

Multiplication

Multiplication of Unsigned Numbers

- Multiplication requires substantially more hardware than addition.
- Multiplication of two n -bit number generates a $2n$ -bit product.
- We can use shift-and-add method.
 - Repeated additions of shifted versions of the multiplicand.

				1	0	1	0
				1	1	0	1

				1	0	1	0
			0	0	0	0	
		1	0	1	0		
	1	0	1	0			

1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0

Multiplicand M (10)

Multiplier Q (13)

Product P (130)

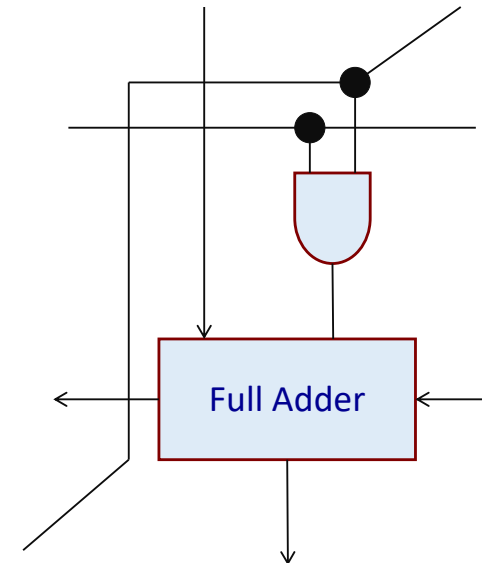
A General Case

$$\begin{array}{rcccc}
 & & \mathbf{A_3} & \mathbf{A_2} & \mathbf{A_1} & \mathbf{A_0} \\
 & & \mathbf{B_3} & \mathbf{B_2} & \mathbf{B_1} & \mathbf{B_0} \\
 & & \text{-----} & & & \\
 & & \mathbf{A_3B_0} & \mathbf{A_2B_0} & \mathbf{A_1B_0} & \mathbf{A_0B_0} \\
 & & \mathbf{A_3B_1} & \mathbf{A_2B_1} & \mathbf{A_1B_1} & \mathbf{A_0B_1} \\
 & \mathbf{A_3B_2} & \mathbf{A_2B_2} & \mathbf{A_1B_2} & \mathbf{A_0B_2} & \\
 \mathbf{A_3B_3} & \mathbf{A_2B_3} & \mathbf{A_1B_3} & \mathbf{A_0B_3} & & \\
 \text{-----} & & & & &
 \end{array}$$

- Each $A_i.B_j$ is called a *partial product*.
- Generating the partial products is easy.
 - Requires just an AND gate for each partial product.
- Adding all the n -bit partial products in hardware is more difficult.

Design of a Combinational Array Multiplier

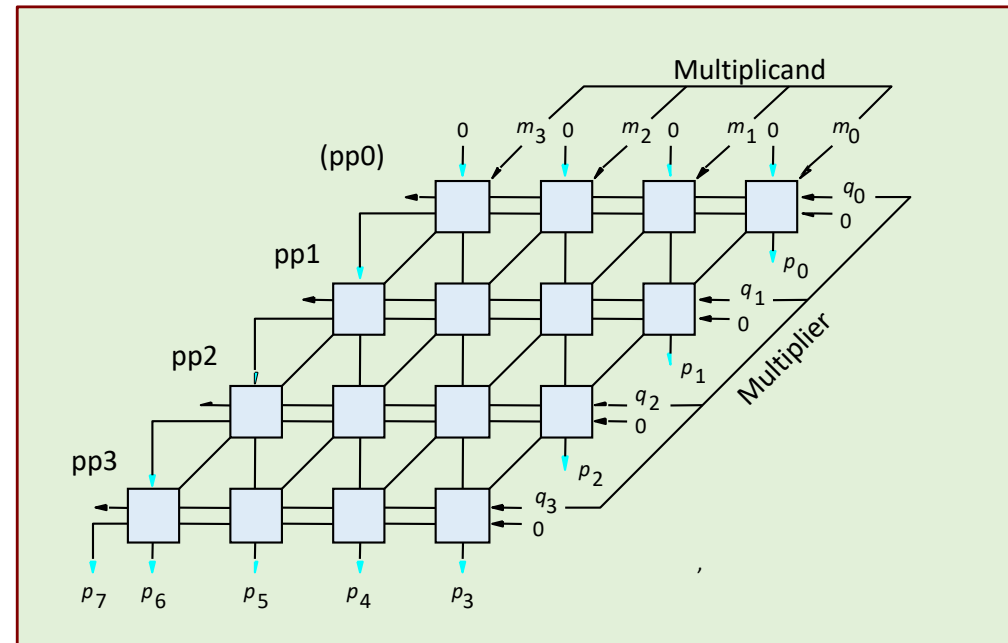
- We can directly map the multiplication process as discussed to hardware.
 - We use an array of cells to generate the partial products.
 - Instead of adding the partial products at the end, we add the partial products at every stage of the multiplication.
- The required multiplication cell is as shown.
 - Combines capabilities of partial product generation and also addition of partial products.



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- Extremely inefficient, and requires very large amount of hardware.
- Requires n^2 multiplication cells for an $n \times n$ multiplier.
- Advantage is that it is very fast.

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
 m_3 & m_2 & m_1 & m_0 \\
 q_3 & q_2 & q_1 & q_0 \\
 \hline
 m_3q_0 & m_2q_0 & m_1q_0 & m_0q_0 \\
 m_3q_1 & m_2q_1 & m_1q_1 & m_0q_1 \\
 m_3q_2 & m_2q_2 & m_1q_2 & m_0q_2 \\
 m_3q_3 & m_2q_3 & m_1q_3 & m_0q_3 \\
 \hline
 \end{array}$$



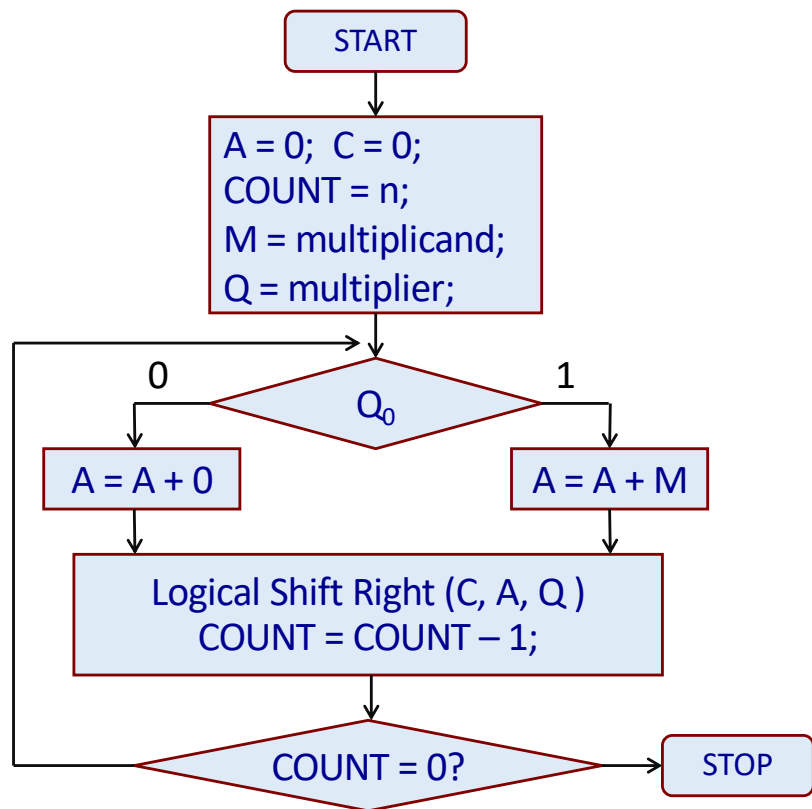
product: $p_7 p_6 p_5 p_4 p_3 p_2 p_1 p_0$

Unsigned Sequential Multiplication

- Requires much less hardware, but requires several clock cycles to perform multiplication of two n -bit numbers.
 - Typical hardware complexity: $O(n)$
 - Typical time complexity: $O(n)$
- In the “*hand multiplication*” that we have seen:
 - If the i -th bit of the multiplier is **1**, the multiplicand is shifted left by i bit positions, and added to the partial product.
 - The relative position of the partial products do not change; it is the multiplicand that gets shifted left.

