

**Integer Multiplication**  
**Integer Division**  
**Floating Point Numbers**

# Overview

**Multiplying Hardware & Software**

**Dividing Hardware & Software**

**Introduction to Floating Point**

**Doing Floating Point Arithmetic**

**MIPS Floating Point Instructions**

**The Dangers of Floating Point**

# MULTIPLY

- Paper and pencil example (unsigned):

$$\begin{array}{r} 1000 \text{ Multiplicand } U \\ \underline{1001 \text{ Multiplier } M} \\ 1000 \\ 0000 \\ 0000 \\ \times 1000 \\ \hline 01001000 \text{ Product } P \end{array}$$

- Binary multiplication is easy:
  - $P_i == 0 \Rightarrow$  place all 0's (0  $\times$  multiplicand)
  - $P_i == 1 \Rightarrow$  place a copy of  $U$  (1  $\times$  multiplicand)
  - Shift the multiplicand left before adding to product
  - *Could we multiply via add, shl?*

# Multiply by Power of 2 via Shift Left

- Number representation:  $B = b_{31}b_{30} \dots b_2b_1b_0$

$$B = b_{31} \times 2^{31} + b_{30} \times 2^{30} + \dots + b_2 \times 2^2 + b_1 \times 2^1 + b_0 \times 2^0$$

- What if multiply  $B$  by  $2$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} B \times 2 &= b_{31} \times 2^{31+1} + b_{30} \times 2^{30+1} + \dots + b_2 \times 2^{2+1} + b_1 \times 2^{1+1} + b_0 \times 2 \\ &= b_{31} \times 2^{32} + b_{30} \times 2^{31} + \dots + b_2 \times 2^3 + b_1 \times 2^2 + b_0 \times 2^1 \end{aligned}$$

- What if shift  $B$  left by  $1$ ?

$$B \ll 1 = b_{30} \times 2^{31} + b_{29} \times 2^{30} + \dots + b_2 \times 2^3 + b_1 \times 2^2 + b_0 \times 2^1$$

- Multiply by  $2^i$  often replaced by **shift left  $i$**

# Multiply in MIPS

- Can multiply variable by any **constant** using MIPS `sll` and `add` instructions:

```
i' = i * 10; /* assume i: $s0 */  
  
sll $t0, $s0, 3           # i * 23  
add $t1, $zero, $t0  
sll $t0, $s0, 1           # i * 21  
add $s0, $t1, $t0
```

- MIPS multiply instructions: `mult`, `multu`

- `mult $t0, $t1`

- puts 64-bit product in pair of new registers `hi`, `lo`; copy to `$n` by `mfhi`, `mflo`
- 32-bit integer result in register `lo`

# Is Shift Right Arith. $\equiv$ Divide by 2?

- Shifting right by  $n$  bits would seem to be the same as dividing by  $2^n$
- Problem is signed integers
  - Zero fill (`srl`) is wrong for negative numbers

- Shift Right Arithmetic (`sra`); sign extends (replicates sign bit); but does it work?

- Divide -5 by 4 via `sra 2`; result should be -1

```
1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1011
1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1110
```

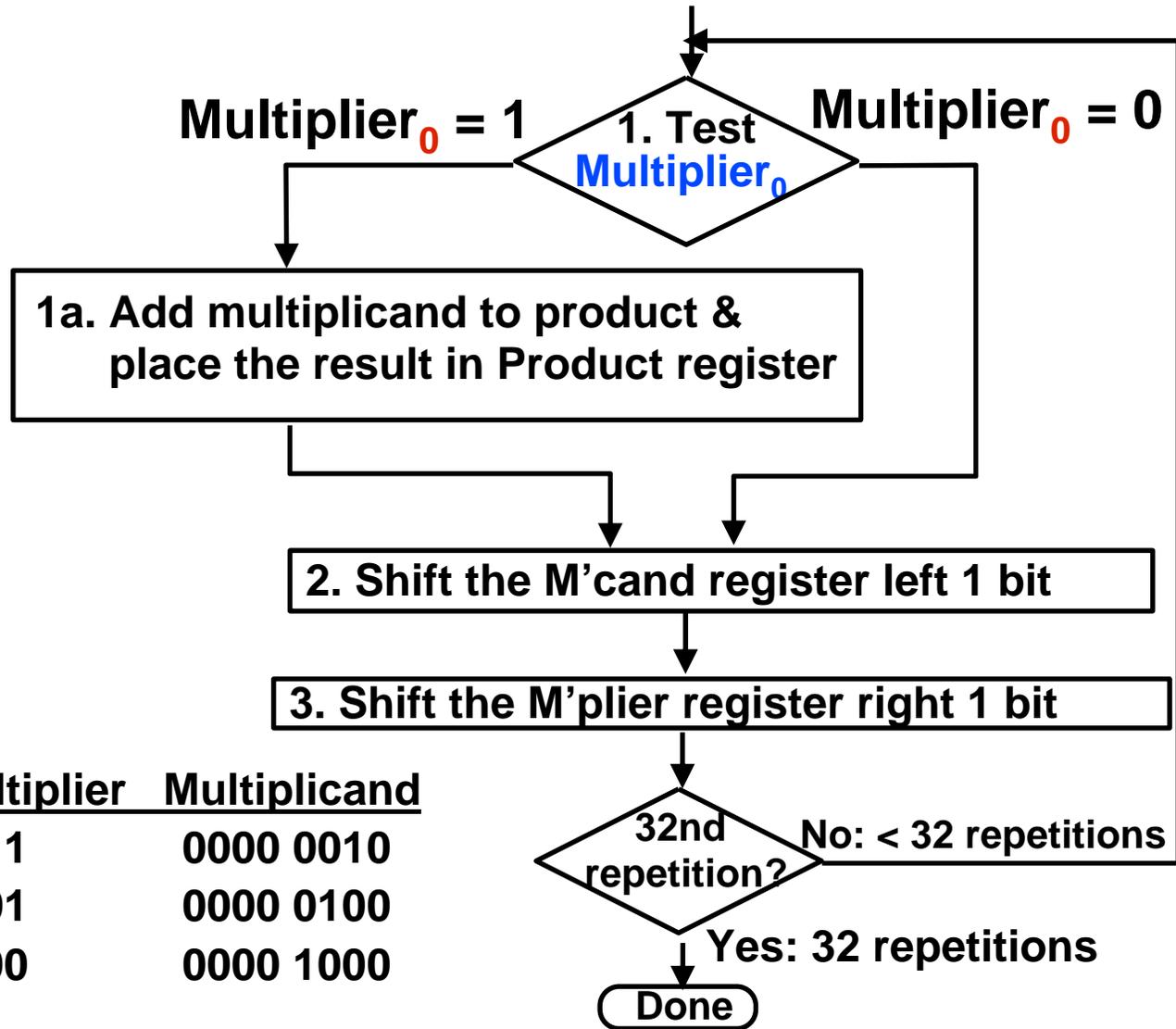
- = -2, not -1; Off by 1, so **doesn't work**

- **Is it always off by 1??**

# Multiply Algorithm *Version 1*

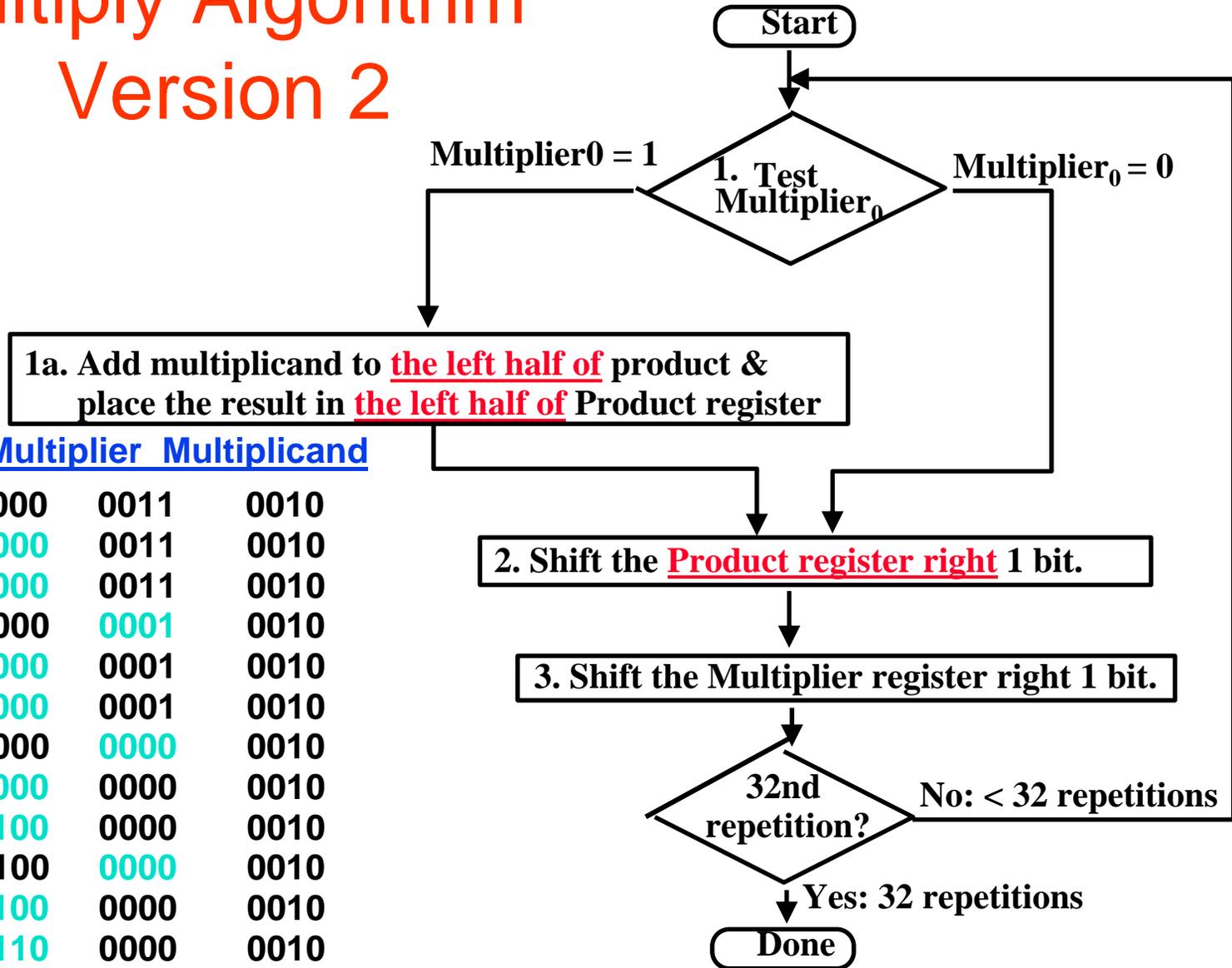
```

    0010
  x 0011
  -----
  00000110
  
```



<u>Product</u>	<u>Multiplier</u>	<u>Multiplicand</u>
0000 0000	0011	0000 0010
0000 0010	0001	0000 0100
0000 0110	0000	0000 1000
<b>0000 0110</b>		

