

# Congruence of Analytic Functions Modulo a Polynomial

ZDENĚK VOSTRÝ

In the paper an algebraic approach to the numerical computation of a mapping of analytic functions into polynomials is developed. This mapping can be applied for the numerical computing of some complex integrals, transformation between Laplace and  $\mathcal{Z}$  transfer functions and for more general Newton interpolation formula. Applications are in this and in the following papers.

## INTRODUCTION

Some problems of linear time invariant continuous and discrete systems can be solved by using the polynomial approach [1, 2]. The extension of the polynomial approach to other problems is given in this and the following papers. The mathematical background is the congruence of analytic functions modulo a polynomial and operations in a ring of polynomials modulo a polynomial.

The basic idea is based on work by Prof. Nekoľný.

Let us consider polynomials  $a, b$  with complex coefficients. We say that  $a$  divide  $b$  and write  $a/b$ , if and only if there exists a polynomial  $c$  such that  $b = a \cdot c$ .

The greatest common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$  is a polynomial denoted as  $(a, b)$ .

The degree of a polynomial  $a$  is written as  $\partial a$ . Let  $m = m_0 + m_1x + \dots, m_kx^k$  be a polynomial with complex coefficients and  $\partial m > 0$ . Then the spectrum  $\mathcal{M}$  of the polynomial  $m$  is the set of all complex numbers  $\alpha$  for which  $m(\alpha) = 0$ .

If  $f$  is a complex-valued function of the complex variable  $x$  defined on a neighbourhood  $\mathcal{N}(\alpha)$  of a point  $\alpha$  and if the derivative  $f'(x)$  exists everywhere in  $\mathcal{N}(\alpha)$  then  $f$  is said to be analytic at  $\alpha$ .

A function  $f$  is analytic on  $\mathcal{M}$  if it is analytic at all points of  $\mathcal{M}$ . Denote  $\mathcal{F}_m$  the set of all functions analytic or having at worst removable singularities on  $\mathcal{M}$ .

**Definition 1.** Let a polynomial  $m$ ,  $\partial m > 0$  and functions  $f, g \in \mathcal{F}_m$  be given. We say that  $f$  and  $g$  are congruent modulo  $m$ ,  $f = g \bmod m$ , if there exists an  $h \in \mathcal{F}_m$  such that  $f = g + hm$ . The polynomial  $m$  is called modulus.

It is evident that this congruence modulo  $m$  defines an equivalence relation on  $\mathcal{F}_m$  and hence the  $\mathcal{F}_m$  is decomposed into disjoint equivalent classes. Each class can be represented by a polynomial with degree less than  $\partial m$  as it is shown in the following theorem.

**Lemma.** Let the polynomial  $m = (x - \alpha)^k$  and a function  $f \in \mathcal{F}_m$  be given. Then there exists only one polynomial  $r$  such that

$$f = r \bmod m, \quad \partial r < \partial m.$$

*Proof.* From Definition 1 the congruence

$$0 = (x - \alpha)^l \bmod m \quad \text{for } l = k, k+1, \dots$$

follows.

Because  $f \in \mathcal{F}_m$  we can write

$$f(x) = \sum_{v=0}^{\infty} f^{(v)}(\alpha) \frac{(x - \alpha)^v}{v!}.$$

Hence

$$f(x) = \sum_{v=0}^{k-1} f^{(v)}(\alpha) \frac{(x - \alpha)^v}{v!} \bmod m = r \bmod m$$

and the proof is complete.

**Theorem 1.** For any  $f \in \mathcal{F}_m$ ,  $\partial m > 0$  only one complex polynomial  $r$  exists such that

$$(1) \quad f = r \bmod m, \quad \partial r < \partial m.$$

The natural homomorphism  $\mathbf{H}: f \rightarrow r$  induced by the congruence relation (1) will be called the reduction of  $f$  modulo  $m$  and denoted  $[f]_m = r$ .

*Proof. Existence.* Consider the modulus  $m = \prod_{i=1}^n {}^i m$ ,  ${}^i m = (x - \alpha_i)^{k_i}$ ,  $\alpha_i \neq \alpha_j$  for  $i \neq j$  and the equation

$$(i) \quad f = \sum_{j=1}^n {}^j q \prod_{i=1, i \neq j}^n {}^i m + \left( \prod_{i=1}^n {}^i m \right) \cdot h$$

where  ${}^j q, h \in \mathcal{F}_m$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

Below we show that  ${}^j q$  can be chosen to be a polynomial with degree less than  $k_j = \partial {}^j m$ .

Divide both sides of (i) by  $\prod_{i=1, i \neq l}^n {}^i m$ ,  $l = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . Then

$$(ii) \quad \frac{f}{\prod_{i=1, i \neq l}^n {}^i m} = {}^l q + {}^l m \left( \sum_{j=1, j \neq l}^n \frac{{}^j q}{{}^j m} + h \right)$$

or in short-hand notation

$${}^l g = {}^l q + {}^l m {}^l h.$$

It is evident that  ${}^l g, {}^l q, {}^l h \in \mathcal{F}_m$ .

Using Lemma we can choose  ${}^l q$  as a polynomial with degree less than  $\partial {}^l m$  and hence the degree of the polynomial

$$r = \sum_{j=1}^n {}^j q \prod_{i=1, i \neq j}^n {}^i m$$

is less than  $\partial m$  and the existence is proven.

*Uniqueness.* Suppose that two polynomials  $r$  and  $s$  exist such that  $\partial r < \partial m$ ,  $\partial s < \partial m$  and

$$f = r \bmod m, \quad f = s \bmod m.$$

From these assumptions and from Definition 1 the next equations follow

$$f = r + h_1 m = s + h_2 m, \quad h_1 - h_2 = \frac{r - s}{m},$$

where  $h_1, h_2 \in \mathcal{F}_m$ .

