# Energy efficient calculation of simple functions 

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#### Abstract

Energy efficiency depends also from the algorithm. For example for sorting you can use bubble sort or quick sort but the complexity of the two algorithm varies enormously. The complexity of the bubble sort is $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ and the complexity of the quick sort is $O(n \cdot \log (n))$. For $n=10^{6}$ the relative deviation is about $10^{5}$. It means one need for the same result more calculation steps and so more power.


Index Terms-Fast inverse square root, Median without sorting, Bit counting

## I. Introduction

TO accelerate the calculation time one needs efficient algorithms which do the same work in a shorter time with an acceptable accuracy. In this paper I will introduce energy efficient algorithms to get the inverse square root, median and the bit counting faster.

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## II. FAST INVERSE SQUARE ROOT [1]

In video games the inverse square root is necessary for lighting and reflection calculations. The inverse square root in this case is used to normalization of vectors. Often the speed is more importantly than the accuracy. So that one is satisfied with an accuracy of $1 \%$. The main idea of this algorithm is to calculate approximately the inverse square root in one calculation step.

Consider a floating point number y like in IEEE 754 Single precision format which is introduced in Appendix B and call it i. One can calculate the inverse square root approximately with equation 1

$$
\begin{equation*}
i=0 x 5 f 3759 d f-(i \gg 1) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that equation 1 should be calculated bitwise. Let's call $0 x 5 f 3759 \mathrm{df}$ the magic number. In figure 1 one can see the relative error in \% (blue line). One can see also that the maximum relative error is below $4 \%$. To get a more accurate result one can use Newton's Method. If the initial guess is very close to the zero so the newton step will provide a more accurate solution. Together with the approximately value one can get a better result. To get a more accurate solution one can do more newton steps.

## A. Newton's method

An appropriate formula to calculate the inverse square root is

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(y)=\frac{1}{y^{2}}-x \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

By inserting this formula in Newton's method (equation 3) one gets equation 4

$$
\begin{gather*}
y_{n+1}=y_{n}-\frac{f\left(y_{n}\right)}{f^{\prime}\left(y_{n}\right)} n \geq 0  \tag{3}\\
y_{n+1}=\frac{1}{2} y_{n}\left(3-x y_{n}^{2}\right) \tag{4}
\end{gather*}
$$



Fig. 1. Relative error of inverse square root as a function of the argument x for two different magic numbers 0 x 5 f 3759 df and 0 x 5 f 34 ff 59 calculated with Code 1 without newton's method

With Code 1 one can calculate the inverse square root faster with a maximum relative error $<1 \%$ by using of only shift, addition, subtraction and multiplication operators.

```
Code 1. C Code to calculate the inverse square
float InvSqrt( float number ) {
    long i;
    float x2, y;
    const float threehalfs = 1.5F;
        x2 = number * 0.5F;
        y = number;
                =* ( long * ) &y;
            store floating-point bits in long
                = 0x5f3759df - ( i >> 1);
            initial guess for Newton's method
                =* ( float * ) &i;
            / convert new bits into float
            y = y* ( threehalfs - ( x2 * y*y) );
            / 1st iteration
    return y;
}
```

With the command in line 8 the number is stored as IEEE 754 single precision format. In the next line one calculates a initial value with the magic number $0 x 5 f 3759 d f$. In the next step one converts it back in a floating number. In line 14 one calculates one newton step (see also equation 4).

## B. $0 x 5 f 3759 d f$

A floating number in IEEE 754 format can be written as $x=(1+m) \cdot 2^{e}$. Where m is the Mantissa and $e=$ Exponent -127 . The corresponding integer interpretation is $\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{LE}$. For 32 bit floats L is $10^{23}$ and B is 127 . By the following derivation the sign will be omitted.

$$
\begin{align*}
y & =x^{-\frac{1}{2}}  \tag{5}\\
\log _{2} y & =-\frac{1}{2} \log _{2} x  \tag{6}\\
\log _{2}\left(\left(1+m_{y}\right) 2^{e_{y}}\right) & =-\frac{1}{2} \log _{2}\left(\left(1+m_{x}\right) 2^{e_{x}}\right)  \tag{7}\\
\log _{2}\left(1+m_{y}\right)+e_{y} & =-\frac{1}{2}\left[\log _{2}\left(1+m_{x}\right)+e_{x}\right]  \tag{8}\\
\log _{2}(1+m) & \approx m+\sigma, m \in[0,1), \sigma \text { small }  \tag{9}\\
\rightarrow m_{y}+\sigma+e_{y} & =-\frac{1}{2}\left(m_{x}+\sigma+e_{x}\right) \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

