

# The CORDIC Algorithm: New Results for Fast VLSI Implementation

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**Abstract**—After a brief survey on the CORDIC algorithm, we give some new results which enable fast and easy signed-digit implementation of CORDIC, without modifying the basic iteration step. A slight modification would make it possible to use carry save representation of numbers, instead of signed-digit one. Our method, called *branching CORDIC method*, consists of performing in parallel two classic CORDIC rotations. It gives a constant normalization factor. Then, we propose an on-line implementation of our algorithm with an on-line delay equal to 5 for the sine and cosine functions.

**Index Terms**—CORDIC, elementary functions on line, signed-digit representations.

## I. INTRODUCTION

THE CORDIC algorithm was introduced in 1959 by Volder [16]. In Volder's version, CORDIC makes it possible to perform rotations (and therefore to compute sine, cosine, and arctangent functions) and to multiply or divide numbers, using only shift-and-add elementary steps. In 1971, Walther [17] generalized this algorithm in order to compute logarithms, exponentials, and square roots. CORDIC is not the fastest way to perform multiplications or to compute logarithms and exponentials, but, since the same algorithm enables the computation of most mathematical functions using basic operations of the form  $a \pm b \cdot 2^{-i}$ , it is attractive for hardware implementations. CORDIC has been implemented in pocket calculators like Hewlett Packard's HP 35 [3], and in arithmetic coprocessors like the Intel 8087. Some authors proposed to use CORDIC processors for signal processing applications (DFT [6], filtering [5], SVD [9]), for image processing [2], or for solving linear systems [1], [11]. The first part of this paper is a brief survey on CORDIC. The reader familiar with this algorithm may skip this part. In the second part, we propose a new algorithm, called *branching CORDIC*, for performing rotations very quickly, using a redundant number system. In the last part, we propose an on-line implementation of our algorithm for computing sine and cosine functions. On-line arithmetic [10] is a digit-serial mode of computation where digits circulate most significant digit first. On-line implementations of CORDIC have been already proposed by Ercegovic and Lang [8], and by Lin and Sips [12].

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## II. A BRIEF SURVEY

### A. The Classical CORDIC Iteration

Volder's algorithm is based upon the following iteration:

$$\begin{aligned} x_{n+1} &= x_n - d_n y_n 2^{-n} \\ y_{n+1} &= y_n + d_n x_n 2^{-n} \\ z_{n+1} &= z_n - d_n \arctan 2^{-n}. \end{aligned}$$

The terms  $\arctan 2^{-n}$  are precomputed and stored, and the  $d_i$ 's are equal to  $-1$  or  $+1$ . In the *rotation mode* of CORDIC,  $d_n$  is chosen equal to the sign of  $z_n$  ( $+1$  if  $z_n \geq 0$ , else  $-1$ ).

If  $|z_0|$  is less than or equal to  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k} = 1.743 \dots$ , then

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \\ z_n \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} K \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \cos z_0 - y_0 \sin z_0 \\ x_0 \sin z_0 + y_0 \cos z_0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

where the *scale factor*  $K$  is equal to  $\prod_{n=0}^{\infty} 1/\cos(d_n \arctan 2^{-n})$ . Since for any  $n$ ,  $d_n$  equals  $\pm 1$ , this factor is constant and equal to  $\prod_{n=0}^{\infty} \sqrt{1 + 2^{-2n}} = 1.646760 \dots$ .

For instance, to compute the sine and cosine of a number  $\theta$ ,  $|\theta| \leq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k}$ , one may take  $x_0 = 1/K = 0.607252 \dots$ ,  $y_0 = 0$ , and  $z_0 = \theta$ .

CORDIC may be understood as a rewriting of numbers in special bases, called *discrete bases* [4], [13]. After the iterations,  $z_0$  is equal to  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} d_k \arctan 2^{-k}$ . The sequence  $(\arctan 2^{-k})$  is the "base," and the terms  $d_k$  are the "digits" of the representation of  $z_0$ . Such a representation is possible because for any  $n$ ,  $\arctan 2^{-n} \leq \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k}$ .

A positive sequence  $(e_n)$  satisfying

$$\forall n, \quad e_n \leq \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} e_k \quad (1)$$

is called a *discrete basis of order 1* [13], and enables such representations of numbers.

The basic idea of the rotation mode of CORDIC is to perform a rotation of angle  $\theta = z_0$  as a sequence of rotations of angle  $\pm e_n$ , with  $e_n = \arctan 2^{-n}$ . We start from  $(x_0, y_0)$ , and the point  $(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1})$  is obtained from the point  $(x_n, y_n)$  by a rotation of angle  $d_n e_n$  ( $d_n = \pm 1$ ). This gives

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_{n+1} \\ y_{n+1} \end{pmatrix} = \cos(e_n) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -d_n 2^{-n} \\ d_n 2^{-n} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}. \quad (A)$$

In relation (A), there is only one "true" multiplication, since

in radix 2 a multiplication by  $2^{-n}$  reduces to a shift. In order to avoid this multiplication, instead of (A), we perform

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_{n+1} \\ y_{n+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -d_n 2^{-n} \\ d_n 2^{-n} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

which is the basic CORDIC step: it is not a *rotation* of angle  $e_n$ , but a *similarity* of angle  $e_n$  and factor  $1/\cos e_n$ . In the following, we call *c-similarity of angle  $\alpha$*  a similarity of angle  $\alpha$  and factor  $1/\cos \alpha$ . In the *vectoring mode* of CORDIC,  $d_n$  is chosen equal to the sign of  $(-y_n)$  (+1 if  $y_n \leq 0$ , else -1). This gives

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \\ z_n \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \begin{pmatrix} K \sqrt{x_0^2 + y_0^2} \\ 0 \\ z_0 + \arctan \frac{y_0}{x_0} \end{pmatrix}$$

where the constant  $K$  is the same as in rotation mode. Since trigonometric and hyperbolic functions are closely related, one may expect that a slight modification of Volder's algorithm could be used for calculating hyperbolic functions. In 1971, John Walther [17] found the correct modification, and obtained the *generalized CORDIC iteration*:

$$\begin{aligned} x_{n+1} &= x_n - m d_n y_n 2^{-\sigma(n)} \\ y_{n+1} &= y_n + d_n x_n 2^{-\sigma(n)} \\ z_{n+1} &= z_n - d_n e_\sigma(n) \end{aligned}$$

where the results and the values of  $d_n$ ,  $m$ , and  $\sigma(n)$  are presented in Tables I and II.

In the *hyperbolic mode* ( $m = -1$ ), the iterations 4, 13, 40,  $\dots$ ,  $k, 3k+1, \dots$  are repeated (this is why we need to use the function  $\sigma$ ). This is necessary since the sequence  $\tanh^{-1} 2^{-n}$  does not satisfy relation (1). The sequence  $\tanh^{-1} 2^{-\sigma(n)}$  satisfies this relation.  $K'$  equals  $\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{1 - 2^{-2\sigma(n)}} = 0.82815 \dots$ .

