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Application Note

Digital Signal Processing with V850 and V850E Devices

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NOTES FOR CMOS DEVICES

① PRECAUTION AGAINST ESD FOR SEMICONDUCTORS

Note:

Strong electric field, when exposed to a MOS device, can cause destruction of the gate oxide and ultimately degrade the device operation. Steps must be taken to stop generation of static electricity as much as possible, and quickly dissipate it once, when it has occurred. Environmental control must be adequate. When it is dry, humidifier should be used. It is recommended to avoid using insulators that easily build static electricity. Semiconductor devices must be stored and transported in an anti-static container, static shielding bag or conductive material. All test and measurement tools including work bench and floor should be grounded. The operator should be grounded using wrist strap. Semiconductor devices must not be touched with bare hands. Similar precautions need to be taken for PW boards with semiconductor devices on it.

② HANDLING OF UNUSED INPUT PINS FOR CMOS

Note:

No connection for CMOS device inputs can be cause of malfunction. If no connection is provided to the input pins, it is possible that an internal input level may be generated due to noise, etc., hence causing malfunction. CMOS devices behave differently than Bipolar or NMOS devices. Input levels of CMOS devices must be fixed high or low by using a pull-up or pull-down circuitry. Each unused pin should be connected to V_{DD} or GND with a resistor, if it is considered to have a possibility of being an output pin. All handling related to the unused pins must be judged device by device and related specifications governing the devices.

③ STATUS BEFORE INITIALIZATION OF MOS DEVICES

Note:

Power-on does not necessarily define initial status of MOS device. Production process of MOS does not define the initial operation status of the device. Immediately after the power source is turned ON, the devices with reset function have not yet been initialized. Hence, power-on does not guarantee out-pin levels, I/O settings or contents of registers. Device is not initialized until the reset signal is received. Reset operation must be executed immediately after power-on for devices having reset function.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

This application note has been created for those users, who need to implement digital signal processing functions into their application. We have written and benchmarked a few fundamental algorithms like FIR, IIR and Hilbert transformation. The code has been written in assembly language and it was optimized for the V850 and V850E pipeline. We use 16-bit signed data and coefficients with 32-bit intermediate results. The coefficients are scaled in such a way, that overflows of the intermediate results are avoided, i.e. the effective size of the coefficients is smaller than 16-bit.

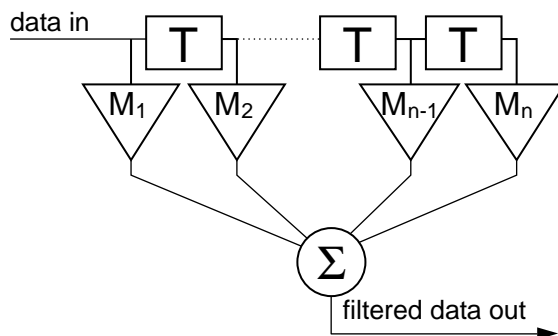
This application note does not explain the fundamentals of digital signal processing. The reader is encouraged to use any of the huge number of good books and internet resources.

The purpose of this document is to provide size and performance benchmarks, so that the feasibility of a certain design can be considered before actually starting to build prototypes. The enclosed program files can serve as skeletons for similar applications.

Chapter 2 FIR Filter

FIR filters are implemented as depicted in the flowchart below.

Figure 2-1: FIR-Filter



With each sampling clock, the input sample is shifted one stage further through the cascade of shift registers (T). Each of the values is then multiplied by a coefficient (M_n) and all results are accumulated (Σ). The accumulated result must be properly scaled to become the filtered output value. With suitably scaled coefficients, the scaling of the output is just a right shift of the data and it is therefore not drawn in the above flowchart.

The filter coefficients can be calculated by various programs. There are freeware or time limited evaluation version programs available from the internet^{Note 1} and also web based programs, which calculate the coefficients online^{Note 2}. Also commercially available software packages can be used^{Note 3}. The coefficients are usually presented as floating point numbers, so that the filter amplification is one. For implementing the calculated filter on an integer CPU, one must scale the coefficients, so that the maximum possible resolution is achieved without generating overflows on any of the intermediate results. Useful tools for such scaling are any spread sheet programs^{Note 4}.

Notes: 1. For downloadable filter design programs visit:

<http://www.filter-solutions.com/>

<http://www.systolix.co.uk/about.htm>

2. For online filter design programs visit:

<http://www.nauticom.net/www/jdtaft/>

<http://www-users.cs.york.ac.uk/~fisher/mkfilter/>

<http://www.digitalfilter.com/>

3. For commercial filter design software visit:

<http://www.mathworks.com/>

4. For a free office package including spreadsheet program for Linux and Windows see:

<http://www.openoffice.org/>

2.1 Practical FIR Implementation

A straightforward implementation of an n^{th} order FIR filter would shift the old samples up in a buffer, store the new sample at the beginning of that buffer and then perform n multiply and accumulate operations. It turns out that this is almost the best possible strategy for a general purpose RISC processor like the V850. More dedicated signal processing architectures like DSPs, have special means to efficiently support ring buffers and they have multiply and accumulate units, which calculate such a result in one clock cycle. Sometimes more than one such MAC units are implemented.

When designing software for a filter architecture, one has the choice of speed or space optimization, but one can usually not have both at the same time. The different approaches are discussed below while always considering the V850 and V850E pipeline structure. We have simulated the code with the Green Hills V850 and V850E simulators and also tested it on real devices to verify the results as simulators are not always cycle accurate. If the results differ, we specify those from the real device. For the V850E core we have used the V850E/ME2 and its on-chip timer for timing measurements. It has a limited resolution as it is clocked with $1/8^{\text{th}}$ of the CPU frequency. Therefore the clock speeds are accurate to those eight clocks. A V850/SB1 emulator with built-in clock timer has been used for V850 timing measurements. Therefore these timings are accurate to the clock.

Code and data were located into on-chip instruction and data memories, so that the system can take advantage of the internal Harvard architecture and of the one-clock access times. The performance will degrade significantly, if any of these memories is chip external. Minor performance degradation might be observed when the program is executed from on-chip flash memory with interleaved access.

The filter order n for practical FIR filters is usually between 16 and 128, with possible exceptions at both ends. We have more or less arbitrarily selected a 48^{th} order FIR filter, but the measurement results can be easily re-calculated for the actual filter order.

To test the filters, they can be applied to real signals stored in a standard wave file. Such signals can be real life signals recorded through a sound-card or synthetically generated signals. A useful program to record, generate and analyze wave-files is CoolEdit (www.cooledit.com). In order to process an input wave file and generate a filtered output wave file, the variable WAVEOUT must be defined. The path names to the input and output files can be adapted in the source code (main.c) or otherwise the standard Green Hills path (<GHS>\MyProjects\) applies. The variable SIMULATE suppresses some code generation, which is only useful on a real device (like starting and stopping timers for timing measurement). It is suggested to define that variable for simulation and it must be undefined for running on real devices. Note that the software is not written as a push-button benchmark. Some tweaking is required to enable the individual filter algorithm to be tested. An emulator is necessary for timing measurements. We have defined a FILTER structure, which describes the FIR- or Hilbert-filter. The C-code type definition is as follows:

```
typedef struct {
    WORD size;
    WORD scale;
    SSHORT *coeff;
    SSHORT *data;
} FILTER;
```

In assembler files, we use the following code to reference the members of a FILTER:

```
filter_size    .equ    0    -- offset to number of coefficients (WORD)
filter_scale   .equ    4    -- offset to scale
filter_coeff   .equ    8    -- offset to coefficient pointer
filter_data    .equ    12   -- offset to data pointer
```

All add instructions for FIR-filters and Hilbert-transformations are standard add instructions, not saturated adds. That is because these filter types are inherently stable and overflows will not occur if the coefficients are properly scaled. IIR filters can be unstable and generate overflows. Therefore they use the satadd instructions to accumulate the individual results.

2.1.1 Size optimized FIR (firsz)

The size optimized version implements a software loop, which loops n times through the mac-code. Especially for a RISC architecture like the V850, that strategy imposes an instruction time penalty of one clock for the compare with n instruction and one (V850E) or two (V850) clocks for the discarded pipeline when the branch is taken (n-1 times). One also needs to implement a pointer to the sample and another one to the coefficients, each of which must be incremented each time. On the other hand, this code is rather compact and it is the best choice for non time critical applications. Here is a source code listing of the assembler macro:

```
.macro firsz      filter,sample,size,scale
-- size optimized version
    mov        filter,r7          -- get address of FILTER struct
    mov        size-1,r11         -- get filter order - 1
    ld.w       filter_coeff[r7],r8 -- get address of coefficients to r8
    ld.w       filter_data[r7],r7 -- get address of data to r7
    addi       2*(size-2),r8,r8   -- we start from the end
    st.h       sample,0[r7]       -- store new sample
    addi       2*(size-2),r7,r7   -- we start from the end
    ld.h       2[r8],r10          -- coefficient
    ld.h       2[r7],r9           -- data
    ld.h       0[r7],r6           -- data
    mulh       r9,r10             -- multiply
    .align     4

1:
    ld.h       0[r8],r9           -- coefficient
    st.h       r6,2[r7]           -- upshift
    mulh       r6,r9              -- multiply
    add        -2,r7              -- next data (go down)
    add        -2,r8              -- next coefficient (go down)
    add        r9,r10             -- accumulate result
    add        -1,r11             -- loop counter
    ld.h       0[r7],r6           -- data
    bne        lb                 -- branch back while not finished
    satsubi    -(1<<(scale-1)),r10,r10 -- for proper rounding
    sar        scale,r10          -- scale the result
.endm
```

The loop has been optimized to (hopefully) the maximum possible degree. On first sight one might be surprised about the order of the instructions, but they have been arranged in such a way, that the instruction pipeline does not stall unnecessarily. No instruction refers to data, which was produced by the previous instruction (even though we could have done that in most cases, because of the built-in pipeline short path). That is the reason, why even the conditional branch at the end is preceded by an instruction that does not seem to belong there. The condition code for that branch was set by the add instruction two lines earlier and it is unaffected by the preceding load.

If the beginning of the loop were not aligned to a word boundary, then the CPU would need two clocks instead of one to load that instruction after a branch takes place. Therefore an align pseudo instruction has been inserted, which will generate a nop if that is required to achieve the alignment. That nop instruction costs one clock but saves n-1 clocks for the loop.

The last two instructions in the macro above scale the result back to a 16-bit signed integer. The sar instruction divides the 32-bit wide intermediate result by 2^{scale} and discards the low order bits, i.e. the remainder. This is effectively a truncation of the 32-bit integer to a 16-bit integer. As the truncated part may have any value between 0 and 1, the signal level is effectively shifted by $\frac{1}{2}$ bit towards the negative minimum. That may not be significant for an FIR filter, but it becomes important for the cascaded IIR filters, which are discussed later in this document. The error sums up and gradually adds a negative DC offset to the signal. Therefore the satsubi instruction is used to add that $\frac{1}{2}$ bit to compensate this DC offset. satsubi is used with a negative adder, because there is no sataddi instruction on the V850 or V850E devices. A side effect of this compensation is the reduced noise floor of the output signal, because it rounds the result up or down instead of just truncating it. The signal to noise ratio is thus improved by 3 dB (since 1 bit of resolution impacts the noise by 6 dB).

2.1.2 Speed optimized FIR (firsp)

The speed optimized version simply issues the same code once per filter order. As we can see below, one can occupy the pipeline very efficiently with that strategy, but at the expense of code space. Fortunately we can save a few instructions per iteration compared with the space optimization, because the offsets to data and coefficients are hard coded and therefore the pointer registers need not be updated. Also the loop counter and the conditional branch are avoided. That reduces the number of instructions per iteration to just four or five instead of nine in the size optimized version. By arranging the instructions in the optimum sequence, one can achieve an instruction pipelining without any stalls, i.e. one instruction is executed per clock cycle.

Here is the optimized code for one mac-cycle:

```
ld.h      2*nr[r7],r6      -- data
add       r9,r10          -- accumulate result
ld.h      2*nr[r8],r9     -- coefficient
st.h      r6,2*(nr+1)[r7] -- upshift
mulh     r6,r9           -- multiply
```

As explained above, this code sequence is cascaded n times for speed optimization. The fourth instruction (st.h) is even omitted in the first block, because that buffer value is discarded. nr is counted down from the filter order n-1 to zero and so the offsets to r7 and r8 are hard coded without the need to update any of these two registers, which have to be initialized with pointers to the data buffer and the coefficients.

None of the instructions refers to data, which is only calculated in the preceding instruction. Therefore a cascade of n blocks takes n*5 clocks to execute. An exception to this statement is the code for the first stage, which was moved out of the loop, because it is a bit special.

