

Computer Architecture

Lecture 4&5: Arithmetic for Computer



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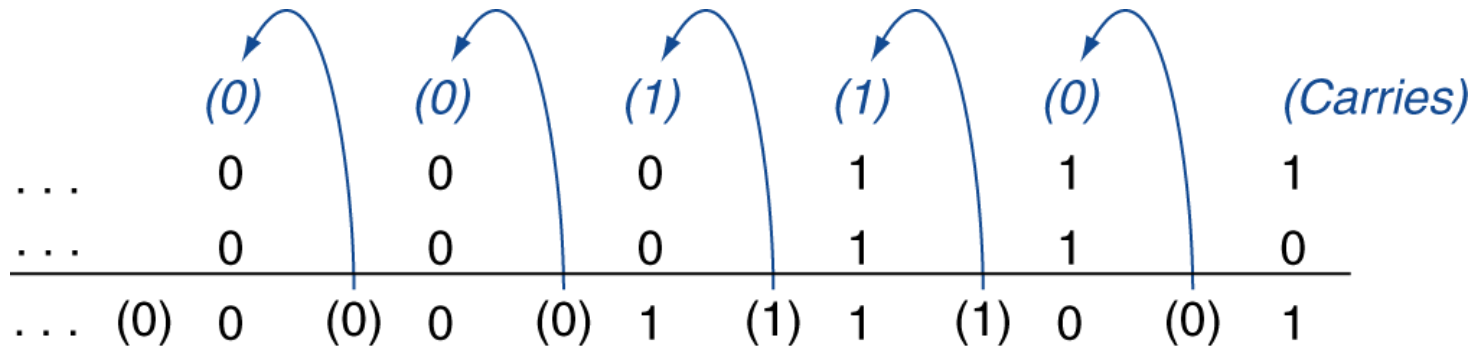


Arithmetic for Computers

- Operations on integers
 - Addition and subtraction
 - Multiplication and division
 - Dealing with overflow
- Floating-point real numbers
 - Representation and operations

Integer Addition

□ Example: $7 + 6$



- Overflow if result out of range
 - Adding +ve and -ve operands, no overflow
 - Adding two +ve operands
 - Overflow if result sign is 1
 - Adding two -ve operands
 - Overflow if result sign is 0

Integer Subtraction

- Add negation of second operand

- Example: $7 - 6 = 7 + (-6)$

+7:	0000	0000	...	0000	0111
-6:	1111	1111	...	1111	1010
+1:	0000	0000	...	0000	0001

- Overflow if result out of range

- Subtracting two +ve or two -ve operands, no overflow
- Subtracting +ve from -ve operand
 - Overflow if result sign is 0
- Subtracting -ve from +ve operand
 - Overflow if result sign is 1

Dealing with Overflow

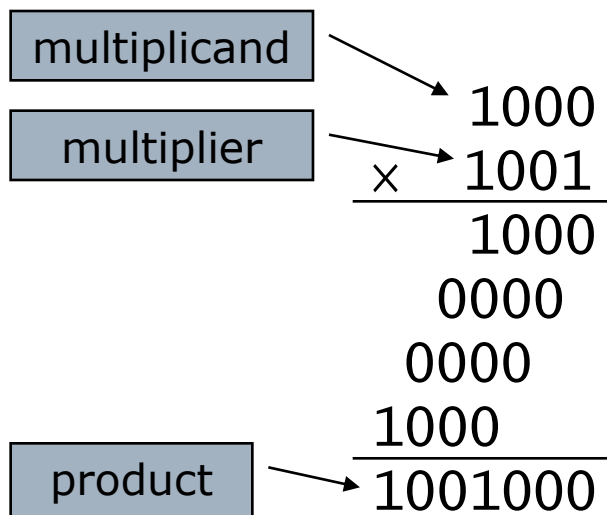
- Some languages (e.g., C) ignore overflow
 - Use MIPS `addu`, `addui`, `subu` instructions
- Other languages (e.g., Ada, Fortran) require raising an exception
 - Use MIPS `add`, `addi`, `sub` instructions
 - On **overflow**, invoke exception handler
 - Save PC in exception program counter (EPC) register
 - Jump to predefined handler address
 - `mfc0` (move from coprocessor reg) instruction can retrieve EPC value, to return after corrective action

