Master's Thesis

Hardware Approximation of the Square Root Function

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LUNDS UNIVERSITET Lunds Tekniska Högskola

MASTER THESIS

Hardware Approximation of the Square Root Function

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A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science

 $in \ the$

Digital ASIC Group Department of Electrical and Information Technology

January 2014



Declaration of Authorship

We, Dalia Mihaiela Iurascu and Alejandro Vázquez Bofill, declare that this thesis titled, "Hardware Approximation of the Square Root Function" and the work presented in it are our own. We confirm that:

- This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University.
- Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated.
- Where we have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed.
- Where we have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely our own work.
- We have acknowledged all main sources of help.
- Where the thesis is based on work done by ourselves jointly with others, we have made clear exactly what was done by others and what we have contributed ourselves.

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Abstract

Lunds Tekniska Högskola Department of Electrical and Information Technology

Master of Science

Hardware Approximation of the Square Root Function

by

Dalia Mihaiela Iurascu Alejandro Vázquez Bofill

The aim of this master thesis research work focus on the development of a revolutionary methodology in which *Parabolic Synthesis* and *Second De*gree Interpolation methods are used for designing and implementing a novel approximation method of the Square Root function. This algorithm is implemented in VHDL, synthesized and mapped to an ASIC, using a 65 nm Standard V_T technology library, with respect to timing, chip area and power consumption. This methodology is also suitable for calculating other different unary functions such as trigonometric, logarithmic and division functions and the main advantage of the approach is the simple hardware implementation using just elementary operations like addition, shifting and multiplication. The results reveal that the high proportion of parallelism used in the architecture of the design makes this algorithm implementation feasible for fast computation applications.

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Abbreviations

DSP	\mathbf{D} igital \mathbf{S} ignal \mathbf{P} rocessing
\mathbf{GPU}	$\mathbf{G} \text{raphic } \mathbf{P} \text{rocessing } \mathbf{U} \text{unit}$
CORDIC	Coordination Rotation Digital Computers
\mathbf{RTL}	\mathbf{R} egister \mathbf{T} ransfer \mathbf{L} ogic
VHSIC	${\bf V}{\rm ery}$ High ${\bf S}{\rm peed}$ Integrated Circuits
VHDL	$\mathbf{V}\mathrm{HSIC}\ \mathbf{H}\mathrm{ardware}\ \mathbf{D}\mathrm{escription}\ \mathbf{L}\mathrm{anguage}$
LPHVT	$\mathbf{Low} \ \mathbf{P} \mathbf{ower} \ \mathbf{H} \mathbf{igh} \ \mathbf{T} \mathbf{hreshold} \ \mathbf{V} \mathbf{oltage}$
LPLVT	$\mathbf{Low} \ \mathbf{P} \mathbf{ower} \ \mathbf{Low} \ \mathbf{T} \mathbf{hreshold} \ \mathbf{V} \mathbf{oltage}$
GPSVT	General P urpose Standard Threshold Voltage
CPU	$\mathbf{C}\mathrm{entral}\;\mathbf{P}\mathrm{rocessing}\;\mathbf{U}\mathrm{nit}$
\mathbf{SDF}	${f S}$ tandard ${f D}$ elay ${f F}$ ormat
\mathbf{SDC}	\mathbf{S} ynopsis \mathbf{D} esign \mathbf{C} onstraint
DC	Direct Current
VLSI	$\mathbf{V}\mathrm{ery}\ \mathbf{L}\mathrm{arge}\ \mathbf{S}\mathrm{cale}\ \mathbf{I}\mathrm{ntegration}$
\mathbf{PS}	Static Power
CMOS	$\mathbf{C} \mathbf{o} \mathbf{m} \mathbf{p} \mathbf{e} \mathbf{m} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{n} n$
IC	Integrated Circuits
\mathbf{PT}	$\mathbf{T} \text{ransient } \mathbf{P} \text{ower}$

SAIF	${\bf S} {\rm witching}~ {\bf A} {\rm ctivity}~ {\bf I} {\rm nterchange}~ {\bf F} {\rm ormat}$
VCD	$\mathbf{V} \text{alue } \mathbf{C} \text{hange } \mathbf{D} \text{ump}$
SPEF	${\bf S} {\bf tandard} \ {\bf P} {\bf arasitic} \ {\bf E} {\bf x} {\bf change} \ {\bf F} {\bf ormat}$
SOC	$\mathbf{V} alue \ \mathbf{C} hange \ \mathbf{D} ump$
ΙΟ	Input Output
ASIC	$\mathbf{A} \text{pplication } \mathbf{S} \text{pecific Integrated Circuit}$

Preface

In this thesis work, Alejandro Vazquez Bofill has been working with Dalia Mihaiela Iurascu.

Dalia Mihaiela Iurascu has been working on writing the Introduction(Chapter 1), theoretical approach for the Square Root Function(Chapter 2), Error Estimation(Chapter 6) and Synthesis together with the Place and Route of the design (Chapter 10 and Chapter 11). She has been writing also the Results chapter(Chapter 12) in which all the data were collected and discussed and finally she worked on the Conclusion and Improvements(Chapter 13).

Alejandro Vazquez Bofill has been working with Parabolic Synthesis (Chapter 3) and Second Degree Interpolation (Chapter 4). He also worked on Combining the Parabolic Synthesis and Second Degree Interpolation Methodologies(Chapter 5), Square Root Function Approximation(Chapter 7) and he discussed the Architecture of the design(Chapter 8) and finally he wrote on the Error Analysis(Chapter 9).

Abstract and Bibliography parts have been done together by Dalia and Alejandro.



Introduction

Nowadays, when gadgets and computers are present in everyday aspect of our life, more advanced algorithms for shorter computational timing are tremendously important.

Algebraic functions, for instance square root, logarithm, as well as trigonometric functions embrace the main source of algorithm implementation in domains like digital signal processing (DSP), wireless communication, graphic processing units (GPU), image processing, communication systems and medical robotics.

The performance of only software implementations of these algorithms is not satisfactory all the time, thus in order to improve the functionality, a translation of the software into hardware is desired.

The CORDIC (Coordination Rotation Digital Computers) algorithm [1], [2], [3] has constituted the fundamental method for unary functions implementations in the past. The CORDIC algorithm [4] is based on elementary and uncomplicated mathematical operations such as shifting and addition operations and it does not use any multiplier elements, nevertheless it is a repetitive method, henceforth slow for this type of applications.

The easiest approach for implementing such functions is by applying single look-up table techniques such the ones described in [5] and [6]. The drawback of this method anyhow, is the big size of the tables thus long execution time.

An innovative approach, which is using *Parabolic Synthesis* and *Second Degree Interpolation* for calculating different unary functions, has been proposed by Erik Hertz and Peter Nilsson in [7],[8], [9],[10].

The key element of this original methodology is the usage of approximations of unary functions as is detailed in [7].

The objective of this master thesis is to reduce the execution time of unary functions such as square root by applying Parabolic Synthesis and Second Degree Interpolation methods [7] in the hardware implementation of the square root function.

Our goal is to implement the design and compare it for accuracy, error behaviour, power consumption and performance to an optimized square root algorithm implementation. The success features of the proposed approach of Erik Hertz and Peter Nilsson is the parallelism used in the hardware architecture together with the usage of low complexity operations.

Other unary functions such as logarithmic, exponential and trigonometric functions has been implemented already using this methodology as is described in [11], [8] and the results are showing that is a very efficient method with better accuracy, shorter critical path and higher throughput compared with other algorithms.

This thesis is organized as follows:

Chapter 1 dispenses the reader with the motivation for reading the material in this thesis and provides a brief introduction.

Chapter 2 describes the square root function approximation as well as higher square roots.

Chapter 3 and 4 familiarize the lecturer with Parabolic Synthesis and Second Degree Interpolation techniques.

Chapter 5 details the combination process between Parabolic Synthesis and Second Degree Interpolation methodologies.

Chapter 6 is talking about the error approximation and the tools used in the characterization of the error.

Chapter 7 is outlining the square root function approximation using the Parabolic Synthesis and Second Degree Interpolation method, followed by chapter 8 which details the architecture of the algorithm implementation.

In chapter 9 a continuation of the error analysis is exposed.

In chapter 10 the synthesis of the algorithm is characterized, followed by chapter 11 and 12, which include the place-and-route process description and the results of implementation and verification of the algorithm, respectively.

Chapter 13 outlines the conclusions and advice for attainable future improvements.



Square Root Function

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter the algorithm approximation for the square root and higher square roots are introduced to the reader.

2.2 Square Root Function

The conversion of a floating-point number into base 4 using binary number representation is the key element of the algorithm approximation for computing the square root of a number x. As explained in (2.1), by making use of the base 4 and binary representation, is easier to make the integer part of the mantissa to be expressed in 2 bits MM.

$$v = MM.mmmm...mm \cdot 4^{exp} \tag{2.1}$$

As it will be detailed further on the following chapters, the number of bits from the fractional part (fractional bits), mm...mm is determined according with the accuracy needed on the input.

For calculating the square root of the floating point number represented in (2.1), the square root is executed on the mantissa and the exponent individually as it will be depicted in the equation (2.2), where the final output is called z.

$$z = \sqrt{MM.mmmm...mm} \cdot \sqrt{4^{exp}} = \sqrt{MM.mmmm...mm} \cdot 2^{exp}$$
(2.2)

The same approach as described above, can be used for computing the n^{th} root, where *n* represent a natural number, for example the cubic root of a floating point number. For the approximation of the algorithm for computing the cubic root of a number, *x* is adjusted into a floating point number with the base 8 instead of 4 and binary representation number as shown in (2.3).

$$v = MMM.mmmm...mm \cdot 8^{exp} \tag{2.3}$$

By using the base 8 and binary representation of numbers, makes the integer part of the mantissa to consist of three bits MMM. As in the case of square root of a number, the number of fractional bits of the cubic root depends on the accuracy of the input as well. In the same manner as the square root, for performing the cubic root of the floating point numbers shown in (2.3), the mantissa and the exponent will be considered separately as shown in (2.4).

$$z = \sqrt[3]{MMM.mmmm...mm} \cdot \sqrt[3]{8^{exp}} = \sqrt[3]{MMM.mmmm...mm} \cdot 2^{exp} \quad (2.4)$$

Chapter 3

Parabolic Synthesis

3.1 Introduction

The Parabolic Synthesis methodology proposed and described by Erik Hertz and Peter Nilsson in [9], is a method for calculating *unary functions*¹ approximations, based on the recombination of parabolic functions. Parabolic functions, also called *sub-functions*, are employed to provide fast convergence and rather simple hardware implementation to the design. This methodology also proposes a sub-functions recombination process, based on multiplication of the factors, instead of addition as in other methods. This allows higher levels of parallelism and further improves the convergence.

¹functions that take one argument, such as *trigonometric*, *logarithmic* and *exponential* functions, among others

3.2 The Methodology

This methodology is based on that, the normalized function $f_{org}(x)$ of a specific unary function f(x) can be perfectly recreated, by recombining an infinite number of parabolic functions, based on multiplications, as in (3.1a), where $s_1(x), s_2(x)$ up to $s_{\infty}(x)$ are the parabolic functions. Since the main purpose of this methodology is a hardware implementation, the number of sub-functions to be implemented must be finite, thus this methodology relies on the development of a set of sub-functions to achieve an approximation to the unary function with a required accuracy, as in (3.1b).

$$f_{org}(x) = s_1(x) \cdot s_2(x) \dots s_\infty(x)$$
 (3.1a)

$$f_{org}(x) \approx s_1(x) \cdot s_2(x) \dots s_n(x) \tag{3.1b}$$

3.3 Development of the first sub-function

To develop the first sub-function, the unary function is first normalized, with the goal of decreasing the hardware complexity of the design by limiting the numerical range of the calculations. This normalization is closely related to the unary function to be implemented, thus a different transformation is to be applied to a different unary function to normalize it. To assure proper functionality of the methodology, the normalized function, also called the original function $f_{org}(x)$, has to fulfil three important conditions:

• must be strictly concave or convex through the interval to be approximated



FIGURE 3.1: Concave or Convex Normalized Function

• the limit of the original function divided by the linear function x, when x tends to zero, subtracted with one, must be equal to a real number

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f_{org}(x)}{x} - 1 = c_1, \text{ where } c_1 \in \Re$$

• the absolute value of the real value obtained in the previous requirement must be smaller than one

If $f_{org}(x)$ meets the exposed requirements, then the first sub-function $s_1(x)$ is obtained. To ease this analysis, the usual mathematical representation of quadratic functions in (3.2a) is transformed to (3.2b). In this equation, the coefficient l_n represents the starting point of the function to be approximated, which can be calculated as in (3.2c). In the same manner, the coefficient k_n represents the gradient of the same function and it is given by the slope of the linear function formed by its starting and ending points, which it can obtained as in (3.2d). Lastly, the coefficient c_n represents the quadratic part of the sub-function, which it is obtained differently for each sub-function, therefore

explained with more details for each case.

$$y = d + e \cdot x + f \cdot x^2 \tag{3.2a}$$

$$s_n(x) = l_n + k_n \cdot x + c_n \cdot (x - x^2)$$
 (3.2b)

$$l_n = f(x_{start}) \tag{3.2c}$$

$$k_n = \frac{f(x_{end}) - f(x_{start})}{x_{end} - x_{start}}$$
(3.2d)

From Fig. 3.1, it is given that the coefficient l_1 is equal to zero, as $f_{org}(0) = 0$ and the coefficient k_1 is equal to one, since the normalized function starts at the coordinates (0;0) and ends at the coordinates (1;1). Then, the subfunction $s_1(x)$ can be re-written as in (3.3), where the coefficient c_1 is obtained to satisfy the condition in (3.4a), which provide a simple implementation of the second sub-function $s_2(x)$.

$$s_1(x) = x + c_1(x - x^2)$$
(3.3)

Since the term x^2 in (3.4b) goes faster towards zero than the term x, it can be excluded for the calculations, as in (3.4c). Regrouping the term $(1 + c_1)$, it is obtained (3.4d). Thus, the coefficient c_1 must be obtained as in (3.4e).

$$1 = \lim_{x \to 0} \left[\frac{f_{org}(x)}{x + c_1(x - x^2)} \right]$$
(3.4a)

$$1 = \lim_{x \to 0} \left[\frac{f_{org}(x)}{x(1+c_1) - c_1 \cdot x^2} \right]$$
(3.4b)

$$1 = \lim_{x \to 0} \left[\frac{f_{org}(x)}{x(1+c_1)} \right]$$
(3.4c)

$$1 + c_1 = \lim_{x \to 0} \left[\frac{f_{org}(x)}{x} \right]$$
(3.4d)

$$c_1 = \lim_{x \to 0} \left[\frac{f_{org}(x)}{x} - 1 \right]$$
(3.4e)

3.4 Help Functions

In order to develop the higher order sub-functions to increase the accuracy of the approximation, help functions are first obtained to ease this process. These help functions provide curves, which later on, are approximated by the sub-functions.

The original function $f_{org}(x)$ is divided by its first approximation or the subfunction $s_1(x)$, when calculating the first help function $f_1(x)$. It is important to notice that the help functions are obtained by means of divisions, instead of subtractions, which improves the convergence of the approximation. To obtain help functions of order n, when n > 1, the division occurs between the order n - 1 help function and the order n sub-function, as in (3.5).

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{f_{org}(x)}{s_1(x)}, & \text{for } n = 1\\ \frac{f_{(n-1)}(x)}{s_{(n)}(x)}, & \text{for } n > 1 \end{cases}$$
(3.5)

However, help functions of higher order than one are not strictly convex or concave through the whole interval. Therefore, these help functions are split into sub-intervals, where every sub-interval is either concave or convex. Then, a *help partial function* is obtained for each sub-interval as in (3.6).

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} f_{n,0}(x), & 0 \le x < \frac{1}{2^{(n-1)}} \\ f_{n,1}(x), & \frac{1}{2^{(n-1)}} \le x < \frac{2}{2^{(n-1)}} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ f_{n,[2^{(n-1)}-1]}(x), & \frac{2^{(n-1)}-1}{2^{(n-1)}} \le x < 1 \end{cases}$$
(3.6)

3.5 Developing higher order sub-functions

3.5.1 Second Sub-function

The second sub-function $s_2(x)$ is developed as an approximation to the first help function $f_1(x)$, as in Fig. 3.2. This sub-function is developed also applying the quadratic function in (3.2b).

