

Floating Point Arithmetic-

IEEE 754 representation, Hardware Implementation & RISC V Instructions

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Arithmetic for Computers

- How are negative, fractions and real numbers represented in a computer?
- How large or small can a number be and be operated on by a computer
- How could a programmer control the precision of arithmetic operations executed by his/her program on any computer
- what happens if an operation creates a number bigger than can be represented in the computer?
- How does RISCV implement arithmetic operations?
- How does computer hardware multiply and divide numbers? How does a computer speed up these?

Unsigned Binary Numbers

Given an n-bit number

$$x = x_{n-1} 2^{n-1} + x_{n-2} 2^{n-2} + \dots + x_1 2^1 + x_0 2^0$$

- Range: 0 to +2ⁿ 1
- Example
 - 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1011₂

$$= 0 + ... + 1 \times 2^{3} + 0 \times 2^{2} + 1 \times 2^{1} + 1 \times 2^{0}$$

$$= 0 + ... + 8 + 0 + 2 + 1 = 11_{10}$$

- Using 32 bits
 - 0 to +4,294,967,295

2s Complement Signed Integers

Given an n-bit number

$$x = -x_{n-1}2^{n-1} + x_{n-2}2^{n-2} + \dots + x_12^1 + x_02^0$$

- Range: -2^{n-1} to $+2^{n-1}-1$
- Example
- Using 32 bits
 - -2,147,483,648 to +2,147,483,647

2s Complement Signed Integers

- Bit 31 is sign bit
 - 1 for negative numbers
 - 0 for non-negative numbers
- $-(-2^{n-1})$ can't be represented
- Non-negative numbers have the same unsigned and 2s-complement representation
- Some specific numbers
 - **0:** 0000 0000 ... 0000
 - **■ −**1: 1111 1111 ... 1111
 - Most-negative: 1000 0000 ... 0000
 - Most-positive: 0111 1111 ... 1111

Signed Negation

- Complement and add 1
 - Complement means 1 → 0, 0 → 1

$$x + \overline{x} = 1111...111_2 = -1$$

 $\overline{x} + 1 = -x$

- Example: negate +2
 - **+**2 = 0000 0000 ... 0010₂
 - $-2 = 1111 \ 1111 \dots \ 1101_2 + 1$ = 1111 \ 1111 \ \dots \ \ 1110_2
 - reversing the bits in -2 + 1 yields
 - 1111 1111 ... 1110₂ + 1
 - $= 0000 0000 \dots 0010_2 = +2$

Overflow

- Occurs when result of operation cannot be represented
- Can occur when:
 - Adding 2 operands with same sign
 - Subtracting an operand from another with different signs
- Detect overflow when adding 2 operands, A, B:
 - A, B are positive, result is negative (most significant bit in 2's complement representation is 1) => overflow has occurred
 - A, B are negative, result is positive (most significant bit in 2's complement representation is 0) => overflow has occurred
- <u>Detect overflow</u> when <u>subtracting</u> A-B:
 - A>0, B<0, result is negative (most significant bit in 2's complement representation is 1) => overflow has occurred
 - A<0, B>0, result is positive (most significant bit in 2's complement representation is 0) => overflow has occurred
- With unsigned integers (memory addresses), overflow ignored
 - add, addi, sub cause exceptions on overflow
 - addu, addiu, subu do not cause exceptions on overflow

Overflow Exceptions/Interrupts

- What happens when overflow occurs?
- C & Java ignore integer overflows
- MIPS detects overflow with exceptions or interrupts
 - Exception is unscheduled procedure call
 - address of instruction that overflowed saved in register
 - execution jumps to predefined address to invoke a routine for that exception
 - interrupted address saved so program can resume after corrective code is executed

The world is not just integers

- Programming languages support numbers with fraction
 - called <u>floating-point numbers</u>
 - Examples:
 - **3.14159265..** (*π*)
 - **2.71828...**(*e*)
 - 0.000000001 or 1.0 x 10⁻⁹ (seconds in a nanosecond)
 - 86,400,000,000,000 or 8.64 x 10¹³ (nanoseconds in a day)
 - last number above cannot fit in a 32-bit integer
- We use scientific notation to represent
 - very small numbers (e.g., 1.0 x 10⁻⁹)
 - very large numbers (e.g., 8.64 x 10¹³)
 - Scientific notation: ±d.f₁f₂f₃f₄... x 10 ±e1e2e3...

Fractions & Real # representation

- base r numbers:
- digits used: {0, 1, 2,...,r-1}

$$\underbrace{(\underline{d_{n}d_{n-1}...d_{0}}}_{\text{Integer part}} \underbrace{d_{-1}d_{-2}...d_{-m}}_{\text{Fractional part}})_{r} = \\ d_{n} \times r^{n} + d_{n-1} \times r^{n-1} + ... + d_{1} \times r^{1} + d_{0} \times r^{0} + d_{-1} \times r^{-1} + \\ d_{-2} \times r^{-2} + ... + d_{-m} \times r^{-m}$$

<u>Example</u>

1.
$$r=10$$

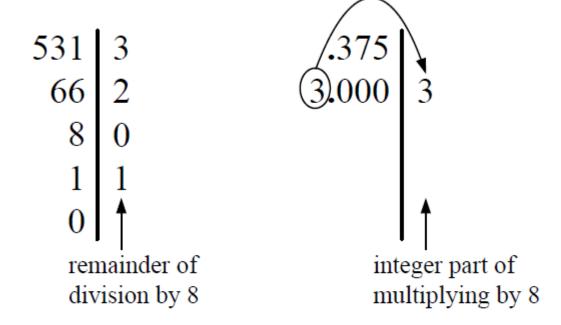
 $523.61 = 5 \times 10^{2} + 2 \times 10^{1} + 3 \times 10^{0} + 6 \times 10^{-1} + 1 \times 10^{-2}$

2. r=2

$$1011.11 = 2^3 + 2^1 + 2^0 + 2^{-1} + 2^{-2} = (11.75)_{10}$$

Convert from Decimal to base r

- $(531.375)_{10} = (x)_8$?
- Treat the integer part and the fraction part separately.