The code has been implemented in macros, so that it can be automatically replicated for the filter order n . `macsd` is the inner part of the fir filter, which replicates the code $\langle size-1 \rangle$ times and omits the accumulation for the first loop, because the multiplication result is already stored in the accumulator register. That avoids additional instructions to clear this register.

```
.macro macsd    size                -- mac and shift data
nr            =    size-1
              ld.h    2*nr[r7],r6    -- data
              ld.h    2*nr[r8],r10   -- coefficient
              mulh    r6,r10         -- multiply
.rept    size-1
nr            =    nr-1
              ld.h    2*nr[r7],r6    -- data
.if (nr <(size-2))
              add     r9,r10         -- accumulate result
.endif
              ld.h    2*nr[r8],r9    -- coefficient
              st.h    r6,2*(nr+1)[r7]-- upshift
              mulh    r6,r9         -- multiply
.endr
.endm
```

`firsp` is the outer part of the filter and it is the only macro that is called by the user. `fir` implements the initialization of the registers, the accumulation of the results from the final multiplication and the scaling of the result.

```
.macro firsp    filter,sample,size,scale
-- speed optimized version
mov    filter,r7                -- get address of FILTER struct
ld.w   filter_coeff[r7],r8       -- get address of coefficients to r8
ld.w   filter_data[r7],r7       -- get address of data to r7
st.h   sample,0[r7]            -- store new sample

macsd    size
add     r9,r10                  -- accumulate result from last mult.
satsubi -(1<<(scale-1)),r10,r10-- for proper rounding
sar     scale,r10               -- scale the result
.endm
```

2.1.3 Improved speed optimized FIR (`firisp`)

The previously described speed optimized FIR version can even be improved by another 20% (4 clocks per filter order instead of 5 clocks). That improvement is achieved through hard coding the coefficients into the instructions, i.e. taking `mulhi` instead of the `mulh` instruction. Using the coefficient as immediate operand saves the load instruction and hence one clock cycle. It might be a disadvantage in some applications, that the coefficients are no longer stored in the data memory. That prevents the dynamic update of coefficients in the case of adaptive filters. Therefore we have analysed both kinds of speed optimized versions.

Also coding that version of a speed optimized filter is a little bit annoying because macro handling with the Green Hills macro assembler has its limitations. It does not support a variable number of parameters and therefore one cannot write a single macro for all filter orders. Therefore we have coded three different types of macros. `firisp_init` must be called first to initialize the subsequent macros. Its only parameter is the order of the filter. Any combination of `firisp` or `firisp_n` macros is used to issue the

Chapter 2 FIR Filter

instructions for the individual filter stage and finally `firisp_end` must be called to accumulate the final product and scale the result. A sample sequence of macro calls for a 48th order filter is shown below:

```
mov      _etp,r7          -- get address of FILTER struct
ld.w    filter_data[r7],r7 -- get address of data to r7

firisp_init  etp_size
firisp      16
firisp      -102
firisp      -223
firisp      -324
firisp      -307
firisp      -128
firisp      147
firisp      352
firisp_2    321, 21
firisp_2    -379, -584
firisp_2    -370, 215
firisp_2    805, 919
firisp_4    296, -821, -1705, -1500
firisp_4    252, 3233, 6391, 8416
firisp_8    8416, 6391, 3233, 252, -1500, -1705, -821, 296
firisp_16   919, 805, 215, -370, -584,-379, 21, 321,352, 147,
            -128, -307, -324, -223, -102, 16
firisp_end  etp_scale
```

`firisp`, `firisp_2`, `firisp_4`, `firisp_8` and `firisp_16` can be combined arbitrarily. The above sequence is just for demonstration and it is identical to:

```
mov      _etp,r7          -- get address of FILTER struct
ld.w    filter_data[r7],r7 -- get address of data to r7
firisp_init  etp_size
firisp_8    16, -102, -223, -324, -307, -128, 147, 352
firisp_8    321, 21, -379, -584, -370, 215, 805, 919
firisp_8    296, -821, -1705, -1500, 252, 3233, 6391, 8416
firisp_8    8416, 6391, 3233, 252, -1500, -1705, -821, 296
firisp_8    919, 805, 215, -370, -584,-379, 21, 321
firisp_8    352, 147, -128, -307, -324, -223, -102, 16
firisp_end  etp_scale
```

This sequence expects the input sample to be passed in `r6` and it returns the result in `r10` according to the Green Hills calling convention. Note that this code starts processing again from the end of the buffer. Therefore the coefficients must be specified in reverse order, which is normally no difference as they are symmetric.

Each `firisp` macro is resolved to the following code:

```
ld.h    2*nr[r7],r6      -- data
add     r9,r10           -- accumulate result
st.h    r6,2*(nr+1)[r7] -- upshift
mulhi   coeff,r6,r9     -- multiply
```

As an exception, the first macro uses `r10` for the multiplication result and the second one omits the add instruction.

Chapter 2 FIR Filter

The following table lists the execution times and the code sizes of the previously described FIR filter implementations:

implementation		Speed [number of clocks]	Code size [byte]
firsz	V850 core	$11*n+k+1$	$72+2*k+2*m$
	V850E core	$10*n+k+1$	$70+2*k+2*m$
firsp	V850 core	$5*n+12$	$16*n+18$
	V850E core	$5*n+8$	$16*n+16$
firisp	V850 core	$4*n+9$	$14*n+18$
	V850E core	$4*n+9$	$14*n+16$

Remark: n is the filter order. $n > 1$.
 k is an adder for the alignment: $k=0$ if no alignment required, $k=1$ if alignment is required
 m compensates for size dependent optimization: if $n < 17$: $m = 0$; if $n \geq 17$: $m = 1$

The data sizes are not specified in the above table. One halfword per filter order is required to store the samples and another halfword for the coefficients. The FILTER structure is 16 bytes long and it is required once per filter. The improved speed optimized implementation requires only the storage for the samples.

Finally we should explain why we have not used one of the most obvious optimization techniques, taking advantage of the symmetry of the coefficients. FIR filter coefficients are usually symmetric to their center, i.e. $c[0]=c[n-1]$, $c[1]=c[n-2]$ and so on. Therefore one can first add the data and then multiply it with the coefficient ($(d[0]+d[n-1])*c[0]$, $(d[1]+d[n-2])*c[1]$, ...). That saves half of the multiplications and half of the coefficient space.

There are two problems, however, with this algorithm, overflows and ring buffer handling. With 16-bit data we might generate an overflow as the result of the addition is 17-bits wide, but the subsequent multiplication is 16-bit*16-bit. One could scale the input data to 15-bit but that decreases its signal to noise ratio by 6dB. Difficult ring buffer handling seems to be the major drawback of this symmetry optimization. While filtering, we move the data upward through the buffer, which works well, because the previous data may be overwritten. That is not true, if we start from both ends of the buffer. We could move up only the upper half and when finished move only the remaining data upward. Such a loop cannot be optimized very well, because the pipeline will often stall while waiting for the data. The advantage of such an algorithm seems to be negligible also due to the fact, that a multiplication on the V850/V850E takes only one clock cycle.

Chapter 3 Special Versions of FIR Filters

3.1 Interpolation Filter

Interpolation filters are required when the sampling frequency of a signal is increased, i.e. the signal is up-sampled. Up-sampling is generally achieved by inserting samples with the value zero between the original sample. For two-times up-sampling, one would insert zero between every other original sample. Doing so, one gets twice as many samples, as originally. The frequency spectrum, however, contains the original frequency, but also its alias frequencies left and right of the original sampling frequency. When up-sampling an original 3 kHz signal sampled by 16 kHz to 32 kHz by this method, one gets frequency components at 3 kHz, 13 kHz, 19 kHz and 29 kHz.

The unwanted frequencies above 3 kHz can be easily filtered by a low pass FIR filter as described above. The effect of that low pass filter in the time domain is an interpolation of the original samples. Therefore this kind of filter is called an interpolation filter.

For the specific purpose of interpolation, the FIR filter can be significantly optimized, because every second sample is zero and therefore the respective multiplication result is also zero. We have redesigned the FIR filter macro to take that into account.

Interpolation filters are usually of relatively low order (4~16) and the filter parameters are fixed, i.e. adaptive filters are not required. Therefore we have only implemented the improved speed version with coefficients encoded as immediate values. In theory, up-sampling is possible by any integral multiple. The practical limitation is the size of the interpolation filter, however. The filter must at least cover two original samples and therefore the filter size increases with increasing up-sampling ratio. The example below is made for a ratio of two. Other ratios could be easily derived. The filter order must be even.

```

.macro    ipf2_init    size
-- initialize interpolation filter
-- *** FIRST macro for initialization ***
nr       =            (size/2)-1
order    =            size
init     =            1
.endm

.macro ipf2    coeff2,coeff1    -- issued once per two coefficients
-- Interpolation filter
-- note that we start from the top, so the coefficients must be reversed
-- (which is normally no difference as they are symmetric)
-- if (init == 1): r6 = sample; r7 = *data, r8 and r9 are temporary
register
-- if (init!= 1): r10 and r11 = accumulator; r7 = *data, r6, r8 and r9 are
temporary registers
-- r10 and r11 return first and second interpolated samples
.if (init == 1)
.if (order != 2)
    st.h    r6,0[r7]        -- store new sample
    ld.h    2*nr[r7],r6    -- data
.endif
    mulhi   coeff1,r6,r10   -- multiply
    mulhi   coeff2,r6,r11   -- multiply
firstm =    1
.endif
.if (init != 1)
nr       =    nr-1
    ld.h    2*nr[r7],r6    -- data
.if (firstm != 1)
    add     r8,r10          -- accumulate result
    add     r9,r11          -- accumulate result
.endif
    st.h    r6,2*(nr+1)[r7]-- upshift
    mulhi   coeff1,r6,r8    -- multiply
    mulhi   coeff2,r6,r9    -- multiply
firstm =    0
.endif
init     =    0
.endm

.macro ipf2_endscale    -- wrap up for interpolation filter
.if (order != 2)
    add     r8,r10          -- accumulate result
    add     r9,r11          -- accumulate result
.endif
    satsubi-(1<<(scale-1)),r10,r10-- for proper rounding
    satsubi-(1<<(scale-1)),r11,r11-- for proper rounding
    sar     scale,r10        -- return first sample in r10
    sar     scale,r11        -- return second sample in r11
.endm

```

Chapter 3 Special Versions of FIR Filters

The interpolation filter takes one sample as input value in register r6 and it returns two samples in the register pair r10 and r11. Multiple interpolation filters can be cascaded for higher up-sampling ratios.

As with the improved speed optimized version before, we have to issue three different macros for one interpolation filter. Here is an example for up-sampling by eight:

```
-- 1st interpolation
ld.h    zdaoff(_s0i)[r0],r6    -- get filter input value
mov     _fi1,r7                -- get address of FILTER struct
ld.w    filter_data[r7],r7    -- get address of data to r7
ipf2_init 12
ipf2_10  -578, -1986, 68, 11061, 24131, 24131, 11061, 68, -1986, -578
ipf2_end 15
st.h    r10,zdaoff(_s1i)+0[r0]
st.h    r11,zdaoff(_s1i)+2[r0]

-- 2nd interpolation
mov     2,r14                  -- loop counter for upsampling
mov     0,r13                  -- source sample index
mov     0,r15                  -- destination sample index

upsample2:
ld.h    zdaoff(_s1i)[r13],r6   -- get filter input value
mov     _fi2,r7                -- get address of FILTER struct
ld.w    filter_data[r7],r7    -- get address of data to r7
ipf2_init 8
ipf2_8  197, 2781, 10567, 19222, 19222, 10567, 2781, 197
ipf2_end 15
st.h    r10,zdaoff(_s2i)+0[r15]
st.h    r11,zdaoff(_s2i)+2[r15]

add     2,r13                  -- address next short element in array
add     4,r15
add     -1,r14
bnz     upsample2

-- 3rd interpolation
mov     4,r14                  -- loop counter for upsampling
mov     0,r13                  -- source sample index
mov     0,r15                  -- destination sample index

upsample3:
ld.h    zdaoff(_s2i)[r13],r6   -- get filter input value
mov     _fi3,r7                -- get address of FILTER struct
ld.w    filter_data[r7],r7    -- get address of data to r7
ipf2_init 8
ipf2_8  -950, -691, 9400, 25008, 25008, 9400, -691, -950
ipf2_end 15
st.h    r10,zdaoff(_s3i)+0[r15]
st.h    r11,zdaoff(_s3i)+2[r15]
```

The ipf2 macro takes 2 coefficients. For better readability, we have defined macros ipf2_n, with n={2,4,6,8,10,12,14,16}, that take more coefficients. The intermediate values are stored in the arrays s1i, s2i and s3i.

The following table lists the execution times and the sizes of the previously described interpolation filter:

implementation		Speed [number of clocks]	Size [byte]
ipf2	V850 core	n=2: 6 n>2: 6*n/2+4	n=2: 20 n>2: 20*n/2+8
	V850E core	n=2: 6 n>2: 6*n/2+4	n=2: 20 n>2: 20*n/2+8

Remark: n is the filter order.
n must be an even number and higher than 1.

3.2 Averaging filter

A very simple version of an FIR filter is a filter of 2nd order where both coefficients are 0.5. Each sample is divided by 2 and the result is accumulated, which is nothing else than the average of both samples. Therefore this filter is often called an averaging filter. Very low frequencies (compared to the sampling frequency) pass this filter very well, because subsequent samples are not much different anyway. The frequency $f_s/2$ is totally suppressed, because subsequent samples have opposite values and cancel out. Frequencies in the vicinity of $f_s/2$ are still attenuated to a degree that depends on their offset from $f_s/2$.

The averaging filter is useful as an interpolation filter for higher frequencies, at which the aliases of the signal frequency come very close to $f_s/2$. Averaging filters are especially simple to implement in FPGAs, because a multiplier is not needed. The filter just adds two samples and shifts the result right by one bit.

