

Optimizing The Gate Level Area In Digit Serial FIR Filter Design With An MCM Blocks

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Abstract

The last two decades have seen many efficient algorithms and architectures for the design of low-complexity bit-parallel Multiple Constant Multiplications (MCM) operation, which dominates the complexity of Digital Signal Processing (DSP) systems. On the other hand, digit-serial architectures offer alternative low-complexity designs, since digit-serial operators occupy less area and are independent of the data wordlength. This paper introduces the problem of designing a digit-serial MCM operation with minimal area at gate-level and presents the exact formalization of the area optimization problem as a 0-1 Integer Linear Programming (ILP) problem and introduces high level synthesis algorithms, design architectures, and a computer aided design tool. Results and Discussion show the efficiency of the proposed optimization algorithms and of the digit-serial MCM architectures in the design of digit serial MCM operations and finite impulse response filters.

Keywords— 0-1 Integer linear programming (ILP), digit-serial arithmetic, finite impulse response (FIR) filters, gate level area optimization, multiple constant multiplications.

I. INTRODUCTION

Finite impulse response (FIR) filters are of great importance in digital signal processing (DSP) systems since their characteristics in linear-phase and feed-forward implementations make them very useful for building stable high-performance filters. The direct and transposed-form FIR filter implementations are illustrated in Fig. 1(a) and (b), respectively. Although both architectures have similar complexity in hardware, the transposed form is generally preferred because of its higher performance and power efficiency [2].

The multiplier block of the digital FIR filter in its transposed form [Fig. 1(b)], where the multiplication of filter coefficients with the filter input is realized, has significant impact on the complexity and performance of the design because a large number of constant multiplications are required. This is generally known as the multiple constant multiplications (MCM) operation and is also a central operation and performance bottleneck in many other DSP systems such as fast Fourier transforms, discrete cosine transforms (DCTs), and error-correcting codes.

Although area-, delay-, and power-efficient multiplier architectures, such as Wallace [3] and modified Booth multipliers, have been proposed, the full flexibility of a multiplier is not necessary for the constant multiplications, since filter coefficients are fixed and determined beforehand by the DSP algorithms. Hence, the multiplication of filter

coefficients with the input data is generally implemented under a shift-adds architecture, where

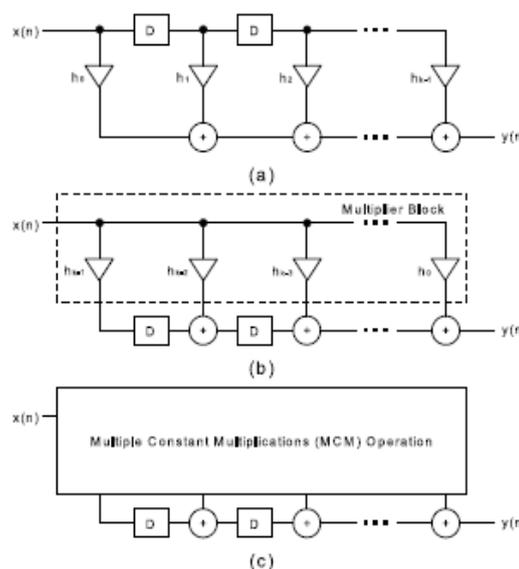


Fig. 1. FIR filter implementations. (a) Direct form. (b) Transposed form with generic multipliers. (c) Transposed form with an MCM block.

each constant multiplication is realized using addition/subtraction and shift operations in an MCM operation [Fig. 1(c)].

For the shift-adds implementation of constant multiplications, a straightforward method, generally known as digit-based recoding, initially

defines the constants in binary. Then, for each “1” in the binary representation of the constant, according to its bit position, it shifts the variable and adds up the shifted variables to obtain the result.

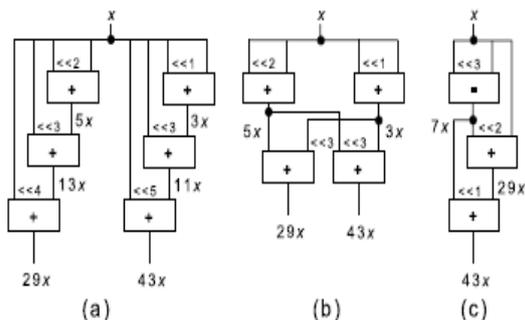


Fig. 2. Shift-adds implementations of $29x$ and $43x$. (a) Without partial product sharing and with partial product sharing. (b) Exact CSE algorithm [6]. (c) Exact GB algorithm [9].