In Walther's version CORDIC makes it possible to compute a lot of mathematical functions [17]. For instance,  $e^x$  is obtained by adding  $\text{ch } x$  and  $\text{sh } x$ , and  $\ln x$  is obtained using the relation

$$\ln(x) = 2 \tanh^{-1} \left| \frac{1-x}{1+x} \right|.$$

### B. CORDIC Iteration with Redundant Number Systems

In order to accelerate the CORDIC iterations, one can use *redundant number systems*, which enable additions without carry propagation. Here, we focus our attention on binary signed digit representations, however, the results would be similar in carry-save representation. The sequence of digits  $u_0, u_1, \dots, u_m, u_i = -1, 0, 1$ , represents the number  $\sum_{i=0}^m u_i 2^{-i}$ . With redundant notations, the main problem is the evaluation of  $d_n$ . Assume that we are in *rotation mode*, and that numbers are represented with  $m$  digits. In classical CORDIC,  $d_n$  is equal to the sign of  $z_n$ . In signed-digit representation, this sign is the sign of the most significant nonzero digit: the knowledge of it requires the examination of some number of digits which may be close to  $m$ . Thus, the choice " $d_n = \text{sign}(z_n)$ " is not satisfactory: the advantage of the redundant representation (a constant time elementary step)

TABLE I  
DIFFERENT FUNCTIONS COMPUTABLE USING CORDIC

	$d_n = \text{sign}(z_n)$ (rotation mode)	$d_n = -\text{sign}(y_n)$ (vectoring mode)
circular $m = 1$	$\begin{array}{c} x \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \\ y \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \\ z \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \end{array} \begin{array}{l} K(x \cos z - y \sin z) \\ K(y \cos z + x \sin z) \\ 0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} x \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \\ y \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \\ z \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \end{array} \begin{array}{l} K\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \\ 0 \\ z - \tan^{-1}(y/x) \end{array}$
linear $m = 0$	$\begin{array}{c} x \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \\ y \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \\ z \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \end{array} \begin{array}{l} x \\ y + xz \\ 0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} x \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \\ y \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \\ z \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \end{array} \begin{array}{l} x \\ 0 \\ z - y/x \end{array}$
hyperbolic $m = -1$	$\begin{array}{c} x \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \\ y \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \\ z \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \end{array} \begin{array}{l} K'(x \text{ch } z - y \text{sh } z) \\ K'(y \text{ch } z + x \text{sh } z) \\ 0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} x \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \\ y \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \\ z \rightarrow \text{CORDIC} \end{array} \begin{array}{l} K'\sqrt{x^2 - y^2} \\ 0 \\ z - \tanh^{-1}(y/x) \end{array}$

would be lost. An alternative is to accept the value  $d_n = 0$ . One examines only the most  $p$  significant digits of  $z_n$ . The number  $z_n^*$  constituted by these  $p$  digits is close to  $z_n$ . The basic idea is the following:

- If  $z_n^* \neq 0$ , then  $z_n^*$  and  $z_n$  have the same sign, thus the choice  $d_n = \text{sign}(z_n^*)$  is convenient.
- If  $z_n^* = 0$ , then  $|z_n|$  is very small. Therefore one can take  $d_n = 0$ .

Of course, this is not a proof, and the correct value of  $p$  which ensures convergence of  $z_n$  to zero must be calculated. The main drawback of such a method is that the scale factors  $K$  and  $K'$  are no longer constants. Since  $K$  is equal to  $\prod_{n=0}^{\infty} 1/\cos(d_n \arctan 2^{-n})$ , it is a constant if the  $d_i$ 's are all equal to -1 or +1, but it is no longer a constant if the  $d_i$ 's are allowed to be equal to zero. Some authors suggested different solutions to that problem. Takagi, Asada, and Yajima [14], [15] propose two methods, called *double rotation method* and *correcting rotation method*. The basic principle of the double rotation method is that at step  $i$  one performs, instead of a c-similarity of angle  $d_i \arctan 2^{-i}$ :

- If  $d_i = \pm 1$ , two c-similarities of angle  $d_i \arctan 2^{-i-1}$
- If  $d_i = 0$ , a c-similarity of angle  $+\arctan 2^{-i-1}$ , then a c-similarity of angle  $-\arctan 2^{-i-1}$ .

With such a method, the scale factor is constant. However, it leads to more complicated iterations (or twice as many iterations if they remain unchanged).

The basic idea of the correcting rotation method is the following: as above, one examines the number  $z_n^*$  constituted by the  $p$  most significant digits of  $z_n$ . Then, one takes, in rotation mode,  $d_n = \text{sign}(z_n^*)$  if  $z_n^* \neq 0$ , +1 otherwise. Sometimes, an error occurs, but it is possible to show that a repetition of the iterations  $p, 2p, 3p \dots$  is sufficient to correct this error.

Ercegovac and Lang [9] propose to evaluate the scale factor in parallel with the CORDIC iterations, and then to divide the results  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  by this factor.

TABLE II  
VALUES OF  $\sigma(n)$  AND  $e_n$  IN TABLE I

$m = +1$	$\sigma(n) = n$	$e_n = \arctan 2^{-n}$
$m = -1$	$\sigma(n) = 1, 2, 3, 4, 4, 5, 6, \dots, 12, 13, 13, 14, 15, \dots, 39, 40, 40, 41, \dots$	$e_n = \tanh^{-1} 2^{-n}$
$m = 0$	$\sigma(n) = n$	$e_n = 2^{-n}$

As Takagi, Asada, and Yajima's methods, our solution gives a constant scale factor. Moreover, it needs no repetition of iterations, and is therefore faster than theirs. However, it leads probably to a little more hardware, since we perform in parallel 2 classical CORDIC iterations, in a way similar to Ercegovic and Lang's *on the fly* conversion of numbers from redundant to nonredundant binary representation [7].

### III. BRANCHING CORDIC ROTATION

We shall use the following properties:

$$(P1) \quad \arctan 2^{-n} < \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k} < 2^{-n}$$

$$(P2) \quad \arctan 2^{-n} - \sum_{k=n+1}^{n+p} \arctan 2^{-k} < 2^{-n-p}.$$

(P1) is well known (see for instance [13] for proof). (P2) is a consequence of (P1). Indeed, one can deduce from (P1):

$$\begin{aligned} \arctan 2^{-n} - \sum_{k=n+1}^{n+p} \arctan 2^{-k} &\leq \sum_{k=n+p+1}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k} \\ &\leq \sum_{k=n+p+1}^{\infty} 2^{-k} = 2^{-n-p}. \end{aligned}$$

#### A. Computation of the Sequence $z_n$

Let us examine the basic principle of our method. We look for a decomposition  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} d_k \arctan 2^{-k}$  of a number  $\theta$ , with  $d_k = \pm 1$ . In order to do that, we start like the methods presented above. We build a sequence  $z_n$  defined

by  $z_{n+1} = z_n - d_n \arctan 2^{-n}$ . At each step, we examine  $p$  digits of  $z_n$  in order to decide the value of  $d_n$  (in practice,  $p = 3$ ). Then

- If the examination of these  $p$  digits is sufficient to be sure that  $z_n > 0$ , we take  $d_n = +1$ .
- If the examination of these  $p$  digits is sufficient to be sure that  $z_n < 0$ , we take  $d_n = -1$ .
- If the examination of these  $p$  digits is not sufficient to know the sign of  $z_n$ , then we try two computations in parallel: the former assuming  $z_n > 0$  (and therefore with  $d_n = 1$ ), the latter assuming  $z_n < 0$  (with  $d_n = -1$ ). We call *branching* this operation.

