Root-finding with Implicit Deflation

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Abstract

Functional iterations such as Newton's are a popular tool for polynomial root-finding. We consider a realistic situation where some roots have already been approximated (we say tamed), and one would like to restrict further root-finding to the approximation of the remaining (wild) roots. A natural approach of applying explicit deflation has been much studied and recently advanced by one of the authors of this paper, but presently we consider the alternative of implicit deflation combined with mapping of the variable and reversion of an input polynomial. The hope is that the union of the sets of tame roots approximated in a number of such transformations can cover all roots of a polynomial.

We also show another direction to substantial further progress in this

long and extensively studied area. Namely we dramatically increase the local efficiency of root-finding by means of the incorporation of fast algorithms for multipoint polynomial evaluation and the Fast Multipole Method.

Key Words: Polynomial roots; Functional iterations; Newton's iterations; Weierstrass's iterations; Ehrlich's iterations; Deflation; Taming wild roots; Maps of the variable; Efficiency; Multipoint evaluation; Fast Multipole Method

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1 Introduction

Univariate polynomial root-finding, that is, approximation of the roots x_1, \ldots, x_d of a polynomial equation

$$p(x) = 0 \text{ for } p(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{d} p_j x^j = p_d \prod_{i=1}^{d} (x - x_i), \quad p_d \neq 0,$$
 (1)

has been the central problem of Mathematics for four millennia, since the Sumerian times. It is still involved in various areas of modern computation and is the subject of intensive research worldwide. The user's choice since 2000 has been the package MPSolve (cf. [7], [12]), which implements Ehrlich's functional iterations, but other functional iterations such as Newton's and Weierstrass's are also highly popular. Ehrlich's and Weierstrass's iterations converge simultaneously to all complex roots of a polynomial. Newton's iterations converge to a single root but can be extended to approximation of all roots or the roots in a fixed domain.

Usually root-finding iterations approximate (we say *tame*) most of the roots, and then one can deflate an input polynomial and keep updating only the approximations to the remaining, *wild* roots.

Efficient methods for explicit deflation can be found in [53] and references therein, but here we study alternative techniques of implicit deflation, which enable us to exploit the sparseness of an input and to avoid numerical stability problems caused by the coefficient growth in factorization of a polynomial.

The partition of the root set into tame and wild roots for a fixed root-finder depends on the roots disposition relatively to the initial root approximations. So the partition should change if we change the initial approximations or if we map the variable, apply the same root-finder to the new resulting polynomial, and then recover the roots of the original polynomial by applying the converse map. By using implicit deflation we avoid computing the new coefficients in these mappings (see Sections 5 and 6). We conjecture that already the union of a small number of the resulting variations of the set of tame roots would include all roots of p, and we can strengthen our chances for success of this heuristic approach by applying it concurrently using various functional iterations.

In Section 8 we point out another promising direction to enhancing the power of root-finding iterations, namely by means of incorporation of superfast multipoint polynomial evaluation and the Fast Multipole Method. We demonstrate the high promise of this approach by showing that it yields a dramatic increase of local efficiency of root-finding iterations.

Otherwise we organize our paper as follows. In the next section we recall some popular functional iterations for polynomial root-finding. In Section 3 we comment on partitioning polynomial roots into tame ones (already approximated) and wild ones. In Section 4 we compare explicit and implicit deflation and specify implicit deflation for Newton's iterations. We combine implicit deflation with linear maps of the variable and reversion of a polynomial in Section 5 and with squaring the variable in Section 6, followed by our comments on potential benefits of concurrent root-finding in Section 7.

2 Functional Iterations for Root-Finding

Among hundreds if not thousands known polynomial root-finders (see up to date coverage in [38], [41], [53], and the bibliography therein) consider the class of functional iterations. For a fixed set of functions

$$f_1(z), \dots, f_m(x), 1 \le m \le d,$$

these iterations recursively refine current approximations $z_1^{(k)},\ldots,z_m^{(k)}$ to m roots $x_1,\ldots x_m$ of p(x) according to the expressions

$$z_i \leftarrow f_i(z_i), \ i = 1, \dots, m. \tag{2}$$

In the case where m = 1 write $f(z) = f_1(z)$ and

$$z \leftarrow f(z)$$
. (3)

