



"RESIDUE ARITHMETIC IN
DIGITAL COMPUTERS"

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SUMMARY

The number systems used have great impact on the speed of a computer. At present at least 4 number systems (binary, negabinary, ternary and residue) are in use either for general purposes or for special purposes. The carry propagation delay which is inherent to all weighted systems (binary, negabinary and ternary) is a limiting factor on the speed of computations. Unlike the weighted system, the residue system is carry free which is the main attractive feature of this system and therefore its potentiality in a general purpose computer, in the light of present day technology, has been investigated.

As the background of the investigation the binary and negabinary arithmetic have been thoroughly studied. A new method for fractional negabinary division, and a correction on negabinary multiplication have been proposed. It has been observed that the binary arithmetic operations are faster than those in negabinary system.

The residue system has got problems too. The sign detection, operations involving sign detection (comparison, overflow detection, division) and the residue-to-decimal conversion are difficult. Moreover, the residue system, being an integer system, makes floating point arithmetic operations very difficult. The details of the existing algorithms/

methods to solve those problems have been thoroughly investigated and drawbacks of those algorithms/methods have been discussed.

This thesis proposes a new method on multiplicative overflow detection in the residue system, a technique for the determination of the first approximation for residue integer division, algorithms for floating point arithmetic operations in the residue system and a method for the residue-to-decimal conversion.

In order to verify those proposed methods and algorithms a 16-15 moduli residue arithmetic unit has been designed using LS1 components. The unit together with (in this case) an SDK-80 microcomputer can perform all the integer and floating point arithmetic operations.

It has been observed that the binary system still maintains its predominance over the residue system in general purpose digital computers. However, the residue system is faster where there is no operation involving sign detection, and also the carry free property, in very large systems, is of great importance in minimising the chip connections and inter chip delays. In future, investigation should be carried out on the possibility of using VLS1 components which may upset the present conclusions which are generally in favour of the binary system.

DECLARATION

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any University, and to the best of the author's knowledge and belief contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

R.C. DEBNATH

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NOTATIONS

$[X]$:	The highest integer value of X , but less than X . (X may be an arithmetic expression also.)
Fl(A±B)	:	Floating point addition/subtraction with operands A and B.
Fl(A·B)	:	Floating point multiplication with operands A and B.
Fl(A B)	:	Floating point division with operands A and B.
$\overleftarrow{T}(n)$:	Shift T to n positions left.
Pol ($\overleftarrow{T}(n)$)	:	Polarise $\overleftarrow{T}(n)$.
$X \leftarrow Y$:	Replace the value of X with Y. (Y may be an arithmetic or a logical expression.)
IN(X, Y,)	:	Inputs X, Y,
SX or S(X)	:	Sign of X.
$X \rightleftharpoons Y$:	Swap the values of X and Y.
$E(X) = \lceil \log_2(X) \rceil$		
$G(X) = 2^{E(X)}$		
$ X _m$ or $[X]_m$:	Residue of X with respect to module m.
$ X $:	Absolute value of X.
Gate (a, b, c, ..., k, l)	:	Gate with inputs b, c, ..., k and output l at the location a on the residue arithmetic unit (RAU) board.
Coeff(A) => a ₂ , a ₁	:	a ₂ and a ₁ are the co-efficients of A.
Exp(X)	:	Exponent of X.
Mnt(X)	:	Mantissa of X.
\supset	:	Contains.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introductory Note

The number system has a great impact on the speed of computer arithmetic which, together with other factors - access time of memories, memory hierarchy and computer architecture, influence the speed of a computer as a whole. Scientific problems such as the solution of large sets of linear equations, problems embracing the field of structural design, traffic flow, signal processing etc. are associated with a great deal of computation. A number system with its associated arithmetic algorithms can greatly effect the speed of computation.

The choice of a number system depends on the availability of efficient arithmetic algorithms. Technology also influences the choice a great deal. For example, a decimal system would be preferable to a binary system if technology could provide low cost reliable ten valued logic circuits. One number system can offer advantages on a particular operation, but may be unsuitable from the consideration of overall speed of computation. For example, in a residue system, multiplication is faster, however, other operations such as sign detection, comparison and overflow detection are slow processes. It is, therefore, worthwhile to investigate which of the existing number systems can offer the greatest overall

speed advantage in computer arithmetic for general purpose computers. The rest of this chapter is an overview of the existing number systems and their advantages and disadvantages.

Chapter 2 discusses the arithmetic operations in binary and negabinary systems. The existing arithmetic algorithms in the residue system have been discussed in Chapter 3. A few improved techniques and algorithms for residue arithmetic have been proposed in Chapter 4 and the design of a residue arithmetic computer, on the basis of the proposed techniques and algorithms, has been shown in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 gives conclusions on the comparative studies of binary and residue systems.

1.2 Number Systems - an overview

To represent all numbers, a number system must have unique sets of representation. A number system may be a weighted system or a nonweighted system. Some examples of the weighted systems are the binary system, negabinary system, and ternary system; whereas the residue system is a nonweighted system.

A number in a weighted system can be expressed as

$$x = \sum_{i=0}^N a_i w_i$$

where a_i are the sets of integers and w_i are the sets of weights. If w_i are the successive power of radix w , the number system is called a fixed radix system; otherwise it is a mixed radix system. The binary system ($w=2$), negabinary

system ($w=-2$) and ternary system ($w=3$) are in the family of fixed radix systems. Examples of a mixed radix system have been given in Appendix 5.

Number systems which have found use in digital computers are the binary system, negabinary system [1], [2], ternary system [3] and the residue system. In subsequent sections brief discussions now follow on these number systems.

1.2.1 Binary Number System

The binary number system is a two digit (0,1) number system having a radix +2. The decimal value of a binary number depends on the position of 1. Thus for example

$$\begin{aligned}(11011)_2 &= 1.2^4 + 1.2^3 + 0.2^2 + 1.2^1 + 1.2^0 \\ &= (27)_{10}\end{aligned}$$

Due to easy conversion from binary number to octal number ($w=8$) and vice versa, some digital computers such as the IBM-7099, Data General Nova-1, Nova-2 and many others, use the octal system for easy input-output operation. The conversion of binary number to octal number is done by forming groups of three consecutive bits and expressing each group as an octal digit (0 through 7). Thus above binary number can be expressed in octal form as

$$(011, 011)_2 = (33)_8 = 3.8^1 + 3.8^0 = (27)_{10}$$

The octal number is converted to binary number by simply expressing the octal digits in binary form. Thus

$$(75)_8 = (111, 101)_2.$$

Presently some computers - IBM-360, IBM-370 and many microprocessors make use of hexadecimal numbers ($w=16$). The sixteen digits of hexadecimal numbers are 0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,A,B,C,D,E,F. A binary number is converted to hexadecimal form by taking groups of four consecutive bits and representing each group by a hexadecimal digit. Thus

$$(1101, 1111)_2 = (DF)_{16} = 13 \cdot 16^1 + 15 \cdot 16^0 = (223)_{10}$$

When hexadecimal digits are represented in binary form, it gives equivalent binary number. For example

$$(9A)_{16} = (1001, 1010)_2.$$

Another code which is often used is the binary coded decimal number (BCD). This number is really a decimal number, the digits of which are expressed in binary form. Thus

$$(789)_{10} = (0111, 1000, 1001)_{\text{BCD}}$$

Binary states (0,1) are easily realisable in a physical system and is one of the main advantages of binary systems and this is the reason why almost all present day computers use binary number systems. The obvious disadvantage which is inherent in all weighted systems is the carry propagation delay which limits the speed of computation - for example, in addition and especially in multiplication which is a process of additions and shifts. Another disadvantage is the sign correction required in complement (1's or 2's) multiplication. These are the reasons why the potentiality of other number systems should be investigated. The speed of arithmetic is particularly important in the growing field of real time processing in which a wide range of digital computers/microprocessors are being applied.

1.2.2 Negabinary Number System

A negabinary system, like a binary system, is a two digit system. But unlike the binary system the radix is -2 . For example

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad (11011)_{-2} &= 1 \cdot (-2)^4 + 1 \cdot (-2)^3 + 0 \cdot (-2)^2 + 1 \cdot (-2)^1 + 1 \cdot (-2)^0 \\ &= 16 - 8 + 0 - 2 + 1 = (7)_{10} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(b)} \quad (01001)_{-2} &= 0 \cdot (-2)^4 + 1 \cdot (-2)^3 + 0 \cdot (-2)^2 + 1 \cdot (-2)^0 \\ &= 0 - 8 + 0 + 0 + 1 = (-7)_{10} \end{aligned}$$

The advantage of this system is that no sign correction is needed for multiplication. The disadvantages are: (i) during addition double carries are generated (to be discussed in Chapter 2) and therefore it is difficult to maintain speedy propagation of carries, (ii) from examples (a) and (b), it is seen that when the most significant 1 is in an odd position, the number is negative and if it is in an even position, the number is positive. This means that the sign is implicit. The detection of implicit sign is not so easy as that of explicit sign as in the case of the binary system, and (iii) from the example (a) it is clear that to represent $(7)_{10}$, this system needs 5 bits, whereas the binary system needs only 4 bits (3 bits for magnitude + 1 bit for sign). Furthermore, some of the arithmetic operations are not easy. Chapter 2 will discuss its arithmetic operations.

1.2.3 Ternary Number Systems

A ternary integer number can be expressed as

$$x = \sum_{i=0}^N a_i 3^i$$

where a_i ($i=0, 1, \dots, N$) are the coefficients and can have any value of the set $(0,1,2)$ in an ordinary ternary system or any value of the set $(-1,0,1)$ in a symmetric system. This number system, specially the symmetric one, offers potential advantages for the following reasons (i) sign conversion is easy (simple inversion) (ii) rounding is done by simply truncating the number to the required number of digits (iii) since the ternary system needs 58% less digits than equivalent binary number, addition and multiplication will be faster [4], [5] and there will be a potential reduction in wiring cost [6].

The Russian 'SETUN' is an example of a symmetric ternary computer. It used magnetic cores [22] to realize three state logic.

A handful of papers is available on arithmetic algorithms [4], [5], [7] and ternary switching functions [8]-[12].

The ternary system sounds promising for the future and interest is rapidly growing in the hardware realization of three valued logic, [6], [13] - [24].

1.2.4 Residue Number System

The residue number system is not a weighted system. Therefore its arithmetic operations are carry free which is the main attractive feature of the system. Since carry does not propagate from one residue to the next one, the speed of addition, subtraction and multiplication is faster than the equivalent binary system. Moreover, in the case of multiplication, the storing of the partial product is not required.

However, sign detection and operations involving sign detection (comparison, overflow detection and division) are not so easy as in the binary system. Furthermore, since residue arithmetic is an integer arithmetic, floating point arithmetic is very difficult. So far as it is known there is only one residue computer developed by RCA [28]. Limited uses of residue numbers are found in error detection and correction algorithms [25] - [27]. The details of residue arithmetic operations will be discussed in Chapter 3.

2. INTRODUCTION TO BINARY AND NEGABINARY NUMBER SYSTEMS

As has been discussed earlier, the binary number system is a two valued (0,1) number system with its radix (base) 2; whilst the negabinary system is a two valued system with radix -2. Since two state physical entities are readily available the binary system has an advantage over all other systems. However, carry propagation delay is the main disadvantage of the binary system; specially in multiplication, which involves a series of additions and speed is limited by the carry propagation delay in the additions. For complement numbers, multiplication needs sign correction for negative operand/operands.

In the negabinary system the sign is implicit therefore multiplication does not need correction for negative operands. However, this system has got a twin carry problem which is even worse than that of the binary system, and also due to the implicit nature of the sign, the sign detection is not so easy as in the binary system.

Later sections give a review of arithmetic in binary and negabinary systems.

2.1 Binary Arithmetic

Any of the standard books [36, 37] can give the background to binary arithmetic. Binary numbers are presented

either in signed 1's complement form, or signed magnitude form or 2's complement form. However, whatever be the form of representation, the sign is always represented by the most significant bit (MSB).

2.1.1 Binary Addition and Subtraction

Tables 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 show the algorithms of binary addition/subtraction of numbers in 1's complement form, signed magnitude form and 2's complement form respectively.

Table 2.1

Algorithms for binary addition/subtraction
in 1's complement form

Method	Operation	Remark
(i) Direct Addition	$Z = X + Y$	Treat sign bit as a number as long as the register capacity for the number is not exceeded.
(ii) Direct Subtraction	$Z = X - Y$	
(iii) Addition by Subtraction	$Z = X - \bar{Y}$	Add (or subtract) end round carry (or borrow), whenever it occurs, to/from least significant bit of sum (or difference).
(iv) Subtraction by Addition	$Z = X + \bar{Y}$	

\bar{Y} is 1's complement of Y .

Example: Addition of $(+9)_{10}$ and $-(6)_{10}$ in 1's complement.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 0,1001 \\
 \underline{1,1001} \\
 \text{End Round Carry } \rightarrow 1 \quad 0 \quad 0010 \\
 \underline{\quad\quad\quad 1} \\
 0 \quad 0011 \quad (\text{sum}).
 \end{array}$$

Table 2.2

Algorithms for binary addition/subtraction
in signed magnitude form

	Signs of X and Y	Operation	Sign of Sum
Addition	Same	$Z^* = X^* + Y^*$	$\text{sign}(z) = \text{sign}(x)$
	Different	$Z^* = X^* - Y^*$	$\text{sign}(z) = \text{sign}(x)$, if it does not overflow $\text{sign}(z) = \overline{\text{sign}(x)}$, if it overflows
Subtraction	Same	$Z^* = X^* - Y^*$	$\text{sign}(z) = \text{sign}(x)$, if it does not overflow $\text{sign}(z) = \overline{\text{sign}(x)}$, if it overflows
	Different	$Z^* = X^* + Y^*$	$\text{sign}(z) = \text{sign}(x)$

In Table 2.2 negative number Z^* (after operation) is in 2's complement form. To change negative Z^* to the signed magnitude form the magnitude of Z^* is 2's complemented.

Example: Addition of $X = +0101$ (+5) and $Y = -1001$ (-9).

$$\begin{array}{r}
 0101 \\
 \underline{1001} \\
 1\ 1100 \\
 \text{overflow}
 \end{array}$$

Therefore, the sign of Z^* is 1 [= $\overline{\text{sign}(x)}$]
and the sum is 2's complement form of -4. This must now be converted back to signed magnitude form, i.e. to -0100.

Table 2.3

Algorithms for binary addition/subtraction
in 2's complement form

Method	Operation	Sign bit
(i) Direct Addition	$Z = X + Y$	
(ii) Direct Subtraction	$Z = X - Y$	Treat sign bit as a number bit as long as register capacity for number does not exceed.
(iii) Addition by subtraction of 2's complement	$Z = X - \bar{Y}$	
(iv) Subtraction by Addition	$Z = X + \bar{Y}$	

\bar{Y} is the 2's complement of Y .

Example: Addition : $+(10)_{10}$ and $-(7)_{10}$

$$\begin{array}{r} (0,1010)_2 \\ (1,1001)_2 \\ \hline (0,0011)_2 = 3. \end{array}$$

From the study of algorithms in Tables 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 it is obvious that 2's complement addition/subtraction is easier than in any other form of representation. However, it is more difficult to form than 1's complement representation.

2.1.2 Binary Multiplication

Binary multiplication is generally a repeated addition and shifting process. Multiplication can be performed by using one of the following widely used methods [36].

- (i) Direct Multiplication Method
- (ii) Burks - Goldstine - Von Neumann Method
- (iii) Robertson's First Method
- (iv) Robertson's Second Method
- (v) Booth's Method
- (vi) A Short Cut Multiplication Method.

Binary multiplication with signed magnitude form of number is much easier since it does not need sign correction; the sign of the result is the Exclusive OR function of the signs of the operands. The magnitude of the result is simply the product of two magnitudes (operands). In the case of signed complement numbers, the system needs correction if any one/both of the operands are negative. The Direct Multiplication Method and Short Cut Multiplication Method are most suitable for signed magnitude multiplication. All the other methods are suitable for signed complement multiplication and these algorithms have the property of needing correction for signed complement multiplication.

A variation of the above techniques is a multiple digits multiplication method [36]. In this method the two LSB of the multiplier are examined at a time and a decision of operation/no operation is taken according to the Table 2.4. This technique is suitable for signed magnitude multiplication.

Table 2.4

Table for decision modes in multiple digits multiplication

Multiplier digits	Operation	Shift Right
00	No operation	2
01	Add multiple	2
10	Add 2 • (multiplicand)	2
11	Add 3 • (multiplicand)	2

In quaternary techniques [37] three consecutive bits are examined and decision of operation/no operation is taken according to the Table 2.5. An extra one bit of storage is needed at the LSD position of multiplier which is shifted two bits right after each examination; while the partial product is not shifted.

Table 2.5

Table for decision modes in quaternary multiplication

Multiplier bits	Operation
000	No operation
001	Add 1 • (multiplicand)
010	Add 2 • (multiplicand)
100	Subtract 2 • (multiplicand)
101	Subtract 1 • (multiplicand)
110	Subtract 1 • (multiplicand)
111	No operation

Example: Quaternary Multiplication with

Multiplicand $X = 1100$: Multiplier $Y = 1111$

Initial Partial Product:		00000000
Multiplier Register:	1111 0	11110100 Subtract X
	0111 1	11110100 No operation
	0000 1	10110100 Addition of 16X

Simultaneous multiplication [36] is a method of hardware multiplication in which the shifted multiplicand is simultaneously added to the previous partial product. This technique is fast but expensive. Plenty of literature references [38] - [52] are available on this technique.

ROM multiplication [53], [54] is another approach to multiplication.

Integrated circuits for multiplication [55] - [58] are also available. These I.Cs can be cascaded to accommodate numbers of large word length.

2.1.3 Binary Division

Binary division is commonly performed using one of three methods [36] ----- (i) Comparison Method, (ii) Restoring Method (iii) Non-restoring Method. The most commonly used method is the non-restoring method. The algorithm for the non-restoring method has been given in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6

Algorithm for binary division by the non-restoring method

Remainder	$R_n = 2^{-n} r_n$
Partial remainder	$r_n = 2r_{n-1} + (1-2q_n)y$ $q_n = 1$ if r_{n-1} and y are of same sign $q_n = 0$ if r_{n-1} and y are of different sign
Quotient	$Q = (-1+2^{-n}) + \sum_{i=1}^n q_i 2^{-(i-1)}$
Correction	Add $(-1+2^{-n})$

Array divisions implementing non-restoring division method have been proposed in [59] - [64]. An integrated circuit for binary division [77] is also available.

2.2 The Negabinary Number System

2.2.1 Negabinary Number Representation (Integers)

General expression for a negative radix integer number is

$$a(-\beta) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i (-\beta)^i \dots\dots (2.1)$$

$$\text{where } 0 \leq a_i \leq \beta-1$$

For negabinary the expression 2.1 becomes

$$a(-2) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i (-2)^i$$

$$\text{where } 0 \leq a_i \leq 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus } (11011)_{-2} &= 1x(-2)^4 + 1x(-2)^3 + 0x(-2)^2 + 1x(-2)^1 \\ &\quad + 1x(-2)^0 \end{aligned}$$

$$= 16 - 8 + 0 - 2 + 1 = (7)_{10}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{and } (01111)_{-2} &= 0x(-2)^4 + 1x(-2)^3 + 1x(-2)^2 + 1x(-2)^1 \\ &\quad + 1x(-2)^0 \end{aligned}$$

$$= -8 + 4 - 2 + 1 = -(5)_{10}$$

From above two examples, it is seen that, if the non-zero MSB is in an even position, then the number is positive; and if the non-zero MSB is in an odd position, then the number is negative.

The conversion of integer number of positive base to negative base and vice versa has been shown in [66] - [68].

2.2.2 Negabinary Number Representation (Fraction)

No literature on the representation of fractional negabinary number is available, however, the general expression of fractional number in negabinary system is given by

$$a(-2) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_{-i+1} (-2)^{-i+1} \dots\dots (2.2)$$

where $a_i \in (0,1)$

The representation of fractional negabinary number thus needs two extra bits before negabinary point.

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} (11.0111)_2 &= 1x(-2)^1 + 1x(-2)^0 + 0x(-2)^{-1} + 1x(-2)^{-2} \\ &\quad + 1x(-2)^{-3} + 1x(-2)^{-4} \\ &= -\left(\frac{13}{16}\right)_{10} . \end{aligned}$$

2.2.3 Polarisation of Negabinary Number

Similar to the 'complement' of Binary Numbers there exists a 'Polarisation' [70] of Negabinary Numbers. The procedure to polarise a negabinary number can be stated as follows: Starting from the LSB complement immediate next bit following a '1'.

Example: (a) Polarisation of $(5)_{10} = (0101)_2$ is

$$(\underline{1}1\underline{1}1)_2 = -(5)_{10}$$

(b) Polarisation of $(-3)_{10} = (1101)_2$ is

$$(\underline{0}1\underline{1}1)_2 = (3)_{10}$$

2.2.4 Negabinary Addition/Subtraction

A truth table for negabinary addition, as presented in [65], has been shown in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7

Logic table for negabinary addition

Number		Sum, S	Carry C ₁ C ₀		
X	Y		C ₁	C ₀	
0	0	0	0	0	
0	1	1	0	0	
1	0	1	0	0	
1	1	0	1	1	Twin Carry

The twin carry grows to unmanageable numbers as the addition moves towards the MSB position. However, carry-borrow techniques [69] and [72] can minimize the twin carry accumulation. The technique can be summarised as: A carry generated in any bit position is considered to be a borrow to the next bit position; a borrow generated in any bit position is considered to carry to the next bit position. Example:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 (5)_{10} = 0 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \\
 + (3)_{10} = 0 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 1 \\
 \hline
 (8)_{10} = 1 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0
 \end{array}$$

Truth tables of addition and subtraction, according to carry-borrow technique, have been shown in Tables 2.8 and 2.9 respectively.

Table 2.8
Addition - Truth - Table

Numbers		Carry	Borrow	Sum	Generated Carry	Generated Borrow
X	Y	C_i	B_i	S	C_{i+1}	B_{i+1}
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	1	1	0
0	0	1	0	1	0	0
0	1	0	0	1	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	1
1	0	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	0	1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	1
1	1	0	0	0	0	1
1	1	0	1	1	0	0
1	1	1	0	1	0	1

Table 2.9
Subtraction - Truth - Table

Numbers		Carry	Borrow	Sum	Generated Carry	Generated Borrow
X	Y	C_i	B_i	S	C_{i+1}	B_{i+1}
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	1	1	0
0	0	1	0	1	0	0
0	1	0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	0	1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	1
1	1	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	1	1	0
1	1	1	0	1	0	0

Subtraction can also be performed by the method of addition of the polarised subtrahend [72]. This technique is like subtraction by addition of a complemented subtrahend in binary subtraction.

The addition and subtraction methods discussed so far have been of a 'ripple carry' type. For fast addition, a carry look-ahead adder has been proposed by Agrawal [76].

2.2.5 Negabinary Multiplication

The methods of multiplication in negative base have been discussed in [70] and [74]. However, a variable-bit-shift negabinary multiplication process [73] is an interesting method. In this method two consecutive least significant bits of the multiplier are examined at a time and the decision of arithmetic operation/no operation is taken according to the Table 2.10.

Table 2.10

Table for decision modes in negabinary multiplication

Two bits of multiplier $y_{i+1} \ y_i$		Arithmetic operation required	Number of right shift
0	0	No operation	2
0	1	Add Multiplicand	2
1	0	No operation	1
1	1	Subtract Multiplicand	2

However, this method does not work when two bits of the multiplier are 10. Multiplication of a non-zero multiplicand with the multiplier 10, will produce zero result according to table 2.10; whereas the actual result should be $(-2 \times \text{multiplicand})$. Therefore, this method needs correction. A correction has been proposed in section 2.2.7.

2.2.6 Negabinary Division

Elaborate discussions on integer division in the negative base system have been given in [70] and [71].

Agrawal has presented the method of negabinary integer division in [75], and this has been described below.

Let a , \bar{b} , and q be the non-zero dividend, non-zero polarised divisor and quotient respectively. The a , \bar{b} and q can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \sum_{i=0}^m a_i (-2)^i \\ b &= \sum_{i=0}^m \bar{b}_i (-2)^i \\ q &= \sum_{i=0}^{m-n+1} q_i (-2)^i \end{aligned}$$

The division is started with a leading zero added to a and the most significant bits (MSBs) of \bar{b} aligned to a . The quotient bit is evaluated after shifting the polarised divisor one bit to the right. The quotient is taken to be 1 if the addition of the polarised divisor is possible. Generally any one of the following conditions exists after shifting the polarised-divisor one bit right when the i^{th} quotient is being evaluated.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{(i)} & \begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & a_{i+n-1} & \dots & a_i & \dots & a_0 & \\ \bar{b}_n & \bar{b}_{n-1} & \dots & \bar{b}_0 & & & \end{array} \\ \text{(ii)} & \begin{array}{ccccccc} a_{i+n} & a_{i+n-1} & a_{i+n-2} & \dots & a_i & \dots & a_0 \\ \bar{b}_n & \bar{b}_{n-1} & \bar{b}_{n-2} & \dots & \bar{b}_0 & & \end{array} \\ \text{(iii)} & \begin{array}{ccccccc} a_{i+n+1} & a_{i+n} & a_{i+n-1} & a_{i+n-2} & \dots & a_0 & \\ & \bar{b}_n & \bar{b}_{n-1} & \bar{b}_{n-2} & \dots & \bar{b}_0 & \end{array} \end{array}$$

If condition (iii) exists, the polarised addition is always possible. If condition (ii) exists, the polarised addition is never possible. If condition (i) exists, polarised addition is possible when the magnitude of P_{cri} is equal to or

smaller than the dividend (or the partial remainder). P_{cri} is given by the multiplication of \bar{b} by \bar{q}_{cri} , where q_{cri} is given as:

Bit No	i	i-1	i-2	i-3	2	1	0
Value of q_{cri}	0	1	1	1	1	1	1

the rightmost bit is 1 when i is even; otherwise it is zero.

$$P_{cri} = \bar{b} \cdot \bar{q}_{cri}$$

However, the method described above is not applicable to negabinary fractional division. Therefore, one method for negabinary fractional division has been proposed in section 2.2.8.

2.2.7 A correction proposed on variable shift negabinary multiplication

Except for one correction, the method is the same as that discussed in section 2.2.5.

Table 2.11

Algorithm for negabinary multiplication

Two bits of multiplier y_{i+1} y_i	Operation	Right Shift
0 0	No operation	2
0 1	Add Multiplicand	2
1 0	Add (-2·Multiplicand)	2
1 1	Subtract Multiplicand	2

[-2·(multiplicand) is obtained by shifting multiplicand one position left.]

The correction is only for $y_{i+1} y_i = 10$.

Example: Multiplication of $(3)_{10}$ by $-(10)_{10}$.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 (3)_{10} = (0111)_{-2} \\
 (-10)_{10} = \frac{(1010)_{-2}}{01110} \\
 \quad \quad \quad \underline{1110} \\
 \text{(Negabinary Addition)} \quad (100110)_{-2} = (-30)_{10}
 \end{array}$$

According to the proposed correction, the multiplier is a 2-shift multiplier and algorithm is same as that of binary multiple digits multiplication (Table 2.4).

2.2.8 Method Proposed on Negabinary Fraction Division

The proposed method assumes that both divisor and dividend are fractional and divisor is greater than dividend (i.e. $X < Y$). The quotient Q can be written as (from negabinary representation of fractional number section 2.2.2).

$$\begin{aligned}
 Q &= a_1(-2)^{-1} + a_0(-2)^0 + a_{-1}(-2)^{-1} + a_{-2}(-2)^{-2} + \dots + a_{-n}(-2)^{-n} \\
 &= -a_1(2)^{-1} + a_0(2)^0 + \sum_{i=1}^n a_{-i}(-2)^{-i}
 \end{aligned}$$

Let $-a_1(2)^{-1} + a_0(2)^0$ be represented by two bits q_1q_0

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
 Q &= q_1q_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n a_{-i}(-2)^{-i} \\
 &= q_1q_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{-i} a_{-i}(2)^{-i}
 \end{aligned}$$

If $a_{-i} = 1$, then

- (i) $(-1)^{-i} a_{-i} = -1$ if i is an odd number.
- (ii) $(-1)^{-i} a_{-i} = 1$ if i is an even number.

If $a_{-i} = 0$, then

$$(iii) \quad (-1)^{-i} a_{-i} = 0$$

In the negabinary system -1 is represented by two bits, 1 1. Therefore, at least two bits are needed to represent the set $(0, 1, -1)$ in negabinary system.

In other words Q can be written as

$$Q = q_1 q_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n [a_1 (-2)^{i+1} + a_0 (-2)^i] \cdot 2^{-i}$$

$$= q_1 q_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n (-a_1 2^{-i+1} + a_0 2^{-i})$$

$-a_1 2^{-i+1} + a_0 2^{-i}$ can be denoted by two bits

$$q_{-i+1} \ q_{-i}$$

$$\text{Then } Q = q_1 q_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n q_{-i+1} q_{-i}$$

(The negabinary point lies just after q_0 bit)

Fig 2.1 shows the flow chart of negabinary fractional division process, and it is similar to the non-restoring fractional division in the binary system.

Example: Divide $-\left(\frac{15}{64}\right)_{10}$ by $\left(\frac{3}{8}\right)_{10}$

$$X = -\left(\frac{15}{64}\right)_{10} = (00.110001)_{-2}$$

$$Y = \left(\frac{3}{8}\right)_{10} = (01.101)_{-2}$$

00.11001	
<u>01.101</u>	Addition, since sign does not agree
00.011001	sign agrees with the sign of ν . Therefore
	$q_1q_0 = 11$
	left shift
00.11001	
	polarisation
00.01011	
<u>01.101</u>	subtraction
00.00111	sign disagrees with that of ν . Therefore
	$q_0q_{-1} = 00$
	left shift
00.0111	
	polarisation
00.1101	
<u>01.101</u>	addition
00.0111	sign agrees with that of ν . Therefore
	$q_{-1}q_{-2} = 01$
	left shift
00.111	
	polarisation
01.101	
<u>01.101</u>	subtraction
00.000	(for zero remainder $q_{-2}q_{-3} = 11$, since $i=3$ is an odd number)

Therefore $Q = q_1q_0 + q_0q_{-1} + q_{-1}q_{-2} + q_{-2}q_{-3}$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 = 11. \\
 \quad 00 \\
 \quad \quad 01 \\
 \quad \quad \quad \underline{11} \\
 00.101 = -\frac{5}{8}.
 \end{array}$$

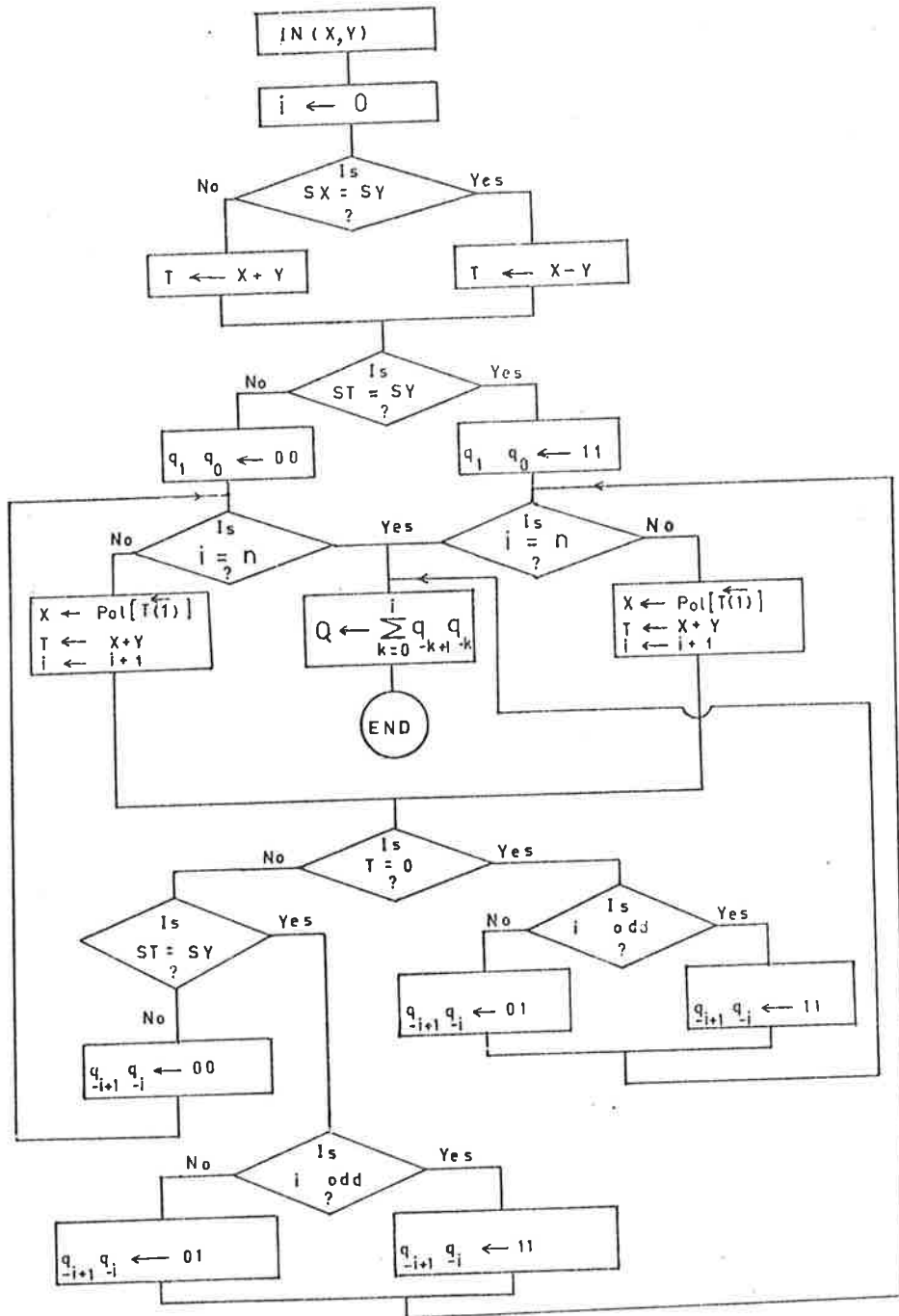


Fig.2.1 Flow chart of negabinary fractional division process.

2.3 Conclusion

The details of binary and negabinary arithmetic methods have been discussed in the preceding sections. It is clear from this study that all the methods of binary arithmetic can, with slight modification, be used in negabinary arithmetic. However, the twin carry propagation is the main disadvantage of the negabinary system. The carry-borrow technique of addition/subtraction is serial in nature; therefore, it is inherently slow. The negabinary carry look ahead adder is complex and has no speed advantage over a binary adder. Polarisation, similar to complement in the binary system, is a serial type of operation; therefore, it is a slow process. Negabinary multiplication does not need correction, but additions of partial products (PP) are slower, since negabinary addition is slower than binary addition. The proposed negabinary fractional division method is similar to the non-restoring binary fractional division, however, since polarisation and negabinary addition are slow in comparison with the complement and binary addition, the process of negabinary division is slower than that in the binary system. Above all it can be concluded that the negabinary system has no speed advantage over a binary system. Therefore, other number systems which are carry free are well worth investigating.

3. RESIDUE ARITHMETIC - - LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

Due to the carry free property of residue arithmetic, addition, subtraction and multiplication are all faster in the residue system than in the binary system. However, sign detection, operations involving sign detection (comparison, overflow detection) and division are slow processes. Also since residue arithmetic is an integer arithmetic, residue floating point arithmetic is very difficult. Similarly output translation (residue to decimal) which, although less frequently used, is still a problem. However, due to the carry free properties, residue arithmetic systems are well worth investigating as an alternative to the conventional (binary) system. A comprehensive knowledge of residue arithmetic can be gained from [28], [29].

To be of use in any general purpose computer any number system needs efficient algorithms on sign detection, overflow detection, division, floating point arithmetic and output translation. Later work in this thesis investigates suitable improvement in some of these areas for the residue system.

The remaining sections of this chapter discuss residue addition, subtraction, multiplication, existing algorithms on division, overflow detection, floating point arithmetic and output translation.

3.2 Integer Residue Arithmetic - an outline

3.2.1 Addition, Subtraction and Multiplication

If $(p_{1x}, p_{2x}, p_{3x}, \dots, p_{nx})$ and

$$(p_{1y}, p_{2y}, p_{3y}, \dots, p_{ny})$$

are the residues of the operands X and Y respectively in the residue system of moduli m_i ($i=1,2,3, \dots, n$), then addition/subtraction and multiplication can be expressed as

(i) Addition/subtraction:

$$\begin{aligned} |X \pm Y|_M &= |p_{1x} \pm p_{1y}|_{m_1}, |p_{2x} \pm p_{2y}|_{m_2}, \\ &|p_{3x} \pm p_{3y}|_{m_3}, \dots, |p_{nx} \pm p_{ny}|_{m_n} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{where } M = \prod_{i=1}^n m_i$$

(ii) Multiplication:

$$\begin{aligned} |X \cdot Y|_M &= |p_{1x} \cdot p_{1y}|_{m_1}, |p_{2x} \cdot p_{2y}|_{m_2}, \\ &|p_{3x} \cdot p_{3y}|_{m_3}, \dots, |p_{nx} \cdot p_{ny}|_{m_n} \end{aligned}$$

Combinational logic or look up tables in suitable memories can be used to implement addition-subtraction and multiplication processes. The modulus which needs the most time in operation determines the speed of each overall operation.

3.2.2 Division

3.2.2a The types of division

There are three types of division [28] each of which must be considered in contemplating possible implementations.

Category 1: Division Remainder Zero : In this category of division, the dividend is a multiple of divisor.

Category 2: Scaling : Division by factor/factors of M.

Category 3: General Division : Division by any arbitrary numbers.

General Division is of particular interest, since in a general purpose computer both divisor and dividend are arbitrary numbers.

3.2.2b Methods of General Division

There are at least two methods for accomplishing this in a residue system - General Division I [28], [30] and General Division II [28].

General Division II process is slower than General Division I and is restricted by a special requirement. General Division I needs a look up table which contains the numbers 2^i ($i=0,1,2, \dots, N$) in residue form. (N is the highest power to 2 contained in $(\frac{M}{2} - 1)$). The look up table is formed in memories, where the address represents the exponent (power) to 2 and the contents give the value of 2^i in residue form. This method assumes that the dividend X and the divisor Y are positive and nonzero. The details of the procedures are given below.

(i) Find $G(Y)=2^k$. (Starting with the highest address number (N), the contents of each location of the table is compared with Y , until $2^k \leq Y < 2^{k+1}$).

(ii) Find the first approximation, $F = \frac{2^N}{G(Y)}$. (Since 2^N and $G(Y)$ are the numbers of powers of 2 and $G(Y) \leq 2^N$, F can be found by division of Category 1.)

(iii) Follow the iterative process shown with the flow chart of Fig. 3.1.

To determine $G(Y)$ by logarithmic search technique [30], it requires on the average

$$\frac{n}{2} \log_2 c \quad \text{modular operations [30] (3.1)}$$

(Where n is the number of moduli; $c \approx \log_2 (M/2-1)$)

After $G(Y)$ has been obtained, to find F it requires (on the average) additional

$$(n+2) \quad \text{modular operations (3.2)}$$

Iterative process needs on the average

$$\frac{c}{2} (n+1) \quad \text{modular operations (3.3)}$$

Therefore total division process requires, on the average

$$\frac{n}{2} \log_2 c + n + 2 + \frac{c}{2} (n+1) \\ \text{modular operations (3.4)}$$

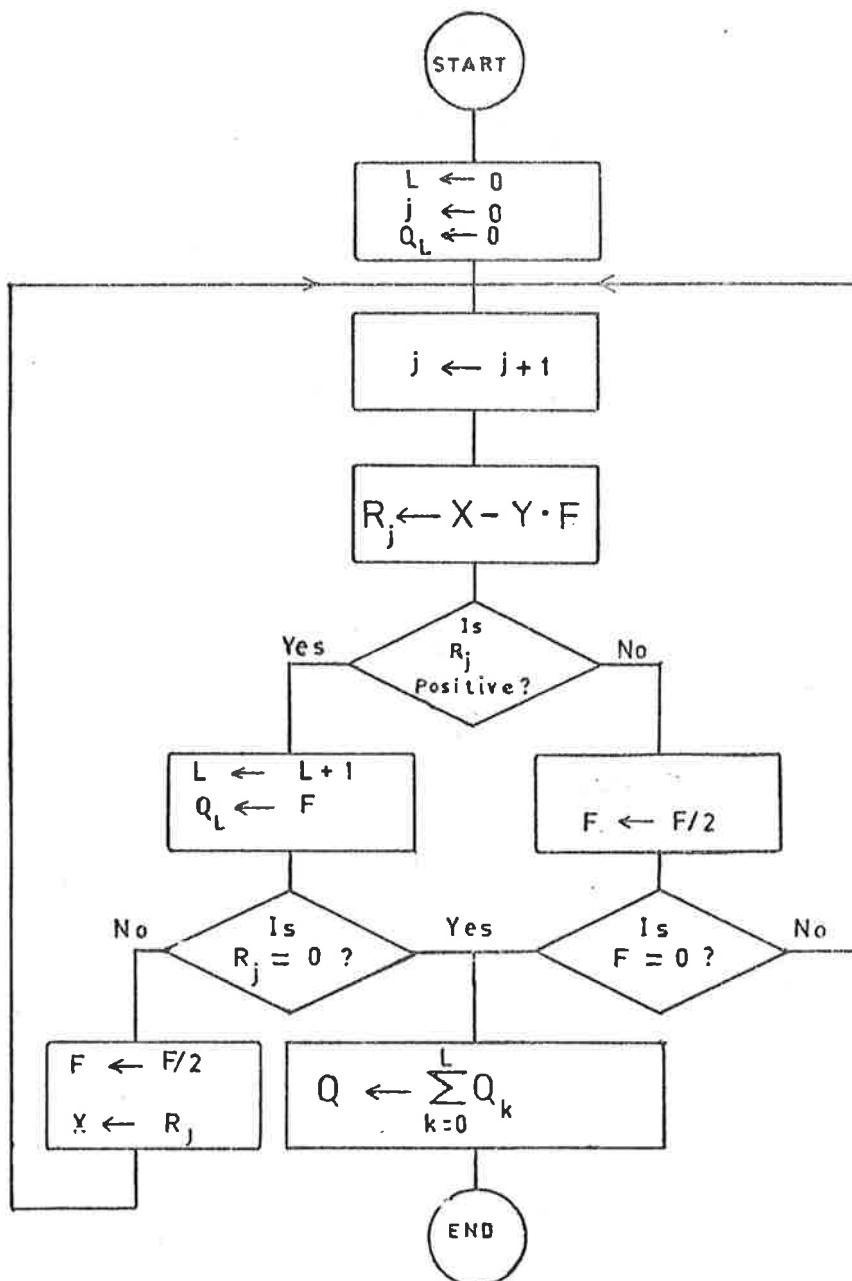


Fig. 3.1 Flow Chart Of Iterative Process in residue integer division.

The first approximation F can be determined by fast division technique [30] from the value of $E(X)$ and $E(Y)$.

The steps that are followed are:

- (i) Convert X to its mixed radix form (Appendix-5) and pick up the most significant nonzero digit a_{ux} (say).
- (ii) Find $G((a_{ux}+1)\pi_p)$ and $G(a_{ux}\pi_p)$ from a look up table which contains the value of 2^i ($i=1,2, \dots, N$), where N is such that $2^N \leq (M-1) < 2^{N+1}$. ($\pi_p = \prod_{i=1}^p m_i$). Also find $E((a_{ux}+1)\pi_p)$ and $E(a_{ux}\pi_p)$ from another look up table.
- (iii) Find $X' = X - G((a_{ux}+1)\pi_p)$ and determine the sign of X' by another mixed radix conversion. If sign is negative $G(X) = G(a_{ux}\pi_p)$ and $E(X) = E(a_{ux}\pi_p)$. Otherwise $G(X) = G((a_{ux}+1)\pi_p)$ and $E(X) = E((a_{ux}+1)\pi_p)$ ($E(X) = i$ where $i = 1,2,3, \dots, N$). Similarly find $E(Y)$.

The F is given by

$$F = 2^{E(X)-E(Y)} \quad (\text{in residue form})$$

If two mixed radix converters and associated look up tables are available, F can be obtained in $2n$ modular operations.

3.3 Overflow

If m_i ($i=1,2,3, \dots, n$) are the moduli of a particular residue system and the moduli are pairwise relatively prime, then the range of the numbers that can be uniquely represented

is given by $M = \prod_{i=1}^n m_i$. If one of the moduli is even, then the range of the positive numbers (positive half) and that of negative numbers (negative half) are defined by

{0 to $M/2 - 1$ } and { $M/2$ to $M-1$ } respectively.

An overflow is said to have occurred if the result of an arithmetic operation exceeds M or the range of positive half or negative half.

3.3.1 Overflow due to addition/subtraction

An additive overflow can occur if two operands X and Y are of same signs. If operands are positive and overflow occurs, the result falls in the negative half. For negative operands, the result falls in the positive half. Therefore additive overflow can be easily detected by detecting the incorrect sign of the result. Subtractive overflow can occur if the signs of the operands differ. Since subtraction can be reduced to addition ($X + (-Y)$), subtractive overflow detection is similar to the additive overflow detection.

3.3.2 Multiplicative Overflow

When multiplicative overflow occurs, one of the two following phenomena occurs - (i) the result is of incorrect sign (exceeds the range of positive half or negative half) or (ii) the result is of correct sign, but incorrect magnitude (exceeds M).

