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碩士論文

基於記憶體式乘法器並實現於可程式邏輯閘陣列之 高速且面積最小化的有限脈衝響應濾波器設計

High-Speed and Area-Minimized FIR Filter Design using Memory-Based Multiplication on FPGAs

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基於記憶體式乘法器並實現於可程式邏輯閘陣列之 高速且面積最小化的有限脈衝響應濾波器設計 High-Speed and Area-Minimized FIR Filter Design using Memory-Based Multiplication on FPGAs



基於記憶體式乘法器並實現於可程式邏輯閘陣列之 高速且面積最小化的有限脈衝響應濾波器設計

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在有限脈衝響應濾波器中最複雜的部份為多重常數乘法器(MCM)區塊,它將一筆 資料乘上多個常數係數。而多重常數乘法器區塊中的乘法器可利用基於記憶體架構的 乘法器來取代,因此為了減少記憶體大小有許多方法被提出來。在此篇論文中,我們 提出一個以整數線性規劃(ILP)為基礎的方法,藉由尋找最少數目的共用部份乘積來實 現所有的常數乘法,最小化多重常數乘法器區塊面積,並將其運用於現場可程式化邏 輯閘陣列。由實驗結果可知,我們的方法和文獻上所知最先進的作法相比,以平均值 而言,減少了超過10%的延遲和50%的面積,且當常數係數個數增加時記憶體大小減 少的幅度更為明顯。

High-Speed and Area-Minimized FIR Filter Design using Memory-Based Multiplication on FPGAs

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Abstract

The complexity of finite impulse response (FIR) filters is dominated by multiple constant multiplication (MCM) block which realizes the multiplication of one data sample with multiple constant coefficients. Many works have been proposed for minimizing memory size since multiplications in an MCM block can be implemented by memory-based multipliers. In this work, we present an integer linear programming (ILP) based approach to minimize the area of MCM block implemented on the field programmable gate array (FPGA) by finding the minimal number of common partial products to carry out all constant multiplications. Experimental results show that on average, compared with an existing state-of-the-art method, the proposed method reduces delay and area by more than 10% and 50%, respectively. Moreover, the reduction of memory size is more prominent when the number of constant coefficients increases.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Finite Impulse Response Filters

Finite Impulse Response (FIR) digital filters are widely used in many Digital Signal Processing (DSP) systems because of the advantage of stability and linear phase properties. An *N*-tap FIR filter formulation is shown below

$$\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{n}) = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} C_i \times \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{n}-\mathbf{i}) \tag{1}$$

where x(n-i), for $i = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$, are *N* recent input datum, *Ci*, for $i = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$, are the filter coefficients, and y(n) is the current output data.

The Multiple Constant Multiplication (MCM) block of an *N*-tap FIR filter, as shown in Figure 1, dominates the complex of the design since many constant multiplications are required. In some DSP applications such as video coding and image compression require high-speed FIR filters. Therefore, it is important to design a high performance MCM block in an FIR filter.



Figure 1. An N-tap Transposed FIR filter.

1.2 Conventional Memory-Based Multiplier

The MCM block contains a large number of constant multiplications while multiplier is a highly time-consuming unit. The general-purpose multipliers in an MCM block can be replaced by conventional memory-based multipliers since the constant coefficients of an FIR filter can be obtained beforehand. A conventional memory-based multiplier example is depicted in Figure 2(a). Assume C_0 is a constant coefficient and X is a 4-bit input word to be multiplied with C_0 . There are 2^4 possible product values C_0^*X because X has 2^4 possible values. Thus, the memory-based multiplier is composed of a memory unit of 2^4 words which stores all possible pre-computed product values corresponding to all possible values of input X. If the input X is used as address of the memory unit and then the corresponding product value can be read from the memory unit.

Memory-based multiplier is a high-speed constant multiplier but the memory size will increase exponentially with the word-length of input value. In order to reduce memory size, the scheme called memory partition was proposed in [1] where a conventional memory-based multiplier can be implemented by two smaller memory units and one adder. Figure 2(b) shows a memory unit of 2^4 words is replaced by two memory units of 2^2 words and one adder to sum the partial results from two memory units. The left-shifter in Figure 2(b) is easily performed by using wire permutations without additional cost. For instance, total memory bits in Figure 2(a) are 144 bits while total memory bits in Figure 2(b) are 56 bits. Although the memory partition scheme needs an additional adder component, it can greatly reduce the memory size especially when the word-length of input value is long.



1.3 Field Programmable Gate Array

With the great technological advances for Field Programmable Gate Array (FPGA), it contains plenty of Logic Elements (LEs) and memory resources. Figure 3 shows the amounts of LEs and memory resources in the Altera Stratix FPGAs from 2002 to 2010. Recent FPGA devices provide almost 1 million LEs and more than 50 megabits of embedded memory. There are so many memory resources can be used in FPGA devices that FIR filters using memory-based multiplier are very suitable to be implemented on FPGAs.



Figure 3. The amount of FPGA resources of the Altera Stratix family.