Arithmetic for Multimedia

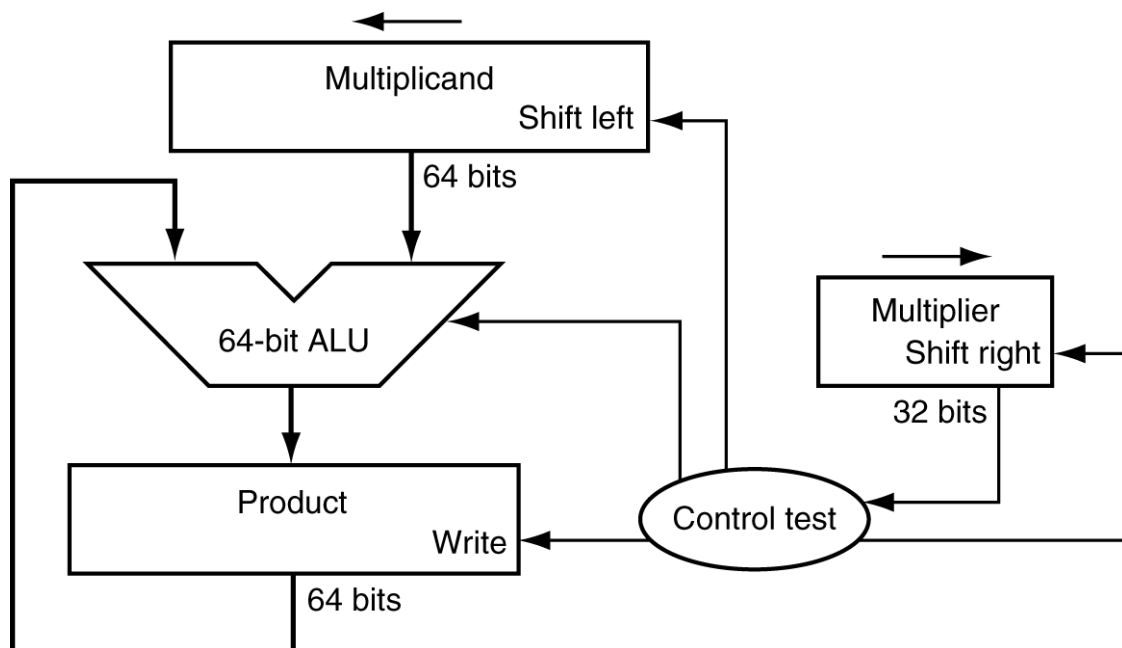
- Graphics and media processing operates on vectors of 8-bit and 16-bit data
 - Use 64-bit adder, with partitioned carry chain
 - Operate on 8×8-bit, 4×16-bit, or 2×32-bit vectors
 - SIMD (single-instruction, multiple-data)
- Saturating operations
 - On overflow, result is largest representable value
 - c.f. 2s-complement modulo arithmetic
 - E.g., clipping in audio, saturation in video

Multiplication

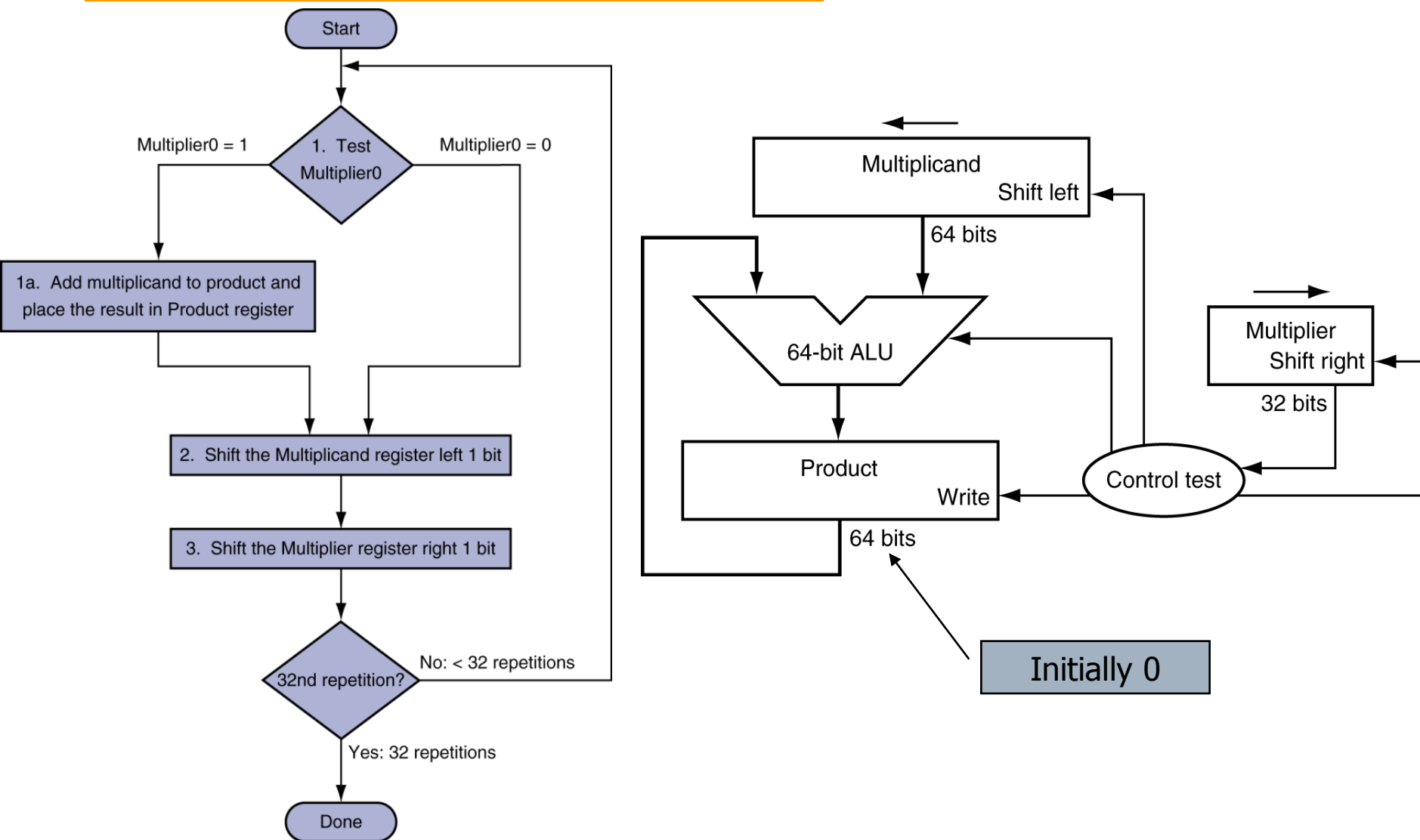
- Start with long-multiplication approach