From Fig. 3.2, it is given that the coefficient l_2 is equal to one, since $f_1(0) = 1$ and the coefficient k_2 is equal to zero, since the $f_1(x)$ starts at the coordinates (0; 1) and ends at the coordinates (1; 1). Then, the second sub-function $s_2(x)$ can be re-written as in (3.7a) and the coefficient c_2 can be obtained as in (3.7b). Its graphical representation can be seen in Fig. 3.2.

$$s_2(x) = 1 + c_2 \cdot (x - x^2)$$
 (3.7a)

$$c_2 = 4 \cdot [f_1(0.5) - 1] \tag{3.7b}$$



FIGURE 3.2: Approximation to the first help function

3.5.2 Sub-functions of Higher Order

For sub-functions of order n, where n > 1, a partial sub-function is developed for every help partial function obtained in (3.6). The partial sub-functions are represented as in (3.8a), where every interval is normalized. Therefore, the starting point or coefficient l_n for each one of them equals one and the gradient is zero, resulting in (3.8b). The quadratic part is calculated as in (3.8c).

$$s_{n,m}(x) = l_{n,m} + k_{n,m} \cdot x + c_{n,m} \cdot (x_n - x_n^2)$$
(3.8a)

$$s_{n,m}(x) = 1 + c_{n,m} \cdot (x_n - x_n^2)$$
 (3.8b)

$$c_{n,m} = 4 \left\{ f_{n-1,m} \cdot \left[\frac{2(m+1) - 1}{2^{(n-1)}} \right] \right\}$$
(3.8c)

After that, every partial sub-function is obtained as in (3.9).

$$s_{n,m}(x) = \begin{cases} s_{n,0}(x_n), & 0 \le x < \frac{1}{2^{(n-2)}} \\ s_{n,1}(x_n), & \frac{1}{2^{(n-2)}} \le x < \frac{2}{2^{(n-2)}} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ s_{n,[2^{(n-2)}-1]}(x_n), & \frac{2^{(n-2)}-1}{2^{(n-2)}} \le x < 1 \end{cases}$$
(3.9)

The term x_n is employed instead of x, because the normalization of x in the intervals is performed. This transformation is done as in (3.10), where the frac() function performs a truncation of the integer part of the number. This integer part is used to index the partial sub-function to be used.

$$x_n = frac\{x \cdot [2^{(n-2)}]\}$$
(3.10)

3.6 Hardware Implementation

To implement designs based on this methodology, it is recommended to apply the two's complement binary representation and to divide the process in three different stages, *pre-processing*, *processing* and *post-processing*, as in Fig. 3.3, where the *operand* v is the input value, the *operand* x is the normalized or optimized input value, the *operand* y is the normalized or optimized result and the *operand* z is the final result. Thus, in the first stage, the normalization transformation is performed, along with other possible optimizations to decrease the overall complexity of the design. If the calculation of the approximations of the unary function is to be implemented as a module of a larger design, this stage can be merged into previous blocks and therefore be excluded.



FIGURE 3.3: Design Stages

In the second stage, the calculations of the approximations take place, where the partials are obtained and recombined. A parallel implementation of this stage is represented in Fig. 3.4 and an iterative one in Fig. 3.5. The trade-off between these two implementations is given by the silicon area versus computational time, making the parallel approach more suitable for fast applications and the iterative one for lower area costs. Pipeline stages can also be introduced to the design to increase the throughput, which also negatively affects the latency.

Since this methodology is based on quadratic functions, a squaring unit is needed for calculating the values x^2 and x_n^2 , where the latter ones are partial results of the first one. Thus, these calculations can be performed in the same squaring unit, applying the algorithm proposed by Erik Hertz and exposed in table 3.1, which involves only shifting, simple multiplications and simple additions, to achieve these results. To further decrease the hardware complexity of this unit and to improve the computational times of these calculations an



FIGURE 3.4: Parabolic Synthesis. Parallel Approach



FIGURE 3.5: Parabolic Synthesis. Iterative Approach

improved version² of this algorithm is implemented, which is shown in table 3.2. In table 3.1 and table 3.2, the partial products p, q and r are the results of squaring the two, three and four least significant bits of the input value, respectively. Since, x_n is the (word_length - truncation_bits) least significant bits of x, this algorithm is very appropriate for obtaining x^2 and x_n^2 simultaneously.

A more detailed architecture of the parallel approach can be seen in Fig. 3.6, in which it is possible to see how the squaring unit produces the different squared values simultaneously, how the sub-functions are implemented in hardware and, how the different partials are then recombined based on *multiplications*, following a tree structure. In this way, the original function is recreated up to an accuracy level given by the four sub-functions implemented. In the final

²This improved version was also proposed by Erik Hertz.

					x_3	x_2	x_1	x_0	
				*	x_3	x_2	x_1	x_0	
								$x_0 \cdot x_0$	
								p_0	p
				+			$x_1 \cdot x_0$		
				+		$x_1 \cdot x_1$	$x_0 \cdot x_1$		
					q_3	q_2	q_1	p_0	\mathbf{q}
		+				$x_2 \cdot x_0$			
		+			$x_2 \cdot x_1$				
		+		$x_2 \cdot x_2$	$x_1 \cdot x_2$	$x_0 \cdot x_2$			
			r_5	r_4	r_3	r_2	r_1	r_0	r
+					$x_3 \cdot x_0$				
+				$x_3 \cdot x_1$					
+			$x_3 \cdot x_2$						
+		$x_3 \cdot x_3$	$x_2 \cdot x_3$	$x_1 \cdot x_3$	$x_0 \cdot x_3$				
	s_7	s_6	s_5	s_4	s_3	s_2	s_1	s_0	\mathbf{s}^{-}

TABLE 3.1: Squaring Algorithm

				x_3	x_2	x_1	x_0	
			*	x_3	x_2	x_1	x_0	
							$x_0 \cdot x_0$	
					x_1		p_0	\mathbf{p}
			+		$x_1 \cdot x_0$	0		
			x_2	q_3	q_2	q_1	p_0	\mathbf{q}
	+		$x_2 \cdot x_1$	$x_2 \cdot x_0$				
	x_3	r_5	r_4	r_3	r_2	r_1	r_0	\mathbf{r}
+	$x_3 \cdot x_2$	$x_3 \cdot x_1$	$x_3 \cdot x_0$					
s_7	s_6	s_5	s_4	s_3	s_2	s_1	s_0	\mathbf{S}

TABLE 3.2: Improved Squaring Algorithm


FIGURE 3.6: Parabolic Synthesis. Detailed Parallel Approach

stage, the transformations applied in the first stage are reversed to obtain the final result. As in the first stage, if the calculation of the approximations of the unary function is to be implemented as a module of a larger design, this stage can be merged into following blocks and therefore can be excluded.

3.7 Conclusions

This methodology allows for high parallelism, as seen in Fig. 3.4 and its main drawback is when high precision is required. In order to achieve high accuracy, a large amount of sub-functions is required, increasing the hardware complexity of the design. Therefore, a new method was integrated to this methodology.



Second Degree Interpolation

4.1 Introduction

The Second Degree Interpolation methodology is also a methodology based on parabolic functions, for calculation of approximations on unary functions. This methodology divides the function to be approximated into sub-intervals and parabolic functions of the same family are developed to approximate them, as in Fig. 4.1. In this figure, it is possible to see, how the parabolic approximation of the first sub-interval is somehow inaccurate, but the parabolic approximations of the higher order sub-intervals are very similar to the sub-interval to be approximated. If the approximation to one of the sub-intervals cannot achieve the required accuracy then, the function must be divided into a larger number of sub-intervals.



FIGURE 4.1: 4 Intervals Approximations

4.2 Developing the interval approximations

The parabolic function shown in (4.1) is employed to develop the interval approximations, where the sub-index *i* denotes the order of the interval and the term x_w represent the normalized value of *x* for the interval *i*.

$$s_{2,i}(x) = l_i + k_i \cdot x_w + c_i \cdot (x_w - x_w^2)$$
(4.1)

To simplify the indexing of the sub-intervals in hardware, the amount of subintervals I needs to satisfy the condition in (4.2), where $(w \in \mathbb{N})$. This condition allows the indexing of the sub-intervals using the most significant w bits of the input value x. In this way, the normalized value x_w is given by the remaining or least significant (world_length - w) bits of x.

$$I = 2^w \tag{4.2}$$

The sub-functions are developed according to the diagram in Fig. 4.2. In this diagram it is possible to see how the approximation equals the function in the initial, middle and end points to minimize the error. It is also possible to see

how the approximation from the starting point to the middle point approaches the function on the opposite manner than the approximation from the middle to the end point. In a similar manner to Parabolic Synthesis Interpolation,



FIGURE 4.2: Intervals Approximations

the coefficients l_i represent the starting point of each interval. In Fig. 4.2, it is possible to see this point for i = 1, where x = 0. To obtain these values, the function to be approximated is evaluated for the initial values of each interval, $x_{start,i}$, as in (4.3).

$$l_i = f(x_{start,i}) \tag{4.3}$$

The coefficients k_i are obtained as the gradient of each interval, mathematically expressed in (4.4), where the denominator is always equal to one due to the intervals are normalized. The gradient is given by the slope of the linear function that crosses the starting and ending points of the interval, represented with a dotted line in Fig. 4.2.

$$k_i = \frac{f(x_{end,i}) - f(x_{start,i})}{x_{end,i} - x_{start,i}}$$
(4.4)

The coefficients c_i are developed in a way, so that the resemblances, or parabolic functions, cut the intervals in the middle point, as can be seen in Fig. 4.2. The

mathematical expression to obtain these coefficients is represented in (4.5).

$$c_i = 4[f(x_{middle,i}) - l_i - 0.5k_i]$$
(4.5)

To calculate the values $x_{start,i}$, $x_{final,i}$ and $x_{middle,i}$ for each interval *i*, the inverse value of *I* (number of Intervals) is multiplied with the order of the interval, where the starting point is $0 \le i < I$ and the ending point is $0 < i \le I$. The middle point is obtained as an average of these values. Table 4.1 resumes how to calculate these values.

$x_{start,i}$	$i(I^{-1})$	$0 \le i < I$
$x_{end,i}$	$i(I^{-1})$	$0 < i \leq I$
$x_{middle,i}$	$\frac{x_{end,i} + x_{start,i}}{2}$	_

TABLE 4.1: Relation of initial, middle and final values

4.3 Optimizations

By developing the sub-intervals resemblances as explained in the previous section, the achieved error equals zero at the starting, middle and ending points of each sub-intervals. However, it present a combined concave-convex behaviour through the interval, as it is shown in Fig. 4.3(a). In occasions, the maximum positive error is much larger than the negative one, or vice versa, as shown in Fig. 4.3(b). This undesired result can be avoided, by manually correcting the coefficients c_i , to a value where both errors are equal. This step constitutes the first optimization of designs based on this methodology. Another optimizations is achieved by further simplifying the sub-function $s_{2,i}(x)$. Precomputing the coefficients j_i , as shown in (4.6a) which yields (4.6b), resulting



FIGURE 4.3: Error Behavior

in a reduced amount of calculations.

$$j_i = k_i + c_i \tag{4.6a}$$

$$s_{2,i}(x) = l_i + j_i x_p - c_i x_p^2$$
 (4.6b)

4.4 Hardware Implementation

From a hardware point of view, by utilizing parabolic functions of the same family, it is possible to re-use the hardware arithmetic modules, as shown in Fig. 4.4. In this figure it is also possible to see that by indexing different sets of coefficients, which are stored in look-up tables, the calculations of the right approximation are performed, allowing hardware re-use. In this figure, it is also possible to see that the w most significant bits of the input value or x_m , can be used to address these look-up tables and that the $(word_length - w)$ least significant bits or x_w , are used for the calculations.



FIGURE 4.4: Second Degree Interpolation. Hardware Representation

4.5 Conclusions

This methodology allows for lower hardware complexity in the designs, but its main drawback is that it introduces lower levels of parallelism. To achieve an improved performance in the calculations of the approximations of unary functions, a combination of these two methodologies has been proposed.



Combining the Parabolic Synthesis and Second-Degree Interpolation Methodologies

5.1 Introduction

The combination of these two methodologies, proposed by Erik Hertz and Peter Nilsson, is based on the development of a first sub-function $s_1(x)$ by the Parabolic Synthesis Methodology and of a second sub-function $s_{2,i}(x)$ by applying the Second Degree Interpolation Methodology. Their recombination is then, performed by means of multiplication, as shown in (5.1). The first subfunction $s_1(x)$ is an initial approximation of the whole interval. The second one $s_{2,i}(x)$ is a set of fine-tuned approximations of the set of sub-intervals. The division between the original function and the first approximation is divided into.

$$f_{org}(x) = s_1(x) \cdot s_{2,i}(x) \tag{5.1}$$

5.2 Obtaining the sub-functions

When obtaining the first sub-function, $s_1(x)$, the expression shown in (5.2a) is employed, where the coefficient c_1 is obtained as in (5.2b). These expressions have already been presented and explained in chapter 3.

$$s_1(x) = x + c_1(x - x^2)$$
 (5.2a)

$$c_1 = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f_{org}(x)}{x} - 1$$
 (5.2b)

Then, the help function $f_1(x)$ is obtained by applying (5.3a) and it is divided into a number of sub-interval I, which satisfy the condition in (5.3b).

$$f_n(x) = \frac{f_{org}(x)}{s_1(x)} \tag{5.3a}$$

$$I = 2^w \tag{5.3b}$$

Then, a number equal to I of sub-intervals approximations are obtained as in (5.4a), to form the second sub-function, $s_{2,i}(x)$. To this end, the coefficients $l_{2,i}$ are obtained applying (5.4b); the coefficients $j_{2,i}$ are obtained by applying the optimization represented in (5.4c); the coefficients $k_{2,i}$ are obtained as the gradient between the initial and final points of each interval or as in (5.4d) and the coefficients $c_{2,i}$ are obtained by applying (5.4e), as explained in chapter 4.

$$s_{2,i}(x) = l_{2,i} + j_{2,i}x_w - c_{2,i}x_w^2$$
(5.4a)

$$l_{2,i} = f_1(x_{start,i}) \tag{5.4b}$$

$$j_{2,i} = k_{2,i} + c_{2,i} \tag{5.4c}$$

$$k_{2,i} = \frac{f_1(x_{end,i}) - f_1(x_{start,i})}{x_{end,i} - x_{start,i}}$$
(5.4d)

$$c_{2,i} = 4[f_1(x_{middle,i}) - l_{2,i} - 0.5k_{2,i}]$$
(5.4e)

5.3 Conclusions

The implementation of this methodology results in a more compact, efficient and effective architecture. As it is possible to see in Fig. 5.1, only two subfunctions and a set of look-up tables are implemented in hardware. At the same time, the hardware complexity remains the same for higher accuracy levels, because only a larger set of intervals is needed, which only increases the size of the look-up tables. Furthermore, the recombination step is decreased to a single multiplication.



FIGURE 5.1: Second Degree Interpolation. Block Diagram



Error Estimation

6.1 Introduction

In this section the tools are analysed for characterizing the error of the approximation of our algorithm.

6.2 Error Performance

In order to describe and characterize the error estimation five metrics are used as described in [12]. The five metrics are maximum absolute error, mean error, median, standard deviation and root mean square error.

6.2.1 Maximum Absolute Error

The absolute error Δx_i is the magnitude of the difference between the exact value x_i and the approximation \hat{x} as detailed in (6.1). As the name suggests,

the maximum absolute error represents the maximum value of the absolute error from the specific interval that is analysed.

$$\Delta x_i = |\hat{x}_i - x_i| \tag{6.1}$$

6.2.2 Mean Error

The mean error \bar{x} of n different values is an average of the absolute errors $\hat{x}_i - x_i$ as defined in (6.2). The following equation express that the average of a sequence of n numbers represents the sum of the numbers divided by n.

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{x}_i - x_i) = \frac{(\hat{x}_1 - x_1) + (\hat{x}_2 - x_2) + \dots + (\hat{x}_n - x_n)}{n}$$
(6.2)

6.2.3 Median Error

The median error \tilde{x} , gives the middle value and \tilde{x} of a sample of errors.

6.2.4 Standard Deviation

Standard deviation, σ is computed as shown below in equation (6.3).

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\hat{x}_i - \bar{x} \right]^2 \tag{6.3}$$

6.2.5 Root Mean Square (RMS)

The RMS of a continuous time waveform represents the square root of the arithmetic average of the squares of the original values as is depicted in the following formula (6.4).

$$x_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{x}_{i} - {x_{i}}^{2}}$$
(6.4)

Basically, RMS quantifies how far the signal oscillates from the mean. The variance produces the power of this oscillation. Note that the RMS value measures both the AC and DC components. However if the signal has no DC components then the RMS value is similar to the standard deviation x_{rms} .

6.2.6 Decibel (dB)

When showing the accuracy of a function, the logarithm scale has the main advantage of providing better resolution and a simple understanding of the results. When referring to measurements of power or intensity the dB is expressed using the formula as shown in (6.5a). When referring to measurements of the amplitude, however the formula is the one used in (6.5b). In (6.5a) and (6.5b), x_0 is a specified value with the same units as x.

$$x_{dB} = 10 \log_{10} \frac{x}{x_0} \tag{6.5a}$$

$$x_{dB} = 20 \log_{10} \frac{x}{x_0} \tag{6.5b}$$

It is very suitable to use decibel(dB) in combination with binary numbers given the fact that $20\log(2)=20*(0.301)=6$ dB and 6dB represents 1 bit resolution. Therefore, by using dB scale to display the results, we simplify the understanding of it.

6.3 Error Distribution

The biggest challenge of the polynomial approximation consists of establishing an effective approximation that can be accommodated to the function that is approximated in the chosen interval. For working with approximations there are two main strategies, one for minimizing the average error, named *least* square approximations and one for minimizing the worst case error, termed *least maximum approximations* to the approximated function [12]. Depending on the requirements of the design, the strategy is chosen. If the error of the approximation is to get the best fitting to the function to be approximated, then least squares approximations is to be used, otherwise the worst case error is used. For the examination of the approximation there are couple of statistical tools that have been used and described below.

6.3.1 Probability distribution

For judging the deviation of the error the most helpful tool could be the diagram of the probability distribution since it is very easy to visualize the distribution of the absolute error. Therefore it would help to get a better understanding of the standard deviation and root mean square values.



Square Root Function Approximation

7.1 Introduction

The square root function is widely used in QR decomposition, which is the de-facto method for detecting MIMO-OFDM systems and other wireless applications. The speed required for these applications is in increase, therefore faster, more reliable and more efficient ways of implementing the calculations needed. Thus, the main task of this thesis work, is the implementation in hardware of the calculations of the approximations of the square root function, applying the explained methodologies.