As a simple example, consider the constant multiplications $29x$ and $43x$. Their decompositions in binary are listed as follows:

$$29x = (11101)_{\text{bin}}x = x \ll 4 + x \ll 3 + x \ll 2 + x$$

$$43x = (101011)_{\text{bin}}x = x \ll 5 + x \ll 3 + x \ll 1 + x$$

Which requires six addition operations as illustrated in Fig. 2(a).

However, the digit-based recoding technique does not exploit the sharing of common partial products, which allows great reductions in the number of operations and, consequently, in area and power dissipation of the MCM design at the gate level. Hence, the fundamental optimization problem, called the MCM problem, is defined as finding the minimum number of addition and subtraction operations that implement the constant multiplications. Note that, in bit-parallel design of constant multiplications, shifts can be realized using only wires in hardware without representing any area cost.

The algorithms designed for the MCM problem can be categorized in two classes: common subexpression elimination (CSE) algorithms [4]–[6] and graph-based (GB) techniques [7]–[9]. The CSE algorithms initially extract all possible subexpressions from the representations of the constants when they are defined under binary, canonical signed digit (CSD) [4], or minimal signed digit (MSD) [5]. Then, they find the “best” subexpression, generally the most common, to be shared among the constant multiplications. The GB methods are not limited to any particular number representation and consider a larger number of alternative implementations of a constant, yielding better solutions than the CSE algorithms, as shown in [8] and [9].

Returning to our example in Fig. 2, the exact CSE algorithm of [6] gives a solution with four operations by finding the most common partial products $3x = (11)_{\text{bin}}x$ and $5x = (101)_{\text{bin}}x$ when constants are defined under binary, as illustrated in Fig. 2(b). On the other hand, the exact GB algorithm [9] finds a solution with the minimum number of operations by sharing the common partial product $7x$ in both multiplications, as shown in Fig. 2(c). Note that the partial product $7x = (111)_{\text{bin}}x$ cannot be extracted from the binary representation of $43x$ in the exact CSE algorithm [6].

However, all these algorithms assume that the input data x is processed in parallel. On the other hand, in digit-serial arithmetic, the data words are divided into digit sets, consisting of d bits that are processed one at a time. Since digit-serial operators occupy less area and are independent of the data word length, digit-serial architectures offer alternative low-complexity designs when compared to bit-parallel architectures. However, the shifts require the use of D flip-flops, as opposed to the bit-parallel MCM design where they are free in terms of hardware. Hence, the high-level algorithms should take into account the sharing of shift operations as well as the sharing of addition/subtraction operations in digit-serial MCM design. Furthermore, finding the minimum number of operations realizing an MCM operation does not always yield an MCM design with optimal area at the gate level [10]. Hence, the high-level algorithms should consider the implementation cost of each digit-serial operation at the gate level.

In this paper, we initially determine the gate-level implementation costs of digit-serial addition, subtraction and left shift operations used in the shift-adds design of digit-serial MCM operations. Then, we introduce the exact CSE algorithm [11] that formalizes the gate-level area optimization problem as a 0–1 integer linear programming (ILP) problem when constants are defined under a particular number representation. We also present a new optimization model that reduces the 0–1 ILP problem size significantly and, consequently, the runtime of a generic 0–1 ILP solver. Since there are still instances which the exact CSE algorithm cannot handle, we describe the approximate GB algorithm [12] that iteratively finds the “best” partial product which leads to the optimal area in digit-serial MCM design at the gate level. This paper also introduces a computer-aided design (CAD) tool which generates the hardware descriptions of digit-serial MCM operations and FIR filters based on design architecture and implements these circuits using a commercial logic synthesis tool. The digit-serial constant multiplications can be implemented under the shift-adds architecture, and

also can be designed using generic digit-serial constant multipliers.