Integer view:

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{M_{y}}{L}+\sigma+E_{y}-B & =-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{M_{x}}{L}+\sigma+E_{x}-B\right)  \tag{11}\\
\frac{M_{y}}{L}+E_{y} & =-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{M_{x}}{L}+\sigma+E_{x}-B\right)+B-\sigma  \tag{12}\\
\frac{M_{y}}{L}+E_{y} & =-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{M_{x}}{L}+E_{x}\right)+\frac{3}{2} B-\frac{3}{2} \sigma  \tag{13}\\
\rightarrow M_{y}+E_{y} L & =\frac{3}{2} L(B-\sigma)-\frac{1}{2}\left(M_{x}+L E_{x}\right) \tag{14}
\end{align*}
$$

Integer representation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rightarrow I_{y}=\frac{3}{2} L(B-\sigma)-\frac{1}{2} I_{x} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
i=K-(i \gg 1) \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

with a constant K and $-\frac{1}{2} I_{x}$ can be calculated with $-(i \gg 1)$. Equation 16 is identical to line 10 in C Code.Now one have to choose a good value for $\sigma$ which is introduce in equation 9 In the original implementation $\sigma$ is 0.0450465 and so one get:

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{3}{2} L(B-\sigma) & =\frac{3}{2} 2^{23}(127-0.0450465)  \tag{17}\\
& =1597463007  \tag{18}\\
& =0 x 5 f 3759 d f \tag{19}
\end{align*}
$$

## C. Own magic number

In 9 there are an approximation with a small number $\sigma$. The mantissa is $\in[0,1)$ and with the assumption that all possible values for $m$ equally distributed so one can say that with equation 20 the statistical error is 0 .

$$
\begin{align*}
\int_{0}^{1}\left[\log _{2}(1+x)\right. & -x-\sigma] d x=0  \tag{20}\\
\rightarrow \sigma & =\int_{0}^{1}\left[\log _{2}(1+x)-x\right] d x  \tag{21}\\
\sigma & \approx 0.057305 \tag{22}
\end{align*}
$$

So my own magic number is:

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{3}{2} L(B-\sigma) & =\frac{3}{2} 2^{23}(127-0.0 .057305)  \tag{23}\\
& =1597308761  \tag{24}\\
& =0 x 5 f 34 f f 59 \tag{25}
\end{align*}
$$

In figure 1 one can see the relative errors with this magic numbers. One can see that the maximum relative error of the original implementation is slightly better.

## D. Magic number for another exponents

Consider the function $f(x)=x^{p}$
For $\mathrm{p}=0.5$ (square root) you can use

$$
\begin{equation*}
i=0 x 1 f b d 1 d f 5+(i \gg 1) \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

There is also a general formula for $-1 \leq p \leq 1$

$$
\begin{equation*}
i=(1-p) \cdot 0 x 3 f 7 a 3 b e a+(p \cdot i) \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

In figure 2 one can see the relative error in $\%$ calculated with equation 27 with $p=\frac{1}{3}$. One can see also that the maximum relative error is below $3 \%$.

## III. Finding the median without sorting [2]

One can determine the median for example with sorting. As the best sorting algorithm has a average complexity of $O(n \cdot \log (n))$, determine the median with sorting has a complexity of $O(n \cdot \log (n))$. In the following an algorithm to determine the median with a linear complexity is introduced.

## A. A simple algorithm to find the median

A recursive algorithm to find the median is explained in Algorithm 1 The main idea is to pick an arbitrary pivot element to partition the input array in 3 sections which contain elements less, equal and greater than the pivot element. This recursive algorithm is repeated until the median is choosen randomly as pivot element or the returned section contains only one element.

```
Algorithm 1: A simple algorithm to find the median
    Input : Array \(a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n-1}\) with length n
    Output: median \(a_{m}\)
    1. If \(n=1\)
        return \(a_{0}\)
    else
    2. Choose an arbitrary element \(x\)
    3. Partition the array in three sections
    \(a_{0}, \ldots, a_{q-1}\) with elements less than x
            \(a_{q}, \ldots, a_{g-1}\) with elements equal x
            \(a_{g}, \ldots, a_{n-1}\) with elements greater than x
    4. If \(k<q\)
            return \(a_{m}\) in first section
        If \(k<g\)
            return x
        else
            return \(a_{m}\) in third section
```

The overall complexity depends from the pivot element. In the best case the partitioned sections are of equal length and the overall complexity is:

$$
n+\frac{n}{3}+\frac{n}{9}+\ldots=O(n)
$$

In the worst case the returned section is smaller by 1 for example by choosing the minimum or the maximum as pivotelement
and so the overall complexity is:

$$
n+(n-1)+(n-2)+\ldots=O\left(n^{2}\right)
$$

Therefore the pivot element should choosen carefully.