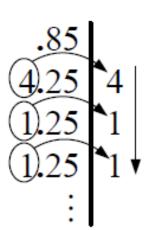


$$x = 1023.3$$

More Examples

$$(48.5)_{10}=(x)_3$$
?

$$(76.85)_{10}=(x)_5$$
?



$$x=1210.1111...=1210.\overline{1}$$

$$x=301.411...=301.4\overline{1}$$

Floating-Point Numbers

- Examples of floating-point numbers in base 10...
 - 5.341 x 10^3 , 0.05341 x 10^5 , -2.013 x 10^{-1} , -201.3 x 10^{-3}
- Examples of floating-point numbers in base 2...
 - 1.00101 x 2²³, 0.0100101 x 2²⁵, -1.101101 x 2⁻³, -1101.101 x 2⁻⁶
 - Exponents are kept in decimal for clarity
 - The binary number $(1101.101)_2 = 2^3 + 2^2 + 2^0 + 2^{-1} + 2^{-3} = 13.625$
- Floating-point numbers should be normalized
 - Exactly one non-zero digit should appear before the point
 - In a decimal number this digit can be 1 to 9
 - In a binary number this digit should be 1
 - Normalized FP numbers: 5.341 x 10³ and -1.101101 x 2⁻³
 - NOT Normalized: 0.05341 x 10⁵ and -1101.101 x 2⁻⁶

Floating-Point Representation

- A floating-point number is represented by the triple
 - S is the Sign bit (0 is positive, 1 is negative)
 - Representation is called sign and magnitude
 - E is the Exponent field (signed)
 - Very large numbers have positive exponents
 - Very small close-to-zero numbers have negative exponents
 - More bits in exponent field increases range of values
 - F is the Fraction field (fraction after the binary point)
 - More bits in fraction field improves the precision of FP numbers

5	Exponent	Fraction
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■ Value of floating-point number is = $(-1)^S \times val(F) \times 2^{val(E)}$

IEEE 754 Floating-Point Standard

- Found virtually in every computer invented since 1980
 - Simplified porting of floating point numbers
 - Unified the development of floating-point algorithms
 - Increased the accuracy of floating-point numbers
- Single Precision Floating Point numbers (32 bits)
 - 1-bit sign + 8-bit exponent + 23 bit fraction

S Exponent 8 bits Fraction 23 bits

- Double Precision Floating Point Numbers (64 bits)
 - 1-bit sign + 11-bit exponent + 52 bit fraction

S	Exponent 11 bits	Fraction	52 bits
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Normalized Floating Point Numbers

For a normalized floating point number (S, E, F)

S $E = f_1 f_2 f_3 f_4 ...$

- Significand is equal to $(1.F)_2 = (1.f_1f_2f_3...)_2$
 - IEEE 754 assumes hidden 1.(not stored) for normalized numbers
 - Significand is 1 bit longer than fraction
- Value of a Normalized Floating Point Number is
 - $(-1)^S \times (1.F) \times 2^{val(E)}$
 - $-(-1)^S \times (1.f_1f_2f_3f_4...)_2 \times 2^{val(E)}$
 - $(-1)^{S} \times (1 + f_{1} \times 2^{-1} + f_{2} \times 2^{-2} + f_{3} \times 2^{-3} + f_{4} \times 2^{-4} \dots)_{2} \times 2^{val(E)}$

 $(-1)^S$ is 1 when S is 0 (positive), and -1 when S is 1 (negative)

Biased Exponent Representation

- How to represent a signed exponent? Choices are...
 - Sign + magnitude representation for the exponent
 - Two's complement representation
 - Biased representation
- IEEE 754 uses biased representation for the exponent
 - Value of exponent = val(E) = E Bias (Bias is a constant)
- Recall that exponent field is 8 bits for single precision
 - E can be in the range of 0 to 255
 - E=0 and E=255 are reserved for special use (discussed later)
 - E = 1 and 254 are used for normalized floating point numbers
 - Bias = 127 (half of 254), val(E) = E-127
 - $ext{val}(E=1) = -126$, $ext{val}(E=127) = 0$, $ext{val}(E=254) = 127$

Biased Exponent – cont'd

- For double precision, exponent field is 11 bits
- E can be in the range of 0 to 2047
- E=0 and E=2047 are reserved for special use
- E=1 to 2046 are used for normalized floating point numbers
- Bias = 1023 (half of 2046), val(E) = E 1023
- $ext{val}(E=1) = -1022$, $ext{val}(E=1023)=0$, $ext{val}(E=2046)=1023$
- Value of a Normalized Floating Point Number is
- $(-1)^S \times (1.F)_2 \times 2^{(E-Bias)}$
- $(-1)^S \times (1.f_1f_2f_3f_4...)_2 \times 2^{(E-Bias)}$
- $(-1)^S \times (1 + f_1 \times 2^{-1} + f_2 \times 2^{-2} + f_3 \times 2^{-3} + f_4 \times 2^{-4} \dots)_2 \times 2^{(E-Bias)}$

Examples: Single Precision Float

Solution:

- Sign = 1 is negative
- Exponent = $(011111100)_2$ = 124, E-bias = 124 127 = -3
- Significand = $(1.0100...0)_2 = 1 + 2^{-2} = 1.25$ (1. is implicit)
- Value in decimal = -1.25 x 2⁻³ = -0.15625
- 2. What is the decimal value of?

01000001001001100000000000000000

Solution:

- \blacksquare Exponent = (10000010) = 130
- Value in decimal = $+(1.01001100...0)_2 \times 2^{130-127}$
- $= (1.01001100)_2 \times 2^3 = (1010.01100...0)_2 = 10.375$

Examples: Double Precision Float

Solution:

- Sign = 0 is positive
- Value of exponent = $(10000000101)_2$ = 1029, E-bias = 1029 1023 = 6
- Value of double float = $(1.0010101...0)_2 \times 2^6 = (1001010.10...0)_2 = 74.5$

Examples: Double Precision Float

2. What is the decimal value of?

Solution:

- Sign = 1 is negative
- Value of exponent = $(011111111000)_2$ = 1016, E-bias = 1016 1023 = -7
- Value of double float = $(1.1000000...0)_2 \times 2^{-7} = (1.5)_{10} \times 2^{-7} =$

