# Computational Units $\mathbf{\square} 2$ 

### 2.1 OVERVIEW

This chapter describes the architecture and function of the three computational units: the arithmetic/logic unit, the multiplier/ accumulator and the barrel shifter.

Every device in the ADSP-2100 family is a 16-bit, fixed-point machine. Most operations assume a twos-complement number representation, while others assume unsigned numbers or simple binary strings. Special features support multiword arithmetic and block floating-point. Details concerning the various number formats supported by the ADSP-2100 family are given in Appendix C.

In ADSP-2100 family arithmetic, signed numbers are always in twoscomplement format. The processors do not use signed-magnitude, onescomplement, BCD or excess-n formats.

### 2.1.1 Binary String

This is the simplest binary notation; sixteen bits are treated as a bit pattern. Examples of computation using this format are the logical operations:
NOT, AND, OR, XOR. These ALU operations treat their operands as binary strings with no provision for sign bit or binary point placement.

### 2.1.2 Unsigned

Unsigned binary numbers may be thought of as positive, having nearly twice the magnitude of a signed number of the same length. The least significant words of multiple precision numbers are treated as unsigned numbers.

### 2.1.3 Signed Numbers: Twos-Complement

In discussions of ADSP-2100 family arithmetic, "signed" refers to twoscomplement. Most ADSP-2100 family operations presume or support twos-complement arithmetic. The ADSP-2100 family does not use signedmagnitude, ones-complement, BCD or excess-n formats.

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### 2.1.4 Fractional Representation: 1.15

ADSP-2100 family arithmetic is optimized for numerical values in a fractional binary format denoted by 1.15 ("one dot fifteen"). In the 1.15 format, there is one sign bit (the MSB) and fifteen fractional bits representing values from -1 up to one LSB less than +1 .

Figure 2.1 shows the bit weighting for 1.15 numbers. Below are examples of 1.15 numbers and their decimal equivalents.

| 1.15 Number | Decimal Equivalent |
| :--- | :--- |
| 0x0001 | 0.000031 |
| $0 \times 7 \mathrm{FFF}$ | 0.999969 |
| $0 \times F F F F$ | -0.000031 |
| $0 \times 8000$ | -1.000000 |


| $-2^{0}$ | $2^{-1}$ | $2^{-2}$ | $2^{-3}$ | $2^{-4}$ | $2^{-5}$ | $2^{-6}$ | $2^{-7}$ | $2^{-8}$ | $2^{-9}$ | $2^{-10}$ | $2^{-11}$ | $2^{-12}$ | $2^{-13}$ | $2^{-14}$ | $2^{-15}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Figure 2.1 Bit Weighting For 1.15 Numbers

### 2.1.5 ALU Arithmetic

All operations on the ALU treat operands and results as simple 16-bit binary strings, except the signed division primitive (DIVS). Various status bits treat the results as signed: the overflow (AV) condition code, and the negative (AN) flag.

The logic of the overflow bit (AV) is based on twos-complement arithmetic. It is set if the MSB changes in a manner not predicted by the signs of the operands and the nature of the operation. For example, adding two positive numbers must generate a positive result; a change in the sign bit signifies an overflow and sets AV. Adding a negative and a positive may result in either a negative or positive result, but cannot overflow.

The logic of the carry bit (AC) is based on unsigned-magnitude arithmetic. It is set if a carry is generated from bit 16 (the MSB). The (AC) bit is most useful for the lower word portions of a multiword operation.

## Computational Units 2

### 2.1.6 MAC Arithmetic

The multiplier produces results that are binary strings. The inputs are "interpreted" according to the information given in the instruction itself (signed times signed, unsigned times unsigned, a mixture, or a rounding operation). The 32 -bit result from the multiplier is assumed to be signed, in that it is sign-extended across the full 40-bit width of the MR register set.

The ADSP-2100 family supports two modes of format adjustment: the fractional mode for fractional operands, 1.15 format ( 1 signed bit, 15 fractional bits), and the integer mode for integer operands, 16.0 format.

When the processor multiplies two 1.15 operands, the result is a 2.30 ( 2 sign bits, 30 fractional bits) number. In the fractional mode, the MAC automatically shifts the multiplier product ( P ) left one bit before transferring the result to the multiplier result register (MR). This shift causes the multiplier result to be in 1.31 format, which can be rounded to 1.15 format. Figure 2.7, in the MAC section of this chapter, shows this.

In the integer mode, the left shift does not occur. For example, if the operands are in the 16.0 format, the 32-bit multiplier result would be in 32.0 format. A left shift is not needed; it would change the numerical representation. Figure 2.8 in the MAC section of this chapter shows this.

### 2.1.7 Shifter Arithmetic

Many operations in the shifter are explicitly geared to signed (twoscomplement) or unsigned values: logical shifts assume unsignedmagnitude or binary string values and arithmetic shifts assume twoscomplement.

The exponent logic assumes twos-complement numbers. The exponent logic supports block floating-point, which is also based on twoscomplement fractions.

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### 2.1.8 Summary

Table 2.1 summarizes some of the arithmetic characteristics of ADSP-2100 family operations. In addition to the numeric types described in this section, the ADSP-2100 Family C Compiler supports a form of 32-bit floating-point in which one 16-bit word is the exponent and the other word is the mantissa. See the ADSP-2100 Family C Tools Manual.

| OPERATION | ARITHMETIC FORMATS |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ALU | Operands | Result |
|  |  |  |
| Addition | Signed or unsigned | Interpret flags |
| Subtraction | Signed or unsigned | Interpret flags |
| Logical Operations | Binary string | same as operands |
| Division | Explicitly signed/unsigned | same as operands |
| ALU Overflow | Signed | same as operands |
| ALU Carry Bit | 16-bit unsigned | same as operands |
| ALU Saturation | Signed |  |
|  |  |  |
| MAC, Fractional |  |  |
| Multiplication (P) | 1.15 Explicitly signed/unsigned |  |
| Multiplication (MR) | 1.15 Explicitly signed/unsigned | 32 bits (2.30) |
| Mult / Add | 1.15 Explicitly signed/unsigned | 2.30 shifted to 1.31 |
| Mult / Subtract | 1.15 Explicitly signed/unsigned | 2.30 shifted to 1.31 |
| MAC Saturation | Signed | 2.30 shifted to 1.31 |
|  |  |  |
| MAC, Integer Mode |  |  |
| Multiplication (P) |  |  |
| Multiplication (MR) | 1.15 Explicitly signed/unsigned |  |
| Mult / Add | 16.0 Explicitly signed/unsigned | 32 bits (2.30) |
| Mult / Subtract | 16.0 Explicitly signed/unsigned | 32.0 no shift |
| MAC Saturation | 16.0 Explicitly signed/unsigned | 32.0 no shift |
| Shifter | Signed | 32.0 no shift |
| same as operands |  |  |
| Logical Shift |  |  |
| Arithmetic Shift |  |  |
| Exponent Detection | Unsigned / binary string |  |

## Table 2.1 Arithmetic Formats

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### 2.2 ARITHMETIC/LOGIC UNIT (ALU)

The arithmetic/logic unit (ALU) provides a standard set of arithmetic and logical functions. The arithmetic functions are add, subtract, negate, increment, decrement and absolute value. These are supplemented by two division primitives with which multiple cycle division can be constructed. The logic functions are AND, OR, XOR (exclusive OR) and NOT.

