Implementation of RNS-Based Distributed Arithmetic Discrete Wavelet Transform Architectures Using Field-Programmable Logic

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Abstract. Currently there are design barriers inhibiting the implementation of high-precision digital signal processing (DSP) objects with field programmable logic (FPL) devices. This paper explores overcoming these barriers by fusing together the popular distributed arithmetic (DA) method with the residue number system (RNS) for use in FPL-centric designs. The new design paradigm is studied in the context of a high-performance filter bank and a discrete wavelet transform (DWT). The proposed design paradigm is facilitated by a new RNS accumulator structure based on a carry save adder (CSA). The reported methodology also introduces a polyphase filter structure that results in a reduced look-up table (LUT) budget. The 2C-DA and RNS-DA are compared, in the context of a FPL implementation strategy, using a discrete wavelet transform (DWT) filter bank as a common design theme. The results show that the RNS-DA, compared to a traditional 2C-DA design, enjoys a performance advantage that increases with precision (wordlength).

Keywords: field-programmable logic, residue number system, distributed arithmetic, discrete wavelet transform, digital signal processing

1. Introduction

Digital signal processing (DSP) is arithmetic-intensive. DSP-facilitating technologies include general-purpose microprocessors, application-specific integrated circuits (ASIC), application specific standard products (ASSP), and field programmable logic (FPL) devices that include field programmable gate arrays (FPGA). Within this mix, ASIC are becoming the dominant technology with the Y-2000 DSP CBIC (cell-based

integrated circuit) ASIC market valued in excess of \$13B, compared to \$8B for DSPs. The FPL ASIC market is expected to expand at a rate of 20% per annum rate, with DSP applications leading the way. While FPL houses champion their technology as a provider of system-on-a-chip (SOC) DSP solutions, engineers have historically viewed FPLs as a prototyping technology. It should be noted that 40% of the current FPL design starts are rated at 1,500 gates. This figure falls well below the reported 50,000+ gates that account for 50% of standard cell ASIC designs [1]. When one considers that an FPGA typically requires $10 \times$ more gates than a CBIC to implement a common logic function, a typical 50 k gate standard cell ASIC design would require a large 500 k gate FPGA. In order for FPL to begin to compete in areas currently controlled by low-end standard cell, a means must be found to more efficiently implement DSP objects.

A review of FPL vendor supplied application notes, establishes that FPGAs have intrinsically weak arithmetic capabilities. A general-purpose $n \times n$ -bit multiplier or multiply-accumulate (MAC) unit, for example, is inferior to a well designed ASIC ALU in both speed and area [2]. In addition, FPL deficiencies increase geometrically with precision (wordlength). It is the FPGA's arithmetic limitations that have caused solution developers to consider alternative structures. The most popular technique, found in common practice, is called distributed arithmetic [3–6], or DA. The DA method is routinely used to implement linear DSP algorithms with fixed known a priori coefficients. The DA technique reduces an algorithm to a set of sequential lookup table (LUT) calls, and two's-complement (2C) shift-adds. A survey of the contemporary FPL DA art indicates that most solutions are of low-order and low-precision. The reported FPL limitations are the result of architectural limitation. FPL device families, such as Altera FLEX10K [7] or XILINX Virtex [8], are organized in channels (typically 8-bits wide). Within these channels are found short delay propagation paths, and dedicated memory blocks, with programmable address and data spaces that are commonly used to synthesize small RAM and ROM functions. Performance rapidly suffers when carry bits and/or data have to propagate across a channel boundary. We call this the channel barrier problem. Existing 2C-DA designs encounter the channel barrier problem whenever wordwidths exceed the channel width in bits. An alternative design paradigm is advocated in this paper that is

based on fusion of DA and the residue number system or RNS [9–11]. The RNS advantage is gained by reducing arithmetic to a set of concurrent operations that reside in small wordlength non-communicating channels. This attribute makes the RNS potentially attractive for implementing DSP objects with a FPL. Specifically, the paper develops a mechanism of achieving synergy within an FPL-defined environment for implement arithmetic intensive DSP solutions. The quantifiable benefits of this approach are studied in the context of a design example, namely a discrete wavelet transform (DWT) filterbank using an Altera FLEX10K FPL reference device. The work will build upon previous works [12–15] and RNS-FPL design studies [16–19].

2. Background

There is emerging evidence that an arithmetic technology, called the RNS, can overcome the channel barrier and become a FPL enabling technology [20-22]. Computer arithmeticians have long held that the RNS offers the best MAC speed-area advantage [9]. In the RNS, numbers are represented in terms of a relatively prime basis set (moduli set) $P = \{m_1, \dots, m_L\}$. Any number $X \in Z_M = \{0, ..., M - 1\},$ where $M = \prod m_i$, has a unique RNS representation $X \leftrightarrow [X_{m_1}, \ldots, X_{m_L}]$, with $X_{m_i} = X \mod(m_i)$. Like the 2C system, the RNS arithmetic is exact as long as the final result is bounded within the system's dynamic range M. Mapping from the RNS back to the integer domain is defined by the Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT) [9, 10]. RNS arithmetic is defined by pair-wise modular operations:

$$Z = X \pm Y \leftrightarrow \left[\left| X_{m_1} \pm Y_{m_1} \right|_{m_1}, \dots, \left| X_{m_L} \pm Y_{m_L} \right|_{m_L} \right]$$
$$Z = X \times Y \leftrightarrow \left[\left| X_{m_1} \times Y_{m_1} \right|_{m_1}, \dots, \left| X_{m_L} \times Y_{m_L} \right|_{m_L} \right]$$
(1)

where $|Q|_{m_j}$ denotes $Q \mod(m_j)$. The individual modular arithmetic operations are typically performed as LUT calls to small memories. The RNS differs from traditional weighted numbering systems in that the RNS arithmetic is a *carry-free* and can operate at a constant speed over a wide range of wordwidths (precision). It is the ability of the RNS to do arithmetic within independent small wordlength channels that makes it particularly attractive for FPL insertion. The

RNS has been studied in an FPL context by Hamann and Sprachmann [12] who explored implementing a simple DSP solution using Xilinx parts. Jullien [13] combined number theory with FPLs to design a FIR. Fermat primes were used as the basis elements and a Xilinx FPGA used to implement index arithmetic ALU. Performance is strongly influenced by the choice of basis functions (moduli) that were limited by the size of the FPL LUT address space, and channel width. A demonstration of the RNS as an enabling FPL technology is the communication filter reported in [20, 21] using an Altera FLEX10K part. The digital filters were designed to accept 8-bit inputs and 10-bit coefficients, with an internal 24-bit dynamic range, and ran at 49.3 MHz in 2C and 76.6 MHz in the RNS. Complexity was comparable to a 2C design. These preliminary works provide the motivation to advance this work in a rigorous and comprehensive manner.