The overflow of first category can be detected by checking the sign of the product (whether the sign is incorrect). When overflow is of second category, the following

relation [28] is valid.

$$G \left(\frac{|XY|_M}{X} \right) \neq G(Y) \quad \dots\dots (3.5a)$$

First $\frac{|XY|_M}{X}$ is calculated by techniques of General Division I. Then $G \left(\frac{|XY|_M}{X} \right)$ and $G(Y)$ are obtained by logarithmic search technique. Since $\frac{|XY|_M}{X}$ is a division, more time will be needed to find it. However, if the expression (3.5a) is written as (3.5b), the division $\frac{|XY|_M}{X}$ can be avoided.

$$\frac{G((XY)_M)}{G(X)} \neq G(Y) \quad \dots\dots (3.5b)$$

$G((XY)_M)$, $G(X)$ and $G(Y)$ can be obtained by fast technique proposed in [30]. If two mixed radix converters are available, the overflow of second category can be detection with

$$4n \quad \text{modular operations} \quad \dots\dots (3.5c)$$

Multiplicative overflow can also be detected by using a redundant modulus [28]. The time required is at the most 3 MRC (Mixed Radix Conversion; Appendix-5) with $n+1$ moduli plus 1 modular operation. This is equivalent to $3n+1$ modular operations. (1MRC is equivalent to $(n-1)$ modular operations [Appendix-5] with n moduli).

3.4 Floating Point Arithmetic in a Residue Number System

At present it is difficult to perform floating point arithmetic in a residue number system. There is a limited amount of published work on this problem, for example, [33]

has proposed 2 as the base of the exponent, while [32] has proposed a base of 10. However, no details of floating point arithmetic operations have been given. The algorithms proposed in [31] are of particular interest, since details of arithmetic operations have been presented with illustration. Furthermore, the format used is different from the conventional format. The details of the algorithms have been given in the following sections.

3.4.1 The representation of floating point numbers

A floating number can be represented as

$$k \cdot M^e \cdot M_\delta$$

where $|k| \leq \frac{1}{2} (M-1)$; e is an integer

$$M_\delta = \prod_{i=1}^{\delta} m_i \quad (\delta \neq 0)$$

$$M_\delta = 1 \quad (\delta = 0)$$

$$M = \prod_{i=1}^n m_i$$

and $m_1 < m_2 < m_3 < \dots < m_n$.

3.4.2 Floating Point Arithmetic

Let $X = k_x M^{e_x} M_{\delta_x}$ and $Y = k_y M^{e_y} M_{\delta_y}$

and $Z = Fl(X \odot Y) = k_z M^{e_z} M_{\delta_z}$ where \odot denotes arithmetic operations (addition, subtraction, multiplication or division).

3.4.2a Algorithms for floating point addition/subtraction

(It is assumed that $e_x \geq e_y$ and X, Y are positive)

- (1) Find $\Delta e = e_x - e_y$. If $\Delta e \geq 2$,
 $\text{Fl}(X \pm Y) = X$.
- (2) If $\Delta e = 1$, test whether $s_x \geq s_y$.
 If it is true $\text{Fl}(X \pm Y) = X$, otherwise scale [28]
 k_y by $m_1 m_2 \dots m_{s_x} m_{s_y+1} m_{s_y+2} \dots m_n$.
 Let the result be K_R .
- (3) If $\Delta e = 0$, test whether $s_x = s_y$. If it is true
 $K_R = k_y$. Otherwise, scale k_y by $m_{s_y+1} m_{s_y+2}$
 $\dots m_{s_x}$ and the result be K_R .
- (4) Find $k_z = k_x \pm K_R$ and set $e_z = e_x$; $s_z = s_x$.
 [Addition is done using redundant modulus m_{n+1} .
 m_{n+1} is so chosen that $(M-1) \leq \frac{1}{2} (M \cdot m_{n+1} - 1)$
 and $m_n < m_{n+1}$]
- (5) Find the mixed radix digits a_i ($i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n+1$) of k_z which is associated with moduli m_i .
 If a_i are zeros, set $e_z = 0$, $s_z = 0$.
- (6) Otherwise, denote by a_u the most significant non-zero digit. If $U = n+1$, scale k_z by m_{s_z+1} and increase s_z by 1. If $s_z = n$, set $s_z = 0$ and increase e_z by 1.
- (7) If $U < n$, multiply k_y by $\prod_{i=s_z+u+1}^{s_z+n} m_i$
 which can be read from a permanent table by using U and s_z , decrease e_z by 1, and increase s_z by U .
 If $s_z < n$, go to step 5. If $s_z \geq n$, increase e_z by 1 and decrease s_z by n , go to step 5.

- (8) If $U = n$, test whether $s_z = 0$. If it is true, k_z is normalized. If $s_z \neq 0$, fetch $\frac{1}{2} ((M|m_{s_z}) + 1)$ from look up table. Find $|k_z| - \frac{1}{2} ((M|m_{s_z}) + 1)$ and determine the sign. If sign is negative multiply k_z by m_{s_z} and decrease s_z by 1.

3.4.2b Algorithms for floating point multiplication

- (1) Find $|k_x|_{m_i}$ and $|k_y|_{m_i}$ ($i = n+1, n+2, \dots, n+p$) by method of base extension [28].

[Multiplication is done using p numbers of redundant moduli to prevent loss of information due to multiplicative overflow. The redundant moduli are so chosen that $p \leq n$ and

$$\frac{1}{4} (M-1)^2 \cdot m_1 \leq \frac{1}{2} (M \cdot m_{n+1} \cdot m_{n+2} \cdot \dots \cdot m_{n+p} - 1).$$

and $m_{n+1} < m_{n+2} < \dots < m_{n+p}$]

- (2) Set $e_z = e_x + e_y$; $s_z = s_x$.
- (3) If $s_y = 0$, find $k_z = k_x \cdot k_y$, and if $s_y = 1$, find $k_z = k_x \cdot k_y \cdot m_1$, where the residue representation of m_1 is read from look up table. Otherwise, increase e_z by 1, find $k_x \cdot k_y$ and scale the result by $m_{s_y+1} \cdot m_{s_y+2} \cdot \dots \cdot m_n$ to get k_z .
- (4) Find the mixed radix digits (Appendix-5) a_i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n+p$) of k_z . If all the digits are zeros, set $s_z = 0$, $e_z = 0$. Otherwise denote the most significant non-zero digit by a_u .
- (5) If $U \geq n+2$, replace k_z by $\left[k_z \left| \begin{array}{c} s_z + u - n \\ \prod_{i=s_z+1}^z m_i \end{array} \right. \right]$

and increase s_z by $u-n$. If $s_z = n$, set $s_z = 0$ and increase e_z by 1. Go to step 4.

- (6) If $U = n+1$, replace k_z by $(k_z | m_{s_z+1})$ and increase s_z by 1. If $s_z = n$, set $s_z = 0$ and increase e_z by 1. Fetch $\frac{1}{2} (M-1)$ (in residue form) from a table, compute $|k_z| - \frac{1}{2} (M-1)$ and find the sign. If sign is positive, replace k_z by $(k_z | m_{s_z+1})$ and increase s_z by 1. If $s_z = n$, set s_z to zero and increase e_z by 1.

3.4.2c Algorithms for floating point division

Let X and Y be the dividend and divisor respectively.

- (1) Find $|k_x|_{m_i}$ and $|k_y|_{m_i}$ ($i = n+1, n+2, \dots, n+p$) by method of base-extension.
- (2) Multiply k_x by A which can be read from a lookup table.

[The value of A depends on s_x and s_y .

a) If $s_x \geq s_y$ and $s_y = 0$, $A = M$

b) If $s_x \geq s_y$ and $s_y \neq 0$, $A = B.C$

$$\text{where } B = \prod_{i=s_y+1}^n m_i \quad \text{and} \quad C = \prod_{i=s_x-s_y+1}^{s_x} m_i$$

c) If $s_x = s_y$ and $s_y \neq 0$, $A = M$

d) If $s_x < s_y$, $A = M_{s_x} \cdot B \cdot D$ where

$$D = \prod_{i=n+s_x-s_y+1}^n m_i$$

- (3) If $s_x < s_y$, decrease e_z by 1 and increase s_z by n .
- (4) Find $k_z = (k_x \cdot A | k_y)$ by scaling.
(If $k_z = 0$, division is undefined)

3.5 Translation of Residue Numbers to Decimal Numbers

A number in residue form is not readily understandable. Therefore the residue system needs a provision for translating residue numbers to decimal numbers. Since output translation is less frequently used, more time can be allotted for translation than for arithmetic operations.

The Chinese Remainder Theorem [28] can be used for output translation provided that the system has the facility of mod-M operation. The $A(X)$ method [34] does not need mod-M operation, however, it needs super modulus to determine $A(X)$, and the method is applicable only if the base w (in this case 10) is pairwise relatively prime with m_i . Benerjee and Brzozowski [35] pointed out that the method of base extension [28] can be used provided (i) $\gcd(w, m_i) = 1$ or (ii) $\gcd(w, m_i) \neq 1$ for only one modulus and $w \geq m_i$ for that particular modulus.

[gcd stands for greatest common divisor.]

3.6 Conclusion

It is obvious from above discussions that addition/subtraction and multiplication are straight forward operations; and delay is equal to the delay of one modular operation. The operations can easily be implemented with memories (look up tables). Therefore there is no real problem in practical implementation of these operations.

Division, however, is not so easy as addition/subtraction and multiplication. Determination of the first approx-

imation F which needs $\left[\frac{n}{2} \log_2 c + n+2 \right]$ modular operations using logarithmic search technique is obviously a time-consuming operation. However, fast division technique can reduce that time (for determination of F) to $2n$ modular operations. This means that the division process will be faster. Still an investigation, whether a fast division technique can be implemented in a different way with speed improvement, is worthwhile.

Multiplicative overflow detection in redundant residue system is faster ($3n + 1$ modular operations) than in non-redundant system ($4n$ modular operations). However, a redundant system needs an extra modular operation which may not be desirable. The choice of redundant modulus may be critical. This means that if the redundant modulus gets large, implementation of operation with that modulus may be difficult and operation may get slow. Again, the introduction of a redundant residue decreases the available range of the system which may not be appreciated. Therefore an alternate approach is to choose the non-redundant system and carry out an investigation for faster overflow detection technique.

As discussed earlier floating point multiplication and division need p numbers of redundant moduli to prevent loss of information due to multiplicative overflow. This compels the system to have the capacity of $(n+p)$ modular operation units and the capacity of MRC with $(n+p)$ moduli. If p is large e.g. ($p=n$), then MRC with $(n+p=2n)$ may be difficult. If p is chosen to be smaller, each redundant

modulus will get larger (to meet the requirement stated before) and mechanisation will be difficult. Therefore it is worthwhile to investigate alternative floating point algorithms and particularly those which can be implemented within the integer residue arithmetic environment.

In output translation, the Chinese Remainder Theorem needs arithmetic with mod-M which is a costly affair. The $A(X)$ method is restricted by the requirement that (w, m_i) must be pairwise relatively prime. In conversion of residue numbers to decimal numbers, the base is 10 which is a composite of 2 and 5; and a residue system generally has one even modulus to have well-defined positive half and negative half; therefore the above requirements cannot be fulfilled. The method of using base extension covers a wide range of situations. However, in a system where $w < m_i$ and $\text{gcd}(w, m_i) \neq 1$, the base extension method is not applicable. In that situation an alternative method must be investigated.

The next chapter proposes a few algorithms relating to the above problems.

APPEND TO CHAPTER 3 OF THESIS
"Residue Arithmetic in Digital Computers"
R.C. Debnath

FURTHER RELEVANT PAPERS

Jullien [82] establishes that the residue operations like addition, subtraction, multiplication and scaling can be easily implemented with look-up tables in currently available ROMs. He also contends that scaling by the metric vector estimate process is either equally or more highly efficient than the exact division technique. Residue arithmetic operations (addition, subtraction, multiplication and scaling) implemented with look-up tables in high density ROM can allow for a high speed digital processor.

The conversion of a residue number to a binary number is not an easy process. The method based on the Chinese Remainder Theorem requires residue arithmetic operation with Modulo-M, and is therefore a costly method. A more efficient method is to use the Mixed Radix Decoding technique [83]. This technique needs less memory locations and can also be implemented with currently available ROMs or PROMs.

Additional References:-

- [82]. G.A. Jullien, "Residue number scaling and other operations using ROM arrays", IEEE Trans. on Computers, Vol.C-27, No.4, April 1978, pp.325-336.
- [83]. A. Baraniecka and G.A. Jullien, "On decoding techniques for residue number system realizations of digital signal processing hardware", IEEE Trans.on Circuits and Systems, Vol.-CAS 25, No.11, No. 1978, pp.935-936.

from the following groupings of the numbers from 0 to $M/2$.

Category 1 : Group-0 $\supset (0, 1)$;

Group-1 $\supset (2, 3, \dots, (M)^{\frac{1}{2}} - 1)$

Group-2 $\supset ((M)^{\frac{1}{2}}, (M)^{\frac{1}{2}} + 1, \dots, M/2)$

Category 2 : Group-0 $\supset (0, 1)$;

Group-1 $\supset (2, 3, \dots, (\frac{M}{2})^{\frac{1}{2}} - 1)$

Group-2 $\supset ((\frac{M}{2})^{\frac{1}{2}}, (\frac{M}{2})^{\frac{1}{2}} + 1, \dots, M/2)$

From the groupings of the numbers, it is clear that no overflow occurs for (Group-0) • {(Group-1) or (Group-2)}; but overflow will occur for (Group-2) • (Group-2). However, there is no certainty whether overflow will occur for (Group-1) • {(Group-1) or (Group-2)}. Even if overflow occurs, it is not clear whether the product exceeds $P(\frac{1}{2})$ or $N(\frac{1}{2})$ or $(M-1)$. This is due to poor resolution of numbers in groups 1 and 2. Therefore a 'Logarithmic Distribution' which gives high resolution of numbers in groups is proposed.

4.2.1 Logarithmic Distribution of residue numbers

The numbers 0 to $M/2$ (positive half and the highest negative number) are distributed among several groups according to the table 4.1.

If $g(x)$ and $g(y)$ are the group numbers of X and Y respectively, then it can be shown from Table 4.1 [Appendix-1; (AP1(a))] that

Case (i) : if $g(X) + g(Y) < y$, no overflow occurs;

Case (ii) ; if $g(X) + g(Y) > y$, overflow must occur.

Case (iii) : if $g(X) + g(Y) = y$, overflow may or may not

occur; however, if it occurs, the product will be of incorrect sign.

Table 4.1

Distribution of Numbers

<u>Numbers</u>	<u>Group</u>
0	0
1	1
$W \cdot 2^{-\delta+2} \rightarrow W \cdot 2^{-\delta+3} - 1$	2
$W \cdot 2^{-\delta+3} \rightarrow W \cdot 2^{-\delta+4} - 1$	3
$W \cdot 2^{-\delta+(\delta-1)} \rightarrow W \cdot 2^{-\delta+\delta} - 1$	\vdots $\delta-1$
$W \cdot 2^{-\delta+\delta} = W \rightarrow W \cdot 2^{-\delta+(\delta+1)} - 1$	δ
$W \cdot 2^{-\delta+(\delta+1)} \rightarrow W \cdot 2^{-\delta+(\delta+2)} - 1$	$\delta+1$
$W \cdot 2^{-\delta+(y-1)} \rightarrow M/2$	\vdots $y-1$

[Where $y = n+1$, such that $2^n \leq M < 2^{n+1}$; in other words y is the highest power to 2 contained in $2M$. When y is even, $W = (M)^{\frac{1}{2}}$, and $\delta = y/2 + 1$. When y is odd, $W = (\frac{M}{2})^{\frac{1}{2}}$, and $\delta = (y+1)/2$.]

However, in most cases $(M)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ or $(\frac{M}{2})^{\frac{1}{2}}$ is not an integer number. In those cases the closest higher integer value of $(M)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ or $(\frac{M}{2})^{\frac{1}{2}}$ is chosen to be the value of W . The lowest number in the $(\delta-i)^{\text{th}}$ group ($i = 1, 2, \dots, \delta-1$) is the rounded integer value of $L/2$, where L is the lowest integer number in $(\delta-i+1)^{\text{th}}$ group. The lowest number in the $(\delta+k)^{\text{th}}$

group ($k = 1, 2, \dots, s-3$) is given by $2^k \cdot W$. However, in Case (iii) in some situations, multiplication of two highest numbers in two separate groups may be equal to or greater than M (due to rounding error and choice of the closest higher integer value of $(M)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ or $(\frac{M}{2})^{\frac{1}{2}}$ for W). Under these circumstances a minor adjustment of the highest integer is needed. The highest number of the higher group of the two is decreased by a minimum number, say α , such that the product of the decreased number and the other highest number becomes less than M . The lowest number of next higher group (with respect to the higher group of the two) is decreased by the same number α .

If $(M)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ or $(\frac{M}{2})^{\frac{1}{2}}$ is an integer number (i.e. M or $M/2$ is a rational number) and even, then the lowest number of $(s-1)^{\text{th}}$ group is to be increased by 1 and the highest number of the $(s-2)^{\text{th}}$ group is increased by 1.

Example 1: If $m_4 = 16$, $m_3 = 15$, $m_2 = 13$ and $m_1 = 11$, construct a 'group table'.

Solution:

- (i) $M = 16 \times 15 \times 13 \times 11 = 34320$
- (ii) $2^{15} < M < 2^{16}$; therefore $y = 16$.
- (iii) $(M)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 185 \cdot 256$; therefore $W = 186$.
- (iv) $s = 16/2 + 1 = 9$
- (v) $M/2 = 17160$
- (vi) Table 4.2

Table 4.2

Group table for Example 1.

<u>Numbers</u>	<u>Group</u>
0	0
1	1
2	2
3 → 5	3
6 → 11	4
12 → 23	5
24 → 46	6
47 → 92	7
93 → 185	8
186 → 371	9
372 → 743	10
744 → 1487	11
1488 → 2975	12
2976 → 5951	13
5952 → 11903	14
11904 → 17160	15

Example 2: For $m_3 = 2$, $m_2 = 3$, and $m_4 = 13$,
construct a 'group table'.

Solution:

- (i) $M = 2 \times 3 \times 13 = 78$
- (ii) $2^6 < M < 2^7$; therefore $y = 7$
- (iii) $\left(\frac{M}{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \approx 6.24$; therefore $W = 7$
- (iv) $s = (y+1)/2 = 4$
- (v) $M/2 = 55$
- (vi) Table 4.2(a)

Table 4.2(a)

Group table for Example 2.

<u>Numbers</u>	<u>Group</u>
0	0
1	1
2 → 3	2
4 → 6	3
7 → 13	4
14 → 27	5
28 → 55	6

It is seen from the table 4.2(a) that the product of 6 (the highest number in 3rd group) and 13 (the highest number in 4th group) is equal to 78(=M). Therefore the highest number of 4th group is replaced by 12 and the lowest number of 5th group is replaced by 13. The correct 'group table' is shown in table 4.2(b).

Table 4.2(b)

Correct group table for Example 2.

<u>Numbers</u>	<u>Group</u>
0	0
1	1
2 → 3	2
4 → 6	3
7 → 12	4
13 → 27	5
28 → 55	6

Example 3: If $m_3 = 2$, $m_2 = 11$, and $m_1 = 5$,
construct a 'group table'.

Solution:

- (i) $M = 2 \times 11 \times 5 = 110$
- (ii) $2^6 < M < 2^7$; therefore $y = 7$
- (iii) $(\frac{M}{2})^{\frac{1}{2}} = 7.41$; therefore $W = 8$
- (iv) $s = (y+1)/2 = 4$
- (v) $M/2 = 55$
- (vi) Construct Table 4.3

Table 4.3

Group Table for Example 3.

<u>Numbers</u>	<u>Group</u>
0	0
1	1
2 → 3	2
4 → 7	3
8 → 15	4
16 → 31	5
32 → 55	6

Therefore multiplicative overflows can be detected by (a) testing for incorrect sign of the product, and (b) comparing the sum of group numbers of multiplicand and multiplier with the total numbers of groups y . If sum is greater than y , overflow must occur; if it is less than y , overflow will not occur.

4.2.2 Design Ideas for Overflow Detection

Since the group numbers described previously are assigned to the positive numbers and to $M/2$, and a number may be positive or negative, the information of sign and magnitude of the number is essential. The MRC (Appendix-5) is the only way to get sign and magnitude information. From the mixed radix digits (MRD) of a negative number it is possible to form the MRDs of its positive 'counterpart' [Appendix-1, (AP1(b))].

When number of MRDs gets larger, a partition between them is essential. This partition divides the MRDs into two parts - the most significant part (MSP) and the least significant part (LSP). If the modulus M_n is chosen to be even, and is placed at the most significant digit (MSD) position a_n , then a_n contains the information of sign and falls in the MSP. With the sign information and MRDs of the LSP, a look up table is formed for the group numbers of positive/'counterpart' positive numbers in the LSP. (The table is formed from the decimal value (DV) of the MRDs.)

When the number is negative the MSP needs the information whether the LSP is zero to form the MRD of the positive 'counterpart'. From this information (zero-LSP), the sign and the MRD of MSP a look up table is formed, assuming the MRDs of the LSP are zeros. (The table is formed from the DV of the MRDs.)

The group number of a number depends on the DV of all MRDs (MSP + LSP). From the observation of the range of

numbers in a group of the MSP and the DV of the MSP, it will be clear that the group number of certain MRDs of the MSP will transit to the next higher group number if certain minimum number from the LSP is added to the DV of those particular MRDs. Those MRDs may be termed as 'transition' MRDs and the minimum number required for transition as 'transition' number. The transition number is identified by observing whether the number, obtained as a result of subtraction of the DV of the MRDs in the MSP from the lowest number in the next higher group (with respect to the group of the MRDs in the MSP), falls within the range of the LSP. Therefore along with the group tables for the MSP and LSP, there must be one table containing the transition numbers and another table giving the negative binary values (2's complement) of the LSP. (The transition number of the non-transition MRDs is taken to be zero.) The transition number is added to the negative value of the binary number of the LSP. The carry from the most significant bit (MSB) position indicates that the group number of the MSP must transit to the next higher group. Therefore the carry is added to the group number of the MSP. The group number of a number is given by the group number of the MSP, or the group number of the MSP plus one if transition occurs, or the group number of the LSP if the group number of the MSP is zero.

Overflow is detected by comparing the sum of the group numbers of operands with the total number of groups and detecting the incorrect sign of the product.

4.2.3. Design Example on Overflow Detection

The moduli $m_4 = 16$, $m_3 = 15$, $m_2 = 13$ and $m_1 = 11$ have been chosen for this design example. The MRDs are designated by a_4 , a_3 , a_2 and a_1 . The range of the LSP is $13 \times 11 = 143$ (0 to 142) and that of the MSP is $16 \times 15 \times 13 \times 11 - 13 \times 11 = 34177$ i.e. from 143 to 34177. The highest number in the LSP is 142 and the MSP is non-zero for a number greater than 142.

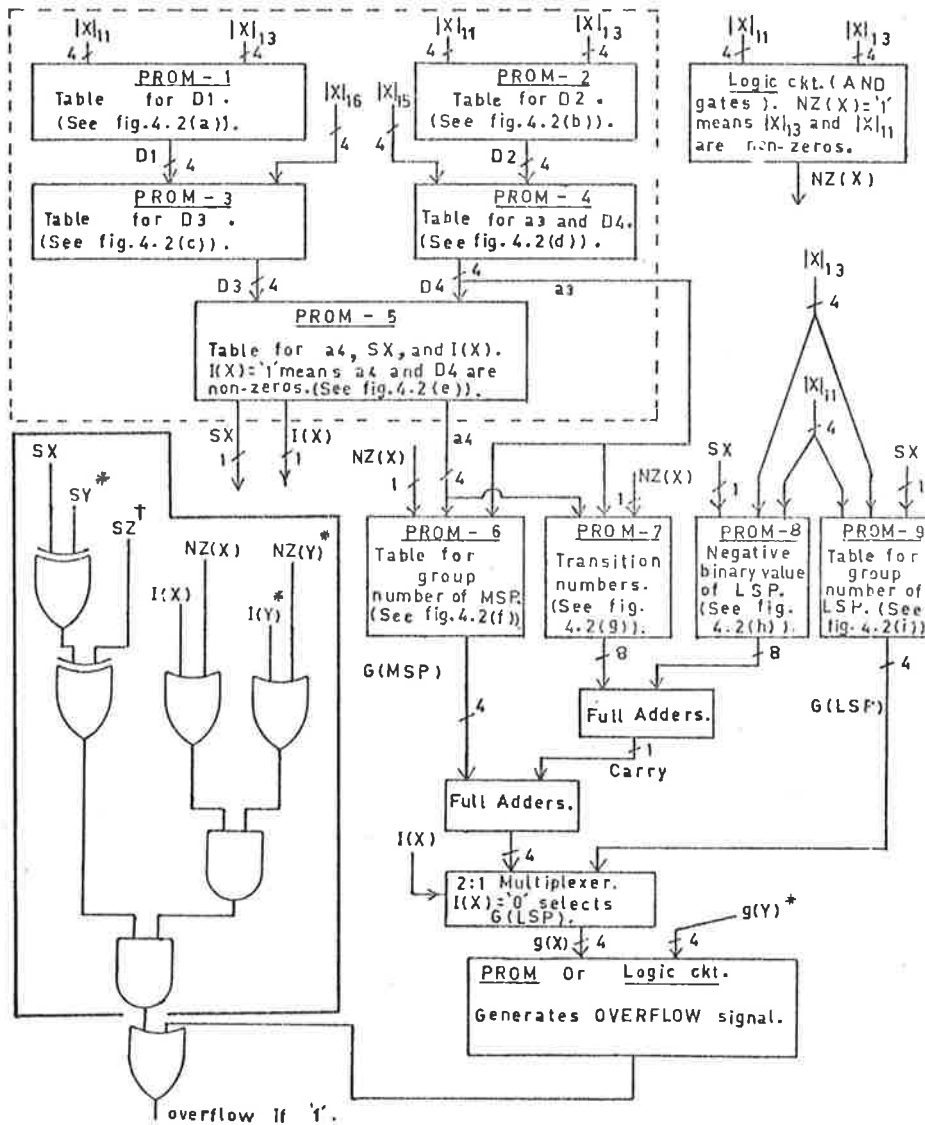
Examining the Table 4.2 and the DV of the MRDs in the MSP, Table 4.4 which shows the 'transition' MRDs and 'transition' numbers, can be formed.

Table 4.4

Transition MRDs and transition numbers

Transition MRDs a_4, a_3	The DV of the Transition MRDs $= a_4 \cdot 15 \cdot 13 \cdot 11$ $+ a_3 \cdot 13 \cdot 11$	Corresponding Group of the MRD	The lowest number in the next higher group	Transition Number
0, 1	143	8	186	$186 - 143 = 43$
0, 2	286	9	372	$372 - 286 = 86$
0, 5	715	10	744	$744 - 715 = 29$
0, 10	1430	11	1488	$1488 - 1430 = 58$
1, 5	2860	12	2976	$2976 - 2860 = 115$
2, 11	5863	13	5952	$5952 - 5863 = 83$
5, 8	11869	14	11904	$11904 - 11869 = 35$

Figure 4.1 shows the circuit for multiplicative overflow detector. The circuit in the solid lined box detects incorrect sign of the product. If the Exclusive OR of the sign of the X, Y and Z (SX, SY , and SZ) is '0', the sign of



* From 'group generator' of Y .

† From 'sign detector' of Z .

Fig.4.1 Schematic diagram for multiplicative overflow detection in the 16-15-13-11 residue system .

Function of PROM-1 ; (256x4)

It forms a table of D_1 , where

$$D_1 = |a_2 \cdot 11 + a_1|_{16},$$

where a_2 and a_1 are the MRDs of the LSP.

$$a_2 = \left[\left[|X|_{13} - \left[|X|_{11} \right]_{13} \right]_{13} \cdot \left[\frac{1}{11} \right]_{13} \right]_{13}$$

$$a_1 = |X|_{11}$$

Fig 4.2(a) : Function of PROM-1

Function of PROM-2 ; (256x4)

It forms a table of D_2 , where

$$D_2 = |a_2 \cdot 11 + a_1|_{15}, \text{ where}$$

a_2 and a_1 are same as in Fig 4.2(a).

Fig 4.2(b) : Function of PROM-2

Function of PROM-3 ; (256x4)

It forms a table of D_3 , where

$$D_3 = \left[\left[\frac{1}{13 \times 11} \right]_{16} \cdot \left[|X|_{16} - D_1 \right]_{16} \right]_{16}$$

Fig 4.2(c) : Function of PROM-3

Function of PROM-4 ; (256x4)

It forms a table of a_3 , where

$$a_3 = \left[\left| \frac{1}{13.11} \right|_{15} \cdot \left| |X|_{15} - D_1 \right|_{15} \right]_{15}$$

$$D_4 = \left| a_3 \right|_{16} = a_3, \text{ since } 15 < 16$$

Fig 4.2(d) : Function of PROM-4

Function of PROM-5 ; (256x8)

It forms a table of a_4 , SX , $I(X)$, where

$$a_4 = \left[\left| \frac{1}{15} \right|_{16} \cdot \left| D_3 - D_4 \right|_{16} \right]_{16}$$

$SX = '1'$ if $a_4 > 7$; $I(X) = '1'$, if

D_3 and D_4 are nonzero

Fig 4.2(e) : Function of PROM-5

Function of PROM-6 ; (512x4)

It forms a table of group number of the MSP. If $NZ(X) = '0'$ or $'1'$ and $SX = '0'$, the decimal value, $DV(0) = a_4 \cdot 15.13.11 + D_4 \cdot 13.11$. If $SX = '1'$, $NZ(X) = '0'$ and D_4 is nonzero, the decimal value, $DV(1) = (15 - a_4) \cdot 15.13.11 + (15 - D_4) \cdot 13.11$. If $SX = '1'$, $NZ(X) = '0'$ and D_4 is zero, the decimal value, $DV(2) = (16 - a_4) \cdot 15.13.11 + (15 - D_4) \cdot 13.11$. If $SX = '1'$, $NZ(X) = '1'$, the decimal value, $DV(3) = (15 - a_4) \cdot 15.13.11 + (14 - D_4) \cdot 13.11$. The group numbers are assigned according to the Table 4.2.

Fig 4.2(f) : Function of PROM-6

Function of Prom-7 ; (512x8)

It forms a table of 'transition' number according to the table 4.4.

Fig 4.2(g) : Function of PROM-7

Function of PROM-8 ; (512x8)

It forms a table of negative binary value of the LSP from its decimal value. If $SX = '0'$, the decimal value, $DV(4) = a_2 \cdot 11 + a_1$. If $SX = '1'$ and a_1 is zero, the decimal value, $DV(5) = (13 - a_2) \cdot 11$. If $SX = '1'$ and a_1 is nonzero, the decimal value $DV(6) = (12 - a_2) \cdot 11 + (11 - a_1)$. a_2 and a_1 are same as shown in Fig 4.2(a)

Fig 4.2(h) : Function of PROM-8

Function of PROM-9 ; (512x4)

It forms a table of group number of the LSP from its decimal value (shown in Fig 4.2(h) according to the Table 4.2.

Fig 4.2(i) : Function of PROM-9

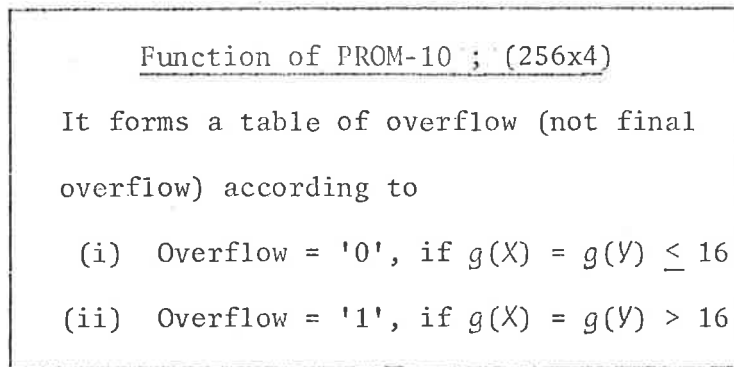


Fig 4.2(j) : Function of PROM-10

the product is correct; otherwise the sign is incorrect. However, false indication of overflow is given if one operand is negative and another is zero. The circuit right side of the circuit in solid-lined box detects whether any of the operands is zero.

Since $|X|_{13}$ and $|X|_{11}$ contain the information on a_2 and a_1 it is not necessary to generate a_2 and a_1 . This saves use of one PROM. The circuit in the dash lined box generates the sign of X (SX), the MRD (a_4) and the information of nonzero a_4 and D_4 . Two additional circuits are required - one is for generation of the sign of Y (SY), the group number of Y ($g(Y)$) and $NZ(Y)$ and the other one is for the sign of the result Z (SZ).

Performance:

Delay in overflow detection is the delay through the longest path which, for the circuit in Fig 4.1, is through the circuit required for overflow detection by the 'grouping technique'. Therefore

Delay, $D = (D_1 = \text{delay in sign detection})$
 $+ (D_2 = \text{delay in getting Group Number of the LSP})$
 $+ (D_3 = 8 \text{ bits adder delay} + 4 \text{ bits adder delay}$
 $\quad + 2:1 \text{ multiplexer delay})$
 $+ (D_4 = \text{delay in PROM-10})$
 $+ (D_5 = \text{delay in OR-gate at the last stage}).$

Again $D_1 = 2T_1 + T_2$ where

$T_1 = \text{access time of } (256 \times 4) \text{ PROM}$

$T_2 = \text{access time of } (256 \times 8) \text{ PROM}$

Let $T_{\text{ADD}} = \text{delay in a 4-bit full adder.}$

$T_{\text{MUX}} = \text{delay in } 2:1 \text{ multiplexer.}$

$T_{\text{OR}} = \text{delay in OR-gate.}$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} D &= 2T_1 + T_2 + T_3 + 3T_{\text{ADD}} + T_{\text{MUX}} + T_1 + T_{\text{OR}} \\ &= 3T_1 + T_2 + T_3 + 3T_{\text{ADD}} + T_{\text{MUX}} + T_{\text{OR}} \\ &\dots\dots (4.1) \end{aligned}$$

where $T_3 = \text{access time of } (512 \times 8) \text{ PROM}$

However, delay in generating group number (D_g) is the delay in generating $g(X)$. Therefore D_g can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} D_g &= D_1 + D_2 + D_3 \\ &= 2T_1 + T_2 + T_3 + 3T_{\text{ADD}} + T_{\text{MUX}} \\ &\dots\dots (4.1a) \end{aligned}$$

Using TTL components (Table 6.3(a)), the delay in multiplicative overflow detection is given by

$$D = 3 \cdot 40 + 60 + 60 + 3 \cdot 7 + 4 + 4$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= 120 + 120 + 21 + 8 \\
 &= 269 \text{ ns.} \qquad \dots\dots (4.1b)
 \end{aligned}$$

The delay in generating group number is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 Dg &= 2 \cdot 40 + 60 + 60 + 3 \cdot 7 + 4 \\
 &= 80 + 60 + 60 + 21 + 4 \\
 &= 225 \text{ ns.} \qquad \dots\dots (4.1c)
 \end{aligned}$$

4.3 General Division

The method of division consists of two processes - (i) determination of first approximation F, and then (ii) iterations using successive approximation. (The successive approximation is the number which is equal to the previous approximation divided by 2). Since the group number contains the information on the magnitude of the number, it is possible to use the same piece of hardware, used for generation of group numbers, for determination of first approximation.

The F determined from the group numbers of the operands is always positive, however, division is not limited to positive operands only. The detail of the technique for determination of the first approximation and successive approximation has been given in section 4.3.2.

4.3.1 A Division Process

The division process can be best described with a flow chart in Fig 4.3. The sign of the result of division is the Exclusive OR function of the signs of the operands X and Y. (X is the dividend and Y is the divisor.)

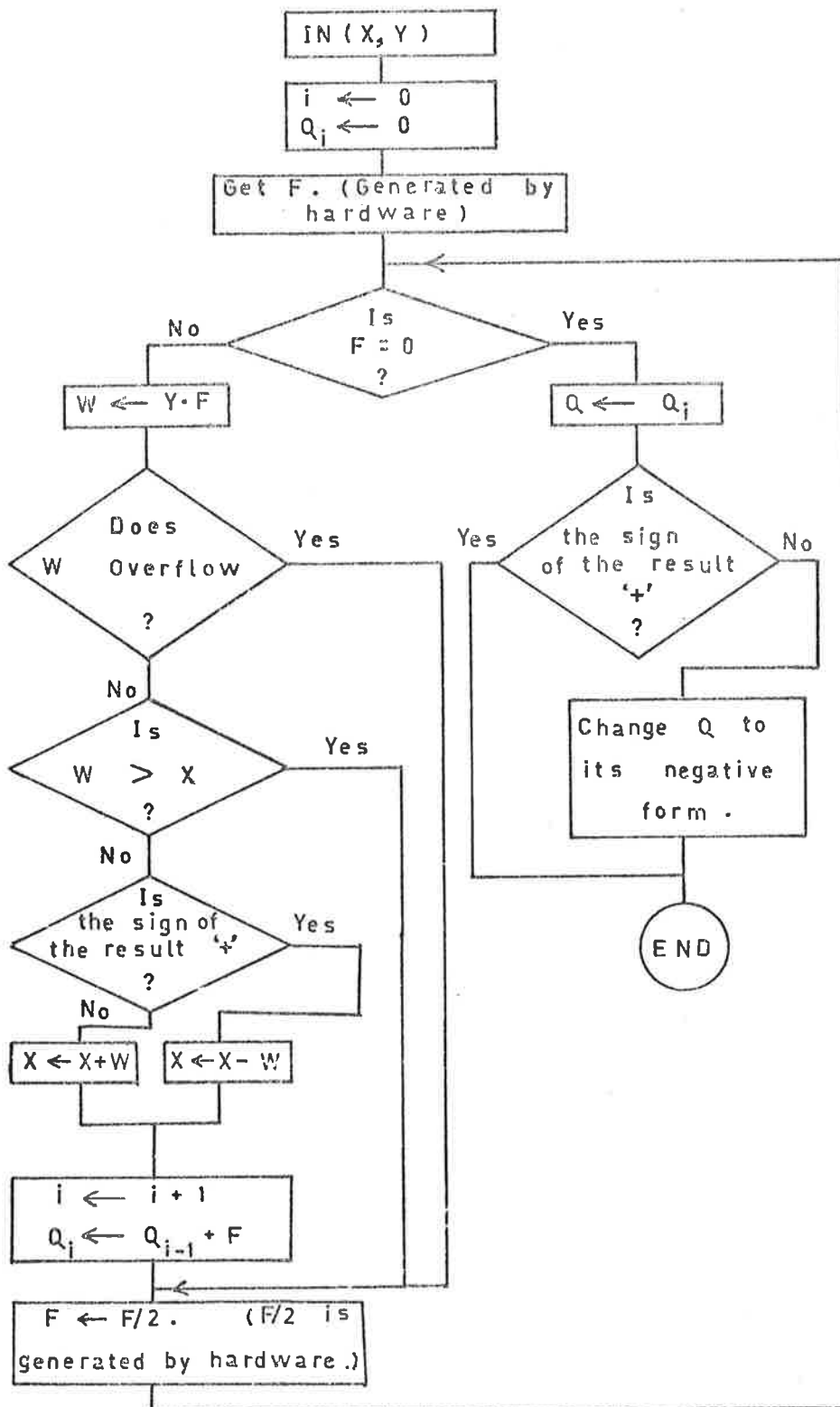


Fig. 4.3 Flow chart of residue integer division process .

4.3.2 How to find the first approximation and successive approximations

Two look-up tables are required to obtain F and successive approximation; one is used to get F and other one to get successive approximation. The value of F depends on the group numbers $g(X)$ and $g(Y)$ as shown below.

- (i) If $g(X) \geq g(Y)$; $F = 2^{g(X) - g(Y)}$
- (ii) If $g(X) < g(Y)$; $F = 0$

(F or successive approximation is tabled in residue form.)

Fig 4.4 is a schematic diagram of the computer circuitry required to get F and successive approximation. The dotted line in Fig 4.4 indicates that either X or Y data bus can be used to issue 'previous approximation' to the multiplexer. The function of the computer is to perform iterations and to issue X and Y to get F or successive approximation from previous approximation.

If the address lines of an available are equal to or less than the sum of bits of each of the moduli, then the circuitry in Fig 4.4 is not feasible. An alternate approach which needs a smaller number of address lines to PROM is shown in Fig 4.5. In this case the PROM forms table of F (which also gives successive approximation), according to the number output from the subtractor. If the $(n+1)^{th}$ bit is '1' (i.e. negative), the PROM gives zero value; otherwise it gives the residue number of 2^k (where k is the positive output from the subtractor). The computer receives two sets of information - one is F or successive approximation and the other is the value of C' . For i^{th} iteration the

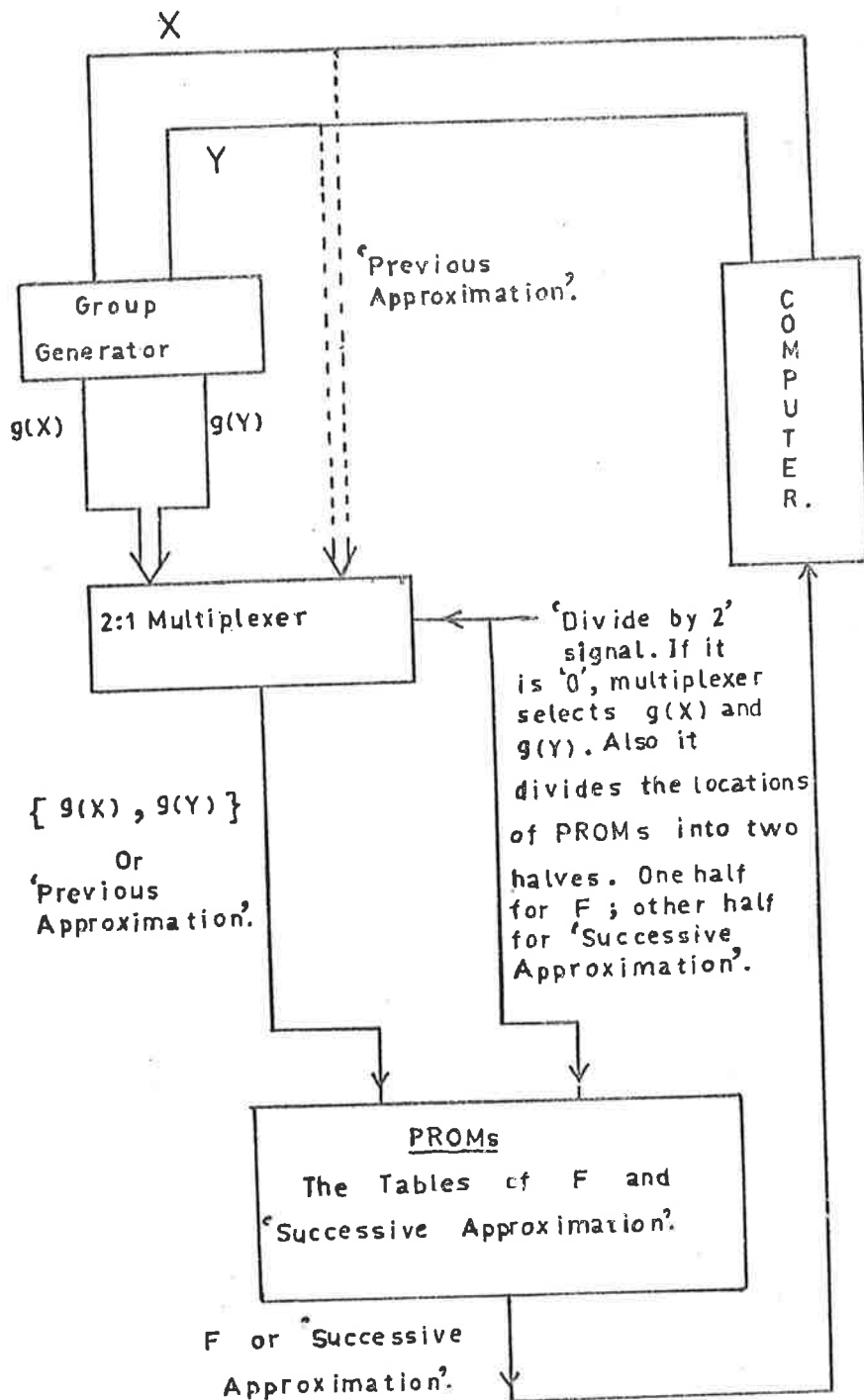


Fig.4.4: Schematic diagram for generation of F and 'Successive Approximation?'

