

Processing Core for Compressing Wireless Data

The Enhancement of a RISC Microprocessor

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Problem Description

Compression of data in wireless systems is not a well-defined problem. Each application of compression needs to address different data types. This wide variety has made a single, efficient, compression technique hard to find. The only way to approach compression for this type of problem is to involve hybrid techniques or adapt different compression methods for different applications.

Today, most SoC solutions have an embedded microprocessor to handle complex control tasks, and Texas Instruments Norway has developed the NanoRisc microprocessor for this purpose. Texas Instruments Norway wishes to explore the NanoRiscs ability to process lossless data compression algorithms, and examine enhancements to improve its performance on these tasks.

The thesis should include an analysis of the NanoRiscs current ability to process different lossless data compression algorithms, and examine and implement area efficient enhancements to the NanoRisc core.

Assignment given: 16. January 2006 Supervisor: Einar Johan Aas, IET

Abstract

This thesis explores the ability of the proprietary Texas Instruments embedded 16 bits RISC microprocessor, NanoRisc, to process common lossless compression algorithms, and propose extensions in order to increase its performance on this task.

In order to measure performance of the NanoRisc microprocessor, the existing software tool chain was enhanced for profiling and simulating the improvements, and three fundamentally different adaptive data compression algorithms with different supporting data structures were implemented in the NanoRisc assembly language. On the background of profiling results, some enhancements were proposed:

- Bit field instructions.
- New load and store instructions for table data structures.
- An instruction improving read and writes of variable length codewords from memory.
- An instruction improving CRC-16 checksum calculation.
- Non-blocking load behavior.

These new enhancements improved throughput of the three implemented algorithms by between 18% and 103%, and the code sizes decreased between 6% and 31%. The bit field instructions also reduced RAM access by up to 53%. The enhancements were implemented in the NanoRisc VHDL model and synthesized. Synthesis reports showed an increase in gate count of 30%, but the whole NanoRisc core is still below 7k gates. Power consumption per MIPS increased by 7%, however reduced clock cycle count and memory access decreased the net power consumption of all tested algorithms. It is also shown that data compression with the NanoRisc prior to transmission in a low power RF transceiver may increase battery lifetime 4 times.

Future work should include a comprehensive study of the effect of the proposed enhancements to more common applications for the NanoRisc microprocessor.

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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

A list of acronyms and abbreviations that are not explicitly explained in the text.

- **ASCII:** American Standard Code for Information Interchange. Standard 8 bits code used in data communications.
- ASIC: Application Specific Integrated Circuit.
- **CCITT:** Consultative Committee on International Telephony and Telegraphy. The international standards-setting organization for telephony and data communications.
- **CCSDS:** Consultative Committee for Space Data Systems.
- **CPU:** Central Processing Unit. Programmable logic device that performs all the instruction, logic, and mathematical processing in a computer.
- **CRC:** Cyclic Redundancy Check. An error checking technique used to ensure the accuracy of transmitting digital data.
- **DCT:** Discrete Cosine Transform. Mathematical transform used to convert signals from time domain to frequency domain.
- **DEMUX:** De-Multiplexer. Splits a signal to pass over multiple signal paths.
- **DSP:** Digital Signal Processor.
- **GUI:** Graphical User Interface. A computer terminal interface, such as Windows, that is based on graphics instead of text.
- HW: Hard Ware.
- I/O: InOut
- **IP:** Internet Protocol. Used for communications across a packet-switced network.
- **JPEG:** Joint Photographic Experts Group. JPEG is a standards committee that designed a lossy image compression format.
- JPEG-LS: A lossless image compression format.
- LAN: Local Area Network.
- **Isb:** Least Significant Bit.
- **LSB:** Least Significant Byte
- **MPEG:** Motion Picture Expert Group. Group defining the framework for a wide range of video and audio compression standards.
- MS: Microsoft. Software company.
- msb: Most Significant Bit
- MSB: Most Significant Byte
- MUX: Multiplexer. Allows two or more signals to pass over one signal path.
- **NASA:** National Aeronautics and Space Administration. US agency which administer the American space program.
- **OPS:** Operations per Second.
- PC: Personal Computer.
- **RAM:** Random Access Memory. Volatile memory used for data storage during operation.
- **RISC:** Reduced Instruction Set Computing. Processor architectures where a low amount of instructions are needed to perform necessary tasks.
- **ROM:** Read Only Memory. Nonvolatile memory often used as program memory.
- **RTL:** Register Transfer Level. Describes logical operation in digital circuits.
- **SCSI:** Small Computer System Interface. Parallel interface standard used by Apple Macintosh computers, PCs, and many UNIX systems for attaching peripheral devices to computers.
- **SoC:** System on Chip. A chip which constitutes an entire system or major subsystem.
- VHDL: A hardware modeling language. Commonly used for RTL modeling and synthesis.

