



# Chapter 9

## Algorithms and Architectures for Digital Processors



# Algorithm

- An algorithm is a sequence of processing steps that create and/or transform data objects in memory
- A step-by-step problem-solving procedure, especially an established, recursive computational procedure for solving a problem in a finite number of step
- Ex: In view of Mathematics, In view of computer system, In view of circuit system ...



# The notion of “algorithm”

## ● Algorithm

- Description of a procedure which is
  - ✓ finite (i.e., consists of a finite sequence of characters)
  - ✓ complete (i.e., describes all computation steps)
  - ✓ unique (i.e., there are no ambiguities)
  - ✓ effective (i.e., each step has a defined effect and can be executed in finite time)

## ● Desired properties of algorithms

- Correctness
  - ✓ For each input, the algorithm calculates the requested value
- Termination
  - ✓ For each input, the algorithm performs only a finite number of steps
- Efficiency
  - ✓ Runtime: The algorithm runs as fast as possible
  - ✓ Storage space: The algorithm requires as little storage space as possible



# A general-purpose machine

- A general-purpose machine, or processor, can be programmed to execute a variety of algorithms
- But its architecture might **not yield the highest performance** for a particular application
- Might be **underused** by some applications
- Might **not have a good balance** between the processor's speed and its input-output (I/O) throughput over the domain of application



# Compared to ASICs

- Compared to dedicated application-specific integrated circuits (ASICs)
- A **general-performance processor** might consume **more power, require more area, and have a higher cost** (depending on volume of sales)
- **ASIC chips sacrifice flexibility for performance**, because their architecture is fixed



# The two primary tasks of High-level design

1. It **constructs an algorithm** that realizes a behavioral specification
2. It **maps the algorithm into an architecture** that *implements the behavior in hardware*

## Notes:

- alternative algorithms may exhibit the same behavior
- Multiple architectures may implement a given algorithm



# Focus on

- (1) developing an algorithm processor** (i.e., a fixed architecture that implements a given algorithm)
- (2) exploring architectural tradeoffs** (both for a network of FUs and for fine-grained implementations of the FUs themselves)
- (3) developing Verilog descriptions** of the architectures, and
- (4) synthesizing the architectures**



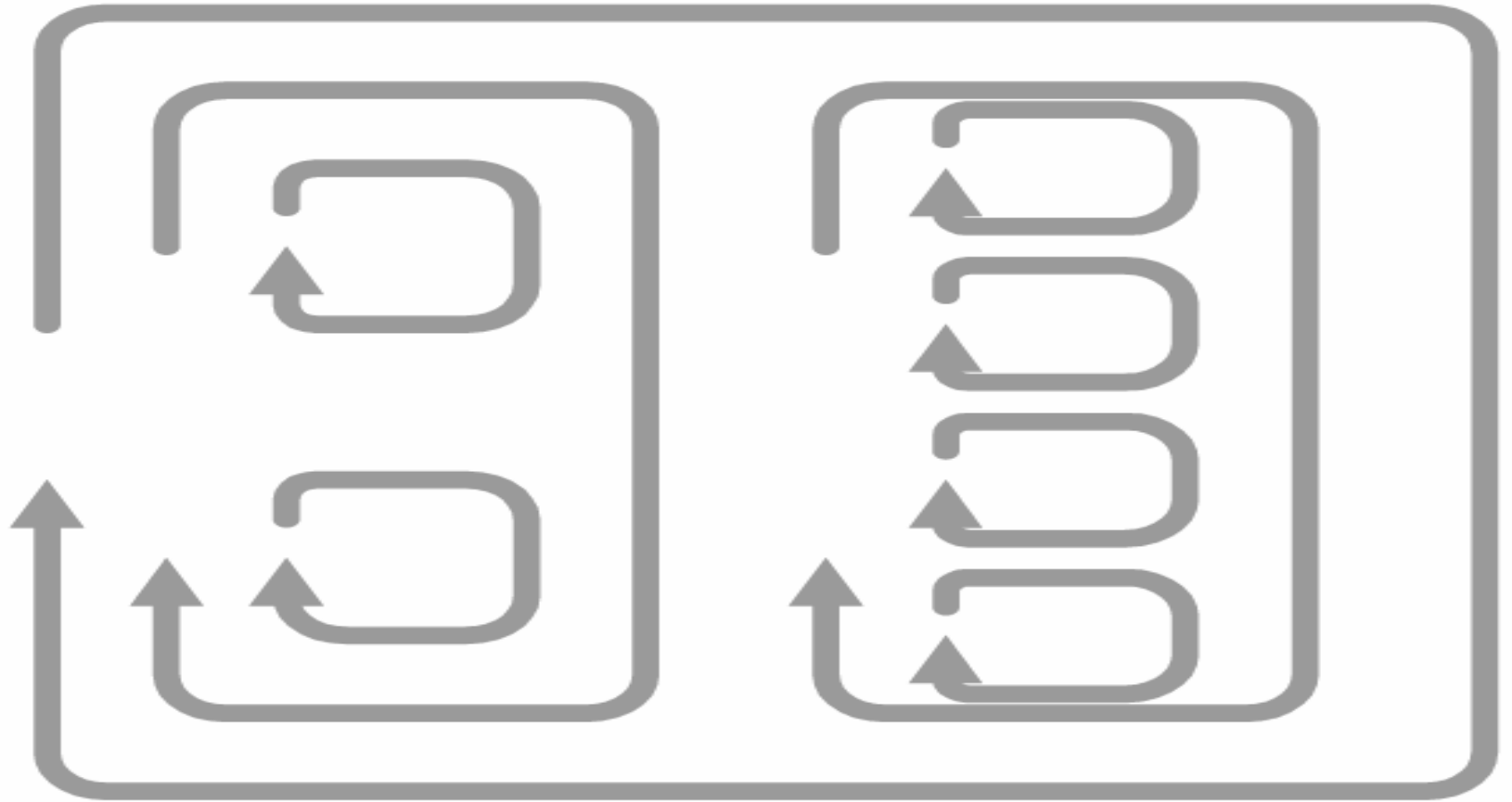
## 9.1 Algorithms, Nested-Loop Programs, and Data Flow Graphs

- Algorithmic processors are composed of FU, each executing in an environment of coordinated dataflow
- **A sequential algorithm can be described by a Nested-Loop Program (NLP)**
- NLP consists of a set of nested for loops, and a loop body written in a programming language such as C, in HDL





**A sequential algorithm consists of a set of nested for loops**





# DFG: Data Flow Graph

- The sequential ordering of operations and the dependencies of data in an NLP for an algorithm can be represented by a data flow graph (DFG)
- Language parsers **extract a DFG from an NLP or from an HDL-based behavioral description**
- **DFG is a key tool** in developing an architecture for an algorithmic processor and for its alternative equivalent architectures



# Data flow graph

- **DFG: data flow graph.**
- Does not represent control.
- Models basic block: code with one entry, exit.
- Describes the minimal ordering requirements on operations.



# Data flow graph

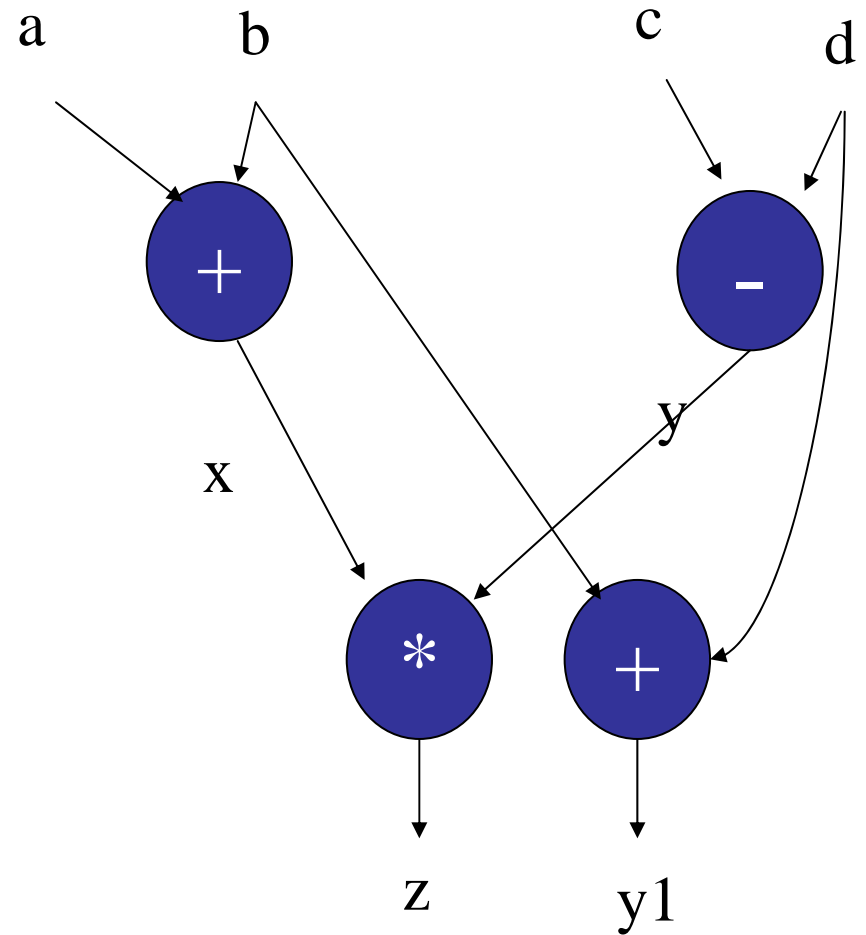
$x = a + b;$

$y = c - d;$

$z = x * y;$

$y1 = b + d;$

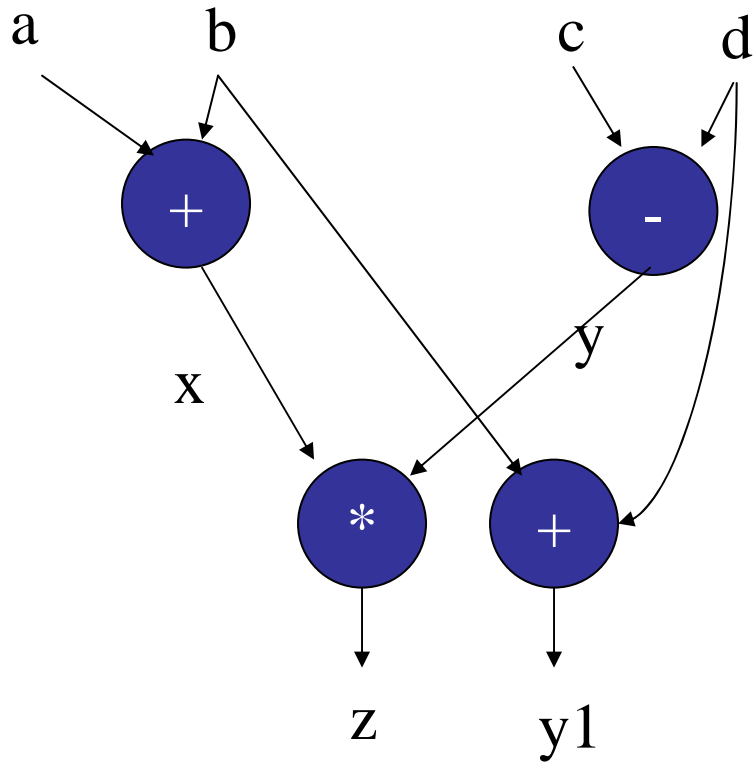
single assignment  
form



**DFG**



# DFGs and partial orders



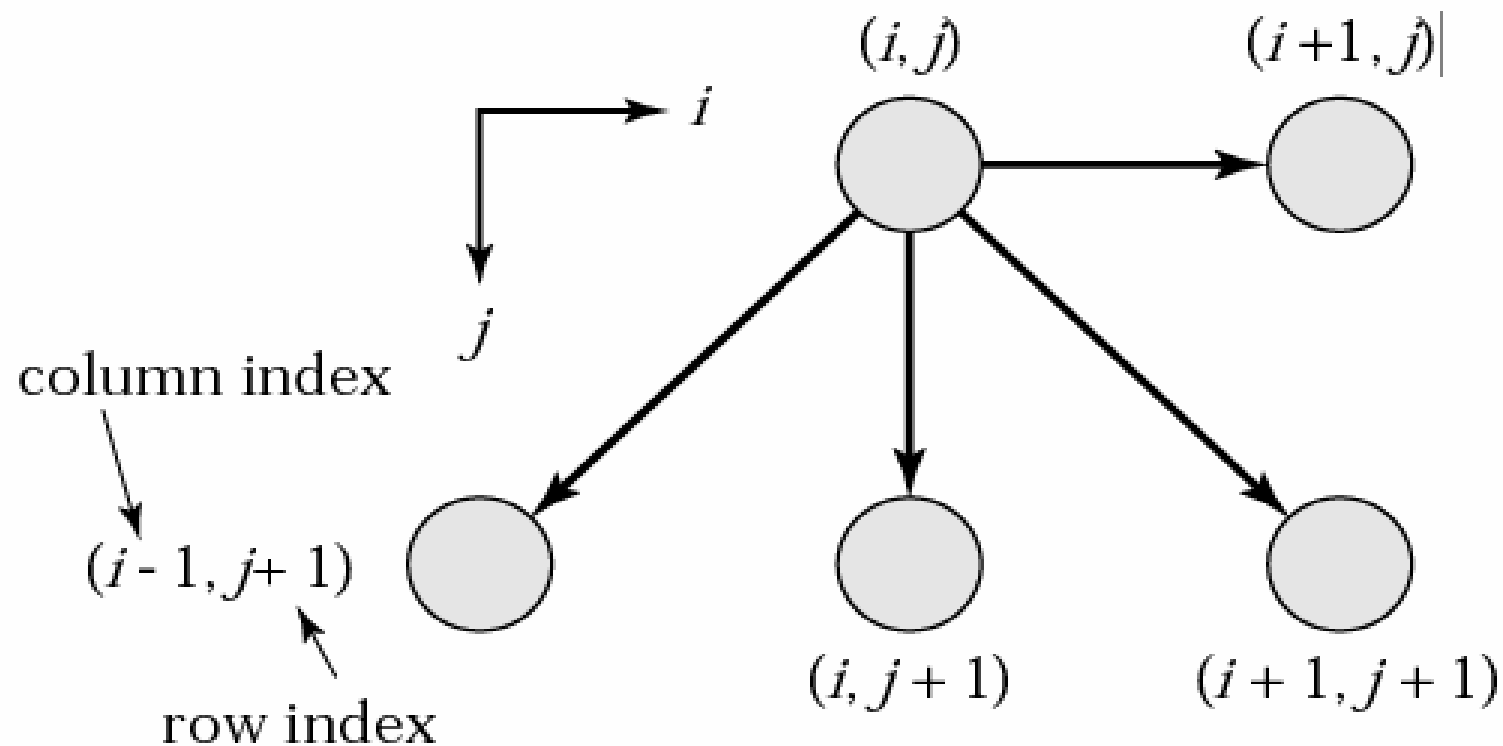
Partial order:

- $a+b$ ,  $c-d$ ;  $b+d$   $x*y$

Can do pairs of operations in any order.



# DFG





# A DFG is a directed acyclic graph

- **A DFG is a directed acyclic graph,  $G(V, E)$ ,** where:  $V$  is the set of nodes of the graph, and  $E$  is the set of edges of the graph
- **Each node represents a functional unit (FU),** which operates on its inputs (data) to produce its outputs
- **Each directed edge  $e_{ij}$  originates at a node  $v_i$  and terminates at node  $v_j$**
- **Given an edge  $e_{ij}$ , the data produced by node  $v_i$  is consumed by node  $v_j$**



# A data dependency exists between a pair of nodes

- A data dependency exists between a pair of nodes  $(e_i, e_j)$  corresponding to edge  $e_{ij}$ ,
  - If the functional unit  $v_j$  uses the results of functional unit  $v_i$
  - if the operation of  $v_j$  cannot begin until the operation of  $v_i$  has finished
- The DFG reveals the producers of data, the order in which the data will be generated, and the consumers of data
- It also exposes parallelism in the dataflow, opportunities for concurrent computation and has implications for the lifetime of variables





# The DFG's synthesis

- Beginning with the DFG, the high-level synthesis task of datapath allocation consists of **transforming the DFG of an algorithm into an architecture of processors, datapaths, and registers** from which a synthesizable register transfer level (RTL) model
- A baseline architecture that implements a given DFG can always **be formed as a set of FUs connected in a structure that is isomorphic to the DFG**

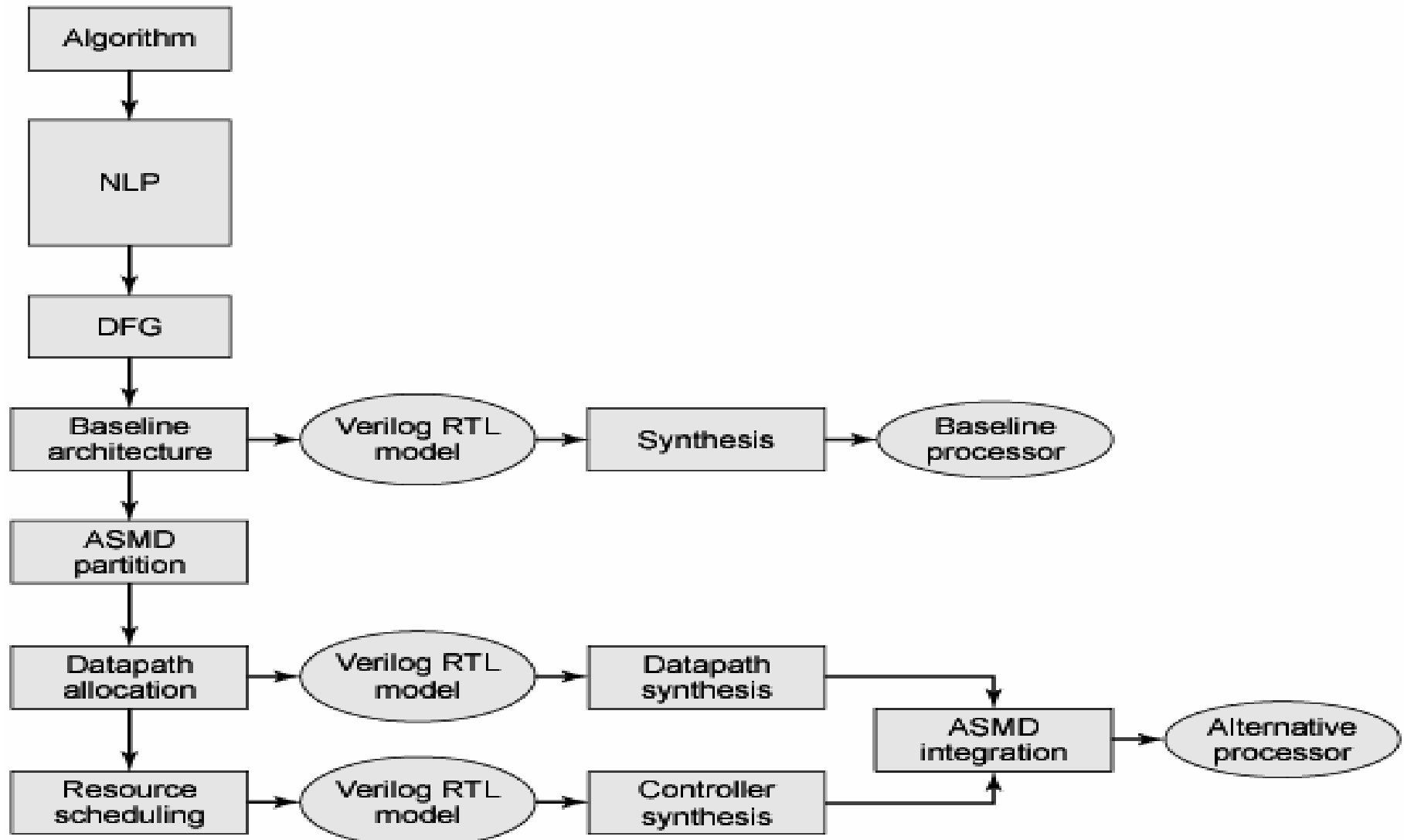


# Resource scheduling

- The high-level task of resource scheduling **assigns resources and a time slot to each node of a DFG.**
- Given the parallelism of a DFG, there are many schedules that could map nodes into time slots, creating several alternatives for realizing the corresponding algorithm in hardware
- **Scheduling must be conflict-free** (i.e., a resource cannot be allocated to multiple FUs in the same time slot)



**Figure 9-2 Design flow for algorithm-based synthesis of a sequential machine**





# Three general approaches

- Three general approaches are used to reorganize the baseline architecture obtained from the DFG:
  - **Re-composition**
  - **pipelining**
  - **Replication**



# Recomposition

- Recomposition segments the FU into a sequence of functions that execute one after the other to implement the algorithm
- The sequence of execution may be further **distributed over space (hardware units) and time**
- In **Space**, the DFG are mapped isomorphically to the FUs;
- In **Time**, a single FU executes over as many clock cycles as required to complete the operations represented by the DFG
- This approach saves hardware **by replicating the activity of a single FU over multiple time steps**, rather than using multiple processors that execute concurrently in a single step



# Pipelining

- Pipelining inserts registers into a datapath to shorten computational paths and thereby increase the throughput of a system
- Incurring a penalty in latency and the number of registers



# Replication

- In contrast to recomposition
- Replication uses multiple, identical, concurrently executing processors to improve performance
- But **at the expense of hardware**



## 9.3 Digital Filters and Signal Processors

- Digital signal processors (DSPs) are prominent
- In cellular phones, personal digital assistants, still-image cameras, video cameras, and video recorders
- They provide superior performance, at lower cost and lower power, as compared with analog circuits



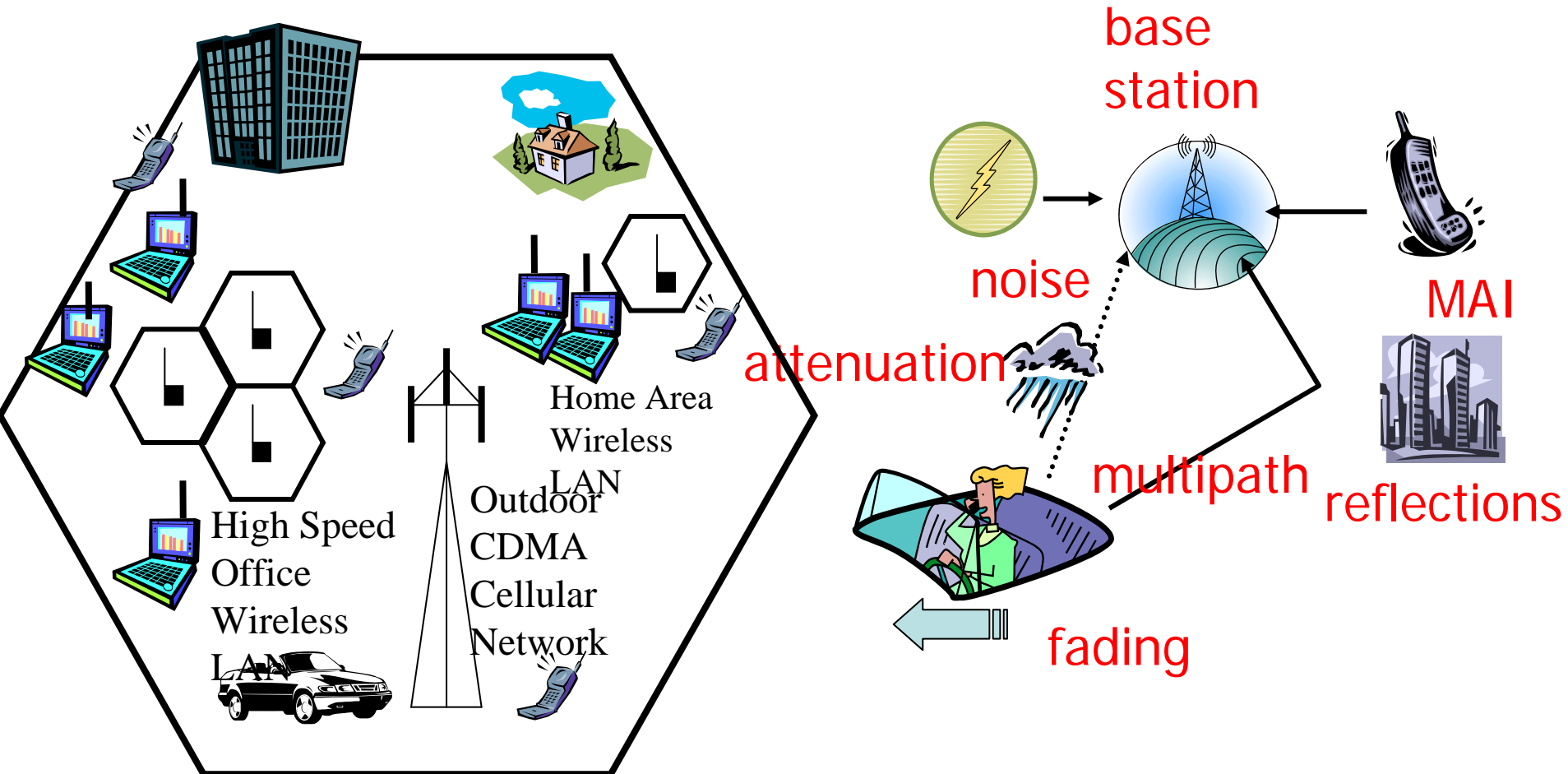


# What Is DSP?

- **Digital Signal Processing**
  - Techniques for Clarifying, Analyzing & Converting Information Signals by Digital Means
- **Digital Signal Processor** With Specialized Instructions & Hardware for DSP Applications
- Optimized For High-Performance, Repetitive and Numerically Intensive Tasks
- Hardware
  - Fixed & Floating Point Multipliers
  - Co-Processors
  - Special Memory Structures
    - Multiple Access Memories For Faster Computations

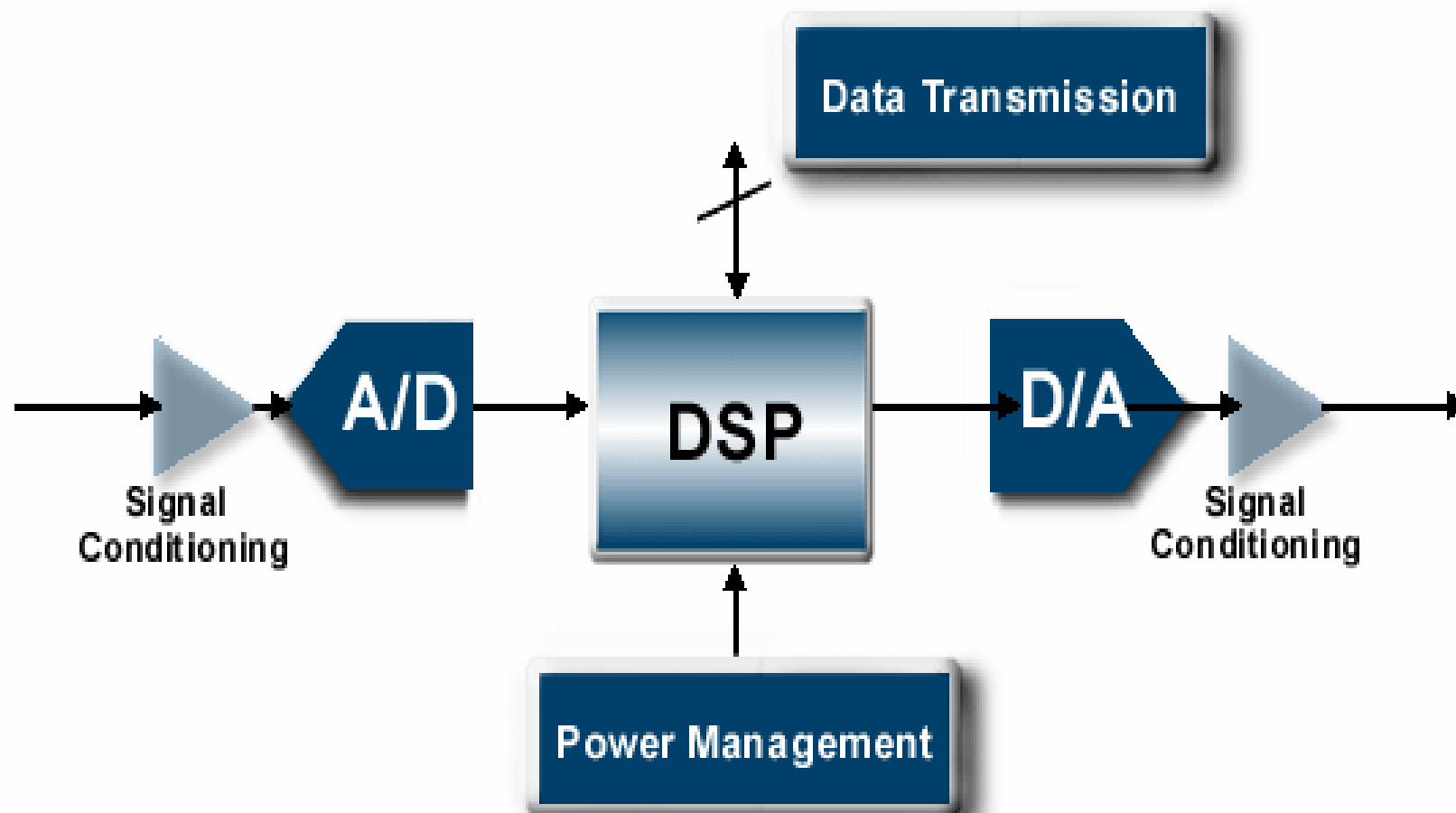


# Wireless Challenges: Higher data rates, lower power signals,....



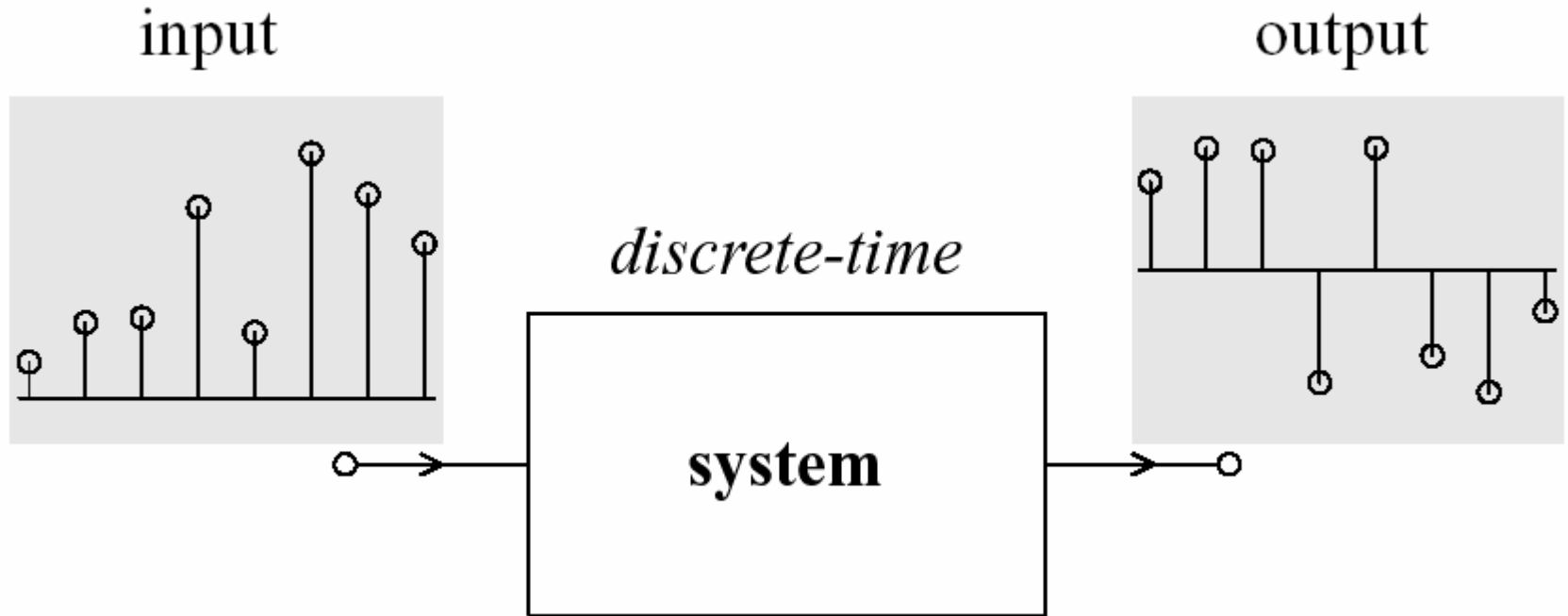


# DSP Solution





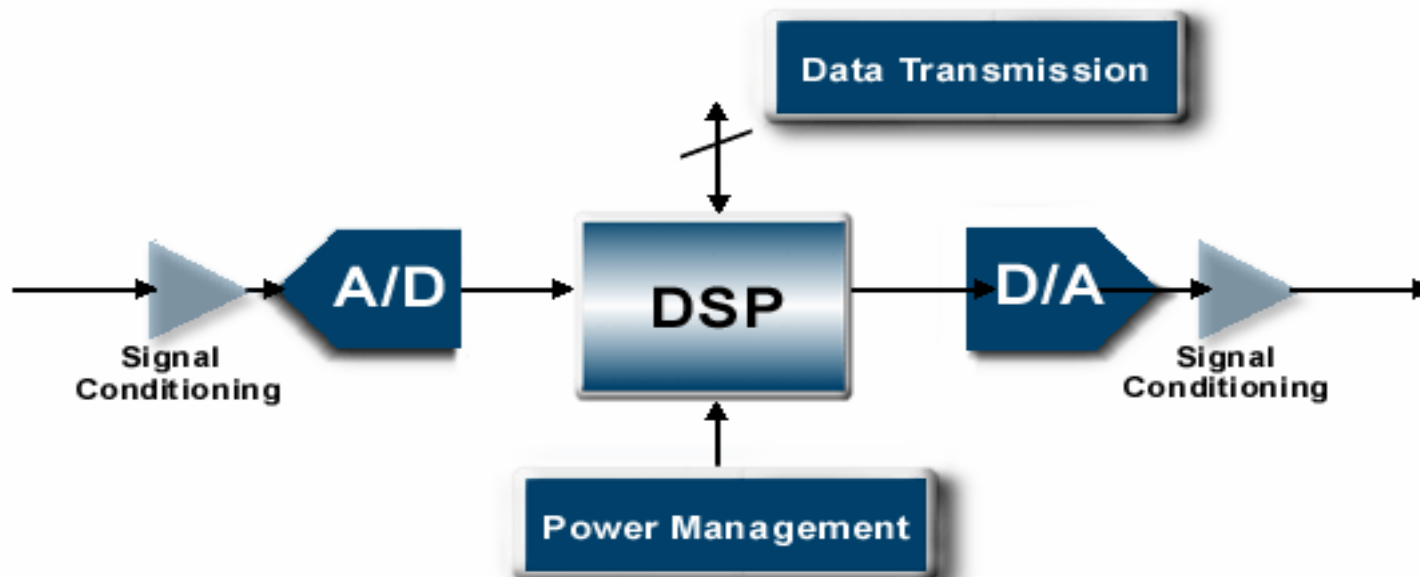
# Discrete-time system



***Discrete-time system*** has discrete-time input and output signals



# The basic components of a DSP system (add,multiply,delay)



$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] x[n-k]$$



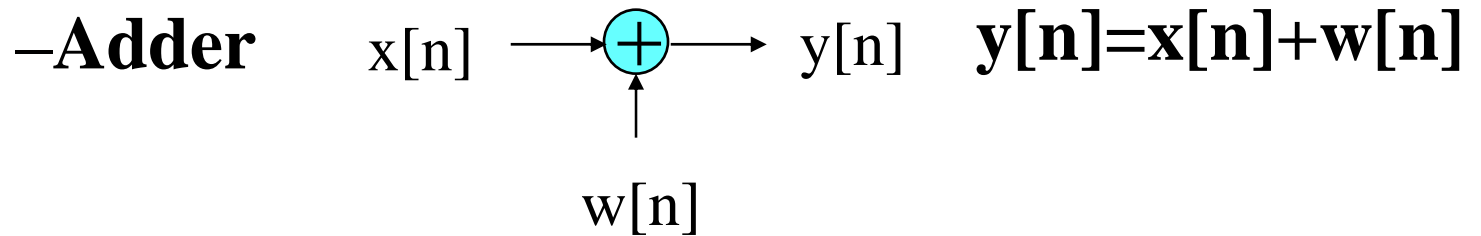
# DSPs operation

- **DSPs operate synchronously on fixed-word-length samples of data** that arrive at regular intervals of time
- The instruction sets of a DSP typically includes the **two most fundamental arithmetic operations:**
- **Multiplication** and **Addition (Accumulation)**, commonly referred to as **Multiply and ACcumulate (MAC)**
- MAC functional units must be implemented efficiently and must give high performance

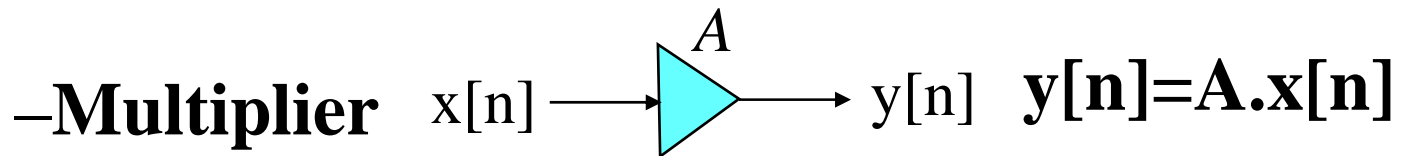


# Basic Operations

- **Addition operation:**



- **Multiplication operation**

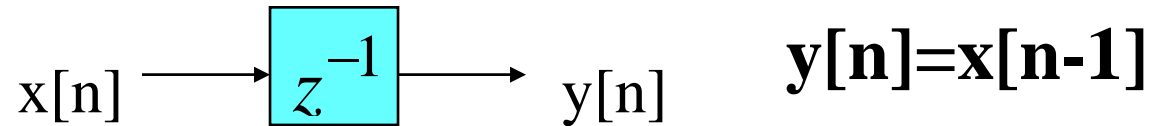




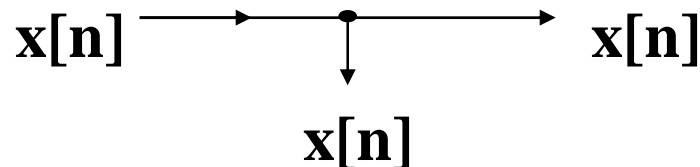
# Basic Operations

- **Time-shifting operation, where  $N$  is an integer**

–Unit delay



- **Branching operation: Used to provide multiple copies of a sequence**



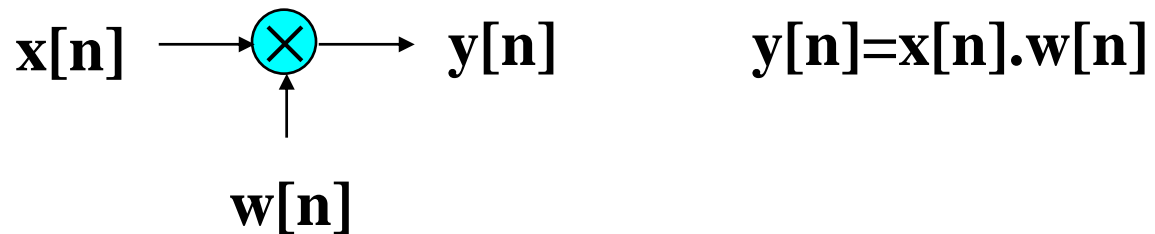




# Another Basic Operation

- Product (modulation) operation:

## Modulator

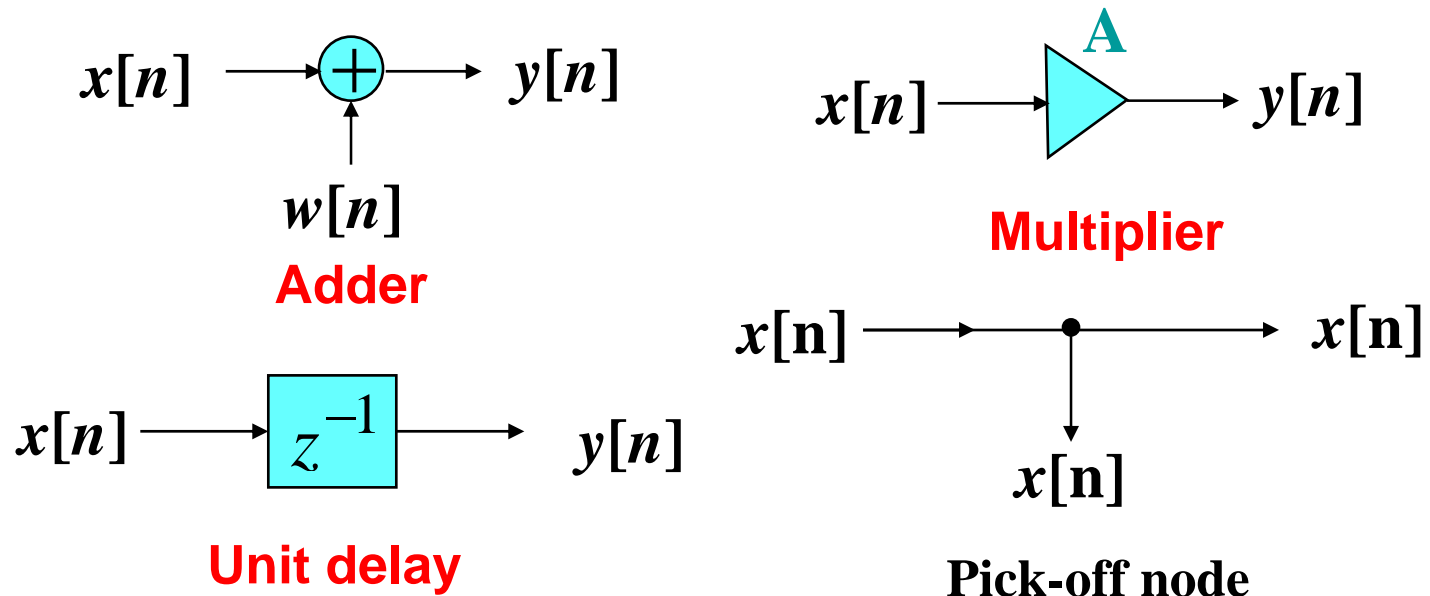


- An application is in forming a finite-length sequence from an infinite-length sequence by multiplying the latter with a finite-length sequence called an **window sequence**
- The process is called **windowing**



# Basic Building Blocks

- The computational algorithm of **an LTI digital filter** can be conveniently represented in block diagram form using the basic building blocks shown below





# The general algorithms of DSP's

- To consider the use of Verilog to model functional units that :
- **Encode of signals**
- **Transmition of signals**
- **Transformation of signals**
- **Filtering of signals**
- **Correlation of signals**
- **Convolution of signals**



# The implementation of DSPs

Three ways:

① **Hardware**

② **Software**

③ **Combination of both**

- execute a DSP algorithm on a general-purpose processor
- execute a DSP algorithm on a special purpose, hardwired, high performance, customized processor



# Choosing an FPGA: Practical considerations Harry

Joseph Fourier



What is a  
microprocessor?

