

# Design of Floating Point Multiplier using Modified Wallace & Dadda Algorithms

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**Abstract:** - In computing, floating point describes a method of representing an approximation of a real number in a way that can support a wide range of values. Low power consumption and smaller area are some of the most important criteria for the fabrication of DSP systems and high performance systems. Optimizing the speed and area of the multiplier is a major design issue. This can be achieved using Wallace and Dadda algorithm of an IEEE 754 single precision floating point multiplier. Improvement in speed multiplication of Dadda and Wallace multiplier is done using carry look ahead adder. Multiplier based on Wallace and Dadda algorithms provides an area efficient and high speed multiplication. The focus of this project is delay comparison of floating point multiplier using Wallace tree and Dadda tree algorithms. The Dadda tree multiplier is faster than Wallace tree multiplier. Both uses XOR operation for sign bit calculation and bias is used for exponent calculation. But mantissa multiplication is calculating separately by using two different techniques, those are Wallace and Dadda tree.

Wallace and Dadda tree involves three steps:[1]Generating partial product using booth algorithm.[2]Partial products are added using full adder and half adder until it is reduced to two rows.[3] Final two rows are added using carry look ahead adder.

Now a day's speech, video and other such real time applications are required for mobile systems. For example cell phone and laptop. Improving multipliers design directly benefits the high performance embedded processors used in consumer and industrial electronic products. The floating point multiplier should be implemented to present both fast multiplication and less hardware. Higher processor has been broadly used in computer.

## I. OBJECTIVE

The main objective of this study is to achieve high speed single precision multiplication using booth algorithm in Wallace and Dadda tree. This is achieved using verilog HDL code. The generated partial products are added using full adders and half adders. For final two rows addition carry look ahead adder is used to calculate product of two floating point numbers.

## II. SCOPE OF THE PAPER

The aim here is to design and implement single precision floating point multiplier using Wallace and Dadda tree algorithm on Virtex 5.

*Tools used for simulation*

Xilinx ISE 14.2 design suite is used to implement floating point multiplier using Wallace and Dadda algorithm in verilog HDL.

## III. FLOATING POINT MULTIPLICATION

The IEEE 754 Standard is more used for floating point multiplication and is adapted to many hardware and software implementations.

The standard defines five basic formats depends on their base and the number of bits used.

### 3.1 IEEE 754 Standards for Binary Floating Point Multiplication:

There are three binary floating point formats, which can be encoded using 32, 64 or 128 bits. The first two binary formats are the 'single precision' and 'double precision' formats of IEEE 754-1985 and third is called 'quad'.

SIGN	EXPONENT	MANTISSA
31	30	22
		0

IEEE (Institute of Electrical & Electronics Engineering.) numbers are stored using scientific notation.

$$\pm \text{Mantissa} * 2^{\text{exponent}}$$

We can represent single precision floating point numbers with three binary terms:

1] Sign bit s: 1 bit.

2] Exponent field E': 8 bits.

3] Fraction field f: 23 bits.

$$E' = E + 127. \quad 0 \leq E' \leq 255.$$

1) The actual exponent E IS IN THE RANGE OF -126  $\leq E \leq 127$

2) The basic aspects of working with floating point numbers are two:

1. If number is not normalized, it can normalized by shifting the fraction and adjusting the exponent.

(a) Un-normalized value:

0	10001000	001011000000000000000000
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There is no implicit 1 to the left of the binary point.

Value represented =  $+0.0010110000 \dots \times 2^9$

(b) Normalized value:

0	10000101	011000000000000000000000
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Value represented =  $+1.011000000 \dots \times 2^6$

The scale factor is in the form of  $2^i$ . Shifting the mantissa right by one bit position is rewarded by an increase of 1 in exponent. Shifting the mantissa left by one bit position is rewarded by a decrease of 1 in exponent.

2. When computations precede, a number that does not fall in the required range. In single precision floating point numbers normalized representation requires an exponent less than -126 or greater than +127. In first case underflow has occurred. In second case overflow has occurred. Both are arithmetic exceptions.

### 3.1.1 Exceptions:

The IEEE standard defines 5 types of exceptions that occurred when flag bit sets.

#### 3.1.1.1 Invalid Operation

All exponent bits values are '1' and all the mantissa bits are equal to '0', then it represents infinity. If all exponent bits values are '1' and all the mantissa bits are not equal to '0', and then it represents Not a Number (NaN). The result of invalid operation is NaN (Not a number).

#### 3.1.1.2 Division by zero

If divisor is zero in ordinary arithmetic there is no meaning for this expression. In computer language integer division by zero may cause a program to terminate and if floating point numbers may cause NaN (Not a number) value. Division by zero results infinity and the multiplication of two numbers also results infinity. Therefore to differentiate between the two cases, a divide by zero exception was implemented.

#### 3.1.1.3 Underflow and overflow

In two cases underflow exception occurs: tininess and loss of accuracy. Tininess is detected after or before rounding when a result lies between  $\pm 2E_{min}$ . Loss of accuracy is detected when the result is when a renormalizations loss occurs. The underflow exception occurs whenever tininess is detected after rounding and at the same time result is inexact. The overflow exception occurs whenever the result exceeds the maximum value. It is not occurred when one operand is infinity, because infinity is always exact.

