

# Fixed-Point Arithmetic

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## Fixed-Point Notation

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- A K-bit fixed-point number can be interpreted as either:
  - an integer (i.e., 20645)
  - a fractional number (i.e., 0.75)

## Integer Fixed-Point Representation

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- N-bit fixed point, 2's complement integer representation

$$X = -b_{N-1} 2^{N-1} + b_{N-2} 2^{N-2} + \dots + b_0 2^0$$

- Difficult to use due to possible overflow
  - In a 16-bit processor, the dynamic range is -32,768 to 32,767.
    - ✓ Example:  
 $200 \times 350 = 70000$ , which is an overflow!

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3

## Fractional Fixed-Point Representation

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- Also called Q-format
- Fractional representation suitable for DSP algorithms.
- Fractional number range is between 1 and -1
- Multiplying a fraction by a fraction always results in a fraction and will not produce an overflow (e.g.,  $0.99 \times 0.9999$  less than 1)
- Successive additions may cause overflow
- Represent numbers between
  - $-1.0$  and  $1 - 2^{-(N-1)}$ , when N is number of bits

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4

## Fractional Fixed-Point Representation

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- Equivalent to scaling
  - Q represents the "Quantity of fractional bits"
  - Number following the Q indicates the number of bits that are used for the fraction.
  - Q15 used in 16-bit DSP chip, resolution of the fraction will be  $2^{-15}$  or  $30.518e-6$ 
    - Q15 means scaling by  $1/2^{15}$
    - Q15 means shifting to the right by 15
  - Example: how to represent 0.2625 in memory:
    - Method 1 (Truncation):  $\text{INT}[0.2625 \times 2^{15}] = \text{INT}[8601.6]$   
= 8601 = 0010000110011001
    - Method 2 (Rounding):  $\text{INT}[0.2625 \times 2^{15} + 0.5] = \text{INT}[8602.1]$   
= 8602 = 0010000110011010
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5

## Truncating or Rounding?

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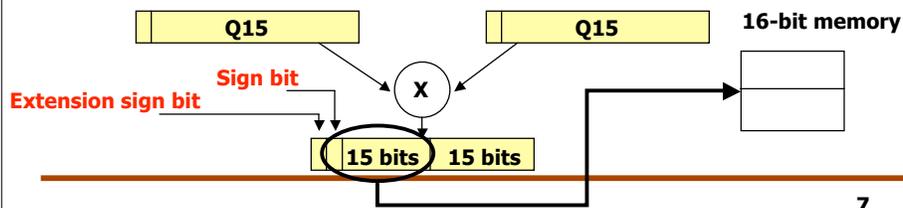
- Which one is better?
  - Truncation
    - Magnitude of truncated number always less than or equal to the original value
      - ✓ Consistent downward bias
  - Rounding
    - Magnitude of rounded number could be smaller or greater than the original value
      - ✓ Error tends to be minimized (positive and negative biases)
    - Popular technique: rounding to the nearest integer
  - Example:
    - $\text{INT}[251.2] = 251$  (Truncate or floor)
    - $\text{ROUND}[251.2] = 252$  (Round or ceil)
    - $\text{ROUNDNEAREST}[251.2] = 251$
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6

## Q format Multiplication

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- Product of two Q15 numbers is Q30.
- So we must remember that the 32-bit product has *two bits* in front of the binary point.
  - Since  $N \times N$  multiplication yields  $2N-1$  result
  - Addition MSB sign extension bit
- Typically, only the most significant 15 bits (plus the sign bit) are stored back into memory, so the *write operation requires a left shift by one*.



## General Fixed-Point Representation

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- $Q_{m.n}$  notation
  - $m$  bits for integer portion
  - $n$  bits for fractional portion
  - Total number of bits  $N = m + n + 1$ , for signed numbers
  - Example: 16-bit number ( $N=16$ ) and  $Q_{2.13}$  format
    - ✓ 2 bits for integer portion
    - ✓ 13 bits for fractional portion
    - ✓ 1 signed bit (MSB)
  - Special cases:
    - ✓ 16-bit integer number ( $N=16$ ) =>  $Q_{15.0}$  format
    - ✓ 16-bit fractional number ( $N = 16$ ) =>  $Q_{0.15}$  format; also known as  $Q_{.15}$  or  $Q_{15}$

