Computer Architecture: Fundamentals, Tradeoffs, Challenges

Chapter 10: Fixed Point Arithmetic

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Outline

- The Binary Point (fixed point vs floating point)
- Several Choices
- 2's complement, 1's complement, Sign-magnitude
- Long Integers
- Addition

-ripple carry, look ahead carry, Kogge Stone) -Interesting anecdote: the P4 fireball

- BCD Arithmetic
- Multiplication —Shift and Add, Booth's Algorithm
- Residue Arithmetic

The Binary Point (fixed pt. vs. floating pt.) Where do we put the binary point?

- Fixed Point (one place, fixed for that design)
 - Interval remains the same for the entire real line



- Floating Point (varies from binade to binade)
 - Interval changes along the real line



Several choices

- 2's complement
- 1's complement
- Signed magnitude
- Long Integers
 - When you wish to retain the structure of 2's complement
 - But you need a lot more bits
- BCD
 - Arbitrarily large precision
- Residue Numbers
 - Compute intensive, low I/O (But...)

2's complement, 1's complement, Signed-magnitude

• Why each?

- 2's complement (Easy for the computer, representations track represented!)
- 1's complement (Seymour Cray's misguided decision)
- Signed-magnitude (Easy for humans, bad for designing logic to implement)
- Example (A 4-bit word length) 2's comp 1's comp Signed-mag

0000	0	0	0
0001	1	1	1
0010	2	2	2
0011	3	3	3
0100	4	4	4
0101	5	5	5
0110	6	6	6
0111	7	7	7
 1000	-8	-7	0
 1000 1001	 -8 -7	 -7 -6	0 -1
 1000 1001 1010	8 -7 -6	7 -6 -5	0 -1 -2
 1000 1001 1010 1011	-8 -7 -6 -5	-7 -6 -5 -4	0 -1 -2 -3
 1000 1001 1010 1011 1100	-8 -7 -6 -5 -4	-7 -6 -5 -4 -3	0 -1 -2 -3 -4
1000 1001 1010 1011 1100 1101	-8 -7 -6 -5 -4 -3	-7 -6 -5 -4 -3 -2	0 -1 -2 -3 -4 -5
1000 1001 1010 1011 1100 1101 1110	-8 -7 -6 -5 -4 -3 -2	-7 -6 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1	0 -1 -2 -3 -4 -5 -6

Observations

- With 2's complement
 - why can Carry bit go in the trash?

- With 1's complement
 - Is there a problem?
 - how do we fix it

Long Integers

- When the number of bits in 2's complement is not enough
 If word length is 16 bits, but you want 160 bit integer data type
- Then you need an instruction requiring that Data Type
 - ADDR, for example. (R for ridiculous!)
- Consider ADDR A,B,C, where A,B,C are 160 bit integers:





- Note: test for overflow only in the last iteration.
- ADDC (add with carry a very important opcode)

Addition

• Ripple carry



• Look ahead Carry Generation



Addition (continued): The Kogge-Stone Adder

- The needed values can be generated by a tree!
 - Brilliant insight: reduces time from O(n) to O(log n).
- The basic piece

$$w = x y = 2$$

$$G[w;z] = G[w;x] + P[v;x] \cdot G[y;z]$$

$$P[w;z] = P[w;x] \cdot P[y;z]$$

• The binary tree



Addition (continued):Intel's P4 Fireball

• The code to compute *Z* = A+B+C+D+E

W=A+B X=W+C Y=X+D Z=Y=E

- Operands have too many bits, cycle time is too long
 - Cut number of bits in half, e.g., A becomes A_high and A_low
 - Perform 2 ADDs, each clock cycle, on half-width operands
 - The result: 5 adds, rather than 4, BUT with much smaller cycle



BCD Arithmetic

- BCD Each decimal digit represented by 4 bits
- Memory location requires address and size
- Addition with a standard 2's complement ALU
 - Although we could design a special BCD Adder
- The process (using a standard 2's complement ALU
 - Step 1: Add x6666...6 to one of the operands. (Why?)
 - Step 2: Add result to the other operand
 - Step 3: Correct by subtracting 6 where necessary (When?)
- An example: Add BCD numbers 283, 598
 - 283: 0010 1000 0011, 598: 0101 1001 1000
 - Step 1: With standard ALU, 283 + 666 = 8E9
 - Step 2: With standard ALU, 8E9 + 598 = E81
 - Step 3: Since high digit did not generate a carry, subtract 6 from it
 i.e, E81 600 = 881, the correct answer!

Multiplication (let's start with decimal)



Multiplication

- A sequence of shifts and adds, one bit each iteration
 - Initially load the multiplier, the multiplicand, and 0 in the Buffer
 - The multiplier is a shift register that right shifts one bit per cycle
 - The 2n bit buffer gets the result of the multiplication
 - Iterations stop when the multiplier contains all 0's.



