# Roots of polynomials: Bairstow Method

- Find a quadratic factor of the polynomial f(x) as  $x^2 \alpha_1 x \alpha_0$
- Find the two roots (real or complex conjugates) as

$$r_{1,2} = 0.5 \left( \alpha_1 \pm \sqrt{\alpha_1^2 + 4\alpha_0} \right)$$

- Algorithm: Express the given function as  $f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} c_j x^j$
- Perform a synthetic division by the quadratic factor

$$x^{2} - \alpha_{1}x - \alpha_{0})\overline{c_{n}x^{n} + c_{n-1}x^{n-1} + c_{n-2}x^{n-2} + c_{n-3}x^{n-3} + \dots + c_{1}x + c_{0}}(c_{n}x^{n-2} + (c_{n-1} + \alpha_{1}c_{n})x^{n-3} + \dots + c_{n-2}x^{n-2} + (c_{n-1} + \alpha_{1}c_{n})x^{n-1} + (c_{n-2} + \alpha_{0}c_{n})x^{n-2} + c_{n-3}x^{n-3}$$

$$\overline{(c_{n-1} + \alpha_{1}c_{n})x^{n-1} + (c_{n-2} + \alpha_{0}c_{n})x^{n-2} + c_{n-3}x^{n-3}}$$

$$\underline{(c_{n-1} + \alpha_{1}c_{n})x^{n-1} + \alpha_{1}(c_{n-1} + \alpha_{1}c_{n})x^{n-2} + \alpha_{0}(c_{n-1} + \alpha_{1}c_{n})x^{n-3}}$$

• For writing a recursive algorithm, we express the quotient as a polynomial of degree n-2 and the remainder as linear

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} c_j x^j = (x^2 - \alpha_1 x - \alpha_0) \sum_{j=0}^{n-2} (d_{j+2} x^j) + d_1(x - \alpha_1) + d_0$$

Equating the coefficients of different powers of x, we get

$$d_{n} = c_{n}$$

$$d_{n-1} = c_{n-1} + \alpha_{1}d_{n}$$

$$d_{j} = c_{j} + \alpha_{1}d_{j+1} + \alpha_{0}d_{j+2} \qquad \text{for } j = n-2 \text{ to } 0$$

- The target is to choose  $\alpha_0$  and  $\alpha_1$  in such a way that  $d_0$  and  $d_1$  become zero
- Iterative solution using Newton method

•  $d_0$  and  $d_1$  are functions of  $\alpha_0$  and  $\alpha_1$ . The values for  $\alpha_0$  and  $\alpha_1$  at the (i+1)<sup>th</sup> iteration are obtained from

$$\alpha_0^{(i+1)} = \alpha_0^{(i)} + \Delta \alpha_0^{(i)}; \ \alpha_1^{(i+1)} = \alpha_1^{(i)} + \Delta \alpha_1^{(i)}$$

And then choosing the increments to make the residual zero

$$\begin{split} \boldsymbol{d}_{0}^{(i+1)} &= 0 = \boldsymbol{d}_{0}^{(i)} + \left[\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{d}_{0}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{0}} \Delta \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{0}\right]^{(i)} + \left[\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{d}_{0}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{1}} \Delta \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{1}\right]^{(i)} \\ \boldsymbol{d}_{1}^{(i+1)} &= 0 = \boldsymbol{d}_{1}^{(i)} + \left[\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{d}_{1}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{0}} \Delta \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{0}\right]^{(i)} + \left[\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{d}_{1}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{1}} \Delta \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{1}\right]^{(i)} \end{split}$$

The partial derivatives could be written as

$$\begin{split} &\frac{\partial d_n}{\partial \alpha_0} = 0 \\ &\frac{\partial d_{n-1}}{\partial \alpha_0} = 0 \\ &\frac{\partial d_j}{\partial \alpha_0} = d_{j+2} + \alpha_0 \frac{\partial d_{j+2}}{\partial \alpha_0} + \alpha_1 \frac{\partial d_{j+1}}{\partial \alpha_0} \qquad \text{for } j = n-2 \text{ to } 0 \end{split}$$

and

$$\begin{split} &\frac{\partial d_n}{\partial \alpha_1} = 0\\ &\frac{\partial d_{n-1}}{\partial \alpha_1} = d_n\\ &\frac{\partial d_j}{\partial \alpha_1} = d_{j+1} + \alpha_0 \frac{\partial d_{j+2}}{\partial \alpha_1} + \alpha_1 \frac{\partial d_{j+1}}{\partial \alpha_1} \qquad \text{for } j = n-2 \text{ to } 0 \end{split}$$

These may be combined in a single recursive equation by defining

$$\delta_{j} = \frac{\partial d_{j-1}}{\partial \alpha_{0}} = \frac{\partial d_{j}}{\partial \alpha_{1}}$$

to obtain

$$\begin{split} &\delta_{n-1} = d_n \\ &\delta_{n-2} = d_{n-1} + \alpha_1 \delta_{n-1} \\ &\delta_j = d_{j+1} + \alpha_1 \delta_{j+1} + \alpha_0 \delta_{j+2} \quad \text{for } j = n-3 \text{ to } 0 \end{split}$$

• The new estimates of  $\alpha_0$  and  $\alpha_1$  are obtained by solving

$$\begin{split} & \delta_1^{(i)} \Delta \alpha_0^{(i)} + \delta_0^{(i)} \Delta \alpha_1^{(i)} = -d_0^{(i)} \\ & \delta_2^{(i)} \Delta \alpha_0^{(i)} + \delta_1^{(i)} \Delta \alpha_1^{(i)} = -d_1^{(i)} \end{split}$$

Repeat till convergence.

