

Received March 4, 2020, accepted April 24, 2020, date of publication May 4, 2020, date of current version May 20, 2020.

Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/ACCESS.2020.2992286

# A High-Performance Multiply-Accumulate Unit by Integrating Additions and Accumulations Into Partial Product Reduction Process

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This work was supported in part by the Ministry of Science and Technology (MOST), Taiwan, under Grant 107-2218-E-033-007.

**ABSTRACT** In this paper, we propose a low-power high-speed pipeline multiply-accumulate (MAC) architecture. In a conventional MAC, carry propagations of additions (including additions in multiplications and additions in accumulations) often lead to large power consumption and large path delay. To resolve this problem, we integrate a part of additions into the partial product reduction (PPR) process. In the proposed MAC architecture, the addition and accumulation of higher significance bits are not performed until the PPR process of the next multiplication. To correctly deal with the overflow in the PPR process, a small-size adder is designed to accumulate the total number of carries. Compared with previous works, experimental results show that the proposed MAC architecture can greatly reduce both power consumption and circuit area under the same timing constraint.

**INDEX TERMS** Digital circuits, logic circuits, multiplying circuits, pipeline processing, power dissipation.

## I. INTRODUCTION

The multiply-accumulate (MAC) unit is a fundamental block for digital signal processing (DSP) applications [1]. Especially, in recent years, the development of real-time edge applications has become a design trend [2], [3]. Thus, there is a strong demand for high-speed low-power MAC units.

A conventional MAC unit is composed of two individual blocks: a multiplier and an accumulator (i.e., an accumulate adder). An  $N$ -bit MAC unit includes an  $N$ -bit multiplier and a  $(2N+\alpha-1)$ -bit accumulator (adder), where  $\alpha$  is the number of guard bits used to avoid overflow (caused by long sequences of multiply-accumulate operations). A lot of previous works [4]–[12] paid attention to the optimization of multiplier and the optimization of adder, respectively.

A multiplier [4]–[7] usually has three steps. The first step is the partial product generation (PPG) process. For example, AND gates can be used to generate a partial product matrix (PPM) for an unsigned multiplication. The second step is the partial product reduction (PPR) process. By using the Dadda tree approach [4], [5], [7] or the Wallace tree approach

The associate editor coordinating the review of this manuscript and approving it for publication was Gian Domenico Licciardo<sup>ID</sup>.

[4–6], the PPM can be reduced to become two rows. The third step is the final addition. An adder (called the final adder) is used to perform the summation of the final two rows. For an  $N$ -bit multiplier, a  $(2N-1)$ -bit adder is required for the final addition.

Various adder architectures [8]–[10] have been proposed for the trade-offs among delay, area, and power. Furthermore, various MAC unit models can be developed by replacing the multiplier as well as the accumulator (adder) with various architectures. Comparisons on delay, area and power among different MAC unit models are reported in [11], [12].

In a conventional MAC unit, it is necessary to perform two carry propagations: additions in multiplications and additions in accumulations. Note that the carry propagation is time consuming. Therefore, in [13], the multiplier output is fed back to the input of the PPR process. Since the accumulation is handled by the final adder, only one carry propagation is required. Moreover, based on this architecture [13], the area of 16-bit MAC unit can be further reduced 3.2% by fully utilizing the compression [14].

In [13], [14], they do not discuss how to accommodate guard bits in their designs. Ercegovac and Lang [15] add an extra circuit to the final adder for handling guard bits. Owing to this extra circuit, the carry propagation in the final adder

becomes longer. Another drawback of this architecture [15] is that it only supports sign-magnitude numbers.

Different from those previous works [13]–[15] that handle the accumulation in the final adder, Hoang *et al.* [16] use a carry-save adder to implement the final adder. In [16], a carry-save format (one sum vector and one carry vector) is sent to the accumulator without being added to only one vector. Although this architecture [16] can remove the carry propagation in the final adder, it requires a  $(2N+\alpha-1)$ -bit accumulator. Besides, it is also noteworthy to mention that the concept of this architecture [16] has been used in modern floating-point fused multiply-add (FMA) designs [17], [18].

Based on the architecture proposed by Hoang *et al.* [16], some attentions [19], [20] have been paid to the compressor design for the PPR process. For example, by using the compressor proposed in [20], the number of LUTs for 8-bit MAC unit can be reduced 21.3% in a Virtex 7 FPGA platform.

In this paper, we propose a novel MAC architecture for high performance. In order to reduce critical path delays and power dissipations (caused by carry propagations), our basic idea is to integrate a part of additions (including a part of the final addition in the multiplication and a part of the addition in the accumulation) into the PPR process. In the proposed MAC unit, the final addition of higher significance bits is not performed in the current multiplication. Instead, the final addition and accumulation of higher significance bits are performed in the PPR process of the next multiplication. As a result, the lengths of carry propagations can be greatly reduced. Moreover, to correctly deal with the overflow during the PPR process, an  $\alpha$ -bit accumulator (adder) is designed to count the total number of carries, where  $\alpha$  is the number of guard bits. Experimental results consistently show that the proposed approach works well in practice.

The proposed MAC unit is a two-stage (i.e., two-cycle) pipeline design. The first stage performs the PPG process, the PPR process, a part of the final addition and the  $\alpha$ -bit addition (for handling overflow). The second stage performs an addition to produce the accumulation result. Note that, for power saving, the second stage can only be executed in the last cycle (of the entire sequence of multiply-accumulate operations) by applying the gating technique. For an  $N$ -bit MAC unit, the main differences between the proposed architecture and the conventional architecture are below.

- Final addition in the multiplication. The conventional architecture requires a  $(2N-1)$ -bit adder. On the other hand, the proposed architecture only requires a  $(2N-k-1)$ -bit adder, where  $k$  denotes the number of higher significance bits whose additions (accumulation) are not performed in the final addition.
- Accumulation in the MAC unit. The conventional architecture requires a  $(2N+\alpha-1)$ -bit adder. On the other hand, the proposed architecture only requires a  $(k+\alpha)$ -bit adder. Moreover, by applying the gating technique, the  $(k+\alpha)$ -bit adder can only be executed in the last cycle.

It is noteworthy to mention that the time-consuming carry propagation is also a challenging issue in the modular multiplication [21], [22], [23]. Thus, some high-radix, scalable, and signed digit multipliers [21], [22], [23] have been proposed for modular multiplication. Different from those previous works [21], [22], [23], the proposed MAC unit is designed for standard arithmetic (instead of modular arithmetic).

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. In Section II, we present the motivation. The architecture of the proposed MAC unit is described in Section III. Then, in Section IV, we use two examples, including an example for the multiplication of two unsigned numbers and an example for the multiplication of two 2's complement numbers, to demonstrate the detailed process of the proposed MAC unit. In Section V, we report the detailed experimental results. In Section VI, we make an extension to the application of a systolic array. Finally, some concluding remarks are given in Section VII.

