# Arithmetic Unit 4

#### Addition/subtraction of signed numbers

$X_i$	$y_i$	Carry-i $c_i$	$\operatorname{Sum} s_i$	Carry-ou $c_{i+1}$
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1

#### **Input:**

c, is the carry-in

#### **Output:**

s, is the sum

 $c_{i+1}$  carry-out to  $(i+1)^{st}$  state

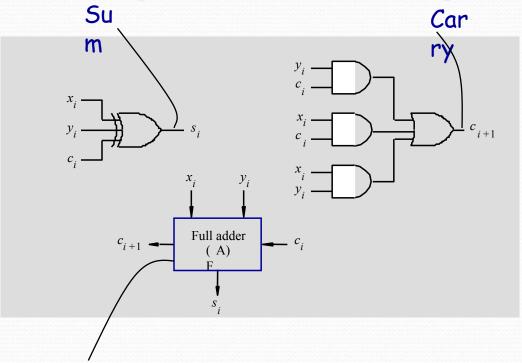
$$S_{i} = x_{i}y_{i}c_{i} + x_{i}y_{i}c_{i} + x_{i}y_{i}c_{i} + x_{i}y_{i}c_{i} + x_{i}y_{i}c_{i} = x_{i} \oplus y_{i} \oplus c_{i}$$

$$C_{i+1} = y_{i}C_{i} + x_{i}C_{i} + x_{i}y_{i}$$

Example:

$$\frac{X}{Z} = \frac{7}{613} = \frac{0}{1} = \frac{1}{1} = \frac{0}{1} = \frac{1}{1} = \frac{0}{1} = \frac{1}{1} = \frac{0}{1} = \frac{$$

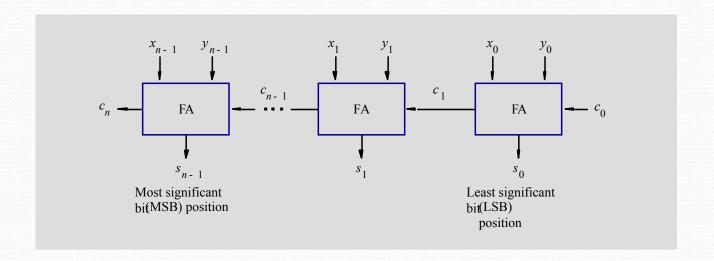
### Addition logic for a single stage



Full Adder (FA): Symbol for the complete circuit for a single stage of addition.

#### *n*-bit adder

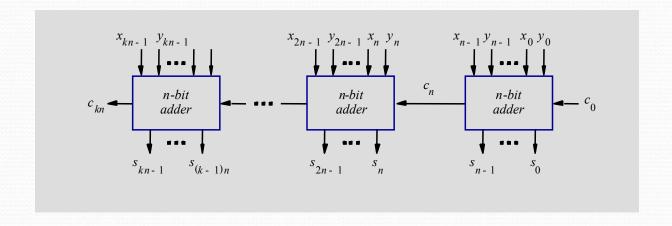
scade *n* full adder (FA) blocks to form a *n*-bit adder. rries propagate or ripple through this cascade, *n*-bit ripple carry adder.



Carry-in  $c_o$  into the LSB position provides a convenient way to perform subtraction.

#### K n-bit adder

Kn-bit numbers can be added by cascading k n-bit adders.



Each *n*-bit adder forms a block, so this is cascading of blocks.

Carries ripple or propagate through blocks, Blocked Ripple Carry Adder

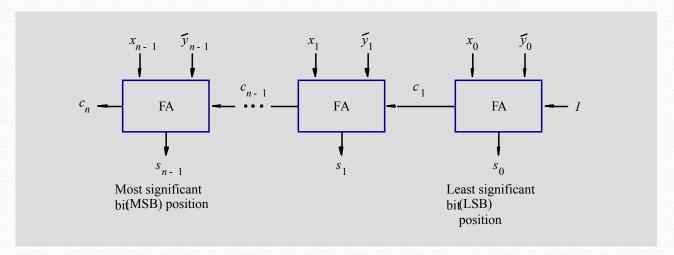
#### *n*-bit subtractor

Recall X - Y is equivalent to adding 2's complement of Y to X.

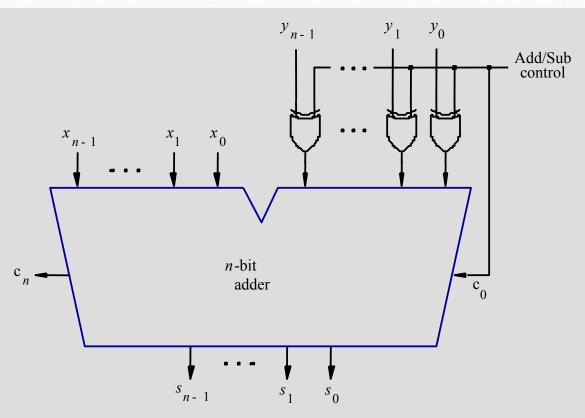
2's complement is equivalent to 1's complement + 1.

$$X-Y=X+Y+1$$

2's complement of positive and negative numbers is computed similarly.



# *n*-bit adder/subtractor (contd..)



- •Add/sub control = 0, addition.
- •Add/sub control = 1, subtraction.

