

GRAPHICAL METHOD

FOR FINDING READILY THE

REAL ROOTS

OF

NUMERICAL EQUATIONS OF ANY DEGREE

IF CONTAINING BUT

ONE VARIABLE.

BY

WM. H. BIXBY,

LIEUTENANT OF ENGINEERS U. S. ARMY.

---

WEST POINT, N. Y.

1879.

## P R E F A C E .

---

THIS graphical method is due to Captain Lill, of the Austrian service, who first exhibited it at the Paris Exposition of 1867.

The method is now brought forward, by the undersigned, because he is not aware it has yet been presented to the English-reading public; and because it possesses some novel features which may assist in enlarging the already broad field of graphical analysis.

The proof of the correctness of the method, as given in the following pages, is, as far as I know, original with myself.

WM. H. BIXBY,

*Lieut. of Engineers, U. S. A.*

WEST POINT, *March*, 1879.

COPYRIGHT,  
WILLIAM H. BIXBY,  
1879.

GRAPHIC SOLUTION OF NUMERICAL EQUATIONS OF ANY DEGREE, IF CONTAINING BUT ONE VARIABLE.

[N. B. Those readers who care nothing about the proof, but who desire to consult only the application, of the following constructions, will save time by skipping immediately to p. 13].

There are two geometrical propositions so much used, in the following pages, that their solution will precede that of the main problem. They are given in the following lemmas.

**Lemma I.**

Let  $mn$  (Fig. A) be any diameter, and  $ny$  any chord of a circle; let  $no$  and  $np$  be the perpendiculars let fall from the extremities of the diameter, upon the chord produced: then;

- 1st,  $\angle mnp = \angle mnq + \angle mnr$ , and
- 2nd,  $pq = ro$ .

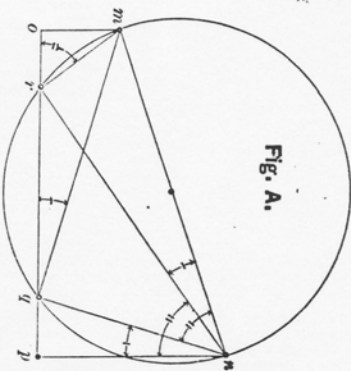


Fig. A.

First;  $\angle rqn = \angle qpn + \angle pnq = 90^\circ + \angle pnq$ ; then  $\angle pnq = \angle mqr = \angle mnr$ , and hence  $\angle mnp = \angle mnq + \angle qnp = \angle mnq + \angle mnr$ . Q. E. D.

Second; since  $\angle pnq = \angle mqr = \angle mnr$ , then  $\angle mnq = \angle mnp = \angle mnr$ , and  $\cot. \angle pnq = \cot. \angle mqr$ ; therefore,  $\frac{pn}{pq} = \frac{qn}{qr} = \frac{no}{ro}$ . (a)

Also,  $\cot. \angle mnp = \cot. \angle mnr$ ; therefore  $\frac{np}{pr} = \frac{nr}{pq+qr} = \frac{ro}{mo}$ . (b)

From (a) we have  $(pn)(no) = (qr+ro)pq$ , and from (b)

$$(pn)(no) = (pq+qr)ro;$$

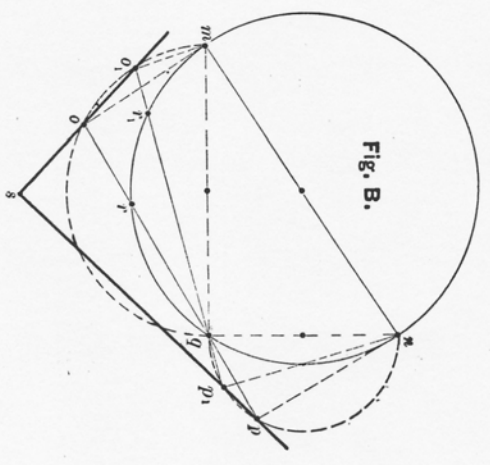
whence combining and reducing  $(pq)(qr) = (qr)(ro)$  from which  $pq = ro$ .