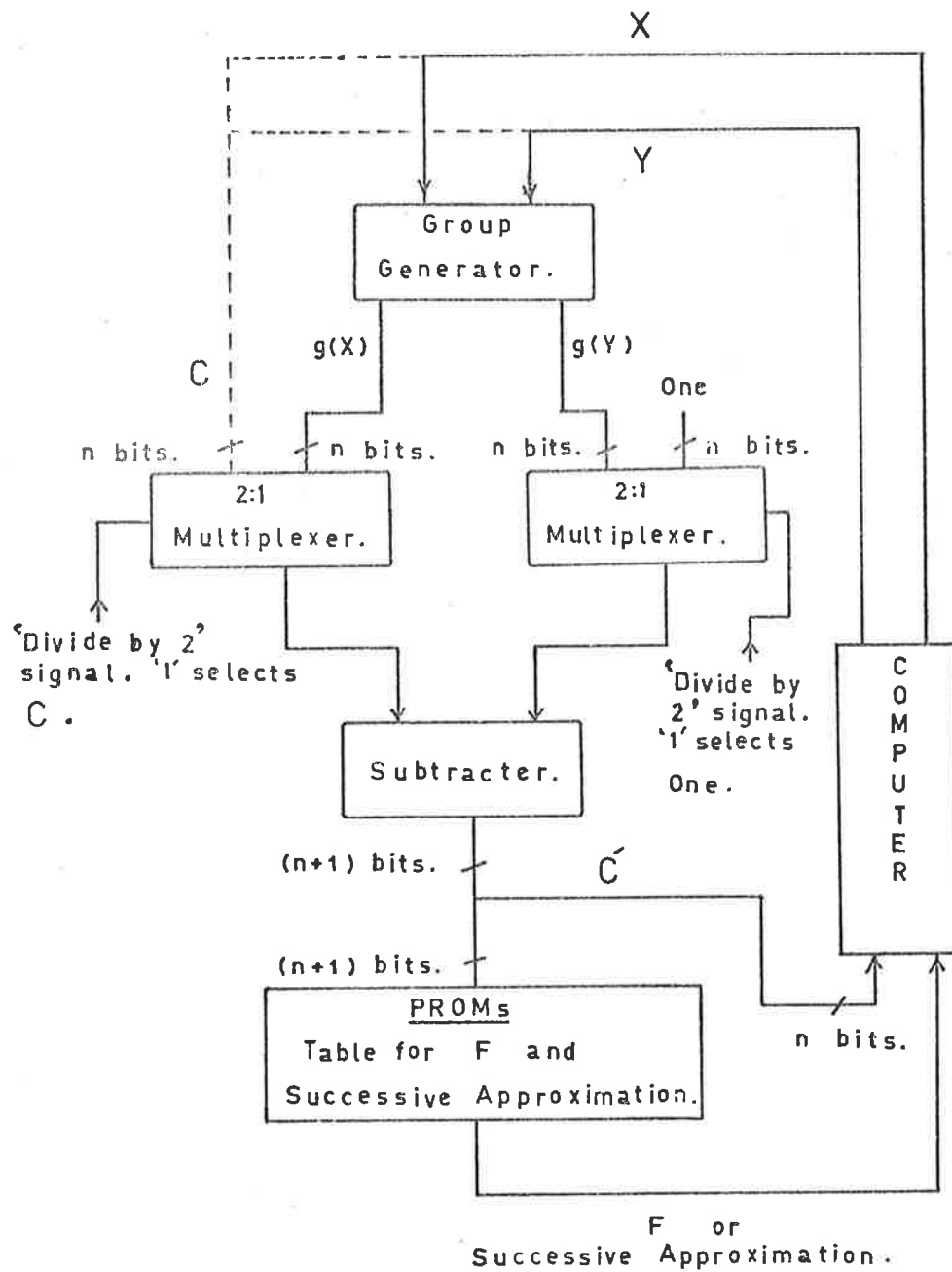


Fig.4.5 Schematic diagram of an alternate circuit for F and Successive Approximation.

computer issues the value of C (through the data bus X or Y) which is equal to C' obtained during $(i-1)^{\text{th}}$ iteration and receives a new value of C' which is $(C-1)$, and the approximation.

Since the number of bits required to represent the group number is far less than the sum of bits of each modulus, it is possible to use PROM with less address lines. For example, in the case of the residue system of moduli 16, 15, 13 and 11, the sum of bits of each modulus is 16. Since a 64k PROM (16 address lines) is not yet available, the circuit in Fig 4.4 is not feasible. Whereas the circuit in Fig 4.5 can be implemented with a PROMs with 5/more than 5 address lines.

Performance

Delay in obtaining F by the circuit in Fig 4.4 is given by

$$D(1) = D_g + T_{\text{MUX}} + T_F \quad \dots\dots (4.2)$$

where D_g = delay in forming group.

T_{MUX} = delay in 2:1 multiplexer.

T_F = access time of the PROMs.

According to the circuit in Fig 4.5, delay is given by

$$D(2) = D_g + T_{\text{MUX}} + T_{\text{SUB}} + T_F \quad \dots\dots (4.3a)$$

where T_{SUB} = delay in subtraction.

Again $T_{\text{SUB}} = T_{\text{INV}} + T_{\text{ADD}}$.

where T_{INV} = delay in Inverter; and T_{ADD} = delay in addition.

Therefore equ. (4.3a) becomes

$$D(2) = Dg + T_{MUX} + T_{INV} + T_{ADD} + T_F \dots\dots (4.3b)$$

For 16-15-13-11 moduli system, and using TTL components (Table 6.3(a)), $Dg = 225$ ns (from 4.1c) and

$$\begin{aligned} D(2) &= 225 + 4 + 3 + 7 + (T_F = 35) \\ &= 274 \text{ ns} \dots\dots (4.3c) \end{aligned}$$

$$* \left[T_F = 35 \text{ ns for DM7577, a } (32 \times 8) \text{ PROM [80]} \right]$$

4.4 Floating Point Arithmetic

This section proposes a new form of representation of floating point number; it is represented by an integer multiplied by a suitable base of exponent depending on the moduli of the residue system. An advantage of this form is that floating arithmetic can be performed within the integer residue arithmetic environment without the need for any redundant modulus. The implementation is therefore economical.

4.4.1 Theoretical concept

If R is the highest absolute value of mantissa of a computing system, and β is a positive integer such that $(\beta-1)^2 < R \leq \beta^2$, then any number A within the range from 0 to R can be represented by

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \{[A|\beta]\}\beta^1 + \{A - ([A|\beta])\beta\}\beta^0 \\ &= a_2 \beta^1 + a_1 \beta^0 \dots\dots (4.4) \end{aligned}$$

Where a_2 and a_1 are the co-efficients of β^1 and β^0 , i.e. $a_2 = [A|\beta]$ and $a_1 = (A - \{[A|\beta]\}\beta)$.

The range of the co-efficients is from 0 to $(\beta-1)$.

Similarly R can be represented by

$$R = r_2 \beta + r_1 \quad \dots\dots (4.5)$$

Case (i) : For $\beta^2 = R$, $r_2 = \beta$ and $r_1 = 0$.

Case (ii) : For $(\beta-1)^2 < R < \beta^2$, the maximum and minimum values of R that can satisfy the above condition of β can be denoted by R_{MAX} and R_{MIN} respectively and expressed as

$$R_{MAX} = (\beta-1)\beta + (\beta-1) \quad \dots\dots (4.6)$$

$$\text{i.e. } r_2 = (\beta-1) \quad \dots\dots (4.6a)$$

$$r_1 = (\beta-1) \quad \dots\dots (4.6b)$$

$$R_{MIN} = (\beta-1)^2 + 1 = (\beta-2)\beta + 2 \quad \dots\dots (4.7)$$

$$\text{i.e. } r_2 = (\beta-2) \quad \dots\dots (4.7a)$$

$$r_1 = 2 \quad \dots\dots (4.7b)$$

4.4.2 Floating point representation of a number

A number X can be represented in floating point form by

$$X = A\beta^n \quad \dots\dots (4.8)$$

Where A is the mantissa, and lies within the range from 0 to R. β is the base of the exponent which must satisfy the conditions stated previously, and n is the exponent.

4.4.3 Floating Point Arithmetic with zero-exponent

4.4.3a Floating point addition/subtraction with zero-exponent

$$X = A\beta^0 = A = a_2 \beta + a_1 \quad (\text{say}) \quad \dots\dots (4.9)$$

$$Y = B\beta^0 = B = b_2 \beta + b_1 \quad (\text{say}) \quad \dots\dots (4.10)$$

Therefore

$$Z = F1(X \pm Y) = (a_2 \pm b_2) \beta + (a_1 \pm b_1)$$

$$Z = c_2 \beta + c_1 \quad \dots\dots (4.11)$$

Where

$$c_2 = (a_2 \pm b_2) \quad \dots\dots (4.11a)$$

$$c_1 = (a_1 \pm b_1) \quad \dots\dots (4.11b)$$

4.4.3a(i) Floating point normalisation : (definition)

A number is said to be normalised if overflow occurs when the number is multiplied by the base of the exponent.

4.4.3a(ii) Normalisation in floating point addition/ subtraction (zero-exponent)

The process of normalisation in floating point addition/subtraction has been shown with the flow chart in Fig 4.6. The exponent generated during normalisation may be termed as 'generated exponent' and denoted by g . In case of addition nonzero value of g is 1.

4.4.3b Floating point multiplication (zero exponent)

$$Z = F1 (X \cdot Y) \quad \dots\dots (4.12)$$

From (4.9) and (4.10)

$$Z = (a_2 \cdot b_2) \beta^2 + (a_2 \cdot b_1) \beta + (a_1 \cdot b_2) \beta$$

$$+ (a_1 \cdot b_1)$$

$$= A_4 \beta^2 + A_3 \beta + A_2 \beta + A_1 \quad \dots\dots (4.13)$$

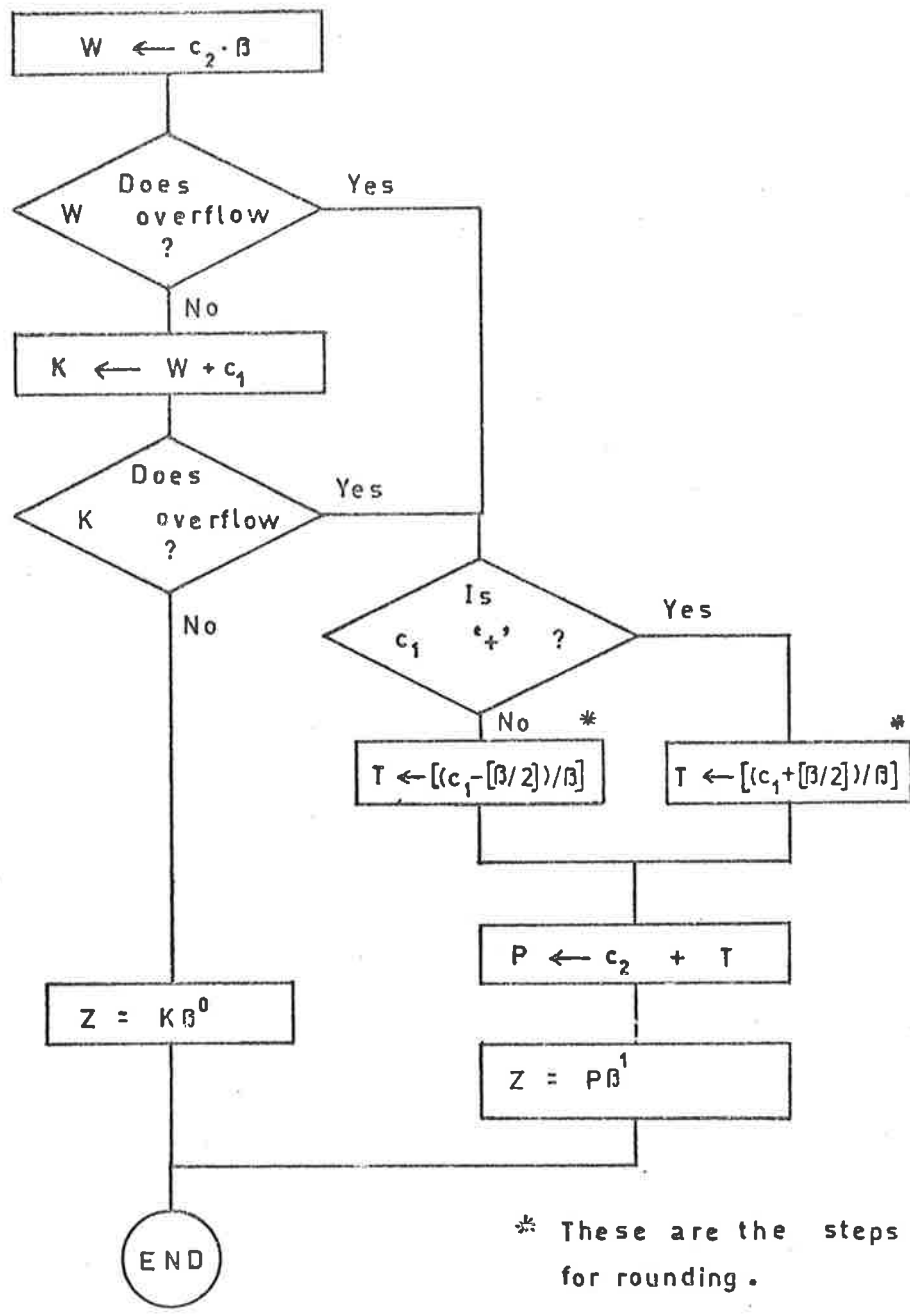


Fig.4.6 Process of normalisation in floating point residue addition/subtraction .

Where

$$\left. \begin{aligned} A_4 &= a_2 \cdot b_2 \\ A_3 &= a_2 \cdot b_1 \\ A_2 &= a_1 \cdot b_2 \\ A_1 &= a_1 \cdot b_1 \end{aligned} \right\} \dots\dots (4.13a)$$

Again Z can be written as

$$Z = (A_4 + D_1 + D_2)\beta^2 + c'_2 \beta + c'_1 \dots\dots (4.13b)$$

Where

$$\left. \begin{aligned} D_1 &= [A_3 | \beta] \\ D_2 &= [A_2 | \beta] \\ c'_2 &= [A_3 - D_1 \beta] + [A_2 - D_2 \beta] \\ c'_1 &= A_1 \end{aligned} \right\} \dots\dots (4.13c)$$

Finally $Z = c_3 \beta^2 + c_2 \beta + c_1 \dots\dots (4.14)$

Where

$$\left. \begin{aligned} c_3 &= (A_4 + D_1 + D_2) \\ c_2 &= c'_2 + [c'_1 | \beta] \\ c_1 &= c'_1 - [c'_1 | \beta] \cdot \beta \end{aligned} \right\} \dots\dots (4.14a)$$

4.4.3b(i) Normalisation in floating point multiplication (zero-exponent)

Figure 4.7 shows the flow chart of normalisation for floating point multiplication. The generated exponent, g , in case of multiplication, ranges from 0 to 2.

4.4.3c Floating point division (zero-exponent)

$$Z = Fl(X|Y) = A|B = A \cdot (1|B) \dots\dots (4.15)$$

$$1|B = K\beta^{-x} \quad (\text{say})$$

Where K is the mantissa (within the range from 0 to R), and x is the exponent. The values of x (except for $B = 0$ or 1) lie between 2 and 3. The conversion of $1|B$ to its equivalent floating point number can be done by a look-up table.

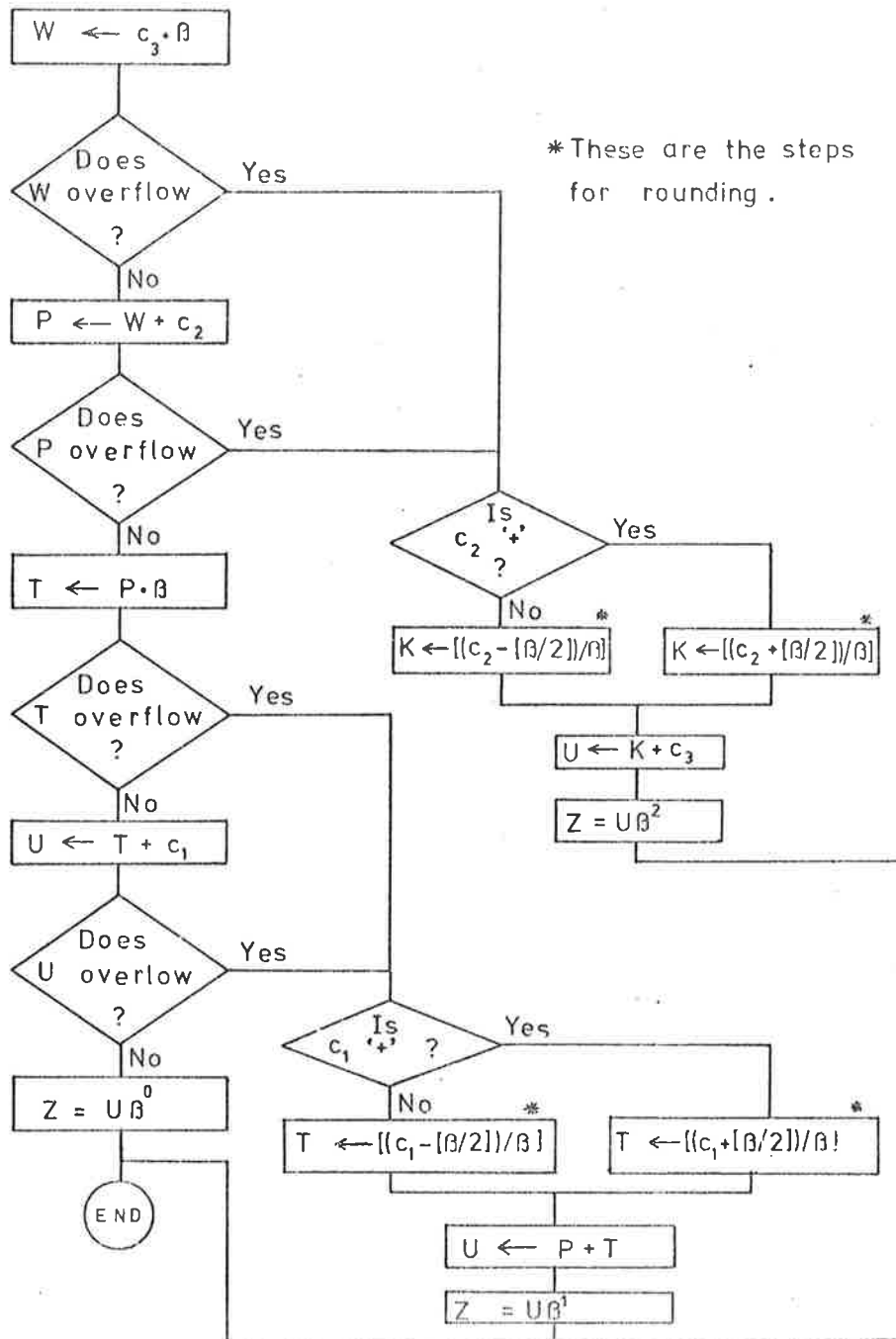


Fig.4.7 Process of normalization in floating point residue multiplication.

[See Appendix-2 for the evaluation of $1|B.$]

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore } Z &= A \cdot K\beta^{-x} \\ &= (A \cdot K)\beta^{-x} \quad \dots\dots (4.16) \end{aligned}$$

$(A \cdot K)$ can be evaluated by floating point multiplication. That is

$$\text{Fl } (A \cdot K) = V\beta^y \quad (\text{say}) \quad \dots\dots (4.17)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore } Z &= V\beta^y \cdot \beta^{-x} = V\beta^{y-x} = V\beta^m \\ &\dots\dots (4.18) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Where } m = y - x$$

4.4.4 Floating point arithmetic with non-zero exponent

$$\text{Let } X = A\beta^s \text{ and } Y = B\beta^t$$

where s and t are the exponents of X and Y respectively.

Also X and Y can be written as

$$X = (a_2\beta + a_1)\beta^s \quad \dots\dots (4.19)$$

$$Y = (b_2\beta + b_1)\beta^t \quad \dots\dots (4.19a)$$

Without loss of generality it can be assumed that

$$s \geq t$$

4.4.4a Algorithms for alignment and floating point addition/subtraction (non-zero exponent)

$$\text{Let } k = s - t$$

Case (i) : if $k = 0$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{1st step : Compute } D &= \text{Fl}(A \pm B) \\ &= C\beta^q \quad (\text{say}) \end{aligned}$$

2nd step : Compute $p = s + g$.

$$[Z = c\beta^p].$$

END

Case (ii) : If $k = 1$, then

$$*1\text{st step : Compute } D = \left[\{b_1 + [\pm\beta|2]\}|\beta \right]$$

(If b_1 is negative, add $[-\beta|2]$;

otherwise $[\beta|2]$)

*2nd step : Compute $D' = a_2 + D$; [The aligned mantissa takes the form of $(0 \cdot \beta + D')$.]

3rd step : Compute $T = Fl(A \pm D') = c\beta^g$ (say)

4th step : Compute $p = s + t$; $[Z = c\beta^p]$.

END

Case (iii) : If $k = 2$, then

$$*1\text{st step : Compute } D = \left[\{b_1 + [\pm\beta|2]\}|\beta \right]$$

[If b_1 is negative, add $[-\beta|2]$;

otherwise $[\beta|2]$. The aligned mantissa takes the form of $(0 \cdot \beta + D)$].

2nd step : Compute $T = Fl(A \pm D) = c\beta^g$ (say)

3rd step : Compute $p = s + g$; $[Z = c\beta^p]$.

END

* (These are the steps for making the aligned mantissa a rounded figure.)

Case (iv) : If $k \geq 3$, then $Z = A\beta^s$.

4.4.4b Floating point multiplication algorithms (non-zero exponent)

$$Z = Fl(X \cdot Y) = (A \cdot B) \beta^{\delta+t}$$

1st step : Compute $D = Fl(A \cdot B) = C \beta^g$ (say)

2nd step : Compute $p = \delta+t+g$; $[Z = C \beta^p]$.

END

4.4.4c Floating point division algorithms (non-zero exponent)

$$Z = Fl(X|Y)$$

1st step : Compute $D = Fl(A|B) = C \beta^g$ (say)

2nd step : Compute $p = \delta+g-t$; $[Z = C \beta^p]$.

END

4.4.5 How to find the co-efficients of a mantissa

The co-efficients of a mantissa A (in residue form) can be obtained by following steps:

1st step : Compute $a_2 = \left[\frac{A}{\beta} \right]$ (residue integer division)

2nd step : Compute $a_1 = A - a_2$ (residue subtraction)

4.4.6 Error in the proposed floating point arithmetic operations

Errors in floating point addition/subtraction, and multiplication are introduced during rounding process (Fig 4.6 and Fig 4.7) in normalisation. In floating point division error may originate from (i) error in approximation of floating point number of $\frac{1}{B}$ and (ii) error in floating point multiplication.

4.4.6a Error in floating point addition/subtraction

The maximum relative error, $\text{Max}(e)$ in floating addition is

$$\text{Max}(e) = \frac{[\beta|2]}{R} \quad \dots\dots (4.20)$$

(Appendix-4 ; (9))

4.4.6b Error in floating point multiplication

The maximum relative error in floating point multiplication, when β is odd, is given by

$$\left(U(eo) \right)_{\text{MAX}} = \frac{2([\beta|2])^2 + 3[\beta|2]}{R} \quad \dots\dots (4.21)$$

(Appendix-4 ; (26))

When β is even, the maximum relative error is given by

$$\left(U(ee) \right)_{\text{MAX}} = \frac{2([\beta|2])^2}{R} \quad \dots\dots (4.22)$$

(Appendix-4 ; (27))

4.5 Output Translation

The method proposed here requires that $w \leq m_i$ for at least one of the moduli. (w is the base to which conversion is to be done.) However, there is no restriction whether $\text{gcd}(w, m_i) = 1$ or not. The method can be applied for conversion to any base provided above condition is satisfied.

4.5.1 Theoretical Aspects

Any integer I_0 can be expressed in base w as

$$\begin{aligned} I_0 &= a_N w^N + a_{N-1} w^{N-1} + \dots\dots + a_1 w^1 + \\ &\quad \dots\dots + a_1 w + a_0 \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^N a_n w^n \end{aligned}$$

The coefficients or digits a_n ($n=0,1, \dots, N$) are given by $a_{n-1} = I_{n-1} - \omega I_n$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots, N$

$$\text{where } I_n = \left[\frac{I_{n-1}}{\omega} \right]$$

$$\text{Special case } a_N = \left[\frac{I_{N-1}}{\omega} \right]$$

'N+1' gives the number of digits required to represent the maximum range of a computing system.

4.5.2 Conversion Procedure

The co-efficient (digits) in the base ω can be found by repeating the following 3 steps N times.

$$\text{For } n = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

$$\text{1st step : Find } I_n = \left[\frac{I_{n-1}}{\omega} \right]$$

$$\text{2nd step : Find } I_{nb} = \omega I_n$$

$$\text{3rd step : Find } a_{n-1} = I_{n-1} - I_{nb}$$

$$\text{Last step (special) } a_N = \left[\frac{I_{N-1}}{\omega} \right]$$

To convert a residue number to its equivalent decimal number at least one of the moduli must be greater than or equal to 10. The residue of that particular modulus will represent the co-efficient (digit) after third step of the procedure. Therefore only one residue is required to be extracted.

Example:

Let 8, 7 and 11 be the moduli of a residue system. The highest positive and negative numbers that can be handled are $(307)_{10}$ and $(308)_{10}$ respectively which are three digits figures.

Take for an example a residue number $(0,5,10)$ which represents 208 in decimal system.

The procedure to get decimal digits out of the residue number is

(The residue representation of 10 is $(2,3,10)$)

For $n = 1$

$$\text{First step : } I_1 = (0,5,10) \mid (2,3,10) = (4,6,9) = (20)_{10}$$

$$\text{Second step: } I_{1b} = (4,6,9) \times (2,3,10) = (0,4,2) = (200)_{10}$$

$$\text{Third step : } a_0 = (0,5,10) - (0,4,2) = (0,1,8) = (8)_{10}$$

For $n = 2$

$$\text{First step : } I_2 = (4,6,9) \mid (2,3,10) = (2,2,2) = (2)_{10}$$

$$\text{Second step: } I_{2b} = (2,2,2) \times (2,3,10) = (4,6,9) = (20)_{10}$$

$$\text{Third step : } a_1 = (4,6,9) - (4,6,9) = (0,0,0) = (0)_{10}$$

Last step for 3rd digit is

$$a_2 = (2,2,2) \quad \left[a_N = \left\lfloor \frac{I_{N-1}}{w} \right\rfloor \right]$$

Therefore the decimal number is 208 $(=a_2 \times 10^2 + a_1 \times 10^1 + a_0 \times 10^0)$

[Division in the first step in each iteration is a general residue division. The arrow indicates the digits in the base 10.]

The arithmetic operations required for conversion are multiplication, division and subtraction. Therefore arithmetic unit must have the provision for subtraction, multiplication and division in the residue number system.

4.6 Conclusion

According to the proposed method, multiplicative overflow detection in 16-15-13-11 moduli system is considerably fast (269 ns). In conventional fast technique, using PROMs of 40 ns access time, the delay would be 640 ns (= 4.4.40). The hardware requirement is not insignificant, however, since same piece of hardware can be shared for sign detection and determination of first approximation, the overall cost will not be much. The delay in obtaining the first approximation, according to the proposed technique is 274 ns (eq 4.3c); whereas in conventional fast division technique, the delay would be $2.4.40 = 320$ ns.

Floating point arithmetic which was difficult in residue system, now can easily be implemented using proposed method. The preliminary requirement is the existence of residue integer addition, subtraction, multiplicative, division, comparison and multiplicative overflow detector. Provided circuits for those operations and a look-up table for approximate floating point number of $\frac{1}{B}$ exist, floating point arithmetic operation can be performed in software (residing permanently in PROMs). Therefore implementation of floating point operation will be cost effective. One departure from the conventional floating point format (where 2 or 10 is chosen to be the base of the exponent) is the

choice of the base of the exponent which depends on the moduli of the residue system and will differ from system to system. The main advantage of this choice of the base is that addition/subtraction/multiplication among the co-efficients does not produce overflow. Therefore the cost of using redundant moduli is saved.

Since output translation is a less frequently used operation, more time can be allotted for this operation. Where there exists all the basic residue integer operations, the proposed method for output translation can be implemented with no extra cost of hardware. Moreover, in a situation where base extension cannot be applied, the proposed method is the only choice.

5. DESIGN OF A REAL TIME RESIDUE ARITHMETIC COMPUTER

5.1 Introduction

The aim of the design of the Residue Arithmetic Computer (RAC) is to verify the algorithms proposed in the Chapter 4, and study the feasibility of residue system in a general purpose computer. The functional blocks of the RAC (Fig 5.1) are (i) Intel SDK-80, 8 bit microcomputer (Fig 5.2(a)) and (ii) Residue Arithmetic unit. The microcomputer acquires and manipulates data, while the RAU does all the basic residue arithmetic operations. The design of the RAU, floating point arithmetic and residue to decimal conversion are the main topics of discussion in this chapter.

From the consideration of bit efficiency, moduli 16 and 15 (total 8 bits) have been chosen for the test system. This gives the range of the system from 0 to 239 ($M=16 \times 15 = 240$). The positive half starts from 0 to 119, and negative half from 120 to 239 representing -120 to -1 respectively.

The RAU has been designed on (22.5cm x 17.8cm) vero-board (Fig 5.2(b)) with wire wrapping technique (Fig 5.2(c)). There are altogether fifty IC chips and seventy-six resistors (Fig 5.3 and Table 5.1).

The microcomputer communicates with the RAU through a programmable peripheral interface (PPI) of the microcomputer

(Fig 5.4). The A-port of PPI issues operation codes (Table 5.2) and operands, while B-port receives the results from the RAU. The lower three lines (C0, C1 and C2) of C-port gives the information of the sign of the result (C0), the overflow (C1) and the Exclusive OR of the sign of divisor and dividend (C2), and the higher three lines (C4, C5 and C6) address the latches (Table 5.3 and Fig 5.5) assigned to the operands and operation codes. The operation codes and operands are each eight bits long. Of the eight bits of each operands, the most significant 4 bits represent the residue of module 16 (mod-16) and the least significant 4 bits represent the residue of module 15 (mod-15).

The I/O device specifies operations with alphabetic symbols (Table 5.4) and issues operands to the microcomputer which makes decision on the type of operation (decode), enters the operands and operation code to the RAU and then gets the result from the RAU. The final result is displayed on the I/O device in both residue and decimal forms with overflow character (if any by '?') and sign character ('+' or '-'). In case of comparison, the character > or =, or <, representing X is greater than, or equal to or less than Y, is displayed.

The programmes required for all operations reside in PROMs from locations 400H to 49FH and from 800H to FEFH, of the SDK-80 microcomputer memory.

Later sections discuss the RAU in detail.

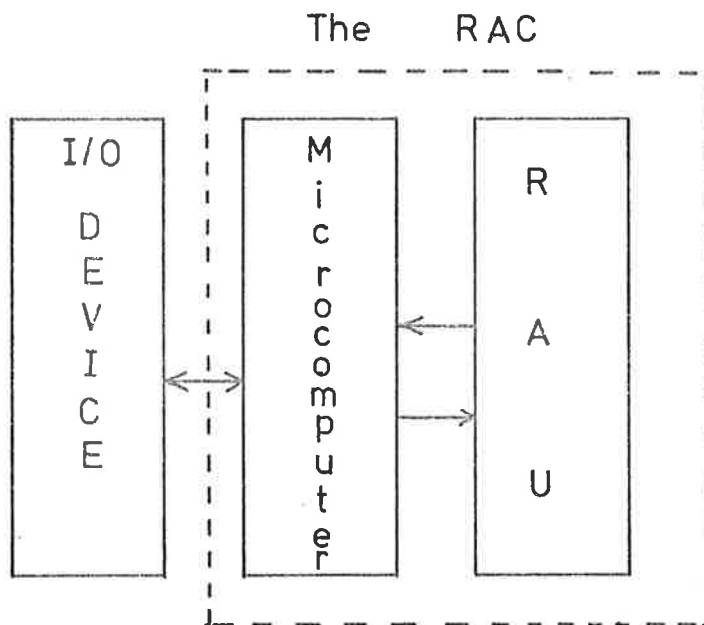


Fig. 5.1 Functional blocks of the RAC .

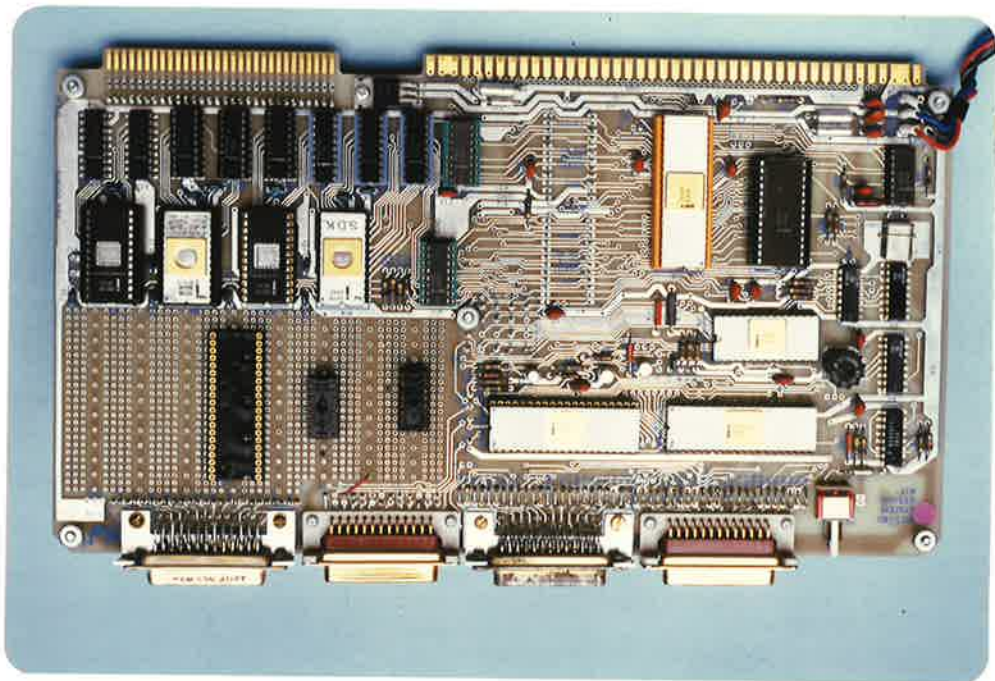


Fig. 5.2 (a) The SDK-80 microcomputer.

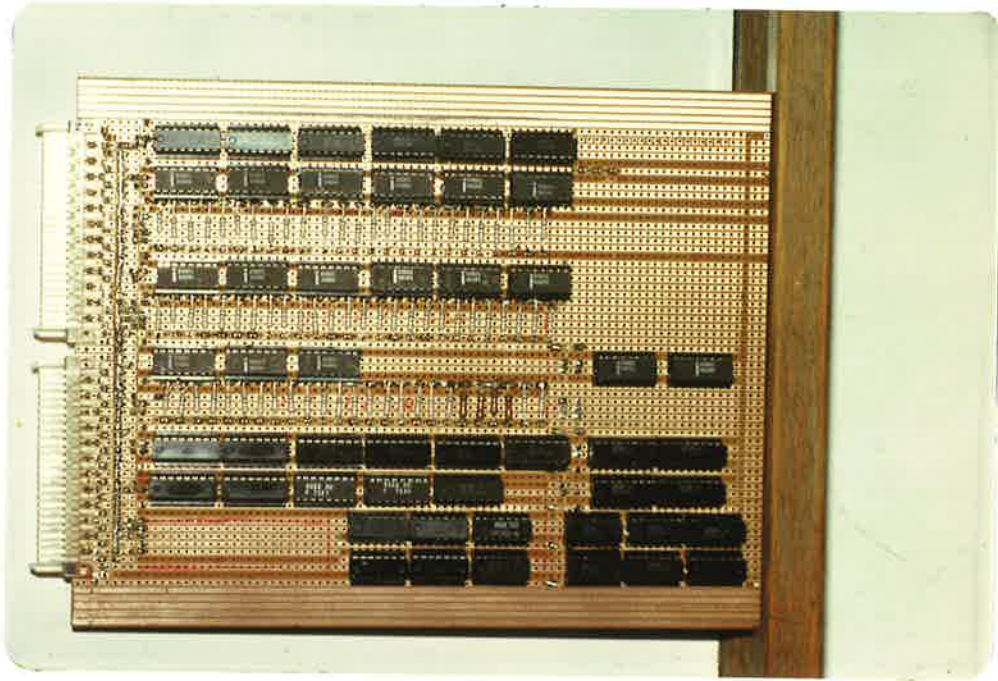


Fig. 5.2(b) Top view of the RAU board .

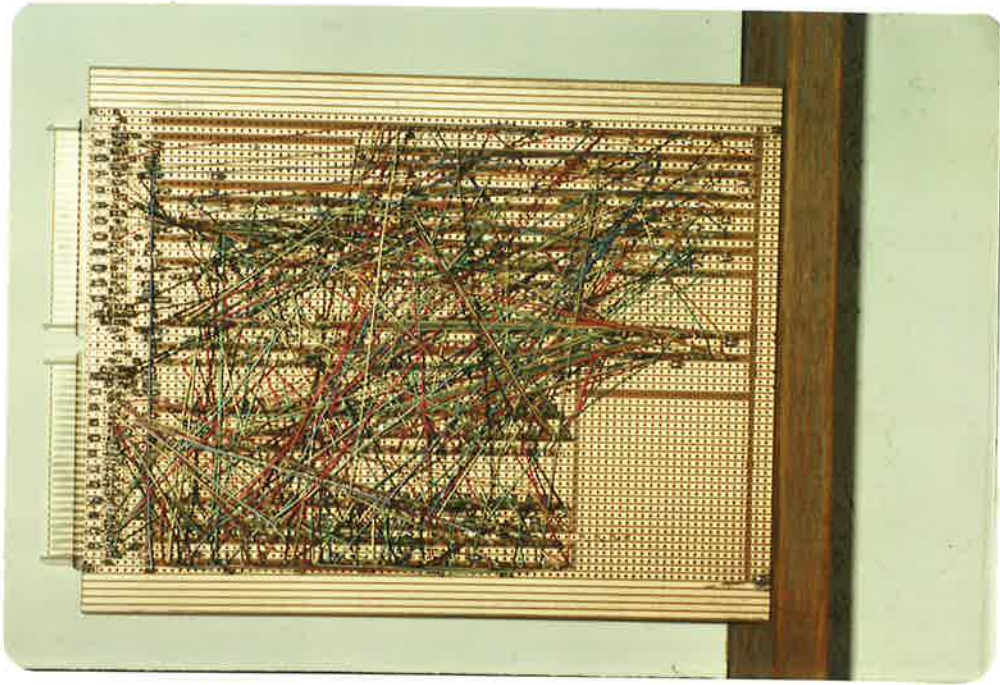


Fig. 5.2(c) Back view of the RAU board .

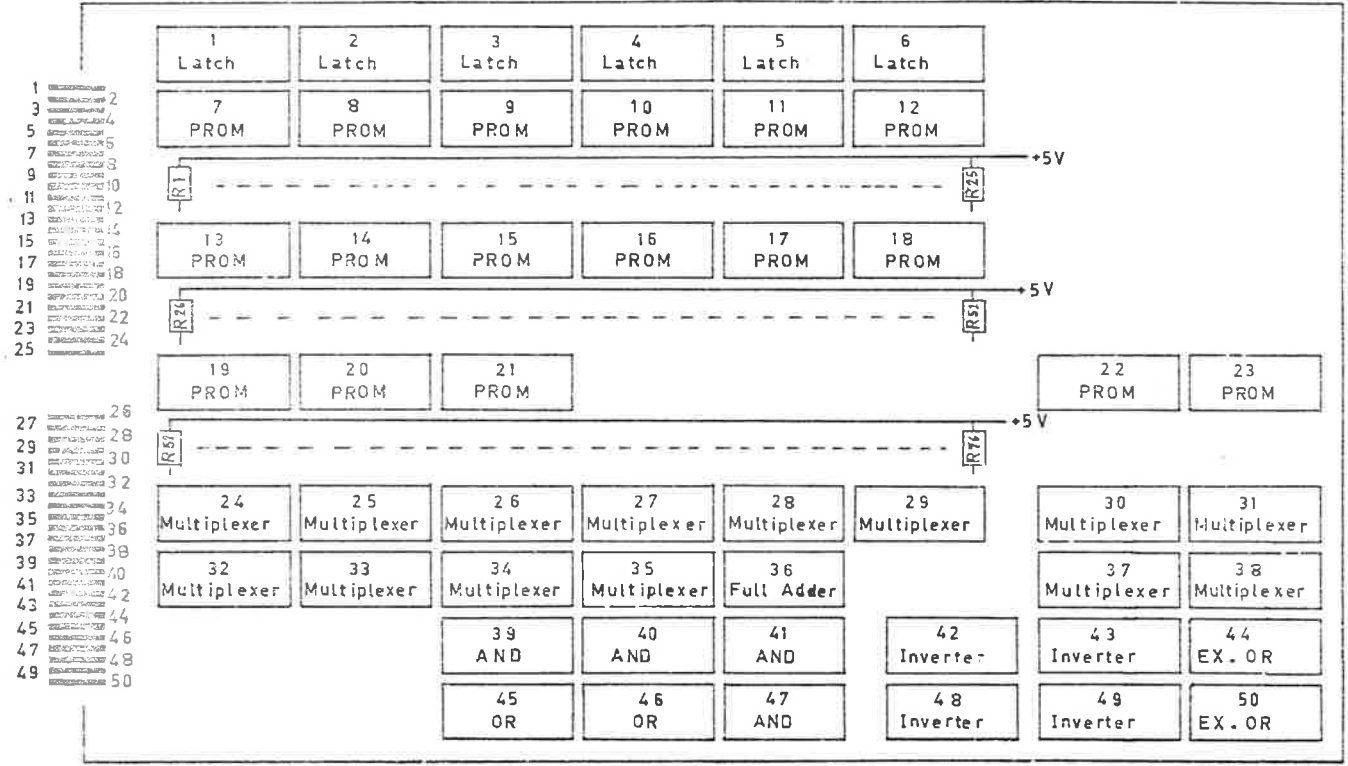


Fig. 5.3 Organisation of components on the RAU board.

Table 5.1

The list of components and their
type number/specification

Functional Description of Components	Type Number/ Specification	Location on the RAU Board	Quantity
Quad Latch	DM 7475	(1) — (6)	6
Intel Bipolar Prom [79]	3601	(7) — (23)	17
4 Bit Full ADDER	DM 74LS83	(36)	1
Dual 4:1 Multiplexer	DM 74153	(30), (31), (37), (38)	4
Quad 2-input Multiplexer	9322	(34), (35)	2
8 Channel Multiplexer	DM 74151	(24) — (29), (32), (33)	8
Quad 2-input AND	DM 74H08	(39), (40), (47)	3
Triple 3-input AND	DM 74S11	(41)	1
Quad 2-input OR	DM 7432	(45) — (47), (50)	4
Quad 2-input Exclusive OR	DM 74S86	(43), (44)	2
Hex Inverter	DM 74S04	(42), (48), (49)	3
Resistors	1.8 K Ω ($\frac{1}{4}$ W)	R1 — R76	76

[All the I.C. components used, except PROMs, are of National Semiconductor [81] .]

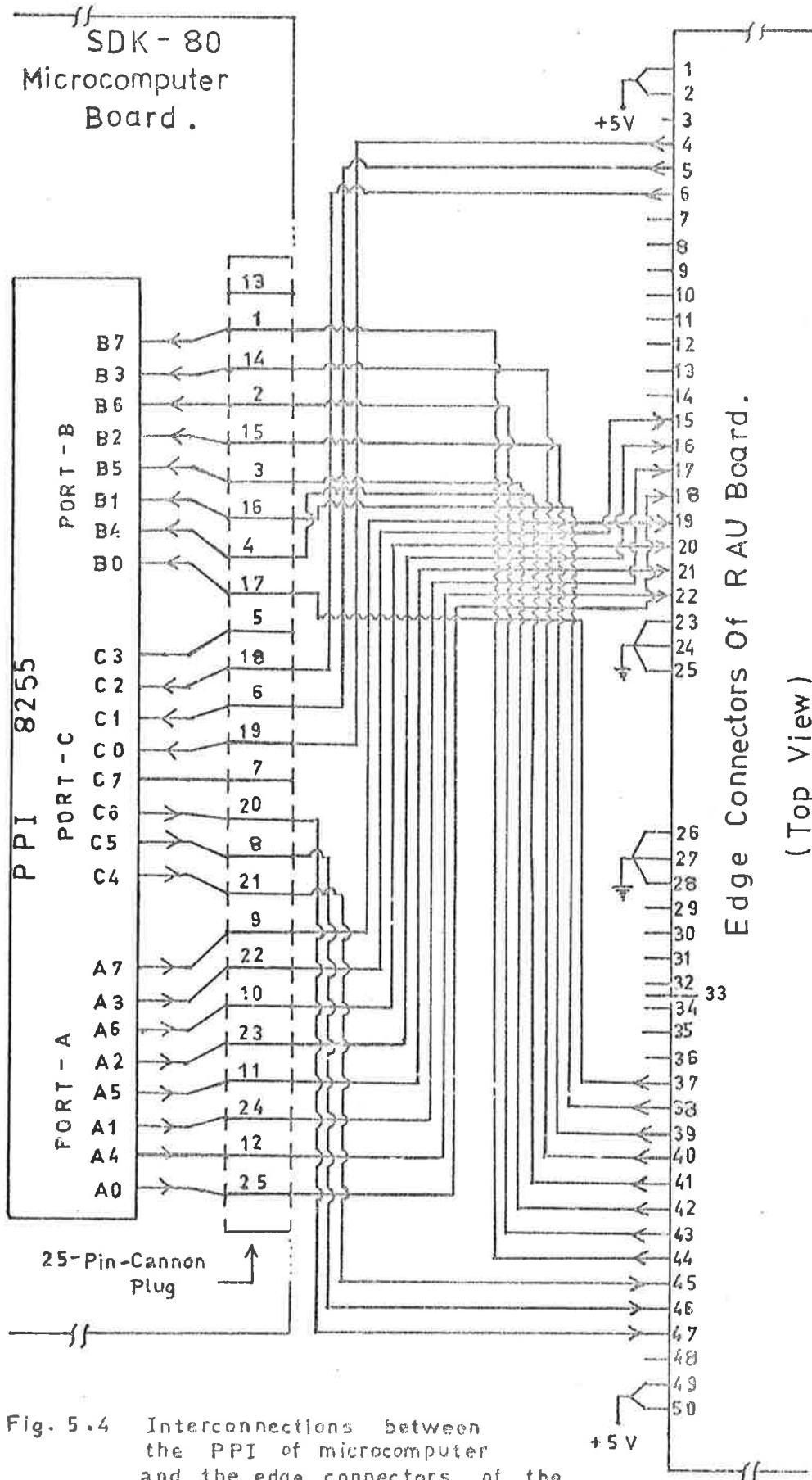


Fig. 5.4 Interconnections between the PPI of microcomputer and the edge connectors of the RAU board.