Leonhard Euler

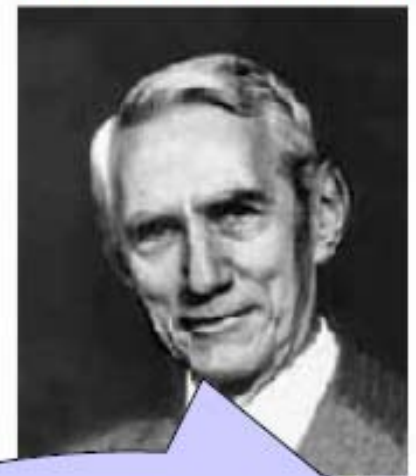


But what is the  
**FPGA?**

Harry Nyquist



Claude Shannon



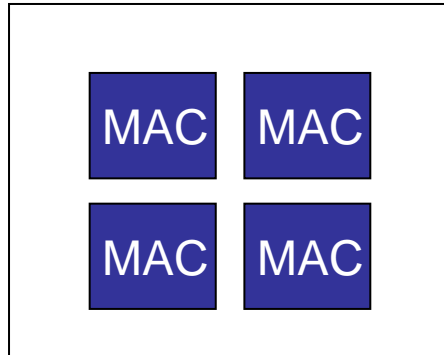
That's easy! You'll be  
a software guru in no  
time

FPGA-based implementation requires a unique set  
of skills not often found in the DSP community



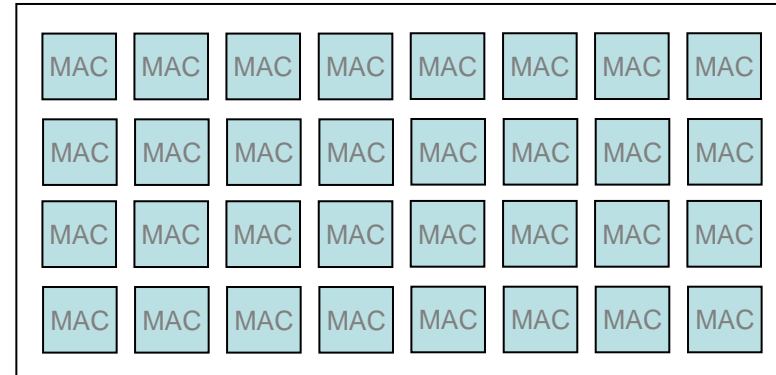
# DSP Processors vs. FPGAs

## High Speed DSP Processor



- **1-8 Multipliers**
  - Needs looping for more than 8 multiplications
- **Needs multiple clock cycles because of serial computation**
  - **200 Tap FIR Filter would need 25+ clock cycles** per sample with an 8 MAC unit processor

## High Level of Parallel Processing in FPGA



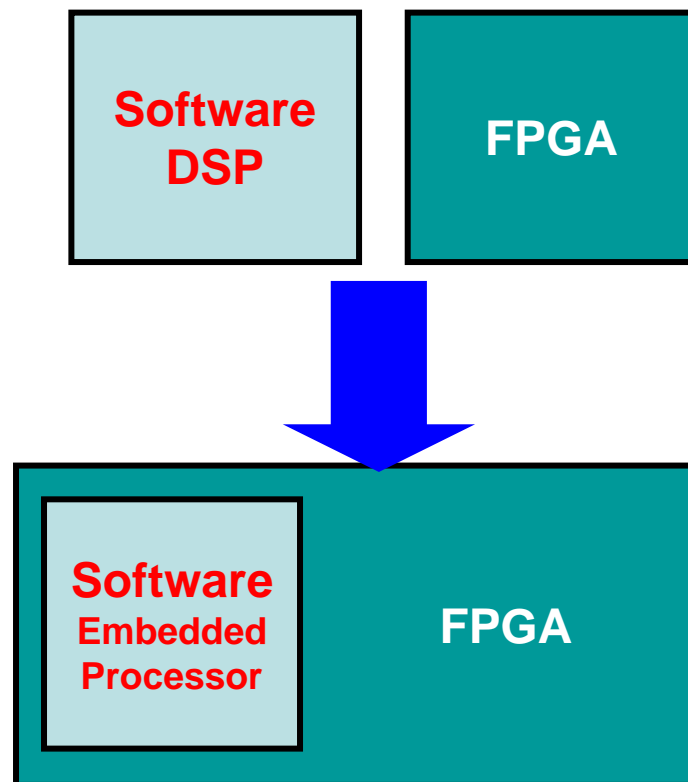
- **Can implement hundreds of MAC functions in an FPGA**
- **Parallel implementation allows for faster throughput**
  - **200 Tap FIR Filter would need 1 clock cycle** per sample



# Why Use FPGAs in DSP Applications?

- 10x More DSP Throughput Than DSP Processors
  - Parallel vs. Serial Architecture
- Cost-Effective for Multi-Channel Applications
- Flexible Hardware Implementation
- Single-Chip Solution
  - System (Hardware/Software) Integration Benefits

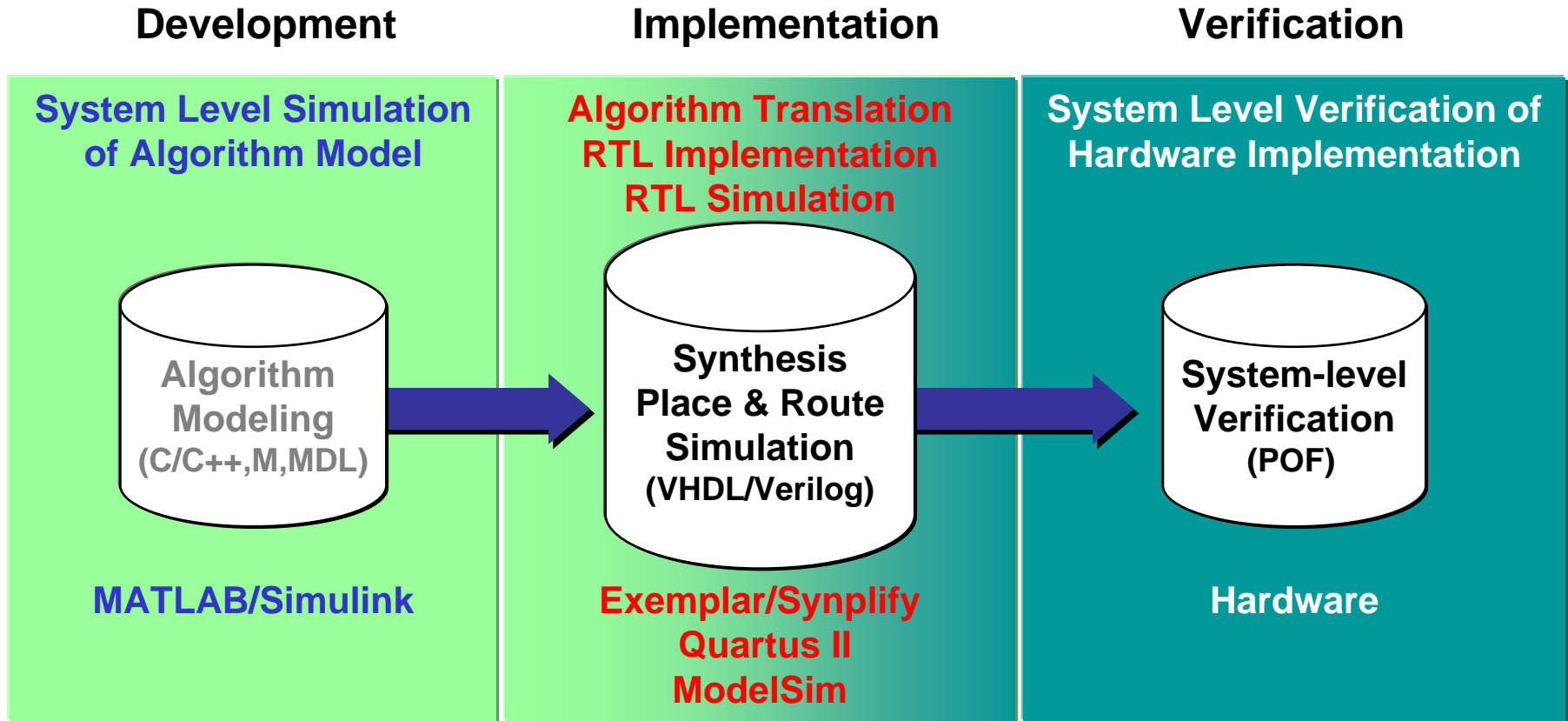
## *DSP System*





# DSP Design Flow in FPGA

- System Algorithm Design & FPGA Design Separate

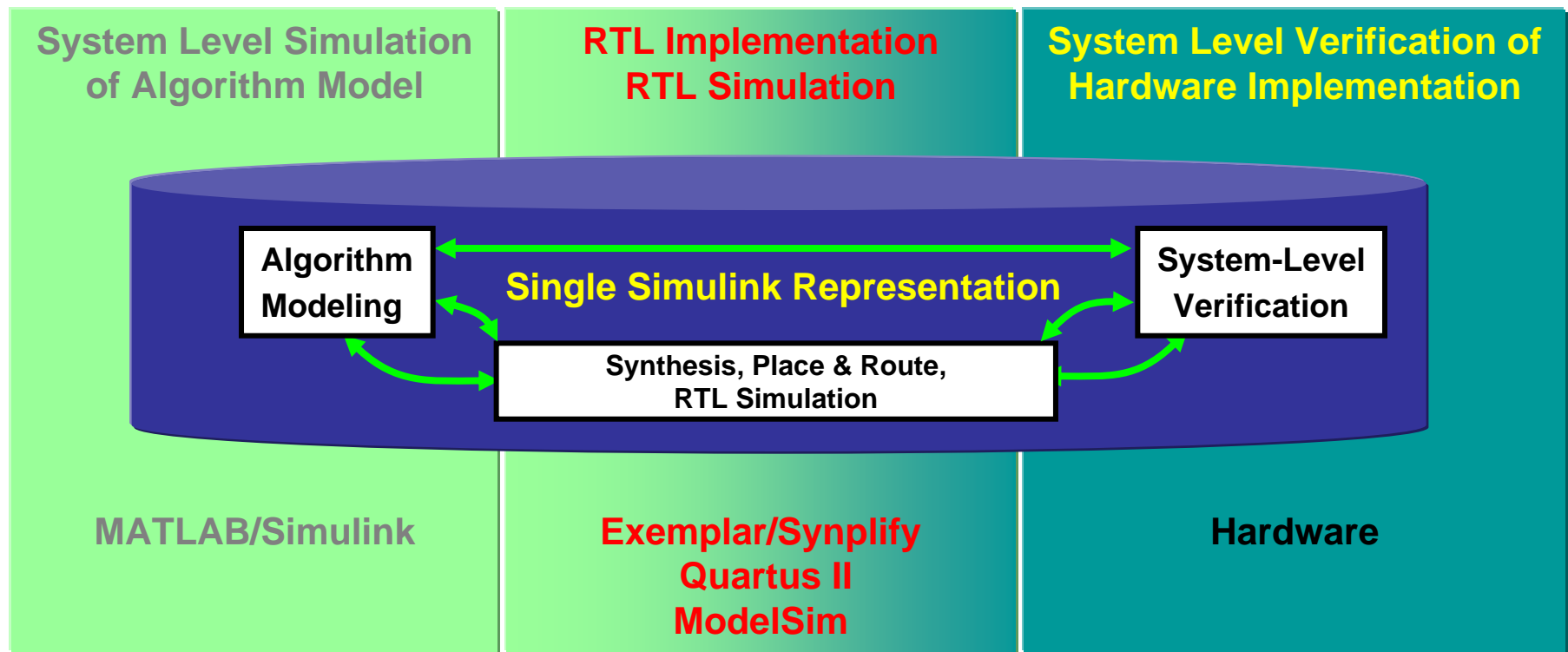






# Integration Using **DSP Builder**

- System Algorithm Design & FPGA Design Integrated  
Development Implementation Verification





# The general algorithms of DSP's

- To consider the use of Verilog to model functional units that :
  - **Filtering of signals**
  - **Encode of signals**
  - **Transmition of signals**
  - **Transformation of signals**
  - **Correlation of signals**
  - **Convolution of signals**



# Digital filters

- A digital filter is essentially “a system designed to extract information about a prescribed quantity of interest from noisy data”.

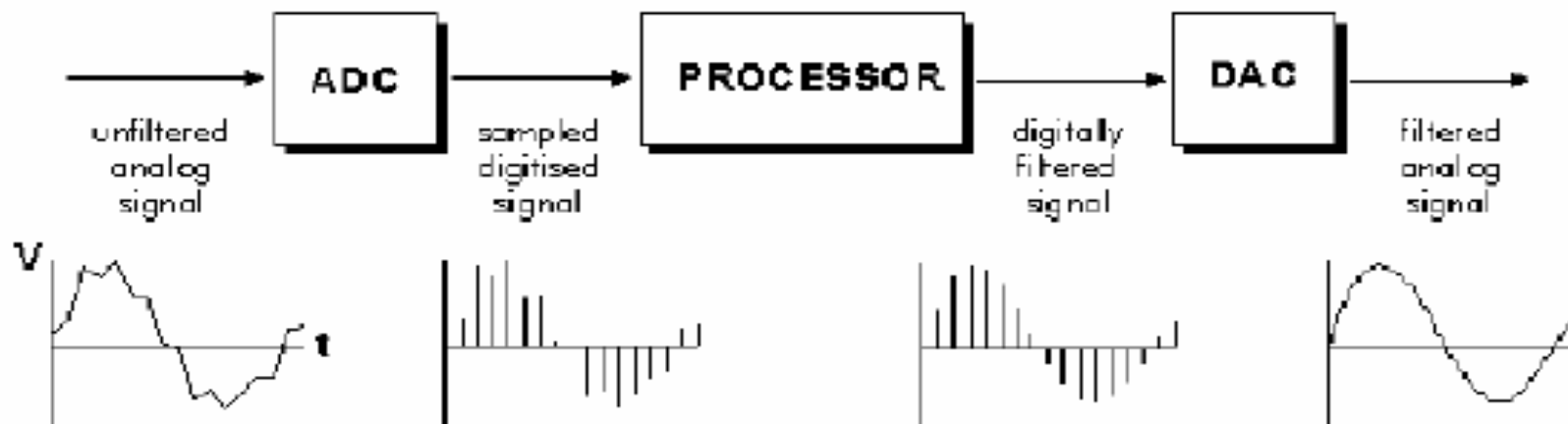


- Characterization of digital filters:
  - Impulse response
  - Transfer function
  - Frequency response



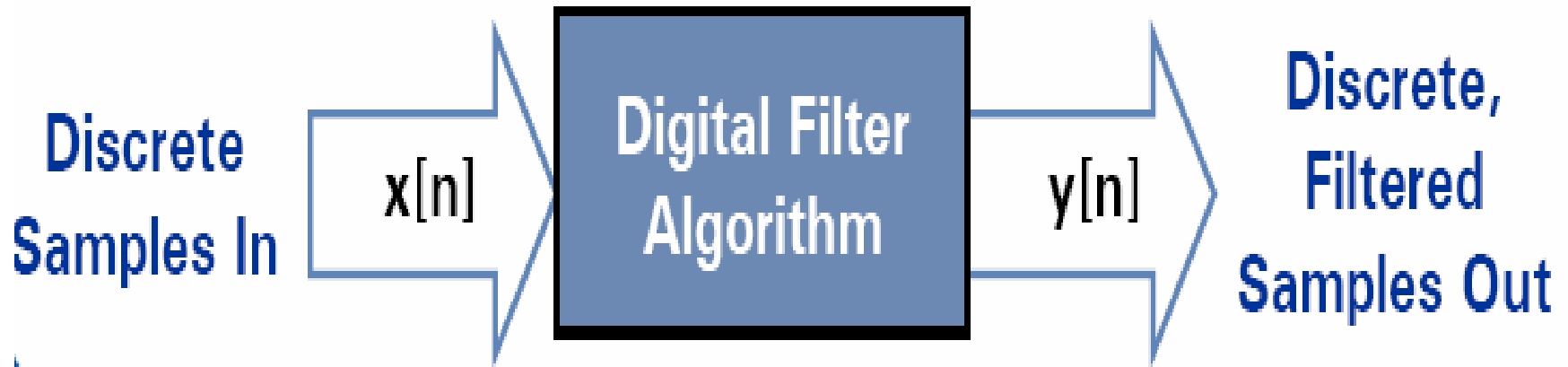
# Digital filters

- To remove noise and other unwanted signal components and to shape the spectrum characteristics of the resulting signal
- To operate on a finite-precision digital representation of a signal
- Design must consider **finite word length effects** that result from the **representation of the signal samples**, the **weighting coefficients of the filter**, and **the arithmetic operations** performed by the filter





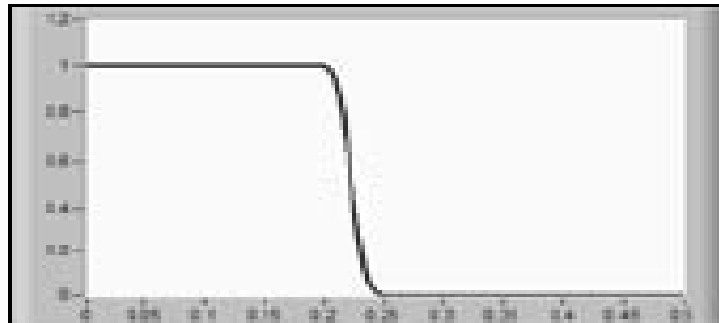
# What is the Digital Filter ?



- **As a function of some combination of**
  - – **Current input samples**
  - – **Past input samples**
  - – **Past output samples**



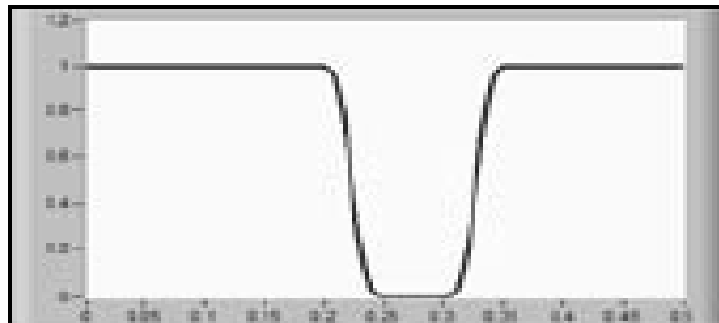
# Filters alter the frequency spectrum of an input signal



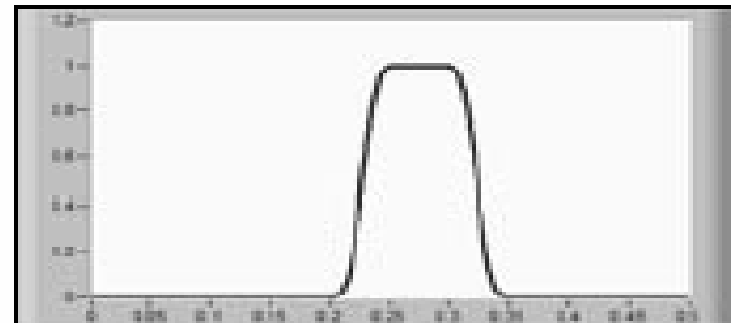
**Lowpass**



**Highpass**



**Bandstop**



**Bandpass**



# The constraint

- A DSP unit is **constrained by the physical technology** in which it is implemented, which fundamentally **limits the speed** and also **determines the physical area**
- A DSP may be constrained **by the number of channels of data, the rate at which data are exchanged** with the machine's environment, and **the size of the input and output words**



# DSP's distributed spatially & temporally

- The operations of a DSP unit can be distributed **spatially or temporally**, depending on whether the unit executes its operations in a single cycle of the clock or over multiple cycles
- **In space**, the hardware resources must complete the operation within the period of the clock
- **In time**, the machine operates on part of the data word in each clock cycle, so that the capacity and performance of the individual operational units can be relaxed





# Distributing operations over the temporal axis

- Distributing operations over the temporal axis allows the machine to operate with higher throughput, but at the expense of a latency between the arrival of data and the availability of the results
- Latency can be tolerated in many applications, such as in digital communications.



# Digital filter design

- **Digital filter design** is a process in which we **construct a digital hardware or a program (software) that meets the given specification**
- The design starts with the **specification**, and it consists of four basic steps:
  - **approximation**
  - **realization**
  - **study of imperfections**
  - **implementation**

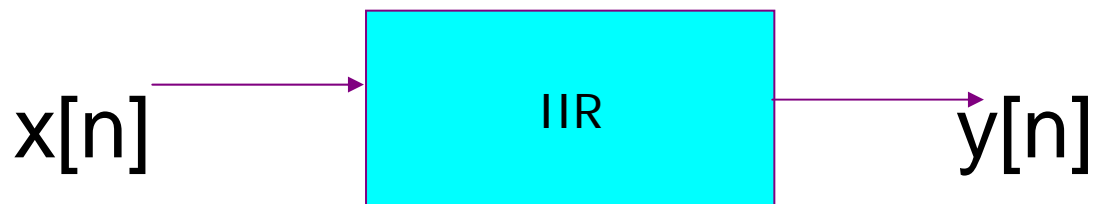


# The kinds of digital filter

- FIR: finite-duration impulse response



- IIR: infinite-duration impulse response





# FIR and IIR Filters

- Digital filter's two important characteristics:

## Causality and Linear phase

- *FIR (Finite Impulsive Response):*

it is a **non-recursive** filter. Output depends **only on present and previous inputs**; its impulse response has **a finite impulse response for  $n > M > 0$** , Integer number  $M$  is called the length of impulse response

- *IIR(Infinite Impulsive Response):*

it is a recursive filter. **Output depends on one or more previous output values**



# FIR, IIR Digital Filter

- Let  $\{h[n]\}$ : impulse response  
 $\{x(n)\}$ : input,  $\{y(n)\}$ : output
- Finite impulse response (FIR) filter:

$$y(n) = \sum_{j=0}^{J-1} h(j)x(n-j)$$

- Computation is the same as convolution.
- Impulse input:  
$$\delta(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & n = 0, \\ 0 & n \neq 0. \end{cases}$$
  
if  $x(n)=\delta(n)$ ,  $y(n)=h(n)$  is the impulse response that has finite extent.

- Infinite impulse response (IIR) filter

$$y(n) = \sum_{i=1}^P a(i)y(n-i) + \sum_{k=0}^Q b(k)x(n-k)$$

- The length of  $\{y(n)\}$  may be infinite!
- Recursive formula will impact on computation methods
- Stability concerns:
  - The magnitude of  $y(n)$  may become infinity even all  $x(n)$  are finite!
  - coefficient values,
  - quantization error



# The distinctions between the two types of filters

- The distinction between the two types of filters is that FIR filters cannot accumulate **round-off error**;
- IIR filters can accumulate round-off error as the output is successively passed through the filter



# Advantages of FIR filters

- FIR filters are **simple to design**;
- they are guaranteed to be bounded input-bounded output (BIBO) **stable**.
- FIR filter can be guaranteed to have **linear phase**.
- FIR filters also have **a low sensitivity to filter coefficient quantization errors**.

$$y(n) = \sum_{j=0}^{J-1} h(j)x(n-j)$$



# Advantages of IIR filters

- IIR filters are useful for high-speed designs because they typically require a lower number of multiplies compared to FIR filters.
- IIR filters can be designed to have a frequency response that is a discrete version of the frequency response of an analog filter.

$$y(n) = \sum_{i=1}^P a(i) y(n-i) + \sum_{k=0}^Q b(k) x(n-k)$$





# FIR & IIR Filter Design

- FIR filters
  - Linear-phase FIR filters
  - FIR design by optimization  
Weighted least-squares design, Minimax design
  - FIR design in practice  
‘Windows’, Equiripple design, Software (Matlab,...)
- IIR filters
  - Poles and Zeros
  - IIR design by optimization  
Weighted least-squares design, Minimax design
  - IIR design in practice  
Analog IIR design : Butterworth/Chebyshev/elliptic  
Analog->digital : impulse invariant, bilinear transform,...  
Software (Matlab)

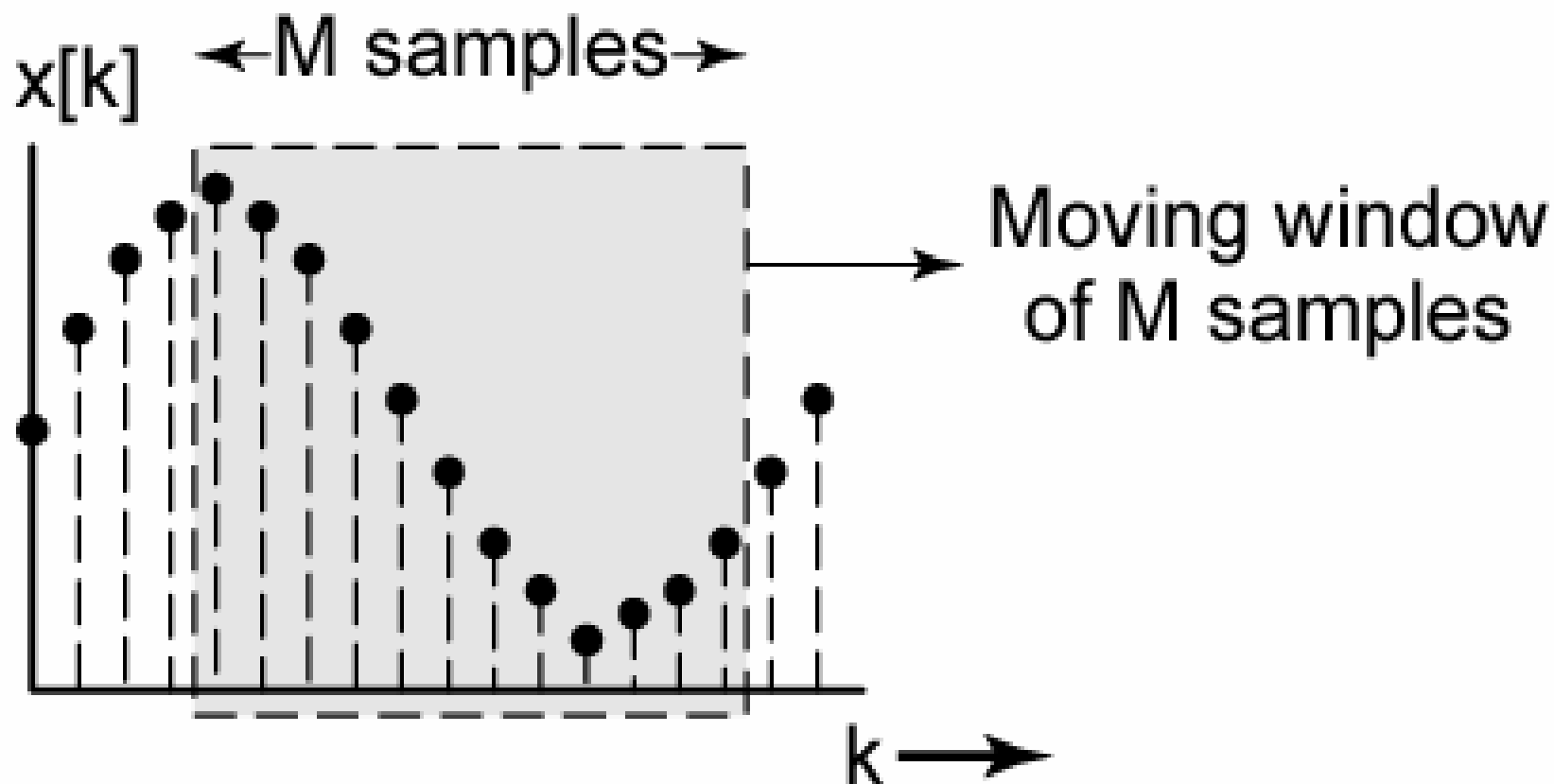


## 9.3.1 Finite-Duration Impulse Response (FIR) Filter

- A FIR digital filter forms its **output as a weighted sum of present and past samples of its input**
- FIR filters are called **moving average filters** because their output at any time index depends on a window containing only the most recent M samples of the input
- Because its **response depends on only a finite record of inputs**, a FIR filter will have a finite-length, nonzero response to a discrete-time impulse



**Fig 9-21 a window containing only the most recent  $M$  samples of the input**





# Basic FIR Digital Filter Structures

- A causal FIR filter of order  $N$  is characterized by a transfer function  $H(z)$  given by

$$H(z) = \sum_{n=0}^N h[n]z^{-n}$$

which is a polynomial in  $z^{-1}$

- In the time-domain , A FIR digital filter forms its output as a weighted sum of present and past samples of its input
- The input-output relation of the above FIR filter is given by

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=0}^N h[k]x[n-k]$$



# FIR Filters

FIR filter = finite impulse response filter

$$H(z) = \frac{B(z)}{z^N} = b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + \dots + b_N z^{-N}$$

- Also known as **‘moving average filters’ (MA)**
- N poles at the origin  $z=0$  (hence guaranteed stability)
- N zeros (zeros of  $B(z)$ ), ‘all zero’ filters
- corresponds to difference equation

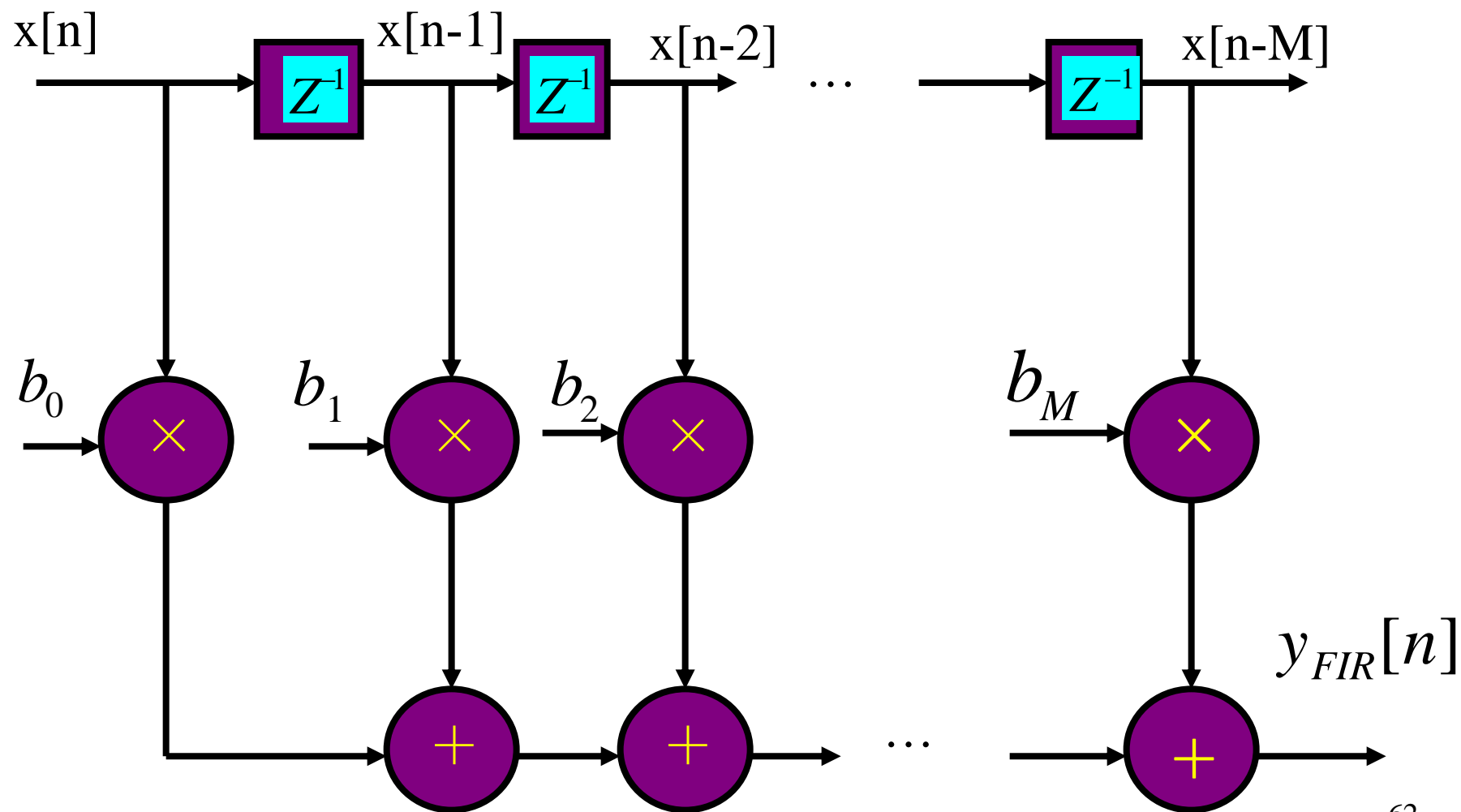
$$y[k] = b_0 \cdot u[k] + b_1 \cdot u[k-1] + \dots + b_N \cdot u[k-N]$$

- impulse response

$$h[0] = b_0, h[1] = b_1, \dots, h[N] = b_N, h[N+1] = 0, \dots$$



**Fig 9.22 Functional block diagram for an Mth-order FIR digital filter**





# An $M$ th order FIR

- An  $M$ th order FIR will have  $M+1$  taps
- The adders and multipliers of the filter **must be fast enough to form  $y[n]$  before the next clock**, and at each stage they must be sized to accommodate the width of their datapaths
- In applications in which numerical accuracy is a driving consideration, **lattice architectures** may reduce the effects of finite word length, but at the expense of increased computational cost



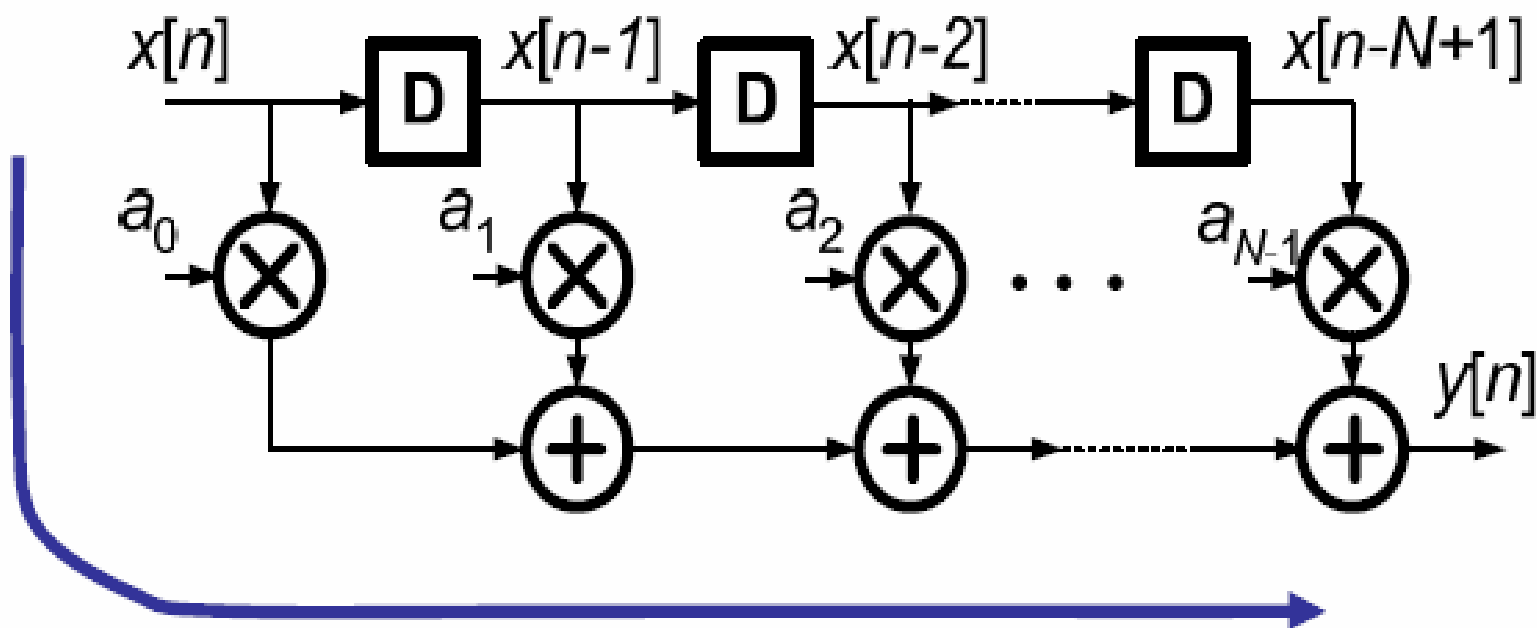
# In most applications

- The goal of the implementation is to do the filtering as fast as possible to achieve the highest sampling frequency
- **The longest signal path through the combinational logic includes  $M$  stages of addition and one stage of multiplication**





# The longest signal path : Critical Path



$$T = T_{mult} + (N-1)T_{add}$$



# The architecture of a FIR

- **The architecture consists of a shift register, multipliers, and adders implementing an Mth-order FIR**
- **The datapaths must be wide enough** to accommodate the output of the multipliers and adders
- The samples are encoded as finite-length words, then shifted in parallel through a series of M registers
- A cascaded chain of MACs form the machine



# Linear Phase FIR Filters

Type-1

$N=2L=\text{even}$   
symmetric  
 $h[k]=h[N-k]$

$$e^{-j\omega N/2} \sum_{k=0}^L d_k \cdot \cos(\omega \cdot k)$$

LP/HP/BP

Type-2

$N=2L+1=\text{odd}$   
symmetric  
 $h[k]=h[N-k]$

$$e^{-j\omega N/2} \cos\left(\frac{\omega}{2}\right) \sum_{k=0}^L d_k \cdot \cos(\omega \cdot k)$$

zero at  $\omega = \pi$   
LP/BP

Type-3

$N=2L=\text{even}$   
anti-symmetric  
 $h[k]=-h[N-k]$

$$j e^{-j\omega N/2} \sin\left(\frac{\omega}{2}\right) \sum_{k=0}^{L-1} d_k \cdot \cos(\omega \cdot k)$$

zero at  $\omega = 0, \pi$   
BP

Type-4

$N=2L+1=\text{odd}$   
anti-symmetric  
 $h[k]=-h[N-k]$

$$j e^{-j\omega N/2} \sin\left(\frac{\omega}{2}\right) \sum_{k=0}^L d_k \cdot \cos(\omega \cdot k)$$

zero at  $\omega = 0$   
HP

PS: 'modulating' Type-2 with 1,-1,1,-1,... gives Type-4 (LP->HP)

PS: 'modulating' Type-4 with 1,-1,1,-1,... gives Type-2 (HP->LP)

