

COMPUTER ORGANIZATION

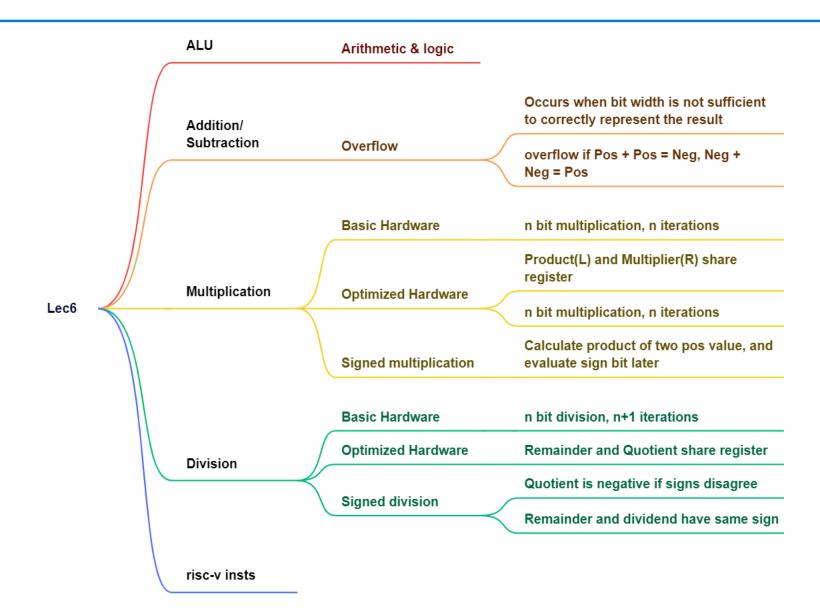
Lecture 7 Floating Point Arithmetic

2025 Spring

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Recap





Floating Point

- Recap: Fixed Point v.s. Floating Point
- Representation for non-integral numbers
 - Including very small and very large numbers
- Like scientific notation

$$-2.34 \times 10^{56}$$

•
$$+0.002 \times 10^{-4}$$

•
$$+987.02 \times 10^9$$

In binary

significand/mantissa exponent

Types float and double in C

normalized

not normalized



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

$$\pm 1.xxxxxxx_2 \times 2^y$$

single: 8 bits single: 23 bits

double: 11 bits double: 52 bits

S Exponent (y+Bias) Fraction (xxxx)

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

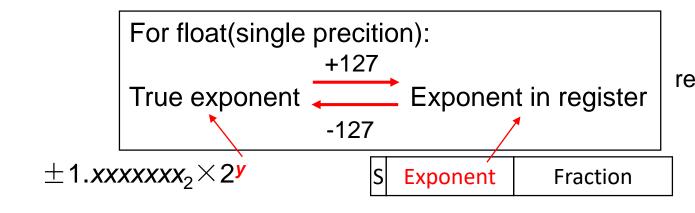
- S: sign bit $(0 \Rightarrow \text{non-negative}, 1 \Rightarrow \text{negative})$
- Normalize significand(规约化有效数字)
 - 1.0 ≤ |significand| < 2.0
 - Always has a leading pre-binary-point 1 bit, so no need to represent it explicitly (hidden one)
 - Significand is Fraction with the "1." restored
- Exponent: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

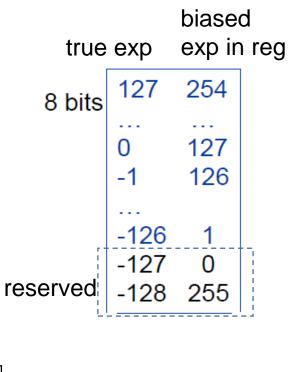
Discussion: Why we use biased notation in floating point representation?



Bias notation

- Why not use 2's complement for Exponent?
 - Biased exponent is always positive
 - Allows for a more efficient representation of small and large exponents
 - Simplifies the comparison of exponents.







