CmpEn 431 Computer Architecture Fall 2015

Chapter 3: Arithmetic for Computers

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[Adapted from Computer Organization and Design, 5th Edition, Patterson & Hennessy, © 2014, MK]

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Reminders

- This lecture
 - MIPS arithmetic, PH Chapter 3, Appendix B
- Next week
 - MIPS single-cycle datapath and control, PH 4.1-4.4
 - MIPS pipelined datapaths, data hazards, PH 4.5-4.7
- Reminders
 - HW1 due midnight Sept 3rd in Angel DropBox
 - Quiz 1 will close midnight Sept 7th
 - Attend one of the unix + SimpleScalar tutorial sessions in the lab (218 IST) Sept 9th and 10th from 7:30 to 9pm
 - HW2 will come out Sept 4th (our first using SimpleScalar)
 - First evening midterm exam scheduled
 - Tuesday, October 6th, 20:15 to 22:15, Location 22 Deike
 - Please let me know ASAP (via email) if you have a conflict

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Review: MIPS (RISC) Design Principles

□ Simplicity favors regularity

- Makes implementation simpler, enables higher performance at lower design cost
 - fixed size instructions, small number of instruction formats, opcode always the first 6 bits, etc.

□ Smaller is faster/better

- Reduces design and implementation costs, improves chip yield, enables higher performance (and lower power?)
 - limited instruction set, limited number of registers in RF, limited number of addressing modes, etc.

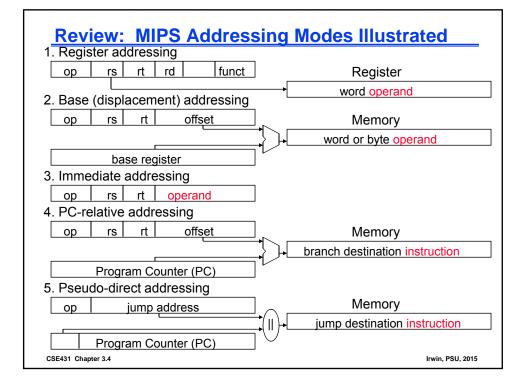
■ Make the common case fast

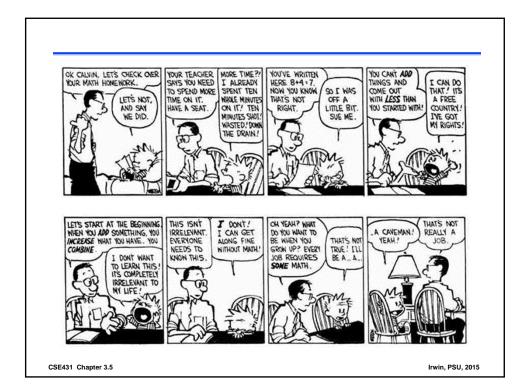
- Find the biggest impact on performance and optimize that
 - arithmetic operands from the RF (load-store machine), immediate operands in instructions, etc.

□ Good design demands good compromises

- three instruction formats

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Number Representations 32 hit signed integers (2's cor

□ 32-bit signed integers (2's complement):

- Converting <32-bit values into 32-bit values</p>
 - copy the most significant bit (the sign bit) into the "empty" bits
 0010 -> 0000 0010

1010 -> 0000 0010 1010 -> 1111 1010

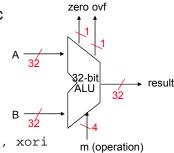
• sign extend versus zero extend (1b vs. 1bu)

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MIPS Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

Must support the Arithmetic/Logic operations of the ISA

```
add, addi, addiu, addu A 32 sub, subu mult, multu, div, divu sqrt B 32 and, andi, nor, or, ori, xor, xori
```



beq, bne, slt, slti, sltiu, sltu

- With special handling for
 - sign extend addi, addiu, slti, sltiu
 - zero extend andi, ori, xori
 - overflow detection add, addi, sub
 - overflow detection in software mult, div

