

FPGA-Based Digital Filters Using Bit-Serial Arithmetic

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Abstract

This paper presents an efficient method for implementation of digital filters targeted FPGA architectures. The traditional approach is based on application of general purpose multipliers. However, multipliers implemented in FPGA architectures do not allow to construct economic Digital Filters. For this reason, multipliers are replaced by Lookup Tables and Adder-Subtractor, which use Bit-Serial Arithmetic. Lookup Tables can be of considerable size in high order filters, thus interconnection techniques will be used to construct high order filters from a set of low order filters. The paper presents several examples confirming that these techniques allow a reduction in logic cells utilization of filters implementation based on Bit-Serial Arithmetic concept.

Keywords: Digital Filter, FIR-Filter, FPGA, IIR-Filter, Lookup Tables.

1 INTRODUCTION

A Digital Filter is a Linear Time Invariant (LTI) system, which performs numerical calculations on sampled values of the signal. The analog input signal must first be sampled and digitized using an Analog to Digital Converter (ADC). The resulting binary numbers, representing successive sampled values of the input signal, are transferred to the filter, which carries out numerical calculations on them. These calculations typically involve multiplying the input values by constants and adding the products together. If necessary, the results of these calculations, which now represent sampled values of the filtered signal, are output through a Digital to Analog Converter (DAC) to convert the signal back to analog form. In the last years digital filters have been recognized as primary digital signal processing (DSP) operation.

There are two basic types of digital filters, Finite Impulse Response (FIR) and Infinite Impulse Response (IIR) filters. FIR and IIR filters are used in many digital signal processing systems to perform a variety of signal filtering and conditioning functions. An IIR filter is capable of emulating the transfer functions of analog continuous-time filters, such as low-pass, band-pass, high-pass, and all-pass (phase-shifting) types of filtering. IIR filters exhibit similar phase characteristics as their analog counterparts. For arbitrary transfer functions with linear-phase response, FIR filters are utilized and have no equivalent in the analog domain.

On the other hand, the advances in Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGA) technology have enabled these devices to be applied to a variety of applications traditionally reserved for Application Specific Integrated Circuits (ASICs). The advantages of the FPGA approach to digital filter implementation include: higher samples rates than those that are available from traditional DSP chips, lower costs than an ASIC for moderate volume applications, and are more flexible than the alternate approaches.

A filtering function is usually carried out by a number of multiplication operations, which are expensive in terms of time and space. Therefore, several techniques are used to minimize the hardware needed to implement a filter. A technique widely used is to replace Bit-Parallel by Bit-Serial structures.

Bit-Parallel structures process all the bits of input data simultaneously at a significant hardware cost. Bit-Serial, by comparison, process the input one bit at a time. The advantage of the last one is that all the bits pass through the same logic, resulting in a huge reduction in the required hardware. Typically, the Bit-Serial approach requires $1/n^{th}$ of the hardware required for the equivalent n -bit parallel design. The price of this logic reduction is that serial hardware take n clock cycles to execute, while the equivalent parallel structure executes in one clock cycle. Since for certain classes of applications, FPGA utilization is high, performance goals are achieved while using economically attractive FPGA devices. For applications that require high speed performance, Bit-Parallel structures yields the highest performance.

This paper illustrates a new approach to the design of digital filters using Bit-Serial Arithmetic, which will reduce the logic cells utilization in an FPGA considerably, it allow us to construct high order filters (FIR-filters require a large number of coefficients to produce adequate frequency response, so these filters can occupy all the FPGA), or have others applications running on our FPGA simultaneously. Although this approach degrades the performance of filters, this degradation is not considerable for the practical purposes since the most applications do not require high speed performance. Others approaches can be see in [1],[2],[3],[4] and [5], which keep high performance but do not reduce the logic cells utilization significantly due to the fact that these try a balance between time and space.

2 IIR-DIGITAL FILTERS

IIR-Digital Filters are widely used in digital signal processing applications. They compute an output from a set of input samples and a set of previous outputs, which are multiplied by a set of coefficients and then added together to produce the output. The digital filter behaviour is determined by the filter coefficients. A general IIR-filter is characterized by the following equation:

$$y^n = a_0x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + \dots + a_px^{n-p} + b_1y^{n-1} + \dots + b_py^{n-p} \quad (1)$$

where p is the filter order, the a_p 's and b_p 's are coefficients, x^n is the filter input at the time step n , and y^n is the filter output at the time step n .

