XtremeDSP for Virtex-4 FPGAs

User Guide

UG073 (v2.7) May 15, 2008

Revision History

The following table shows the revision history for this document.

Date	Version	Revision
08/02/04	1.0	Initial Xilinx release. Printed Handbook version.
09/09/04	1.1	Added chapters.
02/04/05	1.2	Added clarification on the LEGACY_MODE attribute in "DSP48 Slice Attributes," page 18. Revised Figure 1-3 and Figure 3-7.
10/04/05	2.0	Added Chapter 7, "Multirate Filters Using the DSP48." Also added links to reference design files and revised figures.
10/18/05	2.0.1	Typographical edits.
12/19/05	2.1	Updated PCOUT-to-PCIN information in Chapter 1, "XtremeDSP Design Considerations," updated Chapter 2, "DSP48 Slice Math Functions" ZIP file, and updated reference design file names in Chapter 3, "MACC FIR Filters."
07/05/06	2.2	Updated "VHDL and Verilog Instantiation Templates" section; added link. Fixed links to reference designs.
11/29/06	2.3	Added column information to Table 1-1.
01/08/07	2.4	Updated the reference design file for Chapter 7, "Multirate Filters Using the DSP48."
06/08/07	2.5	Removed duplicate Verilog code implementation information in Chapter 2: "Square Root" section.
10/31/07	2.6	Updated Figure 1-13. Updated the reference design files for chapters 3, 4, and 5.
05/15/08	2.7	Added "Performance" section to Chapter 1, "XtremeDSP Design Considerations."

www.BDTIC.com/XILINX

Table of Contents

Chapter 2: DSP48 Slice Math Functions

Chapter 3: MACC FIR Filters

Chapter 4: Parallel FIR Filters

About This Guide

This user guide is a detailed functional description of the Virtex®-4 FPGA XtremeDSP™ technology.

Guide Contents

This user guide contains the following chapters:

- Chapter 1, "XtremeDSP Design Considerations," introduces the DSP48 slice, its elements, and its applications.
- Chapter 2, "DSP48 Slice Math Functions," defines some math functions that can be implemented using the DSP48 slice.
- Chapter 3, "MACC FIR Filters," describes how to implement several multiply-accumulate FIR filters using the DSP48 slice.
- Chapter 4, "Parallel FIR Filters," describes how to implement several parallel FIR filters using the DSP48 slice.
- Chapter 5, "Semi-Parallel FIR Filters," describes how to implement several semi-parallel FIR filters using the DSP48 slice.
- Chapter 6, "Multichannel FIR Filters,"illustrates the use of the advanced Virtex-4 DSP features when implementing a widely used DSP function known as multichannel FIR filtering.
- Chapter 7, "Multirate Filters Using the DSP48," describes how to conduct multirate filtering, including interpolation and decimation implementation.

Additional Resources

For additional information, go to http://support.xilinx.com. The following table lists some of the resources you can access from this website. You can also directly access these resources using the provided URLs.

Resource	Description/URL
Tutorials	Tutorials covering Xilinx design flows, from design entry to verification and debugging http://support.xilinx.com/support/techsup/tutorials/index.htm
Answer Browser	Database of Xilinx solution records http://support.xilinx.com/xlnx/xil_ans_browser.jsp

Resource	Description/URL
Application Notes	Descriptions of device-specific design techniques and approaches http://support.xilinx.com/apps/appsweb.htm
Data Sheets	Device-specific information on Xilinx device characteristics, including readback, boundary scan, configuration, length count, and debugging http://support.xilinx.com/xlnx/xweb/xil_publications_index.jsp
Problem Solvers	Interactive tools that allow you to troubleshoot your design issues http://support.xilinx.com/support/troubleshoot/psolvers.htm
Tech Tips	Latest news, design tips, and patch information for the Xilinx design environment http://www.support.xilinx.com/xlnx/xil_tt_home.jsp

Conventions

This document uses the following conventions. An example illustrates each convention.

Typographical

The following typographical conventions are used in this document:

Convention	Meaning or Use	Example
Courier font	Messages, prompts, and program files that the system displays	speed grade: – 100
Courier bold	Literal commands that you enter in a syntactical statement	**ngdbuild** *design_name*
Helvetica bold	Commands that you select from a menu	**File → Open**
	Keyboard shortcuts	**Ctrl+C**
Italic font	Variables in a syntax statement for which you must supply values	**ngdbuild** *design_name*
	References to other manuals	See the *Development System Reference Guide* for more information.
	Emphasis in text	If a wire is drawn so that it overlaps the pin of a symbol, the two nets are *not* connected.
Square brackets [ ]	An optional entry or parameter. However, in bus specifications, such as **bus[7:0]**, they are required.	**ngdbuild** [*option_name*] *design_name*
Braces { }	A list of items from which you must choose one or more	**lowpwr =**{**on**|**off**}

Convention	Meaning or Use	Example
Vertical bar |	Separates items in a list of choices	`lowpwr ={on|off}`

Vertical ellipsis
.
.
.
	Repetitive material that has been omitted	`IOB #1: Name = QOUT'`
		`IOB #2: Name = CLKIN'`
		`.`
		`.`
		`.`

Horizontal ellipsis ...	Repetitive material that has been omitted	`allow block` *block_name* *loc1 loc2 ... locn;*

Online Document

The following conventions are used in this document:

Convention	Meaning or Use	Example
Blue text	Cross-reference link to a location in the current document	See the section "Additional Resources" for details. Refer to "Title Formats" in Chapter 1 for details.
Red text	Cross-reference link to a location in another document	See Figure 2-5 in the *Virtex-4 User Guide.*
Blue, underlined text	Hyperlink to a website (URL)	Go to http://www.xilinx.com for the latest speed files.

XtremeDSP Design Considerations

This chapter provides technical details for the XtremeDSP™ Digital Signal Processing (DSP) element, the DSP48 slice.

The DSP48 slice is a new element in the Xilinx development model referred to as Application Specific Modular Blocks (ASMBL™) architecture. The purpose of this model is to deliver off-the-shelf programmable devices with the best mix of logic, memory, I/O, processors, clock management, and digital signal processing. ASMBL is an efficient FPGA development model for delivering off-the-shelf, flexible solutions ideally suited to different application domains.

Each XtremeDSP tile contains two DSP48 slices to form the basis of a versatile coarse-grain DSP architecture. Many DSP designs follow a multiply with addition. In Virtex®-4 devices, these elements are supported in dedicated circuits.

The DSP48 slices support many independent functions, including multiplier, multiplier-accumulator (MACC), multiplier followed by an adder, three-input adder, barrel shifter, wide bus multiplexers, magnitude comparator, or wide counter. The architecture also supports connecting multiple DSP48 slices to form wide math functions, DSP filters, and complex arithmetic without the use of general FPGA fabric.

The DSP48 slices available in all Virtex-4 family members support new DSP algorithms and higher levels of DSP integration than previously available in FPGAs. Minimal use of general FPGA fabric leads to low power, very high performance, and efficient silicon utilization.

This chapter contains the following sections:

- "Introduction"
- "Architecture Highlights"
- "Number of DSP48 Slices Per Virtex-4 Device"
- "DSP48 Tile and Interconnect"
- "Simplified DSP48 Slice Operation"
- "Timing Model"
- "A, B, C, and P Port Logic"
- "Symmetric Rounding Supported by Carry Logic"
- "Forming Larger Multipliers"
- "FIR Filters"
- "Adder Cascade vs. Adder Tree"
- "DSP48 Slice Functional Use Models"

Introduction

The DSP48 slices facilitate higher levels of DSP integration than previously possible in FPGAs. Many DSP algorithms are supported with minimal use of the general-purpose FPGA fabric, resulting in low power, high performance, and efficient device utilization.

At first look, the DSP48 slice is an 18 x 18 bit two's complement multiplier followed by a 48-bit sign-extended adder/subtracter/accumulator, a function that is widely used in digital signal processing (DSP).

A second look reveals many subtle features that enhance the usefulness, versatility, and speed of this arithmetic building block.

Programmable pipelining of input operands, intermediate products, and accumulator outputs enhances throughput. The 48-bit internal bus allows for practically unlimited aggregation of DSP slices.

One of the most important features is the ability to cascade a result from one XtremeDSP Slice to the next without the use of general fabric routing. This path provides high-performance and low-power post addition for many DSP filter functions of any tap length.

For multi-precision arithmetic this path supports a right-wire-shift. Thus, a partial product from one XtremeDSP Slice can be right-justified and added to the next partial product computed in an adjacent such slice. Using this technique, the XtremeDSP Slices can be configured to support any size operands.

Another key feature for filter composition is the ability to cascade an input stream from slice to slice.

The C input port allows the formation of many 3-input mathematical functions, such as 3-input addition and 2-input multiplication with a single addition. One subset of this function is the very valuable support of rounding a multiplication *away from zero*.

Architecture Highlights

The Virtex-4 DSP slices are organized as vertical DSP columns. Within the DSP column, two vertical DSP slices are combined with extra logic and routing to form a DSP tile. The DSP tile is four CLBs tall.

Each DSP48 slice has a two-input multiplier followed by multiplexers and a three-input adder/subtracter. The multiplier accepts two 18-bit, two's complement operands producing a 36-bit, two's complement result. The result is sign extended to 48 bits and can optionally be fed to the adder/subtracter. The adder/subtracter accepts three 48-bit, two's complement operands, and produces a 48-bit two's complement result.

Higher level DSP functions are supported by cascading individual DSP48 slices in a DSP48 column. One input (cascade B input bus) and the DSP48 slice output (cascade P output bus) provide the cascade capability. For example, a Finite Impulse Response (FIR) filter design can use the cascading input to arrange a series of input data sample and the cascading output to arrange a series of partial output results. For details on this technique, refer to the section titled "Adder Cascade vs. Adder Tree," page 36.

Architecture highlights of the DSP48 slices are:

- 18-bit x 18-bit, two's-complement multiplier with a full-precision 36-bit result, sign extended to 48 bits

- Three-input, flexible 48-bit adder/subtracter with optional registered accumulation feedback

- Dynamic user-controlled operating modes to adapt DSP48 slice functions from clock cycle to clock cycle
- Cascading 18-bit B bus, supporting input sample propagation
- Cascading 48-bit P bus, supporting output propagation of partial results
- Multi-precision multiplier and arithmetic support with 17-bit operand right shift to align wide multiplier partial products (parallel or sequential multiplication)
- Symmetric intelligent rounding support for greater computational accuracy
- Performance enhancing pipeline options for control and data signals are selectable by configuration bits
- Input port *C* typically used for multiply-add operation, large three-operand addition, or flexible rounding mode
- Separate reset and clock enable for control and data registers
- I/O registers, ensuring maximum clock performance and highest possible sample rates with no area cost
- OPMODE multiplexers

A number of software tools support the DSP48 slice. The Xilinx ISE software supports DSP48 slice instantiations. The Architecture Wizard is a GUI for creating instantiation VHDL and/or Verilog code. It also helps generate code for designs using a single DSP48 slice (e.g., Multiplier, Adder, Multiply-Accumulate or MACC, and Dynamic Control modes). Using the Architecture Wizard, CORE Generator™ tool, or System Generator, a designer can quickly generate math or other functions using Virtex-4 DSP48 slices.

Performance

To achieve maximum performance when using the DSP48 slice, the design needs to be fully pipelined. For multiplier-based designs, the DSP48 slice requires a three-stage pipeline. For non-multiplier-based designs, the DSP48 slice requires a two-stage pipeline. For information about how pipeline stages affect performance, refer to the timing numbers in the XtremeDSP Switching Characteristics section of DS302, *Virtex-4 Data Sheet: DC and Switching Characteristics*.

Number of DSP48 Slices Per Virtex-4 Device

Table 1-1 shows the number of DSP48 slices for each device in the Virtex-4 families. The Virtex-4 SX family offers the highest ratio of DSP48 slices to logic, making it ideal for math-intensive applications.

Table 1-1: **Number of DSP48 Slices per Family Member**

Device	DSP48	Columns	Device	DSP48	Columns	Device	DSP48	Columns
XC4VLX15	32	1	XC4VSX25	128	4	XC4VFX12	32	1
XC4VLX25	48	1	XC4VSX35	192	4	XC4VFX20	32	1
XC4VLX40	64	1	XC4VSX55	512	8	XC4VFX40	48	1
XC4VLX60	64	1				XC4VFX60	128	2
XC4VLX80	80	1				XC4VFX100	160	2
XC4VLX100	96	1				XC4VFX140	192	2
XC4VLX160	96	1						
XC4VLX200	96	1						

DSP48 Slice Primitive

Figure 1-1 shows the DSP48 slice primitive.
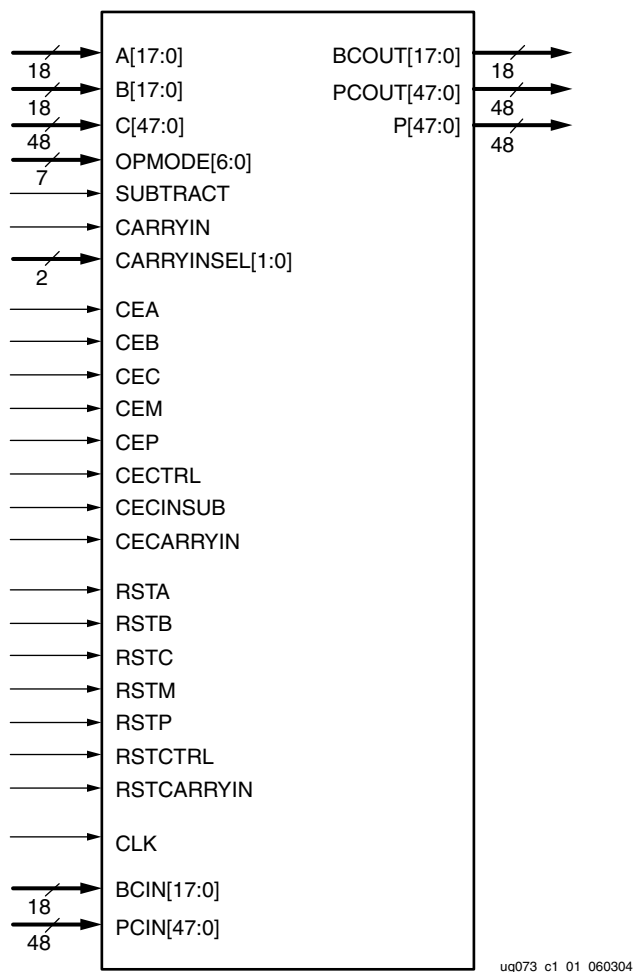
Figure 1-1: **DSP48 Slice Primitive**

Table 1-2 lists the available ports in the DSP48 slice primitive.

Table 1-2: **DSP48 Slice Port List and Definitions**

Signal Name	Direction	Size	Function
A	I	18	The multiplier's A input. This signal can also be used as the adder's Most Significant Word (MSW) input.
B	I	18	The multiplier's B input. This signal can also be used as the adder's Least Significant Word (LSW) input.
C	I	48	The adder's C input.
OPMODE	I	7	Controls the input to the X, Y, and Z multiplexers in the DSP48 slices (see OPMODE, Table 1-7).
SUBTRACT	I	1	0 = add, 1 = subtract.
CARRYIN	I	1	The carry input to the carry select logic.
CARRYINSEL	I	2	Selects carry source (see CARRYINSEL, Table 1-8).
CEA	I	1	Clock enable: 0 = hold, 1 = enable AREG.
CEB	I	1	Clock enable: 0 = hold, 1 = enable BREG.
CEC	I	1	Clock enable: 0 = hold, 1 = enable CREG.
CEM	I	1	Clock enable: 0 = hold, 1 = enable MREG.
CEP	I	1	Clock enable: 0 = hold, 1 = enable PREG.
CECTRL	I	1	Clock enable: 0 = hold, 1 = enable OPMODEREG, CARRYINSELREG.
CECINSUB	I	1	Clock enable: 0 = hold, 1 = enable SUBTRACTREG and general interconnect carry input.
CECARRYIN	I	1	Clock enable: 0 = hold, 1 = enable (carry input from internal paths).
RSTA	I	1	Reset: 0 = no reset, 1 = reset AREG.
RSTB	I	1	Reset: 0 = no reset, 1 = reset BREG.
RSTC	I	1	Reset: 0 = no reset, 1 = reset CREG.
RSTM	I	1	Reset: 0 = no reset, 1 = reset MREG.
RSTP	I	1	Reset: 0 = no reset, 1 = reset PREG.
RSTCTRL	I	1	Reset: 0 = no reset, 1 = reset SUBTRACTREG, OPMODEREG, CARRYINSELREG.
RSTCARRYIN	I	1	Reset: 0 = no reset, 1 = reset (carry input from general interconnect and internal paths).
CLK	I	1	The DSP48 clock.
BCIN	I	18	The multiplier's cascaded B input. This signal can also be used as the adder's LSW input.
PCIN	I	48	Cascaded adder's Z input from the previous DSP slice.
BCOUT	O	18	The B cascade output.
PCOUT	O	48	The P cascade output.
P	O	48	The product output.

DSP48 Slice Attributes

The synthesis attributes for the DSP48 slice are described in detail throughout this section. With the exception of the B_INPUT and LEGACY_MODE attributes, all other attributes call out pipeline registers in the control and datapaths. The value of the attribute sets the number of pipeline registers.

The attribute settings are as follows:

- The AREG and BREG attributes can take a value of 0, 1, or 2. The values define the number of pipeline registers in the A and B input paths. See the "A, B, C, and P Port Logic" section for more information.

- The CREG, MREG, and PREG attributes can take a value of 0 or 1. The value defines the number of pipeline registers at the output of the multiplier (MREG) (shown in Figure 1-11) and at the output of the adder (PREG) (shown in Figure 1-9). The CREG attribute is used to select the pipeline register at the C input (shown in Figure 1-8).

- The CARRYINREG, CARRYINSELREG, OPMODEREG, and SUBTRACTREG attributes take a value of 0 if no pipelining register is on these paths, and they take a value of 1 if there is one pipeline register in their path. The CARRYINSELREG, OPMODEREG, and SUBTRACTREG paths are shown in Figure 1-10, and the CARRYINREG path is shown in Figure 1-12.

- The B_INPUT attribute defines whether the input to the B port is routed from the parallel input (attribute: DIRECT) or the cascaded input from the previous slice (attribute: CASCADE).

- The LEGACY_MODE attribute serves two purposes. The first purpose is similar in nature to the MREG attribute. It defines whether or not the multiplier is *flow through* in nature (i.e., LEGACY_MODE value equal to MULT18x18) or contains a single pipeline register in the middle of the multiplier (i.e., LEGACY_MODE value equal to MULT18x18S is the same as MREG value equal to one.) While this is redundant to the MREG attribute, it was deemed useful for customers used to the Virtex-II and Virtex-II Pro multipliers because the DSP48 setup and hold timing most closely matches those of the Virtex-II and Virtex-II Pro MULT18x18S when the MREG is used. Any disagreement between the MREG attribute and LEGACY_MODE attribute settings are flagged as a software Design Rule Check (DRC) error. The second purpose for the attribute is to convey to the timing tools whether the A and B port through the combinatorial multiplier path (slower timing) or faster X multiplexer bypass path for A:B should be used in the timing calculations. Because the OPMODE can change dynamically, the timing tools cannot determine this without an attribute. To summarize the timing tools behavior:

  - If (attribute: NONE), then timing analysis/simulation bypasses the multiplier for the highest performance. The lowest power dissipation is achieved by setting MREG to one while CEM input is grounded.

  - If (attribute: MULT18x18), then timing analysis/simulation uses the combinatorial path through the multiplier. In this case, MREG must be set to zero or a DRC error occurs.

  - If (attribute: MULT18x18S), then timing analysis/simulation uses a pipelined multiplier. In this case MREG must be set to one or a DRC error occurs.

VHDL and Verilog Instantiation Templates

The VHDL and Verilog instantiation templates for the DSP48 slice can be found in the Virtex-4 Libraries Guide for HDL Designs:

http://toolbox.xilinx.com/docsan/xilinx8/books/docs/v4ldl/v4ldl.pdf

DSP48 Tile and Interconnect

Two DSP48 slices, a shared 48-bit C bus, and dedicated interconnect form a DSP48 tile. The DSP48 tiles stack vertically in a DSP48 column. The height of a DSP48 tile is the same as four CLBs and also matches the height of one block RAM. This "regularity" enhances the routing of wide datapaths. Smaller Virtex-4 family members have one DSP48 column, while the larger Virtex-4 family members have two, four, or eight DSP48 columns.

As shown in Figure 1-2, the multipliers and block RAM share interconnect resources in the Virtex-II and Virtex-II Pro architectures. Virtex-4 devices, however, have independent routing for the DSP48 tiles and block RAM, effectively doubling the available data bandwidth between the elements.

Virtex-II and Virtex-II Pro Devices

| Interconnect | Multiplier | Block RAM |

Virtex-4 Devices

| Interconnect | Block RAM | | Interconnect | DSP48 Slice | DSP48 Slice |
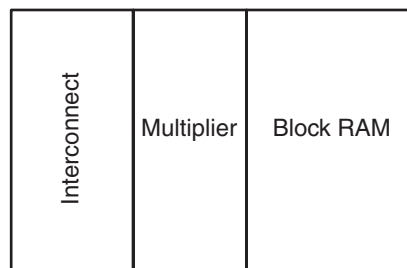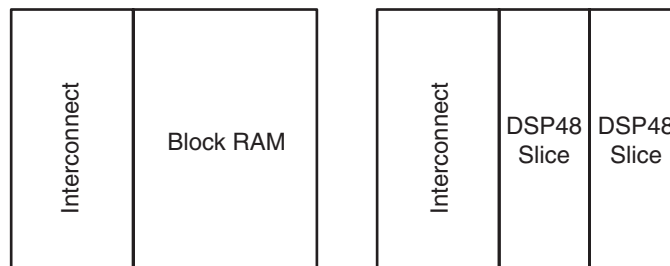
ug073_c1_02_081905

Figure 1-2: **DSP48 Interconnect and Relative Dedicated Element Sizes**

Figure 1-3 shows two DSP48 slices and their associated datapaths stacked vertically in a DSP48 column. The inputs to the shaded multiplexers are selected by configuration control signals. These attributes are set in the HDL source code or by the User Constraint File (UCF).

Figure 1-3: **A DSP48 Tile Consisting of Two DSP48 Slices**

Notes:

1. The 18-bit A bus and B bus are concatenated, with the A bus being the most significant.

2. The X,Y, and Z multiplexers are 48-bit designs. Selecting any of the 36-bit inputs provides a 48-bit sign-extended output.

3. The multiplier outputs two 36-bit partial products, sign extended to 48 bits. The partial products feed the X and Y multiplexers. When OPMODE selects the multiplier, both X and Y multiplexers are utilized and the adder/subtracter combines the partial products into a valid multiplier result.

4. The multiply-accumulate path for P is through the Z multiplexer. The P feedback through the X multiplexer enables accumulation of P cascade when the multiplier is not used.

5. The *Right Wire Shift by 17 bits* path truncates the lower 17 bits, and sign extends the upper 17 bits.

6. The gray-colored multiplexers are programmed at configuration time.

7. The shared C register supports multiply-add, wide addition, or rounding.

8. Enabling SUBTRACT implements Z – (X+Y+CIN) at the output of the adder/subtracter.

Simplified DSP48 Slice Operation

The math portion of the DSP48 slice consists of an 18-bit x 18-bit, two's complement multiplier followed by three 48-bit datapath multiplexers (with outputs X, Y, and Z) followed by a three-input, 48-bit adder/subtracter.

The data and control inputs to the DSP48 slice feed the arithmetic portions directly or are optionally registered one or two times to assist the construction of different, highly pipelined, DSP application solutions. The data inputs A and B can be registered once or twice. The other data inputs and the control inputs can be registered once. Full speed operation is 500 MHz when using the pipeline registers. More detailed timing information is available in the Timing Section.

In its most basic form, the output of the adder/subtracter is a function of its inputs. The inputs are driven by the upstream multiplexers, carry select logic, and multiplier array. Equation 1-1 summarizes the combination of X, Y, Z, and CIN by the adder/subtracter. The CIN, X multiplexer output, and Y multiplexer output are always added together. This combined result can be selectively added to or subtracted from the Z multiplexer output.

$$Adder\ Out = (Z \pm (X + Y + CIN)) \hspace{4em} Equation\ 1\text{-}1$$

Equation 1-2 describes a typical use where A and B are multiplied, and the result is added to or subtracted from the C register. More detailed operations based on control and data inputs are described in later sections. Selecting the multiplier function consumes both X and Y multiplexer outputs to feed the adder. The two 36-bit partial products from the multiplier are sign extended to 48 bits before being sent to the adder/subtracter.

$$Adder\ Out = C \pm (A \times B + CIN) \hspace{4em} Equation\ 1\text{-}2$$

Figure 1-4 shows the DSP48 slice in a very simplified form. The seven OPMODE bits control the selection of the 48-bit datapaths of the three multiplexers feeding each of the three inputs to the adder/subtracter. In all cases, the 36-bit input data to the multiplexers is sign extended, forming 48-bit input datapaths to the adder/subtracter. Based on 36-bit operands and a 48-bit accumulator output, the number of "guard bits" (i.e., bits available to guard against overflow) is 12. Therefore, the number of multiply accumulations possible before overflow occurs is 4096. Combinations of OPMODE, SUBTRACT, CARRYINSEL, and CIN control the function of the adder/subtracter.
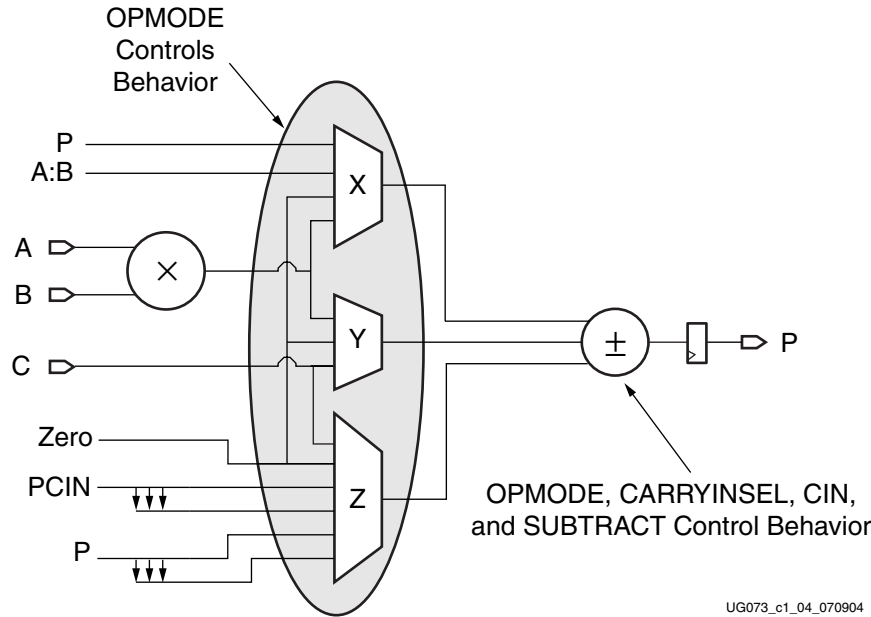
UG073_c1_04_070904

Figure 1-4: **Simplified DSP48 Slice Model**

Timing Model

Table 1-3 lists the XtremeDSP switching characteristics.

Table 1-3: **XtremeDSP Switching Characteristics**

Symbol	Description	Function	Control Signal
Setup and Hold of CE Pins			
T_{DSPCCK_CE}/T_{DSPCKC_CE}	Setup/Hold of all CE inputs of the DSP48 slice	Clock Enable	CE
T_{DSPCCK_RST}/T_{DSPCKC_RST}	Setup/Hold of all RST inputs of the DSP48 slice	Reset	RST
Setup and Hold Times of Data/Control Pins			
$T_{DSPDCK\_\{AA, BB, CC\}}$/$T_{DSPCKD\_\{AA, BB, CC\}}$	Setup/Hold of {A, B, C} input to {A, B, C} register	Data In	A, B, C
$T_{DSPDCK\_\{AM, BM\}}$/$T_{DSPCKD\_\{AM, BM\}}$	Setup/Hold of {A, B} input to M register	Data In	A, B
$T_{DSPDCK\_\{AP, BP\}\_L}$/$T_{DSPCKD\_\{AP, BP\}\_L}$	Setup/Hold of {A, B} input to P register (LEGACY_MODE = MULT18X18)	Data In	A, B
$T_{DSPDCK\_\{AP\_NL, BP\_NL, CP\}}$/$T_{DSPCKD\_\{AP\_NL, BP\_NL, CP\}}$	Setup/Hold of {A, B, C} input to P register (LEGACY_MODE = NONE for A and B)	Data In	A, B, C
$T_{DSPDCK\_\{CRYINC, CRYINSC, OPO, SUBS\}}$/$T_{DSPCKD\_\{CRYINC, CRYINSC, OPO, SUBS\}}$	Setup/Hold of {CARRYIN, CARRYINSEL, OPMODE, SUBTRACT} input to {CARRYIN, CARRYINSEL, OPMODE, SUBTRACT} register	Control In	Various
$T_{DSPDCK\_\{CRYINP, CRYINSP, OPP, SUBPPCINP\}}$/$T_{DSPCKD\_\{CRYINP, CRYINSP, OPP, SUBP, PCINP\}}$	Setup/Hold of {CARRYIN, CARRYINSEL, OPMODE, SUBTRACT, PCIN} input to P register	Control In	Various

Table 1-3: **XtremeDSP Switching Characteristics** *(Continued)*

Symbol	Description	Function	Control Signal
Clock to Out			
T_{DSPCKO_PP}	Clock to out from P register to P output	Data Out	P Output
$T_{DSPCKO\_\{PA, PB\}\_L}$	Clock to out from {A, B} register to P output (LEGACY_MODE = MULT18X18)	Data Out	P Output
$T_{DSPCKO\_\{PA\_NL, PB\_NL, PC\}}$	Clock to out from {A, B, C} register to P output (LEGACY_MODE = NONE for A and B)	Data Out	P Output
$T_{DSPCKO\_\{PM, PCRYIN, PCRYINS, POP, PSUB\}}$	Clock to out from {M, CARRYIN, CARRYINSEL, OPMODE, SUBTRACT} register to P output	Data Out	P Output
T_{DSPCKO_PCOUTP}	Clock to out from P register to PCOUT output	Data Out	P Output
$T_{DSPCKO\_\{PCOUTA, PCOUTB\}\_L}$	Clock to out from {A, B} register to PCOUT output (LEGACY_MODE = MULT18X18)	Data Out	P Output
$T_{DSPCKO\_\{PCOUTA\_NL, PCOUTB\_NL, PCOUTC\}}$	Clock to out from {A, B, C} register to PCOUT output (LEGACY_MODE = NONE for A and B)	Data Out	P Output
$T_{DSPCKO\_\{PCOUTM, PCOUTCRYIN, PCOUTCRYINS, PCOUTOP, PCOUTSUB\}}$	Clock to out from {M, CARRYIN, CARRYINSEL, OPMODE, SUBTRACT} register to PCOUT output	Data Out	P Output
Combinatorial			
$T_{DSPDO\_\{AP, BP\}\_L}$	{A, B} input to P output (LEGACY_MODE = MULT18X18)	Data In to Out	A, B to P
$T_{DSPDO\_\{AP\_NL, BP\_NL, CP\}}$	{A, B, C} input to P output (LEGACY_MODE = NONE for A and B)	Data In to Out	A, B, C to P
$T_{DSPDO\_\{CRYINP, CRYINSP, OPMODEP, SUBTRACTP, PCINP\}}$	{CARRYIN, CARRYINSEL, OPMODE, SUBTRACT, PCIN} input to P output	Control to Data Out	Various
$T_{DSPDO\_\{APCOUT, BPCOUT\}\_L}$	{A, B} input to PCOUT output (LEGACY_MODE = MULT18X18)	Data In to PC Out	A, B to PC Out
$T_{DSPDO\_\{APCOUT\_NL, BPCOUT\_NL, CPCOUT\}}$	{A, B, C} input to PCOUT output (LEGACY_MODE = NONE for A and B)	Data In to PC Out	A, B, C to PC Out
$T_{DSPDO\_\{CRYINPCOUT, CRYINSPCOUT, OPMODEPCOUT, SUBTRACTPCOUT, PCINPCOUT\}}$	{CARRYIN, CARRYINSEL, OPMODE, SUBTRACT, PCIN} input to PCOUT output	Control to PC Out	Various
Sequential			
$T_{DSPCKCK\_\{AP, BP\}\_L}$	From {A, B} register to P register (LEGACY_MODE = MULT18X18)	Register to register	–
$T_{DSPCKCK\_\{AP\_NL, BP\_NL, CP, PP\}}$	From {A, B, C, P} register to P register (LEGACY_MODE = NONE for A and B)	Register to register	–
$T_{DSPCKCK\_\{CRYINP, CRYINSP, OPMODEP, SUBTRACTP\}}$	From {CARRYIN, CARRYINSEL, OPMODE, SUBTRACT} register to P register	Register to register	–
$T_{DSPCKCK\_\_\{AM, BM\}}$	From {A, B} register to M register	Register to register	–

The timing diagram in Figure 1-5 uses OPMODE equal to `0x05` with all pipeline registers turned on. For other applications, the clock latencies and the parameter names must be adjusted.
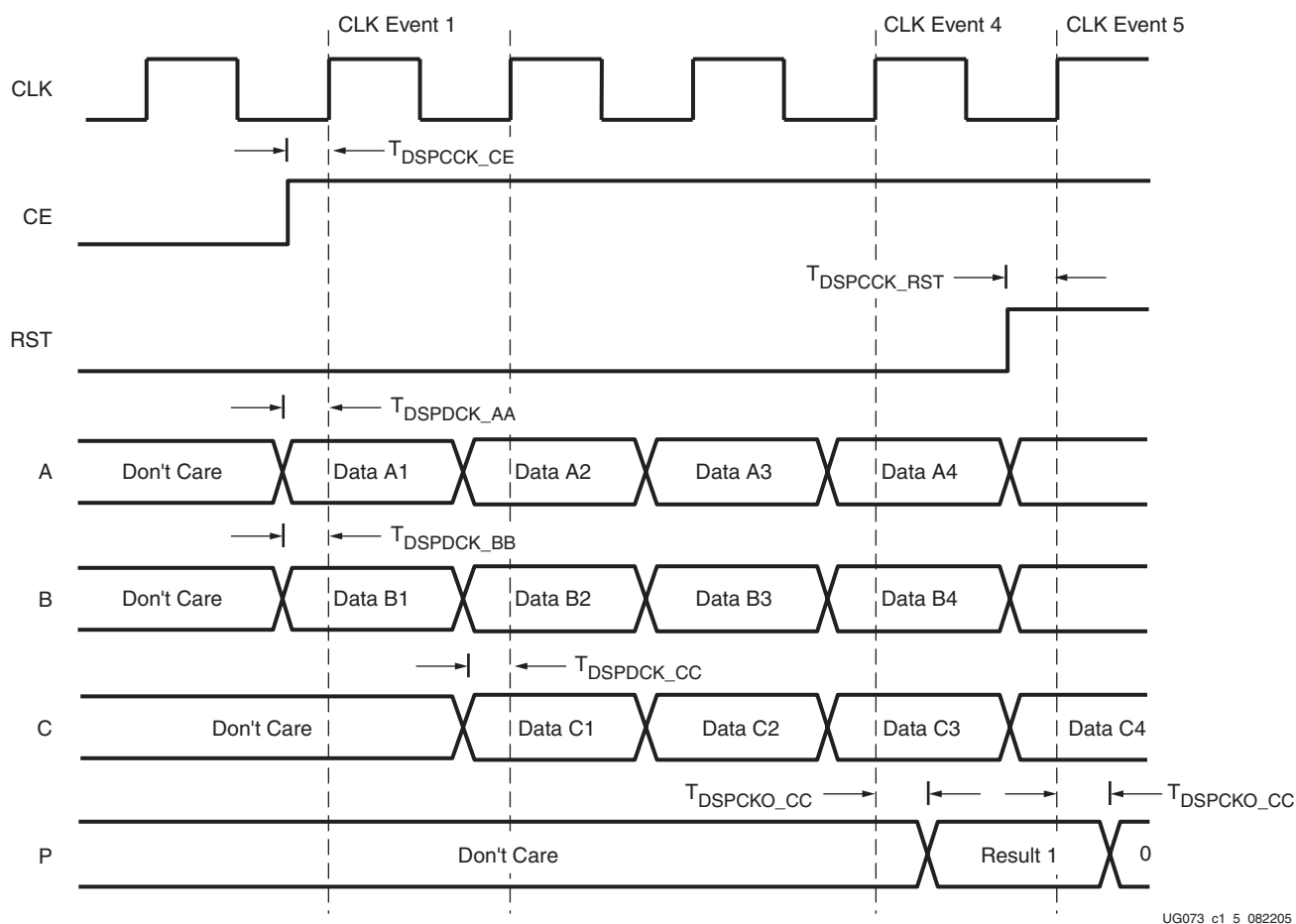
Figure 1-5: **XtremeDSP Timing Diagram**

The following events occur in Figure 1-5:

1. At time T_{DSPCCK_CE} before CLK event 1, CE becomes valid High to allow all DSP registers to sample incoming data.

2. At time $T_{DSPDCK\_\{AA,BB,CC\}}$ before CLK event 1, data inputs A, B, C have remained stable for sampling into the DSP slice.

3. At time T_{DSPCKO_PP} after CLK event 4, the P output switches into the results of the data captured at CLK event 1. This occurs three clock cycles after CLK event 1.

4. At time T_{DSPCCK_RST} before CLK event 5, the RST signal becomes valid High to allow a synchronous reset at CLK event 5.

5. At time T_{DSPCKO_PP} after CLK event 5, the output P becomes a logic 0.

A, B, C, and P Port Logic

The DSP48 slice input and output data ports support many common DSP and math algorithms. The DSP48 slice has two direct 18-bit input data ports labeled A and B. Two DSP48 slices within a DSP48 tile share a direct 48-bit input data port labeled C. Each DSP48 slice has one direct 48-bit output port labeled P, a cascaded input datapath (B cascade), and a cascaded output datapath (P cascade), providing a cascaded input and output stream between adjacent DSP48 slices. The B cascade is selected via the B_INPUT attribute. The cascade is a dedicated resource that is always connected to the adjacent DSP48 and can be dynamically selected via the Z MUX (OPMODE 6:4).

Applications benefiting from this feature include FIR filters, complex multiplication, multi-precision multiplication, complex MACs, adder cascade, and adder tree (the final summation of several multiplier outputs) support.

The 18-bit A and B port can supply input data to the 18-bit x 18-bit, two's complement multiplier. When concatenated, A and B can bypass the multiplier and feed the X multiplexer input. The 48-bit C port is used as a general input to the Y and Z multiplexer to perform multiply, add, subtract, three-input add/subtract functions, or rounding.

Multiplexers controlled by configuration bits select flow-through paths, optional registers, or cascaded inputs. The data port registers allow users to typically trade off increased clock frequency (i.e., higher performance) vs. data latency. Also, a configuration controlled pipeline register between the multiplier and adder/subtracter is known as the M register. The registers have independent clock enables and resets, described in Table 1-2 and shown in Figure 1-1.

The configuration bit enables the C register to select between two potentially different clock domains, shown in Figure 1-8. The selection of the clock multiplexer is not set by user attributes. If the C register is used, the DSP48 slices packed in the same DSP48 tile must either be in the same clock domain or meet multicycle clock constraints.

The shared C input within the DSP tile can be used by the two slices within a tile in any one of the following modes:

1. Neither DSP48 slice uses the C port.
    The C inputs in both slices are unconnected or are connected to GND, *0* in the HDL code. The place and route software maps the two slices in one tile.

2. Both DSP48 slices use the same C port inputs.
    The C inputs in both slices are connected to *C* in the HDL code. The place and route software maps the two slices in one tile.