The sign bit is 0 for positive numbers and 1 for negative numbers. The field f contains a binary fraction. The

actual mantissa of floating point value is (1+f). For example if f is 01110111..., the mantissa become 1.01110111... There are many ways to write a number in scientific notation, but there is always a unique normalized representation, with exactly one non-zero digit to the left of the point.

$$0.456 \times 10^3 = 4.56 \times 10^2 = 45.6 \times 10^1$$

A side effect is that we get a little more precision for given number. There are 24-bits in mantissa, but we need to store only 23 of them. The exponent field represents the exponent as a biased number. It consist actual component plus 127 for single precision floating point numbers. This converts all single precision exponents from -127 to 127 into unsigned numbers from 0 to 254.

example shown below for single precision:

If exponent is 3, the e-field is  $3+127=130=10000010_2$

### 3.2 The binary representation of IEEE format for single precision floating point number:

The decimal number is -12.375 that is first convert to binary form. So the value is 1100.011<sub>(2)</sub>. Normalize the number by shifting the binary point until there is a single 1 to the left. Shift binary point to left after 3-bits. i.e.  $1100.011 \times 2^0 = 1.100011 \times 2^3$

The exponent is 3. Therefore in biased form it is  $130=10000010$ .

The fraction is 100011.

#### -12.375

1	10000010	100011000000000000000000
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### 3.3 Floating point conversion to IEEE 754 format:

Ex1: The decimal number is 147.625

Step1: Convert decimal number to its equivalent binary fractional form.

$$147.625 = 10010011.101$$

Step2: Normalize the binary fractional number.

$$10010011.101 = 1.0010011101 \times 2^7$$

Step3: Convert the exponent to 8-bit excess-127 notation. Add 127 to exponent and convert it to 8-bit binary number.

$$7+127=134=10000110$$

Step4: Convert mantissa to buried bit format.

$$1.0010011101 \longrightarrow 0010011101$$

Step5: Write down  $1+8+23=32$  bit binary number.

$$147.625 = 0\ 10000110\ 001001110100000000000000$$

### 3.4 Floating point multiplier block diagram

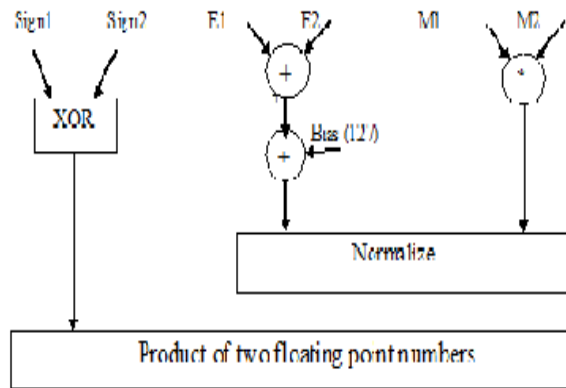


Fig3.4: Block diagram of floating point multiplier

The above figure shows block diagram of floating point multiplier. It consist mainly five steps:

**Step1:** The sign of floating point number n1 and n2 are logically XOR together.

Sign=Sign1 XOR sign2. If both inputs are 0, then output is 0. If sign1 is 0 and sign2 is 1, then output is 1. If sign1 is 1 and sign2 is 0, then output is 1. If both inputs are 1, then sign output is 0.

**Step2:** IEEE exponents are stored as 8-bit unsigned integers with a bias of 127. Take example  $1.10101 \times 2^3$  the exponent is 3 added to 127 and sum is 130 ( $1000010_2$ ). If binary exponent is unsigned; it cannot be negative. The largest possible exponent is 128. It is added with 127 and sum is 255. This is largest unsigned value represented by 8-bits. The range is from  $1.0 \times 2^{-127}$  to  $1.0 \times 2^{+128}$ . The exponent is calculated by adding both exponent of floating point numbers and the result is subtracted from bias (127).  $E=E1+E2-127$

**Step3:** The mantissa is calculated by multiplying both mantissa of floating point numbers.

$M=M1 \times M2$ . Multiplication is done using any algorithm. Those are array multiplier, booth multiplier, parallel multiplier, conventional Wallace multiplier, Wallace with booth multiplier, dadda multiplier etc. Due to large delay of multipliers, different methods have been designed to increase speed. The partial products are generated using booth algorithm. The partial product bits are added using half adders and full adders until two rows get, at finally these rows are added using fast carry look ahead adder. Dadda multiplier algorithm is faster than remaining all types of multipliers. If without booth algorithm multiplication is performed then it generates more number of multiplications. It takes more delay to execute. Multiplication is a basic and important building block in all arithmetic logic units.

**Step4:** Normalize the result value if value is un-normalized, so that there is a 1 just before the decimal point. Shifting decimal

point one place to the left increments the exponent by 1, Moving one place to right decrement the exponent by 1. For example, decimal number is 4566.23 is normalized as  $4.56623 \times 10^3$ . Same way the floating point binary value 1100.100 is normalized as  $1.100100 \times 2^3$  by moving the decimal point 3 positions to the left and multiplying by  $2^3$ . In a normalized mantissa, the digit 1 always appears to the left of the decimal point. The leading 1 is lost from the mantissa in the IEEE storage format because it is redundant. Sign, exponent and normalized mantissa are grouped into the binary IEEE representation.

**Step5:** If mantissa bits are more than 5-bits rounding is required. If we applied the truncation rounding method then the mantissa is 5-bits. At finally product of two floating point numbers is getting using IEEE standard.