One may believe that in one or both of the parallel computations, new branchings may occur, creating a lot of parallel computations. This is not true since if a computation causes a branching, this proves that the associated value of  $z_n$  is sufficiently small to ensure the convergence ( $z_n \rightarrow 0$ ) of at least one of its two subcomputations, therefore, all other computations performed in parallel with it can be stopped. Thus, there are always at most two parallel computations. Another objection may be: if no new branching appears, how does one decide which computation is the correct one. We shall see that in such a case, both computations lead to a correct approximation of the sine and cosine.

In practice, we build in parallel two sequences  $z_n^+$  and  $z_n^-$  (in two CORDIC modules called "+" and "-") defined by the following algorithm. We suppose that we have a function  $\text{eval}(z_n)$  which returns at step  $n$  a value in  $\{-1, 0, 1\}$ , such that

- If  $\text{eval}(z_n) \neq 0$ , then  $\text{eval}(z_n) = \text{sign}(z_n)$
- If  $\text{eval}(z_n) = 0$  then  $|z_n| < 2^{-n-1}$ .

#### Algorithm branching - CORDIC

Procedure updatez (n);

begin

in parallel :

$$z_{n+1}^+ := z_n^+ - d_n^+ \arctan 2^{-n};$$

{in module "+"}

$$z_{n+1}^- := z_n^- - d_n^- \arctan 2^{-n};$$

{in module "-"}

in parallel :

$$s^+ := \text{eval } z_{n+1}^+$$

$$s^- := \text{eval } z_{n+1}^-$$

end ;

