A Reconfigurable Multiprocessor IC for Rapid Prototyping of Algorithmic-Specific High-Speed DSP Data Paths

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Abstract—A field-programmable multiprocessor integrated circuit, PADDI (for Programmable Arithmetic Devices for High-Speed Digital Signal Processing), has been designed for the rapid prototyping of high-speed data paths typical to real-time digital signal processing applications. The processor architecture addresses the key requirements of these data paths: a) fast, concurrently operating, multiple arithmetic units, b) conflict-free data routing, c) moderate hardware multiplexing (of the arithmetic units), d) minimal branch penalty between loop iterations, e) wide instruction bandwidth, and f) wide I/O bandwidth. The initial version contains eight processors connected via a dynamically controlled crossbar switch, and has a die size of 8.9 × 9.5 mm², in a 1.2-μm CMOS technology. With a maximum clock rate of 25 MHz, it can support a computation rate of 200 MIPS and can sustain a data I/O bandwidth of 400 megabytes/s with a typical power consumption of 0.45 W. An assembler and simulator have been developed to facilitate programming and testing of the chip. A software compilation path from the high-level data flow language SILAGE [15] to PADDI is currently under development, and handles partitioning, scheduling, and code generation.

I. INTRODUCTION

In many real-time digital signal processing systems, tasks are computation intensive because high throughput is required, e.g., in real-time image processing and video applications, or because the tasks are complex, as in real-time speech recognition. Traditional microprocessor-based architectures are often inadequate to meet the computation requirements, and so clusters of dedicated data paths, hard-wired to closely match the algorithmic data flow, are used instead. Such architectures typically contain multiple and concurrently operating data-path pipelines.

The problem that we address is the rapid prototyping of computation-intensive DSP data paths. In real-time DSP applications the typical ASIC solutions take a long time to fabricate and test, and are not easily modified. A rapid prototyping capability will help alleviate these problems. In this paper we will first discuss the architectural features and computational requirements of high-speed DSP data paths. We propose a novel approach for synthesizing these data paths, first discussed in [5]. We will describe the architecture, circuit design, and implementation of a prototype chip, PADDI (for Programmable Arithmetic Devices for High-Speed Digital Signal Processing), which serves as proof of concept. We will give a brief overview of the grammar, assembler, and simulator which have been developed to assist the low-level programming of PADDI, and the CAD environment and tools being developed for automatic compilation from a high-level language. We will also compare our approach with existing ones.

A. Computation Requirements of High-Speed DSP

The goal of this work is to define a set of high-level programmable macro components to support the rapid prototyping of real-time DSP data paths. Case studies of real-time algorithms and pipelined data-path architectures enable us to identify the following key architectural features which must be supported by these macro components:

a) a set of concurrently operating execution units (EXU’s) with fast arithmetic, to satisfy the high computational (hundreds of MOPS) requirements;

b) very flexible communication between the EXU's to support the mapping of a wide range of algorithms and to ensure conflict-free data routing for efficient hardware utilization;

c) support for moderate (1–10) hardware multiplexing on the EXU’s, for fast computation of tight inner loops;

d) support for low overhead branching between loop iterations;

e) wide instruction bandwidth;

f) wide I/O bandwidth (hundreds of megabytes/s).

The examples were drawn from real-time video, speech, and image processing applications. They included biquadratic filters (nonpipelined and pipelined [16], [21]), the RGB to YUV converter of [14], the 3 × 3 image convolver and nonlinear sorting filters from [18] and [19], a memory controller for video coding [20], a dynamic time warp speech processor [12], and the word
and grammar processing subsystems of a large vocabulary real-time speech recognition system [4], [22].

By careful analysis of these examples we were able to derive the essential features of our programmable architecture. For example, by profiling the total number of occurrences of various operations across the benchmark set, we were able to identify the critical operations that should be supported. The result is presented in Fig. 1. The percentage occurrence of all occurrences is also listed. Clearly, by adopting the ten-percent rule, architectural support for add/sub, shifts, comparisons, and 2-to-1 multiplexing is desirable.

Table 1 summarizes the computational and I/O requirements of a few examples from [4], [14], [18], [19], and [22]. From these numbers we can see that real-time DSP applications place a tremendous demand on both computation and bandwidth requirements.