For the purpose of up-sampling by two, two averaging filters can be cascaded very easily. As described above, every other sample is zero and therefore the first averaging filter just duplicates the original samples. That is no computation task at all and it is performed implicitly. The second averaging filter calculates the average values for subsequent samples. Implementing an averaging filter for interpolation in software for the V850 is very simple, as this macro demonstrates:

```
.macro ipfa    data,old
-- Averaging interpolation filter
-- data = sample, old = pointer to old sample
-- r10 and r11 return first and second interpolated samples
    ld.h    0[old],r10    -- get previous sample
    st.h    data,0[old]  -- save current sample
    add     data,r10      -- sum old and current
    sar     1,r10         -- generate average
    mov     data,r11     -- second sample is original sample
.endm
```

This macro gets one sample and generates two samples, the first one in r10 and the second one in r11. Therefore it up-samples by two and low pass filters the output.

implementation		Speed [number of clocks]	Size [byte]
ipfa	V850 core	5	14
	V850E core	5	14

3.3 Hilbert Transformation

A Hilbert transform is used for 90° phase shifting of an input signal. It is a special case of an FIR filter: it has an odd number of coefficients and every second coefficient is zero. The coefficients are anti-symmetric, which means that a coefficient on the left side has a counterpart of equal magnitude but reversed sign on the right side. One could use the above FIR programs to run a Hilbert transformation, but the special properties call for some more sophisticated optimization techniques.

The most obvious is based on the fact that every second coefficient is zero. The respective multiplication and addition can therefore be skipped. The number of mac cycles is so reduced to $(n-1)/2$. Unfortunately all data samples need to be shifted in the ring buffer and not just those whose coefficient is zero. Taking advantage of the anti-symmetry is again not possible for the same reasons as with the FIR filter. Even though the data samples have to be subtracted and not added before multiplication, we may generate an over- or underflow and therefore we would need 17-bits.

Again we have implemented space and speed optimized versions, which are shown below.

3.3.1 Space optimized Hilbert transformation (hilbsz)

The code for the Hilbert transformation is based on the code for the FIR filter. Therefore please refer to the FIR filter description at page 8.

Here is a listing of the hilbsz macro:

```
.macro hilbsz filter,sample,size,scale
-- size optimized version of Hilbert transformation
    mov     filter,r7           -- get address of FILTER struct
    mov     (size-3)/2,r12      -- get loop count
    ld.w    filter_coeff[r7],r8 -- get address of coefficients to r8
    ld.w    filter_data[r7],r7  -- get address of data to r7
    addi    2*(size-5),r8,r8    -- we start from the end
    st.h    sample,0[r7]       -- store new sample
    addi    2*(size-5),r7,r7    -- we start from the end

    ld.h    2*2+2[r8],r10       -- coefficient
    ld.h    2*2+2[r7],r6        -- data
    ld.h    2*2[r7],r11         -- data
    st.h    r6,2*2+4[r7]        -- shift up
    mulh    r6,r10              -- multiply
    st.h    r11,2*2+2[r7]      -- shift up
    ld.h    2[r7],r6            -- data
    .align  4

1:
    ld.h    0[r7],r11           -- data
    ld.h    2[r8],r9            -- coefficient
    st.h    r6,4[r7]           -- shift up
    mulh    r6,r9              -- multiply
    st.h    r11,2[r7]          -- shift up
    add     -4,r7               -- next data (go down)
    add     -4,r8               -- next coefficient (go down)
    add     r9,r10              -- accumulate result
    add     -1,r12              -- loop counter
    ld.h    2[r7],r6            -- data
    bne     1b                  -- branch back while not finished
    satsubi -(1<<(scale-1)),r10,r10 -- for proper rounding
    sar     scale,r10           -- scale the result
.endm
```

3.3.2 Speed optimized Hilbert transformation (hilbsp)

The code for the speed optimized Hilbert transformation is based on the code for the speed optimized FIR filter. Therefore please refer to the FIR filter description at page 9.

Here is a listing of the hilbsp macro:

```
.macro hilbsp filter,sample,size,scale
-- speed optimized version of Hilbert transformation
    mov    filter,r7          -- get address of FILTER struct
    ld.w   filter_coeff[r7],r8 -- get address of coefficients to r8
    ld.w   filter_data[r7],r7 -- get address of data to r7
    st.h   sample,0[r7]      -- store new sample

nr    =    size-3
    ld.h   2*nr[r7],r11       -- data
    ld.h   2*nr+2[r7],r6     -- data
    ld.h   2*nr+2[r8],r10    -- coefficient
    st.h   r6,2*nr+4[r7]    -- shift up
    mulh   r6,r10           -- multiply
    st.h   r11,2*nr+2[r7]   -- shift up
nr    =    nr-2
.rept  (size-3)/2
    ld.h   2*nr[r7],r11     -- data
    ld.h   2*nr+2[r7],r6   -- data
    ld.h   2*nr+2[r8],r9   -- coefficient
    st.h   r6,2*nr+4[r7]   -- shift up
    mulh   r6,r9           -- multiply
    st.h   r11,2*nr+2[r7]  -- shift up
    add    r9,r10          -- accumulate result
nr    =    nr-2
.endr
    satsubi -(1<<(scale-1)),r10,r10-- for proper rounding
    sar    scale,r10       -- scale the result
.endm
```

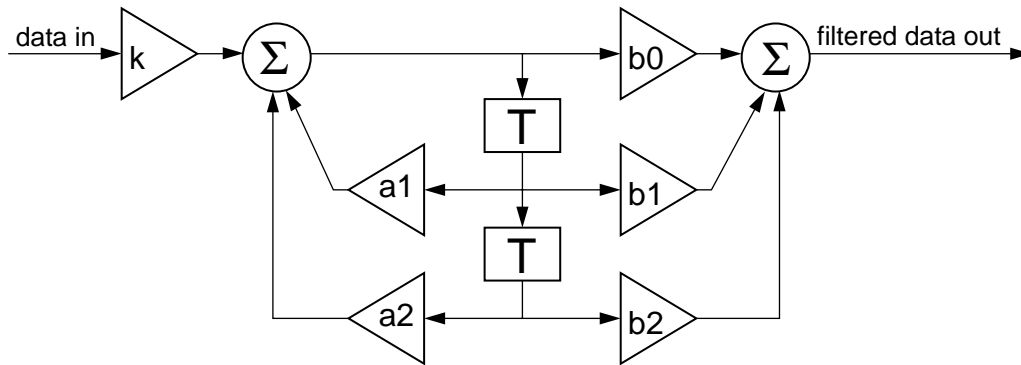
implementation		Speed [number of clocks]	Size [byte]
hilbsz	V850 core	$13*(n-3)/2+16+k$	$92+2*k+2*m$
	V850E core	$12*(n-3)/2+16+k$	$90+2*k+2*m$
hilbsp	V850 core	$7*(n-1)/2+10$	$24*(n-1)/2+22$
	V850E core	$7*(n-1)/2+8$	$24*(n-1)/2+20$

Remark: n is the filter order. $n > 1$.
k is an adder for the alignment: $k=0$ if no alignment required, $k=1$ if alignment is required
m compensates for size dependent optimization: if $n < 35$: $m = 0$; if $n \geq 35$: $m = 1$

Chapter 4 IIR Filter

IIR filters are implemented in their direct form 2 as depicted below^{Note}.

Figure 4-1: IIR Filter



Note: We have selected to implement the direct form 2 instead of direct form 1, because it requires less storage elements and therefore it makes buffer handling much simpler. It reduces the number of memory read/write operations as well as the required memory size.

The above structure is a 2nd order IIR filter. By choosing zero for a_2 and b_2 , the filter reduces to a 1st order IIR filter. IIR filters of higher order are usually implemented by cascading such 1st and 2nd order IIR blocks. Higher order blocks are still possible, but they become unpractical to design and to implement so that they are stable. To keep things simple, we have implemented and benchmarked code for the above building blocks. The macros can be easily cascaded for higher order filters. The execution times and code sizes can simply be added.

As an IIR filter block is rather small compared to a lengthy FIR filter, it is not useful to implement it in a space optimized structure. Therefore we have only generated one version each for the 1st order and for the 2nd order block, which are speed optimized and which do not contain any branches.

Intermediate results in an IIR filter chain have to be truncated to avoid overflows. In order to compensate for DC offsets, the values are properly rounded before being truncated.

Chapter 4 IIR Filter

Two similar macros have been written for IIR filters, one for a first order block (iir1) and another one for a second order block (iir2). They both take the filter coefficients as immediate arguments. Here are the listings of these two macros:

```
.macro iir1    sample,data,scale,k,b1,b0,a1
-- 1st order IIR filter block
-- do not use r6, r7, r8 or r10 for data pointer
-- do not use r8 for input sample
-- output sample is returned in r10
    ld.h      0[data],r8
    mulhi     k,sample,r10        -- sample * k
    mulhi     -a1,r8,r6
    mulhi     b1,r8,r7
    satadd    r6,r10
    satsubi   -(1<<(scale-1)),r10,r10  -- for proper rounding
    sar       scale,r10
    st.h      r10,0[data]
    mulhi     b0,r10,r10
-- pipeline stall
    satadd    r7,r10
    satsubi   -(1<<(scale-1)),r10,r10  -- for proper rounding
    sar       scale,r10          -- return result in r10
.endm

.macro iir2    sample,data,scale,k,b2,b1,b0,a2,a1
-- 2nd order IIR filter block
-- do not use r6, r7, r8, r9, r10 for data pointer
-- output sample is returned in r10
    mulhi     k,sample,r10        -- sample * k
    ld.h      2[data],r7
    ld.h      0[data],r8
    mulhi     -a2,r7,r9
    mulhi     -a1,r8,r6
    satadd    r9,r10
    st.h      r8,2[data]
    satadd    r6,r10
    mulhi     b2,r7,r6
    satsubi   -(1<<(scale-1)),r10,r10  -- for proper rounding
    sar       scale,r10
    mulhi     b1,r8,r9
    st.h      r10,0[data]
    mulhi     b0,r10,r10
    satadd    r6,r9
    satadd    r9,r10
    satsubi   -(1<<(scale-1)),r10,r10  -- for proper rounding
    sar       scale,r10          -- return result in r10
.endm
```

Chapter 4 IIR Filter

The IIR macros can be optimized almost to the same degree as the FIR macros. There is only one pipeline stall in the iir1 macro. Here are the benchmark results for the IIR filter blocks:

implementation		Speed [number of clocks]	Size [byte]
iir1	V850 core	13	40
	V850E core	13	40
iir2	V850 core	18	60
	V850E core	18	60

One additional instruction is required for each filter block to setup a pointer to the sample memory. It is not included in the above figures, so for cascading IIR filter blocks, it is necessary to add 1~2 clocks and 4~8 bytes per cascade. A sample cascade of two IIR filter blocks is shown below:

```
mov    iir_data_1a,r11    -- get address of data area
iir1   r6,r11,15,4251,16384,16384,-28516
mov    iir_data_2a,r11    -- get address of data area
iir2   r10,r11,14,2009,23277,-26861,23277,14629,-28597
```

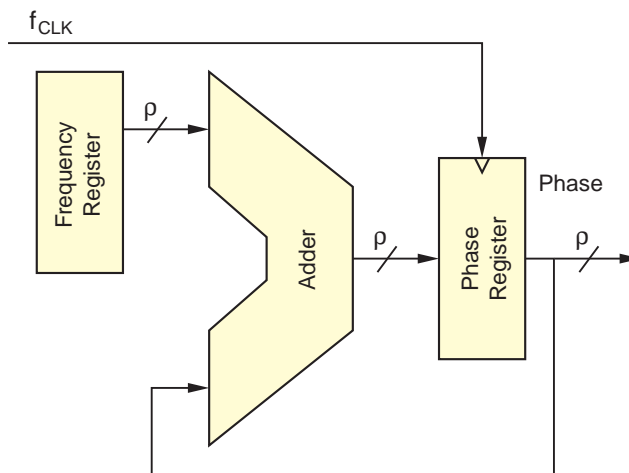
The mov instruction is resolved to a native instruction on the V850E core, while a movhi and a movea instruction is issued in case of a V850 core.

Chapter 5 Digital Synthesis of Analogue Signals

According to Fourier, any analogue signal can be synthesized by additive mixing of its spectral components, which are sine and cosine waves. Therefore, if we can generate sine and cosine waves of arbitrary frequencies, we can generate an analogue signal of any complexity simply by adding these components.

A simple way to digitally generate a sine or cosine signal, is direct digital synthesis (DDS). That means that we calculate the function $y = \sin(\omega t)$ or $y = \cos(\omega t)$ for every discrete time t . As both functions are repetitive for every integral multiple of 2π , the function arguments can be generated by an accumulator of finite bit size ρ , which overflows at 2π . This phase accumulator is the fundamental building block of a direct digital synthesizer:

Figure 5-1: Phase Accumulator



The frequency register must be initialized with the proper phase increment φ to generate the required frequency f . It depends on the sampling clock f_{CLK} according to the following equation:

$$\varphi = (2^{\rho} * f) / f_{\text{CLK}}$$

- φ : phase increment
- ρ : accumulator bit size
- f : output frequency
- f_{CLK} : sampling frequency

In the subsequent step, the arguments generated by the phase accumulator, have to be translated to the sine or cosine function values. This could be done by using the $\sin()$ and $\cos()$ library functions, which are provided from the C runtime library. They return very precise float values, but they take a rather long time to execute. Therefore one usually uses ROM lookup tables to quickly return the result of the trigonometric function.