# Multiply Algorithm Version 2

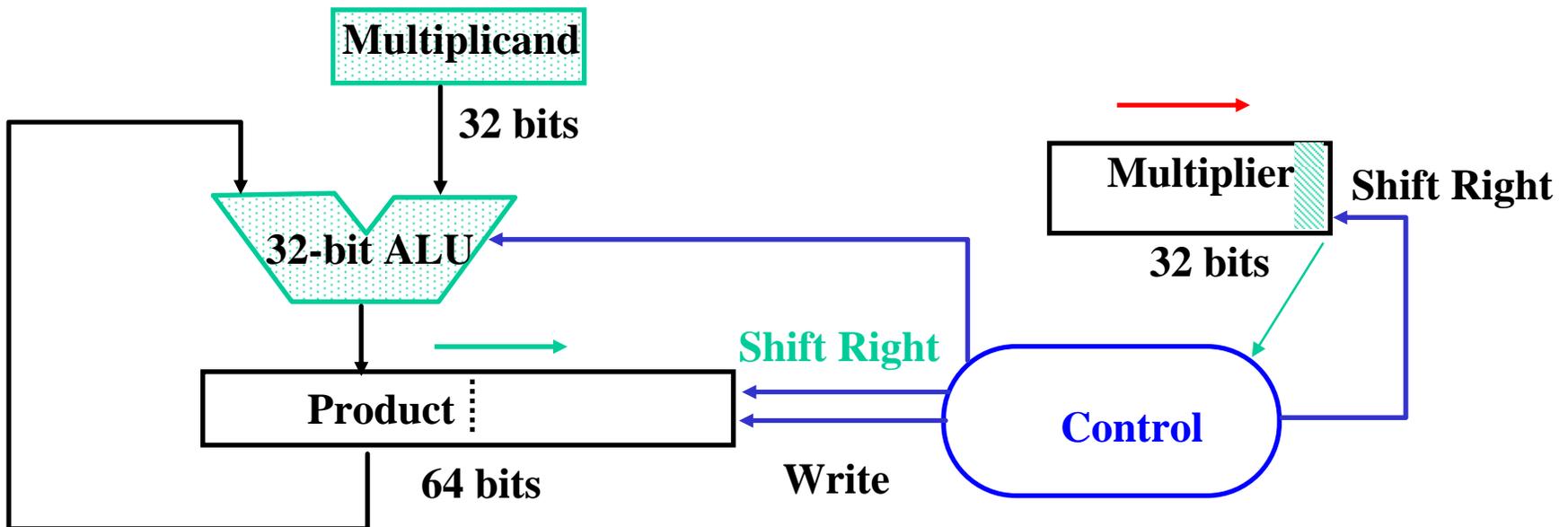


**Product Multiplier Multiplicand**

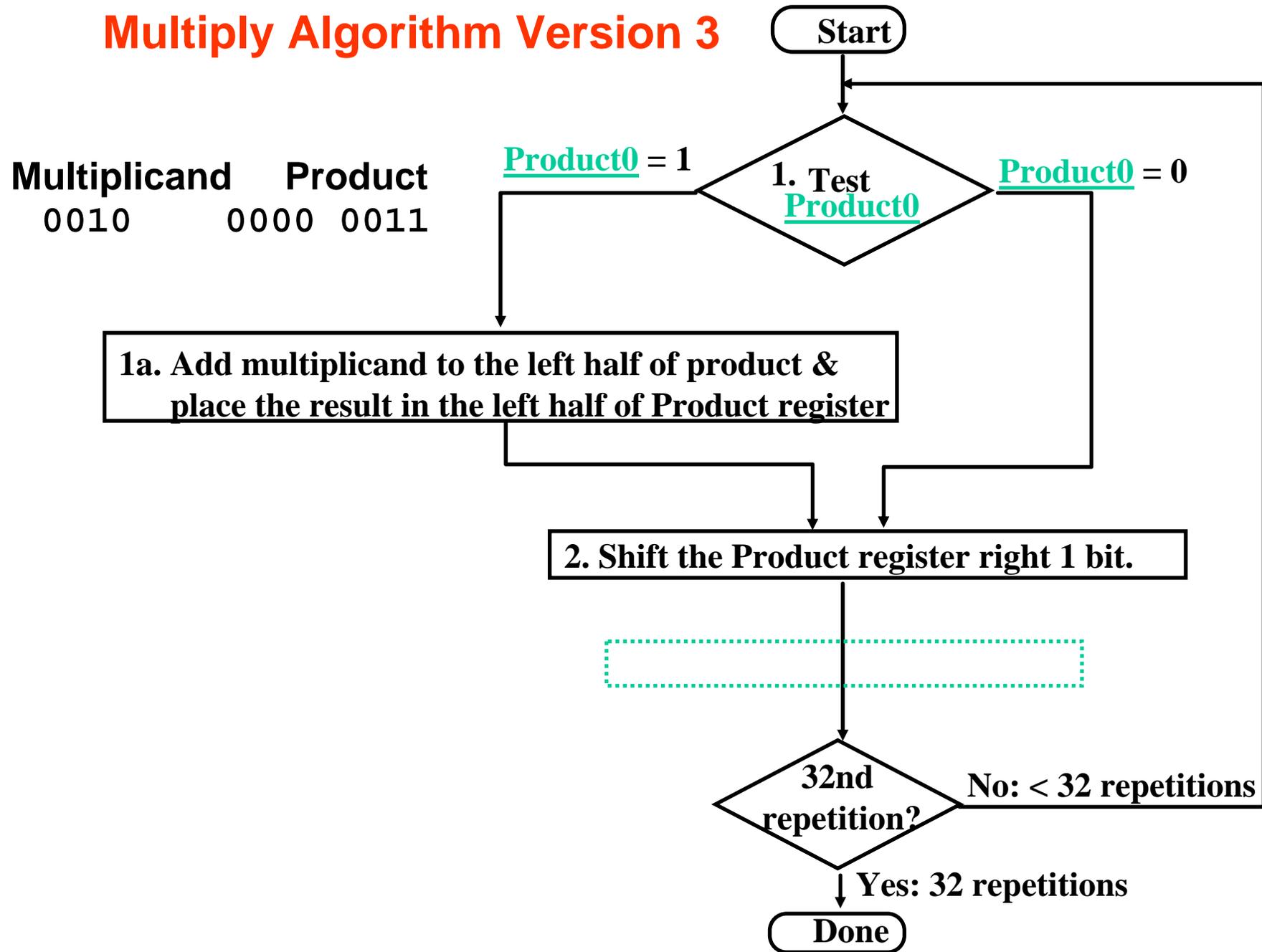
	0000 0000	0011	0010
1:	0010 0000	0011	0010
2:	0001 0000	0011	0010
3:	0001 0000	0001	0010
1:	0011 0000	0001	0010
2:	0001 1000	0001	0010
3:	0001 1000	0000	0010
1:	0001 1000	0000	0010
2:	0000 1100	0000	0010
3:	0000 1100	0000	0010
1:	0000 1100	0000	0010
2:	0000 0110	0000	0010
3:	0000 0110	0000	0010
	0000 0110	0000	0010

# MULTIPLY HARDWARE Version 2

- 32-bit Multiplicand reg, 32-bit ALU, 64-bit Product reg, 32-bit Multiplier reg

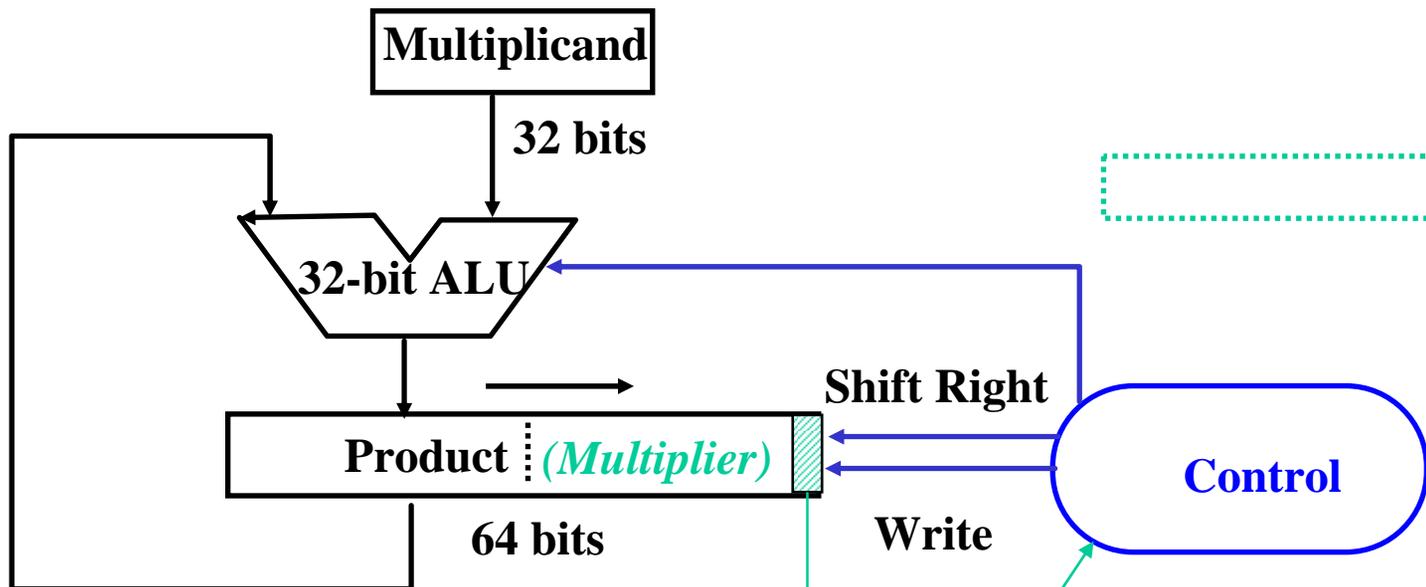


# Multiply Algorithm Version 3



# MULTIPLY HARDWARE Version 3

- 32-bit Multiplicand reg, 32-bit ALU, 64-bit Product reg, (0-bit Multiplier reg)



# Observations on Multiply Version 3

- **2 steps per bit because Multiplier & Product combined**
- **MIPS registers Hi and Lo are left and right half of Product**
- **Gives us MIPS instruction MultU**
- **How can you make it faster?**
- **What about signed multiplication?**
  - easiest solution is to make both positive & remember whether to complement product when done (leave out the sign bit, run for 31 steps)
  - apply definition of 2's complement
    - need to sign-extend partial products and subtract at the end
  - Booth's Algorithm is elegant way to multiply signed numbers using same hardware as before and save cycles
    - can handle multiple bits at a time

# Motivation for Booth's Algorithm

- Example  $2 \times 6 = 0010 \times 0110$ :

	0010	
x	0110	
<hr style="border: 0.5px solid black;"/>		
+	0000	shift (0 in multiplier)
+	0010	add (1 in multiplier)
+	0100	add (1 in multiplier)
<hr style="border: 0.5px solid black;"/>		
+	0000	shift (0 in multiplier)
	00001100	

- ALU with add or subtract gets same result in more than one way:

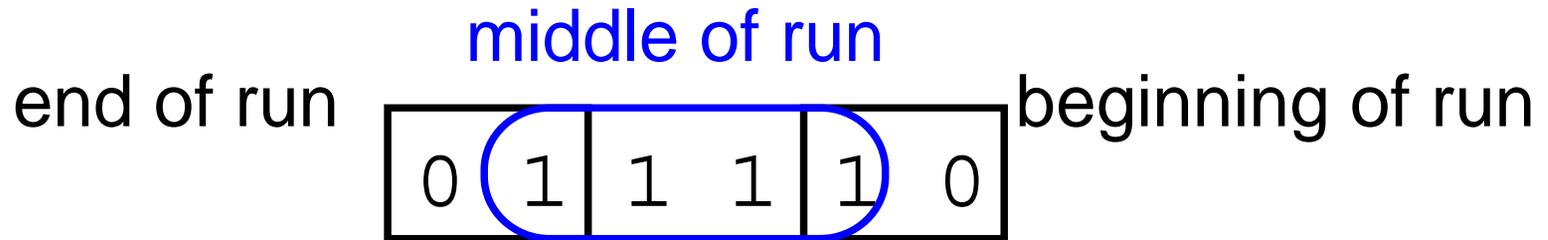
$$6 = -2 + 8$$

$$0110 = -00010 + 01000 = 11110 + 01000$$

- For example

	0010	
x	0110	
<hr style="border: 0.5px solid black;"/>		
	0000	shift (0 in multiplier)
-	0010	sub (first 1 in multpl.)
	0000	shift (mid string of 1s)
+	0010	add (prior step had last 1)
	00001100	

# Booth's Algorithm



Current Bit	Bit to the Right	Explanation	Example	Op
1	0	Begins run of 1s	000111 <u>1</u> 000	sub
1	1	Middle of run of 1s	00011 <u>11</u> 000	none
0	1	End of run of 1s	00 <u>01</u> 111000	add
0	0	Middle of run of 0s	00 <u>00</u> 1111000	none

Originally for Speed (when shift was faster than add)

- Replace a string of 1s in multiplier with an initial subtract when we first see a one and then later add for the bit after the last one

$$\begin{array}{r}
 -1 \\
 + 10000 \\
 \hline
 01111
 \end{array}$$

# Booths Example (2 x 7)

Operation	Multiplicand	Product	next?
0. initial value	0010	0000 0111 0	10 -> sub
1a. $P = P - m$	1110	+ 1110 1110 0111 0	shift P (sign ext)
1b.	0010	1111 0011 1	11 -> nop, shift
2.	0010	1111 1001 1	11 -> nop, shift
3.	0010	1111 1100 1	01 -> add
4a.	0010	+ 0010 0001 1100 1	shift
4b.	0010	0000 1110 0	done

# Booths Example (2 x -3)

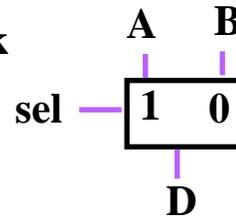
Operation	Multiplicand	Product	next?
0. initial value	0010	0000 1101 0	10 -> sub
1a. $P = P - m$	1110	+ 1110 1110 1101 0	shift P (sign ext)
1b.	0010	1111 0110 1 + 0010	01 -> add
2a.		0001 0110 1	shift P
2b.	0010	0000 1011 0 + 1110	10 -> sub
3a.	0010	1110 1011 0	shift
3b.	0010	1111 0101 1	11 -> nop
4a		1111 0101 1	shift
4b.	0010	1111 1010 1	done

