# Internship report

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## Introduction

Filters are nowadays essential tools for designing responsive systems. As they appear in both signal processing and command communities, we can see that the use of filters is now spreading in many domains, related to them, such as radio signal coding and decoding, image and sound processing, and so on.

Although most of all the potential filters can be done in software, some interesting applications in hardware could help to accelerate such computations, that might be very long in software in particular cases. Moreover, it allows to design and reconfigure specific parts of the hardware when working with FPGAs.

My work at the CITI lab in the SOCRATE team was to design a parametric architecture for LTI filters, which will be very useful to design a software-defined radio. This work has been integrated to INRIA's flopoco tool, which main goal is to generate architecture cores for computing just right.

In this report, I will firs present remainders about signal processing. Then I will tell a little more about LTI filters and their software implementation in finite precision. Finally, I will present the main aspects of the hardware implementation of such filters.

### 1 Motivations

## 2 Remainders about filters and signal processing

#### 2.0.1 Linear Time Invariant Filters (LTI filters)

A filter, denoted by it's transfer function  $\mathcal{H}$ , is an application which transforms a signal u (with  $dim(u) = n_u$ ) in a signal  $y = \mathcal{H}(u)$ , of size  $dim(y) = n_y$ . When  $n_u = n_y = 1$ , we speak about Single Input Single Output (SISO) filters. In other cases, we speak about Multiple Input Multiple Output (MIMO) filters.

**Definition 1.** (Linear Time Invariant Filter) Linearity:

$$\mathcal{H}(\alpha \cdot \boldsymbol{u}_1 + \beta \cdot \boldsymbol{u}_2) = \alpha \cdot \mathcal{H}(\boldsymbol{u}_1) + \beta \cdot \mathcal{H}(\boldsymbol{u}_2)$$

Time invariance:

$$\{\mathcal{H}([u])(k-k_0)\}_{k\geq 0} = \mathcal{H}(\{u)(k-k_0)_{k\geq 0})$$

#### 2.0.2 Impulse response

**Definition 2.** (Impulse Response) A SISO filter may be defined by it's impulse response, denoted h. h is the impulse response of H to the impulsion of Dirac:

$$\delta(k) = \begin{cases} 1 & whenk = 0\\ 0 & else \end{cases}$$
 (2.0.1)

Indeed each input can be described as a sum of Dirac impulsions:

$$u = \sum_{i \ge 0} u(l)\delta_l$$

where  $\delta_l$  is a Dirac impulsion centered in l, that is:

$$\delta(k) = \begin{cases} 1 & whenk = l \\ 0 & else \end{cases}$$
 (2.0.2)

The linearity condition of  $\mathcal{H}$  implies:  $\mathcal{H}(u) = \sum_{l \geq 0} u(l) \mathcal{H}(\delta_l)$ . Time invariance gives:  $\mathcal{H}(\delta_l)(k) = h(k-l)$ 

$$y(k) = \sum_{l \ge 0} u(l)h(k-l) = \sum_{l=0}^{k} u(k)h(k-l)$$

$$t^*(k+1) = -J't^*(k+1) + Mx^*(k) + Nu(k) + \varepsilon_t(k)$$
(2.0.3)

$$x^{*}(k+1) = Kt^{*}(k+1) + Px^{*}(k) + Q_{i}u(k) + \varepsilon_{x}(k)$$
(2.0.4)

$$y^*(k+1) = Lt^*(k+1) + Rx^*(k) + S_iu(k) + \varepsilon_u(k)$$
 (2.0.5)

We denote  $\delta t(k+1) = z_i^*(k) - z_i(k)$  the error at instant k, considering computations errors and loopback, for  $z \in \{t, x, y\}$ . We get then:

$$\delta t^*(k+1) = -J'\delta t^*(k+1) + M\delta x^*(k) + \varepsilon_t(k)$$
(2.0.6)

$$\delta x^*(k+1) = K\delta t^*(k+1) + P\delta x^*(k) + \varepsilon_x(k)$$
(2.0.7)

$$\delta y^*(k+1) = L\delta t^*(k+1) + R\delta x^*(k) + \varepsilon_y(k)$$
(2.0.8)