**B. Software-Configurable Hardware**

Fig. 2 shows the relative flexibility and performance of implementation approaches available to the system designer. Software-based microprocessor and digital signal processor approaches are very flexible, but often do not achieve the required performance. ASIC approaches often have high nonrecurring engineering (NRE) costs, and can take considerable time (months) and effort to fabricate and test. Software-configurable hardware combines the flexibility of software approaches with the high performance of hardware approaches. We will now describe the PADDI software-configurable architecture created to fill this gap.

**II. PADDI Architecture and VLSI Implementation**

**A. Overview**

The PADDI architecture provides a novel hardware platform for the rapid prototyping of algorithmic specific high-speed data paths. PADDI is software configurable, which allows algorithms to be hardwired into the architecture.

The basic architecture of our prototype chip is outlined in Fig. 3. It contains a cluster of eight EXU’s, each with its own local controller. (The complete architecture contains four of these clusters on a single chip.) The EXU’s are connected by a dynamically configurable, crossbar communication network. The architecture addresses the key requirements for rapid prototyping of dedicated high-speed data paths as follows. a) Each EXU contains dedicated hardware support for fast arithmetic. b) A crossbar switch that is under program control ensures conflict-free data routing within a cluster of EXU’s. Global broadcasting from a single source is supported, and the dynamic nature of the interconnect ensures that multiple sources can be merged at a single destination. c) The combination of flexible local interconnect, distributed memory (in the form of register files), and local controllers supports direct mapping of flow graphs to EXU’s, and the multiplexing of more than one operation onto a given EXU. d) By using multiple EXU’s rather than superpipelining, a single or a few EXU’s to achieve high computation rates, and by providing appropriate logic, low branch penalty for conditional branches and between loop iterations is achieved. e) High instruction bandwidth is ensured by assigning to each EXU its own dedicated controller. f) One hundred and twenty eight dedicated I/O pins allow EXU clusters to communicate with other clusters with high bandwidth (400 megabytes/s). The component parts of the architecture will be described in the following sections.

**B. EXU Architecture**

Fig. 4 shows the internal architecture of an EXU. Two 16-b-wide register files, each containing six registers, are used for the temporary buffering of data. The files are
and the external world to affect local and global program control flow, respectively. The EXU’s normally provide 16-b accuracy, but two can be concatenated for increased 32-b accuracy. The register delay, type of arithmetic, output pipeline register, and EXU linking are controlled by mode bits set by the user.

C. Communication Network

To ensure flexible, conflict-free and high-bandwidth data routing, a crossbar network has been selected to interconnect the processors. This network routes both data as well as status flags. The data routing is under program control and can be changed in each program cycle; the routing of the status flags is static and set at compile time. Static flag routing was chosen as a reasonable compromise between flexibility and hardware efficiency.

The main challenge in the design of the crossbar network is to ensure a pitch matching between the crossbar switches and the EXU’s. Therefore, a layered crossbar structure has been developed as shown in Fig. 5. A detail of the data-routing bit slice that connects EXU’s A and E to each other, to other EXU’s in the cluster, and the I/O buses is pictured. The layered switch implementation is organized as follows. The Type I switch connects the input of an EXU to either one of its neighbors (B, C, D for EXU A) or to the I/O buses or the other half of the cluster via a Type II switch. The squares and the circles represent inputs and outputs to the switches, respectively. A Type II switch is detailed. Data lines are run horizontally and control lines vertically. The major advantage of the proposed approach is that it allows all horizontal buses to fit within the pitch provided by the EXU’s and hence save a substantial amount of area. Finally, in order to make the design even denser, the switches are implemented using NMOS pass transistors only. Weak PMOS feedback transistors restore the weak high level passed by the NMOS pass transistors and improve noise margin.

The problems of sizing the feedback transistors for both Type I and II switches were coupled to avoid using extra decoupling buffers. Fig. 6 shows a circuit diagram of both switches. Fig. 7 shows SPICE switching waveforms of nodes A, B, and C of Fig. 6 with W/L of the feedback PMOS transistors as a parameter. In the case where W/L is zero, no feedback transistor is present, and node B is never pulled to rail. In the case where W/L is 8/2, node C is never pulled to ground because the inverter driving node C is not strong enough to counter the feedback transistor of the Type I switch. A reasonable compromise is to choose W/L = 3/3.

D. Control

Each EXU requires a 53-b horizontal control word, and so the overall instruction bandwidth for all eight EXU’s is quite high. In order to simultaneously achieve both a high instruction and data bandwidth, the control strategy shown in Fig. 8 was used. At run time, an external sequencer broadcasts a 3-b global instruction to each EXU,
Fig. 5. Simplified schematic of crossbar switch.

