# Fast computation of higher order derivatives of a black box function

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**Abstract.** We revisit the classical root-squaring formula of Dandelin-Lobachevsky-Gräffe for polynomials and find new interesting applications to root-finding.

**Keywords:** symbolic-numeric computing  $\cdot$  root finding  $\cdot$  polynomial algorithms  $\cdot$  computer algebra.

#### 1 Introduction

We revisit the famous method for finding roots that was independently discovered by Dandelin, Lobachevsky, and Gräffe and make further progress by applying this identity to the problem of approximating the root radius of a polynomial. (See [12] for a history of this problem.) This is a key step in many subdivision based root-finding algorithms.

One of the novelties of our algorithm is the Rational Root Tree Algorithm (Alg. 1), which given a polynomial p(x), allows one to compute the angles of the iterated  $2^{\text{nd}}$  roots in

$$\frac{p'_{\ell}(0)}{p_{\ell}(0)} = \left(\frac{p'_{\ell-1}(x)}{p_{\ell-1}(x)}\right)'_{x=0} = \left(\frac{p'(x)}{p(x)}\right)^{(\ell)}_{x=0}$$

for a positive integer l with exact precision over the rationals, thus greatly reducing the numerical stability. This improvement is due to the fact the most numerically unstable steps is the computation of the roots  $x^{\frac{1}{2m}}$ , as shown in Sec. 5 as well as Thm. 3.

Another advantage of our algorithm is that it assumes the black box polynomial model. We give both theoretical guarantees in Sec. 5 and empirical evidence in Sec. 6 that our algorithm performs well.

#### 2 Related Works

The main method for root-finding by root-squaring was independently discovered by Dandelin, Lobachevsky, and Gräffe in the 19<sup>th</sup> century over the course of 10

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years (See [12]). Two of the first works to consider algorithms based on DLG formulae for modern computers were [8] and [9]; the latter of which gave explicit pseudocode for the a root-finding algorithm that uses the DLG root squaring (Eq. 2). The work [16] also considers root-finding using Eq. 2 and further states that the DLG method becomes very unstable for more than 2 iterations; by contrast, as we will see in Sec. 6, our algorithm performs reasonably well for as many iterations as 12. The same authors went on to design a variation of the DLG root-finding algorithm that makes use of different renormalizations and other preprocessing transformations for DLG root finding in [17], and the work also proves convergence results for their DLG iterative algorithm.

The authors of [3] consider DLG based algorithms for the solutions of fractionalorder polynomials, *i.e.*, generalized polynomials that have rational exponents. In [11] the authors apply the DLG formulae to root counting. The authors of [10] apply the DLG formulae to solving polynomials over finite fields. The authors of [2] apply DLG iterations to the benchmark problem (*i.e.*, the isolation of the roots of a polynomials, See Sec. 3) to improve upon the record bound in [20] which at the time was unbroken for 14 years.

This short survey illustrates that the application of the DLG to root-finding, while more than a century old, is still an interesting research topic. One of the novelties and improvements of our algorithms is to consider the identities given by Eq. 3, instead of the usual Eq. 2, to approximate the root radius. Furthermore, we show that, contrary to intuition, our algorithm is numerically stable and well-behaved when taking the limit of Eq. 3 to 0.

#### 3 Background and Motivation

We set up some basic notation and background: we discuss Dandelin, Lobachevsky, and Gräffe's Formulae in Sec. 3.1, properties of the extremal root radii in Sec. 3.2, and well-known estimates for extremal root radii in Sec. 3.3. The reverse of a polynomial  $p := p_0 + p_1 x^1 + ... + p_d x^d$  is defined as  $p_{rev} := p_d + p_{d-1} x^1 + ... + p_0 x^d$  and for a polynomial  $p(x) = \prod_{i \in [d]} (x - x_i)$  where

$$|x_1| \ge |x_2| \ge \dots \ge |x_d|. \tag{1}$$

we define  $r_i(c, p) = |x_i - c|$  as the root radii p about c. We are particular interested in the case where c = 0 since we can always reduce to this case (see Sec. 3.2).

#### 3.1 Dandelin, Lobachevsky, and Gräffe's Formulae

The common procedure for root radii approximation based on the classical technique of recursive root-squaring is to first make an input polynomial p(x) monic by scaling it and/or the variable x and then apply k DLG (that is, Dandelin's aka Lobachevsky's or Gräffe's) root-squaring iterations (cf. [12]),

$$p_0(x) = \frac{1}{p_d} p(x), \ p_{i+1}(x) = (-1)^d p_i(\sqrt{x}) p_i(-\sqrt{x}), \ i = 0, 1, \dots \ell$$
 (2)

for a fixed positive integer  $\ell$  (see Remark 1 below). The *i*th iteration squares the roots of  $p_i(x)$  and consequently the root radii from the origin, as well as the isolation of the unit disc D(0,1). Then one approximates the ratio  $\rho_+/\rho_-$ , the new scaled ratio of the root radii, for the polynomial  $p_{\ell}(x)$  within a factor of  $\gamma$ and readily recovers the approximation of this ratio for  $p_0(x)$  and p(x) within a factor of  $\gamma^{1/2^{\ell}}$ .

Given the coefficients of  $p_i(x)$  we can reduce the *i*th root-squaring iteration, that is, the computation of the coefficients of  $p_{i+1}(x)$ , to polynomial multiplication and perform it in  $\mathcal{O}(d\log(d))$  arithmetic operations. Unless the positive integer  $\ell$  is small, the absolute values of the coefficients of  $p_{\ell}(x)$  vary dramatically, and realistically one should either stop because of severe problems of numerical stability or apply the stable algorithm by Gregorio Malajovich and Jorge P. Zubelli [16], which performs a single root-squaring at arithmetic cost of order  $d^2$ .

For a black box polynomial p(x), however, we apply DLG iterations without computing the coefficients, and the algorithm turns out to be quite efficient: for  $\ell$  iterations evaluate p(x) at  $2^{\ell}$  equally spaced points on a circle and obtain the values of the polynomial  $p_{\ell}(x) = \prod \left(x - x_j^{2^{\ell}}\right)$  at these  $2^{\ell}$  points. Furthermore, we evaluate the ratio  $p'(x)/p(x) = p'_0(x)/p_0(x)$  at these points

by applying the recurrence

$$\frac{p'_{i+1}(x)}{p_{i+1}(x)} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} \left( \frac{p'_{i}(\sqrt{x})}{p_{i}(\sqrt{x})} - \frac{p'_{i}(-\sqrt{x})}{p_{i}(-\sqrt{x})} \right), \ i = 0, 1, \dots$$
 (3)

Recurrences (2) and (3) reduce the evaluation of  $p_{\ell}(c)$  to the evaluation of p(c) at  $q=2^{\ell}$  points  $c^{1/q}$  and for  $c\neq 0$  reduce the evaluation of the ratio  $p'_{\ell}(x)/p_{\ell}(x)$  at x=c to the evaluation of the ratio p'(x)/p(x) at the latter  $q=2^{\ell}$  points  $x=c^{1/q}$ . We will see that we can apply recurrence (3) to support fast convergence to the convex hull of the roots.