Example 1: Decimal to FP

- Represent –0.75
 - $-0.75_{\text{ten}} = (-1)^1 \times 1.1_2 \times 2^{-1}$
 - S = 1
 - Fraction = $1000...00_2$
 - Exponent = -1 + Bias
 - Single: $-1 + 127 = 126 = 011111110_2$
 - Double: $-1 + 1023 = 1022 = 011111111110_2$
- Single: 1_01111110_1000...00
- Double: 1_01111111110_1000...00 52bits

Exercise: Represent 24.5_{ten} in single-precision FP

- Sign bit = ?
- Fraction = ?
- Exponent = ?_{ten}



Example 2: FP to decimal

What number is represented by the single-precision float

11000000101000...00

- S = 1
- Fraction = $01000...00_2$
- Exponent = $10000001_2 = 129$

•
$$x = (-1)^1 \times (1.01_2) \times 2^{(129 - 127)}$$

= $(-1) \times 1.25_{ten} \times 2^2$
= -5.0_{ten}

Exercise: Represent single-precision FP to decimal 0_10000011_1100...00



Single-Precision Range

- Exponents 00000000 and 11111111 are 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: 11111110⇒ actual exponent = 254 127 = +127
 - Fraction: 111...11 ⇒ significand ≈ 2.0
 - $\pm 2.0 \times 2^{+127}$ ($\approx \pm 3.4 \times 10^{+38}$)
- Range: $(-2.0 \times 2^{127}, -1.0 \times 2^{-126}], [1.0 \times 2^{-126}, 2.0 \times 2^{127})$



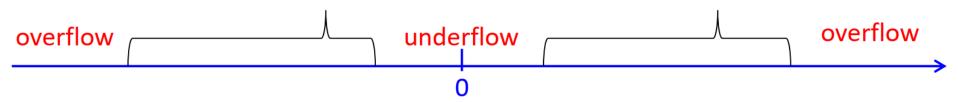
Double-Precision Range

- Exponents 0000...00 and 1111...11 are reserved
- Smallest value
 - Exponent: $0000000001 \Rightarrow \text{actual exponent} = 1 1023 = -1022$
 - Fraction: $000...00 \Rightarrow \text{significand} = 1.0$
 - $\pm 1.0 \times 2^{-1022}$ (* $\pm 2.2 \times 10^{-308}$)
- Largest value
 - Exponent: 1111111110⇒ actual exponent = 2046 1023 = 1023
 - Fraction: 111...11 ⇒ significand ≈ 2.0
 - $\pm 2.0 \times 2^{+1023}$ ($\approx \pm 1.8 \times 10^{+308}$)
- Range: $(-2.0 \times 2^{1023}, -1.0 \times 2^{-1022}], [1.0 \times 2^{-1022}, 2.0 \times 2^{1023})$



Overflow and Underflow

- Range of float: $(-2.0 \times 2^{127}, -1.0 \times 2^{-126}], [1.0 \times 2^{-126}, 2.0 \times 2^{127})$
- Range of double: $(-2.0 \times 2^{1023}, -1.0 \times 2^{-1022}], [1.0 \times 2^{-1022}, 2.0 \times 2^{1023})$



- Overflow: when the exponent is too large to be represented
- **Underflow**: when is **negative** exponent is **too large** to be represented(when it's exponent is too small to be represented)
- Examples:
 - For float number, 8-bit exponent, range: -126~127
 - 1×2^{128} , -1.1×2^{129}

Overflow

• 1×2^{-127} , -1.1×2^{-128}

Underflow

- For double number, 11-bit exponent, range: -1022~1023
- 1×2^{1024} , -1.1×2^{1026}

Overflow

• 1×2^{-1023} . -1.1×2^{-1025}

Underflow



IEEE 754 Encoding of FPN

• ± 0 , $\pm \infty$ (infinity), NaN

Single precision		Double precision		Object represented
Exponent	Fraction	Exponent	Fraction	
0	0	0	0	0
0	Nonzero	0	Nonzero	± denormalized number
1-254	Anything	1-2046	Anything	± floating-point number
255	0	2047	0	± infinity
255	Nonzero	2047	Nonzero	NaN (Not a Number)