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Detecting Overflow

- Overflow occurs when the result of an operation cannot be represented in 32-bits, i.e., when the sign bit contains a value bit of the result and not the proper sign bit
 - When adding operands with different signs or when subtracting operands with the same sign, overflow can never occur

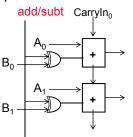
Operation	Operand A	Operand B	Result indicating overflow
A + B	≥ 0	≥ 0	< 0
A + B	< 0	< 0	≥ 0
A - B	≥ 0	< 0	< 0
A - B	< 0	≥ 0	≥ 0

■ MIPS signals overflow with an exception (aka interrupt) – an unscheduled procedure call to the OS where the EPC contains the address of the instruction that caused the exception

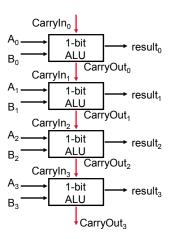
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Addition and Subtraction on the MIPS ALU

- □ For addition, build a 32-bit adder from 32 1-bit adders. This is called a ripple-carry adder (RCA). Its slow, but easy to understand. How about subtraction?
 - Remember the "rules" for converting a 2s complement number to its negative equivalent?



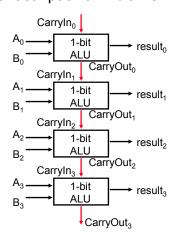
In reality, just negating and then adding!



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But What about Performance?

 \Box Critical path of n-bit RCA is n*CP = O(n)



n	RCA	CLA
8	8	3
16	16	4
32	32	5
64	64	6
128	128	7

□ Design trick – throw hardware at it (Carry Lookahead Adder, prefix adder) for an O(log n) adder

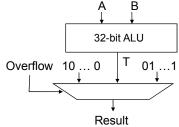
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Arithmetic for Multimedia Operations

- □ Graphics and media processing operates on vectors of 8-bit and 16-bit data
 - Use our 32-bit adder, with a "partitioned " carry chain
 - Operate on 4×8-bit, 2×16-bit, or 1×32-bit vectors
 - SIMD (single-instruction, multiple-data), data-level parallelism
- Saturating operations
 - On overflow, result is largest representable signed value

Overflow_{pos} =
$$T_{31} \& !A_{31} \& !B_{31}$$

Overflow_{neg} =
$$!T_{31} \& A_{31} \& B_{31}$$

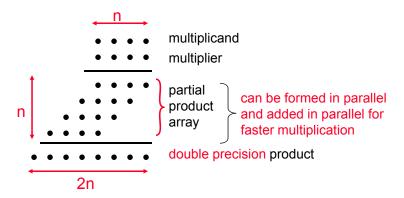


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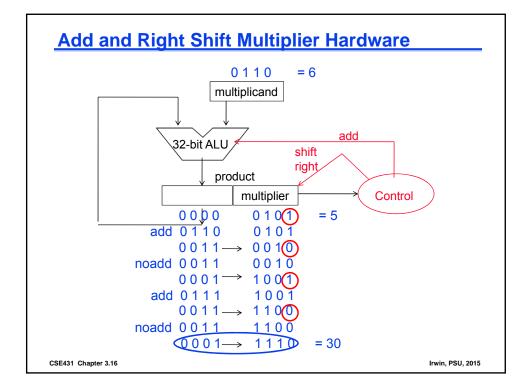
Multiply

□ Binary multiplication is just a *bunch* of right shifts and adds



"If war were arithmetic, the mathematicians would rule the world."