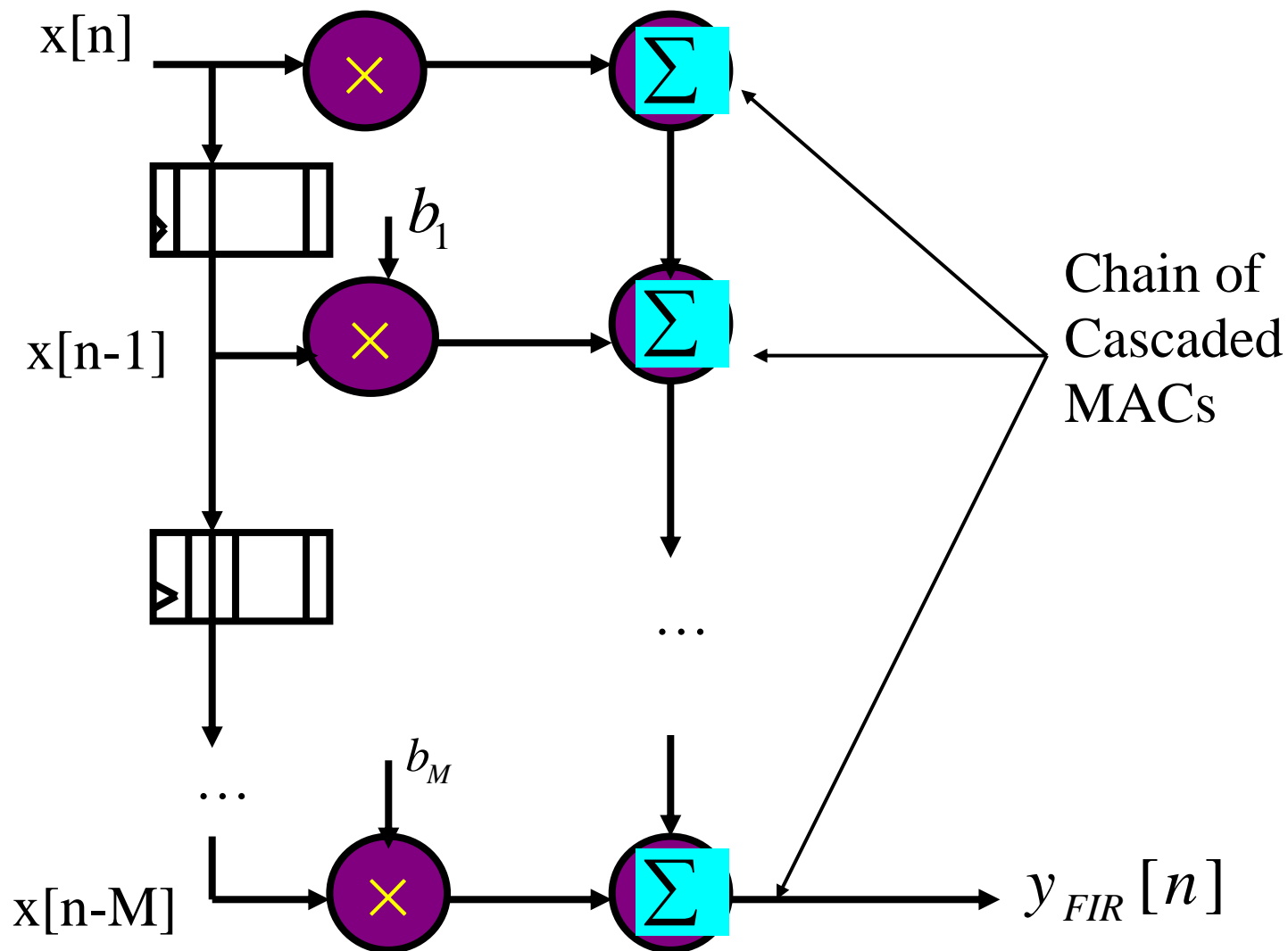
PS: 'modulating' Type-1 with 1,-1,1,-1,... gives Type-1 (LP<->HP)

PS: 'modulating' Type-3 with 1,-1,1,-1,... gives Type-3 (BP<->BP)

PS: IIR filters can NEVER have linear-phase property ! (proof see literature)

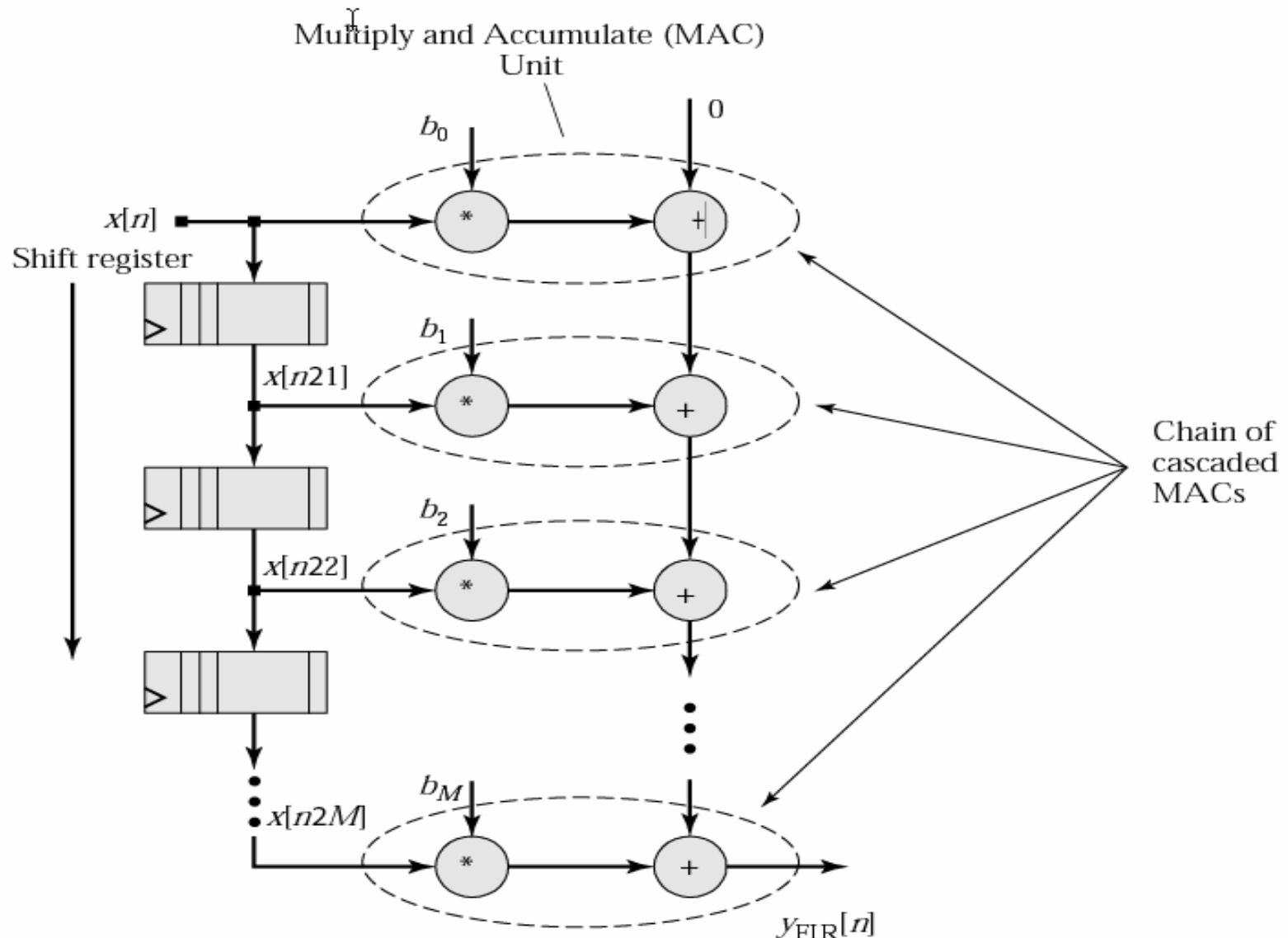


# Fig 9-23 MAC-based architecture for a type-I, Mth-order FIR filter





# Fig 9-23 MAC-based architecture for a type-I, Mth-order FIR filter





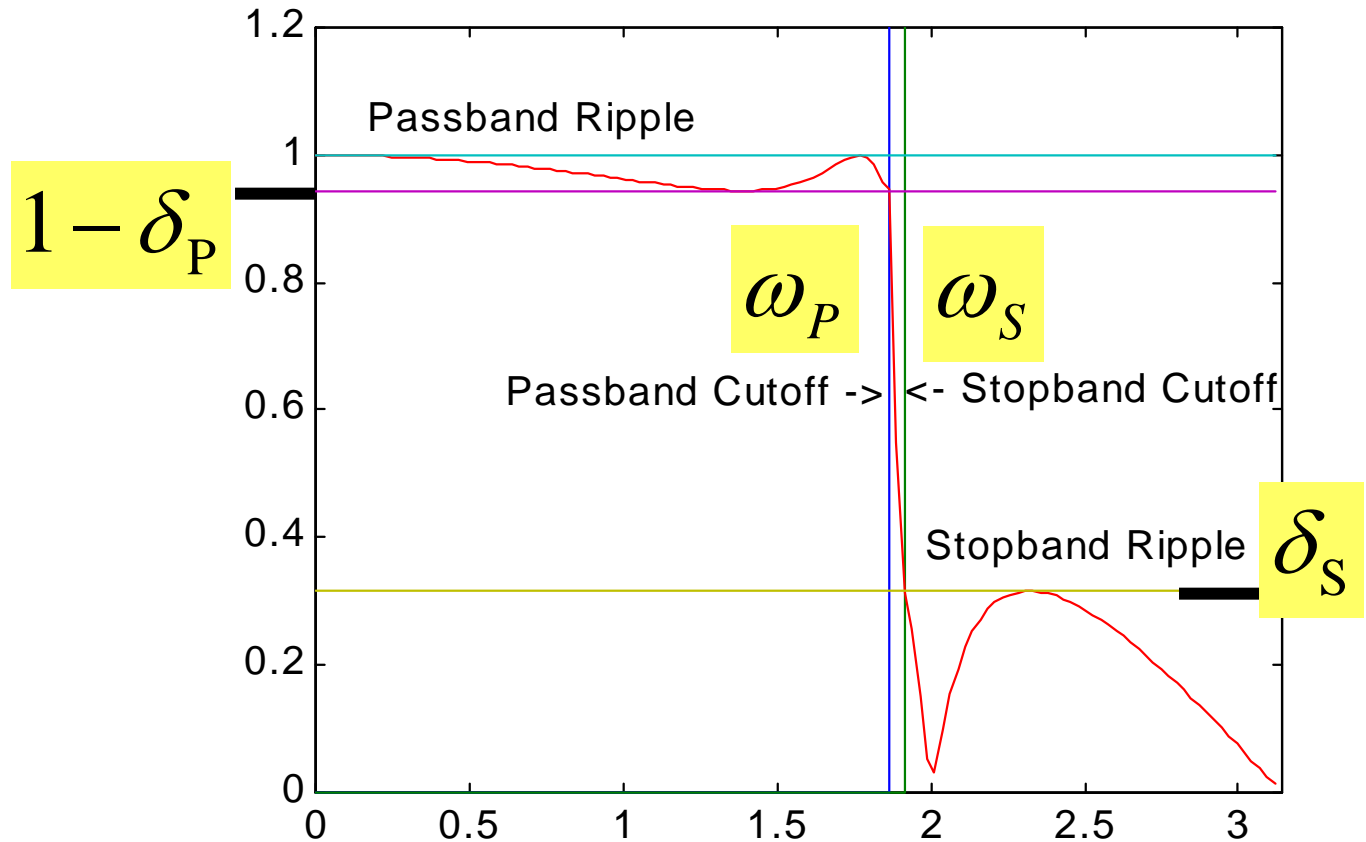
## 9.3.2 Digital Filter Design Process

- A design begins with development of **performance specifications for**
  - ✓ **cutoff frequency,**
  - ✓ **transition band limits,**
  - ✓ **in-band ripple,**
  - ✓ **minimum stop band attenuation,** etc
- A process for designing an ASIC- or FPGA-based digital filter has the main steps shown in Following Figure



# Filter Specification

Ex: Low-pass





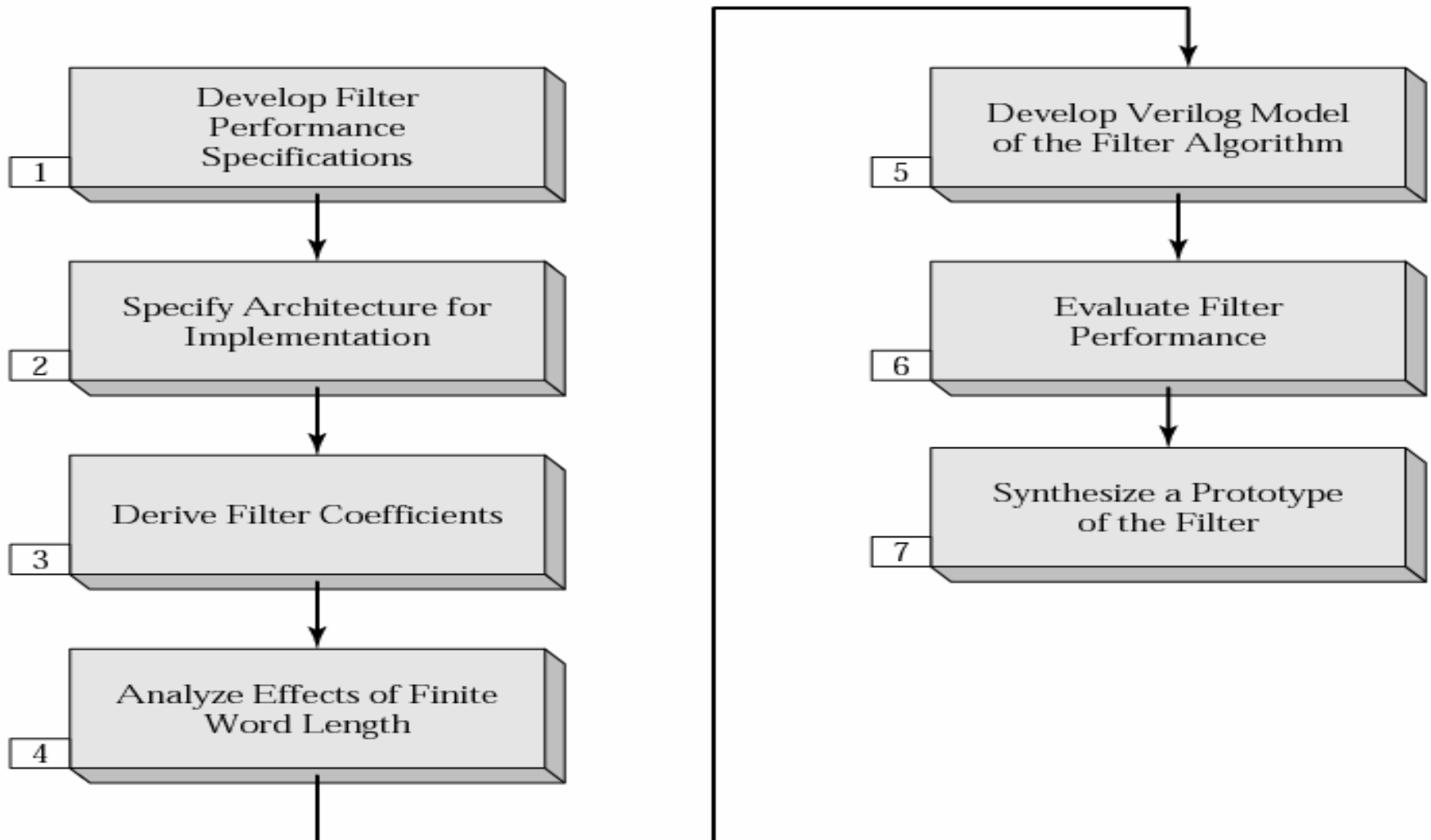
# Filter Design/Realization

- **Step-1 : define filter specs**  
(pass-band, stop-band, optimization criterion,...)
- **Step-2 : derive optimal transfer function**  
FIR or IIR design
- **Step-3 : filter realization** (block scheme/flow graph)  
direct form realizations, lattice realizations,...
- **Step-4 : filter implementation** (software/hardware)  
finite word-length issues, ...  
question: implemented filter = designed filter ?





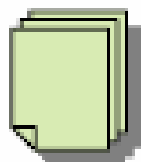
# Fig 9.24 Digital Filter Design Process



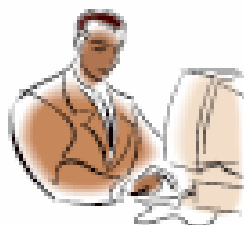


# Design Process

需求与规范



设计



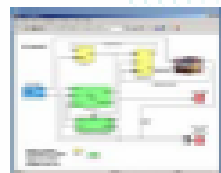
实现



测试与验证



详细开发的模型  
连续不断的测试



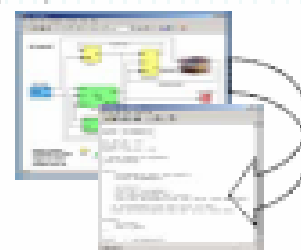
可执行的规范

准确、无二义性错误



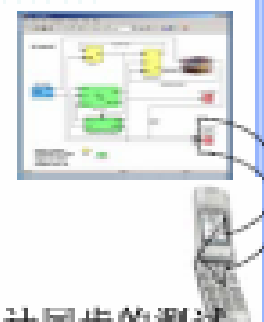
仿真

产生真正的原型、系统的  
“what-if”分析



自动代码生成

减少编写代码的错误



与设计同步的测试

较早发现错误



# The distinctions between Verilog & C

- The design flow is not ideal, because the algorithm's description in C must be translated into Verilog, creating the possibility for errors to occur
- In C, the variables can be represented as floating-point numbers, but **in Verilog the parameters and other data values are expressed in a fixed-point, finite-word-length format**



# The quantization errors of FIR and IIR filters

- For a given architecture, tools such as MATLAB can be used **to determine the filter coefficients** that implement a filter that satisfies the specifications of the design
- Digital filters operate on finite-word-length representations of physical (analog) values
- **The finite word length of the data limits the resolution and the dynamic range** that can be represented by the filter, leading to quantization errors



# The quantization and truncation errors of FIR,IIR

- The representations of **the numerical coefficients of the filter have a finite word length**, which contributes to **additional quantization and truncation error**
- When data are represented by integers there is an error caused by truncation of the fractional part produced by an arithmetic operation
- **The arithmetic operations** that are performed by the filter **can lead to overflow and underflow errors**, which must be detected by the machine

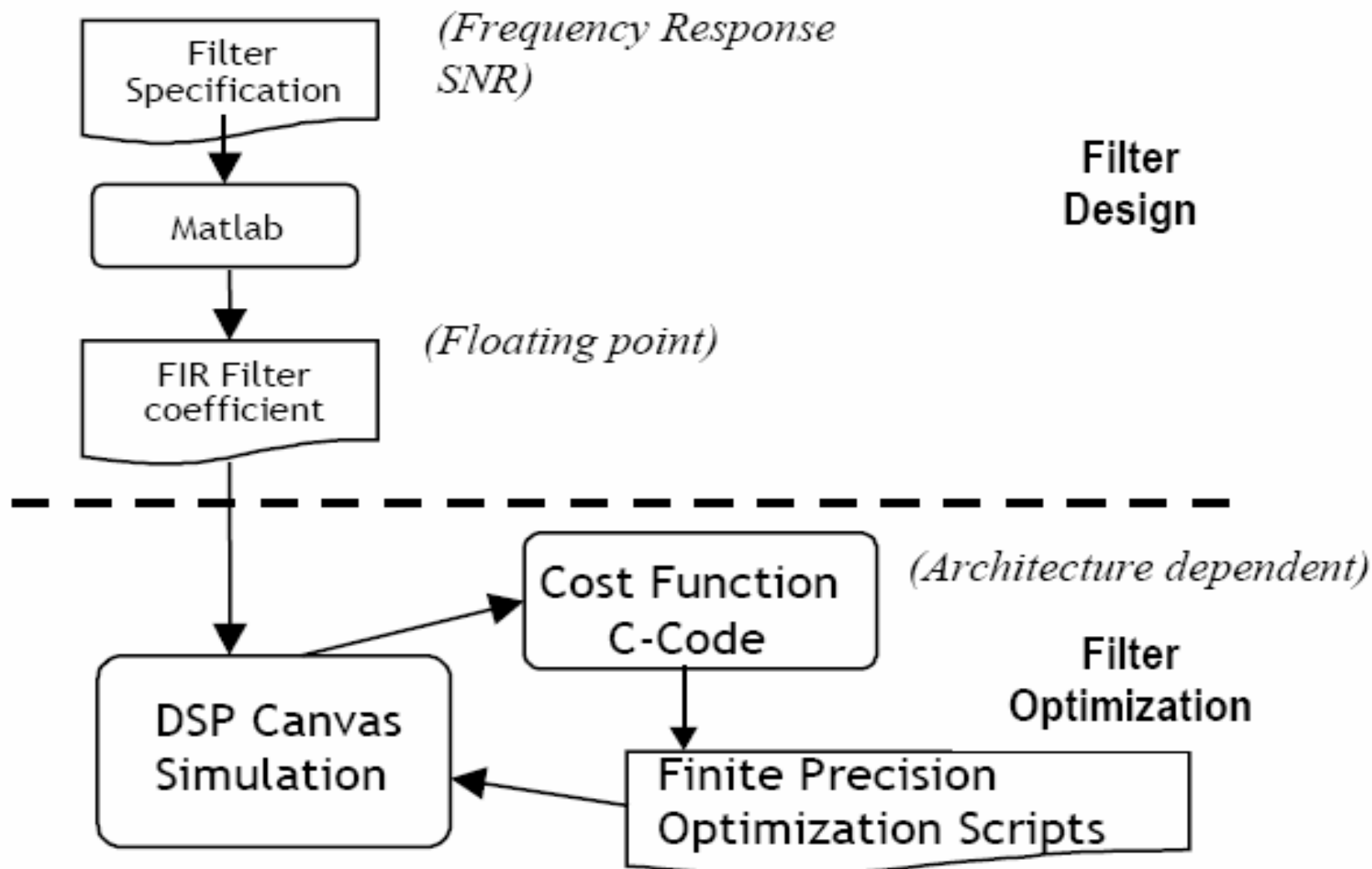


# Why Fixed-Point?

- Floating-point math:
  - Provides excellent dynamic range and accuracy
  - Does not require a designer to worry about overflow, or rounding
  - Is better than fixed-point in every respect but one: it is too expensive
- Executing floating-point math on the DSP uP, FPGA or ASIC, it is difficult to achieve real-time performance.
  - Requires more DSP/ $\mu$ p clock cycles
  - Requires more logic on an FPGA/ASIC
- ***Conversion to the fixed-point isn't straightforward***

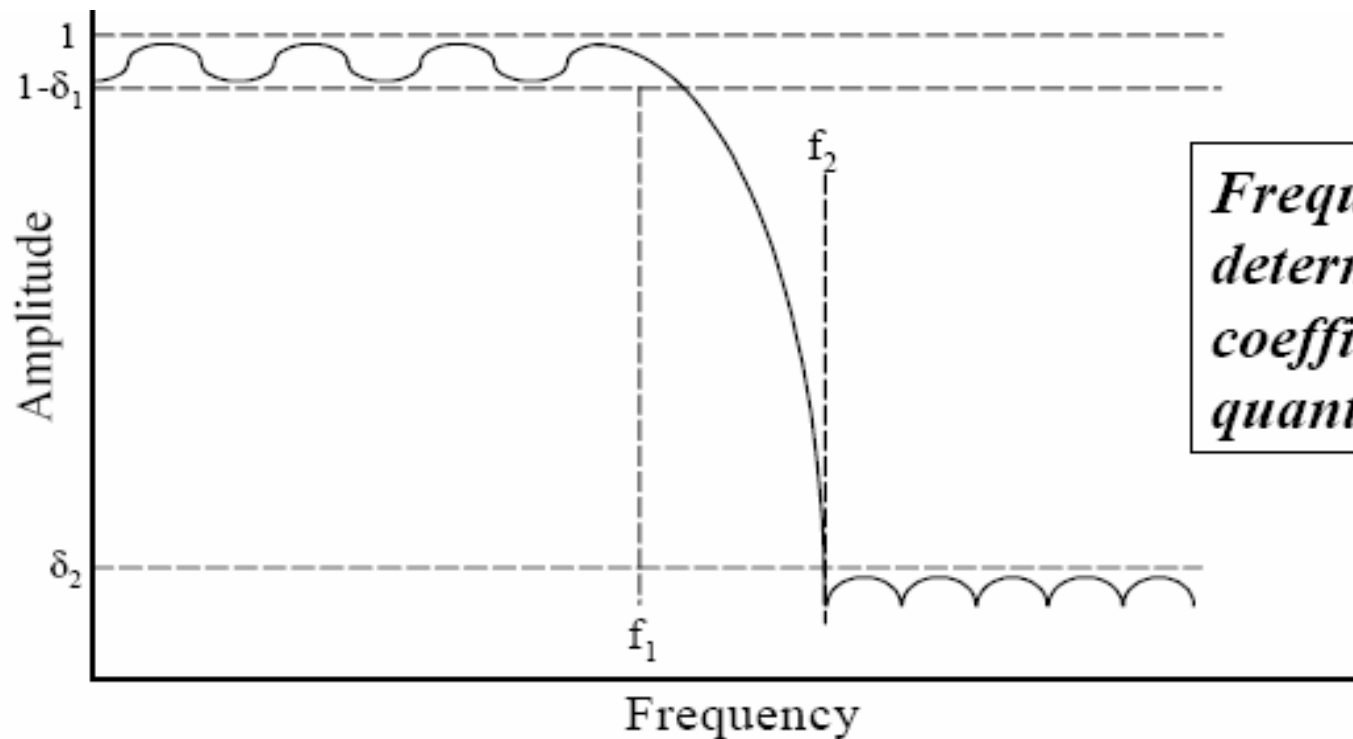


# Filter Design Flow





# FIR System Specification



*Frequency response  
determined by  
coefficient  
quantization*

$$\text{SNR} = 10 \log \frac{E(y_{\text{ref}}^2)}{E((y_{\text{ref}} - y_{\text{finite}})^2)}$$

*SNR determined by signal  
precision  
i.e. quantization noise*





# 根据过渡带宽选择FIR滤波器窗函数类型和长度M的公式

名称	近似过渡带宽	精确过渡带宽	最小阻带衰减
矩形	$4\pi/M$	$1.8\pi/M$	21dB
巴特利特	$8\pi/M$	$6.1\pi/M$	25dB
汉宁	$8\pi/M$	$6.2\pi/M$	44dB
哈明	$8\pi/M$	$6.6\pi/M$	51dB
布莱克曼	$12\pi/M$	$11/M$	74dB
取Kaiser窗时用MATLAB中的kaiserord函数来得到长度M			

## 4 Tap FIR

Input Wordsize (bits)	Resource Usage (LUTs)	No. 18x18 multipliers	Frequency (MSamples/s)	Computations (MMACS/s)
8	109	4	92.2	368.8
12	168	4	73.8	295.5
18	259	4	53.3	213.2

## 20 Tap FIR

Input Wordsize (bits)	Resource Usage (LUTs)	No. 18x18 multipliers	Frequency (MSamples/s)	Computation (GMAC/s)
8	680	20	94.7	1.894
12	1063	20	73.8	1.476
18	1632	20	54.1	1.082

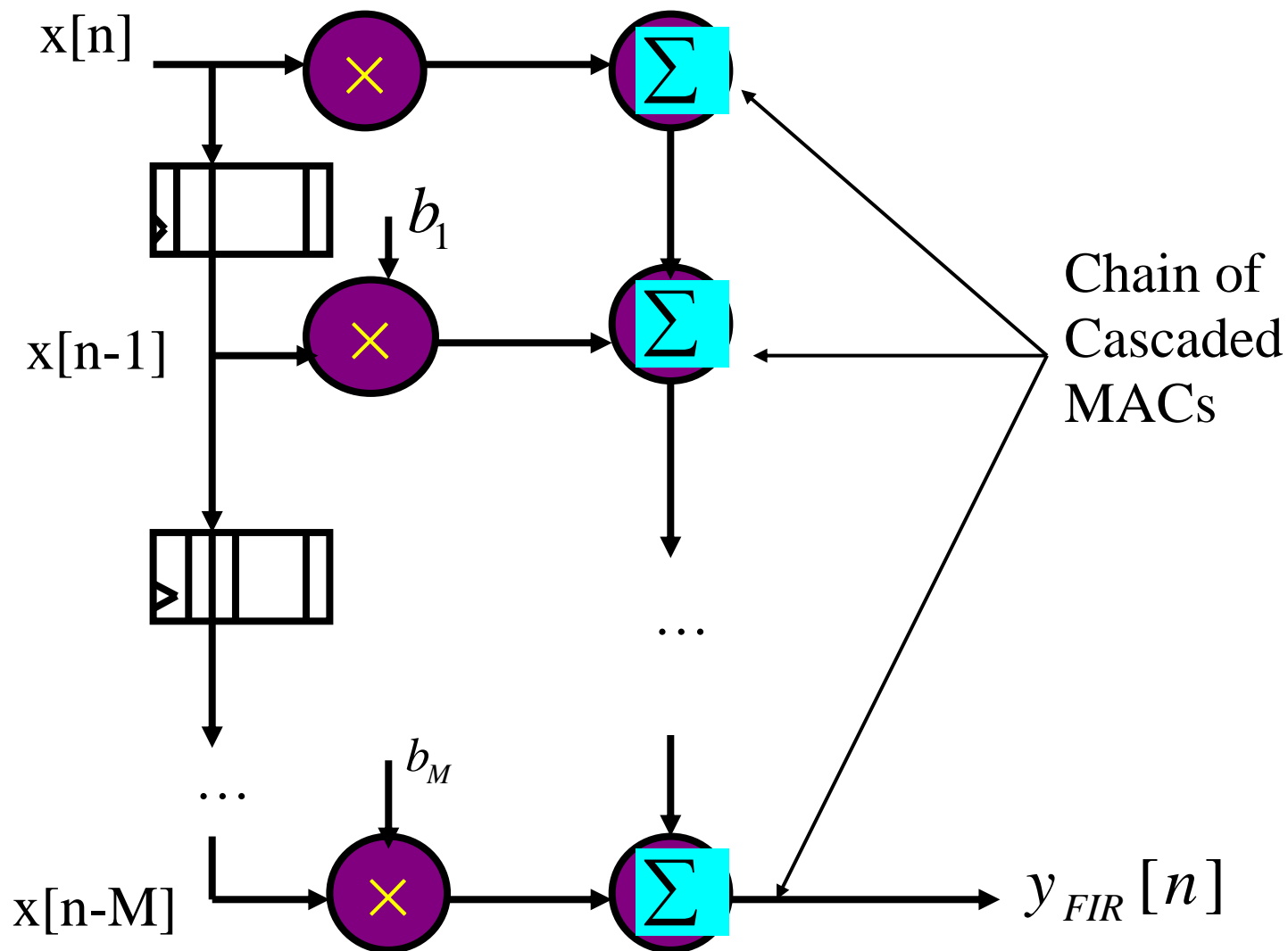


## Example 9.2

- An eighth-order Gaussian, lowpass FIR filter is modeled by FIR\_Gaussian\_Lowpass
- The design is fully synchronous, with active-high synchronous reset
- The filter's tap coefficients are implemented as unsigned 8-bit words (for unsigned integer math), chosen to be even-symmetric to guarantee that the phase characteristic will be linear



# MAC-based architecture for a type-I, $M$ th-order FIR filter





## Ex 9.2 8-order Gaussian lowpass FIR filter

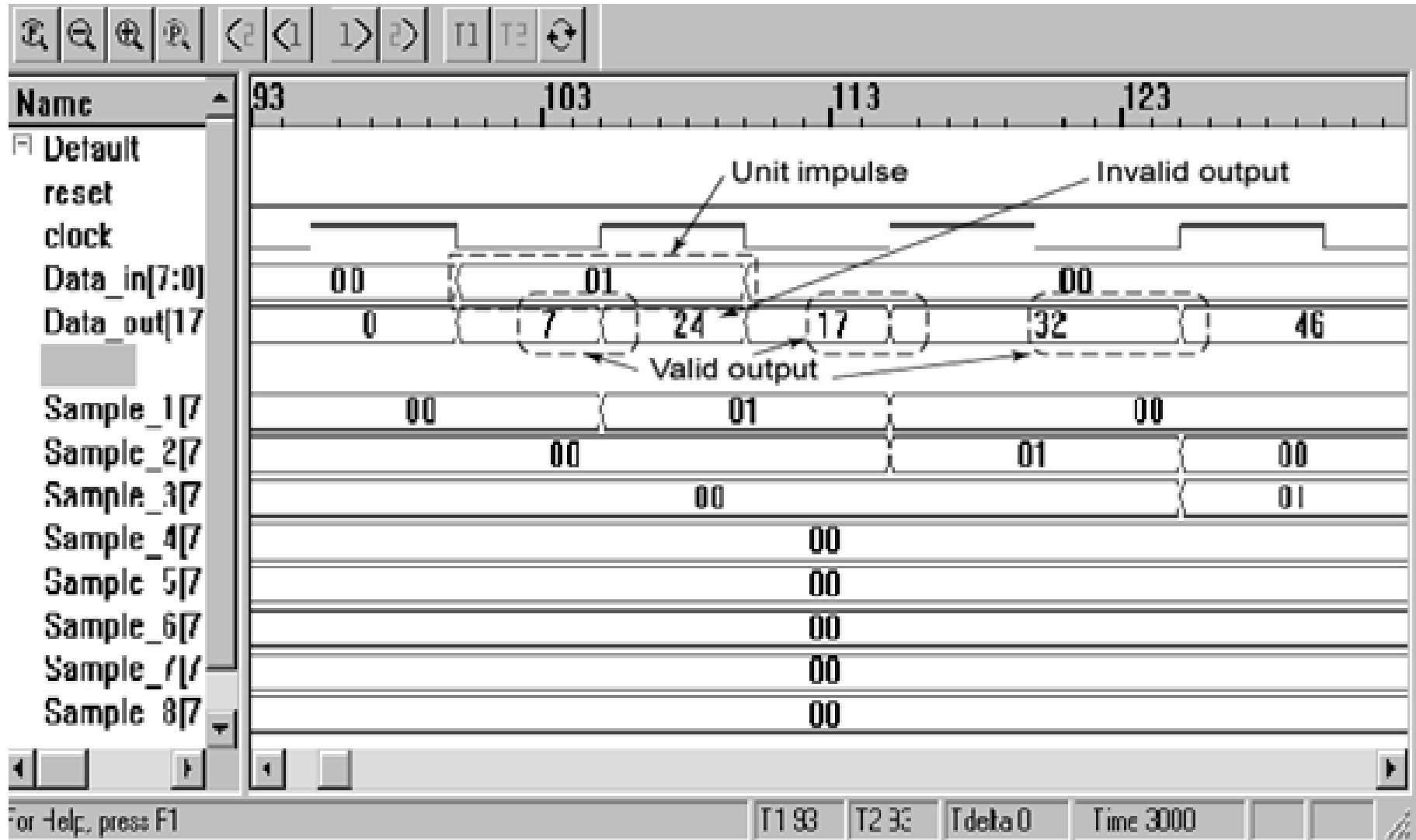
```
Module FIR_Gaussian_Lowpass (Data_out,Data_in,clock,reset);  
parameter order=8;  
parameter word_size_in=8;  
parameter word_size_out=2*word_size_in+2;  
parameter b0=8'd7;  
parameter b1=8'd17;  
parameter b2=8'd32;  
parameter b3=8'd46;  
parameter b4=8'd52;  
parameter b5=8'd46;  
parameter b6=8'd32;  
parameter b7=8'd17;  
parameter b8=8'd7;
```



```
output [word_size_out-1:0] Data_out;
input [word_size_in-1:0] Data_in;
input clock,reset;
reg [word_size_in-1:0] Samples[1:order];
integer k;
assign Data_out = b0*Data_in
                +b1*Samples[1]
                +b2*Samples[2]
                +b3*Samples[3]
                +b4*Samples[4]
                +b5*Samples[5]
                +b6*Samples[6]
                +b7*Samples[7]
                +b8*Samples[8];
always@(posedge clock)
    if(reset==1) begin for(k=1;k<=order; k=k+1)Samples[k]<=0;end
    else begin
        Samples[1]<=Data_in;
        for(k=2;k<=order;k=k+1) Samples[k] <=Samples[k-1];
    end
endmodule
```



# Fig 9-25(a) The impulse response of a FIR filter









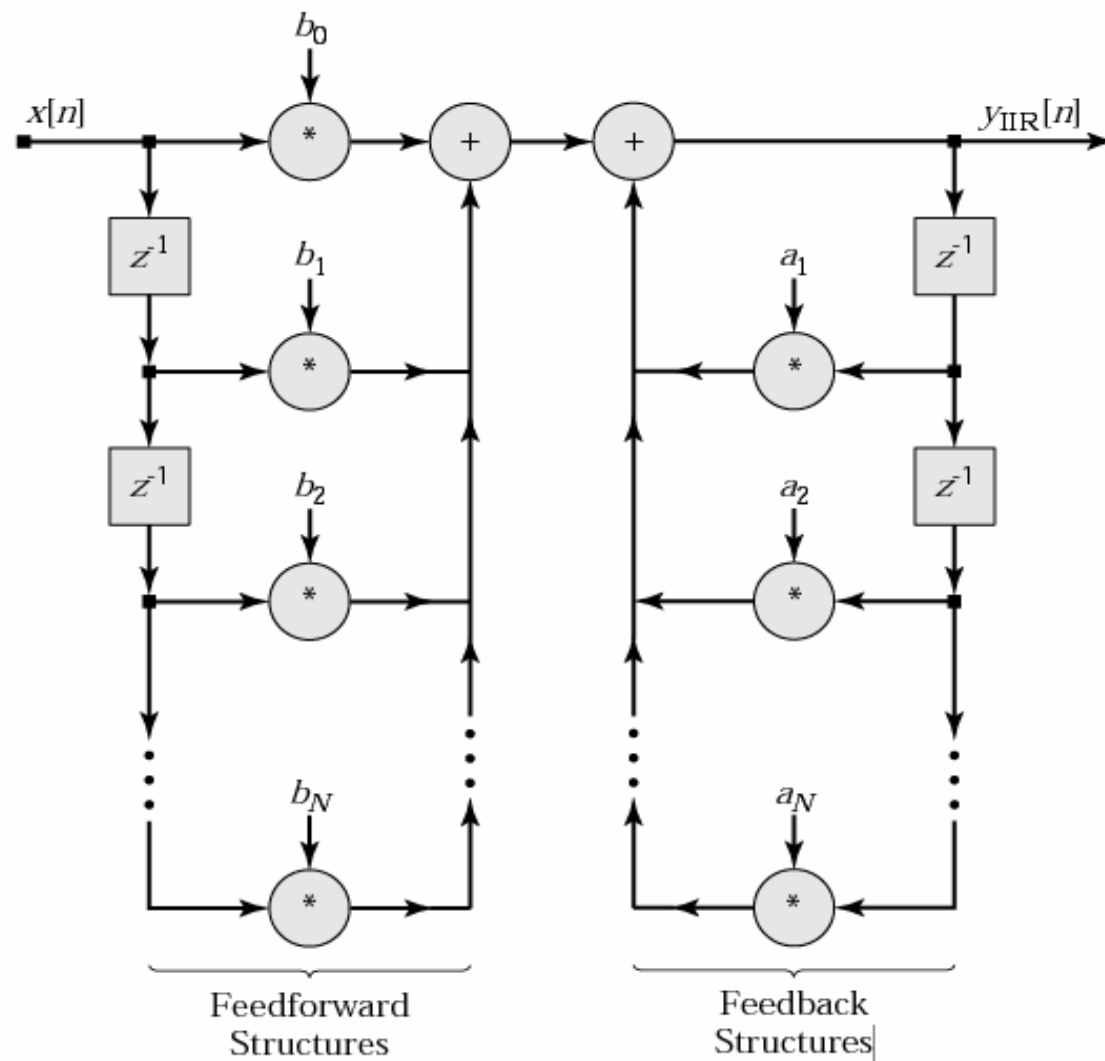
## 9.3.3 Infinite-Duration Impulse Response (IIR) Filter

- IIR filter are the most general class of linear digital filters.
- Their output in a given time step depend on their inputs and on previously computed outputs.
- IIR filters are **recursive**

$$y_{IIR}[n] = \sum_{k=1}^N a_k y[n-k] + \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k]$$



# Fig 9-26 The structure of Type-1 IIR





# The IIR's response to an impulse may have infinite duration

- The filter is recursive because the difference equation has feedback
- Consequently, the filter's response to an impulse may have infinite duration (i.e., it does not become 0 in a finite time).
- An IIR filter is modeled in the  $z$  domain by its  $z$ -domain system function, or transfer function, which is a ratio of polynomials formed



# The tap coefficients

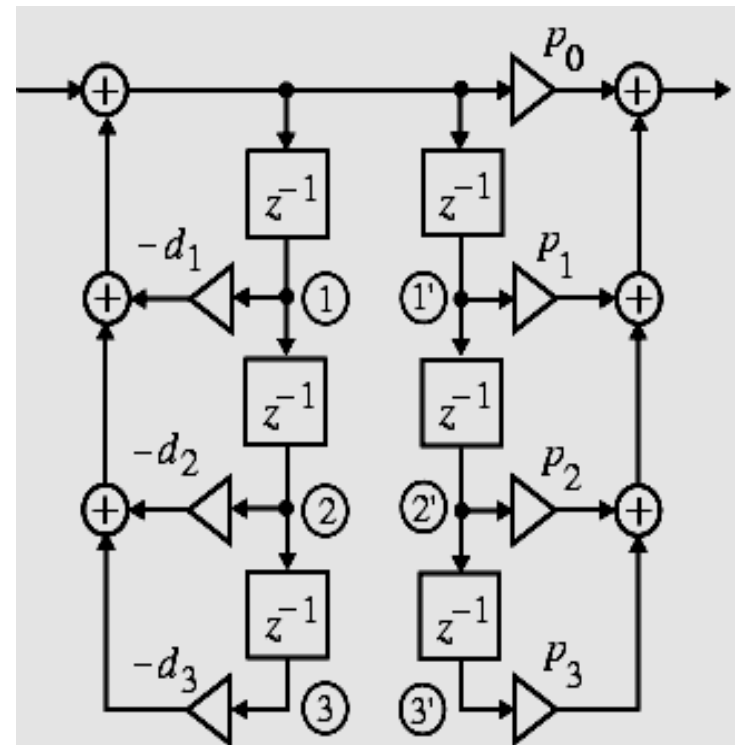
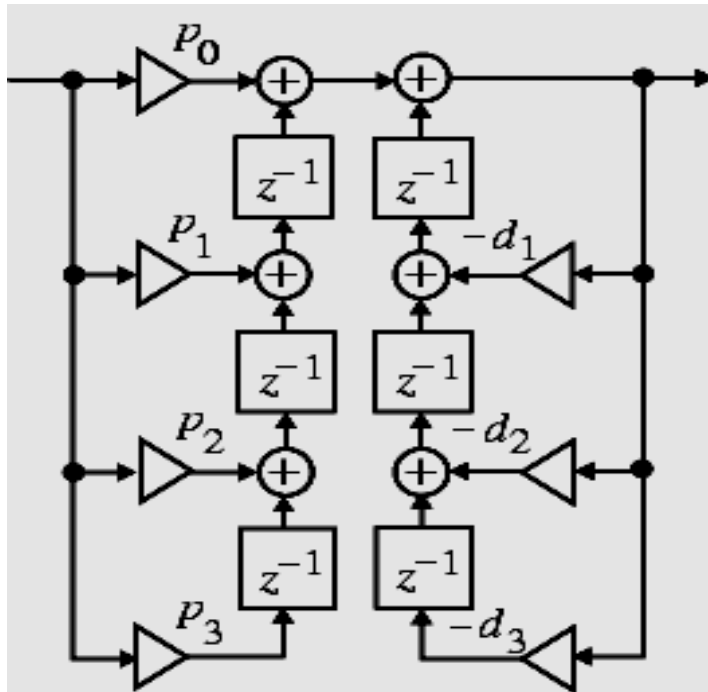
$$y_{IIR}[n] = \sum_{k=1}^N a_k y[n-k] + \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k]$$

- The tap coefficients of the IIR filter form the sets of the filter's tap coefficients,  $\{a_j\}$  and  $\{b_k\}$ , commonly referred to as the feedback and feedforward coefficients, respectively
- The parameter  $N$  is the order of the filter; it specifies the number of prior samples of the output that must be saved to form the current output; it also determines the latency of the output
- The value of the parameter  $M$  specifies how many prior samples of the input will be used to form the output.