Expanding the equation 1 for y^n in terms of the individual bits for the two-complements (2'C) operands $x = (x_{(0)} \cdot x_{(-1)} x_{(-2)} \dots x_{(-l)})_2$ and $y = (y_{(0)} \cdot y_{(-1)} y_{(-2)} \dots y_{(-l)})_2$ we get [6]:

$$y^n = a_0 \left(-x_{(0)}^n + \sum_{j=-l}^{-1} 2^j x_{(j)}^n \right) + a_1 \left(-x_{(0)}^{n-1} + \sum_{j=-l}^{-1} 2^j x_{(j)}^{n-1} \right) + \dots + a_p \left(-x_{(0)}^{n-p} + \sum_{j=-l}^{-1} 2^j x_{(j)}^{n-p} \right) + b_1 \left(-y_{(0)}^{n-1} + \sum_{j=-l}^{-1} 2^j y_{(j)}^{n-1} \right) + \dots + b_p \left(-x_{(0)}^{n-p} + \sum_{j=-l}^{-1} 2^j y_{(j)}^{n-p} \right) \quad (2)$$

Define $f(s, t, \dots, u, v, \dots, w) = a_0 s + a_1 t + \dots + a_p u + b_0 v + \dots + b_p w$, where $s, t, \dots, u, v, \dots,$ and w are single-bit variables. If the coefficients are m -bits constants, then each of the 2^{2p+1} possible values for f is representable in $(m + \lceil \log_2(2p+1) \rceil)$ bits, as it is the sum of $(2p+1)$ m -bit operands. These values can be precomputed and stored in a $((2^{2p+1}) \times (m + \lceil \log_2(2p+1) \rceil))$ -bit table.

Using the function f , we can rewrite the expression for y^n of the equation 2 as follows:

$$y^n = \left(\sum_{j=-l}^{-1} 2^j f(x_{(j)}^n, x_{(j)}^{n-1}, \dots, x_{(j)}^{n-p}, y_{(j)}^{n-1}, \dots, y_{(j)}^{n-p}) \right) - f(x_{(0)}^n, x_{(0)}^{n-1}, \dots, x_{(0)}^{n-p}, y_{(0)}^{n-1}, \dots, y_{(0)}^{n-p}) \quad (3)$$

Figure 1 shows the filter architecture (using Bit-Serial Arithmetic) to compute the equation 3, where the mapping f is presented as a Lookup Table (LUT) that includes all the possible linear combinations of the filter coefficients, as was mentioned previously.

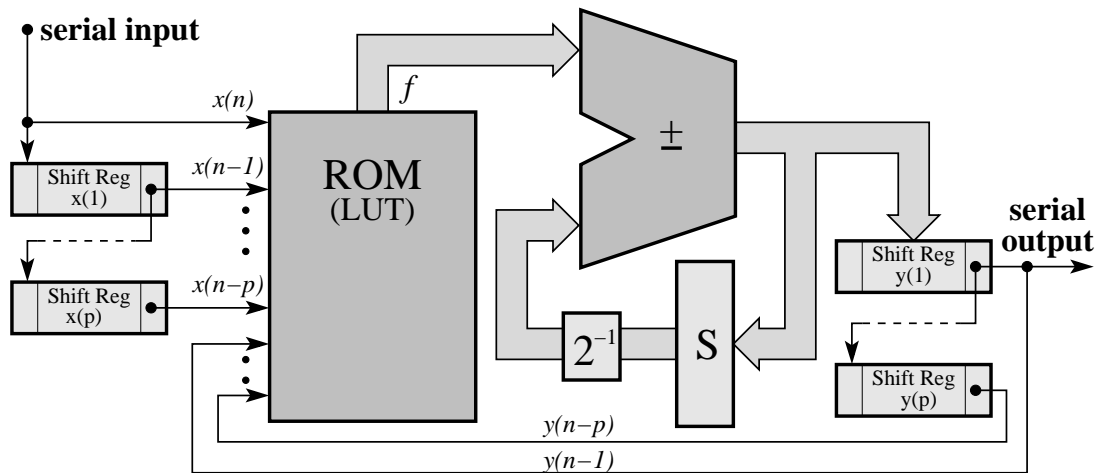


Figure 1: IIR-Digital Filter Architecture.

