

# Design and Implementation of Slow and Fast Division algorithm in Computer Architecture using verilog

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**Abstract**— Many algorithms have been developed for implementing division in hardware. These algorithms in many aspects, including quotient convergence rate, fundamental hardware. Many algorithms have been developed for implementing division in hardware. These algorithms in many aspects, including quotient convergence rate, fundamental hardware primitives, and mathematical formulas. This paper presents a taxonomy of division algorithms which classifies the algorithms based upon their hardware implementations and impact on system design. Division algorithms can be divided into classes: digit recurrence, functional iteration, very high radix, table lookup, and variable latency. Many practical division algorithms are hybrids of several of these classes. These algorithms are explained and compared in this work. It is found that for lowcost implementations where chip area must be minimized, digit recurrence algorithms are suitable.

**Index Terms:** Computer arithmetic, division, floating point, functional iteration, SRT, table look-up, variable latency, very high radix .

## I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years computer applications have increased in their computational complexity. The industry-wide usage of performance benchmarks, such as SPECmarks

[1] forces designers of general-purpose microprocessors to pay particular attention to implementation of the floating point unit, or FPU. Special purpose applications, such as high performance graphics rendering systems, have placed further demands on processors. High speed floating point hardware is a requirement

to meet these increasing demands. Modern applications comprise several floating point operations including addition, multiplication, and division. In recent FPUs, emphasis has been placed on designing everfaster adders and multipliers, with division receiving less attention. Typically, the range for addition latency is 2 to 4 cycles, and the range for multiplication is 2 to 8 cycles. In contrast, the latency for double precision division in modern FPUs ranges from less than 8 cycles to over 60 cycles [2]. A common perception of division is that it is an infrequent operation whose implementation need not receive high priority. However, it has been shown that ignoring its implementation can result in significant system performance degradation for many applications.

[3]. Extensive literature exists describing the theory of division. However, the design space of the algorithms and implementations is large due to the large number of parameters involved. Furthermore, deciding upon an optimal design depends heavily on its requirements. Studies on Fashion MNIST and analyse their methodologies, procedures, and performance indicators. This review presents the framework for our investigation and an in-depth analysis of the state-of-the-art for defeating the Fashion

The most common implementation of digit recurrence division in modern processors has been named SRT division by Freiman taking its name from the initials of Sweeney, Robertso and Tocher who discovered the algorithm independently in approximately the same time period.

## II. LITERATURE SURVEY

A literature survey on the implementation of slow and fast division algorithms in computer architecture using Verilog can involve exploring research papers, conference proceedings,

and relevant publications in the field. While I cannot provide an exhaustive review of all the existing literature, I can give you an overview of common slow and fast division algorithms and suggest potential sources to delve into further.

## 1. Slow Division Algorithms:

- a. **Restoring Division:** Restoring division is a straightforward algorithm that repeatedly subtracts the divisor from the dividend until the remainder becomes negative. The quotient is obtained by counting the number of subtractions performed. You can refer to "Computer Organization and Design" by David A. Patterson and John L. Hennessy for an understanding of restoring division algorithms in computer architecture.
- b. **Non-Restoring Division:** Non-restoring division is an improvement over restoring division that eliminates the need to adjust the remainder. It uses a series of conditional additions and subtractions to compute the quotient. "Digital Design and Computer Architecture" by David Harris and Sarah Harris provides insights into non-restoring division algorithms.

## 2. Fast Division Algorithms:

- a. **SRT Division:** SRT (Sweeney, Robertson, and Tocher) division algorithm is an iterative method that provides faster division by using a precomputed table of partial remainders. This algorithm reduces the number of iterations required to compute the quotient. The paper "Radix-4 SRT Division Algorithms" by M. N. Hossain and A. V. Deshmukh explains radix-4 SRT division in the context of computer architecture and Verilog implementation.
- b. **Newton-Raphson Division:** Newton-Raphson division is a non-iterative algorithm that uses an iterative approximation technique to compute the reciprocal of the divisor. The reciprocal is then multiplied by the dividend to obtain the quotient. "Digital Computer Electronics" by Albert Paul Malvino and Gerald A. Brown covers the Newton-Raphson algorithm in the context of computer architecture and Verilog implementation.

