

## **Abstract**

SUDARSANAM, YASASWINI. Implementation of Double Precision Floating Point Arithmetic. (Under the guidance of Dr.Paul Franzon.)

Floating Point Arithmetic is extensively used in the field of medical imaging, biometrics, motion capture and audio applications, including broadcast, conferencing, musical instruments and professional audio. Many of these applications need to solve sparse linear systems that use fair amounts of matrix multiplication.

The objective of this thesis is to implement double precision floating point cores for addition and multiplication .These cores are targeted for Field Programmable Gate Arrays because FPGAs give the designer good control over the number of I/O pins and utilization of on chip memory. FPGAs are also comparable to floating point processors in their power consumption.

The multiplier and adder cores conform to the IEEE 754 standard for double precision. The design is implemented on Xilinx ISE 8.2i and has been simulated on ModelSim 6.1i.The thesis pays significant attention to the analysis of the adder and multiplier cores in terms of pipelining and area so as to maximize throughput in any manner possible. It further throws light on variations of power with pipelining. Power measurements are done using XPower provided by ISE.

# Implementation of a Double Precision Floating Point Arithmetic

by

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***To amma and appa***

## **Biography**

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## **Acknowledgement**

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# Contents

<b>List of Figures</b>	<b>vii</b>
<b>List of Tables</b>	<b>viii</b>
<b>1 Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Importance	1
1.2 Idea of Floats	1
1.3 Motivation	1
1.4 Outline of Thesis	2
<b>2 Double Precision</b>	<b>3</b>
2.1 Introduction	3
2.2 Scientific Notation	3
2.3 Floating Point Unit	4
2.3.1 Real Number System	4
2.3.2 Normalization	6
2.3.3 Biased exponent	7
2.3.4 Signed Exponent, Signed Infinity and NaN	7
2.4 Flipside of Floating Point	9
<b>3 Design and Implementation</b>	<b>11</b>
3.1 IEEE 754 format for Double Precision	11
3.2 A Simple Example	12
3.3 Description of Floating Point	12
3.3.1 The Floating Point multiplier	13
3.3.1.1. Module denormalizer	13
3.3.1.2 Module multiplier	14
3.3.1.3 Module normalizer and rounding	18
3.3.2 Floating point adder	18
3.3.2.1 Module denormalizer	19
3.3.2.2 Module shifter	19
3.3.2.3 Module adder	20

3.3.2.4 Module rounding .....	21
3.3.2.5 Module sign .....	23
3.4 The Sparse Matrix .....	23
3.4.1 Row Compressed Format .....	24
3.4.2 Basic Architecture .....	24
3.4.2.1 Module descriptions .....	25
<b>4 Verification .....</b>	<b>29</b>
<b>5 Results .....</b>	<b>31</b>
5.1 Simulation .....	31
5.2 Synthesis .....	32
<b>6 Conclusions and future work .....</b>	<b>43</b>
<b>References .....</b>	<b>44</b>
<b>Appendix A: Verilog HDL for multiplier and adder cores .....</b>	<b>47</b>

# LIST OF FIGURES

Fig 3.1 Double precision representation .....	11
Fig 3.2 Expression to calculate value from IEEE 754 format .....	12
Fig 3.3 High level view of Floating point multiplier core .....	14
Fig 3.4 Comparator v8.0 .....	15
Fig 3.5 Fixed Point mantissa multiplier .....	16
Fig 3.6 Floating point adder/subtractor core v7.0 .....	17
Fig 3.7 Top view – Denormalizer .....	20
Fig 3.8 Bit sequence after right shift .....	21
Fig 3.9 Priority encoding in rounding module .....	22
Fig 3.10 A sample sparse matrix .....	24
Fig 3.11 A simple matrix multiplication architecture .....	25
Fig 3.12 Pipelined divider v3.0 .....	26
Fig 5.1 Simulation results from adder .....	32
Fig 5.2 Simulation results from the multiplier .....	33
Fig 5.3 Variation of power with pipelines in 64 bit adder .....	39
Fig 5.4 Variation of freq/area vs. pipelines in 64 bit adder .....	40
Fig 5.5 Snapshot of the 64 bit multiplier after place and route .....	41
Fig 5.6 Snapshot of the 64 bit adder after place and route .....	42



# LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Example of floating point format .....	5
Table 2.2 Representation of a number in sign, mantissa & exponent format .....	5
Table 2.3 Gradual underflow .....	7
Table 2.4 Signed Infinities .....	8
Table 3.1 Sign, Exponent & Mantissa limits in IEEE 754 format .....	12
Table 3.2 Allowable bit widths & depth of pipelines in comparator v8.0 .....	16
Table 3.3 Rules for rounding .....	18
Table 3.4 Determination of sign .....	23
Table 5.1 Variation of freq/area with pipelining for 64 bit multiplier .....	34
Table 5.2 Comparison of results from the synthesis of multiplier .....	36
Table 5.3 Power vs. pipelining for 64 bit multiplier .....	36
Table 5.4 Synthesis results from 64 bit adder .....	37
Table 5.5 Comparison of minimum, maximum and optimal metric for adder .....	37
Table 5.6 Table of metric comparisons for 64 bit adder .....	38
Table 5.7 Variation of power with pipelining in 64 bit adder .....	39

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1 Importance

Floating point arithmetic is no longer as esoteric as before because of its increasing importance in computer systems. Manipulating floating points efficiently is an utmost necessity as can be seen from the fact that every language supports a floating point data type. Every computer has a floating point processor or a dedicated accelerator that fulfills the requirements of precision using detailed floating point arithmetic. The main applications of floating points today are in the field of medical imaging, biometrics, motion capture and audio applications, including broadcast, conferencing, musical instruments and professional audio. Their importance can be hardly over emphasized because the performances of computers that handle such applications are measured in terms of the number of floating point operations they perform per second or FLOPS /sec.

### 1.2 Idea of “Floats”

Decimal numbers are also called Floating Points because a single number can be represented with one or more significant digits depending on the position of the decimal point. Since the point floats between the mass of digits that represent the number such numbers are termed Floating Point Numbers. Floating point formats and number representations are discussed in detail in subsequent chapters.

### 1.3 Motivation

Constraints in representation of mathematical values using existing precision bring about the necessity for cores that can manipulate double precision floating point numbers. Evolving video applications in particular are switching from single to double precision cores because modern graphical processor units or GPUs need to support diverse applications such as an in-game physics simulation to conventional computational sciences. 32 bit floating points are high enough for most applications but not all. With

arithmetic intensity of computations portraying a historic growth rate of 71% per year, double and quadruple precision floating points have come to stay.

The double precision cores for addition and multiplication discussed in this thesis are targeted for Virtex II Pro FPGA. In general, the most significant and inherent advantage of FPGAs over a Von Neumann platform is their iteration level parallelism that is one to two orders of magnitude than is available with CPUs. Current FPGAs provide a large amount of on chip memory and abundant I/O pins. Thus they are able to offer a large amount of on-chip and off-chip memory bandwidth to I/O bound applications. This eliminates latencies due to cache misses.

The clock frequency of traditional processors is about 20 times that of typical FPGA implementations. However the efficiency advantage because of the overlap of control and data flow and elimination of some instruction on the FPGA outweigh this advantage resulting in a speedup that is one to two orders in magnitude.[1]. For example, a stand alone hardware implementation of the GIMPS algorithm is reported to be capable of 12-million digit numbers in fewer than 34 milliseconds which is identified as a 1.76 times performance improvement compared to a fast Pentium. [2].

Implementation of 64 bit multiplier and adder cores is an important part of this thesis. In order to demonstrate one of the applications of these cores, basic level matrix multiplication architecture is established. The performance of the cores are evaluated individually and compared with results obtained from different sources. Power consumption for different levels of pipelining are also tabulated and analyzed. The implementation uses Xilinx ISE 8.2i Verilog with ModelSim 6.1i for simulation, XST for synthesis.

## 1.4 Outline of Thesis

Chapter 2 explains the basics of floating point numbers, double precision formats, normalization and errors related to floating point arithmetic. Design and implementation of floating point multiplication and addition cores is covered in Chapter 3. Chapter 3 also discusses the basic architecture for matrix multiplication. Chapter 4 talks about a few verification steps to ensure that addition and multiplication cores are functionally correct. Comparisons and analysis of these cores is detailed in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 talks about conclusions and future work in this area.

## Chapter 2

### Double Precision

#### 2.1 Introduction

When infinitely large real numbers are to be stored using a finite number of bits, some form of approximation in representation is needed. Most processors use a single word to represent a number and hence these representations of floating point values are called single precision. Double precision floating points are named relative to the single precision representation in the sense that they have twice as much precision and hence twice as many bits as a regular floating point number. This also means that when represented in scientific notation double precision floating points carry more digits to the right of the decimal point. If a single precision number requires 32 bits, a double requires 64 bits. These extra bits also allow an increase in the range of values that can be represented. However this increase is dependent on the program format for a floating point representation. Double precision provides a greater range, approximately  $10^{**}(-308)$  to  $10^{**} 308$  and about 15 decimal digits of precision compared to a single precision whose approximate range is  $10^{**}(-38)$  to  $10^{**}38$ , with about 7 decimal digits of precision.

#### 2.2 Scientific Notation

Before the discussion of available floating point formats, it is worthy to understand scientific notations. A scientific notation is just another way to represent very large or very small numbers in a compact form such that they can be easily used for computations.

Any number can be represented as a number between 1 and 10 multiplied by a power of 10 that indicates the position of the decimal point as seen in the original number. Numbers greater than 10 are expressed as positive powers of 10 and numbers less than 10 as negative powers. Greater the number, better the impact on storage size of the resulting number. For example, the speed of light which is as high as 30,000,000,000 cm per sec

can be simply represented as  $3 \times 10^{10}$  cm per sec. This involves storage of only the mantissa namely 3 and the exponent which is 10 here.

Scientific notations are mandatory in computation because they greatly simplify multiplications or divisions into mere addition or subtraction of related exponents or powers of 10 used in their representation. For example, multiplication of 132,000,000 by 0.0000231 involves conversion to scientific notation first. This means multiplying  $1.32 \times 10^8$  by  $2.31 \times 10^{-5}$ . This reduces to  $(1.32 \times 2.31) \times 10^{(8-5=3)}$ . Extending the idea of such a representation to the binary system helps understand the IEEE 754 format for 64 bit numbers.

## 2.3 Floating Point Unit

This section describes the real number system and the floating point unit. It introduces terms like normalized numbers, denormalized numbers, biased exponents, and signed zeros and NaNs. It further expands to the understanding of Floating point formats, specific merits and demerits as well as their individualistic applications. It also explains the choice of IEEE floating point format.

### 2.3.1 Real Number System

The real number system consists of the entire spectrum of numbers between – infinity and + infinity. The limitation on size and number of registers in a computer leaves us with the ability to use only a subset of the real number continuum in calculations. This is just an approximate representation of the real number system, the range and precision being determined by the format of the floating point unit.

A Floating Point Unit or an FPU generally contains 3 parts:

1. Sign
2. Significand
3. Exponent

Sign is a 1 bit number that indicates whether the number is positive or negative. The significand has two parts , a one bit binary integer and a binary fraction The one bit binary integer is also known as the J-bit and is an implied value. The significand is also termed the mantissa.

### Mantissa and Significand

Mantissa was originally the fractional part of the logarithm while the characteristic was the integer part. Since logarithmic tables were replaced by computers eventually, though not in the pure form, mantissa and significand are used interchangeably in common parlance. A logarithmic table is a table of mantissas. Therefore, mantissa is just the logarithm of the significand.

The exponent indicates the positive or the negative power to which the radix should be raised in the computation of the value of a number that is being represented. For example, if 0.0002 is represented in decimal and binary in the sign, mantissa and exponent format it would be as shown in the table 2.1.

**Table 2.1 Example of floating point format**

Sign	Mantissa	Exponent	Radix
0	2.000	- 4	10
0	1.1101	-13	2

**Table 2.2 .Representations of a number in the sign, mantissa and exponent format**

Sign	Mantissa	Exponent
0	1.0	0
0	0.1	1
0	10.0	-1

Each floating point number has multiple representations because of the inherent nature of the decimal point to float between each of the individual digits. Therefore a simple number say 1 can take different forms in a given radix. Table 2.2 lists a few of the possible sign, magnitude and exponent format of the number ‘1’.

Every number can be represented by applying the following on the sign, mantissa and the exponent.

$$\text{Value} = (-1)^{\text{sign}} * \text{Mantissa} * \text{radix}^{\text{exponent}}$$

However, each number has only one normalized form and hence the importance of normalization in floating point arithmetic.

### 2.3.2 Normalization

A floating point number is said to be normalized if it obeys the following rule:

$$1/r \leq M < 1,$$

where r is the radix of the system of representation and M is the mantissa.

Most formats that have been standardized prefer normalized numbers for operations. Denormalized values are those that do not conform to this rule. Handling denormalized values involves more complexity in hardware compared to normalized values. A normalized mantissa has its binary point or the base-two equivalent of a decimal point to the left of the most significant non-zero digit. A representation of binary digits would always have a normalized mantissa whose most significant digit is one. Processors handle the process of denormalization by a procedure called “Gradual underflow”. Denormalization helps represent very small numbers whose value is close to zero. Though it is preferred that the leading bit of mantissa be a one, values that are infinitesimally small cannot be accommodated within the range of exponents, normalized floating point numbers allow. The process of “Gradual underflow” leads to a loss of precision, however it does allow the accommodation of such numbers in the floating point format. Table 2.3 depicts “Gradual underflow”.

**Table 2.3. Gradual Underflow**

Step	True exponent	Significand
1	- 132	1.00000100101010
2	-131	0.10000010010101
3	-130	0.01000001001010
4	-129	0.00100000100101
5	-128	0.00010000010010
6	-127	0.00001000001001

In Table 2.3, step 1 shows the actual result of an operation. The process of gradual underflow does one right shift in each successive step until the exponent reaches a value that which added to the constant bias yields zero. The table depicts the process of denormalization for a 32 bit floating point number where in the bias is  $+127_{10}$ .

### **2.3.3 Biased Exponent**

A biased exponent is one that is obtained by adding a constant value to the original exponent. It is done so as to accommodate negative exponents in the chosen format. The choice of the bias is made depending on the number of bits available for representing exponents in the floating point format used. Always when a bias is chosen, one should be able to reciprocate the smallest normalized number without having to deal with problems of overflow. A 32 bit number has a bias of  $+127$  while a 64 bit number has a bias of  $+1023$ . If the number of bits allowed for exponent representation is  $n$ , the bias is  $2^{n-1} - 1$ .