Two rather simple tricks can be applied to keep the lookup table as small as possible and still provide very precise results. As sine and cosine have symmetric function values, one only needs to store a quarter of a full wave and derive the other three quarters from this one. The second trick is to interpolate the function values if the argument does not exactly match with the lookup table entry. Linear interpolation between two entries from the lookup table does an excellent job. Even though the result is occasionally not precise to the bit, it is much better than without any interpolation.

Chapter 5 Digital Synthesis of Analogue Signals

The high order bits from the phase register serve as address input for the lookup table, while the lower bits are the weighing factor to calculate the interpolated value. Here is the code to generate a sine wave:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include `mytype.h`
#include `Wavelib.h`

/*
+-----+
|           Defines           |
+-----+
*/
#define WEIGHT_SIZE 8          /* number of bits for interpolation
                               weight factor */
#define OUTPUTFILE `sine.wav` /* name of output file */
#define SAMPLINGFREQ 8000     /* sampling frequency for output file */
#define FREQUENCY 1333        /* frequency of output signal */
#define NUMBEROFSAMPLES 20000 /* size of output file */

/*
+-----+
|           global variables   |
+-----+
*/
/* ROM Sine Table: 1/4 = 256 entries */

#define BPS 16                 /* bits per sample */
#define LDTS 8                 /* log duals of table size */
#define TS (1<<LDTS)          /* table size */

_SWORD static table[TS] = {
    0,    201,    402,    603,    804,    1005,    1206,    1407,
    1608,    1809,    2009,    2210,    2410,    2611,    2811,    3012,
    3212,    3412,    3612,    3811,    4011,    4210,    4410,    4609,
    4808,    5007,    5205,    5404,    5602,    5800,    5998,    6195,
    6393,    6590,    6786,    6983,    7179,    7375,    7571,    7767,
    7962,    8157,    8351,    8545,    8739,    8933,    9126,    9319,
    9512,    9704,    9896,    10087,    10278,    10469,    10659,    10849,
    11039,    11228,    11417,    11605,    11793,    11980,    12167,    12353,
    12539,    12725,    12910,    13094,    13279,    13462,    13645,    13828,
    14010,    14191,    14372,    14553,    14732,    14912,    15090,    15269,
    15446,    15623,    15800,    15976,    16151,    16325,    16499,    16673,
    16846,    17018,    17189,    17360,    17530,    17700,    17869,    18037,
    18204,    18371,    18537,    18703,    18868,    19032,    19195,    19357,
    19519,    19680,    19841,    20000,    20159,    20317,    20475,    20631,
    20787,    20942,    21096,    21250,    21403,    21554,    21705,    21856,
    22005,    22154,    22301,    22448,    22594,    22739,    22884,    23027,
    23170,    23311,    23452,    23592,    23731,    23870,    24007,    24143,
    24279,    24413,    24547,    24680,    24811,    24942,    25072,    25201,
    25329,    25456,    25582,    25708,    25832,    25955,    26077,    26198,
    26319,    26438,    26556,    26674,    26790,    26905,    27019,    27133,
    27245,    27356,    27466,    27575,    27683,    27790,    27896,    28001,
    28105,    28208,    28310,    28411,    28510,    28609,    28706,    28803,
    28898,    28992,    29085,    29177,    29268,    29358,    29447,    29534,
    29621,    29706,    29791,    29874,    29956,    30037,    30117,    30195,
    30273,    30349,    30424,    30498,    30571,    30643,    30714,    30783,
```

Chapter 5 Digital Synthesis of Analogue Signals

```
30852, 30919, 30985, 31050, 31113, 31176, 31237, 31297,
31356, 31414, 31470, 31526, 31580, 31633, 31685, 31736,
31785, 31833, 31880, 31926, 31971, 32014, 32057, 32098,
32137, 32176, 32213, 32250, 32285, 32318, 32351, 32382,
32412, 32441, 32469, 32495, 32521, 32545, 32567, 32589,
32609, 32628, 32646, 32663, 32678, 32692, 32705, 32717,
32728, 32737, 32745, 32752, 32757, 32761, 32765, 32766
    } ;

/*
+-----+
|           Function prototypes           |
+-----+
*/
int main(int argc, char **argv, char **envp) ;
_SWORD get_amplitude(_LONG *phase, _LONG freq) ;
_SWORD get_from_table(_WORD index) ;

/*
+-----+
|           int main(int argc, char **argv, char **envp)           |
+-----+
|
| Main program
|
+-----+
*/
int main(int argc, char **argv, char **envp)
{
_WFILE *outputfile ;      /* output file */
_SLONG sample ;
_WORD i, index ;
_LONG phase ;           /* phase */
_LONG phi ;             /* phase increment */
    outputfile = wfcreate((char *) OUTPUTFILE, 16, 1, (_LONG) SAMPLINGFREQ) ;
    if (outputfile != NULL)
    {
        index = 0 ;
        phase = 0 ;
        phi = ((long long) FREQUENCY * (long long) 0x100000000) / SAMPLINGFREQ ;

        for (i=0; i<NUMBEROFSAMPLES; i++)
        {
            sample = get_amplitude(&phase, phi) ;
            wfputsample(&sample, outputfile) ;
        }

        wfclose(outputfile) ;
    }
    return(0);
}
```

```

/*
+-----+
|      _SWORD get_amplitude(_LONG *phase, _LONG freq)      |
+-----+
| Return amplitude for current phase and update phase.     |
+-----+
*/
_SWORD get_amplitude(_LONG *phase, _LONG freq)
{
_WORD index ;
_SWORD val, val1, val2 ;
_LONG weight ;
    index = (_WORD) (*phase >> (32 - (LDTS + 2))) ; /* +2 because of quarter
                                                    sine table */

    val1 = get_from_table(index) ;
    val2 = get_from_table(index+1) ;
    weight = *phase >> (32 - (LDTS + 2 + WEIGHT_SIZE)) ;
    weight = weight & ((1<<WEIGHT_SIZE) - 1) ;
    val = val1 + (_SWORD) (((val2 - val1) * (_SLONG) weight)
                          / (_SLONG) (1<<WEIGHT_SIZE)) ;
    *phase = *phase + freq ;
    return(val) ;
}

/*
+-----+
|      _SWORD get_from_table(_WORD index)                  |
+-----+
| Return amplitude for current index.                      |
+-----+
*/
_SWORD get_from_table(_WORD index)
{
_WORD quarter ;
_SWORD val ;
    index = index & ((1<<(LDTS+2)) - 1) ;
    quarter = index >> LDTS ;
    index = index & ((1<<LDTS) - 1) ;
    switch (quarter)
    {
        case 0: /* first quarter; take value as is */
            val = table[index] ;
            break ;

        case 1: /* second quarter; take max or table[TS-index] */
            if (index == 0)
                val = (1<<(BPS-1)) - 1 ; /* max positive value */
            else
                val = table[TS-index] ;
            break ;

        case 2: /* third quarter; take value and make negative */
            val = -table[index] ;
    }
}

```

```
break ;

case 3: /* fourth quarter; as second, but negative */
if (index == 0)
    val = -((1<<(BPS-1)) - 1) ; /* max positive value */
else
    val = -table[TS-index] ;
break ;
}
return(val) ;
}
```

We use a set of functions to generate a wave file (wfccreate, wfputsample, wfcclose), which can then be analyzed with a suitable program. As described earlier, we have used CoolEdit (www.cooledit.com) for this task.

For convenience on a 32-bit architecture we use a phase accumulator of 32-bit size. For a sampling rate of 44.1 kHz, we can thus get a resolution of about 10 μ Hz, which seems like overkill, because a phase accumulator of 16-bit would already give us a resolution of less than 1 Hz. On the other hand, a 16-bit accumulator would not have any advantage other than saving two bytes for the phase and two bytes for the increment.

get_amplitude() is a function that calculates the amplitude for the current phase and updates the phase value thereafter. get_amplitude() calls get_from_table twice to retrieve the two neighbour grid points and then it performs the linear interpolation using the weighing factor from the lower bits of the phase value.

An example for the DDS is found in the appendix, where this function is used to generate a DTMF signal.

Chapter 6 Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)

The FFT is a special implementation of the Discrete Fourier Transform. Both the DFT and the FFT are used to determine the spectral components of a signal, i.e. they transform a signal from the time domain into the frequency domain. The DFT is computationally costly, as it requires N^2 complex multiplications and $N*(N-1)$ complex additions. It also requires large memory tables to store N^2 values for the sine and cosine. N is the number of input samples and it is also the number of spectral lines at the output.

The effort to solve the DFT can be simplified, if $\text{ld}(N)$ is an integer number, i.e. $N = 2^m$. The total number of complex multiplications is then reduced to $N*m$, which is much less than N^2 , especially for higher N . N is usually in the order of 64 to 1024, but sometimes even much higher than that.

This application note will not cover the principles of the DFT or the FFT. There are many good books^{Note 1} on these topics and also a lot of internet resources^{Note 2}. Here is a quote from "The Scientist and Engineer's Guide to Digital Signal Processing": "While the FFT only requires a few dozen lines of code, it is one of the most complicated algorithms in DSP. But don't despair! You can easily use published FFT routines without fully understanding the internal workings." We have taken this remark seriously and have only implemented and tested the algorithm.

The FFT algorithm is subdivided into three blocks, the initialization of the sine and cosine tables, resorting of the input samples and execution of the fundamental butterfly operations. Optionally a windowing function can be applied before the samples are reshuffled and often the complex output samples need to be transformed into magnitude samples.

Here is the C-language source code for the FFT:

```
/*
+-----+
|          Defines          |
+-----+
*/
#define      LDORDER      10    /* ld(ORDER) */
#define      ORDER        (1<<LDORDER) /* order of FFT */
#define      PI            3.14159265359

#ifdef WINDOW
#define      WSCALE        8192.0
#else
#define      WSCALE        16384.0
#endif

/*
+-----+
|          Function prototypes          |
+-----+
*/
int main(int argc, char **argv, char **envp) ;
```

- Notes:**
1. For example: „Digitale Signalverarbeitung in der Nachrichtentechnik“ from Peter Gerdson and Peter Kroeger, Springer Verlag, ISBN 3-540-61194-0
 2. See <http://www.dspguide.com/> for the book "The Scientist and Engineer's Guide to Digital Signal Processing"


```

/*
+-----+
|          int main(int argc, char **argv, char **envp)          |
+-----+
| Main program                                                    |
+-----+
*/
int main(int argc, char **argv, char **envp)
{
unsigned int i, j, k, m, r, ar, v ;
signed int z1, z2, z3, z4 ;
signed int xr, xi, yr, yi ;
signed int static fr[ORDER], fi[ORDER] ;           /* I&Q samples */
float static fm[ORDER] ;                          /* magnitude samples */
signed int static zr[ORDER], zi[ORDER] ;          /* I&Q frequencies */
signed short static sint[ORDER], cost[ORDER] ;    /* sine and cosine tables */
unsigned short static br[ORDER] ;                 /* resorting table */
float frs, fis ;
#ifdef WINDOW
signed int ampl ;
#endif

/* initialize sin and cos tables */
for (i=0; i<ORDER; i++)
{
sint[i] = (signed short) (sin(i * 2 * PI / ORDER) * 32767) ;
cost[i] = (signed short) (cos(i * 2 * PI / ORDER) * 32767) ;
}

/* initialize resorting tables for bit-reversal */
for (i=0; i<ORDER; i++)
{
k = 0 ;
for (j=0; j<LDORDER; j++)
{
k |= (1<(i>>j))<<(LDORDER-j-1) ;
}
br[i] = (unsigned short) k ;
}

/* for testing, we generate the samples which we will subsequently analyze */
for (i=0; i<ORDER; i++)
{
/* sample signal: frequency=6    amplitude=80%    phase shift  0°
frequency=19  amplitude=10%    phase shift  90°
frequency=35  amplitude= 7%    phase shift 180°
frequency=48  amplitude= 3%    phase shift 270° */
zr[i] = ((signed int) ( 0.80 * cos(6.0 * i * 2 * PI / ORDER) * 32767)
+ (signed int) (-0.10 * sin(19.0 * i * 2 * PI / ORDER) * 32767)
+ (signed int) (-0.07 * cos(35.0 * i * 2 * PI / ORDER) * 32767)
+ (signed int) ( 0.03 * sin(48.0 * i * 2 * PI / ORDER) * 32767)) ;
zi[i] = ((signed int) ( 0.80 * sin(6.0 * i * 2 * PI / ORDER) * 32767)
+ (signed int) ( 0.10 * cos(19.0 * i * 2 * PI / ORDER) * 32767)
+ (signed int) (-0.07 * sin(35.0 * i * 2 * PI / ORDER) * 32767)
+ (signed int) (-0.03 * cos(48.0 * i * 2 * PI / ORDER) * 32767)) ;
}
}

```