## B. Improved version

The choice of the pivot element in the improved version (Algorithm 2) is done more carefully.

```
Algorithm 2: An improved algorithm to find the median
    Input : Array \(a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n-1}\) with length n
    Output: median \(a_{m}\)
    1. If \(n<15\)
        sort the array and return \(a_{k}\)
    else
    2. Partition the array in \(\frac{n}{5}\) sections with 5 elements
        and calculate their median
    53 . Calculate recursively the median m' of this medians
    6 4. Partition the array in three sections
    \(7 a_{0}, \ldots, a_{q-1}\) with elements less than m'
            \(a_{q}, \ldots, a_{g-1}\) with elements equal m'
            \(a_{g}, \ldots, a_{n-1}\) with elements greater than m’
    5. If \(k<q\)
            return \(a_{m}\) in first section
        If \(k<g\)
            return m'
        else
            return \(a_{m}\) in third section
```

If $n<15$ this extra effort is not worth it and so the median can be calculated by sorting. Otherwise a good pivot element is found by partitioning the array in $\frac{n}{5}$ sections and calculate their median for example by sorting. In the next step one calculates the median of this medians. This value is used as the pivot element. This is illustrated in the figure 3


Fig. 2. Relative error of inverse cubic root which is calculated with equation 27 for $p=\frac{1}{3}$ without newton's method

The green circle in the middle represent the median of medians m'. The numbers in the green box are less than m' and the numbers in the red box are greater than m'. Therefore at least $25 \%$ of the array is less or greater than m'. One can also say that maximum $75 \%$ of the array is less or greater than m '. In consequence the returned array was at most $75 \%$ size of the remaining array and so overall complexity is linear.


Up to 4 additional elements, if n is not divisible by 5

Fig. 3. $\frac{n}{5}$ sections with 5 elements with up to 4 additional elements, if $n$ is not divisible by 5 . In the third line the medians of all sections are stored. The green circle in the middle represent the median of medians m'. The numbers in the green box are less than m' and the numbers in the red box are greater than m'

The complexity of first step is constant. Step 2 to 4 can also calculated with linear complexity. As explained above the worst case complexity of last step is

$$
n+\frac{3}{4} n+\frac{3^{2}}{4^{2}} n+\ldots=O(n)
$$

Therefore the overall complexity of the improved version is linear.

In the next two sections implementations will be introduced.

## C. Sorting

In the 3rd line of Algortihm 2 one has to determine the median of $\frac{n}{5}$ sections with 5 elements with up to 4 additional elements. This can be done for example with insertion sort (Code 2) which is well suited for small amounts of data.

```
```

Code 2. Insertion sort to determine the median

```
```

Code 2. Insertion sort to determine the median

```
void sort5 (int lo, int \(n\) )
```

void sort5 (int lo, int $n$ )

```
void sort5 (int lo, int \(n\) )
\{
\{
\{
    int i, j, h, t;
    int i, j, h, t;
    int i, j, h, t;
    \(\mathrm{h}=\mathrm{n} / 5\);
    \(\mathrm{h}=\mathrm{n} / 5\);
    \(\mathrm{h}=\mathrm{n} / 5\);
    for ( \(\mathrm{i}=10+\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{i}<10+\mathrm{n} ; \mathrm{i}++\) )
    for ( \(\mathrm{i}=10+\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{i}<10+\mathrm{n} ; \mathrm{i}++\) )
    for ( \(\mathrm{i}=10+\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{i}<10+\mathrm{n} ; \mathrm{i}++\) )
    \{
    \{
    \{
        \(\mathrm{j}=\mathrm{i}\);
        \(\mathrm{j}=\mathrm{i}\);
        \(\mathrm{j}=\mathrm{i}\);
        \(\mathrm{t}=\mathrm{a}[\mathrm{j}]\);
        \(\mathrm{t}=\mathrm{a}[\mathrm{j}]\);
        \(\mathrm{t}=\mathrm{a}[\mathrm{j}]\);
        while ( \(j>=10+h\) \& \(a[j-h]>t\) )
        while ( \(j>=10+h\) \& \(a[j-h]>t\) )
        while ( \(j>=10+h\) \& \(a[j-h]>t\) )
        \{
        \{
        \{
        \(\underset{\substack{a \\ j=j-h ;}}{\mathrm{j}]=\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{j}-\mathrm{h}] ;\)
        \(\underset{\substack{a \\ j=j-h ;}}{\mathrm{j}]=\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{j}-\mathrm{h}] ;\)
        \(\underset{\substack{a \\ j=j-h ;}}{\mathrm{j}]=\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{j}-\mathrm{h}] ;\)
            \(j=j-h\);
            \(j=j-h\);
            \(j=j-h\);
        \}
        \}
        \}
        \(a[j]=t\);
        \(a[j]=t\);
        \(a[j]=t\);
    \}
    \}
    \}
\}
```

```
\}
```

```
\}
```

```
```