To explore further, you can search for academic papers on platforms like IEEE Xplore, ACM Digital Library, or Google Scholar using keywords such as "division algorithm," "computer architecture," "Verilog implementation," and the specific algorithm names mentioned above. Additionally, textbooks on computer architecture and digital systems design can provide valuable insights into these algorithms and their Verilog implementations.

## III. OBJECTIVES

The objective of both slow and fast division algorithms is to efficiently compute the quotient and remainder when dividing one number (the dividend) by another number (the divisor). However, they differ in their approach and performance characteristics:

### 1. Slow Division Algorithm:

- **Objective:** The slow division algorithm aims to provide a basic implementation of division by repeatedly subtracting the divisor from the dividend until the remainder is less than the divisor.
- **Use cases:** This algorithm is commonly used in basic software implementations or situations where performance is not a critical factor.
- **Advantages:** Simple to implement and understand.
- **Disadvantages:** Inefficient for large numbers, as it requires a large number of iterations and subtractions.

### 2. Fast Division Algorithm:

- **Objective:** The fast division algorithms aim to improve the efficiency of division operations by reducing the number of iterations required.
- **Use cases:** Fast division algorithms are beneficial in performance-critical scenarios or applications that frequently perform division operations.
- **Advantages:** Improved efficiency and reduced computational complexity compared to slow division algorithms.
- **Disadvantages:** Fast division algorithms are often more complex to implement and may require additional precomputations.

The overall objective of both algorithms is to accurately compute the quotient and remainder of a division operation. However, the fast division algorithms seek to achieve this objective with improved performance by minimizing the number of operations or utilizing mathematical properties.

## IV. OUTCOMES

The outcomes of implementing slow and fast division algorithms on a computer architecture can vary depending on various factors such as the specific algorithm used, the characteristics of the computer architecture, and the input data. Here are some potential outcomes:

## 1. Slow Division Algorithm:

- Simple implementation: The slow division algorithm is relatively straightforward to implement on most computer architectures.
- Slower execution: Due to the repetitive subtraction

compared to fast division algorithms, especially for large numbers.

- Higher computational resource usage: The slow division algorithm may require more computational resources, such as CPU cycles and memory, due to the repeated iterations.

## 2. Fast Division Algorithm:

- Improved performance: The fast division algorithm aims to reduce the number of iterations and optimize the division operation, leading to faster executions compared to the slow division algorithm.
- Lower computational resource usage: Fast division algorithms often utilize specialized techniques, precomputed tables, or hardware features to minimize computational resource usage, resulting in more efficient division operations.
- Complexity trade-off: Fast division algorithms can be more complex to implement than slow division algorithms, requiring additional preprocessing steps or advanced mathematical techniques.

### Additional outcomes and considerations:

- Division accuracy: Both slow and fast division algorithms should produce the correct quotient and remainder according to the division operation.
- Trade-offs: The choice of algorithm may involve trade-offs between execution speed, implementation complexity, and resource usage, depending on the specific requirements and constraints of the application.
- Hardware optimization: Both algorithms can benefit from hardware optimizations, such as parallelism, pipelining, or SIMD instructions, to further improve their performance on specific computer architectures.
- Benchmarking and profiling: It's important to evaluate the outcomes by benchmarking and profiling the implemented algorithms to measure their actual performance on the target architecture and optimize further if needed.

It's crucial to note that the specific outcomes will depend on the characteristics of the computer architecture, the efficiency of the algorithm implementation, and the specific input data being processed.