7.2 Design Flow Methodology

As Fig. 7.1 depicts, the hardware implementation followed the top-down digital design flow methodology. The first step was to define the specifications



FIGURE 7.1: Top Down Design Flow

and requirements of the project, followed by the designing of the suitable architecture. The behavioural description of the different units of the design was next, succeeded by the behavioural simulations. After assuring that the simulations provided the correct waveforms, the design flow continued with the synthesis process, which converted the Register Transfer Level (RTL) description into a Verilog net-list with a timing information model. Later on, the *place-and-route* process took place to produce the final layout of the circuit, followed by the analysis of the power consumption.

7.3 Requirements and Specifications

The objective is to design and implement an approximation of the square root function. An algorithm to calculate the square root has been developed in which Parabolic Synthesis combined with Second-Degree Interpolation is used. The implementation shall approximate the square root function from a 16 bit fix point number to a 16 bit fix point number with an 8 bit integer part and an 8 bit fractional part. The design should be simulated and compared for accuracy, error behaviour, power consumption and performance. The core area should also be estimated. Synthesized VHDL is to be used in the project. As a starting point, Low Power High VT, and Low Power Low VT, and General Purpose Standard VT transistors should be used, in separate designs, where Low Power High VT is a good starting point. Three different supplies, VDD = 0.8, 1.0, 1.2 volts is to be used, where 1.0 volt, is a good starting point. The power and energy consumption, both static and dynamic, should be estimated for different clock frequencies.

7.4 Mathematical Modelling

Based on the requirements given by the supervisors and shown in the previous section, a mathematical modelling followed. The first goal of this model was to determine the value of the different coefficients involved in every subfunction and by a *trial-and-error* process, the amount of sub-intervals needed to provide the required accuracy. This model also helped to determine with exactitude the word length of every signal and of every hardware module in the design. Furthermore, this model was also used with verification purposes, to corroborate that the values obtained by the hardware implementation coincided with the ones obtained by this model. To achieve this mathematical model, the algorithm was divided into the three different stages proposed in Fig. 7.2, pre-processing, processing and post-processing.



FIGURE 7.2: Design Stages

7.4.1 Pre-processing

In the pre-processing stage two transformations were performed in order to simplify the calculations. The first one was to represent the input value x, in floating point base four notation, as explained in Chapter 2. In this chapter, it is explained how this notation reduces the hardware complexity in the calculations of the square root. Therefore, the calculations are reduced to a calculation of the square root of a real value, x_{base4} , with a numerical range between one and four and to a shifting operation. The shifting operation is easily achievable in hardware and the calculation of the square root of x_{base4} is to be performed by applying the proposed methodologies.

To this end, the second optimization was applied and consisted in the normalization of x_{base4} . As it is possible to see in Fig. 7.3(a), the function $\sqrt{x_{base4}}$ ranges from one to four, for the x axis and from one to two for the y axis. Since the normalization is a transformation in which the function becomes only defined between the values zero and one in both axes, the $\sqrt{x_{base4}}$ function needs to be moved towards the y axis, as in Fig. 7.3(b). This movement is represented mathematically as a subtraction with the value one. After this step, the function in question is defined between zero and three for the x axis. By dividing it with the value three, the function becomes defined between the values zero and one for both axes, as in Fig. 7.3(c). This function, called $f_{org}(x)$ from now on, is the function to be approximated by the combination of the proposed methodologies. The expression represented in (7.1) resumes the normalization transformation from a mathematical point of view.

$$f_{org}(x) = \sqrt{1 + 3 \cdot x} - 1 \tag{7.1}$$

7.4.2 Processing

In the processing stage, the first step was to determine the coefficients of the first sub-function $s_1(x)$, based on the recently obtained $f_{org}(x)$. Applying (7.2a), it is given that the coefficient c_1 equals 0.5, thus the first sub-function $s_1(x)$ can be represented as in (7.2b).

$$c_1 = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f_{org}(x)}{x} - 1$$
 (7.2a)

$$s_1(x) = x + 0.5(x - x^2)$$
 (7.2b)



FIGURE 7.3: Normalization

A graphical representation of $f_{org}(x)$ and its first approximation, the first sub-function $s_1(x)$, can be seen in Fig. 7.4. As it is possible to see in this figure, this first approximation is somehow inaccurate, therefore the need of a second sub-function. Thus, the first help function $f_1(x)$ was needed and it was obtained utilizing the expression in (7.3). Its graphical representation can be seen in Fig. 7.5.

$$f_1(x) = \frac{f_{org}(x)}{s_1(x)}$$
(7.3)

To approximate this help function applying the Second Degree Interpolation Methodology, a trail-and-error process took place to determine the amount



FIGURE 7.4: First sub-function $s_{1,1}(x)$



FIGURE 7.5: Approximation to the first help function

of intervals and their approximation coefficients. As it is explained in more detail in Chapter 9, it was proven that for eight intervals, the required accuracy was provided by the approximations, thus the help function $f_1(x)$ was divided into eight sub-intervals and their approximation coefficients obtained as in (7.4a), (7.4b), (7.4c) and (7.4d). In table 7.1 all the obtained coefficients for the second sub-function are shown and the second sub-function $s_{2,i}(x)$ is represented in (7.5).

$$l_{2,i} = f_1(x_{start,i}) \tag{7.4a}$$

$$j_{2,i} = k_{2,i} + c_{2,i} \tag{7.4b}$$

$$k_{2,i} = \frac{f_1(x_{end,i}) - f_1(x_{start,i})}{x_{end,i} - x_{start,i}}$$
(7.4c)

$$c_{2,i} = 4[f_1(x_{middle,i}) - l_{2,i} - 0.5k_{2,i}]$$
(7.4d)

Interval(i)	$l_{2,i}$	$j_{2,i}$	$c_{2,i}$
0	1.00000000000000000	-0.050626667552115	-0.011205116002104
1	0.960578448449989	-0.028386869455018	-0.007083055280797
2	0.939274634275768	-0.014364452778615	-0.005097130170301
3	0.930007311667454	-0.004253765183449	-0.003906250000000
4	0.929822128134704	0.003836343188820	-0.003547417729198
5	0.937205889052722	0.010899360255743	-0.003332543559085
6	0.951437792867549	0.017538352398746	-0.003332589083664
7	0.972308734349959	0.024180532433370	-0.003510733216671

TABLE 7.1: Set of Coefficients for 8 intervals

$$s_{2,i}(x) = \begin{cases} 1.00000000 - 0.05062666 \cdot x_w + 0.011205116 \cdot x_w^2, & \text{for } i = 0\\ 0.960578448 - 0.02838686 \cdot x_w + 0.007083055 \cdot x_w^2, & \text{for } i = 1\\ 0.939274634 - 0.01436445 \cdot x_w + 0.005097130 \cdot x_w^2, & \text{for } i = 2\\ 0.930007311 - 0.00425376 \cdot x_w + 0.003906250 \cdot x_w^2, & \text{for } i = 3\\ 0.929822128 + 0.00383634 \cdot x_w + 0.003547417 \cdot x_w^2, & \text{for } i = 4\\ 0.937205889 + 0.01089936 \cdot x_w + 0.003332543 \cdot x_w^2, & \text{for } i = 5\\ 0.951437792 + 0.01753835 \cdot x_w + 0.003332589 \cdot x_w^2, & \text{for } i = 6\\ 0.972308734 + 0.02418053 \cdot x_w + 0.003510733 \cdot x_w^2, & \text{for } i = 7\\ (7.5) \end{cases}$$

It is important to mention that in this stage the recombination of the subfunctions was performed, based on a single multiplication. At the end of this stage, the optimized and normalized result was produced.

7.4.3 Post-Processing

In the post-processing stage the transformations applied in the *pre-processing* stage were reversed to obtain the final result. As it can be seeing in (7.6), the values are first *de-normalized* and then shifted *exp* times.

$$z(x) = [y(x) + 1] \cdot 2^{exp}$$
(7.6)

7.4.4 Bit True Simulation

At this point of time, the mathematical model was computing the square root values achieving the requirements. The square root values were calculated and compared with those of Matlab square root function and the required accuracy was provided by the approximations. Furthermore, the coefficients belonging to the sub-functions were obtained. However, the purpose of this mathematical model was to provide an ideal mathematical representation of the hardware implementation and since the computational power of $Matlab^{1}$ exceeds the needs of our design, this model was not complete. A technique called *bit true simulation* was employed to determine what portion of this computational power was needed in our design. This technique was proposed by Erik Hertz and is based on truncating and/or rounding the variables of the mathematical model to resemble the word length of the signals of the hardware implementation. It is based on shifting, achieved in Matlab by multiplications with base two numbers, truncating or rounding and then, shifting back the same amount of bits. In table 7.2, it is possible to see an example applying this technique, where a nine bits signal is truncated to a five bits signal. This process was applied to every variable of the mathematical model and the amount of bits shifted was tested until it provided the smallest amount of bits to be kept while still providing the required accuracy. It is important to mention that this method determines the smallest chip area for a given combination of signals word length, but it fails in determine which combination is the best. The authors aimed to reduce the sizes of the multipliers and decided to implement a good enough combination of signals word length that provided a good hardware implementation, but it might not be best one.

Representation	Number	$\mathbf{Shifting}$	Truncating	Shifting back
Decimal	5.6406	$5.6456 \cdot 2^2 = 22.5824$	22	5.5
Binary	101.100001	10110.0001	10110	101.10

TABLE	7.2:	Bit	True	Simulation
-------	------	----------------------	------	------------

¹Tool used to develop this mathematical model

7.5 Conclusions

A mathematical model of the hardware implementation has been developed. The coefficients, intervals and word length of the signals has been determined. The code of this mathematical model can be found in the Chapter Appendix of this Master Thesis Report. The next step is the Hardware Implementation of the design.

Chapter 8

Architecture

8.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the proposed architecture of each of the stages is presented, as well as the optimizations applied to the algorithm to minimize the hardware resources and execution times. Similarly to the mathematical model approach, the hardware implementation of the design was partitioned in the three different stages, pre-processing, processing and post-processing.

8.2 Pre-Processing

The architecture of the pre-processing stage can be seen in Fig. 8.1, where V is the input value and X is x_{norm} . The first step was the implementation of the floating-Point conversion in base four module. It was achieved by searching for the most significant *digital one* in pairs of bits of the input signal. The exponent value equalled the order of the bit pair times two, starting from the



FIGURE 8.1: Normalization Stage

least significant pair with a value of zero. As it possible to see in table 8.1, the integer part of the base four value takes the value of the bit pair where the most significant digital one was found and the fractional part takes the value of the bits to the right of this bit pair.

$\operatorname{Decimal}$	Binary	Pairs of bits	Base 4
	-	$7 \ 6 \ 5 \ 4 \ 3 \ 2 \ 1 \ 0$	
50456	1100010100011000	$11 \ 00 \ 01 \ 01 \ 00 \ 01 \ 10 \ 00$	$11.00010100011000 \cdot 2^{14}$
387	0000000110000011	$00 \ 00 \ 00 \ 01 \ 10 \ 00 \ 00 \ 11$	$01.10000011000000 \cdot 2^8$

TABLE 8.1: Floating Point Base 4 Conversion

The second step was the *Normalization* process and it was performed on the base four value. First, *one* was subtracted from its integer part, as it can be seen in table 8.2. Then, this result was divided by *three*, what in hardware was achieved by multiplying by $\frac{1}{3}$ or by $0.333\overline{3}$. The output results of this stage X or x_{norm} was then rounded, instead of truncated, due to the extensive use of this value in the rest of the design, impacting thus the overall precision.

11.00010100011000	
-1.	
10.00010100011000	
* 0.01010101010101010	$(0.333\overline{3})$
0.10110001011101	
0.101100011	rounding to 10 bits



8.3 Processing

The implementation of the sub-functions occurred in this stage. Its architecture can be seen in Fig. 8.2, where the inherent parallelism of the algorithm is well represented. The calculations of the sub-function $s_1(x)$ (on the top of the figure) and the sub-function $s_{2,i}(x)$ (on the bottom) occurred simultaneously. In this figure, Y represented the normalized final result.



FIGURE 8.2: Processing Stage

When approaching the hardware implementation of this stage, four optimizations were performed to decrease its hardware complexity. The first one was to regroup the calculations to be executed for the first sub-function $s_1(x)$. This sub-function initially represented as in (8.1a) was regrouped as in (8.1b), which decreased the complexity of the calculations to two shifting operations, two additions/subtractions operations and one squaring unit.

$$s_1(x) = x + 0.5(x - x^2)$$
 (8.1a)

$$s_1(x) = 1.5x - 0.5x^2 \tag{8.1b}$$

The second one, was to scrutinize the coefficients to be stored in the different look-up tables to extract leading sequences of zeros to even further decrease the use of silicon resources. These values were re-arranged later on in hardware all at once. The third optimization constituted the implementation of the *Squarer* following the methodology described in Chapter 3. The fourth optimization was the rounding of the input signals of the recombination multiplier to decrease the size of this unit, which is the largest in the design.

8.4 Post processing

In the post-processing stage of the design, the final result Z was extracted from Y as shown in Fig. 8.3. This was the smallest stage of the design, since the addition was implemented as a *concatenation* due to that the input value was known to be lesser than one and a right shifting operation, which is very simple implemented in hardware, as in Fig. 8.4.



FIGURE 8.3: Post-Processing Stage

8.5 RTL Implementation

The Register-Transfer-Level was described utilizing the hardware description language VHDL'93. It consisted of two packages files *comp_pack.vhd* and *constants.vhd*, where the parametric modules and all the signals length and parameter of the design were implemented and declared, respectively. Thus,



FIGURE 8.4: Right Shift Operation

if the input or output value word length is altered in the requirements, there is no need to re-write the entire design. By determining the signals word length in the mathematical model and changing the respective values in the file *constants.vhd*, the hardware will be re-generated to the new conditions. The description also consisted of a *top.vhd* file, where all the components declared in the *comp_pack.vhd* file were instantiated and interconnected. This decreased the coding-debugging time, because it allowed the testability of every module separately and later on, their interconnections, going from a simpler to a more complex implementation, where the earlier step was known to be working. For testability purposes another file was created *testbench.vhd*, to determine the correct functioning of the modules and of the entire design. These codes are listed in the Chapter Appendix of this Master Thesis Report.

Chapter 9

Error Analysis

When analysing the error behaviour of the mathematical model, the results achieved by the proposed methodology were compared to those of the Matlab¹ square root function. In Fig. 9.1(a) and Fig. 9.1(b) it is possible to see the difference between these two set of results, when applying the proposed methodology employing four and eight intervals, respectively. These graphs show that the results achieved by the proposed methodology present a maximum error in the order of 0.8×10^{-4} and 1.2×10^{-5} .

However, the dB scale is a preferred method when analysing accuracy in hardware, because of (9.1). In Fig. 9.1(c) and Fig. 9.1(d), it is possible to see these differences expressed in dB,

where the maximum absolute error for four intervals is approximately 80 dB, which implies an accuracy of 13.3 bits, and the maximum absolute error for

¹De facto standard high-level language and interactive environment for numerical computation, visualization, and programming, developed by MathWork



FIGURE 9.1: Error Behaviour

eight intervals is approximately 95 dB, thus achieving an accuracy of 15.8 bits.

$$6.02 \ dB \approx 1 \ bit \tag{9.1}$$

None of this results satisfies the accuracy requirement, but the eight intervals implementation is really close to it. By further scrutinizing the results shown in Fig. 9.1(d), it is possible to see that the absolute maximum error is achieved in the second peak from the right, while the first peak presents a much lower maximum value. Since, the proposed methodology calculates the approximations by utilizing parabolic functions that cut the original function in the start, middle and end points, it is given that the error achieved between the start and middle points is related to the error achieved between the middle and end points, see Fig 4.2. By changing the value of the coefficient $c_{2,i}$, it is possible to change the point where the approximation cuts the middle value of the original function. This can be used to decrease the absolute error achieved in the start-to-middle approximation while increasing the absolute error in the middle-to-end approximation, or vice versa or in other words, to decrease the absolute error achieved in the second peak from the right, while increasing the absolute error in the first one.

9.0.1 Coefficients Optimization

By re-accommodating the coefficients $c_{2,i}$ of the sub-functions $s_{2,i}$, it was possible to alter the error behaviour of the algorithm. In Fig. 9.2(a) and Fig. 9.2(b) it is possible to see that the error behaviour decreased after optimizing the coefficients. This optimization was done by adding or subtracting a small amount to the coefficients, to change the points where the approximation crosses the original function. This operation *moves* the error achieved in one side of the sub-interval approximation to the other, reducing thus the maximum error. As it is possible to see in these graphs, the maximum absolute error is now in the order of 90 dB or 14.9502 bits of accuracy for four sub-intervals and 99 dB or 16.4452 bits of accuracy for eight sub-intervals, achieving thus the required accuracy. The optimized coefficients for eight sub-intervals can be seen in table 9.1.

However, when analysing the error behaviour of the real hardware implementation, see Fig. 9.3, it is possible to see a different behaviour. This is caused by the truncation or rounding of the internal signals of the design, which was


FIGURE 9.2: Error Behaviour with Optimized Coefficients

Interval(i)	$l_{2,i}$	$j_{2,i}$	$c_{2,i}$
0	1.0000000000000000000000000000000000000	-0.050537109375	-0.0112304687500
1	0.960571289062500	-0.028320312500	-0.0070800781250
2	0.939270019531250	-0.014404296875	-0.0051269531250
3	0.929992675781250	-0.004150390625	-0.0040283203125
4	0.929809570312500	-0.003906250000	-0.0035400390625
5	0.937194824218750	-0.010986328125	-0.0032958984375
6	0.951446533203125	-0.017578125000	-0.0032958984375
7	0.972320556640625	-0.024169921875	-0.0035400390625

TABLE 9.1: Optimized Set of Coefficients

carefully calculated with the bit-true simulation to avoid absolute maximum error values above the requirements.

