

# 3. Multiplication

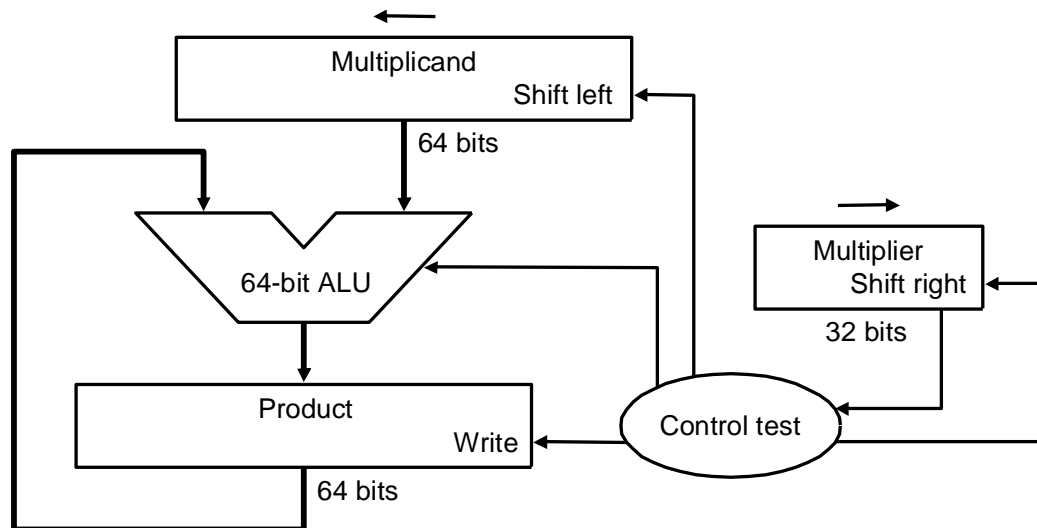
- ❑ Multiplication is much more complicated than addition and subtraction
- ❑ **Paper-and-pencil example** ( $1000_{10} \times 1001_{10}$ ):

Multiplicand	1000
Multiplier	1001
<hr/>	
	1000
	0000
	0000
	1000
<hr/>	
Product	1001000

- ❑ **Observation:**

Suppose we limit ourselves to using only digits 0 and 1

If we ignore the sign bits (i.e., unsigned numbers), multiplying an N-bit multiplicand with an M-bit multiplier gives a product that is at most N+M bits long



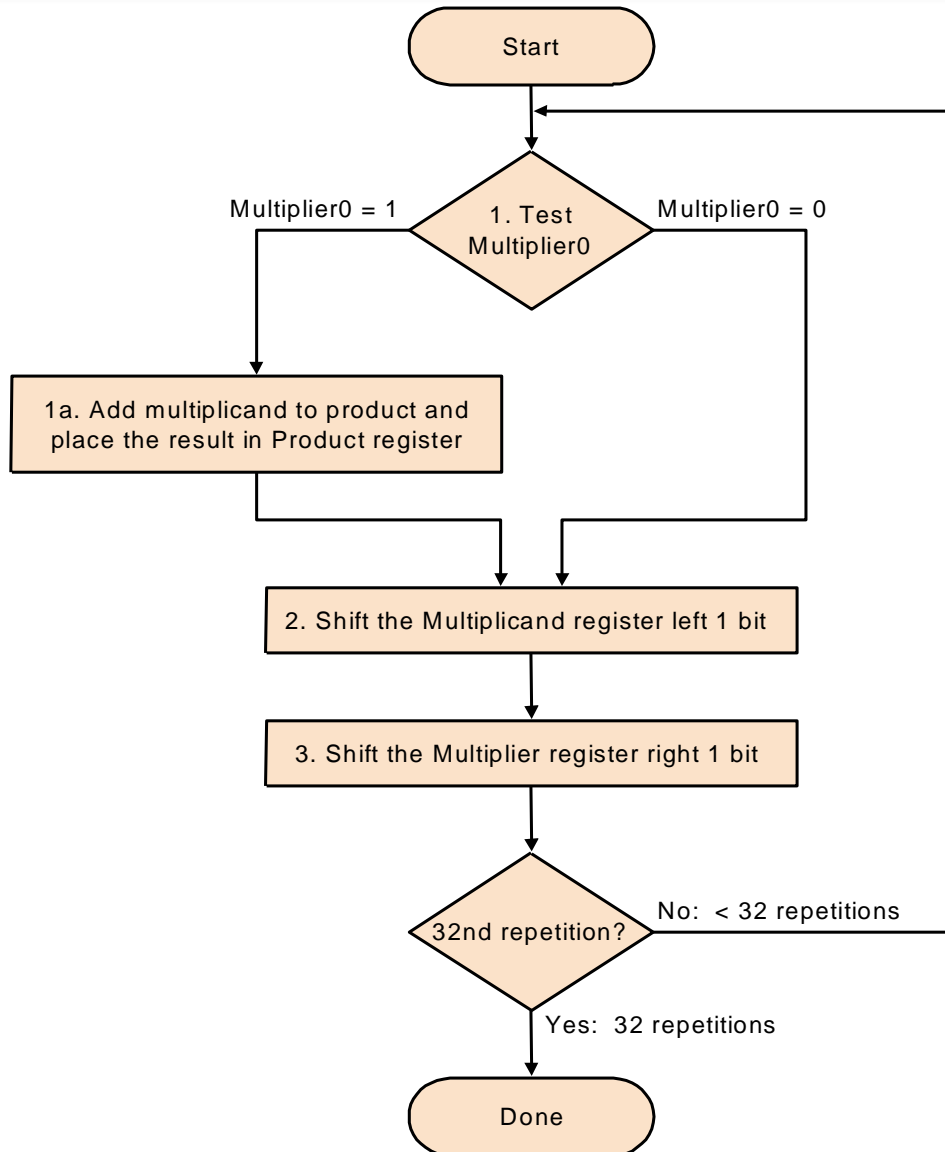
- ❑ This version follows the flow of paper-and-pencil example
- ❑ **One 64-bit ALU and three registers**
  - 64-bit multiplicand register, 64-bit product register, 32-bit multiplier register
- ❑ **Operations:**
  - The 32-bit multiplicand starts in the right half of the multiplicand register, and is shifted left 1 bit at each step
  - The multiplier register is shifted right 1 bit at each step
  - The product register is initialized to 0
  - Control decides when to shift the multiplicand and multiplier registers and when to write new values into the product register

