COMS12200 lecture: week #6

Quote

I do not like \times as a symbol for multiplication, as it is easily confounded with x; often I simply relate two quantities by an interposed dot and indicate multiplication by $ZC \cdot LM$.

- Leibniz

- ► Goal: develop a circuit for integer multiplication which
 - 1. functions correctly, and
 - 2. is efficient (wrt. number of gates and critical path).
- ► This is important in that
 - 1. there is a vast design space of possible approaches, because
 - 2. multiplication represents one of the more complex operations in an ALU, and hence a potential bottleneck.







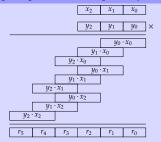
Basic Concepts (1)

- ► An unsigned, integer multiplier takes two *n*-bit inputs
 - 1. x, the **multiplicand** that is multiplied, and
 - 2. *y*, the **multiplier** that does the multiplying

and computes their 2*n*-bit **product** *r* as output.

Basic Concepts (2)

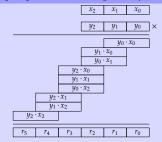
Example (operand scanning, |x| = |y| = 3)



Notice that

- 1. an outer-loop steps through limbs of y, say y_i ,
- 2. an inner-loop steps through limbs of x, say x_j .

Example (product scanning, |x| = |y| = 3)



Notice that

- 1. an outer-loop steps through limbs of r, say r_i ,
- 2. two inner-loops step through matching limbs of x and y, say x_i and x_i .

Basic Concepts (3)

► Scalar multiplication of *x* by *y* is simply repeated addition, i.e.,

$$x \cdot y = \underbrace{x + x + \dots + x + x}_{y \text{ terms}},$$

so if we select $y = 14_{(10)}$, then we obviously have

 Another way of look it, is inclusion of another "weight" to the digits that describe y; if we write y out in binary then

$$x \cdot y \equiv x \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} y_i \cdot 2^i \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} y_i \cdot x \cdot 2^i$$

and, as such, if $y = 14_{(10)} = 1110_{(2)}$ then

Basic Concepts (4)

- If we bracket this in a nicer way, we can accumulate the result rather than express it as separate terms ...
- ... applying **Horner's rule**; for $y = 14_{(10)} = 1110_{(2)}$ we write

```
y \cdot x = y_0 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (y_1 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (y_2 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (y_3 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (0))))
= 0 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (1 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (1 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (0))))
= 0 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (1 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (1 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (0)))
= 0 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (1 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (1 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (1 \cdot x + 0)))
= 0 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (1 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (1 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (1 \cdot x + 0)))
= 0 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (1 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (1 \cdot x + 2 \cdot x + 0))
= 0 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (1 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (3 \cdot x + 0))
= 0 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (1 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x + 0)
= 0 \cdot x + 2 \cdot (7 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x + 0)
= 0 \cdot x + 14 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x
= 14 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x
```

Example Designs (1)

► Idea:

- reading the result of applying the Horner Rule "inside-out" hints at a loop based on an accumulator t,
- ▶ that is, if $y_i = 1$ we set t to $2 \cdot t + x$ or $2 \cdot t$ otherwise.

Algorithm (MULTIPLY)

Input: Two unsigned, *n*-bit, base-2 integers *x* and *y*

Output: An unsigned, 2*n*-bit, base-2 integer

$$r = y \cdot x$$

for
$$i = n - 1$$
 downto 0 step -1 do

 $3 \mid t \leftarrow 2 \cdot t$

 $t \leftarrow 0$

- 4 **if** $y_i = 1$ then
- $5 \qquad | t \leftarrow t + x$
- 6 end
- 7 end
- 8 return t