## II. MOTIVATION

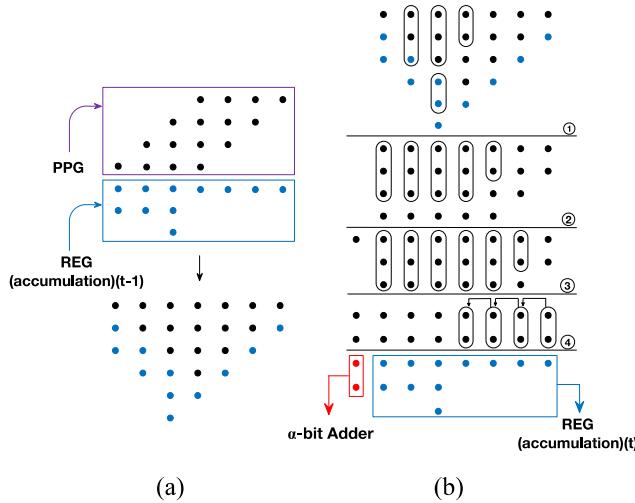
In a conventional MAC unit, carry propagations of additions (including final additions in multiplications and additions in accumulations) often result in large power consumption and large path delay. To resolve this problem, we are motivated to reduce the lengths of carry propagations in the final addition and the accumulation. Our basic idea is to integrate a part of additions (including a part of the final addition and a part of the accumulation) into the PPR process. As a result, the lengths of carry propagations can be reduced.

In the proposed MAC architecture, to reduce critical path delays (caused by the carry propagations), the addition and accumulation in higher significance bits are not performed until the PPR process of next multiplication. In other words, our PPM (for the PPR process) consists of two PPMs: one PPM is derived by the PPG and the other PPM is derived by the accumulation.

Here we use our 4-bit MAC (displayed in Fig. 1) for illustration. As shown in Fig. 1(a), our PPM is formed by two PPMs: one PPM is from the PPG and the other PPM is from the accumulation. Then, as shown in Fig. 1(b), we use the Dadda tree approach to reduce our PPM to two rows.

In the final addition process, we only use an  $(2N-k-1)$ -bit adder for the addition of the two rows (obtained by the Dadda tree approach), where  $N$  is the number of bits of each input and  $k$  represents the number of higher significance bits whose additions (accumulation) are not performed. Since this example is a 4-bit MAC, we have  $N = 4$ . Moreover, in this example, we assume that  $k = 3$ . Thus, as shown in Fig. 1(b), we only need to use a 4-bit adder for the final addition. Note that the addition (accumulation) in higher significance bits is not performed.

As displayed in Fig. 1(b), the two product terms in the column of the highest significance bit have exceeded the PPM width. Here we adopt the concept of [24] to handle overflow. The values of these two product terms are sent to an  $\alpha$ -bit adder (accumulator) for counting the total number



**FIGURE 1.** Our 4-bit MAC. (a) Our PPM (b) Our PPR process.

of ‘1’ (i.e., the total number of carries) appearing in this column during the entire sequence of multiply-accumulate operations. On the other hand, as shown in Fig. 1(b), the PPM formed by the product terms in other columns (including the addition result of the  $(2N-k-1)$ -bit adder) are stored in register *accumulation*. Note that the result of register *accumulation* (i.e., the PPM formed by the current accumulation) will be combined with the next PPG result to form the next PPM.

### III. PROPOSED ARCHITECTURE

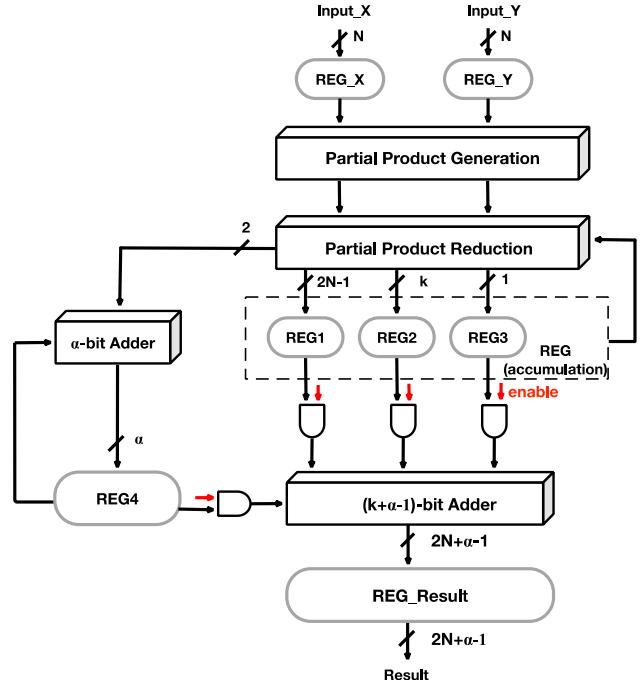
In this section, we present the proposed two-stage (i.e., two-cycle) MAC architecture. The first stage performs the PPG process, the PPR process (based on the PPM that combines the PPG result and the accumulation result), the  $(2N-k-1)$ -bit addition (i.e., a part of the final addition) and the  $\alpha$ -bit addition (for dealing with the overflow in the PPR process). Then, the second stage performs the  $(k + \alpha)$ -bit addition to produce the accumulation result.

The main features of the proposed architecture are below.

- To reduce the lengths of carry propagations, we integrate a part of additions into the PPR process.
- To handle overflow in the PPR process, an  $\alpha$ -bit adder is used to count the total number of carries.
- By applying the gating technique, the second stage can only be executed in the last cycle (of the entire sequence of multiply-accumulate operations) for power saving.

The proposed two-stage pipeline MAC unit is displayed in Fig. 2. Our PPM (for the PPR process) is composed of two PPMs: one PPM is derived by the PPG and the other PPM is derived by the accumulation.

For an unsigned MAC unit, in the PPG process, “AND” gates can be directly used to generate the PPM. For a signed MAC unit, because the influences of the sign bit should be taken into account, several PPG algorithms [25]–[27] have been proposed to generate the signed PPM. In the



**FIGURE 2.** The proposed MAC architecture.

proposed architecture, the Baugh-Wooley algorithm [25], [26] is adopted in the PPG process to generate the signed PPM.

In the first stage of the proposed MAC unit, we only perform the  $(2N-k-1)$ -bit final addition. In other words, the final addition of higher significance bits is not performed. Register *accumulation* is used to store the PPM derived by the accumulation (i.e., the result after the PPR process and the  $(2N-k-1)$ -bit final addition). Thus, register *accumulation* includes three parts: REG1 (i.e., the first row) has  $2N-1$  bits, REG2 (i.e., the second row) has  $k$  bits, which can be defined by the user, and REG3 (i.e., the third row) has 1 bit. Using our 4-bit MAC shown in Fig. 1(b) as an example, REG1 has 7 bits, REG2 has 3 bits, and REG3 has 1 bit. Note that, the initial value of each bit in register *accumulation* is ‘0’. In each cycle, the result of register *accumulation* will be combined with the PPG result to form our PPM for the PPR process.