Introduction

Lossless data compression has become a standard feature in most high-speed communications networks. Data compression chipsets have been important for this development, and the significance of the V.42bis compression standard in modems is an example of this. The question is if data compression will play the same role for small wireless networks. If data compression can double or triple network throughput or significantly increase battery lifetime without harmful side effects, then the added complexity is worthwhile.

Not all data types are compressible and there are potential dangers such as data expansion, error propagation and incompatible standards. However, most commonly transmitted data is highly compressible. The aim of data compression for radio transmission is to save power or reduce bandwidth. Bandwidth is a precious commodity, and it is closely related to the bit rate (R = bps). For ordinary binary-phase shift keying the null-to-null bandwidth is given by 1.0R. Thus, if the number of data bits were reduced by half, then one would need only half the bandwidth. With the increase in use of wireless technology, it becomes more and more important that the bandwidth must be used efficiently. However, power can be saved by keeping the bandwidth and reduce airtime. Wireless transmission of one bit typically requires over 1000 times more energy than a single 16 bits computation. It is therefore justifiable to perform significant computation to reduce the number of bits transmitted, but limitations such as memory requirements, area constraints and throughput must be considered.

Today, most SoC transceiver solutions have an embedded microprocessor to handle complex control tasks, and Texas Instruments Norway has developed the NanoRisc microprocessor for this purpose. This thesis will explore the NanoRiscs current ability to process lossless data compression algorithms, and examine enhancements to improve its performance on this task. The work and this report have been divided into five main stages:

- A study of lossless compression algorithms, related works and the NanoRisc microprocessor.
- Implantation of three lossless compression algorithms in the NanoRisc assembly language.
- Enhancements of existing tools in order to measure performance of the NanoRisc and simulate improvements.
- Profile resource use when processing the implemented compression methods and propose improvements based on these results.
- Implement the proposed improvements in the NanoRisc microprocessor core, and synthesize the core in order to estimate changes in area, timing and power due to the implemented improvements.

The scope of this thesis does not include finding suitable data compression methods for wireless data. Only computational requirements have been considered when choosing algorithms for evaluating the NanoRiscs performance on different compression algorithms. Lossy compression methods have also not been considered. The thesis will cover some fundamental information theory, but the reader should be familiar with data compression and integrated circuit design.

1 Theory

This chapter will first describe some fundamental measures and terms before entropy coding is briefly explained and three compression algorithms are chosen for evaluating the NanoRisc current ability to process compression algorithms.

1.1 Measures

The field of mathematics concerned with data communications and storage is named information theory, and is generally considered to have been founded in 1948 by Claude E. Shannon [1]. He defined the information of a symbol x_n from the alphabet X to be:

Eq. 1
$$i(x) = -\log_2 P(x_n)$$
 ;[1]

Where P(x) is the probability of the symbol occurring in the data stream. This could be described as how much knowledge is gained due to the observation of the symbol $X = x_n$. The logarithmic function can have any base, but by choosing 2 the measure can be translated to bits. An estimation of the average information gained from observing a sequence of symbols x_n from the alphabet X is called the Shannon entropy (or just entropy):

Eq. 2
$$H(X) = E[i(X)] = -\sum_{x \in X} P(x_n) \log_2 P(x_n)$$
 ;[1]

This is an important measure when it comes to compression. For a lossless compression method, the Shannon entropy is the fundamental limit. This means that it is possible to compress the source in a lossless manner down to H(X)*n, where n is the number of symbols in the data stream. It is mathematically impossible to do better than H(X)*n. Equation 2 shows the first order model of the entropy. If there are statistical dependencies between symbols, higher order models can be used [1].

The redundancy of symbol x_n is:

Eq. 3
$$\rho(x) = l(x_n) - \log_2 \frac{1}{P(x_n)}$$
;[1]

Where $l(x_n)$ is the length of the symbol x_n in bits. The expected redundancy of alphabet X in the data stream is:

Eq. 4
$$E[\rho(X)] = \sum_{x \in X} P(x)\rho(x) = E[l(X)] - H(X)$$
 ;[1]

There are several quantities used for compression performance. The quantity used in this thesis is the Compression Ratio:

Eq. 5
$$ComressionRatio = \left(1 - \frac{OutputSize}{InputSize}\right) * 100\%$$

When possible enhancements of the original NanoRisc processor are examined, some measures are needed in order to estimate the expected overall improvement. Amdahl's law [2] may be used for just that. This law is named after computer architect Gene Amdahl, and it is used to find the expected improvement to an overall system when only parts of the system are improved. It is often used in parallel computing to predict the theoretical maximum speedup using multiple processors. More technically, the law is concerned with the speedup achievable from an improvement to a computation that affects a proportion P of that computation where the improvement has a speedup of S. Ahmdal's law states that the overall speedup of applying the improvement will be:

Eq. 6
$$S_{system} = \frac{1}{(1-P) + \frac{P}{S}}$$
;[2]

If the result is e.g. 1.4, the improvement will make the system go 1.4 times faster.