Operation Codes and their definition

Operation Codes								Definition
ϕ_7	ϕ_6	ϕ_5	ϕ_4	ϕ_3	ϕ_2	ϕ_1	ϕ_0	
0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	(i) Add
0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	(ii) Subtract
0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	(iii) Multiply
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	(iv) Compare (Unsigned)
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	(v) Compare (Signed)
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	(vi) Get First Approximate of Quotient (Integer Division)
0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	(vii) Get a number divided by 2
0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	(viii) Get the equivalent mantissa of the reciprocal of divisor (floating point division)
0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	(ix) Get the exponent of the reciprocal of the divisor

Table 5.3

Addresses of latches

Latches	Address							
	C7	C6	C5	C4	C3	C2	C1	C0
Latch of X	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Latch of Y	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
Latch of Operation Code	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0

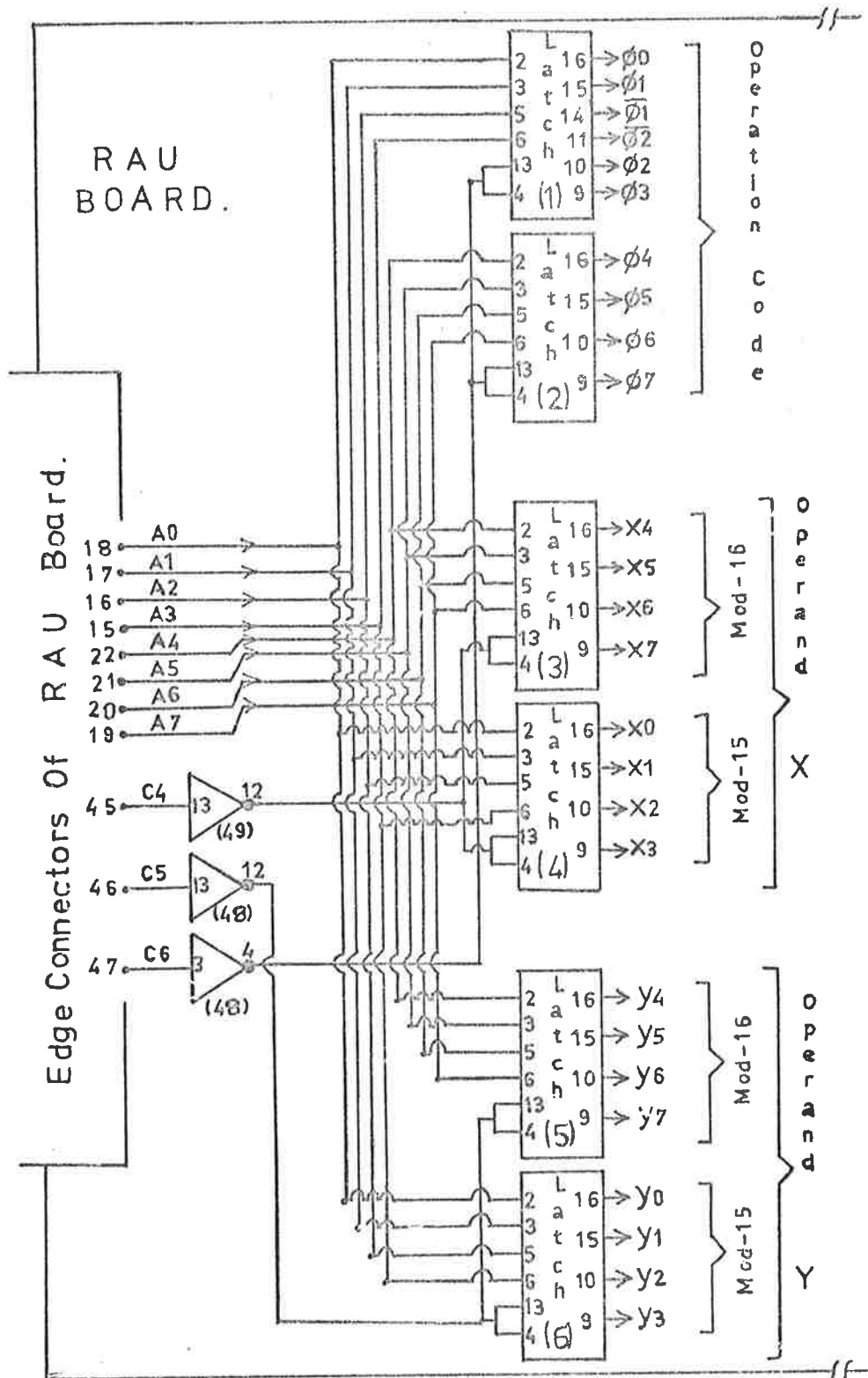


Fig. 5.5 Latching of operation code and operands.

Table 5.4

Alphabetic symbols and operations

Alphabet	Operation
A	Addition (Integer)
B	Subtraction (Integer)
C	Multiplication (Integer)
D	Division (Integer)
E	Comparison (unsigned, Integer)
F	Comparison (signed, Integer)
G	Addition (Floating Point)
H	Subtraction (Floating Point)
I	Multiplication (Floating Point)
J	Division (Floating Point)

5.2 Addition, Subtraction and Multiplication (Integer)

Addition, subtraction and multiplication are performed simultaneously by means of six look up tables (Tables 5.5(a), 5.5(b), 5.5(c), 5.5(d), 5.5(e) and 5.5(f)) stored in six (256x4) Intel Bipolar PROM (3601), each having a 70 ns access time. Two PROMs are assigned to each operation; one is for mod-16 and the other is for mod-15 operations (Fig 5.6(a), 5.6(b) and 5.6(c)).

The lower 4 address lines (pins 5,6,7 and 4) are connected to the 4 data lines of operand X; while the higher 4 address lines (pins 3,2,1 and 15) are connected to the 4 data lines (corresponding residue) of operand Y.

[The program listings have been shown in Appendix-6; AP 6(a).]

Table 5.5(a)

Look up Table (Addition in Mod-16)

Each hexadecimal digit represents
'lower 4 address bits'Each
hexadecimal
digit
represents
'higher
4 address
bits'.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0
2	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1
3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2
4	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3
5	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4
6	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5
7	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
A	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
B	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A
C	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B
D	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C
E	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D
F	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E

Table 5.5(b)

Look up Table (Addition in Mod-15)

Each hexadecimal digit represents
'lower 4 address bits'Each
hexadecimal
digit
represents
'higher
4 address
bits'.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1
2	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2
3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3
4	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4
5	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5
6	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
A	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A
B	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B
C	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C
D	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D
E	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E
F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0

Table 5.5(c)

Look up Table (Subtraction in Mod-16)

Each hexadecimal digit represents
'lower 4 address bits'

Each
hexadecimal
digit
represents
'higher
4 address
bits'.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
1	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E
2	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D
3	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C
4	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B
5	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A
6	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
8	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
A	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4	5
B	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3	4
C	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2	3
D	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1	2
E	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0	1
F	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F	0

Table 5.5(d)

Look up Table (Subtraction in Mod-15)

Each hexadecimal digit represents
'lower 4 address bits'Each
hexadecimal
digit
represents
'higher
4 address
bits'.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	E	D	0
1	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E
2	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D
3	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C
4	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B
5	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A
6	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
8	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
A	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4	5
B	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3	4
C	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2	3
D	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1	2
E	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0	1
F	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	0

Table 5.5(e)

Look up Table (Multiplication in Mod-16)

Each hexadecimal digit represents
'lower 4 address bits'Each
hexadecimal
digit
represents
'higher
4 address
bits'.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
2	0	2	4	6	8	A	C	E	0	2	4	6	8	A	C	E
3	0	3	6	9	C	F	2	5	8	B	E	1	4	7	A	D
4	0	4	8	C	0	4	8	C	0	4	8	C	0	4	8	C
5	0	5	A	F	4	9	E	3	8	D	2	7	C	1	6	B
6	0	6	C	2	8	E	4	A	0	6	C	2	8	E	4	A
7	0	7	E	5	C	3	A	1	8	F	6	D	4	B	2	9
8	0	8	0	8	0	8	0	8	0	8	0	8	0	8	0	8
9	0	9	2	B	4	D	6	F	8	1	A	3	C	5	E	7
A	0	A	4	E	8	2	C	6	0	A	4	E	8	2	C	6
B	0	B	6	1	C	7	2	D	8	3	E	9	4	F	A	5
C	0	C	8	4	0	C	8	4	0	C	8	4	0	C	8	4
D	0	D	A	7	4	1	E	B	8	5	2	F	C	9	6	3
E	0	B	C	A	8	6	4	2	0	E	C	A	8	6	4	2
F	0	F	E	D	C	B	A	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

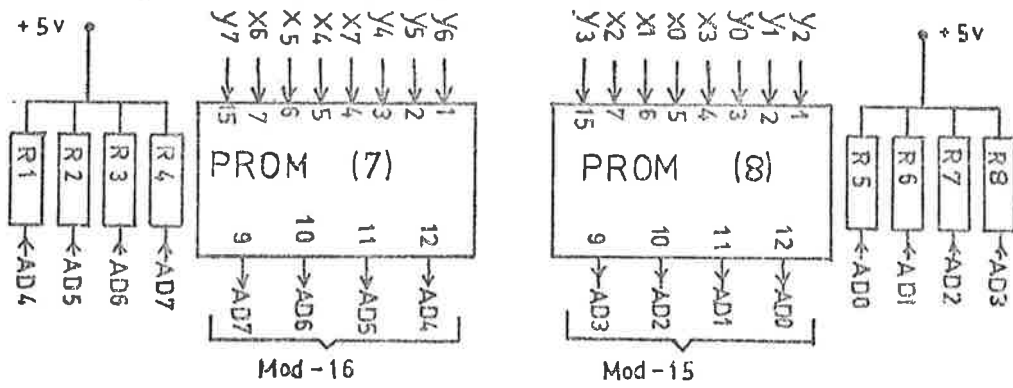


Fig.5.6(a) Circuit for the 16-15 moduli addition .

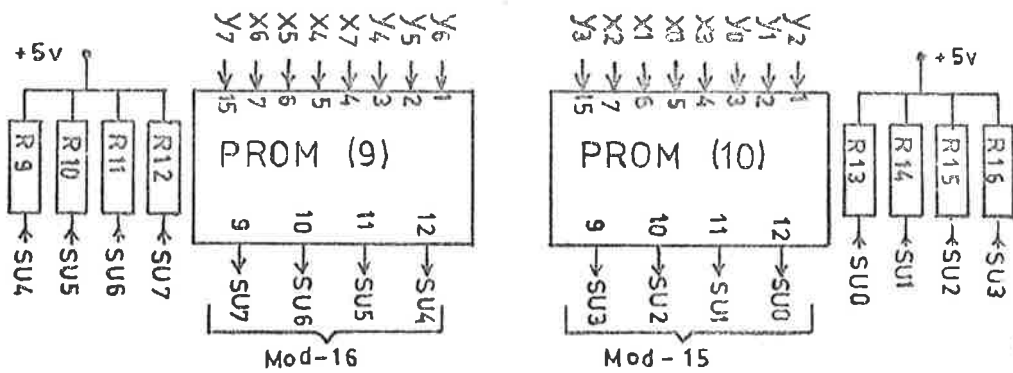


Fig.5.6(b) Circuit for the 16-15 moduli subtraction.

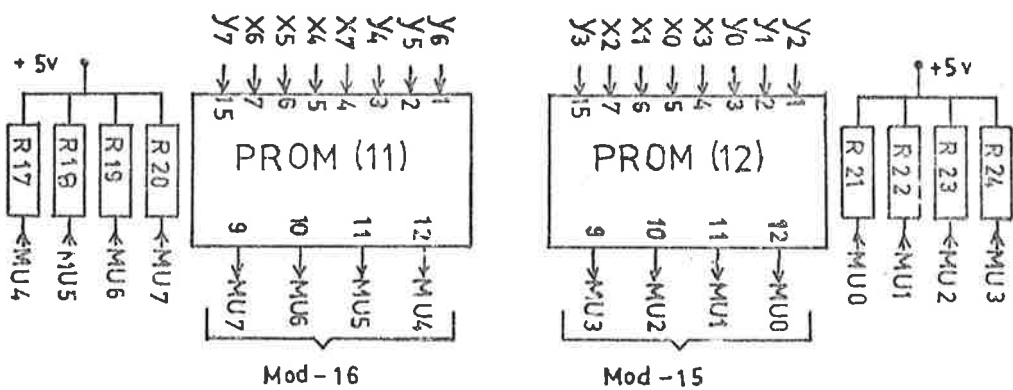


Fig.5.6(c) Circuit for the 16-15 moduli multiplication.

5.2 (a) Delay in Addition, Subtraction and Multiplication

The delay in addition/subtraction/multiplication

= 1 PROM delay

= 70 ns (access time of 3601 PROM)

5.3 Comparison

There are two types of comparisons - comparisons with signed numbers and comparisons with unsigned numbers. Comparisons with signed numbers involve either no operation or subtraction; whereas comparisons with unsigned numbers involve either addition or subtraction. Table 5.6 is a truth table showing the comparisons, operations required and decision modes. It is clear from the Table 5.6 that subtraction is required (in both types of comparisons) if the signs of X and Y agree; while addition is required (comparison with unsigned number) if the signs of X and Y do not agree.

Table 5.6

Truth table for decision modes in comparison

Signed Numbers	Unsigned Numbers	Sign of X	Sign of Y	Operation	Zero Result	Sign of the result	Decision
1	0	0	0	SUB.	0	0	$X > Y$
1	0	0	0	"	0	1	$X < Y$
1	0	0	0	"	1	0	$X = Y$
1	0	0	1	No Op.	-	-	$X > Y$
1	0	1	0	No Op.	-	-	$X < Y$
1	0	1	1	SUB.	0	0	$X > Y$
1	0	1	1	"	0	1	$X < Y$
1	0	1	1	"	1	0	$X = Y$
0	1	0	0	"	0	0	$X > Y$
0	1	0	0	"	0	1	$X < Y$
0	1	0	0	"	1	0	$X = Y$
0	1	0	1	ADD.	0	0	$X > Y$
0	1	0	1	"	0	1	$X < Y$
0	1	0	1	"	1	0	$X = Y$
0	1	1	0	"	0	0	$X < Y$
0	1	1	0	"	0	1	$X > Y$
0	1	1	0	"	1	0	$X = Y$
0	1	1	1	SUB.	0	0	$X < Y$
0	1	1	1	"	0	1	$X > Y$
0	1	1	1	"	1	0	$X = Y$

[Note: SUB = Subtraction; ADD = Addition]

Comparisons require the sign of X , Y and the sign of the result of addition or subtraction. However, the results of addition, subtraction and multiplication are generated simultaneously. Therefore, depending on signs of X and Y , the result of addition/subtraction is to be selected for sign detection.

The sign is detected by a look up table (Table 5.7) implemented with a PROM. There are altogether three sign detectors; one is for X , one for Y and the other one for the result (one of the results of addition, subtraction and multiplication).

Fig 5.7(a) and 5.7(b) show the circuits used for sign detection of X and Y respectively. The data lines of the residue of mod-16 are connected to the lower 4 address lines of the PROMs and that of mod-15 to the higher 4 address lines. The most significant bit of the output indicates the sign ('1' for negative, '0' for positive) and the least significant bit indicates zero/nonzero of the number ('1' for zero-number). Thus SX and ZX give the information sign and zero/nonzero of X respectively. Similarly so for Y .

The appropriate result is multiplexed to the sign detector by two bits ($\phi 3$, $\overline{\phi 1}$) of the respective operation code (Fig 5.8). However, $\overline{\phi 1}$ is not connected directly to the selection pin (pin-14) of the multiplexers (two dual 4:1 multiplexers), since in case of comparison, the result of either addition or subtraction is to be selected. Table 5.8 shows the states of the selection pins and the selected inputs.

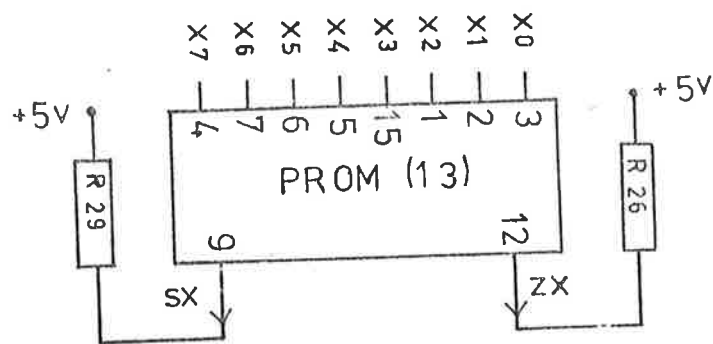


Fig. 5.7(a) Circuit for sign detection of X in the 16-15 residue system.

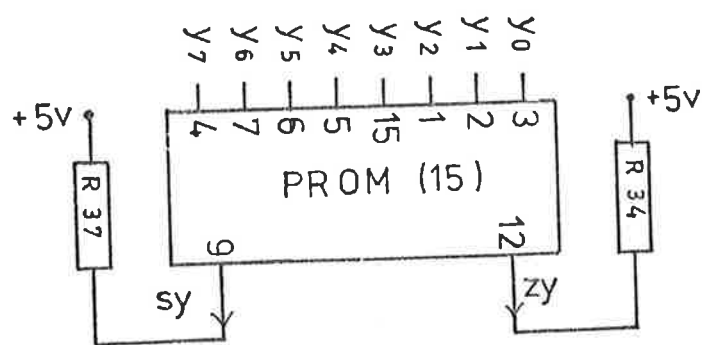


Fig. 5.7(b) Circuit for sign detection of Y in the 16-15 residue system.

Table 5.8

The states of the selection pins and corresponding selected inputs

States of Selected Pins 2, 14	Selected Inputs	' ϕ_3 ' and ' $\overline{\phi_1}$ ' (inverted ' ϕ_1) of operation codes (Table 5.2) ' ϕ_3 ', ' ϕ_1 '
0 0	Addition	0 0
0 1	Subtraction	0 1
1 0	Multiplication	1 0
1 1	Not used	

From the Table 5.8 it is clear that ' ϕ_3 ' and ' $\overline{\phi_1}$ ' can be directly connected to the selection pins 2 and 14 respectively. However, since in comparisons the sign of the result of addition (if the signs of X and Y do not agree) / subtraction (if the signs of X and Y agree) is required and the ' ϕ_3 ' bit of addition, subtraction and comparison codes (Table 5.2) is same (zero), only ' ϕ_3 ' bit is directly connected; whereas ' $\overline{\phi_1}$ ' is gated through the Exclusive OR (44, 1,2,3) to change conditionally the logic state of ' ϕ_1 ' to select the result of addition/subtraction for sign detection during comparison.

For addition, subtraction and multiplication ' ϕ_7 ' and ' ϕ_6 ' of the operation codes (Table 5.2) are zeros; therefore the output of the AND gate (39,2,1,3) is '0'. The ' $\overline{\phi_1}$ ' passes out through the Exclusive OR (44,1,2,3) without inversion. In case of comparison, subtraction and division, the ' $\overline{\phi_1}$ ' which is the input to the Exclusive ORs (44,5,4,6) and (44,1,2,3) is '1'. The output from the Exclusive OR (44,5,

4,6) is therefore the inverted SY . The actual Exclusive OR of the signs of X and Y (SX, SY) is the output from the inverter (48,1,2), since $\overline{SC} = \overline{1 \oplus SY \oplus SX} = \overline{SY \oplus SX} = SY \oplus SX$. Therefore the \overline{SC} is also the Exclusive OR of the signs of divisor and dividend. In comparisons, the output of the OR gate (45,1,2,3) is '1'. If the signs of the X and Y does not agree \overline{SC} will be '1' and the output of the AND gate will be '1' which inverts $\overline{\phi 1}$ (= '1' in comparison) to '0'. Therefore the states of the selection pins 2 and 14 are '0' and '0' respectively and the result of addition will be selected. However, if the signs of X and Y agrees \overline{SC} will be '0' and so the output from the AND. Therefore the output of the Exclusive OR (44,1,2,3) will be $\overline{\phi 1}$ (= '1' in comparison); the states of the selection pins 2 and 14 are '0' and '1' respectively and the result of subtraction will be selected for sign detection.

The outputs from the multiplexers are connected to the sign detector (PROM (14)). 'SZ' gives the sign of the result (addition/subtraction/multiplication) Z and ZZ gives the information of zero/nonzero of the result.

[Note that the Exclusive OR (44,5,4,6) and the inverter (48,1,2) could be omitted by connecting SY to the pin 10 of the Exclusive OR (44,10,9,8) and the output from it ('SC') to the pin 2 of the AND gate. However, it has not omitted, since this circuit is also part of overflow detector (Fig 5.10) where the sign of the subtrahend is to be inverted by $\overline{\phi 1}$ (= '1' in subtraction) for subtractive overflow detection].

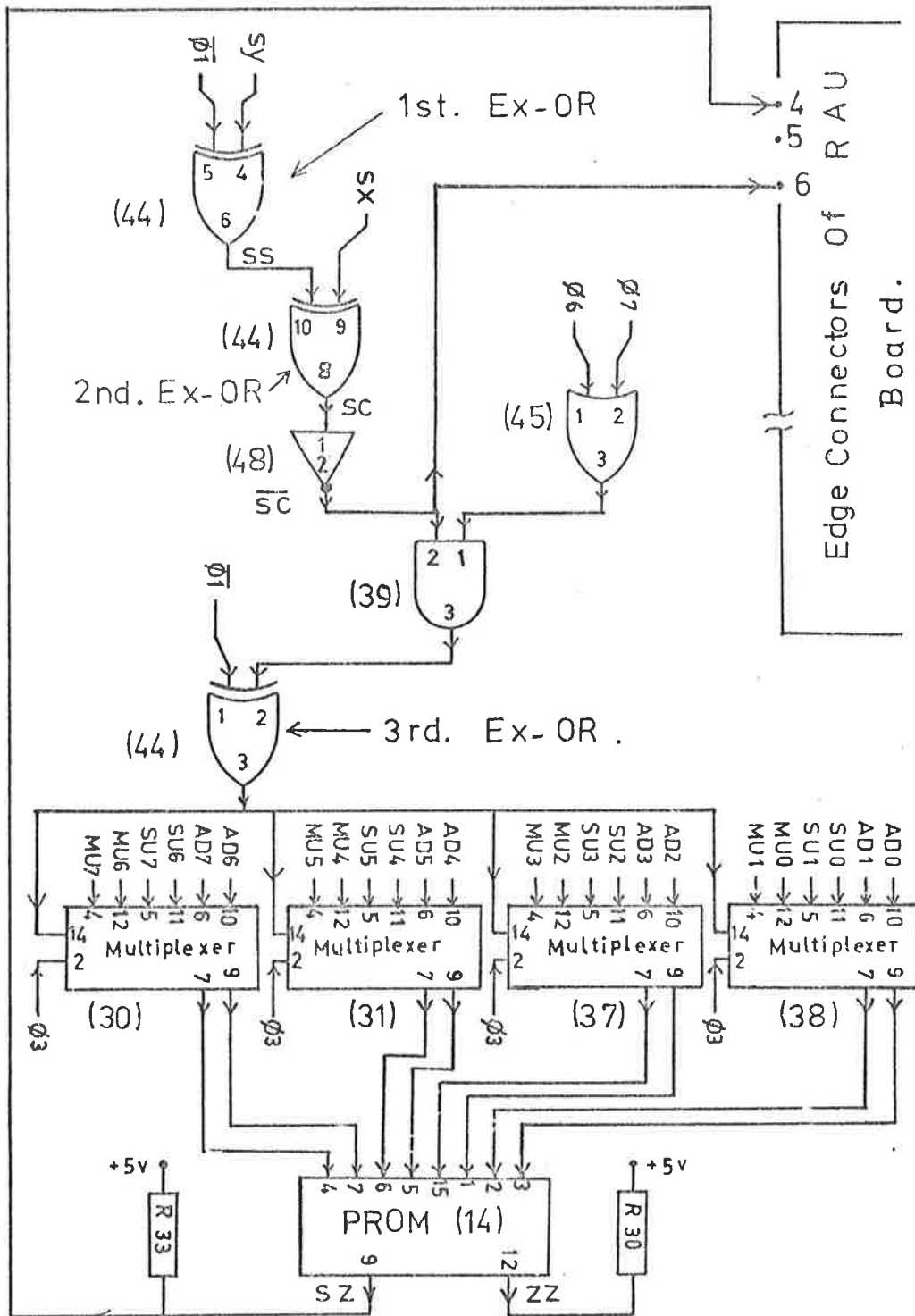


Fig. 5.8 Circuit for sign detection of the result of addition/subtraction/multiplication in the 16-15-residue system.

The final decision in comparison is done with a look up table (Table 5.9) formed in the PROM (23) (Fig 5.9). Altogether 32 locations (locations DOH to DFH and FOH to FFH) are required. The contents of the odd locations give the decision modes of comparison with signed numbers, whereas the contents of the even locations give the decision modes of comparison with unsigned numbers. The ' $\phi 7$ ' bit of the operation code determines whether the locations read are even or odd. If ' $\phi 7$ ' is '1', the odd locations are selected; otherwise the even locations.

The output $C\phi 0 = '1'$ indicates X is less than Y ; $C\phi 1 = '1'$ indicates X is greater than Y ; while $C\phi 2 = '1'$ indicates X is equal to Y .

Table 5.9

Look up table for decision modes
in comparison

4 bits of each hexadecimal digit represent
'SY', 'SZ', 'ZZ' and ' $\phi 7$ '

		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
The second bit of each hexadecimal digit represents 'SX'	D	2	2	4	4	1	1	0	0	2	2	2	4	2	1	0	0
	F	1	1	1	4	1	2	0	0	2	1	4	4	1	2	0	0

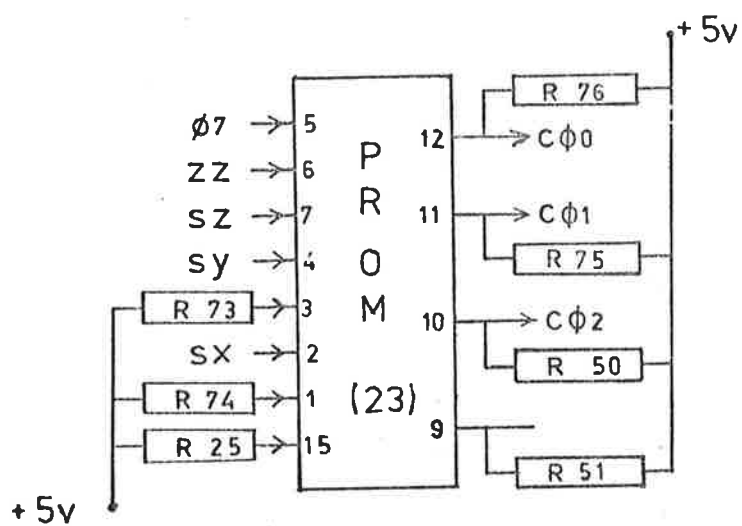


Fig. 5.9 Circuit for decision modes in comparison in 16-15-residue system.

5.3(a) Delay in Comparison

From Fig 5.8 and 5.9,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Delay in comparison} &= 1 \text{ PROM delay for operation} \\
 &\quad \text{of addition/subtraction.} \\
 &+ 1 \text{ Multiplexer delay} \\
 &+ (3 \text{ Exclusive OR} + 1 \text{ inverter} \\
 &\quad + 1 \text{ AND}) \text{ delay.} \\
 &+ 1 \text{ PROM delay for sign detec-} \\
 &\quad \text{tion} \\
 &+ 1 \text{ PROM delay for decision} \\
 &\quad \text{modes.} \\
 &= (70+20+3 \times 7+10+9+70+70) \text{ ns} \\
 &= 270 \text{ ns (for the elements used} \\
 &\quad \text{in the test facilities).}
 \end{aligned}$$

5.4 Overflow Detection

Fig 5.10 shows the circuit for overflow detection in addition, subtraction and multiplication. The circuits in the dash-lined box detect additive/subtractive overflow; while the rest of the circuit is needed to detect multiplicative overflow.

5.4(a) Multiplicative Overflow Detection

When multiplicative overflow occurs the product may be of incorrect sign or may be outside the range of the system.

An overflow characterised by incorrect sign is detected by the circuit shown in the solid-lined box. The signal 'SC' is the Exclusive OR of the signs of X and Y (Fig 5.8). In Fig 5.8, ' $\overline{\phi 1}$ ' is '0' for multiplication and addition. Therefore the output 'SS' from the Exclusive OR (4,4,5,6) is really SY (sign of Y) and the output 'SC' from the Excl-

ive OR (44,10,9,8) is the Exclusive OR of 'SY' and 'SX' (the signs of X and Y). Table 5.10 is the truth table of overflow characterised by incorrect sign.

Table 5.10

Truth table of overflow characterised by incorrect sign

Sign of X, SX	sign of Y, SY	sign of Z, SZ	Overflow
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1
0	1	0	1
0	1	0	0
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0
1	1	1	1

From the Table 5.10 the overflow $f(\phi')$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned} f(\phi') &= \overline{SX}.\overline{SY}.SZ + \overline{SX}.SY.\overline{SZ} + SX.\overline{SY}.\overline{SZ} + SX.SY.SZ \\ &= SX \oplus SY \oplus SZ \quad \dots\dots (5.1) \end{aligned}$$

From Fig 5.8 $SC = \overline{\phi'1} \oplus 'SY' \oplus 'SX'$ $\dots\dots (5.2)$

For multiplication and addition, ' $\overline{\phi'1}$ ' is '0', therefore

$$SC = SY \oplus SX.$$

The expression (5.1) becomes

$$f(\phi') = SC \oplus SZ \quad \dots\dots (5.3).$$

In Fig 5.10, the output from the Exclusive OR (43,1,2,3) is the Exclusive OR of 'SC' and 'SZ'. However, a false signal of overflow occurs when a negative number is multiplied by zero. The zero operands are detected by the inverters (49,3,4) and (49,5,6) and AND gate (39,6,7,8). If one of the operands is zero the output from the AND gate (39,6,7,8) will be '0'; so is the output from the 3-input AND gate (41,5,3,4,6) ($\overline{\phi 1}$ is '1' for multiplication). This means no overflow indication will be given.

The circuit outside the boxes (Fig 5.10) detects overflow by 'group technique'. The PROMs (18) and (16) form look up tables (Table 5.12) of group numbers of Y and X respectively (where X and Y are the numbers from 0 to +119 and -1 to -120) corresponding to the Table 5.11. (The number of groups is 8, since $2^7 < 240 < 2^8$ and $w = 16$.)

Table 5.11

Table of numbers and their corresponding group number

Numbers	Group Number
0	0
1	1
2 → 3	2
4 → 7	3
8 → 15	4
16 → 31	5
32 → 63	6
64 → 120	7

Table 5.12

Look up table of group number of X or Y

Each hexadecimal digit represents the residue
of Mod-16

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
0	0	4	5	6	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	5	4
1	5	1	4	5	6	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	5
2	6	5	2	4	5	6	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	6
3	6	6	5	2	4	5	6	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	6
4	7	6	6	5	3	4	5	6	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
5	7	7	6	6	5	3	4	5	6	6	7	7	7	7	7	7
6	7	7	7	6	6	5	3	4	5	6	6	7	7	7	7	7
7	7	7	7	7	6	6	5	3	4	5	6	6	7	7	7	7
8	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	5	4	3	5	6	6	7	7	7
9	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	5	4	3	5	6	6	7	7
A	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	5	4	3	5	6	6	7
B	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	5	4	3	5	6	6
C	6	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	5	4	2	5	6
D	6	6	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	5	4	2	5
E	5	6	6	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	5	4	1
F	0	4	5	6	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	5	4

Each hexadecimal digit represents the residue of mod-15.

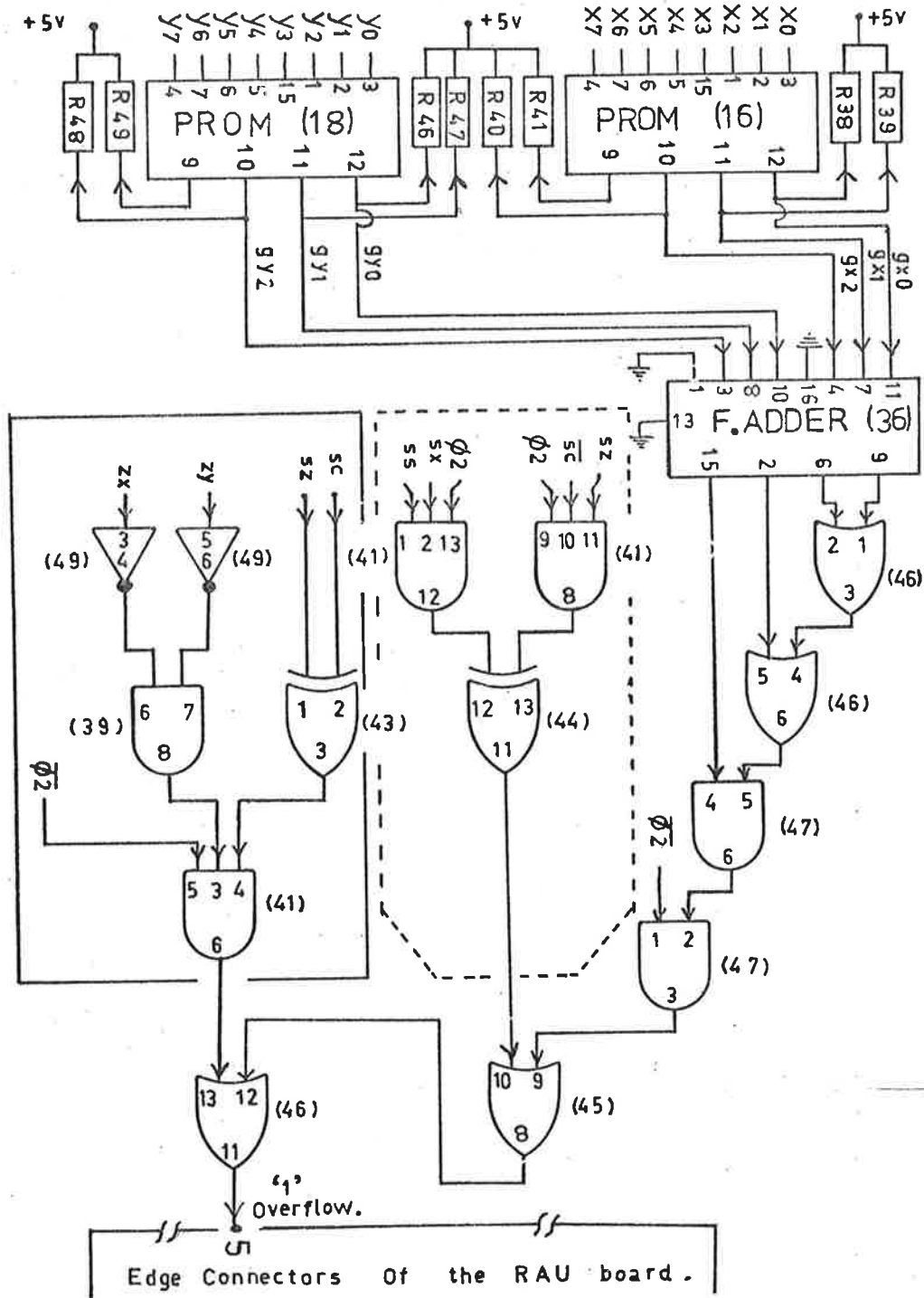


Fig. 5.10 Circuit for overflow detection in the 16-15 residue system .

If the sum of the group numbers of X and Y is greater than 8, overflow must occur, if less than 8 overflow does not occur, if equal to 8 overflow may or may not occur, but if overflow occurs, the sign will be incorrect.

The group numbers are added with the Full Adder. If the sum exceeds 8, the M.S.B. (at Pin 15) will be '1' and at least one of other three bits will be nonzero. The first two OR gates (46,2,1,3) and (46,5,4,6) detect whether the least significant three bits is nonzero. If it is nonzero and the M.S.B. is '1', the output from the AND gate (47,5,6,6) will be '1' i.e. overflow has occurred.

In multiplication ' ϕ_2 ' is '0'. This means that the output from the additive/subtractive overflow detectors (dash-lined box) is '0'. However, ' $\overline{\phi_1}$ ' opens the AND gate (47,1,2,3). The output from the OR gate (46,13,12,11) gives the information of multiplicative overflow ('1' indicates overflow).

5.4(b) Additive and Subtractive Overflow Detection

After inverting the sign of the subtrahend, the subtractive overflow is same as the additive overflow detection. The inversion is done by the Exclusive OR (44,5,4,6) of Fig 5.8. In subtraction ' $\overline{\phi_1}$ ' is '1'; therefore the output ' SS ' = \overline{SY} . In addition ' $\overline{\phi_1}$ ' is '0'; therefore the output is ' SS ' = SY . An additive overflow is said to occur if the sign of the operands are same and the sign of result is incorrect. The Table 5.13 is a truth table of additive/subtractive overflow decision modes.

Table 5.13

Truth table of additive/subtractive
overflow decision modes

'SS' = SY/\overline{SY}	Sign of X, SX	Sign of Z, SZ	Overflow
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1
0	1	0	0
0	1	1	0
1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	0

From the truth table the additive overflow $f(\phi)$ can be expressed as

$$f(\phi) = \overline{SS} \cdot \overline{SX} \cdot SZ + SS \cdot SX \cdot \overline{SZ} \quad \dots \quad (5.4)$$

This function is to be ANDed with ' ϕ_2 ' to signify that the overflow is due to addition/subtraction. Therefore the actual expression becomes

$$f(\phi) = \phi_2 \cdot f(\phi) = \phi_2 \cdot (\overline{SS} \cdot \overline{SX} \cdot SZ + SS \cdot SX \cdot \overline{SZ}) \quad \dots \quad (5.5)$$

The implementation of the expression (5.5) needs - three inverters, two 3-input AND gates, one 2-input OR gate and One 2-input AND gate. Assuming 'SS' exists, the total delay, according to the delay characteristics of the components used in the test circuit, is --- One 2-input AND gate delay (8.8 ns) + One 3-input AND gate delay (4.75 ns) + One 2-input OR

gate delay (12 ns) \approx 25 ns.

The actual circuit of additive/subtractive overflow is shown in the dash-lined box of Fig 5.10. The logic expression $f(A)$ of the circuit is

$$f(A) = ('\phi 2'. SX. 'SS') \oplus ('\phi 2'. \overline{SC}. SZ) \dots\dots (5.6)$$

where $\overline{SC} = \overline{'SS' \oplus SX}$ (Fig 5.8)

To form $(\overline{'SS' \oplus SX})$ does not need any extra Exclusive OR, since this signal already exists (for multiplicative overflow detection). Only requirement is to invert to form $\overline{'SS' \oplus SX}$.

Therefore implementation of expression (5.6) needs -- One Inverter, two 3-input AND gates, and One 2-input Exclusive OR. The gate counts are less than that would be required to implement the expression (5.5). Assuming 'SS' exists, the delay is --- One Inverter delay (3 ns) + One 3-input AND gate delay (4.75 ns) + One Exclusive OR delay (7 ns) \approx 15 ns. The delay is less than that would be for the expression (5.5).

However, the expression (5.6) can be reduced to the expression (5.5)

$$\begin{aligned} & ('\phi 2'. SX. 'SS') \oplus ('\phi 2'. \overline{SC}. SZ) \\ = & '\phi 2'. [(SX. 'SS') \oplus (\overline{SC}. SZ)] \\ = & '\phi 2'. [\overline{SX. 'SS'}. (\overline{SC}. SZ) + (SX. 'SS'). \overline{\overline{SC}. SZ}] \\ = & '\phi 2'. [(\overline{SX} + \overline{'SS'}) \cdot (\overline{SX} \oplus \overline{SS}). SZ + SX. 'SS'. \\ & (SX \oplus 'SS' + \overline{SZ})] \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \phi_2 \cdot [(\overline{SX} + \overline{SS}) (\overline{SX} \cdot \overline{SS} + SX \cdot SS)] \\
&\quad SZ + SX \cdot \overline{SS} (\overline{SX} \cdot \overline{SS} + SX \cdot SS + \overline{SZ})] \\
&= \phi_2 \cdot [\overline{SX} \cdot \overline{SS} \cdot SZ + SX \cdot SS \cdot \overline{SZ}].
\end{aligned}$$

In addition/subtraction ' ϕ_2 ' is '0'. therefore the output from the multiplicative overflow detector is '0'. The output from the OR gate (46,13,13,11) gives the information of additive/subtractive overflow ('1' indicates overflow).

5.4(c) Delay in Multiplicative Overflow Detection

Multiplicative overflow detection needs two processes (i) detection of incorrect sign of the result and (ii) detection whether the product is outside the range of system (using group technique) -

(i) The detection of incorrect sign of the product involves in detection of the sign of the result, 'SZ'.

Delay in finding 'SZ' is (from Fig 5.8)

$$D_{SZ} = 2 T_3 + 3 T_{XOR} + T_I + T_{AND} + T_{MUX} \dots\dots (5.7)$$

(Of 2 T_3 , one T_3 is needed to form product term)

where T_3 = the access time of (256x4) PROM.

T_{XOR} = the delay in the Exclusive OR.

T_I = the delay in the Inverter.

T_{AND} = the delay in 2-input AND gate.

T_{MUX} = the delay in 2:1 multiplexer.

For the components used in the circuit in Fig 5.8

$$T_3 = 70 \text{ ns} ; T_{XOR} = 7 \text{ ns}, T_I = 10 \text{ ns} ; T_{AND} = 8.8 \text{ ns}$$

$$T_{MUX} = 20 \text{ ns. Therefore}$$

$$D_{SZ} = 140 + 21 + 10 + 8.8 + 20 \approx 200 \text{ ns.}$$

From Fig 5.10 (circuit in the solid-lined Box), the delay in detecting incorrect sign, D_{IS} is given by

$$D_{IS} = D_{SZ} + T_{3AND} + T_{XOR} + T_{OR} \quad \dots\dots (5.7a)$$

where T_{3AND} = the delay in 3-input AND gate.

T_{OR} = the delay in OR gate.

(Since delay in forming 'SC' ($2 T_{XOR}$) is less than the delay in detecting 'SZ', delay in forming 'SC' has been omitted.)

$$T_{OR} = 14 \text{ ns} \quad (\text{for the OR-gate used in the circuit 5.10})$$

Therefore

$$D_{IS} = 200 + 7 + 8.8 + 14 \approx 230 \text{ ns} \quad \dots\dots (5.7b)$$

(ii) Delay in overflow detection by 'grouping technique' D_{GT} is given by (from Fig 5.10)

$$D_{GT} = T_3 + T_{ADD} + 4 T_{OR} + 2 T_{AND} \quad \dots\dots (5.7c)$$

where T_{ADD} = the delay in adding 4 bits. For the adder used in Fig 5.10, $T_{ADD} = 25 \text{ ns}$. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} D &= 70 + 25 + 4 \times 14 + 2 \times 8.8 \\ &\approx 169 \text{ ns} \quad \dots\dots (5.7d) \end{aligned}$$

From (5.7b) and (5.7d), it is seen that the overflow detection by 'group technique' is faster than by 'incorrect sign detection' technique. This is due to the fact that the sign detection is not needed for the formation of group number. The (5.7a) gives the actual expression for delay in multiplicative overflow in the present system.

5.4(d) Delay in additive/subtractive overflow detection

Delay in additive/subtractive overflow detection D_{ADD} is given by (from Fig 5.10)

$$\begin{aligned} D_{ADD} &= D_{SZ} + T_{XOR} + 2 T_{OR} \quad \dots\dots (5.7e) \\ &= 200 + 7 + 2 \times 14 \\ &= 235 \text{ ns} \quad (\text{for the components used in} \\ &\quad \quad \quad \text{Fig 5.10}) \end{aligned}$$

5.5 Integer Division

Integer division needs a first approximation of the quotient and then proceeds by successive approximations each of which is a number equal to the preceding approximation divided by 2. The first approximation is formed from the information of the group number, $g(X)$ of the dividend and the group number, $g(Y)$ of the divisor according to the Table 5.14. (The first approximation and the successive approximations are positive numbers.)

Table 5.14

Table of first approximation of quotient

Condition	First Approximation
If $g(X) \geq g(Y)$	$2^{g(X) - g(Y)}$
If $g(X) < g(Y)$	Zero

(Division of zero or by zero is aborted.)

Table 5.15 shows the possible values of first approximations (in power of 2) and their residue forms in mod-16 and mod-15.

Table 5.15
Possible values of first approximations

First Approximation	First Approximation in residue form	
	mod-16	mod-15
2^7	0	8
2^6	0	4
2^5	0	2
2^4	0	1
2^3	8	8
2^2	4	4
2^1	2	2
2^0	1	1
0	0	0

Since the successive approximation is the number equal to the preceding number divided by 2, Table 5.15 also gives the possible values of successive approximation (except 2^7).

