

UNSIGNED INTEGERS Figure 9.7 illustrates the multiplication of unsigned binary integers, as might be carried out using paper and pencil. Several important observations can be made:

1. Multiplication involves the generation of partial products, one for each digit in the multiplier. These partial products are then summed to produce the final product.
2. The partial products are easily defined. When the multiplier bit is 0, the partial product is 0. When the multiplier is 1, the partial product is the multiplicand.

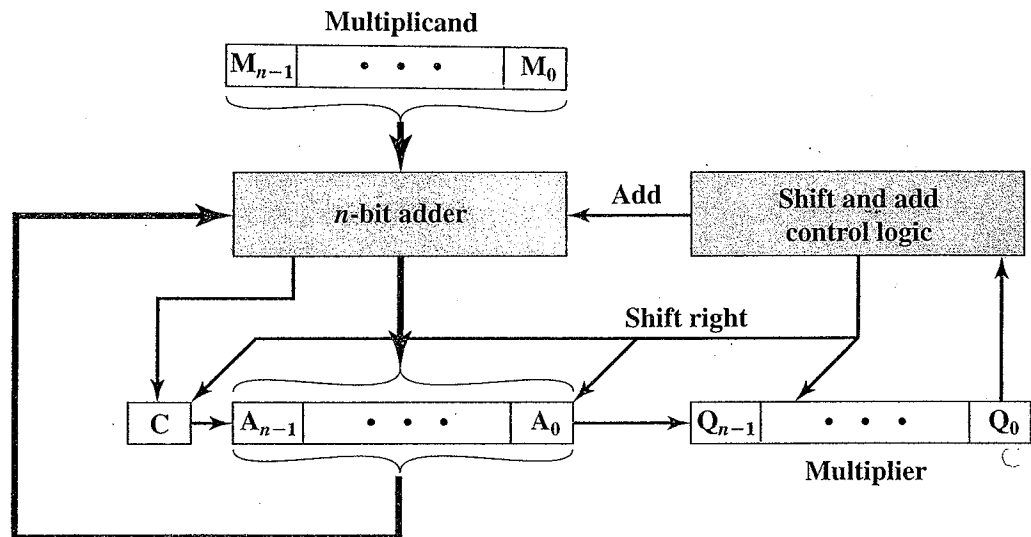
| | |
|----------|---------------------------|
| 1011 | Multiplicand (11) |
| ×1101 | Multiplier (13) |
| 1011 | } Partial products |
| 0000 | |
| 1011 | |
| 1011 | |
| 10001111 | Product (143) |

Figure 9.7 Multiplication of Unsigned Binary Integers

3. The total product is produced by summing the partial products. For this operation, each successive partial product is shifted one position to the left relative to the preceding partial product.
4. The multiplication of two n -bit binary integers results in a product of up to $2n$ bits in length (e.g., $11 \times 11 = 1001$).

Compared with the pencil-and-paper approach, there are several things we can do to make computerized multiplication more efficient. First, we can perform a running addition on the partial products rather than waiting until the end. This eliminates the need for storage of all the partial products; fewer registers are needed. Second, we can save some time on the generation of partial products. For each 1 on the multiplier, an add and a shift operation are required; but for each 0, only a shift is required.

Figure 9.8a shows a possible implementation employing these measures. The multiplier and multiplicand are loaded into two registers (Q and M). A third register,



(a) Block diagram

| C | A | Q | M | | |
|---|------|------|------|----------------|--------------|
| 0 | 0000 | 1101 | 1011 | Initial values | |
| 0 | 1011 | 1101 | 1011 | Add | First cycle |
| 0 | 0101 | 1110 | 1011 | Shift | |
| 0 | 0010 | 1111 | 1011 | Shift | Second cycle |
| 0 | 1101 | 1111 | 1011 | Add | |
| 0 | 0110 | 1111 | 1011 | Shift | Third cycle |
| 1 | 0001 | 1111 | 1011 | Add | |
| 0 | 1000 | 1111 | 1011 | Shift | Fourth cycle |
| | | | | | |

(b) Example from Figure 9.7 (product in A, Q)

Figure 9.8 Hardware Implementation of Unsigned Binary Multiplication

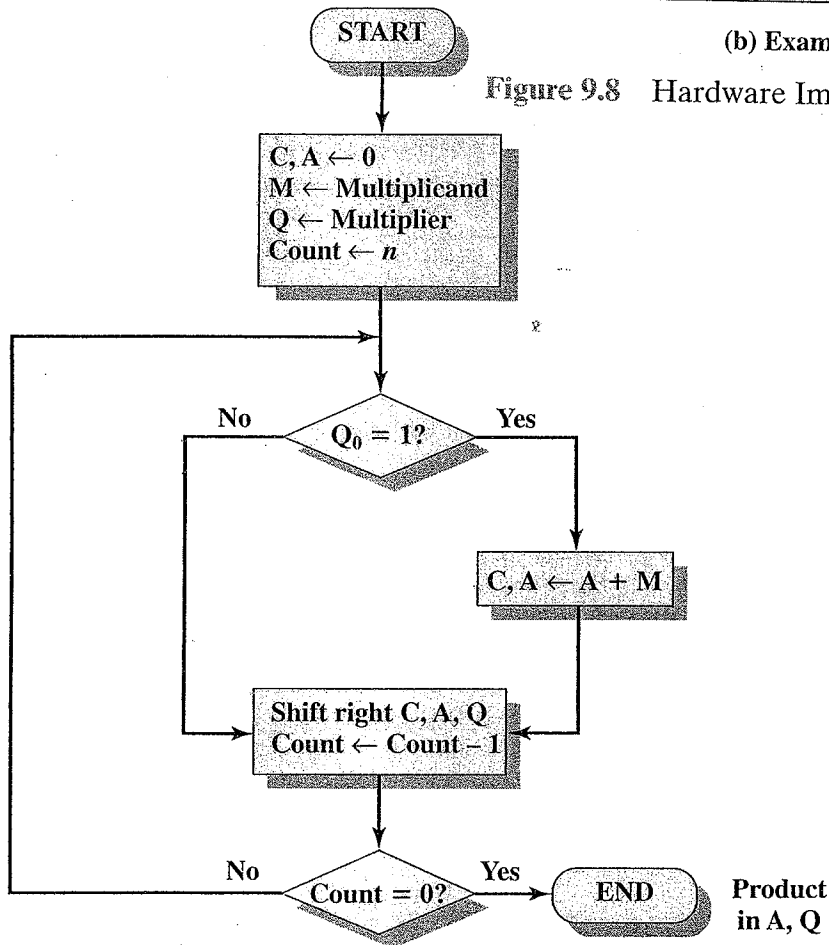


Figure 9.9 Flowchart for Unsigned Binary Multiplication

the A register, is also needed and is initially set to 0. There is also a 1-bit C register, initialized to 0, which holds a potential carry bit resulting from addition.

The operation of the multiplier is as follows. Control logic reads the bits of the multiplier one at a time. If Q_0 is 1, then the multiplicand is added to the A register and the result is stored in the A register, with the C bit used for overflow. Then all of the bits of the C, A, and Q registers are shifted to the right one bit, so that the C bit goes into A_{n-1} , A_0 goes into Q_{n-1} , and Q_0 is lost. If Q_0 is 0, then no addition is performed, just the shift. This process is repeated for each bit of the original multiplier. The resulting $2n$ -bit product is contained in the A and Q registers. A flowchart of the operation is shown in Figure 9.9, and an example is given in Figure 9.8b. Note that on the second cycle, when the multiplier bit is 0, there is no add operation.