Begin

$$i := 0; \quad \{\text{initializations}\}$$

$$z_0^+ := z_0^- := \theta;$$

$$s^+ := s^- := \text{eval}(\theta);$$

1: while  $s^+ \neq 0$  and  $s^- \neq 0$  do {while no branching}

begin

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         $d_i^+ := s^+$  ;
         $d_i^- := s^-$  ;
        updatez (i) ;
         $i := i + 1$  ;
    end ;
2 : {a branching is occurring}
     $d_i^+ := 1$  ;
     $d_i^- := -1$  ; {branching}
    updatez (i) ;
     $i := i + 1$  ;
3 : while ( $s^+ = -1$ ) and ( $s^- = +1$ ) do {while branching}
    begin
         $d_i^+ := s^+$  ;
         $d_i^- := s^-$  ; {branching continuing}
        updatez (i) ;
         $i := i + 1$  ;
    end ;
    {new branching, or end of branching}
    if  $s^+ = 0$  then {module "+" performed the good computation}
        begin
             $z_i^- := z_i^+$  ;
            go to 2 {branching treatment}
        end ;
    else if  $s^+ = +1$  then {module "+" performed the good computation}
        begin
             $z_i^- := z_i^+$  ;
             $s^- := s^+$  ;
            go to 1 {branching terminated}
        end ;
    else if  $s^- = 0$  then {module "-" performed the good computation}
        begin
             $z_i^+ := z_i^-$  ;
            go to 2 {branching treatment}
        end ;
    else if  $s^- = -1$  then {module "-" performed the good computation}
        begin
             $z_i^+ := z_i^-$  ;
             $s^+ := s^-$  ;
            go to 1 {branching terminated}
        end ;
    end ;

```

Fig. 1 sums up the different cases occurring when performing the algorithm.

*Theorem 1:* The sequences  $(z_n^+)$  and  $(z_n^-)$  generated by the previous algorithm satisfy

- (1) At step  $i$ , at least one of the terms  $|z_i^+|$  and  $|z_i^-|$  is lower than or equal to  $\sum_{k=i}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k} \leq 2^{-i+1}$ .
- (2) Both terms are lower than or equal to  $3 \cdot 2^{-i+1}$ .

*Proof:* a) *Proof of (1):*

First, let us prove 1) by induction. We assume that 1) is true at step  $i-1$ : at least one of the terms  $(z_{i-1}^+)$  and  $(z_{i-1}^-)$  has an absolute value lower than or equal to  $\sum_{k=i-1}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k}$ , and we compute  $s^+ = \text{eval}(z_{i-1}^+)$  and  $s^- = \text{eval}(z_{i-1}^-)$ .

1) If  $s^+ \neq 0$  and  $s^- \neq 0$  then

- If we are not in a branching (both modules produce the same computation), then  $|z_{i-1}^+| \leq \sum_{k=i-1}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k}$ . Since  $s^+ \neq 0$ ,  $s^+$  has the sign of  $z_{i-1}^+$ , and we take  $d_{i-1}^+ = s^+$ . Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
 |z_i^+| &= |z_{i-1}^+| - \arctan 2^{-i+1} \\
 &\leq \sum_{k=i-1}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k} - \arctan 2^{-i+1}
 \end{aligned}$$

hence:

$$- \sum_{k=i}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k} \leq z_i^+ \leq \sum_{k=i}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k}.$$

- If we are in a branching

• if  $s^+ = -1$  and  $s^- = +1$  (label 3 of the algorithm:

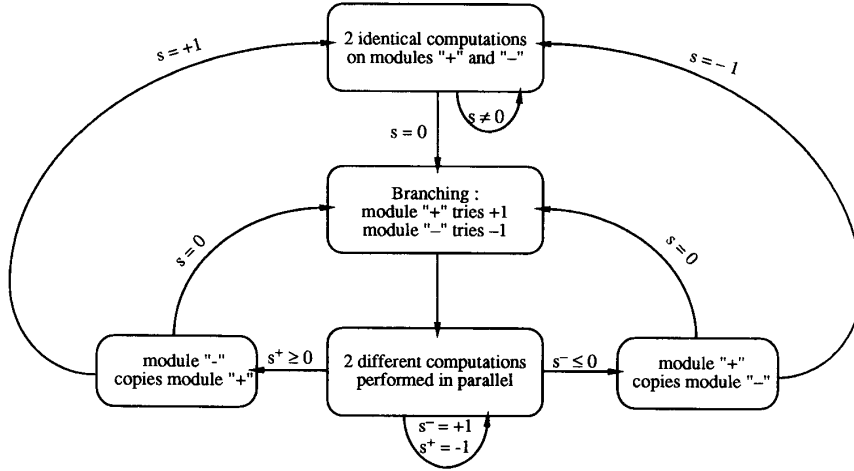


Fig. 1. Diagram of branching-CORDIC.

branching is continuing). Consider the case where  $z_{i-1}^+$  has an absolute value lower than or equal to  $\sum_{k=i}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k}$  (if not, the case is absolutely symmetrical by interchanging modules "+" and "-"). As previously, we take  $d_{i-1}^+ = s^+$ . Therefore  $|z_i^+| \leq \sum_{k=i}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k}$ .

- if  $s^+ = +1$  or  $s^- = -1$  (end of branching). Assume that  $s^+ = +1$  (the case  $s^- = -1$  is symmetrical), and that the current branching started at step  $k-1$ . Since no new branching or end of branching occurred before step  $i$ , all values of  $s^+$ , from step  $k$  to step  $i-2$  have been found equal to  $-1$ . Therefore,  $z_{i-2}^+ < 0$  and  $z_{i-1}^+ > 0$ . Thus, since  $z_{i-1}^+ = z_{i-2}^+ + \arctan 2^{-i+2}$ :

$$z_{i-1}^+ \leq \arctan 2^{-i+2} \leq \sum_{k=i-1}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k}.$$

From this last result, we deduce as previously

$$|z_i^+| \leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k}.$$

2) If  $s^+ = 0$  then (the case  $s^- = 0$  is symmetrical): Since  $s^+ = 0$ , we deduce  $|z_{i-1}^+| \leq 2^{-i}$ . Now we compute

- $z_i^+ = z_{i-1}^+ - \arctan 2^{-i+1}$
- $z_i^- = z_{i-1}^+ + \arctan 2^{-i+1}$

and deduce that  $\text{Min}(|z_i^+|; |z_i^-|) \leq \text{Max}(2^{-i}; \arctan 2^{-i+1}) \leq \sum_{k=i}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k}$ .

Thus (1) is proved.

b) Proof of (2):

- If we are not in a branching, then  $|z_i^+| = |z_i^-| \leq \sum_{k=i}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k} < 2^{-i+1} < 3 \cdot 2^{-i+1}$ .
- If we are in a branching: Assume that the current branching started at step  $p$ . There exists  $z_p^0$  (equal to

$z_p^+$  or  $z_p^-$ ) such that

$$z_i^+ = z_p^0 - \arctan 2^{-p} + \sum_{k=p+1}^{i-1} \arctan 2^{-k} \quad \text{and}$$

$$z_i^- = z_p^0 + \arctan 2^{-p} + \sum_{k=p+1}^{i-1} \arctan 2^{-k}.$$

Therefore  $z_i^- - z_i^+ = 2(\arctan 2^{-p} - \sum_{k=p+1}^{i-1} \arctan 2^{-k}) < 2 \cdot 2^{-i+1}$  [from (P2)]. Moreover, since we are in a branching,  $z_{i-1}^-$  was positive and  $z_{i-1}^+$  was negative, thus  $z_i^- = z_{i-1}^- - \arctan 2^{-i+1} \geq -\arctan 2^{-i+1}$ , and  $z_i^+ = z_{i-1}^+ + \arctan 2^{-i+1} \geq \arctan 2^{-i+1}$ . Therefore,  $z_i^- - z_i^+ \geq -2 \arctan 2^{-i+1} \geq -2^{-i+2}$ . Therefore  $|z_i^- - z_i^+| \leq 2^{-i+2}$ .

Therefore, since  $|z_i^+| \leq 2^{-i+1}$  or  $|z_i^-| \leq 2^{-i+1}$ ,  $|z_i^+|$  and  $|z_i^-|$  are less than  $2^{-i+2} + 2^{-i+1} = 3 \cdot 2^{-i+1}$ . ■

Now, we give a convenient method enabling the computation of function  $\text{eval}(z_n)$ . Let us assume that we are at step  $i$ : we want to evaluate  $z_i^-$  and  $z_i^+$  from  $z_{i-1}^-$  and  $z_{i-1}^+$ . The absolute values of  $z_{i-1}^-$  and  $z_{i-1}^+$  are less than or equal to  $3 \cdot 2^{-i}$ , and  $\text{eval}(z_i)$  must satisfy at step  $i$ :

- If  $\text{eval}(z_i) \neq 0$  then  $\text{eval}(z_i) = \text{sign}(z_i)$
- If  $\text{eval}(z_i) = 0$  then  $|z_i| \leq 2^{-i-1}$ .

Let us define the *truncation* of a digit chain as  $\tau(x_{-p}x_{-p+1} \dots x_{-1}x_0 \cdot x_1x_2 \dots) = x_{-p} \dots x_{-1}x_0$ .