For the successive approximations, the number to be divided by 2 is supplied by the X-data bus (Fig 5.11). However, all eight bits need not be multiplexed. From the Table 5.15, it is clear that the residue in mod-16 is either zero or equal to the residue in mod-15. Therefore only six bits of information -- 4 bits of the residue in mod-15, 1 bit of zero-nonzero information of the residue in mod-16 and one extra bit signifying 'division by 2', are required. The requirement of 'division by 2' is communicated by the ' ϕ_3 ' bit which is connected to the input pin 13 of the multiplexer (34) and to the selection pin 1 of the multiplexer (34) and (35).

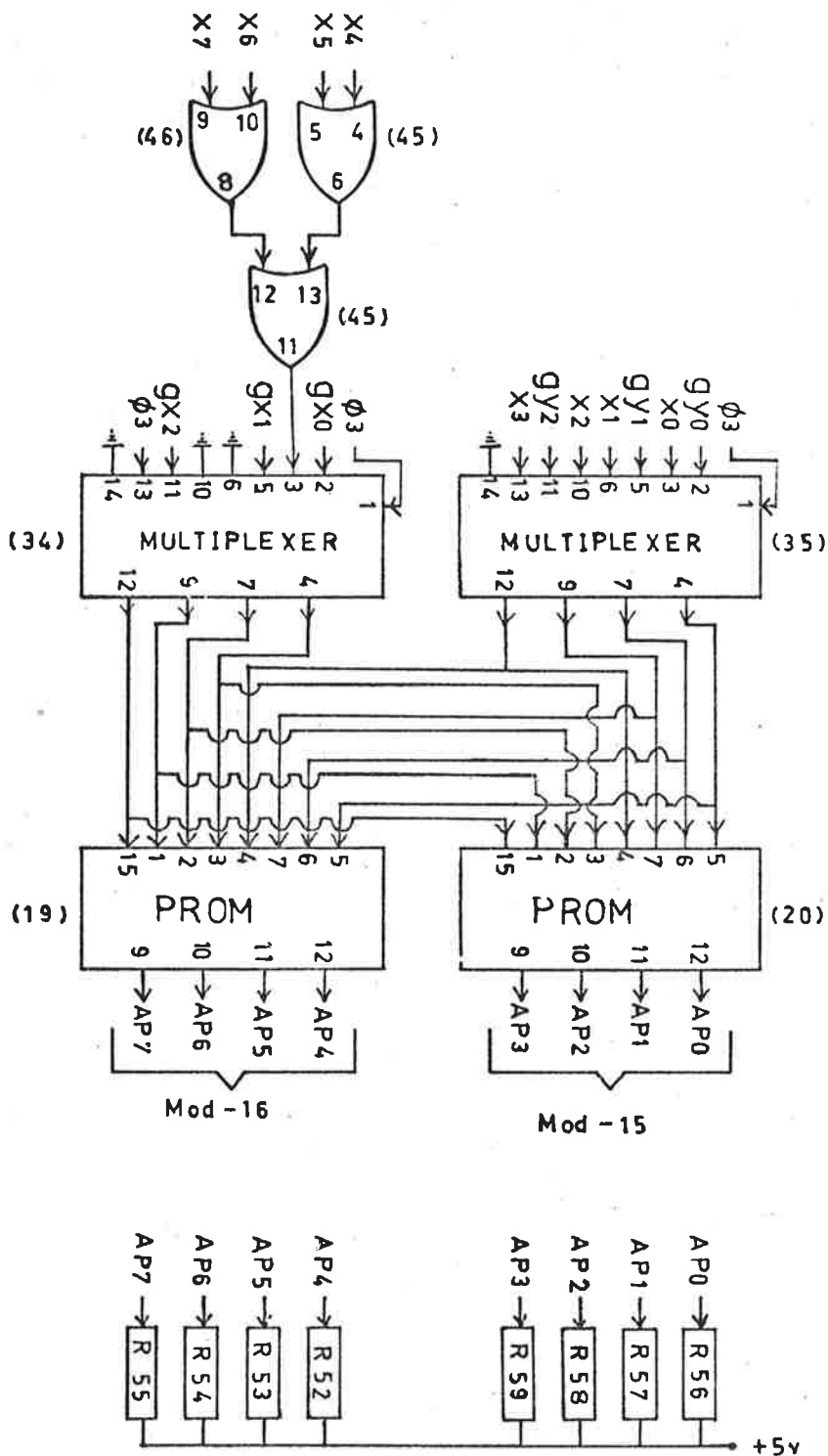


Fig. 5.11 Circuit for first approximation and successive approximations of quotient for the 16-15 residue system.

When ' ϕ_3 ' goes high, four bits of the residue (X_3, X_2, X_1, X_0) in mod-15, one bit of zero/nonzero information of the residue (X_7, X_6, X_5, X_4) in mod-16 and ' ϕ_3 ' (= '1') are selected to the output of the multiplexers (2:1 multiplexer). When ' ϕ_3 ' goes low the group number of X , (gX_0, gX_1, gX_2) and the group number of Y (gY_0, gY_1, gY_2) are selected instead. (The group number of X and Y are generated by the PROMs (16) and (18) respectively of the circuit in Fig 5.10.)

The multiplexed outputs are fed to the PROMs (19) and (20) which form two look up tables of the first approximation and successive approximations. One table (Table 5.16(a)) gives the residue in mod-16 and the other table (Table 5.16 (b)) gives the residue in mod-15. Locations (00H to 07H), (10H to 17H), (20H to 27H), (70 H to 77 H) altogether 64 locations are allotted for first approximations and locations (80 H to 9F) altogether 32 locations are allotted for successive approximations.

The integer division is an iterative process; and it can be shown with the flow chart of Fig 5.12.

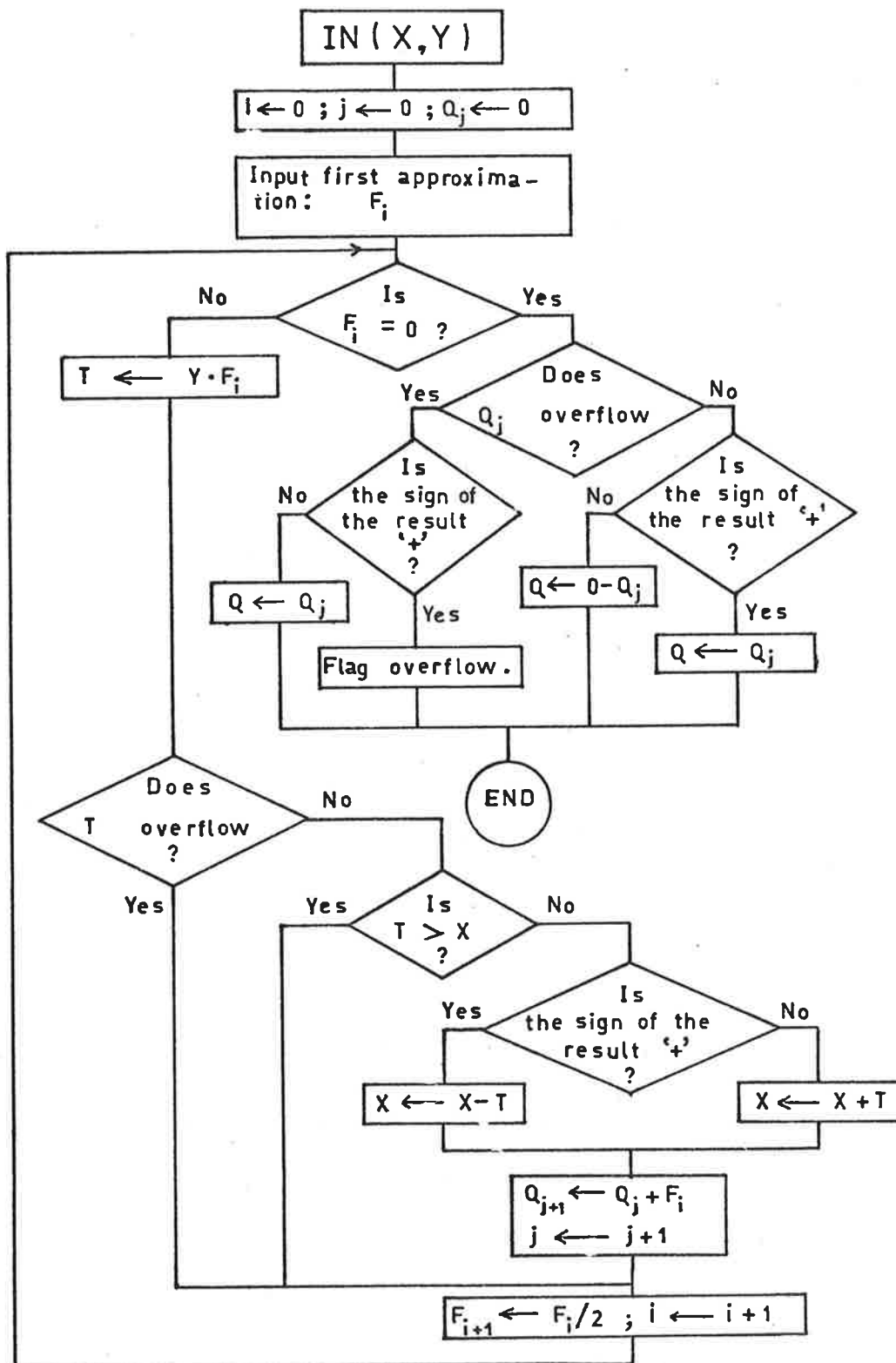


Fig. 5.12 Process of integer division in the 16-15 residue system .

Iterative processes continue such that the iterative values of X continue to decrease. Therefore T (in Fig 5.12) is added or subtracted from the iterative values of X depending on the sign of the result (Exclusive OR of the signs of X and Y i.e. $SX \oplus SY$). From Table 5.17, it is obvious that T is added if the sign of the result is negative; otherwise T is subtracted. (The first approximations and the successive approximations are positive.)

Table 5.17

Table to decide whether T is to be added or subtracted

SY	SX	Sign of T	Sign of the result $SX \oplus SY$	Operation
0	0	0	0	Subtraction
0	1	0	1	Addition
1	0	1	1	Addition
1	1	1	0	Subtraction

(The sign of T follows SY .)

The quotient generated is in positive form. Therefore it is converted to negative form (subtracting from zero), if the sign of the result is negative.

The division of $M/2$ (120 in this case) by -1 presents a problem. $M/2$ is a negative number and there is no 'counterpart' positive $M/2$. The sign of the result of above division is positive; whereas quotient ($M/2$) is negative.

However, this problem can be solved by software. When the positive approximations are added successively, the last addition will show overflow when $M/2$ is divided by ± 1 . Therefore when sign of the result is positive and overflow occurs, then overflow signal is to be flagged. If the sign of the result is negative and overflow occurs, the quotient is $M/2$. (The software listings have been shown in Appendix-6; AP6(a).)

5.5(a) Delay in finding approximations

Delay in finding the first approximation, D_{FA} is given by (Fig 5.11)

$$\begin{aligned} D_{FA} &= \text{Delay in finding the group number of } X \text{ and } Y \\ &+ 1 \text{ multiplexers delay (Fig 5.11)} \\ &+ 1 \text{ PROM delay (Fig 5.11)} \\ &= 1 \text{ PROM delay (Fig 5.10)} \\ &+ 1 \text{ multiplexer delay} + 1 \text{ PROM delay.} \end{aligned}$$

For the components used for the test circuit,

$$D_{FA} = 70 \text{ ns} + 17 \text{ ns} + 70 \text{ ns} = 157 \text{ ns} \quad \dots \dots (5.8)$$

Delay in finding a successive approximation D_{SA} is given by (from Fig 5.11)

$$\begin{aligned} D_{SA} &= 2 \text{ OR gate delay} \\ &+ 1 \text{ multiplexer delay} + 1 \text{ PROM delay.} \\ &= 2 \times 14 + 17 + 70 = 115 \text{ ns} \end{aligned}$$

(for the components used in the circuit).

5.6 Floating Point Arithmetic

In this case the base of the exponent is chosen to be $\beta = (M/2)^{1/2} = (120)^{1/2} \approx 11$. A number X is expressed as

$$X = A.11^n \quad \dots\dots (5.9)$$

where A is the mantissa and n is the exponent, the range of which is from 0 to +119 and from -1 to -120.

In floating point operations each mantissa is separated into two terms such that

$$A = a_2.11 + a_1 \quad \dots\dots (5.9a)$$

a_2 and a_1 are the co-efficients of 1-power and 0-power of 11 respectively and the range is from 0 to 10. The steps to find the co-efficients are

$$(i) \quad a_2 = \left[\frac{A}{11} \right] \quad (\text{Integer Division})$$

$$(ii) \quad a_1 = A - a_2.11$$

During normalisation a co-efficient a_i is needed to be rounded. The steps that are required for rounding are

$$(i) \quad \text{Find } T = \left[\frac{a_{i-1} \pm 5}{11} \right]$$

(If a_{i-1} is negative (-5) is added; otherwise +5)

$$(ii) \quad \text{Find the rounded } a_i = a_i + T$$

$$\left(\left[\frac{11}{2} \right] = 5 \right)$$

Floating point arithmetic is done by software (Appendix-6(b)) which resides in the PROMs of SDK-80 microcomputer.

5.6(a) Floating Point Addition

The floating point addition can be described with the flow chart of Fig 5.13(a), 5.13(b) and 5.13(c).

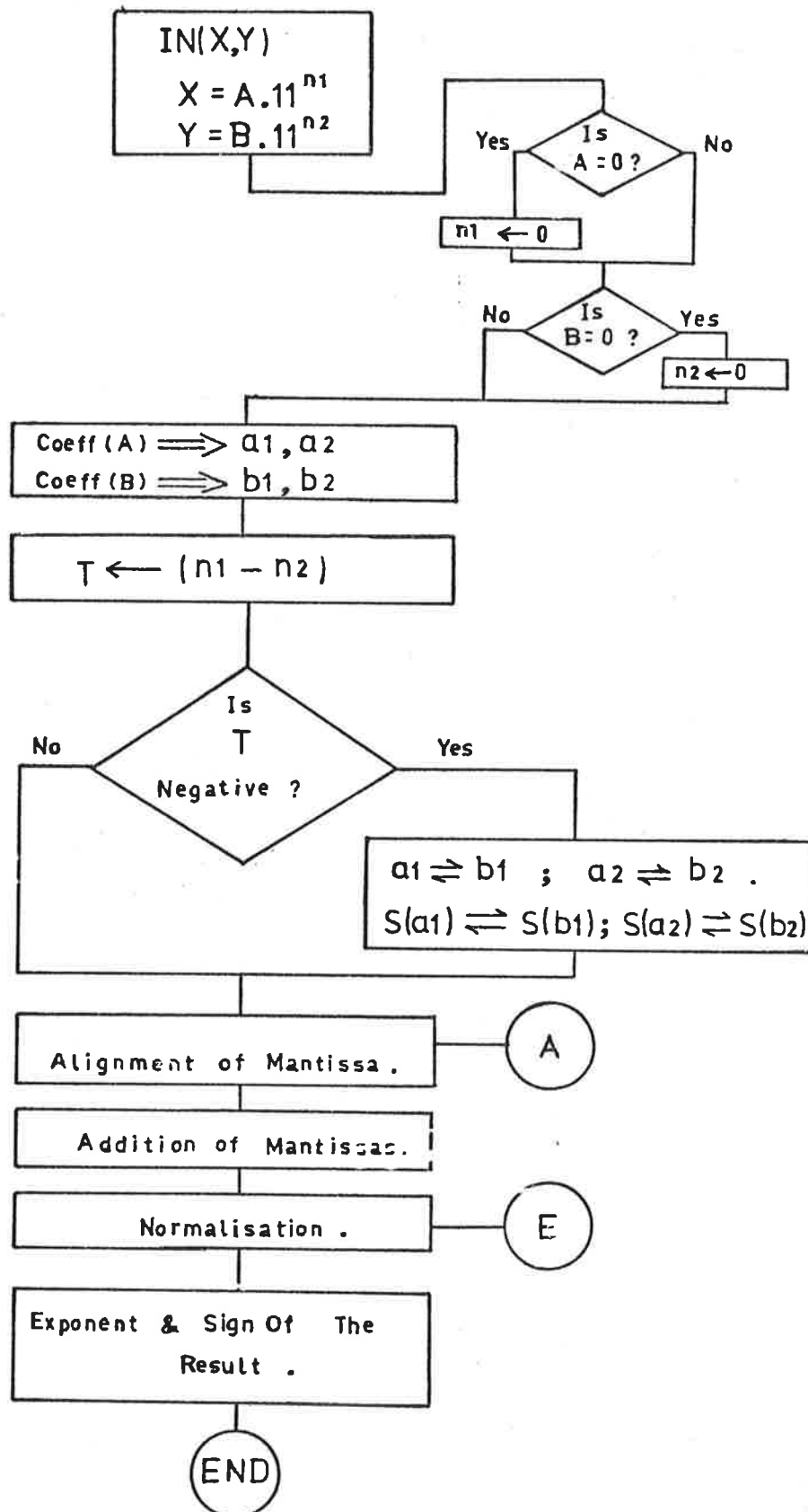


Fig. 5.13(a): Flow Chart Of Floating Point Addition In the 16-15 residue system .

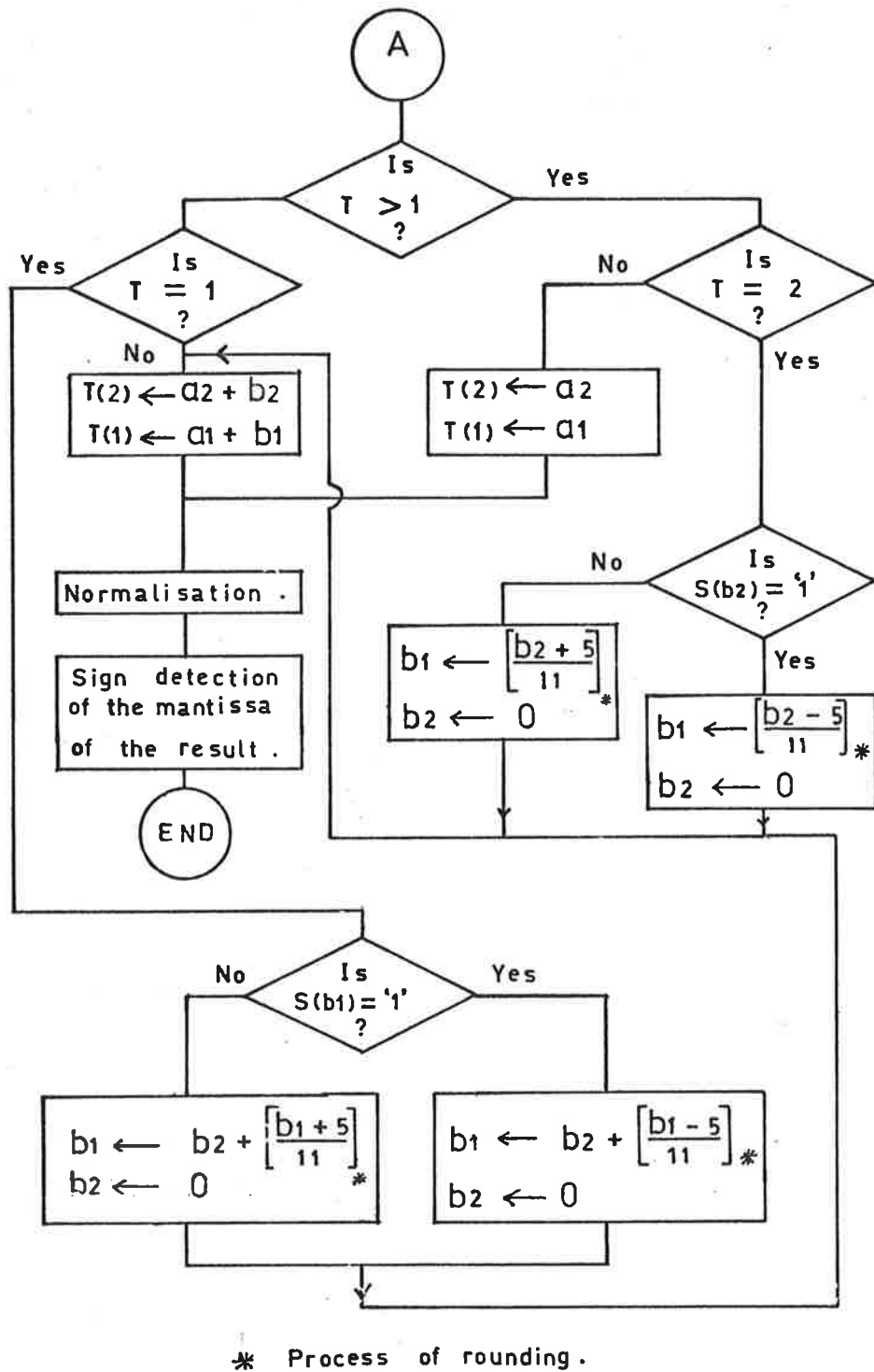


Fig. 5.13(b) Process of alignment and floating point addition in the 16-15 residue system.

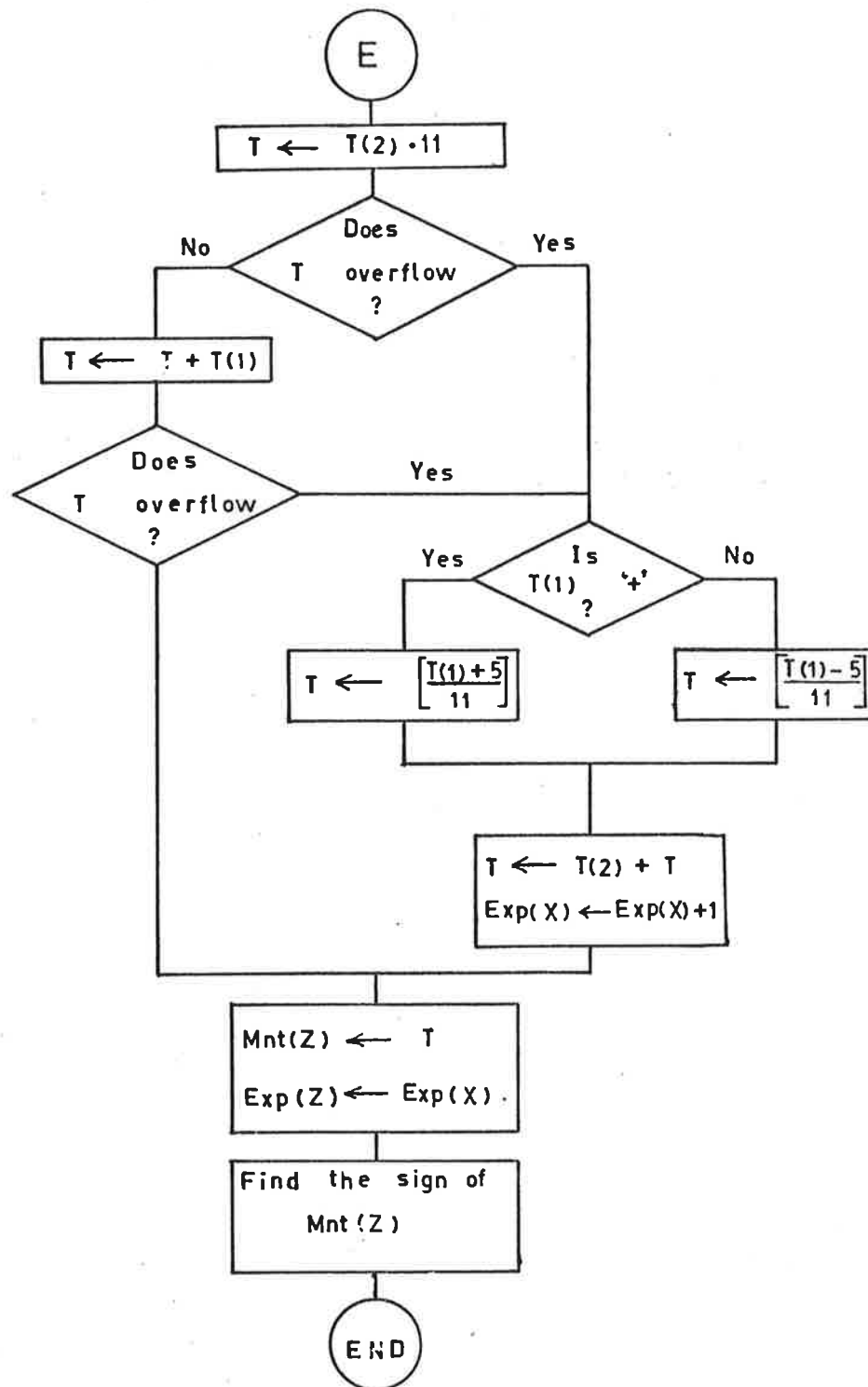


Fig. 5.13(C) Process of normalisation in floating point addition in the 16-15 residue system.

5.6(b) Floating Point Subtraction

After the subtraction of the mantissa of subtrahend from zero, the floating point is same as floating point addition. The flow chart of Fig 5.14 shows the floating point subtraction.

5.6(c) Floating Point Multiplication

The theory behind the floating point multiplication has been given in sections 4.4.3(b) and 4.4.4(b). The floating point multiplication in 16-15 moduli system can be described with the flow chart of Fig 5.15(a), 5.15(b).

To find the exponent of the result, $\text{Exp}(Z)$ is a bit complicated process. The $\text{Exp}(Z)$ can be written as

$$\text{Exp}(Z) = \text{Exp}(X) + \text{Exp}(Y) + g$$

where g is the 'generated exponent' (section 4.4.4 and Fig 5.15(b))

When $\text{Exp}(X)$ and $\text{Exp}(Y)$ are positive, the overflow in $\text{Exp}(X) + \text{Exp}(Y)$ indicates that $\text{Exp}(Z)$ is outside the range. (g is always positive.). When $\text{Exp}(X)$ and $\text{Exp}(Y)$ are negative, $\text{Exp}(X) + \text{Exp}(Y)$ may overflow, however, $\text{Exp}(Z)$ may or may not remain within the range due to the addition of g .

In later case it has been observed that when $\text{Exp}(Z)$ is really within the range, and if $\text{Exp}(X) + \text{Exp}(Y)$ overflows, addition g makes a second overflow such that $\text{Exp}(Z)$ comes within the range.

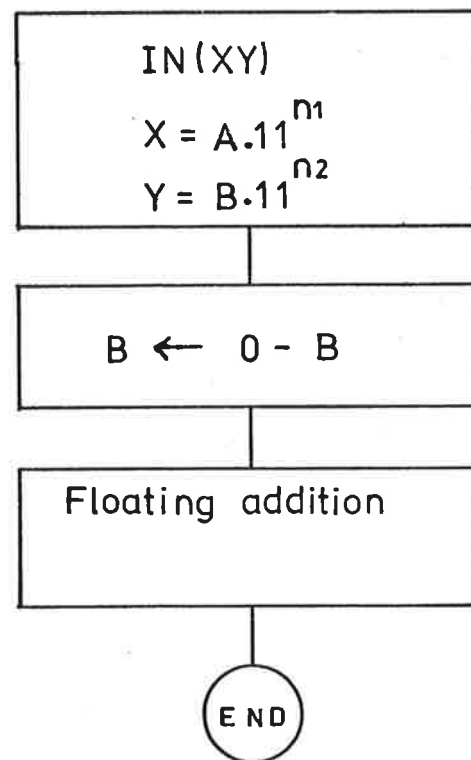


Fig. 5.14 Flow chart of floating point subtraction in the 16-15 residue system .

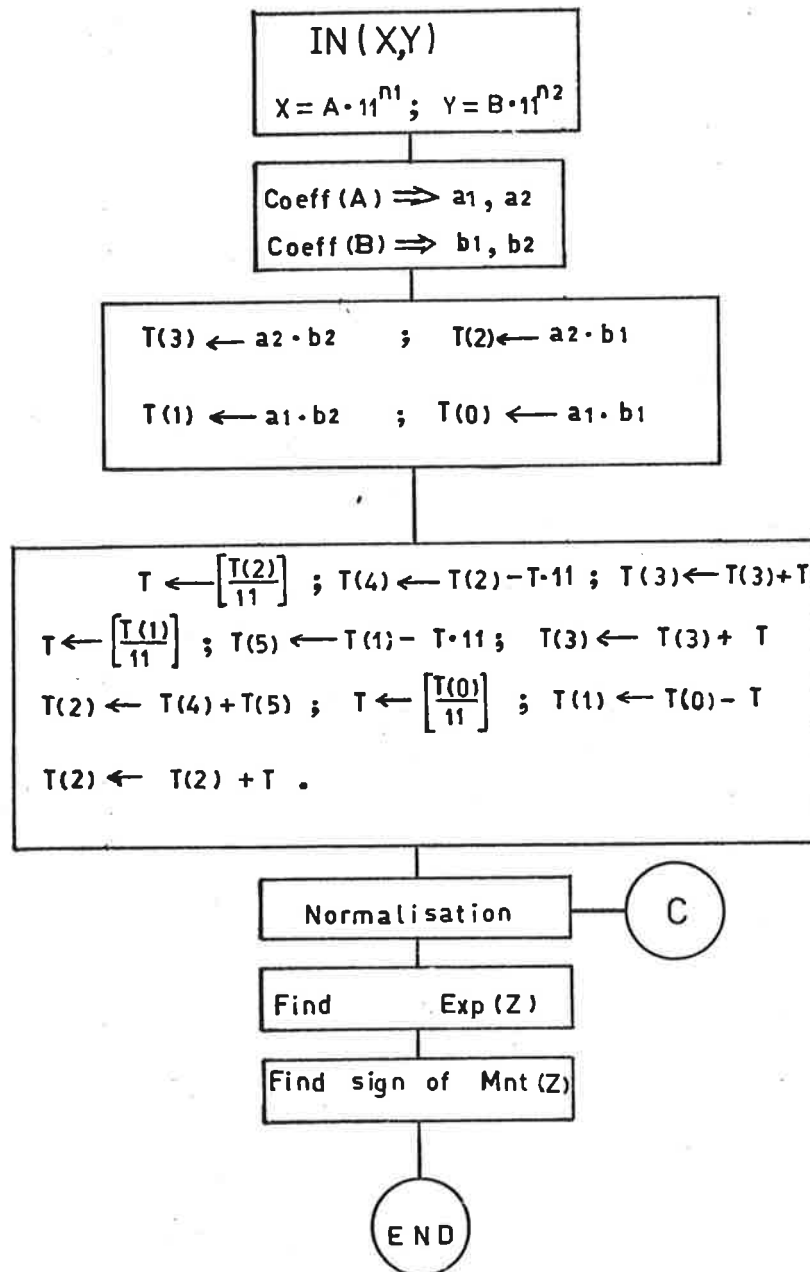


Fig. 5.15(a) Flow chart of floating point multiplication in the 16-15 residue system.

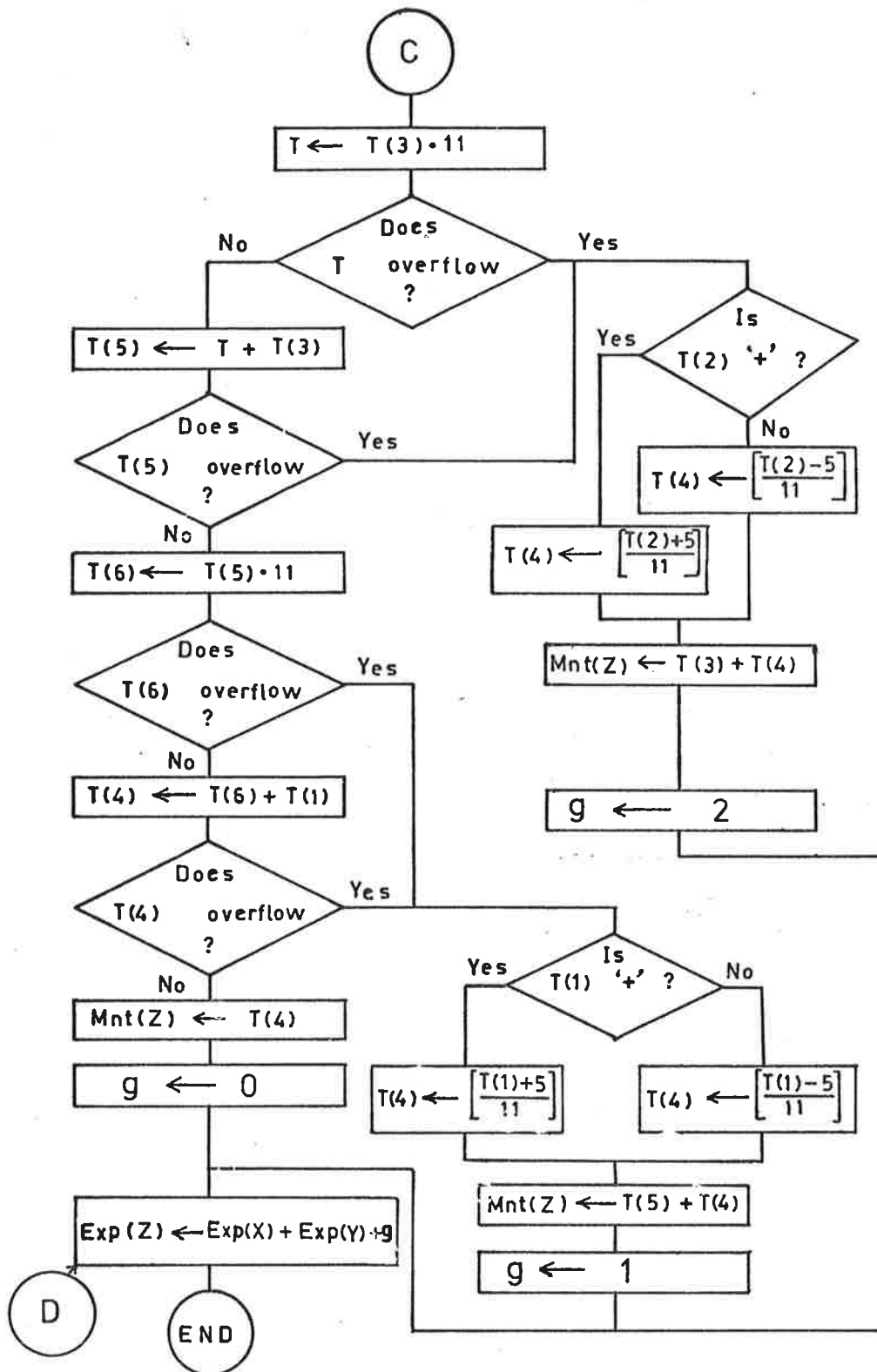


Fig. 5.15(b) Flow chart of normalisation in the 16-15 moduli floating point multiplication.

Therefore if overflow occurs twice or overflow does not occur at all, $\text{Exp}(Z)$ is within the range, otherwise $\text{Exp}(Z)$ is outside the range. The flow chart of Fig 5.15(c) explains how to determine whether $\text{Exp}(Z)$ overflows or not.

5.5(d) Floating Point Division

The flow chart of Fig 5.16(a) shows the floating point division. (The division of zero or by zero is aborted.)

The mantissa and exponent of $\frac{1}{B}$ are generated with two look up tables; one is for the mantissa of $\frac{1}{B}$ and the other for the exponent of $\frac{1}{B}$.

The mantissa of the result, $\text{Mnt}(Z)$ is found by floating point multiplication of the mantissa of X and that of $\frac{1}{B}$. This multiplication results in a 'generated exponent', g .

The calculation of the exponent of floating point division is complicated too.

$$\text{Exp}(Z) = [\text{Exp}(X) - \text{Exp}(Y)] + [g + EE] \quad (\text{Fig 5.16(a)})$$

$\text{Exp}(X) - \text{Exp}(Y)$ may overflow; however, $\text{Exp}(Z)$ may remain within the range due to addition of the term $[g+EE]$ which may be positive or negative and does not overflow.

$$(g = 0 \text{ or } 1 \text{ or } 2 \quad \text{and} \quad EE = 0 \text{ or } -1 \text{ or } -2 \text{ or } -3)$$

Applying the same reasonings as given in determining the overflow condition of $\text{Exp}(Z)$ in case of floating multiplication, the overflow condition of $\text{Exp}(Z)$ in case of floating point division can be shown with the flow chart of Fig 5.16(b).

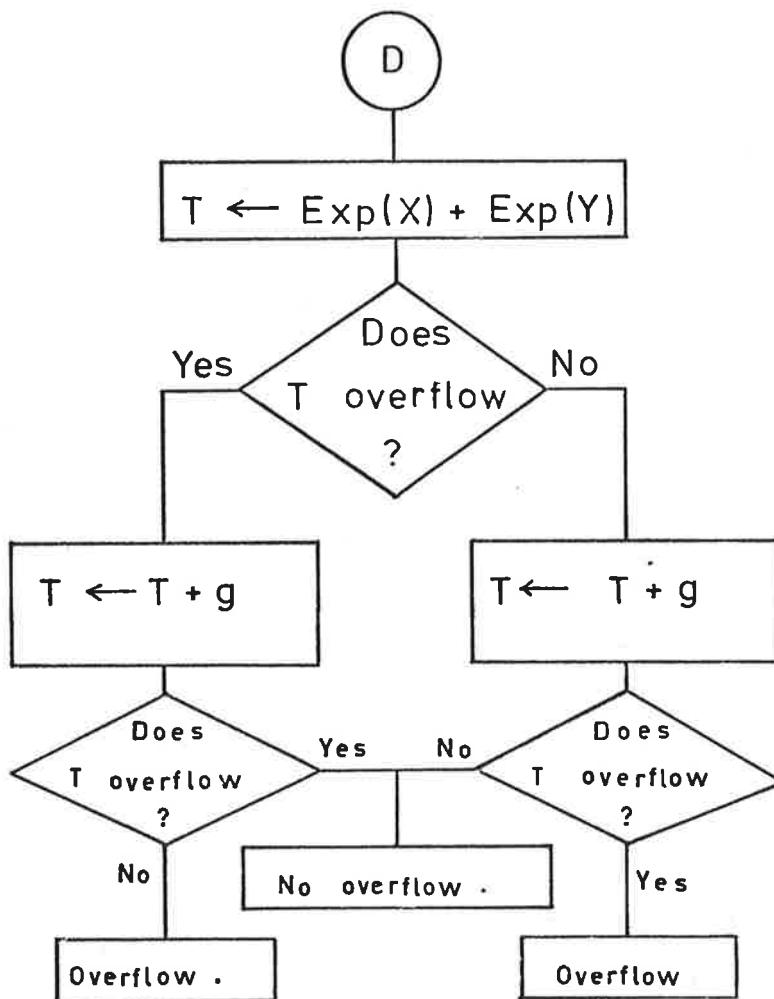


Fig. 5.15(c) Overflow detection of $\text{Exp}(Z)$ in floating point multiplication in the 16-15 residue system .

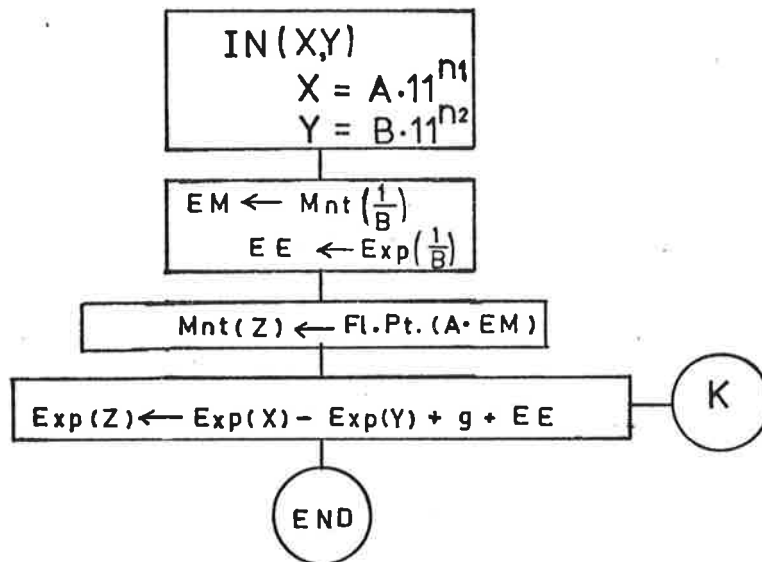


Fig. 5.16(a) Flow chart of floating point division in the 16-15 residue system.

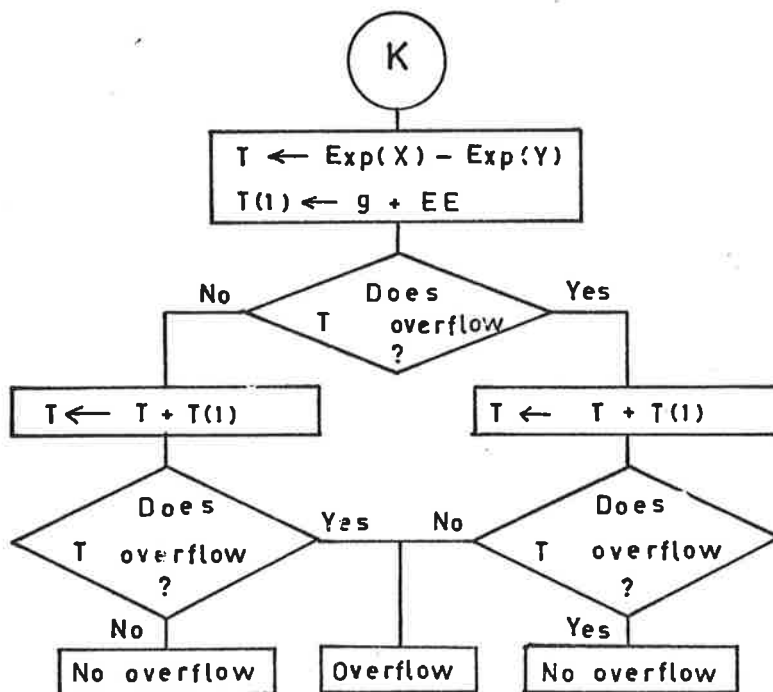


Fig. 5.16(b) Overflow detection of $Exp(Z)$ in floating point division in the 16-15 residue system.

5.6(e) Generation of mantissa and exponent of $\frac{1}{B}$

For a base of exponent β , a general method to calculate the mantissa and exponent of $\frac{1}{B}$ has been described in Appendix -2. Applying that method the values of mantissa and exponent of $\frac{1}{B}$ for the base of exponent $\beta=11$ (eleven) have been tabulated in decimal and residue forms shown in Appendix-3.

The mantissa and exponent of $\frac{1}{B}$ in residue form are stored in PROMs (Fig 5.17). The value B is fed to the PROM (17), (21) and (23) through the X-data bus and PROM (17) and (21) output the mantissa in mod-16 and mod-15 respectively, while the PROM (23) gives the value of exponent.

The exponent of $\frac{1}{B}$ may be of any value of -1, -2 and -3. The residue form of those values are shown in Table 5.19

Table 5.19

Residue form of the exponent of $\frac{1}{B}$

Exponent in Decimal form	Exponent in Residue form			
	In Hex		In Binary	
	mod-16	mod-15	mod-16	mod-15
-1	F	E	1111	1110
-2	E	D	1110	1101
-3	D	C	1101	1100

From Table 5.19 it is seen that two most significant bits of the residues (in binary) in mod-16 and mod-15 are same and constant (11). Therefore in the formation of a look up table, storing of these two bits is not necessary; only two least

significant bits of each residue are required. Therefore only one (256x4) PROM is needed.

Two M.S.Bs are generated at the output circuit of the RAU and this will be discussed in section 5.7.

The PROM(23) (Fig 5.17) forms the look up table for the generation of the two least significant bits of each residue of the exponent of $\frac{1}{B}$.

The Tables 5.20(a), 5.20(b) and 5.20(c) show the contents of the PROMs (17), (21) and (23) respectively.

5.6(f) Delay in finding the mantissa and exponent of $\frac{1}{B}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Delay} &= 1 \text{ PROM delay} \quad (\text{from Fig 5.17}) \\ &= 70 \text{ ns} \quad (\text{for PROM, Intel 3601}). \end{aligned}$$

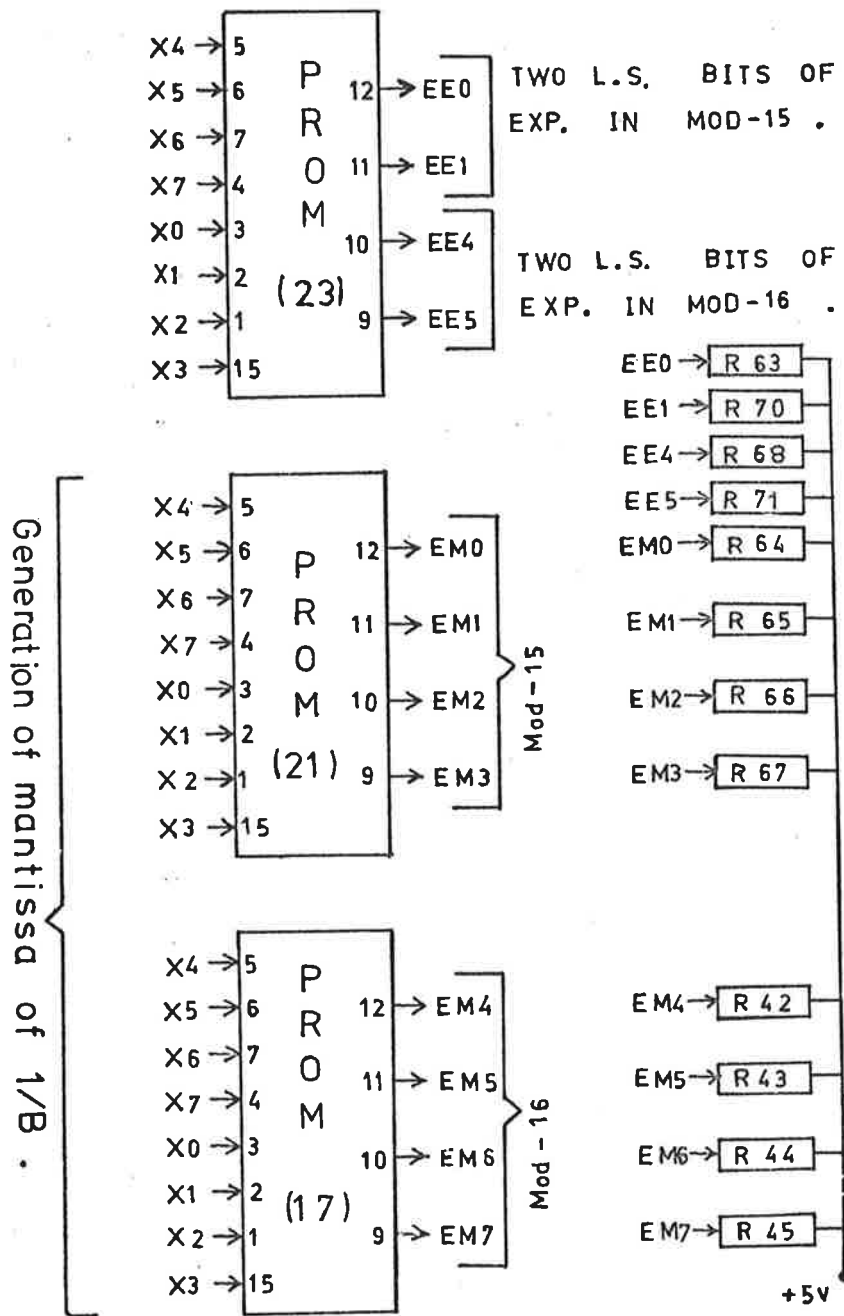


Fig. 5.17 Circuit for approximate floating point number of $1/B$ in the 16-15 residue system.