### 2.2.1 ALU Block Diagram Discussion

Figure 2.2, on the following page, shows a block diagram of the ALU.
The ALU is 16 bits wide with two 16 -bit input ports, X and Y , and one output port, R. The ALU accepts a carry-in signal (CI) which is the carry bit from the processor arithmetic status register (ASTAT). The ALU generates six status signals: the zero (AZ) status, the negative (AN) status, the carry (AC) status, the overflow (AV) status, the X-input sign (AS) status, and the quotient (AQ) status. All arithmetic status signals are latched into the arithmetic status register (ASTAT) at the end of the cycle. Please see the "Instruction Set Reference" chapter of this manual for information on how each instruction affects the ALU flags.

The $X$ input port of the ALU can accept data from two sources: the AX register file or the result (R) bus. The R bus connects the output registers of all the computational units, permitting them to be used as input operands directly. The AX register file is dedicated to the $X$ input port and consists of two registers, AX0 and AX1. These AX registers are readable and writable from the DMD bus. The instruction set also provides for reading these registers over the PMD bus, but there is no direct connection; this operation uses the DMD-PMD bus exchange unit. The AX register file outputs are dual-ported so that one register can provide input to the ALU while either one simultaneously drives the DMD bus.

The $Y$ input port of the ALU can also accept data from two sources: the AY register file and the ALU feedback (AF) register. The AY register file is dedicated to the Y input port and consists of two registers, AY0 and AY1. These registers are readable and writable from the DMD bus and writable from the PMD bus. The instruction set also provides for reading these registers over the PMD bus, but there is no direct connection; this operation uses the DMD-PMD bus exchange unit. The AY register file outputs are also dual-ported: one AY register can provide input to the ALU while either one simultaneously drives the DMD bus.

## 2 Computational Units

The output of the ALU is loaded into either the ALU feedback (AF) register or the ALU result (AR) register. The AF register is an ALU internal register which allows the ALU result to be used directly as the ALU Y input. The AR register can drive both the DMD bus and the R bus. It is also loadable directly from the DMD bus. The instruction set also provides for reading AR over the PMD bus, but there is no direct connection; this operation uses the DMD-PMD bus exchange unit.


Figure 2.2 ALU Block Diagram

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Any of the registers associated with the ALU can be both read and written in the same cycle. Registers are read at the beginning of the cycle and written at the end of the cycle. A register read, therefore, reads the value loaded at the end of a previous cycle. A new value written to a register cannot be read out until a subsequent cycle. This allows an input register to provide an operand to the ALU at the beginning of the cycle and be updated with the next operand from memory at the end of the same cycle. It also allows a result register to be stored in memory and updated with a new result in the same cycle. See the discussion of "Multifunction Instructions" in Chapter 15, "Instruction Set Reference" for an illustration of this same-cycle read and write.

The ALU contains a duplicate bank of registers, shown in Figure 2.2 behind the primary registers. There are actually two sets of AR, AF, AX, and AY register files. Only one bank is accessible at a time. The additional bank of registers can be activated (such as during an interrupt service routine) for extremely fast context switching. A new task, like an interrupt service routine, can be executed without transferring current states to storage.

The selection of the primary or alternate bank of registers is controlled by bit 0 in the processor mode status register (MSTAT). If this bit is a 0 , the primary bank is selected; if it is a 1 , the secondary bank is selected.

### 2.2.2 Standard Functions

The standard ALU functions are listed below.
$R=X+Y \quad$ Add $X$ and $Y$ operands
$\mathrm{R}=\mathrm{X}+\mathrm{Y}+\mathrm{CI} \quad$ Add X and Y operands and carry-in bit
$\mathrm{R}=\mathrm{X}-\mathrm{Y}$
$\mathrm{R}=\mathrm{X}-\mathrm{Y}+\mathrm{CI}-1$
$R=Y-X$
$\mathrm{R}=\mathrm{Y}-\mathrm{X}+\mathrm{CI}-1$
$R=-X$
$R=-Y$
$\mathrm{R}=\mathrm{Y}+1$
$\mathrm{R}=\mathrm{Y}-1$
$\mathrm{R}=\mathrm{PASS} \mathrm{X}$
$R=P A S S Y$
$\mathrm{R}=0$ (PASS 0)
$\mathrm{R}=\mathrm{ABS} \mathrm{X}$
$\mathrm{R}=\mathrm{X}$ AND Y
Subtract Y from $X$ operand
Subtract Y from X operand with "borrow"
Subtract X from Y operand
Subtract X from Y operand with "borrow"
Negate X operand (twos-complement)
Negate Y operand (twos-complement)
Increment Y operand
Decrement $Y$ operand
Pass $X$ operand to result unchanged
Pass Y operand to result unchanged
Clear result to zero
Absolute value of $X$ operand
$\mathrm{R}=\mathrm{X}$ OR Y
$\mathrm{R}=\mathrm{XXOR} Y$
$\mathrm{R}=\mathrm{NOT} \mathrm{X}$
Logical AND of $X$ and $Y$ operands
Logical OR of $X$ and $Y$ operands
Logical Exclusive OR of X and Y operands
Logical NOT of X operand (ones-complement)
Logical NOT of Y operand (ones-complement)

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### 2.2.3 ALU Input/Output Registers

The sources of ALU input and output registers are shown below.

| Source for <br> X input port | Source for <br> Y input port | Destination for <br> R output port |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| AX0, AX1 | AY0, AY1 | AR |
| AR | AF | AF |
| MR0, MR1, MR2 |  |  |
| SR0,SR1 |  |  |

MR0, MR1 and MR2 are multiplier/accumulator result registers; SR0 and SR1 are shifter result registers.

### 2.2.4 Multiprecision Capability

Multiprecision operations are supported in the ALU with the carry-in signal and ALU carry (AC) status bit. The carry-in signal is the AC status bit that was generated by a previous ALU operation. The "add with carry" $(+\mathrm{C})$ operation is intended for adding the upper portions of multiprecision numbers. The "subtract with borrow" (C -1 is effectively a "borrow") operation is intended for subtracting the upper portions of multiprecision numbers.

### 2.2.5 ALU Saturation Mode

The AR register has a twos-complement saturation mode of operation which automatically sets it to the maximum negative or positive value if an ALU result overflows or underflows. This feature is enabled by setting bit 3 of the mode status register (MSTAT). When enabled, the value loaded into AR during an ALU operation depends on the state of the overflow and carry status generated by the ALU on that cycle. The following table summarizes the loading of AR when saturation mode is enabled.

| Overflow (AV) | Carry (AC) | AR Contents |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | ALU Output |  |
| 0 | 1 | ALU Output |  |
| 1 | 0 | 0111111111111111 | full-scale positive |
| 1 | 1 | 1000000000000000 | full-scale negative |

Table 2.2 Saturation Mode
The operation of the ALU saturation mode is different from the Multiplier/Accumulator saturation ability, which is enabled only on an instruction by instruction basis. For the ALU, enabling saturation means that all subsequent operations are processed this way.