-0.01171875

Converting FP Decimal to Binary

- 3. Convert -0.8125 to binary in single and double precision
- Solution:
 - Fraction bits can be obtained using multiplication by 2
 - $0.8125 \times 2 = 1.625$
 - $0.625 \times 2 = 1.25$
 - $0.25 \times 2 = 0.5$
 - $0.5 \times 2 = 1.0$
 - Stop when fractional part is 0
 - Fraction = $(0.1101)_2$ = $(1.101)_2$ x 2^{-1} (Normalized)
 - Exponent = -1 + Bias = 126 (single precision) and 1022 (double)
 - Single:

Double:

Largest Normalized Float

4. What is the Largest normalized float? Solution (Single Precision):

011111101111111111111111111111111

- Exponent bias = 254 127 = 127 (largest exponent for SP)
- Significand = $1.111...1)_2$ = almost 2
- Value in decimal ~ $2 \times 2^{127} \sim 2^{128} = 3.4028 \dots \times 10^{38}$

Solution (Double Precision):

01111111111011111111111111111111111

11111111111111111111111111111111111111

- Value in decimal ~ $2 \times 2^{1023} \sim 2^{1024} = 1.79769... \times 10^{308}$
- Overflow: exponent is too large to fit in the exponent field

Smallest Normalized Float

5. What is the Smallest (in absolute value) normalized float?

Solution (Single Precision):

- Exponent bias = 1 127 = -126 (smallest exponent for SP)
- Significand = $1.000...0)_2 = 1$
- Value in decimal ~ 1 x 2⁻¹²⁶ = 1.17549 ... x 10⁻³⁸

Solution (Double Precision):

- Value in decimal = $1 \times 2^{-1022} = 2.22507... \times 10^{-308}$
- Underflow: exponent is too small to fit in the exponent field

More Examples

6. Represent -0.75 $-0.75 = (-1)^1 \times 1.1_2 \times 2^{-1}$ S = 1Fraction = $1000...00_2$ Exponent = -1 + BiasSingle: $-1 + 127 = 126 = 011111110_2$ Double: $-1 + 1023 = 1022 = 01111111110_2$

- Single: 1011111101000...00
- Double: 10111111111101000...00

Floating-Point Example 2

- 7. 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

Zero, Infinity and NaN

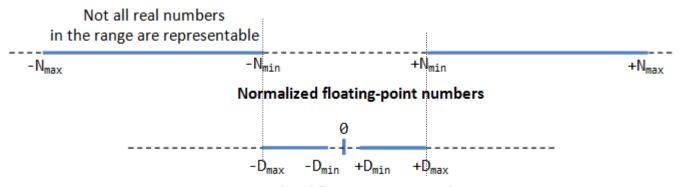
- Zero
 - Exponent field E = 0 and Fraction F = 0
 - +0 and -0 are possible according to the sign bit S
- Infinity
 - Infinity is a special value represented with maximum E and F = 0
 - For SP with 8 bit exponent: maximum E = 255
 - For DP with 11 bit exponent: maximum E = 2047
 - Infinity can result from overflow or division by 0
 - +inf and -inf are possible according to sign bit S
- NaN (Not a Number)
 - NaN is a special value represented with maximum E and F not = 0
 - Result from exceptional situations, such as 0/0 or sqrt (negative)
 - Operation on a NaN results is NaN: Op(X, NaN) = NaN

Denormalized Numbers

- IEEE standard uses denormalized numbers to
 - Fill the gap between 0 and the smallest normalized float
 - Provide a gradual underflow to zero
- Denormalized: exponent field E is 0 and fraction F not = 0
 - Implicit 1. before the fraction now becomes 0. (not normalized)
- Value of denormalized number (S, 0, F)

Single Precision: $(-1)^S$ x $(0.F)_2$ x 2^{-126}

Double Precision: $(-1)^S \times (0.F)_2 \times 2^{-1022}$



Denormalized floating-point numbers

Floating-Point Comparison

- IEEE 754 floating point numbers are ordered
 - Because exponent uses a biased representation...
 - Exponent value and its binary representation have the same ordering
 - Placing exponent before the fraction field orders the magnitude
 - Larger exponent => larger magnitude
 - For equal exponents, larger fraction => larger magnitude
 - $0 < (0.F)_2 \times 2^{Emin} < (1.F)_2 \times 2^{E-Bias} < inf (E_{min} = 1-Bias)$

Floating Point Addition Example

- Cannot add significands... why?
 - Because exponents are not equal
- How do we make exponents equal?
 - Shift the significand of the lesser exponent right
 - Difference between the 2 exponents = 4 2 = 2
 - So, shift right second number by 2 bits and increment exponent
 - $+ 1.1000010000000110000101_2 \times 2^2$
 - $= 0.011000010000000110000101_2 \times 2^4$

Floating Point Addition – cont'd

- Addition produces a carry bit result is NOT normalized
- Normalize Result (shift right and increment exponent):

```
10.0100010000000001100011_2 \times 2^4
```

 $= 1.001000100000000110001_2 \times 2^5$

Rounding

- Single-precision requires only 23 fraction bits
- However, Normalized result can contain additional bits
- 1.00100010000000000110001 | $(1)(01) \times 2^{5}$

Round bit: R=1 ———— Sticky Bit: S=1

- Two extra bits are needed for rounding
 - Round bit: appears just after the normalized result
 - Sticky bit: appears after the round bit (OR of all additional bits)
- Since RS = 11, increment fraction to round to nearest

 $1.00100010000000000110010 \times 2^{5}$

Floating-Point Addition

9. 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 x 10¹ + 0.016 x 10¹
- 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 x 10²
- 4. Round and renormalize if necessary

 1.002×10^{2}

Floating-Point Addition

10. Now consider a 4-digit binary example

$$1.000_2 \times 2^{-1} + -1.110_2 \times 2^{-2} \quad (0.5 + -0.4375)$$

■ 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

Floating-Point Subtraction

```
11. Consider subtracting:
+ 1.00000000101100010001101 \times 2<sup>-6</sup>
-1.00000000000000010011010 \times 2^{-1}
+ 0.0000100000001011000100 01101 x 2^{-1} (shift right 5 bits)
 1.0000000000000010011010
                                   \times 2^{-1}
  0.0000100000001011000100 01101 \times 2^{-1}
                                   \mathbf{x} \ 2^{-1} (2s complement)
  0.111111111111111101100110
  1.0000100000001000101010 01101 \times 2^{-1} (ADD)
```