3. Only one DSP48 slice is actually using the C port.
    There are some very specific rules when only one DSP48 slice uses the C port. The purpose of these new rules (effective ISE software, v7.1.03i) is to make sure there is "agreement" among the implementation tools, the simulation tools, and the customers' desired results.

For the Static Cases below, the MAP software ensures that there are no mismatches between hardware and software. For the dynamic opmode situation, the Dynamic Cases listed below, the user is required to modify source code to ensure that there are no mismatches between hardware and software. If the new rules are not followed for Dynamic Cases, MAP will issue an INFO message, asking for more information to determine if the C port is not being used. The message recommends that the following flags be set to ensure that the desired unused C port is trimmed appropriately so that it can be merged with another DSP48 slice: C=GND, CREG=0, CEC=1, and RSTC=1

Here are the cases where the C port tied to GND can be trimmed and merged with a different DSP Slice using the C port.

Static Cases: OPMODE[6:2] are static, or OPMODE[6,4:2] are static with OPMODE[5] dynamic.

The merge can occur if the OPMODE[6:2] bits do not select the C port on either Z multiplexer or Y multiplexer (i.e., OPMODE[6:4] does not equal "011" or OPMODE[3:2] does not equal "11").

Dynamic Cases: In all other cases where OPMODE[6:2] bits are dynamic or partially dynamic, the user also needs to set CREG=0, RSTC=1, and CEC=1, in addition to setting C bus to GND. This set of conditions conveys to the MAP software that the C port is not used, and it is possible merge this DSP48 slice with another DSP48 slice.

The A, B, C, and P port logics are shown in Figure 1-6, Figure 1-7, Figure 1-8, and Figure 1-9, respectively.

UG073_c1_06_082205
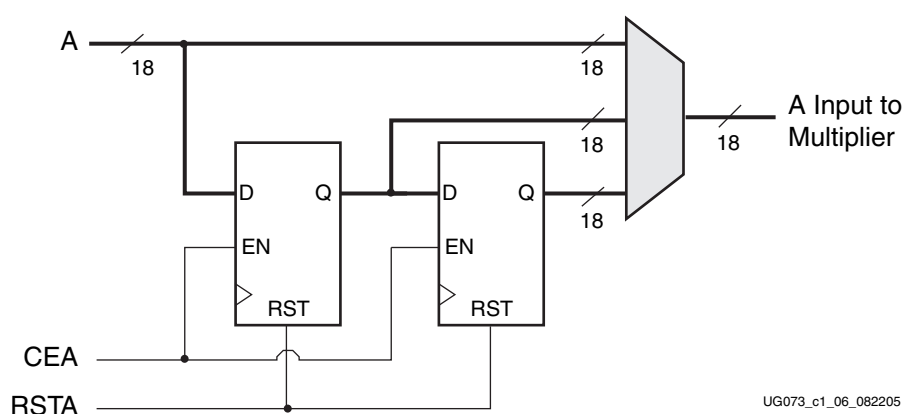
Figure 1-6: **A Input Logic**

UG073_c1_07_082205
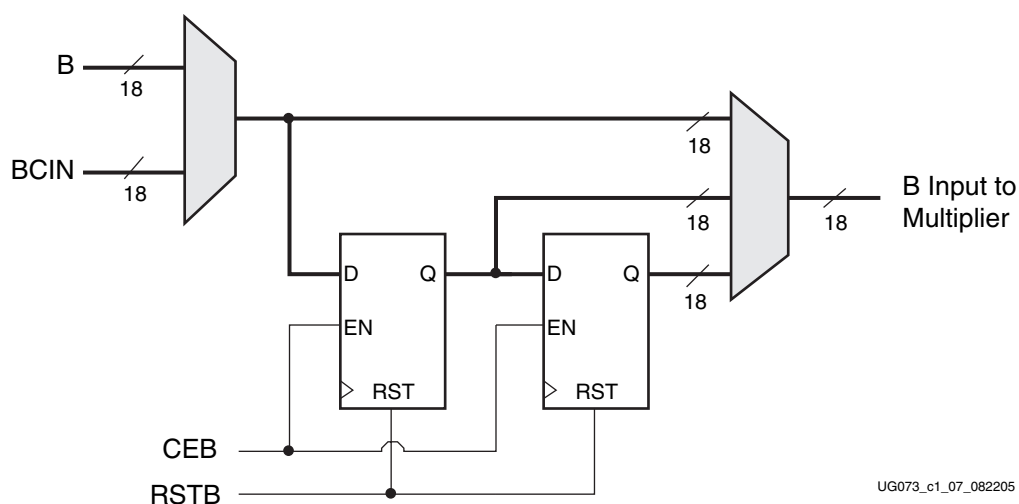
Figure 1-7: **B Input Logic**
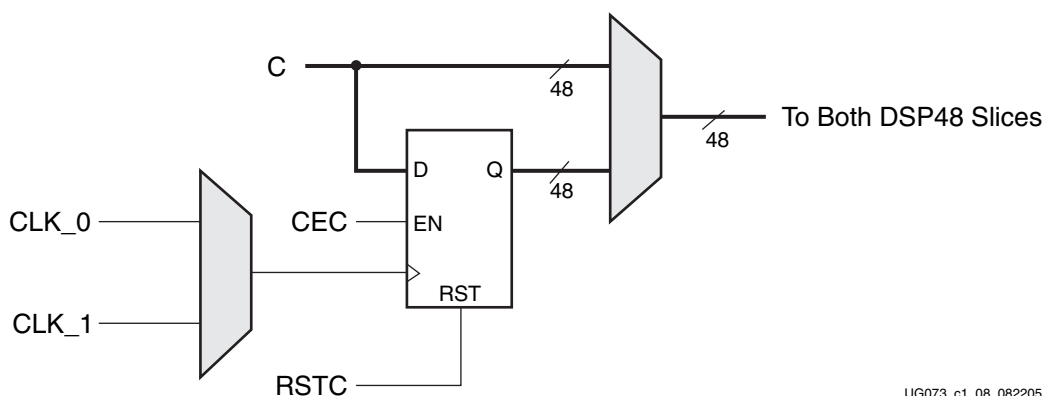
Figure 1-8: **C Input Logic**
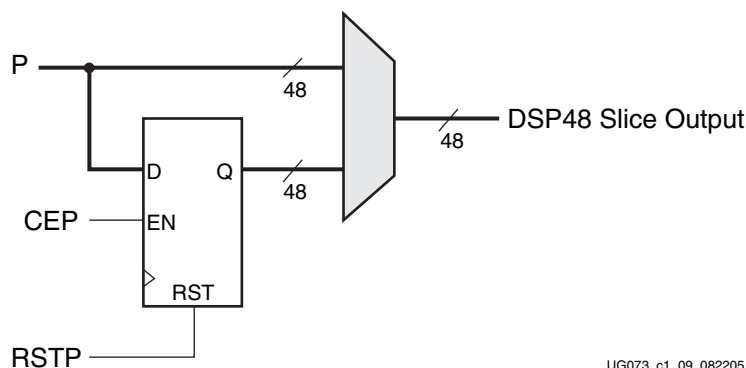
Figure 1-9: **P Output Logic**

OPMODE, SUBTRACT, and CARRYINSEL Port Logic

The OPMODE, SUBTRACT, and CARRYINSEL port logic supports flowthrough or registered input control signals. Similar to the datapaths, multiplexers controlled by configuration bits select flowthrough or optional registers. The control port registers allow users to trade off increased clock frequency (i.e., higher performance) vs. data latency.

The registers have independent clock enables and resets, described in Table 1-2 and shown in Figure 1-1. The OPMODE, SUBTRACT, and CARRYINSEL registers are reset by RSTCTRL. The SUBTRACT register has a separate enable labeled CECINSUB from OPMODE and CARRYINSEL. This enable signal is also used to enable the carry input from the general interconnect described in the "Carry Input Logic" subsection.

Figure 1-10 shows the OPMODE, SUBTRACT, and CARRYINSEL port logic.
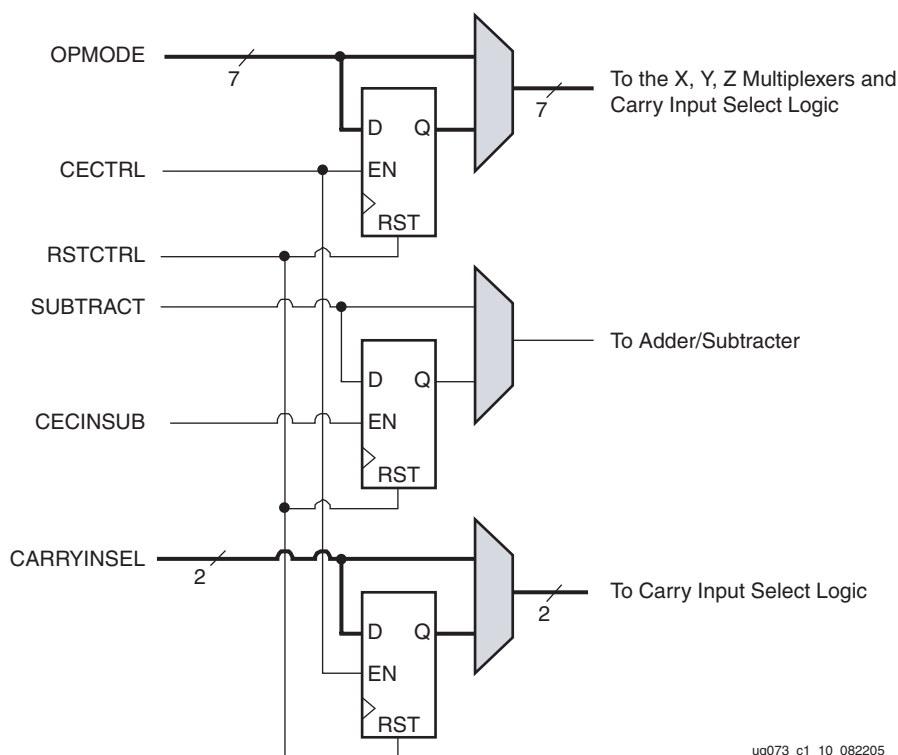
Figure 1-10: **OPMODE, SUBTRACT, and CARRYINSEL Port Logic**

Two's Complement Multiplier

The two's complement multiplier inside the DSP48 slice accepts two 18-bit x 18-bit, two's complement inputs and produces a 36-bit, two's complement result. Cascading of multipliers to achieve larger products is supported with a 17-bit right-shifted cascaded bus input to the adder/subtracter to right justify partial products by the correct number of bits. MACC functions can also right justify intermediate results for multi-precision. The multiplier can emulate unsigned math by setting the MSB of an 18-bit operand to zero.

The output of the multiplier consists of two 36-bit partial products. The 36-bit partial products are sign extended to 48 bits prior to being input to the adder/subtracter. Selecting the output of the multiplier consumes both X and Y multiplexers whereby the adder/subtracter combines the partial products to form the final result.

Figure 1-11 shows an optional pipeline register (MREG) for the output of the multiplier. Using the register provides increased performance with a single clock cycle of increased latency. The gray multiplexer indicates "selected at configuration time by configuration bits."
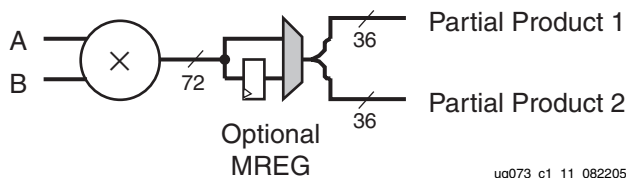
Figure 1-11: **Two's Complement Multiplier Followed by Optional MREG**

X, Y, and Z Multiplexer

The OPMODE inputs provide a way for the design to change its functionality from clock cycle to clock cycle (e.g., when altering the initial or final state of the DSP48 relative to the middle part of a given calculation). The OPMODE bits can be optionally registered under the control of the configuration memory cells (as denoted by the gray MUX symbol in Figure 1-10).

Table 1-4, Table 1-5, and Table 1-6 list the possible values of OPMODE and the resulting function at the outputs of the three multiplexers (X, Y, and Z multiplexers). The multiplexer outputs supply three operands to the following adder/subtracter. Not all possible combinations for the multiplexer select bits are allowed. Some are marked in the tables as "illegal selection" and give undefined results. If the multiplier output is selected, then both the X and Y multiplexers are consumed, supplying the multiplier output to the adder/subtracter.

Table 1-4: **OPMODE Control Bits Select X, Y, and Z Multiplexer Outputs**

OPMODE Binary			X Multiplexer Output Fed to Add/Subtract
Z	Y	X	
XXX	XX	00	ZERO (Default)
XXX	01	01	Multiplier Output (Partial Product 1)
XXX	XX	10	P
XXX	XX	11	A concatenate B

Table 1-5: **OPMODE Control Bits Select X, Y, and Z Multiplexer Outputs**

OPMODE Binary			Y Multiplexer Output Fed to Add/Subtract
Z	Y	X	
XXX	00	XX	ZERO (Default)
XXX	01	01	Multiplier Output (Partial Product 2)
XXX	10	XX	Illegal selection
XXX	11	XX	C

www.xilinx.com

Table 1-6: **OPMODE Control Bits Select X, Y, and Z Multiplexer Outputs**

OPMODE Binary			Z Multiplexer Output Fed to Add/Subtract
Z	**Y**	**X**	
000	XX	XX	ZERO (Default)
001	XX	XX	PCIN
010	XX	XX	P
011	XX	XX	C
100	XX	XX	Illegal selection
101	XX	XX	Shift (PCIN)
110	XX	XX	Shift (P)
111	XX	XX	Illegal selection

There are seven possible non-zero operands for the three-input adder as selected by the three multiplexers, and the 36-bit operands are sign extended to 48 bits at the multiplexer outputs:

1. Multiplier output, supplied as two 36-bit partial products

2. Multiplier bypass bus consisting of A concatenated with B

3. C bus, 48 bits, shared by two slices

4. Cascaded P bus, 48 bits, from a neighbor DSP48 slice

5. Registered P bus output, 48 bits, for accumulator functions

6. Cascaded P bus, 48 bits, right shifted by 17 bits from a neighbor DSP48 slice

7. Registered P bus output, 48 bits, right shifted by 17 bits, for accumulator functions

Three-Input Adder/Subtracter

The adder/subtracter output is a function of control and data inputs. OPMODE, as shown in the previous section, selects the inputs to the X, Y, Z multiplexer directed to the associated three adder/subtracter inputs. It also describes how selecting the multiplier output consumes both X and Y multiplexers.

As with the input multiplexers, the OPMODE bits specify a portion of this function. Table 1-7 shows OPMODE combinations and the resulting functions. The symbol ± in the table means either add or subtract and is specified by the state of the SUBTRACT control signal (SUBTRACT = 1 is defined as "subtraction"). The outputs of the X and Y multiplexer and CIN are always added together. This result is then added to or subtracted from the output of the Z multiplexer.

Table 1-7: **OPMODE Control Bits Adder/Subtracter Function**

Hex OPMODE	Binary OPMODE			XYZ Multiplexer Outputs and Adder/Subtracter Output			
[6:0]	Z	Y	X	Z	Y	X	Adder/Subtracter Output
0x00	000	00	00	0	0	0	$\pm$CIN
0x02	000	00	10	0	0	P	$\pm$(P + CIN)
0x03	000	00	11	0	0	A:B	$\pm$(A:B + CIN)
0x05	000	01	01	0	Note 1		$\pm$(A $\times$ B + CIN)
0x0c	000	11	00	0	C	0	$\pm$(C + CIN)
0x0e	000	11	10	0	C	P	$\pm$(C + P + CIN)
0x0f	000	11	11	0	C	A:B	$\pm$(A:B + C + CIN)
0x10	001	00	00	PCIN	0	0	PCIN $\pm$ CIN
0x12	001	00	10	PCIN	0	P	PCIN $\pm$ (P + CIN)
0x13	001	00	11	PCIN	0	A:B	PCIN $\pm$ (A:B + CIN)
0x15	001	01	01	PCIN	Note 1		PCIN $\pm$ (A $\times$ B + CIN)
0x1c	001	11	00	PCIN	C	0	PCIN $\pm$ (C + CIN)
0x1e	001	11	10	PCIN	C	P	PCIN $\pm$ (C + P + CIN)
0x1f	001	11	11	PCIN	C	A:B	PCIN $\pm$ (A:B + C + CIN)
0x20	010	00	00	P	0	0	P $\pm$ CIN
0x22	010	00	10	P	0	P	P $\pm$ (P + CIN)
0x23	010	00	11	P	0	A:B	P $\pm$ (A:B + CIN)
0x25	010	01	01	P	Note 1		P $\pm$ (A $\times$ B + CIN)
0x2c	010	11	00	P	C	0	P $\pm$ (C + CIN)
0x2e	010	11	10	P	C	P	P $\pm$ (C + P + CIN)
0x2f	010	11	11	P	C	A:B	P $\pm$ (A:B + C + CIN)
0x30	011	00	00	C	0	0	C $\pm$ CIN
0x32	011	00	10	C	0	P	C $\pm$ (P + CIN)
0x33	011	00	11	C	0	A:B	C $\pm$ (A:B + CIN)
0x35	011	01	01	C	Note 1		C $\pm$ (A $\times$ B + CIN)
0x3c	011	11	00	C	C	0	C $\pm$ (C + CIN)
0x3e	011	11	10	C	C	P	C $\pm$ (C + P + CIN)
0x3f	011	11	11	C	C	A:B	C $\pm$ (A:B + C + CIN)
0x50	101	00	00	Shift (PCIN)	0	0	Shift(PCIN) $\pm$ CIN
0x52	101	00	10	Shift (PCIN)	0	P	Shift(PCIN) $\pm$ (P + CIN)

Table 1-7: **OPMODE Control Bits Adder/Subtracter Function** *(Continued)*

Hex OPMODE	Binary OPMODE	XYZ Multiplexer Outputs and Adder/Subtracter Output			
[6:0]	**Z Y X**	**Z**	**Y**	**X**	**Adder/Subtracter Output**
0x53	101 00 11	Shift (PCIN)	0	A:B	Shift(PCIN) ± (A:B + CIN)
0x55	101 01 01	Shift (PCIN)	Note 1		Shift(PCIN) ± (A × B + CIN)
0x5c	101 11 00	Shift (PCIN)	C	0	Shift(PCIN) ± (C + CIN)
0x5e	101 11 10	Shift (PCIN)	C	P	Shift(PCIN) ± (C + P + CIN)
0x5f	101 11 11	Shift (PCIN)	C	A:B	Shift(PCIN) ± (A:B + C + CIN)[2]
0x60	110 00 00	Shift (P)	0	0	Shift(P) ± CIN
0x62	110 00 10	Shift (P)	0	P	Shift(P) ± (P + CIN)
0x63	110 00 11	Shift (P)	0	A:B	Shift(P) ± (A:B + CIN)[2]
0x65	110 01 01	Shift (P)	Note 1		Shift(P) ± (A × B + CIN)
0x6c	110 11 00	Shift (P)	C	0	Shift(P) ± (C + CIN)
0x6e	110 11 10	Shift (P)	C	P	Shift(P) ± (C + P + CIN)
0x6f	110 11 11	Shift (P)	C	A:B	Shift(P) ± (A:B + C + CIN)

Notes:

1. When the multiplier output is selected, both X and Y multiplexers are used to feed the multiplier partial products to the adder input.
2. The colon symbol in the table represents concatenation.

Carry Input Logic

The carry input logic result is a function of the OPMODE control bits and CARRYINSEL. The inputs to the carry input logic appear in Figure 1-12. Carry inputs used to form results for adders and subtracters are always in the critical path. High performance is achieved by implementing this logic in the diffused silicon. The possible carry inputs to the carry logic are "gathered" prior to the outputs of the X, Y, and Z multiplexers. In a sense, the X, Y, and Z multiplexer function is duplicated for the carry inputs to the carry logic. Both OPMODE and CARRYINSEL must be in the correct state to ensure the correct carry input (CIN) is selected.
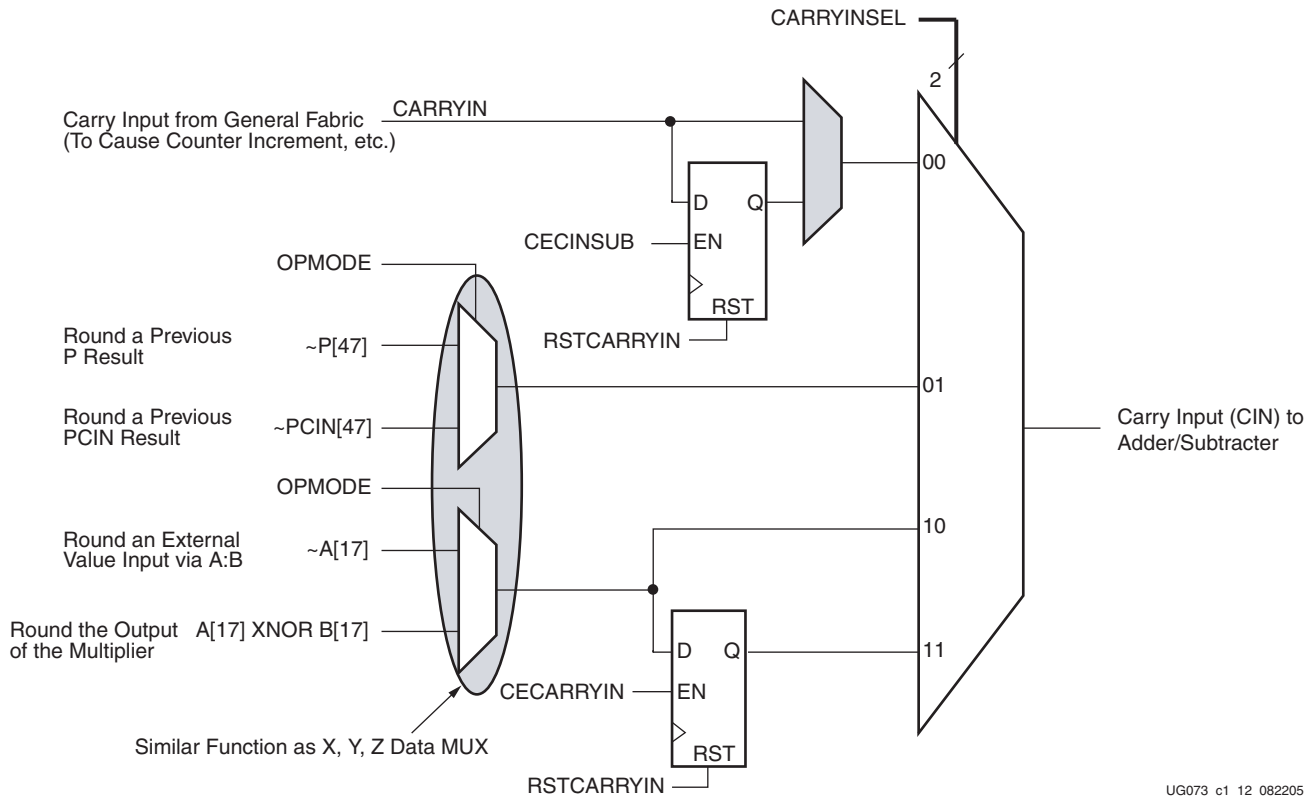
Figure 1-12: **Carry Input Logic Feeding the Adder/Subtracter**

Figure 1-12 shows four inputs, selected by the 2-bit CARRYINSEL control with the OPMODE bits providing additional control. The first input CARRYIN (CARRYINSEL is equal to binary `00`) is driven from general logic. This option allows implementation of a carry function based on user logic. It can be optionally registered to match the pipeline delay of the MREG when used. This register delay is controlled by configuration. The next input (CARRYINSEL is equal to binary `01`) is the inverted MSB of either the output P or the cascaded output, PCIN (from an adjacent DSP48 slice). The final selection between P or PCIN is dictated by OPMODE[4] and OPMODE[6]. The third input (CARRYINSEL is equal to binary `10`) is the inverted MSB of A, for rounding A concatenated with B values, or A[17] XNOR B[17] for rounding multiplier outputs. Again, the state of OPMODE determines the final selection. The fourth and final input is merely a registered version of the third input to adjust the carry input delay when using the multiplier output register (MREG).

Table 1-8 lists the possible values of the two carry input select bits (CARRYINSEL), the operation mode bus (OPMODE), and the resulting carry inputs or sources.

Table 1-8: **OPMODE and CARRYINSEL Control Carry Source**

CARRYINSEL[1:0]	OPMODE	Carry Source	Comments
`00`	XXX XX XX	CARRYIN	General fabric carry source (registered or not)
`01`	Z MUX output = P or Shift(P)	~P[47]	Rounding P or Shift(P)
`01`	Z MUX output = PCIN or Shift(PCIN)	~PCIN[47]	Rounding the cascaded PCIN or Shift(PCIN) from adjacent slice
`10`	X and Y MUX output = multiplier partial products	A[17] xnor B[17]	Rounding multiplier (MREG pipeline register disabled)
`11`	X and Y MUX output = multiplier partial products	A[17] xnor B[17]	Rounding multiplier (MREG pipeline register enabled)
`10`	X MUX output = A:B	~A[17]	Rounding A:B (not pipelined)
`11`	X MUX output = A:B	~A[17]	Rounding A:B (pipelined)

Symmetric Rounding Supported by Carry Logic

Arithmetic rounding is a process where a result is quantized in an "intelligent" manner. The bit position placement where rounding occurs is up to the designer and is determined solely by a constant loaded in the C register. While the binary point placement and bit position where rounding occurs are independent of each other, the following information assumes that the designer's goal is to round off the fractional bits.

One form of rounding is simple truncation or dropping undesired LSBs from a large result to obtain a reduced number of result bits. The problem with truncation happens after the bits are dropped and the new reduced result is biased in the wrong direction. For example, if a number has the decimal value 2.8 and the fractional part of the number is truncated, then the result is two. In this example, the original number is closer to 3 than to 2, and a rounded result of 3 is more desirable than the simple truncated result of 2.

Another method of quantization is known as symmetric rounding, accomplishing the more desirable effect of quantizing numbers to keep them from becoming biased in the wrong direction. For example, the number 2.8 rounds to 3.0 and the number 2.2 rounds to 2.0. Negative numbers, such as –2.8 and –2.2, round to –3.0 and –2.0 respectively. The midpoint number 2.5 rounds to 3.0 and –2.5 rounds to –3.

Another way to describe this type of quantization (for fractional rounding) is to round to the nearest integer and at the midpoint round away from zero. For positive numbers, this effect is achieved by adding `0.1000`... binary and truncating the fraction of the result. For negative numbers, this effect is achieved by adding `0.0111`... and truncating the fraction of the result.

The implementation of the symmetric rounding in the DSP48 slice allows the user to load a single constant. If the design calls for eight bits (out of 48 total bits) to be rounded, then load `0x00000000007F` into the C register. The number of bits to be rounded off is one more than the number of ones present in the C register. Table 1-9 has examples for rounding off the fractional bits from a value (binary point placement and rounded bits placement coincide).

Table 1-9: **Symmetric Rounding Examples**

Multiplier Output (Decimal)	Multiplier Output (Binary)	C Value	Internally Generated CIN	Multiplier Plus C Plus CIN	After Truncation (Binary)	After Truncation (Decimal)
2.4375	0010.0111	0000.0111	1	0010.1111	0010	2
2.5	0010.1000	0000.0111	1	0011.0000	0011	3
2.5625	0010.1001	0000.0111	1	0011.0001	0011	3
–2.4375	1101.1001	0000.0111	0	1110.0000	1110	-2
–2.5	1101.1000	0000.0111	0	1101.1111	1101	-3
–2.5625	1101.0111	0000.0111	0	1101.1110	1101	-3

Forming Larger Multipliers

Figure 1-13 illustrates the formation of a 35 x 35-bit multiplication from smaller 18 x 18-bit multipliers. The notation "0,B[16:0]" denotes B has a leading zero followed by 17 bits, forming a positive two's complement number.

$$A_U = A[34:17] \quad A_L = 0,A[16:0]$$
$$x \quad B_U = B[34:17] \quad B_L = 0,B[16:0]$$

Sign Extend 36 Bits of '0'

$B_L * A_L = 34$ bits [33:17] [16:0]

Sign Extend 18 Bits

$B_L * A_U = 35$ bits [34:17] [16:0] 17-Bit Offset

Sign Extend 18 Bits

$B_U * A_L = 35$ bits [34:17] [16:0]

$B_U * A_U = 36$ bits [35:18] [17:0] 34-Bit Offset

P[69:52]   P[51:34]   P[33:17]   P[16:0]
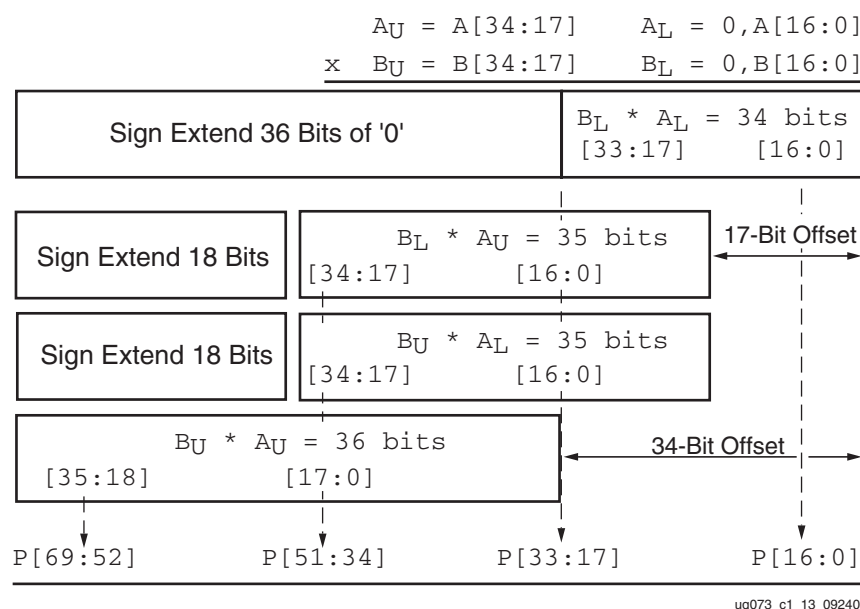
ug073_c1_13_092407

Figure 1-13: **35x35-Bit Multiplication from 18x18-Bit Multipliers**

When separating two's complement numbers into two parts, only the most-significant part carries the original sign. The least-significant part must have a *forced zero* in the sign position meaning they are positive operands. While it seems logical to separate a positive number into the sum of two positive numbers, it can be counter intuitive to separate a negative number into a negative most-significant part and a positive least-significant part. However, after separation, the most-significant part becomes "more negative" by the amount the least-significant part becomes "more positive." The 36-bit input operands include a forced zero sign bit in the least-significant part. So the valid number of bits in the input operands is only 35-bits.

The DSP48 slices with 18 x 18 multipliers and post adder can now be used to implement the sum of the four partial products shown in Figure 1-13. The lessor significant partial products must be right-shifted by 17 bit positions before being summed with the next most-significant partial products. This is accomplished with a built in *wire shift* applied to PCIN supplied as one selectable Z multiplexer input. The entire process of multiplication, shifting, and addition using adder cascade to form the 70-bit result can remain in the dedicated silicon of the DSP48 slice, resulting in maximum performance with minimal power consumption.

FIR Filters

Basic FIR Filters

FIR filters are used extensively in video broadcasting and wireless communications. DSP filter applications include, but are not limited to, the following:

- Wireless Communications

- Image Processing

- Video Filtering

- Multimedia Applications

- Portable Electrocardiogram (ECG) Displays

- Global Positioning Systems (GPS)

Equation 1-3 shows the basic equation for a single-channel FIR filter.

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

Equation 1-3

The terms in the equation can be described as input samples, output samples, and coefficients. Imagine x as a continuous stream of input samples and y as a resulting stream (i.e., a filtered stream) of output samples. The n and k in the equation correspond to a particular instant in time, so to compute the output sample y(n) at time n, a group of input samples at N different points in time, or x(n), x(n-1), x(n-2), … x(n-N+1) is required. The group of N input samples are multiplied by N coefficients and summed together to form the final result y.

The main components used to implement a digital filter algorithm include adders, multipliers, storage, and delay elements. The DSP48 slice includes all of the above elements, making it ideal to implement digital filter functions. All of the input samples from the set of n samples are present at the input of each DSP48 slice. Each slice multiplies the samples with the corresponding coefficients within the DSP48 slice. The outputs of the multipliers are combined in the cascaded adders.

In Figure 1-14, the sample delay logic is denoted by Z^{-1}, where the –1 represents a single clock delay. The delayed input samples are supplied to one input of the multiplier. The coefficients (denoted by *h0* to *h(N-1)*) are supplied to the other input of the multiplier through individual ROMs, RAMs, registers, or constants. Y(n) is merely the summation of a set of input samples, and in time, multiplied by their respective coefficients.
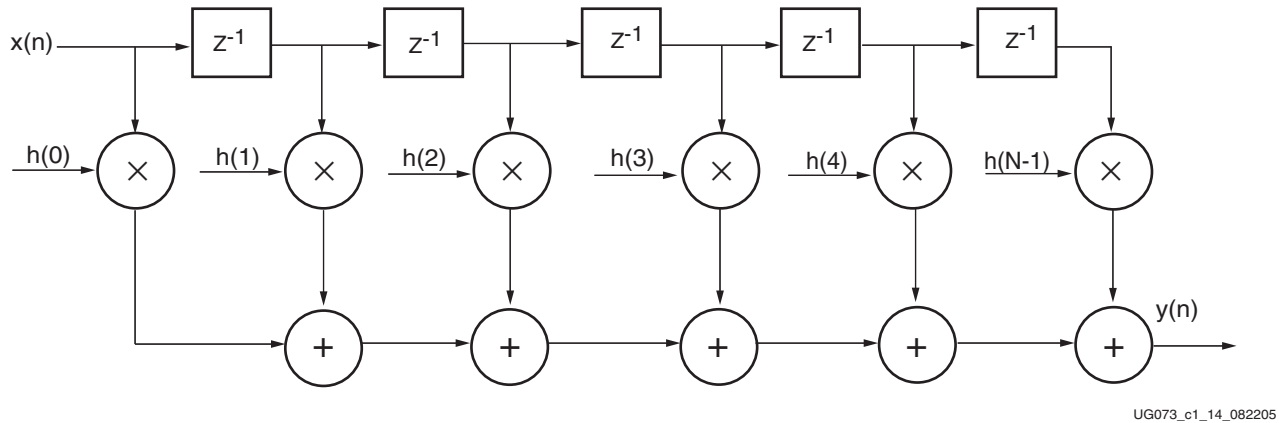
Figure 1-14: **Conventional Tapped Delay Line FIR Filter**

Multichannel FIR Filters

Multichannel filters are used to filter multiple data streams of input signals. The channels can either use the same set of coefficients or different coefficients.

A common example of a multichannel filter is a radio receiver's digital down converter. Equation 1-4 shows the equation, and Figure 1-15 shows the block diagram. A digitized baseband signal is applied to a matched low-pass filter M(z) to reduce the data rate from the input sample rate to the bit rate. The resulting in-phase and quadrature components are each processed by the same filter and, therefore, could be processed by a single, multichannel filter running at twice the sample rate.

$$x(n) = x_I(n) + jx_Q(n)$$ *Equation 1-4*
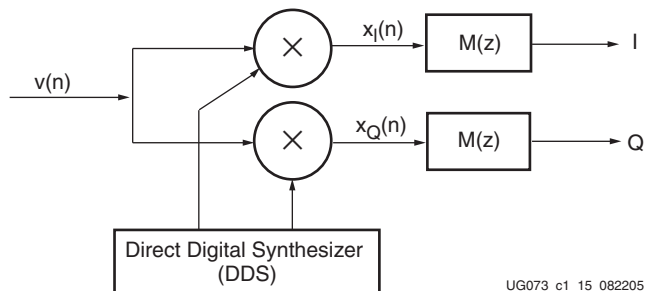
Figure 1-15: **Software-Defined Radio Digital Down Converter**

Some video applications use multi-channel implementations for multiple components of a video stream. Typical video components are red, green, and blue (RGB) or luma, chroma red, and chroma blue (YCrCb). The different video components can have the same coefficient sets or different coefficient sets for each channel by simply changing the coefficient ROM structure.

Creating FIR Filters

Referring to Figure 1-4, Table 1-4, Table 1-5, and Table 1-6, an inner product MACC operation starts by loading the first operand into the P register. The output of the multiplier is passed through the X and Y multiplexer, added to zero, and loaded into the P

register. Note the load operation OPMODE with value `0000101` selects zero to be output on the Z multiplexer supplying one of the adder inputs. A previous MACC inner product can exit via the P bus during this clock cycle.

In subsequent clock cycles, the MACC operation requires the X and Y multiplexers to supply the multiplier output and the Z multiplexer to supply the output of the P register to the adder. The OPMODE for this operation is `0100101`.

Refer to Chapter 3, "MACC FIR Filters," for detailed information on using DSP48 slices to create MACC FIR filters.

To create a simple multiply-add processing element using the DSP48 slice shown in Figure 1-4, the X and Y multiplexers are set to multiply and the cascaded input from another DSP48 output (PCIN) is selected as the Z MUX input to the arithmetic unit. For a normal multiply-add operation, the OPMODE value is set to `0010101`.

Refer to Chapter 4, "Parallel FIR Filters," for detailed information on using DSP48 slices to create Parallel FIR filters.

Adder Cascade vs. Adder Tree

In typical direct form FIR filters, an input stream of samples is presented to one data input of separate multipliers where coefficients supply the other input to the multipliers. An adder tree follows the multipliers where the outputs from many multipliers are combined (see Figure 1-16).

The final stages of the post addition in logic are the performance bottleneck that consume more power.

ug073_c1_16_082205
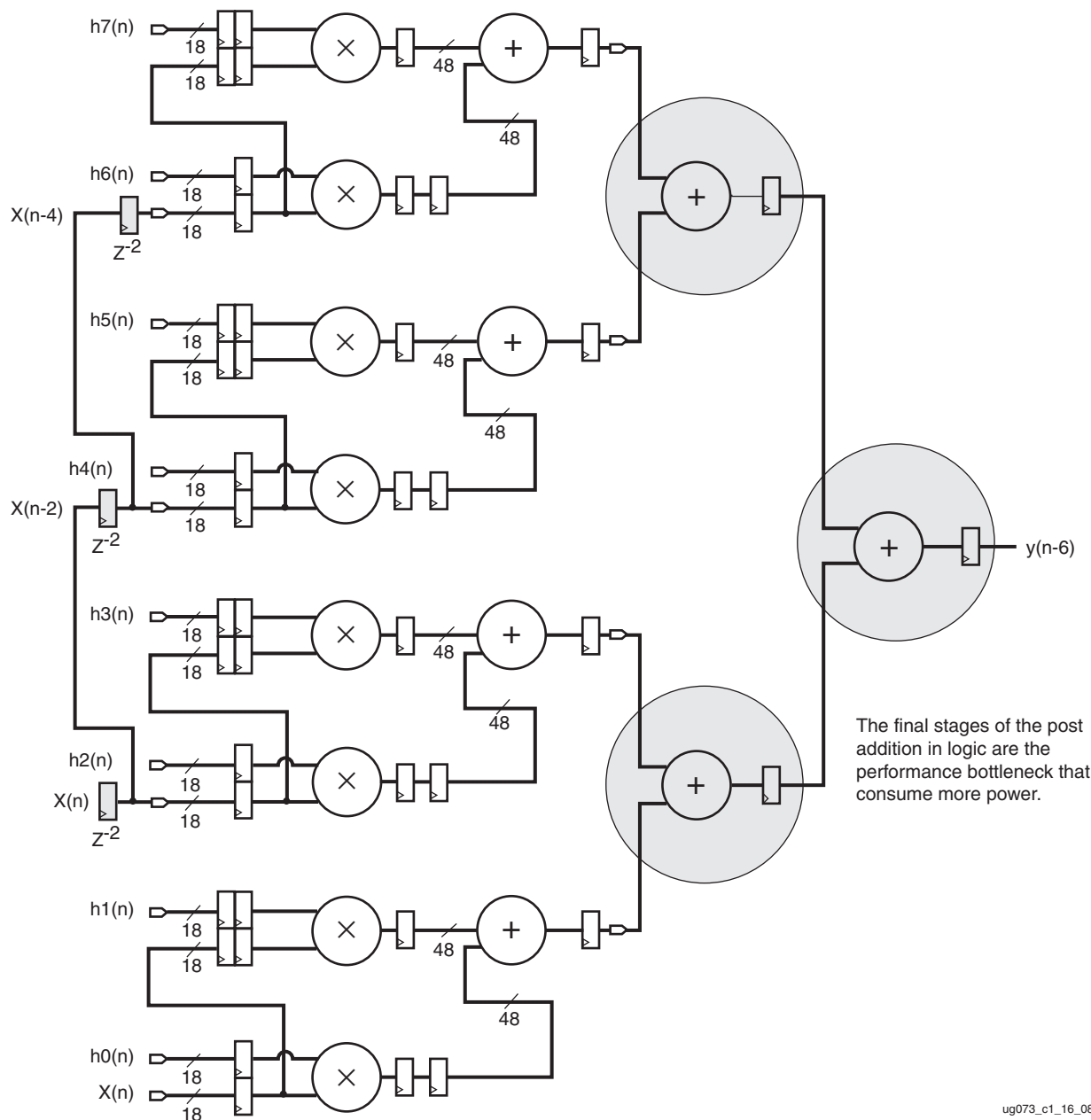
Figure 1-16: **FIR Filter Adder Tree Using DSP48 Slices**

One difficulty of the adder tree concept is defining the size. Filters come in various lengths and consume a variable number of adders, forming an adder tree. Placing a fixed number of adder tree components in silicon displaces other elements or requires a larger FPGA, thereby increasing the cost of the design. In addition, the adder tree structure with a fixed number of additions forces the designer to use logic resources when the fixed number of additions is exceeded. Using logic resources dramatically reduces performance and increases power consumption. The key to maximizing performance and lowering power for DSP math is to remain inside the DSP48 column consisting entirely of dedicated silicon.