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When the ALU saturation mode is used, only the AR register saturates; if the AF register is the destination, wrap-around will occur but the flags will reflect the saturated result.

### 2.2.6 ALU Overflow Latch Mode

The ALU overflow latch mode, enabled by setting bit 2 in the mode status register (MSTAT), causes the AV bit to "stick" once it is set. In this mode, when an ALU overflow occurs, AV will be set and remain set, even if subsequent ALU operations do not generate overflows. In this mode, AV can only be cleared by writing a zero to it directly from the DMD bus.

### 2.2.7 Division

The ALU supports division. The divide function is achieved with additional shift circuitry not shown in Figure 2.2. Division is accomplished with two special divide primitives. These are used to implement a nonrestoring conditional add-subtract division algorithm. The division can be either signed or unsigned; however, the dividend and divisor must both be of the same type. Appendix B details various exceptions to the normal division operation as described in this section.

A single-precision divide, with a 32-bit dividend (numerator) and a 16-bit divisor (denominator), yielding a 16-bit quotient, executes in 16 cycles. Higher and lower precision quotients can also be calculated. The divisor can be stored in AX0, AX1 or any of the R registers. The upper half of a signed dividend can start in either AY1 or AF. The upper half of an unsigned dividend must be in AF. The lower half of any dividend must be in AY0. At the end of the divide operation, the quotient will be in AY0.

The first of the two primitive instructions "divide-sign" (DIVS) is executed at the beginning of the division when dividing signed numbers. This operation computes the sign bit of the quotient by performing an exclusive-OR of the sign bits of the divisor and the dividend. The AY0 register is shifted one place so that the computed sign bit is moved into the LSB position. The computed sign bit is also loaded into the AQ bit of the arithmetic status register. The MSB of AY0 shifts into the LSB position of AF, and the upper 15 bits of AF are loaded with the lower 15 R bits from the ALU, which simply passes the Y input value straight through to the R output. The net effect is to left shift the AF-AY0 register pair and move the quotient sign bit into the LSB position. The operation of DIVS is illustrated in Figure 2.3 (on the next page).

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Figure 2.3 DIVS Operation
When dividing unsigned numbers, the DIVS operation is not used. Instead, the AQ bit in the arithmetic status register (ASTAT) should be initialized to zero by manually clearing it. The AQ bit indicates to the following operations that the quotient should be assumed positive.

The second division primitive is the "divide-quotient" (DIVQ) instruction which generates one bit of quotient at a time and is executed repeatedly to compute the remaining quotient bits. For unsigned single precision divides, the DIVQ instruction is executed 16 times to produce 16 quotient bits. For signed single precision divides, the DIVQ instruction is executed 15 times after the sign bit is computed by the DIVS operation. DIVQ instruction shifts the AY0 register left by one bit so that the new quotient bit can be moved into the LSB position. The status of the AQ bit generated from the previous operation determines the ALU operation to calculate the partial remainder. If $A Q=1$, the $A L U$ adds the divisor to the partial remainder in AF . If $A Q=0$, the $A L U$ subtracts the divisor from the partial remainder in AF. The ALU output R is offset loaded into AF just as with the DIVS operation. The AQ bit is computed as the exclusive-OR of the

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divisor MSB and the ALU output MSB, and the quotient bit is this value inverted. The quotient bit is loaded into the LSB of the AY0 register which is also shifted left by one bit. The DIVQ operation is illustrated in Figure 2.4.


Figure 2.4 DIVQ Operation
The format of the quotient for any numeric representation can be determined by the format of the dividend and divisor. Let NL represent the number of bits to the left of the binary point, and NR represent the number of bits to the right of the binary point of the dividend; DL represent the number of bits to the left of the binary point, and DR represent the number of bits to the right of the binary point of the divisor; then the quotient has NL-DL+1 bits to the left of the binary point and NRDR -1 bits to the right of the binary point.

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Some format manipulation may be necessary to guarantee the validity of the quotient. For example, if both operands are signed and fully fractional (dividend in 1.31 format and divisor in 1.15 format) the result is fully fractional (in 1.15 format) and therefore the dividend must be smaller than the divisor for a valid result.

To divide two integers (dividend in 32.0 format and divisor in 16.0 format) and produce an integer quotient (in 16.0 format), you must shift the dividend one bit to the left (into 31.1 format) before dividing. Additional discussion and code examples can be found in the handbook Digital Signal Processing Applications Using the ADSP-2100 Family, Volume 1.

Dividend $\quad$ BBBBB . $\underline{B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B ~}$
NL bits NR bits
Divisor
BB. BBBBBBBBBBBBBB
DL bits DR bits
Quotient BBBB.BBBBBBBBBBBB
(NL-DL+1) bits (NR-DR-1) bits

Figure 2.5 Quotient Format
The algorithm overflows if the result cannot be represented in the format of the quotient as calculated above or when the divisor is zero or less than the dividend in magnitude.

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### 2.2.8 ALU Status

The ALU status bits in the ASTAT register are defined below. Complete information about the ASTAT register and specific bit mnemonics and positions is provided in the Program Control chapter.

| Flag | Name | Definition <br> AZ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Zero | Logical NOR of all the bits in the ALU result register. True <br> if ALU output equals zero. |  |
| AN | Negative | Sign bit of the ALU result. True if the ALU output is <br> negative. |
| AV | Overflow | Exclusive-OR of the carry outputs of the two most <br> significant adder stages. True if the ALU overflows. |
| AC | Carry | Carry output from the most significant adder stage. <br> AS |
| Sign | Sign bit of the ALU X input port. Affected only by the ABS <br> instruction. |  |
| AQ | Quotient | Quotient bit generated only by the DIVS and DIVQ <br> instructions. |

### 2.3 MULTIPLIER/ACCUMULATOR (MAC)

The multiplier/accumulator (MAC) provides high-speed multiplication, multiplication with cumulative addition, multiplication with cumulative subtraction, saturation and clear-to-zero functions. A feedback function allows part of the accumulator output to be directly used as one of the multiplicands on the next cycle.

### 2.3.1 MAC Block Diagram Discussion

Figure 2.6, on the following page, shows a block diagram of the multiplier/ accumulator.

The multiplier has two 16-bit input ports $X$ and $Y$, and a 32-bit product output port P . The 32-bit product is passed to a 40-bit adder/subtracter which adds or subtracts the new product from the content of the multiplier result (MR) register, or passes the new product directly to MR. The MR register is 40 bits wide. In this manual, we refer to the entire register as MR. The register actually consists of three smaller registers: MR0 and MR1 which are 16 bits wide and MR2 which is 8 bits wide.

The adder/subtracter is greater than 32 bits to allow for intermediate overflow in a series of multiply/accumulate operations. The multiply overflow (MV) status bit is set when the accumulator has overflowed beyond the 32-bit boundary, that is, when there are significant (non-sign) bits in the top nine bits of the MR register (based on twos-complement arithmetic).

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Figure 2.6 MAC Block Diagram

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The input/output registers of the MAC are similar to the ALU.
The $X$ input port can accept data from either the $M X$ register file or from any register on the result $(\mathrm{R})$ bus. The R bus connects the output registers of all the computational units, permitting them to be used as input operands directly. There are two registers in the MX register file, MX0 and MX1. These registers can be read and written from the DMD bus. The MX register file outputs are dual-ported so that one register can provide input to the multiplier while either one simultaneously drives the DMD bus.