# Direct Form IIR Digital Filter Structures

- Various other noncanonic direct form structures can be derived by simple block diagram manipulations as shown below



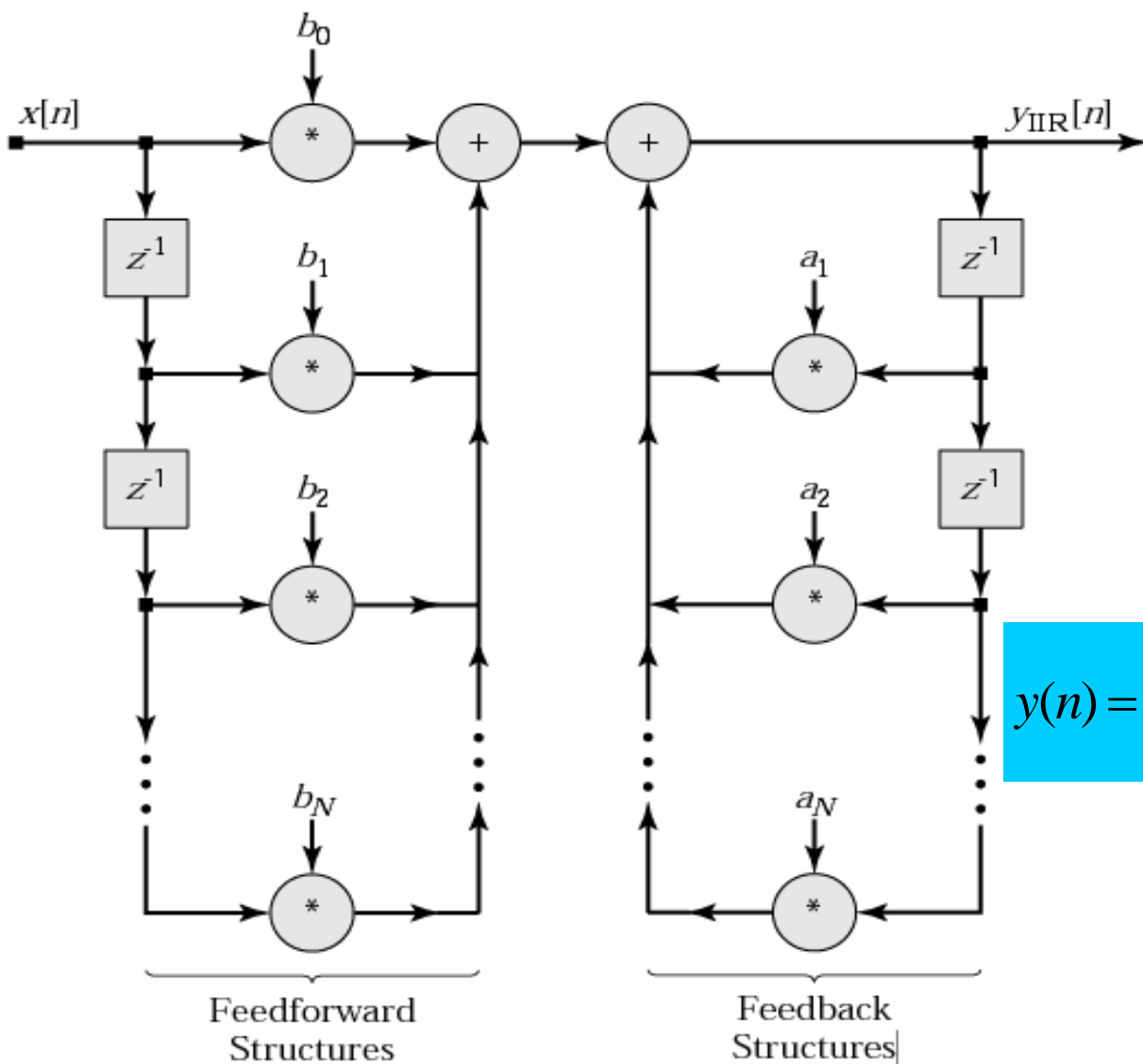


## Example 9.3

- The Verilog model IIR\_Filter\_8 can be used to implement eighth-order IIR filters, depending on the selection of tap coefficients



# The structure of Type-1 IIR



$$y(n) = \sum_{i=1}^P a(i)y(n-i) + \sum_{k=0}^Q b(k)x(n-k)$$



```
module IIR_Filter_8 (Data_out, Data_in, clock, reset);  
    // Eighth-order, Generic IIR Filter  
    parameter          order = 8;  
    parameter          word_size_in = 8;  
    parameter          word_size_out = 2*word_size_in + 2;  
    parameter          b0 = 8'd7;  
        // Feedforward filter coefficients  
    parameter          b1 = 0;  
    parameter          b2 = 0;  
    parameter          b3 = 0;  
    parameter          b4 = 0;  
    parameter          b5 = 0;  
    parameter          b6 = 0;  
    parameter          b7 = 0;  
    parameter          b8 = 0;
```





// Feedback filter coefficients

parameter a1 = 8'd46;

parameter a2 = 8'd32;

parameter a3 = 8'd17;

parameter a4 = 8'd0;

parameter a5 = 8'd17;

parameter a6 = 8'd32;

parameter a7 = 8'd46;

parameter a8 = 8'd52;

output [word\_size\_out -1: 0] Data\_out;

input [word\_size\_in-1: 0] Data\_in;

input clock, reset;

reg [word\_size\_in-1: 0] Samples\_in [1: order];

reg [word\_size\_in-1: 0] Samples\_out [1: order];

wire [word\_size\_out -1: 0] Data\_feedforward;

wire [word\_size\_out -1: 0] Data\_feedback;

integer k;



```
assign Data_feedforward =      b0 * Data_in  
                                + b1 * Samples_in[1]  
                                + b2 * Samples_in[2]  
                                + b3 * Samples_in[3]  
                                + b4 * Samples_in[4]  
                                + b5 * Samples_in[5]  
                                + b6 * Samples_in[6]  
                                + b7 * Samples_in[7]  
                                + b8 * Samples_in[8];
```

```
assign Data_feedback =  a1 * Samples_out [1]  
                        + a2 * Samples_out [2]  
                        + a3 * Samples_out [3]  
                        + a4 * Samples_out [4]  
                        + a5 * Samples_out [5]  
                        + a6 * Samples_out [6]  
                        + a7 * Samples_out [7]  
                        + a8 * Samples_out [8];
```



```
ssign Data_out = Data_feedforward +Data_feedback;  
always @ (posedge clock)  
    if (reset == 1)  
        for (k = 1; k <= order; k = k+1) begin  
            Samples_in [k] <= 0;  
            Samples_out [k] <= 0;  
        end  
    else begin  
        Samples_in [1] <= Data_in;  
        Samples_out [1] <= Data_out;  
        for (k = 2; k <= order; k = k+1) begin  
            Samples_in [k] <= Samples_in [k-1];  
            Samples_out [k] <= Samples_out [k-1];  
        end  
    end  
end  
endmodule
```



## 9.4 Building Blocks for Signal Processors

- In this section we will consider models of basic operations of
- **Integration**
- **differentiation**
- **decimation**
- **interpolation**
  - which are common to many digital processors.



## 9.4.1 Integrators (Accumulators)

- Digital integrators are used in a popular type of analog-to-digital converter, called a **sigma-delta modulator**
- Digital integrators **accumulate a running sum of sample values**
- Two implementations are common: **parallel and sequential**



## Example 9.4

- The model *Integrator\_Par* below describes an integrator for a parallel datapath
- At each clock cycle the machine adds *data\_in* to the content of the register *data\_out*
- The signal *hold* pauses the accumulation of samples until it is de-asserted.



## Exe 9.4      The model below describes an integrator for a parallel datapath

```
module
    integrator_Par(data_out,data_in,hold,clock,reset);
parameter word_length=8;
output    [word_length-1:0]    data_out;
input     [word_length-1:0]    data_in;
input                                           hold,clock,reset;
reg                                              data_out;

always@(posedge clock) begin
    if (reset) data_out<=0;
    else if (hold) data_out<=data_out;
    else data_out<=data_out+data_in;
end
endmodule
```



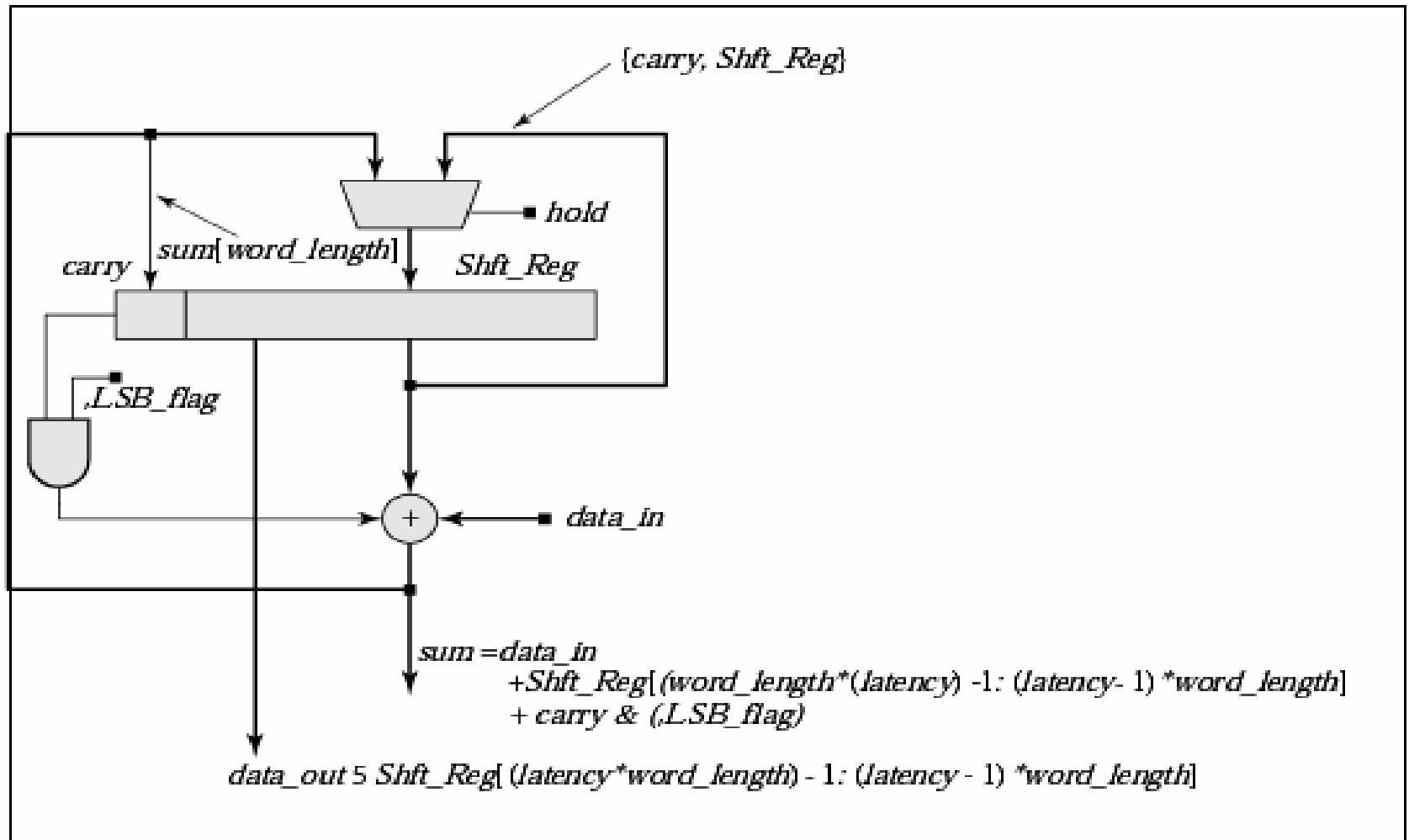
## Ex 9.5 A byte-sequential integrator

- In this example, the unit is to accumulate 32-bit words, but receives data sequentially, in 8-bit bytes
- The signal hold pauses the accumulation of samples until it is de-asserted
- This architecture performs byte-wide addition, with the current data sample being added to the leftmost byte of the shift register Shft\_Reg, to form sum
- It is common for a processor **to receive data via a narrower datapath than the datapath within the processor**





# Figure 9-28 architecture of a byte – sequential integrator





## Example 9.5

```
module Integrator_Seq (data_out, data_in, hold, LSB_flag,  
    clock, reset);  
    parameter word_length = 8;  
    parameter latency = 4;  
    output      [word_length -1: 0]  data_out;  
    input       [word_length -1: 0]  data_in;  
    input       hold,  LSB_flag, clock, reset;  
    reg [(word_length * latency) -1: 0] Shft_Reg; //32 bits  
    reg      carry;  
    wire [word_length: 0]                sum; // 9 bits
```



```
always @ (posedge clock) begin
    if (reset) begin Shft_Reg <= 0; carry <= 0; end
    else if (hold) begin
        Shft_Reg <= Shft_Reg;
        carry <= carry;
    end
    else begin
        // shifted a byte toward its MSByte,sum load into the left byte
        Shft_Reg <= {Shft_Reg[word_length*(latency -1) -1: 0],
                    sum[word_length-1: 0]};
    end
end

assign sum = data_in + Shft_Reg [ (latency * word_length) -1:
    (latency -1)*word_length ] + (carry & (~LSB_flag));
    // add data_in to the leftmst byte of Shft_Reg, to form sum
assign data_out = Shft_Reg[(latency * word_length) -1:
    (latency -1)*word_length];
    // output the leftmst byte of Shft_Reg
endmodule
```

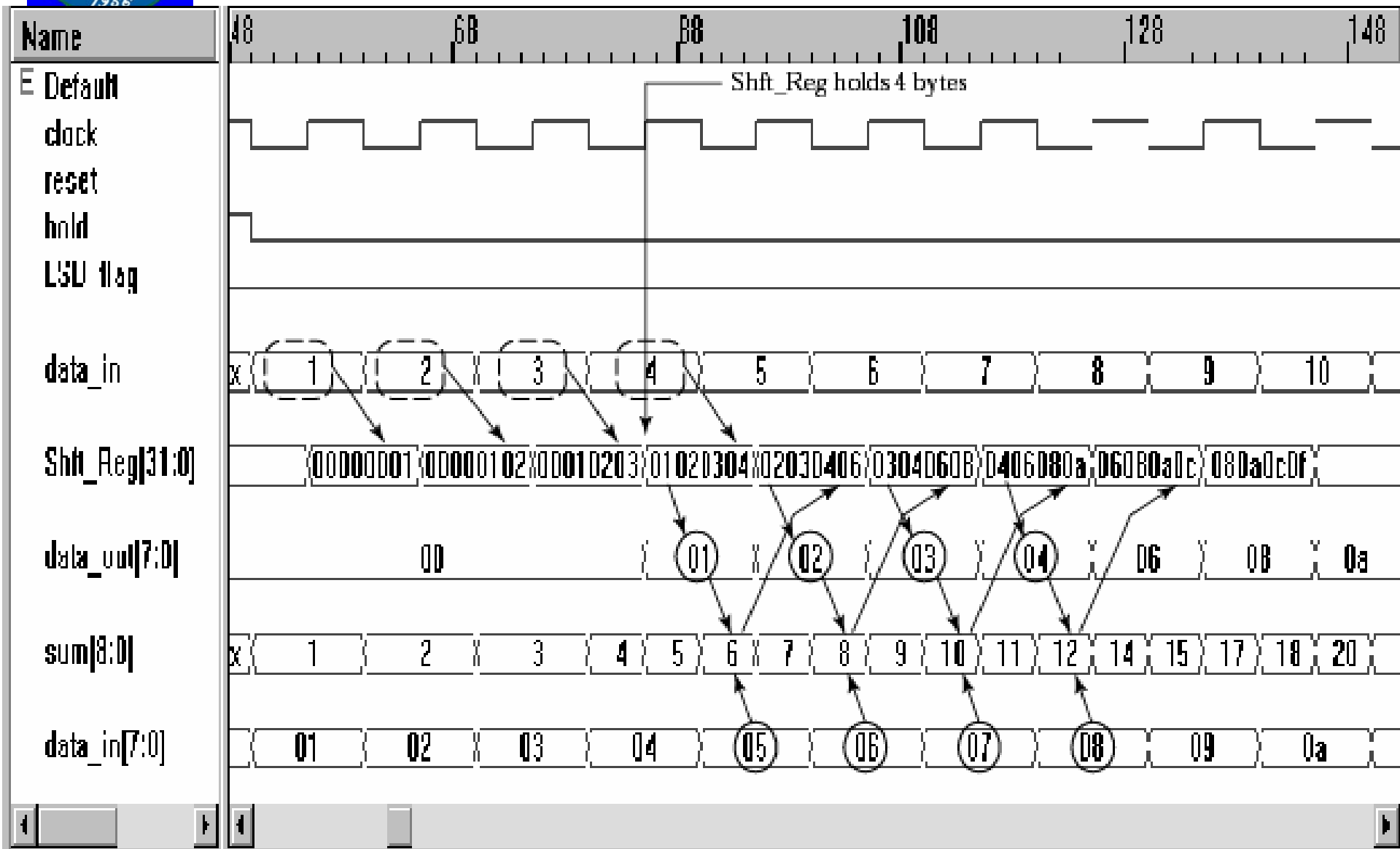


# Fig 9-29

$t$	<i>Shift_Reg</i>			
	<i>Byte_1</i>	<i>Byte_2</i>	<i>Byte_3</i>	<i>Byte_4</i>
	<i>Byte_1 + Byte_5</i>	<i>Byte_2 + Byte_6</i>	<i>Byte_3 + Byte_7</i>	<i>Byte_4 + Byte_8</i>
	<i>Byte_1 + Byte_5 + Byte_9</i>	<i>Byte_2 + Byte_6 + Byte_10</i>	<i>Byte_3 + Byte_7 + Byte_11</i>	<i>Byte_4 + Byte_8 + Byte_12</i>
	<i>Byte_1 + Byte_5 + Byte_9 + Byte_13</i>	<i>Byte_2 + Byte_6 + Byte_10 + Byte_14</i>	<i>Byte_3 + Byte_7 + Byte_11 + Byte_15</i>	<i>Byte_4 + Byte_8 + Byte_12 + Byte_16</i>



# Fig 9-30 The simulation of the byte-sequential integrator





## 9.4.2 Differentiators

- A differentiator provides a **measure of the sample-to-sample change in a signal**
- The backward difference is implemented with a buffer and a subtractor



# Differentiator

```
module differentiator(data_out,data_in,hold,clock,reset)
parameter [word_size-1:0]  data_out;
parameter [word_size-1:0]  data_in;
input                                hold;
input                                clock,reset;
reg      [word_size-1:0]  buffer;
wire     [word_size-1:0]  data_out=data_in - buffer;
always @ (posedge clock) begin
if (reset) buffer<=0;
  else if (hold) buffer<=buffer;
  else buffer<=data_in;
end
endmodule
```



## 9.4.3 Decimation and Interpolation Filters

- Decimation and interpolation filters are used **to achieve sample rate conversion** in digital signal processors
- Decimation filters **decrease the sample rate**
- Interpolation filters **increase the sample rate**





# Decimation and Interpolation Filters

- Interpolation filters **enable a signal to be oversampled**, thereby **reducing the effects of aliasing**
- If a signal is not sampled properly, it cannot be recovered with fidelity
- Decimation is used **to reduce the bandwidth of a signal that has been oversampled**
- Decimation achieves sample rate reduction



## Example 9.6

- The Verilog model decimator\_1 describes the behavior of a **parallel-in-parallel-out decimator**, which samples its input at a rate determined by clock unless hold is asserted
- Note that samples of data\_in in Figure 9-31 are dropped because clock is running at a rate that is slower than the rate at which data\_in had been sampled

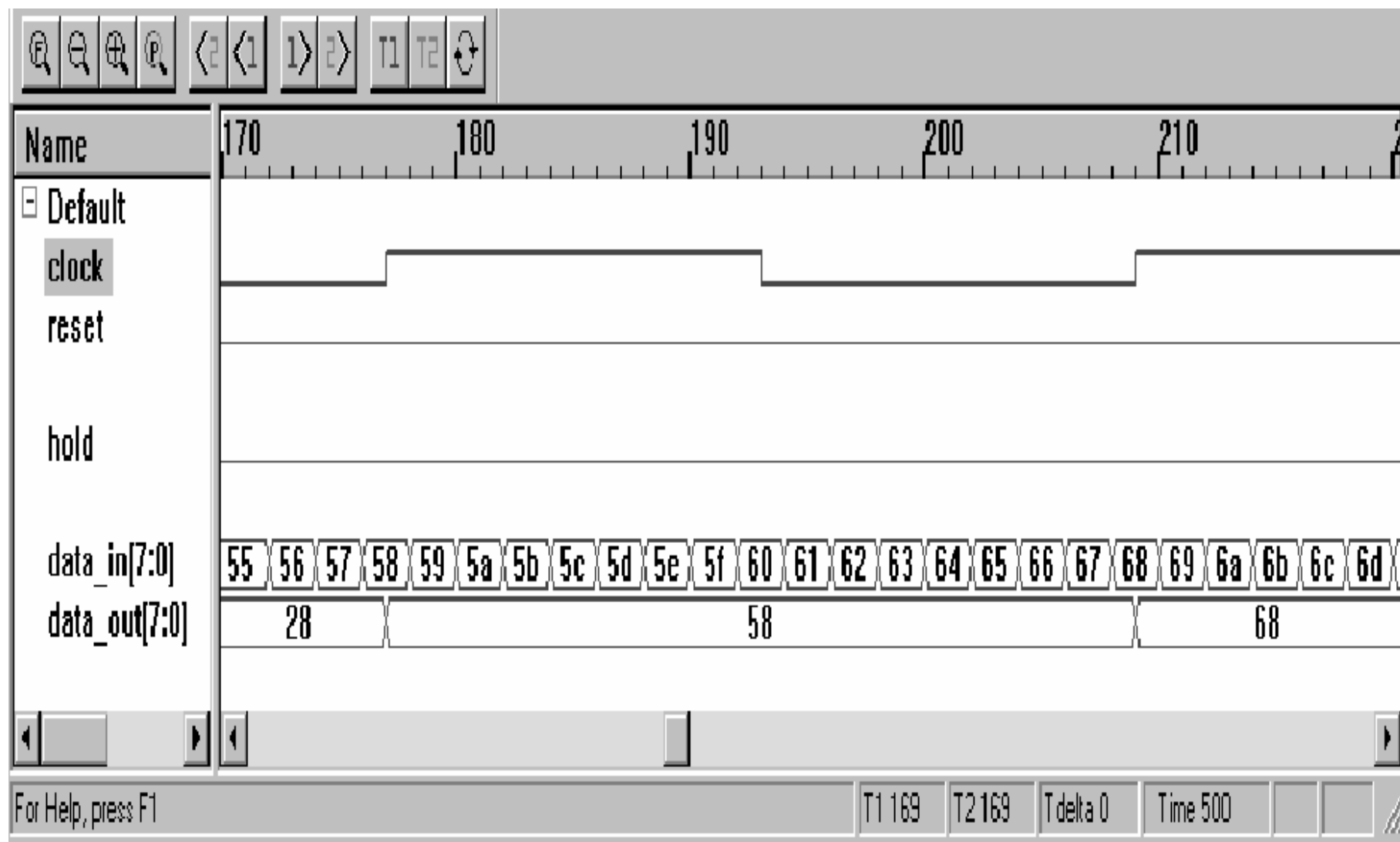


## Example 9.6

```
module
    decimator_1(data_out,data_in,hold,clock,reset);
parameter word_length=8;
output [word_length-1:0]    data_out;
input  [word_length-1:0]    data_in;
input          hold;
input          clock;
reg           data_out;
always@(posedge clock)
begin
if(reset) data_out<=0;
    else if(hold) data_out<=data_out;
        else data_out<=data_in;
end
endmodule
```



# Fig 9-31





## Example 9.7

- The Verilog model decimator\_2 **samples a parallel input and produces a parallel output**, but includes an option to form **a serial output** by shifting the output word **through the LSB** while hold is asserted
- This action is apparent in the waveforms shown in Figure 9-32

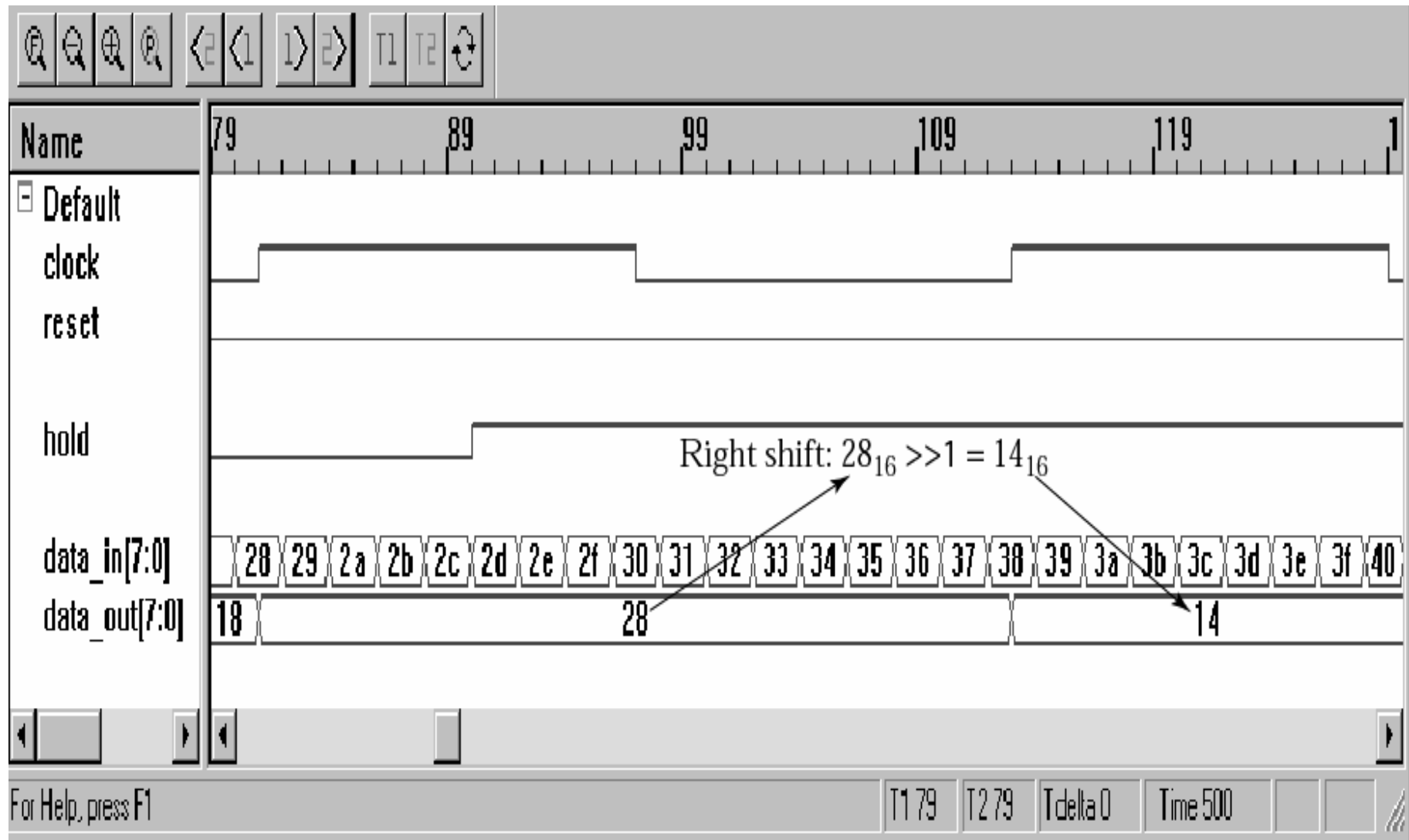


## Example 9.7

```
module
    decimator_2(data_out,data_in,hold,clock,reset);
parameter    word_length=8;
output  [word_length-1:0]  data_out;
input    [word_length-1:0]  data_in;
input                                     hold;
input                                     clock;
input                                     reset;
reg                                     data_out;
always@(posedge clock)
    if (reset) data_out<=0;
    else if (hold) data_out<=data_out>>1;
    else data_out<=data_in;
endmodule
```



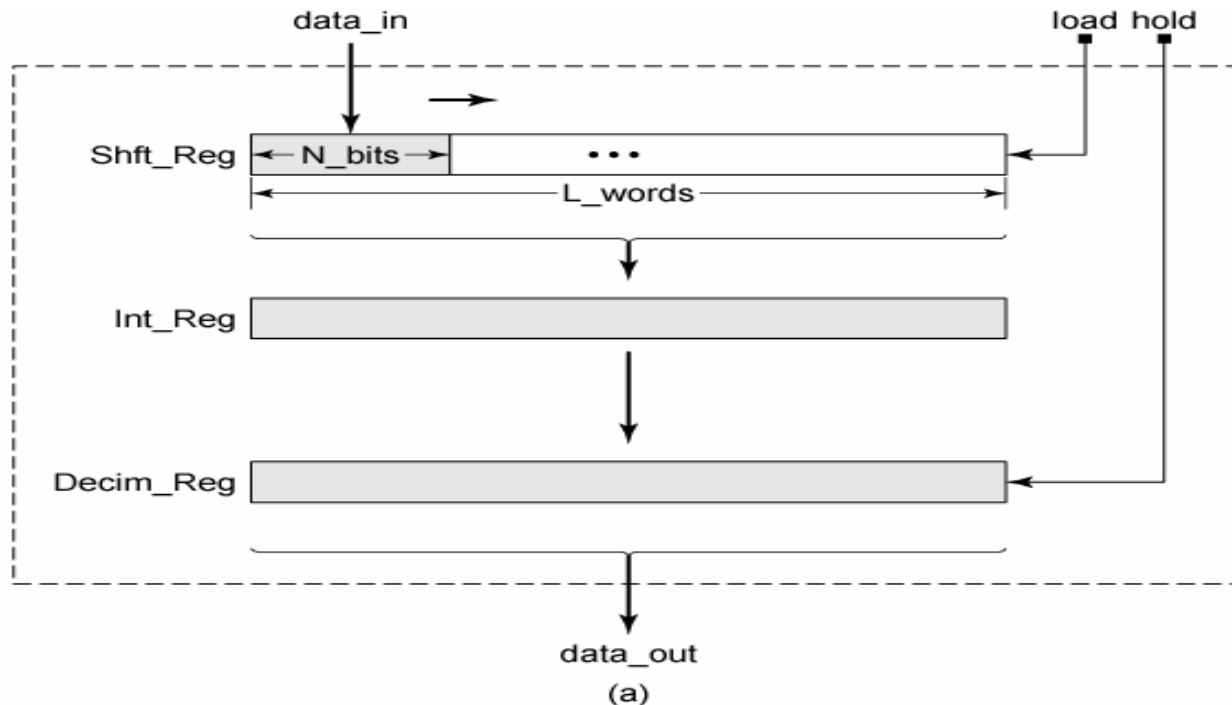
# Fig 9-32





## Ex 9.8 The decimator with a sequential integrator

- The decimator's architecture consists of three registers, *Shft\_Reg*, *Int\_Reg*, and *Decim\_Reg*
- All three are sized **to hold multiple bytes (samples)**, as determined by a parameter *latency*

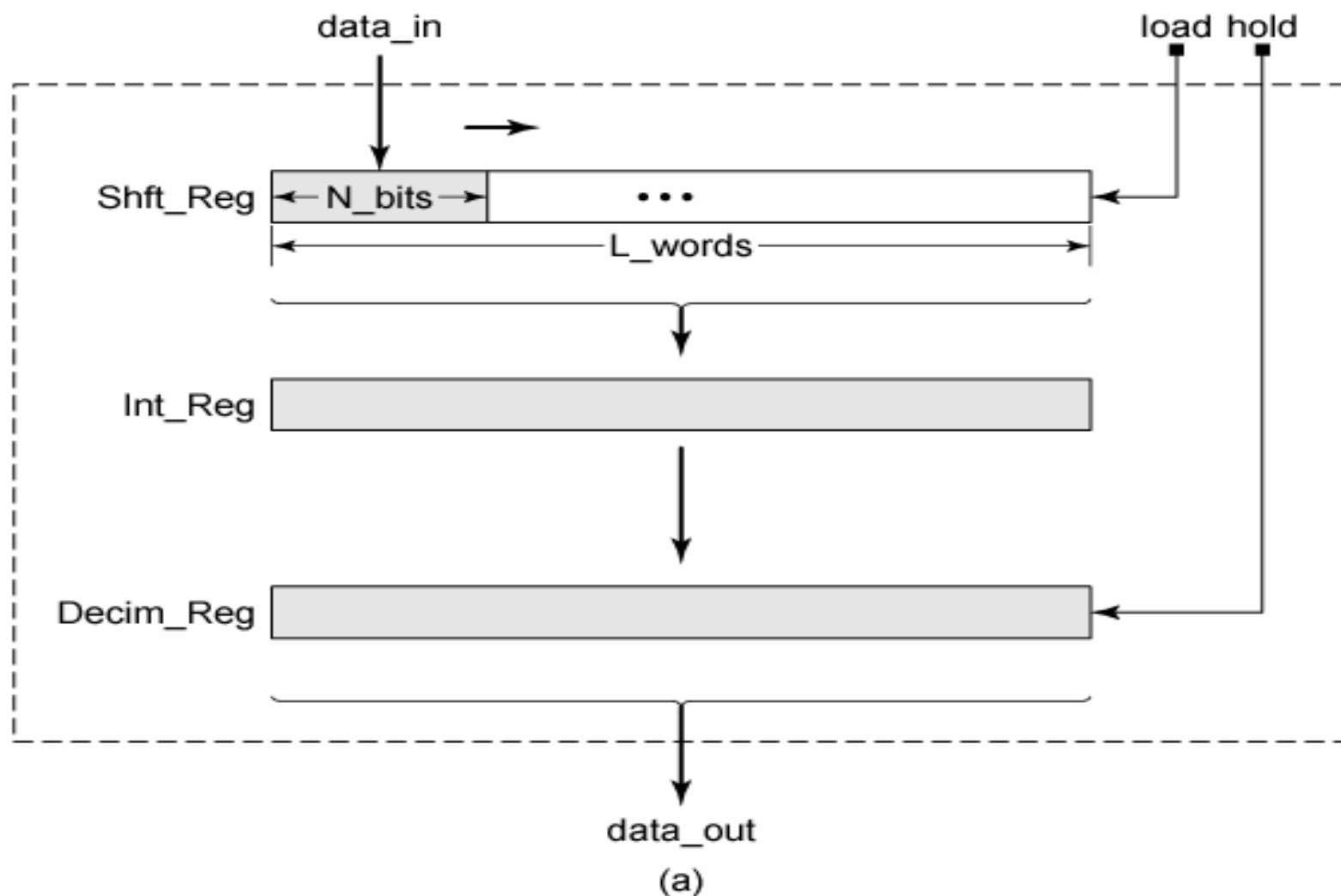






# Ex 9-8(a)

## Overall architecture



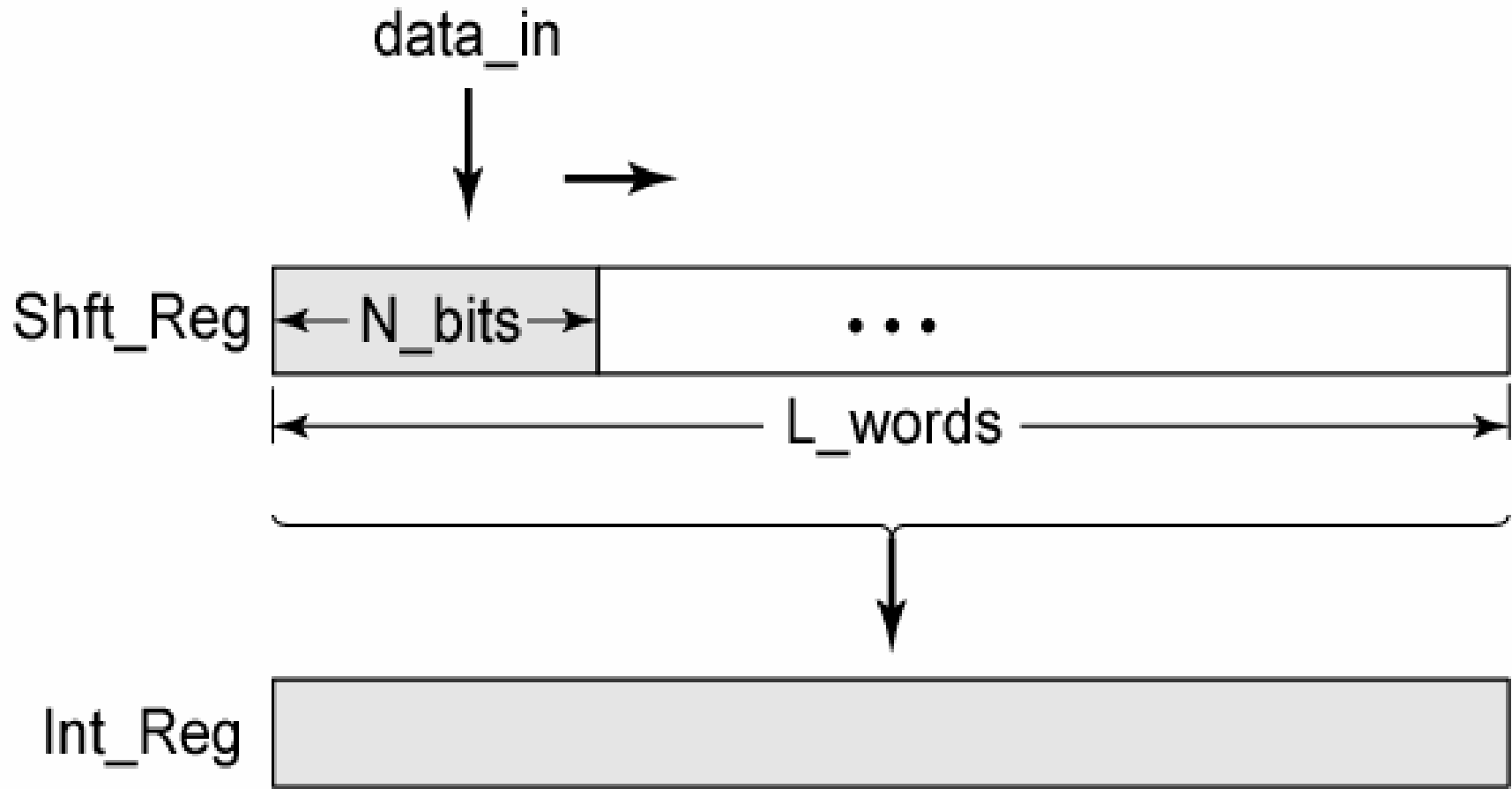


# When Shft\_Reg is full

- The two register transfers occur concurrently:
- (1) the contents of Shft\_Reg are loaded into an intermediate holding register, Int\_Reg, and
- (2) the LSByte of a new word is loaded into the MSByte of Shft\_Reg and transfers load Shft\_Reg until it is full



