

On the Separation of All Roots of a Polynomial by Determining the Number of Roots in the Unit Circle

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1. Introduction

In various iterative methods for solving a polynomial equation there have been required, for any equation, both the convergence and the reduction of the computing time. But none of them satisfies these requirements¹⁾.

Recently with the development of digital computers, it has been taken consideration on the global convergence in a iterative process. Lehmer's method is remarkable one such that it reduces the difficulty of the convergence by contracting some region of complex plane where roots exist²⁾.

In this paper we find all the roots of a polynomial $f(z)$ without decreasing its degree by making clear two points:

- (1) The number of roots of $f(z)$ in the unit circle Γ .
- (2) All the arguments of roots on Γ , if $f(z)$ has at least one root on Γ .

2. Number of Roots in the Unit Circle

We begin to describe some definitions and lemmas without proofs which you may find in our Japanese paper.

We denote n th degree polynomial with complex coefficients by

$$f(z) = a_0 z^n + a_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} z + a_n \quad (1)$$

for which we define a conjugate polynomial such that

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \{f(z)\}^* &\equiv f^*(z) \\ &\equiv \bar{a}_n z^n + \bar{a}_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + \bar{a}_1 z + \bar{a}_0 \\ &= z^n \overline{f(1/\bar{z})} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (2)$$

Besides, if each root of $f(z)$ is equal to that of $f^*(z)$, we call $f(z)=0$ the reciprocal equation.

Lemma 1. Let $P(z)$ and $Q(z)$ be two polynomials such that

$$|P(z)| < |Q(z)| \quad \text{for} \quad |z|=1.$$

Then, $Q(z)$ and $P(z)+Q(z)$ have the same number of roots in the unit circle (Rouché's theorem).

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Lemma 2. Eliminating the highest power of n th degree polynomial $f(z)$ by

$$g(z) = \overline{f(0)}f(z) - \overline{f^*(0)}f^*(z),$$

we get the followings:

(1) If $g(0) \neq 0$, the highest common factor of $f(z)$ and $f^*(z)$ is equal to that of $g(z)$ and $g^*(z)$. Hereafter we will neglect its constant common factor.

(2) The highest common factor $f(z)$ and $f^*(z)$ is contained in that of $g(z)$ and $g^*(z)$ for any value of $g(0)$.

(3) If $g(0) > 0$, $f(z)$ and $g(z)$ have the same number of roots in the unit circle Γ . If $g(0) < 0$, $f^*(z)$ and $g(z)$ have the same number of roots in that region²⁾.

(4) If $g(0) = 0$ and if the roots of $g(z)$ do not exist on Γ , then all $g(z)$, $f(z)$ and $f^*(z)$ have the same number of roots in Γ . Moreover, if $g(z) = 0$ identically, $f(z)$ and $f'^*(z)$ have the same number of roots in Γ , where $f'^*(z) \equiv \left\{ \frac{d}{dz} f(z) \right\}^*$.

Following Lehmer's algorithm, we construct a polynomial sequence

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(z) &= \overline{f_0(0)}f_0(z) - \overline{f_0^*(0)}f_0^*(z) \\ &\dots\dots\dots \\ f_{k+1}(z) &= \overline{f_k(0)}f_k(z) - \overline{f_k^*(0)}f_k^*(z) \\ &\dots\dots\dots \\ f_{h+1}(z) &\equiv f_{h+1} = \overline{f_h(0)}f_h(z) - \overline{f_h^*(0)}f_h^*(z) \end{aligned}$$

from the given n th degree polynomial $f_0(z) \equiv f(z)$.

He stated a necessary and sufficient condition that polynomial $f(z)$ has at least one root in Γ , using the sequence

$$f(z) \equiv f_0(z), f_1(z), \dots, f_h(z), f_{h+1}(z) \equiv f_{h+1} \tag{3}$$

from which, however, we can find the number of roots in Γ .