Q. E. D.



**Lemma II.**

Let  $mn$  (Fig. B) be any diameter, and  $qr$  any chord of a circle; from  $m$  and  $n$  drop perpendicular  $mo$  and  $np$  upon  $qr$  produced. Let  $qr$ , be any other chord through  $q$ , and let  $mo$ , and  $np$ , be the perpendiculars let fall upon  $qr$ , from  $m$  and  $n$  respectively; then the straight line through  $oo$ , will be perpendicular to the straight line through  $pp$ .



For, since  $\angle moq = 90^\circ = \angle noq$ , then  $o$  and  $o'$ , are on the circle whose diameter is  $mq$ ; and since  $\angle npq = 90^\circ = \angle n'p'q$ .  $p$  and  $p'$ , are on the circle whose diameter is  $nq$ .

Let  $s$  be the intersection of  $oo$ , with  $pp$ ,; then  $osp = 180^\circ - \left( \begin{matrix} + \angle spq \\ + \angle qos \end{matrix} \right)$

$$= 180^\circ - \left( \begin{matrix} + \angle p, mq \\ + \angle o, mq \end{matrix} \right) = 180^\circ - \left( \begin{matrix} + 90^\circ - \angle nqp, \\ + 90^\circ - \angle mgo, \end{matrix} \right) = \angle nqp, + \angle mgo,$$

$$= 180^\circ - \angle nqm = 90^\circ.$$

Hence,  $oo$ , is perpendicular to  $pp$ .

Q. E. D.

**Equations of the First Degree.**

Assume (Fig. 1) any two points  $\alpha$  and  $\omega$ ; join them by a straight line; upon this line describe a circumference; select on this circumference any point  $a$ ; represent the angle  $\alpha a \omega$  by  $\gamma$ , the distance  $\alpha a$  by  $A$ ,  $a \omega$  by  $B$ ; and we shall then

$$\text{have } \frac{\cot \gamma}{\alpha a} = \frac{B}{A} = \cot. \gamma =$$

the cotangent of the angle whose vertex is at  $\omega$  and whose sides pass through the starting point  $\alpha$  and the assumed point  $a$ .

Now, if we have any equation of the first degree, containing but one variable, it can be placed under the general form of  $Ax + B = 0$ ,

whose root is evidently  $x = -\frac{B}{A}$ .

Therefore, if by any convenient scale, we lay off a distance  $\alpha a$  equal to  $A$ , draw through  $a$  a perpendicular to  $\alpha a$ , and lay off  $a \omega$  equal to  $B$ , (positive distances being measured from  $a$  towards  $\omega$  in the direction employed in Fig. 1) we shall evidently have  $\frac{a \omega}{\alpha a} = \frac{B}{A} = -(\text{the root of the given equation})$ ; and the rectangular contour\*  $\alpha a \omega = AB$  may be taken as representing an equation  $Ax + B = 0$ , whose root, taken with its sign changed, is  $\frac{a \omega}{\alpha a} = \frac{B}{A}$ .

**Equations of the Second Degree.**

Let  $\alpha$ ,  $a$ , and  $\omega$ , (Fig. 2), represent the same quantities as in Fig. 1; let  $b$  be any other point on the circumference  $\alpha a \omega$ ; through  $ab$  draw a straight line; from  $\alpha$  and  $\omega$ , let fall the perpendiculars  $\alpha a'$  and  $\omega b'$ , upon the line  $ab$ ; represent  $\alpha a$  by  $A$ ,  $a \omega$  by  $B$ ,  $\alpha b$  by  $A'$ , and  $b \omega$  by  $B'$ , the  $\angle \alpha a \omega$  by  $\gamma$ ,  $\angle \alpha a b$  by  $\gamma'$ .