The Virtex-4 solution accomplishes the post-addition process while guaranteeing no wasted silicon resources. It involves computing the additive result incrementally utilizing

www.BDTIC.com/XILINX
www.xilinx.com

a cascaded approach, illustrated in Figure 1-17. The cascaded approach in Figure 1-17 is a systolic version of a direct form FIR with a latency of 10 clocks, versus an adder tree latency of 6 clocks.

Slice 8
h7(n-7)
18
18
× 48
+ 48 Y(n–10)
No Wire Shift
48

Slice 7
h6(n-6)
18
18
× 48
+
No Wire Shift
48

Slice 6
h5(n-5)
18
18
× 48
+
No Wire Shift
48

Slice 5
h4(n-4)
18
18
× 48
+
No Wire Shift
48

The post adders are contained wholly in dedicated silicon for highest performance and lowest power.

Slice 4
h3(n-3)
18
18
× 48
+
No Wire Shift
48

Slice 3
h2(n-2)
18
18
× 48
+
No Wire Shift
48

Slice 2
h1(n-1)
18
18
× 48
+
No Wire Shift
48

Slice 1
h0(n)
X(n)
18
18
× 48
+
Zero

Sign Extended from 36 Bits to 48 Bits

ug073_c1_17_082205

Figure 1-17: **Systolic FIR with Adder Cascade**

To ensure correct operation, the input sample delay and the coefficients must be balanced with the cascaded adder. The adaptive coefficients are staggered in time (wave coefficients).

DSP48 Slice Functional Use Models

The use models in this section explain how the DSP48 slices are used in various DSP applications. Starting with simple multiplication and then growing in complexity, DSP48 slices can be connected in a variety of ways, trading performance and slice utilization. The tables and use models illustrate a sampling of different connections.

In some designs, full performance is desired, and several slices with pipelined registers are used. In designs with lower sample rates, a single slice is used with multiple clock cycles creating partial results to be combined at the very end of the computation. Performance choices (i.e., using multiple clock cycles) can produce efficient slice counts. In either case, the use of pipeline registers allows the DSP48 slice to run at a very fast, full performance clock rate.

Block diagrams showing the basic connections are also included. The "VHDL and Verilog Instantiation Templates" section shows how to instantiate and connect the DSP48 slice. In many cases, starting or ending states are different than the middle states of operation.

Single Slice, Multi-Cycle, Functional Use Models

Table 1-10 lists and summarizes four single slice use models. These examples use the high speed of the DSP48 slice to accomplish a complicated multi-cycle function by changing the OPMODE bits from cycle to cycle. Table entries name the function with suggestions for DSP48 slice function during different clock cycles. Further details are in the following subsections. DSP48 designs support extra pipeline stages to increase overall performance, however, the function remains the same with increased clock-cycle latency.

Table 1-10: **Single Slice DSP48 Implementation**

Single Slice Mode	Slice Number	Cycle	Inputs			Function and OPMODE[6:0]		Output
			A	**B**	**C**			
35 x 18 Multiply	1	1	0,A[16:0]	B[17:0]	X	Multiply	`0x05`	P[16:0]
		2	A[34:17]	B[17:0]	X	17-Bit Shift Feedback Multiply Add	`0x65`	P[52:17]
35 x 35 Multiply	1	1	0,A[16:0]	0,B[16:0]	X	Multiply	`0x05`	P[16:0]
		2	A[34:17]	0,B[16:0]	X	17-Bit Shift Feedback Multiply Add	`0x65`	
		3	0,A[16:0]	B[34:17]	X	Multiply-Accumulate	`0x25`	P[33:17]
		4	A[34:17]	B[34:17]	X	17-Bit Shift Feedback Multiply Add	`0x65`	P[69:34]
Complex Multiply	1	1	A_{Re}[17:0]	B_{Re}[17:0]	X	Multiply	`0x05`	
		2	A_{Im}[17:0]	B_{Im}[17:0]	X	Multiply-Accumulate	`0x25`	P (Real)
		3	A_{Re}[17:0]	B_{Im}[17:0]	X	Multiply	`0x05`	
		4	A_{Im}[17:0]	B_{Re}[17:0]	X	Multiply-Accumulate	`0x25`	P (Imaginary)

Single Slice, 35 x 18 Multiplier Use Model

The first entry in Table 1-10 indicates how the signed 35 x 18 multiply is designed using a single DSP48 slice. The 35-bit A and 18-bit B operands are assumed to be signed, two's complement numbers with results also expressed as a signed, two's complement, 53-bit output. Operand A can only be 35 bits because when separating an operand into two 18-bit parts, the least-significant part must have the MSB forced to zero, thereby reducing the available operand bits from 36 to 35.

The multiply function uses one slice (labeled slice 0 in Table 1-10) and computes the final result in two clocks. The 36-bit, least-significant partial product output formed during the first clock cycle is computed by multiplying the least-significant 17 bits of Operand A, which are forced positive (sign bit = 0), with the 18 bits of Operand B (including the original sign).

0,A[16:0] x B[17:0]

The first product is loaded into the output register on this cycle. The lower 17 bits of the first partial product are the lower 17 bits of the final result. During the second clock cycle, the first partial product is shifted right by 17 bits, leaving the remaining bits to be fed back and added to the next partial product. This partial product is formed by multiplying the signed 18-bit Operand B with the signed upper 18 bits of Operand A. The lower 36 bits of the second partial product are the upper 36 bits of the final result.

A[34:17] x B[17:0]

Figure 1-18 shows the function during both clock cycles for a single DSP48 slice used as a 35-bit x 18-bit, signed, two's complement multiplier. Increased performance is obtained by using the pipeline registers before and after the multiplier, however, the clock latency is increased.
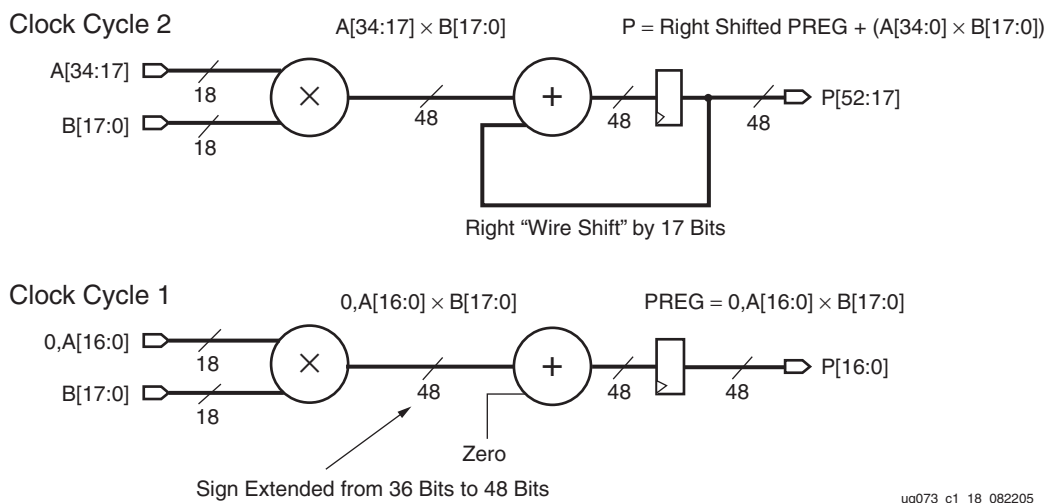
Figure 1-18: **Single Slice, 35 x 18-bit Multiplier**

Single Slice, 35 x 35 Multiplier Use Model

The next entry in Table 1-10 indicates how the signed 35 x 35 multiply is designed using a single DSP48 slice. The 35-bit A and B operands are assumed to be signed two's complement numbers with results expressed as a signed two's complement, 70-bit output. Operands can only be 35 bits because when separating an operand into two 18-bit parts, the least-significant 18-bit part must have the MSB forced to zero, thereby reducing the

available operand bits from 36 to 35. The flow is similar to the 35 x 18 multiply, but instead of two partial products, there are four: a lower partial product, two middle partial products, and an upper partial product.

The multiply function uses one slice (labeled slice 1 in Table 1-10) and computes the final result in four clocks. The 36-bit lower partial product formed during the first clock cycle is computed by multiplying the least-significant 17 bits of Operand A, which are forced positive (sign bit = 0), with the least-significant 17 bits of Operand B, also forced positive.

$$0,A[16:0] \times 0,B[16:0]$$

The first product is loaded into the output register on this cycle. All 36-bit products from the multiplier are sign extended to 48 bits. During the second and third clock cycles, the two middle products are computed. In clock cycle two, the first or lower partial product in the P register is shifted right by 17 bits and fed back to the adder/subtracter. The output of the multiplier is the first middle product, expressed as:

$$A[34:17] \times 0,B[16:0]$$

The adder/subtracter is set to *add* and the two partial products are added.

In the third clock cycle, the previous result is fed back to the adder/subtracter; however, it is not right shifted because its bits align with the next computed middle product, expressed as:

$$B[34:17] \times 0,A[16:0]$$

The adder/subtracter is again set to add, and the P register receives the sum of the three partial products.

Finally, in the fourth clock cycle, the accumulated sum of partial products is again shifted right by 17 bits and sign extended, leaving the remaining bits to be fed back and added to the next partial product. The upper partial product is formed by multiplying the signed upper 18 bits of B with the signed upper 18 bits of A.

$$A[34:17] \times B[34:17]$$

The 70-bit result is output sequentially in 17-bit, 17-bit, and 36-bit segments as shown in Figure 1-19.

Figure 1-19 shows the function during all four clock cycles for a single DSP48 slice used as a 35-bit x 35-bit, signed, two's complement multiplier. Increased performance can be obtained by using the pipeline registers before and after the multiplier; however, the clock latency is increased.

Clock Cycle 4   A[34:17] x B[34:17]   P = Right Shifted PREG + (A[34:0] x B[34:17])

A[34:17]
18
B[34:17]
18
×
48
+
48
P[69:34]

Right "Wire Shift" by 17 Bits

Clock Cycle 3   0,A[16:0] x B[34:17]   PREG = PREG + (0,A[16:0] x B[34:17])

0,A[16:0]
18
B[34:17]
18
×
48
+
48
P[33:17]
48

Clock Cycle 2   A[34:17] x 0,B[16:0]   PREG = Right Shifted PREG + (A[34:17] x 0,B[16:0])

A[34:17]
18
0,B[16:0]
18
×
48
+
48

Right "Wire Shift" by 17 Bits

Clock Cycle 1   0,A[16:0] x 0,B[16:0]   PREG = 0,A[16:0] x 0,B[16:0]

0,A[16:0]
18
0,B[16:0]
18
×
48
+
48
48
P[16:0]

Zero

Sign Extended from 36 Bits to 48 Bits

ug073_c1_19_090105
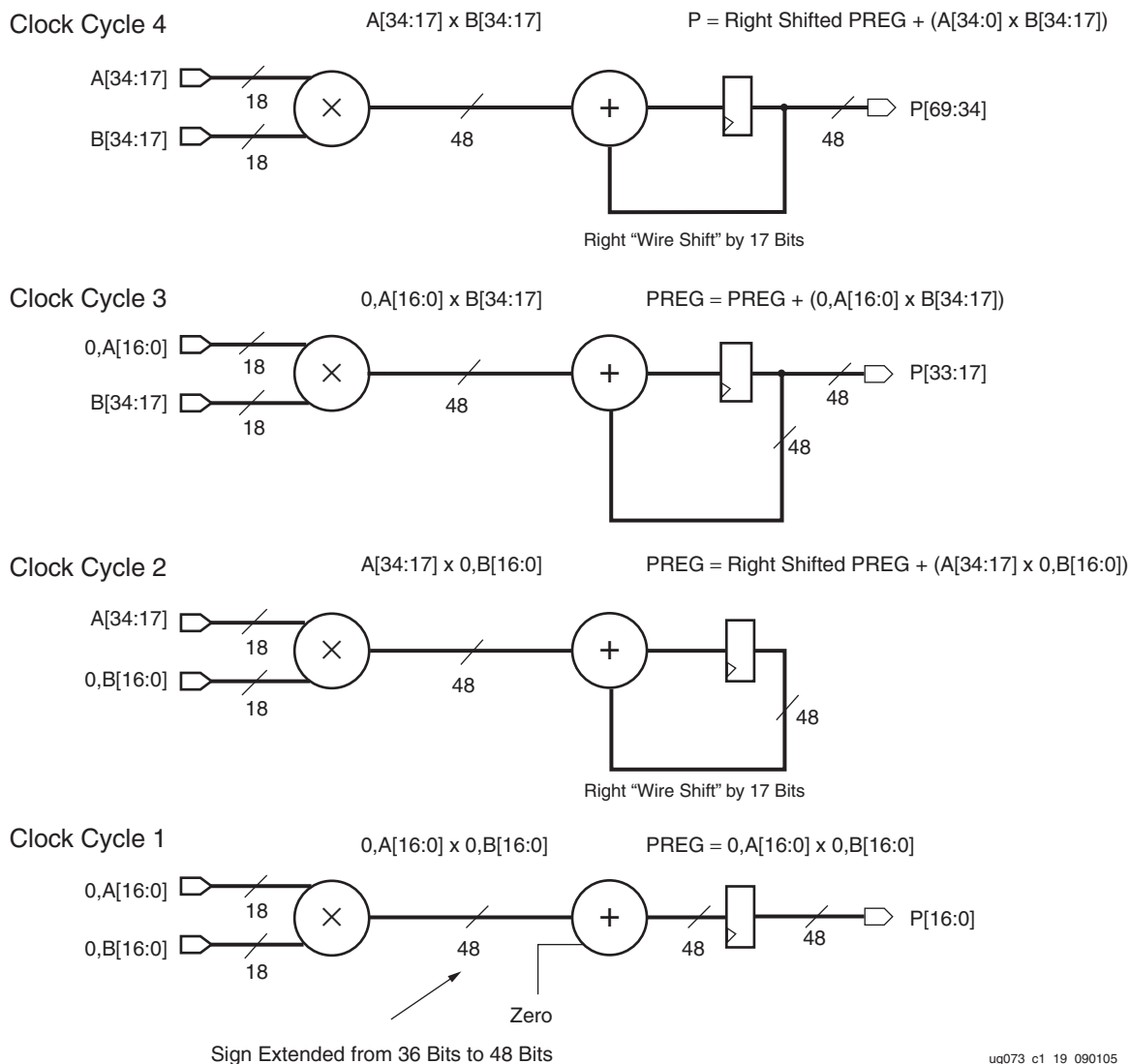
Figure 1-19: **Single Slice, 35 x 35-bit Multiplier**

42

www.xilinx.com

XtremeDSP for Virtex-4 FPGAs
UG073 (v2.7) May 15, 2008

Fully Pipelined Functional Use Models

Table 1-11 summarizes six fully pipelined functional use models. The table lists the functions implemented along with the OPMODE settings. More details are provided in the following subsections. The designs are fully pipelined and run at the maximum DSP48 slice clock rate.

Table 1-11: **Fully Pipelined DSP48 Implementations**

Multiple Slice Mode	Slice	Inputs			Function and OPMODE[6:0]		Output
		A	B	C			
35 x 18 Multiply Figure 1-20	1	0,A[16:0]	B[17:0]	X	Multiply	`0x05`	P[16:0]
	2	A[34:17]	B[17:0]	X	17-Bit Shifted Feedback Multiply Add	`0x65`	P[52:17]
35 x 35 Multiply Figure 1-21	1	0,A[16:0]	0,B[16:0]	X	Multiply	`0x05`	P[16:0]
	2	A[34:17]	0,B[16:0]	X	17-Bit Shifted Feedback Multiply Add	`0x65`	
	3	0,A[16:0]	B[34:17]	X	Multiply Accumulate	`0x25`	P[33:17]
	4	A[34:17]	B[34:17]	X	17-Bit Shifted Feedback Multiply Add	`0x65`	P[69:34]
18 x 18 Complex Multiply Figure 1-22	1	A_{Re}[17:0]	B_{Re}[17:0]	X	Multiply	`0x05`	
	2	A_{Im}[17:0]	B_{Im}[17:0]	X	Multiply Accumulate	`0x25`	P (Real)
	3	A_{Re}[17:0]	B_{Im}[17:0]	X	Multiply	`0x05`	
	4	A_{Im}[17:0]	B_{Re}[17:0]	X	Multiply Accumulate	`0x25`	P (Imaginary)
18 x 18 Complex MACC Figure 1-23	1	A_{Re}[17:0]	B_{Re}[17:0]	X	Multiply	`0x05`	
	2	A_{Im}[17:0]	B_{Im}[17:0]	X	Multiply Accumulate	`0x25`	P (Real)
	3	A_{Re}[17:0]	B_{Im}[17:0]	X	Multiply	`0x05`	
	4	A_{Im}[17:0]	B_{Re}[17:0]	X	Multiply Accumulate	`0x25`	P (Imaginary)
35 x 18 Complex Multiply Real Part Figure 1-26	1	A_{Re}[17:0]	B_{Re}[17:0]	X	Multiply	`0x05`	
	2	A_{Im}[17:0]	B_{Im}[17:0]	X	Multiply Accumulate	`0x25`	P (Real)
	3	A_{Re}[17:0]	B_{Im}[17:0]	X	Multiply	`0x05`	
	4	A_{Im}[17:0]	B_{Re}[17:0]	X	Multiply Accumulate	`0x25`	P (Imaginary)
35 x 18 Complex Multiply Imaginary Part Figure 1-27	1	A_{Re}[17:0]	B_{Re}[17:0]	X	Multiply	`0x05`	
	2	A_{Im}[17:0]	B_{Im}[17:0]	X	Multiply Accumulate	`0x25`	P (Real)
	3	A_{Re}[17:0]	B_{Im}[17:0]	X	Multiply	`0x05`	
	4	A_{Im}[17:0]	B_{Re}[17:0]	X	Multiply Accumulate	`0x25`	P (Imaginary)

Table 1-12 summarizes utilization of more complex digital filters possible using the DSP48. The small *n* in the Silicon Utilization column indicates the number of DSP48 filter taps. The construction and operation of complex filters is discussed in Chapter 3, "MACC FIR Filters," Chapter 4, "Parallel FIR Filters," and Chapter 5, "Semi-Parallel FIR Filters."

Table 1-12: **Composite Digital Filters**

Digital Filter	Silicon Utilization	OPMODE
Multichannel FIR	n DSP slices, n RAM	Static
Direct Form FIR	n DSP slices	Static
Transposed Form FIR	n DSP slices	Static
Systolic Form FIR	n DSP slices	Static
Polyphase Interpolator	n DSP slices, n RAM	Static
Polyphase Decimator	n DSP slices, n RAM	Dynamic
CIC Decimation/Interpolation Filters	1 DSP slice per stage	Static

Fully Pipelined, 35 x 18 Multiplier Use Model

The previous use models (see "Single Slice, Multi-Cycle, Functional Use Models," page 39) show how performance and power consumption can be traded for a very small implementation (i.e., single slice). However, many DSP solutions require very high sample rates. When sample rates approach the maximum inherent clock rate for the math elements in the FPGA, it becomes necessary to design using parallel, fully pipelined math elements.

With fully pipelined designs, inputs can be presented and an output computed every single clock cycle. In addition, the DSP48 slice circuits and interconnect are very carefully matched, ensuring no path becomes the timing bottleneck. Keeping math implementations mostly inside the DSP48 maximizes performance and minimizes power consumption. Of course, pipelining does have increased clock latency, but this is usually not a problem in DPS algorithms.

In the single slice versions of this algorithm, partial products are computed sequentially and summed in the adder. For the fully pipelined version of the algorithm, the same partial products are computed in parallel and summed in the last slice, producing a result and consuming new input operands every clock cycle.

The single slice version of the 35 x 18 multiply uses two clock cycles. In each clock cycle the slice is presented with different operands, and switching the OPMODE bits modifies the behavior. The fully pipelined versions connect separate slices with fixed behavior.

In the 35 x 18-bit multiply block diagram (Figure 1-20), the most-significant input data part for the 35-bit A is delayed with an extra input register in the second slice. This allows the cascading B input to be available to the second slice multiply at the same time as the most-significant data part for A. An extra pipeline register is used for the B cascade path, and the most significant bits of the A inputs in the second slice. These registers are used to match the output of the second slice with the partial product result of the first slice.
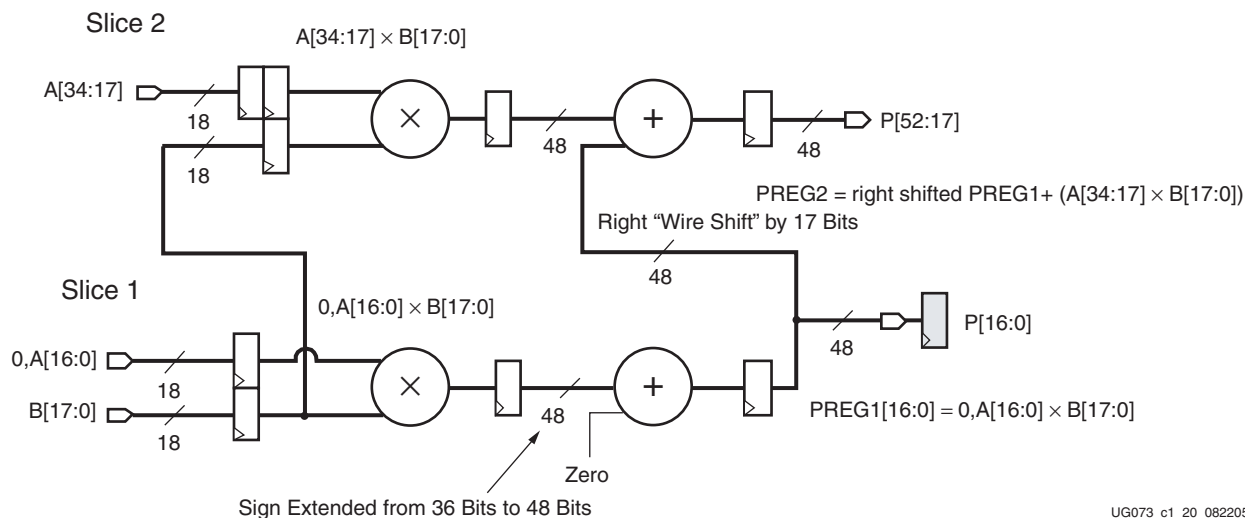
Slice 2

A[34:17] × B[17:0]

A[34:17]

18

18

PREG2 = right shifted PREG1+ (A[34:17] × B[17:0])
Right "Wire Shift" by 17 Bits

48

P[52:17]

48

Slice 1

0,A[16:0] × B[17:0]

0,A[16:0]

18

B[17:0]

18

48

Zero

Sign Extended from 36 Bits to 48 Bits

48

P[16:0]

48

PREG1[16:0] = 0,A[16:0] × B[17:0]

UG073_c1_20_082205

Figure 1-20: **Fully Pipelined, 35 x 18 Multiplier**

Fully Pipelined, 35 x 35 Multiplier Use Model

Similar to the 35 x 18-bit example, this fully pipelined design can present inputs every clock cycle. An output is also computed every single clock cycle. Once again, no particular path becomes the timing bottleneck. The single slice version of the 35 x 35-bit multiply uses four clock cycles. In each clock cycle, the slice is presented with different operands and switching the OPMODE bits modifies the behavior. The fully pipelined version connects separate slices with fixed behavior.

In the single slice versions of this algorithm, partial products are computed sequentially and summed in the adder. For the fully pipelined version of the algorithm, the same partial products are computed in parallel and summed in the last slice, producing a result and consuming new input operands every clock cycle.

As in the 35 x 18-bit example, there are additional register stages placed in the input paths to delay input data until the needed cascading results arrive. In Figure 1-21, the block diagram for the fully pipelined, 35 x 35 multiply shows where additional input register stages are placed. The 35 x 35-bit multiplier has additional output registers outside of the slice to align the output data. The notation Z^{-3} is in the external register to signify that the data must be delayed by three clock cycles. If the delay is only one cycle, then registers are typically used. When the delay is larger than one, an SRL16 followed by the associated CLB flip-flop achieves maximum design performance.
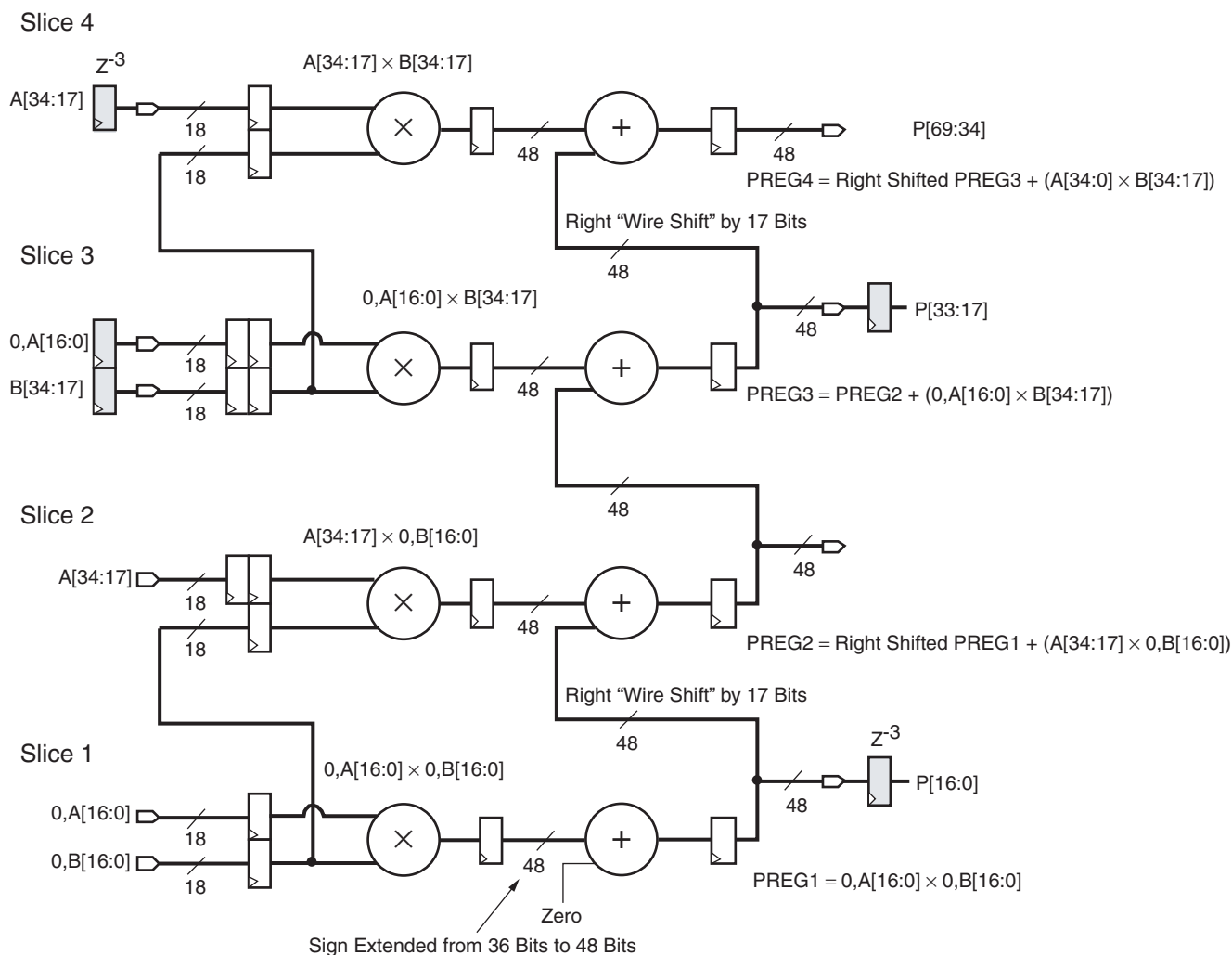
Figure 1-21: **Fully Pipelined, 35 x 35 Multiplier**

Fully Pipelined, Complex, 18 x 18 Multiplier Use Model

Complex multiplication used in many DSP applications combines operands having both real and imaginary parts into results with real and imaginary parts. Two operands A and B, each having real and imaginary parts, are combined as shown in the following equations:

$$(A\_real \times B\_real) - (A\_imaginary \times B\_imaginary) = P\_real$$

$$(A\_real \times B\_imaginary) + (A\_imaginary \times B\_real) = P\_imaginary$$

The real and imaginary results use the same slice configuration with the exception of the adder/subtracter. The adder/subtracter performs subtraction for the real result and addition for the imaginary result.

Figure 1-22 shows several DSP48 slices used as a complex, 18-bit x 18-bit multiplier.

The two input registers to the left align operands with the first output register below and avoid fabric. The benefit is increased performance and lower power.

Slice 4

A_imag
B_imag
18
18

Slice 3

A_real
B_real
18
18

Slice 2

A_imag
B_real
18
18

Slice 1

A_real
B_imag
18
18

48   P_real

48

48

48

48   P_imag

48

48

Zero

Sign Extended from 36 Bits to 48 Bits

UG073_c1_22_082205
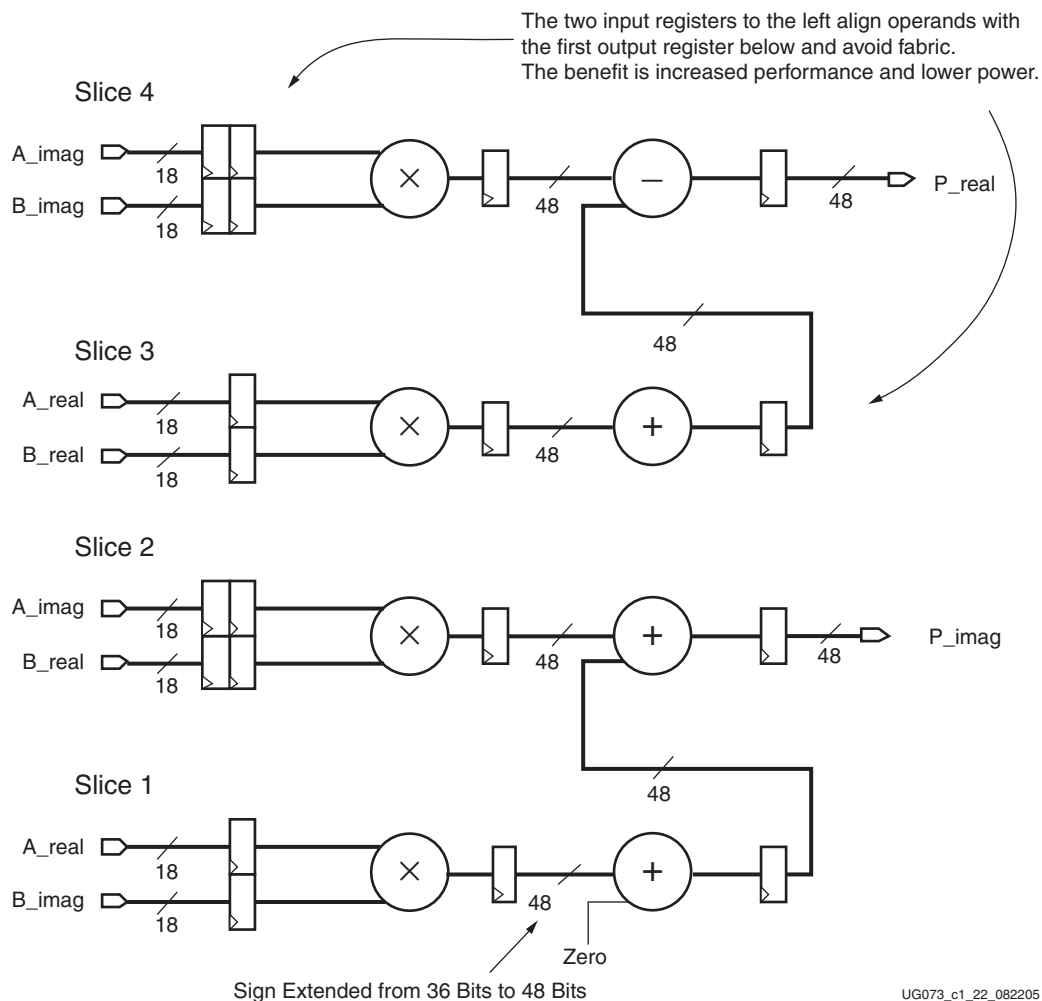
Figure 1-22:   **Pipelined, Complex, 18 x 18 Multiply**

Note: The real and the imaginary computations are functionally similar using different input data. The real output subtracts the multiplied terms, and the imaginary output adds the multiplied terms.

Fully Pipelined, Complex, 18 x 18 MACC Use Model

The differences between complex multiply and complex MACC implementations using several DSP48 slices is illustrated in the next set of equations. As shown, the addition and subtraction of the terms only occur after the desired number of MACC operations.