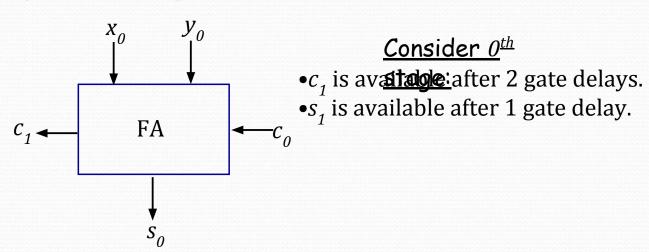
#### Detecting overflows

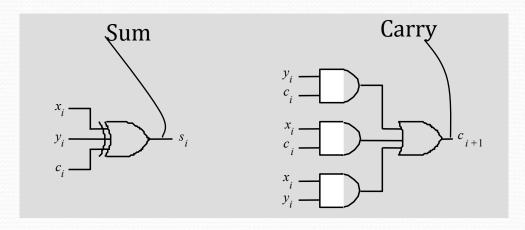
- Overflows can only occur when the sign of the two operands is the same.
- Overflow occurs if the sign of the result is different from the sign of the operands.
- Recall that the MSB represents the sign.
  - $x_{n-1}$ ,  $y_{n-1}$ ,  $s_{n-1}$  represent the sign of operand x, operand y and result s respectively.
- Circuit to detect overflow can be implemented by the following logic expressions:

$$Overflow = x_{n-1}y_{n-1}\overline{s}_{n-1} + \overline{x}_{n-1}\overline{y}_{n-1}s_{n-1}$$

$$Overflow = c_n \oplus c_{n-1}$$

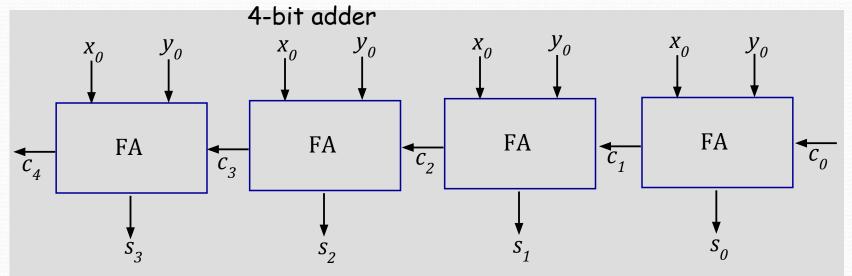
### Computing the add time





#### Computing the add time (contd..)

Cascade of 4 Full Adders, or a



- • $s_0$  available after 1 gate delays,  $c_1$  available after 2 gate delays.
- • $s_1$  available after 3 gate delays,  $c_2$  available after 4 gate delays.
- • $s_2$  available after 5 gate delays,  $c_3$  available after 6 gate delays.
- • $s_3$  available after 7 gate delays,  $c_4$  available after 8 gate delays.

For an n-bit adder,  $s_{n-1}$  is available after 2n-1 gate delays

 $c_n$  is available after 2n gate delays.

#### Fast addition

Recall the equations:

$$s_i = x_i \oplus y_i \oplus c_i$$
$$c_{i+1} = x_i y_i + x_i c_i + y_i c_i$$

Second equation can be written as:

$$c_{i+1} = x_i y_i + (x_i + y_i) c_i$$

We can write:

$$c_{i+1} = G_i + P_i c_i$$
  
where  $G_i = x_i y_i$  and  $P_i = x_i + y_i$ 

- $\bullet G_i$  is called generate function and  $P_i$  is called
- propagator  $\dot{e}$  unominanted only from  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  and not  $c_i$ , thus they can be computed in one gate delay after X and Y are applied to the inputs of an n-bit adder.

# Carry lookahead

$$C_{i+1} = G_i + P_i C_i$$

$$C_i = G_{i-1} + P_{i-1} C_{i-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow C_{i+1} = G_i + P_i (G_{i-1} + P_{i-1} C_{i-1})$$

$$continuing$$

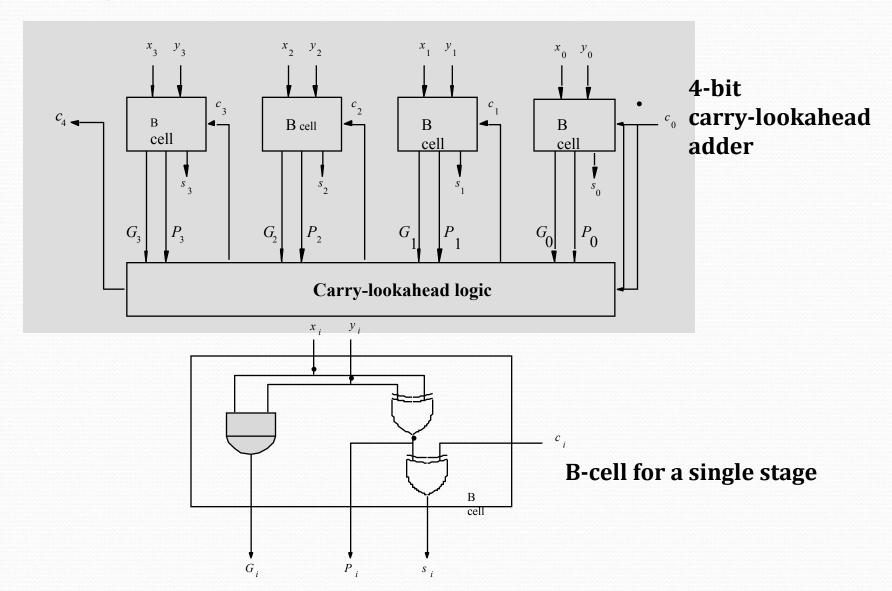
$$\Rightarrow C_{i+1} = G_i + P_i (G_{i-1} + P_{i-1} (G_{i-2} + P_{i-2} C_{i-2}))$$

$$until$$

$$C_{i+1} = G_i + P_i G_{i-1} + P_i P_{i-1} G_{i-2} + \dots + P_i P_{i-1} P_i G_0 + P_i P_{i-1} \dots P_0 C_0$$

- •All carries can be obtained 3 gate delays after X, Y and  $c_o$  are applied.
  - -One gate delay for  $P_i$  and  $G_i$
  - -Two gate delays in the AND-OR circuit for  $c_{i+1}$
- ·All sums can be obtained 1 gate delay after the carries are computed.
- •Independent of n, n-bit addition requires only 4 gate delays.
- ·This is called **Carry Lookahead** adder.

