Applied Programming

Finding Roots

of Polynomials

(real and complex)

• The Bisection, Newton, and Secant algorithms can *only find real solutions*

- Real polynomials equations may also *have* complex solutions: e.g., $x^2 x + 1 = 0$
 - Need a method that can find complex roots
 - Requires complex arithmetic!!

• To find roots of polynomials specialized algorithms are better.

• The most common is Laguerre's method (that finds both real and complex roots, *i.e.*, may require complex arithmetic)

• We start by looking at the *numerical* evaluation of polynomials

1) How many roots?

A real polynomial of degree n has exactly n roots (some may be complex)

Notes:

- A real polynomial is a polynomial with real coefficients
- The roots of polynomial are usually called their zeros

Example:

• The polynomial $p(x)=x^5+1$ has exactly 5 roots (some are complex) Can you find all of them?

General approach:

- 1. Find a root (usually the smallest)
- 2. Remove it from the polynomial
- 3. Repeat (e.g., goto 1) until all the roots have been found.

The process of removing a root from a polynomial (step 2) is called "deflation"

Polynomial Deflation

Let x^* be a root of p(x) (e.g., $p(x^*)=0$). Then

$$p(x) = (x - x^*)q(x)$$

One degree less than p(x)

where

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

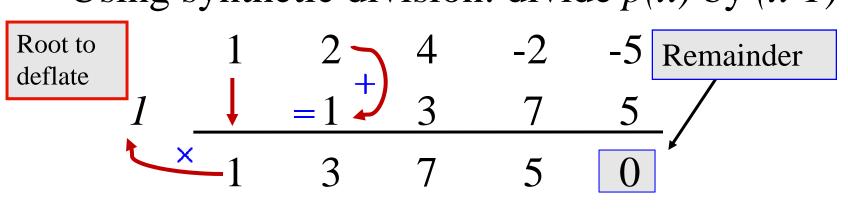
$$q(x) = b_{n-1} x^{n-1} + b_{n-2} x^{n-2} + \dots + b_1 x + b_0$$

The objective is to obtain the coefficients of q(x) directly from the coefficients of p(x) and the root to be deflated x^* . This can be achieved by synthetic division (you did this in high school)

Recall: Synthetic Division

• Deflate the root x=1 from the polynomial $p(x)=x^4+2x^3+4x^2-2x-5$

• Using synthetic division: divide p(x) by (x-1)



• Deflated Polynomial: $q(x)=x^3+3x^2+7x+5$

Deflation Algorithm

• Synthetic division can be organized efficiently in a "deflation algorithm" (here r is a root of the polynomial, e.g., p(r)=0, where,

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

$$q(x) = b_{n-1} x^{n-1} + b_{n-2} x^{n-2} + \dots + b_1 x + b_0$$

```
Inputs: r; a_{n}, a_{n-1}, ... a_{0}

Output: b_{n-1}, b_{n-2}, ..., b_{0}

b[n-1] = a[n];

for k = n-2:-1:0

b[k] = b[k+1]*r + a[k+1];

end
```

Deflation: Complex Roots

- Deflation works both for real and complex roots.
- If a polynomial has *real coefficients* then its *complex roots come in complex conjugate pairs*:
 - If you find that x=a+ib is a root of p(x)then x=a-ib is also a root of p(x)

Consequence:

- When solving for roots of real polynomials once a complex root is found deflate both the complex root and its conjugate
- For example, *if* you find that x=1+i 4 is a root then you already know that x=1-i 4 is also a root (no need to find it)

Example/Class Exercise

• Find all the roots of the following polynomial by sequential deflation (*i.e.*, using synthetic division) until the polynomial becomes a 2nd order polynomial. Then use the quadratic formula to find the remaining roots

$$p(x) = x^4 - 2x^3 - 9x^2 + 2x + 8$$

• Hint: the constant term is the product of the roots is 8

Example

$$p(x) = x^4 - 2x^3 - 9x^2 + 2x + 8$$
 given "1" is a root
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & -2 & -9 & 2 & 9 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -10 & -8 \\ 1 & -1 & -10 & -8 & 0 & \text{must be zero} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$p(x) = x^3 - x^2 - 10x - 8$$
 now given "-1" is a root

$$p(x) = x^2 - 2x - 8$$

Example

$$p(x) = x^2 - 2x - 8$$
 now given "-2" is a root

$$p(x) = x - 4$$

• At the end of deflation we are left with a first degree polynomial whose root is found trivially to be x=4