# Example for Multiplication Version 1

□ 4-bit unsigned integer multiplication: 0010 x 0011

	Step	Multiplier	Multiplicand	Product
0	Initial values	<u>0011</u>	0000 <u>0010</u>	<b>0000 0000</b>
1	1a: 1 → Prod = Prod + Mcand	0011	0000 0010	<b>0000 0010</b>
	2: Shift left Multiplicand	0011	<b>0000 0100</b>	0000 0010
	3: Shift right Multiplier	<u>0001</u>	0000 0100	0000 0010
2	1a: 1 → Prod = Prod + Mcand	0001	0000 0100	<b>0000 0110</b>
	2: Shift left Multiplicand	0001	<b>0000 1000</b>	0000 0110
	3: Shift right Multiplier	<u>0000</u>	0000 1000	0000 0110
3	1: 0 → no operation	0000	0000 1000	0000 0110
	2: Shift left Multiplicand	0000	<b>0001 0000</b>	0000 0110
	3: Shift right Multiplier	<u>0000</u>	0001 0000	0000 0110
4	1: 0 → no operation	0000	0001 0000	0000 0110
	2: Shift left Multiplicand	0000	<b>0010 0000</b>	0000 0110
	3: Shift right Multiplier	0000	0010 0000	0000 0110

□ Color: **initial value**, **recently changed**, **check bit**






Three basic steps needed for each bit

If we need one clock cycle for each step then about 100 clock cycles are needed to multiply two 32-bit numbers

**Slow!**

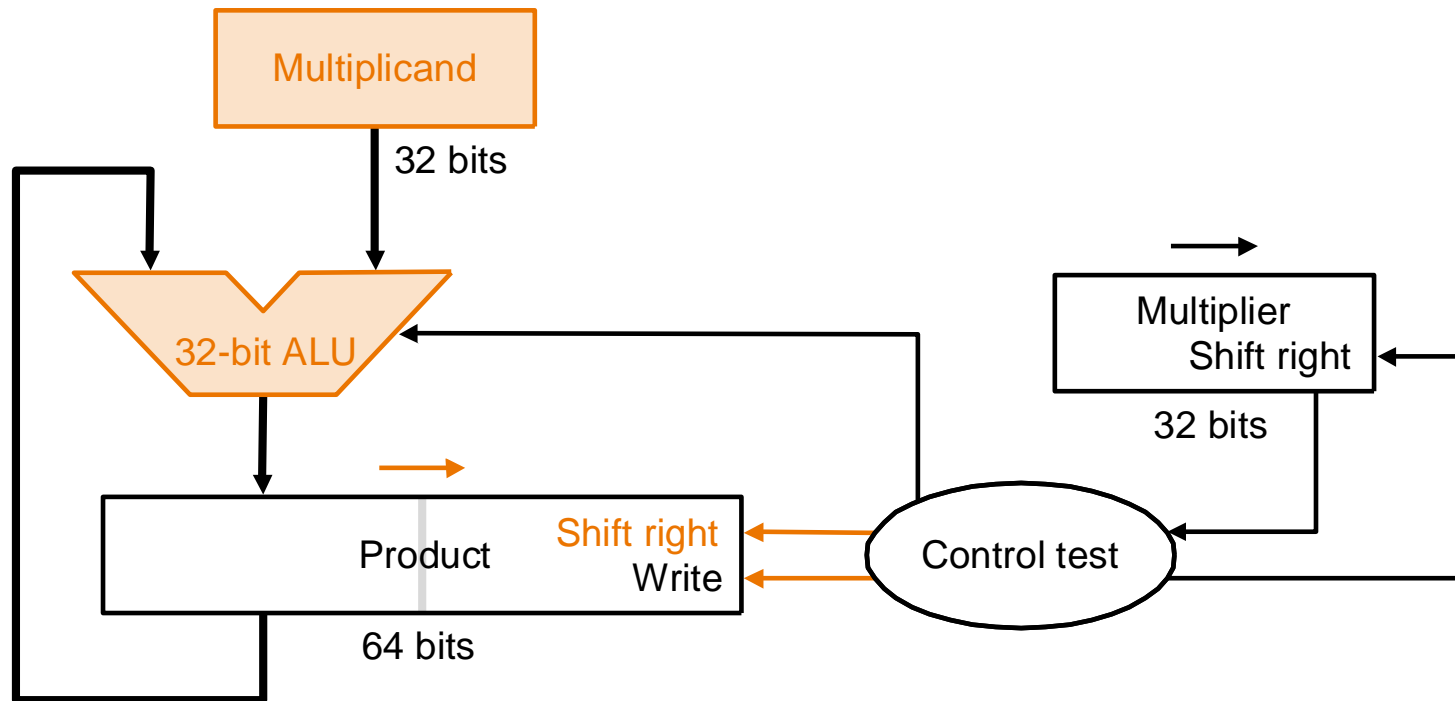
- ❑ Only half of the multiplicand register contains useful bit values  
Reduce multiplicand register size: 64-bit → 32-bit
- ❑ A full 64-bit ALU is wasteful and slow  
Because half of the adder bits add 0 to the intermediate sum  
Reduce ALU size: 64-bit → 32-bit
- ❑ The multiplicand is shifted left with 0s inserted in the new positions  
The multiplicand cannot affect the least significant bits of the product after they settle down

❑ **Paper-and-pencil example**  $(1000_{10} \times 1001_{10})$ : 

Multiplicand (4-bit)	1000	
Multiplier (4-bit)	1001	
Product (8-bit)	0000	0000
Add multiplicand	1000	
Product	1000	0000
Product (shift right) 	0100	0000
Add 0	0000	
Product	0100	0000
Product (shift right)	0010	0000
Add 0	0000	
Product	0010	0000
Product (shift right) 	0001	0000
Add multiplicand	1000	
Product	1001	0000
Product (shift right) 	0100	1000

Addition on  
upper 4 bits

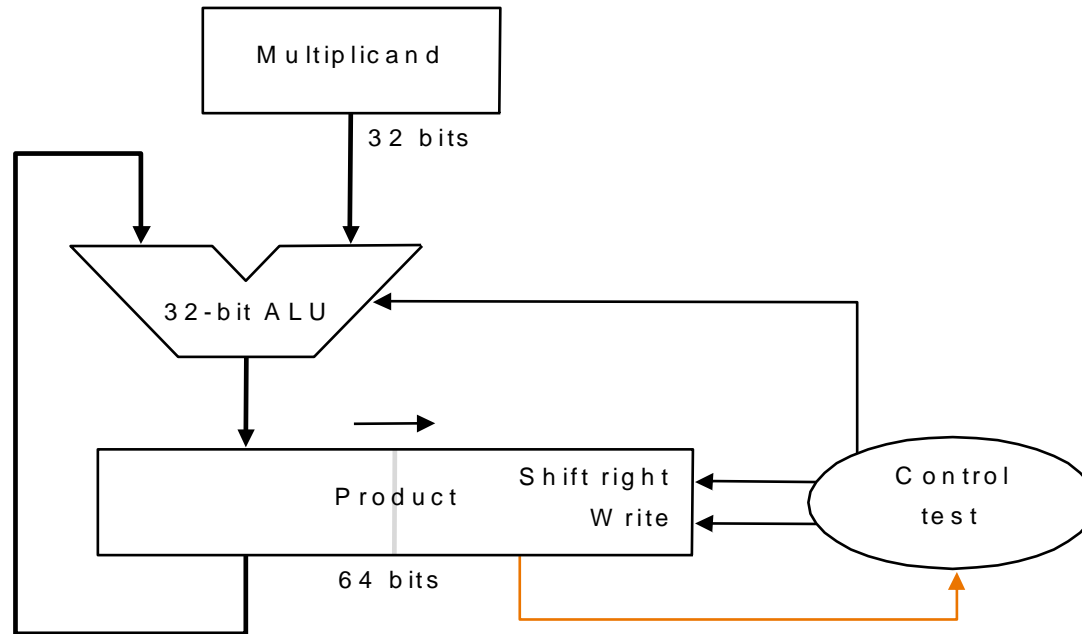
- ❑ This version only needs a 32-bit multiplicand register and a 32-bit ALU
- ❑ This version shifts "product" instead of "multiplicand"