The architecture shown in Figure 1 has bit serial input and output. The ROM memory is addressed by the Least Significant Bits (LSB) of the x 's and y 's shift registers, and its output together with the S register value are fed to the *adder-subtractor* where are processed. Then the *adder-subtractor* result is accumulated in the S register again. After $l + 1$ cycles the obtained value is the filter output, which is stored into the $y(1)$ shift register for future computations. Then, the S register is reset in 0 and a new accumulation cycle begins.

We can construct high order filters by using the previously mentioned method, but the size required for the LUTs will grow exponentially with the number of filter coefficients. For this reason, a scheme is shown to construct high order IIR-filters making use of the properties of LTI systems such as *association* and *commutation*. The associative property means that we may analyze a complicated LTI system by breaking it down into a number of simpler subsystems. The commutative property of LTI systems means that if subsystems are arranged in series, or cascade, then they can be rearranged in any order without affecting overall performance [7]. Therefore, interconnecting low order sub-filters appropriately we can make high order filters. This technique permits us to use a set of smaller LUTs instead one huge LUT, which reduces considerably the space occupied in an FPGA. Figure 2 shows the interconnection scheme, where the input, the output and the internal connections (between the filters) are serials, and the (i) -filter output is connect to the $(i + 1)$ -filter input straight forward.

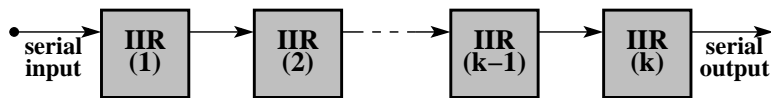


Figure 2: High Order IIR-Filter Interconnection Scheme.

For example, if we need to build a fifth-order IIR-filter we can use two second-order IIR-filters and one first-order IIR-filter. This allows us to use two 32-entry tables and one 8-entry table instead of one 2048-entry table.

3 FIR-DIGITAL FILTERS

In a FIR-Digital Filter the output depends only of present and previous input samples, which are multiplied by a set of coefficients and then added together to produce the output. The filter behaviour is determined by the filter coefficients. A general FIR-filter is characterized by the following equation:

$$y^n = a_0x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + \dots + a_qx^{n-p} \quad (4)$$

Where p is the filter order, the a_p 's are the filter coefficients, x^n is the input signal at the time step n , and y^n is the output signal at the time step n . The major disadvantage of these filters is that usually a large number of coefficients are required to control adequately their frequency response. Practical FIR-Filters typically need between 10 and 150 coefficients. This make them slower in operation than most IIR-filter design.

Expanding the equation 4 for y^n in terms of the individual bits for the 2'C operands $x = (x_{(0)}.x_{(-1)}x_{(-2)}\dots x_{(-l)})_2$ and $y = (y_{(0)}.y_{(-1)}y_{(-2)}\dots y_{(-l)})_2$, like it was made for IIR-filter, we get:

$$y^n = \left(\sum_{j=-l}^{-1} 2^j f(x_{(j)}^n, x_{(j)}^{n-1}, \dots, x_{(j)}^{n-p}) \right) - f(x_{(0)}^n, x_{(0)}^{n-1}, \dots, x_{(0)}^{n-p}) \quad (5)$$

Figure 3 shows the filter architecture to compute the equation 5.

In the previous section was explained how to build high order IIR-filters from a set of low order filters making use of the properties of LTI systems and interconnecting them appropriately. The same technique will be used for FIR-filters. As we know, the FIR-filters have no feedback coefficients. Due