Length of product is the sum of operand lengths



Multiplication Hardware

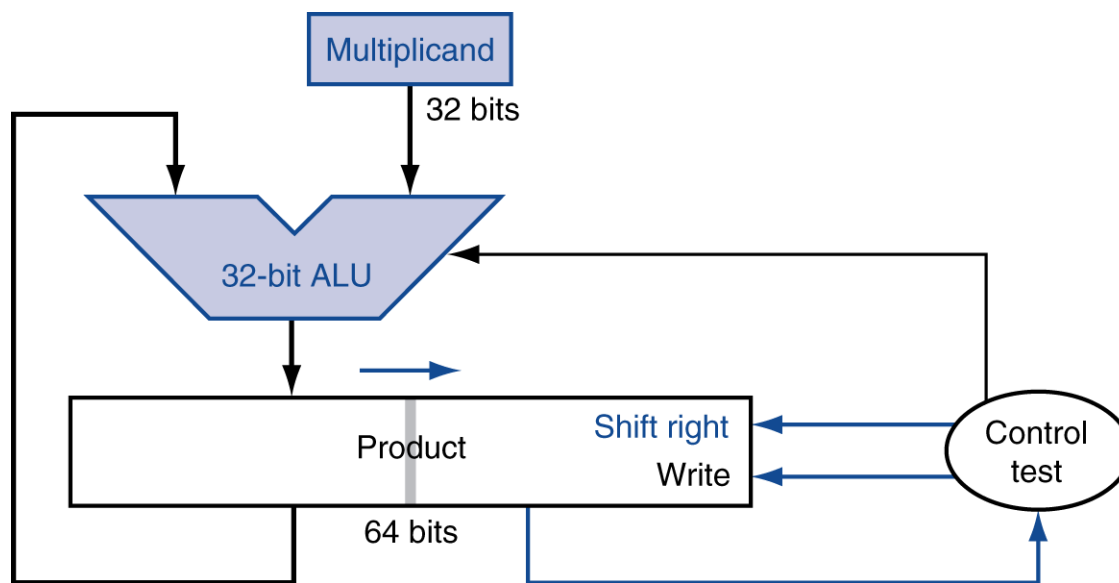


Multiply example using Algorithm

Iteration	Step	Multiplier	Multiplicand	Product
0	Initial values	0011	0000 0010	0000 0000
1	1a: $1 \Rightarrow \text{Prod} = \text{Prod} + \text{Mcand}$	0011	0000 0010	0000 0010
	2: Shift left Multiplicand	0011	0000 0100	0000 0010
	3: Shift right Multiplier	0001	0000 0100	0000 0010
2	1a: $1 \Rightarrow \text{Prod} = \text{Prod} + \text{Mcand}$	0001	0000 0100	0000 0110
	2: Shift left Multiplicand	0001	0000 1000	0000 0110
	3: Shift right Multiplier	0000	0000 1000	0000 0110
3	1: $0 \Rightarrow$ no operation	0000	0000 1000	0000 0110
	2: Shift left Multiplicand	0000	0001 0000	0000 0110
	3: Shift right Multiplier	0000	0001 0000	0000 0110
4	1: $0 \Rightarrow$ no operation	0000	0001 0000	0000 0110
	2: Shift left Multiplicand	0000	0010 0000	0000 0110
	3: Shift right Multiplier	0000	0010 0000	0000 0110