1.4 Thesis Organization

The remainder of this work is organized as follows. In Chapter 2, we briefly introduce the related previous works and the necessary terminology. The motivational example and problem formulation are delineated in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 describes in detail the proposed algorithm, and the experimental results are presented in Chapter 5. Finally, the concluding remarks are given in Chapter 6.

Chapter 2 **Background**

In this chapter, we briefly introduce the related previous works which are proposed to reduce memory size of memory-base multiplier in Section 2.1. Then, the terminology is presented in Section 2.2.

2.1 Previous Works

In an early paper, [1] proposed the memory partition scheme, which replaces one memory unit with two smaller memory units and one adder, to save memory size of memory-based multiplier. Next, different approaches for memory-based multiplication have been studied [2]-[18]. In [8] aimed to single constant multiplication on FPGA. The method is to split the input into several segments and then use 4-bit Look-Up Tables (LUTs) to generate the partial products of coefficient multiplication. It also noted three kinds of LUTs are redundant. First, LUT contains all zeroes or ones, which can be replaced with a constant signal value. Second, the contents of the LUTs are identical, which can be replaced with a single LUT. Third, the output of LUT is the same with one of address bits, which can easily use wire to replace. After removing all redundant LUTs, the partial products are added by Carry Propagate Adders (CPAs). Then, [9] extended this method to multiple constant multiplications. However, it is limited that through removing the redundant LUTs to reduce memory size.

An approach to improve memory-based multiplication, called Odd-Multiple-Storage (OMS), was proposed in [17], where the memory size is saved by half. In conventional memory-based multiplier, the memory consists of 2^{L} possible product values C_0^*X corresponding to all possible values of X with word-length L while [17] said the memory only stores $(2^{L}/2)$ words corresponding to the odd multiples of C_0 . The others are even multiples of C_0 which can be derived by left shifting one of the odd multiples of C_0 except the product word is zero. An example for L = 4 is illustrated in Table 1. The product values $C_0^*(2i+1)$, for i = 0, 1, ..., 7, are stored in memory location *i*. The even multiples, 2^*C_0 , 4^*C_0 , and 8^*C_0 can be derived by left shifting C_0 . Similarly, 6^*C_0 and 12^*C_0 can be derived by left shifting 3^*C_0 ; 10^*C_0 and 14^*C_0 can be derived by left shifting 5^*C_0 and 7^*C_0 , respectively. The product value 0^*C_0 cannot derive by left shifting any odd multiples but it can be obtained by resetting the memory output. Table 1 also shows the number of shifts is required in each even multiple.

Table 1. OMS example for input word length L = 4.

(so and	s ₁ are	control	bits c	of the	logarit	hmic	barrel-	shifter
(b) und	bjuic	control	UILD C	/1 the	10 guin		Juitor	Sinter.

					Contraction of the Institute of the Inst
address d ₂ d ₁ d ₀	Stored value	Input x ₃ x ₂ x ₁ x ₀	Productvalue	# of shifts	Control s ₁ s₀
		0001	C_{0}	0	00
000	C	0010	2 ¹ x C ₀	1	01
000	C ₀	0100	$2^2 \times C_0$	2	10
		1000	2 ³ x C ₀	3	11
		0011	3 <i>C</i> ₀	0	00
001	3 <i>C</i> 0	0110	2 ¹ x 3 C ₀	1	01
		1100	$2^2 \times 3 C_0$	2	10
0.4.0	5 <i>C</i> 0	0101	5 C ₀	0	00
010		1010	$2^1 \times 5 C_0$	1	01
0.1.1	7.0	0111	7 C ₀	0	00
011	100	1110	2 ¹ x 7 C ₀	1	01
100	9 <i>C</i> ₀	1001	9 <i>C</i> ₀	0	00
101	11 <i>C</i> 0	1011	11 <i>C</i> 0	0	00
110	13 <i>C</i> 0	1101	13 <i>C</i> ₀	0	00
111	15 <i>C</i> 0	1111	15 <i>C</i> 0	0	00



Figure 4. (a) OMS architecture. (b) Address encoder circuit. (c) Control circuit.

The OMS architecture for multiplication of *W*-bit constant coefficient with 4-bit input operand is depicted in Fig 4. The area of address encoder and control circuit are small while the area of barrel shifter will linearly increase with increasing bit-width of product value. Although it can save memory size by half, it also increases extra delay and area because of address encoder, control circuit, NOR cell, and barrel shifter.



Figure 5. OMS architecture using dual-port memory.

The OMS architecture also can use memory partition scheme when the word-length of input value is long; moreover, it uses a dual-port memory to replace two single-port memory units since the contents of two memory units are the same. The OMS architecture for 8-bit input is shown in Figure 5.

An *N*-tap FIR filter (for 8-bit input) using OMS architecture proposed in [18] is depicted in Figure 6. Memory size can be reduced from two aspects because all inputs of memory-based multiplier are identical. First, it only requires a pair of address encoders and control circuits. Second, one memory unit with N segments can be used instead of N memory units; therefore, 2(N-1) address decoders can be eliminated.



Figure 6. An N-tap FIR filter using OMS architecture.

