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Finite Wordlength Design and  
VLSI Implementation  
of Wave Digital Filters

By

A. R. Mirzai

A Thesis Submitted for the Degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy  
School of Electrical Engineering and  
Applied Physics  
The Centre for Information Engineering

The City University

October 1986



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I dedicate this work to my [redacted] [redacted] [redacted] for her love, patience, encouragements and understanding and to our [redacted] [redacted] [redacted] who has given a new meaning to our lives.

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## DECLARATION

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## ABSTRACT

Electronic filters are one of the basic elements in a communication system. In recent years, digital filters have attracted much attention due to many reasons, such as stability, flexibility, speed, cost, etc. One major problem with digital filters is the effects of finite wordlength. Wave Digital Filters (WDFs) were first introduced by Fettweis in 1971 to reduce these effects. However, the main drawback of WDFs is the hardware complexity when compared with the conventional cascade of second order sections. In general, the implementation of WDFs depends on how efficient the 2-port, 3-port parallel and 3-port serial adaptors are implemented. Therefore, one way of approaching the hardware complexity of WDFs is to consider the VLSI implementation of WDF adaptors.

In this thesis, bit-level systolic arrays are developed for the implementation of WDF adaptors. The systolic arrays developed are very suitable for the VLSI implementation of WDFs. A 2-port prototype systolic adaptor has been constructed and tested fully to prove the correctness of the design. Also, a universal systolic adaptor is designed which can be programmed to realise 2-port, 3-port parallel and 3-port serial adaptors. The number of transistors required to implement the adaptors in CMOS technology and the speed of the adaptors has also been estimated.

Also in this thesis, a complete software package has been developed which can be used for the synthesis and finite wordlength design of WDFs based on three well known reference filters, i.e unit element, lattice and LC-ladder filters. Software tools are also developed for the analysis and simulation of the filters designed. The simulation program allows the simulation of the systolic WDFs.

Many examples have been considered to illustrate the performance of the design programs and the systolic WDFs. From the example, it will be shown that the finite wordlength design program can be used to minimize the number of bits used to represent the filter coefficients. Also, it will be seen that a small reduction in the number of bits for the coefficients would exponentially reduce the complexity, and consequently the number of transistors, of a systolic WDF.

## ABBREVIATIONS

A/D	Analogue to Digital converter.
Ap	Pass band ripple.
As	Stop band Loss.
BPF	Band-Pass Filter.
BSF	Band-Stop Filter.
CMOS	Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor.
D/A	Digital to Analogue converter.
EPROM	Erasable Programmable Read Only Memory.
FA	Full Adder.
FIR	Finite Impulse Response.
FIRST	Fast Implementation of Real-time Signal Transforms.
Fp	Pass band edge frequency.
Fs	Stop band edge frequency.
FWLD	Finite WordLength Design.
HPF	High-Pass Filter.
IIR	Infinite Impulse Response.
I/O	Input/Output.
LCWDF	LC-ladder WDF.
LPF	Low-Pass Filter.
LSB	Least Significant Bit.
LSI	Large Scale Integration.
LTI	Linear Time Invariant.
LTWDF	LaTtice WDF.
MNB	Maximum Number of Bits.
MSB	Most Significant Bit.
NBC	Number of Bits for Coefficients.
NBS	Number of Bits for Signal.
VLSI	Very Large Scale Integration.
UEWDF	Unit Element WDF.
USA	Universal Systolic Adaptor.
WDF	Wave Digital Filter.

## CHAPTER ONE

### DIGITAL FILTERS AND ARRAY PROCESSORS

#### 1.1.0- Introduction

Filters are signal processors that enhance some frequency components in a signal while attenuating the others. In analogue filters, the signals may be continuous functions of time for example current or voltage waveforms. These signals are called continuous-time signals. On the other hand, the input to a digital filter is represented by a sequence of values available only at discrete intervals of time. These type of signals are referred to as discrete-time signals. Therefore, a digital filter is a digital signal processor that converts a sequence of numbers, called input samples, into another sequence of numbers called output samples. This computational process may be that of low-pass filtering, band-pass filtering, interpolation, etc.

Digital filters can also be used to process continuous signals by means of A/D and D/A converter, as will be shown in section 1.2.6 (Fig. 1.14). There are a number of reasons for considering the filtering of a continuous signal using digital techniques,

- 1) The frequency response of a digital filter can be made as close as possible to the ideal response.

2) Adaptive filtering and linear phase characteristics are possible.

3) Also digital filters are programmable and very flexible.

4) When designed, digital filters are very stable and they are not subjected to ageing.

5) The cost of analogue filters is static while, with advances in digital hardware, the cost of digital filters is decreasing rapidly.

This chapter presents a concise introduction to the fundamental techniques involved in the design and implementation of digital filters. The chapter is divided into four sections. In the first section, we begin with a review of the sampling process of a continuous signal. Also we introduce the concept of the Z-transform as applied to linear time-invariant discrete systems and discuss methods by which a continuous filter design can be translated into a digital filter design. There are a number of problems associated with the realization of digital filters, such as coefficient accuracy, quantization and rounding, etc, which affect the frequency response of the filter. These problems and their solutions are also discussed.

As a solution to these problems, the concept of Wave Digital filters was introduced in 1971 by Fettweis. In

section 2, we briefly review the basic theory, design and implementation of WDFs. In section 3, the concept of VLSI array processing is introduced. Some features of suitable architectures for VLSI implementation are discussed and systolic and wavefront arrays are described and compared. Finally in section 4, we outline the main objectives of this thesis.



## 1.2.0- Theory of LTI Digital Filters [1]

### 1.2.1- Sampled Signals

The sampling process can be thought of as the impulse modulation of a continuous input signal (Fig. 1.1). The input,  $x(t)$ , is sampled every  $T$  seconds to produce the output signal,  $x_s(t)$ . From Fig. 1.1,  $x_s(t)$  is given by,

$$x_s(t) = x(t) \cdot \delta_T(t) \quad (1.1)$$

where  $\delta_T(t) = \sum \delta(t-nT) \quad (1.2)$

and  $\delta(t-nT)$  is the Dirac delta function. Substituting eqn. 1.2 into eqn. 1.1, we have,

$$x_s(t) = x(t) \sum \delta(t-nT) \quad (1.3)$$

or  $x_s(t) = \sum x(nT) \cdot \delta(t-nT) \quad (1.4)$

assuming  $x(t)=0$  for  $t<0$  and  $x(t)$  is only known at  $t=nT$ . Eqn. 1.4 represents the time-domain characteristics of the sampled output. In order to see the frequency characteristics, we need to apply the Laplace transform to eqn. 1.4.  $\delta_T(t)$  can be expressed as a Fourier series as shown below,

$$\delta_T(t) = (1/T) \sum e^{jn\omega_s t} \quad n=(-\infty, \infty) \quad (1.5)$$

where  $\omega_s$  is the sampling frequency in Rad/sec. Substituting (1.5) into (1.1), we have,

$$x_s(t) = (1/T) \sum x(nT) e^{jn\omega_s t} \quad (1.6)$$

Now taking the Laplace transform of (1.6) and using the shifting theorem we obtain,

$$X_s(s) = (1/T) \sum X(s-jn\omega_s) \quad (1.7)$$

Substituting  $s=j\omega$  into (1.7) results,

$$X_s(j\omega) = (1/T) \sum X[j(\omega - n\omega_s)] \quad (1.8)$$

Therefore the sampling process has resulted in a frequency spectrum which is a periodic function with a period of  $\omega_s$ . Fig. 1.2 shows the spectrum of a typical signal,  $x(t)$ , and the corresponding  $X_s(s)$  for two cases,  $f > 2f_{\min}$  and  $f < 2f_{\min}$  where  $f$  is the sampling frequency and  $f_{\min}$  is the maximum frequency component in the input signal. In the first case, the input can be reconstructed since the frequency spectrum of  $x_s(t)$  can be recognised (Fig. 1.2b). In the second case, the signal cannot be recovered since the spectra of the signal are overlapping (Fig. 1.2c). This effect is known as aliasing and its effect can be reduced by bandlimiting the input signal (Fig. 1.2d), and/or increasing the sampling frequency. From Fig. 1.2, it can be deduced that the sampling frequency has to be at least equal to  $2f_{\min}$  in order to be able to recover the signal. This is referred to as the Nyquist sampling theorem.

### 1.2.2- Z-Transform

In continuous-time domain, filters are described using sets of linear differential equations and the Laplace transform can be used to describe the frequency characteristics of the filters. Digital filters are however described using linear difference equations and the z-transform provides information about the

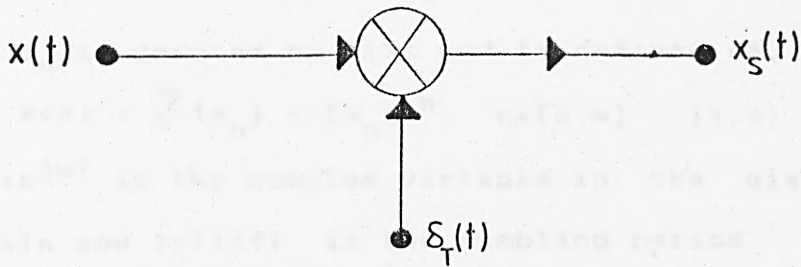


Fig.1.1 \_ Sampling process.

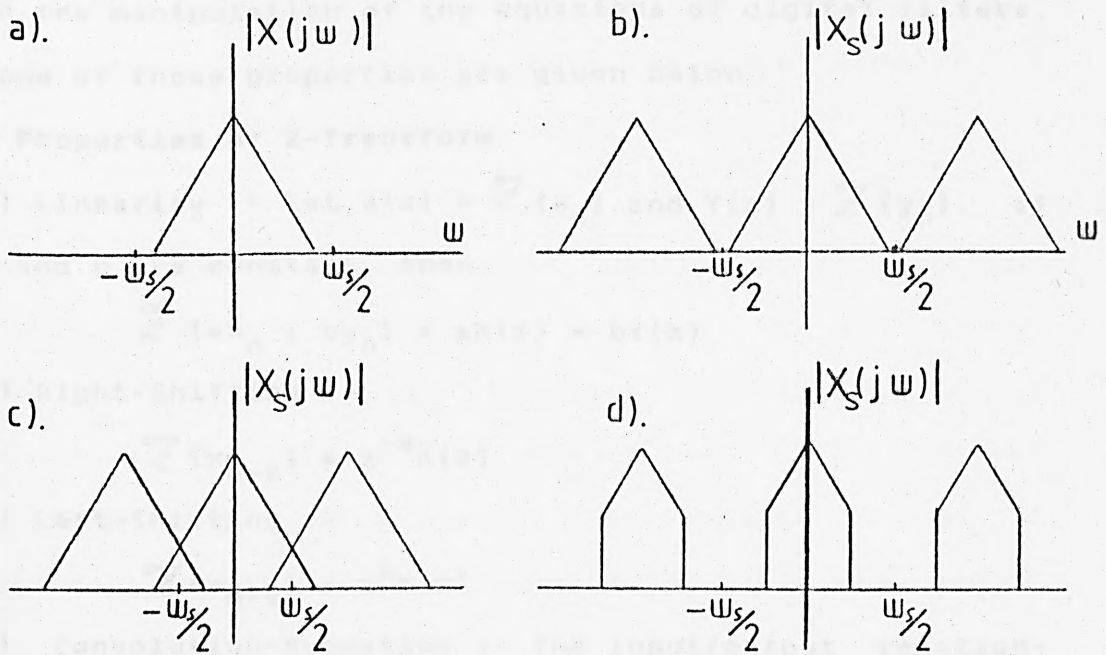


Fig.1.2 \_ Frequency spectrums of a typical signal.

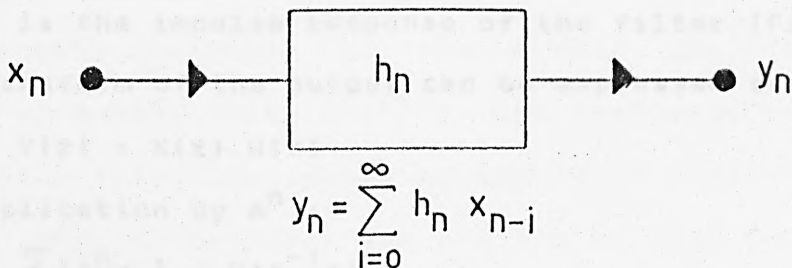


Fig.1.3 \_ Convolution - Summation property.



frequency response of the filters. The z-transform of a sequence  $x_n$  is denoted by  $X(z)$  and is defined as,

$$X(z) = \mathcal{Z}\{x_n\} = \sum x_n z^{-n} \quad n=[0, \infty] \quad (1.9)$$

where  $z=e^{j\omega T}$  is the complex variable in the discrete-time domain and  $T=(1/f)$  is the sampling period. The z-transform has a number of properties which are useful in the manipulation of the equations of digital filters. Some of these properties are given below.

#### - Properties of Z-Transform

a) Linearity :- Let  $X(z) = \mathcal{Z}\{x_n\}$  and  $Y(z) = \mathcal{Z}\{y_n\}$ . If  $a$  and  $b$  are constant, then

$$\mathcal{Z}\{ax_n + by_n\} = aX(z) + bY(z)$$

b) Right-Shifting :-

$$\mathcal{Z}\{x_{n-k}\} = z^{-k}X(z)$$

c) Left-Shifting :-

$$\mathcal{Z}\{x_{n+k}\} = z^kX(z)$$

d) Convolution-Summation :- The input/output relationship of a digital filter can be expressed using the convolution-summation as described below :-

$$y_n = x_n * h_n$$

where  $h_n$  is the impulse response of the filter (Fig 1.3).

The z-transform of the output can be expressed as :-

$$Y(z) = X(z).H(z)$$

e) Multiplication by  $A^n$  :-

$$\mathcal{Z}\{A^n x_n\} = X(A^{-1}z)$$

### 1.2.3- Digital filter Configurations

#### - Transfer Functions

As mentioned earlier, linear differential equations are used to describe analogue filters, while linear difference equations are used for digital filters. The linear difference equations express the output samples of the digital filter in terms of the present input sample and a number of past input and output samples. A typical form of a difference equation is,

$$y_n = \sum a_i x_{n-i} + \sum b_j y_{n-j} \quad (1.10)$$

where  $x_n$  is the present input sample,  $x_i$  is the  $i$ th input sample and similarly  $y_j$  represent the  $j$ th output sample.  $A_i$  and  $b_j$  are constant coefficients which determine the response of the filter. The transfer function,  $G(z)$ , of a digital filter may be obtained by taking the  $z$ -transform of eqn. 1.10. This will result in,

$$G(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{X(z)} = \frac{\sum a_i z^{-i}}{1 - \sum b_j z^{-j}} \quad (1.11)$$

$$i = (0, N) \quad \text{and} \quad j = (1, M)$$

The frequency response of the filter can then be obtained by substituting  $z = e^{j\omega T}$ . The frequency response of a digital filter described by eqn. 1.10 would have an infinite impulse response and filters of this type are called recursive, or IIR, filters. If we, however, set  $b_j = 0$ , then the filter would become finite impulse

response, or FIR.

The design of digital filters involves approximation and synthesis methods which are used to find the values of the  $a_i$  and  $b_j$  coefficients for a given set of specifications. These specifications include passband edge frequency, stopband edge frequency, minimum loss in the stopband and maximum ripple in the passband. Fig. 1.4 illustrates typical lowpass specifications and a typical response which meets these specifications.

#### 1.2.4- Digital filter realisations

Eqn. 1.10 suggest that there are three basic elements required to realise a digital filter. First, some form of storage is needed to store the input and output samples, secondly digital multipliers are needed to multiply a constant with a sampled signal and finally digital adders are needed to add two samples together. There are many digital filter configurations which can be designed to realise the difference equation 1.10. Each configuration has properties which may or may not be desirable depending on the particular applications. Here we briefly consider three form of realisations.

##### - Direct and Canonical Forms of Realisation

The simplest form of realisation of eqn. 1.10 would be to implement the difference equation directly. The output,  $y_n$ , is obtained by adding the present sample inputs,  $x_n$ , with the past sample inputs,  $x_{n-k}$ , and

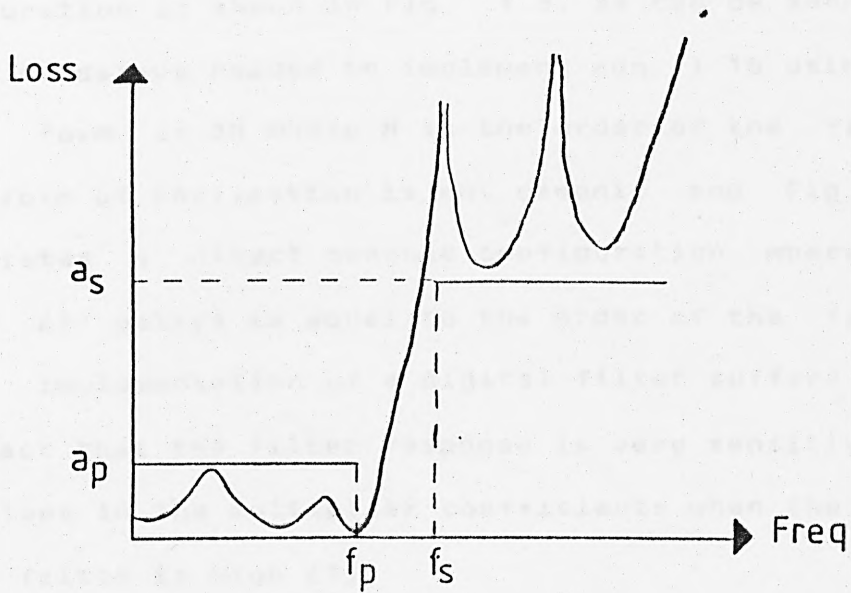


Fig.1.4 \_ Typical Lowpass specifications.

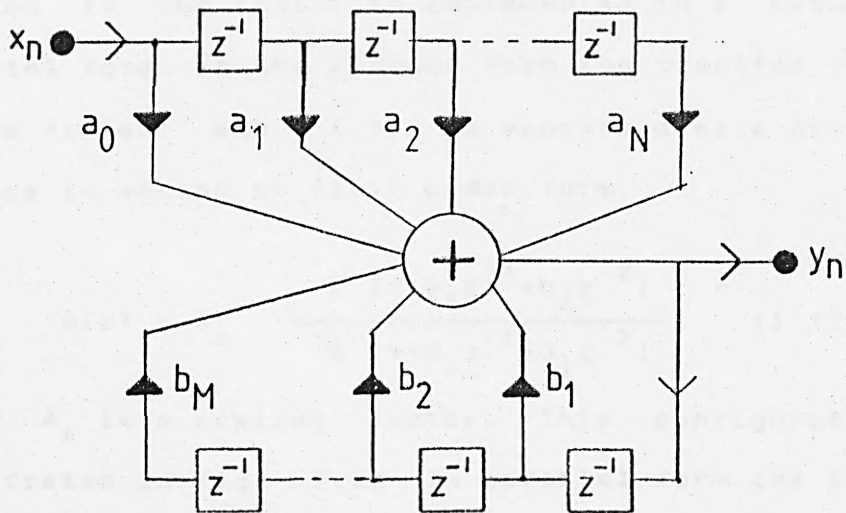


Fig.1.5 \_ Direct realisation of a Digital filter.

outputs,  $y_{n-k}$ , where  $k=1,2,\dots,N$  assuming that  $M=N$ . This configuration is shown in Fig. 1.5. As can be seen, the number of delays needed to implement eqn. 1.10 using the direct form is  $2N$  where  $N$  is the order of the filter. This form of realisation is not canonic and Fig. 1.6 illustrates a direct canonic configuration where the number of delays is equal to the order of the filter. Direct implementation of a digital filter suffers from the fact that the filter response is very sensitive to variations in the multiplier coefficients when the order of the filter is high [1].

#### - Cascade and Parallel forms of Realisation

The sensitivity in the direct form realisation can be reduced if the filter is implemented in a cascade or parallel form. In the cascade form the transfer function of the filter, eqn. 1.11, is expressed as a product of factors in second or first order form,

$$G(z) = A_i \frac{\prod (1+a_i z^{-1}+b_i z^{-2})}{\prod (1+c_i z^{-1}+d_i z^{-2})} \quad (1.12)$$

where  $A_i$  is a scaling factor. This configuration is illustrated in Fig. 1.7. In parallel form the transfer function is expressed as a sum of partial fractions, as shown below,

$$G(z) = A_0 + \sum [B_i \frac{a_i+b_i z^{-1}}{1+c_i z^{-1}+d_i z^{-2}}] \quad (1.13)$$

This form of realisation is shown in Fig. 1.8. As



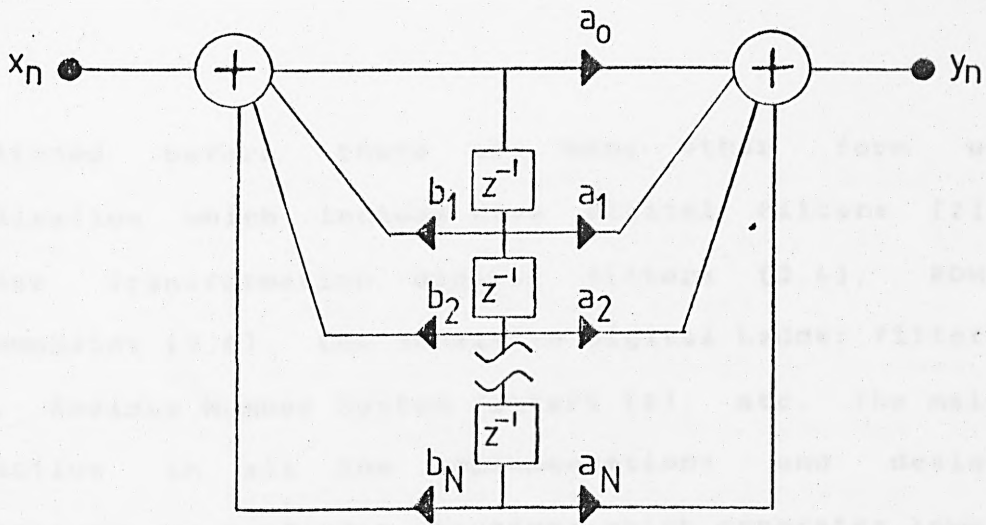


Fig.1.6 \_ Canonic direct form .

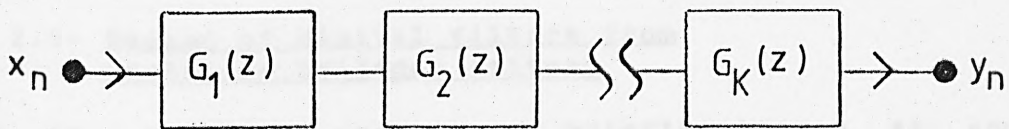


Fig.1.7 \_ Cascade form .

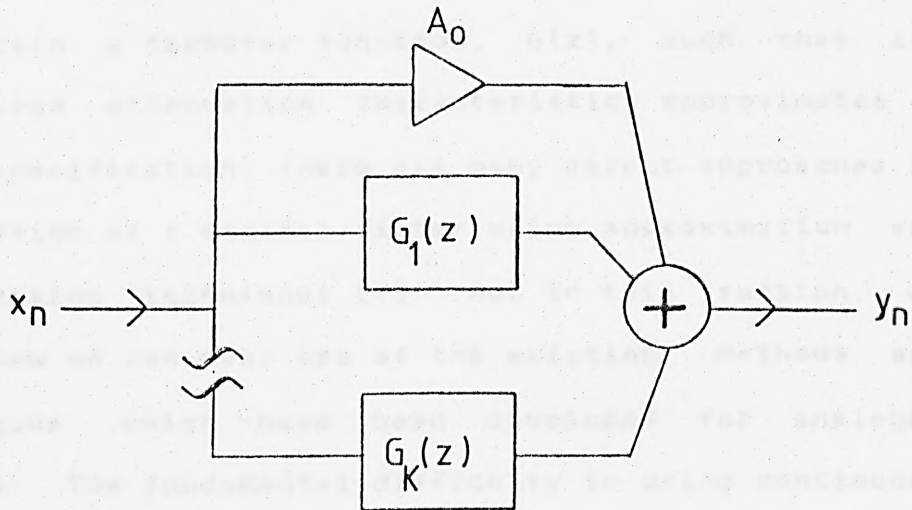


Fig.1.8 \_ Parallel form .

mentioned before there are many other form of realisation which include Wave Digital Filters [2], Linear Transformation digital filters [3,4], ROM-ACCumulator [5,6], Low sensitive Digital Ladder filters [7], Residue Number System filters [8], etc. The main objective in all the implementations and design techniques is to find a structure which generates lower noise than the other structures. In this thesis, we consider the WDF approach and the reasons for this choice will be discussed at relevant points throughout the remainder of this chapter.

#### 1.2.5- Design of digital filters from prototype analogue filters

In the previous section we briefly looked at some possible realisation forms to implement a digital filter. Now we address ourselves to the question of how to obtain a transfer function,  $G(z)$ , such that its associated attenuation characteristics approximates a given specification. There are many direct approaches in the design of a digital filter using approximation and optimization techniques [1]. But in this section, we show how we can make use of the existing methods and techniques which have been developed for analogue filters. The fundamental difficulty in using continuous methods in the discrete-time domain is the fact that a suitable transformation is required to transform the continuous transfer function,  $H(s)$ , which is a rational

function in  $s$  (complex variable), into a transfer function in the  $z$ -plane,  $G(z)$ , which has all the desirable frequency domain properties of  $H(s)$ .

There are a number of transformation which can be used, such as the standard  $z$ -transform (sometimes referred to as impulse invariant transform), matched  $z$ -transform or the bilinear transform. Here we only look at the bilinear transform which will be used later in this thesis. The reader is referred to [1] for more details on the bilinear transformation and the other transformations available.

#### - Bilinear Transformation

The bilinear transformation is a mapping from the  $s$ -plane into the  $z$ -plane and it is described as,

$$s = \frac{1 - z^{-1}}{1 + z^{-1}} \quad (1.14)$$

with its inverse as,

$$z = \frac{1 + s}{1 - s} \quad (1.15)$$

This transformation maps the entire left-hand side of the  $s$ -plane into the inside of a unit circle in the  $z$ -plane and the right-hand side to the outside of the unit circle as illustrated in Fig. 1.9. Therefore any stable transfer function in the  $s$ -plane,  $H(s)$ , can be mapped into a corresponding transfer function in the  $z$ -plane,



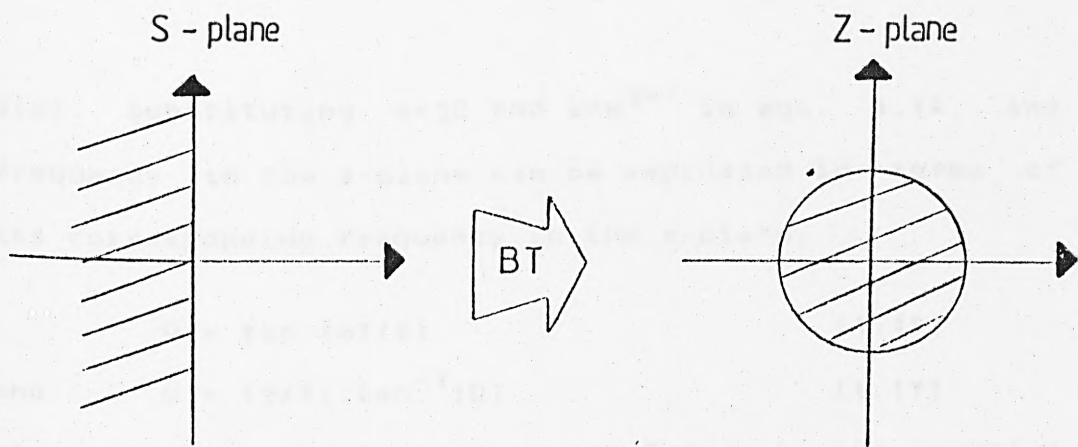


Fig.1.9\_ Bilinear Transformation.

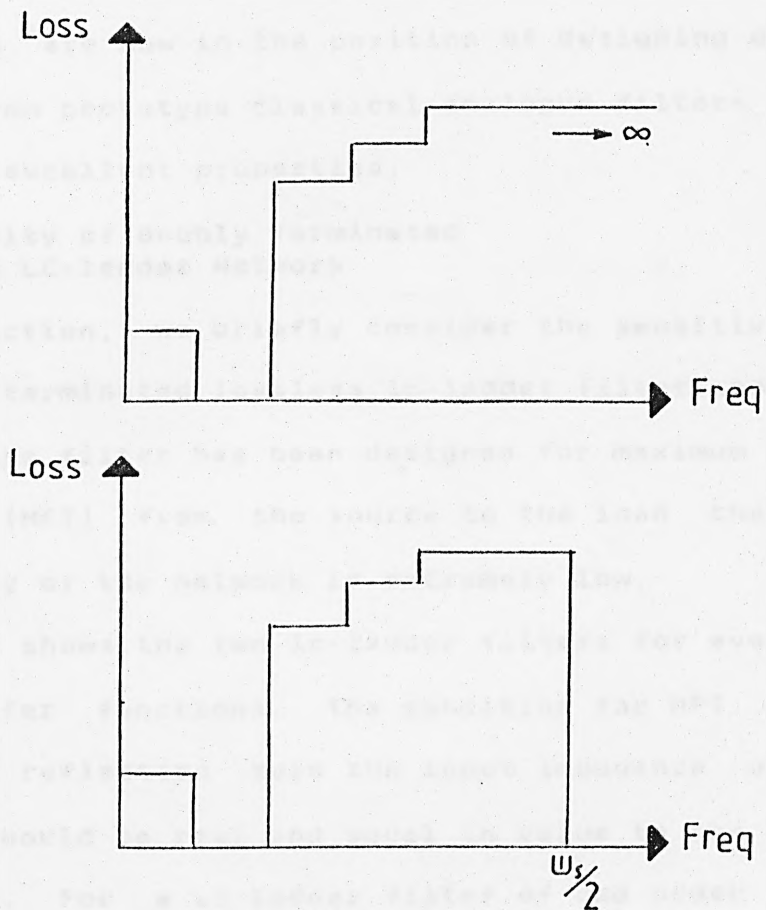


Fig. 1.10\_ Frequency warping effect.

$G(z)$ . Substituting  $s=j\Omega$  and  $z=e^{j\omega T}$  in eqn. 1.14, any frequency in the  $s$ -plane can be expressed in terms of its corresponding frequency in the  $z$ -plane.

$$\Omega = \tan(\omega T/2) \quad (1.16)$$

and  $\omega = (2/T) \tan^{-1}(\Omega) \quad (1.17)$

where  $\Omega$  and  $\omega$  are in Rad/sec and  $T=1/f$  is the sampling period. Note that the relationship in eqn. 1.16 is not a linear relationship. This fact results in a frequency "warping" near to the half sampling frequency (Fig. 1.10). We are now in the position of designing digital filters from prototype classical analogue filters which have many excellent properties.

#### **- Sensitivity of Doubly Terminated Lossless LC-ladder Network**

In this section, we briefly consider the sensitivity of a doubly terminated lossless lc-ladder filter and show that if the filter has been designed for maximum power transfer (MPT) from the source to the load then the sensitivity of the network is extremely low.

Fig. 1.11 shows the two lc-ladder filters for even and odd transfer functions. The condition for MPT states that at a reflection zero the input impedance of the network should be real and equal in value to the source resistance. For a lc-ladder filter of odd order (Fig. 1.11a) at  $\Omega=0$  the input impedance of the network is equal to  $R_1$  (Fig. 1.12) and all we need to do is to make

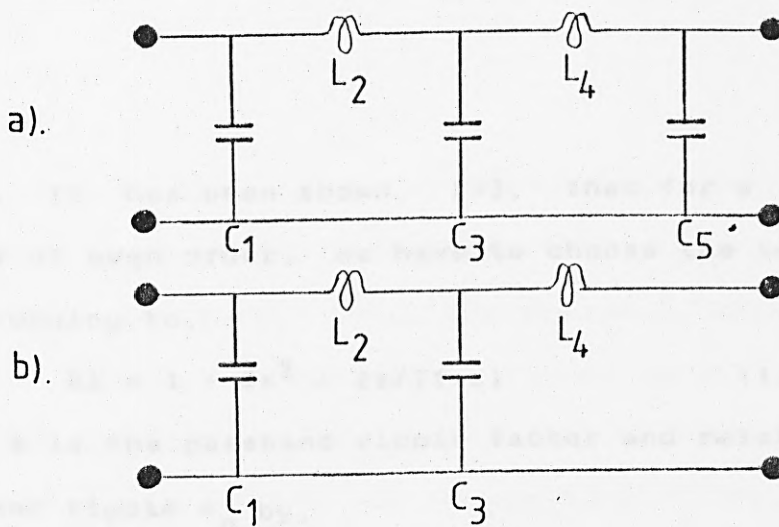


Fig. 1.11 \_ LC \_ Ladder of a). odd, and b). even order.

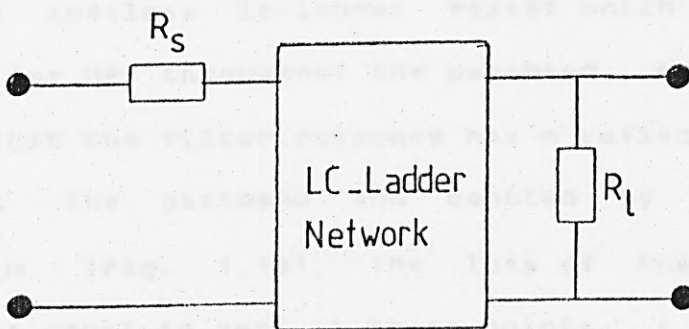


Fig. 1.12 \_ Block representation of a doubly terminated network.

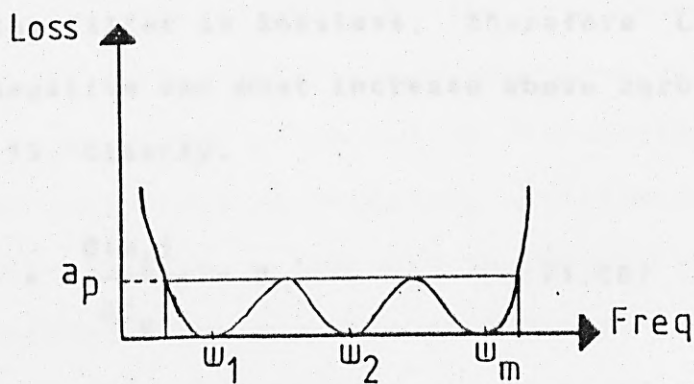


Fig. 1.13 \_ Passband characteristics of a lossless filter.

$R_s=R_l$ . It has been shown, [9], that for a lc-ladder filter of even order, we have to choose the termination  $R_l$  according to,

$$R_l = 1 + 2\epsilon^2 + 2\epsilon/(1+\epsilon) \quad (1.18)$$

where  $\epsilon$  is the passband ripple factor and related to the passband ripple  $a_p$  by,

$$\epsilon = \sqrt{(10^{a_p/10} - 1)} \quad (1.19)$$

for maximum power transfer. Now consider a doubly terminated lossless lc-ladder filter which has been designed for MPT throughout the passband. Now let us consider that the filter response has  $m$  reflection zeros throughout the passband and denoted by  $\omega_i$  where  $i=1,2,\dots,m$  (Fig. 1.13). The loss of the transfer function is equal to zero at these points, i.e.  $L(\omega_i)=0$ , and elsewhere in the passband  $L(\omega) < a_p$  DB. Now consider the effect on  $L(\omega)$  when any element in the filter, i.e.  $L_k$  or  $C_k$ , is decreased or increased from its ideal value. Since the filter is lossless, therefore  $L(\omega_k)$  cannot become negative and must increase above zero as shown in Fig. 1.13. Clearly,

$$\frac{\partial L(\omega_i)}{\partial L_k} = \frac{\partial L(\omega_i)}{\partial C_k} = 0 \quad (1.20)$$

for  $i=1,2,\dots,m$ . This argument has been stated very briefly here and the reader is referred to [10] for more details. Therefore from (1.20), it can be deduced that,

as long as the number of reflection zeros in the passband is large and also the maximum ripple in the passband is kept small, then the frequency response of a doubly terminated lc-ladder filter which has been designed for MPT is very insensitive to small variations in the values of its components. This is not particularly true in the stopband of such a filter, but usually in a filtering application the effect of variations in the stopband are far less important than variations in the passband. Apart from lc-ladder filters there are other types of analogue filters which exhibit low sensitivity characteristics to variations in the components values. These include unit-element and lattice filters.

In previous section, we illustrated how a continuous filter design can be transformed into a discrete filter design and preserve all the properties of the analogue filter using bilinear transformation. The transformation of unit-element filters, lattice and lc-ladder filters results in a digital filter which is also insensitive to variation in its multiplier coefficients. This is very important, as will be seen in the next section, when the filter is implemented using discrete components.

The design of the reference filters can be achieved in several ways. The first approach would be to use analogue filter design tables [11]. This approach is



limited to some extent since tables cannot provide designs for every specification. The alternative would be to synthesize or use some form of optimization to derive the reference filters [12-15]. It is also possible to use explicit formulae to calculate the element values for a given specification [9]. The problem with the explicit formulae is that only Butterworth and Chebyshev filters can be designed and unfortunately no such formulae have yet been developed for the design of Elliptic filters.

#### 1.2.6- Finite wordlength effects

Fig. 1.14 shows how a digital filter may be used in a practical filtering application. The output of the A/D convertor is a digital representation of the input samples  $x_s(t)$ . Also the coefficients are stored as m-bit binary numbers. Therefore inherent errors exist in this representation of the parameters and they give rise to three types of error sources.

- 1) Error due to the quantization of the filter coefficients.

- 2) Error due to the quantization of the input.

- 3) Error due to rounding or truncating the results of any arithmetic operations.

#### - Coefficient Quantization

When the filter is designed the coefficients are normally evaluated to a high degree of accuracy.



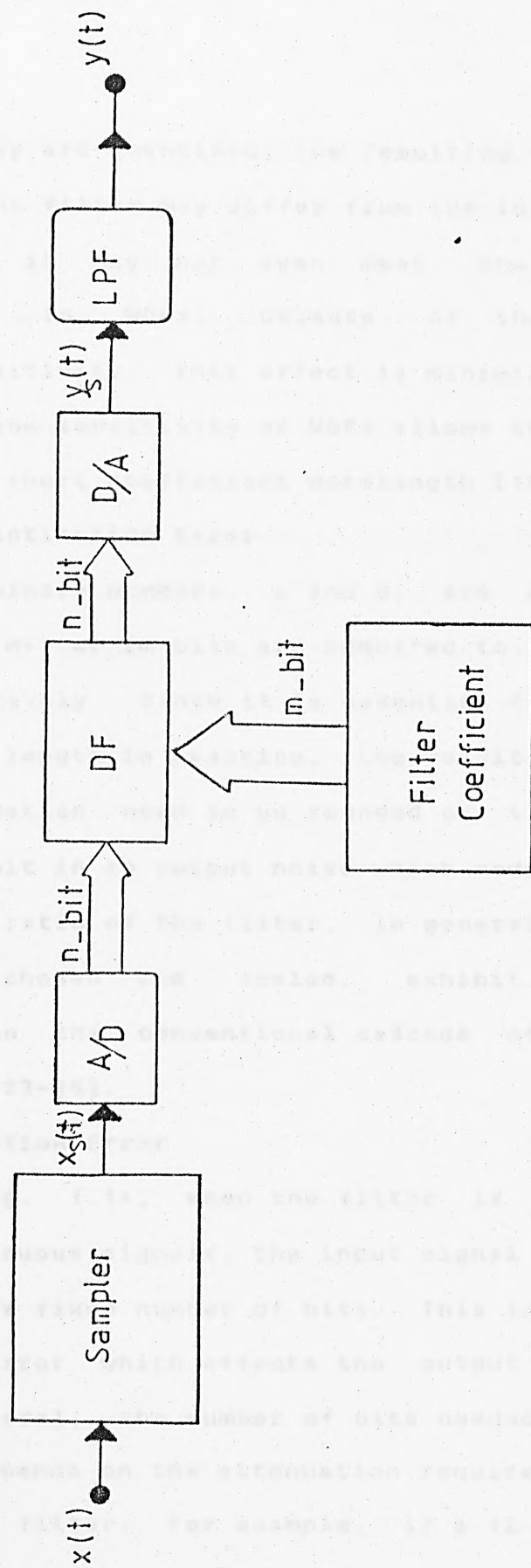


Fig.1.14 – Practical use of a Digital filter.

However, if they are quantized, the resulting frequency response of the filter may differ from the ideal case and sometimes it may not even meet the design specifications. In WDFs, because of their low attenuation sensitivity, this effect is minimized [16-17]. Also the low sensitivity of WDFs allows the design of filters with short coefficient wordlength [18-22].

#### - Arithmetic Quantization Error

If two  $m$ -bit binary numbers,  $a$  and  $b$ , are added or multiplied then  $m+1$  or  $2m$  bits are required to store the results respectively. Since it is essential to use a fixed register length in practice, the results of any arithmetic operation need to be rounded or truncated. This will result in an output noise which reduces the signal-to-noise ratio of the filter. In general, WDFs, if carefully chosen and scaled, exhibit better performance than the conventional cascade of second order sections [23-25].

#### - Input Quantization Error

As shown in Fig. 1.14, when the filter is used to operate on continuous signals, the input signal needs to be quantized to a fixed number of bits. This introduces a non-linear error which effects the output of the filter. In general, the number of bits needed for the A/D convertor depends on the attenuation required in the stopband of the filter. For example, if a 12-bit A/D

convertor is used the maximum attenuation, or the dynamic range, which can be obtained is equal to  $20\log 2^{12}$ , i.e 72 DB. Therefore for a given specification we can choose a suitable A/D convertor.

#### 1.2.7- Summary

In the previous sections, we looked at the theory of digital filters and sampled data processing. We stated the problems associated with finite wordlength effects which are non-existence for analogue filters. We also introduced very briefly the concept of WDFs and highlighted some of their main advantages. In the following sections, the design and implementation of WDFs are considered in more detail.

### 1.3.0- Wave Digital Filters

#### 1.3.1- Introduction

Since the early development of digital filters, there have been many different approaches to the design and implementation of digital filters. During the initial developments the transfer function was implemented directly, but this approach resulted in structures which were highly sensitive. The next method was to split the transfer function into lower order term and connect them in cascade or parallel forms. The resulting structures were much less sensitive but still they suffered from finite wordlength effects when implemented in hardware. An excellent contribution towards the design of a suitable structure for the implementation of digital filters was due to Fettweis in 1971 [2]. He referred to these type of digital filters as Wave Digital Filters (WDFs).

WDFs represent a class of digital filters which are based on classical analogue filter networks. Thus, several of the good properties of the reference filter are preserved after the transformation. One of the main advantages of WDFs is the direct consequence of the excellent low sensitivity of doubly terminated lossless reference filters. This reduces the coefficient accuracy required for the multipliers in the WDFs. The other finite wordlength effects, such as limit cycle,

parasitic oscillation, stability, etc, can also be minimized or eliminated if the WDF is designed properly [26].

WDFs are derived from conventional analogue filters using the bilinear transform. The analogue filter is described using the voltage/current relationship and two variables  $A_k$  and  $B_k$  as follows,

$$\begin{aligned} A_k &= V_k + R_k.I_k \\ B_k &= V_k - R_k.I_k \end{aligned} \quad (1.21)$$

where  $A_k$  and  $B_k$  are called the incident and reflected waves, due to their relationship to scattering matrix theory, and this is the main reason to refer to the resulting filters as Wave Digital Filters. There are two main approaches to the design of WDFs. In the first approach, the elements of the reference filter are treated as one-port network and are connected to other elements using adaptors [2]. In the second approach, due to Lawson [27], the elements in the reference filter are treated as a two-port network, therefore they can be connected to the other elements directly and without the use of adaptors.

In this section, we briefly consider the design procedures for both techniques. The reader is recommended to consult Ref [2 & 27] for further details. Recently an excellent review of WDFs has been published by Fettweis which covers in detail all the



aspects in the first approach [28].

### 1.3.2- Theory and Design of WDFs (I)

#### - Elements and Sources Realisation

The first step in deriving a WDF from a reference filter is to find the translation of the elements in the reference filter into the digital-domain. This is achieved by applying the bilinear transformation to the wave relationships of all the elements which may exist in the reference filter. Here we only consider the realisation of a capacitor, an inductor, a resistor and a resistive voltage source.

#### - Inductor

The steady-state voltage/current relationship for an inductor is,

$$V = RI s \quad (1.22)$$

Using eqn. 1.21 and 1.14, we obtain,

$$B = -Az^{-1} \quad (1.23)$$

#### - Capacitor

The steady-state relationship of a capacitor is,

$$V = RI/s \quad (1.24)$$

and in using eqn. 1.21 and 1.14, we obtain,

$$B = Az^{-1} \quad (1.25)$$

#### - Resistor

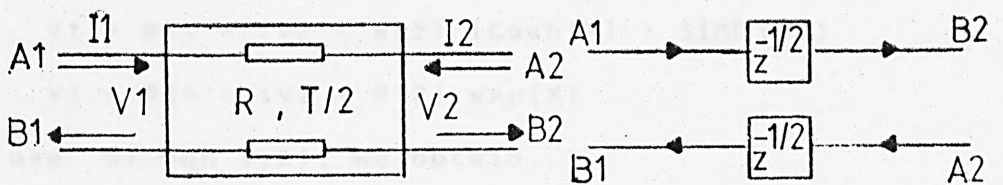
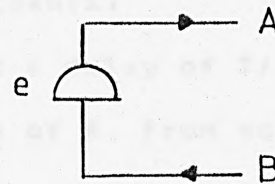
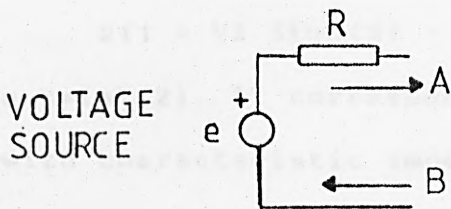
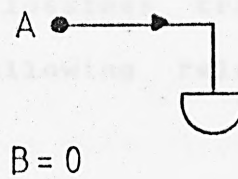
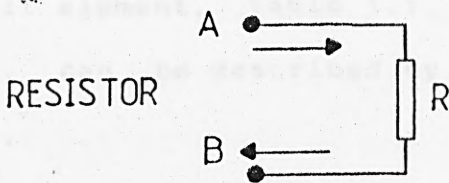
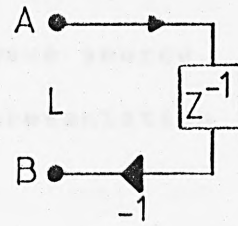
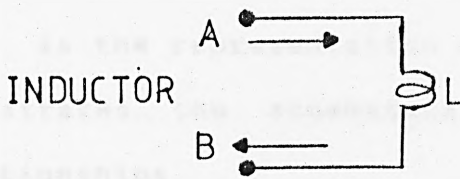
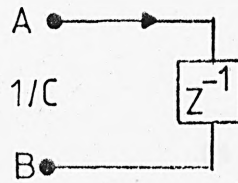
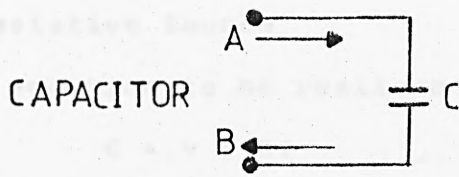
The equation to realise is,

$$V = RI \quad (1.26)$$

and application of eqn. 1.21 gives,



TABLE 1.1



UNIT - ELEMENT

$$B = 0$$

This represents a wave sink.

#### - Resistive Source

The equation to be realised is,

$$E = V + RI \quad (1.27)$$

Substituting in eqn 1.21 gives,

$$A = E$$

This is the representation of a wave source. Table 1.1 illustrates the schematical representation of these relationships.

#### - Unit Elements

A unit element, table 1.1, or a lossless transmission line, can be described by the following relationships [29],

$$\begin{aligned} V_1 &= V_2 \cosh(X) - RI_2 \sinh(X) \\ RI_1 &= V_2 \sinh(X) - RI_2 \cosh(X) \end{aligned} \quad (1.28)$$

where  $X=(sT/2)$ . It corresponds to a delay of  $T/2$  seconds and with characteristic impedance of  $R$ . From eqn. 1.28a, we have,

$$V_1 + RI_1 = (V_2 - RI_2) (\cosh(X) + \sinh(X))$$

$$\text{or} \quad V_1 + RI_1 = (V_2 - RI_2) \exp(X)$$

By the use of eqn 1.21, we obtain,

$$A_1 = B_2 \exp(X)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{or} \quad B_2 &= \exp(-X) A_1 \\ &= \exp(-sT/2) A_1 \end{aligned}$$

and therefore,

$$B2 = z^{-1/2} A1 \quad (1.29a)$$

Simillary,

$$\begin{aligned} B1 &= \exp(-X) A2 \\ &= \exp(-sT/2) A2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and} \quad B1 = z^{-(1/2)} A2 \quad (1.29b)$$

The schematic representation of 1.29 is also given in table 1.1.

#### - Interconnection and Adaptors

Now that the necessary elements from the reference filter have been translated into the digital-domain, we need to consider the realisation of the interconnections, so called adaptors. There are three main types of adaptors which must be considered, the 2-port, the 3-port serial and the 3-port parallel adaptors.

#### - 2-port Adaptor

This is the simplest form of adaptor and is used to connect two ports with different port resistances. Fig. 1.15a illustrates the interconnection of two ports with port resistances  $R1$  and  $R2$ . From Fig. 1.15a, we have,

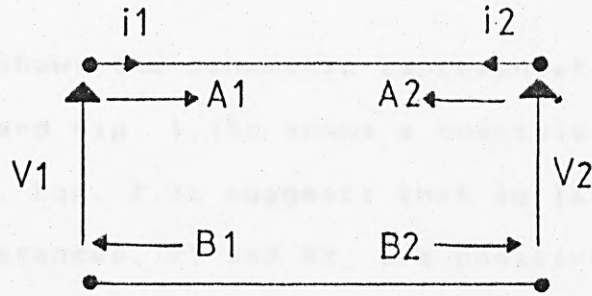
$$V1 = V2 \text{ \& } I1 = - I2 \quad (1.30)$$

Substituting 1.30 into eqn. 1.21, we obtain,

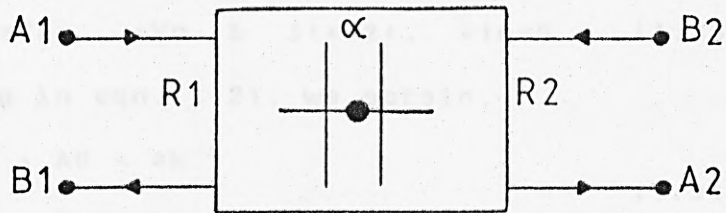
$$\begin{aligned} B1 &= A2 + \alpha(A2 - A1) \\ B2 &= A1 + \alpha(A2 - A1) \end{aligned} \quad (1.31)$$

$$\text{where} \quad \alpha = (R1 - R2)/(R1 + R2) \quad (1.32)$$

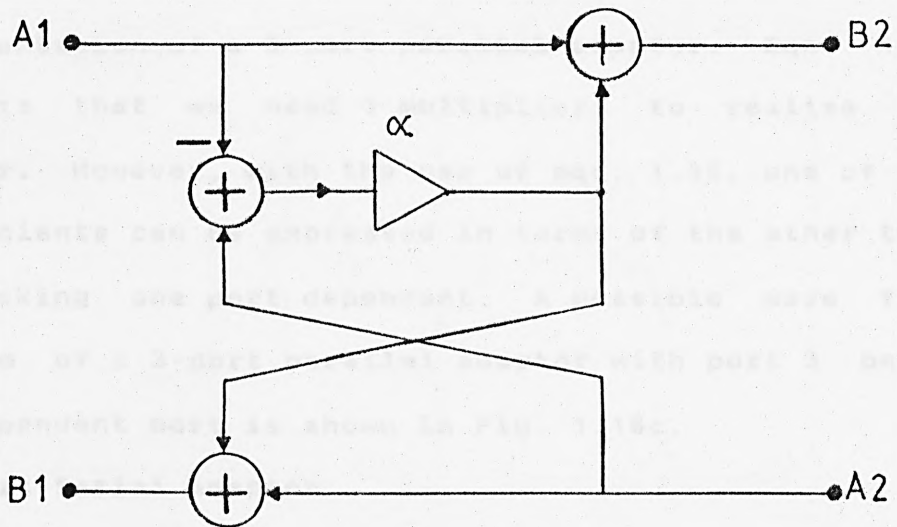
Fig.1.15



a). 2-Port interconnection .



b). Schematic representation of a 2-Port adaptor.



c). One possible realisation of a 2-Port adaptor.

Fig. 1.15b shows the schematic representation of a 2-port adaptor and Fig. 1.15c shows a possible realisation of eqn. 1.31. Eqn. 1.32 suggests that  $|\alpha| \leq 1$  as long as the port resistances,  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ , are positive.

### - 3-port Parallel adaptor

Consider the connection of  $n$  ports with port resistances  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n$ . If the ports are connected in parallel (Fig. 1.16a) then we have,

$$V_1 = V_2 = \dots = V_n \quad \& \quad I_1 + I_2 + \dots + I_n = 0 \quad (1.33)$$

Substituting in eqn. 1.21, we obtain,

$$B_k = A_0 - A_k \quad (1.34)$$

$$A_0 = \sum \alpha_k A_k \quad k=1, 2, \dots, n$$

where  $\alpha_k = 2G_k / (G_1 + G_2 + \dots + G_n)$ ,  $G_k = 1/R_k$  (1.35)

and  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_n = 2$  (1.36)

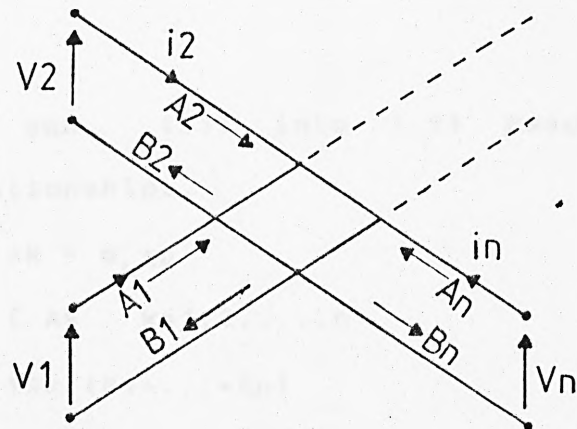
Now if we assume  $n=3$  then Fig. 1.16b shows the schematic representation of a 3-port parallel adaptor. Eqn. 1.34 suggests that we need 3 multipliers to realise the adaptor. However, with the use of eqn. 1.36, one of the coefficients can be expressed in terms of the other two, i.e. making one port dependent. A possible wave flow diagram of a 3-port parallel adaptor with port 3 being the dependent port is shown in Fig. 1.16c.

### - 3-port Serial Adaptor

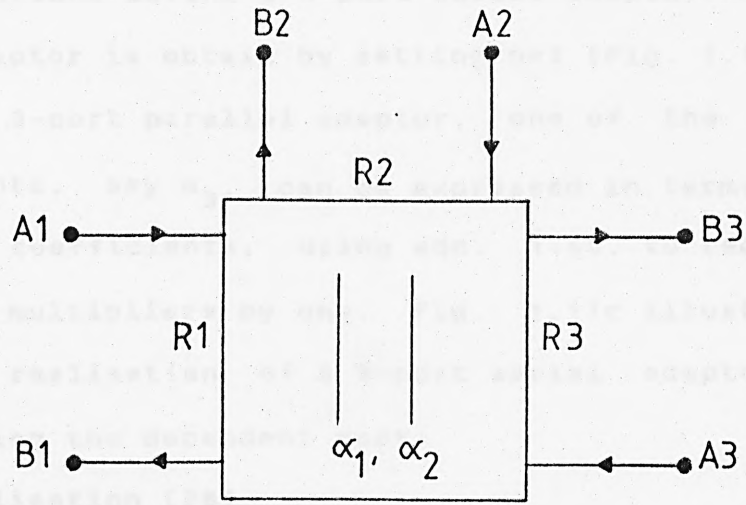
If the  $n$  ports in previous section are connected in series (Fig. 1.17a) then we have,

$$V_1 + V_2 + \dots + V_n = 0 \quad \& \quad I_1 = I_2 = \dots = I_n \quad (1.37)$$

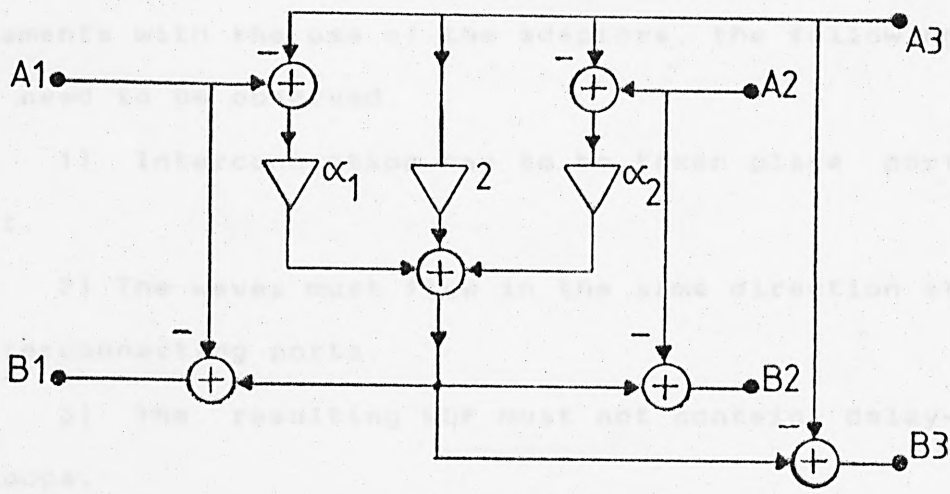
Fig.1.16



a). N-Port parallel interconnection.



b). Schematic representation of a 3-Port parallel adaptor.



c). One possible realisation of a 3-Port parallel adaptor. (port 3 is the dependent port).



Substituting eqn. 1.37 into 1.21 results in the following relationships,

$$B_k = A_k - \alpha_k A_0 \quad (1.38)$$

$$A_0 = \sum_{k=1,2,\dots,n} A_k$$

where  $\alpha_k = 2R_k / (R_1 + \dots + R_n)$  (1.39)

and  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_n = 2$  (1.40)

These equations define a n-port serial adaptor. A 3-port serial adaptor is obtain by setting  $n=3$  (Fig. 1.17b). As with the 3-port parallel adaptor, one of the adaptor coefficients, say  $\alpha_3$ , can be expressed in terms of the other two coefficients, using eqn. 1.40, to reduce the number of multipliers by one. Fig. 1.17c illustrates a possible realisation of a 3-port serial adaptor with port 3 being the dependent port.

#### - WDF Realisation [28]

In the previous sections, we developed various building blocks necessary to realise a WDF. When interconnecting the elements with the use of the adaptors, the following points need to be observed,

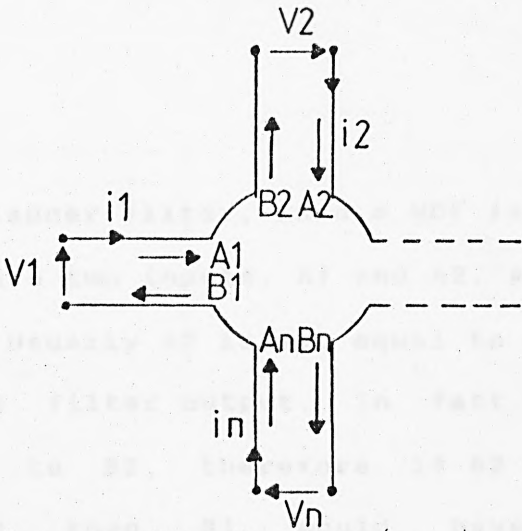
1) Interconnection has to be taken place port by port.

2) The waves must flow in the same direction at the interconnecting ports.

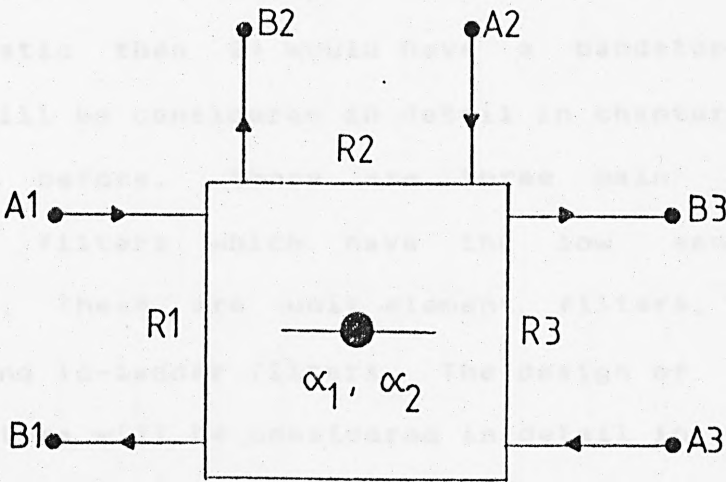
3) The resulting WDF must not contain delay-free loops.

An example of the transformation of a typical reference

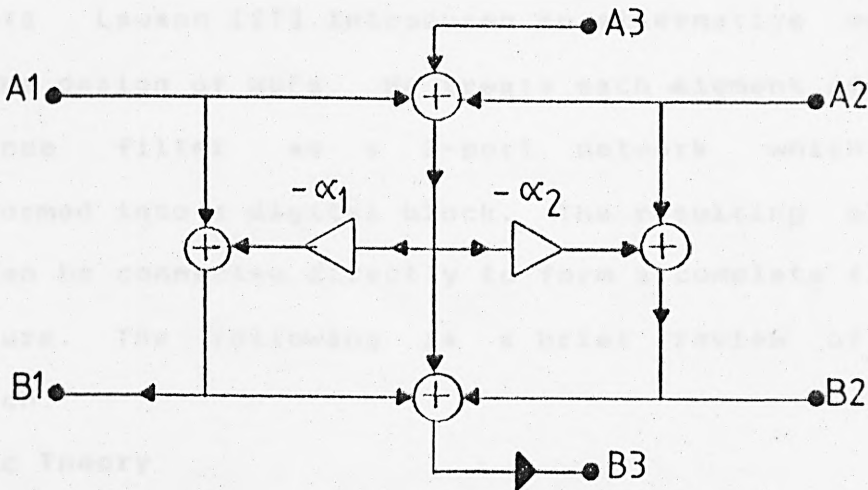
Fig.1.17



a). N-Port connection in series.



b). Schematic representation of a 3-Port serial adaptor.



c). One possible realisation of a 3-Port serial adaptor.  
( port 3 is the dependent port ).

filter, a lc-ladder filter, into a WDF is shown in Fig. 1.18. There are two inputs, A1 and A2, and two outputs, B1 and B2. Usually A2 is set equal to zero and B2 is taken as the filter output. In fact, output B1 is complementary to B2, therefore if B2 has a lowpass characteristic then B1 would have a highpass characteristic. Similarly, if B2 has a bandpass characteristic then B1 would have a bandstop. These effects will be considered in detail in chapter 5. As mentioned before, there are three main analogue reference filters which have the low sensitivity properties. These are unit element filters, lattice filters and lc-ladder filters. The design of each of these filters will be considered in detail in chapters three and four.

### 1.3.3- Theory and Design of WDFs (II)

In 1975 Lawson [27] introduced an alternative method for the design of WDFs. He treats each element of the reference filter as a 2-port network which is transformed into a digital block. The resulting blocks can then be connected directly to form a complete filter structure. The following is a brief review of his approach.

#### - Basic Theory

Given a passive 2-port network (Fig. 1.19), we can describe the network using the ABCD matrix as follows,

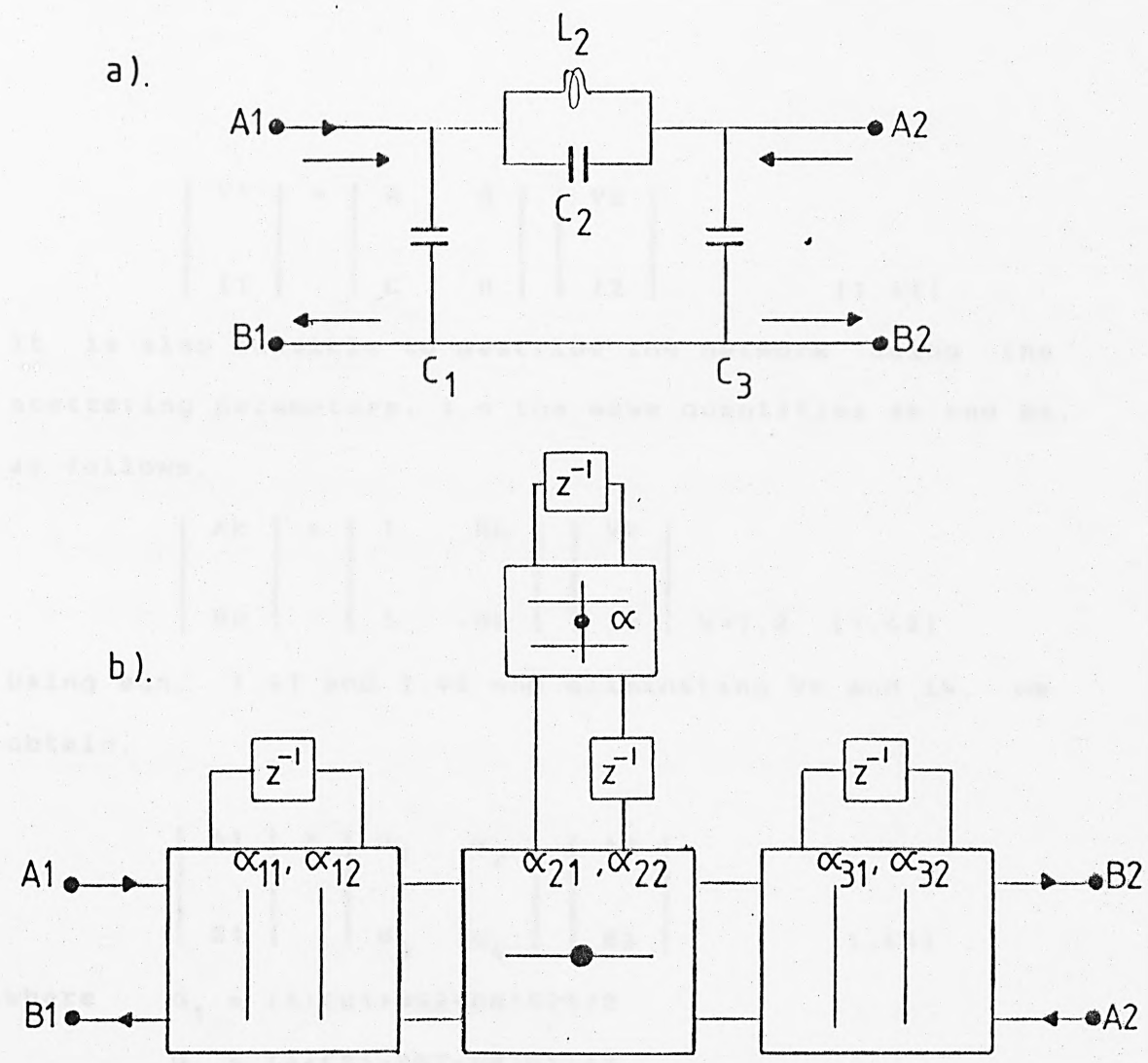


Fig.1.18 \_ a) A typical LC-ladder filter.  
b) Corresponding WDF derived from a).

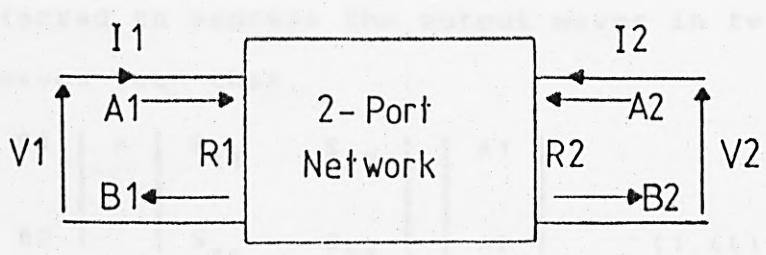


Fig.1.19 \_ General representation of a 2-Port Network.

$$\begin{vmatrix} V1 \\ I1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} V2 \\ I2 \end{vmatrix} \quad (1.41)$$

It is also possible to describe the network using the scattering parameters, i.e the wave quantities  $A_k$  and  $B_k$ , as follows,

$$\begin{vmatrix} A_k \\ B_k \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & R_k \\ 1 & -R_k \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} V_k \\ I_k \end{vmatrix} \quad k=1,2 \quad (1.42)$$

Using eqn. 1.41 and 1.42 and eliminating  $V_k$  and  $I_k$ , we obtain,

$$\begin{vmatrix} A1 \\ B1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 & \alpha_4 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} A2 \\ B2 \end{vmatrix} \quad (1.43)$$

where  $\alpha_1 = (A+CR1+BG2+DR1G2)/2$

$\alpha_2 = (A+CR1-BG2-DR1G2)/2$

$\alpha_3 = (A-CR1+BG2-DR1G2)/2$

$\alpha_4 = (A-CR1-BG2+DR1G2)/2$

and  $G2 = 1/R2$

It is preferred to express the output waves in terms of the input waves such that,

$$\begin{vmatrix} B1 \\ B2 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} A1 \\ A2 \end{vmatrix} \quad (1.44)$$

By transforming eqn. 1.43 in the same form as eqn. 1.44, we obtain,

$$S_{11} = \alpha_1/\alpha_2$$

$$S_{12} = -\Delta/\alpha_2$$

$$S_{21} = 1/\alpha_2$$

and  $S_{22} = -\alpha_1/\alpha_2$

where  $\Delta = -R_1G_2$

By applying bilinear transformation to eqn. 1.44, a corresponding digital block can be formed.

#### - Realisation of a series Impedance

The ABCD matrix of a series impedance Z is,

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & -Z \\ 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix} \quad (1.45)$$

Substituting eqn. 1.45 into 1.44, we obtain,

$$S_{11} = (R_2 - R_1 + Z)/\alpha_2$$

$$S_{12} = 2R_1/\alpha_2$$

$$S_{21} = 2R_2/\alpha_2$$

and  $S_{22} = (R_1 - R_2 + Z)/\alpha_2 \quad (1.46)$

where  $\alpha_2 = R_2 + R_1 + Z$

It is important to note that,

$$S_{11} + S_{12} = 1$$

and  $S_{21} + S_{22} = 1 \quad (1.47)$

Now substituting 1.47 into 1.44, we obtain,

$$B_1 = S_{11}(A_1 - A_2) + A_2$$

and  $B_2 = S_{22}(A_2 - A_1) + A_1 \quad (1.48)$

This means that we only need to realise  $S_{11}$  and  $S_{22}$  to define the series impedance Z.

#### - Series Capacitor

For a capacitor in the series-arm, we have  $Z=1/Cs$  and by applying the bilinear transformation, we obtain,



$$Z = \frac{1 + z^{-1}}{C(1 - z^{-1})}$$

Substituting the value of Z into eqn. 1.46, we obtain,

$$S_{11} = (\alpha_1 + \alpha_3 z^{-1}) / (1 + \alpha_2 z^{-1})$$

$$\text{and } S_{22} = (\alpha_3 - \alpha_1 z^{-1}) / (1 + \alpha_2 z^{-1})$$

$$\text{where } \alpha_1 = (R_2 - R_1 + 1/C) / \beta$$

$$\alpha_2 = (1/C - R_2 - R_1) / \beta$$

$$\alpha_3 = (1/C - R_2 + R_1) / \beta$$

$$\text{and } \beta = R_2 + R_1 + 1/C, \alpha_1 + \alpha_3 = 1 + \alpha_2$$

To obtain a realisable digital filter, i.e a filter with no delay-free loops, one possibility is to set  $\alpha_1=0$ .

Thus we have,

$$S_{11} = \alpha_3 z^{-1} / (1 - \alpha_2 z^{-1})$$

$$S_{22} = \alpha_3 / (1 + \alpha_2 z^{-1})$$

$$\text{also } \alpha_2 = \alpha_3 - 1 = -R_2/R_1$$

By substituting these into (1.48), we obtain the digital structure for a capacitor in the series-arm (Fig. 1.20). This technique must be applied to every possible series and shunt elements which can be found in the reference filter. Fig. 1.21 shows a typical reference filter and its corresponding WDF structure.

This approach to the design of WDFs was later generalized by Lawson [3]. In Ref [3], he studies a general 2-port transformation on the classical doubly-terminated lossless ladder network. He derives a number of conditions which must be satisfied in order to result

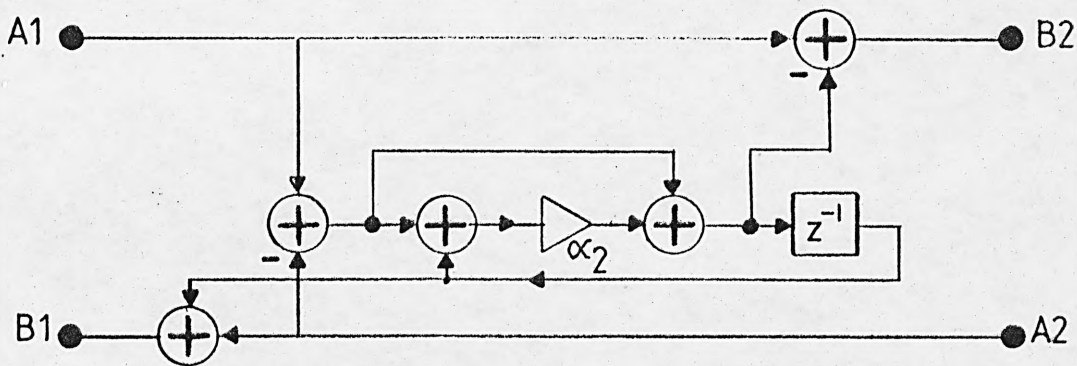
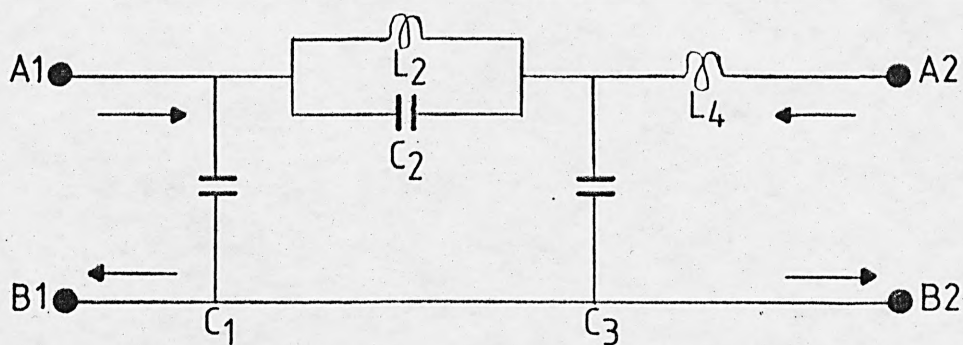
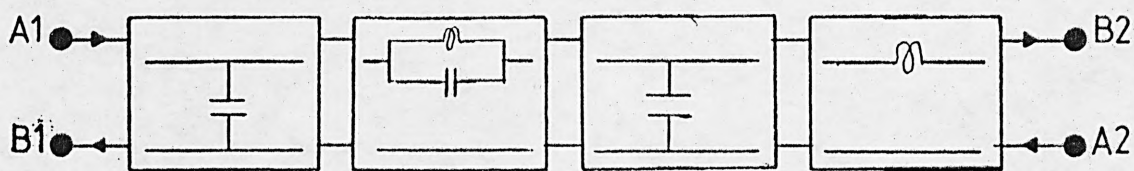


Fig. 1.20 \_ Digital equivalent of a series capacitor.