Optimized Multiplier

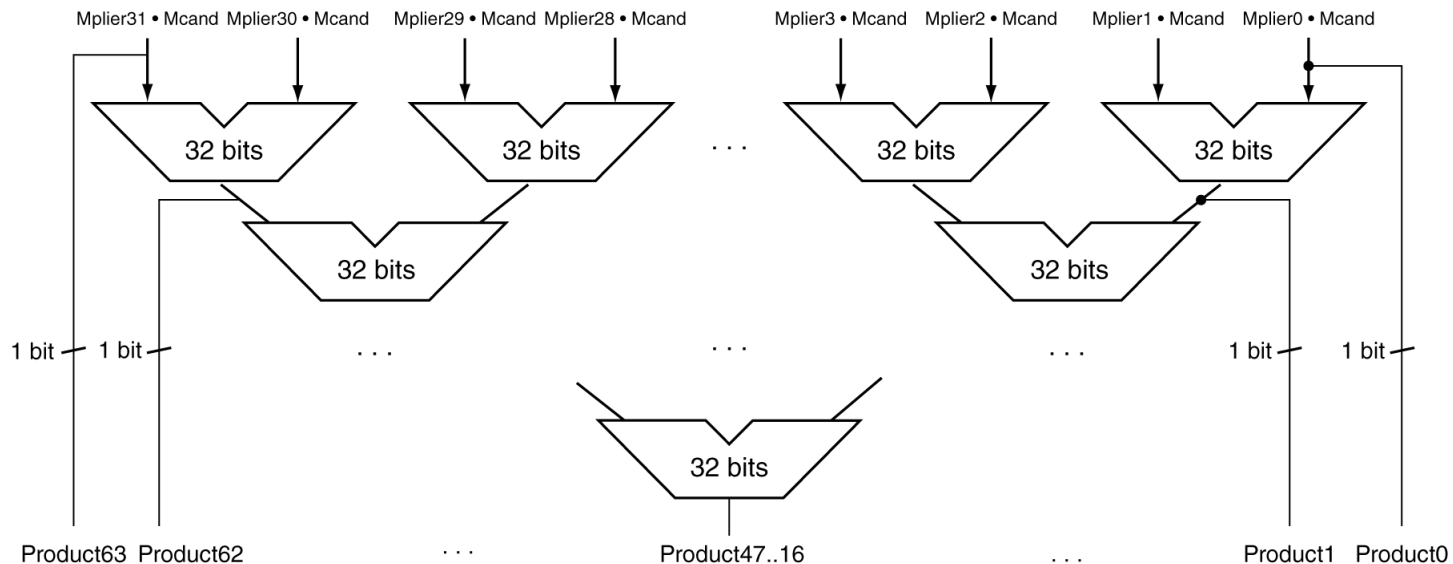
- Perform steps in parallel: add/shift



- One cycle per partial-product addition
 - That's ok, if frequency of multiplications is low

Faster Multiplier

- Uses multiple adders
 - Cost/performance tradeoff

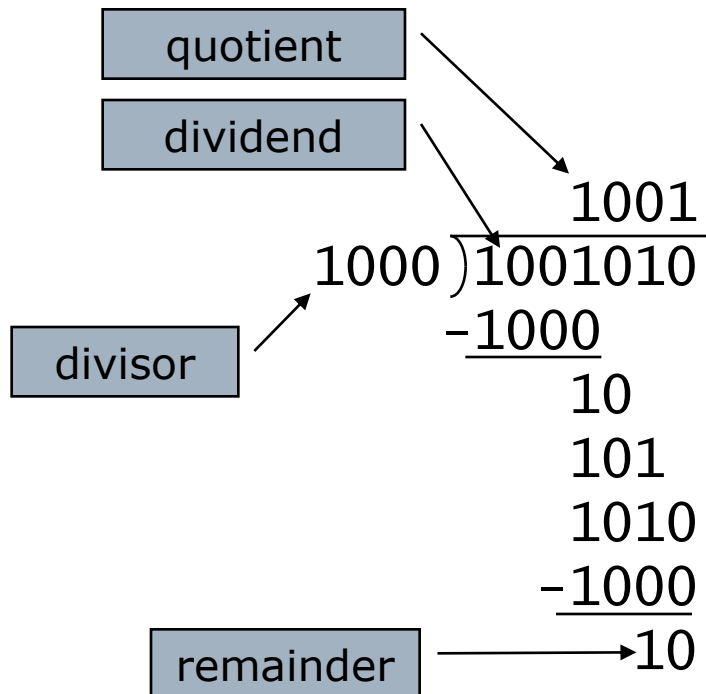


- Can be pipelined
 - Several multiplication performed in parallel

MIPS Multiplication

- Two 32-bit registers for product
 - HI: most-significant 32 bits
 - LO: least-significant 32-bits
- Instructions
 - `mult rs, rt / multu rs, rt`
 - 64-bit product in HI/LO
 - `mfhi rd / mflo rd`
 - Move from HI/LO to rd
 - Can test HI value to see if product overflows 32 bits
 - `mul rd, rs, rt`
 - Least-significant 32 bits of product → rd