### 3.5 Floating point multiplication algorithm:

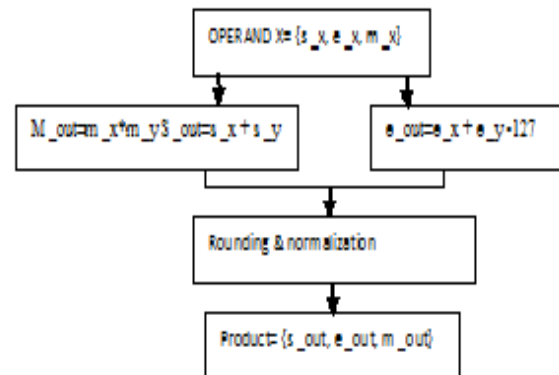


Fig3.5a: Flowchart of floating point multiplier

The following algorithm is used to multiply two floating point numbers:

1). Multiplication ( $1.M1 \times 1.M2$ ): Its response is multiplying the unsigned significant and putting the decimal point in the multiplication product. Multiplication is performed on 23-bits. Operands x and y are used for multiplication. The floating point number x consist of sign bit  $s_x$ , exponent bits  $e_x$  and mantissa bits  $m_x$ . The floating point number y consists of sign bit  $s_y$ ,  $e_y$  and mantissa bits  $m_y$ .

1. Putting the decimal point in the product.

2. Adding the exponents ( $e_{out} = e_x + e_y - 127$ ): Its response is to add two floating point number exponents and sum is subtracted from bias 127. An 8-bit carry look ahead adder is used to add two input exponents. This adder uses generate and propagate functions.  $G_i$  is referred as the carry generate signal. So carry  $C_{i+1}$  is generated whenever  $G_i = 1$ .  $P_i$  is referred as the carry propagate signal. When  $P_i = 1$ , the input carry is propagated to the output carry.  $C_{i+1} = C_i$ . Computing the values of P and G depends on input bits.

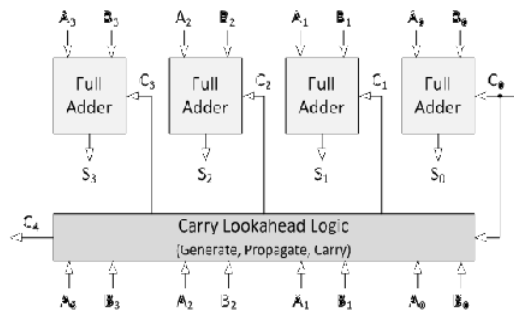


Fig3.5b: Block diagram of carry look ahead adder

Full adders are used to calculate sum, propagate and generate bits. The  $a_i$ ,  $b_i$

and  $c_i$  are input bits.  $S_i$  and  $C_{i+1}$  are output bits.

$$P_i = a_i + b_i \quad G_i = a_i \cdot b_i$$

$$S_i = a_i \oplus b_i \oplus c_i$$

$$C_{i+1} = G_i + P_i \cdot c_i$$

Carry look ahead adder is faster because it generates carry bits parallel by an additional logic circuit when inputs change. It uses carry bypass logic to speed up the carry propagation.

4. Obtaining sign by performing the operation  $s_1 \text{ XOR } s_2$ .

i.e.  $s_{\text{out}} = s_x \text{ XOR } s_y$ . Multiplying one negative number and one positive number results negative number product. If both numbers are positive or negative then product is positive number. According to logical XOR truth table multiplication is performed. When both inputs are 0 or 1, the output is 0. When any one of the input is 0 or 1, the output is 1.

5. Normalizing the result: The result of the significant multiplication is normalized to have a leading 1 to the left of the decimal point. If product is  $1010.0000100_{(2)}$  then its normalized value is  $1.010000100_{(2)}$ .

6. Rounding the result to fit in the 32-bits.

3.5.1 Floating point numbers multiplication examples:

**Ex1:**  $12.52 * 15.25 = 190.93$

$$12.52 \longrightarrow 1100.10000101$$

$$15.25 \longrightarrow 1111.01000000$$

Normalized value of first number is  $1.10010000101 * 10^3$

Normalized value of second number is  $1.11101000000 * 10^3$

$$\text{Exp1} = 3 + 127 = 130 = 10000010$$

IEEE format of first number is:

$$0-10000010-100100001010000000000000$$

$$\text{Exp2} = 3 + 127 = 130 = 10000010$$

IEEE format of second number is:

$$0-10000010-111010000000000000000000$$

$$\text{Exp} = \text{Exp1} + \text{Exp2} - 127$$

$$= 130 + 130 - 127$$

$$\text{Exp} = 133$$

Mantissa multiplication:

$$1.10010000101$$

$$1.11101000000$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1.10010000101 \\ 1.11101000000 \\ \hline 000000000000 \\ 000000000000 \\ 000000000000 \\ 000000000000 \\ 000000000000 \\ 000000000000 \\ 110010000101 \\ 000000000000 \\ 110010000101 \\ 110010000101 \\ 110010000101 \\ 110010000101 \\ 110010000101 \end{array}$$

$$10.1111101110110001000000$$

The normalized value of product is  $1.0111101110110001000000 \times 10^1$

$$\text{Total exp} = \text{product\_exp} + \text{exp} - 127$$

$$= 1 + 133 - 127$$

$$\text{Total exp} = 7$$

The product of mantissa of two numbers is  $1.0111101110110001000000$ .

Shift decimal point to right after 7 bits. So the product is

$$1011110.1110110001000000_{(2)} = 190.93_{(10)}$$

Normalized form of product is

$$1.0111101110110001000000 * 10^7 =$$

$$0111101110110001000000$$

$$\text{Exp} = 7 + 127 = 134 = 10000110$$

Sign of product is 0.

IEEE form of product is:

$$0-10000110-0111101110110001000000$$

#### IV. BOOTH3 ALGORITHM

The 16-bit booth 3 multiplication concept is also used for 23-bit booth 3 multiplication. Multiplier and multiplicand both are 23-bits. The multiplier is divided into 8 groups. Each group contains 4-bits binary value as shown in figure 4.1a.