Table 5.20(a)

Look up table for the mantissa of $\frac{1}{B}$
in mod-16

Each hex digit represents the residue of B in
mod-16. (Lower 4 address bits)

Each
hex digit
represents
the residue
of Y in
mod-15.
(Higher
4 address
bits).

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
0	0	7	4	2	A	E	1	3	5	D	F	2	6	E	C	9
1	3	B	1	2	2	9	E	1	3	5	D	F	2	6	D	B
2	A	E	D	A	0	1	9	E	1	3	5	C	E	1	5	C
3	C	8	A	8	1	F	0	9	E	1	3	5	C	E	1	5
4	5	B	7	6	E	5	6	0	8	D	1	3	5	4	2	F
5	1	4	B	6	3	8	4	B	F	8	D	0	3	4	C	E
6	E	0	4	A	5	F	4	3	9	E	7	D	0	3	4	C
7	C	E	0	4	A	4	D	1	1	6	D	7	C	0	2	4
8	4	C	E	0	4	9	3	A	F	F	3	C	6	C	0	2
9	2	4	C	D	0	3	9	2	7	D	C	1	B	6	C	0
A	F	2	4	C	D	0	3	8	1	5	C	8	D	A	5	C
B	B	F	2	4	B	D	F	3	8	0	A	B	2	A	9	5
C	4	B	F	2	4	B	D	F	2	7	0	1	F	8	6	8
D	6	4	B	F	2	4	B	D	F	2	7	F	0	6	3	2
E	D	5	3	A	E	1	3	B	D	F	2	7	E	E	F	5
F	0	7	4	2	A	E	1	3	5	D	F	2	6	E	C	9

Table 5.20(b)

Look up table for the mantissa of $\frac{1}{B}$
in mod-15

Each hex digit represents the residue of B in
mod-16. (Lower 4 address bits)

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
0	0	1	1	0	8	C	0	2	4	D	0	3	7	0	E	E
1	8	B	A	E	0	7	C	0	2	4	D	0	3	7	E	D
2	C	3	1	3	C	E	7	C	0	2	4	C	E	2	6	D
3	D	A	E	A	9	B	D	7	C	0	2	4	C	E	2	6
4	6	C	9	A	0	4	4	D	6	B	0	2	4	3	1	D
5	2	5	C	8	7	9	3	7	C	6	B	E	2	3	C	E
6	E	1	5	B	7	3	5	2	5	B	5	B	E	2	3	C
7	C	E	1	5	B	6	1	2	0	2	A	5	A	E	1	3
8	3	C	E	1	5	A	5	D	0	D	E	9	4	A	E	1
9	1	3	C	D	1	4	A	4	A	D	A	C	8	4	A	E
A	D	1	3	C	D	1	4	9	3	8	C	6	8	7	3	A
B	9	D	1	3	B	D	0	4	9	2	B	B	0	5	6	3
C	2	9	D	1	3	B	D	0	3	8	2	4	6	5	1	5
D	3	2	9	D	1	5	B	D	0	3	8	1	3	C	E	C
E	7	2	1	8	C	0	2	B	D	0	3	8	0	1	5	4
F	0	1	1	0	8	C	0	2	4	D	0	3	7	0	E	E

Each
hex digit
represents
the residue
of Y in
mod-15.
(Higher
4 address
bits).

Table 5.20(c)

Look up table for two least significant bits of each residue (in mod-15 and mod-16) of $\frac{1}{B}$

Each hex digit represents the residue of B in mod-16. (Lower 4 address bits)

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
0	0	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
1	4	E	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
2	4	4	9	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
3	4	4	4	9	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
4	4	4	4	4	9	9	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
5	4	4	4	4	4	9	9	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
6	4	4	4	4	4	4	9	9	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
7	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	9	9	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
8	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	9	9	4	4	4	4	4	4
9	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	9	9	4	4	4	4	4
A	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	9	9	4	4	4	4
B	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	9	9	4	4	4
C	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	9	4	4
D	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	9	4
E	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	E
F	0	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4

Each hex digit represents the residue of Y in mod-15. (Higher 4 address bits).

5.6.1 Error in Floating Point Addition/ Subtraction and Multiplication

For $\beta = 11$, $\lceil \beta/2 \rceil = 5$. The highest positive number for the system under consideration is +119; and the highest negative number is -120.

5.6.1(a) Error in Floating Point Addition/ Subtraction

From (4.20), the maximum relative error for positive numbers is

$$(i) \quad \text{Max } (e) = \frac{\lceil \beta/2 \rceil}{R} = \frac{5}{119} = .042$$

The maximum relative error for negative numbers is

$$(ii) \quad \text{Max } (e) = \frac{5}{120} \approx .042$$

5.6.1(b) Error in Floating Point Multiplication

From (4.21), the maximum relative error for positive numbers is

$$\begin{aligned} \left(U(e_0) \right)_{\max} &= \frac{2 \cdot \left(\lceil \beta/2 \rceil \right)^2 + 3 \cdot \lceil \beta/2 \rceil}{R} \\ &= \frac{2 \cdot 25 + 3 \cdot 5}{119} = \frac{65}{119} \approx .55 \end{aligned}$$

The maximum relative error for negative numbers is

$$\left(U(e_0) \right)_{\max} = \frac{65}{120} = .54$$

5.7 Output Circuit of the RAU

The outputs from the RAU are the results of addition, subtraction, multiplication, comparison, approximate quotient for integer division, and mantissa and exponent of $\frac{1}{B}$ for floating division.

The sign of the result of addition, subtraction and multiplication, overflow signal and the Exclusive OR of the sign of the divisor and dividend are connected to the pins 4, 5 and 6 respectively of the RAU board (Fig 5.8 and 5.10) and are eventually connected to the C-port (lower part - C0, C1, C2) of the SDK-80 microcomputer (Fig 5.4).

The result of addition, subtraction, multiplication, comparison, approximate quotient, and the mantissa and exponent of $\frac{1}{B}$ are multiplexed by three least significant bits of the operation codes (Fig 5.18).

The pin 2 of the multiplexers (24), (25), (28) and (29) are connected to +5V through 1.8 K resistors to generate two most significant bits for each residue of exponent of $\frac{1}{B}$.

The pin 4 of the multiplexers (24), (25), (26), (27) and (28) are connected to ground which generates zeros in the 5 MSB positions of the comparison signals; only the three least significant bits give the information of comparison.

Table 5.21 shows the states of the selection pins and the selected inputs.

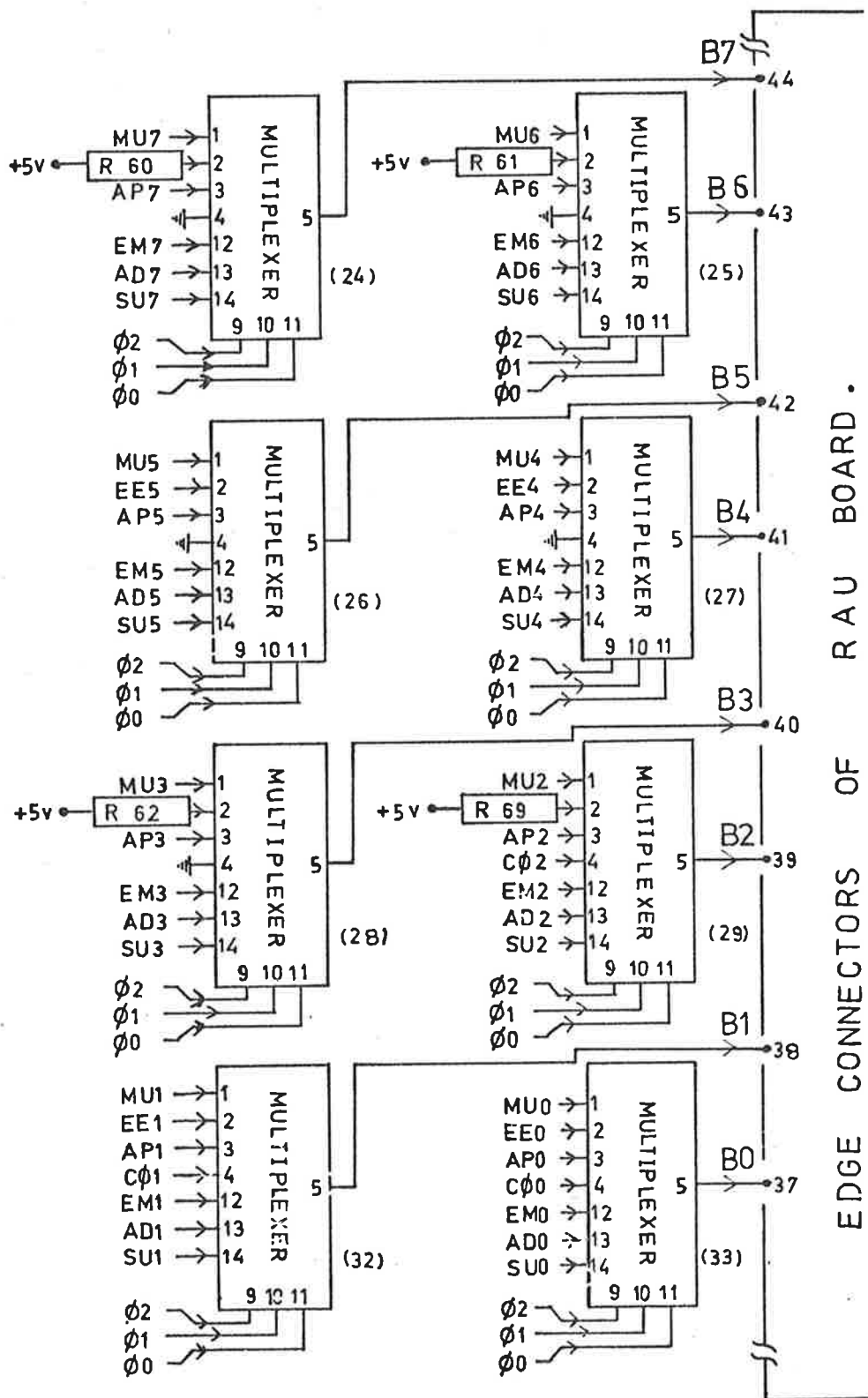


Fig. 5.18 Output circuit of the RAU .

Table 5.21

States of selection pins and selected inputs

States of selection pins ϕ_2, ϕ_1, ϕ_0 (3 bits of op. code)	Selected inputs
1 1 0	Addition
1 0 1	Subtraction
0 1 1	Multiplication
0 0 1	Approximate quotient
0 0 0	Comparison
1 1 1	Mantissa of $\frac{1}{B}$
0 1 0	Exponent of $\frac{1}{B}$

The outputs from the multiplexers are connected to the pins 37 through 44 of edge connectors of the RAU board. The outputs are eventually connected to the B-port of SDK-80 microcomputer (Fig 5.4). The most significant 4 bits of the outputs represent the residue in mod-16 and the least significant 4 bits represent the residue in mod-15. In case of comparison, three least significant bits gives the information of the results of comparison.

5.8 Conversion of Residue Numbers to Decimal Numbers

The 16-15 residue system is a three-digit decimal system (the highest positive number is +119). The theory behind the conversion has been described in section 4.5.

Fig 5.19 shows the residue operations required to find one decimal digit (residue form) of a positive number X .

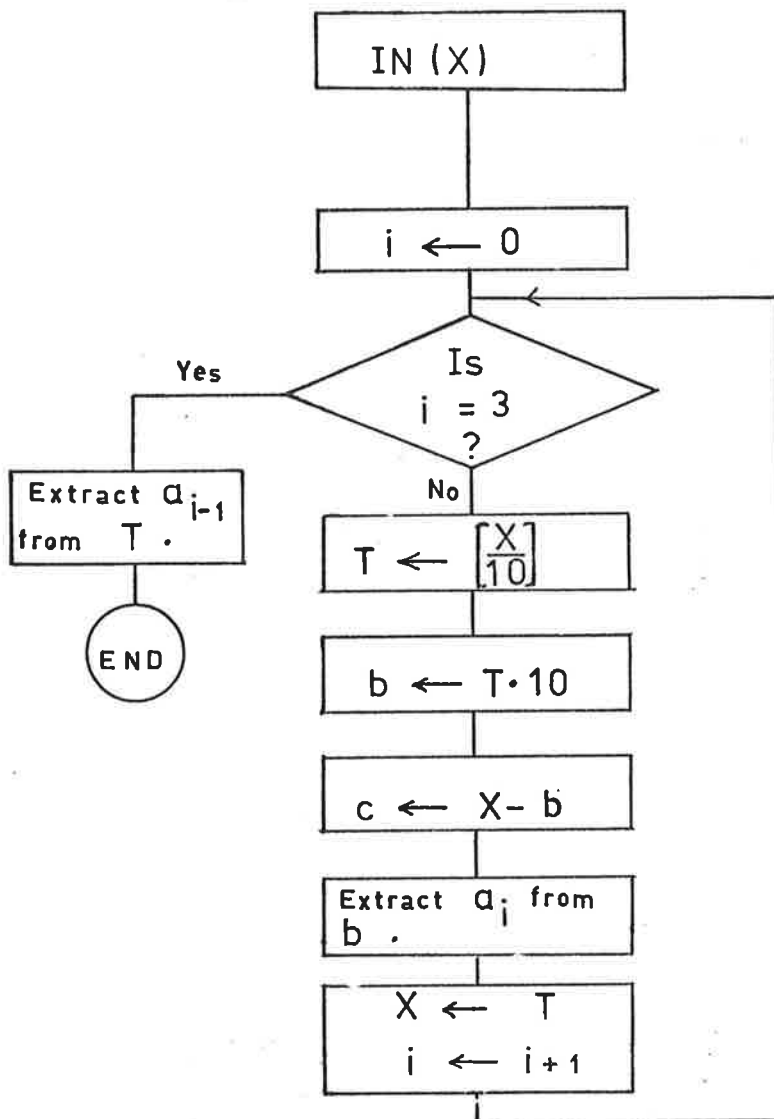


Fig. 5.19 Process of residue to decimal conversion in the 16-15 residue system .

Since 16 and 15 are greater than 10, the residue of the decimal digit in mod-16 is equal to the residue in mod-15 and each residue is equal to the decimal digit. Only one residue is needed to be extracted. Decimal numbers are represented in signed magnitude form. Therefore if X is negative, it is converted to its positive form by residue subtraction from zero or by residue multiplication with -1 .

Successive digits are found by taking T (in Fig 5.19) as a new value of X .

The first decimal digit is extracted by residue multiplication with 01 and second digit by residue multiplication with 10. The residue addition of first and second extracted digits gives two consecutive decimal digits which are stored at an 8-bit-byte location. The third digit (M.S.D) is extracted by residue multiplication with 01 and is stored at another location. The contents of those locations, in proper order, give the decimal number of X .

(The program listings have been given in Appendix -6 (c).)

5.9 How the Residue Arithmetic Computer Works

The RAU together with the SDK-80 microcomputer forms a real time residue arithmetic computer (RAC). The communication between the RAC and outside is thus made through a teletype or VDU using SDK-80 programmes.

With the starting command - G 800↓ (↓ = carriage return), the RAC undergoes the phases of operations shown by the flow chart of Fig. 5.20.

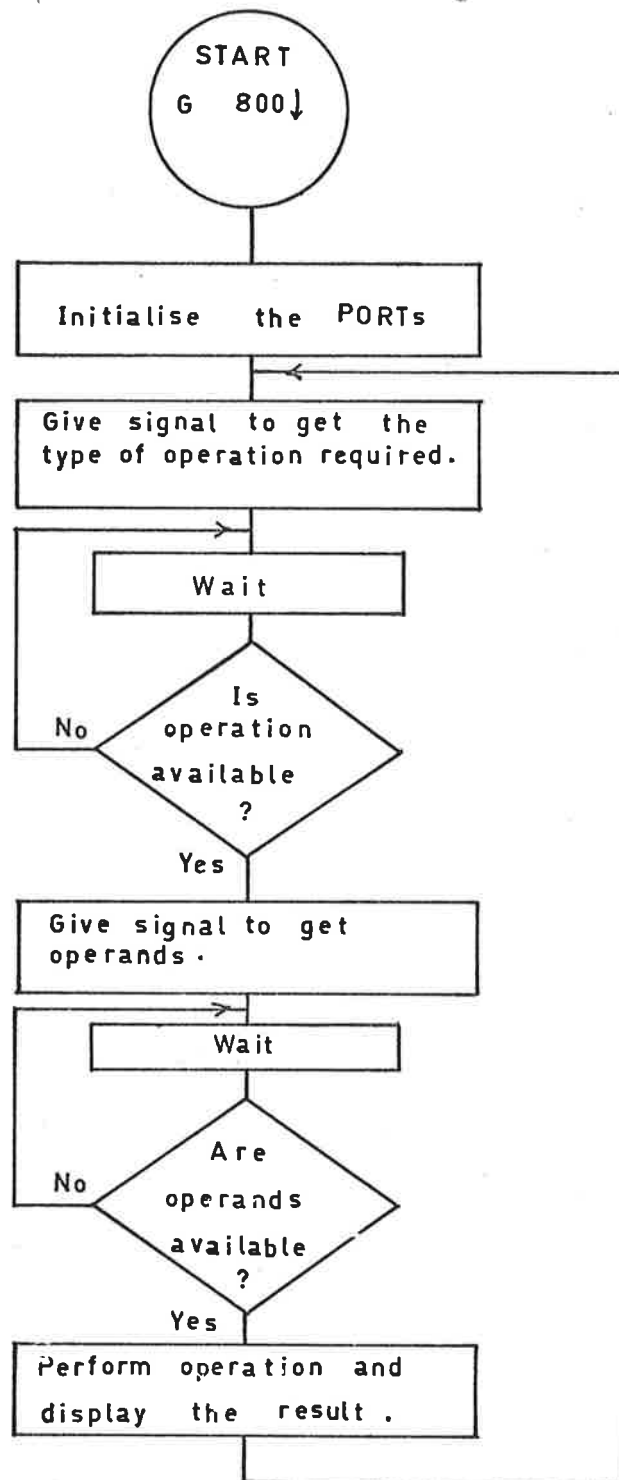


Fig. 5.20 Programme loops of the RAC .

5.10 How to operate the RAC

With the teletype or VDU connected to SDK-80 micro-computer and power on to the SDK-80 and RAU, the SDK-80 is 'reset'. Then the procedures that are followed are

- (i) Key in G 800 ↓

The computer responds with

0 = (for type of operation).

- (ii) Key in any alphabet A through J for the required operation. (See Table 5.4)

If the operation is an integer operation the computer responds with

M = (for first operand X).

- (iii) Key in two hex numbers (residue number).

The computer responds with

M = (for second operand Y).

- (iv) Key in two hex numbers (residue number).

The computer displays the result, first in residue form and second in decimal form with overflow (if any) and sign characters. (The overflow character is '?'.) If operation is a comparison one, the display is > or = or < to indicate X is greater than or equal to or less than Y. The computer signals

0 = (for further operation).

If operation is a floating point one, the computer responds with

M = (for the mantissa of X).

(iii) Key in two hex numbers (residue number).

The computer responds with

E = (for the exponent of X).

(iv) Key in two hex numbers (residue number).

The computer responds with

M = (for the mantissa of Y).

(v) Key in two hex numbers.

The computer responds with

E = (for the exponent of Y).

(vi) Key in two hex numbers.

The computer displays the result as

M = - - E = - - (in residue form)

M = - - - - E = - - - - (in decimal form).

(The dash-line indicates the digits. The results are displays with proper sign and overflow (if any) characters.)

Then the computer responds with

0 = (for further operation).

5.11 Conclusions

The delay in multiplicative overflow detection, according to the proposed technique, is 230 ns; whereas delay, according to conventional fast technique [using PROMs of 70 ns access time (Intel Bipolar PROM, 3601)] would be $4.2 \cdot 70 = 560$ ns. Therefore multiplicative overflow detection is considerably faster, according to the proposed technique. In determination of the first approximation for residue integer division, the proposed technique introduces a delay of 157 ns; whereas conventional fast division technique would need $2.2 \cdot 70 = 280$ ns. Therefore determination of first approximation is also faster in the proposed technique.

Until now there has been no residue computer which performs floating point operations. The introduction of floating point arithmetic in 16-15 moduli system reveals the fact that floating point arithmetic operations are feasible in residue system, and that these operations are cost-effective. The maximum relative errors that are introduced in addition and multiplication [section 5.6.1] are not really significant and quite normal for a single precision machine. Therefore the proposed algorithms on floating point arithmetic have great implication in the residue system.

In the residue-to-decimal conversion process, where the conversion radix is 10 and the moduli are 16 and 15, neither A(X) method nor base extension is applicable. Therefore the proposed technique is the only choice. Moreover there is no reason for not using the proposed technique where

all the integer arithmetic operations exist and more time can be allotted for output translation.

CHAPTER VI

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This concluding chapter presents a comparative study between residue and binary number systems, and puts forward a suggestion on further study on residue number systems.

The bases of comparison are the speed, cost and power consumption in performing the basic operations - multiplication, addition/subtraction including overflow detection.

For the purpose of comparison 16-15 and 16-15-13-11 moduli systems have been considered and the fastest available logic components of both TTL and ECL technology have been chosen when dealing with implementations.

The range of 16-15 moduli system ($16 \times 15 = 240$) is less than 2^8 , however, greater than 2^7 ; likewise the range 16-15-13-11 system ($16 \times 15 \times 13 \times 11 = 34320$) is less than 2^{16} , however, greater than 2^{15} . In this comparison, however, a 16-15 residue system has been compared with an 8-bit binary system; while the 16-15-13-11 residue system has been compared with a 16-bit binary system.

In multiplication the 16-15-13-11 system needs four (256x4) PROMs. The component requirement for multiplicative overflow detection (on the basis of Fig 4.1) has been shown in Table 6.1(a).

In the circuit of Fig 4.1 the generation of the group number of the operand X , $g(X)$ has been shown. The generation of $g(Y)$ needs similar sorts of components as required for $g(X)$. Again for the generation of $g(X)$ the information of $NZ(X)$ is required; and $NZ(X)$ can be formed with one 8 input NAND gate and one inverter with two levels of gate delay. Similar type of components are needed for $NZ(Y)$. The sign detection (by mixed radix conversion) of the product (SZ) needs five (256x4) PROMs. The circuit configuration is similar to the circuit used for SX , except that (256x8) PROM is replaced by a (256x4) PROM.

The requirement when using ECL components is same as that of TTL components, however, since (256x8), (512x8) and (512x4) ECL PROMs are not available, those PROMs are to be built from available (256x4) PROMs. The (256x8) is a PROM with 8-bit address lines and 8-bit data lines. The function of that PROM can be configured by using two (256x4) PROMs. One is used for four least significant data outputs, and other one is used for four most significant data outputs. The (512x8) PROM can be built from two (256x8) PROMs (constructed by above method). The 8-bit address lines are used to select any location of (256x8) PROM and the remaining address bit selects one of two (256x8) PROMs. The outputs from (256x8) PROMs are wire-ORed. Therefore four (256x4) PROMs are needed to construct an equivalent (512x8) PROMs. Construction of a (512x4) PROM needs two (256x4) PROMs. The 8-bit address lines select any location of (256x4) PROM, whilst the remaining address line selects one of two (256x4) PROMs. The outputs of (256x4) PROMs are wire-ORed. Table

6.1(b) shows ECL required for multiplication and its overflow detection in 16-15-13-11 moduli system. In place of a 4-bit full adder (ECL) which is not available, a 4-bit Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU) has been chosen. Since an 8 input ECL NAND is not available, 2 input AND gates are to be used for the generation of $NZ(X)$ and $NZ(Y)$. A total of fourteen 2-input AND gates are needed and the arrangement has three levels of gate delay using currently available components.

In a 16-15 moduli system, multiplication needs two (256x4) PROMs. The components for multiplicative overflow detection can be calculated from the circuits in Fig 5.10 and 5.8. The circuit in Fig 5.8 has been used for sign SZ of the result Z . Table 6.2(a) shows the TTL components required for multiplication and its overflow detection in a 16-15 moduli system.

The ECL components needed are the same as the TTL components, however, since ECL 3-input AND gates are not available, 2-input AND gates are to be used. Therefore for three 3-input AND gates, six 2-input AND gates are substituted. Table 6.2(b) shows the ECL components needed for multiplication and overflow detection in a 16-15 moduli system.

Of the TTL family Schottky TTL [57] is the fastest; therefore Schottky TTL components have been chosen. Of the ECL family [58], ECL-III is the fastest; however, ECL-III has a limited number of functions, therefore ECL-10000 has been chosen for the ECL components. Tables 6.3(a) and 6.3(b) show the characteristics regarding delay, cost and power

consumption of TTL and ECL components respectively.

Table 6.1(a)

TTL components required for multiplication and its overflow detection in a 16-15-13-11 moduli system. (Taking into account of generation of $g(Y)$ and SZ .)

Function	Component Required	Type No.	Number of Components	Number of Packages
Multiplication	(256x4) PROM	82S27	4	4
Overflow Detection: (According to the circuit in Fig 4.1, requirement for generation of $g(Y)$ and sign detection of Z i.e. SZ .)	(256x4) PROM	82S27	14	14
	(256x8) PROM	82S114	2	2
	(512x4) PROM	82S130	4	4
	(512x8) PROM	82S115	4	4
	4-bit Full Adder	SN74S283	6	6
	2:1 Multiplexer	SN74S158	2	2
	2-input Exclusive OR	SN74S86	2	1
	2-input AND	SN74S08	2	1
	2-input OR	SN74S32	3	1
	[8-input NAND Inverter for generation of $NZ(X)$, $NZ(Y)$.]	SN74S30 SN74S04	2 2	2 1

42

(Total package count)

Table 6.1(b)

ECL components required for multiplication and its overflow detection in a 16-15-13-11 moduli system.

Function	Component Required	Type No.	Number of Components	Number of Packages
Multiplication	(256x4) PROM	10149	4	4
Overflow Detection: (According to the circuit in Fig 4.1, the requirement for generation of $g(V)$ and the sign detection of Z i.e. SZ)	(256x4) PROM	10149	42	42
	4-bit Arithmetic Logic Unit	MC 10181	6	6
	2:1 Multiplexer	MC 10173	2	2
	2-input Exclusive OR	MC 10107	2	1
	2-input AND	MC 10104	16	3 (Hex AND)
	2-input OR	MC 10103	3	1

59

(Total package count)

Table 6.2(a)

TTL components required for multiplication and its overflow detection in a 16-15 moduli system.

Function	Component Required	Type No.	Number of Components	Number of Packages of gates
Multiplication (Fig 5.6(c))	(256x4) PROM	82S27	2	2
Overflow Detection: (According to the circuits in Fig 5.8 and 5.10.)	(256x4) PROM	82S27	3	3
	4-bit Full Adder	SN74S283	1	1
	2-input Exclusive OR	SN74S86	5	2
	2-input OR	SN74S32	5	2
	2-input AND	SN74S08	4	1
	Inverter	SN74S04	3	1
	4:1 Multiplexer	SN74S153	4	4
3-input AND	SN74S11	3	1	

17

(Total
package
count)

Table 6.2(b)

ECL components required for multiplication and its overflow detection in a 16-15 moduli system.

Function	Component Required	Type No.	Number of Components	Number of Packages of gates
Multiplication	(256x4) PROM	10149	2	2
Overflow Detection: (According to the circuits in Fig 5.8 and 5.10.)	(256x4) PROM	10149	3	3
	4-bit ALU	MC 10181	1	1
	2-input Exclusive OR	MC 10107	5	2
	2-input OR	MC 10103	5	2
	2-input AND	MC 10104	10	2
	Inverter	MC 10195	3	1
	4:1 Multiplexer	MC 10174	4	4

17

(Total package count)

Table 6.3(a)

Characteristics of TTL components required for
Residue Multiplication and its overflow detection

Components	Type Number	Delay in ns	Power	Price*	Manufacturers
(i) (256x4) PROM	82S27	40	.6 mw/Bit	25.25	Signetics [78]
(ii) (256x8) PROM	82S114	60	165 μ w/Bit	19.00	"
(iii) (512x4) PROM	82S130	80	.3 mw/Bit	6.50	"
(iv) (512x8) PROM	82S115	60	165 μ w/Bit	17.00	"
(v) 4-Bit Adder	SN74S283	7	510 mw	2.00	Texas Instrument [57]
(vi) 3-input AND	SN74S11	4.75	31 mw/gate	.57	" "
(vii) Hex Inverter	SN74S04	3	19 mw/gate	1.08	" "
(viii) 2-input AND	SN74S08	4.75	32 mw/gate	.57	" "
(ix) 2-input OR	SN74S32	4	35 mw/gate	.57	" "
(x) Quad Exclusive OR	SN74S86	7	250 mw	.85	" "
(xi) 2:1 Multiplexer	SN74S158	4	195 mw	2.39	" "
(xii) 8-input NAND	SN74S30	3	19 mw/gate	.86	" "
(xiii) 4:1 Multiplexer	SN74S153	6	225 mw	2.39	" "

79.03

* All prices are in Australian dollars and small quantity price.

Table 6.3(b)

Characteristics of ECL components required for
Residue Multiplication and its overflow detection

Function	Type Number	Delay in ns	Power	Price*	Manufacturers
(i) (256x4) PROM	10149	20	.66 mw/Bit	22.32	Signetics [78]
(ii) 4-bit ALU	MC 10181	7	600 mw	35.20	Motorola [58]
(iii) Hex Inverter	MC 10195	2	100 mw/Pkg	1.31	"
(iv) Hex 2-input AND	MC 10104	2.7	140 mw/Pkg	.51	"
(v) 2:1 Multiplexer	MC 10173	2.5	270 mw	7.10	"
(vi) Triple Exclusive OR	MC 10107	2.5	110 mw/Pkg	.55	"
(vii) Quad 2-input OR	MC 10103	2	100 mw/Pkg	.51	"
(viii) Dual 4:1 Multiplexer	MC 10174	3.5	305 mw	7.06	"
				74.56	

* All prices are in Australian dollars and small quantity price.

Presently the MPY/HJ family [56] of binary multipliers are the fastest. Table 6.4(a) shows comparisons of a 16 x 16 multiplier Vs. 16-15-13-11 moduli multiplier and an 8 x 8 bits multiplier Vs. 16-15 moduli multiplier using TTL technology. The delay in overflow detection in a 16-15-13-11 moduli multiplication has been calculated using the expression (4.1); whilst the expression (5.7) and (5.7a) have been used for calculation of delay in overflow detection in the 16-15 moduli multiplication. Table 6.4(b) shows similar comparisons using ECL components.

From the examination of Table 6.4(a) and 6.4(b) it is clear that residue multiplication is much faster and more cost-effective, specially using ECL technology. However, when residue multiplication is associated with overflow detection, the system gets slower and more costly. However, since the same piece of hardware, used for overflow detection, can be used for sign detection and generation of first approximation for residue integer division, the cost is not as much of a concerning factor as would at first appear.

Table 6.4(a)

Comparison of (i) 16x16 binary multiplier Vs 16-15-13-11 mod multiplier including its overflow detection
(ii) 8x8 binary multiplier Vs 16-15 mod multiplier including its overflow detection (TTL components.)

Function	Component Required	Number of Components	Delay in ns	Price*	Power
(1) 16 x 16 bits multiplier	TRW/ MPY-16 HJ	1	100	\$265.00	3 W
(2) Residue Multiplication (16-15-13-11-mod)	See Table 6.1(a)	See Table 6.1(a)	40	\$101.00	2.56 W
(3) Overflow Detection	See Table 6.1(a)	See Table 6.1(a)	269	\$506.21	18 W
(4) 8 x 8 bits multiplier	TRW/ MPY-8 HJ-1	1	45	\$120	1 W
(5) Residue Multiplication (16-15 mod)	See Table 6.2(a)	See Table 6.2(a)	40	\$ 50.50	1.78 W
(6) Overflow Detection	See Table 6.2(a)	See Table 6.2(a)	129	\$ 93.00	4 W

* All prices are in Australian dollars.

Table 6.4(b)

Comparison of (i) 16x16 binary multiplier Vs 16-15-13-11 mod multiplication including overflow detection
(ii) 8x8 binary multiplication Vs 16-15 mod multiplication including overflow detection. (Using ECL.)

Function	Component Required	Number of Components	Delay in ns	Price*	Power
(1) 16 x 16 binary multiplication	Motorola/10183 (2x4 multiplier)	32	100	@ 30.84ea 986.88	25.6 W
(2) Residue Multiplication (16-15-13-11)	See Table 6.1(b)	See Table 6.1(b)	20	89.28	2.7 W
(3) Overflow Detection	See Table 6.1(b)	See Table 6.1(b)	126	1165.39	33.16 W
(4) 8 x 8 binary Multiplier	Motorola/10183	8	50	@ 30.84ea 246.72	6.4 W
(5) Residue Multiplication (16-15-mod)	See Table 6.2(b)	See Table 6.2(b)	20	44.64	1.35 W
(6) Overflow Detection	See Table 6.2(b)	See Table 6.2(b)	65	320.00	5 W

* All prices are in Australian dollars.

A comparison of a 4-bit binary adder (TTL and ECL) with a 4-bit residue PROM adder has been shown in Table 6.5. From the table it is apparent that in TTL technology a 4-bit binary adder is six times faster than a 4-bit residue PROM adder. Therefore in addition of equivalent 24 ($=6 \times 4$) bits or higher, residue PROM will be faster, provided the access time of the PROMs used is 40 ns. However, since the cost of one (256x4) PROM (TTL) is twelve times higher than that of a 4-bit binary adder (TTL), the residue adder is not cost effective.

In ECL technology, a 4-bit binary adder is three times faster than a 4-bit residue PROM adder. With ECL technology addition of equivalent 12 ($=3 \times 4$) bits or higher will be faster in a residue system assuming that the access time of the PROMs used is 20 ns. However, sign detection in 3 moduli (each module having 4 bits) system will need 40 ns [$= (3-1) \cdot 20$; see Appendix-5]; whereas the sign detection in a 12 bit binary system will need $3 \times 7 = 21$ ns.

From what has been discussed above, it is clear that present day technology still is not favourable towards the implementation of residue in general purpose computers. The binary system will maintain its predominance. However, in special applications where there is no use of sign and overflow detection, residue multiplication will be the first choice and may also be a contender in very fast and large systems where the carry free property is of great importance in minimising the chip connections and inter chip delays.

Table 6.5

Comparison of a 4 bit binary adder (TTL and ECL) Vs. a 4 bit residue PROM adder (TTL and ECL).

Function	Technology	Components	Number of Components	Delay in ns.	Price in \$.A.
A 4 bit binary adder	TTL	SN74S283	1	7	2.00
	ECL	MC 10181	1	7	35.20
A 4 bit residue PROM adder	TTL	82S27 (256x4) PROM	1	40	25.25
	ECL	10149 (256x4) PROM	1	20	22.32

As it has been discussed earlier that the residue floating point arithmetic can be performed in software provided all the residue integer arithmetic operations are available. In fast processors the residue floating point operations will be fast. However, in comparison with binary floating point arithmetic the residue floating point arithmetic is slower since (i) the mantissas of the residue floating point operands are to be broken down into two co-efficients and (ii) in normalisation process the multiplicative overflow information is required. However, at least it has been shown that the floating point arithmetic can be performed in the residue system, and the operations are cost-effective, since the only requirements are PROMs for generation of floating point numbers of the reciprocal of the mantissa of divisor and memories to store the programme required for residue floating point operations.

It is clear from the discussion above that the multiplicative overflow detection is the speed limiting factor in the residue system. Also sign detection is a problem. Therefore more efficient algorithms for sign detection and overflow detection should be investigated and also the possibility of using logic gates or FPLAs (instead of PROMs) should be looked at. In the near future VLSI circuit may open the way to implementation of overflow detectors with combinational logic and a different comparison between the systems may then result.

The residue PROM adder/subtractor is slow. The combinational logic is another possible way for implementing residue addition/subtraction and should be a matter of further investigation.

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APPENDIX - 1

Some Important Proofs

AP1(a):

If $2^n < M < 2^{n+1}$, $y = n+1$, and $g(X)$ and $g(Y)$ are the group numbers of X and Y respectively, prove that

- (i) if $g(X)+g(Y) > y$, overflow will occur.
- (ii) if $g(X)+g(Y) < y$, overflow will not occur.
- (iii) if $g(X)+g(Y) = y$, overflow may or may not occur.

If it occurs, the sign of the product will be incorrect.

Proof:

The multiplication of the lowest numbers in two groups is given by (from Table 4.1)

$$Z = W \cdot 2^{-s+g(X)} \cdot W \cdot 2^{-s+g(Y)} \quad \dots\dots (1)$$

$$Z = W^2 \cdot 2^{-2s+g(X)+g(Y)} \quad \dots\dots (1a)$$

Let $g(X)+g(Y) = y+1$. If y is an even number, $W=(M)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ and $s = y/2+1$. Therefore (1a) can be written as

$$Z = M \cdot 2^{-2(y/2+1)+y+1} = M/2 \quad \dots\dots (2a)$$

If y is an odd number, $W=(\frac{M}{2})^{\frac{1}{2}}$ and $s = (y+1)/2$. Therefore (1a) can be written as

$$Z = (M/2) \cdot 2^{-2\{(y+1)/2\}+y+1} = M/2 \quad \dots\dots (2b)$$

The equations (2a) and (2b) indicate that overflow will occur when the lowest positive numbers in two groups, sum of which is greater than y , is multiplied. [The

equations (2a) and (2b) do not indicate overflow if one of the lowest numbers is negative, since $M/2$ is within the range of negative half. However, in most cases $(M)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ or $(\frac{M}{2})^{\frac{1}{2}}$ is not an integer number. Therefore error will be introduced in determination of W , and this error will make Z in equations (2a) and (2b) greater than $M/2$, and therefore the product of the lowest numbers one of which is negative will overflow. The method of determination of W and construction of group table when $(M)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ or $(\frac{M}{2})^{\frac{1}{2}}$ is not an integer number has been discussed in section 4.2.1.]

Let $g(X)+g(Y) = y$. If y is an even number, then (1a) can be written as

$$Z = M \cdot 2^{-2(y/2+1)+y} = M \cdot 2^{-2} \dots\dots (3a)$$

If y is an odd number, (1a) becomes

$$Z = (M/2) \cdot 2^{-2\{(y+1)/2\}+y} = M \cdot 2^{-2} \dots\dots (3b)$$

The equations (3a) and (3b) indicate overflow will not occur.

The multiplication of the highest numbers of two groups $g(X)$ and $g(Y)$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= \left[W \cdot 2^{-s+g(X)+1} \quad -1 \right] \cdot \left[W \cdot 2^{-s+g(Y)+1} \quad -1 \right] \\ Z &= W^2 \cdot 2^{-2s+g(X)+g(Y)+2} - W \cdot 2^{-s+g(X)+1} \\ &\quad - W \cdot 2^{-s+g(Y)+1} + 1 \dots\dots (4) \\ &= W^2 \cdot 2^{-2s+g(X)+g(Y)+1} \left[2 - \frac{1}{W} \cdot 2^{s-g(Y)} \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{1}{W} \cdot 2^{s-g(X)} \right] + 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= W^2 \cdot 2^{-2s+g(X)+g(Y)+1} \\
&\quad \left(1 + 1 - \frac{1}{W} \cdot 2^{\delta-g(Y)} - \frac{1}{W} \cdot 2^{\delta-g(X)} \right) + 1 \\
&\quad \dots\dots (4a)
\end{aligned}$$

Since group 1 contains number 1, overflow will never occur on multiplication of number in group 1 with the number in any other groups. Therefore overflow for the groups greater than 1 will be considered:

Let $g(X)+g(Y) = y$. The equation (4a) can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}
Z = W^2 \cdot 2^{-2s+y+1} &\left(1 + 1 - \frac{1}{W} \cdot 2^{\delta-g(X)} \right. \\
&\quad \left. - \frac{1}{W} \cdot 2^{\delta-g(Y)} \right) + 1 \dots\dots (4b)
\end{aligned}$$

The minimum value of Z depends on the minimum value of

$$1 - \frac{1}{W} \cdot 2^{\delta-g(X)} - \frac{1}{W} \cdot 2^{\delta-g(Y)} \dots\dots (4c)$$

The expression (4c) is minimised when $g(X)$ or $g(Y)$ is equal to 2. Let $g(X) = 2$. Therefore

$$g(Y) = y-2 \dots\dots (4d)$$

From the value of M , W can be expressed as

$$2^{n/2} < W < 2^{\frac{n+1}{2}} \dots\dots (4e)$$

If y is an even number, then from (4c) and (4e)

$$\begin{aligned}
1 - \frac{1}{W} \cdot 2^{\delta-2} - \frac{1}{W} \cdot 2^{\delta-y+2} &< 1 - \frac{1}{2^{n/2}} \cdot 2^{y/2+1-2} \\
&\quad - \frac{2^{y/2+1-y+2}}{2^{n/2}}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= 1 - \frac{2^{(n+1)/2+1-2}}{2^{n/2}} - \frac{2^{(n+1)/2+1-(n+1)+2}}{2^{n/2}} \\
&= 1 - \frac{1}{2} - 2^{(-2n+1)/2+3}
\end{aligned}$$

However, for $n > 4$, $2^{(-2n+1)/2+3} < \frac{1}{2}$.

Therefore the minimum value of (4c) is a positive number for $n > 4$.

In other words for $n > 4$

$$Z_{\min} > W^2 \cdot 2^{-2s+y+1} \quad \dots\dots (4f)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{or } Z_{\min} &> M \cdot 2^{-2(y/2+1)+y+1} \\
&= M \cdot 2^{-1} \quad \dots\dots (5)
\end{aligned}$$

The expression (5) indicates that when the sum of group numbers is equal to y , multiplication of the highest numbers in two groups will produce overflow.

In similar way the expressed (5) can be proved to be valid for odd value of y . Again from (4)

$$Z < W^2 \cdot 2^{-2s+g(X)+g(Y)+2} \quad \dots\dots (6)$$

Therefore for $g(X)+g(Y) = y$ and even value of y , (from (6))

$$Z < M \quad \dots\dots (6a)$$

If $g(X)+g(Y) = y-1$, and y is an even number then from (6)

$$Z < W^2 \cdot 2^{-2(y/2+1)+y+1+2}$$

$$\text{or } Z < M \cdot 2^{-1} \quad \dots\dots (6b)$$

The expression (6) indicates, when the sum of two groups is less than y , the product of the highest number of two groups does not overflow. Similarly it can be proved that expression (6b) is also valid for the odd value of y .

Combining (2a), (2b) and (5), it can be written that if $g(X)+g(Y) > y$, overflow must occur.

Combining (3a), (3b) and (6b), it can be concluded that

if $g(X) + g(Y) < y$, overflow will not occur.

Combining (3a), (3b), (5) and (6a), it can be concluded that

if $g(X)+g(Y) = y$, overflow may or may not occur.

If overflow occurs, the product will be of incorrect sign.

