COSC 511: Computer Architecture Arithmetic for Computers

Week 3









Last Week

- Instruction Set Architectures (ISAs)
 - Examples of ISAs (x86, ARM)
 - Tradeoffs between different types of ISAs
 - Compatibility between ISAs
 - Real-time ISA translation use cases, benefits, and limitations
- ISA Design Principles
- ISAs optimize for the computer, not for the human.
 - Example: Twos compliment for handling negative integers.
- High-Level Language Optimization
 - Example: gcc allows programmers to control code optimization.
- Interesting side effects of ISA implementations
 - Illegal Opcodes









- The obvious stuff:
 - Addition and Subtraction
 - Multiplication and Division
 - Following Order of Operations
- The not-so-obvious stuff:
 - Dealing with overflow
 - Representing fractional (floating point) values in binary









Arithmetic for Computers – Addition

• Remember:

$$-0+0=0$$
 $-0+1=1$
 $-1+1=0$, carry 1
 $-1+1+1=1$, carry 1

1 1111 01010010 82 +01001110 78 10100000 160







• Remember:

$$-0 - 0 = 0$$
 $-1 - 0 = 1$
 $-1 - 1 = 0$
 $-0 - 1 = 1$, borrow 1

1 01000010 82 -00001110 14

This works, but it's not how computers do it.

01000100



- Remember: Make ISA design as simple as possible.
 - Is it easier to implement subtraction separately at the hardware level?
 - No, it is not.
 - It is much better to use a cool little trick to use addition to do subtraction.
 - Twos compliment!









- Twos Compliment
 - 1. Apply bitwise NOT to the integer representation of the number.
 - 2. Add one to it.
 - 3. Add values together.

00001110









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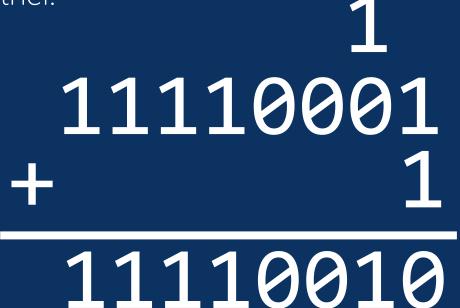








- Twos Compliment
 - 1. Apply bitwise NOT to the integer representation of the number.
 - 2. Add one to it.
 - 3. Add values together.











• Remember:

1 111 1 01010010 82 + 11110010 - 14 01000100 68







• Remember:

$$-0 \times 0 = 0$$
 $-0 \times 1 = 0$
 $-1 \times 0 = 0$
 $-1 \times 1 = 1$

11101 × 01001









• Remember:

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• Remember:

$$-0 \times 0 = 0$$
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$$\begin{array}{c} 11101 \\ \times 01001 \\ 11101 \\ + 11101000 \end{array}$$









• Remember:

$$-0 \times 0 = 0$$
 $-0 \times 1 = 0$
 $-1 \times 0 = 0$
 $-1 \times 1 = 1$

$$\begin{array}{c} 11101 \\ + 110000 \\ 10000101 \end{array}$$

How do computers make it easy to do this? Answer: Shifting, then adding!







• Remember:

$$-0 \times 0 = 0$$
 $-0 \times 1 = 0$
 $-1 \times 0 = 0$
 $-1 \times 1 = 1$

11101 × 01001 11101 +11101000

Shift left 3 spaces.









Arithmetic for Computers – Division

- Division is hard for computers!
 - Programmers who work on building systems where tiny fractions of time matter try to avoid using division because it is slower than other operations.
 - There are two many division implementations: slow and fast division
- Slow Division
 - Keep subtracting until you get to a point at which you cannot subtract anymore.
 - Example: $7 \div 3$
 - 1. 7 3 = 4
 - $2. \quad 4 3 = 1$
 - 3. 1 < 3
 - 4. So, $7 \div 3 == 2$ and 7 % 3 == 1









Arithmetic for Computers – Division

- Fast Division
 - There are many different fast division methods.
 - These fast division methods take less computation time but rely on estimating the final value.
 - Example: Goldschmidt Fast Division
 - AMD has used this approach in their CPUs since the launch of AMD Athlon in June 1999.