Because  $\partial(r - s) < \partial m$  and  $(h_1 - h_2) \in \mathcal{F}_m$  it must be  $r - s = 0$ . This contradicts to the above assumption and the proof is complete.

**Remark.** Denote  $z_1, z_2, \dots, z_l, z_i \neq z_j$  for  $i \neq j$ , all zeros of the polynomial  $m$  and denote  $k_i$  the multiplicity of zero  $z_i$ . ( $\sum_{i=1}^l k_i = \partial m$ ).  
From Definition 1

$$(2) \quad f(z) = r(z) + h(z) m(z)$$

where  $h(z) \in \mathcal{F}_m$ .

Consider  $i = 1, 2, \dots, l, v_i = 0, 1, \dots, (k_i - 1)$  then

$$\left. \frac{d^{v_i} m(z)}{(dz)^{v_i}} \right|_{z=z_i} = 0$$

and from (2)

$$(3) \quad f^{(v_i)}(z_i) = r^{(v_i)}(z_i)$$

for all  $i$  and  $v_i$ . In this way  $\partial m$  simultaneous linear equations for  $\partial m$  unknowns  $r_0, r_1, \dots, r_{\partial m-1}$ , are obtained and the polynomial  $r$  can be computed.

Point out that the first part of the proof of Theorem 1 gives more general Newton interpolation formula. (See (i) and Remark). These interpolations can be successfully used in many numerical problems. Computations of  $[f]_m$  are given below.

#### PROPERTIES OF REDUCTION MODULO $m$

**Theorem 2.** Let a modulus  $m$  and the set  $\mathcal{F}_m$  be given. If  $f, g \in \mathcal{F}_m$ ,  $[f]_m = a$ ,  $[g]_m = b$  and  $\lambda$  is a complex number, the next equations hold:

- (i)  $[f + g]_m = [f]_m + [g]_m = a + b$ ,
- (ii)  $[\lambda f]_m = \lambda[f]_m = \lambda a$ ,
- (iii)  $[f \cdot g]_m = [[f]_m [g]_m]_m = [ab]_m$ ,
- (iv) if  $f|g \in \mathcal{F}_m$  then

$$\begin{bmatrix} f \\ g \end{bmatrix}_m = \begin{bmatrix} [f]_m \\ [g]_m \end{bmatrix}_m = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}_m.$$

**Theorem 3.** Let a modulus  $m$ , the set  $\mathcal{F}_m$  and a function  $g \in \mathcal{F}_m$  be given. Define the set  $\mathcal{N}$  as  $\mathcal{N} = \{y : y = g(x), m(x) = 0\}$ . If  $f$  is analytic on  $\mathcal{N}$  then

$$[f(g)]_m = [f([g]_m)]_m.$$

These two theorems follow from the proof of Theorem 1.

If the function  $f$  is a polynomial then the reduction  $f$  modulo  $m$  is the remainder after dividing  $f$  by  $m$ . (see (2)).

#### ANNIHILATING POLYNOMIAL

Very important in applications of this approach is the so called "annihilating polynomial".

Consider polynomials  $g_0, g_1, \dots, g_N$  such that  $N$  is an integer and  $\partial g_i < N$ ,  $i = 0, 1, \dots, N$ . Then as it follows from the properties of the vector space with dimension  $N$  the complex numbers  $\lambda_0, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_N$  exist such that

$$(4) \quad \sum_{i=0}^N \lambda_i g_i = 0, \quad \sum_{i=0}^N |\lambda_i| > 0.$$

Let a modulus  $m$  with degree  $N$  and a function  $g \in \mathcal{F}_m$  be given. If (4) holds for  $g_i = [f^i]_m$  then the polynomial  $\sum_{i=0}^N \lambda_i x^i$  corresponds to the concept of characteristic polynomial in matrix algebra.

**Definition 2.** Consider a modulus  $m$  and a function  $f \in \mathcal{F}_m$ . The annihilating polynomial of a function  $f$  modulo  $m$ , denoted  $\mathcal{A}[f]_m$ , is a nonzero polynomial  $p = p_0 + p_1 x + \dots + p_k x^k$  with minimal degree for which

$$[p(f)]_m = 0.$$

It is evident that

- (i)  $\partial p \leq \partial m$ ,
- (ii) for any  $f \in \mathcal{F}_m$  an annihilating polynomial modulo polynomial  $m$  exists,
- (iii) if  $p, q$  are annihilating polynomials of  $f$  modulo  $m$  then  $p = \mu q$  for some complex number  $\mu$ .

#### COMPUTING THE ANNIHILATING POLYNOMIAL

Let a modulus  $m$  and a function  $f \in \mathcal{F}_m$  be given. Set  $k = \partial m - 1$  and denote the polynomials

$$(5) \quad g_{(i)} = [f^i]_m \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1, \dots, \partial m,$$

where  $g_{(i)} = g_{i0} + g_{i1}x + \dots + g_{ik}x^k$ .

Write the coefficients of the polynomial  $g_{(i)}$  in the vector form

$$G_i = \begin{bmatrix} g_{i0} \\ g_{i1} \\ \vdots \\ g_{ik} \end{bmatrix}.$$

If  $p = \mathcal{A}[f]_m$  then using Definition 2 and  $[f^0]_m = 1$  we obtain

$$(6) \quad [p(f)]_m = p_0 + p_1[f]_m + p_2[f^2]_m + \dots + p_{\partial m}[f^{\partial m}]_m = \sum_{i=0}^{\partial m} p_i g_{(i)}.$$

In the matrix shorthand notation

$$(7) \quad [G_0, G_1, \dots, G_{\partial m}] \begin{bmatrix} p_0 \\ p_1 \\ \vdots \\ p_{\partial m} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

It is evident that the minimal degree of the polynomial  $p$  is equal to the rank of the

matrix  $G = [G_0, G_1, \dots, G_{em}]$ . Let  $n = \text{rank } G$  then for  $p_n = 1$  and  $p_{n+1}, p_{n+2}, \dots, p_{em} = 0$  the coefficients of the annihilating polynomial are given by (7).