    [j]
    ```
```

    [j]
    ```
```

    [j]
    ```

\section*{D. Partitioning}

In the partition algorithm one distinguishes 4 cases. As in figure 4 first 3 cases are sections which is less(orange), equal(green) and greater(blue) than \(x\). The last one contains untreated numbers (white).


Fig. 4. In the partition algorithm one distinguishes 4 cases. The first 3 cases are sections which is less(orange), equal(green) and greater(blue) than \(x\). The last one contains untreated numbers (white)

In each iteration one considers an element from the untreated section. If this element is greater than \(x\) so one have to increment index i (see also figure 5).


Fig. 5. If the new element is greater than \(x\) so one have to increment index i
In case that the new element is equal to x so one has to exchange the indices \(g\) and \(i\) and increment \(g\) (see also figure 6 ).


Fig. 6. If the new element is equal x so one have to first exchange the indices \(g\) and \(i\) and increment \(g\)

If the new element is smaller than \(x\) so one have to exchange the indices \(g\) and \(i\) and increment \(g\) (see also figure 7 ). In the next step one have to exchange the indices (g-1) and i and increment q.


Fig. 7. If the new element is smaller than \(x\) so one have to exchange the indices \(g\) and \(i\) and increment \(g\). In the next step one have to exchange the indices ( \(\mathrm{g}-1\) ) and i and increment q

In Code 3 one can see the summary of the above explained steps.

This algorithm returns the indices q and g which seperate sections which less, equal and greater than x . Further n represents the length of the array and lo is the start index.
```

Code 3. Partition algorithm
Pair partition (int lo, int n, int x)
{
int q=lo, g=lo, i, y;
for (i=lo; i<lo+n; i++)
{
y=a[i];
if (y<=x)
{
exchange(i, g++);
if (y<x)
exchange(g-1, q++);
}
}
return new Pair(q, g);}

```

\section*{IV. Bit counting [3]}

In the following several algorithms to bit counting are introduced.

\section*{A. Simple solution}

A simple algorithm in Code 4 checks in each step the last significant bit and increments a counter if the bit at this position is 1 . By shifting v in line 4 one can compare all bits in 32 steps.
```

Code 4. Simple solution
unsigned int c = 0;
// counter
for (unsigned int ibit = 0; ibit < 32; ibit++) {
// 32 loops !
c += v \& 1;
// check LSB and increase c
if v \& 1 is true
v>>= 1; }
/ shift v

```

\section*{B. First improvement}

In the first improvement one introduces a mask with an initial value of \(0 x 1\). In each step one pushes the mask to the left and increases the counter if at this position is a 1 . By introducing the mask one saves one instruction per loop.

Code 5. First improvement
unsigned int \(c=0\);
for (unsigned int mask \(=0 \times 1\); mask; mask \(\ll=1\) ) \{
```

    // 32 loops! Repeat until mask == 0
    ```
        if ( v \& mask) c++; \}

Both algorithms always need 32 loops independent of the input vector always 32 loops.

\section*{C. Second improvement}

In the second improvement one pushes the input vector \(v\) to the right until \(\mathrm{v} \neq 0\) and increments the counter if there is a 1 in the most significant bit. The algorithm stops when the highest set bit has been found.

Code 6. Second improvement
```