2.2 Terminology

In this section we introduce some terminology that will be used in the following

chapters.

- Coefficient, C: A constant coefficient.
- Non-zero bits, NZB(C): Number of non-zero bits in a binary number C.
 For example, NZB(101) = 2, NZB(11011) = 4.
- Symbol, S: S is a binary number whose MSB and LSB are both 1's.
 For example, 101(S₅), 11011(S₂₇), and 101011(S₄₃) are symbols while 011, 1010, and 011010 are not symbols.
- Alphabet, A: A is a set of symbols. For example, $A = \{S_5, S_{27}, S_{43}\}$.
- Fragment, F(S, i): A number generated from left shifting S by i bits.
 For example, F(S₁₁, 3) = 1011 << 3 = 1011000.
- Match, *M*: A match for a coefficient *C* with respect to alphabet *A* is a set of fragments such that $\sum_i F_i = C$ and $\sum_i NZB(F_i) = NZB(C)$.

For example, assume $A = \{S_1, S_3, S_{13}, S_{19}, S_{51}\}$ and C = 110110. Coefficient *C* has three kinds of matches, namely $M_0 = \{F(S_3, 4), F(S_3, 1)\}$, $M_1 = \{F(S_{13}, 2), F(S_1, 1)\}$, and $M_2 = \{F(S_{19}, 1), F(S_1, 4)\}$. Although $F(S_{51}, 0)$ plus $F(S_3, 0)$ equals *C*, $\{F(S_{51}, 0), F(S_3, 0)\}$ is not a match since *NZB*(110011) plus *NZB*(11) not equals *NZB*(110110).



Chapter 3 Motivation

In this chapter, we show a motivational example to demonstrate memory size of memory-base multiplier can further reduce by using sharing architecture which shares common symbols among coefficients. Then, we present the problem formulation of this work.

3.1 Motivational Example

In OMS architecture, memory size of memory-based multiplier will sharply increase with increasing number of constant coefficients. For instance, assume input $125(111101_2)$, $187(10111011_2)$. The MCM block generated using OMS architecture for this coefficient set is shown in Figure 7 where it contains an 8x50 dual-port memory unit.



Figure 7. MCM block using OMS architecture for coefficient set {11, 23, 45, 125,

187}.

The MCM block generated using OMS architecture can save memory size by half while OMS architecture does not consider correlation among different coefficients. We assume the alphabet set $A = \{1(S_1), 1011(S_{11}), 100101(S_{37})\}$; a match for each coefficient in coefficient set {11, 23, 45, 125, 187} is shown in Table 2. The symbols in A can use left shifting and adders to derive all coefficients because we consider correlation among coefficients so that some coefficients can share common symbols. Finally, memory only stores product values of all symbols in A except S_1 which can be got directly from input. The MCM block generated using sharing architecture for the coefficient set is shown in Figure 8 where it contains a 16x18 dual-port memory unit. Firstly, product values of symbols are read from memory output. Then, these product values and input X are used to carry out all constant multiplications. For example, $S_{37}*X$ is read form memory output and S_1 is left shifted by 3 bits. After that, the product value 45*X can be obtained through summing those partial products using Carry Save Adder (CSA) tree as shown in Figure 8. Finally, memory size of OMS and sharing architecture is shown in Table 3. The memory size of MCM block for two different approaches is different. The MCM block using sharing architecture saves memory size by 28% compared with the OMS architecture.

Coefficient	Match
11*X	<i>F</i> (<i>S</i> ₁₁ ,0)*X
23*X	$F(S_{11}, 1)^*X + F(S_1, 0)$
45*X	$F(S_{37},0)^*X + F(S_1,3)$
125*X	$F(S_{37},0)^*X + F(S_{11},3)^*X$
187*X	$F(S_{11},4)^{*}X + F(S_{11},0)^{*}X$

Table 2. A match for each coefficient in coefficient set {11, 23, 45, 125, 187}.



Figure 8. MCM block using sharing architecture for coefficient set {11, 23, 45, 125,

187}.

Table 3. Memory size of OMS and sharing architecture for 8 bits input.

		Memory bits	
	OMS Architecture	2^3 x50 = 400	
2	Sharing Architecture	2 ⁴ x18 = 288	

3.2 Problem Formulation

Given a set of coefficients $\{C_0, C_1, \dots, C_{n-1}\}$ and an upper bound of level of CSA tree *D*. The given *D* is used to constrain timing of MCM block. The objective of this work is to decide a match for each coefficient and determine an alphabet that lead to minimum total area cost of MCM block.

Chapter 4 Proposed Algorithm

Our proposed algorithm, called Global Optimal Symbol Match (GOSM), is described in this chapter. Firstly, we introduce proposed architecture and definitions which are used in GOSM in Section 4.1 and 4.2 respectively; then, flow chart of GOSM is illustrated in Section 4.3. GOSM consists of two main parts which are explicitly described in Section 4.4 and Section 4.5, respectively.