# MIPS logical instructions

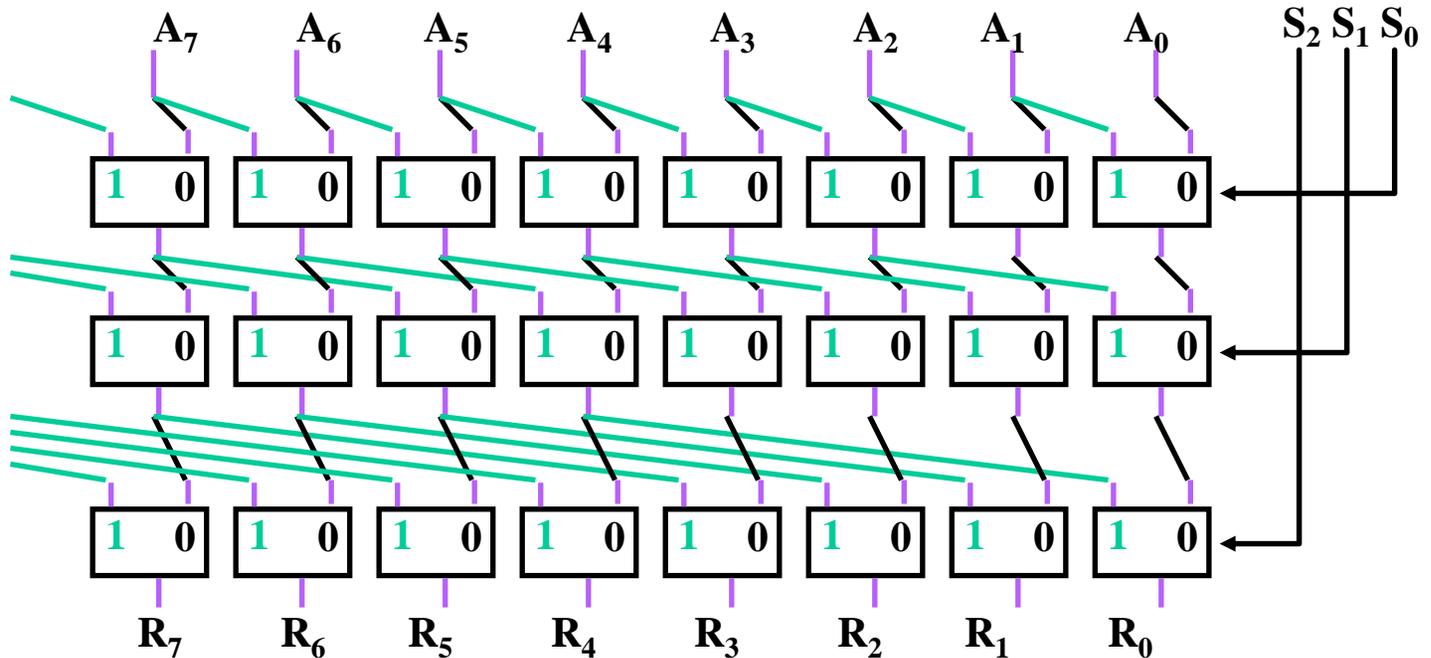
<i>Instruction</i>	<i>Example</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Comment</i>
• and	and \$1,\$2,\$3	\$1 = \$2 & \$3	3 reg. operands; Logical AND
• or	or \$1,\$2,\$3	\$1 = \$2   \$3	3 reg. operands; Logical OR
• xor	xor \$1,\$2,\$3	\$1 = \$2 ⊕ \$3	3 reg. operands; Logical XOR
• nor	nor \$1,\$2,\$3	\$1 = ~(\$2   \$3)	3 reg. operands; Logical NOR
• and immediate	andi \$1,\$2,10	\$1 = \$2 & 10	Logical AND reg, constant
• or immediate	ori \$1,\$2,10	\$1 = \$2   10	Logical OR reg, constant
• xor immediate	xori \$1, \$2,10	\$1 = ~\$2 & ~10	Logical XOR reg, constant
• shift left logical	sll \$1,\$2,10	\$1 = \$2 << 10	Shift left by constant
• shift right logical	srl \$1,\$2,10	\$1 = \$2 >> 10	Shift right by constant
• shift right arithm.	sra \$1,\$2,10	\$1 = \$2 >> 10	Shift right (sign extend)
• shift left logical	sllv \$1,\$2,\$3	\$1 = \$2 << \$3	Shift left by variable
• shift right logical	srlv \$1,\$2, \$3	\$1 = \$2 >> \$3	Shift right by variable
• shift right arithm.	srav \$1,\$2, \$3	\$1 = \$2 >> \$3	Shift right arith. by variable

# Combinational Shifter from MUXes

Basic Building Block

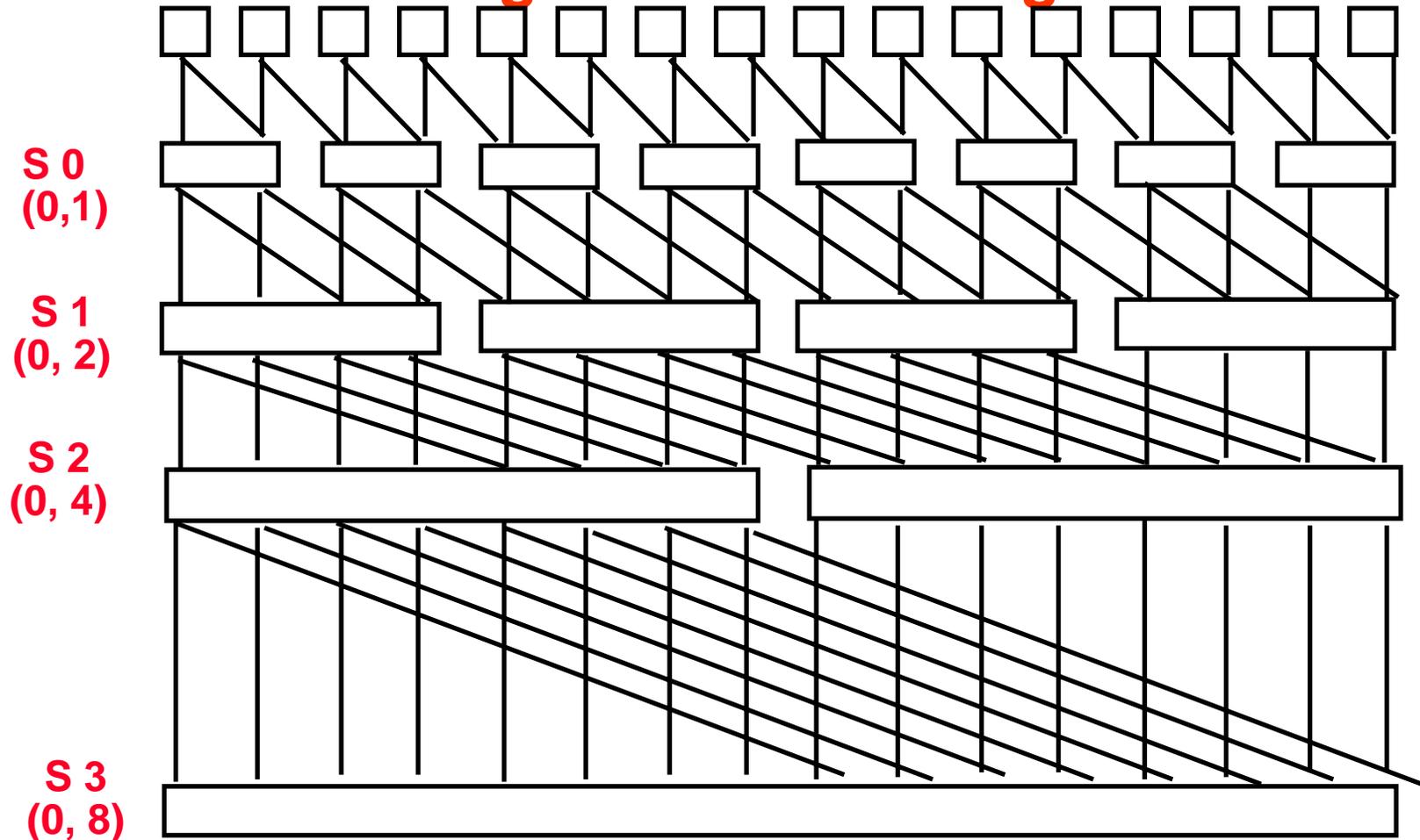


8-bit right shifter



- What comes in the MSBs?
- How many levels for 32-bit shifter?
- What if we use 4-1 Muxes ?

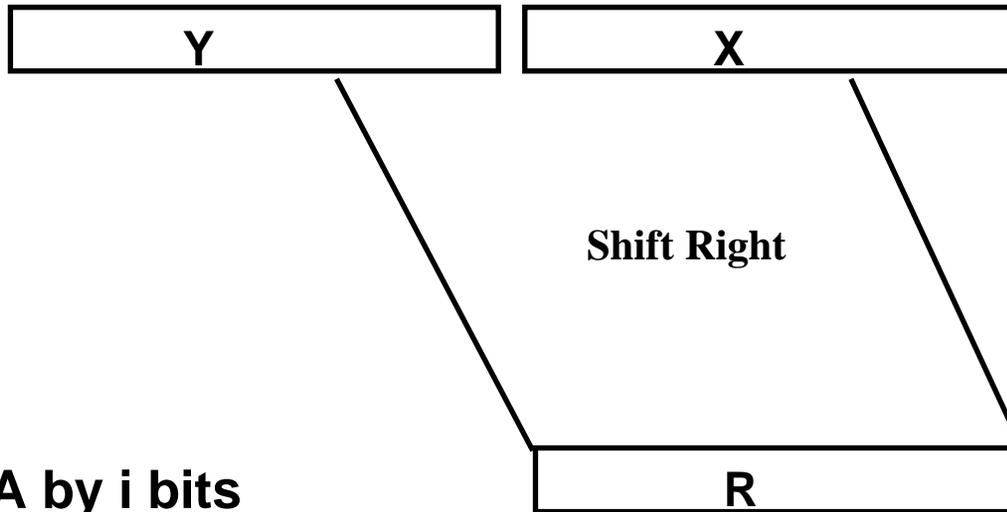
# General Shift Right Scheme using 16 bit example



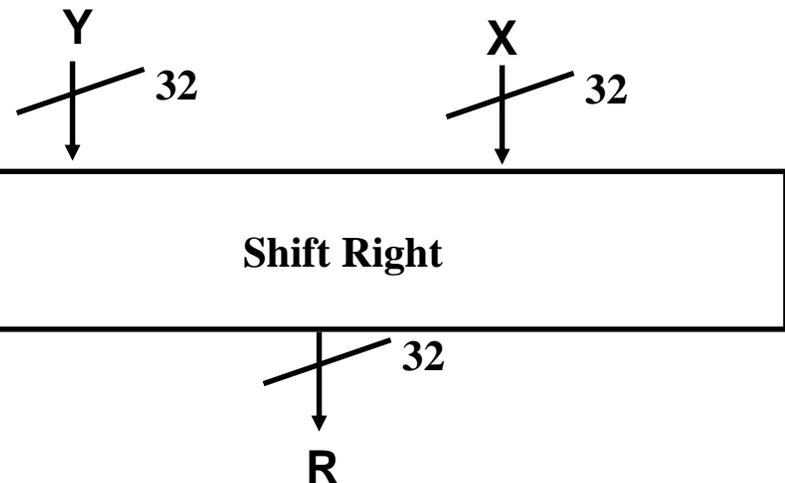
If added Right-to-left connections could support Rotate (not in MIPS but found in ISAs)

# Funnel Shifter

Instead Extract 32 bits of 64.

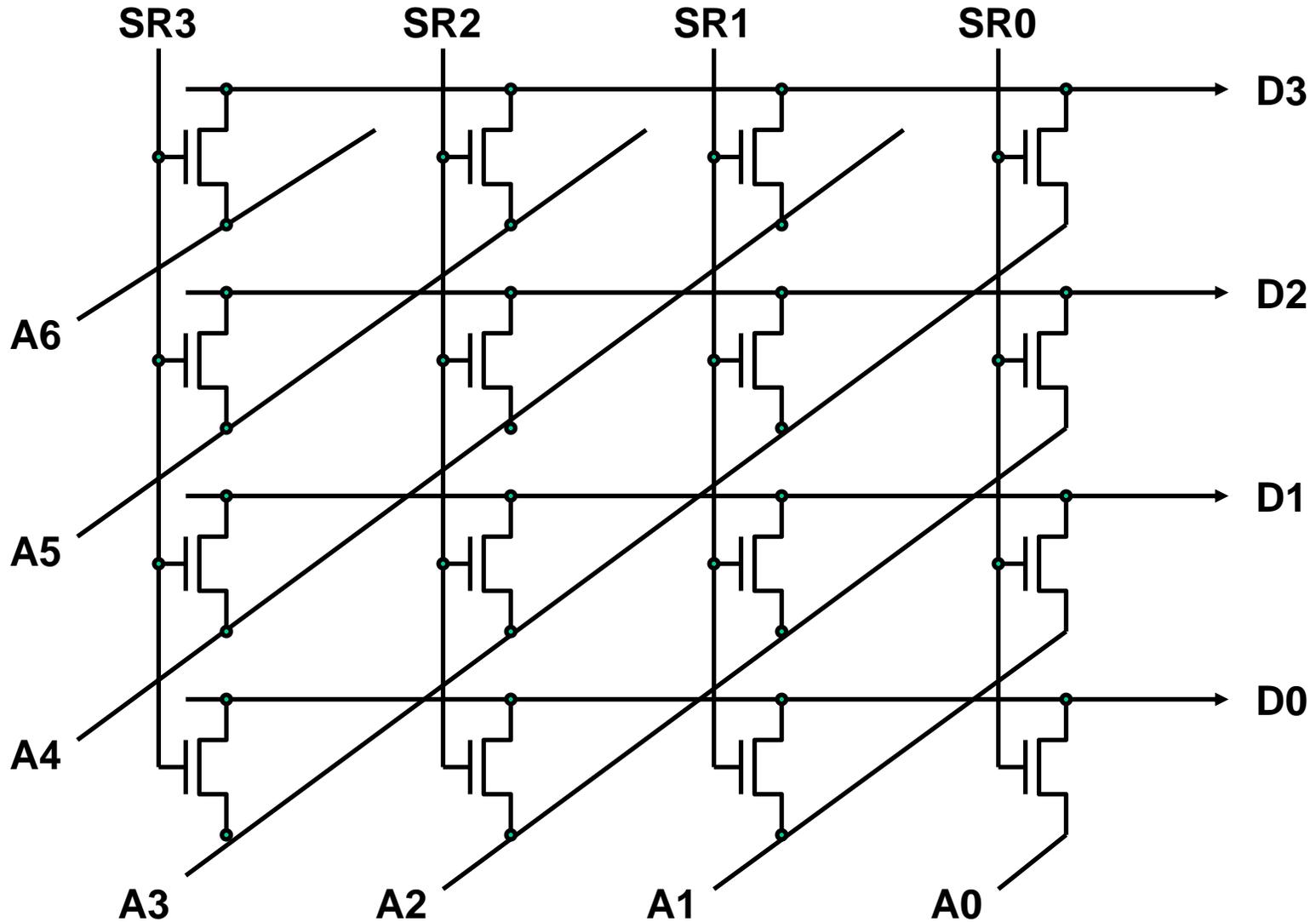


- Shift A by i bits  
(sa= shift right amount)
- Logical: Y = 0, X=A, sa=i
- Arithmetic? Y = \_\_, X=\_\_ , sa=\_\_
- Rotate? Y = \_\_, X=\_\_ , sa=\_\_
- Left shifts? Y = \_\_, X=\_\_ , sa=\_\_