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MIPS Multiply Instruction

Multiply (mult and multu) produces a double precision product

mult \$s0, \$s1 # hi||lo = \$s0 * \$s1

0 16 17 0 0 0x18

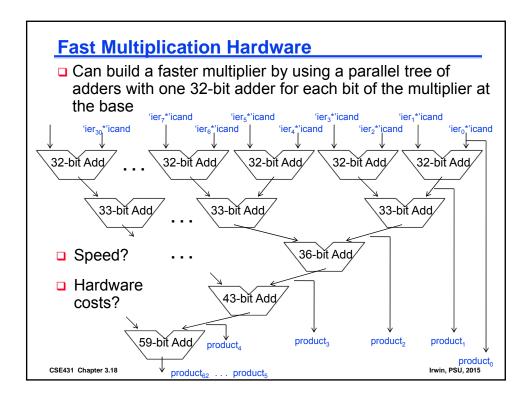
alu \$s0 \$s1 unused unused mult

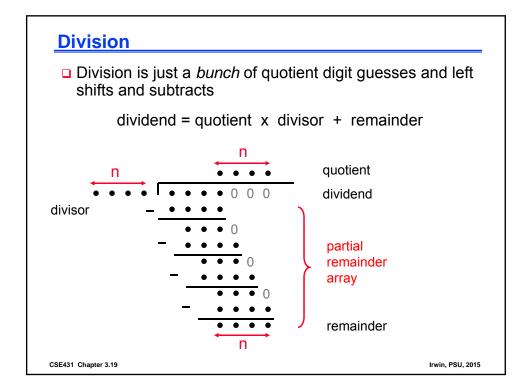
- \bullet Low-order word of the product is left in processor register 10 and the high-order word is left in register $\,{\rm hi}$
- Instructions mfhi rd and mflo rd are provided to move the product to (user accessible) registers in the register file

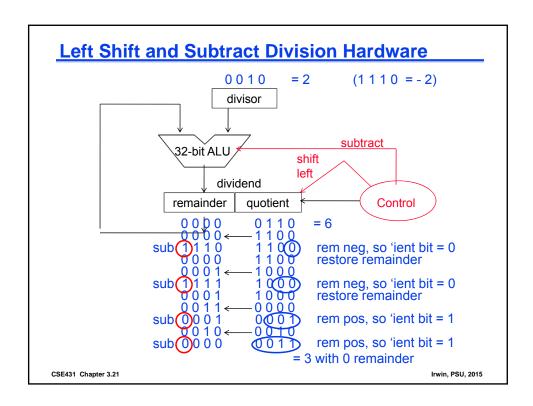
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- What is the speed of our add and right shift (serial) 4-bit multiplier assuming a RCA is used?
- Thus, multiplies are usually done by fast, dedicated hardware and are much more complex (and slower) than adders

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Aside: Previous Example, Step by Step

State of rem quot	How we got to that state
0000 0110	initialize remainder quotient with 0 dividend
0000 1100	shift left 1
1110 1100	trial subtract (remainder – divisor, 0000 – 0010 is 1110) set the lsb of quotient to 0
0000 1100	trial subtract result is negative, restore the previous remainder
0001 1000	shift left
1111 1000	trial subtract (0001 – 0010 is 1111) set the lsb of quotient to 0
0001 1000	trial subtract result is negative, restore the previous remainder
0011 0000	shift left
0001 0001	trial subtract (0011 – 0010 is 0001) set the lsb of quotient to 1
0010 0010	shift left
0000 0011	trial subtract (0010 – 0010 is 0000) set the lsb of quotient to 1

Isb of quotient is set to complement of msb of trial subtract result

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MIPS Divide Instruction

□ Divide (div and divu) generates the reminder in hi and the quotient in 10

- Instructions mfhi rd and mflo rd are provided to move the quotient and reminder to (user accessible) registers in the register file
- Speed? Hardware costs?
- As with multiply, divide ignores overflow so software must determine if the quotient is too large. Software must also check the divisor to avoid division by 0.

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Representing Big (and Small) Numbers

□ What if we want to encode the approx. age of the earth? 4,600,000,000 or 4.6 x 109

or the weight in kg of one a.m.u. (atomic mass unit)
0.00000000000000000000000166 or 1.6 x 10⁻²⁷

There is no way we can encode either of the above in a 32-bit integer.