##### 4.1 Multiplication of two binary numbers using booth 3 algorithm

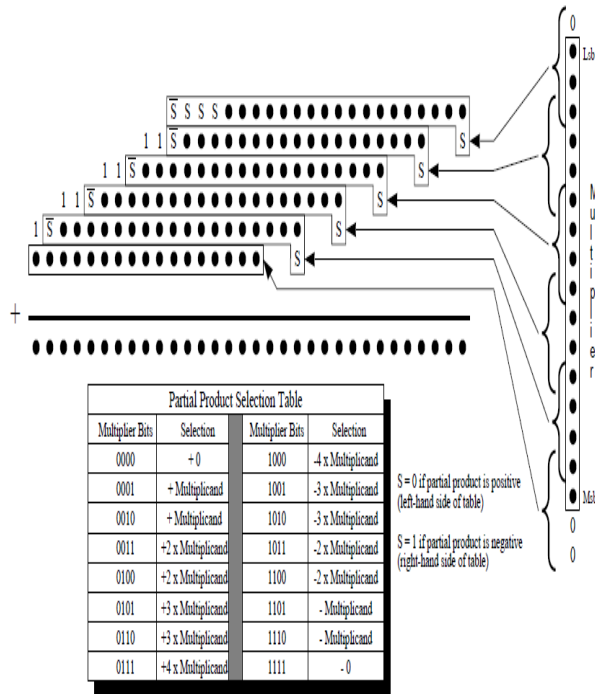


Fig4.1a: 16-bit booth 3 multiplication

In each group multiplier 4<sup>th</sup> bit is checked and if it is 0 then sign bit is S. If it is 1 then sign bit is ~S. The partial products reduced from 23 to 9 by using booth 3 algorithms. The partial product selection table is shown in figure. Each partial product is chosen from the set 0,  $\pm M$ ,  $\pm 2M$ ,  $\pm 3M$ ,  $\pm 4M$ . Except 3M all multiples are obtained from shifting and complementing of the multiplicand.

The following steps are used to perform booth3 algorithm:

1) The multiplication of two 23-bits binary numbers using Booth algorithm implies reduction in number of digits to 8 as shown below figure 4.1b..

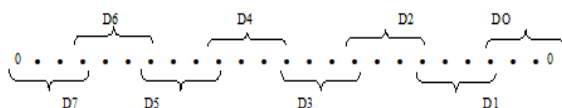


Fig4.1b: multiplier recoding

2) The partial products multiplexer selects one operation out of nine possible operations depending on value of the corresponding signed bit as shown in figure4.1c.\

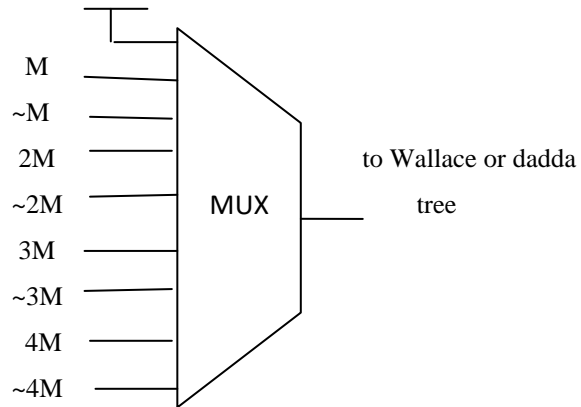


Fig4.1c: Partial product multiplexer

3) The partial product multiplexer selects M if multiplier 4-bits binary value is 0001 and ~M is selected when binary value of multiplier is 1101. The multiplexer selects 2M when binary value of multiplier is 0011. The multiplexer selects ~2M when binary value of multiplier is 1011. The partial product multiplexer selects 3M when binary value of multiplier is 0101.

For ex. The operation of 3M is:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 y_{23} \ y_{22} \ y_{21} \ \dots \ y_3 \ y_2 \ y_1 \ y_0 \ 0 \ (2y) \\
 y_{23} \ y_{23} \ y_{22} \ \dots \ y_4 \ y_3 \ y_2 \ y_1 \ y_0 \ (y) \\
 \hline
 z_{25} \ z_{24} \ z_{23} \ z_{22} \ \dots \ z_4 \ z_3 \ z_2 \ z_1 \ z_0 \ (3y)
 \end{array}$$

##### 4.2 Logic diagram of booth3 partial product generator

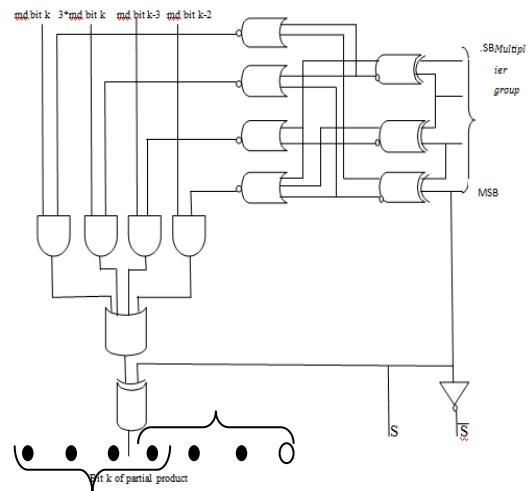


Fig4.2: 16-bit booth 3 partial product generator logic circuit



The above logic diagram shows booth 3 algorithm. This modified booth algorithm is most used method to generate partial product. This algorithm generates less partial products compare to other techniques by using reduction method. Therefore compression speed is enhanced. 2-bit, 3-bit, 4-bit recoding is used for this algorithm. The 4-bit recoding means that the multiplier B is divided into groups of four bits and the algorithm is applied to this group. The booth algorithm is implemented into two steps:

- 1) Booth decoding
- 2) Booth selecting

The booth encoding is used to produce one of the four values in the multiplier group.