<u>For N Cycles:</u>

Slice 1 = (A_real × B_imaginary) accumulation
Slice 2 = (A_imaginary × B_real) accumulation
Slice 3 = (A_real × B_real) accumulation
Slice 4 = (A_imaginary × B_imaginary) accumulation

<u>Last Cycle:</u>

Slice 1 + Slice 2 = P_imaginary
Slice 3 – Slice 4 = P_real

During the last cycle, the input data must stall while the final terms are added. To avoid having to stall the data, instead of using the complex multiply implementation shown in Figure 1-23 and Figure 1-24, use the complex multiply implementation shown in Figure 1-25.
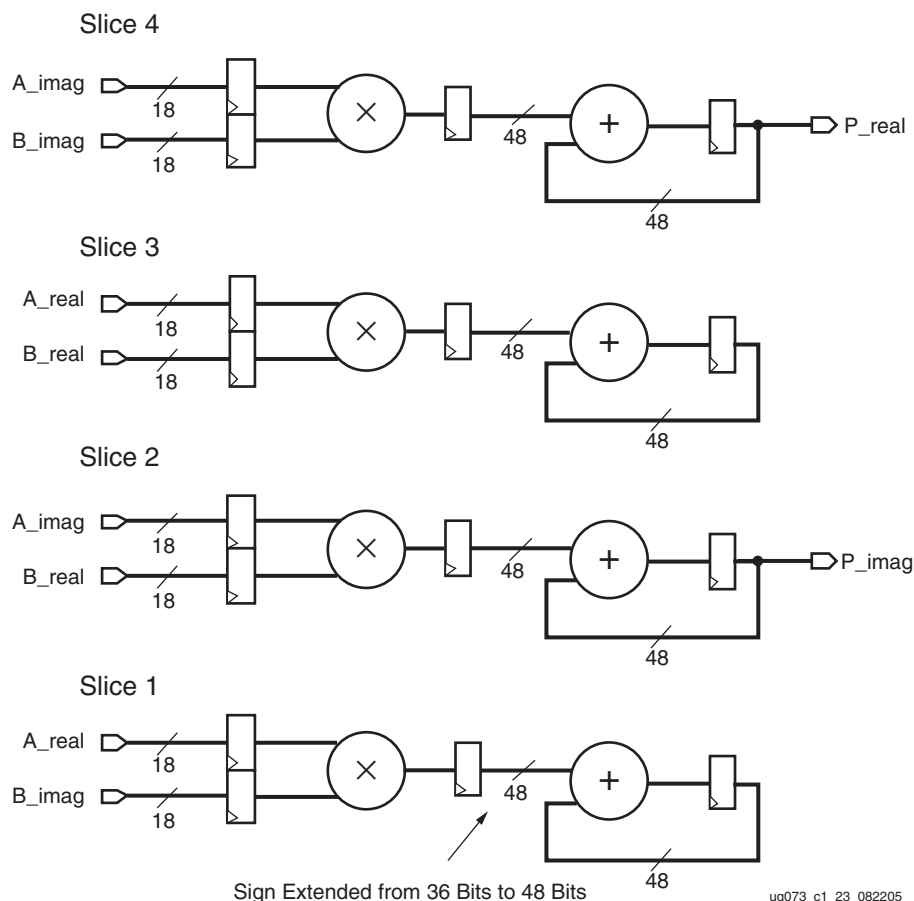
Figure 1-23: **Fully Pipelined, Complex, 18 x 18 MACC (N Cycles)**

In Figure 1-24, the N+1 cycle adds the accumulated products, and the input data stalls one cycle.
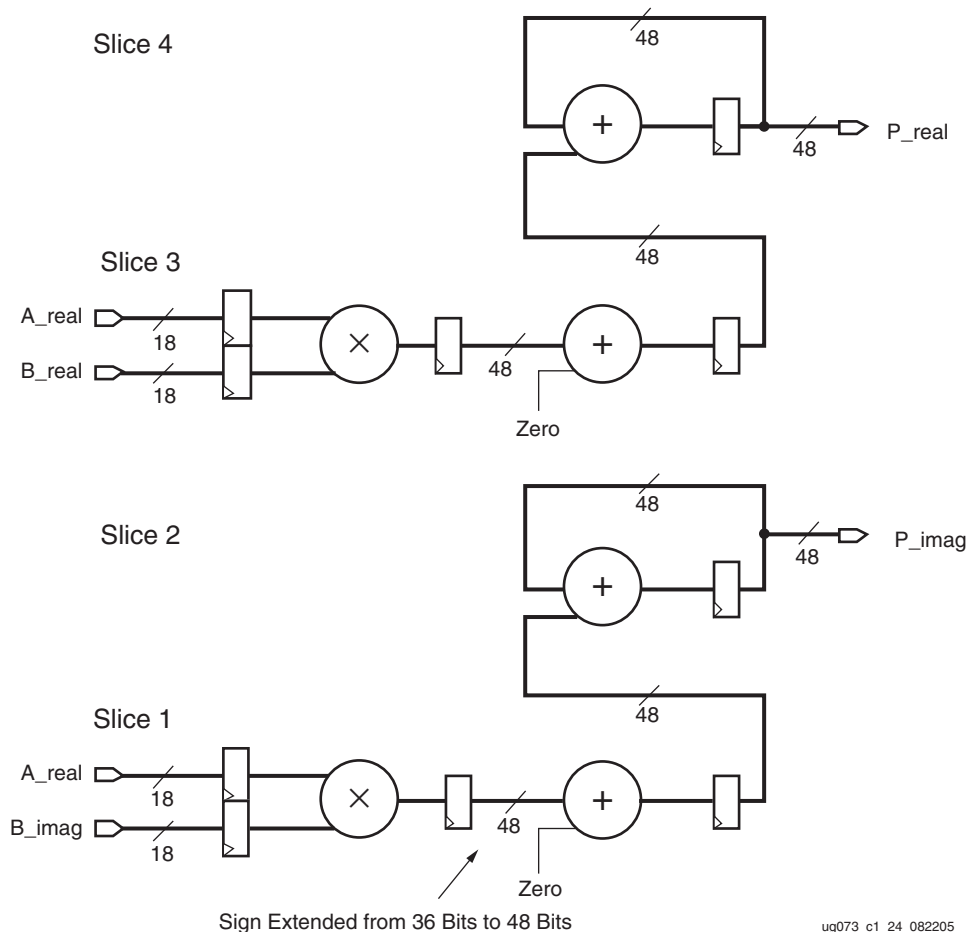
Figure 1-24: **Fully Pipelined, Complex, 18 x 18 MACC (Last or N+1 Cycle)**

An additional slice used for the accumulation is shown in Figure 1-25. The extra slice prevents the input data from stalling on the last cycle. The capability of accumulating the P cascade through the X MUX feedback eliminates the pipeline stall.
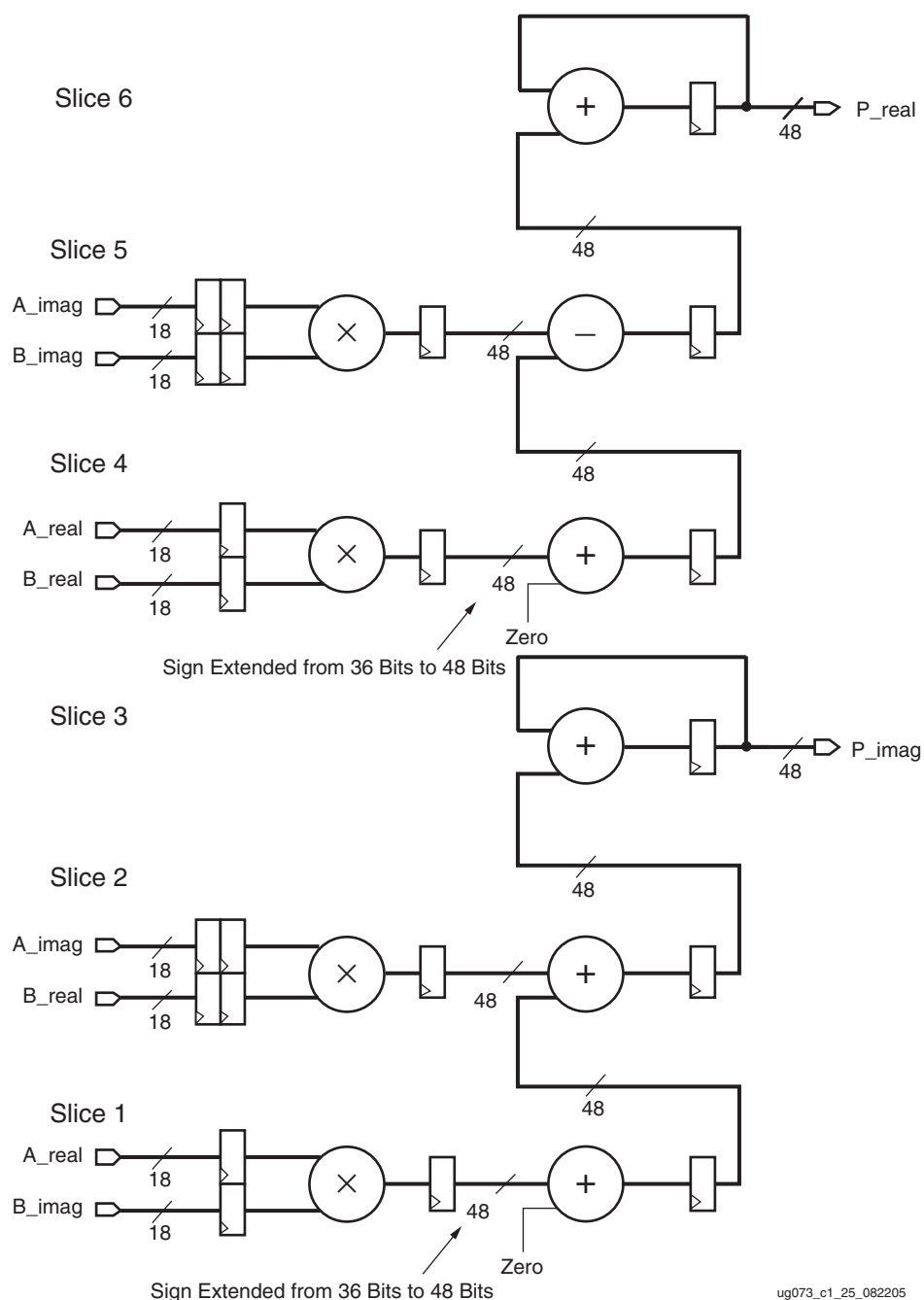
Figure 1-25: **Fully Pipelined, Complex, 18 x 18 MACC with Extra Slice**

Fully Pipelined, Complex, 35 x 18 Multiplier Usage Model

Many complex multiply algorithms require higher precision in one of the operands. The equations for combining the real and imaginary parts in complex multiplication are the same, but the larger operands must be separated into two parts and combined using partial product techniques. The real and imaginary results use the same slice configuration with the exception of the adder/subtracter. The adder/subtracter performs subtraction for the real result and addition for the imaginary result. The following equations describe the math used to form the real and imaginary parts for the fully pipelined, complex, 35-bit x 18-bit multiplication.

$$(A\_real \times B\_real) - (A\_imaginary \times B\_imaginary) = P\_real$$

$$(A\_real \times B\_imaginary) + (A\_imaginary \times B\_real) = P\_imaginary$$

Figure 1-26 shows the real part of a fully pipelined, complex, 35-bit x 18-bit multiplier.
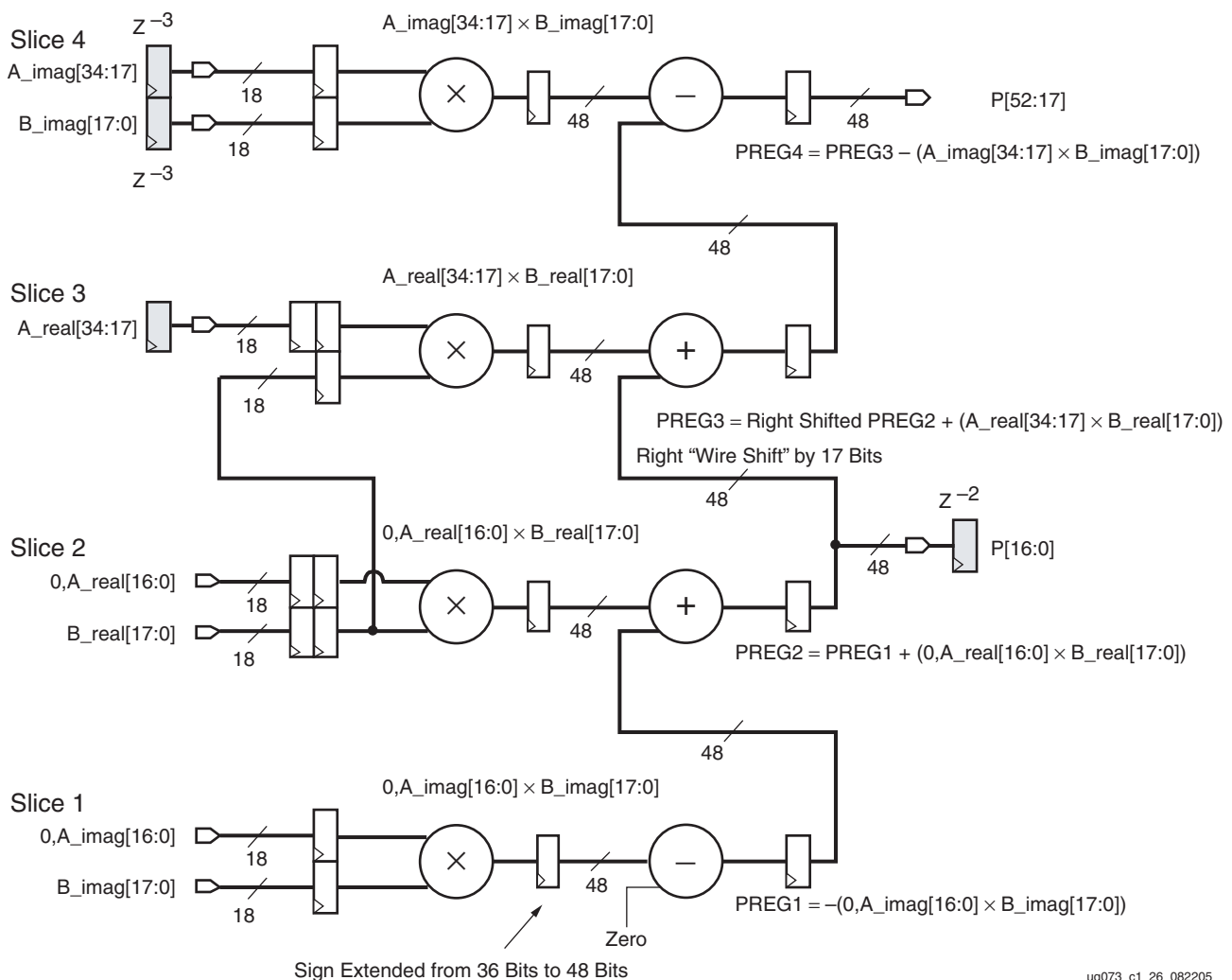
Figure 1-26: **Real Part of a Pipelined, Complex, 35 x 18 Multiply**

Figure 1-27 shows the imaginary part of a fully pipelined, complex, 35-bit x 18-bit multiplier.

Slice 4

z^{-3}

A_imag[34:17]

B_real[17:0]

z^{-3}

18

18

$A\_imag[34:17] \times B\_real[17:0]$

×

48

+

48

P[52:17]

$PREG4 = PREG3 + (A\_imag[34:17] \times B\_real[17:0])$

48

Slice 3

A_real[34:17]

18

$A\_real[34:17] \times B\_imag[17:0]$

×

48

+

$PREG3 = \text{right shifted } PREG2 + (A\_real[34:17] \times B\_imag[17:0])$

Right "Wire Shift" by 17 Bits

18

48

z^{-2}

P[16:0]

48

Slice 2

0,A_real[16:0]

B_imag[17:0]

18

18

$0,A\_real[16:0] \times B\_imag[17:0]$

×

48

+

$PREG2 = PREG1 + 0,(A\_real[16:0] \times B\_imag[17:0])$

48

Slice 1

0,A_imag[16:0]

B_real[17:0]

18

18

$0,A\_imag[16:0] \times B\_real[17:0]$

×

48

+

$PREG1 = (0,A\_imag[16:0] \times B\_real[17:0])$

Zero

Sign Extended from 36 Bits to 48 Bits

ug073_c1_27_082205

Figure 1-27: **Imaginary Part of a Pipelined, Complex, 35 x 18 Multiply**

Miscellaneous Functional Use Models

Table 1-13 summarizes a few common functional use models.

Table 1-13: **Miscellaneous Functional Use Models**

Miscellaneous	Silicon Utilization	OPMODE
18-bit Barrel Shifter	2 DSP slices	Static
48-bit Add Subtract	2 DSP slices	Static
36-bit Add Subtract Cascade	n DSP slices	Static
n word MUX, 48-bit words	2n DSP slices	Dynamic
n word MUX, 36-bit words	n DSP slices	Dynamic
48-bit Counter	1 DSP slice	Static
Magnitude Compare	1 DSP slice, logic	Static
Equal to Zero Compare	1 DSP slice, logic	Static
24 2-input ANDs	1 DSP slice	Static
24 2-input XORs	1 DSP slice	Static
Up to 48-bit AND	1 DSP slice	Static

Dynamic, 18-Bit Circular Barrel Shifter Use Model

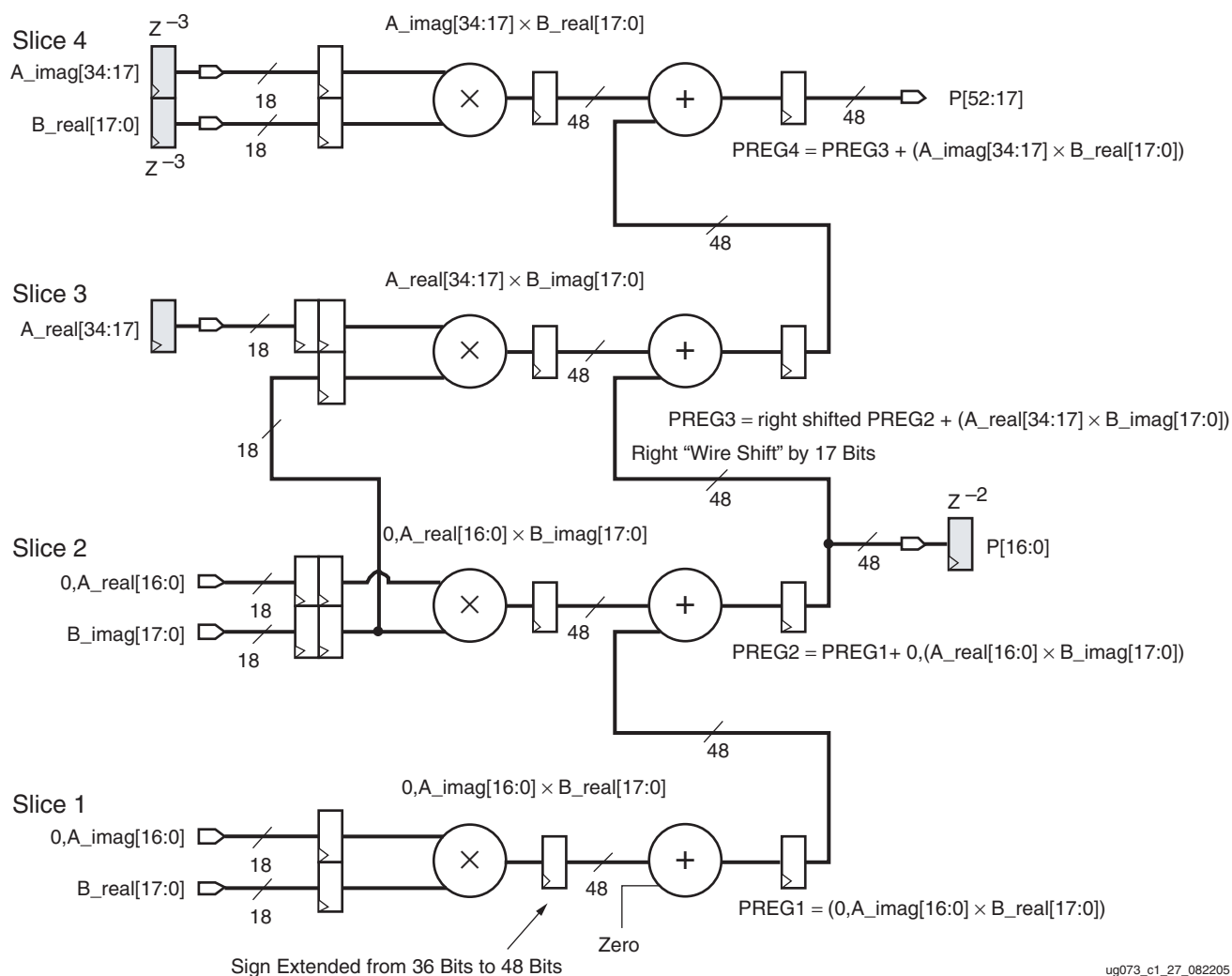The barrel shift function is useful when trying to quickly realign data. Using two DSP48 slices, an 18-bit circular barrel shifter can be implemented. This implementation shifts 18 bits of data left by the number of bit positions represented by n. The bits shifted out of the most-significant part reappear in the lower significant part of the answer, completing the circular shift. The equations in Figure 1-28 describe the value carried out of the first slice, what this value looks like after shifting right 17 bits, and finally what is visible as a result.
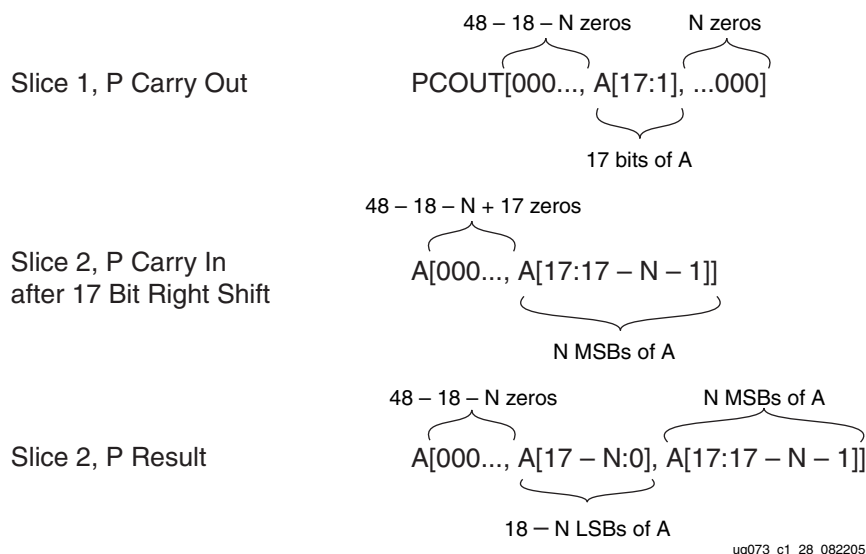

Figure 1-28: **Circular Barrel Shifter Equations**

Figure 1-29 shows the DSP48 used an 18-bit circular barrel shifter. The P register for slice 1 contains leading zeros in the MSBs, followed by the most-significant 17 bits of A, followed by n trailing zeros. If n equals zero, then are no trailing zeros and the P register contains leading zeros followed by 17 bits of A.
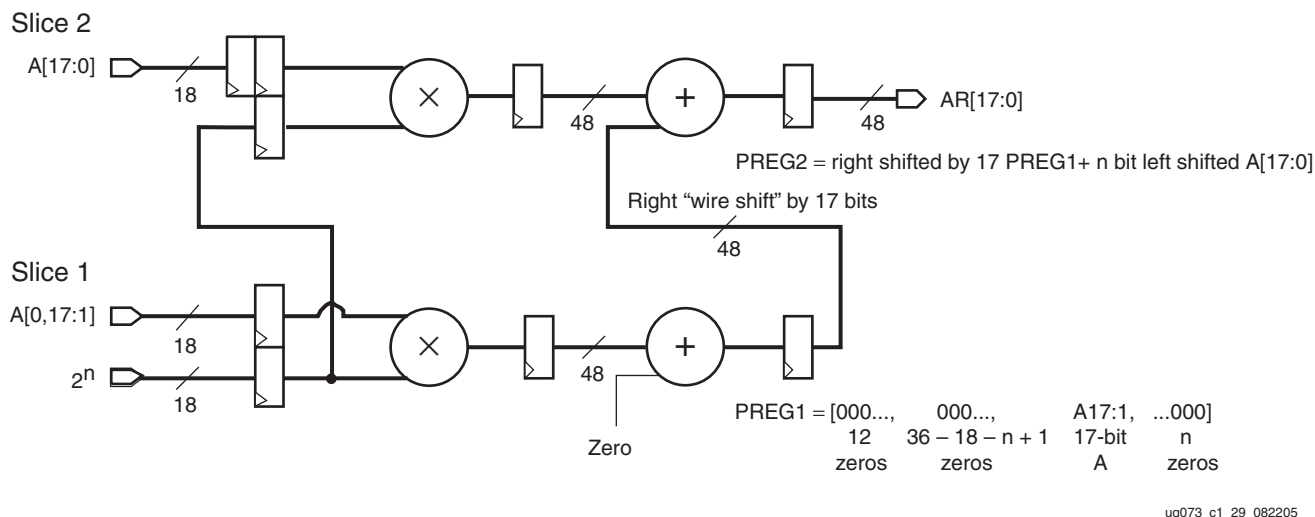

ug073_c1_29_082205

Figure 1-29: **Dynamic 18-Bit Barrel Shifter**

In the case of n equal to zero (i.e., no shift), the P register of slice 1 is passed to slice 2 with 17 bits of right shift. All 48 bits of the P carry input are effectively equal to zero because A[17:1] shifted toward the least-significant direction. If there is a positive shift amount, then P carry out of slice 1 contains A[17:1] padded in front by 48 – 17– n zeros and in back by n zeros. After the right shift by 17, only the n most-significant bits of A remain in the lower 48 bits of the P carry input.

This n-bit guaranteed positive number is added to the A[17:0], left shifted by n bits. In the n least-significant bits, there are zeros. The end result contained in A[17:0] of the second slice P register is A[17 – n:n, 17:17 – n + 1] or a barrel shifted A[17:0]. The design is fully pipelined and can generate a new result every clock cycle at the maximum DSP48 clock rate.

A single slice version of the dynamic 18-bit barrel shifter can be implemented. For this implementation, Table 1-14 describes the DSP48 slice function and OPMODE settings for each clock cycle.

Table 1-14: **Miscellaneous DSP48 Implementations**

Single Slice Mode	Cycle	Inputs			Function and OPMODE[6:0]		Output
		A	**B**	**C**			
18-Bit Barrel Shifter	0	A[17:0]	B[17:0]	X	Multiply	`0x05`	
	1	A[17:0]	B[17:0]	X	Multiply Accumulate	`0x25`	P
	2	A[17:0]	B[17:0]	X	Multiply	`0x05`	
	3	A[17:0]	B[17:0]	X	Multiply Accumulate	`0x25`	P

DSP48 Slice Math Functions

The DSP48 slice efficiently performs a wide range of basic math functions, including adders, subtracters, accumulators, MACCs, multiply multiplexers, counters, dividers, square-root functions, and shifters. The optional pipeline stage within the DSP48 tile ensures high performance arithmetic functions. The DSP48 column structure and associated routing provides fast routing between DSP48 tiles, with less routing congestion to the FPGA fabric. This chapter describes how to use the DSP48 slice to perform some basic arithmetic functions.

This chapter contains the following sections:

- "Overview"
- "Basic Math Functions"
- "Reference Design Files"
- "Conclusion"

Overview

The DSP48 slice is shown in Figure 2-1. Refer to Figure 1-3, page 18 for a diagram showing two slices cascaded together.
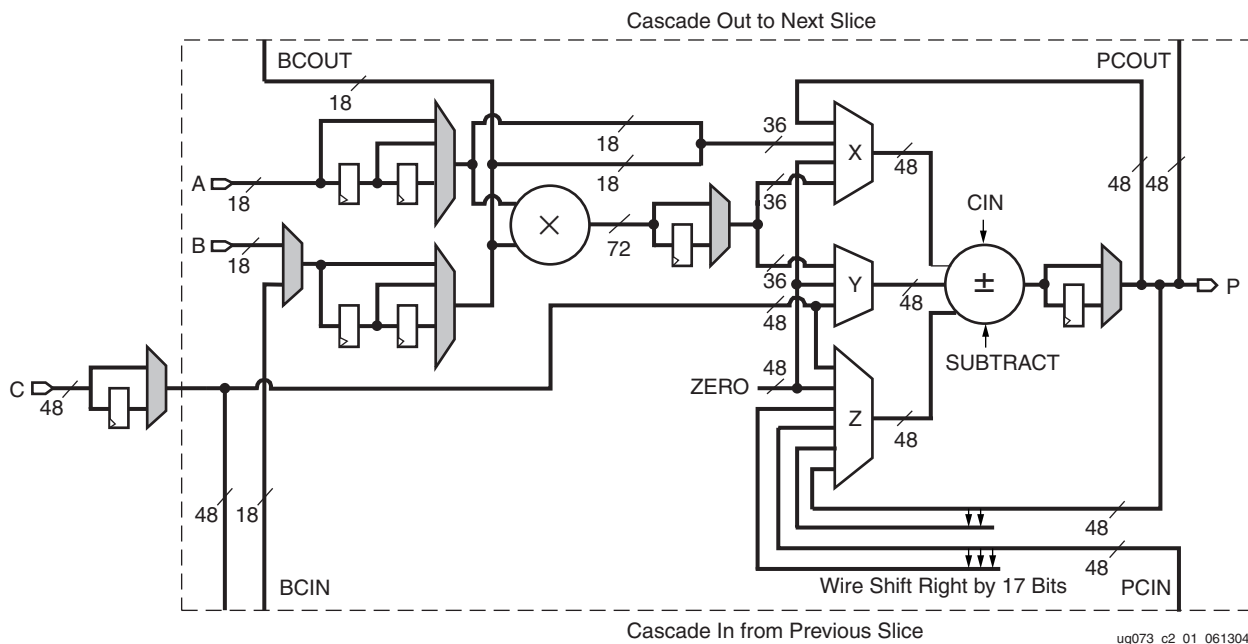
Figure 2-1: **DSP Slice Architecture**

Basic Math Functions

Add/Subtract

The DSP48 slice contains an adder/subtracter unit allowing different combinations of add/subtract logic to be implemented in a single DSP slice. The output of the DSP48 slice in adder/subtracter mode is:

Output = Z ± (X + Y +CIN)

The X, Y, and Z terms in this equation refer to the X, Y, and Z multiplexers shown in Figure 2-1. The inputs to the X, Y, and Z multiplexers are routed to the outputs using OPMODE settings (see Table 2-1). The CIN term is the Carry Input to the Adder/subtracter unit.

Determining whether to execute an addition or a subtraction (±) is controlled by the SUBTRACT input to the adder/subtracter unit. The SUBTRACT input must be set to 0 to add, and 1 to subtract.

Table 2-1: **OPMODE Settings for the Z, Y, and X Multiplexers**

Z	OPMODE[6:4]	Y	OPMODE[3:2]	X	OPMODE[1:0]
0	000	0	00	0	00
PCin	001	AxB	01	AxB	01
P	010	Illegal	10	P	10
C	011	C	11	A:B	11
ShiftPCin	101				
ShiftP	110				

Notes:

1. If either X or Y is set to 01, the other one must also be set to 01.
2. For Carryin Select (CIN), see "Carry Input Logic" in Chapter 1.

The Verilog and VHDL code for a 48-bit adder is in the reference design file: ADDSUB48.v. and ADDSUB48.vhd, respectively. The code implements a 48-bit adder/subtractor of the form PCIN + CIN or PCIN – CIN. The OPMODE is set to choose PCIN as the output of the Z multiplexer, C as the output of the Y multiplexer, and "0" as the output of the X multiplexer. The carry-in signal is tied to "0."

The output equation now becomes:

Output = PCIN ± (0 + CIN +0)

The PCIN input signal in the HDL code is the PCOUT output signal of an adjacent DSP48. This DSP48 is not included in the HDL code. This code can be used to implement any data combination for the generic DSP output equation by using the different OPMODEs found in Table 2-1.

Accumulate

A DSP48 slice can implement add and accumulate functions with up to 36-bit inputs. The output equation of the accumulator is:

Output = Output + A:B + C

Concatenate (:) the A and B inputs to provide a 36-bit input from Multiplexer X using the setting OPMODE[1:0] = 11. Select the C input to Multiplexer Y using the setting OPMODE[3:2] = 11. To add (accumulate) the output of the slice, select the feedback path (P) through the Z multiplexer using the setting OPMODE[6:4] = 010.

Other accumulate functions can be implemented by changing the OPMODE selection for the Z input multiplexer. To get an output of:

Output = Shift(P) ± (A:B + C)

use the setting OPMODE[6:4] = 110 to select the Shift(P) input to the Z multiplexer. To get an output of:

Output = 0 ± (A:B +C)

(no accumulation) use the setting OPMODE [6:4] = 0000 to select the ZERO input to the Z multiplexer.

The Verilog code for the accumulator is in the reference design file ACCUM48.v, and the VHDL code is in the reference design file ACCUM48.vhd.

Multiply Accumulate (MACC)

The DSP48 slice allows two 18-bit numbers to be multiplied together, and the product to be added to or subtracted from a previous product, a "0," or a shifted product. In addition, rounding of any of the add, subtract, previous product, "0," or shifted product options is also possible.

The input added or subtracted from the product is from the output of the Z multiplexer. This output is set using the corresponding OPMODE setting as shown in Table 2-1. Cascade the MACC tree by selecting the PCIN signal from the previous slice as the output from the Z multiplexer.

The Verilog code for the multiply-accumulate function is in the reference design file macc.v, and the VHDL code is in the reference design file macc.vhd.

Multiplexer

There are three multiplexers in a DSP48 slice: the 3:1 Y multiplexer, the 4:1 X multiplexer, and the 6:1 Z multiplexer. Only one of the three multiplexers should be active within the slice when the slice is used as a multiplexer. The other two multiplexers can be made inactive by choosing the OPMODE selecting the ZERO inputs. The two DSP48 tiles in a slice can be combined to make wider input multiplexers.

Barrel Shifter

An 18-bit barrel shifter can be implemented using the two DSP48 tiles in the DSP slice. To barrel shift the 18-bit number A[17:0] two positions to the left, the output from the barrel shifter is A[15:0], A[17], and A[16]. This operation is implemented as follows.

The first DSP48 is used to multiply {0,A[17:1]} by 2^2. The output of this DSP48 tile is now {0,A[17:1],0,0}. The output from the first tile is fed into the second DSP48 tile over the PCIN/PCOUT signals and is passed through the 17-bit right-shifted input. The input to the Z multiplexer becomes {0,A[17],A[16]}, or {0,A[17:0],0,0} shifted right by 17 bits.

The multiplier inputs to the second DSP48 tile are A = A[17:0] and B = 2^2. The output of this multiplier is {A[17:0], 0,0}. This output is added to the 17-bit right-shifted value of {0,A[17],A[16]} coming from the previous slice. The 18-bit output of the adder is {A[15:0],A[17],A[16]}. This is the initial A input shifted by two to the left.

The Verilog code is in the reference design file `barrelshifter_18bit.v`, and the VHDL code is in the reference design file `barrelshifter_18bit.vhd`).

Counter

The DSP48 slice can be used as a one-bit counter. Setting the SUBTRACT input to "0," the carry-in input (CIN) to 1, and OPMODE [6:0] = `0100000` gives an output of P + CIN. After the first clock, the output P is $0 + 1 = 1$. Subsequent outputs are P + 1. This method is equivalent to counting up by one. The counter can be used as a down counter by setting the SUBTRACT input to a "1" at the start.

The counter can also be preloaded using the C input to provide the preload value. Setting the Carry In input (CIN) to "1" and OPMODE [6:4] = `0110000` gives an output of P = C+1 in the first cycle. For subsequent clocks, set the OPMODE to select P = P+1 by changing OPMODE [6:4] from `0110000` to `0100000`.

The Verilog code for a loadable counter is in the reference design file `CNTR_LOAD.v,` and the VHDL code for a loadable counter is in the reference design file `CNTR_LOAD.vhd`.

Multiply

A single DSP48 slice can implement an 18x18 signed multiplication. Larger multipliers can be implemented in a single DSP48 slice by sequentially shifting the appropriate number of bits in each clock cycle. The Verilog implementation of an 18x18 multiplier is in the reference design file `MULT18X18_PARALLEL.v`, and the VHDL implementation is in the reference design file `MULT18X18_PARALLEL.vhd`.

The Verilog implementation of a 35x35 multiplier and a sequential 35x35 multiplier are in the reference design files `MULT35X35_PIPE.v` and `MULT35X35_SEQUENTIAL_PIPE.v`, respectively. The VHDL implementation of a 35x35 multiplier and a sequential 35x35 multiplier are in the reference design files `MULT35X35_PIPE.vhd` and `MULT35x35_SEQUENTIAL_PIPE.vhd`, respectively.

Divide

Binary division can be implemented in the DSP48 slice by performing a shift and subtract or a multiply and subtract. The DSP48 slice includes a shifter, a multiplier, and adder/subtracter unit to implement binary division. The division by subtraction and division by multiplication algorithms are shown below. These algorithms assume:

1. $N > D$

2. N and D are both positive

If either N or D is negative, use the same algorithms by taking the absolute positive values for N and D and making the appropriate sign change in the result.

The terms N and D in the algorithms refer to the number to be divided (N) and the divisor (D). The terms Q and R in the algorithms refer to the quotient and remainder, respectively.

Dividing with Subtraction

The shift and subtract algorithm can be explained as follows:

If N is an 8-bit integer and D is not more than 8-bits wide, $N/D = Q + R$.

1. Assign the value "`00000000`" to the 8-bit register R.

2. Shift the R register one bit to the left and fill in the LSB with N[8-n].

3. Calculate R-D.

4. Set R and set Q:
   a. If R-D is positive, set Q[8-n] to 1 and R = R-D
   b. If R-D is negative, set Q[0] to 0 and R = R

5. Repeat Steps 2 to 4, filling in R[n] each time with N[8-n], where n is the number of the iteration. Q[8-n] is filled each time in Step 4.

After the eighth iteration, Q[7:0] contains the quotient, and R[7:0] contains the remainder. For example:

Table 2-2: **:**

$$\frac{N}{D} = \frac{8}{3} = \frac{0000,1000}{011} = Q(10) + R(10)$$

Step	Iteration (n)	Action	After Action	
			Q	**R**
1	1	`R = 0000,0000`	`xxxx,xxxx`	`0000,0000`
2	1	R <-- N[7] = `0000,0000`	`xxxx,xxxx`	`0000,0000`
3	1	R-D = Negative	`xxxx,xxxx`	`0000,0000`
4	1	Q[7] = 0	`0xxx,xxxx`	`0000,0000`
2	2	R <-- N[6] = `0000,0000`	`0xxx,xxxx`	`0000,0000`
3	2	R-D = Negative	`0xxx,xxxx`	`0000,0000`
4	2	Q[6] = 0	`00xx,xxxx`	`0000,0000`

Step	Iteration (n)	Action	After Action Q	After Action R
2	3	R <-- N[5] = 0000,0000	00xx,xxxx	0000,0000
3	3	R-D = Negative	00xx,xxxx	0000,0000
4	3	Q[5] = 0	000x,xxxx	0000,0000
2	4	R <-- N[4] = 0000,0000	000x,xxxx	0000,0000
3	4	R-D = Negative	000x,xxxx	0000,0000
4	4	Q[4] = 0	0000,xxxx	0000,0000
2	5	R <-- N[3] = 0000,0001	0000,xxxx	0000,0001
3	5	R-D = Negative	0000,xxxx	0000,0001
4	5	Q[3] = 0	0000,0xxx	0000,0001
2	6	R <-- N[2] = 0000,0010	0000,0xxx	0000,0010
3	6	R-D = Negative	0000,0xxx	0000,0010
4	6	Q[2] = 0	0000,00xx	0000,0010
2	7	R <-- N[1] = 0000,0100	0000,00xx	0000,0100
3	7	R-D = Positive	0000,00xx	0000,0100
4	7	Q[1] = 1, R = 0000,0001	0000,001x	0000,0001
2	8	R <-- N[0] = 0000,0010	0000,001x	0000,0010
3	8	R-D = Negative	0000,001x	0000,0010
	8	Q[2] = 0	0000,0010	0000,0010

Dividing with Multiplication

The multiply and subtract method consists of rewriting N/D = Q + R as N= D * (Q + R).

The answer is calculated using these steps for an 8-bit N/D:

1. Set the initial value of Q[8-n] =1 and the bits right of Q[8-n] to 0.
2. Calculate D*Q.
3. Calculate N - (D*Q).
    a. If step 2 is positive, N > (D*Q), set Q[8-n] to a *1*.
    b. If step 2 is negative, N < (D*Q), set Q[8-n] to a *0*.
4. Repeat steps 1 to 3.

After the eighth iteration, Q[7:0] contains the quotient and N - (D*Q) contains the remainder. Using the same example:

$$\frac{8}{3} = \frac{0000,1000}{011} = Q(10) + R(10)$$

Step	Iteration (n)	Action	After Action Q
1	1	Q[8-1] = 1, Set the bits right of Q[8-1] to 0	1000,0000
2	1	D*Q = 3 * 128 = 384	1000,0000
3	1	N - (D*Q) = 8 - 384 = Negative Q[8-1] = 0	0000,0000
1	2	Q[8-2] = 1, Set the bits right of Q[8-2] to 0	0100,0000
2	2	D*Q = 3 * 64 = 192	0100,0000
3	2	N - (D*Q) = 8 - 192 = Negative Q[8-2] = 0	0000,0000
1	3	Q[8-3] = 1, Set the bits right of Q[8-3] to 0	0010,0000
2	3	D*Q = 3 * 32 = 96	0010,0000
3	3	N - (D*Q) = 8 - 96 = Negative Q[8-3] = 0	0000,0000
1	4	Q[8-4] = 1, Set the bits right of Q[8-4] to 0	0001,0000
2	4	D*Q = 3 * 16 = 48	0001,0000
3	4	N - (D*Q) = 8 - 48 = Negative Q[8-4] = 0	0000,0000
1	5	Q[8-5] = 1, Set the bits right of Q[8-5] to 0	0000,1000
2	5	D*Q = 3 * 8 = 24	0000,1000
3	5	N - (D*Q) = 8 - 24 = Negative Q[8-5] = 0	0000,0000
1	6	Q[8-6] = 1, Set the bits right of Q[8-6] to 0	0000,0100
2	6	D*Q = 3 * 4 = 12	0000,0100
3	6	N - (D*Q) = 8 - 12 = Negative Q[8-6] = 0	0000,0000
1	7	Q[8-7] = 1, Set the bits right of Q[8-7] to 0	0000,0010
2	7	D*Q = 3 * 2 = 6	0000,0010
3	7	N - (D*Q) = 8 - 6 = Positive Q[8-7] = 1	0000,0010
1	8	Q[8-8] = 1	0000, 0011
2	8	D*Q = 3 * 3 = 9	0000,0011
3	8	N - (D*Q) = 8 – 9 = Negative Q[8-8] = 0	0000,0010
Remainder = N-(D*Q) = 8-(3*2) = 2			

Both of the division implementations are possible in one DSP48 slice. The slice usage for 8-bit division is one DSP48, and the latency is eight clock cycles.

The Verilog code for the Divide by Subtraction implementation is in the reference design file `div_sub_cascade.v`, and the VHDL code is in the reference design file `div_sub_cascade.vhd`. The Verilog code for the Divide by Multiplication implementation is in `div_mult_cascade.v,` and the VHDL code for the second implementation is in `div_mult_cascade.vhd`.

Square Root

The square root of an integer number can be calculated by successive multiplication and subtraction. This is similar to the subtraction method used to divide two numbers. The square root of an N-bit number will have N/2 (rounded up) bits. If the square root is a fractional number, N/2 clocks are needed for the integer part of the answer, and every following clock gives one bit of the fraction part. The logic needed to compute this is shown in Figure 2-2.
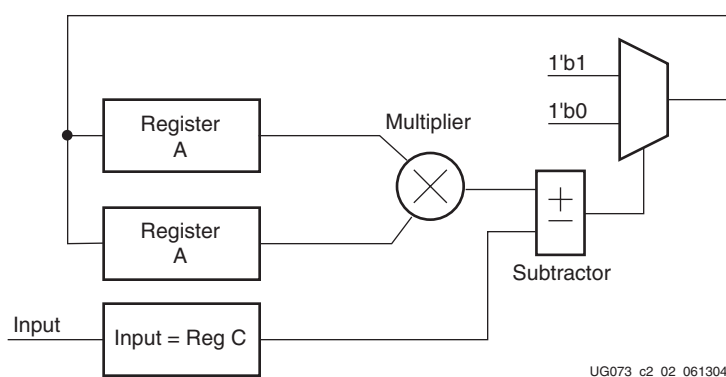
Figure 2-2: **Square Root Logic**

The square root for an 8-bit number can be calculated as follows:

$$\sqrt{X} = Y.Z$$

Y is the integer part of the root, and Z is the fraction part. Register A refers to the registers found on the A input to the DSP48 slice, and Register C refers to the registers found on the C input to the DSP48 slice.