# Carry-lookahead adder



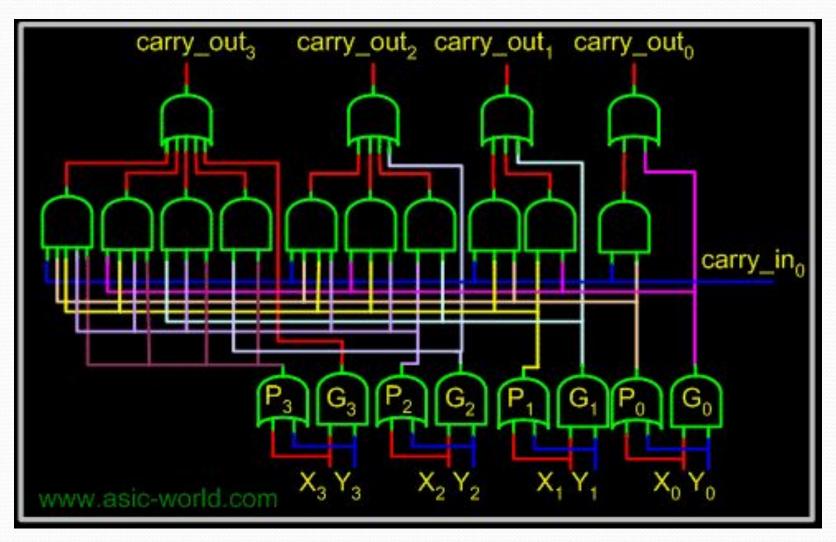
# Carry lookahead adder (contd..)

Performing n-bit addition in 4 gate delays independent of n is good only theoretically because of fan-in constraints.

$$c_{i+1} = G_i + P_i G_{i-1} + P_i P_{i-1} G_{i-2} + ... + P_i P_{i-1} ... P_1 G_0 + P_i P_{i-1} ... P_0 c$$

- Last AND gate and OR gate require a fan-in of (n+1) for a n-bit adder.
  - For a 4-bit adder (n=4) fan-in of 5 is required.
  - Practical limit for most gates.
- In order to add operands longer than 4 bits, we can cascade 4-bit Carry-Lookahead adders. Cascade of Carry-Lookahead adders is called <u>Blocked Carry-Lookahead adder</u>.

# 4-bit carry-lookahead Adder



# Blocked Carry-Lookahead adder

Carry-out from a 4-bit block can

$$C_4 = G_3^{\text{given}} + P_3^{\text{given}} + P_3^{\text{given}}$$

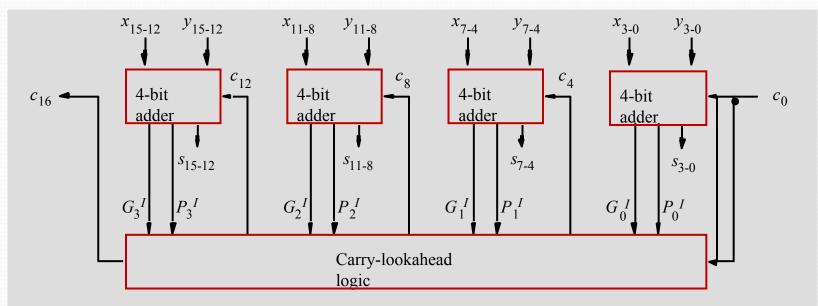
Rewrite
this as:  $P_0^I = P_3 P_2 P_1 P_0$   $G_0^I = G_3 + P_3 G_2 + P_3 P_2 G_1 + P_3 P_2 P_1 G_0$ 

Subscript I denotes the blocked carry lookahead and identifies the block.

Cascade 4 4-bit adders,  $c_{16}$  can be expressed as:

$$C_{16} = G_3' + P_3'G_2' + P_3'P_2'G_1' + P_3'P_2'P_1'G_0' + P_3'P_2'P_1'P_0'C_0$$

# Blocked Carry-Lookahead adder



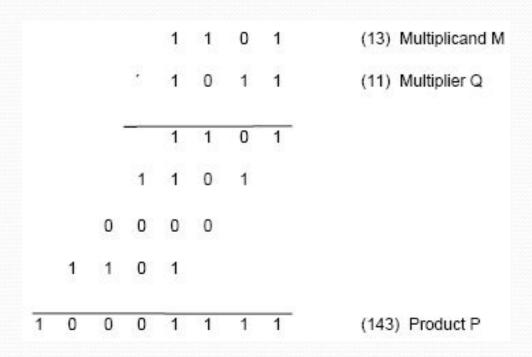
After  $x_i, y_i$  and  $c_0$  are applied as inputs:

- $G_i$  and  $P_i$  for each stage are available after 1 gate delay.
- $P^I$  is available after 2 and  $G^I$  after 3 gate delays.
  - All carries are available after 5 gate delays.
  - $c_{16}$  is available after 5 gate delays.
- $s_{15}^{\circ}$  which depends on  $c_{12}$  is available after 8 (5+3)gate delays

(Recall that for a 4-bit carry lookahead adder, the last sum bit is

# Multiplication

#### Multiplication of unsigned numbers



Product of 2 *n*-bit numbers is at most a 2*n*-bit number.

Unsigned multiplication can be viewed as addition of shifted versions of the multiplicand.

# Multiplication of unsigned numbers (contd..)

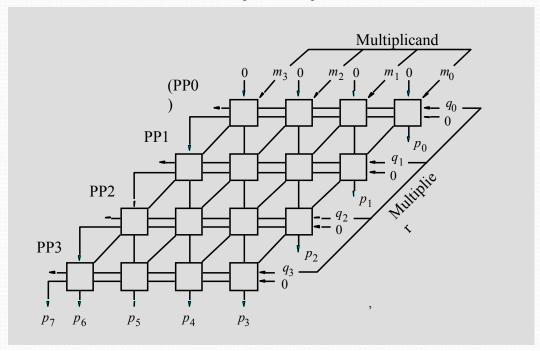
- We added the partial products at end.
  - Alternative would be to add the partial products at each stage.
- Rules to implement multiplication are:
  - If the *i*<sup>th</sup> bit of the multiplier is 1, shift the multiplicand and add the shifted multiplicand to the current value of the partial product.
  - Hand over the partial product to the next stage
  - Value of the partial product at the start stage is 0.