(a)



(b)

Fig. 1.21\_ a) A typical analogue filter.

b) Corresponding WDF derived from (a).

a WDF which is realisable, i.e it contains no delay-free loops.

#### 1.3.4- Comments on WDF design approaches

In the previous section we briefly looked at the two possible approaches in which a doubly-terminated analogue filter is transformed into a WDF. In this thesis, we consider the approach introduced by Fettweis for the following reason. In the Fettweis approach, there are mainly three elements which have to be implemented digitally. These are the 2-port, 3-port serial and 3-port parallel adaptors. The other elements have a very simple digital structure such as a simple delay or etc.

In the second approach, we need to consider all the possible elements, such as series and parallel capacitor, inductor, tuned circuits, etc. Therefore there are quite a number of different digital structures which must be implemented (Fig. 1.21). In the practical implementation of WDF, it is very important to have regular and modular structures. This will be better appreciated when the VLSI implementation of WDFs is considered.

#### 1.3.5- Review of Hardware Implementation of Wave Digital Filters

Since WDFs were introduced by Fettweis, considerable attention has been given to the design of filters from low sensitive analogue filters. The low sensitivity

properties of WDFs to variations in the value of the coefficients allows the use of smaller wordlength for multipliers and also reduces the quantization error due to round-off or truncation of the coefficients. The main drawback however is the hardware complexity of WDF building blocks. In spite of this, there has been a great deal of work and research on the hardware implementation of WDFs [30,79]. The first known implementation of a WDF was given in 1974 [31]. The filter was a third order and the hardware was the size of a mini-computer. The other approaches in the hardware implementation of WDFs include, a 14th order lc-ladder bandpass WDF [32], microprocessor based implementation of a 7th order lc all-pole ladder filter [33], use of distributed arithmetic [5] in implementation of WDFs [34-36], general purpose DSP based WDFs [37-42], single board WDFs based on cascaded unit element filters [38-40], etc. These approaches are all based on the use of MSI/LSI discrete components.

An approach to resolve the problem of hardware complexity of WDFs would be to consider the VLSI implementation of WDFs. In general, the hardware implementation of WDFs depends on how efficiently 2 and 3-port adaptors can be implemented. The work carried out at Edinburgh by Dr. Mavor's group concerns the design of a universal WDF adaptor which allows the realisation of

either a parallel or serial 3-port adaptor. They only concentrate on one type of WDFs that is based on lc-ladder networks with inserted unit element [41-43]. Using FIRST [44], a silicon compiler, they have produced a single chip universal adaptor which may be cascaded to required filter order. A typical sampling rate for a fifth order filter would be around 50 KHZ.

Research is also being carried out at the university of Louvain, Belgium on the development of a complete CAD design tools for the VLSI design and implementation of digital filters [45-47]. A third order WDF based on lattice reference filters has been integrated on a single chip which has a sampling rate of up to 100 KHZ with a internal wordlength of 16-bits.

In all the VLSI approaches, the existing WDF structures are translated onto silicon. This however does not exploit the maximum potential of VLSI technology. To achieve this, the existing structures must be first transformed into new structures with certain properties which makes them suitable for VLSI implementation. These features are dealt with in the next section where we introduce the concept of VLSI array processing.



#### 1.4.0- VLSI Array Processing

##### 1.4.1- Introduction

As the scale of single chip integration increases, it is becoming increasingly apparent that potential problems of designing chips containing hundreds of thousands of transistors can only be overcome if some form of structured approach to integrated circuit design is adopted. The translation of the existing structures and printed circuit boards into VLSI circuit is inappropriate. This is mainly due to the fact that in VLSI technology the old concept that wires are cheap and components are expensive is not valid. Wires are now expensive not only in terms of the chip area occupied, but also in terms of the time delay. In general, in VLSI technology computation can be considered very cheap while communication is expensive and new algorithms and architectures should be designed accordingly.

To exploit the full potential of VLSI technology, it is important that the new VLSI algorithms result in architectures which take into account (a) the layout constraint in terms of interconnection and communication and (b) the overall cost in terms of silicon area, time delay and pin count. Therefore a suitable architecture for VLSI implementation must have the following properties,

### 1) Regularity

In VLSI, it is important to reformulate the existing algorithm so that the computations can be split up into many simple and identical tasks or sometimes referred to as cell or processing elements (PEs).

### 2) Local Communication

As mentioned before, it is preferable to avoid any long distance communications or any global communications and minimize the communication to nearest neighbouring cells.

### 3) Modularity

Modularity is the same as regularity but on a larger scale. This means that a complex structure may be constructed from a number of smaller regular structures.

### 4) Pipelining

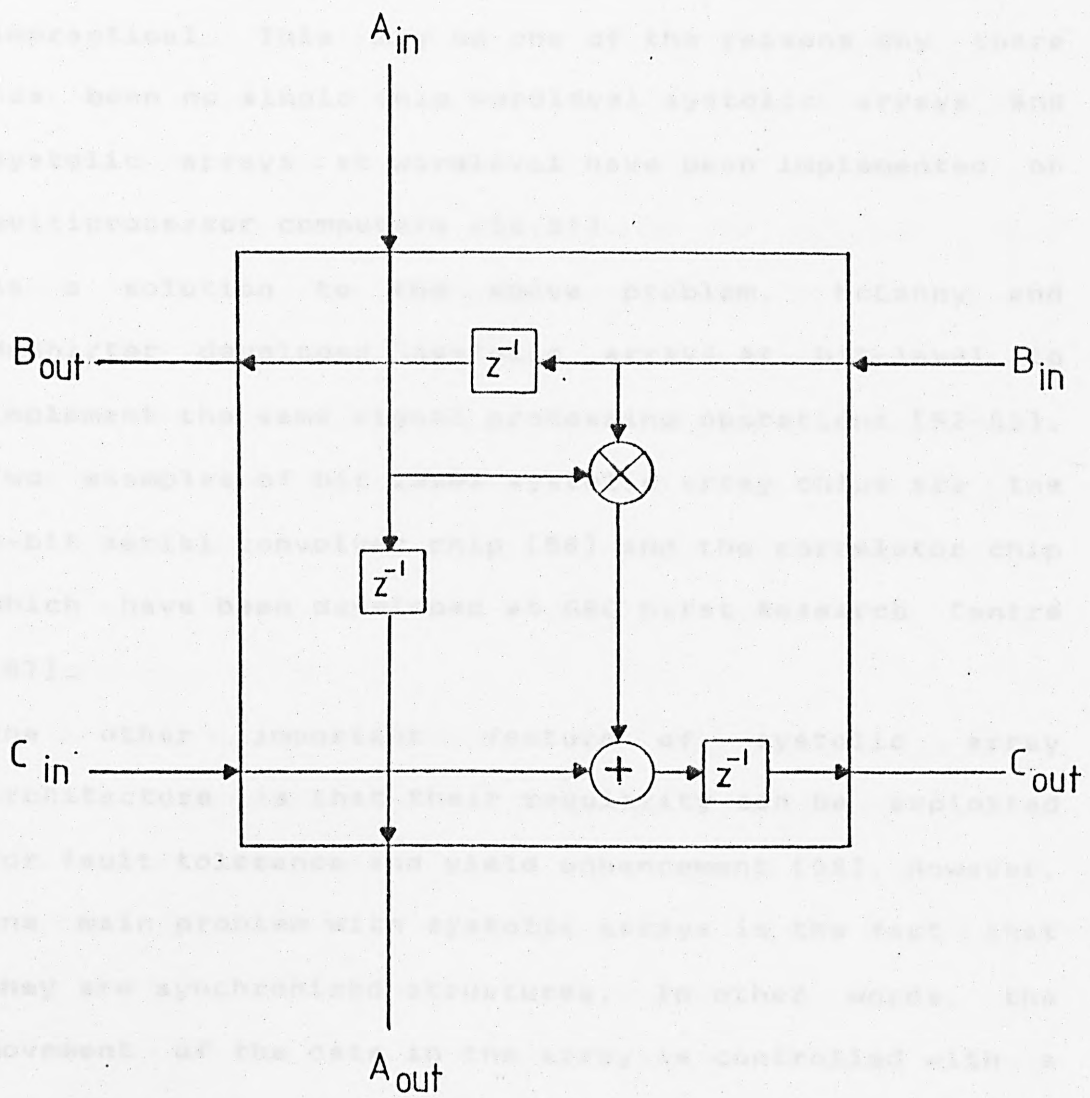
Pipelining simply means being able to process new data before the old ones have been processed completely. In other words, it means that the structure is designed in such a way that the processor elements are processing data at a maximum rate and there is no PE not active at a given time. In real time signal processing this becomes very important and pipelining at all levels should be pursued, i.e at structural and cell levels.

In this section, we describe a number of array architectures which have the potential of being used for VLSI implementation.

#### 1.4.2- Systolic Arrays [48]

One solution for the requirements needed by VLSI technology is the concept of systolic arrays. Systolic arrays are a new class of pipelined array architectures that consist of a set of interconnected cells, which are all identical and capable of performing some simple operations. According to Kung and Leiserson [49], "A systolic system is a network of processors which rhythmically compute and pass data through the system. Physiologists use the word 'Systole' to refer to the rhythmically recurrent contraction of heart and arteries which pulses blood through the body. In a systolic computing system, the function of a processor is analogous to that of the heart. Every processor regularly pumps data in and out, each time performing some short computation, so that a regular flow of data is kept up in the network."

Kung and Leiserson have demonstrated how a number of simple PEs (Fig. 1.22), referred to as 'inner product' cells, can be locally connected to perform the pipeline computation of several important matrix and signal processing operations, such as matrix-matrix multiplication, matrix-vector multiplication, FIR filtering, convolution, etc. The systolic arrays by Kung and Leiserson use wordlevel operations in the cells. This however has the problem of I/O bandwidth when a



$$A_{out}(n) = A_{in}(n-1)$$

$$B_{out}(n) = B_{in}(n-1)$$

$$C_{out}(n) = C_{in}(n-1) + A_{in}(n-1)B_{in}(n-1)$$

Fig.1.22\_Inner-Product cell.

number of wordlevel cells are implemented on a single chip and word parallel communication becomes impractical. This may be one of the reasons why there has been no single chip wordlevel systolic arrays and systolic arrays at wordlevel have been implemented on multiprocessor computers [50,51].

As a solution to the above problem, McCanny and McWhirter developed systolic arrays at bit-level to implement the same signal processing operations [52-55]. Two examples of bit level systolic array chips are the 8-bit serial convolver chip [56] and the correlator chip which have been developed at GEC Hirst Research Centre [57].

One other important feature of systolic array architecture is that their regularity can be exploited for fault tolerance and yield enhancement [58]. However, one main problem with systolic arrays is the fact that they are synchronized structures. In other words, the movement of the data in the array is controlled with a global timing reference or clock. This may become intolerable for very-large-scale arrays.

#### 1.4.3- Wavefront Arrays [59]

A solution to the above problem is to localize the data-flow control within the basic cells in the array. In other words, convert the synchronized systolic array into an asynchronized data driven multiprocessor array,



referred to as wavefront arrays. The execution of instructions in the cells of a wavefront array is controlled by the neighbouring cells, i.e a cell will be activated when all the inputs for the cell are available and the outputs of the cell are passed to the next cells when the cells are ready to receive the outputs. This would increase the hardware complexity of the basic cells but would eliminate the need for a global clock. As with the systolic arrays, wavefront arrays are highly regular and communication within the array is localized. The array can also be pipelined since the data from one cell will never intersect with the data from other neighbouring cells.

S. Y. Kung and his colleagues have developed a special-purpose wavefront-oriented language [60] called Matrix Data Flow Language (MDFL). The language is used to describe wavefront or any other data flow algorithms which exhibit the recursion and locality properties. One other useful tool for the simulation of parallel array processors is the language OCCAM [61].

#### 1.4.4- Programmable Array Processors

Systolic and wavefront arrays are special purpose arrays which are designed to map an algorithm into a VLSI architecture. When the PEs are designed then the array would be used for the design of chips dedicated to a fixed parallel processing function. In recent years,

work has been done towards the design of programmable array processors. These are two dimensional arrays of identical PEs with nearest neighbouring connection which can be programmed to do different instructions at any clock cycle. At a given clock cycle the array is exactly the same as a systolic array but in the next cycle the PEs' operation can be changed. These arrays are sometimes referred to as SIMD (Single Instruction, Multiple Data). The earliest machine based on SIMD is the ILLIAC IV [57] and more recent ones include CLIP, developed at the University College of London, DAP, developed at ICL, GRID, developed at the Hirst Research Centre, and last but not least is GAPP which has been developed by NCR-Microelectronics and Martin Marietta Aerospace. GAPP is the most advanced SIMD machine and is organised as a 6x12 array of 1-bit PEs each element comprises a bit-serial ALU, 128 bits of RAM, four 1-bit latches and five multiplexers. The main application of these arrays are in the field of image processing and pattern recognition. Apart from programmable array processors there are other approaches for the VLSI implementation of digital signal processing algorithms. One good example is the silicon compiler developed at the University of Edinburgh and referred to as FIRST. FIRST allows the translation of signal processing algorithms onto silicon and implementing them on single chips [44].

#### 1.4.5- Comparison of Systolic and Wavefront Arrays

In general systolic arrays and wavefront arrays are modular, regular, locally interconnected and highly pipelined processor arrays. The main difference however is that systolic arrays are synchronized while wavefront arrays are asynchronized structures. The global control of the data movement in the systolic array would mean that the cells are much simpler than the wavefront arrays, since no additional handshaking hardware is required for the cells, but on the other hand, it will be a potential barrier in the design of very-large-scale array processors. Wavefront arrays can be extended to any desirable size as long as the technology would permit since the data movement in the array is controlled locally by the PEs.

#### 1.5.0- Objectives in this Thesis

In the previous sections, we highlighted the good properties of WDFs and pointed out that the main drawback of WDFs is due to their hardware complexity. In this thesis, we resolve this problem (a) by considering the design of finite wordlength WDFs and (b) the VLSI implementation of WDF adaptors. Finite wordlength design of WDFs enables us to eliminate the errors due to quantization of the filter coefficients. Also due to the excellent low sensitivity properties of WDFs, we can design filters with short coefficients wordlength. This reduces the hardware complexity of the filter and in some cases the multiplications can be replaced by arithmetic shifting since the coefficients can be expressed in powers of  $2^{-m}$ . The VLSI implementation of WDFs are achieved by designing systolic structures to implement the WDF adaptors.

Chapter 2 is divided into two parts. In the first part, the design of WDFs using optimization techniques is described. The finite wordlength design of WDFs may be achieved by using a direct search method for the discrete optimization. In this respect, the direct search method of Hooke and Jeeves [62] is described briefly and a subroutine has been developed to implement the algorithm. In the second part of the chapter, some basic systolic arrays are developed to implement some

general equations. These basic systolic arrays are used in later chapters to implement the WDF adaptors.

The 2-port adaptor can be used to design and implement WDFs based on unit element and lattice filters. In chapter 3, the finite wordlength and VLSI implementation of these two types of WDF are considered. Also in chapter 3, a single board model of the 2-port systolic adaptor is presented which has been constructed for experimental testing.

In chapter 4, the finite wordlength and systolic implementation of lc-ladder WDFs are considered. The systolic implementation of these filters is achieved by developing systolic arrays for the 3-port adaptors.

Design of frequency selective filters, i.e transformation of lowpass filters to other type of filters, is the subject of chapter 5. Finally in chapter 6, other avenues of the research are outlined for further studies in this field.



## CHAPTER TWO

### OPTIMIZATION AND SYSTOLIC TECHNIQUES

#### 2.1.0- Introduction

In chapter one, we briefly reviewed the theory of digital filters and introduced the concept of Wave Digital Filters. It was shown that WDFs have many good properties but there is a major problem due to their hardware complexity. We propose to resolve this problem by considering (a) the finite wordlength design of WDFs and (b) the VLSI implementation of the WDF adaptors.

In this chapter, we present the bases on which these goals are achieved. The chapter is divided into two main parts. In the first part, the design of digital filters, in general, using optimization techniques is considered. Next the direct search method of Hooke and Jeeves [62] is briefly reviewed and a subroutine is developed to implement the search algorithm. This subroutine will be used in later chapters to design different WDFs with finite wordlength coefficients.

In the second part of the chapter, some basic systolic arrays are developed which are then used in chapter 3 and 4 to implement the WDF adaptors. At the end of this chapter, a section has been devoted to the design of a universal systolic array. This array will be then

modified in chapter 4 to implement a universal systolic WDF adaptor. The universal systolic adaptor can be programmed to realise any type of WDF adaptor.

## 2.2.0- Use of Optimization Techniques in the Design of Digital Filters

### 2.2.1- Introduction

Filters play an important role in the design of communication systems and the filter design problem has been treated in several different ways for many years. In one approach, existing synthesis techniques are used to design filters which ensure a satisfactory solution. In other cases, a good design may be obtained by adjusting the parameters of the filter. This may be achieved either by building and testing a prototype or by analysing the filter structure on a computer. The foregoing methods have not been very successful in the past and a satisfactory design could have not been guaranteed and also the analysis of complex filter structures was not possible. Therefore synthesis techniques were more commonly used in spite of the fact that some filter design cases are unsolvable using synthesis techniques, e.g modeling the effects of finite wordlength.

The advent of high-speed digital computers has provided the designer with an efficient tool which can be used to find the solutions of complex problems. In recent years, substantial effort has been devoted to developing programming techniques to solve filter design problems. Optimization is one such technique and is employed to solve these problems by successive approximation and

repetitive adjustment of the filter parameters. Here, the design problem is stated as follows, 'given a filter structure with a number of adjustable parameters, find the values of these parameters such that a prescribed specification is met'. There might however be some restrictions on the values that the filter parameters may have and usually in many cases the optimization algorithm is not allowed to change the filter configuration by adding more elements or changing their interconnections.

In this section, we shall first study the characteristics of an optimization technique in general. Although some of these explanations may appear trivial it is important that they are clearly understood. Next the concept of error and minimization criterions are introduced and some error functions are described. Depending on the nature of the system under consideration and the designer's requirement, we can divide the optimization problem into different groups. One group covers all the optimization techniques which are based on mathematical treatment of the problem. Here, the parameters are not restricted by the optimization program and may take any real or complex values as long as they meet the designer's constraints. The other group of optimization techniques is referred to as simple methods or discrete programming. Here, the

parameters are selected from a set of values defined by the designer and may not take any values outside the set. The second technique is suitable for the design of WDFs with finite wordlength coefficients, since after deciding on the number of bits for the representation of the filter coefficients, then there will be a finite set of values from which the coefficients may be chosen.

#### 2.2.2- Characteristics of an Optimization algorithm

As mentioned before, the aim of an optimization procedure is to adjust the parameters of the system until the performance of the system meets a given specification. Fig. 2.1 shows the features which every optimization procedure must possess.

First it is necessary that the performance of the system under consideration is obtained. In most cases, this is achieved by simulation. As in optimization methods this computation may have to be performed many times, this step should take as little time as possible. The box labelled 'algorithm' (Fig. 2.1) is the heart of an optimization procedure which implements the algorithm suitable for one's application. The next thing to consider is how the performance of the system may be judged. This brings us to the concept of an error criterion which is considered in the next section.



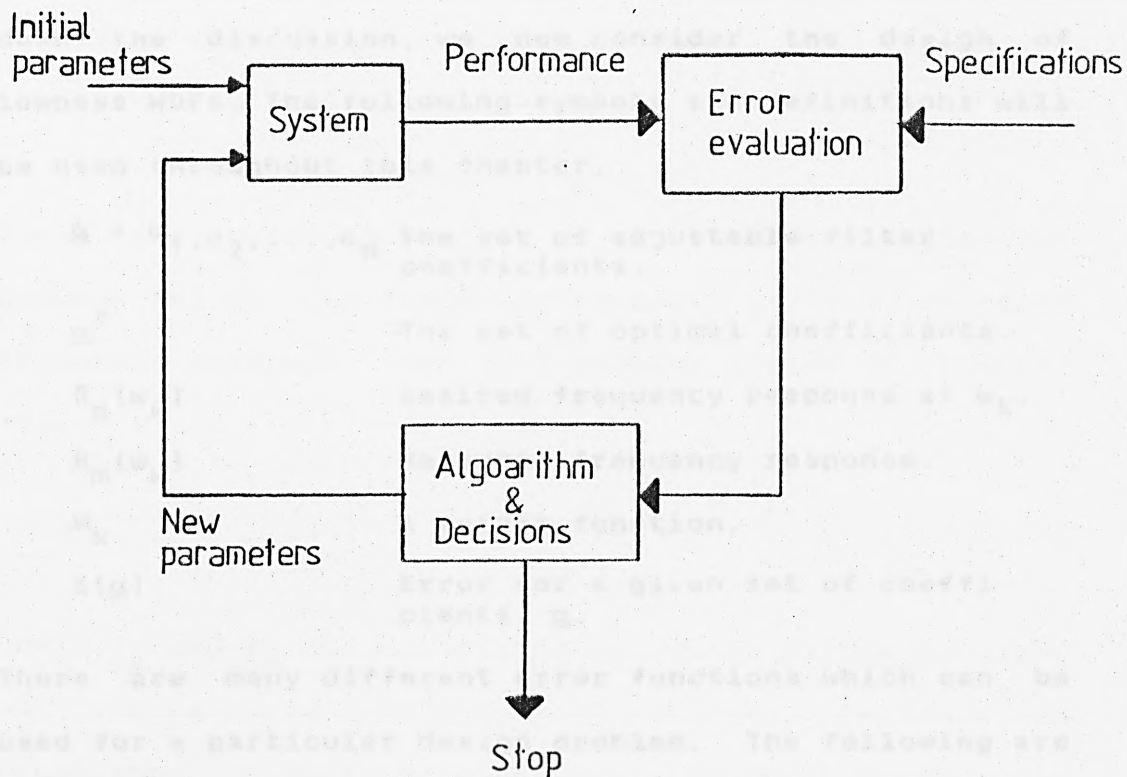


Fig.2.1\_ Features of an optimization procedure .

### 2.2.3- Error Criterion

In an optimization problem, an error criterion must be used with which we can associate a figure of merit. This error criterion will reflect the goodness of the design. This merit must be kept constant until the design specifications are met completely. In order to narrow down the discussion, we now consider the design of lowpass WDFs. The following symbols and definitions will be used throughout this chapter.

$\underline{\alpha} = \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_N$	The set of adjustable filter coefficients.
$\underline{\alpha}^*$	The set of optimal coefficients.
$R_d(\omega_k)$	Desired frequency response at $\omega_k$ .
$R_m(\omega_k)$	Measured frequency response.
$W_k$	A weight function.
$E(\underline{\alpha})$	Error for a given set of coefficients, $\underline{\alpha}$ .

There are many different error functions which can be used for a particular design problem. The following are three error functions which have been considered in this thesis,

$$1) E(\underline{\alpha}) = (W_k/M) \sum |R_d(\omega_k) - R_m(\omega_k)|^2 \quad (2.1)$$

$$2) E(\underline{\alpha}) = (W_k/M) \sum |R_d(\omega_k) - R_m(\omega_k)| \quad (2.2)$$

$$3) E(\underline{\alpha}) = \text{Max}_k [W_k |R_d(\omega_k) - R_m(\omega_k)|] \quad (2.3)$$

$$k = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

where  $m$  is a set of extremal frequencies at which the WDF will be analysed. In order to obtain a possible

solution to the design problem,  $m$  must be larger than  $N$ , where  $N$  is the number of coefficients in the filter.

#### 2.2.4- Statement of the Design Problem

In the previous section, it was shown that, by defining an error function, the optimization problem reduces to a search for a set of coefficients for the filter to minimize the error function. Now, let the error function,  $E(\underline{\alpha})$ , be as follows,

$$E(\underline{\alpha}) = \text{Max}_k [W_k |R_d(\omega_k) - R_m(\omega_k)|]$$

where the error is defined as the maximum difference between the desired frequency response and the measured frequency response. Now if a lowpass filter is required then,

$$R_d(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \omega \in I_p \\ 0 & \omega \in I_s \end{cases}$$

where  $I_p$  and  $I_s$  are the frequency points in the passband and the stopband at which the frequency response is calculated. A subroutine has been developed to evaluate the error function given by eqn. 2.3. The other two error functions have also been tried but it was founded that eqn. 2.3 produces faster results. The parameters of this subroutine are as follows,

- $x$             An array of dimension  $N$  holding the current values of the coefficients.
- $N_p$            Number of points in the passband.
- $N_a$            Number of points in the stopband.

$N$	Number of filter coefficients.
$a_p$	Maximum passband ripple.
$a_s$	Minimum stopband attenuation.
$f_p$	Passband edge frequency.
$f_s$	Stopband edge frequency.
$E_{\max}$	Maximum error in the passband & stopband.
Flag	A boolean variable which is set to true when the specifications are met.

This error function subroutine requires a subroutine which calculates the frequency response of the filter at a given frequency point for the current values of the coefficients.

Having stated the design problem as an optimization problem, we now need to decide on what type of optimization technique to use. We can classify the optimization techniques into the following classes.

- 1) Gradient Methods : In which we need to obtain the first derivatives of the error function.
- 2) Second-order Method : In which higher order derivatives are required.
- 3) Simple Methods : These do not require the derivatives.

Many algorithms have been proposed for the design of FIR and IIR digital filters with finite wordlength coefficients [63-70], but there has not been enough work on the finite wordlength design of WDFs. One contribution towards this is by Wegener [22], but he

only considers the design of lattice WDFs. Claesen and his colleagues at the University of Leuven, Belgium, have developed complete VLSI tools for the design and implementation of arbitrary digital filters [45,46]. They have designed many lattice WDFs with applications in the design of transmultiplexers [71,72]. Their CAD tools contain discrete optimization algorithms [73-75] which are used to optimize the filter coefficient wordlengths. They employ bit-serial architectures and use CSD codes to represent the coefficients. Therefore the optimization methods are used to minimize the number of ones required to represent the filter coefficients. Thus, one coefficient may need 8-bits to be represented while another coefficient may need 3-bits.

Our approach in this thesis is different in the following points. First, we intend to develop a set of programs as a complete package for the design, analysis and simulation of WDFs only. This includes all the well known WDFs, i.e unit element, lattice and lc-ladder WDFs. Also the designer is allowed to include the required number of bits for the coefficients and all the final coefficients will be quantized to the required number of bits. These coefficients are suitable for both word-parallel and bit-serial architectures.

The optimization method we use can be classified as a simple method. In the next section, we briefly review



this optimization technique and a subroutine is developed to implement the algorithm.

### 2.3.0- Direct Search Methods for The Design of WDFs

#### 2.3.1- Introduction

In a direct search method, the objective function,  $E(\underline{\alpha})$ , is minimized or maximized by evaluating  $E(\underline{\alpha})$  at a given set of points  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_N$ , and comparing values to find an optimal set  $\underline{\alpha}^*$ . These points are chosen from a set of points specified by the designer. There are many reasons for using direct search methods rather than the gradient methods,

1) If the function to be minimized or maximized is not differentiable.

2) If the derivatives of the function are discontinuous or very difficult to evaluate.

3) If the solution set for the parameters is discrete, as is the case here.

4) Last but not least, direct search methods are very much simpler to implement than the gradient methods. In the next section, we briefly consider the direct search method of Hooke and Jeeves. An example has also been given to illustrate the use of the search algorithm for the minimization of a function of 2-variables.

#### 2.3.2 Hooke and Jeeves' Method [62]

In 1961, Hooke and Jeeves reported an excellent method of optimization which is now one of the most widely used direct search methods. In their original paper, they reported that the method has been used successfully to

solve many curve fitting problems for which other methods had failed. This algorithm has also been used by other people for the finite wordlength design of digital filters [22,76,77]. The following is a brief description of the algorithm.

We wish to consider the problem of minimization of an error function  $E(\underline{\alpha})$  of  $N$  variables. First we choose an initial base vector  $(\underline{\alpha})$  and a stepsize  $\Delta$ . The value of the function at  $\underline{\alpha}$ , i.e  $E(\underline{\alpha})$ , is evaluated and we proceed with a sequence of exploratory and pattern moves. If an exploratory move leads to a decrease in the value of  $E(\underline{\alpha})$ , it is called a success, otherwise it is a failure.

#### - Exploratory Moves

The purpose of an exploratory move is to acquire information about the objective function in the neighbourhood of the current base vector. This information is obtained as follows,

- 1)  $i=1$ ;
- 2) Evaluate  $E(\alpha_i + \Delta)$ . If it is a success, replace  $\alpha_i$  by  $(\alpha_i + \Delta)$ . If it is a failure, evaluate  $E(\alpha_i - \Delta)$ . If it is a success, replace  $\alpha_i$  by  $(\alpha_i - \Delta)$ , otherwise resume the initial value of  $\alpha_i$ ;
- 3)  $i=i+1$ . Repeat from (2). This is done  $N$ -times, i.e for each coefficient.
- 4) If there is no success, replace  $\Delta$  by  $(\text{step} * \Delta)$ , where  $(\text{step})$  is a constant and less than one and repeat

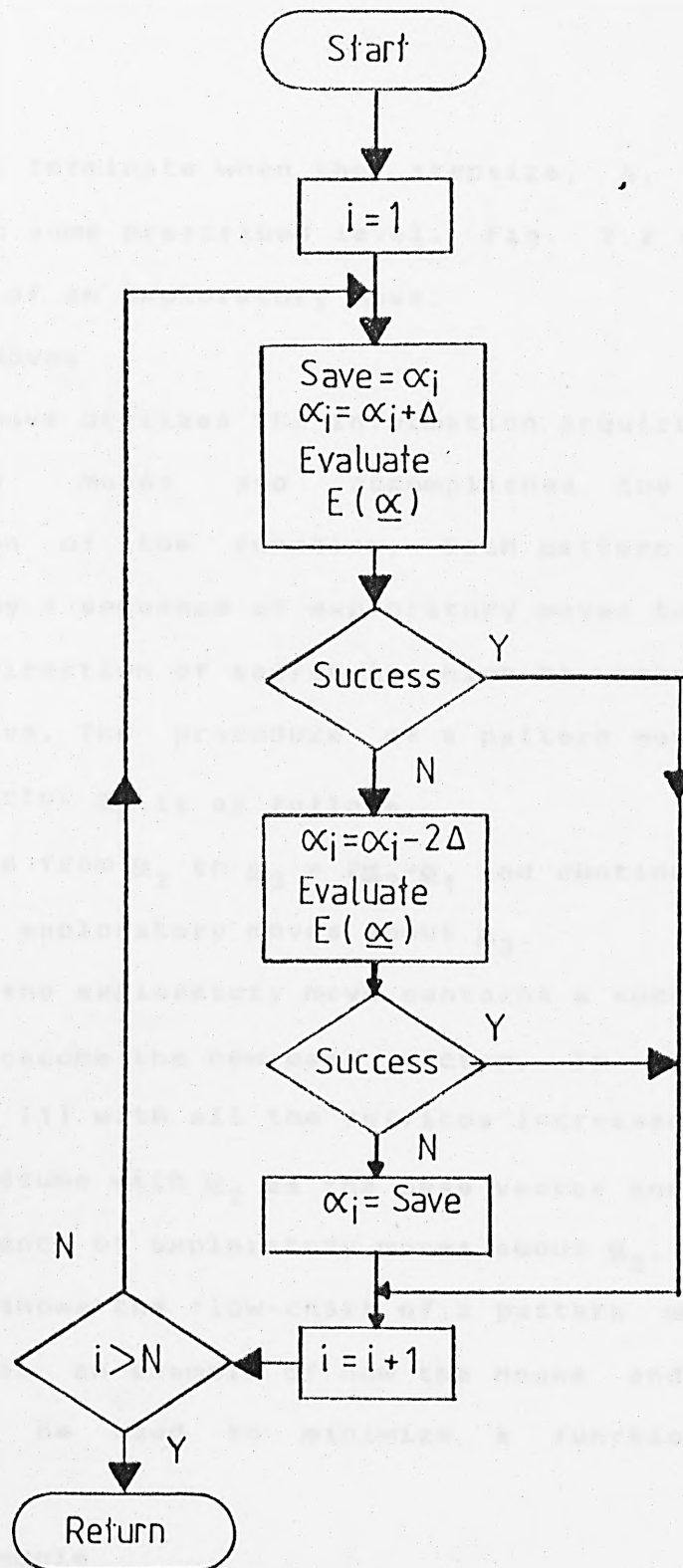


Fig.2.2 \_ Flow \_ chart of an Exploratory move .

from (1).

This would terminate when the stepsize,  $\Delta$ , has been reduced to some prescribed level. Fig. 2.2 shows the flow-chart of an exploratory move.

#### - Pattern Moves

A pattern move utilizes the information acquired in the exploratory moves and accomplishes the actual minimization of the function. Each pattern move is followed by a sequence of exploratory moves to find an improved direction of search in which to make another pattern move. The procedure of a pattern move from a new base vector  $\underline{\alpha}_2$  is as follows,

- 1) Move from  $\underline{\alpha}_2$  to  $\underline{\alpha}_3 = 2\underline{\alpha}_2 - \underline{\alpha}_1$  and continue with a sequence of exploratory moves about  $\underline{\alpha}_3$ .

- 2) If the exploratory move contains a success then  $\underline{\alpha}_3$  would become the new base vector. In this case, return to (1) with all the suffices increased by one. Otherwise resume with  $\underline{\alpha}_2$  as the base vector and continue with a sequence of exploratory moves about  $\underline{\alpha}_2$ .

Fig. 2.3 shows the flow-chart of a pattern move. The following is an example of how the Hooke and Jeeves' method may be used to minimize a function of 2-variables.

#### 2.3.4- - Example

To illustrate Hooke and Jeeves' method, let us consider the minimization of the function,  $f(x_1, x_2)$ , given by,



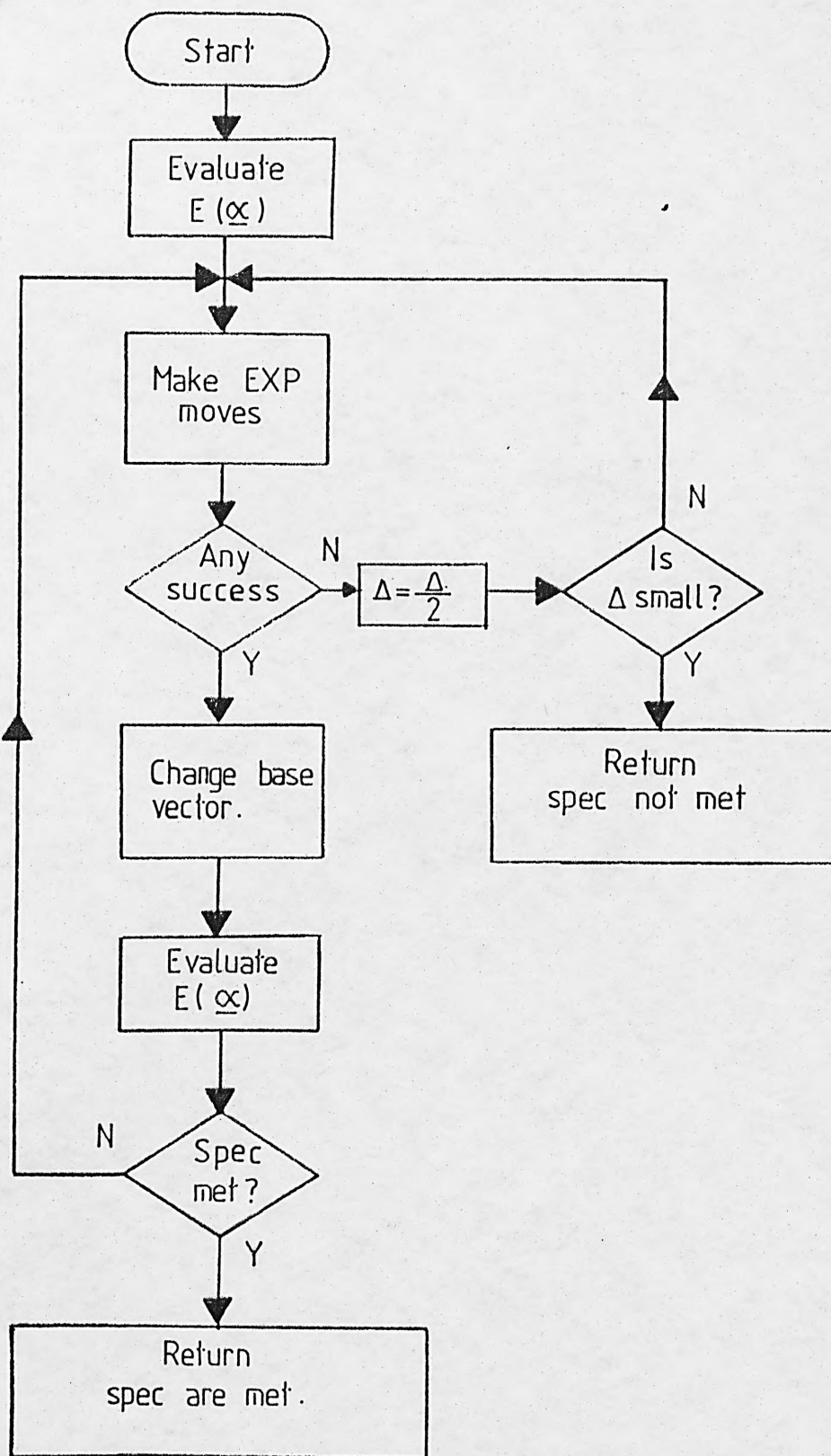


Fig.2.3\_ Flow-chart of a Pattern move.

$$f(x_1, x_2) = 4x_1^2 + 3x_1x_2 - 5x_2^2 + 3$$

Subject to

$$x_2 < 6.$$

The initial stepsize,  $\Delta$ , is 1 and the initial base vector,  $\underline{b}_1$ , is [0,0]. Also it is required to stop when  $\Delta < (1/4)$ . The value of the step with which the stepsize is reduced is 1/2.

#### - Solution

Let  $E(\underline{x})$  and  $P(\underline{x})$  denote an exploratory and a pattern move about a base vector ( $\underline{x}$ ) respectively. Also let S and F denote a success and a failure respectively. First we evaluate the value of the function at the initial base vector  $\underline{b}_1$ ,

$$\underline{b}_1 = [0,0] ; f(\underline{b}_1) = 3$$

Now we make a sequence of exploratory moves about  $\underline{b}_1$ ,

$E(\underline{b}_1)$

$f(1, 0) = 7$	F
$f(-1, 0) = 7$	F
$f(0, 1) = -2$	S
$f(0, -1) = 8$	F

$E(\underline{b}_1)$  contains a success for [0,1], therefore we make a pattern move and generate a new base vector from  $\underline{b}_2$  and  $\underline{b}_1$ ,

$$\underline{b}_2 = [0,1] ; f(\underline{b}_2) = -2$$

$P(\underline{b}_2)$

$$\underline{b}_3 = 2\underline{b}_2 - \underline{b}_1 = [0,2] ; f(\underline{b}_3) = -17$$

Now we make a sequence of exploratory moves about  $\underline{b}_3$ ,

$E(\underline{b}_3)$

$f(1, 2) = -7$	F
$f(-1, 2) = -19$	S
$f(-1, 3) = -53$	S
$f(-1, 1) = -1$	F

Again  $E(\underline{b}_3)$  contains a success for  $[-1, 3]$ , therefore we continue with a further pattern move,

$$\underline{b}_3 = [-1, 3] ; f(\underline{b}_3) = -53$$

$P(\underline{b}_3)$

$$\underline{b}_4 = 2\underline{b}_3 - \underline{b}_2 = [-2, 5] ; f(\underline{b}_4) = -136$$

$E(\underline{b}_4)$

$f(-1, 5) = -133$	F
$f(-3, 5) = -131$	F
$f(-2, 6) = -197$	F

Since  $x_2$  should be less than 6.

$f(-2, 4) = -85$	F
------------------	---

$E(\underline{b}_4)$  does not contain any success, therefore we set the stepsize,  $\Delta$ , equal to  $(\Delta/2)$ , i.e  $1/2$ , and carry on with a sequence of exploratory moves about  $\underline{b}_4$  with new  $\Delta$ .

$E(\underline{b}_4)$

$f(-1.5, 5) = -135.5$	F
$f(-2.5, 5) = -134.5$	F
$f(-2, 5.5) = -165.25$	S
$f(-2, 4.5) = -109.25$	F

Now  $E(\underline{b}_4)$  contains a success for  $[-2, 5.5]$ . We generate the new base vector by making a further pattern move,

$$\underline{b}_4 = [-2, 5.5] ; f(\underline{b}_4) = -165.25$$

$P(\underline{b}_4)$

$$\underline{b}_5 = 2\underline{b}_4 - \underline{b}_3 = [-3, 9] ; f(\underline{b}_5) = -447$$

The value of  $x_2$  is not in the range, therefore we need to reduce the value of the stepsize, i.e  $(\Delta/2)$ . The new

value of  $\Delta$ , i.e  $1/4$ , is also not in the prescribed range. So the algorithm stops here and the final results are,

$$\underline{x}^* = \underline{b}_4 = [-2, 5.5] ; f(\underline{b}_4) = -165.25$$

Now let us suppose that it is required to design a WDF with finite wordlength coefficients. First the initial coefficients are quantized to m-bits. Then the stepsize is set equal to  $2^{-q}$ , where q is smaller than m. With these initial parameters we start the search. If there is no success in the exploratory moves then the stepsize is multiplied by  $2^{-1}$ . The search terminates when  $\Delta = 2^{-m}$ . It is clear that the final coefficients will be given in m-bits or less. If at the end of the search the specifications are not met then the number of bits, m, is increased by one and we start all over again.

A subroutine has been developed which implements the Hooke and Jeeves' direct search algorithm. The algorithm has been modified in such a way that if there is no success in a series of exploratory moves then more than one coefficient is changed simultaneously. This may reduce the speed of the algorithm but results in a smaller coefficient wordlength. The parameters of the subroutine are as follows :

N	Number of filter coefficients.
Nsbit	Number of starting bits for the coefficients.

**Pcoeff**      An array of N-dimensions containing the initial coefficients before entering the subroutine, and contains the final coefficients at the end of the algorithm.

**SD**            The starting value of  $\Delta$ .

**NFE**           At the end of the algorithm this will contain the number of times the error function subroutine is called.

**Rstep**        The value of (step) by which  $\Delta$  is reduced.

This subroutine requires to call the subroutine which evaluates the error function for the current value of the coefficients. This optimization subroutine is used in chapters 3 and 4 to design finite word length WDFs based on different reference filters.



## 2.4.0- Development of some Basic Systolic Arrays

### 2.4.1- Introduction

In chapter one, it was pointed out that in order to gain the full potential of VLSI technology, it is necessary to translate our existing algorithms and structures into new architectures which are suitable for VLSI implementation. The main features of a VLSI structure are modularity, regularity, local communications and ability to be pipelined. In this respect, systolic arrays are good candidates for VLSI implementations. The initial systolic arrays, [49], were implemented at word level and recently bit level systolic arrays have attracted much attention, [52,53,78]. There are many reasons for considering systolic arrays at bit level [79], such as,

- 1) At bit level a systolic array is constructed from simple cells which consist of logic gates and a number of latches. Many cells of this type can be accommodated on a single VLSI chip and the circuits are easy to design.

- 2) Experience to date [55,80] suggests that the resulting structures exhibit high device packing densities.

- 3) Being pipelined at bit level, such circuits provide the maximum possible throughput rate.

- 4) The required component density of a word level

systolic cell would exceed the capabilities of existing processing technology, and the number of pins needed, when implementing many word level cells on a single VLSI chip, would be unmanageably large [57].

In this section, we develop a number of systolic arrays at bit level to implement equations of the form,

$$R1 = P + Z1(X1 - X2) \quad (2.5a)$$

$$R2 = P + Z1(X1 - X2) + W1(X3 - X4) \quad (2.5b)$$

$$R3 = P - Z1(X1 + X2 + X3) \quad (2.5c)$$

Later in chapters 3 and 4, these basic systolic arrays are used to implement the WDF adaptors. Finally in this chapter, we present a universal systolic array which can be programmed to implement all the three equations given above. It will then be used in chapter 4 to implement a universal systolic adaptor which can realise 2-port, 3-port serial and 3-port parallel adaptors. Throughout this chapter, it is assumed, without loss of generality, that all the inputs are expressed as 3-bit integers.

#### 2.4.2- The Basic Systolic Arrays

In this section, we develop some basic systolic arrays to implement eqn 2.5, but first let us consider the bit level implementation of the basic operation of multiplication. This has also been considered in Ref [25,78] but is given here since it helps to understand how the other systolic arrays are developed.

Suppose we wish to multiply X and Y which are 3-bit integer numbers to produce Z which will be a 6-bit

integer number. We use lowercase letters  $x, y$  and  $z$  to denote the individual bits of  $X, Y$  and  $Z$  respectively. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} X &\equiv x_2 x_1 x_0 \\ Y &\equiv y_2 y_1 y_0 \\ Z &\equiv z_5 z_4 z_3 z_2 z_1 z_0 \end{aligned}$$

The individual bits of  $Z, z_j$ , can be expressed in terms of  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  as follows,

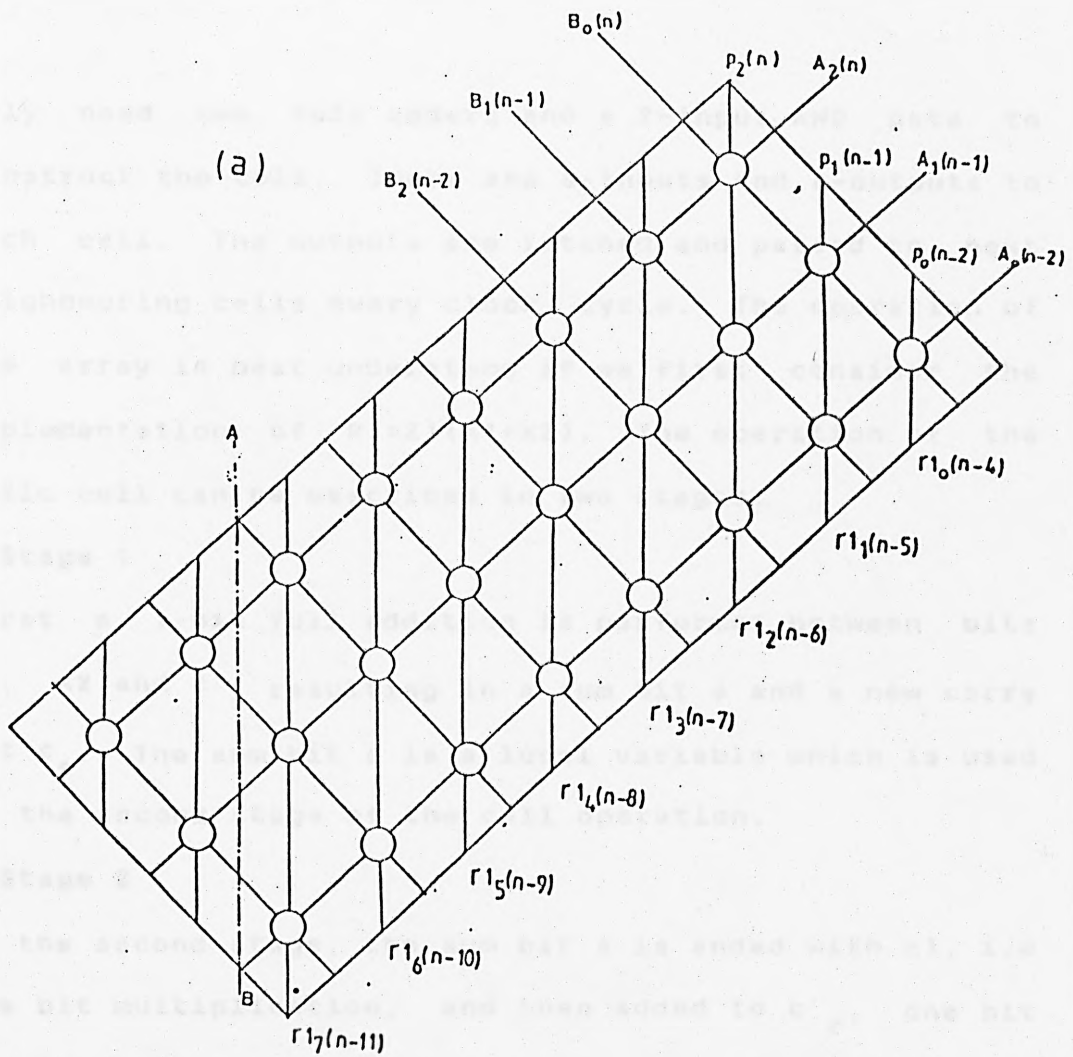
$$\begin{aligned} z_0 &= x_0 y_0 \\ z_1 &= x_0 y_1 + x_1 y_0 + c_0 \\ z_2 &= x_0 y_2 + x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_0 + c_1 \\ z_3 &= x_1 y_2 + x_2 y_1 + c_2 \\ z_4 &= x_2 y_2 + c_3 \\ z_5 &= c_4 \end{aligned}$$

and

where  $c_i$  is the carry resulting from the previous addition. The  $z_j$  bits can also be expressed as,

$$\begin{aligned} z_j &= \sum (x_i y_{j-i}) + c_{j-1} \\ i &= 0, 1, 2 \quad \text{and } j = 0, 1, \dots, 5 \end{aligned}$$

where  $c_{-1} = 0$ . It can be seen that the bit level operation of multiplication can be accomplished by some form of accumulation and addition. With this in mind, Fig. 2.4a illustrates a systolic array suitable for implementing eqn. 2.5a. The array is constructed by interconnecting 24 identical cells. The interconnections are localized and there is no global communication except the system clock which synchronizes the movement of data in the array. Fig. 2.4b shows the block representation and the boolean equations of the basic cell. From Fig. 2.4b, it can be seen that the basic cell is very simple and we



$$A_k = [c'_{rk}, z1_k, c'_{sk}]$$

$$B_k = [x1_k, x2_k]$$

Fig. 2.4-Systolic array to implement R1.

only need two full adders and a 2-input AND gate to construct the cell. There are 8-inputs and 8-outputs to each cell. The outputs are latched and passed to next neighbouring cells every clock cycle. The operation of the array is best understood if we first consider the implementation of  $R1 = Z1(X1 + X2)$ . The operation of the basic cell can be described in two stages.

**- Stage 1**

First a 1-bit full addition is performed between bits  $x1$ ,  $x2$  and  $c'_s$  resulting in a sum bit  $s$  and a new carry bit  $c_s$ . The sum bit  $s$  is a local variable which is used in the second stage of the cell operation.

**- Stage 2**

In the second stage, the sum bit  $s$  is anded with  $z1$ , i.e one bit multiplication, and then added to  $c'_r$ , one bit carried in from the previous cell, and  $r'$ , one bit of the accumulating sum of the partial result. The resulting values of  $r$ , the corresponding carry bits  $c_r$  and  $c_s$  and the inputs  $x1$ ,  $x2$  and  $z1$  are latched and passed onto the neighbouring cells at the end of a clock cycle. One clock cycle is the time taken for one cell to complete its operation.

The  $k$ th bit of the result  $R1$  can be expressed in terms of the  $Z1$  bits and  $S$  bits, where  $S$  is given by  $X1 + X2$ , as shown below,

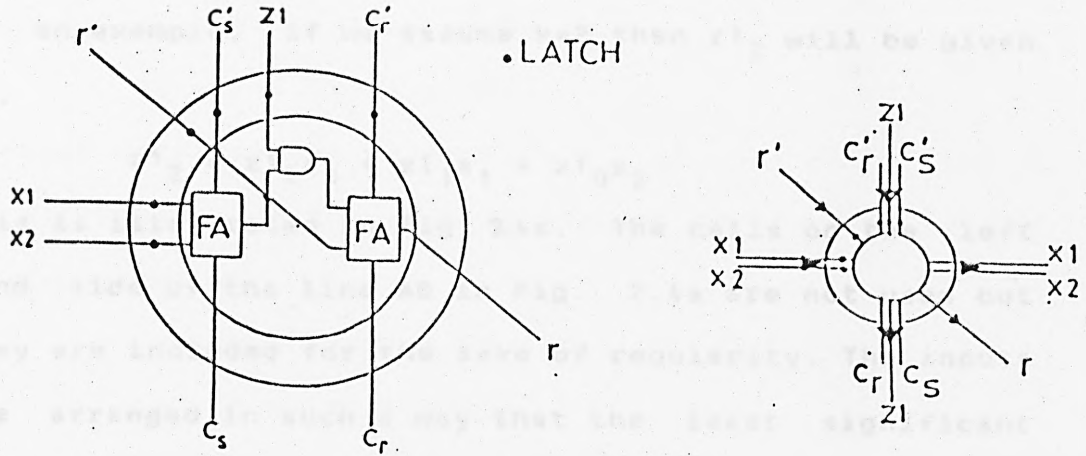


$$s = x1 \oplus x2 \oplus c'_s$$

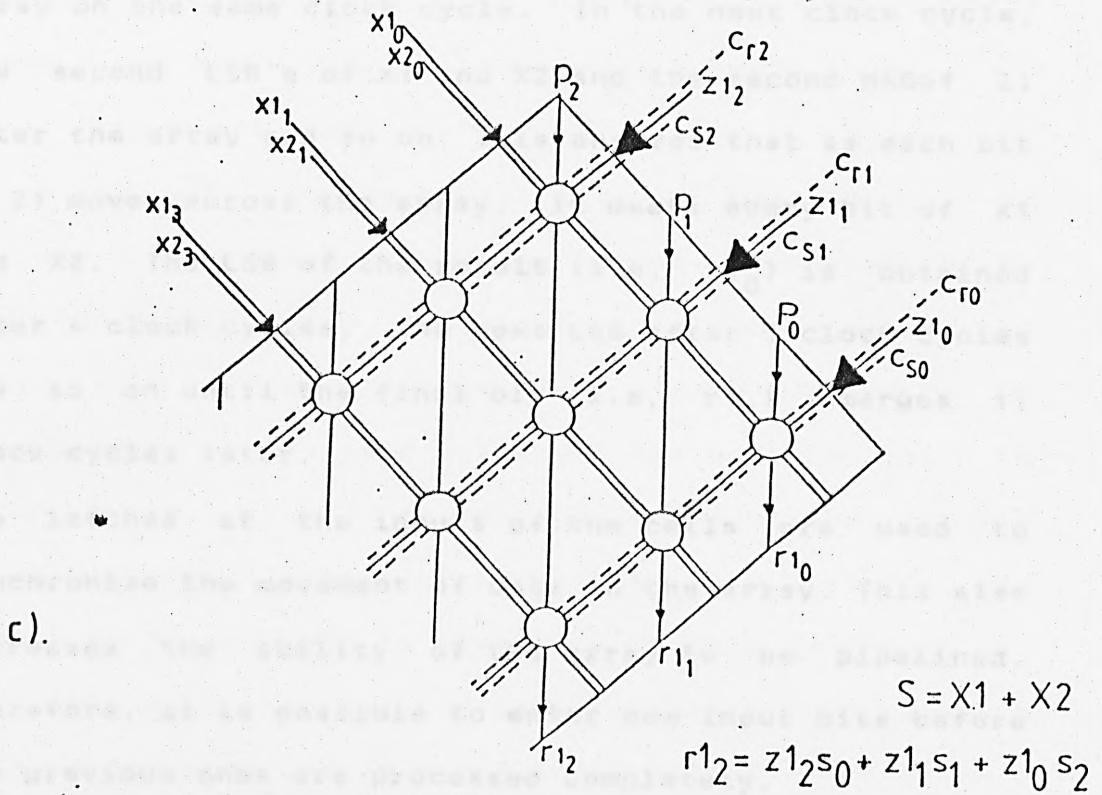
$$c_s = (x1 \cdot x2) + (x1 \cdot c'_s) + (x2 \cdot c'_s)$$

$$r = r' \oplus (z1 \cdot s) \oplus c'_r$$

$$c_r = (r' \cdot (z1 \cdot s)) + (r' \cdot c'_r) + ((z1 \cdot s) \cdot c'_r)$$



b).



c).

Fig. 2.4 — b). Basic cell in Fig.2.4 a.

c). Evaluation of  $r12$ .

$$r^1_k = \sum z^1_{k-i} s_i \quad (2.7)$$

$$k=0,1,\dots,7 \quad \text{and} \quad i=0,1,2$$

As an example, if we assume  $k=2$  then  $r^1_2$  will be given as,

$$r^1_2 = z^1_2 s_0 + z^1_1 s_1 + z^1_0 s_2$$

This is illustrated in Fig. 2.4c. The cells on the left hand side of the line AB in Fig. 2.4a are not used but they are included for the sake of regularity. The inputs are arranged in such a way that the least significant bits (LSB's) of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  (i.e.,  $x^1_0$  and  $x^2_0$ ) and the most significant bit (MSB) of  $Z_1$  (i.e.,  $z^1_2$ ) enter the array on the same clock cycle. In the next clock cycle, the second LSB's of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  and the second MSB of  $Z_1$  enter the array and so on. This ensures that as each bit of  $Z_1$  moves across the array, it meets every bit of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ . The LSB of the result (i.e.,  $r^1_0$ ) is obtained after 4 clock cycles, the next LSB after 5 clock cycles and so on until the final bit (i.e.,  $r^1_7$ ) emerges 11 clock cycles later.

The latches at the inputs of the cells are used to synchronize the movement of data in the array. This also increases the ability of the array to be pipelined. Therefore, it is possible to enter new input bits before the previous ones are processed completely.

When the circuit of Fig. 2.4a is used to implement  $Z_1(X_1+X_2)$ , the carry bits  $C'_s$  and  $C'_r$  and the bits of  $P$

are set equal to '0' when they enter the array. If we however initialize  $p_k$  to the kth bit of an arbitrary number P then R1 will be given as,

$$R1 = P + Z1(X1 + X2)$$

Further more, if the carry bits  $C'_s$  are set to '1' and  $\overline{X2}$  (i.e., inverse of X2) is used instead of X2, then R1 can be expressed as,

$$R1 = P + Z1(X1 + \overline{X2} + 1)$$

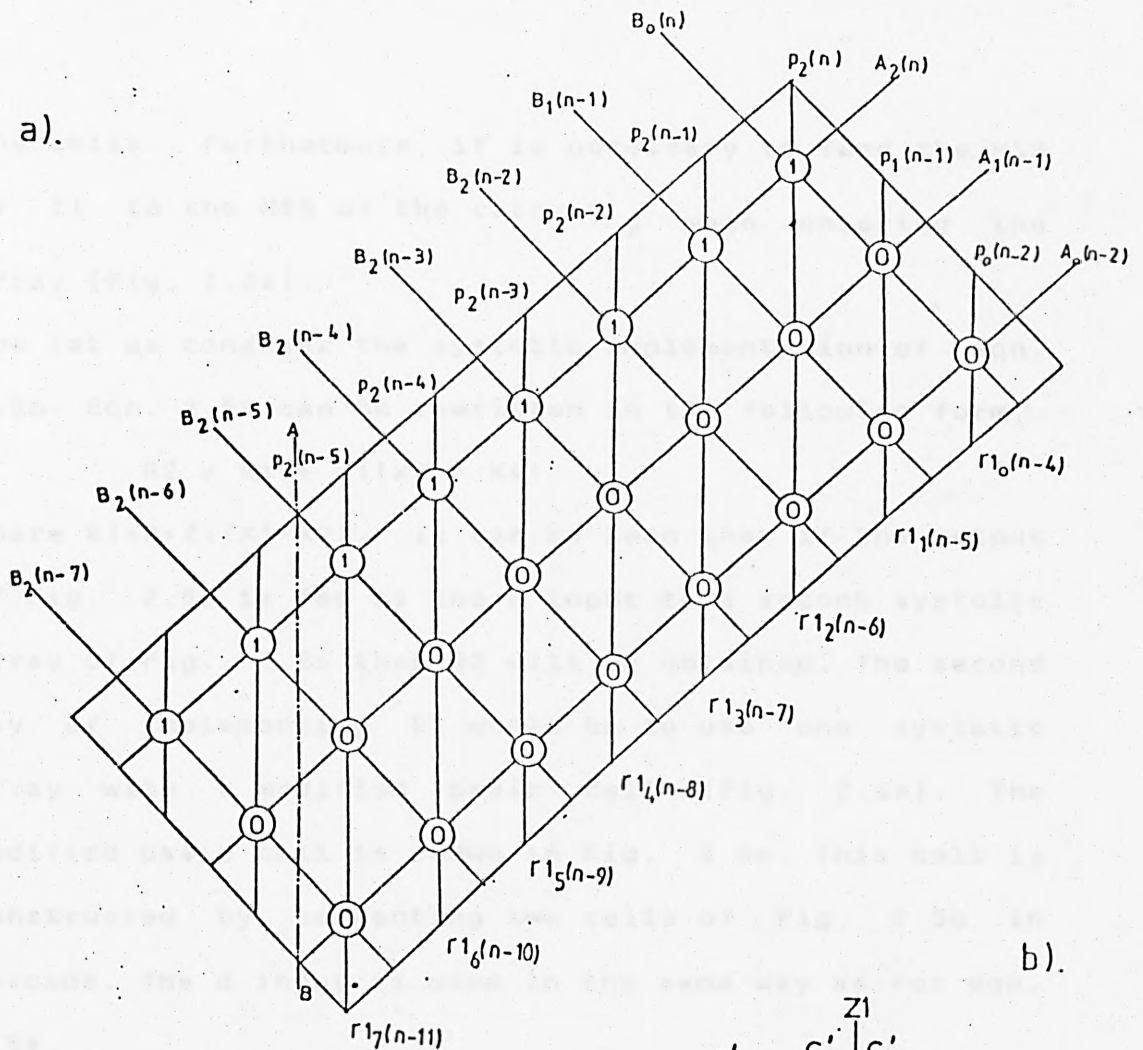
or 
$$R1 = P + Z1(X1 - X2)$$

since  $(X1 + \overline{X2} + 1)$  is the 2's complement representation of  $(X1 - X2)$ . The circuit of Fig 2.4a is only suitable for unsigned numbers. In Ref [53], it has been shown that if A and B are two m-bit 2's complement numbers then,

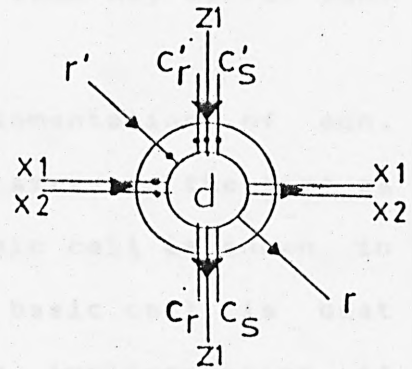
$$A.B = a_{m-1} 2^{m-1} \overline{B} + a_{m-1} 2^{m-1} + \tilde{A} B \quad (2.8)$$

where  $(a_{m-1} 2^{m-1})$  is the MSB of A (i.e., the sign bit of A) and  $\tilde{A}$  represent a positive number comprising the m-1 LSB's of A. Using eqn. 2.8, it is possible to modify the basic cell of Fig. 2.4b to allow signed numbers to be used as well as unsigned numbers. The modified cell is shown in Fig. 2.5b. This cell has an additional input d which controls its mode of operation. When d is '0', the operation of the cell is identical to that of Fig. 2.4b, but when d is '1' then the local variable s in the cell will be inverted before being added with z1. The input d is set equal to '1' on each of the cells on the left-hand boundary of the array and it is zero on the rest of

a).



b).



$$\begin{aligned}
 s &= x1 \oplus \bar{x2} \oplus c'_s \oplus d \\
 c_s &= (x1 \cdot \bar{x2}) + (x1 \cdot c'_s) + (\bar{x2} \cdot c'_s) \\
 r &= r' \oplus (z1 \cdot s) \oplus c'_r \\
 c_r &= (r' \cdot (z1 \cdot s)) + (r' \cdot c'_r) + (c'_r \cdot (z1 \cdot s))
 \end{aligned}$$

Fig. 2.5 - a). Modified array to allow signed numbers to be used.  
b). Modified basic cell.

the cells. Furthermore, it is necessary to feed the MSB of  $Z_1$  to the MSB of the carry  $C'_r$  when entering the array (Fig. 2.5a).

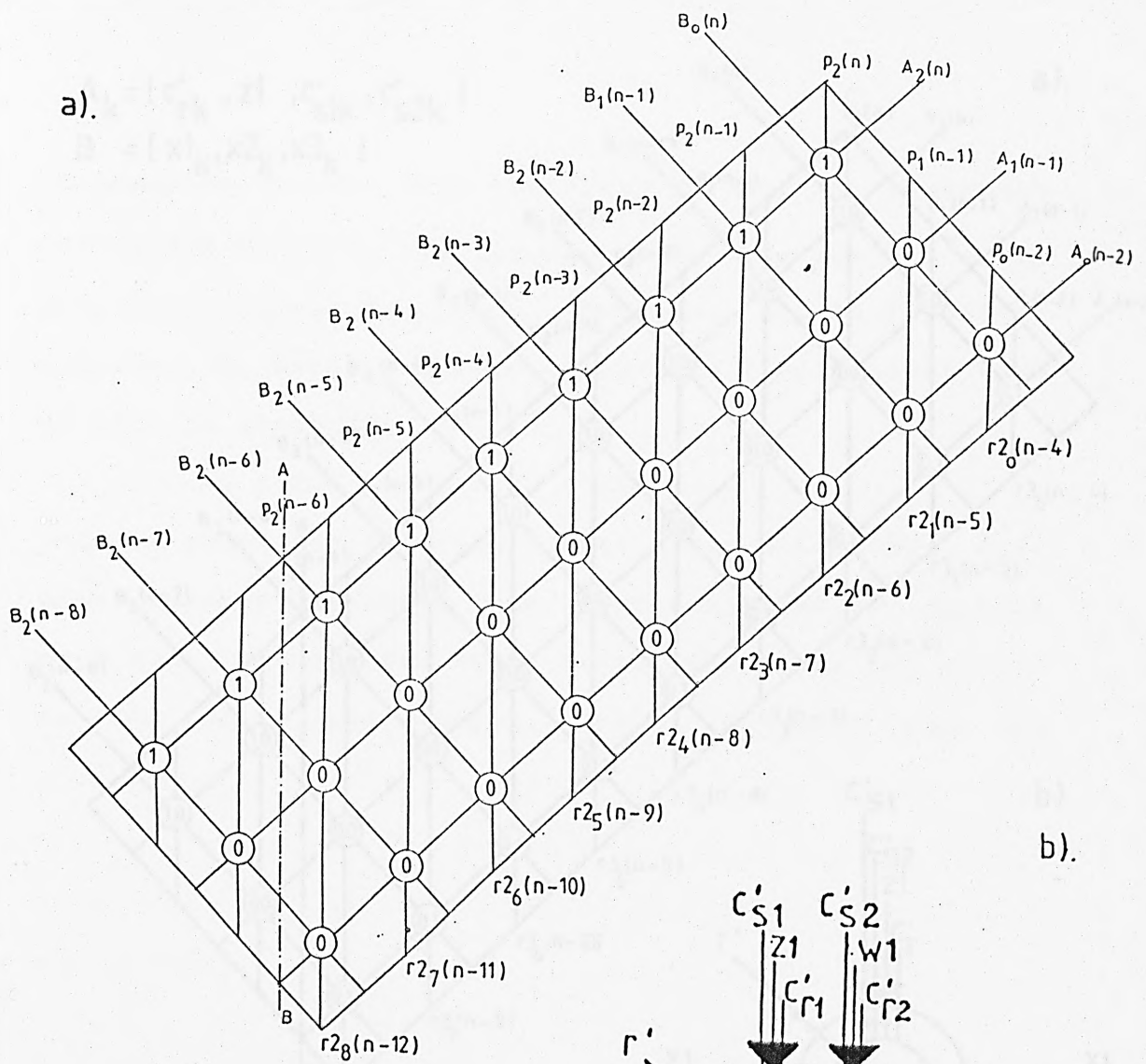
Now let us consider the systolic implementation of eqn. 2.5b. Eqn. 2.5b can be rewritten in the following form,

$$R_2 = R_1 + W_1(X_3 - X_4)$$

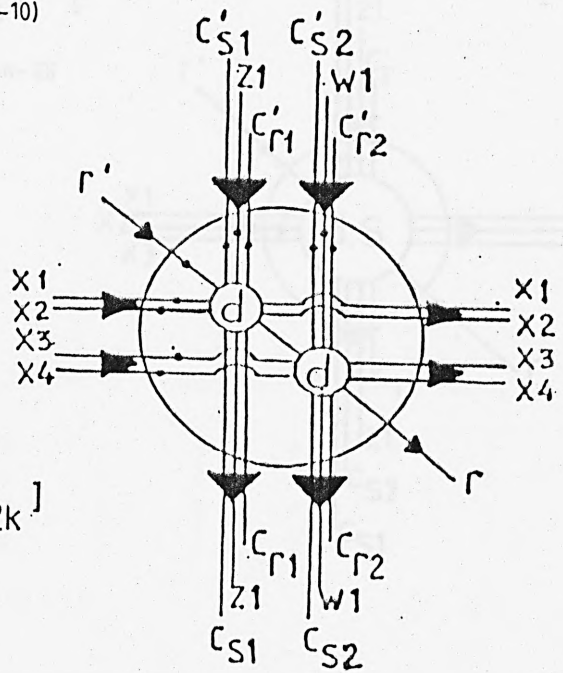
where  $R_1 = P + Z_1(X_1 - X_2)$ . It can be seen that if the output of Fig. 2.5a is fed as the  $P$  input to a second systolic array of Fig. 2.5a then  $R_2$  will be obtained. The second way of implementing  $R_2$  would be to use one systolic array with a modified basic cell (Fig. 2.6a). The modified basic cell is shown in Fig. 2.6b. This cell is constructed by connecting two cells of Fig. 2.5b in cascade. The  $d$  input is used in the same way as for eqn. 2.5a.

Finally, let us consider the implementation of eqn. 2.5c. The cell configuration of the array is the same as Fig. 2.6a (Fig. 2.7a) and the basic cell is shown in Fig. 2.7b. The operation of the basic cell is best described if we first consider the implementation of  $R_3 = P + Z_1(X_1 + X_2 + X_3)$ . In the first stage of the cell operation, the bits of  $x_1, x_2$  and  $x_3$  are added resulting in a sum bit  $s_2$  and two carry bits  $c_{s_1}$  and  $c_{s_2}$ . In the second stage, the sum bit  $s_2$  is added with  $z_1$  and added to  $r'$  and  $c'_r$ . The new values of  $r$ ,  $c_r$ ,  $c_{s_1}$  and  $c_{s_2}$  and the inputs are latched and passed to the next





b).

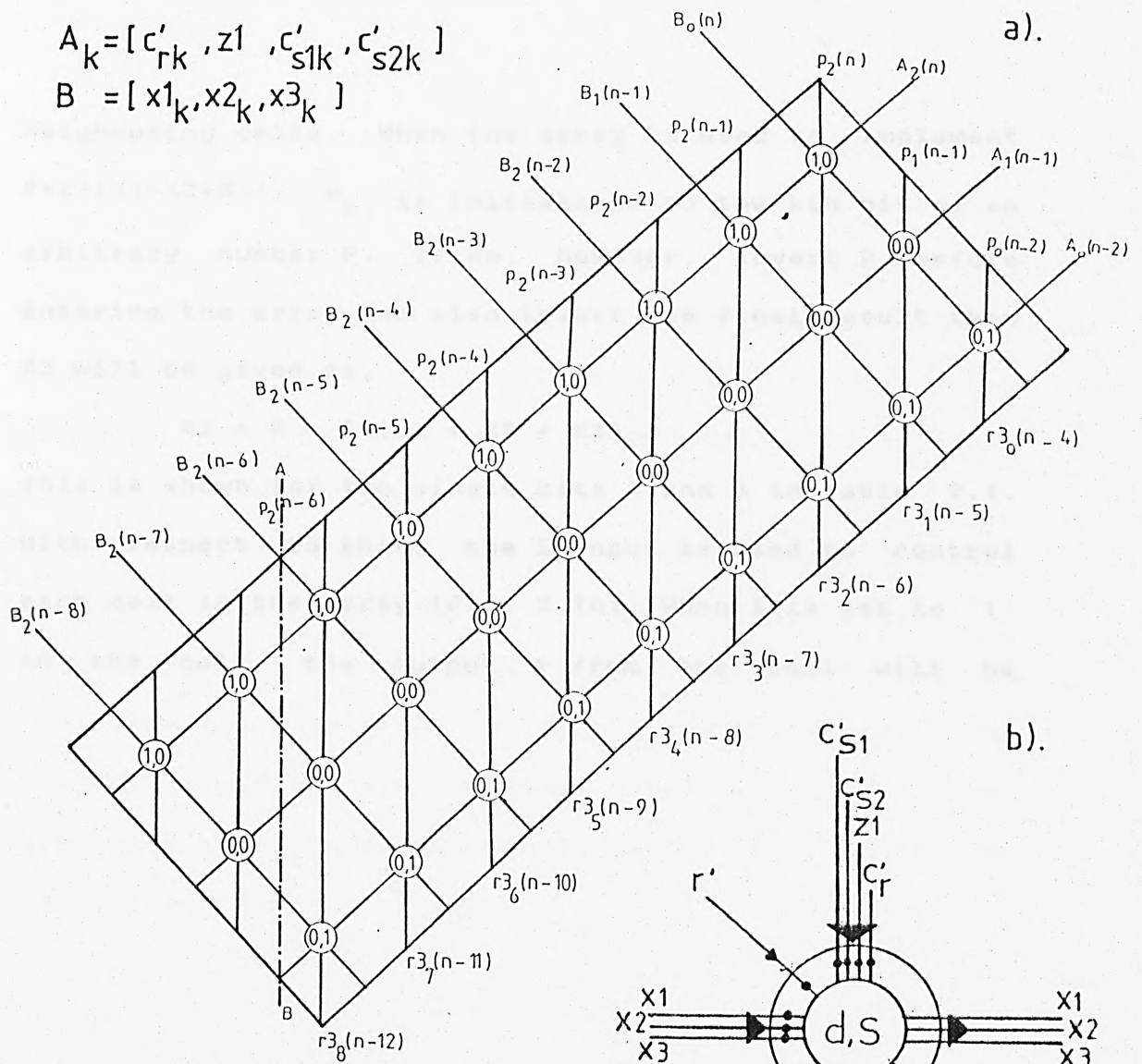


$$A_k = [c'_{r1k}, z1_k, c'_{s1k}, c'_{r2k}, w1_k, c'_{s2k}]$$

$$B_k = [x1_k, x2_k, x3_k, x4_k]$$

Fig.2.6\_ a). Systolic array to implement R2.

b). Basic cell.



$$s1 = x1 \oplus x2 \oplus c'_{s1}$$

$$c_{s1} = (x1 \cdot x2) + (x1 \cdot c'_{s1}) + (x2 \cdot c'_{s1})$$

$$s2 = s1 \oplus x3 \oplus c'_{s2} \oplus d$$

$$c_{s2} = (s1 \cdot x3) + (s1 \cdot c'_{s2}) + (x3 \cdot c'_{s2})$$

$$r = r' \oplus (z1 \cdot s2) \oplus c'_r \oplus S$$

$$c_r = (r' \cdot (z1 \cdot s2)) + (r' \cdot c'_r) + ((z1 \cdot s2) \cdot c'_r)$$

Fig. 2.7\_ a). Systolic array to implement R3.  
b). Basic cell.

neighbouring cells. When the array is used to implement  $P+Z1(X1+X2+X3)$ ,  $P_k$  is initialized to the kth bit of an arbitrary number P. If we, however, invert P before entering the array and also invert the final result then R3 will be given as,

$$R3 = P - Z1(X1 + X2 + X3)$$

This is shown for two single bits A and B in Table 2.1. With respect to this, the S input is used to control each cell in the array (Fig. 2.7b). When S is set to '1' in the cell, the output r from the cell will be

only show the inputs and the outputs of the array. The triangles in Fig. 2.8 represent a set of inputs which are used to arrange the inputs before they enter the array (Fig. 2.7a).