4.1 Proposed Architecture

A two-stage MCM block using memory-based multiplication is depicted in Figure 9. The first stage generates the product values of common symbols and then they are used to realize all constant multiplications in second stage. The delay of the first stage is almost constant since it consists of memory unit. However, the delay of the second stage including CSA tree and CPAs is flexible. It is decided by number of levels of CSA tree; that is the reason why *D* is used to constrain timing.



Figure 9. Proposed MCM block architecture.

4.2 Definitions

- Coefficient Assembly Tree, *CAT*(*C*): *CAT*(*C*) is a tree which is extended for a coefficient *C* and each node in *CAT*(*C*) is a fragment. A CAT for a coefficient *C*=4'b1011 is depicted in Figure 10.
- *Path: Path* which is from root to leaf in *CAT(C)* is a match for a coefficient *C*. For example, there are five possible paths in *CAT(C)* in Figure 10.
- $Path_{i,j}$: j^{th} path in i^{th} coefficient.



Figure 10. A CAT for a coefficient C=4'b1011.



Figure 11. (a) Example of support number of $Path_{0,3}$.

(b) Example of support number of $Path_{0,9}$.

NumSup(Path): The NumSup(Path) is total number of supports on Path. The number of supports of all symbols except S_1 is two because their product values are read from dual-port memory. For example, Figure 11 illustrates NumSup(Path) on two different kinds of paths. In Figure 11(a), Path_{0,3} includes $F(S_1, 6)$, $F(S_3, 3)$, and $F(S_3, 0)$, so NumSup(Path_{0,3}) equals five. Similarly, in Figure 11(b), NumSup(Path_{0,9}) equals three since it includes $F(S_{45}, 1)$ and $F(S_1, 0)$.

- *NumSup_{max}*: *NumSup_{max}* is the maximal number of supports for a CSA tree.
 For different values of *D*, *NumSup_{max}* are listed in Table 4.
- *Legal path: Legal path* is a path whose *NumSup(Path)* is less or equal than *NumSup_{max}*. That is, *Legal Path* can be implemented by using CSA tree whose number of supports is not more than *NumSup_{max}*.

Table 4. Maximum numbers of supports of CSA tree.



- Trim leading zero's, TrimLZ(C): Trim the leading 0's in C. For example, TrimLZ(01101)=1101, TrimLZ(000101101)=101101.
- Trim MSB, *TrimMSB(C)*: Trim the MSB in *C*. For example, *TrimMSB*(110110)=10110.
- |C|: Bit-width of *TrimLZ(C)*, where *C* is a binary number. For example, |1101|=4, |001101|=4, |11010|=5.
- Difference of length, DOL(C, S): Return |C|-|S|, where C is a coefficient and S is a symbol. For example, DOL(11010, 11)=3, DOL(110101, 1001)=2.
- Residue(B, C): TrimLZ(B-C), where B and C are binary numbers. For example, Residue(110101, 100100)=TrimLZ(010001)=10001.

4.3 Overall Flow

The overall of our proposed algorithm is illustrated in Figure 12. The inputs of GOSM are a set of coefficient and an upper bound of level of CSA tree. GOSM consists of two main parts. In first part, we enumerate all possible legal paths and construct a Coefficient Assembly Tree (CAT) for each coefficient. In second part, we formulate the problem into an integer linear programming (ILP) problem and use ILP solver to find global optimal matches for coefficients. Finally, the output is a Verilog file of the FIR filter by GOSM method.



4.4 Coefficient Assembly Tree Construction

In this section, we introduce the concept of CAT enumerator which is used to enumerate all possible paths and construct a CAT for a coefficient. The pseudo code of CAT enumerator is shown below.

Initial: $A = \emptyset$;

CAT(Root, TrimLZ(C))

- 1 $Symbol = \emptyset;$
- 2 for num_1 from 0 to NZB(C)-1
- 3 C'=TrimMSB(C);
- 4 *S*=1;
- 5 *Sym_Enum*(*C*', *S*, *num_1*);

- 6 foreach $S \in Symbol$
- 7 d=DOL(C, S);
- 8 create a child node r=F(S, d) for Root;
- 9 add symbol *S* into alphabet *A*;
- 10 CAT(r, Residue(C, S << d));

End

 $Sym_Enum(C', S, num_1)$ Mary . if(*num_1*==0) 1 2 add S to Symbol; 3 return; if(MSB(C')==0)4 5 Sym_Enum(TrimMSB(C'), S<<1, num_1); //skip current 0 else //MSB(C')==1 6 if(NZB(C')>num_1) //enough remaining 1's? 7 8 Sym_Enum(TrimMSB(C'), S<<1, num_1); //skip current 1</pre> 9 Sym_Enum(TrimMSB(C'), S<<1+1, num_1-1); //pick current 1