Results on a comprehensive set of instances show that the solutions of algorithms introduced in this paper lead to significant improvements in area of digit-serial MCM designs compared to those obtained using the algorithms designed for the MCM problem. The digit-serial FIR filter designs obtained by CAD tool also indicate that the realization of the multiplier block of a digit-serial FIR filter under the shift-adds architecture significantly reduces the area of digit-serial FIR filters with respect to those designed using digit-serial constant multipliers. Additionally, it is observed that the optimal tradeoff between area and delay in digit-serial FIR filter designs can be explored by changing the digit size d .

II. BACKGROUND

This section presents the main concepts related to the proposed algorithms, introduces the problem definitions, and gives an overview on previously proposed algorithms.

A. Number Representation

The binary representation decomposes a number in a set of additions of powers of 2. The representation of numbers using a signed digit system makes use of positive and negative digits, $\{1, 0, -1\}$. The CSD representation is a signed digit system that has a unique representation for each number and verifies the following main properties:

- 1) two nonzero digits are not adjacent
- 2) the number of nonzero digits is minimum.

Any n digit number in CSD has at most $\lceil (n+1)/2 \rceil$ nonzero digits and, on average, the number of nonzero digits is reduced by 33% when compared to binary. The MSD representation [5] is obtained by dropping the first property of the CSD representation. Thus, a constant may have several representations under MSD, including its CSD representation, but all with a minimum number of nonzero digits.

Consider the constant 23 defined in six bits. Its binary representation 010111 includes four nonzero digits. It is represented as $10\bar{1}00\bar{1}$ in CSD, and both $10\bar{1}00\bar{1}$ and $01100\bar{1}$ denote 23 in MSD using three nonzero digits (where $\bar{1}$ stands for -1).

B. Boolean Satisfiability

A Boolean function $\phi: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ can be denoted by a *propositional formula*. The *conjunctive normal form* (CNF) is a representation of a propositional formula consisting of a conjunction of propositional clauses where each clause is a disjunction of literals and a *literal* l_j is either a variable x_j or its complement \bar{x}_j . Note

that, if a literal of a clause assumes value 1, then the clause is satisfied. If all literals of a clause assume the value 0, then the clause is unsatisfied. The *satisfiability (SAT) problem* is to find an assignment on n variables of the Boolean formula in CNF that evaluates the formula to 1, or to prove that the formula is equal to the constant 0.

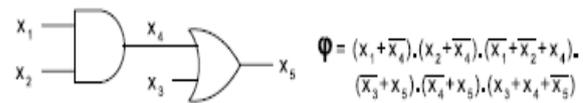


Fig. 3. Combinational circuit and its corresponding CNF formula.

A combinational circuit is a directed acyclic graph with nodes corresponding to logic gates and directed edges corresponding to wires connecting the gates. Incoming edges of a node are called fanins and outgoing edges are called fanouts. The primary inputs of the network are the nodes without fanins. The primary outputs are the nodes without fanouts.

The CNF formula of a combinational circuit is the conjunction of the CNF formulas of each gate, where the CNF formula of each gate denotes the valid input-output assignments to the gate. The derivation of CNF formulas of basic logic gates can be found in [13]. As a simple example, consider the combinational circuit and its CNF formula given in Fig. 3. In this Boolean formula, the first three clauses represent the CNF formula of a two-input AND gate, and the last three clauses denote the CNF formula of a two-input OR gate. Observe from Fig. 3 that the assignment $x_1 = x_3 = x_4 = x_5 = 0$ and $x_2 = 1$ makes the formula ϕ equal to 1, indicating a valid assignment. However, the assignment $x_1 = x_3 = x_4 = 0$ and $x_2 = x_5 = 1$ makes the last clause of the formula equal to 0 and, consequently, the formula ϕ , indicating a conflict between the values of the inputs and output of the OR gate.

C. 0-1 ILP

The 0-1 ILP problem is the minimization or the maximization of a linear cost function subject to a set of linear constraints and is generally defined as follows:

$$\text{Minimize } \mathbf{w}^T \cdot \mathbf{x} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{s.t. } \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{x} \in \{0, 1\}^n. \quad (2)$$

In (1), w_j in \mathbf{w} is an integer value associated with each of n variables x_j , $1 \leq j \leq n$, in the cost function, and in (2), $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{b}$ denotes the set of m linear constraints, where $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{Z}^m$ and $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}^m \times \mathbb{Z}^n$.