These iterations include various interpolation methods, which use no derivatives of p(x) and are recalled in [41, Section 7], for example, Muller's method (see [41, Section 7.4]); methods involving derivative such as Newton's iterations [38, Section 5]; and methods involving higher order derivatives [41, Section 7]. We exemplify our study with Newton's iterations (where m = 1):

$$z \leftarrow z - N_p(z),\tag{4}$$

$$N_p(x) = p(x)/p'(x), \tag{5}$$

which have efficient extensions to the solution of polynomial systems of equations [6] and to root-finding for various smooth functional equations and systems of equations [23]; Weierstrass's iterations of [67] (rediscovered by Durand in [17] and Kerner in [33]), in which case m=d:

$$z_i \leftarrow z_i - W_{p,l}(z_i), \ i = 1, \dots, d, \tag{6}$$

$$W_{p,l}(x) = \frac{p(x)}{p_n l'(x)},\tag{7}$$

$$l(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{d} (x - z_i), \tag{8}$$

and Ehrlich's iterations of [22] (rediscovered by Aberth in [1]), where again m=d:

$$z_i \leftarrow z_i - E_{p,i}(z_i), \tag{9}$$

$$E_{p,i}(x) = 0 \text{ if } p(x) = 0; \ \frac{1}{E_{p,i}(x)} = \frac{1}{N_p(x)} - \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{d} \frac{1}{x - z_j} \text{ otherwise;}$$
 (10)

 $i = 1, \ldots, d$, and $N_p(x)$ is defined by (5).

Remark 1. The above root-finders are readily extended to any function s(x) sharing its root set with the polynomial p(x). For example, deduce from the Lagrange interpolation formula that

$$p(x) = l(x)s(x),$$

$$s(x) = p_n + \sum_{i=1}^{d} \frac{W_{p,l}(z_i)}{x - z_i}$$

for any set of d distinct nodes z_1, \ldots, z_d . Apply selected iterations to the above secular rational function s(x) or the polynomial l(x)s(x). Bini and Robol in [12] show substantial benefits of that application of Ehrlich's iterations to l(x)s(x) rather than p(x), both for convergence acceleration and error estimation.

3 Tame and Wild Roots

Now suppose that we have applied a fixed functional iteration (2) and have approximated m roots of a polynomial p(x) for m < d (we call them tame); next we discuss efficient approximation of the remaining roots; we call them wild and call their approximation taminq.

For example, we face a taming problem where functional iterations (3) have approximated a single root of a polynomial p(x) and we seek the other roots.

Newton's and other iterations (3), devised for approximation of a single root, can be also applied at a number of initial points in order to approximate all roots. This can succeed for most of the roots, while some roots can escape and stay wild. In particular in the paper [64] Newton's iterations initialized at a universal set of O(d) points¹ approximate t = d - w roots of p(x) but leave

¹This set is universal for all polynomials p(x) that have all roots lying in the unit disc $D(0,1)=\{z: |z|=1\}$. Given any polynomial p(x) one can move all its roots into this disc by means of first readily computing a reasonably close upper bound on the absolute values of all roots and then properly shifting and scaling the variable x.

out a narrow set of w wild roots where w < 0.001 d for $d < 2^{17}$ and w < 0.01 d for $d < 2^{20}$. The paper [64] continued a long study traced back to [35] and [30].

Likewise some roots remain wild while most of the roots are tamed in Weierstrass's, Ehrlich's, and various other iterations that recursively update approximations of all roots.

Finally the subdivision root-finding iterations of [14] extend the earlier study in [68], [29], [28], [59], and [47], where such iterations are called the Quad-tree construction. This root-finder has recently been implemented in [31]. It first approximates some sets of tame roots of p(x) in certain domains on the complex plane well-isolated from the other roots and then approximates the remaining wild roots, in particular by combining the subdivision process with complex extension of Abbott's real QIR iterations.

4 Taming Wild Roots by Means of Deflation

Seeking wild roots one can deflate an input polynomial, that is, apply a selected root-finder to the polynomial

$$q(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{w} q_i x^i = p_d \prod_{j=1}^{w} (x - x_j), \quad p_d \neq 0.$$
 (11)

In explicit deflation we first compute the coefficients of q(x). If the roots of the quotient q(x) are well isolated from the other roots of p(x), we can apply the efficient method of Delves and Lyness [19]. The root-finders of [60] and [34] incorporate its advanced versions; [53] presents them in a concise form.

Bini and Fiorentino argue in [7] that explicit deflation of a polynomial p(x) does not preserve its sparseness and in some cases can be numerically unstable, for instance, in the case of a polynomial $p(x) = x^d \pm 1$ of a large degree d. These potential problems somewhat limit the value of explicit deflation where a polynomial q(x) has large degree w. Moreover we can completely avoid these problems by applying *implicit deflation*, that is, applying functional iterations that evaluate q(x) at a point x as the ratio $\frac{p(x)}{t(x)}$ for $t(x) = p_d \prod_{j=1+w}^d (x-x_j)$. We can readily implement this recipe in the case of functional interpolation

We can readily implement this recipe in the case of functional interpolation iterations of [41, Section 7].

Let us specify implicit deflation when we apply Newton's iterations and the following well-known identity (cf. [37]),

$$\frac{1}{N_p(x)} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{x - x_i}.$$
 (12)

Algorithm 2. Implicit Deflation with Newton's iterations.