AP1(b)

If $a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_2, a_1$ are the mixed radix digits of a number (positive or negative) in the system of moduli $m_n, m_{n-1}, \dots, m_2, m_1$ respectively, then the mixed radix digits $b_n, b_{n-1}, \dots, b_2, b_1$ of the 'counterpart' number (negative or positive number) are given by

$$b_i = \{(m_i - 1) - a_i\} \text{ for } a_i \neq 0 \quad (i=n, n+1, \dots, k+1)$$

$$b_k = \{m_k - a_k\} \text{ and } b_p = 0 \quad , \text{ for } a_k \neq 0 \text{ and } a_p = 0$$

$$(p=k-1, k-2, \dots, 2, 1).$$

Proof:

The 'counterpart' number is formed by subtraction of the number from zero i.e.

$$\begin{array}{r} (0_n \ 0_{n-1} \ 0_{k+1} \ 0_k \ 0_{k-1} \ \dots \ 0_2 \ 0_1) \\ - (a_n \ a_{n-1} \ \dots \ a_{k+1} \ a_k \ a_{k-1} \ \dots \ a_2 \ a_1) \end{array}$$

Since a_1 to a_{k-1} are zeros, the k^{th} digit is formed by $(m_k - a_k)$. This subtraction produces a borrow which propagates up to n^{th} digit. Therefore other digits are formed by

$$b_{k+1} = (m_{k+1} - a_{k+1} - 1) = \{(m_{k+1} - 1) - a_{k+1}\}$$

$$b_{k+2} = (m_{k+2} - a_{k+2} - 1) = \{(m_{k+2} - 1) - a_{k+2}\}$$

$$b_n = (m_n - a_n - 1) = \{(m_n - 1) - a_n\}.$$

$$b_p = 0 \quad \text{for } p = k-1, k-2, \dots, 2, 1.$$

Example:

If $m_3 = 2$, $m_2 = 7$, $m_1 = 3$, and $a_3 = 1$, $a_2 = 5$,

$a_1 = 0$, then the MRDs of the 'counterpart' number is given by

$$b_3 = (2-1)-1 = 0$$

$$b_2 = (7-5) = 2$$

$$b_1 = 0.$$

APPENDIX - 2

AP2: Floating Point value of $\frac{1}{B}$

For $B > 1$ and positive,

$$\frac{1}{B} = \frac{\beta^2}{B} \cdot \beta^{-2} \quad \dots\dots (1)$$

Let $\frac{\beta^2}{B} = Q_B + \frac{r_B}{B} \quad \dots\dots (2)$

where Q_B and r_B are the quotient and remainder of the left hand side division in (2).

Case (i) If $Q_B \cdot \beta \geq R$, then $\lceil \beta/2 \rceil$ is added to r_B and then divided by B .

$$\frac{r_B + \lceil \beta/2 \rceil}{B} = Q_r + \frac{r_r}{B} \quad \dots\dots (3)$$

The rounded Q_B is given by K where

$$K = Q_B + Q_r \quad \dots\dots (3a)$$

Hence $\frac{1}{B} \approx K\beta^{-2} \quad \dots\dots (3b)$

Case (ii) If $Q_B \cdot \beta < R$, then

$$\frac{1}{B} = \frac{\beta^3}{B} \cdot \beta^{-3} \quad \dots\dots (5)$$

Let $\frac{\beta^3}{B} = Q_p + \frac{r_p}{B} \quad \dots\dots (6)$

$\lceil \beta/2 \rceil$ is added to r_p and then divided by B i.e.

$$\frac{r_p + \lceil \beta/2 \rceil}{B} = Q_t + \frac{r_t}{B} \quad \dots\dots (6a)$$

The rounded Q_p is given by H , where

$$H = Q_p + Q_t \quad \dots\dots (6b)$$

Hence $\frac{1}{B} \approx H \cdot \beta^{-3} \quad \dots\dots (6c)$

If $H > R$, then H is taken to be equal to R .

For $B = 1$, $\frac{1}{B} = \beta \cdot B^{-1}$

The floating point value of negative $\frac{1}{B}$ is the negative form of mantissa of positive $\frac{1}{B}$. The exponents of both positive and negative $\frac{1}{B}$ are same.

Table 5.18: Table of mantissa and exponent of $(\frac{1}{B})$
for B = 1 to 120. (11 is the base of exponent)

Decimal Numbers	Residue Numbers		Mantissa in Decimal Form	Exponent in Decimal Form	Mantissa in Residue Form		Exponent in Residue Form	
	Mod-15	Mod-16			Mod-15	Mod-16	Mod-15	Mod-16
1	1	1	11	-1	B	B	E	F
2	2	2	61	-2	D	1	D	E
3	3	3	40	-2	8	A	D	E
4	4	4	30	-2	0	E	D	E
5	5	5	24	-2	9	8	D	E
6	6	6	20	-2	5	4	D	E
7	7	7	17	-2	2	1	D	E
8	8	8	15	-2	0	F	D	E
9	9	9	13	-2	D	D	D	E
10	A	A	12	-2	C	C	D	E
11	B	B	11	-2	B	B	D	E
12	C	C	111	-3	6	F	C	D
13	D	D	102	-3	12	6	C	D
14	E	E	95	-3	5	F	C	D
15	F	F	89	-3	E	9	C	D
16	1	0	83	-3	8	3	C	D

Continued

Decimal Numbers	Residue Numbers		Mantissa in Decimal Form	Exponent in Decimal Form	Mantissa in Residue Form		Exponent in Residue Form	
	Mod-15	Mod-16			Mod-15	Mod-16	Mod-15	Mod-16
17	2	1	78	-3	3	E	C	D
18	3	2	74	-3	E	A	C	D
19	4	3	70	-3	A	6	C	D
20	5	4	67	-3	7	3	C	D
21	6	5	63	-3	3	F	C	D
22	7	6	61	-3	1	D	C	D
23	8	7	58	-3	D	A	C	D
24	9	8	55	-3	A	7	C	D
25	A	9	53	-3	8	5	C	D
26	B	A	51	-3	6	3	C	D
27	C	B	49	-3	4	1	C	D
28	D	C	48	-3	3	0	C	D
29	E	D	46	-3	1	E	C	D
30	0	E	44	-3	E	C	C	D
31	1	F	43	-3	D	B	C	D
32	2	0	42	-3	C	A	C	D
33	3	1	40	-3	A	8	C	D

Continued

Decimal Numbers	Residue Numbers		Mantissa in Decimal Form	Exponent in Decimal Form	Mantissa in Residue Form		Exponent in Residue Form	
	Mod-15	Mod-16			Mod-15	Mod-16	Mod-15	Mod-16
34	4	2	39	-3	9	7	C	D
35	5	3	38	-3	8	6	C	D
36	6	4	37	-3	7	5	C	D
37	7	5	36	-3	6	4	C	D
38	8	6	35	-3	5	3	C	D
39	9	7	34	-3	4	2	C	D
40	A	8	33	-3	3	1	C	D
41	B	9	32	-3	2	0	C	D
42	C	A	32	-3	2	0	C	D
43	D	B	31	-3	1	F	C	D
44	E	C	30	-3	0	E	C	D
45	0	D	30	-3	0	E	C	D
46	1	E	29	-3	E	D	C	D
47	2	F	28	-3	D	C	C	D
48	3	0	28	-3	D	C	C	D
49	4	1	27	-3	C	B	C	D
50	5	2	27	-3	C	B	C	D

Continued

Decimal Numbers	Residue Numbers		Mantissa in Decimal Form	Exponent in Decimal Form	Mantissa in Residue Form		Exponent in Residue Form	
	Mod-15	Mod-16			Mod-15	Mod-16	Mod-15	Mod-16
51	6	3	26	-3	B	A	C	D
52	7	4	26	-3	B	A	C	D
53	8	5	25	-3	A	9	C	D
54	9	6	25	-3	A	9	C	D
55	A	7	24	-3	9	8	C	D
56	B	8	24	-3	9	8	C	D
57	C	9	23	-3	8	7	C	D
58	D	A	23	-3	8	7	C	D
59	E	B	23	-3	8	7	C	D
60	0	C	22	-3	7	6	C	D
61	1	D	22	-3	7	6	C	D
62	2	E	21	-3	6	5	C	D
63	3	F	21	-3	6	5	C	D
64	4	0	21	-3	6	5	C	D
65	5	1	20	-3	5	4	C	D
66	6	2	20	-3	5	4	C	D
67	7	3	20	-3	5	4	C	D
68	8	4	20	-3	5	4	C	D

Continued

Decimal Numbers	Residue Numbers		Mantissa in Decimal Form	Exponent in Decimal Form	Mantissa in Residue Form		Exponent in Residue Form	
	Mod-15	Mod-16			Mod-15	Mod-16	Mod-15	Mod-16
69	9	5	19	-3	4	3	C	D
70	A	6	19	-3	4	3	C	D
71	B	7	19	-3	4	3	C	D
72	C	8	18	-3	3	2	C	D
73	D	9	18	-3	3	2	C	D
74	E	A	18	-3	3	2	C	D
75	0	B	18	-3	3	2	C	D
76	1	C	18	-3	3	2	C	D
77	2	D	17	-3	2	1	C	D
78	3	E	17	-3	2	1	C	D
79	4	F	17	-3	2	1	C	D
80	5	0	17	-3	2	1	C	D
81	6	1	16	-3	1	0	C	D
82	7	2	16	-3	1	0	C	D
83	8	3	16	-3	1	0	C	D
84	9	4	16	-3	1	0	C	D
85	A	5	16	-3	1	0	C	D

Continued

Decimal Numbers	Residue Numbers		Mantissa in Decimal Form	Exponent in Decimal Form	Mantissa in Residue Form		Exponent in Residue Form	
	Mod-15	Mod-16			Mod-16	Mod-16	Mod-15	Mod-16
86	B	6	15	-3	0	F	C	D
87	C	7	15	-3	0	F	C	D
88	D	8	15	-3	0	F	C	D
89	E	9	15	-3	0	F	C	D
90	0	A	15	-3	0	F	C	D
91	1	B	15	-3	0	F	C	D
92	2	C	14	-3	E	E	C	D
93	3	D	14	-3	E	E	C	D
94	4	E	14	-3	E	E	C	D
95	5	F	14	-3	E	E	C	D
96	6	0	14	-3	E	E	C	D
97	7	1	14	-3	E	E	C	D
98	8	2	14	-3	E	E	C	D
99	9	3	13	-3	D	D	C	D
100	A	4	13	-3	D	D	C	D
101	B	5	13	-3	D	D	C	D

Continued

Decimal Numbers	Residue Numbers		Mantissa in Decimal Form	Exponent in Decimal Form	Mantissa in Residue Form		Exponent in Residue Form	
	Mod-15	Mod-16			Mod-15	Mod-16	Mod-15	Mod-16
102	C	6	13	-3	D	D	C	D
103	D	7	13	-3	D	D	C	D
104	E	8	13	-3	D	D	C	D
105	0	9	13	-3	D	D	C	D
106	1	A	13	-3	D	D	C	D
107	2	B	12	-3	C	C	C	D
108	3	C	12	-3	C	C	C	D
109	4	D	12	-3	C	C	C	D
110	5	E	12	-3	C	C	C	D
111	6	F	12	-3	C	C	C	D
112	7	0	12	-3	C	C	C	D
113	8	1	12	-3	C	C	C	D
114	9	2	12	-3	C	C	C	D
115	A	3	12	-3	C	C	C	D
116	B	4	11	-3	B	B	C	D
117	C	5	11	-3	B	B	C	D
118	D	6	11	-3	B	B	C	D
119	E	7	11	-3	B	B	C	D
120	0	8	-11	-3	4	5	C	D

APPENDIX - 4

AP4: Error Analysis of Floating Point Addition and Multiplication Operations

In case of floating point addition/subtraction, and multiplication, the errors are introduced during rounding process in normalisation. In floating point division error is introduced from two sources - (i) error from approximation of floating point value of $\frac{1}{B}$ and (ii) the error from floating point multiplication of $F1(A.K)$. However, errors only due to floating addition and multiplication will be evaluated, assuming the exponents of the operands are zero.

AP4(a): Error in floating point additon

The actual value of Z is given by

$$Z = c_2 \beta + c_1 \quad (\text{from (4.11)}).$$

The positive error occurs if

$$(c_2 \cdot \beta + c_1) > R \quad \text{or} \quad c_2 \cdot \beta \geq R$$

and

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} c_1 > \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \\ \text{or} \\ c_1 \geq \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \end{array} \right. \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{if } \beta \text{ is odd.} \\ \\ \text{if } \beta \text{ is even.} \end{array}$$

Under these conditions the normalised rounded Z (Fig 4.6) becomes

$$Z' = (c_2 + 1)\beta$$

Therefore positive error $e+ = Z' - Z$

$$= \beta - c_1 \dots\dots (1)$$

Case (i) If β is odd, then

$$\begin{aligned} \lceil \beta/2 \rceil &= \frac{\beta-1}{2} \\ \text{or } \beta &= 2 \cdot \lceil \beta/2 \rceil + 1 \dots\dots (1a) \end{aligned}$$

Under error condition since $c_1 > \lceil \beta/2 \rceil$, and c_1 is an integer, therefore the minimum value of c_1 can be given by

$$(c_1)_{\min} = \lceil \beta/2 \rceil + 1 \dots\dots (1b)$$

For $c_1 = (c_1)_{\min}$, $e+$, in equation (1), is maximised, therefore

$$\begin{aligned} (e+)_{\max} &= \beta - (c_1)_{\min} \\ &= \beta - \lceil \beta/2 \rceil - 1 \\ &= 2 \cdot \lceil \beta/2 \rceil + 1 - \lceil \beta/2 \rceil - 1 \\ &= \lceil \beta/2 \rceil \dots\dots (2) \end{aligned}$$

Case (ii) If β is even, then

$$\begin{aligned} \lceil \beta/2 \rceil &= \beta/2 \\ \text{or } \beta &= 2 \cdot \lceil \beta/2 \rceil \dots\dots (3) \end{aligned}$$

Under error condition since $c_1 \geq \lceil \beta/2 \rceil$ and c_1 is an integer, therefore the minimum value of c_1 , in this case, is given by

$$(c_1)_{\min} = \lceil \beta/2 \rceil \dots\dots (4)$$

For $c_1 = (c_1)_{\min}$, $e+$, in equation (1), is maximised; therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
(e+)_{\max} &= \beta - (c_1)_{\min} \\
&= 2 \cdot \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] - \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \\
&= \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \quad \dots\dots (5)
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore in both cases, positive maximum error is same.

The relative positive error $U(e+)$ is given by

$$U(e+) = \frac{e+}{c_2 \beta + c_1}$$

The $U(e+)$ is maximised when $e+ = (e+)_{\max}$ and $c_2 \beta + c_1 = R$.

Therefore the maximum value of $U(e+)$ is given by

$$U(e+)_{\max} = \frac{(e+)_{\max}}{R} = \frac{\left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right]}{R} \quad \dots\dots (6)$$

The negative error occurs if

$$(c_2 \cdot \beta + c_1) > R \quad \text{or} \quad c_2 \cdot \beta \geq R$$

$$\text{and} \quad \begin{cases} c_1 \leq \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] & \text{if } \beta \text{ is odd.} \\ \text{or} \\ c_1 < \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] & \text{if } \beta \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

Under those conditions the normalised Z becomes

$$Z' = c_2 \beta$$

Therefore the absolute value of negative error is given by

$$|e-| = |Z' - Z| = c_1$$

If β is odd, $|e-| \leq \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right]$ and the maximum relative negative error, $U(e-)_{\max}$ is given by

$$U(e-)_{\max} = \frac{\left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right]}{R} \quad \dots\dots (7)$$

If β is even, $|e-| < \lceil \beta/2 \rceil$ and maximum $|e-|$ is given by

$$(e-)_{\max} = \lceil \beta/2 \rceil - 1. \quad (\text{Since } |e-| \text{ is an integer.})$$

The maximum relative negative error, when β is even, is given by

$$U(e-)_{\max} = \frac{\lceil \beta/2 \rceil - 1}{R} \quad \dots\dots (8)$$

From (6), (7) and (8), it is clear that the maximum error, $\text{Max}(e)$ is given by (6) or (7), therefore

$$\text{Max}(e) = U(e+)_{\max} = \frac{\lceil \beta/2 \rceil}{R} \quad \dots\dots (9)$$

AP4(b): Error in floating point multiplication

Actual value of Z is given by

$$Z = c_3 \beta^2 + c_2 \beta + c_1 \quad (\text{from 4.14}).$$

Case (i) If $c_3 = 0$, Z is reduced to Z_R , where

$$Z_R = c_2 \beta + c_1 \quad \dots\dots (10)$$

In this case, maximum error is same as the maximum error in floating point addition.

Case (ii) If c_3 and c_1 are nonzero, then positive error will occur if

$$\{(c_3 \cdot \beta + c_2) \text{ or } c_3 \cdot \beta\} \geq R$$

$$\text{and } \left[\begin{array}{l} c_2 > \lceil \beta/2 \rceil \quad \text{if } \beta \text{ is odd.} \\ \text{or} \\ c \geq \lceil \beta/2 \rceil \quad \text{if } \beta \text{ is even.} \end{array} \right.$$

In this case the normalised rounded Z (Fig 4.7) becomes

$$Z' = (c_3 + 1)\beta^2$$

Therefore positive error $e_+ = Z' - Z$

$$= \beta^2 - (c_2 \cdot \beta + c_1) \quad \dots\dots (11)$$

$$\text{or } e_+ < \beta^2 - c_2 \cdot \beta \quad \dots\dots (12)$$

Case (iii) If c_3 is nonzero and c_1 is zero, then positive error will occur if

$$c_3 \cdot \beta + c_2 > R \quad \text{or} \quad c_3 \cdot \beta \geq R$$

$$\text{and } \begin{cases} c_2 > \lceil \beta/2 \rceil & \text{if } \beta \text{ is odd.} \\ c_2 \geq \lceil \beta/2 \rceil & \text{if } \beta \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

Under these conditions, the expression for positive error can be derived from (11) as

$$e'_+ = \beta^2 - c_2 \cdot \beta \quad \dots\dots (13)$$

From (13) and (12), it is seen that $e'_+ > e$. Therefore to evaluate maximum positive error, the expression (13) will be used.

$$e_+ \text{ is maximised if } c_2 = (c_2)_{\min}.$$

If β is odd, $c_2 > \lceil \beta/2 \rceil$ (under the error conditions given above). Therefore the minimum value of c_2 can be written as

$$(c_2)_{\min} = \lceil \beta/2 \rceil + 1 \quad \dots\dots (14)$$

If β is even, $c_2 \geq \lceil \beta/2 \rceil$, therefore $(c_2)_{\min}$, in this case is (under error condition)

$$(c_2)_{\min} = \lceil \beta/2 \rceil \quad \dots\dots (15)$$

Therefore if β is odd, the maximum positive error is given by

$$(e^+)_\text{max} = \beta^2 - (c_2)_\text{min} \cdot \beta \quad \text{from (13)}$$

$$= \beta^2 - \left(\left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] + 1 \right) \beta \quad \text{from (14)}$$

$$= \left(2 \cdot \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] + 1 \right)^2 - \left(\left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] + 1 \right) \left(2 \cdot \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] + 1 \right)$$

from (1a)

$$\text{Therefore when } \beta \text{ is odd, } (e^+)_\text{max} = \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \cdot \left(2 \cdot \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] + 1 \right)$$

..... (16)

When β is even, the maximum positive error is given by

$$(e^+)_\text{max} = \beta^2 - (c_2)_\text{min} \cdot \beta \quad \text{from (13)}$$

$$= \beta^2 - \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \cdot \beta \quad \text{from (15)}$$

$$= \left(2 \cdot \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \right)^2 - \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \cdot \left(2 \cdot \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \right) \quad \text{from (3)}$$

$$= 2 \left(\left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \right)^2 \quad \text{..... (17)}$$

The negative error occurs if

$$\{ (c_3 \cdot \beta + c_2) \text{ or } c_3 \cdot \beta \} \geq R$$

$$\text{and } \begin{cases} c_2 \leq \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] & \text{if } \beta \text{ is odd.} \\ c_2 < \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] & \text{if } \beta \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

(For c_3 and c_1 are nonzero)

Under these conditions, the normalised rounded Z becomes

$$Z' = c_3 \cdot \beta^2$$

The absolute value of negative error $|e^-|$ is given by

$$|e^-| = |Z' - Z| = c_2 \cdot \beta + c_1 \dots\dots (18)$$

$$\text{The maximum value of } \bar{c}_1, (c_1)_{\max} = (\beta-1) \dots\dots (19)$$

If β is odd, under the above condition,

$$c_2 \leq \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right]$$

Therefore the maximum value of c_2 can be written as

$$(c_2)_{\max} = \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \dots\dots (19a)$$

Therefore the maximum absolute value of negative error, when β is odd, is given by

$$\begin{aligned} (e^-)_{\max} &= (c_2)_{\max} \cdot \beta + (c_1)_{\max} \\ &= \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \cdot \beta + (\beta-1) \quad \text{from (19a) and (19)} \\ &= \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \cdot \left(2 \cdot \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] + 1 \right) + \left(2 \cdot \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] + 1 - 1 \right) \\ &= 2 \left(\left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \right)^2 + 3 \cdot \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \dots\dots (20) \end{aligned}$$

If β is even, under the above condition

$$c_2 < \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right].$$

Therefore the maximum value of c_2 can be written as

$$(c_2)_{\max} = \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] - 1 \dots\dots (21)$$

Therefore the maximum absolute value of negative error, when β is even, is given by

$$\begin{aligned} |e^-|_{\max} &= |c_2|_{\max} \cdot \beta + |c_1|_{\max} \\ &= \left(\left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] - 1 \right) \cdot \beta + (\beta-1) \quad \text{from (19) and (21)} \\ &= \left(\left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] - 1 \right) \cdot 2 \cdot \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] + 2 \cdot \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] - 1 \\ &\quad \text{from (3)} \end{aligned}$$

$$= 2 \left(\left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \right)^2 - 1 \quad \dots\dots (22)$$

Comparing (16) and (20), the maximum error, when β is odd is given by (20), therefore

$$(e(o))_{\max} = 2 \left(\left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \right)^2 + 3 \cdot \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \quad \dots\dots (23)$$

Comparing (22) and (17), the maximum error, when β is even, is given by (17), therefore

$$(e(e))_{\max} = 2 \left(\left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \right)^2 \quad \dots\dots (24)$$

When c_3 is nonzero, the minimum value of Z is

$$(Z)_{\min} = R \quad \dots\dots (25)$$

The maximum relative error, when β is odd, is given

by

$$\begin{aligned} (U(eo))_{\max} &= \frac{(e(o))_{\max}}{(Z)_{\min}} \\ &= \frac{2 \left(\left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \right)^2 + 3 \cdot \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right]}{R} \quad \dots\dots (26) \end{aligned}$$

from (23) and (25)

The maximum relative error, when β is even, is given

by

$$\begin{aligned} (U(ee))_{\max} &= \frac{(e(e))_{\max}}{(Z)_{\min}} \\ &= \frac{2 \left(\left[\frac{\beta}{2} \right] \right)^2}{R} \quad \dots\dots (27) \end{aligned}$$

from (24) and (25).

APPENDIX - 5

AP5: Mixed Radix Conversion

For a set of moduli m_i ($i=1,2,3, \dots, n$) a number X can be expressed in mixed radix form [28] as

$$X = a_n \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} m_i + \dots + a_3 m_2 m_1 + a_2 m_1 + a_1 \dots \quad (1)$$

where a_i ($i=1,2,3, \dots, n$) are the mixed radix digits. The digits can be found by

$$a_1 = |X|_{m_1}$$

$$a_2 = \left| \frac{X - a_1}{m_1} \right|_{m_2}$$

$$a_3 = \left| \frac{\frac{X - a_1}{m_1} - a_2}{m_2} \right|_{m_3}$$

In this way, by successive subtraction and division, all the digits can be obtained. Conversion of a number X (residue form) to mixed radix form (shown in (1)) is called mixed radix conversion (MRC).

Example:

For $m_3 = 16$, $m_2 = 15$, $m_1 = 13$, find mixed radix digits of $X \rightarrow \{7,5,8\}$.

Solution:

	16	15	13	
Residue of X	7	5	8	$a_1 = 8$
Subtract a_1	$\frac{8}{15}$	$\frac{8}{12}$		
* Multiply by $\left \frac{1}{13} \right _{m_i}$	$\frac{5}{11}$	$\frac{7}{9}$		$a_2 = 9$
Subtract a_2	$\frac{9}{2}$			
* Multiply by $\left \frac{1}{15} \right _{16}$	$\frac{15}{14}$			$a_3 = 14$

From example, it can be shown that total parallel residue operations required are -

(i) (n-1) subtractions and (ii) (n-1) multiplication.

If these operations are carried out with PROMs (by look up table) then subtractions and multiplication can be overlapped (since the multipliers are constant numbers). In this case total operations are (n-1). In other words, delay is (n-1) PROM-delay (access time).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{The decimal value (DV) of } X &= 14 \times 15 \times 13 + 9 \times 13 + 8 \\ &= 2855 \end{aligned}$$

* $\left[\left| \frac{1}{13} \right|_{m_i}, \left| \frac{1}{15} \right|_{16} \right]$ denotes multiplicative inverse of 13 and 15 with respective to m_i (15 and 16) and 16 respectively.]

APPENDIX - 6

PROGRAM LISTINGS

Appendix-6 consists of the program listings for the RAC and is divided into three parts - AP6(a), AP6(b) and AP6(c). The AP6(a) contains the program listings for integer arithmetic operations together with initialisation of the ports of the microcomputer, decoding of the operation codes etc.; the AP6(b) contains the program listings for floating point arithmetic operations and the AP6(c) contains the program listings for the conversion of residue numbers to decimal numbers.

The programs are the subroutines nested together. The labels of the subroutines and routines, in alphabetical order, are given below.

<u>Labels</u>	<u>Subroutines/Routines</u>	<u>Page</u>
AD	S	A30
ADD	R	A33
AP	R	A32
A12	R	A33
A30	R	A33
BLN	S	A29
CAD	S	A38
CAP	R	A54
CAR	S	A28
CAT	R	A39
CBCD	S	A62
CCHR	S	A31
CNVBN	S	*
CM	S	A30
COMS	R	A33
COMU	R	A33

<u>Labels</u>	<u>Subroutines/Routines</u>	<u>Page</u>
COR	R	A31
COSI	R	A32
COUS	R	A32
COVER	R	A54
CV	S	A30
DAD	R	A38
DI	S	A30
DIV	R	A34
DSV	R	A32
ECHO	S	*
EEQ	R	A32
EPT	S	A28
EQ	S	A28
EXP	S	A54
EXPO	S	A43
EXT	S	A57
FAD	R	A45
FA	R	A32
FBCD	R	A62
FD	R	A32
FDI	R	A57
FEND	R	A41
FFC	R	A57
FINIS	R	A40
FIXE	R	A40
FM	R	A32
FMT	S	A59
FMU	R	A49
FS	R	A32
FSU	S	A48
GAT	R	A39
GET	S	A29
GETCH	S	*
GGT	R	A31

<u>Labels</u>	<u>Subroutines/Routines</u>	<u>Page</u>
GT	S	A28
IBCD	R	A61
INI	R	A28
JPM	R	A30
KAT	R	A36
KATCH	S	A46
KATH	R	A36
KATR	R	A36
KKK	R	A58
LLT	R	A31
LOAD	S	A29
LT	S	A28
MAD	S	A47
MM	R	A32
MNT	S	A28
MU	S	A30
MUL	R	A33
NCHRT	S	A65
NEG	S	A28
NEGA	R	A41
NMOUT	S	*
NORL	S	A52
NORM	S	A42
OPC	S	A28
OSIGN	S	A31
OUTPU	S	A45
OVER	S	A44
OVFL	S	A59
PASS	R	A36
PEG	S	A50
PEND	S	A40

<u>Labels</u>	<u>Subroutines/Routines</u>	<u>Page</u>
PET	R	A34
POS	S	A28
POVER	R	A53
PSI	R	A31
QZERO	R	A56
RRET	R	A60
RSI	R	A63
RZERO	R	A56
SAT	R	A40
SB	R	A32
SCHRT	S	A64
SDIV	S	A34
SDK	R	A57
SELE	S	A39
SET	R	A28
SSC	R	A37
SSEP	S	A39
SSSP	S	A65
SU	S	A30
SUB	R	A33
SUM	S	A64
TAB	R	A34
TAC	R	A35
TAD	R	A35
TAD	S	A47
TAG	R	A31
TAKE	S	A30
TAP	S	A38
TEST	R	A32
TOR	R	A64
TTT	R	A28
TZERO	S	A56
XTAR	S	A29

<u>Labels</u>	<u>Subroutines/Routines</u>	<u>Page</u>
ZRET	R	A60
ZERO	R	A36

[S = Subroutine : R = Routine]

* Resides in the Monitor Prom of the SDK microcomputer.


```

*****
THIS ROUTINE INITIALISES THE PORTS OF FPI
A-PORT AND C-PORT (UPPER) ARE SET TO OUTPUT
MODE. B-PORT AND C-PORT (LOWER) ARE SET TO
INPUT MODE.

```

```

-----
INI: LXI SP,#13FF  ;STACK POINTER.
      MVI A,#83    ;'#83' IS THE CONTROL DATA
                        ;WHICH SETS THE PORTS TO
                        ;A VOBE MODES.
                        ;SEND IT TO FPI.
      OUT #17
      JMP TEST

```

```

*****
THESE ARE THE SUBROUTINES WHICH OUTPUT THE FOLLOWING
CHARACTERS:-'CR','LF','O','M','E','SPACE','-' '+'
'=' '<' '>' '?' .

```

```

-----
; '#' BEFORE A NUMBER INDICATES HEX NUMBER.
-----

```

```

CAR: MVI C,#0D    ;'#0D' IS THE ASCII CODE FOR
                        ;CARRIAGE RETURN.
      CALL ECHO    ;SIGNAL.
      MVI C,#0A    ;'#0A' IS THE ASCII CODE FOR
                        ;LINE FEED.
SET: CALL ECHO    ;SIGNAL.
      RET
OPC: MVI C,#4F    ;'#4F' IS THE ASCII CODE FOR
                        ;THE LETTER 'O'.
TTT: CALL ECHO    ;DISPLAY.
      JMP EQ
NEG: MVI C,#2D    ;'#2D' IS THE ASCII CODE FOR
                        ;THE SIGN '-'.
      JMP SET
POS: MVI C,#2B    ;'#2B' IS THE ASCII CODE FOR
                        ;THE SIGN '+'.
      JMP SET
MNT: MVI C,#4D    ;'#4D' IS THE ASCII CODE FOR
                        ;THE LETTER 'M'.
      JMP TTT
EPT: MVI C,#45    ;'#45' IS THE ASCII CODE FOR
                        ;THE LETTER 'E'.
      JMP TTT
EQ:  MVI C,#3D    ;'#3D' IS THE ASCII CODE FOR
                        ; THE SIGN '='.
      JMP SET
GT:  MVI C,#3E    ;'#3E' IS THE ASCII CODE FOR
                        ;THE SIGN '>'.
      JMP SET
LT:  MVI C,#3C    ;'#3C' IS THE ASCII CODE FOR
                        ;THE SIGN '<'.

```

```

        JMP SET
BLN: MVI C,#20    ;'#20' IS THE ASCII CODE FOR
                  ;THE 'SPACE'.

        JMP SET
XTAR: MVI C,#3F   ;'#3F' IS THE ASCII CODE FOR
                  ;THE SIGN '?'.

        JMP SET
*****
;
;*****
;THIS SUBROUTINE GETS TWO ASCII CHARACTERS FROM
;CONSOLE DEVICE AND CONVERTS THEM INTO ONE BYTE
;(8-BITS HEX) DATA.
;-----
        GET: CALL GETCH    ;GET ONE ASCII CHARACTER.
              CALL ECHO    ;DISPLAY.
              CALL CNVBN   ;CONVERT IT INTO ITS.
                          ;BINARY VALUE.

              RLC
              RLC
              RLC
              RLC          ;ALTOGETHER FOUR LEFT SHIFTS.
              STA #1360   ;STORE AT LOC. #1360.
              CALL GETCH  ;GET ANOTHER ASCII CHARACTER
              CALL ECHO   ;DISPLAY.
              CALL CNVBN  ;CONVERT IT INTO ITS
                          ;BINARY VALUE.

              MOV C,A     ;MOVE IT TO C-REGISTER.
              LDA #1360   ;LOAD A- REGISTER FROM
                          ;LOC. #1360
              ADD C       ;ADD WITH C-REGISTER.
              RET

;*****
;
;*****
;THIS SUBROUTINE LOADS OPERANDS AND OPERATION
;CODE TO RESIDUE ARITHMETIC UNIT(RAU) AND
;GETS THE RESULT OUT OF IT.
;-----
LOAD: MVI A,#60    ;'#60' IS THE ADDRESS
                  ;OF THE LATCH ASSIGNED
                  ;FOR FIRST OPERAND (X).

              OUT #16    ;SEND TO C-PORT (UPPER).
              LDA #1361  ;LOAD FIRST OPERAND FROM
                          ;LOC.#1361.

              OUT #14    ;SEND IT TO A-PORT.
              MVI A,#50  ;'#50' IS THE ADDRESS
                          ;OF THE LATCH ASSIGNED
                          ;FOR SECOND OPERAND (Y).

              OUT #16    ;SEND TO C-PORT (UPPER).
              LDA #1363  ;LOAD SECOND OPERAND FROM
                          ;LOC.#1363.

              OUT #14    ;SEND IT TO A-PORT.

```

```

MVI A,#30      ;'#30' IS THE ADDRESS
                ;OF THE LATCH ASSIGNED
                ;FOR OPERATION CODE.
OUT #14        ;SEND TO C-PORT (UPPER).
LDA #1365      ;LOAD OPERATION CODE FROM
                ;LOC.#1365.
OUT #14        ;SEND IT TO A-PORT.
IN #15         ;GET THE RESULT FROM B-PORT.
STA #1370      ;STOE IT AT LOC.#1370.
MOV B,A        ;MOVE IT TO B-REG. .
IN #16         ;GET SIGN AND OVERFLOW
                ;INFORMATION FROM C-PORT (LOWER).
STA #1371      ;STORE IT AT LOC.#1371.
RET

```

```

;*****
;

```

```

;*****
;THESE ARE THE SUBROUTINES FOR ADDITION,SUBTRACTION
;MULTIPLICATION,COMPARISON, AND FOR GETTING
;FIRST APPROXIMATION FOR INTEGER DIVISION.
;-----

```

```

MU: MVI A,#0B  ;'#0B' IS THE CODE FOR
                ;MULTIPLICATION.
JPM: STA #1365 ;STORE AT #1365.
      CALL LOAD
      RET
AD: MVI A,#06  ;'#06' IS THE CODE FOR
                ;ADDITION.
      JMP JPM
SU: MVI A,#05  ;'#05' IS THE CODE FOR
                ;SUBTRACTION.
      JMP JPM
CM: MVI A,#40  ;'#40' IS THE CODE FOR
                ;COMPARISON (UNSIGNED
                ;NUMBER).
      JMP JPM
CV: MVI A,#80  ;'#80' IS THE CODE FOR
                ;COMPARISON (SIGNED
                ;NUMBER).
      JMP JPM
DI: MVI A,#01  ;'#01' IS THE CODE FOR
                ;GETTING APPROXIMATE
                ;QUOTIENT (FIRST
                ;APPROXIMATION).
      JMP JPM

```

```

;*****
;

```

```

;*****
;THIS SUBROUTINE SIGNALS TO THE CONSOLE DEVICE
;TO GET OPERANDS.
;-----

```

```

TAKE: CALL MNT  ;SIGNAL 'M='.
      CALL GET  ;GET ONE BYTE DATA.

```

```

        STA #1361    ;STORE AT #1361.
        CALL BLN     ;GIVE SPACE.
        CALL MNT     ;SIGNAL 'M='.
        CALL GET     ;GET ANOTHER BYTE OF DATA.
        STA #1363    ;STORE AT #1363.
        RET

```

```

;*****
;
;*****
;THIS SUBROUTINE SIGNALS OVERFLOW (?),POSITIVE (+),
;NEGATIVE (-),AND SENDS THE RESULT TO THE CONSOLE
;DEVICE.
;-----

```

```

OSIGN: LDA #1371    ;LOAD SIGN AND OVERFLOW
                ;INFORMATION FROM #1371.
        MOV D,A     ;SAVE IT IN D-REG. .
        ANI #02     ;TEST IF RESULT
                ;OVERFLOWS.
        JZ COR     ;IF NOT, JUMP TO 'COR'.
        CALL XTAR   ;OTHERWISE SIGNAL 'T' .
COR:  MOV A,D       ;GET BACK INFORMATION
                ;FROM D-REG. .
        ANI #01     ;TEST IF RESULT IS
                ;NEGATIVE..
        JZ PSI     ;IF NOT, JUMP TO 'PSI'.
        CALL NEG    ;OTHERWISE SIGNAL '-'.
        JMP PSI+3
PSI:  CALL POS     ;SIGNAL '+'.
        LDA #1370   ;LOAD THE RESULT FROM #1370.
        CALL NMOUT  ;CONVERT THE RESULT
                ;INTO ACSII FORM.
        RET

```

```

;*****
;
;*****
;THIS SUBROUTINE SIGNALS COMPARISON CHARACTERS
;TO THE CONSOLE DEVICE.
;-----

```

```

CCHR: LDA #1370    ;LOAD THE RESULT OF
                ;COMPARISION.
        MOV B,A     ;SAVE IN B-REGISTER.
        ANI 01     ;TEST WHETHER LESSER.
        JNZ LLT    ;IF YES, JUMP TO 'LLT' .
        MOV A,B     ;GET THE INFORMATION
                ;FROM B-REG. .
        ANI #02     ;TEST WHETHER GREATER.
        JNZ GGT    ;IF YES, JUMP TO 'GGT' .
        JMP EEQ    ;OTHERWISE JUMP TO 'EEQ'.
LLT:  CALL LT      ;SIGNAL '<'.
        RET
GGT:  CALL GT      ;SIGNAL '>'.
        RET

```

```

      EEQ: CALL EQ      ;SIGNAL '='.
          RET
;*****
;
;*****
;THIS PROGRAME ASKS FOR OPERATION CODES AND TEST
; THE TYPE OF OPERATION REQUIRED.
; CONSOLE DEVICE ISSUES THE FOLLOWING
;CODES:- A (ADDITION),B (SUBTRACTION)
;C (MULTIPLICATION),D (DIVISON),E (COMPARISION
;OF UNSIGNED NUMBER),F (COMPARISON OF SIGNED
;NUMBER),G (FLOATING POINT ADDITION),H (FLOATING
;POINT SUBTRACTION),I (FLOATING POINT MULTIPLI-
;CATION),J (FLOATING POINT DIVISION).
;-----
      TEST: CALL CAR      ;CARRIAGE RETURN AND
                          ;LINE FEED.
          CALL OPC        ;SIGNAL O= TO GET
                          ;OPERATION CODE.
          CALL GETCH      ;GET OPERATION CODE.
          CALL ECHO       ;DISPLAY.
          MOV D,C         ;SAVE IT AT D-REG. .
          CALL BLN        ;GIVE SPACE
          MOV A,D
      AP: CPI #41         ;TEST IF 'A' .
          JZ ADD          ;IF YES JUMP TO 'ADD'.
      SB: CPI #42         ;OTHERWISE, TEST IF 'B'.
          JZ SUB          ;IF YES JUMP TO 'SUB'.
      MM: CPI #43         ;OTHERWISE TEST IF 'C'.
          JZ MUL          ;IF YES JUMP TO 'MUL'.
      DSV: CPI #44        ;OTHERWISE TEST IF 'D'.
          JZ DIV          ;IF YES JUMP TO 'DIV'.
      COUS: CPI #45       ;OTHERWISE TEST IF 'E'.
          JZ COMU         ;IF YES JUMP TO 'COMU'.
      COSI: CPI #46       ;OTHERWISE TEST IF 'F'.
          JZ COMS         ;IF YES JUMP TO 'COMS'.
      FA: CPI #47         ;OTHERWISE TEST IF 'G'.
          JZ FAD          ;IF YES JUMP TO 'FAD'.
      FS: CPI #48         ;OTHERWISE TEST IF 'H'.
          JZ FSU          ;IF YES JUMP TO 'FSU'.
      FM: CPI #49         ;OTERWISE TEST IF 'I'.
          JZ FMU          ;IF YES JUMP TO 'FMU'.
      FD: CPI #4A        ;OTHERWISE TEST IF 'J'.
          JZ FDI          ;IF YES JUMP TO 'FDI'.
          JMP TEST        ;OTHERWISE ASK FOR
                          ;OPERATION CODE.
;*****

```



```

$~~~~~
$*****
$PROGRAM FOR INTEGER RESIDUE DIVISION.
$RESIDUE ARITHMETIC (MODULI: 16 &15 ).
$*****
$THIS PROGRAM STARTS FROM LOC. #09B0 OF
$THE SDK-80 MICROCOMPUTER.
$*****
$
$*****
$                               ORG #09B0
$*****
$                               PROM SETS
$=====
      MU: SET #0890
      AD: SET #0899
      SU: SET #089E
      CM: SET #08A3
      DI: SET #08AD
      A12: SET #0954
      TEST: SET #0908
      LOAD: SET #0869
      TAKE: SET #08B2
$*****
$***** MAIN PROGRAM *****
$=====
      DIV: CALL TAKE      $GET TWO BYTES OF DATA.
                CALL SDIV $DO DIVISION.
      PET: JMP A12       $DISPLAY THE OVERFLOW
                        $(IF ANY), THE SIGN AND
                        $THE RESULT IN BOTH
                        $RESIDUE AND DECIMAL FORM.
$*****
$THIS SUBROUTINE DIVIDES TWO INTEGER NUMBERS.
$-----
      SDIV: LDA #1361     $LOAD THE DIVIDEND FROM
                        $LOC. #1361.
                STA #1340 $STORE IT AT #1340 .
                STA #134F
                MVI A,00
                STA #1380 $INITIALISE THE LOC. OF
                        $SIGN,#1380 TO ZERO.
                STA #1384 $INITIALISE THE LOC. OF
                        $QUOTIENT ,#1384 TO ZERO.
                LDA #1363 $LOAD THE DIVISOR FROM
                        $LOC #1363.
                STA #1342 $STORE AT #1342 .
      TAB: CALL DI      $GET APPROXIMATE QOUTIENT.
                        $(FIRST APPROXIMATION).
                ANI 04   $FIND THE SIGN OF THE RESULT.
                STA #1380 $STORE IT AT LOC. #1380.

```

```

TAC: MOV A,B      ;MOVE THE APPROXIMATE
                  ;QUOTIENT FROM
                  ;B-REG. TO A-REG. .
          STA #1381 ;STORE AT #1381.
          ANI #FF   ;TEST IF APPROXIMATE
                  ;QUOTIENT IS ZERO.
          JZ ZERO   ;IF ZERO, JUMP TO ZERO.
          STA #1363 ;OTHERWISE STORE IT
                  ;AT #1363 .
          LDA #1342 ;LOAD THE DIVISOR FROM
                  ;#1342.

          STA #1361
          CALL MU    ;MULTIPLY APPROXIMATE QUOT.
                  ;AND THE DIVISOR.
          ANI 02     ;TEST IF IT OVERFLOWS.
          JNZ SSC    ;IF YES, JUMP TO 'SSC'.
          MOV A,B
          STA #1363
          LDA #1340  ;LOAD DIVIDEND FROM#1340.
          STA #1361
          CALL CM    ;COMPARE THE RESULT OF
                  ;MULTIPLICATION WITH THE
                  ;DIVIDEND.

          MOV A,B
          ANI 01     ;TEST IF (PRODUCT) > (DIVIDEND).
          JNZ SSC    ;IF YES, JUMP TO 'SSC'.
          LDA #1380  ;GET THE SIGN OF THE
                  ;RESULT FROM #1380.
          ANI #04    ;TEST WHETHER POSITIVE.
          JNZ PASS   ;IF NOT, JUMP TO 'PASS'.
          CALL SU    ;SUBTRACT THE PRODUCT TERM
                  ;FROM THE DIVIDEND.
TAD: MOV A,B      ;MOVE THE RESULT OF SUB-
                  ;TRACTION TO A-REG. .
          STA #1340  ;STORE IT AS A NEW DIVIDEND
                  ;AT #1340.
          LDA #1384  ;LOAD THE PARTIAL QUOT.
                  ;FROM #1384.

          STA #1363
          LDA #1381  ;LOAD THE APPROXIMATE QUOT.
                  ;FROM #1381.

          STA #1361
          CALL AD    ;ADD TO FORM A NEW PARTIAL
                  ;QUOTIENT.
          STA #1316  ;STORE SIGN &OVERFLOW.
          MOV A,B
          STA #1384  ;STORE IT AT #1384.
          JMP SSC    ;GET THE QUOTIENT DIVIDED
                  ;BY TWO (IT IS THE NUMBER
                  ;GENERATED AFTER DIVIDING
                  ;THE NUMBER STORED AT #1381
                  ;BY TWO).