Laguerre's Algorithm

- Laguerre's method is an **iterative** approach to find roots of an equation.
- Suppose we want to find all the roots of a polynomial of *degree n of the form:*

$$p(x) = c(x - x_1)(x - x_2) \cdots (x - x_n)$$

• The method proceeds by *sequentially computing one root at a time* using a special correction function followed by a deflation step

Laguerre's Algorithm: The Magic

Laguerre defines two helper functions:

$$G(x) = rac{d}{dx} \ln |p(x)| = rac{p'(x)}{p(x)}$$
 $H(x) = -rac{d^2}{dx^2} \ln |p(x)| = \left(rac{p'(x)}{p(x)}
ight)^2 - rac{p''(x)}{p(x)}$

And a "correction factor":

$$\alpha^{(i)} = \frac{n}{G(\tilde{x}^{(i)}) \pm \sqrt{(n-1)(n H(\tilde{x}^{(i)}) - G(\tilde{x}^{(i)})^2)}}$$

Which are solved iteratively, trying to make the correction factor as small as possible.

Laguerre's Algorithm

$$G(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \ln |p(x)| = \frac{p'(x)}{p(x)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{x - x_1} + \frac{1}{x - x_2} + \dots + \frac{1}{x - x_n}$$

$$H(x) = -\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \ln|p(x)| = \left(\frac{p'(x)}{p(x)}\right)^2 - \frac{p''(x)}{p(x)}$$
$$= \frac{1}{(x-x_1)^2} + \frac{1}{(x-x_2)^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{(x-x_n)^2}$$

Note: G(x) and H(x) require p(x), p'(x), p''(x)

Derivatives

- Laguerre's Algorithm requires the first and second derivatives, both evaluated at *x*.
 - Could just reused the Newton's derivative code fragment twice!

```
for (i = 1; i < sizeof(f)/sizeof(double); i++) { df[i - 1] = i*f[i]; } e_{g._{a+b}} for (i = 1; i < sizeof(df)/sizeof(double); i++) { ddf[i - 1] = i*df[i]; }
```

There is a faster way

Computing p, p' & p''

• p, p' and p'' can all be evaluated simultaneously at a point x using the following:

Note: Assumes

$$p = a_n$$
, $q = r = 0$;
for $k = n-1$: -1 : 0
 $r = rx + q$;
 $q = qx + p$;
 $p = px + a_k$
 $p' = q$;
 $p'' = 2r$;

Note: Assumes
low order first.

n is the degree
e.g. a+bx+cx²

$$G(x) = rac{p'(x)}{p(x)}$$
 $H(x) = G(x)^2 - rac{p''^{(x)}}{p(x)}$

The correction factor α

$$\alpha^{(i)} = \frac{n}{G(\tilde{x}^{(i)}) \pm \sqrt{(n-1)(n H(\tilde{x}^{(i)}) - G(\tilde{x}^{(i)})^2)}}$$

- The sign denominator +/- must be chosen to make the magnitude of the denominator as large as possible
 - If $\tilde{x}^{(i)}$ is *real* choose it equal to $\operatorname{sign} G(\tilde{x}^{(i)})$
 - If $\tilde{x}^{(i)}$ is *complex* you must evaluate both expressions (with the + and sign) and choose the *denominator with largest absolute value*
 - *n* is the degree of the equation

Laguerre's Algorithm

Superscript denotes iteration

- 1. Choose initial guess $\tilde{x}^{(o)}$ and set i=0
- 2. Compute $p(\tilde{x}^{(i)}), p'(\tilde{x}^{(i)}), p''(\tilde{x}^{(i)})$ and then $G(\tilde{x}^{(i)}), H(\tilde{x}^{(i)}),$
- 3. Compute the *correction factor*

$$\alpha^{(i)} = \frac{n}{G(\tilde{x}^{(i)}) \pm \sqrt{(n-1)(n H(\tilde{x}^{(i)}) - G(\tilde{x}^{(i)})^2)}}$$

where the **sign** (+ **or** -) **must be chosen** to make the magnitude of the denominator as large as possible