The booth selecting circuit is used to produce a partial product bit k. This algorithm reduces partial products by a factor of 2, without adding before to produce the partial products. fig shows the dot diagram for a  $23 * 23$  multiplication. The multiplier is divided into overlapping groups of 4 bits and each group is decoded to select a single partial product as per the selection table. Each partial product is shifted 3 bit positions with respect to its neighbors. The numbers of partial products are reduced from 23 to 9. In general there is  $(n+2)/2$  partial products, where n is the operand length. Many required multiples are obtained by a simple shift of the multiplicand. Negative multiples taken in two's complement form, which is obtained using a bit by bit complement of the corresponding positive multiples, with a 1 added at the least significant bit of partial product. Booth algorithm also reduces dots in dot diagram. In this partial product groups are assigned to a set 0,M,2M,3M,4M,-0,-M,-2M,-3M,-4M.

M is multiplicand value. -M is complement of multiplicand value. 2M is circular left shift by 1-bit position. -2M is circular left shift of complement of multiplicand 1-bit position. 3M is (a+2a), that means 'a' refers multiplicand and 2a is circular shift of a. -3M is complement of (a+2a) value. 4M is circular shift of multiplicand by 2-bit position. -4M is complement of 4M value. The number of dots, constants and sign are added is 126 for  $23*23$  multiplier and height of partial product is now 9.

Generation of the multiple 3M requires adder circuit. It cannot be obtained by simple shifting or complementing of multiplicand. This increases the complexity of the partial product generation. The amount of hardware and delay depends upon number of partial products to be added. Booth algorithm generates less partial products, so hardware cost is less and it improves performance of multiplier. Booth is used in multiplier with long operands i.e. greater than 16-bits. Booth 2 is fastest algorithm, booth 3 is power efficient and booth 4 requires less area. In booth 3 algorithm starting 27 bits are dots and 28<sup>th</sup>, 29<sup>th</sup> and 30<sup>th</sup> bits are sign bits, which are

S. 31<sup>th</sup> bit is complement of sign bit, that is  $\sim S$ . If MP [3] is 0, then sign is 0. So it represents S. If MP [3] is 1, then sign is 1. So it represents  $\sim S$ .

## V. PROPOSED ALGORITHMS

### 5.1 Floating point multiplication using Wallace algorithm

In 1964 C.S.Wallace introduced a Wallace tree multiplication algorithm. It includes three steps to multiply two numbers.

Step 1: The partial products are generated using booth 3 algorithm. Nine partial products are generated. Two 23-bit numbers are used as inputs, those are multiplicand and multiplier. The multiplier input is divided into 8 groups. Each group consists of 4-bit binary value. If 0001 in the group then multiplicand value should write as it is. If 0011 in the group then  $2*$  multiplicand value should write. Similarly  $\pm 3$  multiplicand and  $\pm 4$  multiplicand are represented for other binary numbers shown in multiplication using booth3 algorithm table.

Step 2: In first stage the nine partial products are divided into 3 levels. In level-1 the full adder (3:2 counter) and half adders (2:2 counter) are used for 3-bits and 2-bits respectively. The full adder and half adder results sum and carry bits are stored in 2<sup>nd</sup> stage, level-1. In level-1 also same full adder and half adders are used, these outputs sum and carry are stored in further level. This continues in same way until two rows get.

Step3: These two rows are added using carry look ahead adder. It is faster adder so the delay of multiplication is less. Overall the multiplication consist 5 stages. Stage-1 consist of 3 levels. Stage-2 consists of 2 levels. Stage-3 consists of 1 level. Stage-4 consist of 1 level and finally stage-5 also consist of 1 level i.e. using CLA the addition is performed. Two CLA's are used to perform addition and to get product output. At finally we get product of two numbers. Single precision 32-bit floating point multiplication of two numbers consists of 1-bit sign, 8-bits exponent and 23-bits mantissa. The 23-bit two floating point numbers mantissa are multiplied using above Wallace technique. The sign bit of first number and sign bit of second numbers are XOR to get sign bit multiplication. When both are 0 or 1, the output is 0. When any one output is 0 or 1, the output is 1. Exponent is calculated using propagate and generate function. Using carry look ahead adder the 8-bits of exponent are added. The difference between Wallace tree multiplier and column compression multiplier is that, in Wallace tree each possible bit in each column is covered by 3:2 counter and 2:2 counter, until finally the partial product has two rows. This algorithm consists of 5 stages.

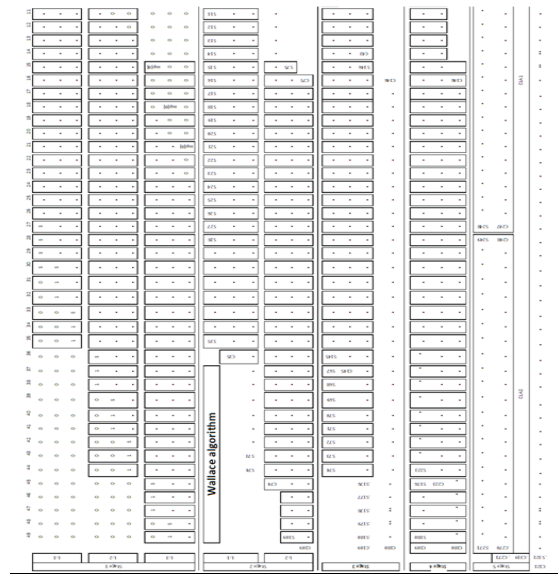


Fig 5.1: Dot diagram of 23-bit Wallace multiplier.

