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## RESEARCH ARTICLE

# NUMERICALLY EVALUATED NUMBER OF LEVEL CROSSINGS OF A RANDOM ALGEBRAIC POLYNOMIAL 

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## INTRODUCTION

Let us consider a fixed probability space $\Omega, A, P$, and let $a_{j}(w), j=0,1 \ldots \ldots$. be a sequence of independent random variables defined on $\Omega$. Denote by $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{n}}(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b})=\mathrm{N}(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b})$ the number of real zeros of $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{x})$ in the interval $a \leq 1 \leq b$ where
$P_{n}(x, \omega)=P(x)=\sum_{j=0}^{n} a_{j}(w) x^{j}$
Assuming normal distribution with mean zero for the coefficients $\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{j}}$, $\mathrm{J}=1 \ldots \mathrm{n}$. Kac (Ibragimov and Maslova, 1971) showed that for all sufficiently large n the mathematical implication of $N(-\infty, \infty)$, denoted by EN , is asymptotically equal to $(2 / \pi)$ of $(n+1)$. There are several authors who have since considered the assumption of normality distributions for the coefficients, work whenever with different conditions for the coefficients or various types of polynomials. For instance, Sambandhan (Ibragimov and Maslova, 1971) showed that the above asymptotic formula remains invariant when the

[^0]coefficients are dependent with correlation coefficient of any $\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{j}}$ and $\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{j}}, \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{j}=0,1 \ldots \mathrm{n}$ as $\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{ij}}=\mathrm{p} \quad 0<p<\frac{1}{2}, \mathrm{i} \neq \mathrm{j}$. However, where $\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{ij}}=\mathrm{p} \quad 0<p<\frac{1}{2}, \mathrm{i} \neq \mathrm{j}$. is fixed, the asymptotic formula is reduced by half (Little Wood and Offord, 2005). This reduction is considered with the work of Ibragimov and Maslova (Farhamand, 1989), when they assume that coefficients $a_{j}$ have a non-zero mean. Stevens (Christensen and Sambandhan, 1984) improved Kac's estimates for the case of the independent standard normal random coefficients and proved that the error term is $0(1)$. The lower bound improved by Christensen and Sambandham (Das, 1971). Very recently in interesting papers involving several new methods, Wilkins (Das, 1943; Rice, 1945) proved the upper bound further and showed the existence of numerical values of the first six coefficients in, an asymptotic expansion. In particular he obtained
$E N \sim(2 / \pi) \log (n+1)+\sum_{j=0}^{5} D_{j}(n+1)+0(n+1)^{-6}$.
The values of the constants, $D_{j}, j=0,1 \ldots \ldots 5$, are numerically evaluate and, unexpectedly, it is observed that $D_{j}=0$ for $j=1,3,5$.

However, the problem is of a different level of difficulty when normality condition is relaxed. In this connection, the case when the belong to the domain of attraction of the normal law with means zero. Prob $\left(a_{j} \neq 0\right)>0$, has been considered by Ibragimov and Maslova. They have shown that, for n sufficiently large $\mathrm{E} N(-\infty, \infty) \sim(2 / \pi)(n+1)$. Therefore, for this case also the expected number of real zero remains as in the case of Kac referred to above. Hence, it is of special interest to seek a class of distributions, if it exists, such that one can obtain a different number of real zeros for the polynomial. To this Logan and Shepp (Kac, 1943) have shown that, when the coefficients $\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{j}}$ are independent with a common Cauchy distribution, for all sufficiently large n .
$E N(-\infty, \infty) \sim C \log (\mathrm{n}+1)$,
where
$\mathrm{C}=8 \pi^{-2} \int_{0}^{x}\left(x e^{-x}\right) /\left(x-1+2 e^{-x}\right) d x$.
This shows, since $C \approx 0.741284$ and $2 / \pi=0.636620$, that for the Cauchy distribution there are asymptotically more zeros. This is probably cause by the fact that in the Cauchy case the variance is infinite and therefore coefficients tend to be more spread out, and hence cancellation is easier. In this paper we re-examine Logan and Shepp's case and prove the following theorem.

