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# HENSEL CODES OF SQUARE ROOTS OF P-ADIC NUMBERS 

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#### Abstract

In this work we are concerned with the calculation of the Hensel codes of square roots of $p$-adic numbers, using the fixed point method and this through the calculation of the approached solution of $f(x)=x^{2}-a=0$ in $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$. We also determine the speed of convergence and the number of iterations.


## 1. INTRODUCTION

The knowledge of the arithmetic and algebraic properties of the $p$-adic numbers is useful to the study of their Diophantine properties and the problems of approximations. In this present paper we will see how we can use classical rootfinding methods (fixed point) and explore a very interesting application of tools from numerical analysis to number theory. We use this method to calculate the zero of a $p$-adic continuous function $f$ defined on a domain $D \subset \mathbb{Q}_{p}$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f \quad: \quad \mathbb{Q}_{p} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}_{p} \\
& x \mapsto f(x) .
\end{aligned}
$$

To calculate the square root of a $p$-adic number $a \in \mathbb{Q}_{p}^{*}$, one studies the following problem

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
f(x)=x^{2}-a=0  \tag{1}\\
a \in \mathbb{Q}_{p}^{*}, \quad p-\text { prime number } .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Our goal is to calculate the Hensel code of $\sqrt{a}$, which means to determine the first numbers of the $p$-adic development of the solution of the previous equation,

[^0]and this solution is approached by a sequence of the $p$-adic numbers $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n} \subset \mathbb{Q}_{p}^{*}$ constructed by the fixed point method. We first encountered this idea in [4] where the authors used the numerical methods to find the reciprocal of an integer modulo $p^{n}$ (see [4] for more details).

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## 2. PRELIMINARIES

Definition 2.1. Let $p$ be a prime number. The field of p-adic numbers $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ is defined as the completion of the field of rational numbers with respect to the p-adic metric determined by the p-adic norm. Thus, $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ is obtained from the p-adic norm in the same way as the real field $\mathbb{R}$ is obtained from the usual absolute value as the completion of $\mathbb{Q}$.
Here, the function $|\cdot|_{p}$ is called the $p$-adic norm and is defined by

$$
\forall x \in \mathbb{Q}_{p}:|x|_{p}= \begin{cases}p^{-v_{p}(x)} & \text { if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text { if } x=0\end{cases}
$$

and $v_{p}$ is the $p$-adic valuation defined by $v_{p}(x)=\max \left\{r \in \mathbb{Z}: p^{r} \mid x\right\}$. The p-adic distance $d_{p}$ is defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{p} & : \mathbb{Q}_{p} \times \mathbb{Q}_{p} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{+} \cup\{0\} \\
(x, y) & \mapsto d_{p}(x, y)=|x-y|_{p} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 2.2. Every p-adic number $a \in \mathbb{Q}_{p}$ has a unique p-adic expansion

$$
a=\lambda_{n} p^{n}+\lambda_{n+1} p^{n+1}+\cdots+\lambda_{-1} p^{-1}+\lambda_{0}+\lambda_{1} p+\lambda_{2} p^{2}+\cdots=\sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \lambda_{k} p^{k}
$$

with $\lambda_{k} \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $0 \leq \lambda_{k} \leq p-1$ for each $k \geq n$.
The short representation of $a$ is $\lambda_{n} \lambda_{n+1} \ldots \lambda_{-1} \cdot \lambda_{0} \lambda_{1} \ldots$, where only the coefficients of the powers of $p$ are shown. We can use the $p$-adic point $\cdot$ as a device for displaying the sign of $n$ as follows:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\lambda_{n} \lambda_{n+1} \ldots \lambda_{-1} \cdot \lambda_{0} \lambda_{1} \ldots \text { for } n<0 \\
\cdot \lambda_{0} \lambda_{1} \ldots \text { for } n=0 \\
\cdot 00 \ldots 0 \lambda_{0} \lambda_{1} \ldots \text { for } n>0 .
\end{array}
$$

Definition 2.3. A p-adic number $a \in \mathbb{Q}_{p}$ is said to be a p-adic integer if this canonical development contains only non negative powers of $p$. The set of p-adic
integers is denoted by $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$. So we have

$$
\mathbb{Z}_{p}=\left\{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lambda_{k} p^{k}, 0 \leq \lambda_{k} \leq p-1\right\}=\left\{a \in \mathbb{Q}_{p}:|a|_{p} \leq 1\right\}
$$