4. If $|\alpha^{(i)}| < \text{tolerance}$ stop

Note that the stopping criterion is based on the error between two consecutive updates

else

Update root estimate

$$\tilde{x}^{(i+1)} = \tilde{x}^{(i)} - \alpha^{(i)}, \quad i = i+1$$
 goto 2.

Laguerre's Convergence

- Laguerre's algorithm has *guaranteed* convergence (one root at a time) provided that we use appropriate initial guesses.
 - Always *converges* regardless of our initial guess.
- Its order of convergence is *cubic to single roots* and *linear to roots of higher multiplicity*.

Finding all the roots

- 1. Find one root using *Laguerre's Algorithm*
- 2. **Deflate** the root,
 - ☐ If the root was complex also deflate its complex conjugate (two consecutive deflation steps)
- 3. If degree of polynomial > 2 goto 1
- 4. Find the *remaining roots using formulas*

Warning:

Deflation may introduce *large round-off errors*. For high accuracy you may need to "refine" the roots (*e.g.*, using Newton's method)

Reminder: Roots 1 & 2

- If *Deflation* results in a 2nd order (quadratic) equation, use the quadratic formula to solve for the roots.
- 1. Standard form: $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$

$$2. \quad x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

3. If *Deflation* results in a 1st order, then you know the root.

Laguerre's Gotchas

- The imaginary part may be "nearly" zero.
 - Never check for exact zero
- cabs complex absolute value
 - fabs real floating point

- csqrt complex square root
 - Squt real floating point

Reminder: ANSI C99

- C99 supports complex numbers with complex.h
 - Compile with: -Wall -std=c99 -pedantic -g
 - "c99_complex.c" sample code included with homework

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <complex.h>
 int k;
 double complex* a;
                             /* double precision, use this */
 double complex b,c;
 complex d;
                              /* single precision */
 /* dynamic array of complex numbers, no error checking */
 a = (double complex*)malloc(10*sizeof(double complex))
 /* Initialize array */
 for (k = 0; k < 10; k++) \{ a[k] = (k+1) + (k+1)*I; \}
 b = a[0]*a[9];
 c = a[1]/a[6]+a[3];
 printf("b = %5.2lf %+5.2lfI\n", creal(b), cimag(b));
```

Complex Numbers: ANSI C99

 Pointers and arrays of complex numbers are used in the same way as other primitive types

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <complex.h>
  int k:
 double complex b,c;
  /* dynamic array of complex numbers */
  double complex* a = malloc(10*sizeof(double complex))
  if (a == NULL){
    fprintf(stderr,"Memory allocation error");
    exit(EXIT FAILURE);
  /* Initialize array */
  for(k=0;k<10;k++)
    a[k] = (k+1) + (k+1)*I;
 b = a[0]*a[9];
  c = a[1]/a[6]+a[3];
 printf("b = %5.2lf %+5.2lfI\n", creal(b), cimag(b));
```

Example: Finding All Roots

Apply Laguerre's method to find all the roots of the polynomial

$$p(x) = x^5 - 3.39 x^4 + 5.4239 x^3 - 4.1672 x^2 \dots + 1.4866 x - 0.1988$$

use a tolerance of 1.15×10^{-15} and a starting guess $x^{(o)} = 0$.

```
Answer: x_1 = 0.443093525519815

x_2 = 0.473453237240093 + 0.013187267795576i

x_3 = 0.473453237240093 - 0.013187267795576i

x_4 = 1.000000000000000000000000000000i

x_5 = 1.000000000000000000000000000000i
```

Python code: poly.py, Matlab/Octave code: ex_laguerre

Exercise 1

You are given the following polynomial:

$$p(x) = 16x^4 + 70x^3 - 169x^2 - 580x + 75$$

A Laguerre's solver return a root of x = -5.

Deflate the polynomial