**Stage-1:** It consists of 3 levels as shown in figure 5.1. The level-1 of stage-1 performs 36 full adders' functions. MP [0] is 0<sup>th</sup> bit of multiplier. It is always 0, because when grouping the multiplier which contains 4 bits in each group we should add 1 zero to multiplier. If MP [3] is 0, the sign

bit is 0 and it is represented as S. If MP [3] is 1, the sign bit is 1 and it is represented as  $\sim S$ . Nine partial products are produced using booth algorithm. These partial products are divided into 3 levels. The level-2 consists of 39 full adders and level-3 consists of 35 full adders. The sum and carry outputs of level-1 of stage-1 are stored in level-1 of stage-2.

**Stage-2:** Level-1 consists of 6 half adders and 30 full adders. Level-2 of stage-1 sum and carry output bits are stored in this stage-2. This continues until two rows get. The level-2 consists of 5 half adders and 30 full adders.

**Stage3:** It consists of 12 half adders and 31 full adders. Two dots are used for half adder operation and three dots are used for full adder operation.

**Stage4:** It consists of 18 half adders and 30 full adders.

**Stage5:** Two CLA'S are used to add last two rows of Wallace algorithm. CLA1 add sum bits from S226 to S248 with carry bits from C225 to C247. CLA2 add sum bits from S249 to S271 with carry bits from C248 to C270. Two half adders are used at beginning and end of stage-5. At finally we get product of two binary numbers. Product is assigned from S0, S110, S181, S224, and S272 to S321.

Totally Wallace multiplier uses:

- 1) Full adders=231.
- 2) Half adders=43.
- 3) CLA=2.

Wallace multiplier require more number of full adders, half adders compare to Dadda multiplier. So Wallace is more complex to design but Dadda multiplier is easy to design the single precision floating point multiplier. Wallace multiplier requires more wires compare to Dadda multiplier. Carry look ahead adders are used to improve the speed of the design. These are faster adders compare to all other adders because they uses carry generate and propagate functions. The dot diagram of Wallace multiplier is explained above clearly. Stage levels are reduced as stage number increase. Final stage is carry look ahead adder, from that result product of two numbers will get.

### 5.2 Floating point multiplication using Dadda algorithm

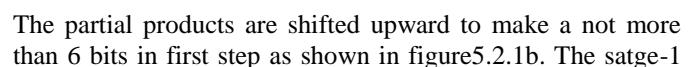
Dadda multiplier developed Wallace's multiplier by defining a few counters in partial product reduction stage using carry look ahead adder. Dadda uses many ways to compress the partial product bits using 3:2 and 2:2 counters. Fig shows the process of 23\*23 bits dot diagram for dadda multiplier. Each dot represents a bit. In first step columns having more than six dots are reduced to 6 dots, next reduced to 4 dots, next reduced to 3 dots and at final dots are reduced to 2 dots in a column. These two rows are added using carry look ahead adder. Each half adder uses two dots, outputs one in the same column and one in the next more significant column and each full adder uses three dots, outputs one in same column and one in the next more significant column so that no column in step 1 will have more than 6 dots.

In each case the rightmost dot of the pair that is connected by a line is in the column from which the inputs were taken from the adder. In next step reduction is no more than 4 dots per column, further no more than three dots per column, at last no more than two dots per column is performed. The height of the matrices is obtained by functioning back from the final two row matrix and restricting the height of the each matrix to the largest integer that is no more than 1.5 times the height of its successor. Each matrix is produced from its predecessor in one adder delay. Since the number of bits in the words to be multiplied, the delay of the matrix reduction process that reduces is proportional to  $\log n$ , where  $n$  is word size. Final two row matrix can be implemented as a carry look ahead adder and total delay for this multiplier is proportional to the logarithm of the word size  $n$ .

#### 5.2.1 Partitioning the partial products:

Partial products are divided into two parts: part-0 and part-1. In which part-0 and part-1 consists of  $n$  columns. The two parts are separately performed and finally added both result together. The partial products of each part are reduced to two rows by the using 3:2 counter and 2:2 counters by referring dadda algorithm. The grouping of 3 dots and 2 dots in same column refers to 3:2 and 2:2 counters respectively. S and C denote partial sum and partial carry bits.

C139 to C174 are result carry bits of part-0 in daddda algorithm.







$$\text{exp1}=10000011_2=131_{10}$$

$$\text{exp2}=10000011_2=131_{10}$$

$$\text{exp}=\text{exp1}+\text{exp2}-127$$

$$=131+131-127=135_{10}=10000111_2$$

The single precision floating point representation consist 8-bit exponent. The exponent field represents the exponent as a biased number. It contains the actual exponent plus 127 for single precision. This converts all single precision exponents from -127 to 127 into unsigned numbers from 0 to 254. The resultant exponent is calculated using generate and propagate functions in verilog code.