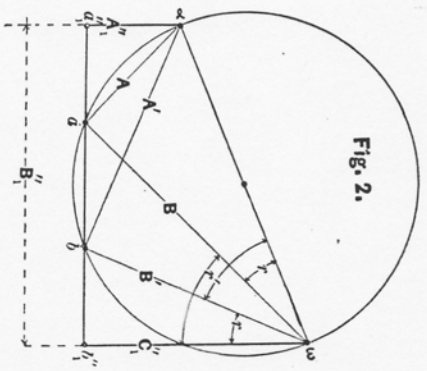
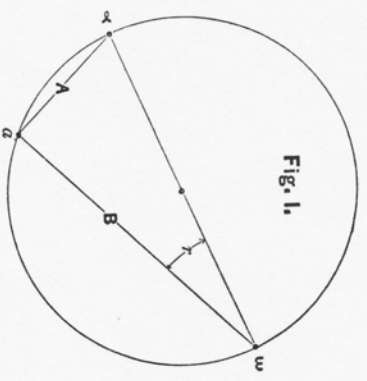
Then  $\cot. \gamma = \frac{B}{A}$ , and

$$\cot. \gamma' = \frac{B'}{A'}. \quad (1)$$

From Lemma I, we have  $\angle b, \alpha \omega =$

$$\begin{aligned} \angle \alpha a \omega = \gamma, \text{ and } \angle b, \alpha \omega = \alpha a', \alpha \omega &= \angle \alpha a b = \gamma'; \\ \text{also } \left. \begin{matrix} \angle b, \alpha \omega = \alpha a', \alpha \omega \\ \angle b, \omega a = b \omega', \omega a \end{matrix} \right\} & (2) \end{aligned}$$

\* By "rectangular contour" is meant a broken line in which each straight portion is perpendicular to each of the adjacent portions.





A, B, C, we get a four-sided contour whose fourth side as before must make with the line  $\alpha \omega$ , an angle equal to  $\gamma + \gamma' + \gamma''$ ; this fourth side must then coincide in direction with  $\omega \epsilon''$ ; the third side must contain the point  $b$ , and be perpendicular to the fourth side, and hence must coincide with  $c'' b''$ ; for a similar reason the second side must coincide with  $b'' a''$ , the first side with  $a'' \alpha$ .

Combining the contours  $A', B', C'$  and  $A'', B'', C''$  we get a similar result.

Hence the three three-sided rectangular contours A, B, C,  $A', B', C'$ , and  $A'', B'', C''$ , have all their vertices resting upon the sides of a single four-sided rectangular contour  $\alpha a'' b'' c''$ ,  $\omega = A'' B'' C'' D''$ ; all four contours commencing at  $\alpha$  and ending at  $\omega$ .

From similar triangles,

$$\begin{aligned} \angle \alpha a'' a'' &= \angle a'' b'' b'' = \angle b'' \omega \omega'' = \gamma'' \\ (\text{Lemma I}) \angle \omega b'' b'' &= (\text{Lemma I}) \angle \alpha \omega \omega'' = \gamma'' \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

and in like manner

$$\begin{aligned} \angle \alpha a' a'' &= \angle a' b' b'' = \angle b' \omega \omega'' \\ &= \angle \omega b' b'' = \angle \alpha \omega \omega'' = \gamma' \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \angle \alpha a'' a'' &= \angle a'' b'' b'' = \angle b'' \omega \omega'' \\ &= \angle \omega b'' b'' = \angle \alpha \omega \omega'' = \gamma \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

From triangles  $\alpha a'' a''$ ,  $A'' = A'' \sin \gamma''$ , but (5)  $A'' = \frac{AA'}{\delta}$ , and (4)  $\sin \gamma'' = \frac{A''}{\delta}$ ; hence  $A'' = \frac{AA'}{\delta} \cdot \frac{A''}{\delta} = \frac{AA' A''}{\delta^2}$  (9)