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- In the “*shift-and-add*” multiplication that we discuss now, we make the following modifications.
 - We do not shift the multiplicand (i.e., keep its position fixed).
 - We right shift an $2n$ -bit partial product at every step.



M: n-bit multiplicand

Q: n-bit multiplier

A: n-bit temporary register

C: 1-bit carry out from adder

Example 1: $(10) \times (13)$

Assume 5-bit numbers.

M: $(01010)_2$ Q: $(01101)_2$

product = 130

 $= (0010000010)_2$

C	A	Q		
0	0 0 0 0 0	0 1 1 0 1	Initialization	
0	0 1 0 1 0	0 1 1 0 1	$A = A + M$	Step 1
0	0 0 1 0 1	0 0 1 1 0	Shift	
0	0 0 1 0 1	0 0 1 1 0	$A = A + 0$	Step 2
0	0 0 0 1 0	1 0 0 1 1	Shift	
0	0 1 1 0 0	1 0 0 1 1	$A = A + M$	Step 3
0	0 0 1 1 0	0 1 0 0 1	Shift	
0	1 0 0 0 0	0 1 0 0 1	$A = A + M$	Step 4
0	0 1 0 0 0	0 0 1 0 0	Shift	
0	0 1 0 0 0	0 0 1 0 0	$A = A + 0$	Step 5
0	0 0 1 0 0	0 0 0 1 0	Shift	

Example 2: $(29) \times (21)$

Assume 5-bit numbers.

M: $(1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1)_2$

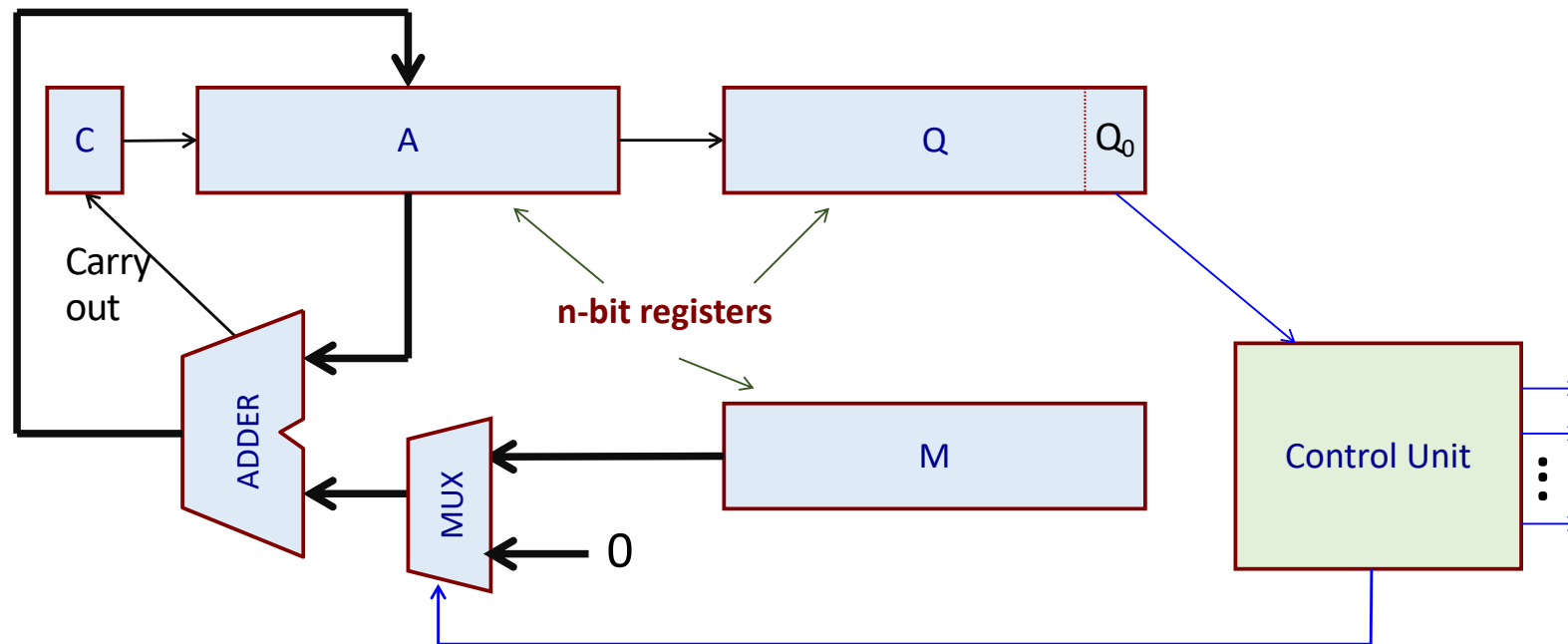
Q: $(1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1)_2$

product = 609

$= (1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1)_2$

C	A	Q		
0	0 0 0 0 0	1 0 1 0 1	Initialization	
0	1 1 1 0 1	1 0 1 0 1	A = A + M	Step 1
0	0 1 1 1 0	1 1 0 1 0	Shift	
0	0 1 1 1 0	1 1 0 1 0	A = A + 0	Step 2
0	0 0 1 1 1	0 1 1 0 1	Shift	
1	0 0 1 0 0	0 1 1 0 1	A = A + M	Step 3
0	1 0 0 1 0	0 0 1 1 0	Shift	
0	1 0 0 1 0	0 0 1 1 0	A = A + 0	Step 4
0	0 1 0 0 1	0 0 0 1 1	Shift	
1	0 0 1 1 0	0 0 0 1 1	A = A + M	Step 5
0	1 0 0 1 1	0 0 0 0 1	Shift	

Data path for Shift-and-Add Multiplier



Signed Multiplication

- We can extend the basic shift-and-add multiplication method to handle signed numbers.
- One important difference:
 - Require to sign-extend all the partial products before they are added.
 - Recall that for 2's complement representation, sign extension can be done by replicating the sign bit any number of times.

0101 = 0000 0101 = 0000 0000 0000 0101 = 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0101

1011 = 1111 1011 = 1111 1111 1111 1011 = 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1011

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An Example: 6-bit 2's complement multiplication

Note: For n -bit multiplication, since we are generating a $2n$ -bit product, overflow can never occur.

						1	1	0	1	0	1		(-11)
					x	0	1	1	0	1	0		(+26)

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1		
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1				
1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1					
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0						

1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0		(-286)

Booth's Algorithm for Signed Multiplication

- In the conventional shift-and-add multiplication as discussed, for n -bit multiplication, we iterate n times.
 - Add either 0 or the multiplicand to the $2n$ -bit partial product (depending on the next bit of the multiplier).
 - Shift the $2n$ -bit partial product to the right.
- Essentially we need n *additions* and n *shift operations*.
- Booth's algorithm is an improvement whereby we can avoid the additions whenever consecutive 0's or 1's are detected in the multiplier.
 - Makes the process faster.

