



rfengines



RF Engines Limited

White Paper



The Pipelined Frequency Transform (PFT)

**(PFT architecture and comparisons with FFT / digital
down-converter techniques)**



Reference No PFT 001. Rev2

Introduction.

This paper gives an outline description of the Pipelined Frequency Transform (PFT) hardware architecture, which was developed as an answer to the problem of channelising very wideband (80 MHz+) signals. A number of commercially available solutions exist where a few narrowband channels need to be selected from a wideband channel, using conventional digital down-converter techniques. Likewise, by using pipelined FFT techniques, it is possible to completely “channelise” a wideband signal provided that only modest channel filter response is required.

Where a requirement exists for a large number of channels *and* good filter performance, the above techniques become uneconomical. The PFT provides a much more optimum solution to this requirement.

The paper will directly compare the PFT against the FFT and Digital down-converter techniques for given scenarios, providing silicon usage comparisons.

General Description of the PFT.

The underlying concept is one of frequency band splitting where each successive stage of the PFT increases the number of bands by a factor of two, as shown in Fig1.

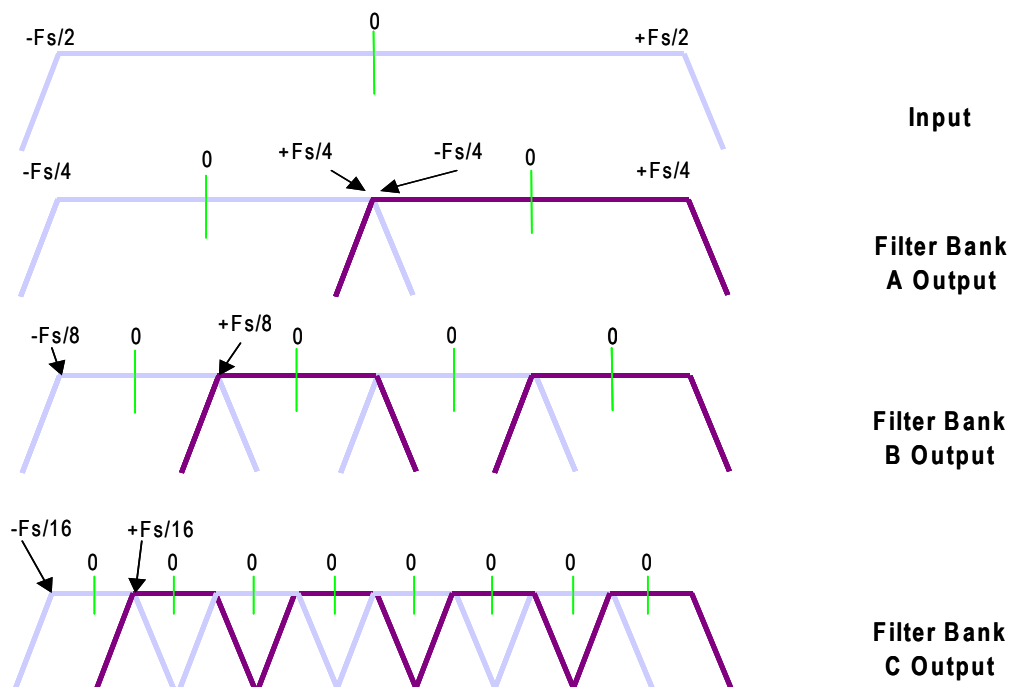


Fig 1. Frequency Band Splitting

This band splitting could be achieved, for example, by a simple tree structure, as shown in Fig.2. The input, which is complex to preserve positive and negative frequencies, is firstly split into two equal bands using a complex down-converter (CDC) and a complex up-converter (CUC). It would be possible to halve the sample rate for each of the sub-bands since the bandwidth of each has been halved. In practice, a degree of over-sampling is required to avoid image response problems caused by finite filter cut-off rates. Two times over-sampling is used at the output of the first stage. For all successive stages the output is decimated by two, preserving the overall two times over-sampling throughout the system.

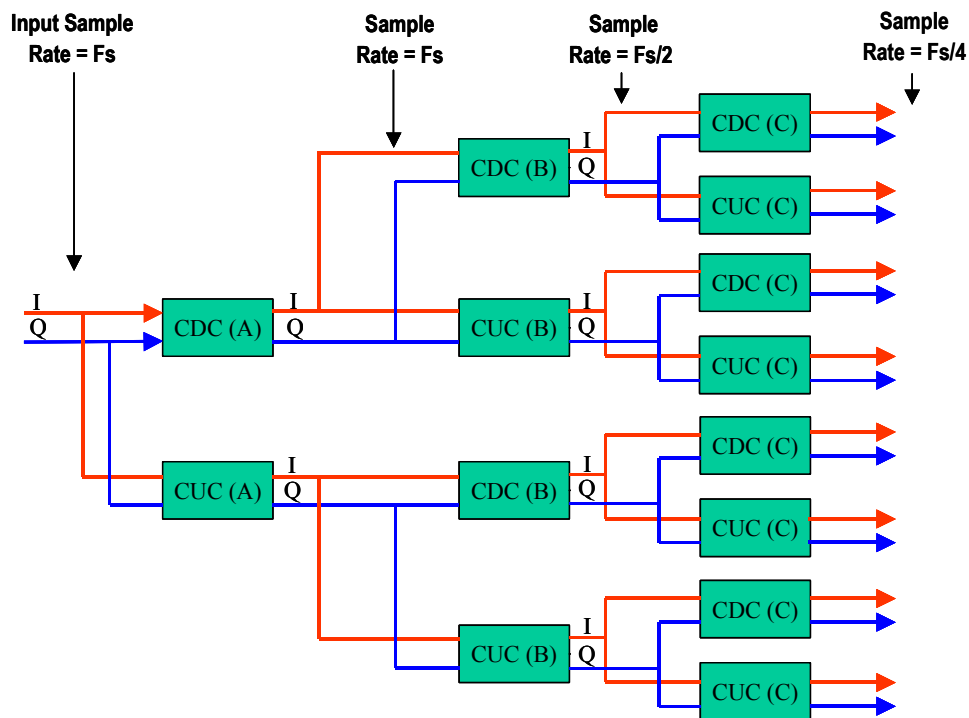


Fig 2. Simple Tree System (3 stages)