### **2.3.4 Signed Zero, Signed Infinity and NaN**

Zero is known as the neutral number with regard to sign. Both encodings of zero, a plus or a minus are equal in value .The sign of zero depends on two factors:

1. The operation



## 2. Rounding mode

Signed zeros are a useful aid in implementing interval arithmetic. During approximations of a real number by a floating point number system, one can adopt the usage of one floating point number or two. In case of the latter, there is an additional expense but if these two numbers are on either side of the real number under consideration, then it is possible to say that the number belongs to a set of real numbers bounded by the two floating point numbers. Therefore, any operation executes on this interval. Outward rounding confirms that the result of the computation is always within the resulting interval. Sign of a zero can mean one of the following two:

1. The direction on the number line from which underflow occurred.
2. The sign of infinity reciprocated.

Signed infinity represents the maximum positive and minimum negative number that can be accommodated in a given format. Signed infinity is represented by a zero in the mantissa and the maximum exponent that the representation allows.

For example, in IEEE 754 format for single precision,  $+\infty$  and  $-\infty$  are represented as in Table 2.4.

**Table 2.4 Signed Infinities**

Number	Sign	Exponent	Mantissa
$+\infty$	0	255	0
$-\infty$	1	255	0

NaN or “Not A Number” refers to those values whose mantissas are nonzero and exponent exceeds the maximum allowable value for a format. NaNs are classified as Quiet NaNs and Signaling NaNs. Quiet NaNs are passed by processors without exceptions when encountered but signaling NaNs might raise exceptions.

## 2.4 Flipside of Floating Points

Much as floating points provide greater range of precision as compared to integers, results of floating point calculations can be strange and seemingly inexact. Floating point representation on digital systems is base 2 but the external representation is always base 10. This explains the misconception that a recurring decimal like  $1/3$  may not be exactly represented but 0.1 or 0.01 can be. However the representation of 0.01 may also be 0.009999 when converted from the binary equivalent that gets stored.

Another noticeable fact is that the exponent and density of numbers represented are inversely proportional. Since there is always approximation to the nearest value in case of non representable values, it is found mathematically that there can be as many as 8,338,607 single precision numbers between 1 and 2 and only 8191 numbers between  $10^{23}$  and  $10^{24}$ . Rounding can lead to different values even with mathematically equivalent expressions. An example is the use of a divide and multiply operation with a number and its reciprocal respectively.

When such floats are converted to integer, inaccuracies can be well detected. A number written in decimal as  $xx.ff$  can be converted to integer by means of a multiply by 100 operation. The result surprisingly is not  $xxff$  but  $xxff - 1$ . This is because there is no rounding, only truncation during its assignment from float to Integer.

Conversions from single precision to double can be a little dangerous if they need to be eventually converted to integers because the computer inherently pads zeros in the binary representation to extend single to double. The decimal equivalent of the new value can display way more than the actual value.

Another important precaution to be exercised when using floats is use of good and safe comparisons. One of the better ways to compare floats is to compare the absolute difference of two floating point numbers with an approximate epsilon value using relational operators like approximately equal ,definitely greater than etc.

The size of intermediate registers during arithmetic operations on floating point numbers is of vital importance. Use of randomly sized registers and assignments can lead to rounding or truncation related issues with little or absolutely nil sources for verification later. As is well known the worst case bit error probability is always 50% and not 100% since there are only 2 bits. Hence intermediate storage in registers should be able to accommodate overflow or underflow as a means to track errors in elaborate design. These have been borne in mind during the implementation of these double precision cores as well.

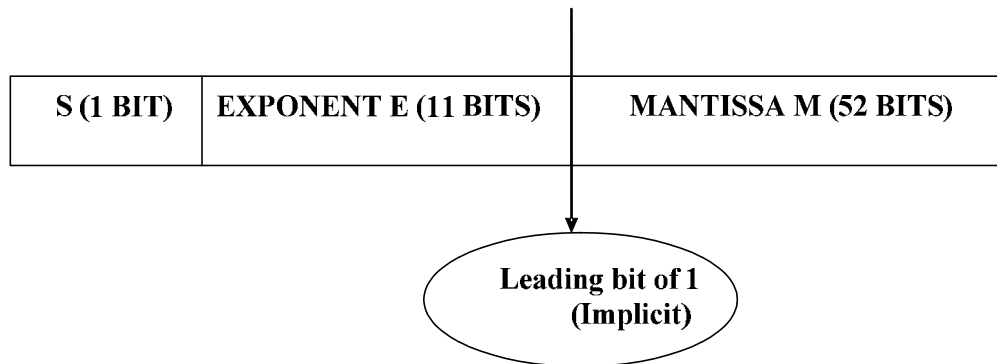
## Chapter 3

### Design and Implementation

This chapter deals with the design and implementation of the floating point cores for the sparse matrix multiplier. It explains the hierarchy of modules, the function of each module, implementation details and issues during their simulation and synthesis. The following sections are dedicated to the discussion of the implementation details of the floating point multiplier and adder for double precision. The algorithms for implementation of the adder and multiplier have been adapted for use in the problem from [3]. The idea of the design is drawn from [4].

#### 3.1 IEEE 754 Format for Double Precision

Before delving into design, it is advantageous to understand the IEEE 754 format for double precision that forms the basis of these computations. [5]



**Fig 3.1 Double Precision Representation**

Fig 3.1 shows the structure of a double precision floating point number with the Most Significant Bit (MSB) as the sign bit. A positive number has an MSB of 0 and a negative number has an MSB of 1. The absolute values of the exponent and mantissa are represented by E and M. The Mantissa deserves special attention here. Though called a 64 bit floating point number, the actual representation involves 65 bits that includes an implied bit of 1 before the mantissa. The mantissa can then be read as  $M = 1.f$  where f corresponds to the 52 bits. The exponent E is biased with the bias value taken as 1023. Given a double precision floating point number X, it can always be represented by the equation given in Fig 4.2. \* \* is used to show exponentiation.

$$X = (-1)^S \cdot 2^{(E-1023)} \cdot 1.F$$

**Fig 3.2 Expression to calculate value from IEEE 754 format**

The valid range of values for the exponent, mantissa and sign are shown in table 3.1.

**Table 3.1 Sign, Exponent and Mantissa limits in IEEE 754 format**

Sign	Exponent	Mantissa	Value /Classification
X	2047	Nonzero	NaN
1	2047	zero	Infinity
0	2047	zero	Infinity
S	0<E<2047	Nonzero	$(-1)^S \cdot 2^{(E-1023)} \cdot 1.f$
S	0	Nonzero	$(-1)^S \cdot 2^{(-1022)} \cdot 0.f$
1	0	Zero	0
0	0	Zero	0

### 3.2 A Simple Example

Consider the number 0.15625. In order to represent it as a 64 bit number we do the following

1. Convert 0.15625 to binary which is  $0.00101_2$ . This conversion can be stopped depending on the precision we require in the binary equivalent.
2. Represent the equivalent in standard notation. This becomes  $1.01 \cdot 2^{-3}$
3. Determine biased exponent by adding 1023 to original exponent .This gives 1020.
4. Mantissa is 1.01 .Make leading 1 implicit so that effective representation becomes  
0 for sign bit  
0111111100 for biased exponent  
01 for mantissa.
5. Fill in the remaining bits of mantissa with zeros.

### 3.3 Description of Floating Point Cores

The following section describes the two floating point cores required for matrix multiplication. The two cores operate on each entry of the sparse matrix bringing the total number of floating point operations to twice the number of nonzeros in the sparse matrix.

### 3.3.1 The Floating Point Multiplier

The algorithm for double precision multiplication is based on the simple idea of multiplication of two numbers expressed in scientific notation.

Given 2 numbers A and B with  $A = m.\text{decimal} * 10^{eA}$  and  $B = n.\text{decimal} * 10^{eB}$ , the product AB is computed by multiplication of the values m.decimal and n.decimal and addition of exponents i.e. to say that  $AB = (m.\text{decimal} * n.\text{decimal}) * 10^{(eA + eB)}$ . Further the product can be expressed in scientific notation if needed.

The following modules make up the multiplier:

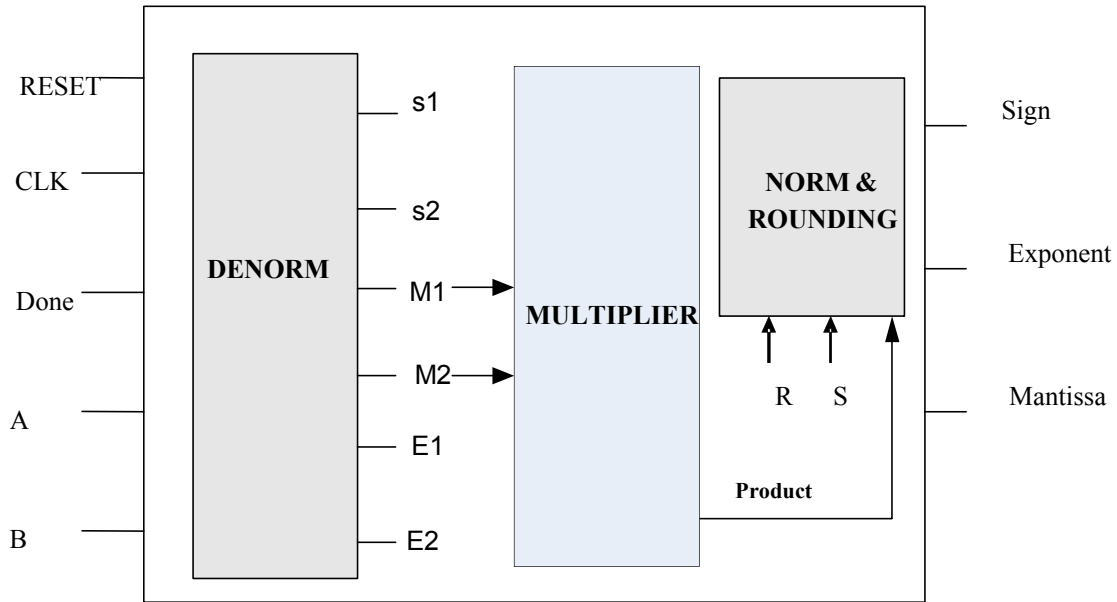
1. Denormalizer
2. Fixed Point mantissa multiplier
3. Fixed point adder / subtractor
4. Normalizer
5. Rounding module

The design is fully synchronous. The top module of the multiplier is shown in Fig 4.3

#### 3.3.1.1 Module Denormalizer

This implementation restricts itself to handling normalized values alone. More on handling denormal numbers is found in [9]. The denormalizer essentially makes the implied bit explicit. IEEE 754 format expects 52 bits of Mantissa with 1 in the 53<sup>rd</sup> bit that remains hidden and is implicit. For the purpose of multiplication the mantissa needs to be of the form 1.f. The denormalizer checks to see if the exponent of any of the operands is not zero. This is because numbers with zero exponents are unnormalized and are out of the scope of this design. The range of values that are considered normalized is provided in table 3.1.

The denormalizer uses 11 bit comparator cores provided by Xilinx 8.2i for comparing the exponent with zero. While port A of the core is fed an exponent of float A, port B is given a constant 11 bit input of zero. The outputs are registered.



**Fig 3.3: High level view of Floating Point multiplier core**

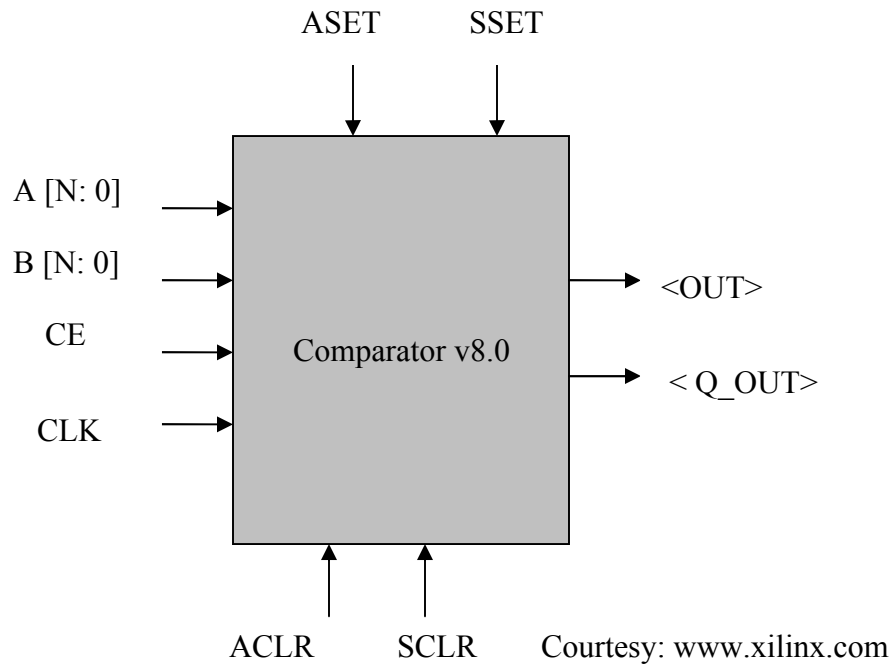
### **Description of the Comparator core**

The Xilinx comparator core v8.0 provides comparison logic for  $A=B$ ,  $A \leq B$ ,  $A \geq B$ ,  $A > B$ ,  $A < B$  and  $A \neq B$ . It operates on two's complement signed or unsigned data and can take 1 to 256 bits of input. Additionally it provides options for comparisons with a constant as well as optional clock enable synchronous and asynchronous controls for synchronous outputs. The core is shown in Fig 3.4. The depth of pipelining is constrained by the width and / or the operation being performed.[12]. For comparisons versus a constant B value of widths unto 16 bits, only two pipeline stages are possible. The degree of pipelining allowed and the corresponding operations are summarized in table 3.2.

#### **3.3.1.2.Module Multiplier**

The outputs of the denormalizer are registered and given to the multiplier shown in Fig.3.3. The multiplier houses a fixed point mantissa multiplier core from Xilinx. Once the product is computed, the multiplier calculates the XOR of the sign bits of A and B and outputs the resultant sign bit. Use of XOR yields a negative result for one negative

input and a positive result for two negative inputs.



**Fig 3.4 Comparator v8.0**

The multiplier module also yields the sum of the two exponents and deducts the bias of 1023 from the result. There is a pipeline stage inserted between the adder and the subtractor to increase frequency. Exponent addition and subtraction is also achieved by Xilinx cores whose pipelines can be varied for increasing frequency.