```

```

ZERO: LDA #1380      ;LOAD THE SIGN OF THE
                   ;RESULT FROM #1380.

                   RRC
                   RRC      ;ALTOGETHER TWO RIGHT SHIFTS.
                   MOV B,A
                   LDA #1316
                   ANI 02
                   ADD B
                   STA #1371
                   CPI 03      ;TEST IF A-REG.
                               ;CONTAINS 03
                   JZ KATH     ;IF YES, JUMP TO 'KATH'.
                   CPI 02      ;TEST IF 02.
                   JZ KATR     ;IF YES, JUMP TO 'KATR'.
                   ANI 01      ;TEST IF THE RESULT
                               ;IS POSITIVE.
                   JZ KAT      ;IF YES, JUMP TO 'KAT'.
                   LDA #1384   ;OTHERWISE LOAD THE
                               ;QUOT. FROM #1384.

                   STA #1363
                   MVI A,00
                   STA #1361
                   CALL SU     ;SUBTRACT THE QUOT.
                               ;FROM ZERO TO FORM
                               ;NEGATIVE FORM OF QUOT.

                   MOV A,B
                   STA #1370
                   RET

KATH: MVI A,01      ;THIS IS THE SIGN AND
                   ;OVERFLOW INFORMATION.

                   STA #1371
                   JMP KAT

KATR: MVI A,03     ;THIS IS THE SIGN AND
                   ;OVERFLOW INFORMATION.

                   STA #1371
KAT:  LDA #1384    ;LOAD THE QUOT.
                   ;FROM #1384

                   STA #1370
                   RET

```

```

;*****
;

```

```

;*****
;

```

```

;THIS PROGRAMME ADDS THE PRODUCT TERM WITH
;THE DIVIDEND, IF THE SIGN OF THE RESULT
;IS NEGATIVE, TO FORM A NEW PARTIAL REMAINDER.
;

```

```

-----
PASS: CALL AD
      JMP TAD

```

```

;*****

```

THIS PROGRAM GETS A NUMBER DIVIDED BY TWO.

```
SSC: LDA #1381    ;LOAD THE NUMBER  
                ;TO BE DIVIDED FROM  
                ;LOC. #1381.  
  
        STA #1361  
        MVI A,#09    ;'#09' IS THE OPERATION  
                ;CODE FOR DIVIDE BY 2.  
  
        STA #1365  
        CALL LOAD  
        JMP TAC
```

END

AP-6(b): Listings of Floating Point Operations

```

;$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
;*****
;FLOATING POINT ADDITION WITH ELEVEN AS THE
;THE BASE OF EXPONENT ('#BB' IS THE REPRESENTATION
;OF ELEVEN IN RESIDUE SYSTEM OF MODULI 16 & 15
;*****
;PROGRAMME STARTS FROM LOC. #0AAA OF THE SDK-80
;MICROCOMPUTER.
;*****
;                               ORG #0AAA
;*****
;                               FROM SETS
;-----
MNT: SET #0827
EPT: SET #082C
BLN: SET #0840
GET: SET #084A
MU: SET #0890
AD: SET #0899
SU: SET #089E
CM: SET #08A3
OVER: SET #0C00
SSSP: SET #0FB3
SDIV: SET #09B9
;*****
;
;*****
;THE SUBROUTINE 'CAD' SIGNALS TO GET
;MANTISSAS AND EXPONENTS.
;-----
CAD: MVI D,02      ;LOAD D-REG. WITH #02.
      LXI H,#1350  ;LOAD H AND L REGISTERS
                        ;WITH #1350.
DAD: CALL MNT      ;SIGNAL 'M='.
      CALL GET     ;GET MANTISSA.
      MOV M,A      ;STORE THE MANTISSA AT
                        ;THE LOC. FORMED BY THE
                        ;CONTENTS OF H AND L
                        ;REGISTERS.
      INR L        ;INCREASE THE CONTENTS
                        ;OF THE REGISTER L.
      CALL BLN     ;GIVE 'SPACE'.
      CALL EPT     ;SIGNAL 'E='.
      CALL GET     ;GET THE EXPONENT.
      MOV M,A      ;STORE IT AT THE LOC.
                        ;FORMED BY THE CONTENTS
                        ;OF THE REGISTER PAIR
                        ;(H,L).
      INR L        ;INCREASE THE CONTENTS OF
                        ;THE REGISTER L.
      CALL BLN     ;GIVE 'SPACE'.
      DCR D        ;DECREASE D-REG. .

```

```

                JNZ DAD          ;IF NON ZERO, GET ANOTHER
                                ;SET OF MANTISSA AND
                                ;EXPONENT.
                RET              ;OTHERWISE RETURN.
;*****
;THIS SUBROUTINE SEPARATES A RESIDUE NUMBER INTO
;TWO TERMS.
;A= A(2)*(#BB)1 + A(1)*(#BB)0.
;IN SAME WAY IT CAN BE WRITTEN THAT
;B= B(2)*(#BB)1 + B(1)*(#BB)0.
;C=C(2)*(#BB)1+C(1)*(#BB)0.
;WHERE A = FIRST MANTISSA. B=SECOND MANTISSA.
;C= THE MANTISSA OF THE RESULT.
;THIS SUBROUTINE CALLS THE SUBROUTINE 'SSSP'
;WHICH GIVES THE QUOTIENT AND REMAINDER
;WHEN A NUMBER AT LOC. #1391 IS DIVIDED BY
;THE NUMBER AT LOC. #1390.THE LOC. OF
;QUOTIENT IS #1392 AND OF REMAINDER IS #1393.
;-----
                SSEP: MVI A,#BB  ;'#BB' IS THE RESIDUE
                                ;REPRESENTATION OF ELEVEN.

                STA #1390
                CALL SSSP ;DIVIDE THE CONTENTS AT
                                ;LOC. #1391 BY ELEVEN.
                                ;AND GET QUOT. AND
                                ;REMAINDER.

                LDA #1346 ;LOAD THE SIGN OF THE
                                ;THE COEFFICIENT OF
                                ;0-POWER OF (#BB) (ELEVEN).

                ANI 01      ;TEST IF NEGATIVE.
                JZ CAT      ;IF NOT JUMP TO 'CAT'.
                STA #1345   ;OTHERWISE STORE THE SIGN OF
                                ;THE MANTISSA AT #1345.

                CAT: LDA #1393 ;LOAD THE COEFFICIENT OF
                                ;0-POWER OF (#BB) (ELEVEN).

                MOV B,A
                LDA #1392   ;LOAD THE COEFFICIENT OF
                                ;1-POWER OF (#BB) (ELEVEN).

                RET
;*****
;*****
;THE SUBROUTINE 'SELE' ALIGNS THE MANTISSA AND
;CONVERTS THE ALIGNED MANTISSA A ROUNDED FIGURE.
;-----
                SELE: ANI 01  ;FIND THE SIGN OF THE
                                ;EXP.-DIFF. FROM THE SIGN
                                ;INFORMATION IN A-REG. .

                CNZ TAG      ;IF NEGATIVE, JUMP 'TAG'.

                GAT: LDA #1351 ;LOAD THE EXPONENT OF
                                ;SMALLER OPERAND.

```

```

          STA #1375      ;STORE IT AT #1375.
SAT:     LDA #1370      ;LOAD THE EXPONENT
          ;DIFFERENCE FROM #1370.
          STA #135F      ;SAVE AT #135F.
          STA #1363
          MVI A,#11
          STA #1361
          CALL CM        ;COMPARE THE EXP.-DIFF.
          ;WITH ONE (#11).

          MOV A,B
          ANI 01        ;TEST IF THE EXP.-DIFF.
          ;IS GREATER.
          JNZ FINIS     ;IF YES, JUMP 'FINIS'.
          MOV A,B
          ANI 04        ;OTHERWISE, TEST IF THE
          ;EXP.-DIFF. IS EQUAL.
          JNZ SEND      ;IF YES, JUMP 'PEND'.
          RET
SEND:    CALL PEND
          MVI A,00
          STA #135C
          RET

```

```

;*****
;(NOTE: EXP.-DIFF. STANDS FOR EXPONENT DIFFERENCE).
;*****
;
;
;
;

```

```

-----
FINIS:   MVI A,#22
          STA #1361
          CALL CM        ;COMPARE THE EXP.-DIFF.
          ;WITH #22 (TWO).

          MOV A,B
          ANI 04        ;TEST IF EQUAL.
          JNZ FIXE     ;IF YES, JUMP 'FIXE'.
          MVI A,00      ;OTHERWISE STORE
          STA #135C     ;ZERO AT LOC.#135C & #135D.
          STA #135D
          RET
FIXE:    LDA #135C      ;LOAD THE COEFFICIENT
          ;OF 1-POWER OF (H#BB)
          ;(SMALLER OPERAND)
          STA #135D     ;STORE AT #135D
          MVI A,00
          STA #135C     ;STORE ZERO AT #135C.

```

```

-----
;THIS SUBROUTINE, 'PEND' IS ALSO CALLED FOR
;ROUNDING A NUMBER DURING NORMALISATION AFTER
;FLOATING POINT MULTIPLICATION AND ADDITION.
-----

```

```

PEND:    LDA #135B      ;LOAD SIGN OF THE
          ;MANTISSA WHICH IS TO BE
          ;ROUNDED.

```

```

ANI 01          ;TEST THE SIGN.
JNZ NEGA       ;IF NEGATIVE, JUMP 'NEGA'.
MVI A,#55     ;'#55' (FIVE) IS THE
              ;TRUNCATED NUMBER OF
              ;HALF OF ELEVEN.

FEND: STA #1361
LDA #135D     ;LOAD THE NUMBER WHICH IS TO
              ;BE ROUNDED FROM #135D.

STA #1363
CALL AD       ;ADD TO THE
              ;CONTENTS OF LOC.#1363.

MOV A,B
STA #1391
CALL SSEP     ;DIVIDE THE RESULT OF
              ;ADDITION BY ELEVEN.
              ;AND GET QUOT. &
              ;REMAINDER.

STA #1361     ;STORE THE QUOT.
              ;AT #1361.

LDA #135C     ;LOAD COEFFICIENT OF
              ;1-POWER OF #BB (ELEVEN).

STA #1363
CALL AD       ;ADD THE QUOT. (GENERATED
              ;IN 'SSEP').

MOV A,B
STA #135D     ;STORE AS THE COEFF.
              ;OF ZERO POWER OF #BB
              ;(ELEVEN).

RET

NEGA: MVI A,#BA ;'#BA' IS THE NEGATIVE
              ;FORM OF FIVE IN
              ;RESIDUE SYSTEM (MOD
              ;16,15)

JMP FEND

TAG: LDA #1351 ;LOAD THE EXPONENT OF
              ;FIRST OPERAND.

MOV B,A
LDA #1353     ;LOAD THE EXPONENT OF
              ;SECOND OPERAND.

STA #1351     ;STORE IT AT #1351.
MOV A,B
STA #1353     ;STORE IT AT #1353.
              ;(EXCHANGE OF THE
              ;CONTENS BETWEEN #1351
              ;AND #1353).

LDA #1358     ;LOAD THE SIGN OF THE
              ;FIRST OPERAND.

MOV B,A
LDA #135B     ;LOAD THE SIGN OF THE
              ;SECOND OPERAND FROM #135B.

```

```

STA #1358      ;STORE IT AT #1358.
MOV A,B
STA #135B      ;STORE IT AT #135B.
                ;(EXCHANGE OF THE CONTENTS
                ;BETWEEN #1358 AND #135B).
LDA #1359      ;LOAD A(2) OF FIRST
                ;MANTISSA FROM #1359.
MOV B,A
LDA #135C      ;LOAD B(2) OF SECOND
                ;MANTISSA FROM #135C.
STA #1359      ;STORE IT AT #1359.
MOV A,B
STA #135C      ;STORE IT AT #135C.
                ;(EXCHANGE OF THE CONTENTS
                ;BETWEEN #1359 AND #135C).
LDA #135A      ;LOAD A(1) OF FIRST
                ;MANTISSA FROM #135A
MOV B,A
LDA #135D      ;LOAD B(1) OF SECOND
                ;MANTISSA FROM #135D.
STA #135A      ;STORE IT AT #135A.
MOV A,B
STA #135D      ;STORE IT AT #135D.
                ;(EXCHANGE OF CONTENTS
                ;BETWEEN #135A AND #135D).

RET
;*****
;
;*****
;THIS SUBROUTINE NORMALISES THE RESULT AFTER
;ADDITION / SUBTRACTION.
;-----
NORM: LDA #13A0      ;LOAD C(2) OF THE
                    ;RESULT FROM #13A0.
STA #1361
MVI A,#BB
STA #1363
CALL MU            ;MULTIPLY C(2) OF
                    ;THE RESULT BY ELEVEN.
ANI 02            ;TEST IF IT OVERFLOWS.
JNZ OVER          ;IF YES, JUMP 'OVER'.
MOV A,B           ;OTHERWISE, MOVE THE
                    ;PRODUCT FROM B-REG.
                    ;A-REG. .

```



```

LDA #1376      ;LOAD THE COEFFICIENT OF
               ;FIRST POWER OF #BB
               ;(ELEVEN) FROM #1376.
STA #135C      ;STORE IT AT #135C.
CALL PEND      ;CALL 'PEND' FOR ROUNDING.
LDA #135D      ;LOAD THE ROUNDED NUMBER
               ;FROM #135D.

STA #1376
RET

```

```

;*****
;

```

```

;*****
;THIS SUBROUTINE DISPLAYS THE RESULT OF FL. PT.
;ARITHMETIC OPERATIONS.
;-----

```

```

OUTPUT: CALL CAR      ;CARRIAGE RETURN AND
                   ;LINE FEED.
          CALL MNT      ;SIGNAL 'M=' .
          LDA #1376      ;LOAD THE MANTISSA OF
                   ;THE RESULT FROM #1376.

          STA #1370      ;LOAD SIGN AND OVERFLOW
          LDA #137F      ;INFORMATION\OF THE
                   ;MANTISSA OF THE RESULT
                   ;FROM #137F.

          STA #1371
          CALL OSIGN      ;SIGNAL OVERFLOW (IF ANY)
                   ;AND SIGN OF THE RESULT.
                   ;AND THE RESULT (MANTISSA)
                   ;IN RESIDUE FORM.

          CALL BLN      ;GIVE 'SPACE' .
          CALL EPT      ;SIGNAL 'E=' .
          LDA #1375      ;LOAD THE EXP. OF THE
                   ;THE RESULT.

          STA #1370
          LDA #1374      ;LOAD THE SIGN AND
                   ;OVERFLOW INFORMATION
                   ;OF THE
                   ;EXP. OF THE RESULT.

          STA #1371
          CALL OSIGN
          RET

```

```

;*****
;

```

```

;*****
;THIS IS THE MAIN PROGRAM OF FL. PT.
;ADDITION.
;-----

```

```

FAD: CALL CAD      ;GET TWO FL. PT. NUMBERS.
      CALL TZERO    ;TEST FOR ZERO
                   ;MANTISSAS.

```

```

CALL KATCH    ;FIND THE COEFFICIENTS
              ;OF (#BB) & (#BB)
              ;FROM MANTISSAS.
CALL EXPO    ;FIND EXP.-DIFF. AND
              ;ALIGN THE COEFFICIENTS .
CALL MAD     ;ADD THE COEFICIENTS.
CALL TAD     ;FIND THE SIGN OF EXP. .
CALL NORM    ;NORMALISE.
CALL TAP     ;FIND THE SIGN OF THE
              ;RESULT.
CALL OUTPU   ;DISPLAY OVERFLOW
              ;(IF ANY) ,SIGN AND
              ;RESULT IN RESIDUE FORM.
JMP FBCD    ;DISPLAY OVERFLOW
              ;(IF ANY) ,SIGN AND
              ;RESULT IN DECIMAL FORM.
;*****
;
;*****
;THIS SUBROUTINE SEPARATES EACH OF THE
;MANTISSAS INTO TWO TERMS. THIS MEANS
;A= A(2)*(#BB)1 + A(1)*(#BB)0.
;B=B(2)*(#BB)1 +B(1)*(#BB)0.
;IN OTHERWORDS THIS SUBROUTINE FINDS
;A(2) ,A(1) ,B(2) & B(1) .
;-----
      KATCH: LDA #1350    ;LOAD MANTISSA OF FIRST
                      ;OPERAND.
              STA #1391
              CALL SSEP  ;GET TWO TERMS.
              STA #1359  ;STORE THE COEFFICIENT
                      ;( A(2) ) OF
                      ;FIRST POWER OF #BB
                      ;(ELEVEN) AT #1359.
              MOV A,B
              STA #135A  ;STORE THE COEFFICIENT
                      ;( A(1) )
                      ;OF ZERO POWER OF #BB
                      ;(ELEVEN) AT #135A.
              LDA #1345  ;LOAD THE SIGN OF THE
                      ;FIRST OPERAND (MANTISSA).
              STA #1358  ;STORE IT AT #1358.
              LDA #1352  ;LOAD THE MANTISSA OF
                      ;SECOND OPERAND.
              STA #1391
              CALL SSEP  ;GET TWO TERMS.
              STA #135C  ;STORE THE COEFFICIENT
                      ;( B(2) ) OF FIRST POWER
                      ;OF #BB (ELEVEN) AT #135C.
              MOV A,B
              STA #135D  ;STORE THE COEFFICIENT
                      ;( B(1) ) OF ZERO POWER
                      ;OF #BB (ELEVEN).
              LDA #1345  ;LOAD THE SIGN OF THE
                      ;SECOND OPERAND (MANTISSA).
              STA #135B  ;STORE IT AT #135B.
              RET
;*****

```

```

;*****
;THIS SUBROUTINE ADDS THE COEFFICIENTS
;THAT MEANS ( A(2)+B(2) ) AND
;( A(1)+B(1) ).
;-----

```

```

MAD: LDA #1359    ;LOAD THE COEFF. A(2).
      STA #1361
      LDA #135C    ;LOAD THE COEFF. B(2).
      STA #1363
      CALL AD      ;ADD A(2) AND B(2).
      STA #137F    ;STORE THE SIGN AND OVERFLOW
                  ;INFORMATION AT #137F.

      MOV A,B
      STA #1376    ;STORE THE RESULT OF
                  ;A(2)+B(2) AT #1376
                  ;AND ALSO AT #13A0.
      STA #13A0
      LDA #135A    ;LOAD THE COEFF. A(1).
      STA #1361
      LDA #135D    ;LOAD THE COEFF. B(1).
      STA #1363
      CALL AD      ;ADD A(1) AND B(1).
      MOV A,B
      STA #1377    ;STORE THE RESULT OF
                  ;A(1)+B(1) AT #1377.
                  ;AND ALSO AT #13A1.
      STA #13A1
      RET

```

```

;*****
;
;*****
;THIS SUBROUTINE FINDS THE SIGN
;OF THE EXPONENT OF THE RESULT.
;-----

```

```

TAD: LDA #1375    ;LOAD THE EXP. OF THE
                  ;RESULT.

      STA #1361
      MVI A,00
      STA #1363
      CALL AD      ;ADD THE EXP. WITH ZERO.
      STA #1374    ;STORE THE SIGN AT #1374.
      RET

```

```

;*****

```



```

*****
FLOATING POINT MULTIPLICATION
RESIDUE ARITHMETIC (MODULI: 16 & 15)
*****
PROGRAMME STARTS FROM LOC. #0D20 OF THE
SDK-80 MICROCOMPUTER.
*****
                                ORG #0D20
*****
                                FROM SETS
-----
      FMT: SET #0456
      CAD: SET #0AA0
      MAD: SET #0CA9
      TAP: SET #0D03
      MU:  SET #0890
      AD:  SET #0899
      SSEP: SET #0AC0
      PEND: SET #0B2F
      FBCD: SET #0EE5
      OUTPU: SET #0C33
      KATCH: SET #0C7C
*****
*****
THE MAIN PROGRAMME FOR FL. PT. MULTIPLICATION.
-----
      FMU: CALL CAD      ;GET TWO OPERANDS
           CALL FMT     ;MULTIPLY AND NORMALISE
           CALL EXP     ;FIND THE EXP. OF THE
                       ;RESULT.
           CALL OUTPU   ;DISPLAY THE OVERFLOW
                       ;(IF ANY) , THE SIGN
                       ;AND THE RESULT IN
                       ;RESIDUE FORM.
           JMP FBCD     ;DISPLAY THE RESULT IN
                       ;DECIMAL FORM.
*****

```



```

MOV A,B
STA #1322    §STORE IT AT #1322.
STA #1352
CALL KATCH  §SEPARATE EACH OF THE
             §COEFFICIENTS OF
             §1-POWER OF #BB (ELEVEN)
             §INTO TWO TERMS.
CALL MAD    §ADD THE COEFFICIENT,
            §GENERATED IN 'KATCH'.
            §THIS ADDITION GENERATES
            §TWO COEFF. (1) 1-POWER
            §OF #BB, (2) 0-POWER OF
            §#BB (ELEVEN).
            §(THE COEFFICIENTS OF
            §1-POWER AND 0-POWER OF
            §#BB IN 'MAD' IS REALY
            §THE COEFFICIENTS OF
            §2-POWER AND 1-POWER OF
            §#BB RESPECTIVELY, IN
            §THE PARTIAL PRODUCTS - 'P.P').
LDA #1376   §LOAD THE COEFF. OF
            §1-POWER OF #BB
            §GENERATED IN 'MAD'.

STA #1361
LDA #1320   §LOAD THE COEFF. OF
            §2-POWER (IN PARTIAL
            §PRODUCT).

STA #1363
CALL AD     §ADD THE COEFF. OF
            §2-POWER (IN PARTIAL
            §PRODUCT) AND 1-POWER
            §(GENERATED IN 'MAD').

MOV A,B
STA #137A   §STORE THE RESULT
            §OF ADDITION AT #137A.
LDA #1323   §LOAD THE COEFF. OF
            §0-POWER (IN P.P)
            §FROM #1323.

STA #1391
CALL SSEP  §FIND TWO COEFFICIENTS
            §OF THE NUMBER AT #1391.
STA #1361   §STORE THE COEFF. OF
            §1-POWER (GENERATED IN
            §'SSEP') AT #1361.
LDA #1345   §LOAD THE SIGN OF
            §THE COEFF. OF
            §0-POWER OF #BB(IN P.P).
            §FROM #1345.
STA #137D   §STORE IT AT #137D.
MOV A,B     §MOVE THE COEFF. OF
            §0-POWER OF #BB
            §(GENERATED IN 'SSEP').
            §FROM B-REG. TO A-REG.
STA #137E   §STORE IT AT #137E.
LDA #1377   §LOAD THE COEFF.
            §OF 0-POWER OF #BB
            §(GENERATED IN 'MAD')

```

```

STA #1363
CALL AD      ;ADD THE COEFF. OF
             ;0-POWER OF #BB
             ;(GENERATED IN 'MAD')
             ;AND THE COEFF. OF
             ;1-POWER OF #BB
             ;(GENERATED IN 'SSEP')
STA #137B    ;STORE THE SIGN OF THE
             ;ADDITION AT #137B.

MOV A,B
STA #137C    ;STORE THE FINAL COEFF.
             ;OF 1-POWER OF #BB
             ;AT #137C. (THIS IS
             ;THE FINAL COEFF. OF
             ;1-POWER OF #BB IN P.P).

RET
;*****
;THIS SUBROUTINE NORMALISES
;-----
NORL: LDA #137A    ;LOAD THE COEFF. OF
                 ;2-POWER OF #BB (IN P.P)
                 ;FROM #137A.

STA #1361
MVI A,00
STA #1334      ;STORE ZERO AT #1334
                 ;(LOC. OF GENERATED EXP.)

MVI A,#BB
STA #1363
CALL MU        ;MULTIPLY THE COEFF. OF
                 ;2-POWER OF #BB (IN P.P)
                 ;WITH #BB (ELEVEN).

STA #133F      ;STORE THE SIGN AND OVERFLOW
                 ;INFORMATION AT #133F.

ANI 02
JNZ POVER     ;IF YES , JUMP 'POVER'.
MOV A,B
STA #1361
LDA #137C     ;LOAD THE COEFF. OF
                 ;1-POWER OF #BB (IN P.P)

STA #1363
CALL AD       ;ADD THE PREVIOUS
                 ;PRODUCT TERM TO THE COEFF.
                 ;OF 1-POWER OF #BB (IN P.P).

STA #133F     ;STORE THE SIGN AND OVERFLOW
                 ;INFORMATION OF ADDITION
                 ;AT #133F.

ANI 02
JNZ POVER     ;IF YES, JUMP 'POVER'.
MOV A,B
STA #137A     ;STORE THE RESULT OF
                 ;ADDITION AT #137A.

```

```

STA #1361
MVI A,#BB
STA #1363
CALL MU          ;MULTIPLY THE RESULT OF
                 ;ADDITION BY #BB (ELEVEN).
STA #133F        ;STORE THE SIGN AND OVERFLOW
                 ;INFORMATION OFMULTIPLICATION
                 ;AT #133F.
ANI 02          ;TEST IF OVERFLOW.
JNZ COVER       ;IF YES, JUMP 'COVER'.
MOV A,B
STA #1361        ;STORE THE RESULT OF
                 ;MULTIPLICATION AT #1361.
LDA #137E        ;LOAD THE COEFF. OF
                 ;0-POWER OF #BB (IN P.F).
STA #1363
CALL AD         ;ADD THE PREVIOUS RESULT
                 ;OF MULTIPLICATION TO
                 ;ZERO POWER OF #BB (IN P.F).
STA #133F        ;STORE THE SIGN AND OVERFLOW
                 ;INFORMATION OF ADDITION
                 ;AT #133F.
ANI 02          ;TEST IF OVERFLOW.
JNZ COVER       ;IF YES, JUMP 'COVER'.
MOV A,B
STA #1376        ;STORE THE NORMALISED
                 ;NUMBER AT #1376.
LDA #133F        ;LOAD THE SIGN AND
                 ;OVERFLOW INFORMATION
                 ;FROM #133F.
ANI 01          ;FIND THE SIGN OF
                 ;THE FINAL RESULT.
STA #137F        ;STORE IT AT #137F.
RET

```

```

;*****
;

```

```

;*****
;THIS ROUTINE TAKES CARE OF ROUNDING A
;NUMBER. (AFTER FIRST OR SECOND OVERFLOW
;DETECTION IN THE SUBROUTINE 'NORL').
;-----

```

```

FOVER: MVI A,#22      ;'#22' (TWO) IS THE
                   ;GENERATED EXPONENT.
STA #1334           ;STORE IT AT #1334.
LDA #137B           ;LOAD THE SIGN OF THE
                   ;COEFF.OF 1-POWER OF
                   ;#BB (IN P.F).FROM #137B.
STA #135B           ;STORE IT AT #135B.
LDA #137C           ;LOAD THE COEFF. OF
                   ;1-POWER OF #BB (IN P.F)
                   ;FROM #137C.

```

```

      STA #135D      ;STORE IT AT #135D.
      LDA #137A      ;LOAD THE COEFF. OF
                    ;2-POWER OF #BB (IN P.P)
                    ;FROM #137A.

      STA #135C      ;STOR IT AT #135C.
      CALL PEND      ;GET ROUNDED NUMBER
                    ;OF THE COEFFICIENT
                    ;OF 2-POWER OF #BB.
CAP:  LDA #135D      ;LOAD THE ROUNDED
                    ;NUMBER FROM #135D.

      STA #1376      ;STORE IT AT #1376.
      CALL TAP       ;FIND THE SIGN OF
                    ;THE MANTISSA OF THE
                    ;RESULT.

      STA #137F      ;STORE IT AT #137F.
      RET

;*****
;
;*****
;THIS PROGRAM TAKES CARE OF ROUNDING
;A NUMBER AFTER THIRD OR FOURTH OVERFLOW
;DETECTION IN THE SUBROUTINE 'NORL'.
;-----
      COVER: MVI A,#11      ;'#11' (ONE) IS THE
                    ;GENERATED EXPONENT.

      STA #1334      ;STORE IT AT #1334.
      LDA #137D      ;LOAD THE SIGN OF THE
                    ;COEFF. OF 0-POER OF
                    ;#BB (IN P.P) FROM
                    ;#137D.

      STA #135B      ;STORE IT AT #135B.
      LDA #137E      ;LOAD THE COEFF. OF
                    ;0-POWER OF #BB (INF.P)
                    ;FROM #137E.

      STA #135D      ;STORE IT AT #135D.
      LDA #137A      ;LOAD THE COEFF. OF
                    ;1-POWER OF #BB (IN P.P)
                    ;FROM #137A.

      STA #135C      ;STORE IT AT #135C.
      CALL PEND      ;GET ROUNDED NUMBER
                    ;OF THE COEFF. OF
                    ;1-POWER OF #BB.

      JMP CAP

;*****
;THIS SUBROUTIE FINDS THE EXPONENT OF THE
;MANTISSA OF THE RESULT.
;-----
      EXP:  LDA #1351      ;LOAD THE EXP. OF
                    ;THE FIRST OPERAND
                    ;FROM #1351.

      STA #1361

```

```

LDA #1353      ;LOAD THE EXP. OF
                ;THE SECOND OPERAND.
                ;FROM #1353.

STA #1363
CALL AD        ;ADD TWO EXPONENTS.
ANI 02         ;TEST IF OVERFLOW.
MOV C,A       ;MOVE THE OVERFLOW
                ;INFORMATION FROM A-REG.
                ;TO C-REG.

MOV A,B       ;MOVE THE RESULT OF ADDITION
                ;FROM B-REG. TO A-REG.

STA #1363
LDA #1334     ;LOAD THE GENERATED EXP.
                ;FROM #1334.

STA #1361
CALL AD        ;ADD THE GENERATED EXP.
MOV H,A       ;MOVE THE SIGN AND
                ;OVERFLOW INFORMATION
                ;FROM A-REG. TO H-REG.

ANI 02         ;TEST IF OVERFLOW.
MOV E,A       ;MOVE THE OVERFLOW
                ;INFORMATION FROM A-REG.
                ;TO E-REG.

MOV A,B       ;MOVE THE RESULT OF
                ;ADDITION FROM B-REG.
                ;TO A-REG.

STA #1375     ;STORE IT (FINAL EXP.)
                ;AT #1375.

MOV B,C       ;MOVE THE OVERFLOW
                ;INFORMATION (AFTER
                ;FIRST ADDITION) FROM C-REG.
                ;TO B-REG.

MOV A,E       ;MOVE THE OVERFLOW
                ;INFORMATION (AFTER
                ;SECOND ADDITION)
                ;FROM E-REG. TO A-REG.

XRA B         ;EXCLUSIVE OR WITH
                ;A-REG AND B-REG.

MOV B,A       ;MOVE FINAL OVERFLOW
                ;INFORMATION OF EXP.
                ;FROM A-REG. TO B-REG.

MOV A,H       ;MOVE THE SIGN AND OVERFLOW
                ;INFORMATION (AFTER
                ;SECOND ADDITION) FROM H-REG.
                ;TO A-REG.

ANI 01         ;FIND THE SIGN OF EXP.
ADD B         ;FORM SIGN AND OVERFLOW
                ;INFORMATION OF EXP.

STA #1374
RET

```

```

;*****

```

```

*****
# THIS SUBROUTINE TESTS WHETHER ANY ONE OF THE
# MANTISSAS IS ZERO. IF ZERO THE EXPONENT OF THE
# CORRESPONDING MANTISSA IS SET TO ZERO.
# THIS SUBROUTINE IS CALLED DURING FL. PT.
# ADDITION/SUBTRACTION FOR TESTING ZERO-
# MANTISSAS.
# -----
TZERO: LDA #1350      #LOAD THE MANTISSA OF
                   #FIRST OPERAND FROM #1350.
        CPI 00        #TEST IF ZERO IS OF THE
                   #FORM '00'.
        CZ RZERO      #IF ZERO, CALL 'RZERO.
        CPI #OF       #TEST IF ZERO IS OF THE
                   #FORM 'OF'.
        CZ RZERO      #IF ZERO, CALL 'RZERO'.
        LDA #1352     #LOAD THE MANTISSA OF
                   #SECOND OPERAND FROM #1352.
        CPI 00        #TEST IF ZERO IS OF THE
                   #FORM '00'.
        JZ QZERO      #IF ZERO, JUMP 'QZERO'.
        CPI #OF       #TEST IF ZERO IS OF THE
                   #FORM 'OF'.
        JZ QZERO      #IF ZERO, JUMP TO 'QZERO'.
        RET
RZERO: MVI A,00
        STA #1351     #STORE ZERO AT LOC. OF THE
                   #EXP. OF THE FIRST
                   #OPERAND (#1351).
        RET
QZERO: MVI A,00
        STA #1353     #STORE ZERO AT LOC. OF THE
                   #EX. OF THE SECOND
                   #OPERAND (#1353).
        RET
*****
# NOTE:- 'P.P' STANDS FOR 'PARTIAL PRODUCT'.
*****
END

```



```

ANI 02          ;TEST IF OVERFLOW.
MOV C,A        ;MOVE THE OVERFLOW
                ;INFORMATION FROM A-REG.
                ;TO C-REG. .
MOV D,B        ;MOVE THE RESULT OF
                ;SUBTRACTION FROM B-REG.
                ;TO D-REG. .
LDA #1334      ;LOAD THE EXP. GENERATED
                ;DURING FL. PT. MULTIPLI
                ;-CATION FROM #1334.

STA #1361
LDA #1398      ;LOAD THE EXP. OF '1/B'.
                ;FROM #1398.

STA #1363
CALL AD        ;ADD THE EXP. GENERATED
                ;DURING FL. PT.
                ;MULTIPLICATION TO THE
                ;EXP. OF '1/B'.

MOV A,B        ;MOVE THE RESULT OF
                ;ADDITION FROM B-REG.
                ;TO A-REG. .

STA #1363
MOV A,D        ;MOVE THE RESULT OF
                ;SUBTRACTION FROM D-REG.
                ;TO A-REG. .

STA #1361
CALL AD        ;ADD
MOV H,A        ;SAVE THE SIGNAND OVERFLOW
                ;INFORMATION IN H-REG.

ANI 02          ;TEST IF OVERFLOW.
MOV E,A        ;MOVE THE OVERFLOW
                ;INFORMATION FROM A-REG.
                ;TO E-REG. .
KKK: MOV A,B    ;MOVE THE EXP. OF THE
                ;RESULT FROM B-REG.
                ;TO A-REG. .

STA #1375      ;STORE IT AT #1375.
MOV B,C        ;MOVE THE OVERFLOW
                ;INFORMATION (AFTER
                ;SUBTRACTION ) FROM
                ;C-REG. TO B-REG. .
MOV A,E        ;MOVE THE OVERFLOW
                ;INFORMATION (AFTER
                ;ADDITION ) FROM
                ;E-REG. TO A-REG. .
XRA B          ;EXCLUSIVE OR A-REG.
                ;WITH B-REG. .
MOV B,A        ;MOVE IT TO B-REG. .
MOV A,H        ;MOVE THE SIGN AND OVERFLOW
                ;INFORMATION (AFTER ADDITION)
                ;FROM H-REG TO A-REG. .

```

```

ANI 01      ;FIND THE SIGN OF THE RESULT.
ADD B       ;FORM THE SIGN AND OVERFLOW
            ;INFORMATION.
STA #1374   ;STORE IT AT #1374
RET

```

```

;*****
;
;*****
;THIS SUBROUTINE PERFORM FL. PT. MULTIPLICATION.
;-----

```

```

FMT: CALL KATCH ;FIND THE COEFFICIENTS
            ;OF (#BB) & (#BB)
            ;FROM THE MANTISSAS.
CALL PEG      ;MULTIPLY (FLOATING POINT).
CALL NORL     ;NORMALISE.
RET

```

```

;*****
;
;*****
;THIS SUBROUTINE GETS THE VALUE OF 1/B
;FROM THE TABLE STORED IN FROM.
;-----

```

```

OVFL: MVI A,#60 ;'#60' IS THE ADDRESS OF
            ;THE LATCH ASSIGNED FOR
            ;DIVISOR.

OUT #16
LDA #1352      ;LOAD THE MANTISSA OF
            ;DIVISOR FROM #1352.

OUT #14
MVI A,#30      ;'#30' IS THE ADDRESS
            ;OF THE LATCH WHICH
            ;LATCHES THE CODE FOR GETT-
            ;ING EXP. OF '1/B'.

OUT #16
MVI A,#02      ;'02' IS THE CODE FOR
            ;GETTING THE EXP. OF '1/B'.

OUT #14
IN #15         ;GET THE EXP. OF '1/B'.
STA #1398      ;STORE IT AT #1398.
MVI A,#07      ;'#07' IS THE CODE FOR
            ;GETTING THE MANTISSA
            ;PART OF '1/B'.

OUT #14
IN #15         ;GET THE MANTISSA PART
            ;OF '1/B'.

STA #1352
RET

```

```

;*****

```


AP-6(c): Listings of Residue to Decimal Conversion

```

#####
*****
$ THIS PROGRAME CONVERTS A RESIDUE NUMBER
$ TO A DECIMAL NUMBER.
$ (RESIDUE ARITHMETIC. MODULI: 16 & 15 )
*****
$
$ *****
$ PROGRAME STARTS FROM LOC. #OEDO OF THE SIK-80
$ MICROCOMPUTER.
$
$ *****
$ ORG #OEDO
$ *****
$
$ PROM SETS
$ -----
SDIV: SET #09B9
SU: SET #089E
MU: SET #0890
AD: SET #0899
CAR: SET #080A
XTAR: SET #0845
POS: SET #0822
NEG: SET #081D
NMOUT: SET #02C3
TEST: SET #0908
MNT: SET #0827
BLN: SET #0840
EPT: SET #082C
$ *****
$
$ *****
$ 'IBCD' IS THE PROGRAME WHICH DISPLAYS THE RESULT
$ OF INTEGER ARITHMETIC OPERATIONS IN DECIMAL
$ FORM.
$ -----
IBCD: CALL CAR      $CARRIAGE RETURN
                   $AND LINE FEED.
LDA #1370           $LOAD THE SIGN AND OVERFLOW
                   $INFORMATION FROM #1370
STA #1376           $STORE IT AT #1376
CALL SCHRT          $SIGNAL OVERFLOW (IF
                   $ANY) AND SIGN.
CALL CBCD           $FIND DECIMAL NUMBER
                   $OF RESIDUE NUMBER.
CALL NCHRT          $PRESENT THE RESULT
                   $IN DECIMAL FORM.
JMP TEST           $SIGNAL TO GET OPERATION.
$ *****

```

```

*****
# 'FBCD' IS THE PROGRAME WHICH DISPLAYS THE RESULT
# FLOATING POINT ARITHMETIC OPERATIONS IN DECIMAL
# FORM.

```

```

-----
FBCD: CALL CAR      #CARRIAGE RETURN AND
                #LINE FEED.
        CALL MNT    #SIGNAL 'M='.
        LDA #137F   #LOA THE SIGN OF
                #THE MANTISSA OF THE
                #RESULT FROM #137F.
        STA #1371   #STORE IT AT #1371.
        CALL SCHRT  #SIGNAL OVERFLOW (IF
                #ANY) AND SIGN.
        CALL CBCD   #FIND THE DECIMAL OF
                #THE RESIDUE NUMBER.
        CALL NCHRT  #PRESENT THE RESULT IN
                #DECIMAL FORM.
        CALL BLN    #GIVE 'SPACE',
        CALL EPT    #SIGNAL 'E='.
        LDA #1374   #LOAD THE SIGN OF EXP.
                #OF THE RESULT.
        STA #1371   #STORE IT AT #1371.
        LDA #1375   #LOAD THE EXP. OF
                #THE RESULT FROM #1375.
        STA #1376   #STORE IT AT #1376.
        CALL SCHRT  #SIGNAL OVERFLOW (IF
                #ANY) AND SIGN OF EXP. .
        CALL CBCD   #FIND THE DECIMAL NUMBER
                #THE EXP. .
        CALL NCHRT  #PRESENT THE EXP. IN
                #DECIMAL FORM.
        JMP TEST    #SIGNAL TO GET OPERATIONS.
*****
#
#*****
# THE SUBROUTINE 'CBCD' CONVERTS A RESIDUE NUMBER
# TO A DECIMAL NUMBER.

```

```

-----
CBCD: LDA #1376   #LOAD THE RESIDUE NUMBER
                #WHICH IS TO BE CONVERTED
                #INTO DECIMAL NUMBER
                #FROM #1376.
        STA #1391   #STORE IT AT #1391.
        MVI A,#AA  #'#AA' (TEN) IS THE DIVISOR.
        STA #1390   #STORE IT AT #1390.
        CALL SSSP  #GET THE QUOTIENT AND
                #THE REMAINDER.
        LDA #135A   #LOAD THE SIGN OF
                #THE DIVIDEND (THE
                #RESIDUE NUMBER WHICH
                #IS TO BE CONVERTED
                #TO DECIMAL NUMBER).

```

```

ANI 01          ;TEST IF NEGATIVE.
CNZ SUM        ;IF YES, JUMP TO 'SUM'.
LDA #1393     ;LOAD THE REMAINDER
              ;FROM #1393.

STA #1363
MVI A,#01     ;'#01' IS THE RESIDUE
              ;REPRESENTATION OF SIXTEEN.

STA #1361
CALL MU       ;MULTIPLY '#01' AND THE
              ;REMAINDER TO FORM THE
              ;RESIDUE OF THE FORM 'OX'
              ;WHERE X = 0 TO 9.

MOV E,B       ;MOVE THE PRODUCT TERM
              ;FROM B-REG TO E-REG. .

LDA #1392     ;LOAD THE QUOTIENT
              ;FROM #1392.

STA #1391     ;STORE IT AT #1391.
CALL SSSP    ;GET THE QUOTIENT AND
              ;REMAIBDER OF THE DIVIDEND
              ;AT LOC. #1391.

STA #1363     ;STORE THE REMAINDER
              ;AT #1363.

MVI A,#10    ;'#10' IS THE RESIDUE
              ;REPRESENTATION OF(-15).

STA #1361
CALL MU       ;MULTIPLY THE REMAINDER
              ;BY '#10' TO FORM THE
              ;RESIDUE OF THE FORM
              ;'X0' WHERE X= 0 TO 9.

MOV A,B       ;MOVE THE PRODUCT TERM
              ;FROM B-REG. TO A-REG. .

STA #1361
MOV A,E       ;MOVE THE PREVIOUS PRO-
              ;DUCT TERM FROM E-REG.
              ;TO A-REG. .

STA #1363
CALL AD       ;ADD
MOV E,B       ;MOVE THE RESULT OF ADDITION
              ;FROM B-REG. TO E-REG. .

LDA #1392     ;LOAD THE QUOTIENT FROM #1392.
STA #1361     ;STORE IT AT #1361.
MVI A,01
STA #1363
CALL MU       ;MULTIPLY '01' (SIXTEEN)
              ;AND THE QUOTIENT TO
              ;FORM THE RESIDUE OF THE
              ;FORM 'OX' WHERE X=0 TO 9.

MOV H,B
RET

```

```

*****

```

```

*****
THE SUBROUTINE 'SUM' CONVERTS A NEGATIVE
NUMBER TO ITS POSITIVE FORM.

```

```

-----
SUM: LDA #1392      ;LOAD THE QUOTIENT FROM
                   ;#1392.

      STA #1363
      MVI A,#FE     ;'#FE' IS THE RESIDUE
                   ;FORM OF MINUS ONE.

      STA #1361
      CALL MU       ;MULTIPLY THE QUOTIENT
                   ;AND -1 (#FE) TO
                   ;CONVERT NEGATIVE FORM
                   ;OF RESIDUE TO POSITIVE
                   ;FORM.

      MOV A,B
      STA #1392
      LDA #1393     ;LOAD THE REMAINDER
                   ;FROM #1393.

      STA #1363
      CALL MU       ;MULTIPLY THE REMAIN-
                   ;DER AND -1 (#FE) TO
                   ;CONVERT THE NEGATIVE
                   ;FORM OF REMAINDER TO
                   ;ITS POSITIVE FORM.

      MOV A,B
      STA #1393
      RET

```

```

*****
THE SUBROUTINE 'SCHRT' SIGNALS THE SIGN AND
OVERFLOW (IF ANY) TO OUTPUT DEVICE.

```

```

-----
SCHRT: LDA #1371   ;LOAD SIGN AND OVERFLOW
                  ;INFORMATION FROM #1371.

      STA #135A    ;STORE IT AT #135A.
      MOV D,A      ;MOVE IT TO D-REG. .
      ANI 02       ;TEST IF OVERFLOW.
      JZ TOR       ;IF NO, JUMP 'TOR'.
      CALL XTAR    ;OTHERWISE, SIGNAL '?'.

TOR:  MOV A,D
      ANI 01       ;TEST IF NEGATIVE.
      JZ RSI       ;IF NO, JUMP TO 'RSI'.
      CALL NEG     ;OTHERWISE, SIGNAL '-'.
      RET

RSI:  CALL POS     ;SIGNAL '+'.
      RET

```

```

*****

```

 ; THE SUBROUTINE 'NCHRT' DISPLAYS DECIMAL NUMBERS.
 ;

```

NCHRT: MOV A,H      ;MOVE THE MOST SIGNIFICANT
                ;DECIMAL DIGIT FROM H-REG.
                ;TO A-REG. .
        CALL NMOUT  ;DISPLAY THE SIGNIFICANT
                ;DIGITS.
        MOV A,E     ;MOVE TWO LEAST SIGNIFICANT
                ;DECIMAL DIGITS FROM E-REG.
                ;TO A-REG. .
        CALL NMOUT  ;DISPLAY TWO LEAST SIGNIFICANT
                ;DECIMAL DIGITS TO OUTPUT
                ;DEVICE.

        RET

```

 ;
 ;
 ; THE SUBROUTINE 'SSSP' FINDS THE QUOTIENT AND
 ; REMAINDER OF THE DIVIDEND (AT LOC. #1391)
 ; AND THE DIVISOR (AT LOC. #1390).
 ;

```

SSSP: LDA #1390   ;LOAD THE DIVISOR FROM
                ;#1390.
        STA #1363
        LDA #1391 ;LOAD THE DIVIDEND FROM
                ;#1391.
        STA #1361
        CALL SDIV ;DIVIDE.
        LDA #1371 ;LOAD THE SIGN OF THE
                ;QUOTIENT FROM #1371.
        STA #1345 ;STORE IT AT #1345.
        LDA #1370 ;LOAD THE QUOTIENT FROM
                ;#1370.
        STA #1392 ;STORE IT AT #1392.
        STA #1361
        LDA #1390 ;LOAD THE DIVISOR FROM
                ;#1390.
        STA #1363
        CALL MU   ;MULTIPLY DIVISOR AND
                ;QUOTIENT.
        MOV A,B   ;MOVE THE PRODUCT TERM
                ;FROM B-REG. TO A-REG. .
        STA #1363
        LDA #1391 ;LOAD THE DIVIDEND FROM
                ;#1391.
        STA #1361
        CALL SU   ;SUBTRACT DIVIDEND FROM
                ;PRODUCT TERM.

```

STA #1346 ;STORE THE SIGN OF
;THE RESULT OF SUBTRACTION
;AT #1346.

MOV A,B
STA #1393 ;STORE THE REMAINDER
;(THE RESULT OF SUBTRACTION)
;AT #1393.

MOV D,A ;MOVE THE REMAINDER FROM
;A-REG. TO D-REG. .

RET

#####

END