In the PPR process, we adopt the Dadda tree approach [4], [5], [7] to reduce our PPM to two rows. The main reason is that our PPM is not a conventional PPM. With an analysis, we find that, compared with the Wallace tree approach [4]–[6], the Dadda tree approach can use fewer counters for our PPM. After our PPM is reduced to be two rows, we perform the  $(2N-k-1)$ -bit final addition. Consequently, as shown in Fig. 1(b), a three-row PPM is obtained. Note that this three-row PPM will be stored in register *accumulation*. Then, in the next cycle, the result of register *accumulation* will be combined with the PPG result to form the next PPM for the PPR process.

Since we use an  $(2N-k-1)$ -bit adder for the addition of the last two rows obtained by the Dadda tree approach, a larger  $k$  can have a smaller carry propagation in the  $(2N-k-1)$ -bit adder. However, since the final addition and accumulation of

$k$  higher significance bits are performed in the PPR process of the next multiplication, a larger  $k$  results in a larger PPM for the PPR process. In theory, the value of  $k$  can be in the range from 1 to  $2N-1$ . The choice of the value of  $k$  depends on given design constraints (e.g., timing constraints or area constraints). However, in our experiences, the best value of  $k$  (with respect to given design constraints) is often near to the value of  $N$ .

When our PPM is reduced to be two rows, there are two product terms in the column of the highest significance bit. Note that this column (i.e., the column of the highest significance bit) has exceeded the width of our PPM. Owing to the limitation on the width of our PPM, these two product terms will not be used to form the next PPM. Instead, the values of these two product terms will be sent to the  $\alpha$ -bit adder (accumulator) for handling the overflow. Note that a translation circuit is required to translate the values of these two product terms to be a corresponding input value of the  $\alpha$ -bit adder.

The inputs to the translation circuit are the values of these two product terms in the column of the highest significance bit. Note that the unsigned MAC unit and the signed MAC unit should have different translation circuits (i.e., different translation functions). The functions of the two translation circuits are below (without loss of generality and for the convenience of presentation, here we assume that  $\alpha = 2$  and then express a decimal number as a two-bit binary number).

- The translation circuit of the unsigned MAC unit. Since the two input values correspond to the least significant bit of the  $\alpha$ -bit adder, the output is equal to the sum of the two input values. Thus, if both the two input values are 0, the corresponding output value is decimal 0 (i.e., binary 00); if one input value is 0 and the other input value is 1, the corresponding output value is decimal 1 (i.e., binary 01); if both the two input values are 1, the corresponding output value is decimal 2 (i.e., binary 10).
- The translation circuit of the signed MAC unit. The two input values still correspond to the least significant bit of the  $\alpha$ -bit adder. However, owing to the Baugh-Wooley algorithm [25], [26], the output is equal to the sum of the two input values minus 1. A more detailed explanation is given in the Appendix. Thus, if both the two input values are 0, the corresponding output value is decimal  $-1$  (i.e., binary 11); if one input value is 0 and the other input value is 1, the corresponding output value is decimal 0 (i.e., binary 00); if both the two input values are 1, the corresponding output value is decimal 1 (i.e., binary 01).

The accumulation result of the  $\alpha$ -bit adder (accumulator) is stored in register REG4. Note that the initial value of each bit in register REG4 is ‘0’. The  $\alpha$ -bit adder (accumulator) has two inputs: one is from the result of register REG4 and the other is from the result of the translation circuit (note that the translation circuit is a circuit that translates the two product terms in the column of the highest significance bit to a corresponding value).

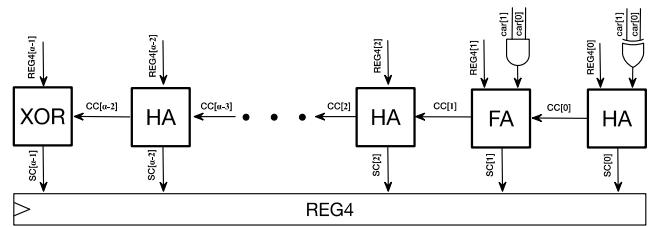


FIGURE 3. The mechanism of  $\alpha$ -bit addition in the unsigned MAC unit.

In Fig. 3, we use the circuit that handles the mechanism of  $\alpha$ -bit addition (accumulation) in the unsigned MAC unit for illustration. Note that this circuit is applicable to any  $\alpha$  value. Inputs  $car[0]$  and  $car[1]$  denote the two product terms in the column of the highest significance bit. As displayed in Fig. 3, we only need to use one AND gate and one XOR gate to implement the translation circuit. In the addition of each bit  $i$ , where  $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \alpha - 1$ ,  $SC[i]$  denotes the sum bit and  $CC[i]$  denotes the carry bit. Thus, the value of  $SC[i]$  will be stored in register REG4.

In the second stage of the proposed MAC unit, we produce the accumulation result. The inputs of the second stage include register *accumulation* (consisting of REG1, REG2 and REG3) and register REG4. Although the total number of columns is  $(2N+\alpha-1)$ , since each column in the  $(2N-k-1)$  rightmost columns has only one product term, we only need to use a  $(k+\alpha)$ -bit adder to perform the addition of the  $(k+\alpha)$  leftmost columns.

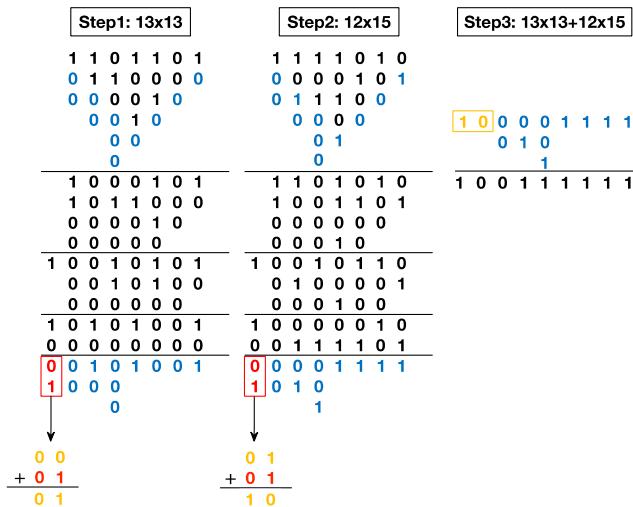
In the proposed MAC unit, the accumulation has been done in both the  $\alpha$ -bit addition and the next PPR process. Thus, if we only need to obtain the final result in the last cycle, we can disable the  $(k+\alpha)$ -bit addition in other cycles for power saving. As shown in Fig. 2, we use AND gate with an *enable* signal to disable the  $(k+\alpha)$ -bit addition. The *enable* signal will be ‘1’ the last cycle and ‘0’ in other cycles. As a result, with the gating technique, the second stage will only be executed in the last cycle.

#### IV. EXAMPLES

In this section, we give two examples. In the first example, we describe the behaviors of the unsigned MAC unit. In the second example, we describe the behavior of the signed MAC unit. Note that the only differences between the unsigned MAC unit and the signed MAC unit are the PPM structure and the  $\alpha$ -bit addition mechanism.