## General Fixed-Point Representation

- N-bit number in Qm.n format:

$$\underbrace{b_{n+m} b_{n+m-1} \dots b_n}_{N-1} . b_{n-1} \dots b_1 b_0$$

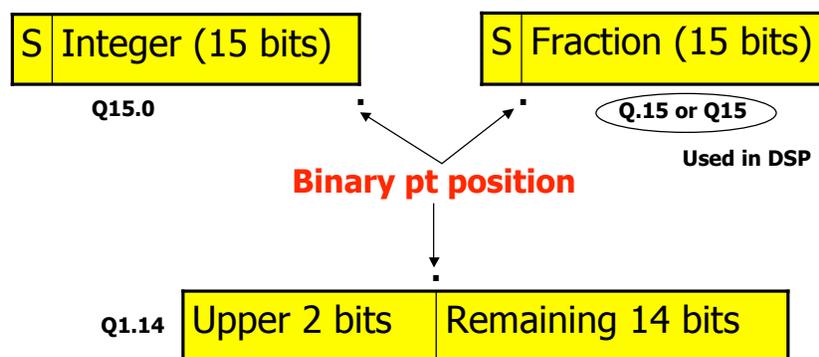
Fixed Point

- Value of N-bit number in Qm.n format:

$$\begin{aligned} & (-b_{N-1} 2^{N-1} + b_{N-2} 2^{N-2} + b_{N-3} 2^{N-3} + \dots + b_1 2 + b_0) / 2^n \\ & = (-b_{N-1} 2^{N-1} + b_{N-2} 2^{N-2} + b_{N-3} 2^{N-3} + \dots + b_1 2 + b_0) 2^{-n} \\ & = -b_{N-1} 2^m + \sum_{l=0}^{N-2} b_l 2^{l-n} \end{aligned}$$

9

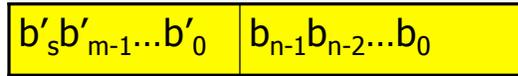
## Some Fractional Examples (16 bits)



10

# How to Compute Fractional Number

**Q m.n Format**



$$-2^m b'_s + \dots + 2^1 b'_1 + 2^0 b'_0 + 2^{-1} b_{n-1} + 2^{-2} b_{n-2} \dots + 2^{-n} b_0$$

Examples:

- 1110 Integer Representation Q3.0:  $-2^3 + 2^2 + 2^1 = -2$
- 11.10 Fractional Q1.2 Representation:  $-2^1 + 2^0 + 2^{-1} = -2 + 1 + 0.5 = -0.5$   
(Scaling by  $1/2^2$ )
- 1.110 Fractional Q3 Representation:  $-2^0 + 2^{-1} + 2^{-2} = -1 + 0.5 + 0.25 = -0.25$  (Scaling by  $1/2^3$ )

# General Fixed-Point Representation

**Min and Max Decimal Values of Integer and Fractional 4-Bit Numbers (Kuo & Gan)**

Unsigned integer	Signed integer
Smallest value: 0000 = (0) Largest value: 1111 = (15)	Most positive value: 0111 = (+7) Least negative value: 1000 = (-8)
Unsigned fractional	Signed fractional
Smallest value: .0000 = (0) Largest value: .1111 = (0.9375)	Most positive value: 0.111 = (+0.875) Least negative value: 1.000 = (-1)

## General Fixed-Point Representation

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- Dynamic Range
  - Ratio between the largest number and the smallest (positive) number
  - It can be expressed in dB (decibels) as follows:  
 Dynamic Range (dB) =  $20 \log_{10}(Max / Min)$
  - Note: Dynamic Range depends only on N
    - N-bit Integer (Q(N-1).0):  
 Min = 1; Max =  $2^{N-1} - 1 \Rightarrow Max/Min = 2^{N-1} - 1$
    - N-bit fractional number (Q(N-1)):  
 Min =  $2^{-(N-1)}$ ; Max =  $1 - 2^{-(N-1)} \Rightarrow Max/Min = 2^{N-1} - 1$
    - General N-bit fixed-point number (Qm.n)  
 $\Rightarrow Max/Min = 2^{N-1} - 1$

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13

## General Fixed-Point Representation

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### Dynamic Range and Precision of Integer and Fractional 16-Bit Numbers (Kuo & Gan)

	Dynamic range	Dynamic range in dB	Precision
Unsigned integer	0 to 65,536	$20 \log_{10}(2^{16}) = 96 \text{ dB}$	1
Signed integer	-32,768 to 32,767	$20 \log_{10}(2^{15}) = 90 \text{ dB}$	1
Unsigned fractional	0 to 0.99998474	96 dB	$2^{-16}$
Signed fractional	-1 to 0.99996948	90 dB	$2^{-15}$

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14

## General Fixed-Point Representation

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- Precision
    - Smallest step (difference) between two consecutive N-bit numbers.  
Example:  
Q15.0 (integer) format => precision = 1  
Q15 format => precision =  $2^{-15}$
    - Tradeoff between dynamic range and precision  
Example: N = 16 bits  
Q15.0 => widest dynamic range (-32,768 to 32,767); worst precision (1)  
Q15 => narrowest dynamic range (-1 to +1); best precision ( $2^{-15}$ )
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15

