EFFICIENT SERIAL FLOATING-POINT CONSTANT DIVIDER STRUCTURE OF THE FORM $2^p \pm 1$

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Abstract: Implementation specific computation modules hold the key to the success of fast DSP and Embedded systems. Exponential encoders, dedicated multipliers, barrel shifters and accumulators are common units available on DSPs. The family of constant divider circuits of the form $2^p \pm 1$, which are useful for image processing, statistical processing like histograms etc., is the specific focus of this paper. This family is largely dominated by the Residue Number System (RNS), Petry and Srinivasan algorithms and the Shuo-Yen Robert-Li algorithm. While these algorithms offer various trade-offs in terms of accuracy, memory footprint, power consumption and timing behavior, none of these methods are suited for processing serialized inputs, dividend inputs with apriori unknown bit length and the circuits have to be replaced with change in input bit length. The circuit size also grows enormously for large input lengths along with a reduction in accuracy. These methods are suited only for integer division and are unsuited for extension to floating/fixed point division. In this paper a novel constant divider algorithm is offered, which overcomes the above mentioned limitations while handling arbitrary length, serial/ parallel data and producing full-precision, full-accuracy, floating point capable results with constant circuit requirements and comparable timing to state of the art methods.

1 INTRODUCTION

Software and hardware optimization processes are essential elements towards building a cost-effective and efficient embedded system. Dedicated computation modules hold the key to the success of fast DSP, GPU and Embedded systems. Modern DSP development and deployment kits host a number of dedicated computation units. Exponential encoders, dedicated multipliers, barrel shifters and accumulators are common units available on DSPs. One specific computation module that holds considerable importance with respect to embedded systems designed for signal and image processing applications is the constant division operation. The family of constant divider circuits of the form $2^p \pm 1$ is the specific focus of this paper.

This computational module is useful for image processing applications (such as division by image dimensions or array lengths or extreme image intensity values – typically represented as $2^p-1$), signal processing (such as Fourier Transform normalization), statistical processing like histogram estimation etc. Division by $2^p-1$ also assumes significance due to the fact that division by any integer can be converted to that format using the Euler-Fermat theorem.

2 RELATED WORK

The state of the art with respect to this family of constant division by $2^p \pm 1$ includes the Residue Number System (RNS) (Al-Besher, 1997), Petry and Srinivasan algorithms (Srinivasan, 2007) (Petry, 1994) (Petry, 1983) and the Shuo-Yen Robert-Li algorithm (Li, 1985). While these algorithms offer various trade-offs in terms of accuracy, memory footprint, power consumption and timing behavior (extensive comparisons are presented in (Schwarzbacher, 2000) and (Srinivasan, 2007)), none of these methods are suited for processing serialized inputs, dividend inputs with apriori unknown bit length and the circuits have to be replaced with change in input bit length. In other words, once a circuit has been designed for a certain
input bit stream size, the circuit has to be modified in order to support longer bit streams. Also, these circuits cannot produce partial or serialized results and require the entire input data to be available before performing the division operation. The quotient and remainder are estimated using a shift, add/subtract and scale paradigm resulting from inverting the divisor in the binary format. Alternatively, the division can be represented as a multiplication (or shift and add) with a pre-scaling operation. While some of the methods such as (Guei, 1985) compute the quotient bits from higher order to lower order, methods such as (Artzy, 1974) compute it in the reverse order. Methods such as (Petry, 1994) do not give out an explicit remainder. Certain methods are also restricted to exact divisions.

In addition to these constraints, the circuit size for the implementation of most of these algorithms also grows enormously for large input lengths along with a reduction in accuracy and increase in processing time (Figure 1 and 2). The addition of a single tuple of dividend bits demands a circuit change requiring an additional shifter and adder at the very least. Moreover, these methods are suited only for integer division and are unsuited for extension to floating/fixed point division.

Figure 1: Accuracy and error deviation of different approaches for a divide-by-3 operation (Src: Schwarzbacher, 2000).

3 CONSTANT DIVIDER ALGORITHM

In this paper a novel constant divider algorithm is offered, which overcomes the limitations of the previous algorithms, while handling arbitrary length, serial/parallel data and producing full-precision, full-accuracy, floating point capable results with constant circuit requirements and comparable timing to state of the art methods.

Figure 2: Timing behavior of different approaches obtained on European Silicon Structures 0.7µ CMOS technology (Src: Schwarzbacher, 2000).

Two specific streams of processing are employed for the cases of 2^p-1 and 2^p+1. These are described in Figure 3 and Figure 4 respectively.

3.1 Division by 2^p-1

The pseudo-code for the case of 2^p-1 is detailed below.