The first example is given in Fig. 4. We use the case  $13 \times 13 + 12 \times 15$  to demonstrate the detailed process of the unsigned 4-bit MAC unit. In Fig. 4, the values displayed in blue are the results of register accumulation (including REG1, REG2, and REG3). The values displayed in red are the input of  $\alpha$ -bit adder (i.e., the output of the translation circuit). Here we assume that  $\alpha = 2$ . The values displayed in yellow are the result of register REG4.

In the first step (i.e., the first cycle),  $13 \times 13$  is performed. Our PPM is formed by two PPMs: one PPM is from the PPG (for  $13 \times 13$ ) and the other PPM is from register



**FIGURE 4.** The case  $13 \times 13 + 12 \times 15$  in an unsigned 4-bit MAC unit.

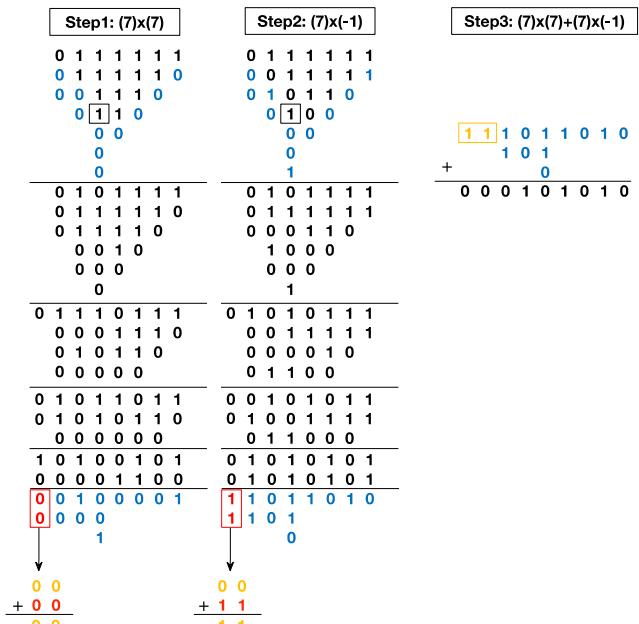
accumulation (including REG1, REG2, and REG3). Note that the initial value of each bit in register accumulation is '0'. After the PPR process is done, the values of REG1, REG2 and REG3 are 0101001, 000 and 0, respectively. In the column of the highest significance bit, the two product terms are 1 and 0, respectively. Thus, the translation circuit translates these two product terms to be binary value 01. Then, binary value 01 is sent to the  $\alpha$ -bit adder for the accumulation. After the  $\alpha$ -bit addition, the value of register REG4 becomes 01.

In the second step (i.e., the second cycle),  $12 \times 15$  is performed. Our PPM is formed by two PPMs: one PPM is from the PPG (for  $12 \times 15$ ) and the other PPM is from register accumulation (including REG1, REG2, and REG3). After the PPR process is done, the values of REG1, REG2 and REG3 are 0001101, 101 and 0, respectively. In the column of the highest significance bit, the two product terms are 1 and 0, respectively. The translation circuit translates these two product terms to be binary value 01. Then, binary value 01 is sent to the  $\alpha$ -bit adder for the accumulation. After the  $\alpha$ -bit addition, the value of register REG4 becomes 10.

In the third step (i.e., the third cycle), we produce the accumulation result. Each column in the 4 rightmost columns has only one product term. Thus, we only need to use a 5-bit adder to perform the addition of the 5 leftmost columns. Finally, as shown in Fig. 4, the correct result 101011101 is obtained.

The second example is given in Fig. 5. We use the case  $7 \times 7 + 7x(-1)$  to demonstrate the detailed process of the signed 4-bit MAC unit. Note that here we use the 2's complement number system to represent a signed value.

In the first step (i.e., the first cycle),  $7 \times 7$  is performed. In the PPG process, we use the Baugh-Wooley algorithm [25], [26] to generate the PPM. Note that, according to the Baugh-Wooley algorithm [25], [26], it is necessary to add an extra ‘1’ in the  $(N+1)$ -th column. In Fig. 5, we highlight this extra ‘1’ with a black square. After the PPR process is done, the values of REG1, REG2 and REG3 are 0100001,



**FIGURE 5.** The case  $7 \times 7 + 7 \times (-1)$  in a signed 4-bit MAC unit.

000 and 1, respectively. In the column of the highest significance bit, the two product terms are 1 and 0, respectively. Thus, the translation circuit translates these two product terms to be binary value 00. Then, binary value 00 is sent to the  $\alpha$ -bit adder for the accumulation. After the  $\alpha$ -bit addition, the value of register REG4 becomes 00.

In the second step (i.e., the second cycle),  $7x(-1)$  is performed. Our PPM is formed by two PPMs: one PPM is from the PPG (for  $7x(-1)$ ) and the other PPM is from register *accumulation* (including REG1, REG2, and REG3). After the PPR process is done, the values of REG1, REG2 and REG3 are 1011010, 101 and 0, respectively. In the column of the highest significance bit, both the two product terms are 0. The translation circuit translates these two product terms to be binary value 11. Then, binary value 11 is sent to the  $\alpha$ -bit adder for the accumulation. After the  $\alpha$ -bit addition, the value of register REG4 becomes 11.

In the third step (i.e., the third cycle), we produce the accumulation result. We use a 5-bit adder to perform the addition of the 5 leftmost columns. Finally, as shown in Fig. 5, the correct result 000101010 is obtained.

## V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

We have implemented a tool (a C++ program) to automatically generate the proposed N-bit MAC in Verilog RTL description. The users can specify the value of N and the value of k for automatic generation, where k denotes the number of higher significance bits whose additions (accumulation) are not performed in the final addition. Note that the value of k is equal to the bit width of register REG2.

In our experiments, we specify the value of  $N$  to be 16 (i.e., 16-bit MAC). Besides, we assume that the maximum number of multiplications in each multiply-accumulate operation is

256. Thus, the number of guard bits (i.e., the value of  $\alpha$ ) is set to be 8.

We have implemented several different configurations of the proposed MAC architecture. For the convenience of presentation, we use the term *Ours\_k* for the naming of each configuration, where k represents the bit width of register REG2. In our experiments, these Verilog RTL descriptions are synthesized to gate-level netlists and targeted to TSMC 40 nm cell library by using Synopsys Design Compiler.

For comparisons, we also implemented the following two MAC architectures: the conventional MAC architecture and the state-of-the-art MAC architecture. In the conventional MAC architecture [11], [12], the MAC unit is composed of two individual blocks (i.e., a multiplier and an accumulator). On the other hand, in the state-of-the-art MAC architecture [16]–[20], the multiplier and the accumulator are tightly integrated (i.e., a carry-save format is sent to the accumulator without being added to only one vector).

According to the two MAC architectures, we implemented five MAC unit models for comparisons: *DT+RC*, *DT+CLA*, *Hoang*, *Peiman*, and *Narendra*. The models *DT+RC* and *DT+CLA* are based on the conventional MAC architecture. The models *Hoang*, *Peiman*, and *Narendra* are based on the state-of-the-art MAC architecture. The details of these five MAC unit models are elaborated below.