Floating-Point Subtraction – cont'd

- So, we now have:
- + 1.0000000101100010001101 \times 2⁻⁶
- $-1.0000000000000010011010 \times 2^{-1}$

Guard bit

- 0.11110111111111111110111010101 (1)0011 \times 2⁻¹
- To normalize this result, shift left 1 bit, decrement exponent:
- 1.1110111111111110111010101 1 0011 x 2⁻² (normalized)

Guard bit: guards against loss of a fraction bit. Needed when subtracting since result may have a leading zero and should be normalized

Floating-Point Subtraction – cont'd

Next, normalized result should be rounded

- Since R=0, it is more accurate to truncate the result even if S=1. So, we simply discard the extra bits
- 1.111011111111111101110101011 $0_R 1_S \times 2^{-2}$
 - 1.1110111111111101110101011 \times 2⁻²

IEEE 754 representation:

1011111011110111111111101110101011

Rounding to Nearest Even

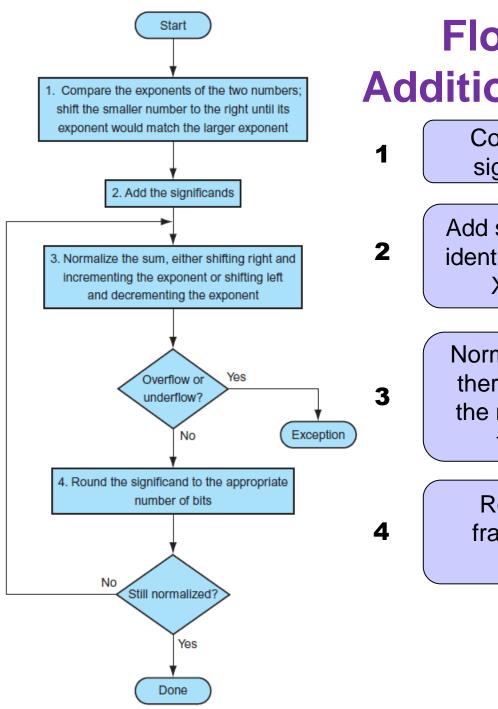
Normalized result has the form:

- $1.f_1f_2f_3...f_{23}RS$
 - The Round bit R appears <u>after</u> the last fraction bit f₂₃
 - The Sticky bit S is the OR of all remaining additional bits
- Round to Nearest Even: default rounding mode
- FOUR cases for RS:
- RS = 00 → Result is exact, no need for rounding
- RS = 01 → Truncate result by discarding RS
- RS = 11 → Increment result: ADD 1 last fraction bit
- RS = $10 \rightarrow$ Tie case either truncate or increment:
 - Check last fraction bit (bit f₂₃)
 - if (bit f₂₃) is 0 the truncate result to keep fraction even
 - if (bit f₂₃) is 1 then increment result to make fraction even

Example on Rounding

12. Round the following using Rounding to Nearest Even





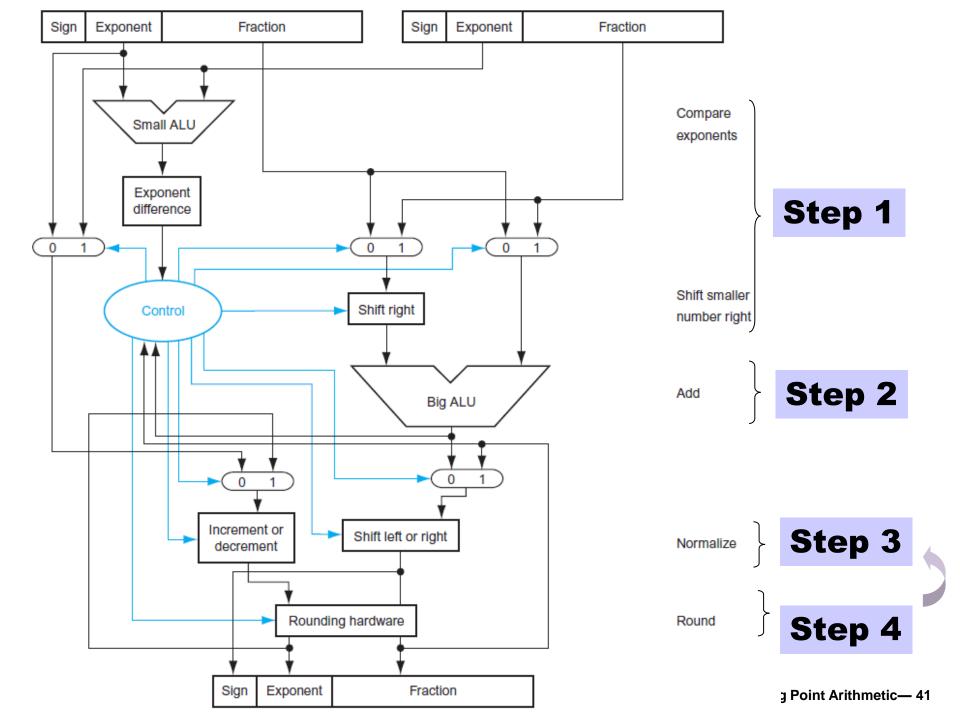
Floating-Point Addition / Subtraction

Compare exponents & Shift significand by d = |Ex - Ey|

Add significands when signs are identical, subtract when different X – Y becomes X + (-Y)

Normalization shifts right by 1 if there is a carry or shifts left by the number of leading zeros in the case of subtraction

Rounding either truncates fraction or adds a 1 to least significant fraction bit



Floating-Point Multiplication

Consider multiplying:

```
-1.110 1000 0100 0000 1010 0001<sub>2</sub> \times 2<sup>-4</sup> 1.100 0000 0001 0000 0000 0000<sub>2</sub> \times 2<sup>-2</sup>
```

- Unlike addition, we add the exponents of the operands
 - Result exponent value = (-4) + (-2) = -6
- □ Using the biased representation: Ez = Ex + Ey Bias
 - \blacksquare Ex = (-4) + 127 = 123 (Bias = 127 for SP)
 - \Box Ey = (-2) + 127 = 125
 - □ Ez = 123 + 125 127 = 121 (value = -6)
- Sign bit of product can be computed independently
- □ Sign bit of product = Sign_x XOR Sign_y = 1 (negative)

