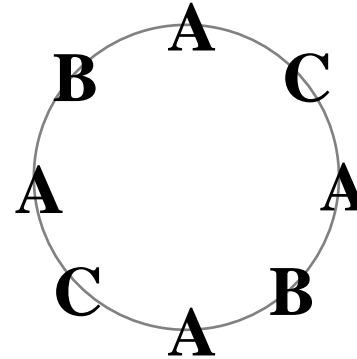
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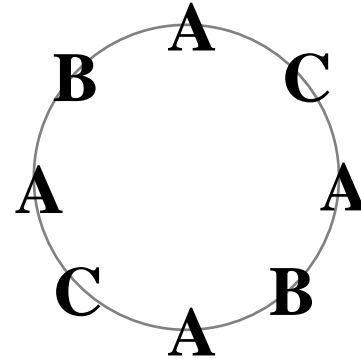
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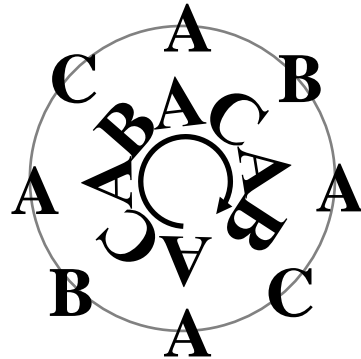
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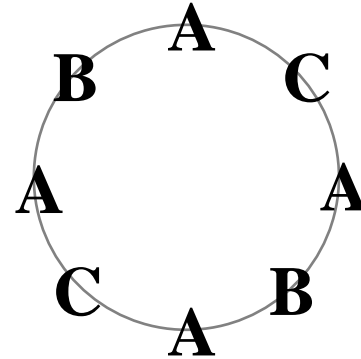
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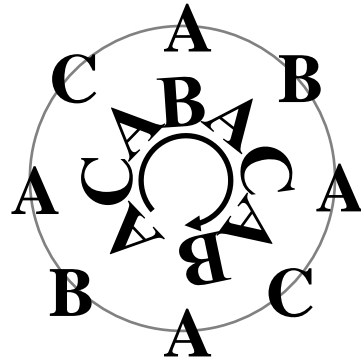
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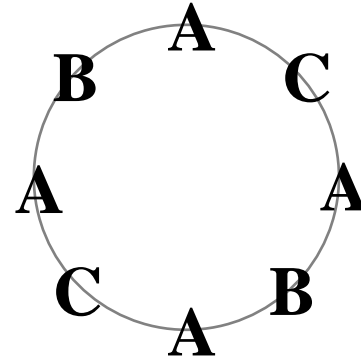
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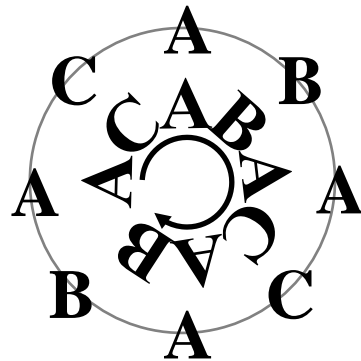
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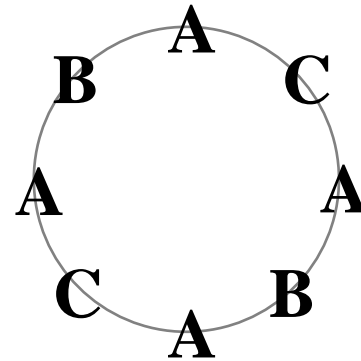
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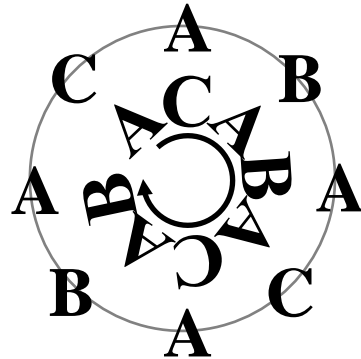
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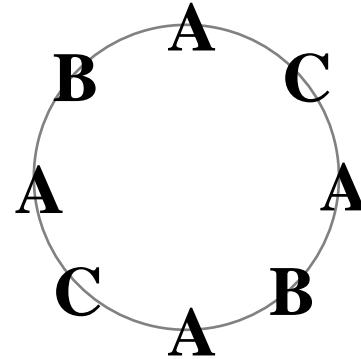
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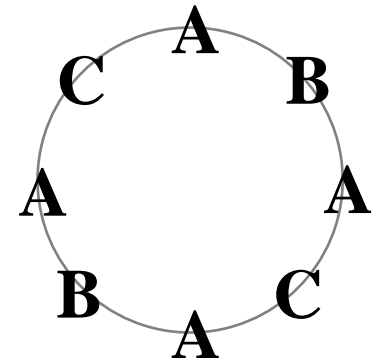
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- We can test if  $S$  has *rotational* symmetry by testing if  $S$  is a substring of  $SS$