A	B	$\bar{A}$	$\bar{B}$	$A + \bar{B}$ sum carry		$A + \bar{B} + 1$ sum carry		$\bar{A} + B$ sum carry		$\overline{\bar{A} + B}$ sum carry	
0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0
1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
						A - B					
								A - B			

Table 2.1

inverted, and if  $S$  is set to '0' then  $r$  will not be changed. Since we wish to invert the final result (i.e.,  $r^3_k$ ,  $k=0,1,\dots,12$ ) then  $S$  is set to '1' on each of the cells on the right-hand boundary of the array and it is set to '0' on the rest of the cells (Fig. 2.7a). The  $d$  input is also used to allow 2's complement numbers to be used as described above.

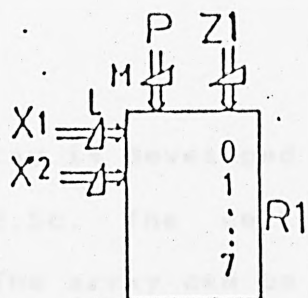
The schematic representation of the basic systolic arrays are shown in Fig. 2.8. These representations are simplified versions of Fig. 2.5a, 2.6a and 2.7a. and only show the inputs and the outputs of the arrays. The triangles in Fig. 2.8 represent a set of latches which are used to arrange the inputs before they enter the array (Fig. 2.8d).



Fig. 2.8. (a), (b), (c) Schematic representation of systolic arrays.  
 (d) Triangular arrangement of latches.

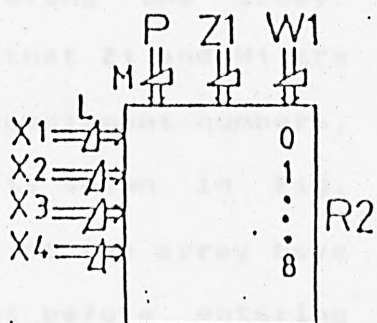
a).

$$R1 = P + Z1(X1 - X2)$$



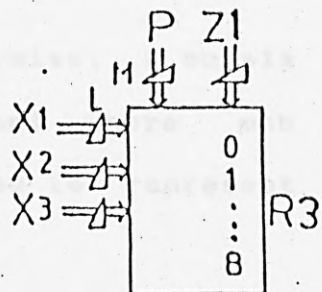
b).

$$R2 = P + Z1(X1 - X2) + W1(X3 - X4)$$



c).

$$R3 = P - Z1(X1 + X2 + X3)$$



d).

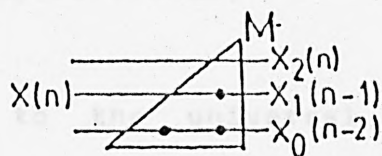
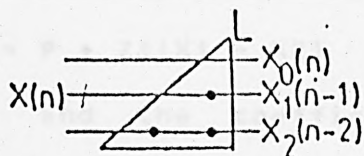


Fig.2.8 \_ a), b), c). Schematic representation of systolic arrays .  
d). Triangular arrangement of latches.



### 2.5.0- Universal Systolic Array

In this section, a universal systolic array is developed which can realise eqn. 2.5a, 2.5b and 2.5c. The cell configuration is shown in Fig. 2.9a. The array can be used to implement equations of the form,

$$R = P \pm Z1(X1 + X2) \pm W1(X3 + X4) \quad (2.8)$$

by initializing the inputs before entering the array. The array is organized in such a way that Z1 and W1 are n-bit and other inputs are m-bit 2's complement numbers, i.e. an (nxm) array. The basic cell is shown in Fig. 2.9b. As mentioned before the inputs of the array have to be initialized with different values before entering the array for each of the equations.

#### 2.5.1- Initialisation of the Universal Systolic Array

In this section, unless specified otherwise, k equals (1,2,...,n) and l equals (1,2,...,mnb) where mnb equals the maximum number of bits required to represent the result.

##### - Equation 2.5a

Eqn. 2.5a is rewritten here for a quick reference,

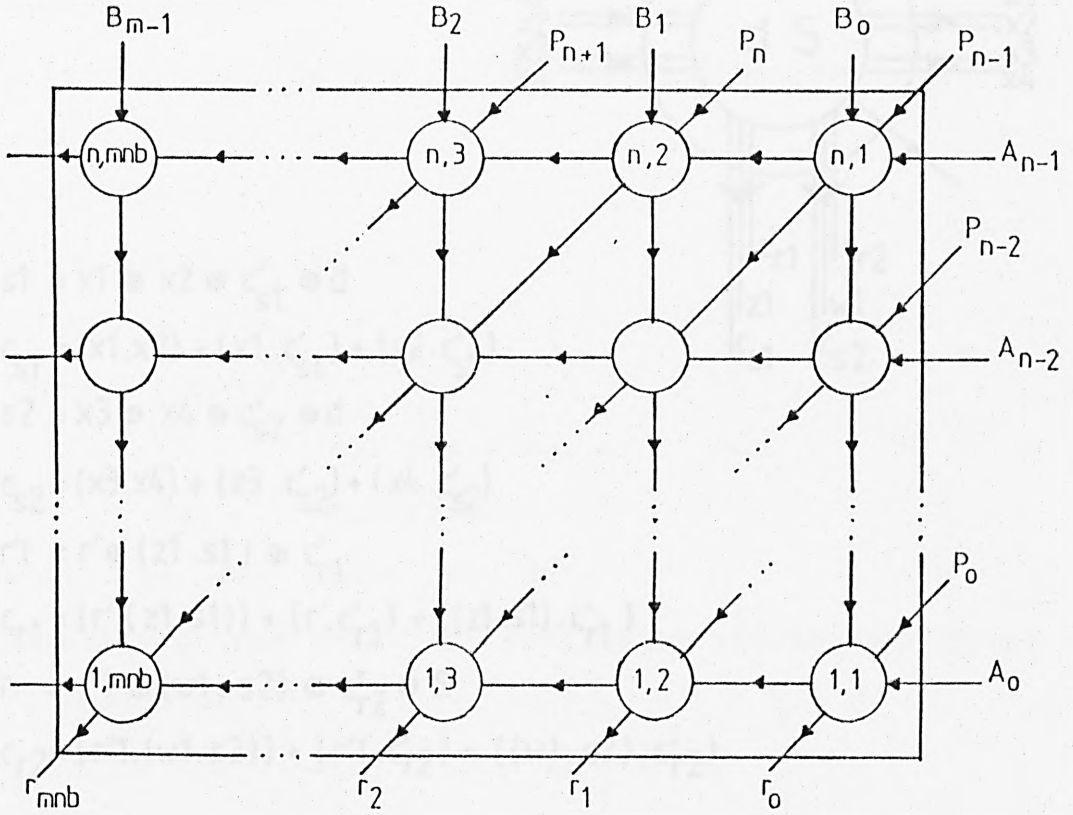
$$R1 = P + Z1(X1 - X2)$$

The inputs and the coefficients to the universal systolic array have to be initialised as follows,

##### - Inputs

$p_1$ ,  $x_1$  are set equal to the 1th bit of arbitrary numbers P and X1 respectively.

a).

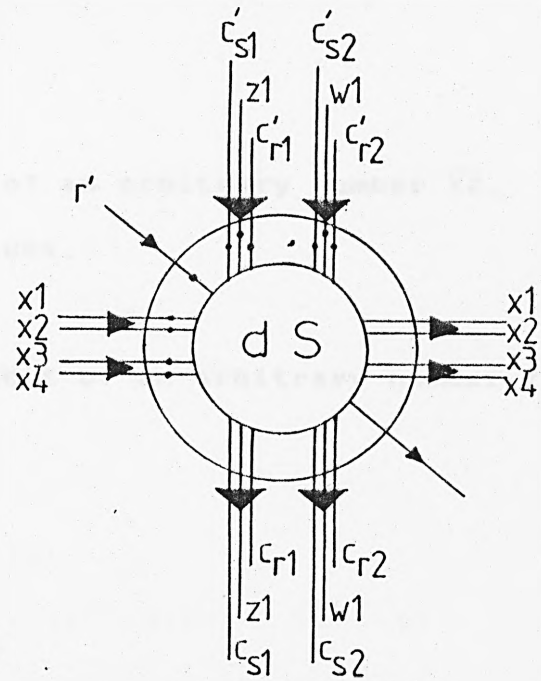


$$A_k = [c'_{r1k}, z1_k, c'_{s1k}, c'_{r2k}, w1_k, c'_{s2k}]$$

$$B_k = [x1_k, x2_k, x3_k, x4_k]$$

Fig. 2.9\_a). Universal systolic array.

b).



$$s1 = x1 \oplus x2 \oplus c'_{s1} \oplus d$$

$$c_{s1} = (x1.x2) + (x1.c'_{s1}) + (x2.c'_{s1})$$

$$s2 = x3 \oplus x4 \oplus c'_{s2} \oplus d$$

$$c_{s2} = (x3.x4) + (x3.c'_{s2}) + (x4.c'_{s2})$$

$$r'1 = r' \oplus (z1.s1) \oplus c'_{r1}$$

$$c_{r1} = (r'.(z1.s1)) + (r'.c'_{r1}) + ((z1.s1).c'_{r1})$$

$$r = r'1 \oplus (w1.s2) \oplus c'_{r2} \oplus S$$

$$c_{r2} = (r'1.(w1.s2)) + (r'1.c'_{r2}) + ((w1.s2).c'_{r2})$$

c).

$$R = P \pm z1 (X1 \mp X2) \pm w1 (X3 \mp X4)$$

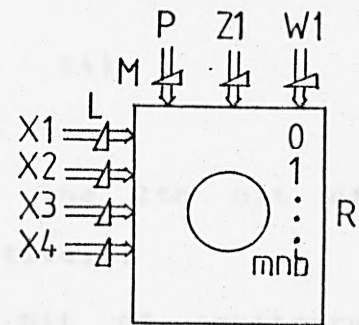


Fig. 2.9\_ b). Basic cell for universal systolic array .

c). Schematic representation of universal systolic array.

$x^2_1$  is set equal to 1th bit of an arbitrary number  $\overline{X2}$ .

$x^3_1$  and  $x^4_1$  can take any values.

- Coefficients

$z^1_k$  is set equal to the kth bit of an arbitrary number  $Z1$ .

$w^1_k$  is set equal to '0'.

- Carry bits

$c_{s1k}$  is set equal to '1'.

$c_{s2k}$  do not care.

- Control inputs

$$d(k,1) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } k=n ; l=1,2,\dots,nmb \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$S(k,1)$  is set equal to '0'.

Initialising the universal array with the above values will result in,

$$R = P + Z1(X1 + \overline{X2} + 1) + 0$$

$$\text{or } R = P + Z1(X1 - X2) = R1$$

- Equation 2.5b

$$R2 = P + Z1(X1 - X2) + W1(X3 - X4)$$

- Inputs

$p_1$ ,  $x^1_1$  and  $x^3_1$  are set equal to the 1th bit of arbitrary numbers  $P$ ,  $X1$  and  $X3$  respectively.

$x^2_1$  and  $x^4_1$  are set equal to the 1th bit of arbitrary numbers  $\overline{X2}$  and  $\overline{X4}$  respectively.

- Coefficients

$z^1_k$  and  $w^1_k$  are set equal to the kth bit of arbitrary numbers  $Z1$  and  $W1$  respectively.

- Carry bits

$c_{s1k}$  and  $c_{s2k}$  are set equal to '1'.

- Control inputs

$$d(k, l) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } k=n ; l=1, 2, \dots, mnb \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$S(k, l)$  is set equal to '0'.

These initial values result in,

$$R = P + Z1(X1 + \overline{X2} + 1) + W1(X3 + \overline{X4} + 1)$$

$$\text{or} \quad R = P + Z1(X1 - X2) + W1(X3 - X4) = R2$$

-Equation 2.5c

$$R3 = P - Z1(X1 + X2 + X3)$$

- Inputs

$P_1$ ,  $x1_1$ ,  $x2_1$  and  $x3_1$  are set equal to the 1th bit of arbitrary numbers  $\bar{P}$ ,  $X1$ ,  $X2$  and  $X3$  respectively.

$x4_1$  is set equal to '0'.

- Coefficients

$z1_k$  and  $w1_k$  are set equal to the kth bit of an arbitrary number  $Z1$ .

- Carry bits

$c_{s1k}$  and  $c_{s2k}$  are set equal to '0'.

- Control inputs

$$d(k, l) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } k=n ; l=1, 2, \dots, mnb \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$S(k, l) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } k=1 ; l=1, 2, \dots, mnb \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

These initial settings will result in,



$$\overline{R} = \overline{P} + Z1(X1 + X2) + Z1(X3 + 0)$$

$$\text{or } R = P - Z1(X1 + X2 + X3) = R3$$

In all the above situations, the carry bits  $C'_{r1}$  and  $C'_{r2}$  are set as follows,

$C'_{r1k}$  and  $C'_{r2k}$  are set equal to '0' except for  $C'_{r1n}=Z1_n$  and  $C'_{r2n}=W1_n$ .

This universal array will be used in chapter 4 to implement a universal systolic adaptor. The universal systolic adaptor can be programmed to realise the 2-port, 3-port serial and 3-port parallel adaptors.

### 2.6.0- Summary

In this chapter, we have seen how optimization can be used to solve filter design problems which are not solvable using direct synthesis techniques. There are many different algorithms which can be used to minimize an error function and there are many different error functions to use. In this chapter, we used the direct search method of Hooke and Jeeves and the error function was defined as the maximum error in the passband and the stopband of the filter. Two subroutines have been developed. The first one evaluates the error function for the current value of the coefficients and the second one implements the search algorithm. These subroutines are used in chapter 3 and 4 to develop a complete package for the design of finite wordlength WDFs.

We have also seen how the concept of systolic array at bit level can be used to implement a number of basic equations. The resulting arrays exhibit high regularity and modularity and the interconnections between the cells are localised. These features make the array suitable for VLSI implementation. In chapter 3 and 4, we express the WDF adaptor equations in the same form as eqns. 2.5a-c and these systolic arrays will be used to implement the adaptor equations.

Also in this chapter, we presented a universal systolic array suitable to implement eqns 2.5-c by initializing

the inputs before entering the array. This array will be used to develop a universal systolic WDF adaptor. Since the basic cell of the universal array is more complex than the other arrays, the resulting universal adaptor can be very useful for experimental purposes.

## CHAPTER THREE

### UNIT ELEMENT AND LATTICE WDFS

#### 3.1.0- Introduction

As mentioned in chapter one, apart from the lc-ladder filters, unit element and lattice filters also have low sensitivity properties to variations in their component values. Therefore they can also be used to derive WDFs.

Unit element filters result in the simplest form of WDFs. They can be designed and implemented by cascading a number of 2-port adaptors. The only problem with the unit element WDFs (UEWDFs) is that only Butterworth and Chebychev filters can be designed.

There are a number of ways that a Wave Digital Lattice Filter (LTWDF) can be designed. One approach, which will be adopted in this thesis, is to design the lattice reactances using all-pass functions which can be implemented using only 2-port adaptors [81]. The resulting structures are more complex than the UEWDFs, but we can also design filters with Elliptic responses. Usually analogue lattice filters exhibit higher sensitivity in the stopband than the lc-ladder or unit element WDFs, but surprisingly more attention has been given to the design and implementation of LTWDFs in

practice. This may be because of some properties of LTWDFs which make them suitable for communication systems such as the design of transmultiplexers [71,72]. In section 3.2 of this chapter, we consider the bit level systolic implementation of a 2-port adaptor using the concept developed in chapter two. A single board 2-port systolic adaptor has been constructed to prove the correctness of the design.

Next in section 3.3 and 3.4, we consider the finite wordlength design of unit element and lattice WDFs respectively. Two subroutines are developed to evaluate the responses of the UEWDFs and LTWDFs for a set of coefficients at different frequency points. These subroutines plus the subroutines developed in chapter two, i.e. the error function and optimization subroutines, are used together to form a software package for the finite wordlength design of unit element and lattice WDFs. In section 3.5, we consider the hardware implementation of the UEWDFs and LTWDFs using the 2-port systolic adaptor.

In section 3.6, we briefly describe the design programs and how they can be used. The designed filters can be checked by either analysing the filters using a program called ANAWDF or simulating the filters using SIMWDF. SIMWDF also includes the systolic simulation of the WDFs.



Finally in section 3.7, we consider a number of filter design examples. The examples are carefully selected in order to cover different types of specifications such as narrow band, wide band, sharp cutoff frequencies, etc. The filters are designed both with high precisions for the coefficients and also with finite wordlength coefficients. The filters are analysed and the frequency responses of the filter for the ideal case, with quantized coefficients and with coefficients from the finite wordlength design program (FWLD) are plotted. Although WDFs have low sensitivity properties to variations in the multiplier coefficients, It will be shown that when the number of bits for the coefficients is small then the frequency response of the filter can not be guaranteed to meet the specifications. Using the FWLD programs, the response of the filter can be forced to remain within the specifications. The filters are also simulated using the ideal and the systolic 2-port adaptors.

### 3.2.0- 2-Port Systolic Adaptors

In chapter two, we saw how equations of the form,

$$R1 = P + Z1(X1 - X2) \quad (3.1)$$

can be implemented using bit level systolic arrays. Here we consider the implementation of a 2-port adaptor by modifying the systolic array used to implement eqn. 3.1. Fig. 3.1a illustrates the schematic representation of a 2-port adaptor and the adaptor equations are given below,

$$B1 = A2 + \alpha(A2 - A1) \quad (3.2)$$

$$B2 = A1 + \alpha(A2 - A1)$$

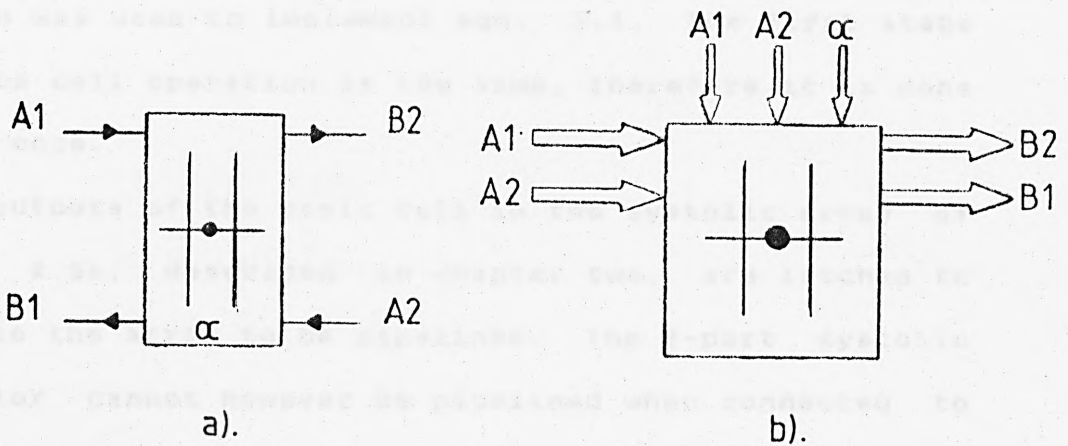


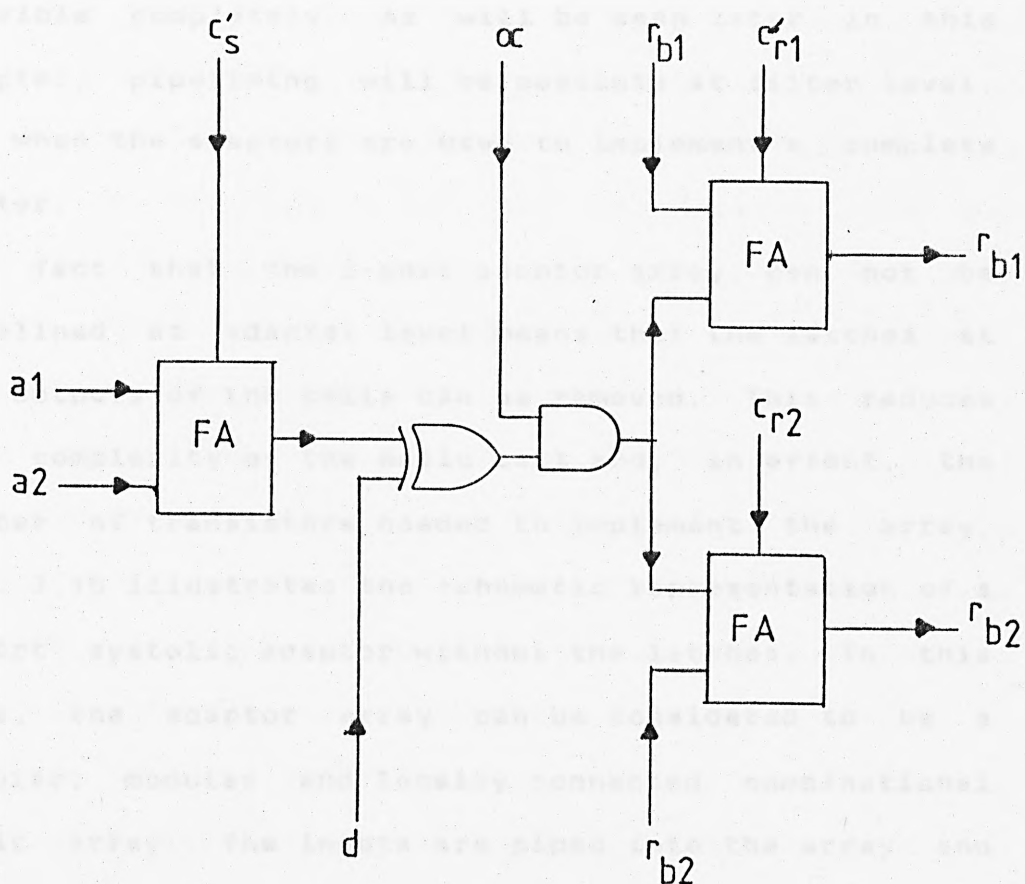
Fig. 3.1- Schematic representation of,

a) a 2-Port adaptor.

b) a 2-Port systolic adaptor.

where  $A_k$ 's are the inputs,  $B_k$ 's are the outputs,  $\alpha$  is the adaptor coefficient and  $k=1,2$ . From eqn. 3.2, there are two ways of implementing the adaptor equations. One obvious way would be to use two systolic arrays of Fig. 2.5, i.e one for each equation. The term  $\alpha(A_2-A_1)$  is common to both equations, therefore by using two systolic arrays this term is evaluated twice which is not necessary. Thus, an alternative method of implementing the adaptor equations would be to use one systolic array with the same cell configuration as in Fig. 2.5, and modify the basic cell. The logic diagram of the basic cell is shown in Fig. 3.2. The basic cell is constructed by overlapping two cells of Fig. 2.5b which was used to implement eqn. 3.1. The first stage of the cell operation is the same, therefore it is done only once.

The outputs of the basic cell in the systolic array of Fig. 2.5a, described in chapter two, are latched to enable the array to be pipelined. The 2-port systolic adaptor cannot however be pipelined when connected to more adaptors to form a complete filter. This is due to the fact that we need both the MSB's and the LSB's of the inputs  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  at the same clock cycle. Thus, we must wait until one adaptor completes its operation, i.e all the bits of the outputs  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  are ready, before feeding them as inputs to the next adaptor. This



FA - Full Adder.

34 Gates/Cell.

20 ns Gate Delay

Fig.3.2 - Logic diagram of the Basic cell .

of course does not mean that the pipelining is not possible completely. As will be seen later in this chapter, pipelining will be possible at filter level, i.e when the adaptors are used to implement a complete filter.

The fact that the 2-port adaptor array can not be pipelined at adaptor level means that the latches at the outputs of the cells can be removed. This reduces the complexity of the basic cell and, in effect, the number of transistors needed to implement the array. Fig. 3.1b illustrates the schematic representation of a 2-port systolic adaptor without the latches. In this case, the adaptor array can be considered to be a regular, modular and locally connected combinational logic array. The inputs are piped into the array and the output of the cells ripple across the array until the final bits appear on the right-hand boundary cells. The structure is no longer a true systolic array since there is no global clock controlling the movement of data in the array, but the concept of systolic array has been used to design the structure. For convenience we will still refer to these structures as systolic arrays.

#### 3.2.1- A Single Board 2-Port Systolic Adaptor

In order to check the correctness of the design, it was decided to construct a single board 2-port systolic



adaptor. The basic cells are implemented using EPROM's. Fig. 3.3 shows the photograph of the board. The array is organised as  $(4 \times 4)$ , i.e 4-bits for the coefficient and 4-bits for the inputs. Switches are used to select the values of the inputs and the coefficient and the outputs are displayed using LED's. The board has been tested fully by connecting it to a Cromemco micro-computer. The values of the coefficient and the inputs were set by the computer and the outputs of the array were fed back into the system. The outputs of the board were tested against the actual values and found to be working successfully. From the layout of the board, we can observe the high regularity of the array which is suitable for VLSI implementations.

The 2-port systolic adaptor has also been simulated by writing a Fortran program. Fortran is not a very efficient language for simulating parallel arrays, such as the systolic array, but it was sufficient to prove that the design was correct. The simulation of the systolic WDF was obtained by multiplexing the 2-port systolic adaptor to the required filter order. The simulation program will be described in more detail in section 3.6 of this chapter.

### 3.2.2- CMOS Implementation of a 2-port Systolic adaptor

In this section, we estimate how many transistors are required to implement a 2-port systolic adaptor using

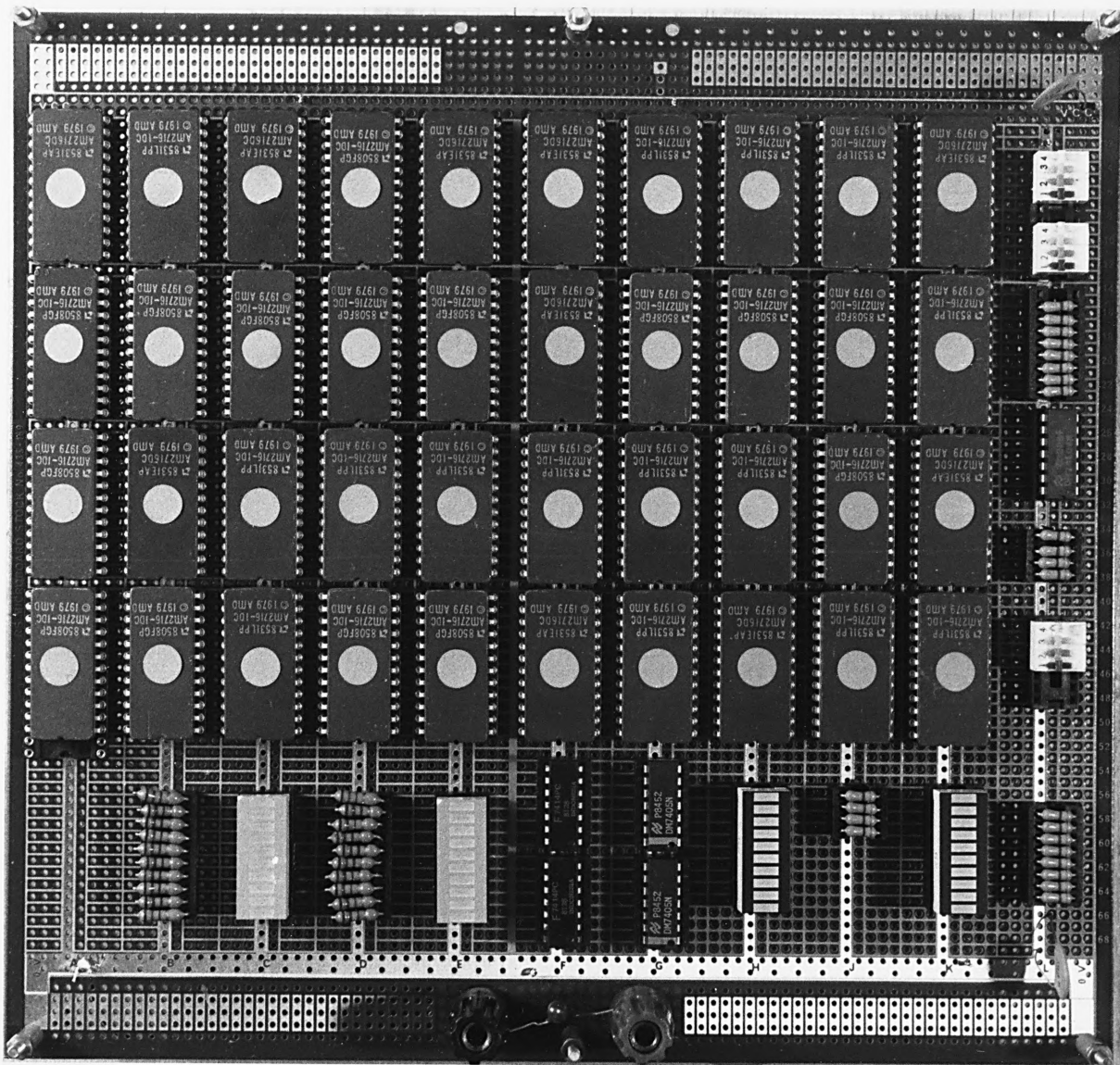


Fig. 3.3 \_ Photograph of the 2 \_port systolic adaptor hardware .

CMOS technology. In general, if  $n$ -bits are used to represent the coefficient and  $m$ -bits are used to represent the inputs, i.e an  $(n \times m)$  array, then the maximum number of bits required to represent the outputs B1 and B2 is given as,

$$mnb = (n + m + 2)$$

where  $mnb$  is the maximum number of bits required to represent the outputs of the adaptor. The number of cells in the  $(n \times m)$  array is given by,

$$N_c = n(n + m + 2)$$

and the number of clock cycles required for the adaptor to complete its operation is,

$$N_{cl} = n + (n + m + 2) = 2n + m + 2$$

where one clock cycle is the time required for one cell to complete its operation. From Fig. 3.2, we need 3-full adders, one 2-input AND gate and one 2-input EX-OR gate to implement a basic cell. In order to estimate the number of transistors required to implement the adaptor it is better if we first calculate the number of gates in terms of 2-input AND gates. A full adder can be implemented using 10 2-input AND gates and an EX-OR gate can be implemented using 3 2-input AND gates. Therefore 34 2-input AND gates are required to implement the 2-port systolic adaptor. In CMOS technology a 2-input AND gate can be implemented using 4 transistors [89]. Therefore we need 136 transistors

to implement one cell of the 2-port systolic adaptor. Now we can easily calculate the number of transistors required to implement one complete adaptor.

From Fig. 3.2, the time delay of the adaptor is equal to the time delay of 5 2-input AND gates in cascade. If we consider that the time delay of an AND gate to be 4ns then the time delay of one cell will be equal to 20ns.

This information is shown in tabular form in table 3.1 for some typical values of n and m. From table 3.1, it can be seen that the number of transistors and the time delay of the adaptor are reduced exponentially when the number of bits for the coefficients, i.e n, is reduced. This emphasises the importance of WDFs where filters can be designed with short coefficient wordlengths.

No. of bits		No. of	No. of	No. of	No. of	Delay	
Coef	Signal	Cell	Gate	Tran	Clock	ns	MHZ
4	8	56	1,904	7,616	18	360	2.7
8	8	144	4,896	19,584	26	520	1.9
4	16	88	2,992	11,968	26	520	1.9
8	16	208	7,072	28,288	34	680	1.4



### 3.3.0- Unit Element WDFs (UEWDFs)

#### 3.3.1- Basic Theory

The first prototype filter we use to derive the WDF is made up of a cascade of transmission lines [29] terminated at both ends by resistances (Fig. 3.4). The line network of Fig. 3.4 can also be viewed as the cascade of  $N$  unit elements connected through  $N$  2-port adaptors. In chapter one, we derived the WDF realisation of a unit element (table 1.1). Thus, the WDF representation of the line network of Fig. 3.4 can be obtained by connecting  $N$  unit elements using 2-port adaptors. The resulting WDF is shown in Fig. 3.5a and Fig. 3.5b shows the schematic representation of the WDF. It is to be noted that the two delays of  $z^{(-1/2)}$  after each adaptor may be combined to form a delay of  $z^{-1}$  as shown in Fig. 3.6 [2,82]. This combination has no effect on the magnitude response of the filter and causes a linear shift in the phase response. The value of the adaptor coefficients,  $\alpha_k$ , in the WDF of Fig. 3.6 can be expressed as follows,

$$\alpha_1 = (R_s - Z_1)/(R_s + Z_1) \quad (3.3a)$$

$$\alpha_k = (Z_{k+1} - Z_k)/(Z_{k+1} + Z_k) \quad (3.3b)$$

$$\alpha_N = (R_L - Z_N)/(R_L + Z_N) \quad (3.3c)$$

and  $k=2,3,\dots,N-1$

where  $Z_k$  is the  $k$ th characteristic impedances of the transmission line filter. Thus, once the transmission



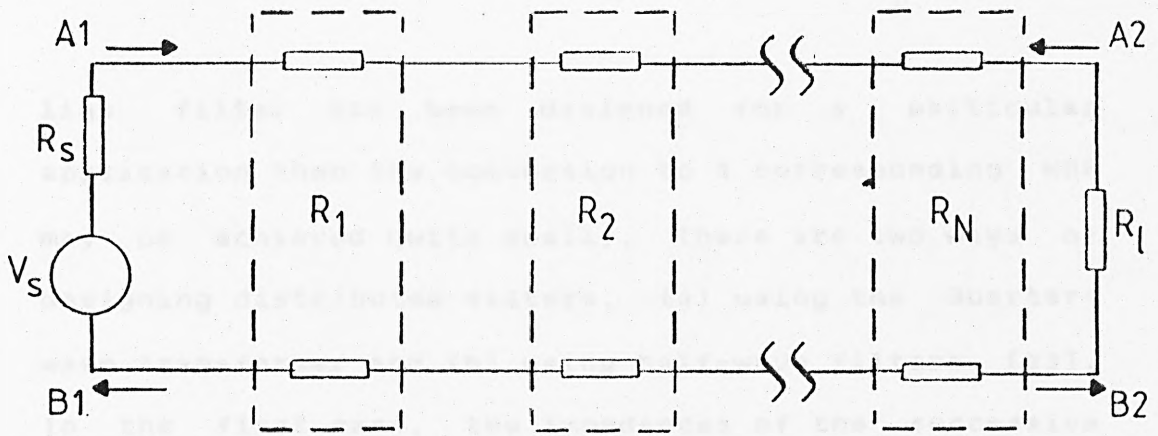


Fig.3.4 \_ Cascade Transmission Line filter .

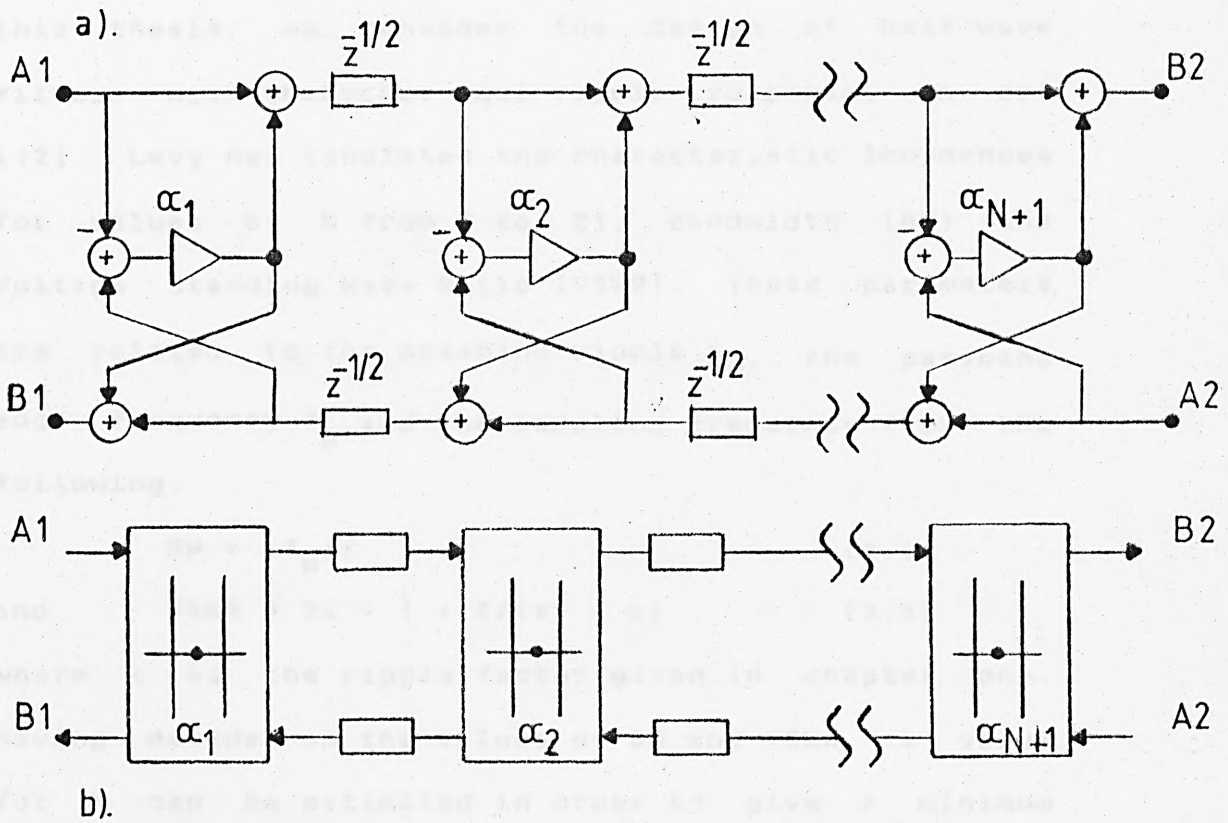


Fig.3.5 \_ a). Unit element WDF.

b). Schematic representation.

line filter has been designed for a particular application then the conversion to a corresponding WDF may be achieved quite easily. There are two ways of designing distributed filters, (a) using the Quarter-wave transformer and (b) using half-wave filters [83]. In the first case, the impedances of the successive sections in the line network increase monotonically from unity to an extremely large value, while in the second case, they oscillate about unity. Therefore in this thesis, we consider the design of half-wave filters with Chebychev equi-ripple response. In ref [12], Levy has tabulated the characteristic impedances for values of  $N$  from 2 to 21, Bandwidth (BW) and Voltage Standing Wave Ratio (VSWR). These parameters are related to the passband ripple  $a_p$ , the passband edge frequency  $f_p$  and the sampling frequency  $f$  by the following,

$$BW = 4f_p/f \quad (3.4)$$

$$\text{and } VSWR = 2\epsilon - 1 + 2\sqrt{(\epsilon^2 - \epsilon)} \quad (3.5)$$

where  $\epsilon$  is the ripple factor given in chapter one. Having decided on the values of BW and VSWR, a value for  $N$  can be estimated in order to give a minimum stopband attenuation of  $a_s$  as follows,

$$N > \frac{\log(\epsilon_s) - \log(\epsilon - 1) + \log 4}{2\log(2\sin\theta_s/\sin\theta_p)} \quad (3.6)$$

where  $\epsilon_s = (10^{a_s}/10 - 1)$  and  $\theta_s = (\pi f_s/f)$ ,  $\theta_p = (\pi f_p/f)$  and



$f_s$  is the stopband edge frequency. The amplitude response of the resulting filter is given by the expression [12],

$$|H(s)|^2 = \frac{1}{1 + h^2 T_N^2(\sin\theta/\sin\theta_p)} \quad (3.7)$$

where  $T_N$  denotes the Chebychev function of the first kind of degree  $N$  and  $h$  is related to VSWR by the following,

$$\text{VSWR} = 1 + 2h^2 + 2/(h^2 + h^4)$$

Fig. 3.7 illustrates a typical response of a transmission line filter.

### 3.3.2- Finite Wordlength Design (FWLD) of Unit Element WDFs (UEWDFs)

In the previous section, we saw how a WDF can be derived from a cascade of unit element filters. In this section, we develop a subroutine to evaluate the frequency response of the filter for a given set of coefficients at different frequency points.

Analysis of the WDF may be obtained by the use of Wave Chain Matrix (WCM) [82]. The WCM of a network can be defined as (Fig. 3.8),

$$\begin{vmatrix} A1 \\ B1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} B2 \\ A2 \end{vmatrix} \quad (3.8)$$

From eqn. 3.8, we can obtain the following relationships,

$$A1 = A.B2 + B.A2 \quad (3.9a)$$

$$\text{and} \quad B1 = C.B2 + D.A2 \quad (3.9b)$$

If  $A2$  is set equal to zero then,

$$A1 = A.B2 \quad (3.10a)$$

$$\text{and} \quad B1 = C.B2 \quad (3.10b)$$

Sustituting eqn. 3.10a into 3.10b, we obtain,

$$(B2/A1) = (1/A) \quad (3.11a)$$

$$\text{and} \quad (B1/A1) = (C/A) \quad (3.11b)$$

Eqns 3.11a and 3.11b represent the transfer functions of the network at the outputs  $B2$  and  $B1$  respectively. Now, let us consider the transfer function of the WDF in Fig. 3.6. The difference equations of the  $k$ th section in Fig. 3.6 are as follows,

$$B2_k = A1_k + \alpha_k(z^{-1}A2_k - A1_k) \quad (3.12a)$$

$$B1_k = A2_k + \alpha_k(z^{-1}A2_k - A1_k) \quad (3.12b)$$

From Appendix A1, we can write  $A1_k$  and  $B1_k$  in terms of  $A2_k$  and  $B2_k$  as follows,

$$\begin{vmatrix} A1_k \\ B1_k \end{vmatrix} = K \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -\alpha_k z^{-1} \\ \alpha_k & z^{-1} \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} B2_k \\ A2_k \end{vmatrix} \quad (3.13)$$

where  $K=(1/1-\alpha_k)$ . Eqn. 3.13 represent the ABCD matrix of the  $k$ th section in the WDF of Fig. 3.6. In order to evaluate the transfer function of the network at  $\omega_0$ ,  $z^{-1}$  is replaced by  $e^{-j\omega_0 T}$  and the ABCD matrix in eqn. 3.13 must be calculated for every section in the network. The resulting ABCD matrices are multiplied together and the response of the network is evaluated using eqn.



### 3.11a. LATTICE FILTER

A subroutine has been developed to evaluate the frequency response of the UEWDF of Nth order using the above procedure (Appendix A1). This subroutine plus the error subroutine and the optimization subroutine can now be merged together to form a complete program for the FWLD of UEWDFs. The initial coefficients are obtained from the synthesis subroutine in the program, which is based on ref [84].

A listing of the program is included in Appendix B and a brief description of how the program can be used is given in section 3.6.

Analogous lattice filters are known to have low sensitivity properties in the passband. But the stopband sensitivity is high and tuning of the attenuation poles are required during the manufacturing process. This makes analogous lattice filters impractical to use. This disadvantage, however, does not exist for a Lattice Wave Digital Filter (LWDF) since digital filters do not require tuning and are not subject to aging. In fact, due to their simplicity and some other properties, LWDFs are in some respects the most attractive structures available for use in communication systems [11, 77, 81].

The realization of lattice filters depends on how the lattice reactances are realized. In the next section,

### 3.4.0- Lattice WDFs

#### 3.4.1- Introduction

The second prototype we use to derive the WDF is a doubly terminated lossless symmetric lattice network (Fig. 3.9). It is well known that the number of distinct elements in the two canonic lattice impedances of a symmetric lc-filter is, in general, less than that of the ladder filter [85]. There also exists a lattice equivalent for every symmetric ladder filter. This reduction in the number of elements in a lattice filter results in fewer multipliers if the analogue lattice filter is used to derive a WDF.

Analogue lattice filters are known to have low sensitivity properties in the passband, but the stopband sensitivity is high and tuning of the attenuation poles are required during the manufacturing process. This makes analogue lattice filters impractical to use. This disadvantage, however, does not exist for a Lattice Wave Digital Filter (LTWDF) since digital filters do not require tuning and are not subject to ageing. In fact, due to their simplicity and some other properties, LTWDFs are in some respect the most attractive structures available for use in communication systems [71,72,81].

The realisation of lattice filters depends on how the lattice reactances are realised. In the next section,

we briefly look at the basic theory of LTWDFs and how they can be realised.

### 3.4.2- Basic Theory

Fig. 3.9 illustrates a classical lattice filter terminated between resistances  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ . For our purpose, we assume that the termination resistances are equal, i.e.  $R_1=R_2=R$ .  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$  are the lattice impedences for port one and two respectively.

In Appendix 'C', we derive the realationships between the reflectances, transmittances, scattering parameters and the incident/reflected wave vectors. In view of these realationships, we can consider that the analogue scattering matrix,  $S$ , is equal to that of the WDF,  $S'$ , since the termination resistances are chosen to be equal (eqns A.7). Thus, the two scattering matrices can replace each other without causing any confusion. Also, from ref [86], we can write,

$$S_1 = S_{11} - S_{21} \quad (3.15a)$$

$$\text{and} \quad S_2 = S_{11} + S_{21} \quad (3.15b)$$

where  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are the reflectances for port one and two respectively and  $S_{11}$  and  $S_{21}$  are the scattering parameters. From eqn. 3.15 and the symmetrical nature of the lattice network, we can write,

$$S_{11} = S_{22} = (S_1 + S_2)/2 \quad (3.16a)$$

$$\text{and} \quad S_{12} = S_{21} = (S_2 - S_1)/2 \quad (3.16b)$$

Since the lattice filter is symmetric and also  $Z_1$  and

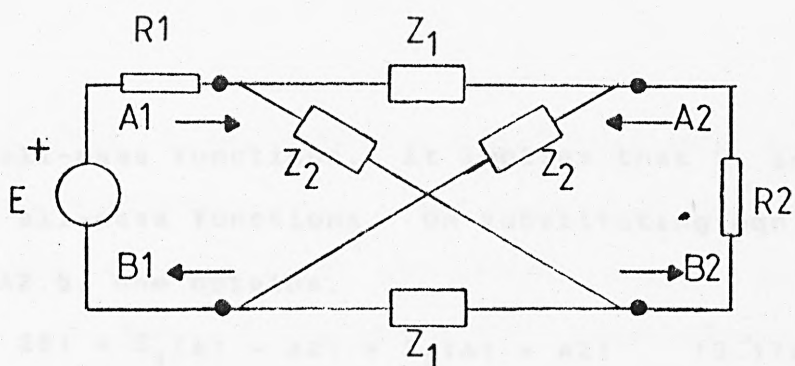


Fig.3.9\_ Lattice analogue filter .

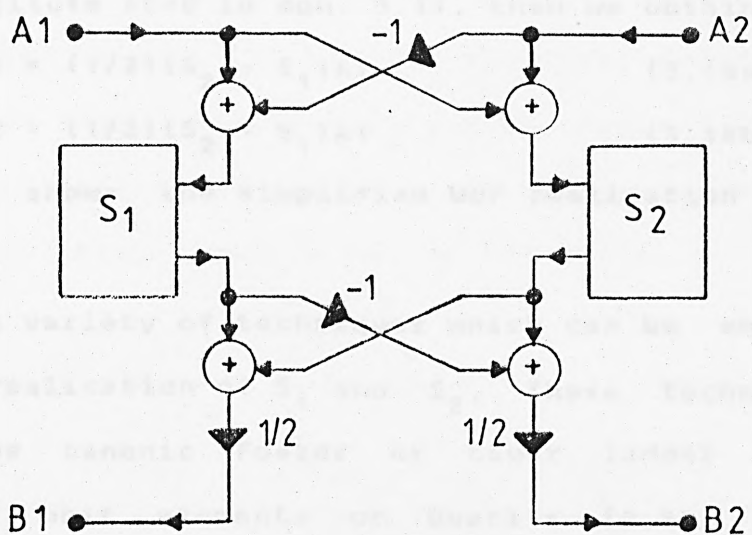


Fig.3.10\_ Wave realisation of Fig.3.9 .

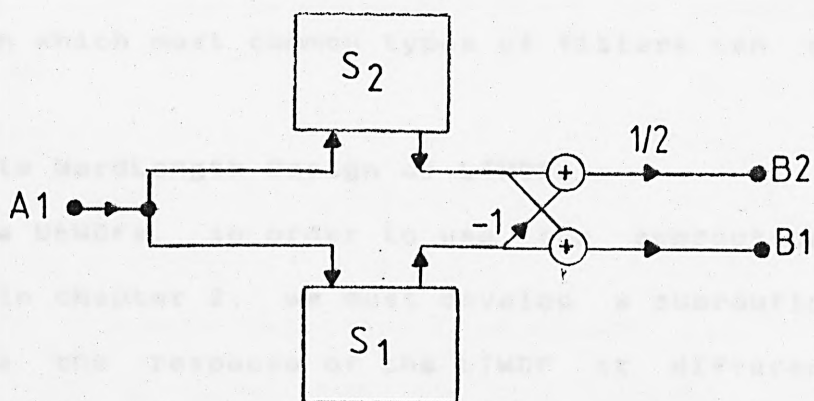


Fig.3.11\_ LWDF with  $A_2 = 0$  .

$Z_2$  are all-pass functions, it implies that  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are also all-pass functions. On substituting eqn. 3.16 in eqn. A2.5, one obtains,

$$2B1 = S_1(A1 - A2) + S_2(A1 + A2) \quad (3.17a)$$

and  $2B2 = S_1(A2 - A1) + S_2(A1 + A2) \quad (3.17b)$

Fig. 3.10 illustrates the WDF realisation of eqn. 3.17.

If we substitute  $A2=0$  in eqn. 3.17, then we obtain,

$$B1 = (1/2)(S_2 + S_1)A1 \quad (3.18a)$$

and  $B2 = (1/2)(S_2 - S_1)A1 \quad (3.18b)$

Fig. 3.11 shows the simplified WDF realisation of a LTWDF.

There are a variety of techniques which can be employed for WDF realisation of  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . These techniques include the canonic Foster or Cauer ladder [87], cascade of unit elements or Quarl's [2,88], the procedure discussed for the realisation of all-pass transfer functions [2] or using the IVR transformation [27]. Recently Gazsi has presented direct design methods with which most common types of filters can be designed.

#### 3.4.3- Finite WordLength Design of LTWDFs

As with the UEWDFs, in order to use the subroutines developed in chapter 2, we must develop a subroutine to evaluate the response of the LTWDF at different frequency points for a set of coefficients. The LTWDFs designed using Gazsi's method require only 2-port



adaptors. Fig. 3.12a shows a Nth order LTWDF realised using 2-port adaptors only. The elementary sections in Fig. 3.12a are the first and second degree all-pass sections of Fig. 3.12b and 3.12c respectively. The first degree all-pass section is a 2-port adaptor which has its A2 inputs equal to  $z^{-1}B_2$  (Fig. 3.12b) and the second one is the cascade of two 2-port adaptors as shown in Fig. 3.12c. Let us call the first degree all-pass section (Fig. 3.12b)  $APS_1$  and the second one  $APS_2$  and let  $G_1(z)$  and  $G_2(z)$  denote their transfer functions respectively. From Appendix A2, we can write,

$$G_1(z) = \frac{B_1}{A_1} = \frac{z^{-1} - \alpha}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}} \quad (3.19)$$

and

$$G_2(z) = \frac{B_1}{A_1} = \frac{z^{-2} + \alpha_2 z^{-1}(\alpha_1 - 1) - \alpha_1}{1 + \alpha_2 z^{-1}(\alpha_1 - 1) - \alpha_1 z^{-2}} \quad (3.20)$$

Now we can redraw Fig. 3.12a using  $APS_1$  and  $APS_2$  blocks as shown in Fig. 3.13. The transfer function of the LTWDF,  $G(z)$ , can now be evaluated using the following relationships,

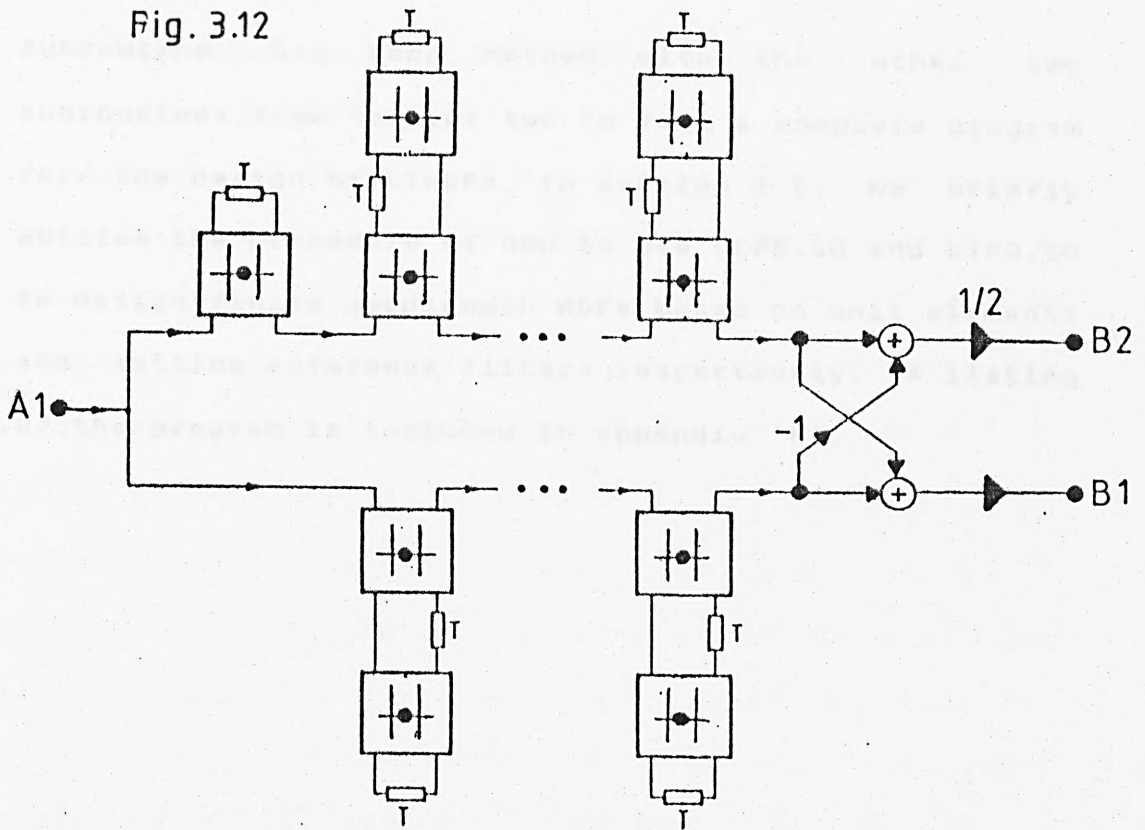
$$G(z) = (1/2)[S_1(z) + S_2(z)] \quad (3.21)$$

where  $S_1(z) = G_1(z) \prod_k G_2^k(z) \quad k=1,3,\dots \quad (3.22)$

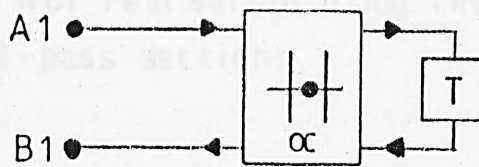
and  $S_2(z) = \prod_k G_2^k(z) \quad k=2,4,\dots \quad (3.23)$

A subroutine has been developed to evaluate  $G(e^{j\omega_k T})$ ,  $k=1,2,\dots$ , for a given set of coefficients. This

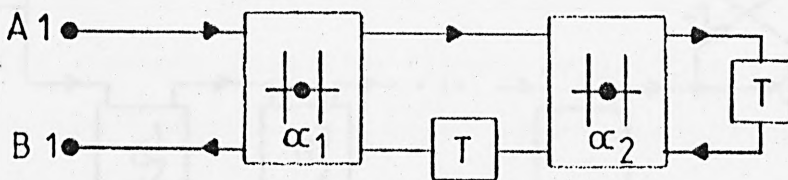
Fig. 3.12



a). Nth order LTWDF using 2-port adaptor .



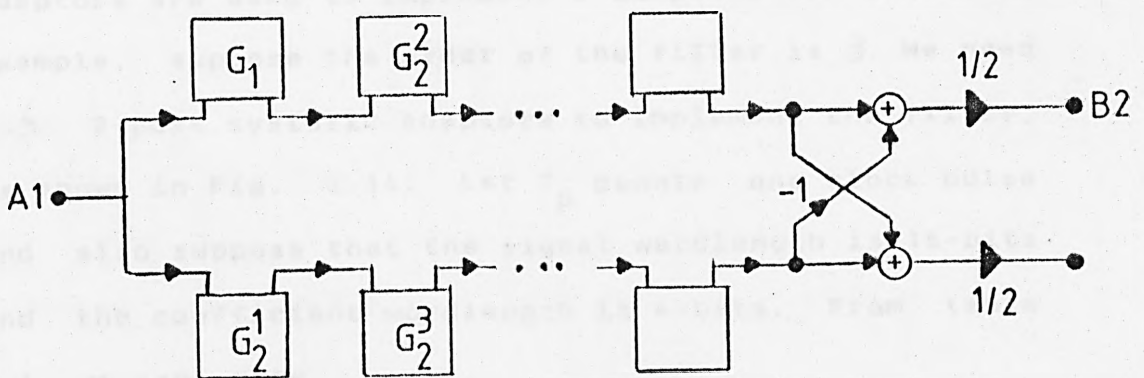
b). First degree all-pass section.



c). Second degree all-pass section.

subroutine has been merged with the other two subroutines from chapter two to form a complete program for the design of LTWDFs. In section 3.6, we briefly outline the procedure of how to use UEF0.S0 and LTF0.S0 to design finite wordlength WDFs based on unit elements and lattice reference filters respectively. A listing of the program is included in Appendix 'B'.

Fig.3.13- LTWDF realisation using first and second all-pass sections.



### 3.5.0- Implementation of complete filters

#### 3.5.1- Unit Element WDFs

As mentioned in section 3.3, the two port adaptor can be cascaded to form a complete filter by connecting a delay between every two adaptors (Fig. 3.6). The introduction of the delays enables us to pipeline the structure at filter level. From Fig. 3.6 and eqns. 3.2, it can be seen that at adaptor '1',  $B2_1$  and  $B1_1$  can be computed since both  $A1_1$  and  $A2_1$  are known. Then at adaptor '2',  $B2_2$  and  $B1_2$  can be computed since  $A1_2$  and  $A2_2$  are known. At this stage a new sample can enter the filter since the new value of  $A2_1$  has been evaluated. Therefore input samples can be fed into the filter every two clock pulses, where one clock pulse is the time taken for one adaptor to operate, irrespective of the order of the filter.

The same principle applies when the 2-port systolic adaptors are used to implement a complete filter. As an example, suppose the order of the filter is 3. We need 4 2-port systolic adaptors to implement the filter, as shown in Fig. 3.14. Let  $T_p$  denote one clock pulse and also suppose that the signal wordlength is 16-bits and the coefficient wordlength is 4-bits. From table 3.1, we can write,

$$T_p = 1.9 \text{ MHz}$$

Therefore the sampling frequency of the filter can be

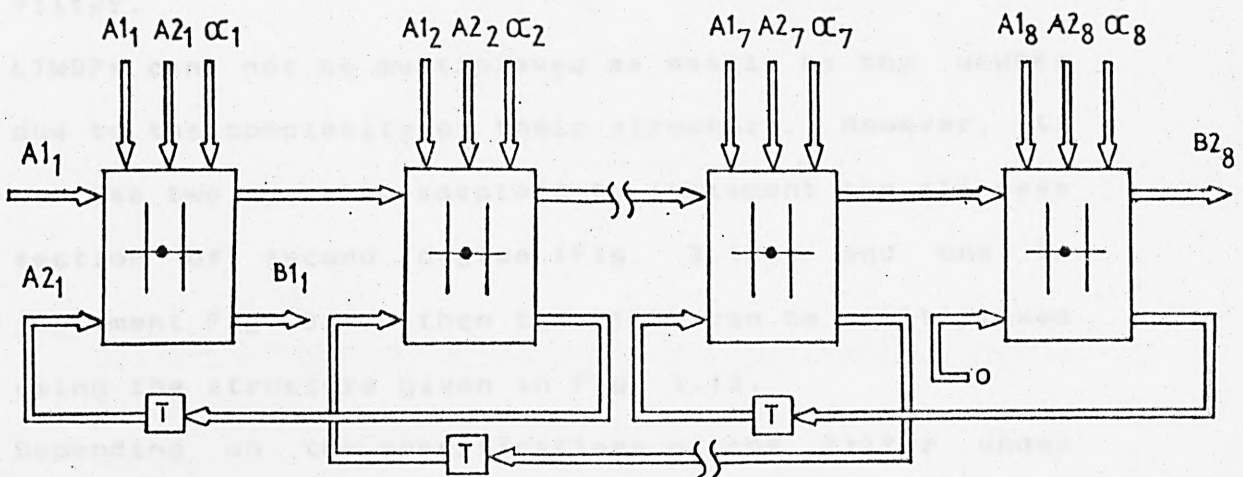
up to about 1.0 MHz, i.e.  $(T_p/2)$ . The number of transistors needed to implement the complete filter would be,

$$(4 \times 11968) + NT_d \approx 100,000$$

where  $NT_d$  denotes the number of transistors needed to implement the delays between the adaptors. Using a CMOS  $1.0\mu$  technology [89], this filter can easily be implemented on a single VLSI chip.

The other possible implementation would be to multiplex one 2-port adaptor to the required order. This will of course increase the hardware complexity, since more control is required, and also decreases the throughput of the structure. In refs [39,40], hardware has been designed to implement a unit element filter by

Fig.3.14-7th order UEWDF using 2-port systolic adaptors.





multiplexing a 2-port adaptor. Use of this systolic adaptor in this hardware would reduce the complexity of the design significantly. Fig. 3.15 shows one possible arrangement for the implementation of a multiplexed unit element WDF based on a 2-port systolic adaptor.

### 3.5.2- Lattice WDFs

LTWDFs can also be implemented using only 2-port adaptors. The hardware implementation of LTWDFs are more complex than that of the UEWDFs. When the LTWDFs are implemented in a parallel form (Fig. 3.12a), then the 2-port adaptors can be replaced with the systolic adaptors. The sampling rate of the filter would be again irrespective of the filter order, since the delays between the adaptors enable the structure to be pipelined. The sampling frequency would be  $T_p/2$  since every two clock pulses a new sample can be fed into the filter.

LTWDFs can not be multiplexed as easily as the UEWDFs due to the complexity of their structure. However, if we use two systolic adaptors to implement the all-pass section of second degree (Fig. 3.12c) and one to implement Fig. 3.12b then the LTWDF can be multiplexed using the structure given in Fig. 3.13.

Depending on the specifications of the filter under consideration, one subclass of LTWDFs can be formed by

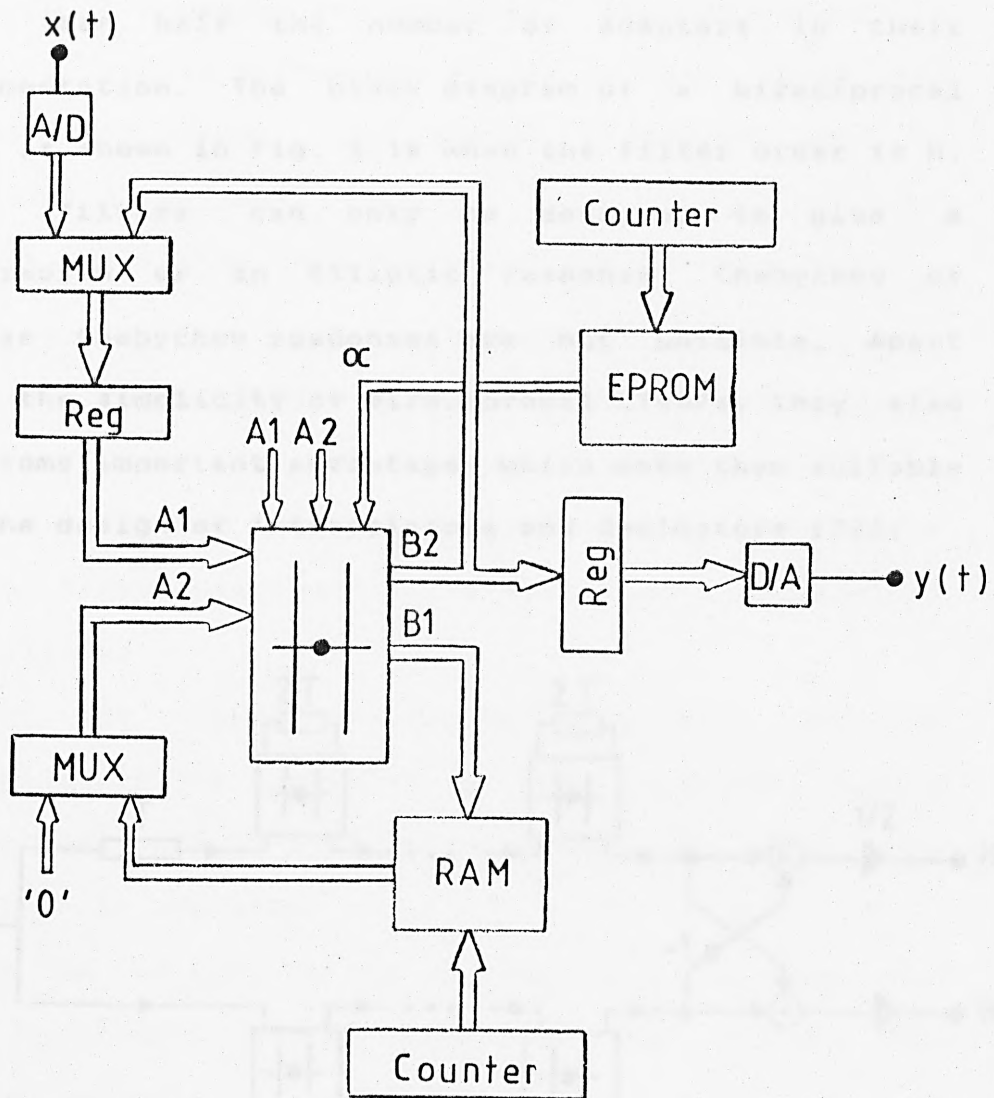


Fig.3.15 \_ Multiplexed UEWDF using a 2-port systolic adaptor.

the filters with bireciprocal or self-reciprocal characteristic functions [90,91]. The resulting LTWDFs are much simpler than the usual LTWDFs and they require less than half the number of adaptors in their implementation. The block diagram of a bireciprocal LTWDF is shown in Fig. 3.16 when the filter order is  $N$ . These filters can only be designed to give a Butterworth or an Elliptic response. Chebychev or Inverse Chebychev responses are not possible. Apart from the simplicity of bireciprocal LTWDFs, they also have some important advantages which make them suitable for the design of interpolators and decimators [72].

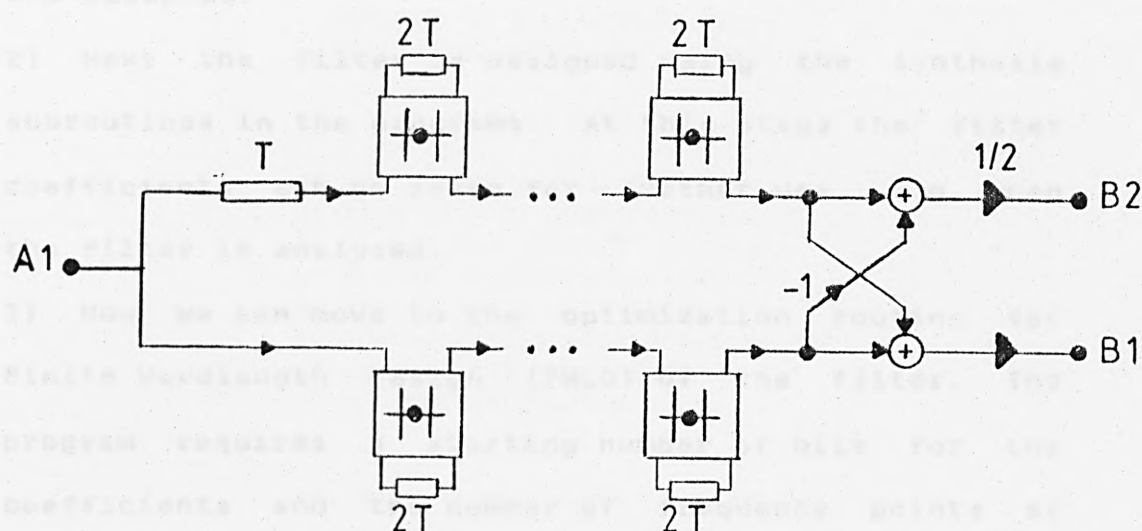


Fig. 3.16-  $N$ th order bireciprocal LTWDF.

### 3.6.0- Description of UEFD.S0 and LTFD.S0 Programs

Fig. 3.17a and 3.17b show the main menus of the UEFD.S0 and LTFD.S0 programs respectively. The procedures to design a finite wordlength filter in both cases are roughly the same. The design procedure can be summarized as follows.

- 1) First the filter specifications are entered, i.e  $f_p$ ,  $a_p$ ,  $f_s$  and  $a_s$ . The sampling frequency is normalised to 1 HZ. The program will estimate the minimum value of  $N$ , the filter order, to meet the specifications. In the case of LTFD.S0, this value will be given for three types of filter responses, i.e Butterworth, Chebychev and Elliptic.
- 2) Next the filter is designed using the synthesis subroutines in the programs. At this stage the filter coefficients can be saved for further use, e.g when the filter is analysed.
- 3) Now we can move to the optimization routine for Finite Wordlength Design (FWLD) of the filter. The program requires a starting number of bits for the coefficients and the number of frequency points at which the filter will be analysed. The finite wordlength subroutine generates a report of how the search algorithm is progressing by printing the values of  $a_p$  and  $a_s$  whenever the exploratory moves contain a success. If the algorithm does not manage to design the

Fig. 3.17

PROGRAM TO DESIGN WDFs BASED  
ON UNIT ELEMENT REFERENCE FILTERS

MAIN MENU

- 1) ENTER SPECIFICATIONS.
- 2) DESIGN USING SYNTHESIS.
- 3) DESIGN FINITE WORDLENGTH FILTERS.
- 4) SAVE FILTER COEFFICIENTS.
- 5) READ INITIAL COEFFICIENTS.
- 6) END DESIGN PROGRAM.

a). Main menu of UEFD.S0 program.

PROGRAM TO DESIGN WDFs BASED  
ON LATTICE REFERENCE FILTERS

MAIN MENU

- 1) ENTER SPECIFICATIONS.
- 2) READ INITIAL COEFFICIENTS.
- 3) DESIGN BUTTERWORTH FILTERS.
- 4) DESIGN CHEBYCHEV FILTERS.
- 5) DESIGN ELLIPTIC FILTERS.
- 6) DESIGN FINITE WORDLENGTH FILTERS.
- 7) SAVE FILTER COEFFICIENTS.
- 8) END DESIGN PROGRAM.

b). Main menu of LTFD.S0 program.



filter for the required number of bits, it increases the number of bits for the coefficients by one and starts all over again. If the specifications are met then the final coefficients, the final values of  $a_p$  and  $a_s$  and the number of times that the error function subroutine is called will be printed. At this stage the user can either save the coefficients and terminate the program or continue with a smaller number of bits.

There are also other facilities in the programs, such as the user entry of the initial coefficients for the WDF at the terminal. These values can be generated using a random number generator program. This option is useful when we wish to design the WDF directly in the discrete time domain.

When the filter has been designed, the response of the filter can be checked by using a program called ANAWDF. This program has been developed to analyse any type of WDFs based on unit element, lattice and lc-ladder filters with inserted unit elements. The program generates graphical outputs showing the different frequency responses of the filter. Fig 3.18 shows the main menu of ANAWDF. Before the program displays the main menu, the user is asked to enter the type of WDF that is going to be analysed. From Fig. 3.18, the user is able to quantize the coefficients and investigate the effects of quantization on the response of the

# PROGRAM TO ANALYSE WDFs

## MAIN MENU

- 1) READ WDFs COEFFICIENTS.
- 2) QUANTIZE COEFFICIENTS.
- 3) ANALYSE IDEAL FILTER.
- 4) ANALYSE FILTER WITH QUANTIZED COEFFICIENTS.
- 5) ANALYSE FILTER WITH FINITE WORDLENGTH COEFFICIENTS.
- 6) PLOT RESPONSES ON THE SAME AXIS.
- 7) END ANALYSIS PROGRAM.

Fig. 3.18- Main menu of ANAWDF program.

# PROGRAM TO SIMULATE WDFs

## MAIN MENU

- 1) READ COEFFICIENTS.
- 2) CHOOSE INPUT SIGNAL.
- 3) SIMULATE FILTER WITH 2-PORT ADAPTORS.
- 4) SIMULATE FILTER WITH 2-PORT SYSTOLIC ADAPTORS.
- 5) SIMULATE FILTER WITH QUANTIZED COEFFICIENTS.
- 6) SAVE FILTER RESPONSES.
- 7) END SIMULATION PROGRAM.

Fig. 3.19- Main menu of SIMWDF program.

filter. Also the three frequency responses, i.e the ideal case , with quantized coefficients and with FWLD program coefficients, can be plotted on the same axis. The other tool developed to check the filter designs is the simulation program called SIMWDF. Fig. 3.19 illustrates the main menu of SIMWDF. Again before this menu the user is asked to enter the type of filter under consideration. This program also includes the simulation of systolic WDFs using 2-port and 3-port adaptors. The program allows the user to select three different input signals. These are, an impulse, a step or a sinewave. Also the user can create input signals by adding sinewaves of different frequencies. This type of inputs are useful to check whether the filter can filter out the high frequency signals, assuming that the filter under testing is a lowpass filter. Again the filter coefficients can be quantized and the filter responses can be saved to be plotted using a general purpose plot routine developed by the author.

### 3.7.0- Analysis and Simulation Results

In this section, we consider the performance of the FWLD programs and the systolic WDFs by means of several examples. The filter examples are designed using UEFD.S0 and LTFD.S0 programs. The designs are then analysed using ANAWDF program. The results from the ANAWDF program demonstrate the effects of finite wordlength on the frequency response of the filters. The simulation of the systolic WDFs are obtained using SIMWDF program.

The procedure with which the filters are designed and checked is described in detail for the first two examples. For the other examples, we only present the results and detailed explanations are not given.