```

    }

#ifdef WINDOW
/* apply triangular window */
for (i=0; i<ORDER; i++)
{
    if (i < ORDER/2)
        ampl = i ;
    else
        ampl = ORDER - i - 1 ;
    zr[i] = (2*zr[i]*ampl)/ORDER ;
    zi[i] = (2*zi[i]*ampl)/ORDER ;
}
#endif

/* resort input samples */
for (i=0; i<ORDER; i++)
{
    fr[i] = zr[br[i]] ;
    fi[i] = zi[br[i]] ;
}

/* FFT butterfly operations */
for (m=1; m<=LDORDER; m++)
{
    for (i=0; i<(1<<(LDORDER-m)); i++)
    {
        for (j=0; j<(1<<(m-1)); j++)
        {
            r = j + i * (1<<m) ;
            ar = j * (ORDER>>m) ;
            v = 1<<(m-1) ;
            z1 = (cost[ar] * (fr[r+v]/(1<<(m-1))))/(1<<16-m) ;
            z2 = (cost[ar] * (fi[r+v]/(1<<(m-1))))/(1<<16-m) ;
            z3 = (sint[ar] * (fr[r+v]/(1<<(m-1))))/(1<<16-m) ;
            z4 = (sint[ar] * (fi[r+v]/(1<<(m-1))))/(1<<16-m) ;
            xr = fr[r] + z1 + z4 ;
            xi = fi[r] - z3 + z2 ;
            yr = fr[r] - z1 - z4 ;
            yi = fi[r] + z3 - z2 ;
            fr[r] = xr ;
            fi[r] = xi ;
            fr[r+v] = yr ;
            fi[r+v] = yi ;
        }
    }
}

/* calculate the magnitudes and normalize to 1 */
for (i=0; i<ORDER; i++)
{
    frs = (float) fr[i] * (float) fr[i] ;
    fis = (float) fi[i] * (float) fi[i] ;
    fm[i] = (sqrt(frs+fis)/ORDER) / WSCALE ;
}