1.2 Entropy Coding

Three compression algorithms are chosen to evaluate the NanoRisc processor. This section will give a short theoretical introduction to entropy coding and the coding schemes chosen. The details of the implementations are explained in chapter 4.

There are many known methods of data compression. Often they are suitable for different types of data, and produce different results. Any compression method is based on representing data in a way that reduces the redundancy as much as possible. To achieve this they exploit the statistical properties or the redundancy of the source data. The actual decrease of size is done by representing symbol values in a different way. A symbol that occurs often is encoded with a shorter codeword than a symbol that occurs rarely. Compression is only possible because data is normally represented in a format that is longer than necessary. Samples from a converter or instructions in a computer program often have a fixed length. This is done to make it easier to process data, since processing data is more common than compressing data.

Some compression methods are lossy. They achieve compression by removing non-vital information from the source. Pictures and audio are often compressed with a lossy compression method, since the human eye or ear is still capable of interpreting the information with a reduction of quality. In contrast, a computer program cannot be compressed in a lossy way because the computer will not be able to understand instructions if something are missing. When loosing information is not acceptable, the data must be compressed with a lossless compression method. A lossless compression method will completely recover the original data from the compressed data. Entropy coding is defined as a coding scheme that assigns variable length codes to symbols so the code lengths match their probability. Lossless data compression methods are hence often called entropy coders. Entropy coding is often used as the last stage in lossy compression methods. After non-vital information is removed and complex methods have exposed statistical dependencies, entropy coding will make sure this is encoded in the shortest possible way (as close as possible to the entropy).

The process of entropy coding can often be split into modeling and coding. Modeling is a statistical analysis of the input data stream, and coding creates codewords from the statistics. These statistics may be frequencies of occurrence for different symbols, the existence of

repetitive sequences of symbols, dependencies in the frequency contents, etc. Modeling may be either static or adaptive. In static modeling, the same statistics is used every time coding is performed. Static modeling may be a good option if the source is well known and rigid. Adaptive modeling performs a statistical analysis every time coding is carried out. The method may be one-pass or two-pass. One-pass methods gather statistical information as the coding process goes forward and require thus only one pass of the input data stream. Two pass methods do one pass to gather statistical information, and another pass to do the coding. It is therefore necessary that the encoder in a two-pass method must pass the statistical information to the decoder. As established in Shannon's source coding theorem, there exists a relationship between the symbols probability and its shortest corresponding bit sequence. Since the statistical analysis is responsible for the evaluation of each symbols probability, modeling is one of the most important tasks in data compression. It is also important that the coding scheme is able to produce the shortest total output stream from the probability distribution found in the modeling.

1.2.1 Entropy Coding Schemes Used for Evaluation

Three fundamentally different entropy coding schemes are chosen to evaluate the NanoRisc processors current ability to process data compression algorithms:

- **Rice Coding** makes codewords directly from a value. These codewords are optimal if the input data stream is modeled to fit a geometrical probability distribution.
- **Huffman Coding** generates codes from a codebook and may fit any probability distribution. The codebook is usually held in a binary tree called a Huffman tree.
- LZ77 detects patterns in the input stream and code lengths and pointers to where in the stream these patterns are found. (The actual algorithm implemented is called Deflate, and is a version of the LZ77 coding scheme.)

These three algorithms are chosen because they are fundamentally different from each other. Huffman and Rice coding are examples of statistical coding methods. They are heavily dependent on the quality of the modeling process or a precise static model. Even though Huffman and Rice are part of the same family of coding methods, they use very different methods. Huffman uses a codebook built on symbol probability in the data stream, while Rice produces codewords according to symbol value. It is important that the modeling stage produce low symbol values for the Rice encoder, while in Huffman only probabilities matter. The LZ77 coding method is a dictionary method. Dictionary methods utilize repetitive sequences of consecutive symbols in the input data stream. They build dictionaries of these sequences and encode where to find them. If the input stream consists of long and highly repetitive sequences, good compression ratios are achieved.