The Y input port can accept data from either the MY register file or the MF register. The MY register file has two registers, MY0 and MY1; these registers can be read and written from the DMD bus and written from the PMD bus. The instruction set also provides for reading these registers over the PMD bus, but there is no direct connection; this operation uses the DMD-PMD bus exchange unit. The MY register file outputs are also dualported so that one register can provide input to the multiplier while either one simultaneously drives the DMD bus.

The output of the adder/subtracter goes to either the MF register or the MR register. The MF register is a feedback register which allows bits 16-31 of the result to be used directly as the multiplier Y input on a subsequent cycle. The 40-bit adder/subtracter register (MR) is divided into three sections: MR2, MR1, and MR0. Each of these registers can be loaded directly from the DMD bus and output to either the DMD bus or the R bus.

Any of the registers associated with the MAC can be both read and written in the same cycle. Registers are read at the beginning of the cycle and written at the end of the cycle. A register read, therefore, reads the value loaded at the end of a previous cycle. A new value written to a register cannot be read out until a subsequent cycle. This allows an input register to provide an operand to the MAC at the beginning of the cycle and be updated with the next operand from memory at the end of the same cycle. It also allows a result register to be stored in memory and updated with a new result in the same cycle. See the discussion of "Multifunction Instructions" in Chapter 15 "Instruction Set Reference" for an illustration of this same-cycle read and write.

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The MAC contains a duplicate bank of registers, shown in Figure 2.6 behind the primary registers. There are actually two sets of MR, MF, MX, and MY register files. Only one bank is accessible at a time. The additional bank of registers can be activated for extremely fast context switching. A new task, such as an interrupt service routine, can be executed without transferring current states to storage.

The selection of the primary or alternate bank of registers is controlled by bit 0 in the processor mode status register (MSTAT). If this bit is a 0 , the primary bank is selected; if it is a 1 , the secondary bank is selected.

### 2.3.2 MAC Operations

This section explains the functions of the MAC, its input formats and its handling of overflow and saturation.

### 2.3.2.1 Standard Functions

The functions performed by the MAC are:

| $X * Y$ | Multiply $X$ and $Y$ operands. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $M R+X * Y$ | Multiply $X$ and $Y$ operands and add result to MR register. |
| MR $-X * Y$ | Multiply $X$ and $Y$ operands and subtract result from MR register. |
| 0 | Clear result (MR) to zero. |

The ADSP-2100 family provides two modes for the standard multiply/ accumulate function: fractional mode for fractional numbers (1.15), and integer mode for integers (16.0).

In the fractional mode, the 32-bit P output is format adjusted, that is, signextended and shifted one bit to the left before being added to MR. For example, bit 31 of $P$ lines up with bit 32 of MR (which is bit 0 of MR2) and bit 0 of $P$ lines up with bit 1 of MR (which is bit 1 of MR0). The LSB is zerofilled. The fractional multiplier result format is shown in Figure 2.7.

In the integer mode, the 32-bit P register is not shifted before being added to MR. Figure 2.8 shows the integer-mode result placement.

The mode is selected by bit 4 of the mode status register (MSTAT). If this bit is a 1 , the integer mode is selected. Otherwise, the fractional mode is selected. In either mode, the multiplier output $P$ is fed into a 40-bit adder/ subtracter which adds or subtracts the new product with the current contents of the MR register to form the final 40-bit result R.

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Figure 2.7 Fractional Multiplier Result Format


Figure 2.8 Integer Multiplier Result Format

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### 2.3.2.2 Input Formats

To facilitate multiprecision multiplications, the multiplier accepts $X$ and $Y$ inputs represented in any combination of signed twos-complement format and unsigned format.

| $\underline{\text { X input }}$ |  | Y input |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| signed | X | signed |
| unsigned | X | signed |
| signed | X | unsigned |
| unsigned | X | unsigned |

The input formats are specified as part of the instruction. These are dynamically selectable each time the multiplier is used.

The (signed $x$ signed) mode is used when multiplying two signed single precision numbers or the two upper portions of two signed multiprecision numbers.

The (unsigned $x$ signed) and (signed $x$ unsigned) modes are used when multiplying the upper portion of a signed multiprecision number with the lower portion of another or when multiplying a signed single precision number by an unsigned single precision number.

The (unsigned $x$ unsigned) mode is used when multiplying unsigned single precision numbers or the non-upper portions of two signed multiprecision numbers.

### 2.3.2.3 MAC Input/Output Registers

The sources of MAC input and output are:

| Source for <br> X input port | Source for <br> input port | Destination for <br> R output port |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| MX0, MX1 | MY0, MY1 | MR (MR2, MR1, MR0) |
| AR | MF | MF |
| MR0, MR1, MR2 |  |  |
| SR0, SR1 |  |  |

### 2.3.2.4 MR Register Operation

As described, and shown on the block diagram, the MR register is divided into three sections: MR0 (bits 0-15), MR1 (bits 16-31), and MR2 (bits 32-
39). Each of these registers can be loaded from the DMD bus and output to the R bus or the DMD bus.

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The 8-bit MR2 register is tied to the lower 8 bits of these buses. When MR2 is output onto the DMD bus or the R bus, it is sign extended to form a 16bit value. MR1 also has an automatic sign-extend capability. When MR1 is loaded from the DMD bus, every bit in MR2 will be set to the sign bit (MSB) of MR1, so that MR2 appears as an extension of MR1. To load the MR2 register with a value other than MR1's sign extension, you must load MR2 after MR1 has been loaded. Loading MR0 affects neither MR1 nor MR2; no sign extension occurs in MR0 loads.

### 2.3.2.5 MAC Overflow And Saturation

The adder/subtracter generates an overflow status signal (MV) which is loaded into the processor arithmetic status (ASTAT) every time a MAC operation is executed. The MV bit is set when the accumulator result, interpreted as a twos-complement number, crosses the 32-bit (MR1/MR2) boundary. That is, MV is set if the upper nine bits of MR are not all ones or all zeros.

The MR register has a saturation capability which sets MR to the maximum positive or negative value if an overflow or underflow has occurred. The saturation operation depends on the overflow status bit (MV) in the processor arithmetic status (ASTAT) and the MSB of the MR2 register. The following table summarizes the MR saturation operation.

| $\frac{M V}{0}$ |  | MSB of MR2 |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | or 1 |  | MR contents after saturation |  |  |
| 1 | 0 | 00000000 | 0111111111111111 | 1111111111111111 | full-scale positive |
| 1 | 1 | 11111111 | 100000000000000 | 000000000000000 | full-scale negative |

## Table 2.3 Effect Of MAC Saturation Instruction

Saturation in the MAC is an instruction rather than a mode as in the ALU. The saturation instruction is intended to be used at the completion of a string of multiplication/accumulations so that intermediate overflows do not cause the accumulator to saturate.

Overflowing beyond the MSB of MR2 should never be allowed. The true sign bit of the result is then irretrievably lost and saturation may not produce a correct value. It takes more than 255 overflows (MV type) to reach this state, however.