Table 3.2 illustrates 4 filter specifications which are going to be considered in these examples. In all the plots obtained from the ANAWDF program the curves marked

Filter No.	Pass band Edge Freq	Stop band Edge Freq	Max Ripple in Passband	Min Loss in Stopband
1	0.10	0.20	1.0	50
2	0.10	0.30	0.5	55
3	0.25	0.35	1.0	60
4	0.05	0.10	0.5	60

Sampling Frequency is Normalised to 1.0 HZ.

Table 3.2

by '+' denote the frequency responses of the ideal filters, curves marked by 'x' denote the frequency responses of the filters with quantized coefficients and curves marked by 'o' denote the frequency responses of the filters with FWLD program coefficients. When we use the term number of bits, this does not include the sign bit and only represents the number of bits required to express the magnitude of the coefficients.

One measure of the speed of the design programs is to count the number of times that the error function subroutine is called, i.e to find what the variable NFUNC is. It has been experienced that, for many cases, this number can be kept low if the number of bits for the coefficients is reduced gradually. This means that the initial coefficients are first quantized to a number of bits which is not very small, say 10 or 8-bits. If the algorithm succeeds in designing the filter for this then the number of bits is reduced by one and the program is run again.

#### 3.7.1- Example 3.1

In the first example, we consider the design of a UEWDF for filter No.1. Using option (1) in the main menu of the UEFD.S0 program (Fig. 3.17a) the specifications of the filter are entered. A 7th order UEWDF is required to meet the specifications. The filter was then designed using the synthesis subroutine, i.e option



(2). These coefficients were saved and then fed into the optimization routine using option (3). The optimization routine managed to minimize the number of bits for the coefficients to 6. The synthesis coefficients and the FWLD program coefficients are listed below,

	Synthesis Coeff	FWLD Coeff 6-bits
1)	-0.7481353	-0.6875
2)	0.9203713	0.890625
3)	-0.9425427	-0.921875
4)	0.9457231	0.9375
5)	-0.9457231	-0.9375
6)	0.9425427	0.9375
7)	-0.9203713	-0.890625
8)	0.7481353	0.640625

Fig. 3.20 shows the frequency responses of the filter for (a) ideal filter, (b) with 6-bit coefficients and (c) with 6-bit coefficients from FWLD program. As it can be seen from Fig. 3.20, when the coefficients are quantized to 6-bits the passband ripple of the filter is more than 1.0 DB. The passband ripple of the filter with FWLD program coefficients however is less than 1.0 DB. The stopband attenuation in both cases is more than 50 DB. The number of times that the error subroutine was called is 1352, i.e NFUNC=1352.

Next we look at the simulation of the systolic UEWDF. The synthesis coefficients were fed into the SIMWDF program using option (1) in Fig. 3.19. The input signal was chosen to be an impulse. Fig. 3.21a illustrates the impulse response of the systolic filter against the

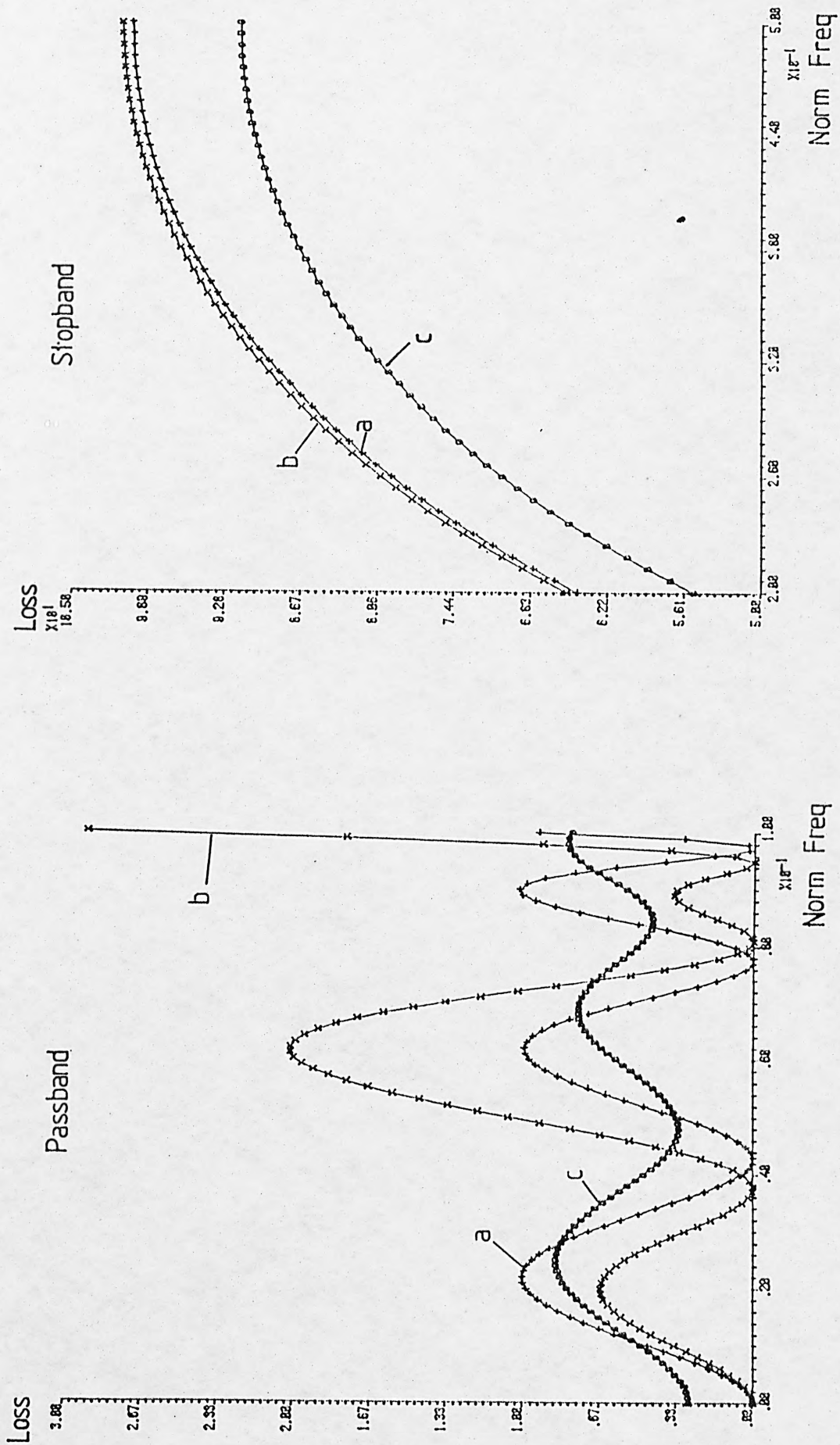


Fig. 3.20 — Frequency responses for example 3.1.

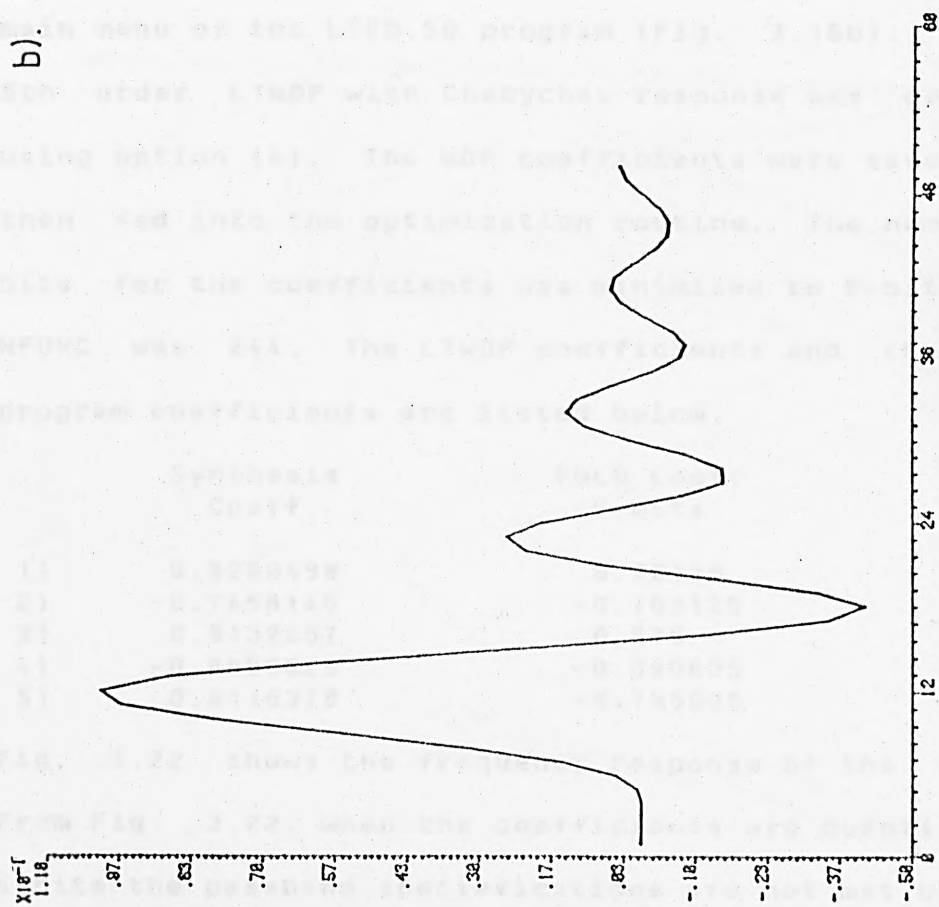
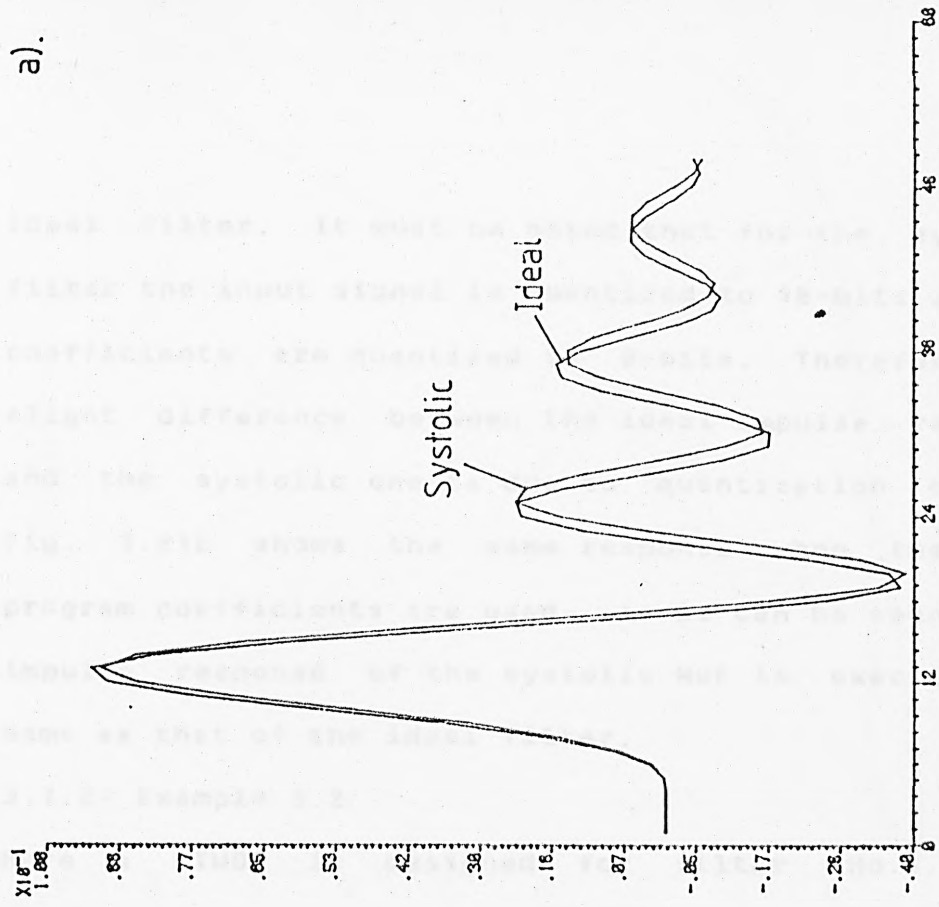


Fig.3.21\_ Impulse responses for example 3.1 .

a). With synthesis coefficients .

b). With FWD program coefficients .

ideal filter. It must be noted that for the systolic filter the input signal is quantized to 16-bits and the coefficients are quantized to 8-bits. Therefore the slight difference between the ideal impulse response and the systolic one is due to quantization errors. Fig. 3.21b shows the same response when the FWLD program coefficients are used. As it can be seen, the impulse response of the systolic WDF is exactly the same as that of the ideal filter.

### 3.7.2- Example 3.2

Here a LTWDF is designed for filter No.1. The specifications were entered using option (1) in the main menu of the LTFD.S0 program (Fig. 3.16b). Next a 5th order LTWDF with Chebychev response was designed using option (4). The WDF coefficients were saved and then fed into the optimization routine. The number of bits for the coefficients was minimized to 6-bits and NFUNC was 244. The LTWDF coefficients and the FWLD program coefficients are listed below,

	Synthesis Coeff	FWLD Coeff 6-bits
1)	0.8280498	0.78125
2)	-0.7458148	-0.703125
3)	0.9132857	0.875
4)	-0.8999829	-0.890625
5)	0.8110378	-0.765625

Fig. 3.22 shows the frequency response of the LTWDF. From Fig. 3.22, when the coefficients are quantized to 6-bits the passband specifications are not met by the

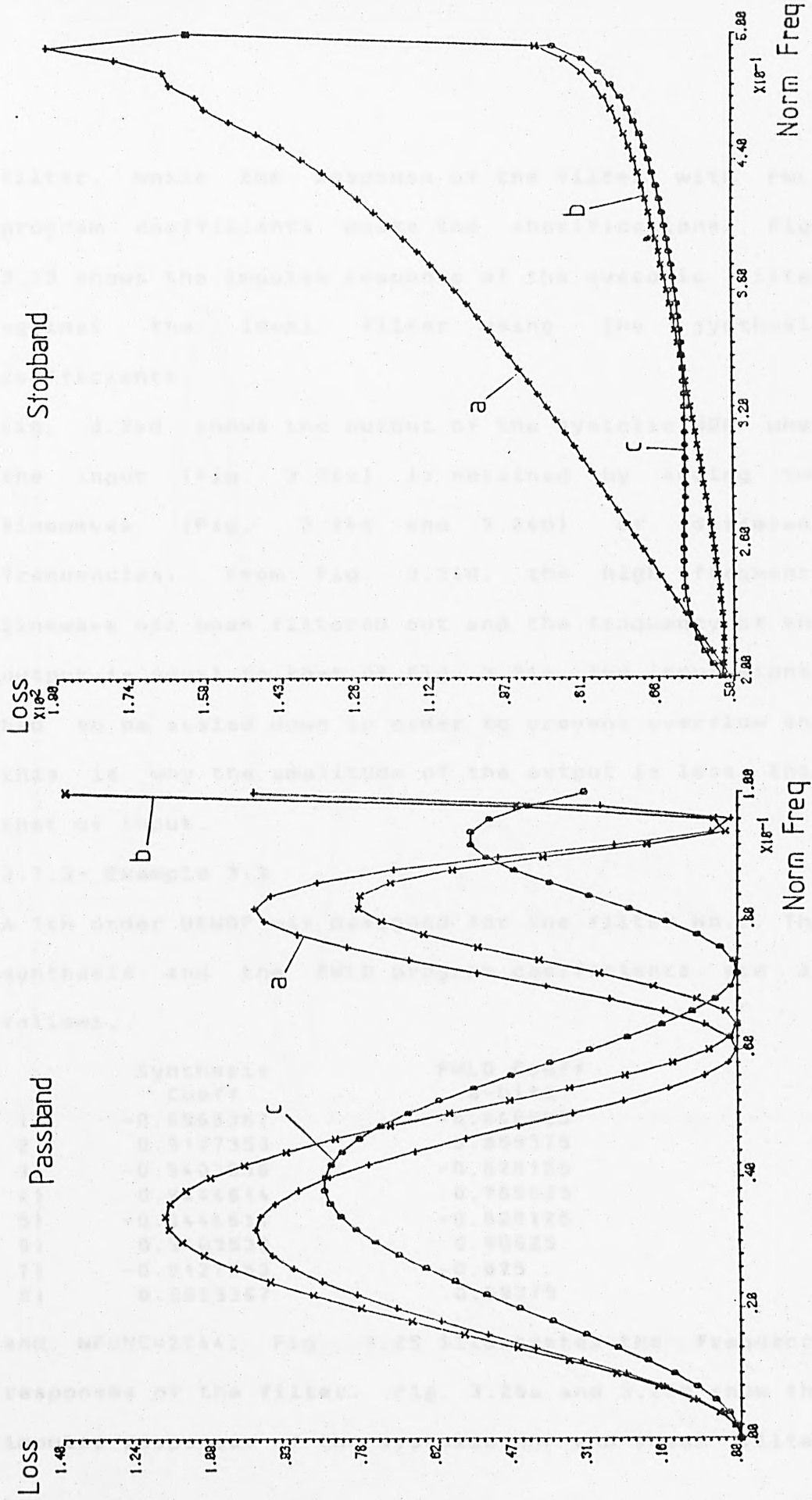


Fig. 3.22 \_ Frequency responses for example 3.2 .



filter, while the response of the filter with FWLD program coefficients meets the specifications. Fig. 3.23 shows the impulse response of the systolic filter against the ideal filter using the synthesis coefficients.

Fig. 3.24d shows the output of the systolic WDF when the input (Fig. 3.24c) is obtained by adding two sinewaves (Fig. 3.24a and 3.24b) of different frequencies. From Fig. 3.24d, the high frequency sinewave has been filtered out and the frequency of the output is equal to that of Fig. 3.24a. The input signal had to be scaled down in order to prevent overflow and this is why the amplitude of the output is less than that of input.

### 3.7.3- Example 3.3

A 7th order UEWDF was designed for the filter No.2. The synthesis and the FWLD program coefficients are as follows.

	Synthesis Coeff	FWLD Coeff 6-bits
1)	-0.6963367	-0.640625
2)	0.9127353	0.859375
3)	-0.9403536	-0.828125
4)	0.9444614	0.765625
5)	-0.9444614	-0.828125
6)	0.9403536	0.90625
7)	-0.9127353	-0.875
8)	0.6963367	0.59375

and NFUNC=2744. Fig. 3.25 illustrates the frequency responses of the filter. Fig. 3.26a and 3.26b show the impulse responses of the systolic WDF and ideal filter

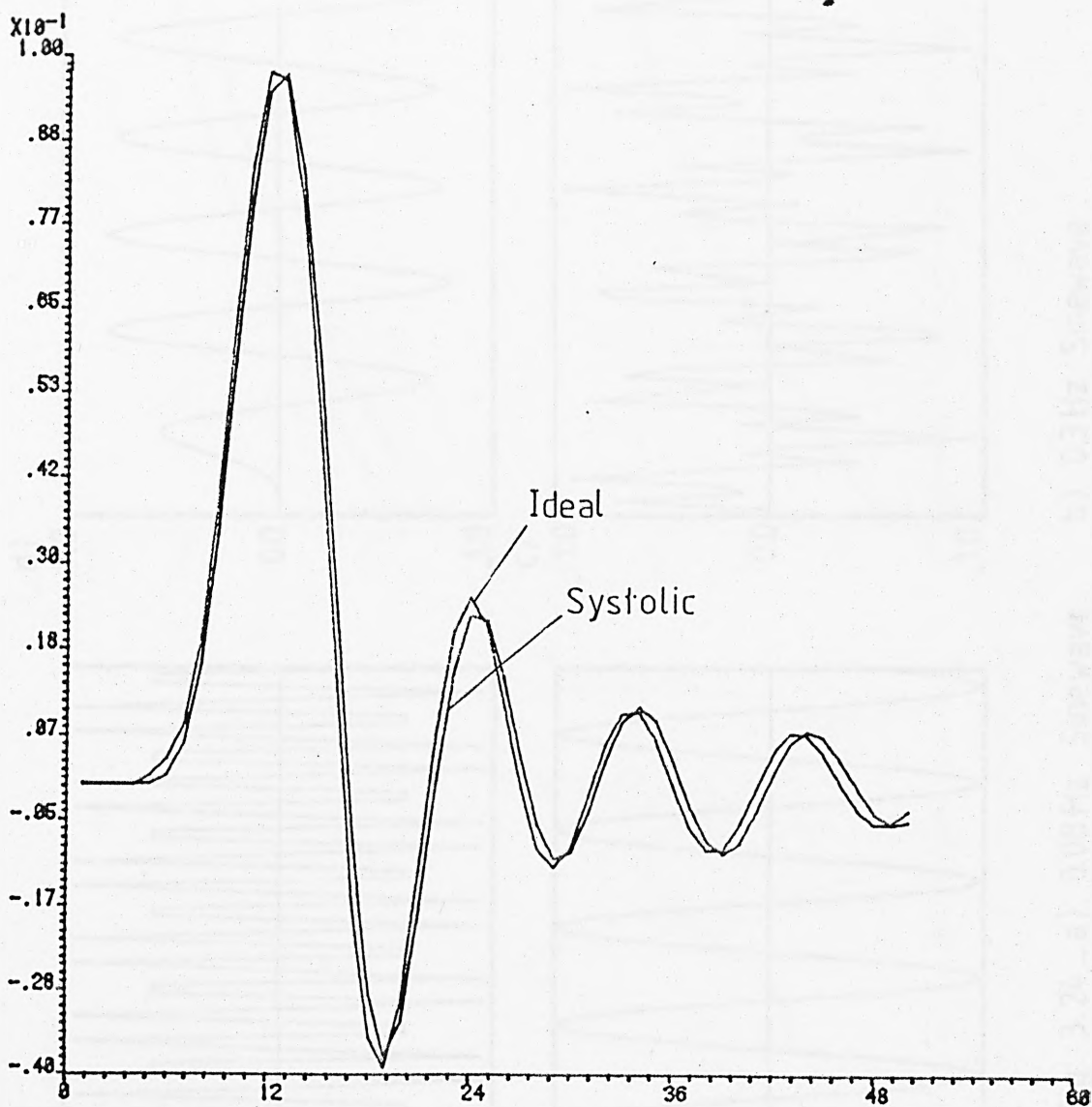


Fig. 3.23— Impulse responses for example 3.2 with synthesis coefficients.

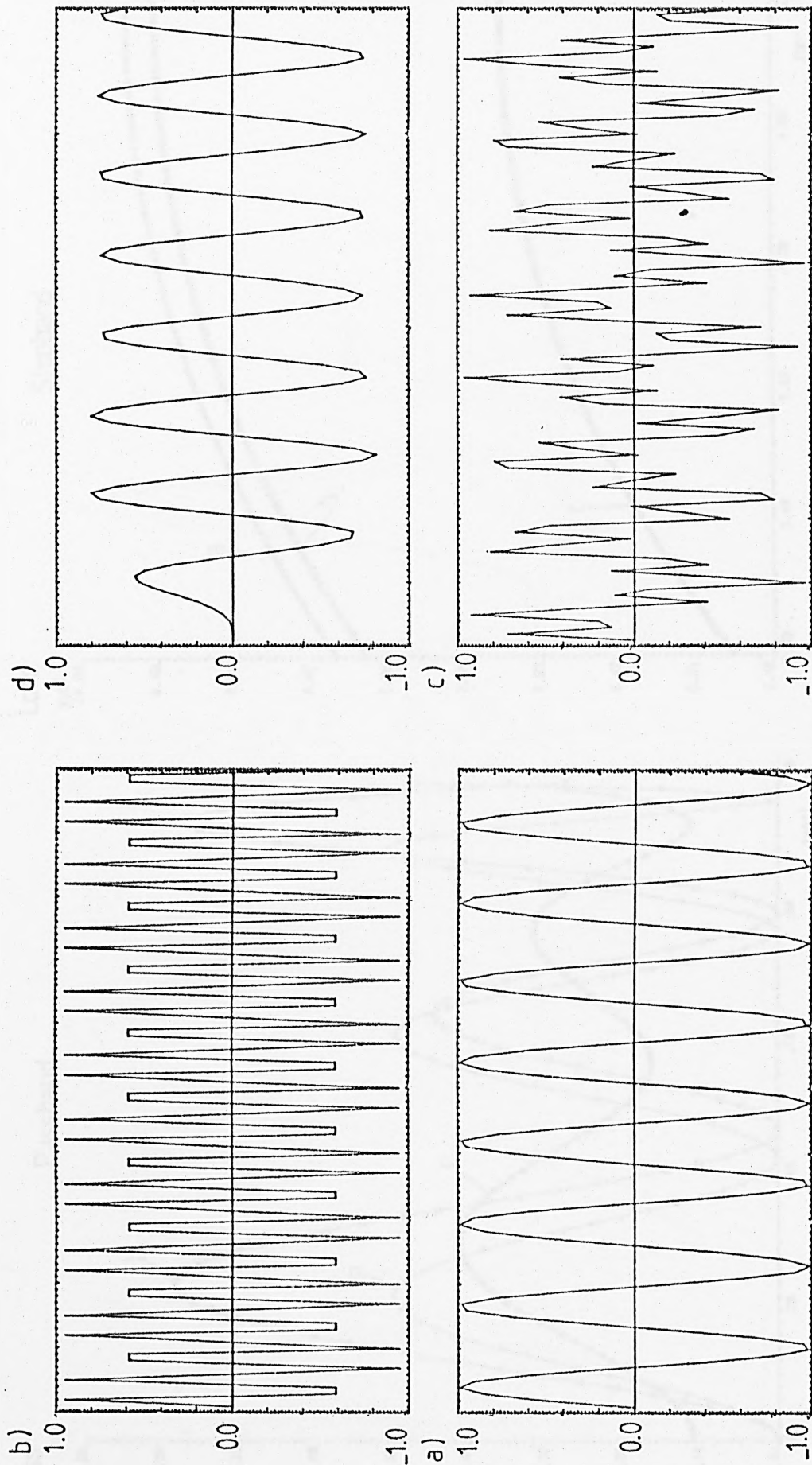


Fig. 3.24 \_a). 0.08 Hz Sinewave . b). 0.3 Hz Sinewave .  
c). Input. d). Output.

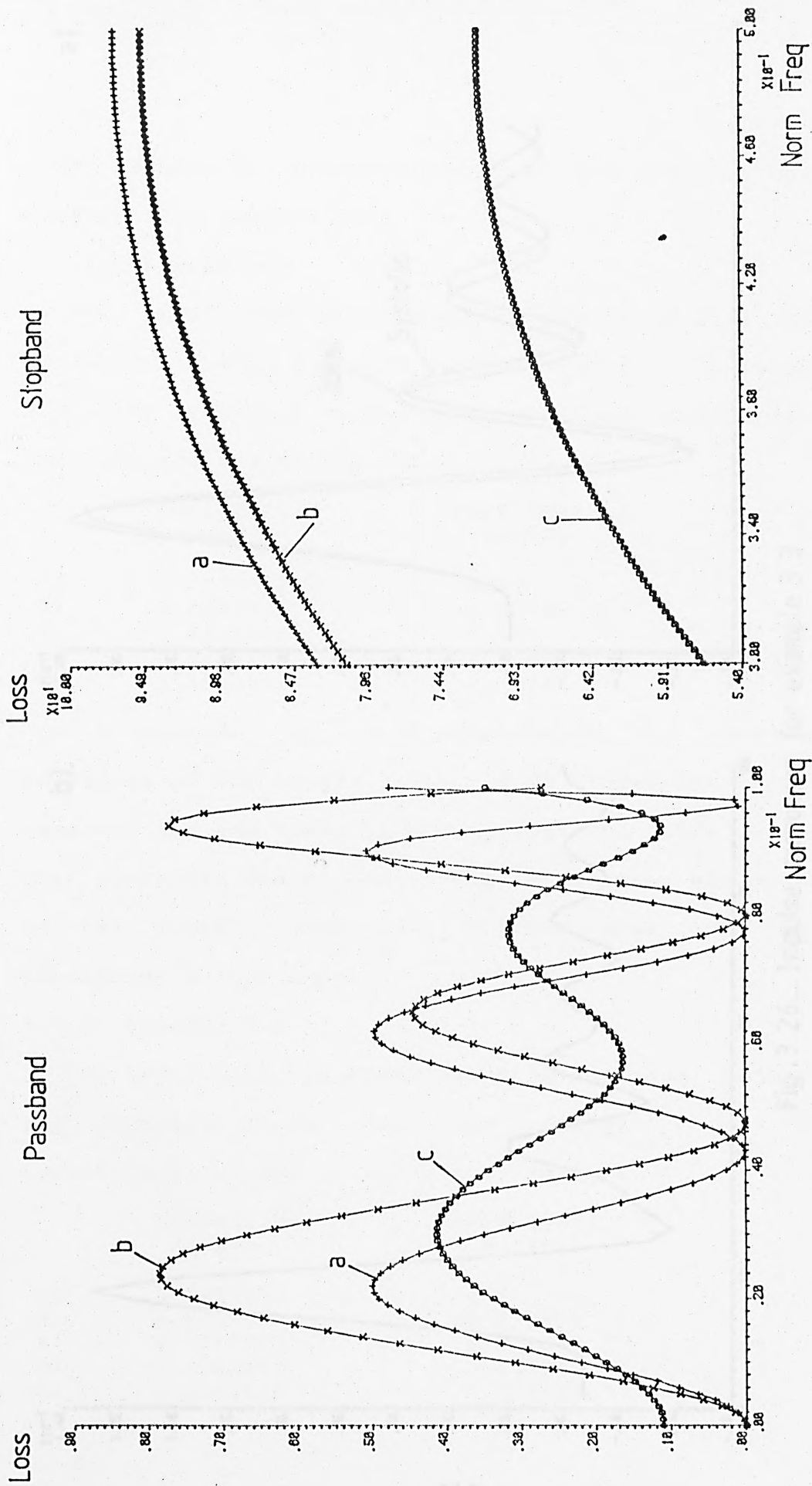


Fig. 3.25\_ Frequency responses for example 3.3 .

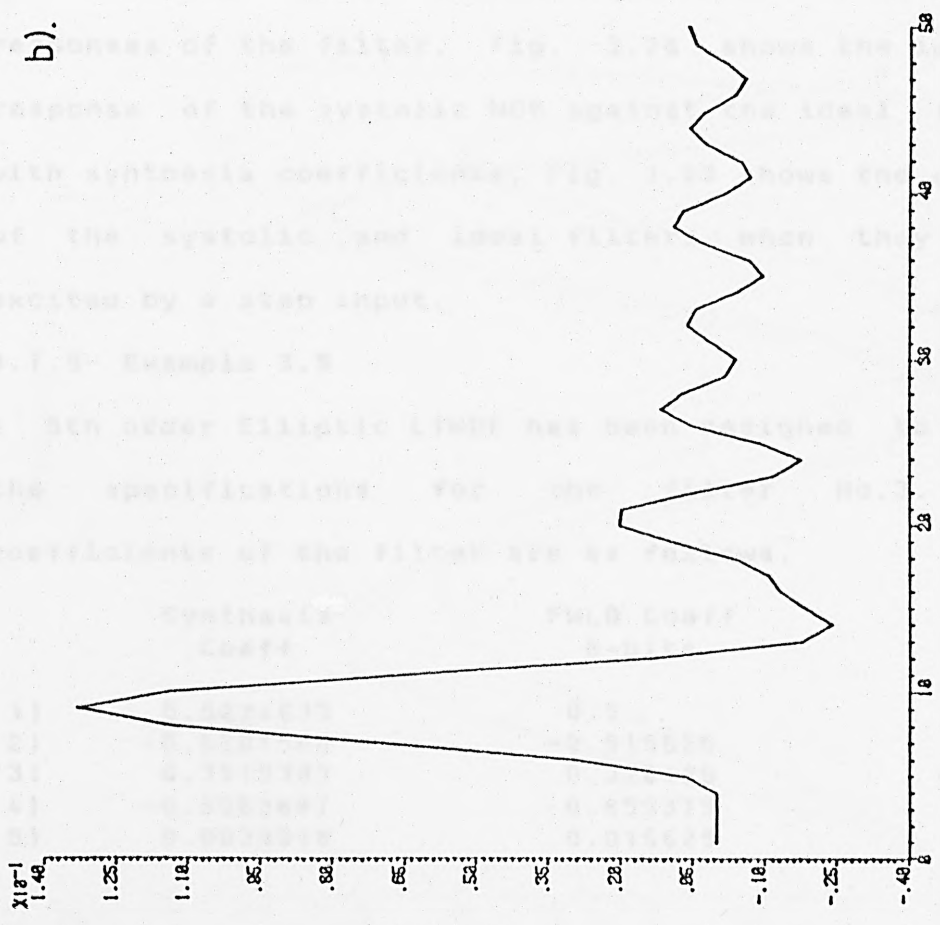
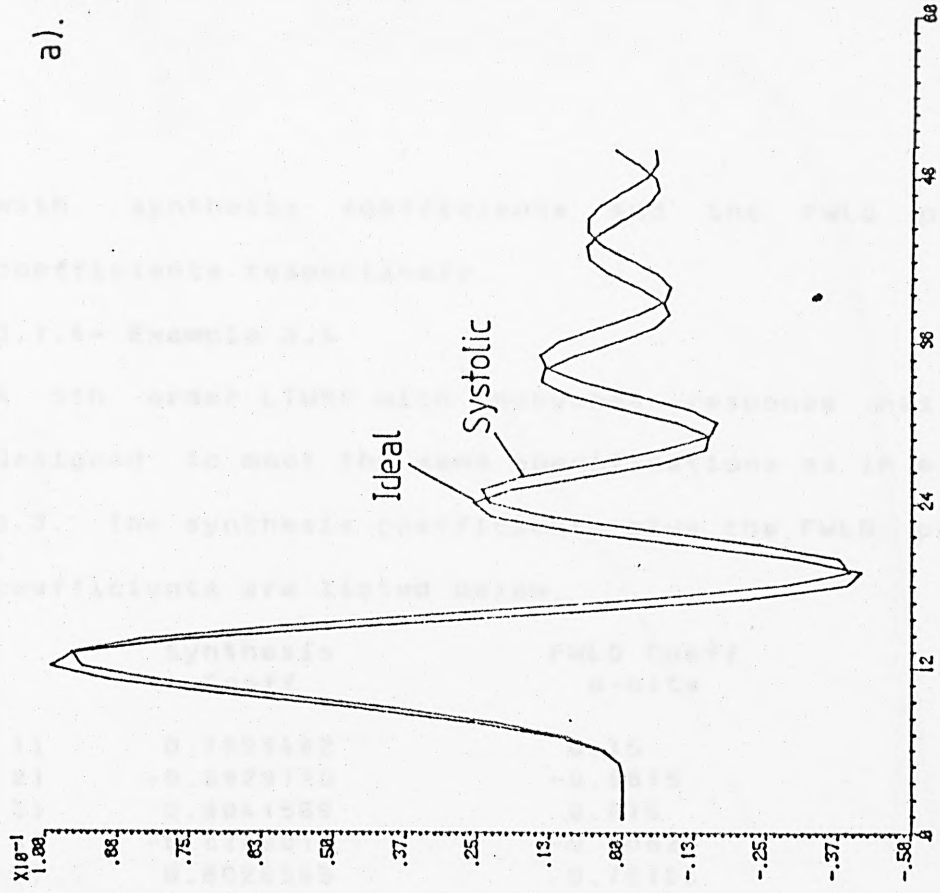


Fig. 3.26 — Impulse responses for example 3.3 .

a). With synthesis coefficients .

b). With FWLD program coefficients .



with synthesis coefficients and the FWLD program coefficients respectively.

#### 3.7.4- Example 3.4

A 5th order LTWDF with Chebychev response has been designed to meet the same specifications as in example 3.3. The synthesis coefficients plus the FWLD program coefficients are listed below,

	Synthesis Coeff	FWLD Coeff 6-bits
1)	0.7893492	0.75
2)	-0.6929720	-0.6875
3)	0.9041569	0.875
4)	-0.8769015	-0.90625
5)	0.8028565	0.78125

and NFUNC=103. Fig. 3.27 illustrates the frequency responses of the filter. Fig. 3.28 shows the impulse response of the systolic WDF against the ideal filter with synthesis coefficients. Fig. 3.29 shows the output of the systolic and ideal filters when they were excited by a step input.

#### 3.7.5- Example 3.5

A 5th order Elliptic LTWDF has been designed to meet the specifications for the filter No.3. The coefficients of the filter are as follows,

	Synthesis Coeff	FWLD Coeff 6-bits
1)	0.5224633	0.5
2)	-0.5207588	-0.515625
3)	0.3570393	0.328125
4)	-0.8562697	-0.859375
5)	0.0039918	0.015625

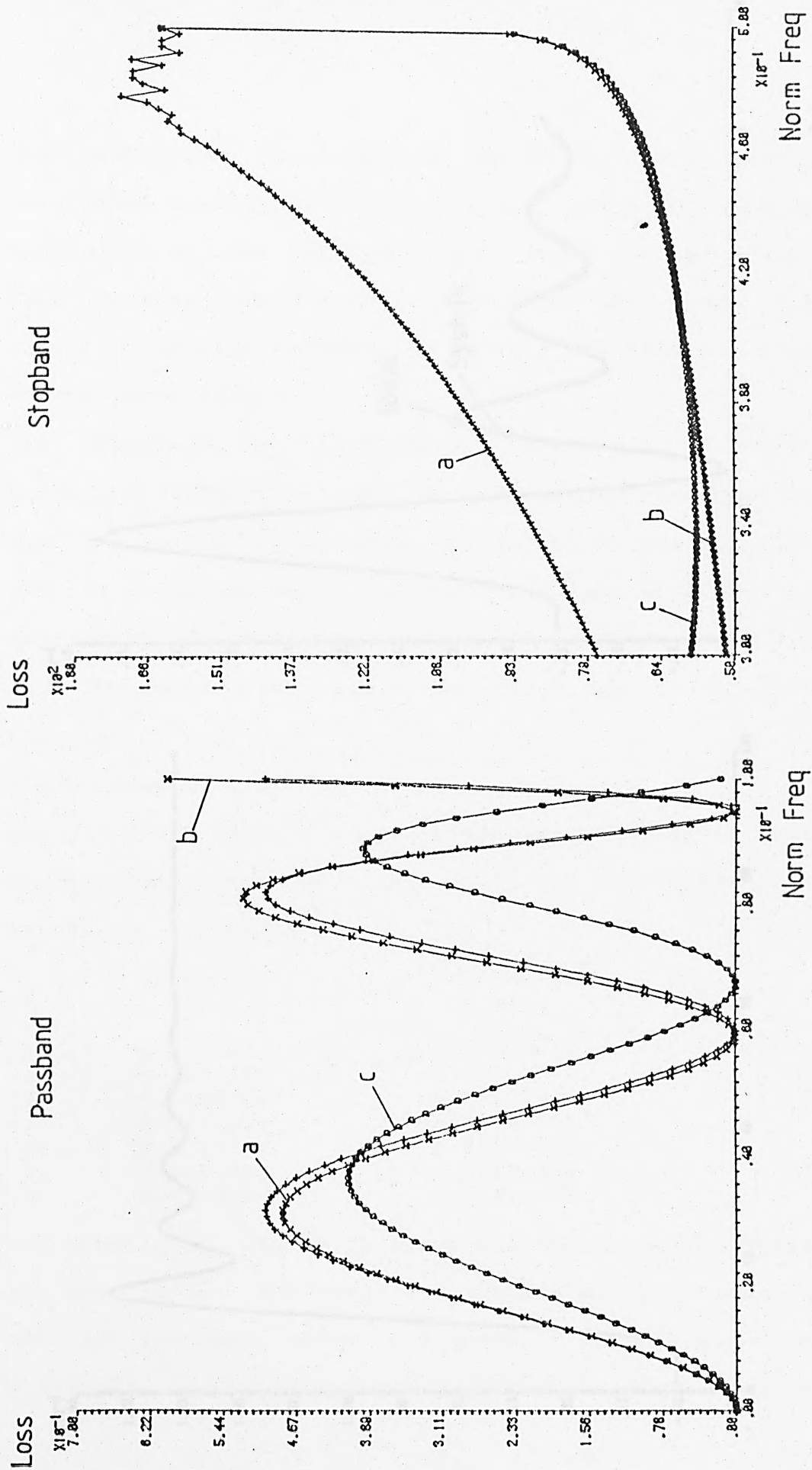


Fig. 3.27\_ Frequency responses for example 3.4 .

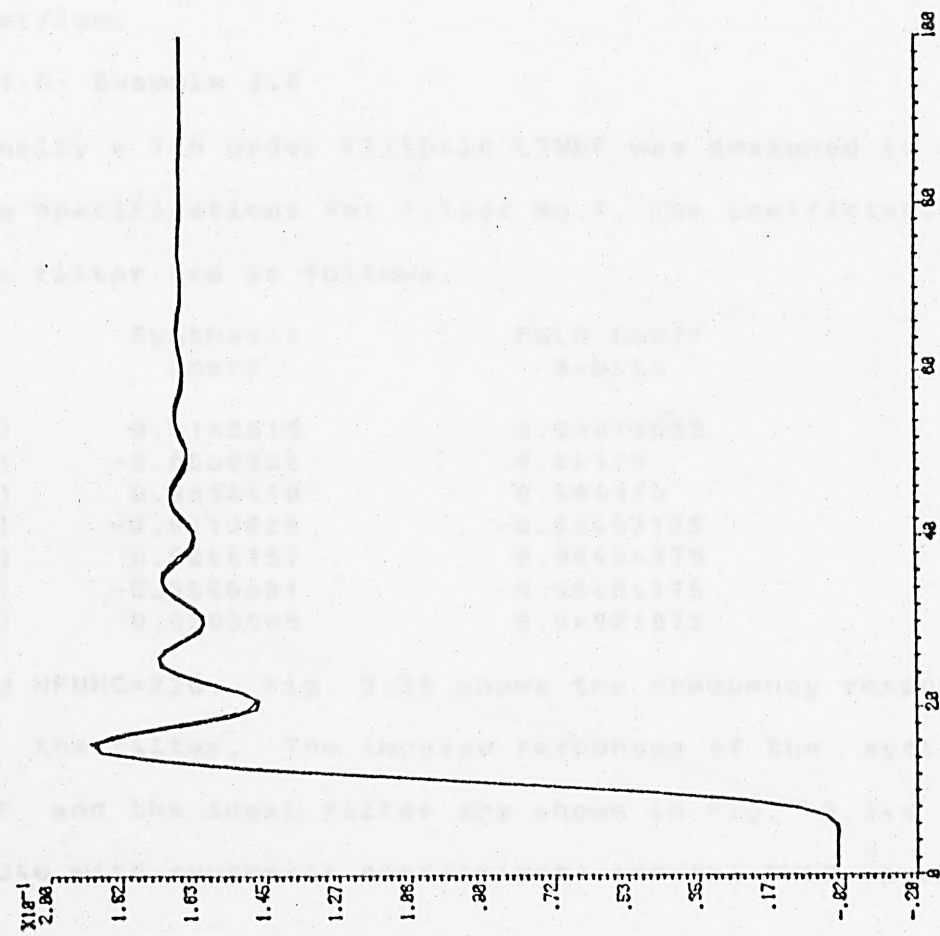


Fig.3.29 \_ Step responses for example 3.4 .

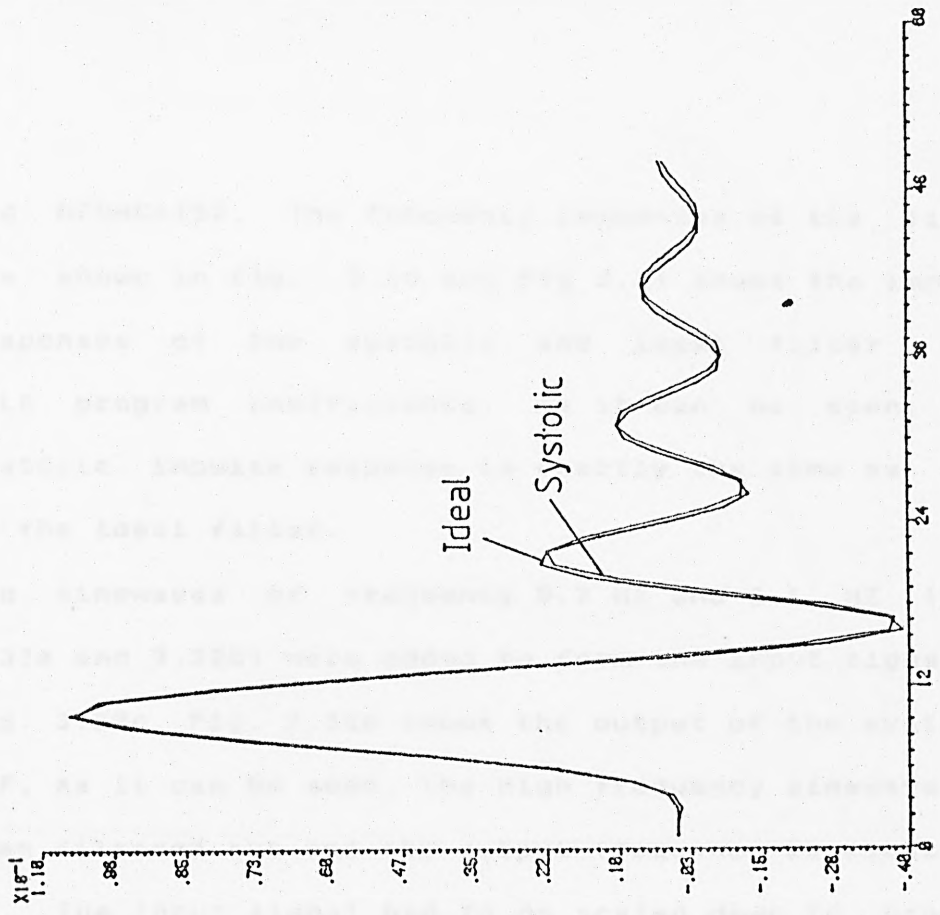


Fig.3.28 \_ Impulse responses for example 3.4 with synthesis coefficients .

and NFUNC=152. The frequency responses of the filter are shown in Fig. 3.30 and Fig 3.31 shows the impulse responses of the systolic and ideal filter with FWLD program coefficients. As it can be seen, the systolic impulse response is exactly the same as that of the ideal filter.

Two sinewaves of frequency 0.2 HZ and 0.4 HZ (Fig. 3.32a and 3.32b) were added to form the input signal of Fig. 3.32c. Fig. 3.32d shows the output of the systolic WDF. As it can be seen, the high frequency sinewave has been filtered out and the output frequency is about 0.2 HZ. The input signal had to be scaled down to prevent overflow.

#### 3.7.6- Example 3.6

Finally a 7th order Elliptic LTWDF was designed to meet the specifications for filter No.4. The coefficients of the filter are as follows,

	Synthesis Coeff	FWLD Coeff 8-bits
1)	0.9165015	0.91015625
2)	-0.8609902	-0.84375
3)	0.9858410	0.984375
4)	-0.9110628	-0.89453125
5)	0.9646757	0.96484375
6)	-0.9698581	-0.96484375
7)	0.9503505	0.94921875

and NFUNC=236. Fig. 3.33 shows the frequency responses of the filter. The impulse responses of the systolic WDF and the ideal filter are shown in Fig. 3.34a and 3.34b with synthesis coefficients and the FWLD program

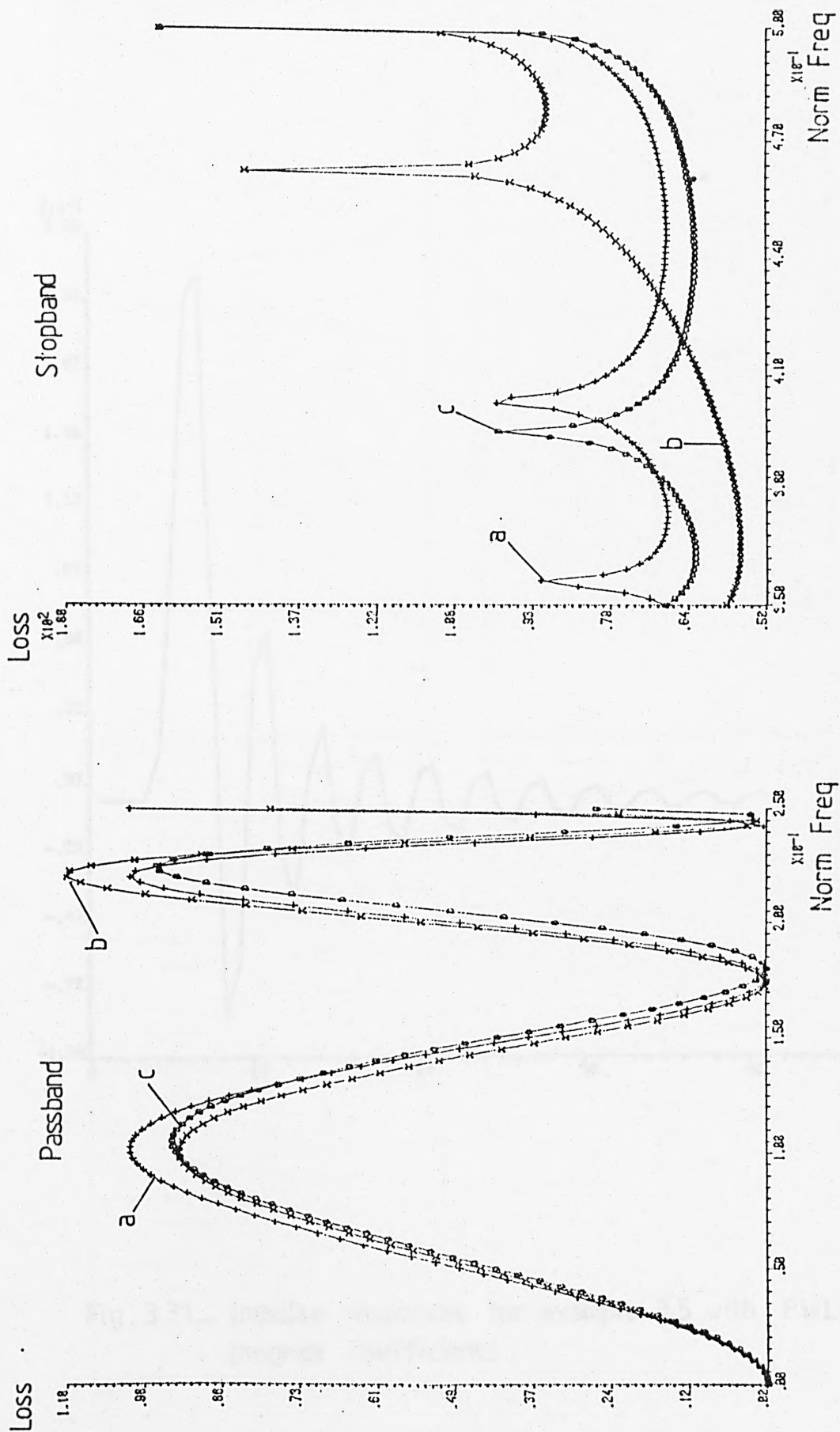


Fig. 3.30 — Frequency responses for example 3.5 .



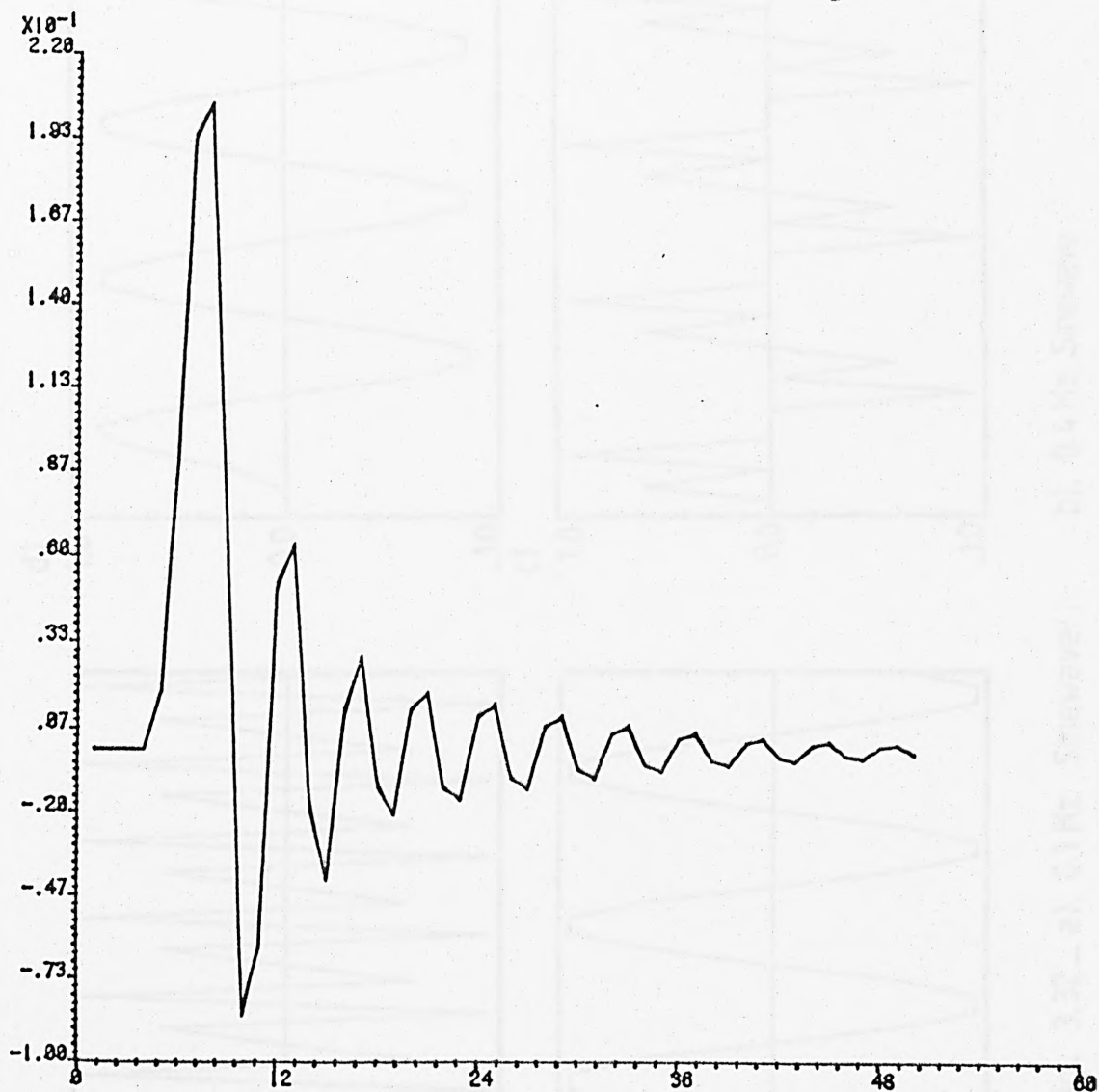


Fig. 3.31— Impulse responses for example 3.5 with FWLD program coefficients .

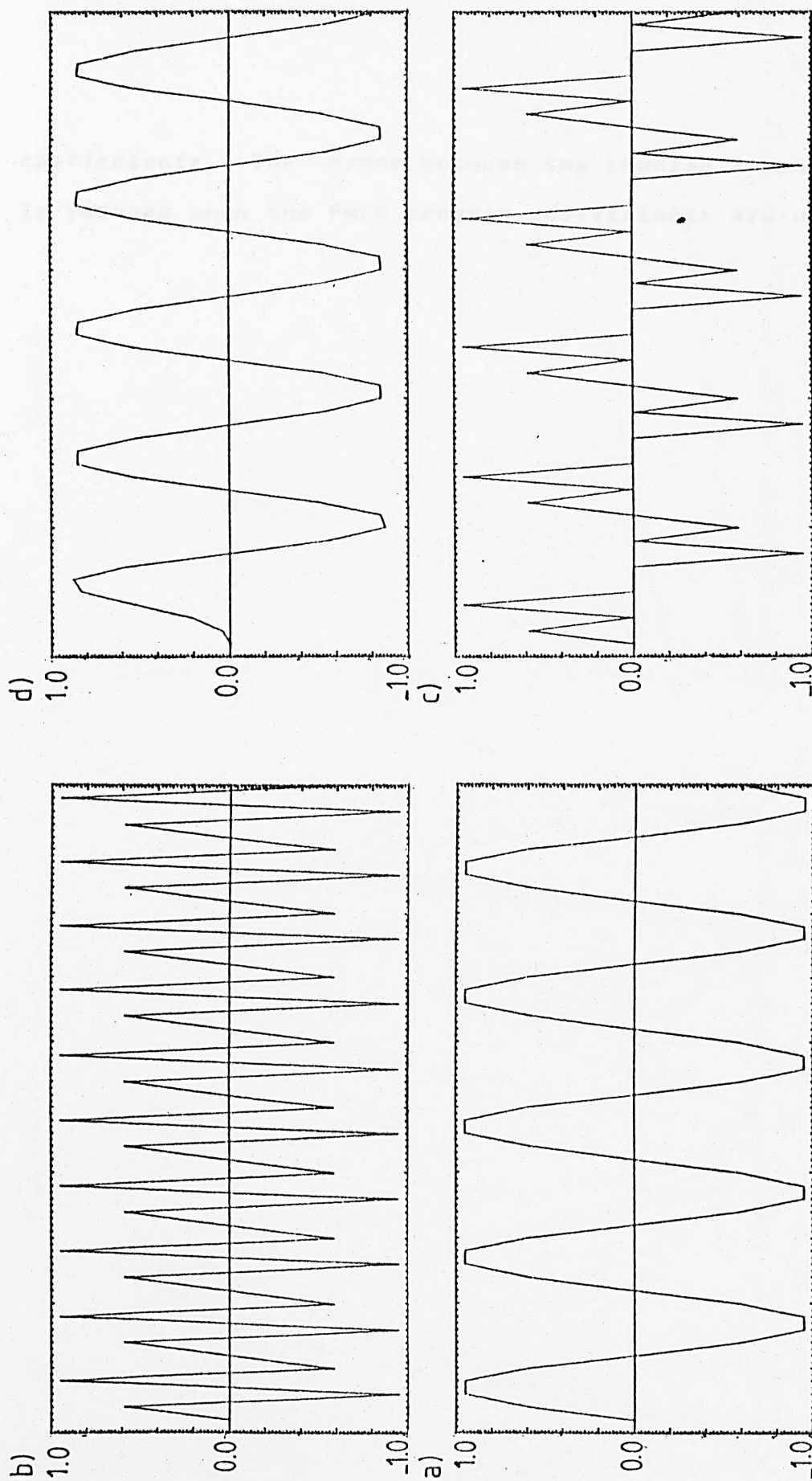


Fig. 3.32 \_ a). 0.1 Hz Sine wave . b). 0.4 Hz Sine wave .  
c). Input . d). Output .

coefficients. The error between the impulse responses is reduced when the FWLD program coefficients are used.

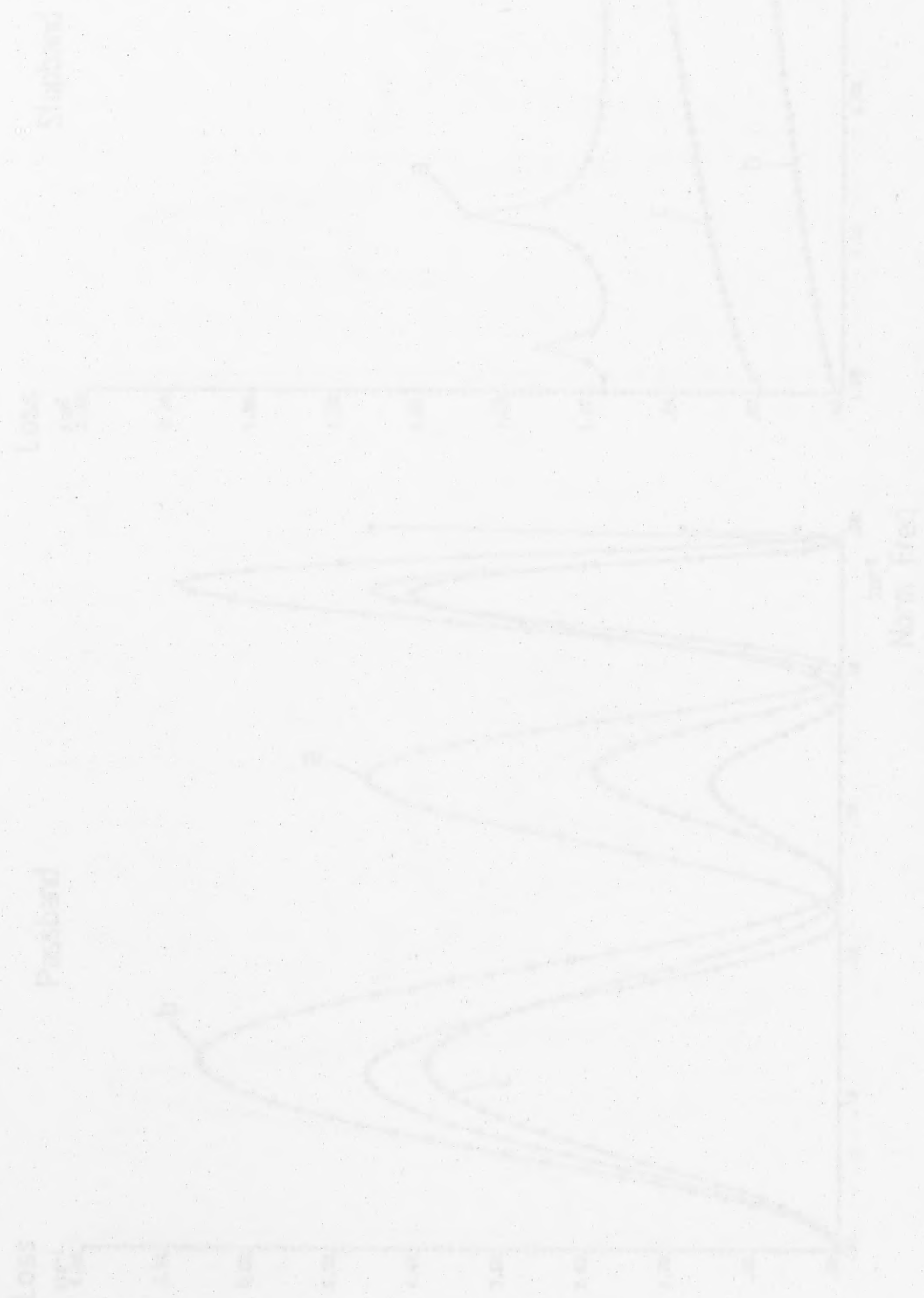


Fig 3.35 - frequency responses for example 3.6

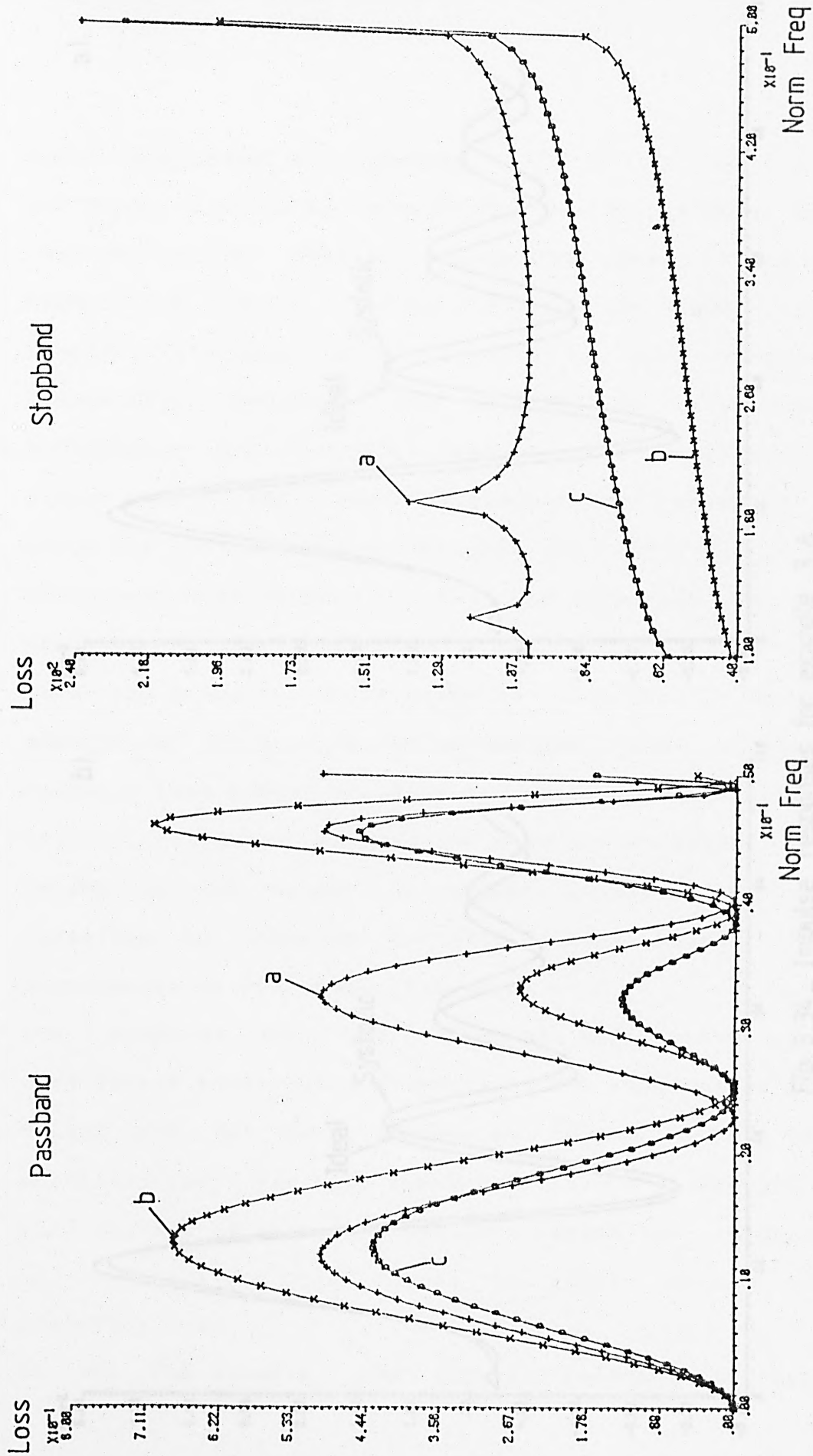


Fig. 3.33 — Frequency responses for example 3.6 .

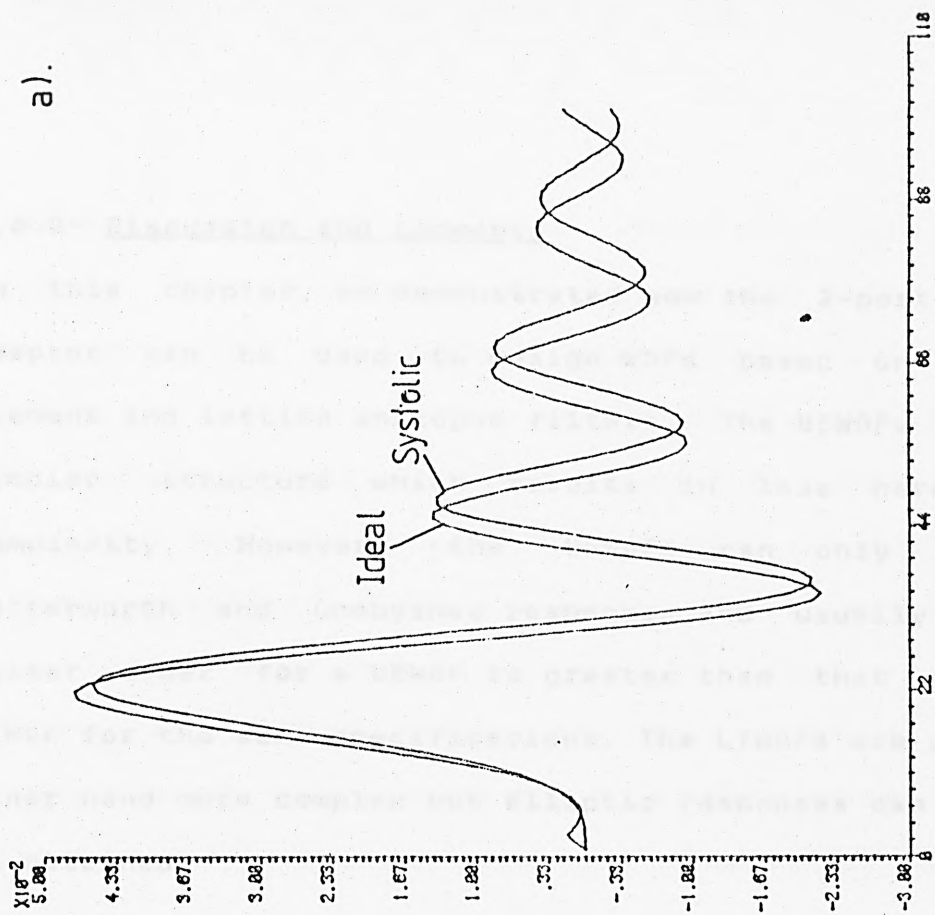
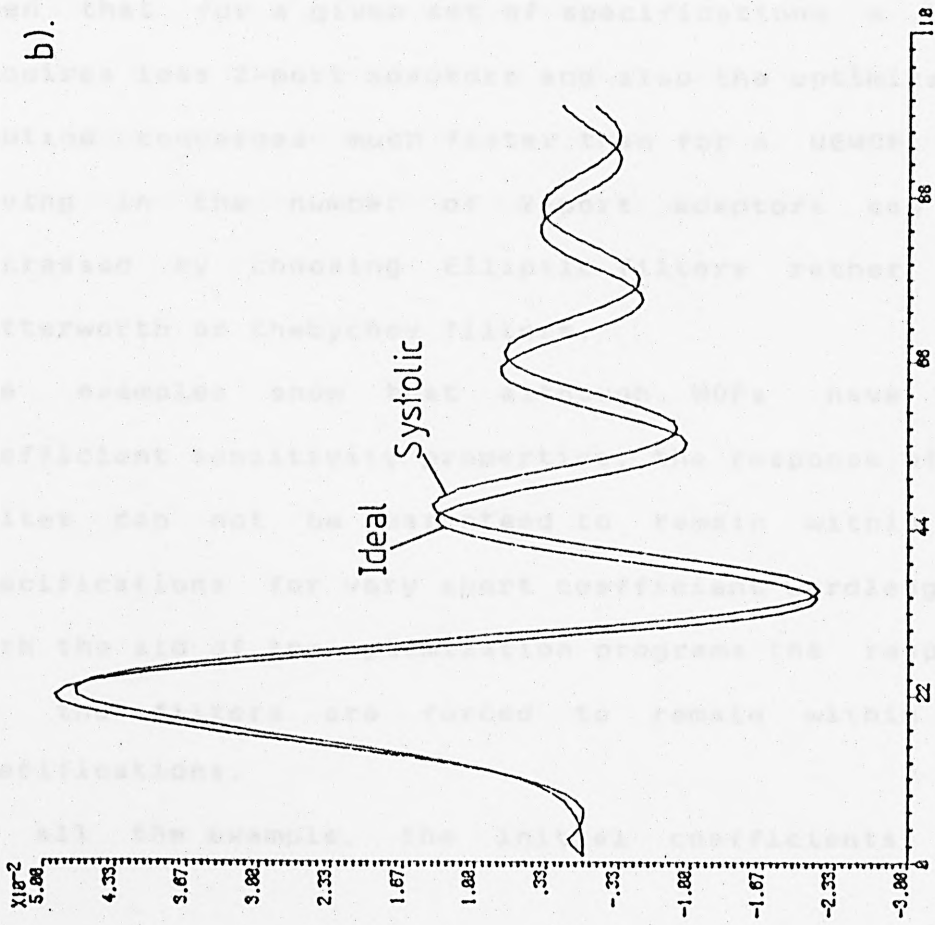


Fig. 3.34 \_ Impulse responses for example 3.6 .

- a). With synthesis coefficients .
- b). With FWLD program coefficients .



### 3.8.0- Discussion and Comments

In this chapter, we demonstrated how the 2-port WDF adaptor can be used to design WDFs based on unit element and lattice analogue filters. The UEWDFs have simpler structure which results in less hardware complexity. However, the UEWDFs can only have Butterworth and Chebyshev responses and usually the filter order for a UEWDF is greater than that of a LTWDF for the same specifications. The LTWDFs are on the other hand more complex but Elliptic responses can also be obtained.

From the examples in the previous section, it can be seen that for a given set of specifications a LTWDF requires less 2-port adaptors and also the optimization routine converges much faster than for a UEWDF. The saving in the number of 2-port adaptors can be increased by choosing Elliptic filters rather than Butterworth or Chebychev filters.

The examples show that although WDFs have low coefficient sensitivity properties, the response of the filter can not be guaranteed to remain within the specifications for very short coefficient wordlengths. With the aid of the optimization programs the response of the filters are forced to remain within the specifications.

In all the example, the initial coefficients were

obtained using the synthesis routines within the programs. The package has the options with which the user can enter the initial coefficients and move straight to the optimization part of the programs to design the WDF directly in the discrete-time domain.

The 2-port systolic array in this chapter is designed by interconnecting regular and simple one-bit processor cells. The interconnections are localized to the nearest neighbouring cells. This is becoming more important as we move towards the VLSI implementation of digital signal processing hardware. The single board prototype 2-port systolic adaptor has been tested completely to verify the correctness of the design. The results from the simulation of the systolic WDFs also show good agreement with the ideal filter responses for different types of filters and excitations.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### LC-LADDER WDFS

#### 4.1.0- Introduction

In the previous chapter, we considered the design and VLSI implementation of WDFs which only need 2-port adaptors in their realisations. In general, it is possible to model LC-ladder analogue filters using 2 and 3-port adaptors. In this chapter, we consider the design and systolic implementation of LC-ladder WDFs (LCWDFs). We start by developing systolic arrays for the realisation of 3-port serial and 3-port parallel adaptors using the systolic arrays developed in chapter two. Also the basic cell of the universal systolic array in chapter two is modified to implement a universal systolic WDF adaptor. This adaptor can be programmed to realise 2-port, 3-port parallel and 3-port serial adaptors. In section 4.2.4, we estimate the number of transistors required to implement the adaptors in CMOS technology.

The design of LCWDFs is considered in section 4.3.0. There are many different methods by which a WDF can be derived from a LC-ladder reference filter. These methods are briefly reviewed and in section 4.3.2, we describe in detail the use of Kuroda Transforms [92] in the

design of LCWDFs with inserted unit elements. A subroutine is developed to derive a WDF from a LC-ladder reference filter. The reference filter can be designed using either filter design tables or explicit formulas. In section 4.3.3, we develop a subroutine for analysis of LCWDFs which is then merged with the two subroutines developed in chapter two to form a complete program for the design of finite wordlength LCWDFs.

In section 4.4.0, we briefly consider the hardware implementation of LCWDFs using 3-port systolic adaptors. The SIMWDF and ANAWDF programs are used to simulate and analyse the LCWDFs and in section 4.5.0 we outline how the LCFD.S0 program can be used to design finite wordlength LCWDFs. Finally in section 4.6.0, we present a number of filter examples to illustrate the performance of the design program and the systolic LCWDFs.