Lemma II. applied to points  $\alpha a'' a'' a''$  gives  $a'' a'' a'' = a'' a'' a''$ ; applied to  $\alpha a' a'' a''$ , gives  $a' a'' a'' = a'' a'' a''$ ; (10)

applied to  $\alpha a b \omega$ , gives  $a'' b = a b \omega''$ ; whence, by similar triangles,  $a'' b a'' = a \omega b''$  (12) whence (11) (12)  $a \omega b'' = a'' a'' a''$ . (13)

But

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{B''}{A''} &= \frac{a'' a''}{\alpha a''} &= \frac{a'' a''}{A''} \\ \frac{B'}{A'} &= \frac{a'' a''}{\alpha a''} &= \frac{a'' a''}{A''} \\ \frac{B}{A} &= \frac{a'' a''}{\alpha a''} &= \frac{a'' a''}{A''} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (14)$$

and adding equations (14) member to member, we get

$$\frac{B''}{A''} + \frac{B'}{A'} + \frac{B}{A} = \frac{B''}{A''} + \frac{B'}{A'} + \frac{B}{A} \quad \frac{AA' A''}{\delta^2} \quad (15)$$

Now,  $D'' = C'' \cos \gamma'' = B' \cos \gamma' = B'' \cos \gamma'' = B' \cdot \frac{B''}{\delta} \cdot \frac{B''}{\delta}$ ,

hence  $D'' = \frac{BB' B''}{\delta^2}$  (16)

Treating  $c'' b''$ , as we have just treated  $a'' b''$ , we find  $c'' b'' = b' c''$ , and  $c'' b'' = c'' b''$ , and  $\frac{c'' b''}{\omega c''} = \frac{c'' b''}{D} = \tan \gamma = \frac{A}{B}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{b' c''}{\omega c''} &= \frac{c'' b''}{D''} = \tan \gamma' = \frac{A'}{B'} \\ \frac{c'' b''}{\omega c''} &= \frac{c'' b''}{D''} = \tan \gamma'' = \frac{A''}{B''} \end{aligned} \quad \text{whence, adding,} \quad (17)$$

Now, if we have any equation of the third degree, containing but one variable, it can be placed under the general form of  $A'' x^3 + B'' x^2 + C'' x + D'' = 0$  whose roots will be  $x = -\frac{A''}{B''}$ ,  $x = -\frac{A''}{B''}$ ,  $x = -\frac{A''}{B''}$ , if  $A'' = AA' A''$ ,  $B'' = AA' B'' + AB' A'' + BA' A''$ ,  $C'' = AB' B'' + BA' B'' + BB' A''$ , and  $D'' = BB' B''$ .

Therefore, from any point  $\alpha$ , and with any convenient scale, lay off (Fig. 3)  $\alpha a'' = A''$ ; from the extremity of, and perpendicular to,  $A''$ , lay off  $a'' b'' = B''$  (positive distance being measured from  $a''$ , towards  $b''$ , in the direction employed in Fig. 3); in like manner, lay off  $b'' c'' = C''$ ,  $c'' \omega = D''$ , and we shall then have a four-sided rectangular contour which may be regarded as representing the equation  $[A'' x^3 + B'' x^2 + C'' x + D'' = 0]$  equal (Eq. 9, 15, 16, 17) to  $[AA' A'' x^3 + (AA' B'' + AB' A'' + BA' A'') x^2 + (AB' B'' + BA' B'' + BB' A'') x + BB' B''] \left(\frac{1}{\delta^2}\right) = 0 = [A'' x + B'' = 0] (A'' x + B'' = 0) (A'' x + B'' = 0)]$  where the three-sided rectangular contours  $A' B' C'$ ,  $A'' B'' C''$ ,  $A'' B'' C''$ , represent respectively  $[A'' x + B'' = 0] (A'' x + B'' = 0) = 0$ ,  $[A'' x + B'' = 0] (A'' x + B'' = 0) = 0$ , and  $[A'' x + B'' = 0] (A'' x + B'' = 0) = 0$ ; the vertices in all three cases resting upon the contour  $A'' B'' C'' D''$ ; the roots of the given equation being equal, with changed sign, to  $\frac{1}{A''}$  multiplied into that portion of  $B''$ , which lies between  $A''$ , and the straight lines  $A'$ ,  $A''$  and  $A''$ , respectively.