## 2 Computational Units

### 2.3.2.6 Rounding Mode

The accumulator has the capability for rounding the 40 -bit result R at the boundary between bit 15 and bit 16. Rounding can be specified as part of the instruction code. The rounded output is directed to either MR or MF. When rounding is invoked with MF as the output register, register contents in MF represent the rounded 16-bit result. Similarly, when MR is selected as the output, MR1 contains the rounded 16-bit result; the rounding effect in MR1 affects MR2 as well and MR2 and MR1 represent the rounded 24 -bit result.

The accumulator uses an unbiased rounding scheme. The conventional method of biased rounding is to add a 1 into bit position 15 of the adder chain. This method causes a net positive bias since the midway value (when MR0=0x8000) is always rounded upward. The accumulator eliminates this bias by forcing bit 16 in the result output to zero when it detects this midway point. This has the effect of rounding odd MR1 values upward and even MR1 values downward, yielding a zero large-sample bias assuming uniformly distributed values.

Using $x$ to represent any bit pattern (not all zeros), here are two examples of rounding. The first example is the typical rounding operation.
Example $1 \quad$ MR2 MR1 MR0

Unrounded value: xxxxxxxx xxxxxxxx00100101 1xxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
Bit $15=1$
Add 1 to bit 15 and carry 1
Rounded value: xxxxxxxx xxxxxxxx00100110 0xxxxxxxxxxxxxxx

The compensation to avoid net bias becomes visible when the lower 15 bits are all zero and bit 15 is one, i.e. the midpoint value.

# Computational Units 2 

| Example 2 | MR2 | MR1 | MR0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Unrounded value: | xxxxxxxx | $\mathrm{xxxxxxxx01100110}$ | 1000000000000000 |

Bit $15=1$ and bits $0-14=0$
Add 1 to bit 15 and carry
1
xxxxxxxx xxxxxxxx01100111 000000000000000
Since bit $16=1$, force it to 0
Rounded value: xxxxxxxx xxxxxxxx01100110 0000000000000000
In this last case, bit 16 is forced to zero. This algorithm is employed on every rounding operation, but is only evident when the bit patterns shown in the lower 16 bits of the last example are present.

### 2.3.2.7 Biased Rounding (ADSP-217x, ADSP-218x, ADSP-21msp5x)

A mode is available on the ADSP-217x, ADSP-218x, and ADSP-21msp58/ 59 processors to allow biased rounding in addition to the normal unbiased rounding. This mode is selected by the BIASRND bit (bit 12 of the SPORT0 Autobuffer Control register). When the BIASRND bit is set to 0 , the normal unbiased rounding operations occur. When the BIASRND bit is set to 1 , biased rounding occurs instead of the normal unbiased rounding. When operating in biased rounding mode all rounding operations with MR0 set to $0 \times 8000$ will round up, rather than only rounding odd MR1 values up. For example:

| MR value before RND | biased $R N D$ result | unbiased $R N D$ result |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $00-0000-8000$ | $00-0001-8000$ | $00-0000-8000$ |
| $00-0001-8000$ | $00-0002-8000$ | $00-0002-8000$ |
| $00-0000-8001$ | $00-0001-8001$ | $00-0001-8001$ |
| $00-0001-8001$ | $00-0002-8001$ | $00-0002-8001$ |
| $00-0000-7 F F F$ | $00-0000-7 \mathrm{FFF}$ | $00-0000-7 \mathrm{FFF}$ |
| $00-0001-7 \mathrm{FFF}$ | $00-0001-7 \mathrm{FFF}$ | $00-0001-7 \mathrm{FFF}$ |

This mode only has an effect when the MR0 register contains 0x8000; all other rounding operations work normally. This mode allows more efficient implementation of bit-specified algorithms that use biased rounding, for example the GSM speech compression routines. Unbiased rounding is preferred for most algorithms.

## 2 Computational Units

### 2.4 BARREL SHIFTER

The shifter provides a complete set of shifting functions for 16-bit inputs, yielding a 32-bit output. These include arithmetic shift, logical shift and normalization. The shifter also performs derivation of exponent and derivation of common exponent for an entire block of numbers. These basic functions can be combined to efficiently implement any degree of numerical format control, including full floating-point representation.

### 2.4.1 Shifter Block Diagram Discussion

Figure 2.9 shows a block diagram of the shifter. The shifter can be divided into the following components: the shifter array, the OR/PASS logic, the exponent detector, and the exponent compare logic.

The shifter array is a $16 \times 32$ barrel shifter. It accepts a 16-bit input and can place it anywhere in the 32-bit output field, from off-scale right to off-scale left, in a single cycle. This gives 49 possible placements within the 32-bit field. The placement of the 16 input bits is determined by a control code (C) and a $\mathrm{HI} / \mathrm{LO}$ reference signal.

The shifter array and its associated logic are surrounded by a set of registers. The shifter input (SI) register provides input to the shifter array and the exponent detector. The SI register is 16 bits wide and is readable and writable from the DMD bus. The shifter array and the exponent detector also take as inputs AR, SR or MR via the R bus. The shifter result (SR) register is 32 bits wide and is divided into two 16-bit sections, SR0 and SR1. The SR0 and SR1 registers can be loaded from the DMD bus and output to either the DMD bus or the R bus. The SR register is also fed back to the OR/PASS logic to allow double-precision shift operations.

The SE register ("shifter exponent") is 8 bits wide and holds the exponent during the normalize and denormalize operations. The SE register is loadable and readable from the lower 8 bits of the DMD bus. It is a twoscomplement, 8.0 value.

The SB register ("shifter block") is important in block floating-point operations where it holds the block exponent value, that is, the value by which the block values must be shifted to normalize the largest value. SB is 5 bits wide and holds the most recent block exponent value. The SB register is loadable and readable from the lower 5 bits of the DMD bus. It is a twos-complement, 5.0 value.

Whenever the SE or SB registers are output onto the DMD bus, they are sign-extended to form a 16-bit value.

## Computational Units 2



Figure 2.9 Shifter Block Diagram
Any of the SI, SE or SR registers can be read and written in the same cycle. Registers are read at the beginning of the cycle and written at the end of the cycle. All register reads, therefore, read values loaded at the end of a previous cycle. A new value written to a register cannot be read out until a subsequent cycle. This allows an input register to provide an operand to the shifter at the beginning of the cycle and be updated with the next operand at the end of the same cycle. It also allows a result register to be stored in memory and updated with a new result in the same cycle. See the discussion of "Multifunction Instructions" in Chapter 15, "Instruction Set Reference" for an illustration of this same-cycle read and write.

## 2 Computational Units

The shifter contains a duplicate bank of registers, shown in Figure 2.9 behind the primary registers. There are actually two sets of SE, SB, SI, SR1, and SR0 registers. Only one bank is accessible at a time. The additional bank of registers can be activated for extremely fast context switching. A new task, such as an interrupt service routine, can then be executed without transferring current states to storage.

The selection of the primary or alternate bank of registers is controlled by bit 0 in the processor mode status register (MSTAT). If this bit is a 0 , the primary bank is selected; if it is a 1 , the secondary bank is selected.