return(0) ;
}

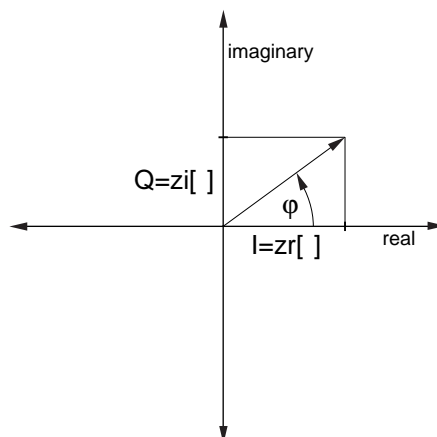
```

The above code is based on sample Pascal code, which was published in „Digitale Signalverarbeitung in der Nachrichtentechnik“. The code is surprisingly small, but nonetheless not straightforward to understand. In this chapter we will merely describe the functional blocks and refer the inclined reader to the previously mentioned resources for further details.

ORDER defines the number of points for the FFT and LDORDER is the log2 of ORDER. A simple triangular windowing function is applied, if WINDOW is defined. Windowing changes the amplitude of the input signal and therefore also the magnitude of the spectral component. This is fixed by defining a different scaling factor WSCALE, depending on whether or not windowing is applied.

The main program initializes the sine and cosine tables and the resorting table for the bit-reversal. The sine and cosine tables are initialized by using the sin and cos functions of the C runtime library. That makes the program rather flexible for testing purpose. In embedded systems one will usually implement predefined tables to avoid the overhead of the trigonometric and floating point functions. Also the resorting table may be generated at compile time, even though the advantage may be negligible.

The next block generates the waveform, which the subsequent code analyzes. In a real system, the samples could come from the output of an I/Q mixer. Here one can play around with different frequency components, different amplitudes and different phases. In this example we have taken a mixture of four frequencies of different amplitude and phase shift. Make sure that none of the synthesized samples exceeds the range of the signed halfword data type (-32768...32767). $zr[]$ is the array for the real (inphase, I) samples and $zi[]$ holds the imaginary (quadrature, Q) samples as depicted in the image below.



The arrow moves counter-clockwise and its angular speed is the frequency of the signal, i.e. $2\pi/\text{sec}$ ($=360^\circ/\text{sec}$) is equal to 1 Hz. The phase of the signal is rather arbitrary, but it is commonly agreed, that an arrow starting at $I=1$ and $Q=0$ has a phase shift of zero degrees.

The next block of code applies the optional triangular windowing function to the input data and subsequently resorts the input samples as required by the FFT algorithm.

The FFT butterfly operations finally transform the signal from the time domain into the frequency domain. The complex nature of the input signal is preserved, i.e. the result of the FFT has maintained the phase information. That is demonstrated in the sample code by using four different frequency components, each of which has a phase that is shifted by 90 degrees.

For optimum signal to noise ratio, it is important to keep the intermediate results as precise as possible, while preventing overflows. The samples and the trigonometric tables are 16-bit signed halfword data types and the intermediate results are stored in 32-bit signed words. Even though the trigonometric tables store the function values in integer numbers between -32767 and 32767, these are really frac-

tions of $1/32767$, as the real function values range from -1 to 1. Therefore the results of the multiplication with the trigonometric values have to be divided by 32767. Dividing through a power of two is most easily done with a right shift operation, but unfortunately 32767 is not a power of two. We accept the small error and divide through 32768, which is done by a 16-bit right shift operation. Even after 16 iterations for a 64k FFT, the accumulated error remains below 0.1% but we keep in mind that there is such an error.

As the intermediate results quickly grow larger than halfwords, we have to scale them before the multiplication, so that the multiplication result always fits into a 32-bit word. This scaling is an art in itself. Scaling too much will lose too many significant bits and decrease the signal to noise ratio, scaling too little may generate overflows and so make the results unusable. The best approach would certainly be to implement 64-bit arithmetic and entirely avoid scaling before multiplication. Sometimes it is possible to check the numbers before the multiplication, at the expense of CPU time, and scale them just as much as necessary. The simplest and fastest implementation scales the result as much as necessary under worst case conditions. That is what we have done in the code that is shown above.

All multiplication results are effectively divided by 32768, but part of that division is done before the multiplication and the other part thereafter. It is probably difficult by analysis to find the rate at which the intermediate results grow. Empirically we have found that they grow to less than double their value in each iteration loop. Therefore we divide by 2^{m-1} before the multiplication and by $32768/2^{m-1}$ thereafter, m being the outer loop counter. This empiric relation needs to be verified with real data.

The last part of the code does not strictly belong to the FFT algorithm anymore. It calculates the vector length, i.e. the magnitude of the frequency component, from the I and Q samples.

6.1 FFT Benchmarks on V850

While it is possible to compile the above C-code for the V850, it is better to hand-optimize it. Therefore we have implemented the algorithm also in assembly language. This way we have achieved a much better execution time. The source code size of the assembler code is more than 300 lines and so it is not included here. It can be found in the file "fft.850" within the zip-file that can be downloaded from the NEC website along with this application note.

To measure the execution time, we have executed the code on a V850E/ME2 and on a V850E/ME3 device using internal code memory and internal or external data memory. The execution time includes re-sorting the input data and executing the butterfly operations. It does not include the windowing function or the calculation of the magnitudes.

Due to the limited size of the internal data memory, we can only run FFTs up to an order of 512 with internal memory. FFTs of larger order must use external memory. Therefore we have measured the execution times for both configurations.

Benchmark results for V850E/ME2 (ME3) (data and code in internal memory):

	FFT size					
	16	32	64	128	256	512
Assembler code number of clocks	2608 (2456)	6216 (5808)	14464 (13464)	33032 (30688)	74320 (68968)	165208 (153200)
C code number of clocks	9544 (9272)	23232 (23152)	55160 (54968)	128232 (125896)	296608 (290376)	662560 (648400)

Chapter 6 Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)

The ME3 code has been compiled with the E2-core compiler option. In all cases, the code was optimized for speed. As the table shows, the ME3 can only draw little advantage from its dual pipeline architecture. That is because much of the FFT algorithm is load and store and not arithmetic. Also many instructions depend on the result of the previous instruction. Such sequences cannot be efficiently distributed to two instruction pipelines.

The FFT needs a lot of data memory. It must store I and Q samples, intermediate values, sine and cosine tables and the re-sorting table. The intermediate values are of word type and the others are half-word type. The size of each table is the order of the FFT and so these tables alone require $18 \times \text{ORDER}$ bytes of RAM. Therefore an FFT with an order above 512 will not fit anymore into the 16 kB on-chip data RAM of a V850E/ME2. The /ME3 has a little more internal data memory and can handle an FFT up to 1024 points. For larger FFTs it is then necessary to move some or all of these tables into the external memory, which is SDRAM in the case of the V850E/ME2-ME3 test board. The ME3 can take advantage of its built-in data cache, as the results below demonstrate.

The following results apply for all the above mentioned tables mapped into the external SDRAM (stack and some global data is still in internal memory).

Benchmark results for V850E/ME2 (ME3) (code in internal memory, data in external SDRAM, data cache enabled for the ME3):

	FFT size					
	16	32	64	128	256	512
Assembler code number of clocks	5104 (3912)	12112 (8960)	28232 (20472)	67288 (46368)	183408 (104184)	514960 (235040)
C code number of clocks	10912 (9656)	26664 (23752)	63056 (56160)	148560 (128408)	390256 (295792)	957376 (668384)

	FFT size					
	1024	2048	4096	8192	16384	32768
Assembler code number of clocks	1193952 (561952)	2616448 (1748864)	5692160 (4480768)	12302848 (11254016)	26445312 (24237056)	56700928 (52024320)
C code number of clocks	2226816 (1522976)	4611968 (3819520)	10027520 (8963328)	22039552 (19225088)	46044160 (40580096)	101529600 (87745536)

	FFT size					
	65536					
Assembler code number of clocks	120502272 (110745600)					
C code number of clocks	226103296 (190650368)					

The sample FFT code is limited by design to a maximum FFT size of 2^{16} .

Chapter 6 Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)

The V850E/ME2 can run at up to 150 MHz internal CPU speed. That means that a 256 point complex FFT can be executed in less than 0.5ms (74320 clocks) and that a 64k complex FFT needs 0.8 s to complete (120502272 clocks). A V850E/ME3 at 200 MHz can execute the 64k FFT in 0.56 s.

Note that the FFT code can be further optimized for the V850E2 core architecture. It supports a 32-bit multiply-and-accumulate instruction with 64-bit intermediate results. We have not yet implemented these optimizations. That is planned for a future revision of this application note.

Chapter 7 Application Examples

7.1 SSB Transmitter Audio Input Stage

As a practical example for the above described signal processing functions, we have implemented the audio preprocessing for a single sideband (SSB) transmitter. SSB is a modulation technique, which is still widespread in amateur radio transceivers. The basic idea of SSB is to transmit only one of the two sidebands which are generated by an amplitude modulation of an RF signal. Also the residual carrier is removed. The theory of generating an SSB signal is not very complicated, if trigonometric calculation rules are understood. Here is a little bit of theory.

First of all we need to recall the relations for multiplication of trigonometric functions:

$$\sin(\alpha) * \sin(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} \cos(\alpha-\beta) - \frac{1}{2} \cos(\alpha+\beta)$$

$$\cos(\alpha) * \cos(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} \cos(\alpha-\beta) + \frac{1}{2} \cos(\alpha+\beta)$$

f_a is the audio frequency (in today's terms the payload), f_{rf} is the RF carrier frequency.

$$f_a = \sin(\omega_a * t)$$

$$f_{rf} = \sin(\omega_{rf} * t)$$

We also need the 90° phase shifted versions of these signals, which are denoted with q :

$$f_{aq} = \cos(\omega_a * t)$$

$$f_{rfq} = \cos(\omega_{rf} * t)$$

Multiplying these two signals results in amplitude modulation (AM) of the carrier. If the audio frequency signal is un-symmetric, i.e. always positive, then the result is the classical AM with carrier and two side bands.

$$f_{mod} = \sin(\omega_{rf} * t) * (\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} * \sin(\omega_a * t))$$

$$f_{mod} = \frac{1}{2} * \sin(\omega_{rf} * t) + \frac{1}{4} * \cos((\omega_{rf}-\omega_a) * t) - \frac{1}{4} * \cos((\omega_{rf}+\omega_a) * t)$$

This AM signal consists of the carrier (1st term) and the sum and difference of the carrier and signal frequencies (2nd and 3rd terms). The carrier can be easily suppressed by a balanced modulation, in which the audio signal is a signed signal and not always positive as above:

$$f_{mod} = \sin(\omega_{rf} * t) * \sin(\omega_a * t)$$

$$f_{mod} = \frac{1}{2} * \cos((\omega_{rf}-\omega_a) * t) - \frac{1}{2} * \cos((\omega_{rf}+\omega_a) * t)$$

This signed multiplication results in two sidebands without carrier.

If we do the same with the phase shifted quadrature signals, then we get:

$$f_{modq} = \cos(\omega_{rf} * t) * \cos(\omega_a * t)$$

$$f_{modq} = \frac{1}{2} * \cos((\omega_{rf}-\omega_a) * t) + \frac{1}{2} * \cos((\omega_{rf}+\omega_a) * t)$$

Now it becomes obvious, how to generate only the upper (f_{modusb}) or lower (f_{modlsb}) sideband components:

$$f_{\text{modusb}} = f_{\text{modq}} - f_{\text{mod}} = \cos((\omega_{\text{rf}} + \omega_a) * t)$$

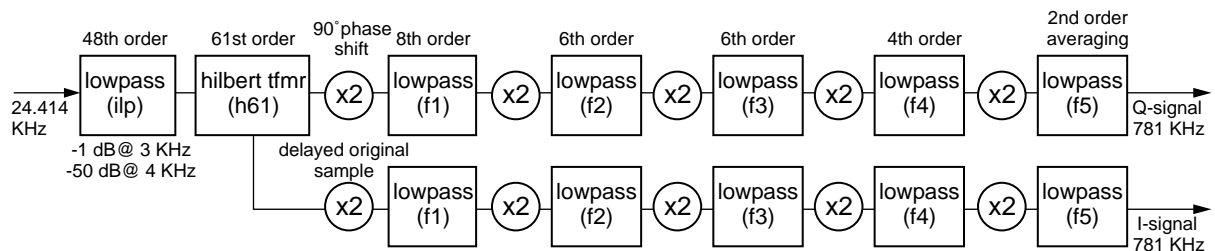
$$f_{\text{modlsb}} = f_{\text{modq}} + f_{\text{mod}} = \cos((\omega_{\text{rf}} - \omega_a) * t)$$

The sampling frequency of the RF signal is usually much higher than the sampling frequency of the AF signal (in this case 4096 times higher). Modulating the RF signal directly with the AF signal will generate a virtually infinite number of alias frequencies. Therefore we must up-sample the audio input signal to some higher sampling frequency, ideally to the same one that the RF signal uses. The RF sampling frequency is in the order of 100 MHz and thus beyond the reach of a low cost software solution. Therefore it is a good idea to implement a hybrid system, which generates the computing intensive audio I and Q signals by software and implements the final high speed up-sampling stages as well as the modulation in an FPGA.

For each signal processing stage, we need to make compromises on code size and execution time over signal quality. At the end of the signal chain, the generated signal shall be fed into a high speed D/A converter, whose output signal is amplified and transmitted. Today's typical DACs for that purpose have a resolution of 14-bits and signal-to-noise ratios (SNR) of roundabout 70 dB. A suitable audio signal for that purpose would have at least that SNR, i.e. all spurious signals should be attenuated by at least 70 dB. To allow for some headroom, we set the more or less arbitrary limit to 76 dB, i.e. we design all filters so that no spurs have an amplitude higher than -76 dB compared to the signal. Even though we could design much better filters, they would be a waste of CPU performance or FPGA gates.

The following diagram depicts the signal processing stages which are implemented in the software example.

Figure 7-1: SSB Audio preprocessing



The input sampling frequency is 24.414 kHz, which is non-standard but that is not important in this case. It is generated by dividing the 100 MHz master clock through 4096. In the first stage, the input signal is filtered by a low pass filter with a rather steep roll-off. That permits a simple and low-cost external anti-aliasing filter at the front end. The audio pass band for speech ends at about 3 kHz and the aliasing region starts at 12 kHz. That makes the filter design rather simple.

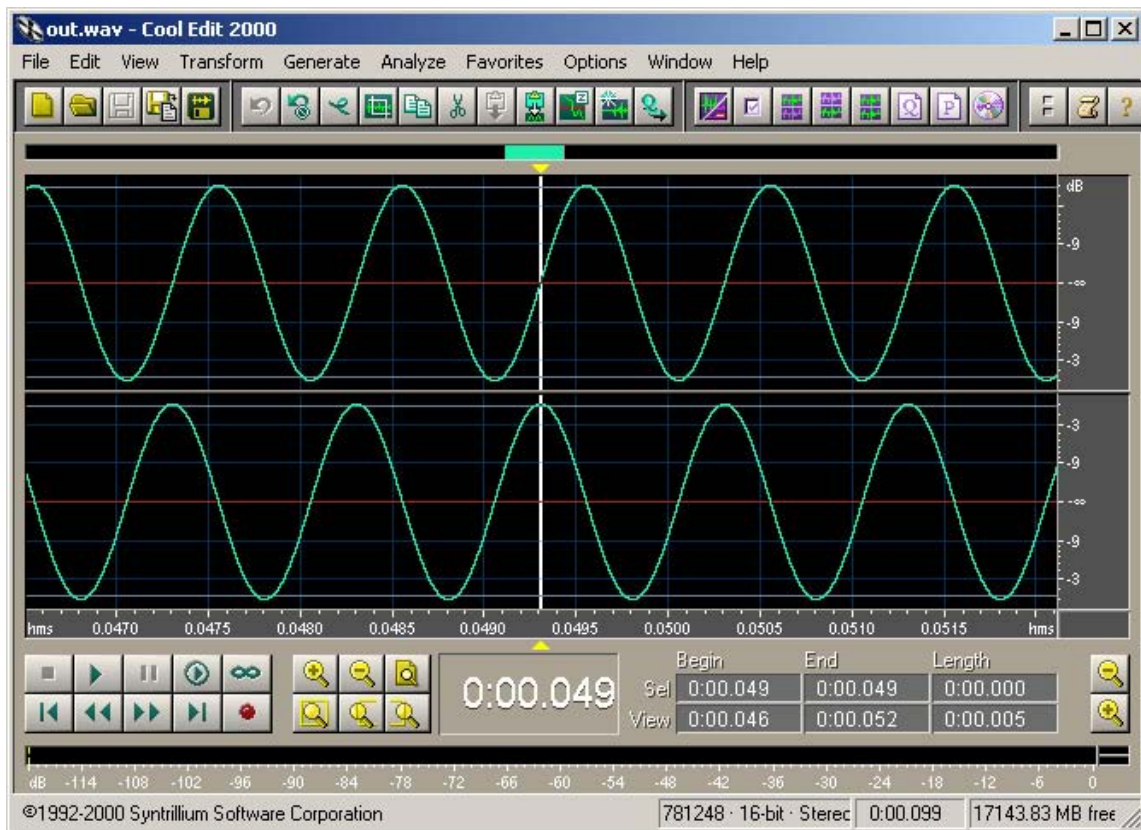
The Hilbert transformer follows the input low pass filter and a 61 stage version was chosen. A smaller number of stages attenuates an input signal with lower frequencies probably too much. An even higher number of stages might be necessary to improve the fidelity of low frequency audio signals. The audio signal at the output of the Hilbert transformer is still sampled at 24.414 kHz, but every component of it is phase shifted by 90 degrees, therefore it is called the Q-signal (for quadrature-signal). It is delayed by $(n-1)/2$, where n is the number of stages. The I-signal (for in-phase) must be delayed by the same number of clocks, so that both signals are fully synchronous for the subsequent processing. This delay is achieved very easily by accessing the original signal at the proper location in the input FIFO of the Hilbert filter.

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As described previously at page 15 in the section about interpolation filters, the process of up-sampling is a very simple one: just insert zeros between each original sample and apply a low-pass filter to that sequence. That step is repeated five times each for the I and the Q sample. With rising sampling frequency, the filter complexity can be reduced, because the frequency components get closer to $f_s/2$, where the attenuation is infinite. The FIR filters can be reduced to simple averaging comb filters after further up-sampling in the FPGA. That avoids multipliers, which need a lot of resources.

The image below shows the I and Q output signals of the implemented demonstration software, when feeding a full range 1 kHz sine into the input. One can clearly see the almost ideal 90° phase shift which was introduced by the Hilbert transformer. The attenuation is almost equal on both channels and it is less than 1 dB.

Figure 7-2: Waveform view of preprocessed output ($f_a = 1$ kHz, $f_s = 781$ kHz)



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The following two pictures show the generated spectra for an 1 kHz and a 3 kHz audio signal. One can see how the spurs increase with increasing signal frequency. That is because the aliases move away from $f_s/2$, where the filter attenuation is lower. All spurs remain below -76 dB relative to the audio signal, which was the design goal.

Figure 7-3: Spectral view of preprocessed output ($f_a = 1$ kHz, $f_s = 781$ kHz)

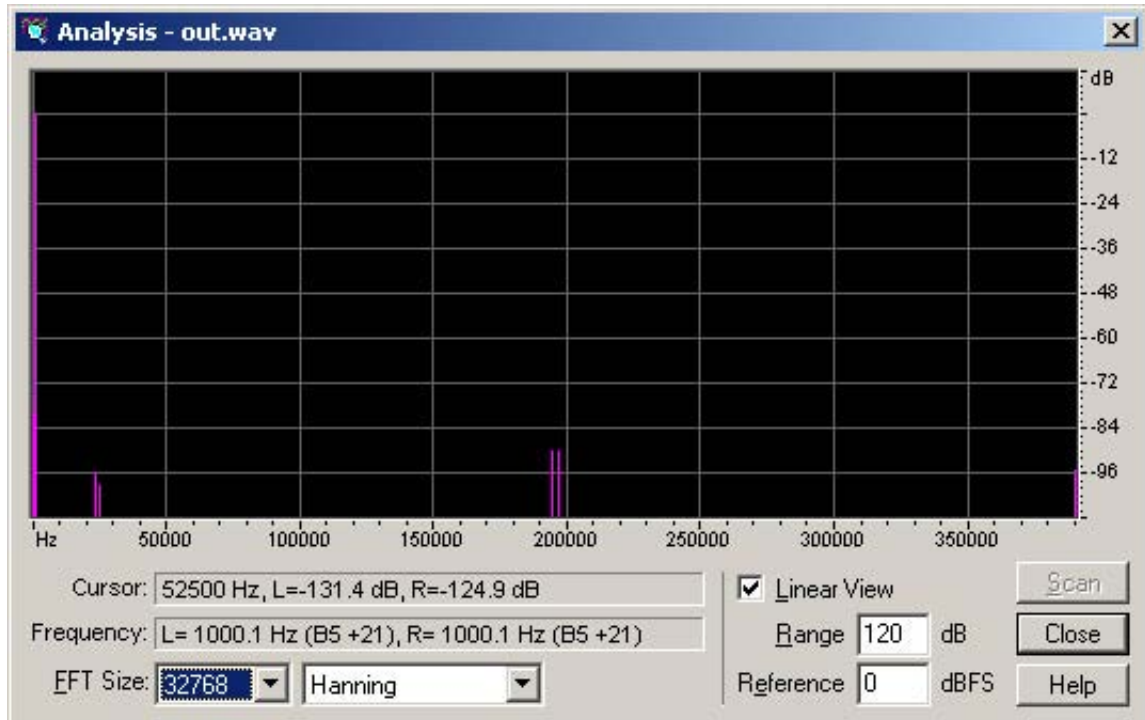
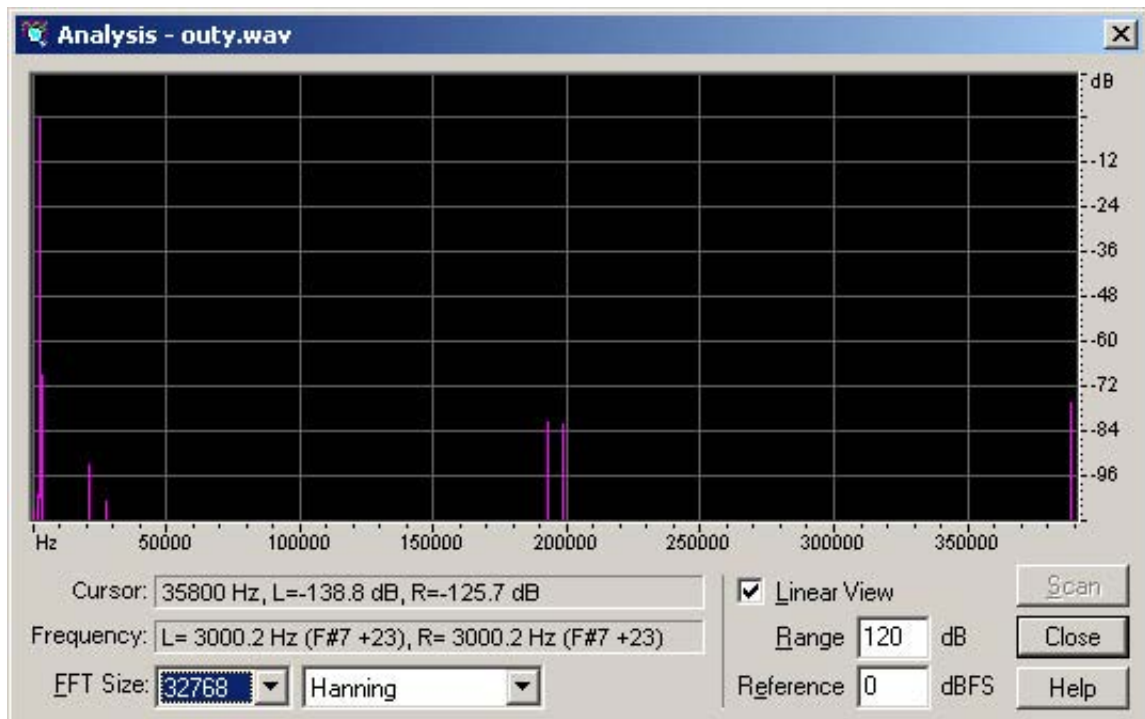


Figure 7-4: Spectral view of preprocessed output ($f_a = 3$ kHz, $f_s = 781$ kHz)

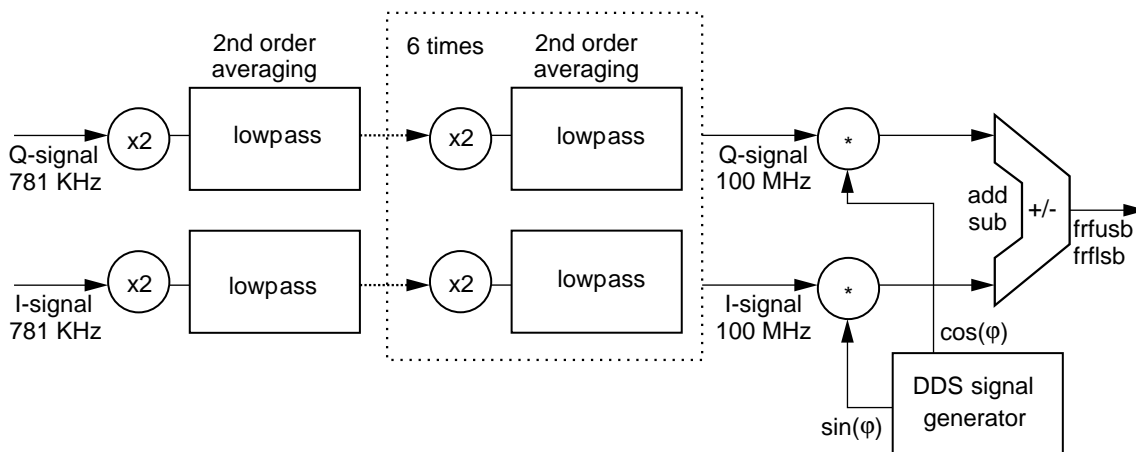


With the improved size optimized FIR version, the above signal processing takes a total of 1744 clocks on a V850E CPU. That assumes that code and data are available in on-chip memory and the access times are thus one clock per word. A V850E/ME2 at its typical operating speed of 147.456 MHz (18.432 MHz * 8) needs 11.8 μ s for that task, which is less than 30% of its CPU time as this calculation must be performed every $1/24414 = 41 \mu$ s. That leaves enough performance for other tasks, but it must be ensured that the signal processing runs at the highest priority. If it doesn't generate the results in time, then it will create annoying distortion on the audio signal.

A real system would probably transfer the input and output data via DMA. The input data could easily be received by a DMA controller in single transfer mode, which means that a single transfer takes place when a DMA request is received. As the software up-samples the input data by a total factor of 32, one could block-transfer a total of 32 I-samples and 32 Q-samples in response to the same DMA request. That requires rather deep FIFO buffers in the FPGA. To save resources, one could implement a second DMA request signal for the output side and transfer the data in smaller chunks. One must take the maximum DMA request response time (see the device user manual) into consideration, when deciding for the required depth of the FIFO. Without FIFOs, the system requires a response time of less than 1.3 μ s for the transfer of two samples. That is probably difficult in a system with SDRAMs, because a refresh cycle may delay the DMA transfer.

For completeness, here is a block diagram of the FPGA signal processing.

Figure 7-5: Upsampling and modulation in FPGA



7.2 DTMF-Generator using Direct Digital Synthesis

DTMF (Dual-Tone Multi-Frequency) signals have been specified for signaling over telephone lines. Analogue telephone sets use DTMF primarily for signaling dialling numbers to the local exchange. Many applications have taken advantage of the fact, that nowadays virtually every telephone has a built-in DTMF generator. Today it is not only possible to dial or to control answering machines via the telephone keyboard. DTMF signals select the most competent advisor of a call-center, enable home banking without a personal computer and control the configuration of building management systems from any telephone worldwide.

A DTMF signal is a mixture of two audio frequencies. It encodes one of sixteen possible characters according to the following matrix:

Hz	1209	1336	1477	1633
697	1	2	3	A
770	4	5	6	B
852	7	8	9	C
941	*	0	#	D

The nominal duration of a DTMF tone is between 65 ms and 75 ms followed by a pause of at least 65 ms. The ETSI standard (ES 201 235-1/2/3/4) and the ITU recommendation demand further signal properties like signal levels, frequency accuracy and maximum rise and fall times. As it is not our intention to make a fully compliant DTMF encoder and decoder, we do not care about these aspects of the specification (even though they may not be very difficult to fulfil).

The DDS signal generator described in chapter Chapter 5 “Digital Synthesis of Analogue Signals” on page 25 can be used to generate DTMF signals. As every DTMF signal consists of two audio frequencies, we need to implement two signal generators and add each sample to obtain the DTMF signal. We have also implemented a 5 ms fade in and fade out for each symbol, so that steep edges on either end are avoided. That might not really be necessary, but it does not cost much performance and it reduces the harmonics.

Here is the listing of the `generate_dtmf_file()` function. Please refer to the DDS chapter for the functions that are missing here.