- *DT+RC*. Based on the conventional MAC architecture, the PPR process of the multiplier is implemented by the Dadda tree approach (*DT*) and the adders are implemented by the ripple carry adder (*RC*).
- *DT+CLA*. Based on the conventional MAC architecture, the PPR process of the multiplier is implemented by the Dadda tree approach (*DT*) and the adders are implemented by the carry look ahead adder (*CLA*).
- *Hoang*. This model is implemented according to the MAC architecture proposed by Hoang *et al.* [16] (i.e., the state-of-the-art architecture). Note that, in [16], the final adder of the multiplier is implemented by the carry save adder. Then, a carry-save format is sent to the accumulator.
- *Peiman*. This model is also implemented according to the MAC architecture proposed by Hoang *et al.* [16] (i.e., the state-of-the-art architecture). However, this model uses the compressor proposed by Peiman *et al.* [19] for the PPR process.
- *Narendra*. This model is also implemented according to the MAC architecture proposed by Hoang *et al.* [16]. However, this model uses the compressor proposed by Narendra *et al.* [20] for the PPR process.

The first experiment is to perform logic synthesis with the objective of minimizing power consumption under the timing constraint that maximum path delay is at most 1.0 ns. Table 1 tabulates the synthesis results of different unsigned 16-bit MAC unit models. Table 2 tabulates the synthesis results of different signed 16-bit MAC unit models. In Table 1 and Table 2, the column Area denotes cir-

**TABLE 1. Results of unsigned MAC unit models under timing constraint.**

Architecture	Area ( $\mu\text{m}^2$ )	Delay (ns)	Power (mW)	Energy (pJ)	Normalized Energy
<b>DT+RC</b>	2943.64	0.98	1.3247	1.30	100.00%
<b>DT+CLA</b>	3050.46	0.98	1.3589	1.33	102.58%
<b>Hoang</b>	2430.61	0.98	1.3065	1.28	98.63%
<b>Peiman</b>	2236.02	0.97	1.1722	1.14	87.59%
<b>Narendra</b>	2222.41	0.97	1.1605	1.13	86.71%
<b>Ours_17</b>	1970.21	0.98	0.8438	0.83	63.70%
<b>Ours_16</b>	1961.81	0.97	0.8440	0.82	63.06%
<b>Ours_15</b>	1949.57	0.97	0.8839	0.86	66.04%
<b>Ours_14</b>	1930.74	0.98	0.8558	0.84	64.60%
<b>Ours_13</b>	1962.50	0.97	0.8543	0.83	63.83%

**TABLE 2. Results of signed MAC unit models under timing constraint.**

Architecture	Area ( $\mu\text{m}^2$ )	Delay (ns)	Power (mW)	Energy (pJ)	Normalized Energy
<b>DT+RC</b>	2804.38	0.98	1.3349	1.31	100.00%
<b>DT+CLA</b>	2786.24	0.98	1.3495	1.32	101.09%
<b>Hoang</b>	2417.46	0.97	1.3451	1.30	99.74%
<b>Peiman</b>	2288.86	0.98	1.2417	1.22	93.02%
<b>Narendra</b>	2203.81	0.98	1.1901	1.17	89.15%
<b>Ours_17</b>	2010.35	0.98	0.8458	0.83	63.36%
<b>Ours_16</b>	1996.66	0.97	0.8410	0.82	62.36%
<b>Ours_15</b>	2000.38	0.97	0.8753	0.85	64.90%
<b>Ours_14</b>	1979.74	0.98	0.8844	0.87	66.25%
<b>Ours_13</b>	2005.14	0.97	0.8745	0.85	64.84%

cuit area, the column Delay denotes maximum path delay (i.e., minimum possible clock period), the column Power denotes power consumption, and the column Energy denotes energy consumption (note that Energy = Delay × Power). In the column Normalized Energy, the energy consumption of each MAC unit is normalized with respect to that of DT+RC.

Since both 16-bit DT+ RC and 16-bit DT+CLA have long carry propagations, these two MAC unit models have large circuit area, large power consumption, and large energy consumption under the timing constraint that maximum path delay is at most 1.0 ns. Therefore, as shown in Table 1 and Table 2, the proposed MAC architecture can greatly reduce circuit area, power consumption, and energy consumption. Using the synthesis results of 16-bit unsigned MAC unit models (i.e., Table 1) as an example, the area of DT+RC is  $2943.64 \mu\text{m}^2$ , while the area of the configuration Ours\_16 (i.e., the proposed MAC architecture using 16-bit REG2) is only  $1961.81 \mu\text{m}^2$ . Furthermore, as shown in Table 1, the normalized energy consumption of the configuration Ours\_16 is only 63.06%. In other words, compared with DT+RC, the configuration Ours\_16 can save 36.94% energy consumption.

Note that the synthesis results displayed in Table 1 and Table 2 are under the timing constraint. From Table 1 and Table 2, we have the following two observations.

**TABLE 3.** Results of unsigned MAC unit models under area constraint.

Architecture	Area ( $\mu\text{m}^2$ )	Delay (ns)	Power (mW)	Energy (pJ)	Normalized Energy
DT+RC	1843.90	1.38	0.7224	1.00	100.00%
DT+CLA	1988.36	1.18	0.8816	1.04	104.35%
Hoang	1995.16	0.96	1.1473	1.10	110.48%
Peiman	1996.75	1.18	0.9032	1.07	106.91%
Narendra	1978.15	1.22	0.8742	1.07	106.98%
Ours_17	1996.97	0.91	0.8965	0.82	81.83%
Ours_16	1995.84	0.92	0.8986	0.83	82.93%
Ours_15	1998.33	0.92	0.9400	0.86	86.75%
Ours_14	1980.19	0.93	0.8859	0.82	82.64%
Ours_13	1972.48	0.95	0.8796	0.84	83.82%

- *Comparisons on circuit areas.* Compared with the conventional MAC architecture (i.e., DT+RC and DT+CLA), both the state-of-the-art MAC architecture (i.e., Hoang, Peiman, and Narendra) and the proposed MAC architecture (i.e., Ours\_17, Ours\_16, Ours\_15, Ours\_14, and Ours\_13) can reach smaller circuit areas. Especially, the proposed MAC architecture has a significant reduction on circuit area.
- *Comparisons on power consumption and energy consumption.* Compared with the conventional MAC architecture, both the state-of-the-art architecture and the proposed MAC architecture can achieve smaller power consumption and smaller energy consumption. Especially, the reduction of the proposed MAC architecture on power consumption (energy consumption) is significant. Using Table 1 as an example, compared with the model DT+RC, the model Narendra can save only 13.29% energy consumption, while the configuration Ours\_16 can save 36.94% energy consumption.