3. Discrete Wavelet Transform

Interest in the wavelet transform [23, 24] has grown dramatically during the last decade [25–30]. Wavelet transforms are routinely used in speech, image and video signal processing, and other applications. Discrete wavelet transforms (DWT) are defined over a sequence of embedded closed subspaces, $V_J \subset V_{J-1} \subset \cdots \subset V_1 \subset V_0$, where $V_0 = l_2(Z)$ is the space of square-summable sequences. These subspaces satisfy the upward completeness property, $\cup V_j = l_2(Z), j \in [0, J]$. Assume that any element in V_i can be uniquely expressed as the sum of two elements from V_{j+1} and W_{j+1} , where $V_j = V_{j+1} \oplus W_{j+1}$. For orthogonal wavelets, W_{j+1} is defined as the orthogonal complement of V_{j+1} in V_j . Assuming a sequence $\bar{g}_n \in V_0$ exists such that $\{\bar{g}_{n-2k}\}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is a basis for V_1 , a sequence $\bar{h}_n \in V_0$ can then be found such that $\{\bar{h}_{n-2k}\}_{k\in\mathbb{Z}}$ is a basis for W_1 . Thus, V_0 can be decomposed as: $V_0 = W_1 \oplus W_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus W_J \oplus V_J$ by simply iterating the decomposition rule J times. An attractive feature of the wavelet series expansion is that the underlying multiresolution structure leads to an efficient discrete-time algorithm based on a filter bank implementation. The octave-band analysis filter bank computes the inner products with the basis functions for W_1, W_2, \ldots, W_J , and V_J . The orthogonal projection of the input signal onto W_1, W_2, \ldots, W_J , and V_J is computed after convolution with the synthesis filters. Then, the sequence is decomposed into a coarse resolution version in V_J with added details in W_i (i = 1, 2, ..., J). Thus a 1-D Nth-order DWT decomposition of a sequence x_n is defined by the recurrent equations:

$$a_n^{(i)} = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} g_k a_{2n-k}^{(i-1)} \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, J$$

$$d_n^{(i)} = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h_k a_{2n-k}^{(i-1)} \quad a_n^{(0)} \equiv x_n$$
(2)

where $a_n^{(i)}$ and $d_n^{(i)}$ are level-*i* approximation and detail sequences, respectively, and g_k and h_k (k = 0, 1, ..., N - 1) correspond to the low-pass and high-pass analysis filter coefficients. On the other hand, the signal x_n can be perfectly recovered through its multiresolution decomposition $\{a_n^{(J)}, d_n^{(J)}, d_n^{(J-1)}, ..., d_n^{(1)}\}$ by iteration on:

$$\hat{a}_{m}^{(i-1)} = \begin{cases} \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \bar{g}_{2k} \hat{a}_{\frac{m}{2}-k}^{(i)} + \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \bar{h}_{2k} \hat{d}_{\frac{m}{2}-k}^{(i)} & m \text{ even} \\ \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \bar{g}_{2k+1} \hat{a}_{\frac{m-1}{2}-k}^{(i)} + \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \bar{h}_{2k+1} \hat{d}_{\frac{m-1}{2}-k}^{(i)} & m \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

where \bar{g}_k and \bar{h}_k represent low-pass and high-pass synthesis filter coefficients. In order to ensure perfect recovery of the input signal, the coefficients of the analysis and synthesis filter banks are conveniently related to each other according to the perfect reconstruction condition [23, 24].

4. 2C-DA Architectures for the DWT

Conventional 2C-DA has been successfully applied to the implementation of FIR filters and other linear discrete transforms. DA designs replace general multiplication with scaling operations implemented using LUT calls. DA architectures are bit-serial and are often reported to be faster than MAC-centric designs. In addition, compared to programmable MAC solutions, DA designs often have a lower roundoff error budget [31]. The DA advantage is amplified in FPL applications, a technology possessing an intrinsically weak MAC capability. A DA FPL design must, however, be mindful

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of the channel barrier problem since FPLs restrict DA LUTs to reside in an FPL's logic element (LE). For Altera FLEX10K devices, each LE consists of a $2^4 \times 1$ LUT, an output register and dedicated logic for fast carry and cascade chains. The larger embedded array blocks (EABs) found in a FLEX10K device consist of 2K-bit memory blocks configurable as $2^8 \times 8$, $2^9 \times 4$, $2^{10} \times 2$ or $2^{11} \times 1$. The FLEX10KE family now provides 4K-bit EABs organized as $2^8 \times 16$, $2^9 \times 8$, $2^{10} \times 4$ or $2^{11} \times 2$.

A 2C-DA design assumes that the input to a DSPobject (e.g., FIR filter) is the B_i -bit word:

$$a_n^{(i-1)} = -2^{B_i - 1} a_{n, B_i - 1}^{(i-1)} + \sum_{l=0}^{B_i - 2} 2^l a_{n, l}^{(i-1)}$$
(4)

where $a_{n,l}^{(i-1)}$ is the *l*-th bit of the input sample $a_n^{(i-1)}$. For the case where the filters define a 1-D DWT, filter pairs would be defined by (after Eq. (2)):

$$a_{n}^{(i)} = -2^{B_{i}-1} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} g_{k} a_{2n-k,B_{i}-1}^{(i-1)} + \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} g_{k} \sum_{l=0}^{B_{i}-2} 2^{l} a_{2n-k,l}^{(i-1)}$$

$$d_{n}^{(i)} = -2^{B_{i}-1} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h_{k} a_{2n-k,B_{i}-1}^{(i-1)} + \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h_{k} \sum_{l=0}^{B_{i}-2} 2^{l} a_{2n-k,l}^{(i-1)}$$
(5)

Define the DA LUT functions, $\Phi_g(l)$ and $\Phi_h(l)$ to be:

$$\Phi_g(l) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} g_k a_{2n-k,l}^{(i-1)} \quad \Phi_h(l) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h_k a_{2n-k,l}^{(i-1)} \quad (6)$$

which results in the DA equations:

$$a_n^{(i)} = -2^{B_i - 1} \Phi_g(B_i - 1) + \sum_{l=0}^{B_i - 2} 2^l \Phi_g(l)$$

$$d_n^{(i)} = -2^{B_i - 1} \Phi_h(B_i - 1) + \sum_{l=0}^{B_i - 2} 2^l \Phi_h(l)$$
(7)