### 7.2 Generation of partial products using booth3 algorithm:

Name	Value	1,984,741 ps	1,984,742 ps	1,984,743 ps	1,984,744 ps
amp[22:0]	0000010000		000001000000000000000000		
amc[22:0]	0111110000		011111000000000000000000		
clk	1				
prc[49:0]	0000000000	0000000000111110000000000000000000000000000000			
x[27:0]	0000000000	00000000010000000000000000000000			
y[26:0]	0000011111	00000111110000000000000000000000			
mc_3[26:0]	0001011100	00010111010000000000000000000000			
mc[26:0]	0000011111	00000111110000000000000000000000			
mc_2[26:0]	0000111110	00001111100000000000000000000000			
mc_4[26:0]	0001111100	00011111000000000000000000000000			
mp[27:0]	0000000000	00000000000000000000000000000000			
n[31:0]	0000000000	00000000000000000000000000001101			
pp[26:0]	0000000000	00000000000000000000000000000000			
pp1[49:0]	0000000000	00000000000000000000000000000000			
pp2[49:0]	0000000000	00000000000000000000000000000000			
pp3[49:0]	0000000000	00000000000000000000000000000000			
pp4[49:0]	0000000000	00000000000000000000000000000000			
pp5[49:0]	0000000011	00000000111000000000000000000000			

Fig.7.2: Partial products output

The variables amp and amc are multiplier and multiplicand binary values. Those are 23-bits wide. As explained in chapter 4 each partial product is chosen from the set 0,  $\pm M$ ,  $\pm 2M$ ,  $\pm 3M$ ,  $\pm 4M$ . Except 3M all multiples are obtained from shifting and complementing of the multiplicand. Using partial product generation table for 23-bit mantissa nine partial products are generated.

The partial products are assigned as pp1, pp2, pp3, pp4, pp5, pp6, pp7, pp8, pp9. Many intermediate wires and registers are used to calculate partial products. FOR loop is used to generate each partial product. To calculate 3M the 2M is added with M. The partial product generation equation is written using XOR, AND, OR and NOT basic logic gate expressions. Without booth algorithm 23 partial products are generating but using booth algorithm only 9 partial products are generating.

### 7.3 Using Wallace algorithm floating point multiplier output:

Name	Value	1,999,996 ps	1,999,997 ps	1,999,998 ps	1,999,999 ps
a[31:0]	0100000110	01000001100000000000000000000000			
b[31:0]	1100000110	11000001101111000000000000000000			
clk	1				
mantisa[47:0]	0001100000	0001100000111100000000000000000000000000000000			
exp[7:0]	10000111	10000111			
mantisa[23:0]	0100000100	01000001000000000000000000000000			
mantisa[23:0]	0101111100	01011111000000000000000000000000			
pro[31:0]	1100001111	11000011110000001111100000000000			
exp[7:0]	10000111	10000111			
sign	1				
sign1	0				
sign2	1				

Fig.7.3: The output of floating point multiplier using Wallace algorithm

The variables 'a' and 'b' are 32-bit inputs. These two floating point numbers are represented in IEEE 754 format. The verilog code is written in structural mode.

$$a = 01000001100000100000000000000000$$

$$b = 11000001101111100000000000000000$$

These two floating point numbers are multiplied and output product is generated.

$$\text{Pro} = 110000111100000011111000000000$$

Exponent calculation is above explained and sign bit calculation is performed using logical XOR function. Floating point multiplication using Wallace algorithm uses more number of full adders and half adders compare to dadda algorithm floating point multiplication.

### 7.4 Using Dadda algorithm floating point multiplier output:

Name	Value	1,999,996 ps	1,999,997 ps	1,999,998 ps	1,999,999 ps
a[31:0]	0100000110	01000001100000000000000000000000			
b[31:0]	1100000110	11000001101111000000000000000000			
clk	0				
mantisa[47:0]	0001100000	0001100000111100000000000000000000000000000000			
exp[7:0]	10000111	10000111			
mantisa[23:0]	0100000100	01000001000000000000000000000000			
mantisa[23:0]	0101111100	01011111000000000000000000000000			
pro[31:0]	1100001111	11000011110000001111100000000000			
exp[7:0]	10000111	10000111			
sign	1				
sign1	0				
sign2	1				

Fig.7.4: The output of floating point multiplier using Dadda algorithm

Dadda algorithm floating point multiplication uses same steps like Wallace algorithm but mantissa multiplication is different. Booth3 algorithm generates 9 partial products. The same partial product generation code is used for both Wallace and dadda algorithms. In dadda algorithm the partial products are divided in to 2 parts.

Part-0 and part-1 operations are separately performed and finally these results are added together to get final product. Dadda algorithm uses less full adders and half adders compare to Wallace algorithm. Therefore it is faster than floating point multiplier using Wallace algorithm. Mantissa1 and mantissa2 are 23-bit wide. The product is also IEEE754format. We can convert that to decimal point number.

### 7.5 Device Utilization Summary

Common components such as flip-flops, LUTs, block RAM and multiplexers make up the basic logic structures on a Virtex-5. A collection of these basic structures is called as slice or Configurable Logic Block (CLB). The numbers of slice registers used are 253 and number of slice LUTs are 958 in floating point multiplier using Wallace algorithm. Information about map report and device utilization will give whether design fits into the device or not.

Device Utilization Summary			
Slice Logic Utilization	Used	Available	Utilization
Number of Slice Registers	253	12,480	2%
Number used as Flip Flops	253		
Number of Slice LUTs	913	12,480	7%
Number used as logic	913	12,480	7%
Number using O6 output only	912		
Number using O5 output only	1		
Number of route-thrus	1		
Number using O6 output only	1		
Number of occupied Slices	364	3,120	11%
Number of LUT Flip Flop pairs used	918		
Number with an unused Flip Flop	665	918	72%
Number with an unused LUT	5	918	1%
Number of fully used LUT-FF pairs	248	918	27%
Number of unique control sets	9		
Number of slice register sites lost to control set restrictions	23	12,480	1%
Number of bonded IOBs	95	172	55%
IOB Flip Flops	1		
Number of BUFG/BUFGCTRLs	1	32	3%
Number used as BUFs	1		
Average Fanout of Non-Clock Nets	4.87		

Table7.5a: Design summary of floating point multiplier using Wallace algorithm.