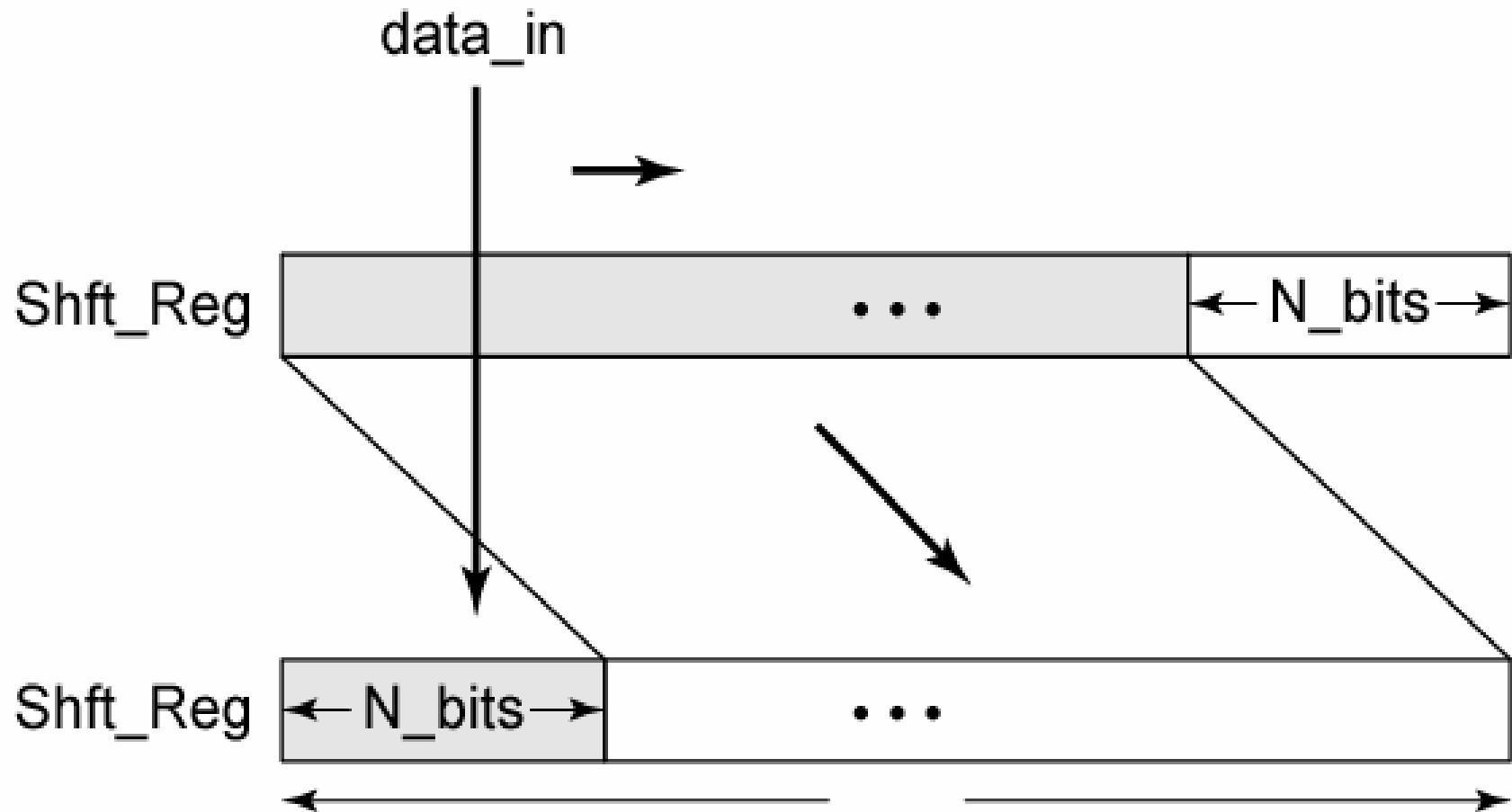
## Ex 9-8(b) Concurrent registers transfer while loading



(b)



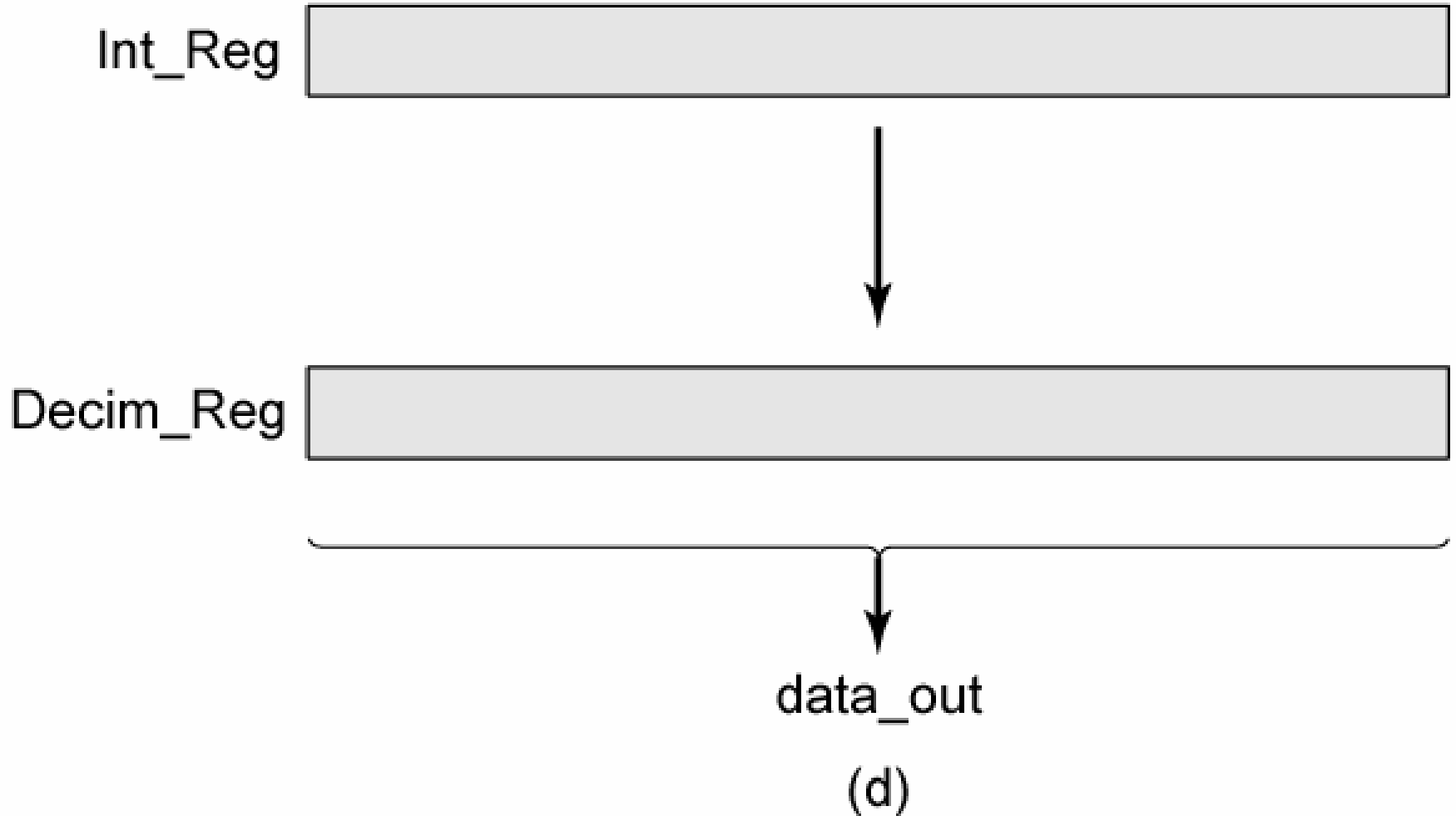
# Ex 9-8(c) shifting contents & loading



(c)



# Fig 9-8(d) loading contents from Int\_Reg to Decim\_Reg





## Ex 9.8

```
module decimator_3 (data_out, data_in,  
                    hold, load, clock, reset);  
  
    parameter      word_length = 8;  
    parameter      latency = 4;  
    output [(word_length*latency) -1: 0] data_out; //32bits  
    input  [word_length-1: 0] data_in; // 8 bits  
    input  hold;  
    input  load;  
    input  clock;  
    input  reset;  
    reg    [(word_length*latency) -1: 0] Shft_Reg;  
          // Shift reg  
    reg    [(word_length*latency) -1: 0] Int_Reg;  
          // Intermediate reg  
    reg    [(word_length*latency) -1: 0] Decim_Reg;  
          // Decimation reg
```



**always @** (posedge clock)

if (reset) begin

    Shft\_Reg <= 0;

    Int\_Reg <= 0;

end

else if (load) begin

    Shft\_Reg[(word\_length \* latency) - 1:

        (word\_length\*(latency- 1))] <= data\_in; // BIT(31-24)=data\_in

    Int\_Reg <= Shft\_Reg;

end

else begin // right shift 8 bits

    Shft\_Reg <=

        {data\_in, Shft\_Reg[(word\_length\*latency) - 1: word\_length]};

    Int\_Reg <= Int\_Reg;

end

**always @** (posedge clock)

    if (reset) Decim\_Reg <= 0;

    else if (hold) Decim\_Reg <= Decim\_Reg;

    else Decim\_Reg <= Int\_Reg;

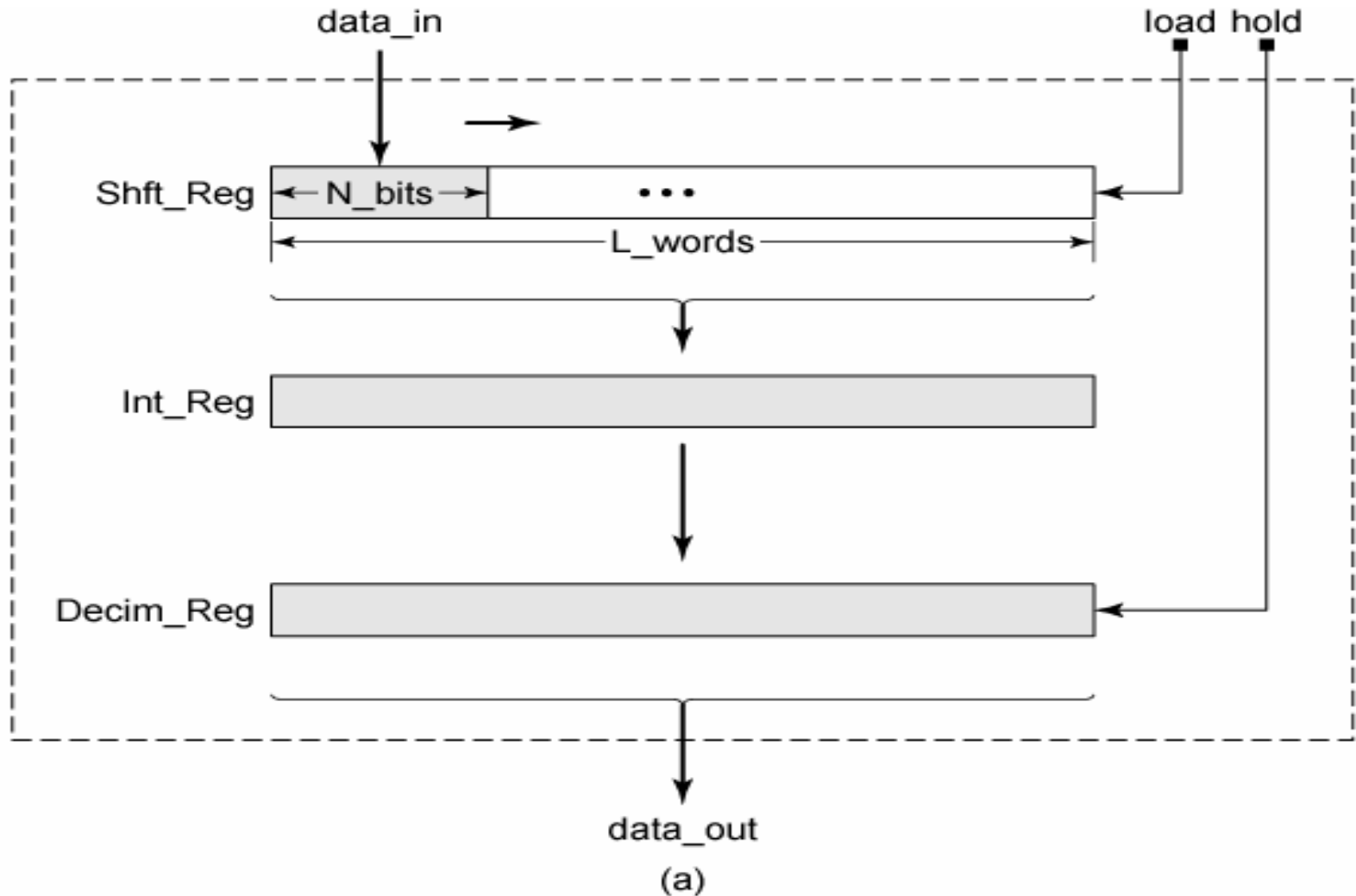
**assign** data\_out = Decim\_Reg;

endmodule



# Ex 9-8(a)

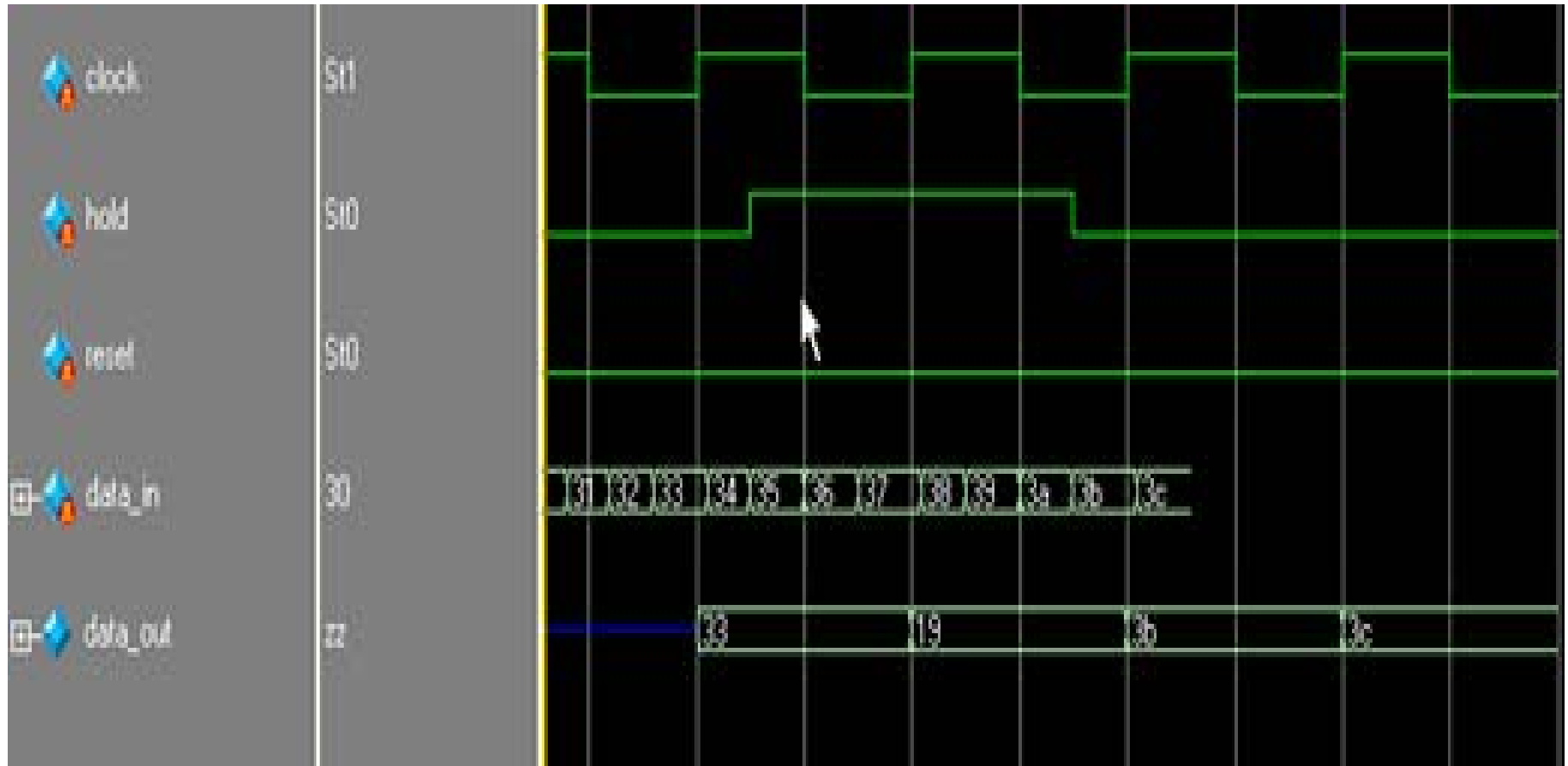
## Overall architecture







# Simulation





## 9.5 Pipelined Architectures

- **The shortest cycle time** of the clock of a synchronous sequential machine is a measure of its performance, and it is **bounded by the propagation delay** through the combinational logic of the machine
- **The throughput of a synchronous machine** is the rate at which data is supplied to and produced by the machine

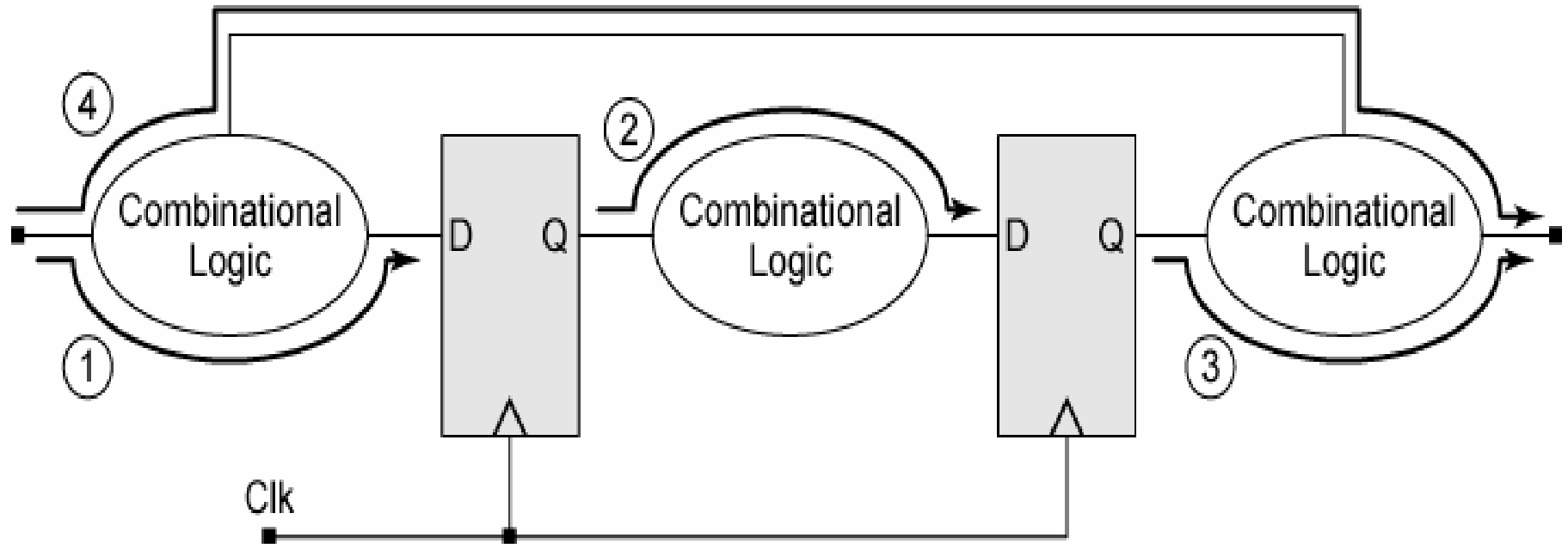


# Throughput 's limits

- Throughput is ultimately **limited by the path with the largest propagation delay** between
  - (1) a primary input and a register
  - (2) a path between a pair of registers
  - (3) a path from a register to a primary output
  - (4) a path from a primary input to a primary output
- **In each case, combinational logic limits the performance of the machine**



# A circuit may have four types of timing paths

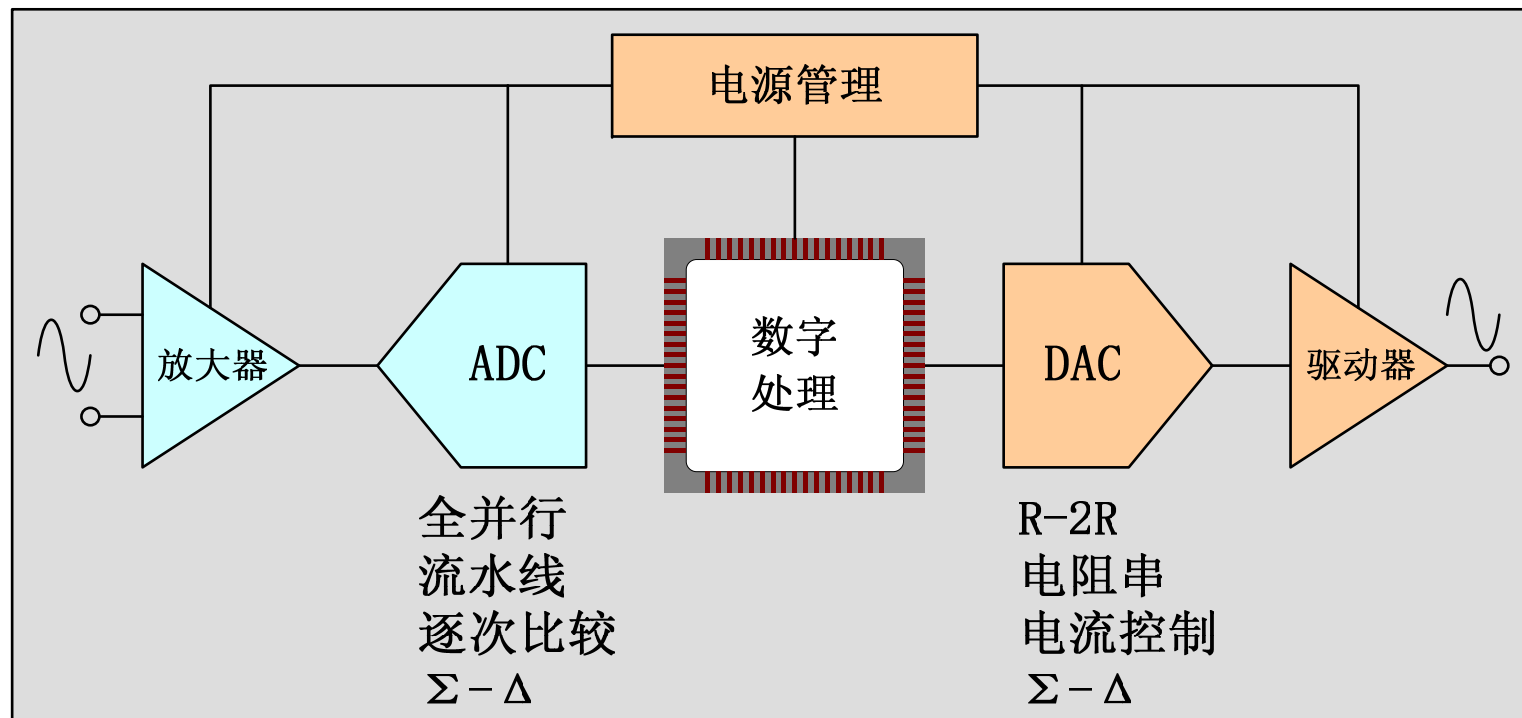


- ① Input port to register data terminal
- ② Register to register
- ③ Register to output port
- ④ Input port to output port



# DSP Solution:

The basic components of a DSP system  
(add,multiply,delay)



$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] x[n-k]$$



# Approach to gaining performance

- Three general approaches
  - **Recomposition**
  - **Replication**
  - **pipelining**



# Recomposition

- Recomposition segments the FU into a sequence of functions that execute one after the other to implement the algorithm.
- The sequence of execution may be further **distributed over space (hardware units) and time**
- **In Space** , the DFG are mapped isomorphically to the FUs;
- **In Time**, a single FU executes over as many clock cycles as required to complete the operations represented by the DFG.



# Replication

- In contrast to recomposition
- Replication uses **multiple, identical, concurrently executing processors** to improve performance
- But **at the expense of hardware**



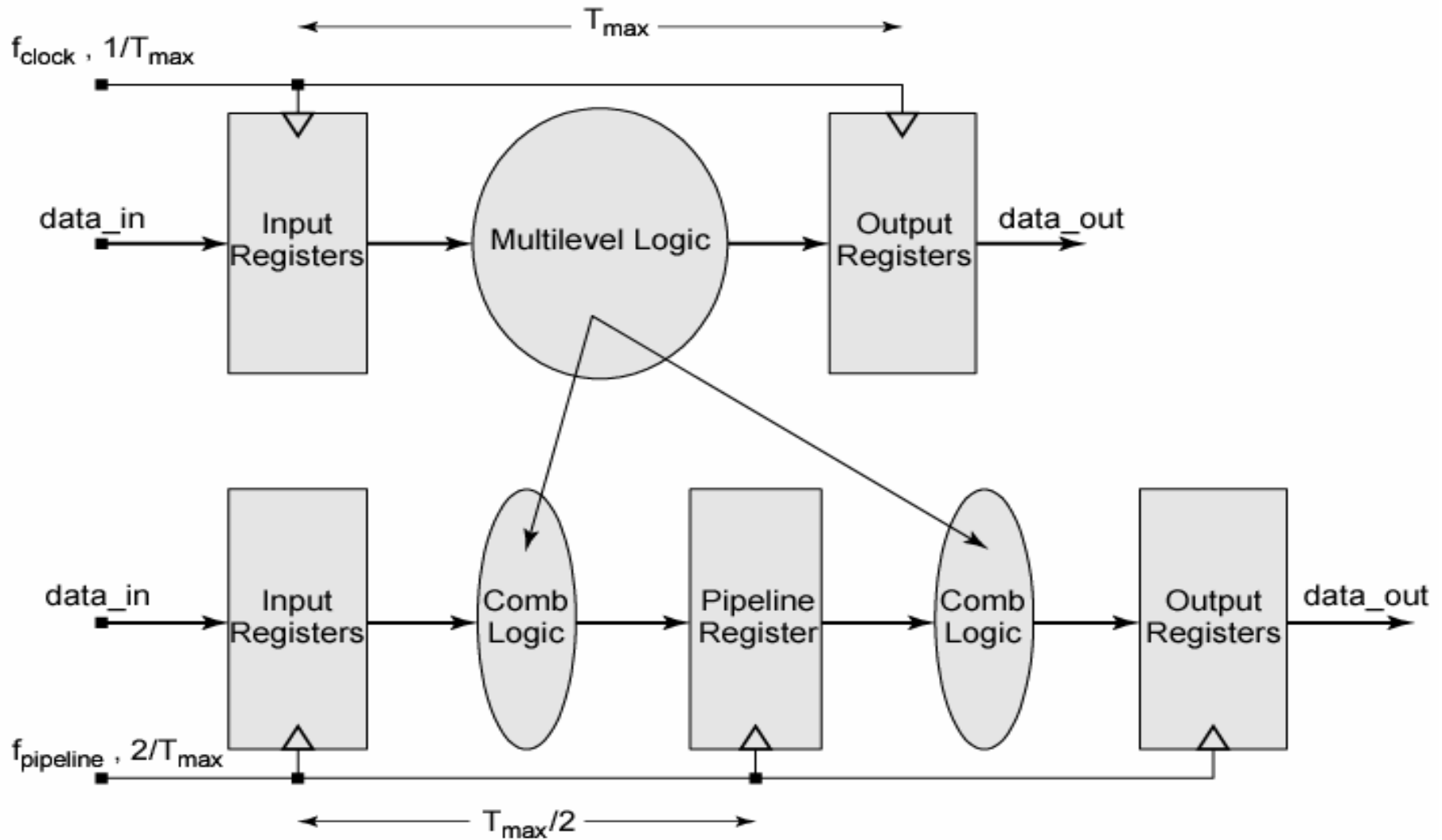


# Pipelining

- Pipelining becomes increasingly important in high-speed, wide-word data transmission and processing
- Pipeline registers can be inserted into the combinational logic datapaths **at strategic locations** to partition the logic into groups with shorter paths



# Fig 9-34 Data Pipeline





# The caution:

- **The partition of a datapath must maintain coherency of the data's datapath** traced from any primary input to any primary output **must pass through the same number of pipeline registers**
- Pipelining:
  - **reduces the number of levels** in the blocks of combinational logic,
  - **shortens the datapaths** between storage elements, and
  - **increases the throughput** of the circuit, by allowing the clock to run faster



# Pipelining's cost

- The pipeline registers **introduce additional area** in the physical layout of an ASIC, and **require additional routing of clock resources**
- This could be an issue for an ASIC
- But **high-end FPGAs are register-rich, and they readily support pipelined architectures**

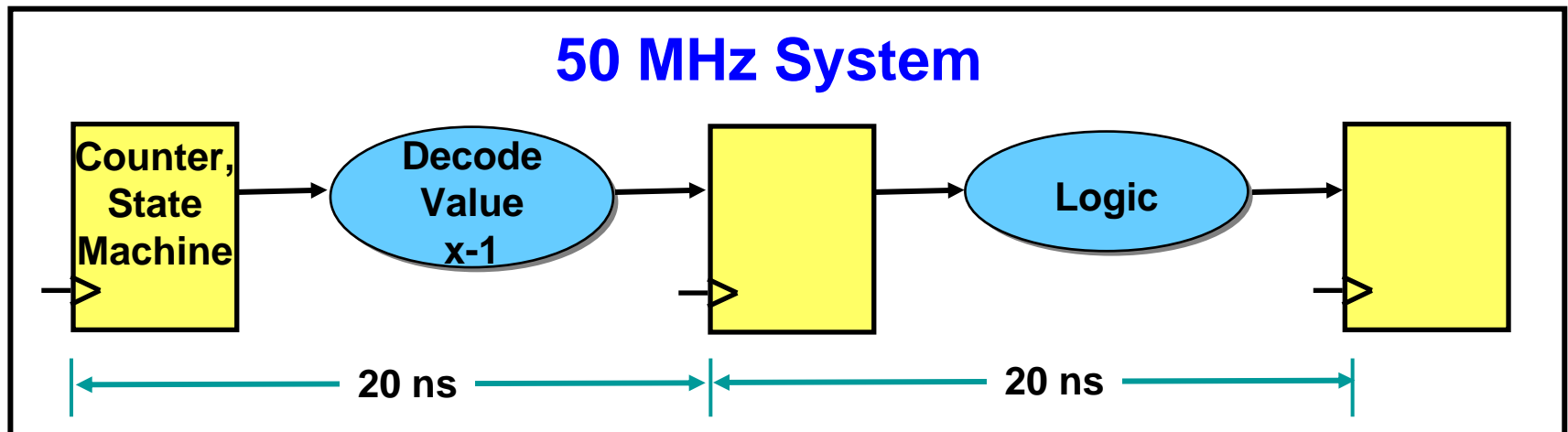
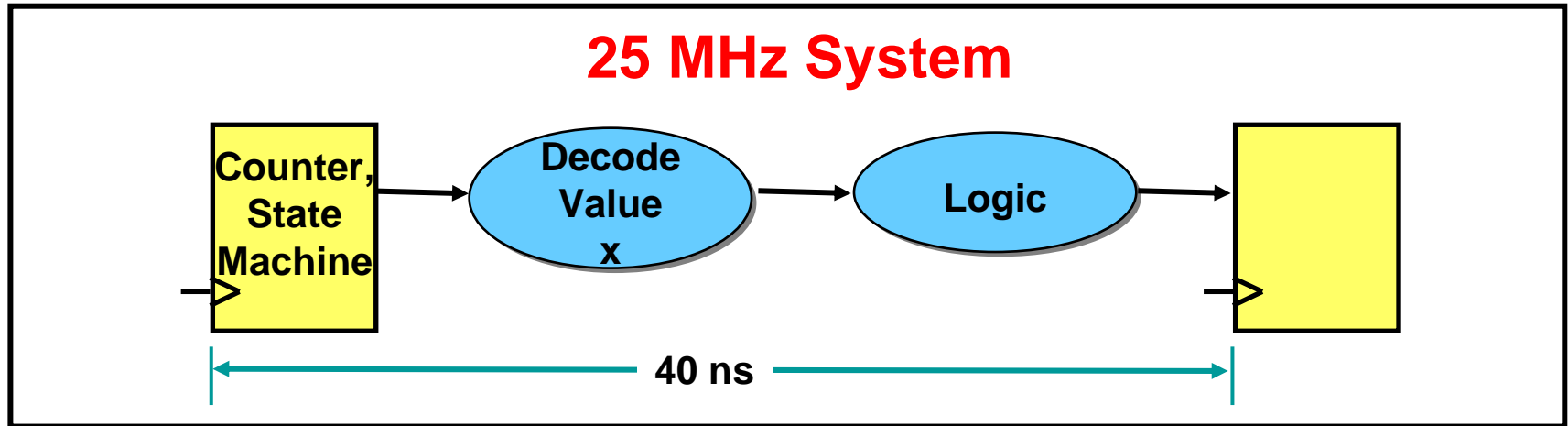


# Partitioning a circuit to create a pipeline

- The delay of the slowest combinational logic stage determines the performance of the pipelined circuit and the speed at which the circuit's common clock can run
- Pipelining shortens the clock cycle and increases the throughput, but introduces input-output latency



# Adding Single Pipeline Stage



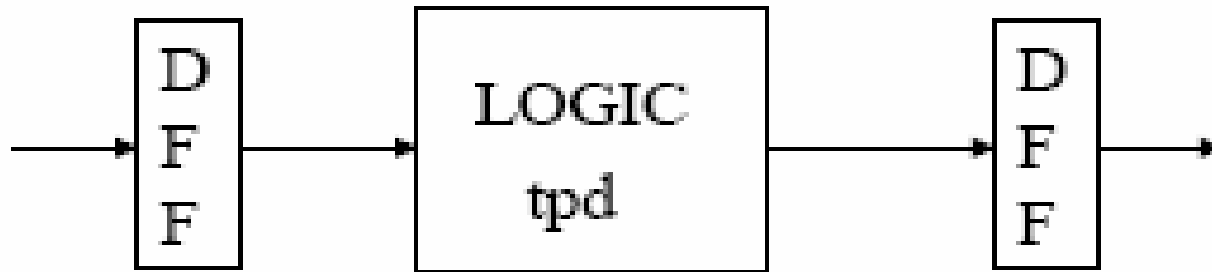


# The latency accumulation

- The latency accumulates through the pipeline
- Latency effectively introduces a time shift between a circuit's input transitions and its output transitions
- **Pipelining trades spatial (hardware) complexity for temporal complexity (performance) by computing smaller functions in less time**



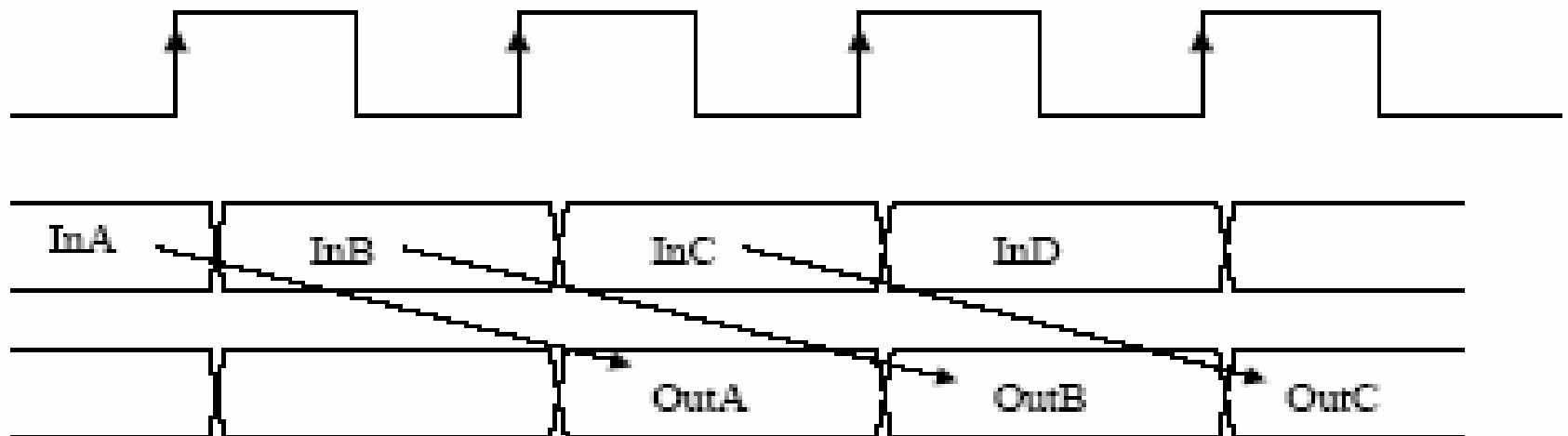
# Registered Datapath



DFFs are rising  
edge triggered

$$\text{Clk Freq} = 1 / (T_{\text{clk}2q} + T_{\text{pd}} + T_{\text{su}})$$

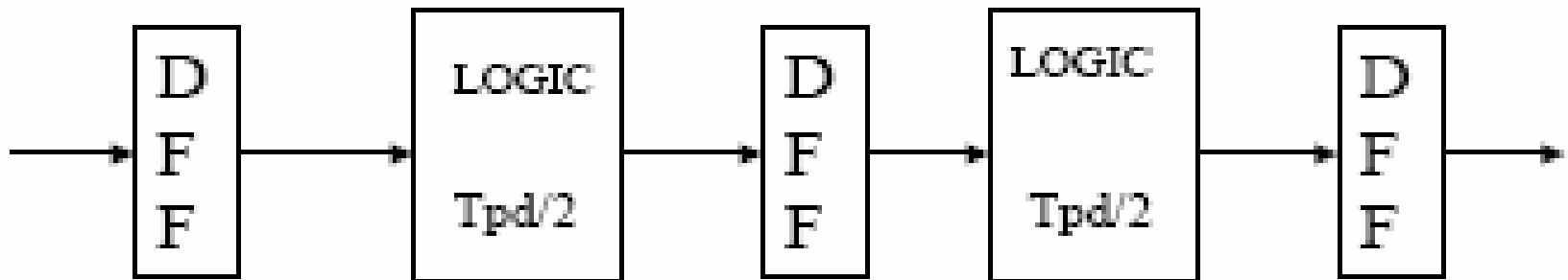
$$\text{Latency} = 1 \text{ clk}$$





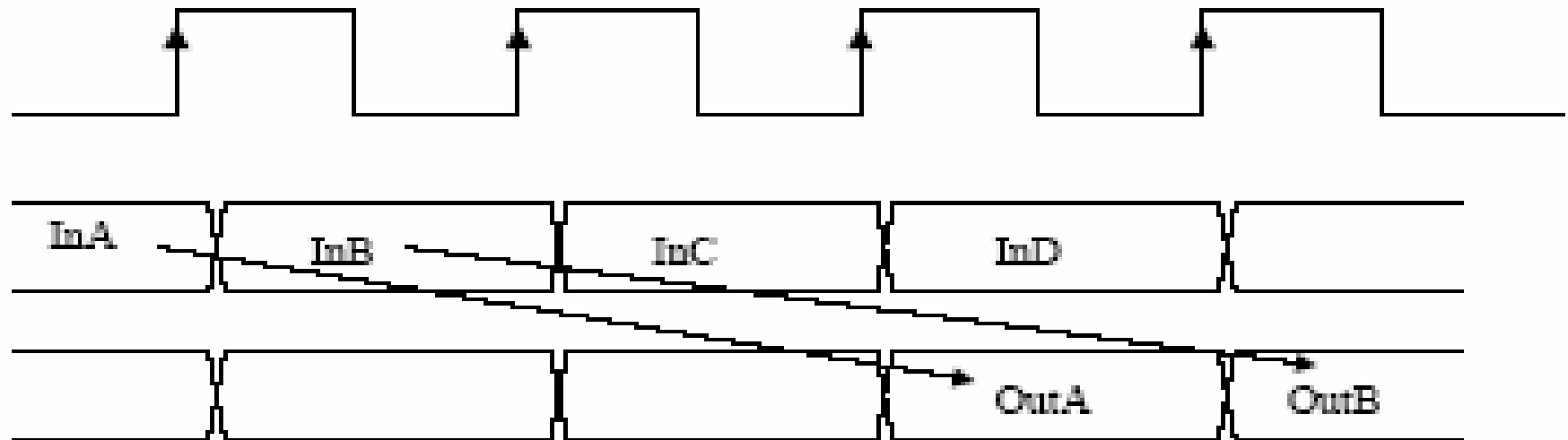


# Add a pipeline stage



$$\text{Clk Freq} = 1 / (\text{Tclk2q} + \text{Tpd}/2 + \text{Tsu})$$

Latency = 2 clks





# Three major benefits

1. Dedicated hardware performs the same single task in every clock cycle
2. The logic to perform a single , dedicated task can be streamlined and optimized as a unit.
3. The datapaths between adjacent stages of the pipeline are short and direct



# **The design of a circuit with pipelined datapaths must address the following issues:**

- (1) When should pipelining be considered?
- (2) Where should the pipeline registers be inserted?
- (3) How much latency will be introduced by the pipeline?