For x = 0, the recurrence (3) can be specialized as follows:

$$\frac{p'_{\ell}(0)}{p_{\ell}(0)} = \left(\frac{p'_{\ell-1}(x)}{p_{\ell-1}(x)}\right)'_{r=0} = \left(\frac{p'(x)}{p(x)}\right)^{(\ell)}_{r=0}, \ \ell = 1, 2, \dots$$
(4)

Notice an immediate extension:

$$\frac{p_{\ell}^{(h)}(0)}{p_{\ell}(0)} = \prod_{g=1}^{h} \left( \frac{p^{(g)}(x)}{p^{(g-1)}(x)} \right)_{x=0}^{(\ell)}, \ h = 1, 2, \dots$$
 (5)

Eq. (4) and more generally (5) enable us to strengthen upper estimates in Eq. 6 and more generally Eq. 16 for root radii  $r_i(0,p)$  at the origin because  $r_j(0,p_\ell) = r_j(0,p)^{2^\ell}$  for  $j=1,\ldots,d$  (see Eq. 6); we can approximate the higher order derivatives  $\left(\frac{p^{(g)}(x)}{p^{(g-1)}(x)}\right)^{(\ell)}$  at x=0 by following Remark. 2. Besides the listed applications of root-squaring, one can apply DLG iterations to randomized

exclusion tests for sparse polynomials. One can apply root-squaring  $p(x) \mapsto p_{\ell}(x)$  to improve the error bound for the approximation of the power sums of the roots of p(x) in the unit disc D(0,1) by Cauchy sums, but the improvement is about as much as the additional cost incurred by increasing the number q of points of evaluation of the ratio  $\frac{p'}{n}$ .

Remark 1. One can approximate the leading coefficient  $p_d$  of a black box polynomial p(x). This coefficient is not involved in recurrence (3), and one can apply recurrence (2) by using a crude approximation to  $p_d$  and if needed can scale polynomials  $p_i(x)$  for some i.

We can treat  $\frac{p'(x)}{p(x)}$  as another blackbox that runs the same order of cost since the same blackbox oracle that evaluates p(x) can be used to evaluate p'(x) as well, based on the following theorem:

**Theorem 1.** Given an algorithm that evaluates a black box polynomial p(x) at a point x over a field K of constants by using A additions and subtractions, S scalar multiplications (that is, multiplications by elements of the field K), and M other multiplications and divisions, one can extend this algorithm to the evaluation at x of both p(x) and p'(x) by using 2A + M additions and subtractions, 2S scalar multiplications, and 3M other multiplications and divisions.

*Proof.* [15] and [1] prove the theorem for any function  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_s)$  that has partial derivatives in all its s variables  $x_1, \ldots, x_s$ .

Remark 2. Given a complex c and a positive integer  $\ell$  one can approximate the values at x=c of  $(p(x)/p'(x))^{(\ell)}$  for a black box polynomial p(x) by using divided differences, by extending expressions  $p^{(i+1)}(c) = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{p^{(i)}(x) - p^{(i)}(c)}{x - c}$  for  $i=0,1,\ldots,\ell-1$  and based on the mean value theorem [6].

#### 3.2 Estimation of extremal root radii

If we do not know whether assumptions (1) holds, we can apply the following well-known bounds on the extremal root radii:

$$|x_d| \le d \left| \frac{p(0)}{p'(0)} \right| \text{ and } |x_1| \ge \left| \frac{p'_{\text{rev}}(0)}{d p_{\text{rev}}(0)} \right|.$$
 (6)

We can deduce these bounds from the well-known expression

$$\frac{p'(x)}{p(x)} = \sum_{i=1}^{d} \frac{1}{x - x_i},\tag{7}$$

which we can obtain by differentiating the equation  $p(x) = p_d \prod_{j=1}^d (x - x_j)$ . By extending these bounds to the polynomial  $p_k(x)$  of Eq. (2) we obtain that

$$|x_d|^{2^k} \le d/\left|\left(\frac{p'(x)}{p(x)}\right)_{x=0}^{(k)}\right| \text{ and } |x_1|^{2^k} \ge \frac{1}{d}\left|\left(\frac{p'_{\text{rev}}(x)}{p_{\text{rev}}(x)}\right)_{x=0}^{(k)}\right|.$$
 (8)

Under the assumptions (1) for i = 2 for p(x) and for  $p_{rev}(x)$ , respectively, the latter two bounds become sharp as k increases, by virtue of (6), and next we argue informally that it tends to be sharp with a high probability under random root models. Indeed,

$$\frac{1}{|x_d|} \le \frac{1}{d} \left| \frac{p'(c)}{p(c)} \right| = \frac{1}{d} \left| \sum_{j=1}^d \frac{1}{c - x_j} \right| \tag{9}$$

by virtue of (6), and so the approximation to the root radius  $|x_d|$  is poor if and only if severe cancellation occurs in the summation of the d roots, and similarly for the approximation of  $r_1(c,p)$ . Such a cancellation only occurs for a narrow class of polynomials p(x), with a low probability if we assume a random root model.

Next we prove, however, that estimates (6) and (8) are extremely poor for worst case inputs.

**Theorem 2.** The ratios  $|\frac{p(0)}{p'(0)}|$  and  $|\frac{p_{\text{rev}}(0)}{p'_{\text{rev}}(0)}|$  are infinite for  $p(x) = x^d - h^d$  and  $h \neq 0$ , while  $|x_d| > |x_1| = |h|$ .

*Proof.* Observe that the roots  $x_j = h \exp(\frac{(j-1)\mathbf{i}}{2\pi d})$  of  $p(x) = x^d - h^d$  for  $j = 1, 2, \ldots, d$  are the dth roots of unity up to scaling by h.

The problem persists for the root radius  $r_d(w,p)$  where p'(w) and  $p'_{rev}(w)$  vanish; rotation of the variable  $p(x) \leftarrow t(x) = p(ax)$  for |a| = 1 does not fix it but shifts  $p(x) \leftarrow t(x) = p(x-c)$  for  $c \neq 0$  can fix it, thus enhancing the power of estimates (6) and (8).