#### 4.2.0- 3-Port Systolic Adaptors

In Chapter two, we saw how equations of the form,

$$R2 = P + Z1(X1 - X2) + W1(X3 - X4) \quad (4.1a)$$

and 
$$R2 = P - Z1(X1 + X2 + X3) \quad (4.1b)$$

can be implemented using bit-level systolic arrays. In this section, we illustrate how these basic systolic arrays can be modified to implement 3-port adaptors.

#### 4.2.1- 3-port Parallel Systolic Adaptors

The symbolic representation of a 3-port parallel adaptor is shown in Fig. 4.1 and the adaptor equations are given below,

$$B_k = A_0 - A_k \quad K=1,2,3 \quad (4.2a)$$

where 
$$A_0 = \sum \alpha_i A_i \quad i=1,2,3 \quad (4.2b)$$

and 
$$2 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3 \quad (4.2c)$$

Using eqn. 4.2c one of the adaptor coefficients, say  $\alpha_3$ , can be expressed in terms of the other two coefficients. Therefore,

$$\alpha_3 = 2 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2 \quad (4.3)$$

Expanding eqn 4.2b and substituting eqn 4.3 for  $\alpha_3$ , we obtain,

$$A_0 = \alpha_1 A_1 + \alpha_2 A_2 + (2 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2) A_3$$

or 
$$A_0 = \alpha_1 (A_1 - A_3) + \alpha_2 (A_2 - A_3) + 2A_3 \quad (4.4)$$

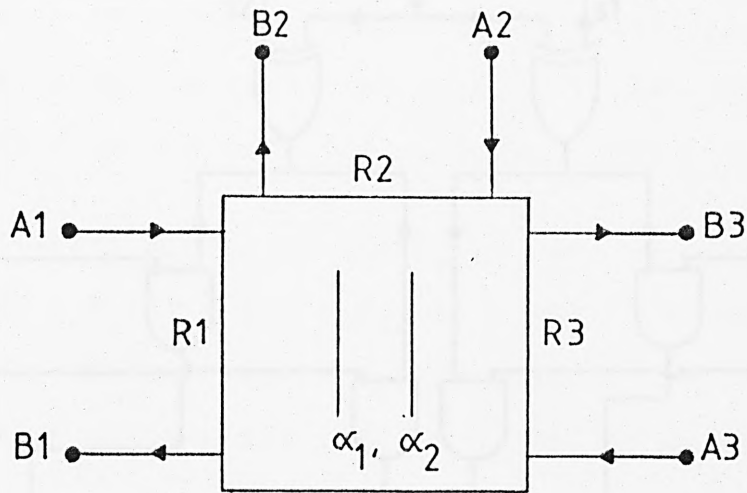
Now we substitute eqn. 4.4 into eqn. 4.2a and set  $k=1,2,3$ . This results in,

$$B_1 = \alpha_1 (A_1 - A_3) + \alpha_2 (A_2 - A_3) + 2A_3 - A_1$$

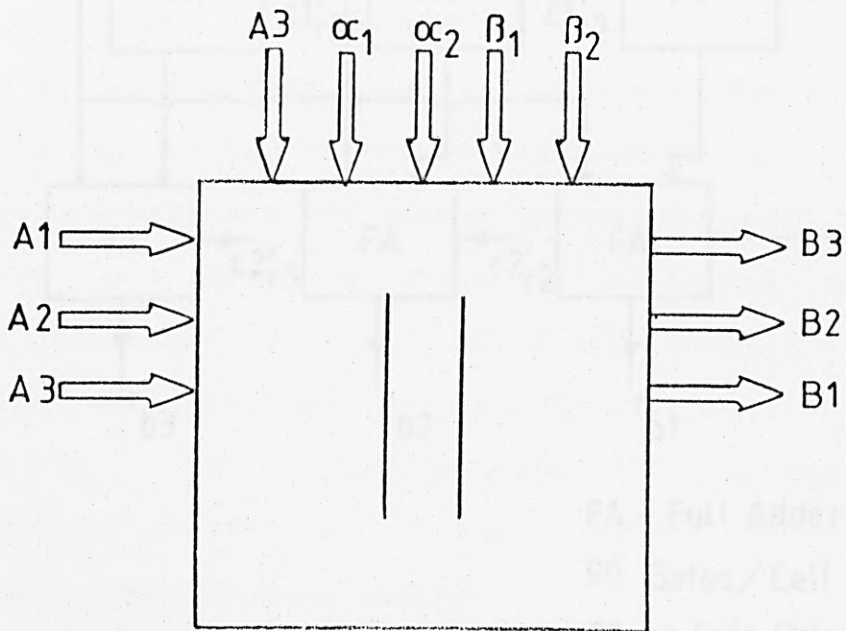
$$B_2 = \alpha_1 (A_1 - A_3) + \alpha_2 (A_2 - A_3) + 2A_3 - A_2$$



Fig.4.1- Schematic representation of,

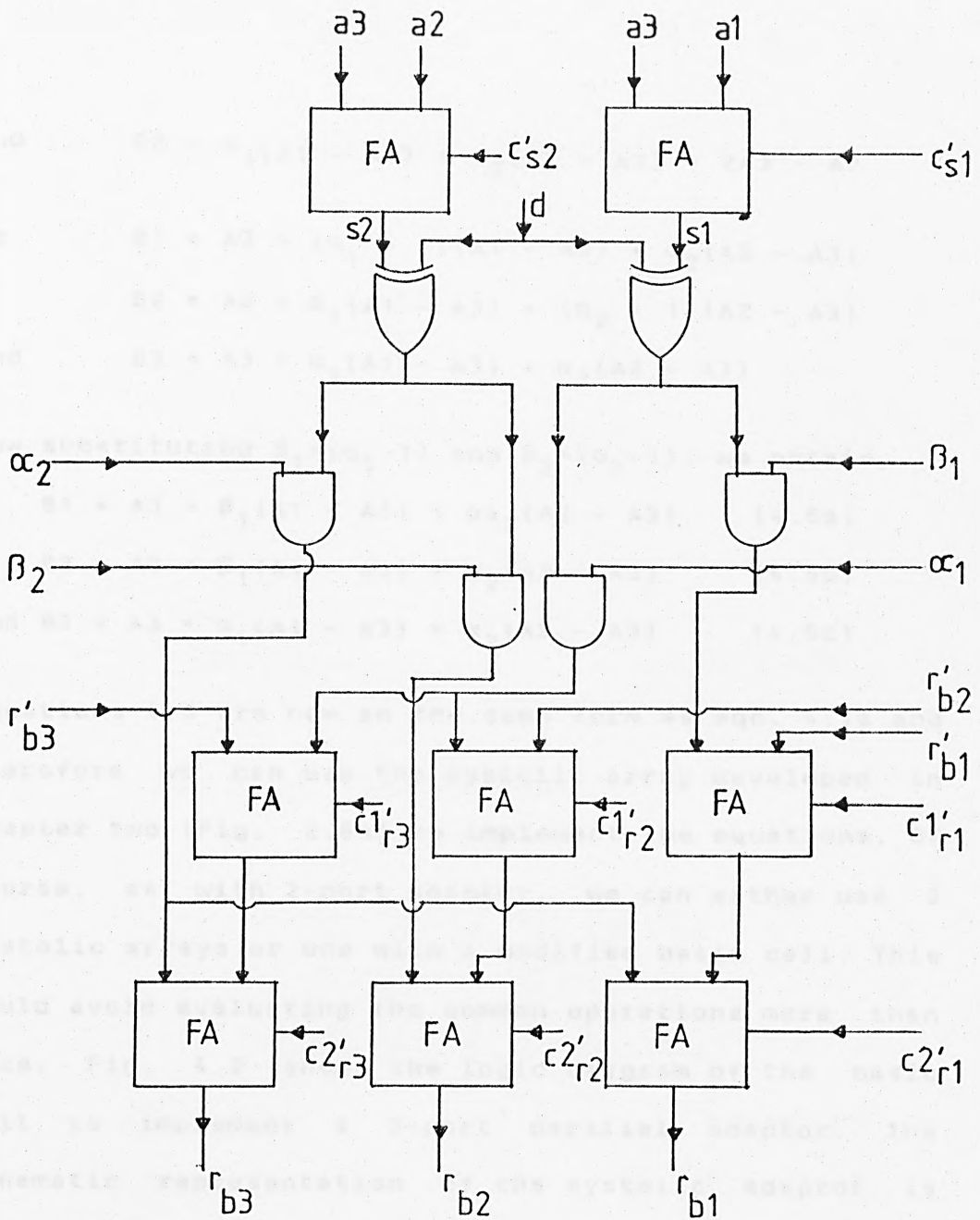


a) a 3-port parallel adaptor .



$$\beta_1 = \alpha_1 - 1 \quad , \quad \beta_2 = \alpha_2 - 1$$

b) a 3-port parallel systolic adaptor .



FA - Full Adder

90 Gates / Cell

28 ns Gate Delay

Fig. 4.2 — Logic diagram of the basic cell in a 3-port parallel systolic adaptor.

$$\text{and} \quad B3 = \alpha_1(A1 - A3) + \alpha_2(A2 - A3) + 2A3 - A3$$

$$\text{or} \quad B1 = A3 + (\alpha_1 - 1)(A1 - A3) + \alpha_2(A2 - A3)$$

$$B2 = A3 + \alpha_1(A1 - A3) + (\alpha_2 - 1)(A2 - A3)$$

$$\text{and} \quad B3 = A3 + \alpha_1(A1 - A3) + \alpha_2(A2 - A3)$$

Now substituting  $\beta_1 = (\alpha_1 - 1)$  and  $\beta_2 = (\alpha_2 - 1)$ , we obtain,

$$B1 = A3 + \beta_1(A1 - A3) + \alpha_2(A2 - A3) \quad (4.5a)$$

$$B2 = A3 + \beta_1(A1 - A3) + \alpha_2(A2 - A3) \quad (4.5b)$$

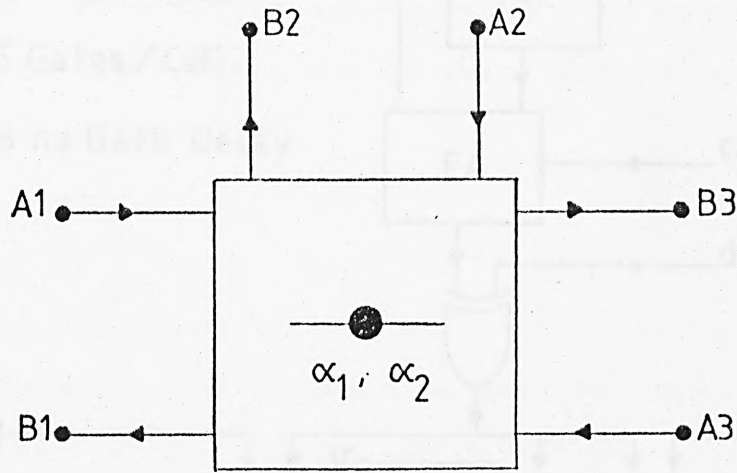
$$\text{and } B3 = A3 + \alpha_1(A1 - A3) + \alpha_2(A2 - A3) \quad (4.5c)$$

Equations 4.5 are now in the same form as eqn. 4.1a and therefore we can use the systolic array developed in chapter two (Fig. 2.6a) to implement the equations. Of course, as with 2-port adaptor, we can either use 3 systolic arrays or one with a modified basic cell. This would avoid evaluating the common operations more than once. Fig. 4.2 shows the logic diagram of the basic cell to implement a 3-port parallel adaptor. The schematic representation of the systolic adaptor is shown in Fig. 4.1b. It must be noted that the latches at the outputs of the cells in Fig. 2.6a are removed as explained in the previous chapter.

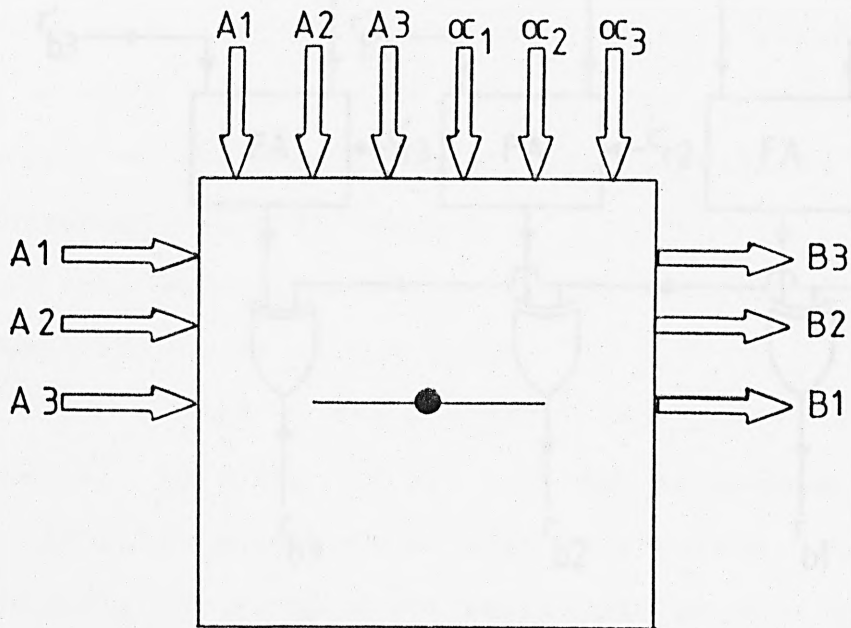
#### 4.2.2- 3-port Serial Systolic Adaptors

Let us now consider the bit-level systolic implementation of a 3-port adaptor. Fig. 4.3a shows the schematic representation of a 3-port serial adaptor and the adaptor equations are given below,

Fig.4.3- Schematic representation of,



a) a 3-port serial adaptor.



b) a 3-port serial systolic adaptor.





$$B_k = A_k - \alpha_k A_0 \quad (4.6a)$$

$$\text{where } A_0 = \sum_k A_k \quad k=1,2,3 \quad (4.6b)$$

By expanding eqn. 4.6b and substituting into eqn. 4.6a, the outputs of the adaptor can be expressed in terms of the inputs as follows,

$$B_1 = A_1 - \alpha_1 (A_1 + A_2 + A_3) \quad (4.7a)$$

$$B_2 = A_2 - \alpha_2 (A_1 + A_2 + A_3) \quad (4.7b)$$

$$\text{and } B_3 = A_3 - \alpha_3 (A_1 + A_2 + A_3) \quad (4.7c)$$

These equations are now in the same form as eqn. 4.1b and therefore can be implemented using the systolic array of Fig. 2.7a. The term  $(A_1+A_2+A_3)$  is common to all the three equations and therefore we avoid evaluating this term 3-times by using one systolic array. The logic diagram of the basic cell is shown in Fig. 4.4 and Fig. 4.3b shows the schematic representation of the 3-port serial systolic adaptor.

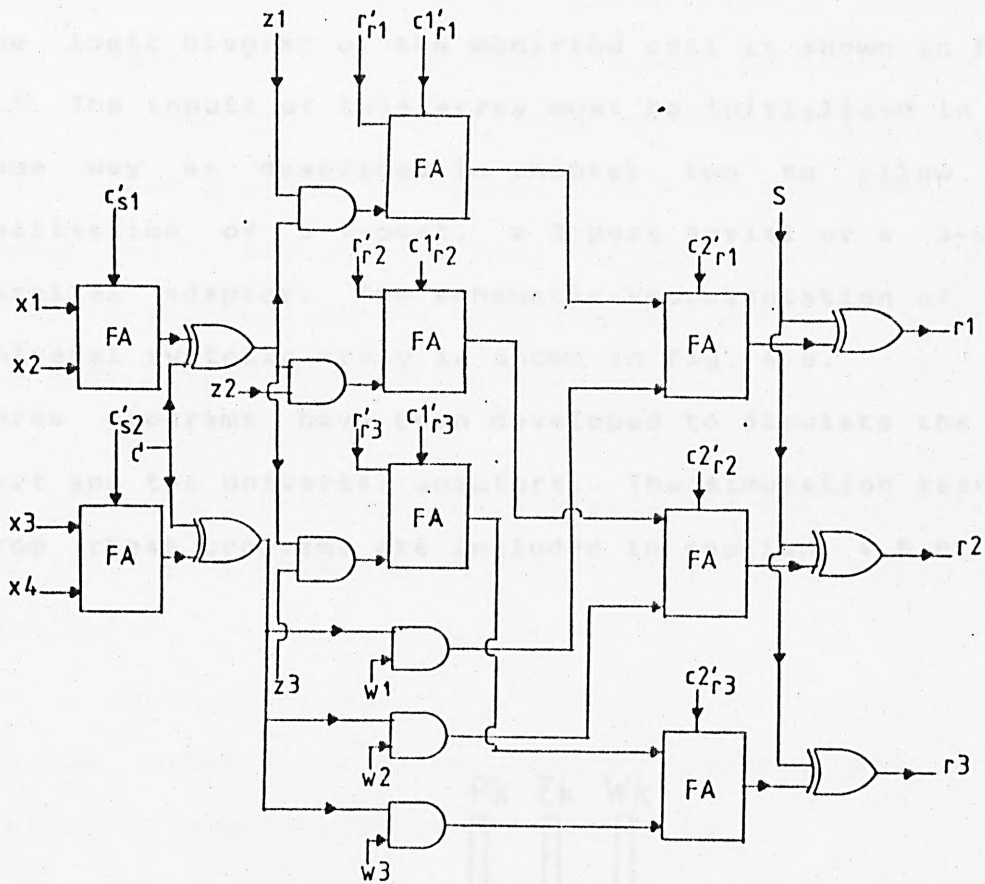
#### 4.2.3- Universal Systolic Adaptor

In chapter two, we developed a universal systolic array to implement equations of the form,

$$R = P \pm Z_1(X_1 \mp X_2) \pm W_1(X_3 \mp X_4) \quad (4.8)$$

The universal systolic array can be programmed to realise the other equations by initializing the inputs before entering the array. The basic cell of this array (Fig. 2.9a) can be modified so that the array implements a set of equations of the form,

$$R_1 = P_1 \pm Z_1(X_1 \mp X_2) \pm W_1(X_3 \mp X_4) \quad (4.9a)$$



FA - Full Adder

101 Gates/Cell

28 ns Gate Delay

Fig.4.5-Logic diagram of the basic cell in a universal adaptor.

$$R_2 = P_2 \pm Z_2(X_1 \mp X_2) \pm W_2(X_3 \mp X_4) \quad (4.9b)$$

and  $R_3 = P_3 \pm Z_3(X_1 \mp X_2) \pm W_3(X_3 \mp X_4) \quad (4.9c)$

The logic diagram of the modified cell is shown in Fig. 4.5. The inputs of this array must be initialized in the same way as described in chapter two to allow the realisation of a 2-port, a 3-port serial or a 3-port parallel adaptor. The schematic representation of the universal systolic array is shown in Fig. 4.6.

Three programs have been developed to simulate the 3-port and the universal adaptors. The simulation results from these programs are included in section 4.6.0.

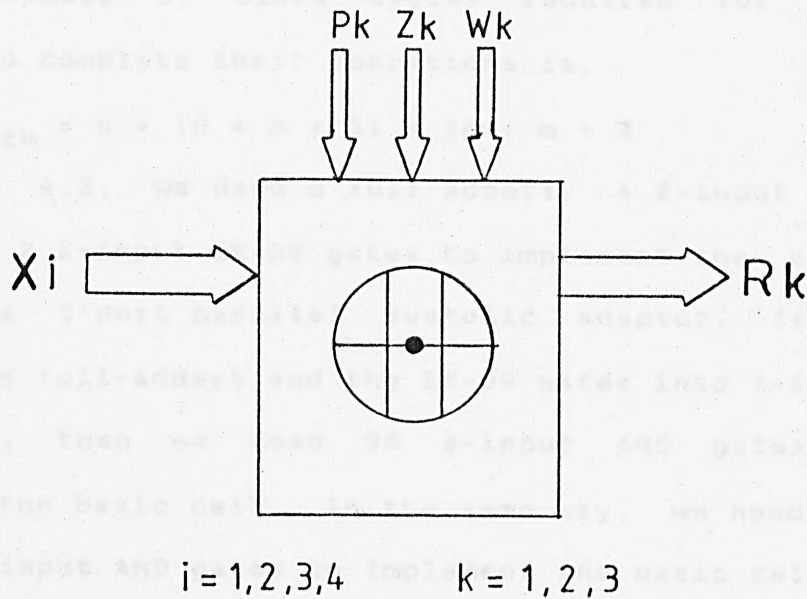


Fig. 4.6-Schematic representation of a universal adaptor.

#### 4.2.4- CMOS Implementation of the Adaptors

Let us now estimate how many transistors are required to implement the 3-port parallel, 3-port serial and the universal adaptors. It is assumed that CMOS technology is used. In general, if we use  $n$ -bits to represent the adaptor coefficients and  $m$ -bits for the signals, then  $mnb$ -bits are required to represent the outputs of the adaptors, where  $mnb$  is given by,

$$mnb = (n + m + 3)$$

The cell configurations are the same for all the three adaptors and the number of cells in an  $(n \times m)$  array is given by,

$$N_c = n(n + m + 3)$$

and the number of clock cycles required for the adaptors to complete their operations is,

$$N_{ck} = n + (n + m + 3) = 2n + m + 3$$

From Fig. 4.2, we need 8 full-adders, 4 2-input AND gates and 2 2-input EX-OR gates to implement the basic cell of a 3-port parallel systolic adaptor. If we convert the full-adders and the EX-OR gates into 2-input AND gates, then we need 90 2-input AND gates to implement the basic cell. In the same way, we need 65 and 101 2-input AND gates to implement the basic cell of a 3-port serial adaptor (Fig. 4.4) and the basic cell of the universal adaptor (Fig. 4.5) respectively. Now, we can calculate the number of transistors required to

implement the adaptors.

From Fig. 4.2, 4.4 and 4.5, the time delay of the basic cells in all the cases are equivalent to the time delay of 7 gates in cascade. If we assume that the time delay of an AND gate is 4 ns then the time delay of the basic cells are 28 ns.

This information is shown in a tabular form in Table 4.1 for some typical values of  $n$  and  $m$ . As with the 2-port adaptor, the number of transistors and the time delay of the adaptors decrease exponentially when the number of bits for the coefficients is reduced slightly. In Table 4.1, column (1) represents the 3-port parallel adaptor, column (2) represents the 3-port serial adaptor and column (3) is the universal adaptor.



No, of Bits	No. of Cells	No. of Gates			No. of Trans			No. of Clocks	Delays	
		1	2	3	1	2	3		ns	MHZ
4	8	5,400	3,900	6,060	21,600	15,600	24,240	19	532	1.9
8	8	13,680	9,880	15,332	54,720	39,520	61,408	27	756	1.3
4	16	8,280	5,980	9,292	33,120	23,920	37,168	27	756	1.3
8	16	19,440	14,040	21,816	77,760	56,160	87,264	35	980	1.0

Column(1): 3-portparallel systolic adaptor.  
Column (2) : 3-port serial systolic adaptor.  
Column (3) : The universal systolic adaptor.

Table 4.1

#### 4.3.0- LC-Ladder WDFs (LCWDFs)

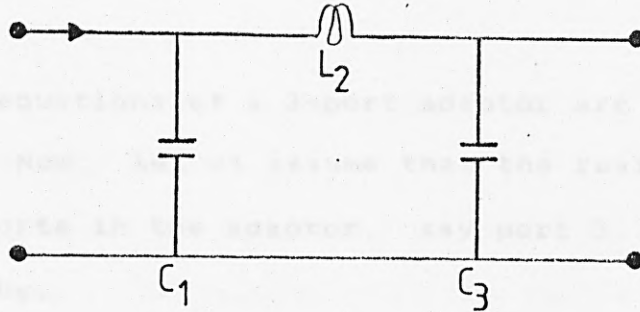
##### 4.3.1- Introduction

Using 2-port and 3-port adaptors, it is possible to derive a WDF from a lc-ladder reference filter. There are different techniques which can be used to derive the WDF. Each technique results in a structure which is different from others in terms of number of multipliers, hardware complexity, etc. In this section, we briefly review some of these techniques.

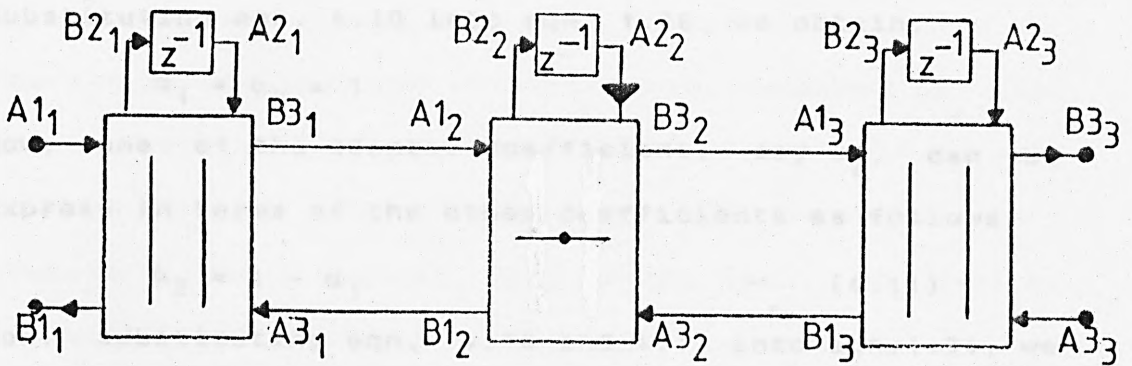
##### 4.3.2- Direct LC-Ladder WDFs

In principle, a WDF can be realised by direct connection of the parallel and serial adaptors which model the interconnections of the inductors and the capacitors in the reference filter. The series and parallel tuned circuits may be implemented using either 3-port adaptors or 2-port adaptors [2]. As an example, consider the 3rd order lc-ladder filter of Fig. 4.7a. The corresponding WDF is shown in Fig. 4.7b. Each 3-port adaptor requires 3 multiplications, therefore there are 9 multiplications all together. As explained in chapter one, it is possible to express one of the adaptor coefficients in terms of the other two coefficients and reduce the number of multipliers needed in one adaptor by one. This will result in 6 multipliers for the 3rd order LCWDF of Fig. 4.7b. Thus, the number of multiplications is not canonic since we need  $2N$  multipliers for an  $N$ th order

Fig.4.7



a) 3th order LC-ladder filter.



b) Corresponding WDF.

filter.

A further saving in the number of multipliers can be achieved by realising the WDF using the matched-port technique [87]. The resulting WDF corresponds to the true ladder filter in the strictly conventional sense. The following is a brief review of the matched-port technique.

The adaptor equations of a 3-port adaptor are given in chapter one. Now, let us assume that the resistance of one of the ports in the adaptor, say port 3, is fixed and is given by,

$$G_3 = G_2 + G_1$$

Substituting  $G_3$  into eqn. 1.35, we obtain,

$$\alpha_3 = 2(G_1 + G_2)/(2G_1 + 2G_2)$$

Thus  $\alpha_3 = 1$  (4.10)

Substituting eqn. 4.10 into eqn. 1.36, we obtain,

$$\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 1$$

Now, one of the adaptor coefficient, say  $\alpha_2$ , can be express in terms of the other coefficients as follows,

$$\alpha_2 = 1 - \alpha_1 \quad (4.11)$$

Now, substituting eqn. 4.10 and 4.11 into eqn.1.34, we obtain,

$$B_1 = \alpha_1 (A_1 - A_2) + A_2 + A_3 - A_1 \quad (4.12a)$$

$$B_2 = \alpha_1 (A_1 - A_2) + A_3 \quad (4.12b)$$

and  $B_3 = \alpha_1 (A_1 - A_2) + A_2 \quad (4.12c)$

The wave realisation of eqn. 4.12 is shown in Fig. 4.8a.

As it can be seen from Fig. 4.8a, only one multiplier is required to implement the adaptor. A similar approach can be taken in order to reduce the number of multipliers in a 3-port serial adaptor to one. The final adaptor equations, when  $\alpha_3$  is set equal to 1, are given below,

$$B1 = A1 - \alpha_1(A1 + A2 + A3) \quad (4.13a)$$

$$B2 = -(A1 + A2 - \alpha_1(A1 + A2 + A3)) \quad (4.13b)$$

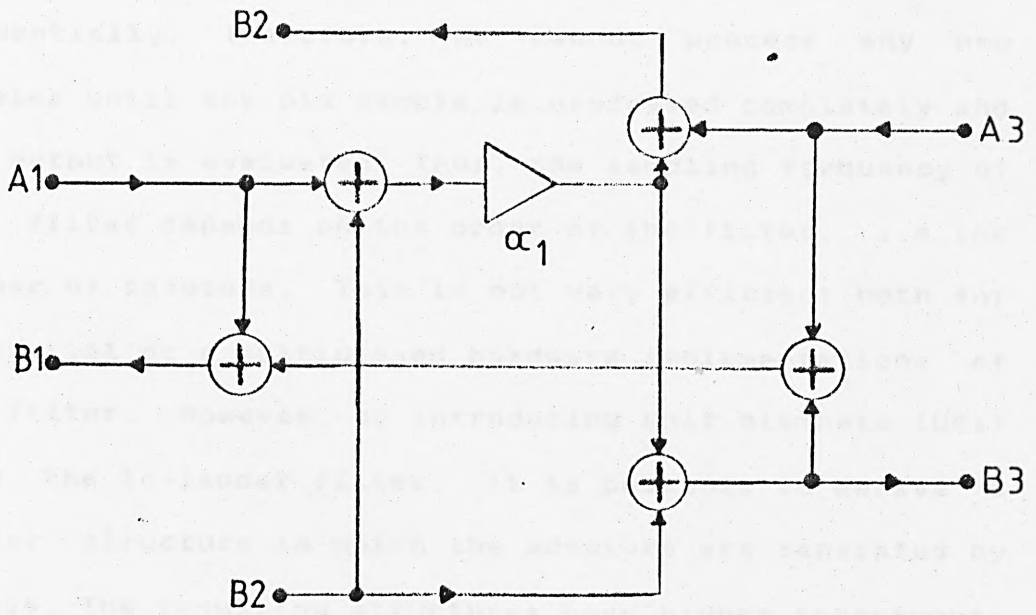
and  $B3 = -(A1 + A2) \quad (4.13c)$

The wave realisation of eqn. 4.13 is shown in Fig. 4.8b. Eqns. 4.12c and 4.13c suggest that the reflected waves at port 3,  $B3$ , in both the adaptors are independent of the corresponding incident waves,  $A3$ . Thus, the port 3 of these adaptors may be connected directly to any port of another adaptor to form a complete WDF without introducing any closed loop into the structure.

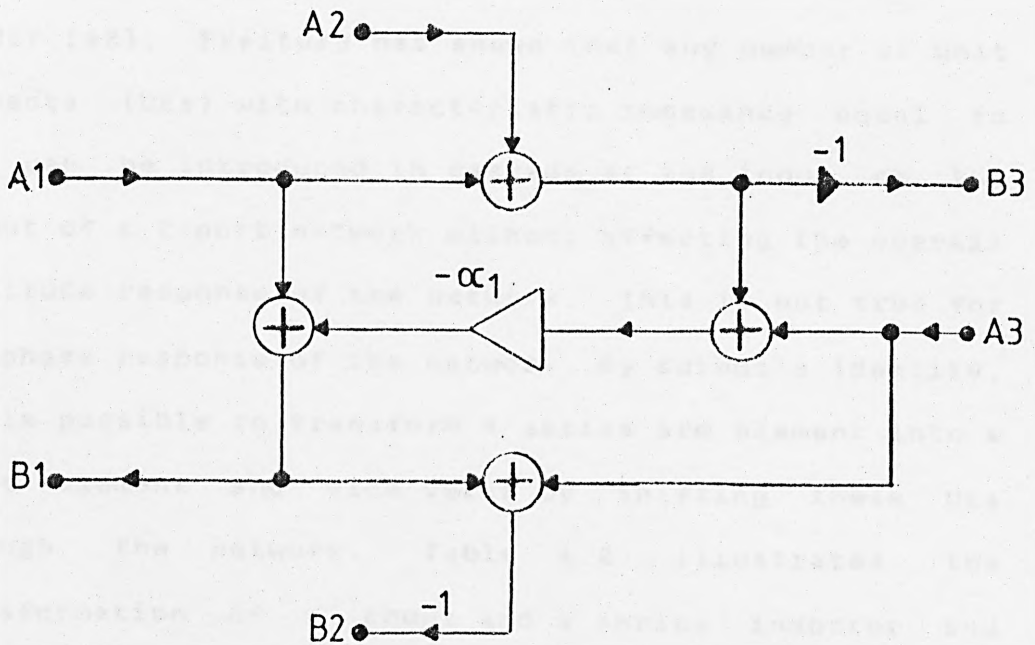
Now let us consider the WDF structures obtained in this section from an implementation point of view. If we wish to use the WDF structure in Fig. 4.7b to implement a lowpass filter, then  $A1_1$  will be the input,  $B3_3$  will be the output and  $A3_3$  will be set equal to zero. At adaptor '1',  $B3_1$  can be calculated since all the inputs are known. Next at adaptor '2',  $B3_2$  can be calculated since the new value of  $A1_2$  has just been evaluated and also  $A2_2$  and  $A3_2$  are known. Finally at adaptor '3',  $B3_3$ , the filter output, can be calculated since  $A1_3$ ,  $A2_3$  and  $A3_3$



Fig. 4.8



a) 3-port parallel adaptor with one multiplier.

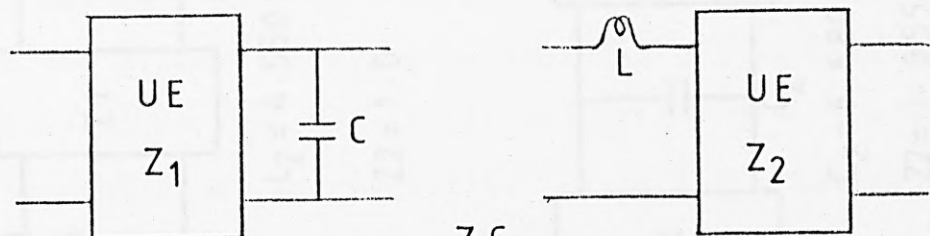


b) 3-port serial adaptor with one multiplier.

are known. These operations must take place sequentially. Therefore, we cannot process any new samples until the old sample is processed completely and the output is evaluated. Thus, the sampling frequency of the filter depends on the order of the filter, i.e the number of adaptors. This is not very efficient both for a parallel or a multiplexed hardware implementations of the filter. However, by introducing unit elements (UEs) into the lc-ladder filter, it is possible to derive a filter structure in which the adaptors are separated by delays. The resulting structures have higher throughputs and also can be multiplexed quite easily. This leads to the design of LCWDFs using Kuroda Transformations.

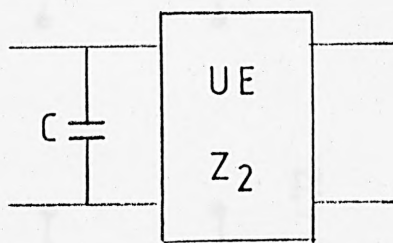
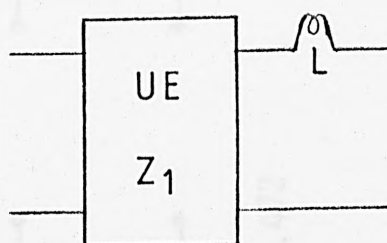
#### **4.3.3- LCWDFs with inserted Unit Elements**

In Ref [92], Fraiture has shown that any number of unit elements (UEs) with characteristic impedance equal to one can be introduced in cascade at the input or the output of a 2-port network without affecting the overall amplitude response of the network. This is not true for the phase response of the network. By Kuroda's identity, it is possible to transform a series arm element into a shunt element and vice versa by shifting these UEs through the network. Table 4.2 illustrates the transformation of a shunt and a series inductor and capacitor using Kuroda's transforms. The process of inserting and shifting the UEs into a lc-ladder filter



$$L = \frac{Z_1 C}{1 + Z_1 C} Z_1$$

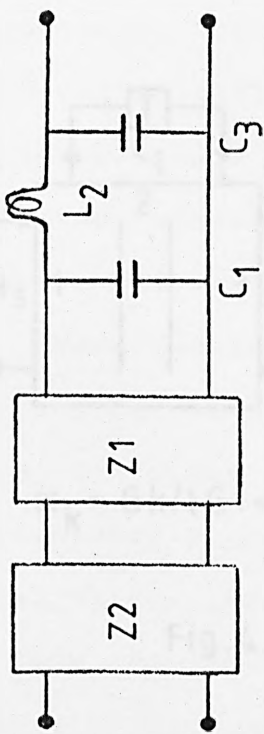
$$Z_2 = \frac{Z_1}{1 + Z_1 C}$$



$$C = \frac{1}{Z_1(Z_1 + L)}$$

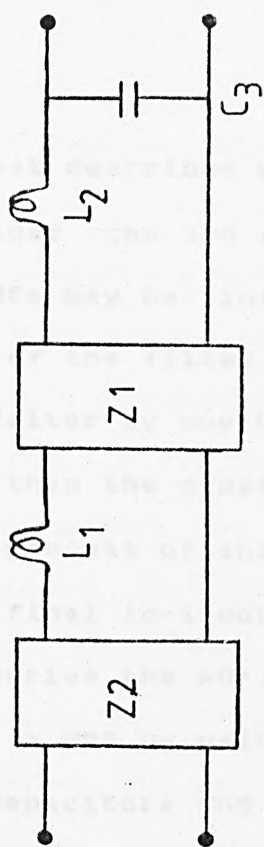
$$Z_2 = Z_1 + L$$

Table 4.2- Kuroda's transforms.



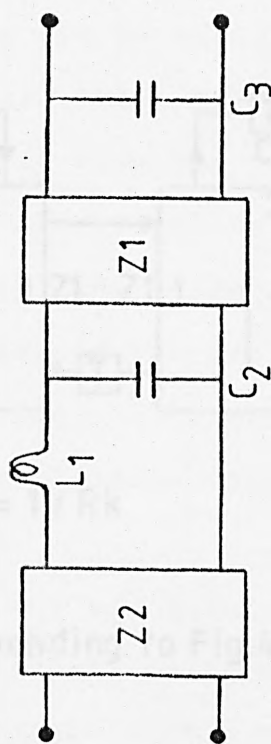
a)  $C_1 = 5.898$   $L_2 = 4.550$   $C_3 = 8.472$

$Z_1 = 1.0$   $Z_2 = 1.0$



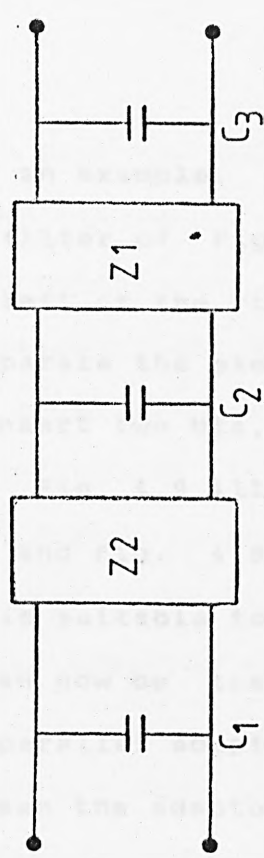
b)  $L_1 = 0.855$   $L_2 = 4.550$   $C_3 = 8.472$

$Z_1 = 0.145$   $Z_2 = 1.0$



c)  $L_1 = 0.855$   $C_2 = 6.680$   $C_3 = 8.472$

$Z_1 = 4.695$   $Z_2 = 1.0$



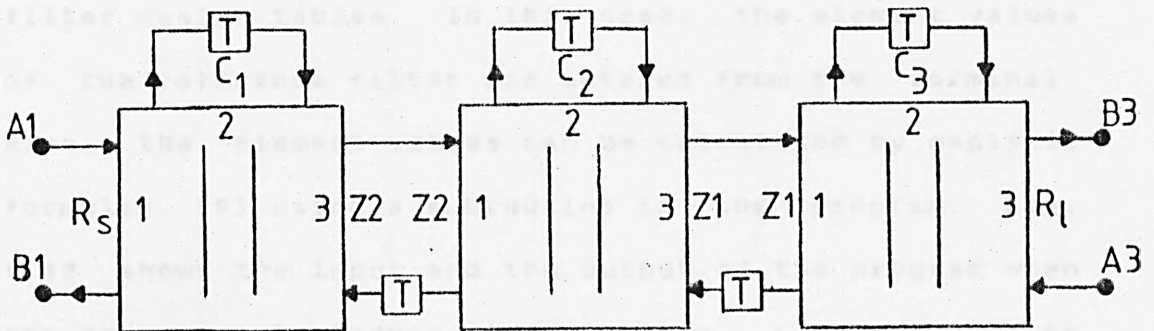
d)  $C_1 = 0.461$   $C_2 = 6.680$   $C_3 = 8.472$

$Z_1 = 4.695$   $Z_2 = 1.855$

Fig. 4.9-Process of Kuroda's transformation.

is best described with the aid of an example.

Consider the 3rd order lc-ladder filter of Fig. 4.7a. The UEs may be inserted from the left or the right hand side of the filter. In order to separate the elements in the filter by one UE, we need to insert two UEs, i.e one less than the order of the filter. Fig. 4.9 illustrates the process of shifting these UEs and Fig. 4.9d shows the final lc-ladder filter which is suitable to be used to derive the WDF. This filter can now be transformed into a WDF by using three 3-port parallel adaptors for the capacitors and two delays between the adaptors (Fig. 4.10).



$$\alpha_k = G_k / (G_1 + G_2 + G_3) \quad , \quad G_k = 1 / R_k$$

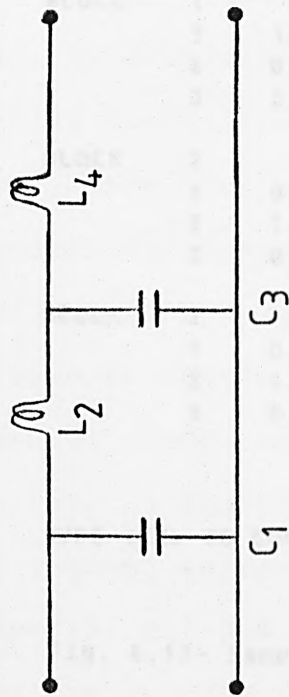
Fig.4.10 -WDF corresponding to Fig.4.9d.



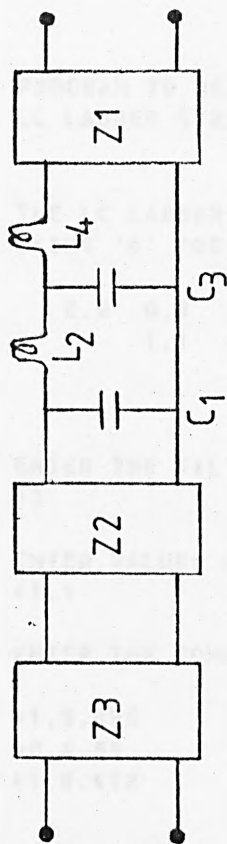
It is easy to show that no matter what the order of the filter is, the UEs can be inserted in such a way that the resulting WDF contains only 3-port serial or 3-port parallel adaptors. Fig. 4.11 illustrates the process of Kuroda's transformation for a 4th order lc-ladder filter and Fig. 4.11c shows the corresponding WDF. In general, if the order,  $N$ , of the reference filter is even, it is necessary to insert one UE from right hand side of the filter while the other  $N-2$  UEs are inserted from left hand side of the filter.

A program has been developed to derive LCWDFs using the technique described above. The resulting WDFs contain 3-port parallel adaptors only. The filter is described using '0' and '1' to represent capacitors and inductors respectively. The reference filter can be designed using filter design tables. In this case, the element values of the reference filter are entered from the terminal. Also, the element values can be calculated by explicit formulas [9] using a subroutine in the program. Fig. 4.12 shows the input and the output of the program when the 3rd order lc-ladder filter of Fig. 4.7a was used to derive the LCWDF. This program only allows Butterworth and Chebychev filters to be designed.

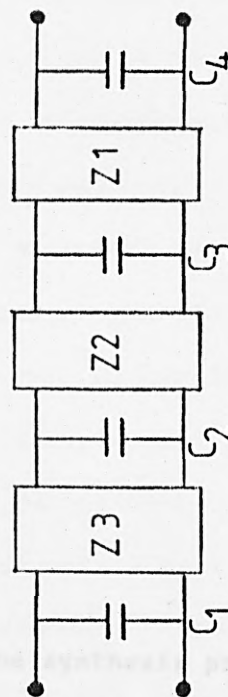
In the filter structure of Fig. 4.9 and 4.10, the UEs are made redundant and have no effect on the filter response. This means that if we start with a  $N$ th order



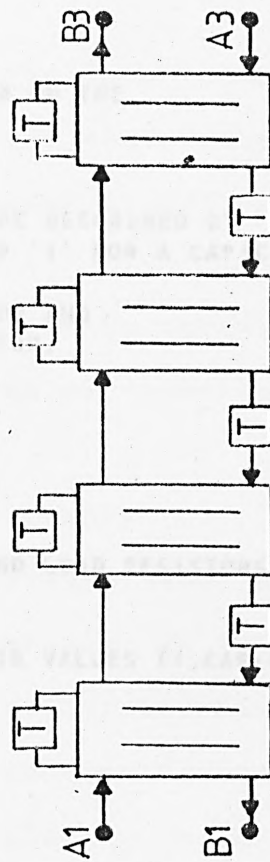
a) 4th order LC-ladder filter.



b) Use of UEs for Kuroda's transformation.



c) LC-ladder filter with inserted UEs.



d) Corresponding WDF using 3-port parallel adaptors only.

Fig.4.11

PROGRAM TO DESIGN WDF'S BASED ON THE  
LC LADDER STRUCTURES.

THE LC LADDER FILTER SHOULD BE DESCRIBED BY  
USING '0' FOR AN INDUCTOR AND '1' FOR A CAPACITOR.

E.G 0,1 FOR A 1H INDUCTOR AND  
1,1 FOR A 1F CAPACITOR.

ENTER THE FILTER ORDER :-

=3

ENTER VALUES OF THE SOURCE AND LOAD RESISTORS :-

=1,1

ENTER THE COMPONENTS AND THEIR VALUES (1,CAP-0,IND) :-

=1,5.898

=0,4.55

=1,8.472

THE WDF COEFFICIENTS ARE AS FOLLOWS :-

BLOCK	1	
	1	1.0000000
	2	0.4609253
	3	0.5390747

BLOCK	2	
	1	0.1449696
	2	1.7977515
	3	0.0572790

BLOCK	3	
	1	0.0439843
	2	1.7495106
	3	0.2065050

TYPE <CR> TO CONTINUE !!!

Fig. 4.12- Sample example from the synthesis program.

filter, then the order of the resulting LCWDF would still be  $N$  while  $2N$  multipliers are required to implement the filter. Thus, the filter is not canonic in terms of the number of multipliers.

It is desirable to consider filter design techniques in which the UEs do contribute to the performance of the LCWDFs [42,98,99].

#### 4.3.4- Finite Wordlength Design of LCWDFs

In previous sections, we illustrated the different methods with which LCWDFs can be derived. In this thesis we use the Kuroda's transforms to derive the LCWDFs. The program developed in the previous section can be used as the first step for the finite wordlength design (FWLD) of LCWDFs. This program is used to calculate the initial values of the WDF coefficients. Here, a subroutine is developed to evaluate the frequency response of a LCWDF for a set of coefficients at different frequency points. This subroutine plus the synthesis subroutine and the two subroutines developed in chapter two can be merged to form a complete program for the FWLD of LCWDFs.

The analysis of LCWDFs can be carried out using the wave chain matrix (WCM) method described in chapter three. The structure of the LCWDF of Fig. 4.10 is the same as that of a UEWDF except that the difference equations of the adaptors are not the same. Therefore, the same technique can be used to obtain the transfer function of

the filter. From Appendix 'A3', the input/output relationship of the kth section of a LCWDF is given by,

$$\begin{bmatrix} A1_k \\ B1_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} B3_k \\ A3_k \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.14)$$

where  $K = 1/[\alpha_1(1+z^{-1})]$

$$A = (1-\alpha_3) + (\alpha_1-1)z^{-1}$$

$$B = 1 + (\alpha_1+\alpha_3-1)z^{-1}$$

$$C = z^{-1} + (\alpha_1+\alpha_3-1)$$

$$D = (\alpha_1-1) + z^{-1}(1-\alpha_3)$$

This ABCD matrix can be multiplied with the ABCD matrix of the other sections to form the total ABCD matrix of the filter. The transfer function of the filter can then be calculated using the method described in Appendix 'A3'. A subroutine has been developed to analyse a LCWDF for a set of coefficients at different frequency points. In Appendix 'C' a complete listing of the design program, LCFD.S0, has been included and in section 4.5.0, we briefly outline how it can be used for the FWLD of LCWDFs.



#### 4.4.0- Hardware Implementation of Systolic LCWDFs

The structure of a LCWDF is very similar to that of a UEWDF. The basic blocks, i.e the adaptors, are separated by delays which enables us to pipeline the filter. As mentioned in the previous section, the LCWDF can be designed in such a way that only 3-port parallel or serial adaptors are required to implement the filter. The resulting structure will be much easier to be multiplexed. As with the UEWDFs, the 3-port parallel adaptors can be replaced by the corresponding systolic adaptors if the filter is implemented in parallel (Fig. 4.10). The sampling frequency of the filter in parallel form would be around  $(1.3/2)$  MHz for 16-bit signals and 4-bit coefficients (Table 4.2). The sampling frequency of the filter is independent of the order of the filter. The number of transistors needed to implement an Nth order filter is,

$$(N \times 33120) + NT_d$$

where  $NT_d$  is the number of transistors required to implement the delays between the adaptors.

It is also possible to implement the filter by multiplexing one 3-port parallel systolic adaptor to the required filter order. The filter structure of a multiplexed LCWDF is roughly the same as that of a UEWDF given in Fig. 3.15 in chapter 3. The sampling frequency of the filter now depends on the order of the filter.

#### 4.5.0- Description of LCFD.S0 program

Fig. 4.13 illustrates the main menu of LCFD.S0 program. The procedure to design a finite wordlength LCWDF is very much the same as in UEFD.S0 and LTFD.S0 program. The following is a brief outline of how the program may be used,

- 1) First we must decide on how the reference filter is going to be designed. One way would be to use filter design tables to obtain the element values of the reference filter for a given set of specifications. In this case, the reference filter is described by the method shown in Fig. 4.12. Then the WDF coefficients are calculated using the KUroda's transforms. The other approach to the design of the reference filter would be to use explicit formulae to evaluate the element values. This can be achieved by choosing option '2' in the main menu. The filter can be designed with a Butterworth or a Chebyshev response.

- 2) Having designed the reference filter, the next stage is to calculate the LCWDF coefficients. This is done by choosing option '3'. At this stage the coefficients can be saved in a file using option '4' for later use. The initial coefficients can also be entered directly from the terminal using option '5'.

- 3) Now, we can enter the optimization routine and design finite wordlength filters using option '4'. As

with UEFD.S0 and LTFD.S0 programs, if the algorithm is successful then the final coefficients from FWLD routine will be quantized to the required number of bits. If however the specifications are not met then the number of bits is increased by one and the algorithm is run again. The final coefficients can also be saved using option '5' from the main menu.

The frequency response of the filter designed can be checked using the ANAWDF program.

Fig. 4.14- Main menu of the LCFD.S0 program.

FILTER NO.	PASS BAND EDGE FREQ	STOP BAND EDGE FREQ	MAX ATTEN IN PASSBAND	MIN LOSS IN STOPBAND
1	2.10	2.20	1.0	50
2	2.24	2.30	2.5	50
3	2.40	2.45	2.5	50

Sampling frequency is normalized to 1.0 Hz.

## PROGRAM TO DESIGN LC-LADDER WDFS

### MAIN MENU

- 1) READ INITIAL COEFFICIENTS.
- 2) DESIGN LC-LADDER FILTERS.
- 3) DESIGN LC-LADDER WDFS.
- 4) DESIGN FINITE WORDLENGTH WDFS.
- 5) SAVE COEFFICIENTS.
- 6) END PROGRAM.

Fig. 4.14- Main menu of the LCFD.S0 program.

FILTER NO.	PASS BAND EDGE FREQ	STOP BAND EDGE FREQ	MAX RIPPLE IN PASSBAND	MIN LOSS IN STOPBAND
1	0.10	0.20	1.0	50
2	0.20	0.30	0.5	60
3	0.40	0.45	0.5	60

Sampling frequency is normalised to 1.0 HZ.

Table 4.3.

#### 4.6.0- Analysis and Simulation Results

In this section, we present a number of examples to illustrate how the LCFD.S0 program can be used to design finite wordlength LCWDFs. Also results from the simulation of the 3-port and the universal adaptors are included to prove the correctness of the designs.

Table 4.3 illustrates the specifications of the filters to be designed. In all the plots obtained from the design program, the following symbols are used for different frequency responses,

(a) '+' Frequency response of the filter with synthesis coefficients.

(b) 'x' Frequency response of the filter with quantized coefficients.

(c) 'o' Frequency response of the filter with FWLD program coefficients.

From eqn. 1.35 and 1.39, the LCWDF coefficients are in the range of  $0 < a_k < 2$ . Therefore there is no need to use a sign bit when the coefficients are represented in binary form. Instead one bit has to be allocated to the real part of the coefficients and the rest of the bits to the decimal part. Here, when we use the term number of bits, it does not include the real part of the coefficients and only represents the number of bits required to express the decimal part.



#### 4.6.1- Example 4.1

In the first example, we consider the design of LCWDF for filter No. (1), Table 4.3. In all the design, the initial coefficients are obtained using explicit formulas. Using option '2' from the main menu of the LCFD.S0 program, Fig. 4.13, it was estimated that in order to meet the specifications the filter order has to be greater than 4. Thus a 5th order chebychev LC-ladder filter was designed. Next, the element values of the LC-ladder filter were used to derive a LCWDF with inserted UEs using option '3'. The resulting coefficients were then used as the initial coefficients for the optimization program. The optimization program managed to minimize the coefficients wordlength to 6-bits and the number of error function calls was 695, i.e. NFUNC = 695. The synthesis and the FWLD program coefficients are as follows,

	Synthesis Coeff	FWLD Coeff 6-Bits
1)	1.0000000	0.984375
2)	0.2408364	0.250000
3)	0.6827608	0.703125
4)	0.9460297	1.078125
5)	0.1002782	0.093750
6)	1.8305648	1.843750
7)	0.0580506	0.062500
8)	1.8830614	1.875000
9)	0.0734825	0.062500
10)	1.6720402	1.546875

Fig. 4.14 shows the frequency responses of the filter with (a) synthesis coefficients, (b) quantized

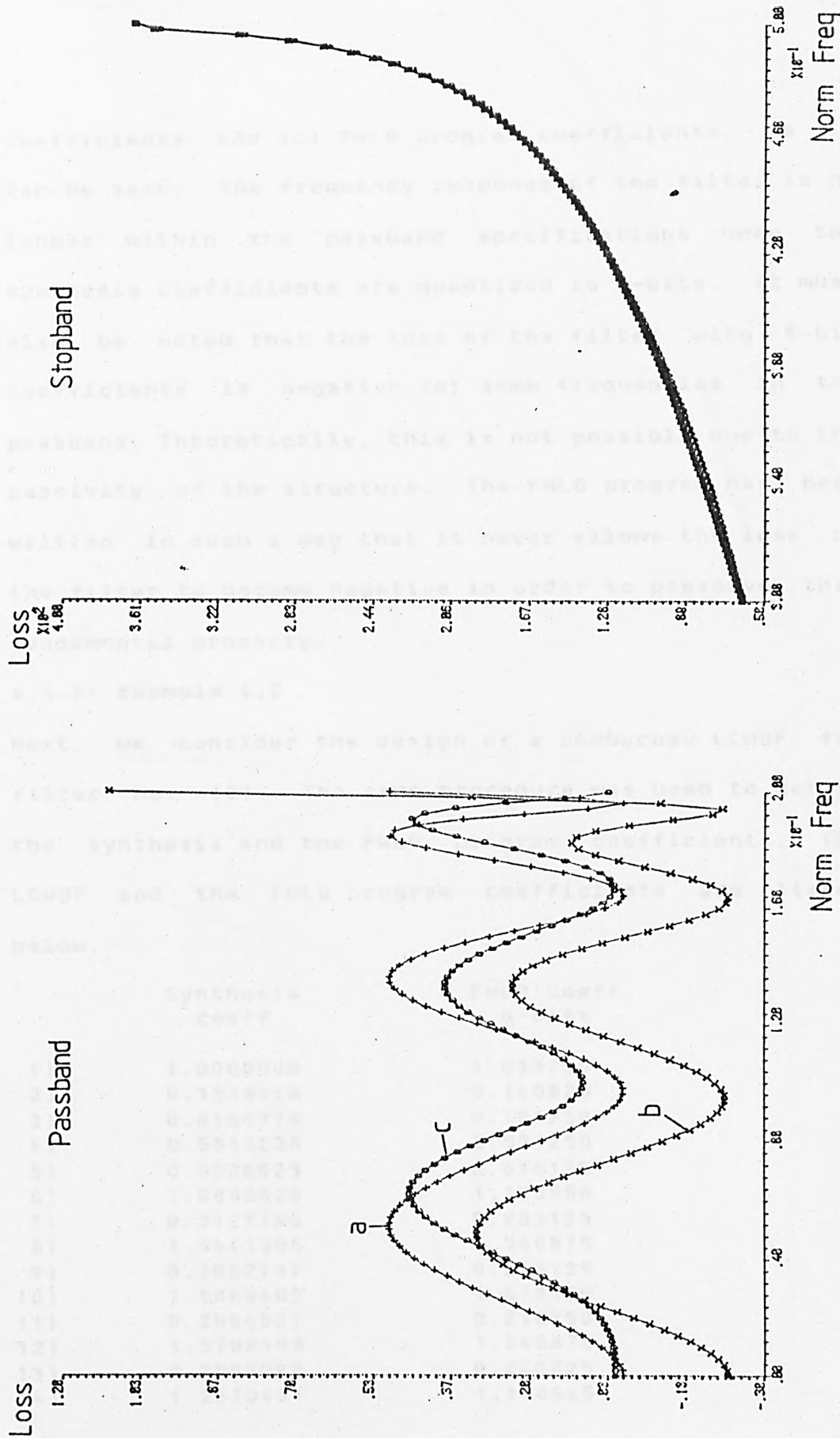


Fig.4.14\_ Frequency responses for example 4.1 .

coefficients and (c) FWLD program coefficients. As it can be seen, the frequency response of the filter is no longer within the passband specifications when the synthesis coefficients are quantized to 6-bits. It must also be noted that the loss of the filter with 6-bit coefficients is negative for some frequencies in the passband. Theoretically, this is not possible due to the passivity of the structure. The FWLD program has been written in such a way that it never allows the loss of the filter to become negative in order to preserve this fundamental property.

#### 4.6.2- Example 4.2

Next, we consider the design of a chebychev LCWDF for filter No. (2). The same procedure was used to derive the synthesis and the FWLD program coefficients. The LCWDF and the FWLD program coefficients are listed below,

	Synthesis coeff	FWLD Coeff 6-bits
1)	1.0000000	1.093750
2)	0.1558068	0.140625
3)	0.8154370	0.781250
4)	0.5513635	0.531250
5)	0.5526625	0.578125
6)	1.0989629	1.125000
7)	0.2127180	0.203125
8)	1.5441308	1.546875
9)	0.2052737	0.203125
10)	1.5869409	1.578125
11)	0.2084537	0.218750
12)	1.5708108	1.546875
13)	0.2598022	0.265625
14)	1.2270431	1.140625

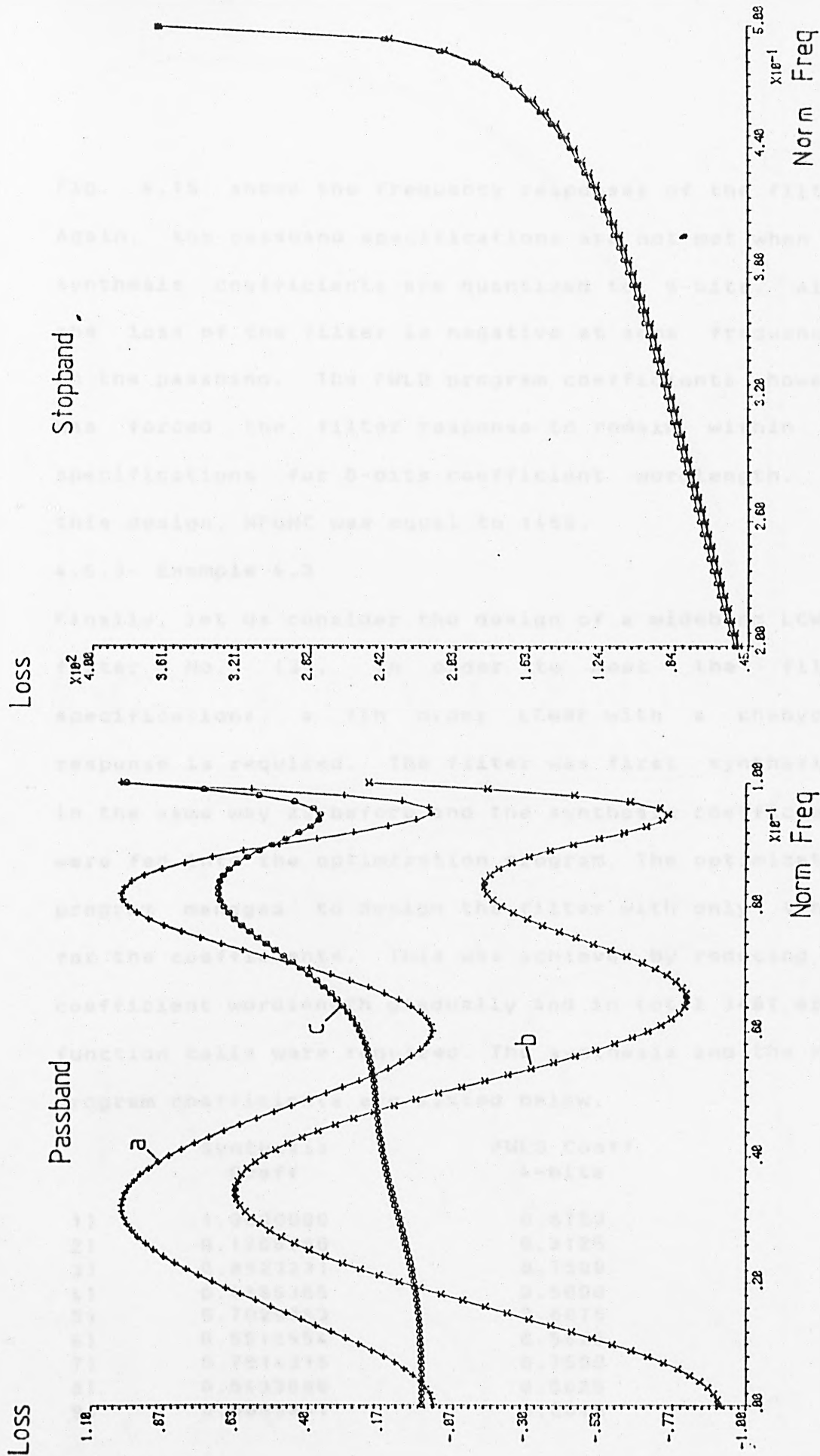


Fig. 4.15\_ Frequency responses for example 4.2 .

Fig. 4.15 shows the frequency responses of the filter. Again, the passband specifications are not met when the synthesis coefficients are quantized to 6-bits. Also, the loss of the filter is negative at some frequencies in the passband. The FWLD program coefficients however has forced the filter response to remain within the specifications for 6-bits coefficient wordlength. For this design, NFUNC was equal to 1456.

#### 4.6.3- Example 4.3

Finally, let us consider the design of a wideband LCWDF, filter No. (3). In order to meet the filter specifications, a 7th order LCWDF with a chebychev response is required. The filter was first synthesised in the same way as before and the synthesis coefficients were fed into the optimization program. The optimization program managed to design the filter with only 40bits for the coefficients. This was achieved by reducing the coefficient wordlength gradually and in total 3487 error function calls were required. The synthesis and the FWLD program coefficients are listed below,

	Synthesis Coeff	FWLD Coeff 4-bits
1)	1.0000000	0.8750
2)	0.1286760	0.3125
3)	0.8523231	0.7500
4)	0.4166365	0.5000
5)	0.7020883	0.6875
6)	0.5919554	0.5625
7)	0.7514318	0.7500
8)	0.5433666	0.5625
9)	0.6099947	0.6875



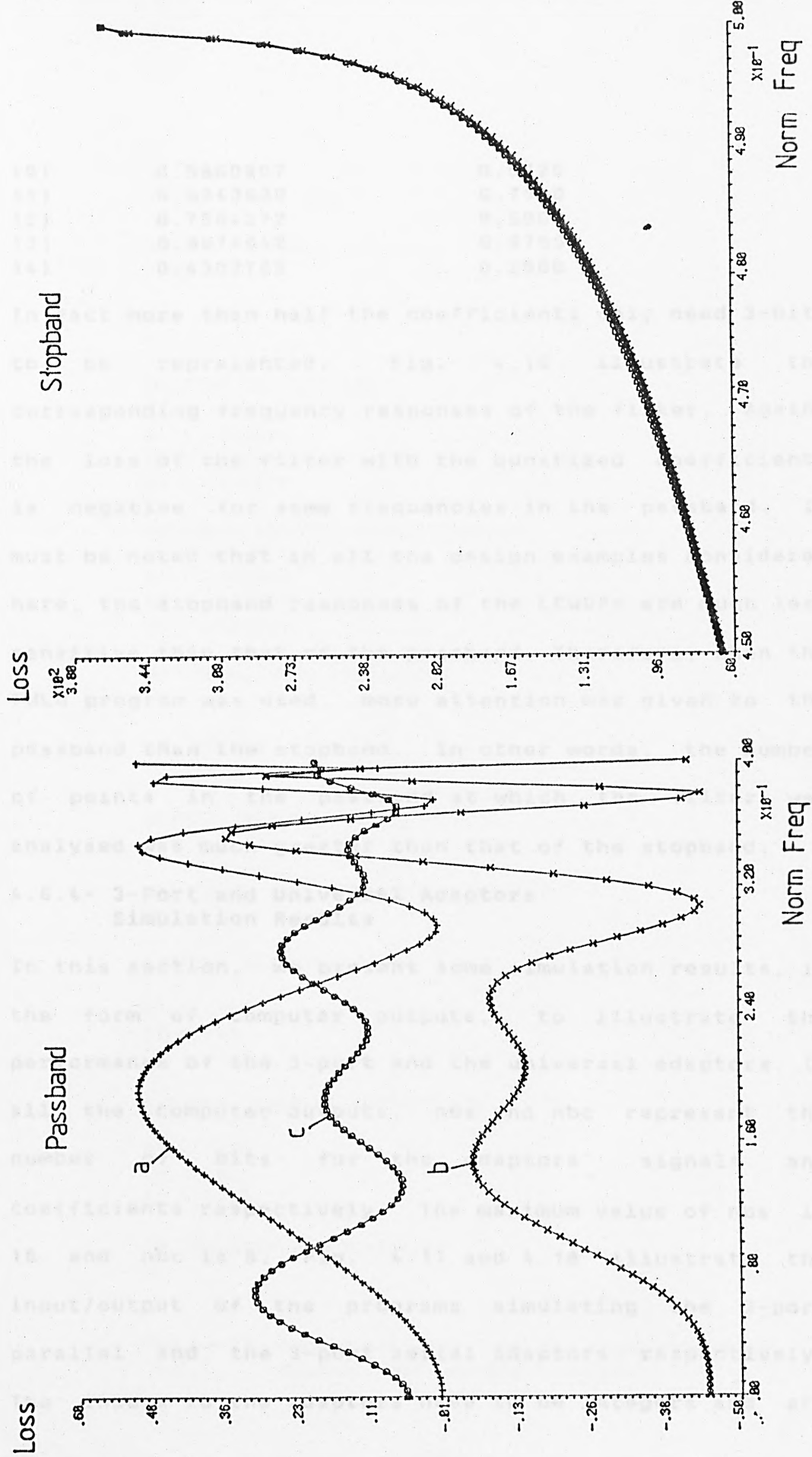


Fig. 4.16 - Frequency responses for example 4.3 .

10)	0.5860907	0.5625
11)	0.6643630	0.7500
12)	0.7584272	0.5000
13)	0.8074642	0.8750
14)	0.4302789	0.2500

In fact more than half the coefficients only need 3-bits to be represented. Fig. 4.16 illustrate the corresponding frequency responses of the filter. Again, the loss of the filter with the quantized coefficients is negative for some frequencies in the passband. It must be noted that in all the design examples considered here, the stopband responses of the LCWDFs are much less sensitive than that of the passband. Therefore, when the FWLD program was used, more attention was given to the passband than the stopband. In other words, the number of points in the passband at which the filter was analysed was much greater than that of the stopband.

#### 4.6.4- 3-Port and Universal Adaptors Simulation Results

In this section, we present some simulation results, in the form of computer outputs, to illustrate the performance of the 3-port and the universal adaptors. In all the computer outputs, nbs and nbc represent the number of bits for the adaptors' signals and coefficients respectively. The maximum value of nbs is 16 and nbc is 8. Fig. 4.17 and 4.18 illustrate the input/output of the programs simulating the 3-port parallel and the 3-port serial adaptors respectively. The inputs to the adaptors have to be integers and are

A1 A2 A3  
=-1098 2987 -109

ALPHA1 ALPHA2  
=109 -100

NBS NBC  
=16 8

ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-

B1 = -416521  
B2 = -420606  
B3 = -417510

SYSTOLIC ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-

B1 = -416521  
B2 = -420606  
B3 = -417510

DO YOU WISH TO STOP?(Y/N)  
=N

A1 A2 A3  
=5 -10 6

ALPHA1 ALPHA2  
=-5 7

NBS NBC  
=6 4

ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-

B1 = -100  
B2 = -85  
B3 = -101

SYSTOLIC ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-

B1 = -100  
B2 = -85  
B3 = -101

DO YOU WISH TO STOP?(Y/N)  
=Y

Fig. 4.17- Sample examples from the 3-port parallel systolic WDF adaptor program.

A1 A2 A3  
=-19 9 -14

ALPHA1 ALPHA2 ALPHA3  
=-9 -16 10

NBS NBC  
=16 8

ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-

B1 = 255  
B2 = -375  
B3 = 226

SYSTOLIC ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-

B1 = 255  
B2 = -375  
B3 = 226

DO YOU WISH TO STOP?(Y/N)  
=N

A1 A2 A3  
=-12 5 -18

ALPHA1 ALPHA2 ALPHA3  
=-6 7 5

NBS NBC  
=6 4

ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-

B1 = -168  
B2 = 187  
B3 = 112

SYSTOLIC ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-

B1 = -168  
B2 = 187  
B3 = 112

DO YOU WISH TO STOP?(Y/N)  
=Y

Fig. 4.18- Sample examples from the 3-port serial

converted to binary in the programs. The arrays must be first initialized with the values of the inputs, i.e the carry bits and the P bits.

Fig. 4.19 shows the input/output of the program simulating the universal systolic adaptor. A number of examples have been given to illustrate the use of the array for realising different adaptors. Listing of these programs are included in Appendix 'B'.

ENTER YOUR VALUES HERE :-  
A2

ADAPTOR SELECTED - A1 A2 A3  
N=2 I=20 J=4 K

HOW MANY  
N=2

THE ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-

A4 = -774  
A5 = -826  
A6 = -880

THE SYSTOLIC ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-

A1 = -774  
A2 = -826  
A3 = -880

TYPE ANY TO CONTINUE !!)

Fig. 4.19a- Sample result from the Universal systolic array adaptor simulating a 2-port parallel adaptor.



**PAGE MISSING IN  
ORIGINAL**

# UNIVERSAL SYSTOLIC WDF ADAPTOR

## MENU

- 1) 2-PORT ADAPTOR.
- 2) 3-PORT PARALLEL ADAPTOR.
- 3) 3-PORT SERIAL ADAPTOR.
- 4) END PROGRAM,

ENTER YOUR CHOICE NUMBER :-  
=2

ALPHA1 ALPHA2 A1 A2 A3  
=-3 7 120 -34 28

NBS NBC  
=16 8

THE ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-

B1 = -774  
B2 = -620  
B3 = -682

THE SYSTOLIC ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-

B1 = -774  
B2 = -620  
B3 = -682

TYPE <CR> TO CONTINUE !!!

Fig. 4.19b- Sample result from the universal systolic WDF adaptor simulating a 3-port parallel adaptor.

## UNIVERSAL SYSTOLIC WDF ADAPTOR

### MENU

- 1) 2-PORT ADAPTOR.
- 2) 3-PORT PARALLEL ADAPTOR.
- 3) 3-PORT SERIAL ADAPTOR.
- 4) END PROGRAM.

ENTER YOUR CHOICE NUMBER :-

=3

ALPHA1 ALPHA2 ALPHA3 A1 A2 A3

=98 -109 120 1098 -1987 16540

NBS NBC

=16 8

THE ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-

B1 = -1532700

B2 = 1703972

B3 = -1861580

THE SYSTOLIC ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-

B1 = -1532700

B2 = 1703972

B3 = -1861580

TYPE <CR> TO CONTINUE !!!

Fig. 4.19c- Sample result from the universal systolic WDF adaptor simulating a 3-port serial adaptor.

#### 4.7.0- Discussion and Comments

In this chapter, we considered the design and systolic implementation of LCWDFs. These filters can be designed in many different ways. Each method results in structures which differ from the others in terms of complexity, number of multipliers, etc. A number of different techniques for the design of LCWDFs have been described briefly and the design of LCWDFs with inserted UEs have been considered in more detail. A computer program has been developed to design these filters and the element values of the LC-ladder reference filter are obtained using explicit formulas. This method of design results in a LCWDF which can be realised using 3-port parallel adaptors only. These structures can be implemented easily by multiplexing one adaptor to the required filter order.

The systolic implementation of the 3-port parallel and 3-port serial adaptor have been achieved using the systolic arrays developed in chapter two. Also, a universal systolic adaptor has been developed which can realise 2-port, 3-port serial and 3-port parallel adaptors. The results from the simulation programs of these systolic adaptors illustrate the correctness of the designs.

The filter examples have illustrated how the optimization program can be used to minimize the

coefficient wordlength of the LCWDF. In some cases, the resulting FWLD program coefficients are very simple and require small number of bits for their representation. example 4.3.

Theoretically, it is not possible for the frequency response of a WDF to be negative. This is due to the fact that WDFs are derived from passive analogue filters. From the design examples, it can be seen that in all the cases the loss of the LCWDFs are negative at some frequency points in the passband. In the optimization program, this fundamental property of WDFs, i.e the passivity of the filter, is preserved by not allowing the loss to become negative.

The design of the filter No. (1) has also been considered in chapter three. From examples 3.1, 3.2 and 4.1, we need either a 7th order UEWDF, a 5th order LTWDF or a 5th order LCWDF to meet the specifications. In all the cases, the coefficient wordlength of the filters has been minimized to 6-bits. In terms of the number of multipliers, we need 8, 5 and 10 multipliers for a UEWDF, LTWDF and a LCWDF respectively. Therefore, LTWDF require less multiplications than the other two filters. The UEWDF and LCWDF can however be multiplexed much easier than the LTWDF. Also, the stopband of a LCWDF is extremely insensitive to variations in its multiplier coefficients. Therefore, for a set of specifications and



a particular application, one must choose a WDF which meets his requirements.

