<u>Efficient Algorithms for calculating fixed-point logarithm</u> <u>of large numbers</u>

Classical Algos:

1. Binary logarithm algorithm -

http://www.claysturner.com/dsp/BinaryLogarithm.pdf

Algorithm:

- 1) Initialize result to 0: y = 0.
- 2) Initialize mantissa-bit decimal value to 0.5: b = 1/2.
- 3) While x < 1, x = 2x, y = y 1.
- 4) While x > 2, x = x/2, y = y + 1.
- 5) Go to Step 3 and repeat until $1 \le x \le 2$.
- 6) Square: $x = x^*x$.
- 7) If x > 2, x = x/2, y = y + b.
- 8) Scale for next bit: b = b/2.
- 9) Go to Step 6 and repeat until the desired number of mantissa bits are found.
 - 10) Final log(x) value: y

To start, we simply desire to find y = log(x).

Thus we can invert this and find $x = 2^y$

our log algorithm assumes x is in $1 \le x \le 2$.

So if
$$x \ge 2$$
, use $\log(x) = \log(x/2) + \log(2)$

Else if x<1, use log(x) = log(x*2) - log(2). Since log(2) = 1, we can simply add or subtract the required number of 1s upon division or multiplication. This gives us the characteristic(integer part) of our answer

Now
$$1 \le x < 2$$

 $So \ 0 \le log(x) < 1 \ ie \ 0 \le y < 1$
 $Let \ y = 0. \ y_1 y_2 \dots (in \ binary)$
 $y = y_1 * 2^{-1} + y_2 * 2^{-2} + y_3 * 2^{-3} + \dots$
 $y = 2^{-1} (y_1 + 2^{-1} (y_2 + 2^{-1} (y_3 + \dots)))$
 $x = 2^y = 2^{2^{-1} (y_1 + 2^{-1} (y_2 + 2^{-1} (y_3 + \dots)))}$

$$x^{2} = 2^{2y} = 2^{2 \cdot 2^{-1}(y_{1} + 2^{-1}(y_{2} + 2^{-1}(y_{3} + ...)))}$$

$$x^{2} = 2^{y_{1} + 2^{-1}(y_{2} + 2^{-1}(y_{3} + ...))}$$

$$= 2^{y_{1}} \cdot 2^{2^{-1}(y^{2} + 2^{-1}(y^{3} + ...))}$$

$$= 2^{y_{1}} \cdot some \ number \ k \qquad where \ 1 <= k < 2$$

$$If \ y_{1} = 0:$$

$$2^{y_{1}} = 1 \ and \ 1 \le x^{2} < 2$$

$$Else:$$

$$y_{1} = 1$$

$$2^{y_{1}} = 2 \ and \ 2 \le x^{2} \le 4$$

So if $x^2 < 2$ then $y_1 = 0$. Otherwise $y_1 = 1$ and thus we have found the first digit of our logarithm's mantissa(decimal part)

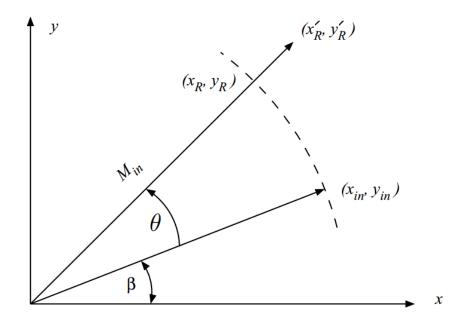
We then repeat these steps for $2^{2^{-1}(y_2+2^{-1}(y_3+\ldots))}$ for as many bits as we want

2. CORDIC Algo

Uses only addition, subtraction, bit-shifts Efficient for hardware implementation of log

Consider the point (x_0, y_0)

If we rotate this point clockwise by an angle Θ about the origin, then



Source:

https://www.allaboutcircuits.com/technical-articles/an-introduction-to-the-cordic-algorithm/

$$x' = x\cos\Theta - y\sin\Theta$$
 and $y' = x\sin\Theta + y\cos\Theta$

This set of equations can be written as

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \cos\theta \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\tan\theta \\ \tan\theta & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

The CORDIC algorithm resorts to two fundamental ideas to achieve rotation without multiplication. The first fundamental idea is that rotating the input vector by an arbitrary angle θ is equal to rotating the vector by several smaller angles, θ_i , i=0,1,...,n, provided

$$\theta = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \theta_{i}$$

For example, a rotation of 57.535° is the same as three successive rotations by $45^{\circ}(=\tan^{-1}(2^{0}))$, $26.565^{\circ}(=\tan^{-1}(2^{-1}))$, and $-14.03^{\circ}(=\tan^{-1}(-2^{-2}))$.

we can choose the small elementary angles in a way that $tan(\theta_i)=2^{-i}$ for i=0,1,...,n. In this way, multiplication by $tan(\theta_i)$ can be achieved by a bitwise shift which is a much faster operation compared to multiplication

Each rotation also has a scaling factor of $\cos \Theta$. it is possible to ignore the $\cos(\theta)$ term and take the scaling factor into account at the end of the algorithm. As we proceed with the algorithm, the angle of rotation rapidly becomes smaller and smaller. Hence, $\cos(\theta)$ tends toward unity.