Definition 2.4. A p-adic integer $a \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ is said to be a p-adic unit if the first digit $\lambda_{0}$ in the p-adic development is different from zero. The set of p-adic units is denoted by $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$. Hence we have

$$
\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}=\left\{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lambda_{k} p^{k}, \lambda_{0} \neq 0\right\}=\left\{a \in \mathbb{Q}_{p}:|a|_{p}=1\right\} .
$$

Proposition 2.5. Let a be a p-adic number. Then a can be written as the product $a=p^{n} \cdot u, n \in \mathbb{Z}, u \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$.

Definition 2.6. Let $p$ be a prime number. Then the Hensel code of length $M$ of any p-adic number $a=p^{m} \cdot u \in \mathbb{Q}_{p}$ is the pair $\left(\operatorname{mant}_{a}, \exp _{a}\right)$, where the left most $M$ digits and the value $m$ of the related $p$-adic development are called the mantissa and the exponent, respectively. We use the notation $H(p, M, a)$ where $p$ is a prime and $M$ is the integer which specifies the number of digits of the p-adic development. One writes

$$
H(p, M, a)=\left(a_{m} a_{m+1} \ldots \cdot a_{0} a_{1} \ldots a_{t}, m\right)
$$

where $M=|m|+t+1$.
See also [1] for more general results concerning the Hensel code.
Lemma 2.7. (Hensel's Lemma) Let

$$
F(x)=c_{0}+c_{1} x+c_{2} x^{2}+\cdots+c_{n} x^{n}
$$

be a polynomial whose coefficients are p-adic integers. Let

$$
F^{\prime}(x)=c_{1}+2 c_{2} x+\cdots+n c_{n} x^{n-1}
$$

be the derivative of $F(x)$. Suppose $\bar{a}_{0}$ is a p-adic integer which satisfies $F\left(\bar{a}_{0}\right) \equiv 0$ $(\bmod p)$ and $F^{\prime}\left(\bar{a}_{0}\right) \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. Then there exists a unique $p$-adic integer a such that $F(a)=0$ and $a \equiv \bar{a}_{0}(\bmod p)$.

Proof. For the proof of this result we refer the reader to [5].
The following theorem makes an important connection between $p$-adic numbers and congruences.

Theorem 2.8. A polynomial with integer coefficients has a root in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ if and only if it has an integer root modulo $p^{k}$ for every $k \geq 1$.

Proof. For the proof see [5].

A practical consequence of Theorem 2.8 is the following.
Proposition 2.9. A rational integer a not divisible by $p$ has a square root in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ ( $p \neq 2$ ) if and only if $a$ is a quadratic residue modulo $p$.

Proof. Let $P(x)=x^{2}-a$. Then $P^{\prime}(x)=2 x$. If $a$ is a quadratic residue, then

$$
a \equiv a_{0}^{2} \quad(\bmod p)
$$

for some $a_{0} \in\{0,1,2, \ldots, p-1\}$. Hence $P\left(a_{0}\right) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. But

$$
P^{\prime}\left(a_{0}\right)=2 a_{0} \not \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod p)
$$

automatically since $\left(a_{0}, p\right)=1$, so that the solution in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ exists by Hensel's lemma. Conversely, if $a$ is a quadratic nonresidue, by Theorem 2.8 it has no square root in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$.

This can actually be extended to
Corollary 2.10. Let $p \neq 2$ be a prime. An element $x \in \mathbb{Q}_{p}$ is a square if and only if it can be written $x=p^{2 n} y^{2}$ with $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $y \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$ a p-adic unit.

Proof. For the proof of this result we refer the reader to [3].