## Theorem

## Let

$\alpha_{p}=\alpha(p, x)=\sum_{j=0}^{p} x^{j}, \beta_{p}=\beta(p, x)=\sum_{j=0}^{p} j x^{j}$
$\gamma_{\mathrm{mn}}=\left(\alpha_{n}-2 \alpha_{m}\right), \xi_{\mathrm{mn}}=\left(\beta_{n}-2 \beta_{m}\right)$,
$I_{m}=\left\{\left(1 / \gamma_{\mathrm{mn}}\right)\left\{\left[\xi_{\mathrm{mn}}-m \gamma_{m n}\right] \log \left[\xi_{\mathrm{mn}}-m \gamma_{m n}\right]-\left[\xi_{\mathrm{mn}}-(m+1) \gamma_{m n}\right]\right.\right.$
$\log \left[\xi_{m n}-(m+1) \gamma_{m n}\right]-\gamma_{m n}$
$=\sum_{m=0}^{n=1} \mathrm{I}_{m}$
and
$J(x)=\left(1 / \alpha_{n}\right)\left\{\beta n\left[\log \beta_{n}-1\right]+\left(\alpha_{n} n-\beta_{n}\right)\left[\log \left(\alpha_{n} n-\beta_{n}\right)-1\right]\right\}$.
Then
$E N(-\infty, \infty)=4 \pi^{-2} \int_{0}^{1} x^{-1}(I(x)-J(x)) d x$.
As $\mathrm{x}=0$ the integrand in (1.7) has a singularity whose nature must be understood when integrating it numerically. When numerical integration a performed to calculate $E N(0,1)=E N(-\infty, \infty) / 4$, it is found that
$E N(0,1) \sim(C / 4) \log (n+1)+A_{0}+A_{2}(n+1)^{-2}$
where C is given in (1.2), $\mathrm{A}_{0}=0.139783$ and $\mathrm{A}_{2}=-0.057649$.

This result suggests that, for this wider distribution of the coefficients, the error term is also $0(1)$ and, as in Wilkins (Rice, 1945) result, the term of $0(\mathrm{n}+1)^{-1}$ vanishes. As the case of Cauchy distributed coefficients studied here has infinite variance and is not well behaved, one can perhaps conjecture that this property of the error term is common to all classes of distribution of coefficients.

## A formula for the number of real zeros

The transformations $\quad P(x) \rightarrow P(-x)$ and $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{x}) \rightarrow \mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{P}(1 / \mathrm{x})$ leave the coefficients distribution invariant. Therefore $E N(-\infty, \infty)=4 \mathrm{EN}(0,1)$, and we confine ourselves to the interval ( 0,1 ). By using Rice [7, p, 52] (see also [1,p,94], Logan and Shepp (Little Wood and Offord, 2005) obtained a formula for a mathematical expectation of the number of real zeros of $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{x})$ as
$E N(0,1)=\int_{0}^{1}\left(1 / \pi^{2} x\right) d x\left[\int_{0}^{\mathrm{n}} \log \mathrm{A}(\mathrm{u}) \mathrm{du}+n-n \log A(n)\right]$
$+\left(\beta_{\mathrm{n}} / \alpha_{n}\right) \log \left(n \alpha_{n}-\beta_{n}\right) / \beta_{n}$
$=\pi^{-2} \int_{0}^{1} x^{-1} d x \int_{0}^{n} \log g_{n}(u, x) d u$,
Where
$A(u)=A n(u, x)=\sum_{j=0}^{n}|u-j| x^{j}$
and
$g_{n}(u, x)=\frac{\sum_{j=0}^{n}|(u-j)| x^{j}}{\sum_{j=0}^{n}(u-j) x^{j}}$
Let
$I(x)=\int_{0}^{n} \log \left[\sum_{j=0}^{n}|u-j| x^{j}\right] d x$
$=\int_{0}^{n} \log \left[\sum_{j=0}^{n}|u-j| x^{j}\right] d x$
$\sin c e \mathrm{x} \geq 0$.
Now, let $m$ be the greatest contained in $u$; then, with $\alpha_{p}$ and $\beta$ as in (1.3) and $\gamma_{\mathrm{mn}}$ and $\zeta_{\mathrm{mn}}$ as in (1.4).
$\sum_{j=0}^{n}|u-j| x^{j}=\sum_{j=0}^{n}|(u-j)| x^{j}+\sum_{j=0}^{n}|(u-j)| x^{j}$
$=u\left(2 \alpha_{m}-\alpha_{n}\right)-\left(2 \beta_{m}-\beta_{n}\right)$,
$=\xi_{m n}-u \gamma_{m n}$.
Thus
$I(x)=\int_{0}^{n} \log \left(\xi_{\mathrm{mn}}-u \gamma_{m n}\right) d u$.
Hence the integrand has discontinuous at integral values of $u$, it is conversant to write
$I(x)=\sum_{m=0}^{n-1} \mathrm{I}_{m}$
where
$\mathrm{I}_{m}=\int_{m}^{m+1} \log \left(\xi_{m n}-u \gamma_{m n}\right) d u$,
Such evaluates to the expression given for $I_{m}$ in (1.5)

## Let

$J(x)=\int_{0}^{n} \log \left|\sum_{j=0}^{n}(u-j) x^{j}\right| d u$
$=\int_{0}^{n} \log \left|\alpha_{n} u-\beta_{n}\right| d u$

The integrand of $\mathrm{J}(\mathrm{x})$ has a singularity at $\beta_{\mathrm{n}} / \alpha_{\mathrm{n}}$, which lies between 0 and n after integration, the expression for $\mathrm{J}(\mathrm{x})$ in (1.6) is obtained. This result, along with (2.1) and (2.2) establishes (1.7).

