

# $AT^2$ -optimal VLSI integer division and integer square rooting

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**Abstract.** In this paper we exhibit  $AT^2$ -optimal integer division circuits for  $n$ -bit integers for all computation times  $T$  in the range  $[\Omega((\log n)^2), O(\sqrt{n})]$  and  $AT^2$ -optimal square rooting circuits for all computation times  $T$  in the range  $[\Omega((\log n)^3), O(\sqrt{n})]$ .

**Keywords.** VLSI computation, optimal networks, integer division, square rooting.

## 1. Introduction

Research on efficient schemes for the basic arithmetic operations on integers, potentially suitable for direct VLSI circuit implementation, has been going on for some years. Significant progress was made and resulted in optimal circuits for integer addition and subtraction and multiplication. Optimality is defined with respect to the customary  $AT^2$  measure of complexity, which is central to the synchronous VLSI model of computation [8,3]. Here  $A$  is the area of the chip, while  $T$  is the computation time. As is well known [1,3], any multiplication circuit for two  $n$ -bit integers (with a  $2n$ -bit result) must satisfy  $AT^2 = \Omega(n^2)$ ,  $A = \Omega(n)$ ,  $T = \Omega(\log n)$ . For integer multiplication the question of optimality was settled in [7,5]. They exhibited a class of designs which achieve  $AT^2 = O(n^2)$  for all computation times in the range  $[\Omega(\log n), O(\sqrt{n})]$ . More precisely, the range

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$[\Omega((\log n)^2), O(\sqrt{n})]$  is covered in [7] and the range  $[\Omega(\log n), O(n^{2/5})]$  is covered in [5].

In this letter we deal with integer division and integer square rooting. We will exhibit  $AT^2$ -optimal circuits for both problems. More specifically, we show the following theorems.

**Theorem 1.** *There is an  $AT^2$ -optimal, i.e.,  $AT^2 = O(n^2)$ , integer division circuit for all  $T$  in the range  $[\Omega((\log n)^2), O(\sqrt{n})]$ .*

**Theorem 2.** *There is an  $AT^2$ -optimal, i.e.,  $AT^2 = O(n^2)$ , integer square rooting circuit for all  $T$  in the range  $[\Omega((\log n)^3), O(\sqrt{n})]$ .*

The circuits which we propose are VLSI implementations of well-known algorithms based on Newton iteration. The implementations are not straightforward, however. The division algorithm is described in [6, Section 4.3.3] and the square rooting algorithm is described in [2]. With respect to the division problem it is easy to see that we can restrict our consideration to the Reciprocal Problem.

**Reciprocal Problem.** *Let  $v$  have the binary representation  $v = (0.v_1v_2\dots v_n)$  where  $v_1 = 1$ . Compute  $z = xx.x\dots x$  with  $n$  places after the radix point such that  $|z - 1/v| \leq 2^{-n}$ .*

The Square Rooting Problem is defined as follows.

**Square Rooting Problem.** *Let  $v$  have the binary representation  $v = v_1v_2\dots v_n$ . Compute  $z = xx\dots x.x\dots x$  with  $\frac{1}{2}n$  digits to the right of the radix point such that  $|v - z^2| \leq 1$ .*

The optimal division circuit is discussed in Section 2, and the optimal square rooting circuit is discussed in Section 3. We close this section with a short remark about lower bounds. For integer division the lower bound  $AT^2 = \Omega(n^2)$  follows from the fact that  $x/y$  is equivalent to a shift if  $y$  is a power of two. Thus integer division is at least as difficult as shifting and the lower bound is established. For square rooting we have to work slightly harder. Suppose that we have a VLSI chip for computing square roots with area  $A$  and computation time  $T$ . Then we can clearly build a chip with the same performance which takes two numbers  $v$  and  $z$  (where  $v$  is an integer of length  $n$  and  $z$  has  $\frac{1}{2}n$  binary digits after the radix point) and checks whether  $|\sqrt{v} - z| < 2^{n/2}$ . For the latter problem, Lipton and Sedgewick [4] have shown that  $AT^2 = \Omega(n^2)$ .

