

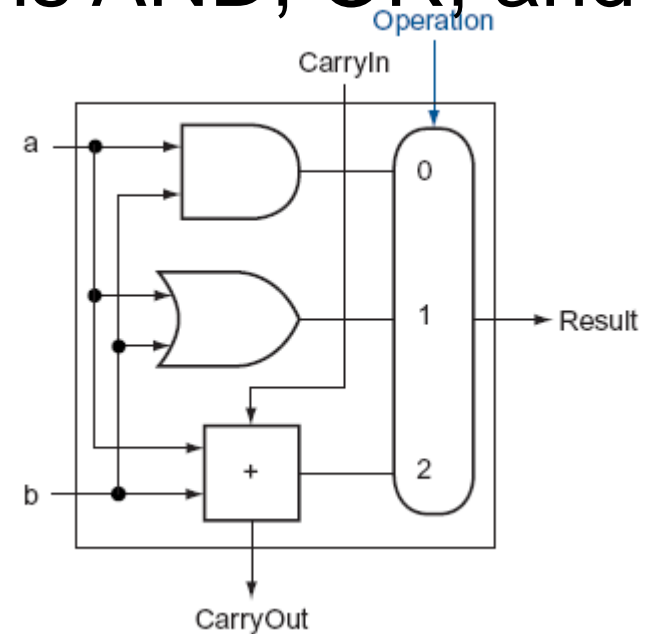
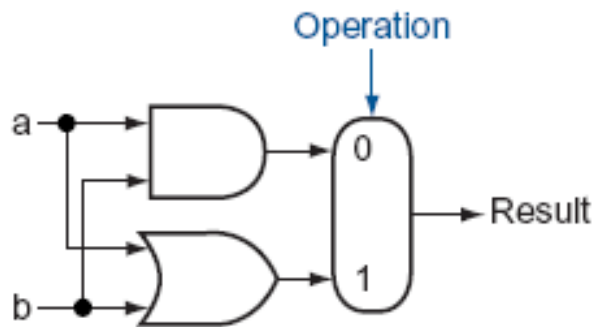


Chapter 3

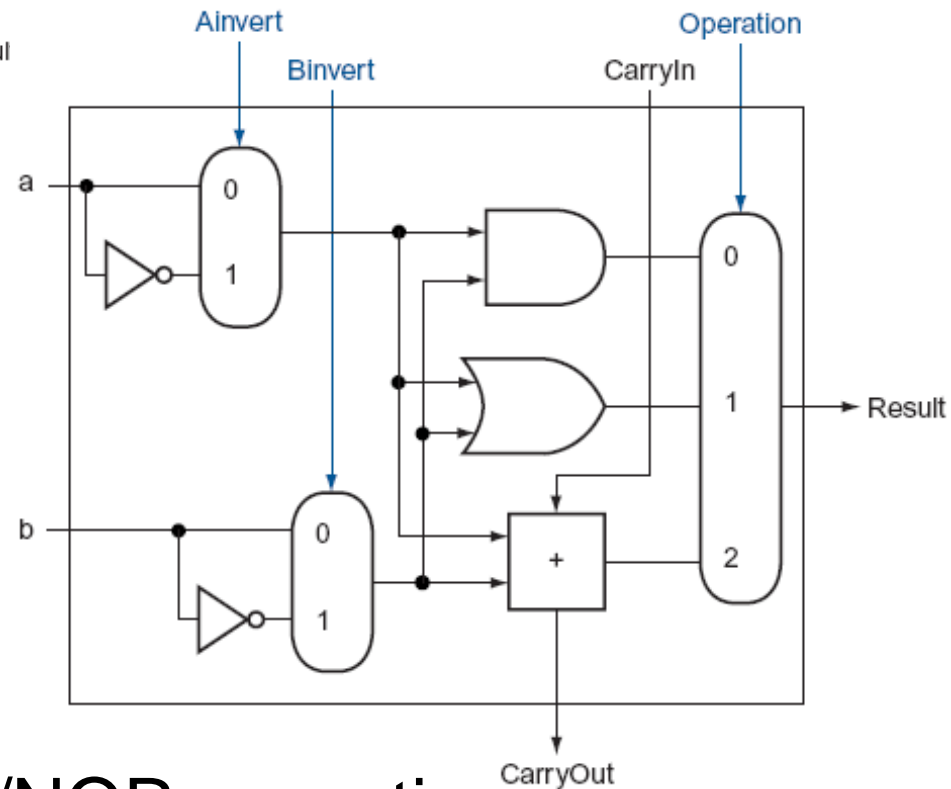
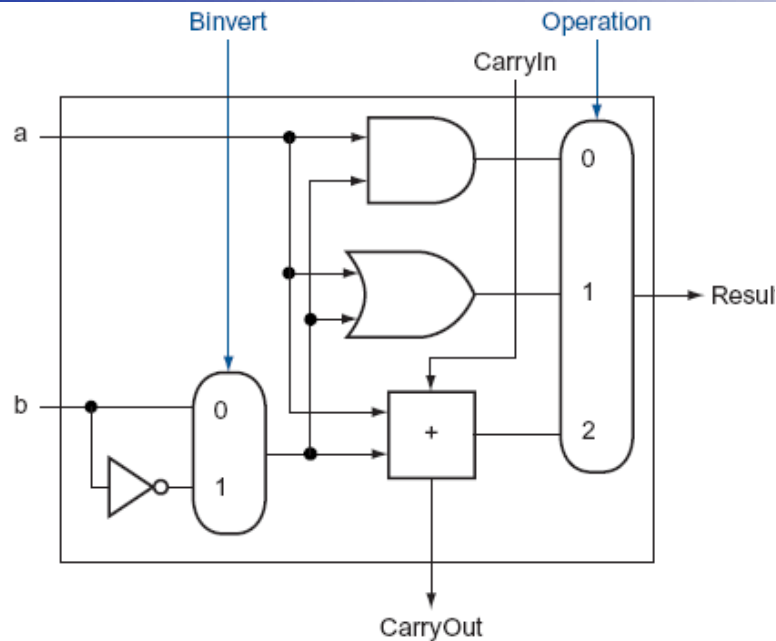
Arithmetic for Computers

Basic Arithmetic Logic Unit

- One-bit ALU that performs AND, OR, and addition

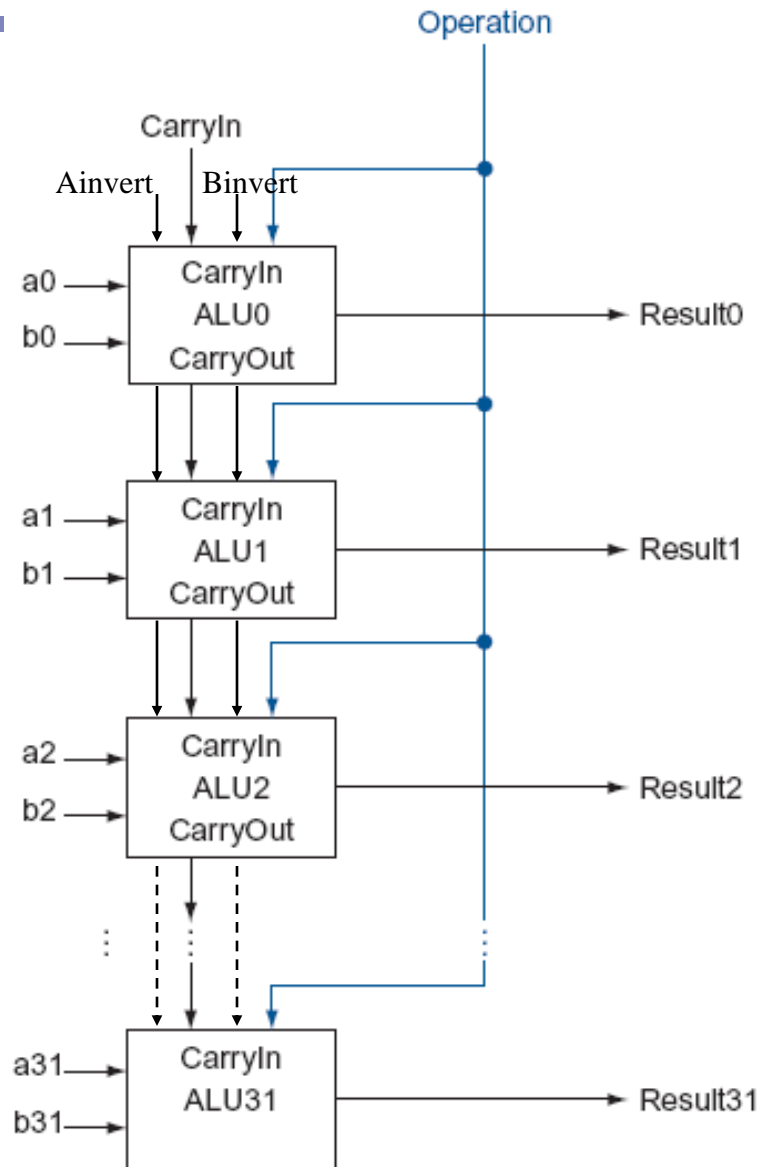


Enhanced Arithmetic Logic Unit



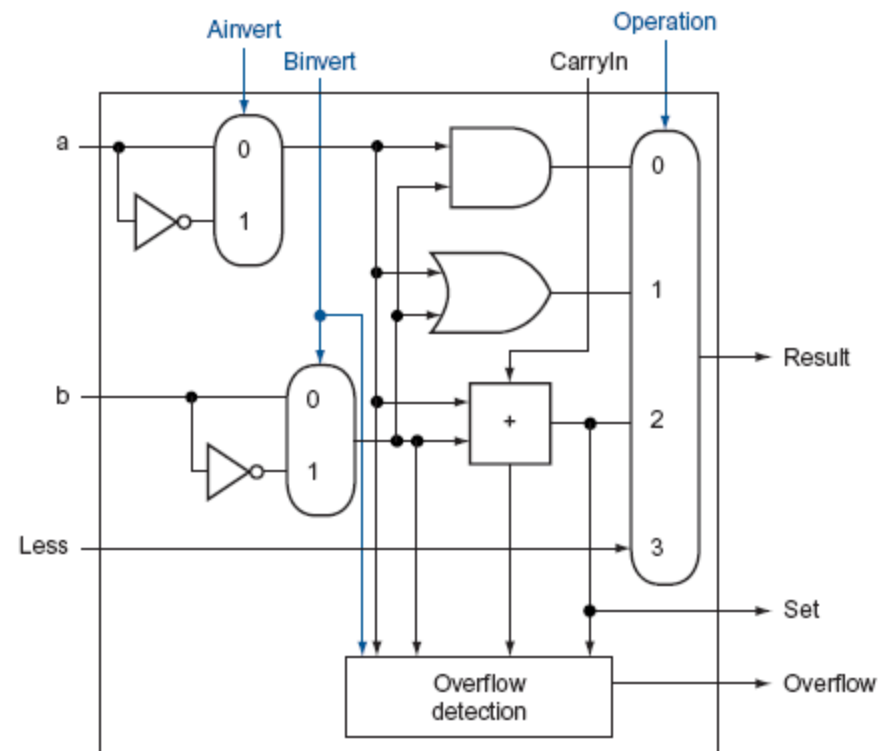
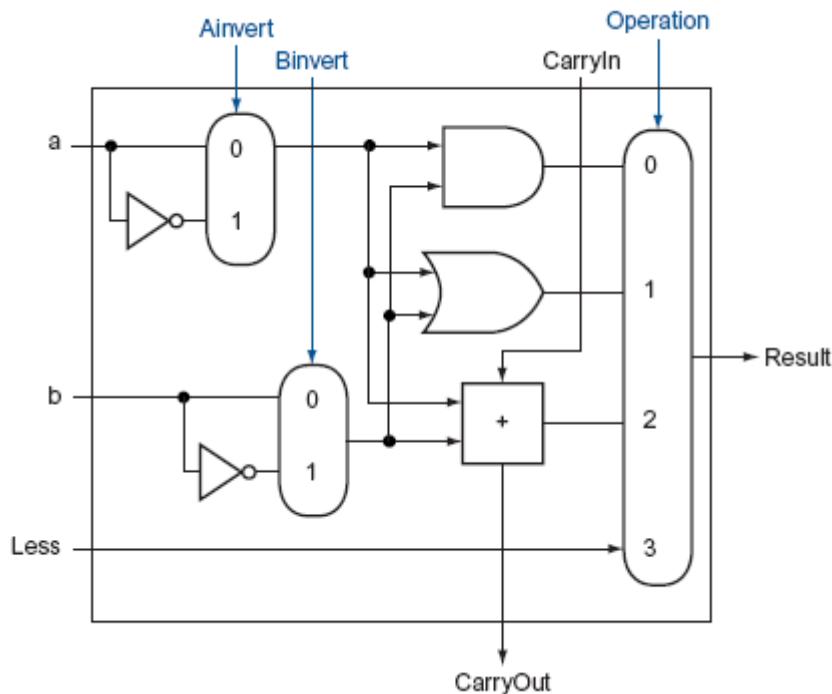
- ALU that have NAND/NOR operation

