

# CONTEMPORARY VIEW OF FFT ALGORITHMS

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## ABSTRACT

A large number of fast Fourier transform (FFT) algorithms exist for efficient computation of the discrete Fourier transform (DFT). In most previous benchmarking efforts, only the computation speed or the operations count have been used for assessing the efficiency of these algorithms. In this paper we provide a comprehensive comparison of several contemporary FFT algorithms on state-of-the-art processors. The criterion used are the operations count, CPU time, memory usage, processor, and compiler. The processors that were evaluated include the DEC Alpha, Intel Pentium Pro and Sun UltraSparc. Preliminary work on quantifying the effects of compilers on these algorithms is also presented. The most efficient algorithm was found to be the fast Hartley transform. For some algorithms, the results presented here differ significantly from theoretical predictions, thereby stressing the need for such contemporary benchmarks.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

A large number of FFT algorithms have been developed over the years for the efficient computation of the DFT. The first major breakthrough was the Cooley-Tukey algorithm [1] developed in the mid-sixties which resulted in a flurry of activity on FFTs. This algorithm reduced the

complexity of a DFT from  $O(N^2)$  to  $O(N\log N)$ , which at the time was a tremendous improvement in efficiency. Algorithms which followed have achieved this complexity reduction to varying degrees. The Cooley-Tukey algorithm was a Radix-2 algorithm [8,9]. The next few radix algorithms developed were the Radix-3, Radix-4, and the Mixed Radix algorithm. Further research led to the Fast Hartley Transform (FHT) [2,3,4,10] and the Split Radix (SRFFT) [5,9,10] algorithm. Recently, two new algorithms have also emerged: the Quick Fourier Transform (QFT) [6] and the Decimation-in-Time-Frequency (DITF) [7].

While there has been extensive research on the theoretical efficiency of these algorithms (traditionally algorithms

have been compared based on their floating point operation counts), there has been little research to-date comparing algorithms on practical terms. The choice of the best algorithm for a given platform is still not easy because efficiency is intricately related to how an algorithm can be implemented on a given architecture. The important issues to be considered in comparisons are the computation speed, memory, algorithm complexity, machine architecture and compiler design. Therefore, we present what we believe to be the most recent comprehensive benchmarking of a few commonly used algorithms on widely available high-speed state-of-the-art CPUs.

In this paper we provide the results of this benchmarking process on 6 different algorithms. These results will help correlate the numbers predicted by theory with the actual measured values. The CPUs used in this comparison are the DEC Alpha, Intel Pentium Pro and Sun UltraSparc. To quantify the effect compilers have on algorithm performance, we have evaluated the Microsoft Visual C++ compiler and GCC, a publicly available compiler.

## 2. ALGORITHMS

Most FFT algorithms achieve their speedup by computing an N-order DFT through successive computations of lower order DFTs.

Standard radix-2 (RAD2) algorithms are based on the synthesis of two half-length DFTs[1,8,9]. Radix-4(RAD4) algorithms are based on the synthesis of four quarter-length DFTs[1,8,9]. The Split-Radix algorithm is based on the synthesis of one half-length DFT together with two quarter-length DFTs[1,8,9]. This works because the radix-2 algorithm computes the even numbered samples independently of the odd numbered points. Therefore, the split-radix algorithm uses the radix-4 algorithm to compute the odd numbered DFT coefficients and the radix-2 to compute the even DFT coefficients.

The FHT evolved out of applying the same strategies used for the radix-based FFT algorithms for the computation of

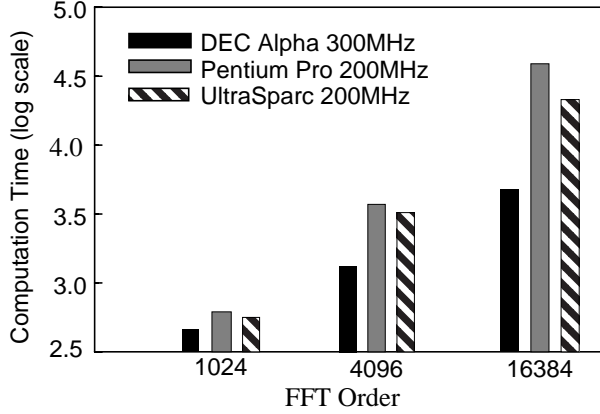


Figure 1. Computation speed across machines

the discrete Hartley transform. The main difference between the other algorithms discussed here and the hartley transform is the core kernel which is real, of the form  $\cos\theta + \sin\theta$ , unlike the complex exponential ( $e^{j\omega}$ ) for the DFT. Thus, the FHT is intuitively simpler and faster since the number of computations reduces drastically when we remove all complex computations. Similar to the other recursive radix algorithms, the higher order FHTs can be obtained by combining lower order FHTs.