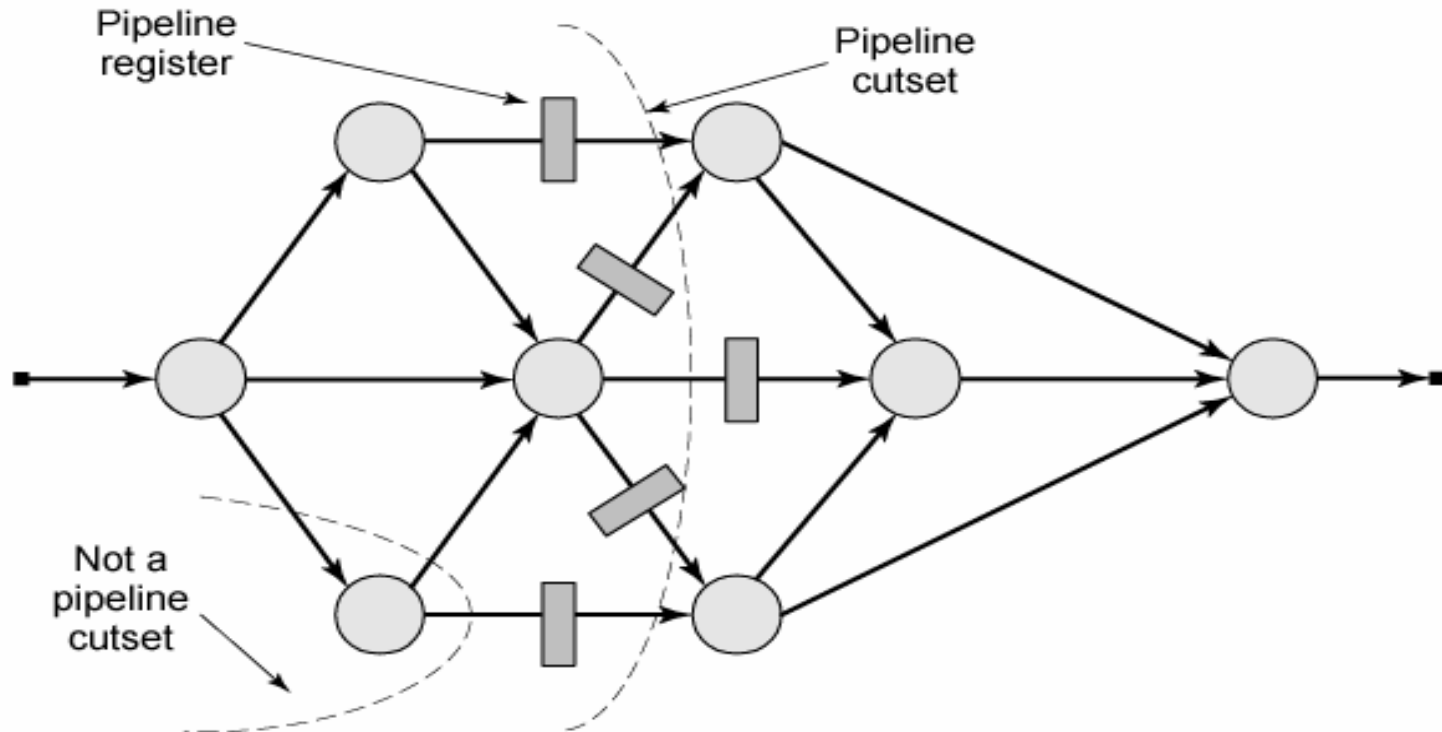
# The feedforward cutsets of the DFG

- A cutset of a connected graph is a set of branches that isolates a node of the graph if removed from the graph
- A pipeline cutset or feedforward cutset is **a minimum set of edges** that, if removed from the graph, partitions it into two connected subgraphs such that there is no path between an input node and an output node
- **Cutsets are used to determine alternative placements of pipeline registers**



# Cutset

Pipeline registers can be inserted into the combinational logic datapaths **at strategic locations** to partition the logic into groups with shorter paths

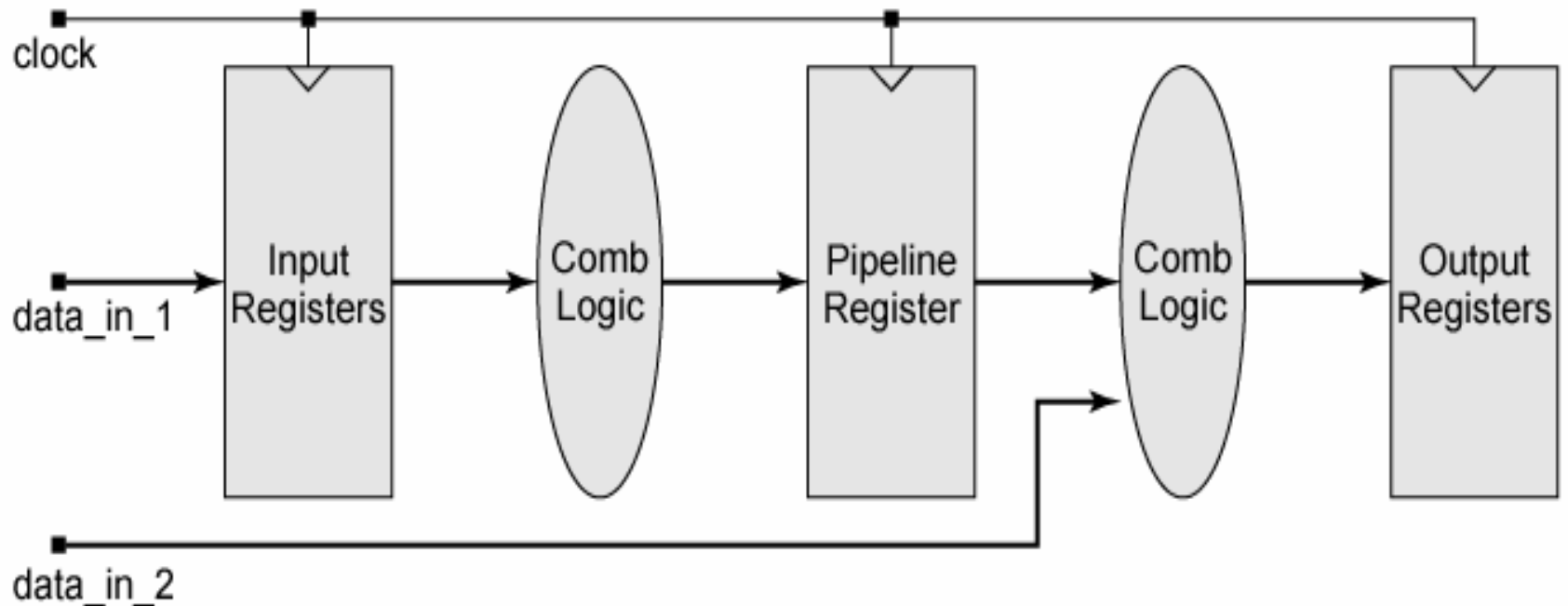




# Problem:

Find a design error in the circuit in following Figure.

Redesign the circuit to implement pipelining correctly.





## 9.5.1 Design Example: Pipelined Adder

- Digital systems that operate on arrays of data typically **contain a large number of adders** in an array structure.
- The processing speed in these applications is usually critical, and may **warrant pipelining**.



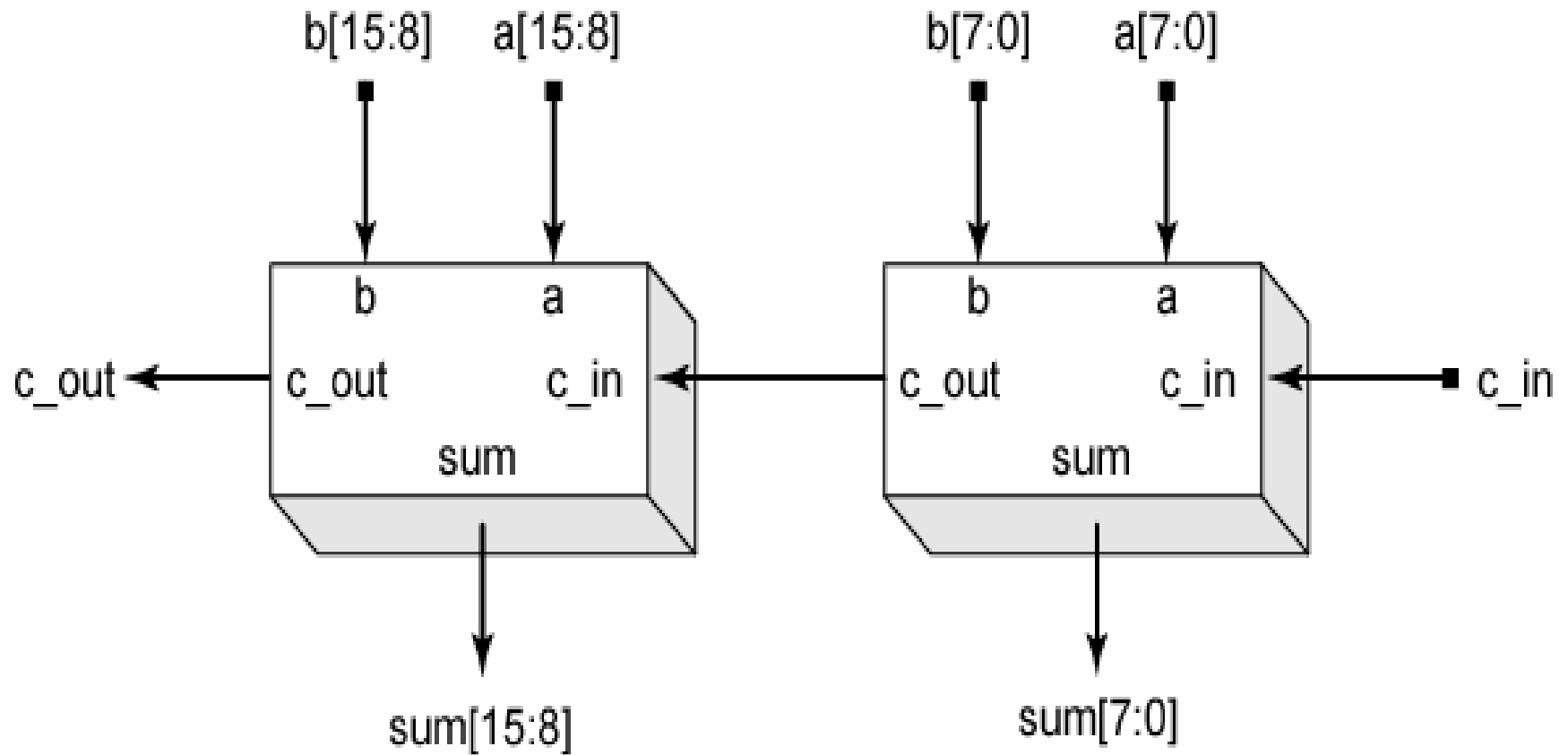
# The 16-bit adder

- The 16-bit adder is formed by chaining two 8-bit adders in a serial connection
- If each 8-bit adder has a throughput delay of 100 ns the worst-case delay of the configuration will be 200 ns
- In a synchronous environment, this structure is organized to have **all operations occur in the same clock cycle**
- An alternative structure **can be pipelined to operate at a higher throughput** by **distributing the processing over multiple cycles of the clock**





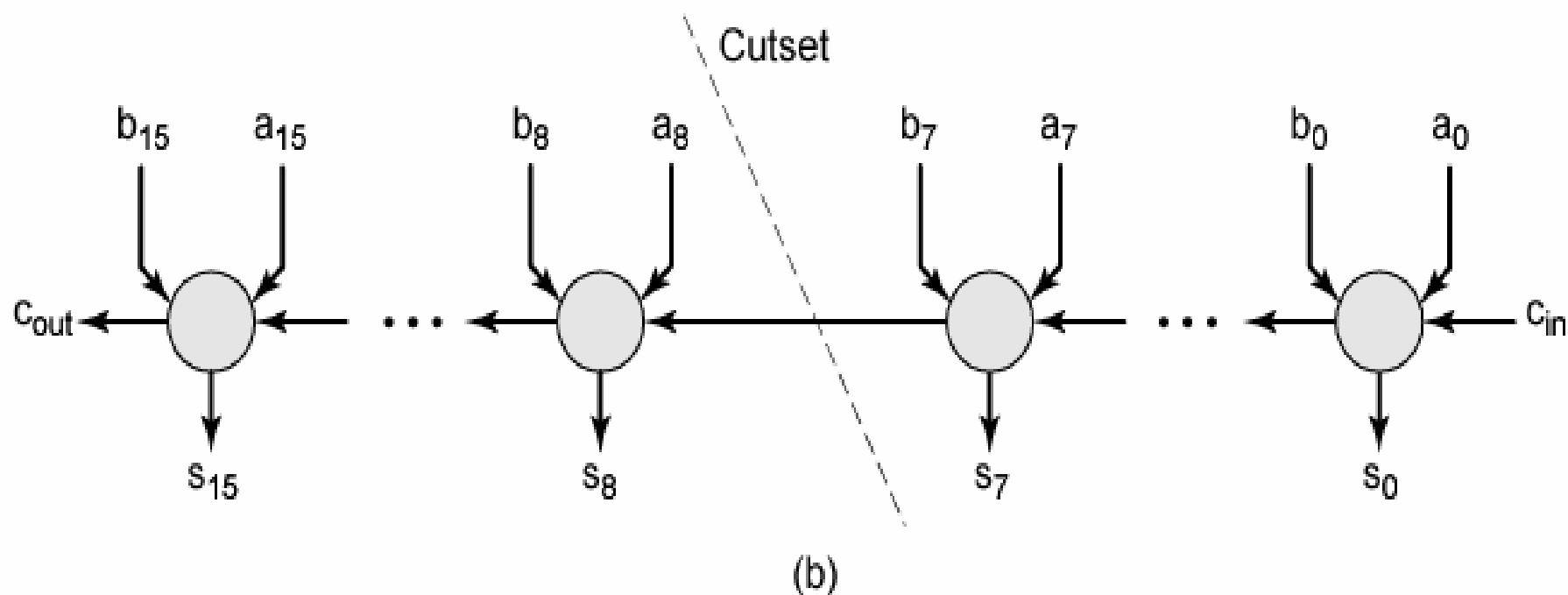
# Serial connection of two 8-bit adder to form a 16-bit adder



(a)

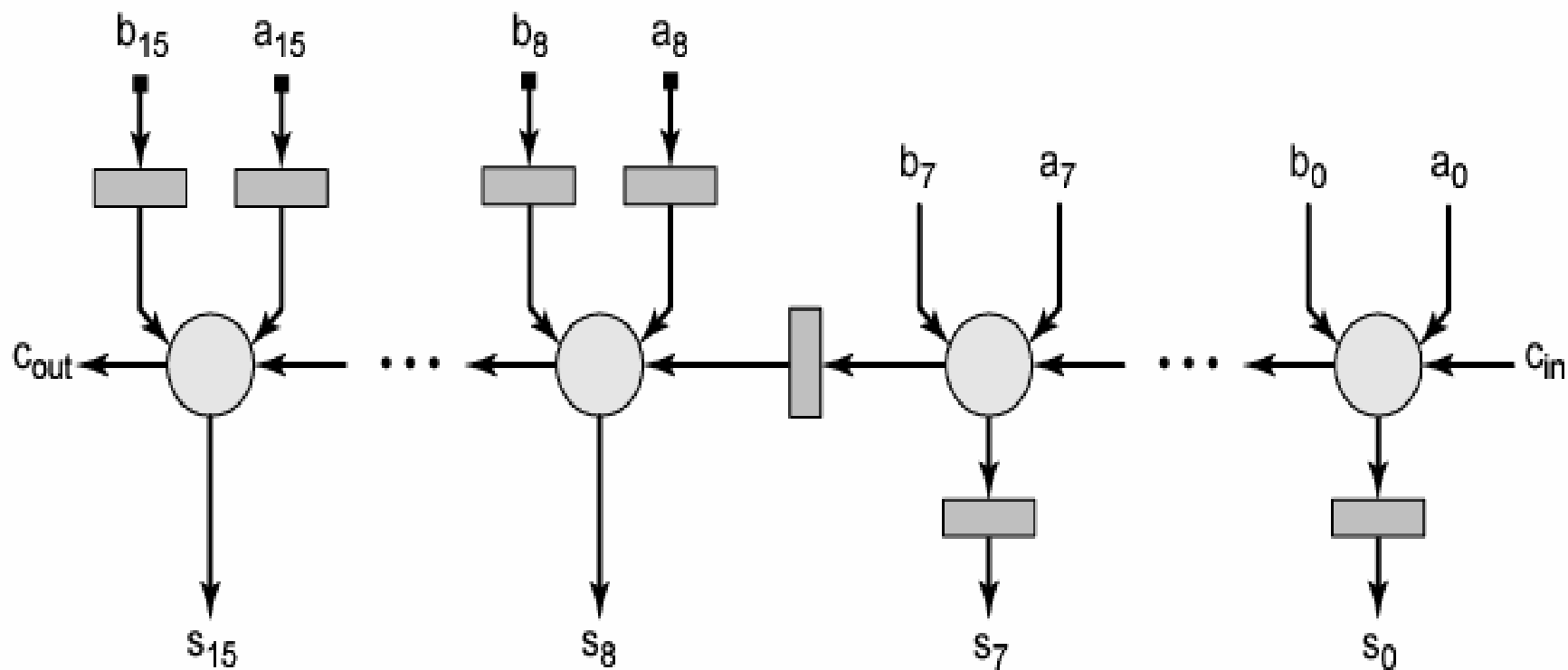


# DFGs before pipelining





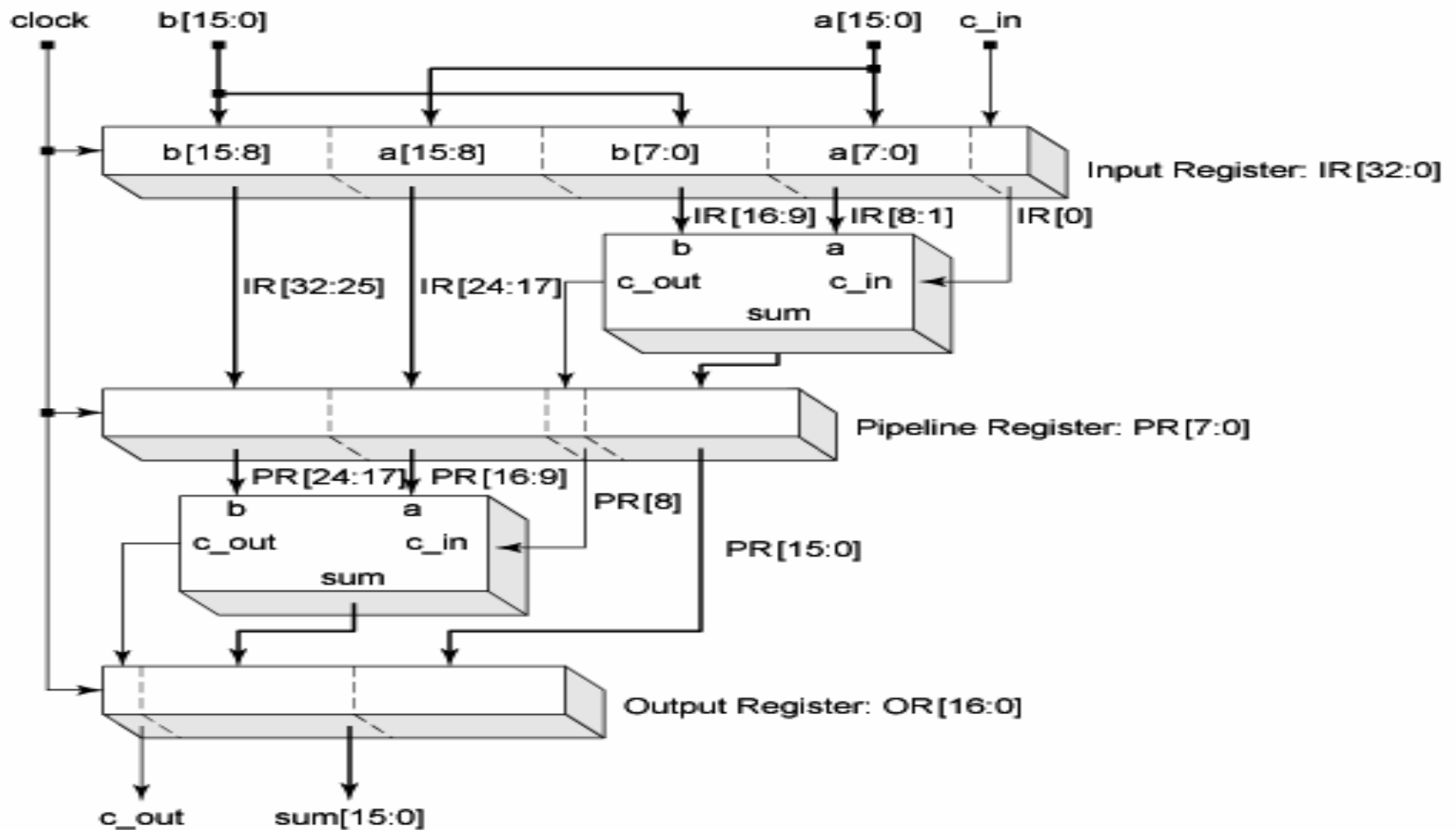
# After pipelining for balanced stage delays



(c)

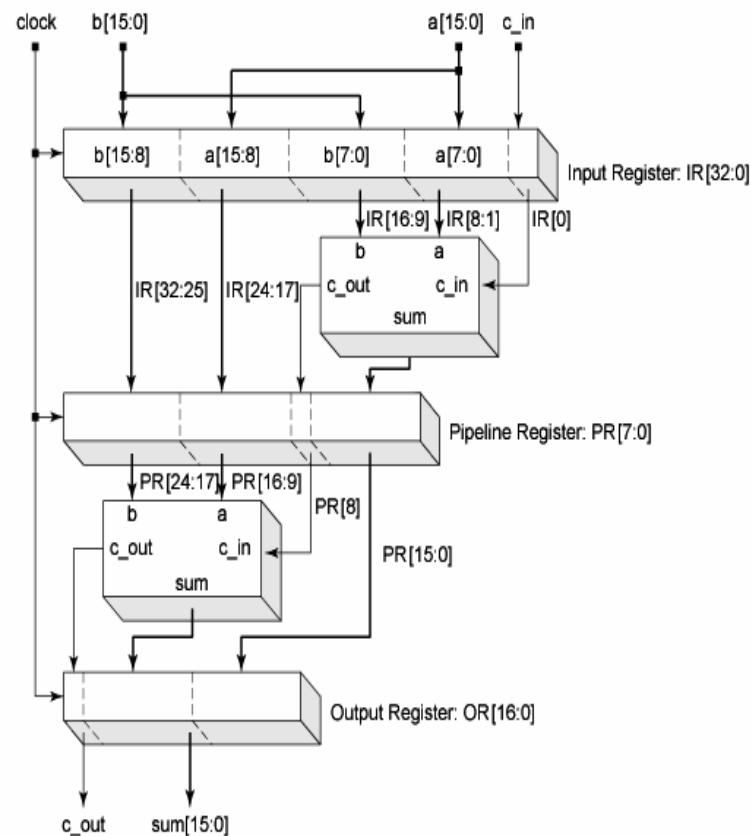
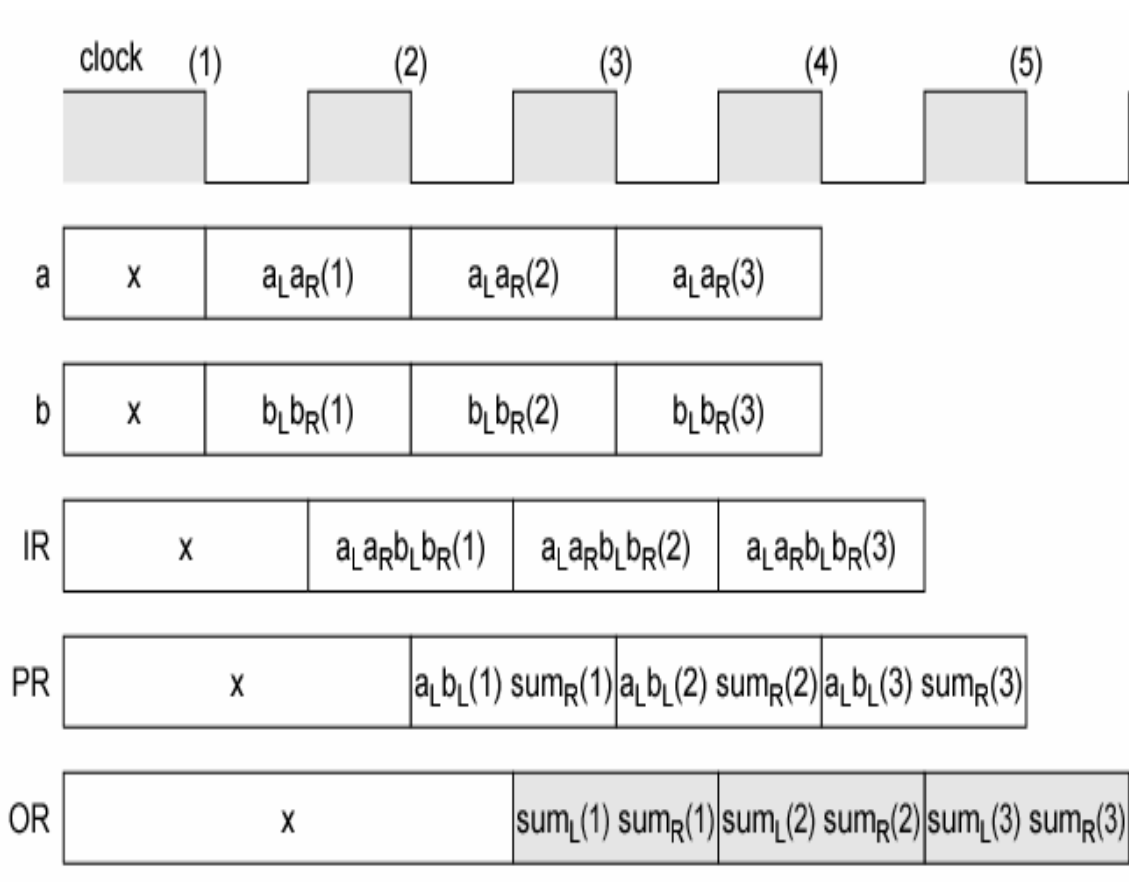


# Pipelined 16-bit adder





# Data movement through a pipelined 16-bit adder





# Pipelined Adder

- IR: data input register
- OR: data output register
- PR: pipelined register
- **After using PR, the longest path is through an 8-bit adder instead a 16-bit one**
- So the frequency will be twice of the original one.



```
module add_16_pipe (c_out,sum,a,b,c_in,clock,IR32_17,  
                  IR16_1,PR24_17,PR16_9,PR7_0);  
    parameter size=16;  
    parameter half=size/2; //8  
    parameter double=2*size; //32  
    parameter triple=3*half; //24  
    parameter size1=half-1; //7  
    parameter size2=size-1; //15  
    parameter size3=half+1; //9  
    parameter R1=1;  
    parameter L1=half;  
    parameter R2=size3;  
    parameter L2=size;  
    parameter R3=size+1;  
    parameter L3=size+half;  
    parameter R4=double-half+1;  
    parameter L4=double;  
  
    input [size2:0] a,b;  
    input  c_in,clock;  
    output [size2:0] sum;  
    output c_out;  
    output [size2:0] IR32_17;  
    output [size2:0] IR16_1;  
    output [half-1:0] PR24_17;  
    output [half-1:0] PR16_9;  
    output [half-1:0] PR7_0;
```



```

reg [double:0] IR;
reg [triple:0] PR;
reg [size:0] OR;

```

```

assign {c_out,sum}=OR;
assign IR32_17=IR[32:17];
assign IR16_1=IR[16:1];
assign PR24_17=PR[24:17];
assign PR16_9=PR[16:9];
assign PR7_0=PR[7:0];

```

```

always@(posedge clock)begin

```

```

    IR[0]<=c_in;    //load input register

```

```

    IR[L1:R1]<=a[size1:0]; // IR[8:1]

```

```

    IR[L2:R2]<=b[size1:0]; // IR[17:9]

```

```

    IR[L3:R3]<=a[size2:half]; // IR[25:18]

```

```

    IR[L4:R4]<=b[size2:half]; // IR[32:26] //load pipeling register

```

```

    PR[L3:R3]<=IR[L4:R4]; //PR[24:17]

```

```

    PR[L2:R2]<=IR[L3:R3]; // PR[16:9]

```

```

    PR[half:0]<=IR[L2:R2]+IR[L1:R1]+IR[0]; //PR[8:0] // 7-0 bits add

```

```

    OR<={{1'b0,PR[L3:R3]}+{1'b0,PR[L2:R2]}+PR[half],PR[size1:0]};

```

```

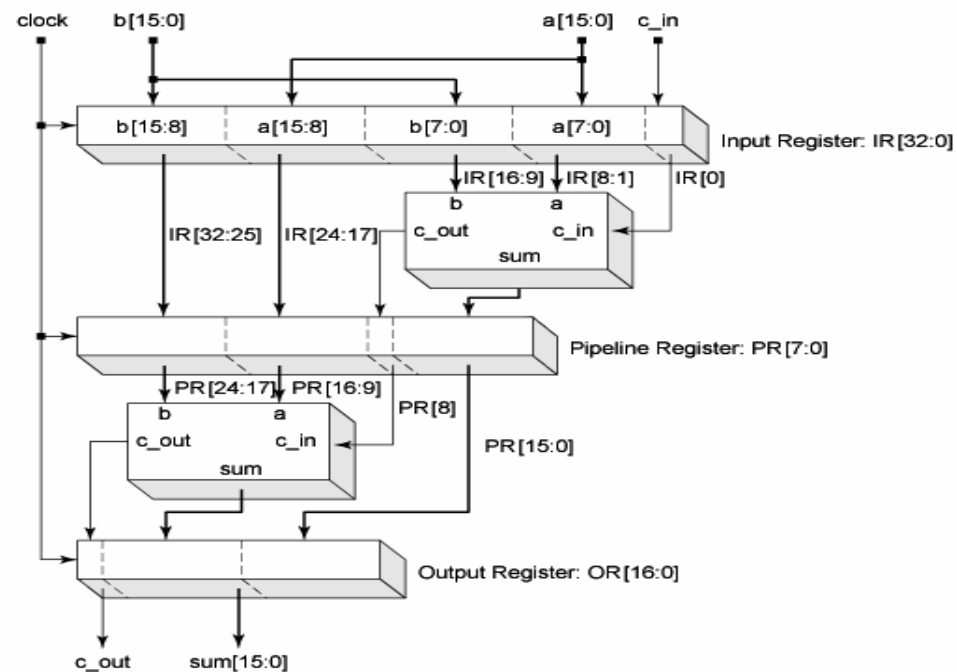
end

```

```

endmodule

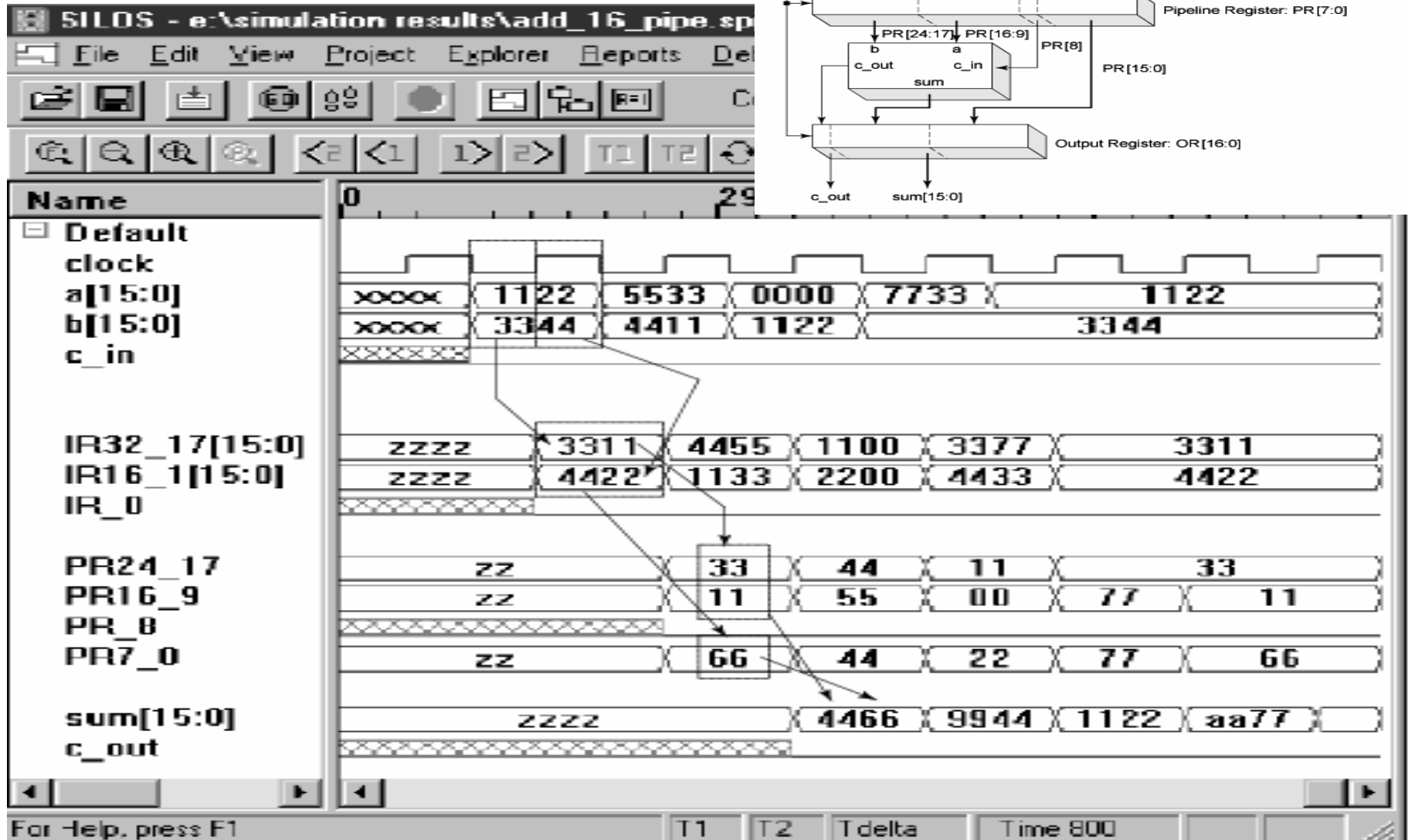
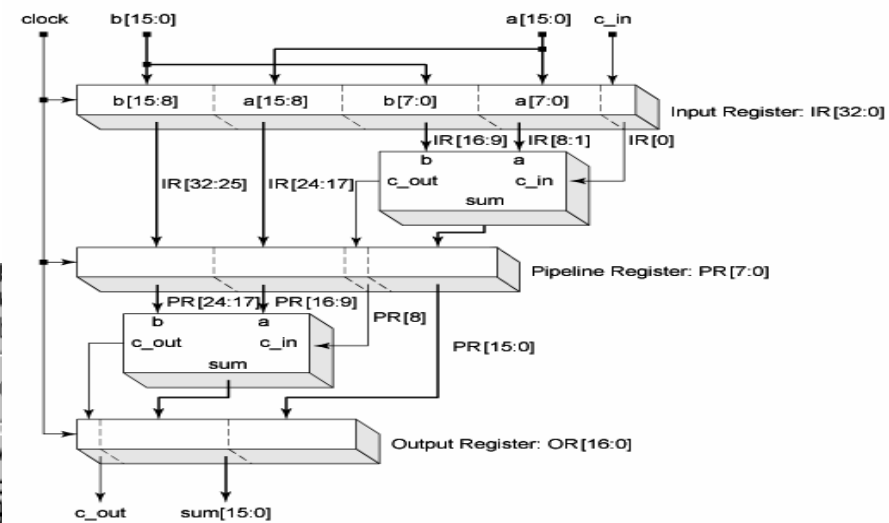
```







# Simulation result



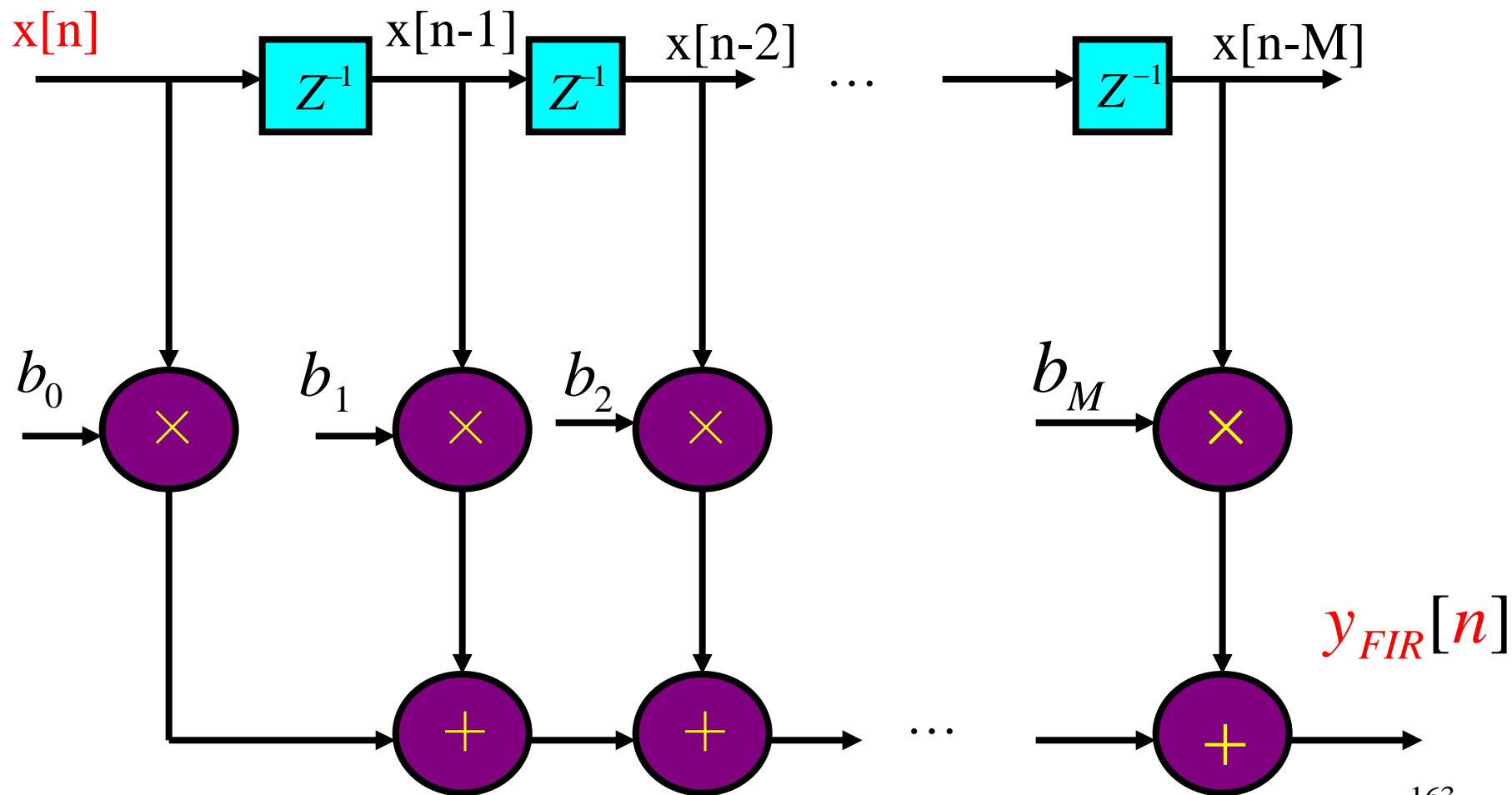


## 9.5.2 Design Example: Pipelined FIR Filter

- MACs dominate the performance of digital signal processors
- In many applications long chains of MACs must be pipelined to increase the throughput of the unit
- For example, the architecture of the FIR filter that was presented in Figure 9-22 consists of a shift register and an array of cascaded MAC units



**Fig 9.22 Functional block diagram for an Mth-order FIR digital filter**





# To increase the throughput

- The longest path through the circuit is proportional to the length of the chain of MACs between the input and the output
- The methods of increasing the throughput
  - ① To require that **high-speed multipliers and/or adders** be used to implement MACs
  - ② To **pipeline the datapaths** to increase the throughput of the filter