- □ Floating point representation (-1)^{sign} x F x 2^E
 - Still have to fit everything in 32 bits (single precision)



- The base (2, not 10) is hardwired in the design of the FPALU
- More bits in the fraction (F) or the exponent (E) is a trade-off between precision (roughly, the accuracy of the number) and range (roughly, the magnitude of the number)

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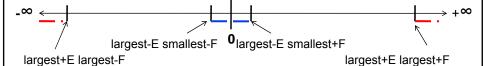
Aside: Precision vs. Accuracy

- □ Precision and accuracy are not the same concept.
- □ Precision is a quality of one number on its own how many bits or digits do we retain?
 - How many do you trust? is a question for data collection, statistical analysis, numerical analysis, and hardware design.
- □ Accuracy is a quality of two numbers how close are they?
 - When discussing accuracy, one of the two numbers is assumed to be "right". For example, 4.5678 is precise to 5 digits, but as an approximation to π it is only accurate to one-half digit, since (4.5678 3.1416) / 3.1416 = 0.45397
 - When discussing precision, you could say that a number is accurate to within ½ unit in the last place. Why?

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Exception Events in Floating Point

- Overflow (floating point) happens when a positive exponent becomes too large to fit in the exponent field
- Underflow (floating point) happens when a negative exponent becomes too large to fit in the exponent field



- One way to reduce the chance of underflow or overflow is to offer another format that has a larger exponent field
 - Double precision takes two MIPS words



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More Number Representations

24-bit signed <u>fractions</u> (<u>sign magnitude</u>):

```
X = X_{-1}2^{-1} + X_{-2}2^{-2} + ... + X_{-22}2^{-22} + X_{-23}2^{-23}
  = sign bit
```

- □ The most significant bit, s, is the sign bit of the fraction, F
 - To perform negation, just flip the sign bit (easy!)
 - The magnitude of the most positive F and most negative F are the same (not as in two's complement)
 - There are now two representations for an F of 0, one positive, one negative

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IEEE 754 FP Standard

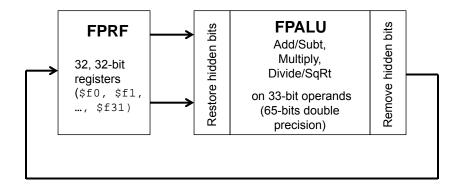
```
s E (exponent)
                                        F (fraction)
1 bit
         8 bits
                                        23 bits
```

- Most (all?) computers these days conform to the IEEE 754 floating point standard $(-1)^{sign}$ x (1+F) x 2^{E-bias}
 - With formats for both single and double precision
 - F is stored in normalized sign magnitude format
 - Normalized means that before the result is put into the FPRF, F is shifted (left) and E decremented (once for every left bit shift) until the msb of F is a 1 (so there is no need to store it!) – called the hidden bit
 - So when a value is read from the FPRF, the hidden bit of 1 has to be restored before performing computation
- To simplify sorting FP numbers, E comes before F in the word and E is represented in excess (biased) notation where the bias is 127 (1023 for double precision) so the most negative exponent is $00000001 = 2^{1-127} = 2^{-126}$ and the most positive exponent is 11111110 = $2^{254-127}$ = 2^{+127} (exponents 00000000 and 11111111 are reserved for special uses)

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Floating Point Arithmetic Hardware

□ Floating Point Register File (FPRF) and floating point ALU (FPALU)



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IEEE 754 FP Examples

□ Examples (in normalized format)

(1+F) x 2^{E-bias}

- - Note that hardware detects true 0 (F and E all zeros) and does not restored the hidden bit of 1

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IEEE 754 FP Standard Encoding

- Special encodings are used to represent unusual events
 - ± infinity for division by zero
 - NAN (not a number) for the results of invalid operations such as 0/0
 - True zero is the bit string all zero