For example, with i=6, θ_i becomes tan⁻¹(2⁻⁶) = 0.895° which leads to a scaling factor of $\cos(0.895^\circ)$ =0.99987. As a result, if the algorithm is designed to have more than six iterations, looking at the four significant figures, we obtain the following scaling factor:

In summary, we can ignore the $cos(\theta)$ term and apply a scaling factor of approximately 0.6072 at the end of the process regardless of the desired rotation angle.

So the final equations become

$$egin{aligned} x_{i+1} &= x_i - \delta_i y_i tan\Theta_i \quad \text{and} \\ y_{i+1} &= y_i + \delta_i x_i tan\Theta_i \quad \text{where } \delta_i \text{ determines the sign of the elementary angle } \Theta_i \end{aligned}$$

Approximating $tan\Theta_i = 2^{-i}$

$$x_{i+1} = x_i - \delta_i y_i 2^{-i}$$
 and
 $y_{i+1} = y_i + \delta_i x_i 2^{-i}$

 δ_i = -1, if If the desired rotation is smaller than previously achieved rotation(so we try to bring it down to the desired value). Else δ_i = 1

Error in the angle rotation is given by

$$\theta_{error} = \theta - \sum_{i=0}^{n} \theta_{i}$$

This can be expressed using another equation

$$z_{i+1} = z_i - \delta_i tan^{-1} (2^{-i})$$
 where $z_0 = \Theta$

Applications of this approach:

(i) If initial values $x_0 = 1$ and $y_0 = 0$ then

$$x_f = cos\Theta$$
 and $y_f = sin\Theta$

Hence we find sin0 and cos0 using the above method

(ii) consider the vector magnitude $\sqrt{{x_0}^2 + {y_0}^2}$

To achieve this, we only need to rotate the input vector so that it is aligned with the x-axis. In this way, $y_f=0$ (final y component) and the x_f will give the vector magnitude

More generally

$$x_{i+1} = x_i - m \delta_i y_i 2^{-i}$$
 and $y_{i+1} = y_i + \delta_i x_i 2^{-i}$

The curves of constant radius for the circular (m=1), linear (m=0), and hyperbolic (m=-1) coordinate systems are shown

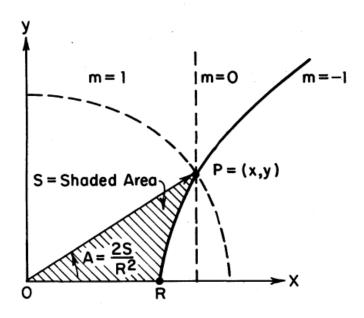


Figure 1—Angle A and Radius R of the vector P = (x, y)

To compute log we use m=-1, the hyperbolic CORDIC algorithm

The equations are

$$X_{i+1} = X_{i} + \delta_{i}Y_{i}2^{-i}$$

$$Y_{i+1} = Y_{i} + \delta_{i}X_{i}2^{-i}$$

$$Z_{i+1} = Z_{i} - \delta_{i}tanh^{-1}(2^{-i})$$

We use the vectoring mode and hence $\delta_i = -1$ if $x_i y_i >= 0$ and +1 otherwise Thus for sufficiently large N, the quantities tend to

$$\begin{split} &X_N \leftarrow A_N \sqrt{X_0^2 - Y_0^2} \\ &Y_N \leftarrow 0 \\ &Z_N \leftarrow Z_0 + \, \tanh^{-1}\!\!\left(\frac{Y_0}{X_0}\right) \\ &A_N \leftarrow \prod_{i=1}^N \sqrt{1 - 2^{-2i}} \\ &Since \, \ln(a) = 2 \! \tan\! h^{-1}\!\!\left(\frac{a-1}{a+1}\right), \\ &\ln(a) = 2 \! \cdot \! Z_N \, provided \, Z_0 = 0, \, X_0 \! = \! a+1 \, and \, Y_0 \! = \! a-1 \end{split}$$