$SS = \text{ABACABACABACABAC}$   
 $S = \text{ABACABAC}$

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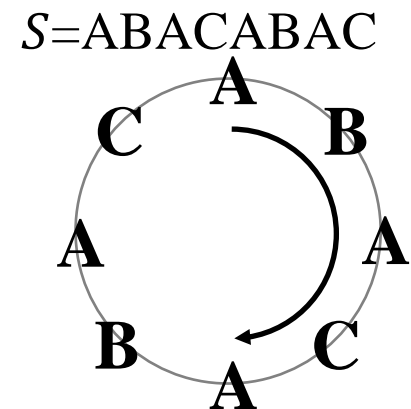
# Fast Substring Matching

## Applications:

If we think of a string as a signal on a circle:

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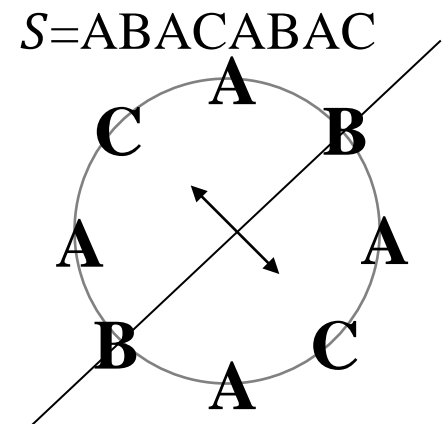
# Fast Substring Matching

## Applications:

If we think of a string as a signal on a circle:

- We can test if signal  $T$  is a rotation of  $S$  by testing if  $T$  is a substring of  $SS$
- We can test if  $S$  has *rotational* symmetry by testing if  $S$  is a substring of  $SS$
- We can test if  $S$  has *reflective* symmetry by testing if  $S$  is a substring of  $(SS)^T$

$(SS)^T = \text{CABACABACABACABA}$   
 $S = \text{ABACABAC}$







# Fast Substring Matching

- ✓ A fast (linear time) algorithm for performing pattern detection on discrete signals
- ✗ Can only tell us if there is a perfect match
  - For real-world data, we need a continuous measure of similarity
- ✗ Only works for signals on a circle (or a line)
  - Hard to generalize to signals on other domains



# Outline

Fast Substring Matching

Math Review

- Complex Numbers
- Vector Spaces
- Linear Operators



# Complex Numbers

A complex number  $c \in \mathbb{C}$  is any number that can be written as:

$$c = a + ib$$

with  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $i$  a square root of -1:

$$i^2 = -1$$



# Complex Numbers

Given two complex numbers

$$c_1 = a_1 + ib_1 \quad \text{and} \quad c_2 = a_2 + ib_2$$

- The sum of the numbers is:

$$c_1 + c_2 = (a_1 + a_2) + i(b_1 + b_2)$$

- The product of the numbers is:

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 \cdot c_2 &= (a_1 + ib_1) \cdot (a_2 + ib_2) \\ &= a_1 \cdot a_2 + ib_1 \cdot ib_2 + a_1 \cdot ib_2 + ib_1 \cdot a_2 \\ &= (a_1 \cdot a_2 - b_1 \cdot b_2) + i(a_1 \cdot b_2 + b_1 \cdot a_2) \end{aligned}$$



# Complex Numbers

Given a complex numbers:

$$c = a + ib$$

- The negation of the number is:

$$-c = -a - ib$$

- The conjugate of the number is:

$$\bar{c} = a - ib$$

- The reciprocal of the number is:

$$\frac{1}{c} = \frac{1}{c} \cdot \frac{\bar{c}}{\bar{c}} = \frac{a - ib}{a^2 + b^2}$$

# Complex Numbers

Why do we care?