Let n_k be the degree of $f_k(z)$. Then

$$n = n_0 > n_1 > \dots > n_h > n_{h+1} = 0. \tag{4}$$

Theorem 1. In order that $f_k(z)$ and $f_k^*(z)$ ($k=0,1,\dots,h$) are prime to each other, it is necessary and sufficient that

$$f_{h+1} \neq 0.$$

Besides, if $f_1(0)f_2(0)\dots f_h(0) \neq 0$ and if $f_{h+1} = 0$, then the highest common factor of $f(z)$ and $f^*(z)$ is $f_h(z)$.

Proof. Sufficiency. From a relation

$$f_{h+1} = \overline{f_h(0)}f_h(z) - \overline{f_h^*(0)}f_h^*(z)$$

it is obvious that $f_h(z)$ and $f_h^*(z)$ are coprime if $f_{h+1} \neq 0$. Next, when $f_h(z)$ and $f_h^*(z)$ are coprime, we can find, from lemma 2, (2), the same relation between $f_{h-1}(z)$ and $f_{h-1}^*(z)$ for any value of $f_h(0)$. Similarly, we can know $f_k(z)$ and $f_k^*(z)$ are coprime.

Necessity. If $f_0(z)$ and $f_0^*(z)$ are coprime and if $f_1(0) \neq 0$, then $f_1(z)$ and $f_1^*(z)$ have evidently no common factor, applying lemma 2, (1) to the relation

$$f_1(z) = \overline{f_0(0)}f_0(z) - \overline{f_0^*(0)}f_0^*(z).$$

Similarly, $f_k(z)$ and $f_k^*(z)$ ($k=2,3, \dots, h$) are coprime, if $f_2(0)f_3(0)\dots f_h(0)\neq 0$.

Therefore, by the definition of f_{h+1} , it must be non zero constant.

Now, we will prove the later half of this theorem. Applying repeatedly lemma 2, (1) to $f_k(z)$ and $f_k^*(z)$ ($k=1,2, \dots, h$) under the given condition $f_1(0)f_2(0)\dots f_h(0)\neq 0$, we find that all $f_k(z)$ and $f_k^*(z)$ have the same highest common factor. Since $f_{h+1}=0$, $f_h(z)$ is equal to $f_h^*(z)$, identically, if we neglect their constant common factors. This completes the proof.

Theorem 2. Let n_k be the degree of $f_k(z)$ and μ_k be the number of roots of $f_k(z)$ in $|z|<1$.

If $f_{h+1}\neq 0$ in the sequence (3), then we get a recurrence formula

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_k &= 1(-f_{k+1}(0))n_k + \text{sgn}(f_{k+1}(0))\mu_{k+1} \\ \mu_{h+1} &= 0, \quad k=h, h-1, \dots, 1, 0\end{aligned}$$

where $1(x)$ is unit function and $\text{sgn}(x)$ is sign function.

Proof. From theorem 1 $f_k(z)$ and $f_k^*(z)$ ($k=0,1, \dots, h$) are prime to each other when $f_{k+1}\neq 0$. So that, $f_k(z)$ has no root on the unit circle Γ .

Supposing $f_{k+1}(0)\neq 0$ in a relation

$$f_{k+1}(z) = \overline{f_k(0)}f_k(z) - f_k^*(0)f_k^*(z)$$

we get

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_{k+1} &= \mu_k, \quad f_{k+1}(0) > 0 \\ \mu_{k+1} &= n_k - \mu_k, \quad f_{k+1}(0) < 0\end{aligned}$$

from lemma 2, (3).

If $f_{k+1}(0)=0$, then

$$\mu_{k+1} = \mu_k = n_k - \mu_k$$

from lemma 2, (4).

We can rewrite the above three relations into one formula

$$\mu_k = 1(-f_{k+1}(0))n_k + \text{sgn}(f_{k+1}(0))\mu_{k+1}.$$

When $k=h+1$, it is evident $\mu_{h+1}=0$ for $f_{h+1}\neq 0$.

Theorem 3. If $f_1(0)f_2(0)\dots f_h(0)\neq 0$ and if $f_{h+1}=0$, then

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_k &= 1(-f_{k+1}(0))(n_k - n_h + 2\mu_h) + \text{sgn}(f_{k+1}(0))\mu_{k+1} \\ k &= h, h-1, \dots, 1, 0.\end{aligned}$$

Besides, $f_h(z)$ and $f_h^*(z)$ have the same number of roots inside the unit circle.

