

Fixed-Point Arithmetic

Fixed-Point Notation

- 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

- 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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Fractional Fixed-Point Representation

- 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., 0.99×0.9999 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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Fractional Fixed-Point Representation

- 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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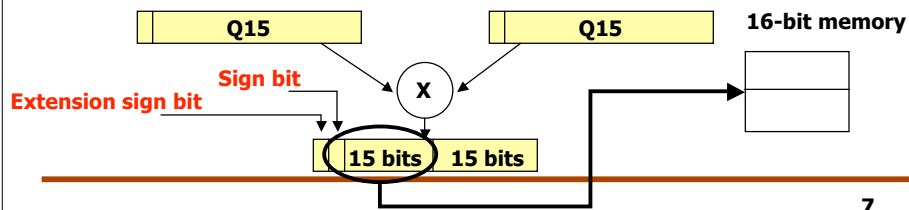
Truncating or Rounding?

- 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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Q format Multiplication

- 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*.



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General Fixed-Point Representation

- $Q_m.n$ 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}

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General Fixed-Point Representation

- N-bit number in Q_{m.n} format:

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

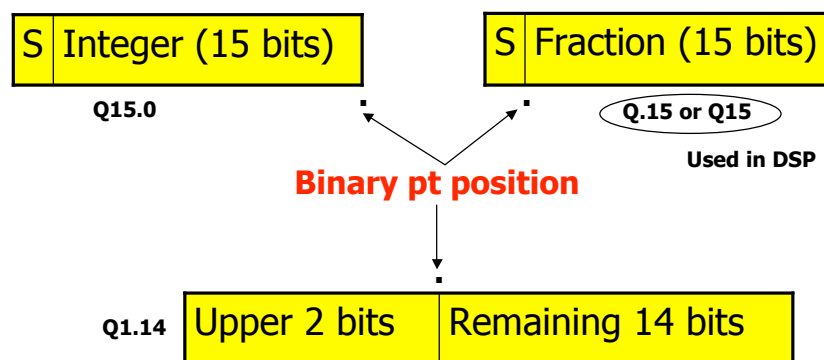
Fixed Point

- Value of N-bit number in Q_{m.n} format:

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

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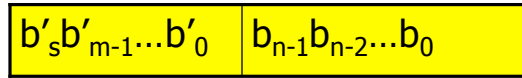
Some Fractional Examples (16 bits)



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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 $1/2^3$)

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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)

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General Fixed-Point Representation

- 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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General Fixed-Point Representation

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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General Fixed-Point Representation

- 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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General Fixed-Point Representation

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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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)

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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.

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How to convert fractional number into integer

- 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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How to convert integer into fractional number

- 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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Finite-Wordlength Effects

- 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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Multiplication & Division

Fast Multiplication

- 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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Fast Division

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

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Fast Division

- 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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Newton-Raphson division

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.

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Newton-Raphson division

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: $Q = NX_k$

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Newton's method to find reciprocal of D

- ▶ 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

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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?”

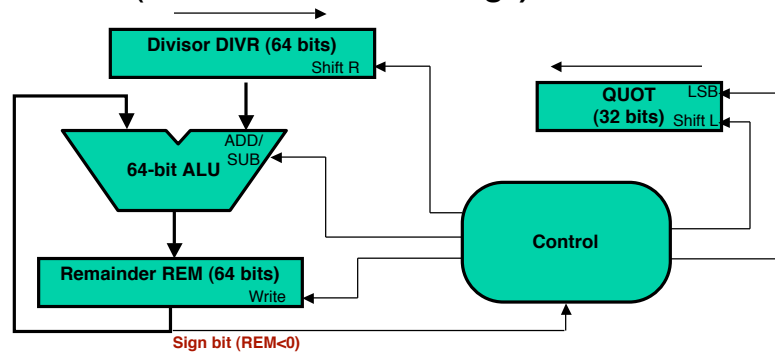
	1001	Quotient
Divisor 1000	1001010	Dividend
	-1000	
	1010	
	-1000	
	10	Remainder