• $\pm \infty$: divided by 0

• NaN: 0/0, subtracting infinity from infinity



Gradual Underflow

- Represent denormalized numbers
 - Exponent : all zeros
 - Significand: non-zeros (but no hidden one)
 - Allow a number to degrade in significance until it become 0 (gradual underflow)
 - The smallest normalized number (significand has hidden one)
 - 1.0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 \times 2⁻¹²⁶
 - The smallest de-normalized number (significand has no hidden one any more)
 - 0.0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 001 \times 2⁻¹²⁶



Infinities and NaNs

- Exponent = 111...1, Fraction = 000...0
 - ± Infinity
 - Can be used in subsequent calculations, avoiding need for overflow check
- Exponent = 111...1, Fraction ≠ 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 Precision

single: 8 bits

double: 11 bits

single: 23 bits

double: 52 bits

S Exponent (=y+Bias)

Fraction (xxxx)

- Relative precision
 - all fraction bits are significant
 - assuming $a = 1.00..0x2^y$, $b = 1.00...1x2^y$

$$\frac{a-b}{a} = \frac{\Delta A}{|A|} = \frac{2^{-23} \times 2^{y}}{|1.xxx \times 2^{y}|} \le \frac{2^{-23} \times 2^{y}}{1 \times 2^{y}} = 2^{-23}$$