#### Multiplication of unsigned numbers

**Typical** multiplication cell Bit of incoming partial product (PPi) j<sup>th</sup> multiplicand bit i<sup>th</sup> multiplier *i*<sup>th</sup> multiplier bit bit FA carry outcarry in Bit of outgoing partial product (PP(i+1))

## Combinatorial array multiplier

**Combinatorial array multiplier** 



Product is:  $p_{7}p_{6}...p_{0}$ 

Multiplicand is shifted by displacing it through an array of adders.

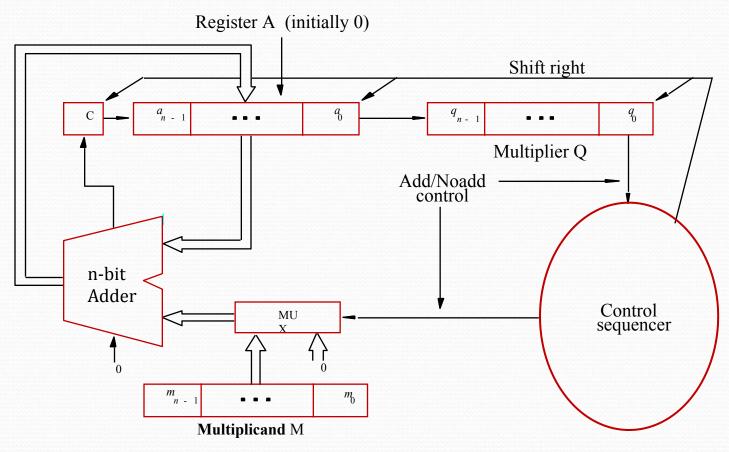
# Combinatorial array multiplier (contd..)

- Combinatorial array multipliers are:
  - Extremely inefficient.
  - Have a high gate count for multiplying numbers of practical size such as 32-bit or 64-bit numbers.
  - Perform only one function, namely, unsigned integer product.
- Improve gate efficiency by using a mixture of combinatorial array techniques and sequential techniques requiring less combinational logic.

#### Sequential multiplication

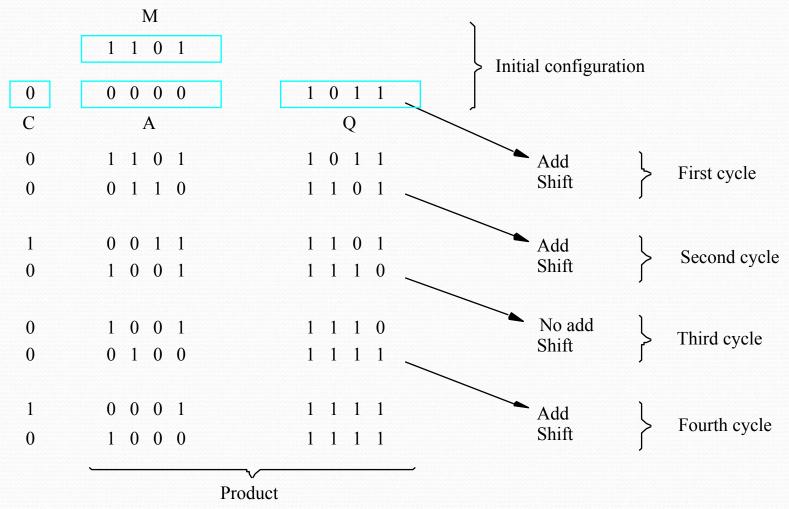
- Recall the rule for generating partial products:
  - If the ith bit of the multiplier is 1, add the appropriately shifted multiplicand to the current partial product.
  - Multiplicand has been shifted <u>left</u> when added to the partial product.
- However, adding a left-shifted multiplicand to an unshifted partial product is equivalent to adding an unshifted multiplicand to a right-shifted partial product.

#### **Sequential Circuit Multiplier**



# Signed Multiplication

#### Sequential multiplication (contd..)



# Signed Multiplication

• Considering 2's-complement signed operands, what will happen to  $(-13)\times(+11)$  if following the same method of unsigned multiplication?

						1	0	0	1	1	(-13)
						0	1	0	1	1	(+11)
	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	
	1	1	1	1,	1	0	0	1	1		
Sign extension is shown in blue	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
	1	1	1	0	0	1	1				
	0	0	0	0	0	0					
	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	(- 143)

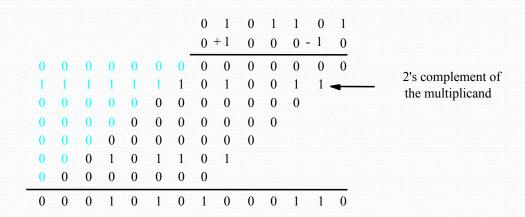
Sign extension of negative multiplicand.

#### Signed Multiplication

- For a negative multiplier, a straightforward solution is to form the 2's-complement of both the multiplier and the multiplicand and proceed as in the case of a positive multiplier.
- This is possible because complementation of both operands does not change the value or the sign of the product.
- A technique that works equally well for both negative and positive multipliers – Booth algorithm.

Consider in a multiplication, the multiplier is positive 0011110, how many appropriately shifted versions of the multiplicand are added in a standard procedure?

Since 0011110 = 0100000 – 0000010, if we use the expression to the right, what will happen?



• In general, in the Booth scheme, -1 times the shifted multiplicand is selected when moving from 0 to 1, and +1 times the shifted multiplicand is selected when moving from 1 to 0, as the multiplier is scanned from right to left.