Multiplication (continued)

- Booth's Algorithm (my variation, to better explain it)
 - Initially load the multiplier, multiplicand, and 0 in the Buffer
 - The multiplier is in a shift register that right shifts two bits per cycle
 - The 2n bit Buffer gets the result of the multiplication
 - Iterations stop when the multiplier contains all zeroes
 - Control of the two shifters and ALU from the low two bits of the multiplier and the "c" bit, which is produced by a prior iteration



Bit_1	Bit_0	С	X	Υ	Z	C'
0	0	0	SHF0	PassA	SHF2	0
0	0	1	SHF0	ADD	SHF2	0
0	1	0	SHF0	ADD	SHF2	0
0	1	1	SHF1	ADD	SHF1	0
1	0	0	SHF1	ADD	SHF1	0
1	0	1	SHF0	SUB	SHF2	1
1	1	0	SHF0	SUB	SHF2	1
1	1	1	SHF0	PassA	SHF2	1

Booth's Algorithm (first a simple example)

- We want to multiply 22 by 9
 - 22 is 00010110, 9 is 00001001
 - 00010110 is the MCAND, 000001001 is the Multiplier
- We partition the multiplier bits into 2-bit pieces: 00 00 10 01
- Right-most bits = 01, which is 1 times 4^0
 - Add (1 times 4^0) times MCAND = 22
 - Add this to the Buffer (which initially contained 0)
 - Then we shift the multiplier right two bits, yielding 00 00 00 10
 - And, we shift the buffer right two bits, effectively multiplying the MCAND by 4
 - The MCAND is now effectively 88
- Right-most bits of the multiplier are = 10, which is 2.
 - Shift the MCAND one bit to the right, thereby multiplying MCAND by 2 (i.e., 176) and add it to the Buffer (176 + 22 =198)
 - Then we again shift right the multiplier two bits, yielding 00 00

• Since there are no more non-zero bits in the multiplier, we are done!

The buffer contains the product of 22 times 9, i.e. 198.

Booth's Algorithm (A more interesting example)

- We want to multiply 22 x 14; MCAND = 00010110, Multiplier = 00001110
- We partition our multiplier bits into 2-bit pieces: 00 00 11 10
- Right-most bits = 10, which is 2
 - Shift the MCAND one bit to the left, thereby multiplying MCAND by 2 (i.e., 44), add it to the Buffer (44), then shift right the Buffer 2 bits
 - Then we shift right the multiplier two bits, yielding 00 00 11
- Right-most bits are 11, which is 3. Important to note that 3 = 4 -1.
 - Subtract 1 times MCAND from the Buffer and add 1 to the next iteration of the multiplier, yielding 00 01
 - Net result: We have subtracted 4 times MCAND from the running sum
 - As before, we right shift the contents of the Buffer two bits
 - Then we shift right the multiplier two bits, yielding 00 01
- Right-most bits (now) = 01, which is 1.
 - Add 1 times MCAND to the Buffer.
 - Net result: We have added 16 times MCAND to the running sum.
 - Then we right shift the Buffer two bits.
 - Then we shift right the multiplier two bits, yielding 00, and we are done.
- Final result: (16 -4 +2) times MCAND = (14) times MCAND.

Residue Arithmetic (an entertaining digression)

- When?
 - Inputs, outputs relatively small integers
 - Intermediate results could be very large
 - Internally compute-intensive
 - Very little I/O
- How?
 - Step 1: transform to the residue number domain **SLOW**
 - $a, b \rightarrow f(a), f(b)$
 - Step 2: Perform the operation in the residue domain. **FAST**
 - f© ← f(a) * f(b)
 - Step 3: Perform the inverse transformation **SLOW**
 - c ← f©
- Note: Does this remind you of anything you have studied in some other course?

Residue Arithmetic (continued)

- The detail:
 - Pick a set of moduli p1, p2, ..pn that are relatively prime
 - Represent each value X as x1,x2,..xn, where xi = X mod pi
 The Chinese Remainder Theorem (from the first century AD) states that each

integer between 0 and (product p1,p2,...pn) -1 are uniquely represented.

- Sum (X,Y), Product (X,Y) can be computed by n simpler elements, all working concurrently, with no interaction between them, yielding a result very fast.
- An example: Add, Multiply the two numbers, 19 and 24
 - Using the moduli p1 = 7, p2 = 8, p3 = 9, 19 is 5,3,1
 - Adding 5,3,1 to 3,0,6, we get 1,3,7, which is 43.
 - Multiplying 5,3,1 to 3,0,6, we get 1,0,6, which is 456.

Residue Arithmetic (Two observations)

- Why does it work?
 - Consider the multiplication of A and B
 - A * B = (m * p + a) * (n * p +b),
 where a is A mod p, b is B mod p.
 - Thus A * B = p * (m * n * p + a*n + b*m) + a*b,
 - From which, $(A * B) \mod p = a * b$,
 - Completely independent of the other moduli.
- Then why is not used?
 - Transformations are expensive
 - Comparisons are unwieldly (e.g., How to determine if A>B.

Residue Arithmetic (The Inverse Transformation)

- We multiplied 19 times 24, and got the result: 1,0,6
 - We know X is defined by 1 for x1, 0 for x2, and 6 for x3
 - It would be nice to put it into a more familiar form (e.g., 456)
 - We know 1,0,6 is 1,0,0 + 0,0,0 + 0,0,6. How do we know that?
 - We know 1,0,0 must be a multiple of 72; How do we know that?
 - ...and 0,0,0, a multiple of 63, and 0,0,6 a multiple of 56.
 - So we build three tables with the entries corresponding to the values of x1,x2,x3, and access the following data path:



Merci