**Example 1.** Find the annihilating polynomial of  $f = x^2$  modulo

$$m = 6 + 5x + x^2.$$

By (5)

$$g_{(0)} = 1$$

$$g_{(1)} = [x^2]_m = -6 - 5x$$

$$g_{(2)} = [g_{(1)}^2]_m = [(-6 - 5x)^2]_m = -144 - 65x.$$

The equation (6) has the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -6 & -144 \\ 0 & -5 & -55 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p_0 \\ p_1 \\ p_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The rank  $(G) = 2$  and for  $p_2 = 1$  the solution of equation (7) gives

$$\mathcal{A}[x^2]_{6+5x+x^2} = 46 - 13x + x^2.$$

Consider a modulus  $m$ , a function  $f \in \mathcal{F}_m$  and the annihilating polynomial  $p = \mathcal{A}[f]_m$  then for  $m(\lambda) = 0$  the equation (6) and (3) gives  $p(f(\lambda)) = 0$ . The relations between the zeros of  $m$  and the zeros of  $p$  play the important role in applications.

**Theorem 4.** Let a modulus  $m$  and a function  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  be given such that

$$\left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x=x_i} \neq 0$$

for all  $x_i$  for which  $(x - x_i)^2 \mid m(x)$  then

$$a = \mathcal{A}[f(x)]_m = \text{LCM}((x - f(x_1))^{n_1}, (x - f(x_2))^{n_2}, \dots, (x - f(x_i))^{n_i})$$

where LCM denotes least common multiple and  $n_i$  is the multiplicity of zero  $x_i$  of the polynomial  $m$ .

**Proof.** Denote  $\mathcal{A}[f]_m = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n = a$ .

The annihilating polynomial  $f$  modulo  $m$  is a polynomial with minimal degree for which

$$[a(f)]_m = 0.$$

From the properties of  $[\cdot]_m$  see, the proof of Theorem 1, the next equation holds

$$\left. \frac{d^k}{dx^k} a(f(x)) \right|_{x=x_i} = 0, \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots, (n_i - 1).$$

122 Set  $k = 0$  then

$$a(f) = 0 \quad \text{for } x = x_i.$$

Set  $k = 1$  then

$$\frac{da}{dx} = \frac{da}{df} \frac{df}{dx} = 0 \quad \text{for } x = x_i.$$

From the assumption  $\left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x=x_i} \neq 0$  we obtain

$$\frac{da}{df} = 0 \quad \text{for } x = x_i.$$

Set  $k = 2$  then

$$\frac{d^2a}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2a}{df^2} \left( \frac{df}{dx} \right)^2 + \underbrace{\frac{da}{df} \frac{d^2f}{dx^2}}_0 = 0$$

and from this

$$\frac{d^2a}{df^2} = 0.$$

Set  $k = n_i - 1$  then

$$\frac{d^{n_i-1}a}{df^{n_i-1}} = \frac{d^{n_i-1}a}{df^{n_i-1}} \left( \frac{df}{dx} \right)^{n_i-1} + \frac{\dots}{0} = 0$$

and

$$\frac{d^{n_i-1}a}{df^{n_i-1}} = 0.$$

From  $\left. \frac{d^k a}{df^k} \right|_{x=x_i} = 0$  for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, (n_i - 1)$  and  $i = 1, 2, \dots, l$  the property

$$(i) \quad (x - f(x_i))^{n_i} \mid a$$

follows for any zero  $x_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, l$ . A polynomial  $a$  with minimal degree satisfying (i) is evidently the LCM of  $(x - f(x_i))^{n_i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, l$ .

**Remark 1.** By adding the conditions

$$f(x_i) \neq f(x_j), \quad x_i \neq x_j \quad \text{for } i \neq j$$

to Theorem 4 we obtain

$$\partial a = \partial m,$$

$$a = \prod_{i=1}^l (x - f(i))^{n_i} = \mathcal{A}[f]_m.$$

**Example 2.** For  $m = -1 + x^2$  and  $f = x^2$  compute  $\mathcal{A}[f]_m$ .

$$\begin{aligned} [f^0]_m &= 1, \\ [f^1]_m &= +1, \\ [f^2]_m &= -1. \end{aligned}$$

Construct the equation (5)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p_0 \\ p_1 \\ p_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The rank of the matrix  $G$  is equal to 1 and

$$\mathcal{A}[x^2]_{x^2-1} = -1 + x.$$

It can be seen that in this example the conditions of Theorem 4 are satisfied and the conditions of Remark 1 are not satisfied.

## DIOPHANTINE EQUATIONS IN POLYNOMIALS

Consider the equation

$$(i) \quad ax + by = c$$

for unknown polynomials  $x, y$  and given polynomials  $a, b, c$  with complex coefficients.

Equation (i) has a solution if and only if  $(a, b) \mid c$  (see [1]).