32-bit ALU



One-bit ALUs with Set Less Than

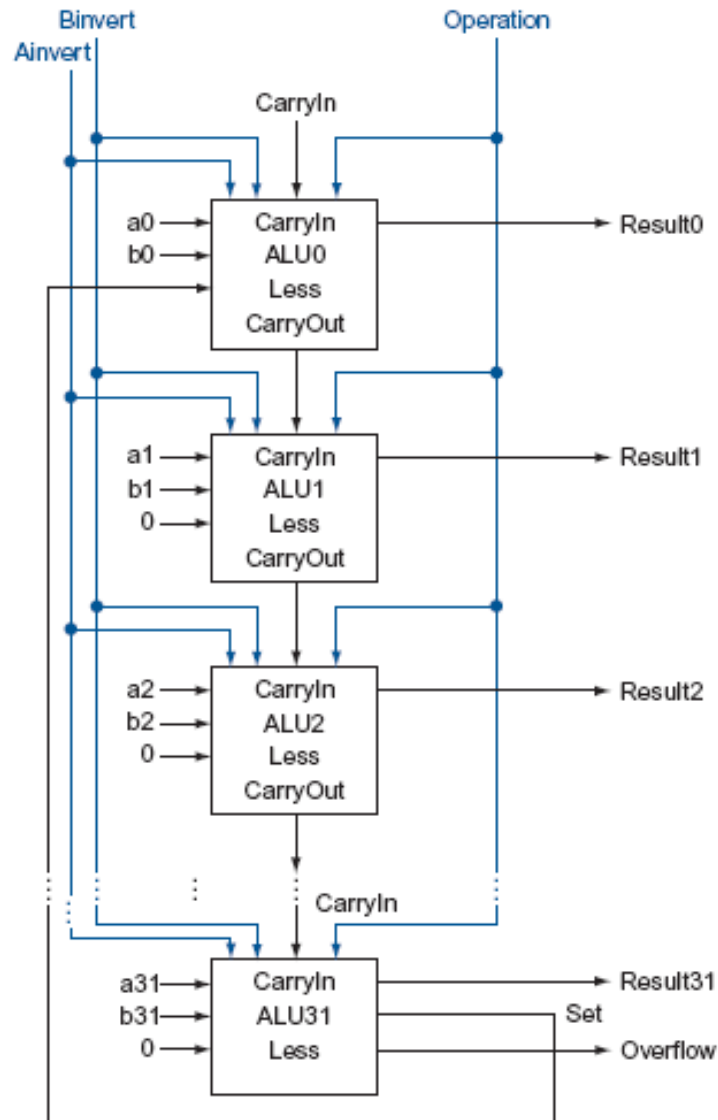
- Set less than instruction requires a subtraction and then sets all but the least significant bit to 0, with the lsb set to 1 if $a < b$
- Less signal line
 - lsb – signed bit
 - All but the lsb – 0



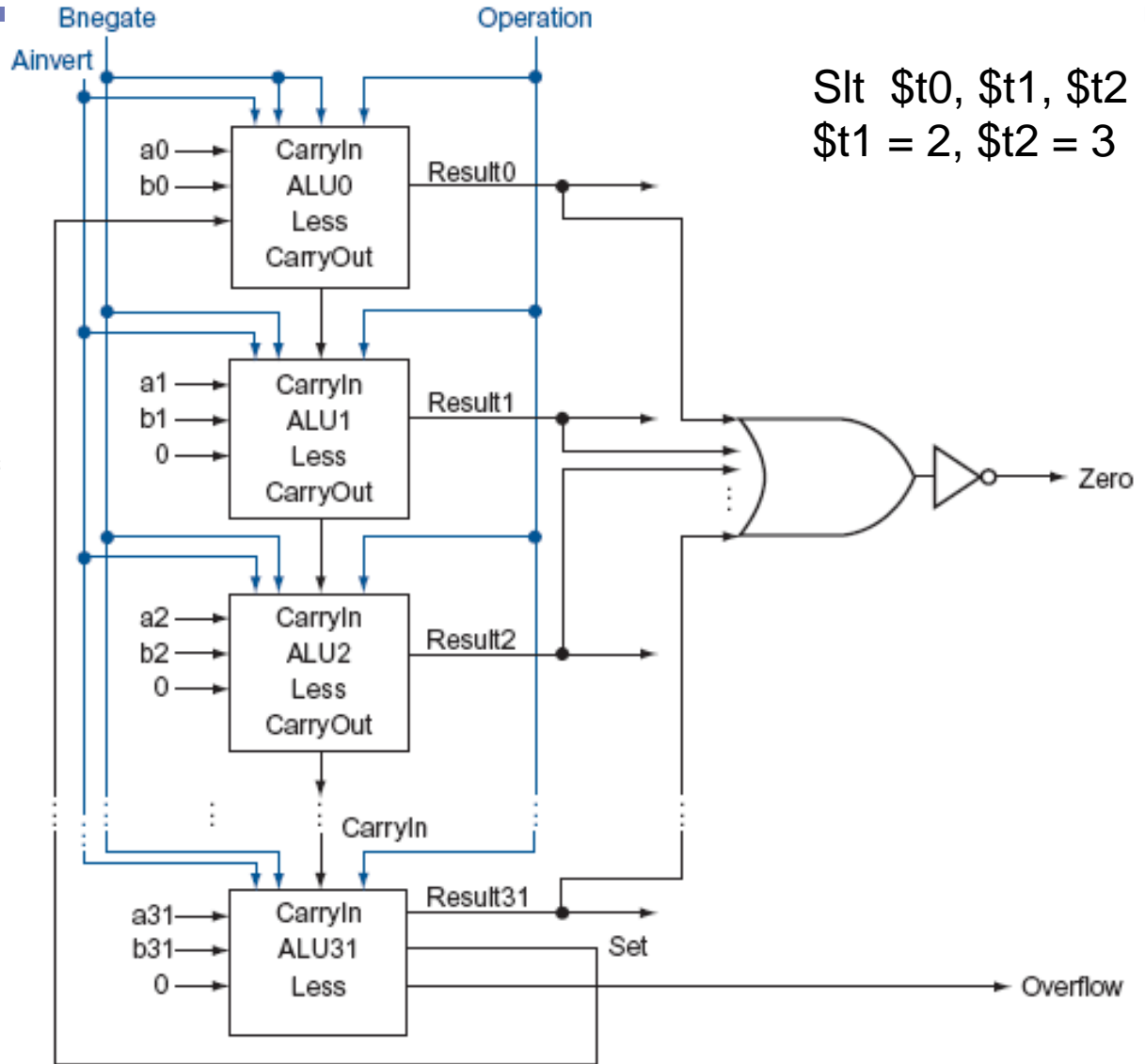
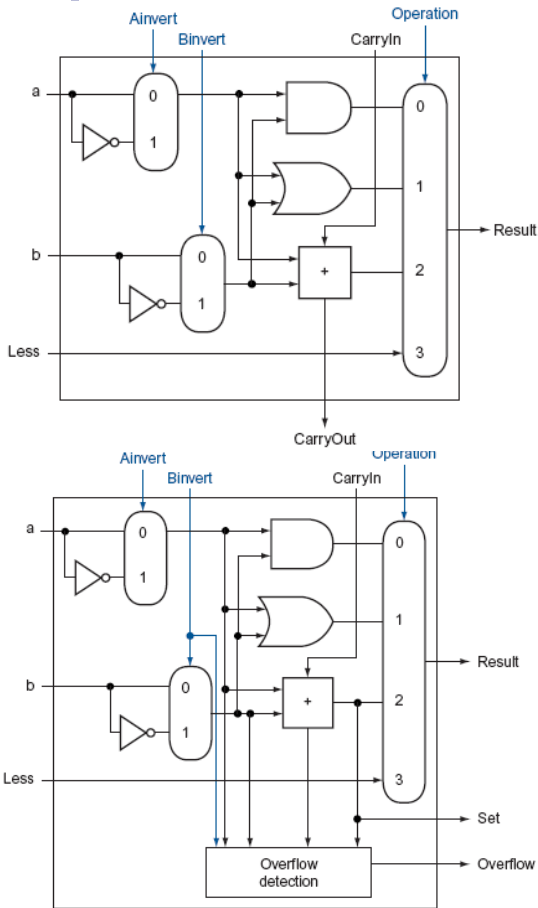
32-bit ALU with Set Less Than

If $a < b$ output 1
else output 0

000...00
000...01



Final 32-bit ALU



Slit \$t0, \$t1, \$t2
\$t1 = 2, \$t2 = 3

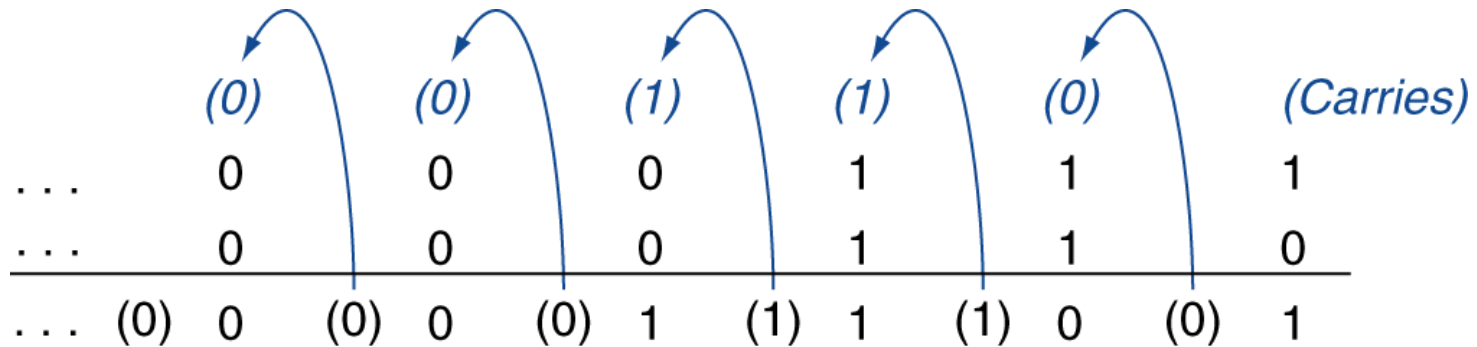
Arithmetic for Computers

- 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
<hr/>	
+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 (ex. $(-b) - a$)
 - Overflow if result sign is 0
 - Subtracting -ve from +ve operand (ex. $b - (-a)$)
 - 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