- 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



Addition Example 1: decimal

- 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}



Addition Example 2: FP

- 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_{10}

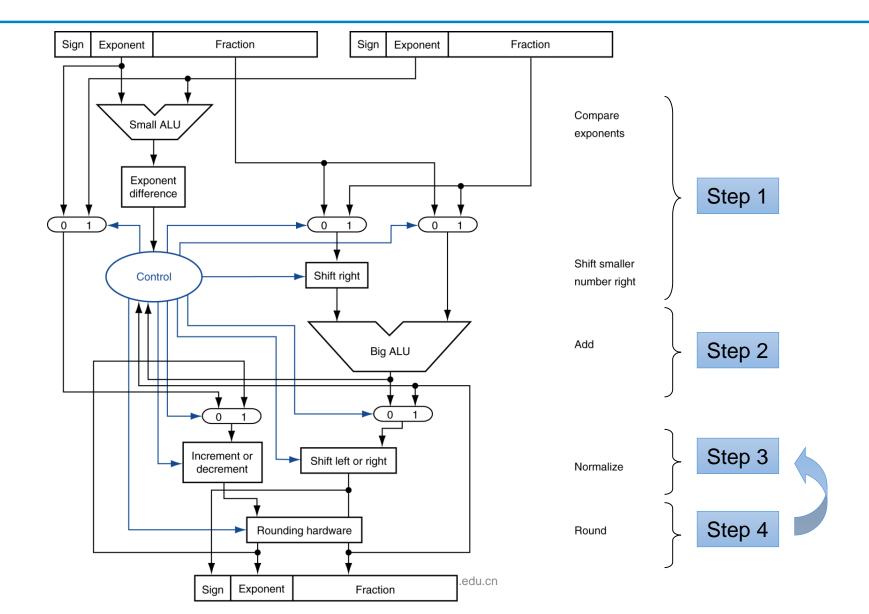


FP Adder Hardware

- 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





01111101 11000......00

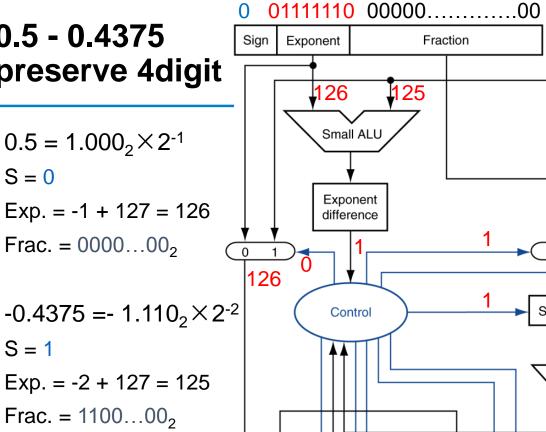
Fraction

0.5 - 0.4375preserve 4digit

 $0.5 = 1.000_2 \times 2^{-1}$

Frac. = $0000...00_2$

Frac. = $1100...00_2$

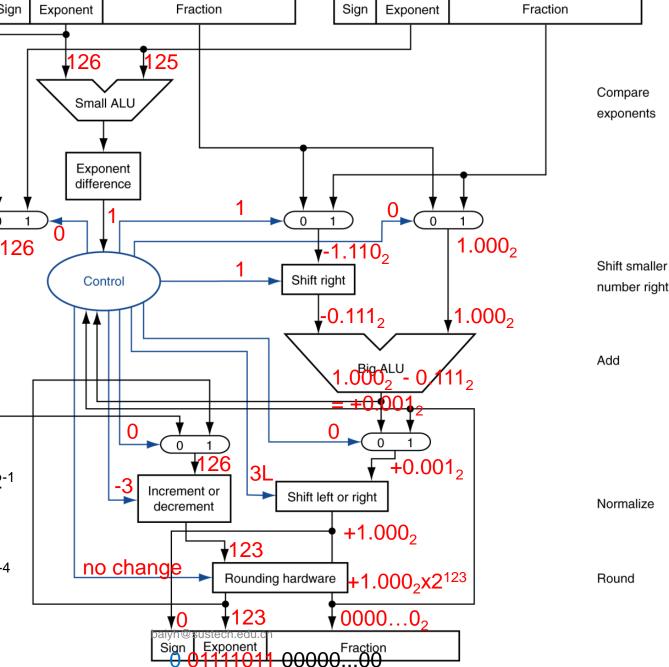


steps:

S = 0

S = 1

- -1.110_2 x $2^2 = -0.111_2$ x 2^{-1}
- 1.000_2 x 2^{-1} 0.111_2 x 2^{-1} $=0.001_2 \times 2^{-1}$
- $0.001_2 \times 2^{-1} = 1.000_2 \times 2^{-4}$
- $1.000_2 \times 2^{-4} =$ 00111101100000...002



Fraction



FP Multiplication

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



Multiplication Example 1: decimal

- 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
 - $+1.021 \times 10^6$



Multiplication Example 1: FP

- Now consider a 4-digit binary example
 - $1.000_2 \times 2^{-1} \times -1.110_2 \times 2^{-2} (0.5 \times -0.4375)$
- 1. Add exponents
 - Unbiased: -1 + -2 = -3
 - Biased: (-1 + 127) + (-2 + 127) = -3 + 254 127 = -3 + 127
- 2. Multiply significands
 - $1.000_2 \times 1.110_2 = 1.1102 \implies 1.110_2 \times 2^{-3}$
- 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
 - FP ↔ integer conversion
- Operations usually takes several cycles
 - Can be pipelined



Accurate Arithmetic

- IEEE Std 754 specifies additional rounding control
 - Extra bits of precision (guard, round, sticky)
 - 1st bit: Guard bit (5), 2nd bit: Round bit (6), 3rd bit: Sticky bit
 - 2.56+234, 237 vs. 236 (assume that we have three significant digits)

- IEEE 754 guarantee one-half (0.5) ulp (units in the last place)
- Choice of rounding modes
 - Round up, round down, truncate, **round to the nearest even** (for X.50)
 - To the nearest even: (binary number $0.10 \rightarrow 0$, $1.10 \rightarrow 10$)
- Allows programmer to fine-tune numerical behavior of a computation
- Trade-off between hardware complexity, performance, and market requirements



FP Instructions in RISC-V

- Separate FP registers: f0, ..., f31
 - double-precision
 - single-precision values stored in the lower 32 bits
- 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
 - flw, fsw
 - fld, fsd



FP Instructions in RISC-V

- Single-precision arithmetic
 - fadd.s, fsub.s, fmul.s, fdiv.s, fsqrt.s
 e.g., fadds.s f2, f4, f6
- Double-precision arithmetic
 - fadd.d, fsub.d, fmul.d, fdiv.d, fsqrt.d
 e.g., fadd.d f2, f4, f6
- Single- and double-precision comparison
 - feq.s, flt.s, fle.s
 - feq.d, flt.d, fle.d
 - Result is 0 or 1 in integer destination register
 - Use beq, bne to branch on comparison result
- Branch on FP condition code true or false
 - B.cond