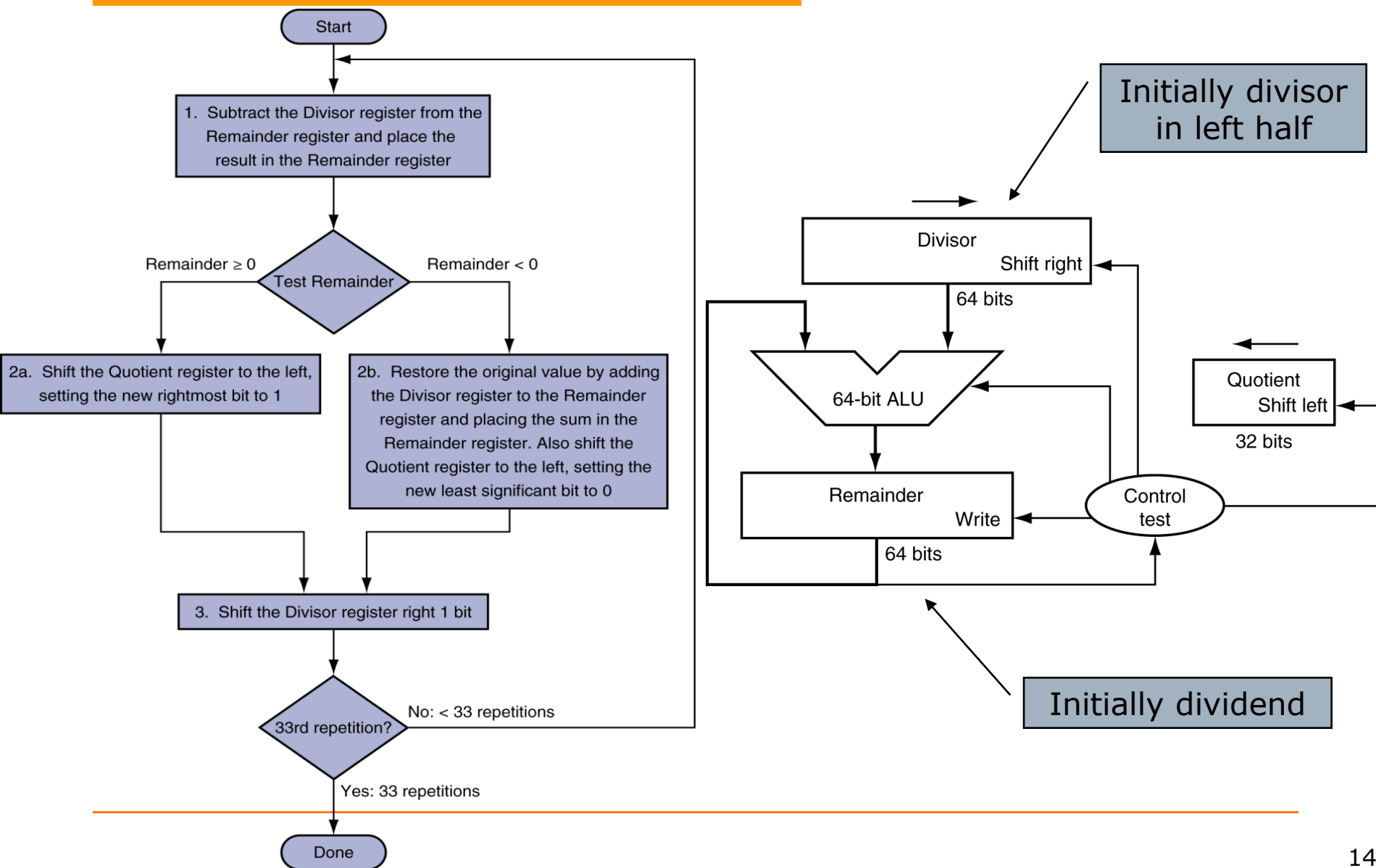
Division



n -bit operands yield n -bit quotient and remainder

- Check for 0 divisor
- Long division approach
 - If divisor \leq dividend bits
 - 1 bit in quotient, subtract
 - Otherwise
 - 0 bit in quotient, bring down next dividend bit
- Restoring division
 - Do the subtract, and if remainder goes < 0 , add divisor back
- Signed division
 - Divide using absolute values
 - Adjust sign of quotient and remainder as required