#### 3.3 Classical estimates for extremal root radii

Next we recall some non-costly estimates known for the extremal root radii  $r_1 = r_1(0, p)$  and  $r_d = r_d(0, p)$  in terms of the coefficients of p (cf. [14], [18], and [21]) and the two parameters

$$\tilde{r}_{-} := \min_{i \ge 1} \left| \frac{p_0}{p_i} \right|^{\frac{1}{i}}, \tilde{r}_{+} := \max_{i \ge 1} \left| \frac{p_{d-i}}{p_d} \right|^{\frac{1}{i}}$$
(10)

These bounds on  $r_1$  and  $r_d$  hold in dual pairs since  $r_1(0,p)r_d(0,p_{\text{rev}})=1$ . Furthermore, we have that

$$\frac{1}{d}\tilde{r}_{+} \le r_{1} < 2\tilde{r}_{+}, \frac{1}{2}\tilde{r}_{-} \le r_{d} \le d\tilde{r}_{-}, \tag{11}$$

$$\tilde{r}_{+}\sqrt{\frac{2}{d}} \le r_{1} \le \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\tilde{r}_{+} < 1.62\tilde{r}_{+} \text{ if } p_{d-1} = 0,$$
 (12)

$$0.618\tilde{r}_{-} < \frac{2}{1+\sqrt{5}}\tilde{r}_{-} \le r_{d} \le \sqrt{\frac{d}{2}}\tilde{r}_{-} \text{ if } p_{1} = 0, \tag{13}$$

$$r_1 \le 1 + \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} \left| \frac{p_i}{p_d} \right|, \frac{1}{r_d} \le 1 + \sum_{i=1}^d \left| \frac{p_i}{p_0} \right|.$$
 (14)

 $M(p):=|p_d|\max_{j=1}^d\{1,|x_j|\}$  is said to be the Mahler measure of p, and so  $M\left(p_{\mathrm{rev}}\right):=|p_0|\max_{j=1}^d\left\{1,\frac{1}{|x_j|}\right\}$ . It holds that

$$r_1^2 \le \frac{M(p)^2}{|p_d|} \le \max_{i=0}^{d-1} \left| \frac{p_i}{p_d} \right|^2, \frac{1}{r_d^2} \le \frac{M(p_{\text{rev}})^2}{|p_0|^2} \le \max_{i=1}^d \left| \frac{p_i}{p_0} \right|^2$$
 (15)

It is shown in [13] that we can get a very fast approximation of all root radii of p at the origin at a very low cost, which complements the estimates 10, 11 12, 13, 14, and 15.

One can extend all these bounds to the estimates for the root radii  $r_j(c,p)$  for any fixed complex c and all j by observing that  $r_j(c,p) = r_j(0,t)$  for the polynomial t(x) = p(x-c) and applying Taylor's shift; i.e., applying the mapping  $S_{c,\rho}: p(x) \mapsto p\left(\frac{x-c}{\rho}\right)$ .

The algorithms in Sec. 4 closely approximate root radii  $r_j(c,p)$  for a black box polynomial p and a complex point c at reasonably low cost, but the next well-known upper bounds on  $r_d$  and lower bounds on  $r_1$  (cf. [14],[7],[19],[5], and [4]) are computed at even a lower cost, defined by a single fraction  $\frac{p_0}{p_i}$  or  $\frac{p_{d-i}}{p_d}$  for any i, albeit these bounds are excessively large for the worst case input. Finally,

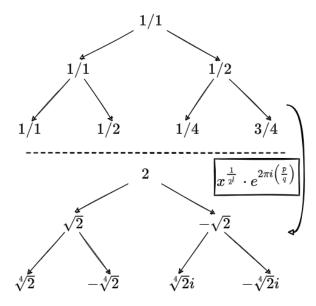
any 
$$i$$
, afford these bounds are excessively large for the worst case input. Finally, we have that  $r_d \leq \rho_{i,-} := \left( \binom{d}{i} \left| \frac{p_0}{p_i} \right| \right)^{\frac{1}{i}}, \frac{1}{r_1} \leq \frac{1}{\rho_{i,+}} := \left( \binom{d}{i} \left| \frac{p_d}{p_{d-i}} \right| \right)^{\frac{1}{i}}$  and therefore, since  $p^{(i)}(0) = i!p_i$  for all  $i > 0$ , that

$$r_{d} \le \rho_{i,-} = \left(i! \begin{pmatrix} d \\ i \end{pmatrix} \left| \frac{p(0)}{p^{(i)}(0)} \right| \right)^{\frac{1}{i}}, \frac{1}{r_{1}} \le \frac{1}{\rho_{i,+}} = \left(i! \begin{pmatrix} d \\ i \end{pmatrix} \left| \frac{p_{\text{rev}}(0)}{p_{\text{rev}}^{(i)}(0)} \right| \right)^{\frac{1}{i}}$$
(16)

for all i; from which we obtain relations 6 for i = 1.

## 4 Our Algorithm for Evaluating $\left(\frac{p'(x)}{p(x)}\right)^{(\ell)}$

In this section we present the design of the general algorithm for approximating the root radius given by Eq. 4. There are two main steps: 1) going down the rational root tree, *i.e.*, performing Alg. 1, and 2) going up the rational root tree, *i.e.*, performing Alg. 3. The going-down is depicted in Fig. 1 and the going-up is depicted in Fig. 3. The other procedures are simple bookkeeping/preprocessing steps in between the two main going-down/going-up steps. In particular we 1) first convert a complex number x into polar coordinates  $r, \theta$  where  $\theta \approx \frac{p}{q} = \frac{p}{2^{\epsilon}}$ , *i.e.*, perform Alg. 4, 2) perform the first going-down pass which gives the rational angles for the roots of x in fraction form, *i.e.*, perform Alg. 1, 3) perform the second pass of the going-down algorithm where we compute the values



**Fig. 1.** The upper tree depicts the steps of Circle\_Roots\_Rational\_Form(p,q,l) in Alg.1 for  $l=2,\,p=1,$  and q=1. The lower tree depicts the steps of Roots(r,t,u,l) in Alg.2 for  $r=2,\,l=2,\,p=1,$  and q=1

Fig. 2.

 $|x|^{\frac{1}{2^m}}\exp(2\pi i\frac{p}{q})$  at the  $m^{\text{th}}$  level, and 4) finally compute the values given by Eq. 3 going back up the rational root tree.

The intuition behind Alg. 1 is that the square root operation satisfies

$$p\%q \neq 0 \implies \sqrt{\exp\left(2\pi i \frac{p}{q}\right)} = \exp\left(2\pi i \frac{p}{2q}\right)$$
 (17)

and

$$p\%q = 0 \implies \sqrt{\exp\left(2\pi i\frac{1}{1}\right)} = \exp\left(2\pi i\frac{1}{1}\right) = 1,$$
 (18)

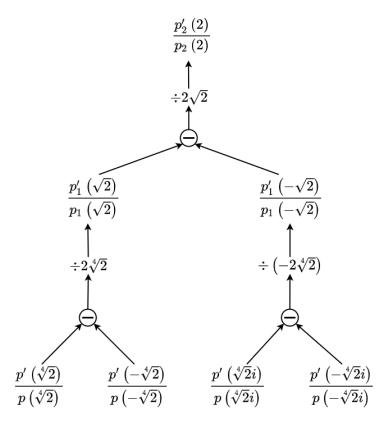
and the negation operation satisfies

$$p\%q \neq 0 \implies -\exp\left(2\pi i \frac{r}{s}\right) = \exp\left(2\pi i \frac{2r+s}{2s}\right)$$
 (19)

and

$$p\%q = 0 \implies \sqrt{\exp\left(2\pi i \frac{1}{1}\right)} = \exp\left(2\pi i \frac{1}{2}\right) = -1;$$
 (20)

therefore, the first four lines of Alg. 1 compute the (angle of the) positive square root,  $\sqrt{x}$ , of complex number on the unit circle and the next four lines Alg. 1 computes the (angle of the) negative square root,  $-\sqrt{x}$ . Therefore, we have:



**Fig. 3.** The steps of DLG\_RATIONAL\_FORM(p, p', r, t, u, l) in Alg.3 for r = 2, l = 2, t = 1, and u = 1.

Fig. 4.