If  $\hat{x}, \hat{y}$  is a particular solution of (i), then all solutions are of the form

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \hat{x} + \frac{b}{(a, b)} t, \\ y &= \hat{y} + \frac{a}{(a, b)} t, \end{aligned}$$

where  $t$  is an arbitrary polynomial. We can obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{x} &= (-1)^n z_{n-1} \frac{c}{r_{n-1}}, \quad \frac{b}{(a, b)} = z_n, \\ \hat{y} &= (-1)^{n-1} w_{n-1} \frac{c}{r_{n-1}}, \quad \frac{a}{(a, b)} = w_n, \end{aligned}$$

where  $w_{n-1}, w_n$  and  $z_{n-1}, z_n$  are the polynomials given via recurrent equations



$$\begin{aligned}w_0 &= 1, \quad w_1 = q_1, \quad w_k = q_k w_{k-1} + w_{k-2}, \\z_0 &= 0, \quad z_1 = 1, \quad z_k = q_k z_{k-1} + z_{k-2}, \\k &= 2, 3, \dots, n,\end{aligned}$$

the polynomials  $q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n$  and  $r_{n-1}$  come from euclidean algorithm for  $(a, b)$ .  
Euclidean algorithm for  $(a, b)$ .

$$a = q_1 b + r_1 \quad \partial r_1 < \partial b$$

$$b = q_2 r_1 + r_2 \quad \partial r_2 < \partial r_1$$

$$r_1 = q_3 r_2 + r_3 \quad \partial r_3 < \partial r_2$$

$$\dots\dots\dots$$

$$r_{n-2} = q_n r_{n-1}.$$

$$(a, b) = r_{n-1}.$$

**Theorem 5.** Let a modulus  $m$  and polynomials  $a, c$  be given such that  $c/a \in \mathcal{F}_m$  then

$$\left[ \frac{c}{a} \right]_m = r$$

where  $r = [\hat{x}]_m$ , and  $\hat{x}$  is a particular solution of diophantine equation

$$(d) \quad a^* x + m y = c^*, \quad \text{where} \quad a^* = \frac{a}{(a, c)}, \quad c^* = \frac{c}{(a, c)}$$

**Proof.** Divide (d) by  $a^*$  then

$$x + \frac{m y}{a^*} = \frac{c^*}{a^*} = \frac{c}{a}$$

and because  $[gm]_m = 0$  holds for any  $g \in \mathcal{F}_m$ , we obtain

$$[x]_m = \left[ \frac{c}{a} \right]_m.$$

Note that the condition  $c/a \in \mathcal{F}_m$  agrees to condition  $(a^*, m) \mid c^*$  of the diophantine equation (d). To compute the reduction modulo  $m$  of functions  $e^x, \ln x, \sqrt{x}, x^k$  etc. we use some theorems on uniform convergence and define a norm of a function modulo  $m$ . Any sequence of analytic functions  $f_i, i = 1, 2, \dots$ , uniformly convergent over common region, converges to an analytic function  $F$  within that region. From this

$$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} f_i^{(v)} = F^{(v)} \quad \text{for} \quad v = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

**Theorem 6.** Let a modulus  $m$  and a sequence  $f_0, f_1, \dots$ , be given such that  $f_i \in \mathcal{F}_m$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ , and  $f_0, f_1, \dots$  uniformly converges over some closed region containing spectrum of the modulus  $m$  to a function  $F$ . Then

$$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} [f_i]_m = [F]_m.$$

Proof follows from the proof of Theorem 1.

In this way the reduction  $[F]_m$  can be computed by a limit process of  $[f_i]_m$ .

### MODULAR NORM

For proofs of uniform convergence a norm is needed.

**Theorem 7.** Let a modulus  $m = m_0 + m_1x + \dots, m_{k-1}x^{k-1} + m_kx^k$ ,  $m_k \neq 0$  and  $f, g \in \mathcal{F}_m$  be given. Consider  $a = [f]_m$ ,  $b = [g]_m$  and the Chebychev vector norm of the polynomial  $a$  as  $\|a\| = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} |a_i|$ . Then the number

$$(n) \quad \varrho = \max_{0 \leq j \leq k-1} \|[x^j f]_m\|$$

is the norm in  $\mathcal{F}_m$ , written as  $\|f\|_m$ , with the property

$$\|f \cdot g\|_m \leq \|f\|_m \|g\|_m.$$

We say that  $\|f\|_m$  is the modular norm of the function  $f$  with respect to the modulus  $m$ .

Proof. At first, the following norm axioms

- (i)  $\|f\|_m = 0$  if and only if  $[f]_m = 0$ ,
- (ii)  $\|f\|_m > 0$  if and only if  $[f]_m \neq 0$ ,
- (iii)  $\|\lambda f\|_m = |\lambda| \|f\|_m$ ,
- (iv)  $\|f + g\|_m \leq \|f\|_m + \|g\|_m$ ,

are evidently held.

#### Product inequality

From (n)  $\|fg\|_m = \|ab\|_m$  follows. Denote  $[x^j b]_m = b^{(j)} = b_0^{(j)} + b_1^{(j)}x + \dots + \dots, b_{k-1}^{(j)}x^{k-1}$  then

$$\|ab\|_m = \max_{0 \leq j \leq k-1} \|[x^j ba]_m\| = \max_{0 \leq j \leq k-1} \|[b^{(j)}a]_m\| =$$

$$= \max_{0 \leq j \leq k-1} \left\| \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} b_i^{(j)} [x^i a]_m \right\| \leq \max_{0 \leq j \leq k-1} \|a\|_m \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} |b_i^{(j)}| \leq \|a\|_m \|b\|_m$$

using the properties of the vector norm.

This norm is well adapted for computer calculations.