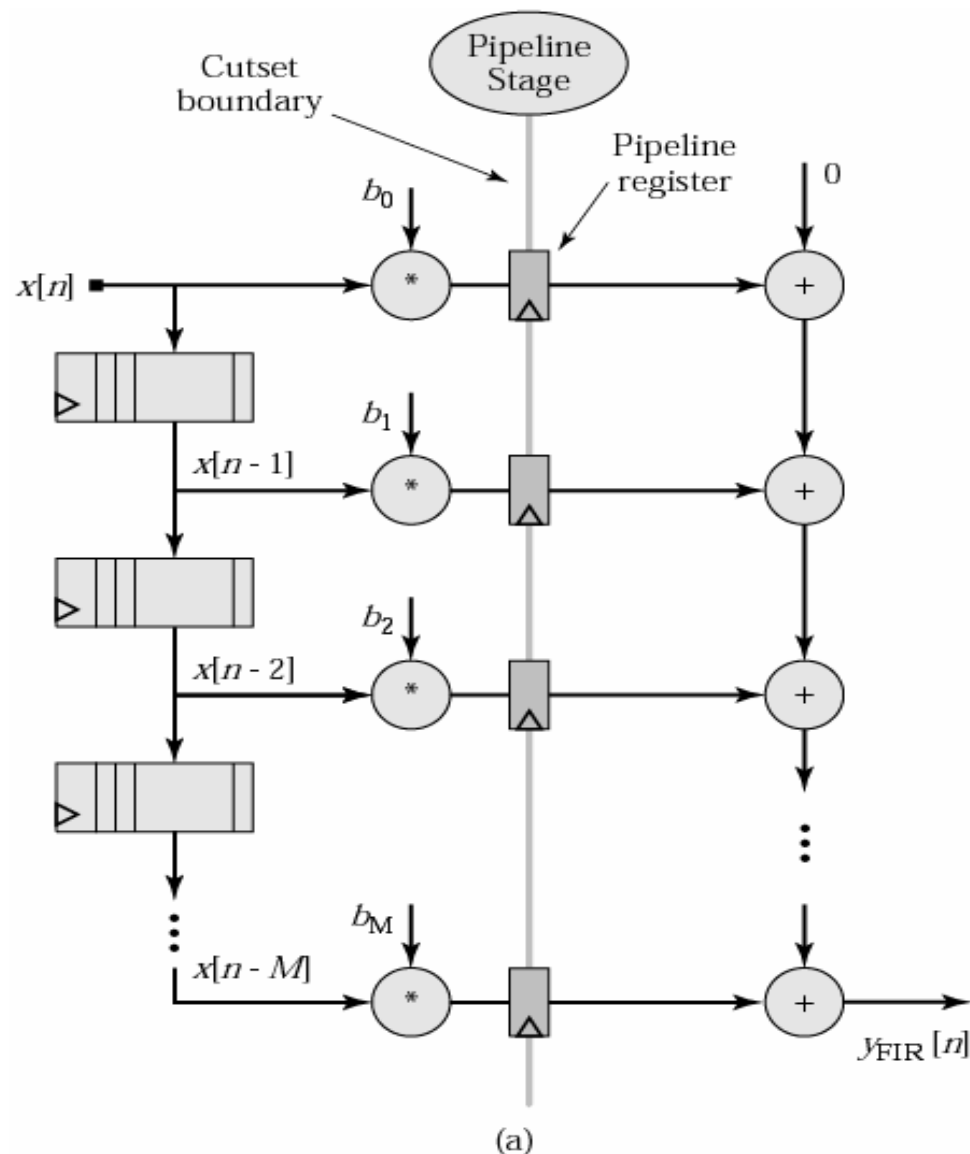


# The FIR filter can be pipelined in a variety of ways

- ① In Figure 9-41(a) the cutsets place **the pipeline registers at the output of the multipliers**
  - ② The cutsets of the alternative structure in Figure 9-41(b) have pipeline registers **at the inputs of the adders**
- **Note:** The structure in Figure 9-41(b) **must be modified to achieve coherency of the datapaths**

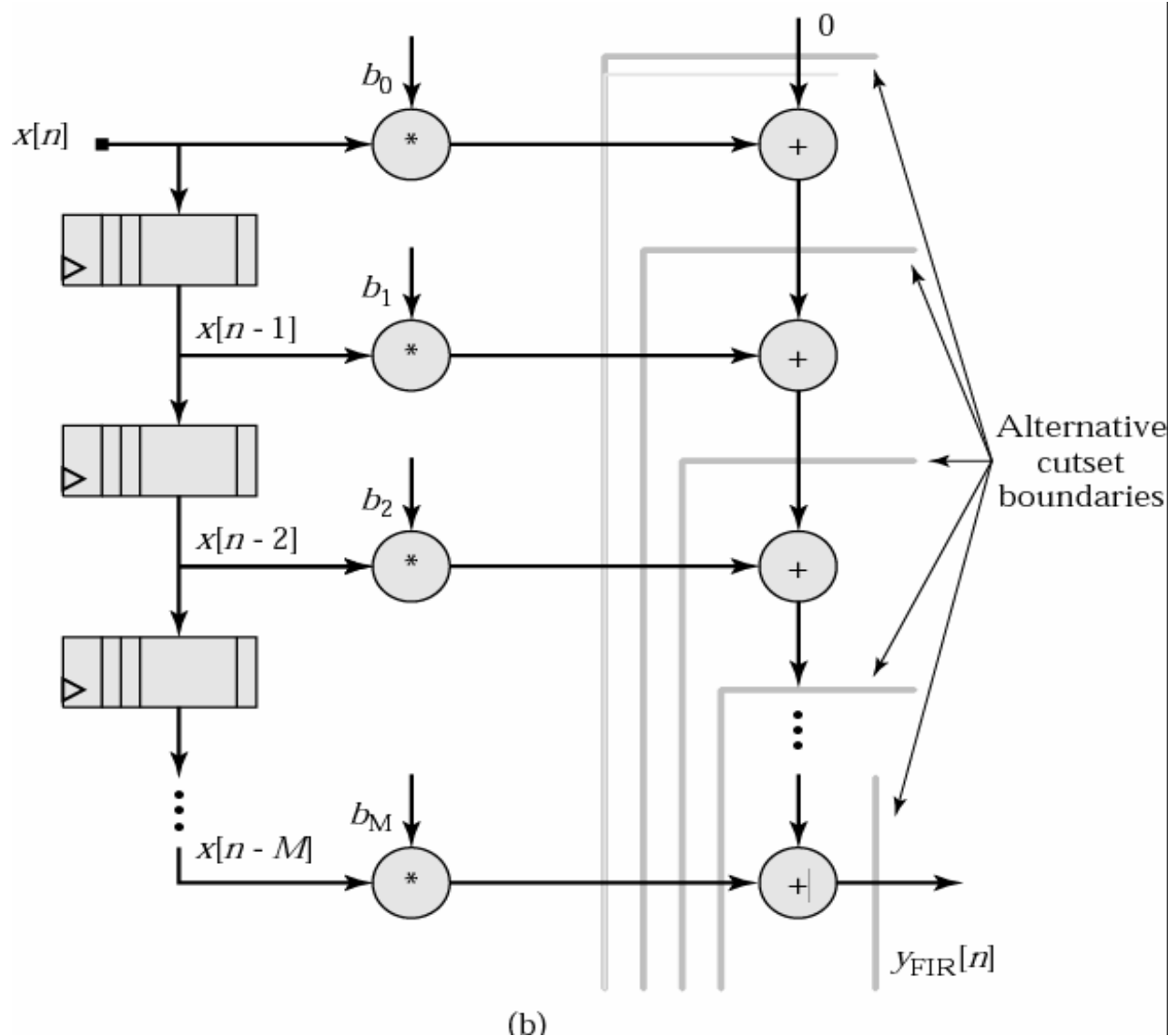


# Fig 9-41(a) Pipeline at the outputs of the multipliers





# Fig 9-41(b) Pipeline at the inputs of the adders

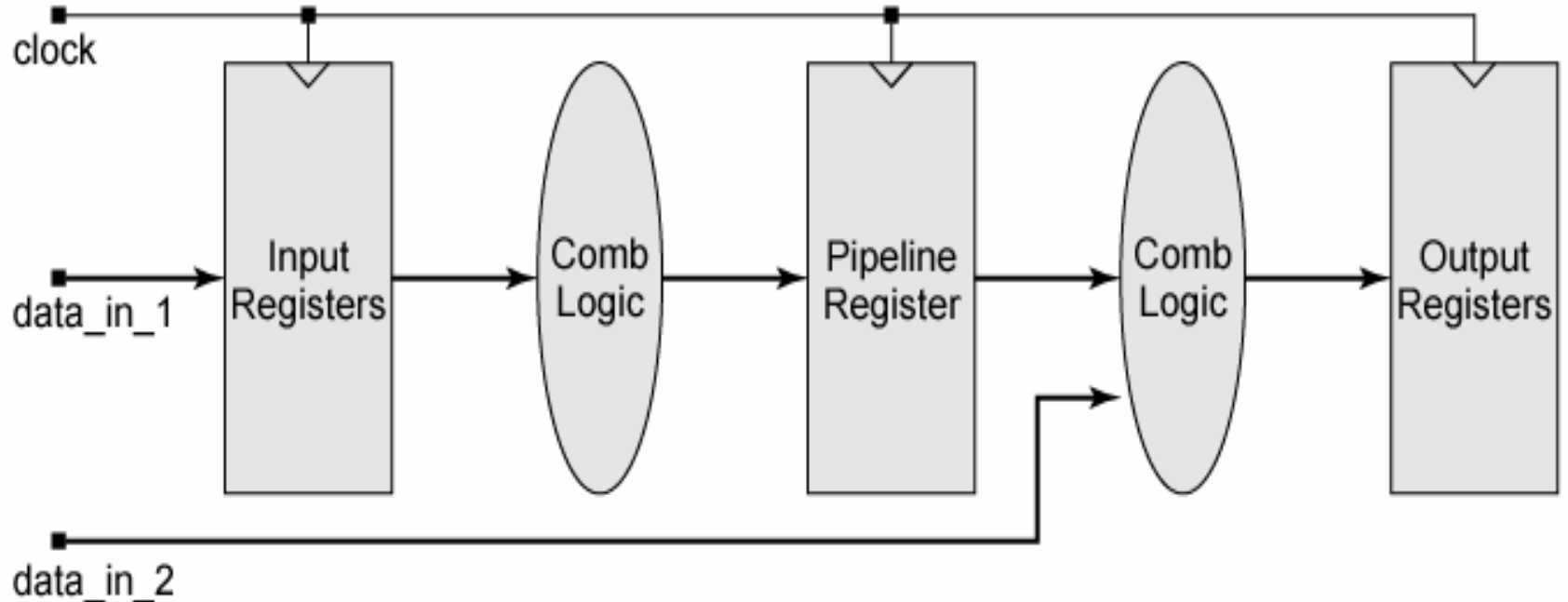




# Problem:

Find a design error in the circuit in following Figure.

Redesign the circuit to implement pipelining correctly.







# The caution

**The data's datapath traced from any primary input to any primary output **must pass through the same number of pipeline registers****



## 9.6 Circular buffers

- The algorithms of many digital filters and other signal processors **repeatedly shift and store samples of data** that are taken over a moving window in the time-sequence domain
- For example, **a filter might form its output from a weighted sum of samples of the present and most recent  $N-1$  samples of the input**



# The concept of circular buffer

Camera hardware



Data



PCI

Frame #1

#2

#3

#4

#5

#6

#7

#8

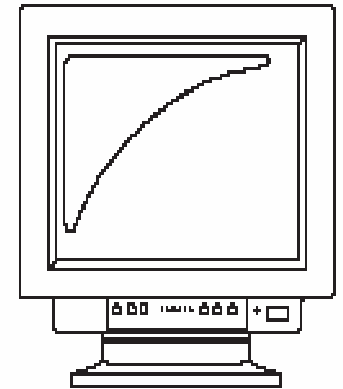
Memory buffer

Application



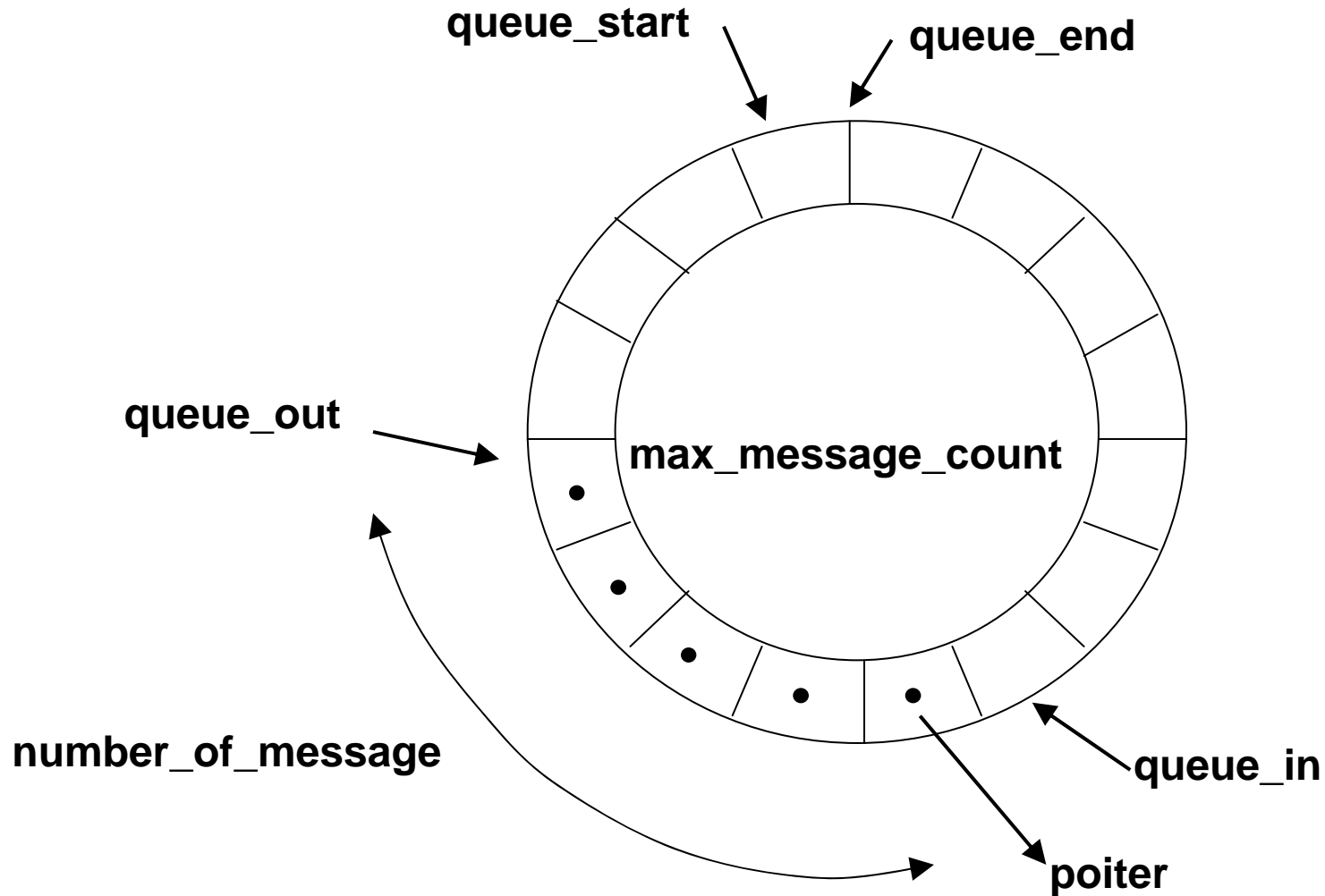
Post-  
acquisition  
processing

Display





# Data Structure



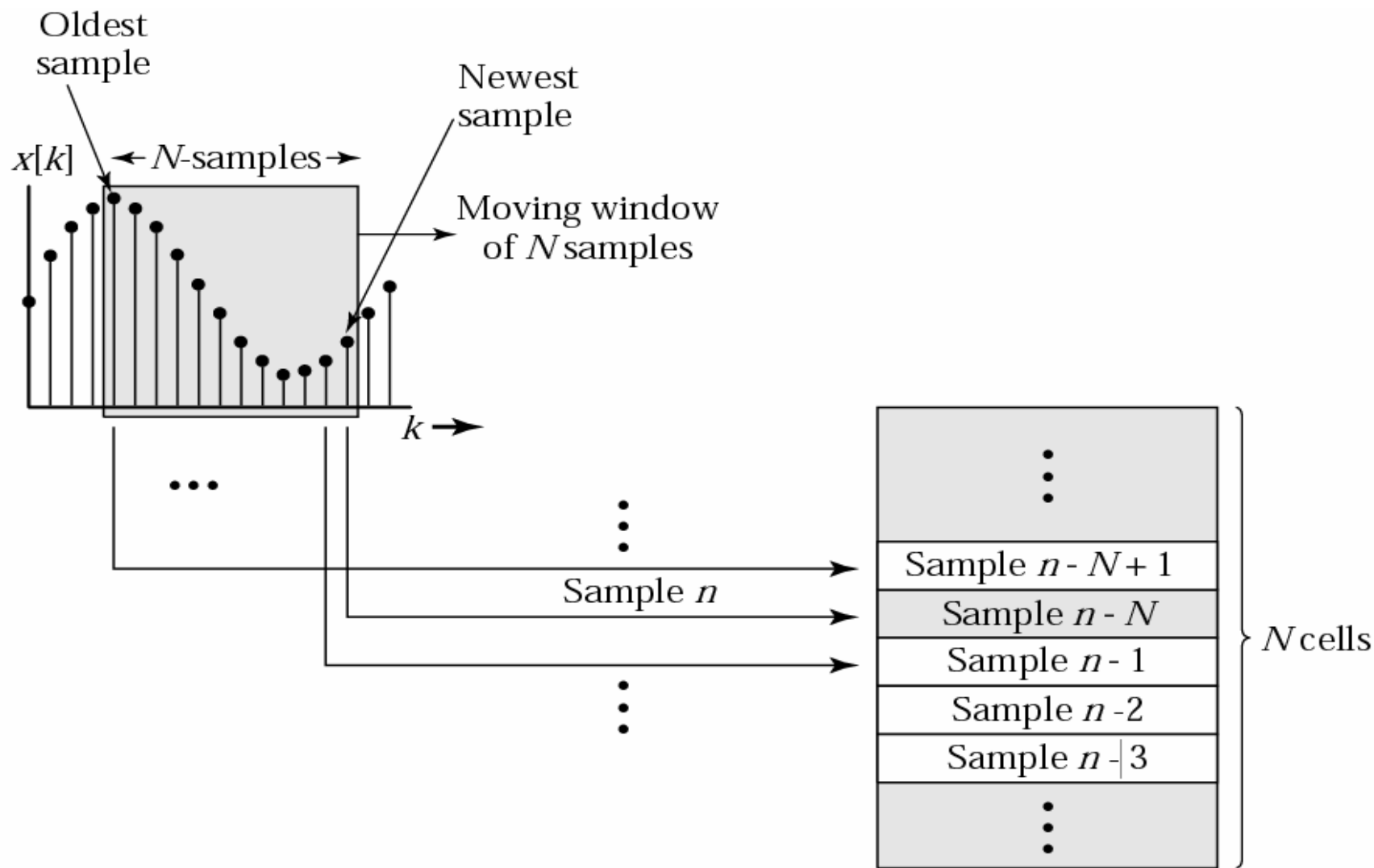


# Circular buffers

- Circular buffers use an address mechanism that **moves pointers** to register cells, **instead of moving the actual data**
- To realize **circular buffers hardware** efficiency and speed, are used to create the effect of moving a N entire window of samples through memory, without actually moving all of the data



**Fig 9.42 An circular buffer storing data from an N-sample moving window**





# Circular buffers

- When the  $n$ th sample is received, the data held in the entire array of registers is not shifted
- The cell addressed by the pointer receives the  $n$ th sample, overwriting the previous contents at the location previously occupied by the  $n-N$ th sample
- **The net effect is that the storage of data can occur in significantly fewer memory cycles**



## Example 9.9

- Two Verilog models of an N-sample moving window memory are described below
- The first version, Circular\_Buffer\_1, uses an array of parallel-load shift registers to shift the entire contents of the buffer at each time step





```
module Circular_Buffer_1
```

```
    (cell_3, cell_2, cell_1, cell_0, Data_in, clock, reset);
```

```
    parameter    buff_size = 4;
```

```
    parameter    word_size = 8;
```

```
    output        [word_size -1: 0] cell_3, cell_2, cell_1, cell_0;
```

```
    input         [word_size -1: 0] Data_in;
```

```
    input         clock, reset;
```

```
    reg           [word_size-1: 0] Buff_Array [buff_size-1: 0];  
                                     //4 * 8 bits memory units
```

```
    wire cell_3 = Buff_Array[3],
```

```
          cell_2 = Buff_Array[2];
```

```
    wire cell_1 = Buff_Array[1],
```

```
          cell_0 = Buff_Array[0];
```

```
    integer      k;
```

```
    always @ (posedge clock) begin
```

```
        if (reset == 1)
```

```
            for (k = 0; k <= buff_size -1; k = k+1)
```

```
                Buff_Array[k] <= 0;
```

```
        else for (k = 1; k <= buff_size -1; k = k+1) begin
```

```
            Buff_Array[k] <= Buff_Array[k-1];
```

```
            Buff_Array[0] <= Data_in;
```

```
        end
```

```
    end
```

```
endmodule
```



# The second version

- Circular\_Buffer\_2, includes write\_ptr, which points to the next cell to be read
- The contents of the register do not move
- The pointer is incremented at each time step, so the data below the pointer is aged



```
module Circular_Buffer_2 (cell_3, cell_2, cell_1, cell_0,  
                          Data_in, clock, reset);  
  
    parameter buff_size = 4;  
    parameter word_size = 8;  
    output [word_size -1: 0] cell_3, cell_2, cell_1, cell_0;  
    input  [word_size -1: 0] Data_in;  
    input  clock, reset;  
  
    reg [word_size -1: 0] Buff_Array [buff_size -1: 0];  
                                //4 * 8 bits memory units  
    wire  cell_3 = Buff_Array[3], cell_2 = Buff_Array[2];  
    wire  cell_1 = Buff_Array[1], cell_0 = Buff_Array[0];  
    integer k;  
  
    parameter write_ptr_width = 2;  
                // Width of write pointer  
    parameter max_write_ptr = 3;  
    reg [write_ptr_width -1 : 0] write_ptr;  
                // Pointer writing for
```



```
always @ (posedge clock) begin
```

```
    if (reset == 1 ) begin
```

```
        write_ptr <= 0;
```

```
        for (k = 0; k <= buff_size -1; k = k+1)
```

```
            Buff_Array[k] <= 0;
```

```
        end
```

```
    else begin
```

```
        Buff_Array[write_ptr] <= Data_in;
```

```
        if (write_ptr < max_write_ptr) // < 3 ,loop
```

```
            write_ptr <= write_ptr + 1;
```

```
        else write_ptr <= 0;
```

```
    end
```

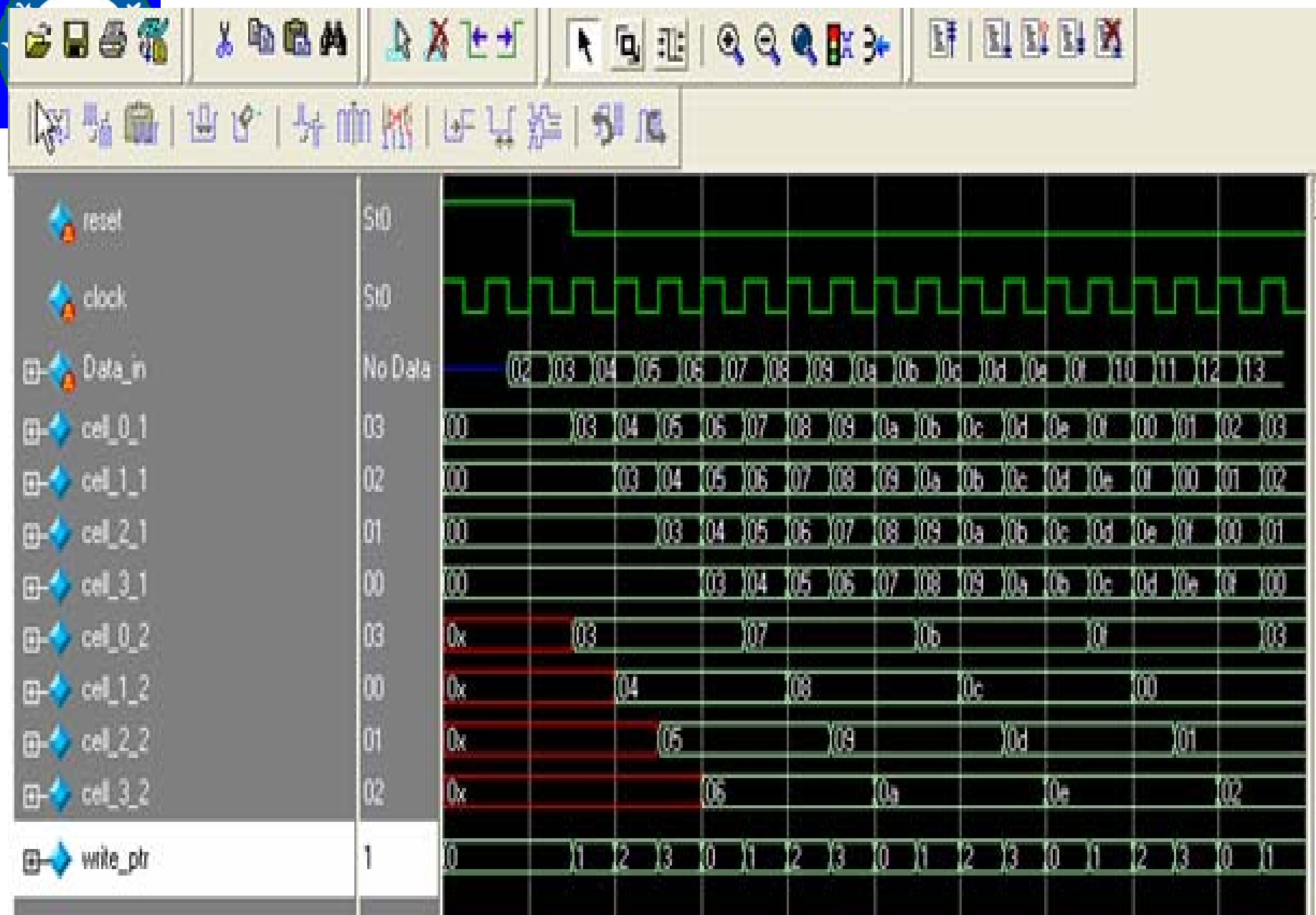
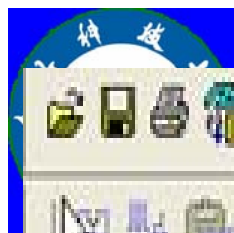
```
end
```

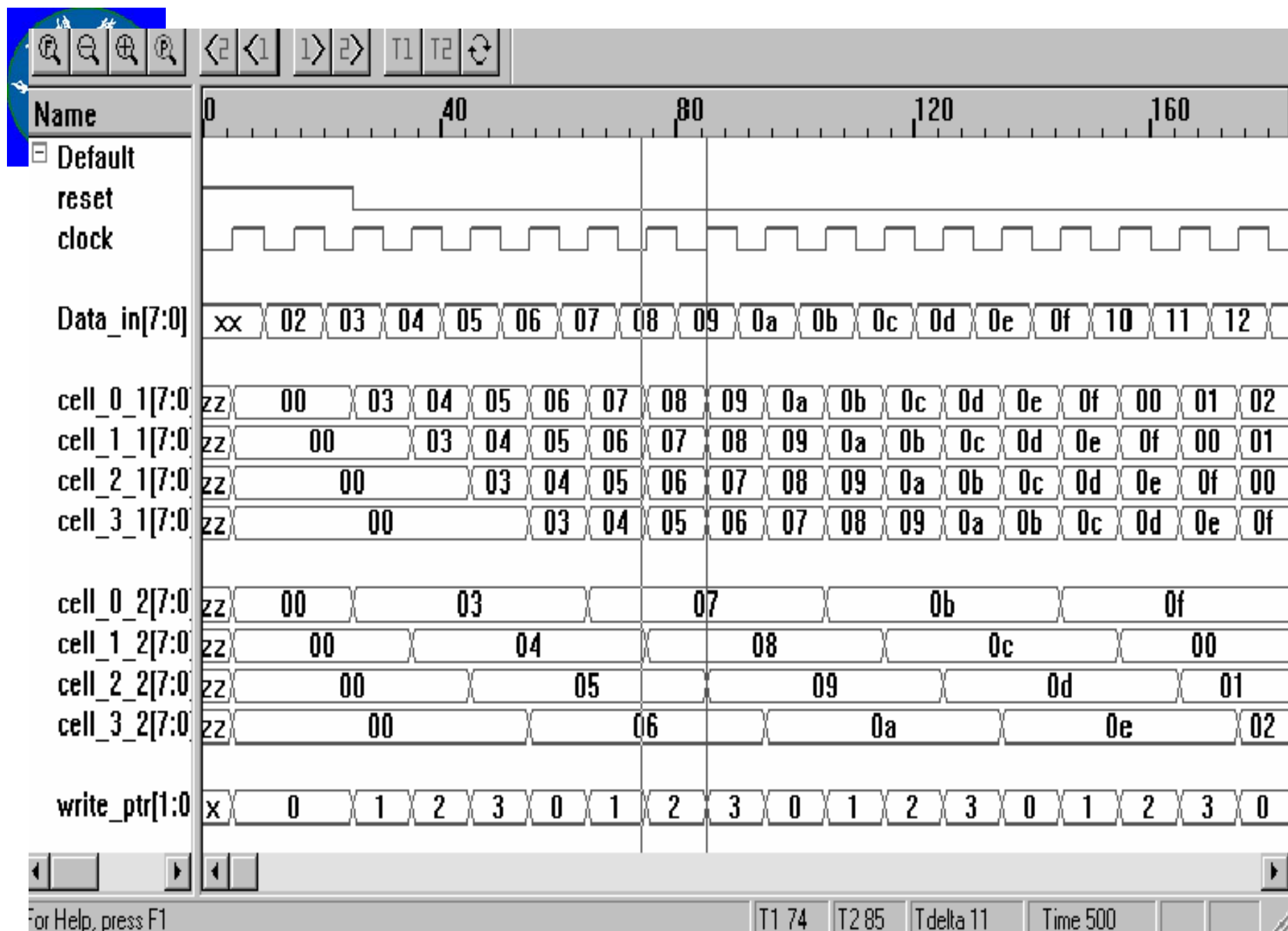
```
endmodule
```



# Note

- The contents of Circular\_Buffer\_1 change at every cycle,  
while only the one cell addressed by write\_ptr in Circular\_Buffer\_2 changes as new data arrive







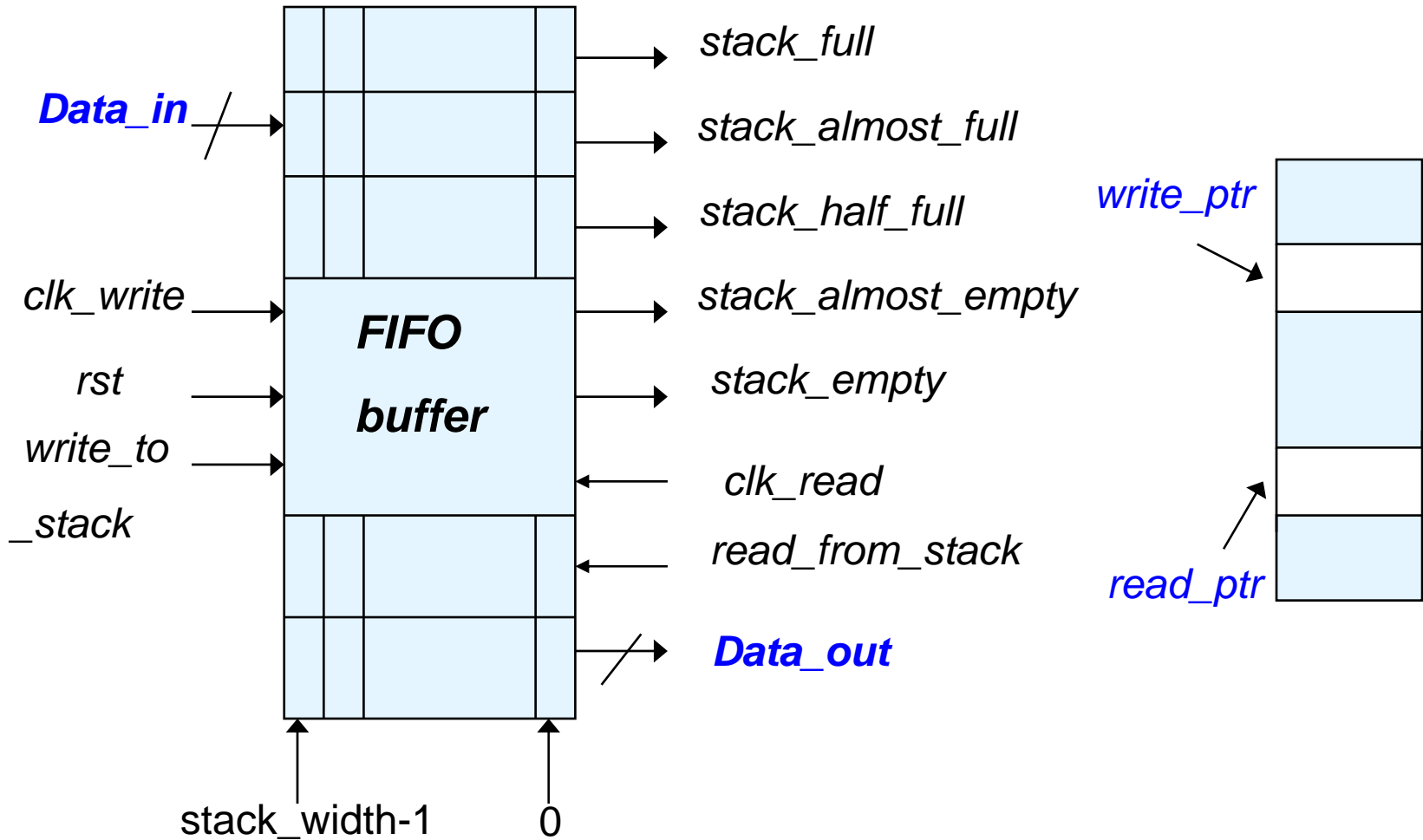
## 9.7 FIFOs and Synchronization across Clock Domains

- FIFO can implement high-performance parallel interfaces between independent clock domains
- **A FIFO consists of a block of *memory* and a *controller* that manages the traffic of data to and from the FIFO**
- FIFO' architecture provides **access to only one register cell at a time**
- It has two address points ,one for *writing*, another for *reading*



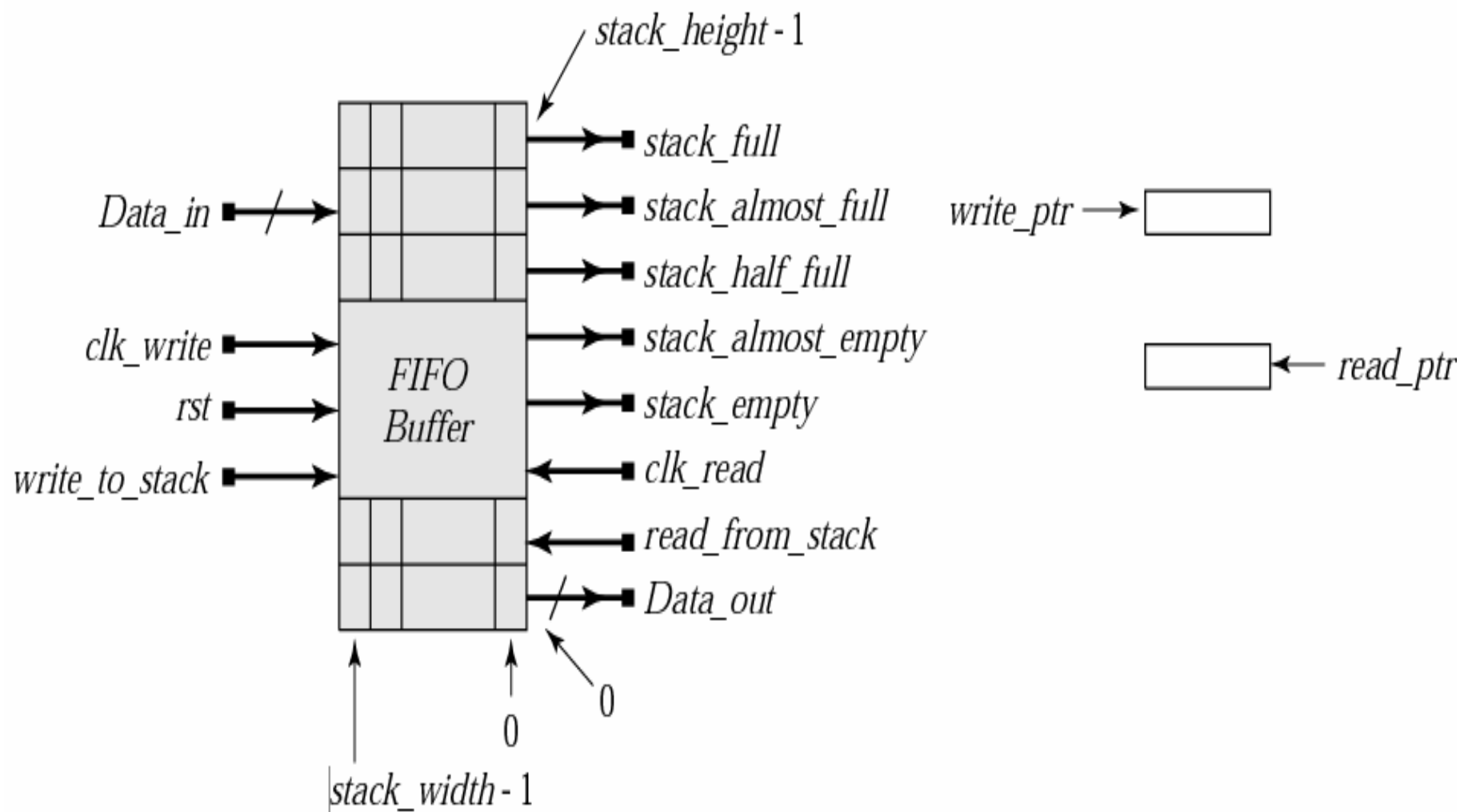


# Fig 9-44 FIFO Buffer: input-output port





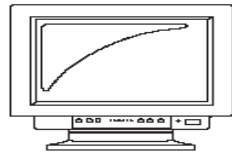
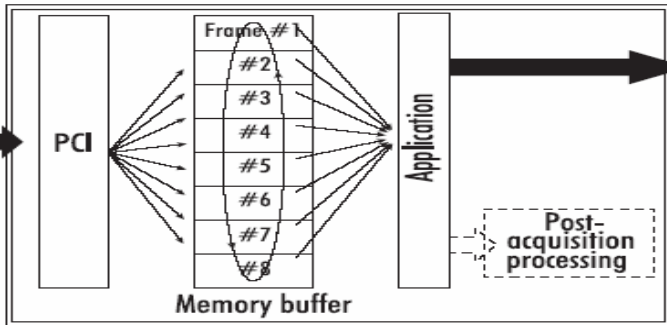
# Fig 9.44 FIFO Buffer : I/O Ports





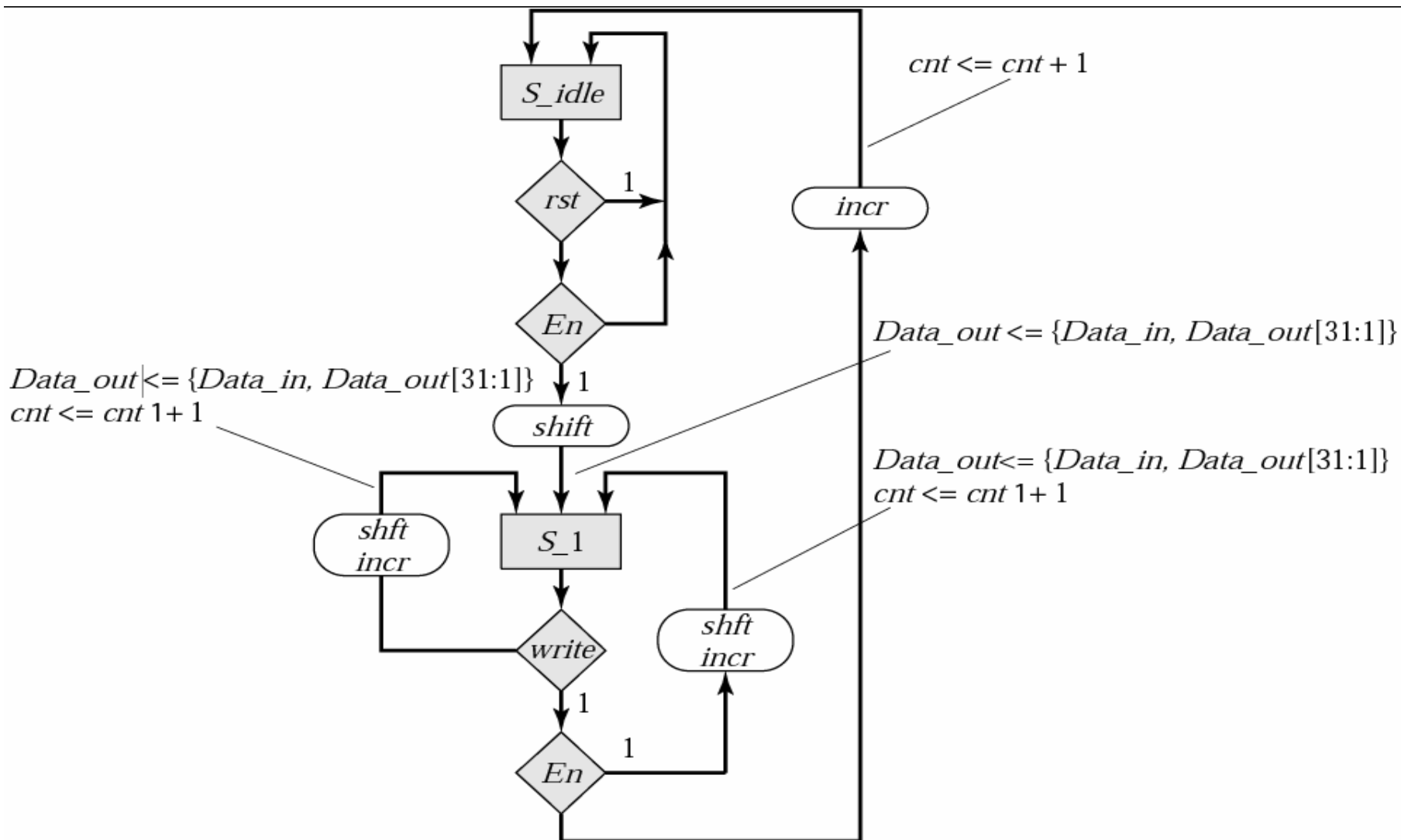
## Example 9.10

- The multi-channel circuit in Figure 9-45 has **four channels of serial bit streams originating in a 100 MHz clock domain**, with each passing through a serial-to-parallel converter that forms a 32-bit word for transfer to a dual-port FIFO
- Data are directed to each serial-to-parallel converter at a rate of 100 MHz;
- **A processor operating with a clock of 133 MHz is to read data from the FIFOs** and multiplex the four channels of data onto a common datapath