## 2. Efficient reciprocal computation in VLSI

We start by reviewing the well-known algorithm for reciprocal computation based on Newton iteration. As before let  $v$  have the binary representation  $v = (0.v_1v_2\dots v_n)$  with  $v_1 = 1$ .

**Algorithm**

$z_0 \leftarrow \frac{1}{4} \lfloor 32/(4v_1 + 2v_2 + v_3) \rfloor$ ;  $k \leftarrow 0$ ;

**repeat comment** at this point  $z_k \leq 2$ ,  $|z_k - 1/v| \leq 2^{-2^k}$

and  $z_k$  has a binary representation of the form  $xx.xx\dots x$  with  $2^k + 1$  places after the radix point;

let  $V_k = (0.v_1v_2\dots v_{2^k+1}z_3)$ ;

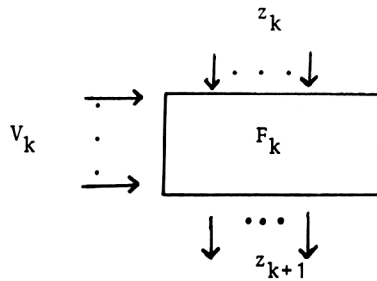
$z_{k+1} \leftarrow 2z_k - V_k z_k^2 + r$  where  $0 \leq r < 2^{-2^{k+1}-1}$  is chosen such that  $z_{k+1}$  is a multiple of  $2^{-2^{k+1}-1}$

$k \leftarrow k + 1$

**until**  $2^k \geq n$  **od**

The proof of correctness can be found in [6, Section 4.3.3D]. It is important to observe that the computations in the  $k$ th iteration of the loop is done on binary numbers of  $O(2^k)$  bits. The arithmetic on these numbers must be done exactly.

For the sequel we assume w.l.o.g. that  $n = 2^m$  is a power of two. It follows from the results of Preparata and Vuillemin [7] and Mehlhorn and Preparata [5] that there is a VLSI circuit  $F_k$  given as follows:

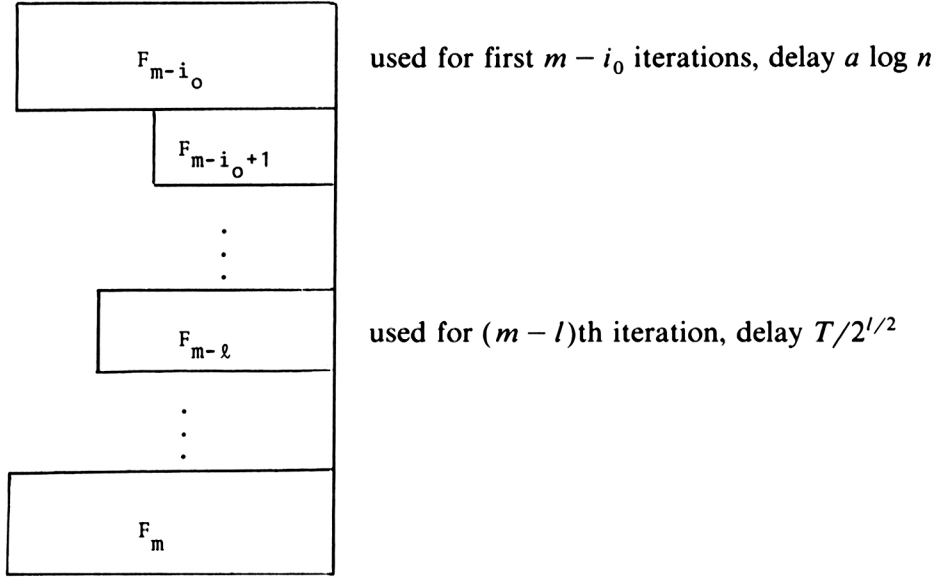


(a)  $F_k$  computes  $z_{k+1} = z_k - V_k z_k^2 + r$  as given above;  $F_k$  takes input  $z_k$  at the top and input  $V_k$  at the left and produces  $z_{k+1}$  at the bottom.