**Remark.** Consider modulus  $m = m_0 + m_1x + \dots + m_{k-1}x^{k-1} + m_kx^k$ ,  $k \geq 1$ , then from Theorem 7  $\|x\|_m = \max_{0 \leq j \leq k-1} \|[x^j x]_m\| = \max(1, (|m_0| + |m_1| + \dots + |m_{k-1}|)(m_k))$  using  $[x^n]_m = x^n$  for  $n < km$  and  $[x^{km}]_m = -(m_0 + m_1x + \dots + m_{k-1}x^{k-1})/m_k$ . Consider the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \dots & -m_0 \\ 1 & 0 & \dots & -m_1 \\ \vdots & 1 & \dots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & -m_{k-1} \\ 0 & \vdots & 1 & -m_{k-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

then  $\|x\|_m$  defines the column norm of the matrix  $A$  and as it is known

$$\max_{m(\lambda)=0} |\lambda| \leq \|A\| = \|x\|_m.$$

The other properties of the modular norm are mentioned in the section Power series.

## POWER SERIES

As it is well known a power series converges uniformly in any closed set that can be enclosed in a circle which in turn lies wholly in the interior of the circle of convergence.

**Theorem 8.** Let a modulus  $m$  and a power series  $a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots$  with the radius of convergence  $R$  defining a function  $F(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i x_i$  be given such that  $\|x\|_m < R$  then

$$[F(x)]_m = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i [x^i]_m.$$

**Proof.** Define the closed disk  $\mathcal{D}$  centred in the origin with radius  $\varrho = \|x\|_m$ . Then all zeros of  $m(x)$  lie inside  $\mathcal{D}$  and hence the above series converges uniformly over  $\mathcal{D}$ . Using Theorem 6 for partial sums of the given series the proof is complete.

**Lemma 1.** Let a modulus  $m$  and functions  $f, g$  be given such that  $f(g) \in \mathcal{F}_m$  and the function  $f$  can be expressed as the power series

$$f(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i z^i$$

with radius of convergence  $R > \|g\|_m$ . Then

$$(i) \quad [f(g)]_m = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i [g^i]_m$$

and

$$(ii) \quad \|f(g)\|_m \leq |f(\|g\|_m)|.$$

Proof. (i) follows from the properties of Taylor series. (ii) following from (i) using the properties of the modular norm, especially  $\|g^i\|_m \leq (\|g\|_m)^i$ .

The next algorithms are established for a modulus with real coefficients and they can be adapted for a modulus with complex coefficients with small modifications.

Let a modulus with real coefficients and a function  $f \in \mathcal{F}_m$  be given such that  $f^*(x) = f(x^*)$  denote the complex conjugate of  $x$ , then  $[f]_m$  is the polynomial with real coefficients and it can be evaluated by real arithmetics.

#### NUMERICAL RESTRICTIONS

In the recommended numerical algorithms the range of numbers ( $10^{-72}$ ,  $10^{72}$ ) and double precision real arithmetics with 16 decimal digits are supposed.

#### COMPUTATION OF $[e^{qx}]_m$

Using Numerical restriction the value of  $e^{qx}$  can be computed for

$$|qx| < 166 < 2^8.$$

Hence, this restriction must hold for all  $x$  for which  $m(x) = 0$ .

**Theorem 9.** Let a modulus  $m = m_0 + m_1x + \dots + m_kx^k$ ,  $m_k \neq 0$  and a real number  $q$  be given then

$$[e^{qx}]_m = \left[ \left[ \sum_{i=0}^8 \frac{1}{i!} \left( \frac{qx}{2} \right)^i \right]^{2^L} \right]_m + R$$

where

$L$  is the least natural number for which

$$\|qx\|_m \leq 2^{L-3}$$

and

$$\|e^{-qx}R\|_m \leq 3.2^L 10^{-14}.$$

The sum is computed by Horner scheme.

Proof. Denote

$$s = \sum_{i=0}^8 \frac{1}{i!} \left[ \frac{qx}{2^L} \right]_m, \quad \varrho = \left\| \frac{qx}{2^L} \right\|_m$$

then

$$[e^{qx2^{-L}}]_m = s + [r]_m$$

where  $r$  is the remainder of the known power series for the exponential function.

From the assumption  $\varrho \leq \frac{1}{8}$  the norm  $\|r\|_m$  can be bounded as

$$\|r\|_m \leq \frac{\varrho^9 e^{1/8}}{9!} \doteq 2.4 \cdot 10^{-14},$$

because

$$\sum_{i=9}^{\infty} \frac{\varrho^i}{i!} < \frac{\varrho^9}{9!} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{\varrho^i}{i!} = \frac{\varrho^9}{9!} e^{\varrho}.$$

The error  $R$  is defined as

$$[e^{qx}]_m = [s^{2^L}]_m + R.$$

For  $\|r^2\|_m \ll \|r\|_m$  we can write

$$[e^{qx}]_m = [(s + r)^{2^L}]_m \doteq [s^{2^L} + 2^L s^{2^L-1} r]_m$$

and

$$R \doteq 2^L s^{2^L-1} [r]_m.$$

Hence the relative error can be given as

$$\|e^{-qx} R\|_m \doteq \|2^L e^{-qx/2^L} r\|_m.$$

Using Lemma 1  $\|e^{-qx/2^L}\|_m \leq e^{1/8}$  and we obtain

$$\|e^{-qx} R\|_m \leq \frac{e^{1/8} e^{1/8}}{8 \cdot 9!} 2^L < 3 \cdot 2^L \cdot 10^{-14}.$$

In usual cases  $L \ll 11$  and hence  $[e^{qx}]_m$  is approximated at least at 12 decimal digits.

**Remark 1.** Computation of  $[e^{f(x)}]_m$ ,  $f \in \mathcal{F}_m$  can be performed in the same way as  $e^{q \cdot x}$  and  $L$  is the least natural number for which

$$\|f(x)\|_m \leq 2^{L-3}.$$

Point out that the practical computation of  $s$  is without numerical difficulties due to  $\varrho \leq \frac{1}{8}$ .

