CS202: COMPUTER ORGANIZATION

Lecture 7

Floating Point Arithmetic

Recap

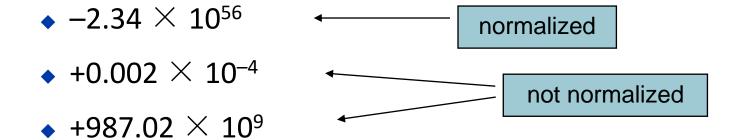
- Operations on integers
 - Addition and subtraction
 - Multiplication and division

Outline

- Floating point representation
- Floating point addition
- Floating point multiplication
- MIPS floating point instructions
- Subword parallellism

Floating Point

- Representation for non-integral numbers
 - Including very small and very large numbers
- Like scientific notation



- In binary
 - $\pm 1.xxxxxxx_2 \times 2^{yyyy}$
- Types float and double in C

Floating Point Standard

- Defined by IEEE Std 754-1985
- Developed in response to divergence of representations
 - Portability issues for scientific code
- Now almost universally adopted
- Two representations
 - Single precision (32-bit)
 - Double precision (64-bit)

IEEE Floating-Point Format

$$\pm 1.xxxxxxx_2 \times 2^{yyyy}$$

single: 8 bits

single: 23 bits

double: 11 bits

double: 52 bits

S Exponent (yyyy+Bias)

Fraction (xxxx)

$$x = (-1)^{S} \times (1 + Fraction) \times 2^{(Exponent-Bias)}$$

- S: sign bit $(0 \Rightarrow \text{non-negative}, 1 \Rightarrow \text{negative})$
- Normalize significant: 1.0 ≤ |significant| < 2.0</p>
 - Always has a leading pre-binary-point 1 bit, so no need to represent it explicitly (hidden bit)
 - Significant is Fraction with the "1." restored
- Exponent: excess representation: actual exponent + Bias
 - Ensures exponent is unsigned
 - Single: Bias = 127; Double: Bias = 1203

Single-Precision Range

- Exponents 00000000 and 11111111 reserved
- Smallest value
 - Exponent: 0000001 \Rightarrow actual exponent = 1 - 127 = -126
 - Fraction: $000...00 \Rightarrow significand = 1.0$
 - $\pm 1.0 \times 2^{-126} \approx \pm 1.2 \times 10^{-38}$
- Largest value
 - exponent: 111111110 \Rightarrow actual exponent = 254 - 127 = +127
 - Fraction: $111...11 \Rightarrow$ significand ≈ 2.0
 - $\pm 2.0 \times 2^{+127} \approx \pm 3.4 \times 10^{+38}$

Double-Precision Range

- Exponents 0000...00 and 1111...11 reserved
- Smallest value
 - Exponent: 0000000001⇒ actual exponent = 1 - 1023 = -1022
 - Fraction: $000...00 \Rightarrow significand = 1.0$
 - $\pm 1.0 \times 2^{-1022} \approx \pm 2.2 \times 10^{-308}$
- Largest value

 - Fraction: $111...11 \Rightarrow$ significand ≈ 2.0
 - $\pm 2.0 \times 2^{+1023} \approx \pm 1.8 \times 10^{+308}$

Floating-Point Precision

- Relative precision
 - all fraction bits are significant
 - $\Delta A/|A| = 2^{-23} \times 2^{exponent}/|1 \times 2^{exponent}| = 2^{-23}$
 - ◆ Single: approx 2⁻²³
 - Equivalent to 23 \times log₁₀2 \approx 23 \times 0.3 \approx 6 decimal digits of precision
 - ◆ Double: approx 2⁻⁵²
 - Equivalent to 52 \times log₁₀2 \approx 52 \times 0.3 \approx 16 decimal digits of precision

Floating-Point Example

- Represent –0.75
 - $-0.75 = (-1)^1 \times 1.1_2 \times 2^{-1}$
 - \bullet S = 1
 - Fraction = $1000...00_{2}$
 - Exponent = -1 + Bias
 - Single: $-1 + 127 = 126 = 011111110_2$
 - Double: -1 + 1023 = 1022 = 011111111110₂
- Single: 1011111101000...00
- Double: 10111111111101000...00