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Basic Idea Behind Booth's Algorithm

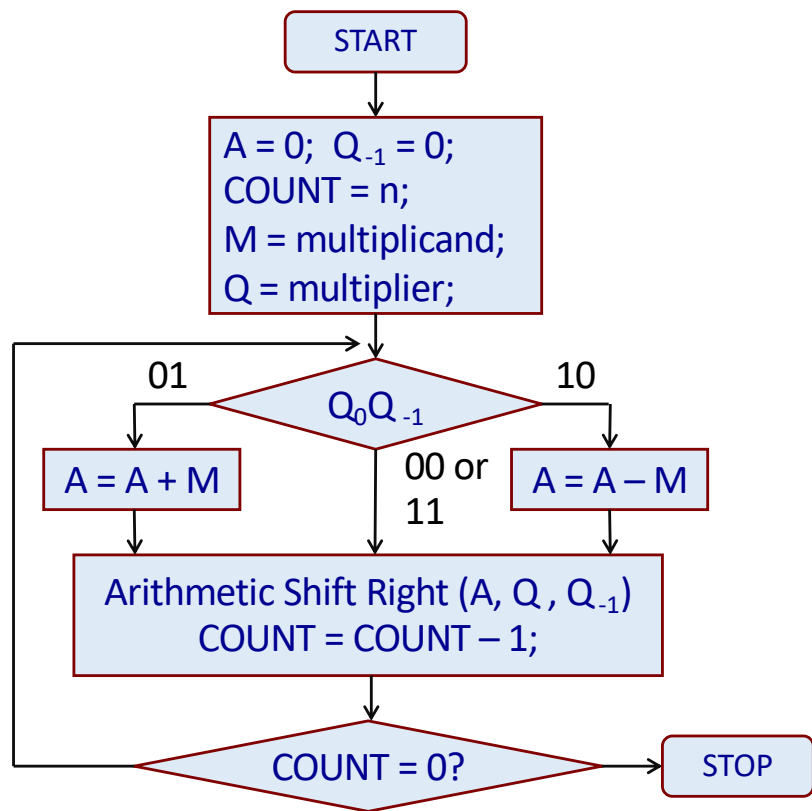
- We inspect two bits of the multiplier (Q_i, Q_{i-1}) at a time.
 - If the bits are same (00 or 11), we only shift the partial product.
 - If the bits are 01, we do an addition and then shift.
 - If the bits are 10, we do a subtraction and then shift.
- Significantly reduces the number of additions / subtractions.
- Inspecting bit pairs as mentioned can also be expressed in terms of *Booth's Encoding*.
 - Use the symbols +1, -1 and 0 to indicate changes w.r.t. Q_i and Q_{i-1} .
 - $01 \rightarrow +1$, $10 \rightarrow -1$, 00 or $11 \rightarrow 0$.
 - For encoding the least significant bit Q_0 , we assume $Q_{-1} = 0$.

- Examples of Booth encoding:

- a) 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 :: +1 0 0 -1 0 0 0 0
- b) 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 0 :: +1 0 0 -1 +1 0 -1 0
- c) 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 :: 0 0 0 0 +1 0 0 -1
- d) 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 :: +1 -1 +1 -1 +1 -1 +1 -1

- The last example illustrates the *worst case* for Booth's multiplication (alternating 0's and 1's in multiplier).
 - In the illustrations, we shall show the two multiplier bits explicitly instead of showing the encoded digits.

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M : n-bit multiplicand

Q : n-bit multiplier

A : n-bit temporary register

Q_{-1} : 1-bit flip-flop

**Skips over consecutive 0's
and 1's of the multiplier Q**

Example 1: $(-10) \times (13)$

Assume 5-bit numbers.

M: $(10110)_2$

-M: $(01010)_2$

Q: $(01101)_2$

product = -130

= $(1101111110)_2$

A	Q	Q ₋₁		
0 0 0 0 0	0 1 1 0	1 0	Initialization	
0 1 0 1 0	0 1 1 0 1	0	A = A - M	Step 1
0 0 1 0 1	0 0 1 1	0 1	Shift	
1 1 0 1 1	0 0 1 1 0	1	A = A + M	Step 2
1 1 1 0 1	1 0 0 1	1 0	Shift	
0 0 1 1 1	1 0 0 1 1	0	A = A - M	Step 3
0 0 0 1 1	1 1 0 0	1 1	Shift	
0 0 0 0 1	1 1 1 1	0 1	Shift	Step 4
1 0 1 1 1	1 1 1 0 0	1	A = A + M	
1 1 0 1 1	1 1 1 1 0	0	Shift	Step 5

Example 2:

$(-31) \times (28)$

Assume 6-bit
numbers.