```

/*
+-----+
|           Includes           |
+-----+
*/
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include 'mytype.h'
#include 'Wavelib.h'

/*
+-----+
|           Defines           |
+-----+
*/
#define MAX_LOADSTRING 100      /* maximum length of strings */
#define WEIGHT_SIZE 8          /* number of bits for interpolation
                               weight factor */
#define OUTPUTFILE 'dtmf.wav'  /* name of output file */

```

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```
#define SAMPLINGFREQ 8000          /* sampling frequency for output file */
#define DTMFSTRING `0123456789ABCD#*` /* DTMF signals to be generated */

/*
+-----+
|          structs and enums          |
+-----+
*/
typedef struct {
    _WORD f1, f2 ;
    _BYTE symbol ;
    } SYMBOL ;

/*
+-----+
|          global variables          |
+-----+
*/
_BYTE strng[MAX_LOADSTRING] ;
_WORD freqs[] = {8000, 11025, 16000, 22050, 32000, 44100, 48000} ;
#include `Q8_B16.h`          /* Quarter ROM Table with 2^8 entries and
                             16 bit resolution */
SYMBOL symbols[] = {
    { 0, 0, ' '},
    {697, 1209, '1'},
    {697, 1336, '2'},
    {697, 1477, '3'},
    {697, 1633, 'A'},
    {770, 1209, '4'},
    {770, 1336, '5'},
    {770, 1477, '6'},
    {770, 1633, 'B'},
    {852, 1209, '7'},
    {852, 1336, '8'},
    {852, 1477, '9'},
    {852, 1633, 'C'},
    {941, 1209, '*'},
    {941, 1336, '0'},
    {941, 1477, '#'},
    {941, 1633, 'D'} } ;

/*
+-----+
|          Function prototypes          |
+-----+
*/
int main(int argc, char **argv, char **envp) ;
_BOOL generate_dtmf_file(_BYTE *file, _WORD fs, _BYTE *dtmf) ;
_SWORD get_amplitude(_LONG *phase, _LONG freq) ;
_SWORD get_from_table(_WORD index) ;
void stimer(void) ;
_WORD gtimer(void) ;
```

```

/*
+-----+
|      int main(int argc, char **argv, char **envp)      |
+-----+
| Main program                                           |
+-----+
*/
int main(int argc, char **argv, char **envp)
{
    generate_dtmf_file(OUTPUTFILE, SAMPLINGFREQ, DTMFSTRING) ;

    return(0);
}

/*
+-----+
|      _BOOL generate_dtmf_file(_BYTE *file, _WORD fs, _BYTE *dtmf)      |
+-----+
| Display messages on the DLG_INFO control.              |
+-----+
*/
_BOOL generate_dtmf_file(_BYTE *file, _WORD fs, _BYTE *dtmf)
{
#ifdef FILEOUTPUT
WFILE *outputfile ;      /* output file */
#else
/* for timing measurement we perform a dummy write cycle to simulate
   sample output to a DAC */
_SSHORT static volatile dummy ;
_WORD number_of_samples = 0 ;
_WORD static volatile time ;
#endif
_BOOL rc = FALSE ;
_SLONG sample ;
_WORD i, index ;
_LONG freq1, freq2 ;      /* frequencies */
_LONG phasel, phase2 ;    /* phases for each frequency */
_LONG phil, phi2 ;        /* phase increments for each frequency */
_SSHORT sample1, sample2 ; /* output samples for each frequency */
_WORD sps ;                /* samples per symbol */
_WORD sfade ;              /* samples to fade in and out */
#ifdef FILEOUTPUT
    outputfile = wfcreeate((char *) file, 16, 1, (_LONG) fs) ;
    if (outputfile != NULL)
    {
#else
    stimer() ; /* start timer for performance benchmark */
#endif
    index = 0 ;
    sps = (fs * 65536) / 936229 ; /* 70 ms nominal symbol length */
    sfade = fs / 200 ; /* 5 ms nominal for fade in and out */
    while (dtmf[index] != '\0')

```

```

    {
        freq1 = 0 ;
        freq2 = 0 ;
        for (i=0; i<(sizeof(symbols)/sizeof(symbols[0])); i++)
        {
            if (symbols[i].symbol == dtmf[index])
            {
                freq1 = symbols[i].f1 ;
                freq2 = symbols[i].f2 ;
            }
        }
        phase1 = 0 ;
        phase2 = 0 ;
        phi1 = ((long long) freq1 * (long long) 0x100000000) / fs ;
        phi2 = ((long long) freq2 * (long long) 0x100000000) / fs ;

        for (i=0; i<sps; i++)
        { /* symbol */
            sample1 = get_amplitude(&phase1, phi1) ;
            sample2 = get_amplitude(&phase2, phi2) ;
            sample = (sample1 + sample2) / 2 ;
/* fade in */
            if (i < sfade)
                sample = (sample * (_SWORD) i) / (_SWORD) sfade ;
/* fade out */
            if (i > (sps-sfade))
                sample = (sample * (_SWORD) (sps-i)) / (_SWORD) sfade ;
#ifdef FILEOUTPUT
                wfputsample(&sample, outputfile) ;
#else
                dummy = (_SSHORT) sample ;
                number_of_samples++ ;
#endif
        }

        sample = 0 ; /* pause */
        for (i=0; i<sps; i++)
        {
#ifdef FILEOUTPUT
                wfputsample(&sample, outputfile) ;
#else
                dummy = (_SSHORT) sample ;
                number_of_samples++ ;
#endif
        }
        index++ ;
    }

#ifdef FILEOUTPUT
    wfclose(outputfile) ;
}
#else
    time = gtimer()/number_of_samples ; /* read timer and calculate time per
sample */
#endif
    return(rc) ;
}

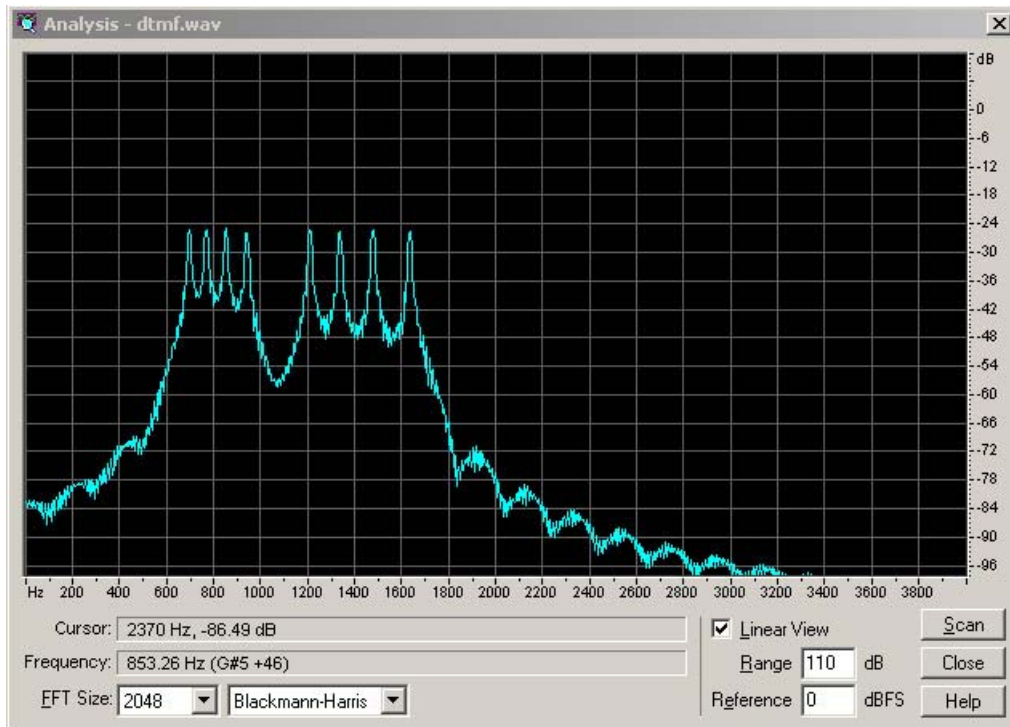
```

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The above code generates a DTMF file if FILEOUTPUT is defined. Otherwise it starts a timer on the V850E/ME2 to perform a timing measurement. In that case a dummy write is performed, which accounts for writing the calculated sample to a D/A converter. Executing the above code on a real device reveals that the code needs 109 clock cycles to generate one output sample. In other words, we could run a V850E/ME2 at less than 1 MHz to generate an 8 kHz DTMF signal.