$$\text{Dividend} = \text{Quotient} \times \text{Divisor} + \text{Remainder}$$

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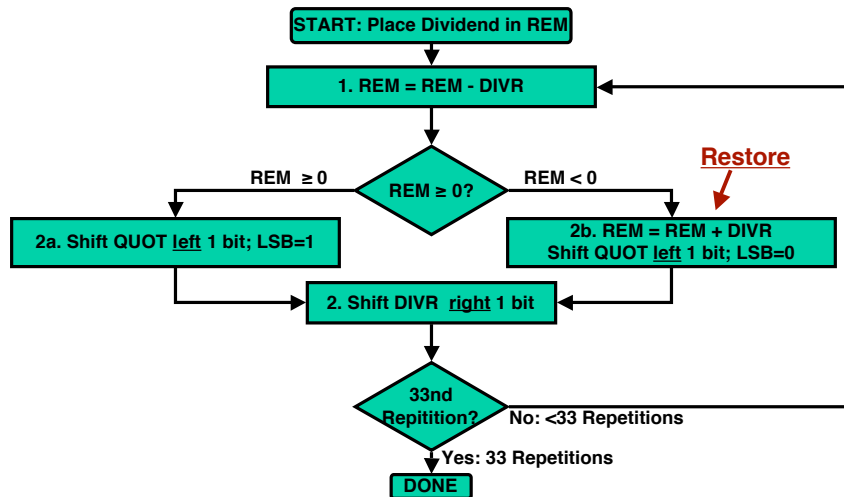
Division Hardware - 1st Version

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



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Division Algorithm - First Version



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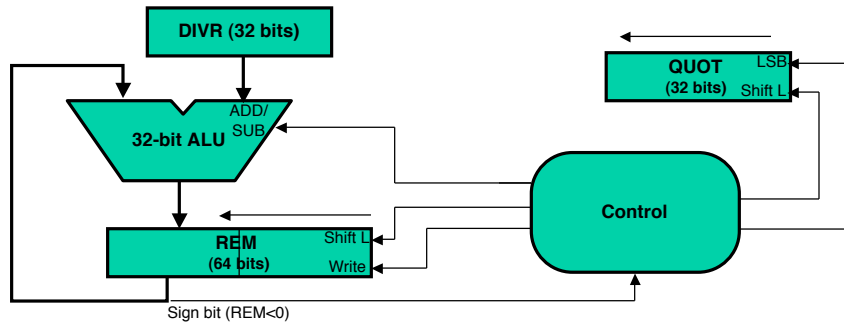
Divide 1st Version - Observations

- ▶ 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

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Divide Hardware - 2nd Version

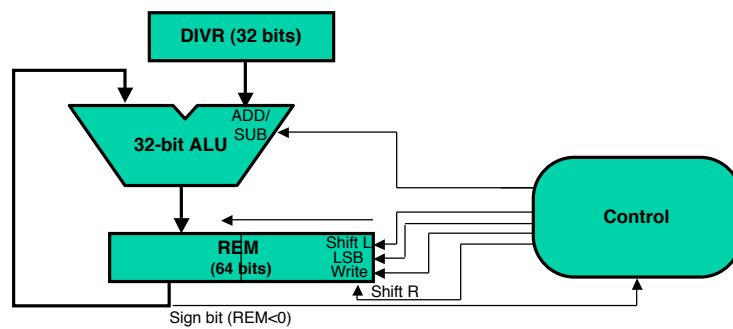
- ▶ Divisor Holds Still
- ▶ Dividend/Remainder Shifts Left
- ▶ End Result: Remainder in upper half of register