M: $(100001)_2$

-M: $(011111)_2$

Q: $(011100)_2$

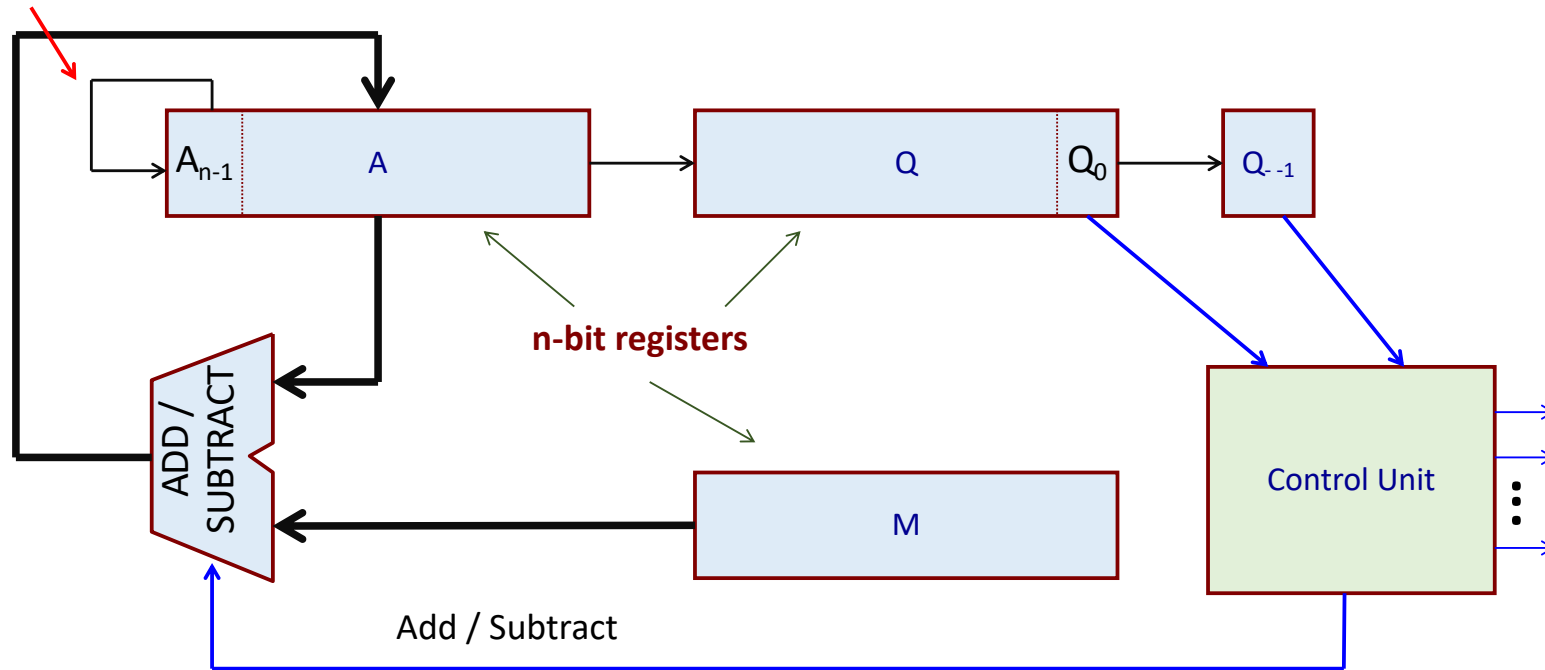
product = -868

= $(110010$
 $011100)_2$

A	Q	Q ₋₁		
0 0 0 0 0 0	0 1 1 1 0	0 0	Initialization	
0 0 0 0 0 0	0 0 1 1 1	0 0	Shift	Step 1
0 0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 1 1	1 0	Shift	Step 2
0 1 1 1 1 1	0 0 0 1 1 1	0	A = A - M	Step 3
0 0 1 1 1 1	1 0 0 0 1	1 1	Shift	
0 0 0 1 1 1	1 1 0 0 0	1 1	Shift	Step 4
0 0 0 0 1 1	1 1 1 0 0	0 1	Shift	Step 5
1 0 0 1 0 0	1 1 1 0 0 0	1	A = A + M	Step 6
1 1 0 0 1 0	0 1 1 1 0 0	0	Shift	

Data path for Booth's Algorithm

Arithmetic
shift right



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Design of Fast Multiplier

a) Bit-pair Recoding of Booth's Multiplication

- A technique that halves the maximum number of summands; derived directly from the Booth's algorithm.
- If we group the Booth-coded multiplier digits in pairs, we observe:
 - (+1, -1): $(+1, -1) * M = 2 * M - M = M$
 - (0, +1): $(0, +1) * M = M$
- We need a single addition instead of a pair of addition & subtraction.
 - Other similar rules can be framed.
 - Shown on next slide.

Original Booth-coded pair	Equivalent Recoded pair
(+1, 0)	(0, +2)
(-1, +1)	(0, -1)
(0, 0)	(0, 0)
(0, 1)	(0, 1)
(+1, 1)	--
(+1, -1)	(0, +1)
(-1, 0)	(0, -2)

- Every equivalent recoded pair has at least one 0.
- Worst-case number of additions or subtractions is 50% of the number of multiplier bits.
- Reduces the worst-case time required for multiplication.

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Example: (+13) X (-22) in 6-bits.

Original: Multiplier -- 1 0 1 0 1 0
 Booth: Multiplier -- -1 +1 -1 +1 -1 0
 Recoded: Multiplier -- 0 -1 0 -1 0 -2

```

      0 0 1 1 0 1
      . -1 . -1 . -2
-----
1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 1 0
1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 1
1 1 1 1 0 0 1 1
-----
1 1 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0

```

- M = 001101 (+13)
- -1 * M = 110011
- -2 * M = 100110

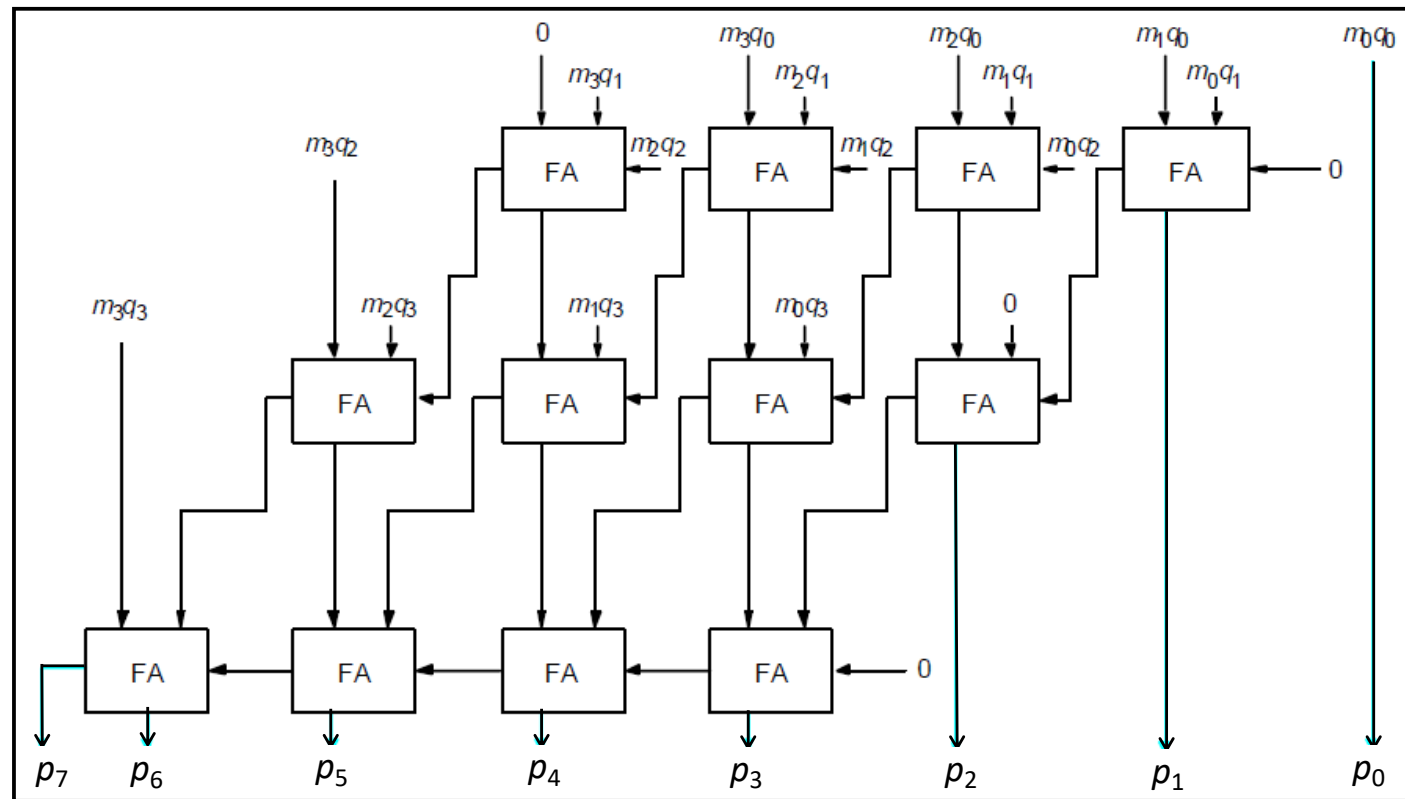
b) Carry Save Multiplier

- We have seen earlier how carry save adders (CSA) can be used to add several numbers with carry propagation only in the last stage.
- The partial products can be generated in parallel using n^2 AND gates.
- The n partial products can then be added using a CSA tree.
- Instead of letting the carries ripple through during addition, we *save* them and feed it to the next row, at the correct weight positions.