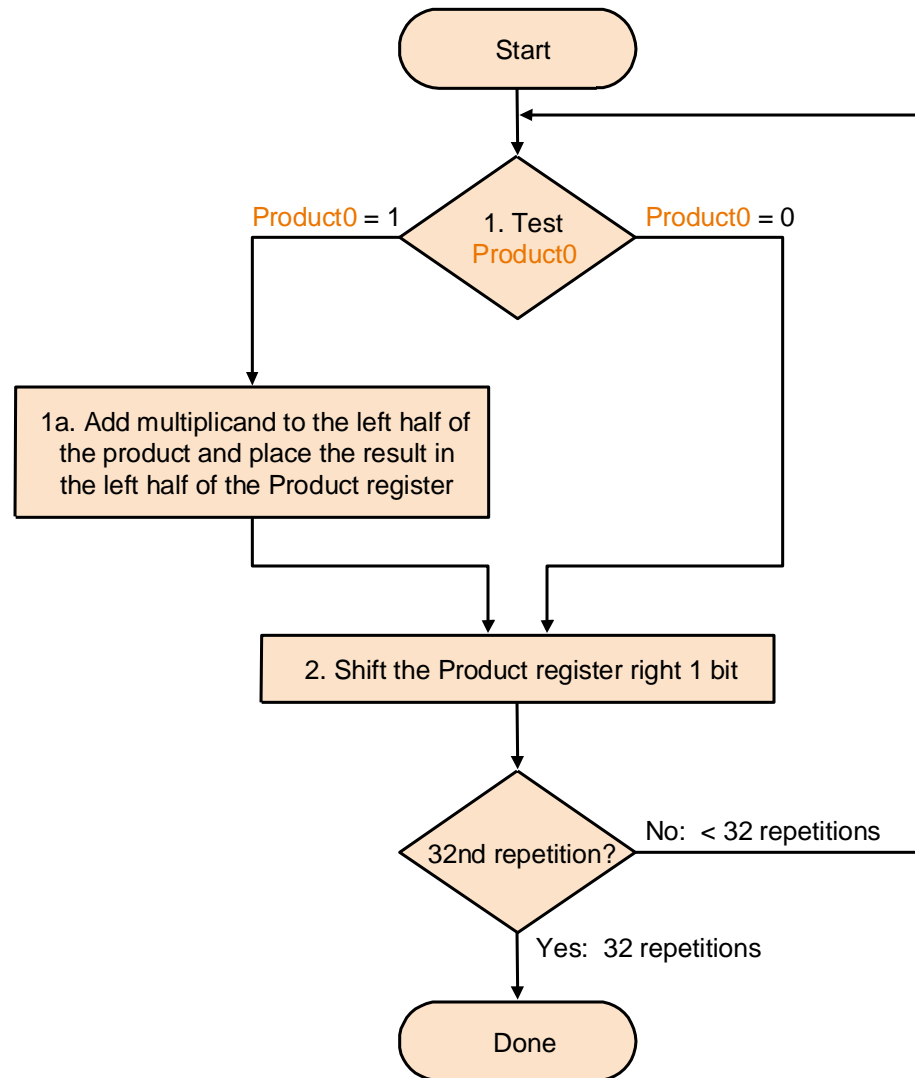
(changes made to previous version are highlighted in orange color)



- ❑ The number of used bits in the product register increases by 1 bit at each step, from the initial value of 32 to the final value of 64
- ❑ The number of used bits in the multiplier register decreases by 1 bit at each step, from the initial value of 32 to the final value of 0
- ❑ Hence, the unused bits of the multiplier register can be used for storing part of the product
  - More specifically, **the right half of the product register can be combined with the multiplier register to save hardware**



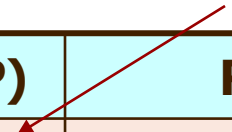
- ❑ **32-bit ALU**
- ❑ **Two registers:**
  - **Multiplicand register: 32 bits, Product register: 64 bits** (right half also used for storing multiplier)
- ❑ **Operations:**
  - The right half of the product register is initialized to the multiplier, and its left half is initialized to 0
  - The two right-shifts at each step for version 2 are combined into only a single right-shift because the product and multiplier registers have been combined



- Multiplication of two 4-bit unsigned numbers (0110 and 0011)