9.0.2 Statistics

The probability distribution for the whole interval of x can be seen in Fig. 9.4. In this figure, it is possible to see that for a error value of zero the probability is the highest and vanishes with increasing values of the error.

The standard deviation (std) was calculated, as well as the mean value (mean), the root mean square value (rms) and the median error (median). These values



FIGURE 9.3: Error Behaviour of Real Hardware Implementation

can be seen in table 9.2. It is important to notice how the standard deviation value and the root mean square value are in the same order and that the mean value and median error are really small.



FIGURE 9.4: Probability Distribution

std	$1.0305967893090 \cdot 10^{-2}$
mean	$6.149186432794 \cdot 10^{-3}$
rms	$1.2000993597086 \cdot 10^{-2}$
median	$1.182310703335965 \cdot 10^{-4}$

TABLE 9.2: Statistics

Chapter 10

Place and Route

The final step in the digital design flow was to take the verilog netlist of the design generated by the synthesis tool and convert it to a layout representation using a place and route tool, in this case being SOC Encounter from Cadence.

The place and route process starts by importing the design, followed by defining the global power nets (vdd and gnd). After that, the floor planning was done, in our case having a floor plan of 133.73 µm² on 141 µm² for our logic.

Given the fact that for our design, it was decided not to include the input output pads (because it would have taken too much area, comparing with the area of our logic), the IO placement step was skipped from our script file.

The next accomplishment was to add the power rings and power stripes. The power ring was added around the core of the design and we used metal 3 for the horizontal wires and metal 4 for the vertical ones and the same for the power stripes.

Following the power planning, the placement of the standard cells was carried out, succeeded by the placement of the filler cells and the special routing, the final layout looking as in Fig. 10.1. All the steps were organized in a tcl script, which can be found in the appendix for further utilization.



FIGURE 10.1: Layout of the Design

Modelsim simulations were performed after the routing of the design, in order to assure that the design is still working according with the specifications. For the simulation after place and route, we have included the verilog netlist file, the test bench of the design, the Standard Delay Format (.sdf) file and the corresponding library. Simulations after the placement of the design are functioning correct, the only unwanted consequence, being the glitches, which happens sometimes as signals propagate through combinational logic.

The reason why this happened was because the different signal paths have different delays, so when one input reaches the input of a gate while the other input is delayed, a wrong output may occur. The output signal is however corrected once all of the correct inputs were propagated through, but the dynamic power dissipation can increase significantly, due to the glitches.



Results

11.1 Area Results reported by Design Vision Synthesis Tool

Fast computations, small silicon area and low power consumption are the challenges of every single digital design, however sometimes, compromises has to be done as well regarding at least one of the requirements.

In our case, the square root calculation algorithm has been constrained for minimum computational time, giving it priority over the silicon area. As a start point, we synthesised our RTL code using Low Power High Threshold Voltage library [15], which is a Standard Cell library for the 65nm technology used in VLSI digital design platform and is optimized for use in low power applications.

For a better observability, the area results are synthesised in the graph below:



FIGURE 11.1: Area representation for LPHVT, LPLVT, GPSVT

For the Low Power High Threshold Voltage library operating at 1.00 V, the area of our design was resumed in table 11.1. Given the fact that our design does not have any sequential logic, the total area of it is given by the combinational logic, which in this case is 10748.399840µm².

Type	Area	Unit measure
Combinational area	10748.399840	μm^2
Total cell area	10748.399840	μm^2

TABLE 11.1: Area Low Power High Threshold Voltage 1.00V

The number of resources used for implementing the combinational logic of our design can be retrieved from table 11.2. As can be observed from the table below, only 432 cells had been used, which translate in a very small logic.

In the case of Low Power High Threshold Voltage library operating at 1.10V, the area of the design has decreased as can be observed in table 11.3, now the design occupying $10149.879847\mu m^2$ but the number of the used resources increased as is discernible from table 11.4.

Name	Size
Number of ports	32
Number of nets	589
Number of cells	432
Number of combinational cells	421
Number of sequential cells	0
Number of macros	0
Number of buf/inv	147
Number of references	120

TABLE 11.2: Used Resources

Type	Area	Unit measure
Combinational area	10149.879847	μm^2
Noncombinational area	0.000000	μm^2
Total cell area	10149.879847	μm^2

TABLE 11.3: Area Low Power High Threshold Voltage 1.10V

Name	Size
Number of ports	32
Number of nets	583
Number of cells	426
Number of combinational cells	415
Number of sequential cells	0
Number of macros	0
Number of buf/inv	126
Number of references	121

TABLE 11.4: Used Resources for 1.10V

For the Low Power High Threshold Voltage library operating at 0.9V, the area and resources are depicted in table 11.5 and table 11.6

Similarly with Low Power High Threshold Voltage, Low Power Low Threshold Voltage (LPLVT) [16] library is also a Standard Cell library for the 65 nm technology, used for VLSI digital design platform which is optimized for use in low power applications.

Type	Area	Unit measure
Combinational area	9646.519829	μm^2
Noncombinational area	0.000000	μm^2
Total cell area	9646.519829	μm^2

TABLE 11.5: Area Low Power High Threshold Voltage 0.9V

Name	Size
Number of ports	32
Number of nets	595
Number of cells	438
Number of combinational cells	427
Number of sequential cells	0
Number of macros	0
Number of buf/inv	153
Number of references	122

TABLE 11.6: Used Resources for 0.9V

Area results for Low Power Low Threshold Voltage Library operating at 1.00 V are shown in table 11.7, where it can be observed that using this library we have almost the same area $(10211.239852\mu m^2)$ as the one taken by Low Power High Threshold Voltage, operating at the same voltage supply.

Type	Area	Unit measure
Combinational area	10211.239852	μm^2
Noncombinational area	0.000000	μm^2
Total cell area	10211.239852	μm^2

TABLE 11.7: Area for Low Power Low Threshold Voltage 1.00V

The number of used resource is detailed in table 11.8.

The area for the Low Power Low Threshold Voltage library 1.10 V is shown in table 11.9, and the resources used for the implementation of our combinational logic is laid out in table 11.10. From table 11.9 and table 11.7, we can conclude

Name	Size
Number of ports	32
Number of nets	652
Number of cells	495
Number of combinational cells	484
Number of sequential cells	0
Number of macros	0
Number of buf/inv	198
Number of references	115

TABLE 11.8: Used Resources for LPLVT 1.00 $\rm V$

that the area of our design is just slightly decreasing by changing the voltage supply of the used library.

Type	Area	Unit measure
Combinational area	9985.039862	μm^2
Noncombinational area Total cell area	0.000000 9985.039862	μm^2 μm^2

TABLE 11.9: Area Low Power Low Threshold Voltage 1.10V

Name	Size
Number of ports	32
Number of nets	620
Number of cells	463
Number of combinational cells	452
Number of sequential cells	0
Number of macros	0
Number of buf/inv	153
Number of references	131

TABLE 11.10: Used Resources for LPLVT 1.10 V

Similarly, the area for Low Power Low Threshold Voltage operating at 0.9V are described below:

Type	Area	Unit measure
Combinational area	11686.999874	μm^2
Noncombinational area	0.000000	μm^2
Total cell area	11686.999874	μm^2

TABLE 11.11: Area Low Power Low Threshold Voltage 0.9V

Name	Size
Number of ports	32
Number of nets	652
Number of cells	495
Number of combinational cells	484
Number of sequential cells	0
Number of macros	0
Number of buf/inv	167
Number of references	108

TABLE 11.12: Used Resources for LPLVT 0.90 V $\,$

The General Purpose Standard Threshold Voltage Library (GPSVT) [17] also represents a Standard Cell library for the 65 nm technology, used in general purpose applications and has 866 Combinational and Sequential cells. Is optimized for high performance, low power or general purpose use.

Area results for General Purpose Standard Threshold Voltage Library operating at 1.00 V are pointed in table 11.13, in this case our design occupying an area of 9957.999843 μ m². The used resources for the implementation of

Type	Area	Unit measure
Combinational area	9957.999843	μm^2
Noncombinational area	0.000000	μm^2
Total cell area	9957.999843	μm^2

TABLE 11.13: Area General Purpose Standard Threshold Voltage 1.00V

our combinational logic are retrieved from table 11.14, and comparing it with

Name	Size
Number of ports	32
Number of nets	608
Number of cells	451
Number of combinational cells	440
Number of sequential cells	0
Number of macros	0
Number of buf/inv	151
Number of references	117

Low Power High Threshold Voltage library, it can be seen that the number of cells decreased.

For the same library, but operating at 1.10 V, the area is described in table 11.15, and the usage of resources in table 11.16.

Type	Area	Unit measure
Combinational area	9795.759843	μm^2
Noncombinational area	0.000000	μm^2
Total cell area	9795.759843	μm^2

TABLE 11.15: Area General Purpose Standard Threshold Voltage 1.10V

The number of resources that has been used are given below:

Name	Size
Number of ports	32
Number of nets	574
Number of cells	417
Number of combinational cells	406
Number of sequential cells	0
Number of macros	0
Number of buf/inv	126
Number of references	121

TABLE 11.16: Used Resources for GPSVT 1.10 $\rm V$

In the case of General Purpose Standard Threshold Voltage with $V_{dd} = 0.90V$ the area reports are given in table 11.17 and table 11.18.

Type	Area	Unit measure
Combinational area	9646.519829	μm^2
Noncombinational area	0.000000	μm^2
Total cell area	9646.519829	μm^2

TABLE	11.17:	Area f	for (GPSVT	library	0.90	V

Name	Size
Number of ports	32
Number of nets	595
Number of cells	438
Number of combinational cells	427
Number of sequential cells	0
Number of macros	0
Number of buf/inv	153
Number of references	122

TABLE 11.18: Used Resources for GPSVT 0.90 V

However, the area of the design given by using different voltages, can not be compared, given the fact that, for the different voltages we did not used the same conditions. Note that for all three libraries, it was used for the simulation 0.90V-worst condition, 1.00V-nominal condition and 1.10V-best condition, thus the incomparable values.

11.2 Power Consumption results from Design Vision

Reduction of power consumption makes a device more reliable and power management is one of the important design challenges as the technology advances. As known, the two very important components which determine the power consumption in a CMOS design are the static power consumption and dynamic power consumption.

Static power consumption is the product of the device leakage current and the supply voltage. Total static power consumption, PS, can be obtained as shown in equation 11.1.

$$PS = \sum (leackage_current) \times (supply_voltage)$$
(11.1)

The dynamic power consumption of a CMOS IC is calculated by adding the transient power consumption (PT), and capacitive-load power consumption (PL), as in equation 11.2.

$$P_{dyn} = P_{internal} + P_{switching} \tag{11.2}$$

The transient power consumption is due to the current that flows only when the transistors are switching from one logic state to another and the equation is depicted in 11.3.

$$P_{internal} = Vdd * I_{internal} + \frac{1}{2} * C_{intL} * V_{dd}^2 * Tr$$
(11.3)

The capacitive load power consumption (PL) is the additional power, which is consumed in charging external load capacitance, and is dependent on switching frequency, as shown in equation 11.4.

$$P_{switching} = \frac{1}{2} * C_L * V_{dd}^2 * Tr$$
 (11.4)

Where:

 T_r =toggle rate, number of switching of data per unit time.

 C_{intL} =internal load capacitance

C_L =load capacitance

The power consumption results shown in the tables below depicted in the following graph.



FIGURE 11.2: Power Consumption for LPHVT, LPLVT, GPSVT

The design has been analysed for low effort and the synthesis results for the power consumption using the Low Power High Threshold Voltage Library at 1.00V are the ones depicted in table 11.19.

Power	Internal	Switching	Leackage	Total
Group	Power	Power	Power	Power
combinational	2.0543	1.5610	0.2650e-06	3.6154
Total	2.0543	1.5610	0.2650e-06	3.6154

TABLE 11.19: Power Report in mW

Dynamic power consumption for Low Power High Threshold Voltage library operating at 1.00V is shown below in the table 11.20, and it contains Internal Power and Switching Power.

The Internal Power is 2.0543 mW, which is the power consumed within a cell for charging and discharging internal cell capacitances and it also includes short-circuit power. The Switching Power is 1.5610 mW, and it represents the power dissipated for charging and discharging the load capacitance from the cell output.

Static Power (Leackage Power) is $0.2650e \ \mu W$ and is the power consumed by the gate when is not switching and is caused by the currents that flow through the transistors even though they are turned off.

The total power using Low Power High Threshold Voltage for $V_{dd} = 1.00V$ is 3.6154 mW and it represents the sum of the preceding power values.

Name	Value	Unit Measure	Percentage
Cell Internal Power	2.0543	mW	57%
Net Switching Power	1.5610	mW	43%
Total Dynamic Power	3.6154	mW	100%
Cell Leakage Power	0.2650	μW	

TABLE 11.20: Dynamic and Static Power Consumption

Using the same library, but for $V_{dd} = 1.10V$, the power consumption has increased as can be seen from the table 11.21.

The details about total power consumption for the Low Power High Threshold Voltage for VDD=1.1V are depicted in table 11.22.

In the case of Low Power High Threshold Voltage Library for 0.9V the reported power by Design Vision is shown in table 11.23. The power consumption for

Name	Value	Unit Measure	Percentage
Cell Internal Power	2.4116	mW	56%
Net Switching Power	1.8937	mW	44%
Total Dynamic Power	4.3160	mW	100%
Cell Leakage Power	2.0697	μW	

TABLE 11.21: Dynamic and Static Power Consumption for 1.10V

Power	Internal	Switching	Leackage	Total
Group	Power	Power	Power	\mathbf{Power}
combinational	2.4116	1.8937	1.0697 e-06	4.3160
Total	2.4116	1.8937	$1.0697 \mathrm{e}{\text{-}}06$	4.3160

TABLE 11.22: Power Report for 1.10V in mW

Value	Unit Measure	Percentage
2.1911	mW	60%
1.4425	mW	40%
3.6344	mW	100%
0.078317	μW	
	Value 2.1911 1.4425 3.6344 0.078317	Value Unit Measure 2.1911 mW 1.4425 mW 3.6344 mW 0.078317 μW

TABLE 11.23: Dynamic and Static Power Consumption for 0.9V

the combinational logic of our design is shown below in table 11.24.

Power	Internal	Switching	Leackage	Total
Group	Power	Power	Power	Power
$\operatorname{combinational}$	2.1911	1.4425	0.078317e-06	3.6344
Total	2.1911	1.4425	0.078317e-06	3.6344

TABLE 11.24: Power Report for 0.9V in mW

For the given Low Power Low Threshold Voltage Library operating at $V_{dd} = 1.00V$, power consumption is detailed in table 11.25.

The dynamic and static power consumption for the Low Power Low Threshold Voltage at 1.00V as is shown in table 11.26 and in table 11.27 is detailed the

Power	Internal	Switching	Leackage	Total
Group	Power	Power	Power	Power
combinational	2.1404	1.8489	0.75076e-06	3.9968
Total	2.1404	1.8489	0.75076e-06	3.9968

TABLE 11.25: Power Report for LPLVT 1.00V in mW

power report for Low Power Low Threshold Voltage operating at 1.10V. Just

Name	Value	Unit Measure	Percentage
Cell Internal Power	2.1404	mW	54%
Net Switching Power	1.8489	mW	46%
Total Dynamic Power	3.9968	mW	100%
Cell Leakage Power	0.75076	μW	

TABLE	11.26:	Power	$\operatorname{consumption}$	LPLVT	1.00V
-------	--------	-------	------------------------------	-------	-------

by changing the voltage supply from 1.00 V to 1.10 V , the power consumption of the design has almost doubled.

Power	Internal	Switching	Leackage	Total
Group	Power	Power	Power	Power
combinational	2.8996	2.1916	1.1265	6.2177
Total	2.8996	2.1916	1.1265	6.2177

TABLE 11.27: Power Report for LPLVT 1.10V in mW

Total dynamic and static power consumption for Low Power Low Threshold Voltage 0.90 V, are detailed further in table 11.28 and table 11.29.

Name	Value	Unit Measure	Percentage
Cell Internal Power	1.9762	mW	56%
Net Switching Power	1.5323	mW	44%
Total Dynamic Power	3.5457	mW	100%
Cell Leakage Power	0.37188	μW	

TABLE 11.28: Power consumption LPLVT for 0.90V

Power	Internal	Switching	Leackage	Total
Group	Power	Power	Power	Power
combinational	1.9762	1.5323	0.37188e-06	3.5457
Total	1.9762	1.5323	3.7188e-06	3.5457

TABLE 11.29: Power Report for LPLVT 0.90V in mW

The power consumption results using the General Purpose Standard Threshold Voltage operating at 1.00V are presented in table 11.30, and the dynamic and static power consumption for the specified library are shown in table 11.31.

Power	Internal	Switching	Leackage	Total
Group	Power	Power	Power	Power
combinational	$2.5994 \\ 2.5994$	1.8233	0.1995e-06	4.6222
Total		1.8233	0.1995e-06	4.6222

TABLE 11.30: Power Report for GPSVT 1.00V in mW

Name	Value	Unit Measure	Percentage
Cell Internal Power	2.5994	mW	59%
Net Switching Power	1.8233	mW	41%
Total Dynamic Power	4.6222	mW	100%
Cell Leakage Power	1.995	μW	

TABLE 11.31: Dynamic and static power consumption GPSVT for 1.00V

For the same library, but 1.10 V voltage supply, the static power consumption and dynamic power consumption results are displayed in table 11.32 and 11.33. When changing the voltage supply of the General Purpose Standard Threshold Voltage library from 1.00 V to 1.10 V, the power consumption increased very much, now having a total power consumption of 14.3000 mW.