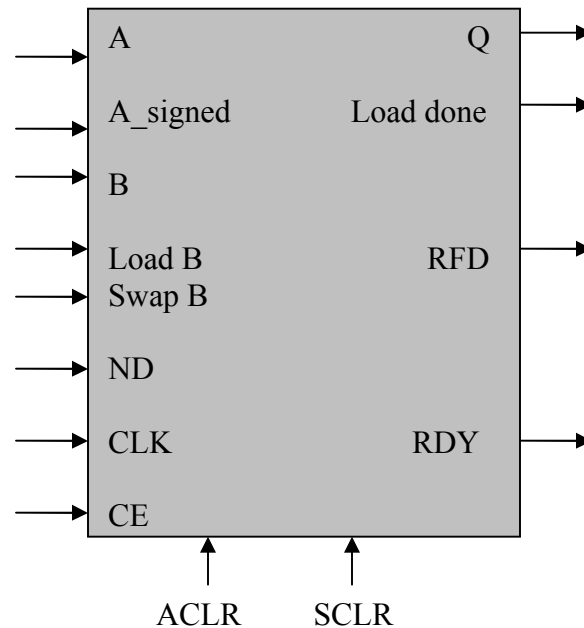
#### **Fixed Point Mantissa Multiplier**

The mantissa multiplier takes two 54 bit inputs and yields a registered output that is 108 bits long. The mantissa of a 64 bit number inclusive of the hidden or the implied bit is only 53 bits long. However a 54 bit pipelined core is needed as the 53 bit core in Xilinx ISE 8.2i does not work well with overflow. Depth of pipelining of the multiplier module is dependent to a great extent on the depth of pipelining in this core. Multiplier v8.0 provides only two values; 0 for no pipelining and 1 for full pipelining and the default is 1. The latency of the multiplier will depend on the width of the two inputs A and B. The core is shown in Fig 3.5.



**Table 3.2: Allowable bit widths and depth of pipelines in comparator v8.0**

Operation	Bit width	Pipelining
<	Max = 256	1(+ 1 optional o/p register)
<>	Max = 256	Max = 5
= Variable B	>2	1
= Variable B	>8	2
= Variable B	>32	3
=Variable B	> 128	4
= Const B	> 4	1
= Const B	>16	2
= Const B	>64	3
<=	Max = 256	1(+ 1 optional o/p register)
>=	Max = 256	1(+ 1 optional o/p register)
>	Max = 256	1(+ 1 optional o/p register)



**Multiplier v8.0** courtesy: [www.xilinx.com](http://www.xilinx.com)

**Fig 3.5 Fixed Point Mantissa Multiplier**

### Fixed Point Adder/Subtractor

The multiplier module also houses a fixed point adder/subtractor for adding the exponents and subtracting the bias from the sum. The adder/subtractor is a 11 bit core that Xilinx provides and can be readily instantiated .A pipeline stage can be inserted between the adder and the subtractor to increase frequency. The core is shown in Fig 3.6. The adder/subtractor core can create adders for  $A+B$ , subtractors for  $A-B$  or adder /subtractors that operate on both signed and unsigned data.

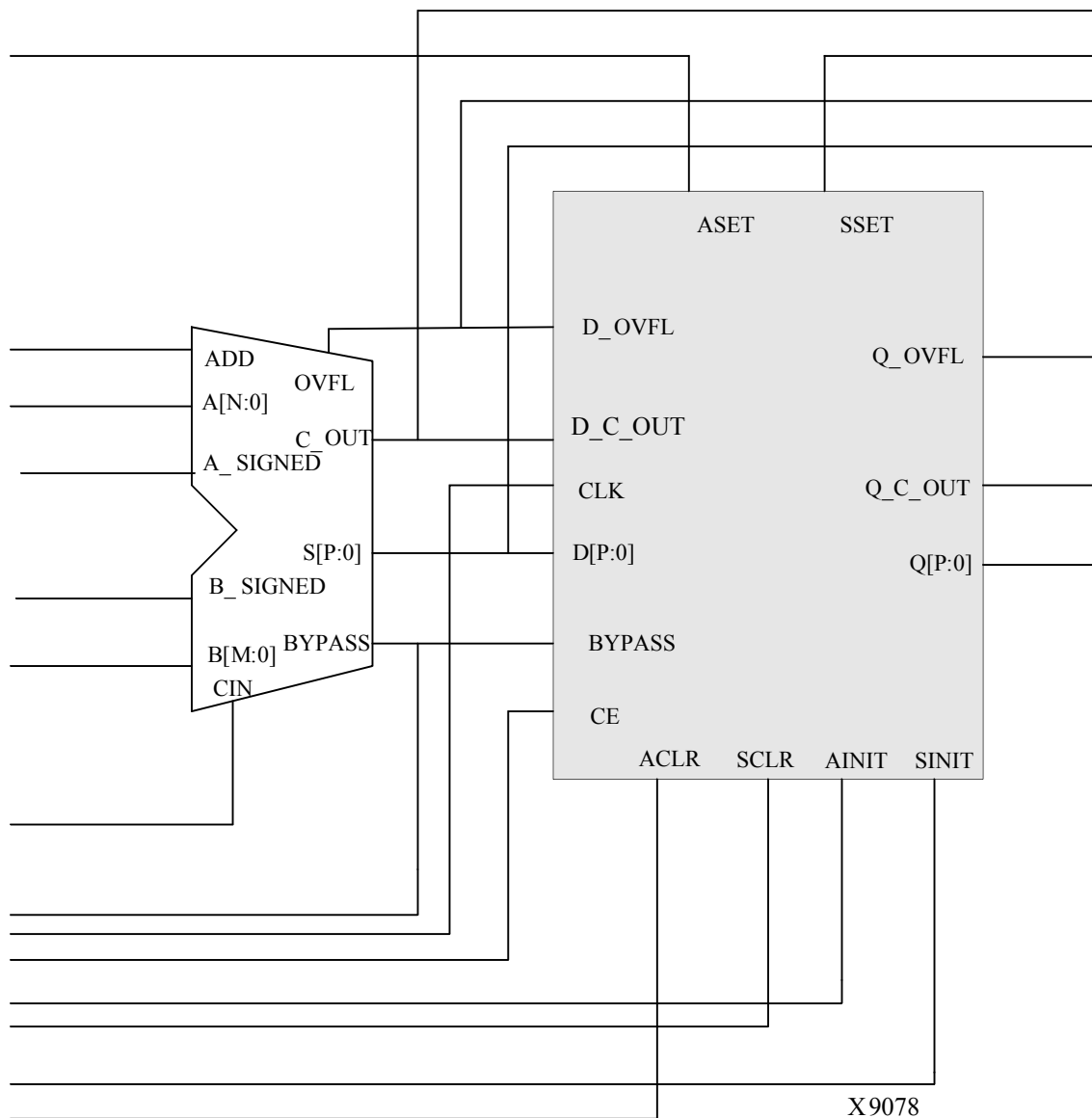


Fig 3.6 Fixed point adder/subtractor core v7.0 (courtesy: [www.xilinx.com](http://www.xilinx.com))

### 3.3.1.3 Module Normalizer and Rounding

Once the product of the two 54 bit mantissas is obtained, we can conveniently disregard the first 2 bits for any further calculation. Our interest now lies in bits 0 through 105 as the maximum number of bits in the product of two  $n$  bit inputs is  $2n$ . The product of a normalized floating point number with another normalized floating point number is bound to yield a value that has at most two significant digits and hence there needs to be a shift of at most two digits and a corresponding adjustment in the exponent. This uses a shifter and an exponent subtractor. A pipeline stage can be inserted between the shifter and the exponent subtractor for increasing the frequency. The shifter is clock controlled and each shift takes a single clock cycle.

Rounding of the final value takes place to the nearest, depending on the conditions listed in table 3.3. [3]

**Table 3.3 Rules for Rounding**

Rounding mode	Sign of Result $\geq 0$	Sign of Result $< 0$
Nearest	+1 if ( $r \text{ xor } p_0$ ) or ( $r \text{ xor } s$ )	+1 if $r \text{ xor } p_0$ or $r \text{ xor } s$
$+\infty$	+1 if $r \text{ xor } s$	
$-\infty$		+1 if $r \text{ xor } s$

In table 3.3,  $r$  represents the round bit,  $s$  the sticky bit and  $p_0$  is the  $p^{\text{th}}$  most significant bit of the result. Blanks mean that the  $p$  most significant bits of the result are the result bits themselves. If condition is true, we add one to the  $p^{\text{th}}$  most significant bit of the result [3].

### 3.3.1 Floating Point Adder

The floating point adder computes the sum or the difference of two floating point numbers depending on the sign of the inputs .It uses two's complement arithmetic to determine difference of two numbers wherever necessary.

The adder comprises the following modules:

1. Denormalizer
2. Shifter
3. Adder
4. Rounding

## 5. Sign

### 3.3.2.1 Module Denormalizer

The denormalizer has the same function as that of the denormalizer module of the multiplier. It makes the hidden bit explicit. It further unpacks the floating point numbers to its corresponding exponents, mantissas and sign bits. As mentioned in the description of the denormalizer of the multiplier, the design does not handle denormals. So the module includes a comparator core v8.0 described in section 3.3.1.1 in order to check if the exponents are zero. An additional check that the denormalizer does is to compare the two exponents with each other to determine if  $E1 < E2$ , where  $E1$  is A's exponent and  $E2$  is B's exponent. This comparison uses comparator v8.0 with certain modifications. The module encapsulates the functions of the denormalizer, 11 bit comparators for generating logical equal to and less than functions and a swapper. The 11 bit comparators can be pipelined similar to the one described in section 3.3.1.1.

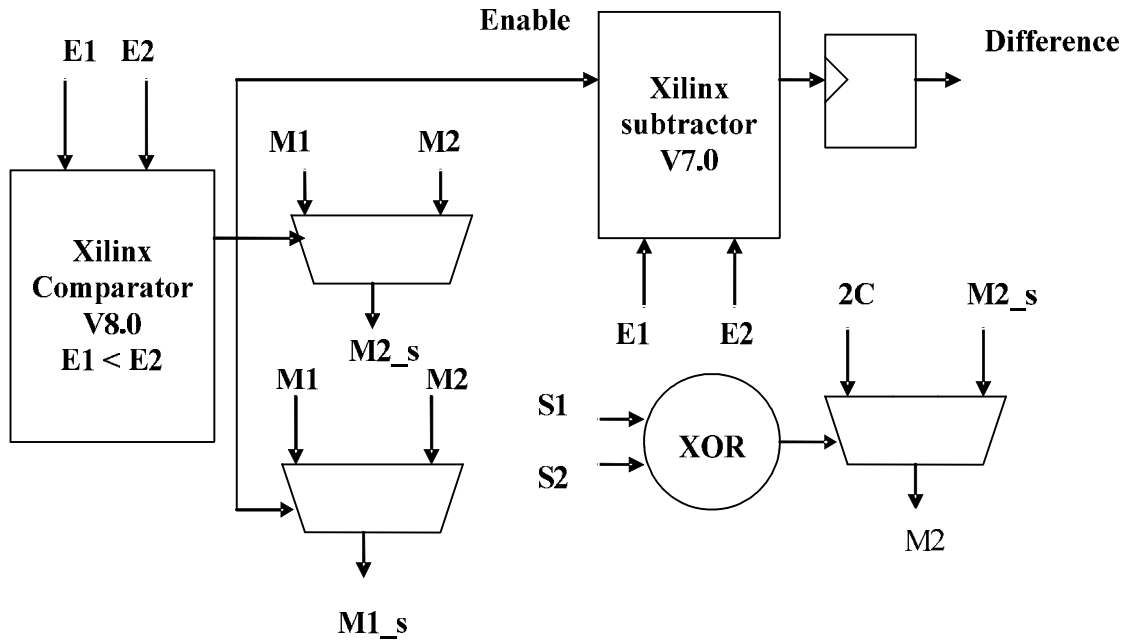
The result of the comparator drives the swapper. Once the comparator outputs high, the swapper swaps the mantissas and the exponents. The exponent of the final result is always set to  $E1$ . A pipeline stage is inserted between the comparator and the multiplexer in order to increase frequency.

The signs of the two inputs are given to a two input xor gate. If the signs are different, then the two's complement of the second operand is evaluated. There is a pipeline inserted between the evaluation of the two's complement and the swap in case the signs are opposite. The module also needs to output the difference of the exponents in order to keep a tab on the number of shifts to get a normalized result. A 11 bit exponent subtractor determines the difference of exponents. A 11 bit subtractor core v7.0 is used for the purpose. The core is explained in 3.3.1.1. A view of the denormalizer is shown in Fig 3.7.

### 3.3.2.2 Module Shifter

The denormalizer outputs the difference between the exponents so as to align the mantissas for addition or subtraction according to this difference. The shifter maintains a counter that decrements from this value until zero while simultaneously shifting  $M2$  to the right once every decrement. From the shifted bits, the first shifted bit is registered as  $g$  or the guard bit, the second as  $r$  and the rest are OR ed together to form a sticky bit  $s$ . All

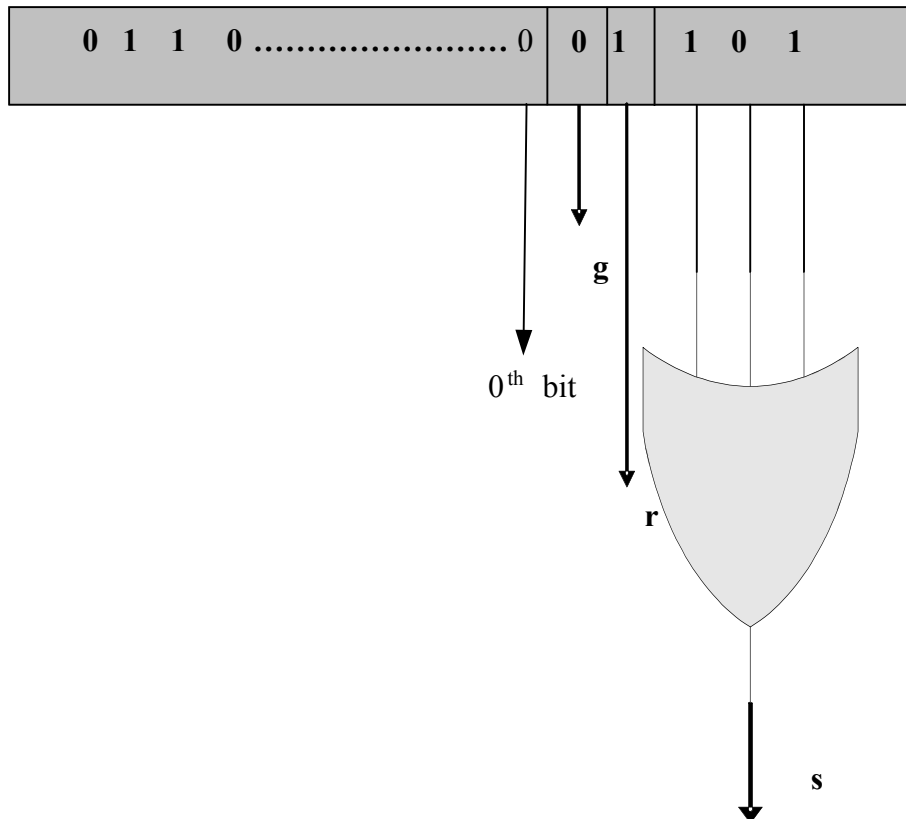
these bits are given to the rounding module to complete the process of packing the result to the required precision. This is illustrated in fig 3.8.