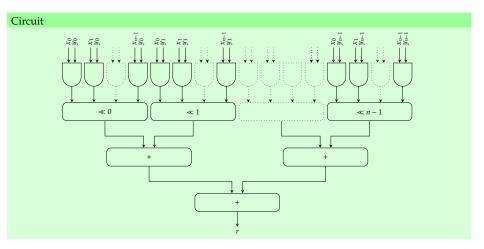
Example

Setting n=4 and $y=14_{(10)}=1110_{(2)}$, the algorithm performs

i	t	y_i	ť	
	0			
3	0	1	x	$t' \leftarrow 2 \cdot t + x$
2	x	1	3 · x	$t' \leftarrow 2 \cdot t + x$
1	$3 \cdot x$	1	7 · x	$t' \leftarrow 2 \cdot t + x$
0	$7 \cdot x$	0	$14 \cdot x$	$t' \leftarrow 2 \cdot t$
	$14 \cdot x$			

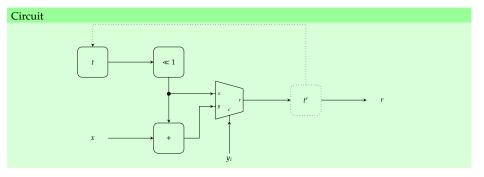
- ▶ Note that *n* is *fixed*, so we can either
 - 1. unroll the loop and produce a combinatorial circuit often termed a **tree multiplier**, or
 - 2. keep the loop and produce an iterative circuit often termed a bit-serial multiplier.

Example Designs (2)



- ▶ Bad: requires a larger data-path (although less of a control-path).
- ► Good: requires less steps (i.e., 1) to compute a result, meaning shorter latency.

Example Designs (3)



- ▶ Bad: requires more steps (i.e., *n*) to compute a result, meaning longer latency.
- ► Good: requires a smaller data-path (although more of a control-path).

Booth Recoding (1)

▶ Question: what's the most efficient way to compute $15 \cdot x$?



Booth Recoding (1)

- ▶ Question: what's the most efficient way to compute $15 \cdot x$?
- Answer #1: shifts by fixed distances are "free", so

$$15 \cdot x = 1 \cdot x + 2 \cdot x + 4 \cdot x + 8 \cdot x$$

= $x + x \ll 1 + x \ll 2 + x \ll 3$

 Answer #2: remember we can do subtraction more or less for the same cost as addition, so

$$15 \cdot x = 16 \cdot x - 1 \cdot x$$
$$= x \ll 4 - x$$

- ▶ **Booth recoding** is basically a generalisation of the second approach
 - 1. spend some effort *before* multiplication to **recode** y into some y', then
 - 2. be more efficient *during* multiplication by using y'.

Booth Recoding (2)

- ► Idea:
 - take advantage of the fact that addition and subtraction are possible by
 - ► recoding *y* to eliminate "runs" of 1 or 0 bits.
- **Example:** given the 8-bit multiplier

$$30_{(10)} = 000111110_{(2)}$$

our strategy is as follows:

- For a sub-sequence of 1 bits between *i* and *j*, we treat the sub-sequence as a single digit of weight $2^{j+1} 2^i$.
- In this case i = 1 to j = 4, so we treat

$$2^4 + 2^3 + 2^2 + 2^1 = 30$$

as a single digit of weight

$$2^{4+1} - 2^1 = 2^5 - 2^1 = 30$$

 Now, instead of accumulating 4 partial products we just need to accumulate 2; this can clearly takes less steps.

Booth Recoding (3)

Example

Consider setting $x = 6_{(10)} = 00000110_{(2)}$ and $y = 30_{(10)} = 00011110_{(2)}$; using the iterative multiplier, we get

which requires accumulation of 4 non-zero partial products.

Booth Recoding (4)

Example

Consider setting $x = 6_{(10)} = 00000110_{(2)}$ and $y = 30_{(10)} = 00011110_{(2)}$; by first recoding y into y', we get

which requires accumulation of less non-zero partial products, i.e., 2 rather than 4.

Booth Recoding (5)

Example

Consider setting $x = 6_{(10)} = 00000110_{(2)}$ and $y = 5_{(10)} = 00000101_{(2)}$; by first recoding y into y', we get

which (still) requires accumulation of 4 non-zero partial products.

► Problem:

- in the worst-case, the recoding doesn't produce less non-zero partial products than in the standard iterative multiplier, and
- 2. we need a way to translate any theoretical advantage into a concrete improvement.