For General Purpose Standard Threshold Voltage operating at 0.90 V the power consumption is illustrated in table 11.34, and 11.35.

Power	Internal	Switching	Leackage	Total
Group	Power	Power	Power	Power
combinational	3.5431	1.9739	8.7830	14.3000
Total	3.5431	1.9739	8.7830	14.3000

TABLE 11.32: Power Report for GPSVT 1.10V in mW

Name	Value	Unit Measure	Percentage
Cell Internal Power	3.5431	mW	64%
Net Switching Power	1.9739	mW	36%
Total Dynamic Power	14.300	mW	100%
Cell Leakage Power	8.7830	μW	

TABLE 11.33: Dynamic and static power consumption GPSVT for 1.10V

Power	Internal	Switching	Leackage	Total
Group	Power	Power	Power	Power
combinational	2.0643	1.4416	0.5580e-06	4.0639
Total	2.0643	1.4416	0.5580e-06	4.0639

TABLE 11.34: Power Report for GPSVT 0.90V in mW

Name	Value	Unit Measure	Percentage
Cell Internal Power	2.0643	mW	59%
Net Switching Power	1.4416	mW	41%
Total Dynamic Power	4.0639	mW	100%
Cell Leakage Power	0.5580	μW	

TABLE 11.35: Dynamic and static power consumption GPSVT for 0.90V

As mentioned in the previous section, the values post simulation for the power consumption can not be compared between the different voltages that were used due to the fact that were used in different operating conditions.

11.3 Timing Results from the Synthesis Tool

The critical path is the slowest logic between any two registers, therefore is the limiting factor preventing us from decreasing the clock period constraint. Given the fact that our design does not have a clock signal, in order to calculate the minimum critical path, we were interested to constrain the design for setting the maximum delay from the input signal to the output signal to 0 ns. As shown below, the critical path takes a total of 8.73 ns which is bigger than 0 ns that we constraint the design for, consequently the violated slack.



FIGURE 11.3: Critical path for LPHVT, LPLVT, GPSVT

As mentioned before, the design has been constraint for minimum execution time in the synthesis script, and the critical path for our design using Low Power High Threshold Voltage library 1.00V has been detailed in table 11.36. Further details about internal signals timing can be seen in table 11.37.

Name	Signal	Timing Info	Unit Measure
Startpoint	$v_mt[13]$ (input port)	0.00	ns
Endpoint	$z_mt[12]$ (output port)	8.69	ns

TABLE 11.36: Critical path

Point	Incr	Path	Unit Measure
$z_mt[12]$ (out)	0.02	8.69	ns
data arrival time		8.69	\mathbf{ns}
\max_delay	0.00	0.00	\mathbf{ns}
data required time		0.00	\mathbf{ns}
data arrival time		-8.69	\mathbf{ns}
slack		-8.69	\mathbf{ns}

TABLE 11.37: Timing Information for 1.00V

The timing report for Low Power High Threshold Voltage Library operating at 1.10 V are described in table 11.38. The critical path for the library operating

Point	Incr	Path	Unit Measure
	0.00	4.49	ns
data arrival time		4.49	\mathbf{ns}
\max_delay	0.00	0.00	\mathbf{ns}
output external delay	0.00	0.00	\mathbf{ns}
data required time		0.00	\mathbf{ns}
data arrival time		-4.49	\mathbf{ns}
slack		-4.49	\mathbf{ns}

TABLE 11.38: Timing Information for 1.10V

at the 1.10 V is detailed in table 11.39 and is taking 4.49 ns. Internal signals

Name	Signal	Timing Info	Unit Measure
Startpoint	v_mt[10] (input port)	0.00	ns
Endpoint	$z_mt[8]$ (output port)	4.49	\mathbf{ns}

TABLE 11.39: Critical path for 1.10V

timing information for the Low Power High Threshold Voltage library for 0.9 V are detailed in the following tables 11.40. The critical path can be identified from the table 11.41.

The longest critical path of our design is 17.01 ns, using the Low Power High Threshold Voltage library for a voltage supply of 0.9V. Using Low Power Low

Point	Incr	Path	Unit Measure
$z_mt[3]$ (out)	0.00	17.01	ns
data arrival time	0.00	17.01	\mathbf{ns}
\max_delay	0.00	0.00	\mathbf{ns}
output external delay	0.00	0.00	\mathbf{ns}
data required time		0.00	\mathbf{ns}
data arrival time		-17.01	\mathbf{ns}
slack		-17.01	ns

TABLE 11.40: Timing Information for 0.90V

Name	Signal	Timing Info	Unit Measure
Startpoint	v_mt[14] (input port)	0.00	ns
Endpoint	$z_mt[3]$ (output port)	17.01	ns

TABLE 11.41: Critical path for 0.90V

Threshold Voltage library for 1.00V, we have a critical path of 3.16 ns for our design, given in table ??. Timing details regarding internal signals for Low

Name	Signal	Timing Info	Unit Measure
Startpoint	v_mt[6] (input port)	0.00	ns
Endpoint	$z_mt[0]$ (out) (output port)	3.16	ns

TABLE 11.42: Critical path for LPLVT 1.00V

Power Low Threshold Voltage operating at 1.00 V are detailed below, in table 11.43. The critical path in this case, using Low Power Low Threshold Voltage

Point	Incr	Path	Unit Measure
$z_mt[0]$ (out)		3.16	ns
data arrival time		-3.16	ns
\max_delay	0.00	0.00	ns
data required time		0.00	ns
data arrival time		-3.16	ns
slack		-3.16	ns

TABLE 11.43: Timing Information for LPLVT 1.00V

Name	Signal	Timing Info	Unit Measure
Startpoint	v_mt[6] (input port)	0.00	ns
Endpoint	$z_mt[0]$ (out) (output port)	2.16	\mathbf{ns}

library with $V_{dd} = 1.10V$ is shown in table 11.44 and the timing details in table 11.45.

Point	Incr	Path	Unit Measure
$z_mt[0]$ (out)	0.00	2.16	ns
\max_delay	0.00	0.00	\mathbf{ns}
data required time		0.00	\mathbf{ns}
data arrival time		-2.16	\mathbf{ns}
slack		-2.16	\mathbf{ns}

TABLE 11.44: Critical path for LPLVT 1.10V

TABLE 11.45: Timing Information for LPLVT 1.10V

Using the Low Power Low Threshold voltage for 0.9 V we have the following critical path:

Name	Signal	Timing Info	Unit Measure
Startpoint	$v_mt[6]$ (input port)	0.00	ns
Endpoint	$z_mt[0]$ (out) (output port)	6.18	ns

TABLE 11.46: Critical path for LPLVT 0.9V

Point	Incr	Path	Unit Measure
$z_mt[0]$ (out)	0.00	6.18	\mathbf{ns}
\max_delay	0.00	0.00	\mathbf{ns}
data required time		0.00	\mathbf{ns}
data arrival time		-6.18	\mathbf{ns}
slack		-6.18	\mathbf{ns}

TABLE 11.47: Timing Information for LPLVT 0.90V

For the case of General Purpose Standard Threshold Voltage library, $V_{dd} = 1.0V$ critical path has been detailed in table 11.48.

Name	Signal	Timing Info	Unit Measure
Startpoint	v_mt[5] (input port)	0.00	\mathbf{ns}
Endpoint	$z_mt[0]$ (output port)	1.84	ns

TABLE 11.48: Critical path for GPSVT 1.00V

Internal signals timing details are shown below in table 11.49. Using the same

Incr	Path	Unit Measure
	1.84	\mathbf{ns}
	1.84	\mathbf{ns}
0.00	0.00	\mathbf{ns}
	0.00	\mathbf{ns}
	-1.84	\mathbf{ns}
	-1.84	\mathbf{ns}
	Incr 0.00	Incr Path 1.84 1.84 0.00 0.00 0.00 -1.84 -1.84

TABLE 11.49:	Timing	Information	\mathbf{for}	GPSVT	1.00V
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library but at different voltage, we have the critical path of 1.45 ns as can be observed in table 11.50. Timing details about internal signals, using General

Name	Signal	Timing Info	Unit Measure
Startpoint	v_mt[11] (input port)	0.00	ns
Endpoint	$z_mt[1]$ (output port)	1.45	\mathbf{ns}

TABLE 11.50: Critical path for GPSVT 1.10V

Purpose Standard Threshold Voltage library for $V_{dd} = 1.10V$, in table 11.51.

Point	Incr	Path	Unit Measure
$z_mt[1]$ (out)		1.45	\mathbf{ns}
data arrival time		1.45	\mathbf{ns}
\max_delay	0.00	0.00	\mathbf{ns}
data required time		0.00	\mathbf{ns}
data arrival time		-1.45	\mathbf{ns}
slack		-1.45	\mathbf{ns}

TABLE 11.51: Timing Information for GPSVT 1.10V

For the General Purpose Standard Threshold Voltage operating at 0.90 V the critical path and internal signal's timing information are set out in table 11.52 and 11.53.

Name	Signal	Timing Info	Unit Measure
Startpoint	v_mt[12] (input port)	0.00	ns
Endpoint	$z_mt[8]$ (output port)	3.08	\mathbf{ns}

Point	Incr	Path	Unit Measure
$z_mt[8](out)$		3.08	ns
data arrival time		3.08	\mathbf{ns}
\max_delay	0.00	0.00	\mathbf{ns}
data required time		0.00	\mathbf{ns}
data arrival time		-3.08	\mathbf{ns}
slack		-3.08	\mathbf{ns}

TABLE 11.52: Critical path for GPSVT 0.90V

TABLE 11.53: Timing Information for GPSVT 0.90V

11.4 Prime Time Power Analysis Tool

Prime Time PX is a power analysis tool from Synopsys, which can perform supremely power analysis because it is taking the advantage of the timing and signal righteousness engines of the PrimeTime solutions for processing our design data and parasitic back annotation. Furthermore, it supports multiple signal activity formats.

Altogether, Prime Time PX provides the best platform to accurately use and analyse all of the key inputs required for explicit power analysis. As illustrated in Fig. 11.4, in order to analyse the power consumption of our design using Prime Time PX, we had to take into account the net list of the design, which determines the design connectivity and the type of cells used in the design.



FIGURE 11.4: Power Analysis Flow

To compute the internal power of the CMOS cells used in the design, we used Low Power High Threshold Voltage Library from STMicroelectronics, 65 nm and the signal activity of the design, which affects both the static and dynamic power consumption of the design and parasitics (resistance and capacitance).

The power analysis depends on accurate signal activity. The PrimeTime PX power analysis supports both average and peak power analysis based on the signal activity provided.

For average power analysis, PrimeTime PX supports the propagation of switching activity derived from the logic simulation (gate-level), saved as a Switching Activity Interchange Format (SAIF) file. For peak power analysis, PrimeTime PX requires a timing logic simulation and generation of the Value Change Dump (VCD) that takes in the activity and time of every event on each net. Power analysis was performed using the familiar PrimeTime commands, user interface, reports, and attributes all incorporated in a Perl script file.

As depicted in Fig. 11.5, the first step in the analysis of power consumption using Prime Time PX was to set up the power analysis mode. There are two options for that, either *Average Power Analysis*, in which the tool performs a vector free power analysis, using the default toggle rate or *Time Based*



FIGURE 11.5: Prime Time PX Flow

Analysis, in which were taken into account all factors contributing to power consumption.

As in the synthesis script, the next step was to set-up the search path and the link path for the used library. After that, the netlist of the design and the libraries were read by the tool and then the design was linked. As part of the script was also the annotation of the parasitics (reading the Standard Parasitic Exchange Format file) and switching activities (reading the Value Change Dump file). In the end, the power was analysed and reported.

For our design, we have set up the time based power analysis and a frequency of 100 MHz. The power consumption report generated by Prime Time PX is detailed further in table 11.54 and table 11.55 and the units info are in table 11.56.

Hierarchy	Switch	Int	Leak	Total	Units
	Power	Power	Power	Power	
top_level	2.80e-06	2.59e-06	8.02e-09	5.39e-06	W

TABLE 11.54: Power Information Prime Time PX

Hierarchy	Peak	Peak	Glitch	X-Tran	Units
	Power	Time	Power	Power	
top_level	2.77e-02	15360.808999 - 15360.809000	1.21e-08	0.0000	W

TABLE 11.55: Power Information

Name	Units
Voltage Units	1 V
Capacitance Units	1 pF
Time Units	$1 \mathrm{ns}$
Dynamic Power Units	$1 \mathrm{W}$
Leakage Power Units	$1 \mathrm{W}$

We have also analysed the power consumption of our design at 200 MHz and the results were summarised in table 11.57 and table 11.58.

Hierarchy	\mathbf{Peak}	Peak	Glitch	X-Tran	Units
	Power	Time	Power	Power	
top_level	5.03 e-02	122880.949000 - 122880.949001	9.44e-08	0.00	W

 TABLE 11.57:
 Power Information-part2

Hierarchy	Switch	Int	Leak	Total	Units
	Power	Power	Power	Power	
top_level	1.35e-05	1.06e-05	2.22e-8	2.40e-05	W

TABLE 11.58: Power Information

Similarly with the power, the energy efficiency is a very important design requirement this days. The energy consumption is given by the formula from equation 11.6 and 11.5.

$$Energy = \int_{0}^{T} P(t) dt.$$
(11.5)

Simulation	Total Power	Total Energy
Time	$\operatorname{Consumption}$	Consumption [Unit]
75535e-09	$5.39\mathrm{e}{-06}$	4.071e-10 [J]

TABLE 11.59: Energy Consumption

For our design, the energy consumption has been calculated and is shown in table 11.59 and table 11.60.

Simulation	Total Power	Total Energy
Time	Consumption	Consumption [Unit]
75535e-09	2.40e-05	1.81e-11 [J]

TABLE 11.60: Energy Consumption-part2

In table 11.61 and 11.62 are synthesised all the data results from the three used libraries with three different voltages.

Lib	$V_{dd}(V)$	$Area(\mu m^2)$	Cells	$t_p(ns)$
HVT	0.9	11686.999874	495	17.01
HVT	1.0	10748.399840	432	8.69
HVT	1.1	10149.879847	426	4.49
LVT	0.9	10753.599861	463	6.18
LVT	1.0	10753.599861	495	3.16
LVT	1.1	9985.039862	463	2.16
SVT	0.9	9646.519829	438	3.08
SVT	1.0	9957.999843	451	1.84
SVT	1.1	9795.759843	417	1.45

TABLE 11.61: Results-part 1

Lib	$V_{dd}(V)$	$P_{DV}(\mathrm{mW})$	$P_{inter}(\mathrm{mW})$	$P_{leak}(\mu W)$
HVT	0.9	3.6344	2.1911	0.078317
HVT	1.0	3.6154	2.0543	0.2650
HVT	1.1	4.3160	2.4116	1.0697
LVT	0.9	3.5457	1.9762	0.37188
LVT	1.0	3.9968	1.8489	0.75076
LVT	1.1	6.2177	2.1916	1.1265
SVT	0.9	4.0639	2.0643	0.5580
SVT	1.0	4.6222	2.5994	1.995
SVT	1.1	14.300	3.5431	8.7830

TABLE 11.62: Results -part 2

Chapter 12

Conclusions

Our master thesis demonstrates the hardware implementation approach of the original algorithm for approximation of unary functions, focusing on the implementation of the square root function. In this thesis report, using the cutting-edge *Parabolic Synthesis* and *Second Degree Interpolation* methods, we proved that square root of integer numbers between 0 < x < 65536 are computed, but also other elementary functions such as logarithm and trigonometric functions are suitable for implementation of the same algorithm.

Among other methods that exist these days for calculating the square root of a number, our implementation has the main advantage of using the same algorithm approach and architecture for computing other different unary functions, just by changing the sets of the coefficients. The design can be reused in many other application without any major changes. The Parabolic Synthesis method is very flexible due to the big advantage of conferring high performance of the algorithm by using a high parallelism in the architecture. Another major advantage of this implementation is the usage of parallelism in the architecture, which represents the main factor in the reduction of the execution time and critical path making this algorithm implementation the fastest one between the two's compared in the previous chapter.

The last but not the least benefit of using this method is the usage of only low complexity operations for the implementation of the logic design like shifting, adding and multiplication, among which the multiplication is more often used which translates into a very easy hardware implementation.

12.1 Improvements

As explained in chapter 2, the normalized interval 0 < x < 1, was split in 8 subintervals, where the parabolic sub-function was developed as an approximation of the help function. However, given the fact that the number of intervals sets up the size of the look up table needed in the last sub-function for storing the coefficients, an enlargement of the number of intervals is equivalent with an increase in the accuracy of the algorithm.

Therefore, as an improvement we could consider is increasing the number of intervals from 8 used in this implementation to 16 intervals. With 16 intervals, the algorithm implementation is getting even more accurate and faster but at the price of a bigger area.

Another future improvement could be considering to implement the algorithm in floating point, which we assume it would reduce the area of the design, since with the floating point representation the error gets a better accuracy. One imminent advancement could be the implementation and design of the cubic root function approximation, using the same architecture but changing the set of coefficients and taking into account also the logarithm implementation.

Due to the high degree of parallelism inherent in the design architecture, a possible enhancement would be to pipeline the design, for faster computational time and higher throughput.

An interesting continuation of the project would be to prototype it on FPGA for reporting the used resources, chip area, power consumption and critical path.