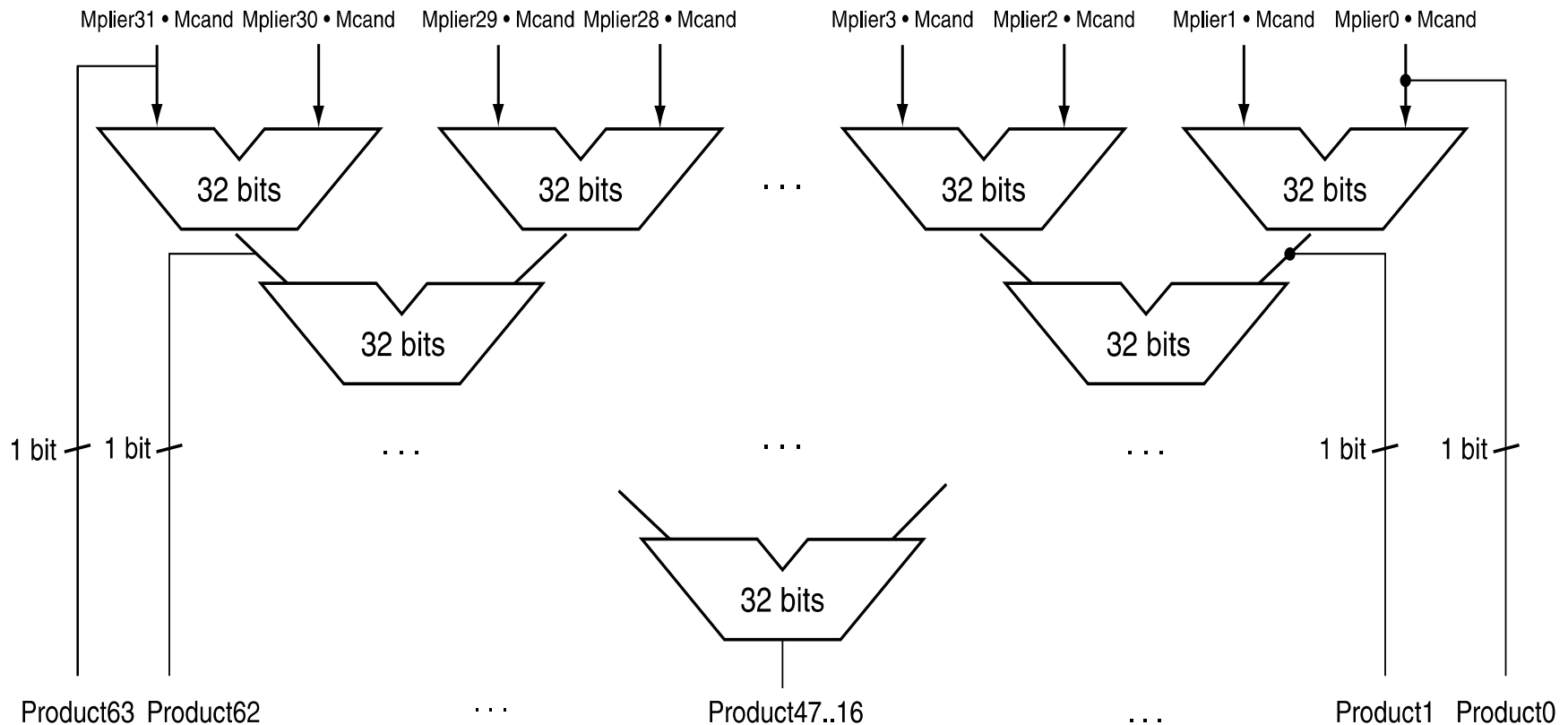
Iteration	Multiplicand (M)	Product (P)	Remark
0	0110	0000 0011	Initial state
1		<u>0110</u> 0011	Left(P) = Left(P) + M
		<u>0011</u> 0001	P = P >> 1
2		<u>1001</u> 0001	Left(P) = Left(P) + M
		<u>0100</u> 1000	P = P >> 1
3		<u>0100</u> 1000	No operation
	<u>0010</u> 0100	P = P >> 1	
4	<u>0010</u> 0100	No operation	
	<u>0001</u> 0010	P = P >> 1	

**Multiplier**



- ❑ If the multiplicand or multiplier is negative, we first negate it to get a positive number
- ❑ Use any one of the above methods to compute the product of two positive numbers
- ❑ The product should be negated if the original signs of the operands disagree
- ❑ **Booth's algorithm**: a more efficient and elegant algorithm for the multiplication of signed numbers (to be covered in tutorial)

- ❑ Moore's law implies more and more cheaper hardware resources available
- ❑ Unroll the for loop and use 31 adders instead of single adder 32 times
- ❑ This organization minimizes delay to do 1 Multiply in 5-add time



- Separate pair of 32-bit registers to contain 64-bit product, **Hi** and **Lo**

- **mult** (multiply) and **multu** (multiply unsigned)

```
mult  $s2, $s3      # Hi, Lo = $s2 x $s3
```

```
multu $s2, $s3      # Hi, Lo = $s2 x $s3
```

Both MIPS multiply instructions ignore overflow

No overflow if **Hi** is 0 for **multu** or the replicated sign of **Lo** for **mult**

- Fetch the integer 32-bit product

```
mflo (move from lo)    mflo $s1      # $s1 = Lo
```

```
mfhi (move from hi)    mfhi $s1      # $s1 = Hi
```

**mfhi** can transfer **Hi** to a general-purpose register to test for overflow

# 4. Division



□ Division is the reciprocal operation of multiplication

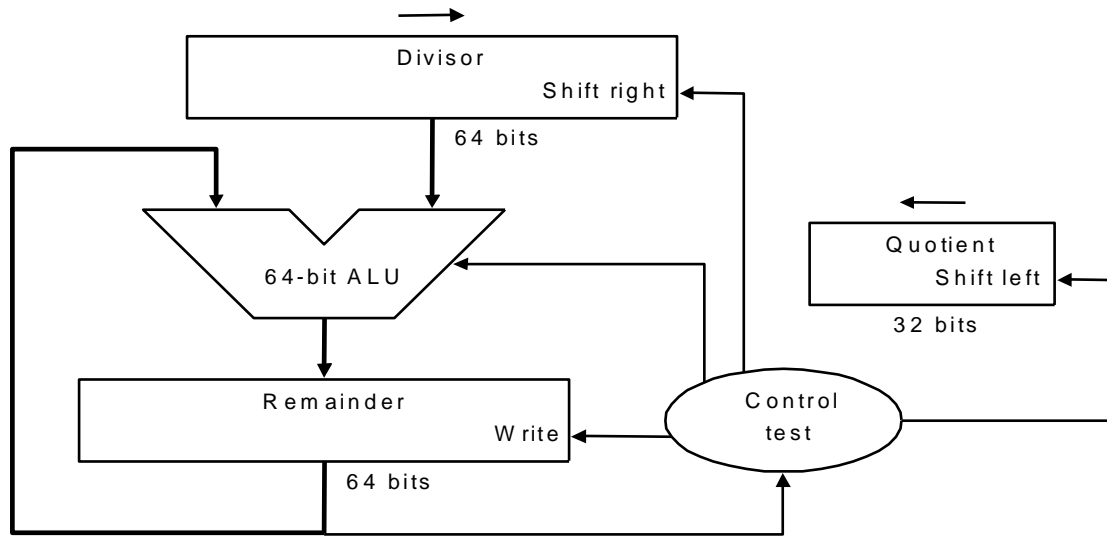
□ **Paper-and-pencil example** ( $1001010_{\text{ten}} / 1000_{\text{ten}}$ ):

<b>Divisor</b>	1000	$\begin{array}{r} \phantom{00}1001 \\ \hline 1001010 \\ -1000000 \\ \hline 0001010 \\ 0001010 \\ 0001010 \\ -1000 \\ \hline 10 \end{array}$	<b>Quotient</b>  <b>Dividend</b>
		10	<b>Remainder</b>

**Dividend = Quotient x Divisor + Remainder**

□ **Paper-and-pencil 4-bit example** ( $0111_2 / 0010_2$ ):