1. Read the number into Register C. Set Register A to `10000000`.

2. Calculate Register C – (Register A * Register A).

3. If step 2 is positive, set   Register A[(8-clock)] = 1,
   Register A[(8-clock)-1] = 1
   If step 2 is negative, set   Register A[(8-clock)] = 0,
   Register A[(8-clock)-1] = 1

4. Repeat steps 1 to 3.

Four clocks are required to calculate the integer part of the value (Y). The number of clocks required for the fraction part (Z) depends on the precision required. For an 8-bit input value, the value in Reg_A after eight clocks includes the integer part given by the four MSBs and the fractional part given by the four LSBs.

For example, the square root of 11 decimal = 3.3166. Because 11 decimal is a 4-bit binary number, the integer part is two-bits wide and is obtained in two clock cycles. The bit width of the fractional part depends on the precision required. In this example, four bits of precision are used requiring four clock cycles.

The binary of value of 11 decimal is `1011`. Expressed as an 8-bit number, it becomes `0000,1011`. Store this value as `0000,1011,0000,0000`. The last eight bits are necessary because the result is an 8-bit number, and 8 bits x 8 bits gives a 16-bit multiplication result.

Clock	Step	Action
1	1	Register A = `1000,0000`
1	2	`0000,1011,0000,0000 — (1000,0000 * 1000,0000)`
1	3	Step 2 is negative. Set Register A to `0100,0000`
2	1	Register A = `0100,0000`
2	2	`0000,1011,0000,0000 — (0100,0000 * 0100,0000)`
2	3	Step 2 is negative. Set Register A to `0010,0000`
3	1	Register A = `0010,0000`
3	2	`0000,1011,0000,0000 — (0010,0000 * 0010,0000)`
3	3	Step 2 is positive. Set Register A to `0011,0000`
4	1	Register A = `0011,0000`
4	2	`0000,1011,0000,0000 – (0011,0000* 0011,0000)`
4	3	Step 2 is positive. Set Register A to `0011,1000`
5	1	Register A = `0011,1000`
5	2	`0000,1011,0000,0000 – (0011,1000* 0011,1000)`
5	3	Step 2 is negative. Set Register A to `0011,0100`
6	1	Register A = `0011,0100`
6	2	`0000,1011,0000,0000 – (0011,0100* 0011,0100)`
6	3	Step 2 is positive. Set Register A to `0011,0110`
7	1	Register A = `0011,0110`
7	2	`0000,1011,0000,0000 – (0011,0110* 0011,0110)`
7	3	Step 2 is negative. Set Register A to `0011,0101`
8	1	Register A = `0011,0101`
8	2	`0000,1011,0000,0000 – (0011,0101* 0011,0101)`
8	3	Step 2 is positive.

The output is in Register A and is `0011,0101`. The final answer is `11.0101`.

Square Root of the Sum of Squares

The sum of squares is a widely used DSP function. The sum of squares can be either of the forms listed in Equation 2-1 or Equation 2-2.

$$SoS = A^2 + B^2$$

Equation 2-1

$$SoS = \sum_{i=0}^{I = n-1} Ai^2$$

Equation 2-2

These functions are basic multiply-accumulate operations easily implemented on the DSP48 slice as described in "Multiply Accumulate (MACC)," page 57. A variation of this function is when the square root of either Equation 2-1 or Equation 2-2 is needed. In this case, the OPMODE does the MACC function for n cycles and then switches to do the square root function for the next n cycles. The Subtract input is dynamic and does an addition for the MAC cycles and a subtraction for the square root cycles.

With the SUBTRACT input equal to *0*, the OPMODE for the function is `0110101`. A square root function is implemented by changing the SUBTRACT input to a *1*.

Reference Design Files

The reference design files associated with this chapter, ug073_c02.zip, can be viewed at:
https://secure.xilinx.com/webreg/clickthrough.do?cid=30160

Conclusion

The DSP48 slice has a variety of features for fast and easy implementation of many basic math functions. The dedicated routing region around the DSP48 slice and the feedback paths provided in each slice result routing improvements. The high-speed multiplier and adder/subtracter unit in the slice delivers high-speed math functions.

The following document contains VHDL code to infer the DSP48 in Precision Synthesis, Synplify and XST:

ftp://ftp.xilinx.com/pub/documentation/misc/dsp48_inference.pdf

MACC FIR Filters

This chapter describes the implementation of a Multiply-Accumulate (MACC) Finite Impulse Response (FIR) filter using the DSP48 slice in a Virtex-4 device. Because the Virtex®-4 architecture is flexible, constructing FIR filters for specific application requirements is practical. Creating optimized filter structures of a sequential nature saves resources and potential clock cycles.

This chapter demonstrates two sequential filter architectures: the single-multiplier and the dual-multiplier MACC FIR filter. Reference design files are available for the System Generator in DSP, VHDL, and Verilog. These reference designs permit filter parameter changes including coefficients and the number of taps.

This chapter contains the following sections:

- "Overview"
- "Single-Multiplier MACC FIR Filter"
- "Symmetric MACC FIR Filter"
- "Dual-Multiplier MACC FIR Filter"
- "Conclusion"

Overview

A large array of filtering techniques is available to signal processing engineers. A common filter implementation uses the single multiplier MACC FIR filter. In the past, this structure used the Virtex-II embedded multipliers and 18K block RAMs. The Virtex-4 DSP48 slice contains higher performance multiplication and arithmetic capabilities specifically designed to enhance the use of MACC FIR filters in FPGA-based DSP.

Single-Multiplier MACC FIR Filter

The single-multiplier MACC FIR is one of the simplest DSP filter structures. The MACC structure uses a single multiplier with an accumulator to implement a FIR filter sequentially versus a full parallel FIR filter. This trade-off reduces hardware by a factor of N, but also reduces filter throughput by the same factor. The general FIR filter equation is a summation of products (also know as an inner product), defined as:

$$y_n = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_{n-i}\, h_i \qquad\qquad \textit{Equation 3-1}$$

In this equation, a set of N coefficients is multiplied by N respective data samples, and the inner products are summed together to form an individual result. The values of the

coefficients determine the characteristics of the filter (e.g., low-pass filter, band-pass filter, and high-pass filter). The equation can be mapped to many different implementations (e.g., sequential, semi-parallel, or parallel) in the different available architectures.

For slow sample rate requirements and a large number of coefficients, the single MACC FIR filter is well suited, and dual-port block RAM is the optimal choice for the memory buffer. This structure is illustrated in Figure 3-1. If the number of coefficients is small, distributed memory and the SRL16E can be used as the data and coefficient buffers. For more information on using distributed memory, refer to "Using Distributed RAM for Data and Coefficient Buffers," page 72.
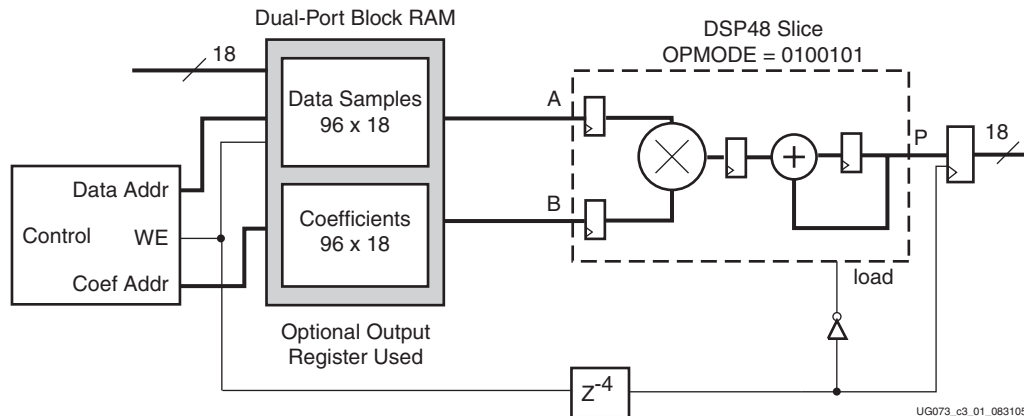

Figure 3-1: **Single-Multiplier MACC FIR Filter**

The input data buffer is implemented in dual-port block RAM. The read address port is clocked N times faster than the input samples are written into the data port, where N is the number of filter taps. The filter coefficients are also stored in the same dual-port block RAM and are output at port B. Hence, the RAM is used in a mixed-mode configuration. The data is written and read from port A (RAM mode), and the coefficients are read only from port B (ROM mode).

The control logic provides the necessary address logic for the dual-port block RAM and creates a cyclic RAM buffer for port A (data buffer) to create the FIR filter delay line. An optional output capture register might be required for streaming operation if the accumulation result can not be immediately used in downstream processing.

The multiplier followed by the accumulator sums the products over the same number of cycles as there are coefficients. With this relationship, the performance of the MACC FIR filter is calculated by the following equation:

Maximum Input Sample Rate = Clock Speed / Number of Taps　　　*Equation 3-2*

If the coefficients possess a symmetric shape, a slightly costlier structure is available (see "Symmetric MACC FIR Filter," page 74), however, the maximum sampled rate is doubled. The sample rate of the costlier structure is defined as follows:

Sample Rate = Clock Speed / (1/2 x number of taps)　　　*Equation 3-3*

Bit Growth

The nature of the FIR filter, with numerous multiplies and adds, outputs a larger number of bits from the filter than are present on the filter's input. This effect is the *bit growth* or the *gain* of a filter. These larger results cannot be maintained throughout a system due to cost implications. Therefore, the full precision result is typically rounded and quantized (refer to "Rounding," page 71) back to a desired level. However, it is important to calculate the full precision output in order to select the correct bits from the output of the MACC.

A simple explanation for implementation purposes involves considering the maximum value expected at the output (saturation level). A greater understanding of the specific filter enhances the accuracy of the output bit width. The following two techniques help determine the full precision output bit width.

Generic Saturation Level

This technique assumes every value in the filter could be the worst possible for the size of the two's complement numbers specified. Using the generic saturation level is a good starting point when the coefficients are unknown, but the number of bits required to represent them is known, e.g., if the coefficients are reloadable, as in adaptive filters.

$$Output\ Width = ceil\ (log2\ (2^{(b-1)}\ x\ 2^{(c-1)}\ x\ N) + 1 \qquad\qquad Equation\ 3\text{-}4$$

where:

    ceil: Rounds up to the nearest integer

    b: Number of bits in the data samples

    c: Number of bits in the coefficients

Coefficient Specific Saturation Level

This technique uses the magnitude-only sum of actual coefficient values and applies the worst-case data samples to the filter. More accurate calculations could be required if a bit maximum is reached. With actual coefficients, the output for the worst possible inputs can be determined.

$$Output\ Width = ceil\ (log2\ (2^{(b-1)}\ x\ abs\ (sum\ (coef))\ x\ N) + 1 \qquad\qquad Equation\ 3\text{-}5$$

where:

    ceil: Rounds up to the nearest integer

    abs: Makes the absolute value of a number (not negative)

    sum: Sums all the values in an array

    B: Number of bits in the data samples

    C: Number of bits in the coefficients

If the output width exceeds 48 bits, there are notable effects on the size (in terms of the number of DSP48 slices used to implement the filter) because the DSP48 slice is limited to a 48-bit result. The output width can be extended by using more DSP48 slices; however, reconsidering the specification is more practical.

Control Logic

The control logic is very straightforward when using an SRL16E for the data buffer. For dual-port block RAM implementations the cyclic RAM buffer is required. This can

complicate the control logic, and there are two different ways this control can be implemented. Both techniques produce the same results, but one way uses all slice-based logic to produce the results, while the other way embeds the control in the available space in the block RAM. The basic architecture of the control logic for the slice based approach is outlined in Figure 3-2.

Figure 3-2: **Dual-Port Block RAM MACC FIR Filter Control Logic Using Slices**

The control logic consists of two counters. One counter drives the address of the coefficient section of the dual-port block RAM, while the other controls the address for the data buffer. A comparator controls an enable to the data buffer counter to disable the count for one cycle every output sample and writes a new sample into the data buffer every N cycles. A simplified diagram of the control logic and the memory is shown in Figure 3-3.

Figure 3-3: **Control Logic and Memory**

www.xilinx.com

XtremeDSP for Virtex-4 FPGAs
UG073 (v2.7) May 15, 2008

The cyclic data RAM buffer is required to emulate the delay line shift register of the FIR filter while using a static RAM. The RAM is addressed sequentially every clock cycle. The counter rolls over to have the last coefficient (N–1) read out. At this point, the data buffer is stalled by the controlling clock enable and the newest sample is read into the buffer AFTER the oldest data sample is read out. This newest data sample is now multiplied by the first coefficient (as the coefficient address counter is never disabled), and the cycle is repeated. The effect is data shifting over time as the FIR filter equation requires. The ability to perform a simultaneous read and write requires the RAM buffer to have a read port and a write port (called *read before write* mode).

The inverted WE signal is also used to drive the load input (OPMODE[5]) on the DSP48 slice. This signal must be delayed with a simple SRL16E to make sure the latency on the signal matches the latency through the MACC engine. This delay is typically four clocks but depends on the number of pipelining registers used in the DSP48 slice and block RAM. The number of required pipelining stages is a function of the desired, achievable clock frequency.

The number of resources used for the control logic is easily calculated. The counters are always two bits per slice plus the additional logic required to count limit the counter (unless the counter is a power of two limit). The count limiter circuit size is determined by the number of bits needed to represent the count limit value divided by four. Therefore, $n/2 + n/4$ slices are required for each counter, but the coefficient counter is larger due to the higher count value. The other control logic typically yields about $N/4$ slices due to the comparator required for the enable circuitry and the inverter to disable the data counter.

The total number of slices for the control logic for an 18 x 18 MACC FIR filter with 96 coefficients is listed in Table 3-1.

Table 3-1: **Control Logic Using Slice Resource Utilization**

Elements	Slices
Coefficient Counter	5
Data Counter	4
Relational Operator	1
Other Logic	1
Total	**11**

Embedding the Control Logic into the Block RAM

The total number of slices for the control logic can be reduced if required by embedding the coefficient address sequence, CE, WE, and capture signal into the leftover block RAM space. This clever trick is enabled by the separation of the DSP48 from the Virtex-4 block RAM. It is different from Virtex-II Pro FPGAs where the embedded multiplier and block

RAM share routing and prevent this kind of trick. Figure 3-4 illustrates the control logic and memory layout for this embedded control logic implementation.
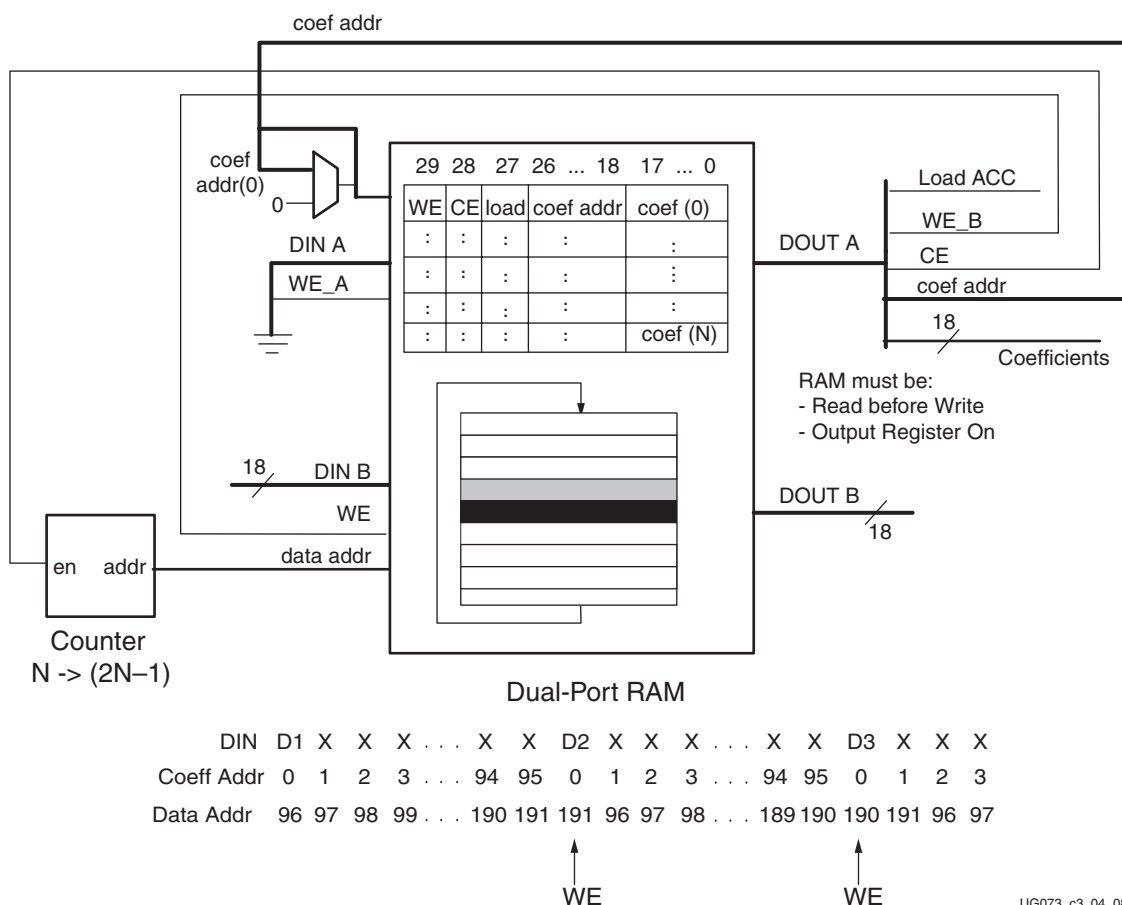

Figure 3-4: **Control Logic Using Embedded Control Technique**

Figure 3-4 demonstrates how the predictable and repeatable control sequence for the coefficient side of the memory can be embedded into the remaining space of the memory. The coefficient address value, accumulator Load signal, CE, and WE for the data buffer are precalculated and concatenated onto the coefficient values. The memory must be used in 512 x 36 mode, instead of 1024 x 18 mode. The individual signals are split up correctly on the output of the memory. This costs nothing in logic utilization, apart from routing.

Due to the feedback nature of the address line, it is important to set the initial state of the dual-port block RAM's output register to effectively "kick-start" the MACC process. The initial values need to be different from each other to start the correct addressing; however, the silicon forces them to be the same. This changes the 1-bit masking of the LSB of the coefficient address; the first value is *0* instead of the initialized value of *1*. The initial value of the output latch is on the address bus the next cycle and, by unmasking the LSB, the count is successfully kick-started. Because the coefficients are placed in the upper half of the memory, only a single LSB must be masked, not the complete address bus. The masking signal can take the form of a reset signal or a registered permanent value to get the required single cycle mask. Each address concatenated onto its respective coefficient is the next required address (ahead by two cycles due to the output latch and register) to keep cycling through the coefficients.

This technique enables a reduction in the control logic required for the MACC FIR filter, but it can only be exploited when the number of coefficients is smaller than 256 for greater than 9-bit data (256 data and 256 coefficient elements are required to be stored). Table 3-2 highlights the smaller resource utilization.

Table 3-2: **Control Logic Using Embedded Block RAM Resource Utilization**

Element	Slices
Control Counter	5
Total	**5**

Rounding

As noted earlier, the number of bits on the output of the filter is much larger than the number of bits on the input, and they must be reduced to a manageable width. The output can be truncated by simply selecting the MSBs required from the filter. However, truncation introduces an undesirable DC data shift due to the nature of two's complement numbers. Negative numbers become more negative, and positive numbers also become more negative. The DC shift can be improved with the use of symmetric rounding, where positive numbers are rounded up and negative numbers are rounded down.

The rounding capability built into the DSP48 slice maintains performance and minimizes the use of the FPGA logic. This is implemented in the DSP48 slice using the C input port and the Carry-In port. The rounding is achieved in the following manner:

- For positive numbers: Binary Data Value + `0.10000…` and then truncate
- For negative numbers: Binary Data Value + `0.01111...` and then truncate

The actual implementation always adds `0.0111…` to the data value using the C input port, as in the negative case, and then adds the extra carry in required to adjust for positive numbers. Table 3-3 illustrates some examples of symmetric rounding.

Table 3-3: **Symmetric Rounding Examples**

Decimal Value	Binary Value	Add Round	Truncate: Finish	Rounded Value
2.4375	`0010.0111`	`0010.1111`	`0010`	2
2.5	`0010.1000`	`0011.0000`	`0011`	3
2.5625	`0010.1001`	`0011.0001`	`0011`	3
-2.4375	`1101.1001`	`1110.0000`	`1110`	-2
-2.5	`1101.1000`	`1101.1111`	`1101`	-3
-2.5625	`1101.0111`	`1101.1110`	`1101`	-3

In the instance of the MACC FIR filter, the C input is available for continued use because the Z multiplexer is used for the feedback from the P output. Therefore, for rounding to be performed, either an extra cycle or another DSP48 slice is required. Typically, an extra cycle is used to save on DSP48 slices. On the extra cycle, OPMODE is changed for the X and Y multiplexers, setting the X multiplexer to zero and the Y multiplexer to use the C input to add the user-specified requirements for a negative rounding scenario.

The Z multiplexer remains unchanged, as the feedback loop is still required, leading to the opcode being `0101100`. The simplified diagram in Figure 3-5 shows how the DSP48 slice functions during this extra cycle.
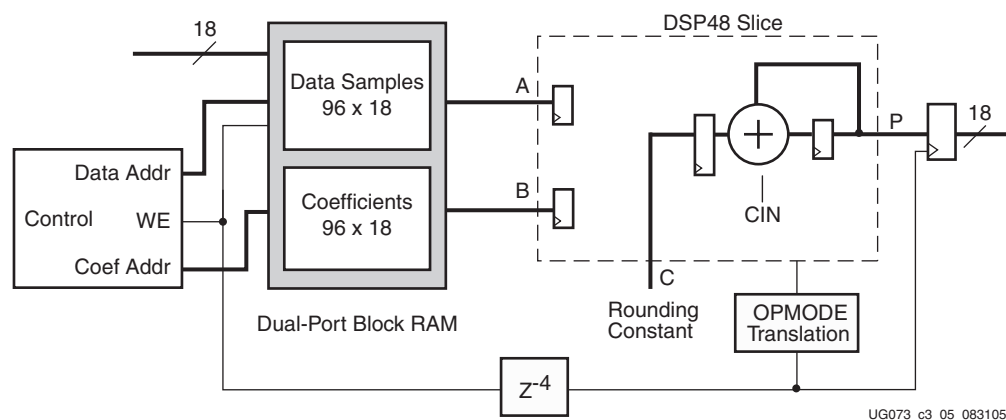

Figure 3-5:   **MACC FIR Filter in Rounding Mode**

Rounding without an Extra Cycle

A trade-off can be made to avoid using the extra cycle required for true symmetric rounding. In this instance, the rounding constant is added to first inner product when the load of the first inner product occurs, leading to an OPMODE value of `0110101` instead of `0100101`. The carry-in value is applied on the final cycle to complete the rounding.

The trade-off is using the penultimate accumulated inner product as the basis for rounding, which is fine unless the penultimate inner product value is very close to zero. In this case, if the value is positive and the final inner product makes the result negative, leading to a rounding down, an incorrect result occurs due to the rounding function assuming a positive number instead of a negative. The last coefficient in typical FIR filters is very small; hence, this case rarely occurs. This form of "not quite perfect" rounding does save a cycle if absolutely necessary and also gives a significant improvement over truncation.

Using Distributed RAM for Data and Coefficient Buffers

For smaller-sized MACC FIR filters (typically those under 32 taps), it can be considered wasteful to use block RAM as a means to store filter input samples and coefficients. Using block RAM for a 16-tap, 18-bit filter, for example, only uses up to 3% of the memory block. Block RAMs are not as abundant as the smaller distributed RAMs found inside the slice, making them an excellent option for smaller FIR filters. Figure 3-6 illustrates the MACC

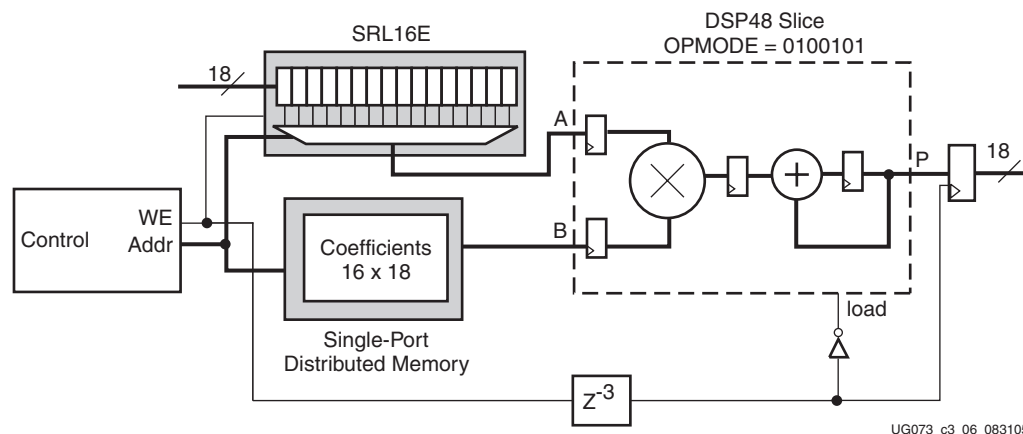FIR filter implementation using distributed RAM for the coefficient bank and an SRL16E for the data buffer.

Figure 3-6: **16 Tap-Distributed RAM MACC FIR Filter**

The resource utilization is still small for these small memories. For a 16-tap (or less), n-bit memory bank, the cost is n/2 slices. Therefore, for this example, the cost is nine slices per memory bank (18 slices in total).

The added benefit of using SRL16Es is the embedded shifting capabilities leading to a reduction in control logic. Only a single count value is required to address both the coefficient buffer and the data buffer. The terminal count signal is used to write the slower input samples into the data buffer and capture the results and to load the accumulator with the new set of inner products. The size of the control logic and memory buffer for a 16-tap, 18-bit data and coefficient FIR is detailed in Table 3-4.

Table 3-4: **Control Logic Resource Utilization**

Element	Slices
Data Buffer	9
Coefficient Memory	9
Control Counter	2
Relational Operator	1
Capture/Load Delay	1
Total	**22**

All aspects of the DSP48 and capture register approach to the MACC FIR filter using distributed RAM are identical to the block RAM based MACC FIR.

Performance

Table 3-5 compares the performance of a Virtex-4 MACC FIR filter with a Virtex-II Pro solution. Overall, the Virtex-4 DSP48 slice greatly reduces the logic fabric resource requirement, improves the speed of the design, and reduces filter power consumption.

Table 3-5: **18 x 18 MACC FIR Filter (96 Tap) Comparison**

Parameter	18 x 18 MACC FIR Filter (96 Tap)	
	Virtex-II Pro FPGA	**Virtex-4 FPGA**
Size	99 slices, 1 Embedded Multiplier, 1 block RAM	24 slices, 1 DSP48 Slice, 1 block RAM
Performance (Clock Speed)	3.125 MS/S 250 MHz	4.69 MS/S 450 MHz
Power	170 mW	57 mW

Symmetric MACC FIR Filter

The HDL code provided in the reference design is for a single multiplier MACC FIR filter. Other techniques can also be explored. This section describes how the symmetric nature of FIR filter coefficients can double the capable sample rate performance of the filter (assuming the same clock speed). By rearranging the FIR filter equation, the coefficients are exploited as follows:

$$(X0 \times C0) + (Xn \times Cn) \; \ldots \; \rightarrow \; (X0 + Xn) \times C0 \quad (if \; C0 = Cn) \qquad Equation \; 3\text{-}6$$

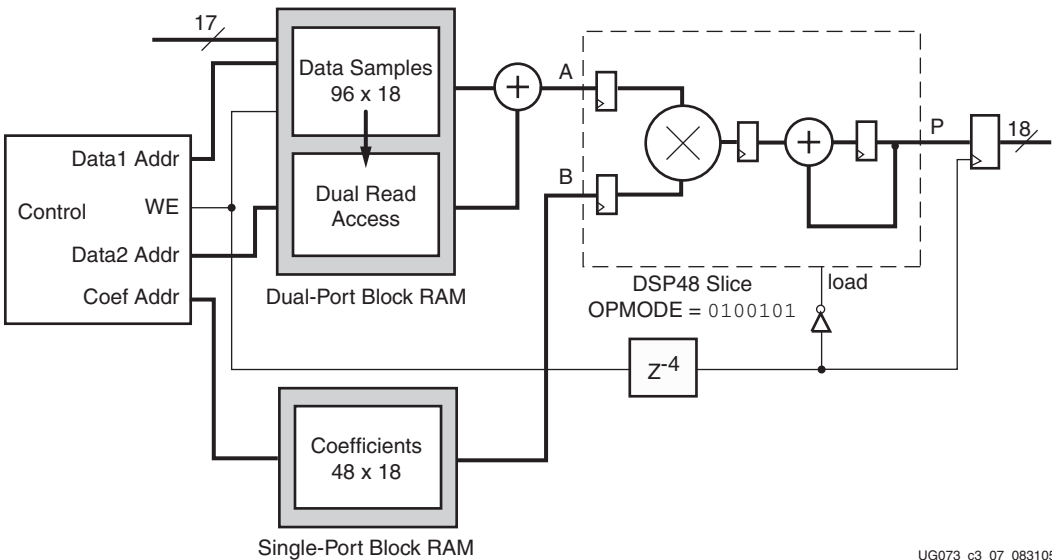Figure 3-7 shows the architecture for a symmetric MACC FIR filter.

Figure 3-7: **Symmetric MACC FIR Filter**

There are limitations to using the symmetric MACC FIR filter. Due to the 1-bit growth from the pre-adder shown in Figure 3-5, the data input to the filter must be less than 18 bits to fit into one DSP48 slice. If necessary, the pre-adder can be implemented in slices or in another DSP48 slice.

The performance of this fabric-based adder represents the critical path through the filter and limits the maximum clock speed. There are extra resources required for the filter to support symmetry. Three memory ports are needed along with the pre-adder. The control portion increases in resource utilization because the data is read out of one port in a forward direction and in reverse on the second port. This technique should only be utilized when extra sample rate performance is required.

Dual-Multiplier MACC FIR Filter

Another technique used to improve the data throughput of an MACC FIR filter is to increase the number of multipliers used to process the data. This introduces parallelism into the DSP design, and can be extrapolated into completely parallel techniques supporting the highest of sample rates.

Figure 3-8 and Figure 3-9 illustrate how a dual-multiplier MACC FIR filter can be implemented using two DSP slices. Figure 3-8 shows the accumulation of the coefficients of each of the two MACC engines. These partial results must be combined together and then rounded to achieve the final result. This process uses an extra cycle and the OPMODE switching of the DSP48 slice. This extra cycle is illustrated in Figure 3-9.
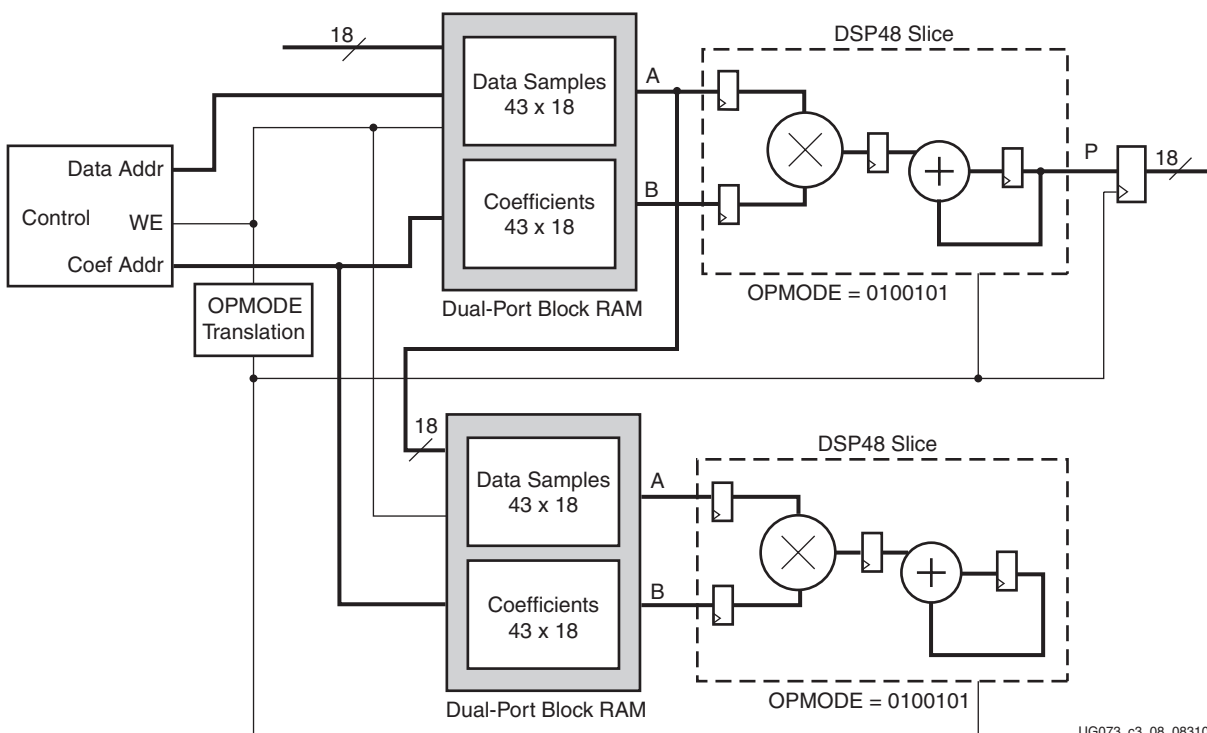

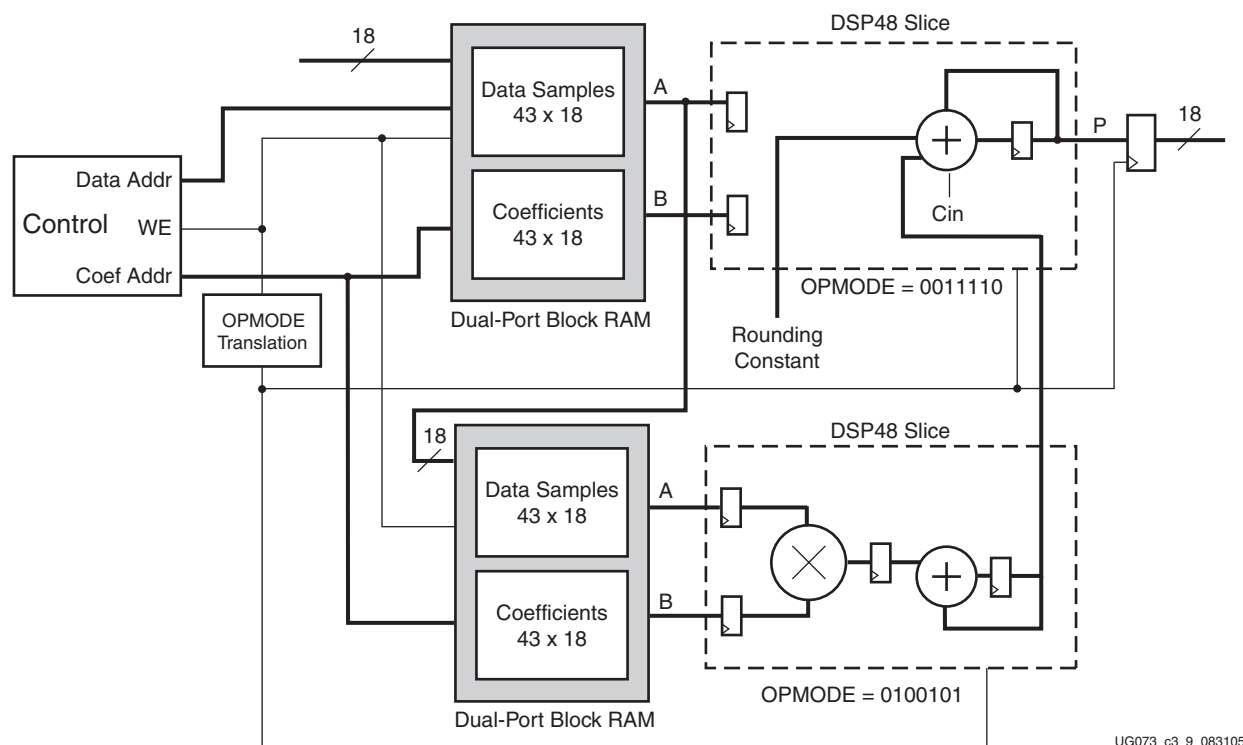*Figure 3-8:* **Dual-Multiplier MACC FIR Filter**

Figure 3-9: **Dual-Multiplier MACC FIR Filter with Extra Cycle**

Reference Design Files

The reference design files associated with this chapter, ug073_c03.zip, can be found at:
https://secure.xilinx.com/webreg/clickthrough.do?cid=30157

Conclusion

MACC FIR filters are commonly used in DSP applications. With the introduction of the Virtex-4 DSP48 slice, this function can be achieved in a smaller area, while at the same time producing higher performance with less power resources. Designers have tremendous flexibility in determining the desired implementation as well as the ability to change the implementation parameters.

Each specification and design scenario creates a different set of restrictions for the design. Several more techniques are discussed in the next chapters. The ability to "tune" a filter in an existing system or to have multiple filter settings is a distinct advantage. The HDL and System Generator for DSP reference designs are easily modified to achieve specific requirements, such as different coefficients, smaller data and coefficient bit widths, and coefficient values.

Parallel FIR Filters

This chapter describes the implementation of high-performance, parallel, full-precision FIR filters using the DSP48 slice in a Virtex®-4 device. Because the Virtex-4 architecture is flexible, it is practical to construct custom FIR filters to meet the requirements of a specific application. Creating optimized, parallel filters saves resources.

This chapter demonstrates two parallel filter architectures: the Transposed and Systolic Parallel FIR filters. The reference design files in VHDL and Verilog permit filter parameter changes, including coefficients and the number of taps.

This chapter contains the following sections:

- "Overview"
- "Parallel FIR Filters"
- "Transposed FIR Filter"
- "Systolic FIR Filter"
- "Symmetric Systolic FIR Filter"
- "Rounding"
- "Performance"
- "Conclusion"

Overview

There are many filtering techniques available to signal processing engineers. A common filter implementation for high-performance applications is the fully parallel FIR filter. Implementing this structure in the Virtex-II architecture uses the embedded multipliers and slice based arithmetic logic. The Virtex-4 DSP48 slice introduces higher performance multiplication and arithmetic capabilities specifically designed to enhance the use of parallel FIR filters in FPGA-based DSP.