## General Fixed-Point Representation

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**Dynamic Range and Precision of 16-Bit Numbers for Different Q Formats (Kuo & Gan)**

Format	Largest positive value	Least negative value	Precision
Q0.15	0.999969482421875	-1	0.00003051757813
Q1.14	1.99993896484375	-2	0.00006103515625
Q2.13	3.9998779296875	-4	0.00012207031250
Q3.12	7.999755859375	-8	0.00024414062500
Q4.11	15.99951171875	-16	0.00048828125000
Q5.10	31.9990234375	-32	0.00097656250000
Q6.9	63.998046875	-64	0.00195312500000
Q7.8	127.99609375	-128	0.00390625000000
Q8.7	255.9921875	-256	0.00781250000000
Q9.6	511.984375	-512	0.01562500000000
Q10.5	1023.96875	-1,024	0.03125000000000
Q11.4	2047.9375	-2,048	0.06250000000000
Q12.3	4095.875	-4,096	0.12500000000000
Q13.2	8191.75	-8,192	0.25000000000000
Q14.1	16383.5	-16,384	0.50000000000000
Q15.0	32,767	-32,768	1.00000000000000

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16

## General Fixed-Point Representation

### Scaling Factor and Dynamic Range of 16-Bit Numbers (Kuo & Gan)

Format	Scaling factor ( $2^n$ )	Range in Hex (Decimal value)
Q0.15	$2^{15} = 32,768$	7FFFh (0.99) $\rightarrow$ 8000h (-1)
Q1.14	$2^{14} = 16,384$	7FFFh (1.99) $\rightarrow$ 8000h (-2)
Q2.13	$2^{13} = 8,192$	7FFFh (3.99) $\rightarrow$ 8000h (-4)
Q3.12	$2^{12} = 4,096$	7FFFh (7.99) $\rightarrow$ 8000h (-8)
Q4.11	$2^{11} = 2,048$	7FFFh (15.99) $\rightarrow$ 8000h (-16)
Q5.10	$2^{10} = 1,024$	7FFFh (31.99) $\rightarrow$ 8000h (-32)
Q6.9	$2^9 = 512$	7FFFh (63.99) $\rightarrow$ 8000h (-64)
Q7.8	$2^8 = 256$	7FFFh (127.99) $\rightarrow$ 8000h (-128)
Q8.7	$2^7 = 128$	7FFFh (255.99) $\rightarrow$ 8000h (-256)
Q9.6	$2^6 = 64$	7FFFh (511.99) $\rightarrow$ 8000h (-512)
Q10.5	$2^5 = 32$	7FFFh (1023.99) $\rightarrow$ 8000h (-1,024)
Q11.4	$2^4 = 16$	7FFFh (2047.99) $\rightarrow$ 8000h (-2,048)
Q12.3	$2^3 = 8$	7FFFh (4095.99) $\rightarrow$ 8000h (-4,096)
Q13.2	$2^2 = 4$	7FFFh (8191.99) $\rightarrow$ 8000h (-8,192)
Q14.1	$2^1 = 2$	7FFFh (16383.99) $\rightarrow$ 8000h (-16,384)
Q15.0	$2^0 = 1$ (Integer)	7FFFh (32,767) $\rightarrow$ 8000h (-32,768)

17

## General Fixed-Point Representation

- Fixed-point DSPs use 2's complement fixed-point numbers in different Q formats
- Assembler only recognizes integer values
  - Need to know how to convert fixed-point number from a Q format to an integer value that can be stored in memory and that can be recognized by the assembler.
  - Programmer must keep track of the position of the binary point when manipulating fixed-point numbers in assembly programs.

18

## How to convert fractional number into integer

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- Conversion from fractional to integer value:
  - Step 1: normalize the decimal fractional number to the range determined by the desired Q format
  - Step 2: Multiply the normalized fractional number by  $2^n$
  - Step 3: Round the product to the nearest integer
  - Step 4: Write the decimal integer value in binary using N bits.
- Example:

Convert the value 3.5 into an integer value that can be recognized by a DSP assembler using the Q15 format  
=> 1) Normalize:  $3.5/4 = 0.875$ ;  
2) Scale:  $0.875*2^{15} = 28,672$ ; 3) Round: 28,672

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19

## How to convert integer into fractional number

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- Numbers and arithmetic results are stored in the DSP processor in integer form.
- Need to interpret as a fractional value depending on Q format
- Conversion of integer into a fractional number for Qm.n format:
  - Divide integer by scaling factor of Qm.n => divide by  $2^n$
- Example:

Which Q15 value does the integer number 2 represent?  $2/2^{15} = 2*2^{-15} = 2^{-14}$

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20

## Finite-Wordlength Effects

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- Wordlength effects occur when wordlength of memory (or register) is less than the precision needed to store the actual values.
- Wordlength effects introduce noise and non-ideal system responses
- Examples:
  - Quantization noise due to limited precision of Analog-to-Digital (A/D) converter, also called codec
  - Limited precision in representing input, filter coefficients, output and other parameters.
  - Overflow or underflow due to limited dynamic range
  - Roundoff/truncation errors due to rounding/truncation of double-precision data to single-precision data for storage in a register or memory.
    - Rounding results in an unbiased error; truncation results in a biased error => rounding more used in practice.