The computation of the *i*th-octave-approximations, $a_n^{(i)}$, and details, $d_n^{(i)}$, (i = 1, 2, ..., J) is carried using two $2^N \times W$ LUTs representing the functions $\Phi_g(l)$ and $\Phi_h(l)$, which are addressed by the *N*-bit vector $\{a_{2n,l}^{(i-1)}, a_{2n-1,l}^{(i-1)}, \ldots, a_{2n-N+1,l}^{(i-1)}\}$, $W \leq b + \lceil \log_2(N) \rceil$, and *b* represents the filter coefficient precision. Observe that computing Eq. (7) requires repeated calls to the tables $\Phi_g(l)$ and $\Phi_h(l)$, followed by a shift-add (scaled accumulation). Figure 1 shows the 2C-DA architecture for the computation of the *i*th octave filter bank output. The first table look-up is shift subtracted while the following are added to the accumulator. Note that decimation by 2 is carried out efficiently by considering two consecutive input samples, $a_{2n-1}^{(i-1)}$ and $a_{2n}^{(i-1)}$. The sampling clock (sCLK) is generated by dividing the



Figure 1. 2C-DA 1-D DWT architecture.

accumulation bit clock (bCLK) by B_i . Two input values are sampled in each sampling clock (sCLK) cycle. Finally, registers are left-shifted, since the MSB (most significant bit) is the first bit processed.

A polyphase filter bank representation can, however, lead to a reduction in the LUT address space. Defining the even- and odd-indexed filters to be $g_0(k) = g_{2k}$, $h_0(k) = h_{2k}, g_1(k) = g_{2k+1}$, and $h_1(k) = h_{2k+1}$ (k = 0, $1, \ldots, N/2 - 1$), a polyphase DA architecture, for the *i*th-octave analysis and synthesis filter bank consists of four independent DA filters operating on even- and odd-indexed input samples:

$$a_{n}^{(i)} = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} g_{0}(k) a_{2n-2k}^{(i-1)} + \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} g_{1}(k) a_{2n-2k-1}^{(i-1)}$$

$$d_{n}^{(i)} = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} h_{0}(k) a_{2n-2k}^{(i-1)} + \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} h_{1}(k) a_{2n-2k-1}^{(i-1)}$$
(8)

Thus, polyphase filters convolve two distinct sample subsets. The even indexed values of $a^{(i-1)}$ are convolved with $g_0(k)$ and $h_0(k)$ and the odd indexed values are filtered using $g_1(k)$ and $h_1(k)$. In this way, the defining DA relationships are:

$$\Phi_{g_0}(l) = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} g_0(k) a_{2n-2k,l}^{(i-1)}$$

$$\Phi_{g_1}(l) = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} g_1(k) a_{2n-2k-1,l}^{(i-1)}$$

$$\Phi_{h_0}(l) = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} h_0(k) a_{2n-2k,l}^{(i-1)}$$

$$\Phi_{h_1}(l) = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} h_1(k) a_{2n-2k-1,l}^{(i-1)}$$
(9)

and the filter bank outputs become:

$$a_n^{(i)} = -2^{B_i - 1} \Phi_{g_0}(B_i - 1) + \sum_{l=0}^{B_i - 2} 2^l \Phi_{g_0}(l) - 2^{B_i - 1} \Phi_{g_1}(B_i - 1)$$

$$+ \sum_{l=0}^{B_{i}-2} 2^{l} \Phi_{g_{1}}(l)$$

$$d_{n}^{(i)} = -2^{B_{i}-1} \Phi_{h_{0}}(B_{i}-1)$$

$$+ \sum_{l=0}^{B_{i}-2} 2^{l} \Phi_{h_{0}}(l) - 2^{B_{i}-1} \Phi_{h_{1}}(B_{i}-1)$$

$$+ \sum_{l=0}^{B_{i}-2} 2^{l} \Phi_{h_{1}}(l)$$

$$(10)$$

The architecture is shown in Fig. 2 and consists of four $2^{N/2} \times W'$ LUTs, where $W' \leq b' + \lceil \log_2(N/2) \rceil$ and b' represents the filter bank coefficient precision. Notice that it is necessary to introduce a delay in the odd-indexed sequence, and that the two outputs $a_n^{(i)}$ and $d_n^{(i)}$ are computed by adding the low-pass and high-pass polyphase filter outputs respectively.

The 1-D IDWT (inverse DWT) can be also computed through the DA scheme in a manner motivated in the 2C-DA design narrative. By representing the inputs to the *i*th-octave reconstruction filter bank, for \bar{B}_i -bit words, as:

$$\hat{a}_{n}^{(i)} = -2^{\bar{B}_{i}-1} \hat{a}_{n,\bar{B}_{i}-1}^{(i)} + \sum_{l=0}^{\bar{B}_{i}-2} 2^{l} \hat{a}_{n,l}^{(i)}$$

$$\hat{d}_{n}^{(i)} = -2^{\bar{B}_{i}-1} \hat{d}_{n,\bar{B}_{i}-1}^{(i)} + \sum_{l=0}^{\bar{B}_{i}-2} 2^{l} \hat{d}_{n,l}^{(i)}$$
(11)

The IDWT LUTs are defined by:

$$\Phi_{\bar{h}}^{e}(l) = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \bar{h}_{2k} \hat{d}_{\frac{m}{2}-k,l}^{(i)} \quad \Phi_{\bar{h}}^{o}(l) = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \bar{h}_{2k+1} \hat{d}_{\frac{m-1}{2}-k,l}^{(i)}$$

$$\Phi_{\bar{g}}^{e}(l) = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \bar{g}_{2k} \hat{a}_{\frac{m}{2}-k,l}^{(i)} \quad \Phi_{\bar{g}}^{o}(l) = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \bar{g}_{2k+1} \hat{a}_{\frac{m-1}{2}-k,l}^{(i)}$$
(12)

and the computation of the DA IDWT is defined to be:

$$\hat{a}_{m}^{(i-1)} = \begin{cases} -2^{B_{i}-1}\Phi_{\tilde{h}}^{e}(B_{i}-1) + \sum_{l=0}^{B_{i}-2} 2^{l} \Phi_{\tilde{h}}^{e}(l) - 2^{B_{i}-1} \Phi_{\tilde{g}}^{e}(B_{i}-1) + \sum_{l=0}^{B_{i}-2} 2^{l} \Phi_{\tilde{g}}^{e}(l) & m \text{ even} \\ -2^{B_{i}-1} \Phi_{\tilde{h}}^{o}(B_{i}-1) + \sum_{l=0}^{B_{i}-2} 2^{l} \Phi_{\tilde{h}}^{o}(l) - 2^{B_{i}-1} \Phi_{\tilde{g}}^{o}(B_{i}-1) + \sum_{l=0}^{B_{i}-2} 2^{l} \Phi_{\tilde{g}}^{o}(l) & m \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$
(13)



Figure 2. Polyphase 2C-DA 1-D DWT architecture.