The second experiment is to perform logic synthesis with the objective of minimizing maximum path delay under the area constraint that circuit area is at most  $2000 \mu\text{m}^2$ . Table 3 tabulates the synthesis results of different unsigned 16-bit MAC unit models. Table 4 tabulates the synthesis results of different signed 16-bit MAC unit models. As shown in Table 3 and Table 4, the proposed MAC architecture can greatly reduce maximum path delay (i.e., minimum possible clock period), power consumption, and energy consumption.

Note that the synthesis results displayed in Table 3 and Table 4 are under the area constraint. From Table 3 and Table 4, we have the following four observations.

- *Comparisons on the models based on the conventional MAC architecture.* The models DT+RC and DT+CLA are based on the conventional MAC architecture. Compared with DT+RC, DT+CLA can achieve a smaller maximum path delay with a larger power consumption (owing to the mechanism of carry look ahead).
- *Comparisons on the models based on the state-of-the-art architecture.* The models Hoang, Peiman, and Narendra are based on the state-of-the-art MAC architecture.

**TABLE 4.** Results of signed MAC unit models under area constraint.

Architecture	Area ( $\mu\text{m}^2$ )	Delay (ns)	Power (mW)	Energy (pJ)	Normalized Energy
DT+RC	1996.29	1.21	0.8700	1.05	100.00%
DT+CLA	1991.30	1.14	0.9525	1.09	103.15%
Hoang	1997.65	0.96	1.1527	1.11	105.12%
Peiman	1983.59	1.20	0.9180	1.10	104.65%
Narendra	1972.02	1.20	0.9144	1.10	104.23%
Ours_17	1994.48	0.99	0.8430	0.83	79.28%
Ours_16	1989.26	1.01	0.8237	0.83	79.03%
Ours_15	1999.92	0.95	0.8847	0.84	79.84%
Ours_14	1998.56	0.95	0.8747	0.83	78.94%
Ours_13	1968.62	0.98	0.8559	0.84	79.68%

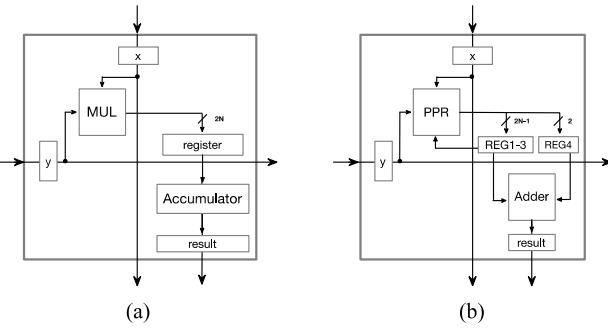
Compared with Hoang, both Peiman and Narendra can achieve smaller power consumption and smaller energy consumption with larger maximum path delays. The reason is that both the compressors used in Peiman and the compressors used in Narendra are 4:2 compressors (for the PPR process).

- *Comparisons on maximum path delays.* Compared with the model DT+RC, both the state-of-the-art MAC architecture and the proposed MAC architecture can achieve smaller maximum path delays (i.e., smaller minimum possible clock periods). Especially, the proposed MAC architecture has a significant reduction on maximum path delay.
- *Comparisons on power consumption and energy consumption.* Compared with DT+RC, the state-of-the-art MAC architecture achieves smaller maximum path delay with larger power consumption. Consequently, the energy consumption of the state-of-the-art MAC architecture is even slightly larger than that of DT+RC. On the other hand, the proposed MAC architecture can reduce both maximum path delay and power consumption at the same time. As a result, the proposed MAC architecture has a great reduction on energy consumption. Using Table 3 as an example, the configuration Ours\_17 (i.e., the proposed MAC architecture using 17-bit REG2) can save 18.17% energy consumption.

From these experiments, we find that, no matter timing constraint or area constraint, the proposed MAC architecture can always have a large reduction on energy consumption. Thus, the proposed approach works well in practice.

## VI. APPLICATION TO A SYSTOLIC ARRAY

The systolic array [28], [29] has been widely used in the hardware acceleration for matrix multiplication. In recent years, several research efforts [30], [31] have been paid to map the inference of a convolutional neural network to a systolic array. Note that a systolic array is composed of multiple processing elements (PEs). Each PE corresponds to a MAC unit. In this section, we address the application of the proposed MAC architecture to a systolic array.



**FIGURE 6.** (a) The conventional PE. (b) The proposed PE.

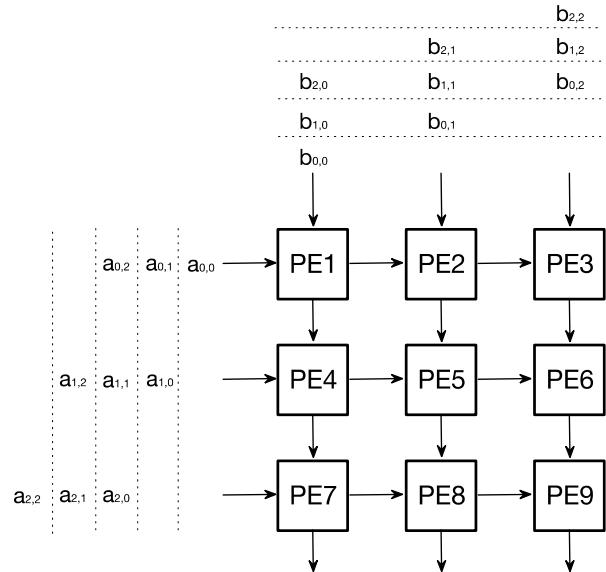
Fig. 6(a) gives the block diagram of the PE based on the conventional MAC architecture [11], [12]. Note that the PE is a two-stage (i.e., two-cycle) pipeline design. The inputs of the PE are  $x$  and  $y$ . The block MUL denotes the multiplier. In the first stage, the multiplier performs the multiplication. Then, the output of the multiplier is stored in a register. In the second stage, the accumulator performs the accumulation. Then, the accumulation result is stored in register *result*.

Fig. 6(b) gives the block diagram of the PE based on the proposed MAC architecture. Note that the PE is a two-stage (i.e., two-cycle) pipeline design. The inputs of the PE are  $x$  and  $y$ . The block PPR denotes the PPR process. In the first stage, the PPR process is performed. Then, as described in Section III, the output of the PPR process is stored in REG1, REG2, REG3 and REG4. In the second stage, the adder is used to produce the accumulation result. Note that the second stage (the adder) is only enabled in the last cycle of the entire sequence of multiply-accumulate operations.

Here we use  $3 \times 3$  matrix multiplication as an example to explain the differences between the two systolic arrays, i.e., the systolic array based on the conventional PE (i.e., the conventional MAC architecture) and the systolic array based on the proposed PE (i.e., the proposed MAC architecture). As shown in Fig. 7, a  $3 \times 3$  systolic array consists of 9 PEs (PE1~PE9). In Fig. 7, we use the term  $a_{i,j}$  and the term  $b_{i,j}$ , respectively, to represent the element of the two matrices, where  $i$  denotes the row number (i.e.,  $i = 0, 1, 2$ ) and  $j$  denotes the column number (i.e.,  $j = 0, 1, 2$ ).