Overflow Detection for Signed & Unsigned Addition

Signed addition

```
addu $t0, $t1, $t2
xor   $t3, $t1, $t2
slt   $t3, $t3, $zero
bne   $t3, $zero, No_overflow
xor   $t3, $t0, $t1
slt   $t3, $t3, $zero
bne   $t3, $zero, Overflow
```

Unsigned addition

```
addu $t0, $t1, $t2
nor   $t3, $t1, $zero
sltu  $t3, $t3, $t2
bne   $t3, $zero, Overflow
```

01101

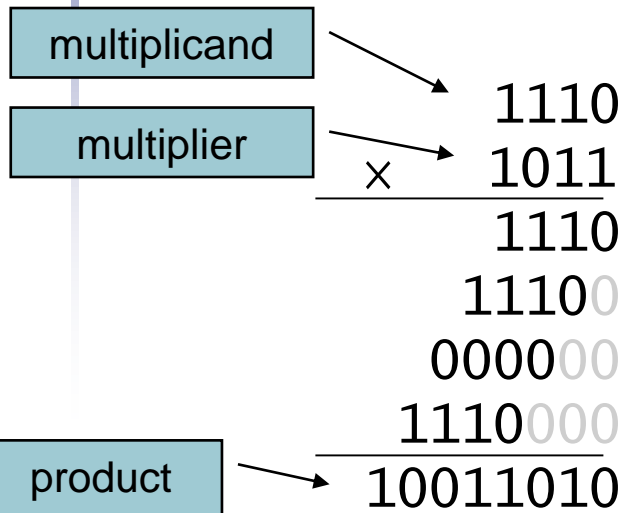
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Arithmetic for Multimedia

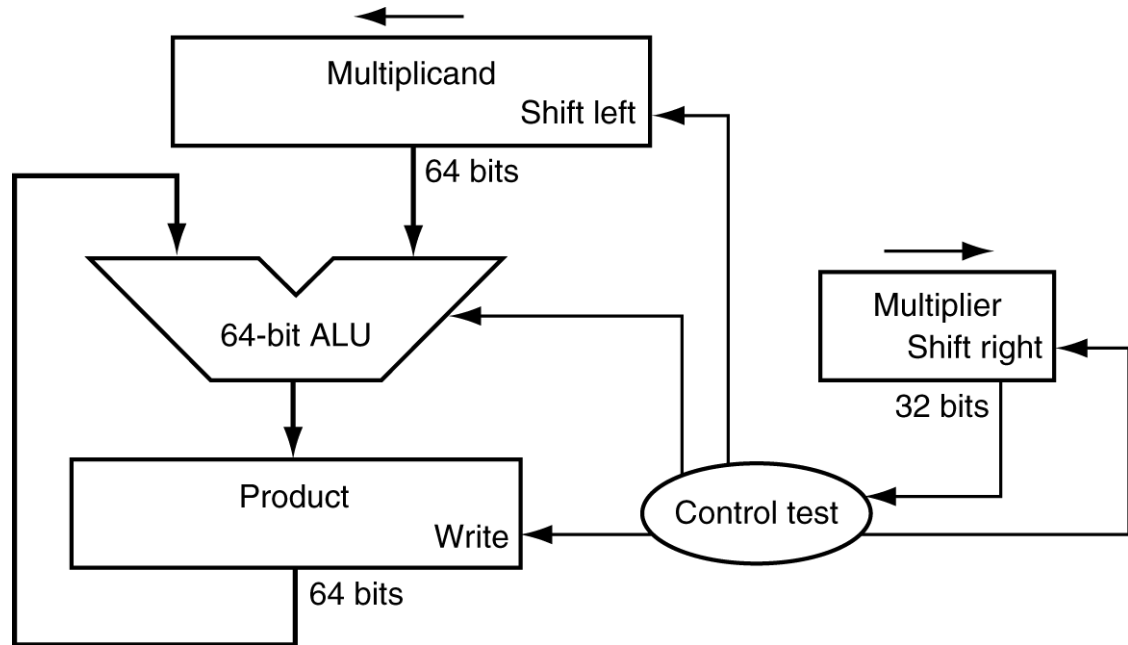
- Graphics and media processing operates on vectors of 8-bit and 16-bit data
 - Use 64-bit adder, with partitioned carry chain
 - Operate on 8×8-bit, 4×16-bit, or 2×32-bit vectors
 - SIMD (single-instruction, multiple-data)
- Saturating operations
 - On overflow, result is largest representable value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

Multiplication

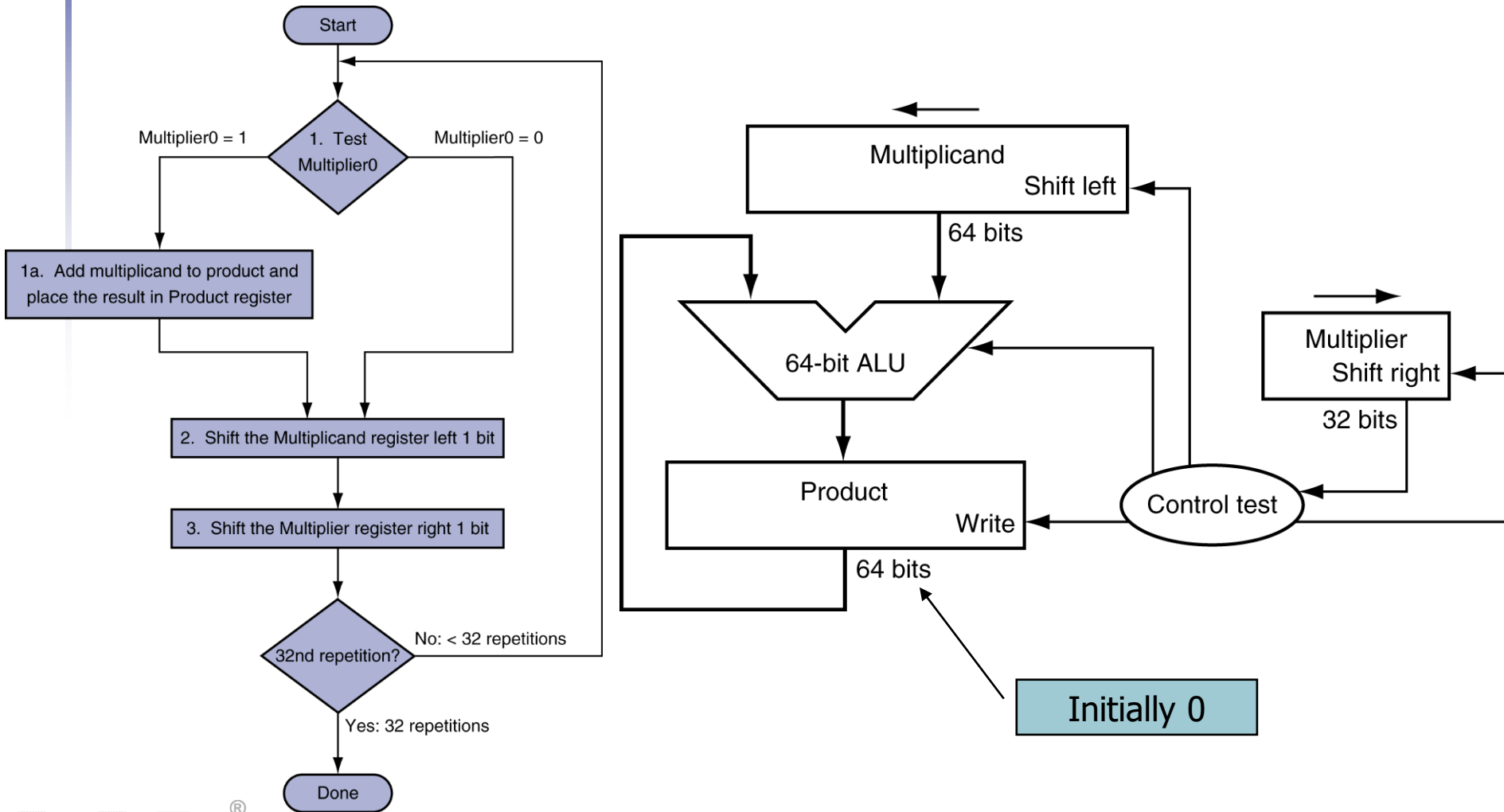
- Start with long-multiplication approach