**Fig 3.7 Mantissa Swapping and Exponent determination in Denormalizer**

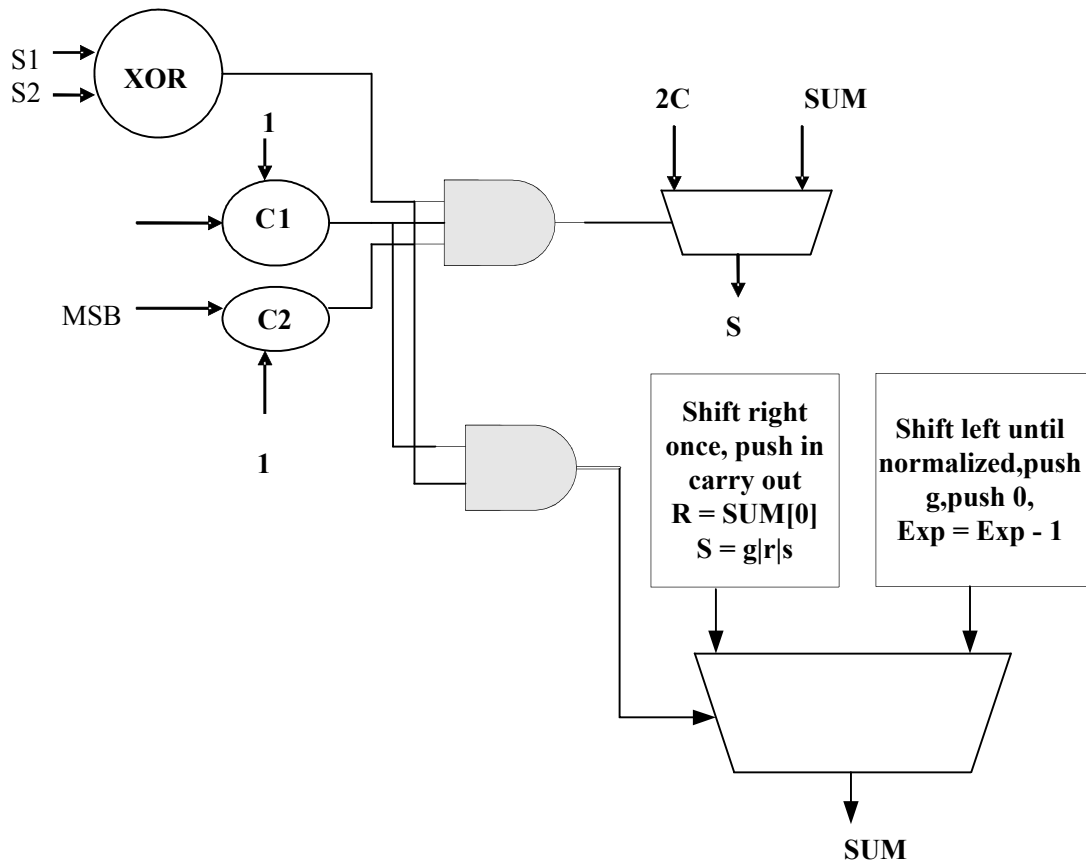
### 3.3.2.3 Module Adder

The adder uses a Xilinx adder core v7.0 for 54 bit addition of the mantissas. The 54<sup>th</sup> bit of the sum in itself yields the Carry because the mantissas are originally only 53 bits long and the sum of two n bit numbers has a maximum of n+ 1 bits. The adder core has already been discussed in 3.3.1.1. The core has options for add, subtract and add/subtract and can take care of signed and unsigned options. It is possible to have an add/subtract instantiation in the design and avoid calculation of the two's complement as is done in the denormalizer. The add/subtract in its signed implementation takes care of the calculation of two's complement intrinsically and prevents the need to generate the two's complement of the result again. However, creating a two's complement within the module gives better control to experiment with possible pipelining effects. The computation of the sign of the result depends on swapping and complement determination in these modules. More is explained in table 3.4. So it is mandatory to register if a complement is done by asserting the “Complemented” signal high. The entire module is enabled by a SHIFTDONE signal received from the shifter.



**Fig 3.8 Bit sequence after right shift**

**3.3.2.4 Module Rounding** This module takes care of the shifting of the sum and rounding it to the nearest available precision. It synthesizes to a priority encoder whose main functions are captured in Fig 3.9.



**Fig 3.9 Priority encoding in rounding module**

The priority encoder operates on the sum from module adder in the following order:

1. If signs of A and B differ, MSB of sum is 1, there is no carry out then result needs to be replaced by its two's complement.
2. If signs of A and B are the same and there is a carry out then shift right once. Also shift the carry out into the sum.
3. Else shift left until the mantissa is normalized taking care to shift in the g bit and then zeros successively each left shift.
4. For a right shift, set rounding bit (r) to the LSB of sum before shifting. Set sticky bit is equal to OR of the guard bit, rounding bit and sticky bit.
5. If there is no shift, set the rounding bit and guard bits to the same value, the sticky bit to OR of round bit and sticky bit
6. If there are more than two left shifts set rounding bit and sticky bit to zero.[3]

### 3.3.2.5 Module Sign

The sign of the final result can be determined from the table given below. The table is implemented as a look up table. Swapped and Complemented are outputs from the denormalizer and the rounding module. Sign of the output is registered. Rounding is now done in accordance with table 3.3.

**Table 3.4 Determination of sign [3]**

Swapped	Complemented	SignA1	SignA2	Sign of result
Yes	X	+	-	-
Yes	X	-	+	+
No	No	+	-	+
No	No	-	+	-
No	Yes	+	-	-
No	Yes	-	+	+

### 3.4 The sparse matrix

By definition, a sparse matrix holds a large number of common values .This eliminates the need to store all the individual entries of the sparse matrix with their rows and columns .Rather, there is an enormous savings in memory if the row and column values of the uncommon entries alone can be saved. In matrix A, these common entries are all zero.

The nonzero entries are 64 bit precision values and can be stored in one of the following well known formats for sparse matrix storage.

1. Row compressed format
2. Column compressed format



### 3.4.1 Row compressed Format

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 2.5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.9 & 1.23 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1.4 \end{pmatrix}$$

**Fig 3.10 A sample sparse matrix**

Consider the 4\*4 matrix given in fig 3.10.

Nonzero entries = { 2.5 , 1.4 , 0.9 , 1.23, -1.4 }

Column values for Nonzero entries = { 0 , 1 ,1, 3 }

Position index of the first nonzero in each row in the array of Nonzero =

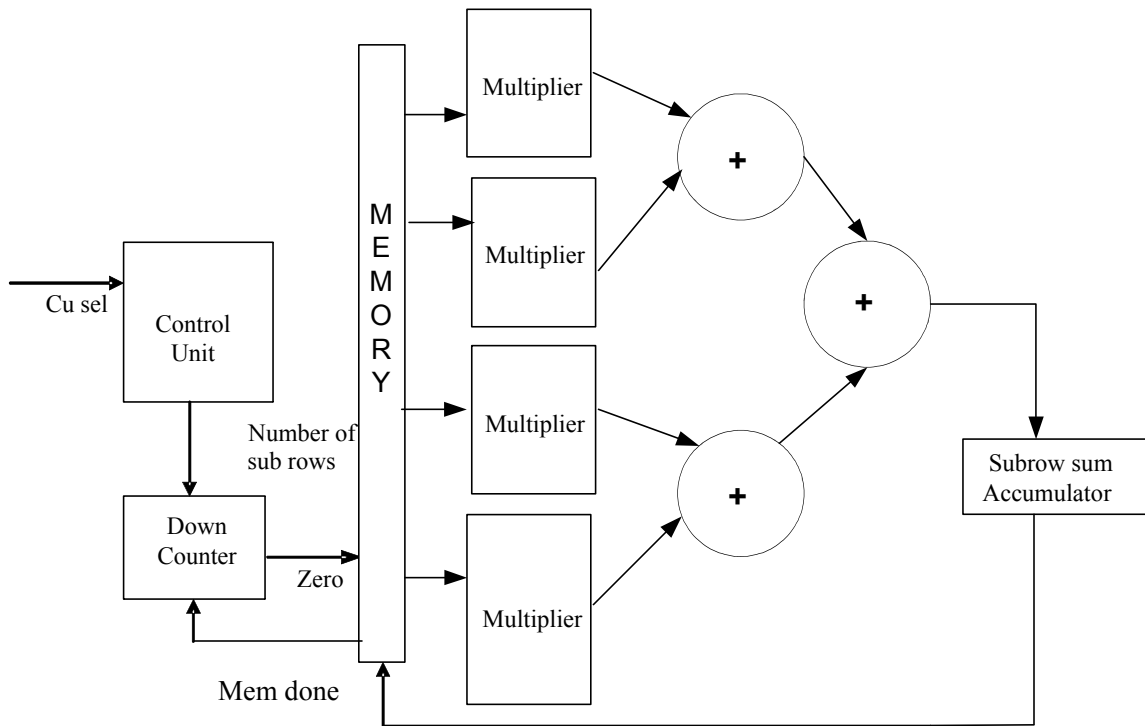
{0, 1, 2, 4}

Length of each row = {1, 1, 2, 1}

The length of each row is found from the array of position indices by subtracting the first entry from the second, the second from the third and so on. The length of the last row can be found by subtracting the last value of the array of position indices from the total number of nonzero entries in the matrix.

### 3.4.2 Basic Architecture

The floating point cores discussed in the previous sections form cardinal computational cores for many applications. One such application is matrix multiplication. Here is a basic architecture with the cores put in place. It is primarily used to demonstrate the usefulness of the cores built so far, so matrix product computation is done only when the number of non zero entries per row is a multiple of the number of subrows per row. More elaborate and functionally complex architectures have been explored in [6].



**Fig 3.11 A simple matrix multiplication architecture**

The architecture comprises a control unit, a counter, memory, a set of floating point multiplier storage units, a binary tree of floating point adders and a sub row sum accumulator. The following sections talk more about each of these modules.

### 3.4.2.1 Module Descriptions

#### Control Unit

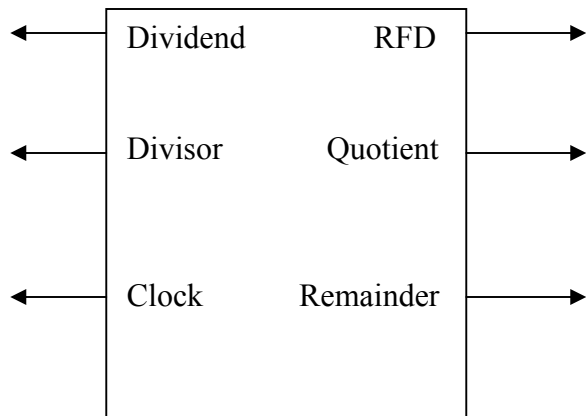
The control unit has an enable signal that is active high. It encapsulates a divider core that determines the number of subrows in each row. The divider receives two inputs; the number of nonzeros in a given row and the number of multiplier storage units that is held constant throughout the implementation. The control unit receives these variable inputs from the test bench after the counter asserts the zero signal high. The control unit is enabled by *cu sel* signal which is asserted only when the *zero* signal is asserted low. The divider core is explained below.

#### Divider

The divider module is an IP core offered by Xilinx and can be simply instantiated for the purpose of design .It is compatible with ModelSim 6.1 and can be customized. Determination of the number of sub rows for a given row is critical to the design because this determines the number of additions that sub row sum accumulator does before

writing the sum of products to the output memory or the C matrix. The divider takes in a byte long input for the divisor and dividend and yields the quotient in one clock cycle.

Additional pins provided by the core include CE, SCLR, ACLR and RFD. CE refers to clock enable. CE is active high. Therefore the module retains its state when CE is deasserted. SCLR refers to Synchronous Clear. Core flip-flops used in the design of the divider can be synchronously initialized using this assert. ACLR refers to Asynchronous Clear. Core flip-flops used in the design of the divider can be asynchronously initialized using this assert. RFD refers to Ready for Data and is an indication of the cycle number at which the input data gets sampled by the core. RFD changes with the rising edge of CE if available.



**Fig 3.12: Pipelined Divider v3.0**

Within the core, RFD always appears at the output. However it is applicable only when an internal parameter called *divclk\_sel* equals 1. In our design, the core is fully pipelined. The value of *divclk\_sel* within the IP core is set to 1. This also means that the core samples the inputs on every enabled clock rising edge and RFD is always set to 1.

### **Counter**

The counter is latched with an input of the total number of subrows in a given row. It steadily decrements values as well as generates memory addresses for accessing A and B values. The counter decrements as and when the *mem done* signal goes high.

## Memory

Memory is modeled as register files. The test bench populates these register files with the nonzero entries, their column values and the number of nonzero entries per row. The primitive *\$readmemh* allows hex values to be read off the file and dumped into register files. The register file of nonzero values is 64 bits long and holds about 256 values. The bit widths held in the other two register files is dependent on the maximum length of rows that the sample file holds.

## Multiplier

Each of these units receives the 2 floating point numbers to be multiplied. This is the floating point multiplication core that was discussed earlier. The number of multiplier units that need to be operated in parallel is dependent on the sparsity structure of the matrix. Analysis of sparsity structure of matrix requires detailed statistics about the matrix and the number of nonzero entries. Also the number of Floating point units that can be configured on the FPGA is limited by the available resources. This implementation does not depend on the sparsity structure of the matrix

In order to input two double precision values to the multiplier the FPGA chosen must at least accommodate 128 input pins. Simulation on devices that are constrained by IOBs or input output ports are bound to report a warning during synthesis and a subsequent error during mapping and translation onto the FPGA.