For the systolic array based on the conventional PE (i.e., the conventional MAC architecture), Table 5 displays the detailed operations of each PE (PE1~PE9) in each cycle. In Table 5, the term *MUL* denotes the multiplication operation (i.e., the first stage of a conventional multiply-accumulate operation) and the term *ACC* denotes the accumulation operation (i.e., the second stage of a conventional multiply-accumulate operation).

For the systolic array based on the conventional PE (i.e., the conventional MAC architecture), Table 5 displays the detailed operations of each PE (PE1~PE9) in each cycle. In Table 5, the term *MUL* denotes the multiplication operation (i.e., the first stage of a conventional multiply-accumulate operation) and the term *ACC* denotes the accumulation operation



**FIGURE 7.** Block diagram of  $3 \times 3$  systolic array.

(i.e., the second stage of a conventional multiply-accumulate operation).

We use the detailed operations of PE1 shown in Table 5 as an example for explanation. Note that PE1 is responsible for producing the result of  $a_{0,0}xb_{0,0} + a_{0,1}xb_{1,0} + a_{0,2}xb_{2,0}$ . In the first cycle, the multiplication of  $a_{0,0}$  and  $b_{0,0}$ , i.e., *MUL*( $a_{0,0}, b_{0,0}$ ), is performed. Then, in the second cycle, *MUL*( $a_{0,1}, b_{1,0}$ ) is performed and the multiplication result of the first cycle, i.e., the result of *MUL*( $a_{0,0}, b_{0,0}$ ), is accumulated. In the third cycle, *MUL*( $a_{0,2}, b_{2,0}$ ) is performed and the result of *MUL*( $a_{0,1}, b_{1,0}$ ) is accumulated. Finally, in the fourth cycle, the result of *MUL*( $a_{0,2}, b_{2,0}$ ) is accumulated.

For the systolic array based on the proposed PE (i.e., the proposed MAC architecture), Table 6 displays the detailed operations of each PE in each cycle. In Table 6, the term *PPR* denotes the PPR process (i.e., the first stage of our multiply-accumulate operation) and the term *ADD* denotes the addition operation (i.e., the second stage of our multiply-accumulate operation).

We use the detailed operations of PE1 shown in Table 6 for the explanation. Note that PE1 is responsible for producing the result of  $a_{0,0}x b_{0,0} + a_{0,1}x b_{1,0} + a_{0,2}x b_{2,0}$ . In the first cycle, the PPR process is performed with respect to inputs  $a_{0,0}$  and  $b_{0,0}$ , i.e., *PPR*( $a_{0,0}, b_{0,0}$ ). Then, in the second cycle, *PPR*( $a_{0,1}, b_{1,0}$ ) is performed. In the third cycle, *PPR*( $a_{0,2}, b_{2,0}$ ) is performed. Finally, in the fourth cycle, an addition (*ADD*) is performed to produce the accumulation result.

So far, we have not discussed the systolic array based on the state-of-the-art PE (i.e., the state-of-the-art MAC architecture [16]–[20]). In fact, from the viewpoint of functionalities, the two stages of the state-of-the-art MAC architecture are the same as those of the conventional MAC architecture, i.e., multiplication operation (MUL) followed by accumulation operation (ACC). Therefore, for the systolic array based on

**TABLE 5.** The detailed operations of each conventional PE in each cycle.

	Cycle 1	Cycle 2	Cycle 3	Cycle 4	Cycle 5	Cycle 6	Cycle 7	Cycle 8
PE1	MUL(a <sub>00</sub> , b <sub>00</sub> )	MUL(a <sub>01</sub> , b <sub>10</sub> ) ACC	MUL(a <sub>02</sub> , b <sub>20</sub> ) ACC	ACC				
PE2		MUL(a <sub>00</sub> , b <sub>01</sub> )	MUL(a <sub>01</sub> , b <sub>11</sub> ) ACC	MUL(a <sub>02</sub> , b <sub>21</sub> ) ACC	ACC			
PE3			MUL(a <sub>00</sub> , b <sub>02</sub> )	MUL(a <sub>01</sub> , b <sub>12</sub> ) ACC	MUL(a <sub>02</sub> , b <sub>22</sub> ) ACC	ACC		
PE4		MUL(a <sub>10</sub> , b <sub>01</sub> )	MUL(a <sub>11</sub> , b <sub>11</sub> ) ACC	MUL(a <sub>12</sub> , b <sub>21</sub> ) ACC	ACC			
PE5			MUL(a <sub>10</sub> , b <sub>01</sub> )	MUL(a <sub>11</sub> , b <sub>11</sub> ) ACC	MUL(a <sub>12</sub> , b <sub>21</sub> ) ACC	ACC		
PE6				MUL(a <sub>10</sub> , b <sub>02</sub> )	MUL(a <sub>11</sub> , b <sub>12</sub> ) ACC	MUL(a <sub>12</sub> , b <sub>22</sub> ) ACC	ACC	
PE7			MUL(a <sub>20</sub> , b <sub>01</sub> )	MUL(a <sub>21</sub> , b <sub>11</sub> ) ACC	MUL(a <sub>22</sub> , b <sub>21</sub> ) ACC			
PE8				MUL(a <sub>20</sub> , b <sub>01</sub> )	MUL(a <sub>21</sub> , b <sub>11</sub> ) ACC	MUL(a <sub>22</sub> , b <sub>21</sub> ) ACC	ACC	
PE9					MUL(a <sub>20</sub> , b <sub>02</sub> ) ACC	MUL(a <sub>21</sub> , b <sub>12</sub> ) ACC	MUL(a <sub>22</sub> , b <sub>22</sub> ) ACC	ACC

**TABLE 6.** The detailed operations of each proposed PE in each cycle.

	Cycle 1	Cycle 2	Cycle 3	Cycle 4	Cycle 5	Cycle 6	Cycle 7	Cycle 8
PE1	PPR(a <sub>00</sub> , b <sub>00</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>01</sub> , b <sub>10</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>02</sub> , b <sub>20</sub> )	ADD				
PE2		PPR(a <sub>00</sub> , b <sub>01</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>01</sub> , b <sub>11</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>02</sub> , b <sub>21</sub> )	ADD			
PE3			PPR(a <sub>00</sub> , b <sub>02</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>01</sub> , b <sub>12</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>02</sub> , b <sub>22</sub> )	ADD		
PE4		PPR(a <sub>10</sub> , b <sub>01</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>11</sub> , b <sub>11</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>12</sub> , b <sub>21</sub> )	ADD			
PE5			PPR(a <sub>10</sub> , b <sub>01</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>11</sub> , b <sub>11</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>12</sub> , b <sub>21</sub> )	ADD		
PE6				PPR(a <sub>10</sub> , b <sub>02</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>11</sub> , b <sub>12</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>12</sub> , b <sub>22</sub> )	ADD	
PE7			PPR(a <sub>20</sub> , b <sub>01</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>21</sub> , b <sub>11</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>22</sub> , b <sub>21</sub> )	ADD		
PE8				PPR(a <sub>20</sub> , b <sub>01</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>21</sub> , b <sub>11</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>22</sub> , b <sub>21</sub> )	ADD	
PE9					PPR(a <sub>20</sub> , b <sub>02</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>21</sub> , b <sub>12</sub> )	PPR(a <sub>22</sub> , b <sub>22</sub> )	ADD

the state-of-the-art PE, to deal with  $3 \times 3$  matrix multiplication, the detailed operations of each PE (PE1~PE9) in each cycle are the same as Table 5. However, it is noteworthy to mention that, in the state-of-the-art MAC architecture, the output of the multiplier is in the carry-save format.