**Theorem 3.** For a complex number x with a rational angle  $\frac{p}{q}$ , i.e.,  $x = |x| \exp\left(2\pi i \frac{p}{q}\right)$ , Alg. 1 correctly computes the roots in Eq. 3. In particular, for a rational angle in fractional form, it does so with exact precision.

*Proof.* Equations 17, 18, 19, and 20 give the base case and the theorem follows by a straightforward induction.

Alg. 2 and Alg. 4 are both straightforward, so for the rest of this section we focus on the intuition behind Alg. 3.

Alg. 3 is a dynamic programming on Equation 3. Therefore, by Thm. 3, we have that Alg. 3 correctly computes Eq. 3. Specifically, Alg. 3 does the following: 1) it computes the last layer of the recursion Eq. 3 (i.e., it computes  $p'(x^{\frac{1}{2^l}})/p(x^{\frac{1}{2^l}})$ ) and then 2) it recursively applies Eq. 3 via dynamic programming until it finally computes  $\frac{p'_{\ell}(x)}{p_{\ell}(x)}$  which is the desired quantity. The

## **Algorithm 1** Circle Roots Rational Form(p,q,l)

```
if p\%q == 0 then
  r,s:=(1,1)
else
  r,s:=(p,2q)
end if
if r\%s == 0 then
  t, u := (1,2)
else
  t, u := (2r + s, 2s)
end if
if l == 1 then
  return [(r,s),(t,u)]
else if l != 0 then
  left := Circle Roots Rational Form(r, s, l - 1)
  right := CIRCLE ROOTS RATIONAL FORM(t, u, l - 1)
  return left \cup right
else
  return [(p,q)]
end if
```

## **Algorithm 2** Roots(r, t, u, l)

```
root_tree = Circle_Roots_Rational_Form(p,q,l)
circ_root = [exp (2 \cdot \pi \cdot i \cdot \frac{r}{s}) for r,s in root_tree]
roots = [\frac{2^l}{r}-root for root in circ_root]
return roots
```

### **Algorithm 3** DLG RATIONAL FORM(p, p', r, t, u, l)

```
\begin{aligned} &\operatorname{root} := \operatorname{Roots}(r,t,u,l) \\ &\operatorname{for}\ r_i \in \operatorname{root}\ \operatorname{do} \\ &\operatorname{base\_step}[i] := \frac{p'(r_i)}{p(r_i)} \\ &\operatorname{end}\ \operatorname{for} \\ &\operatorname{diff}[0] := \operatorname{base\_step} \\ &\operatorname{for}\ i \leq l\ \operatorname{do} \\ &\operatorname{for}\ j \leq 2^{l-i-1}\ \operatorname{do} \\ &\operatorname{diff}[i+1][j] := \frac{1}{2} \frac{\operatorname{diff}[i][2j] - \operatorname{diff}[i][2j+1]}{\operatorname{root}[2j]} \\ &\operatorname{root} = \operatorname{roots}(r,t,u,l-1-i) \\ &\operatorname{end}\ \operatorname{for} \\ &\operatorname{end}\ \operatorname{for} \\ &\operatorname{end}\ \operatorname{for} \\ &\operatorname{return}\ \operatorname{diff}[l][0] \end{aligned}
```

former is given by the line "base\_step[i] :=  $\frac{p'(r_i)}{p(r_i)}$ " and the latter is given by the line "diff[i+1][j]:= $\frac{1}{2}\frac{\text{diff}[i][2j]-\text{diff}[i][2j+1]}{\text{root}[2j]}$ " in Alg. 3; the desired output  $(i.e., p'(x^{\frac{1}{2l}})/p(x^{\frac{1}{2l}}))$  is given by the line "diff[l][0]".

### **Algorithm 4** DLG $(p, p', l, x, \epsilon)$

```
egin{aligned} & 	ext{angle} := rac{1}{2\pi i} \log(x) \ & u := 2^{\epsilon} \ & t := (	ext{angle} \cdot u)\%1 \ & r := |x| \ & 	ext{return} & 	ext{DLG\_RATIONAL\_FORM}(p,p',r,t,u,l) \end{aligned}
```

The final step in the algorithm is to use Alg. 4 to compute root radius approximations  $r_d$  and  $r_1$ . The procedure is given by Alg. 5. The rationale for

## $\overline{\textbf{Algorithm}}$ 5 DLG\_ROOT\_RADIUS $(p, p', p_{\text{rev}}, p'_{\text{rev}}, l, \epsilon, \epsilon')$

```
Uniformly Randomly Generate x in the unit circle d := \deg(p) r_{\min} := d/\mathrm{DLG}(p, p', l, x \cdot 2^{-\epsilon}, \epsilon') r_{\max} := \mathrm{DLG}(p_{\mathrm{rev}}, p'_{\mathrm{rev}}, l, x \cdot 2^{-\epsilon}, \epsilon')/d
```

generating a random x is that there may be roots close to 0 and thus, by taking the limit in certain directions, we avoid these possible poles; in particular, we have that

$$\lim_{\epsilon',\epsilon \to \infty} DLG(p, p', l, x \cdot 2^{-\epsilon'}, \epsilon) = \frac{p'_{\ell}(0)}{p_{\ell}(0)} = \left(\frac{p'_{\ell-1}(x)}{p_{\ell-1}(x)}\right)'_{x=0} = \left(\frac{p'(x)}{p(x)}\right)^{(\ell)}_{x=0}, \quad (21)$$

for any x, if  $p(0) \neq 0$  (See Thm 4).

### 5 Theoretical Analysis

We now give some theoretical guarantees: Thm. 4 proves the correctness of Alg. 5, and Thm. 5 and Thm. 6 give computational complexity bounds.

#### 5.1 Correctness of the output

**Theorem 4.** If  $p(0) \neq 0$ , then Alg. 5 computes the bounds given by Eq. 6 with probability 1.

*Proof.* By Lem. 1 we have that the limit in Eq. 1 is well defined. Since there are at most finitely many roots for  $p_{\ell}$  with a high probability Alg. 5 computes the correct approximation to the bounds in Eq. 6.