Parallel FIR Filters

A wide variety of filter architectures are available to FPGA designers due to the flexible nature of FPGAs. The type of architecture chosen is typically determined by the amount of processing required in the available number of clock cycles. The two most important factors are:

- Sample Rate (Fs)
- Number of Coefficients (N)

In Figure 4-1, as the sample rate and the number of coefficients increase, the architecture selected for a desired FIR filter becomes a more parallel structure involving more multiply

and add elements. Chapter 3, "MACC FIR Filters" addresses the details of the sequential processing FIR filters, including the single and dual MAC FIR filter. This chapter investigates the other extreme of the fully parallel FIR filter as required to filter the fastest data streams.
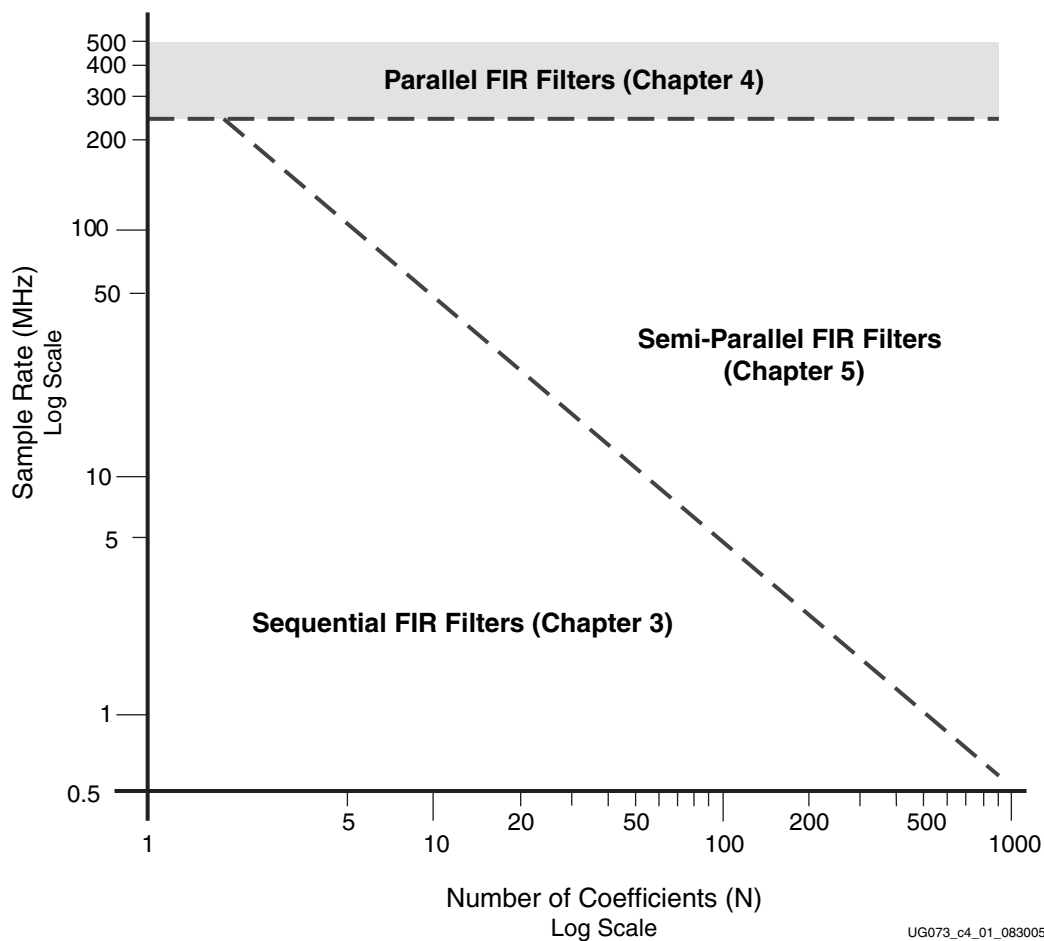

Figure 4-1: **Selecting Filter Architectures**

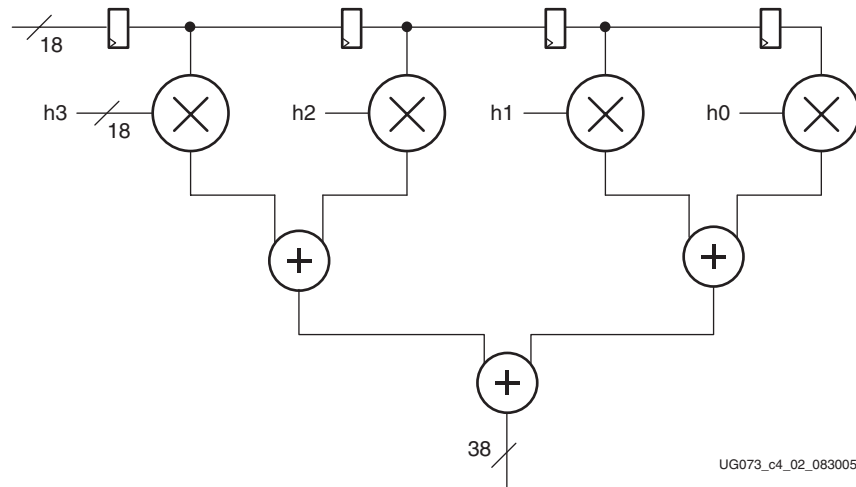The basic parallel architecture, shown in Figure 4-2, is referred to as the Direct Form Type 1.

Figure 4-2: **Direct Form Type 1 FIR Filter**

This structure implements the general FIR filter equation of a summation of products as defined in Equation 4-1.

$$y_n = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_{n-i} \, h_i$$

Equation 4-1

In Equation 4-1, a set of N coefficients is multiplied by N respective data samples. The results are summed together to form an individual result. The values of the coefficients determine the characteristics of the filter (e.g., a low-pass filter).

The history of data is stored in the individual registers chained together across the top of the architecture. Each clock cycle yields a new complete result, and all multiplication and arithmetic required occurs simultaneously. In sequential FIR filter architectures, the data buffer is created using Virtex-4 dedicated block RAMs or distributed RAMs. This demonstrates a trend; as algorithms become faster, the memory requirement is reduced. However, the memory bandwidth increases dramatically because all N coefficients must be processed at the same time.

The performance of the Parallel FIR filter is calculated in Equation 4-2.

Maximum Input Sample Rate = Clock Speed   *Equation 4-2*

The bit growth through the filter is the same for all FIR filters and is explained in the section "Bit Growth" in Chapter 3.

Transposed FIR Filter

The DSP48 arithmetic units are designed to be easily and efficiently chained together using dedicated routing between slices. The Direct Form Type I uses an adder tree structure. This makes it difficult to chain the blocks together. The Transposed FIR filter structure (Figure 4-3) is more optimal for use with the DSP48 Slice.
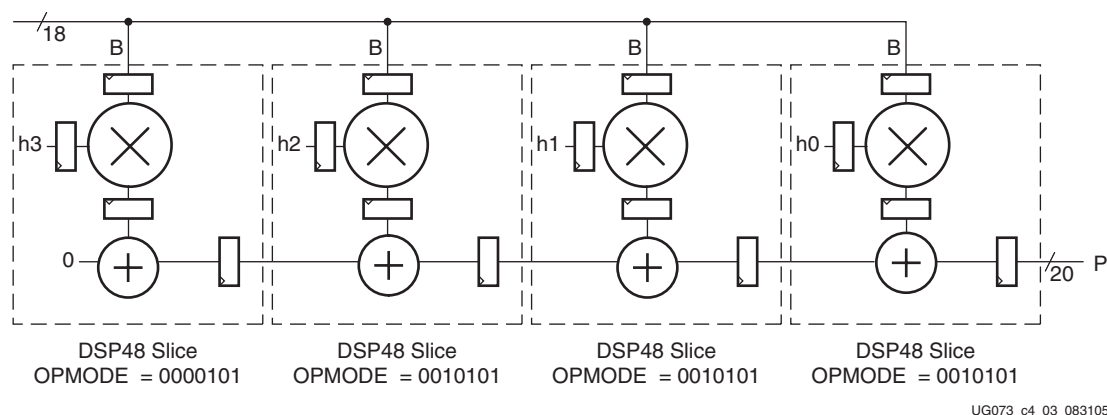

UG073_c4_03_083105

Figure 4-3: **Transposed FIR Filter**

The input data is broadcast across all the multipliers simultaneously, and the coefficients are ordered from right to left with the first coefficient, *h0*, on the right. These results are fed into the pipelined adder chain acting as a data buffer to store previously calculated inner products in the adder chain. The rearranged structure yields identical results to the Direct Form structure but gains the use of an adder chain. This different structure is easily mapped to the DSP48 slice without additional external logic. If more coefficients are required, then more DSP48 slices must be added to the chain.

The configuration of the DSP48 slice for each segment of the Transposed FIR filter is shown in Figure 4-4. Apart from the very first segment, all processing elements must be configured as shown in Figure 4-4. OPMODE is set to multiply mode with the adder, combining the results from the multiplier and from the previous DSP48 slice through the dedicated cascade input (PCIN). OPMODE is set to binary `0010101`.
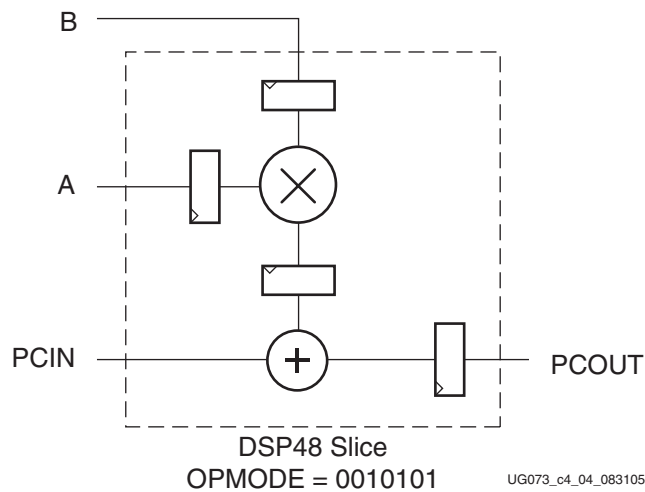
Figure 4-4: **Transpose Multiply-Add Processing Element**

Advantages and Disadvantages

The advantages to using the Transposed FIR filter are:

- Low Latency: The maximum latency never exceeds the pipelining time through the slice containing the first coefficient. Typically, this is three clock cycles between the data input and the result appearing.

- Efficient Mapping to the DSP48 Slice: Mapping is enabled by the adder chain structure of the Transposed FIR filter. This extendable structure supports both large and small FIR filters.

- No External Logic: No external FPGA logic is required, enabling the highest possible performance to be achieved.

The disadvantage to using the Transposed FIR filter is:

- Limited performance: Performance might be limited by a high fanout input signal if there are a large number of taps.

Resource Utilization

An N coefficient filter uses N DSP48 slices. A design cannot use symmetry to reduce the number of DSP48 slices when using the Transposed FIR filter structure.

Systolic FIR Filter

The systolic FIR filter is considered an optimal solution for parallel filter architectures. The systolic FIR filter also uses adder chains to fully utilize the DSP48 slice architecture (Figure 4-5).
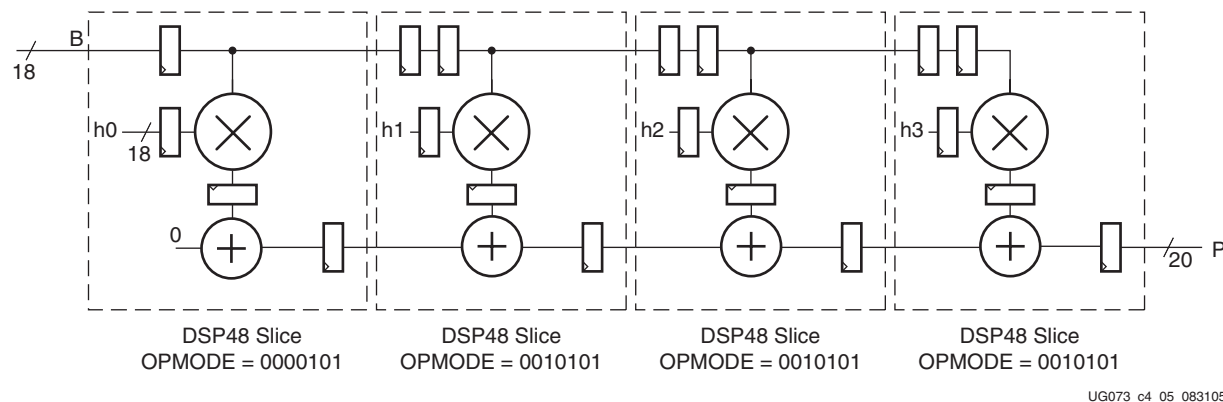

UG073_c4_05_083105

Figure 4-5: **Systolic FIR Filter**

The input data is fed into a cascade of registers acting as a data buffer. Each register delivers a sample to a multiplier where it is multiplied by the respective coefficient. In contrast to the Transposed FIR filter, the coefficients are aligned from left to right with the first coefficients on the left side of the structure. The adder chain stores the gradually combined inner products to form the final result. As with the Transposed FIR filter, no external logic is required to support the filter and the structure is extendable to support any number of coefficients.

The configuration of the DSP48 slice for each segment of the Systolic FIR filter is shown in Figure 4-6. Apart from the very first segment, all processing elements are to be configured as shown in Figure 4-6. OPMODE is set to multiply mode with the adder combining the results from the multiplier and from the previous DSP48 slice through the dedicated cascade input (PCIN). OPMODE is set to binary `0010101`. The dedicated cascade input (BCIN) and dedicated cascade output (BCOUT) are used to create the necessary input data buffer cascade.
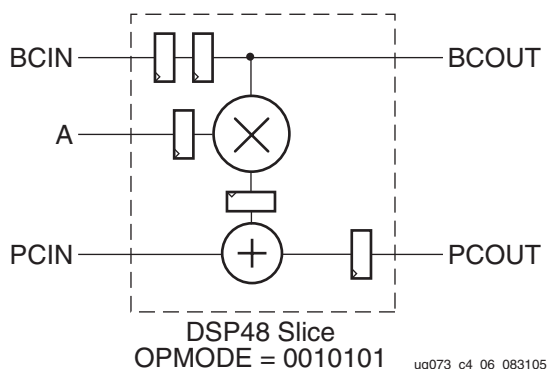

ug073_c4_06_083105

Figure 4-6: **Systolic Multiply-Add Processing Element**

Advantages and Disadvantages

The advantages to using the Systolic FIR filter are:

- Highest Performance: Maximum performance can be achieved with this structure because there is no high fanout input signal. Larger filters can be routing-limited if the number of coefficients exceeds the number of DSP slices in a column on a device.

- Efficient Mapping to the DSP48 Slice: Mapping is enabled by the adder chain structure of the Systolic FIR Filter. This extendable structure supports large and small FIR filters.

- No External Logic: No external FPGA logic is required, enabling the highest possible performance.

The disadvantage to using the Systolic FIR filter is:

- Higher Latency: The latency of the filter is a function of how many coefficients are in the filter. The larger the filter, the higher the latency.

Resource Utilization

An N coefficient filter uses *N* DSP48 slices.

Symmetric Systolic FIR Filter

In Chapter 3, "MACC FIR Filters," symmetry was examined, and an implementation was illustrated to exploit this symmetric nature of the coefficients. Exploiting symmetry is extremely powerful in Parallel FIR filters because it halves the required number of multipliers, which is advantageous due to the finite number of DSP48 slices. Equation 4-3 demonstrates how the data is pre-added before being multiplied by the single coefficient.

$$(X0 \times C0) + (Xn \times Cn) \; \dots \; \diagdown \; (X0 + Xn) \times C0 \quad (\text{if } C0 = Cn) \qquad \text{Equation 4-3}$$

Figure 4-7 shows the implementation of this type of Systolic FIR Filter structure.
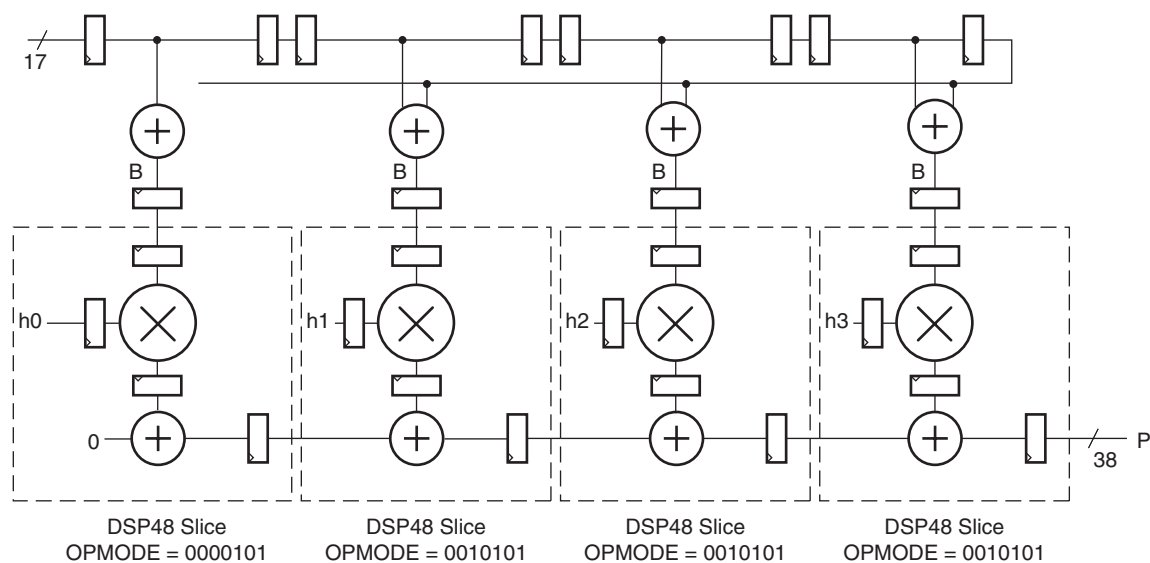
Figure 4-7: **Symmetric Systolic FIR**

In this structure, DSP48 slices have been traded off for device logic. From a performance viewpoint, to achieve the full speed of the DSP48 slice, the logic-slice-based 18-bit adder has to run at the same speed. To achieve this, register duplication can be performed on the output from the last tap that feeds all the other multipliers.

To save on logic area, the two register delay in the input buffer time series is implemented as an SRL16E and a register output. A further benefit of the symmetric implementation is the reduction in latency, due to the adder chain being half the length.

Figure 4-8 shows the configuration of the DSP48 slice for each segment of the Symmetric Systolic FIR filter. Apart from the very first segment, all processing elements are to be configured as in Figure 4-8. OPMODE is set to multiply mode, with the adder combining results from the multiplier and from the previous DSP48 slice via the dedicated cascade input (PCIN). OPMODE is set to binary `0010101`.
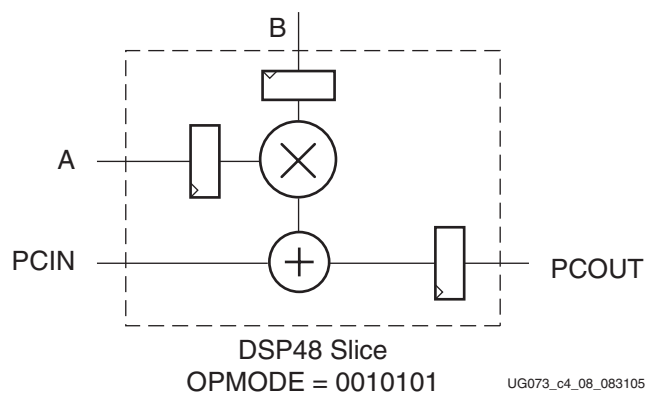

Figure 4-8: **Symmetric Systolic Multiply-Add (MADD) Processing Element**

Resource Utilization

An N symmetric coefficient filter uses *N* DSP48 slices. The slice count for the pre-adder and input buffer time series is a factor of the input bit width (n) and N. The equation for the size in slices is:

$$((n+1) * (N/2)) + (n/2) \hspace{3cm} Equation\ 4\text{-}4$$

For the example illustrated in Figure 4-7, the size is (17+1) * 8/2 + 17/2 = 81 slices.

Rounding

The number of bits on the output of the filter is much larger than the input and must be reduced to a manageable width. The output can be truncated by simply selecting the MSBs required from the filter. However, truncation introduces an undesirable DC data shift. Due to the nature of two's complement numbers, negative numbers become more negative and positive numbers also become more negative. The DC shift can be improved with the use of symmetric rounding, where positive numbers are rounded up and negative numbers are rounded down.

The rounding capability in the DSP48 slice maintains performance and minimizes the use of the FPGA fabric. This is implemented in the DSP48 slice using the C input port and the Carry In port. Rounding is achieved by:

For positive numbers: Binary Data Value + `0.10000…` and then truncate

For negative numbers: Binary Data Value + `0.01111...` and then truncate

The actual implementation always adds `0.0111…` to the data value through the C port input as in the negative case, and then it adds the extra carry in required to adjust for positive numbers. Table 4-1 illustrates some examples of symmetric rounding.

Table 4-1: **Symmetric Rounding Examples**

Decimal Value	Binary Value	Add Round	Truncate: Finish	Rounded Value
2.4375	`0010.0111`	`0010.1111`	`0010`	2
2.5	`0010.1000`	`0011.0000`	`0011`	3
2.5625	`0010.1001`	`0011.0001`	`0011`	3
−2.4375	`1101.1001`	`1110.0000`	`1110`	−2
−2.5	`1101.1000`	`1101.1111`	`1101`	−3
−2.5625	`1101.0111`	`1101.1110`	`1101`	−3

For both the Transposed and Systolic Parallel FIR filters, the C input is used at the beginning of the adder chain to drive the carry value into the accumulated result. The final segment uses the MSB of the PCIN as the carry-in value to determine if the accumulated product is positive or negative. CARRYINSEL is used to select the appropriate carry-in value. If positive, the carry-in value is used, and if negative, the result is kept the same (see Figure 4-9).
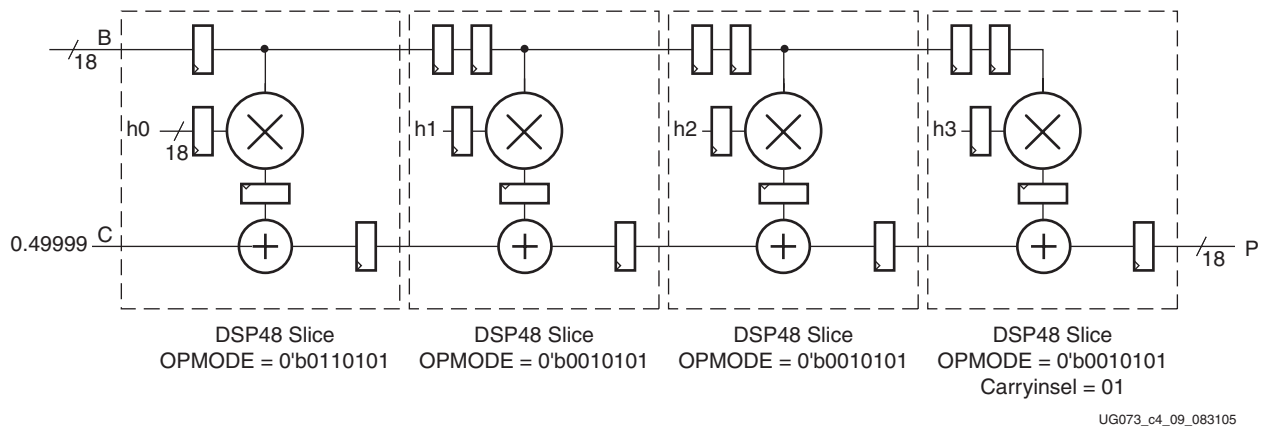

UG073_c4_09_083105

Figure 4-9: **Systolic FIR Filter with Rounding**

The one problem with the rounding solution occurs when the final accumulated inner product input to the final DSP48 slice is very close to zero. If the value is positive and the final inner product makes the result negative (leading to a rounding down), then an incorrect result occurs because the rounding function assumes a positive number instead of a negative. The last coefficient in typical FIR filters is very small, so this situation rarely occurs. However, if absolute certainty is required, an extra DSP48 slice can perform the rounding function (see Figure 4-10). A Transposed FIR filter can have exactly the same problem as the Systolic FIR filter.
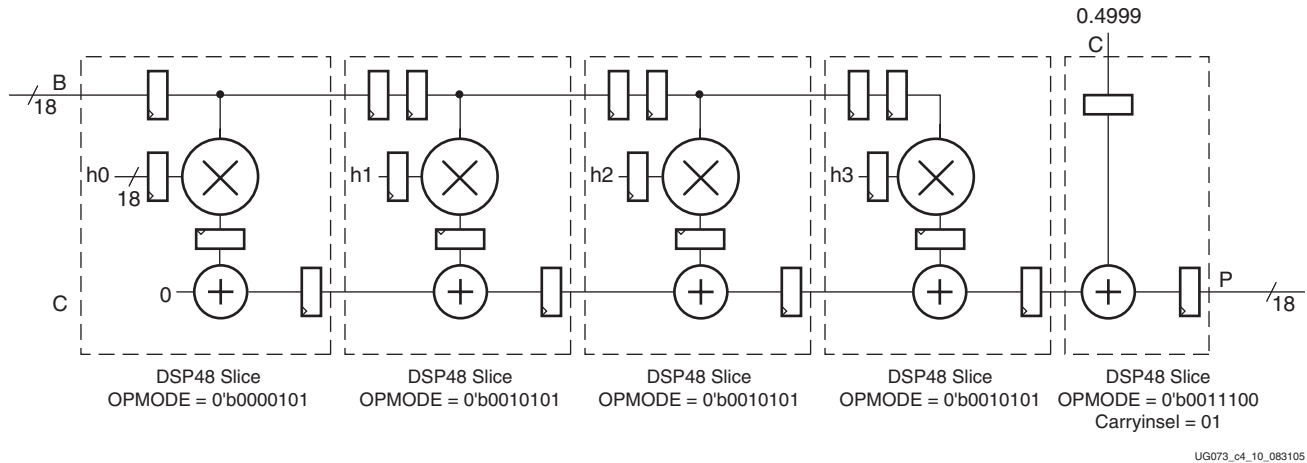
Figure 4-10: **Systolic FIR Filter with Separate Rounding Function**

Performance

When examining the performance of a Virtex-4 Parallel FIR filter, a Virtex-II Pro design is a valuable reference. Table 4-2 illustrates the ability of the Virtex-4 DSP48 slice to greatly reduce logic fabric resources requirements while improving the speed of the design and reducing the power utilization of the filter.

Table 4-2: **Performance Analysis**

Filter Type	Device Family	Size	Performance	Power (Watts)
18 x 18 Parallel Transposed FIR Filter (51 Tap Symmetric)	Virtex-II Pro FPGA	1860 Slices 26 Embedded Multipliers	300-MHz Clock Speed 300 MS/S	TBD
18 x 18 Parallel Systolic FIR Filter (51 Tap Symmetric)	Virtex-II Pro FPGA	2958 Slices 26 Embedded Multipliers	300-MHz Clock Speed 300 MS/S	TBD
18 x 18 Parallel Transposed FIR Filter (51 Tap Symmetric)	Virtex-4 FPGA	0 Slices 51 DSP48 Slices	400-MHz Clock Speed 400 MS/S	TBD
17 x 18 Systolic FIR Filter (51 Tap Non-Symmetric)	Virtex-4 FPGA	0 Slices 51 DSP48 Slices	450-MHz Clock Speed 450 MS/S	TBD
17 x 18 Systolic FIR Filter (51 Tap Symmetric)	Virtex-4 FPGA	477 Slices 26 DSP48 Slices	400-MHz Clock Speed 400 MS/S	TBD

Reference Design File

The reference design files associated with this chapter, ug073_c04.zip, can be found at:
https://secure.xilinx.com/webreg/clickthrough.do?cid=30158

Conclusion

Parallel FIR filters are commonly used in high-performance DSP applications. With the introduction of the Virtex-4 DSP48 slice, DSPs can be achieved in a smaller area, thereby producing higher performance with less power penalty.

Designers have tremendous flexibility in determining the desired implementation. They also have the ability to change the implementation parameters. The ability to "tune" a filter in an existing system or to have multiple filter settings is a distinct advantage. By making the necessary coefficient changes in the synthesizable HDL code, the reconfigurable nature of the FPGA is fully exploited. The coefficients can be either hardwired to the A input of the DSP48 slices or stored in small memories and selected to change the filter characteristics. The HDL and System Generator for DSP reference designs are easily modified to achieve specific requirements.

Chapter 5

Semi-Parallel FIR Filters

This chapter describes the implementation of semi-parallel or hardware-folded, full-precision FIR filters using the Virtex®-4 DSP48 slice. Because the Virtex-4 architecture is flexible, constructing FIR filters for specific application requirements is practical. Creating optimum filter structures of a semi-parallel nature saves resources and potential clock cycles. Therefore, optimum filter structures of a semi-parallel nature can be created without draining resources or clock cycles.

This chapter demonstrates two semi-parallel filter architectures: the four-multiplier FIR filter using distributed RAM and the three-multiplier FIR filter using block RAM. These filters illustrate how resources are saved by using available clock cycles and hardware-folding techniques. Reference design files are available for system generator in DSP, VHDL, and Verilog. The reference designs permit filter parameter changes including coefficients and the number of taps.

This chapter contains the following sections:

- "Overview"
- "Semi-Parallel FIR Filter Structure"
- "Four-Multiplier, Distributed-RAM-Based, Semi-Parallel FIR Filter"
- "Three-Multiplier, Block-RAM-Based, Semi-Parallel FIR Filter"
- "Other Semi-Parallel FIR Filter Structures"
- "Conclusion"

Overview

A large array of filtering techniques are available to signal processing engineers. A common filter implementation to exploit available clock cycles, while still achieving moderate to high sample rates, is the semi-parallel (also known as folded-hardware) FIR filter. In the past, this structure used the Virtex-II embedded multipliers and slice-based arithmetic logic. However, the Virtex-4 DSP48 slice introduces higher performance multiplication and arithmetic capabilities to enhance the use of semi-parallel FIR filters in FPGA-based DSP designs.

Semi-Parallel FIR Filter Structure

A wide variety of filter architectures are available to FPGA designers due to the flexible nature of FPGAs. The type of architecture is typically determined by the amount of processing required in the number of available clock cycles. The two most important factors are:

- Sample Rate (Fs)

- Number of Coefficients (N)

As illustrated in Figure 5-1, as the sample rate increases and the number of coefficients increase, the architecture selected for a desired FIR filter becomes a more parallel structure involving more multiply-add elements. Chapter 3, "MACC FIR Filters" addresses the details of sequential processing FIR filters including the single and dual MACC FIR Filter. Chapter 4, "Parallel FIR Filters" investigates the polar extreme of the fully-parallel FIR filter required for the highest sample rate filters. This chapter examines the common scenario requiring multiple processing elements working over numerous clock cycles to achieve the result. These techniques are often referred to as semi-parallel and are used to maximize efficiency of the filter (see Figure 5-1).

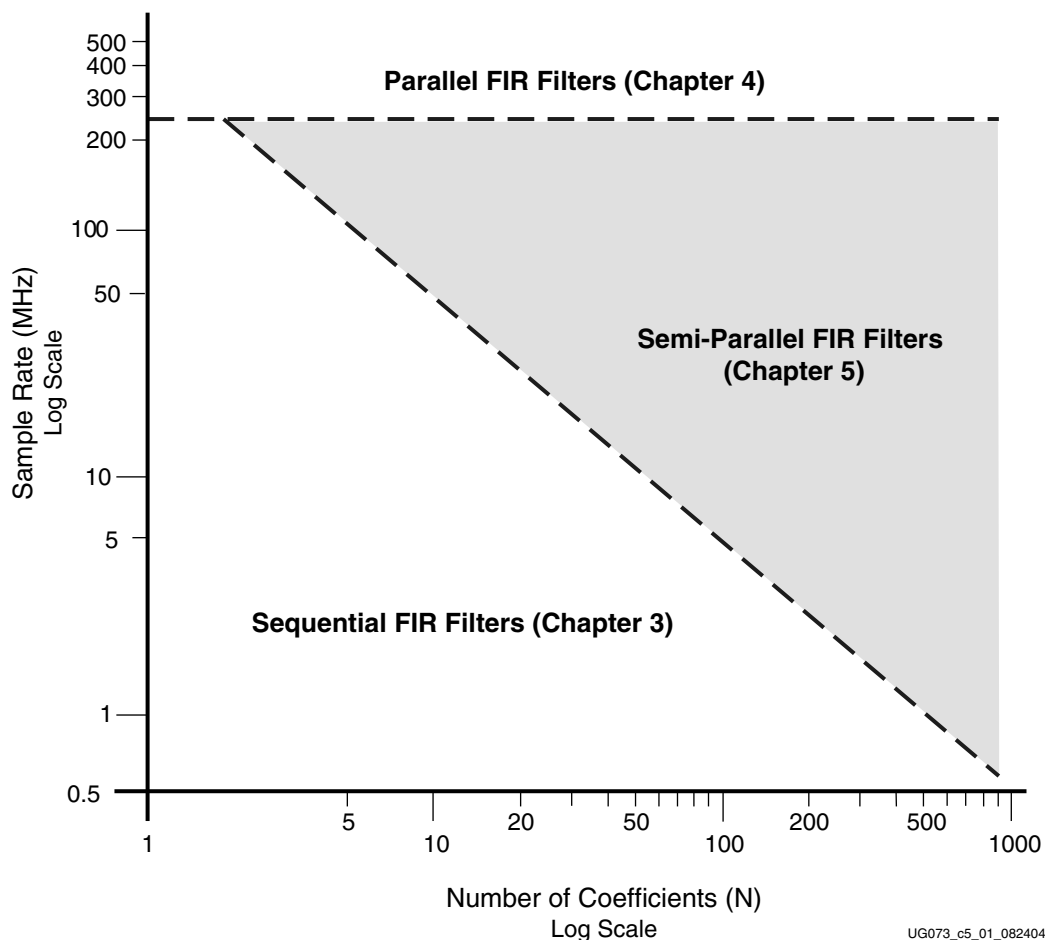*Figure 5-1:* **Selecting Filter Architectures**

The semi-parallel FIR structure implements the general FIR filter equation of a summation of products defined as shown in Equation 5-1.

$$y_n = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_{n-i} h_i \qquad\qquad Equation\ 5\text{-}1$$

Here a set of N coefficients is multiplied by N respective time series data samples, and the results are summed together to form an individual result. The values of the coefficients determine the characteristics of the filter (for example, a low-pass filter).

Along with achievable clock speed and the number of coefficients (N), the number of multipliers (M) is also a factor in calculating semi-parallel FIR filter performance. The following equation demonstrates that the more multipliers used, the greater the achievable performance of the filter.

Maximum Input Sample Rate = (Clock speed/Number of Coefficients) x Number of Multipliers

The Maximum Input Sample Rate equation is rearranged to determine how many multipliers to use for a particular semi-parallel architecture:

Number of Multipliers = (Maximum Input Sample rate x Number of Coefficients)/Clock speed

The number of clock cycles between each result of the FIR filter is determined by the following equation:

Number of Clock Cycles per Result = Number of Coefficients / Number of Multipliers

The bit growth on the output of the filter is the same for all FIR filters and is explained in "Bit Growth" in Chapter 3. The large, 48-bit internal precision of the DSP48 slice means that little concern needs to be paid to the internal bit growth of the filter.

Four-Multiplier, Distributed-RAM-Based, Semi-Parallel FIR Filter

After the required number of multipliers is determined, there is an extendable architecture using the DSP48 slice as the basis of the filter. This section assumes the specifications in Table 5-1 and describes the filter implementation and its functions.

Table 5-1: **Four-Multiplier, Semi-Parallel FIR Filter Specifications**

Sampling Rate	112.5 MS/S
Number of Coefficients	16
Assumed Clock Speed	450 MHz
Input Data Width	18 Bits
Output Data Width	18 Bits
Number of Multipliers	4
Number of Clock Cycles Between Each Result	4

Figure 5-2 illustrates the main structure for the four-multiplier, semi-parallel FIR filter.
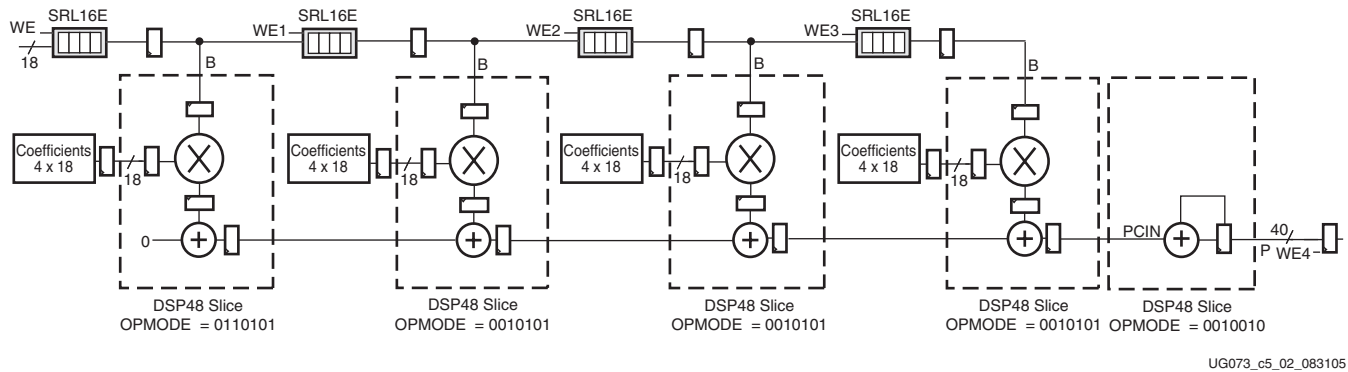

UG073_c5_02_083105

Figure 5-2: **Four-Multiplier, Semi-Parallel FIR Filter in Accumulation Mode**

The DSP48 slice arithmetic units are designed to be chained together easily and efficiently due to dedicated routing between slices. Figure 5-2 shows how the four DSP48 slice multiply-add elements are cascaded together to form the main part of the filter structure. Figure 5-3 provides a detailed view of the main multiply-add elements. The two pipeline registers are used on the B input to compensate for the register on the output of the coefficient memory.
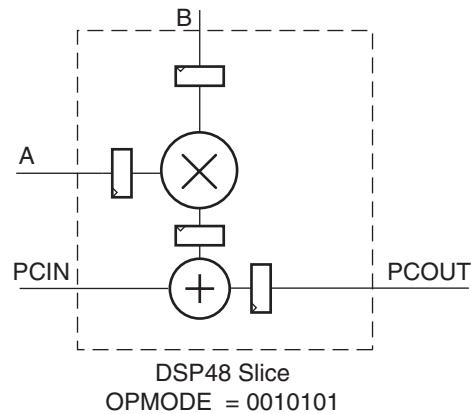

UG073_c5_03_083105

Figure 5-3: **Detailed Diagram of a Single Multiply-Add Element**

An extra DSP48 slice is required on the end to perform the accumulation of the partial results, thus creating the final result. A new result is created every four cycles. Every four cycles, the accumulation must be reset to the first partial value of the next result. As in the MACC FIR Filter, this reset (or load) is achieved by changing the OPMODE value of the DSP48 slice for a single cycle. OPMODE is changed from binary `0010010` to binary

0010000 (just a single bit change). At the same time, the capture register is also enabled, and the final result is stored on the output (see Figure 5-4).
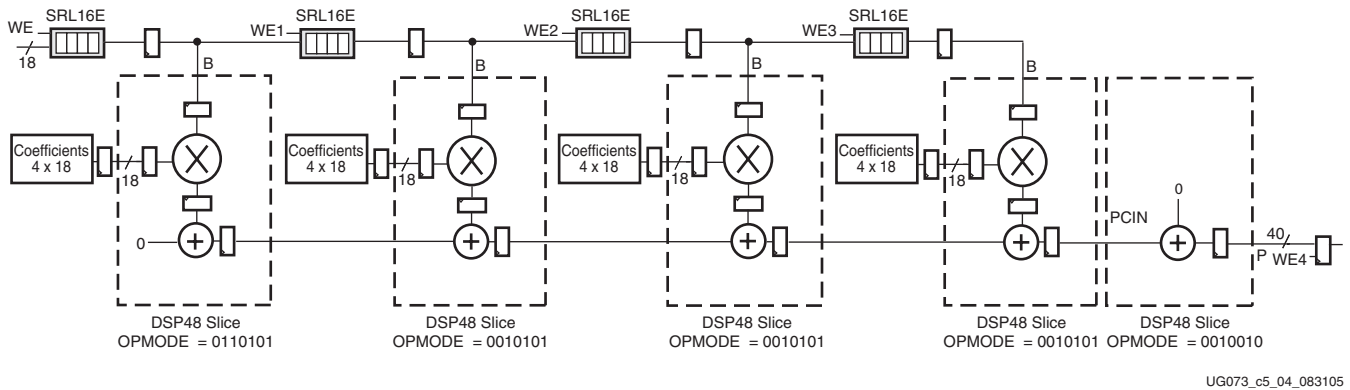

Figure 5-4: **Four-Multiplier, Semi-Parallel FIR Filter at the Start of a New Result Cycle**

Control logic is required to make this dynamic change occur. The specifics are detailed in "Control Logic and Address Sequencing," page 94.