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21

## Multiplication & Division

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## Fast Multiplication

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- What do we do?
  - Let Verilog do it: Write  $a = b * c$
  - Design fast multiplier circuit
  - Use built-in hardware multipliers

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23

## Fast Division

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- More difficult problem-- no hardware divider
- Traditional division is slow
- So, what to do?

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24

## Fast Division

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- Find alternative solutions:
  - Multiply by the reciprocal :  $A / D = A * 1 / D$ 
    - ✓ Great for constants
    - ✓ Use Newton's method for calculation of the reciprocal of D
  - Pipeline and use a slow algorithm (next time)
  - Speed up the slower algorithms

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25

## Newton-Raphson division

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Newton-Raphson uses Newton's method to converge to the quotient.

The strategy of Newton-Raphson is to find the reciprocal of D, and multiply that reciprocal by N to find the final quotient Q.

26

## Newton-Raphson division

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The steps of Newton-Raphson are:

1. Calculate an estimate for the reciprocal of the divisor ( $D$ ):  $X_0$
2. Compute successively more accurate estimates of the reciprocal:  $(X_1, \dots, X_k)$
3. Compute the quotient by multiplying the dividend by the reciprocal of the divisor:  $Q = NX_k$

27

## Newton's method to find reciprocal of D

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- ▶ find a function  $f(X)$  which has a zero at  $X = 1 / D$
- ▶ a function which works is  $f(X) = 1 / X - D$
- ▶ The Newton-Raphson iteration gives:

$$X_{i+1} = X_i - \frac{f(X_i)}{f'(X_i)} = X_i - \frac{1/X_i - D}{-1/X_i^2} = X_i + (X_i - DX_i^2) = X_i(2 - DX_i)$$

- ▶ which can be calculated from  $X_i$  using only multiplication and subtraction.
- ▶ Google for more details

28

## Division Overview

- ▶ Grade school algorithm: long division
  - ▶ Subtract shifted divisor from dividend when it “fits”
  - ▶ Quotient bit: 1 or 0
- ▶ Question: how can hardware tell “when it fits?”

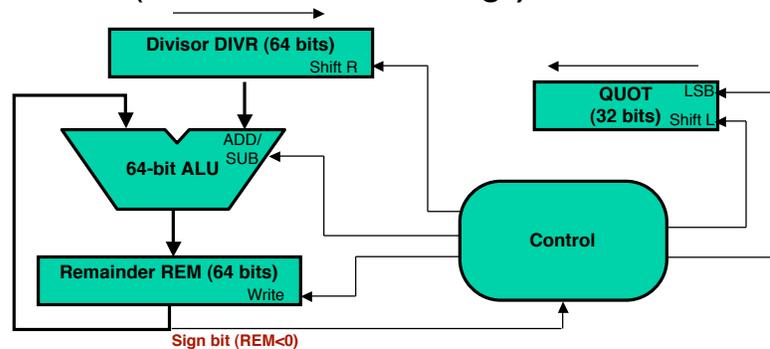
Divisor	1000	$\begin{array}{r} 1001 \\ 1001010 \\ -1000 \\ \hline 1010 \\ -1000 \\ \hline 10 \end{array}$	Quotient Dividend Remainder
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$$\text{Dividend} = \text{Quotient} \times \text{Divisor} + \text{Remainder}$$