## Binary tree of adders

The outputs from the multipliers are fed into a binary tree of adders. Each of these adders is the double precision core described earlier. Two of the four products go into the nodes of the tree. It is to be noted that the total number of leaf nodes is only four. So the tree has three levels. The root node of the tree passes the cumulative sum of products from one sub row only. Therefore this module does not keep a tab on the number of subrows whose products and sums have been calculated.

## Sub row Sum Accumulator

The sub row sum accumulator checks to see if the counter has reached a value of zero. This means that it has accumulated the sum from each of the individual sub rows. When it sees a high *zero* it asserts *cu sel* high. The control unit now writes the value to memory.

If the size of each row is  $k$ , then the sum accumulator is not required as the root node itself yields the final result. However the values are still allowed to pass through the accumulator to maintain the simplicity of implementation.

## Chapter 4

### Verification

Design verification is defined as the reverse process of design. It takes in an implementation as an input and confirms that the implementation meets the specifications. Though design verification includes functional verification, timing verification, layout verification and electrical verification, functional verification is by default termed design verification.

Two popular forms of verification are the simulation based approach and the formal verification approach. The most important difference between the two approaches is that simulation based approaches need input vectors while formal verification approaches do not. In the former, we generate input vectors and derive reference outputs from them. However a formal verification approach differs in that it predetermines what output behavior is desirable and uses the formal checker to see if it agrees or disagrees with the desired behavior. This shows that simulation based approach is input driven while formal approach is output driven. Since formal verification methodology operates on an input space as against chosen vectors, it can be more complete. Simulation based approach takes a point in the input space at a time and therefore samples few points only. However, this can be justified due to the extensive use of memory and long runtime that formal verification uses. Besides when memory overflow is encountered, the tools are at a loss to show what is the right problem and its fix. [7]

This design has been verified using a simulation based approach. In order to verify the functionality of the cores, it is mandatory to have inputs with variable combination of signs. This ensures if the sign determination modules abide by the rules provided within the look up tables. Hence a combination of (+, +), (-, -), (+, -), (-, +) were provided to the adder and multiplier. Since an explicit two's complement determination unit is used, the cores must be able to distinguish between similar and variable signs to pass the operands through the two's complement and shifter when need arises.

The design is also checked with variable exponents. This is done in order to check the alignment of the two exponents in favor of the larger. This check is important because it checks the functionality of the shifter. The design is capable of handling only normalized inputs. A check for denormalized inputs is already embedded in the design. However we need to verify if the accelerator gracefully terminates with zero outputs when such inputs are given.

The Normalizer or the priority encoder is the main part of the module that prepares the adder for rounding and sign determination. This module needs to be completely verified. Hence inputs are so designed that each case in the priority encoder gets exercised. Verification of this module covers a large number of values from the input space.

Lastly, the design is verified for overflow and underflow cases. A value of exponent greater than 2047 should set the result to infinity and a value of zero is set when the exponent is zero and the mantissa is also zero.

## Chapter 5

### Results

This chapter discusses results and interpretations from simulation and synthesis of the floating point cores. It throws light on the tradeoffs made in various points in design as well as a few nuances of FPGA design that come to fore during emulation.

#### 5.1 Simulation

This design has been implemented using Xilinx ISE 8.2i, simulated on ModelSim 6.1i and synthesized using XST for Verilog. The HDL code uses Verilog 2001 constructs that provide certain benefits over the Verilog 95 standard in terms of scalability and code reusability. Simulation based verification is one of the methods for functional verification of a design. In this method, test inputs are provided using standard test benches. The test bench forms the top module that instantiates other modules. Simulation based verification ensures that the design is functionally correct when tested with a given set of inputs. Though it is not fully complete, by picking a random set of inputs as well as corner cases, simulation based verification can still yield reasonably good results.

The following snapshots are taken from ModelSim 6.1 after the timing simulation of the adder and multiplier cores.

Consider the inputs to the floating point adder.

A = -1.25

B = 1.5

The inputs to the adder were the corresponding hex values obtained from [13].

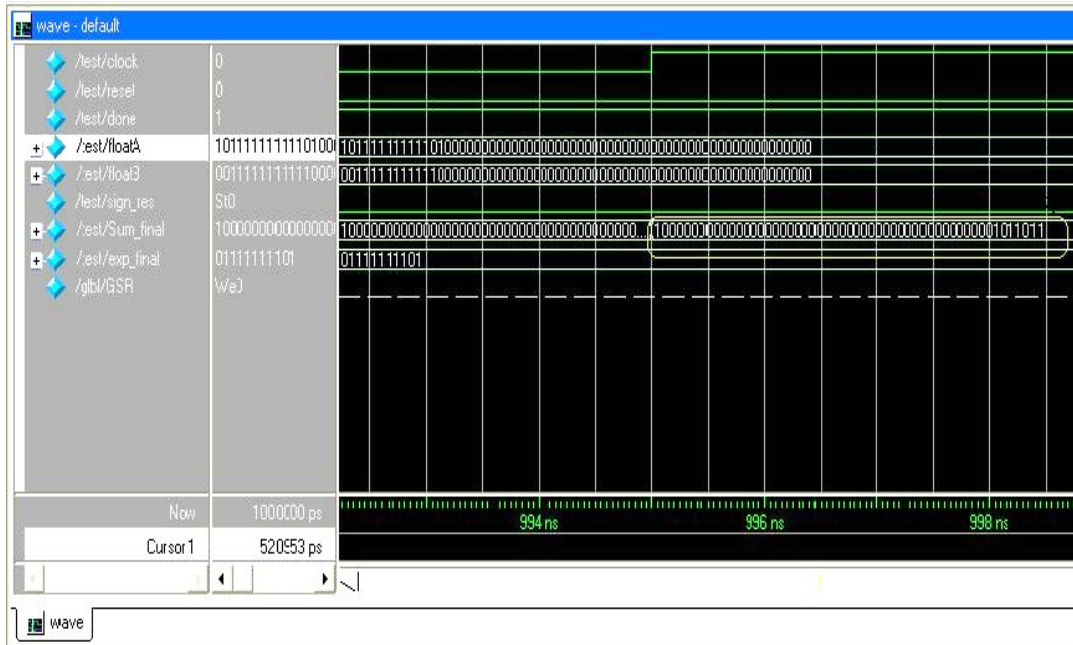
A = 64'hBFF4000000000000

B = 64'h3FF8000000000000

The output of the adder should be 0.25 .After regrouping the bits from the resulting 64 bit number; the sum is interpreted.

From fig 5.1 ,the sign of the result is 0 ,mantissa is 1 followed by 0.....1011011,a total of 53 bits and the exponent after subtracting the bias gives -2.This implies  $1.000000.....1011011 * 2^{-2}$  which is  $2.50000000000000505e-1$ .





**Fig 5.1 Simulation results from adder**

Let us now consider two inputs to the multiplier.

$A = 1.0$

$B = -1.3$

Expected product = -1.3

Product = -1.3000000000000003

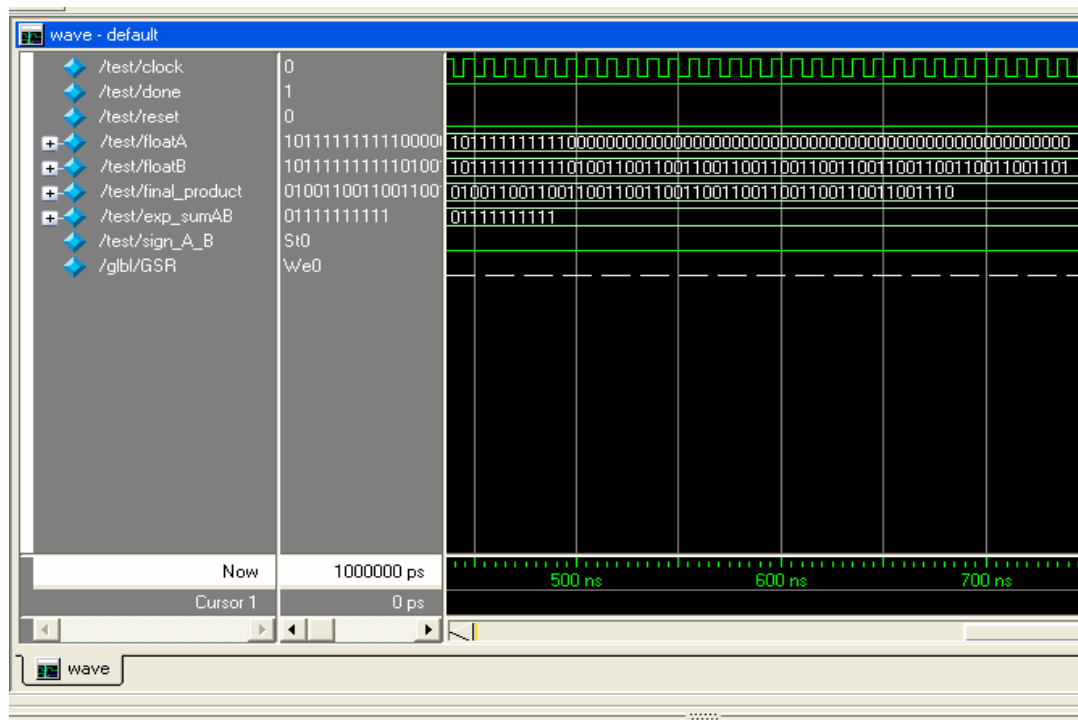
The results from simulation are provided in Fig 5.2. On regrouping the sign, mantissa and the exponent we obtain -1.3000000000000003.

## 5.2 Synthesis

Synthesis is defined as the process of converting an HDL description of a design into an optimized gate-level representation. Synthesizing modules on an FPGA involves mapping them to logic resources like Look up tables (LUTs), block RAMs and flip flops. The Xilinx synthesis tool generates the area and timing reports that provide an estimate of device utilization and performance. The device utilization and performance report lists the compiled cells in the design, as well as information on how the design is mapped in the FPGA. [11]. A few settings that are configurable on the FPGA are optimization

effort, area goal, timing goal, resource sharing, register retiming etc. The synthesis tool provides default settings for optimum performance over generalized applications. A large portion of the synthesis uses these default settings.

There are certain applications that may require customization of these settings but caution should be exercised. A typical example would be resource sharing for reducing gate count ,but resource sharing cannot be used in timing critical paths.



**Fig 5.2 Simulation results from the multiplier**

During design it is helpful to keep a model of synthesized logic in mind and not allow it to grow so complex that it becomes a problem for the synthesis tool. One of the well established methods of taking advantage of the synthesis tool's capability is to minimize and pack logic effectively by not creating purely combinational modules. This is because none of the popular FPGA architectures have purely combinational elements and there is a good chance of one or more registers getting wasted when a pure combinational block needs to be implemented.[10] The results from XST clearly depict this. The entire design is fully synchronous and there are no pure combinational blocks. The design uses a single clock.

There are two methods to improve performance of design. One is to assist the synthesis tool in identifying critical logic blocks by use of timing constraints. The other method involves writing a code that gives the synthesis tool an easier problem to solve. This also means use of pipelines or fast structural elements to implement logic.

One of the most important metrics to determine performance of a hardware accelerator is throughput. In general, pipelining is one of the most effective methods to improve throughput. It is found through synthesis that the depth of pipeline directly affects throughput. Pipelining offers an overall saving in time for execution of all instructions put together. It does not affect individual instruction time. However the flipside to pipelining is use of increased resources and a subsequent increase in area. Since throughput is a ratio of clock speed and area, it is necessary to strike a fine balance so as to be able to maintain high throughputs. For this reason, it is often necessary to play around with values at both ends of the clock speed and area spectrum until a point of diminishing returns is reached.

**Table 5.1 Variation of Freq/Area with pipelining for 64 bit multiplier**

No of pipelines (adder )	Area (Slices)	Clock Rate (MHz)	Freq/Area (MHz/slice)
Minimum	424	65.996	0.1556
Maximum	964	176.585	0.1831

A sample of the timing report and device utilization summary generated using XST is shown below. The report was generated for maximum pipelining.

---



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*	Final Report	*
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#### Device utilization summary:

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Selected Device: 2vp40fg676-7

Number of Slices: 1956 out of 19392 10%  
Number of Slice Flip Flops: 3405 out of 38784 8%  
Number of 4 input LUTs: 3480 out of 38784 8%  
Number used as logic: 3292  
Number used as Shift registers: 188  
Number of IOs: 195  
Number of bonded IOBs: 195 out of 416 46%  
Number of GCLKs: 1 out of 16 6%

=====

#### TIMING REPORT

##### Clock Information:

-----+-----+-----+		
Clock Signal	Clock buffer (FF name)	Load
-----+-----+-----+		
Clock	BUFGP	3593
-----+-----+-----+		

##### Asynchronous Control Signals Information:

-----

No asynchronous control signals found in this design

##### Timing Summary:

-----

Speed Grade: -7

Minimum period: 5.663ns (Maximum Frequency: 176.585MHz)

Minimum input arrival time before clock: 3.224ns

Maximum output required time after clock: 3.340ns

Maximum combinational path delay:

No path found

-----

A comparison of throughputs between earlier implementations and ours is shown in table 5.2.

**Table 5.2 Comparison of results from the synthesis of multiplier**

<b>PRECISION 64 BITS</b>	<b>NCSU</b>	<b>USC</b>	<b>NEU</b>
Area (slices)	964	910	477
Clock Rate (MHz/slice)	176.585	205	90
Freq/Area (MHz/slice)	0.1831	0.225	0.188

Total power consumed can also be estimated in Xilinx ISE 8.2i using XPower. Table 5.3 tabulates power for minimum and maximum pipelining in the multiplier core. Xilinx XPower is a power analysis software tool. It uses device knowledge and design data to estimate device power and power utilization in the nets. [13].

**Table 5.3 Power vs. pipelining for 64 bit multiplier**

<b>S.no</b>	<b>Level of pipelining wrt multiplier core</b>	<b>Power (mW)</b>
1.	Minimum	260
2.	Maximum	511

### **Synthesis results from 64 bit adder**

The double precision adder core is also synthesized using Xilinx XST. The details from the device utilization summary and timing reports for various levels of pipelining are captured in table 5.4.