## 3. MAIN RESULTS

Let $a \in \mathbb{Q}_{p}^{*}$ be a $p$-adic number such that

$$
|a|_{p}=p^{-v_{p}(a)}=p^{-2 m}, m \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

If $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n}$ is a sequence of $p$-adic numbers that converges to a $p$-adic number $\alpha \neq 0$, then from a certain rank one has

$$
\left|x_{n}\right|_{p}=|\alpha|_{p}
$$

We also know that if there exists a $p$-adic number $\alpha$ such that $\alpha^{2}=a$, then $v_{p}(a)$ is even and

$$
\left|x_{n}\right|_{p}=|\alpha|_{p}=p^{-m} .
$$

### 3.1 Fixed point method

To use the fixed point method we study the zeros of the equation $f(x)=0$ by studying a related equation $x=g(x)$, with the condition that these two formulations are mathematically equivalent. To improve the speed of convergence of the sequence $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n}$, one defines a new sequence that converges more quickly toward the solution of the equation proposed. The conditions that permit the determination of the function $g(x)$ are:

1) $g(\sqrt{a})=\sqrt{a}, g^{(1)}(\sqrt{a})=\ldots=g^{(s-1)}(\sqrt{a})=0, g^{(s)}(\sqrt{a}) \neq 0$,
2) The polynomial $g(x)$ must not have the square root of $a$ in its coefficients.

In order to choose $g(x)$, we know that if $\sqrt{a}$ is a root of order $s$ of $(g(x)-\sqrt{a})$, then there is a polynomial $h(x)$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(x)=\sqrt{a}+(x-\sqrt{a})^{s} h(x) . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The conditions that permit the determination of $h(x)$ are:
i. The polynomial $g(x)$ must not have $\sqrt{a}$ in its coefficients
ii. $h(x)$ depends upon the natural number $s$.

To determine the formula for $h(x)$, it is sufficient to work with the undetermined coefficients and to write the wanted conditions.
Let's consider the following cases.
Case 1: $s=1$. We have

$$
g(x)=\sqrt{a}+(x-\sqrt{a}) h(x) .
$$

One chooses $h(x)$ in order to make the square roots of $a$ in the coefficients of $g(x)$ disappear. For this, we put

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(x)=\alpha_{0} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

This gives $\alpha_{0}=1$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(x)=x . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Case 2: $s=2$. We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(x)=\sqrt{a}+(x-\sqrt{a})^{2} h(x) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We put

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(x)=\alpha_{0}+\alpha_{1} x, \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

and get

$$
\alpha_{0}=-\frac{1}{a^{1 / 2}}, \alpha_{1}=-\frac{1}{2 a} .
$$

Then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(x)=-\frac{1}{2 a}(x+2 \sqrt{a}) \text { and } g(x)=\frac{3}{2} x-\frac{1}{2 a} x^{3} . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

The sequence associated to $g(x)$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: x_{n+1}=\frac{3}{2} x_{n}-\frac{1}{2 a} x_{n}^{3} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 3.1. If $x_{n_{0}}$ is the square root of $a$ of order $r$, then

1) If $p \neq 2$, then $x_{n+n_{0}}$ is the square root of $a$ of order $2^{n} r-2\left(2^{n}-1\right) m$.
2) If $p=2$, then $x_{n+n_{0}}$ is the square root of a of order $2^{n} r-2(m+1)\left(2^{n}-1\right)$.

Proof. Let $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n}$ the sequence defined by (8). Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: x_{n+1}^{2}-a=-\frac{1}{4 a^{2}}\left(4 a-x_{n}^{2}\right)\left(a-x_{n}^{2}\right)^{2} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

We put

$$
\Omega(x)=-\frac{1}{4 a^{2}}\left(4 a-x^{2}\right)
$$

Since

$$
|4|_{p}= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{4} & \text { if } p=2  \tag{10}\\ 1 & \text { if } p \neq 2\end{cases}
$$

we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\Omega\left(x_{n_{0}}\right)\right|_{p} & =\left|-\frac{1}{4 a^{2}}\left(4 a-x_{n_{0}}^{2}\right)\right|_{p} \\
& \leq\left|\frac{1}{4}\right|_{p} \cdot\left|\frac{1}{a^{2}}\right|_{p} \max \left\{|4 a|_{p},\left|x_{n_{0}}^{2}\right|_{p}\right\} \\
& \leq \begin{cases}p^{4 m} \cdot \max \left\{p^{-2 m}, p^{-2 m}\right\} & \text { if } p \neq 2 \\
2^{2} \cdot 2^{4 m} \max \left\{2^{-2} \cdot 2^{-2 m}, 2^{-2 m}\right\} & \text { if } p=2\end{cases} \\
& \leq \begin{cases}p^{2 m} & \text { if } p \neq 2 \\
2^{2 m+2} & \text { if } p=2 .\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