29

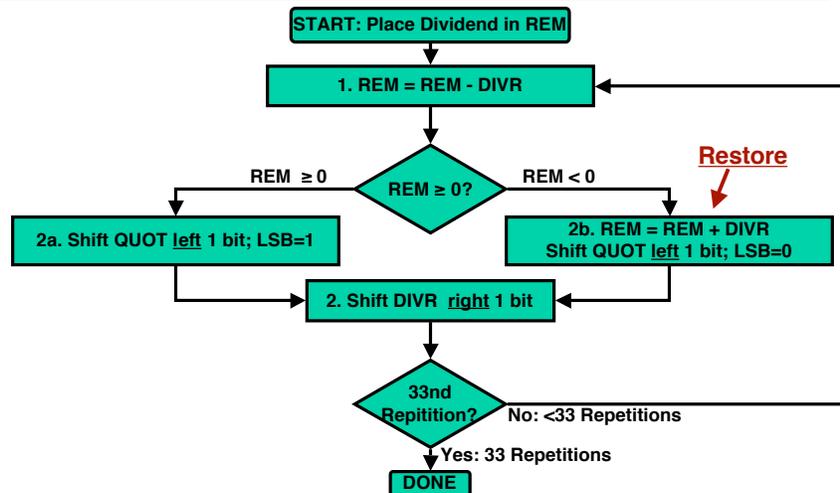
## Division Hardware - 1st Version

- ▶ Shift register moves divisor (DIVR) to right
- ▶ ALU subtracts DIVR, then **restores** (adds back) if  $\text{REM} < 0$  (i.e. divisor was “too big”)



30

## Division Algorithm - First Version



31

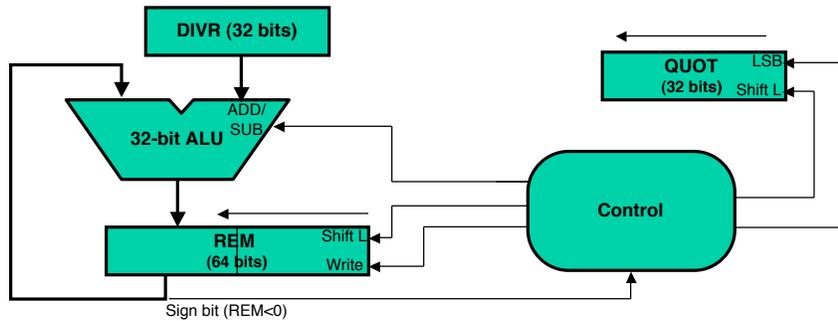
## Divide 1st Version - Observations

- ▶ We only subtract 32 bits in each iteration
  - ▶ Idea: Instead of shifting divisor to right, shift remainder to left
- ▶ First step cannot produce a 1 in quotient bit
  - ▶ Switch order to shift first, then subtract
  - ▶ Save 1 iteration

32

## Divide Hardware - 2nd Version

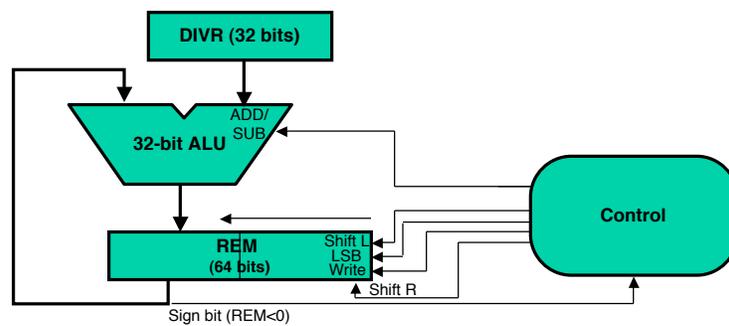
- ▶ Divisor Holds Still
- ▶ Dividend/Remainder Shifts Left
- ▶ End Result: Remainder in upper half of register



33

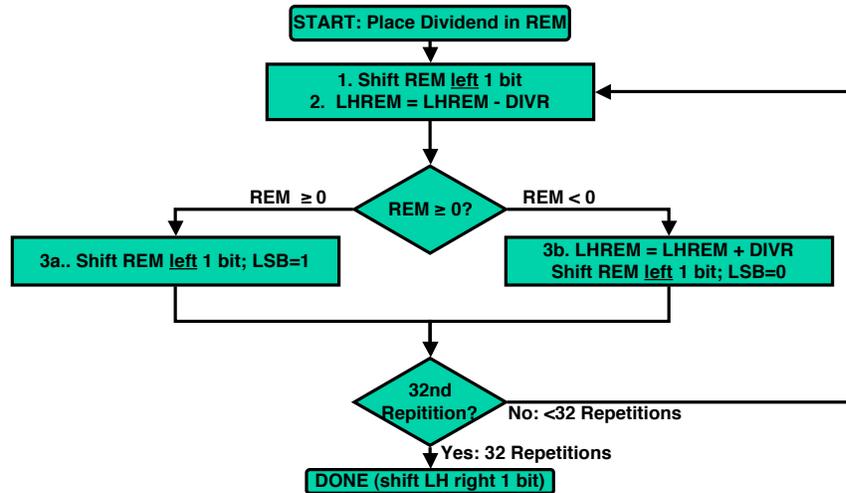
## Divide Hardware - 3rd Version

- ▶ Combine quotient with remainder register



34

## Divide Algorithm - 3rd Version



35

## Dividing Signed Numbers

- ▶ Check sign of divisor, dividend
- ▶ Negate quotient if signs of operands are opposite
- ▶ Make remainder sign match dividend (if nonzero)