Fig. 6. Type I and Type II switches with weak PMOS pull-ups.

Fig. 7. Type I and II switching waveforms.
which is locally decoded into a 53-b instruction word. In this fashion, a 3-b word is used to specify a 424-b very long instruction word (VLIM). The architecture is SIMD in that each EXU receives the same global instruction, but MIMD in that each decoded instruction is unique to the associated EXU.

Status information can be communicated between the EXU's and the external controller to affect both the local and global control flows. Each EXU instruction contains two interrupt state fields. By setting these, the EXU can accept interrupts from other EXU's or the external world and then vector to the apropos address contained in its precompiled interrupt vectors.

The decoders of each EXU are SRAM-based nanostores that are configured at setup time. Fig. 9 shows a section of the SRAM. Each SRAM contains eight words, which allows eight different operations to be multiplexed on its associated EXU. Master–slave scan latches at its I/O are connected to a global serial shift register (scan chain) to allow serial configuration of the SRAM. The SRAM is implemented using a conventional six-transistor cell and operates with two-phase nonoverlapping clocks.

E. Configuration

All chip configuration registers (e.g., constants, mode bits, interrupt vectors) and the SRAM scan latches are connected as a serial shift register. Only a few pins are needed to configure the chip using this scheme. Eight scans, one for each word, are required to completely load the nanostores. Two on-board FSM's generate the necessary clock and interface and internal control signals that allows the chip to boot directly from standard EPROM's without the need for additional glue logic. One FSM generates divided down scan clocks which allows the use of standard (slow) EPROM's for booting. The other generates control signals for scanning and writing each individual line, and for verifying the contents of the nanostores. On-board counters indicate when a scan is completed and keep track of the current nanostore word being written.

III. SIMULATION AND TESTING

A. Simulation

SPICE simulations were performed to simulate the critical path of the chip. The respective load capacitances were estimated from the worst-case IC process parameters and incorporated into the SPICE decks. The critical path simulation results for an EXU and a four-quadrant chip are shown in Figs. 10 and 11 respectively. The units shown are in nanoseconds. The critical path begins from the issue of a read address to register file B. A delay of 24 ns is incurred during EXU transit from the register file, through the shifter and inversion logic, through the carry path of the carry select adder, and through the saturation
logic to the output of the EXU. An additional 15 ns is lost during transit through the crossbar networks, after which 2 ns are required to latch the data into the input of the target EXU. The total simulated critical delay is 41 ns.

The chip was implemented in 1.2-μm CMOS technology and tested and was fully functional on first silicon. Fig. 12 shows a photograph of the chip and Table II summarizes the chip characteristics.

### TABLE II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chip Characteristics</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EXU's</td>
<td>8 units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Register Files</td>
<td>16-32 b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nanostores</td>
<td>53 b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I/O Ports</td>
<td>8 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clock Frequency</td>
<td>25 MHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compute Power</td>
<td>200 MIPS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I/O Bandwidth</td>
<td>400 megabytes/s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Transistors</td>
<td>140 106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Die Size</td>
<td>8.8 x 9.5 mm²</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**B. Testing**

Fig. 13 shows the assembly code and scope trace for a mod 3 counter that cycles between 0, 1, and 2 at 25 MHz.

We note that the prototype chip, which contains a single quadrant, runs at a maximum clock frequency of 25 MHz with a critical path delay of 40 ns. This indicates that there is excellent agreement with the SPICE simulations. The only major difference between a single quadrant and one with four quadrants is the additional inter-quadrant transit time which, with proper buffering, can be limited to 1 or 2 ns.

The SFG of a low-pass biquadratic filter is shown in Fig. 14. The multiplying coefficients were converted to a canonical signed digit format to minimize the number of nonzero bits and transformed into shifts and adds (Fig. 15). A processor schedule using three EXU’s and three instructions is shown in Fig. 16. Fig. 17 shows the assembly code (mapped to three units and three instructions). Fig. 18(a) and (b) shows plots of the acquired impulse response and the corresponding frequency response, respectively. The arithmetic mode is 16-b two’s complement and the impulse is input at bit 13. The measured results agree well with simulations. Due to limitations of
the signal analyzer in acquiring data, the maximum clock rate of this biquad was constrained to 10 MHz.

Table III shows several other benchmarks which can be implemented on this architecture using several PADDI chips.