Floating-Point Multiplication cont'd

Now multiply the significands:

(Multiplicand) 1.11010000100000010100001

(Multiplier) x 1.10000000001000000

111010000100000010100001

1.11010000100000010100001

- Multiplicand x 0 = 0 Zero rows are eliminated
- Multiplicand x 1 = Multiplicand (shifted left)

Floating-Point Multiplication, cont'd

Normalize Product:

- Round to Nearest Even: (keep only 23 fraction bits) 1.01011100011111011111100 1 100... x 2⁻⁵
- Round bit = 1, Sticky bit =1, so increment fraction
- Final result
- 1.010111000111111011111101 x 2^{-5}

IEEE 754 Representation

1 01111010 01011100011111011111101

Example 1

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
 - $1.110 \times 9.200 = 10.212 \implies 10.212 \times 10^{5}$
- 3. Normalize result & check for over/underflow
 - \blacksquare 1.0212 × 10⁶
- 4. Round and renormalize if necessary
 - -1.021×10^6
- 5. Determine sign of result from signs of operands
 - $+1.021 \times 10^{6}$

Example 2

Now consider a 4-digit binary example

$$1.000_2 \times 2^{-1} \times -1.110_2 \times 2^{-2} \ (0.5 \times -0.4375)$$

- 1. Add exponents
 - Unbiased: -1 + -2 = -3
 - Biased: (-1 + 127) + (-2 + 127) = -3 + 254 127 = -3 + 127
- 2. Multiply significands

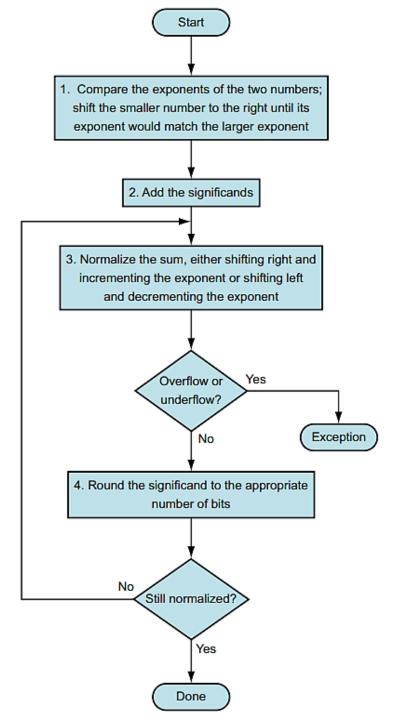
■
$$1.000_2 \times 1.110_2 = 1.110_2 \Rightarrow 1.110_2 \times 2^{-3}$$

- 3. Normalize result & check for over/underflow
 - 1.110₂ × 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
 - FP ↔ integer conversion
- Operations usually takes several cycles
 - Can be pipelined



Biased Exponent Addition

Ez = Ex + Ey - Bias

Result sign
Sz = Sx XOR Sy
can be computed
independently

Since the operand significands 1.Fx and 1.Fy are >= 1 and < 2, their product is >= 1 and < 4. To normalize product we need to shift right by at most 1 bit and increment exponent

Rounding either truncates fraction or adds a 1 to least significant fraction bit

Integer Multiply Instructions

Multiply

General Form:

MUL RegD, Reg1, Reg2

Example:

MUL x4, x9, x13 # x4 = x9*x13

Description:

The contents of Reg1 is multiplied by the contents of Reg2 and the result is placed in RegD.

- Regardless of the size of the registers, the result of their multiplication will be twice as large, and therefore require 2 registers to contain.
- This instruction captures the lower-order half of the result and moves it into the destination register

Integer Multiply Instructions

Multiply - High Bits (Signed)

General Form:

MULH RegD, Reg1, Reg2

Example:

MULH x4, x9, x13 # x4 = HighBits(x9*x13)

Description:

The contents of Reg1 is multiplied by the contents of Reg2 and the most-significant half of the result is placed in RegD. Both operands and the result are interpreted as signed values.

Encoding:

This is a R-type instruction.

 This instruction captures the upper half of the result and moves it into the destination register

Integer Multiply Instructions

Recommended Usage: Typically, the programmer will want to obtain the full result of a multiplication, i.e., both upper half and lower halves. This requires two multiply instructions.

For example, the following sequence

```
MULH x4,x9,x13 # compute upper half
MUL x5,x9,x13 # compute lower half
```

will place the result in the register pair x4:x5.

Integer Divide Instructions

Consider dividing a by n (that is, a/n).

```
q = a DIV n # compute quotient

r = a REM n # compute remainder

a = nq + r

|r| < |q|
```

Many languages (C, C++, Java) perform "truncated division":

```
q = trunc(a/n)

r = a - n trunc(a/n)
```

which produces these results:

```
7 / 3 = 2 7 % 3 = 1

-7 / 3 = -2 -7 % 3 = -1

7 / -3 = -2 7 % -3 = 1

-7 / -3 = 2 -7 % -3 = -1
```

Integer Divide Instructions

Divide (Signed)

General Form:

DIV RegD, Reg1, Reg2

Example:

DIV x4, x9, x13 # x4 = x9 DIV x13

Description:

The contents of Reg1 is divided by the contents of Reg2 and the quotient is placed in RegD. Both operands and the result are signed values.

Remainder (Signed)

<u>General Form:</u>

REM RegD, Reg1, Reg2

<u>Example:</u>

REM x4, x9, x13 # x4 = x9 REM x13

<u>Description:</u>

The contents of Reg1 is divided by the contents of Reg2 and the remainder is placed in RegD. Both operands and the result are signed values.

Integer Divide Instructions

- Often, both the quotient and remainder is of interest.
- It is recommended that the DIV be done first and the REM be done second

```
DIV x4, x9, x13 # x4 = x9 DIV x13
REM x5, x9, x13 # x5 = x9 REM x13
```

 In some implementations, the execution unit may recognize this common pattern and fuse these two instructions into a single division operation, thereby improving performance

FP Instructions in RISC-V

- Separate FP registers: f0, ..., f31
 - double-precision
 - single-precision values stored in the lower 32 bits
- 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
 - flw, fld
 - fsw, fsd

Floating Point Extensions

- The RISC-V spec describes these extensions to support floating point arithmetic
 - F Single precision 2loating point (32 bit values)
 - D Double precision 2loating point (64 bit values)
 - Q Quad precision 2loating point (128 bit values)
- The "D" extension is a superset of "F"; when double precision is implemented, all instructions operating on single precision values will also be included.
- Likewise, the "Q" is a superset of "D"; when the "Q" extension is implemented, all "F" and "D" instructions will also be implemented.