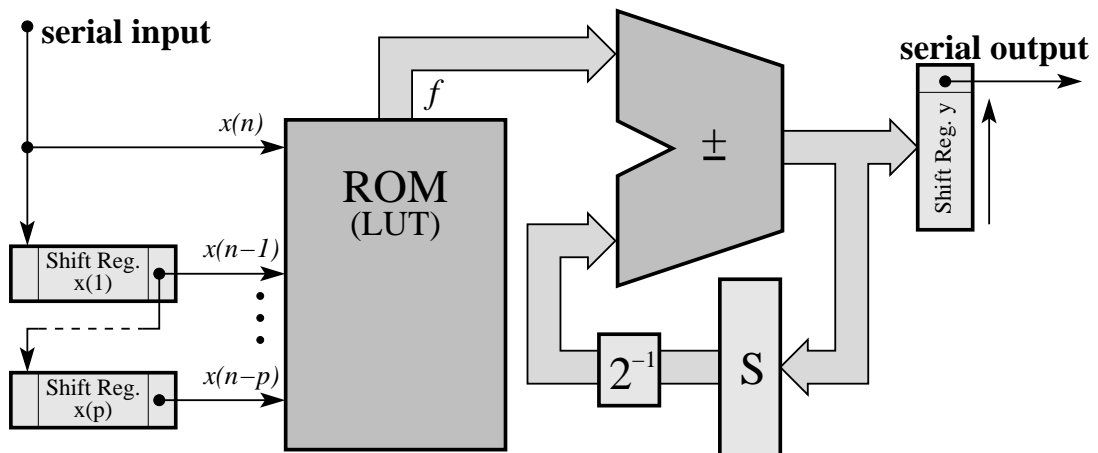


Figure 3: FIR-Filter Architecture.

to this, after $l + 1$ cycles, the *adder-subtractor* output is only stored into $y(n)$ register.

To construct high order FIR-filters we need to interconnect a cascade low FIR sub-filters; in that way the input pass through them serially and the sub-filters outputs are added (by serial adders) to produce the high order FIR-filter output. The interconnection scheme is shown in Figure 4.

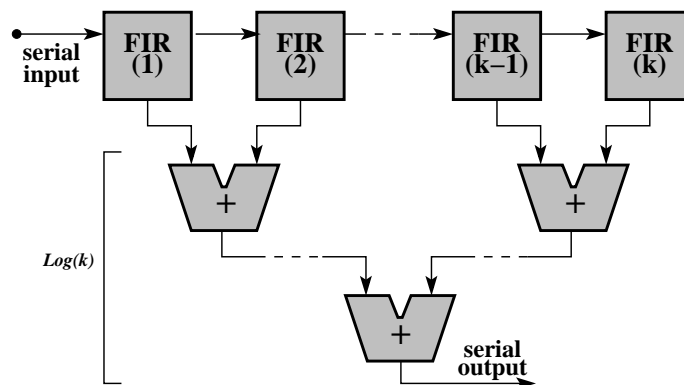


Figure 4: High Order FIR-Filter Interconnection Scheme.

If we want to construct a high order FIR-filter making use of k sub-filters, its result will have $\lceil \log_2(k) \rceil$ additional bits due to the fact that the tree adder have depth $\lceil \log_2(k) \rceil$ and each level may add one bit. Therefore, if the filter input have l bits the filter will produce one result each $l + \lceil \log_2(k) \rceil$ clock cycles.

Like it was said in the section 2, this technique reduces considerably the space required in an FPGA. For example, if we need to build a eighth-order FIR-filter we can use one fourth-order and one third-order FIR-filter. This allow us to use two small tables, a 32-entry table and a 16-entry table, instead of one 512-entry table.