IV. PROGRAMMING TOOLS FOR PADDI

The low-level programming tools, the pas assembler and psim simulator, provide the foundation for the higher-level synthesis tools.

A. The Pas Assembler

Pas represents the lowest software-level interface between the programmer and the PADDI architecture, providing a method for describing algorithms. The pas assembly language was designed and implemented with the interconnection network of the PADDI architecture in mind: programs written in it can easily exploit intercommunication between execution units. The intercommunication follows a "receiver-controlled" model in which the receiving unit controls the routing of the actual communication while the broadcasting unit only concerns itself with the data or flag to be communicated (except when broadcasting to the external world; in this case the broadcaster must specify which output bus to employ). In addition to being able to express all available PADDI operations in a convenient C-like syntax, the assembler also allows for the explicit specification of instructions within the nanostores at the individual bit level.

B. The Psim Simulator

Psim serves as a tool for simulating and debugging multiple-chip PADDI algorithms in software. It consists of a simulation engine coupled with an X-based graphical user interface (GUI). The simulation engine can operate both as a "black box," allowing it to interface with external software tools, or as a stand-alone simulation environment when coupled with the X-based GUI. The stand-alone simulation environment supports many of the common debugging features, including single-stepped execution and the ability to modify registers and instructions "on the fly."

C. Software Compilation

An automated compilation path (Fig. 19) from a high-level data flow language Silage [15] to the PADDI chip, which includes partitioning, scheduling, and code gener-
TABLE III

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BENCHMARK</th>
<th>Possible Sampling Rate</th>
<th>EXU’s Required</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 x 3 Linear Convolver</td>
<td>25 MHz</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Image processing)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 x 3 Nonlinear Sorting Filter</td>
<td>25 MHz</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Image processing)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RGB Video Matrix Converter</td>
<td>25 MHz</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexible Memory Control Chip</td>
<td>25 MHz</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for Video Coding</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biquad</td>
<td>5 MHz</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct Form II</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(time-multiplexed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biquad</td>
<td>25 MHz</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct Form II</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(pipelined)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>

Fig. 18. Biquad impulse response.

The number of choices for FPGA’s is numerous with offerings from XILINX [11], Actel [1], Plus Logic [17], Plessey [9], Algotronix [8], ATT (10), and others. Due to their bit-level granularity, these FPGA’s will not support as flexible routing of wide data buses and will not have as fast adders (for the same technology) as a word-level granular architecture with flexible bus interconnections and adders optimized for speed. FPGA’s also do not typically support hardware multiplexing of their CLB’s. In software-configurable FPGA’s, the functions of the CLB’s can be redefined, but this is not typically done in high-speed applications since reconfiguration time is of the order of milliseconds. In order to illustrate these points, we have mapped several benchmarks to the popular XILINX XC3090 family.

The results are shown in Table IV, case A. The FPGA speed numbers are optimistic because no account is taken for routing delays. Because of the ability to have faster arithmetic for the same technology, more flexible interconnectivity of data buses, support for hardware multiplexing, and more efficient implementation of register files, PADDI is better suited for data-path-intensive applications.

When we started our investigations only the XC3000 family was available. The recently introduced XILINX XC4000 series, which uses 0.8- and 0.5-μm CMOS technology and which has hooks for faster adders and a different interconnect architecture, will affect the above comparison.

As a further comparison, a Motorola DSP56000 can operate at 10.25 MIPs and has a data I/O bandwidth of 60 megabytes/s. For video sampling rates, this translates to roughly two available instructions per sample. This type of limited performance and I/O capability clearly limits the applicability of general-purpose DSP’s to real time DSP applications.
TABLE IV
COMPARISON OF XILINX AND PADDI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>XILINX</th>
<th>PADDI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Min Sampl Int (ns)</td>
<td>No. of CLB's</td>
<td>Min Sampl Int (ns)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-b biquad (case A)</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-b biquad (case B)</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-b biquad (case B, pipelined)</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>1504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 x 3 Linear Convolver</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VI. CONCLUSION

The architecture and implementation of a reconfigurable multiprocessor IC for rapid prototyping of real-time data paths has been described. The chip targets high-performance digital signal processing applications. A 16 EXU (400 MIPS) processor is currently under design, together with a multiprocessor module approach, which could support up to 32 EXUs (800 MIPS) in a single package.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors thank Prof. R. W. Brodersen, A. Lee, S. Li, E. Ng, D. Schultz, C. Yu, and the members of the BJ-Group for their support.

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