This new algorithm corresponds here to the algorithm of the SIF of a filter  $\mathcal{H}_{\varepsilon}$ , which describes the behaviour of computation errors at time k on the output. The linearity condition allows to decompose the real  $\mathcal{H}^*$  filter in two distinct filters:

- ullet the absolute filter in infinite precision
- $\mathcal{H}_{\varepsilon}$  the error filter

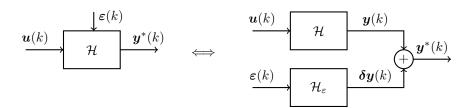


Figure 1: A signal view of the error propagation with respect to the ideal filter

According to ??, we have:

$$Z_{\varepsilon} = \begin{pmatrix} -J & M & M_t \\ K & P & M_x \\ L & R & M_y \end{pmatrix}$$
 (2.0.9)

with:

$$M_t = (I_{n_t} \mathbf{0}_{n_t \times n_x} \mathbf{0}_{n_t \times n_y}), \tag{2.0.10}$$

$$M_x = (\mathbf{0}_{n_x \times n_x} I_{n_x} \mathbf{0}_{n_x \times n_y}), \tag{2.0.11}$$

$$\boldsymbol{M}_{y} = (\mathbf{0}_{n_{y} \times n_{t}} \mathbf{0}_{n_{y} \times n_{x}} \boldsymbol{I}_{n_{y}}), \tag{2.0.12}$$

 $\mathcal{H}_{\varepsilon}$  is a filter with  $(n_t + n_x + n_u)$  inputs and  $n_y$  outputs.

Proposition 1. The transfert function of filter  $\mathcal{H}_{\varepsilon}$ , denoted  $H_{\varepsilon}$ , is defined as follows:

$$H_{\varepsilon} : \to C_{\mathbf{Z}}(zI_n - A_{\mathbf{Z}})^{-1}M_1 + M_2 \ \forall z \in \mathbb{C}$$
 (2.0.13)

with  $A_Z$  and  $C_Z$  the matrices defined by ?? and

$$M_1 = (KJ^{-1} \quad I_{n_x} \quad 0), M_2 = (LJ^{-1} \quad 0 \quad I_{n_y}),$$
 (2.0.14)

The demonstration is well detailed in Lopez' phd.

Corollary 1. Considering a filter  $\mathcal{H}$ ,  $\varepsilon(k)$  the vector of computation errors at time k in the finite precision of  $\mathbb{H}$ , and  $\mathcal{H}\varepsilon$  the error filter associated to  $\mathcal{H}$ . The behaviour of error can be described from  $\varepsilon(k)$  and  $\mathcal{H}\varepsilon$ . Considering the error as an interval vector, denoted  $\langle \varepsilon_m, \varepsilon_r \rangle$ , the interval vector of global error  $\delta y$ , denoted  $\langle \delta y_m, \delta y_r \rangle$ , is given by:

$$\delta y_m = \langle \langle \mathcal{H}_{\varepsilon} \rangle \rangle_{DC} \cdot \varepsilon_m \tag{2.0.15}$$

$$\delta y_r = \langle \langle \mathcal{H}_{\varepsilon} \rangle \rangle_{wcpg} \cdot \varepsilon_r \tag{2.0.16}$$

In practise, the interval arithmetic comes from the command community. In signal community, and moreover in computer arithmetics, we are used to compute on intervals centered around zero. Then, we can reasonably deduce that DC-gains are null, so the previous solution gives:

$$\delta y_m = 0 \tag{2.0.17}$$

$$\delta y_r = \langle \langle \mathcal{H}_{\varepsilon} \rangle \rangle_{wcpq} \cdot \varepsilon_r \tag{2.0.18}$$

For the same reason (centered around zero), the interval becomes:

$$\delta y_m = -\langle \langle \mathcal{H}_{\varepsilon} \rangle \rangle_{wcpg} \cdot \varepsilon_r \tag{2.0.19}$$

$$\delta y_r = \langle \langle \mathcal{H}_{\varepsilon} \rangle \rangle_{wcpg} \cdot \varepsilon_r \tag{2.0.20}$$

Then, following Lopez's computations, we can derivate precisions for every intermediate step:

$$|\delta y_i| \le \sum_{j=1}^{n'} |\langle\langle \mathcal{H}_{\varepsilon} \rangle\rangle_{i,j}| \cdot 2^{l_{v'_j}}$$
 (2.0.21)

To formalize with a matricial formulation, we get:

$$|\delta y| \le |\langle\langle \mathcal{H}_{\varepsilon} \rangle\rangle| \cdot 2^{l_{v'}} \tag{2.0.22}$$

 $\mathbf{TODO}$ : define or replace v

### 2.1 Adjustments in arbitrary precision

#### 3 Dimensionment

#### 3.1

In SOPCs architectures, the accuracy is deducible from the inputs/outputs specifications and the size of the constants.