Data Memory Buffers

This example uses eight memories. Four SRL16Es are used as data buffers. Each SRL16E holds the four samples needed for the result. They are written to once every four cycles (the input data rate is 4x slower than the internal rate), and the shifting characteristic of the SRL16E is exploited to pass old samples along the time series buffer. The extra register on the output of each data buffer is required to match the data buffer pipeline with the extra delay caused by the adder chain. The extra register should not cost extra resources because it is already present in the slice containing the SRL16E (see Figure 5-5).
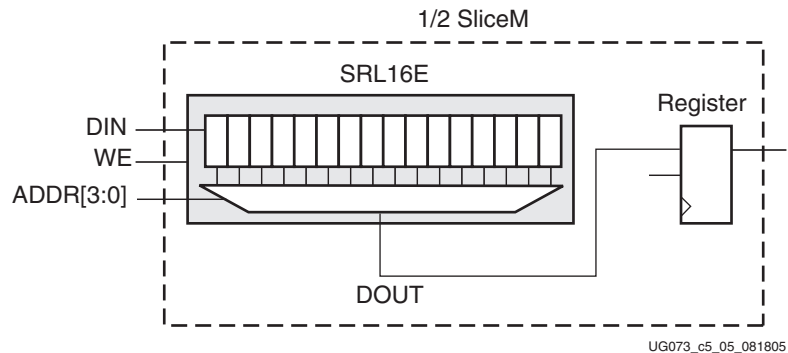

Figure 5-5: **Single Bit of One Input Memory Buffer**

As long as the depth does not exceed 16, the resources required for each of these input memory buffers is determined by the bit width of the input data (n). Therefore, n/2 SliceM is required for each memory buffer, leading to nine slices per buffer in this filter example. For depths up to 32, resources are a little more than doubled because two SRL16Es are needed, as well as an extra output multiplexer. For more information on SliceM, refer to the CLB section in the *Virtex-4 User Guide*.

Coefficient Memory

The coefficients are divided up into four groups of four. This arrangement is determined by dividing the total number of coefficients by the number of multipliers used in the implementation. In this example, if the total number of coefficients is 16, and the number of multipliers is four, four coefficients per memory are needed.

Filters with a total number of coefficients that are integer-divisible by the required number of multipliers are very desirable. System designers should take this into account when designing their filters to get the optimal filter specification for the implementation used. Otherwise, the coefficients have to be padded with zeros to achieve a number of coefficients that are integer-divisible by the number of multipliers.

The coefficients are simply split into groups according to their order. The first four in the first memory, the second four in the second memory, and so on (see Figure 5-6).

Coefficients Driving First DSP48 Slice	Coefficients Driving Second DSP48 Slice	Coefficients Driving Third DSP48 Slice	Coefficients Driving Fourth DSP48 Slice
h0	h4	h8	h12
h1	h5	h9	h13
h2	h6	h10	h14
h3	h7	h11	h15
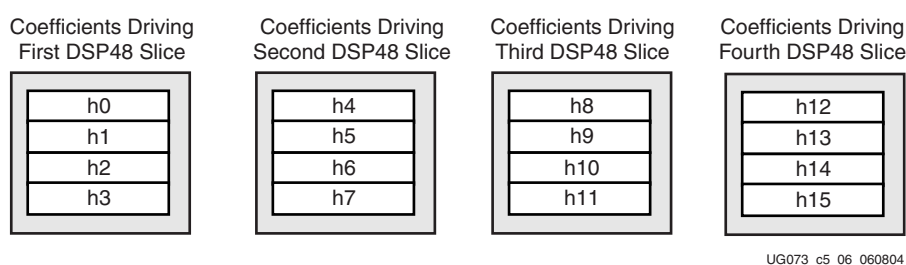
UG073_c5_06_060804

Figure 5-6: **Coefficient Memory Arrangement**

The adder chain architecture of the DSP48 slice means that each Multiply-Add cascade multiplication must be delayed by a single cycle so that the results synchronize appropriately when added together. This delay is achieved by addressing of the memories and is explained in "Control Logic and Address Sequencing."

Distributed RAM (refer to Chapter 1, "XtremeDSP Design Considerations," for detailed information) is used for the coefficient memories. Distributed RAM is smaller and abundant and allows efficient use of the larger block RAMs, especially given their scarcity. The larger block RAM is used when the number of coefficients per memory starts to increase to the point where the cost in slice resources becomes significant (for example, greater than 64).

The total cost of the current example is 36 slices. The coefficient width is 18 bits, and distributed RAMs cost n/2 slices (that is, nine slices per memory and four memories). For larger distributed RAMs (larger than 16 elements), the size begins to increase as Write Enable (WE) control logic and an output multiplexer is needed. The distributed memory v7.0 in the CORE Generator™ system can be easily used to create the little distributed RAMs and get accurate size estimates.

Control Logic and Address Sequencing

The Control Logic and Address Sequencing is the most important and complicated aspect of semi-parallel FIR filters and is crucial to the operation the filter. The control logic is discussed in two separate sections:

- Memory Addressing
- Clock Enable Sequencing

Memory addressing must provide the necessary delay for each multiply-add element mentioned in "Coefficient Memory," page 94, caused by the adder chain. This is not the case when using an adder tree; the DSP48 slice is most efficiently used in adder chains.

Figure 5-7 illustrates the control logic required to create the necessary memory addressing. The counter creates the fundamental zero through three count. A register in the control path then delays the coefficient memory and data buffer address by one cycle. Each successive delay is used to address both the coefficient memory and the data buffer of their respective multiply-add elements, e.g., a single delay for the second multiply-add element, two delays for the third multiply-add element, etc. This is extensible control logic for M number of multipliers.
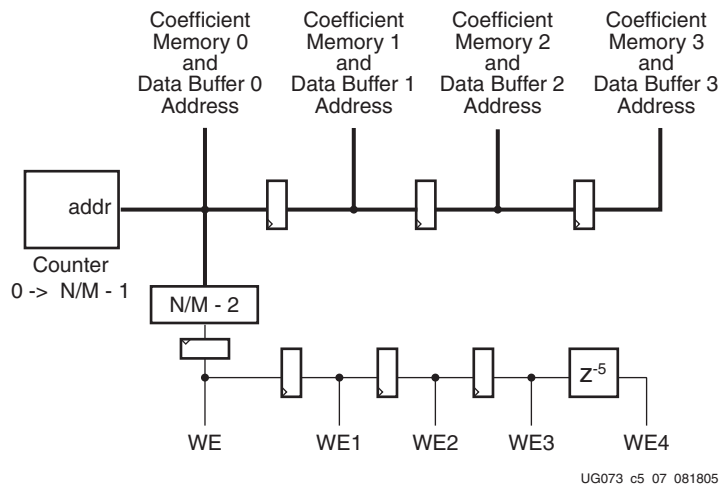

Figure 5-7: **Control Logic for the Four-Multiplier, Semi-Parallel FIR Filter**

Figure 5-7 also shows clock enable sequencing. A relational operator is required to determine when the count limited counter resets its count. This signal is High for one clock cycle every four cycles to represent the input and output data rates. The Clock Enable signal is delayed by a single register just like the coefficient address, and each delayed version of the signal is tied to the respective section of the filter. Refer to Figure 5-2 to see

the signal connections to the element. Figure 5-8 illustrates the control logic waveforms changing over time.
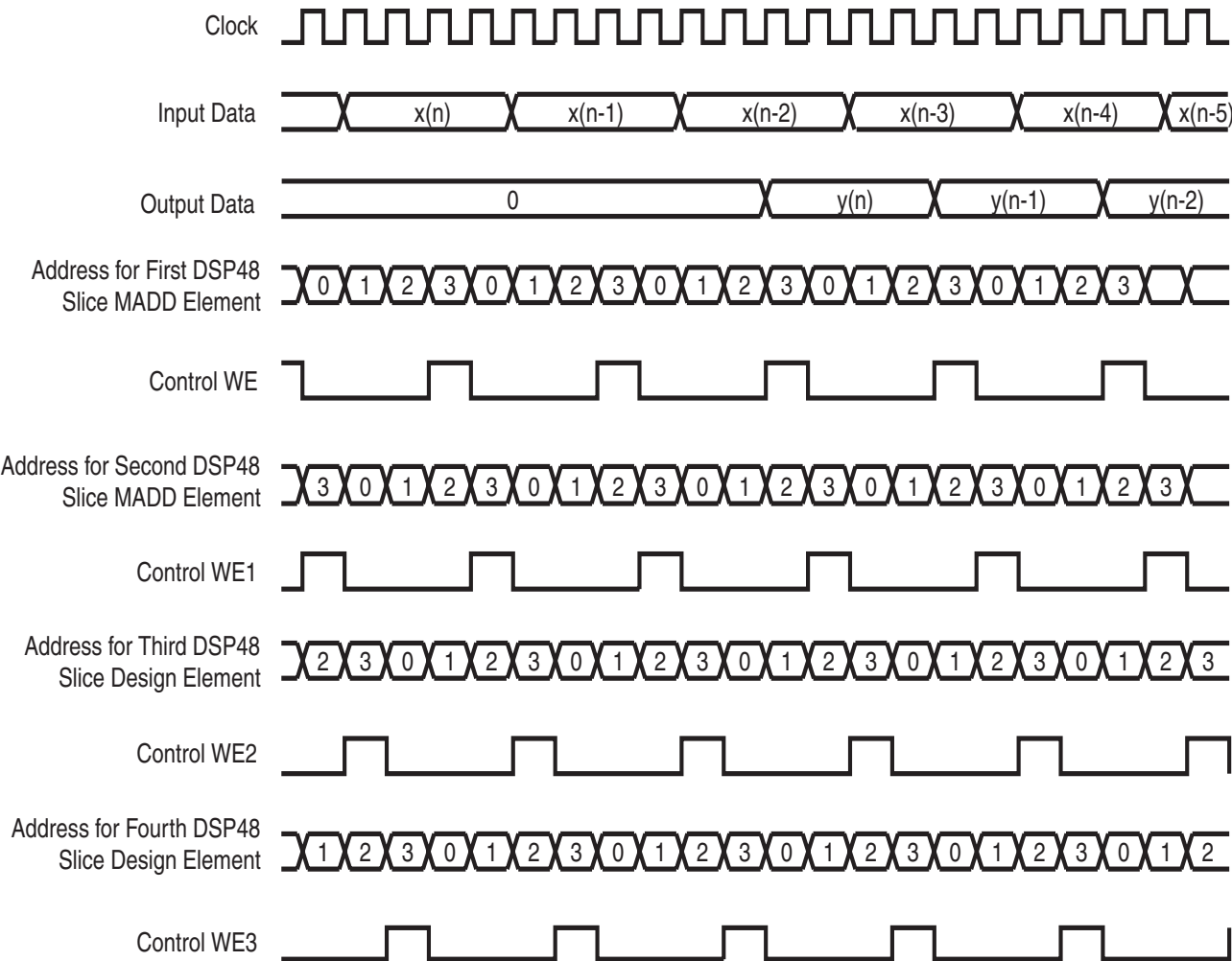
UG073_c5_08_081805

Figure 5-8: **Control Waveforms for Semi-Parallel FIR Filters**

Resource Utilization

Table 5-2 shows the resources used by a 16-tap, four-multiplier, distributed-RAM-based, semi-parallel FIR filter.

Table 5-2: **Resource Utilization**

Elements	Slices	DSP48 Slices
Multiply-Add		5
Input Data Buffers	36	
Coefficient Memories	36	
Capture Register	20	
Main Control Counter	2	

Table 5-2: **Resource Utilization** *(Continued)*

Elements	Slices	DSP48 Slices
Relational Operator	1	
Multiply-Add Element Control	9 (3 per extra element)	
Total	**104**	**5**

Three-Multiplier, Block-RAM-Based, Semi-Parallel FIR Filter

This section investigates a different filter structure, the three-multiplier, block-RAM-based, semi-parallel FIR filter (see Figure 5-9).
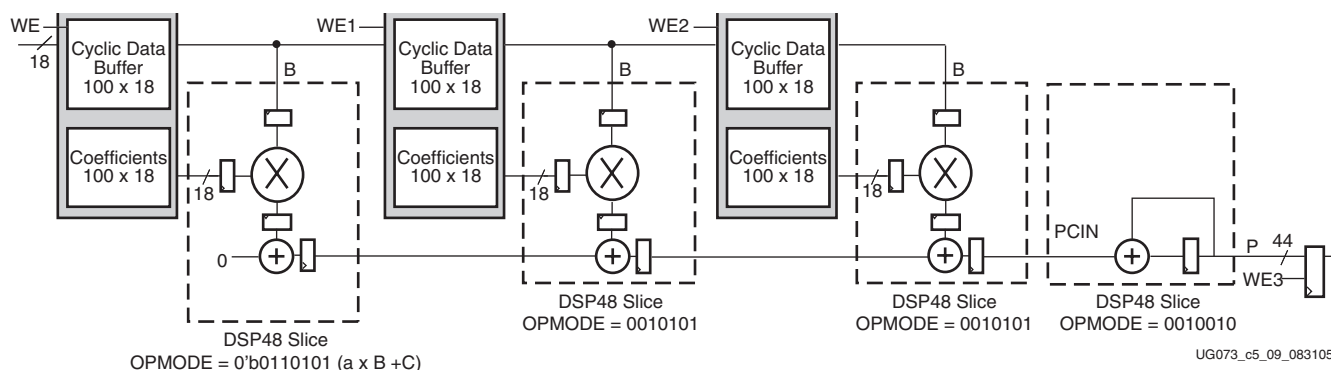
Figure 5-9: **Three-Multiplier, Block-RAM-Based, Semi-Parallel FIR Filter**

The decision to use this implementation is based on the filter specification. The filter specifications are described in Table 5-3.

Table 5-3: **Three-Multiplier, Block-RAM-Based, Semi-Parallel FIR Filter Specifications**

Parameter	Value
Sampling Rate	4.5 MS/S
Number of Coefficients	300
Assumed Clock Speed	450 MHz
Input Data Width	18 bits
Output Data Width	18 bits
Number of Mulipliers	3
Number of Clock Cycles Between Each Result	100

The structure is similar to the four-multiplier filter studied earlier. In this instance, the *lower sample rate* of the filter specification and the *larger number of taps* indicates that only three multipliers are required, each servicing 100 coefficients, leading to a new result yielded every 100 clock cycles.

Each memory buffer is required to hold 100 coefficients and also 100 input data history values. The dedicated Virtex-4 block RAM can be used in dual-port mode with a cyclic data buffer established in the first half of the memory to serve the shifting input data series.

Chapter 3, "MACC FIR Filters," describes using these memories to store the input data series, the coefficients, and the control logic required to make the cyclic RAM buffer operate. The rest of the control logic and data flow is identical to the first filter investigated except that only three multipliers are serviced; therefore, the control logic can be scaled back by one element. Also note that the WE signals are the inversion of their respective CE pair.

Table 5-4 shows the resource utilization for the 300-tap, three-multiplier, semi-parallel FIR filter.

Table 5-4: **Resource Utilization**

Elements	Slices	DSP48 Slices	Block RAMs
Multiply-Add		4	
Input Data Buffers and Coefficient Memories			3
Capture Register	20		
Main Control Counter	5		
Relational Operator	1		
Multiply-Add Element Control	12 (6 per extra element)		
Total	**38**	**4**	**3**

Other Semi-Parallel FIR Filter Structures

DSP functions can be implemented in different ways. There is never one solution fitting all requirements for all specifications. For example, should distributed or block RAM be used for data storage? Should a systolic or a transposed implementation be used for a given filter? The goal is to achieve maximum performance and low resource utilization. This section describes the different single-rate FIR filter implementations using the Virtex-4 architecture and discusses the advantages and disadvantages of their structures.

Semi-Parallel, Transposed, Four-Multiplier FIR Filter

This structure is very different to the main architecture discussed in this chapter (see Figure 5-10).
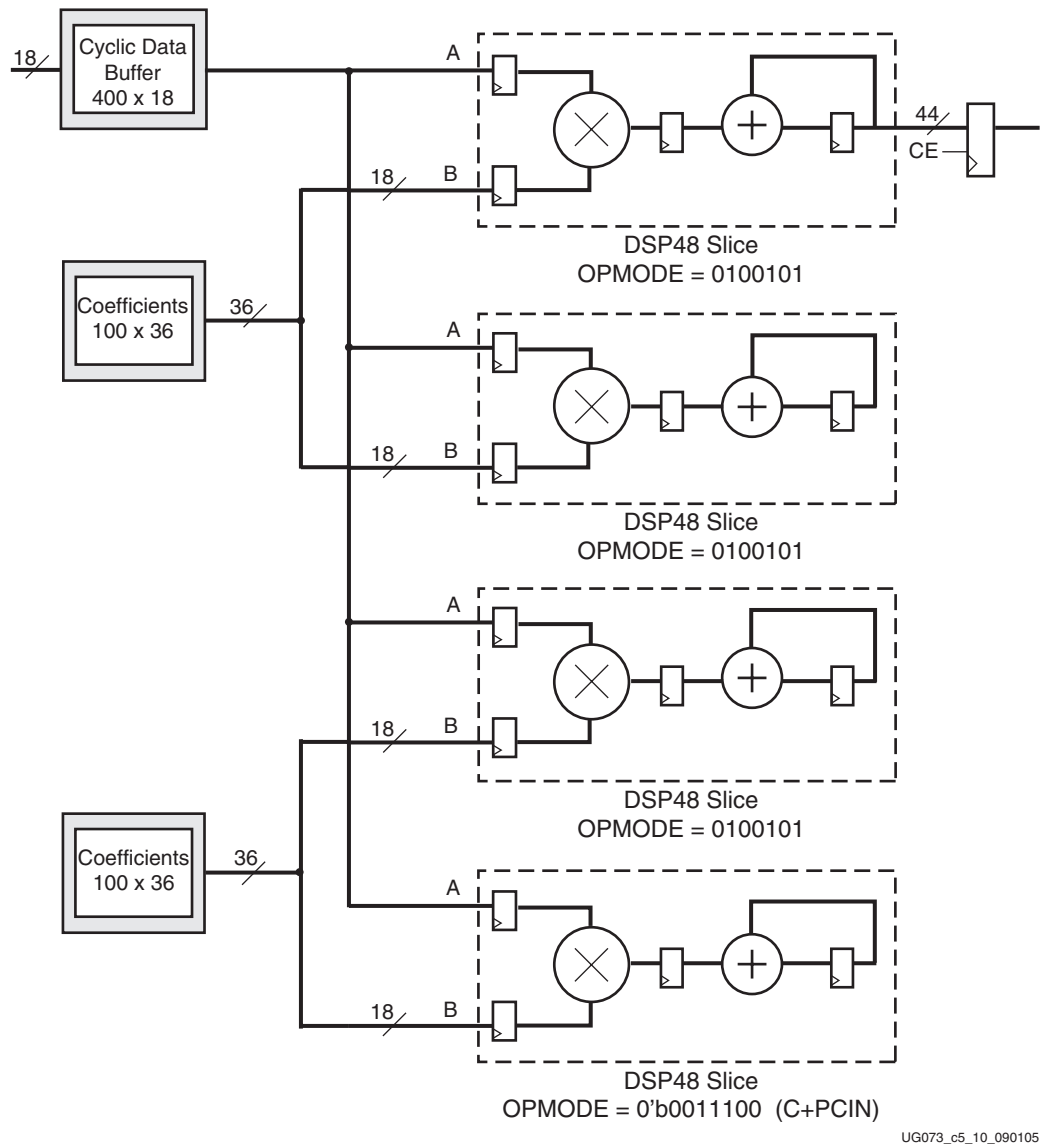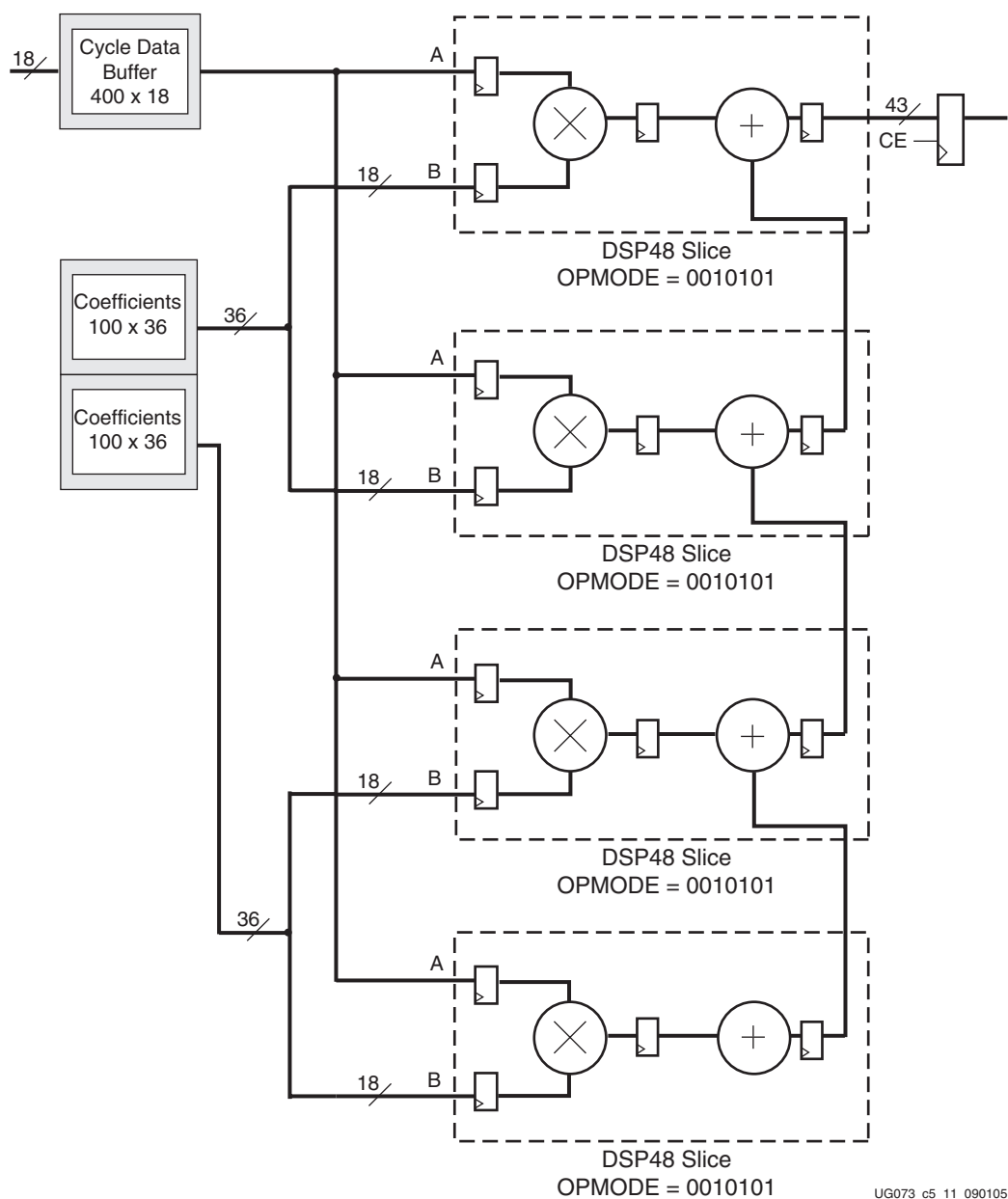

UG073_c5_10_090105

Figure 5-10: **Semi-Parallel, Transposed FIR Filter**

Only one data storage buffer is required, typically a block RAM. The data buffer output is also broadcast to all DSP48 slices. Each DSP48 slice works in accumulator mode until the last cycle of the calculation, when OPMODE changes to form an adder chain, and then passes the results to the next DSP48 slice. Actually, four different results are being calculated at one instance in time, and the completed combined result is output from the last DSP48 slice. The other DSP48 slices are each calculating their respective portion of subsequent output results.

Figure 5-11 shows the filter structure every time the DSP48 slice OPMODE is changed, occurring once every result cycle.

Figure 5-11: **Semi-Parallel, Transposed FIR Filter (Combination of the Results)**

Advantages and Disadvantages

The advantages to using the Semi-Parallel, Transposed FIR filter are:

- Lower resource utilization: One less DSP48 slice is required, and only a single input memory buffer is used.

- Low latency: The transpose nature of the filter implementation is lower than the Systolic approach. The latency is equal to the size of one coefficient bank.

The disadvantages to using the Semi-Parallel, Transposed FIR filter are:

- Lower performance: The broadcast nature of the data buffer output can limit performance of the filter.
- Control logic: This logic is more difficult to understand, but is still of a compact nature.

Rounding

The number of bits on the output of the filter is much larger than the input and must be reduced to a manageable width. The output can be truncated by simply selecting the MSBs required from the filter. However, truncation introduces an undesirable DC shift on the data set.

Due to the nature of two's complement numbers, negative numbers become more negative, and positive numbers also become more negative. The DC shift can be improved with the use of symmetric rounding, where positive numbers are rounded up and negative numbers are rounded down. The rounding capability built into the DSP48 slice maintains performance and minimizes the use of FPGA fabric. This is ingrained in the DSP48 slice via the C input port and also the Carry-In port. Rounding is achieved in the following manner:

For positive numbers: Binary Data Value + `0.10000…` and then truncate

For negative numbers: Binary Data Value + `0.01111…` and then truncate

The actual implementation always adds `0.0111…` to the data value using the C port input as in the negative case, and then it adds the extra carry in required to adjust for positive numbers. Table 5-5 illustrates some examples of symmetric rounding.

Table 5-5: **Symmetric Rounding Examples**

Decimal Value	Binary Value	Add Round	Truncate: Finish	Rounded Value
2.4375	`0010.0111`	`0010.1111`	`0010`	2
2.5	`0010.1000`	`0011.0000`	`0011`	3
2.5625	`0010.1001`	`0011.0001`	`0011`	3
-2.4375	`1101.1001`	`1110.0000`	`1110`	-2
-2.5	`1101.1000`	`1101.1111`	`1101`	-3
-2.5625	`1101.0111`	`1101.1110`	`1101`	-3

In the instance of the semi-parallel FIR filter, an extra DSP48 slice is required to perform the rounding functionality. It cannot be ingrained into the final accumulator because the rounding cannot be done on the final result. If the C input is used and the accumulator is put into three-input add mode, then rounding is performed on the partial result. The moremultipliers in the filter, the worse the rounding performance because even fewer inner products are included in the result. An extra DSP48 slice is required to perform the rounding.

Due to the finite nature of the DSP48 slices, it is recommended that the symmetric rounder be implemented in the fabric outside of the slices. The function is small and does not have to run at a high frequency because the results are running at the much slower input data rate.

Performance

Compared to legacy devices, Virtex-4 devices improve the speed of the design, shrink the area, and reduce power drawn by the filter. All designs assume 18-bit data and 18-bit coefficient widths. Table 5-6 through Table 5-8 compare the specifications of three filters.

Table 5-6: **4-Multiplier, Memory-Based, Semi-Parallel FIR Filter Specifications (16-Tap Symmetric)**

Parameter	Specification
Size	94 slices, 5 DSP48 slices
Performance	458-MHz clock speed, 114.5 MS/S
Power	TBD Watt

Table 5-7: **3-Multiplier, Block-RAM-Based, Semi-Parallel FIR Filter Specifications (300-Tap Symmetric)**

Parameter	Specification
Size	38 slices, 4 DSP48 slices, 4 block RAMs
Performance	450-MHz clock speed, 4.5 MS/S
Power	TBD Watt

*Table 5-8:* **4-Multiplier, Block-RAM-Based, Semi-Parallel Transposed FIR Filter Specifications (400-Tap Symmetric)**

Parameter	Specification
Size	46 slices, 4 DSP48 slices, 2 block RAMs
Performance	450-MHz clock speed, 4.5 MS/S
Power	TBD Watt

Reference Design Files

The reference design files associated with this chapter, ug073_c05.zip, can be found at:
https://secure.xilinx.com/webreg/clickthrough.do?cid=30159

Conclusion

Semi-parallel FIR filters are probably the most frequently used filter techniques in Virtex-4 high-performance DSP applications. Figure 5-12 shows the necessary implementation decisions and provides guidelines for choosing the required structure based on the filter specifications.
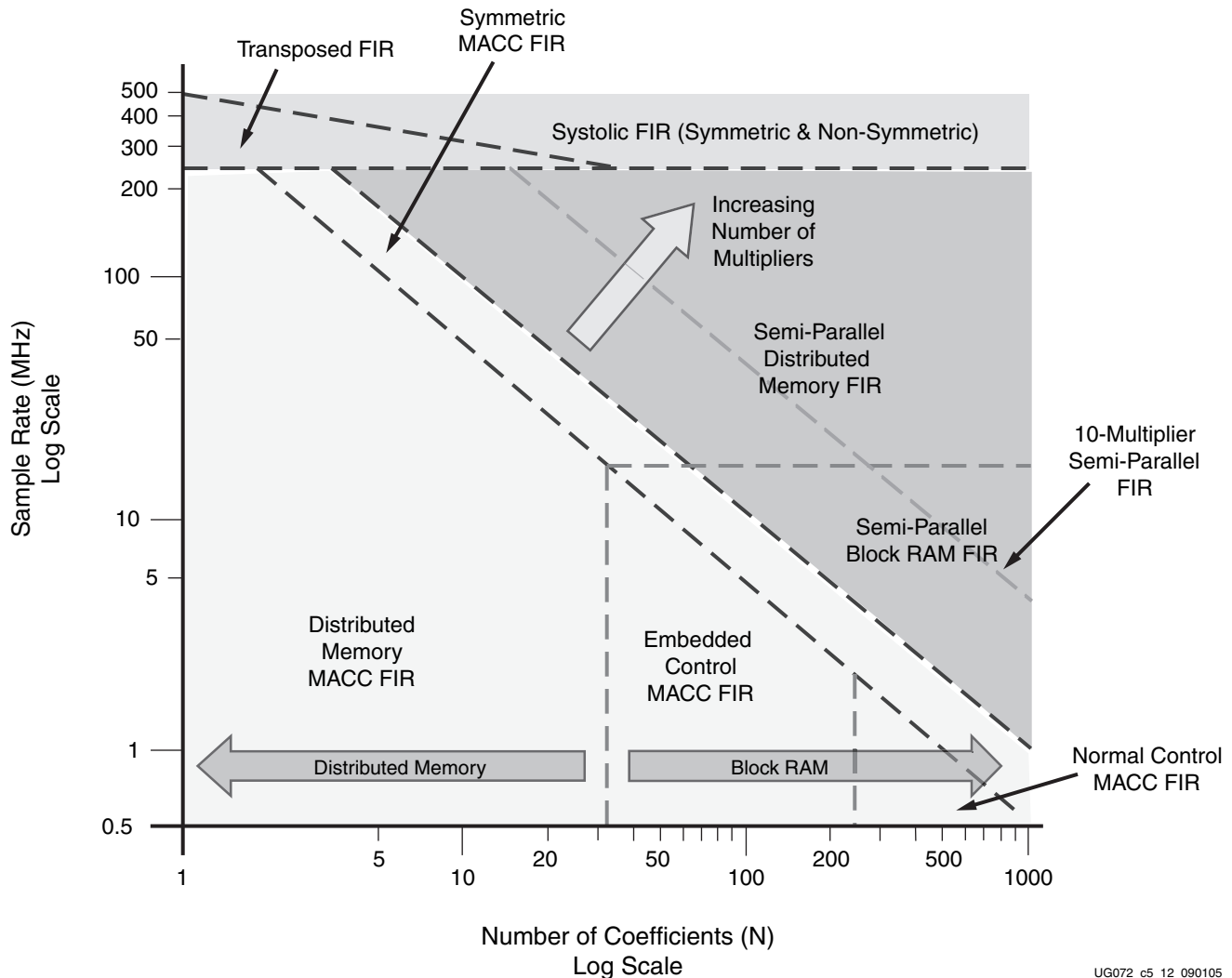
Figure 5-12:   **Selecting the Correct Filter Architecture for Semi-Parallel FIR Filters**

The major lines indicate the guideline thresholds between given implementation techniques. For instance, the shift to using block RAM is desirable when the number of taps needed to be stored in a given memory exceeds 32. This correlates to two SRL16Es for the data buffers. If more than two SRL16Es are used in a data buffer, it will be difficult to reach the high clock rate indicated in Chapter 3, "MACC FIR Filters," Chapter 4, "Parallel FIR Filters," and this chapter. However, this is only a guideline. A great deal depends upon how many slices or block RAMs are remaining in the device, the power requirements, and the available clock frequencies. A given filter implementation is subjective because a different set of restrictions is provided by every application and design.

In general, the guidelines provided in the past three chapters should enable designers to make sensible and efficient decisions when designing filters. These chapters also complete the foundations required for filter construction in Virtex-4 devices so that more complex, multi-channel and interpolation or decimation multirate filters can be constructed. The supplied referenced designs further aid in understanding and utilizing these filters.

Multichannel FIR Filters

This chapter illustrates the use of the advanced Virtex®-4 DSP features when implementing a widely used DSP function known as multichannel FIR filtering. Multichannel filters are used to filter multiple input sample streams in a variety of applications, including communications and multimedia.

The main advantage of using a multichannel filter is leveraging very fast math elements across multiple input streams (i.e., channels) with much lower sample rates. This technique increases silicon efficiency by a factor almost equal to the number of channels.

The Virtex-4 DSP48 slice is one of the new and highly innovative diffused elements that form the basis of the Application Specific Modular BLock (ASMBL™) architecture. This modular architecture enables Xilinx to rapidly and cost-effectively build FPGA platforms by combining different elements, such as logic, memory, processors, I/O, and of course, DSP functionality targeting specific applications such as wireless or video DSP.

The Virtex-4 DSP48 slice contains the basic elements of classic FIR filters: a multiplier followed by an adder, delay or pipeline registers, plus the ability to cascade an input stream (B bus) and an output stream (P bus) without exiting to a general slice logic.

The resulting DSP designs can have optional pipelining that permits aggregate multichannel sample rates of up to 500 million samples per second, while minimizing power consumption and external slice logic. In the implementation described in this chapter, multichannel filtering can be looked at as time-multiplexed, single-channel filters.

In a typical multichannel filtering scenario, multiple input channels are filtered using a separate digital filter for each channel. Due to the high performance of the DSP48 block within the Virtex-4 device, a single digital filter can be used to filter all eight input channels by clocking the single filter with an 8x clock. This implementation uses 1/8th of the total FPGA resource compared to implementing each channel separately.

This chapter contains the following sections:

- "Multichannel FIR Implementation Overview"
- "Combining Separate Input Streams into an Interleaved Stream"
- "Conclusion"

Multichannel FIR Implementation Overview

Top Level

The implementation of a six-channel, eight-tap FIR filter using DSP48 elements is depicted in Figure 6-1. The design elements used in the implementation include the following:

- Six-to-one multiplexer that is implemented in slice logic as described in "Combining Separate Input Streams into an Interleaved Stream," page 107

- Coefficient ROMs using SRL16Es connected in "head-to-tail" fashion

- Input sample "delay-by-seven" SRL16Es to hold the interleaved streams
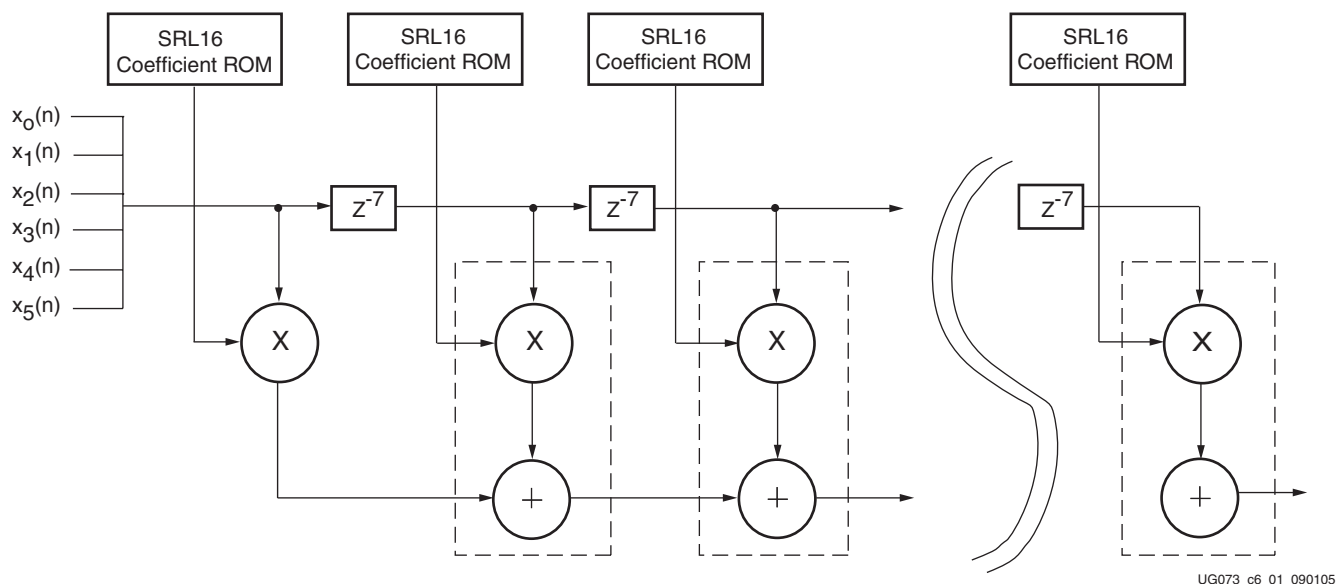
- DSP48 slices for multiplication and additions

Figure 6-1: **Block Diagram of a 6-Channel, 8-Tap FIR Filter**

All datapaths and coefficient paths for this example are 8 bits wide. The coefficient ROMs and input sample delay elements are designed using SRL16Es. The SRL16E is a very compact and efficient memory element, running at the very high 6x clock rate. For adaptive filtering, where coefficients can be different depending upon their input signals, coefficient RAMs can be used to update the coefficient values.

The DSP48 slices and interconnects also run at the 6x clock rate, providing unparalleled performance for multiplication and additions in today's FPGAs.

DSP48 Tile

The multichannel filter block is a cascade implementation of the DSP48 tile. Each tile is implemented as shown in Figure 6-2. An SRL16E is used to shift the input from the six channels. The product cascade path between two DSP48 slices within the tile can be used

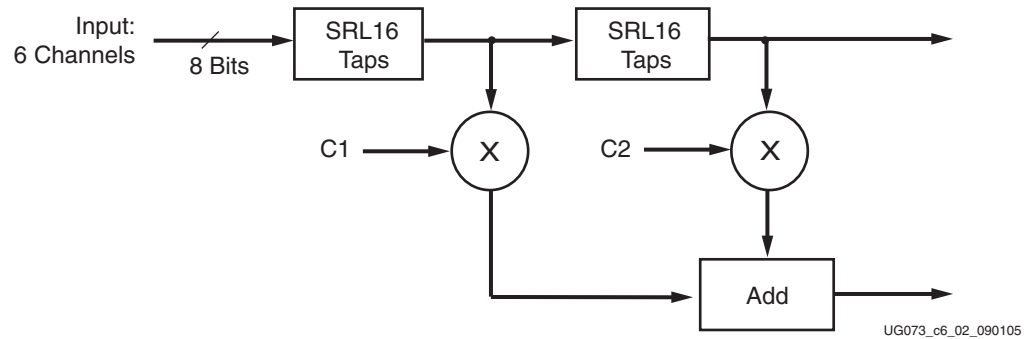to bring the product output from one tap into the cascading input of the next tap for the final addition.