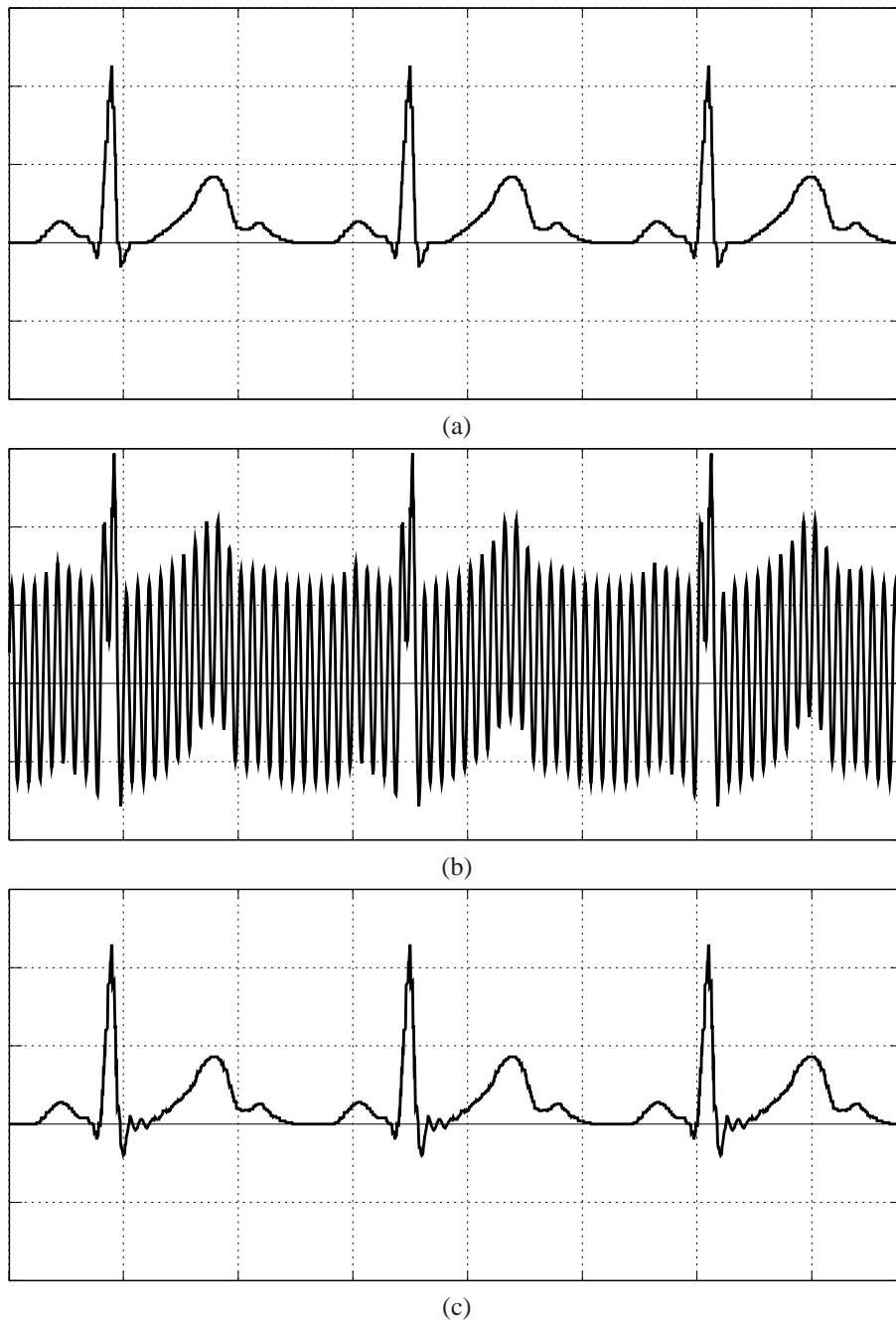


Figure 5: Removing mains-frequency interference from an electrocardiogram.

4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

For experiments, several examples of filters with different order were implemented to analyze their behaviour, performance and logic cells utilization in an FPGA. All filters implemented have 8-bit input samples and their coefficients have 8-bit precision, the FPGA selected was Actel ProAsic250 series, and the ACTEL LIBERO IDE v7.3 tool was used for the synthesis. In addition, AD9102 and DAC1654 chips were used to digitize input signals and convert the output signals in analog form respectively.

Table 1: Synthesized Result.

Filter Type	Filter Order	Logic Cell	Clock Frequency
IIR	2	3.06 % (188)	112.020 MHz
IIR	4	6.28 % (386)	102.281 MHz
FIR	4	3.22 % (198)	110.156 MHz
FIR	8	6.62 % (407)	96.330 MHz
FIR	18	13.07% (803)	94.295 MHz

To see the good behaviour of the architectures presented in the previous sections we will show the functioning of a digital filter. In particular, we will consider a digital filter for an electrocardiogram. In medicine, the electrical activity of the heart can be recorded using electrodes placed on the chest, a filter can be used to reduce the fluctuations due to electric activity in the resulting electrocardiogram (60 Hz in the USA, 50 Hz in Europe). In this case the needed digital filter is a band-stop IIR-filter, because we must reject the mains supply frequency (60 Hz or 50 Hz). This filter is characterized by the following equation:

$$y^n = x^n + (-1.9021)x^{n-1} + x^{n-2} + (1.8523)y^{n-1} + (-0.94833)y^{n-2} \quad (6)$$

If the interference is at 60 Hz, the filter is effective at sampling frequency of 1200 samples per second (1.2 kHz); if it is at 50 Hz, the filter is effective at 1000 samples per second (1 kHz) [7]. The VHDL specification for this can be seen in Appendix I. Figure 5 (a) shows a typical EKG waveform, corresponding to several heartbeats. In part (b) of the figure it is badly contaminated by sinusoidal interference of 60 Hz frequency. Figure 5 (c) shows the dramatic effect of this filter on the contaminated signal of part (b). The interference has been greatly reduced, without distorting the signal waveform.