$\tau$  is not the classical truncation or integer part function, and depends on the *representations* of numbers. For instance, the numbers  $10.\bar{1}101$  and  $1\bar{1}.111\bar{1}$  represent the same value, however

$$\tau(10.\bar{1}101) = 10(\text{radix } 2) = 2(\text{radix } 10) \neq \tau(1\bar{1}.111\bar{1}) = 1.$$

The following lemma will help us to find the sign of a number by examining only 3 digit positions.

**Lemma 1:** Let  $z = z_{-p}z_{-p+1} \dots z_{-1}z_0 \cdot z_1z_2z_3 \dots$  be a number satisfying  $|z| < 3 \cdot 2^{-j}$ . Let  $C$  be the integer  $z_{j-2}z_{j-1}z_j$  modulo 8 =  $\tau(2^j z)$  modulo 8.

- If  $C$  is equal to 1, 2, or 3 then  $z \geq 0$ .
- If  $C$  is equal to 5, 6, or 7 then  $z \leq 0$ .
- If  $C = 0$  then  $|z| \leq 2^{-j}$ .
- the case  $C = 4$  is impossible.

*Proof:* From  $|z| < 3 \cdot 2^{-j}$  we deduce  $|2^j z| < 3$ . Therefore, since for every  $x$   $|\tau(x) - x| \leq 1$ ,  $|\tau(2^j z)| < 4$ . Thus,  $\tau(2^j z)$  is  $-3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2$ , or  $3$ , and  $C = 4$  is impossible.

If  $\tau(2^j z)$  is not equal to zero, then obviously, the signs of  $z$  and  $\tau(2^j z)$  are equal. Therefore

- if  $C = 1, 2$ , or  $3$  then, since  $C = \tau(2^j z)$  modulo 8 and  $\tau(2^j z) \in \{-3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3\}$ ,  $\tau(2^j z)$  is equal to 1, 2, or 3, hence  $z \geq 0$ .
- if  $C = 5, 6$ , or  $7$  then, since  $C = \tau(2^j z)$  modulo 8 and  $\tau(2^j z) \in \{-3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3\}$ ,  $\tau(2^j z)$  is equal to  $-1, -2$ , or  $-3$ , hence  $z \leq 0$ .
- if  $C = 0$  then, since  $C = \tau(2^j z)$  modulo 8 and  $\tau(2^j z) \in \{-3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3\}$ ,  $\tau(2^j z)$  is equal to zero, hence  $|2^j z| \leq 1$ , i.e.,  $|z| \leq 2^{-j}$ .

*Example:* If  $z_{j-2} = z_{j-1} = z_j = \bar{1}$ , then  $z_{j-2}z_{j-1}z_j = -7$ , i.e.,  $z_{j-2}z_{j-1}z_j \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ , and we deduce from the lemma that  $z$  is nonnegative.

Table III gives the sign of  $z$  for the different cases that may occur. This table may be used to implement the function eval, which may be reduced to a function of 3 digits:

**function** *eval*( $a, b, c$ ): **returns** 1 if  $[abc] \pmod{8}$  is 1, 2, or 3  
 $\bar{1}$  if  $[abc] \pmod{8}$  is 5, 6, or 7  
 0 if  $[abc] \pmod{8}$  is 0  
 anything if  $[abc] \pmod{8}$  is 4.

### B. Computation of Rotations

Now, with each sequence  $(z_i^-)$  and  $(z_i^+)$  is associated a  $(x, y)$  rotation. Module “+” performs

$$\begin{aligned} x_{i+1}^+ &= x_i^+ - d_i^+ y_i^+ 2^{-i} \\ y_{i+1}^+ &= y_i^+ + d_i^+ x_i^+ 2^{-i} \end{aligned}$$

while module “−” performs the rotations

$$\begin{aligned} x_{i+1}^- &= x_i^- - d_i^- y_i^- 2^{-i} \\ y_{i+1}^- &= y_i^- + d_i^- x_i^- 2^{-i}. \end{aligned}$$

In the algorithm *branching-CORDIC* presented above, one has to add the two following instructions:

- In parallel with *updatez* ( $i$ ), perform the two  $(x, y)$  rotations.
- When a new branching or end of branching occurs:
  - In parallel with an instruction “ $z_i^+ := z_i^-$ ,” perform  $x_i^+ := x_i^-$  and  $y_i^+ := y_i^-$ .
  - In parallel with an instruction “ $z_i^- := z_i^+$ ,” perform  $x_i^- := x_i^+$  and  $y_i^- := y_i^+$ .

Fig. 2 presents the global architecture of a CORDIC processor that implements our algorithm.

TABLE III  
SIGN OF  $z$  AT STEP  $j - 1$  OBTAINED BY EXAMINING ONLY 3 DIGIT POSITIONS

$z_{j-2}$	$z_{j-1}$	$z_j$	sign	$[z_{j-2}z_{j-1}z_j] \pmod{8}$
$\bar{1}$	$\bar{1}$	$\bar{1}$	+	1
$\bar{1}$	$\bar{1}$	0	+	2
$\bar{1}$	$\bar{1}$	1	+	3
$\bar{1}$	0	$\bar{1}$	+	3
$\bar{1}$	0	0		4 impossible
$\bar{1}$	0	1	-	5
$\bar{1}$	1	$\bar{1}$	-	5
$\bar{1}$	1	0	-	6
$\bar{1}$	1	1	-	7
0	$\bar{1}$	$\bar{1}$	-	5
0	$\bar{1}$	0	-	6
0	$\bar{1}$	1	-	7
0	0	$\bar{1}$	-	7
0	0	0	??	0 branching
0	0	1	+	1
0	1	$\bar{1}$	+	1
0	1	0	+	2
0	1	1	+	3
1	$\bar{1}$	$\bar{1}$	+	1
1	$\bar{1}$	0	+	2
1	$\bar{1}$	1	+	3
1	0	$\bar{1}$	+	3
1	0	0		4 impossible
1	0	1	-	5
1	1	$\bar{1}$	-	5
1	1	0	-	6
1	1	1	-	7

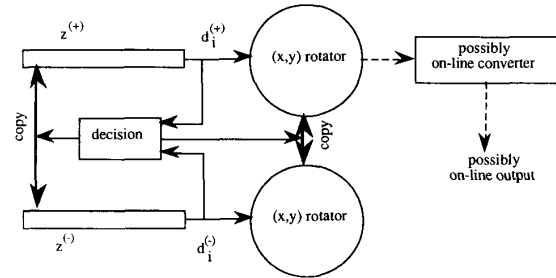


Fig. 2. Global architecture of a branching CORDIC processor.

### IV. ON-LINE IMPLEMENTATION OF ALGORITHM

Now, we propose an on-line implementation of our algorithm for sine and cosine functions. On-line algorithms receive their input data and give their results serially, most significant digit first. The *delay* of an on-line algorithm is the number  $\delta$  such that  $\nu$  digits of the result are deduced from  $\nu + \delta$  digits of the input values.  $\delta$  may be either positive or negative. The use of on-line arithmetic implies some changes in our algorithm:

- 1) The input value  $z_0 = \theta$  of the rotation angle is carried serially. Therefore, at step  $i$ , only  $i$  digits of this value will be available.
- 2)  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  will be output on-line. In order to do that, these values have to be transformed: it is the *digitization* process.

Since we assume that we compute only sine and cosine functions, the angle  $z_0$  is the only input value;  $x_0 = 1/K$  and  $y_0 = 0$  are internal constants. It is possible to imagine an on-line rotation using our algorithm, with  $x_0$  and  $y_0$  carried serially. However, it would be necessary to multiply  $x_0$  and  $y_0$  by the inverse of the scale factor, in on-line mode, before the rotation (or to multiply the final values of  $x$  and  $y$  after the rotation). First, we examine the modification to our algorithm, called for by the on-line input of the rotation angle.

#### A. Modifications Due to the On-Line Input

Let us assume that we want to compute the sine and

cosine of  $z_0 = \theta = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \theta_i 2^{-i}$ . Since at the beginning  $z_0$  is not known with full precision, instead of the sequences  $z_n^+$  and  $z_n^-$  defined above, we manipulate two sequences  $\hat{z}_n^+$  and  $\hat{z}_n^-$  defined by the following *on-line branching CORDIC* algorithm. We assume that now, function  $\text{eval}(\hat{z}_n)$  satisfies at step  $n$

- If  $\text{eval}(\hat{z}_n) = 1$  then  $\hat{z}_n \geq 2^{-n-2}$
- If  $\text{eval}(\hat{z}_n) = -1$  then  $\hat{z}_n \leq -2^{-n-2}$
- If  $\text{eval}(\hat{z}_n) = 0$  then  $|\hat{z}_n| \leq 2^{-n-1}$ .

This new function  $\text{eval}$  may be implemented in a way very similar to the one presented in Section III-A, examining only 4 digits of  $\hat{z}_n$ . The algorithm becomes

---