## REFERENCES

### 1. Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to present a new method for the design of digital filters. The method is based on the use of a new type of digital filter, called a "digital filter with variable coefficients". This type of filter is characterized by the fact that its coefficients are not constant, but vary with time. This allows the filter to adapt to changes in the input signal, which is a very useful property in many applications.

In this paper, we will first describe the basic principles of the digital filter with variable coefficients. Then, we will present a new method for the design of such filters. Finally, we will discuss the advantages and disadvantages of this method.

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In this paper, we will first describe the basic principles of the digital filter with variable coefficients. Then, we will present a new method for the design of such filters. Finally, we will discuss the advantages and disadvantages of this method.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### FREQUENCY TRANSFORMATIONS

#### 5.1.0- Introduction

In the previous chapters, we have discussed different techniques for the design of lowpass WDFs. The aim of this chapter is to briefly consider the existing techniques for the design of highpass, bandpass and bandstop WDFs and present the results which have been obtained.

In general, there are two main approaches to the design of highpass, bandpass and bandstop digital filters. These design procedures are summarised in Fig. 5.1a and 5.1b. In the first approach, Fig. 5.1a, a lowpass prototype filter is first designed. Next, a suitable frequency transformation is used to transform the lowpass filter to a highpass, bandpass or a bandstop filter. Finally, the analogue filter is mapped into a corresponding digital filter with the use of a suitable transformation (e.g, bilinear transformation).

In the second approach, Fig. 5.1b, the analogue lowpass filter designed is first transformed into a lowpass digital filter. Next, a suitable frequency transformation is carried out in the discrete-time domain to obtain a highpass, a bandpass or a bandstop

digital filter.

In chapter one, it was mentioned that any WDF has two inputs,  $A_1$  and  $A_2$ , and two outputs,  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  (Fig. 5.2). The outputs of the WDF are complementary, i.e. if the filter is designed to have a lowpass characteristics and if  $B_2$  is the output of the filter, then  $B_2$  will have lowpass characteristics while  $B_1$  has a highpass characteristics. Similarly, if the filter is designed as a bandpass filter, then  $B_2$  will have a bandpass characteristics while  $B_1$  has a bandstop characteristics. This is the simplest and the cheapest way with which highpass or bandstop filters may be designed. However, it is known [27] that the sensitivity of the output  $B_1$  is much higher than that of  $B_2$ .

In section 5.2, we consider the design of highpass WDFs. We examine the behaviour of the complementary outputs of different WDFs. Also, other approaches to the design of highpass WDFs are considered.

In section 5.3 and 5.4, we consider the design of bandpass and bandstop WDFs respectively. Finally, in section 5.5 a synthesis procedure is briefly described which enables one to design any frequency selective WDFs based on lc-ladder reference filters with inserted unit elements [42]. Here, the UEs do contribute to the response of the filters while in the method described in chapter four, they were redundant.

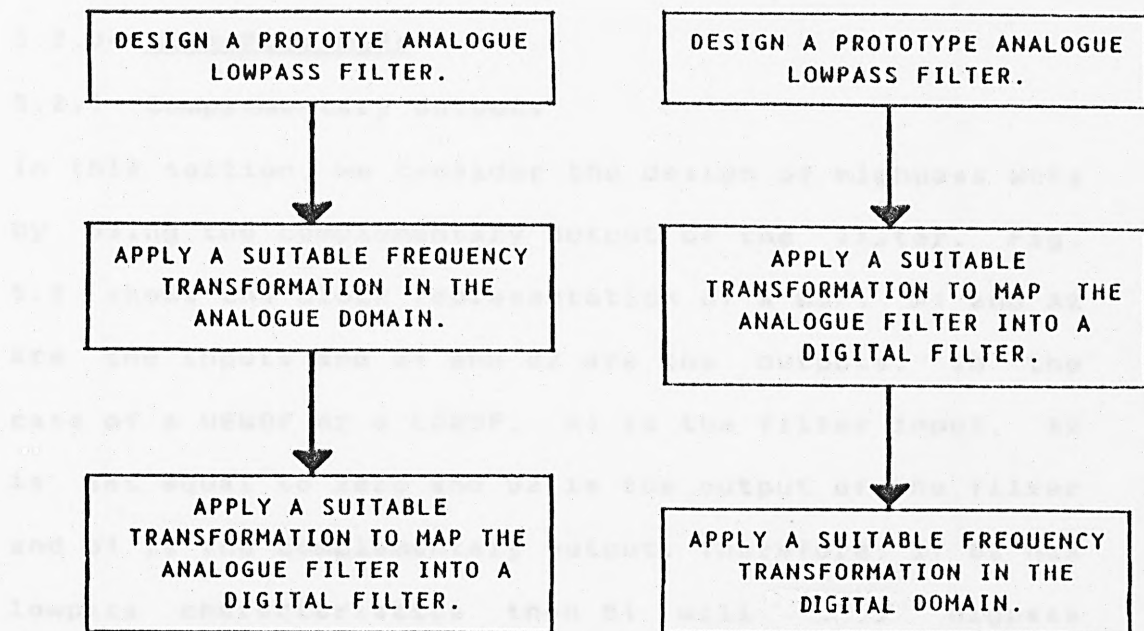


Fig. 5.1- Two procedures for the design of frequency selective digital filters.

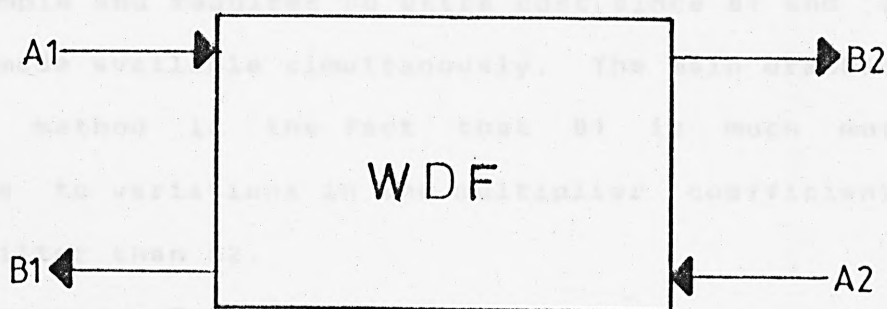


Fig. 5.2- General block representation of a WDF.

### 5.2.0- High-Pass WDFs

#### 5.2.1- Complementary Outputs

In this section, we consider the design of highpass WDFs by using the complementary output of the filter. Fig. 5.2 shows the block representation of a WDF.  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are the inputs and  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  are the outputs. In the case of a UEWDF or a LCWDF,  $A_1$  is the filter input,  $A_2$  is set equal to zero and  $B_2$  is the output of the filter and  $B_1$  is the complementary output. Therefore, if  $B_2$  has lowpass characteristics then  $B_1$  will have highpass characteristics. This is shown in Fig. 5.3a and Fig. 5.3b for a UEWDF and a LCWDF respectively. For a LTWDF,  $A_1$  is the input,  $A_2$  is set equal to zero and  $B_1$  is taken as the output while  $B_2$  is the complementary output. Fig. 5.3c shows the characteristics of  $B_2$  and  $B_1$  when the filter is designed as a lowpass filter. This approach is very simple and requires no extra cost since  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  can be made available simultaneously. The main drawback of this method is the fact that  $B_1$  is much more sensitive to variations in the multiplier coefficients of the filter than  $B_2$ .

#### 5.2.2- Frequency Transformation

The simplest lowpass to highpass transformation may be obtained by replacing  $z^{-1}$  by  $-z^{-1}$  [93,94] in the WDF structure. This is a special case of a more general lowpass to highpass transformation which is given as,



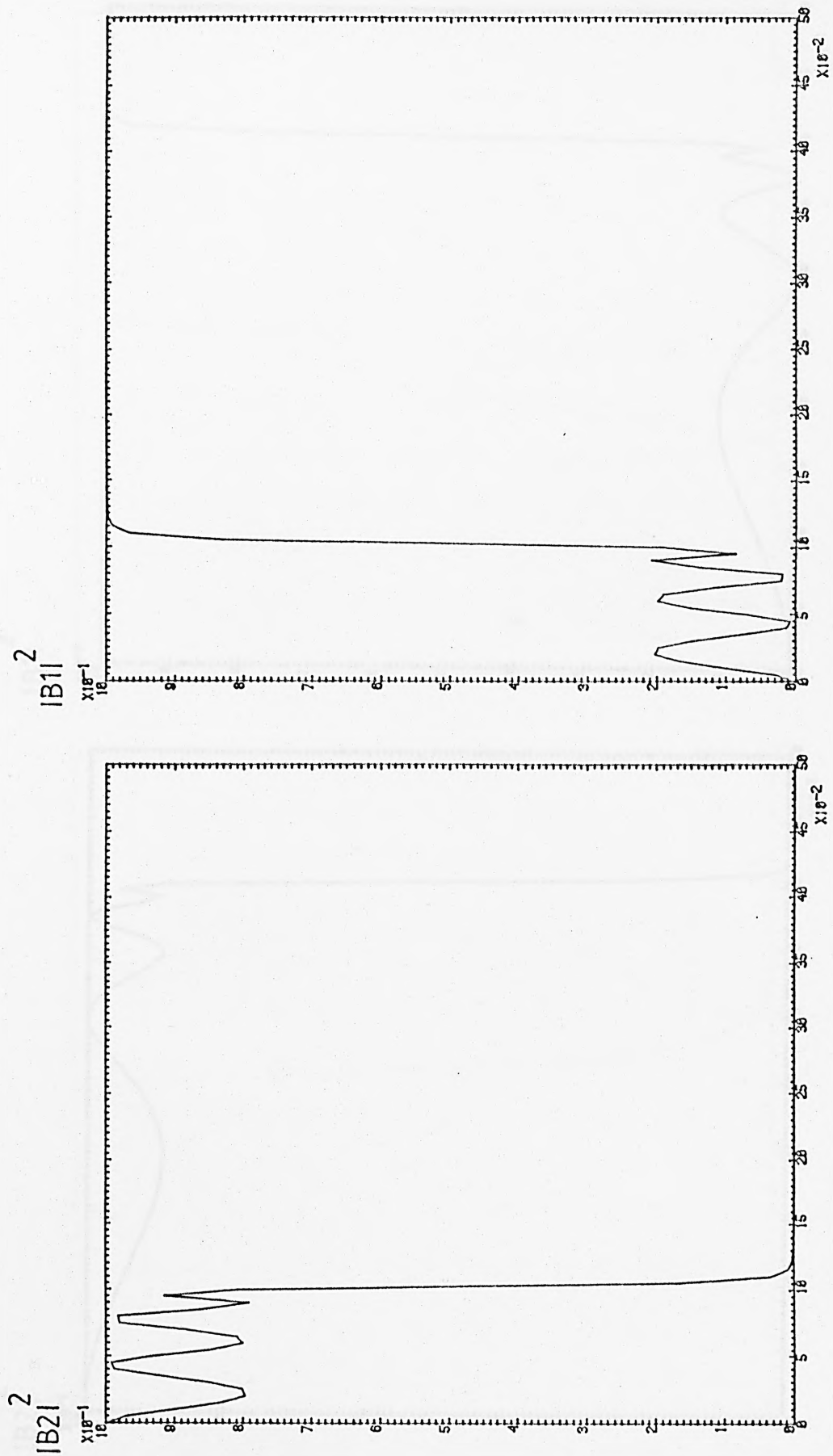


Fig. 5.3 - a) The output and the complementary out put of a UEWDF .

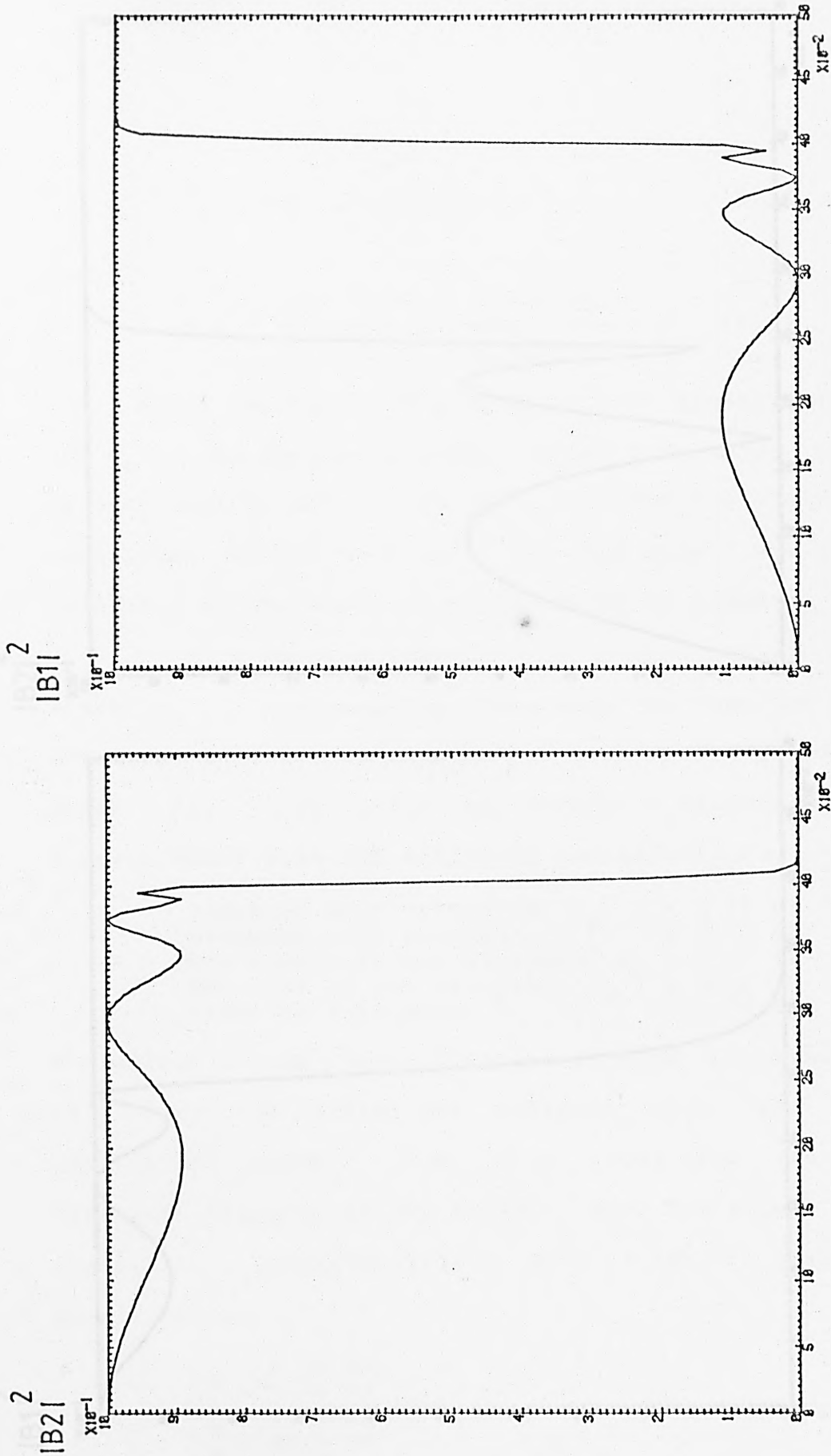


Fig. 5.3 — b) The output and the complementary output of a LCWDF.

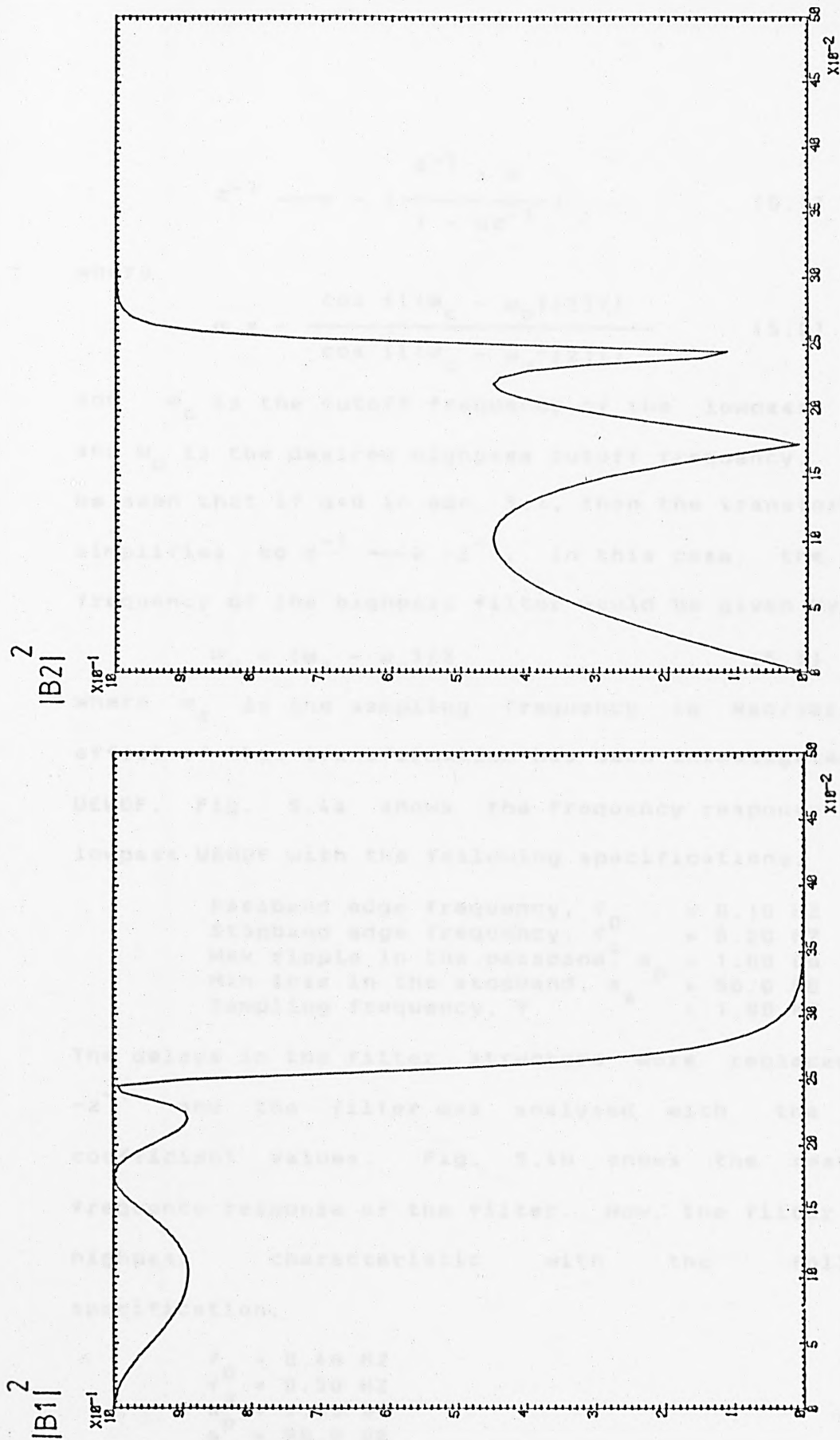


Fig. 5.3 - c) The output and the complementary output of a LTWDF .

$$z^{-1} \longrightarrow - \left( \frac{z^{-1} - \alpha}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}} \right) \quad (5.1)$$

where

$$\alpha = - \frac{\cos \{[(\omega_c - \omega_u)/2]T\}}{\cos \{[(\omega_c + \omega_u)/2]T\}} \quad (5.2)$$

and  $\omega_c$  is the cutoff frequency of the lowpass filter and  $\omega_u$  is the desired highpass cutoff frequency. It can be seen that if  $\alpha=0$  in eqn. 5.1, then the transformation simplifies to  $z^{-1} \longrightarrow -z^{-1}$ . In this case, the cutoff frequency of the highpass filter would be given by,

$$\omega_u = (\omega_s - \omega_c)/2 \quad (5.3)$$

where  $\omega_s$  is the sampling frequency in Rad/Sec. The effect of this transformation has been investigated on a UEWDF. Fig. 5.4a shows the frequency response of a lowpass UEWDF with the following specifications,

Passband edge frequency, $f_p$	= 0.10 HZ
Stopband edge frequency, $f_s$	= 0.20 HZ
Max ripple in the passband, $a_p$	= 1.00 DB
Min loss in the stopband, $a_s$	= 50.0 DB
Sampling frequency, $f_s$	= 1.00 HZ

The delays in the filter structure were replaced with  $-z^{-1}$  and the filter was analysed with the same coefficient values. Fig. 5.4b shows the resulting frequency response of the filter. Now, the filter has a highpass characteristic with the following specification,

$f_p$	= 0.40 HZ
$f_s$	= 0.30 HZ
$a_p$	= 1.00 DB
$a_s$	= 50.0 DB

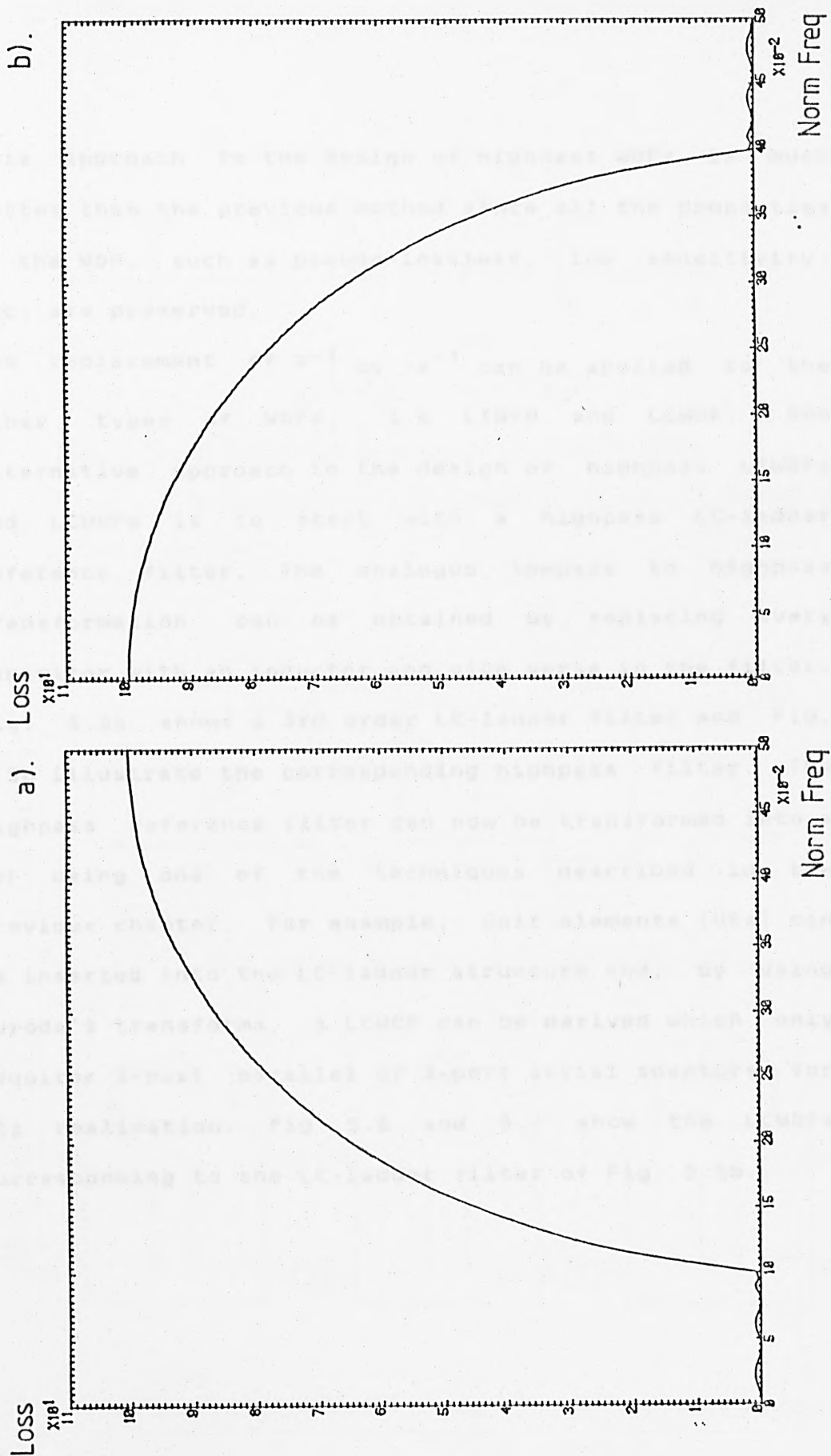


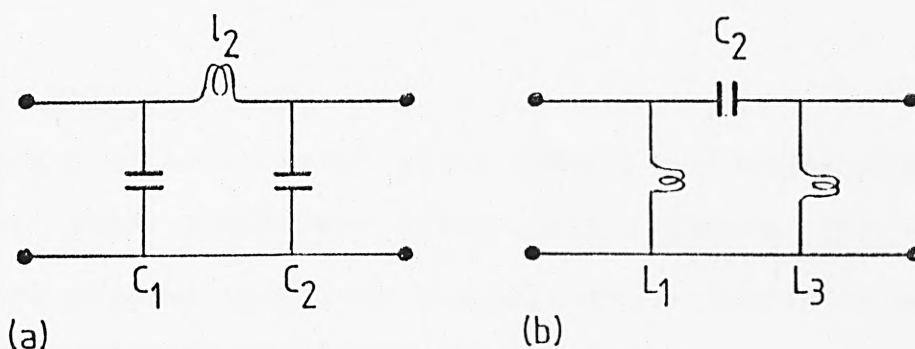
Fig. 5.4 — a) Low-Pass UEWDF ; b) Corresponding High-Pass filter ( $\bar{Z}^{-1}$  —  $-\bar{Z}$ ).



This approach to the design of highpass WDFs is much better than the previous method since all the properties of the WDF, such as pseudo-lossless, low sensitivity, etc, are preserved.

The replacement of  $z^{-1}$  by  $-z^{-1}$  can be applied to the other types of WDFs, i.e LTWFD and LCWDF. One alternative approach to the design of highpass LTWDFs and LCWDFs is to start with a highpass LC-ladder reference filter. The analogue lowpass to highpass transformation can be obtained by replacing every capacitor with an inductor and vice versa in the filter. Fig. 5.5a shows a 3rd order LC-ladder filter and Fig. 5.5b illustrate the corresponding highpass filter. The highpass reference filter can now be transformed into a WDF using one of the techniques described in the previous chapter. For example, unit elements (UEs) can be inserted into the LC-ladder structure and, by using Kuroda's transforms, a LCWDF can be derived which only requires 3-port parallel or 3-port serial adaptors for its realisation. Fig 5.6 and 5.7 show the LCWDFs corresponding to the LC-ladder filter of Fig. 5.5b.

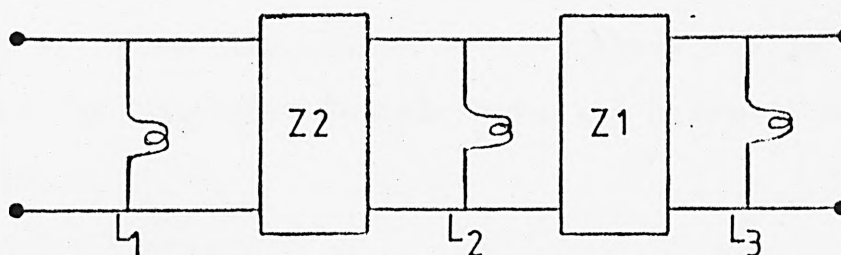
Fig. 5.6 - Highpass LCWDF using 3-port parallel adaptors.



$$L_k = 1/\omega_c C, \quad C_k = 1/\omega_c L$$

Fig. 5.5 - a) 3rd order Low pass LC-ladder filter.

b) Corresponding 3rd order High-pass LC-ladder filter.



3rd order Highpass filter with UEs.

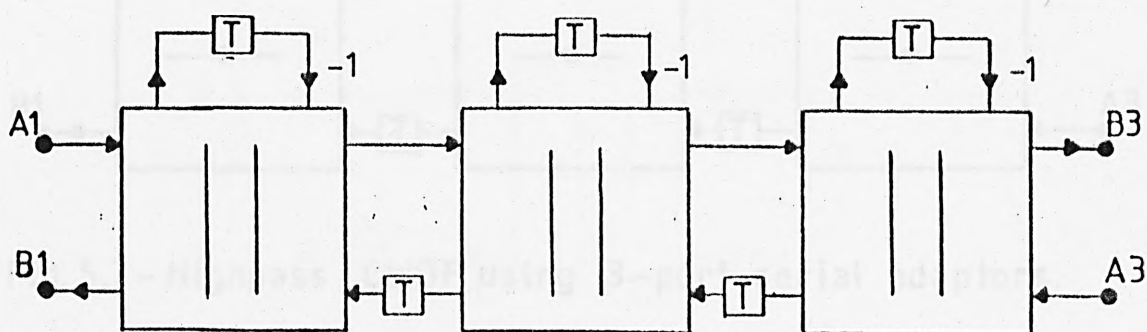
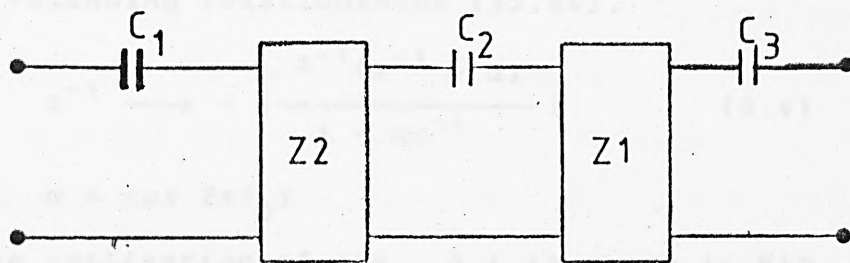


Fig. 5.6 - Highpass LCWDF using 3-port parallel adaptors.



3rd order Highpass filter with UEs.

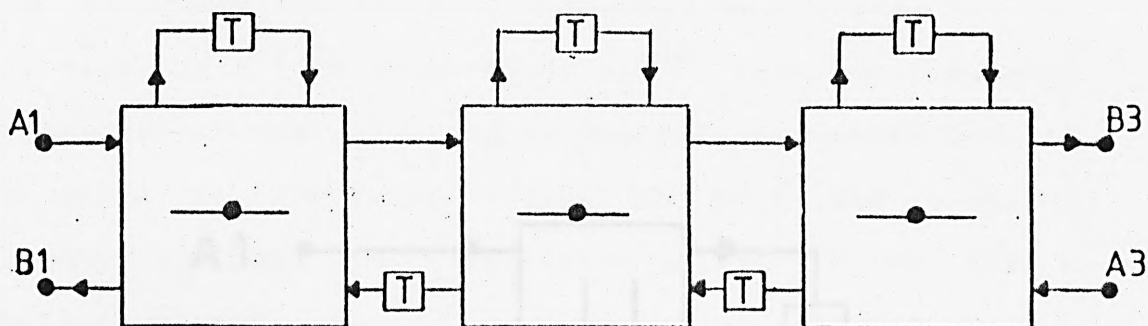


Fig. 5.7 - Highpass LCWDF using 3-port serial adaptors.

### 5.3.0- Band-Pass WDFs

Suppose that it is required to convert a lowpass digital filter into a bandpass filter with a centre frequency  $f_0$ . The digital frequency transformation needed is given by the following relationships [93,94],

$$z^{-1} \rightarrow - \left( \frac{z^{-1}(z^{-1} - \alpha)}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}} \right) \quad (5.4)$$

where  $\alpha = \cos 2\pi f_0 T$

The wave realisation of eqn. 5.4 is shown in Fig. 5.8. Therefore, in order to transform a lowpass WDF into a bandpass WDF, the delays in the filter structure must be replaced by this new block. This block is in fact equivalent to the wave realisation of a parallel tuned circuit [2].

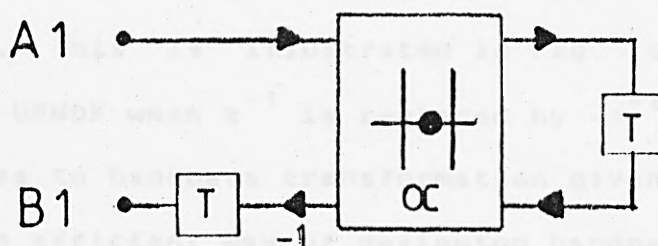


Fig.5.8 - Wave realisation of eqn.5.4.

This transformation is done for the UEWDFs and Fig. 5.9a and 5.9b show the transformation of a lowpass UEWDF into a bandpass UEWDF with  $f_0=0.20$  HZ. A simple form of this lowpass to bandpass transformation can be obtained by setting  $\alpha$  equal to zero in eqn. 5.4. This form of transformation is particularly important since the loss characteristics of the resulting bandpass filter is arithmeatically symmetrical about the centre frequency of  $f/4$ , where  $f$  is the sampling frequency of the filter. In this case, the transformation simplifies to,

$$z^{-1} \longrightarrow -z^{-2} \quad (5.5)$$

Fig. 5.10a shows the bandpass filter obtained by applying the transformation given by eqn. 5.5 to the lowpass filter of Fig. 5.4a.

The effect of replacing  $z^{-1}$  by  $-z^{-2}$  in a digital filter is to reduce the sampling frequency by a factor of 2. In fact, if  $z^{-1}$  is replaced by  $-z^{-2m}$ , then the frequency response of the resulting bandpass filter would contain  $m$  bands in the range of zero to half the sampling frequency. This is illustrated in Fig. 5.10b for a multiband UEWDF when  $z^{-1}$  is replaced by  $-z^{-4}$ .

The lowpass to bandpass transformation given in eqn. 5.4 is not an efficient way of designing bandpass LTWDFs or LCWDFs. This is due to the fact that after the transformation from lowpass to bandpass the resulting structures would become very complex since every delay



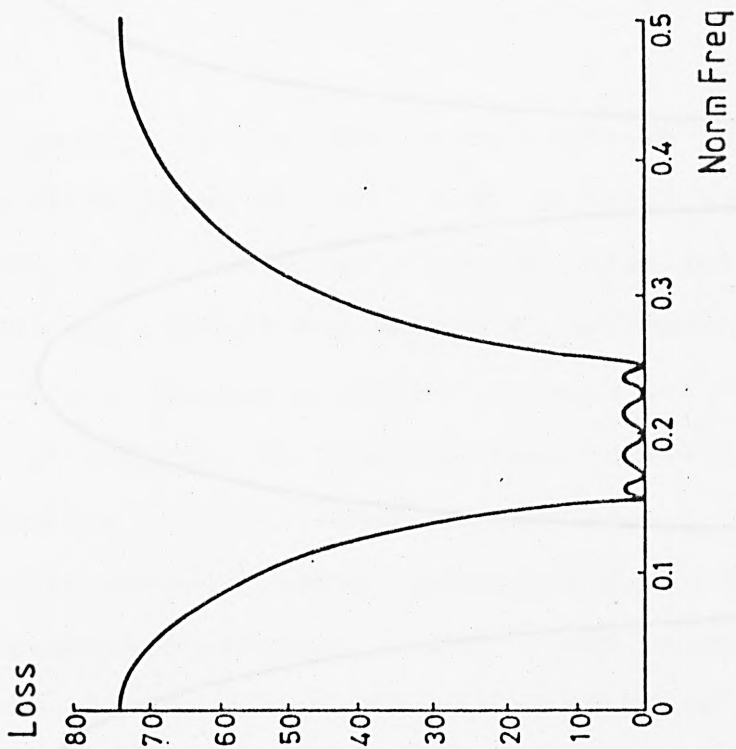
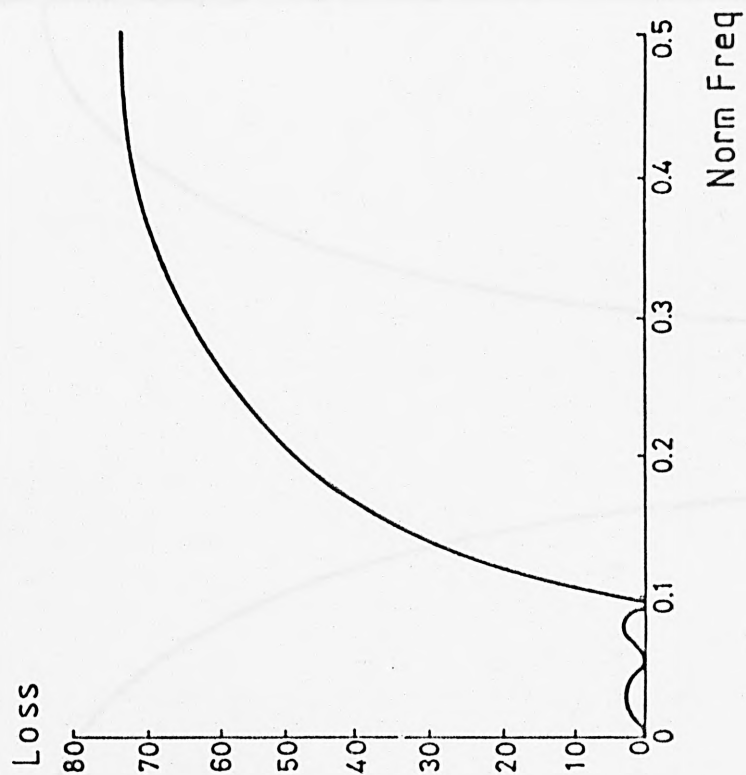


Fig. 5.9 - a) 5th order UEWDF.

b) Corresponding 10th order Bandpass  
UEWDF  $f_0 = 0.2$ .

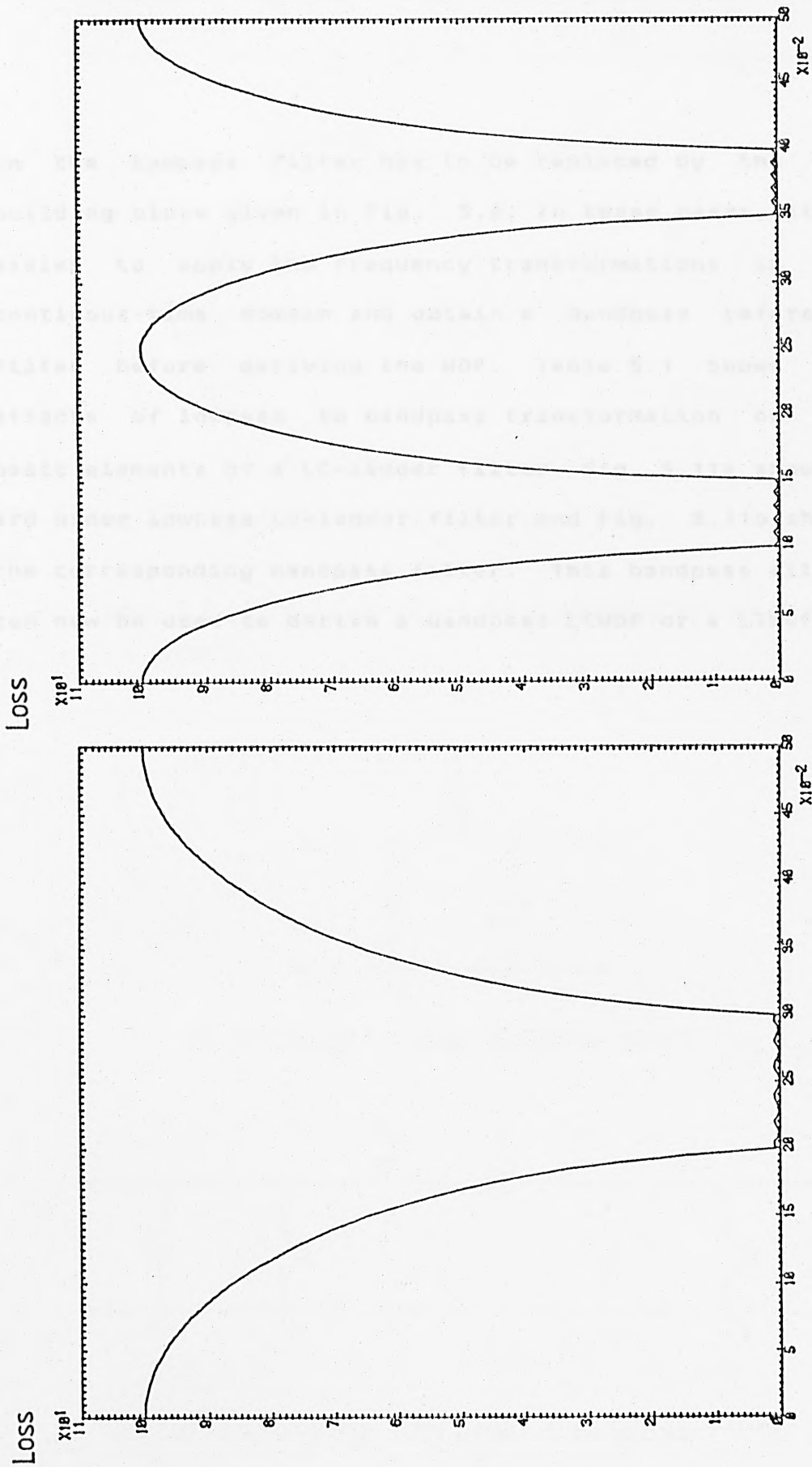


Fig. 5.10 \_ a) Band\_Pass UEWDF Corresponding to Fig. 5.4a ( $Z \rightarrow -Z$ ).  
 b) Multi \_ band UEWDF ( $Z \rightarrow -Z$ ).

in the lowpass filter has to be replaced by the new building block given in Fig. 5.8. In these cases, it is easier to apply the frequency transformations in the continuous-time domain and obtain a bandpass reference filter before deriving the WDF. Table 5.1 shows the effects of lowpass to bandpass transformation on the basic elements of a LC-ladder filter. Fig. 5.11a shows a 3rd order lowpass LC-ladder filter and Fig. 5.11b shows the corresponding bandpass filter. This bandpass filter can now be used to derive a bandpass LCWDF or a LTWDF.

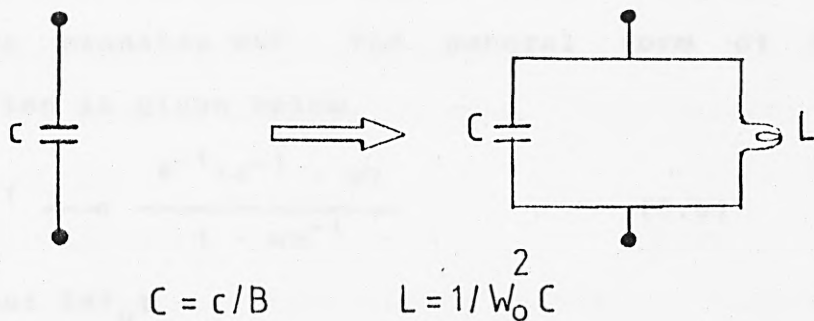
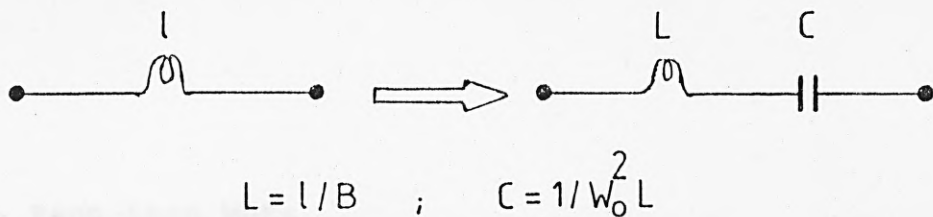
Fig. 5.11



a) 3rd order lowpass LC-ladder filter



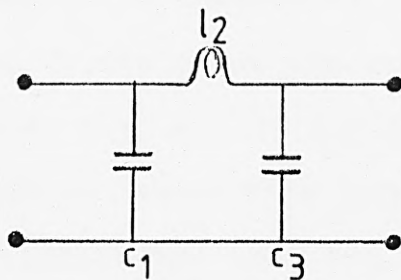
b) Corresponding 6th order Bandpass filter



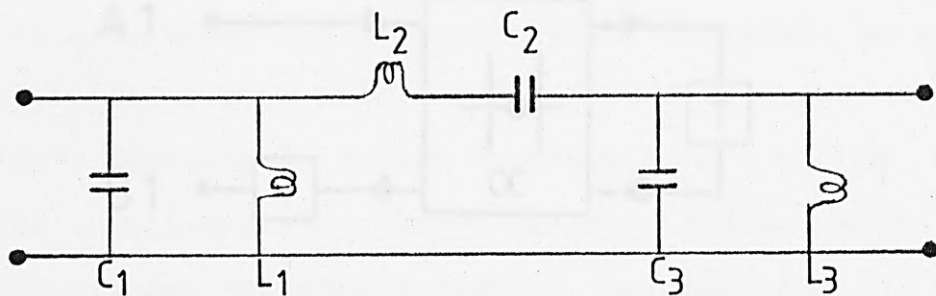
B is the Bandwidth of the Band-pass filter.

Table.5.1 \_ Effects of LP  $\rightarrow$  BP Transformation on inductors and capacitors.

Fig. 5.11



a). 3rd order Lowpass LC\_ladder filter.



b) Corresponding 6th order Bandpass filter.

#### 5.4.0- Band-Stop WDFs

Finally, let us consider the transformation of a lowpass WDF into a bandstop WDF. The general form of the transformation is given below,

$$z^{-1} \longrightarrow \frac{z^{-1}(z^{-1} - \alpha)}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}} \quad (5.6)$$

where  $\alpha = \cos 2\pi f_0 T$

and  $f_0$  is the centre frequency of the resulting bandstop filter. The wave realization of this new block is equivalent to that of a series tuned circuit [2] and is shown in Fig. 5.12.

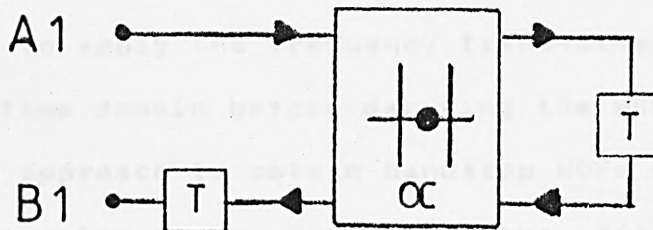


Fig.5.12-Wave realisation of eqn. 5.6.



Fig. 5.13b show the frequency responses of a bandstop UEWDF filter when the lowpass UEWDF of Fig. 5.9a is used for the transformation. The simple form of eqn. 5.6 may be obtained by setting  $\alpha$  equal to zero. This results in the transformation of,

$$z^{-1} \longrightarrow z^{-2} \quad (5.7)$$

and the loss characteristics of the resulting bandstop filter would be symmetrical about the centre frequency of  $(f/4)$ . Fig. 5.14a shows the frequency response of the bandpass UEWDF when the transformation of eqn. 5.7 is applied to the lowpass UEWDF of Fig. 5.4a. Reducing the power of  $z$  by a factor of 2 results in an increase in the number of bands in the frequency response of the bandstop filter. Fig. 5.14b shows the frequency response of the bandstop filter when  $z^{-1}$  is replaced by  $z^{-4}$ .

Bandstop Lattice and LC-ladder WDFs can be obtained by using these transformations, but the resulting filter structures would become very complex and it may not be possible to implement them easily. Therefore, it is preferable to apply the frequency transformations in the continuous-time domain before deriving the WDFs.

One other approach to obtain bandstop WDFs would be to use the complementary output of the filter when a bandpass filter has been designed. The sensitivity of the resulting bandstop filter would not however be as good as that of the bandpass filter.

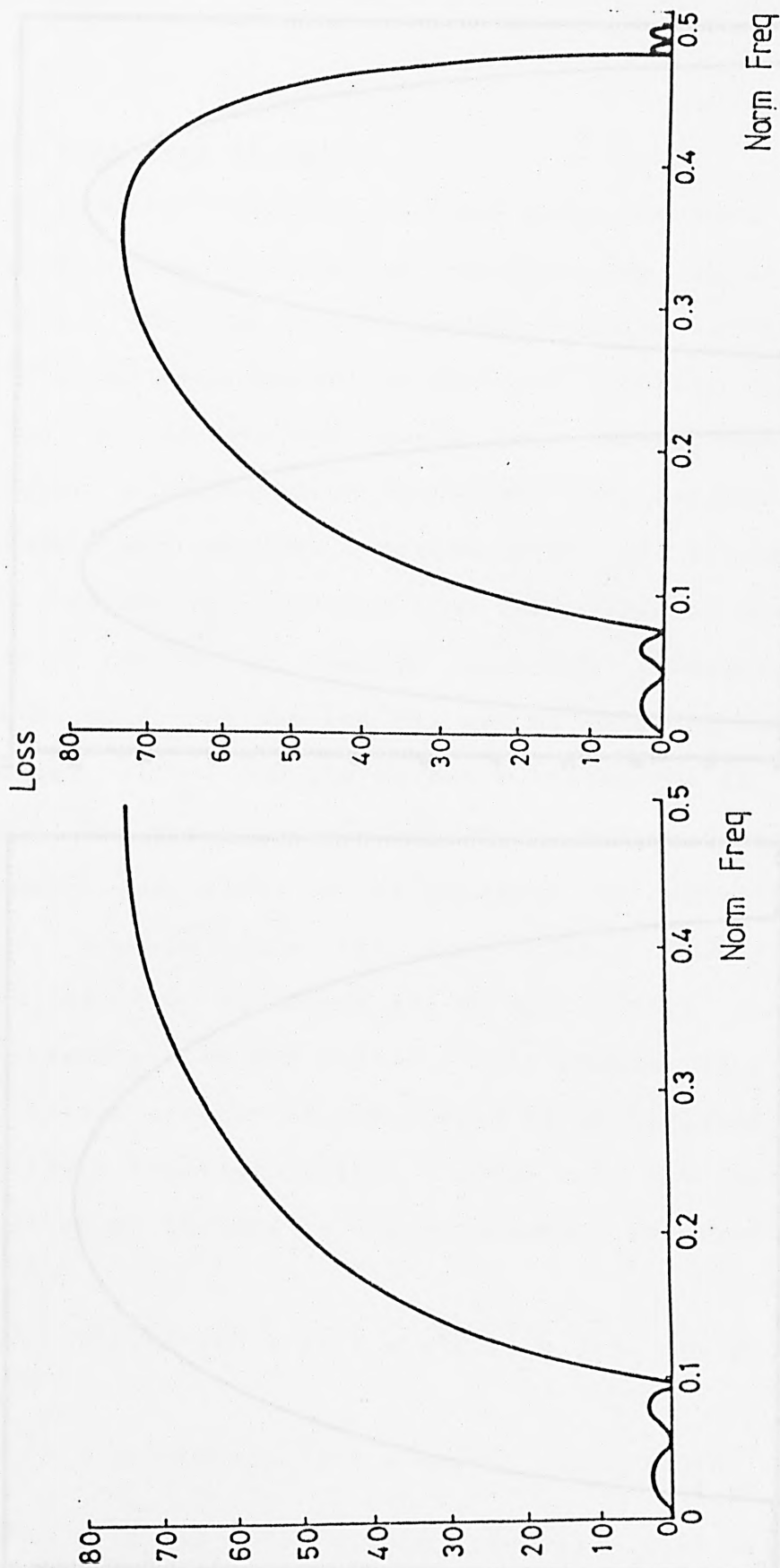


Fig. 5.13 — a) 5th order UEWDF .  
 b) Corresponding 10th order Band\_Stop UEWDF with  $f_0 = 0.35$  .

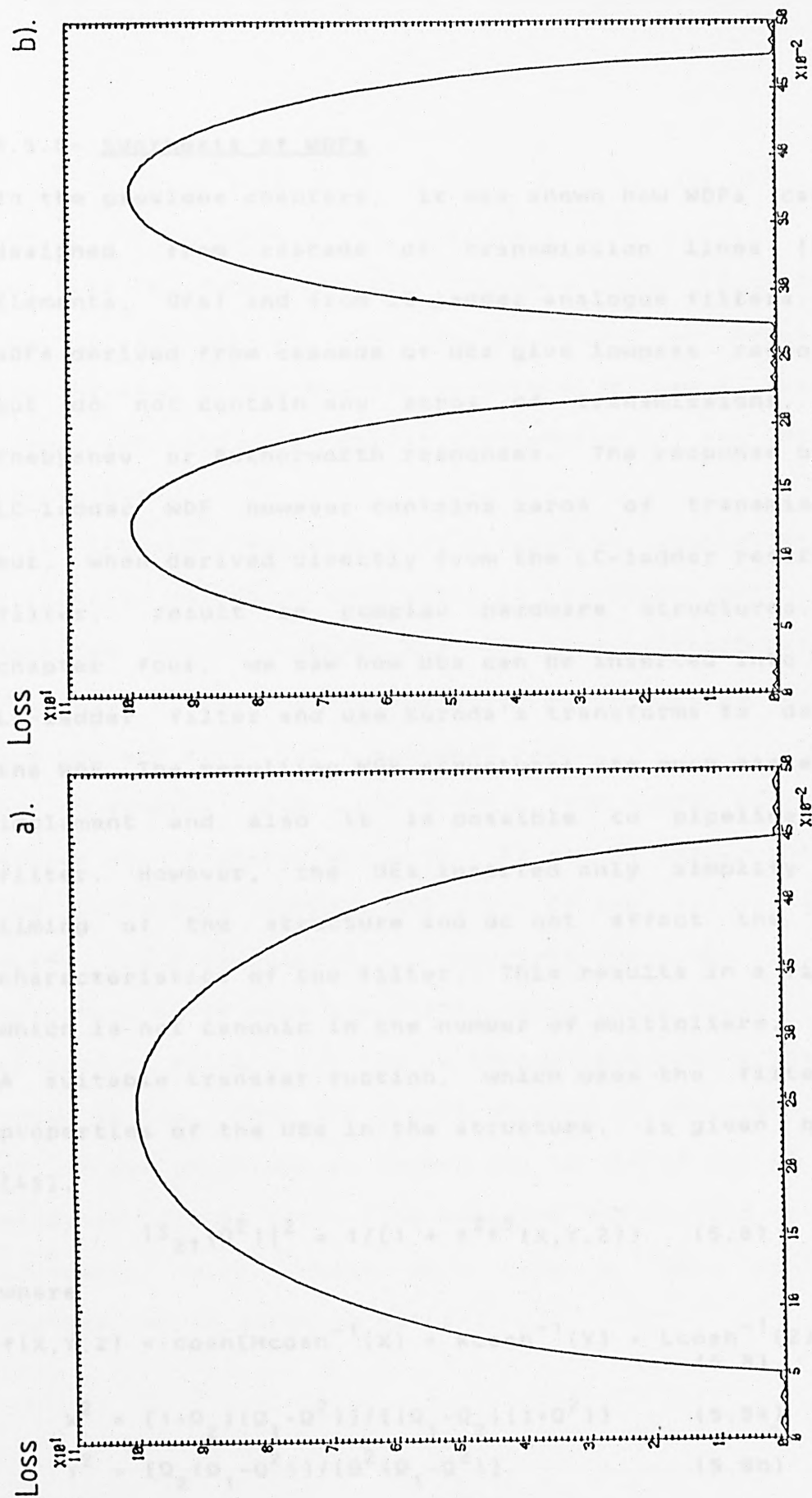


Fig . 5.14 — a) Band-Stop UEWDF Corresponding to Fig. 5.4 a ( $\vec{Z} \rightarrow \vec{Z}^1$ ).  
 b) Multi-band UEWDF ( $\vec{Z} \rightarrow \vec{Z}^1$ ).

### 5.5.0- Synthesis of WDFs

In the previous chapters, it was shown how WDFs can be designed from cascade of transmission lines (Unit Elements, UEs) and from LC-ladder analogue filters. The WDFs derived from cascade of UEs give lowpass responses but do not contain any zeros of transmissions, i.e. Chebyshev or Butterworth responses. The response of a LC-ladder WDF however contains zeros of transmission but, when derived directly from the LC-ladder reference filter, result in complex hardware structures. In chapter four, we saw how UEs can be inserted into the LC-ladder filter and use Kuroda's transforms to derive the WDF. The resulting WDF structures are much easier to implement and also it is possible to pipeline the filter. However, the UEs inserted only simplify the timing of the structure and do not affect the loss characteristics of the filter. This results in a filter which is not canonic in the number of multipliers.

A suitable transfer function, which uses the filtering properties of the UEs in the structure, is given below [42].

$$|S_{21}(\Omega^2)|^2 = 1/[1 + \epsilon^2 f^2(X, Y, Z)] \quad (5.8)$$

where

$$f(X, Y, Z) = \cosh[N \cosh^{-1}(X) + K \cosh^{-1}(Y) + L \cosh^{-1}(Z)] \quad (5.8)$$

$$X^2 = [(1 + \Omega_2)(\Omega_1 - \Omega^2)] / [(\Omega_1 - \Omega_2)(1 + \Omega^2)] \quad (5.9a)$$

$$Y^2 = [\Omega_2(\Omega_1 - \Omega^2)] / [\Omega^2(\Omega_1 - \Omega^2)] \quad (5.9b)$$

$$Z^2 = (\Omega_1 - \Omega^2) / (\Omega_1 - \Omega_2) \quad (5.9c)$$

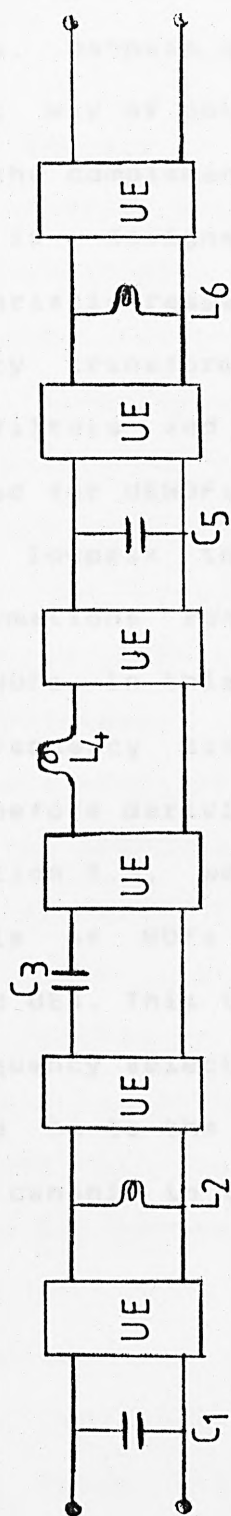
$$\text{and } \Omega_1 = \tan(\varphi_1), \Omega_2 = \tan(\varphi_2) \quad (5.10)$$

and  $N$  is the number of UEs,  $K$  is the number of zeros of transmission at DC and  $L$  is the number of zeros of transmission at the Nyquist frequency.  $\varphi_1$  and  $\varphi_2$  are the lower and the upper cutoff frequencies of the filter respectively.

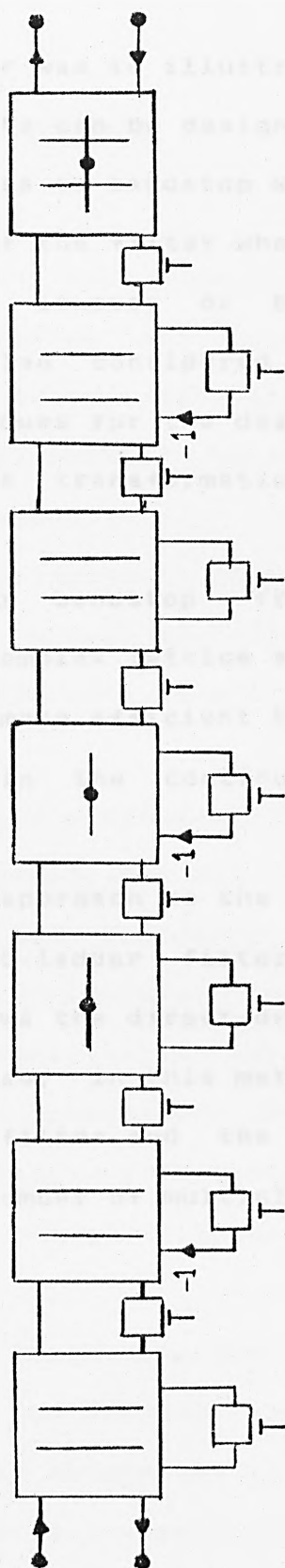
This transfer function can be used to synthesise any frequency selective WDFs based on LC-ladder WDFs with inserted UEs. Lowpass and highpass filters can be obtained by setting  $K=0$  and  $\varphi_1=0^\circ$  for a lowpass filter and  $L=0$  and  $\varphi_2=0^\circ$  for a highpass filter.

As an example, Fig. 15a shows a 12th order LC-ladder filter with inserted UEs [42]. As can be seen, the UEs now contribute towards the order of the filter since there are 3 capacitors, 3 inductors and 6 UEs in the structure which make the filter order equal to 12. This LC-ladder filter can now be transformed into a WDF as shown in Fig. 15b. The 2-port adaptor at the right hand end of the structure is needed due to the nature of the bandpass filter [42]. The detailed explanation of the procedure with which this type of WDFs can be synthesised is given in Ref[43].





a) 12th order LC-ladder filter with UEs.



b) Corresponding WDF.

Fig. 5.15

#### 5.6.0- Summary

The main objective of this chapter was to illustrate how highpass, bandpass and bandstop WDFs can be designed. The simplest way of obtaining highpass or bandstop WDFs is to use the complementary output of the filter when the filter is designed to have a lowpass or bandstop characteristic respectively. We also considered various frequency transformation techniques for the design of these filters and results of the transformation were presented for UEWDFs.

Digital lowpass to bandpass or bandstop frequency transformations result in very complex lattice and LC-ladder WDFs. In this case, it is more efficient to apply the frequency transformation in the continuous-time domain before deriving the WDF.

In section 5.5, we reviewed an approach to the direct synthesis of WDFs based on LC-ladder filters with inserted UEs. This technique allows the direct design of any frequency selective WDFs. Also, in this method the UEs add on to the order of the filter and the filter will be canonic in terms of the number of multipliers.

## CHAPTER SIX

### CONCLUSIONS AND COMMENTS

#### 6.1.1.0- Summary

This thesis presented methods with which finite wordlength WDFs can be designed and illustrated techniques for the translation of the traditional WDF adaptor structures into bit-level systolic arrays which are suitable for VLSI implementation.

The basic theory of WDFs was considered in chapter one. Also, the concept of VLSI array processing was introduced and a number of different parallel arrays were described.

The main basis of the thesis were presented in chapter two. Two subroutines were developed. One was to find an error function for a given set of specifications and filter coefficients and one to implement the direct search method of Hooke and Jeeves. Also three basic bit-level systolic arrays were developed. Finally a universal bit-level systolic array was presented which can be programmed to implement the other three systolic arrays.

The design and the systolic implementation of unit element and lattice WDFs were the subject of chapter three. Using the systolic array developed in chapter two, a 2-port systolic WDF adaptor was designed. The 2-

port systolic adaptor was then constructed using discrete components to prove the correctness of the design. The number of transistors required to implement the adaptor using CMOS technology and the time delay of the adaptor were estimated. The subroutines developed in chapter two were used to construct complete set of programs for the synthesis and finite wordlength design of unit element and lattice WDFs. The hardware implementation of the systolic UEWDFs and LTWDFs were also considered briefly. Finally, a number of examples were presented to illustrate the performance of the design programs and also the simulation of the systolic WDFs.

The design and systolic implementation of LC-ladder WDFs were considered in chapter four. Systolic structures were developed to implement 3-port serial and parallel WDF adaptors. Also, using the universal systolic array of chapter two, a universal systolic WDF adaptor was designed which can be used to realise 2-port, 3-port parallel and 3-port serial adaptors. There are many different approaches for the design of LCWDFs. These approaches were briefly described. In this thesis, the design of LCWDFs was achieved by inserting unit elements into the reference LC-ladder filter and using the Kuroda's transforms. A complete program was developed for the synthesis and finite wordlength design of

LCWDFs. The performance of this program was illustrated with the aid of a number of examples. Also, the results from the simulation of the systolic adaptors were presented.

Finally, in chapter five, a number of methods were described for the design of High-Pass, Band-Pass and Band-Stop WDFs. Some of the methods have been examined and the results of the investigations were presented. Also, in chapter five, a synthesis procedure was described for the direct design of LCWDFs. This procedure allows the design of any frequency selective WDFs.

All the arrays described in this thesis are designed by interconnecting regular and simple one-bit processor cells. The interconnections are localized to the nearest neighbouring cells. This is becoming more important as we move towards VLSI implementation of digital signal processing hardware.

A complete set of programs has been developed for the design of WDFs and the simulation of systolic WDFs. The design programs enables one to design finite wordlength WDFs based on Unit-Element, Lattice and LC-ladder filters. Also, it is used to minimize the number of bits for the filter coefficients. From Table 3.1 and 4.1, it can be seen that a small reduction in the number of bits for the coefficients would exponentially reduce the



complexity, and consequently the number of transistors, of the systolic WDFs.

From the examples given, it can be seen that the frequency response of the filters cannot be guaranteed to meet the specifications for very short coefficient wordlength, but with the use of the optimization program the responses can be forced to remain within the specifications. Also, the results from the simulations of the systolic WDFs show good agreement with the ideal filter responses. It must be noted that the responses of the systolic WDFs are much closer to the ideal responses when we use the FWLD program coefficients as compared with the direct synthesis coefficients. The single board 2-port systolic adaptor has been tested fully and proved that the design principle is correct.

#### 6.2.0- Further Work

Given below are a list of suggestions for the developement of the ideas presented in this thesis.

1) It would be useful to use a work station, e.g Whitechapel MG.1, to merge the design programs and the analysis programs so that the designer can quickly check the frequency responses of the filters designed. Also, it would be possible to use the windowing facilities of the work station to plot the frequency response of the filter on the screen while changing the parameters of the filter. This would help to investigate the sensitivity of the frequency response of the filter with respect to different filter parameters.

2) It is known that multiplication is the most costly and time consuming operation in a digital filter. It is possible to replace multiplication by arithmetic shifting if the filter coefficients are expressed in terms of powers of  $2^{-Q}$ , where  $Q$  is an integer. The finite wordlength design technique presented here has illustrated that in some cases, e.g example 4.3, it is possible to design WDFs with very short coefficient wordlength. Therefore, it would be a good exercise to investigate whether the filter coefficients of WDFs can be expressed in terms of powers of  $2^{-Q}$ . Already work is in progress at Syracuse University [95] for the fabrication of a single chip 2-port adaptor with

programmable shifting facilities. Also, at the City University work is in progress for the design of WDFs with coefficients of powers of  $2^{-Q}$ .

3) In some cases, when the coefficient wordlength of the filter is very small, it is not possible to meet the requirement. It would be useful to investigate the effect of increasing the filter order rather than the coefficient wordlength.

4) In all the design programs presented in this thesis, we have been approximating the magnitude response of the filters. In some applications, it is necessary to approximate the phase or both phase and magnitude responses. The existing programs can be easily modified to cover phase and phase/magnitude approximations.

5) It is known [28] that WDFs are very stable and will remain stable if the coefficients are kept in a fixed range depending on the type of reference filter used. Therefore they can be used for adaptive signal processing.

6) In chapter three and four, we stated that it is not possible to pipeline the systolic arrays at adaptor level. This is due to the fact that at the input of the systolic adaptor we need both the LSBs and the MSBs of the inputs. Therefore the delays at the outputs of the cells were removed. It is possible to rearrange the basic cells in such a way that we only need the LSBs of

the inputs at the input of the adaptors [96]. This allows us to pipeline the adaptors at the adaptor level when used to implement a complete filter\*.

7) One major drawback of systolic arrays is the global clock required to synchronise the movement of data in the array. This would cause problems when we consider the implementation of large number of the cells on a single VLSI chip. The concept of wavefront arrays has been introduced in chapter one to resolve this problem. However, it is known that wavefront arrays are more complex than the systolic arrays since extra hardware is required for the handshaking between the cells. It would be useful to consider the wavefront implementation of the WDF adaptors and compare them with the arrays designed in this thesis.

8) One major development in the field of systolic WDFs is to consider the VLSI implementation of the systolic adaptors. One adaptor can be fabricated on a single chip and multiplexed to implement a complete filter. The fabrication of the universal systolic adaptor would be useful for experimental purposes.

\*It must be noted that if the adaptors are pipelined at the cell level then the data rate of one adaptor would be equal to the time delay of only one basic cell.

### 6.3.0- Practical Applications of WDFs

Digital filters have been used in many different areas of communication. In most cases, they are implemented using general purpose digital signal processors. Therefore a single chip digital filter can be used to replace these digital signal processors. One good example of a single chip digital filter is the FAD (Filter And Detect) chip developed by British Telecom (BT) [97]. The FAD chip is now used in several BT systems such as System X. A single chip systolic WDF is a potential candidate to replace the FAD chip in BT systems since the reduced coefficient sensitivity of WDFs makes them particularly attractive. Also, due to the systolic nature of the adaptors, it is possible to implement a large number of adaptors on a single VLSI chip.

Lattice WDFs have been used extensively for the design of transmultiplexers [18,19,44-47]. Other areas of interest include channel simulation, channel equalization, audio applications, etc.

One other obvious area in which WDFs may be used is to replace RLC filters in the traditional communication systems. This is due to the fact that WDFs are modelled on these filters and all the properties and the specifications of the RLC filters are preserved after the transformation.



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## APPENDIX 'A'

### ANALYSIS OF WAVE DIGITAL FILTERS

#### A1.0- Unit Element WDF Transfer Function

Consider the kth section of a UEWDF as shown in Fig.

A1.1. We can write the difference equations of the section as follows,

$$B2_k = A1_k + \alpha_k(z^{-1}A2_k - A1_k) \quad (A1.1a)$$

$$\text{and} \quad B1_k = A2_k + \alpha_k(z^{-1}A2_k - A1_k) \quad (A1.1b)$$

$$\text{or} \quad (1/1-\alpha_k)B2_k = A1_k + (\alpha_k/1-\alpha_k)z^{-1}A2_k \quad (A1.2a)$$

$$\text{and} \quad (1/\alpha_k)B1_k = -A1_k + (1+\alpha_k/\alpha_k)z^{-1}A2_k \quad (A1.2b)$$

Substituting  $A1_k$  from A1.2a into A1.2b, we obtain,

$$B1_k = (1/1-\alpha_k)z^{-1}A2_k - (\alpha_k/1-\alpha_k)B2_k$$

$$B2_k = (\alpha_k/1-\alpha_k)A2_k + (1/1-\alpha_k)B2_k$$

Using matrix notation, we have,

$$\begin{vmatrix} A1_k \\ B1_k \end{vmatrix} = K \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -\alpha_k z^{-1} \\ -\alpha_k & z^{-1} \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} B2_k \\ A2_k \end{vmatrix} \quad (A1.3)$$

where  $K=(1/1-\alpha_k)$ . Eqn. A1.3 represents the ABCD matrix of the kth section in a UEWDF. Now, if N+1 sections are connected together to form an Nth order UEWDF (Fig. A1.2), then the ABCD matrix of the filter,  $[ABCD_T]$ , can be expressed as,

$$[ABCD_T] = [ABCD_1] \dots [ABCD_k] \dots [ABCD_{N+1}] \quad (A1.4)$$



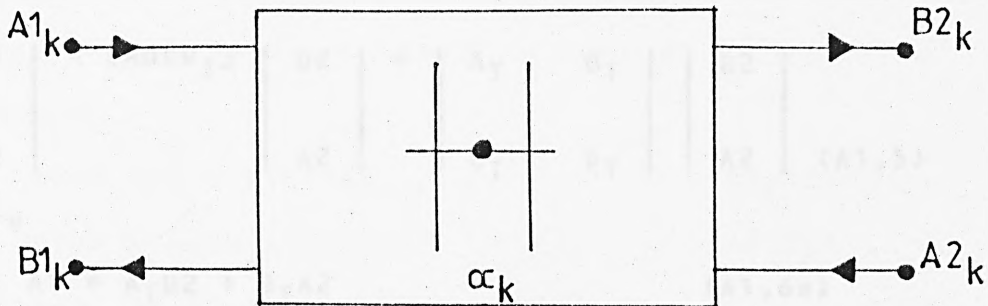


Fig.A1.1- Kth section of a UEWDF.

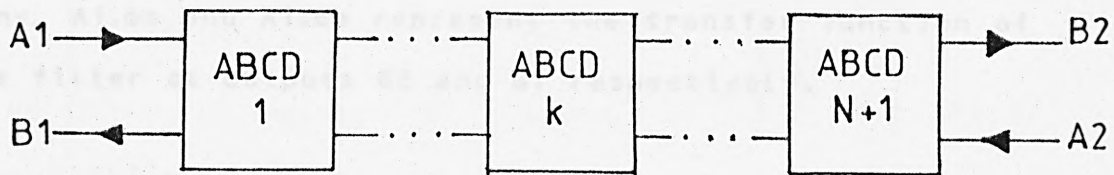


Fig.A1.2- Nth order UEWDF.

Therefore the input/outputs of the filter can be expressed by,

$$\begin{bmatrix} A1 \\ B1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B & C & D \end{bmatrix}_T \begin{bmatrix} B2 \\ A2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_T & B_T \\ C_T & D_T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} B2 \\ A2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (A1.5)$$

Therefore

$$A1 = A_TB2 + B_TA2 \quad (A1.6a)$$

and  $B1 = C_TB2 + D_TA2 \quad (A1.6b)$

But  $A2=0$ , therefore,

$$A1 = A_TB2 \quad (A1.7a)$$

and  $B1 = C_TB2 \quad (A1.7b)$

Dividing eqn. A1.7a by A1.7b, we obtain,

$$\frac{B2}{A1} = \frac{1}{A_T} \quad (A1.8a)$$

$$\frac{B1}{A1} = \frac{C_T}{A_T} \quad (A1.8b)$$

Eqns. A1.8a and A1.8b represent the transfer function of the filter at outputs B2 and B1 respectively.

## A2.0- Lattice WDF Transfer Function

Consider the first degree all-pass section of Fig.

A2.1a. The transfer function of the section can be obtained by substituting  $A2=B2$  in eqn. A1.3. By doing so, we obtain,

$$A1 = K(1 - \alpha z^{-1})A2 \quad (A2.1a)$$

$$\text{and } B1 = K(-\alpha + z^{-1})A2 \quad (A2.1b)$$

Dividing eqn. A2.1a by A2.1b, we obtain,

$$G_1(z) = \frac{B1}{A1} = \frac{-\alpha + z^{-1}}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}} \quad (A2.2)$$

Now consider the second degree all-pass section of Fig.