The most obvious disadvantage of this approach is that, for large numbers of channels, the Tree gets impossibly large. For example, 1024 channels would require 2046 complex (CDC or CUC) modules. Each one of these modules would take the form of Fig.3 which shows, for example, the conventional form of the CDC(A) module, consisting of four multipliers, two adds /subtracts, a sine / cosine look-up table and a pair of low-pass filters. The CUC(A) module would be very similar (differing only in the signs of the adder / subtractor elements). Successive stages would also be very similar except that the local oscillators are now at $F_x/8$ (where F_x is the input sampling rate for the stage) and the output is decimated-by-two.

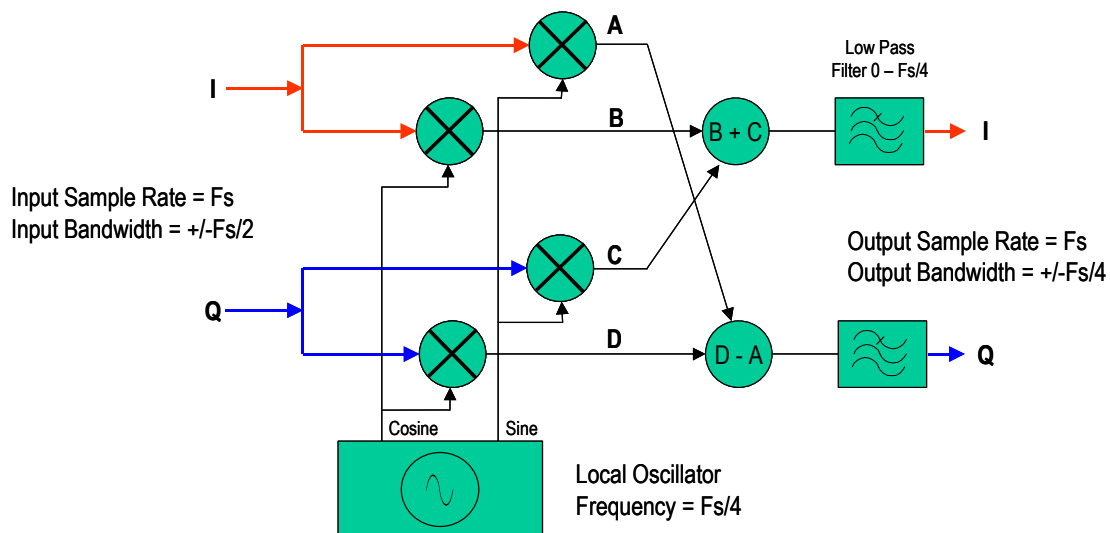


Fig 3. Conventional Form of Complex Down-Converter [CDC(A)]

Simplification of the Architecture.

Fortunately, the architecture can be greatly simplified in three significant ways. Firstly, with the tree system, the sampling rate drops by a factor of two at each stage. This would lead to inefficient use of the hardware which is capable of running at the full rate, F_s . The most processing-intensive part of each stage lies in the low-pass filters and, since these take an identical form within any given stage, interleaving techniques may be used to regain full efficiency. This involves interleaving the samples for each of the branches within a given stage and modifying the filters (which are normally finite-impulse-response or FIR filters) by adding extra delays between the coefficient multipliers. This is illustrated in Fig.4.

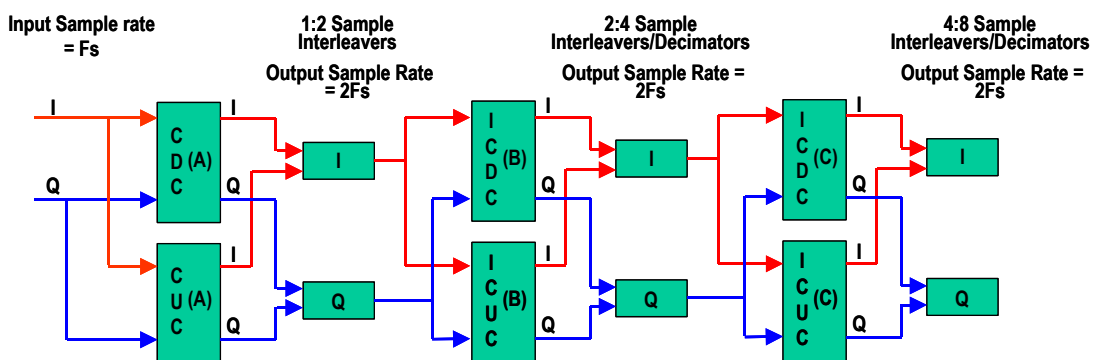


Fig 4. Block diagram of Interleaved System (3 Stages)

The first stage complex converters, CDC(A) and CUC(A) are the same as for the Tree system (Fig.2) but the subsequent stages, ICDC(B), ICUC(B) etc. are the

Interleaved form of CDC(B), CUC(B) etc. Note that, after the interleavers, the sample rate at each stage is now constant at $2F_s$, consistent with a two-times-oversampled system.