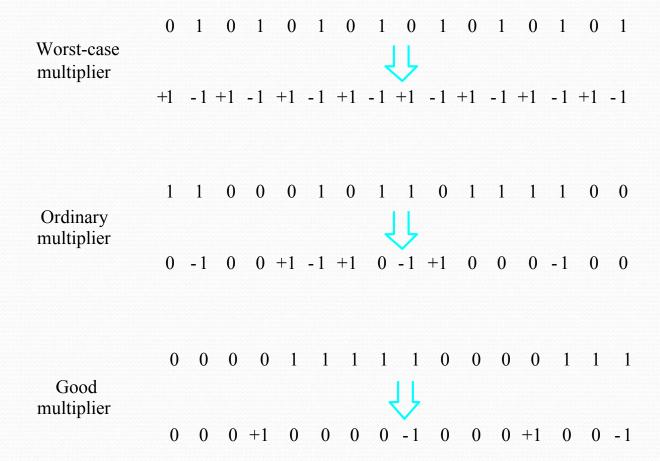
Booth recoding of a multiplier.

Booth multiplication with a negative multiplier.

Mul	tiplie	V ersion of		
Bit i	Bit <i>i</i> - 1	m <b>stlictedrel</b> y <i>i</i> bit		
0	0	0 X		
0	1	$+ 1 X^{\mathbf{M}}$		
1	0	$-1 X^{\mathbf{M}}$		
1	1	$_{0}\ \mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{M}}$		
		M		

Booth multiplier recoding table.

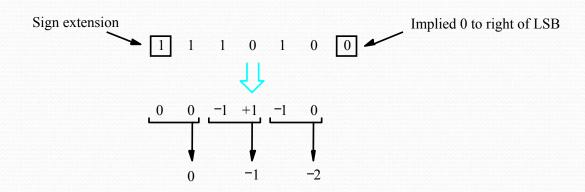
- Best case a long string of 1's (skipping over 1s)
- Worst case 0's and 1's are alternating



# Fast Multiplication

#### Bit-Pair Recoding of Multipliers

 Bit-pair recoding halves the maximum number of summands (versions of the multiplicand).



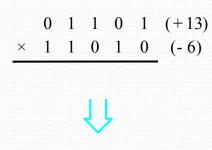
(a) Example of bit-pair recoding derived from Booth recoding

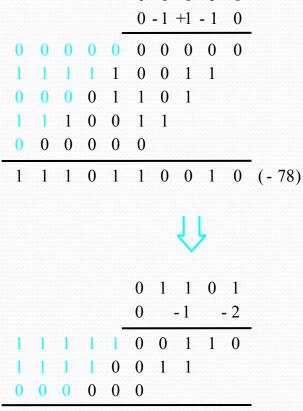
#### Bit-Pair Recoding of Multipliers

Multiplier bit-pair		Multiplier bit on the right	Multiplicand
<i>i</i> + 1	i	i –1	selected at position i
0	0	0	0 X M
0	0	1	+ 1 X M
0	1	0	+ 1 X M
0	1	1	+ 2 X M
1	0	0	-2 X M
1	0	1	-1 X M
1	1	0	-1 X M
1	1	1	0 X M

(b) Table of multiplicand selection decisions

### Bit-Pair Recoding of Multipliers

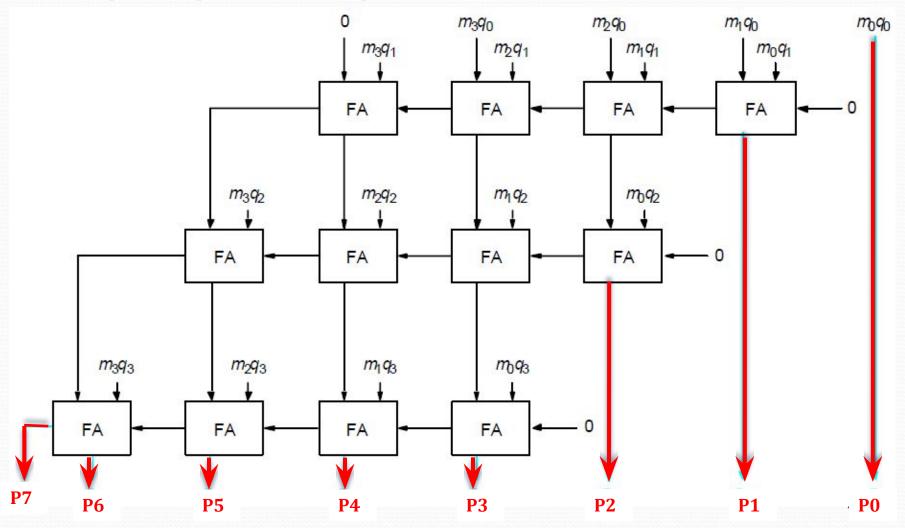




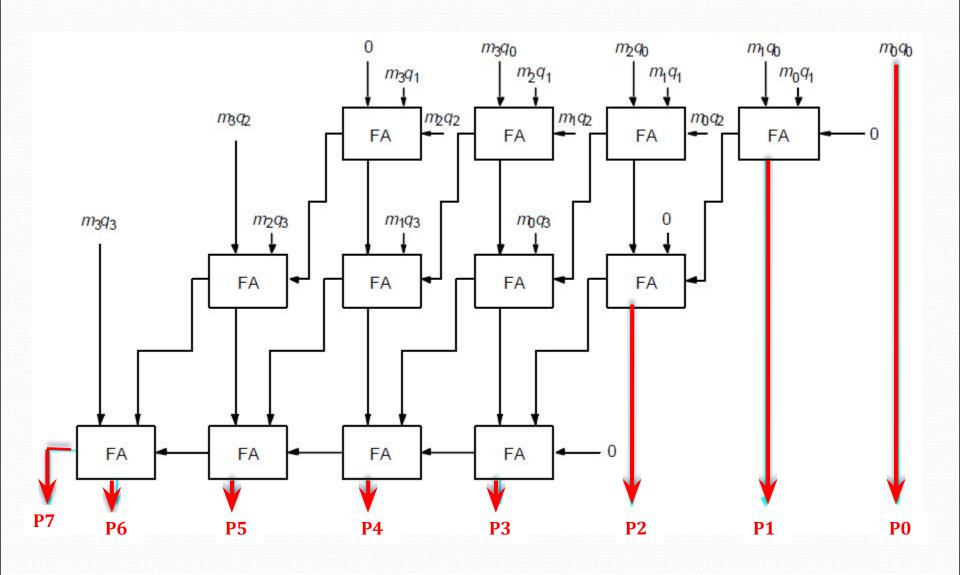
1 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 0

#### Carry-Save Addition of Summands

CSA speeds up the addition process.