Divisor	0010	$\begin{array}{r} \phantom{000}0011 \\ \hline 00000111 \\ -00100000 \\ -00010000 \\ -00001000 \\ -00000100 \\ \hline 0000011 \\ -00000010 \\ \hline 0000001 \end{array}$	<p>Quotient</p> <p>Dividend</p>
			<p>Remainder</p>

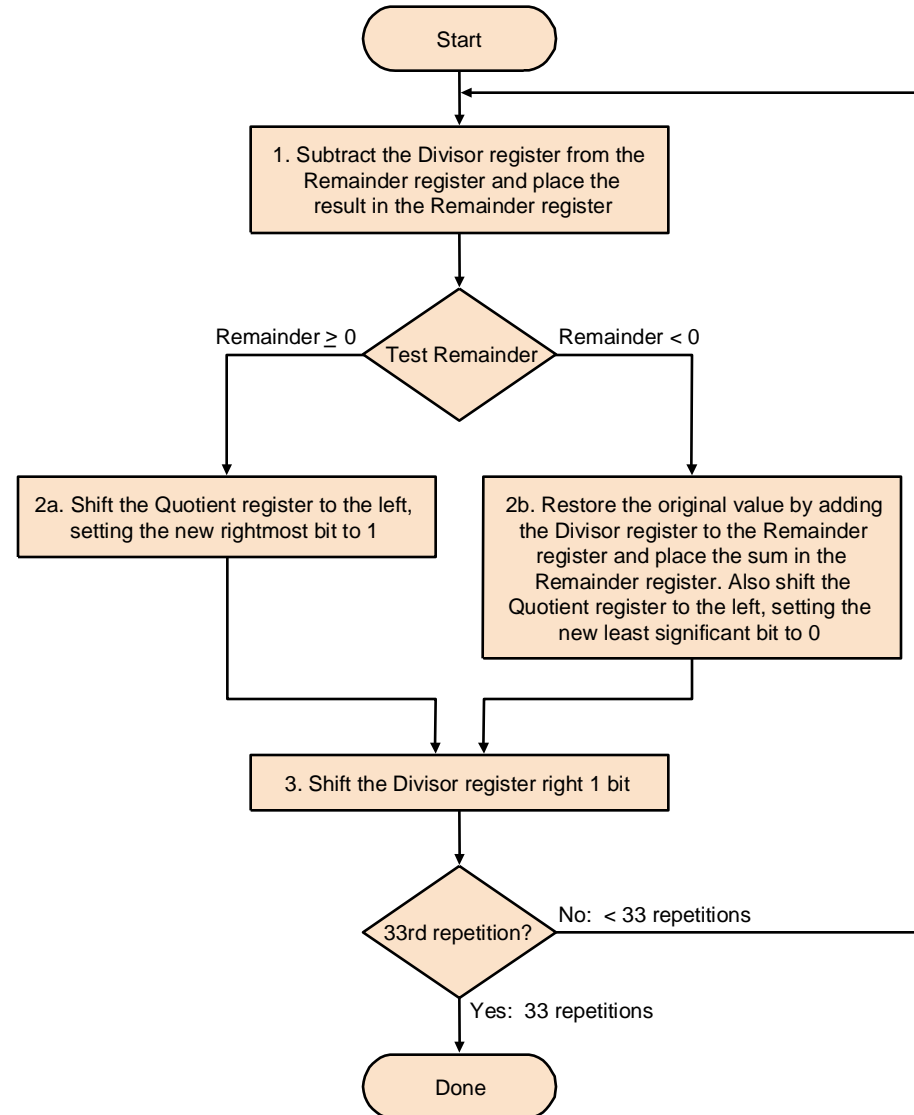


❑ **64-bit ALU, three registers:**

Divisor register: 64 bits, Quotient register: 32 bits, Remainder register: 64 bits

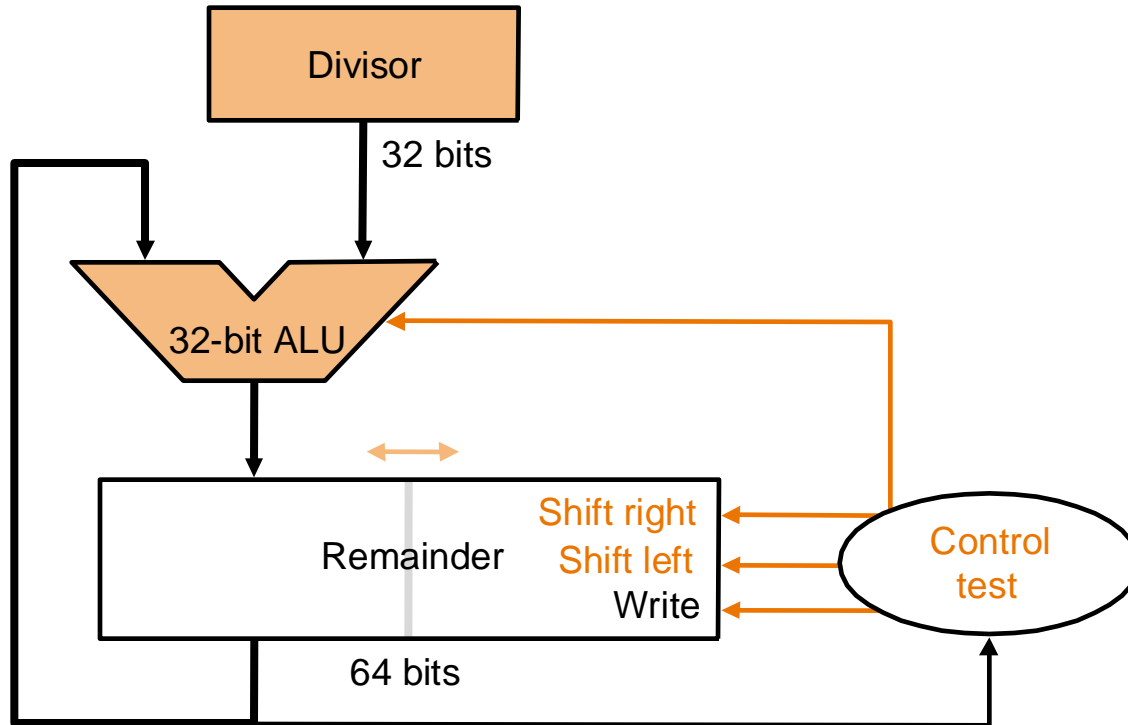
❑ **Operations:**

- 32-bit divisor starts in the left half of divisor register; is shifted right 1 bit at each step
- Quotient register is initialized to 0; shifted left 1 bit at each step
- Remainder register is initialized with the dividend
- Control decides
  - when to shift the divisor and quotient registers
  - when to write new values into the remainder register