The shifting of the input is determined by a control code (C) and a HI/LO reference signal. The control code is an 8-bit signed value which indicates the direction and number of places the input is to be shifted. Positive codes indicate a left shift (upshift) and negative codes indicate a right shift (downshift). The control code can come from three sources: the content of the shifter exponent (SE) register, the negated content of the SE register or an immediate value from the instruction.

The HI/LO signal determines the reference point for the shifting. In the HI state, all shifts are referenced to SR1 (the upper half of the output field), and in the LO state, all shifts are referenced to SR0 (the lower half). The $\mathrm{HI} / \mathrm{LO}$ reference feature is useful when shifting 32-bit values since it allows both halves of the number to be shifted with the same control code. $\mathrm{HI} / \mathrm{LO}$ reference signal is selectable each time the shifter is used.

The shifter fills any bits to the right of the input value in the output field with zeros, and bits to the left are filled with the extension bit $(X)$. The extension bit can be fed by three possible sources depending on the instruction being performed. The three sources are the MSB of the input, the AC bit from the arithmetic status register (ASTAT) or a zero.

Table 2.4 shows the shifter array output as a function of the control code and HI/LO signal.

The OR/PASS logic allows the shifted sections of a multiprecision number to be combined into a single quantity. In some shifter instructions, the shifted output may be logically ORed with the contents of the SR register; the shifter array is bitwise ORed with the current contents of the SR register before being loaded there. When the [SR OR] option is not used in the instruction, the shifter array output is passed through and loaded into the shifter result (SR) register unmodified.

# Computational Units 2 

| Control Code |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| HI reference | LO Reference |
| +16 to +127 | +32 to +127 |
| +15 | +31 |
| +14 | +30 |
| +13 | +29 |
| +12 | +28 |
| +11 | +27 |
| +10 | +26 |
| +9 | +25 |
| +8 | +24 |
| +7 | +23 |
| +6 | +22 |
| +5 | +21 |
| +4 | +20 |
| +3 | +19 |
| +2 | +18 |
| +1 | +17 |
| 0 | +16 |
| -1 | +15 |
| -2 | +14 |
| -3 | +13 |
| -4 | +12 |
| -5 | +11 |
| -6 | +10 |
| -7 | +9 |
| -8 | +8 |
| -9 | +7 |
| -10 | +6 |
| -11 | +5 |
| -12 | +4 |
| -13 | +3 |
| -14 | +2 |
| -15 | +1 |
| -16 | 0 |
| -17 | -1 |
| -18 | -2 |
| -19 | -3 |
| -20 | -4 |
| -21 | -5 |
| -22 | -6 |
| -23 | -7 |
| -24 | -8 |
| -25 | -9 |
| -26 | -10 |
| -27 | -11 |
| -28 | -12 |
| -29 | -13 |
| -30 | -14 |
| -31 | -15 |
| -32 to -128 | -16 to -128 |

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNPR represents the 16-bit input pattern
00000000000000000000000000000000
R0000000 000000000000000000000000 X stands for the PR000000 000000000000000000000000 extension bit NPROOOOO 000000000000000000000000 MNPRO000 000000000000000000000000 LMNPRO00 000000000000000000000000 KLMNPR00 000000000000000000000000 JKLMNPRO 000000000000000000000000 IJKLMNPR 000000000000000000000000 HIJKLMNP R0000000 0000000000000000 GHIJKLMN PRO00000 0000000000000000 FGHIJKLM NPROOOOO 0000000000000000 EFGHIJKL MNPROOOO 0000000000000000 DEFGHIJK LMNPROOO 0000000000000000 CDEFGHIJ KLMNPROO 0000000000000000 BCDEFGHI JKLMNPRO 0000000000000000 ABCDEFGH IJKLMNPR 0000000000000000 XABCDEFG HIJKLMNP R0000000 00000000 XXABCDEF GHIJKLMN PRO00000 00000000 XXXABCDE FGHIJKLM NPR00000 00000000 XXXXABCD EFGHIJKL MNPR0000 00000000 XXXXXABC DEFGHIJK LMNPR000 00000000 XXXXXXAB CDEFGHIJ KLMNPROO 00000000 XXXXXXXA BCDEFGHI JKLMNPRO 00000000 XXXXXXXX ABCDEFGH IJKLMNPR 00000000 XXXXXXXX XABCDEFG HIJKLMNP R0000000 XXXXXXXX XXABCDEF GHIJKLMN PR000000 XXXXXXXX XXXABCDE FGHIJKLM NPRO0000 XXXXXXXX XXXXABCD EFGHIJKL MNPR0000 XXXXXXXX XXXXXABC DEFGHIJK LMNPR000 XXXXXXXX XXXXXXAB CDEFGHIJ KLMNPR00 XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXA BCDEFGHI JKLMNPRO XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX ABCDEFGH IJKLMNPR XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XABCDEFG HIJKLMNP XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXABCDEF GHIJKLMN XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXABCDE FGHIJKLM XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXABCD EFGHIJKL XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXXABC DEFGHIJK XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXXXAB CDEFGHIJ XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXA BCDEFGHI XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX ABCDEFGH XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XABCDEFG XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXABCDEF XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXABCDE XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXABCD XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXXABC XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXXXAB XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXA XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX

Table 2.4 Shifter Array Characteristic

## 2 Computational Units

The exponent detector derives an exponent for the shifter input value. The exponent detector operates in one of three ways which determine how the input value is interpreted. In the HI state, the input is interpreted as a single precision number or the upper half of a double precision number. The exponent detector determines the number of leading sign bits and produces a code which indicates how many places the input must be upshifted to eliminate all but one of the sign bits. The code is negative so that it can become the effective exponent for the mantissa formed by removing the redundant sign bits.

In the HI-extend state (HIX), the input is interpreted as the result of an add or subtract performed in the ALU which may have overflowed. Therefore the exponent detector takes the arithmetic overflow (AV) status into consideration. If AV is set, then a +1 exponent is output to indicate an extra bit is needed in the normalized mantissa (the ALU Carry bit); if AV is not set, then HI-extend functions exactly like the HI state. When performing a derive exponent function in HI or HI -extend modes, the exponent detector also outputs a shifter sign (SS) bit which is loaded into the arithmetic status register (ASTAT). The sign bit is the same as the MSB of the shifter input except when AV is set; when AV is set in HI-extend state, the MSB is inverted to restore the sign bit of the overflowed value.

In the LO state, the input is interpreted as the lower half of a double precision number. In the LO state, the exponent detector interprets the SS bit in the arithmetic status register (ASTAT) as the sign bit of the number. The SE register is loaded with the output of the exponent detector only if SE contains -15 . This occurs only when the upper half-which must be processed first-contained all sign bits. The exponent detector output is also offset by -16 to account for the fact that the input is actually the lower half of a 32-bit value. Table 2.5 gives the exponent detector characteristics for all three modes.

The exponent compare logic is used to find the largest exponent value in an array of shifter input values. The exponent compare logic in conjunction with the exponent detector derives a block exponent. The comparator compares the exponent value derived by the exponent detector with the value stored in the shifter block exponent (SB) register and updates the SB register only when the derived exponent value is larger than the value in SB register. See the examples shown in the following sections.