```

Algorithm On - line branching - CORDIC
procedure updatez (n);
begin
  in parallel :
     $\hat{z}_{n+1}^+ := \hat{z}_n^+ - d_n^+ \arctan 2^{-n} + \theta_{n+3} 2^{-n-3}$ ; {in module "+"}
     $\hat{z}_{n+1}^- := \hat{z}_n^- - d_n^- \arctan 2^{-n} + \theta_{n+3} 2^{-n-3}$ ; {in module "-"}
  in parallel :
     $s^+ := \text{eval } \hat{z}_{n+1}^+$ ;
     $s^- := \text{eval } \hat{z}_{n+1}^-$ ;
end;

Begin
   $i := 0$ ; {initializations}
   $\hat{z}_0^+ := \hat{z}_0^- := 0. \theta_1 \theta_2 = \theta_1 2^{-1} + \theta_2 2^{-2}$ ;
   $s^+ := s^- := \text{eval}(\hat{z}_0^+)$ ;
1 : while  $s^+ \neq 0$  and  $s^- \neq 0$  do {while no branching}
  begin
     $d_i^+ := s^+$ ;
     $d_i^- := s^-$ ;
    updatez (i);
     $i := i + 1$ ;
  end;
2 : {a branching is occurring}
   $d_i^+ := 1$ ;
   $d_i^- := -1$ ; {branching}
  updatez (i);
   $i := i + 1$ ;
3 : while ( $s^+ = -1$ ) and ( $s^- = +1$ ) do {while branching}
  begin
     $d_i^+ := s^+$ ;
     $d_i^- := s^-$ ; {branching continuing}
    updatez (i);
     $i := i + 1$ ;
  end;
  {new branching, or end of branching}
  if  $s^+ = 0$  then {module "+" performed the good computation}
  begin
     $\hat{z}_i^- := \hat{z}_i^+$ ;
    go to 2; {branching treatment}
  end;
  else if  $s^+ = +1$  then {module "+" performed the good computation}
  begin
     $\hat{z}_i^- := \hat{z}_i^+$ ;
     $s^- := s^+$ ;

```

---