Appendix

	LISTING A.1: Mathematical Model (Matlab)	I	
Ξ	<pre>function [x_mt, v_val, y, db, z, error, y1, y2, y3] = full_rounding(</pre>	33	
	v_mt, intervals)	34	
2		35	<pre>mt = (bit_true(i,6,'t')-1)*bit_true(1/3, 13, 'r');</pre>
0	clc	36	<pre>mt = bit_true(x_mt,10, 'r');</pre>
4	close all	37	
ŋ	format long	38	<pre>% Calculating Sub-function S1 %%%</pre>
9		39	
\sim	X% DEFAULT VALUES	40	<pre>'s1 = 1.5*x_mt-0.5*x_mt^2</pre>
00		41	
6	v_mt = bit_true(v_mt,16, ^{,t,1});	42	:1_p1 = x_mt^2;
10		43	<pre>i1_p1 = bit_true(s1_p1, 17, 't');</pre>
11	C1 = 0.5;	44	
12	exp = 0;	45	:1_p2 = 2^-1*s1_p1;
13	i = v_mt;	46	1_p2 = bit_true(s1_p2, 18, 't');
14	I = intervals;	47	
15	c1 = 0.5;	48	:1_p3 = x_mt + bit_true(x_mt*2^-1, 11, 't');
16	$small_step = 1/I;$	49	1_p3 = bit_true(s1_p3, 11, 't');
17	<pre>x_st=0:small_step:(I-1)*small_step;</pre>	50	
$\frac{1}{2}$	x_end=x_st+small_step;	51	1 = s1_p3 - s1_p2;
19	$x_middle = (x_end + x_st)/2;$	52	<pre>s1 = bit_true(s1, 17, 't');</pre>
20	X% BASE 4 FP	53	<pre>i1 = bit_true(s1, 13, 'r');</pre>
21		54	
22	if v_mt >= 1	55	<pre>% Calculating Sub-function S2 %%%</pre>
23	while (i>=4)	56	
24	i = i/4;	57	or g=1 : I
25	exp = exp + 1;	58	if g == 1
26	end	59	$f1_st(g) = 1;$
27	else	60	else
28	$i = i \star 4;$	61	f1_st(g)=(sqrt(1 + 3 * x_st(g)) -1)./(x_st(g)+c1*(x_st(g)-x_st
29	exp = exp - 1;		(g). ⁻²));
30	end	62	end
31		63	f1_end(g)=(sqrt(1 + 3 * x_end(g)) -1)./(x_end(g)+c1*(x_end(g)-
32	%% Normalizing		<pre>x_end(g).^2));</pre>

64	f1_middle(g)=(sqrt(1 + 3 * x_middle(g)) -1)./(x_middle(g)+c1*(76	for ind2 = 1 : I
	$x_middle(g)-x_middle(g).^2));$	98	if x_mt < small_step*(ind2)
65	end	66	<pre>index1 = ind2;</pre>
99		100	<pre>x_p = (x_mt - small_step*(ind2-1))*2^(log2(I)); % Subtraction</pre>
67	$l = fl_st;$		and shifting
68	k = f1_end - f1_st;	101	$x_{r}p1 = bit_true(x_p, 8, 2t);$
69	c2 = 4*(f1_middle - 1 - k*c1);	102	$x_{p} = bit_true(x_p, 7, ^{t_j});$
70		103	break
71	XX Coefficients Optimization	104	<pre>else if x_mt == small_step*(ind2)</pre>
72		105	index1 = ind2+1;
73	if I == 4	106	<pre>x_p = (x_mt - small_step*(ind2))*2^(log2(I));</pre>
74		107	$x_p = bit_true(x_p, 7, 2t);$
75	$c2(1) = c2(1) + 2^{-9.57};$ %4 intervals	108	break
76		109	end
77	else if I == 8	110	end
28		111	end
79	$c_2(1) = c_2(1) + 2^{-12};$ %8 intervals	112	
80	c2(2) = c2(2) + 2^-15;	113	XX Second-Sub Function S2 XXX
81	c2(6) = c2(6) - 2 ⁻²⁰ ;	114	
82	c2(7) = c2(7) - 2^-19.5;	115	<pre>%s2=(l(index1) + j(index1) * x_p - c2(index1) * x_p^2);</pre>
3		116	% First Operation
84	else	117	j = bit_true(j,12,'r');
10		118	<pre>multi1 = j(index1) * x_p;</pre>
86	$c_2(1) = c_2(1) + 2^{-14.6};$ %16 intervals	119	<pre>multi1 = bit_true(multi1,15, 't');</pre>
87	$c2(2) = c2(2) + 2^{-17};$ %16 intervals	120	
00 00	$c_2(3) = c_2(3) + 2^{-18};$ %16 intervals	121	% Second Operation
89	$c2(12) = c2(12) - 2^{-24};$ %16 intervals	122	$1 = bit_true(1, 15, 'r'); \frac{1}{3}18$
06	$c2(13) = c2(13) - 2^{-23.5};$ %16 intervals	123	s2_p1=l(index1) + multi1;
91	end	124	s2_p1 = bit_true(s2_p1,13, 't');
92	end	125	
93		126	% Third Operation
94	XX Xp and j XX	127	c2 = bit_true(c2, 13, 'r'); <mark>%22</mark>
95		128	<pre>x_p2 = bit_true(x_p^2, 12, ^{jtj});</pre>
96	$\mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k} + \mathbf{c}2;$	129	s2_p2 = c2(index1) * x_p^2;

	intervals = 8;	max_error = 0;	e1 = 0;		% Call to the Mathematical Model for every input value	$%$ for $e = 1 : 1 : 2^{-1}6 - 1$	$%for e = 0 : 2^{-8} : 1$	for $e = 2^{-1}4 : 1 : 2^{-1}6 - 1$		e1 = e1 + 1;	<pre>%[x(e1), sq_rt(e1), forg(e1), db(e1), r(e1), error_final(e1), y1(</pre>	<pre>e1), y2(e1), y3(e1)] = squared_root_ps(e,intervals);</pre>	val(e1) = e1;	<pre>[x(e1), sq_rt(e1), forg(e1), db(e1), r(e1), error_final(e1), y1(</pre>	e1), $y2(e1)$, $y3(e1)$] = rounding(e, intervals);	<pre>%[x(e1), sq_rt(e1), forg(e1), db(e1), r(e1), error_final(e1), y1(</pre>	<pre>e1), y2(e1), y3(e1)] = full_rounding(e,intervals);</pre>	<pre>if abs(error_final(e1)) > max_error</pre>	<pre>max_error = abs(error_final(e1));</pre>	index= e1;	input_value = e;	end	end		% Statistics	err_min = min(y3);	$err_max = max(y3);$	bin = err_max - err_min;	<pre>bin = bin/intervals;</pre>	xx = err_min:bin:err_max;		standard_deviation = std(y3)	average = mean(y3) 🖁 Åverage or mean value	sqr = y3.^2;
	2	90	6	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17		18	19		20		21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37
		% Last Operation	s2 = s2_p1 - s2_p2;	s2 = bit_true(s2,12, 'r');		XX Final Result XXXXX		y = s1*s2;	$y = bit_true(y, 16, 't');$	$z = (y+1) * 2^{-} (exp);$	if v_mt == 0	z = 0;	else	z = bit_true(z, 8, ¹ t ⁾ ;	end		%% Comparisson %%%%%%%%%%		v_val=sqrt(v_mt);	error = $(sqrt(1+3*x_mt)-1) - y;$	<pre>db = 20*log10(abs(error));</pre>	<pre>y1 = 20*log10(abs((s1*s2)-(sqrt(1+3*x_mt)-1))+10^-15);</pre>	$y3 = (sqrt(1+3*x_mt)-1) - (s1*s2);$	$y^2 = y^3 + 10^{-15};$			I remine A 9. Error Retimetion Matleb Comint	יולודחר השוושווו ווחוושוווושר זהווה איד האווונוח	clc	clear all	close all	format long		% Default Values
1 20	131	132	133	134	135	136	137	138	139	140	141	142	143	144	145	$\mathbf{\hat{b}}^{146}$	4^{277}	148	149	150	151	152	153	154					1	2	ŝ	4	ŋ	9

ours = dec2binvec(r(index)*2~8,16);	resulting_in(:,1) = orig';	resulting_in(:,2) = ours'	accuracy = abs(orig - ours)	max_error		figure(4)	<pre>plot(accuracy)</pre>		% Hardware Implementation Verification		<pre>importfile('results.trt');</pre>	r1=(r*2~8)';	for $i = 1:65535$	verificacion(i) = r1(i) - results(i);	end	figure(5)	<pre>plot(verification)</pre>	<pre>find(verificacion, 1, 'first')</pre>			LIGTING A 3. Bit True Simulation Matlah Serint	ATTA TTA TTA TTA TTAC DITITIONNI MEMORY ALEMAN	<pre>function [result] = bit_true(number, lengt, t);</pre>		% Shifting		<pre>shift = abs(number) * 2⁻(lengt);</pre>		% Rounding/Truncation		if $t = 2t^2$	<pre>integ = floor(shift);</pre>	else	integ = uint64(shift);
71	72	73	74	75	26	22	78	62	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	80	89			ervals		1	2	0	4	νÛ	9	2	90	6	10	11	12
	sqr_sum = sum(sqr);	N = size(y3);	<pre>sqr_mean = sqr_sum/N(1,2);</pre>	x_rms = sqrt(sqr_mean) % rms value	<pre>bits = 20*log10(abs(average))/(-20*log10(2))</pre>		X Visualization		figure(1)	plot(x,y2)	xlabel('Normalized Input Value (x)')	$ylabel('f_o_rg(x) - sqrt(x)')$	<pre>title(['Error Behaviour for ', num2str(intervals),' intervals'])</pre>	$\hfill heg1 = legend('f_o_r_g - sqrt(x)')$	grid on		figure(2)	<pre>plot(x,y1)</pre>	xlabel('Normalized Input Value')	ylabel('Absolute Error (dB)')	<pre>title(['Absolute Error in dB for ',num2str(intervals(1,1)),' int</pre>		grid on		figure(3)	hist(y2, xx)	<pre>xlabel('Error')</pre>	<pre>ylabel(['Number of Elements out of ', num2str(N(1,2)),' values'])</pre>	<pre>title('Probability Distribution')</pre>	grid on		. X Bit True Simulation Verification		<pre>orig = dec2binvec(sqrt(input_value)*2^8,16);</pre>
	30	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	°° 9	5_{54}	55	56	57	50		59	60	61	62	63	64	65	99	67	68	69	70

signal divid	: std_logic_vector(WIDTH_DF_INPUT_RDUNDING - 54	signal s1	: std_logic_vector(WIDTH_OF_ROUNDED_S1 - 1
1 downto 0)	:= (others => '0')	downto 0)	:= (others =>
		:(,0,	
signal z_mt_tmp	: std_logic_vector(width_o - 1 downto 0) 55	signal x_mt_over_flow	: std_logic_vector(
	:= (others => '0')	WIDHT_OF_INPUT_SIGN	AL_OF_SQUARE_UNIT + 1 downto 0)
		:= (others =)	;('0' <
signal exp	: std_logic_vector(WIDTH_OF_THE_EXPONENT - 1 56	signal x_mt_shifting	: std_logic_vector(
downto 0)	:= (others => '0')	WIDHT_OF_INPUT_SIGN/	AL_OF_SQUARE_UNIT + 1 downto 0)
		:= (others =)	;('0' <
signal x_p_2	: std_logic_vector(signal s1_adder1_concat	: std_logic_vector(WIDTH_ADDER_S1_2 - 1
WIDTH_OF_SQUARED_T	RUNC_SIGNAL-1 downto 0)	downto 0)	:= (others =>
:= (others	=> ،0،);	;(,0,	
signal x_mt_2	: std_logic_vector(signal x_mt_2_shifitng	: std_logic_vector(WIDTH_ADDER_S1_2 - 1
WIDTH_OF_SQUARED_I	NPUT_SIGNAL-1 downto 0)	downto 0)	:= (others =>
:= (others	=> ،0,);	:(,0,	
signal fp4_output	: std_logic_vector(WIDTH_OF_THE_OUPUT_FP4 - 59	signal index	: std_logic_vector(BITS_OF_TRUNCATION - 1
1 downto 0)	:= (others => '0')	downto 0)	:= (others =>
		;('0'	
signal x_mt_top_tmp	: std_logic_vector(WIDTH_OF_INPUT_ROUNDING - 60	signal mult1_s2_tmp	: std_logic_vector(WIDTH_TEMP_ADDER_S2_2 - 1
1 downto 0)	:= (others => '0')	downto 0)	:= (others => '0')
signal x_mt	: std_logic_vector(signal x_p	: std_logic_vector(
WIDHT_OF_INPUT_SIG	NAL_DF_SQUARE_UNIT - 1 downto 0)	WIDHT_OF_INPUT_SIGN/	AL_OF_SQUARE_UNIT - BITS_OF_TRUNCATION - 1
:= (others	=> ،0،);	downto 0) := (others	;(10, <=)
signal s1_adder1	: std_logic_vector(WIDTH_ADDER_S1_1 - 1 62	signal mult2_s2_tmp	: std_logic_vector(WIDTH_TEMP_ADDER_S2_1 - 1
downto 0)	:= (others =>	downto 0)	:= (others => ² 0 ²)
;(,0,			
signal s1_adder2	: std_logic_vector(WIDTH_ADDER_S1_2 - 1 63	signal mult2_s2	: std_logic_vector(WIDTH_ADDER_S2_1 - 1
downto 0)	:= (others =>	downto 0)	:= (others =>
;(,0,		;(,0,	
signal s1_tmp	: std_logic_vector(WIDTH_OF_INPUT_ROUNDING - 64	signal adder1_s2_tmp	: std_logic_vector(WIDTH_J_LCOEFF +
1 downto 0)	:= (others => '0')	WIDHT_OF_INPUT_SIGN/	AL_OF_SQUARE_UNIT - BITS_OF_TRUNCATION downto
		:(0)	

 $\overset{6}{_{22}}$

		generic map (width_i_f => WIDTH_OF_INPUT_SIGNAL,	width_e_f => WIDTH_OF_THE_EXPONENT,	width_o_f => WIDTH_OF_THE_OUPUT_FP4)	port map (v_mt => v_mt,	exp => exp,	<pre>subst => fp4_output);</pre>					DIVIDING BY 3	:						divid <= std_logic_vector(unsigned(fp4_output) * unsigned(THIRD_COEF));				X_mt ROUNDING	;		
1	rs =>	80	1 81	rs => 82	83	1 84	rs => 85	86	1 87	ITS => 88	89	- 1	~=	06	+	18 => 91		- TUTT		93	94		95	96		98	ç		100
_ADDER_S2_2 -	:= (othe		_ADDER_S2_2 -	:= (othe		_ADDER_S2_2 -	:= (othe		_ADDER_S2_2 -	:= (othe		.OF_ROUNDED_S2	:= (others		_OF_ROUNDED_S1	:= (other		PROCESSING_OU	:= (others =										
c_vector(WIDTH			c_vector(WIDTH			c_vector(WIDTH			c_vector(WIDTH			c_vector(WIDTH			c_vector(WIDTH	(0		c_vector(WIDTH							VERSION				
: std_logi			: std_logi			: std_logi			: std_logi			: std_logi			: std_logi	2 - 1 downto		: std_logi							FP4 CONV				
signal adder1_s2	downto 0)	;(,0,	signal mult1_s2	downto 0)	:(,0,	signal s2_tmp	downto 0)	;(,0,	signal s2_tmp_round	downto 0)	;(,0,	signal s2	downto 0)	;(,0,	signal y_tmp	WIDTH_OF_ROUNDED_S2	;(,0,	signal y_mt_1	1 downto 0)			begin structural		;	;	;	1		FP4_1 : FP4
65			66			67			68			69			02 (98		71			72	73	74	75	76		27	78	79

<pre>exp => exp, z_mt => z_mt_tmp);</pre>	MUX FOR INPUT = 0 	z_mt <= (width_o - 1 downto 0 => '0') when v_mt = (width_i - 1	coenco 0 = 2 0.) eise z_mt_tmp; zfructural;	LISTING A.5: Components Package (VHDL)	- Title : sqrt_pack - Project : -	- File : comp_pack.vhd - Author : Alejandro Vazquez Bofill - Company : - Created : 2013-02-21
162 F 163 164 165	166 167	168 169	170 1 171 172 172 174 en	-	4 33 53	න -1 ව වැ
<pre>mult2_s2_tmp <= std_logic_vector(unsigned(x_p) * unsigned(J_I_COEF (to_integer(unsigned(index)))); mult2_s2 <= (WIDTIM_J_I - 1 downto 0 => '0') &</pre>	<pre>mutz_ss_emp(mutz_sz_mp'iett doitto Millingenz_mutz_sz_i * WIDTH_OPTIM_J_I - WIDTH_ADDER_S2.1); adder1_s2_tmp <= std_logic_vector(unsigned(L_I_GOEFF(to_integer(</pre>	<pre>WIDTH_T0_T_ADDER2); %2_tmp <= std_logic_vector(unsigned(adder1_s2) + unsigned(</pre>	<pre>y_tmp c= std_logic_vector(unsigned(s1) * unsigned(s2)); y_mt_l c= std_logic_vector(unsigned(s1) * unsigned(s2)); y_mt_l c= y_tmp(WIDTH_OF_ROUNDED_S1 + WIDTH_OF_ROUNDED_S2 - downto WIDTH_OF_ROUNDED_S1 + WIDTH_OF_ROUNDED_S2 - WIDTH_PROCESSING_OUTPUT);</pre>	POST-PROCESSING UNIT 	post_processing1 : post_processing generic map (<pre>width_y => wIDTH_PROCESSING_OUTPUT, width_exp => wIDTH_OF_THE_EXPONENT, width_z_mt => wIDTH_FINAL_RESULT) port map (y_mt => y_mt_1,</pre>
142 143	144 145	146 147	$\begin{smallmatrix}&&&148\\&&&&149\\150&&&&151\end{smallmatrix}$	152 153	154 155 156	157 158 159 160 161