# Barrel Shifter

Technology-dependent solutions: transistor per switch



# Divide: Paper & Pencil

		1001	Quotient
Divisor	1000	<u>1001010</u>	Dividend
		-1000	
		<u>10</u>	
		101	
		1010	
		-1000	
		<u>10</u>	
		10	Remainder (or Modulo result)

See how big a number can be subtracted, creating quotient bit on each step

Binary => 1 \* divisor or 0 \* divisor

Dividend = Quotient x Divisor + Remainder

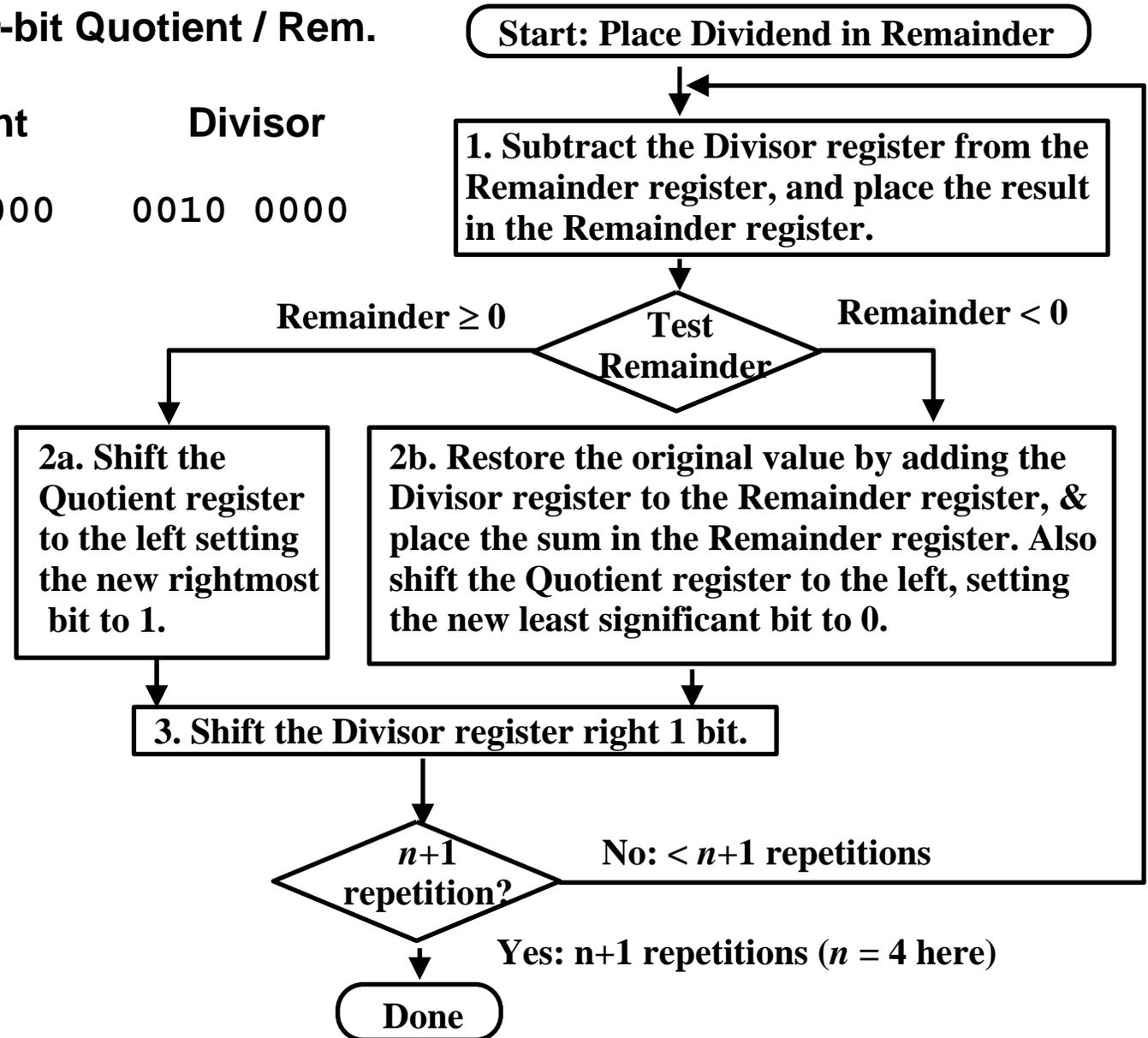
=> | Dividend | = | Quotient | + | Divisor |

3 versions of divide, successive refinement

# Divide Algorithm

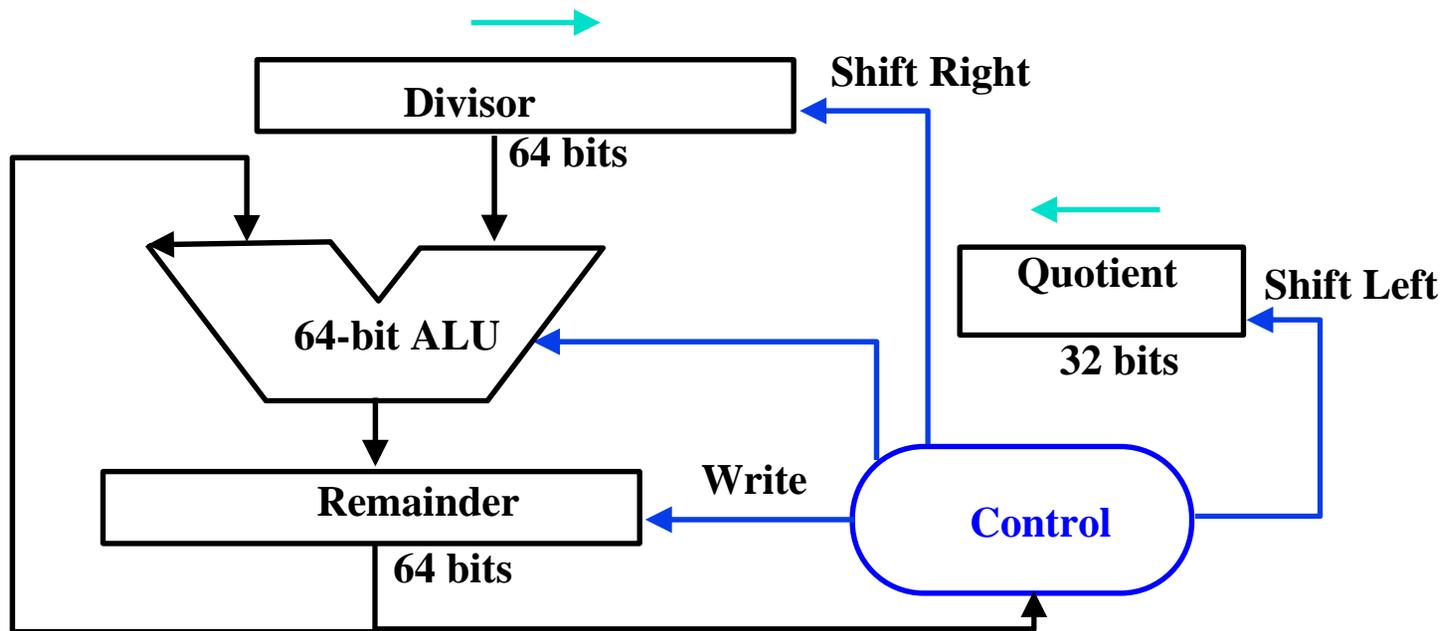
• Takes  $n+1$  steps for  $n$ -bit Quotient / Rem.

Remainder	Quotient	Divisor
0000 0111	00000	0010 0000



# Integer Division

- ALU, Divisor, and Remainder registers: 64bit;
- Quotient register: 32 bits;
- 32 bit *divisor* starts in left 1/2 of Divisor reg. and it is shifted right 1 on each step
- Remainder register initialized with *dividend*



# Divide Algorithm Example

	<u>Remainder</u>	<u>Quotient</u>	<u>Divisor</u>		
	0000	0111	00000	0010	0000
1:	1110	0111	00000	0010	0000
2:	0000	0111	00000	0010	0000
3:	0000	0111	00000	0001	0000
1:	1111	0111	00000	0001	0000
2:	0000	0111	00000	0001	0000
3:	0000	0111	00000	0000	1000
1:	1111	1111	00000	0000	1000
2:	0000	0111	00000	0000	1000
3:	0000	0111	00000	0000	0100
1:	0000	0011	00000	0000	0100
2:	0000	0011	00001	0000	0100
3:	0000	0011	00001	0000	0010
1:	0000	0001	00001	0000	0010
2:	0000	0001	00011	0000	0010
3:	0000	0001	00011	0000	0010

**Answer:**  
**Quotient = 3**  
**Remainder = 1**

# Divide Algorithm

Quotient = 0; 32 bit *divisor* starts in left 1/2 of Divisor reg. and it is shifted right 1 on each step; Remainder = *dividend*;

If Remainder < 0, we need to add Divisor back to *dividend*; else 1 is generated for Quotient;

Shift Divisor right 1 bit;

Repeat 33 times

```
Let $s0 = Dividend,
    $s1 = Divisor,
    $s2 = Remainder,
    $s3 = Quotient,
    $s4 = Repetitions
```

Start:

```
move    $s2, $s0
```

Loop:

```
sub     $s2, $s2, $s1    # Step 1
```

```
bltz   $s2, Label2b
```

```
sll    $s3, $s3, 1      # Step 2a
```

```
ori    $s3, $s3, 1
```

```
j      Label3
```