#### 5.2 Complexity

**Theorem 5.** Alg. 3 performs q floating point subtractions, divisions, and multiplications and q applications of sin and cos, where  $q = 2^l$ ; furthermore, Alg. 3 performs at most Cq integer additions, "multiplications-by-2", and  $\%2^{\epsilon}$  (i.e., mod  $2^{\epsilon}$ ) operations, where C = 1, 3, 2 respectively.

*Proof.* Looking at Fig. 1 and Fig. 3, we can see that the computational tree for the Alg. 3 is a binary tree with  $2^l = q$  nodes; the proof for the constants C = 1, 3, 2 follows similarly follows from the inspection of the operations performed in Alg. 1.

**Theorem 6.** The Cq integer additions, "multiplications-by-2", and  $\%2^{\epsilon}$  (i.e.,  $mod\ 2^{\epsilon}$ ) operations in Alg. 3 have negligible overhead. More precisely, integer additions are always additions of  $2 \epsilon \log \ell$ -bit integers and "multiplications-by-2" and  $\%2^{\epsilon}$  (i.e.,  $mod\ 2^{\epsilon}$ ) operations have constant time overhead.

Proof. Since Alg. 4 always passes in a denominator which is a power of two all of the integer % and  $\cdot$  operations are in fact "multiplications-by-2", and %2 $^{\epsilon}$  (i.e., mod 2 $^{\epsilon}$ ) operations by a straightforward proof similar to the one in Alg. 3. Thus these operation are essentially constant overhead bit shift operations on a computing machine with binary words. Since p%r always reduces  $p\mapsto 1$ , we have that whenever an overflow of more than  $\log r$ -bits happens in Alg. 1 it gets converted to an  $\log r$ -bit integer; therefore, it suffices to prove that  $\log r$  is bounded by  $\epsilon \log \ell$ . However, this once again follows by induction on the binary computation tree: since this tree has depth  $\ell$  we see that any denominator is bounded by  $\epsilon \log \ell$  by a simple induction.

In order to prove Thm. 4 we must first prove Lem. 1.

**Lemma 1.** If  $p(0) \neq 0$ , then the limit  $\lim_{x\to 0} DLG(p, p', l, x)$  is always well-defined.

*Proof.* By applying induction on Eq. 2, we have that  $p_l(0) \neq 0$  if  $p(0) \neq 0$ , and thus it suffices to consider the behavior of the numerator in Eq. 3. The case  $\ell = 1$  follows from an application of L'Hopital's rule. For  $\ell \neq 1$ , there are two cases: either  $\sqrt{x}$  divides the numerator of  $\frac{p'_\ell(\sqrt{x})}{p_\ell(\sqrt{x})}$  or it does not. If it does, then we are done since we can once again apply L'Hopital's rule. Otherwise, we get that  $p'_\ell(\sqrt{x}) = c_0 + c_1\sqrt{x} + ... + c_k(\sqrt{x})^k$  for some  $c_i$  with  $c_0 \neq 0$ . But then we have

$$\begin{split} \frac{p'_{\ell+1}(\sqrt{x}\ )}{p_{\ell+1}(\sqrt{x}\ )} &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} \Big( \frac{p'_{\ell}(\sqrt{x}\ )}{p_{\ell}(\sqrt{x}\ )} - \frac{p'_{\ell}(-\sqrt{x}\ )}{p_{\ell}(-\sqrt{x}\ )} \Big) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} \frac{b_0c_0 + \sqrt{x} \cdot N_1(\sqrt{x}) - b_0c_0 - \sqrt{x} \cdot N_2(\sqrt{x})}{p'_{\ell}(\sqrt{x}\ )p'_{\ell}(-\sqrt{x}\ )} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{N_1(\sqrt{x}) - N_2(\sqrt{x})}{p'_{\ell}(\sqrt{x}\ )p'_{\ell}(-\sqrt{x}\ )}, \end{split}$$

for some polynomials  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  with  $b_0 = p'_{\ell}(0)$ . Therefore the limit at zero is once again well-defined.

#### 5.3 Stability

**Definition 1.** If  $\tilde{f}$  is an algorithm for computing f we let  $\delta f(x) = f(x) - \tilde{f}(x)$  then the condition number of  $\tilde{f}(x)$  at x,  $\kappa(\tilde{f})(x)$ , is given by

$$\kappa\{\tilde{f}\}(x) = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \sup_{\|\delta x\| \le \varepsilon} \frac{\|\delta f(x)\|}{\|\delta x\|}$$

**Lemma 2.** The (relative) condition number operator  $\kappa$  satisfies the following properties:

1. 
$$\kappa\{f\}(x) = |x \log'(f(x))|$$
  
2.  $\kappa\left\{\frac{f}{g}\right\}(x) = ||\kappa\{f\}(x)| - |\kappa\{g\}(x)||$   
3.  $\kappa\{x^d\}(x) = d$ 

*Proof.* This follows from the definition of the condition number.

**Theorem 7.** If  $p_{\ell}(0) \neq 0$ , then  $\frac{p'_{\ell}(x)}{p_{\ell}(x)}$  is well-conditioned at any point sufficiently close to 0.

*Proof.* The proof of Lem. 1 gives us that  $\frac{p'_{\ell}(x)}{p_{\ell}(x)}$  is a well behaved rational function at any point close to zero and thus the condition number  $\kappa\{\frac{p'_{\ell}}{p_{\ell}}\}(x)$  is well defined at this point since the condition number of arithmetic operations of functions are themselves arithmetic operations in those same functions and the conditions number for a polynomial of degree  $d \in \mathbb{R}$  is exactly d; therefore,  $\kappa\{\frac{p'_{\ell}}{p_{\ell}}\}(x)$  has a well defined/bounded condition number in the limit to zero.

Remark 3. Even though Thm. 7 states that  $\frac{p'_{\ell}(x)}{p_{\ell}(x)}$  is highly stable, in practice, computating this function requires the use of trigonometric functions (i.e., the roots in Alg. 2); therefore, our added precision in Alg. 1 helps with the instability associated with Alg. 2. Intuitively this helps the instability because the trigonometric functions are the only subroutines in the algorithm that have a non constant condition number and thus, special care must be taken with them; in particular, our algorithm gives a precise value (up to user specified precision) of the angle arguements to these trigonometric functions.

#### 6 Experimental Results

#### 6.1 Setup

We now present the results of our experiments in which we compute the bounds on the extremal root radii  $|x_1|$  and  $|x_d|$  given by 6 for the polynomials in the test suite of MPSolve. The test suite covers a number of univariate polynomial families over a range of degrees. (A fuller description of the test suite can be found in https://numpi.dm.unipi.it/mpsolve-2.2/mpsolve.pdf.)