#### **Bairstow Method:** Example

$$\begin{aligned} d_n &= c_n & \delta_{n-1} &= d_n \\ d_{n-1} &= c_{n-1} + \alpha_1 d_n & \delta_{n-2} &= d_{n-1} + \alpha_1 \delta_{n-1} \\ d_j &= c_j + \alpha_1 d_{j+1} + \alpha_0 d_{j+2}; \ j = n-2 \ \ \text{to} \ \ 0 & \delta_j &= d_{j+1} + \alpha_1 \delta_{j+1} + \alpha_0 \delta_{j+2}; \ j = n-3 \ \ \text{to} \ \ 0 \\ \delta_1^{(i)} \Delta \alpha_0^{(i)} + \delta_0^{(i)} \Delta \alpha_1^{(i)} &= -d_0^{(i)}; \delta_2^{(i)} \Delta \alpha_0^{(i)} + \delta_1^{(i)} \Delta \alpha_1^{(i)} &= -d_1^{(i)} \end{aligned}$$

Solve:  $x^5 - 5.05x^4 + 12.2x^3 - 16.48x^2 + 12.5644x - 4.28442 = 0$ 

j	Iteration 1		Iteration 2		Iteration 3		Iteration 4		Iteration 5		Iteration 6	
	$\alpha_0 = -1$		$\alpha_0 = -1.174$		$\alpha_0 = -1.582$		$\alpha_0 = -1.986$		$\alpha_0 = -2.018$		$\alpha_0 = -2.02$	
	$\alpha_1=1$		$\alpha_1 = 1.467$		$\alpha_1 = 1.936$		$\alpha_1$ =2.196		$\alpha_1$ =2.198		$\alpha_1 = 2.2$	
	d <sub>j</sub>	$\delta_{ m j}$	d <sub>j</sub>	$\delta_{ m j}$	d <sub>j</sub>	$\delta_{\rm j}$	$\mathbf{d_{j}}$	$\delta_{\mathbf{j}}$	d <sub>j</sub>	$\delta_{\mathbf{j}}$	d <sub>j</sub>	$\delta_{ m j}$
0	1.130	-2.096	0.484	-0.283	0.204	0.154	0.010	-0.363	0.001	-0.475	0.000	
1	0.134	0.870	0.202	0.864	0.138	0.603	0.016	0.294	0.001	0.206	0.000	
2	-5.280	3.100	-3.809	1.491	-2.669	0.728	-2.145	0.516	-2.123	0.460	-2.121	
3	7.150	-3.050	5.770	-2.116	4.589	-1.177	3.947	-0.658	3.913	-0.653	3.910	
4	-4.050	1.000	-3.583	1.000	-3.114	1.000	-2.854	1.000	-2.852	1.000	-2.850	
5	1.000		1.000		1.000		1.000		1.000		1.000	
	$\Delta\alpha_0$ =-0.174		$\Delta\alpha_0$ =-0.407		$\Delta\alpha_0$ =-0.404		$\Delta\alpha_0$ =-0.032		$\Delta\alpha_0$ =-0.002			
	$\Delta\alpha_1=0.467$		$\Delta\alpha_1=0.470$		$\Delta\alpha_1=0.260$		$\Delta\alpha_1=0.002$		$\Delta\alpha_1=0.002$			

The two roots are:  $1.1\pm0.9$  i

$$r_{1,2} = 0.5 \left( \alpha_1 \pm \sqrt{\alpha_1^2 + 4\alpha_0} \right)$$

### System of Linear Equations: Introduction

- Example:
- N machines make N types of strings, requiring  $t_{ms}$  time on machine m to produce unit length of string s
- If total times on each machine, T<sub>i</sub> ( i=1,2,..N) are given, find length of each type of string, I<sub>i</sub> ( j=1,2,...N)

$$egin{bmatrix} t_{11} & t_{12} & \dots & t_{1N} \ t_{21} & t_{22} & \dots & t_{2N} \ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \ t_{N1} & t_{N2} & \dots & t_{NN} \ \end{bmatrix} egin{bmatrix} l_1 \ l_2 \ \vdots \ l_N \ \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} T_1 \ T_2 \ \vdots \ T_N \ \end{bmatrix}$$

Commonly used notation :  $[A]{x} = {b}$ 

#### **System of Linear Equations:** Introduction

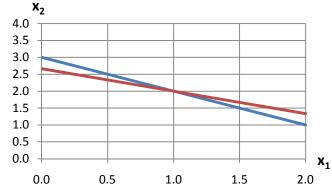
Is a solution possible?