Label2b:

```
add    $s2, $s2, $s1    # Step 2b
```

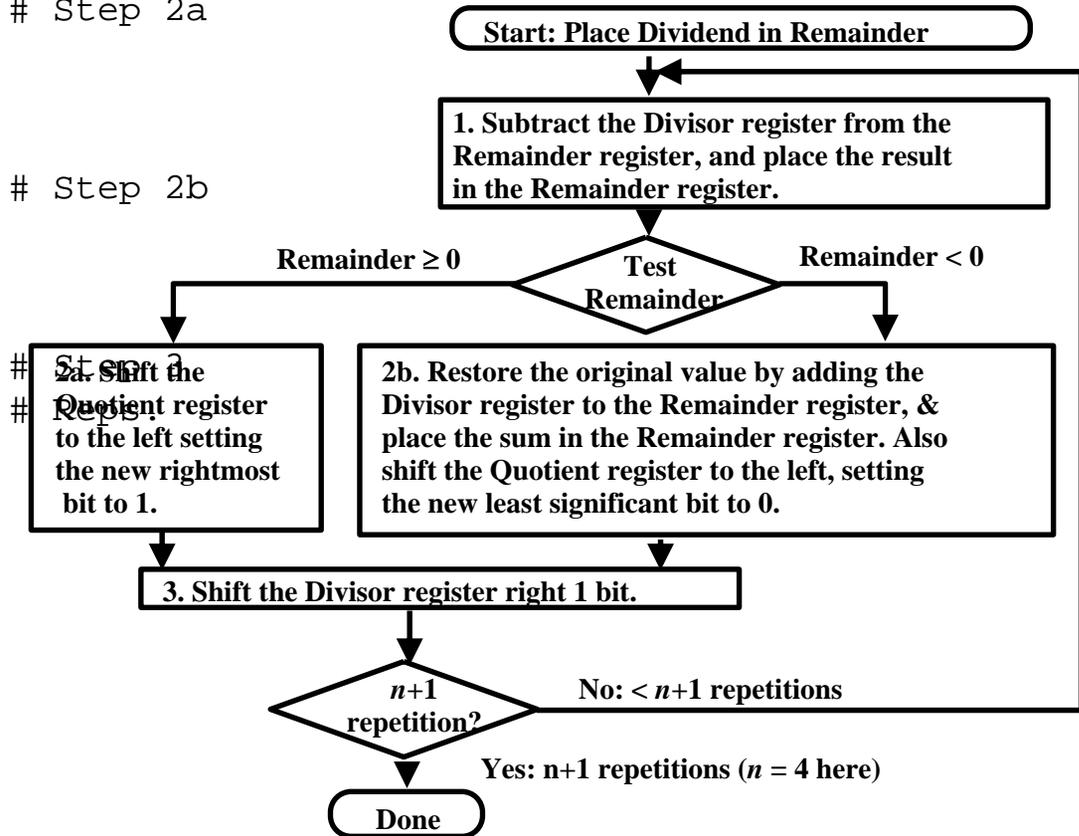
```
sll    $s3, $s3, 1
```

Label3:

```
slr    $s1, $s1, 1      # Step 3
```

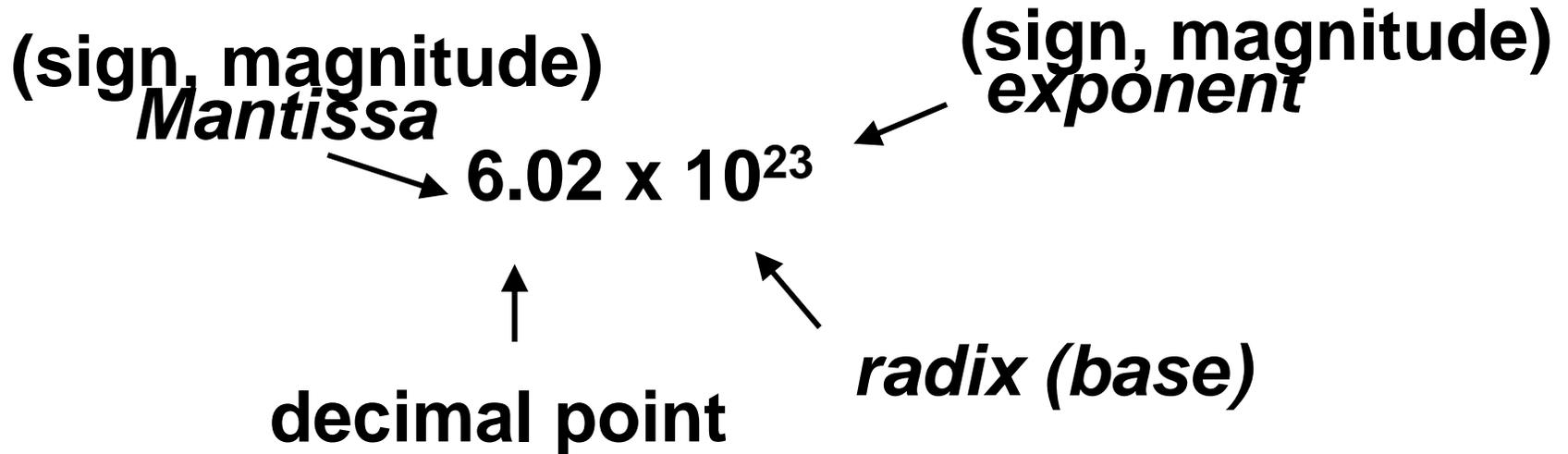
```
addi   $s4, $s4, -1    # Repetitions
```

```
Bgtz   $s4, Loop
```



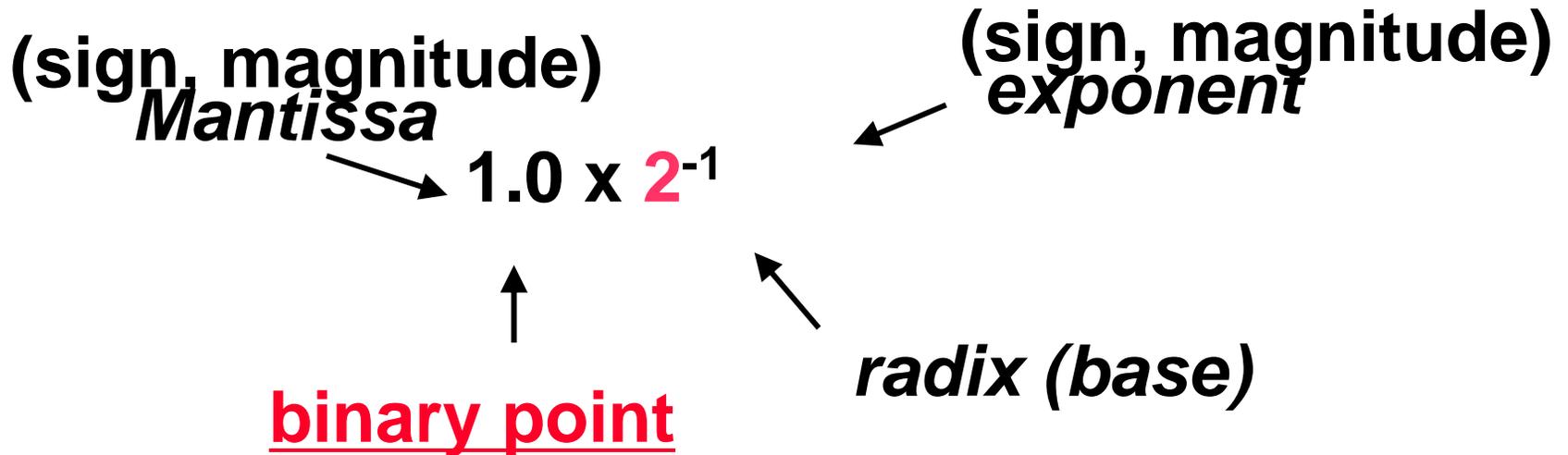


# Recall Scientific Notation



- **Normal form:**  
no leading 0s (digit **1** to left of decimal point)
- **Alternatives to representing 1/1,000,000,000**  
Normalized:  $1.0 \times 10^{-9}$   
Not normalized:  $0.1 \times 10^{-8}$ ,  $10.0 \times 10^{-10}$

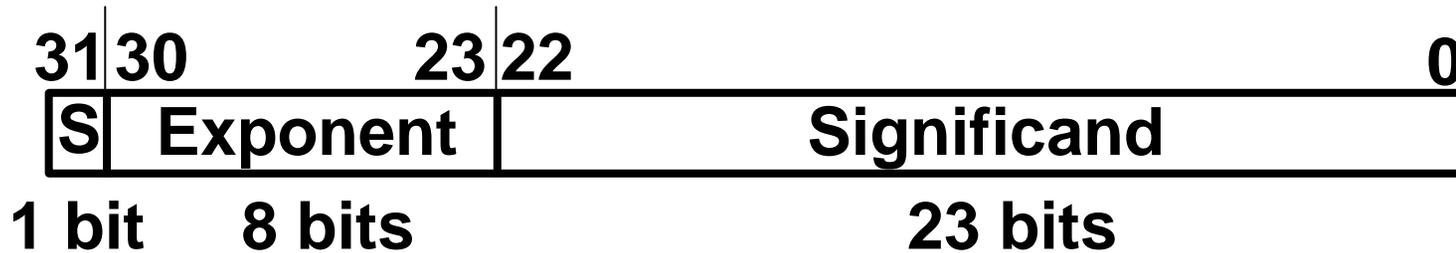
# Scientific Notation for Binary Numbers



- Computer arithmetic that supports it called floating point, because it represents numbers where binary point is not fixed, as it is for integers
- Declare such a variable in C as float (double, long double)
- Normalized form:  $1.\text{xxxxxxxxxx}_2 \times 2^{\text{yyyy}}_2$   
Simplifies data exchange, increases accuracy  
 $4_{10} == 1.0 \times 2^2$ ,       $8_{10} == 1.0 \times 2^3$

# Single Precision FP Representation

- Start with a single word (32-bits)



- Meaning:  $(-1)^S \times \text{Mantissa} \times 2^E$
- Can now represent numbers as small as  $2.0 \times 10^{-38}$  to as large as  $2.0 \times 10^{38}$
- Relationship between Mantissa and Significand bits?  
Between E and Exponent?
- In C type `float`

# Floating Point Number Representation

- What if result too large? ( $> 2.0 \times 10^{38}$  )

## Overflow!

Overflow  $\Leftrightarrow$  Exponent **larger** than can be represented in 8-bit Exponent field

- What if result too small? ( $>0, < 2.0 \times 10^{-38}$  )

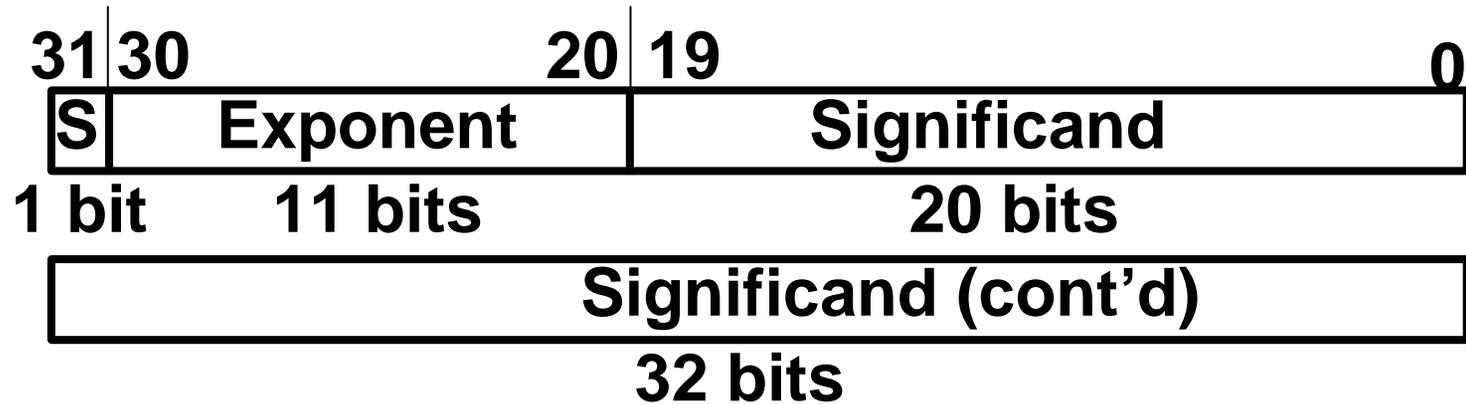
## Underflow!

Underflow  $\Leftrightarrow$  Negative Exponent **too small**

- How to reduce chances of overflow or underflow?

# Double Precision FP Representation

- Next Multiple of Word Size (64 bits)



- Double Precision (vs. Single Precision)
  1. C variable declared as `double`
  2. Represent numbers almost as small as  $2.0 \times 10^{-308}$  to almost as large as  $2.0 \times 10^{308}$
  3. But primary advantage greater accuracy due to larger significand
  4. There is also long double version (16 bytes)

# MIPS follows IEEE 754 F.P. Standard

- To pack more bits, make leading 1 of mantissa **implicit** for normalized numbers

1 + 23 bits single, 1 + 52 bits double

0 has no leading 1, so reserve **exponent value 0** just for number 0.0

Meaning: (almost correct)

$$(-1)^S \times (1 + \text{Significand}) \times 2^{\text{Exponent}},$$

where **0 < Significand < 1**

- If label significand bits left-to-right as  $s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots$  then value is:

$$(-1)^S \times (1 + (s_1 \times 2^{-1}) + (s_2 \times 2^{-2}) + (s_3 \times 2^{-3}) + \dots) \times 2^{\text{Exponent}}$$

# Representing Exponent

- **Want to compare Fl. Pt. numbers as if they were integers, to help in sorting**

Sign **first** part of number

Exponent **next**, so bigger exponent  $\Rightarrow$  bigger number

$$1.1 \times 10^{20} > 1.9 \times 10^{10}$$

- **What About Negative Exponents?**

Use 2's comp?  $1.0 \times 2^{-1}$  vs.  $1.0 \times 2^{+1}$  (1/2 v. 2)

<b>1/2</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1111 1111</b>	<b>000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0000 0001</b>	<b>000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000</b>

This notation using integer compare of

**1/2** vs. **2** makes  $1/2 > 2!$

**Doesn't work!**

# Representing Exponent

<b>1/2</b>	0	0111 1110	000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000
<b>2</b>	0	1000 0000	000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000

- Instead, pick notation **0000 0000** as most negative, and **1111 1111** as most positive
- $1.0 \times 2^{-1}$  vs.  $1.0 \times 2^{+1}$  (1/2 v. 2)
- Called **Biased Notation**, where bias is number subtracted to get real number
  - IEEE 754 uses bias of 127 for single precision
  - Representation (Finally, the truth!):  
 $(-1)^S \times (1 + \text{Significand}) \times 2^{(\text{Exponent} - 127)}$
  - 1023 is bias for double precision