A2.1b. The ABCD matrix of the section can be obtained as follows (using eqn. A1.3),

$$\begin{vmatrix} A1 \\ B1 \end{vmatrix} = K_1 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -\alpha_1 z^{-1} \\ -\alpha_1 & z^{-1} \end{vmatrix} K_2 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -\alpha_2 z^{-1} \\ -\alpha_2 & z^{-1} \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} B2 \\ A2 \end{vmatrix}$$

or

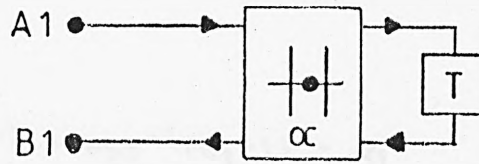
$$\begin{vmatrix} A1 \\ B1 \end{vmatrix} = K_1 K_2 \begin{vmatrix} 1 + \alpha_1 \alpha_2 z^{-1} & -\alpha_2 z^{-1} - \alpha_1 z^{-1} \\ -\alpha_1 - \alpha_2 z^{-1} & \alpha_1 \alpha_2 z^{-1} + z^{-2} \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} B2 \\ A2 \end{vmatrix} \quad (A2.3)$$

But  $A2=B2$ , therefore,

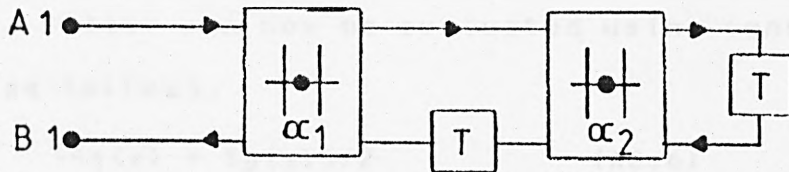
$$A1 = K_1 K_2 (1 + \alpha_1 \alpha_2 z^{-1} - \alpha_2 z^{-1} - \alpha_1 z^{-2}) B2 \quad (A2.4a)$$

$$\text{and } B1 = K_1 K_2 (-\alpha_1 - \alpha_2 z^{-1} + \alpha_1 \alpha_2 z^{-1} + z^{-2}) B2 \quad (A2.4b)$$

By dividing eqn. A2.4a by A2.4b, we obtain the transfer function of a second degree all-pass section,



(a)



(b)

Fig.A2.1 - a) First degree and b) second degree all-pass sections.

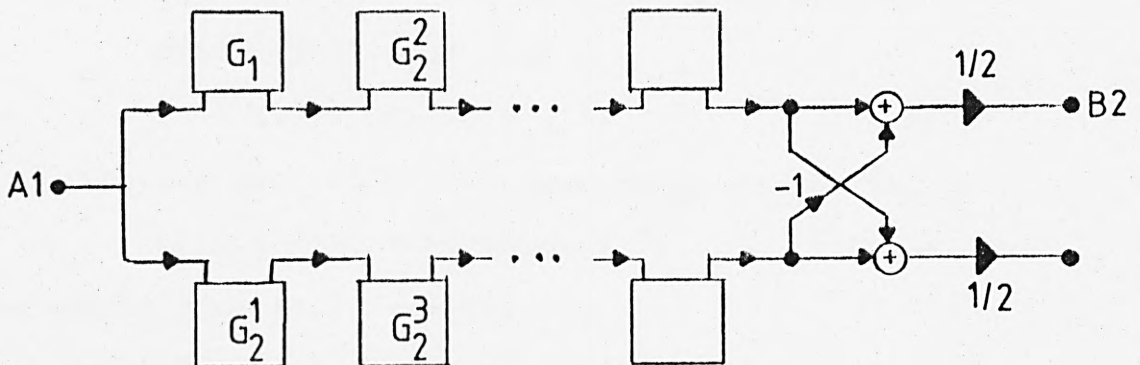


Fig.A2.2- LTWDF realisation using Fig.A.2.1 (a) and (b).

$$G_2(z) = \frac{B_1}{A_1} = \frac{z^{-2} + \alpha_2 z^{-1}(\alpha_1 - 1) - \alpha_1}{1 + \alpha_2 z^{-1}(\alpha_1 - 1) - \alpha_1 z^{-2}} \quad (A2.5)$$

Fig. A2.2 shows an Nth order LTWDF realised using first and second degree all-pass sections. The transfer function of the filter can now be evaluated using eqns. A2.3 and A2.5 as follows,

$$G(z) = [S_1(z) + S_2(z)]/2 \quad (A2.6)$$

where

$$S_1(z) = G_1(z) \prod_{k=1,3,\dots} G^k_2(z)$$

$$\text{and } S_2(z) = \prod_{k=2,4,\dots} G^k_2(z)$$



### A3.0- LC-Ladder WDF Transfer Function

The  $k$ th section of a LCWDF is shown in Fig. A3.1. The equations of the 3-port adaptor are as follows,

$$B_k = A_0 - A_k \quad (A3.1a)$$

$$A_0 = \sum \alpha_k A_k \quad K=1,2,3 \quad (A3.1b)$$

$$\text{and} \quad 2 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3 \quad (A3.1c)$$

Using eqn. A3.1a, we obtain,

$$B_1 = A_0 - A_1 \quad (A3.2a)$$

$$B_2 = A_0 - A_2 \quad (A3.2b)$$

$$B_3 = A_0 - A_3 \quad (A3.2c)$$

Also from Fig. A3.1, we have,

$$A_2 = z^{-1} B_2 \quad (A3.3)$$

Now subtracting eqn. A3.2c from A3.2b results in,

$$B_2 - B_3 = A_3 - A_2 \quad (A3.4)$$

Substituting eqn. A3.3 into eqn. A3.4, we obtain,

$$B_2(1 + z^{-1}) = A_3 + B_3$$

$$\text{or} \quad B_2 = (A_3 + B_3)/(1 + z^{-1}) \quad (A3.5)$$

Substituting eqn. A3.5 into eqn. A3.3, we obtain,

$$A_2 = z^{-1}(A_3 + B_3)/(1 + z^{-1}) \quad (A3.6)$$

Expanding eqn. A3.1b results in,

$$A_0 = \alpha_1 A_1 + \alpha_2 A_2 + \alpha_3 A_3 \quad (A3.7)$$

Now substitute eqn. A3.6 into eqn. A3.7 and then eqn. A3.7 into eqn. A3.2a and A3.2c, we obtain,

$$B_1 = \alpha_1 A_1 + \alpha_2 z^{-1}(A_3 + B_3)/(1 + z^{-1}) + \alpha_3 A_3 - A_1 \quad (A3.8a)$$

$$\text{and } B_3 = \alpha_1 A_1 + \alpha_2 z^{-1}(A_3 + B_3)/(1 + z^{-1}) + \alpha_3 A_3 - A_3 \quad (A3.8b)$$

Subtracting eqn. A3.2c from A3.2a, we obtain,

$$B1 - B3 = A3 - A1 \quad (A3.9a)$$

or  $A1 = A3 - B1 + B3 \quad (A3.9b)$

Substituting eqn. A3.9b into A3.8a, we obtain,

$$B1 = (\alpha_1 - 1)(A3 - B1 + B3) + \alpha_2 z^{-1}(A3 + B3)/(1 + z^{-1}) + \alpha_3 A3 \quad (A3.10)$$

or  $\alpha_1 B1 = [(\alpha_1 - 1) + (\alpha_2 z^{-1})/(1 + z^{-1}) + \alpha_3] A3 + [(\alpha_1 - 1) + (\alpha_2 z^{-1})/(1 + z^{-1})] B3 \quad (A3.11a)$

Also from eqn. A3.8b, we can write,

$$\alpha_1 A1 = [(1 - \alpha_3) - (\alpha_2 z^{-1})/(1 + z^{-1})] A3 + [1 - (\alpha_2 z^{-1})/(1 + z^{-1})] B3 \quad (A3.11b)$$

Eqns. A3.11a and 11b can be written in matrix form as shown below,

$$\begin{vmatrix} A1 \\ B1 \end{vmatrix} = K \begin{vmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} A3 \\ B3 \end{vmatrix} \quad (A3.12a)$$

where  $K = 1/[\alpha_1(1 + z^{-1})] \quad (A3.12b)$

$$A = (1 - \alpha_3) + z^{-1}(1 - \alpha_3 - \alpha_2) \quad (A3.12c)$$

$$B = 1 + z^{-1}(1 - \alpha_2) \quad (A3.12d)$$

$$C = (\alpha_1 + \alpha_3 - 1) + z^{-1}(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3 - 1) \quad (A3.12e)$$

and  $D = (\alpha_1 - 1) + z^{-1}(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 - 1) \quad (A3.12f)$

Using eqn. A3.1c, one of the coefficients, say  $\alpha_2$ , can be expressed in terms of the other two coefficients.

Therefore the ABCD terms of the matrix simplify to,

$$A = (1 - \alpha_3) + (\alpha_1 - 1)z^{-1} \quad (A3.13a)$$

$$B = 1 + (\alpha_1 + \alpha_3 - 1)z^{-1} \quad (A3.13b)$$

$$C = z^{-1} + (\alpha_1 + \alpha_3 - 1) \quad (A3.13c)$$

$$\text{and } D = (\alpha_1 - 1) + (1 - \alpha_3)z^{-1} \quad (A3.13d)$$

As with the UEWDFs, the transfer function of a complete filter can now be found by using the wave chain matrix method.

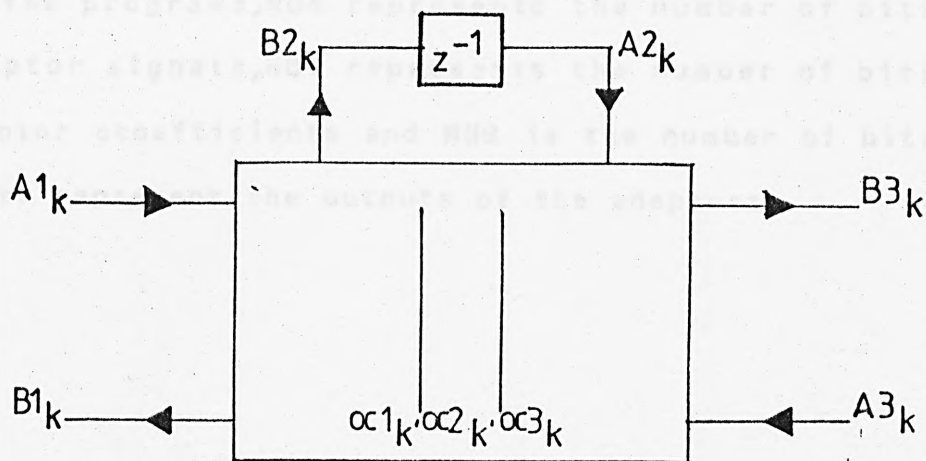


Fig.A3.1- Kth section of a LCWDF.

APPENDIX 'B'  
PROGRAM LISTINGS

**B1.0- Systolic Adaptors Programs**

In this Appendix, we present the programs which have been developed for the simulation of the systolic WDF adaptors. The program listings are as follows,

B1.1- 2-port systolic adaptor.

B1.2- 3-port parallel systolic adaptor.

B1.3- 3-port serial systolic adaptor.

B1.4- The universal systolic adaptor.

In all the programs, NBS represents the number of bits for adaptor signals, NBC represents the number of bits for adaptor ccoefficients and MNB is the number of bits needed to represent the outputs of the adaptors.

# B1.1- 2-PORT SYSTOLIC ADAPTOR PROGRAM

```

INTEGER IN1(27), IN2(27), ALPHA(8), NBS, NBC, MNB, OUT1,
&X, U, OUT2, NSECT, NSPT, XK, UKP1, KCOEFF,
&IPSET(100), OPSET(100), COEFSET(20), USET(22)
COMMON /C/ NBS, NBC, MNB, NSECT, NSPT
CALL READIP(IPSET, USET, COEFSET)
DO 20 I=1, NSPT
  XK=IPSET(I)
  DO 10 K=1, NSECT
    UKP1=USET(K+1)
    KCOEFF=COEFSET(K)
    PRINT, 'INPUTS TO BLOCK ', XK, UKP1, KCOEFF
    CALL INIT(XK, IN1, UKP1, IN2, KCOEFF, ALPHA, NBS, NBC, MNB)
    CALL BLOCK(IN1, IN2, OUT1, OUT2, ALPHA, NBS, NBC, MNB)
    PRINT, 'OUTPUTS FROM BLOCK ', OUT1, OUT2
    USET(K)=OUT2
  XK=OUT1
10 CONTINUE
  OPSET(I)=OUT1
20 CONTINUE
  PRINT,
  DO 30 I=1, NSPT
    PRINT, 'OUTPUT (XK+1) =', OPSET(I)
30 CONTINUE
    PRINT,
    DO 40 K=1, NSECT+1
      PRINT, 'USET (UK) =', USET(K)
40 CONTINUE
    PRINT,
    PRINT,
    GOTO 5
  STOP
  END
C
C
C
SUBROUTINE READIP(XK, UKP1, ALPHA)
  INTEGER XK(100), ALPHA(20), UKP1(22), NSECT, NBC, NBS, MNB, NSPT
  COMMON /C/ NBS, NBC, MNB, NSECT, NSPT
  PRINT, 'NO. OF SAMPLES ORDER NBS NBC'
  READ, NSPT, NSECT, NBS, NBC
  PRINT,
  NSECT=NSPT+1
  MNB=NBS+NBC+2
  PRINT, 'ENTER INPUT VALUES (X1) :-'
  READ, (XK(I), I=1, NSPT)
  PRINT,
  PRINT, 'ENTER THE COEFFICIENTS :-'
  READ, (ALPHA(I), I=1, NSECT)
  PRINT,
  PRINT, 'ENTER THE INITIAL VALUES OF U INPUTS :-'
  READ, (UKP1(I), I=1, NSECT+1)
  PRINT,
  RETURN

```

END

C

C

C

```

SUBROUTINE INIT(XK, XKA, UKP1, UKP1A, ALPHA, ALPHAA, NBS, NBC, MNB)
  INTEGER XKA(26), UKP1A(26), ALPHAA(8), PU(9, 27), PX(9, 27),
&CPU(8, 27), CPX(8, 27), CS(8, 27), DA(8, 26), NBS, NBC, MNB, XK, UKP1, ALPHA
  COMMON PU, PX, CPU, CPX, CS, DA
  CALL DTOB(XK, XKA, MNB)
  CALL DTOB(UKP1, UKP1A, MNB)
  CALL DTOB(ALPHA, ALPHAA, NBC)
  DO 5 K1=1, 27
    DO 5 K2=1, 9
      PX(K2, K1)=0
      PU(K2, K1)=0
5 CONTINUE
      DO 7 K1=1, 26
        DO 7 K2=1, 8
          DA(K2, K1)=0
          CPX(K2, K1)=0
          CPU(K2, K1)=0
          CS(K2, K1)=0
7 CONTINUE
          CPX(NBC, 1)=ALPHAA(NBC)
          CPU(NBC, 1)=ALPHAA(NBC)
          DO 10 K=2, NBC+1
            PX(K, 1)=XKA(K-1)
            PU(K, 1)=UKP1A(K-1)
10 CONTINUE
            DO 20 K=2, (MNB-NBC+1)
              PX((NBC+1), K)=XKA(NBC+K-1)
              PU((NBC+1), K)=UKP1A(NBC+K-1)
20 CONTINUE
              DO 30 K=1, MNB
                DA(NBC, K)=1
30 CONTINUE
                DO 40 K=1, NBC
                  CS(K, 1)=1
40 CONTINUE
                  RETURN
                END
SUBROUTINE DTOB(A, ARRAY, NB)
  INTEGER A, ARRAY(27), NB, R
  IF (A.EQ.0) GOTO 40
  IF (A.LT.0) A=(2*NB)+A
  K=1
  IF (A.EQ.1) GOTO 20
  R=INT(A/2)
  ARRAY(K)=1
  IF ((R*2).EQ.A) ARRAY(K)=0
  A=R
  K=K+1
10

```



```

20  GOTO 10
    ARRAY(K)=1
    DO 30 J=K+1,NB
    ARRAY(J)=0
30  CONTINUE
    GOTO 60
40  DO 50 K=1,NB
    ARRAY(K)=0
50  CONTINUE
60  RETURN
    END
    C
    C
    C
    SUBROUTINE BLOCK(IN1,IN2,OUT1,OUT2,COEFF,NBS,NBC,MNB)
    INTEGER IN1(27),IN2(27),COEFF(8),XKP1(27),PU(9,27),PX(9,27)
    &,UK(27),CPU(8,27),CPX(8,27),CS(8,27),DA(8,27),NBS,NBC,MNB,XK,
    &,UKP1,ALPHA,D,OPX,OPU,NPX,NPU,OCPX,OCPU,NCPX,NCPU,DCS,NCS,J,I,
    &,K,NCELL,COUNT,OUT2,OUT1
    COMMON PU,PX,CPU,CPX,CS,DA
    COMMON /B/ OPX,NPX,OPU,NPU,OCPX,NCPX,OCPU,NCPU,DCS,NCS
    NCELL=1
    COUNT=1
    J=1
    DO 30 K=1,MNB
    DO 10 I=NCELL,1,-1
    ALPHA=COEFF(I)
    UKP1=IN2(J)
    XK=IN1(J)
    D=DA(I,J)
    OPX=PX(I+1,J)
    OPU=PU(I+1,J)
    OCPX=CPX(I,J)
    OCPU=CPU(I,J)
    DCS=CS(I,J)
    CALL CELL(ALPHA,XK,UKP1,D)
    PU(I,J+1)=NPU
    PX(I,J+1)=NPX
    CPU(I,J+1)=NCPU
    CPX(I,J+1)=NCPX
    CS(I,J+1)=NCS
    J=J+1
10  CONTINUE
    UK(K)=PU(1,K+1)
    XKP1(K)=PX(1,K+1)
    J=1
    IF (NCELL.LT.NBC) GOTO 20
    J=J+COUNT
    COUNT=COUNT+1
    GOTO 30
    NCELL=NCELL+1
    CONTINUE
20  CALL BTOD(OUT1,XKP1,MNB)
30  CALL BTOD(OUT2,UK,MNB)
    RETURN

```

```

END
    C
    C
    C
    SUBROUTINE CELL(ALPHA,XK,UKP1,D)
    INTEGER NXK,NS,UKP1,XK,DCS,S,NCS,D,OCPX,NCPX,OCPU,NCPU,OPX,NPX
    &,ALPHA,D,NPU,OPU
    COMMON /B/ OPX,NPX,OPU,NPU,OCPX,NCPX,OCPU,NCPU,DCS,NCS
    NXK=XK
    NS=0
    IF (NXK.EQ.0) NS=1
    NXK=NS
    CALL SUM(UKP1,NXK,DCS,S,NCS)
    IF (D.EQ.0) GOTO 10
    NS=0
    IF (S.EQ.0) NS=1
    S=NS
    CALL PRODUCT(OPX,ALPHA,S,OCPX,NPX,NCPX)
    CALL PRODUCT(OPU,ALPHA,S,OCPU,NPU,NCPU)
    RETURN
    END
    C
    C
    C
    SUBROUTINE SUM(A,B,CIN,COUT,S)
    INTEGER A,B,CIN,COUT,S
    S=A+B*CIN
    IF (S.LT.2) GOTO 10
    IF (S.EQ.2) GOTO 20
    S=1
    COUT=1
    GOTO 30
    COUT=0
    GOTO 30
    S=0
    COUT=1
    RETURN
    END
    C
    C
    C
    SUBROUTINE PRODUCT(A,B,C,CIN,P,COUT)
    INTEGER A,B,C,CIN,COUT,P,BANDC
    BANDC=B*C
    CALL SUM(A,BANDC,CIN,P,COUT)
    RETURN
    END
    C
    C
    C
    SUBROUTINE BTOD(A,ARRAY,NB)
    INTEGER A,ARRAY(27),NB,K
    A=0
    DO 10 K=1,NB
    A=A+ARRAY(K)*2**(K-1)

```

```

10 CONTINUE
IF (ARRAY(NB).EQ.1) A=-((I2*NB)-A)
RETURN
END

B1.2- 3-PORT PARALLEL SYSTOLIC ADAPTOR PROGRAM

INTEGER IN1(28),IN2(28),IN3(28),ALPHA1B(8),NBS,NBC,MNB,OUT1
&,X,U,OUT2,NSECT,NSPT,XK,UKP1,KCOEFF,ALPHA1,ALPHA2
&,ALPHA2B(8),OUT3,BITA1B(8),BITA2B(8),BITA1,BITA2,A1,A2,A3
&,IPSET(100),OPSET(100),COEFSET(20),USET(22)
&,B1,B2,B3
CHARACTER*1 CH
COMMON /A/ IN1,IN2,IN3,ALPHA1B,ALPHA2B,BITA1B,BITA2B
COMMON /C/ NBS,NBC,MNB
5 CALL READIP(A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,BITA1,BITA2)
PRINT,
PRINT,'ADAPTOR OUTPUTS USING DIFFERENCE EQUATIONS :-'
PRINT,
IAO=A1*ALPHA1+A2*ALPHA2+(2-ALPHA1-ALPHA2)*A3
PRINT,'B1 =',IAO-A1
PRINT,'B2 =',IAO-A2
PRINT,'B3 =',IAO-A3
PRINT,
CALL INIT(A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,BITA1,BITA2)
CALL BLOCK(OUT1,OUT2,OUT3)
PRINT,
PRINT,'SYSTOLIC ADAPTOR OUTPUTS :-'
PRINT,
PRINT,'B1 =',OUT1
PRINT,'B2 =',OUT2
PRINT,'B3 =',OUT3
PRINT,
PRINT,'DO YOU WISH TO STOP?(Y/N)'
READ,CH
IF(CH.EQ.'N') GOTO 5
STOP
END

C
C
C

SUBROUTINE READIP(A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,BITA1,BITA2)
INTEGER A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,BITA1,BITA2,NBS,NBC,MNB
COMMON /C/ NBS,NBC,MNB
PRINT,
PRINT,'A1 A2 A3'
READ,A1,A2,A3
PRINT,
PRINT,'ALPHA1 ALPHA2'
READ,ALPHA1,ALPHA2
PRINT,
PRINT,'BITA1,BITA2'
READ,BITA1,BITA2
PRINT,'NBS NBC'
READ,NBS,NBC
PRINT,
MNB=NBS+NBC+3
RETURN
END
C

```

```

C
C
SUBROUTINE INIT(A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,BITA1,BITA2)
  INTEGER A1,A2,A3,IN1(28),IN2(28),IN3(28),ALPHA1,ALPHA2,BITA1
  &,BITA2,ALPHA1B(8),ALPHA2B(8),BITA1B(8),BITA2B(8),P1(9,28)
  &,P2(9,28),P3(9,28),DA(8,27),CP1(8,28),CP2(8,28),CP3(8,28)
  &,CB1(8,28),CB2(8,28),CB3(8,28),CS1(8,28),CS2(8,28)
  COMMON /A/ IN1,IN2,IN3,ALPHA1B,ALPHA2B,BITA1B,BITA2B
  COMMON /B/ P1,P2,P3,DA,CP1,CP2,CP3,CB1,CB2,CB3,CS1,CS2
  COMMON /C/ NBS,NBC,MNB
  CALL DT0B(A1,IN1,MNB)
  CALL DT0B(A2,IN2,MNB)
  CALL DT0B(A3,IN3,MNB)
  CALL DT0B(ALPHA1,ALPHA1B,NBC)
  CALL DT0B(ALPHA2,ALPHA2B,NBC)
  CALL DT0B(BITA1,BITA1B,NBC)
  CALL DT0B(BITA2,BITA2B,NBC)
  DO 5 K1=1,MNB+1
  DO 5 K2=1,NBC+1
  P1(K2,K1)=0
  P2(K2,K1)=0
  P3(K2,K1)=0
  CONTINUE
5
  DO 7 K1=1,MNB
  DO 7 K2=1,NBC
  DA(K2,K1)=0
  CP1(K2,K1)=0
  CP2(K2,K1)=0
  CP3(K2,K1)=0
  CB1(K2,K1)=0
  CB2(K2,K1)=0
  CB3(K2,K1)=0
  CS1(K2,K1)=0
  CS2(K2,K1)=0
  CONTINUE
7
  CP1(NBC,1)=BITA1B(NBC)
  CP2(NBC,1)=ALPHA1B(NBC)
  CP3(NBC,1)=ALPHA1B(NBC)
  CB1(NBC,1)=ALPHA2B(NBC)
  CB2(NBC,1)=BITA2B(NBC)
  CB3(NBC,1)=ALPHA2B(NBC)
  DO 10 K=2,NBC+1
  P1(K,1)=IN3(K-1)
  P2(K,1)=IN3(K-1)
  P3(K,1)=IN3(K-1)
  CONTINUE
10
  DO 20 K=2,(MNB-NBC+1)
  P1((NBC+1),K)=IN3(NBC+K-1)
  P2((NBC+1),K)=IN3(NBC+K-1)
  P3((NBC+1),K)=IN3(NBC+K-1)
  CONTINUE
20
  DO 30 K=1,MNB
  DA(NBC,K)=1
  CONTINUE
30
  DO 40 K=1,NBC
  CS1(K,1)=1
  CS2(K,1)=1
  CONTINUE
  DO 50 K=1,MNB
  IN3(K)=INV(IN3(K))
  CONTINUE
  RETURN
END
C
C
SUBROUTINE DT0B(A,ARRAY,NB)
  INTEGER A,ARRAY(27),NB,R
  IF (A.EQ.0) GOTO 40
  IF (A.LT.0) A=(2*NB)+A
  K=1
  IF (A.EQ.1) GOTO 20
  R=INT(A/2)
  ARRAY(K)=1
  IF ((R*2).EQ.A) ARRAY(K)=0
  A=R
  K=K+1
  GOTO 10
20
  ARRAY(K)=1
  DO 30 J=K+1,NB
  ARRAY(J)=0
  CONTINUE
30
  GOTO 60
40
  DO 50 K=1,NB
  ARRAY(K)=0
  CONTINUE
50
  RETURN
60
  END
C
C
SUBROUTINE BLOCK(OUT1,OUT2,OUT3)
  INTEGER IN1(28),IN2(28),IN3(28),ALPHA1B(8),ALPHA2B(8)
  &,BITA1B(8),BITA2B(8),P1(9,28),P2(9,28),P3(9,28),DA(8,27)
  &,CP1(8,28),CP2(8,28),CP3(8,28),CB1(8,28),CB2(8,28),CB3(8,28)
  &,CS1(8,28),CS2(8,28),NBS,NBC,MNB,OUT1,OUT2,OUT3,OP1,OP2,OP3
  &,NP1,NP2,NP3,OCP1,OCP2,OCP3,NCP1,NCP2,NCP3,OCB1,OCB2,OCB3
  &,NCB1,NCB2,NCB3,OC51,OC52,NC51,NC52,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,BITA1,BITA2
  &,A1,A2,A3,B1(28),B2(28),B3(28),D
  COMMON /A/ IN1,IN2,IN3,ALPHA1B,ALPHA2B,BITA1B,BITA2B
  COMMON /B/ P1,P2,P3,DA,CP1,CP2,CP3,CB1,CB2,CB3,CS1,CS2
  COMMON /C/ NBS,NBC,MNB
  COMMON /D/ OP1,OP2,OP3,OCP1,OCP2,OCP3,OCB1,OCB2,OCB3,OC51,OC52
  &,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,BITA1,BITA2,A1,A2,A3,D
  NCELL=1
  COUNT=1
  J=1
  DO 30 K=1,MNB
  DO 10 I=NCELL,1,-1
  ALPHA1=ALPHA1B(I)

```



CALL SUM(A,BANDC,CIN,P,COU)

RETURN

END

C  
C  
C

SUBROUTINE BTOD(A,ARRAY,NB)

INTEGER A,ARRAY(27),NB,K

A=0

DO 10 K=1,NB

A=A+ARRAY(K)\*2\*\*(K-1)

CONTINUE

IF (ARRAY(NB).EQ.1) A=-((2\*\*NB)-A)

RETURN

END

10

B1.3- 3-PORT SERIAL SYSTOLIC ADAPTOR PROGRAM

INTEGER IN1(28),IN2(28),IN3(28),ALPHA1B(6),NBS,NBC,MNB,OUT1  
X,U,OUT2,NSECT,NSPT,XK,UKP1,KCOEFF,ALPHA1,ALPHA2  
ALPHA2B(8),OUT3,ALPHA3B(8),BITA2B(8),ALPHA3,BITA2,A1,A2,A3  
IPSET(100),OPSET(100),COEFSET(20),USET(22)  
B1,B2,B3

CHARACTER\*1 CH

COMMON /A/ IN1,IN2,IN3,ALPHA1B,ALPHA2B,ALPHA3B,BITA2B

COMMON /C/ NBS,NBC,MNB

CALL READIP(A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3,BITA2)

PRINT,

PRINT,'ADAPTOR OUTPUTS USING DIFFERENCE EQUATIONS :--'

PRINT,

IAO=A1+A2+A3

PRINT,'B1 = ',A1-ALPHA1\*IAO

PRINT,'B2 = ',A2-ALPHA2\*IAO

PRINT,'B3 = ',A3-ALPHA3\*IAO

PRINT,

CALL INIT(A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3,BITA2)

CALL BLOCK(OUT1,OUT2,OUT3)

PRINT,

PRINT,'SYSTOLIC ADAPTOR OUTPUTS :--'

PRINT,

PRINT,'B1 = ',OUT1

PRINT,'B2 = ',OUT2

PRINT,'B3 = ',OUT3

PRINT,

PRINT,'DO YOU WISH TO STOP?(Y/N)'

READ,CH

IF (CH.EQ.'N') GOTO 5

STOP

END

C  
C  
C

SUBROUTINE READIP(A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3,BITA2)

INTEGER A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3,BITA2,NBS,NBC,MNB

COMMON /C/ NBS,NBC,MNB

PRINT,

PRINT,'A1 A2 A3'

READ,A1,A2,A3

PRINT,

PRINT,'ALPHA1 ALPHA2 ALPHA3'

READ,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3

PRINT,

PRINT,'NBS NBC'

READ,NBS,NBC

PRINT,

MNB=NBS+NBC+3

RETURN

END

C  
C  
C



```

SUBROUTINE INIT(A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3,BITA2)
  INTEGER A1,A2,A3,IN1(28),IN2(28),IN3(28),ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3
  &,BITA2,ALPHA1B(8),ALPHA2B(8),ALPHA3B(8),BITA2B(8),P1(9,28)
  &,P2(9,28),P3(9,28),DA(8,27),CP1(8,28),CP2(8,28),CP3(8,28)
  &,CONTA(8,28),CB1(8,28),CB2(8,28),CB3(8,28),CS1(8,28),CS2(8,28)
  COMMON /A/ IN1,IN2,IN3,ALPHA1B,ALPHA2B,ALPHA3B,BITA2B
  COMMON /B/ P1,P2,P3,DA,CONTA,CP1,CP2,CP3,CB1,CB2,CB3,CS1,CS2
  COMMON /C/ NBS,NBC,MNB
  CALL DT0B(A1,IN1,MNB)
  CALL DT0B(A2,IN2,MNB)
  CALL DT0B(A3,IN3,MNB)
  CALL DT0B(ALPHA1,ALPHA1B,NBC)
  CALL DT0B(ALPHA2,ALPHA2B,NBC)
  CALL DT0B(ALPHA3,ALPHA3B,NBC)
  DO 5 K1=1,MNB+1
  DO 5 K2=1,NBC+1
    P1(K2,K1)=0
    P2(K2,K1)=0
    P3(K2,K1)=0
  CONTINUE
  DO 7 K1=1,MNB
  DO 7 K2=1,NBC
    DA(K2,K1)=0
    CONTA(K2,K1)=0
    CP1(K2,K1)=0
    CP2(K2,K1)=0
    CP3(K2,K1)=0
    CB1(K2,K1)=0
    CB2(K2,K1)=0
    CB3(K2,K1)=0
    CS1(K2,K1)=0
    CS2(K2,K1)=0
  CONTINUE
  CP1(NBC,1)=ALPHA1B(NBC)
  CP2(NBC,1)=ALPHA2B(NBC)
  CP3(NBC,1)=ALPHA3B(NBC)
  DO 10 K=2,NBC+1
    P1(K,1)=INV(IN1(K-1))
    P2(K,1)=INV(IN2(K-1))
    P3(K,1)=INV(IN3(K-1))
  CONTINUE
  DO 20 K=2,(MNB-NBC+1)
    P1((NBC+1),K)=INV(IN1(NBC+K-1))
    P2((NBC+1),K)=INV(IN2(NBC+K-1))
    P3((NBC+1),K)=INV(IN3(NBC+K-1))
  CONTINUE
  DO 30 K=1,MNB
    DA(NBC,K)=1
    CONTA(1,K)=1
  CONTINUE
  RETURN
END

```

C  
C  
C

```

SUBROUTINE DT0B(A,ARRAY,NB)
  INTEGER A,ARRAY(27),NB,R
  IF (A.EQ.0) GOTO 40
  IF (A.LT.0) A=(2*NB)+A
  K=1
  IF (A.EQ.1) GOTO 20
  R=INT(A/2)
  ARRAY(K)=1
  IF ((R*2).EQ.A) ARRAY(K)=0
  A=R
  K=K+1
  GOTO 10
20
  ARRAY(K)=1
  DO 30 J=K+1,NB
    ARRAY(J)=0
  CONTINUE
  GOTO 60
40
  DO 50 K=1,NB
    ARRAY(K)=0
  CONTINUE
  GOTO 60
50
  CONTINUE
  RETURN
END

```

C  
C  
C

```

SUBROUTINE BLOCK(OUT1,OUT2,OUT3)
  INTEGER IN1(28),IN2(28),IN3(28),ALPHA1B(8),ALPHA2B(8)
  &,ALPHA3B(8),BITA2B(8),P1(9,28),P2(9,28),P3(9,28),DA(8,27)
  &,CP1(8,28),CP2(8,28),CP3(8,28),CB1(8,28),CB2(8,28),CB3(8,28)
  &,CS1(8,28),CS2(8,28),NBS,NBC,MNB,OUT1,OUT2,OUT3,OP1,OP2,OP3
  &,NP1,NP2,NP3,OCP1,OCP2,OCP3,NCP1,NCP2,NCP3,OCB1,OCB2,OCB3
  &,NCB1,NCB2,NCB3,OC51,OC52,NCS1,NCS2,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3,BITA2
  &,A1,A2,A3,B1(28),B2(28),B3(28),D,CONT,CONTA(8,28)
  COMMON /A/ IN1,IN2,IN3,ALPHA1B,ALPHA2B,ALPHA3B,BITA2B
  COMMON /B/ P1,P2,P3,DA,CONTA,CP1,CP2,CP3,CB1,CB2,CB3,CS1,CS2
  COMMON /C/ NBS,NBC,MNB
  COMMON /D/ OP1,OP2,OP3,OCP1,OCP2,OCP3,OC51,OC52
  &,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3,A1,A2,A3,D,CONT
  NCELL=1
  COUNT=1
  J=1
  DO 30 K=1,MNB
    DO 10 I=NCELL,1,-1
      ALPHA1=ALPHA1B(I)
      ALPHA2=ALPHA2B(I)
      ALPHA3=ALPHA3B(I)
      A1=IN1(J)
      A2=IN2(J)
      A3=IN3(J)
      D=DA(1,J)
      CONT=CONTA(1,J)
      OP1=P1((1+1),J)
      OP2=P2((1+1),J)
      OP3=P3((1+1),J)
      OCP1=CP1((1+1),J)

```

```

OCP2=CP2(I,J)
OCP3=CP3(I,J)
OCS1=CS1(I,J)
OCS2=CS2(I,J)
CALL CELL(NCS1,NCS2,NCP1,NCP2,NCP3,NP1,NP2,NP3)
P1(I,J+1)=NP1
P2(I,J+1)=NP2
P3(I,J+1)=NP3
CP1(I,J+1)=NCP1
CP2(I,J+1)=NCP2
CP3(I,J+1)=NCP3
CS1(I,J+1)=NCS1
CS2(I,J+1)=NCS2
J=J+1
10 CONTINUE
B1(K)=P1(1,K+1)
B2(K)=P2(1,K+1)
B3(K)=P3(1,K+1)
J=1
IF(NCELL.LT.NBC) GOTO 20
J=J+COUNT
COUNT=COUNT+1
GOTO 30
NCELL=NCELL+1
20 CONTINUE
30 CALL BTOD(OUT1,B1,MNB)
CALL BTOD(OUT2,B2,MNB)
CALL BTOD(OUT3,B3,MNB)
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE CELL(NCS1,NCS2,NCP1,NCP2,NCP3
&,NP1,NP2,NP3)
INTEGER NCS1,NCS2,NCP1,NCP2,NCP3,NCB1,NCB2,NCB3,NP1,NP2,NP3
&,OCS1,OCS2,OCP1,OCP2,OCP3,OCB1,OCB2,OCB3,OP1,OP2,OP3,ALPHA1
&,ALPHA2,ALPHA3,BITA2,A1,A2,A3,NA3,D,S1,S2,D1,D2,D3,CONT
COMMON /D/ OP1,OP2,OP3,OCP1,OCP2,OCP3,OCS1,OCS2
&,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3,A1,A2,A3,D,CONT
CALL SUM(A1,A2,OCS1,S1,NCS1)
CALL SUM(A3,S1,OCS2,S2,NCS2)
S2=XOR(S2,D)
CALL PROD(OP1,S2,ALPHA1,OCP1,NP1,NCP1)
CALL PROD(OP2,S2,ALPHA2,OCP2,NP2,NCP2)
CALL PROD(OP3,S2,ALPHA3,OCP3,NP3,NCP3)
NP1=XOR(NP1,CONT)
NP2=XOR(NP2,CONT)
NP3=XOR(NP3,CONT)
RETURN
END

FUNCTION INV(A)
C
C
C
INTEGER A
INV=1
IF(A.EQ.1) INV=0
RETURN
END

FUNCTION XOR(A,B)
C
C
C
INTEGER A,B
XOR=1
IF(A.EQ.B) XOR=0
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE SUM(A,B,CIN,S,COUT)
C
C
C
INTEGER A,B,CIN,COUT,S
S=A+B+CIN
IF(S.LT.2) GOTO 10
IF(S.EQ.2) GOTO 20
S=1
COUT=1
GOTO 30
10 COUT=0
GOTO 30
20 S=0
COUT=1
GOTO 30
30 RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE PROD(A,B,C,CIN,P,COUT)
C
C
C
INTEGER A,B,C,CIN,COUT,P,BANDC
BANDC=B*C
CALL SUM(A,BANDC,CIN,P,COUT)
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE BTOD(A,ARRAY,NB,K)
C
C
C
INTEGER A,ARRAY(27),NB,K
A=0
DO 10 K=1,NB
A=A+ARRAY(K)*2**(K-1)
CONTINUE
IF(ARRAY(NB).EQ.1) A=-((2**NB)-A)
RETURN
END

```

## 81.4- UNIVERSAL SYSTOLIC ADAPTOR PROGRAM

```

INTEGER ADAPTOR
COMMON /E/ ADAPTOR

PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT, "
PRINT, "
PRINT, "
PRINT, "
PRINT, "
PRINT, "
PRINT, "
PRINT, "
PRINT, "
PRINT, "
PRINT, "
PRINT, "
PRINT, "
PRINT, "
PRINT, "ENTER YOUR CHOICE NUMBER :-"
READ,ADAPTOR
PRINT,
GOTO ((10,20,30,40),ADAPTOR)
GO TO 5
CALL TNOPA
GO TO 5
CALL THRPPA
GO TO 5
CALL THRPXA
GO TO 5
STOP
END

SUBROUTINE TWOPA
INTEGER A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,D,NBS,NBC,MNB,OUT1,OUT2,OUT3
COMMON /C/ NBS,NBC,MNB
PRINT,
PRINT," ALPHA    A1   A2"
READ,ALPHA1,A1,A2
PRINT,
PRINT,"NBS      NBC"
READ,NBS,NBC
MNB=NBS*NBC+2
D=ALPHA1*(A2-A1)
PRINT,
PRINT,"THE ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-"
PRINT,
PRINT,"B1 = ",A1+D
PRINT,"B2 = ",A2+D
PRINT,
CALL BLOCK(A1,A2,0,ALPHA1,0,0,0,OUT1,OUT2,OUT3)
PRINT,"THE SYSTOLIC ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :--"
PRINT,
PRINT,"B1 = ",OUT1
PRINT,"B2 = ",OUT2
PRINT,
PRINT,"TYPE <CR> TO CONTINUE !!!-"
```

```

READ,D
PRINT,
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE THRPPA
  INTEGER A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,BITA1,BITA2,AD,MNB,NBS,NBC
  ,OUT1,OUT2,OUT3
  COMMON /C/ NBS,NBC,MNB
  PRINT,
  PRINT,"ALPHA1 ALPHA2 A1 A2 A3"
  READ,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,A1,A2,A3
  PRINT,
  PRINT,"NBS NBC"
  READ,NBS,NBC
  PRINT,
  MNB=NBS+NBC*3
  BITA1=ALPHA1-1
  BITA2=ALPHA2-1
  AD=A1*ALPHA1+A2*ALPHA2+A3*(2-ALPHA1-ALPHA2)
  PRINT,"THE ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-"
  PRINT,
  PRINT,"B1 = ",AD-A1
  PRINT,"B2 = ",AD-A2
  PRINT,"B3 = ",AD-A3
  PRINT,
  CALL BLOCK(A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,0,BITA1,BITA2,OUT1,OUT2,OUT3)
  PRINT,
  PRINT,"THE SYSTOLIC ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :-"
  PRINT,
  PRINT,"B1 = ",OUT1
  PRINT,"B2 = ",OUT2
  PRINT,"B3 = ",OUT3
  PRINT,
  PRINT,"TYPE <CR> TO CONTINUE !!!"
  READ,AD
  PRINT,
  RETURN
END

```

```

SUBROUTINE THRPSA
  INTEGER ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3,A1,A2,A3,A0,NBS,NBC,MNB
  .OUT1,OUT2,OUT3
  COMMON /C/ NBS,NBC,MNB
  PRINT,
  PRINT,"ALPHA1 ALPHA2 ALPHA3 A1 A2 A3"
  READ,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3,A1,A2,A3
  PRINT,
  PRINT,"NBS NBC"
  READ,NBS,NBC
  PRINT,

```

```

MNB=NBS+NBC*3
A0=A1+A2+A3
PRINT, "THE ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :--"
PRINT,
PRINT, "B1 = ", A1-ALPHA1*A0
PRINT, "B2 = ", A2-ALPHA2*A0
PRINT, "B3 = ", A3-ALPHA3*A0
PRINT,
CALL BLOCK(A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3,0,0,OUT1,OUT2,OUT3)
PRINT, "THE SYSTOLIC ADAPTOR OUTPUTS ARE :--"
PRINT,
PRINT, "B1 = ", OUT1
PRINT, "B2 = ", OUT2
PRINT, "B3 = ", OUT3
PRINT,
PRINT, "TYPE <CR> TO CONTINUE !!!"
READ, A0
PRINT,
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE INIT(A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3,BIT1,BIT2)
INTEGER A1,A2,A3,X1B(28),X2B(28),X3B(28),X4B(28),ALPHA1,ALPHA2
& BIT2,ALPHA3,Z3B(8),W3B(8),Z1B(8),Z2B(8),W1B(8),W2B(8),P1(9,28)
& P2(5,28),P3(9,28),D1A(6,27),D2A(6,27),CP1(6,28),CP2(6,28)
& CP3(6,28),CB1(6,28),CB2(6,28),CB3(6,28),CS1(6,28),CS2(6,28)
& ADAPTOR,Z1,Z2,Z3,W1,W2,W3,DP1,DP2,DP3,DCS1,DCS2,S
& DP1B(28),DP2B(28),DP3B(28),BITA1,X1,X2,X3,X4
COMMON /A/ X1B,X2B,X3B,X4B,Z1B,Z2B,Z3B,W1B,W2B,W3B
COMMON /B/ P1,P2,P3,D1A,D2A,CP1,CP2,CP3,CB1,CB2,CB3,CS1,CS2
COMMON /C/ NBS,NBC,MNB
COMMON /E/ ADAPTOR
IF (ADAPTOR.EQ.1) GOTO 10
IF (ADAPTOR.EQ.2) GOTO 20
Z1=ALPHA1
Z2=ALPHA2
Z3=ALPHA3
W1=Z1
W2=Z2
W3=Z3
X1=A1
X2=A2
X3=A3
X4=0
DP1=(2**MNB)-1-A1
DP2=(2**MNB)-1-A2
DP3=(2**MNB)-1-A3
DCS1=0
DCS2=0
S=1
GOTO 30
Z1=ALPHA1
10
Z2=ALPHA1
Z3=ALPHA1
W1=ALPHA1
W2=BITA2
W3=ALPHA2
X1=A1
X2=(2**MNB)-1-A3
X3=A2
X4=X2
DP1=A3
DP2=A3
DP3=A3
DCS1=1
DCS2=1
S=0
CALL DT0B(X1,X1B,MNB)
CALL DT0B(X2,X2B,MNB)
CALL DT0B(X3,X3B,MNB)
CALL DT0B(X4,X4B,MNB)
CALL DT0B(Z1,Z1B,NBC)
CALL DT0B(Z2,Z2B,NBC)
CALL DT0B(Z3,Z3B,NBC)
CALL DT0B(W1,W1B,NBC)
CALL DT0B(W2,W2B,NBC)
CALL DT0B(W3,W3B,NBC)
CALL DT0B(DP1,DP1B,MNB)
CALL DT0B(DP2,DP2B,MNB)
CALL DT0B(DP3,DP3B,MNB)
DO 40 K1=1,MNB+1
DO 40 K2=1,NBC+1
P1(K2,K1)=0
P2(K2,K1)=0
P3(K2,K1)=0
40 CONTINUE
DO 50 K1=1,MNB
DO 50 K2=1,NBC
D1A(K2,K1)=0
D2A(K2,K1)=0
CF1(K2,K1)=0
CP2(K2,K1)=0
CP3(K2,K1)=0
CB1(K2,K1)=0

```

END

C  
C  
C

```

SUBROUTINE BLOCK(A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3,BITA1,BITA2
&,OUT1,OUT2,OUT3)
INTEGER X1B(28),X2B(28),X3B(28),X4B(28),Z1B(8),Z2B(8),Z3B(8)
&,W1B(8),W2B(8),W3B(8),P1(9,28),P2(9,28),P3(9,28),D1A(8,27)
&,CP1(8,28),CP2(8,28),CP3(8,28),CB1(8,28),CB2(8,28),CB3(8,28)
&,CS1(8,28),CS2(8,28),NBS,NBC,MNB,OUT1,OUT2,OUT3,OP1,OP2,OP3
&,NP1,NP2,NP3,OCP1,OCP2,OCP3,NCP1,NCP2,NCP3,OCB1,OCB2,OCB3
&,NCB1,NCB2,NCB3,OCs1,OCs2,NCs1,NCs2,Z1,Z2,Z3,W1,W2,W3
&,X1,X2,X3,X4,B1(28),B2(28),B3(28),D1,D2,DZA(8,27)
&,A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3,BITA1,BITA2
COMMON /A/ X1B,X2B,X3B,X4B,Z1B,Z2B,Z3B,W1B,W2B,W3B
COMMON /B/ P1,P2,P3,D1A,DZA,CP1,CP2,CP3,CB1,CB2,CB3,CS1,CS2
COMMON /C/ NBS,NBC,MNB
COMMON /D/ OP1,OP2,OP3,OCP1,OCP2,OCP3,OCB1,OCB2,OCB3,OCs1,OCs2
&,Z1,Z2,Z3,W1,W2,W3,X1,X2,X3,X4,D1,D2
CALL INIT(A1,A2,A3,ALPHA1,ALPHA2,ALPHA3,BITA1,BITA2)
NCELL=1
COUNT=1
J=1
DO 30 K=1,MNB
DO 10 I=NCELL,1,-1
Z1=Z1B(I)
Z2=Z2B(I)
Z3=Z3B(I)
W1=W1B(I)
W2=W2B(I)
W3=W3B(I)
X1=X1B(J)
X2=X2B(J)
X3=X3B(J)
X4=X4B(J)
D1=D1A(I,J)
D2=DZA(I,J)
OP1=P1(I+1,J)
OP2=P2(I+1,J)
OP3=P3(I+1,J)
OCPI=CP1(I,J)
OCP2=CP2(I,J)
OCP3=CP3(I,J)
OCB1=CB1(I,J)
OCB2=CB2(I,J)
OCB3=CB3(I,J)
OCs1=CS1(I,J)
OCs2=CS2(I,J)
CALL CELL(NCS1,NCs2,NCP1,NCP2,NCP3,NCB1,NCB2,NCB3,NP1,NP2,NP3)
P1(I,J+1)=NP1
P2(I,J+1)=NP2
P3(I,J+1)=NP3
CP1(I,J+1)=NCP1
CP2(I,J+1)=NCP2
CP3(I,J+1)=NCP3

```

```

50 CB2(K2,K1)=0
CB3(K2,K1)=0
CS1(K2,K1)=0
CS2(K2,K1)=0
CONTINUE
CP1(NBC,1)=Z1B(NBC)
CP2(NBC,1)=Z2B(NBC)
CP3(NBC,1)=Z3B(NBC)
CB1(NBC,1)=W1B(NBC)
CB2(NBC,1)=W2B(NBC)
CB3(NBC,1)=W3B(NBC)
DO 60 K=2,NBC+1
P1(K,1)=DP1B(K-1)
P2(K,1)=DP2B(K-1)
P3(K,1)=DP3B(K-1)
CONTINUE
60 DO 70 K=2,(MNB-NBC+1)
P1((NBC+1),K)=DP1B(NBC+K-1)
P2((NBC+1),K)=DP2B(NBC+K-1)
P3((NBC+1),K)=DP3B(NBC+K-1)
CONTINUE
70 DO 80 K=1,MNB
D1A(NBC,K)=1
DZA(1,K)=S
CONTINUE
80 DO 90 K=1,NBC
CS1(K,1)=DCS1
CS2(K,1)=DCS2
CONTINUE
90 RETURN
END
C
C
C
SUBROUTINE DIOB(A,ARRAY,NB)
INTEGER A,ARRAY(28),NB,R
IF (A.EQ.0) GOTO 40
IF (A.LT.0) A=(2**NB)*A
K=1
10 IF (A.EQ.1) GOTO 20
R=INT(A/2)
ARRAY(K)=1
IF ((R*2).EQ.A) ARRAY(K)=0
A=R
K=K+1
GOTO 10
20 ARRAY(K)=1
DO 30 J=K+1,NB
ARRAY(J)=0
CONTINUE
30 GOTO 60
40 DO 50 K=1,NB
ARRAY(K)=0
CONTINUE
50 RETURN
60

```





## B2.0- WDF Design Programs

This Appendix presents the programs used for the design of the three WDFs considered in this thesis. Each program includes the synthesis routines plus the optimization routines for the finite wordlength design of the filters. The programs need a number of files to be created before running which will be used to store the WDF coefficients. These files are defined using the 'OPEN' command in Fortran at the beginning of the program. The program listings are as follows,

B2.1- UEFD.S0, Unit Element Filter Design.Synthesis Optimization.

B2.2- LTFD.S0.

B2.3- LCFD.S0.

It was intended to merge all these three programs together to form a complete software tool for the design of WDFs but due to lack of computer facilities this was not achieved.

WDF DESIGN PROGRAM  
BASED ON SYNTHESIS AND OPTIMIZATION OF THE  
UNIT ELEMENT FILTERS. (FORTRAN 77)

C C AUTHOR : A. R. MIRZAI DATE : MARCH 1985  
C THE CENTRE FOR INFORMATION ENG  
C THE CITY UNIVERSITY  
C NORTHAMPTON SQ, LONDON EC10VHB

```
REAL F1,RP,F2,ML,ALPHA(21)
INTEGER N,CHOICE,I,IPCC,FPCC
CHARACTER*1 CH
```

C THE FINITE AND INFINIT PRECESSION COEFFICIENTS CHANNEL

```
OPENUNIT=1, FILE='UECOEF.I', STATUS='OLD', FORM='UNFORMATTED'
& ACTION='READ/WRITE')
OPENUNIT=2, FILE='UECOEF.F', STATUS='OLD', FORM='UNFORMATTED'
& ACTION='READ/WRITE')
OPENUNIT=3, FILE='UECOEF.T', STATUS='OLD', FORM='UNFORMATTED'
& ACTION='READ/WRITE')
```

# C HAIN PROGRAM

```
PRINT.  
PRINT.  
PRINT.  
PRINT.  
PRINT.
```

PROGRAM TO DESIGN WDFS BASED ON  
CASCADED UNIT ELEMENT FILTERS.

## MAIN MENU.

```

PRINT.
PRINT.
PRINT.
PRINT.
PRINT.
PRINT.
PRINT.
PRINT.
PRINT.
PRINT.
1- ENTER SPECIFICATIONS.
2- DESIGN USING SYNTHESIS (INFINIT PRECISION).
3- DESIGN USING OPTIMIZATION (FINITE PRECISION).
4- SAVE COEFFICIENTS.
5- READ INITIAL COEFFICIENTS.
6- END PROGRAM.

```

PRINT, ENTER YOUR CHOICE NUMBER : -

GOTO (10,20,30,40,50,60),CHOICE

10

```

PRINT,
PRINT, 'PASS BAND PASS BAND STOP BAND MIN STOPBAND'
PRINT, 'EDGE FREQ RIPPLE EDGE FREQ ATTENUATION'
PRINT, ' (HZ) (DB) (HZ) (DB)'
READ*, F1, RP, F2, ML
PRINT,
CALL FDEG(F1, RP, F2, ML, N)
GOTO 5
20 CALL SYSNDF(F1, RP, F2, ML, ALPHA, N)
GOTO 5
30 CALL OPTWDF(F1, RP, F2, ML, ALPHA, N)
GOTO 5
40 CALL SAVE(ALPHA, N)
GOTO 5
50 CALL RDCOEFF(ALPHA, N)
GOTO 5
60 STOP
END
C
C SUBROUTINE FDEG :- GIVEN A SET OF SPECIFICATIONS
C THIS SUBROUTINE CALCULATES THE MINIMUM DEGREE
C REQUIRED TO MEET THE SPECIFICATIONS.

```

```

SUBROUTINE FDEG(PEF, RIPPLE, SEF, MINLOSS, DEG)
  REAL PR, FP, FS, RN, T5, T6, H2, E, B1, V1, X, ML, PI
  & PEF, SEF, RIPPLE, MINLOSS
  INTEGER N, DEG
  FP=PEF
  FS=SEF
  PR=RIPPLE
  ML=MINLOSS
  PI=3.14159263
  T5=PI*FP
  T6=PI*FS
  H2=10*(PR/10)-1
  E=1+H2
  B1=4*FP
  V=1+2*H2+2*SORT(H2*(1+H2))
  X=SIN(T6)/SIN(T5)
  RN=LOG10(10*(ML/10)-1)-LOG10(H2)*LOG10(4)
  RN=RN/(2*LOG10(2*X))
  N=INT(RN+0.999999)
  PRINT, 'VSWR' = 'V
  PRINT, 'BW' = 'B1
  PRINT, 'DEGREE' = 'N
  PRINT,
  PRINT, 'ENTER THE REQUIRED DEGREE :-'
  READ*, DEG
  PRINT,
  PRINT,
  RETURN
END

```

TRANSMISSION LINE FILTER SYNTHESIS.

C AUTHOR : RALPH LEVY DATE : 1965  
 C [IEEE.MTT-13.PP 514-536]  
 C  
 C MODIFIED TO RUN ON HONEYWELL BASIC  
 C BY S.S.LAWSON DATE : APRIL 1983  
 C  
 C MODIFIED TO RUN ON HONEYWELL FORTRAN 77  
 C BY A.R.HIRZAI DATE : JUNE 1984  
 C  
 C-----

SUBROUTINE SYSWDF(PEF, RIPPLE, SEF, MINLOSS, ALPHA, DEG)

REAL P1,F1,F2,F3,T,T5,T6,H,H2,H3,H4,H5

REAL P2,P3,P4,P5,P6,P7,P8,P9,P1

REAL E1,A1,B1,R2,V1,X2,RN,S,UV,ZV,YV

REAL W,W1,V,ZV,YV,AV,MINLOSS,PEF,SEF,RIPPLE

REAL A(78),B(11),C(11),D(21),E(23),F(23)

REAL G(22),U(23),Y(78),ALPHA(21),Z(78)

INTEGER I,J,K,L,N,DEG,M,O,P,Q,R,S1,T1,01,IN,OUT

PI=3.14159263

F1=PEF

F2=SEF

R2=RIPPLE

A1=MINLOSS

N=DEG

T5=PI\*F1

T6=PI\*F2

H2=10\*(R2/10)-1

E1=1+H2

B1=4\*F1

V1=1+2\*H2+2\*SORT(H2\*(1+H2))

X2=SIN(T6)/SIN(T5)

F3=1.0

M=INT(N/2+0.1)

UV=FLOAT(N)/FLOAT(2)-FLOAT(M)

P2=V1

P4=SQRT(P2)

H=(P2-1)/(2\*P4)

P3=1/H

H2=SQRT(1+P3\*\*2)

H5=LOG(P3+H2)

H3=EXP(2\*H5/N)

H4=1/H3

H3=(H3+H4)/2

H4=H3-H4

P6=SIN(81\*PI/4)

P1=1/(P6\*\*2)

P4=2\*P1

P3=P4-1

P7=SQRT(P3\*\*2-1)

P2=LOG(P3+P7)

P2=N\*P2/2

P2=EXP(P2)

P5=1/P2

P2=(P2+P5)/2

P2=LOG(H\*H\*P2\*P2\*1)

P5=LOG(10)  
 W1=10\*P2/P5  
 P8=H3\*P3+H4\*P7  
 P9=H3\*P3-H4\*P7  
 DO 20 R=1,M  
 C=COS((2\*R-1)\*PI/N)  
 P5=P8-C  
 P7=P9-C  
 P5=SQRT(P5\*P7)  
 A(R+1)=P5/(H3+C)  
 P7=H3+C  
 P5=H3+C\*P4+P4  
 P5=P5/P7\*\*2  
 B(R+1)=SORT(2-2\*P5\*2\*A(R+1))  
 P5=(C+1)/2  
 P5=PI/P5  
 C(R+1)=P5-1  
 CONTINUE  
 20  
 IF (UV.LT.0.2) GOTO 30  
 P5=(H3+P3)/(H3-1)  
 A(M+2)=SORT(P5)  
 AV=N\*H/P6  
 GOTO 40  
 30  
 AV=1/H2  
 40  
 F(2)=0.0  
 F(1)=1.0  
 DO 80 R=1,M  
 DO 70 I=1,R  
 G(I+1)=C(R+1)\*F(I)  
 IF (I.EQ.R) GOTO 50  
 G(I+1)=F(I+1)\*G(I+1)  
 GOTO 70  
 50  
 DO 60 J=1,R  
 F(J+1)=G(J+1)  
 CONTINUE  
 60  
 CONTINUE  
 70  
 CONTINUE  
 80  
 DO 90 I=1,M  
 J=2\*I  
 O(J+1)=AV\*F(I+1)  
 CONTINUE  
 D(1)=AV  
 G(2)=0.0  
 DO 160 R=1,M  
 L=2\*R  
 DO 150 I=1,L  
 IF (I.EQ.1) GOTO 100  
 G(I+1)=A(R+1)\*F(I-1)  
 IF (I.EQ.L) GOTO 130  
 G(I+1)=B(R+1)\*F(I)+G(I+1)  
 O=L-I  
 IF (O.EQ.1) GOTO 150  
 IF (I.EQ.1) GOTO 150  
 G(I+1)=G(I+1)\*F(I+1)  
 GOTO 150  
 100  
 G(I+1)=B(R+1)\*F(I)+G(I+1)  
 O=L-I  
 IF (O.EQ.1) GOTO 150  
 IF (I.EQ.1) GOTO 150  
 G(I+1)=G(I+1)\*F(I+1)  
 GOTO 150

```

130 DO 140 J=1,L
    F(J+1)=G(J+1)
140 CONTINUE
150 CONTINUE
160 CONTINUE
    IF (UV.LT.0.2) GOTO 190
    L=2*M
    DO 180 I=0,L
        F(I+1)=A(M+2)*F(I+1)
        IF (I.EQ.L) GOTO 170
        F(I+1)=F(I+1)+F(I+2)
170 G(I+1)=F(I+1)
        G(I+1)=F(I+1)
180 CONTINUE
190 DO 200 I=0,L,2
        F(I+1)=F(I+1)-D(I+1)
        G(I+1)=F(I+1)+2*D(I+1)
200 CONTINUE
    DO 210 I=0,L
        O=L-I
        E(I+1)=F(O+1)
        U(I+1)=G(O+1)
210 CONTINUE
        E(L+2)=2*UV
        U(L+2)=E(L+2)
        K=M+1
        P=INT(M+E(L+2)+0.1)
        O=P
        DO 310 J=N,K,-1
            F(1)=E(1)
            F(2)=E(2)
            G(1)=U(1)
            G(2)=U(2)
            I=INT(J/2+0.1)
            V=FLOAT(J)/FLOAT(2)-FLOAT(I)
            O=N-J+1
            DO 220 R=1,I
                L=2*R
                F(L+2)=E(L+2)+F(L)
                F(L+1)=E(L+1)+F(L-1)
                G(L+2)=U(L+2)+G(L)
                G(L+1)=U(L+1)+G(L-1)
220 CONTINUE
            IF (UV.LT.0.2) GOTO 230
            ZV=F(J+1)/F(J)
            YV=G(J)/G(J+1)
            GOTO 240
230 ZV=F(J)/F(J+1)
            YV=G(J+1)/G(J)
240 Z(O+1)=(ZV+YV)/2
            Y(O+1)=ABS(ZV-YV)
            IF (Z(O+1).LT.1.0) GOTO 260
            IF (Z(O+1).GT.10.0) GOTO 250
            IF (Y(O+1).GT.0.03) GOTO 320
            GOTO 270

250 A(O+1)=0.003*Z(O+1)
    IF (Y(O+1).GT.A(O+1)) GOTO 320
    GOTO 270
260 IF (Y(O+1).LT.0.001) GOTO 270
    IF (Z(O+1).LT.0.1) GOTO 320
    IF (Y(O+1).GT.0.01) GOTO 320
270 M=UV-V
    W=ABS(W)
    S1=Q
    ZV=Z(O+1)
    IF (W.LT.0.2) GOTO 280
    ZV=1/ZV
    L=2*R
    DO 290 R=1,I
        F(L+2)=E(L+1)-E(L+2)/ZV
        F(L+1)=E(L)-E(L+1)*ZV
        G(L+2)=U(L+1)-ZV*U(L+2)
        G(L+1)=U(L)-U(L+1)/ZV
290 CONTINUE
    L=2*I
    F(L+3)=E(L+2)
    E(L+3)=0.0
    E(L+2)=0.0
    G(L+3)=U(L+2)
    U(L+3)=0.0
    U(L+2)=0.0
    DO 300 R=L,0,-1
        E(R+1)=F(R+3)+E(R+3)
        U(R+1)=G(R+3)+U(R+3)
300 CONTINUE
310 CONTINUE
C
C OUTPUT SECTION
C
320 PRINT, 'DEGREE, N = ',N
    PRINT, 'VOLTAGE STANDING WAVE RATIO, VSWR = ',V1
    PRINT, 'BANDWIDTH, BW = ',B1
    PRINT, 'MAXIMUM ATTENUATION, L(DB) = ',W1
    PRINT, '
    PRINT, ' THE STEP IMPEDANCES ARE AS FOLLOWS :- '
    DO 330 I=1,P
        PRINT, I, Z(I+1)
330 CONTINUE
    PRINT, '
        Z(1)=1.0
        Z(N+2)=1.0
        M=INT(N/2)
        IF (N.EQ.(2*M)) GOTO 350
        DO 340 I=1,M
            Z(N+2-I)=Z(I+1)
340 CONTINUE
        GOTO 370
350 DO 360 I=1,M

```





```

PRINT,
DFP=EP/(NP-1)
DFS=(0.5-FS)/(NS-1)
PRINT, 'ENTER COEFFICIENT WORD-LENGTH :-'
READ(5,*) NSBIT
PRINT,
MFACT=0.5
SD=(0.5)*NSBIT
CALL QUANT(ALPHA,N,SD)
CALL FEFUNCIN,ALPHA,E1,EP,ES,EOP)
PRINT,
WRITE(6,100) NSBIT
DO 10 I=1,N
WRITE(6,110) I,ALPHA(I)
CONTINUE
10 PRINT,
PRINT, 'MAX RIPPLE IN THE PASSBAND = ',EP
PRINT, 'MIN LOSS IN THE STOPBAND = ',ES
PRINT,
PRINT, '***** DESIGN STAGE *****'
PRINT,
PRINT,
NFE=0
CALL PAT(N,SD,NSBIT,MFACT,ALPHA)
PRINT,
PRINT, 'TYPE <CR> TO CONTINUE !!'
READ*,I
PRINT,
100 FORMAT(' WDF COEFFICIENTS QUANTIZED TO ',I4,' BITS ARE :-')
110 FORMAT(' ALPHA(' ,I4,' ) = ',F20.15)
RETURN
END

C
C SUBROUTINE QUANT :- THE INITIAL COEFFICIENTS ARE
C QUANTIZED TO NSBIT BITS, WHERE NSBIT IS THE STARTING
C BIT NUMBER.
C
SUBROUTINE QUANT(ALPHA,N,MIND)
REAL ALPHA(N),A,MIND
INTEGER N,I
DO 10 I=1,N
A=ALPHA(I)
ALPHA(I)=SIGN(MIND*FLOAT(INT(ABS(A)/MIND+0.5)),A)
10 CONTINUE
RETURN
END

C
C SUBROUTINE PAT :- THIS SUBROUTINE MAKES A PATTERN
C MOVE TO FIND AN IMPROVED SET OF COEFFICIENTS. IT
C ALSO CHECKS FOR THE END OF ALGORITHM, I.E WHEN THE
C SPECIFICATIONS ARE MET.
C
SUBROUTINE PAT(N,SD,NSBIT,MFACT,PCOEFF)
REAL PCOEFF(N),SAVE(20),ECOEFF(20),PFV,EP,ES,E1V,DLT,

```

```

C
C SUBROUTINE EXPLOR :- THIS SUBROUTINE MAKES AN
C EXPLOITARY MOVE. IT USES THE THOPT TECHNIQUE TO
C SPEED UP THE ALGORITHM.
C
SUBROUTINE EXPLOR(ECOEFF,EFV,N,DLT,EOP)
REAL ECOEFF(N),EFV,DLT,SAVE,FNEW,SAVEI,SAVEJ
INTEGER NCCOEFF
LOGICAL EOP
COMMON/D/ NCCOEFF
I=NCCOEFF+1
10 IF(I.GT.N) RETURN
SAVE=ECOEFF(I)
DAMYI=ECOEFF(I)+DLT
IF(DAMYI.GE.1 .OR. DAMYI.LE.-1) GOTO 100
ECOEFF(I)=ECOEFF(I)+DLT
CALL FEFUNCIN,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW.GE.EFV) GOTO 20
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 100
20 DAMYI=ECOEFF(I)-2*DLT
IF(DAMYI.GE.1 .OR. DAMYI.LE.-1) GOTO 100
ECOEFF(I)=ECOEFF(I)-2*DLT
CALL FEFUNCIN,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW.GE.EFV) GOTO 30
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 100
30 ECOEFF(I)=SAVE
J=I+1
40 IF(J.GT.N) GOTO 100
SAVEI=ECOEFF(I)
SAVEJ=ECOEFF(J)
DAMYI=ECOEFF(I)+DLT
DAMYJ=ECOEFF(J)+DLT
IF(DAMYI.GE.1 .OR. DAMYJ.GE.1 .OR. DAMYI.LE.-1 .OR.
& DAMYJ.LE.-1) GOTO 90
ECOEFF(I)=ECOEFF(I)+DLT
ECOEFF(J)=ECOEFF(J)+DLT
CALL FEFUNCIN,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW.GE.EFV) GOTO 50
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 90
50 DAMYI=ECOEFF(I)-2*DLT
IF(DAMYI.GE.1 .OR. DAMYI.LE.-1) GOTO 90
ECOEFF(I)=ECOEFF(I)-2*DLT
CALL FEFUNCIN,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW.GE.EFV) GOTO 60
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 90
60 DAMYJ=ECOEFF(J)-2*DLT
IF(DAMYJ.GE.1 .OR. DAMYJ.LE.-1) GOTO 90
ECOEFF(J)=ECOEFF(J)-2*DLT
CALL FEFUNCIN,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW.GE.EFV) GOTO 70
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 90
70 DAMYI=ECOEFF(I)+2*DLT
IF(DAMYI.GE.1 .OR. DAMYI.LE.-1) GOTO 90
ECOEFF(I)=ECOEFF(I)+2*DLT
CALL FEFUNCIN,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW.GE.EFV) GOTO 80
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 90
80 ECOEFF(I)=SAVEI
ECOEFF(J)=SAVEJ
J=J+1
GOTO 40
100 I=I+1
GOTO 10
END
SUBROUTINE SETEQ(A,B,N)
REAL A(N),B(N)
INTEGER N,I
DO 10 I=1,N
A(I)=B(I)
10 CONTINUE
RETURN
END
C
C SUBROUTINE FEFUNC :- THIS SUBROUTINE CALCULATES
C THE OBJECTIVE FEFUNCION FOR THE CURRENT SET OF
C COEFFICIENTS. IT ALSO MAKE EOP EQUAL TO .TRUE.
C WHEN THE SPECIFICATIONS ARE MET.
C
SUBROUTINE FEFUNC(XC,FC,EP,ES,EOP)
REAL XC(N),FC,FREQ,MR,FS,DFP,DFS,MEP,MES,ML
INTEGER N,I,NP,NS
LOGICAL EOP
COMMON/A/ FS,DFP,DFS,NP,NS,DP,PR,ML
COMMON/B/ NFE
MEP=0
MES=0
ES=10E5
EOP=.FALSE.
FREQ=0
DO 30 I=1,NP
CALL FRESPI(XC,N,FREQ,MR)
D=ABS(DP-MR)
IF(D.LE.MEP) GOTO 20
MEP=D
EP=MR
20 FREQ=FREQ+DFP
30 CONTINUE
FREQ=FS
DO 70 I=1,NS
CALL FRESPI(XC,N,FREQ,MR)
IF(MR.LT.ES) ES=MR
D=ML-MR
IF(D.LE.MES) GOTO 60
MES=D
50

```

```

60 FREQ=FREQ+DFS
70 CONTINUE
  IF(MEP.LE.DP .AND. ES.GE.ML) EOP=.TRUE.
  IF(MES.GT.MEP) GOTO 80
  FC=MEP
  GOTO 90
80 FC=MES
90 MFE=NFE+1
  RETURN
END

C
C SUBROUTINE FRESP :- GIVEN A SET OF COEFFICIENTS
C AND A FREQUENCY THEN THIS SUBROUTINE EVALUATES
C THE LOSS OF THE FILTER.
C
SUBROUTINE FRESP(XC,N,FREQ,MR)
  REAL XC(N),FREQ,MR,W,SC,IM,RL,PI
  INTEGER K,N,MAG
  COMPLEX ABCD(2,2),DABCD(2,2),ZPH1
  COMMON/C/ MAG
  PI=3.14159263
  W=(2*PI*FREQ)
  ZPH1=CHPLX(COS(W),-SIN(W))
  CALL MAT1DN(ABCD)
  DO 30 K=1,N
    IF(XC(K).EQ.1) PRINT,K,XC(K)
    SC=1/(1-XC(K))
    IF (K.EQ.N) GOTO 10
    DABCD(1,1)=CHPLX(SC,0)
    DABCD(1,2)=-XC(K)*ZPH1*SC
    DABCD(2,1)=CHPLX(-XC(K)*SC,0)
    DABCD(2,2)=ZPH1*SC
  GOTO 20
10 DABCD(1,1)=CHPLX(SC,0)
  DABCD(1,2)=CHPLX(-XC(K)*SC,0)
  DABCD(2,1)=DABCD(1,2)
  DABCD(2,2)=DABCD(1,1)
20 CALL MATHUL(ABCD,DABCD)
30 CONTINUE
  RL=REAL(ABCD(1,1))
  IM=AIMAG(ABCD(1,1))
  MR=1/((RL**2)+(IM**2))
  IF(MAG.EQ.1) GOTO 40
  MR=-20*ALOG10(SQRT(MR))
40 RETURN
END

C
C SUBROUTINE MAT1DN :- THIS SUBROUTINE MAKE A COMPLEX
C MATRIX EQUAL TO THE IDENTITY MATRIX.
C
SUBROUTINE MAT1DN(ABCD)
  COMPLEX ABCD(2,2)
  ABCD(1,1)=(1,0)
  ABCD(2,2)=(1,0)
  ABCD(1,2)=(0,0)
  ABCD(2,1)=(0,0)

```

WDF DEGIN PROGRAM  
BASED ON SYNTHESIS AND OPTIMIZATION OF THE  
LATTICE FILTERS. (FORTRAN 77)

AUTHOR : A. R. MIRZAI      DATE : DEC 1985

THE CENTRE FOR INFORMATION ENG  
THE CITY UNIVERSITY  
NORTHAMPTON SQ. LONDON EC10HB

```

5 PRINT.
  PRINT.
  PRINT.
  PROGRAM TO DESIGN LATTICE WDF.