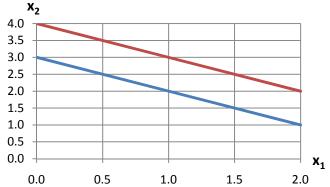
$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 = b_1$$

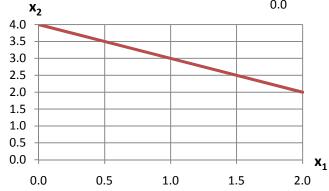
• Take a 2-dimensional example  $a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 = b_2$ 

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 = b_2$$

- Solution exists for  $a_{11}=1$ ,  $a_{12}=1$ ,  $a_{21}=2$ ,  $a_{22}=3$ ,  $b_1=3$ ,  $b_2=8$
- No solution for  $a_{11}=1$ ,  $a_{12}=1$ ,  $a_{21}=2$ ,  $a_{22}=2$ ,  $b_{1}=3$ ,  $b_{2}=8$
- Infinite solutions for  $a_{11}=1$ ,  $a_{12}=1$ ,  $a_{21}=2$ ,  $a_{22}=2$ ,  $b_{1}=4$ ,  $b_{2}=8$







# System of Linear Equations: Introduction

- We assume that a solution exists, and [A] is an n x n non-singular matrix
- How sensitive is the solution to small changes in [A] and/or {b}? (idea of a condition number)
- Small change in {b}: Already discussed Vector Norm
- Small change in [A]: A Matrix Norm is needed

#### **Vector Norm**

 $||x|| \ge 0$  (0 only for null vector)

$$\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \|x\|$$

$$||x_1 + x_2|| \le ||x_1|| + ||x_2||$$

#### **Matrix Norm**

 $||A|| \ge 0$  (0 only for null matrix)

$$\|\alpha A\| = |\alpha| \|A\|$$

$$||A + B|| \le ||A|| + ||B||$$

$$||AB|| \le ||A|||B||$$

For consistent (compatible) norm

$$||Ax|| \le ||A||||x||$$

#### **Matrix Norm**

• Earlier we had defined  $L_{\rho}$  norm of a vector

$$||x||_p = (|x_1|^p + |x_2|^p + |x_3|^p + \dots + |x_n|^p)^{1/p} \quad p \ge 1$$

which could be Euclidean distance (p=2), total distance (p=1), largest "axis distance" ( $p=\infty$ ) etc.

- For a matrix, we could define a norm based on what happens when the matrix is multiplied with a unit vector (known as the *induced or subordinate norm*).
   Some other norms are element-wise norms, e.g. square-root of sum of squares of all elements (Frobenius norm).
- The norm will be large if the multiplication leads to a large magnitude vector.
- We define the *p*-norm of a matrix as  $\|A\|_p = \max_{\|x\|_p=1} \|Ax\|_p = \max_{\|x\|_p \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|_p}{\|x\|}$

#### Matrix Norm – The 1-norm

- The 1-norm of the matrix is written as  $\|A\|_1 = \max_{\|x\|_1=1} \|Ax\|_1$

• We could write
$$Ax = x_{1} \begin{cases} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ . \\ . \\ a_{n1} \end{cases} + x_{2} \begin{cases} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \\ . \\ . \\ a_{n2} \end{cases} + ... + x_{n} \begin{cases} a_{1n} \\ a_{2n} \\ . \\ . \\ a_{nn} \end{cases}$$

- For  $||x||_1 = |x_1| + |x_2| + ... + |x_n| = 1$ , what is the maximum  $L_1$ norm of Ax?
- If we think of it as weighted sum of column-L₁ norms, maximum will occur when |x| corresponding to the column with maximum L₁ norm is 1 and all others 0
- Also known as the column-sum norm  $||A||_1 = \max_{1 \le i \le n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|$

#### Matrix Norm – The ∞-norm

• The  $\infty$ -norm of the matrix is written as  $\|A\|_{\infty} = \max_{\|x\|_{\infty}=1} \|Ax\|_{\infty}$ 

Write

$$Ax = \begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n \\ \vdots \\ a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n \end{cases}$$

- For  $||x||_{\infty} = \max(|x_1|, |x_2|, ..., |x_n|) = 1$ , what is maximum  $L_{\infty}$ -norm of Ax?
- This will occur when all x are 1 with appropriate sign such that the row-sum is of maximum magnitude
- Also known as the row-sum norm  $||A||_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|$

#### Matrix Norm - The 2-norm

- The 2-norm of the matrix is written as  $\|A\|_2 = \max_{\|x\|_2=1} \|Ax\|_2$
- If we transform a unit vector, {x}, to another vector, {b}, by multiplying with matrix [A], what is maximum "length" of {b}?
- This may be posed as a constrained optimization problem: Maximize  $\{x\}^T[A]^T[A]\{x\}$  subject to  $\{x\}^T\{x\}=1$
- Use of the Lagrange multiplier method results in

$$\nabla [x^T A^T A x - \lambda (x^T x - 1)] = 0 \implies A^T A x = \lambda x$$

- Which leads to  $\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{x^T A^T A x} = \sqrt{\lambda}$
- Also known as the spectral norm