# Example: Converting Decimal to FP

- Show MIPS representation of -0.75  
(show exponent in decimal to simplify)

$$-0.75 = -3/4 = -3/2^2$$

$$-11_{\text{two}}/2^2 = -11_{\text{two}} \times 2^{-2} = -0.11_{\text{two}} \times 2^0$$

$$\text{Normalized to } -1.1_{\text{two}} \times 2^{-1}$$

$$(-1)^S \times (1 + \text{Significand}) \times 2^{(\text{Exponent}-127)}$$

$$(-1)^1 \times (1 + .100\ 0000 \dots 0000) \times 2^{(126-127)}$$

1	0111 1110	100 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000
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**S = 1; Exponent = 126; Significand = 100 ... 000<sub>2</sub>**

# Example: Converting FP to Decimal

- Sign  $S = 0 \Rightarrow$  positive

- Exponent  $E$  :

$$0110\ 1000_{\text{two}} = 104_{\text{ten}}$$

$$\text{Bias adjustment: } 104 - 127 = -23$$

- Mantissa:

$$1 + 2^{-1} + 2^{-3} + 2^{-5} + 2^{-7} + 2^{-9} + 2^{-14} + 2^{-15} + 2^{-17} + 2^{-22}$$

$$= 1 + (5,587,778 / 2^{23})$$

$$= 1 + (5,587,778 / 8,388,608) = 1.0 + 0.666115$$

- Represents:  $1.666115_{\text{ten}} \times 2^{-13} \sim 2.034 \times 10^{-4}$

0	0110 1000	101 0101 0100 0011 0100 0010
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# How To Convert Decimal to Binary

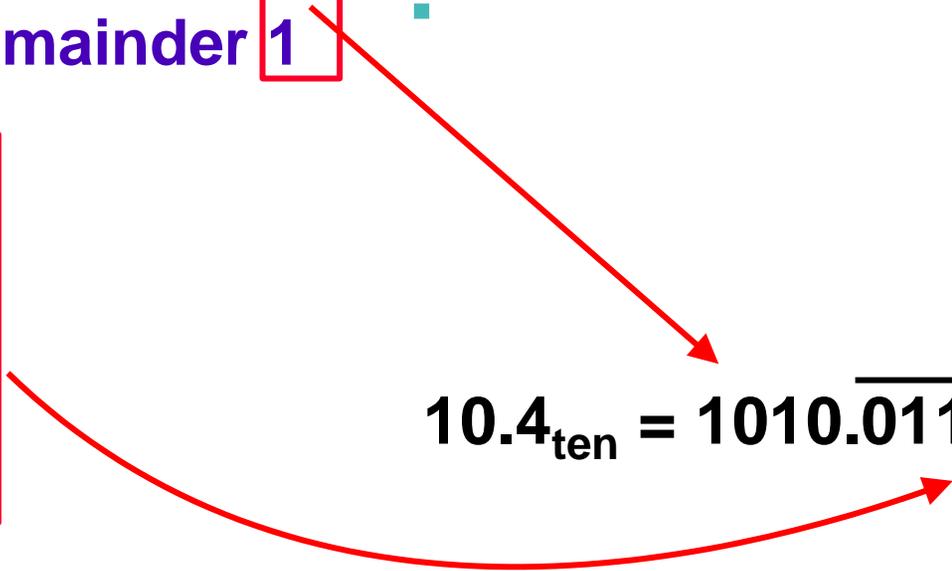
- How convert  $10.4_{\text{ten}}$  to binary?
- Deal with fraction & whole parts separately:

$$\begin{array}{r} 10 \div 2 = 5 \text{ remainder } 0 \\ 5 \div 2 = 2 \text{ remainder } 1 \\ 2 \div 2 = 1 \text{ remainder } 0 \\ 1 \div 2 = 0 \text{ remainder } 1 \end{array}$$



$$\begin{array}{r} .4 \times 2 = 0.8 \\ .8 \times 2 = 1.6 \\ .6 \times 2 = 1.2 \\ .2 \times 2 = 0.4 \\ .4 \times 2 = 0.8 \end{array}$$

$$10.4_{\text{ten}} = 1010.\overline{0110}_{\text{two}}$$



# Do It Yourself

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- Convert  $10.4_{\text{ten}}$  to single precision floating point
- Recall that:

$10.4_{\text{ten}}$  is  $1010.0110_{\text{two}}$

# Do It Yourself

---

(1) Normalize

$$1010.0110_{\text{two}} \times 2^0 = 1.0100110 \times 2^3$$

(2) Determine Sign Bit

positive, so  $S = 0$

(3) Determine Exponent:

$$2^3 \text{ so } 3 + \text{bias} (= 127) = 130 = 10000010_{\text{two}}$$

(4) Determine Significand

drop leading 1 of mantissa, expand to

23 bits = 01001100110011001100110

0	10000010	01001100110011001100110
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S Exponent

Significand

# Example: Converting FP to Decimal

1 **Sign: 0**  $\Rightarrow$  positive

2 **Exponent:**

$$0110\ 1000_2 = 104_{10}$$

$$\text{Bias adjustment: } 104 - 127 = -23$$

3 **Mantissa:**

$$\begin{aligned} &1 + 2^{-1} + 2^{-3} + 2^{-5} + 2^{-7} + 2^{-9} + 2^{-14} + 2^{-15} + 2^{-17} + 2^{-22} \\ &= 1 + (5,587,778 / 2^{23}) \\ &= 1 + (5,587,778 / 8,388,608) = 1.0 + \\ &0.666115 \end{aligned}$$

4 **Represents:**  $1.666115_{\text{ten}} * 2^{-23} \sim 2.034 * 10^{-4}$

0	0110 1000	101 0101 0100 0011 0100 0010
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# Representation for Not a Number

- **What do I get if I calculate**

`sqrt(-4.0)` or

`0/0`?

- **If infinity is not an error, these shouldn't be either.**

Called Not a Number (NaN)

Exponent = 255, Significand nonzero

- **Why is this useful?**

Hope NaNs help with debugging?

They contaminate:  $op(\text{NaN}, X) = \text{NaN}$

# What else can I put in?

- What defined so far? (**Single Precision**)

Exponent	Significand	Object
0	0	0
0	nonzero	???
1-254	anything	+/- fl. pt. number
255	0	+/- infinity
255	<u>nonzero</u>	<u>???</u>

- Representing "**Not a Number**"; e.g.,  $\text{sqrt}(-4)$ ; called NaN

Exp == **255**, Significand **nonzero**

They contaminate FP ops:  $(\text{NaN} \theta X) = \text{NaN}$

Hope NaNs help with debugging?

Only valid operations are == , !=

# What else can I put in?

- What defined so far? (Single Precision)

Exponent	Significand	Object
0	0	0
0	<u>nonzero</u>	<u>???</u>
1-254	anything	+/- fl. pt. number
255	0	+/- infinity
255	nonzero	NaN

- Exp. = 0, Significand **nonzero**?  
Can we get greater precision?
- Represent very, very small magnitude numbers
- $0 < x <$  smallest normalized number);
- Denormalized Numbers (text p. 300, and discussion later).

# Example: Decimal F. P. Addition

- Assume 4 digit significand, 2 digit exponent
  - Let's add  $9.999_{\text{ten}} \times 10^1 + 1.610_{\text{ten}} \times 10^{-1}$
  - Exponents must match, so adjust smaller number to match larger exponent
- $1.610 \times 10^{-1} = 0.1610 \times 10^0 = 0.01610 \times 10^1$
- Can represent only 4 digits, so must discard last two:

$$0.016 \times 10^1$$

# Example: Decimal F. P. Addition

- Now, add significands:

$$\begin{array}{r} 9.999 \\ + 0.016 \\ \hline 10.015 \end{array}$$

- Thus, sum is  $10.015 \times 10^1$
- Sum is not normalized, so correct it, checking for underflow/overflow:

$$10.015 \times 10^1 \Rightarrow 1.0015 \times 10^2$$

- Cannot store all digits, must round. Final result is:

$$1.002 \times 10^2$$

# Basic Binary FP Addition Algorithm

For addition (or subtraction) of  $X$  to  $Y$  ( $X < Y$ ):

1. Compute  $D = \text{Exp}_Y - \text{Exp}_X$  (align binary points)
2. Right shift  $(1+\text{Sig}_X)$   $D$  bits  $\Rightarrow (1+\text{Sig}_X) \cdot 2^{-D}$
3. Compute  $(1+\text{Sig}_X) \cdot 2^{-D} + (1+\text{Sig}_Y)$  ; Normalize if necessary; continue until **MS** bit is **1**
4. Too small (e.g., **0.001xx...**) left shift result, decrement result exponent; check for **underflow**
- 4'. Too big (e.g., **10.1xx...**) right shift result, increment result exponent; check for **overflow**
5. If result significand is **0**, set exponent to **0**

# FP Subtraction

- **Similar to addition**

- **How do we do it?**

De-normalize to match exponents

Subtract significands

Keep the same exponent

Normalize (possibly changing exponent)

- **Problems in implementing FP add/sub:**

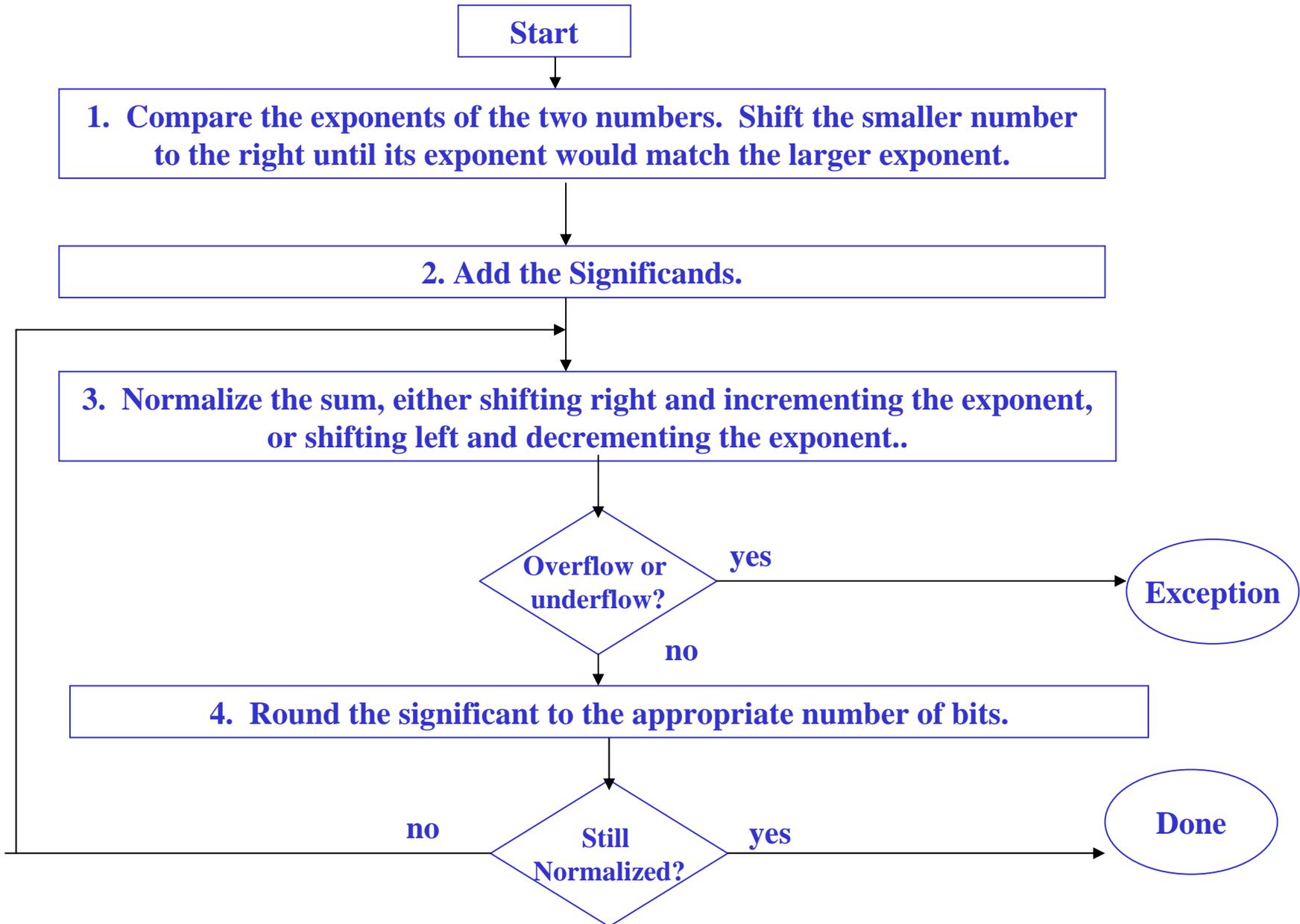
Managing the signs,

determining to add or sub,

swapping the operands.