62	function rounding1 (
63	input_value : integer;	91	
64	bits_input : integer;		
65	bits_output : integer)		
99	return std_logic_vector;	92	ROUNDING FUNCTION
67			:
68	Post-Processing Unit	93	
69			
70	component post_processing		
71	generic (94	Name: Rounding1
72	width_y : integer := WIDTH_PROCESSING_OUTPUT;	95	Description: Rounds the input signals to the specified amouont of
73	width_exp : integer := WIDTH_OF_THE_EXPONENT;		bits and
74	width_z_mt : integer := WIDTH_FINAL_RESULT);	96	returns the value in the specified number of bits
75	port (79	Inputs: input_value> Integer; Input value to be rounded
76	<pre>y_mt : in std_logic_vector(width_y - 1 downto 0);</pre>	98	bits_input> Integer; Number of bits to be rounded to
22	exp : in std_logic_vector(width_exp - 1 downto 0);	66	bits_output> Integer;
78	<pre>z_mt : out std_logic_vector(width_z_mt - 1 downto 0));</pre>	100	Outputs: rounded_value> std_logic_vector(varied); Rounded
79	end component;		value
80		101	:
81			
82	end comp_pack;		
83		102	
84		103	function rounding1 (
20 20	1	104	input_value : integer;
		105	bits_input : integer;
		106	bits_output : integer)
86	PACKAGE BODY	107	return std_logic_vector is
	•	108	
87		109	variable result : std_logic_vector(bits_output - 1 downto
			0);
		110	variable bin_input_value : std_logic_vector(bits_input - 1 downto
00 00			0);
89	package body comp_pack is	111	
06		112	begin

		library ieee;	<pre>use ieee.std_logic_1164.all;</pre>	use ieee.numeric_std.all;	use work.constants.all;		entity FP4 is		generic (width_i_f : integer := WIDTH_OF_INPUT_SIGNAL; Width of the	inout signal	width_e_f : integer := WIDTH_OF_THE_EXPONENT; Width of the	exponent	width_o_f : integer := WIDTH_OF_THE_OUPUT_FP4); Width of the	output signal		· port (v_mt : in std_logic_vector((width_i_f - 1) downto 0);	<pre>exp : out std_logic_vector((width_e_f - 1) downto 0);</pre>	<pre>subst : out std_logic_vector((width_o_f - 1) downto 0));</pre>		end FP4;		architecture behavioral of FP4 is		begin behavioral		process (v_mt)	begin process		<pre>exp <= (others => '0');</pre>
134	_value, 135	, then 136	to bits_input137	138	139	(140)) + 1); 141	142	143	144		145		146		147	148	149	150	151	152		154	155	uts it 156	157	ate the rest 158	159	160	e fractional 161	162
	<pre>bin_input_value := std_logic_vector(to_unsigned(input, bits_input));</pre>	if bin_input_value(bits_input - bits_output - 1) = '0'	result := bin_input_value(bin_input_value'left down	- bits_output);	else	result := std_logic_vector(unsigned(bin_input_value.	bin_input_value'left downto bits_input - bits_output	end if;	return result;	end rounding1;				end comp_pack;		;			FP4	;	1			Name: FP4 (Floating Point base 4)	Description: Takes a 16 bits integer as input and outpu	floating point	base 4. Substrcts "1" to the integer part and concaten:	OT ZGTOS	Inputs: v_mt> 16 bits	Outputs: subst> 8 bits(2 of the integer and 6 of th	part)
	113	114	115		116	117		118	119	120	121	122	L ¹²³	10^{124}	125	126			127		128			129	130		131		132	133	

subst <= (others	:(,0, <=		
		188	Description: Calculates the square of the input signal and the
for i in (width_i	$i_f/2 - 1)$ downto 0 loop		truncated
if v_mt(i*2+1 c	downto i*2) > "00" then	189	input signal, all in 1 clock cycle, using only shifting and
exp <= std_lc	ogic_vector(to_unsigned(i, width_e_f));		additions
if i >= ((wic	dth_o_f/2)-1)	190	Inputs: x_mt> 10 bits
subst <= st	<pre>td_logic_vector(unsigned(v_mt(i*2+1 downto i*2)) -</pre>	-191	Outputs: x_mt_2> 17 bits; Square of the input signal
1) & std_logic.	<pre>vector(unsigned(v_mt(i*2-1 downto (i-3)*2)));</pre>	192	x_p_2> 12 bits; Square of the trnucated input signal.
elsif i > 0 č	and i < ((width_o_f/2)-1) then	193	:
subst <= st	td_logic_vector(unsigned(v_mt(i*2+1 downto i*2)) -	,	
1) & std_logic_	vector(unsigned(v_mt(i*2-1 downto 0)) & (
	<pre>downto 0 => '0');</pre>	194	
else		195	library ieee;
subst <= st	td_logic_vector(unsigned(v_mt(1 downto 0)) - 1) &	196	use ieee.std_logic_1164.all;
(width_o_f-3 do	wrto 0 => '0');	197	use ieee.numeric_std.all;
end if;		198	use work.constants.all;
exit;		199	
end if;		200	entity squarer is
end loop; i		201	
		202	generic (
end process;		203	width_i_s : integer := WIDHT_OF_INPUT_SIGMAL_OF_SQUARE_UNIT;
			Width of the input signal
end behavioral;		204	width_o_s : integer := WIDTH_DF_SQUARED_INPUT_SIGNAL; Width
			of the square of the input signal
		205	bits_trunc : integer := BITS_OF_TRUNCATION; Bits to be
1			truncated from X to form Xp
		206	 width_p_s : integer := WIDTH_OF_SQUARED_TRUNC_SIGNAL); Width
			of the square of the truncated input signal
1	SQUARER	207	
:		208	port (
-		209	x_mt : in std_logic_vector(width_i_s - 1 downto 0); input signal
		210	x_mt_2 : out std_logic_vector(width_o_s - 1 downto 0); Square
Name: Squarer Unit	ţ		of the input signal

ł

if two_bits = "00" then	<pre>tmp3(0) := single_bit;</pre>	tmp3(1) := '0';	elsif two_bits = "01" then	<pre>tmp3(0) := not single_bit;</pre>	<pre>tmp3(1) := single_bit;</pre>	elsif two_bits = $"10"$ then	<pre>tmp3(0) := single_bit;</pre>	tmp3(1) := '1';	else	tmp3 := "00";	end if;	return tmp3;	end adding;		type vector_array is array (width_i_s-1 downto 0) of	<pre>std_logic_vector(1 downto 0);</pre>	type vector_array1 is array (width_i_s - 3 downto 0) of	<pre>std_logic_vector((width_i_s-1)*2 downto 0);</pre>	signal tmp2 : vector_array1;	signal tmpa : vector_array;	signal tmp_final : vector_array1;	<pre>signal x_mt_2_tmp : std_logic_vector((width_i_s*2)-1 downto 0);</pre>	<pre>signal x_p_2_tmp : std_logic_vector(2*(width_i_s - bits_trunc) - 1</pre>	<pre>downto width_i_s - bits_trunc);</pre>			begin behavioral		<pre>process (x_mt, tmpa, tmp2, x_mt_2_tmp, tmp_final, x_p_2_tmp)</pre>	begin process	for i in 0 to width_i_s - 1 loop	if $i = 0$ then	<pre>x_mt_2_tmp(0) <= x_mt(0); Sets the LSB</pre>
Square244	245	246	247	248	249	250	251	252	253	254	255	256	257	258	259		260		261	262	263	264	265		266	267	268	269	270	271	272	273	274
<pre>x_p_2 : out std_logic_vector(width_p_s - 1 downto 0));</pre>	of truncated input	signal width_p_s		end squarer;		architecture behavioral of squarer is		function andlookup (x_mt_2_in : std_logic;	x_mt_in : std_logic;	<pre>x_mt_in2 : std_logic)</pre>	return std_logic_vector is		<pre>variable tmp3 : std_logic_vector(1 downto 0) := "00";</pre>	begin	<pre>tmp3(1) := (((x_mt_in) and (x_mt_in2)) and x_mt_2_in);</pre>	<pre>if ((x_mt_in = x_mt_in2) and (x_mt_2_in = x_mt_in2)) then</pre>	tmp3(0) := 0.03	<pre>elsif ((x_mt_in /= x_mt_in2) and (x_mt_2_in = '0')) then</pre>	tmp3(0) := 202	else	tmp3(0) := '1';	end if;	return tmp3;	end andlookup;		function adding (single_bit : std_logic;	<pre>two_bits : std_logic_vector(1 downto 0))</pre>	return std_logic_vector is		<pre>variable tmp3 : std_logic_vector(1 downto 0) := "00";</pre>	begin
211		212	213	214	215	216	217	218	219	220	221	222	223	224	1225	05^{9220}	227	228	229	230	231	232	233	234	235	236	237	238	239	240	241	242	243

<pre>f i = 1 then mt_2_tmp(1) <= '0' ight ps(0) <= and the first bit for f i = 2 then ps(1) <= 2 then ps(0)(1 downt(0)); p_final(0)(1 downt(mt_2_tmp(2)) the right ps(1) <= 2 then the right ps(i-1) <= andlook the right if j < i-2 loc tmp2(i-2)(2*j+1 (tmp2(i-2)(2*j+1 (tmp2(i-2)(2</pre>	Sets the second bit from 298 end if;	299 end loop; j	lookup(x_mt(1), x_mt(1), x_mt(0)); 300 x_mt_2_tmp(i) <= tmp2(i-3)(0);	further calculations 301 and if;	302 end loop; i	<pre><= andlookup(x_mt(2), x_mt(2), x_mt 303 for k in width_i_s to width_i_s*2-1 loop Sets the bits of the</pre>	upper half(X_mt^2)	<pre><= andlookup(tmpa(0)(1), x_mt(2), 304</pre>	305 x_nt_2_tmp(k) <= tmp_final(width_i_s - 3)(2*(width_i_s-3) + 1)	<pre>> 0) <= adding(tmp2(0)(1), tmpa(1));</pre>	<pre><= tmpa(0)(0); Sets the third bit306 elsif k = width_i_s then</pre>	307 x_mt_2_tmp(k) <= tmp2(width_i_s - 3)(0);	Sets the other bits up to half of 308 else	309 x_mt_2_tmp(k) <= tmp_final(width_i_s - 3)((k-1 - width_i_s)*2)	<pre>ip(x_mt(i), x_mt(i), x_mt(i-1));</pre>	310 end if;	311 end loop: k	<pre>iownto 2*j) <= andlookup(tmp_final(i-3)(2*312 for 1 in width_i_s - bits_trunc to 2*(width_i_s - bits_trunc) - 1</pre>	loopFor(X_p ⁻²)	313 if 1 = 2*(width_i_s - bits_trunc) - 1 then	<pre>iownto 2*j) <= andlookup(tmp_final(i-3)(2*314 x_p_2_tmp(1) <= tmp_final(width_i_s - bits_trunc - 3)(2*(</pre>	; width_i_s = bits_trunc -3) + 1);	315 elsif 1 = width_i_s = bits_trunc then	316 x_p_2_tmp(1) <= tmp2(width_i_s - bits_trunc - 3)(0);	317 else	<pre>downto 0) <= adding(tmp2(i-2)(1), tmp2(i 318 x_p_2_tmp(1) <= tmp_final(width_i_s - bits_trunc - 3)((1-1 - (</pre>	width_i_s - bits_trunc))*2);	319 end if;	$*j+1$ downto $2*j$) <= adding(tmp_final(i-2) 320 end loop; 1	+1)+1 downto 2*(j+1))); 321 end process;	an 322 322	*j+1 downto 2*j) <= adding(tmp_final(i-2) 323 x_mt_2 <= x_mt_2_tmp(2*width_i_s - 1 downto 2*width_i_s - width_o_s)	
	<pre>f i = 1 then</pre>	ight	pa(0) <= andlookup(x_mt(1), x_mt(1), x_m	the first bit for further calculations	f i = 2 then	pa(1) <pre><= andlookup(x_mt(2), x.</pre>		p2(0)(1 downto 0) <= andlookup(tmpa(0)(1)	;((0	<pre>p_final(0)(1 downto 0) <= adding(tmp2(0)(1), tr</pre>	<pre>nt_2_tmp(2) <= tmpa(0)(0); Sets</pre>	the right	Sets the other bits up	ength	pa(i-1) <= andlookup(x_mt(i), x_mt(i), x_mt(i-:	r j in O to i-2 loop	if $j < i-2$ then	<pre>tmp2(i-2)(2*j+1 downto 2*j) <= andlookup(tmp.</pre>	_mt(i), x_mt(j));	else	<pre>tmp2(i-2)(2*j+1 downto 2*j) <= andlookup(tmp.</pre>	<pre>x_mt(i), x_mt(j));</pre>	end if;		if $j = 0$ then	<pre>tmp_final(i-2)(1 downto 0) <= adding(tmp2(i-2))</pre>	<pre>downto 2));</pre>	elsif $j < i-2$ then	<pre>tmp_final(i-2)(2*j+1 downto 2*j) <= adding(ti</pre>	<pre>1), tmp2(i-2)(2*(j+1)+1 downto 2*(j+1)));</pre>	elsif $j = i - 2$ then	<pre>tmp_final(i-2)(2*j+1 downto 2*j) <= adding(ti</pre>	<pre>1), tmpa(i-1));</pre>

<pre>vidth_erp : integer := MIDTH_PLNAL_RESULT); vidth_z_mt : integer := WIDTH_PLNAL_RESULT); port (y_mt : in std_logic_vector(width_erp - 1 downto 0); exp : in std_logic_vector(width_z_mt - 1 downto 0)); z_mt : out std_logic_vector(width_z_mt - 1 downto 0)); z_mt : out std_logic_vector(width_z_mt - 1 downto 0)); z_mt : out std_logic_vector(width_z_mt - 1 downto 0)); stditecture behavioral of post_processing is architecture behavioral of post_processing is begin behavioral variable tmp : integer variable z_mt_tmp1 : unsigned(width_z_mt - 1 downto 0)) := (other</pre>	<pre>-tmp & x_mt_2_tmp(width_i_s - bits_trunc - 1 downo 35 -bits_trunc)-width_p_s); 35 35 35 35 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 76 70 70 71 70 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8</pre>
LISTING A.6: Constants Package (VHD)	
LISTING A.6: Constants Package (VHDL)	
	11;
end behavioral;	37
	37
, end proess;	2.8
<pre>z_mt <= std_logic_vector(z_mt_tmp1 sr1 (INTERVALS - 1 - tm </pre>	98
-	oits; Final result
<pre>z_mt_tmp1 := unsigned('1' & unsigned(y_mt(width_y - 1 downto 1</pre>	; Exponent 36
<pre>tmp := to_integer(unsigned(exp));</pre>	Output of the processing stage 36
begin process	36
=> '0');	ls is to transform the input into the final
<pre>variable z_mt_tmp1 : unsigned(width_z_mt - 1 downto 0) := (other</pre>	\mathfrak{st} -processing or the oposite action of the 36
<pre>variable tmp : integer</pre> := 0;	36
process (exp, y_mt)	36
	96
begin behavioral	36
	36
architecture behavioral of post_processing is	r-PROCESSING UNIT 35
	35
end post_processing;	<u> </u>
	35
<pre>z_mt : out std_logic_vector(width_z_mt - 1 downto 0));</pre>	35
exp : in std_logic_vector(width_exp - 1 downto 0);	35
y_mt : in std_logic_vector(width_y - 1 downto 0);	337
port (.0 10
	ac)-width_p_s); 35
width_z_mt : integer := WIDTH_FINAL_RESULT);	tt_2_tmp(width_i_s - bits_trunc - 1 downto 35
width_exp : integer := widTH_UF_IHE_EXFUNENT;	