# Complex Numbers

Why do we care?

## Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

Given any polynomial:

$$p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_nx^n$$

there always exists a complex number  $c \in \mathbb{C}$  s.t.:

$$p(c) = 0$$



# Vector Spaces

A (real/complex) vector space  $V$  is a set of elements  $v \in V$ , with:

- An addition operator “+”, and
- A scaling operator “.”

(Adding two vectors gives a vector and scaling a vector by a real/complex number gives a vector.)



# Vector Spaces (Formal Properties 1)



For all  $u, v, w \in V$ :

- Associative addition:

$$(u + v) + w = u + (v + w)$$

- Commutative addition:

$$u + v = v + u$$

- Additive identity:

There exists a unique vector  $0 \in V$  such that:

$$v + 0 = v$$

- Additive inverse:

There exists a vector  $(-v) \in V$  such that:

$$v + (-v) = 0$$



# Vector Spaces (Formal Properties 2)

For all  $u, v \in V$ , and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{C}$ :

- Distributive over vector addition:

$$\alpha \cdot (u + v) = (\alpha \cdot u) + (\alpha \cdot v)$$

- Distributive over scalar addition:

$$(\alpha + \beta) \cdot u = (\alpha \cdot u) + (\beta \cdot u)$$

- Compatible scalar multiplication:

$$\alpha \cdot (\beta \cdot u) = (\alpha \cdot \beta) \cdot u$$

- Scalar Identity:

$$1 \cdot u = u$$



# Vector Spaces: Examples

## Real Vector Spaces:

- The real / complex numbers
- The space of  $n$ -dimensional arrays with real / complex entries
- The space of  $m \times n$  matrices with real / complex entries
- The space of real / complex valued functions on a circle / line / plane / sphere / etc.

## Complex Vector Spaces:

- The complex numbers
- The space of  $n$ -dimensional arrays with complex entries
- The space of  $m \times n$  matrices with complex entries
- The space of complex valued functions on a circle / line / plane / sphere / etc.



# Vector Spaces

## Note:

With the exception of the last corollary of today's lecture, the following discussion is identical for real and complex vector spaces.



# Vector Space Basis

A basis of a vector-space  $V$  is a set  $\{v^1, \dots, v^n\} \subset V$  such that:

1. Any vector  $v \in V$  can be expressed as:

$$v = a_1 \cdot v^1 + \dots + a_n \cdot v^n$$

with  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

2. No basis vector  $v^i$  can be expressed as the linear sum of the other basis vectors.

The dimension of  $V$  is the number basis vectors and does not depend on the particular choice of basis.



# Vector Space Basis

Given an  $n$ -dimensional vector space  $V$ , if we have a basis  $\{v^1, \dots, v^n\}$ , we can associate vectors in  $V$  with vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$v \in V \leftrightarrow \mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

by setting  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$  to be the coefficients of  $v$  with respect to the basis  $\{v^1, \dots, v^n\}$ :