Table7.5a and 7.5b shows the slice utilization for floating point multiplication using Wallace and Dadda algorithm. As shown in the table, both Wallace and Dadda algorithm multiplication use 2% of the slice registers, LUTs, logics and slices. Information about map report and device utilization will give whether design fits into the device or not. As proposed design uses 2% of the available resources, one can tell that design fits into the Virtex-5.

Device Utilization Summary			
Slice Logic Utilization	Used	Available	Utilization
Number of Slice Registers	253	12,480	2%
Number used as Flip Flops	253		
Number of Slice LUTs	798	12,480	6%
Number used as logic	798	12,480	6%
Number using O6 output only	797		
Number using O5 output only	1		
Number of route-thrus	1		
Number using O6 output only	1		
Number of occupied Slices	301	3,120	9%
Number of LUT Flip Flop pairs used	805		
Number with an unused Flip Flop	552	805	68%
Number with an unused LUT	7	805	1%
Number of fully used LUT-FF pairs	246	805	30%
Number of unique control sets	9		
Number of slice register sites lost to control set restrictions	23	12,480	1%
Number of bonded IOBs	95	172	55%
IOB Flip Flops	1		
Number of BUFG/BUFGCTRLs	1	32	3%
Number used as BUFs	1		
Average Fanout of Non-Clock Nets	4.87		

Table7.5b: Design summary of floating point multiplier using dadda algorithm.

### 7.4.2 Timing Summary

The proposed solution processes data at a rate of 8 bytes per cycle at 47.083MHz. Clock frequency is used to calculate throughput. Timing summary provides statistics on average routing delays and performance versus constraints.

- Timing summary for floating point multiplier using Wallace algorithm:

Speed grade:-2

Minimum period: 21.239ns

Minimum input arrival time before clock: 4.20ns

Maximum output required time after clock: 2.826ns

Maximum combinational path delay: No path found

- Timing summary for floating point multiplier using Dadda algorithm:

Speed grade:-2

Minimum period: 20.797ns

Minimum input arrival time before clock: 4.200ns

Maximum output required time after clock: 2.826ns

Maximum combinational path delay: No path found

## VIII. ADVANTAGES DISADVANTAGES AND APPLICATIONS:

### 8.1 Advantages:

1. Floating point multiplier using Wallace and dadda algorithm designs presented here are very lean and require less resource when implemented on Virtex-5.

- Wallace and dadda multiplier algorithms have less delay.
- The number of logic levels required to perform the summation is reduced in Wallace and dadda algorithm compare to other multiplier algorithm techniques.
- Wallace and dadda multipliers algorithms are faster because to generate less partial products these are adopt booth3 algorithm. It uses smaller area and low power dissipation.
- In both Wallace and dadda algorithm carry look ahead adders are used instead of carry select adders or ripple carry adders, so carry look ahead adder is one of the fastest adder and having more advantages among all the available adders.

### 8.2 Disadvantages:

- Wallace and dadda algorithms are complex to layout in VLSI design and have irregular wires.

### 8.3 Applications:

- High Speed Signal Processing that includes DSP based applications.
- DWT and DCT transforms used for image and wide signal processing.
- FIR and IIR Filters for high speed, low power filtering applications.
- Multi-rate signal processing applications such as digital down converts and up converters

## IX. CONCLUSION

In the proposed work design of floating point multiplier using Wallace and Dadda algorithm with carry look ahead adder on FPGA is presented that is used for DSP applications. Modified booth3 algorithm is used to design fast multiplier. So floating point multiplier using Dadda algorithm with carry look ahead adder is faster than floating point multiplier using Wallace algorithm with carry look ahead adder. Inherently parallel design of algorithm allows an efficient hardware implementation. Dadda multiplier has smaller delay. The simulations and synthesis results of modules are provided.

IEEE 754 standard based floating point representation has been used. The unit has been coded in Verilog and has been synthesized. Carry look ahead adder is used in the design of final stage adder of Wallace and dadda tree used for mantissa multiplication and in the exponent addition. The dadda multiplier has less number of reduction stages and levels compared to other multiplier techniques.

Algorithms are designed using Xilinx ISE 14.2 design tool and implemented on Virtex-5. Synthesis report shows that proposed design achieves area and performance goals.

### Comparison of synthesis report of floating point Wallace & Dadda multipliers using carry look ahead adder:

	Floating point multiplication using Wallace algorithm.	Floating point multiplication using Dadda algorithm
No. of slices	253/12480=2%	253/12480=2%
No. of LUTs	913/12480=7%	798/12480=6%
Delay	10.619ns	10.398ns

Table8.1 Delay comparison of Wallace and Dadda floating point multiplier

## X. FUTURE SCOPE

The designed floating point unit operates on 32-bit operands. It can also design for 64-bit operands to enhance precision. It can be extended to have more mathematical operations like addition, subtraction, division, square root, trigonometric, logarithmic and exponential functions. In future implementing higher compressors for Wallace tree and Dadda tree used for mantissa multiplication can further increase the efficiency of the floating point multiplier in terms of speed.

A few researchers have shown that there is a considerable improvement in the delay by using higher order 6:2, 7:2, 9:2 compressors for Wallace tree but no paper for Dadda tree. Exceptions like overflow, underflow, inexact, division by zero, infinity, NAN etc are incorporated in the floating point multiplier.

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