Now, we will show the FPGA resources utilization of filters implemented with the techniques described in this paper. Table 1 presents these results. We can note that these techniques allow an important reduction in the logic cells utilization, also we can see that the size of filters grows linearly with the numbers of coefficients, degrading their performance slightly. We must have in mind that the overall performance of each implementation is: its clock frequency divided by the number of bits of its input signal (because this is processed serially). Therefore our implementations work at about 10 MHz, which is adequate for the most applications. These are important results, especially for FIR-filters, since they usually require many coefficients to control adequately their frequency response. In fact, using these techniques, we could synthesize a hundredth-order filter with a performance of 10 MHz approximately, it is not possible using traditional techniques with which we could synthesize sixtieth-order filters only.

5 CONCLUSION

The presented results lead to the conclusion that the use of Bit-Serial Arithmetic and Lookup Tables allow us to construct economic IIR and FIR digital filters, degrading slightly their performance. In addition, we could see that by the interconnection techniques we can construct efficient high order filters without using huge Lookup Tables. The results produced by these techniques can be straightforwardly translated from their schematic representation into VHDL code and then synthesized on an FPGA. Finally, through all the examples, we could see that the behaviour of digital filters implementation is correct.

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APPENDIX I (VHDL CODE)

```

library IEEE;
use IEEE.std_logic_1164.all;
use IEEE.numeric_std.all;

entity dig_filtro is port (
    x      : in  unsigned(0 to 7);
    clk    : in  std_logic;
    rst    : in  std_logic;
    y      : out unsigned(0 to 7));
end;

architecture df of dig_filtro is
    constant cBitsx      : integer := 8;
    constant cCoef       : integer := 5; -- number of coeficient
    constant cLogNumCoef : integer := 3; -- ciel of cCoef logarithm
    constant cBitsM     : integer := 8; -- number of coeficient bits
    type TableCoef_type is array(0 to 2**cCoef-1) of
        unsigned(0 to cBitsM+cLogNumCoef-1);
    constant cTableCoef : TableCoef_type
        :=(
            "000000000000",
            "111100001110",
            "000111011101",
            "00001110011",
            "000100000000",
            "000000001110",
            "001011011101",
            "00011110011",
            "111000011100",
            "11010010011",
            "11111111001",
            "111100000000",
            "111100011100",
            "11100010011",
            "00001111001",
            "000000000000",
            "000100000000",
            "000000001110",
            "001011011101",
            "00011110011",
            "001000000000",
            "000100001110",
            "001111011101",
            "00101110011",
            "111100011100",
            "11100010011",
            "00001111001",
            "000000000000",
            "000000011100",
            "11110010011",
            "00011111001",
            "000100000000"
        );
end;