1.2.1.1 Rice Coding

Rice coding is a selection of those Golomb codes that are easiest to produce in hardware. Golomb codes is a range of codes with a parameter m which encodes a positive integer n by encoding $(n \mod m)$ in binary followed by encoding $(n \dim m)$ in unary. When the parameter m is a power of two, the code is extremely efficient for use in computers since the division operation becomes a bitshift operation, and the remainder operation becomes a bitmask operation. This selection of Golomb codes is referred to as Rice codes. The disadvantage of the Rice coding is of course the restricted value of m, and therefore the compression may be

Symbol	4-bit			
Values	Binary	Quotient	Remainder	Code
0	0000	0	0	1 00
1	0001	0	1	1 01
2	0010	0	2	1 10
3	0011	0	3	1 11
4	0100	1	0	0 1 00
5	0101	1	1	0 1 01
6	0110	1	2	0 1 10
7	0111	1	3	0 1 11
8	1000	2	0	00 1 00
9	1001	2	1	00 1 01
10	1010	2	2	00 1 10
11	1011	2	3	00 1 11
12	1100	3	0	000 1 00
13	1101	3	1	000 1 01
14	1110	3	2	000 1 10
15	1111	3	3	000 1 11

less effective than that of Golomb codes. In Rice coding the term *k*-value is often used, where $m = 2^k$. An example of Rice codes with a *k*-value of 2 are shown in Table 1.

Table 1, Rice codes (k = 2)

When the entropy increases, it is usually the lsbs that becomes more and more random. To deal with this the Rice code just cuts off the lsbs and passes them through without coding, but the msbs that may be less random are coded. It is clear from the table that the Rice code achieves the best compression for an input stream of symbols that have a geometric probability distribution. Rice coding is a widely used technique for entropy coding in image and sound compression methods.

1.2.1.2 Huffman Coding

Most variable-sized codes assume a given probability distribution of the symbols in the input data stream. The Huffman code is more general because it does not assume anything about the input symbol distribution, only that all probabilities are non-zero. Huffman was the first to develop an optimal algorithm for arbitrary probability distributions. This is achieved in the way the algorithm builds its codebook. Huffman first described this algorithm in a paper in 1952 [3]. The codebook is built in a binary tree structure (all nodes have only two children), and the algorithm follows these steps:

- 1. Consider all symbols as individual leaves with their probability as weight.
- 2. Find the two leaves with the lowest weight.
- 3. Make a new leaf with the weight of the two probabilities added together, and make the two found leaves children of the new leaf.
- 4. Repeat from step 2 as long as there are more than one leaf left.

The following example will show the building of a Huffman tree. If the alphabet X consists of the symbols A, B, C, D and E, with a probability distribution P(A)=0,42, P(B)=0,3, P(C)=0,12, P(D)=0,09 and P(E)=0,07, the Huffman tree would be built as shown in Figure 1.

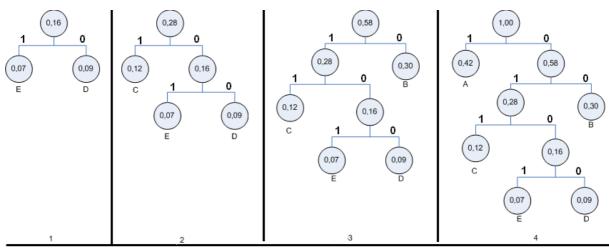


Figure 1, building of a Huffman tree.

When a symbol is read from the input stream, the code is created by traversing the tree from the leaf representing the code and to the root. By traversing right or left, the codeword is created with 1's or 0's. Decoding is done in similar matter, only the tree is traversed from the root to the leaf according to the code read. In the example from Figure 1, the codeword for E would be 0101.

1.2.1.3 LZ77

This method uses previously observed input data as a dictionary. During encoding, the input stream encoded so far is called the search buffer. New symbols ready to be encoded is called the look-ahead buffer. The search buffer and the look-ahead buffer are often referred to as a window. When new symbols are to be encoded, the method tries to find matches in the search buffer for the pattern of symbols on the input. The window may have finite length, and the method is often called a sliding window (as data is being encoded, the window slide over the data stream). The LZ77 is part of a family of coding methods that is called dictionary methods. One may think of the search buffer as a dictionary of words (where pattern of symbols make up words) and the look-ahead buffer as words needed to be looked up in the dictionary. The method will always try to find the longest match, and when this is found a pointer to the beginning of the match in the search buffer and the length of the match is made. This pair, the pointer and length, is called an index. When encoding, this index together with the first symbol in the input stream that did not match is encoded. Encoding of an incoming data stream, Table 2, is shown in Table 3.