The 2C-DA architecture is shown in Fig. 3 in the context of the *i*th-octave synthesis filter. The low- and highpass filter outputs are computed according to the DA paradigm that computes the even and odd outputs simultaneously. Two consecutive output samples, $\hat{a}_m^{(i-1)}$ and $\hat{a}_{m+1}^{(i-1)}$, (*m* even) are computed concurrently over the set of samples { $\hat{a}_{m/2}^{(i)}$, $\hat{a}_{m/2-1}^{(i)}$, ..., $\hat{a}_{m/2-N/2+1}^{(i)}$, $\hat{d}_{m/2}^{(i)}$, $\hat{d}_{m/2-1}^{(i)}$, ..., $\hat{d}_{m/2-N/2+1}^{(i)}$ by accumulating the outputs of four $2^{N/2} \times \bar{W}$ LUTs, where $\bar{W} \leq \bar{b} + \lceil \log_2(N/2) \rceil$, where \bar{b} represents the filter bank coefficient precision. Implementation data for these 2C-DA architectures will be given in Section 6.

5. RNS-DA Architectures for the DWT

In concept, the RNS represents a potentially efficient means of implementing a DA-based FPL DSP solution [11]. Input sequences are encoded and manipulated concurrently within small wordlength channels. An RNS system was defined in terms of a moduli set $P = \{m_1, m_2, \dots, m_L\}$ as developed in Section 2. Since typically $m_i \leq 2^8$, the solution can be defined to reside within 8-bit channels. A comparable procedure to that shown in Eq. (7) for the 2C-DA mechanization will be developed for the RNS-DA. Thus, for every channel, the current result must be multiplied by 2 prior to accumulating with the output of a LUT. This would require a specific LUT for 2 mod m_i multiplication, which would add unwanted complexity to the recursive path. However, using a scaled modular accumulator computing $|y(n)|_{m_i} =$ $|2y(n-1) + x(n)|_{m_i}$, an RNS-DA solution can be realized, leading to an efficient implementation of inner product based DSP algorithms. This accumulator is designed according to the following selection



Figure 3. 2C-DA 1-D IDWT architecture.

rules:

$$|y(n)|_{m_j} = \begin{cases} 2|y(n-1)|_{m_j} + |x(n)|_{m_j} \\ 2|y(n-1)|_{m_j} + |x(n)|_{m_j} - m_j \\ 2|y(n-1)|_{m_j} + |x(n)|_{m_j} - 2m_j \end{cases}$$

The design of a modulo m_j scaling accumulator, for RNS-DA applications, was presented in [11]. An improved architecture can be innovated by using CSAs (carry save adders) to realize the 2nd and 3rd terms in Eq. (14), as shown in Fig. 4. The improved design shortens the carry propagation chain, thus improving the performance of an RNS-DA based system. The new accumulator also uses one CPA (carry propagate adder) to realize the term $2|y(n - 1)|_{m_j} + |x(n)|_{m_j}$, with

$$if 2|y(n-1)|_{m_j} + |x(n)|_{m_j} < m_j$$

$$if m_j \le 2|y(n-1)|_{m_j} + |x(n)|_{m_j} < 2m_j$$

$$if 2m_j \le 2|y(n-1)|_{m_i} + |x(n)|_{m_i} < 3m_j$$
(14)

two CSAs used to compute $2|y(n-1)|_{m_j} + |x(n)|_{m_j} - m_j$ and $2|y(n-1)|_{m_j} + |x(n)|_{m_j} - 2m_j$ respectively. These terms are computed concurrently and, as a result, have only one carry propagation stage in the critical path. The final result is selected on the basis of the carries generated in the summation stages as reported in Table 1.

In Table 2, a comparison is made between the improved accumulator and that was originally reported in



Figure 4. Improved design of the RNS-DA accumulator.

[11], in terms of LE requirements, and speed, for 6-, 7- and 8-bit modulus accumulators. CPAs are synthesized using fast carry chains while each 3-input logic function (required by a CSA) is mapped to a single LE. Since only one CPA stage appears in the signal path, the advantage in performance increases with the modulus wordwidth. Thus, compared to the previous modulo accumulator, the throughput improvement for the new CSA-based accumulator, for 6-, 7- and 8-bit moduli, is 3.13%, 4.02% and 5.74% for—3 speed grade devices, and 1.68%, 2.75% and 4.10% for—4 grade devices. Additional benefits in area and speed are expected when the proposed accumulator is used for a standard cell ASIC design. The reason for that is that

Table 1. Scaled accumulator decision logic table.

<i>C</i> 0	<i>c</i> 1	<i>c</i> 2	<i>c</i> 3	Result
0	0	0	0	<i>s</i> 1
0	0	0	1	<i>s</i> 1
0	0	1	1	<i>s</i> 2
1	0	1	1	<i>s</i> 2
1	0	1	0	<i>s</i> 3
1	0	0	0	<i>s</i> 3
0	1	0	0	<i>s</i> 3
Any oth	_			

Table 2. Comparison between the proposed modulo m_j accumulator and the accumulator in [11].

	N ac	Modified modulo accumulator in [11]			CSA-based modulo accumulator		
		Throughput (MHz)			Throughput (MH improve (%)		
	LEs	-3 ^a	-4^{a}	LEs	-3 ^a	-4^{a}	
6-bit modulus	37	50.50	40.48	55	52.08	41.15	
					(3.13%)	(1.68%)	
7-bit modulus	43	48.70	39.24	61	50.66	40.32	
					(4.02%)	(2.75%)	
8-bit modulus	49	47.18	38.05	74	49.89	39.61	
					(5.74%)	(4.10%)	

^aDevice speed grade.

FPL's carry chains used in [11] are almost as fast as the CSA implementation using $2^4 \times 1$ SRAM logic elements.

