

A Floating Point Subroutine Package for the 1802

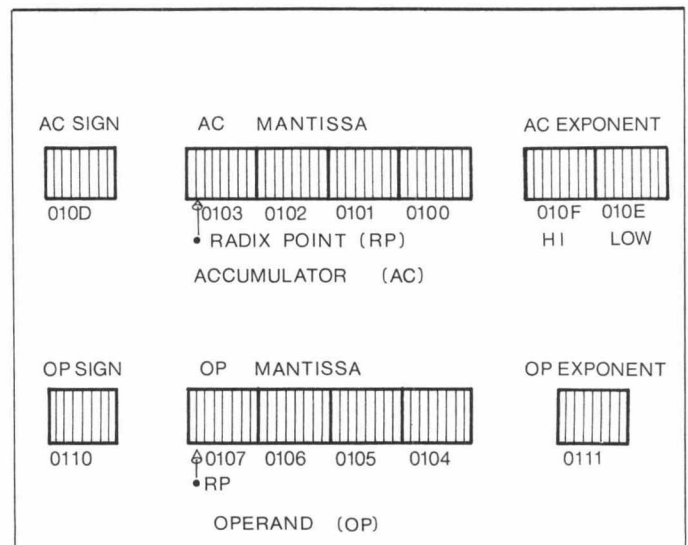
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After purchasing my 1802 based microcomputer system, I was surprised to find how little software there is available for it. In particular, I was disappointed by the absence of a readily-available floating point arithmetic subroutine package. To help wipe out this void, I set out to write such a subroutine package. The results of my work appear in the rest of this article.

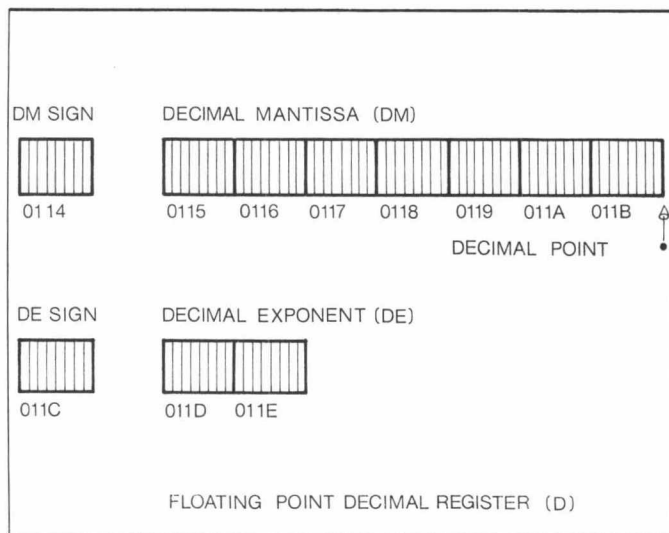
When this project was started, I decided that the floating point arithmetic routines would implement a set of existing algorithms rather than writing a new set. Suitable algorithms were found in a book written by Neill Graham entitled *Microprocessor Programming for Computer Hobbyists*, published by Tab Books. I strongly recommend the purchase of this book to anyone who wishes to understand or modify the internal workings of this set of floating point arithmetic routines. This article will not attempt to describe the routines' inner workings. It will, however, provide the information needed to use these routines.

All floating point numbers contain two parts: a signed mantissa and a signed exponent. $+1.16 \times 10^{+2}$ is an example of a decimal floating point number. $+1.16$ is the signed mantissa and $+2$ is the signed exponent. Similarly, $+1.1101 \times 2^{+110}$ is the binary floating point equivalent of 116. Here, $+1.1101$ is the signed mantissa and $+110$ is the signed exponent. The binary mantissa used by the floating point subroutine is 32 bits long (4 bytes). The radix point lies between the left-most bit (LMB) and the bit to the immediate right of the LMB. The sign of the mantissa is represented by a single byte which can take on two values, 00 (hex) or FF (hex). If this byte is 00 (hex), the mantissa is positive. Similarly, if this byte is FF (hex), the mantissa is negative. The signed binary exponent is represented by a single byte. In order to have both positive and negative integers in the single byte exponent, a convenient numbering scheme was

adopted. This scheme defined 80 (hex) as zero. Anything larger than 80 (hex) is positive and anything smaller than 80 (hex) is negative. For example, 83 (hex) represents a binary exponent of $+11 = +3$ (decimal) and similarly 7F (hex) represents a binary exponent of -1 . The exponent can vary between 00 (hex) and FF (hex). These numbers represent decimal exponents between the range of 10^{-39} and 10^{38} . Figure 1 illustrates the representation of floating point numbers in the accumulator (AC) and operand (OP) registers. Notice that the accumulator exponent is 2 bytes wide. The hi byte is 00 (hex) unless an over or underflow has occurred. The hexadecimal numbers placed below the diagrams in Figure 1 are the memory locations used to store (in RAM) the bytes that make up the accumulator and operand.