```

        go to 1;          {branching terminated}
    end;
    else if  $s^- = 0$  then      {module "-" performed the good computation}
    begin
         $\hat{z}_i^+ := \hat{z}_i^-$ ;
        go to 2;          {branching treatment}
    end;
    else if  $s^- = -1$  then      {module "-" performed the good computation}
    begin
         $\hat{z}_i^+ := \hat{z}_i^-$ ;
         $s^+ := s^-$ ;
        go to 1;          {branching terminated}
    end;

```

Now, let us define (only for proof: they are not computable in practice) two sequences  $z_n^+$  and  $z_n^-$  as

- 1)  $z_0^+ = z_0^- = \theta$ .
- 2) add to procedure *updatez* ( $n$ ) in the algorithm the instructions

$$z_{n+1}^+ = z_n^+ - d_n^+ \arctan 2^{-n}$$

$$z_{n+1}^- = z_n^- - d_n^- \arctan 2^{-n}$$

- 3) in the algorithm, when an instruction " $\hat{z}_i^+ := \hat{z}_i^-$ " is performed, perform also " $z_i^+ := z_i^-$ " and when instruction " $\hat{z}_i^- := \hat{z}_i^+$ " is performed, perform also " $z_i^- := z_i^+$ ".

Obviously, in a practical implementation, we do not compute these sequences (this is impossible since at the beginning of the computation,  $\theta$  is not known with full precision). They are defined only for proof. We assume that we have taken  $x_0 = 1/K$  and  $y_0 = 0$ , in order to obtain a final scale factor equal to 1. The values  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  of the  $n$ th step of the CORDIC iteration are equal to  $R_n \cos \theta_n$  and  $R_n \sin \theta_n$ , where  $R_n$  is equal to  $\prod_{i=n}^{\infty} (1 + 2^{-2i})^{-1/2}$ , with  $\theta_n = \theta - z_n$ . Therefore we need to bound  $|z_n| = |\theta_n - \theta|$ .

- Theorem 2:** 1) at step  $i$ , at least one of the terms  $|z_i^+|$  and  $|z_i^-|$  is lower than or equal to  $\sum_{k=i}^{\infty} \arctan 2^{-k} \leq 2^{-i+1}$
- 2) Both terms are lower than or equal to  $3 \cdot 2^{-i+1}$ . ■

**Proof:** We do not give a detailed proof, since it is very similar to that of theorem 1 if we remark that

$$\begin{cases} z_i^+ = \hat{z}_i^+ + \sum_{k=i+3}^{\infty} \theta_k 2^{-k} \\ z_i^- = \hat{z}_i^- + \sum_{k=i+3}^{\infty} \theta_k 2^{-k} \end{cases}$$

which implies

$$\begin{cases} |z_i^+ - \hat{z}_i^+| \leq 2^{-i-2} \\ |z_i^- - \hat{z}_i^-| \leq 2^{-i-2} \end{cases}$$

Therefore

- If  $\text{eval}(\hat{z}_i^+) = 1$  then  $z_i^+ \geq 0$
- If  $\text{eval}(\hat{z}_i^-) = 1$  then  $z_i^- \geq 0$
- If  $\text{eval}(\hat{z}_i^+) = -1$  then  $z_i^+ \leq 0$
- If  $\text{eval}(\hat{z}_i^-) = -1$  then  $z_i^- \leq 0$
- If  $\text{eval}(\hat{z}_i^+) = 0$  then  $|z_i^+| \leq 3 \cdot 2^{-i-2}$
- If  $\text{eval}(\hat{z}_i^-) = 0$  then  $|z_i^-| \leq 3 \cdot 2^{-i-2}$ .

## B. Error Evaluation

1) *Use of the Outputs of One Module:* Let us consider here the values  $x_n$ ,  $y_n$  and  $z_n$  of any of the 2 modules "+" and "-". As previously, we assume that we want to compute the sine and/or cosine of  $\theta$ ,  $|\theta| \leq 1$ , and we denote  $\theta_n = \theta - z_n$ . Since we have:  $|z_n| \leq 3 \cdot 2^{-n+1}$ , we deduce  $|\theta_n - \theta| \leq 3 \cdot 2^{-n+1}$ . Therefore we have

$$\begin{cases} |\cos \theta_n - \cos \theta| \leq 3 \cdot 2^{-n+1} \\ |\sin \theta_n - \sin \theta| \leq 3 \cdot 2^{-n+1} \end{cases}$$

We assume that we have taken  $x_0 = \prod_{i=0}^{\infty} (1 + 2^{-2i})^{-1/2}$  and  $y_0 = 0$ , in order to obtain a final scale factor equal to 1. The values  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  of the  $n$ th step of the CORDIC iteration are equal to  $R_n \cos \theta_n$  and  $R_n \sin \theta_n$ , where  $R_n$  is equal to  $\prod_{i=n}^{\infty} (1 + 2^{-2i})^{-1/2}$ . In order to output  $\cos \theta$  and  $\sin \theta$  in on-line mode, we have to estimate  $|x_n - \cos \theta|$  and  $|y_n - \sin \theta|$ .

We have

$$\begin{aligned} |x_n - \cos \theta| &= |R_n \cos \theta_n - \cos \theta| \\ &= |\cos \theta_n - \cos \theta + (R_n - 1) \cos \theta_n| \\ &\leq |\cos \theta_n - \cos \theta| + |R_n - 1| \\ &\leq 3 \cdot 2^{-n+1} + |R_n - 1|. \end{aligned}$$

We obtain in a similar fashion

$$|y_n - \sin \theta| \leq 3 \cdot 2^{-n+1} + |R_n - 1|.$$

Therefore, we have to estimate the value  $|R_n - 1| = 1 - R_n$ .

**Lemma:**  $1 - R_n \leq (2/3) 2^{-2n}$ . ■



*Proof:*  $R_n$  is equal to  $\prod_{i=n}^{\infty} (1 + 2^{-2i})^{-1/2}$ , therefore  $\log R_n = -(1/2) \sum_{i=n}^{\infty} \log(1 + 4^{-i}) \geq -(1/2) \sum_{i=n}^{\infty} 4^{-i}$ . Therefore  $\log R_n \geq -(1/2)[4^{-n+1}/3]$ , thus  $R_n \geq e^{-(1/2)[4^{-n+1}/3]} \geq 1 - 1/2[4^{-n+1}/3]$  thus  $1 - R_n \leq (1/2)[4^{-n+1}/3] = 2^{-2n}$  and the lemma is proved. ■

From the lemma, we deduce the following result:

**Theorem 3:** The values  $x_n = (x_n^+ \text{ or } x_n^-)$  and  $y_n = (y_n^+ \text{ or } y_n^-)$  satisfy  $|x_n - \cos \theta|$  and  $|y_n - \sin \theta|$  are less than  $2^{-n+3}$ . ■

*Proof:* From the lemma, and from the relations

$$\begin{aligned} |y_n - \sin \theta| &\leq 3 \cdot 2^{-n+1} + |R_n - 1| \\ |x_n - \cos \theta| &\leq 3 \cdot 2^{-n+1} + |R_n - 1| \end{aligned}$$

we deduce that  $|x_n - \cos \theta|$  and  $|x_n - \sin \theta|$  are lower than or equal to

$$\begin{aligned} 3 \cdot 2^{-n+1} + \frac{2}{3} 2^{-2n} &= \left(3 + \frac{2}{3} 2^{-n-1}\right) \cdot 2^{-n+1} \\ &\leq \left(3 + \frac{1}{3}\right) \cdot 2^{-n+1} < 2^{-n+3}. \end{aligned}$$

2) *Use of the Outputs of Both Modules:* Assume that  $\theta \in [0, +\pi/2]$ . In Section IV-B1, we used the outputs  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  of any of the 2 modules “+” and “-”. It is possible to obtain a better result if we use the values  $(1/2)(x_n^+ + x_n^-)$  and  $(1/2)(y_n^+ + y_n^-)$ . We already showed in Section IV-B1 that

$$\begin{aligned} |x_n^+ - \cos \theta| &< 2^{-n+3} & |y_n^+ - \sin \theta| &< 2^{-n+3} \\ |x_n^- - \cos \theta| &< 2^{-n+3} & |y_n^- - \sin \theta| &< 2^{-n+3}. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A})$$

Moreover, using the relations given by Theorem 2, it may be easily shown (the proof is the same as in Section IV-B1) that

- at least one value  $X_n \in \{x_n^+, x_n^-\}$  satisfies  $|X_n - \cos \theta| < 2^{-n+2}$
- at least one value  $Y_n \in \{y_n^+, y_n^-\}$  satisfies  $|Y_n - \sin \theta| < 2^{-n+2}$

Let us define  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  as  $x_n = (x_n^+ + x_n^-)/2$  and  $y_n = (y_n^+ + y_n^-)/2$ .

- 1) *If we are not in a branching*, then, since  $x_n = x_n^+ = x_n^-$  and  $y_n = y_n^+ = y_n^-$ , we deduce from (B) that  $|x_n - \cos \theta|$  and  $|y_n - \sin \theta|$  are less than  $2^{-n+2}$ .
- 2) *If we are in a branching*. Let us define  $\theta_n^+$  and  $\theta_n^-$  as

$$\theta_n^+ = \theta - z_n^+ \quad \theta_n^- = \theta - z_n^-.$$