A clause $l_1 + \dots + l_k$, where $k \leq n$, to be satisfied in a CNF formula can be interpreted as a linear inequality $l_1 + \dots + l_k \geq 1$, where x_j is

represented by $1-x_j$, as shown in [14]. These linear inequalities are commonly referred to as CNF constraints, where $a_{ij} \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$ and b_i is equal to 1 minus the total number of complemented variables in its CNF formula. For instance, the set of clauses, $(x_1 + x_2)$, $(x_2 + x_3)$, and $(x_1 + x_3)$, has the equivalent linear inequalities given as $x_1 + x_2 \geq 1$, $-x_2 + x_3 \geq 0$, and $-x_1 - x_3 \geq -1$, respectively.

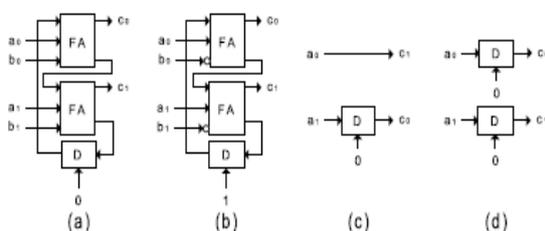


Fig. 4. Digit-serial operations when d is equal to 2.

- (a) Addition operation. (b) Subtraction operation.
- (c) Left shift by one time. (d) Left shift by two times.

D. Digit – Serial Arithmetic

In digit-serial arithmetic, data words are divided into digits, with a digit size of d bits, which are processed in one clock cycle. The special cases of the digit-serial computation, called bit-serial and bit-parallel processing, occur when the digit size d is equal to 1 and input data wordlength, respectively. The digit-serial computation plays an important role when the bit-serial implementations cannot meet delay requirements and the bit-parallel designs require excessive hardware. Thus, an optimal tradeoff between area and delay can be obtained by changing the digit size parameter (d).

The digit-serial addition, subtraction, and left shift operations are depicted in Figure 4 when d is equal to 2. Notice from Figure 4(a) that in a digit-serial addition operation, in general, the number of required full adders (FAs) is equal to d and the number of necessary D flip-flops is always 1. The subtraction operation (Figure 4(b)) is implemented using 2's complement, requiring the initialization of the D flip-flop with 1 and additional d inverter gates with respect to the digit-serial addition operation. In a left shift operation (Figure 4(c)-(d)), the number of required D flip-flops is equal to the amount of shift. The input-output correspondence and the number of flip-flops cascaded serially for each input in a digit-serial left shift operation are given in Eqn. (3) and (4) respectively, where i ranges from 0 to $d-1$ and ls denotes the amount of left shift.

$$a_i \Rightarrow c(i + ls) \bmod d \quad (3)$$

$$FFa_i = \begin{cases} \left\lfloor \frac{ls}{d} \right\rfloor, & \text{if } i < d - (ls \bmod d) \\ \left\lfloor \frac{ls}{d} \right\rfloor + 1, & \text{Otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

As an example on digit-serial realization of constant multiplications under the shift-adds architecture, Figure 5 illustrates the digit-serial implementation of $29x$ and $43x$ obtained by the exact GB algorithm given in Figure 2(c) when d is 1. The network includes 2 digit serial additions, 1 digit-serial subtraction, and 5 D flip-flops for all the left shift operations. Observe from Figure 5 that at each clock cycle, one bit of the input data x is applied to

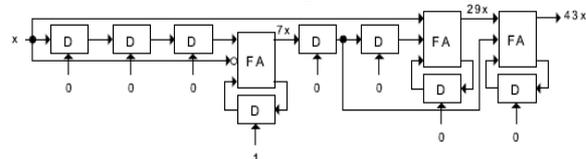


Fig. 5. Digit-serial design of shift-adds implementation of $29x$ and $43x$ given in Fig. 2(c) when d is 1.

the network input and one bit of the constant multiplication output is computed. Note that the digit-serial design of the MCM operation occupies significantly less area when compared to its bit-parallel design and the area of the design is not dependent on the bit-width of the input data. However, the latency of the MCM computation is increased due to the serial processing. Suppose that x is a 16-bit input value. To obtain the actual output of $29x$ and $43x$ in the digit-serial network of Figure 5, 21 and 22 clock cycles are required respectively. Thus, necessary bits must be appended to the input data x , i.e., 0s, if x is an unsigned input or sign bits, otherwise. Moreover, in the case of the conversion of the outputs obtained in digit-serial to the bitparallel format, storage elements and control logic are required.