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
 m_3 & m_2 & m_1 & m_0 \\
 q_3 & q_2 & q_1 & q_0 \\
 \hline
 & m_3q_0 & m_2q_0 & m_1q_0 & m_0q_0 \\
 & m_3q_1 & m_2q_1 & m_1q_1 & m_0q_1 \\
 & m_3q_2 & m_2q_2 & m_1q_2 & m_0q_2 \\
 & m_3q_3 & m_2q_3 & m_1q_3 & m_0q_3 \\
 \hline
 \end{array}$$

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4 x 4 Carry Save Multiplier

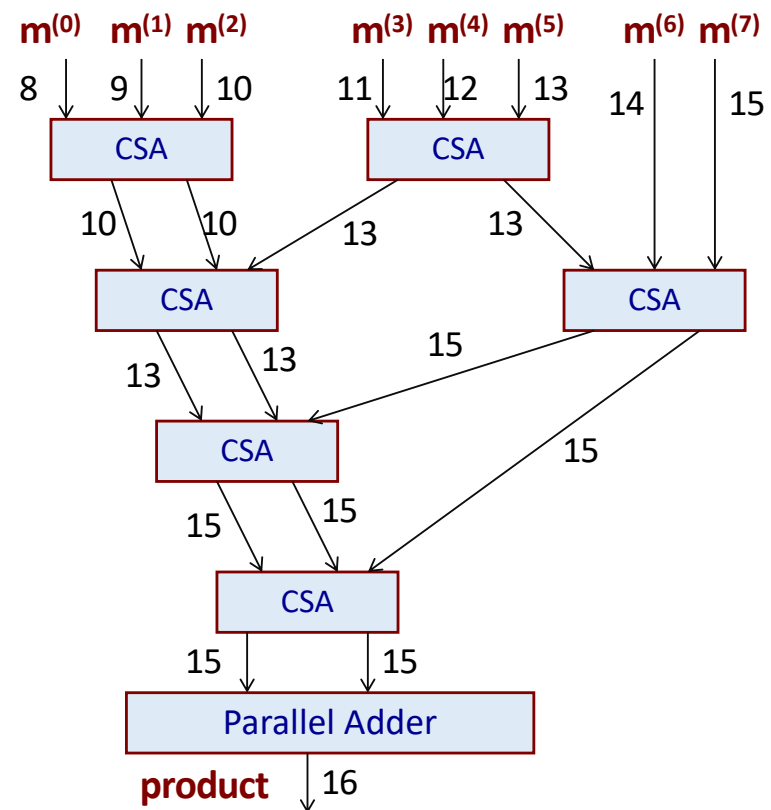


- **Wallace Tree Multiplier**

- A Wallace tree is a circuit that reduces the problem of summing n n -bit numbers to the problem of summing two $\Theta(n)$ -bit numbers.
- It uses $n/3$ (floor of) carry-save adders in parallel to convert the sum of n numbers to the sum of $2n/3$ (ceiling of) numbers.
- It then recursively constructs a Wallace tree on the $2n/3$ (ceiling of) resulting numbers.
- The set of numbers is progressively reduced until there are only two numbers left.
- By performing many carry-save additions in parallel, Wallace trees allow two n -bit numbers to be multiplied in $\Theta(\log_2 n)$ time using a circuit of size $\Theta(n^2)$.

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- The figure shows a Wallace tree that adds 8 partial products $m^{(0)}, m^{(1)}, \dots, m^{(7)}$.
- The partial product $m^{(i)}$ consists of $(n + i)$ bits.
- Each line represents an entire number – the label of an edge indicates the number of bits.
- The carry-lookahead adder at the bottom adds two $(2n-1)$ -bit numbers to give the $2n$ -bit product.



Division

Introduction

- Division is more complex than multiplication.
- Example: Typical values in Pentium-3 processor →
 - Not easy to construct high-speed dividers.
- The ratios have not changed much in later processors.

Instruction	Latency	Cycles / Issue
Load / Store	3	1
Integer Multiply	4	1
Integer Divide	36	36
Floating-point Add	3	1
Floating-point Multiply	5	2
Floating-point Divide	38	38

- **Latency:**

- Minimum delay after which the first result is obtained, starting from the time when the first set of inputs is applied.

- **Cycles/Issue:**

- Whenever a new set of inputs is applied to a functional unit (e.g. adder), it is called an *issue*.
- Pipelined implementation of arithmetic unit reduces the number of clock cycles between successive issues.
- For non-pipelined arithmetic units (e.g. divider), the number of clock cycles between successive issues is much higher.
 - Next input can be applied only after the previous operation is complete.

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The Process of Integer Division

- In integer division, a *divisor* M and a *dividend* D are given.
- The objective is to find a third number Q , called the *quotient*, such that
$$D = Q \times M + R$$
where R is the *remainder* such that $0 \leq R < M$.
- The relationship $D = Q \times M$ suggests that there is a close correspondence between division and multiplication.
 - Dividend, quotient and divisor correspond to product, multiplicand and multiplier, respectively.
 - Similar algorithms and circuits can be used for multiplication and division.

- One of the simplest division methods is the sequential digit-by-digit algorithm similar to that used in pencil-and-paper methods.

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Divisor M} \quad 110 \overline{) 100101} \\ \underline{100} \\ 000101 \\ \underline{000100} \\ 000001 \end{array}$$

$$D = 37 = (1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1)_2$$
$$M = 6 = (1\ 1\ 0)_2$$

Quotient $Q = 6$

Remainder R = 1

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \text{---} \\
 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1 \\
 -\ 1\ 1\ 0 \\
 \text{---} \\
 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1 \\
 -\ 1\ 1\ 0 \\
 \text{---} \\
 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \\
 1\ 1\ 0 \\
 \text{---} \\
 0\ 0\ 1
 \end{array}$$
$$\text{Quotient } Q = Q_0Q_1Q_2Q_3$$

Dividend $D = R_0$

$Q_0.M$ (Does not go; $Q_0 = 0$)

$$R_1$$

$Q_1 \cdot 2^{-1} \cdot M$ (Does go; $Q_1 = 1$)

$$\mathbf{R}_2$$

$Q_2 \cdot 2^{-2} \cdot M$ (Does go; $Q_2 = 1$)

$$R_3$$

$Q_3 \cdot 2^{-3} \cdot M$ (Does not go; $Q_3 = 0$)

$$R_4 = \text{Remainder } R$$

- In the example, the quotient $Q = Q_0Q_1Q_2\dots$ is computed one bit at a time.
 - At each step i , the divisor shifted i bits to the right (i.e. $2^{-i} \cdot M$) is compared with the current partial remainder R_i .
 - The quotient bit Q_i is set to 0 (1) if $2^{-i} \cdot M$ is greater than (less than) R_i .
 - The new partial remainder R_{i+1} is computed as:

$$R_{i+1} = R_i - Q_i \cdot 2^{-i} \cdot M$$

- **Machine implementation:**

- For hardware implementation, it is more convenient to shift the partial remainder to the left relative to a fixed divisor; thus

$$R_{i+1} = 2R_i - Q_i \cdot M \quad (\text{instead of } R_{i+1} = R_i - Q_i \cdot 2^{-i} \cdot M)$$

- The final partial remainder is the required remainder shifted to the left, so that $R = 2^{-3} \cdot R_4$ (see next slide).