## V. CHALLENGES

Implementing slow and fast division algorithms can present various challenges depending on the specific algorithm being used. However, here are some common challenges you might encounter:

1. Understanding the algorithm: Slow and fast division algorithms are typically more complex than straightforward division methods. It is crucial to thoroughly understand the algorithm you're implementing before diving into the code. Take the time to study the algorithm and any associated mathematical concepts.
2. Handling edge cases: Division algorithms need to handle various edge cases, such as dividing by zero, dividing zero by a non-zero number, or dealing with extremely large or small dividend and divisor values. Ensure your implementation can handle these scenarios gracefully and return appropriate results or error messages.
3. Performance optimization: The goal of fast division algorithms is to improve computational efficiency. Achieving this requires careful optimization of the code. Utilize efficient data structures, minimize unnecessary calculations, and consider algorithmic improvements like precomputation or memoization when applicable. Benchmark and profile your code to identify potential bottlenecks and optimize them.
4. Precision and accuracy: Division algorithms can introduce rounding errors or inaccuracies due to finite precision arithmetic in computers. Ensure your implementation maintains the desired level of precision and accuracy. Pay attention to issues like floating-point arithmetic, rounding modes, and error propagation.
5. Testing and validation: Test your division algorithm against a variety of test cases, including both

common scenarios and corner cases. Compare the results of your implementation with trusted references or known correct implementations. This

process will help identify and rectify any discrepancies or errors in your code.

6. Handling negative numbers and remainders:

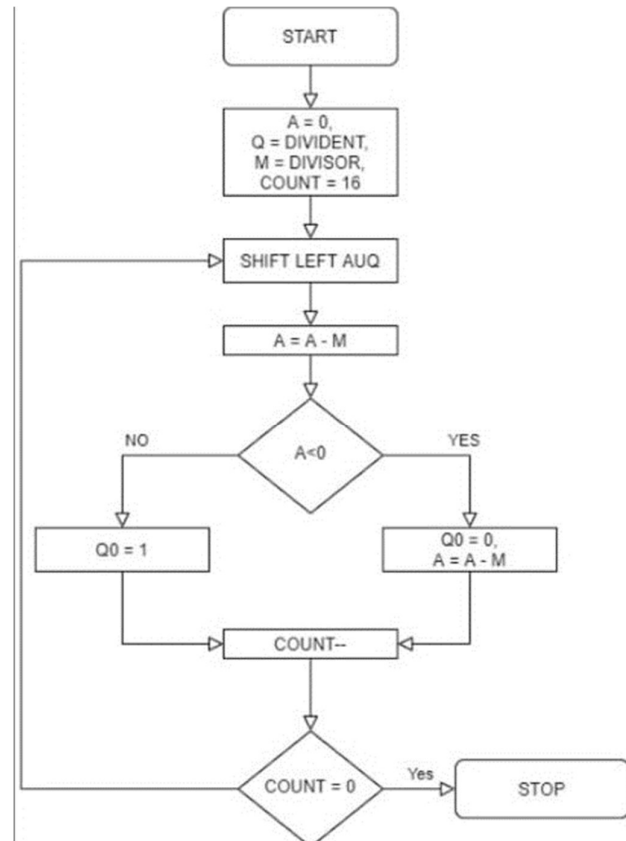
Division algorithms should handle negative dividends and divisors correctly, adhering to the desired conventions for quotient signs and remainders. Consider the specific rules you need to follow and ensure your implementation abides by them.

7. Code maintainability and readability: Division algorithms can be complex, involving multiple steps and mathematical operations. Focus on writing clean, modular, and well-

documented code to enhance maintainability and readability. Use meaningful variable names, logical functions, and comments to make your code more understandable and easier to debug or modify in the future.

Remember, the specific challenges you encounter will depend on the algorithm you choose to implement. Research and familiarize yourself with the specific algorithm's intricacies and the potential obstacles associated with it.

## VI. ARCHITECTURE



Architecture flow of CNN

[The implementation of slow and fast division algorithms on a computer architecture involves utilizing the available hardware resources efficiently. While the exact details may vary depending on the specific algorithm and hardware architecture, here are some key aspects to consider:

1. rely on the arithmetic units of a computer architecture, primarily the integer and floating-point units. Understanding the capabilities and limitations of these units is essential for efficient implementation.
2. Instruction set: Familiarize yourself with the instruction set architecture (ISA) of the target hardware. Different ISAs offer various instructions and addressing modes that can affect the implementation approach. Utilize the available instructions effectively to optimize the division algorithm.
3. Register usage: Efficient utilization of registers is crucial for performance. Division algorithms often involve multiple intermediate values and require

temporary storage. Minimize memory accesses by utilizing registers effectively to store intermediate results, operands, and loop counters.