Floating-Point Example

What number is represented by the single-precision float

11000000101000...00

- \bullet S = 1
- Fraction = $01000...00_{2}$
- Exponent = $10000001_2 = 129$

$$x = (-1)^{1} \times (1 + 01_{2}) \times 2^{(129-127)}$$

$$= (-1) \times 1.25 \times 2^{2}$$

$$= -5.0$$

Floating-Point Addition

- Consider a 4-digit decimal example
 - $9.999 \times 10^{1} + 1.610 \times 10^{-1}$
- 1. Align decimal points
 - Shift number with smaller exponent
 - $9.999 \times 10^{1} + 0.016 \times 10^{1}$
- 2. Add significands
 - $9.999 \times 10^{1} + 0.016 \times 10^{1} = 10.015 \times 10^{1}$
- 3. Normalize result & check for over/underflow
 - 1.0015×10^2
- 4. Round and renormalize if necessary
 - 1.002×10^2

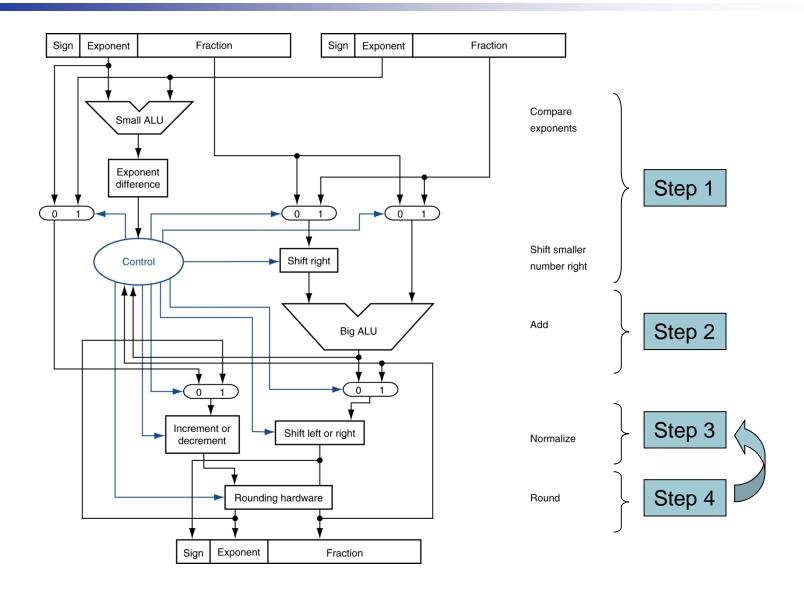
Floating-Point Addition

- Now consider a 4-digit binary example
 - $1.000_2 \times 2^{-1} + -1.110_2 \times 2^{-2} (0.5 + -0.4375)$
- 1. Align binary points
 - Shift number with smaller exponent
 - $1.000_2 \times 2^{-1} + -0.111_2 \times 2^{-1}$
- 2. Add significands
 - $1.000_2 \times 2^{-1} + -0.111_2 \times 2^{-1} = 0.001_2 \times 2^{-1}$
- 3. Normalize result & check for over/underflow
 - $1.000_2 \times 2^{-4}$, with no over/underflow
- 4. Round and renormalize if necessary
 - $1.000_2 \times 2^{-4}$ (no change) = 0.0625

FP Adder Hardware

- Much more complex than integer adder
- Doing it in one clock cycle would take too long
 - Much longer than integer operations
 - Slower clock would penalize all instructions
- FP adder usually takes several cycles
 - Can be pipelined

FP Adder Hardware



FP Multiplication

- Similar steps:
 - Compute exponent (careful!)
 - Multiply significands (set the binary point correctly)
 - Normalize
 - Round (potentially re-normalize)
 - Assign sign

FP Arithmetic Hardware

- FP arithmetic hardware usually does
 - Addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, reciprocal, square-root
 - FP ←→ integer conversion
- Operations usually takes several cycles
 - Can be pipelined

FP Instructions in MIPS

- FP hardware is coprocessor 1
 - Adjunct processor that extends the ISA
- Separate FP registers
 - ◆ 32 single-precision: \$f0, \$f1, ... \$f31
 - Paired for double-precision: \$f0/\$f1, \$f2/\$f3, ...
 - ullet Release 2 of MIPs ISA supports 32 imes 64-bit FP reg's
- FP instructions operate only on FP registers
 - Programs generally don't do integer ops on FP data, or vice versa
 - More registers with minimal code-size impact
- FP load and store instructions
 - lwc1, ldc1, swc1, sdc1
 - e.g., ldc1 \$f8, 32(\$sp)