Pos	Symbol
1	А
2	А
3	В
4	A B C B
5	В
6	В
7	А
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	B A B C
9	С

Pos	Match	Symbol	Output
1	None	А	(0,0) + A
2	A	В	(1,1) + B
4	None	С	(0,0) + C
5	В	В	(2,1) + B
7	AB	С	(5,2) + C

Table 2, Incomming symbols (LZ77 Example)

Table 3, Encoding steps (LZ77 Example)

During decoding, the decoder will build up the same search buffer as the encoder. When the decoder reads a new index, it finds the beginning of the match in the search buffer and outputs the sequence according to its length. After that, it outputs the symbol following the index. The search buffer in the decoder consists of symbols decoded so far. It is evident from this description that looking up indexes (decoding) is much faster than searching for them (encoding), thus the LZ77 is an asymmetrical coding method.

2 Related Works

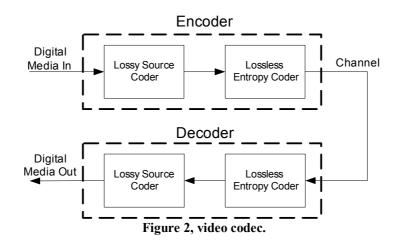
Since the original computer systems where designed for text processing and scientific applications, but not tasks such as audio and video compression, many enhancements of original computer systems have been towards multimedia applications. One of the most common solutions has been to include instructions that are optimized for typical multimedia applications. Almost all major processor manufacturers have developed their own set of media instructions. Examples include Motorola's AltiVec extensions to the PowerPC instruction set, and Intel's MMX, SSE, and SSE2 extensions to the x86 instruction set. The extensions differ in data path width, number and type of registers provided, as well as the availability of specific operations. Motorola's AltiVec and Intels SSE and SSE2 have 128 bits datapaths, floating point arithmetic, and they support in the region of over 100 instructions. The kinds of extensions these examples represent are of course farfetched for the enhancement of the NanoRisc processor, but the basic idea of adding special instructions and behavior in order to increase processing power for specific tasks is applicable.

Programs that manipulate data at subword level (bit fields smaller than the bit width of the processor core) are common for many embedded applications, e.g. media and network processing. In fact in many cases the input or output of embedded applications consists of packed data, and these applications spend a significant amount of time packing and unpacking narrow width data into memory words. A paper [4] by Bengu Li and Rajiv Gupta at the university of Arizona, showed that by adding a bit section instruction set extension to an ARM processor reduced the instructions executed at runtime between 5% and 28%, while the code size was reduced by between 2% and 21%. These results were gathered from testing the extensions with various benchmark suits from network, media and control applications.

They also showed that by adding the extension the register pressure decreased. Before the extension was added the applications needed registers and memory locations to hold values in packed and unpacked form, but with the new bit field extension, this was not necessary. Thus, memory requirements and cache activity decreased as a result of more efficient register use.

Media extensions to microprocessors are also heavily studied. In 1994, a study at Hewlett-Packard by Ruby B. Lee [5] showed that by introducing a small set of new instructions to a PA-RISC microprocessor, enabled for the first time an entry-level workstation to achieve MPEG video decompression and playback at real-time rates. Since this, digital audio and video have made progress and is now the future in all major media broadcast systems. However, the compression methods used require a large amount of processing power. For example, National Television Systems Committee (NTSC) resolution MPEG-2 decoding requires more than 400 MOPS, and 30 GOPS are required for encoding [6]. To meet this task, many microprocessor manufacturers have made special processor cores in order to target real-time processing of multimedia.

Almost every audio and video compression standard has a lossless entropy coding stage. A typical video codec system is shown in Figure 2. The lossy source coder performs filtering, transformation (DCT), subband decomposition, quantization, etc. (these tasks are not covered by this thesis). The output from the source coder still exhibits redundancy, and the lossless entropy coder removes this. The rest of this chapter will describe briefly two popular embedded microprocessor cores for media processing, and how their features may speed up the entropy coder stage.



2.1 Phillips Trimedia

TriMedia/CPU [7] is a VLIW (Very Long Instruction Word) core, and it is optimized for multimedia applications. VLIW means that the core issues one long instruction every clock cycle, and each instruction consists of several operations. Each operation is comparable to a RISC machine instruction. In order to process such instructions, the architecture has five parallel data paths (Figure 3).

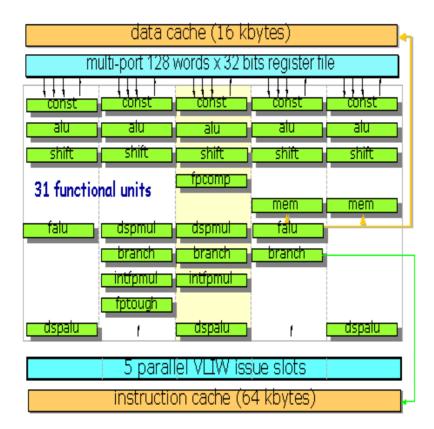


Figure 3, phillips trimedia architecture [7].