Length of product is the sum of operand lengths

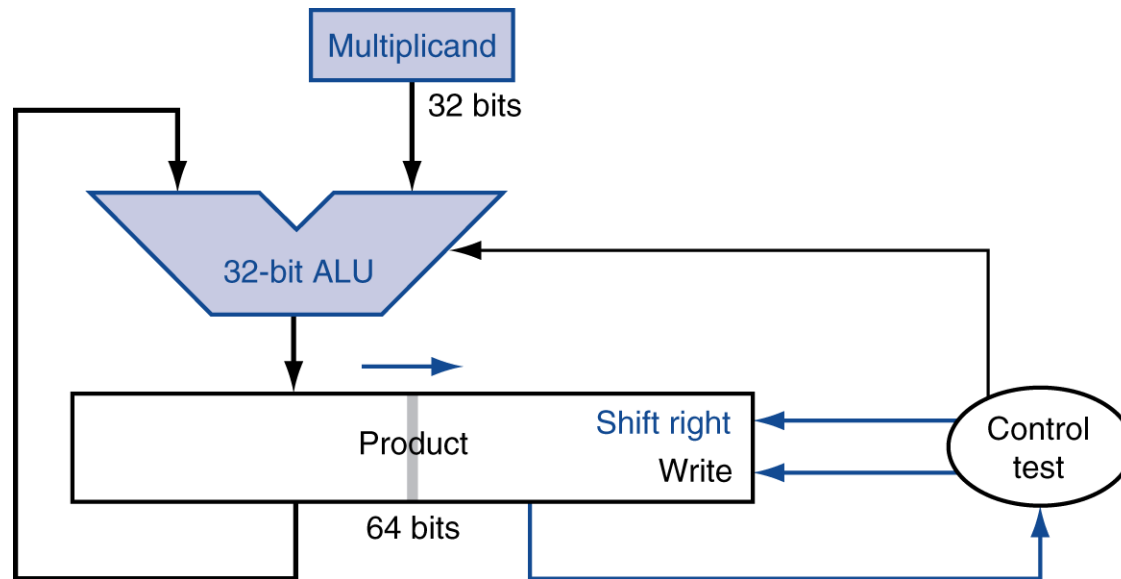


Multiplication Hardware



Optimized Multiplier

Perform steps in parallel: add/shift



1000		
1011		add

1000	1011	shift
01000	101	
1000		add

11000	101	shift
011000	10	
0000		add

011000	10	shift
0011000	1	
1000		add

1011000	1	shift
01011000		

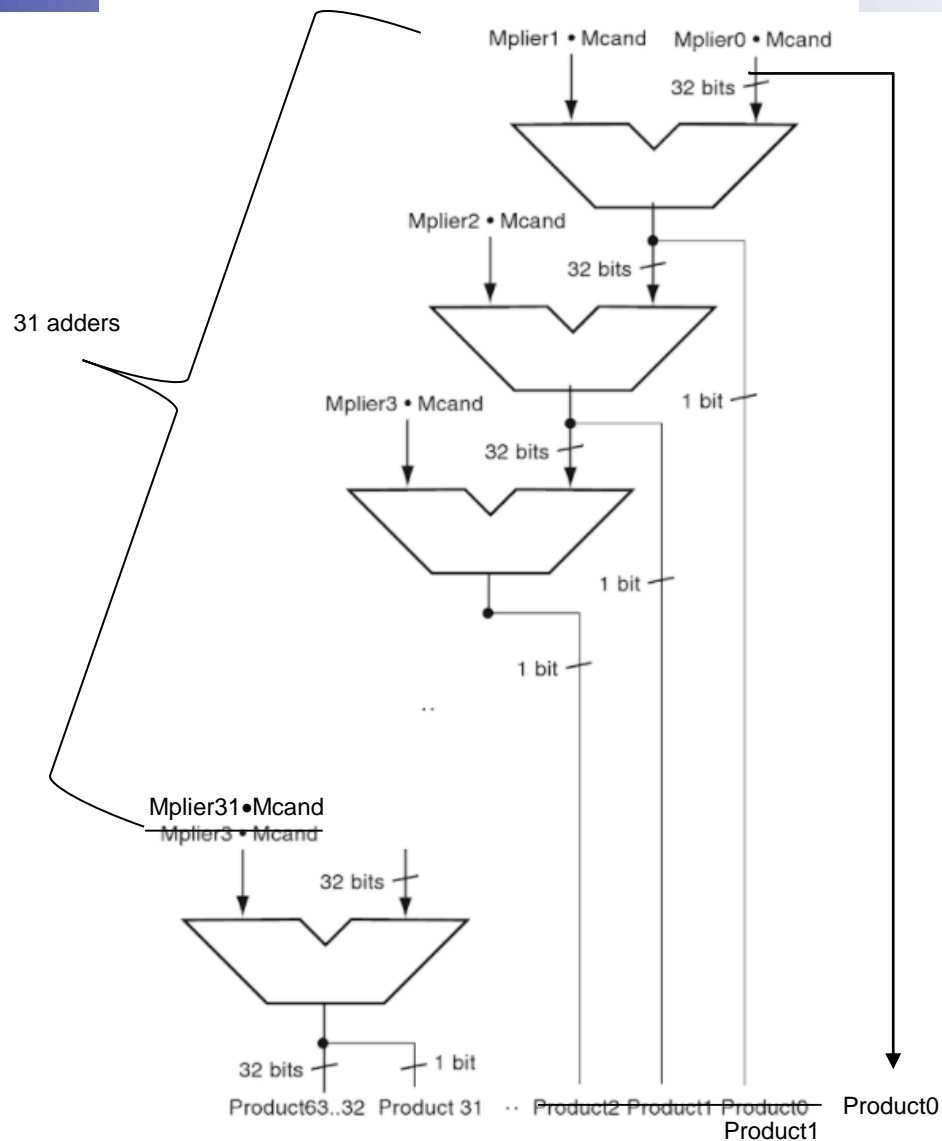
One cycle per partial-product addition

- That's ok, if frequency of multiplications is low

Multiplication Example

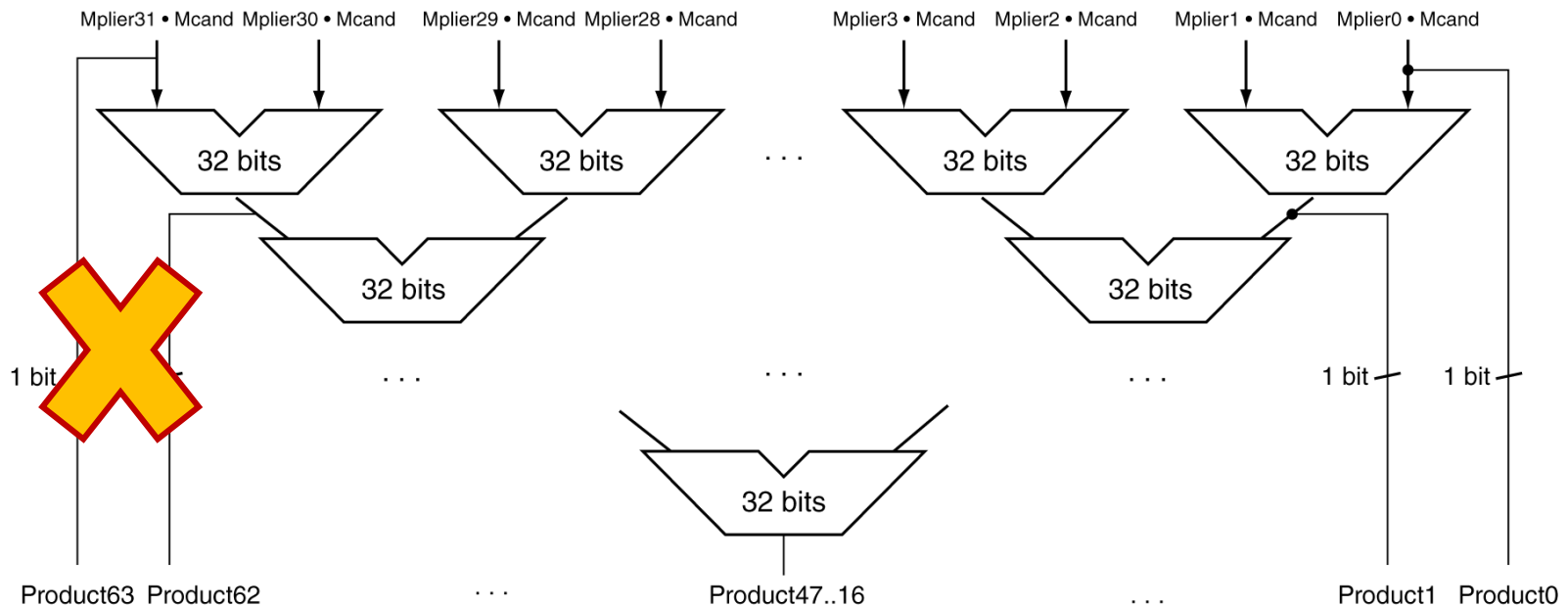
Iteration	Step	Product Register		Multiplicand
		(Product	: Multiplier)	
0	Initial value	0000	0011	0010
1	1: 1→Prod+=Mcand	0010	0011	0010
	2: shift right Preg	0001	0001	0010
2	1: 1→Prod+=Mcand	0011	0001	0010
	2: shift right Preg	0001	1000	0010
3	1: 0→no operation	0001	1000	0010
	2: shift right Preg	0000	1100	0010
4	1: 0→no operation	0000	1100	0010
	2: shift right Preg	0000	0110	0010

Faster Multiplier



Faster Multiplier

- Uses multiple adders
 - Cost/performance tradeoff

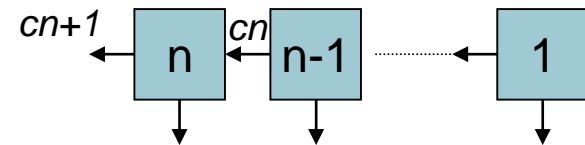


- Can be pipelined
 - Several multiplication performed in parallel

Fast Carry Using the First Level of Abstraction

- $ci+1$: carry output of level i , carry input of level $i+1$

$$\begin{aligned} ci+1 &= (bi \cdot ci) + (ai \cdot ci) + (ai \cdot bi) \\ &= (ai \cdot bi) + (ai + bi) \cdot ci \end{aligned}$$



- For example

$$c2 = (a1 \cdot b1) + (a1 + b1) \cdot ((a0 \cdot b0) + (a0 + b0) \cdot c0)$$

- We can define generate gi and propagate pi $gi = ai \cdot bi$

$$pi = ai + bi$$

such that $ci+1 = gi + pi \cdot ci$

- if $ai = bi = 1$ $ci+1 = gi + pi \cdot ci = 1 + pi \cdot ci = 1$

- if $ai = 1, bi = 0$ or $ai = 0, bi = 1$ $ci+1 = gi + pi \cdot ci = 0 + 1 \cdot ci = ci$

- $c1 = g0 + (p0 \cdot c0)$

$$c2 = g1 + (p1 \cdot c1) = g1 + (p1 \cdot g0) + (p1 \cdot p0 \cdot c0)$$

$$c3 = g2 + (p2 \cdot c2) = g2 + (p2 \cdot g1) + (p2 \cdot p1 \cdot g0) + (p2 \cdot p1 \cdot p0 \cdot c0)$$

$$\begin{aligned} c4 &= \overset{1}{g3} + (\overset{1 \text{ or } 0}{p3} \cdot \overset{1}{g2}) + (\overset{1 \text{ or } 0}{p3} \cdot \overset{1 \text{ or } 0}{p2} \cdot \overset{1 \text{ or } 0}{g1}) + (\overset{1 \text{ or } 0}{p3} \cdot \overset{1 \text{ or } 0}{p2} \cdot \overset{1 \text{ or } 0}{p1} \cdot \overset{1}{g0}) \\ &\quad + (p3 \cdot p2 \cdot p1 \cdot p0 \cdot c0) \end{aligned}$$



4-bit Carry Look-Ahead Adder

$$c1 = g0 + (p0 \cdot c0)$$

$$c2 = g1 + (p1 \cdot c1) = g1 + (p1 \cdot g0) + (p1 \cdot p0 \cdot c0)$$

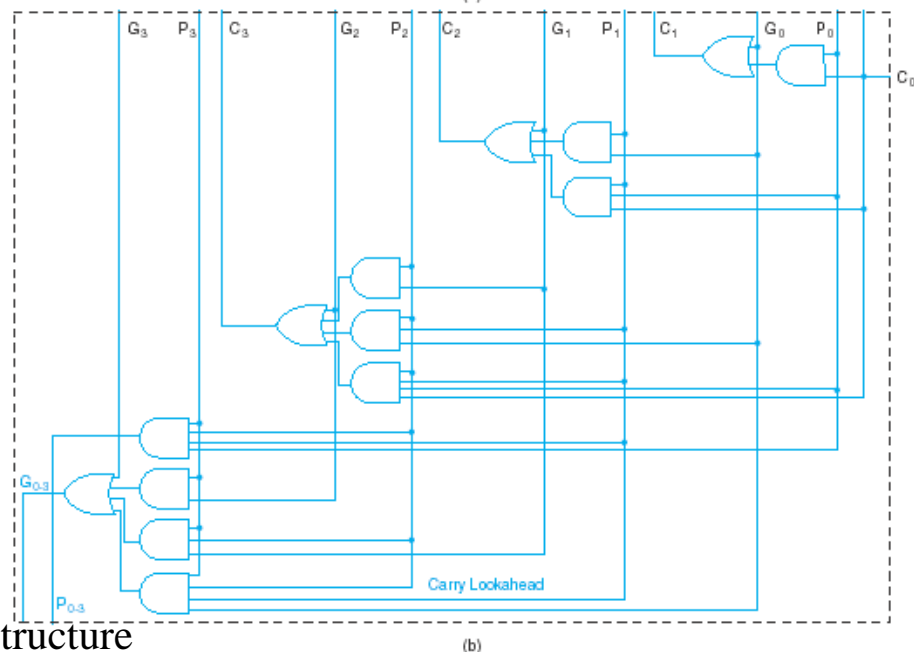
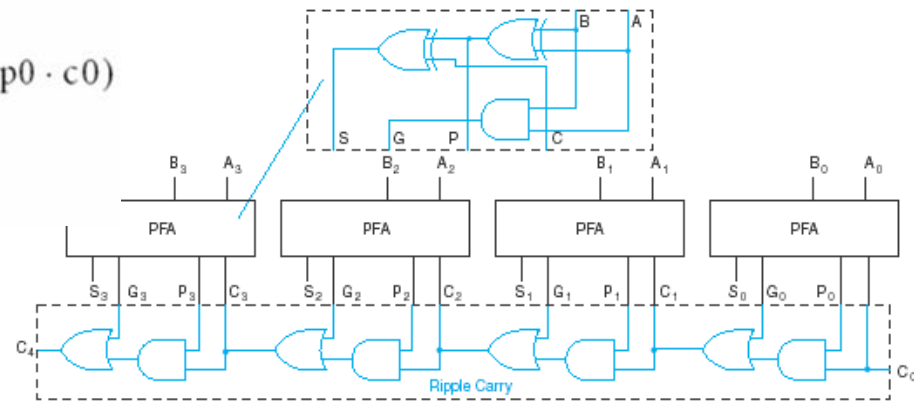
$$c3 = g2 + (p2 \cdot c2) = g2 + (p2 \cdot g1) + (p2 \cdot p1 \cdot g0) + (p2 \cdot p1 \cdot p0 \cdot c0)$$

$$c4 = g3 + (p3 \cdot g2) + (p3 \cdot p2 \cdot g1) + (p3 \cdot p2 \cdot p1 \cdot g0) + (p3 \cdot p2 \cdot p1 \cdot p0 \cdot c0)$$