#### Carry-Save Addition of Summands(Cont.,)



# Carry-Save Addition of Summands(Cont.,)

- Consider the addition of many summands, we can:
- ☐ Group the summands in threes and perform carry-save addition on each of these groups in parallel to generate a set of S and C vectors in one full-adder delay
- ☐ Group all of the S and C vectors into threes, and perform carry-save addition on them, generating a further set of S and C vectors in one more full-adder delay
- Continue with this process until there are only two vectors remaining
- ☐ They can be added in a RCA or CLA to produce the desired product

#### Carry-Save Addition of Summands

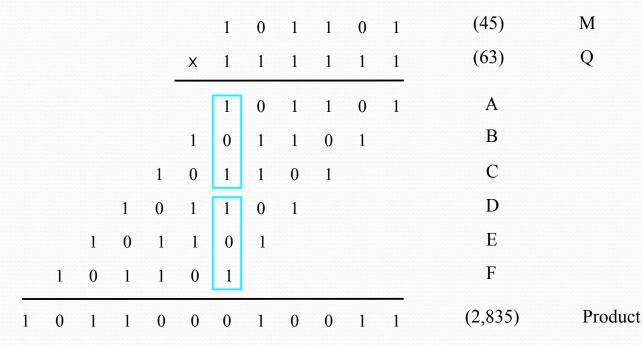


Figure 6.17. A multiplication example used to illustrate carry-save addition as shown in Figure 6.18.

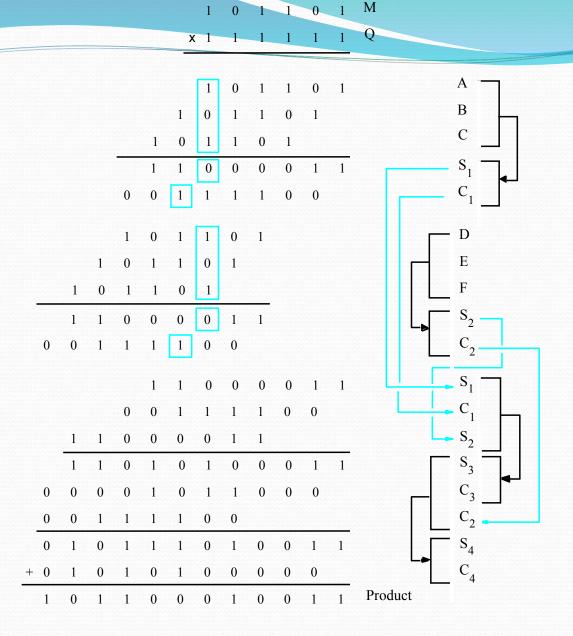


Figure 6.18. The multiplication example from Figure 6.17 performed using

## Integer Division

#### **Manual Division**

Longhand division examples.

#### **Longhand Division Steps**

- Position the divisor appropriately with respect to the dividend and performs a subtraction.
- If the remainder is zero or positive, a quotient bit of 1 is determined, remainder is extended by another bit of the dividend, the divisor is repositioned, and another subtraction is performed.
- If the remainder is negative, a quotient bit of 0 is determined, the dividend is restored by adding back the divisor, and the divisor is repositioned for another subtraction.

#### **Circuit Arrangement**

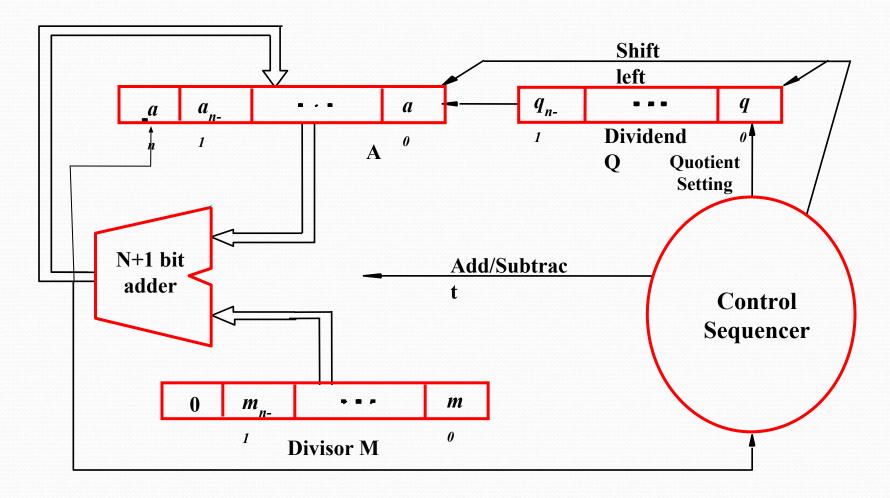
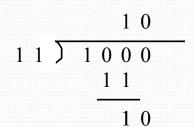


Figure 6.21. Circuit arrangement for binary division.