The second way in which greater efficiency may be obtained is to simplify the structure of each stage by eliminating unnecessary computations (e.g. multiplying samples by local oscillator zeros). This is illustrated in Fig.5 which shows how the architecture of CDC(A) can be greatly simplified.

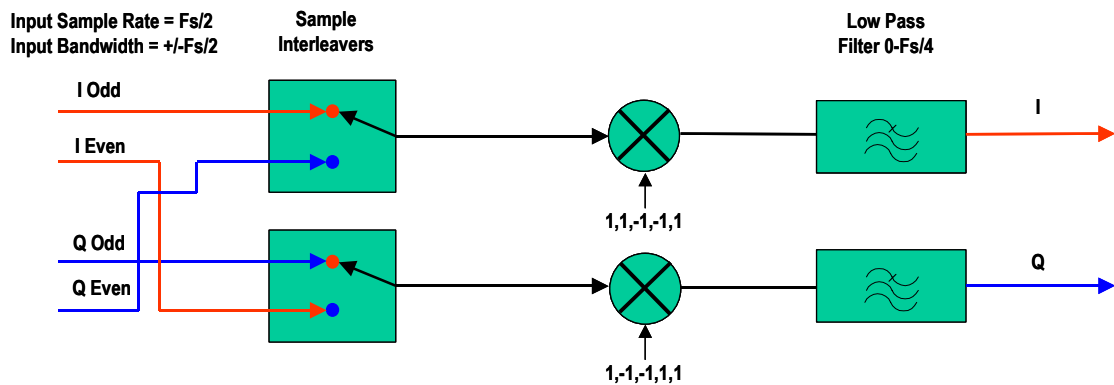


Fig. 5 Simplified CDC(A) Architecture

Even further simplification can be achieved by combining common functions such as the sample interleavers and Local Oscillators. This is illustrated in Fig.6 which shows how common functions of CDC(A) and CUC(A) may be combined.

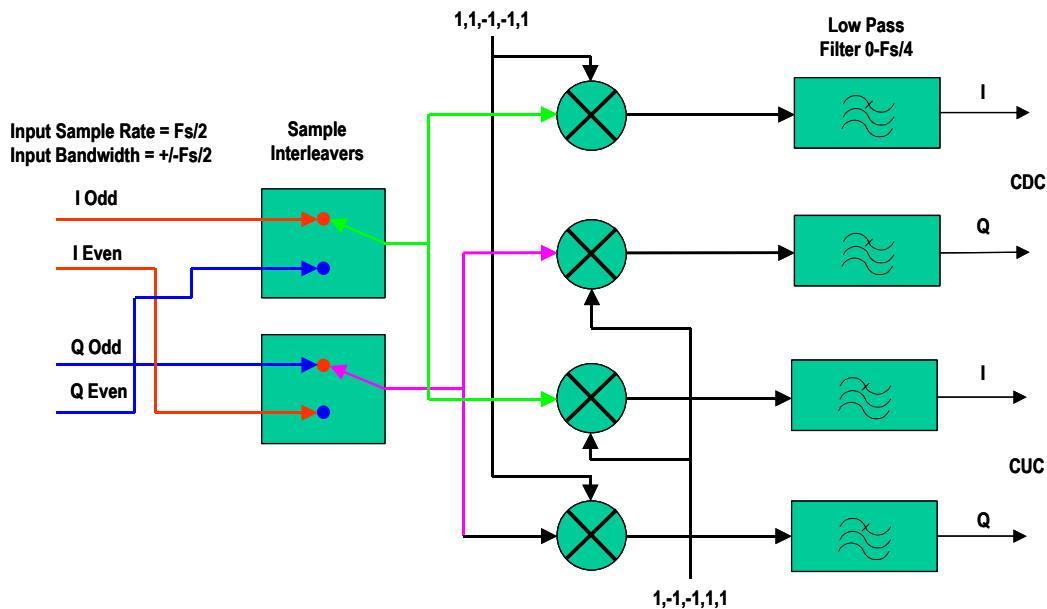


Fig 6 Combined CDC(A) & CUC(A) Architecture

Similar techniques may be used in subsequent stages, even though the Local Oscillator and interleaved filter structures are more complex.

The third way in which greater efficiency may be obtained is in the way coefficient multipliers are handled in the FIR filters. Firstly, the use of full multipliers (i.e. multipliers where both inputs can be varied) may be avoided altogether and replaced by very efficient shift-and-add structures. Furthermore, since the Local Oscillators are generally in the form of ± 1 multipliers, these may be incorporated into the shift-and-add structure, forming simple polyphase filters.

There are other ways in which even greater efficiency has been achieved (including proprietary methods of realising adder trees and symmetrical rounding of data) which will not be covered in this paper.

Comparison of the PFT with FFT Techniques.

As mentioned in the Introduction above, FFT techniques, including Pipelined FFT may be used to produce a large number of equally spaced channels quite efficiently. A problem arises, however, when trying to achieve a large number of channels *and* good filter performance simultaneously. This can be illustrated by referring to Fig. 7 below. A standard, unweighted FFT will have an effective filter performance as shown – i.e. a simple $\text{Sin}X/X$ response. This means that the filter stop-band performance is poor (first sidelobe only 13.5dB down) and that there is roll-off within a “bin” (bin-width being defined as the Input Sample Rate F_s / Number of Bins).