FP Example: °F to °C

C code:

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

- fahr in f10, result in f10, literals in global memory space
- Compiled RISC-V code:

```
f2c:
```

```
flw f0,const5(x3) # f0 = 5.0f

flw f1,const9(x3) # f1 = 9.0f

fdiv.s f0, f0, f1 # f0 = 5.0f / 9.0f

flw f1,const32(x3) # f1 = 32.0f

fsub.s f10,f10,f1 # f10 = fahr - 32.0

fmul.s f10,f0,f10 # f10 = (5.0f/9.0f) * (fahr-32.0f)

jalr x0,0(x1) # return
```

const5, const9, const32 stands for the value's corresponding offset



FP Example: Array Multiplication

- $\bullet X = X + Y \times Z$
 - All 32 \times 32 matrices, 64-bit double precision elements

Addresses of c, a, b in x10, x11, x12, and i, j, k in x5, x6, x7

code:

```
lί
               x28, 32
                             \# x28 = 32 \text{ (row size/loop end)}
          lί
                             # i = 0; initialize 1st for loop
               x5, 0
RISC-V L1: 1i
              x6, 0
                             # j = 0; initialize 2nd for loop
      L2: li x7, 0 # k = 0; initialize 3rd for loop
          slli x30, x5, 5 # x30 = i * 2^5 (size of row of c)
               x30, x30, x6 \# x30 = i * size(row) + j
          add
          slli x30, x30, 3 # x30 = byte offset of [i][j]
          add
               x30, x10, x30 + x30 = byte address of c[i][j]
          fld
              f0, 0(x30)
                             # f0 = c[i][i]
      L3: slli x29, x7, 5 # x29 = k * 2^5 (size of row of b)
              x29, x29, x6 + x29 = k * size(row) + j
          add
          slli x29, x29, 3 \# x29 = byte offset of [k][j]
              x29, x12, x29 + x29 = byte address of b[k][j]
          add
          fld
              f1, 0(x29)
                             # f1 = b[k][j]
          slli x29, x5, 5 # x29 = i * 2^5 (size of row of a)
          add
              x29, x29, x7 + x29 = i * size(row) + k
          slli x29, x29, 3 # x29 = byte offset of [i][k]
          add
              x29, x11, x29 + x29 = byte address of a[i][k]
          fld f2, 0(x29) # f2 = a[i][k]
          fmul.d f1, f2, f1 # f1 = a[i][k] * b[k][j]
          fadd.d f0, f0, f1 # f0 = c[i][j] + a[i][k] * b[k][j]
          addi x7, x7, 1 # k = k + 1
          bltu x7, x28, L3 # if (k < 32) go to L3
              f0, 0(x30) # c[i][j] = f0
          fsd
          addi x6, x6, 1 # j = j + 1
          bltu x6, x28, L2 # if (j < 32) go to L2
          addi x5, x5, 1 #yhaisusech.idu.th 1
          bltu x5, x28, L1 # if (i < 32) go to L 1
```



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
 - 2 × 64-bit double precision
 - 4 × 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)
5.
     double cij = C[i+j*n]; /* cij = C[i][j] */
6.
     for (int k = 0; k < n; k++)
7.
     cij += A[i+k*n] * B[k+j*n]; /* cij += A[i][k]*B[k][j] */
8.
     C[i+j*n] = cij; /* C[i][j] = cij */
9.
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. jg 30 \langle dgemm + 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++) {
    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] */
               mm256 mul pd (mm256 load pd (A+i+k*n),
9.
10.
               mm256 broadcast sd(B+k+j*n)));
    mm256 store pd(C+i+j*n, c0); /* C[i][j] = c0 */
11.
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
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
10. jne 50 <dgemm+0x50> # jump if not %r10 != %rax
11. add $0x1, %esi  # register % esi = % esi + 1
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