- **Question: How do we integrate this into the integer arithmetic unit?**

# Floating Point Addition



# Example: Decimal F. P. Multiply

- Let's multiply:

$$1.110_{\text{ten}} \times 10^{10} \times 9.200_{\text{ten}} \times 10^{-5}$$

(Assume 4-digit significand, 2-digit exponent)

- First, add exponents:

$$\begin{array}{r} 10 \\ + -5 \\ \hline 5 \end{array}$$

- Next, multiply significands:

$$1.110 \times 9.200 = 10.212000$$

# Example: Decimal F. P. Multiply

- Product is not normalized, so **correct** it, checking for underflow / overflow:

$$10.212000 \times 10^5 \Rightarrow 1.0212 \times 10^6$$

- Significand exceeds 4 digits, so **round**:

$$1.021 \times 10^6$$

- **Check signs** of original operands  
same  $\Rightarrow$  positive  
different  $\Rightarrow$  negative

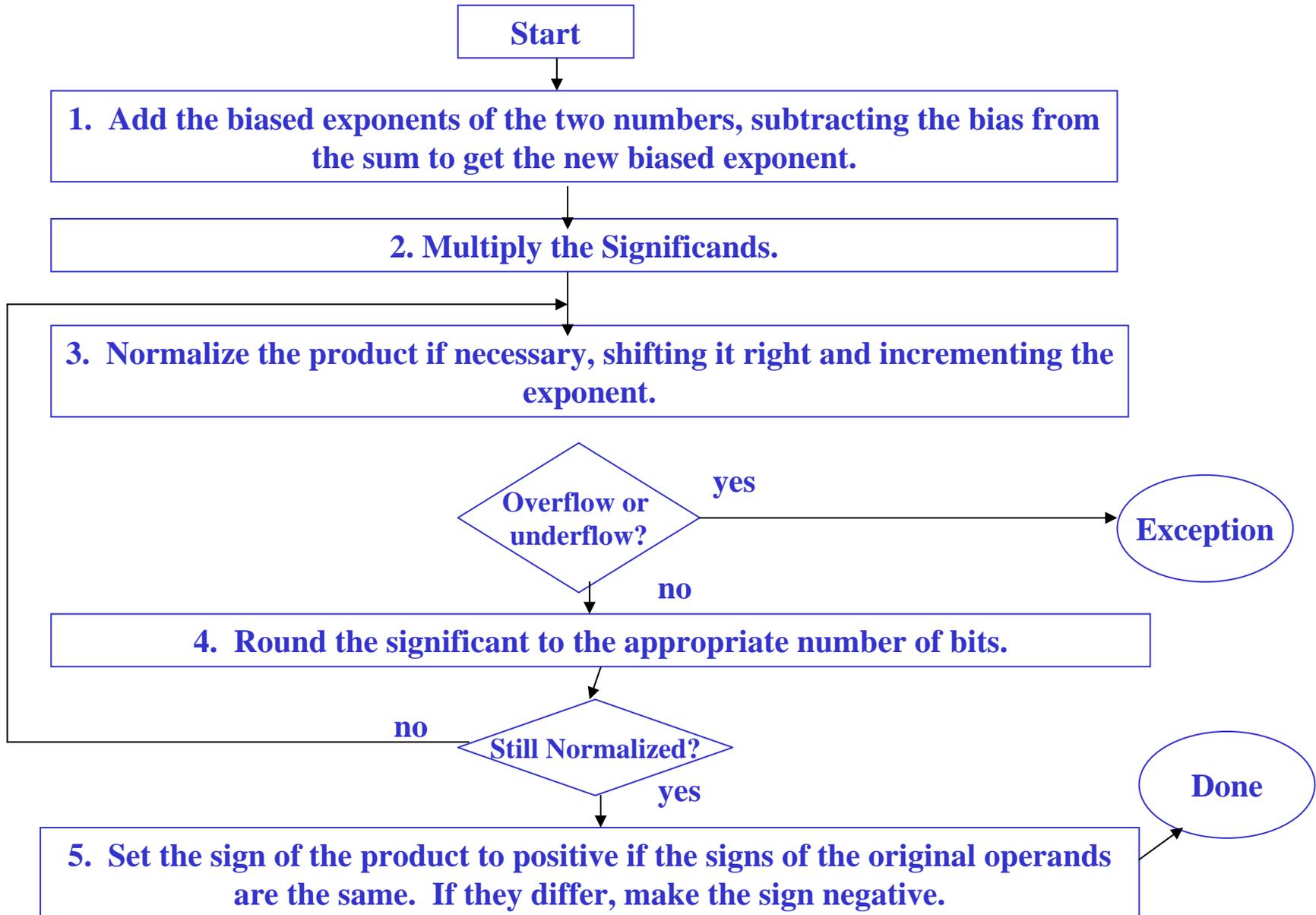
Final result is:  $+1.021 \times 10^6$

# Basic Binary FP Multiplication Algorithm

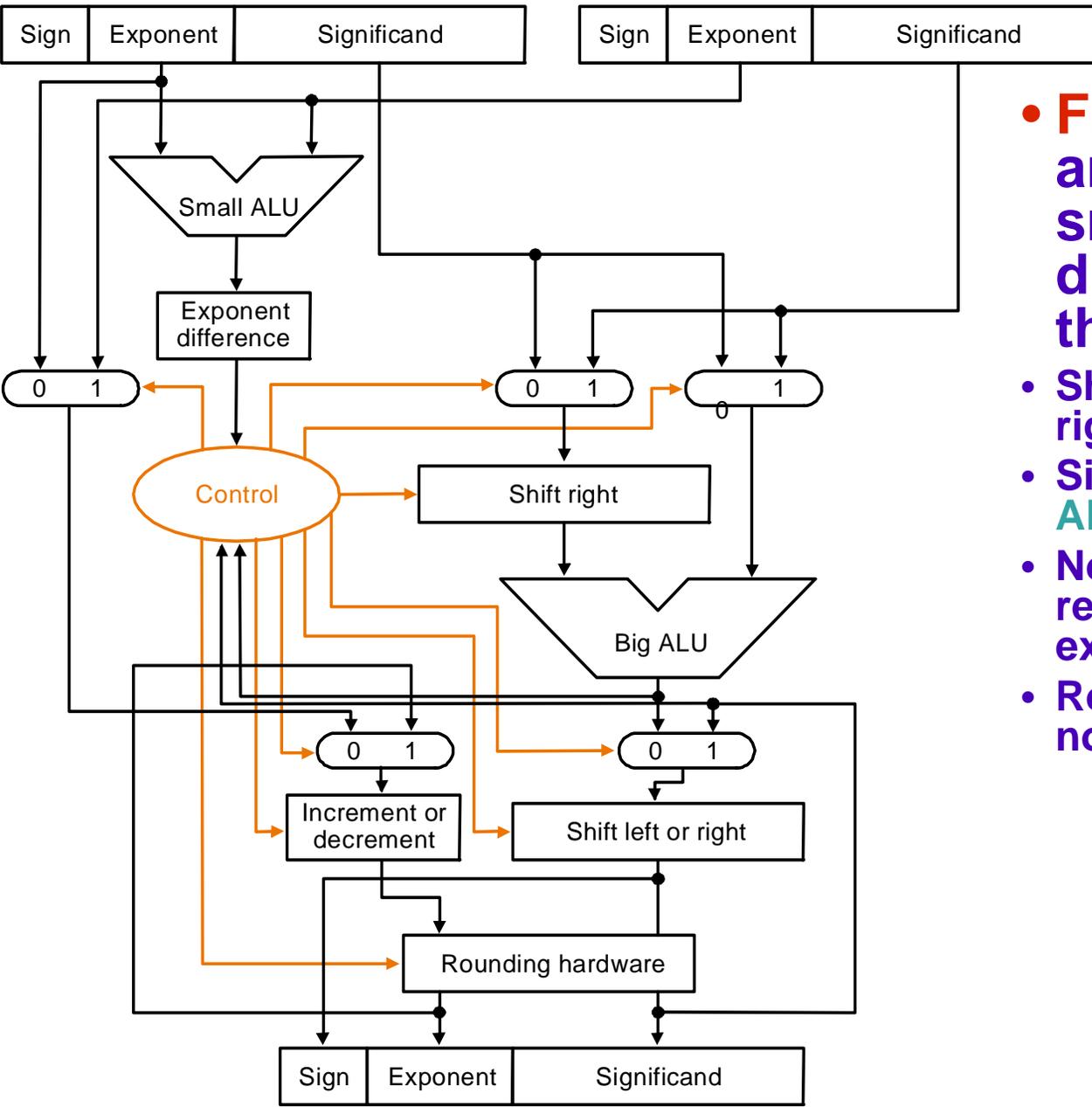
For multiplication of  $P = X \times Y$ :

1. **Compute** Exponent:  $\text{Exp}_P = (\text{Exp}_Y + \text{Exp}_X) - \text{Bias}$
2. **Compute** Product:  $(1 + \text{Sig}_X) \times (1 + \text{Sig}_Y)$   
**Normalize** if necessary; continue until most significant bit is 1
4. Too **small** (e.g., **0.001xx...**)  $\rightarrow$   
left shift result, decrement result exponent
- 4'. Too **big** (e.g., **10.1xx...**)  $\rightarrow$   
right shift result, increment result exponent
5. If (**result significand is 0**) then set exponent to 0
6. if ( **$\text{Sgn}_X == \text{Sgn}_Y$** ) then  
     **$\text{Sgn}_P = \text{positive (0)}$**   
else  
     **$\text{Sgn}_P = \text{negative (1)}$**

# FP Multiplication Algorithm



# Floating Point ALU



- **FP ADD:** Exponents are subtracted by small ALU; the difference controls the 3 MUXes;
- Shift **smaller** exp. to the right until exponents match;
- Significands are added in **Big ALU**;
- Normalization step shifts result **left** or **right**, adjusts exponents;
- Rounding and possible normalization

# MIPS Floating Point Architecture (1/4)

- **Separate floating point instructions:**

- Single Precision:

- `add.s, sub.s, mul.s, div.s`

- Double Precision:

- `add.d, sub.d, mul.d, div.d`

- **These instructions are far more complicated than their integer counterparts, so they can take much longer to execute.**

# MIPS Floating Point Architecture (2/4)

- **Problems:**

It's inefficient to have different instructions take vastly differing amounts of time.

Generally, a particular piece of data will not change from FP to int, or vice versa, within a program. So only one type of instruction will be used on it.

Some programs do no floating point calculations

It takes lots of hardware relative to integers to do Floating Point fast

# MIPS Floating Point Architecture (3/4)

- **1990 Solution: Make a completely separate chip that handles only FP.**
- **Coprocessor 1: FP chip**
  1. contains 32 32-bit registers:  $\$f0, \$f1, \dots$
  2. most of the registers specified in `.s` and `.d` instruction refer to this set
  3. separate load and store: `lwc1` and `swc1` (“load word coprocessor 1”, “store ...”)
  4. Double Precision: by convention, even/odd pair contain one DP FP number:  $\$f0/\$f1, \$f2/\$f3, \dots, \$f30/\$f31$

# MIPS Floating Point Architecture (4/4)

- **1990 Computer actually contains multiple separate chips:**

Processor: handles all the normal stuff

Coprocessor 1: handles FP and only FP;

more coprocessors?... Yes, later

Today, FP coprocessor integrated with CPU, or cheap chips may leave out FP  
HW

- **Instructions to move data between main processor and coprocessors:**

`mfc1 rt, rd`                      Move floating point register `rd` to  
CPU register `rt`.

`mtc1 rd, rt`                      Move CPU register `rt` to floating  
point register `rd`.

`mfc1.d rdest, frsrcl`            Move floating point registers  
`frsrcl` & `frsrcl + 1` to CPU  
registers `rdest` & `rdest + 1`.

- **Appendix pages A-70 to A-74 contain many, many more FP operations.**

# Summary: MIPS F.P. Architecture

- **Single Precision, Double Precision versions of add, subtract, multiply, divide, compare**

**Single**      `add.s, sub.s, mul.s, div.s, c.lt.s`

**Double**     `add.d, sub.d, mul.d, div.d, c.lt.d`

*See pages A-70 - A74*

- **Registers?**

– Normally integer and Floating Point operations on different data, for performance should have separate registers.