**Table 5.4 Synthesis results from 64 bit adder**

<b>No. of Pipeline Stages</b>	<b>Area (slices)</b>	<b>LUTS</b>	<b>Flip flops</b>	<b>Clock Rate (MHz)</b>	<b>Freq/Area MHz/slice</b>
12	876	1075	1168	176.177	0.2011
16	877	1097	1168	180.442	0.2057
18	924	1042	1182	182.121	0.197
19	930	1100	1183	184.312	0.198

A comparison between our implementation and previous implementations has been drawn and summarized in table 5.5 and table 5.6. In table 5.5, Opt stands for optional which denotes highest frequency/area ratio. This is because we investigate tradeoffs in frequency and area by extensively pipelining the core until we reach the point of diminishing returns. The Max value in the table captures this precisely. There is no point in increasing the depth of pipelines beyond the point of diminishing returns.

**Table 5.5 Comparison of minimum, maximum and optimal metric for adder**

<b>Precision 64 bits</b>	<b>USC</b>			<b>NCSU</b>		
	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>	<b>Opt</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>	<b>Opt</b>
<b>Pipelines</b>	6	21	19	8	19	16
<b>Area (slices)</b>	633	1133	933	548	930	877
<b>LUTS</b>	1049	1032	976	976	1100	1097
<b>Flip flops</b>	443	1543	1148	598	1183	1168
<b>Clock (MHz)</b>	50	220	200	69.97	184.3	180.4
<b>Freq/Area MHz/slice</b>	0.078	0.194	0.216	0.127	0.198	0.206

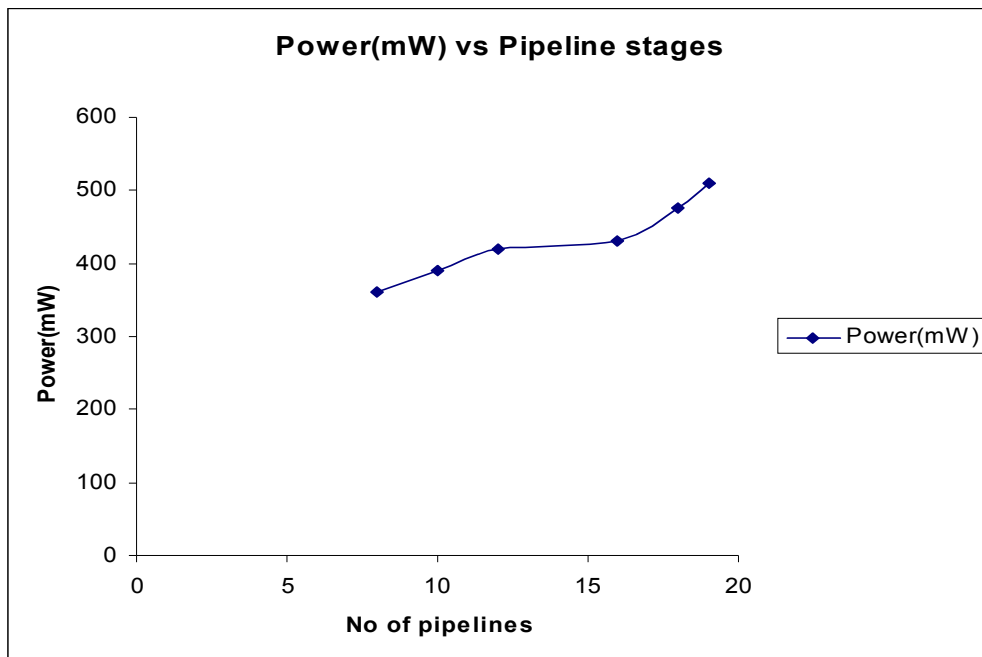
**Table 5.6 Table of metric comparisons for 64 bit adder**

<b>Metric</b>	<b>NCSU</b>	<b>USC</b>	<b>NEU</b>
<b>No of pipeline stages</b>	16	19	8
<b>Area (slices)</b>	877	933	770
<b>Clock Rate (MHz)</b>	180.4	200	54
<b>Freq/Area (MHz/slice)</b>	0.206	0.216	0.07

Experimental results from USC and NEU are provided in [4] and [8]. Relation between the depth of pipelines and throughput is shown in Fig 5.4. Table 5.7 captures the variation of power as measured on Xpower with pipelining. The Xilinx Synthesis tool translates, maps and does a place and route for a design after which it uses XPower to computer the total power consumed by the device. Power measurements are summarized in table 5.7 and the variation is graphically captured in Fig 5.3.

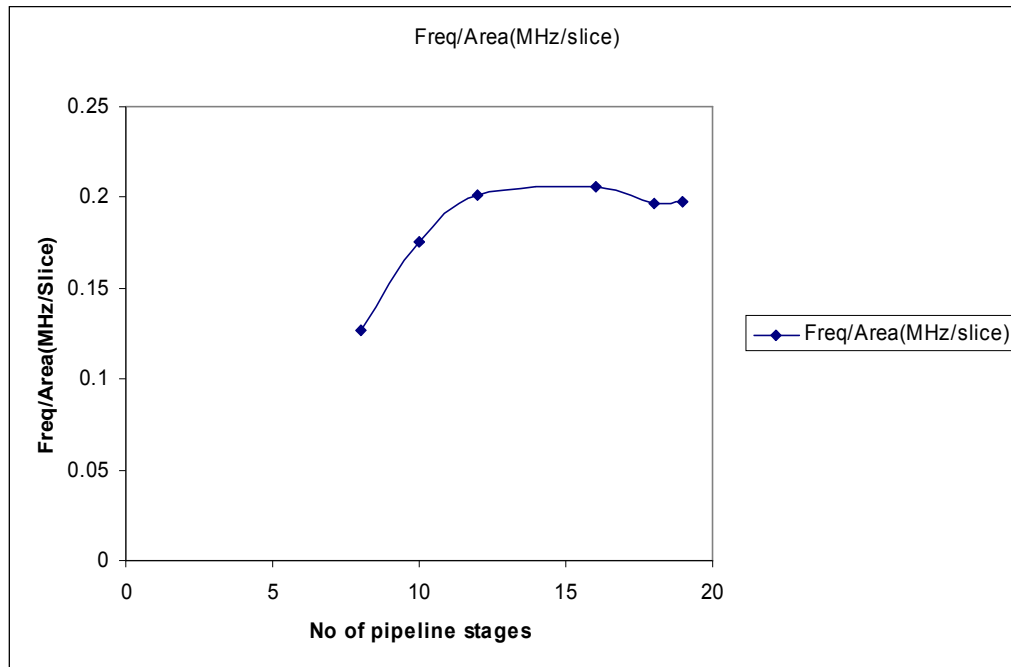
**Table 5.7 Variation of power with pipelining in 64 bit adder**

S.no	No of pipelines	Power (mW)
1	8	360
2	10	355
3	12	420
4	16	420
5	18	477
6	19	510



**Fig 5.3 Variation of power with pipelines in 64 bit adder**

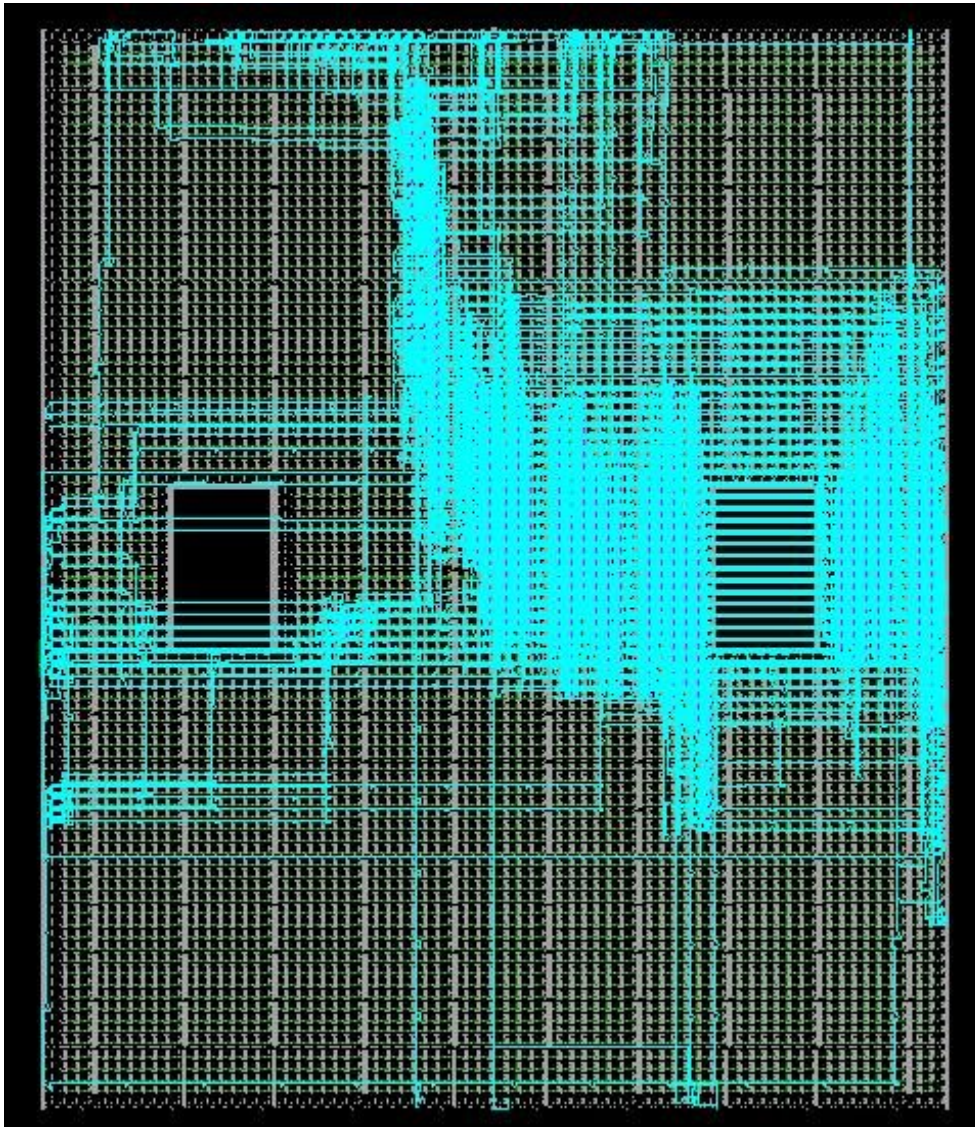




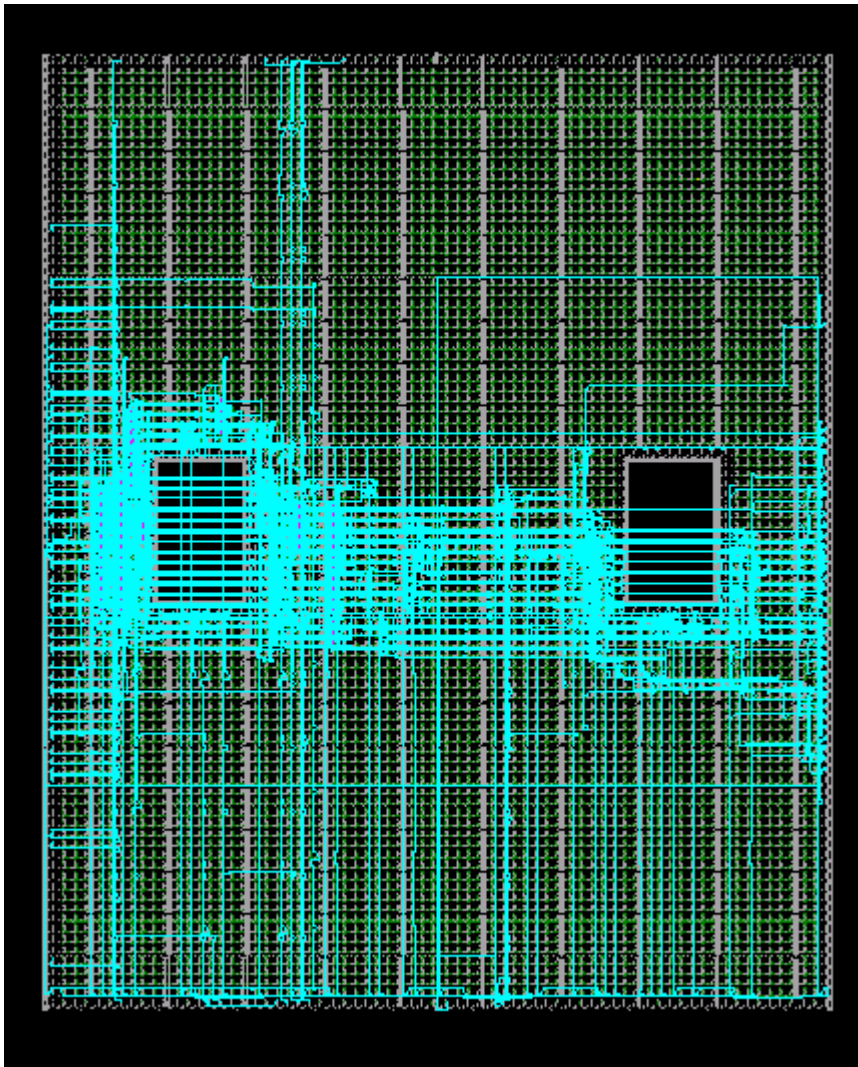
**Fig 5.4 Variation of freq/area vs. pipelines in 64 bit adder**

The placed and routed design for the multiplier and adder are shown in Fig 5.5 and Fig 5.6. Xilinx ISE 8.2i provides means to implement the design and realize it on the FPGA by providing functions for translation, mapping and finally place and route. Let's take the case of the multiplier. The report from the place and route tool states that about 9% of the area has been utilized. Since area is not a big constraint here, we can focus more on timing related constraints more and try to improve the frequency of operations through more pipelining. But for every application, it's a question of whether an addition in time or area is really affordable or not. The design needs to be tweaked in accordance with such a requirement. The choice of the FPGA is crucial during the synthesis of the design. In case of a 64 bit operation, be it a multiplier or an adder, it only makes sense to have atleast 64 input ports and better still 128 for two inputs to be fed to the device. Often times during synthesis, if the device utilization summary reports "more than 100% of resources are being used" or anything similar, it only makes sense to upgrade to a higher

device, since we do not want to be constrained with regard to fundamental resources on a board.



**Fig 5.5 Snapshot of the 64 bit multiplier after place and route**



**Fig 5.6 Snapshot of the 64 bit adder after place and route**

The snapshots were obtained after the synthesis, mapping and translation of the cores on Virtex 2P XC2VP40 (package FG676) run at a speed grade of -7.