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Divisor M		Dividend = $2R_0$	Quotient Q
1 1 0	1 0 0 1 0 1	$Q_0 \cdot M$	0
	1 1 0		

	1 0 0 1 0 1	R_1	
	1 0 0 1 0 1 0	$2R_1$	
	1 1 0	$Q_1 \cdot M$	0 1

	0 1 1 0 1 0	R_2	
	0 1 1 0 1 0 0	$2R_2$	
	1 1 0	$Q_2 \cdot M$	0 1 1

	0 0 0 1 0 0	R_3	
	0 0 0 1 0 0 0	$2R_3$	
	1 1 0	$Q_3 \cdot M$	0 1 1 0

	0 0 1 0 0 0	$R_4 = 2^3 \cdot R$	

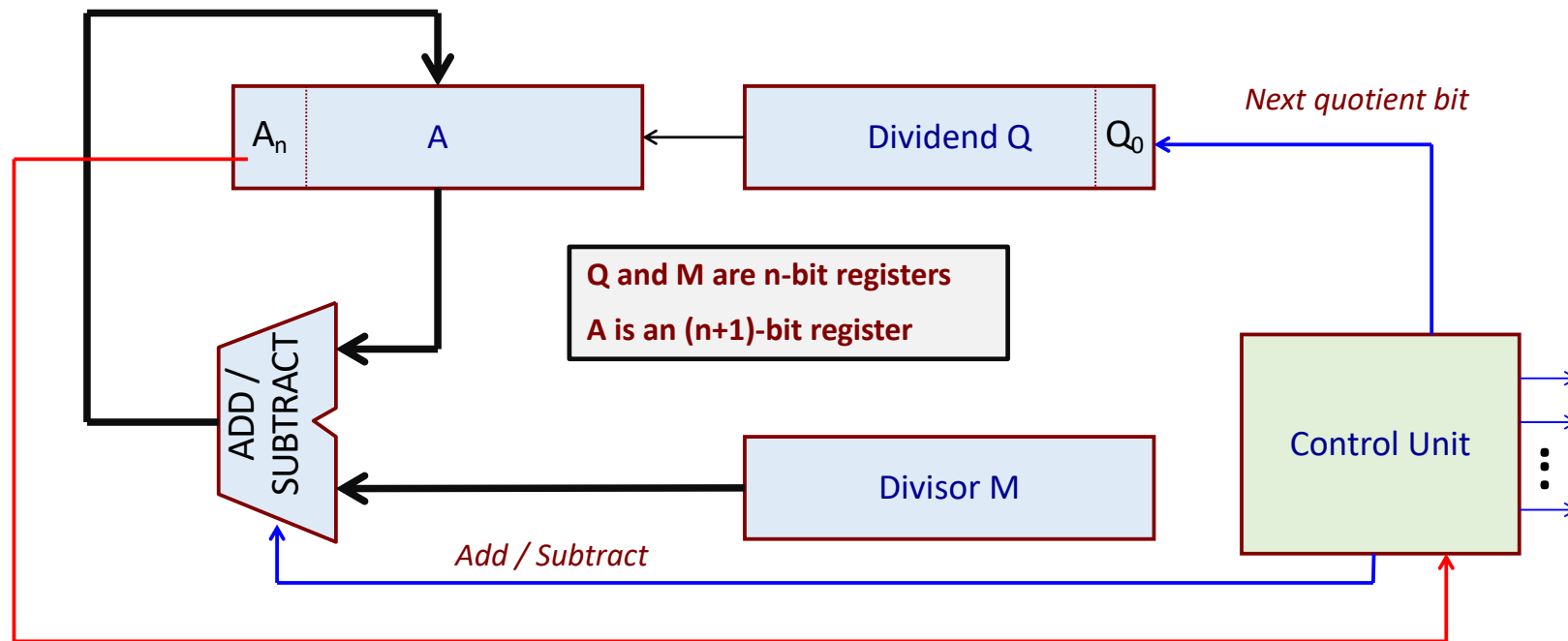
Do not subtract

$D = 37 = (100101)_2$
 $M = 6 = (110)_2$
 Quotient $Q = 6$
 Remainder $R = 1$

Two alternatives approaches for division

- We shall discuss two approaches:
 - a) Restoring division
 - b) Non-restoring division

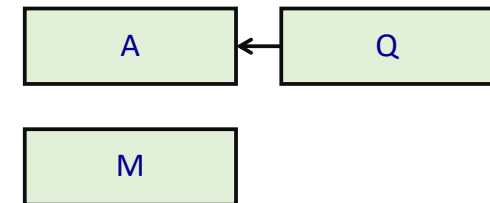
(a) Restoring Division: The Data Path



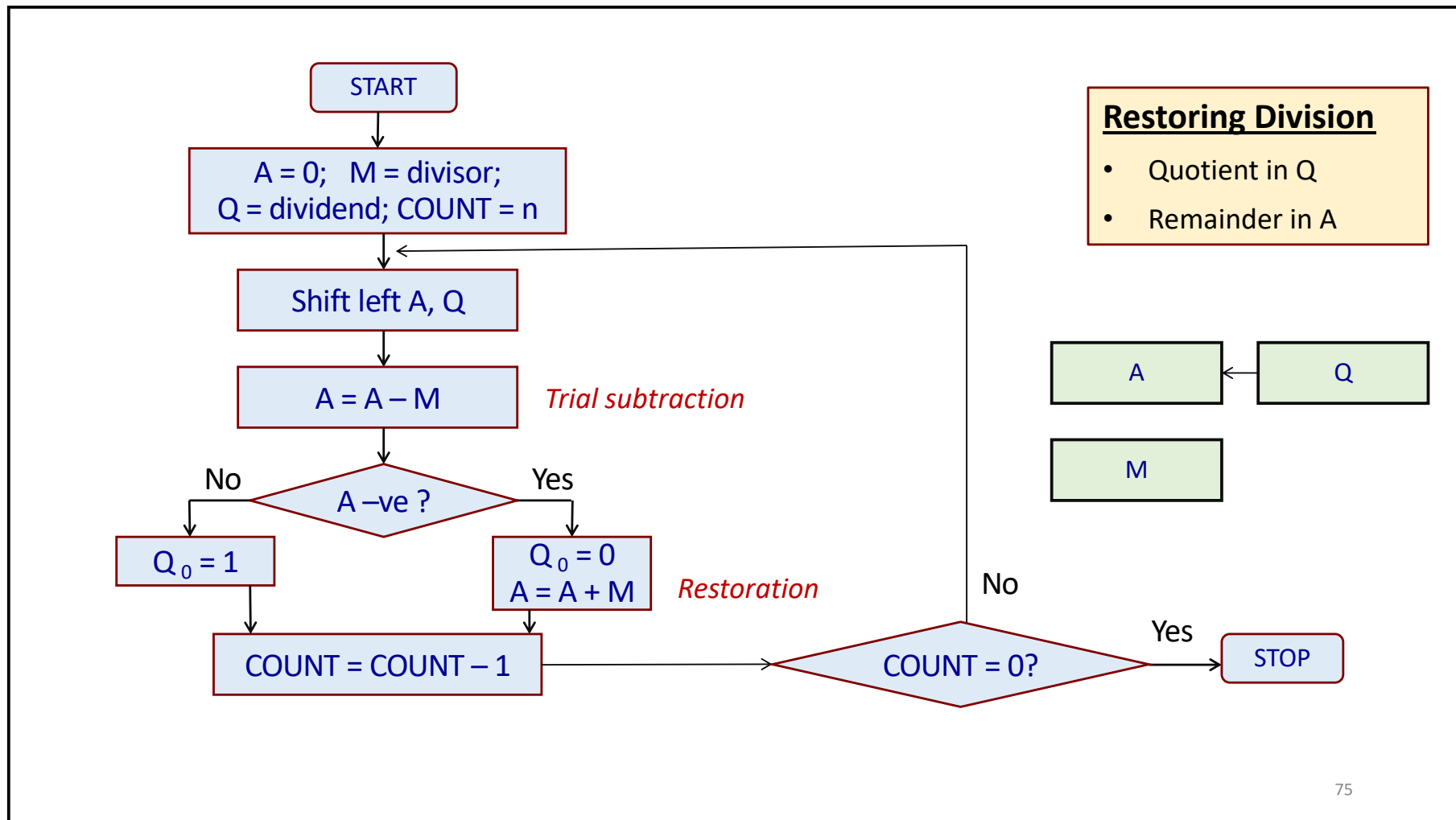
Basic Steps (Restoring Division)

Repeat the following steps n times:

- a) Shift the dividend left one bit at a time into register A .
- b) Subtract the divisor M from this register A (*trial subtraction*).
- c) If the result is negative (*i.e. not going*):
 - Add the divisor M back into the register A (*i.e. restoring back*).
 - Record 0 as the next quotient bit.
- d) If the result is positive:
 - Do not restore the intermediate result.
 - Record 1 as the next quotient bit.