$$v = a_1 \cdot v^1 + \dots + a_n \cdot v^n$$

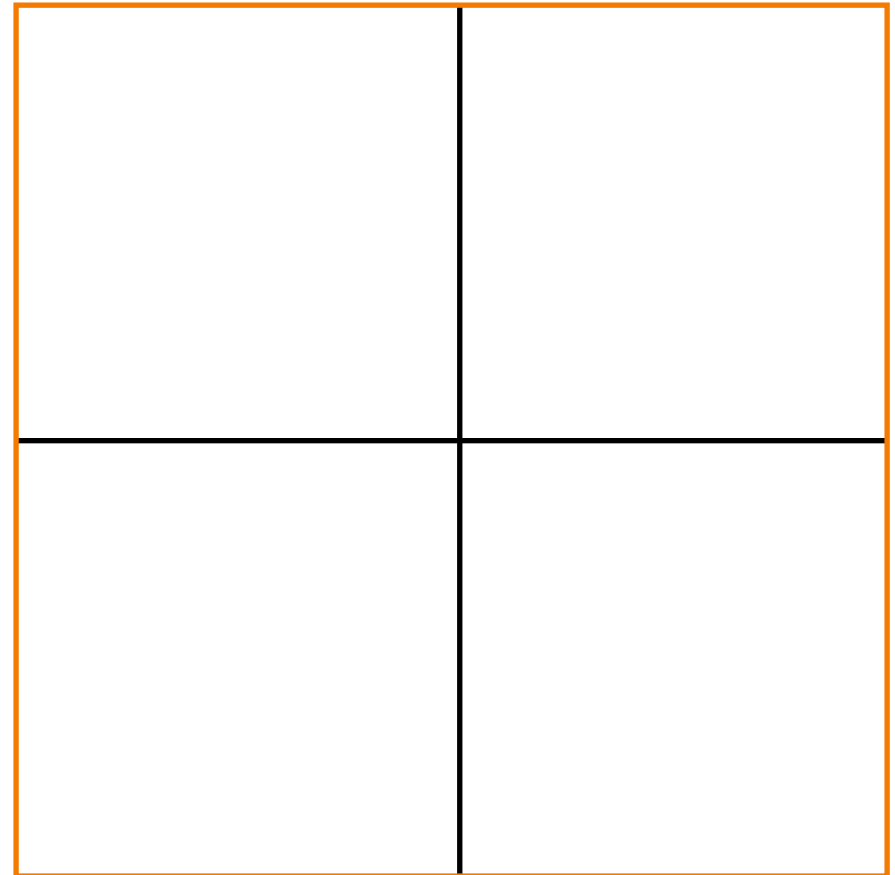


# Vector Space Basis

Many different bases can be used to represent the same vector space.

Example:

Consider the set of points in 2D Euclidean space.





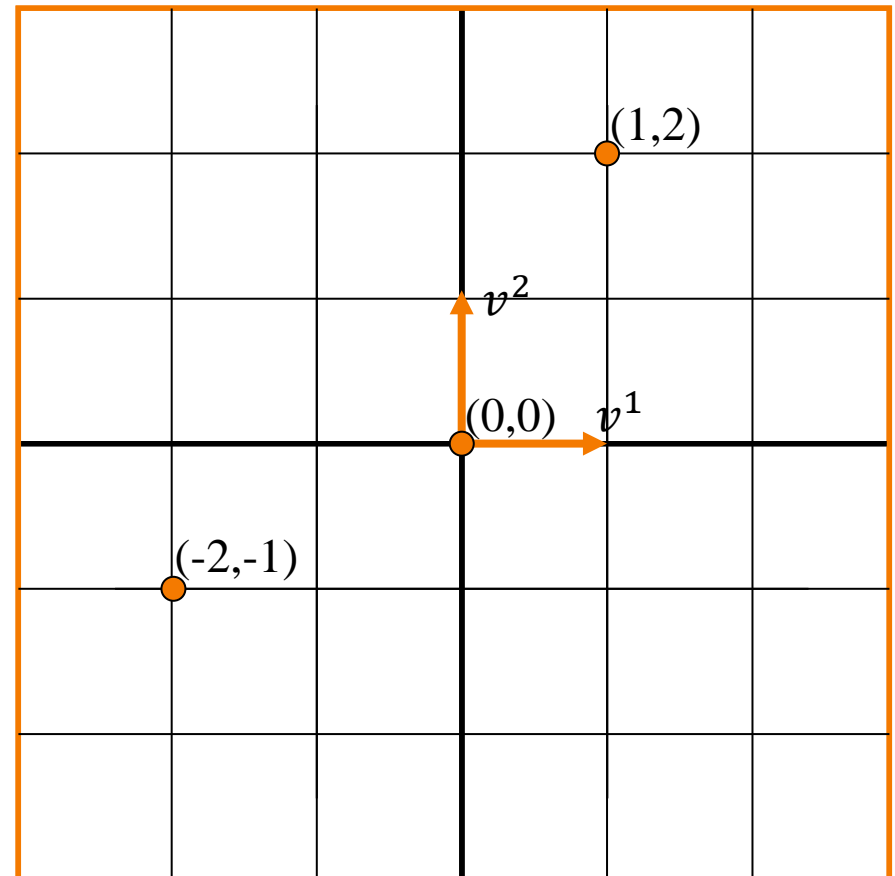
# Vector Space Basis

Many different bases can be used to represent the same vector space.