End

Initially, the alphabet *A* is empty; the inputs of CAT enumerator are a root node and a coefficient without leading 0's. The *Symbol* which is used to record all *S* generated from the first for loop in line 2 to line 5 is set as empty. The variable num_1 in line 2 indicates the number of 1's which must be chosen in *C*', where C'=TrimMSB(C). The first for loop in line 2 to line 5 is mainly used to enumerate all possible *S* which must include the MSB in *C*. For instance, assume $C_0=01011$, the for loop runs from 0 to 2 because of $NZB(C_0)-1=2$. The S_1 is returned when num_1 equals 0. Similarly, the S_5 and S_9 are returned when num_1 equals 1, while the S_{11} is returned when num_1 equals 2. There are four different symbols $1(S_1)$, $101(S_5)$, $1001(S_9)$, $1011(S_{11})$ stored in a set *Symbol*. The second for loop in line 6 to line 10 is mainly used to create a fragment for each *S* in *Symbol* and take remaining part as a new coefficient to recursively call the same function *CAT*. For instance, the first node in *Path*_{0,0} in Figure 13, we create a child node $r=F(S_1, d)$ for Root where $d=DOL(C_0, S_1)$ and add S_1 into *A*. Finally, we call function *CAT* again and the inputs of function *CAT* are a node *r* and *Residue*($C_0, S_1 \ll 3$). The function *CAT* does not end until the *Symbol* is empty.



Figure 13. A CAT(01011) example to illustrate the function CAT.



Figure 14. An example to illustrate the sub-function *Sym_Enum* when *num_l*=1.

An example of the sub-function Sym_Enum for coefficient C_0 when num_1 equals 1 is depicted in Figure 14. The function Sym_Enum , which is also a recursive function, is used to find out all possible symbols when given a number num_1 . In each recursion, we check whether the MSB in C' is 1 or not. If the MSB in C' is 0, we shift S left 1 bit and recursively call the same function Sym_Enum . If the MSB in C' is 1, we let (S<<1)+1 and decrease the num_1 by 1. After that, we recursively call the same function Sym_Enum . In addition we also can regard this bit as 0 if number of 1's in the remaining part is bigger than the num_1 ; we do the same operation with the situation of having 0 in the MSB of C'. The sub-function Sym_Enum does not return symbol until the num_1 equals 0.

4.5 Tree Pruning

In Section 4.4, we enumerate all possible paths for a coefficient but meanwhile all illegal paths are also enumerated in CAT. It causes extra time-consuming because there is no chance to choose illegal path as a match for a coefficient. In order to avoid enumerating illegal paths in a *CAT*, we use branch-and-bound to modify *CAT*. The pseudo code of the modified *CAT*, called *PCAT* is shown below.

Initial: $A = \emptyset$;



End

The pseudo code of *PACT* and *CAT* are very similar. We create a fragment set called $Path_{middle}$ in *PACT*. In each recursion, we add a new fragment into $Path_{middle}$ and then check if $NumSup(Path_{middle})$ is less or equal than $NumSup_{max}$. If this condition is true, we create a child node r=F(S, d) for Root and recursively call the

same function *PCAT*; otherwise, we skip it. An example of the function *PCAT* for coefficient *C*=1111101 when $D=1(NumSup_{max}=3)$ is depicted in Figure 15. The <u>NumSup(Path_middle</u>) in third node equals NumSup_max, so its child nodes which are marked by dash circle in Figure 15 cannot be created. Thus, we construct a CAT for a coefficient quickly without enumerating illegal paths.



Figure 15. An example to illustrate the function PCAT.

4.6 ILP Formulation

In Section 4.4 and Section 4.5, we introduce how to enumerate all possible legal paths for a coefficient. After that, in this section, we illustrate how to find global optimal matches for all coefficients by using Integer Linear Programming (ILP) solver.

4.6.1 Variables

Two variables are defined for modeling the behavior of choosing a path in a CAT. One is *VarS* which indicates whether the symbol is selected into *A* or not. The other is *VarPath* which means whether the path is selected or not. The following equation lists the corresponding ILP formulations.

$$VarS_{i} = \begin{cases} 1, \text{ if } S_{i} \text{ is chosen by ILP solver.} \\ 0, \text{ if } S_{i} \text{ is not chosen by ILP solver.} \end{cases}$$
(2)

 $VarPath_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1, \text{ if } Path_{i,j} \text{ is chosen by ILP solver.} \\ 0, \text{ if } Path_{i,j} \text{ is not chosen by ILP solver.} \end{cases}$ (3)

4.6.2 Existence Constraint

Each path in CAT(C) is a match for coefficient *C*; a math is composed of a set of fragments. Thus, if the $Path_{i,j}$ is chosen, every symbol in $SymSet(Path_{i,j})$ must be chosen. However, when every symbol in $SymSet(Path_{i,j})$ is chosen, the $Path_{i,j}$ may not be chosen. The existence constraint is used to ensure all symbols corresponding to the selected path are chosen into *A*. The formulation is as follows:

$$VarPath_{i,j} \le \min\{VarS_0, \dots, VarS_{n-1}\} \quad \forall Path_{i,j} | S \in SymSet(Path_{i,j})$$
(4)

4.6.3 Uniqueness Constraint

A CAT contains many paths while only one path should be chosen for a coefficient. It causes unnecessary area waste if more than one path is taken. The uniqueness constraint is used to make sure only one path to be decided in a coefficient. The uniqueness constraint should be accordingly formulated as:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{k_i-1} VarPath_{i,j} = 1$$
(5)

where k_i is total number of legal paths for i^{th} coefficient.