```

MAIN MENU.

```
PRINT.
PRINT.'ENTER YOUR CHOICE NUMBER :-'
```

```
PRINT,  
GOTO(10,20,30,40,50,60,70,80),CHOIC
```

```

GOTO 5
20 CALL RDCOEF(N,ALPHA)

```

30 CALL DBUTT(N,ALPHA)

GOTO 5

40 CALL DCHEB(N,ALPHA)

```

SUBROUTINE RDSPEC(N)
COMMON /A/ ES,EP,PHS,PHP
COMMON /B/ FP,FS,AP,ASF
PI=3.14159263

```

PRINT, 'THE FILTER ORDER MUST BE GREATER THAN  
PRINT, .

```

RK=(RK*2)+SQR1(RK*2-1)
MINN=INT(ALOG(2*ES/EP)/ALOG(RK))

```

```
DO 10 I=1,3
  RK=(RK*2)+SQ
```

```
MINN=INT(6*ALOG(4*ES/EP)/ALOG(2*RK))  
WRITE(6,120) MINN
```

PRINT. ENTER THE REQUIRED FILTER ORDER :--  
READ N

```
100 FORMAT(
110 FORMAT(
```

RETURN  
END

00

REAL ALPHA(N)





```

C
C
C
READ,I
PRINT,
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE DELLIP(N,ALPHA)
REAL Q(0:10),M(0:10),G(0:10),C(0:10,10),Y(10),BA(10),AA(10)
& W(0:10),ALPHA(20)
CHARACTER*1 CH
COMMON /A/ ES,EP,PHS,PHP
COMMON /B/ FP,FS,AP,AS,F
PI=3.14159263
R=SQRT(ES/EP)
R=R**2+SQRT((R**4)-1)
R=R**2+SQRT((R**4)-1)
X=((2*R)**(4.0/N))/2
DO 20 I=1,4
X=SQRT((X*(1/X))/2)
20 CONTINUE
FSMIN=(F*ATAN(PHP*(X**2)))/PI
PRINT,
PRINT, MIN FS = ,FSMIN
PRINT, MAX FS = ,FS
PRINT,
PRINT, ENTER REQUIRED FS :-
READ,FS
PRINT,
PHS=TAN(PI*FS/F)
Q(0)=SQRT(PHS/PHP)
DO 30 I=0,3
Q(I+1)=(Q(I)**2)*SQRT((Q(I)**4)-1)
30 CONTINUE
M(3)=((SQRT(2*Q(4))**N)/2
DO 40 I=3,1,-1
M(I-1)=SQRT((M(I)*(1/M(I)))/2)
40 CONTINUE
EPHIN=ES/(M(0)**2)
APHIN=10*ALOG10(1+EPHIN**2)
AP=10*ALOG10(1+EP**2)
PRINT,
PRINT, MIN AP = ,APHIN, DB
PRINT, MAX AP = ,AP, DB
PRINT,
PRINT, ENTER REQUIRED AP (DB) :-
READ,AP
PRINT,
EP=SQRT(10**(AP/10)-1)
ES=EP*(M(0)**2)
G(1)=((1/EP)*SQRT((1/EP**2)+1)
DO 50 I=1,2
G(I+1)=(M(I)*G(I))+SQRT(((M(I)*G(I))**2)+1)
50 CONTINUE
DUMY=M(3)/G(3)
W(5)=(DUMY+SQRT((DUMY**2)+1))*(1.0/N)
DO 60 I=5,1,-1
W(I-1)=(W(I)-(1/W(I)))/(2*Q(I-1))
60 CONTINUE
DUMY=W(0)*Q(0)*PHP
PRINT,
PRINT, THE WDF COEFFICIENTS ARE AS FOLLOWS :-
PRINT,
ALPHA(1)=(1+DUMY)/(1-DUMY)
PRINT, ALPHA( ,0, ) = ,ALPHA(1)
DO 80 I=1,(N-1)/2
C(4,I)=Q(4)/SIN(PI/N)
DO 70 J=4,1,-1
C(J-1,I)=(1/(2*Q(J-1)))*(C(J,I)+(1/C(J,I)))
70 CONTINUE
Y(1)=1/C(0,I)
BA(1)=((W(0)**2)+(Y(1)**2))*((Q(0)*PHP**2)/(1+(W(0)*Y(1))**2)
AA(1)=-2*W(0)*Q(0)*PHP+SQRT(1-(((Q(0)**2)+(1/(Q(0)**2))-(Y(1)
& **2))*Y(1)**2))/(1+(W(0)*Y(1)**2))
80 CONTINUE
J=1
DO 100 I=1,(N-1)/2
ALPHA(I,J)=(AA(I)-BA(I)-1)/(AA(I)+BA(I)+1)
ALPHA(I+J+1)=(1+BA(I))/(1+BA(I))
PRINT, ALPHA( ,I+J-1, ) = ,ALPHA(I+J)
PRINT, ALPHA( ,I+J, ) = ,ALPHA(I+J+1)
J=J+1
100 CONTINUE
PRINT,
PRINT, THE CRITICAL FREQUENCIES ARE AS FOLLOWS :-
PRINT,
PRINT, TRANSMISSION
PRINT, ZERO
PRINT, LOSS
DUMY=Q(0)*PHP
DO 110 I=1,(N-1)/2
FTZ=F*ATAN(DUMY/Y(I))/PI
FZP=F*ATAN(DUMY*Y(I))/PI
PRINT, I,FTZ,FZP
110 CONTINUE
PRINT, TYPE <CR> TO CONTINUE !!!
READ,LL
RETURN
END

C
C
C
SUBROUTINE FRESP(ALPHA,N,FREQ,MR)
REAL ALPHA(20),FREQ,MR
INTEGER IC1,IC2
COMPLEX ZPM1,ZPM2,G1Z,G2Z,GZ
COMMON /B/ FP,FS,AP,AS,F
PI=3.14159263
G1Z=(1.0)
G2Z=(1.0)

```

```

PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT, 'MAX RIPPLE IN THE PASSBAND, AP = ', AP
PRINT, 'MIN LOSS IN THE STOPBAND, AS = ', AS
PRINT,
PRINT, 'ENTER REQUIRED AP AND AS :-'
READ, AP, AS
PRINT,
ML=AS
DP=AP/2
RP=AP
PRINT,
NP=INT((FP*100)+1)
NS=INT((0.5-FS)*100)+1
PRINT, NP, NS
DFP=FP/(NP-1)
DFS=((F/2)-FS)/(NS-1)
PRINT, 'ENTER THE COEFFICIENT WORD-LENGTH :-'
READ, NSBIT
PRINT,
MFAC=0.5
SD=(0.5)*NSBIT
CALL QUANT(ALPHA, N, SD)
CALL FEUNC(N, ALPHA, E1, EP, ES, EOP)
PRINT, 'INITIAL VALUES :-'
PRINT,
WRITE(6,100) NSBIT
PRINT,
DO 10 I=1, N
WRITE(6,110) I, ALPHA(I)
CONTINUE
PRINT,
PRINT, 'MAX RIPPLE IN THE PASSBAND = ', EP
PRINT, 'MIN LOSS IN THE STOPBAND = ', ES
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT, '***** DESIGN STAGE *****'
PRINT,
PRINT,
NFE=0
CALL PAT(N, SD, NSBIT, MFAC, ALPHA)
PRINT,
PRINT, 'TYPE <CR> TO CONTINUE !!!'
READ, I
PRINT,
FORMAT(' WDF COEFFICIENTS QUANTIZED TO ', I4, ' BITS ARE :-' )
FORMAT(' ALPHA( ', I4, ') = ', F20.15)
RETURN
END
100
110
C
C
C
SUBROUTINE PAT(N, SD, NSBIT, MFAC, PCOEFF)
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT, ' FINIT-WORD LENGTH DESIGN PROGRAM'

```

```

REAL PCOEFF(N),SAVE(20),ECOEFF(20),PFV,EP,ES,EFV,DLT,
&HFACT,SD,MIND
INTEGER NFE
LOGICAL EOP
COMMON /D/ NFE
CALL FEFUNC(N,PCOEFF,PFV,EP,ES,EOP)
DLT=SD
PRINT, 'NO. OF NO. OF MAX RIPPLE MIN LOSS'
PRINT, 'FEFUN CALL BITS IN PASS BAND IN STOP BAND'
10 IF(EOP) GOTO 50
CALL SETEQ(ECOEFF,PCOEFF,N)
EFV=PFV
CALL EXPLOR(ECOEFF,EFV,N,DLT,EOP)
I=0
IF(EFV,GE,PFV) GOTO 40
I=I+1
CALL FEFUNC(N,ECOEFF,DFV,EP,ES,EOP)
WRITE(6,100) NFE,NSBIT,EP,ES
REWIND(3)
DO 25 J=1,N
WRITE(3,*) ECOEFF(J)
CONTINUE
25 IF(EOP) GOTO 50
CALL SETEQ(SAVE,PCOEFF,N)
CALL SETEQ(PCOEFF,ECOEFF,N)
PFV=EFV
DO 30 J=1,N
ECOEFF(J)=2*ECOEFF(J)-SAVE(J)
CONTINUE
30 CALL FEFUNC(N,ECOEFF,EFV,EP,ES,EOP)
CALL EXPLOR(ECOEFF,EFV,N,DLT,EOP)
CALL FEFUNC(N,ECOEFF,DFV,EP,ES,EOP)
GOTO 20
40 IF (1,GT,0) GOTO 10
DLT=HFACT*DLT
NSBIT=NSBIT*1
GOTO 10
50 PRINT,
IF(NFE,EO,1) GOTO 60
CALL SETEQ(PCOEFF,ECOEFF,N)
PRINT, 'FINAL VALUES :-'
PRINT, 'NO. OF FEFUN CALLS =',NFE
PRINT, 'MAX RIPPLE IN PASS BAND =',EP
PRINT, 'MIN LOSS IN STOP BAND =',ES
PRINT,
WRITE(6,110) NSBIT
PRINT,
DO 70 I=1,N
WRITE(6,120) I,PCOEFF(I)
CONTINUE
70 FORMAT(3X,I6,7X,I2,4X,F11.9,4X,F11.9)
110 FORMAT(' THE FINAL WDF COEFFICIENTS IN',I4,' BITS ARE :-')
120 FORMAT(' ALPHA(',I4,') = ',F20.15)
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE EXPLOR(ECOEFF,EFV,N,DLT,EOP)
REAL ECOEFF(N),EFV,DLT,SAVE,FNEW,SAVEI,SAVEJ
INTEGER LIST(20),TWOPT
LOGICAL EOP
ICOUNT=1
IF(ICOUNT,GT,N) RETURN
I=ICOUNT
SAVE=ECOEFF(I)
ECOEFF(I)=ECOEFF(I)*DLT
CALL FEFUNC(N,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW,GE,EFV) GOTO 20
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 100
20 ECOEFF(I)=ECOEFF(I)-2*DLT
CALL FEFUNC(N,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW,GE,EFV) GOTO 30
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 100
30 ECOEFF(I)=SAVE
IF(TWOPT,EO,1) GOTO 100
JCOUNT=ICOUNT+1
IF(JCOUNT,GT,N) GOTO 100
J=JCOUNT
SAVEI=ECOEFF(I)
SAVEJ=ECOEFF(J)
ECOEFF(I)=ECOEFF(I)*DLT
ECOEFF(J)=ECOEFF(J)*DLT
CALL FEFUNC(N,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW,GE,EFV) GOTO 50
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 90
50 ECOEFF(I)=ECOEFF(I)-2*DLT
CALL FEFUNC(N,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW,GE,EFV) GOTO 60
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 90
60 ECOEFF(J)=ECOEFF(J)-2*DLT
CALL FEFUNC(N,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW,GE,EFV) GOTO 70
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 90
70 ECOEFF(I)=ECOEFF(I)*2*DLT
CALL FEFUNC(N,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW,GE,EFV) GOTO 80
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 90
80 ECOEFF(I)=SAVEI
ECOEFF(J)=SAVEJ
JCOUNT=JCOUNT+1
GOTO 40
100 ICOUNT=ICOUNT+1

```





```
B2.3- LCED.S0 PROGRAM
```

```
C-----  
C  
C      WDF DESIGN PROGRAM  
C      BASED ON SYNTHESIS AND OPTIMIZATION OF THE  
C      LC-LADDER FILTERS.(FORTRAN 77)  
C  
C  
C      AUTHOR : A. R. HIRZAI          DATE : MARCH 1986  
C  
C      THE CENTRE FOR INFORMATION ENG  
C      THE CITY UNIVERSITY  
C      NORTHAMPTON SQ. LONDON EC1V0HB  
C  
C-----  
C      REAL ALPHA(60),COMPVAL(20),RL,RS,FP,FS,AP,AS  
C      INTEGER NSECT,I,CIR(20)  
C      COMMON /A1/ COMPVAL,CIR,RS,RL  
C      COMMON /B1/ FP,AP,FS,AS  
C      OPEN(UNIT=1,FILE='LCCOEF.I',STATUS='OLD',FORM='UNFORMATTED'  
C      &,ACTION='READ/WRITE')  
C      OPEN(UNIT=2,FILE='LCCOEF.F',STATUS='OLD',FORM='UNFORMATTED'  
C      &,ACTION='READ/WRITE')  
C      OPEN(UNIT=3,FILE='LCCOEF.T',STATUS='OLD',FORM='UNFORMATTED'  
C      &,ACTION='READ/WRITE')  
C  
C      PRINT,  
C      PROGRAM TO DESIGN AND SIMULATE  
C      LC-LADDER WDFS.  
C  
C      PRINT,  
C      MAIN MENU  
C  
C      PRINT,  
C      1) READ INITIAL COEFFICIENTS.'  
C      PRINT,  
C      2) DESIGN LC-LADDER FILTERS.'  
C      PRINT,  
C      3) DESIGN LC-LADDER WDFS.'  
C      PRINT,  
C      4) DESIGN FINIT-WORD LENGTH WDFS.'  
C      PRINT,  
C      5) SAVE COEFFICIENTS.'  
C      PRINT,  
C      6) END PROGRAM.'  
C  
C      PRINT,  
C      ENTER YOUR CHOICE NUMBER :-'  
C      READ I  
C      GO TO (10,20,30,40,50,60),I  
C  
C      I=0  
C      GO TO 5  
C      CALL ROCOEFF(ALPHA,NSECT)  
C      GO TO 5  
C      CALL DLCLAD(NSECT)  
C      GO TO 5  
C      CALL DLCWDF(ALPHA,NSECT)  
C      GO TO 5  
C      CALL DFWLF(ALPHA,NSECT)  
C      GO TO 5  
C      CALL SAVE(ALPHA,NSECT)  
C      GO TO 5
```

[illegible]

```

PRINT, 'PASS BAND MAX RIPPLE STOP BAND MIN LOSS'
PRINT, 'EDGE FREQ IN PASSBAND EDGE FREQ IN STOPBAND'
READ, FP, AP, FS, AS
FPD=FP
FSD=FS
PRINT,
FP=(TAN(P1*FP)/(2*PI))
FS=(TAN(P1*FS)/(2*PI))
PRINT,
EP=SQRT((10*(AP/10))-1)
ES=SQRT((10*(AS/10))-1)
OMGS=FS/FP
NMN=INT((ALOG(ES/EP))/ALOG(OMGS))
PRINT,
PRINT, 'THE FILTER ORDER MUST BE GREATER THAN :-'
PRINT,
WRITE(6,100) NMN
G=SQRT((ES**2)/(EP**2))
D1=ALOG(G+SQRT((G**2)-1))
D2=ALOG(OMGS+SQRT((OMGS**2)-1))
NMN=INT(D1/D2)
WRITE(6,110) NMN
PRINT,
PRINT, 'ENTER FILTER TYPE AND ORDER :-'
READ, I, N
PRINT,
IF(I.EQ.1) GOTO 10
CALL DCHEB(A,N,EP,RS,RL,FP)
GOTO 20
CALL DBUTT(A,N)
PRINT,
DO 30 K=2,N
CIR(K)=1-CIR(K-1)
CONTINUE
PRINT,
FP=FPD
FS=FSD
FORMAT(' 1) FOR BUTTERWORTH ',I4)
110 FORMAT(' 2) FOR CHEBYSHEV ',I4)
RETURN
END

C
C
C
SUBROUTINE DBUTT(A,N)
REAL A(20),PI,EP,RS,RL,FP
INTEGER N
PI=3.14159263
D1=(2*K-1)*180/(2*PI)
A(K)=2*SIN(D1*PI/180)
PRINT, 'COMP( ',K,') = ',A(K)
10 CONTINUE
PRINT,

SUBROUTINE DCHEB(A,N,EP,RS,RL,FP)
REAL A(20),PI,EP,H,E
INTEGER N
PI=3.14159263
H=((1.0/EP)+SQRT((1+1/(EP**2))))*(1.0/N)
E=(H-(1/H))
A(1)=(4*SIN(PI/(2*N)))/E
M=INT(N/2)
M1=M
IF(M*2.EQ.N) M1=M1-1
DO 10 K=1,M1
D1=16*SIN((4*K-3)*PI/(2*N))*SIN((4*K-1)*PI/(2*N))
D2=(E**2)+4*((SIN((2*K-1)*PI/N))**2)
A(2*K)=D1/(D2*A(2*K-1))
D1=16*SIN((4*K-1)*PI/(2*N))*SIN((4*K+1)*PI/(2*N))
D2=(E**2)+4*((SIN(2*K*PI/N))**2)
A(2*K+1)=D1/(D2*A(2*K))
CONTINUE
IF(2*M.NE.N) GOTO 20
D1=16*SIN((4*M-3)*PI/(2*N))*SIN((4*M-1)*PI/(2*N))
D2=(E**2)+4*((SIN((2*M-1)*PI/N))**2)
A(N)=D1/(D2*A(N-1))
RL=(E*A(N))/(4*SIN(PI/(2*N)))
GOTO 30
20 RL=(4*SIN(PI/(2*N)))/(E*A(N))
PRINT,
PRINT, 'THE NORMALIZED VALUES OF THE FILTER ELEMENTS ARE :-'
DO 40 K=1,N
PRINT, K,A(K)
CONTINUE
PRINT,
PRINT, 'LOAD RESISTOR = ',RL
PRINT,
PRINT, 'ENTER VALUE OF THE SOURCE RESISTOR :-'
READ, RS
DO 50 K=1,N
A(K)=A(K)/(12*PI*FP)
CONTINUE
K=0
60 A(K+1)=A(K+1)/RS
A(K+2)=A(K+2)*RS
K=K+2
IF(K.EQ.N) GOTO 80
IF(K.EQ.(N-1)) GOTO 70
GOTO 60
70 A(N)=A(N)/RS
RL=RL*RS
PRINT,
PRINT, 'THE DENORMALIZED VALUES ARE :-'

```

```

90 PRINT,
DO 90 K=1,N
PRINT,K,A(K)
CONTINUE
PRINT,
PRINT,'THE LOAD RESISTOR =',RL
PRINT,
PRINT,'TYPE <CR> TO CONTINUE !!!'
READ,L
RETURN
END

C
C
C
SUBROUTINE DLWDF(ALPHA,N)
REAL COMPVAL(20),UNIT(20),RECT(50),ALPHA(60)
&.R1,R2,R3,G1,G2,G3,UNITELEM
INTEGER CIR(10),I,J,COUNT1,COUNT2,N
LOGICAL FLAG
COMMON /A1/ COMPVAL,CIR,RS,RL
PRINT,
PRINT,'DO YOU WISH TO ENTER THE COMPONENT VALUES?(Y/N)'
READ,CH
PRINT,
IF(CH.EQ.'N') GOTO 22
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,'PROGRAM TO DESIGN WDF'S BASED ON THE "
PRINT,"LC LADDER STRUCTURES."
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,'THE LC LADDER FILTER SHOULD BE DESCRIBED BY'
PRINT,"USING "0" FOR AN INDUCTOR AND "1" FOR A CAPACITOR.'
PRINT,
PRINT,' E.G 0.1 FOR A 1H INDUCTOR AND'
PRINT,' 1.1 FOR A 1F CAPACITOR.'
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,'ENTER THE FILTER ORDER :-'
READ,N
PRINT,
FLAG=.FALSE.
PRINT,'ENTER VALUES OF THE SOURCE AND LOAD RESISTORS :-'
READ,RS,RL
PRINT,
PRINT,'ENTER THE COMPONENTS AND THEIR VALUES (1,CAP-0,IND) :-'
PRINT,
DO 20 I=1,N
READ,CIR(I),COMPVAL(I)
CONTINUE
20 PRINT,

25 IF(CIR(N).EQ.1) GOTO 25
FLAG=.TRUE.
UNIT(N-1)=1
CALL IND(COMPVAL(N),UNIT(N-1),CIR(N))
N=N-1
NCOMP=N
DO 50 I=N-1,1,-1
UNITELEM=1
DO 40 J=1,NCOMP-1
IF(CIR(J).EQ.0) GOTO 30
CALL CAP(COMPVAL(J),UNITELEM,CIR(J))
GOTO 40
30 CALL IND(COMPVAL(J),UNITELEM,CIR(J))
40 CONTINUE
NCOMP=NCOMP-1
UNIT(I)=UNITELEM
50 CONTINUE
PRINT,
IF(FLAG) N=N+1
RECT(I)=RS
RECT(I2)=COMPVAL(I)
COUNT1=0
DO 60 I=1,N-1
COUNT2=COUNT1+1
RECT(COUNT2+2)=UNIT(I)
RECT(COUNT2+3)=COMPVAL(I+1)
COUNT1=COUNT1+1
60 CONTINUE
RECT(2*N+1)=RL
COUNT1=0
COUNT2=0
R1=RECT(I)
DO 70 I=1,N
R2=RECT(I+1+COUNT1)
R3=RECT(I+2+COUNT1)
G1=1/R1
G2=R2
G3=1/R3
G=2/(G1+G2+G3)
ALPHA(I+COUNT2)=G1*G
ALPHA(I+1+COUNT2)=G2*G
ALPHA(I+2+COUNT2)=G3*G
R1=RECT(I+2+COUNT1)
COUNT1=COUNT1+1
COUNT2=COUNT2+2
70 CONTINUE
COUNT1=0
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,'THE WDF COEFFICIENTS ARE AS FOLLOWS :-'
PRINT,
DO 80 I=1,N
PRINT,'BLOCK',I
COUNT2=COUNT1+1
PRINT,COUNT2,ALPHA(COUNT2)

```



```

C
SUBROUTINE QUANT(ALPHA,N,NBIT)
REAL ALPHA(N),A
INTEGER N,NBIT,1
QL=(2*NBIT)/2
DO 10 I=1,N
A=ALPHA(I)
ALPHA(I)=INT((A*QL)+0.5)/QL
CONTINUE
RETURN
END
10
C
C
C
SUBROUTINE PAT(N,SD,NSBIT,MFACT,PCOEFF)
REAL PCOEFF(N),SAVE(20),ECOEFF(20),PFV,EP,ES,EFV,DLT,
&MFACT,SD,MIND
INTEGER NFE
LOGICAL EOP
COMMON /B/ NFE
CALL FUNCT(N,PCOEFF,PFV,EP,ES,EOP)
DLT=SD
PRINT, ' NO. OF MAX RIPPLE MIN LOSS'
PRINT, ' FEFUNC CALLS BITS IN PASSBAND IN STOPBAND'
IF(EOP) GOTO 50
CALL SETEQ(ECOEFF,PCOEFF,N)
EFV=PFV
CALL EXPLOR(ECOEFF,EFV,N,DLT,EOP)
I=0
IF (EFV.GE.EFV) GOTO 40
I=I+1
CALL FUNCT(N,ECOEFF,DFV,EP,ES,EOP)
WRITE(6,100) NFE,NSBIT,EP,ES
REWIND(3)
DO 25 J=1,N
WRITE(3,*) ECOEFF(J)
CONTINUE
IF(EOP) GOTO 50
CALL SETEQ(SAVE,PCOEFF,N)
CALL SETEQ(PCOEFF,ECOEFF,N)
PFV=EFV
DO 30 J=1,N
ECOEFF(J)=2*ECOEFF(J)-SAVE(J)
CONTINUE
CALL FUNCT(N,ECOEFF,EFV,EP,ES,EOP)
CALL EXPLOR(ECOEFF,EFV,N,DLT,EOP)
CALL FUNCT(N,ECOEFF,DFV,EP,ES,EOP)
GOTO 20
40 IF (I.GT.0) GOTO 10
DLT=MFACT*DLT
NSBIT=NSBIT+1
GOTO 10
50
PRINT,
IF(NFE.EQ.1) GOTO 60
CALL SETEQ(PCOEFF,ECOEFF,N)
60
PRINT, 'FINAL VALUES :-'
PRINT,
PRINT, ' NO. OF FEFUNC CALLS =',NFE
PRINT, 'MAX RIPPLE IN PASS BAND =',EP
PRINT, 'MIN LOSS IN STOP BAND =',ES
PRINT,
WRITE(6,110) NSBIT
PRINT,
DO 70 I=1,N
WRITE(6,120) I,PCOEFF(I)
70 CONTINUE
100 FORMAT(3X,I6.9X,I2.4X,F11.9,X,F11.9)
110 FORMAT(' THE FINAL WDF COEFFICIENTS IN',I4,' BITS ARE :-')
120 FORMAT(' ALPHA(',I4,') =',F20.15)
RETURN
END
C
C
C
SUBROUTINE EXPLOR(ECOEFF,EFV,N,DLT,EOP)
REAL ECOEFF(N),EFV,DLT,SAVE,FNEW,SAVEI,SAVEJ
LOGICAL EOP
I=1
IF(I.GT.N) RETURN
SAVE=ECOEFF(I)
DI=ECOEFF(I)+DLT
IF(DI.GE.2 .OR. DI.LE.0) GOTO 100
ECOEFF(I)=DI
CALL FUNCT(N,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW.GE.EFV) GOTO 20
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 100
20 DI=ECOEFF(I)-2*DLT
IF(DI.GE.2 .OR. DI.LE.0) GOTO 100
ECOEFF(I)=DI
CALL FUNCT(N,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW.GE.EFV) GOTO 30
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 100
30 ECOEFF(I)=SAVE
J=I+1
IF(J.GT.N) GOTO 100
SAVEI=ECOEFF(I)
SAVEJ=ECOEFF(J)
DI=ECOEFF(I)+DLT
DJ=ECOEFF(J)+DLT
IF(DI.GE.2 .OR. DJ.GE.2 .OR. DI.LE.0 .OR.
&DJ.LE.0) GOTO 90
ECOEFF(I)=DI
ECOEFF(J)=DJ
CALL FUNCT(N,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW.GE.EFV) GOTO 50
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 90
50 DI=ECOEFF(I)-2*DLT

```



```

IF(D1.GE.2 .OR. D1.LE.0) GOTO 90
ECOEFF(I)=0I
CALL FUNCT(N,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW.GE.EFV) GOTO 60
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 90

60 DJ=ECOEFF(J)-2*DLT
IF(DJ.GE.2 .OR. DJ.LE.0) GOTO 90
ECOEFF(J)=DJ
CALL FUNCT(N,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW.GE.EFV) GOTO 70
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 90

70 DI=ECOEFF(I)+2*DLT
IF(DI.GE.2 .OR. DI.LE.0) GOTO 90
ECOEFF(I)=DI
CALL FUNCT(N,ECOEFF,FNEW,EP,ES,EOP)
IF(FNEW.GE.EFV) GOTO 80
EFV=FNEW
GOTO 90

80 ECOEFF(I)=SAVEI
ECOEFF(J)=SAVEJ
90 J=J+1
GOTO 40
100 I=I+1
GOTO 10
END

C
C
C
SUBROUTINE SETEQ(A,B,N)
REAL A(N),B(N)
INTEGER N,I
DO 10 I=1,N
A(I)=B(I)
10 CONTINUE
RETURN
END

C
C
C
SUBROUTINE FUNCT(N,XC,FC,EP,ES,EOP)
REAL XC(N),FC,FREQ,MR,ML,FS,DFP,DFS,MEP,MES
INTEGER N,I,NP,NS
LOGICAL EOP
COMMON /A/ DFP,DFS,NP,NS,DP
COMMON /B/ NFE
COMMON /B1/ FP,RP,FS,ML
MEP=0
MES=0
ES=10E5
EOP=.FALSE.
FREQ=0
DO 30 I=1,NP
CALL FRESP(XC,N,FREQ,MR)
D=ABS(DP-MR)
IF(D.LE.MEP) GOTO 20
MEP=D
EP=MR
FREQ=FREQ+DFP
30 CONTINUE
FREQ=FS
DO 70 I=1,NS
CALL FRESP(XC,N,FREQ,MR)
IF(MR.LT.ES) ES=MR
D=ML-MR
50 IF(D.LE.MES) GOTO 60
MES=D
FREQ=FREQ+DFS
70 CONTINUE
IF(MEP.LE.DP .AND. ES.GT.ML) EOP=.TRUE.
IF(MES.GT.MEP) GOTO 80
FC=MEP
GOTO 90
80 FC=MES
90 NFE=NFE+1
RETURN
END

C
C
C
SUBROUTINE FRESP(XC,N,FREQ,MR)
REAL XC(N),FREQ,MR,W,IM,RL,PI
INTEGER K,N,COUNT1,COUNT2
COMPLEX ABCD(2,2),DABCD(2,2),ZPM1,A1,B1,C1,D1,SC
PI=3.14159263
W=(2*PI*FREQ)
ZPM1=CMPLX(COS(W),-SIN(W))
CALL MAT10N(ABCD)
COUNT1=0
DO 30 K=1,N/2
COUNT2=COUNT1+K
SC=1/(XC(COUNT2)*(1+ZPM1))
A1=(1+(1-XC(COUNT2+1))*ZPM1)*SC
B1=(XC(COUNT2)*XC(COUNT2+1)-1-(1-XC(COUNT2))*ZPM1)*SC
C1=(XC(COUNT2)-1+(XC(COUNT2)+XC(COUNT2+1)-1)*ZPM1)*SC
D1=(1-XC(COUNT2+1)+ZPM1)*SC
DABCD(1,1)=A1
DABCD(2,1)=C1
IF(K.EQ.N/2) GOTO 10
DABCD(1,2)=B1*ZPM1
DABCD(2,2)=D1*ZPM1
GOTO 20
10 DABCD(1,2)=B1
DABCD(2,2)=D1
20 CALL MATMUL(ABCD,DABCD)
COUNT1=COUNT1+1
CONTINUE
RL=REAL(ABCD(1,1))
IM=AIMAG(ABCD(1,1))

```

```

HR=1/SORT((PL**2)*(IM**2))
HR=-20*ALOG10(HR)
RETURN
END

```

C C C

```

SUBROUTINE MATIION(ABCD)
COMPLEX ABCD(2,2)
ABCD(1,1)=(1,0)
ABCD(2,2)=(1,0)
ABCD(1,2)=(0,0)
ABCD(2,1)=(0,0)
RETURN
END

```

C C C

```

SUBROUTINE MATIUL(ABCD,DABCD)
COMPLEX ABCD(2,2),DABCD(2,2),C(2,2)
C(1,1)=ABCD(1,1)*DABCD(1,1)+ABCD(1,2)*DABCD(2,1)
C(1,2)=ABCD(1,1)*DABCD(1,2)+ABCD(1,2)*DABCD(2,2)
C(2,1)=ABCD(2,1)*DABCD(1,1)+ABCD(2,2)*DABCD(2,1)
C(2,2)=ABCD(2,1)*DABCD(1,2)+ABCD(2,2)*DABCD(2,2)
ABCD(1,1)=C(1,1)
ABCD(1,2)=C(1,2)
ABCD(2,1)=C(2,1)
ABCD(2,2)=C(2,2)
RETURN
END

```

C C C

```

SUBROUTINE SAVE(ALPHA,N)
REAL ALPHA(60)
INTEGER N,I,J
PRINT,
PRINT, 'THE CURRENT COEFFICIENTS CAN BE STORE IN.'
PRINT,
PRINT, '1) LCCOE.F (INFINITE PRECISION).OR'
PRINT, '2) LCCOE.F (FINITE PRECISION). OR'
PRINT, '3) LCCOE.T (TEMPORARY FILE).'
PRINT,
PRINT, 'ENTER YOUR CHOICE NUMBER :-'
READ,J
PRINT,
PRINT,
DO 10 I=1,N*2
WRITE(J,*) ALPHA(I)
CONTINUE
10 RETURN
END

```

10

### B3.0- Analysis Program

This program has been developed as a tool for the analyses of the WDFs designed using the design programs in the previous sections. It covers the analysis of the three different WDFs. The program is menu driven and very easy to use. The WDF coefficients can either be entered at the terminal or they can be read from the files used and created by the design programs. The outputs are presented graphically and it is possible to plot the responses of the filter for 3 different cases, i.e the ideal filter (i.e using the synthesis coefficients), with quantized coefficients and with FWLD coefficients (i.e coefficients from the Finite WordLength Design program). The plots can be obtained for each individual response or the responses can be plotted on the same axis.

C-----C  
C C PROGRAM TO ANALYSE WAVE DIGITAL FILTERS (WDFES)  
C C BASED ON UNIT ELEMENT, LATTICE AND LC-LADDER  
C C REFERENCE FILTERS. (FORTRAN 66)  
C C  
C C AUTHOR : A. R. MIRZAI  
C C  
C C THE CENTRE FOR INFORMATION ENG  
C C THE CITY UNIVERSITY  
C C NORTHAMPTON SQ, LONDON EC1V0HB  
C C  
C-----C

INTEGER I

## MAIN PROGRAM

[illegible]

```

10 CALL ANAUE
   GOT0 5
20 CALL ANALT
   GOT0 5
30 CALL ANALC
   GOT0 5
40 STOP
   END

```

PROGRAM TO ANALYSE WAVE DIGITAL FILTERS BASED  
ON THE CASCADE OF UNIT ELEMENT FILTERS.

DATE : JULY 1984

```
UBROUTINE ANAUE
REAL ALPHA(20),QALPHA(20),FALPHA(20),FREQ(300)
INTEGER N,CHOICE
```

5 PRINT,  
PRINT,  
PRINT, PROGRAM TO ANALYS WDF BASED ON THE UNIT.

```

PRINT, ELEMENT CASCADED REFERENCE FILTERS,
PRINT,
PRINT, MENU,
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT, 1) READ IMPEDENCES,
PRINT, 2) READ COEFFICIENTS,
PRINT, 3) QUANTIZE THE COEFFICIENTS,
PRINT, 4) ANALYSE IDEAL FILTER,
PRINT, 5) ANALYSE FILTER WITH QUANTIZE COEFF,
PRINT, 6) ANALYSE FILTER WITH FINITEWORD LENGTH COEFF,
PRINT, 7) PLOT RESPONSES ON THE SAME AXIS,
PRINT, 8) RETURN TO MAIN MENU,
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT, ENTER YOUR CHOICE NUMBER :-
READ, CHOICE
PRINT,
GOTO (10,20,30,40,50,60,70,80), CHOICE
CHOICE=0
GOTO 5
10 CALL RIFWDF(ALPHA,N)
GOTO 5
20 CALL RCOEF1(ALPHA,FALPHA,N)
GOTO 5
30 CALL QUANT(ALPHA,QALPHA,N,1)
GOTO 5
40 CALL ANAS1(ALPHA,N,1)
GOTO 5
50 CALL ANAS1(QALPHA,N,1)
GOTO 5
60 CALL ANAS1(FALPHA,N,1)
GOTO 5
70 CALL PROSA1(ALPHA,QALPHA,FALPHA,N)
GOTO 5
80 RETURN
END
C
C SUBROUTINE MATMUL : MULTIPLIES TWO COMPLEX MATRIX.

```

```

SUBROUTINE MATMUL(A,B)
  COMPLEX A(2,2),B(2,2),C(2,2)
  C(1,1)=A(1,1)*B(1,1)+A(1,2)*B(2,1)
  C(1,2)=A(1,1)*B(1,2)+A(1,2)*B(2,2)
  C(2,1)=A(2,1)*B(1,1)+A(2,2)*B(2,1)
  C(2,2)=A(2,1)*B(1,2)+A(2,2)*B(2,2)
  A(1,1)=C(1,1)
  A(1,2)=C(1,2)
  A(2,1)=C(2,1)
  A(2,2)=C(2,2)
  RETURN
END

```

SUBROUTINE MATIDN : MAKES A COMPLEX MATRIX EQUAL TO  
IDENTITY MATRIX.

```

C
SUBROUTINE MATION(A)
COMPLEX A(2,2)
INTEGER I,J
A(1,1)=(1,0)
A(2,2)=(1,0)
A(1,2)=(0,0)
A(2,1)=(0,0)
RETURN
END

C
C SUBROUTINE RIFWDF : THIS SUBROUTINE READS THE VALUES OF THE
C STEP IMPEDENCES AND CALCULATES THE COEFFICIENTS OF THE
C WDF STRUCTURE.
C
SUBROUTINE RIFWDF(A,DEG)
REAL IMP(51),A(50),S
INTEGER I,M,DEG,J,NBIT
CHARACTER*1 CH
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,"THIS PROGRAM ASSUMES THAT THE STEP IMPEDENCES"
PRINT,"FOR THE REFERENCE FILTER ARE OBTAINED USING"
PRINT,"THE TRANSMISSION LINE FILTER PROGRAM."
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,"ENTER FILTER DEGREE:--"
READ,DEG
M=INT(DEG/2)
PRINT,
PRINT,"ENTER THE STEP IMPEDENCES. NOTE, Z(1) IS PUT"
PRINT,"EQUAL TO 1 BY THE PROGRAM."
PRINT,
IMP(1)=1.0
IMP(DEG+2)=1.0
PRINT,
PRINT,
DO 5 I=1,M
WRITE(6,55) I+1
READ,IMP(I+1)
PRINT,
CONTINUE
5 CONTINUE
IF (DEG.EQ.(2*M)) GOTO 20
WRITE(6,65) M+2
READ,IMP(M+2)
DO 10 I=1,M
IMP(DEG+2-1)=IMP(I+1)
CONTINUE
M=(DEG+3)/2
GOTO 40
20 PRINT,"ENTER THE PASS-BAND RIPPLE(DB) :--"
READ,S

```

```

PRINT,
S=2*S-1+S*SORT(S*2-S)
DO 30 I=1,M
IMP(DEG+2-I)=S/IMP(I+1)
30 CONTINUE
M=(DEG+2)/2
PRINT,
PRINT,"THE IMPEDENCES ARE AS FOLLOWS :--"
PRINT,
DO 45 I=1,M
J=DEG+3-I
WRITE(6,70) I,IMP(I),J
45 CONTINUE
PRINT,
PRINT,"ARE THESE CORRECT?(Y/N)"
READ,CH
PRINT,
IF(CH.EQ.'Y') GOTO 50
PRINT,
PRINT,"WHICH IMPEDENCE IS NOT CORRECT?(ONE AT A TIME)"
READ,I
PRINT,
PRINT,"ENTER THE CORRECT VALUE :--"
READ,IMP(I)
IMP(DEG+3-I)=IMP(I)
PRINT,
GOTO 40
50 PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,"THE COEFFICIENTS OF THE WDF STRUCTURE"
PRINT,"ARE AS FOLLOWS :--"
PRINT,
DO 60 I=1,DEG+1
A(I)=(IMP(I)-IMP(I+1))/(IMP(I)+IMP(I+1))
WRITE(6,80) I,A(I)
60 CONTINUE
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT,"TYPE '1' TO CONTINUE!!"
READ,I
65 FORMAT(' Z(',I4,') ')
70 FORMAT(' Z(',I4,')= ',F20.15,5X,' Z(',I4,') ')
80 FORMAT(' ALPHA(',I4,')= ',F20.15)
90 RETURN
END

C
C SUBROUTINE ANAS1 : THIS SUBROUTINE FINDS THE FREQUENCY
C RESPONSE OF A WDF BASED ON UNIT ELEMENT FILTERS.
C
SUBROUTINE ANAS1(ALPHA,N,TYPE)
REAL LF,UF,SF,W,DF,SC,AS,PI,C(300),D(300),
&B(300),ALPHB(300),RL,JM,ALPHA(20)
INTEGER N,NP,I,K,CHOICE,TYPE
CHARACTER*1 CH

```



```

COMPLEX DABCD(2,2),ABCD(2,2),ZPHN
COMMON /ANA1/ B,C,NP,LF,UF,SF
PI=3.14159263
IF (TYPE.EQ.0) GOTO 20
PRINT,
PRINT, '***** ANALYSIS STAGE *****'
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT, 'LOWER FREQ UPPER FREQ NO. OF SAMPLING'
PRINT, ' (HZ) (HZ) POINTS FREQ(HZ)'
READ, LF, UF, NP, SF
DF=(UF-LF)/(NP-1)
B(1)=LF
DO 180 I=1,NP
W=(2*PI*B(I))/SF
ZPHN=CMPLX(COS(W),-SIN(W))
CALL MATIDN(ABCD)
DO 160 K=1,N+1
SC=1/(1-ALPHA(K))
IF (K.EQ.N+1) GOTO 140
DABCD(1,1)=CMPLX(SC,0)
DABCD(1,2)=-ALPHA(K)*ZPHN*SC
DABCD(2,1)=CMPLX(-ALPHA(K)*SC,0)
DABCD(2,2)=ZPHN*SC
GOTO 150
140 DABCD(1,1)=CMPLX(SC,0)
DABCD(1,2)=CMPLX(-ALPHA(N-1)*SC,0)
DABCD(2,1)=CMPLX(-ALPHA(N+1)*SC,0)
DABCD(2,2)=CMPLX(SC,0)
CALL MATMUL(ABCD,DABCD)
150 CONTINUE
RL=REAL(ABCD(1,1))
IM=AIMAG(ABCD(1,1))
C(1)=1/((RL**2)+(IM**2))
C(1)=-2*ALOG10(SORT(C(1)))
D(1)=-ATAN2(IM,RL)*180/PI
B(1+1)=B(1)+DF
170 CONTINUE
180 IF (TYPE.EQ.0) GOTO 220
PRINT,
PRINT, 'DO YOU WISH TO HAVE LISTING OF THE RESULTS?(Y/N)'
READ, CH
IF (CH.EQ.'N') GOTO 200
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT, 'FREQ(HZ) LOSS(DB)'
DO 190 I=1,NP
PRINT, I, B(I), C(I)
190 CONTINUE
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT, 'DO YOU WISH TO HAVE A PLOT?(Y/N)'
READ, CH

```

```

PRINT,
IF (CH.EQ.'N') GOTO 210
CALL PLOT(B,C,NP)
210 PRINT, 'DO YOU WISH TO PLOT AGAIN?(Y/N)'
READ, CH
PRINT,
IF (CH.EQ.'Y') GOTO 10
220 RETURN
END
C
C SUBROUTINE PLOT : THIS SUBROUTINE PLOTS CURVES USING THE GINO
C ROUTINES AND IMLAC/TEK AS THE OUTPUT DEVICE.
C
SUBROUTINE PLOT(A,B,NP)
REAL A(300),B(300)
INTEGER NP,SYM
CHARACTER*1 CH
PRINT, 'ARE YOU USING IMLAC OR TEK?(I/T)'
READ, CH
CALL PICCLE
IF (CH.EQ.'I' .OR. CH.EQ.'I') GOTO 10
CALL T4010
GOTO 20
10 CALL APDS4
20 CALL PICCLE
CALL GRAF(A,B,NP)
CALL DEVEND
READ, CH
RETURN
END
C
C SUBROUTINE DRAAXI
REAL LF,UF,LL,UL
CHARACTER*1 CHAR
PRINT,
PRINT,
PRINT, 'LOWER UPPER LOWER UPPER'
PRINT, 'FREQ FREQ LOSS LOSS'
READ, LF, UF, LL, UL
PRINT,
PRINT, 'ARE YOU USING TEK OR IML(I/T)?'
PRINT,
PRINT,
IF (CHAR.EQ.'T') GOTO 10
CALL APDS4
GOTO 20
10 CALL T4010
20 CALL PICCLE
CALL AXISCA(3,5,LF,UF,1)
CALL AXISCA(3,NYI,LL,UL,2)
CALL AXIDRA(2,1,1)
CALL AXIDRA(-2,-1,2)
RETURN

```



```

      GOTO 5
10  CALL RCOEF2(ALPHA,FALPHA,N)
      GOTO 5
20  CALL QUANT(ALPHA,QALPHA,N,0)
      GOTO 5
30  CALL ANAS2(ALPHA,N,1)
      GOTO 5
40  CALL ANAS2(QALPHA,N,1)
      GOTO 5
50  CALL ANAS2(FALPHA,N,1)
      GOTO 5
60  CALL PROSAZ(ALPHA,QALPHA,FALPHA,N)
      GOTO 5
70  RETURN
      END
C
C SUBROUTINE RCOEF2 : THIS SUBROUTINE READS THE WDF COEFFICIENTS
C BASED ON LATTICE FILTERS.
C
      SUBROUTINE RCOEF2(ALPHA,FALPHA,N)
      REAL ALPHA(20),FALPHA(20)
      INTEGER N,I,LTCOEFF,LTCOEF1
      PRINT,
      PRINT,'ENTER FILTER ORDER :--'
      READ,N
      PRINT,
      PRINT,'YOU CAN READ THE COEFFICIENTS FROM,'
      PRINT,
      PRINT, '  1) LTCOEF.I (INFINITE PRECISION),OR'
      PRINT, '  2) LTCOEF.F (FINITE PRECISION), OR'
      PRINT, '  3) ENETR THE COEFFICIENTS FROM THE TERMINAL.'
      PRINT, '  4) RETURN TO PREVIOUS MENU.'
      PRINT,
      PRINT,'ENTER YOUR CHOICE NUMBER :--'
      READ,I
      GOTO (10,20,30,40),I
      I=0
      GOTO 5
10  REWIND(3)
      READ(3,100) (ALPHA(I),I=1,N)
      GOTO 5
20  REWIND(4)
      READ(4,100) (FALPHA(I),I=1,N)
      GOTO 5
30  PRINT,
      PRINT,'ENTER THE COEFFICIENTS NOW :--'
      READ,(ALPHA(I),I=1,N)
      GOTO 5
40  RETURN
100 FORMAT(V)
      END
C
C SUBROUTINE QUANT : THIS SUBROUTINE QUANTIZES A SET OF COEFFICIENTS
C TO REQUIRED NUMBER OF BITS.
C
      SUBROUTINE QUANT(ALPHA,QALPHA,N,TYPE)
      REAL ALPHA(50),QALPHA(50),SD,A
      INTEGER N,I,NBIT,TYPE
      PRINT,
      PRINT,'ENTER REQUIRED NUMBER OF BITS :--'
      READ,NBIT
      PRINT,
      SD=0.5**NBIT
      PRINT,'THE WDF FILTER COEFFICIENTS ARE :--'
      PRINT,
      PRINT, '      ACTUAL          QUANTIZED'
      PRINT,
      DO 10 I=1,N*TYPE
      A=ALPHA(I)
      QALPHA(I)=SIGN(SD*FLOAT(INT((ABS(A)/SD+0.5))),A)
      PRINT,I,ALPHA(I),QALPHA(I)
      CONTINUE
      PRINT,
      PRINT,
      PRINT,'TYPE <CR> TO CONTINUE !!!'
      READ,LLL
      RETURN
      END
C
C SUBROUTINE ANAS2 : THIS SUBROUTINE FINDS THE FREQUENCY
C RESPONSE OF A WDF BASED ON LC-LADDER FILTERS.
C
      SUBROUTINE ANAS2(ALPHA,N,TYPE)
      REAL ALPHA(20),RESP(300),FREQ(300)
      &,LF,UF,SF
      INTEGER IC1,IC2,MAG,N,I,NFP,CHOIC,TYPE
      CHARACTER*1 CH
      COMPLEX ZPM1,ZPM2,G1Z,G2Z,GZ
      COMMON /ANAS2/ FREQ,RESP,NFP,LF,UF,SF
      IF (TYPE.EQ.0) GOTO 20
      PRINT,
      PRINT,'***** ANALYSIS STAGE *****'
      PRINT,
      PRINT,
      PRINT,
      PRINT,
      PRINT, 'LOWER FREQ  UPPER FREQ  NO. OF  SAMPLING'
      PRINT, '      (HZ)      (HZ)      POINTS  FREQ(HZ)'
      READ,LF,UF,NFP,SF
      PRINT,
      PRINT,
      PI=3.14159263
      DF=(UF-LF)/(NFP-1)
      FREQ(1)=LF
      G1Z=(1,0)
      G2Z=(1,0)
      DO 100 I=1,NFP
      W=(2*PI*FREQ(I))/SF
      ZPM1=CMPLX(COS(W),-SIN(W))
      ZPM2=ZPM1**2
      G1Z=(ZPM1-ALPHA(1))/(1-ALPHA(1)*ZPM1)
      G2Z=(1,0)
100  CONTINUE

```



```

10 CALL RCOEF3(ALPHA,FALPHA,NBLOCK)
   GOTO 5
20 N=NBLOCK*2
   CALL QUANT(ALPHA,GALPHA,N,0)
   GOTO 5
30 CALL ANAS3(ALPHA,NBLOCK,1)
   GOTO 5
40 CALL ANAS3(GALPHA,NBLOCK,1)
   GOTO 5
50 CALL ANAS3(FALPHA,NBLOCK,1)
   GOTO 5
60 CALL PROSA3(ALPHA,GALPHA,FALPHA,NBLOCK)
   GOTO 5
70 RETURN
   END

C
C SUBROUTINE RCOEF3 : THIS SUBROUTINE READ THE WDF COEFFICIENTS
C BASED ON LC-LADDER FILTERS.
C
SUBROUTINE RCOEF3(ALPHA,FALPHA,N)
  REAL ALPHA(40),FALPHA(40)
  INTEGER I,N
  PRINT,
  PRINT, 'ENTER FILTER ORDER :-'
  READ,N
  PRINT,
  PRINT,
  PRINT, 'YOU CAN READ THE COEFFICIENTS FROM,'
  PRINT,
  PRINT, '  1) LCCOEF.I (INFINITE PRECISION), OR'
  PRINT, '  2) LCCOEF.F (FINITE PRECISION), OR'
  PRINT, '  3) RETURN TO MAIN MENU.'
  PRINT,
  PRINT, 'ENTER YOUR CHOICE NUMBER :-'
  READ,I
  PRINT,
  GOTO(10,20,30),I
  I=0
  GOTO 5
10 REWIND(7)
  READ(7,100) (ALPHA(I),I=1,2*N)
  GOTO 5
20 REWIND(8)
  READ(8,100) (FALPHA(I),I=1,2*N)
  GOTO 5
30 RETURN
100 FORMAT(V)
  RETURN
  END

C
C SUBROUTINE ANAS3 : THIS SUBROUTINE FINDS THE FREQUENCY
C RESPONSE OF A WDF BASED ON LC-LADDER FILTERS.
C
SUBROUTINE ANAS3(A,NBLOCK,TYPE)
  REAL LF,UF,SF,W,DF,AS,PI,C(300),D(300),

```

```

      BA(40),B(300),RL,IM
      INTEGER NBLOCK,NP,I,K,TYPE
      CHARACTER*1 CH
      COMPLEX DABCD(2,2),ABCD(2,2),ZPM1,A1,B1,C1,D1,SC
      COMMON /ANA3/ B,C,NP,LF,UF,SF
      IF (TYPE.EQ.0) GOTO 7
      PRINT,
      PRINT, '***** ANALYSIS STAGE *****'
      PRINT,
      PRINT,
      PRINT,
      PRINT,
      PRINT, 'LOWER FREQ    UPPER FREQ    NO. OF    SAMPLING'
      PRINT, '      (HZ)      (HZ)      POINTS    FREQ(HZ)'
      READ,LF,UF,NP,SF
      DF=(UF-LF)/(NP-1)
      B(1)=LF
      PI=3.14159263
      DO 40 I=1,NP
        W=(2*PI*B(I))/SF
        ZPM1=CMPLX(COS(W),-SIN(W))
        CALL MATIDN(ABCD)
        COUNT1=0
        DO 30 K=1,NBLOCK
          COUNT2=COUNT1+K
          SC=1/(A(COUNT2)*(1+ZPM1))
          A1=(1+(1-A(COUNT2+1))*ZPM1)*SC
          B1=(A(COUNT2)+A(COUNT2+1))-1-(1-A(COUNT2))*ZPM1)*SC
          C1=(A(COUNT2)-1+(A(COUNT2)+A(COUNT2+1)-1)*ZPM1)*SC
          D1=(1-A(COUNT2+1)+ZPM1)*SC
          DABCD(1,1)=A1
          DABCD(2,1)=C1
          IF (K.EQ.NBLOCK) GOTO 10
          DABCD(1,2)=B1*ZPM1
          DABCD(2,2)=D1*ZPM1
          GOTO 20
10        DABCD(1,2)=B1
          DABCD(2,2)=D1
20        CALL MATMULT(ABCD,DABCD)
          COUNT1=COUNT1+1
30        CONTINUE
      RL=REAL(ABCD(1,1))
      IM=AIMAG(ABCD(1,1))
      C(1)=1/((RL**2)+(IM**2))
      C(1)=-20*ALOG10(SORT(C(1)))
      B(1+1)=B(1)+DF
40      CONTINUE
      IF (TYPE.EQ.0) GOTO 80
      PRINT,
      PRINT, 'DO YOU WISH TO HAVE A LIST OF THE RESULTS?(Y/N)'
      READ,CH
      PRINT,
      IF(CH.EQ.'N'.OR.CH.EQ.'N') GOTO 60
      PRINT, '      FREQ      LOSS'
      DO 50 I=1,NP

```



```

50 PRINT,I,B(I),C(I)
60 CONTINUE
PRINT
PRINT,'DO YOU WISH TO HAVE A PLOT OF THE RESULTS?(Y/N)'
READ,CH
IF(CH.EQ.'N'.OR.CH.EQ.'N') GOTO 70
CALL PLOT(B,C,NP)
70 PRINT
PRINT,'DO YOU WISH TO PLOT AGAIN (Y/N)?'
READ,CH
IF (CH.EQ.'Y'.OR.CH.EQ.'Y') GOTO 5
80 RETURN
END

C
C
C

SUBROUTINE PROSA3(ALPHA,QALPHA,FALPHA,N)
REAL ALPHA(40),QALPHA(40),FALPHA(40),FREQ(300),DARRAY(300)
&,LF,UF,SF,ARRAY1(300),ARRAY2(300),ARRAY3(300)
INTEGER NPT
COMMON /ANAS3/ FREQ,DARRAY,NPT,LF,UF,SF
PRINT,'LOWER FREQ UPPER FREQ NO. OF SAMPLING'
PRINT,' (HZ) (HZ) POINTS FREQ(HZ)'
READ,LF,UF,NPT,SF
PRINT
CALL ANAS3(ALPHA,N,0)
DO 10 I=1,NPT
ARRAY1(I)=DARRAY(I)
10 CONTINUE
CALL ANAS3(QALPHA,N,0)
DO 20 I=1,NPT
ARRAY2(I)=DARRAY(I)
20 CONTINUE
CALL ANAS3(FALPHA,N,0)
DO 30 I=1,NPT
ARRAY3(I)=DARRAY(I)
30 CONTINUE
CALL PLTAXS(FREQ,ARRAY1,ARRAY2,ARRAY3,NPT)
RETURN
END

```

#### B4.0- Simulation Programs

This program was used to simulate the WDFs designed. As with the ANAWDF program, this is also menu driven. The program includes the simulation of WDFs using the traditional adaptors and the systolic adaptors. It is also possible to see the effects of quantization on the simulation results by quantizing the coefficients and the signals to the required number of bits. The inputs to the filters can be chosen to be an impulse, a step, a sinewave or a combination of sinewaves. The simulation results, i.e the inputs and the outputs of the filters, can be stored in a file which can be plotted using a general purpose plot program developed by the author.





```

C
C
C
DO 20 I=1, NSPT
WRITE(6,*) RIPSET(I)
20 CONTINUE
RETURN
END
C
C
C
SUBROUTINE SINWAV(IPSET, RIPSET, QIPSET, NSPT, NBS)
INTEGER IPSET(300), NSPT, I, NBS
REAL RIPSET(300), X, FREQ, QIPSET(300), QL
PI=3.14159263
PRINT,
PRINT, 'NUMBER OF SAMPLE POINTS IS :-'
READ, NSPT
PRINT,
PRINT, 'FREQUENCY OF THE FIRST SINWAVE IS :-'
READ, FREQ1
PRINT,
PRINT, 'FREQUENCY OF THE SECOND SINWAVE IS :-'
READ, FREQ2
PRINT,
QL=.5**NBS
REWIND(7)
DO 10 I=1, NSPT
X1=SIN(2*PI*FREQ1*(I-1))
X2=SIN(2*PI*FREQ2*(I-1))
X=(X1+X2)/2
IF(ABS(X).EQ.1) X=SIGN(1,X)*(0.999999999)
WRITE(7,*) X1, X2, X
QIPSET(I)=SIGN(QL*FLOAT(INT(ABS(X)/QL+0.5)),A)
RIPSET(I)=X
IPSET(I)=SIGN(1,X)*INT(ABS(X)*2** (NBS-1))
10 CONTINUE
PRINT,
RETURN
END
C
C
C
SUBROUTINE IMPULS(IPSET, RIPSET, QIPSET, NSPT, NBS)
INTEGER IPSET(300)
REAL RIPSET(300), QIPSET(300), QL
PRINT,
PRINT, 'ENTER THE NUMBER OF SAMPLE POINTS REQUIRED :-'
READ, NSPT
PRINT,
PRINT, 'ENTER THE POSITION OF THE IMPULSE :-'
READ, IPOS
PRINT,
QL=0.5**NBS
REWIND(8)
DO 10 I=1, NSPT
RIPSET(I)=0
QIPSET(I)=0
IPSET(I)=0
10 CONTINUE
QIPSET(IPOS)=QL*FLOAT(INT(1/QL+0.5))
RIPSET(IPOS)=0.9999999
IPSET(IPOS)=INT(0.9999999*2** (NBS-1))
C
C
C
DO 20 I=1, NSPT
WRITE(8,*) RIPSET(I)
20 CONTINUE
RETURN
END
C
C
C
SUBROUTINE STEP(IPSET, RIPSET, QIPSET, NSPT, NBS)
INTEGER IPSET(300), NSPT, NBS, I
REAL RIPSET(300), QIPSET(300), QL
PRINT,
PRINT, 'THE NUMBER OF INPUT SAMPLE IS :-'
READ, NSPT
PRINT, NSPT
PRINT,
PRINT, 'THE POSITION OF THE STEP IS :-'
READ, IPOS
PRINT, IPOS
PRINT,
QL=0.5**NBS
REWIND(9)
DO 10 I=1, IPOS-1
RIPSET(I)=0
IPSET(I)=0
WRITE(9,*) RIPSET(I)
10 CONTINUE
DO 20 I=IPOS, NSPT
QIPSET(I)=QL*FLOAT(INT(1/QL+0.5))
RIPSET(I)=(0.999999999)
IPSET(I)=INT(RIPSET(I)*2** (NBS-1))
WRITE(9,*) RIPSET(I)
20 CONTINUE
PRINT,
RETURN
END
C
C
C
SUBROUTINE SIMSUE(IPSET, RIPSET, COEFSET, OPSET
&, NSCT, NBS, NBC, MNB, NSPT)
REAL OPSET(300), GAIN, RIPSET(300)
INTEGER NBS, NBC, MNB, OUT1, OUT2, NSCT, XK, UKP1, KCOEFF,
&IPSET(300), COEFSET(20), USET(22)
LOGICAL OVERF
ISCAL=1
DO 20 I=1, NSCT+1
USET(I)=0
20 CONTINUE
OVERF=.FALSE.
DF=2** (NBS-1)
REWIND(4)
DO 50 I=1, NSPT
XK=IPSET(I)
DO 40 K=1, NSCT

```



```

UKP1=USET(K+1)
KCOEFF=COEFSET(K)
CALL SYSADP(XK,UKP1,OUT1,OUT2,KCOEFF,NBS,NBC,MNB,OVERF)
IF(OVERF) GOTO 30
USET(K)=OUT2
XK=OUT1
GOTO 40
30 ISCAL=ISCAL+1
CALL SCALIP(IPSET,RIPSET,NSPT,ISCAL,NBS)
GOTO 10
40 CONTINUE
OPSET(I)=OUT1/DF
50 CONTINUE
IF(ISCAL.EQ.1) GOTO 60
PRINT, 'OVERFLOW HAS BEEN DETECTED DURING THE CALCULATION.'
PRINT, 'THE INPUT NEEDED TO BE SCALED DOWN BY FACTOR OF', .ISCAL
PRINT,
PRINT, 'TYPE <CR> TO CONTINUE !!!'
READ, I
PRINT,
60 RETURN
END
C
C
C

SUBROUTINE SIMDUE(IPSET,COEFSET,OPSET,NSECT,NBS,NBC,MNB,NSPT)
REAL IPSET(300),COEFSET(20),OPSET(300),GAIN,XK,UKP1,UK,
&USET(22),KCOEF
INTEGER NSECT,NBS,NBC,MNB,ISCAL,ISTART
LOGICAL OVERF
5 ISCAL=1
10 DO 20 I=1,NSECT+1
USET(I)=0
20 CONTINUE
OVERF=.FALSE.
DO 50 I=1,NSPT
XK=IPSET(I)
DO 40 K=1,NSECT
UKP1=USET(K+1)
KCOEF=COEFSET(K)
CALL TWOPRT(XK,UKP1,KCOEF,UK,XKP1,OVERF)
IF(OVERF) GOTO 30
USET(K)=UK
XK=XKP1
GOTO 40
30 ISCAL=ISCAL+1
CALL SCALIP2(IPSET,NSPT,ISCAL)
GOTO 10
40 CONTINUE
OPSET(I)=XK
50 CONTINUE
IF(ISCAL.EQ.1) GOTO 60
PRINT, 'OVERFLOW HAS BEEN DETECTED DURING THE CALCULATION.'
PRINT, 'THE INPUT NEEDED TO BE SCALED DOWN BY FACTOR OF', .ISCAL
PRINT,

```

```

PRINT, 'TYPE <CR> TO CONTINUE !!!'
READ, I
PRINT,
RETURN
END
60
C
C
C

SUBROUTINE TWOPRT(XK,UKP1,KCOEF,UK,XKP1,OVERF)
REAL XK,UK,XKP1,UKP1,KCOEF,D
LOGICAL OVERF
D=KCOEF*(UKP1-XK)
UK=UKP1+D
XKP1=XK+D
IF(UK.LT.1 .AND. XKP1.LT.1) GOTO 10
PRINT,
OVERF=.TRUE.
10 RETURN
END
C
C
C

SUBROUTINE SCALIP2(IPSET,NSPT,ISCAL)
REAL IPSET(300)
INTEGER NSPT,I,ISCAL
DO 10 I=1,NSPT
IPSET(I)=IPSET(I)/ISCAL
10 CONTINUE
RETURN
END
C
C
C

SUBROUTINE SCALIP(IPSET,RIPSET,NSPT,ISCAL,NBS)
INTEGER IPSET(300),NBS,ISCAL,NSPT,I
REAL RIPSET(300),QIPSET(300),QL
QL=.5*NBS
DO 10 I=1,NSPT
RIPSET(I)=RIPSET(I)/ISCAL
X=RIPSET(I)
IPSET(I)=SIGN(1,X)*INT(ABS(X)*2*(NBS-1))
10 CONTINUE
PRINT,
RETURN
END
C
C
C

SUBROUTINE SIMSLT(IPSET,RIPSET,COEFSET,OPSET
&,NSECT,NBS,NBC,MNB,NSPT)
REAL OPSET(300),RIPSET(300),DF
INTEGER NBS,NBC,MNB,OUT1,OUT2,NSECT,NSPT,IN1,IN2,X,USET(20)
&,IPSET(300),COEFSET(20),IC1,IC2
LOGICAL OVERF
ISCAL=1

```

```

10 DO 20 I=1,NSECT
   USET(I)=0
20 CONTINUE
   OVERF=.FALSE.
   DF=2*(NBS-1)
   REMIND(7)
   DO 70 I=1,NSPT
     IN1=IPSET(I)
     IN2=IPSET(I)
     CALL SYSADP(IN1,USET(I),X,OUT1,COEFSET(I),NBS,NBC,MNB,OVERF)
     IF(OVERF) GOTO 50
     IN1=OUT1
     USET(I)=X
     IC1=1
     IC2=2
30 CALL BLOCK1(COEFSET(IC2),COEFSET(IC2+1),IN2,OUT2,USET(IC2)
   &,USET(IC2+1),NBS,NBC,MNB,OVERF)
     IF(OVERF) GOTO 50
     IN2=OUT2
     IC1=IC1+2
     IF(IC1.EQ.NSECT) GOTO 40
     CALL BLOCK1(COEFSET(IC2+2),COEFSET(IC2+3),IN1,OUT1,USET(IC2+2)
   &,USET(IC2+3),NBS,NBC,MNB,OVERF)
     IF(OVERF) GOTO 50
     IN1=OUT1
     IC1=IC1+2
     IC2=IC2+4
     IF(IC1.NE.NSECT) GOTO 30
     OPSET(I)=(OUT1+OUT2)/(2*DF)
     GOTO 70
50 ISCAL=ISCAL+1
   CALL SCALIP(IPSET,RIPSET,NSPT,ISCAL,NBS)
   GOTO 10
70 CONTINUE
   IF(ISCAL.EQ.1) GOTO 80
   PRINT,'OVERFLOW HAS BEEN DETECTED DURING THE CALCULATIONS.'
   PRINT,'THE INPUT NEEDED TO BE SCALED DOWN BY FACTOR OF.',ISCAL
   PRINT,
   PRINT,'TYPE <CR> TO CONTINUE !!!'
   READ,I
   PRINT,
   RETURN
   END
80
C
C
C
SUBROUTINE BLOCK1(A1,A2,IN,OUT,USET1,USET2,NBS,NBC,MNB,OVERF)
  INTEGER NBS,NBC,MNB,A1,A2,IN,OUT,USET1,USET2,X1,X2,X3
  LOGICAL OVERF
  CALL SYSADP(IN,USET1,X1,OUT,A1,NBS,NBC,MNB,OVERF)
  CALL SYSADP(X1,USET2,X3,X2,A2,NBS,NBC,MNB,OVERF)
  USET1=X2
  USET2=X3
  RETURN
END

```

```

C
C
C
SUBROUTINE SIMULT(IPSET,COEFSET,OPSET
&,NSECT,NBS,NBC,MNB,NSPT)
  REAL IPSET(300),OPSET(300),OUT1,OUT2,IN1,IN2,USET(20)
&,COEFSET(20),X
  INTEGER NSECT,I,NPT,IC1,IC2
  CHARACTER*1 CH
  LOGICAL OVERF
  COMMON OVERF
  ISCAS=1
10 DO 20 I=1,NSECT
   USET(I)=0
20 CONTINUE
   OVERF=.FALSE.
   DO 70 I=1,NSPT
     IN1=IPSET(I)
     IN2=IPSET(I)
     CALL TWOPRT(IN1,USET(1),COEFSET(1),OUT1,X,OVERF)
     IF(OVERF) GOTO 50
     IN1=OUT1
     USET(I)=X
     IC1=1
     IC2=2
30 CALL BLOCK2(COEFSET(IC2),COEFSET(IC2+1),IN2,OUT2,USET(IC2)
   &,USET(IC2+1))
     IF(OVERF) GOTO 50
     IN2=OUT2
     IC1=IC1+2
     IF(IC1.EQ.NSECT) GOTO 40
     CALL BLOCK2(COEFSET(IC2+2),COEFSET(IC2+3),IN1,OUT1,USET(IC2+2)
   &,USET(IC2+3))
     IF(OVERF) GOTO 50
     IN1=OUT1
     IC1=IC1+2
     IC2=IC2+4
     IF(IC1.NE.NSECT) GOTO 30
     OPSET(I)=(OUT1+OUT2)/2
     GOTO 70
50 ISCAL=ISCAL+1
   CALL SCALIP2(IPSET,NSPT,ISCAL)
   GOTO 10
70 CONTINUE
   IF(ISCAL.EQ.1) GOTO 80
   PRINT,'OVERFLOW HAS BEEN DETECTED DURING THE CALCULATIONS.'
   PRINT,'THE INPUT NEEDED TO BE SCALED DOWN BY FACTOR OF.',ISCAL
   PRINT,
   PRINT,'TYPE <CR> TO CONTINUE !!!'
   READ,I
   PRINT,
   RETURN
   END
80
C
C

```

```

C
SUBROUTINE BLOCK2(A1,A2,IN,OUT,USE1,USE2)
  REAL A1,A2,IN,OUT,USE1,USE2,X1,X2,X3
  LOGICAL OVERF
  COMMON OVERF
  CALL TWOPT(IN,USE1,A1,OUT,X1,OVERF)
  CALL TWOPT(X1,USE2,A2,X2,X3,OVERF)
  USE1=X2
  USE2=X3
  RETURN
END
C
SUBROUTINE SAVEFR(ROP,ROP,SOP,NSPT,IFT)
  REAL ROP(300),ROP(300),SOP(300)
  PRINT,
  PRINT,'      REAL  QUANT  SYSTOLIC'
  PRINT,
  REWIND(10+IFT)
  DO 10 I=1,NSPT
    PRINT,1,ROP(I),ROP(I),SOP(I)
    WRITE(10+IFT,*) ROP(I),ROP(I),SOP(I)
  CONTINUE
  RETURN
  END
10
C
SUBROUTINE INIT(XK,XKA,UKP1,UKP1A,ALPHA,ALPHA,NBS,NBC,MNB)
  INTEGER XKA(26),UKP1A(26),ALPHA(8),PU(9,27),PX(9,27),
&CPU(8,27),CPX(8,27),CS(8,27),DA(8,26),NBS,NBC,MNB,XK,UKP1,ALPHA
&DX,DY,DXA(26),DYA(26)
  COMMON PU,PX,CPU,CPX,CS,DA
  DX=XK*2*(NBC-1)
  DY=UKP1*2*(NBC-1)
  CALL DT08(XK,XKA,MNB)
  CALL DT08(UKP1,UKP1A,MNB)
  CALL DT08(ALPHA,ALPHA,NBC)
  CALL DT08(DX,DXA,MNB)
  CALL DT08(DY,DYA,MNB)
  DO 5 K1=1,27
    DO 5 K2=1,9
      PX(K2,K1)=0
      PU(K2,K1)=0
    CONTINUE
    DO 7 K1=1,26
      DO 7 K2=1,8
        DA(K2,K1)=0
        CPX(K2,K1)=0
        CPU(K2,K1)=0
        CS(K2,K1)=0
      CONTINUE
      CPX(NBC,1)=ALPHA(NBC)
      CPU(NBC,1)=ALPHA(NBC)
    CONTINUE
  END
5
C
SUBROUTINE SYSADP(IP1,IP2,OUT1,OUT2,ACOE,NBS,NBC,MNB,OVERF)
  INTEGER IN1(27),IN2(27),COEFF(8),XKP1(27),PU(9,27),PX(9,27)
&UK(27),CPU(8,27),CPX(8,27),CS(8,27),DA(8,27),NBS,NBC,MNB,XK,
&UKP1,ALPHA,D,OPX,OPU,NPX,NPU,OCPX,OCPU,NCPX,NCPU,OCS,NCS,J,1,
&K,NCELL,COUNT,OUT2,OUT1
&IX,UKP1,ACOE
  LOGICAL OVERF
  COMMON PU,PX,CPU,CPX,CS,DA
  COMMON /B/ OPX,NPX,OPU,NPU,OCPX,NCPX,OCPU,NCPU,OCS,NCS
  IDX=IP1
  IDUKP1=IP2

```



APPENDIX 'C'  
SCATTERING MATRIX

In this Appendix, we present some relationships between the reflectances, transmittances, scattering matrix parameters and the wave quantities of a 2-port network. Fig. C.1a shows a 2-port network terminated between resistances  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  and the voltage sources  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ . Let the corresponding wave network of  $N$  be  $N'$  (Fig. C.1b). Also, let  $\underline{S}$  and  $\underline{S}'$  denote the scattering matrices corresponding to  $N$  and  $N'$  respectively. The entries of  $\underline{S}$ ,

$$\underline{S} = \begin{vmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} \end{vmatrix}$$

are known to be given by [86],

$$S_{11} = (Z_1 - R_1)/(Z_1 + R_1)$$

$$S_{21} = 2-(R_1/R_2) \left. \begin{matrix} V_2/E_1 \\ E_2=0 \end{matrix} \right\}$$

$$S_{22} = (Z_2 - R_2)/(Z_2 + R_2)$$

$$S_{12} = 2-(R_1/R_2) \left. \begin{matrix} V_1/E_2 \\ E_1=0 \end{matrix} \right\}$$

where  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$  are the input impedances at port one and two respectively. Also, according to eqn 1.21, we have,

$$A_1 = V_1 + R_1.I_1 \quad A_2 = V_2 + R_2.I_2$$

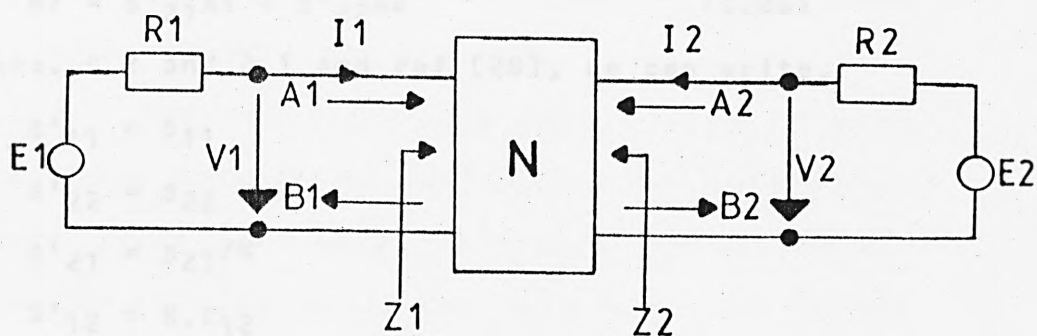
and  $B_1 = V_1 - R_1.I_1 \quad B_2 = V_2 - R_2.I_2$

Therefore, from Fig C.1 and Ref [28], we obtain,

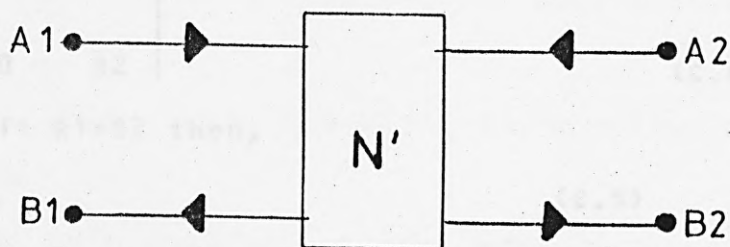
$$A_1 = E_1 \quad A_2 = E_2$$



Fig.C.1



a) General 2-port network,



b) Corresponding WDF.

$$\text{and} \quad B1 \begin{vmatrix} | \\ E1=0 \end{vmatrix} = 2V1 \quad B2 \begin{vmatrix} | \\ E2=0 \end{vmatrix} = 2V2$$

B1 and B2 can be expressed in terms of A1, A2 and the entries of  $\underline{S}'$  as shown below,

$$B1 = S'_{11}A1 + S'_{12}A2 \quad (C.2a)$$

$$\text{and} \quad B2 = S'_{21}A1 + S'_{22}A2 \quad (C.2b)$$

Using eqns. C.2 and C.1 and ref [28], we can write,

$$S'_{11} = S_{11}$$

$$S'_{22} = S_{22}$$

$$S'_{21} = S_{21}/K$$

$$S'_{12} = K \cdot S_{12}$$

$$\text{and} \quad K = -(R1/R2)$$

Therefore,

$$\underline{S}' = \underline{R}^{(1/2)} \cdot \underline{S} \cdot \underline{R}^{(-1/2)} \quad (C.3)$$

where

$$\underline{R} = \begin{vmatrix} R1 & 0 \\ 0 & R2 \end{vmatrix} \quad (C.4)$$

From eqn. C.3, if  $R1=R2$  then,

$$\underline{S}' = \underline{S} \quad (C.5)$$

## APPENDIX 'D'

### LIST OF AUTHOR'S PUBLICATIONS

1) **Title :** "Systolic Wave Digital Filter Structures suitable for VLSI implementation."

**Source :** Proc. of IEE Saraga Colloquium on Electronic Filters, London, pp 9/1-9/7, May 1985.

**Abstract :** The excellent low sensitivity of Wave Digital Filters (WDF's) to variations in multiplier coefficients makes them very attractive for speech and communication applications. The main drawback is the hardware complexity of WDF's. This paper illustrates how a WDF based on the cascaded unit element filters can be transformed into a regular and modular 1-bit systolic architecture which is suitable for VLSI implementation.

2) **Title :** "Bit-Level Systolic Adaptors for Wave Digital Filters."

**Source :** Proc. IEEE ISCAS, San Jose, California, pp 853-856, May 1986.

**Abstract :** The main drawback of Wave Digital Filters (WDF's) is the hardware complexity. In general, the hardware implementation of WDFs depends on how efficiently two and three port adaptors are implemented. This hardware complexity can therefore be resolved by considering the VLSI implementation of WDF adaptors. This paper illustrates how two and three port adaptors

can be transformed into regular and modular 1-bit systolic architectures which are suitable for VLSI implementation.

3) **Title :** "Finite Wordlength Design of Wave Digital Filters."

**Source :** Electronics Letters, Vol-22, No. 16, pp 851-853, July 1986.

**Abstract :** The letter illustrates some examples from a software package for the design of finite wordlength wave digital filters (WDFs). Given a set of initial coefficients, the program generates a new set of coefficients which are quantised to the required number of bits. Some filter design examples have been considered to illustrate this for three types of WDFs, i.e. unit element, lattice and LC-ladder WDFs.

4) **Title :** "Software Tools for the Design and an approach to the VLSI implementation of Wave Digital Filters."

**Source :** Submitted for publication in the Special Issue of the IEEE Proc. on "Hardware and Software for Digital Signal Processing."

**Abstract :** In spite of the excellent low sensitivity of Wave Digital Filters (WDFs) to variations in the multiplier coefficients, the practical applications of WDFs are limited due to their hardware complexity. In

this paper, we resolve this problem by considering the bit-level systolic implementation of WDF adaptors. Also a complete software package is described which enables one to design finite wordlength WDFs based on three well known reference filters, i.e unit element, lattice and lc-ladder filters.