- Order of Operations
 - Computers follow the same approach to order of operations that we use.
- How do computers handle order of operations?
 - They don't! That's your problem.
 - At least, it is if you're writing assembly.
- Compilers are responsible for generating Assembly code that obeys order of operations.

$$(5 + 3) / 45 * 3 % 9 - 2 / 52$$









Assume we are using a high-level language, and the datatype is byte.

11111111 +00000001 10000000

What's wrong?

We can't fit this in a byte. 😂









Year 2038 Problem

- Many systems store time using the Unix epoch
- Unix epoch: An integer value representing the number of seconds that have passed since January 1, 1970 at 00:00 UTC
 - At the start of today's class, the Unix epoch was 1694037600
- Many systems use signed 32-bit integers for storing the Unix epoch
 - One integer is lost due to signing, so 31 bits are available for storing the timestamp.
- On January 19, 2038 at 03:14:07 UTC, the timestamp will be:
 - 01111111 11111111 111111111 111111111
- On January 19, 2038 at 03:14:08 UTC, the timestamp will be:
 - 10000000 00000000 00000000 00000000
- Overflow!









- Year 2038 Problem
 - Overflow!
 - Systems that use signed integers will travel back in time.
 - They will report time as December 13, 1901 at 20:45:52 UTC

Binary : 01111111 11111111 11111111 11110000

Decimal : 2147483632

Date : 2038-01-19 03:13:52 (UTC)

Date : 2038-01-19 03:13:52 (UTC)

- Solutions
 - Use unsigned 32-bit integer
 - We'd be fine until February 7, 2106 at 06:28:15 UTC
 - Use a 64-bit integer
 - We'll be fine for approximately 292 billion years.









- Back to our addition problem: How do we fix this?
 - Use a short instead of a byte? (2 bytes)
 - Use an int? (4 bytes)
 - Use a long? (8 bytes)
 - But what if that's still not enough?
- That's what Binary Coded Decimal (BCD) is for!
 - BCD stores each digit in a value separately.
 - Java's **BitInteger** is a BCD implementation.









- BCD of 123
 - Big-Endian Order Leftmost digit comes first.
 - 00000001 00000010 00000011
 - Little-Endian Order Rightmost digit comes first.
 - 00000011 00000010 00000001

- This is great, but it wastes space. Why?
 - We only ever use the first four bits of our byte!
 - This is called unpacked BCD.

```
0 = 0000
```

$$1 = 0001$$

$$2 = 0010$$

$$3 = 0011$$

$$4 = 0100$$

$$5 = 0101$$

$$6 = 0110$$

$$7 = 0111$$

$$8 = 1000$$

$$9 = 1001$$









- Packed BCD
 - Packed BCD is more efficient.
 - Use one byte to store two digits.
- Packed BCD of 123
 - Big-Endian Order Leftmost digit comes first.
 - 00000001 00100011
 - Little-Endian Order Rightmost digit comes first.
 - 00110010 00010000









- Pros of BCD
 - You can store really large values!
 - BCD is useful for dealing with rounding errors.
- Cons of BCD
 - Harder to do math operations with.
 - Depending on the value you are storing, more space is used.
 - Example: **123**
 - Without BCD: **01111011**
 - Big-Endian Packed BCD: **00000001 00100011**









- Your data is what you make of it.
 - **00000001 00100011** has meaning as big-endian packed BCD.
 - **00000001 00100011** has meaning as a short.
 - This is why remote code execution vulnerabilities are a problem.
 - The same data can be interpreted in different ways.