$$L_{MCM} = \left\lceil \frac{(bw + N)}{d} \right\rceil \quad (5)$$

Where N is the bit width of the input variable x , bw is the maximum bit width of the constants to be implemented, and d is less than N . Thus, (5) does not apply to bit-parallel processing (when $d = N$). Note that in a bit-parallel design, the latency of the MCM computation is only one clock cycle. Returning to our example given in Fig. 5, suppose that x is a 16-bit input value. Thus, to obtain the actual output of $29x$ and $43x$ in the digit-serial network of Fig. 5, we need a total of 11 clock cycles. As a sign extension, $d \times L_{MCM} - N$ bits must be padded to the input data x , which are zeros if x is an unsigned input, or sign bits otherwise.

III. EXACT CSE ALGORITHM

The exact CSE algorithm consists of four main steps. First, all possible implementations of

constants are extracted from the nonzero digits of the constants defined under a number representation: binary, CSD, or MSD. Then, the implementations of constants are represented in terms of a Boolean network. Third, the gate-level area optimization problem is formalized as a 0–1 ILP problem with a cost function to be minimized and a set of constraints to be satisfied. Finally, a set of operations that yields the minimum area solution is obtained using a generic 0–1 ILP solver. These four steps are described in detail next.

$$25 = \begin{cases} 011001 = \begin{cases} 010000 + 001001 = 1 \ll 4 + 9 \\ 001000 + 010001 = 1 \ll 3 + 17 \\ 000001 + 011000 = 1 + 3 \ll 3 \end{cases} \\ 10\bar{1}001 = \begin{cases} 100000 + 00\bar{1}001 = 1 \ll 5 - 7 \\ 00\bar{1}000 + 100001 = -1 \ll 3 + 33 \\ 000001 + 10\bar{1}000 = 1 + 3 \ll 3 \end{cases} \end{cases}$$

Fig.6. Possible implementations of 25 under MSD representation.

A. Finding the Partial Terms

In the preprocessing phase, the constants to be multiplied by a variable are converted to positive, and then made odd by successive divisions by 2. The resulting constants are stored without repetition in the target set T . Thus, T includes the minimum number of necessary constants to be implemented. The part of the algorithm where the implementations of the target constants and partial terms are found is as follows.

- 1) Take an element from T , t_i , find its representation(s) under the given number representation, and store it(them) in a set called S . Form an empty set O_i , associated with t_i , that will include the inputs and the amount of left shifts at the inputs of all addition/subtraction operations which generate t_i .
- 2) For each representation of t_i in the set S .
 - a) Compute all non symmetric partial term pairs that cover the representation of t_i .
 - b) In each pair, make each partial term positive and odd, and determine its amount of left shift.
 - c) Add each pair to the set O_i with the amount of left shifts of partial terms.
 - d) Add each partial term to T , if it does not represent the input that the constants are multiplied with, i.e., denoted by 1, and is not in T .
- 3) Repeat Step 1 until all elements of T are considered.

Observe that the target set T only includes the target constants to be implemented in the beginning of the iterative loop, and in later iterations it is augmented with the partial terms that are required for the implementation of target constants. All possible implementations of an element in the

target set t_i are found by decomposing the nonzero digits in the representation of, t_i , into two partial terms. As an example, consider 25 as a target constant defined under MSD, which has two representations 011001 and 101001. All possible implementations of 25 are given in Fig. 6.

Observe from Fig. 6 that the last implementations of 25 on both representations, i.e., $1 + 3 \ll 3$, are identical, therefore one of them can be eliminated. Also, the duplications of implementations, such as $1 \ll 4 + 9 = 9 + 1 \ll 4$, are not listed in Fig. 6. After the partial terms required for the implementation of 25 under MSD, i.e., 3, 7, 9, 17, and 33, are found, they are added to the target set T without repetition and their implementations are determined in a similar way.

B. Construction of the Boolean Network

After all possible implementations of target constants and partial terms are found, they are represented in a network that includes only AND and OR gates. Its properties are given as follows.