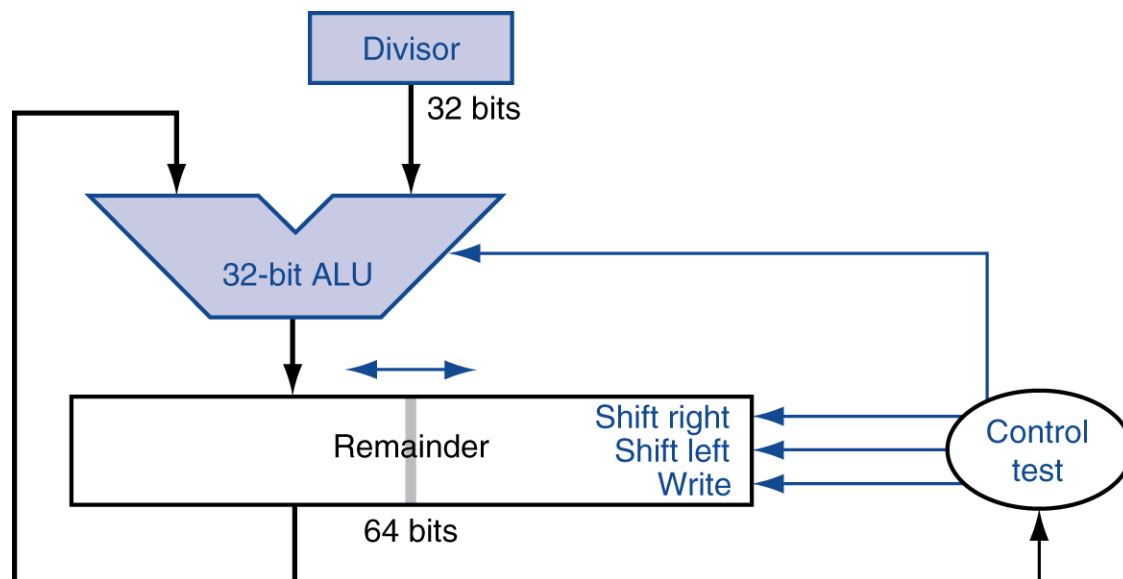
Division Hardware



Division example using Algorithm

Iteration	Step	Quotient	Divisor	Remainder
0	Initial values	0000	0010 0000	0000 0111
1	1: Rem = Rem - Div	0000	0010 0000	①110 0111
	2b: Rem < 0 \Rightarrow +Div, sll Q, Q0 = 0	0000	0010 0000	0000 0111
	3: Shift Div right	0000	0001 0000	0000 0111
2	1: Rem = Rem - Div	0000	0001 0000	①111 0111
	2b: Rem < 0 \Rightarrow +Div, sll Q, Q0 = 0	0000	0001 0000	0000 0111
	3: Shift Div right	0000	0000 1000	0000 0111
3	1: Rem = Rem - Div	0000	0000 1000	①111 1111
	2b: Rem < 0 \Rightarrow +Div, sll Q, Q0 = 0	0000	0000 1000	0000 0111
	3: Shift Div right	0000	0000 0100	0000 0111
4	1: Rem = Rem - Div	0000	0000 0100	①000 0011
	2a: Rem \geq 0 \Rightarrow sll Q, Q0 = 1	0001	0000 0100	0000 0011
	3: Shift Div right	0001	0000 0010	0000 0011
5	1: Rem = Rem - Div	0001	0000 0010	①000 0001
	2a: Rem \geq 0 \Rightarrow sll Q, Q0 = 1	0011	0000 0010	0000 0001
	3: Shift Div right	0011	0000 0001	0000 0001

Optimized Divider



- ❑ One cycle per partial-remainder subtraction
- ❑ Looks a lot like a multiplier!
 - Same hardware can be used for both

Faster Division

- Can't use parallel hardware as in multiplier
 - Subtraction is conditional on sign of remainder
- Faster dividers (e.g. SRT division) generate multiple quotient bits per step
 - Still require multiple steps

MIPS Division

- Use HI/LO registers for result
 - HI: 32-bit remainder
 - LO: 32-bit quotient
- Instructions
 - `div rs, rt` / `divu rs, rt`
 - No overflow or divide-by-0 checking
 - Software must perform checks if required
 - Use `mfhi`, `mflo` to access result

Floating Point

□ Representation for non-integral numbers

- Including very small and very large numbers

□ Like scientific notation

- -2.34×10^{56}

- $+0.002 \times 10^{-4}$

- $+987.02 \times 10^9$

normalized

not normalized

□ 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

single: 8 bits
double: 11 bits

single: 23 bits
double: 52 bits



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

- S: sign bit (0 \Rightarrow non-negative, 1 \Rightarrow negative)
- Normalize significand: $1.0 \leq |\text{significand}| < 2.0$
 - Always has a leading pre-binary-point 1 bit, so no need to represent it explicitly (hidden bit)
 - Significand is Fraction with the “1.” restored
- Exponent: excess representation: actual exponent + Bias
 - Ensures exponent is unsigned
 - Single: Bias = 127; Double: Bias = 1023