**Equations of higher than the Third Degree.**

The preceding method can be readily extended to include numerical equations of any degree, if containing but one variable. For equations of the fourth degree, we shall find one contour of five sides, four of four sides, six of three sides, four of two sides, all resting upon the ends of the single line  $\alpha \omega$ . For equations of the fifth degree, we shall find one contour of six sides, five of five sides, ten of four sides, ten of three sides, five of two sides, and one (the diameter  $\alpha \omega$ ) of one side.

For equations of still higher degrees the number of the resulting contours evidently correspond to the terms of the series.



$$1, n, \frac{n(n-1)}{1.2}, \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{1.2.3} \dots \frac{n(n-1)(n-2) \dots 3.2.1}{1.2.3 \dots (n-2)(n-1)n}.$$

In theory this method is perfect for real roots; and it will indicate the presence and number of imaginary roots.

In practice, the method is rigorous only for equations of the second degree; in equations of higher degrees it gives only approximate results; and, in general practice, it is limited, for obvious reasons, to those real roots which lie between 0 and  $\pm 4.0$ , within which limits it has however a wide and ready application.

APPLICATIONS.

Assume a broken line, as in Fig. 4, all the angles being right angles, lettering the straight portions from its commencement, in order, A B C D E F G, etc.; place upon these lines arrow-heads (as in the figure) to show the *directions in which distances* measured upon these lines A B C, etc., are to be regarded as *positive*.

Then any distance measured on A or E will be positive, if measured downwards; upon B and F, positive, if measured from left to right; on C and G,

positive, if measured upward; on D and H, positive, if measured from right to left; and so on. Negative values of A B C D, etc., must always be measured in exactly the opposite directions to those just given.

Now suppose any numerical equation containing but one variable  $x$ ; reduce it to the general form,

$$A x^n + B x^{n-1} + C x^{n-2} + \dots + T x + U = 0,$$

in which  $A_n$  is a positive number, either whole or fractional.

Commence, on a blank sheet of paper, at any assumed point  $\alpha$ , and using any convenient scale, lay off in a downward direction a distance  $\alpha$  equal to  $A_n$ ; through  $\alpha$ , draw a perpendicular, and lay off upon it with the same scale as before, the value of  $B_n$  (laying off this distance to the right if  $B_n$  is positive, to the left, if  $B_n$  is negative); through the end of  $B_n$ , draw a perpendicular to  $B_n$ , upon which lay off the value of  $C_n$ , upward if positive, downward if negative; and so on, laying off positive distances always in the directions indicated by the arrow-heads of Fig. 5. Letter the end of the last line  $\omega$ . We will then have a rectangular contour (that is, a broken line all of whose angles are right angles) of  $n + 1$  sides commencing at  $\alpha$  and ending at  $\omega$ .

Now starting again at  $\alpha$ , draw at random any straight line cutting  $B_n$  in some point as  $b$ ; through  $b$  draw a perpendicular to  $\alpha$  cutting  $C_n$  in some point as  $b'$ , and so on; the result will be a new rectangular

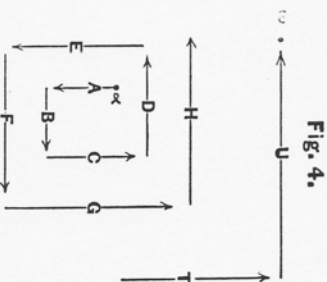


Fig. 4.