Booth Recoding (6)

- Solution: modified, radix-4 Booth recoding.
 - 1. reading right-to-left, group the recoded digits into pairs of the form (y'_i, y'_{i+1}) , then
 - 2. treat each pair as a single digit whose value is $y'_i + 2 \cdot y'_{i+1}$ per

meaning that y'_{i+1} has twice the weight of y'_i .

- Example:
 - the pair (-1, +1) represents $-1 + 2 \cdot + 1 = +1$, and
 - the pair (+1, -1) represents $+1 + 2 \cdot -1 = -1$.

Booth Recoding (7)

Example

Consider setting $x = 6_{(10)} = 00000110_{(2)}$ and $y = 5_{(10)} = 00000101_{(2)}$; by first recoding y into y' with the modified method, we get

x	=	$6_{(10)} \mapsto$									0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	
y	=	$5_{(10)} \mapsto$									0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1 >	×
y' (2)	=	$5_{(10)} \mapsto$									0	0	+1	0	+1	-1	+1	-1	
y' (4)	=	$5_{(10)} \mapsto$														+1		+1	
p_0		$+6_{(10)} \mapsto$									0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	
p_2	$= +1 \cdot x \cdot 2^2 =$	$+24_{(10)}\mapsto$							0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0			
p_4	$= 0 \cdot x \cdot 2^4 =$	$0_{(10)} \mapsto$					0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0					
p_6	$= 0 \cdot x \cdot 2^6 =$	$0_{(10)} \mapsto$			0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0							
r	=	30(10) →	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	

which

- 1. has a more reasonable number of non-zero partial products, and
- 2. makes the reduction in iterations clear as a result of considering digit pairs rather than individual digits

but means we now need to pre-shift partial products to cope with ± 2 digits.

Booth Recoding (8)

Algorithm (MULTIPLY-BOOTH-MODIFIED)

Input: An unsigned, *n*-bit, base-2 integer *x*, and a radix-4 Booth recoding $y'_{(4)}$ of some integer *y*

Output: An unsigned, 2n-bit, base-2 integer

```
r = y \cdot x
t \leftarrow 0
for i = |y'| - 1 downto 0 step -1 do
     t \leftarrow t \cdot 2^2
     if y'_i = -2 then
       t \leftarrow t - 2 \cdot x
     end
     else if y'_{i} = -1 then
       t \leftarrow t - x
     else if y'_i = +1 then
       t \leftarrow t + x
     end
     else if y'_i = +2 then
         t \leftarrow t + 2 \cdot x
     end
```

Example

Setting n = 4 and $y = 14_{(10)} = 1110_{(2)}$, the algorithm recodes y first into the radix-2 Booth encoding

$$\langle 0, -1, 0, 0, +1 \rangle$$

then the modified, radix-4 Booth encoding

$$\langle -2, 0, +1 \rangle$$

used as y'; then it performs

i	y'_i	t	t'	
		0		
2	+1	0	x	$t' \leftarrow 2^2 \cdot t + 1 \cdot x$
1	0	x	$4 \cdot x$	$t' \leftarrow 2^2 \cdot t + 1 \cdot x$ $t' \leftarrow 2^2 \cdot t$
0	-2	$4 \cdot x$	14 · x	$t' \leftarrow 2^2 \cdot t - 2 \cdot x$
		$14 \cdot x$		

noting that

- 1. $|y'| \simeq \frac{|y|}{2}$, and
- 2. in each step we multiply t by $2^2 = 4$ (not $2^1 = 2$ as before).

return t

Conclusions

Take away points:

- 1. Computer arithmetic is a broad topic with a rich history; there is usually a large design space of potential approaches.
- Even if you don't care about arithmetic circuits, understanding their design can be useful since you use them all the time ...
- 3. ... this needn't be too hard: most of the time, switching from b = 10 to b = 2 is the hardest step.
- 4. For multiplication, the important steps are to
 - understand representation of numbers,
 - construct and/or translate algorithms (and algorithmic optimisations) into concrete designs, and
 - find a trade-off between various quality metrics (e.g., efficiency and area) for the given use-case

plus, obviously, compute the correct result!

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