# Optimal Starting Approximations for <br> Generating Square Root for Slow or No Divide 

M. Wayne Wilson<br>IBM Scienific Center, Houston, Texas

On machines with slow or no division, it is preferable to use an iterative scheme for the square root different from the classical Heron scheme. The problem of optimal initial approximants is considered, and some optimal polynomial initial approximations are tabulated.

KEY WORDS AND PHRASES: square root, Newton-Raphson iteration, optimal opproximants
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## Introduction

A number of papers in the past few years [1, 3, 5, 6, 7] have dealt with the problem of obtaining optimal starting approximations for the Heron or classical Newton-Raphson iteration scheme for square root. For machines where the ratio of multiplication speed to division speed is large, or where there is no divide, the "no division"' iteration scheme

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{n+1}=y_{n}\left(\frac{3}{2}-\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) y_{n}^{2}\right), \quad n=0,1,2, \cdots \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

which converges to $x^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, if it converges, is preferable. Assuming convergence, $x^{\frac{1}{2}}$ is simply

$$
x \cdot \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} y_{n}
$$

In this paper, optimal starting approximations for (1) and some computational procedures are discussed, and tables of optimal polynomial initial approximants are given.

A number of minor points should be made. In the context of slow or no division, rational initial approximants make little sense. The quantity $(x / 2)$ required in the iterations can be obtained once, generally without division. Finally, the iteration scheme (1) is the general NewtonRaphson scheme for finding a zero of $f(y)=x-1 / y^{2}$.

Added in proof: In papers to appear by D. L. Phillips (Math. of Comput.) and G. D. Taylor ( $J$. of Approx. Theory), it has been shown that the optimal polynomial above is a constant multiple of the best relative polynomial to $X^{-\frac{1}{3}}$.

Optimal Intial Appeximations
On the range $[a, b], 0<a<b<\infty$, let $y_{0}(x)$ be an approximant of some specified form. The relative error of the $n$th iterate $y_{n}(x)$ is then

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{n}(x)=\left[y_{n}(x)-x^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right] / x^{-\frac{1}{2}}=x^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot y_{n}(x)-1 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

One can then easily show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{n+1}(x)=-\frac{1}{2} R_{n}^{2}\left(R_{n}+3\right) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

(by manipulating (1) and (2)).
Examining the nature of the function $f(t)=-\frac{1}{2} l^{2}(t+3)$ shows:
(i) if $-3 \leq R_{0}(x) \leq 1$ then $-2 \leq R_{1}(x) \leq 0$;
(ii) if $-2 \leq R_{n}(x) \leq 0$ then $-2 \leq R_{n+1}(x) \leq 0$, $n=0,1,2, \cdots$.
Given some method of measuring the error of an approximant, we say that the approximant (of specified form) is a best fit if it minimizes the maximum magnitude of the error curve. As pointed out by Moursund [5], it is logical to choose $y_{0}(x)$ to be the best, fit for the relative error of the $L$ th iterate (where $L$ is the number of iterations we plan to use). Taking $y_{0}(x)$ as a best absolute or relative fit to $x^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ (see James and Jarratt [2]) does not do this. On the other hand, an approximant $y_{0}(x)$ is said to be optimal if it is a best fit for each iterate $y_{1}, y_{2}, \cdots$.

Theorem. If $y_{0}(x)$ is a best fit for the relative error of the first iterate, and if $0 \geq R_{1}(x) \geq-2$ or $1 \geq R_{0}(x) \geq$ -2 , then the approximant is optimal.

Proof. The function $f(t)=-\frac{1}{2} t^{2}(3+t)$ is monotonic on $[-2,0]$, mapping $[-2,0]$ onto $[-2,0]$. Hence, each point of $[a, b]$ giving a maximum for $\left|R_{1}(x)\right|$ gives a maximum for $\left|R_{k}(x)\right|, k=2,3, \cdots$. Consequently, if $y_{0}(x)$ is a best relative fit for $R_{1}(x)$, it follows from the monotonicity and a contradiction type argument that it is the best relative fit for $R_{2}(x)$, and similarly, for each succeeding iterate. Thus $y_{0}(x)$ is optimal under the hypothesis.

Note that, like King and Phillips [3], we can define the logarithmic error of each iterate. The analog of their theorem 2 can then be proved for the iteration scheme (1), but unfortunately, the analog of their theorem 1 does not hold.

## Computing Optimal Approximants

Expressing $R_{1}(x)$ in terms of $y_{0}(x)$, we obtain.

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{1}(x)=\left[x^{2} y_{0}(x) / 2\right]\left[3-x y_{0}^{2}(x)\right]-1 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

from which we can create a generalized weight function and apply the methods of Moursund [4, 5, 6].

However, differentiating, we obtain

$$
R_{1}^{\prime}(x)=\frac{3}{4 x^{2}}\left[1-x y_{0}^{2}(x)\right]\left[y_{0}(x)+2 x y_{0}^{\prime}(x)\right]
$$

Setting $1-x y_{0}^{2}(x)=0$, we find each root of this equation gives a zero of $R_{1}(x)$. Looking for maxima of $\left|R_{1}(x)\right|$, we
can ignore these. Candidates for maxima of $\left|R_{1}(x)\right|$ are then the roots of the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{0}+2 x y_{0}^{\prime}=0 \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the two endpoints $a, b$ of the interval. If we let $y_{0}(x)$ be a polynomial of degree $m$, (5) has $m$ roots and we have $m+2$ maxima (hopefully on $[a, b]$ ) of $R_{1}(x)$, nicely matching the $m+2$ "critical points" of the theory (see Moursund $[4,5])$.