## Chapter 6

### Conclusion and Future Work

Double precision floating point arithmetic significantly increases the levels of precision when compared to single precision floating point or integer arithmetic. However there might be situations where double precision calculation results in a numerically unstable solution. This could mean that double precision is insufficient to obtain an accurate result. In such a case, quadruple or multiple precision floating point arithmetic can be used. A typical example is a Bessel function calculation  $J_1(x)$  for  $|x|$  up to a few hundreds. Though it is a convergent series for small values of  $x$ , in case of large values, the result is unstable. The final sum of the series is often 10-15 orders lower in magnitude than the intermediate sum which reduces confidence in any of the digits in the final sum. [14].

Though we have implemented a basic architecture for matrix multiplication using the double precision cores, as an extension, it is possible to implement advanced architectures for handling very large sparse matrices with refinement in the sum accumulator and at the cost of hardware complexity. Further the algorithm for sum and product computations can be extended to the implementation of more complex arithmetic or better precision arithmetic with the use of quadruple precision or multiple precision floating points.

Additionally, in an application such as sparse matrix multiplication, the latency involved in shifting within the floating point adder or the multiplier core should not be largely variable. In order to cater to this, barrel shifters need to be explored to better optimize the latency of the entire matrix multiplication unit.

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# **APPENDIX**

# APPENDIX A

## Verilog HDL for Multiplier and Adder Cores

VERILOG HDL FOR MULTIPLIER

TEST BENCH FOR 64 BIT MULTIPLIER

```
`timescale 1ns / 1ps
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
// Company    : North Carolina State University
// Engineer   : Ysaswini Sudarsanam
//
// Module Name: Rounding
// Project Name: Double precision floating point arithmetic cores (Multiplication)
// Device      : Xilinx Virtex 2 pro - XC2VP20
// Description : Testbench for multiplier core
//
// Ports       : None
//
// Sub modules: topmult
//
// Revision    : 0.01 - File Created (9/15)
//              0.02 - Variation in test inputs from here on
//              0.03 - Creation of topmult to encapsulate all submodules.Elimination of
//              sub modules from the test bench
//
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
module test();
reg clock;
reg done;
reg reset;
reg [63:0] floatA;
reg [63:0] floatB;
wire [51:0] final_product;
wire [10:0] exp_sumAB;
initial
clock = 1'b0;
always
#5 clock = ~clock;
topmult t1(clock,reset,done,floatA,floatB,final_product,exp_sumAB,sign_A_B);
initial
begin
floatA = 64'hBFF0000000000000;
```



```

floatB = 64'hBFF4CCCCCCCCCCCCD;
done = 1;
reset = 1;
#10 reset = 0;
end

```

```

endmodule

```

## TOP MODULE FOR MULTIPLIER

```

`timescale 1ns / 1ps

```

```

/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
// Company   : North Carolina State University
// Engineer  : Ysaswini Sudarsanam
//
// Module Name: Rounding
// Project Name: Double precision floating point arithmetic cores (Multiplication)
// Device    : Xilinx Virtex 2 pro - XC2VP20
// Description : Topmodule for multiplier. Encapsulates the denormalizer, multiplier
//              and rounding modules
// Ports  : Clock - Clock input
//          reset - Synchronous Reset
//          floatA - 64 bit multiplicand
//          floatB - 64 bit multiplier
//          final_product - Product after rounding
//          exp_sumAB - exponent after rounding
//          sign_A_B - Sign of product
//
// Submodules: None
//
//
// Revision   : 0.01 - File Created (9/9)
//
//
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
module topmult(clock,reset,done,floatA,floatB,final_product,exp_sumAB,sign_A_B);
input clock;
input done;
input [63:0] floatA;
input [63:0] floatB;
input reset;
wire sign_bitA;
wire sign_bitB;
wire [53:0] mantissaA;
wire [53:0] mantissaB;

```

```

wire [10:0] exponentA;
wire [10:0] exponentB;
wire denormalized;
wire [107:0] productAB;
wire [10:0] exponent_sum;
wire prod_done;
output [51:0] final_product;
output [10:0] exp_sumAB;
output sign_A_B;
wire sign_A_B;
wire reset;
wire [51:0] final_product;
wire [10:0] exp_sumAB;
denorm
d1(clock,reset,done,floatA,floatB,sign_bitA,sign_bitB,mantissaA,mantissaB,exponentA,exponentB,denormalized);
multiplier
m1(clock,reset,denormalized,sign_bitA,sign_bitB,mantissaA,mantissaB,exponentA,exponentB,productAB,exponent_sum,sign_A_B,prod_done);
rounding
r1(clock,reset,productAB,exponent_sum,prod_done,final_product,exp_sumAB);
endmodule

```

## MODULE DENORMALIZER

```

`timescale 1ns/1ps
////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
// Company   : North Carolina State University
// Engineer   : Ysaswini Sudarsanam
//
// Module Name: Rounding
// Project Name: Double precision floating point arithmetic cores (Multiplication)
// Device     : Xilinx Virtex 2 pro - XC2VP20
// Description : Topmodule for multiplier. Encapsulates the denormalizer, multiplier
//              and rounding modules
// Ports      : Clock - Clock input
//              reset - Synchronous Reset
//              done - Handshaking signal with an external module whose logic includes this
//              core
//              floatA - 64 bit multiplicand
//              floatB - 64 bit multiplier
//              sign_bit1 - 1 bit sign of A
//              sign_bit2 - 1 bit sign of B
//              mantissa1 - 53 bit mantissa of floatA, includes implicit 1,
//              extended to 54 bits for ease of use with Xilinx core
//              mantissa2 - 53 bit mantissa of floatB, includes implicit 1,

```

```

//          extended to 54 bits for ease of use with Xilinx core
//          exponent1 - 11 bit exponent of floatA
//          exponent2 - 11 bit exponent of floatB
//          denormalized - 1 bit assertion to denote end of operations in the denormalizer
//          final_product - Product after rounding
//          exp_sumAB - exponent after rounding
//          sign_A_B - Sign of product
//
// Submodules: Constant Port B comparator//
//
// Revision   : 0.01 - File Created (9/9)
//
//
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
module
denorm(clock,reset,done,floatA,floatB,sign_bit1,sign_bit2,mantissa1,mantissa2,exponent
1,exponent2,denormalized);
input clock;
input done;
input reset;
input [63:0] floatA;
input [63:0] floatB;
output sign_bit1;
output sign_bit2;
output [53:0] mantissa1;
output [53:0] mantissa2;
output [10:0] exponent1;
output [10:0] exponent2;
output denormalized;
reg sign_bit1;
reg sign_bit2;
reg [10:0] exponent1;
reg [53:0] mantissa1;
reg [10:0] exponent2;
reg [53:0] mantissa2;
reg [10:0] zero_reg;
wire qA1;
wire qA2;
reg denormalized;
    comp c1(qA1,clock,floatA[62:52]);
    comp c2(qA2,clock,floatB[62:52]);
always @(posedge clock)
begin
    if(!reset)
    begin
        if(done && !denormalized && !qA1 && !qA2 )

```

```

        begin
            sign_bit1 <= floatA[63];
            sign_bit2 <= floatB[63];
            exponent1 <= floatA[62:52];
            exponent2 <= floatB[62:52];
            mantissa1 <= {1'b1,floatA[51:0]};
            mantissa2 <= {1'b1,floatB[51:0]};
            denormalized <= 1;
        end
    end
else
    begin
        mantissa1 <= 54'b0;
        mantissa2 <= 54'b0;
        exponent1 <= 11'b0;
        exponent2 <= 11'b0;
        sign_bit1 <= 1'b0;
        sign_bit2 <= 1'b0;
        denormalized <= 1'b0;
        zero_reg <= 11'b0;
    end
end

end
endmodule

```

#### MODULE MULTIPLIER

```

`timescale 1ns / 1ps
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
// Company   : North Carolina State University
// Engineer  : Ysaswini Sudarsanam
//
// Module Name : Rounding
// Project Name: Double precision floating point arithmetic cores (Multiplication)
// Device     : Xilinx Virtex 2 pro - XC2VP20
// Description : Topmodule for multiplier. Encapsulates the denormalizer,multiplier
//              and rounding modules
//
// Ports      : Clock - Clock input
//              reset - Synchronous Reset
//              denormalized - Enable signal
//              floatA - 64 bit multiplicand
//              floatB - 64 bit multiplier
//              sign_bitA - 1 bit sign of A
//              sign_bitB - 1 bit sign of B
//              mantissaA - 53 bit mantissa of floatA, includes implicit 1 ,

```

```

//          extended to 54 bits for ease of use with Xilinx core
//      mantissaB - 53 bit mantissa of floatB, includes implicit 1 ,
//          extended to 54 bits for ease of use with Xilinx core
//      exponentA - 11 bit exponent of floatA
//      exponentB - 11 bit exponent of floatB
//      prod_done - 1 bit assertion to denote end of operations in the multiplier
//      productAB - Mantissa product
//      exponent_sum - exponent after multiplication
//      sign_A_B - Sign of product
//
// Submodules: 54 BIT MULTIPLIER CORE
//
//
// Revision   : 0.01 - File Created (9/9)
//
//
///////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
module
multiplier(clock,reset,denormalized,sign_bitA,sign_bitB,mantissaA,mantissaB,exponent
A,exponentB,productAB,exponent_sum,sign_A_B,prod_done);
input clock;
input denormalized;
input reset;
input sign_bitA;
input sign_bitB;
output sign_A_B;
input [10:0] exponentA;
input [10:0] exponentB;
input [53:0] mantissaA;
input [53:0] mantissaB;
output [107:0] productAB;
output [10:0] exponent_sum;
output prod_done;
reg [10:0] exponent_sum;
reg sign_A_B;
reg [11:0] exp_temp;
wire [107:0] productAB;
reg prod_done;
mult m1(clock,mantissaA,mantissaB,productAB);

always@ (posedge clock)

    if(!reset)
    begin
        if(denormalized)
        begin

```

```

        //This addition is replaced by the 11 bit Xilinx core
        exp_temp = exponentA + exponentB;
        //While experimenting with number of pipelines ,
        //this subtraction can use a core and be pipelined with addition from above
        exponent_sum <= exp_temp - 1023;
        end
        sign_A_B <= sign_bitA ^ sign_bitB;
        prod_done <= 1;
    end
else
    begin
        prod_done <= 0;
        sign_A_B <= 0;
    end
endmodule

```

## MODULE ROUNDING

```

`timescale 1ns / 1ps
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
// Company   : North Carolina State University
// Engineer  : Ysaswini Sudarsanam
// Module Name: Rounding
// Project Name: Double precision floating point arithmetic cores (Multiplication)
// Device    : Xilinx Virtex 2 pro - XC2VP20
// Description : This module takes care of rounding the product to the nearest
// Ports     : clock - Clock input
//             reset - Synchronous Reset
//             productAB - product of mantissas
//             exponent_sumAB - Exponent sum
//             prod_done - module enable signal that says product calculation is done and
//             rounding can begin
//             final_product- Rounded product
//             exp_sum - Exponent after rounding
//
//
// Submodules: None
//
//
// Revision   : 0.01 - File Created (9/9)
//
//
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
module rounding (

```

```

clock, reset, productAB, exponent_sumAB, prod_done, final_product, exp_sum);
input clock;
input reset;
input [107:0] productAB;
input [10:0] exponent_sumAB;
output [51:0] final_product;
output [10:0] exp_sum;
reg [51:0] final_product;
reg [105:0] productA_B;
reg [10:0] exp_sum;
input prod_done;
integer n;
integer r;
reg inputset;
reg expset;

```

```

always @ (posedge clock)
if(!reset)
begin
    if(inputset == 1)
        begin
            if (productA_B[105] == 1'b1 && productA_B != 0)
                //pipeline with Xilinx core for addition
                exp_sum[10:0] <= exp_sum[10:0] + 11'b1;
            else
                begin
                    if(productA_B[104] == 1'b1 && productA_B != 0)
                        productA_B <= productA_B ;
                end
            expset <= 1;
        end
    if(expset)
        begin
            if(productAB != 0)
                begin
                    if(productA_B[54] == 1'b0)
                        begin
                            if(productA_B[105] == 1'b1)
                                final_product <= productA_B[104:53];
                            else if(productA_B[105] != 1'b1 && productA_B[104] == 1'b1)
                                final_product <= productA_B[103:52];
                        end
                    else if(productA_B[54] == 1'b1)
                        begin

```

```

        if(productA_B[105] == 1'b1)

            //replaced with Xilinx core for addition
            final_product[51:0] <= productA_B[104:53] + 52'b1;
            else if(productA_B[105] != 1'b1 && productA_B[104] == 1'b1)
                final_product[51:0] <= productA_B[103:52] + 52'b1;
            end
        end
    end
    if(prod_done == 1 && productAB != 0)
    begin
        productA_B[105:0] <= productAB[105:0];
        exp_sum[10:0] <= exponent_sumAB;
        inputset <= 1;
    end
end
else
begin
    n <= 107;
    r <= 54;
    productA_B <= 0;
    final_product <= 52'b0;
    inputset <= 0;
    expset<=0;
end
endmodule

```

## VERILOG HDL FOR ADDER

### TEST BENCH

```

`timescale 1ns / 1ps
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
// Company   : North Carolina State University
// Engineer  : Ysaswini Sudarsanam
// Module Name : Test bench for adder
// Project Name: Double precision floating point arithmetic cores (Addition)
// Device    : Xilinx Virtex 2 pro - XC2VP20
// Description : This module provides inputs for simulation based verification of the
adder core
//
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////

```



```

module test();
reg clock;
reg reset;
reg done;
reg [63:0] floatA;
reg [63:0] floatB;
wire sign_res;
wire [52:0] Sum_final;
wire [10:0] exp_final;
initial
clock = 1'b0;
always
#5 clock = ~ clock;

initial
begin
reset = 1'b1;
#15 reset = 1'b0;
floatA = 64'hBFF4000000000000;
floatB = 64'h3FF8000000000000;
done = 1'b1;
end
topadd tadd1(clock,reset,done,floatA,floatB,sign_res,exp_final,Sum_final);
endmodule