This gives

$$
\left|x_{n_{0}+1}^{2}-a\right|_{p}=\left|\Omega\left(x_{n_{0}}\right)\right|_{p} \cdot\left|a-x_{n_{0}}^{2}\right|_{p}^{2},
$$

and so we have

$$
\begin{cases}\left|x_{n_{0}+1}^{2}-a\right|_{p} \leq p^{2 m} \cdot p^{-2 r} & \text { if } p \neq 2 \\ \left|x_{n_{0}+1}^{2}-a\right|_{2} \leq 2^{2 m+2} \cdot 2^{-2 r} & \text { if } p=2\end{cases}
$$

Then

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
x_{n_{0}+1}^{2}-a \equiv 0 & \left(\bmod p^{2 r-2 m}\right) & \text { if } p \neq 2 \\
x_{n_{0}+1}^{2}-a \equiv 0 & \left(\bmod 2^{2 r-2(m+1)}\right) & \text { if } p=2
\end{array}\right.
$$

In this manner, we find that if $p \neq 2$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: x_{n+n_{0}}^{2}-a \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod p^{\gamma_{n}}\right) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the sequence $\left(\gamma_{n}\right)_{n}$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: \gamma_{n}=2^{n} r-2\left(2^{n}-1\right) m \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $p=2$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: x_{n+n_{0}}^{2}-a \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod 2^{\gamma_{n}^{\prime}}\right) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\left(\gamma_{n}^{\prime}\right)_{n}$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: \gamma_{n}^{\prime}=\gamma_{n}-2\left(2^{n}-1\right)=2^{n} r-2(m+1)\left(2^{n}-1\right) \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: x_{n+1}-x_{n}=\left(-\frac{x_{n}}{2 a}\right)\left(x_{n}^{2}-a\right) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since

$$
|2|_{p}= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{2} & \text { if } p=2  \tag{16}\\ 1 & \text { if } p \neq 2\end{cases}
$$

we have

$$
\left|x_{n+n_{0}+1}-x_{n+n_{0}}\right|_{p}=\left|\frac{x_{n+n_{0}}}{2 a}\right|_{p} \cdot\left|x_{n+n_{0}}^{2}-a\right|_{p}
$$

Hence we obtain

$$
\begin{cases}\left|x_{n+n_{0}+1}-x_{n+n_{0}}\right|_{p} \leq p^{2 m} \cdot p^{-m} \cdot p^{-\gamma_{n}} & \text { if } p \neq 2 \\ \left|x_{n+n_{0}+1}-x_{n+n_{0}}\right|_{2} \leq 2 \cdot 2^{2 m} \cdot 2^{-m} \cdot 2^{-\gamma_{n}^{\prime}} & \text { if } p=2\end{cases}
$$

and so

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
x_{n+n_{0}+1}-x_{n+n_{0}} \equiv 0 & \left(\bmod p^{\gamma_{n}-m}\right) & \text { if } p \neq 2 \\
x_{n+n_{0}+1}-x_{n+n_{0}} \equiv 0 & \left(\bmod 2^{\gamma_{n}^{\prime}-(m+1)}\right) & \text { if } p=2
\end{array}\right.
$$

Therefore, if $p \neq 2$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: x_{n+n_{0}+1}-x_{n+n_{0}} \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod p^{v_{n}}\right) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: v_{n}=\gamma_{n}-m=2^{n} r-\left(2^{n+1}-1\right) m \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $p=2$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: x_{n+n_{0}+1}-x_{n+n_{0}} \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod 2^{v_{n}^{\prime}}\right) \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: v_{n}^{\prime}=v_{n}-\left(2^{n+1}-1\right)=2^{n} r-\left(2^{n+1}-1\right)(m+1)
$$

## Conclusion 3.2.

1. If $p \neq 2$, then the following are true.
(a) The speed of convergence of the sequence $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n}$ is the order $v_{n}$.
(b) If $r-2 m>0$, then the number of iterations to obtain $M$ correct digits is

$$
\begin{equation*}
n=\left[\frac{\ln \left(\frac{M-m}{r-2 m}\right)}{\ln 2}\right]+1 \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