FP Instructions in MIPS

- Single-precision arithmetic
 - add.s, sub.s, mul.s, div.s
 - e.g., add.s \$f0, \$f1, \$f6
- Double-precision arithmetic
 - add.d, sub.d, mul.d, div.d
 - e.g., mul.d \$f4, \$f4, \$f6
- Single- and double-precision comparison
 - c. xx.s, c. xx.d (xx is eq, 1t, 1e, ...)
 - Sets or clears FP condition-code bit
 - e.g. c.lt.s \$f3, \$f4
- Branch on FP condition code true or false
 - bc1t, bc1f
 - e.g., bc1t TargetLabel

FP Example: ° F to ° C

C code:

```
float f2c (float fahr) {
  return ((5.0/9.0)*(fahr - 32.0));
}
```

- fahr in \$f12, result in \$f0, literals in global memory space
- Compiled MIPS code:

```
f2c: lwc1  $f16, const5($gp)
    lwc1  $f18, const9($gp)
    div.s  $f16, $f16, $f18
    lwc1  $f18, const32($gp)
    sub.s  $f18, $f12, $f18
    mul.s  $f0, $f16, $f18
    jr  $ra
```

FP Example: Array Multiplication

- $X = X + Y \times Z$
 - ullet All 32 imes 32 matrices, 64-bit double-precision elements
- C code:

Addresses of X, y, Z in \$a0, \$a1, \$a2, and i, j, k in \$s0, \$s1, \$s2

FP Example: Array Multiplication

MIPS code:

```
li $t1, 32
                     # $t1 = 32 (row size/loop end)
     $s0, 0
                     # i = 0; initialize 1st for loop
   Ίi
L1: li \$s1, 0 # j = 0; restart 2nd for loop
L2: 1i $s2, 0 # k = 0; restart 3rd for loop
   sll $t2, $s0, 5  # $t2 = i * 32  (size of row of x)
   addu t2, t2, t2, t2 = i * size(row) + j
   sll $t2, $t2, 3 # $t2 = byte offset of [i][j]
   addu t2, a0, t2 \# t2 = byte address of <math>x[i][j]
   1.d f4, O(t2) # f4 = 8 bytes of x[i][j]
L3: s11 $t0, $s2, 5 # $t0 = k * 32 (size of row of z)
   addu t0, t0, s1 # t0 = k * size(row) + j
   sll $t0, $t0, 3 # $t0 = byte offset of [k][j]
   addu t0, a2, t0 # t0 = byte address of <math>z[k][j]
   1.d f16, 0(t0) # f16 = 8 bytes of z[k][j]
```

FP Example: Array Multiplication

...

```
\$11 \$t0, \$s0, 5    # \$t0 = i*32 (size of row of y)
addu $t0, $t0, $s2  # $t0 = i*size(row) + k
sll $t0, $t0, 3 # $t0 = byte offset of [i][k]
addu $t0, $a1, $t0  # $t0 = byte address of y[i][k]
1.d f18, 0(t0) # f18 = 8 bytes of y[i][k]
mul.d f16, f18, f16 # f16 = y[i][k] * z[k][j]
add.d f4, f4, f4 # f4=x[i][j] + y[i][k]*z[k][j]
addiu $s2, $s2, 1 # $k k + 1
bne $s2, $t1, L3 # if (k != 32) go to L3
s.d f4, 0(t2) # x[i][j] = f4
addiu $s1, $s1, 1 # $j = j + 1
bne $s1, $t1, L2 # if (j != 32) go to L2
addiu $50, $50, 1 # $i = i + 1
bne $s0, $t1, L1 # if (i != 32) go to L1
```

Accurate Arithmetic

- IEEE Std 754 specifies additional rounding control
 - Extra bits of precision (guard, round, sticky)
 - Choice of rounding modes
 - Allows programmer to fine-tune numerical behavior of a computation
- Example:
 - 2.56+234
 - ◆ 2.37 vs. 2.36
- Trade-off between hardware complexity, performance, and market requirements