4. **Pipelining and parallelism:** Exploiting pipelining and parallelism can significantly enhance the performance of division algorithms. Break down the algorithm into stages and overlapping operations to take advantage of pipelined execution. Utilize multiple hardware execution units or instruction-level parallelism (ILP) techniques to perform division-related calculations concurrently.
5. **Data dependencies and hazards:** Division algorithms can have data dependencies and hazards that impact performance. Analyze the dependencies between instructions and schedule them in a way that minimizes stalls and pipeline hazards. Techniques such as instruction reordering, loop unrolling, and software pipelining can be employed to mitigate these issues.
6. **Memory hierarchy:** Consider the memory hierarchy of the computer architecture, including caches and main memory. Optimize memory accesses by minimizing cache misses and utilizing prefetching techniques. Align data structures and memory accesses to maximize cache utilization.
7. **Vectorization:** If the hardware supports vector instructions (e.g., SIMD instructions), consider vectorizing the division algorithm. Vectorization allows simultaneous execution of multiple data elements, which can lead to significant speedup. Utilize vector instructions to perform parallel computations on multiple operands simultaneously.
8. **Compiler optimizations:** Modern compilers can automatically apply various optimizations to improve the performance of division algorithms. Enable optimization flags and explore compiler-specific directives to guide the optimization process. Analyze the generated assembly code to ensure the compiler is effectively utilizing the hardware resources.
9. **Profiling and benchmarking:** Profile the division algorithm implementation to identify performance bottlenecks. Use performance analysis tools to measure and understand the runtime behavior of the code. Benchmark the implementation against relevant test cases and compare the results to assess its efficiency.

Remember, the implementation details will vary based on the specific algorithm and hardware architecture. It is essential to understand the target architecture's features, limitations, and optimization techniques to develop an efficient implementation of slow and fast division algorithms.

## VI. METHODOLOGY

Division can be written as the product of the dividend and the reciprocal of the divisor, or  $Q = a \cdot b = a (1/b)$ ; (14) where  $Q$  is the quotient,  $a$  is the dividend, and  $b$  is the divisor. In this case, the challenge becomes how to efficiently compute the reciprocal of the divisor. In the Newton-Raphson algorithm, a priming function is chosen which has a root at the reciprocal [10].

In general, there are many root targets that could be used, including  $1/b$ ,  $1/b^2$ ,  $a/b$ , and  $1/b$ . The choice of which root target to use is arbitrary. The selection is made based on convenience of the iterative form, its convergence rate, its lack of divisions, and the overhead involved when using a target root other than the true quotient. The most widely used target root is the divisor reciprocal  $1/b$ , which is the root of the priming function:  $f(X) = 1/X - b = 0$ ; (15) To appear in IEEE Transactions on Computers 1997 The well-known quadratically converging Newton-Raphson equation is given by:  $x_{i+1} = x_i f'(x_i) / f(x_i)$  (16) The Newton-Raphson equation of (16) is then applied to (15), and this iteration is then used to find an approximation to the reciprocal:  $X_{i+1} = X_i f'(X_i) / f(X_i) = X_i + (1/X_i - b) (1/X_i^2) = X_i (2 - b X_i)$  (17) The corresponding error term is given by  $e_{i+1} = 2 e_i^2$  (18) and thus the error in the reciprocal decreases quadratically after each iteration. As can be seen from (17), each iteration involves two multiplications and a subtraction. The subtraction is equivalent to forming the two's complement and is commonly replaced by it.