By comparison, the PFT has a very flat frequency response across a bin and then cuts off very rapidly to the design stop-band level (approximately -85dB in this example). The degree of flatness and stop-band level are under the designers control using standard FIR filter design techniques.

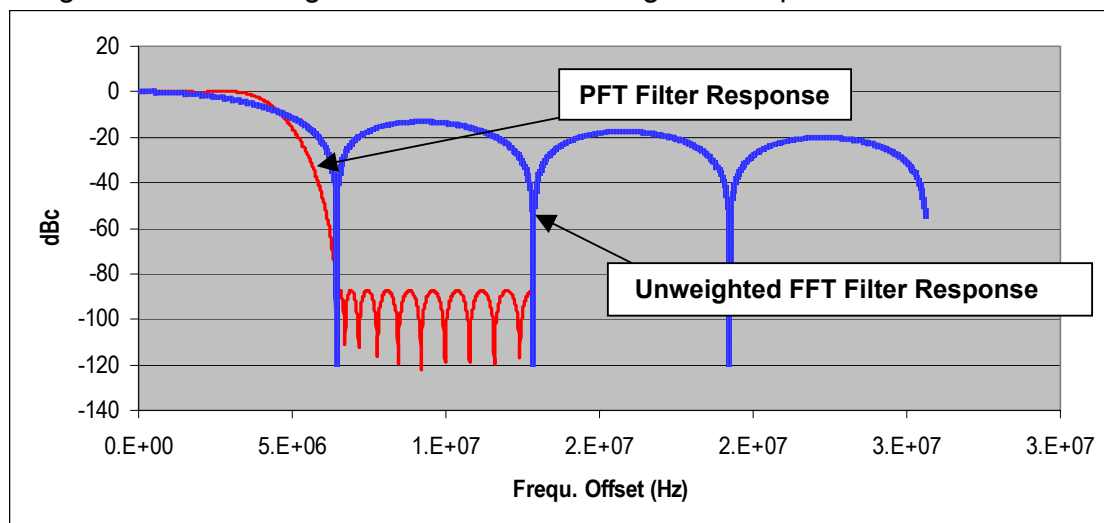


Fig 7. Comparison of Typical PFT Filter and Unweighted FFT

The standard approach to improving stop-band performance with an FFT is to use weighting or “windowing” of the time-domain data. A number of standard windows exist including Hamming, Kaiser and Blackman-Harris.

An example using a Kaiser weighted window is shown in Fig.8 below. Although this has clearly improved the stop-band performance it is still inadequate for many applications and has been gained at the expense of filter selectivity (i.e. the main lobe is much wider).

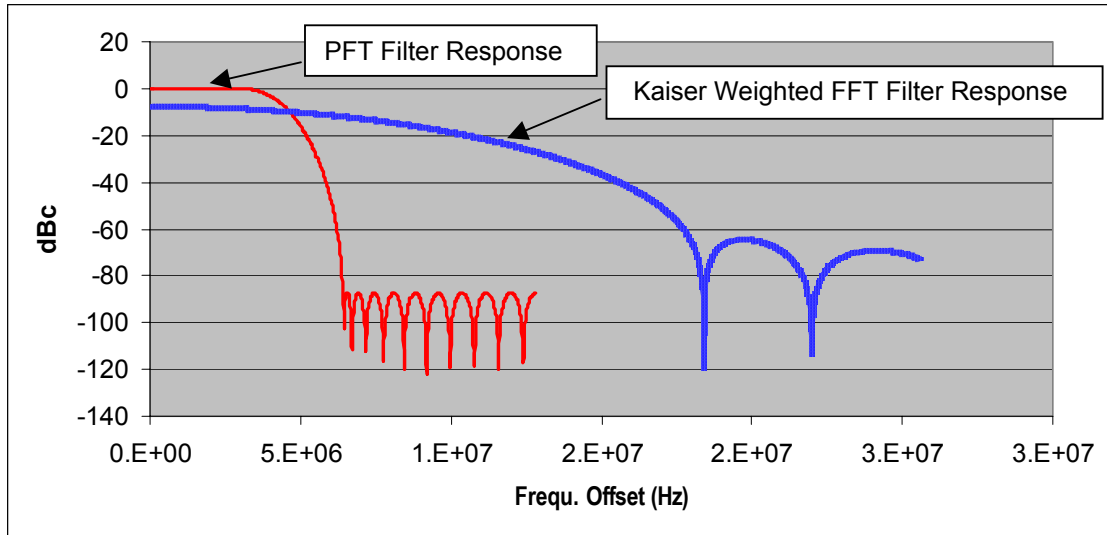


Fig 8. Comparison of Typical PFT Filter and Kaiser Weighted FFT

The obvious question to ask is, can we not use FIR filter-like weightings on the FFT input data to achieve similar performance to the PFT? The answer is that it is possible provided much larger FFT's with overlap are used. The graph of Fig.9 illustrates the point.