C_4 : 4 AND gates and 1 OR gate

C_n : n AND gates and 1 OR gate

4-bit CLA adder



group structure

Fast Carry Using the Second Level of Abstraction

- The concept can be extended to another level by considering *group generate* (g_{0-3}) and *group propagate* (p_{0-3}) functions:

$$g_{0-3} = g_3 + p_3g_2 + p_3p_2g_1 + p_3p_2p_1g_0$$

$$p_{0-3} = p_3p_2p_1p_0$$

$$C_4 = g_3 + p_3c_3 = g_3 + p_3g_2 + p_3p_2g_1 + p_3p_2p_1g_0 + p_3p_2p_1p_0c_0$$

- Using these two equations:

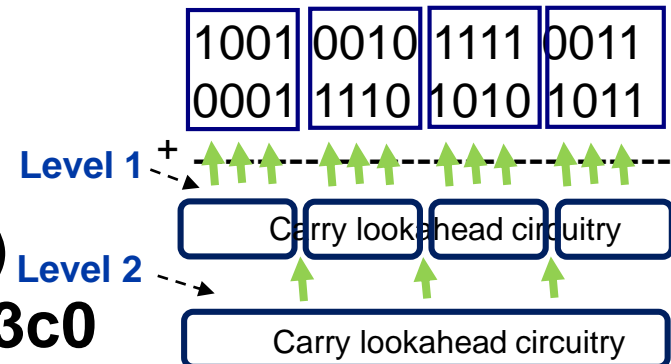
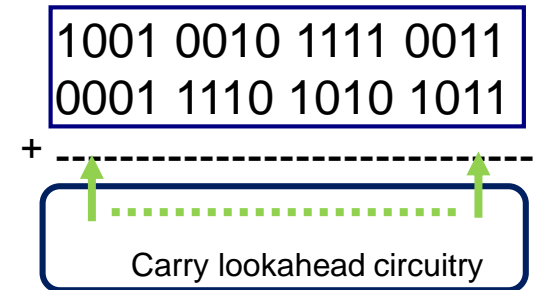
$$c_4 = g_{0-3} + p_{0-3}c_0$$

$$c_8 = g_{4-7} + p_{4-7}c_4$$

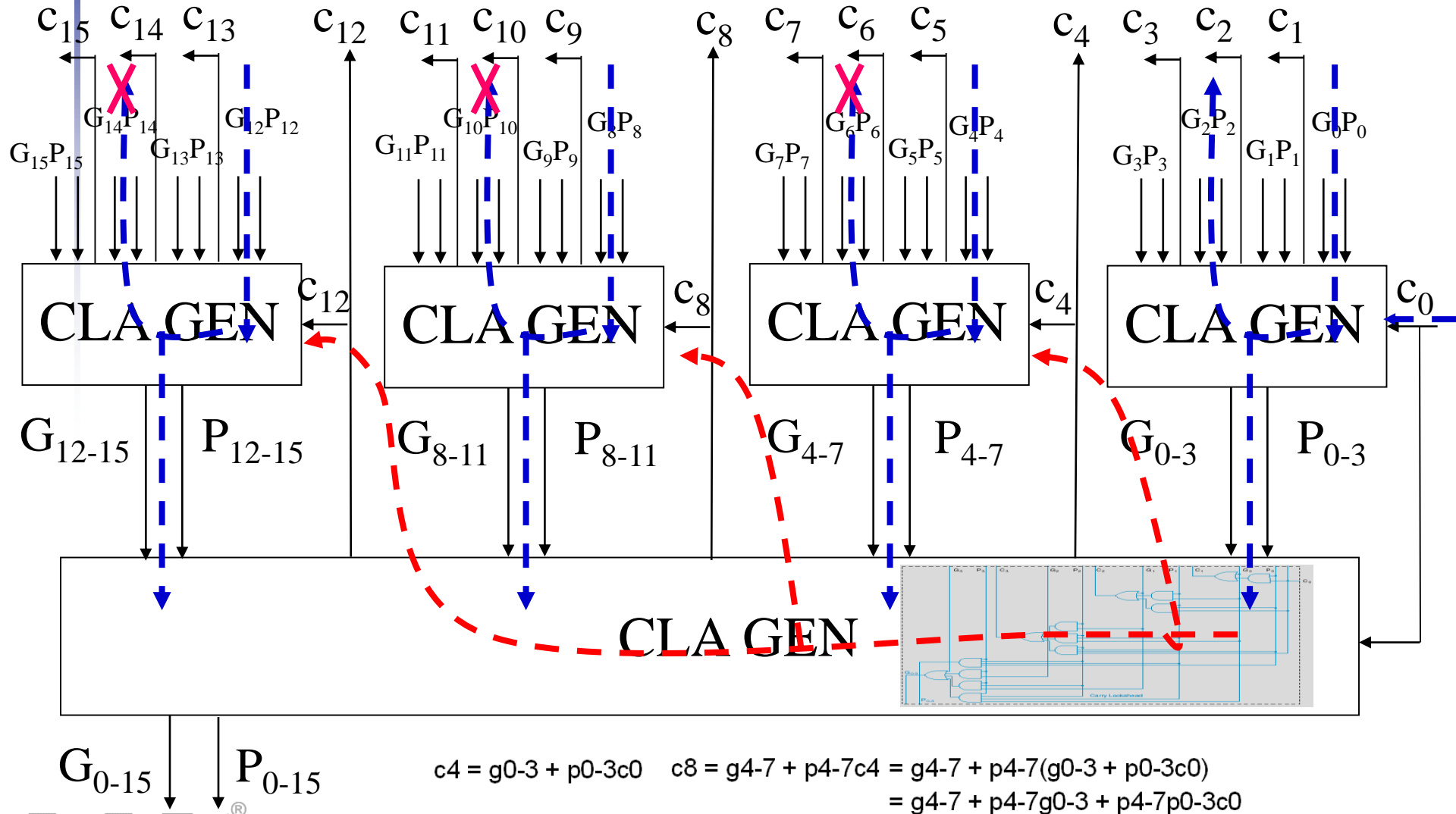
$$= g_{4-7} + p_{4-7}(g_{0-3} + p_{0-3}c_0)$$

$$= g_{4-7} + p_{4-7}g_{0-3} + p_{4-7}p_{0-3}c_0$$

- Thus, it is possible to have four 4-bit adders that use one of the same carry lookahead circuit to speed up 16-bit addition



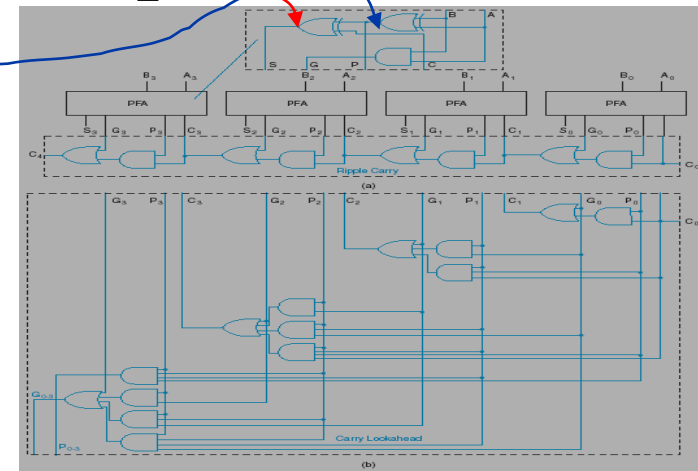
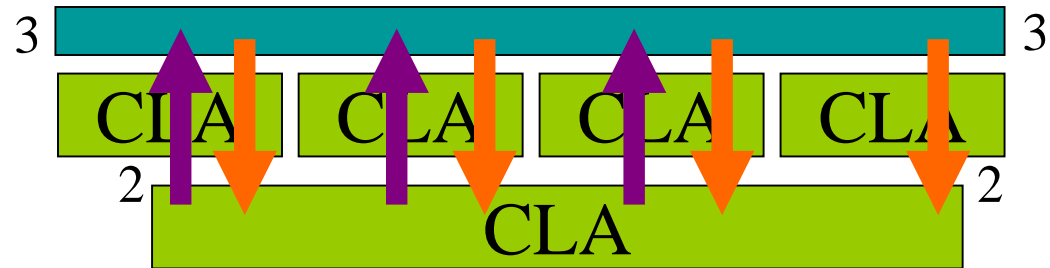
16-bit Two-Level Carry Look-Ahead Adder



Carry Lookahead Example

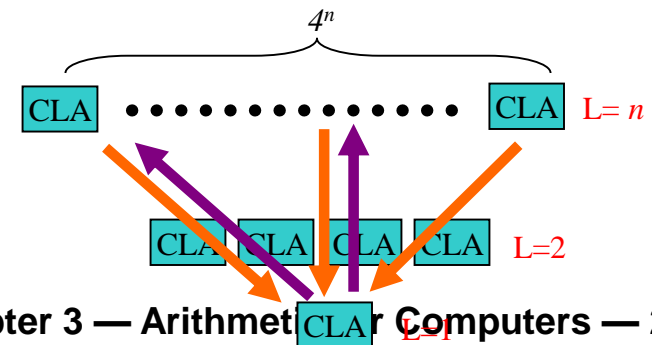
Specifications 1:

- 16-bit CLA
- Delays:
 - NOT = 1
 - XOR = Isolated AND = 3
 - AND-OR = 2
- Longest Delays:
 - Ripple carry adder*
 $= 3 + 15 \times 2 + 3 = 36$
 - CLA = $3 + 3 \times 2 + 3 = 12$



Specification 2:

- Exclusive OR = 2 gate delays (GDs)
- 2-level 16-bit CLA delay = 10 GDs
- 3-level 64-bit CLA delay = 14 GDs
- n -level 4^n -bit CLA delay = $4n + 2$



Simplified Multiplication

- Consider $01110 = 1 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1$ (three additions)
- One important observation - another faster calculation
 - $01110 = 1 \times 2^4 - 1 \times 2^1$ (one addition and one subtraction)
- Multiplication has similar property
 - The process on the left is traditional operation
 - The process on the right applies the above concept
 - $0010 \times 0110 = 0 \times (0010 \times 2^0) + 1 \times (0010 \times 2^1) + 1 \times (0010 \times 2^2) + 0 \times (0010 \times 2^3)$
 - $0010 \times 0110 = 0 \times (0010 \times 2^0) - 1 \times (0010 \times 2^1) + 0 \times (0010 \times 2^2) + 1 \times (0010 \times 2^3)$

```

      0010two
x   0110two
+  0000 shift (0 in multiplier)
+  0010 add (1 in multiplier)
+  0010 add (1 in multiplier)
+  0000 shift (0 in multiplier)
+-----
00001100two
    
```

```

      0010two
x   0110two
+  0000 shift (0 in multiplier)
-  0010 sub (first 1 in multiplier)
+  0000 shift (middle of string of 1s)
+0010 add (prior step had last 1)
+-----
00001100two
    
```