The bilinear transformation

$$w = \frac{1 - z}{1 + z}$$

maps the right half-plane,  $\Re z > 0$ , onto the domain  $|w| < 1$ . The equation

$$\left| \frac{1 - z}{1 + z} \right| = r$$

defines for all  $r$ ,  $0 < r < 1$ , the family of nonintersecting coaxial circles in the right half-plane.

Hence for any complex number  $s$ ,  $\Re s > 0$ , there exists a real number  $\varrho < 1$  such that

$$\frac{1 - s}{1 + s} < \varrho.$$

Consider the principal value of the square root of a complex number  $x$ ,  $x \neq t$ ,  $t \leq 0$  then  $\Re \sqrt{x} > 0$ .

**Theorem 10.** Define the domain  $\mathcal{D} = \{x : \Re \sqrt{x} > 0\}$  then the sequence

$$(I) \quad y_{i+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left( y_i + \frac{x}{y_i} \right), \quad y_0 = 1, \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

uniformly converges to the principal value of  $\sqrt{x}$  on any finite closed set  $\mathcal{S}$  contained in the domain  $\mathcal{D}$ .

**Proof.** Let a set  $\mathcal{S}$  be given, then there exists a number  $\varrho$  such that the closed set  $\mathcal{D} = \{x : |1 - \sqrt{x}/1 + \sqrt{x}| \leq \varrho < 1\}$  contains the set  $\mathcal{S}$  and if  $x \in \mathcal{S}$  then  $|1 - \sqrt{x}/1 + \sqrt{x}| < \varrho$ . This follows from the property of the bilinear transformation. From (I)

$$(8) \quad y_{i+1} - \sqrt{x} = \frac{1}{2y_i} (y_i - \sqrt{x})^2, \quad y_i \neq 0,$$

$$y_{i+1} + \sqrt{x} = \frac{1}{2y_i} (y_i + \sqrt{x})^2$$

and hence

$$(9) \quad \frac{y_{i+1} - \sqrt{x}}{y_{i+1} + \sqrt{x}} = \left( \frac{y_i - \sqrt{x}}{y_i + \sqrt{x}} \right)^2 = \left( \frac{y_{i-1} - \sqrt{x}}{y_{i-1} + \sqrt{x}} \right)^2 \dots = \left( \frac{y_0 - \sqrt{x}}{y_0 + \sqrt{x}} \right)^{2^{i+1}}.$$

130 For  $y_0 = 1$  we obtain

$$\left| \frac{y_i - \sqrt{x}}{y_i + \sqrt{x}} \right| = \left| \frac{1 - \sqrt{x}}{1 + \sqrt{x}} \right|^{2^i} < \varrho^{2^i}, \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathcal{S},$$

hence  $y_i - \sqrt{x}/y_i + \sqrt{x}$  and in turn  $y_i - \sqrt{x}$ , uniformly converges to zero on  $\mathcal{S}$ . The convergence is quadratic on  $\mathcal{S}$ .

**Theorem 11.** Let a modulus  $m = m_0 + m_1x + \dots + m_kx^k$ ,  $m_k \neq 0$  be given such that  $m(t) \neq 0$  for  $t \leq 0$ . Then

$$(i) \quad [\sqrt{x}]_m = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda}} y_{N+1} \pm R_{N+1}$$

where

$$\lambda = \left( \frac{m_0}{m_k} (-1)^k \right)^{1/k},$$

$$y_0 = 1,$$

$$y_{i+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ y_i + \frac{\lambda x}{y_i} \right]_m, \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N,$$

$$\frac{\|R_{N+1}\|_m}{\|\sqrt{x}\|_m} < 10^{-14},$$

$N$  is the least natural number for which  $\|y_{N+1} - y_N\|_m / \|y_N\| < 10^{-14}$ ,  $\|y_N\|$  is the Chebyshev vector norm (see Theorem 7).

**Proof.** It is known that  $\lambda^k = \prod_{i=1}^k x_i$  where  $x_i$  is a zero of the modulus  $m$ . Hence, the values of  $\lambda x$ ,  $m(x) = 0$ , are "centred" about the number 1,  $\prod_{i=1}^k \lambda x_i = 1$  and faster convergence and better numerical properties are obtained. In view of the quadratic convergence of the given algorithm (see Theorem 10) the number  $N$  is a small number, usually  $N < 6$ .

The error  $R_{N+1}$  can be estimated in terms of the following formulae:

$$\begin{aligned} R_{N+1} &= [\sqrt{x}]_m - \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda}} y_{N+1}, \quad \text{using (i)}, \\ - \left[ \frac{R_{N+1}}{y_N} \right]_m &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \left( \frac{\sqrt{(\lambda)} R_N}{y_N} \right)^2 \right]_m, \quad \text{using (8)}, \\ \left\| \frac{\sqrt{(\lambda)} R_N}{y_N} \right\|_m &\ll 1 \end{aligned}$$

for  $N > L$ , where  $L$  is an integer number, using  $R_N \rightarrow 0$  and

131

$$\left\| \frac{R_N}{\sqrt{x}} \right\|_m \gg \left\| \frac{R_{N+1}}{\sqrt{x}} \right\|_m .$$

Finally, we write,

$$\left[ \frac{R_N}{\sqrt{x}} \right]_m \doteq \left[ \frac{R_N - R_{N+1}}{\sqrt{x}} \right]_m = \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda x}} (y_{N+1} - y_N) \right]_m \doteq \left[ \frac{y_{N+1} - y_N}{y_N} \right]_m$$

and

$$\frac{\|R_{N+1}\|_m}{\|\sqrt{x}\|_m} < \frac{\|y_{N+1} - y_N\|_m}{\|y_N\|_m} \leq \|y_{N+1} - y_N\|_m / \|y_N\|_m$$

by using  $\|y_N\| < \|y_N\|_m$  (see Theorem 7).