Given a polynomial p(x) of degree d, we use an implementation of DLG iterations that incorporates our algorithm from Section 4 for computing  $(p'(x)/p(x))^{(\ell)}$  and in turn compute bounds, or estimates, for root radii,  $r_1 = r_{\text{max}}$  and  $r_d = r_{\text{min}}$  given by (6) on extremal root radii  $|x_1|$  and  $|x_d|$ , respectively. The performance of these bounds are evaluated on the relative error in comparison to the corresponding root radius computed by MPSolve. That is,

relative error
$$(r_i) = \frac{|r_i - |x_i||}{|x_i|}, \ i = 1, d,$$

where  $|x_i|$  is the minimal or maximal root radius found using MPSolve and  $r_i$  is the corresponding estimate for the root radii we compute.

For the parameters, we use  $\ell = \lfloor \log_2 d \rfloor$  and for the precision we emperically found that

$$e = 2^{\ell/3} + 330$$

bits of precision behaved pretty well; however, deducing the theoritically correct values of e would be an interesting future research direction.

By choosing  $\mathcal{O}(\log d)$  iterations, we keep the number of iterations relatively small even when the degree of the polynomial increases. For instance,  $\ell=6$  for  $d=\deg(p(x))=100$ , and when d grows to 6400, we still have  $\ell=12$ ; likewise, since the number of bits of precision used where  $e=2^{\mathcal{O}(\ell)}=\mathcal{O}(d)$ , we have that the precision did not grow too large neither.

All experiments were performed using Python 3.7.7 and MPSolve 3.2.1 on MacOS 11.6.1 with 2.8 GHz Dual-Core Intel Core i5 with 8 GB memory.

#### 6.2 Observations

The overall results support our claims that our root radii approximations perform well when p(x) has no roots extremely close to zero whereas the estimates are poor otherwise. The test results for the **chebyshev** family of polynomials in Table 1 demonstrate this trend quite clearly.

In general, the relative errors for the minimal root radius  $|x_d|$  is 1.0 or less for roots away from the origin by more than 0.01, with some notable exceptions such as  $p(x) = x^d - h^d$ . That is, the difference between the minimal root radius bound we compute and the absolute value of the smallest root  $x_d$  tends to be less than  $|x_d|$ , i.e.,  $|r_d - |x_d|| \le |x_d|$ . Combined with the bound given in (8) gives us a rough heuristic expectation that  $|x_d| \le r_d \le 2|x_d|$  if  $|x_d| > 0.01$ .

The relative errors for the maximal root radius  $|x_1|$  for the lower bound  $r_1$  reflects a similar trend: The errors are close to 1 when  $|x_1|$  is large, showing that in relation to the root radius, our estimate is close to 0, the worst lower bound possible. Since  $1/x_1$  the smallest root of  $p_{\text{rev}}$ , this is essentially the same situation as the root  $x_d$  of p(x) being near 0.

Finally, our results demonstrate the consequence of Thm. 9 in Table 26 showing the figures for polynomial family **nroots** of the form  $p(x) = x^d - 1$ . The ratio of |p(0)/p'(0)| is infinite, so our algorithm estimates the minimal root radius to be much larger than the actual root radius. On the other hand, the algorithm estimates the maximal root radius to be close to 0 since  $|p_{\text{rev}}(0)/p'_{\text{rev}}(0)| = 0$ .

#### **Tables** 6.3

The columns of the tables, in order, are

- -d: degree of the input polynomial
- $-\ell$ : number of iterations
- $-e: -\log(|x|)$
- mp.dps: the mpmath precision level used
- the relative errors for the minimum and maximum root radii
- total runtime,
- the extremal root radii as computed by MPSolve for the particular given polynomial.

The entries '-' in the tables indicate the test was terminated before completion.

Table 1. Experimental Data for chebyshev

					RELATIVE		
d	! !	e	DPS	ERROR $r_d$	ERROR $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
2	0 4	616	332	0.155	0.0939		[0.0785, 0.997]
4	0 5	616	332	0.0981	0.0589		[0.0393, 0.999]
8	0 6	617	334	0.0593	0.0353		[0.0196, 1.0]
_		-	334	2.71			[0.00982, 1.0]
32	0 8	617	334	37.6	0.465	88.4	[0.00491, 1.0]

Table 2. Experimental Data for chrma

			мР	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
d	$\ell$	e	DPS	Error $r_d$	Error $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
21	4	616	332	0.215	0.139	0.22	[1.0, 3.17]
85	6	617	334	0.0369	0.0452		[ -/]
341	8	617	334	0.717	0.547	105.48	[0.884, 3.41]

## Conclusion

#### References

1. Baur, W., Strassen, V.: The complexity of partial derivatives. Theoretical computer science 22(3), 317-330 (1983)

Table 3. Experimental Data for chrma\_d

d	$\ell$	e			MPSOLVE ROOT RADIUS
				0.175	[1.3, 3.01] [1.1, 3.06]
					[0.741, 3.00]

 ${\bf Table\ 4.\ Experimental\ Data\ for\ chrmc}$ 

d	$\ell$	e		RELATIVE ERROR $r_1$	MPSOLVE ROOT RADIUS
	_		 0.211 0.718		[1.0, 3.03] [0.897, 4.13]

Table 5. Experimental Data for chrmc\_d

			MP	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
d	$\ell$	e	DPS	Error $r_d$	ERROR $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
11	3	616	332	0.251	0.242	0.05	[1.27, 2.8]
43	5	616	332	0.101	0.0996	1.23	[1.02, 2.97]
171	7	617	334	0.268	1.13	22.05	[0.715, 3.07]
683	9	619	338	0.164	0.257	374.69	[0.519, 3.1]

Table 6. Experimental Data for curz

				MP	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
	d	$\ell$	e	${\rm DPS}$	Error $r_d$	Error $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
Ī	20	4	616	332	0.156	0.854	0.21	[0.452, 1.15]
	40	5	616	332	0.199	0.776	1.13	[0.379, 1.26]
	80	6	617	334	0.086	0.227	5.49	[0.318, 1.34]
	160	7	617	334	0.0385	0.509	20.79	[0.271, 1.38]

Table 7. Experimental Data for easy

				мР	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
_	d	$\ell$	e	DPS	Error $r_d$	ERROR $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
	100	6	617	334	0.12	0.0809	6.35	[0.949, 0.98]
	200	7	617	334	0.068	0.047		[0.971, 0.99]
	400	8	617	334	0.0381	0.0265	104.47	[0.983, 0.995]
	1600	10	619	338	0.01	0.00	2228.22	[0.995, 0.999]
;	3200	11	619	338	0.00	-	-	[0.997, 0.999]

Table 8. Experimental Data for exp

	MP	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
$d$ $\ell$ $e$	DPS	Error $r_d$	ERROR $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
50 5 616	332	3.76	0.126	1.48	[14.9, 39.4]
$100\ 6\ 617$	334	0.367	0.0598	7.37	[28.9, 83.9]
$200\ 7\ 617$	334	0.714	0.839	28.22	[56.8, 176.0]
400 8 617	334	0.965	0.985	107.96	[113.0, 365.0]