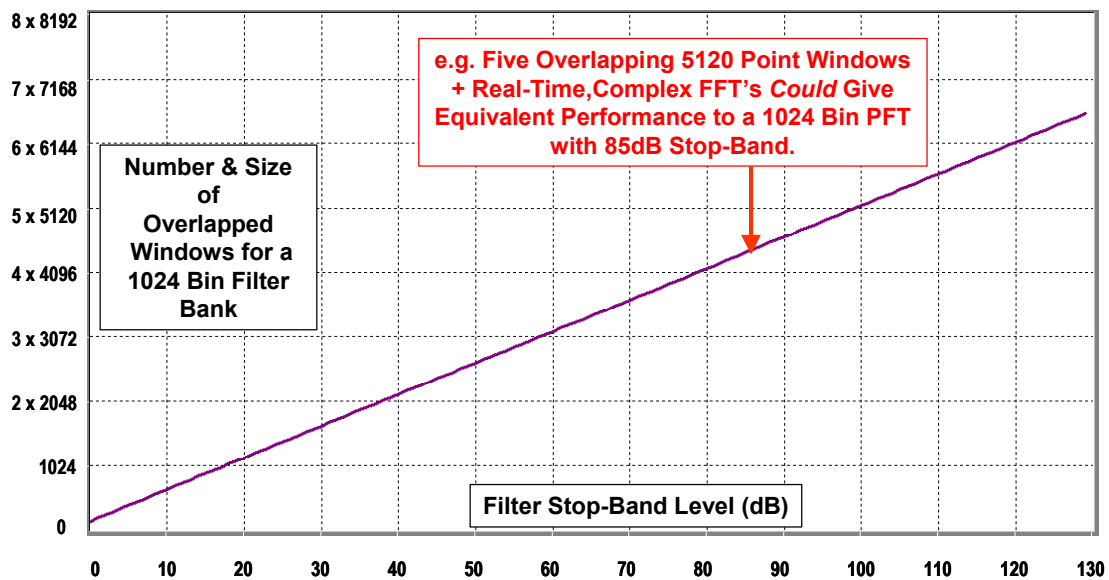


Fig 9. Comparison of PFT with Multiple Overlapped FFT's

This graph determines the FFT requirement for performance equivalent to a 1024 bin PFT with given stop-band. For example, an 85dB stop-band could be achieved by using 5-off overlapped 5120 point weighted FFT's. The overlap needs to be such that a new 5120 point FFT is performed every 1024 points to ensure continuous real-time throughput, hence the need for 5-off parallel FFT's as demonstrated in Fig. 10

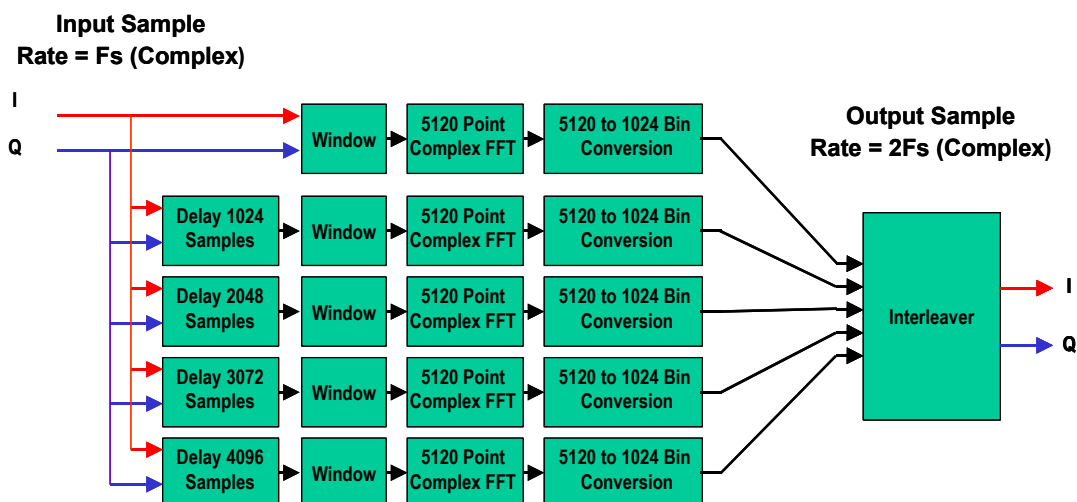


Fig.10 Pipelined FFT processing to generate a 1024 point output with 85 dBc stop band rejection in real time

Quite apart from the difficulty of actually estimating and realising the 5120 weighting coefficients, running such large mixed radix FFT's at high throughput rates is a formidable task. Conservative estimates show that, even if such an architecture were feasible, it would require at least twice the amount of silicon needed for the equivalent PFT.

Comparison with Polyphase DFT or Weighted Overlap-Add (WOLA) FFT's.

Although the above would be an obvious approach to achieving the required filter performance, more economical techniques exist such as the Polyphase DFT or a similar approach, commonly named the "Weighted Overlap-Add" or WOLA FFT. These techniques have been extensively covered in the literature and will not be described in detail here. Two useful references are :-

(a) Polyphase DFT:

http://www.east.isi.edu/projects/SLAAC/presentations/retreat_9909/polyphase.pdf

(b) WOLA:

http://www.dsparchitectures.com/dffiltr_3.pdf

Fig. 11 shows an example of the Polyphase DFT using an N-point complex FFT and a window of length $K*N$ samples. In the above example, $N=1024$ and $K=5$. It should be noted that the example shown is for a *critically* sampled system – i.e. the sample rate only just meets the Nyquist requirement. For direct comparison with the PFT (which is a 2x over-sampled system), it will be necessary to provide some duplication.