This is described in

Dealing with feedback inputs, the question of precision is more compliated. Indeed, when results loop back to inputs, as soon as we are in finite precision, the error is amplified by a certain amount, depending on the coefficients, at each pass through the filter.

The main idea to deimension such filters is to consider the total error as a single filter. The result of this filter is then added to the perfect filter to get the final output.

In finite precision, sizes are constrained to be all the same. The demonstration of the size computation has been described in Lopez' PHD. The idea now is to see what we can do in arbitrary precision.

Here we have to compute each size at each step of the computation. Indeed, the WCPG is not useful for the first part of a FIR, as it has no loop. So we just need the WCPG for the second part, because it is just in this part of the circuit that there is a potential error amplification.

Direct and transposed forms are not directly transposable into SIF, but this problem is secondary.

## 3.2 Algorithm

```
for i=1; i=Z.size(); i++ do

| row[ ]=Z[i][ ] //pick first row of Z \\  | for j=1; j=1; j=Z.size() j++ do
| assign(SOPC[i], row[j], TXU) //where TXU, is the indicator of the signal (this is just determined by the position of the coefficient) end
| Second pass for wiring.
end
```

#### 3.3 Particular Forms

#### 3.4 ABCD Form

The ABCD Form can be considered as a degenerated form of the SIF, with nt=0. The algorithm will work in this case too.

#### **3.5** nx = 0

When nx = 0, the interest of using implicit form is of course very limited. Still, the algorithm will work, allocating only SOPCs operators.

#### 3.6 Algorithm

## 3.7 Optimizations

#### 3.7.1 Sparse matrices

The Z matrix of a SIF might be sparse in some degenerated cases. So it is useful to remove zeros coefficients before allocating SOPCs. Indeed, it prevents useless inputs to be declared and can save a lot of hardware, although the HDL compiler might be able to optimize the hardware and remove "dead code". Anyway, it is healthy to keep a low compile time (either in flopoco or in the HDL compiler). Keeping the VHDL clean is more important, first for debugging issues, but also for comprehensiveness.

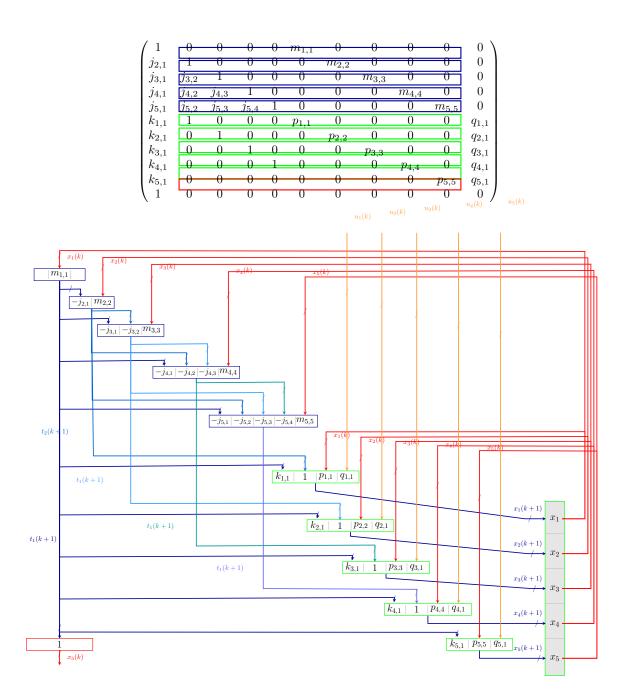


Figure 2: The FixRealKCM method when  $x_i$  is split in 3 chunks

#### 3.7.2 One entries

One entries in the Z matrix can be interpreted as simple wires instead of multiplications in the SOPC. So, we could eventually replace entries in SOPCs by simple additions with the result of the SOPC. Here, we should investigate to see what solution is the best in terms of hardware consumption (speed is not concerned here because the speed is determined by the length of the loop).