Like the first version of the multiplication hardware

- ❑ **At most half of the divisor register has useful information**  
Both the divisor register and ALU could potentially be cut in half
- ❑ **Shift divisor register to right  $\Rightarrow$  Shift remainder register to left**  
Produce the same alignment  
But, simplify hardware necessary for the ALU and divisor register
- ❑ **Combine the remainder and quotient registers**



(changes made to previous version are highlighted in orange color)

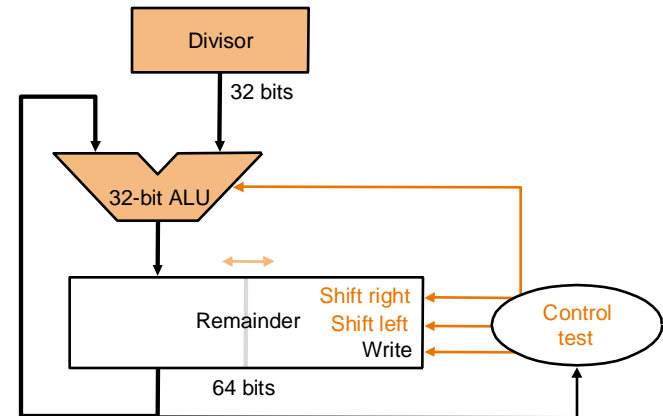
❑ **32-bit ALU**

❑ **Two registers:**

**Divisor register: 32 bits**

**Remainder register: 64 bits**

(right half also used for storing quotient)



❑ **Operations:**

32-bit divisor is always subtracted from the left half of remainder register

- The result is written back to the left half of the remainder register

The right half of the remainder register is initialized with the dividend

- Left shift remainder register by one before starting

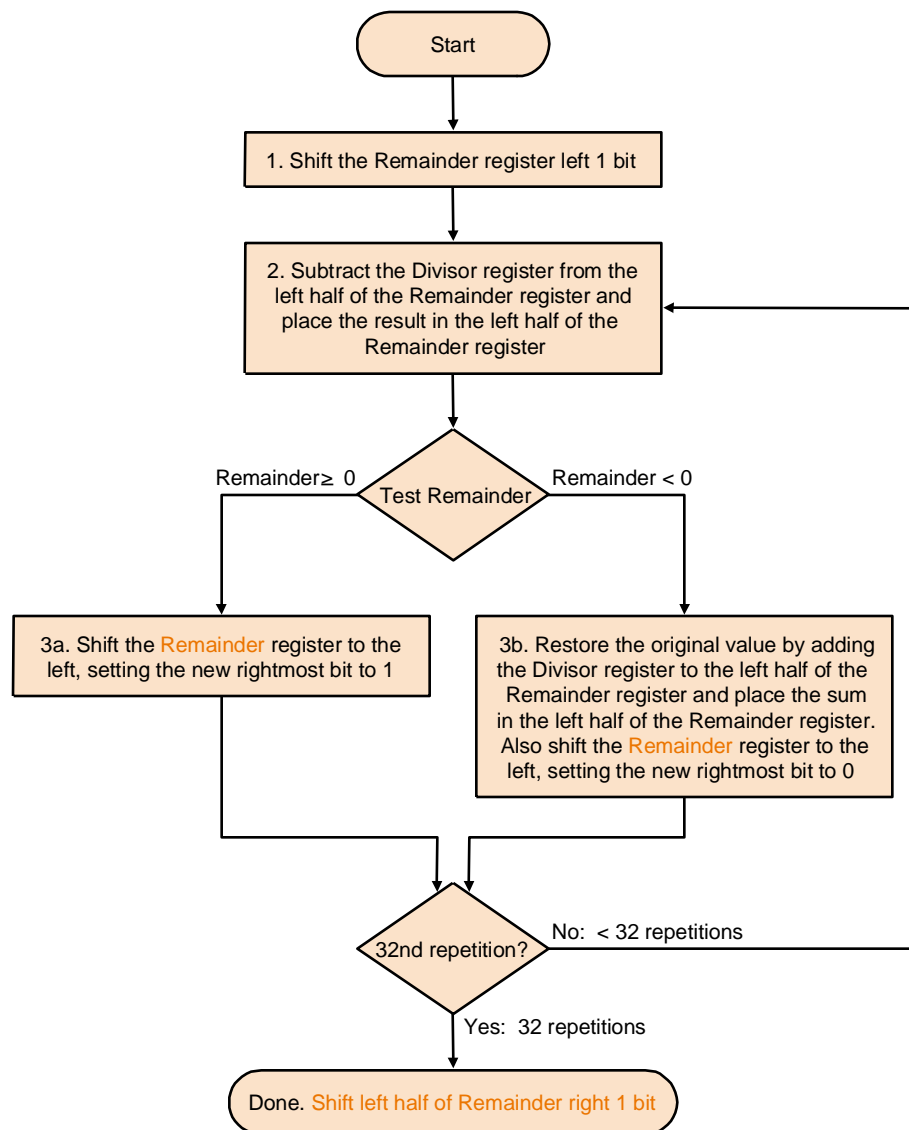
The new order of the operations in the loop is that the remainder register will be **shifted left one time too many**

- Thus, **final correction step:** must **right shift back only the remainder** in the left half of the remainder register

□ **Paper-and-pencil example** ( $0111_2 / 0010_2$ ):

		$0\ 0011$		Quotient
Divisor	0010	0000111		Dividend
		-0010		
		00001110		
		-0010		
		00011100		
		-0010		
		00111000		
		-0010		
		00011000		
		00110000		
		-0010		
		0001		Remainder





- Division of a 4-bit unsigned number (0111) by another one (0011)

Iteration	Divisor (D)	Remainder (R)	Remark
0	0011	0000 0111 0000 1110	Initial state $R = R \ll 1$
1		<u>1101</u> 1110 0000 1110 0001 1100	Left(R) = Left(R) - D Undo $R = R \ll 1, R_0 = 0$
2		<u>1110</u> 1100 0001 1100 0011 1000	Left(R) = Left(R) - D Undo $R = R \ll 1, R_0 = 0$
3		<u>0000</u> 1000 0001 0001	Left(R) = Left(R) - D $R = R \ll 1, R_0 = 1$
4		<u>1110</u> 0001 0001 0001 0010 0010	Left(R) = Left(R) - D Undo $R = R \ll 1, R_0 = 0$
extra		<u>0001</u> 0010	Left(R) = Left(R) >> 1

Remainder

⌋  
correction

Quotient

- ❑ Similar to signed multiplication, the signs of the divisor and dividend are checked to determine whether the results (quotient and remainder) should be negated.

- ❑ **Two rules to follow:**

If the signs of the divisor and dividend are different, then the quotient should be negated.

If the remainder is nonzero, then its sign should be the same as that of the dividend.