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- **Analysis:**

- For n -bit divisor and n -bit dividend, we iterate n times.
- Number of trial subtractions: n
- Number of restoring additions: $n/2$ on the average
 - Best case: 0
 - Worst case: n

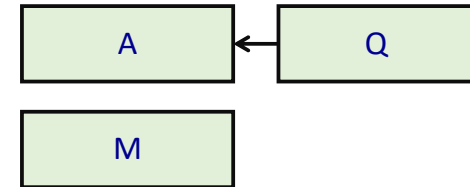
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A Simple Example: 8/3 for 4-bit representation (n=4)

Initially:	0 0 0 0 0	1 0 0 0
Shift:	0 0 0 0 1	0 0 0 -
Subtract:	<u>0 0 1 1</u>	
Set Q ₀ :	<u>1</u> 1 1 1 0	
Restore:	<u>0 0 1 1</u>	
	0 0 0 0 1	0 0 0 <u>0</u>
Shift:	0 0 0 1 0	0 0 0 -
Subtract:	<u>0 0 1 1</u>	
Set Q ₀ :	<u>1</u> 1 1 1 1	
Restore:	<u>0 0 1 1</u>	
	0 0 0 1 0	0 0 0 <u>0</u>

Shift:	0 0 1 0 0	0 0 0 -
Subtract:	<u>0 0 1 1</u>	
Set Q ₀ :	<u>0</u> 0 0 0 1	
	0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 <u>1</u>
Shift:	0 0 0 1 0	0 0 1 -
Subtract:	<u>0 0 1 1</u>	
Set Q ₀ :	<u>1</u> 1 1 1 1	
Restore:	<u>0 0 1 1</u>	
	0 0 0 1 0	0 0 1 <u>0</u>
Remainder 00010 = 2		Quotient 0010 = 2

(b) Non-Restoring Division



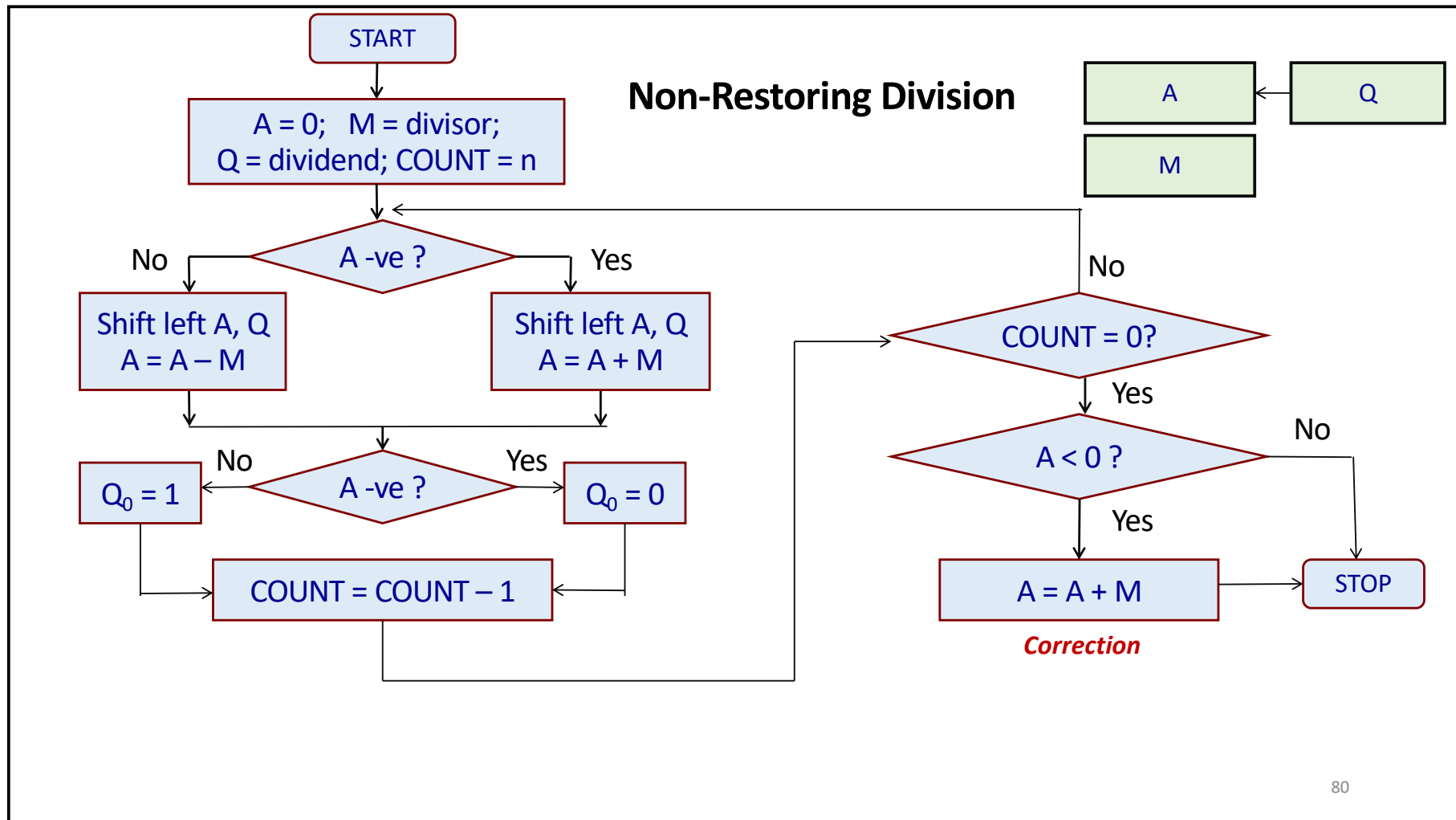
- The performance of restoring division algorithm can be improved by exploiting the following observation.
- In restoring division, what we do actually is:
 - If A is positive, we shift it left and subtract M .
 - That is, we compute $2A - M$.
 - If A is negative, we restore is by doing $A + M$, shift it left, and then subtract M .
 - That is, we compute $2(A + M) - M = 2A + M$.
- We can accordingly modify the basic division algorithm by eliminating the restoring step → **NON-RESTORING DIVISION**.

Shift left means
multiplying by 2.