Figure 6-2: **DSP48 Tile Cascading Diagram**

Combining Separate Input Streams into an Interleaved Stream

As shown in Figure 6-3, six separate video input sample streams must be combined into one interleaved sample stream for this multichannel FIR filter example. Conceptually, a high-speed, six-to-one multiplexer feeds a seven-deep SRL16E shift register to accomplish this task. The SRL16E depth is the number of channels plus one.
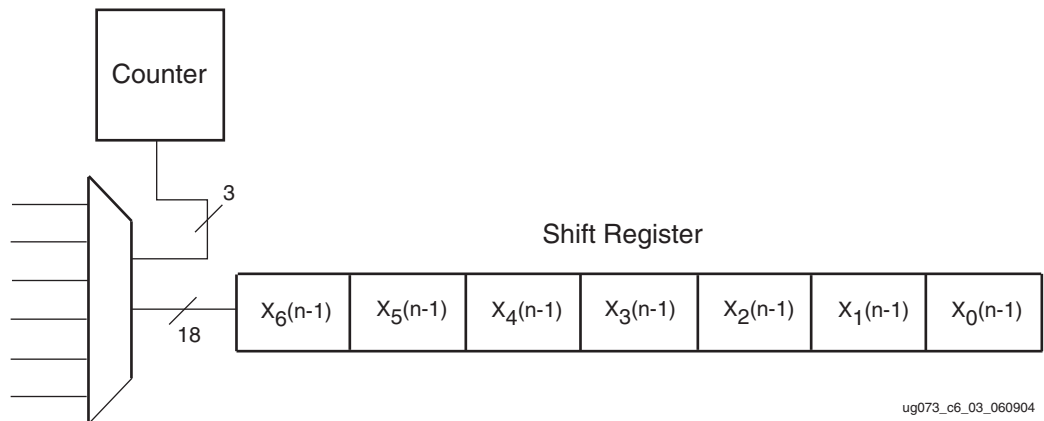

Figure 6-3: **Converting Eight Input Streams to One Interleaved Input Stream**

For each clock tick, the counter selects a different input stream (in order), and then it supplies this value to the SRL16E shift register. After six clock ticks, the six input samples for a given time period are loaded sequentially, or interleaved into a single stream.

A six-to-one multiplexer must be designed carefully, as it is constructed with slice logic that must run at the 6x clock rate. At 446 MHz, good design practices dictate point-to-point connections, a maximum of one Look-Up Table (LUT) between flip-flops, and RLOC techniques.

To reduce the high fanouts on the selected lines of the multiplexer, the conceptual multiplexer in Figure 6-3 is implemented as shown in Figure 6-4. This circuit is repeated for all eight bits of the input sample width.
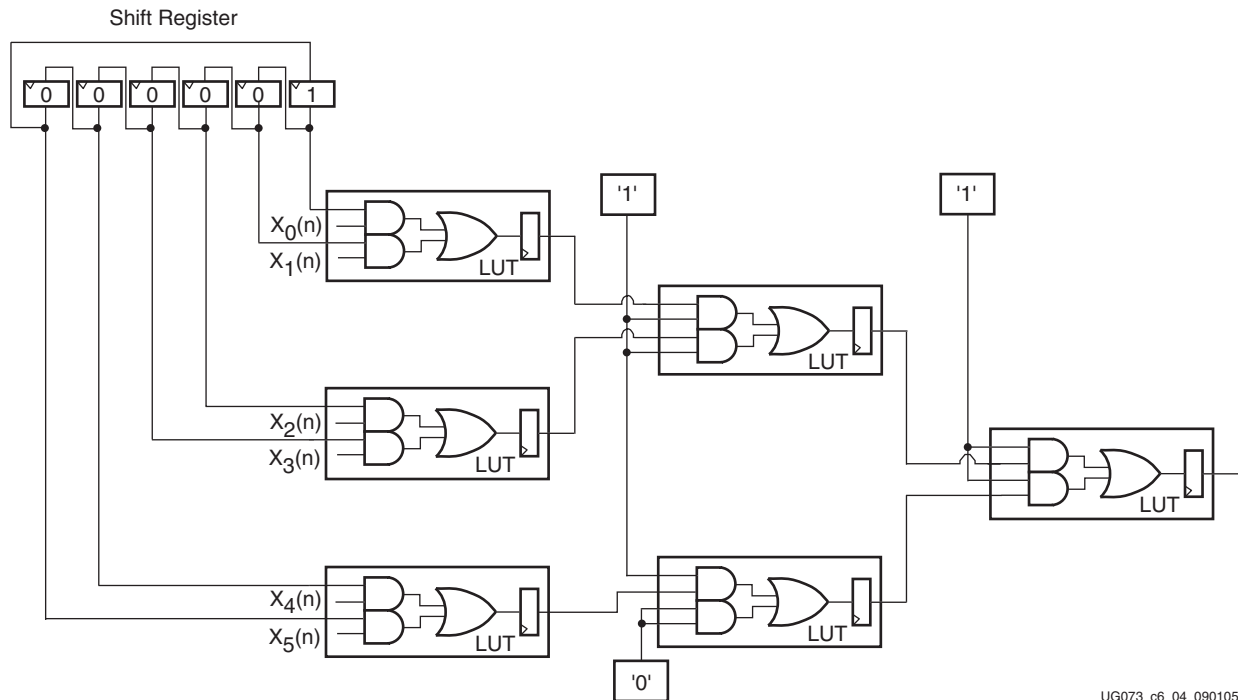
UG073_c6_04_090105

Figure 6-4: **High-Speed 8-to-1 Multiplexer Used in the Filter**

Coefficient RAM

The six coefficient sets are stored in the SRL16 memories. If the same coefficient set is used for all channels, then only a single set is stored in the SRL16. If the different channels use different coefficients, then six sets of SRL16s are used for each tap. (Six RAMs can be used instead, one for each channel.)

Each RAM is 8 bits wide and six deep, corresponding to the six taps. The optional Load input is used to change or load a new coefficient set. Six clock cycles are needed to load all six RAMs. Input C1 is used to load the eight locations of RAM1 that are used for Channel1. C8 is used to load the eight locations of RAM8 that are used for Channel8. At the eighth clock, all eight locations of the eight RAMs are loaded; the filter then becomes an adaptive filter. The speed of the overall filter is reduced when the coefficients are stored in the RAM.

Control Logic

The control logic is used to ensure proper functioning of the different blocks. If the coefficient RAM block is used, the control logic ensures that the load signal is High for six clocks. Different tap-enabled signals are used to make sure that RAM values are read into the DSP48 correctly. For instance, clock1 reads in the first location from RAM1, but the first location of RAM2 is read only at the clock number equal to shift register length. The design assumes a clock is running at 6x of the input signals. The DCM can also be used to multiply the clock if the only available clock is running at the input channel frequency.

The final output is enabled by the control logic after the initial latency.

Implementation Results

The initial latency of the design is equal to the [(number of channels + 1) * number of taps] plus three pipe stages within the DSP48. After placement and routing, the design uses 216 slices and eight DSP48 blocks. The design has a speed of 454 MHz.

Reference Design Files

The reference design files associated with this chapter, ug073_c06.zip, can be found at:
https://secure.xilinx.com/webreg/clickthrough.do?cid=30161

Conclusion

The available arithmetic functions within the DSP48 block, combined with fine granularity and high speed, makes the Virtex-4 FPGA an ideal device to implement high-speed, multichannel filter functions. The design shows the efficient implementation of a six-channel, eight-tap filter. Due to the high-performance capability within the DSP48 block, a single channel, eight-tap filter can be used to implement the six-channel, eight-tap filter, reducing the area utilization by 1/6th.

www.xilinx.com **XtremeDSP for Virtex-4 FPGAs**
UG073 (v2.7) May 15, 2008

Chapter 7

Multirate Filters Using the DSP48

Multirate filtering is used to change the rate or frequency of sampling of an input signal to an arbitrary rate or frequency at the output. Multirate filtering is widely used in video applications for interpolation or decimation of video data.

The DSP48 slice is ideally suited to implement multirate sampling because of its high speed and filter-like structure. The cascaded data input and output paths, pipeline registers, high precision two's complement multiplier followed by an adder/subtracter and accumulation capability provide needed elements for multirate filtering.

This chapter contains the following sections:

- "Introduction"
- "Interpolation Using the DSP48 Slice"
- "Decimation Using the DSP48 Slice"

Introduction

Digital video applications require an enormous amount of bandwidth. Storing a short clip of video can often lead to hard-disk space limitations, and transmitting a short clip of video can lead to transmission media bandwidth limitations. In some of these applications, multirate filtering is used to reduce the sample rate and the number of pixels needed to represent the image. This process is called decimation. Applications for decimation include 4:4:4 to 4:2:2 conversion and High-Definition TV (HDTV) to Standard-Definition TV (SDTV) conversion.

Other applications, such as medical imaging, require the user to represent the image in as much detail as possible, similar to zooming on a picture. Here, filtering is used to increase the sampling rate so that the image is represented by a larger number of pixels than are normally used. This process is called interpolation. Applications for interpolation include SDTV to HDTV signal conversion.

Another use of the multirate DSP technique is to increase computational efficiency. Changing from a single-rate filter to a multirate filter can reduce the number of multiply and accumulate operations needed to implement a particular algorithm. Here, decimation is first used to lower the system rate. Then the particular algorithm is implemented on this lower rate signal, and the algorithm output is interpolated to bring the sample rate back to the original rate.

The process of using interpolation and decimation to resize an image is called scaling. Scaling of a video image involves a two-dimensional array. Two 1-D samples can be applied in series to achieve a 2-D sampling change. In the example shown in Figure 7-1, an interpolator and a decimator are used together to achieve the desired final image scaling.
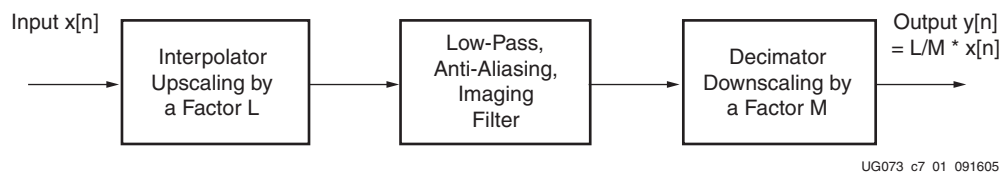
UG073_c7_01_091605

Figure 7-1: **Image Rescaling Using Interpolation Followed By Decimation**

Nyquist Theorem

The Nyquist theorem states that when an analog waveform is digitized, samples must be recorded at greater than twice the highest frequency component in the waveform. Stated differently, to reconstruct (interpolate) a signal from a sequence of samples, enough samples must be recorded to capture the peaks and troughs of the original waveform.

When a waveform is sampled at less than twice its highest frequency component, the reconstructed waveform effectively only contributes noise. This phenomenon called "aliasing" (the high frequencies are *under an alias*) is the reason that the best digital audio is sampled at 44,000 Hz – twice the average upper limit of human hearing.

Interpolation and Decimation

Interpolation or upsampling is the process of representing a signal with more samples. Decimation or downsampling is the process of representing a signal with less samples.

Conceptually, interpolation is implemented by inserting zeros between samples as shown in Figure 7-2. To get a 1: L interpolator, L-1 zeros are inserted between every sample. A filter is used to replace the zero values with the appropriate non-zero values.
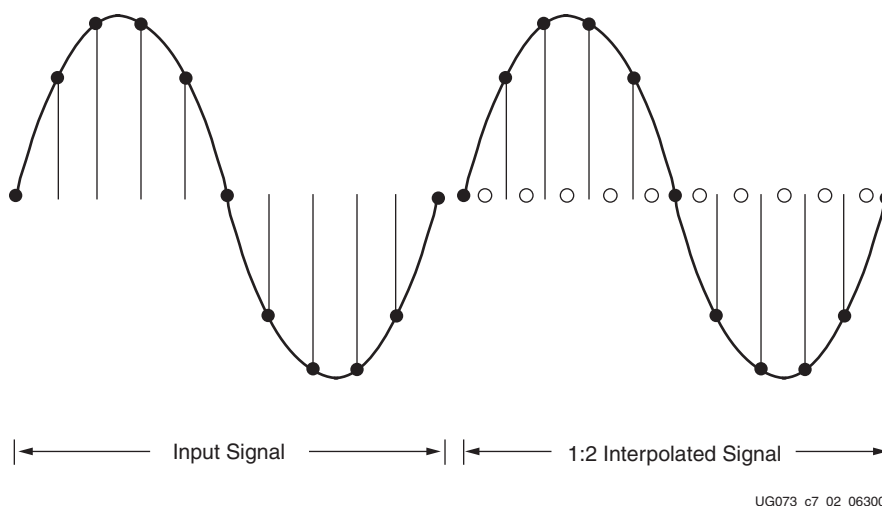

UG073_c7_02_063004

Figure 7-2: **Input Signal vs. 1:2 Interpolated Signal**

The equation for a 1:L interpolator is given in Equation 7-1. In a 1:L interpolator, the output data rate is L times the input data rate. L is also called the interpolation factor.

www.xilinx.com

XtremeDSP for Virtex-4 FPGAs
UG073 (v2.7) May 15, 2008

$$y_{out}[n] = x[n/L] = \sum_{k=-\alpha}^{\alpha} h[n - kL] \bullet x[k] \qquad \textit{Equation 7-1}$$

Where n = 0, ±L, ±2L, and so forth.

Interpolation can be done in multiple stages. For example, to achieve interpolation by a factor of 15, two interpolation stages can be used, where the first stage interpolates by a factor of three and the second stage interpolates by a factor of five. The computational and memory requirements of interpolation are both reduced by multistage interpolation.

Decimation is implemented by keeping every Mth sample and throwing away the samples in between, as shown in Figure 7-3. If a signal is defined by n samples, to achieve M:1 decimation, you throw away M-1 samples after every sample that you keep. In an M:1 interpolator, the output data rate is 1/M times the input data rate, and M is the decimation factor.

Input Signal | 2:1 Decimated Signal
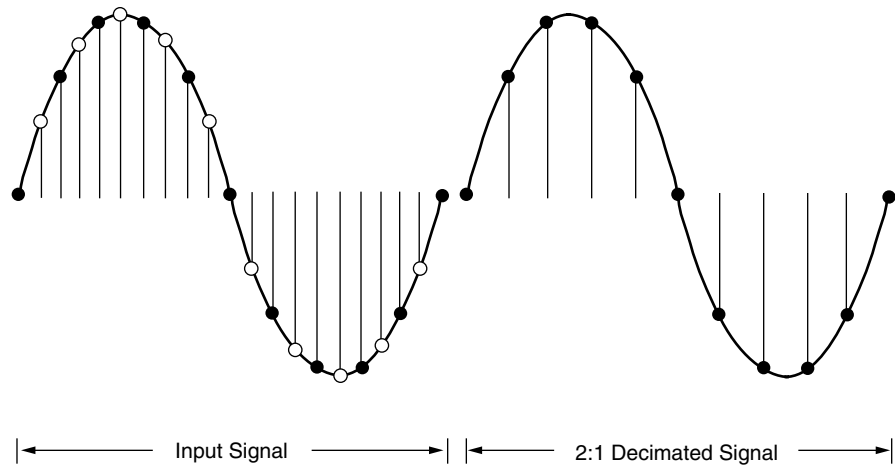
UG073_c7_03_063004

Figure 7-3: **Input Signal vs. 2:1 Decimated Input Signal**

The equation for an M:1 interpolator is shown in Equation 7-2.

$$y_{out} = x[nM] = \sum_{k=-\alpha}^{\alpha} h[k] \bullet x[nM - k] \qquad \textit{Equation 7-2}$$

Where M is a positive integer.

When samples are thrown away, the resulting sampling rate can fall less than twice the frequency of the input signal. Then the output signal is taken at a rate below the Nyquist rate and is not a true representation of the original input signal. Nyquist criterion should be observed on the output signal after decimation.

Spectral Imaging

Spectral imaging is the appearance of copies of the original spectrum for the signal within the system bandwidth. Usually, a signal has spectral images that are repeated at multiples of the sampling frequency (F_s). The system bandwidth is equal to F_s or $F_s/2$ on either side

(see Figure 7-4). The first image is centered at F_s (or $-F_s$), which is outside the bandwidth of $F_s/2$. Therefore, all the images are outside the signal bandwidth.
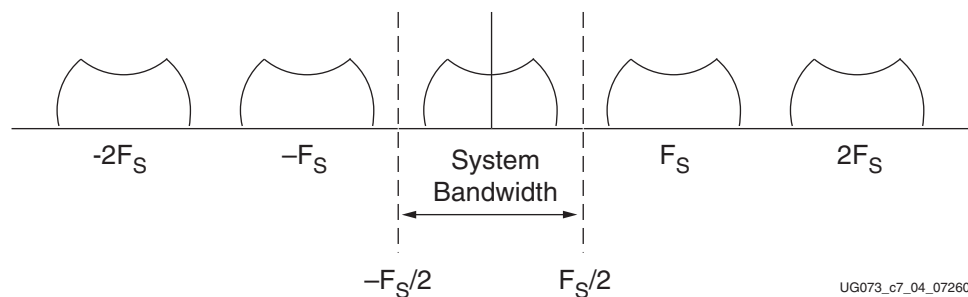
Figure 7-4: **System Bandwidth**

When the sampling rate of the system is increased by an interpolation factor of L (where L is an integer greater than 1), the system bandwidth is increased by LFs or LFs/2 on either side. In this case (see Figure 7-5), the first image that is centered at Fs falls within the system bandwidth. These spectral images that fall within the system bandwidth should be eliminated using a low-pass filter after interpolation.
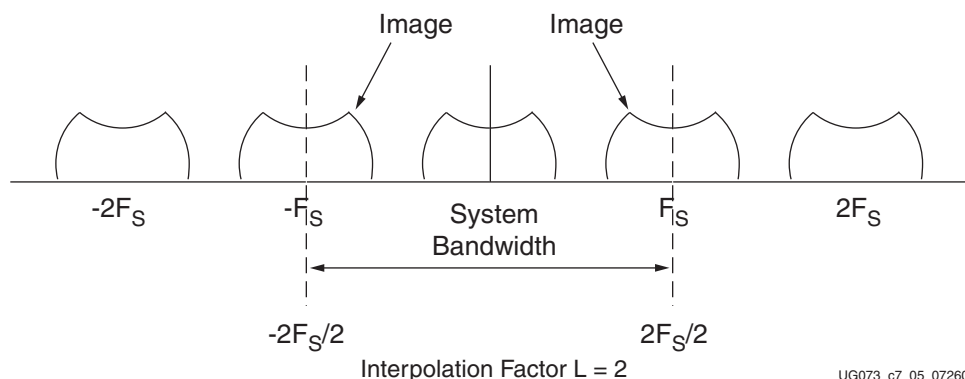
Figure 7-5: **Interpolation Effect on System Bandwidth**

Aliasing

Aliasing can be described as the appearance of a higher frequency signal (B) that has the same sample values as the original signal (A) at the sampled points, as shown in Figure 7-6. An anti-aliasing filter is used before decimation to avoid aliasing. The sample values for the sinusoid signal A with the frequency ω_0, and the values for sinusoid signal B with the frequency $\omega_0 + 2 * 2\pi/Ts$ are the same at the different sampling points. The resultant sampled waveform for both the signals are identical, and the two signals are indistinguishable. Here, one signal is said to be an alias of the other. Aliasing of signal A can appear when another signal of frequency $\omega_0 + k2\pi/Ts$ is present.
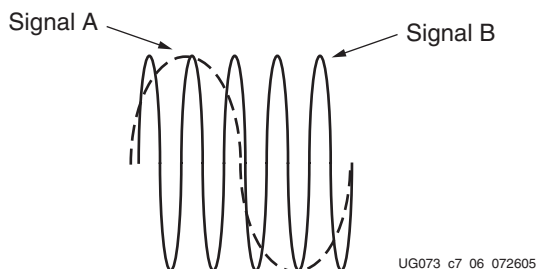
Figure 7-6: **Aliasing Between Two Frequencies**

When the sample rate is reduced by decimation, there can be an aliasing frequency created that was not present in the original higher frequency signal. As a result of this aliasing, an image can look blurred. In this case, a low-pass, anti-aliasing filter is used before decimation. This low-pass filter eliminates all frequencies above the signal frequency to avoid aliasing.

Another way to look at aliasing is that a critically sampled signal, when downsampled, does not maintain the Nyquist rate and, therefore, is not a true representation of the original signal. The original signal is passed through a low-pass filter so that only those frequencies that still hold the Nyquist criterion are present at the new downsampled rate.

Interpolation Using the DSP48 Slice

The section describes the implementation of a 1:4 interpolator using the DSP48 slice. In a 1:4 interpolator, three zeros are inserted between every sample at the input. Consider a stream of samples T(n-4) to T(n) to T(n+4) in the input signal. The output for this stream is shown in Figure 7-7.
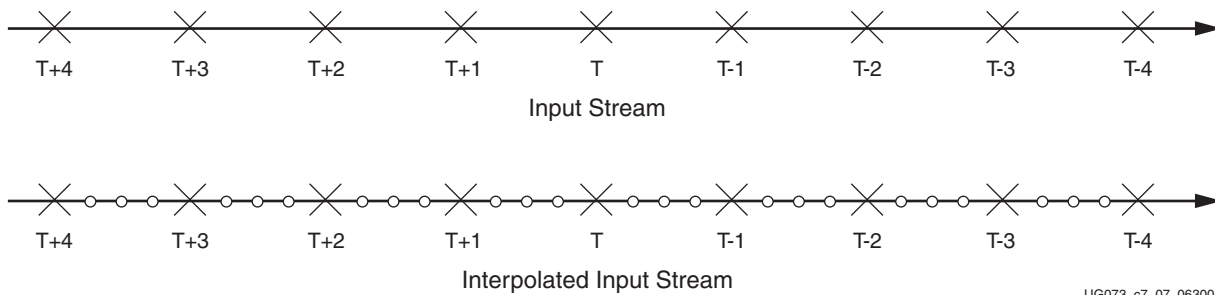
Figure 7-7: **Original vs. Interpolated Input Streams**

The zero values are converted into the appropriate non-zero values by the interpolation filter in the DSP48 block. The number of taps chosen is usually a multiple of the interpolation factor. The number of taps used in the interpolator in this example is 16. Each of the four output samples uses four taps or four different input samples to get the corresponding output sample. If 12 taps are used, only three input samples are used to calculate each of the four output samples.

Block Diagram

Figure 7-8 is a block diagram of a 1:4 interpolator. This design uses a 16-tap filter with an interpolation factor of 4.

UG073_c7_08_091605

Figure 7-8: **16-Tap 1:4 Interpolation Filter**

The inputs are multiplied by the 16 coefficients and summed to produce the output. Table 7-1 shows that an output is taken every clock. The output is the sum of the 16 coefficients,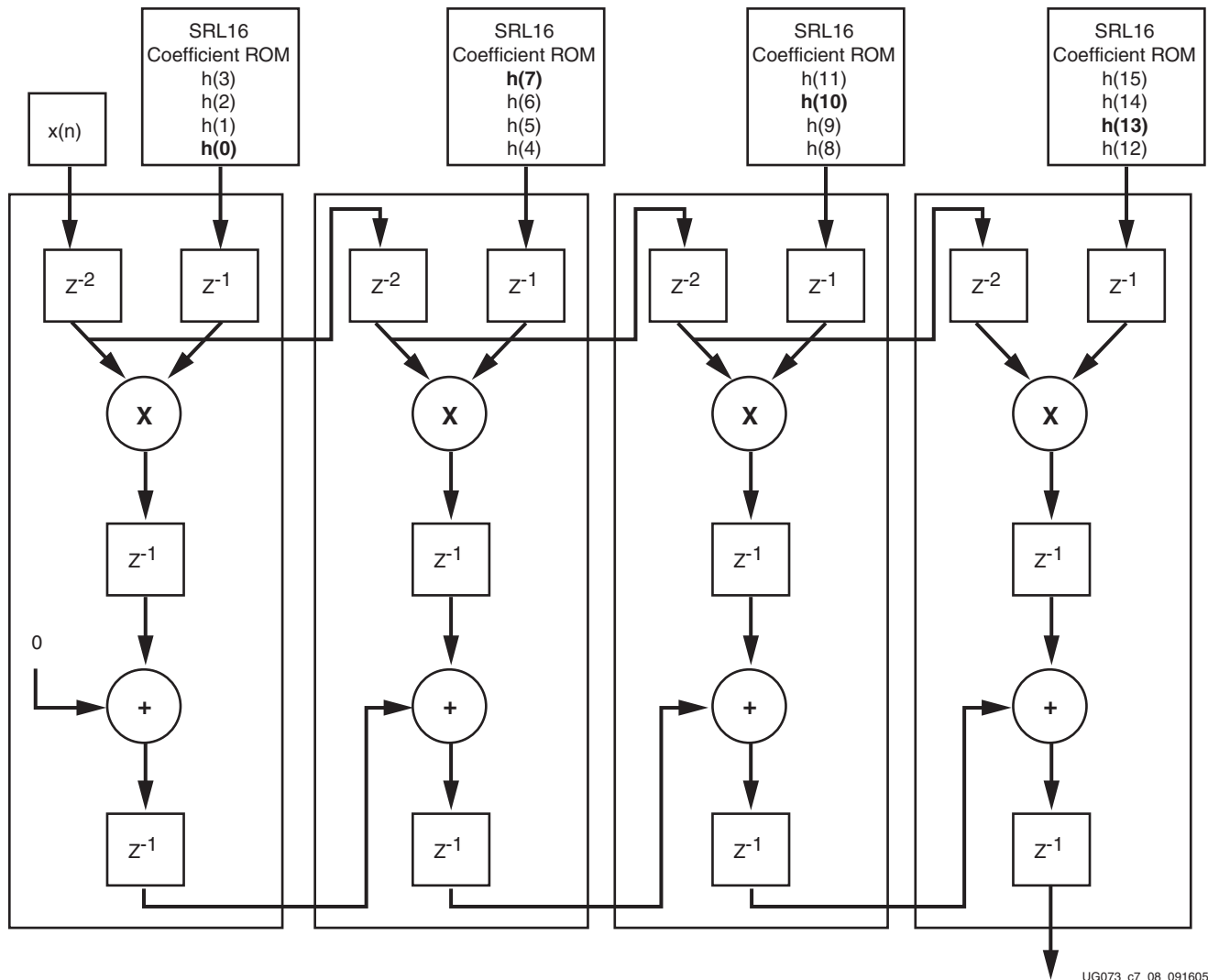 (h0) to (h15), multiplied by the corresponding input signals. Of the 16 samples that contribute toward y_0, 12 have an input sample value of zero. Multiplying with zero does not contribute towards the final output y_0 but uses resources and clock cycles. To eliminate this waste, the 1:4 16-tap interpolator is implemented using four polyphase filters. The four multiplications needed for each output are done in parallel using the four polyphase filters. The total number of multipliers used is reduced from 16 to 4.

As shown in Table 7-1, output y_0 is obtained when the input x(1) pipe stage is matched with the coefficient h_0. The next three clock cycles give the outputs y_1 to y_3 that correspond to the input x(1) matching coefficients h_1 to h_3 in time. These outputs can be written as follows:

$$y_0 = x(n)h_0 + x(n - 1)h_4 + x(n - 2)h_8 + x(n - 3)h_{12}$$

$$y_1 = x(n)h_1 + x(n - 1)h_5 + x(n - 2)h_9 + x(n - 3)h_{13}$$

$$y_2 = x(n)h_2 + x(n - 1)h_6 + x(n - 2)h_{10} + x(n - 3)h_{14}$$

$$y_3 = x(n)h_3 + x(n - 1)h_7 + x(n - 2)h_{11} + x(n - 3)h_{15}$$

During the clock when x(1) matches the coefficient h4, a new input is matched with coefficient h_0. After an initial latency, one output sample is obtained at every clock.

Table 7-1: **Interpolator Input Signal and Corresponding Coefficients**

|	h0	h1	h2	h3	h4	h5	h6	h7	h8	h9	h10	h11	h12	h13	h14	h15
clk1	x1	0	0	0	x2	0	0	0	x3	0	0	0	x4	0	0	0
2		x1	0	0	0	x2	0	0	0	x3	0	0	0	x4	0	0
3			x1	0	0	0	x2	0	0	0	x3	0	0	0	x4	0
4				x1	0	0	0	x2	0	0	0	x3	0	0	0	x4
5					x1	0	0	0	x2	0	0	0	x3	0	0	0
6						x1	0	0	0	x2	0	0	0	x3	0	0
7							x1	0	0	0	x2	0	0	0	x3	0
8								x1	0	0	0	x2	0	0	0	x3
9									x1	0	0	0	x2	0	0	0

The four terms in the equation for y_0 are calculated in four consecutive clock cycles. At each clock, the previous term is added to the current term being calculated. This gives a total of five clocks of latency to get the first output y_0. The coefficients are arranged such that after the first four clock cycles, all four coefficients (h_0 to h_3) are multiplied by input x(n). That is, input x(n) is held at the first DSP48 slice for four clock cycles before it is shifted to the next DSP48 slice.

The other three DSP slices each use these four clock cycles to multiply their corresponding input samples by the four incoming coefficients. After four clocks, a new input value x(n+1) is read in at the first DSP48 slice, and the other three DSP slices shift in the input sample from the previous DSP slice.

The control logic ensures that each DSP slice shifts in new data every four clocks in a staggered manner. Each DSP slice retains an input value for four clocks. The clock enable inputs on the B cascade registers for each slice are used to shift in a new value every four clocks. The control logic is also used to clock in the four coefficients in a cyclic order.

Decimation Using the DSP48 Slice

This section describes the implementation of a 4:1 decimator using the DSP48 slice. In a 4:1 decimator, every fourth input sample value is retained, and the three sample values in between are ignored. Consider a stream of samples T(n-4) to T(n) to T(n+4) in the input signal. The output for this stream is shown in Figure 7-9.
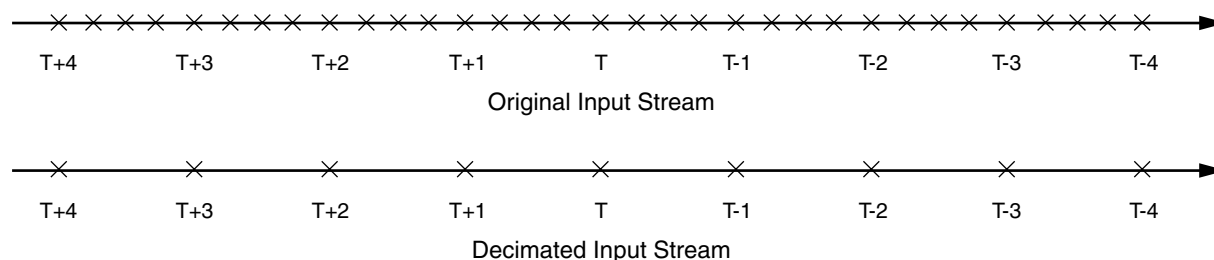
Figure 7-9: **Original vs. Decimated Input Stream**

Block Diagram

Table 7-2 shows the input stream shifting through the taps in a 4:1 decimator and the time at which outputs are valid. An output is taken at every fourth clock. The output is the sum of the 16 coefficients multiplied by the corresponding input signals.

Table 7-2: **Decimator Input Signal and Corresponding Coefficients**

	out1				out2				out3				out4			
	↑				↑				↑				↑			
coefficient	h0	h1	h2	h3	h4	h5	h6	h7	h8	h9	h10	h11	h12	h13	h14	h15
clock1	x1	x2	x3	x4	x5	x6	x7	x8	x9	x10	x11	x12	x13	x14	x15	x16
clock2		x1	x2	x3	x4	x5	x6	x7	x8	x9	x10	x11	x12	x13	x14	x15
clock3			x1	x2	x3	x4	x5	x6	x7	x8	x9	x10	x11	x12	x13	x14
clock4				x1	x2	x3	x4	x5	x6	x7	x8	x9	x10	x11	x12	x13
clock5					x1	x2	x3	x4	x5	x6	x7	x8	x9	x10	x11	x12
clock6						x1	x2	x3	x4	x5	x6	x7	x8	x9	x10	x11
clock7							x1	x2	x3	x4	x5	x6	x7	x8	x9	x10
clock8								x1	x2	x3	x4	x5	x6	x7	x8	x9
clock9									x1	x2	x3	x4	x5	x6	x7	x8

inputs

Looking at the input *x1* in Table 7-2, outputs are valid whenever x1 is multiplied with coefficients h_0, h_4, h_8, h_{12}, and h_{16}. Though x1 gets multiplied by the remaining coefficients, the outputs at those clocks are ignored. Implementing these multiplies in hardware is a waste of resources. In the polyphase decimation filter, input and coefficients are arranged such that an input is only multiplied with a valid coefficient, that is, the coefficient when

the output is valid. For the first M+1 inputs, the coefficients used to multiply each input is as shown in Figure 7-10.
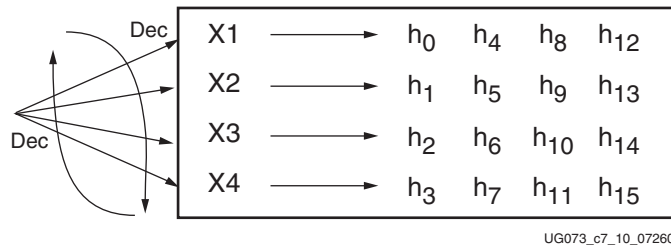

Figure 7-10: **Input and Corresponding Coefficients for a 4:1 Decimator**

The input signals to each polyphase filter are delayed by (M+1) clocks from the previous filter. Shift registers are used to achieve this delay, as shown in Figure 7-11. The coefficient inputs to each of the filters are arranged such that each filter rotates through four different coefficients.
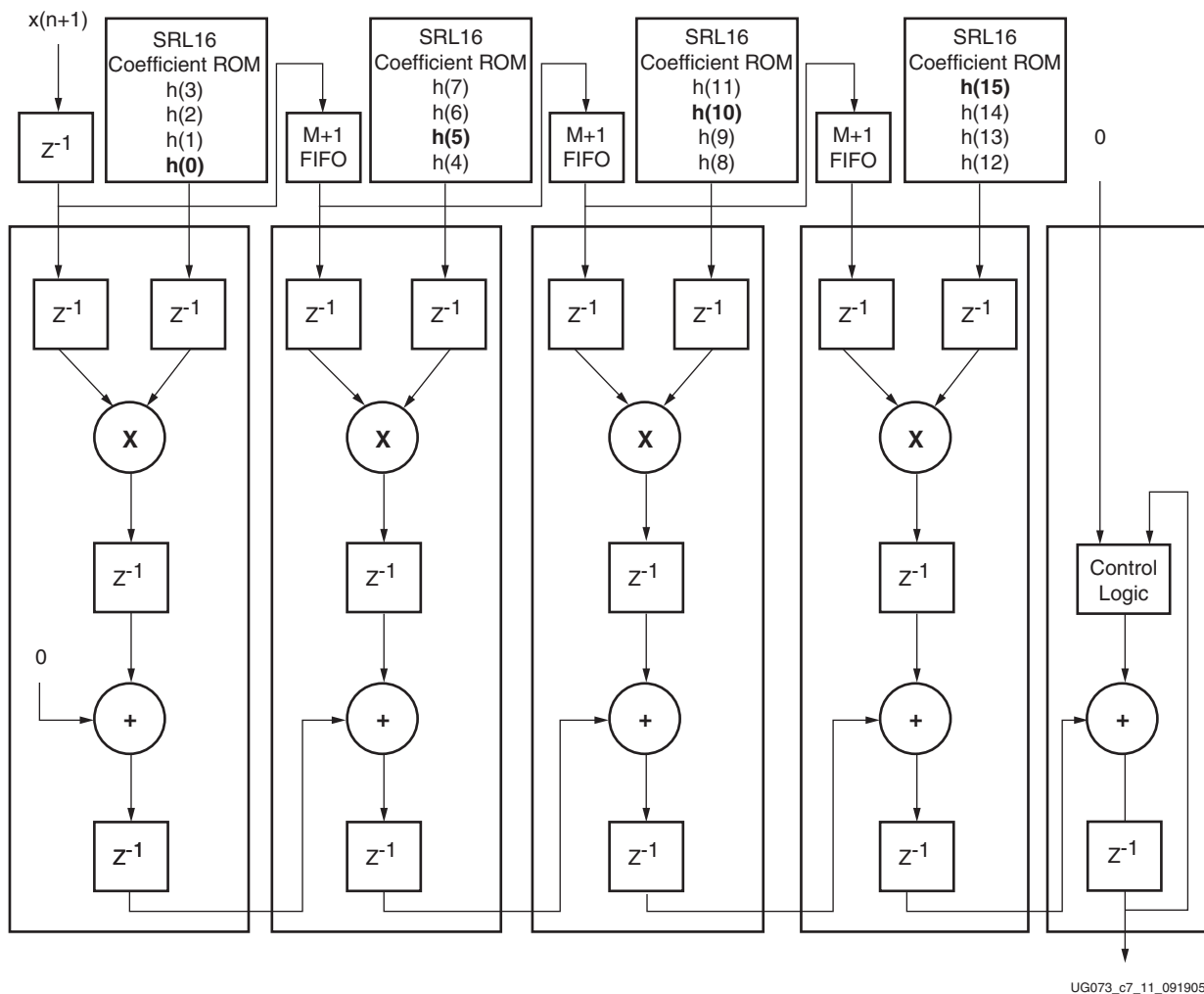

Figure 7-11: **16-tap 4:1 Decimation Filter**

www.BDTIC.com/XILINX
www.xilinx.com

The decimator creates one output value for every four input values. The design uses a 16-tap filter to do the interpolation. Four parallel polyphase filters are used to implement the 16 taps of the filter. The output value is a weighted function of the 16 input values.

After an initial latency, a four-tap filter output is obtained at the fourth polyphase filter. This output is added in a final accumulation block. The accumulation block is in accumulation mode for four clock cycles after the initial latency. Each clock cycle gives a four-tap result, and at the end of the fourth clock, the accumulation block has a 16-tap result. After this, the accumulation block goes into an addition mode where the feedback path receives an input of 0.

The 4-bit barrel shifter is used to enable the accumulation block into an "add mode" every fourth clock cycle.

Implementation Results

A 1:4 interpolator can be implemented in four DSP slices at an output frequency of over 450 MHz. This design uses four DSP48 slices in the Virtex®-4 device. The interpolator can also be implemented using one DSP48 slice if a higher clock latency or slower clock is sufficient.

The decimator can be implemented in four DSP slices at an output frequency of over 450 MHz. The design uses five DSP48 slices in the Virtex-4 device. The decimator can also be created in a single DSP48 slice if a higher clock latency or slower clock is sufficient.

The implementation results for the interpolator and decimator are shown in Table 7-3.

Table 7-3: **Implementation Results for Interpolator and Decimator**

		Speed in MHz	Utilization	Power in mW using XPower
1:4, 16 Tap Interpolator	XC4VLX15 -11 sf363	450 (2.2 ns)	61 slices, 4 DSP48	205
	XC2VP2 -7 fg456	110.49 (7 ns)	339 slices, 12 mults	590
	XC2V250 -6 fg456	99.49 (8 ns)	339 slices, 12 mults	449
4:1, 16 Tap Decimator	XC4VLX15 -11 sf363	450 (2.2 ns)	228 slices, 5 DSP48	136
	XC2VP2 -7 fg456	116.84 (7 ns)	467 slices, 12 mults	682
	XC2V250 -6 fg456	98.2 (8 ns)	466 slices, 12 mults	454

Reference Design Files

The reference design files associated with this chapter, ug073_c07.zip, can be found at: https://secure.xilinx.com/webreg/clickthrough.do?cid=30162

`PolyIntrpFilter.zip` and `PolyDecFilter.zip,` included in the reference design files, provide examples of portable, parameterized, design, and simulation VHDL files that infer DSP48 slices when creating Polyphase Interpolating/Decimating FIR filters in Virtex-4 devices. The number of filter taps, interpolation/decimation factors, and data bit widths are parameterizable. Synplify 8.1 was used to synthesize this portable, RTL VHDL code with generics for parameterization.

Conclusion

The multirate filtering technique is extensively used in DSP functions. A common application of multirate filtering is in video scaling. The availability of cascaded path, shift registers, multiplier, and accumulator in the DSP blocks of Virtex-4 devices, combined with the high performance, helps in implementing multirate functions very effectively.

Note: Xilinx ISE 6.3i was used to implement these designs.

References

1. "A Digital Signal Processing Primer" by Ken Steiglitz, ISBN: 0-8053-1684-1.
2. "Digital Video and HDTV Algorithms and Interfaces" by Charles Poynton, ISBN: 1-55860-792-7.
3. "DSP Primer" by C. Britton Rorabaugh, ISBN: 0-07-054004-7.
4. Xilinx, Inc., *Virtex-4 User Guide*

www.BDTIC.com/XILINX