INPUT: A polynomial p(x) of (1), a set of sufficiently close approximations² to its tame roots x_{w+1}, \ldots, x_d , an initial approximation z to a wild root of

 $^{^2\}mathrm{We}$ assume that we can very quickly refine approximations to tame roots.

p(x), a Stopping Criterion (see, e.g., [7], [12]), and a black-box program EVAL_p that evaluates the ratio $\frac{1}{N_p(z)} = \frac{p'(z)}{p(z)}$ for a polynomial p(x) of (1) and a complex point z.

OUTPUT: The updated approximation $z \leftarrow z - N_p(z)$ to a root of p(x) (see (4)).

Computations: Apply Newton's iteration (4) to the polynomial q(x) defined implicitly, that is, successively compute the values:

- 1. $r = p'(z)/p(z) \leftarrow 1/N_p(z)$,
- 2. $s \leftarrow \sum_{j=w+1}^{d} \frac{1}{z-x_j}$,
- 3. $N_q(z) = \frac{q(z)}{q'(z)} \leftarrow \frac{1}{r-s}$.
- 4. $z \leftarrow z N_p(z)$.
- 5. If the fixed Stopping Criterion is met, output z and stop. Otherwise go to stage 1.

Dario A. Bini (private communication) proposed to improve numerical stability of this algorithm by means of scaling as follows:

$$N_q(z) = \frac{1/r}{1 - s/r}.$$

Complexity of a single iteration of Algorithm 2.

Stage 1 amounts to a single invocation of the program $EVAL_p$.

Stage 2 involves d-w divisions, d-w, subtractions and d-w-1 additions.

Stages 3 and 4 together involve 2 subtractions and a single division.

We can readily extend implicit deflation to various other root-finders involving Newton's ratio $N_p(x)$, in particular, to Ehrlich's iterations (9) because we can assume that $z_j = x_j$ for j > w, and then equation (12) implies that $E_{p,j}(x) = E_{q,j}(x)$ for q(x) of (11), $E_{p,j}(x)$ of (10), and $j \leq w$.

5 Combining Newton's Iterations, Linear Maps of the Variable and Reversion

The set of tame roots output by fixed functional iterations varies when an input polynomial p(x) varies. This suggests that we can approximate many or all wild roots if we reapply the same iterations to the polynomials

$$v(z) = v_{a,b,c}(z) = (z+c)^d p\left(a + \frac{b}{z+c}\right)$$
 (13)

for various triples of complex scalars $a, b \neq 0$, and c. We must limit the overall number of the triples in order to control the overall computational cost.

The following equations map the roots x_j of p(x) to the roots z_j of v(x) and vice versa,

$$x_j = a + \frac{b}{z_j + c}, \ z_j = \frac{b}{x_j - a} - c.$$
 (14)

Let us specify this recipe for the algorithm of [64], cited in Section 3.

Algorithm 3.

INITIALIZATION: Define a polynomial $v(z) = v_{a,b,c}(z)$ by choosing the parameters a, b, and c such that all roots of the polynomial v(z) lie in the unit disc $D(0,1) = \{z: |z| = 1\}$; do not actually compute the coefficients of that polynomial.

COMPUTATIONS: 1. Apply Newton's iteration (4) to the polynomial v(z) by using initialization at the universal set of [64] and by expressing the Newton's ratios $N_v(z) = v(z)/v'(z)$ (cf. (4)) via the following equations:

$$\frac{1}{N_v(z)} = \frac{d}{z+c} - \frac{b}{(z+c)^2 N(x)}$$
 for $v(z)$ of (13) and x of (14). (15)

2. Having approximated a root z_j of v(z) for any j, readily recover the root x_j of p(x) from equation (14).

In the particular case where a = c = 0 and b = 1, the above expressions are simplified: z = 1/x; v(z) turns into the reverse polynomial of p(x),

$$v(z) = p_{\text{rev}}(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{d} p_{d-i} z^{i} = z^{d} p(1/z),$$

$$\frac{1}{N_v(z)} = \frac{v'(z)}{v(z)} = \frac{d}{z} - \frac{1}{z^2 N_p(1/z)},$$

and $p_{rev}(x) = p_0 \prod_{j=1}^{d} (x - 1/x_j)$ if $p_0 \neq 0$.

6 Combining Newton's Iterations and Squaring of the Variable

One can hope to obtain all roots of p(x) by applying Newton's iterations to the polynomials $v(z) = v_{a,b,c}(z)$ for a reasonable number of triples of a, b, and c, but one can also extend this approach by using more general rational maps y = r(x) (cf., e.g., [40]).