## Example:

Consider the set of points in 2D Euclidean space.

We can represent each vector in terms of its  $(x, y)$ -coordinates.







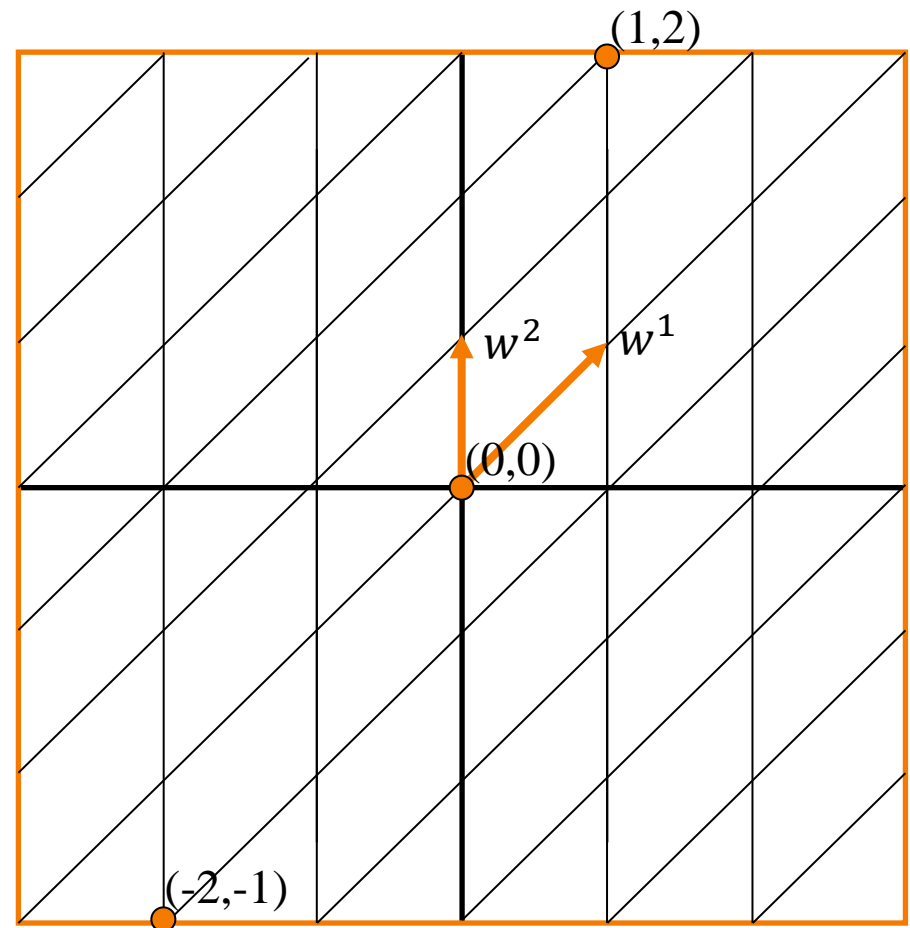
# Vector Space Basis

Many different bases can be used to represent the same vector space.

Example:

Consider the set of points in 2D Euclidean space.

Or we could use a different basis...





# Linear Maps

Given vector spaces  $V$  and  $W$ , the map  $L: V \rightarrow W$ , is linear if for all  $v, w \in V$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ :

$$L(\alpha v + \beta w) = \alpha L(v) + \beta L(w)$$

If it exists, the inverse of a linear map  $L$  is the map  $L^{-1}$  with the property that:

$$L^{-1}(L(v)) = v$$



# Linear Maps

If  $L: V \rightarrow W$ , is a linear map:

The set of vectors:

$$K = \{v \in V | L(v) = 0\}$$

is a vector subspace called the kernel.

The set of vectors:

$$I = \{w \in W | \exists v \in V \text{ s.t. } w = L(v)\}$$

is a vector subspace called the image.