36

## Fast Division - SRT Algorithm

◆ **2 approaches:**

- \* First - conventional - uses add/subtract+shift, number of operations linearly proportional to word size  $n$
- \* Second - uses multiplication, number of operations logarithmic in  $n$ , but each step more complex
- \* **SRT** - first approach

◆ **Most well known division algorithm - named after Sweeney, Robertson, and Tocher**

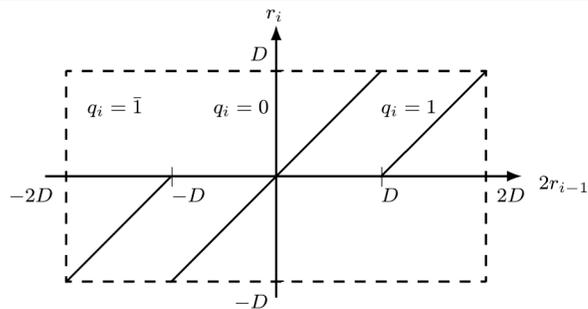
◆ **Speed up nonrestoring division ( $n$  add/subtracts) - allows 0 as a quotient digit - no add/subtract:**

$$q_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 2r_{i-1} \geq D \\ 0 & \text{if } -D \leq 2r_{i-1} < D \\ \bar{1} & \text{if } 2r_{i-1} < -D \end{cases}$$

$$r_i = 2r_{i-1} - q_i \cdot D$$

37

### Modified Nonrestoring Division



◆ **Problem:** full comparison of  $2r_{i-1}$  with either  $D$  or  $-D$  required

◆ **Solution:** restricting  $D$  to normalized fraction  $1/2 \leq |D| < 1$

◆ **Region of  $2r_{i-1}$  for which  $q_i=0$  reduced to**

$$-D \leq -\frac{1}{2} \leq 2r_{i-1} < \frac{1}{2} \leq D$$

38

## Modified Nonrestoring → SRT

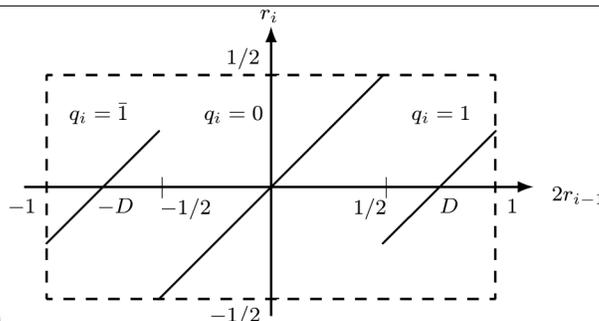
- ◆ **Advantage:** Comparing partial remainder  $2r_{i-1}$  to  $1/2$  or  $-1/2$ , not  $D$  or  $-D$
- ◆ Binary fraction in two's complement representation
  - \*  $\geq 1/2$  if and only if it starts with  $0.1$
  - \*  $\leq -1/2$  if and only if it starts with  $1.0$
- ◆ Only 2 bits of  $2r_{i-1}$  examined - not full comparison between  $2r_{i-1}$  and  $D$ 
  - \* In some cases (e.g., dividend  $X > 1/2$ ) - shifted partial remainder needs an integer bit in addition to sign bit - 3 bits of  $2r_{i-1}$  examined
- ◆ Selecting quotient digit:

$$q_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 2r_{i-1} \geq 1/2 \\ 0 & \text{if } -1/2 \leq 2r_{i-1} < 1/2 \\ \bar{1} & \text{if } 2r_{i-1} < -1/2. \end{cases}$$

39

## SRT Division Algorithm

- ◆ Quotient digits selected so  $|r_i| \leq |D| \Rightarrow$  final remainder  $< |D|$
- ◆ Process starts with normalized divisor - normalizing partial remainder by shifting over leading 0's/1's if positive/negative
- ◆ **Example:**
  - \*  $2r_{i-1} = 0.001xxxx$  ( $x = 0/1$ );  $2r_{i-1} < 1/2$  - set  $q_i = 0$ ,  $2r_i = 0.01xxxx$  and so on
  - \*  $2r_{i-1} = 1.110xxxx$ ;  $2r_{i-1} > -1/2$  - set  $q_i = 0$ ,  $2r_i = 1.10xxxx$
- ◆ SRT is nonrestoring division with normalized divisor and remainder



40

## Extension to Negative Divisors

$$q_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } |2r_{i-1}| < 1/2 \\ 1 & \text{if } |2r_{i-1}| \geq 1/2 \text{ \& } r_{i-1} \text{ and } D \text{ have the same sign} \\ \bar{1} & \text{if } |2r_{i-1}| \geq 1/2 \text{ \& } r_{i-1} \text{ and } D \text{ have opposite signs} \end{cases}$$