(c) With Hensel codes the equation (8) takes the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
H\left(p, 2^{n} r-\left(2^{n+1}-1\right) \cdot m, x\right) & =H(p, \infty, 3 / 2) \cdot H\left(p, 2^{n-1} r-\left(2^{n}-1\right) \cdot m, x\right) \\
& -H(p, \infty, 1 / 2) \cdot \frac{H^{3}\left(p, 2^{n-1} r-\left(2^{n}-1\right) \cdot m, x\right)}{H^{2}(p, \infty, x)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

2. If $p=2$, then the following are true.
(a) The speed of convergence of the sequence $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n}$ is the order $v_{n}^{\prime}$.
(b) If $r-2(m+1)>0$, then the necessary number $n$ of iterations to obtain $M$ correct digits is

$$
\begin{equation*}
n=\left[\frac{\ln \left(\frac{M-(m+1)}{r-2(m+1)}\right)}{\ln 2}\right]+1 \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

(c) With the Hensel codes the equation (8) takes the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
H\left(2,2^{n} r-\left(2^{n+1}-1\right)\right. & (m+1), x) \\
& =H(2, \infty, 3 / 2) \cdot H\left(2,2^{n-1} r-\left(2^{n}-1\right) \cdot(m+1), x\right) \\
& -H(2, \infty, 1 / 2) \cdot \frac{H^{3}\left(2,2^{n-1} r-\left(2^{n}-1\right) \cdot(m+1), x\right)}{H^{2}(2, \infty, x)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let's consider for $p \neq 2$ the sets defined by

$$
\begin{cases}S_{1}=\left\{a \in \mathbb{Q}_{p}:|a|_{p}=1\right\} & \text { if } m=0  \tag{22}\\ S_{2}=\left\{a \in \mathbb{Q}_{p}:|a|_{p}<1\right\} & \text { if } m>0 \\ S_{3}=\left\{a \in \mathbb{Q}_{p}:|a|_{p}>1\right\} & \text { if } m<0 .\end{cases}
$$

We put

$$
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: \begin{cases}v_{n}^{(1)}=2^{n} r & \text { if } m=0  \tag{23}\\ v_{n}^{(2)}=2^{n} r-\left(2^{n+1}-1\right) m & \text { if } m>0 \\ v_{n}^{(3)}=2^{n} r-\left(2^{n+1}-1\right) m & \text { if } m<0\end{cases}
$$

For $p=2$, we consider the sets defined by

$$
\begin{cases}B_{1}=\left\{a \in \mathbb{Q}_{2}:|a|_{2}=4\right\} & \text { if } m=-1  \tag{24}\\ B_{2}=\left\{a \in \mathbb{Q}_{2}:|a|_{2}<4\right\} & \text { if } m>-1 \\ B_{3}=\left\{a \in \mathbb{Q}_{2}:|a|_{2}>4\right\} & \text { if } m<-1 .\end{cases}
$$

We put

$$
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: \begin{cases}v_{n}^{\prime(1)}=2^{n} r & \text { if } m=-1  \tag{25}\\ v_{n}^{\prime(2)}=2^{n} r-\left(2^{n+1}-1\right)(m+1) & \text { if } m>-1 \\ v_{n}^{\prime(3)}=2^{n} r-\left(2^{n+1}-1\right)(m+1) & \\ \text { if } m<-1 .\end{cases}
$$

Then we have the following corollary.

## Corollary 3.3.

1. If $p \neq 2$, then we have the following.
(a) If $m=0$, then we have quadratic convergence for all the $p$-adic numbers which belong to the set $S_{1}$.
(b) If $m<0$, then the speed of convergence is faster for all the $p$-adic numbers which belong to the set $S_{3}$.
(c) If $m>0$, then the speed of convergence is slower for all the $p$-adic numbers which belong to the set $S_{2}$.
2. If $p=2$, then we have the following.
(a) If $m=-1$, then one has quadratic convergence for all the 2 -adic numbers which belong to $B_{1}$.
(b) If $m<-1$, then the speed of convergence is faster for all the 2 -adic numbers which belong to the set $B_{3}$.
(c) If $m>-1$, then the speed of convergence is slower for all the 2-adic numbers which belong to the set $B_{2}$.