1_logic_1164.all; neric_std.all;	stants is		FP4 CONSTANTS		<pre>dIDTH_OF_INPUT_SIGNAL : integer := 16; Width of V_mt</pre>	MIDTH_OF_THE_OUDUT_FP4 : integer := 8; Width of the signal of the Floating Point 4 unit	SQUARER UNIT CONSTANTS		diDHT_OF_INPUT_SIGNAL_OF_SQUARE_UNIT : integer := 10;	iIDTH OF SOUARED INPUT_SIGNAL : integer := 17:		INTERVALS : integer := 8;	of Intervals for S2
25 <mark>use ieee.st</mark> 26 <mark>use ieee.n</mark> u	27 28 package con 29	30			33 34 constant 35 constant	<pre>66 constant</pre>	39		41 42 constant	X_mt 8 constant	X_mt~2	44 constant	Amount
Project : 	File : constants.vhd	Author : Commany :	r-r	Platform : Standard : VHDL'87 	Description: All the constants used for the genetic values are declared	here. If changes to the width of any signal shall be done, it is to be here where the change should occur.	Copyright (c) 2013 	Revisions :	Date Version Author Description 2013-03-11 1.0 2011 Created	-			library ieee;
00 A	τΟ	9	• • • •	11 12	°T 1	$\begin{smallmatrix} 12 \\ 16 \\ 16 \end{smallmatrix}$	17 18	19	21	22		23	24

integer := 19; integer := 15; integer := 13; integer := 12; integer := 16;	101 =: 114066911	S CORFFICIENTS			r := 7; with 6 ceros in front r := 8: with 4 ceros in front	or := 16; Could not be	ьт := 6;	л:=4;	• INTERVALS - 1) of	<pre>FF - 1 downto 0); PE := ("1011100",</pre>	"0111010",	"0101010" , "0100001"	"0011101",	"0011011",	"0011011",	"0011101");
<pre>constant WIDTH_ADDER_S1_2 constant WIDTH_ADDER_S2_1 constant WIDTH_ADDER_S2_1 constant WIDTH_OF_NOUNDED_S2 constant WIDTH_OF_NOUNDED_S2 constant WIDTH_PROCESSING_OUTPUT </pre>		CONSTANT	-		constant WIDTH_C21_C0EFF : intege constant WIDTH_J I COEFF : intege	constant WIDTH_L_I_COEFF : intege	optimized constant WIDTH_OPTIM_C2_I : intege	constant WIDTH_OPTIM_J_I : intege	type C21_COEFF_TYPE is array (0 to	std_logic_vector(WIDTH_C21_COEF constant C21_COEFF : C21_COEFF_TYP						
64 65 66 67 68	70 71 72	73	he 74	he 75	77	78	62	80 81	82	80	84	idth 85 26	87	00 00	89	06
nteger := 3; nteger := 12;			Width of tl	Width of tl								:= 16; W	:= 13;	or := "		:= 12;
ii : LIGNAL	DING CONSTANTS		<pre>G : integer := 21; be rounded</pre>	: integer := 10;	: integer := 13;			OP LEVEL CONSTANTS				: integer	: integer	: std_logic_vecto		: integer
<pre>constant BITS_OF_TRUNGATION log2(INTERVALS) constant WIDTH_OF_SQUARED_TRUNG</pre>	ROWI		constant WIDTH_OF_INPUT_ROUNDING all the signals that have to	constant WIDTH_OF_ROUNDED_X_MT X_mt after rounding	<pre>constant WIDTH_OF_ROUNDED_S1</pre>	1			;			constant WIDTH_GLOBAL_OUTPUT	constant WIDTH_THIRD_COEF	constant THIRD_COEF	010101010111";	constant WIDTH_ADDER_S1_1
45 46 47 48	49 50	51	52	²² 109	55	56		57	58		59	60	61	62		63

		;			ADDER/SUBTRACTOR CONSTANTS						<pre>constant WIDTH_MULT_S2 : integer := WIDTH_J_LCOEFF +</pre>	WIDHT_OF_INPUT_SIGNAL_OF_SQUARE_UNIT - BITS_OF_TRUNCATION;	constant WIDTH_TO_T_ADDER2 : integer := WIDTH_MULT_S2 -	WIDTH_ADDER_S2_2;				end constants;			Listing A 7. Tast Banch (VHDL)				Title : TESTBENCH	Project :		File : testbench.vhd	Author :	Company :	Created : 2013-03-14
116	117	118			119		120			121	122		123		124	125	126	127	1			1	Ļ		2	с.	4	υ	9	-	90
	type J_I_COEFF_TYPE is array (0 to INTERVALS - 1) of	<pre>std_logic_vector(WIDTH_J_LCOEFF - 1 downto 0);</pre>	<pre>constant J_I_COEFF : J_I_COEFF_TYPE := ("11001111",</pre>	"01110100",	"00111011",	"00010001",	"0001000",	"00101101",	"01001000",	"01100011");	type L_I_COEFF_TYPE is array (0 to INTERVALS - 1) of	std_logic_vector(WIDTH_LL_I_COEFF - 1 downto 0);	<pre>constant L_I_CDEFF : L_I_CDEFF_TYPE := ("10000000000000",</pre>	"0111101011110",	"01111000001110",	"011100101010",	"01110010000100",	"0111011111110",	"0111100111001",	"0111110001110";		:		TOP LEVEL CONSTANTS	:	1		constant WIDTH_TEMP_ADDER_S2_1 : integer := WIDTH_J_I_COEFF + (WIDHT_OF_INPUT_SIGNAL_OF_SQUARE_UNIT - BITS_OF_TRUNCATION);	<pre>constant WIDTH_TEMP_ADDER_S2_2 : integer := WIDTH_C2I_C0EFF +</pre>	WIDTH_OF_SQUARED_TRUNC_SIGNAL;
	91		92	93	94	95	96	26	98	66	100		101	102	103	L^{104}	10^{102}	106	107	108	109	110		111		112		113 114		115	

69	v_nt => v_nt, z_nt => z_nt);		.n -s /usr/local-eit/cad2/cmpstn/stn065v536/CORE65LPHVT_5.1/behaviour/ veriloc/setup.modelsin.veriloc
71		2	
73	process	ŝ	/setup.modelsim.verilog
74	file file_pointer : text;		
75	variable line_num : line;		
76	begin process		LIGTING A 10: Synthesis Tel Serint (Design Vision)
22	file_open(file_pointer, "results.txt", write_mode);		(INTER A TREED INTERPORT OF CREATING OF THE ANTICAL
78	for i in 0 to 65536 loop	1	ешоvе_design -designs
62	v_mt <= std_logic_vector(to_unsigned(i, 16));	2	: set CORE "CORE65";
80	wait for 10 ns;	0	<pre>: set VOLTAGE(1) "LPHVT";</pre>
81	write(line_num, to_integer(unsigned(z_mt)));	4	<pre>set VOLTAGE(2) "LPLVT";</pre>
82	<pre>writeline (file_pointer, line_num);</pre>	Ŋ	: set VOLTAGE(3) "GPSVT"
00	end loop; i	9	: set LIBTRAIL "_5.1";
84	end process;	2	<pre>set TRAIL2(1) "_nom_1.20V_25C.db";</pre>
88 1		00	<pre>set TRAIL2(2) "_nom_1.00V_25G.db";</pre>
12^{98}	<pre>end structural;</pre>	6	<pre>set TRAIL2(3) "_nom_0.80V_250.db";</pre>
		- 10	: set TRAIL2(4) "_nom_0.82V_25C.db";
		11	
	LISTING A.8: Simulation Tcl Script (Modelsim)	12	<pre>eval file delete [glob -nocomplain results/*.dat]</pre>
1	vlib work	14	set i 1;
2	#vcom ./vhdl/constants.vhd	15	: set j 1;
0	#vcom ./vhdl/comp_pack.vhd	16	
4	#vcom ./vhdl/top.vhd	17	: while $\{\$i < 4\}$ {
ŋ	#vcom ./vhdl/Pads.vhd	18	
9	vcom ./netlists/netlist.v	19	while $\{\$j < 5\}$ {
7	vcom ./vhdl/testbench.vhd	20	
90	vsim -c -do 'run 655360ns;quit' testbench	21	<pre>set path_value \$CORE\$VOLTAGE(\$i)\$LIBTRAIL;</pre>
		22	
	LISTING A.9: Library Compilation Tcl Script (Model-	24	() [\$/\]IIYYI \$/\\$/\]DYIID.\$@IID.\$@IID.\$
		25	<pre>set search_path "\$env(STM065_DIR)/</pre>
	SIIII)		IO65LPHVT_SF_1V8_50A_7M4X0Y2Z_7.0/libs \

			53	# set target_library "
26	#	<pre>\$env(STM065_DIR)/\$path_value/libs \</pre>		ID65LPHVT_SF_1V8_50A_7M4X0Y2Z_nom_1.00V_1.80V_25C.db \
27	#	\$search_path"	54	<pre># CORE65LPHVT_RECHAR_0v8.db"</pre>
28			55	
29	#	set link_library "	56	<pre># #"IO65LPHVT_SF_1V8_50A_7M4X0Y22_nom_1.00V_1.80V_25C.db \</pre>
		ID65LPHVT_SF_1V8_50A_7M4X0Y2Z_nom_1.00V_1.80V_25C.db \	57	*
30	#	\$lib_value \	58	#CORE65LPHVT_RECHAR_0v8.db"
31	#	standard.sldb dw_foundation.sldb"	59	
32			60	analyze -library WORK -format vhdl {/home/piraten/soc11ava/
33	#	set target_library "		Desktop/test/vhdl/top.vhd \
		IO65LPHVT_SF_1V8_50A_7M4X0Y2Z_nom_1.00V_1.80V_25C.db \	61	/home/piraten/soc11ava/Desktop/test/vhd1/
34	#	\$lib_value"		constants.vhd \
35			62	/home/piraten/soc11ava/Desktop/test/vhd1/
36	#	read_lib /export/space/soc11ava/rechar/libs/core_lib/		comp_pack.vhd}
		CORE65LPHVT_RECHAR_0v8.1ib	63	
37	#	<pre>write_lib CORE65LPHVT_RECHAR_0v8 -out /export/space/soc11ava/rec</pre>	har/ 64	elaborate TOP_LEVEL -architecture structural -library WORK -update
		libs/CORE65LPHVT_RECHAR_Ov8.db	65	
00 67			99	set_max_delay 10 -to {z_mt}
39			67	
40	#	<pre>set search_path "\$env(STM065_DIR)/I065LPHVT_SF_1V8_50A_7M4X0Y2Z_</pre>	7.0/ 68	check_design
		libs /	69	
41	#	/export/space/soc11ava/rechar/libs \	70	compile -map_effort medium -area_effort medium
42	#	\$search_path"	71	
43			72	remove_unconnected_ports -blast_buses [get_cells "*" -hier]
44	#	set link_library "	73	remove_unconnected_ports [get_cells "*" -hier]
		ID65LPHVT_SF_1V8_50A_7M4X0Y2Z_nom_1.00V_1.80V_25C.db \	74	
45	#	CORE65LPHVT_RECHAR_0v8.db \	75	change_names -rules verilog -hierarchy
46	#	standard.sldb dw_foundation.sldb"	76	write -format verilog -hierarchy -output netlists/netlist.v
47			22	write_sdf netlists/timing_info.sdf
48			78	write_sdc netlists/PlaceRoute_info.sdc
49	#	#"IO65LPHVT_SF_1V8_50A_7M4X0Y2Z_nom_1.00V_1.80V_25C.db \	62	
50	#	# CORE65LPHVT_RECHAR_0v8.db/	80	report_constraint -all_violators
51	#	<pre># standard.sldb dw_foundation.sldb"</pre>	81	report_design
52			82	report_area -hierarchy

	#- Define the global power nets.	-#	<pre>#- (Menu: Floorplan > Global Net Connections)</pre>		clearGlobalNets	globalWetConnect vdd -type pgpin -pin VDD -inst PVCCc	globalNetConnect vdd -type pgpin -pin vdd -inst *	globalNetConnect vdd -type tiehi	globalNetConnect gnd -type tielo	globalMetConnect gnd -type pgpin -pin GND -inst PGNDc	globalNetConnect gnd -type pgpin -pin gnd -inst *		#+ rtoorplanning	#- (Menu: Floorplan > Specify Floorplan) #-	<pre>#- (x-width y-width core-left core-down core-right core-up) keep width</pre>	on .28 grid.	-#	#- For some reason the snapping does not work. Use 0.28 grid for width	& height.	-#		floorPlan -site CDRE -r 0.95 0.7 9.0 9.0 9.0 9.0	# floorPlan -site CORE -s 130 110 9.0 9.0 9.0 9.0			#- Power rings and stripes.	-#	<pre>#- (Menu: Power > Power Planning > Add Rings / Add Stripes)</pre>		
<pre>33 # >> ./results/area\$lib_value.dat 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1</pre>	00 # >> ./results/time%iib_value.dat 10 report bower	<pre>/7 #>> ./results/power\$lib value.dat</pre>	2	19	10 # set j [expr {\$j + 1}]; 2	11 # } 2	12)3 # set i [expr {\$i + 1}]; 2	14 # set j1;	15 # }		, cv	LISTING A.11: Place-and-Route Tcl Script (SOC En- $\frac{3}{3}$	counter)	1 freeDesign	2	3 #- Setup some basic parameters	4 3	5 setPreference ConstraintUserXGrid 0.2	6 setPreference ConstraintUserXOffset 0.0	7 setPreference ConstraintUserYGrid 0.2	8 setPreference ConstraintUserYOffset 0.0	9	.0	1 #- Import the design. 4	.2 #-	.3 #- (Menu: Design > Design Import)	4	.5 loadConfig sqrt_PR.conf	.6 commitConfig

49	addBing -spacing bottom 1 -width laft 3 -width bottom 3 -width top 3 \		
) 	V O dos Tranta O mossion Tranta O stat Tranta I mossion Ortronde Ortrande		
20	-spacing_top 1 -layer_bottom M3 -stacked_via_top_layer AP <	setPrerouteAsObs	{1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8}
51	-width_right 3 -around core -jog_distance 2.5 -layer_top M3		
		placeDesign -preP	laceOpt
52	-threshold 2.5 -spacing_right 1 -spacing_left 1		
	-layer_right M4 \	#- Connect some p	ower.
53	-nets {gnd vdd } -stacked_via_bottom_layer M1 -layer_left	+ #	
	M4	#- (Menu: Route	> SRoute)
54			
55	addStripe -block_ring_top_layer_limit M5 -max_same_layer_jog_length 6	# sroute -noBlock	Pins -noPadRings -jogControl { preferWithChanges
		differentLay	er }
20	-padcore_ring_bottom_layer_limit M3 -number_of_sets 1 \		
57	-stacked_via_top_layer AP -padcore_ring_top_layer_limit M5 \	#- Route what is	left.
00 21	-spacing 1 -xleft_offset 60 -merge_stripes_value 2.5 -layer	+ #	
	M4 \	#- (Menu: Route	> NanoRoute)
59	-block_ring_bottom_layer_limit M3 -width 3 -nets {gnd vdd }		
		# globalDetailRo	ute
60	-stacked_via_bottom_layer M1		
61		setNanoRouteMode	-quiet -drouteStartIteration default
62	addStripe -block_ring_top_layer_limit M4 -max_same_layer_jog_length 6	setNanoRouteMode	-quiet -routeTopRoutingLayer default
	_	setNanoRouteMode	-quiet -routeBottomRoutingLayer default
63	-padcore_ring_bottom_layer_limit M2 -number_of_sets 1 \	setNanoRouteMode	-quiet -drouteEndIteration default
64	-ybottom_offset {0} -stacked_via_top_layer AP \	setNanoRouteMode	-quiet -routeWithTimingDriven false
65	-padcore_ring_top_layer_limit M4 -start_from top -spacing 1	setNanoRouteMode	-quiet -routeWithSiDriven false
		routeDesign -glo	balDetail
99	-merge_stripes_value 2.5 -direction horizontal -layer M3 \		
67	-block_ring_bottom_layer_limit M2 -ytop_offset 50 -width 3 \1	optDesign -postR	oute
68	-nets {gnd vdd } -stacked_via_bottom_layer M1		
69			
70	#- Start placing cells. No cell under existing metal.	#- Fill empty spa	ce between standard cells.
71	+		
72	<pre>#- (Menu: Place > Specify > Placement Blockage)</pre>	addFiller -minHo	<pre>leCheck -cell HS65_LH_FILLERCELL4 HS65_LH_FILLERCELL3</pre>
73	<pre>#- (Menu: Place > Place)</pre>	/	
74	1	HS65_LH_F	ILLERCELL2 HS65_LH_FILLERCELL1 -prefix fico \

107	-fitGap -fixDRC	14	*
108			+
109	# Save Design	15	## 1.0 Dalia/Alejandro 2013/02/15 original
110			created
111	saveDesign sqrt.enc	16	++##
112			+
113	rcOut -spef top_level.spef	17	
114		18	
115	saveNetlist top_level.v	19	######################################
116		20	<pre># step 1: enalbe power analysis and set analysis mode</pre>
117	delayCal -sdf top_level.sdf	21	
118		22	remove_design -all
119	fit	23	set power_enable_analysis TRUE
		24	<pre>set power_analysis_mode time_based</pre>
		25	
		26	######################################
	LISTING A.12: Power Analysis Icl Script (Prime	27	<pre># step 2: link to your design libary</pre>
	Time)	28	
		29	<pre>set search_path "/usr/local-eit/cad2/cmpstm/stm065v536/CDRE65LPHVT_5.1</pre>
-	**		/libs"
2	## Design : medianfilter_pt_power	30	<pre>set link_library "* CORE65LPHVT_nom_1.20V_25C.db"</pre>
ŝ	## File Name : medianfilter_pt_power.tcl	31	<pre>set target_library "CORE65LPHVT_nom_1.20V_25C.db"</pre>
4	## Purpose : PrimeTime PX power template for sqrt	32	
ŋ	## Limitation : none	33	
9	## Errors : none known	34	# step 3: read your design (netlist) & link design
1	## Include Files: none	35	
00	## Author : Dalia Iurascu/Alejandro Vazquez Bofill	36	read_verilog ./soc/top_level.v
6	## Software : Synopsys PrimeTime	37	current_design top_level
10	***	00 73	link_design -keep_sub_designs
11	## Revision List:	39	
12	++##	40	#####################################
		41	<pre># step 4: read SDC and set transition time (post-syn) or annotate</pre>
13	## Version Author Date Changes		<pre>parasitics (post-layout)</pre>
	_	42	

		##
		file
spef		activity
op_level.		switching
/soc/t		read
read_parasitics \cdot ,		###################
43	44	45

47

48 read_vcd -strip_path testbench/top_level_1 ./results_vcd.vcd 49

- - # step 6: analysis and output analysis report
 - 51 **# step 6: an** 52 53 check_power
- 54 update_power 55 report_power
- report_power -verbose -hierarchy > ./results/power.rpt

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