Floating Point Registers

- There are 32 floating point registers, named f0, f1, ... f31
- In the "F" extension, each register can hold one single precision floating point value - each register is 32 bits wide.
- All registers function identically there is nothing special about f0, as there is with x0 of the integer registers
- In addition: Floating Point Control and Status Register (FCSR)
- Whose bits can be queried after a sequence of instructions to determine if any of several unusual conditions has occurred

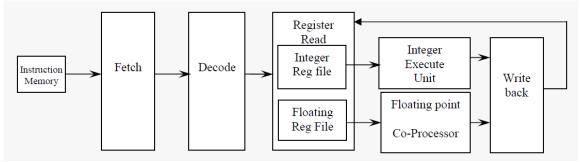
<u>Bits</u>	Width in bits	Description
0	1	NX: Inexact
1	1	UF: Underflow
2	1	OF: Overflow
3	1	DZ: Divide By Zero
4	1	NV: Invalid Operation
5:7	3	Floating Point Rounding Mode (FRM)
8:31	24	(unused)

FCSR

- NX: If the result of an operation had to be rounded, then the "NX: Inexact" bit will be set.
- UF: If the result is too small to fit in a normalized form and is also inexact
- OF: If the result is too large to be represented
- DZ: bit is set for operations like 1/0 and log(0) and +∞ or ∞ will be returned as the result.
- NV: Invalid operations, such as "square root of a negative number" cause the NV bit to be set and NaN to be returned
- Floating Point instructions that have problems will set the FCSR bits but will never cause a trap or exception.
 Instead, instruction execution will continue uninterrupted.

FP Hardware in RISC-V

- The coprocessor for floating point integrates with integer pipeline
- FPU acts a kind of accelerator & works in parallel with the integer pipeline



- The fetch unit fetches the instructions from the program memory based on the program counter value.
- Decoder decodes the instructions and passes Register addresses to the register select unit. If the current instruction is integer related instruction, then it passes to the integer pipeline and if the instruction is related the floating point, then passes to the floating point co-processor pipeline.
- For floating point instructions, integer decoder does only a partial decoding, full decoding of FP instructions takes place inside the FPU coprocessor

FP Hardware in RISC-V

- Floating point coprocessor (FPU) performs operations like addition, subtraction, division, square root, multiplication, fused multiply and accumulate and compare.
- Floating point operations are part of ARM, MIPS, and RISC-V etc. instruction sets
- RISC-V Floating point units designed for RISC-V floating point instructions is fully compatible with IEEE 754-2008 standard
- Capable of handling both single and double precision floating point data operands
- The front end of the floating point processor accepts three data operands, rounding mode and associated Opcode fields for decoding
- The FPU decodes instructions and executes them. The Final result is written back to the registers through write back unit

Floating Load (Word)

<u>General Form:</u>

FLW FRegD, Immed-12(Reg1)

Example:

FLW f4,1234(x9) # f4 = Mem[x9+1234]

<u>Description:</u>

A 32-bit value is fetched from memory and moved into floating register FRegD. The memory address is formed by adding the offset to the contents of Reg1.

Comment:

Floating Load (Double)

General Form:

FLD FRegD, Immed-12 (Reg1)

Example:

FLD f4,1234(x9) # f4 = Mem[x9+1234]

<u>Description:</u>

A 64-bit value is fetched from memory and moved into floating register FRegD. The memory address is formed by adding the offset to the contents of Reg1.

Comment:

Floating Load (Double)

General Form:

FLD FRegD, Immed-12 (Reg1)

Example:

FLD f4,1234(x9) # f4 = Mem[x9+1234]

<u>Description:</u>

A 64-bit value is fetched from memory and moved into floating register FRegD. The memory address is formed by adding the offset to the contents of Reg1.

Comment:

Floating Store (Word)

General Form:

FSW FReg2, Immed-12(Reg1)

Example:

FSW f4,1234(x9),f4 # Mem[x9+1234] = f4

Description:

A 32-bit value is copied from register FReg2 to memory. The memory address is formed by adding the offset to the contents of Reg1.

Comment:

Floating Point Arithmetic Instructions

Floating Add

```
General Form:
```

```
FADD.S FRegD, FReg1, FReg2 (single precision)
FADD.D FRegD, FReg1, FReg2 (double precision)
FADD.Q FRegD, FReg1, FReg2 (quad precision)
```

Example:

```
FADD.S f4,f9,f13 # f4 = f9+f13 (32 bits)

FADD.D f4,f9,f13 # f4 = f9+f13 (64 bits)

FADD.Q f4,f9,f13 # f4 = f9+f13 (128 bits)
```

Description:

The value in FReg1 is added to the value in FReg2 and the result is placed in FRegD.

Floating Point Arithmetic Instructions

Floating Subtract

<u>General Form:</u>

```
FSUB.S FRegD, FReg1, FReg2 (single precision)
FSUB.D FRegD, FReg1, FReg2 (double precision)
FSUB.Q FRegD, FReg1, FReg2 (quad precision)
```

Example:

```
FSUB.S f4,f9,f13 # f4 = f9-f13 (32 bits)
FSUB.D f4,f9,f13 # f4 = f9-f13 (64 bits)
FSUB.Q f4,f9,f13 # f4 = f9-f13 (128 bits)
```

<u>Description:</u>

The value in FReg1 is subtracted from the value in FReg2 and the result is placed in FRegD.