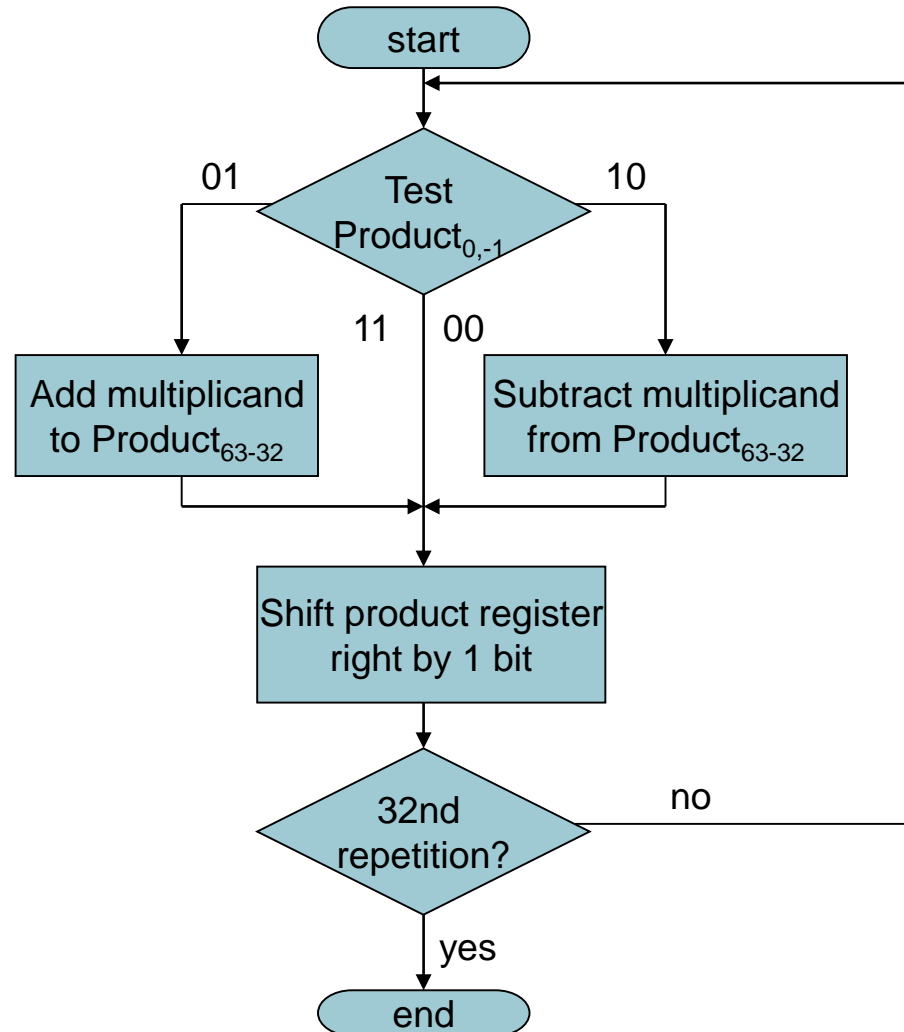
Booth's Algorithm

Current bit	Bit to the right	Explanation	example
1	0	Beginning of a run of 1s	0000111 1 000
1	1	Middle of a run of 1s	000011 1 1000
0	1	End of a run of 1s	000 0 1111000
0	0	Middle of a run of 0s	00 0 01111000

Booth's algorithm

- Based on the current and previous bits, do one of the following
 - 00: middle of a string of 0s, so no arithmetic operation.
 - 01: end of a string of 1s, so add the multiplicand to the left half of the product
 - 10: beginning of a string of 1s, so subtract the multiplicand from the left half of the product.
 - 11: middle of a string of 1s, so no arithmetic operation.
- As in the previous algorithm, shift the product register right 1 bit

Booth's Algorithm



Examples for Booth's Algorithm

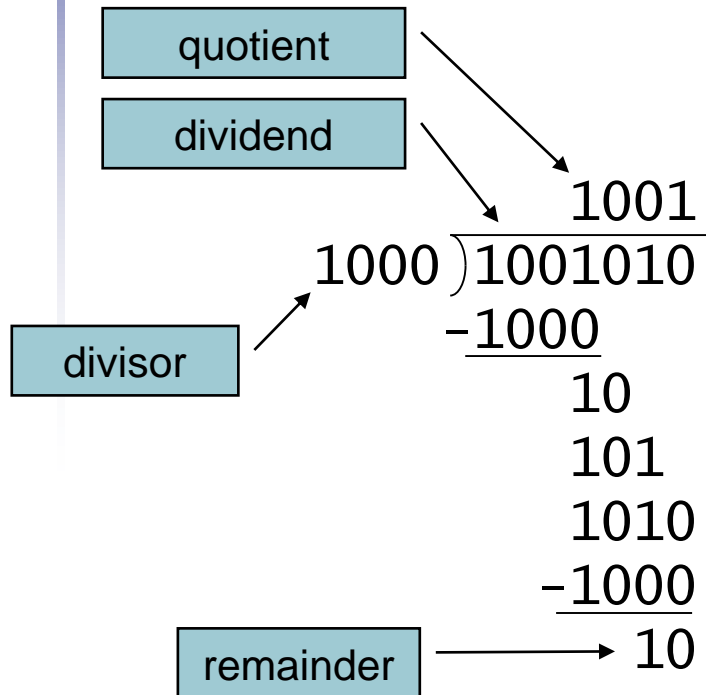
Iteration	Multiplcand	Original algorithm		Booth's algorithm	
		Step	Product	Step	Product
0	0010	Initial values	0000 0110	Initial values	0000 0110 0
1	0010	1: $0 \Rightarrow$ no operation	0000 0110	1a: $00 \Rightarrow$ no operation	0000 0110 0
	0010	2: Shift right Product	0000 0011	2: Shift right Product	0000 0011 0
2	0010	1a: $1 \Rightarrow$ Prod = Prod + Mcand	0010 0011	1c: $10 \Rightarrow$ Prod = Prod - Mcand	1110 0011 0
	0010	2: Shift right Product	0001 0001	2: Shift right Product	1111 0001 1
3	0010	1a: $1 \Rightarrow$ Prod = Prod + Mcand	0011 0001	1d: $11 \Rightarrow$ no operation	1111 0001 1
	0010	2: Shift right Product	0001 1000	2: Shift right Product	1111 1000 1
4	0010	1: $0 \Rightarrow$ no operation	0001 1000	1b: $01 \Rightarrow$ Prod = Prod + Mcand	0001 1000 1
	0010	2: Shift right Product	0000 1100	2: Shift right Product	0000 1100 0

Iteration	Step	Multiplicand	Product
0	Initial values	0010	0000 1101 0
1	1c: $10 \Rightarrow$ Prod = Prod - Mcand	0010	1110 1101 0
	2: Shift right Product	0010	1111 0110 1
2	1b: $01 \Rightarrow$ Prod = Prod + Mcand	0010	0001 0110 1
	2: Shift right Product	0010	0000 1011 0
3	1c: $10 \Rightarrow$ Prod = Prod - Mcand	0010	1110 1011 0
	2: Shift right Product	0010	1111 0101 1
4	1d: $11 \Rightarrow$ no operation	0010	1111 0101 1
	2: Shift right Product	0010	1111 1010 1

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

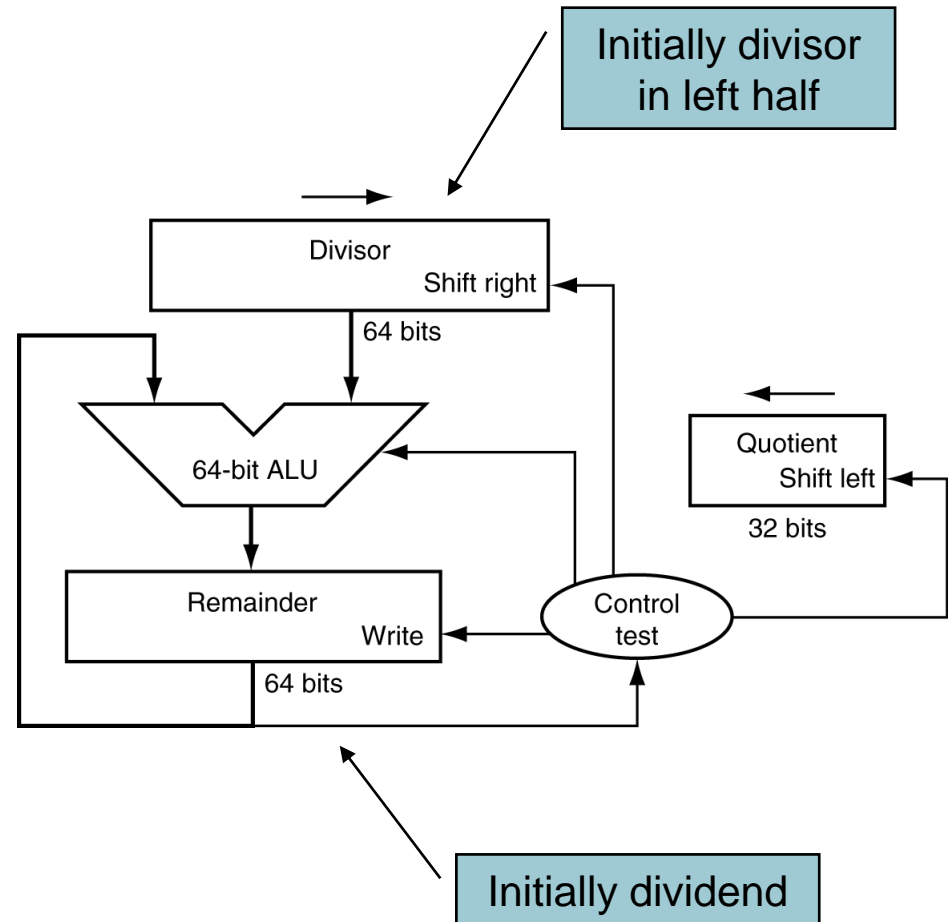
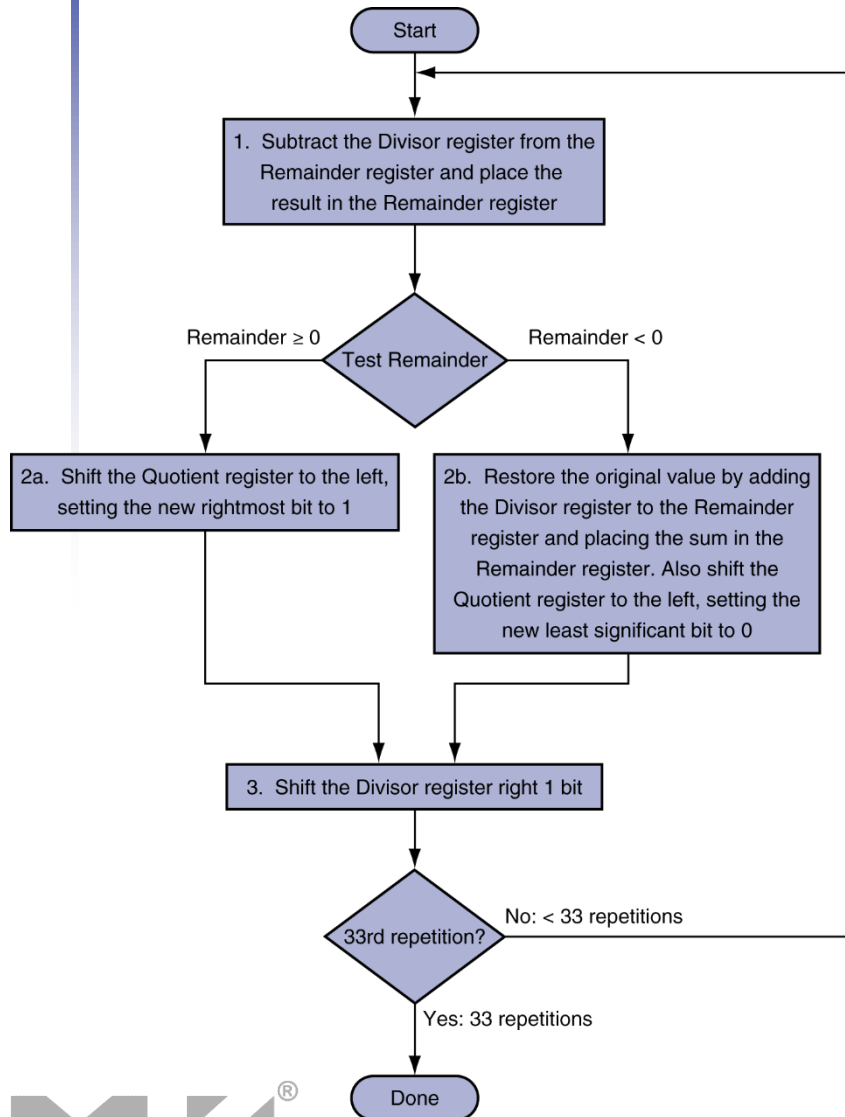
Division