### ◆ Example:

**Dividend**

$$X = (0.0101)_2$$

$$= 5/16$$

**Divisor**

$$D = (0.1100)_2$$

$$= 3/4$$

$r_0 = X$	0	.0	1	0	1	
$2r_0$	0	.1	0	1	0	$\geq 1/2$ set $q_1 = 1$
Add $-D$	+	1	.0	1	0	
$r_1$	1	.1	1	1	0	
$2r_1 = r_2$	1	.1	1	0	0	$\geq -1/2$ set $q_2 = 0$
$2r_2 = r_3$	1	.1	0	0	0	$\geq -1/2$ set $q_3 = 0$
$2r_3$	1	.0	0	0	0	$< -1/2$ set $q_4 = \bar{1}$
Add $D$	+	0	.1	1	0	
$r_4$	1	.1	1	0	0	negative remainder & positive $X$
Add $D$	+	0	.1	1	0	correction
$r_4$	0	.1	0	0	0	corrected final remainder

◆ Before correction  $Q = 0.100\bar{1}$  - minimal SD repr. of  $Q = 0.0111$  - minimal number of add/subtracts

◆ After correction,  $Q = 0.0111 - \text{ulp} = 0.0110_2 = 3/8$  ;  
final remainder =  $1/2 \cdot 2^{-4} = 1/32$

41

## Example

◆  $X = (0.00111111)_2 = 63/256$        $D = (0.1001)_2 = 9/16$

$r_0 = X$	0	.0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	
$2r_0$	0	.0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	$< 1/2$ set $q_1 = 0$
$2r_1$	0	.1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	$\geq 1/2$ set $q_2 = 1$
Add $-D$	+	1	.0	1	1	1				
$r_2$	0	.0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	
$2r_2$	0	.1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	$\geq 1/2$ set $q_3 = 1$
Add $-D$	+	1	.0	1	1	1				
$r_3$	0	.0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	
$2r_3$	0	.1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	$\geq 1/2$ set $q_4 = 1$
Add $-D$	+	1	.0	1	1	1				
$r_4$	0	.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	zero final remainder

◆  $Q = 0.0111_2 = 7/16$  - not a minimal representation in SD form

◆ **Conclusion:** Number of add/subtracts can be reduced further

42

## Properties of SRT

- ◆ **Based on simulations and analysis:**
- ◆ **1. Average "shift" = 2.67 -  $n/2.67$  operations for dividend of length  $n$** 
  - \*  $24/2.67 \sim 9$  operations on average for  $n=24$
- ◆ **2. Actual number of operations depends on divisor  $D$  - smallest when  $17/28 \leq D \leq 3/4$  - average shift of 3**
- ◆ **If  $D$  out of range ( $3/5 \leq D \leq 3/4$ ) - SRT can be modified to reduce number of add/subtracts**
- ◆ **2 ways to modify SRT**

43

## Two Modifications of SRT

- ◆ **Scheme 1: In some steps during division -**
  - \* If  $D$  too small - use a multiple of  $D$  like  $2D$
  - \* If  $D$  too large - use  $D/2$
  - \* Subtracting  $2D$  ( $D/2$ ) instead of  $D$  - equivalent to performing subtraction one position earlier (later)
- ◆ **Motivation for Scheme 1:**
  - \* Small  $D$  may generate a sequence of 1's in quotient one bit at a time, with subtract operation per each bit
  - \* Subtracting  $2D$  instead of  $D$  (equivalent to subtracting  $D$  in previous step) may generate negative partial remainder, generating sequence of 0's as quotient bits while normalizing partial remainder
- ◆ **Scheme 2: Change comparison constant  $K=1/2$  if  $D$  outside optimal range - allowed because ratio  $D/K$  matters - partial remainder compared to  $K$  not  $D$**

44

### Example - Scheme 1 (Using 2D)

◆ Same as previous example -

◆  $X=(0.00111111)_2=63/256$       $D=(0.1001)_2=9/16$

$r_0 = X$	0	.0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1		
$2r_0$	0	.0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	$< 1/2$ set $q_1 = 0$	
$2r_1$	0	0	.1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	subtract $2D$
Add $-2D$ +	1	0	.1	1	1						instead of $D$
$r_2$	1	1	.1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	set $q_1 = 1$ and $q_2 = 0$
$2r_2$	1	.1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	set $q_3 = 0$
$2r_3$	1	.0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	$\leq -1/2$ set $q_4 = \bar{1}$
Add $D$ +	0	.1	0	0	1						
$r_4$	0	.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	zero final remainder