We have used TSMC 40 nm cell library to implement three  $3 \times 3$  systolic arrays based on these three different PE architectures: the conventional PE, the state-of-the-art PE, and the proposed PE. Note that, for low power, we adopt the model *DT+RC* for the conventional PE and the model *Narendra* for the state-of-the-art PE. The clock rate is assumed to be 1 GHz. Table 7 gives the implementation results. The row *Conventional* denotes the systolic array based on the conventional PE. The row *SOTA* denotes the systolic array based on the state-of-the-art PE. The row *Ours* denotes the systolic array based on the proposed PE. As shown in Table 7, compared with the systolic array based on the conventional PE, the systolic array based on the proposed PE can save 28.8%

**TABLE 7.** Comparisons on  $3 \times 3$  systolic array.

Systolic Array	Area ( $\mu\text{m}^2$ )	Power (mW)
Conventional	25239.42	36.0423
SOTA	19834.29	32.1327
Ours	17969.94	25.4412

circuit area and 29.4% power consumption; compared with the systolic array based on the state-of-the-art PE, the systolic array based on the proposed PE can save 9.4% circuit area and 20.8% power consumption.

Further, according to these three different PE architectures, we also have used TSMC 40 nm cell library to implement three  $5 \times 5$  systolic arrays. The clock rate is also assumed to be 1 GHz. Table 8 gives the implementation results. As shown in Table 8, compared with the systolic array based on the conventional PE, the systolic array based on the proposed PE

**TABLE 8.** Comparisons on 5 × 5 systolic array.

Systolic Array	Area ( $\mu\text{m}^2$ )	Power (mW)
Conventional	70109.50	166.86
SOTA	55095.25	148.76
Ours	49916.50	114.35

can save 28.8% circuit area and 31.5% power consumption; compared with the systolic array based on the state-of-the-art PE, the systolic array based on the proposed PE can save 9.4% circuit area and 23.1% power consumption.

From Table 7 and Table 8, we find that, compared with both the systolic array based on the conventional PE (i.e., the conventional MAC architecture) and the systolic array based on the state-of-the-art PE (i.e., the state-of-the-art MAC architecture), the systolic array based on the proposed PE (i.e., the proposed MAC architecture) can greatly reduce both circuit area and power consumption under the same timing constraint.

## VII. CONCLUSION

This paper presents a low-power high-speed two-stage pipeline MAC architecture for real-time DSP applications.

Our basic idea is to integrate a part of additions (including a part of the final addition in the multiplication and a part of the addition in the accumulation) into the PPR process. As a result, critical path delays and power dissipations caused by carry propagations can be reduced. To correctly deal with the overflow during the PPR process, an  $\alpha$ -bit accumulator is used to count the total number of carries. Experimental results consistently show that the proposed approach works well in practice.

The proposed MAC architecture is applicable to both the design of an unsigned MAC unit and the design of a signed MAC unit. Note that the only differences between the unsigned MAC unit and the signed MAC unit are the PPM structure and the  $\alpha$ -bit addition mechanism.

Moreover, the proposed MAC architecture is also applicable to the systolic array (for performing the matrix multiplication). Implementation data show that, compared with the systolic array based on the conventional PE (i.e., the conventional MAC architecture), the systolic array based on the proposed PE (i.e., the proposed MAC architecture) can greatly reduce both circuit area and power consumption under the same timing constraint.

## APPENDIX

In this Appendix, we give a detailed explanation to the translation circuit of the signed MAC. Here, without loss of generality, we suppose X and Y are two 2's complement N-bit integers. Thus, we can express X and Y as follows:

$$X = -x_{N-1}2^{N-1} + \sum_{i=0}^{N-2} x_i 2^i$$

$$Y = -y_{N-1}2^{N-1} + \sum_{i=0}^{N-2} y_i 2^i$$

where  $x_i, y_i \in \{0, 1\}$ .

Let P be the product of X and Y. From the Baugh-Wooley algorithm [25], [26], the product P can be expressed below:

$$P = x_{N-1}y_{N-1}2^{2N-2} + \sum_{i=0}^{N-2} \sum_{j=0}^{N-2} x_i y_j 2^{i+j}$$

$$+ 2^{N-1} \sum_{i=0}^{N-2} \overline{y_{N-1}x_i} 2^i$$

$$+ 2^{N-1} \sum_{j=0}^{N-2} \overline{x_{N-1}y_j} 2^j + 2^N - 2^{2N-1}$$

Note that our PPM generated in the PPG process has only  $2N-1$  columns (e.g., as displayed in Fig. 5, our PPM has only 7 columns for the signed 4-bit MAC unit). In other words, our PPM does not deal with the  $2N$ -th column. Therefore, the product  $P'$  obtained by our PPM can be expressed below:

$$P' = x_{N-1}y_{N-1}2^{2N-2} + \sum_{i=0}^{N-2} \sum_{j=0}^{N-2} x_i y_j 2^{i+j}$$

$$+ 2^{N-1} \sum_{i=0}^{N-2} \overline{y_{N-1}x_i} 2^i$$

$$+ 2^{N-1} \sum_{j=0}^{N-2} \overline{x_{N-1}y_j} 2^j + 2^N$$

As a result, we have  $P = P' - 2^{2N-1}$ . In order to obtain  $P$ , we need to add  $-2^{2N-1}$  into  $P'$ . Note that the weight of the least significant bit of the  $\alpha$ -bit adder is  $2^{2N-1}$ . Therefore,  $-2^{2N-1}$  corresponds to decimal  $-1$  for the  $\alpha$ -bit adder.

The inputs to the translation circuit are the two carries (i.e., the two product terms) generated by the PPR process. The  $\alpha$ -bit adder is responsible to accumulate the sum of the two carries. However, to compensate for  $-2^{2N-1}$ , the output value of the translation circuit (i.e., the input value to the  $\alpha$ -bit adder) should be the sum of the two carries minus 1.

Note that the translation circuit is used to translate the two carries to be a corresponding input value of the  $\alpha$ -bit adder. From the above discussions, the function of the translation circuit of the signed MAC is derived as below.

- If both the two input values (i.e., the two carries) are 0, the sum of the two input values is 0. Thus, after subtracting 1, the output value is decimal  $-1$ .
- If one input value is 0 and the other input value is 1, the sum of the two input values is 1. Thus, after subtracting 1, the output value is decimal 0.
- If both the two input values are 1, the sum of the two input values is 2. Thus, after subtracting 1, the output value is decimal 1.

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