Here is the spectrum of the DTMF signal generated by the above code, again generated by CoolEdit:

Figure 7-6: Spectrum of generated DTMF file for symbols '0123456789ABCD#'**



The spectrum was measured by scanning the whole DTMF wave file, i.e. analyzing all 16 symbols. Therefore all individual frequency components can be seen.

7.3 DTMF Decoder based on optimized FFT

This chapter describes a DTMF software decoder, which was tested on the V850E/ME2 board. See the previous chapter for a brief description of DTMF signals.

DTMF decoding involves detection of eight different frequencies. That can be done by an FFT. A reasonable sampling frequency for telephone signals is 8 kHz, which allows a frequency spectrum of up to 3 kHz with cheap anti-aliasing filters. The frequency spacing would demand an FFT of at least 128th order, which would give a frequency resolution of 62.5 Hz. That is hardly sufficient to become compliant to the specification and therefore a higher order FFT is certainly preferred. But it is a waste of performance to compute 128 or more spectral components, if only 8 of them are really needed.

This is where a special implementation, the so called Goertzel-algorithm, becomes useful. It is an IIR filter, whose coefficients are derived from the DFT sum. Fortunately two of its coefficients are 1 and one of them is 0. The other two are constant and they depend on the frequency that is to be detected. Therefore only two multiplications and a few additions are needed per frequency and per input sample. The only disadvantage is that the filter is not stable. After a certain number of iterations, the output value grows so high that overflows occur, which make the behavior unpredictable and chaotic.

There is a simple solution to this: the filter accumulators are reset to zero after a predefined time, before they overflow. Before doing so, the accumulated signal strength during the previous period is checked for each of the frequencies and if a certain limit is exceeded, the frequency was present in the input samples.

Here is a sample C-code which was implemented and verified on a V850E/ME2:

```

/*
+-----+
|
|           Program Name: DTMF_Decoder
|             Author: Michael Kraemer
|                   KraemerM@ee.nec.de           (business)
|             Date: 12. Apr. 2005
|           Language: Green Hills 3.5.1
|           Version: 0.1
|
+-----+
|
| Purpose: DTMF decoding using the Goertzel algorithm
|
| We have implemented the algorithm as described in
|
|   Digitale Signalverarbeitung in der Nachrichtenebertragung
|   by Peter Gerdson, Peter Kroeger, 2. Auflage
|   ISBN 3-540-61194-0, Springer Verlag 1997
|
+-----+
*/

/*
+-----+
|           Includes
|
+-----+
*/
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <math.h>

```

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```
#include "Mytype.h"

/*
-----
|           Defines           |
-----
*/
#define      PI                3.14159265359
#define      SAMPLELIMIT      200
#define      SCALE             64

/*
-----
|           Function prototypes |
-----
*/
int main(int argc, char **argv, char **envp) ;
void stimer(void) ;
_WORD gtimer(void) ;

/*
-----
|           global variables   |
-----
*/
char decode_table[256] = {
    '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?',
    '?', '1', '4', '?', '7', '?', '?', '?', '*', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?',
    '?', '2', '5', '?', '8', '?', '?', '?', '0', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?',
    '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?',
    '?', '3', '6', '?', '9', '?', '?', '?', '#', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?',
    '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?',
    '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?',
    '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?',
    '?', 'A', 'B', '?', 'C', '?', '?', '?', 'D', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?',
    '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?',
    '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?',
    '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?',
    '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?',
    '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?',
    '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?', '?' } ;

extern signed short in[] ; /* this array holds the wave file samples */
extern signed int in_size ; /* this is the number of samples */
extern unsigned int in_SamplesPerSecond ;

/*
-----
|           int main(int argc, char **argv, char **envp) |
-----
|           Main program |
-----
*/
int main(int argc, char **argv, char **envp)
{
```

```

_WORD i, j, index ;
signed short u0 ;
signed int u1[8], u2[8], u3[8] ;
unsigned int u7[8], max1, max2, average, decisionlevel ;
signed short ar1[8], br1[8] ;
unsigned int y, z ;
unsigned int freq_mix ;
char *results ;
unsigned int resultsize ;
unsigned int number_of_samples ;
signed short *audio ;
_WORD static volatile time ;

    cpu_init() ;

/* reset all memories */
y = 0 ; z = 0 ;
for (i=0; i<8; i++)
{
    u1[i] = 0 ; u2[i] = 0 ; u7[i] = 0 ;
}

number_of_samples = in_size ;
/* limit the number of samples to a 'reasonable' value */
if (number_of_samples > 20000) number_of_samples = 20000 ;
audio = in ;
resultsize = (number_of_samples / SAMPLELIMIT) + 2 ;
results = (char *) malloc(resultsize * sizeof(*results)) ;
if (results == NULL) exit(-1) ; /* heap overflow. give up */
for (i=0; i<resultsize; i++)
{ /* reset results */
    results[i] = 0 ;
}

#ifdef PREDEFINEDCOEFF
/* initialize filter coefficients (scaled by 16384) */
ar1[0] = 16384 * -cos(2*PI* (float) 697 /((float)in_SamplesPerSecond) ;
br1[0] = 16384 * 2 * cos(2*PI* (float) 697 /((float)in_SamplesPerSecond) ;
ar1[1] = 16384 * -cos(2*PI* (float) 770 /((float)in_SamplesPerSecond) ;
br1[1] = 16384 * 2 * cos(2*PI* (float) 770 /((float)in_SamplesPerSecond) ;
ar1[2] = 16384 * -cos(2*PI* (float) 852 /((float)in_SamplesPerSecond) ;
br1[2] = 16384 * 2 * cos(2*PI* (float) 852 /((float)in_SamplesPerSecond) ;
ar1[3] = 16384 * -cos(2*PI* (float) 941 /((float)in_SamplesPerSecond) ;
br1[3] = 16384 * 2 * cos(2*PI* (float) 941 /((float)in_SamplesPerSecond) ;
ar1[4] = 16384 * -cos(2*PI* (float) 1209/((float)in_SamplesPerSecond) ;
br1[4] = 16384 * 2 * cos(2*PI* (float) 1209/((float)in_SamplesPerSecond) ;
ar1[5] = 16384 * -cos(2*PI* (float) 1336/((float)in_SamplesPerSecond) ;
br1[5] = 16384 * 2 * cos(2*PI* (float) 1336/((float)in_SamplesPerSecond) ;
ar1[6] = 16384 * -cos(2*PI* (float) 1477/((float)in_SamplesPerSecond) ;
br1[6] = 16384 * 2 * cos(2*PI* (float) 1477/((float)in_SamplesPerSecond) ;
ar1[7] = 16384 * -cos(2*PI* (float) 1633/((float)in_SamplesPerSecond) ;
br1[7] = 16384 * 2 * cos(2*PI* (float) 1633/((float)in_SamplesPerSecond) ;
#else
/* predefined values for 8 kHz sampling rate */
ar1[0] = -13989 ; ar1[1] = -13478 ; ar1[2] = -12850 ; ar1[3] = -12109 ;
ar1[4] = -9536 ; ar1[5] = -8162 ; ar1[6] = -6542 ; ar1[7] = -4657 ;
br1[0] = 27979 ; br1[1] = 26956 ; br1[2] = 25701 ; br1[3] = 24218 ;
br1[4] = 19072 ; br1[5] = 16324 ; br1[6] = 13084 ; br1[7] = 9314 ;

```

```

#endif

stimer() ; /* start timer for performance benchmark */
index = 0 ;
while (index < number_of_samples)
{
    /* We scale the input samples so that overflows are avoided.
       Suitable scaling factor was found through testing. Adapt this
       scaling factor as required. It might even be dynamically adapted
       to increase the dynamic range of the input signal. */
    u0 = audio[index] / SCALE ;
    index++ ;
    z++ ;
    /* as the Goertzel algorithm is quasi stable, we have to reset the filter
       delay memories periodically every SAMPLELIMIT samples. Before doing
       that, we decode the frequency mix from the previous time slot
       consisting of SAMPLELIMIT samples. */
    if (z == SAMPLELIMIT)
    {
        z = 0 ;

/* here we decode the frequency mix */
        max1 = 0 ; max2 = 0 ;
        j = 10 ;
        for (i=0; i<8; i++)
        { /* find most prominent frequency */
            if (u7[i] > max1) {max1 = u7[i] ; j = i ; }
        }
        for (i=0; i<8; i++)
        { /* find second most prominent frequency */
            if ((u7[i] > max2) && (j != i)) max2 = u7[i] ;
        }

        /* calculate average of these two signal levels */
        average = (max1 + max2) / 2 ;
        /* set decision level (arbitrarily) to 1/2 of this average */
        decisionlevel = average / 2 ;

        freq_mix = 0 ;
        for (i=0; i<8; i++)
        { /* evaluate the frequency mix */
            if (u7[i] > decisionlevel) freq_mix |= (1<<i) ;
        }

        /* for improved noise margin, we request that 6 out of 8 frequencies
           must be below 1/4 of this average. This is again rather arbitrary.
           If less than 6 levels are lower, we assume that this is noise,
           i.e. pause */
        j = 0 ;
        for (i=0; i<8; i++)
        { /* evaluate the frequency mix */
            if (u7[i] < average/4) j++ ;
        }
        if (j < 6) freq_mix = 0 ; /* This is the 'pause' character */

        results[y] = decode_table[freq_mix] ;
        y++ ;
        for (i=0; i<8; i++)

```

```

    { /* reset filter */
      u1[i] = 0 ; u2[i] = 0 ; u7[i] = 0 ;
    }
  }

  for (i=0; i<8; i++)
  { /* these are the eight IIR filters for decoding the individual
    DTMF frequencies. The filter coefficients were scaled to 16384,
    so we have to fix that here after each multiplication. */
    u3[i] = (_SLONG) u0 + u2[i] ;
    u2[i] = ((_SLONG) ar1[i] * (_SLONG) u0) / 16384
      + ((_SLONG) br1[i] * u3[i]) / 16384
      + u1[i] ;
    u1[i] = -u3[i] ;
    /* we accumulate the squares of u3 so that we need not care about
    negative values and that higher amplitudes count more than
lower
    ones. The square must be properly scaled to avoid overflows.
    The scaling factor must be adapted (experimentally) so that
    overflows are avoided. */
    u7[i] = u7[i] + (u3[i] * u3[i])/16 ;
  }
}

time = gtimer()/in_size ; /* read timer and calculate time per sample */

return(0) ;
}

```

The previous code is a rather straightforward implementation of the Goertzel algorithm. The initialization of the coefficients can be done by calculation or by predefined values, depending on the definition of PREDEFINEDCOEFF. If the sampling rate is known at compile time, one would most likely choose the predefined coefficients.

The sample wave file for this demo program has been stored in the array “in”. There is a small utility “bin2c”, which can be downloaded along with the sample code of this application note. It converts binary files to C source code, so that they can be compiled and linked to the binary image. The individual audio samples are so directly accessible in memory. A real application would probably read the samples from an A/D converter.

The code processes “SAMPLELIMIT” samples before testing the accumulated magnitude and resetting the filters. The interval, which is defined by SAMPLELIMIT, must be long enough to contain a few cycles of the frequency which is to be detected. For 8 kHz sampling rate, a lower limit of about 100 seems to be reasonable, as these are more than eight cycles of the lowest frequency (697 Hz). On the other hand, the interval should be shorter than the minimum signal and pause lengths, because otherwise a signal or a pause might get lost. We have used 200 samples per interval, which is 25 ms duration. That is long enough for a reliable detection of the individual frequencies and short enough not to lose any signal.

The above code has been compiled for a V850E/ME2 and it was executed on a test board. The code was run from internal instruction RAM and all data other than the audio samples was located in the internal data RAM. A certain test wave file consisted of 14080 audio samples and it was analyzed in 33 ms at 147.5 MHz pipeline clock, which is 347 clocks per input audio sample.

Chapter 8 Summary

This application note has shown the signal processing capabilities and limitations of NEC's low cost 32-bit RISC CPUs. The benchmarks prove that simple 16-bit/48kHz audio processing is possible even with the lowest performance types at very low power consumption. More demanding applications can employ high performance controllers like the V850E/ME2 or V850E/ME3 to reach or exceed the performance levels of dedicated signal processors.

FIR filters can be optimized so that only 4 clock cycles are required per filter order. In many cases that leaves enough performance for other system control tasks. A V850 system does often not require a dedicated DSP for the signal processing, which might otherwise be necessary.

IIR filters, which are not inherently stable, can be implemented very efficiently by using the saturated add instructions. They avoid time consuming overflow or underflow checks.

A complex 256-point FFT is executed in less than 75000 clock cycles on a V850E/ME2, which is less than 0.5 ms at 150 MHz pipeline clock.

At 8 kHz sampling frequency, DTMF generation requires about 0.6% performance and DTMF decoding about 2% of the performance of a V850E/ME2 running at 150 MHz. In other words, a V850E/ME2 could decode roundabout 50 DTMF signals at the same time. It should be noted again, that we have not spend any efforts to achieve full compliance with DTMF standards.

All signal processing functions take advantage of the sophisticated V850 architecture, with its one clock integer multiplication cycle time and the built-in short path, that prevents pipeline stalls when an instruction uses the result from the previous operation.

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[MEMO]