## NUMERICAL RESULTS

The integration in (1.7) is carried out numerically. As will be seen, a problem arises due to a singularity of the integrand at $x=0$. The nature of the singularity can be found by considering the behaviour of $\mathrm{I}(\mathrm{x})$ and as $\mathrm{x} \rightarrow 0$. For small values of $\mathrm{x}, \alpha_{\mathrm{m}}$ $=1$, and
$\gamma_{m n} \cong-1, \beta_{0}=0$ and $\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{x}$, while, if $\mathrm{m}>0, \beta_{\mathrm{m}} \cong x$ and $\xi_{\mathrm{mn}}=-x$,
Then, substituting these values into (1.5),
$I_{0}=-x \log x-1$,
$I_{m}=(m+1) \log (m+1)-m \log m-1 \quad(\mathrm{~m}>0)$,
$\sum_{\mathrm{m}=1}^{\mathrm{n}-1} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}}=n \log n-(n-1)$
$J(x)=x \log x+n \log n-n$,
where $x^{-1}(I(x)-J(x))=-2 \log x$. Since the integrand in (1.7) behaves as $\log x$ as $x \rightarrow 0$, the NAG library subroutine D01APF was used to integrate from 0 to 0.98 . This routine requires that $\log x$ be used a weight function, so it is not appropriate for use up to $x=1$; the subroutine D01AJF was used for the remainder of the integration where the integration shows considerable variation on the interval $(0.98,1.0)$ for large values of $n$, the degree of the polynomial. Results have been obtained for a large number of values of $n$, and a useful selection is presented in Table-1. The final column of the table suggests that $\operatorname{Er}(\mathrm{n})=$ EN ( 0,1 )-(C/4)log ( $\mathrm{n}+1$ ) approaches a limit $\mathrm{n} \rightarrow \infty$. To investigate an appropriate behaviour of $\operatorname{Er}(\mathrm{n})$ more fully, NAG library subroutine G02DAF was used to fit a polynomial of the forms $A_{0}+A_{1}(n+1)^{-1}+A_{2}(n+1)^{-2}$ to it; the data used were the 93 values of $\operatorname{Er}(\mathrm{n})$ for $\mathrm{n}=8,9, \ldots .100$.

The values obtained for the coefficients were $\mathrm{A} 0=0.139782$, $\mathrm{A} 1=0.000065$ and $\mathrm{A} 2=-0.058279$. When considering the value of A1, it must be noted that the fact it is non-zero may be due to round off effects. The value found for A1 sugegsted the use of the lines regression subroutine G02CAF to fit a line with equation of the form that in (1.8) to the same data, giving

$$
\operatorname{Er}(n)=0.139783-0.057649(n+1)^{-2}
$$

Table 1.

| $n$ | $E N(0,1)$ | $(C / 4) \log (n+1)$ | $E r(n)$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 10 | 0.583688 | 0.444381 | 0.139307 |
| 15 | 0.653378 | 0.513819 | 0.139559 |
| 20 | 0.703868 | 0.564214 | 0.139653 |
| 25 | 0.743493 | 0.603794 | 0.139698 |
| 30 | 0.776114 | 0.636390 | 0.139724 |
| 35 | 0.803841 | 0.664102 | 0.139739 |
| 40 | 0.827952 | 0.688203 | 0.139749 |
| 100 | 0.995057 | 0.855279 | 0.139777 |
| 150 | 1.069588 | 0.929808 | 0.139781 |
| 200 | 1.122596 | 0.982814 | 0.139782 |
| 325 | 1.212217 | 1.072434 | 0.139783 |
| 2000 | 1.548483 | 1.408700 | 0.139783 |

The correlation coefficient was found to be -0.999991 , which again must be seen in the context of the rounding off the data. The result obtained in this wider case is consistent with that of KAC [5], when the coefficients are distributed normally, in that he finds the coefficients of $(\mathrm{n}+1)$ to be zero.

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