◆  $Q = 0.100\bar{1}_2 = 7/16$  - minimal SD representation

45

### Scheme 1 (Using D/2)

- ◆ Large  $D$  - one 0 in sequence of 1's in quotient may result in 2 consecutive add/subtracts instead of one
- ◆ Adding  $D/2$  instead of  $D$  for last 1 before the single 0 - equivalent to performing addition one position later - may generate negative partial remainder
- ◆ Allows properly handling single 0
- ◆ Then continue normalizing partial remainder until end of sequence of 1's

46

### Example

- ◆  $X=(0.01100)_2=3/8$  ;  $D=(0.11101)_2=29/32$
- ◆ Correct 5-bit quotient -  $Q=(0.01101)_2=13/32$
- ◆ Applying basic SRT algorithm -  $Q=0.10\bar{1}\bar{1}\bar{1}$  - single 0 not handled efficiently

◆ Using multiple  $D/2$  -

$r_0 = X$	0 .0 1 1 0 0	
$2r_0$	0 .1 1 0 0 0	$\geq 1/2$ set $q_1 = 1$
Add $-D$	+ 1 .0 0 0 1 1	
$r_1$	1 .1 1 0 1 1	
$2r_1$	1 .1 0 1 1 0	set $q_2 = 0$
$2r_2$	1 .0 1 1 0 0	add $D/2$ ( $q_3 = \bar{1}$ )
Add $D/2$	+ 0 .0 1 1 1 0	instead of $D$
$r_3$	1 .1 1 0 1 0	set $q_3 = 0$ and
$2r_3$	1 .1 0 1 0 1	$q_4 = \bar{1}$
$2r_4$	1 .0 1 0 1 0	$\leq -1/2$ set $q_5 = \bar{1}$
Add $D$	+ 0 .1 1 1 0 1	
$r_5$	0 .0 0 1 1 1	final remainder = $7/32 \cdot 2^{-5}$

- ◆  $Q=(0.100\bar{1}\bar{1})_2=13/32$  - single 0 handled properly

47

### Implementing Scheme 1

- ◆ Two adders needed
  - \* One to add or subtract  $D$
  - \* Second to add/subtract  $2D$  if  $D$  too small (starts with  $0.10$  in its true form) or add/subtract  $D/2$  if  $D$  too large (starts with  $0.11$ )
- ◆ Output of primary adder used, unless output of alternate adder has larger normalizing shift
- ◆ Additional multiples of  $D$  possible -  $3D/2$  or  $3D/4$
- ◆ Provide higher overall average shift - about 3.7 - but more complex implementation

48

## Modifying SRT - Scheme 2

- ◆ For  $K=1/2$ , ratio  $D/K$  in optimal range  $3/5 \leq D \leq 3/4$  is  
 $6/5 \leq D/K = D/(1/2) \leq 3/2$  or  
 $(6/5)K \leq D \leq (3/2)K$
- ◆ If  $D$  not in optimal range for  $K=1/2$  - choose a different comparison constant  $K$
- ◆ Region  $1/2 \leq |D| < 1$  can be divided into 5 (not equally sized) sub-regions
- ◆ Each has a different comparison constant  $K_i$

49

## Division into Sub-regions

$1/2$ .1000	$9/16$ .1001	$5/8$ .1010	$3/4$ .1100	$15/16$ .1111	$1$ 1.0
$K_1=3/8$ .0110	$K_2=7/16$ .0111	$K_3=1/2$ .1000	$K_4=5/8$ .1010	$K_5=3/4$ .1100	

- ◆ 4 bits of divisor examined for selecting comparison constant
- ◆ It has only 4 bits compared to 4 most significant bits of remainder
- ◆ Determination of sub-regions for divisor and comparison constants - numerical search
- ◆ **Reason:** Both are binary fractions with small number of bits to simplify division algorithm

50

### Example

- ◆  $X=(0.00111111)_2=63/256$  ;  $D=(0.1001)_2=9/16$
- ◆ Appropriate comparison constant -  $K_2=7/16=0.0111_2$
- ◆ If remainder negative - compare to two's complement of  $K_2 = 1.1001_2$

$r_0 = X$	0	.0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	
$2r_0$	0	.0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	$\geq 0.0111$ set $q_1 = 1$
Add $-D$	+	1	.0	1	1	1				
$r_1$	1	.1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	
$2r_1 = r_2$	1	.1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	$\geq 1.1001$ set $q_2 = 0$
$2r_2 = r_3$	1	.1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	$\geq 1.1001$ set $q_3 = 0$
$2r_3$	1	.0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	$< 1.1001$ set $q_4 = \bar{1}$
Add $D$	+	0	.1	0	0	1				
$r_4$	0	.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	zero final remainder

- ◆  $Q=0.\underline{1001}0.0111_2=7/16$  - minimal **SD** form