# Matrices

Given an  $n$ -dimensional vector space  $V$  with basis  $\{v^1, \dots, v^n\}$  and an  $m$ -dimensional vector space  $W$  with basis  $\{w^1, \dots, w^m\}$ , a linear map  $L: V \rightarrow W$  can be uniquely expressed by a matrix  $\mathbf{L} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  s.t.:

$$\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{a}$$

whenever:

$$b_1 \cdot w^1 + \dots + b_m \cdot w^m = L(a_1 \cdot v^1 + \dots + a_n \cdot v^n)$$



# Change of Basis

Given an  $n$ -dimensional vector space  $V$ , and two bases  $\{v^1, \dots, v^n\}$  and  $\{w^1, \dots, w^n\}$ , the change of basis matrix  $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is the matrix satisfying:

$$\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{a}$$

whenever:

$$b_1 \cdot w^1 + \dots + b_n \cdot w^n = a_1 \cdot v^1 + \dots + a_n \cdot v^n$$



# Change of Basis

Given:

- An  $n$ -dimensional vector space  $V$ ,
- Two bases  $\{v^1, \dots, v^n\}$  and  $\{w^1, \dots, w^n\}$ ,
- A linear operator  $L$  represented by the matrix  $\mathbf{L}$  in terms of the basis  $\{v^1, \dots, v^n\}$ .

The matrix representation for  $L$  in terms of the basis  $\{w^1, \dots, w^n\}$  is given by:

$$\mathbf{BLB}^{-1}$$

# Change of Basis

Why do we care?





# Change of Basis

Why do we care?

Choosing the appropriate basis can make it much easier to understand a linear operator.

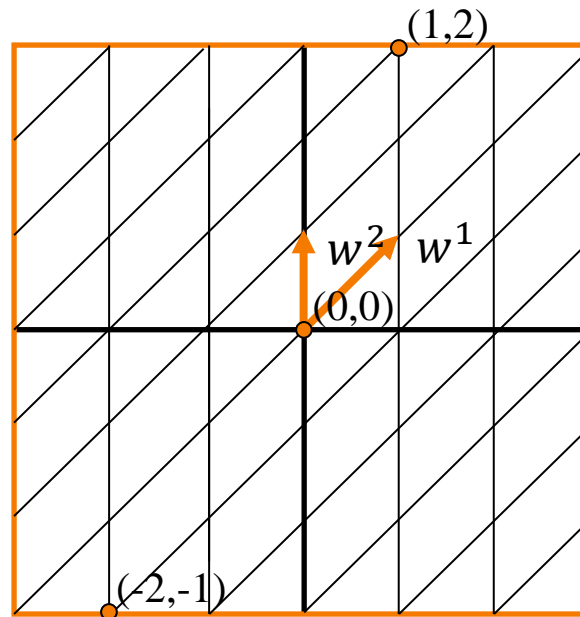
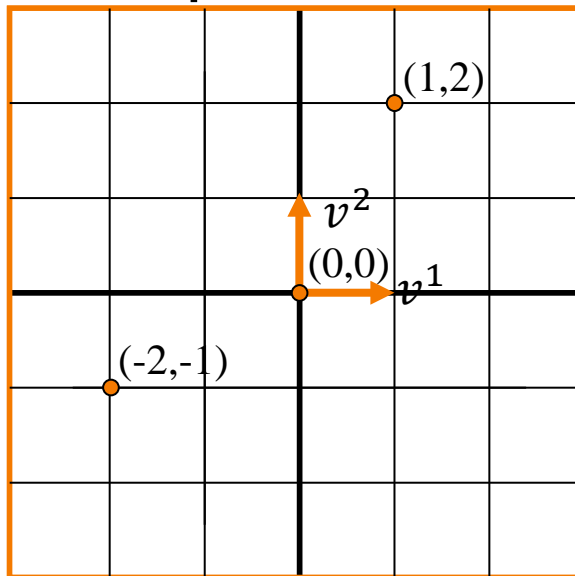




# Change of Basis

Why do we care?