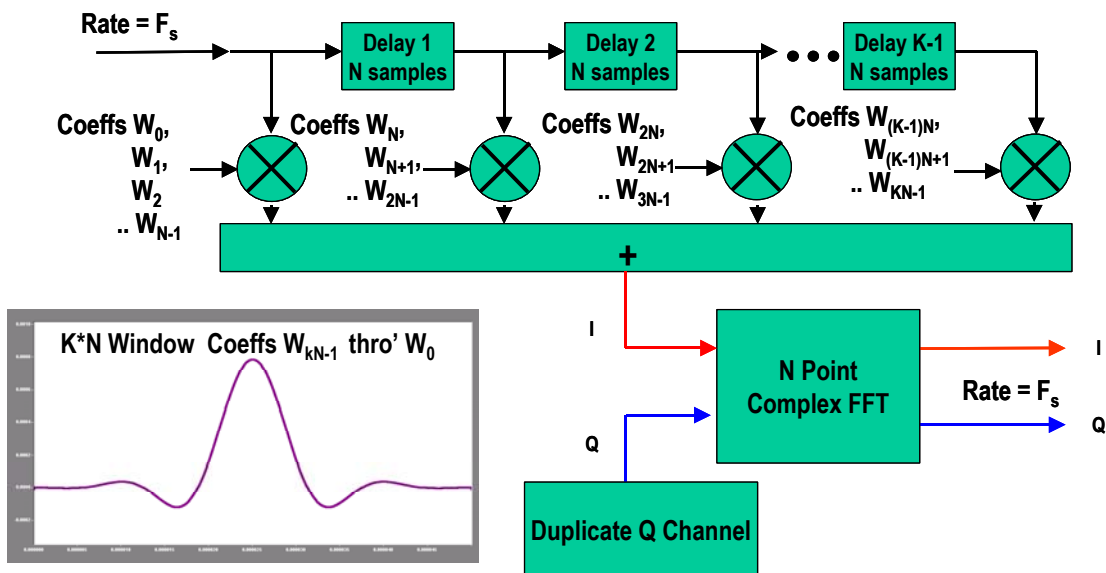


Fig.11 More Efficient Polyphase DFT Implementation of Overlapped FFT's.

In general terms, the following comparisons may be made:-

- PFT and oversampled Polyphase DFT have similar silicon requirements
- PFT has intermediate stage outputs simultaneously
- Polyphase DFT filters all identical – determined by window
- PFT filters all independent – can be different for each bin
- PFT bins can have independently tuned centre frequency

Comparison of the PFT with Conventional Digital Down-Converter.

As mentioned in the introduction, standard digital down-converter (DDC) techniques are probably the best solution where only a few channels are required. This section attempts to compare the relative efficiency of the PFT and a stacked digital down-converter approach. In order to make a meaningful comparison, implementations need to be on the same platform. In this case we will use the Xilinx Virtex-E platform since we already have a working implementation of the PFT for this. Furthermore, we can conveniently use Xilinx LogiCores to perform the various functions within the digital down-converter and give a reliable estimate of silicon usage.

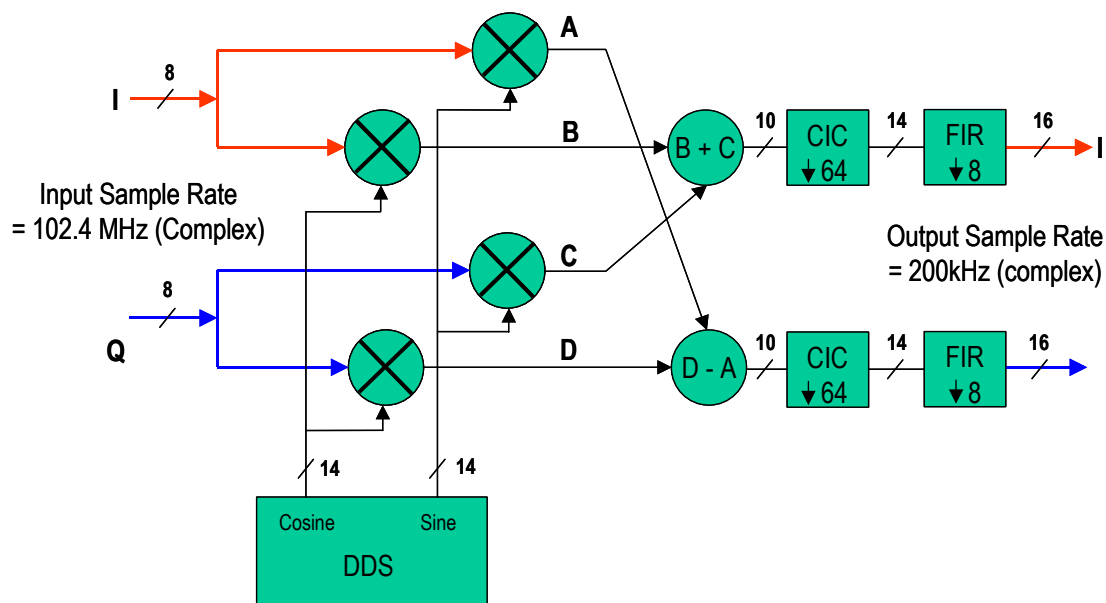


Fig.12. Implementation of single Digital Down-Converter (DDC)

Figure 12 shows a particular implementation of a single complex converter which would be one element of a 1024 channel system. It assumes an input sample rate of $F_s=102.4$ MHz at 8 bits, complex and an output rate of 200 kHz at 16 bits,

complex. The output bandwidth is flat to $\pm 50\text{kHz}$ with a final filter shape corresponding to the overall 1024 bin, 85dB PFT response. The filtering is based on a fairly standard combination of Cascaded Integrator Comb (CIC) and Decimating FIR filters which gives an efficient implementation. In this case, the CIC is a third order, decimate-by-64 ($R=64$) design and the FIR is a decimate-by-8 ($S=8$) design. The CIC filter allows internal bit-growth to 27 bits before rounding to 14 bits and the FIR allows internal growth to 30 bits before final rounding to 16 bits. The Direct Digital Synthesiser (DDS) design allows for a minimum frequency increment of 50 kHz (LUT depth of 1024) and an amplitude resolution of 14 bits.