- 1) The primary input of the network is the input variable to be multiplied with the constants.
- 2) An AND gate in the network represents an addition/ subtraction operation and has two inputs.
- 3) An OR gate in the network represents a target constant or a partial term and combines all its possible implementations.
- 4) The outputs of the network are the OR gate outputs associated with the target constants.

The Boolean network is constructed as follows.

- 1) Take an element from T , t_i .
- 2) For each pair in O_i , generate a two-input AND gate. The inputs of the AND gate are the elements of the pair, i.e., 1, denoting the input that the constants are Multiplied with, or the outputs of OR gates representing target constants or partial terms in the network.
- 3) Generate an OR gate associated with t_i , where its inputs are the outputs of the AND gates determined in Step 2.
- 4) If t_i is a target constant, make the output of the corresponding OR gate an output of the network.
- 5) Repeat Step 1 until all elements in T are considered.

The network generated for the target constant 25 defined under MSD is given in Fig. 7, where one-input OR gates for the partial terms 7, 9, 17, and 33 are omitted and the type of each operation is shown inside of each AND gate.

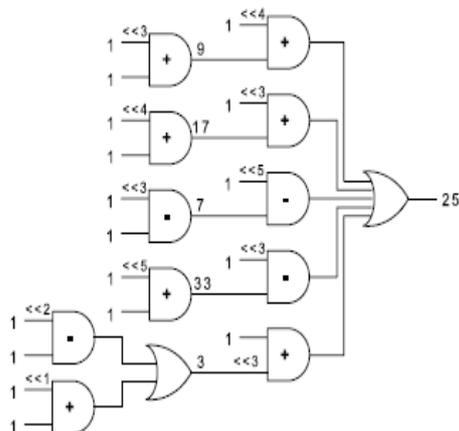


Fig. 7. Network constructed for the target constant 25 under MSD.

C. Formalization of the 0-1 ILP Problem

We need to include optimization variables into the network, so that we can easily formalize the gate-level area optimization problem as a 0-1 ILP problem. The optimization variables are associated with two parameters that have different implementation costs at the gate level, i.e., addition/subtraction operations and left shifts of constants (partial terms and target constants).

For each AND gate that represents an addition/subtraction operation in the network, we introduce an optimization variable associated with the operation, i.e., $opt_{a \pm b}$, where a and b denote the inputs of an operation, and we add this variable to the input of the AND gate. The cost value of this type of optimization variable in the cost function to be minimized is determined as the gate-level implementation cost of the digit-serial operation computed considering its type (addition or subtraction) and the digit size (d), as described in [1]. In order to maximize the sharing of left shifts, i.e., the D flip-flops at the gate level, for each constant c in the network, we initially find the maximum amount of left shift mls_c that the constant c has. Then, for each constant c with mls_c greater than zero, we introduce mls_c optimization variables representing left shifts of c from 1 to mls_c , i.e., $opt_{c \ll 1}, opt_{c \ll 2}, \dots, opt_{c \ll mls_c}$. In the cost function to be minimized, the cost value of this type of optimization variable is determined as the gate-level cost of one D flip-flop, as described in Section II-D. The inclusion of these optimization variables into the network can be done in two ways.

Model 1: For each AND gate in the network representing an addition/subtraction operation, if an input signal ins is shifted by $ls > 0$ times, then we include ls additional inputs standing for the optimization variables associated with the ls left shift

of the input signal ins , i.e., $opt_{ins \ll 1}, opt_{ins \ll 2}, \dots, opt_{ins \ll ls}$.

Model 2: Initially, for each constant c with mls_c greater than zero, we generate a chain of $mls_c - 1$ AND gates with two inputs, where the inputs of the first AND gate of the chain are $opt_{c \ll 1}$ and $opt_{c \ll 2}$, and the inputs of the i^{th} AND gate are $opt_{c \ll i+1}$ and the output of the $(i - 1)^{th}$ (previous) AND gate in the chain, where $2 \leq i \leq mls_c - 1$. Then, for each AND gate representing an addition/subtraction operation, if an input signal ins is shifted by $ls > 0$ times, we add a single input to the AND gate. This input is opt_{ins_1} , if ls is equal to 1, or otherwise, the output of the $(ls - 1)^{th}$ AND gate in the chain of AND gates including the optimization variables for the mls_{ins} left shift of the input signal ins .