– MIPS adds **32** 32-bit FP regs: `$f0, $f1, $f2 ...`,

– Thus need FP data transfers:

**l.d**      **fdest, address**    load the floating point double at address into register fdest.

**mov.s**   **fd, fs**            Move the floating point single from register fs to register fd.

– **Double Precision?** Even-odd pair of registers:

`$f0-$f1, $f2-$f3, etc.`, act as 64-bit register: `$f0, $f2, $f4,`

# Example with F.P.: Matrix Multiply

```
void mm (double x[][], double y[][], double z[][] ){
    int i, j, k;

    for (i=0; i!=32; i=i+1)
        for (j=0; j!=32; j=j+1)
            for (k=0; k!=32; k=k+1)

                x[i][j] = x[i][j] + y[i][k] * z[k][j];
}
```

- Starting addresses are parameters in \$a0, \$a1, and \$a2. Integer variables are in \$t3, \$t4, \$t5. Arrays 32 by 32
- Use pseudoinstructions: `li` (load immediate), `l.d` / `s.d` (load / store 64 bits)

# MIPS code 1st piece: initialize `x[ ][ ]`

- Initialize Loop Variables

```
mm:    ...
        li    $t1, 32        # $t1 = 32
        li    $t3, 0         # i = 0; 1st loop
L1:    li    $t4, 0         # j = 0; reset 2nd
L2:    li    $t5, 0         # k = 0; reset 3rd
```

- To fetch `x[i][j]`, skip `i` rows ( $i*32$ ), add `j`

```
sll    $t2, $t3, 5         # $t2 = i * 25
addu   $t2, $t2, $t4       # $t2 = i*25 + j
```

- Get byte address (8 bytes), load `x[i][j]`

```
sll    $t2, $t2, 3        # i, j byte addr.
addu   $t2, $a0, $t2      # @ x[i][j]
ld     $f4, 0($t2)       # $f4 = x[i][j]
```

# MIPS code 2nd piece: $z[k][j]$ , $y[i][k]$

- Like before, but load  $z[k][j]$  into  $\$f16$

```
L3:  sll      $t0, $t5, 5           # $t0 = k * 25
      addu    $t0, $t0, $t4        # $t0 = k*25 + j
      sll     $t0, $t0, 3         # k, j byte addr.
      addu    $t0, $a2, $t0       # @ z[k][j]
      ld      $f16, 0($t0)       # $f16 = z[k][j]
```

- Like before, but load  $y[i][k]$  into  $\$f18$

```
      sll     $t0, $t3, 5         # $t0 = i * 25
      addu    $t0, $t0, $t5       # $t0 = i*25 + k
      sll     $t0, $t0, 3         # i, k byte addr.
      addu    $t0, $a1, $t0       # @ y[i][k]
      ld      $f18, 0($t0)       # $f18 = y[i][k]
```

- Summary:  $\$f4$ :  $x[i][j]$ ,  $\$f16$ :  $z[k][j]$ ,  $\$f18$ :  $y[i][k]$

# MIPS code for last piece: add/mul, loops

- Add  $y*z$  to  $x$

```
mul.d $f16,$f18,$f16      # y[][]*z[][]
add.d $f4, $f4, $f16      # x[][]+ y*z
```

- Increment  $k$ ; if end of inner loop, store  $x$

```
addiu $t5, $t5,1          # k = k + 1
bne   $t5, $t1,L3         # if(k!=32) goto L3
s.d   $f4, 0($t2)        # x[i][j] = $f4
```

- Increment  $j$ ; middle loop if not end of  $j$

```
addiu $t4, $t4,1          # j = j + 1
bne   $t4, $t1,L2         # if(j!=32) goto L2
```

- Increment  $i$ ; if end of outer loop, return

```
addiu $t3,$t3,1           # i = i + 1
bne   $t3,$t1,L2          # if(i!=32) goto L1
jr    $ra
```

# Floating Point gotchas: Add Associativity?

- $x = -1.5 \times 10^{38}$ ,  $y = 1.5 \times 10^{38}$ , and  $z = 1.0$

- $x + (y + z) = -1.5 \times 10^{38} + (1.5 \times 10^{38} + 1.0)$

$$= -1.5 \times 10^{38} + (1.5 \times 10^{38}) = \underline{0.0}$$

- $(x + y) + z = (-1.5 \times 10^{38} + 1.5 \times 10^{38}) + 1.0$

- $= (0.0) + 1.0 = 1.0$

- **Therefore, Floating Point addition not associative!**

$1.5 \times 10^{38}$  is so much larger than 1.0 that  $1.5 \times 10^{38} + 1.0$  is  
still  $1.5 \times 10^{38}$

FP result approximation of real result!

- **What are the conditions that make smaller arguments “disappear” (rounded down to 0.0)?**

# Basic Addition Algorithm/Multiply issues

**Addition** (or **subtraction**) includes the following steps:

- (1) compute  $Y_e - X_e$  (*getting ready to align binary point*)
- (2) right shift  $X_m$  that many positions to form  $X_m \times 2^{X_e - Y_e}$
- (3) compute  $(X_m \times 2^{X_e - Y_e}) + Y_m$

**Good  
Summary**

if representation demands normalization, then normalization step follows:

- (4) left shift result, decrement result exponent (e.g., 0.001xx...)  
 right shift result, increment result exponent (e.g., 101.1xx...)  
 continue until MSB of data is 1 (NOTE: **Hidden** bit in IEEE Standard)
- (5) for **Multiply**, doubly biased exponent must be corrected:

$X_e = 7$   
 $Y_e = -3$   
 Excess 8     extra subtraction step of the bias amount

- (6) if result is 0 mantissa, may need to zero exponent by special step

$$\begin{array}{r}
 X_e = 1111 \\
 Y_e = 0101 \\
 \hline
 10100
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 = 15 \\
 = 5 \\
 \hline
 20
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 = 7 + 8 \\
 = -3 + 8 \\
 \hline
 4 + 8 + 8 \quad \square
 \end{array}$$

# Rounding and IEEE Rounding Modes

- When we perform math on “real” numbers, we have to worry about rounding to fit the result in the significant field.
- The FP hardware carries two extra bits of precision, and then round to get the proper value
- Rounding also occurs when converting a double to a single precision value, or converting a floating point number to an integer

Round towards  $+\infty$

- ALWAYS round “up”:  $2.001 \rightarrow 3$
- $-2.001 \rightarrow -2$

Round towards  $-\infty$

- ALWAYS round “down”:  $1.999 \rightarrow 1$ ,
- $-1.999 \rightarrow -2$

Truncate

- Just drop the last bits (round towards 0)

Round to (nearest) even

- Normal rounding, almost

# Round to Even

- Round like you learned in grade school
- Except if the value is right on the borderline, in which case we round to the nearest **EVEN** number

2.5 -> 2

3.5 -> 4

- **Insures fairness on calculation**

This way, half the time we round up on tie, the other half time we round down

Ask statistics majors

- **This is the default rounding mode**

# Summary: Extra Bits for Rounding

"Floating Point numbers are like piles of sand; every time you move one you lose a little sand, but you pick up a little dirt."

How many extra bits?

**IEEE:** As if computed the result exactly and rounded.

Addition:

$$\begin{array}{r} 1.xxxxxx \\ + 1.xxxxxx \\ \hline 1x.xxxxxy \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{r} 1.xxxxxx \\ 0.001xxxxx \\ \hline 1.xxxxxxyyy \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{r} 1.xxxxxx \\ 0.01xxxxxx \\ \hline 1x.xxxxxyyy \end{array}$$

post-normalization

pre-normalization

pre and post

- **Guard Digits:** digits to the right of the first  $p$  digits of significand to guard against loss of digits – can later be shifted left into first  $P$  places during normalization.
- Addition: carry-out shifted in
- Subtraction: borrow digit and guard
- Multiplication: carry and guard, Division requires guard

# Summary: Rounding Digits

Normalized result, but some non-zero digits to the right of the significand --> the number should be rounded

E.g.,  $B = 10$ ,  $p = 3$ :

0	2	1.69	=	1.6900 * 10	2-bias
-	0	0	7.85	= - .0785 * 10	2-bias
	0	2	1.61	=	1.6115 * 10 2-bias

one round digit must be carried to the right of the guard digit so that after a normalizing left shift, the result can be rounded, according to the value of the round digit

**IEEE Standard:** four rounding modes:  
round to nearest even (default)  
round towards plus infinity  
round towards minus infinity  
round towards 0

round to nearest:

round digit  $< B/2$  then truncate  
 $> B/2$  then round up (add 1 to ULP: unit in last place)  
 $= B/2$  then round to nearest even digit

*it can be shown that this strategy minimizes the mean error introduced by rounding*

# Elaboration: Sticky Bit

**Additional** bit to the right of the round digit to better fine tune rounding

$$\begin{array}{r}
 d_0 . d_1 d_2 d_3 \dots d_{p-1} 0 0 0 \\
 + \quad 0 . 0 0 X \dots X \quad X X S \\
 \hline
 \phantom{d_0 . d_1 d_2 d_3 \dots d_{p-1}} X X S
 \end{array}$$

← Sticky bit: set to 1 if any 1 bits fall off the end of the round digit

$$\begin{array}{r}
 d_0 . d_1 d_2 d_3 \dots d_{p-1} 0 0 0 \\
 - \quad 0 . 0 0 X \dots X \quad X X 0 \\
 \hline
 \phantom{d_0 . d_1 d_2 d_3 \dots d_{p-1}} X X 0
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 d_0 . d_1 d_2 d_3 \dots d_{p-1} 0 0 0 \\
 - \quad 0 . 0 0 X \dots X \quad X X 1 \\
 \hline
 \phantom{d_0 . d_1 d_2 d_3 \dots d_{p-1}} \phantom{X X} 1
 \end{array}$$

generates a borrow

## Rounding Summary

Radix 2 minimizes wobble in precision

Normal operations in +, -, \*, / require one **carry/borrow** bit + one **guard** digit

One **round** digit needed for correct rounding

**Sticky** bit needed when round digit is B/2 for max accuracy

Rounding to nearest has mean error = 0, if *uniform distribution* of digits are assumed

# C: Casting floats to ints and vice versa

- **`(int)`** *floating point exp*

Coerces and converts it to the nearest integer (C uses truncation)

```
i = (int) (3.14159 * f);
```

- **`(float)`** *exp*

converts integer to nearest floating point

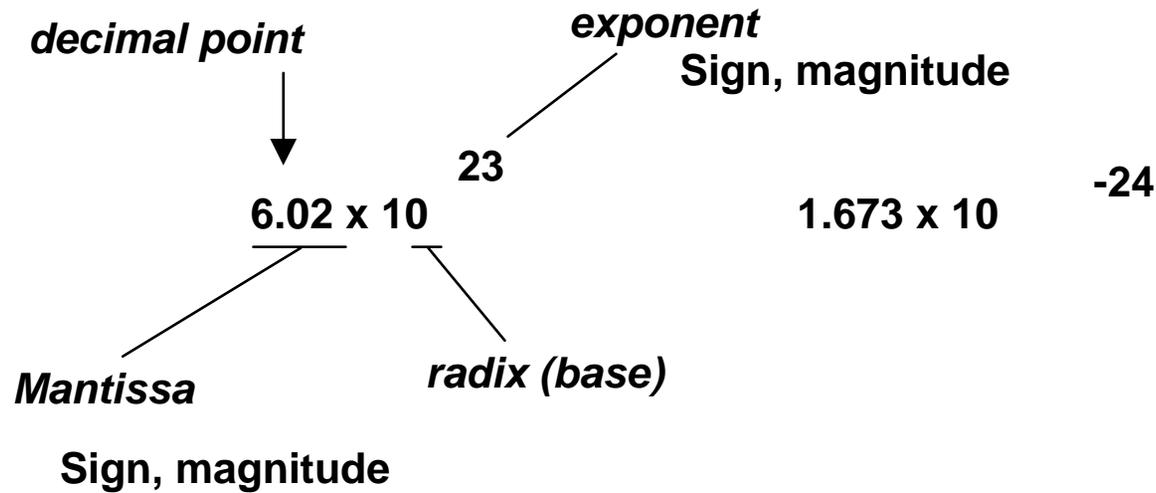
```
f = f + (float) i;
```

# C: float -> int -> float

```
if (f == (float)((int) f)) {  
    printf("true");  
}
```

- Will not always print "true"
- Large values of integers don't have exact floating point representations
- What about double?
- Small floating point numbers (<1) don't have integer representations
- For other numbers, rounding errors

# Summary: Scientific Notation



IEEE F.P.  $\pm 1.M \times 2^{e-127}$

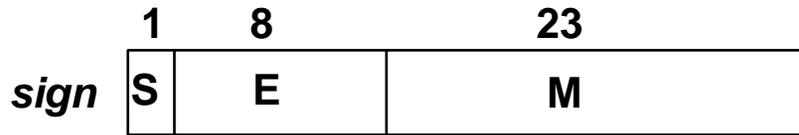
## • Issues:

- Arithmetic (+, -, \*, /)
- Representation, Normal form
- Range and Precision
- Rounding
- Exceptions (e.g., divide by zero, overflow, underflow)
- Errors
- Properties (negation, inversion, if  $A \neq B$  then  $A - B \neq 0$ )

# Summary : Floating-Point Arithmetic

Representation of floating point numbers in IEEE 754 standard:

single precision



*exponent:*  
excess 127  
binary integer

*mantissa:*  
sign + magnitude, normalized  
binary significand w/ hidden  
integer bit: 1.M

actual exponent is  
 $e = E - 127$

$$N = (-1)^S 2^{E-127} (1.M) \quad 0 < E < 255$$

$$0 = 0 \text{ 00000000 } 0 \dots 0$$

$$-1.5 = 1 \text{ 01111111 } 10 \dots 0$$

Magnitude of numbers that can be represented is in the range:

$$2^{-126} (1.0) \quad \text{to} \quad 2^{127} (2 - 2^{-23})$$

which is approximately:

$$1.8 \times 10^{-38} \quad \text{to} \quad 3.40 \times 10^{38}$$

(integer comparison valid on IEEE Fl.Pt. numbers of same sign!)

# Things to Remember

- **Floating Point numbers *approximate* values that we want to use.**
- **IEEE 754 Floating Point Standard is most widely accepted attempt to standardize interpretation of such numbers**
- **New MIPS registers(\$f0-\$f31), instructions:**
  - Single Precision (32 bits,  $2 \times 10^{-38} \dots 2 \times 10^{38}$ ): `add.s,`  
`sub.s,` `mul.s,` `div.s`
  - Double Precision (64 bits,  $2 \times 10^{-308} \dots 2 \times 10^{308}$ ): `add.d,`  
`sub.d,` `mul.d,` `div.d`
- **Type is not associated with data, bits have no meaning unless given in context**