The RNS-DA mechanization will now be derived for wavelet filter banks. A modulo m_j path of the direct RNS-DA implementation of the *i*th-octave filter bank is defined in terms of an n_j -bit unsigned number:

$$\left|a_{n}^{(i-1)}\right|_{m_{j}} = \sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \left|a_{n,l}^{(i-1)}\right|_{m_{j}}$$
(15)



Figure 5. RNS-DA 1-D DWT architecture.

where $n_j = \lceil \log_2(m_j) \rceil$, and $|a_{n,l}^{(i-1)}|_{m_j}$ is the *l*th bit of residue $|a_n^{(i-1)}|_{m_j}$. Substituting Eq. (15) into Eq. (2), interpreted in a modulo m_j sense, the *i*th-octave-approximation and detail sequences can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned} \left|a_{n}^{(i)}\right|_{m_{j}} &= \left|\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} g_{k} \sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \left|a_{2n-k,l}^{(i-1)}\right|_{m_{j}}\right|_{m_{j}} \\ i &= 1, 2, \dots, J \end{aligned}$$
(16)
$$\left|d_{n}^{(i)}\right|_{m_{j}} &= \left|\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h_{k} \sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \left|a_{2n-k,l}^{(i-1)}\right|_{m_{j}}\right|_{m_{j}} \\ \left|a_{n}^{(0)}\right|_{m_{i}} &\equiv \left|x_{n}\right|_{m_{i}} \end{aligned}$$

Finally, by defining the DA functions:

$$\Phi_{g}^{j}(l) = \left| \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} g_{k} a_{2n-k,l}^{(i-1)} \right|_{m_{j}} \quad \Phi_{h}^{j}(l) = \left| \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h_{k} a_{2n-k,l}^{(i-1)} \right|_{m_{j}}$$
(17)

and interchanging the order of summations in Eq. (16), the RNS encoded *i*th-octave filter bank outputs are computed to be:

$$\left|a_{n}^{(i)}\right|_{m_{j}} = \left|\sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \Phi_{g}^{j}(l)\right|_{m_{j}} \quad \left|d_{n}^{(i)}\right|_{m_{j}} = \left|\sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \Phi_{h}^{j}(l)\right|_{m_{j}}$$
(18)

Figure 5 summarizes the modulo m_j RNS-DA architecture for the *i*th-octave analysis filter bank. *N* registers are used to left shift the input samples. The two inputs are sampled at a rate sCLK, the two LUTs storing Φ_g^j and Φ_h^j are accessed in each bit clock (bCLK) cycle to generate the terms of the relationship given in Eq. (18). The clock sCLK is easily generated dividing bCLK by the modulus width, n_j . Finally, two modified modulo m_j accumulators compute recursively and in parallel the *i*th-octave-approximation, $|a_n^{(i)}|_{m_j}$, and detail, $|d_n^{(i)}|_{m_j}$ sequences.

As in Eqs. (8) and (9) for a 2C-DA design, the polyphase filter bank [24] implementation can be considered in an attempt to reducing the DA LUT size. A polyphase RNS-DA architecture, suitable for high-order filter banks, is shown in Fig. 6. The production of $|a_n^{(i)}|_{m_j}$ and $|d_n^{(i)}|_{m_j}$ is computed as a polyphase filter bank, represented by:

$$\begin{aligned} \left|a_{n}^{(i)}\right|_{m_{j}} &= \left|\left|\sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \Phi_{g_{0}}^{j}(l)\right|_{m_{j}} + \left|\sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \Phi_{g_{1}}^{j}(l)\right|_{m_{j}}\right|_{m_{j}} \\ \left|d_{n}^{(i)}\right|_{m_{j}} &= \left|\left|\sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \Phi_{h_{0}}^{j}(l)\right|_{m_{j}} + \left|\sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \Phi_{h_{1}}^{j}(l)\right|_{m_{j}}\right|_{m_{j}} \end{aligned} \right|_{m_{j}}$$
(19)



Figure 6. Polyphase RNS-DA 1-D DWT architecture.

where the contents of the four $2^{N/2} \times n_j$ LUTs are given by:

$$\Phi_{g_{0}}^{j}(l) = \left| \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} g_{0}(k) a_{2n-2k,l}^{(i-1)} \right|_{m_{j}}$$

$$\Phi_{g_{1}}^{j}(l) = \left| \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} g_{1}(k) a_{2n-2k-1,l}^{(i-1)} \right|_{m_{j}}$$

$$\Phi_{h_{0}}^{j}(l) = \left| \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} h_{0}(k) a_{2n-2k,l}^{(i-1)} \right|_{m_{j}}$$

$$\Phi_{h_{1}}^{j}(l) = \left| \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} h_{1}(k) a_{2n-2k-1,l}^{(i-1)} \right|_{m_{j}}$$
(20)

In this way, four $2^{N/2} \times n_j$ are necessary to compute Eq. (19) instead of two $2^N \times n_j$ LUTs as

in the previous approach. The four LUT outcomes read in each bCLK cycle are processed by means of four aforementioned modified modulo m_j accumulator, and finally pair-wise modulo added [32] to obtain the final outputs. Detailed information about the implementation of modulo adders using FPL technology can be found in [21]. This architecture enables a reduction in LUT address space requirements and is suitable for high-order wavelet filters.

An RNS-DA architecture for the *i* th-octave synthesis filter bank is derived by representing the inputs as n_j -bit unsigned words:

$$\hat{a}_{n}^{(i)}\big|_{m_{j}} = \sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \big| \hat{a}_{n,l}^{(i)} \big|_{m_{j}} \quad \big| \hat{d}_{n}^{(i)} \big|_{m_{j}} = \sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \big| \hat{d}_{n,l}^{(i)} \big|_{m_{j}}$$
(21)



Figure 7. RNS-DA 1-D IDWT architecture.

By interchanging the order of summations, the octave-*i* reconstruction filter bank is computed as:

$$\hat{a}_{m}^{(i-1)}\Big|_{m_{j}} = \begin{cases} \left| \left| \sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \Phi_{\bar{h}}^{j,e}(l) \right|_{m_{j}} + \left| \sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \Phi_{\bar{g}}^{j,e}(l) \right|_{m_{j}} \right|_{m_{j}} \\ m \text{ even} \\ \left| \left| \sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \Phi_{\bar{h}}^{j,o}(l) \right|_{m_{j}} + \left| \sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \Phi_{\bar{g}}^{j,o}(l) \right|_{m_{j}} \right|_{m_{j}} \\ m \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$
(22)

where:

$$\Phi_{\bar{h}}^{j,e}(l) = \left| \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \bar{h}_{2k} \hat{d}_{\frac{m}{2}-k,l}^{(i)} \right|_{m_j}$$

$$\Phi_{\bar{h}}^{j,o}(l) = \left| \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \bar{h}_{2k+1} \hat{d}_{\frac{m-1}{2}-k,l}^{(i)} \right|_{m_{j}}$$
(23)
$$\Phi_{\bar{g}}^{j,o}(l) = \left| \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \bar{g}_{2k} \hat{a}_{\frac{m}{2}-k,l}^{(i)} \right|_{m_{j}}$$
$$\Phi_{\bar{g}}^{j,o}(l) = \left| \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \bar{g}_{2k+1} \hat{a}_{\frac{m-1}{2}-k,l}^{(i)} \right|_{m_{j}}$$