Floating Point Arithmetic Instructions

Floating Multiply

```
General Form:

FMUL.S FRegD, FReg1, FReg2 (single precision)

FMUL.D FRegD, FReg1, FReg2 (double precision)

FMUL.Q FRegD, FReg1, FReg2 (quad precision)

Example:

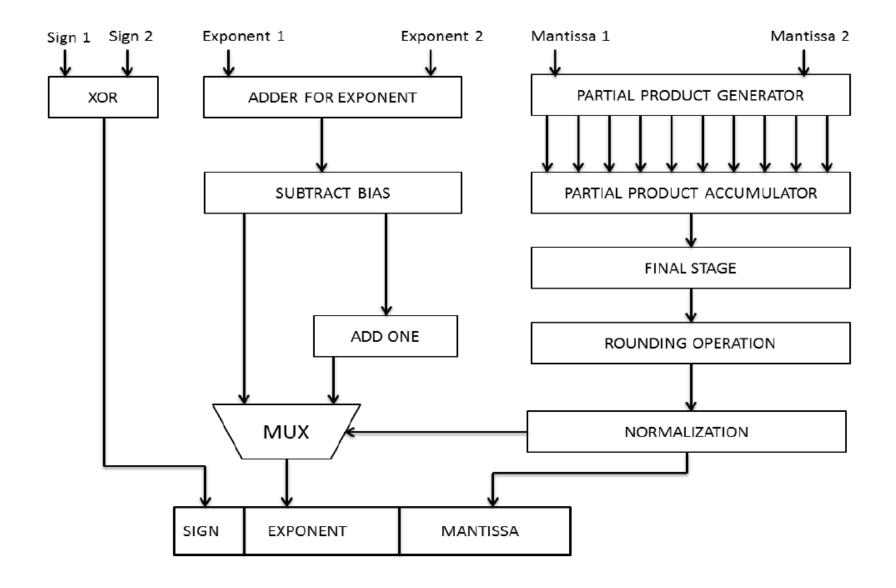
FMUL.S f4,f9,f13 # f4 = f9*f13 (32 bits)

FMUL.D f4,f9,f13 # f4 = f9*f13 (64 bits)

FMUL.Q f4,f9,f13 # f4 = f9*f13 (128 bits)

Description:
```

The value in FReg1 is multiplied by the value in FReg2 and the result is placed in FRegD.



FP Example: °F to °C

C code:

```
float f2c (float fahr) {
  return ((5.0/9.0)*(fahr - 32.0));
}
```

- fahr in f10, result in f10, literals in global memory space
- Compiled RISC-V code:

```
f2c:
```

```
flw f0,const5(x3) // f0 = 5.0f
flw f1,const9(x3) // f1 = 9.0f
fdiv.s f0, f0, f1 // f0 = 5.0f / 9.0f
flw f1,const32(x3) // f1 = 32.0f
fsub.s f10,f10,f1 // f10 = fahr - 32.0
fmul.s f10,f0,f10 // f10 = (5.0f/9.0f) * (fahr-32.0f)
jalr x0,0(x1) // return
```

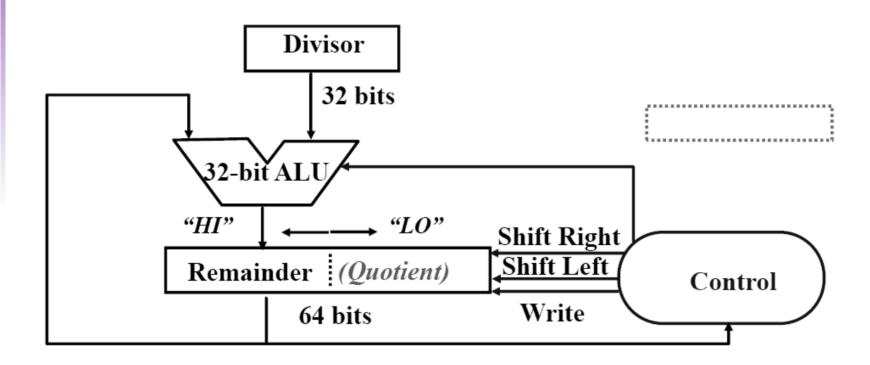
Back Up

Divide - comments

- Eliminate Quotient register by combining with Remainder as shifted left
 - Start by shifting the Remainder left as before.
 - Thereafter loop contains only two steps because the shifting of the Remainder register shifts both the remainder in the left half and the quotient in the right half
 - The consequence of combining the two registers together and the new order of the operations in the loop is that the remainder will shifted left one time too many.
 - Thus the final correction step must shift back only the remainder in the left half of the register

Divide hardware – improved Version

 32-bit Divisor reg, 32 -bit ALU, 64-bit Remainder reg, (Quotient reg eliminated)



Divide algorithm – improved Version

Takes n+1 steps for n-bit Quotient & Rem.

register to the left

setting the new

rightmost bit to 1

Divisor Remainder 0100 1010 1000

n=4

1. Shift the Remainder register left 1 bit 2. Subtract the Divisor register from the left half of the Remainder register, & place the result in the left half of the Remainder register. Test Remainder remainder >= 0 remainder < 0 3b.Restore the original value by adding the 3a. Shift the Remainder Divisor register to the left half of the Remainder register, &place the sum in the left half of the Remainder register. Also shift the Remainder register to the left, setting the new least significant bit to 0. no < nnth repetition? yes, n Done. Shift left half of remainder right 1 bit

Start: place dividend in remainder

Divide version - comments

- Same Hardware as Multiply: just need ALU to add or subtract, and 64-bit register to shift left or shift right
- Hi and Lo registers in MIPS and RISC-V combine to act as 64-bit register for multiply and divide
- Signed Divides: Simplest is to remember signs, make positive, and complement quotient and remainder if necessary
 - Note: Dividend and Remainder must have same sign
 - Note: Quotient negated if Divisor sign & Dividend sign disagree. e.g., −7 ÷2 = −3, remainder = −1

FP Example: Array Multiplication

 $C = C + A \times B$ All 32 × 32 matrices, 64-bit double-precision elements C code: void mm (double c[][], double a[][], double b[][]) { size_t 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)c[i][i] = c[i][i]+ a[i][k] * b[k][j]; } Addresses of c, a, b in x10, x11, x12, and i, j, k in x5, x6, x7