In the QFT algorithm the symmetry properties of the cosine and the sine functions are exploited to derive an efficient algorithm. The N-point DFT computation is achieved via a  $(N/2+1)$ -point discrete cosine transform (DCT) and a  $(N/2-1)$ -point discrete sine transform (DST). Since complex operations occur only in the last stage of the computation where the DCT and DST are combined, the QFT is expected to perform efficiently on real data.

The DITF algorithm is based on the observation that, in a Decimation-in-Frequency (DIF) implementation of a

Algorithm	FFT Order				
	64	256	1024	4096	16384
<b>RAD2</b>	60	280	1960	10900	97100
<b>RAD4</b>	60	250	1800	9720	58220
<b>SRFFT</b>	40	160	1060	6140	38100
<b>FHT</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>140</b>	<b>640</b>	<b>3800</b>	<b>38100</b>
<b>QFT</b>	40	160	880	6560	44020
<b>DITF</b>	60	360	2500	12320	104080

Table 1: Performance across different FFT orders when run on an UltraSparc2

RAD2 algorithm, most of the computations (especially complex multiplications) are done in the initial stages of the algorithm. However, in the Decimation-in-Time (DIT) implementation of the RAD2 algorithm, most of the computations are done in the final stages of the algorithm. Thus, a straightforward approach to increase efficiency is to start with the DIT implementation and then shift to a DIF implementation at some later stage.

### 3. EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

After implementing each of these algorithms in a common framework, we comprehensively benchmarked these algorithms. In the process we observed several results that were contrary to published theory. Many of these surprises can be attributed to compiler optimizations rather than discrepancies in the algorithms or the measurement process. Some algorithm implementations tend to be more amenable to optimizations on modern processors than others. In implementing the algorithms, we have tried to use uniform techniques for operations such as bit-reversal and lookup table generation so that the difference we see in performance can be attributed solely to the efficiency alone.

#### 3.1. Computation Speed

In most present day applications computation speed is by far the most important aspect of an algorithm one is interested in. Not only can we benchmark algorithms in terms of computation speed, but we can also benchmark processors using the same criteria. It is interesting to see how the performance of the algorithms scales in terms of processor speed. This is very heavily influenced by the architecture, cache usage, and other hardware-related features as illustrated in Figure 1.

We evaluated each of the algorithms using the same compiler (GCC version 2.7.2.1) on a 200 MHz PentiumPro processor with a 256K cache. The computation speed of the best (FHT) algorithm is 4 times the that of the worst (DITF) algorithm. It has been consistently observed in our benchmarks that the FHT was the most efficient algorithm in terms of computation speed. The relative ranking of other algorithms does, however, change when benchmarked on a different machine. For example when evaluated on an UltraSparc2 machine, the SRFFT algorithm performs better than a QFT. This is possibly attributed to the paging mechanism and cache usage on the different architectures and the degree to which these algorithms are susceptible to these factors. Table 1 demonstrates the performance variations of these algorithms as a function of the order of the FFT.

In many applications, the designer knows in advance the type of architecture to be used. Information related to the performance of these algorithms in terms of the CPU architecture can be effectively used in such cases. For our evaluations, we choose the following processors: Sun UltraSparc, DEC Alpha 21164 and the Intel Pentium Pro. The UltraSparc and the Pentium Pros were 200 MHz processors with 256MB RAM, while the DEC Alpha was a 300MHz processor with 128MB RAM. The Alpha used the Windows NT operating system, while the UltraSparc and Pentium Pro used Sun Solaris 2.5. The DEC Alpha machine had a 2 MB cache. The Pentium Pro has a 256 KB cache and the Sun UltraSparc had a 1 MB cache. This feature will have a bearing on the computation speed of algorithms for large input data sizes.

A comparison of the computation time for the FHT algorithm on the three machines is shown in Figure 1. The performances of the machines are clearly affected by the amount of RAM and cache. As expected, the effect is more pronounced for higher order FFTs in which cache misses become common.

### 3.2. Compiler Effects

Compiler technology has advanced greatly over the past decade or so. Earlier benchmarks were not affected by compiler optimizations as much as they are now. During preliminary tests we found that variations in the compiler optimization level (in GCC) improved the computation speed by as much as 300%. This prompted us to explore this facet of benchmarking more closely.