## 4 Implementation

- 4.1 First Sub-part
- 4.2 Second Sub-part
- 4.2.1 First Subsub-part
- 4.3 Third Sub-part
- 4.4 Fourth Sub-part

## Conclusion

## References

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## Appendix: Remainders about signal processing

LTI filters in general are usually defined as sums of products. Several quantities are useful to understand their characteristics

#### 4.5 Notations

During the entire report we will use several notations and conventions:

- in signal processing, t is the common notation for continue time and k the notation for discrete time. This report keeps this convention.
- $\langle \langle \mathcal{H} \rangle \rangle_{WCPG}$  is the worst case peak gain of the filter  $\mathcal{H}$
- y is an output variable
- x is a state variable
- t is an intermediate variable

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#### 4.6 Remainders about signal processing

**Definition 3.** (Signal) Generally, a signal is a temporal variable, which takes a value from  $\mathbb{R}$  at each time t. We denote x(t) the value of the signal x at the instant t. When dealing with discrete time events, the time will be represented by k. Then we talk about x(k), which is said to be a sample.  $\{x(k)\}_{k\geq 0}$  denotes all the values possible for the signal x. In the rest of this report, we will talk about vectors of signals x, where  $x(k) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ 

**Definition 4.** ( $\ell^1$  norm) The  $\ell^1$  norm of a scalar signal x, denoted  $||x||_{\ell^1}$ , is the sum of absolute values of x(k) at each instant k:

$$||x||_{\ell^1} = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} |x(k)| \tag{4.6.1}$$

This norm exists only if x is  $\ell^1$ -sommable, that is, if and only if the equation 4.6.1 converges.

**Definition 5.** ( $\ell^2$  norm) The  $\ell^2$  norm of a scalar signal x, denoted  $||x||_{\ell^2}$ , is defined as follows:

$$||x||_{\ell^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} x(k)^2}$$
 (4.6.2)

This norm exists only if x is square-sommable, that is, if and only if the equation 4.6.2 converges.

**Definition 6.** ( $\ell^{\infty}$  norm) The  $\ell^{\infty}$  norm of a scalar signal x, denoted  $||x||_{\ell^{\infty}}$ , is the smallest upper bound among all values (absolute values) possible for the signal x, that is:

$$||x||_{\ell^{\infty}} = \sup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} |x(k)| \tag{4.6.3}$$

#### 4.6.1 Impulse response

**Definition 7.** (Impulse Response) A SISO filter may be defined by it's impulse response, denoted h. h is the impulse response of  $\mathcal{H}$  to the impulsion of Dirac:

$$\delta(k) = \begin{cases} 1 & when \ k = 0 \\ 0 & else \end{cases}$$
 (4.6.4)

Indeed each input can be described as a sum of Dirac impulsions:

$$u = \sum_{l>0} u(l)\delta_l \tag{4.6.5}$$

where  $\delta_l$  is a Dirac impulsion centered in l, that is:

$$\delta(k) = \begin{cases} 1 & when \ k = l \\ 0 & else \end{cases}$$
 (4.6.6)

The linearity condition of  $\mathcal{H}$  implies:  $\mathcal{H}(u) = \sum_{l \geq 0} u(l) \mathcal{H}(\delta_l)$ . Time invariance gives:  $\mathcal{H}(\delta_l)(k) = h(k-l)$ .

$$y(k) = \sum_{l>0} u(l)h(k-l) = \sum_{l=0}^{k} u(k)h(k-l)$$
(4.6.7)

This corresponds with the convolution product definition of u by h, denoted y = h \* u.

Dealing with MIMO filters, we have  $\mathbf{h} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_y \times n_u}$  as the impulse response of  $\mathcal{H}$ .  $\mathbf{h}_{i,j}$  is the response on the ith output to the Dirac implusion on th jth input.

The precedent equation becomes:

$$y_i(k) = \sum_{j=1}^{n_u} \sum_{l>0}^{k} u_j(l) h_{i,j}(k-l) \qquad \forall 1 \le i \le n_y$$
(4.6.8)