4.6.4 Objective Function

The objective of the ILP problem is to minimize total area including memory and CSA tree. Our proposed architecture has two-stage. First stage consists of a dual-port memory which stores all product values of the symbols in *A*. Since *VarS* is a 0-1 variable, we can calculate the area of memory by $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} (Area(S_i) \cdot VarS_i)$, where *m* is number of symbols in *A* and *Area*(*S_i*) is area cost of symbol *S_i* (more details will follow in Section 4.6.5). Similarly, *VarPath* is a 0-1 variable as well; then we determine the area cost of second stage by $\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sum_{j=0}^{k_i-1} (Area(Path_{i,j}) \cdot VarPath_{i,j})$, where *N* is number of coefficients, *k_i* is number of legal paths in *i*th coefficient, and *Area*(*Path_{i,j}*) is area cost of *Path_{i,j}* (more details will follow in Section 4.6.6). Finally, equation (6) is the cost function of the ILP problem.

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sum_{j=0}^{k_i-1} \left(Area(Path_{i,j}) \cdot VarPath_{i,j} \right) + \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \left(Area(S_i) \cdot VarS_i \right)$$
(6)

4.6.5 Area Cost of Path

In a CAT, each different path has different area cost but the area cost of each path can easily estimate. In the beginning, we calculate the bit-width of each support in CSA tree and then rank them in ascending order. Table 5 shows the schemes for different numbers of supports from three to six and the width of each CSA in CSA tree. An n-bit CSA consists of n disjoint full adders. In addition, one full adder requires two 4-input LUTs on FPGA. Therefore, the area cost of path can be estimated by multiplication of the total CSA bit-width with two.

#support	3	4	5	6
Scheme	O ₁ O ₂ O ₃ A ₁ -bit CSA	O ₁ O ₂ O ₃ O ₄ A ₁ -bit CSA A ₂ -bit CSA	O ₁ O ₂ O ₃ O ₄ O ₅ A ₁ -bit CSA A ₂ -bit CSA A ₃ -bit CSA	O ₁ O ₂ O ₃ O ₄ O ₅ O ₆ A ₁ -bit CSA A ₃ -bit CSA A ₄ -bit CSA
Bit-width	A ₁ = O ₃	A ₁ = O ₃ A ₂ =max{A ₁ +1, O ₄ }	A ₁ = O ₃ A ₂ =max{A ₁ +1, O ₄ } A ₃ =max{A ₂ +1, O ₅ }	$\begin{array}{l} A_1 = O_3 & A_2 = O_6 \\ A_3 = max\{A_1 + 1, A_2\} \\ A_4 = A_3 + 1 \end{array}$
LUTs	2*A ₁	2*(A ₁ +A ₂)	$2^{*}(A_{1}+A_{2}+A_{3})$	$2^{*}(A_{1}+A_{2}+A_{3}+A_{4})$

Table 5. Area cost for different numbers of supports.

4.6.6 Area Cost of Symbol

All product values of symbols in A are stored in dual-port memory. Two 4-input LUTs can be combined to a 32x1-bit memory, as shown in Figure 16. Therefore, a

- $2^{L}xW$ -bit dual-port memory is equivalent of $(\frac{2^{L}}{2^{4}} \times W) \times 2$ LUTs. For instance, a
- 2⁵x7-bit dual-port memory and 28 LUTs are equivalent.



Figure 16. An example of combining two LUTs into a 32x1 bit memory.

4.6.7 ILP example

In this section, we demonstrate an ILP example for coefficient set {1011, 10111}. In the beginning, $CAT(C_0)$ and $CAT(C_1)$ are constructed by the function

PCAT when *D* equals two and shown in Figure 17. Assume input word length is 10. According to $CAT(C_0)$ and $CAT(C_1)$, two kinds of constraints are listed below: Existence constraint:

$$\begin{aligned} &VarPath_{0,0} \leq \min\{VarS_{1}\}; &VarPath_{0,1} \leq \min\{VarS_{1}, VarS_{3}\}; \\ &VarPath_{0,2} \leq \min\{VarS_{5}, VarS_{1}\}; &VarPath_{0,3} \leq \min\{VarS_{9}, VarS_{1}\}; \\ &VarPath_{0,4} \leq \min\{VarS_{1}\}; &VarPath_{1,3} \leq \min\{VarS_{1}, VarS_{3}\}; \\ &VarPath_{1,0} \leq \min\{VarS_{1}, VarS_{3}\}; &VarPath_{1,1} \leq \min\{VarS_{1}, VarS_{3}\}; \\ &VarPath_{1,2} \leq \min\{VarS_{1}, VarS_{3}\}; &VarPath_{1,3} \leq \min\{VarS_{1}, VarS_{5}\}; \\ &VarPath_{1,4} \leq \min\{VarS_{1}, VarS_{7}\}; &VarPath_{1,5} \leq \min\{VarS_{2}, VarS_{1}\}; \\ &VarPath_{1,6} \leq \min\{VarS_{9}, VarS_{3}\}; &VarPath_{1,7} \leq \min\{VarS_{9}, VarS_{1}\}; \\ &VarPath_{1,6} \leq \min\{VarS_{17}, VarS_{3}\}; &VarPath_{1,12} \leq \min\{VarS_{17}, VarS_{1}\}; \\ &VarPath_{1,12} \leq \min\{VarS_{21}, VarS_{1}\}; &VarPath_{1,13} \leq \min\{VarS_{19}, VarS_{1}\}; \\ &VarPath_{1,14} \leq \min\{VarS_{23}\}; \\ \end{aligned}$$