Theorem 4. A necessary and sufficient condition that a polynomial $p(z)$ has all the roots on the unit circle Γ is that $p(z)=0$ is a reciprocal equation and that $p'(z)$ has no root outside Γ . When $p'(z)$ has all the roots inside Γ , roots of $p(z)$ are all distinct.

3. Argument of the Root

We consider only about the roots of $f(z)$ on the unit circle Γ , because the roots of $f(z)$ on the circumference of radius r can be transformed on Γ by replacing

$f(z)$ with $f(rz)$. Futhermore, the roots of $f(z)$ on Γ are those of $p(z)$ which is the highest common factor of $f(z)$ and $f^*(z)$. So, we may consider only about the roots of $p(z)$ on Γ . From theorem 1, the common factor $p(z)$ is determined by

$$p(z) = f_h(z)$$

when $f_1(0)f_2(0)\dots f_h(0) \neq 0$ and $f_{h+1}(0) = 0$. Moreover, $p(z) = 0$ is a reciprocal equation.

Lemma 3. If a polynomial $p(z)$ always satisfies a relation

$$p^*(z) = cp(z)$$

c ; complex number independent of z

we get the followings:

(1) $p(z) = 0$ is a reciprocal equation and $|c| = 1$.

(2) By writing

$$p_0(z) \equiv c^{\frac{1}{2}} p(z), \quad 0 \leq \arg c^{\frac{1}{2}} \leq \pi$$

we have

$$p_0^*(z) = p_0(z).$$

Now, let us call $p_0(z) = 0$ a normalized reciprocal equation, and rewrite

$$p_0(z) = a_0 z^m + a_1 z^{m-1} + \dots + a_m, \quad a_0 \neq 0 \tag{5}$$

Lemma 4. If we take a suitable polynomial $h(z)$ whose degree is k ($m \geq k \geq \lceil \frac{m}{2} \rceil$), then we can write $p_0(z)$ using $h(z)$ such as

$$p_0(z) = z^{m-k} h(z) + h^*(z).$$

Especially, denoting the minimum value of k by l ($l = \lceil \frac{m}{2} \rceil$), $h(z)$ can be written

$$h(z) = \begin{cases} a_0 z^l + a_1 z^{l-1} + \dots + a_{l-1} z + a_l, & m = 2l + 1 \tag{6a} \\ a_0 z^l + a_1 z^{l-1} + \dots + a_{l-1} z + \frac{1}{2} a_l, & m = 2l \tag{6b} \end{cases}$$

where $[x]$ is a largest integer not greater than x .

Theorem 5. If we denote m th degree normalized reciprocal equation by

$$p_0(z) = a_0 z^m + a_1 z^{m-1} + \dots + a_m = 0$$

then we get the followings:

(1) Let m be the odd number. Then, $p_0(z)$ has at least one root on unit circle Γ .

(2) Let m be even number, i, e., $m = 2l$. Define a l th degree polynomial $h(z)$ by

$$h(z) = a_0 z^l + a_1 z^{l-1} + \dots + a_{l-1} z + \frac{1}{2} a_l$$

Then, all the roots of $p_0(z)$ on Γ agree with those of a equation

$$\operatorname{Re}\{h(z)\} = 0, \quad |z| = 1.$$

Here $\operatorname{Re}\{z\}$ is real part of z .

We prove only the later half of the theorem. If m is even, we can write

$$p_0(z) = z^l h(z) + h^*(z)$$

by the lemma 4.

Since $h^*(z) = z^l \overline{h(\overline{z})}$ on $|z| = 1$, it follows that

$$p_0(z) = z^l \{h(z) + \overline{h(\overline{z})}\} = 2z^l \operatorname{Re}\{h(z)\}.$$

Therefore, $p_0(z)$ and $\operatorname{Re}\{h(z)\}$ have the common roots on $|z| = 1$.