Table 9. Experimental Data for geom1

	MP	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
$d$ $\ell$ $e$	$\mathrm{DPS}$	Error $r_d$	ERROR $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
10 3 616	332	0.334	0.25	0.05	[1.0, 1.0 E + 18]
$15\ 3\ 616$	332	0.403	1.0	0.08	$[1.0, 1.0\mathrm{E}{+28}]$
$20\ 4\ 616$	332	0.206	1.0		$[1.0, 1.0\mathrm{E}{+38}]$
$40\ 5\ 616$	332	0.122	1.0	1.18	$[1.0, 1.0\mathrm{E}{+78}]$

Table 10. Experimental Data for geom2

			MP	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
d	$\ell$	e	$\operatorname{DPS}$	Error $r_d$	Error $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
10	3	616	332	0.334	0.25	0.06	[1.0E-18, 1.0]
15	3	616	332	$8.09\mathrm{e}{+4}$	0.287	0.06	[1.0E-28, 1.0]
				$2.63\mathrm{e}{+26}$			[1.0E-38, 1.0]
40	5	616	332	1.61E + 72	0.109	1.14	[1.0E-78, 1.0]

Table 11. Experimental Data for geom3

			MP	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
d	$\ell$	e	$\operatorname{DPS}$	Error $r_d$	Error $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
10	3	616	332	0.334	0.25	0.05	[9.54E-7, 0.25]
20	4	616	332	2.41	0.171	0.24	[9.09 e- 13, 0.25]
				$1.95\mathrm{e}{+18}$			[8.27 e- 25, 0.25]
80	6	617	334	$1.83\mathrm{e}{+45}$	0.0662	5.73	[6.84 E- 49, 0.25]

Table 12. Experimental Data for geom4

			мР	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
d	$\ell$	e	$\operatorname{DPS}$	error $r_d$	Error $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
10	3	616	332	0.334	0.25	0.05	[4.0, 1.05 E + 6]
20	4	616	332	0.206	0.707	0.27	$[4.0, 1.1\text{E}{+}12]$
40	5	616	332	0.122	1.0		[4.0, 1.21E+24]
80	6	617	334	0.0709	1.0	5.28	$[4.0, 1.46\mathrm{E}{+48}]$

Table 13. Experimental Data for hermite

			MP	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
d	$\ell$	e	DPS	Error $r_d$	Error $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
20	4	616	332	0.155	0.129	0.28	[0.245, 5.39]
40	5	616	332	0.0981	0.0876	1.31	[0.175, 8.1]
80	6	617	334	0.0593	0.0555	5.97	[0.124, 11.9]
160	7	617	334	0.0348	0.0335	23.56	[0.0877, 17.2]
320	8	617	334	2.08	0.785	88.88	[0.062, 24.7]

Table 14. Experimental Data for kam1

1.0		RELATIVE			MPSOLVE
$a \ell e$	DPS	Error $r_d$	ERROR $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
$7\ 2\ 615$	331	0.368	1.0	0.01	[3.0E-12, 15.8]
		0.368			[3.0E-40, 1.0E+4]
7 2 615	331	$2.37\mathrm{E}{+93}$	1.0	0.01	$[3.0\mathrm{E-}140, 1.0\mathrm{E}{+}14]$

Table 15. Experimental Data for kam2

		MP	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
$d \ell$	e	DPS	error $r_d$	Error $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
9 3 6	16	332	0.107	1.0	0.03	[1.73E-6, 251.0]
936	16	332	0.107	1.0		[1.73E-20, 1.0E+8]
936	16	332	$4.23\mathrm{e}{+46}$	1.0	0.03	[1.73E-70, 1.0E+28]

Table 16. Experimental Data for kam3

		MP	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
$d$ $\ell$	e	DPS	error $r_d$	Error $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
9 3	616	332	0.107	1.0	0.03	[1.73E-6, 251.0]
93	616	332	0.107	1.0		[1.73E-20, 1.0E+8]
93	616	332	$4.23\mathrm{e}{+46}$	1.0	0.03	$[1.73 \mathrm{E}\text{-}70, 1.0 \mathrm{E}\text{+}28]$

Table 17. Experimental Data for kir1

	$\overline{d}$	$\ell$	e		RELATIVE ERROR $r_d$			MPSOLVE ROOT RADIUS
•					0.000244			[0.5, 0.5]
	84	6	617	334	4.41 E-5 2.29 E-5	0.000464	2.9	[0.5, 0.5] [0.5, 0.5]
	164	7	617	334	1.16e-5	0.000476	9.79	[0.5, 0.5]

Table 18. Experimental Data for kir1\_mod

1 0						MPSOLVE
$\frac{a}{-}$	e	DPS	ERROR $r_d$	ERROR $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
						[0.5, 0.5]
						[0.498, 0.502]
164 7 6	17	334	0.00734	0.00749	10.35	[0.496, 0.504]

Table 19. Experimental Data for lagurerre

	MP	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
$d$ $\ell$ $e$	DPS	Error $r_d$	Error $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
20 4 616	332	0.206	0.167	0.22	[0.0705, 66.5]
$40\ 5\ 616$	332	0.122	0.108	1.28	[0.0357, 142.0]
80 6 617	334	0.0709	0.0659	5.63	[0.018, 297.0]
$160\ 7\ 617$	334	3.09		22.21	[0.00901, 610.0]
320 8 617	334	41.4	0.996	89.64	$[0.00451, 1.24 \mathrm{E}{+3}]$

 ${\bf Table~20.~Experimental~Data~for~lar1}$ 

$d$ $\ell$ $e$	RELATIVE ERROR $r_d$		
	7.06E+9 $9.69E+19$		

Table 21. Experimental Data for legendre

			мР	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
d	$\ell$	e	DPS	Error $r_d$	Error $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
20	4	616	332	0.155	0.0969	0.25	[0.0765, 0.993]
40	5	616	332	0.0981	0.0604	1.15	[0.0388, 0.998]
80	6	617	334	0.0593	0.0359	6.08	[0.0195, 1.0]
160	7	617	334	2.72	0.0637	19.97	[0.00979, 1.0]
320	8	617	334	37.7	0.456	81.12	[0.0049, 1.0]

Table 22. Experimental Data for 1sr

				RELATIVE			MPSOLVE
d	$\ell$	e	DPS	Error $r_d$	ERROR $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
24	4	616	332	$2.88\mathrm{E}{+8}$	1.0	0.29	$[1.0 \mathtt{E-} 20, 1.0 \mathtt{E+} 20]$
52	5	616	332	$1.81\mathrm{E}{+}14$	1.0		[1.0E-20, 1.0E+10]
52	5	616	332	$1.81\mathrm{E}{+34}$	1.0	0.22	[1.0E-40, 1.0E+20]
52	5	616	332	$1.81\mathrm{E}{+74}$	1.0	0.2	[1.0E-80, 1.0E+40]
224	7	617	334	3.62E+18	1.0	9.8	[1.0E-20, 1.0E+20]
500	8	617	334	1.92E + 3	1.0	6.79	$[0.0001, 2.0\mathrm{E}{+4}]$
500	8	617	334	$5.77\text{E}{+3}$	0.995	3.27	[3.33E-5, 1.0E+3]
500	8	617	334	1.05	1.0	3.05	$[0.0916, 1.0 \pm +200]$