The resulting modulo m_j RNS-DA architecture for the *i*th-octave synthesis filter bank is shown in Fig. 7. The inputs $|\hat{a}_n^{(i)}|_{m_j}$ and $|\hat{d}_n^{(i)}|_{m_j}$ are sampled at a rate sCLK. Two buffers, consisting of *N*/2 registers, are used to shift the input sequence and four LUTs store the functions $\Phi_{\bar{g}}^{j,e}$, $\Phi_{\bar{g}}^{j,o}$, $\Phi_{\bar{h}}^{j,e}$ and $\Phi_{\bar{h}}^{j,o}$. The output is computed concurrently as the summation of the low-pass and high-pass filters over even and odd cycles. In this manner, the values $|\hat{a}_{m,\text{even}}^{(i-1)}|_{m_j}$ and $|\hat{a}_{m,\text{odd}}^{(i-1)}|_{m_j}$ are computed using two modulo m_j modified accumulators clocked by the bit clock rate bCLK, and two modulo m_j adders, clocked at sCLK. Note that sCLK is generated by dividing bCLK by n_j .

6. Comparison of 2C-DA and RNS-DA DWT: FPL Implementation

The RNS-DA scheme takes advantage of short wordlength computations to overcome the channel barrier problem. Processing within an RNS channel is accomplished in n_j accumulation cycles, where n_j is small. RNS-DA designs can exceed the performance of a 2C-DA system that requires more accumulation cycles to implement a typical filter. The sampling frequency of the RNS-DA scheme, $f_{\text{RNS-DA}}^{\text{sCLK}}$, is related to that of the 2C-DA rate f_{2C-DA}^{sCLK} , by:

$$f_{\text{RNS-DA}}^{\text{sCLK}} = \frac{B}{n_j} \frac{f_{\text{RNS-DA}}^{\text{bCLK}}}{f_{\text{2C-DA}}^{\text{bCLK}}} f_{\text{2C-DA}}^{\text{sCLK}}$$
(24)

where $f_{\text{RNS-DA}}^{\text{bCLK}}$ and $f_{2\text{C-DA}}^{\text{bCLK}}$ are the accumulation clock frequency of RNS-DA and 2C-DA schemes, respectively. In this way, the RNS-DA improvements are proportional to the wordlength ratio (i.e., $B:n_j$), and the bit-clock ratio (i.e., $f_{\text{RNS-DA}}^{\text{bCLK}}$: $f_{2\text{C-DA}}^{\text{bCLK}}$).

Implementation of a DWT was considered using Altera FLEX10K devices. Different input, coefficient, and output precisions were considered in order to assess the advantage of the schemes proposed on the overall sampling frequency. The use of 5bit wide RNS channels was found to be an attractive choice since the sampling frequency is divided by the modulus width. The dynamic range is covered with 6-bit moduli, say {32, 31, 29, 27, 25} and {32, 31, 29, 27, 25, 23}, cover a range from 23 to 29-bits respectively. Table 3 audits the number of LEs and EABs required for the analysis and synthesis filter bank, as well as the throughput of a 2C-DA and 5- and 6-bit moduli RNS-DA schemes. These tables include results for a modulo 32 and 64 DA channel, as well as for generic 5- and 6bit RNS channels. The eight-tap filters, considered in Table 3, were compared for RNS-DA and 2C-DA DWT. Although non-polyphase RNS-DA architectures require $2^8 \times 6$ LUTs, instead of $2^4 \times 6$, these structures are preferred over polyphase architectures since less EABs are needed. However, polyphase architectures are ideal for higher order filters to enable fitting DA LUTs on embedded FPL device resources. On the other hand, for the special case of the 8-tap theme polyphase filter bank, no EABs are required if DA LUTs are mapped to $2^4 \times 1$ LEs as shown in Table 3.

The maximum bandwidth provided by DWT filterbanks based on 2C-DA and RNS-DA was compared for different precisions. Figure 8 yields the maximum sampling rate of a DWT filterbank using 2C-DA and RNS-DA (for 5- and 6-bit modulus sets) as a function of the input precision. Notice that, for a 5-bit RNS-DA solution, the sampling frequency is always higher than for a 2C-DA DWT filterbank. The overall throughput of 2C-DA filter banks decreases as the input precision increases. However, this decrease in the overall sampling rate does not occur in RNS-DA scheme if fixed bit-width modulus are used to handle the increasing dynamic range. Thus, RNS-DA provided an increase in the overall sampling rate, up to 136.63% and 156.27%, for -3 and -4 grade devices, respectively, for a 14-bit input design. As a result, RNS-DA is seen to represent an efficient tool for providing a sustained throughput when the precision is increased.

Table 3 provides results obtained for the synthesis filter bank too. Different implementations of the system in Fig. 7 were considered. In this way, mapping the DA LUTs on LEs was found to be more efficient than using EABs in terms of hardware requirements. When compared to an analysis filter bank, these architectures require less memory bits since 4-bit LUTs, instead of 8-bit address memories, are required. In order to take advantage of the built-in memory blocks and reduce the number of accumulators from 4 to 2, a new RNS-DA architecture that uses two $2^N \times n_i$ LUTs, was derived. The enhancement can be carried out by considering the computation of an even filter involving the even coefficients of the low-pass and high-pass, and an odd filter involving the odd coefficients of the low-pass and high-pass filters. Such filters are two-input filters and are defined as follows:

$$\left|\hat{a}_{m}^{(i-1)}\right|_{m_{j}} = \begin{cases} \left|\sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \Phi_{\bar{g},\bar{h}}^{j,e}(l)\right| & m \text{ even} \\ \left|\sum_{l=0}^{n_{j}-1} 2^{l} \Phi_{\bar{g},\bar{h}}^{j,o}(l)\right|_{m_{j}} & m \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$
(25)