Case 3: $s=3$. We put

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
g(x)=\sqrt{a}+(x-\sqrt{a})^{3} h(x)  \tag{26}\\
h(x)=\alpha_{0}+\alpha_{1} x+\alpha_{2} x^{2} .
\end{array}\right.
$$

One finds that

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
h(x)=\frac{1}{a}+\frac{9}{8 a \sqrt{a}} x+\frac{3}{8 a^{2}} x^{2}  \tag{27}\\
g(x)=\frac{15}{8} x-\frac{5}{4 a} x^{3}+\frac{3}{8 a^{2}} x^{5} .
\end{array}\right.
$$

The sequence associated to $g(x)$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: x_{n+1}=\frac{3}{8 a^{2}} x_{n}^{5}-\frac{5}{4 a} x_{n}^{3}+\frac{15}{8} x_{n} \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n}$ the sequence defined by (28). Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: x_{n+1}^{2}-a=\left(a-x_{n}^{2}\right)^{3}\left(-\frac{1}{a^{2}}+\frac{33}{64 a^{3}} x_{n}^{2}-\frac{9}{64 a^{4}} x_{n}^{4}\right) \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 3.4. If $x_{n_{0}}$ is the square root of a of order $r$, then the following are true.

1) If $p \neq 2$, then $x_{n+n_{0}}$ is the square root of a of order $3^{n} r-2\left(3^{n}-1\right) m$.
2) If $p=2$, then $x_{n+n_{0}}$ is the square root of a of order $3^{n} r-\left(3^{n}-1\right)(2 m+3)$.

Proof. For the proof of this theorem, we use the method that we applied in the case where $s=2$.

From this theorem, we get that if $p \neq 2$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: x_{n+n_{0}}^{2}-a \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod p^{\pi_{n}}\right) \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\left(\pi_{n}\right)_{n}$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: \pi_{n}=3^{n} r-2\left(3^{n}-1\right) m \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $p=2$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: x_{n+n_{0}}^{2}-a \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod 2^{\pi_{n}^{\prime}}\right) \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\left(\pi_{n}^{\prime}\right)_{n}$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: \pi_{n}^{\prime}=3^{n} r-\left(3^{n}-1\right)(2 m+3) \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: x_{n+1}-x_{n}=\left(a-x_{n}^{2}\right)\left(\frac{7}{8 a} x_{n}-\frac{3}{8 a^{2}} x_{n}^{3}\right) \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then if $p \neq 2$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: x_{n+n_{0}+1}-x_{n+n_{0}} \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod p^{\Sigma_{n}}\right) \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\left(\Sigma_{n}\right)_{n}$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: \Sigma_{n}=3^{n} r-\left(2 \cdot 3^{n}-1\right) m \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $p=2$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: x_{n+n_{0}+1}-x_{n+n_{0}} \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod 2^{\Sigma_{n}^{\prime}}\right) \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: \Sigma_{n}^{\prime}=3^{n} r-\left(\left(2 \cdot 3^{n}-1\right) m+3^{n+1}\right) \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Conclusion 3.5.

1. If $p \neq 2$, then the following are true.
(a) The speed of convergence of the sequence $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n}$ is the order $\Sigma_{n}$.
(b) If $r-2 m>0$, then the number $n$ of necessary iterations to obtain $M$ correct digits is

$$
\begin{equation*}
n=\left[\frac{\ln \left(\frac{M-m}{r-2 m}\right)}{\ln 3}\right]+1 \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

(c) With Hensel codes the equation (28) takes the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
H\left(p, 3^{n} r-\left(2 \cdot 3^{n}\right.\right. & -1) \cdot m, x) \\
& =H(p, \infty, 3 / 8) \cdot \frac{H^{5}\left(p, 3^{n-1} r-\left(2 \cdot 3^{n-1}-1\right) \cdot m, x\right)}{H^{4}(p, \infty, x)} \\
& +H(p, \infty,-5 / 4) \cdot \frac{H^{3}\left(p, 3^{n-1} r-\left(2 \cdot 3^{n-1}-1\right) \cdot m, x\right)}{H^{2}(p, \infty, x)} \\
& +H(p, \infty, 15 / 8) \cdot H\left(p, 3^{n-1} r-\left(2 \cdot 3^{n-1}-1\right) \cdot m, x\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