# ASMD Chart for a 32bit serial to parallel converter: **Data\_out,incr**





# A 32 bits serial to parallel converter

```
module Ser_Par_Conv_32
    (Data_out, write, Data_in, En, clk, rst);
    output [31: 0]    Data_out;
    output            write;
    input             Data_in;
    input             En, clk, rst;
    parameter         S_idle = 0;
    parameter         S_1 = 1;
    reg               state, next_state;
    reg               [4: 0] cnt;
    reg               Data_out;
    reg               shift, incr;
```

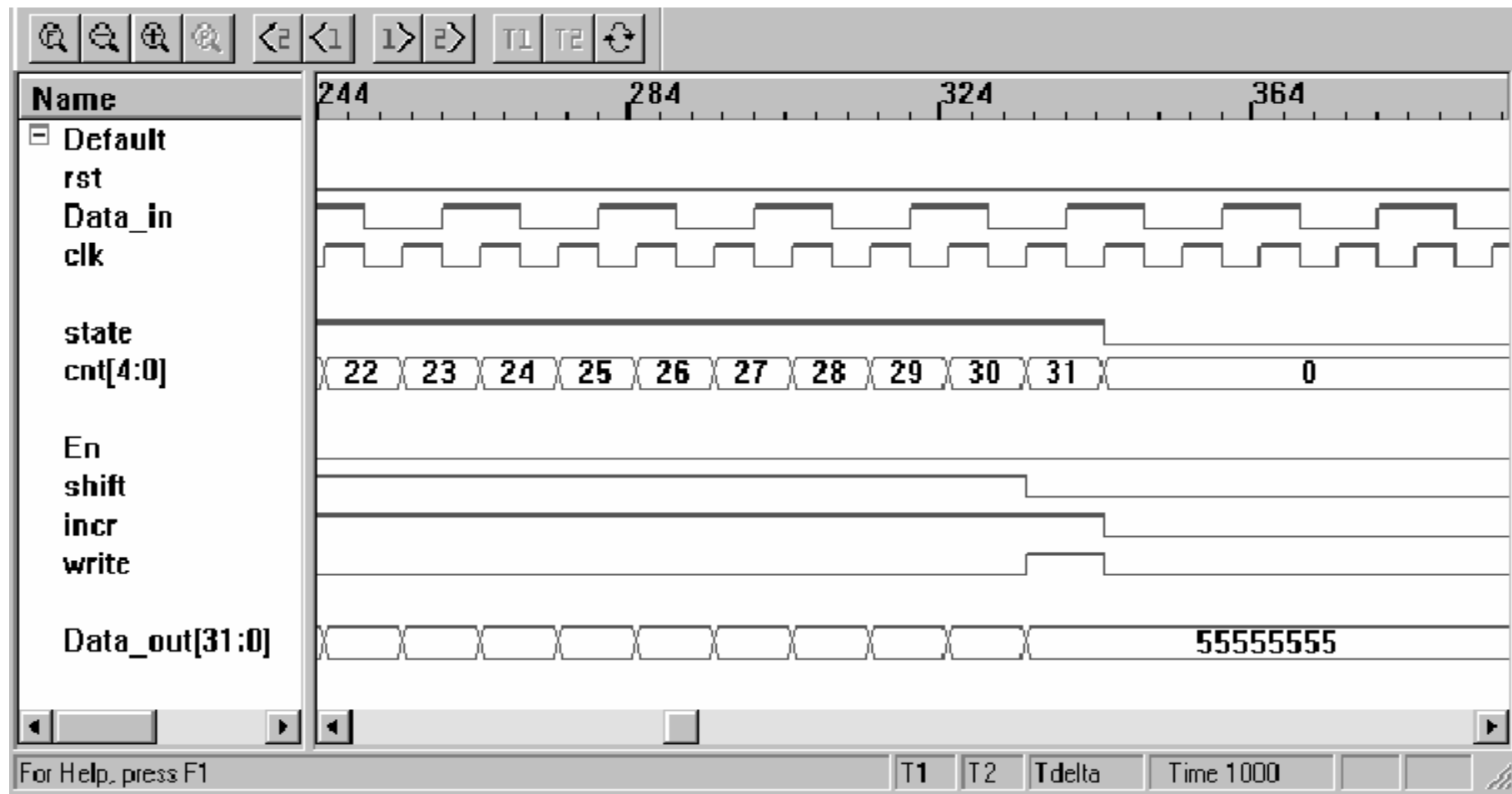


```
always @ (posedge clk or posedge rst) //reset or next state
    if (rst) begin state <= S_idle; cnt <= 0; end
    else state <= next_state;
always @ (state or En or write) // find next state
begin
    shift = 0; incr = 0;
    next_state = state;
    case (state)
    S_idle:if (En) begin next_state = S_1; shift = 1; end
    S_1: if (!write) begin shift = 1; incr = 1; end
        else if (En) begin shift = 1; incr = 1; end
        else begin next_state = S_idle; incr = 1; end
    endcase
end
always @ (posedge clk or posedge rst) //count
    if (rst) begin cnt <= 0; end
    else if (incr) cnt <= cnt +1;
always @ (posedge clk or posedge rst) //shift & output
    if (rst) Data_out <= 0;
    else if (shift) Data_out <= {Data_in, Data_out [31:1]};
assign write = (cnt == 31);// shifting 32 bits ,write enable
endmodule
```



# Fig 9.47 Simulation Result

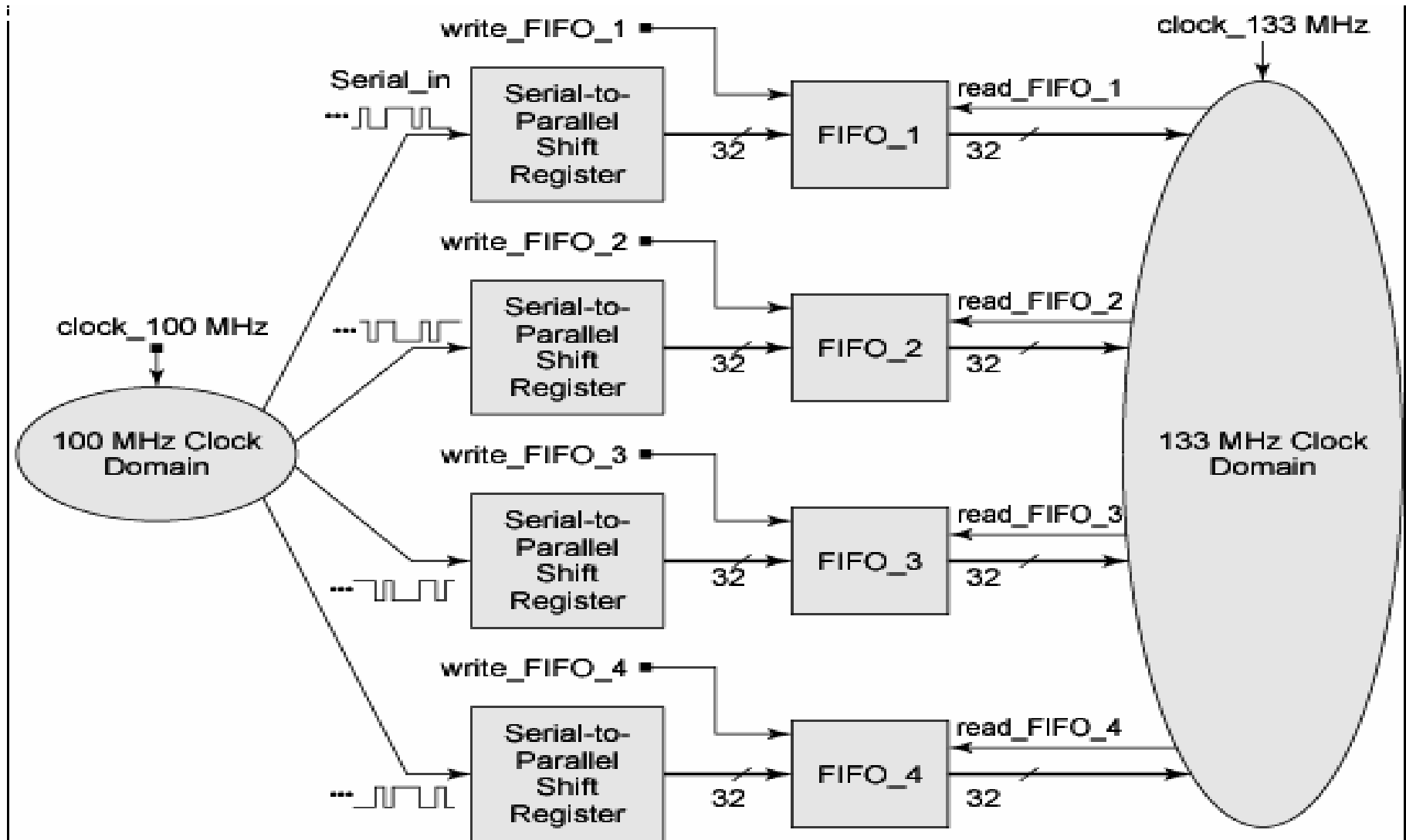
(The format of the arriving data has the LSB of a word arriving first)





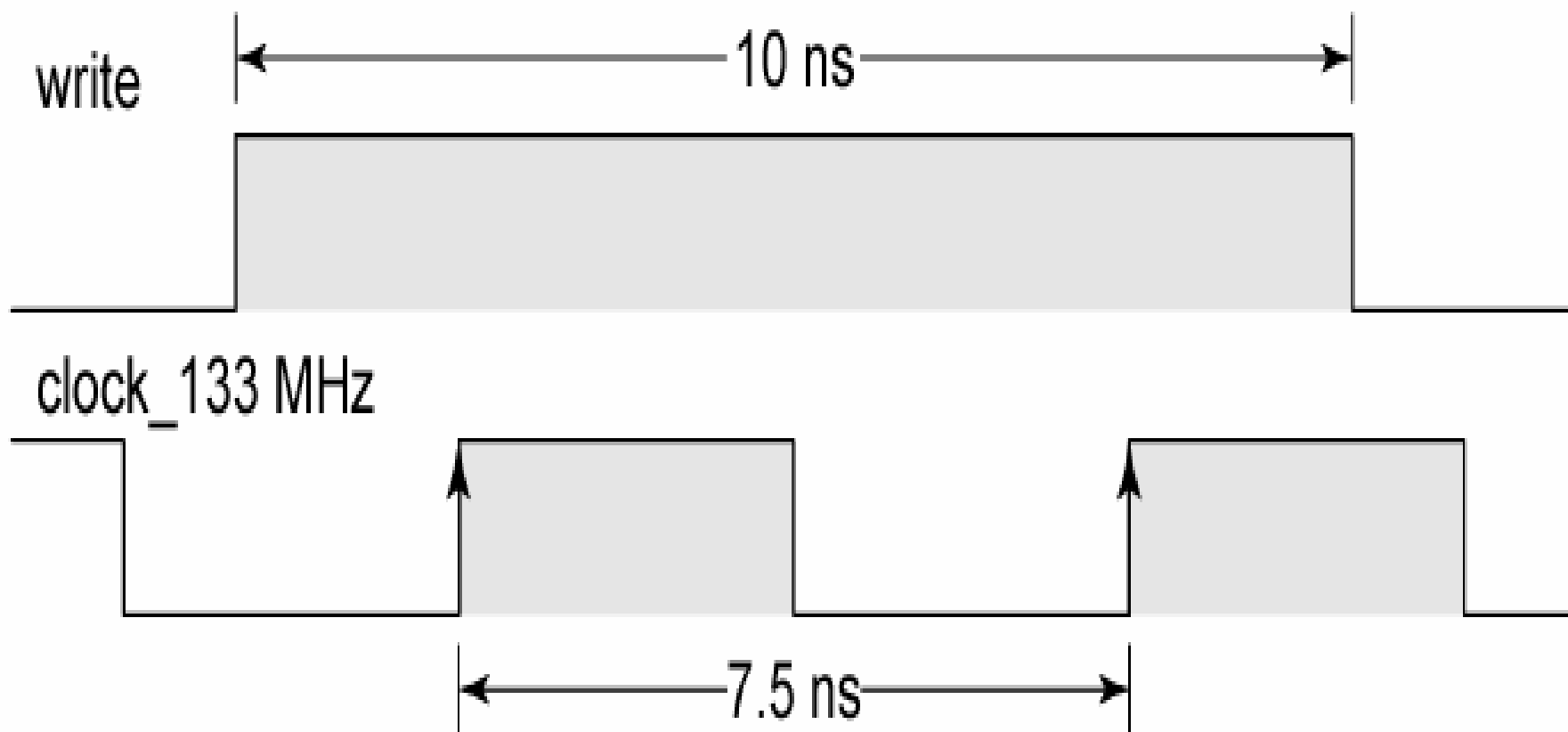


# Fig 9.45 A FIFO –Buffered clock domain interface



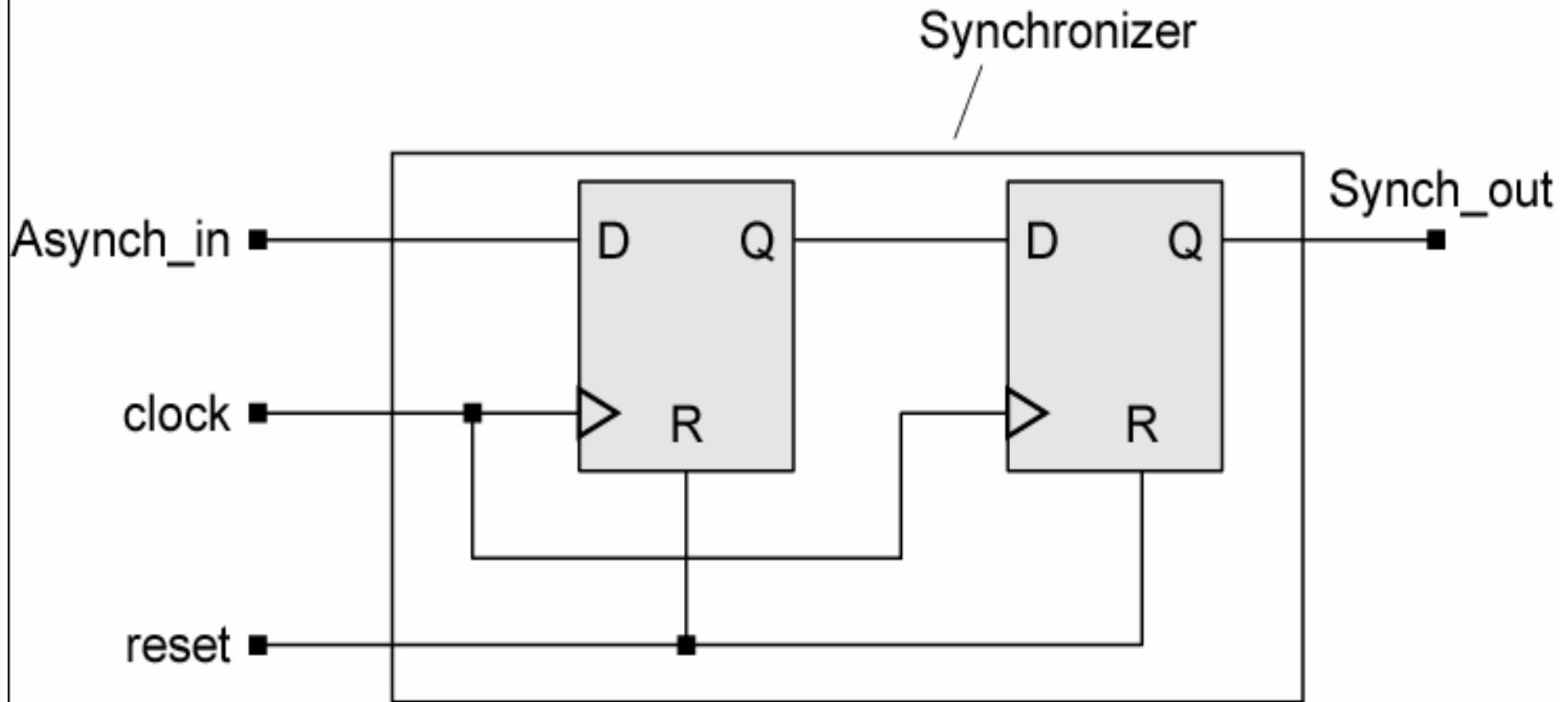


**Fig 9.48 The duration of the asynchronous write pulse covers two edges of clock\_133MHz**



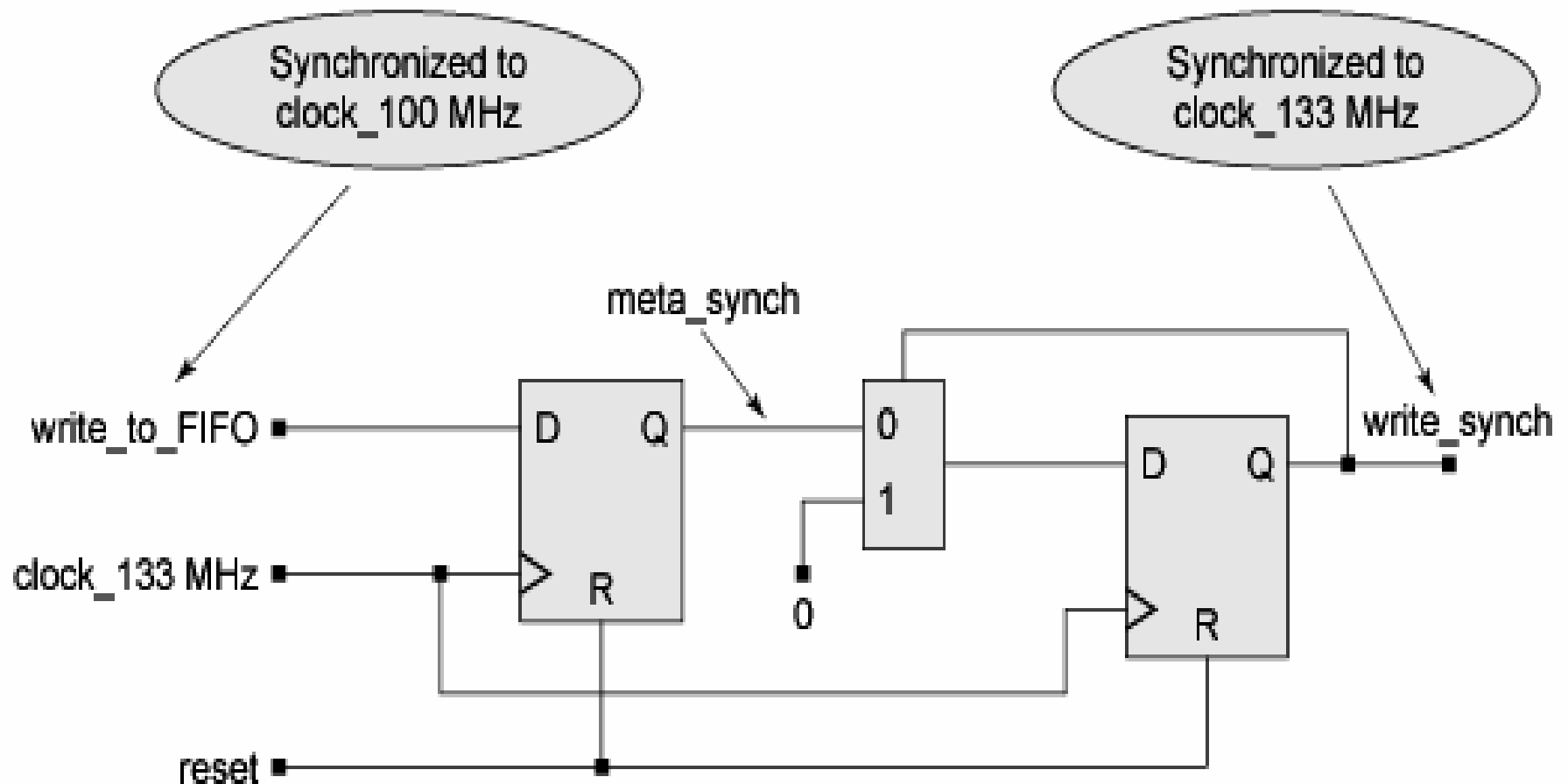


**synchronizer circuits for use *when the width of the asynchronous input pulse is greater than the period of the clock***





**Fig 9.49 Circuit to synchronize the write signal across the clock domain boundary and allow only one write pulse**





```
module write_synchronizer (write_synch,  
                           write_to_FIFO, clock, reset);
```

```
    output    write_synch;  
    input     write_to_FIFO;  
    input     clock, reset;  
    reg       meta_synch, write_synch;
```

```
always @ (negedge clock)
```

```
    if (reset == 1)
```

```
    begin
```

```
        meta_synch <= 0;
```

```
        write_synch <= 0;
```

```
    end
```

```
    else
```

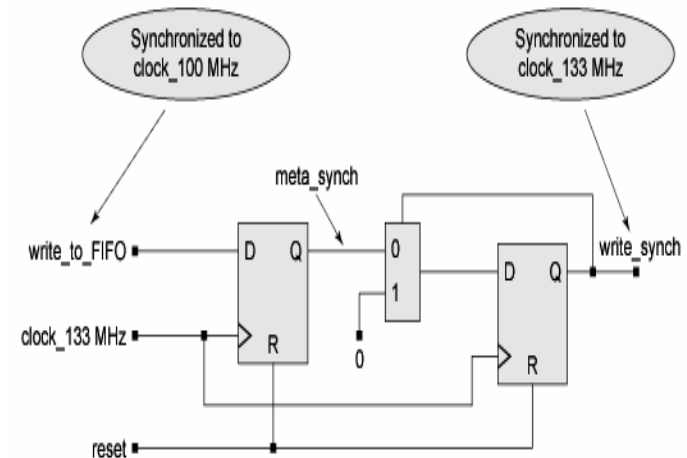
```
    begin
```

```
        meta_synch <= write_to_FIFO;
```

```
        write_synch <= write_synch ? 0: meta_synch;
```

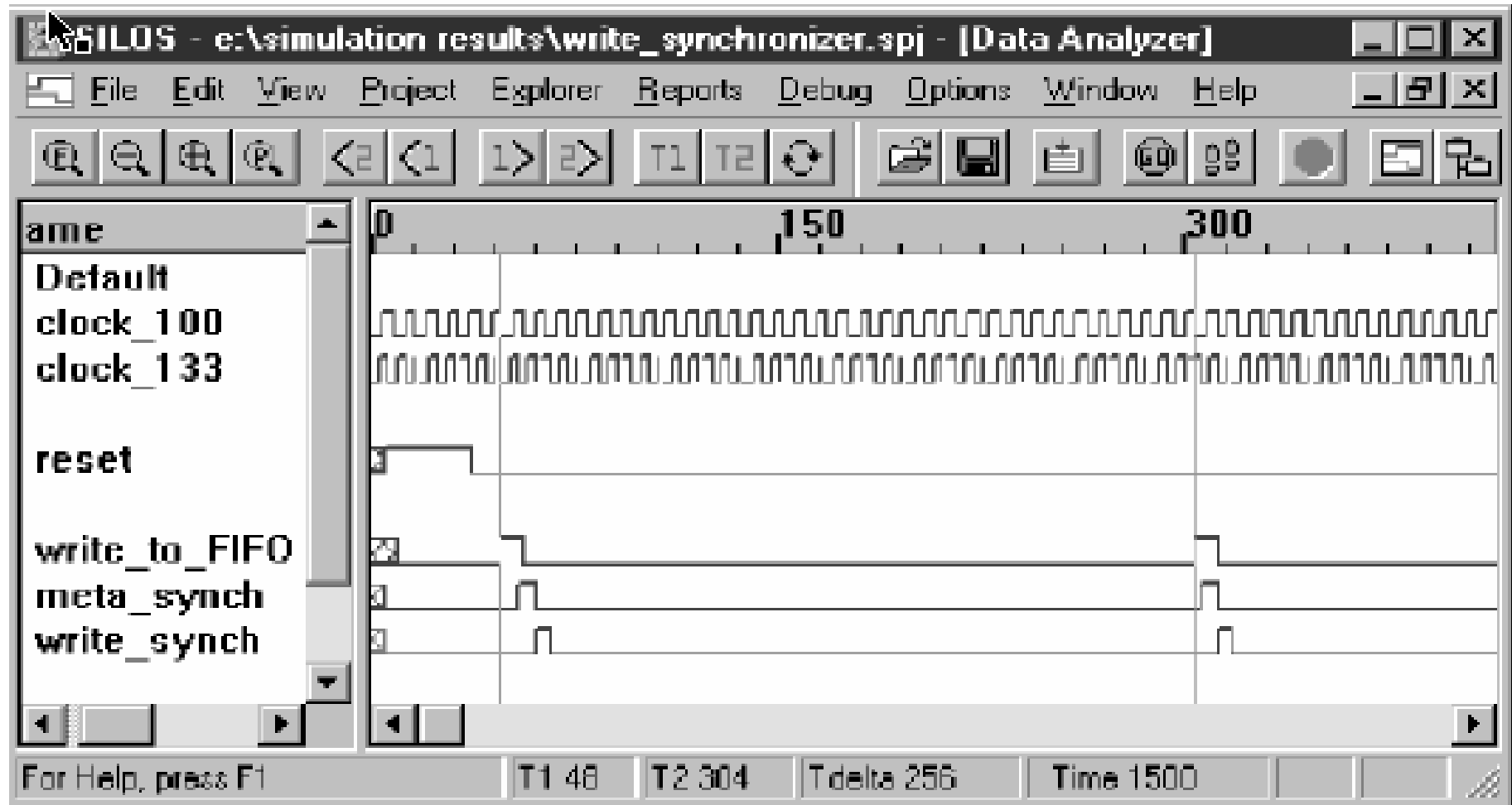
```
    end
```

```
endmodule
```





**Fig 9.50 Waveform illustrating synchronization of the FIFO write signal across the clock domain**



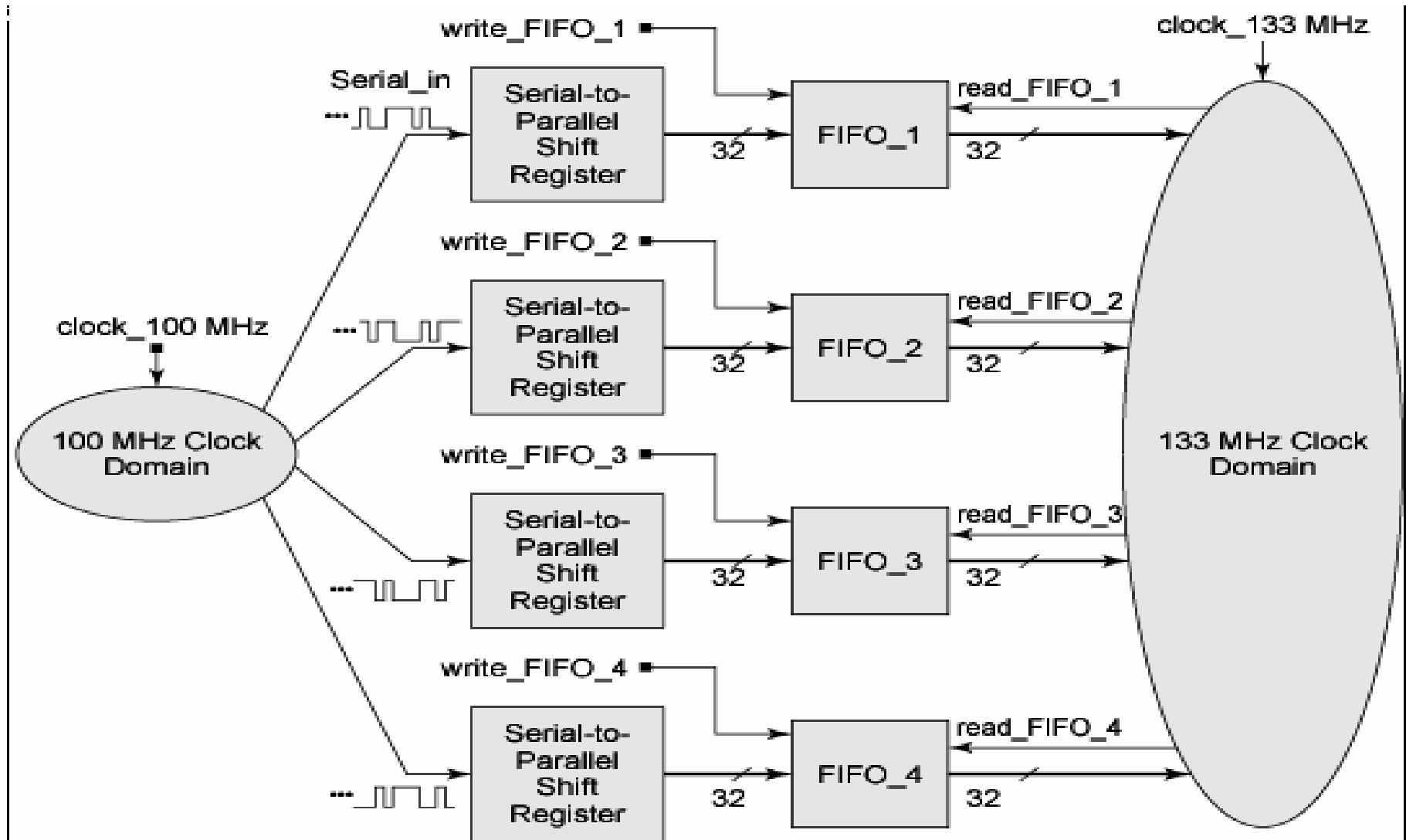


# The latency of the synchronizer introduces a design trap

- When write\_synch finally asserts, **the contents of the shift register will have already shifted by two more clocks**, destroying coherency between write\_synch and the contents of the register
- **To restore coherency**, we can lengthen the shift register datapath by adding buffer registers synchronized to the falling edge of clock\_133MHz
- The circuit in Figure 9-51 includes the two-stage synchronizer and the buffer registers



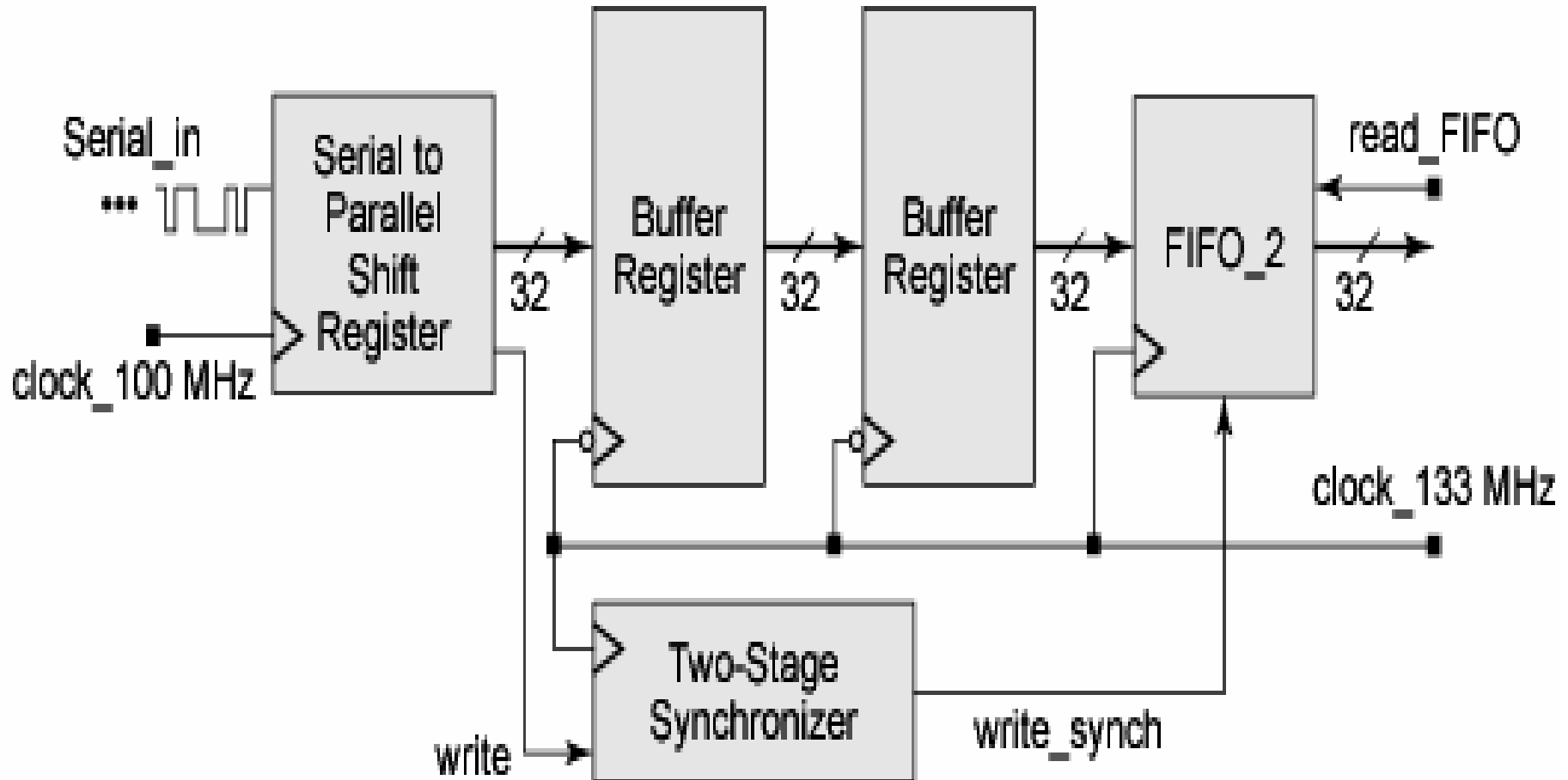
# Fig 9.45 A FIFO –Buffered clock domain interface







**Fig 9.51 The circuit includes the two-stage synchronizer and the buffer registers.**

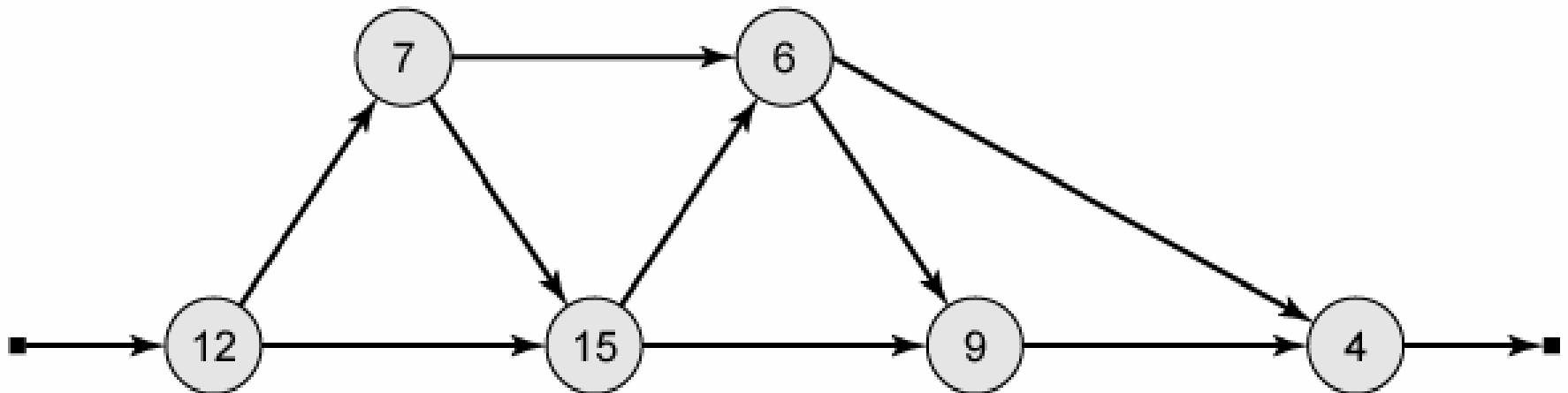




# Problem

9-19 The nodes of the DFG shown in Figure P9-19 have been annotated with propagation delays.

Find the optimal placement of pipeline registers in the circuit





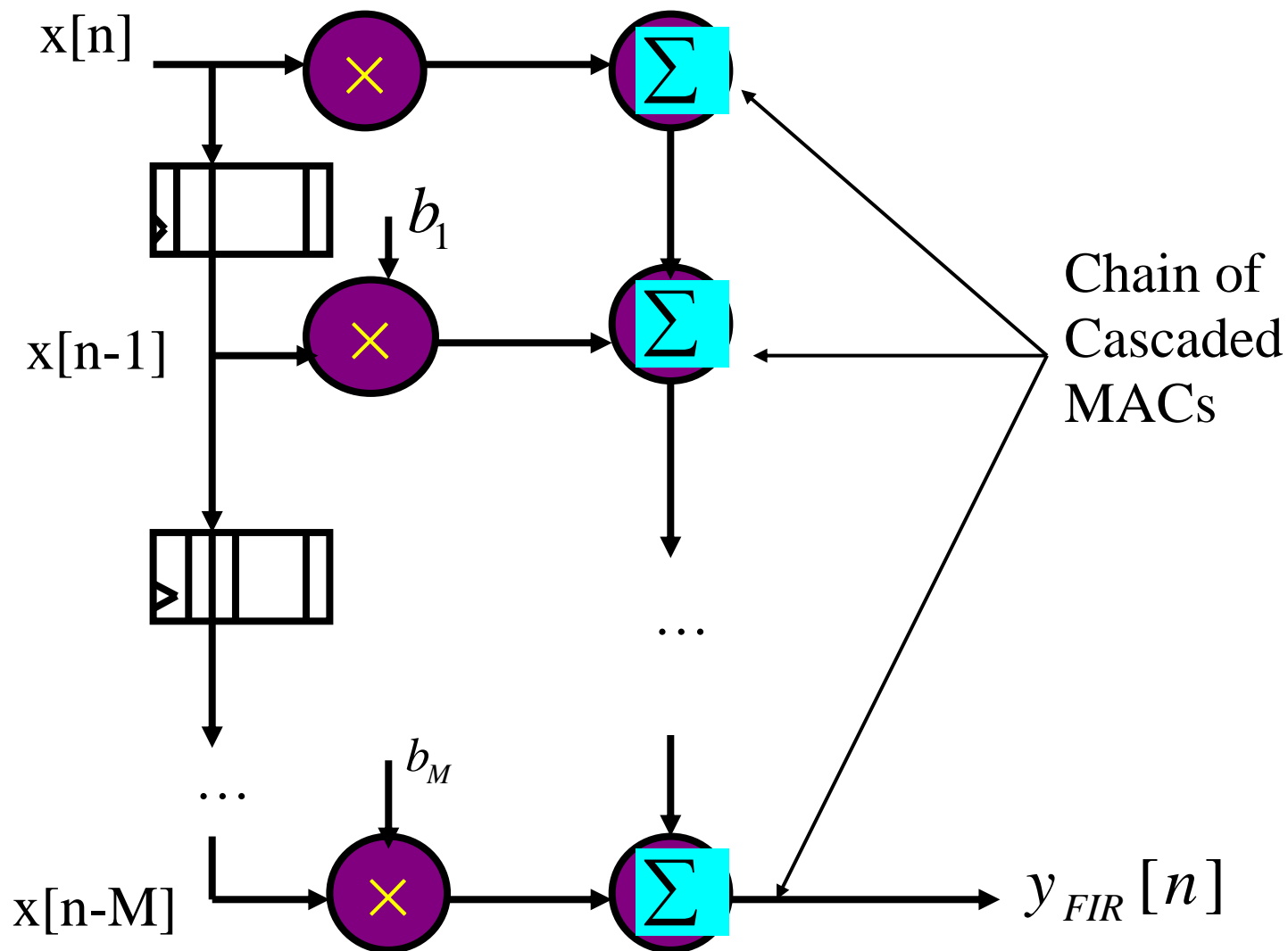
## P-15

Implement and compare two different architectures for an eight-tap FIR with a 16-bit datapath.

- The first is to use the architecture shown in Figure 9-23, which has a shift-register structure that stores and shifts the samples of the input sequence.
- The second is to implement the FIR with a circular buffer controlled by a state machine.



# Fig 9-23 MAC-based architecture for a type-I, Mth-order FIR filter





**P-18. Find a design error in the circuit in following Figure. Redesign the circuit to implement pipelining correctly**