# Computational Units 2 

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { S = Sign bit } \\ & \text { N = Non-sign bit } \\ & \mathrm{D}=\text { Don't care bit } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| HI Mode |  |  | HIX Mode |  |
| Shifter Array Input | Output | AV | Shifter Array Input | Output |
|  |  | 1 | DDDDDDDD DDDDDDDD | +1 |
| SNDDDDDD DDDDDDDD | 0 | 0 | SNDDDDD DDDDDDD | 0 |
| SSNDDDD DDDDDDD | -1 | 0 | SSNDDDD DDDDDDDD | -1 |
| SSSNDDD DDDDDDDD | -2 | 0 | SSSNDDD D DDDDDDD | -2 |
| SSSSNDD DDDDDDDD | -3 | 0 | SSSSNDD DDDDDDDD | -3 |
| SSSSSNDD DDDDDDDD | -4 | 0 | SSSSSNDD DDDDDDDD | -4 |
| SSSSSSND DDDDDDDD | -5 | 0 | SSSSSSND DDDDDDDD | -5 |
| SSSSSSSN DDDDDDDD | -6 | 0 | SSSSSSSN DDDDDDDD | -6 |
| SSSSSSSS NDDDDDDD | -7 | 0 | SSSSSSSS NDDDDDDD | -7 |
| SSSSSSSS SNDDDDDD | -8 | 0 | SSSSSSSS SNDDDDDD | -8 |
| SSSSSSSS SSNDDDDD | -9 | 0 | SSSSSSSS SSNDDDDD | -9 |
| SSSSSSSS SSSNDDDD | -10 | 0 | SSSSSSSS SSSNDDDD | -10 |
| SSSSSSSS SSSSNDDD | -11 | 0 | SSSSSSSS SSSSNDDD | -11 |
| SSSSSSSS SSSSSNDD | -12 | 0 | SSSSSSSS SSSSSNDD | -12 |
| SSSSSSSS SSSSSSND | -13 | 0 | SSSSSSSS SSSSSSND | -13 |
| SSSSSSSS SSSSSSSN | -14 | 0 | SSSSSSSS SSSSSSSN | -14 |
| SSSSSSSS SSSSSSSS | -15 | 0 | SSSSSSSS SSSSSSSS | -15 |

## LO Mode

SS Shifter Array Input Output

| S | NDDDDDDD DDDDDDDD | -15 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| S | SNDDDDDD DDDDDDDD | -16 |
| S | SSNDDDDD DDDDDDDD | -17 |
| S | SSSNDDDD DDDDDDDD | -18 |
| S | SSSSNDDD DDDDDDDD | -19 |
| S | SSSSSNDD DDDDDDDD | -20 |
| S | SSSSSSND DDDDDDDD | -21 |
| S | SSSSSSSN DDDDDDDD | -22 |
| S | SSSSSSSS NDDDDDDD | -23 |
| S | SSSSSSSS SNDDDDDD | -24 |
| S | SSSSSSSS SSNDDDDD | -25 |
| S | SSSSSSSS SSSNDDDD | -26 |
| S | SSSSSSSS SSSSNDDD | -27 |
| S | SSSSSSSS SSSSSNDD | -28 |
| S | SSSSSSSS SSSSSSND | -29 |
| S | SSSSSSSS SSSSSSSN | -30 |
| S | SSSSSSSS SSSSSSSS | -31 |

Table 2.5 Exponent Detector Characteristics

## 2 Computational Units

### 2.4.2 Shifter Operations

The shifter performs the following functions (instruction mnemonics shown in parentheses):

- Arithmetic Shift (ASHIFT)
- Logical Shift (LSHIFT)
- Normalize (NORM)
- Derive Exponent (EXP)
- Block Exponent Adjust (EXPADJ)

These basic shifter instructions can be used in a variety of ways, depending on the underlying arithmetic requirements. The following sections present single and multiple precision examples for these functions:

- Derivation of a Block Exponent
- Immediate Shifts
- Denormalization
- Normalization

The shift functions (arithmetic shift, logical shift, and normalize) can be optionally specified with [SR OR] and HI/LO modes to facilitate multiprecision operations. [SR OR] logically ORs the shift result with the current contents of SR. This option is used to join two 16-bit quantities into a 32-bit value in SR. When [SR OR] is not used, the shift value is passed through to SR directly. The HI and LO modifiers reference the shift to the upper or lower half of the 32-bit SR register. These shift functions take inputs from either the SI register or any other result register and load the 32-bit shifted result into the SR register.

### 2.4.2.1 Shifter Input/Output Registers

The sources of shifter input and output are:

| Source for <br> Shifter input | Destination for <br> Shifter output |
| :--- | ---: |
| SI | SR (SR0, SR1) |
| AR |  |
| MR0, MR1, MR2 |  |
| SR0, SR1 |  |

## Computational Units 2

### 2.4.2.2 Derive Block Exponent

This function detects the exponent of the number largest in magnitude in an array of numbers. The EXPADJ instruction performs this function. The sequence of steps for a typical example is shown below.

## A. Load SB with -16

The SB register is used to contain the exponent for the entire block. The possible values at the conclusion of a series of EXPADJ operations range from -15 to 0 . The exponent compare logic updates the SB register if the new value is greater than the current value. Loading the register with -16 initializes it to a value certain to be less than any actual exponents detected.
B. Process the first array element:
$\operatorname{Array}(1)=1111010110110001$
Exponent $=-3$
$-3>S B(-16)$
SB gets -3
C. Process next array element:
$\operatorname{Array}(2)=0000000101110110$
Exponent $=-6$
$-6<-3$
SB remains -3

## D. Continue processing array elements.

When and if an array element is found whose exponent is greater than SB, that value is loaded into SB. When all array elements have been processed, the SB register contains the exponent of the largest number in the entire block. No normalization is performed. EXPADJ is purely an inspection operation. The value in SB could be transferred to SE and used to normalize the block on the next pass through the shifter. Or it could be simply associated with that data for subsequent interpretation.

## 2 Computational Units

### 2.4.2.3 Immediate Shifts

An immediate shift simply shifts the input bit pattern to the right (downshift) or left (upshift) by a given number of bits. Immediate shift instructions use the data value in the instruction itself to control the amount and direction of the shifting operation. (See the chapter
"Instruction Set Overview" for an example of this instruction.) The data value controlling the shift is an 8 -bit signed number. The SE register is not used or changed by an immediate shift.

The following example shows the input value downshifted relative to the upper half of SR (SR1). This is the (HI) version of the shift:

SI=0xB6A3;
SR=LSHIFT SI BY -5 (HI);
Input: 1011011010100011
Shift value: -5
SR: $\quad 000001011011010100011000000000$

Here is the same input value shifted in the other direction, referenced to the lower half (LO) of SR:

SI=0xB6A3;
SR=LSHIFT SI BY 5 (LO);
Input: 1011011010100011
Shift value: +5
SR: $\quad 00000000000101101101010001100000$

## Computational Units 2

In addition to the direction of the shifting operation, the shift may be either arithmetic (ASHIFT) or logical (LSHIFT). For example, the following shows a logical shift, relative to the upper half of SR (HI):

SI=0xB6A3;
SR=LSHIFT SI BY -5 (HI);
Input: 1011011010100011
Shift value: -5
SR: $\quad 00000101101101010001100000000000$

This example shows an arithmetic shift of the same input and shift code:
SI=0xB6A3;
SR=ASHIFT SI BY -5 (HI);
Input: 1011011010100011
Shift value: -5
SR: $\quad 11111101101101010001100000000000$

### 2.4.2.4 Denormalize

Denormalizing refers to shifting a number according to a predefined exponent. The operation is effectively a floating-point to fixed-point conversion.