The instruction set includes some custom operations that may increase throughput for entropy coders. Among these are 7 instructions for packing, merging and selecting bits. This is an important feature when dealing with variable length codes. Another feature is the VLD

(Variable Length Decoder) which is a coprocessor. This coprocessor is made especially to take care of the Huffman decoding in MPEG1 and MPEG2. The VLD receives as input a pointer to an MPEG1 or MPEG2 bit stream and some configuration information. After the initialization, the TriMedia controls the VLD by a set of five commands:

- Shift bit stream by some number of bits
- Search for the next start of the code
- Reset the VLD
- Flush output fifos

The VLD produces as output a data structure that contains all of the information necessary to complete the video decoding process. This coprocessor is especially developed as a solution to the serial nature of the entropy coder stage in MPEG1 and MPEG2. Even though the encoder stage is not the most complex task in these compression methods, it tends to be a bottleneck because the algorithm makes it difficult to exploit the parallel features of most media processors.

When coprocessors are used, they may do their task in parallel to the main processor, and hence introduce parallelism on an algorithmic level when parallelism on an instruction level is difficult. This is a much used approach, and is often called HW acceleration. When these HW accelerators are used, they are design to do a large part of a task, like the VLD coprocessor. However, the cost is often increased gate count and power consumption. If a HW accelerator is implemented the resulting speed up should be considerable. A big HW accelerator will also make the design closer to an ASIC. Since it takes on a large portion of a certain task, it may become useless in other applications. This is the case for the VLD unit, which is designed especially for the MPEG1 and MPEG2 standard.

2.2 ARM

The ARM (Acorn RISC Machine) is a 32 bits RISC processor architecture that is widely used in a number of embedded designs; in fact the ARM family accounts for over 75% of all 32 bits embedded CPU's. The ARM DSP [8] is developed to meet applications that require a DSP-oriented processor because of their high signal processing content, in addition to handle complex control tasks. The ARM development team claims that the feature of having a microcontroller supporting both control and signal processing has many advantages over traditional solutions based on a separate DSP and control processors. This reasoning also applies for the enhancement of the NanoRisc. If data compression is to be performed in a transceiver SoC, it has many advantages if the data compression algorithm could be processed in the embedded microcontroller. The advantages could be saving power, area, design time, etc. Figure 4 shows the datapath in an ARM DSP microprocessor.

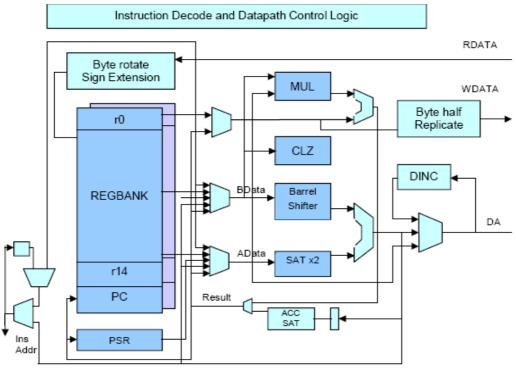


Figure 4, ARM9E datapath [8].

The new modules added to support the DSP enhanced extensions is a 32x16 multiplier, a CLZ (Count Leading Zeroes) module, and two saturation modules. The new arithmetic modules are of little interest to most entropy coders, but the CLZ module may be useful for some algorithms. It is controlled by the "clz" instruction, and it counts the number of leading zeroes in one register and writes the answer to another. ARM has also made additional extensions toward multimedia applications called NEON [8]. This extension uses SIMD instructions (Single Instruction Multiple Data) which include bit field operation such as:

- Bit Field Clear
- Bit Field Insert
- Signed Bit Field Extract
- Unsigned Bit Field Extract

ARM has also developed the Cortex-M3 core [8] that is a powerful processor with some interesting features. In addition to the count leading zero and bit field instructions, its memory map includes something called bit-band regions. These bit-band regions map each word in an alias region of the memory to a bit in a bit-band region of memory, i.e. it can address the memory at bit level in the bit-band regions. The Cortex-M3 core has two bit-bands at the lowest 1MB of the SRAM and peripheral memory regions respectively.

The features mentioned for the different ARM cores and extensions may be very helpful when processing compression algorithms. Bit field operations are important when dealing with variable length codes because they make it possible to access packed codewords within a register. The bit-band regions will ease reading and writing a stream of variable length codewords to or from memory, and the count leading zero instruction should be very useful when decoding Rice-like codewords.