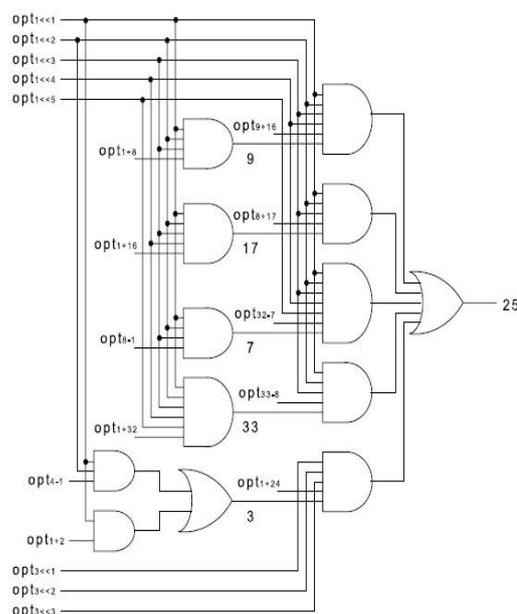


Fig. 8. (a) Networks constructed for the target constant 25 under MSD after the optimization variables are added Under Model 1.

Some simplifications in the network can be also achieved. The input variable x denoted by 1 can be eliminated from the inputs of the AND gates, because its logic value is always 1 (i.e., it is always available). Fig. 8(a) and (b) illustrate the networks generated for the target constant 25 under MSD after the simplifications are done and the optimization variables are added under *Models 1* and *2*, respectively.

After the optimization variables are added into the network, the 0-1 ILP problem is generated. The cost function of the 0-1 ILP problem is constructed as the linear function of optimization variables, where the cost value of each optimization variable is determined as described previously. The

constraints of the 0–1 ILP problem are obtained by finding the CNF formulas of each gate in the network and expressing each clause of the CNF formulas as a linear inequality, as described in Section II-C. The outputs of the network, i.e., the outputs of OR gates associated with the target constants, are set to 1, since the implementation of target constants is aimed.

Observe from Fig. 8(a) and (b) that Model 1 generates a 0-1 ILP problem including slightly less number of variables than Model 2 due to the chain of AND gates used in Model 2. However, the 0–1 ILP problem constructed under Model 2 has significantly less number of constraints than that of Model 1 since the number of inputs of an AND gate representing an addition /subtraction operation is increased only by 1 during the inclusion of the optimization variables denoting the left shift of a constant in Model 2. Note that the number of optimization variables under both models is the same.

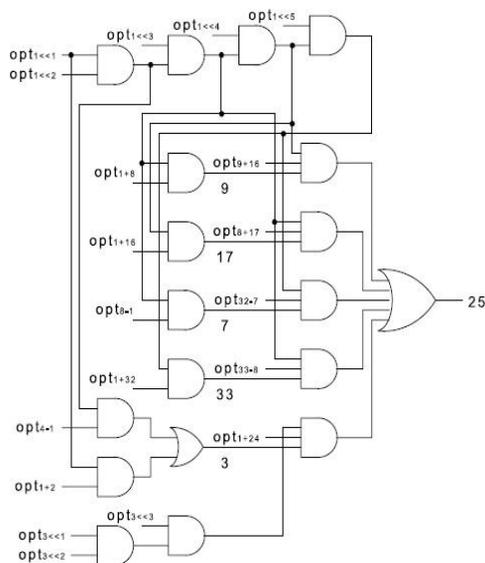


Fig. 8. (b) Networks constructed for the target constant 25 under MSD after the optimization variables are added Under Model 2.

E. Finding the Minimum Area Solution

A generic 0–1 ILP solver will search for the minimum value of the cost function on the generated 0–1 ILP problem by satisfying the constraints that represent how target constants and partial terms are implemented. The set of operations that yields the minimum area solution consists of the addition/subtraction operations whose optimization variables are set to 1 in the solution obtained by the 0–1 ILP solver.

IV. APPROXIMATE GB ALGORITHM

The solution of an exact CSE algorithm described in Section III is not the global minimum since all possible implementations of a constant are

found from its representation. Also, the optimization of gate-level area problem in digit-serial MCM design is an NP-complete problem due to the NP-completeness of the MCM problem. Thus, naturally, there will be always 0–1 ILP problems generated by the exact CSE algorithm that current 0–1 ILP solvers find difficult to handle. Hence, the GB heuristic algorithms, which obtain a good solution using less computational resources, are indispensable.