**Step 1:** Segment dividend into p-bit tuples

**Step 2:** Load T_n into register 1, T_{n-1} into register 2

**Step 3:** Add register 1 and 2

**Step 4:** If Sum >= 2^{p-1}

Quotient tuple = register 1 + 1;
Remainder tuple = Sum – (2^{p-1});

Else

Quotient tuple = register 1;
Remainder tuple = Sum;

**Step 5:** Save quotient tuple in output buffer

**Step 6:** Load remainder tuple into register 1, next dividend tuple (T_{n-k}) into register 2

**Step 7:** Continue to Step 4, unless there are no dividend tuples left

**Step 8:** Output partial remainder as remainder (for integer division) or repeat partial remainder tuple (for floating point division)

For the case of division by 2^p-1, the input data stream is divided into tuples of equal bit length ‘p’. Zero padding is carried out, if necessary to regularize the Most Significant Tuple (MST) to the tuple size (p) being used. For the case of serial data streams, this regularization may not be necessary, if the serial input stream has been pre-synchronized for the required tuple size. In Figure 3, it has been assumed that for a tuple size of ‘p’ bits and input dividend data stream length of ‘N’ bits, the number of tuples generated is ‘n’. For the generation of the most significant quotient tuple (represented by t=0 in Figure 3), the MST (T_0) of the dividend and the second most significant tuple (T_{n-1}) are loaded to registers 1 and 2 respectively. A p-bit adder calculates the sum of the two tuples. For the case of an overflow – i.e. the carry bit being set, it is
necessary to increment the contents of register 1 in order to obtain the MST of the quotient. This is done by connecting the activation port of the incrementor to the carry bit. The incrementor is a functional unit that increments the contents of a register by 1. It can possibly be implemented using a simple adder circuit or a counter. The MST of the quotient \( Q_{n-1} \) thus generated can be stored in a quotient buffer or serialized for an output data stream. The sum output from the p-bit adder forms the partial remainder.
Similar to the quotient tuple, the partial remainder has to be corrected in the case of a generated carry. A second incrementor with the activation port tied to the carry bit output of the adder is used to obtain the partial remainder from the generated sum tuple. For successive time sample instances \((t > 0)\), the partial remainder is loaded into register 1 for the calculation of successive tuples of the quotient. At these instances \((t > 0)\), higher order tuples \((T_{n-2}, T_{n-3}, T_{n-4}, ... \text{ etc.})\) are progressively loaded into register 2. The adder then outputs the partial quotient and remainder for each time instant. The incrementor normalizes the partial quotient and the remainder which are fed to the output queue and to register 1 for the processing of the next sample instant, respectively. The cycle generates the quotient tuple bits for the whole part (non-fractional) part in the case of both integer and floating point division.

The processing is terminated when all the input dividend tuples have been processed. In the case of integer division, the process remainder equals the partial remainder obtained from the second incrementor for the last time sequence instant \((t = n-1)\). In the case of floating point division the fractional part of the quotient is obtained as non-terminating, recurring tuple bits computed by repeating the tuple bits representing the partial remainder. The fractional tuples can be generated to any length based on the required levels of system accuracy and precision. While this computation is not very straightforward for the case of division by \(2^{p+1}\), we present an alternate scheme to tackle this issue, as demonstrated in the next section. Computation of the fractional part is a major advantage of the scheme presented in this paper and unlike Petry and Srinivas or RNS, full accuracy can be maintained to any desired precision.

### 3.2 Division by \(2^{p+1}\)

The pseudo-code for the case of \(2^{p+1}\) is detailed below.

**Step 1:** Segment dividend into p-bit tuples  
**Step 2:** Load \(T_n\) into register 1, \(T_{n-1}\) into register 2  
**Step 3:** Subtract register 1 from 2  
**Step 4:** If Difference \(> 0\)  
   - Quotient tuple = register 1;  
   - Remainder tuple = Difference;  
  Else  
   - Quotient tuple = register 1 - 1;  
   - Remainder tuple = Difference + \(2^{p+1}\);  
**Step 5:** Save quotient tuple in output buffer  
**Step 6:** Load remainder tuple into register 1, next dividend tuple \((T_{n-k})\) into register 2  
**Step 7:** Continue to Step 4, unless there are no dividend tuples left  
**Step 8:** Output partial remainder as remainder (for integer division) or repeat partial remainder less 1 and its \(2^p\)-1 complement tuple (for floating point division)