**Remark 2.** Let a modulus  $m$  and a function  $f$  be given such that  $f(x_i) \neq t$ ,  $t \leq 0$ ,  $m(x_i) = 0$ , then

$$[\sqrt{f(x)}]_m = z_{N+1} ,$$

where

$$z_0 = 1 , \quad z_{i+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ z_i + \frac{f}{z_i} \right]_m$$

and  $N$  is the least natural number for which

$$\|z_{i+1} - z_i\|_m / \|z_i\| < 10^{-14} .$$

#### COMPUTATION OF $[x^\alpha]_m$ .

Consider a real number  $\alpha$  expressed in a computer binary form

$$\alpha = \sum_{i=-N}^{+N} 2^i \beta_i , \quad \beta_i = 0 \text{ or } 1 , \quad (\text{usually } N = 15)$$

then  $x^\alpha = x^{2^i \beta_i} \dots x^{2^{\beta_1} x^{\beta_0}} \sqrt{x^{\beta-1}} \sqrt{x^{\beta-2}} + x^{(1/2N)\beta-N}$  and  $[x^\alpha]_m$  can be computed using Theorem 2 and highly efficient algorithm for  $[\sqrt{\cdot}]_m$ .

Point out that  $[\sqrt{\sqrt{x}}]_m$  is computed with less number of iterations then  $[\sqrt{x}]_m$  because

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [x^{1/2^n}]_m = 1 .$$

**Remark 3.** Computation of  $[(f(x)^\alpha)]_m$ ,  $f \in \mathcal{F}_m$  is carried out in the same way as the computation of  $[x^\alpha]_m$ .





which converges uniformly to the principal value of  $\ln(x)$  on any finite closed set  $\mathcal{S}$  contained in the domain  $\mathcal{D} = \{x : \Re \sqrt{x} > 0\}$  (see the proof of Theorem 10). 133

**Theorem 12.** Let the modulus  $m = m_0 + m_1x + \dots + m_kx^k$ ,  $m_k \neq 0$  be given such that  $m(t) \neq 0$  for  $t \leq 0$ . Then

$$(i) \quad [\ln(x)]_m = -\ln(\lambda) + 2^{N+1} \sum_{i=0}^N \frac{1}{2i+1} \left( \frac{(\lambda x)^{(1/2^N)} - 1}{(\lambda x)^{(1/2^N)} + 1} \right)^{2i+1} + R$$

where

$$\lambda = \left( \frac{m_k}{m_0} (-1)^k \right)^{1/k},$$

$$\varrho = \left\| \frac{(\lambda x)^{1/2^N} - 1}{(\lambda x)^{1/2^N} + 1} \right\|_m.$$

$N$  is the least natural number for which  $\varrho \leq \frac{1}{8}$ ,  $N \geq 1$ , and

$$\|R\|_m \leq 2^{N-3} \varrho^{17} < 2^N \cdot 10^{-16}.$$

**Proof.** The number  $\lambda$  is defined in the same way as in Theorem 11. The equation (i) follows from  $\ln(\lambda x)^{1/2^N} = (1/2^N) \ln(\lambda) + (1/2^N) \ln(x)$  and from the above series for  $\ln(x)$ .

Denote

$$y = \frac{(\lambda x)^{1/2^N} - 1}{(\lambda x)^{1/2^N} + 1}$$

then from (i)

$$\|R\|_m = 2^{N+1} \left\| \sum_{i=8}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2i+1} y^{2i+1} \right\|_m \leq 2^{N+1} \frac{1}{17} \sum_{i=8}^{\infty} \|y\|_m^{2i+1}.$$

Because  $\|y\|_m \leq \varrho \leq \frac{1}{8}$ ,

$$\|R\|_m \leq 2^{N+1} \frac{1}{17} \frac{\varrho^{17}}{1 - \varrho^2} < 2^{N-3} \varrho^{17} < 2^N \cdot 10^{-16}.$$

Considering numerical restriction we can see that  $N < 11$  because

$$\frac{(10^{72})^{1/2^{11}} - 1}{(10^{72})^{1/2^{11}} + 1} \doteq 0.044 < \frac{1}{8}.$$

If  $\varrho = \|y\|_m < \frac{1}{8}$  for  $N = 1$ , i.e. all zeros of  $m$  tends to 1, then  $\|R\|_m \leq \frac{1}{4} \varrho^{17}$ .

Consider that  $\|x - 1\|_m$  tends to zero, then

$$\left[ \frac{\sqrt{x} - 1}{\sqrt{x} + 1} \right]_m \doteq \frac{1}{4} [x - 1]_m \quad \text{and} \quad [\ln(x)]_m \doteq [x - 1]_m.$$

134 Hence, for  $\varrho = \frac{1}{4} \|x - 1\|_m \leq 0.1$

$$\|\ln x\|_m \leq 4\varrho, \quad \|R\|_m < \frac{1}{4}\varrho^{17}.$$

The computation of  $[\ln x]_m$  is correct to fifteen decimal digits.

**Remark 4.** Computation of  $[\ln(f(x))]_m$ ,  $\ln(f) \in \mathcal{F}_m$  is given in the same way as the computation of  $[\ln x]_m$ , only  $\lambda = 1$  and

$$\varrho = \left\| \frac{(f)^{1/2N} - 1}{(f)^{1/2N} + 1} \right\|_m.$$

### EVALUATION OF SOME CONTOUR INTEGRALS

**Theorem 13.** Let a polynomial  $a$  and a function  $F \in \mathcal{F}_a$  be given. Consider a closed curve  $\mathcal{C}$  such that all zeros of  $a$  lie inside  $\mathcal{C}$  and the function  $F$  is analytic inside  $\mathcal{C}$  and on  $\mathcal{C}$ .

$$\int_{\mathcal{C}} \frac{F}{a} dx = \int_{(a)} \frac{F}{a} dx = \int_{(a)} \frac{[F]_a}{a} dx = \frac{f_{n-1}}{a_n} 2\pi j,$$

where

$$n = \partial a$$

$$[F]_a = f = f_0 + f_1 x + \dots + f_{n-1} x^{n-1},$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{(a)} \frac{F}{a} dx$$

denotes the sum of residues inside  $\mathcal{C}$  (in the zeros of  $a$ ),  $j$  imaginary unit.