 ${\bf Table~23.~Experimental~Data~for~mand}$ 

d	$\ell$	e		RELATIVE ERROR $r_d$		RUN- TIME	MPSOLVE ROOT RADIUS
31	4	616	332	0.295	0.144	0.4	[0.445, 2.0]
63	5	616	332	0.127	0.0854	2.16	[0.403, 2.0]
127	6	617	334	0.0898	0.0488	8.58	[0.373, 2.0]
255	7	617	334	0.0609	0.701	37.41	[0.351, 2.0]
511	8	617	334	0.0234	1.63	174.71	[0.334, 2.0]
1023	9	619	338	0.357	0.142	569.08	[0.321, 2.0]
2047	10	619	338	1.12	0.241	2372.57	[0.311, 2.0]
4095	11	619	338	1.68	0.38	9209.19	[0.303, 2.0]

Table 24. Experimental Data for mig1

d	P	e			RELATIVE ERROR $r_1$		MPSOLVE ROOT RADIUS
	_		DID	Entroit va	Entroit 71	1111111	THOO I TEMPLOS
20	4	616	332	0.126	1.0	0.08	[0.01, 2.26]
50	5	616	332	0.0157	0.987	1.8	$[0.00999, 1.83 \mathrm{E}{+3}]$
100	6	617	334	0.0563	1.0	0.5	[0.01, 1.15]
100	6	617	334	0.0183	1.0	4.05	[0.01, 7.92]
200	7	617	334	2.66	1.0	0.8	[0.01, 1.07]
200	7	617	334	2.59	0.999	9.37	[0.01, 2.33]
500	8	617	334	18.2	0.99	1.59	[0.01, 1.03]
500	8	617	334	18.0	0.984	15.65	[0.01, 1.36]

Table 25. Experimental Data for mult

$d$ $\ell$ $e$					MPSOLVE ROOT RADIUS
20 4 616 22 4 616	332 332	0.213	$0.475 \\ 0.105$	$0.24 \\ 0.24$	[0.869, 1.07] [0.01, 2.68] [1.0, 20.0] [0.25, 2.24]

Table 26. Experimental Data for nroots

d	$\ell$	e	MP	RELATIVE ERROR $r_d$			MPSOLVE ROOT RADIUS
50	5	616	332	5.18E+13	1.0	0.12	[1.0, 1.0]
100	6	617	334	$7.06 \mathrm{E}{+6}$	1.0	0.19	[1.0, 1.0]
200	7	617	334	$2.69\text{E}{+3}$	1.0	0.39	[1.0, 1.0]
400	8	617	334	50.5	0.981	0.79	[1.0, 1.0]
800	9	619	338	6.34	0.864	1.73	[1.0, 1.0]
1600	10	619	338	1.71	0.631	3.19	[1.0, 1.0]
3200	11	619	338	0.645	0.392	6.79	[1.0, 1.0]
6400	12	623	346	0.289	0.224	14.55	[1.0, 1.0]

Table 27. Experimental Data for nrooti

d	$\ell$	e		RELATIVE ERROR $r_d$			MPSOLVE ROOT RADIUS
50	5	616	332	4.94E+13	1.0	0.1	[1.0, 1.0]
100	6	617	334	7.07 E + 6	1.0	0.32	[1.0, 1.0]
200	7	617	334	2.69E + 3	1.0	0.46	[1.0, 1.0]
400	8	617	334	50.5	0.981	0.85	[1.0, 1.0]
800	9	619	338	6.34	0.864	1.85	[1.0, 1.0]
1600	10	619	338	1.71	0.631	3.23	[1.0, 1.0]
3200	11	619	338	0.645	0.392	7.02	[1.0, 1.0]
6400	12	623	346	0.289	0.224	13.31	[1.0, 1.0]

Table 28. Experimental Data for sendra

d	$\ell$	e			RELATIVE ERROR $r_1$		MPSOLVE ROOT RADIUS
20	4	616	332	0.283	0.158	0.25	[0.9, 2.05]
40	5	616	332	0.159	0.101	1.25	[0.95, 2.02]
80	6	617	334	0.287	0.573	5.2	[0.975, 2.01]
160	7	617	334	0.658	2.14	24.34	[0.987, 2.01]
320	8	617	334	0.809	1.64	88.08	[0.994, 2.0]

Table 29. Experimental Data for sparse

	d	$\ell$	e					MPSOLVE ROOT RADIUS
		-			$0.11 \\ 0.0361$	1.0 0.995	0.26 1.16	[0.968, 1.01] [0.969, 1.0]
ä	800	9	619	338	$\begin{array}{c} 0.0211 \\ 0.0118 \\ 0.00202 \end{array}$	0.929 $0.739$ $0.158$	2.19 $6.56$ $72.81$	[0.969, 1.0] [0.969, 1.0] [0.969, 1.0]

Table 30. Experimental Data for spiral

	MP	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
$d \ell e$	DPS	Error $r_d$	ERROR $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
10 3 616	332	5.1 E- 7	1.21E-6	0.05	[1.0, 1.0]
$15\ 3\ 616$	332	3.49e-7	1.15e-6	0.07	[1.0, 1.0]
$20\ 4\ 616$	332	4.55E- $7$	1.3 E-6	0.23	[1.0, 1.0]
$25\ 4\ 616$	332	3.67E- $7$	1.25e-6	0.29	[1.0, 1.0]
$30\ 4\ 616$	332	3.08 E- 7	1.21e-6	0.41	[1.0, 1.0]

Table 31. Experimental Data for toep

				MP	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
	d	$\ell$	e	$\operatorname{DPS}$	Error $r_d$	Error $r_1$	${\rm TIME}$	ROOT RADIUS
1	28	7	617	334	0.0386	0.562	18.71	[1.31, 64.4]
2	56	8	617	334	0.0219			[1.34, 64.4]
	_				0.0386			[0.4, 13.2]
2	56	8	617	334	0.0225	0.599	72.66	[0.383, 13.2]

Table 32. Experimental Data for wilk

			MP	RELATIVE	RELATIVE	RUN-	MPSOLVE
d	$\ell$	e	${\rm DPS}$	Error $r_d$	Error $r_1$	TIME	ROOT RADIUS
20	4	616	332	0.206	0.141	0.22	[1.0, 20.0]
30	4	616	332	0.237	0.0859	0.33	[1.0, 319.0]
40	5	616	332	0.122	0.0927	1.27	[1.0, 40.0]
80	6	617	334	0.0709	0.121	5.59	[1.0, 80.0]
160	7	617	334	0.0404	0.824	21.82	[1.0, 160.0]
320	8	617	334	0.0228	0.983	89.77	[1.0, 320.0]

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