3 The NanoRisc Processor

The NanoRisc processor was developed as part of a thesis by Peder Rand [9] for Chipcon AS (now Texas Instruments Norway). Chipcon desired an on-chip firmware processor in order to cope with the increasing complexity of their SoC products. This processor is designed to manage internal control and data processing tasks. It is a compact and effective microcontroller core that can control complex processes and move and process data. The processor features 13 general 16 bits registers, a full 16 bits ALU, an 8x8 multiplier, a 16 bits barrel shifter, and a load/store module with auto increment/decrement. It has up to 32 bit-addressable I/O ports and interrupt handling, which contributes to its easy integration into any design. It is controlled by a compact and comprehensive set of 16 bits instructions, but is still capable of immediate 16 bits memory addressing without the use of paging. This chapter will describe shortly the features of the NanoRisc processor and tools. The interested reader is referred to [9].

3.1 Architecture

The NanoRisc is a simple RISC processor [10]. It is a load/store architecture which means that operations can only be performed on data stored in the registers. It features single cycle execution of all instructions that do not read from memory. A simple overview of the architecture is shown in Figure 5.

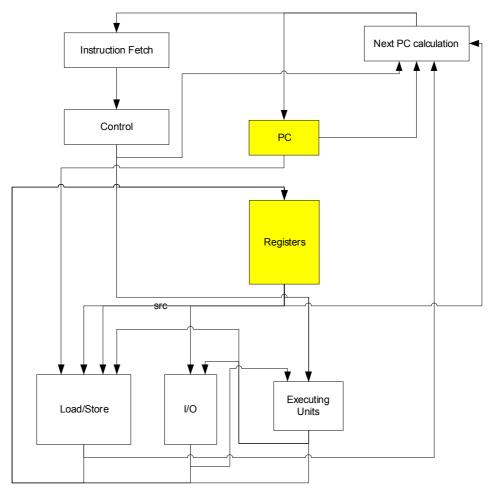


Figure 5, simple overwiev of the NanoRisc architecture [reference 8].

There are three different memory spaces in the NanoRisc. There are 16 addressable registers (13 general registers, one 16 bits stack pointer, one 7 bits status register, and a 15 bits program counter), 32 bit-addressable I/O ports (16 input ports and 16 output ports), and a combined 16 bits program and data memory space. The 13 16 bits general registers are without any dedicated role, and can be used in any operation where a source and/or a destination register are required. The stack pointer (SP), status register (SR) and program counter (PC) have dedicated roles. The SP and SR can be used in all operations where a source and/or a destination register are required. The I/O ports allow the NanoRisc processor to connect to peripherals or other NanoRisc processors. These ports are accessed and controlled by dedicated instructions. The program and data memory of the NanoRisc share address space, but they have a separate memory bus going out of the NanoRisc. In this thesis, a separate ROM is assumed for the program memory, and a synchronous RAM for the data memory. This setup is shown in Figure 6.

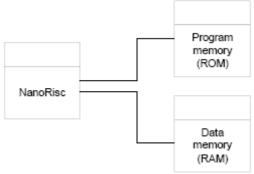


Figure 6, memory set up.

The implementation of the NanoRisc is based on a centralized principle where the instruction is decoded and all control signals are set in the processor control unit (PCU) module. The multiplexers and registers that implement a module are implemented in their respective modules. Figure 7 shows the NanoRisc data flow.

Short description of the modules in Figure 7:

- **PCU**, Processor Control Unit (PCU) decodes instructions and set control signals to the other modules.
- ALU, Arithmetic Logical Module has two 16bit operand inputs, and consist of a 16 bits carry propagate adder and "xor", "and", "or" and an inverter unit.
- **FETCH**, generates the address of the next instruction to be executed. How this is done depends on the current instruction.
- I/O, interface peripheral modules.
- MEM, controls the reading and writing of data memory.
- MUL, 8x8 bit multiplication module. It is generated by the infix VHDL operator '*' which produces a multiplier from the Synopsys DesignWare library at synthesis.
- **REG**, register bank which holds the special and general registers. The module has two read ports and one write port.
- **SHIFT**, barrel shifter with one signal path for left shifting and one signal path for right shifting. The value shifted in may be a carry from the status register or the carry from the shift operation (which is done when rotating).
- SRC, multiplexer that chooses the source operand for several of the functional modules.