unsigned int c;
for (c=0;v;v>>=1) {
// shift while v!=0
c+= v \& 1; }
// increase counter

```

The disadvantage of this algorithm is that one needs as many loops as the highest set bit. For example if \(v=0 \times 1\) one needs one loop but for \(\mathrm{v}=0 \mathrm{x} 80000000\) one needs 32 loops.

\section*{D. Third improvement}

In the third improvement one compares v and ( \(\mathrm{v}-1\) ).
\[
\begin{align*}
v & =\ldots x y z 10 \ldots 0  \tag{28}\\
v-1 & =\ldots x y z 01 \ldots 1  \tag{29}\\
\rightarrow v \&(v-1) & =\ldots x y z 00 \ldots 0 \tag{30}
\end{align*}
\]

In equation 28 one can see the last set bit. By calculating \(v \&(v-1)\) this bit gets eliminated. The position of the 1 isn't important.

Code 7. Third improvement
unsigned int c ;
for ( \(c=0 ; v ; c++\) ) \{ // repeat until \(v==0\)
v \&= v-1; \} // delete lowest set bit


Fig. 8. In this figure one can see CPU cycles for some processors. The first diagram shows the result of the elegant method (countBits). Second diagram shows the average result of the third improvement (countBitsLoop). There are also result for 0,16 and 32 set bits. The last diagram shows the result for the simple algorithm which is also constant

This algorithm needs as many loops as the number of ones.

\section*{E. An elegant method}

It's possible to count bits in a constant time. Consider 32 bits as 16 times 2 bits \(a b\). Now define \(c\) as number of ones in \(a b\).
\begin{tabular}{cccc}
a & b & c & \(\mathrm{ab}-0 \mathrm{a}\) \\
0 & 0 & 00 & 00 \\
0 & 1 & 01 & 01 \\
1 & 0 & 01 & 01 \\
1 & 1 & 10 & 10
\end{tabular}

It's possible to the number of set bits in the pattern \(a b\) as \(a b-0 a\). The corresponding code is \(v=v-((v \gg\) 1) \(\& 0 x 555555555\) ).

Now one sum up two neighboring 2 bits to a 4 bit. There is no carry because the maximum possible number is 4 and there are 4 bits to store them. First one masks the right 2 bits with \(v \& 0 x 33333333\). After that one pushes the left one to the right and masks again the right 2 bits. This calculation can be done with \((v \& 0 x 33333333)+((v \gg 2) \& 0 x 33333333)\).
Similarly to the last calculation one sums up 2 neighbor 4 bits to 8 bit with \((v+(v \gg 4)) \& 0 x 0 F 0 F 0 F 0 F\).
Now one has to sum up this 4 times 8 bits which we call A,B,C and D. By calculation of \(v \cdot 0 x 01010101\) one gets \(\mathbf{D} 000+\mathbf{C} D 00+\mathbf{B} C D 0+\mathbf{A} B C D\). As you can see the required sum is stored in the first 8 bit and there is still no carry. To get the result one has to calculate \((v \cdot 0 x 01010101) \gg 24\). This result provides the set bits. Code 8 contains the summary of the above introduced codes.
```

Code 8. An elegant method
v = v - ((v>> 1) \& 0x55555555);
// count bits in two groups
v = (v \& 0x33333333) + ((v >> 2) \& 0x33333333);
// Add 2 groups }->4\mathrm{ groups
v = (v + (v>> 4));
// Add 4 groups }->8\mathrm{ groups
v \&= 0x0F0F0F0F; // delete useless bits
c=(v \cdot 0x01010101) >> 24;
// Add the 4 8 groups

```

In figure 8 one can see CPU cycles for some processors. The first diagram shows the result of the elegant method (countBits). As one can see the result is independent of the input vector. Second diagram shows the average result of the third improvement (countBitsLoop). There are also result for 0,16 and 32 set bits. As you can see the third improvement is the fast one for 0 set bits. But on average the elegant method is the best algorithm. The last diagram shows the result for the simple algorithm which is also constant.

\section*{V. Conclusion}

In this paper i introduced methods to get the inverse square root, median and the bit counting faster. Inverse sqaure root can be calculated 4 times faster with an accuracy of \(<1 \%\). In addition there is a method to get the median with linear complexity. Finally i show methods to do bit counting faster. There is also an elegant which do this calculation in a constant time independent of the input vector.

\section*{Appendix A \\ NEWTON's METHOD}

Newton's method is used to get a zero of a function. This algorithm needs an initial value. This value is used to create a tangent at this point. In the next iteration one calculates the zero of the tangent and at this point one creates again a tangent and so on. This algorithm will end if the zero of the tangent is close enough to the zero of the function. The convergence of this algorithm depends also from the initial value. Newton step can be calculated with the equation 31 .
\[
\begin{equation*}
y_{n+1}=y_{n}-\frac{f\left(y_{n}\right)}{f^{\prime}\left(y_{n}\right)}, n \geq 0 \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
\]


Fig. 9. Newton's Method [4]

\section*{Appendix B \\ IEEE 754 SINGLE PRECISION FORMAT}

Single precision floating numbers are stored as 32 bit numbers



Fig. 10. IEEE 754 single precision format
The stored number is
\[
\begin{equation*}
x=(-1)^{\text {sign }} \cdot\left(1 . \text { Mantissa) } \cdot 2^{\text {Exponent-127 }}\right. \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
\]

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