#### **Restoring Division**

- Shift A and Q left one binary position
- Subtract M from A, and place the answer back in A
- If the sign of A is 1, set q<sub>0</sub> to 0 and add M back to A (restore A); otherwise, set q<sub>0</sub> to 1
- Repeat these steps n times

#### Examples



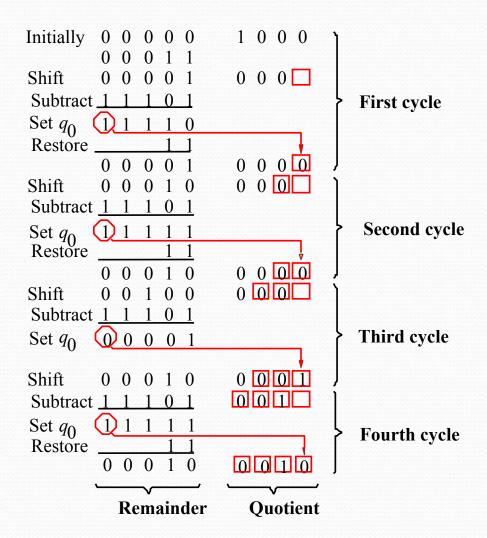
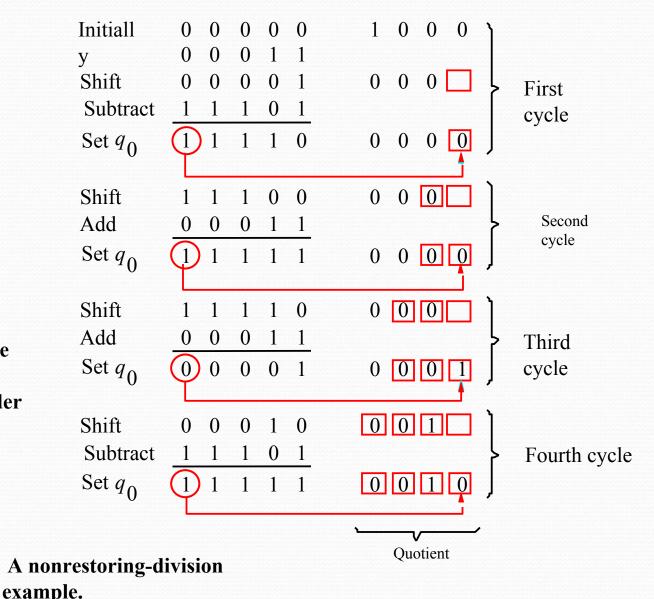


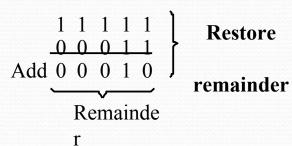
Figure 6.22. A restoring-division

#### Nonrestoring Division

- Avoid the need for restoring A after an unsuccessful subtraction.
- Any idea?
- Step 1: (Repeat n times)
- If the sign of A is 0, shift A and Q left one bit position and subtract M from A; otherwise, shift A and Q left and add M to A.
- Now, if the sign of A is 0, set  $q_0$  to 1; otherwise, set  $q_0$  to 0.
- Step2: If the sign of A is 1, add M to A

#### Examples





#### Self Study Components

# Floating-Point Numbers and Operations

#### Fractions

If b is a binary vector, then we have seen that it can be interpreted as

an undisplayed integral by 
$$V(b) = b_{31} \cdot 2^{31} + b_{30} \cdot 2^{30} + b_{n-3} \cdot 2^{29} + \dots + b_{1} \cdot 2^{1} + b_{0} \cdot 2^{0}$$

This vector has an implicit binary point to its

Suppose if the binary vector is interpreted with the implicit binary point is

jus implicit binary point 
$$.b_{31}b_{30}b_{29}$$
..... $...b_{1}b_{0}$ 

The value of b is then given by:

$$V(b) = b_{31} \cdot 2^{-1} + b_{30} \cdot 2^{-2} + b_{29} \cdot 2^{-3} + \dots + b_{1} \cdot 2^{-31} + b_{0} \cdot 2^{-32}$$

#### Range of fractions

The value of the unsigned binary fraction is:

$$V(b) = b_{31} \cdot 2^{-1} + b_{30} \cdot 2^{-2} + b_{29} \cdot 2^{-3} + \dots + b_{1} \cdot 2^{-31} + b_{0} \cdot 2^{-32}$$

The range of the numbers represented in this format is:

$$0 \le V(b) \le 1 - 2^{-32} \approx 0.9999999998$$

n general for a *n*-bit binary fraction (a number with an assumed binary point at the immediate left of the vector), then the range of values is:

$$\left|0 \le V(b) \le 1 - 2^{-n}\right|$$

#### Scientific notation

- Previous representations have a fixed point. Either the point is to the immediate right or it is to the immediate left. This is called Fixed point representation.
- Fixed point representation suffers from a drawback that the representation can only represent a finite range (and quite small) range of numbers.

A more convenient representation is the scientific representation, where the numbers are represented in the form:

$$x = m_1.m_2m_3m_4 \times b^{\pm e}$$

Components of these numbers are:

Mantissa (m), implied base (b), and exponent (e)

#### Significant digits

A number such as the following is said to have 7 significant digits

$$x = \pm 0.m_1m_2m_3m_4m_5m_6m_7 \times b^{\pm e}$$

Fractions in the range 0.0 to 0.9999999 need about 24 bits of precision (in binary). For example the binary fraction with 24 1's:

Not every real number between 0 and 0.9999999404 can be represented by a 24-bit fractional number.

The smallest non-zero number that can be represented is:

Every other non-zero number is constructed in increments of this value.

#### Sign and exponent digits

a 32-bit number, suppose we allocate 24 bits to represent a fractional antissa.

sume that the mantissa is represented in sign and magnitude format, d we have allocated one bit to represent the sign.

e allocate 7 bits to represent the exponent, and assume that the ponent is represented as a 2's complement integer.

ere are no bits allocated to represent the base, we assume that the see is implied for now, that is the base is 2.