Then, the objective which is shown in below is minimized

Objective:

 $26 VarPath_{0,0} + 26 VarPath_{0,1} + 28 VarPath_{0,2} + 28 VarPath_{0,3} + 0 VarPath_{0,4} + 52 VarPath_{1,0} + 52 VarPath_{1,1} + 54 VarPath_{1,2} + 54 VarPath_{1,3} + 28 VarPath_{1,4} + 50 VarPath_{1,5} + 54 VarPath_{1,6} + 54 VarPath_{1,7} + 56 VarPath_{1,8} + 54 VarPath_{1,9} + 56 VarPath_{1,10} + 30 VarPath_{1,11} + 30 VarPath_{1,12} + 60 VarPath_{1,13} + 0 VarPath_{1,14}.$

Finally, the ILP problem is solved by using ILP solver named Gurobi [19]. $VarPath_{0,4}$, $VarPath_{1,11}$, and $VarS_{11}$ are chosen by ILP solver. The total estimated area cost is 66 LUTs and the alphabet *A* contains S_{11} .



Chapter 5 Experimental Results

5.1 Experimental Environment

The proposed algorithm, GOSM, is implemented in C++/Linux environment. The experiments are run on a workstation with an Intel Xeon 2.4GHz CPU and 48GB RAM. The ILP solver which is used to find global optimal matches for coefficients is Gurobi 5.0 [19]. The FIR filter by GOSM method is described at RTL level using Verilog HDL. Based on Altera Stratix III device EP3SL50F484C2, synthesis and post-simulation are conducted with Quartus II 11.0 and ModelSim SE 6.3a.

Table 6 shows 8 FIR filters with 14-bit coefficient word length and Table 7 shows 8 FIR filters with 16-bit coefficient word length, where *#tap* is the number of coefficients and *Width* is the bit-width of filter coefficients. All filter coefficients are available in [20]. According to the bit-width of filter coefficients, we separate test cases into two groups. In each group, test cases are ranked in ascending order according to number of taps. Note that the minimum and maximum number of taps in Table 6 is 30 and 121, respectively. Similarly, the minimum and maximum number of taps in Table 7 is 20 and 279, respectively.

Filter Name	#tap	Width
AKSOY11_ECCTD_A30	30	14
AKSOY08_NORCHIP_C30	30	14
AKSOY08_NORCHIP_G40	40	14
AKSOY08_NORCHIP_A40	40	14
AKSOY08_NORCHIP_I40	40	14
SAMUELI89_60	60	14
LIMYU07_121	121	14
LIM83_121	121	14

Table 6. FIR filters with14-bit coefficient word length.

Table 7. FIR filters with 16-bit coefficient word length.

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2	Filter Name	#tap	Width	6
	MIRZAEI10_20	20	16	F
	KWENTUS97_47	47	16	
	AKSOY11_ECCTD_A60	60	16	
	AKSOY08_NORCHIP_B80	80	16	
	AKSOY11_ECCTD_B80	80	16	
	MIRZAEI10_151	151	16	
2	AKSOY07_A200	200	16	5
1	DAMPS_279_16	279	16	

5.2 Experimental Results for Different Width

Table 8 and Table 9 present the implementation results of FIR filters achieved by OMS and GOSM method. In these tables, *Delay* denotes the delay in *ns* in the critical path, *LUTs* denotes the required number of LUTs, and *Memory bits* denotes the utilization of total memory bits. Moreover, *Reduction rate* is percentage of (cost by OMS-cost by GOSM)/cost by OMS. The input bit-width of FIR filter is assumed to be the same with coefficient bit-width number and *D* is set as two. The delay of OMS method does not include the delay of address encoder because Stratix III only supports synchronous dual-port ROM. Thus, the actual delay of FIR filter by OMS method is larger.

The results of area-minimized MCM block are obtained by the ILP solver. For coefficient bit-width is 14 and 16, the maximum ILP time was 1.6s and 44.87s, respectively. It indicates the generated ILP problem is easily to be solved. It is obvious that the ILP time is affected by coefficient bit-width since long coefficient bit-width has more possible legal paths than short coefficient bit-width. Therefore, the ILP time of 16-bit coefficient is much longer than the ILP time of 14-but coefficient.