4. Computational Method

First, we determine the modulus of roots. This algorithm is based on theorem 1 and theorem 2.

Let us construct the sequence (3) from given polynomial $f(z)$. If $f_{n+1} \neq 0$, the number μ of roots of $f(z)$ in the unit circle Γ is easily obtained by theorem 2. Taking an arbitrary positive number r , we can find $\mu(r)$ which is the number of roots of $f(z)$ in a circle of radius r by transforming $f(z)$ to $f(rz)$.

Given only $\mu(r)$, we can determine the modulus of roots with a preassigned accuracy by the bisection method which may be simplest.

Secondarily, we assume that $f(z)$ has at least one root on Γ . The highest common factor of $f(z)$ and $f^*(z)$ is given by $f_n(z)$ from theorem 1. Furthermore, $f_n(z)=0$ is a reciprocal equation.

Let $f_n(z)$ normalize to $p_0(z)$ and m be its degree. When $m=1$, we can easily solve $p_0(z)=0$. If $m>1$ is odd number, we change $p_0(z)$ to even degree polynomial by multiplying $(z+1)$ to $p_0(z)$. So, we may concern with only even degree reciprocal equation $p_0(z)=0$. To solve it on Γ , we may determine the roots of equation

$$\operatorname{Re}\{h(z)\}=0, |z|=1$$

from theorem 5. Here, we note the degree of $h(z)$ is $l=\frac{m}{2}$.

Let us consider the polynomial with complex coefficients

$$h(z)=(\alpha_l+i\beta_l)z^l+(\alpha_{l-1}+i\beta_{l-1})z^{l-1}+\dots+(\alpha_0+i\beta_0)$$

where α' 's, and β' 's, are real numbers.

If we transform $z=e^{i\theta}$ in $\operatorname{Re}\{h(z)\}$, then we get l th degree trigonometric polynomial

$$\operatorname{Re}\{h(e^{i\theta})\}=\sum_{k=0}^l \alpha_k \cos k\theta - \sum_{k=1}^l \beta_k \sin k\theta \quad (7)$$

Hence, we may determine the real roots of this equation. But we omit the algorithm.

In table 1 we show numerical examples which are computed by floating point number with 15 digits mantissa.

Table 1.

Example 1. $f(z)=z^6+(0.125+0.25i)z^5+2iz^4-(0.5-8.25i)z^3-(2-i)z^2-16z-2-4i=0$.

No.	Roots	Numerical solutions	
1	$2i$	0.0000 0000 0000	+1.9999 9999 9982i
2	$\pm \sqrt{3} - i$	1.73205 08075 6872	-0.99999 99999 99906i
3		-1.73205 08075 6872	-0.99999 99999 99949i
4	$\pm 1 \mp i$	0.99999 99999 99943	-0.99999 99999 99943i
5		-0.99999 99999 99943	+0.99999 99999 99943i
6	$-0.125 - 0.25i$	-0.12499 99999 99997	-0.25000 00000 00023i

Example 2. $f(z) = z^9 + (0.2 + 0.1i)z^8 + 10iz^7 - (1 - 2i)z^6 - 35z^5 - (7 + 3.5i)z^4 - 50iz^3 + (5 - 10i)z^2 + 24z + 4.8 + 2.4i = 0$.

No.	Roots	Numerical solutions			
1	$\pm \sqrt{2} \mp \sqrt{2}i$	1.41421	35623	7402	-1.41421 35623 7402i
2		-1.41421	35623	7402	+1.41421 35623 7402i
3	$\pm \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \mp \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}i$	1.22474	48713	9170	-1.22474 48713 9170i
4		-1.22474	48713	9170	+1.22474 48713 9170i
5	$\pm 1 \mp i$	1.00000	00000	0038	-1.00000 00000 0038i
6		-1.00000	00000	0038	+1.00000 00000 0038i
7	$\pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \mp \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}i$	0.70710	67811	86535	-0.70710 67811 86535i
8		-0.70710	67811	86535	+0.70710 67811 86535i
9	$-0.2 - 0.1i$	-0.20000	00000	00077	-0.09999 99999 99988i

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