**Proof.** Residue theorem gives

$$\int_{\mathcal{C}} \frac{F}{a} dx = \int_{(a)} \frac{F}{a} dx.$$

It is evident that

$$\int_{(a)} h dx = 0 \quad \text{for any } h \in \mathcal{F}_a$$

and hence

$$\int_{(a)} \frac{F}{a} dx = \int_{(a)} \frac{F + ha}{a} dx.$$

Choosing the function  $h$  such that  $F + ha = [F]_a$  we obtain

$$\int_{(a)} \frac{F}{a} dx = \int_{(a)} \frac{[F]_a}{a} dx.$$

$$\int_{(a)} \frac{f}{a} dx, \quad f, a \text{ polynomials}, \quad \partial f < \partial a,$$

can be evaluated by using

$$\int_{(a)} \frac{f}{a} dx = -2\pi j \cdot \text{residuum at } \infty.$$

$$\int_{(a)} \frac{f}{a} dx = \frac{f_{n-1}}{a_n} 2\pi j.$$

**Example 3.** Given the Laplace transform of a function  $f$  in the form  $b(s)/a(s)$  where  $b, a$  polynomials,  $\partial b < \partial a$ . Compute  $f(\alpha)$  for some real  $\alpha$ .

Inversion theorem for Laplace transform gives

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{\gamma-j\infty}^{\gamma+j\infty} e^{st} \frac{b(s)}{a(s)} ds$$

where  $\gamma$  is any positive real number greater than the maximum real part of all zeros of  $a(s)$ .

In our case using Jordan's Lemma we can write

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{\gamma-j\infty}^{\gamma+j\infty} e^{st} \frac{b(s)}{a(s)} ds = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{(a)} e^{st} \frac{b(s)}{a(s)} ds.$$

Using Theorem 13 we obtain

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{(a)} \frac{[e^{st} b(s)]_{a(s)}}{a(s)} ds = \frac{c_{n-1}}{a_n}$$

where

$$n = \partial a,$$

$$c = c_0 + c_1 s + \dots + c_{n-1} s^{n-1} = [e^{st} b(s)]_{a(s)}.$$

For

$$F(s) = \frac{s}{6 + 11s + 6s^2 + s^3}$$

and  $\alpha = 0.5$  we obtain

$$f(0.5) = 4.695096611976623 \cdot 10^{-2}$$

using Theorem 3 and Theorem 9 in computer algorithm.

**Example 4.** The following rational function

$$F(s) = 5 \frac{3024 - 1344s + 252s^2 - 24s^3 + s^4}{15 \cdot 120s + 8400s^2 + 2100s^3 + 300s^4 + 25s^5 + s^6}$$

giving the Laplace transform of a function  $f(t)$  was previously inverted by the conventional method with the aid of a computer (Longman 1966).

Some values of  $f(t)$  obtained analytically are compared in Table below with values obtained by the tedious method of Longman and Sharir [3] and by the method based on the congruence of analytic functions modulo a polynomial described in this paper.

TABLE

$t$	$f(t)$	$f_1(t) - f(t)$	$f_2(t) - f(t)$
0	0	0	0
0.2	-0.061994089	$-10^{-9}$	$-10^{-9}$
0.4	0.108183033	$-2 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$-2 \cdot 10^{-9}$
0.6	0.141936276	0	0
0.8	0.018957791	$-10^{-9}$	$-10^{-9}$
1.0	0.564698377	$-2 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$-10^{-9}$
1.2	0.946068875	$-2 \cdot 10^{-9}$	0
1.4	1.03645770	$-10^{-9}$	0
1.6	1.01057147	0	0
1.8	0.993023461	$-26 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$10^{-9}$
2.0	0.996131698	$-6 \cdot 10^{-9}$	0

where  $f_1(t)$  is computed by the method given in [3],  $f_2(t)$  is computed by the recommended method. The computations reported in this paper were carried out on the IBM 370/135 computer with double precision arithmetics and PL/I language.

## CONCLUSION

This paper is the first part of a series of papers to be published on the polynomial approach to some numerical problems related to the Laplace and Z transformations, evaluation of some complex integrals etc. This approach is based on algorithms for the numerical computation of the reduction of an analytic function modulo a polynomial.

(Received June 8, 1976.)

- [1] V. Kučera: Algebraic Theory of Discrete Optimal control for single-variable systems I. *Kybernetika* 9 (1973), 2, 94 – 107.
- [2] Z. Vostrý: New Algorithm for Polynomial Spectral Factorization with Quadratic Convergence I. *Kybernetika* 11 (1975), 6, 415 – 422.
- [3] I. M. Longman, M. Shatir: Laplace Transform Inversion of Rational Functions. *Geophys. J. R. astr. Soc.* (1971), 25, 299 – 305.
- [4] G. F. Carrier: *Functions of a Complex Variable: Theory and Technique*. McGraw-Hill, 1966.

*Ing. Zdeněk Vostrý, CSc. Ústav teorie informace a automatizace ČSAV (Institute of Information Theory and Automation — Czechoslovak Academy of Sciences), Pod vodárenskou věží 4, 180 76 Praha 8, Czechoslovakia.*