Example:



$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{B}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

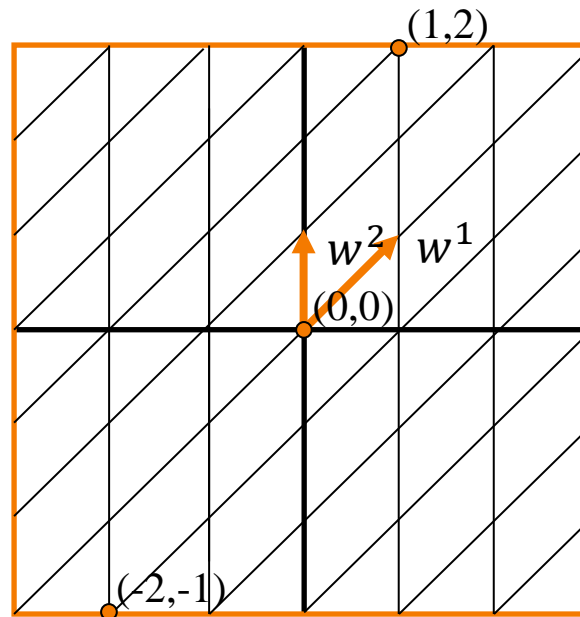
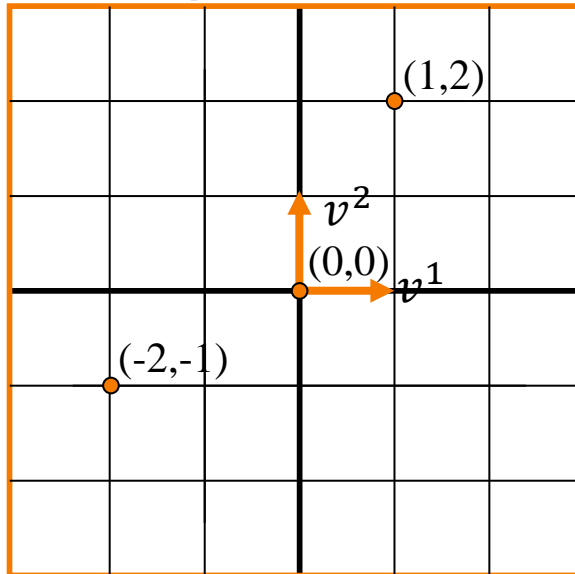
$$\mathbf{L} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



# Change of Basis

Why do we care?

Example:



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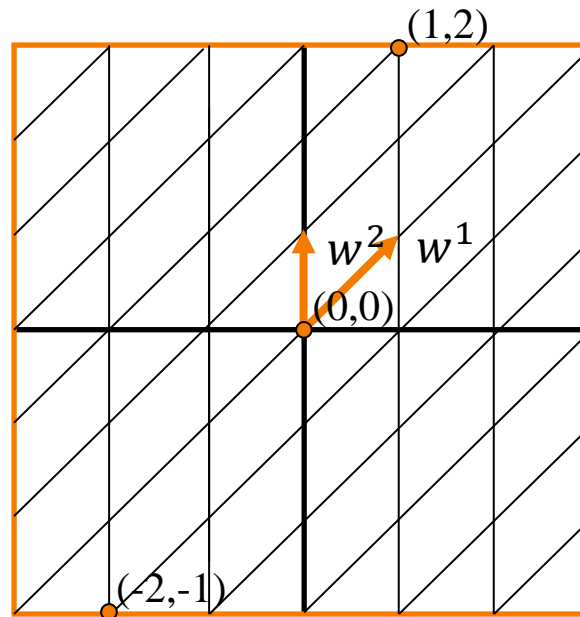
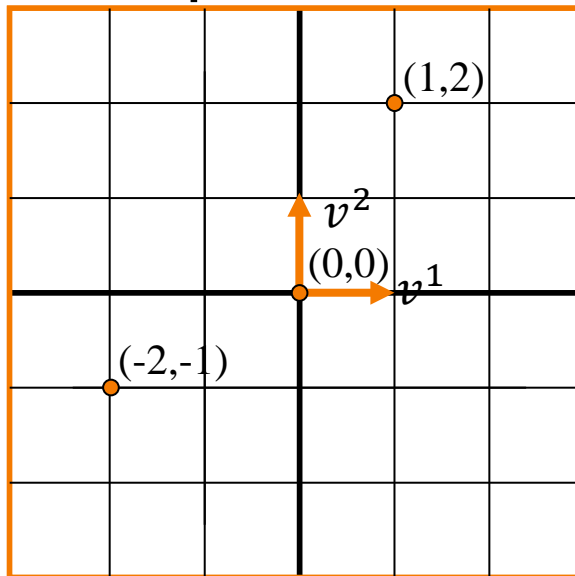
$$\mathbf{L} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{B}\mathbf{L}\mathbf{B}^{-1}$$



# Change of Basis

Why do we care?