FP Example: Array Multiplication

RISC-V code:

```
mm: . . .
    lί
                     // x28 = 32 (row size/loop end)
         x28,32
      lί
           x5,0
                       // i = 0; initialize 1st for loop
      li x6,0
                       // j = 0; initialize 2nd for loop
L1:
L2:
      li x7,0
                       // k = 0; initialize 3rd for loop
    slli x30,x5,5 // x30 = i * 2**5 (size of row of c)
    add
        x30,x30,x6
                     // x30 = i * size(row) + i
    slli x30,x30,3
                     // x30 = byte offset of [i][j]
    add
         x30, x10, x30
                    // x30 = byte address of c[i][j]
          f0,0(x30) // f0 = c[i][j]
      fld
L3:
      slli x29, x7,5 // x29 = k * 2**5 (size of row of b)
      add x29, x29, x6 // x29 = k * size(row) + j
      slli x29, x29, 3 // x29 = byte offset of [k][j]
      add x29,x12,x29 // x29 = byte address of b[k][j]
           f1,0(x29) // f1 = b[k][j]
      fld
```

FP Example: Array Multiplication

```
slli x29,x5,5 // x29 = i * 2**5 (size of row of a)
add x29, x29, x7 // x29 = i * size(row) + k
slli x29,x29,3 // x29 = byte offset of [i][k]
add x29,x11,x29 // x29 = byte address of a[i][k]
fld f2,0(x29) // f2 = a[i][k]
fmul.d f1, f2, f1 // f1 = a[i][k] * b[k][j]
fadd.d f0, f0, f1 // f0 = c[i][j] + a[i][k] * b[k][j]
bltu x7, x28, L3 // if (k < 32) go to L3
fsd f0,0(x30) // c[i][j] = f0
addi x6, x6, 1 // j = j + 1
bltu x6, x28, L2 // if (j < 32) go to L2
addi x5, x5, 1 // i = i + 1
bltu x5,x28,L1 // if (i < 32) go to L1
```

Accurate Arithmetic

- IEEE Std 754 specifies additional rounding control
 - Extra bits of precision (guard, round, sticky)
 - Choice of rounding modes
 - Allows programmer to fine-tune numerical behavior of a computation
- Not all FP units implement all options
 - Most programming languages and FP libraries just use defaults
- Trade-off between hardware complexity, performance, and market requirements

Subword Parallellism

- Graphics and audio applications can take advantage of performing simultaneous operations on short vectors
 - Example: 128-bit adder:
 - Sixteen 8-bit adds
 - Eight 16-bit adds
 - Four 32-bit adds
- Also called data-level parallelism, vector parallelism, or Single Instruction, Multiple Data (SIMD)

x86 FP Architecture

- Originally based on 8087 FP coprocessor
 - 8 x 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	FIADDP mem/ST(i) FISUBRP mem/ST(i) FIMULP mem/ST(i) FIDIVRP mem/ST(i) FSQRT FABS FRNDINT	FICOMP FIUCOMP 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

Unoptimized code:

```
1. void dgemm (int n, double* A, double* B, double* C)
2. {
3. for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i)
  for (int j = 0; j < n; ++j)
5. {
6. double cij = C[i+j*n]; /* cij = C[i][j] */
      for (int k = 0; k < n; k++)
    cij += A[i+k*n] * B[k+j*n]; /* cij +=
A[i][k]*B[k][j] */
9. C[i+j*n] = cij; /* C[i][j] = cij */
10.
11. }
```

x86 assembly code:

```
1. vmovsd (%r10), %xmm0 # Load 1 element of C into
%xmm0
2. mov %rsi, %rcx # register %rcx = %rsi
3. xor %eax, %eax # register %eax = 0
4. vmovsd (%rcx), %xmm1 # Load 1 element of B into
%xmm1
5. add r9, rcx # register rcx = rcx + register
6. vmulsd (%r8,%rax,8),%xmm1,%xmm1 # Multiply %xmm1,
element of A
7. add \$0x1, \$rax # register \$rax = \$rax + 1
8. cmp %eax, %edi # compare %eax to %edi
9. vaddsd %xmm1, %xmm0, %xmm0 # Add %xmm1, %xmm0
10. jg 30 \langle dgemm + 0x30 \rangle # jump if eax > edi
11. add $0x1, %r11d # register %r11 = %r11 + 1
12. vmovsd %xmm0, (%r10) # Store %xmm0 into C element
```

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Optimized C code:

```
1. #include <x86intrin.h>
2. void dgemm (int n, double* A, double* B, double* C)
3. {
4. for (int i = 0; i < n; i+=4)
5. for (int j = 0; j < n; j++) {
    m256d c0 = mm256 load pd(C+i+j*n); /* c0 =
C[i][j] */
  for ( int k = 0; k < n; k++ )
7.
8.
     c0 = mm256 \text{ add pd}(c0, /* c0 += A[i][k]*B[k][j]
* /
9.
                mm256 mul pd(mm256 load pd(A+i+k*n),
10.
                mm256 broadcast sd(B+k+j*n)));
    mm256 store pd(C+i+j*n, c0); /* C[i][j] = c0 */
11.
12.
13. }
```

Optimized x86 assembly code:

```
# register %rcx = %rbx
2. mov %rbx, %rcx
3. xor %eax, %eax
              # register %eax = 0
4. vbroadcastsd (%rax, %r8,1), %ymm1 # Make 4 copies of B element
5. add $0x8, %rax
              # register %rax = %rax + 8
6. vmulpd (%rcx), %ymm1, %ymm1 # Parallel mul %ymm1, 4 A elements
7. add %r9,%rcx
                    # register %rcx = %rcx + %r9
8. cmp %r10,%rax
                 # compare %r10 to %rax
9. vaddpd %ymm1, %ymm0, %ymm0 # Parallel add %ymm1, %ymm0
10. jne 50 <dqemm+0x50> # jump if not %r10 != %rax
11. add $0x1, %esi
               # register % esi = % esi + 1
12. vmovapd %ymm0, (%r11) # Store %ymm0 into 4 C elements
```

Right Shift and Division

- Left shift by i places multiplies an integer by 2i
- Right shift divides by 2ⁱ?
 - Only for unsigned integers
- For signed integers
 - Arithmetic right shift: replicate the sign bit
 - e.g., -5 / 4
 - 11111011₂ >> 2 = 11111110₂ = -2
 - Rounds toward -∞
 - c.f. $11111011_2 >>> 2 = 001111110_2 = +62$

Associativity

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

		(x+y)+z	x+(y+z)
X	-1.50E+38		-1.50E+38
У	1.50E+38	0.00E+00	
Z	1.0	1.0	1.50E+38
		1.00E+00	0.00E+00

 Need to validate parallel programs under varying degrees of parallelism