In our approximate algorithm called MINAS-DS[1], as done in algorithms designed for the MCM problem given in Definition 1[1], we find the fewest number of intermediate constants such that all the target and intermediate constants are synthesized using a single operation. However, while selecting an intermediate constant for the implementation of the not yet synthesized target constants in each iteration, we favor the one among the possible intermediate constants that can be synthesized using the least hardware and will enable us to implement the not-yet synthesized target constants in a smaller area with the available constants. After the set of target and intermediate constants that realizes the MCM operation is found, each constant is synthesized using an *A-operation* that yields the minimum area in the digit-serial MCM design. In MINAS-DS, the area of the digit-serial MCM operation is determined as the total gate-level implementation cost of each digit-serial addition, subtraction, and shift operation under the digit size parameter d as described in Section II-D.

V. FIR FILTER DESIGN

This section is divided in two parts: the first part presents the results of high-level algorithms on digit-serial MCM blocks design and second part presents the digit-serial FIR filter design.

A. Digit-Serial MCM Design

The digit-serial realization of multiple constant multiplications under the shift-adds architecture is illustrated in Fig. 4 digit-serial implementation of $29x$ and $43x$ obtained by the exact GB algorithm given in Fig. 2(c) with digit size equal to 1. As can be easily observed, the network includes 2 digit-serial addition, 1 digit-serial subtractions, and 5 D flip-flops for all the left shift operations. In this network, at each clock cycle, two bits of input data x is applied to the network and two bits of the constant multiplications output is computed at the output of digit-serial addition/ subtraction operation. While sharing of addition/ subtraction operation reduces the complexity of the digit-serial MCM design (since each addition and subtraction operation requires a digit-serial operation), the sharing of shift operations for a constant multiplication also reduces the number of D flip-flops and, consequently, the area of the digit-serial MCM design[12][15].

Slices	203	93
Number of 4 input LUTs	356	164

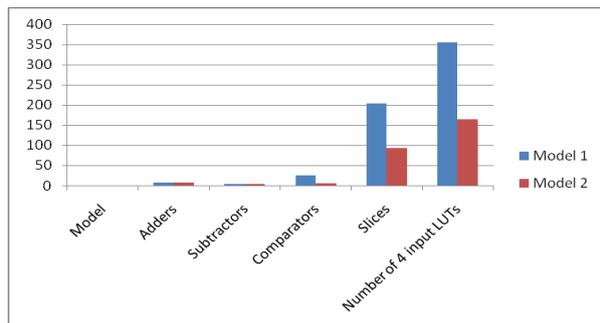


Fig. 12. Graph for comparison between the Model 1 and Model 2

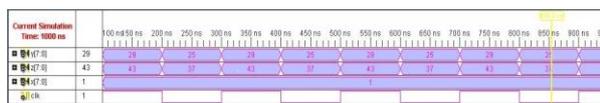


Fig. 13. Simulation results of Digit-serial design of shift-adds implementation of 29x and 43x



Fig.14. Simulation results of Digit-serial FIR filter

VII. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we introduced the 0–1 ILP formalization for designing digit-serial MCM operation with optimal area at the gate level by considering the implementation costs of digit-serial addition, subtraction, and shift operations. Although the search space of the exact algorithm is restricted by the number representation, the given 0-1 ILP formalization can be applied in algorithms that are not limited to any particular number representation. Since there are still instances with which the exact CSE algorithm cannot cope, we also proposed an approximate GB algorithm that finds the best partial products in each iteration which yield the optimal gate-level area in digit-serial MCM design. This paper also introduced the design architectures for the digit-serial MCM operation and a CAD tool for the realization of digit-serial MCM operations and FIR filters.

The results indicate that the complexity of digit-serial MCM designs can be further reduced using the high-level optimization algorithms proposed in this paper. It was shown that the

realization of digit-serial FIR filters under the shift-adds architecture yields significant area reduction when compared to the filter designs whose multiplier blocks are implemented using digit-serial constant multipliers. It is observed that a designer can find the circuit that fits best in an application by changing the digit size.

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