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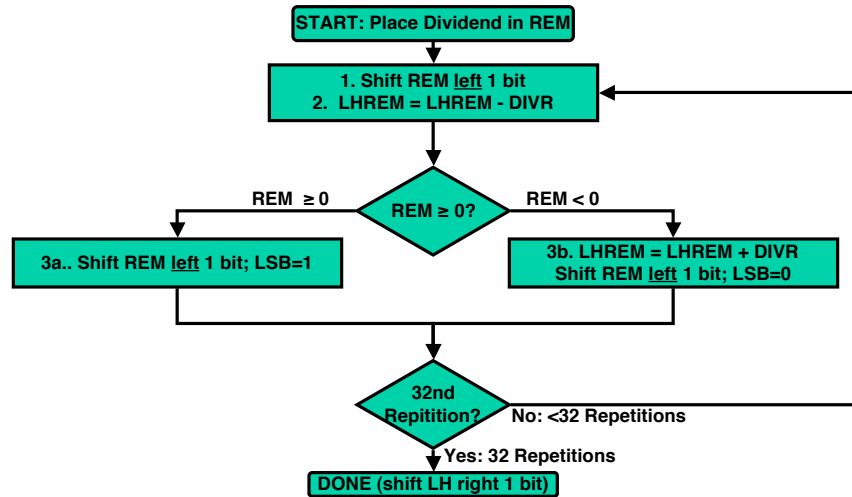
Divide Hardware - 3rd Version

- ▶ Combine quotient with remainder register



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Divide Algorithm - 3rd Version



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Dividing Signed Numbers

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

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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**

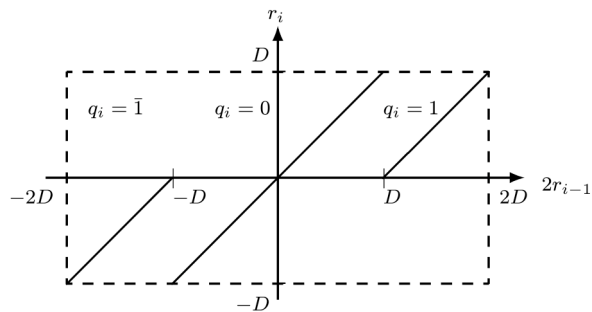
◆ **Speed up nonrestoring division (n add/subtracts) - allows 0 as a quotient digit - no add/subtract:**

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

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

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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**

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

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Modified Nonrestoring → SRT

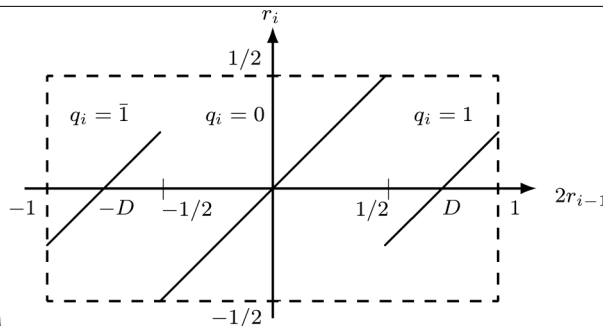
- ◆ **Advantage:** Comparing partial remainder $2r_{i-1}$ to $1/2$ or $-1/2$, not D or $-D$
- ◆ Binary fraction in two's complement representation
 - * $\geq 1/2$ if and only if it starts with 0.1
 - * $\leq -1/2$ if and only if it starts with 1.0
- ◆ Only 2 bits of $2r_{i-1}$ examined - not full comparison 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:

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

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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



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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	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	0
r_4	1	.1	1	0	0	negative remainder & positive X
Add D	+	0	.1	1	0	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 = $1/2 \cdot 2^{-4} = 1/32$

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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	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	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	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

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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**

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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

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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

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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

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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

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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

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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

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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

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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	≥ 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	≥ 1.1001 set $q_2 = 0$
$2r_2 = r_3$		1	.1	0	1	1	1	0	0	≥ 1.1001 set $q_3 = 0$
$2r_3$		1	.0	1	1	1	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	zero final remainder

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