```

## MODULE TOPADD

```

`timescale 1ns / 1ps
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
// Company   : North Carolina State University
// Engineer  : Ysaswini Sudarsanam
// Module Name : Top module for adder
// Project Name: Double precision floating point arithmetic cores (Addition)
// Device     : Xilinx Virtex 2 pro - XC2VP20
// Description : This module takes care of rounding the product to the nearest
// Ports      : clock - Clock input
//             reset - Synchronous Reset
//             done - Assertion from external module
//             floatA - input1 to the adder
//             floatB - input2 to the adder
//             sign_res - Sign of the final result
//             exp_final - Exponent of the final result
//             Sum_final - Final sum after rounding
//             Submodules: None
// Revision   : 0.01 - File Created (9/9)
//

```

```

//
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////

module topadd(clock,reset,done,floatA,floatB,sign_res,exp_final,Sum_final);
input clock;
input reset;
input [63:0] floatA;
input [63:0] floatB;
input done;
output sign_res;
output [10:0] exp_final;
output [52:0] Sum_final;
wire sign_bit1;
wire sign_bit2;
wire [53:0] mantissa1;
wire [53:0] mantissa2;
wire [10:0] exponent1;
wire denormalized;
wire [10:0] expdiff;
wire [10:0] expres;
wire [53:0] m2;
wire shiftdone;
wire g;
wire r;
wire s;
wire [53:0] sum;
wire add_done;
wire [10:0] exp_out;
wire [52:0] Sm;
wire sign_res;
wire [52:0] Sum_final;
wire [10:0] exp_final;
denorm
d1(clock,reset,done,floatA,floatB,sign_bit1,sign_bit2,mantissa1,mantissa2,exponent1,exp
diff,expres,denormalized,swapped);
shift sh1(clock,reset,mantissa2,expdiff,denormalized,m2,shiftdone,g,r,s);
adder ad1(clock,reset,m2,mantissa1,shiftdone,sum,add_done);
round_compute
r_c1(clock,reset,expres,sum,sign_bit1,sign_bit2,add_done,r,s,g,r1,s1,Sm,complement,exp
_out,rounding_computed);
finaldppsum
f1(clock,reset,swapped,complement,rounding_computed,sign_bit1,sign_bit2,Sm,r1,s1,ex
p_out,sign_res,exp_final,Sum_final);

endmodule

```

## MODULE DENORMALIZER

```
`timescale 1ns / 1ps
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
// Company   : North Carolina State University
// Engineer  : Ysaswini Sudarsanam
// Module Name : Denormalizer
// Project Name: Double precision floating point arithmetic cores (Addition)
// Device    : Xilinx Virtex 2 pro - XC2VP20
// Description : Handles denormalization
// Ports     : clock - Clock input
//            reset - Synchronous Reset
//            done - Assertion from external module
//            floatA - input1 to the adder
//            floatB - input2 to the adder
//            sign_bit1 - Sign bit of float A
//            sign_bit2 - Sign bit of float B
//            mantissa1 - Mantissa of float A
//            mantissa2 - Mantissa of float B
//            exponent1 - 11 bit exponent of float A
//            expdiff - Difference of exponents
//            denormalized - assertion to indicate module operation completion
//            swapped - assertion to indicate if swap has been done
//            Submodules: None
//
//
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////

module
denorm(clock,reset,done,floatA,floatB,sign_bit1,sign_bit2,mantissa1,mantissa2,exponent
1,expdiff,expres,denormalized,swapped);
input clock;
input done;
input reset;
input [63:0] floatA;
input [63:0] floatB;
output sign_bit1;
output sign_bit2;
output swapped;
output [53:0] mantissa1;
output [53:0] mantissa2;
output [10:0] exponent1;
output [10:0] expdiff;
output [10:0] expres;
output denormalized;
reg sign_bit1;
```

```

reg sign_bit2;
reg [10:0] exponent1;
reg [53:0] mantissa1;
reg [53:0] mantissa2;
reg [10:0] expdiff;
reg [10:0] expres;
reg swapped;
wire qA1;
wire qA2;
wire qexp;
reg denormalized;
    comp c1(qA1,clock,floatA[62:52]);
    comp c2(qA2,clock,floatB[62:52]);
    expcompare c3(clock,qexp,floatA[62:52],floatB[62:52]);

always @(posedge clock)

if(!reset)
    begin
        if(done && !denormalized && !qA1 && !qA2 )
            begin
                sign_bit1 <= floatA[63];
                sign_bit2 <= floatB[63];
                if(qexp)
                    begin
                        exponent1 <= floatB[62:52];
                        expdiff <= floatB[62:52] - floatA[62:52];
                        expres <= floatB[62:52];
                        mantissa1 <= {1'b1,floatB[51:0]};
                        swapped <= 1;
                        //pipeline complement and addition here
                        if(floatA[63] ^ floatB [63] != 1'b1)
                            mantissa2 <= ( ~ {1'b1,floatA[51:0]}) + 52'b1;
                        else
                            mantissa2 <= {1'b1,floatA[51:0]};
                    end
                end
            else
                begin
                    exponent1 <= floatA[62:52];
                    expdiff <= floatA[62:52] - floatB[62:52];
                    expres <= floatA[62:52];
                    mantissa1 <= {1'b1,floatA[51:0]};
                    if(floatA[63] ^ floatB [63] == 1'b1)
                        mantissa2[52:0] <= (~{1'b1,floatB[51:0]}) + 52'b1;
                    else

```

```

                                mantissa2[52:0] <= {1'b1,floatB[51:0]};
                                end
                                denormalized <= 1;
                                end
                                end
                                else if(reset)
                                    begin
                                        mantissa1 <= 54'b0;
                                        mantissa2 <= 54'b0;
                                        exponent1 <= 11'b0;
                                        sign_bit1 <= 1'b0;
                                        sign_bit2 <= 1'b0;
                                        denormalized <= 1'b0;
                                        expdiff <= 11'b0;
                                        expres <= 11'b0;
                                        swapped <= 1'b0;
                                    end
                                endmodule

```

## MODULE SHIFT

```

`timescale 1ns / 1ps
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
// Company    : North Carolina State University
// Engineer   : Ysaswini Sudarsanam
// Module Name : Shifter
// Project Name: Double precision floating point arithmetic cores (Addition)
// Device     : Xilinx Virtex 2 pro - XC2VP20
// Description : Alignment of exponents
// Ports      : clock - Clock input
//              reset - Synchronous Reset
//              mantissa2 - 54 bit mantissa
//              expdiff - Difference of exponents
//              denormalized - assertion from denormalizer
//              shiftdone - Assertion to denote completion of shift
//              g - guard bit
//              r - rounding bit
//              s - sticky bit
//
//
//
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////

module shift(clock,reset,mantissa2,expdiff,denormalized,m2,shiftdone,g,r,s);
input clock;

```

```

input reset;
input [53:0] mantissa2;
input [10:0] expdiff;
input denormalized;
output [53:0] m2;
output g;
output r;
output s;
output shiftdone;
reg shiftdone;
reg [10:0] counter;
reg [53:0] m2;
reg r;
reg g;
reg s;
reg counterset;
integer i;

always @(posedge clock)
if(!reset)
begin
    if(denormalized)
        begin
            if(expdiff != 0)
                begin
                    counter <= expdiff;
                    counterset <= 1;
                end
            else
                begin
                    counter <= 0;
                    counterset <= 0;
                    m2 <= mantissa2;
                    shiftdone <= 1'b1;
                end
            end
        if(!shiftdone && denormalized && counterset)
            begin
                if(i == 0)
                    begin
                        g <= mantissa2[0];
                        m2 <= mantissa2 >> 1;
                        i <= i + 1;
                    end
                else if( i== 1)
                    begin

```

```

        r <= mantissa2[1];
        m2 <= m2 >> 1;
        i <= i + 1;
        end
    else
        begin
            s <= s | mantissa2[i];
            m2 <= m2 >> 1;
            i <= i + 1;
        end
        if(i == counter- 1)
            shiftdone<= 1;
        end
    end
end
else
begin
    shiftdone <= 0;
    m2 <= 54'b0;
    s <= 1'b0;
    g <= 1'b0;
    r <= 1'b0;
    i <= 0;
end
endmodule

```

## MODULE MANTISSA ADD

```

`timescale 1ns / 1ps
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
// Company   : North Carolina State University
// Engineer  : Ysaswini Sudarsanam
// Module Name : Mantissa Adder
// Project Name: Double precision floating point arithmetic cores (Addition)
// Device    : Xilinx Virtex 2 pro - XC2VP20
// Description : Addition of mantissas
// Ports     : clock - Clock input
//            reset - Synchronous Reset
//            m1 - 54 bit mantissa float A
//            m2 - 54 bit mantissa float B
//            shiftdone - Assertion to denote completion of shift
//            sum - Result of addition
//            add_done - End of addition
//
//
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
module adder(clock,reset,m2,m1,shiftdone,sum,add_done);

```

```

input clock;
input reset;
input [53:0] m2;
input [53:0] m1;
input shiftdone;
output add_done;
reg add_done;
reg add_done_1;
output [53:0] sum;
wire [53:0] sum;
//add a1(m1,m2,Q_C_OUT,sum,clock,shiftdone);
add a1(m1,m2,sum,clock,shiftdone);
always @(posedge clock)
if(!reset)
begin
    if(shiftdone)
        add_done_1 <= 1'b1;
        if(add_done_1 == 1'b1)
            add_done <= 1'b1;
end
else
    add_done_1 <= 1'b0;

endmodule

```

#### MODULE ROUND\_COMPUTE

```

`timescale 1ns / 1ps
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
// Company   : North Carolina State University
// Engineer  : Ysaswini Sudarsanam
// Module Name : Round_compute
// Project Name: Double precision floating point arithmetic cores (Addition)
// Device     : Xilinx Virtex 2 pro - XC2VP20
// Description : Rounding
// Ports      : clock - Clock input
//              reset - Synchronous Reset
//              expres - Exponent of result
//              sum - sum from mantissa adder
//              signA1 - Sign of float A
//              signA2 - Sign of float B
//              add_done - Assert from module addition
//              r - rounding bit
//              s - sticky bit
//              g - guard bit
//              r1 - intermediate value of rounding bit

```



```

//          s1 - intermediate value of sticky bit
//          Sm - intermediate sum for rounding
//          complement - set assertion for sign determination
//          exp_out - intermediate exponent for rounding
//          round_computed - Assertion to indicate completion of computation of
rounding values
////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
module
round_compute(clock,reset,expres,sum,signA1,signA2,add_done,r,s,g,r1,s1,Sm,complem
ent,exp_out,rounding_computed);
input clock;
input reset;
input [53:0] sum;
input [10:0] expres;
input add_done;
input r;
input g;
input s;
input signA1;
input signA2;
output [10:0] exp_out;
output complement;
output [52:0] Sm;
output r1;
output s1;
output rounding_computed;
reg [52:0] Sm;
reg complement;
reg rounding_computed;
reg [5:0] i;
reg [10:0] exp_out;
reg r1;
reg s1;
reg left_shifted;
reg right_shifted;
//reg rounding_computed_1;
reg exp_done;
reg complement_1;
always @ (posedge clock)
if(!reset)
begin
    if(add_done)
    begin
        if((signA1 ^ signA2 == 1'b1) && sum[53] == 1'b0 && sum[52]== 1'b1
        && !complement)
            begin

```

```

//Pipeline here between complement finding and addition
Sm <= ~sum[52:0] + 1;
complement <= 1;
exp_out <= expres;
end
else if((signA1 ^ signA2 == 1'b0) && sum[53] == 1'b1 &&
!rounding_computed)
begin
Sm <= sum >> 1;
exp_out <= expres + 1;
r1 <= sum[0];
s1 <= g|r|s;
rounding_computed <= 1'b1;
end
if(complement == 1'b1)
begin
complement_1 <= 1'b1;
Sm <= Sm + 1'b1;
end
if(complement_1 == 1'b1)
begin
    if(Sm[52] != 1'b1)
    begin
        if(i == 0)
        begin
            Sm <= Sm << 1;
            left_shifted <= 1;
            i <= i + 1;
        end
        else
        begin
            Sm <= Sm << 1;
            left_shifted <= 1;
            i <= i + 1;
        end
        if(i >= 1)
        begin
            r1 <= 0;
            s1 <= 0;
            rounding_computed <= 1;
        end
    end
    if(left_shifted == 1'b1 )
    begin
        exp_out <= exp_out - 1;
        exp_done <= 1;
    end
end

```



```

//          sum_final - Final sum
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
module
finaldpfpsum(clock,reset,swapped,complement,rounding_computed,sign_bit1,sign_bit2,S
,r1,s1,exp_out,sign_res,exp_final,Sum_final);
input clock;
input reset;
input swapped;
input rounding_computed;
input complement;
input sign_bit1;
input sign_bit2;
input [10:0] exp_out;
input [52:0] S;
output [52:0] Sum_final;
output [10:0] exp_final;
input r1;
input s1;
reg signset;
reg add_one;
wire add_done;
output sign_res;
reg sign_res;
reg [53:0]S_final;
reg [52:0]Sum_final;
reg [53:0] Sum_temp;
wire [53:0] Sum;
reg [10:0] exp_final;
reg S_final_Set;
adder add1(clock,reset,S_final,54'b1,add_one,Sum,add_done);
always @(posedge clock)
if(!reset)
begin
    if(rounding_computed == 1'b1)
    begin
        casex({swapped,complement,sign_bit1,sign_bit2})
            4'b1x01: sign_res <= 1'b1;
            4'b1x10: sign_res <= 1'b0;
            4'b0001: sign_res <= 1'b0;
            4'b0010: sign_res <= 1'b1;
            4'b0101: sign_res <= 1'b1;
            4'b0110: sign_res <= 1'b0;
            4'bxx11: sign_res <= 1'b1;
            4'bxx00: sign_res <= 1'b0;
        endcase
        signset <= 1;
    end
end

```

```

        S_final <= S;
    end

    if(signset == 1'b1)
    begin
        if((r1 ^ S[52]) || (r1 ^ s1))
            add_one <= 1;
        else
            add_one <= 0;
        end
    end
    if(add_done == 1'b1)
    begin
        Sum_temp <= Sum;
        S_final_Set <= 1'b1;
    end
    if(S_final_Set == 1'b1)
    begin
        if(Sum_temp[53] == 1'b1)
        begin
            Sum_final <= Sum_temp >>1;
            //Addition can be substituted with a 11 bit Xilinx core
            exp_final <= exp_out + 1;
        end
        else
        begin
            Sum_final <= Sum_temp;
            exp_final <= exp_out;
        end
    end
end

else
begin
add_one <= 1'b0;
sign_res <= 1'bx;
exp_final <= 11'b0;
Sum_final <= 54'b0;
S_final <= 54'b0;
end
endmodule

```