Single-Precision Range

- Exponents 00000000 and 11111111 reserved
 - Smallest value
 - Exponent: 00000001
 $\Rightarrow \text{actual exponent} = 1 - 127 = -126$
 - Fraction: 000...00 $\Rightarrow \text{significand} = 1.0$
 - $\pm 1.0 \times 2^{-126} \approx \pm 1.2 \times 10^{-38}$
 - Largest value
 - exponent: 11111110
 $\Rightarrow \text{actual exponent} = 254 - 127 = +127$
 - Fraction: 111...11 $\Rightarrow \text{significand} \approx 2.0$
 - $\pm 2.0 \times 2^{+127} \approx \pm 3.4 \times 10^{+38}$
-

Double-Precision Range

- Exponents 0000...00 and 1111...11 reserved
- Smallest value
 - Exponent: 000000000001
 \Rightarrow 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
 - Exponent: 111111111110
 \Rightarrow actual exponent = $2046 - 1023 = +1023$
 - 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
 - Single: approx 2^{-23}
 - Equivalent to $23 \times \log_{10} 2 \approx 23 \times 0.3 \approx 6$ decimal digits of precision
 - Double: approx 2^{-52}
 - Equivalent to $52 \times \log_{10} 2 \approx 52 \times 0.3 \approx 16$ decimal digits of precision

Floating-Point Example

Bin	Dec
2^{-1}	0.5
2^{-2}	0.25
2^{-3}	0.125
2^{-4}	0.0625
2^{-5}	0.03125
2^{-6}	0.015625
2^{-7}	0.0078125
2^{-8}	0.00390625

□ Represent -0.75

■ $-0.75 = (-1)^1 \times 1.1_2 \times 2^{-1}$

■ $S = 1$

■ Fraction = $1000\dots00_2$

■ Exponent = $-1 + \text{Bias}$

□ Single: $-1 + 127 = 126 = 01111110_2$

□ Double: $-1 + 1023 = 1022 = 011111111110_2$

□ Single: $1011111101000\dots00$

□ Double: $1011111111101000\dots00$

□ Exercise1: Represent 18.28515625 in 32 bits FPNS

□ Exercise2: Represent -100.328125 in 32 bits FPNS

Floating-Point Example

- What number is represented by the single-precision float

11000000101000...00

- $S = 1$

- Fraction = $01000...00_2$

- Exponent = $10000001_2 = 129$

- $$\begin{aligned} x &= (-1)^1 \times (1 + 01_2) \times 2^{(129 - 127)} \\ &= (-1) \times 1.25 \times 2^2 \\ &= -5.0 \end{aligned}$$

Denormal Numbers

- Exponent = 000...0 \Rightarrow hidden bit is 0

$$x = (-1)^S \times (0 + \text{Fraction}) \times 2^{-\text{Bias}}$$

- Smaller than normal numbers
 - allow for gradual underflow, with diminishing precision
- Denormal with fraction = 000...0

$$x = (-1)^S \times (0 + 0) \times 2^{-\text{Bias}} = \pm 0.0$$

Two representations
of 0.0!

Infinites and NaNs

- Exponent = 111...1, Fraction = 000...0
 - \pm Infinity
 - Can be used in subsequent calculations, avoiding need for overflow check
- Exponent = 111...1, Fraction \neq 000...0
 - Not-a-Number (NaN)
 - Indicates illegal or undefined result
 - e.g., 0.0 / 0.0
 - Can be used in subsequent calculations