```

```

signal x_n_reg      : unsigned(0 to cBitsx-1);
signal x_n_input   : unsigned(0 to cBitsx-1);
signal x_n_1_reg   : unsigned(0 to cBitsx-1);
signal x_n_1_input : unsigned(0 to cBitsx-1);
signal x_n_2_reg   : unsigned(0 to cBitsx-1);
signal x_n_2_input : unsigned(0 to cBitsx-1);
signal y_n_1_reg   : unsigned(0 to cBitsx-1);
signal y_n_1_input : unsigned(0 to cBitsx-1);
signal y_n_2_reg   : unsigned(0 to cBitsx-1);
signal y_n_2_input : unsigned(0 to cBitsx-1);
signal y_input     : unsigned(0 to cBitsx-1);
signal y_reg       : unsigned(0 to cBitsx-1);
signal counter_reg : unsigned(0 to cBitsx-1);
signal counter_input : unsigned(0 to cBitsx-1);
signal s_reg       : unsigned(0 to cBitsM+cLogNumCoef-1);
signal s_input     : unsigned(0 to cBitsM+cLogNumCoef-1);
signal f           : unsigned(0 to cBitsM+cLogNumCoef-1);
signal opndo_1     : unsigned(0 to cBitsM+cLogNumCoef-1+2);
signal opndo_2     : unsigned(0 to cBitsM+cLogNumCoef-1+2);
signal add         : unsigned(0 to cBitsM+cLogNumCoef-1+2);
signal address     : unsigned(0 to 4);

begin -- df
  counter_input <= counter_reg(counter_reg'high) &
    counter_reg(0 to counter_reg'high-1);

  x_n_input <= x when counter_reg(counter_reg'high)='1' else
    '0' & x_n_reg(0 to x_n_reg'high-1);
  x_n_1_input <= x_n_reg(x_n_reg'high) & x_n_1_reg(0 to x_n_reg'high-1);
  x_n_2_input <= x_n_1_reg(x_n_1_reg'high) & x_n_2_reg(0 to x_n_1_reg'high-1);
  y_n_1_input <= add(4 to 4+y_n_1_input'high) when
    counter_reg(counter_reg'high) = '1' else
    '0' & y_n_1_reg(0 to y_n_1_reg'high-1);
  y_n_2_input <= y_n_1_reg(y_n_1_reg'high) & y_n_2_reg(0 to y_n_1_reg'high-1);
  y_input <= add(4 to 4+y_n_1_input'high) when
    counter_reg(counter_reg'high)='1' else
    y_reg;
  y <= y_reg;

  opndo_1 <= '0' & s_reg(0) & s_reg(0 to cBitsM+cLogNumCoef-2) & '1';
  opndo_2 <= '0'&(f xor (0 to (cBitsM+cLogNumCoef-1) =>
    counter_reg(counter_reg'high)))& counter_reg(counter_reg'high);

  add <= opndo_1 + opndo_2;

  s_input <= (others => '0') when counter_reg(counter_reg'high) = '1' else
    add(1 to cBitsM+cLogNumCoef);

  address <= (x_n_reg(x_n_reg'high), x_n_1_reg(x_n_1_reg'high),
    x_n_2_reg(x_n_2_reg'high), y_n_1_reg(y_n_1_reg'high),
    y_n_2_reg(y_n_2_reg'high));

  with address select f <=
    cTableCoef(0) when "00000",
    cTableCoef(1) when "00001",
    cTableCoef(2) when "00010",

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cTableCoef(3)  when "00011",
cTableCoef(4)  when "00100",
cTableCoef(5)  when "00101",
cTableCoef(6)  when "00110",
cTableCoef(7)  when "00111",
cTableCoef(8)  when "01000",
cTableCoef(9)  when "01001",
cTableCoef(10) when "01010",
cTableCoef(11) when "01011",
cTableCoef(12) when "01100",
cTableCoef(13) when "01101",
cTableCoef(14) when "01110",
cTableCoef(15) when "01111",
cTableCoef(16) when "10000",
cTableCoef(17) when "10001",
cTableCoef(18) when "10010",
cTableCoef(19) when "10011",
cTableCoef(20) when "10100",
cTableCoef(21) when "10101",
cTableCoef(22) when "10110",
cTableCoef(23) when "10111",
cTableCoef(24) when "11000",
cTableCoef(25) when "11001",
cTableCoef(26) when "11010",
cTableCoef(27) when "11011",
cTableCoef(28) when "11100",
cTableCoef(29) when "11101",
cTableCoef(30) when "11110",
cTableCoef(31) when others;

```

```

write: process(clk,rst)
begin
  if rst='1' then
    s_reg <= (others => '0');
    x_n_reg <= (others => '0');
    x_n_1_reg <= (others => '0');
    x_n_2_reg <= (others => '0');
    y_n_1_reg <= (others => '0');
    y_n_2_reg <= (others => '0');
    y_reg      <= (others => '0');
    counter_reg <= (0 to counter_reg'high-1 => '0',
                   counter_reg'high => '1');
  elsif clk='1' and clk'event then
    counter_reg <= counter_input;
    s_reg <= s_input;
    x_n_reg <= x_n_input;
    x_n_1_reg <= x_n_1_input;
    x_n_2_reg <= x_n_2_input;
    y_n_1_reg <= y_n_1_input;
    y_n_2_reg <= y_n_2_input;
    y_reg <= y_input;
  end if;
end process;
end df;

```