Single Pre	ecision	Double Pred	cision	Object
E (8)	F (23)	E (11)	F (52)	Represented
0000 0000	0	0000 0000	0	true zero (0)
0000 0000	nonzero	0000 0000	nonzero	± denormalized number
0000 0001 to 1111 1110	anything	0000 0001 to 1111 1110	anything	± floating point number
1111 1111	± 0	1111 1111	± 0	± infinity
1111 1111	nonzero	1111 1111	nonzero	not a number (NaN)

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Support for Accurate Arithmetic

- □ IEEE 754 FP rounding modes
 - Always round up (toward +∞)
 - Always round down (toward -∞)
 - Truncate
 - Round to nearest even (when the Guard || Round || Sticky are 100) – always creates a 0 in the least significant (kept) bit of F
- Rounding (except for truncation) requires the FPALU to include three extra F bits during calculations
 - Guard bit G used to provide one F bit when shifting left to normalize a result (e.g., when normalizing F after division or subt)
 - Round bit R

 used to improve rounding accuracy
 - Sticky bit S used to support Round to nearest even; is set to a 1
 whenever a 1 bit shifts (right) through it (e.g., when aligning F
 during addition/subtraction)

F = 1 . xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx GRS

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Floating Point Addition

Addition (and subtraction)

$$(\pm F1 \times 2^{E1}) + (\pm F2 \times 2^{E2}) = \pm F3 \times 2^{E3}$$

- Step 0: Restore the hidden bit in F1 and in F2
- Step 1: Align fractions by right shifting F2 by E1 E2 positions (assuming E1 ≥ E2) keeping track of (three of) the bits shifted out in G R and S
- Step 2: Add the resulting F2 to F1 to form F3
- Step 3: Normalize F3 (so it is in the form 1.XXXXX ...)
 - If F1 and F2 have the same sign → F3 ∈[1,4) → 1 bit right shift F3 and increment E3 (check for overflow)
 - If F1 and F2 have different signs → F3 may require many left shifts each time decrementing E3 (check for underflow)
- Step 4: Round F3 and possibly normalize F3 again
- Step 5: Rehide the most significant (hidden) bit of F3 before storing the result

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Floating Point Addition Example

Add

$$(0.5 = 1.0000 \times 2^{-1}) + (-0.4375 = -1.1100 \times 2^{-2})$$

- Step 0: Hidden bits restored in the representation above
- Step 1: Shift fraction with the smaller exponent (1.1100) right until its exponent matches the larger exponent (so once)
- Step 2: Add fractions

$$1.0000 + (-0.111) = 1.0000 - 0.111 = 0.001$$

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- Step 3: Normalize the sum, checking for exponent over/underflow $0.001 \times 2^{-1} = 0.010 \times 2^{-2} = .. = 1.000 \times 2^{-4}$
- Step 4: The sum is already rounded, so we're done
- Step 5: Rehide the hidden bit before storing

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Floating Point Multiplication

Multiplication

$$(\pm F1 \times 2^{E1}) \times (\pm F2 \times 2^{E2}) = \pm F3 \times 2^{E3}$$

- Step 0: Restore the hidden bit in F1 and in F2
- Step 1: Add the two (biased) exponents and subtract the bias from the sum, so E1 + E2 – 127 = E3

also determine the sign of the product (which depends on the sign of the operands (their most significant bits))

- Step 2: Multiply F1 by F2 to form a double precision F3
- Step 3: Normalize F3 (so it is in the form 1.XXXXX ...)
 - Since F1 and F2 come in normalized \to F3 \in [1,4) \to 1 bit right shift F3 and increment E3
 - Check for overflow/underflow
- Step 4: Round F3 and possibly normalize F3 again
- Step 5: Rehide the most significant (hidden) bit of F3 before storing the result

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Floating Point Multiplication Example