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

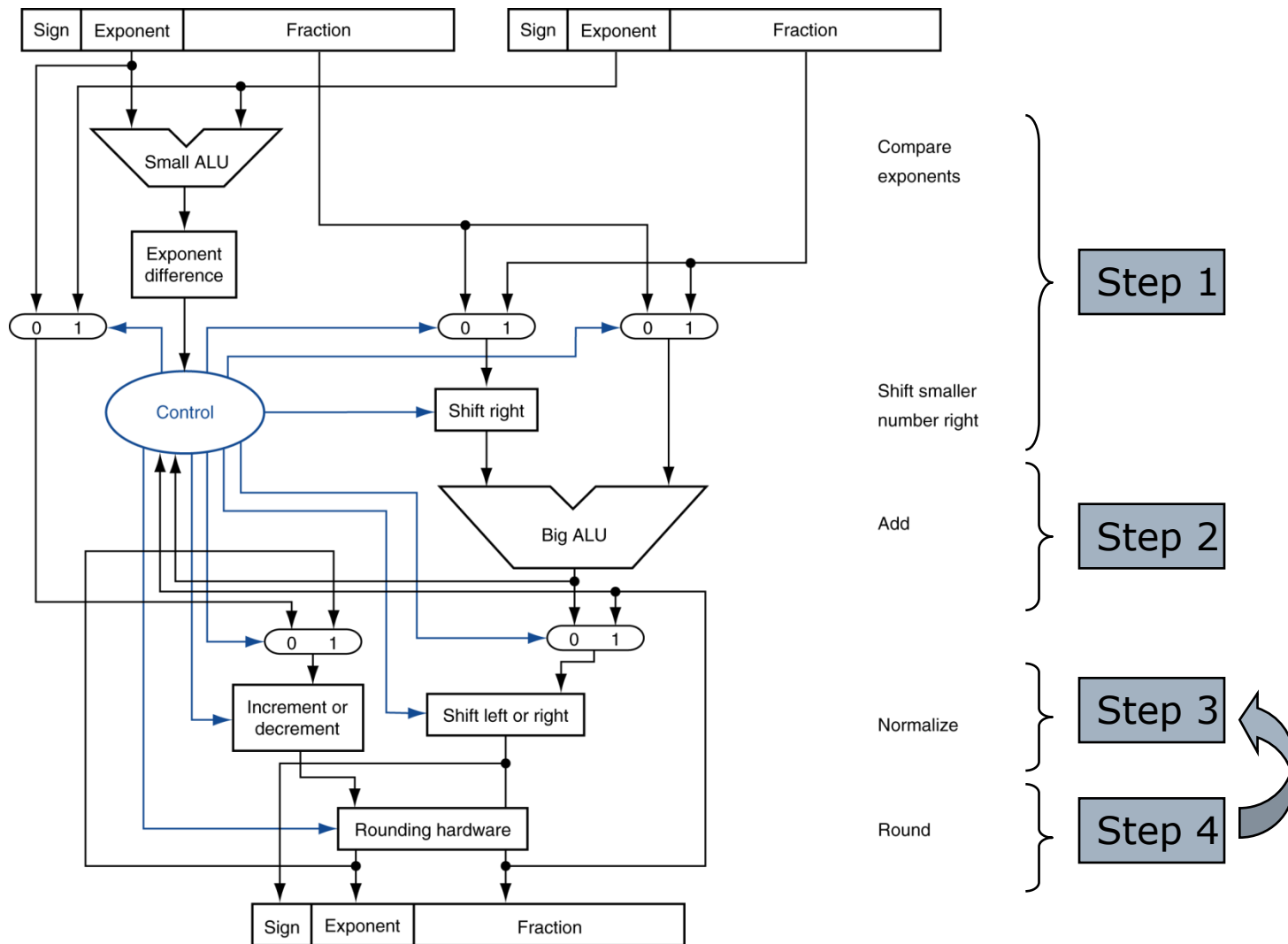
Floating-Point Addition

- 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



Floating-Point Multiplication

- Consider a 4-digit decimal example
 - $1.110 \times 10^{10} \times 9.200 \times 10^{-5}$
- 1. Add exponents
 - For biased exponents, subtract bias from sum
 - New exponent = $10 + -5 = 5$
- 2. Multiply significands
 - $1.110 \times 9.200 = 10.212 \Rightarrow 10.212 \times 10^5$
- 3. Normalize result & check for over/underflow
 - 1.0212×10^6
- 4. Round and renormalize if necessary
 - 1.021×10^6
- 5. Determine sign of result from signs of operands
 - $+1.021 \times 10^6$

Floating-Point Multiplication

- Now consider a 4-digit binary example
 - $1.000_2 \times 2^{-1} \times -1.110_2 \times 2^{-2}$ (0.5×-0.4375)
- 1. Add exponents
 - Unbiased: $-1 + -2 = -3$
 - Biased: $(-1 + 127) + (-2 + 127) = -3 + 254 - 127 = -3 + 127$
- 2. Multiply significands
 - $1.000_2 \times 1.110_2 = 1.110_2 \Rightarrow 1.110_2 \times 2^{-3}$
- 3. Normalize result & check for over/underflow
 - $1.110_2 \times 2^{-3}$ (no change) with no over/underflow
- 4. Round and renormalize if necessary
 - $1.110_2 \times 2^{-3}$ (no change)
- 5. Determine sign: $+ve \times -ve \Rightarrow -ve$
 - $-1.110_2 \times 2^{-3} = -0.21875$

FP Arithmetic Hardware

- FP multiplier is of similar complexity to FP adder
 - But uses a multiplier for significands instead of an adder
- FP arithmetic hardware usually does
 - Addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, reciprocal, square-root
 - $\text{FP} \leftrightarrow \text{integer}$ 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, ...`
 - Release 2 of MIPS ISA supports 32 × 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, lt, le, ...`)
 - 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)
     lwc2    $f18, const9($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

□ $X = X + Y \times Z$

- All 32×32 matrices, 64-bit double-precision elements

□ C code:

```
void mm (double x[][],
         double y[][], double z[][]) {
    int i, j, k;
    for (i = 0; i != 32; i = i + 1)
        for (j = 0; j != 32; j = j + 1)
            for (k = 0; k != 32; k = k + 1)
                x[i][j] = x[i][j]
                    + y[i][k] * z[k][j];
}
```

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

...

FP Example: Array Multiplication

...

sll	\$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]
l.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, \$f16	# 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	\$s0, \$s0, 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
 - Not all FP units implement all options
 - Most programming languages and FP libraries just use defaults
 - Trade-off between hardware complexity, performance, and market requirements
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Enjoy !!!

Q&A