Range of values this method supports:

$$\left| \tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{Y_0}{X_0} \right) \right| \le \theta_N + \sum_{i=1}^N \theta_i$$

$$\left| \tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{Y_0}{X_0} \right) \right| \le 1.1182 \, for \, N \to \infty$$

$$\left| \frac{Y_0}{X_0} \right|_{max} \approx 0.80694 \, for \, N \to \infty$$

$$\left| \ln(a)_{max} \right| = \left| 2 \tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{a-1}{a+1} \right) \right| = 2.2364$$
Since $X_0 = a + 1 \, and \, Y_0 = a - 1 \, then$

$$\left| \frac{a-1}{a+1} \right| \le 0.80694$$

$$\Rightarrow 0.106843 \le a \le 9.35947$$

This can be tackled by modifying the basic hyperbolic CORDIC algorithm, by including additional (M+1) iterations for negative indexes i: (i = 0, -1, -2, -3, ... - M)

$$\theta_i = Tanh^{-1} \left(1 - 2^{i-2} \right) \text{ for } i \le 0$$
 (12)

Therefore, the modified algorithm results:

For
$$i \le 0$$

$$\begin{cases} X_{i+1} = X_i + \delta_i (1 - 2^{i-2}) Y_i \\ Y_{i+1} = Y_i + \delta_i (1 - 2^{i-2}) X_i \\ Z_{i+1} = Z_i - \delta_i Tanh^{-1} (1 - 2^{i-2}) \end{cases}$$
(13)

For
$$i > 0$$

$$\begin{cases} X_{i+1} = X_i + \delta_i Y_i 2^{-i} \\ Y_{i+1} = Y_i + \delta_i X_i 2^{-i} \\ Z_{i+1} = Z_i - \delta_i Tanh^{-1} (2^{-i}) \end{cases}$$
 (14)

 X_N , Y_N , and Z_N are as indicated in (4). δ_i is as indicated in (3). But the quantity A_n , described in (5), is redefined as follows:

$$A_n \leftarrow \left[\prod_{i=-M}^{0} \sqrt{1 - \left(1 - 2^{(i-2)}\right)^2} \right] \left[\prod_{i=1}^{N} \sqrt{1 - 2^{-2i}} \right]$$
 (15)

The range of convergence, now becomes:

$$Tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{Y_0}{X_0} \right) \le \theta_{\text{max}}$$
 (16)

Where:
$$\theta_{\text{max}} = \sum_{i=-M}^{0} Tanh^{-1} (1 - 2^{i-2}) +$$

$$+ \left[Tanh^{-1} \left(2^{-N} \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{N} Tanh^{-1} \left(2^{-i} \right) \right]$$
 (17)

 θ_{max} is the maximum value of $Z \leftarrow Tanh^{-1}$ (if $Z_0 = 0$), and imposes a limitation to X_0 and Y_0 , and therefore to α . The values of θ_{max} are tabulated for M between 0 an 10 and shown in Table 1.

with M = 2 (θ_{max} =5.16215), the range of Tanh⁻¹(Θ) is [-5.16215, +5.16215]. Then $\alpha \in [3.2825 \times 10^{-5}, 30463.9711]$, which is a far larger domain of ln(α) than that of the original hyperbolic CORDIC algorithm. It is clear that the expansion scheme does work. The more domain of ln(α) is needed, the more the iterations (M+1) that must be executed.

References:

a) https://www.researchgate.net/publication/230668515 A fixed-point imple mentation of the natural logarithm based on a expanded hyperbolic CORDIC_algorithm (main paper)

- b) https://www.allaboutcircuits.com/technical-articles/an-introduction-to-the-condic-algorithm/ (basic introduction to CORDIC algo)
- c) https://dl.acm.org/doi/10.1145/1478786.1478840 (for the different types of CORDIC)

In C, log is implemented by a call to an assembly instruction -> hardware dependent

Some resources(don't know if they are helpful)

- 5. https://www.brics.dk/RS/04/17/BRICS-RS-04-17.pdf
- 6. https://stackoverflow.com/questions/11376288/fast-computing-of-log2-for-64-bit-i ntegers

General Observations: In the classical world, most researches(based on our search) have been focussing on implementing hardware for logarithm and the most efficient algorithm for a given computer depends on the hardware. Most techniques used in making the algorithm efficient include using fast operations like bit shift instead of multiplications and deal with parallelism, branch costs, etc...

Quantum Algos:

Found algos only for discrete log problem(finding integer k such that $b^k = a$ where a and b are elements of a multiplicative group)