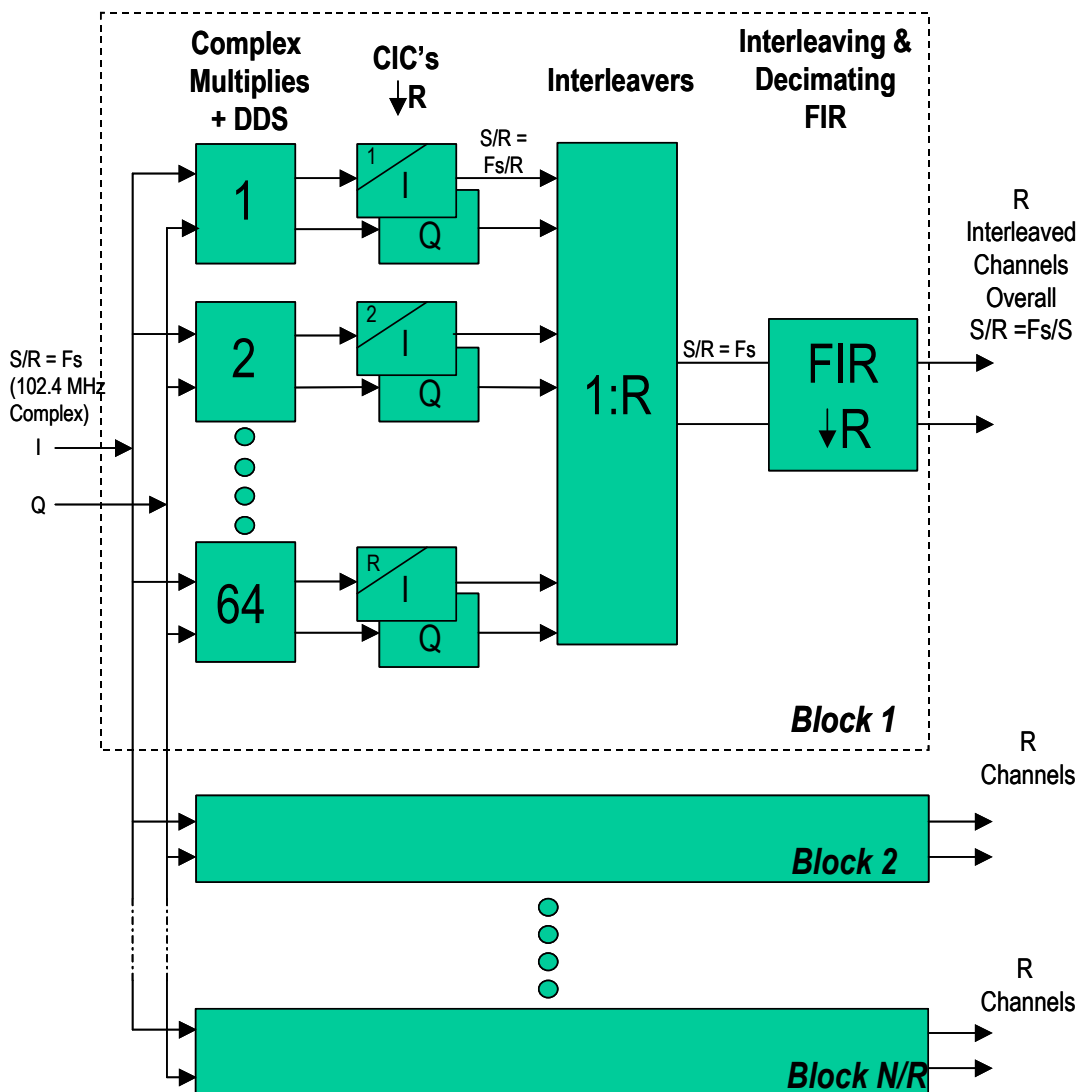


Fig.13. Architecture for Multiple Stacked DDC's with N Bins

When considering the architecture for a multiple up/down-converter, it is obvious that greater efficiency can be achieved if the FIR filters can run at maximum rate.

Fig. 13 shows how an N channel system may be split into N/R blocks where R is the CIC decimation. Taking an example using N=1024 channels, the CIC outputs will run at a decimated sample rate of 1.6 MHz (R=64) and can be multiplexed in groups of 64 to regain the full rate of 102.4 MHz. The FIR must now be an interleaving design to process the 64 interleaved data streams. This gives a small penalty to provide the extra inter-tap delays but this can be provided by the Virtex-E internal memory. To provide a block of 64 channels now needs 64 complex converters, 64 CIC's but only one FIR. To provide the full 1024 channels would require 16 such blocks. More generally, N channels would require N/R blocks.

What does this mean in terms of silicon usage? Table 1. below shows a comparison for various PFT sizes from 2 to 1024 channels. For convenience, the comparison is made on number of slices using the Xilinx Virtex-E series. The PFT figures are based on actual working implementations and the Digital Down-Converter (DDC) figures are derived from five COREgen modules (DDS, Parallel Multiplier, Adder / Subtractor, CIC and Distributed Arithmetic FIR). The parameters of the COREgen modules were optimised as far as possible for each case (e.g. reduced LUT length in the DDS modules for coarser frequency resolution for cases with lower number of bins).