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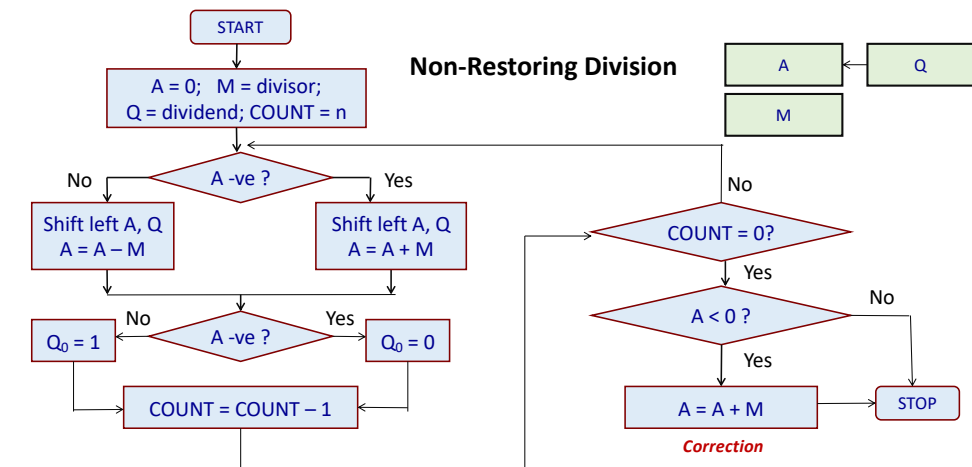
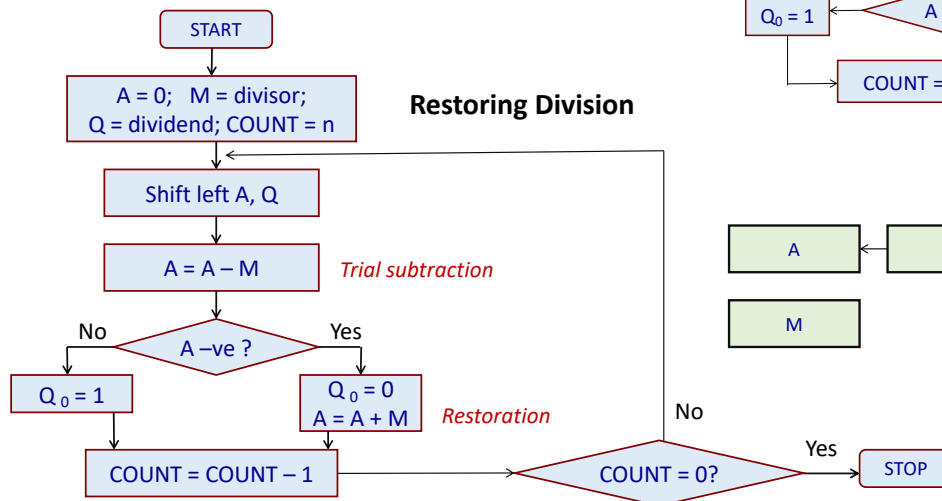
- **Basic steps in non-restoring division:**

- a) Start by initializing register A to 0, and repeat steps (b)-(d) n times.
- b) If the value in register A is positive,
 - Shift A and Q left by one bit position.
 - Subtract M from A .
- c) If the value in register A is negative,
 - Shift A and Q left by one bit position.
 - Add M to A .
- d) If A is positive, set $Q_0 = 1$; else, set $Q_0 = 0$.
- e) If A is negative, add M to A as a final corrective step.



Restoring Division:

- If A is positive, we shift it left and subtract M . That is, we compute $2A - M$.
- If A is negative, we restore is by doing $A + M$, shift it left, and then subtract M . That is, we compute $2(A + M) - M = 2A + M$.



A Simple Example: 8/3 for n=4

Initially: 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0

Shift: 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 -

Subtract: - 0 0 1 1

Set Q_0 : 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0

Shift: 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 -

Add: 0 0 1 1

Set Q_0 : 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0

Shift: 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 -

Add: 0 0 1 1

Set Q_0 : 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1

Shift: 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 -

Subtract: - 0 0 1 1

Set Q_0 : 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 0

Correction Add: **Quotient**

1 1 1 1 1

0010 = 2

0 0 0 1 1

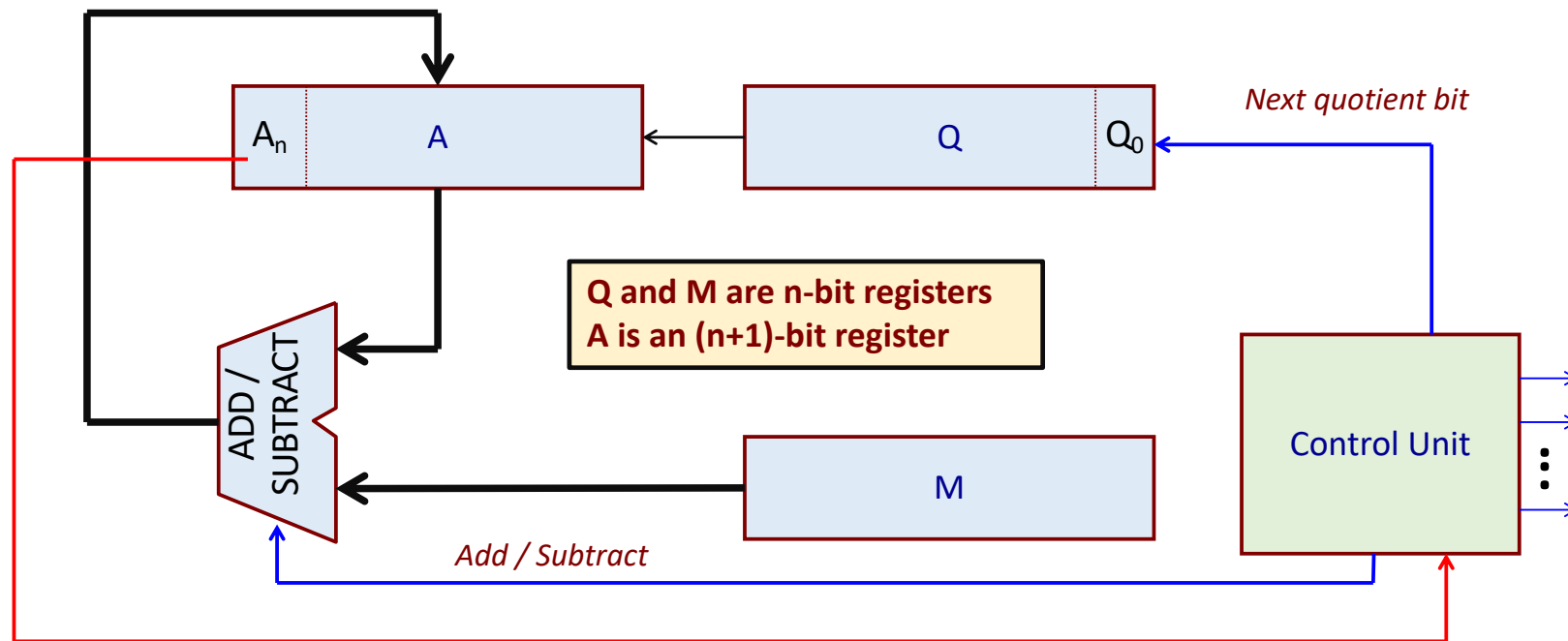
0 0 0 1 0

Remainder

00010 = 2

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Data Path for Non-Restoring Division



High Speed Dividers

- Some of the methods used to increase the speed of multiplication can also be modified to speed up division.
 - High-speed addition and subtraction.
 - High-speed shifting.
 - Combinational array divider (implementing restoring division).
- The main difficulty is that it is very difficult to implement division in a pipeline to improve the performance.
 - Unlike multiplication, where carry-save Wallace tree multipliers can be used for pipeline implementation.

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