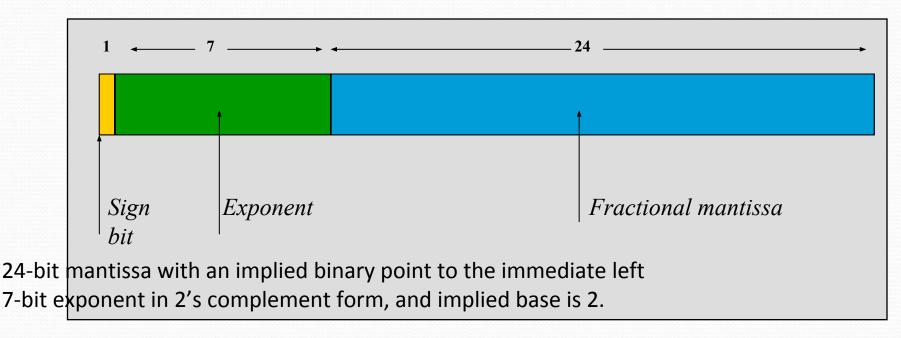
nce a 7-bit 2's complement number can represent values in the range 4 to 63, the range of numbers that can be represented is:

$$0.0000001 \times 2^{-64} <= |x| <= 0.9999999 \times 2^{63}$$

•In decimal representation this range is:

$$0.5421 \times 10^{-20} <= |x| <= 9.2237 \times 10^{18}$$

#### A sample representation



#### Normalization

Consider the number:

$$x = 0.0004056781 \times 10^{12}$$

the number is to be represented using only 7 significant mantissa digits, ne representation ignoring rounding is:  $x = 0.0004056 \times 10^{12}$ 

he number is shifted so that as many significant digits are brought into vailable slots:  $x = 0.4056781 \times 10^9 = 0.0004056 \times 10^{12}$ 

Exponent of x was decreased by 1 for every left shift of x.

number which is brought into a form so that all of the available mantissa gits are optimally used (this is different from all occupied which may ot hold), is called a normalized number.

Same methodology holds in the case of binary mantissas

 $0001101000(10110) \times 2^8 = 1101000101(10) \times 2^5$ 

#### Normalization (contd..)

floating point number is in normalized form if the most significant in the mantissa is in the most significant bit of the mantissa.

I normalized floating point numbers in this system will be of the form:

0.1xxxxx....xx

ange of numbers representable in this system, if every number must be ormalized is:

$$0.5 \times 2^{-64} \le |x| \le 1 \times 2^{63}$$

#### Normalization, overflow and underflow

The procedure for normalizing a floating point number is:

Do (until MSB of mantissa = = 1)

Shift the mantissa left (or right)

Decrement (increment) the exponent by 1

end do

Applying the normalization procedure to:

 $.000111001110....0010 \times 2^{-62}$ 

gives:

.111001110...  $x 2^{-65}$ 

But we cannot represent an exponent of -65, in trying to normalize the number we have underflowed our representation.

Applying the normalization procedure to:

 $1.00111000....x 2^{63}$ 

gives:

0.100111.....x 2<sup>64</sup>

This <u>overflows</u> the representation.

#### Changing the implied base

o far we have assumed an implied base of 2, that is our floating point umbers are of the form:

$$x=m\ 2^e$$

If we choose an implied base of 16, then:

$$x = m \ 16^e$$

Then:

$$y = (m.16) .16^{e-1} (m.2^4) .16^{e-1} = m .16^e = x$$

us, every four left shifts of a binary mantissa results in a decrease of 1 a base 16 exponent.

rmalization in this case means shifting the mantissa until there is a 1 in e first four bits of the mantissa.

#### **Excess** notation

- •Rather than representing an exponent in 2's complement form, it turns out to be more beneficial to represent the exponent in excess notation.
- •If 7 bits are allocated to the exponent, exponents can be represented in the range of -64 to +63, that is:

Exponent can also be represented using the following coding called as excess-64:

$$E' = E_{true} + 64$$

In general, excess-p coding is represented as:

$$E' = E_{true} + p$$

True exponent of -64 is represented as 0

0 is represented as 64

63 is represented as 127

This enables efficient comparison of the relative sizes of two floating point numbers.

#### **IEEE** notation

IEEE Floating Point notation is the standard representation in use. There are two representations:

- Single precision.
- Double precision.

Both have an implied base of 2.

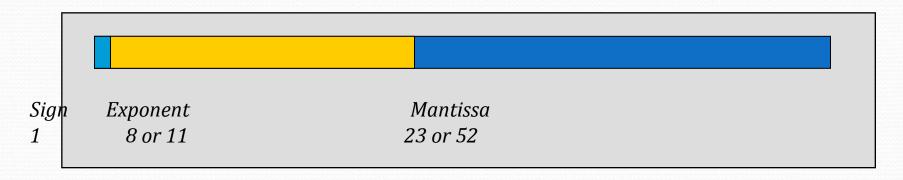
#### Single precision:

- 32 bits (23-bit mantissa, 8-bit exponent in excess-127 representation)

#### Double precision:

- 64 bits (52-bit mantissa, 11-bit exponent in excess-1023 representation)

Fractional mantissa, with an implied binary point at immediate left.



#### Peculiarities of IEEE notation

- Floating point numbers have to be represented in a normalized form to maximize the use of available mantissa digits.
- •In a base-2 representation, this implies that the MSB of the mantissa is always equal to 1.
- •If every number is normalized, then the MSB of the mantissa is always 1. We can do away without storing the MSB.
- •IEEE notation assumes that all numbers are normalized so that the MSB of the mantissa is a 1 and does not store this bit.
- •So the real MSB of a number in the IEEE notation is either a 0 or a 1.
- •The values of the numbers represented in the IEEE single precision notation are of the form:

$$(+,-)$$
 1.M x  $2^{(E-127)}$ 

- •The hidden 1 forms the integer part of the mantissa.
- •Note that excess-127 and excess-1023 (not excess-128 or excess-1024) are used to represent the exponent.

#### Exponent field

the IEEE representation, the exponent is in excess-127 (excess-1023) tation.

e actual exponents represented are:

- is because the IEEE uses the exponents -127 and 128 (and -1023 and 4), that is the actual values 0 and 255 to represent special conditions:
  - Exact zero
  - Infinity