The impact of compilers optimizations are obviously compiler dependent. An application developer could look at benchmarks performed using code compiled on GCC and assume the effects to translate smoothly to code

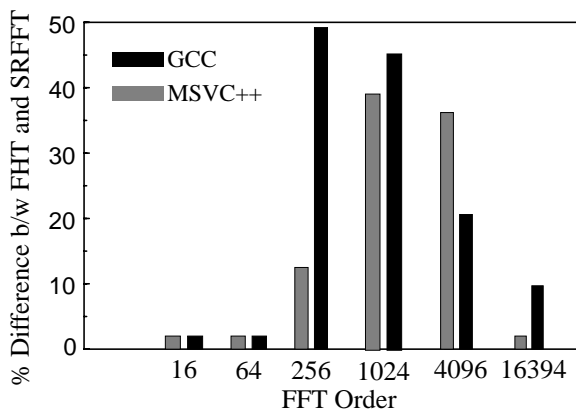


Figure 2. Effect of compilers on FHT and SRFFT

compiled using MSVC++. Unfortunately, this does not happen. Figure 2 demonstrates this by comparing the computation speed difference between SRFFT and FHT on real data. It is very interesting to note how the performances of the algorithms swap when compiled with the two compilers. This highlights the need for a closer study of compiler effects on algorithms.

### 3.3. Memory Usage and Object Code size

One of the key issues in portable applications is memory usage. Each process in the application needs to be optimized for memory usage. In computing memory usage, we also account for the input and output data arrays, lookup tables and any intermediate swap space used by the algorithm. Since we wanted to keep the structure of algorithms uniform, we have implemented all algorithms with lookup tables. Thus, any difference in memory usage can be attributed to the actual swap space usage difference. Object code size/executable size is also a direct measure of the complexity of an algorithm. Most of the faster algorithms have a large object code size. Table 2 shows the memory used by different algorithms for a 1024 point FFT on a Pentium Pro compiled with GCC.

It is well known that memory and computation speed are inversely related. We see this from Table 2 where the RAD2 algorithm is shown to be the most memory efficient algorithm, and the QFT is shown to be the worst algorithm. In the case of the QFT, this is due to the large work space required to perform the recursion in the DCT and the DST algorithms.

### 3.4. Number of Computations

The number of arithmetic computations has been the traditional measure of algorithm efficiency. With the advent

Algorithm	Memory Usage (Bytes)	Object Code (Bytes)
RAD2	72440	5190
RAD4	72536	5293
SRFFT	72508	6275
FHT	72652	11506
QFT	122072	9800
DITF	78632	8691

Table 2: Comparison of memory usage for a 1024-point DFT

Algorithm	Float Adds	Float Mults	Integer Adds	Integer Mults	Binary Shifts
<b>RAD2</b>	14336	20480	19450	2084	1023
<b>RAD4</b>	8960	14336	12902	3071	277
<b>SRFFT</b>	<b>5861</b>	<b>5522</b>	12664	2542	1988
<b>FHT</b>	7420	8841	<b>3235</b>	2048	<b>12</b>
<b>QFT</b>	9026	2560	29784	<b>1048</b>	144
<b>DITF</b>	14400	17664	20333	1076	1074

Table 3: Comparison of number of computations for a 1024 point FFT

of new computer technology and implementation techniques, the relative importance of this figure of merit has dwindled. As our results suggest, the number of computations derived from the typical butterfly diagrams for FFTs are not of much use when a designer chooses to use a neat trick to avoid some redundant computations. In any case, we have generated concrete numbers for the arithmetic computations. We show the operations required by each algorithm for a 1024-point real DFT in Table 2.

One very basic observation from the table is the fact that the faster algorithms perform lesser number of computations. Notice the excessive number of integer adds in the QFT. Most of the integer arithmetic is accounted for by loop control or re-indexing. In the QFT implementation, the DCT and DST recursions are implemented by accessing pointers in a common workspace. This results in the large number of integer operations. The large number of operations for the DITF algorithm are attributed to the bit-reversal process at various stages in the computation process. This aspect seems to have been overlooked in previous evaluations [7].

One should however not be blindly swayed by the performance of FHT. The main drawback of the FHT is that the complex FHT is computed via two real FHT computations. QFT also uses a similar methodology. The number of computations doubles for complex data for these algorithms when compared to real data, as against an insignificant change for the other algorithms

#### 4. CONCLUSIONS

Our results indicate that the overall best algorithm for DFT computations is the FHT algorithm. It is the fastest algorithm on all platforms with a reasonable memory requirement. If an FFT algorithm has to be chosen based on the memory requirements only, the RAD2 algorithm is the best, owing to its simple implementation. The SRFFT and

the FHT are comparable in terms of number of computations and are the most efficient. The results of our benchmarks suggest the need for a cache model in our code design. This would bring insight into the cache and compiler-related issues. As noted earlier, compiler effects were drastic and the underlying phenomenon could not be explained directly by the algorithm implementations.

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