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

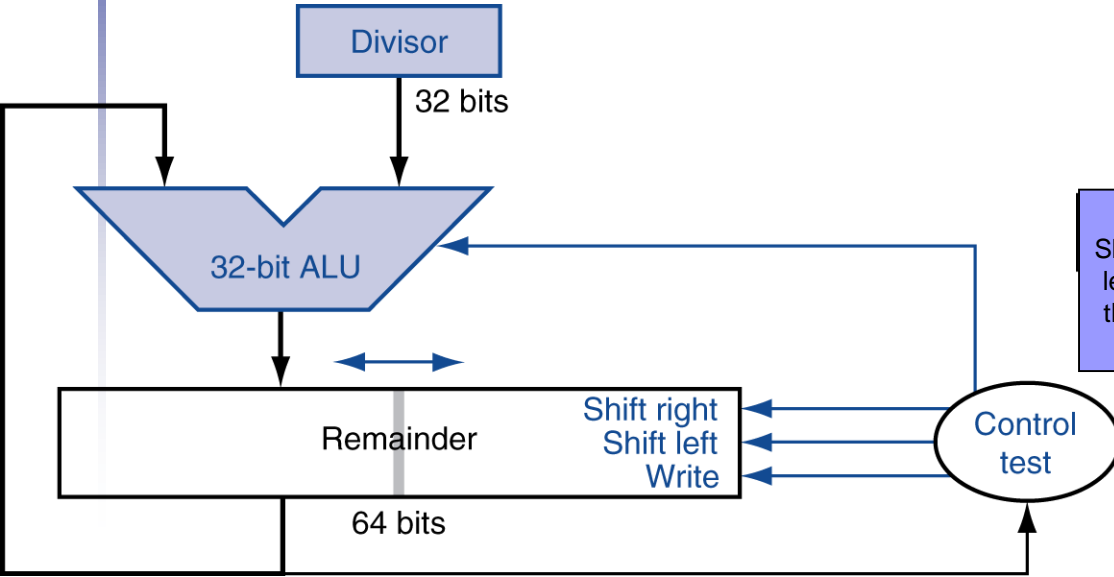
Division Hardware



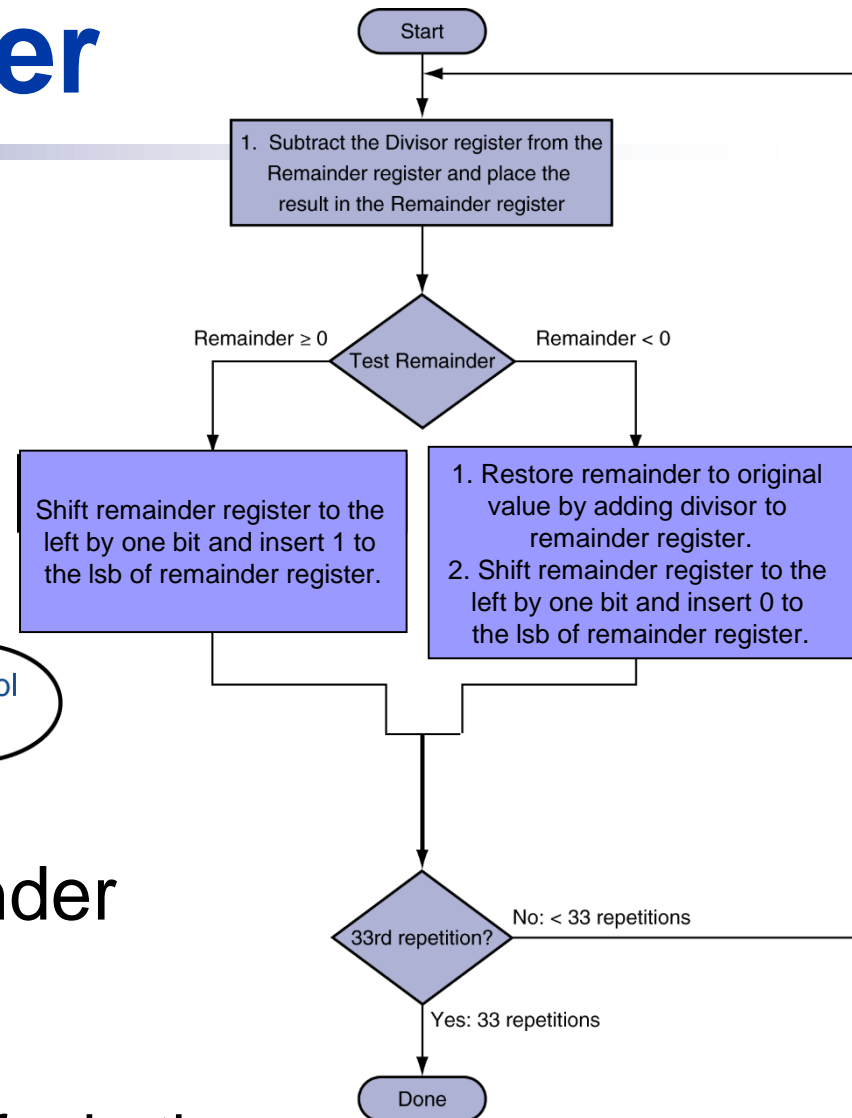
Division Example

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, QQ = 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, QQ = 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, QQ = 0	0000	0000 1000	0000 0111
	3: Shift Div right	0000	0000 0100	0000 0111
4	1: Rem = Rem - Div	0000	0000 0100	0000 0011
	2a: Rem \geq 0 \Rightarrow sll Q, QQ = 1	0001	0000 0100	0000 0011
	3: Shift Div right	0001	0000 0010	0000 0011
5	1: Rem = Rem - Div	0001	0000 0010	0000 0001
	2a: Rem \geq 0 \Rightarrow sll Q, QQ = 1	0011	0000 0010	0000 0001
	3: Shift Div right	0011	0000 0001	0000 0001

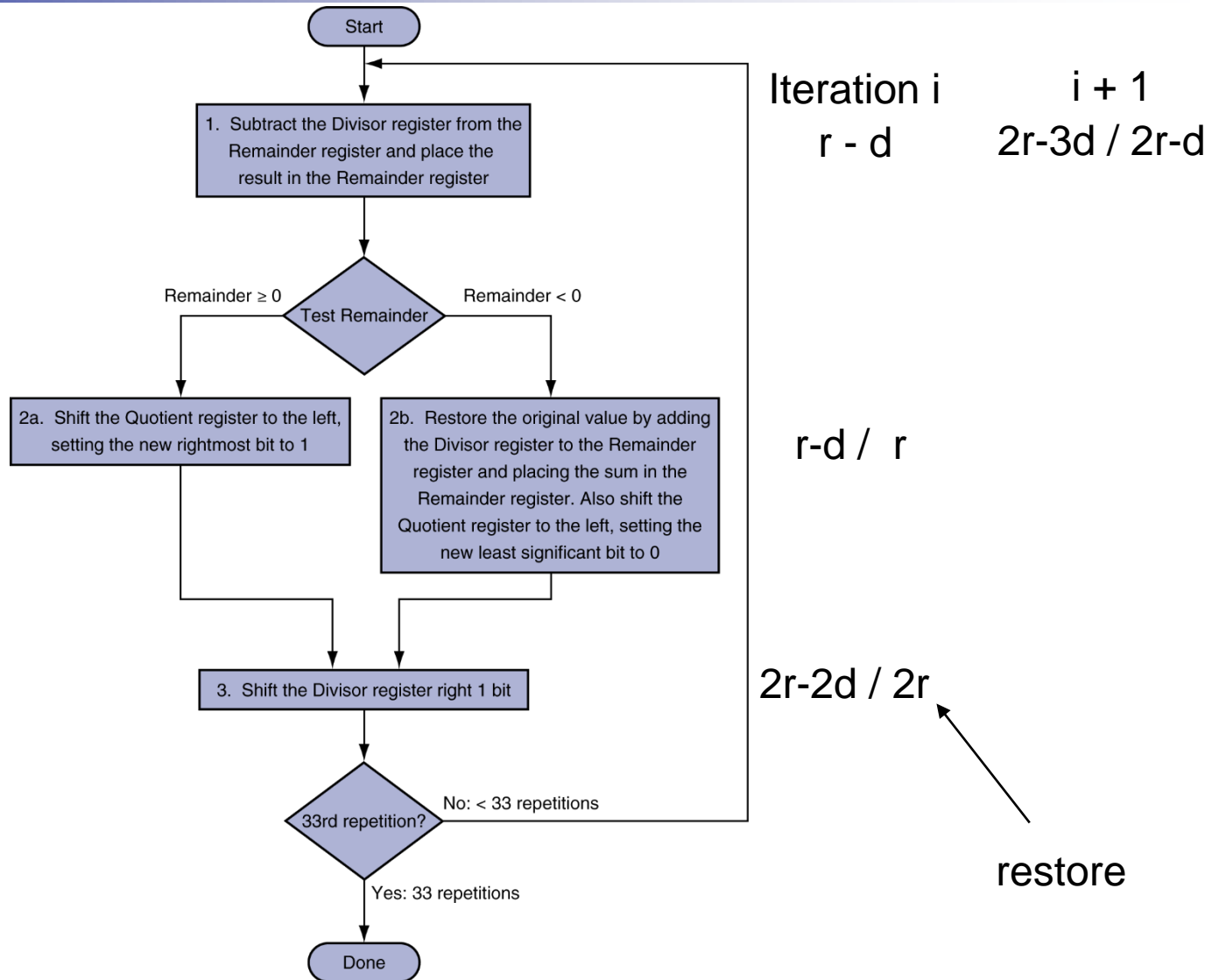
Optimized Divider



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



Restoring Algorithm



Division Algorithm

- Restoring algorithm

- $r - d \rightarrow \text{quotient} = 1$
 - sll: $2r \rightarrow \text{quotient} = 0$
- next

iteration: $2r - d$ (two subtractions and one addition)

- Non-restoring algorithm

- $r - d \rightarrow \text{quotient} = 1$
- sll: $2(r - d) \rightarrow \text{quotient} = 0$