- ❑ **Example:**

Dividend	Divisor	Quotient	Remainder
+7	+2	+3	+1
-7	+2	-3	-1
+7	-2	-3	+1
-7	-2	+3	-1

- ❑ `div` ('divide')
- ❑ `divu` ('divide unsigned')

- ❑ Examples:

```
div    $s1, $s2    # Lo = $s1 / $s2; Hi = $s1 mod $s2
```

```
divu   $s1, $s2    # Lo = $s1 / $s2; Hi = $s1 mod $s2
```

# **Floating Point Arithmetic (optional)**

Single precision:

Exponent / Significand	0	<b>1 - 254</b>	255
0	0	$(-1)^S \times (1.F) \times (2)^{E-127}$	$(-1)^S \times (\infty)$
$\neq 0$	$(-1)^S \times (0.F) \times (2)^{-126}$		non-numbers e.g. 0/0 , $\sqrt{-1}$

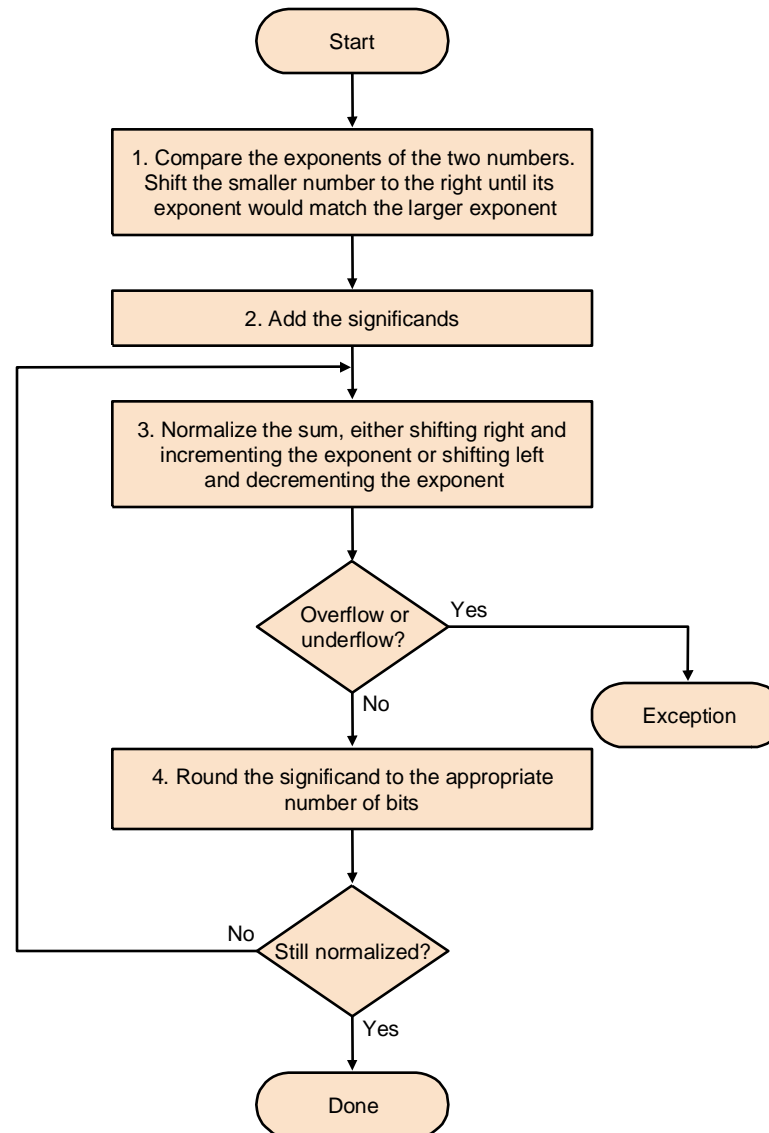
Double precision:

Exponent / Significand	0	<b>1 - 2046</b>	2047
0	0	$(-1)^S \times (1.F) \times (2)^{E-1023}$	$(-1)^S \times (\infty)$
$\neq 0$	$(-1)^S \times (0.F) \times (2)^{-1022}$		non-numbers e.g. 0/0 , $\sqrt{-1}$

- ❑ Example:  $9.999_{10} \times 10^1 + 1.610_{10} \times 10^{-1}$
- ❑ Assumptions:
  - Significand size = 4 decimal digits
  - Exponent size = 2 decimal digits

## Algorithm:

1. Align the decimal point of the number that has the smaller exponent
  - ❑ e.g.  $1.610_{10} \times 10^{-1}$  becomes  $0.016_{10} \times 10^1$
2. Add the significands of the two numbers together
  - ❑ e.g.  $9.999_{10} \times 10^1 + 0.016_{10} \times 10^1 = 10.015_{10} \times 10^1$
3. Normalize the sum
  - ❑ e.g.  $10.015_{10} \times 10^1$  becomes  $1.0015_{10} \times 10^2$
4. Round the normalized sum
  - ❑ e.g.  $1.0015_{10} \times 10^2$  becomes  $1.002_{10} \times 10^2$





- ❑ Add  $0.5_{10}$  and  $-0.4375_{10}$  in binary using the above algorithm
- ❑ Assume for simplicity that we only keep 4 bits of precision