8-tap DWT filter bank implementation	Number of LEs	Number of EABs (memory bits)	$f_{\rm bCLK}$ (MHz) Speed grade -3 and -4	$f_{\rm sCLK}({\rm MHz})$ Speed grade -3 and -4	Throughput improvement of RNS-DA
6-bit modulus RNS-DA channel	189 ^a	2 (3072) ^a	34.72 (-4)	5.59 (-4)	
	373 ^b	4 (384) ^b	43.47 (-3)		
	397°	$0^{\rm c}$			
Modulo 64 RNS-DA channel	100 ^a	2 (3072) ^a	65.35 (-4)	7.25 (-3)	
	168 ^b	4 (384) ^b	81.96 (-3)		
	192 ^c	0 ^c			
5-bit modulus RNS-DA channel	159 ^a	2 (2560) ^a	39.84 (-4)	7.97 (-4)	
	312 ^b	4 (320) ^b	49.12 (-3)		
	332 ^c	0 ^c			
Modulo 32 RNS-DA channel	85 ^a	2 (2560) ^a	74.73 (-4)	9.82 (-3)	
	140 ^b	4 (320) ^b	91.12 (-3)		
	160 ^c	0 ^c			
2C-DA					
8-bit input	220 ^d	4 (6656) ^d	50.00 (-4)	6.25 (-4)	27.52% (-4)
10-bit coeffs.	434 ^e	6 (768) ^e	66.66 (-3)	8.33 (-3)	17.89% (-3)
21-bit output	482 ^f	$0^{\rm f}$			
10-bit input	248 ^d	4 (6656) ^d	45.87 (-4)	4.59 (-4)	73.64% (-4)
10-bit coeffs.	482 ^e	6 (768) ^e	61.72 (-3)	6.17 (-3)	59.16% (-3)
23-bit output	530 ^f	$0^{\rm f}$			
12-bit input	292 ^d	4 (7680) ^d	46.51 (-4)	3.88 (-4)	105.41% (-4)
12-bit coeffs.	574 ^e	8 (896) ^e	63.69 (-3)	5.31 (-3)	84.93% (-3)
27-bit output	630 ^f	$0^{\rm f}$			
14-bit input	320 ^d	4 (7680) ^d	43.47 (-4)	3.11 (-4)	156.27% (-4)
12-bit coeffs.	630 ^e	8 (1024) ^e	58.13 (-3)	4.15 (-3)	136.63% (-3)
29-bit output	694 ^f	0^{f}			

Table 3. Hardware requirements and performance for 5- and 6-bit RNS-DA DWT channels and for different precision 2C-DA architectures.

^aArchitectures RNS-DA shown in Figs. 5 and 9.

^bArchitectures RNS-DA shown in Figs. 6 and 7.

^cArchitectures RNS-DA shown in Figs. 6 and 7 synthesized without using EABs.

^dArchitectures 2C-DA shown in Fig. 1 or the 2C design of Fig. 9.

^eArchitectures 2C-DA shown in Figs. 2 and 3.

^fArchitectures 2C-DA shown in Figs. 2 and 3 synthesized without using EABs.

where $\Phi_{\bar{g},\bar{h}}^{j,e}(l)$ and $\Phi_{\bar{g},\bar{h}}^{j,o}(l)$ are defined as:

$$\Phi_{\bar{g},\bar{h}}^{j,e}(l) = \left| \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \left[\bar{g}_{2k} \hat{a}_{\frac{m-1}{2}-k,l}^{(i-1)} + \bar{h}_{2k} \hat{d}_{\frac{m-1}{2}-k,l}^{(i-1)} \right] \right|_{m_{j}}$$

$$\Phi_{\bar{g},\bar{h}}^{j,o}(l) = \left| \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \left[\bar{h}_{2k+1} \hat{d}_{\frac{m}{2}-k,l}^{(i-1)} + \bar{g}_{2k+1} \hat{a}_{\frac{m}{2}-k,l}^{(i-1)} \right] \right|_{m_{j}}$$
(26)

which can be stored in two $2^N \times n_j$ LUTs. Both are addressed by the *N*-bit vector involving *N*/2 input

samples of each input sequence $\{\hat{a}_{m/2}^{(i)}, \hat{a}_{m/2-1}^{(i)}, \dots, \hat{a}_{m/2-N/2+1}^{(i)}, \hat{d}_{m/2}^{(i)}, \hat{d}_{m/2-1}^{(i)}, \dots, \hat{d}_{m/2-N/2+1}^{(i)}\}$ (*m* even). In addition, two consecutive samples of the output sequence are computed concurrently. Figure 9 shows this new RNS-DA architecture for the *i*th-octave reconstruction filter bank. Note that this architecture requires only two scaled modulo m_j accumulators and half the EAB resources of the previous approach, as shown in Table 3. Since only two CSA-based modulo accumulators are required for the new architecture, the total number of LEs needed is reduced by almost 50%.

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Figure 8. Overall 1-D DWT throughput of different input precision configurations.



Figure 9. Architecture with only two scaled accumulator for the octave-i synthesis filter bank.

7. Parallel RNS-DA DWT Architectures

The original DA paradigm, disclosed by Peled and Liu [5], considered a number of versions of the basic architecture. The DA architecture presented in Eq. (10), requires a minimum number of LUTs. At the other extreme, Peled and Lui proposed a multi-LUT architecture designed for speed. Maximum throughput for a 2C-DA would occur if, in Eq. (10), every one of the B_i -bit locations had a dedicated LUT. Such a design contains B_i copies of the four $2^{N/2} \times W'$ LUT groups shown in Fig. 2. The RNS-DA, however, provides a different opportunity. The computation of Eq. (18) can be implemented with a multi-LUT architecture, specifically in terms of $2n_j 2^N \times n_j$ LUTs implementing the functions $|2^l \Phi_g^j|_{m_i}$ and $|2^l \Phi_h^j|_{m_i}$ for $l = 0, 1, \ldots, n_i - 1$. The address of the *l*th LUT consists of the l-th bit of N buffered signal samples. The output sequences, $|a_n^{(i)}|_{m_j}$ and $|d_n^{(i)}|_{m_j}$, are computed by adding n_i LUT outcomes per cycle by means of the pipelined modulo m_i adder [21] tree shown in Fig. 10. The computation of the *i*th-octave reconstruction (synthesis) filter bank can also be carried out by using the parallel polyphase RNS-DA design shown in Fig. 11. This is achieved by using $4n_j 2^{N/2} \times n_j$ LUTs to implements the function $|2^{l}\Phi_{\bar{g}}^{j,e}|_{m_{j}}, |2^{l}\Phi_{\bar{g}}^{j,o}|_{m_{j}}$ $|2^{l}\Phi_{\bar{h}}^{j,\bar{e}}|_{m_{j}}$ and $|2^{l}\Phi_{\bar{h}}^{j,e}|_{m_{j}}$, for $l = 0, 1, \dots, n_{j} - 1$. The *l*th LÜT address consists of the *l*th bits of *N*/2 buffered samples of $|\hat{a}_n^{(i)}|_{m_j}$ ($|\hat{d}_n^{(i)}|_{m_j}$). Finally, the sequence $|\hat{a}_{m}^{(i-1)}|_{m_{i}}$ can be computed by adding the LUT words by means of a modulo m_i adder tree as shown in

Table 4.	Hardware requirements and throughput for 6-bit modulus
8-tap para	allel RNS-DA architectures over Altera FPL devices.

