

# Chapter 1

## Introduction, Horner's Method

Motivation:

- Sometimes problems require too much time, effort, etc. to be practically solved with a computer.
- Some problems cannot be solved analytically.
- For applications, numerical solutions are often sufficient.

**Example 1.0.1.** *Can you solve :*

1.  $\sin(0.67)$
2.  $\int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx$
3.  $x^2 - \sin(x) - 1 = 0, x = ?$

Numerical problems lead to new mathematical questions.

**Example 1.0.2.** *Suppose  $Ax = b, A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, \det(A) \neq 0$ , and  $A$  is symmetric. Find  $\det(A)$ .*

*Approach I: Use Sarrus' rule  $\det(A) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \text{sgn}(\sigma) \prod_{i=1}^n a_{i, \sigma(i)}$ . For each permutation  $\sigma$ , we have  $n!$  permutations. So we have  $n \cdot n!$  product operations. Furthermore, we have  $n! - 1$  additions, meaning that the method requires  $n(n!) + n! - 1$  operations. This approach works fine for small  $n$ , but not for large  $n$ .*

*Approach II: Use the diagonalization method. Since  $A$  is symmetric, we can find an orthogonal matrix  $Q$  such that  $Q^T A Q = D$ , where  $D$  is a diagonal matrix. Then, we have  $\det(A) = \det(Q)\det(D) = \det(D)$ . We can compute  $\det(A)$  in  $cn^3 + n - 1$  operations where  $c$  is a constant.*

**Definition 1.0.1.** *Consider sequences  $(x_n)$  and  $(\alpha_n)$ , where  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ . We say that  $(x_n)$  is in  $O(\alpha_n)$  if there exist constants  $C, N$  such that*

$$|x_n| \leq C|\alpha_n|, \quad \forall n \geq N$$

**Example 1.0.3.**  $\frac{n+1}{n^2}$  is in  $O(\frac{1}{n})$ .  $Cn^3 + n - 1$  is in  $O(n^3)$ .  $n(n!)$  is in  $O(n(n!))$ .

**Remark** It is also true that  $Cn^3 + n - 1$  is in  $O(n(n!))$ .

**Definition 1.0.2.** *Let  $(x_n), (\alpha_n)$  be sequences, where  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ . We say that  $(x_n)$  is in  $\Theta(\alpha_n)$  if there exist constants  $C_1, C_2, N$  such that*

$$C_1|\alpha_n| \leq |x_n| \leq C_2|\alpha_n|, \quad \forall n \geq N$$

**Example 1.0.4.**  $n(n!) \leq n(n!) + n! - 1 \leq 2n(n!)$  for  $n \geq 1$ . So  $n(n!) + n! - 1$  is in  $\Theta(n(n!))$ .

**Example 1.0.5.**  $Cn^3 \leq Cn^3 + n - 1 \leq (C+1)n^3$  for  $n \geq 1$ . So  $Cn^3 + n - 1$  is in  $\Theta(n^3)$ .

**Question** How many operations are required to evaluate a polynomial  $p(z) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 z + a_0$  at a point  $z_0$  where  $a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_1, a_0, z_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ ?

The simplest approach computes  $a_k z^k$  by using  $k$  multiplications, and then sums them up. This requires  $n + (n-1) + \dots + 1 + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + n$  which is in  $\Theta(n^2)$ .

The Horner's method is based on the remainder theorem, which reduce complexity of evaluation of a polynomial. It only requires  $\Theta(n)$  operations.

**Theorem 1.0.1** (Horner's Method). *Let  $p(z)$  be a polynomial of degree  $n$ , with real coefficients, and  $z_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then there exists  $r \in \mathbb{R}$  and a polynomial  $q(z)$  of degree  $n - 1$  such that*

$$p(z) = r + (z - z_0)q(z)$$

**Proof.** Let  $p(z) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 z + a_0$ . Our goal is to find coefficients  $b_{n-1}, b_{n-2}, \dots, b_1, b_0$  and a constant  $r$  such that

$$p(z) = r + (z - z_0)(b_{n-1} z^{n-1} + b_{n-2} z^{n-2} + \cdots + b_1 z + b_0)$$

Equating coefficients of like powers of  $z$  on both sides, we get a system of equations:

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= b_{n-1} \\ a_{n-1} &= b_{n-2} - z_0 b_{n-1} \\ a_{n-2} &= b_{n-3} - z_0 b_{n-2} \\ &\vdots \\ a_1 &= b_0 - z_0 b_1 \\ a_0 &= r - z_0 b_0 \end{aligned}$$

Solving the equations from the top the the bottom recursively leads to a unique solution:

$$\begin{aligned} b_{n-1} &= a_n \\ b_{n-2} &= a_{n-1} + z_0 b_{n-1} \\ b_{n-3} &= a_{n-2} + z_0 b_{n-2} \\ &\vdots \\ b_0 &= a_1 + z_0 b_1 \\ r &= a_0 + z_0 b_0 \end{aligned}$$

**Remark.** It is convenient to write  $b_{-1} = r$  which leads to equations

$$\begin{aligned} b_{n-1} &= a_n \\ a_k &= b_{k-1} - z_0 b_k, \quad k = n-1, \dots, 0 \end{aligned}$$

These equations can be graphically represented as:

	$a_n$	$a_{n-1}$	$a_{n-2}$	$\cdots$	$a_1$	$a_0$
$z_0$		$-z_0 b_{n-1}$	$-z_0 b_{n-2}$	$\cdots$	$-z_0 b_1$	$-z_0 b_0$
	$b_{n-1}$	$b_{n-2}$	$b_{n-3}$	$\cdots$	$b_0$	$b_{-1}$

**Remark** We have  $n$  equations, each of which requires one addition and one multiplication. Overall complexity of computing  $p(z_0)$  is in  $\Theta(n)$ .

**Remark** The algorithm can be used for finding all roots of  $p(z)$  by starting with a root  $z_0$ , then writing  $p(z) = (z - z_0)q(z)$ , and finding  $z_1$  and etc. We will later learn how to find these roots and how to apply the algorithm.

**Remark** Note that  $p'(z) = q(z) + (z - z_0)q'(z)$ , so  $p'(z_0) = q(z_0)$  which can be evaluated by Horner again.

**Example 1.0.6.** Let  $p(z) = z^4 - 4z^3 + 7z^2 - 5z - 2$ . We compute  $p(3)$  and  $p'(3)$ .

We set up the following table:

	1	-4	7	-5	-2
3		3	-3	12	21
	1	-1	4	7	19

So we have  $p(3) = r = 19$ . Then we set up the following table to compute  $p'(3) = q(3)$ :

		1	-1	4	7
3			3	6	30
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		1	2	10	37

So we have  $p'(3) = q(3) = 37$ .