For the case of division by \(2^{p+1}\), the input data stream is similarly divided into tuples of equal bit length ‘p’. Again, zero padding is carried out, i.e., necessary to regularize the Most Significant Tuple (MST) to the tuple size \(p\) being used. In Figure 4, it has been assumed that for a tuple size of ‘p’ bits and input dividend data stream length of ‘N’ bits, the number of tuples generated is ‘n’. Similar to the case of division by \(2^p\)-1, for the generation of the most significant quotient tuple (represented by \(t = 0\) in Figure 4), the MST \((T_0)\) of the dividend and the second most significant tuple \((T_{n-1})\) are loaded to registers 1 and 2 respectively. A p-bit subtractor calculates the difference of the two tuples (register 2 – register 1). The subtractor can be implemented using a 2’s complement logical adder. This also helps obtain the correct difference between the two tuples (the value being the absolute difference between the two tuples along with a negative sign, indicated by the borrow/overflow bit, for the case when the value in register 2 is smaller than that in register 1). In this case, i.e., the overflow or borrow bit being set, it is necessary to decrement the contents of register 1 in order to obtain the MST of the quotient. This is done by connecting the activation port of the decrementor to the borrow bit. The decrementor is a functional unit that decrements the contents of a register by 1. It can possibly be implemented using a simple subtractor circuit or a counter. Again, similar to the case of division by \(2^p\)-1, the MST of the quotient \((Q_{n-1})\) thus generated can be stored in a quotient buffer or serialized for an output data stream. The difference output from the p-bit subtractor forms the partial remainder.

The partial remainder also has to be corrected in the case of a generated borrow. A p-bit subtractor (or alternatively a bit reversal module) with the activation port tied to the borrow bit output of the subtractor is used to obtain the partial remainder from the generated sum tuple. The subtractor computes the value of \(2^{p+1} - \text{Diff}\). Note that the ‘Diff’ quantity used here is the absolute difference value between the two registers and hence the need for the additional negative sign. For successive time sample instances \((t > 0)\), the partial remainder is loaded into register 1 for the calculation of
successive tuples of the quotient. As before, at these instances (t > 0), higher order tuples (T_{n-2}, T_{n-3}, T_{n-4}, T_{n-5}, etc.) are progressively loaded into register 2. The subtractor then outputs the partial quotient and remainder for each time instant, while the decrementor and the second subtractor normalize the partial quotient and the remainder which are fed to the output queue and to register 1 for the processing of the next sample instant, respectively. The cycle generates the quotient tuple bits for the whole part (non-fractional) part in the case of both integer and floating point division.

The processing is terminated when all the input dividend tuples have been processed. In the case of integer division, the process remainder equals the partial remainder obtained from the second subtractor for the last time sequence instant (t = n-1). In the case of floating point division, the fractional part of the quotient is obtained as non-terminating, recurring tuple bits computed by repeating the tuple bits representing the partial remainder less 1 and its 2^p complement. In other words the fraction part consists of repeating sets of 2 tuples, the first of which is one less than the partial remainder (R – 1) and the second tuple is (2^p - 1) – (R-1).

As before, the fractional tuples can be generated to any length based on the required levels of system accuracy and precision.

4 ANALYSIS

Numerically, the algorithm presented in this paper has an analogue in (Guei, 1985). However, unlike the (Guei, 1985) algorithm which requires the entire input stream for the computation, our scheme requires only two tuples at any time sequence instant, giving out one tuple of quotient bits along with the partial remainder, based on carry/ borrow calculation. Thus, our algorithm is well suited for serial processing. Moreover, the circuit requirements are constant for varying input bit lengths. Additionally, our algorithm is well suited for integer as well as floating point divisions and can generate fractional results with arbitrary accuracy/ precision.

Since tuples can be processed serially using a single adder and 2 incrementors (example case of division by 2^p-1), the constant circuit can be efficiently implemented in hardware. As noted earlier, the requirements do not change with increase in input bit length and the same circuit can be replicated for operation in parallel mode, in which case the number of such computation units will be equal to n – 1. Also, the design provides a natural way to trade-off speed and circuit requirements through the possibility of using a serial mode of operation working on multiple tuples (or parallel tuples) at the same time.

The possibility of calculating the fractional part of the quotient to any arbitrary length with full accuracy supports the use of the algorithm for constant divider circuits in DSPs and other embedded systems. Since the number of computational units in the pipeline is less than or is at least comparable to other state-of-art methods, it can be expected that the computational time numbers also favor use of our approach.

5 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper, we have presented the design for a constant divider circuit of the form of the form 2^p±1. Analyses have also been presented to demonstrate the constant computation requirements of the approach. The method is well suited for processing serialized inputs, dividend inputs with apriori unknown bit length while producing full-precision, full-accuracy, floating point capable results. The next step would be to implement the design using VHDL/Verilog for simulation and testing followed by actual implementation in VLSI for a thorough evaluation of timing, power requirements, memory footprint and chip area estimation. This is expected to be followed by performance evaluation of the circuitry in consonance with a DSP or Embedded System or a GPU targeted at applications such as image processing, signal processing and statistical/ mathematical computation and modeling.

REFERENCES


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