Subword Parallellism

- Graphics and audio applications can take advantage of performing simultaneous operations on short vectors
 - Example: 128-bit adder:
 - Sixteen 8-bit adds
 - Eight 16-bit adds
 - Four 32-bit adds
- Also called data-level parallelism, vector parallelism, or Single Instruction, Multiple Data (SIMD)

Streaming SIMD Extension 2 (SSE2)

- Adds 4 × 128-bit registers
 - Extended to 8 registers in AMD64/EM64T
- Can be used for multiple FP operands
 - \bullet 2 \times 64-bit double precision
 - \bullet 4 \times 32-bit double precision
 - Instructions operate on them simultaneously
 - Single-Instruction Multiple-Data

Unoptimized code:

```
1. void dgemm (int n, double* A, double* B, double* C)
2. {
3. for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i)
  for (int j = 0; j < n; ++j)
4.
5.
      double cij = C[i+j*n]; /* cij = C[i][j] */
6.
7.
      for (int k = 0; k < n; k++)
      cij += A[i+k*n] * B[k+j*n]; /* cij += A[i][k]*B[k][j] */
8.
9.
      C[i+j*n] = cij; /* C[i][j] = cij */
10.
11. }
```

x86 assembly code:

```
1. vmovsd (%r10), %xmm0 # Load 1 element of C into %xmm0
2. mov %rsi, %rcx
                 # register %rcx = %rsi
3. xor %eax, %eax # register %eax = 0
4. vmovsd (%rcx), %xmm1 # Load 1 element of B into %xmm1
5. add r9, rcx # register rcx = rcx + register
6. vmulsd (%r8,%rax,8),%xmm1,%xmm1 # Multiply %xmm1,
  element of A
7. add $0x1,%rax
                   # register %rax = %rax + 1
8. cmp %eax, %edi # compare %eax to %edi
9. vaddsd %xmm1, %xmm0, %xmm0 # Add %xmm1, %xmm0
10. jq 30 \langle dqemm + 0x30 \rangle # jump if eax > edi
11. add \$0x1,\$r11d # register \$r11 = \$r11 + 1
12. vmovsd %xmm0, (%r10) # Store %xmm0 into C element
```

Optimized C code:

```
1. #include <x86intrin.h>
2. void dgemm (int n, double* A, double* B, double* C)
3. {
4. for ( int i = 0; i < n; i+=4 )
5. for (int j = 0; j < n; j++) {
6.
      m256d c0 = mm256 load pd(C+i+j*n); /* c0 = C[i][j]
  */
7.
     for ( int k = 0; k < n; k++ )
8.
      c0 = mm256 \text{ add pd(}c0, /* c0 += A[i][k]*B[k][j] */
9.
                 mm256 \text{ mul pd}(mm256 \text{ load pd}(A+i+k*n),
10.
                 mm256 broadcast sd(B+k+j*n));
11.
     mm256 \text{ store pd}(C+i+j*n, c0); /* C[i][j] = c0 */
12.
13. }
```

Optimized x86 assembly code:

```
1. vmovapd (%r11),%ymm0
                            # Load 4 elements of C into %ymm0
2. mov %rbx,%rcx
                          # register %rcx = %rbx
3. xor %eax, %eax
                         # register %eax = 0
4. vbroadcastsd (%rax, %r8,1), %ymm1 # Make 4 copies of B element
5. add $0x8, %rax
                          # register %rax = %rax + 8
6. vmulpd (%rcx), %ymm1, %ymm1 # Parallel mul %ymm1, 4 A elements
7. add %r9,%rcx
                            # register %rcx = %rcx + %r9
8. cmp %r10,%rax
                            # compare %r10 to %rax
9. vaddpd %ymm1, %ymm0, %ymm0 # Parallel add %ymm1, %ymm0
                            # jump if not %r10 != %rax
10. jne 50 < dgemm + 0x50 >
                            # register % esi = % esi + 1
11. add $0x1, %esi
12. vmovapd %ymm0, (%r11) # Store %ymm0 into 4 C elements
```

Concluding Remarks

- Bits have no inherent meaning
 - Interpretation depends on the instructions applied
- Computer representations of numbers
 - Finite range and precision
 - Need to account for this in programs
- ISAs support arithmetic
 - Signed and unsigned integers
 - Floating-point approximation to reals
- Bounded range and precision
 - Operations can overflow and underflow

Homework

- Due on April 9 23:55pm
- **3**.27, 3.29, 3.30.