We have  $x_n^+ = R_n \cos \theta_n^+$ ,  $y_n^+ = R_n \sin \theta_n^+$ ,  $x_n^- = R_n \cos \theta_n^-$ , and  $y_n^- = R_n \sin \theta_n^-$ . Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} |x_n - \cos \theta| &= \left| \frac{x_n^+ - \cos \theta}{2} + \frac{x_n^- - \cos \theta}{2} \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{R_n \cos \theta_n^+ - \cos \theta}{2} + \frac{R_n \cos \theta_n^- - \cos \theta}{2} \right| \\ &\leq \left| \frac{\cos \theta_n^+ - \cos \theta}{2} + \frac{\cos \theta_n^- - \cos \theta}{2} \right| \\ &\quad + |R_n - 1|. \end{aligned}$$

Since we are in a branching,  $z_n^+ \leq 0$  and  $z_n^- \geq 0$ . Therefore  $\theta_n^+ \geq \theta$  and  $\theta_n^- \leq \theta$ .

Therefore, since  $\theta \in [-\pi/2, \pi/2]$ ,  $(\cos \theta_n^+ - \cos \theta)$  and  $(\cos \theta_n^- - \cos \theta)$  have opposite signs. From this we deduce

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{\cos \theta_n^+ - \cos \theta}{2} + \frac{\cos \theta_n^- - \cos \theta}{2} \right| &\leq \text{Max} \left( \left| \frac{\cos \theta_n^+ - \cos \theta}{2} \right|, \left| \frac{\cos \theta_n^- - \cos \theta}{2} \right| \right) \leq 3 \cdot 2^{-n}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $|x_n - \cos \theta| \leq 3 \cdot 2^{-n} + |R_n - 1| \leq 3 \cdot 2^{-n} + (2/3) \cdot 2^{-2n} \leq 2^{-n+2}$ . Since the same proof may be used for the sine function, we deduce

**Theorem 4:** The values  $x_n = (x_n^+ + x_n^-)/2$  and  $y_n = (y_n^+ + y_n^-)/2$  satisfy  $|x_n - \cos \theta|$  and  $|y_n - \sin \theta|$  are less than  $2^{-n+2}$ .

### C. Digitization

In the following, we shall denote  $x^{(m)}$  the  $i$ th digit of the  $m$ th iterate value  $x^{(m)}$  of  $x$ .  $x^{(m)}$  may be obtained as in Section III-B1 or as in Section IV-B2. Theorems 3 and 4 do not ensure that  $x^{(n)}$  and  $y^{(n)}$  are output-on-line. Although the value  $x^{(n)}$  of each module satisfies  $|x^{(n)} - \cos \theta| \leq 2^{-n+3}$ , this does not prove that the  $n-3$  most significant digits of  $x^{(n)}$  are the  $n-3$  most significant digits of an on-line result. In order to produce an on-line result,  $x^{(n)}$  and  $y^{(n)}$  must be transformed in order to give a new digit result at each iteration. This procedure is sometimes called *digitization* (see for instance [12]).

Assume that at step  $m$  an algorithm for computing function  $f(\theta)$  gives a result  $x^{(m)}$  satisfying

$$|x^{(m)} - f(\theta)| \leq 2^{-m+p}.$$

then at step  $m$ , we can give in on-line mode the  $p+2-m$ th digit of  $f(\theta)$ .

The algorithm presented below gives in on-line mode the successive digits  $\dot{x}_1, \dot{x}_2, \dot{x}_3, \dots, \dot{x}_n, \dots$  of a signed-digit representation of  $f(\theta)$ .

#### Digitization Algorithm

Assume we are at step  $m+2$ . We have obtained a value  $x^{(m+2)}$  satisfying  $|x^{(m+2)} - f(\theta)| \leq 2^{-m-2+p}$ . From  $x^{(m+1)}$  we have already computed  $\dot{x}_1, \dot{x}_2, \dot{x}_3, \dots, \dot{x}_{m-p-1}$ .

The number  $x_*^{(m+2)} = 0.\dot{x}_1^{(m+2)}\dot{x}_2^{(m+2)}\dot{x}_3^{(m+2)} \dots \dot{x}_{m+2-p}^{(m+2)}$  obtained by truncating the signed-digit representation of  $x^{(m+2)}$  after its  $m+2-p$ th position satisfies

$$|x_*^{(m+2)} - f(\theta)| \leq 2^{-m+p-1}. \quad (\text{R})$$

Let us denote  $\phi = 0.\dot{x}_1\dot{x}_2\dot{x}_3 \dots \dot{x}_{m-p-1}$ .

The interval  $I_1$  of the numbers representable if we choose  $\dot{x}_{m-p} = \bar{1}$  is  $[\phi - 2^{-m+p+1}, \phi]$ , the interval  $I_0$  of the numbers representable with  $\dot{x}_{m-p} = 0$  is  $[\phi - 2^{-m+p}, \phi + 2^{-m+p}]$ , and the interval  $I_1$  of the numbers representable with  $\dot{x}_{m-p} = 1$  is  $[\phi, \phi + 2^{-m+p+1}]$  (see Fig. 3). From this we deduce easily (see Fig. 3):

- If  $x_*^{(m+2)} \leq \phi - 2^{-m+p-1}$  then, from (R),  $f(\theta) \leq \phi$  thus  $f(\theta) \in I_1$ : we choose  $\dot{x}_{m-p} = \bar{1}$ .

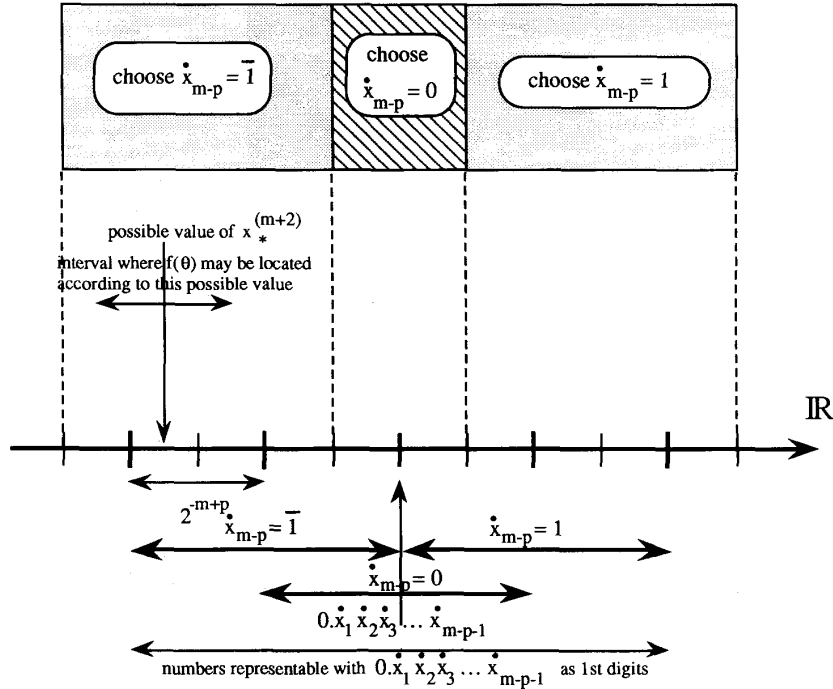


Fig. 3. The digitization process.

- If  $\phi - 2^{-m+p-1} \leq x_*^{(m+2)} \leq \phi + 2^{-m+p-1}$  then, from (R),  $\phi - 2^{-m+p} \leq x_*^{(m+2)} \leq \phi + 2^{-m+p}$  thus  $f(\theta) \in I_0$ : we choose  $\dot{x}_{m-p} = 0$ .
- If  $x_*^{(m+2)} \geq \phi + 2^{-m+p-1}$  then, from (R),  $f(\theta) \geq \phi$  thus  $f(\theta) \in I_1$ : we choose  $\dot{x}_{m-p} = 1$ .

This algorithm is easily implementable since it needs the examination of only 5 digits of  $x_*^{(m+2)}$ . Let us call  $K$  the integer  $2^{m-p+2} (x_*^{(m+2)} - \phi)$ . From (R) and the obvious relation  $|f - f(\theta)| \leq 2^{-m+p+1}$ , we deduce  $|\phi - x_*^{(m+2)}| \leq 5 \cdot 2^{-m+p-1}$ . Thus,  $|K| \leq 10$ . The algorithm becomes

$$\dot{x}_{m-p} = \begin{cases} \bullet \bar{1} & \text{if } K \leq -3 \\ \bullet \bar{1} & \text{or } 0 \text{ if } K = -2 \\ \bullet 0 & \text{if } -1 \leq K \leq +1 \\ \bullet 0 & \text{or } 1 \text{ if } K = 2 \\ \bullet 1 & \text{if } K \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

Since  $|K| \leq 10$ , it is easy to show (see the proof of Lemma 1) that if we replace  $K$  by the value  $K^*$  obtained by taking only its 5 least significant digits ( $K^* = K \bmod 32$ ), we obtain

$$\dot{x}_{m-p} = \begin{cases} \bullet \bar{1} & \text{if } 22 \leq K^* \bmod 32 \leq 29 \\ \bullet \bar{1} & \text{or } 0 \text{ if } K^* \bmod 32 = 30 \\ \bullet 0 & \text{if } K^* \bmod 32 = 31 \text{ or } 0 \text{ or } 1 \\ \bullet 0 & \text{or } 1 \text{ if } K^* \bmod 32 = 2 \\ \bullet 1 & \text{if } 3 \leq K^* \bmod 32 \leq 10 \end{cases}$$

The values  $K^* \bmod 32 = 11, 12, 13, \dots, 21$  are impossible.

#### D. On-Line Delay of Our Algorithm

Both CORDIC modules produce a result. Assume that we want to compute the cosine function (the same applies for the

sine function). If we use for digitization the output values of only one module (e.g., module "+"), then at step  $i$  of the algorithm, we have an error  $|x_i - \cos \theta| \leq 2^{-i+3}$  using digits  $\theta_0, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_i, \theta_{i+1}$  of  $\theta$ . Our digitization algorithm enables us to give in on-line mode the  $i$ -5th digit of  $\cos \theta$ . Therefore, from digits 0 to  $i+1$  of  $\theta$  we deduce digits 0 to  $i-5$  of  $f(\theta)$ . Therefore the on-line delay of our algorithm is  $(i+1) - (i-5) = 6$ .

If we use for digitization the average values of the outputs of both modules (as in part Section IV-B2), since at step  $i$ , we have an error  $|x_i - \cos \theta| \leq 2^{-i+2}$ , the on-line delay of the algorithm becomes 5.

#### V. CONCLUSION

We have obtained a very fast version of the CORDIC algorithm, which makes it possible to perform constant-time elementary iterations, independent from the length of the operands, with a constant scale factor. The main drawback of our method is the necessity of performing two conventional CORDIC iterations in parallel, which consumes more silicon area than classical methods. However, it leads to a fast and convenient on-line implementation, with a small delay.

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