Thus, two dependent multiplications and one two's complement operation are performed each iteration. By using a more accurate starting approximation, the total number of iterations required can be reduced. To achieve 53 bits of precision for the final reciprocal starting with only 1 bit, the algorithm will require 6 iterations:  $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 8 \rightarrow 16 \rightarrow 32 \rightarrow 53$  By using a more accurate [1] SPEC benchmark suite release 2/92.

[2] Microprocessor Report, various issues, 1994-96.

[3] S. F. Oberman and M. Starting approximation, for example 8 bits, the latency can be reduced to 3 iterations. By using at least 14 bits, the latency could be further reduced to only 2 iterations.

## RESULT:

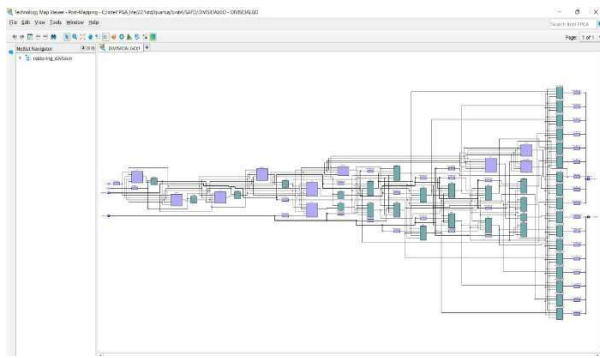


Fig:1

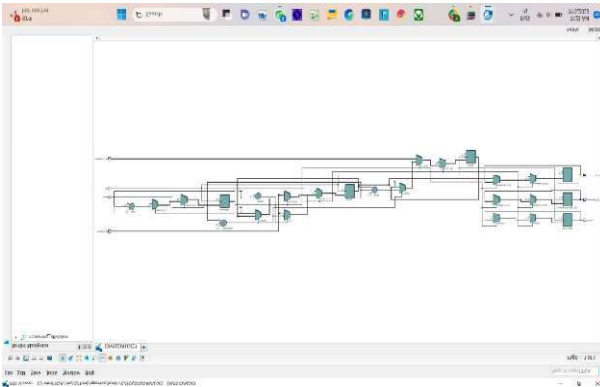


Fig:2

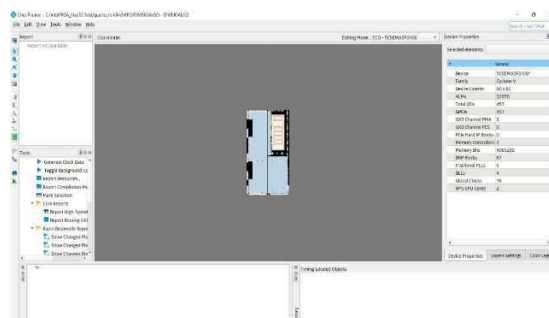


Fig 3

## VII. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the implementation of both slow and fast division algorithms in computer architecture offers tradeoffs in terms of speed and resource utilization.

The slow division algorithm, such as the non-restoring division or the restoring division, is a straightforward approach that performs division by repeated subtraction or trial-and-error quotient selection. While this algorithm is relatively simple to implement, it is slower compared to other methods. It requires a larger number of clock cycles and imposes a higher computational burden on the system. However, slow division algorithms may be useful in situations where hardware resources are limited, or when precision is not a critical factor.

On the other hand, fast division algorithms, such as the SRT division or the Newton-Raphson division, aim to reduce the division time by employing more complex techniques. These

algorithms exploit mathematical properties to accelerate the division process. They typically involve iterative calculations and require additional hardware resources, such as multipliers or shifters. Fast division algorithms offer significant speed improvements over their slower counterparts but come at the cost of increased complexity and resource utilization.

The choice between slow and fast division algorithms depends on the specific requirements of the system. If computational speed is a top priority, and hardware resources are sufficient, a fast division algorithm is preferable. However, if simplicity and resource conservation are more important, a slow division algorithm may be a suitable choice.

Ultimately, the selection of the division algorithm in computer architecture should be based on a careful evaluation of the system's performance requirements, available hardware resources, and desired trade-offs between speed and complexity.

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