We used a Remes-type algorithm for finding the coefficients of the optimal polynomials, leveling the critical point errors to four significant figures. Equation (5) and a polynomial root-finder were used to solve for the new set of "critical points" for each iteration. For a given set of critical points, $a=t_{0}, t_{1}, \cdots, t_{m}, t_{m+1}=b$, we found the new coefficients $A_{j}, j=0,1, \cdots, m$, by solving the nonlinear system of equations

$$
R_{1}\left(t_{i}\right)=r, \quad i=0,1, \cdots, m+1
$$

using a gradient descent method on the function

$$
g\left(A_{0}, A_{1}, \cdots, A_{m}, r\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{m+1}\left(R_{1}\left(t_{i}\right)-r\right)^{2}
$$

For the initial approximation of the polynomial and the critical points, we used a polynomial of best relative fit to $x^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ on $[a, b]$ on a set of 64 equidistant discrete points. In all cases reported, we had convergence in at most 5 iterations.

For the constant or degree 0 optimal polynomial, we used the formula

$$
y_{0}=\left[\left(3 /\left(a+a^{\frac{1}{2}} b^{\frac{1}{2}}+b\right)\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}\right.
$$

with max $\left|R^{\prime}\right|$ given by

$$
\left\lvert\,\left[\left.3(3 a b)^{\frac{1}{2}}\left(a^{\frac{1}{2}}+b^{\frac{1}{2}}\right) /\left[2\left(a+a^{\frac{1}{b} b^{\frac{1}{2}}}+b\right)^{\frac{3}{3}}\right]-1 \right\rvert\, .\right.\right.
$$

If we let

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{n}=\max _{x \in[a, b]}\left|R_{n}(x)\right| \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

then, given $r_{0}$, or $r_{1}$, the maximum relative errors can be obtained by using the recurrence (derived from (3))

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{n+1}=r_{n}^{2}\left(3-r_{n}\right) / 2 \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

(which indicates a slightly lower convergence than that obtained from the classical Heron scheme).

Table I gives the coefficients of the optimal linear, quadratic, and cubic polynomials for the ranges $\left[\frac{1}{16}, 1\right]$, $\left[\frac{1}{4}, 1\right],\left[\frac{1}{2}, 1\right]$. Since we need to know accuracy obtained for subroutine design, Table II gives, for the optimal polynomials of Table I, the values $e_{k}=-\log _{2}\left(r_{k}\right)$, the number of "binary figures of agreement" of the $k$ th iterate. The same design philosophy and range reduction schemes utilized for the Heron scheme (see Fike [1, Ch. 2]) are applicable to this iteration.

| TABLim | 1. CoEfrichest |  | $Y_{0}(x)=$ | - 4 | $2 x^{2}+4$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Range | Degree | AO | A: | A | A3 |
| $[1 / 16,1]\}$ | 1 | 2.9024186 | $-2.2113666$ |  |  |
|  | 2 | 3.7946021 | $-5.009423$ | 5. 5958728 |  |
|  | 3 | 4.1623559 | $-13.969732$ | 20.141075 | -9.717320 : |
| $[1 / 4,1]$ | 1 | 2.1301512 | $-1.2172292$ |  |  |
|  | 2 | 2.6709780 | $-3.2850 .60$ | 1.638 .4100 |  |
|  | 3 | 3.1123485 | $-5.9108558$ | 6.2298915 | $-2.4384330$ |
| [1/2, 1] | 1 | 1.7875799 | -0.80991997 |  |  |
|  | 2 | 2.2339132 | $-2.0662030$ | 0.83514599 |  |
|  | 3 | 2.6053117 | $-3.6396485$ | 2.9905309 | $-0.95067325$ |

table II. Number of Binary Figures of Agreemext, $\varepsilon_{i}$

| Range | Degree | $e_{6}$ | $e_{\text {i }}$ | $e_{2}$ | $e_{3}$ | $e_{4}$ | $e_{5}$ | $e_{s}$ | \% |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $[1 / 16,1]$ | 1 | 1.685 | 2.961 | 5.400 | 10.227 | 13. 969 | 39.152 | 7.720 | 1548 |
|  | 2 | 2.663 | 4.818 | 9.069 | 17.554 | 34.523 | 68.461 | $136.33{ }^{-}$ |  |
|  | 3 | 3,580 | 6.616 | 12.652 | 24.720 | 48.85 .5 | 97.224 | 193.663 |  |
| $\{1 / 4,1]\}$ | 1 | 3.522 | 6.501 | 12.422 | 24.258 | 47.932 | 95.279 | 189.972 |  |
|  | 2 | 5.372 | 10.171 | 19.758 | 38.932 | 77.279 | 153.972 |  |  |
|  | 3 | 7.148 | 13.715 | 26.846 | 53.106 | 105.627 |  |  |  |
| $[1 / 2,1]\{$ | 1 | 5.481 | 10.334 | 20.204 | 33.823 | 79.061 | 157.537 |  |  |
|  | 2 | 8.293 | 16.002 | 31.418 | 62.252 | 123.918 |  |  |  |
|  | 3 | 11.028 | 21.470 | 42.356 | 84.127 | 167.668 |  |  |  |

Finally, it should be pointed out that the iteration scheme

$$
y_{n+1}=\frac{1}{2} y_{n}\left[3-\left(y_{n}^{2} / z\right)\right]
$$

also found in the literature, which converges to $z^{\frac{1}{3}}$, if it converges, is essentially an "inverse" image to the schem" (1), in that the transformation $z=1 / x$ yields (1). The rcurrence scheme (3), for relative error, is the same. It: optimal polynomials are transforms of those given here. And it costs one initial division to utilize!

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