Observe from the results that FIR filter generated using GOSM clearly outperforms that by the exiting OMS method in terms of delay and area. As shown in Table 8, the maximum improvement of delay, LUTs, and memory bits are 21.34%, 55.68%, and 82.98%, respectively. Similarly, in Table 9, the maximum improvement of delay, LUTs, and memory bits are 21.79%, 57.25%, and 81.77%, respectively. The GOSM method has significant improvement of delay and LUTs since it replaces the overhead in OMS architecture such as barrel shifters and control circuits with CSA tree. Sharing common symbols among coefficients is considered in GOSM method so that memory bits can be markedly reduced; the reduction rate of memory bits is more prominent with increasing number of constant coefficients.

On average, the reduction rate of LUTs and memory bits in 14 bit-width do not have significant difference compared with in 16 bit-width while the reduction rate of delay tends to decline when bit-width changes from 14 to 16. The decline is caused by two factors. One is that the denominator of the reduction rate of delay will become large when bit-width increases because the delay of CPA is in positive correlation with coefficient bit-width. The other is that routing delay does not consider in GOSM. When one symbol is simultaneously shared by several coefficients, it leads to the increase of the routing complexity degree.

Filter (width=14)			OMS			GOSM		Re	duction	rate
Fil.	#tap	Delay (ns)	LUTs	Memory bits	Delay (ns)	LUTs	Memory bits	Delay (%)	LUTs (%)	Memory bits (%)
1	30	6.19	2846	16384	5.83	1484	9728	5.80	47.86	40.63
2	30	6.24	2761	15168	4.99	1313	8192	20.00	52.44	45.99
3	40	6.47	3717	20416	5.88	1726	8704	9.04	53.56	57.37
4	40	6.38	3794	21504	5.20	1900	9344	18.50	49.92	56.55
5	40	6.20	3742	20672	4.88	1766	10624	21.16	52.81	48.61
6	60	6.53	5124	27072	5.86	2271	4608	10.23	55.68	82.98
7	121	6.25	8952	43520	5.27	4723	14080	15.70	47.24	67.65
8	121	6.58	10017	51840	5.18	4971	13312	21.34	50.37	74.32
Avg.	60.25	6.35	5119.13	27072	5.39	2519.25	9824	15.22	51.24	59.26

Table 8. Results for width=14.

Table 9. Results for width=16.

								0		
Filter (widt	h=16)	OMS		GOSM			Reduction rate			
Fil.	#tap	Delay (ns)	LUTs	Memory bits	Delay (ns)	LUTs	Memory bits	Delay (%)	LUTs (%)	Memory bits (%)
1	20	6.38	1951	19200	4.99	834	12800	21.79	57.25	33.33
2	47	6.23	3030	30336	5.27	1310	17664	15.35	56.77	41.77
3	60	6.44	7111	72576	5.73	3275	36608	11.02	53.94	49.56
4	80	6.55	9502	97152	5.89	4482	47616	10.11	52.83	50.99
5	80	6.53	8598	83968	5.56	3960	29440	14.78	53.94	64.94
6	151	6.38	16105	156288	6.14	7554	31232	3.81	53.10	80.02
7	200	6.53	18775	173312	5.90	9459	50688	9.56	49.62	70.75
8	279	6.35	23484	200832	5.95	12393	36608	6.40	47.23	81.77
Avg.	114.63	6.42	11069.5	104208	5.68	5408.38	32832	11.60	53.08	59.14

5.3 Experimental Results for Different *D*

In this study, we compared the results of memory bits, LUTs, and delay for different D (from 1 to 3) as shown in Figure 18, Figure 19, and Figure 20, respectively. The bit-width of coefficient and input are 16-bit. The maximum

number of supports for a CSA tree grows as the number of D increases. It is easier to find common symbols among coefficients when the number of supports is big. Thus, the utilization of memory bits in all cases is in negative correlation with the number of D. On the other hand, delay in critical path and the required number of LUTs are in positive correlation with the number of D. Similarly, the required ILP time is affected by the number of D. When D equals 1, the maximum ILP time was 0.04s. However, the maximum ILP time was 447.14s when D equals 3. It is reasonable to expect that the ILP time tends to increase with increasing the number of D since CAT contains more legal paths.



Memory bits

Figure 18. Results of memory bits for different *D*.



Chapter 6 Conclusion

In this thesis, global optimal symbol match (GOSM) algorithm is proposed for minimizing the area of multiple constant multiplication (MCM) block. The key concept of GOSM is to share common symbols among coefficients. GOSM consists of two major parts. In the first part, we enumerate all possible legal paths and construct a coefficient assembly tree (CAT) for each coefficient. In order to find global optimal matches for coefficients, we formulate the problem using integer linear programming (ILP) and solve it by an ILP solver in the second part. Finally, memory only consists of product values of the symbols chosen by the ILP solver.

FIR filter generated using GOSM clearly outperforms that by the existing OMS method in terms of delay and area. The experimental results show that on average, GOSM achieves a reduction of more than 10% and 50% in delay and area, respectively. Moreover, GOSM is more flexible than OMS since it offers an adjustable upper bound to the level of CSA tree, which can help well control the delay. Therefore, FIR filters generated by GOSM are very suitable for high-speed DSP applications.

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