Example:



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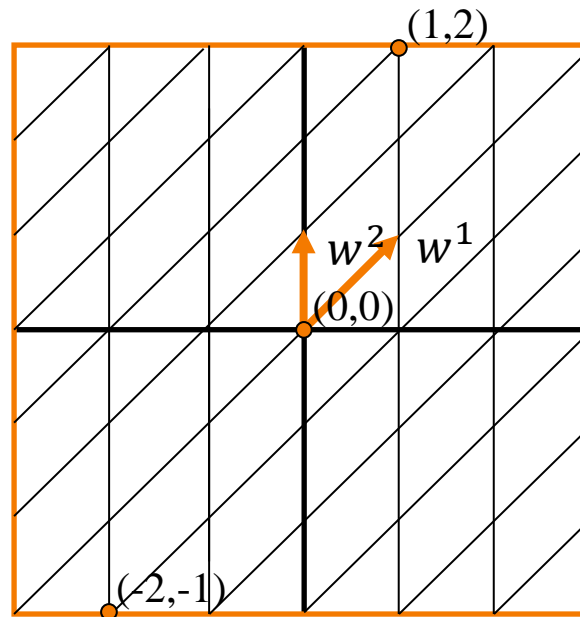
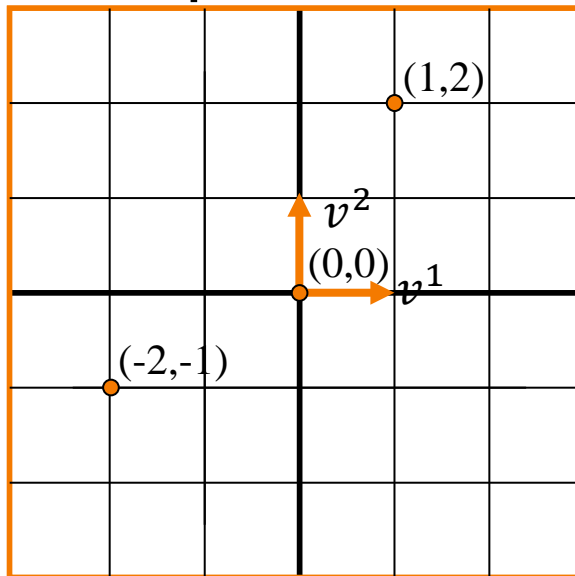
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# Change of Basis

Why do we care?

Example:



$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
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In this basis the linear operator becomes anisotropic scaling!



# Determinants

The determinant is a function that associates a scalar value to every linear map  $L: V \rightarrow V$ .

The determinant of  $L: V \rightarrow V$  is the (signed) volume of the image of (any) unit cube in  $V$ .



# Determinants

The determinant of a linear map  $L: V \rightarrow V$  equals zero if and only if there exists  $v \in V$ , with  $v \neq 0$ , such that  $L(v) = 0$ .



# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

The scalar  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  is an eigenvalue of a linear operator  $L: V \rightarrow V$  if there exists  $v \in V$  such that:

$$\lambda \cdot v = L(v).$$

In this case,  $v$  is an eigenvector of  $L$ .



# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

If  $L: V \rightarrow V$  has an eigenpair  $(\lambda, v) \in \mathbb{R} \times V$ , then:

$$0 = (L - \lambda \cdot \text{Id.})(v)$$

$\Rightarrow$  The linear operator

$$(L - \lambda \cdot \text{Id.}): V \rightarrow V$$

has zero determinant.





# Characteristic Polynomials

If we treat  $\lambda$  as a variable, the determinant:

$$\chi_L(\lambda) = \det(L - \lambda \cdot \text{Id.})$$

is a polynomial of degree  $n$  in  $\lambda$ .

This is the characteristic polynomial of  $L$ .



# Characteristic Polynomials

The roots of the characteristic polynomial of  $L$ :

$$\chi_L(\lambda) = \det(L - \lambda \cdot \text{Id.})$$

are precisely the eigenvalues of  $L$ .

## Corollary:

If  $L: V \rightarrow V$  is a linear map on a **complex** vector space,  $L$  always has at least one eigenvalue.