For a simple example, consider the Dandelin's root-squaring map of 1826, rediscovered by Lobachevsky in 1834 and then by Gräffe in 1837 (see [27]):

$$u(y) = (-1)^d p(\sqrt{y}) p(-\sqrt{y}) = \prod_{j=1}^d (y - x_j^2).$$
 (16)

In this case one should make a polynomial p(x) of (1) monic by scaling the variable x and then express the Newton's ratio $N_u(y) = u(y)/u'(y)$ as follows:

$$\frac{1}{N_u(y)} = 0.5 \left(\frac{1}{N_p(\sqrt{y})} - \frac{1}{N_p(\sqrt{-y})} \right) y^{-1/2}.$$

Notice that under map (16) the roots lying in the unit disc D(0,1) stay in it.

Having approximated the n roots y_1, \ldots, y_n of the polynomial u(y), we readily recover the n roots x_1, \ldots, x_n of the polynomial p(x) by selecting them from the 2n values $\pm \sqrt{y_j}$, $j = 1, \ldots, n$.

We can apply the above maps recursively (a limited number of times, in order to control the overall computational cost); then we can recover the roots from their images in these rational maps by extending the lifting/descending techniques of [44], [49].

7 Concurrent Root-finding

Remark 4. We recalled that Newton's iterations can compute most of the roots of a fixed polynomial but not all of them. Seeking the remaining, wild roots, we applied the iterations to a number of related polynomial. This recipe can be immediately extended to application of Ehrlich's, Weierstrass's or another fixed iterative root-finder to a variety of polynomials linked to an input polynomial. Furthermore we can extend this idea to concurrent application of a number of iterative root-finders to such a variety of polynomials, and one can perform computations on a number of processors with minimal need for their communication and synchronization.

Remark 5. Weierstrass's and Ehrlich's functional iterations, as well as their Gauss-Seidel's and Werner's accelerated variations (cf. [12] and [70]) converge very fast empirically, but formal support of this empirical observation is a well-known challenge. Can we facilitate obtaining such a support if we allow random maps of the variable x, e.g., if we apply these iterations to the polynomials $v_{a,b,c}(z)$ of (13) for random choice of the parameters a, b, and c? For example, initialization of Newton's iterations at a set of points $\{c+r\exp(\phi_j\mathbf{i}), j=1,\ldots,s,$ of a circle $\{x: |x-c|=r\}$ on the complex plane can be equivalently interpreted as the application of these iterations at a single point y=c to a set of polynomials $p_j(y)$ obtained from p(x) via the linear maps $y \leftarrow x - r \exp(\phi_j\mathbf{i})$, $j=1,\ldots,s$.

8 Efficiency of Root-finding Iterations

Since Ostrowski's paper [43], it is customary to measure local efficiency of functional root-finding iterations by the quantity eff= $q^{1/\alpha}$ or sometimes $\log_{10}(\text{eff}) = (1/\alpha)\log_{10}q$ where q denotes the convergence order (rate) and α is the number of function evaluations per iteration and per root. In particular q=2, $\alpha=2$, and eff= $\sqrt{2}\approx 1.414$ for Newton's and Weierstrass's iterations while q=3,

 $\alpha = 3$, and eff= $3^{1/3} \approx 1.442$ for Ehrlich's iterations where we assign the same cost to the evaluation of the functions $\sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{d} \frac{1}{x-z_j}$, p(x), p'(x), and l'(x) at $x = z_i$, noting that $l'(z_i) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} \frac{1}{j \neq j} (z_i - z_j)$.

 $x=z_i$, noting that $l'(z_i)=\prod_{j=1,j\neq i}^d(z_i-z_j)$. Actually the cost of function evaluation requires further elaboration. Exact evaluation of the values $\sum_{i=1,i\neq j}^d\frac{1}{z_j^{(k)}-z_i^{(k)}}$ for $j=1,\ldots,d$ is Trummer's celebrated problem, whose solution, like exact evaluation of a polynomial p(x) of (1) at d points, involves $O(d\log^2(d))$ arithmetic operations [48, Section 3.1], [25], [39].

Both of these superfast algorithms – for polynomial evaluation and the Trummer's problem – are numerically unstable for d>50, but one can use numerically stable superfast alternatives based on the Fast Multipole Method [16]. Its application to Trummer's problem is well-known [26], but in the case of multipoint polynomial evaluation is more recent and more involved [50] and [52].

Using superfast algorithms for both problems decreases α to the order of $O(\log^2(d)/d)$. Hence local efficiency of Weierstrass's and Ehrlich's iterations grows to infinity as $d \to \infty$, and similarly for Newton's iterations initialized and applied simultaneously at the order of d points.

The above formal analysis applies locally, where the convergence to the roots becomes superlinear, while the overall computational cost is usually dominant at the previous initial stage, for which only limited formal results are available (see also Remark 5). These limited results favor Ehrlich's iterations, which empirically have milder sufficient conditions for superlinear convergence than both Newton's and Weierstrass's iterations [65].

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