No. Bins N	CIC Decim. R	No. of Complex Converters	Total CDC Slices	No. of CIC Filter Pairs	Total CIC Slices	No. of FIR Filter Pairs	Total FIR Slices	TOTAL DDC Slices	TOTAL PFT Slices
2	N/A	2	12	0	0	1	4406	4418	1850
4	N/A	4	24	0	0	1	4406	4430	3390
8	N/A	6	48	0	0	1	4406	4454	4851
16	1	16	96	16	4416	1	4808	9320	6262
32	2	32	224	32	8832	2	10416	19472	7684
64	4	64	512	64	17664	4	20832	39008	9259
128	8	128	1024	128	35328	8	44872	81224	11573
256	16	256	2304	256	70656	16	89744	162704	13600
512	32	512	25088	512	141312	32	192288	358688	18065
1024	64	1024	50176	1024	282624	64	410240	743040	26628

Table 1. Comparison of FPGA Slices against No of bins for DDC and PFT solutions

A clearer comparison can be made using the graphs of Fig.14 and Fig.15. At lower numbers of bins (up to around eight) there is little to choose between the two approaches. The apparent advantage of the PFT, even at low numbers of bins is mostly to do with the high efficiency of the FIR filter design compared with

the highly parameterised design for the COREGen modules. The differential could be reduced by using similar FIR designs in a customised DDC.

At higher number of bins, the advantage of the PFT becomes very obvious. A 1024 bin PFT at 26628 slices can fit comfortably into a Virtex XCV3200E (32448 slices). An equivalent DDC design (743040 slices) would require some 23 such devices! Even at 128 bins, the DDC design would need more than two XCV3000E devices whereas the PFT can fit comfortably into an XCV1000E (12288 slices).

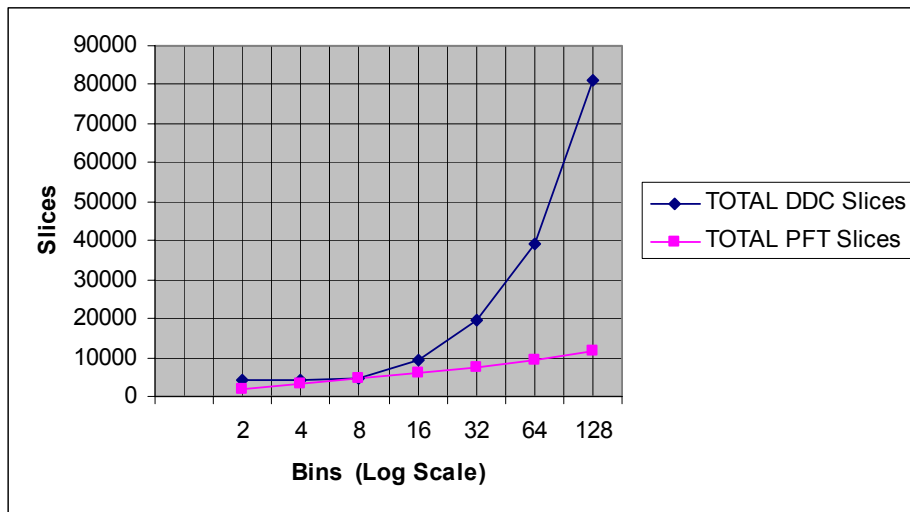


Fig. 14. Comparison of PFT and DDC Implementations, 2 to 128 Bins

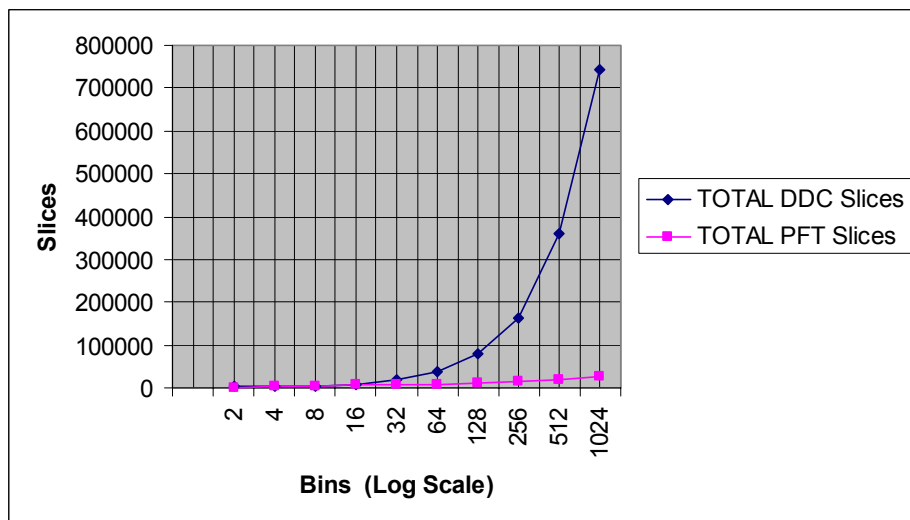


Fig15. Comparison of PFT and DDC Implementations, 2 to 1024 Bins

Conclusions.

Hopefully, this paper has demonstrated that the PFT provides an elegant and highly efficient method for channelising very wideband signals. It is useful where a large number of channels (typically more than eight) are required together with good filter performance and particularly useful where intermediate stage outputs are needed or some tunability of filters and bin centre frequency is required.

Comparisons show that the PFT has similar silicon usage to that of a multiple overlapped pipelined FFT. The PFT, however, will give much more flexibility in terms of intermediate stage outputs and individual filter tunability compared with the fixed time-domain pre-weighting required for the FFT. Compared with a stacked digital down-converter (DDC) approach, a 1024 bin, 85dB stopband PFT is typically 28 times more efficient

Overall, the PFT fills the gap between the comparatively inflexible FFT approach and the stacked DDC approach which is extremely flexible but which becomes increasingly inefficient above about eight channels.

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Matlab and **SystemView** models are available for evaluation.