- Your data is what you make of it.
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 - The same data can be interpreted in different ways.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main()
{
   int arr[] = {1,2,3,4,5};
   for (int x = 0; x <= 10; x++)
        cout << arr[x] << endl;

return 0;
}</pre>
```

```
ned Integer value. 2
ne danger is in writing.4
n stored in memory adjacent to the stored in memory to be executed.
m will malfunction and for crash.
re into an otherwise safe application.
```

-987005552

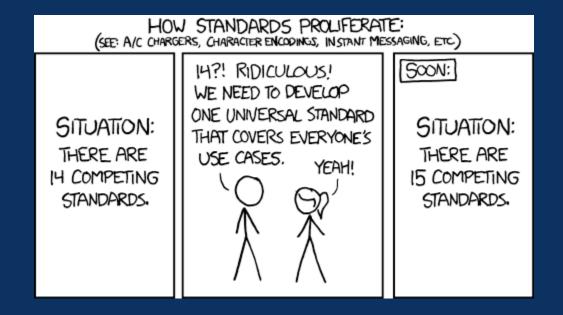








- Storing floating point values in binary is very confusing.
 - Many different implementations for storing floating point values used to exist.



 <u>IEEE Standard for Floating-Point Arithmetic (IEEE 754)</u>, established in 1985, has become the standard implementation.









- IEEE 754 defines two sizes for storing floating point values
 - Single precision numbers
 - Use 32 bits
 - We usually call these "floats"
 - Double precision numbers
 - Use 64 bits
 - We usually call these "doubles"
- IEEE 754 Floating Point Components
 - 1. Sign bit (0 for positive, 1 for negative)
 - 2. Exponent
 - 8 bits used for single, 11 bits for double
 - 3. Mantissa
 - 23 bits used for single, 52 bits for double









- In most cases today, doubles are used for better precision.
- Converting to floating point values to binary:
 - 1. Convert the whole number portion to binary as you normally would.

$$85 == 1010101_2$$

2. Convert the decimal portion to binary.

Decimal Number Multiplication	Result	Number in front of decimal
0.125 x 2	0.25	0
0.25 x 2	0.5	0
0.5 x 2	1.0	1
0.0 x 2	0.0	0

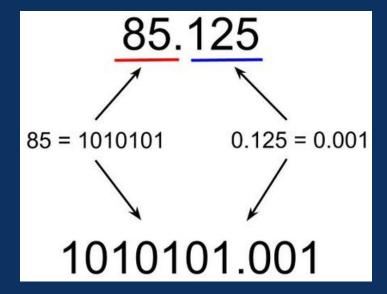








- Converting to floating point values to binary:
 - 3. For organizational purposes, concatenate both binary components together.



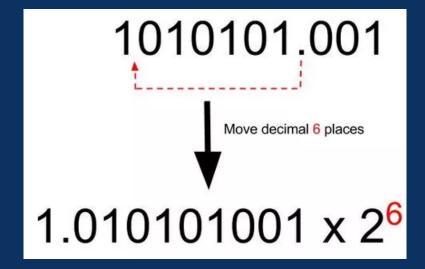








- Converting to floating point values to binary:
 - 4. Convert the binary value to base 2 scientific notation.



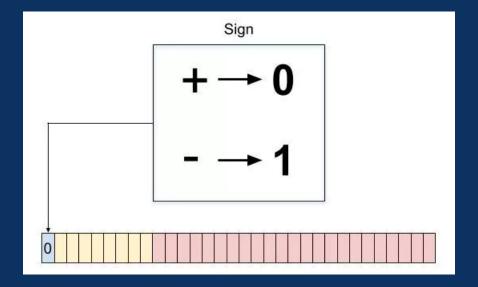








- Converting to floating point values to binary:
 - 5. Based on the sign of the original number, take note of the most significant bit.











- Converting to floating point values to binary:
 - 6. Determine the exponent to use by applying the "exponent bias"
 - The purpose of exponent bias is to prevent issues with floating point signing
 - If you are using single precision, you calculate bias by adding 127 to the exponent from step 4.
 - If you are using double precision, you calculate bias by adding 1023 to the exponent from step 4.

1.010101001 x 2⁶

127 + 6 = 133









- Converting to floating point values to binary:
 - 7. Determine the mantissa
 - Mantissa Refers to the binary component after the decimal point in your scientific notation representation.

```
1.010101001 x 2<sup>6</sup>

Mantissa

00100011001010101
```









- Converting to floating point values to binary:
 - 8. Assemble the components of your calculations together!