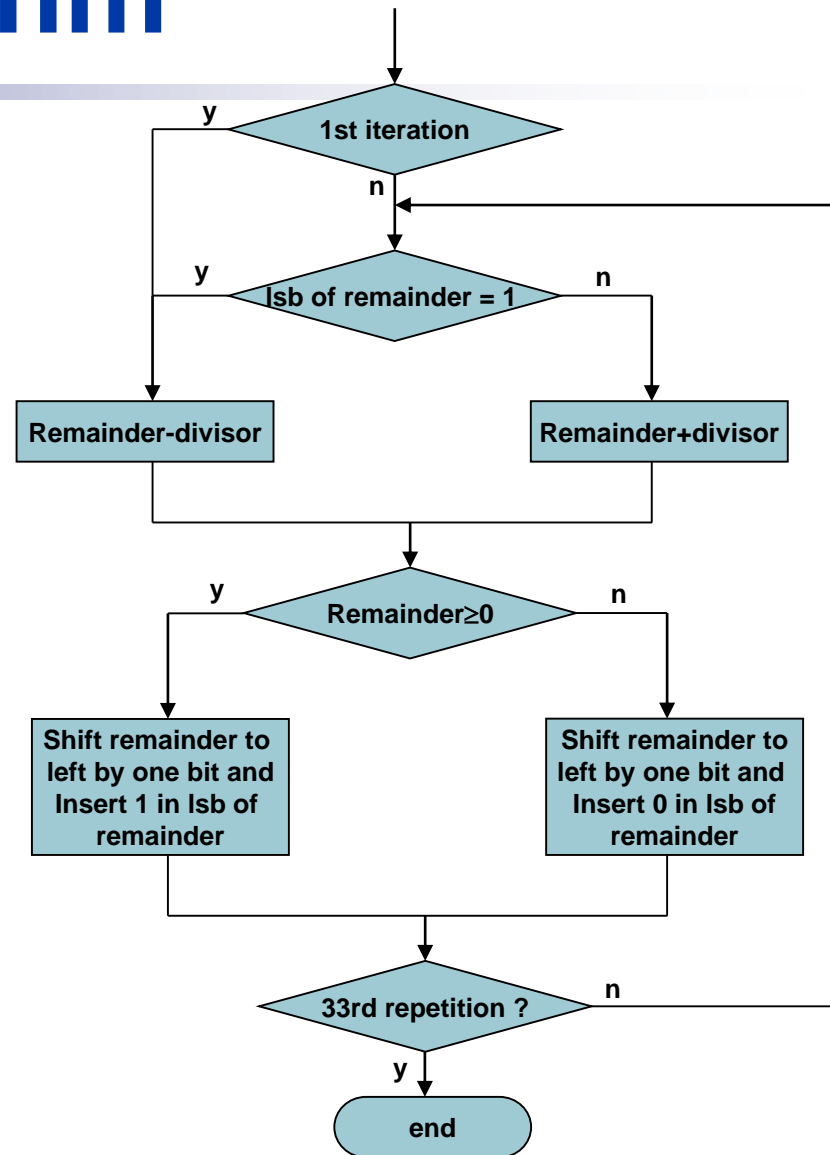
next iteration: $2(r - d) + d = 2r - d$ (one subtraction and addition)

- non-restoring flow is in the right

Iteration
1 2

$r - d$ $2r - 3d / 2r - d$

$2r - 2d$



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} ← normalized
 - $+0.002 \times 10^{-4}$ ← not normalized
 - $+987.02 \times 10^9$ ← 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

S	Exponent	Fraction
---	----------	----------

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

- 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 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
 \Rightarrow actual exponent = $254 - 127 = +127$
- Fraction: 111...11 \Rightarrow significand ≈ 2.0
- $\pm 2.0 \times 2^{+127} \approx \pm 3.4 \times 10^{+38}$

3 bits

		+11
3:	011	110
2:	010	101
1:	001	100
0:	000	011
-1:	111	010
-2:	110	001
-3:	101	000
-4:	100	111

8 bits

127	254
...	...
0	127
-1	126
...	...
-126	1
-127	0
-128	255

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

- 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: $-1 + 1023 = 1022 = 01111111110_2$
- Single: $10111111101000\dots00$
- Double: $10111111111101000\dots00$

Floating-Point Example

- What number is represented by the single-precision float

11000000101000...00

- $S = 1$
 - Fraction = $01000...00_2$
 - Exponent = $10000001_2 = 129$
- $x = (-1)^1 \times (1 + 01_2) \times 2^{(129 - 127)}$
 $= (-1) \times 1.25 \times 2^2$
 $= -5.0$

Denormal Numbers

- Exponent = 000...0 with fraction $\neq 0 \Rightarrow$ hidden bit is 0

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

- 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

IEEE 754 Encoding of FPN

Single Precision		Double Precision		Object represented
Exponent	Fraction	Exponent	Fraction	
0	0	0	0	0
0	Nonzero	0	Nonzero	\pm denormalized number
1-254	Anything	1-2046	Anything	\pm floating-point number
255	0	2047	0	$\pm \infty$
255	Nonzero	2047	Nonzero	NaN

- Smallest positive single precision normalized number
=
- Smallest positive single precision denormalized no. (Hint: Fraction is 23-bit)
=
- ∞ must obey mathematical conventions: $F + \infty = \infty$; $F / \infty = 0$

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

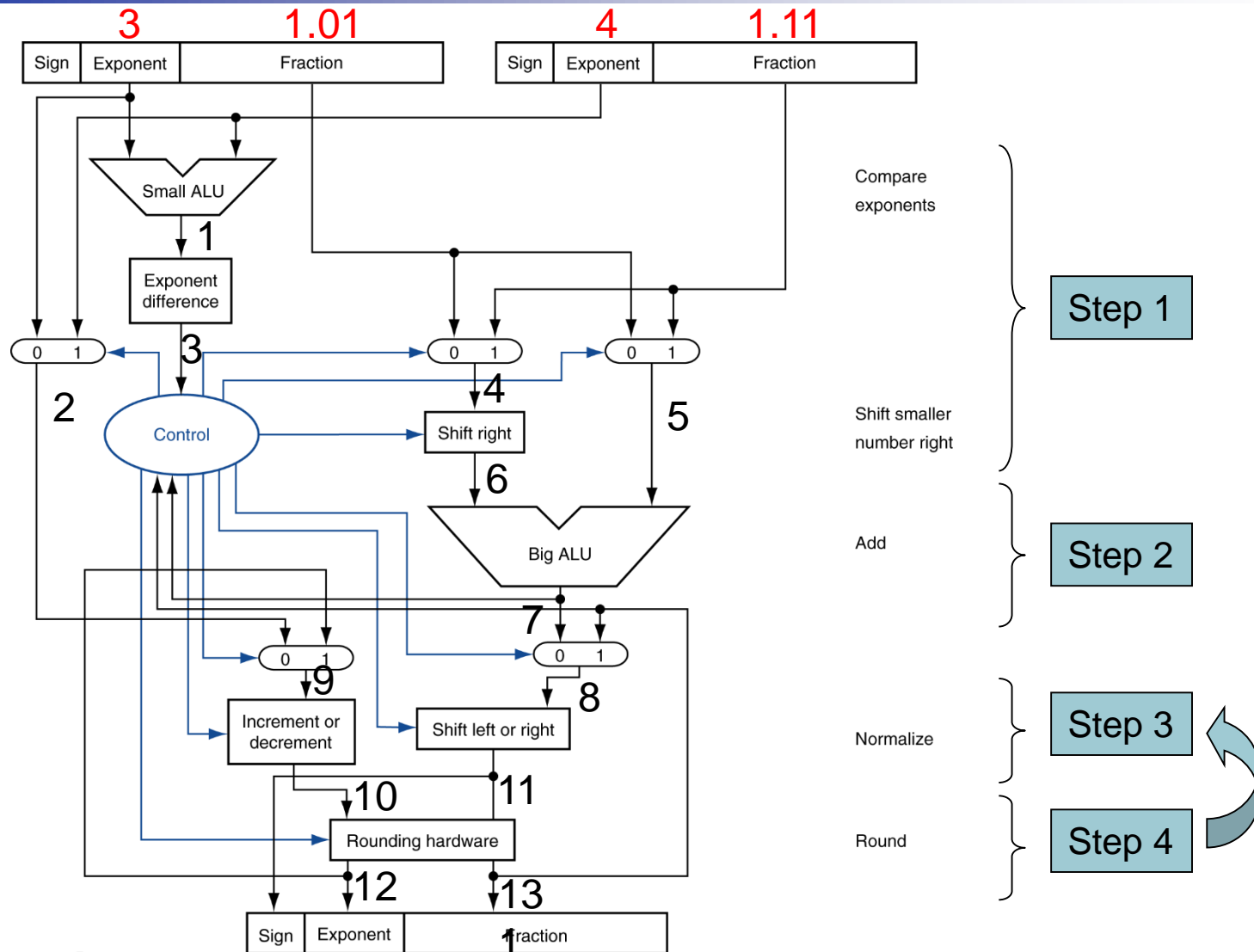
Floating-Point Addition

- 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 25`

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

Accuracy of Floating-Point Operations

- Consider the addition: $2.56 \times 10^0 + 2.34 \times 10^2$
 $0.0256 \times 10^2 + 2.3400 \times 10^2 = 2.3656 \times 10^2 = 2.37 \times 10^2$
Guard and round ↖ 0.44 ulp (unit in the last place)
- If there are no guard and round extra bits, the result will be
 $0.02 \times 10^2 + 2.34 \times 10^2 = 2.36 \times 10^2$
- 2.34500000000000 (2.34) vs. 2.34500000000001 (2.35) by sticky bit (how to get?)

Interpretation of Data

The BIG Picture

- 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

Associativity

- Parallel programs may interleave operations in unexpected orders
 - Assumptions of associativity may fail

		$(x+y)+z$	$x+(y+z)$
x	-1.50E+38	0.00E+00	-1.50E+38
y	1.50E+38		1.50E+38
z	1.0	1.0	
		1.00E+00	0.00E+00

- Need to validate parallel programs under varying degrees of parallelism

x86 FP Architecture

- Originally based on 8087 FP coprocessor
 - 8×80 -bit extended-precision registers
 - Used as a push-down stack
 - Registers indexed from TOS: ST(0), ST(1), ...
- FP values are 32-bit or 64 in memory
 - Converted on load/store of memory operand
 - Integer operands can also be converted on load/store
- Very difficult to generate and optimize code
 - Result: poor FP performance



x86 FP Instructions

Data transfer	Arithmetic	Compare	Transcendental
FILD mem/ST(i) FISTP mem/ST(i) FLDPI FLD1 FLDZ	F I ADDP mem/ST(i) F I SUBRP mem/ST(i) F I MULP mem/ST(i) F I DIVRP mem/ST(i) FSQRT FABS FRNDINT	F I COMP F I UCOMP FSTSW AX/mem	FPATAN F2XMI FCOS FPTAN FPREM FPSIN FYL2X

- Optional variations
 - **I**: integer operand
 - **P**: pop operand from stack
 - **R**: reverse operand order
 - But not all combinations allowed

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

Right Shift and Division

- Left shift by i places multiplies an integer by 2^i
- Right shift divides by 2^i ?
 - Only for unsigned integers
- For signed integers
 - Arithmetic right shift: replicate the sign bit
 - e.g., $-5 / 4$
 - $11111011_2 \gg 2 = 11111110_2 = -2$
 - Rounds toward $-\infty$
 - c.f. $11111011_2 \ggg 2 = 00111110_2 = +62$

Who Cares About FP Accuracy?

- Important for scientific code
 - But for everyday consumer use?
 - “My bank balance is out by 0.0002¢!” ☹
- The Intel Pentium FDIV bug
 - The market expects accuracy
 - See Colwell, *The Pentium Chronicles*

Concluding Remarks

- ISAs support arithmetic
 - Signed and unsigned integers
 - Floating-point approximation to reals
- Bounded range and precision
 - Operations can overflow and underflow
- MIPS ISA
 - Core instructions (MIPS cores and MIPS arithmetic cores): 54 most frequently used
 - 100% of SPECINT, 97% of SPECFP
 - Other instructions: less frequent