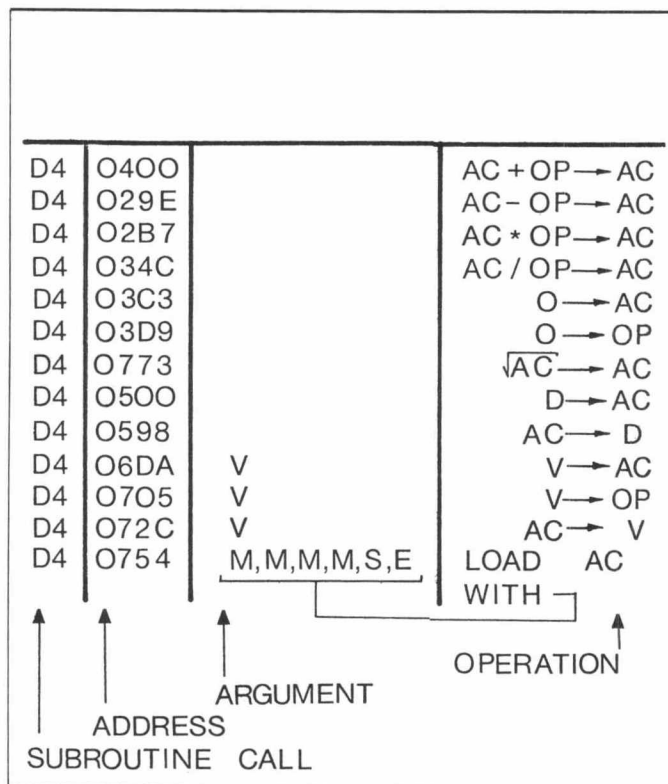


Most people can handle floating point decimal numbers with relative ease. The computer, unlike most people, is more efficient at handling binary numbers. To accommodate this difference, two routines are included in the floating point arithmetic package which allow for the conversion between binary and decimal numbers. Both of these routines use the accumulator register to hold binary numbers. An additional register is used by both routines for decimal numbers. This decimal register (D) is shown in Figure 2. The decimal register is composed of four parts: the sign of the mantissa (DM Sign), the 7-digit decimal mantissa (DM), the sign of the exponent (DE Sign) and the 2-digit exponent (DE). Both signs are represented by their standard ASCII codes; that is, 2D (hex) for negative and 2B (hex) for positive. The decimal digits (0-9) of both the exponent for the mantissa are represented by their corresponding 4-bit binary codes. These codes are placed in the four least significant bits of each byte. The four most significant bits are ignored by the conversion routines. This allows the use of ASCII codes on all entries in decimal register. For example, the number $+1.234567 \times 10^{+2} = +1234567. \times 10^{-4}$ could be represented in the decimal register in the following ways: 2B 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 2D 00 04 or 2B 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 2D 30 34 (ASCII).



These conversion routines appear in Figure 3 as D → AC (decimal to binary conversion) and AC → D (binary to decimal conversion).

All the routines in the floating point arithmetic package use the Standard Call and Return Technique (SCRT). This technique is explained in RCA's User Manual for the CDP 1802 on pgs. 61-64. The microprocessor registers R(2)–R(5) must be set up to handle the SCRT before any subroutines can be used. The user must also provide the SCRT code before using any subroutines. A subroutine is called by a D4 (hex) instruction, followed by the address of the subroutine. In some cases, additional numbers (labeled arguments in Figure 3) follow the address. Figure 3 lists all the user subroutines in the floating point arithmetic package.



The top four routines shown in Figure 3 perform floating point addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, respectively. The next two routines clear (set to zero) the contents of the accumulator or the operand. A square root routine follows next on the list. This routine uses the Newton-Raphson iterative method to find the square root of the contents of the accumulator. The next two routines perform conversions between binary and decimal numbers as previously described. The next three routines allow the user to store and recall numbers from memory. There are forty-two variable storage registers (referred to as variables) numbered 00(hex)-29 (hex). Any one of these variables can be loaded into either the accumulator or operand registers. Similarly, the contents of the accumulator can be stored in any one of the variables. For example, if we wanted to load the accumulator with the contents of variable 08, the following code would be used D4 06DA 08 (08 = V). The last routine shown in Figure 3 loads the accumulator with the binary floating point number that immediately follows the instruction. The first four bytes following the calling address (0754) make up the binary mantissa. These bytes should be in reverse order. For example, if the mantissa equals 42 6C 3D 0E, this subroutine requires 0E, 3D, 6C, 42 be placed after the calling address. As shown in Figure 3, the mantissa sign (S) and exponent (E) should be placed immediately after the mantissa.

The example shown in Figure 4 illustrates how some of these routines may be used to find the area of a circle, given its radius.