(b)  $F_k$  operates in time  $t$  and has area  $c(2^k/t)^2$  for some constant  $c$ . Computation time  $t$  can be chosen arbitrarily in the range  $ak \leq t \leq b2^{k/2}$  for some constants  $a$  and  $b$ ,  $a \geq 1$ .

We can now describe our VLSI circuit for reciprocal computation. Let  $T$  be chosen arbitrarily in the range  $a(\log n)^2 \leq T \leq e\sqrt{n}$ , where  $e = \min\{a, b\}$ . The circuit to be described operates in time  $T_r = O(T)$  and has area  $A_r = O(n^2/T^2)$ . Thus  $A_r T_r^2 = O(n^2)$ .

Let  $i_0 = \log((T/a) \log n)$ . Then  $\log \log n \leq i_0 \leq \frac{1}{2} \log n$ . We realize the first  $m - i_0$  iterations of the loop on a single (fast) circuit  $F_{m-i_0}$  of delay  $a \log n$  which we feed back to itself. Later iteration steps have own dedicated circuits. More precisely, for iteration step  $m - l$ ,  $i_0 - 1 \geq l \geq 0$ , we use circuit  $F_{m-l}$  of delay  $T/2^{l/2}$ . Thus total delay is  $O((\log n)^2 + T) = O(T)$  since  $T = \Omega((\log n)^2)$ .



It remains to compute the total area of all circuits. We leave it to the reader to convince himself that the space needed for routing inputs and outputs and for routing intermediate results increases the area by at most a constant factor.

**Claim 1.**  $F_{m-i_0}$  has area  $O((n/T)^2)$ .

**Proof.** Since  $a(m - i_0) \leq a \log n \leq b2^{(m-i_0)/2}$  for sufficiently large  $n$ , we conclude that  $F_{m-i_0}$  has area at most  $c(2^{m-i_0}/a \log n)^2 = c(n/T)^2$ . Thus  $F_{m-i_0}$  has area  $O(n^2/T^2)$ .  $\square$

**Claim 2.**  $F_{m-l}$ ,  $0 \leq l < i_0$ , has area  $O((n^2/T^2)2^{-l})$ .

**Proof.** Note first that  $a(m - l) \leq T/2^{l/2} < b2^{(m-l)/2}$  for  $0 \leq l < i_0$  by choice of  $i_0$ . Thus circuit  $F_{m-l}$  with delay  $T/2^{l/2}$  exists and has area at most  $c(2^{m-l}/(T/2^{l/2}))^2 = c(n/T)^2 2^{-l}$ .  $\square$

Claims 1 and 2 together imply that our circuit has area  $O(n^2/T^2)$ . This completes the proof of Theorem 1.

### 3. Efficient square rooting

Square roots can also be computed by Newton iteration; the iteration rule is given by

$$z_{k+1} \leftarrow \frac{1}{2}(V_k/z_k + z_k),$$

where again  $z_k$  and  $V_k$  consist of  $O(2^k)$  bits. Let  $F_k$  be a circuit which takes inputs

$z_k$  and  $V_k$  and produces output  $z_{k+1}$ . It follows from Theorem 1 that we make circuit  $F_k$  to work in time  $t$  and area  $c(2^k/t)^2$  for every  $t$  in the range  $ak^2 \leq t \leq b2^{k/2}$  for some constants  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ . We now proceed in complete analogy to Section 2, except that we choose  $i_0 = \log(T/(\log n)^2)$  in order to reflect the fact that the fastest known optimal division chip runs in time  $\Theta((\log n)^2)$  instead of  $\Theta(\log n)$  as for multiplication. Then total delay is  $O(T + (\log n)^3) = O(T)$  since  $T$  is assumed to be at least  $\Omega((\log n)^3)$ . Also the area of the circuit is  $O((n/T)^2)$  by the arguments above. This proves Theorem 2.

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