Parallel RNS-DA architecture	FLEX10K Speed grade -3 and -4	FLEX10KE Speed grade -1 and -3
Number of LEs	240	240
Number of EABs (memory bits)	$\begin{array}{c} 2 \times 6 \\ (2 \times 6 \times 2^8 \times 6) \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{c} 6\\ (6 \times 2^8 \times 12) \end{array} $
Throughput for several speed grade devices (MHz)	84.74 (-3) 68.96 (-4)	135.13 (-1) 86.20 (-3)

Fig. 11. Note that in these instances, only a clock rate is required. Both the computation of the 1-D DWT and 1-D IDWT, using the fast parallel RNS-DA design methodology, leads to a significant increase in the number of LUTs and adders. Table 4 summarizes the parallel architecture in the context of an 8-tap analysis filter bank. Table 5 shows hardware requirements of recursive RNS-DA and parallel RNS-DA architectures for the 1-D DWT and its inverse when N-tap filters are computed by means of K parallel $\lceil N/K \rceil$ tap sub-filters. For instance, a 16-tap filter bank for the 1-D DWT would require two $2^{16} \times n_i$ LUTs using the normal RNS-DA design methodology or, in polyphase form, using small $2^8 \times n_i$ LUTs by means of 8-tap sub-filters. Thus, the proposed strategy efficiently reduces the LUT address space of these systems by considering multiple RNS-DA units working in parallel.



Figure 10. Parallel RNS-DA 1-D DWT architecture.



Figure 11. Parallel RNS-DA 1-D IDWT architecture.

8. Binary-to-RNS and RNS-to-Binary Conversion

A historical barrier to the use of the RNS at the systemlevel has been the overhead penalty associated with binary-to-RNS and RNS-to-binary conversion. Binaryto-RNS conversion can be carried out efficiently on FPL devices by decomposing the 2C *B*-bit word, say *x*, into a weighted sum of smaller words \bar{x}_i (e.g., 4-bit words). Equation (27) exemplifies the case of a 4-bit decomposition, namely:

$$\begin{aligned} x|_{m_{j}} &= \left| -2^{B-1} x_{B-1} + \sum_{l=0}^{B-2} 2^{l} x_{l} \right|_{m_{j}} \\ &= \left| -2^{B-1} x_{B-1} + \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \bar{x}_{i} 2^{4i} \right|_{m_{i}} \end{aligned} \tag{27}$$

Table 5. Hardware requirements of recursive RNS-DA and parallel RNS-DA architectures for the 1-D DWT and its inverse when N-tap filters are computed by means of K DA subfilters.

	<i>i</i> th -octave analysis filter bank			<i>i</i> th-octave synthesis filter bank				
	LUTs	LUT size	mod m_j adders	$\mod m_j$ accs.	LUTs	LUT size	mod m_j adders	$\mod m_j$ accs.
RNS-DA based	2 <i>K</i>	$2^{\lceil N/K\rceil} \times n_j$	2(K-1)	$2K^{a}$	4K	$2^{\lceil N/2K\rceil} \times n_j$	2 + 4(K - 1)	$4K^{a}$
Parallel RNS-DA architecture	2Kn _j	$2^{\lceil N/K\rceil} \times n_j$	$2K(n_j - 1) + 2(K - 1)$	-	4Knj	$2^{\lceil N/2K\rceil} \times n_j$	$4K(n_j - 1) + 4(K - 1) + 2$	-

^aModified modulo *m_j* accumulators.

		20	C-to-RNS	RNS-to-2C	
	Modulus set	Number of LEs	Number of EABs (memory bits)	Number of LEs	Number of EABs (memory bits)
8-bit input	{64, 63, 51, 59}	81	0	48	8 (8192)
10-bit coeffs.	$\{32, 31, 29, 27, 25\}$	92	0	720	0
21-bit output					
10-bit input	{64, 63, 51, 59}	153	0	48	8 (8192)
10-bit coeffs.	{32, 31, 29, 27, 25, 23}	184	0	812	0
23-bit output					
12-bit input	{64, 63, 51, 59, 55}	208	0	96	10 (10240)
12-bit coeffs.	{32, 31, 29, 27, 25, 23}	200	0	812	0
27-bit output					
14-bit input	{64, 63, 51, 59, 55}	284	0	96	10 (10240)
12-bit coeffs.	{32, 31, 29, 27, 25, 23}	244	0	812	0
29-bit output					

Table 6. FPL resource requirements for the binary-to-RNS and RNS-to-binary converters.

requires only $2^4 \times n_i$ LUTs. Each can be efficiently mapped to n_i LEs, and modulo m_i adders as required. RNS-to-binary conversion implies the use of a CRT (Chinese Remainder Theorem)-based converter. The use of such a CRT-based converter is adequate for recursive RNS-DA DWT applications, since they do not demand high output conversion data rates. However, CRT conversion can often be a barrier in certain applications. The auto-scaling RNS-to-binary converter (ε -CRT) proposed by Griffin et al. [33] can overcome these drawbacks by using a few LUTs and binary (modulo 2^n) adder. For a scaled *n*-bit binary output, and a n_i -bit modulus set, this converter needs one $2^{n_j} \times n$ LUT for each modulus of the RNS and a *n*-bit adder tree. This solution is more appropriate for most applications demanding high data rates [22], including the presented parallel RNS-DA DWT architecture. Implementation data, using Altera FLEX10K devices, of the 2C-to-RNS and RNS-to-2C converters are provided in Table 6 for 5- and 6-bit modulus sets. The design for the 2C-to-RNS converter was derived from Eq. (27) while the ε -CRT algorithm with a 16-bit output was used for the RNS-to-2C converter. The results showed that using a 5-bit modulus set is not only optimum in the sense that it requires less clock cycles to compute the recursive RNS-DA equations, but it yields excellent performance improvements and enables the implementation of the converters with no need of using FPL embedded memory blocks. On the other hand, the operating frequency of both converters was found to be even higher than

the sCLK frequency, so the high throughput of the presented RNS-DA architectures was not degraded when converters were inserted in the system.

9. Conclusions

This paper considers the design and implementation of digital filters using an RNS-DA paradigm and FPL technology. To achieve a high level of performance a new CSA-based scaled modulo accumulator was developed. With this, and other innovations, the RNS-DA architecture was shown to be well suited for integrating DSP objects with FPL devices. To test the voracity of the proposed methodology, a DWT filter bank was used as a standard. The exhaustive comparison of a 2C-DA and RNS-DA was carried out using commercially available FPL technology with the RNS-DA shown to be advantageous, especially for high-precision applications. A DWT filterbank having a 14-bit input, designed by means of the reported RNS-DA methodology, achieved a performance improvement over the equivalent 2C system of up to 156.27%, and with the conversion stage not degrading the throughput of the overall system.

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