Denormalizing requires a sequence of operations. First, the SE register must contain the exponent value. This value may be explicitly loaded or may be the result of some previous operation. Next the shift itself is performed, taking its shift value from the SE register, not from an immediate data value.

## 2 Computational Units

Two examples of denormalizing a double-precision number are given below. The first shows a denormalization in which the upper half of the number is shifted first, followed by the lower half. Since computations may produce output in either order, the second example shows the same operation in the other order, i.e. lower half first.

Always select the arithmetic shift for the higher half (HI) of the twoscomplement input (or logical for unsigned). Likewise, the first half processed does not use the [SR OR] option.

Modifier $=H I$, No $[S R$ OR], Shift operation $=$ Arithmetic, $S E=-3$
First Input: 1011011010100011 (upper half of desired result)
SR: $\quad 11110110110101000110000000000000$
Now the lower half is processed. Always select a logical shift for the lower half of the input. Likewise, the second half processed must use the [SR OR] option to avoid overwriting the previous half of the output value.

Modifier $=L O,[S R$ OR], Shift operation $=$ Logical, $S E=-3$
Second Input: 0111011001011101 (lower half of desired result)
SR: 11110110110101000110111011001011
Here is the same input processed in the reverse order. The higher half is always arithmetically shifted and the lower half is logically shifted. The first input is passed straight through to $S R$, but the second half is ORed to create a double-precision value in SR.

Modifier $=L O$, No $[S R$ OR], Shift operation $=$ Logical, $S E=-3$
First Input: 0111011001011101 (lower half of desired result)
SR: $\quad 00000000000000000000111011001011$

Modifier $=$ HI, $[S R$ OR], Shift operation $=$ Arithmetic, $S E=-3$
Second Input: 1011011010100011 (upper half of desired result)
SR: $\quad 11110110110101000110111011001011$

## Computational Units 2

### 2.4.2.5 Normalize

Numbers with redundant sign bits require normalizing. Normalizing a number is the process of shifting a twos-complement number within a field so that the rightmost sign bit lines up with the MSB position of the field and recording how many places the number was shifted. The operation can be thought of as a fixed-point to floating-point conversion, generating an exponent and a mantissa.

Normalizing is a two-stage process. The first stage derives the exponent. The second stage does the actual shifting. The first stage uses the EXP instruction which detects the exponent value and loads it into the SE register. This instruction (EXP) recognizes a (HI) and (LO) modifier. The second stage uses the NORM instruction. NORM recognizes (HI) and (LO) and also has the [SR OR] option. NORM uses the negated value of the SE register as its shift control code. The negated value is used so that the shift is made in the correct direction.

Here is a normalization example for a single precision input:

SE=EXP AR (HI);
Detects Exponent With Modifier $=$ HI
Input: 1111011011010100
SE set to: $\quad-3$
Normalize, with modifier $=$ HI Shift driven by value in SE
Input: 1111011011010100
SR:
10110110101000000000000000000000
For a single precision input, the normalize operation can use either the (HI) or (LO) modifier, depending on whether you want the result in SR1 or SR0, respectively.

Double precision values follow the same general scheme. The first stage detects the exponent and the second stage normalizes the two halves of the input. For double precision, however, there are two operations in each stage.

## 2 Computational Units

For the first stage, the upper half of the input must be operated on first. This first exponent derivation loads the exponent value into SE. The second exponent derivation, operating on the lower half of the number will not alter the SE register unless $\mathrm{SE}=-15$. This happens only when the first half contained all sign bits. In this case, the second operation will load a value into SE. (See Table 2.5) This value is used to control both parts of the normalization that follows.

For the second stage, now that SE contains the correct exponent value, the order of operations is immaterial. The first half (whether HI or LO) is normalized without the [SR OR] and the second half is normalized with [SR OR] to create one double-precision value in SR. The (HI) and (LO) modifiers identify which half is being processed.

Here is a complete example of a typical double precision normalization.

1. Detect Exponent, Modifier $=H I$

First Input: $1111011011010100 \quad$ (Must be upper half)
SE set to: -3
2. Detect Exponent, Modifier $=L O$

Second Input: 0110111011001011
SE unchanged, still -3
3. Normalize, Modifier $=H I$, No $[S R$ OR], $S E=-3$

First Input: 1111011011010100
SR: $\quad 10110110101000000000000000000000$
4. Normalize , Modifier $=L O,[S R O R], S E=-3$

Second Input: 0110111011001011
SR: 10110110101000110111011001011000

## Computational Units 2

If the upper half of the input contains all sign bits, the SE register value is determined by the second derive exponent operation as shown below.

1. Detect Exponent, Modifier $=H I$

First Input: $1111111111111111 \quad$ (Must be upper half)
SE set to: $\quad-15$
2. Detect Exponent, Modifier $=L O$

Second Input: 1111011011010100
SE now set to: -19
3. Normalize, Modifier=HI, No [SR OR], SE $=-19$ (negated)

First Input: 1111111111111111
SR: $\quad 00000000000000000000000000000000$
All values of SE less than -15 (resulting in a shift of +16 or more) upshift the input completely off scale.
4. Normalize, Modifier $=L O,[S R O R], S E=-19$ (negated)

Second Input: 1111011011010100
SR:
10110110101000000000000000000000

## 2 Computational Units

There is one additional normalization situation, requiring the HI-extended (HIX) state. This is specifically when normalizing ALU results (AR) that may have overflowed. This operation reads the arithmetic status word (ASTAT) overflow bit (AV) and the carry bit (AC) in conjunction with the value in AR. AV is set (1) if an overflow has occurred. AC contains the true sign of the twos-complement value.

For example, given these conditions:
$\mathrm{AR}=1111101000110010$
$\mathrm{AV}=1$, indicating overflow
$A C=0$, the true sign bit of this value

1. Detect Exponent, Modifier $=$ HIX

SE gets set to $\quad+1$
2. Normalize, Modifier $=H I, S E=1$
$\begin{array}{ll}A R=11111010 & 00110010 \\ S R=01111101 & 00011001\end{array}$
The AC bit is supplied as the sign bit, shown in bold above.
The HIX operation executes properly whether or not there has actually been an overflow. Consider this example:
$\mathrm{AR}=1110001101011011$
$\mathrm{AV}=0$, indicating no overflow
$A C=0$, not meaningful if $A V=0$

1. Detect Exponent, Modifier $=$ HIX

SE set to -2
2. Normalize, Modifier $=H I, S E=-2$

```
AR = 11100011 01011011
SR = 10001101 0110100000000000000000000
```

The AC bit is not used as the sign bit. A brief examination of Table 2.4 shows that the HIX mode is identical to the HI mode when AV is not set. When the NORM, LO operation is done, the extension bit is zero; when the NORM, HI operation is done, the extension bit is AC.