2. If $p=2$, then the following are true.
(a) The speed of convergence of the sequence $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n}$ is the order $\Sigma_{n}^{\prime}$.
(b) If $r-(2 m+3)>0$, then the necessary number of iterations to obtain $M$ correct digits is
(40)

$$
n=\left[\frac{\ln \left(\frac{M-m}{r-(2 m+3)}\right)}{\ln 3}\right]+1
$$

(c) With Hensel codes the equation (28) takes the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
H\left(2,3^{n} r\right. & \left.-\left(\left(2 \cdot 3^{n}-1\right) \cdot m+3^{n+1}\right), x\right) \\
& =H(2, \infty, 3 / 8) \cdot \frac{H^{5}\left(2,3^{n-1} r-\left(\left(2 \cdot 3^{n-1}-1\right) \cdot m+3^{n}\right), x\right)}{H^{4}(2, \infty, x)} \\
& +H(2, \infty,-5 / 4) \cdot \frac{H^{3}\left(2,3^{n-1} r-\left(\left(2 \cdot 3^{n-1}-1\right) \cdot m+3^{n}\right), x\right)}{H^{2}(2, \infty, x)} \\
& +H(2, \infty, 15 / 8) \cdot H\left(2,3^{n-1} r-\left(\left(2 \cdot 3^{n-1}-1\right) \cdot m+3^{n}\right), x\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

### 3.2 Generalization

Generally we can construct an iterative method that converges to $\sqrt{a}$ with a higher convergence rate. To accelerate the rate of convergence of the sequence $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n}$ as much as one wants, it is necessary to solve the problem of letting

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(x)=\sqrt{a}+(x-\sqrt{a})^{s} h(x, \sqrt{a}) \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

and choosing the function $h(x, \sqrt{a})$ in order to make the square roots of $a$ in coefficients of a function $g(x)$ disappear. We take the degree of the function $h(x)$ equal to $s-1$, giving

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(x)=\alpha_{0}+\alpha_{1} x+\alpha_{2} x^{2}+\cdots+\alpha_{s-1} x^{s-1}=\sum_{j=0}^{s-1} \alpha_{j} x^{j} . \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then
(43) $g(x)=\sqrt{a}+(x-\sqrt{a})^{s}\left(\alpha_{0}+\alpha_{1} x+\alpha_{2} x^{2}+\cdots+\alpha_{s-1} x^{s-1}\right)=\sum_{j=0}^{2 s-1} c_{j}\left(\alpha_{i}, \sqrt{a}\right) x^{j}$,
where, if $i \in\{0, \ldots, s-1\}$,
(44)

$$
c_{j}\left(\alpha_{i}, \sqrt{a}\right)= \begin{cases}\sqrt{a}+(-1)^{s}(\sqrt{a})^{s} \alpha_{0}, & \text { if } j=0 \\ \sum_{i=0}^{j} \alpha_{i}\binom{s}{j-i}(-1)^{s-j+i}(\sqrt{a})^{s-j+i}, & \text { if } j \in\{1, \ldots, 2 s-2\} \\ \alpha_{s-1}, & \text { if } j=2 s-1,\end{cases}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha_{i}=0, \quad \forall i>s-1 \tag{45}
\end{equation*}
$$

To generalize the fixed point method it is necessary that the coefficients of the even powers of $x$ are equal to zero and according to the different calculations that we made, we suppose that this condition is also sufficient until a certain $s$ sufficiently large, i.e

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall j \in\{0, \ldots, s-1\}:\left\{c_{2 k}\right\}_{k \in\{0, \ldots, j\}}=\{0\} \Leftrightarrow \sqrt{a} \notin\left\{c_{2 k+1}\right\}_{k \in\{0, \ldots, j\}} . \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, to determine $\left(\alpha_{i}\right)_{i \in\{0, \ldots, s-1\}}$ for any $s$, it is sufficient to solve the following linear system

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
c_{0}=\sqrt{a}+(-1)^{s}(\sqrt{a})^{s} \alpha_{0}=0  \tag{47}\\
c_{2}\left(\alpha_{i}, \sqrt{a}\right)=0 \\
c_{4}\left(\alpha_{i}, \sqrt{a}\right)=0 \\
\quad \vdots \\
c_{2 s-2}\left(\alpha_{i}, \sqrt{a}\right)=0 .
\end{array} \quad, 0 \leq i \leq s-1\right.
$$

We get

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(x)=c_{1}(a) x+c_{3}(a) x^{3}+\ldots+c_{2 s-1}(a) x^{2 s-1} \tag{48}
\end{equation*}
$$

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