- ❑ **Answer:**

- $0.5_{10} = 1.000_2 \times 2^{-1}$

- $-0.4375_{10} = -1.110_2 \times 2^{-2}$

1.  $-1.110_2 \times 2^{-2} \Rightarrow -0.111_2 \times 2^{-1}$

2.  $1.000_2 \times 2^{-1} + (-0.111_2 \times 2^{-1}) = 0.001_2 \times 2^{-1}$

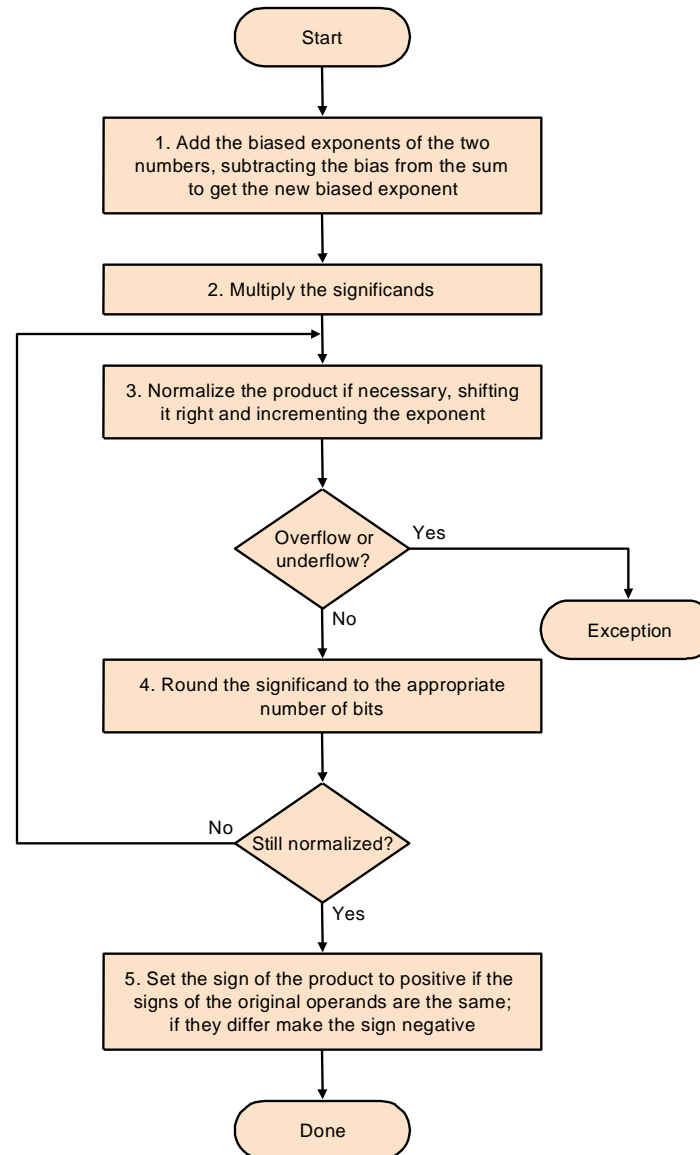
3.  $0.001_2 \times 2^{-1} \Rightarrow 1.000_2 \times 2^{-4}$  (no overflow/underflow)

4.  $1.000_2 \times 2^{-4}$  (fits in 4 bits, no need for rounding)

- ❑ Example:  $(1.110_{10} \times 10^{10}) \times (9.200_{10} \times 10^{-5})$
- ❑ Assumptions:
  - Significand size = 4 decimal digits
  - Exponent size = 2 decimal digits

## Algorithm:

1. Add the exponents together,
  - new exponent =  $10 + (-5) = 5$
2. Multiply the significands together
  - new significand =  $1.110_{10} \times 9.200_{10} = 10.212_{10}$
3. Normalize the product,
  - $10.212_{10} \times 10^5 \Rightarrow 1.0212_{10} \times 10^6$
4. Round the product
  - $1.0212_{10} \times 10^6 \Rightarrow 1.021_{10} \times 10^6$
5. Find the sign of the product
  - $+1.021_{10} \times 10^6$



- ❑ Multiply  $0.5_{10}$  and  $-0.4375_{10}$  in binary using the above algorithm
- ❑ Assume for simplicity that we only keep 4 bits of precision

- ❑ **Answer:**

- $0.5_{10} = 1.000_2 \times 2^{-1}$
- $-0.4375_{10} = -1.110_2 \times 2^{-2}$
  
- new exponent =  $-1 + (-2) = -3$
- new significand =  $1.000_2 \times 1.110_2 = 1.110_2$
- $1.110_2 \times 2^{-3}$  remains unchanged (no overflow/underflow)
- $1.110_2 \times 2^{-3}$  fits in 4 bits (no need for rounding)
- product =  $-1.110_2 \times 2^{-3}$

- ❑ MIPS supports IEEE 754 single-precision and double-precision formats
- ❑ **Addition:**
  - `add.s` ('addition, single'), `add.d` ('addition, double')
- ❑ **Subtraction:**
  - `sub.s` ('subtraction, single'), `sub.d` ('subtraction, double')
- ❑ **Multiplication:**
  - `mul.s` ('multiplication, single'), `mul.d` ('multiplication, double')
- ❑ **Division:**
  - `div.s` ('division, single'), `div.d` ('division, double')
- ❑ **Comparison:**
  - `c.x.s` ('comparison, single'), `c.x.d` ('comparison, double')
  - where **x** may be `eq`, `neq`, `lt`, `le`, `gt`, `ge`
- ❑ **Branch:**
  - `bclt` ('branch, true'), `bclf` ('branch, false')

- ❑ MIPS has a FP **co-processor**
  - Referred to as **co-processor 1**
  - Has its **own floating-point (FP) registers**: **\$f0**, **\$f1**, **\$f2**, ...
  - These registers are used for either single or double precision
- ❑ Separate loads and stores for FP registers: **lwc1** and **swc1**
- ❑ Example:
  - load two single precision numbers from memory
  - then, add them and store the sum

```
lwc1    $f4, 4 ($sp)    # Load 32-bit f.p. number into F4
lwc1    $f6, 8 ($sp)    # Load 32-bit f.p. number into F6
add.s   $f2, $f4, $f6   # F2 = F4 + F6 single precision
swc1    $f2, 0 ($sp)    # Store 32-bit f.p. number from F2
```

- ❑ Floating-point numbers are normally **approximations**
  - An infinite variety of real numbers exists between 0 and 1
  - No more than  $2^{53}$  can be exactly represented in double precision

- ❑ **Do the best we can**

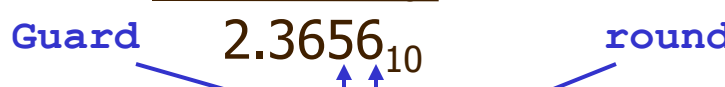
Get floating-point representation close to actual number

Keeps 2 extra bits on the right during intermediate additions

- **guard** and **round**

Example:

- $2.56_{10} \times 10^0 + 2.34_{10} \times 10^2$ , assume 3 significant decimal digits

With guard and round digits	without
$\begin{array}{r} 2.3400_{10} \\ + 0.0256_{10} \\ \hline 2.3656_{10} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 2.34_{10} \\ + 0.02_{10} \\ \hline 2.36_{10} \end{array}$
	
<p>After rounding <math>2.37_{10} \times 10^2</math></p>	

- ❑ **2's complement representation** for signed numbers
- ❑ A **32-bit ALU** can be built by connecting 32 1-bit ALUs together
  - Subtraction** makes use of **addition**
  - SLT** makes use of **subtraction**
  - A **multiplexor** is used in an ALU to select appropriate result
  - Carry lookahead adders** better than **ripple carry adders**
- ❑ **Multiplication**: through a series of **addition** and **shift** operations
- ❑ **Division**: through a series of **subtraction** and **shift** operations
  - Make sure you understand how the hardware algorithms work
- ❑ **Overflow** (a type of **exception**)
  - A result of addition or subtraction
  - Detected by checking the signs of the operands and result



## ❑ **Floating-point numbers**

Representation follows closely the **scientific notation**

Almost all computers, including MIPS, follow **IEEE 754 standard**

## ❑ In MIPS,

**Single-precision** floating-point representation takes **32** bits

**Double-precision** floating-point representation takes **64** bits

Has a FP **co-processor** and separate **FP registers**

## ❑ **Overflow (underflow)** in floating-point representation occurs

When the exponent is too large (small) to be represented