Multiply

$$(0.5 = 1.0000 \times 2^{-1}) \times (-0.4375 = -1.1100 \times 2^{-2})$$

- Step 0: Hidden bits restored in the representation above
- Step 1: Add the exponents (not in bias would be -1 + (-2) = -3 and in bias would be (-1+127) + (-2+127) 127 = (-1 + -2) + (127+127-127) = -3 + 127 = 124)
- Step 2: Multiply the fractions
 1.0000 x 1.1100 = 1.110000
- Step 3: Normalized the product, checking for exp over/underflow 1.110000 x 2⁻³ is already normalized
- Step 4: The product is already rounded, so we're done
- Step 5: Rehide the hidden bit before storing

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MIPS Floating Point Instructions

■ MIPS has a separate Floating Point RF (\$f0, \$f1, ..., \$f31) (whose registers are used in *pairs* for double precision values) with special instructions to load to and store from them

```
lwcl $f1,54($s2) $f1 = Memory[$s2+54]
swcl $f1,58($s4) $memory[$s4+58] = $f1
```

□ And supports IEEE 754 single

```
add.s $f2,$f4,$f6  #$f2 = $f4 + $f6
```

and double precision operations

```
add.d $f2,$f4,$f6 #$f2||$f3 = $f4||$f5 + $f6||$f7
```

similarly for sub.s, sub.d, mul.s, mul.d, div.s,
div.d

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MIPS Floating Point Instructions, Con't

□ And floating point single precision comparison operations

```
c.x.s $f2,$f4 #if($f2 < $f4) cond=1;
else cond=0
```

where x may be eq, neq, lt, le, gt, ge

and double precision comparison operations

```
c.x.d $f2,$f4 #$f2||$f3 < $f4||$f5
cond=1; else cond=0
```

And floating point branch operations

```
bclt 25 #if(cond==1)
go to PC+4+25
bclf 25 #if(cond==0)
go to PC+4+25
```

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Frequency of Common MIPS Instructions

□ Only included those with >3% and >1%

	SPECint	SPECfp
addu	5.2%	3.5%
addiu	9.0%	7.2%
or	4.0%	1.2%
sll	4.4%	1.9%
lui	3.3%	0.5%
lw	18.6%	5.8%
sw	7.6%	2.0%
lbu	3.7%	0.1%
beq	8.6%	2.2%
bne	8.4%	1.4%
slt	9.9%	2.3%
slti	3.1%	0.3%
sltu	3.4%	0.8%

	SPECint	SPECfp
add.d	0.0%	10.6%
sub.d	0.0%	4.9%
mul.d	0.0%	15.0%
add.s	0.0%	1.5%
sub.s	0.0%	1.8%
mul.s	0.0%	2.4%
1.d	0.0%	17.5%
s.d	0.0%	4.9%
1.s	0.0%	4.2%
s.s	0.0%	1.1%
lhu	1.3%	0.0%

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Pitfalls and Fallacies

- □ Fallacy: Just as a left shift instruction can replace an integer multiply by a power of 2, a right shift is the same as integer division by a power of 2.
 - True for unsigned integers, not true for 2's complement integers
 - E.g., $-5 \div 4 \rightarrow 11111011_2 >> 2 = 111111110_2 = -2$
 - Rounds toward -∞
- □ *Pitfall*: Floating-point addition is not associative.
 - Does c + (a + b) = (c + a) + b ?
 - If c = -1.5_{10} x 10^{38} , a = 1.5_{10} x 10^{38} , and b = 1, then NO left way gives 0.0 and right way gives 1.0 due to limited precision limitations
- Fallacy: Parallel execution strategies that work for integer data types also work for FP data types
 - Order of arithmetic operations is important in FP (see Pitfall above)
 - For more take CmpSc 451, 454, 455

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What's Next and Reminders

- Next week
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 - MIPS pipelined datapaths, data hazards, PH 4.5-4.7
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