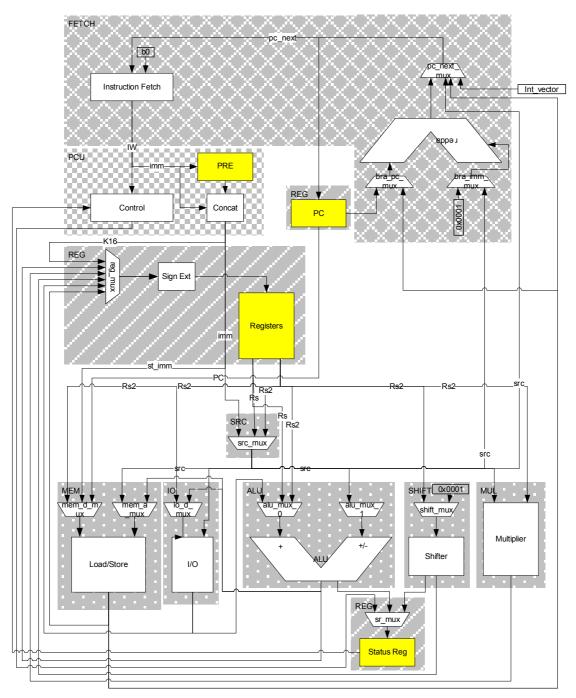


Figure 7, NanoRisc data flow diagram.

3.2 Instruction Set

The machine code instruction set of the NanoRisc consists of 55 16 bits instructions. A summary of the instruction encoding, how many cycles for execution and a short description is given in Table 4. A NanoRisc assembly language is made from this instruction set. The default program flow is to execute the next instruction located after the current instruction in the program memory. This default flow can be overridden by either acknowledging an interrupt or changing the flow by a branch, call or return instruction, where the interrupt takes priority.

	Bits						_	_	_	_	_		_	_		_		
Mnemonic	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	cles
addi	0	U7							Rd				0	0	0	0		1
muli	0	U7							Rd				0	0	0	1	Unsigned Mul Immediate of LSB	1
addci	0	U7							Rd				0	0	1	0	,	1
xori	0	U7							Rd				0	0	1	1	Logic XOR Immediate	1
subi	0	U7							Rd				0	1	0	0	Sub Immediate	1
andi	0	U7							Rd				0	1	0	1	Logic AND Immediate	1
subci	0	U7							Rd				0	1	1	0	Sub immediate with borrow	1
ori	0	U7							Rd				0	1	1	1	Logic OR Immediate	1
ld	0	U7							Rd				1	0	0	0		2
st	0	U7							Rd				1	0	0	1		2
lds	Ō	U7							Rd				1	0	1	Ō		1
sts	0	U7							Rd				1	0	1	1	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	1
cmpi	Ō	U7							Rd				1	1	Ō	Ö		1
tsti	Ō	U7							Rd				1	1	0	1		1
movi	0	U7							Rd				1	1	1	Ö	3	1
dbra	0	U7-							Rd				1	1	1		Decrement and branch	1
	1		4	0	De				-			-	114	1				
Ido		0	1	0	Ra				Rd				04				Load word with offset	2
sto		0	1	1	Ra		0.00		Rd			A . I A	04				Store word with offset	1
pre	1	1	0	-		J];Rs	32;85	η <i>r</i> cu)] or (J;siz	e;S1	171					Load 13-bit PRE register	1
bra	1	1	1	0	S8				-				0	CC	_		Conditional branch	1
rol/ror	1	1	1	0			t (or		Rd				1	0	0		ir Rotate left/right	1
scl/scr	1	1	1	0			t (or		Rd				1	0	1		ir Shift in from carry left/right	1
sll/slr	1	1	1	0	An	noum	t (or	Rs)	Rd				1	1	0	di	ir Shift left/right	1
sar	1	1	1	0	An	noum	t (or	Rs)	Rd				1	1	1	0	Arithmetic shift right	1
calli	1	1	1	0	S8								1	1	1	1	Call immediate	1
add	1	1	1	1	Rs				Rd				0	0	0	0	Add	1
mul	1	1	1	1	Rs				Rd				0	0	0	1	Unsigned Mul of LSB	1
addc	1	1	1	1	Rs				Rd				0	0	1	0	-	1
xor	1	1	1	1	Rs				Rd				0	0	1	1	Logic XOR	1
sub	1	1	1	1	Rs				Rd				0	1	0	0		1
and	1	1	1	1	Rs				Rd				0	1	0	1	Logic AND	1
subc	1	1	1	1	Rs				Rd				0	1	1	Ō		1
or	1	1	1	1	Rs				Rd				Ō	1	1	1		1
Ida	1	1	1	1	Ra				Rd				1	0	d/i	Ó		2
sta	1	1	1	1	Ra				Rd				1	0	d/i			2
cmp	1	1	1	1	Rs				Rd				1	1	0	Ö		1
tst	1	1	1	1	Rs				Rd				1	1	0	1		1
	1	1	1	1	Rs				Rd				1	1	1	0	•	1
mov	1	1	1	4	1	0	0	0					1	4	1			
zxt		1	1			0	0	0	Rd						<u> </u>		Zero-extend LSB into MSB	1
sxt ·		1			1	0	0	1	Rd						1		Sign-extend LSB into MSB	1
jmp	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	R				1	1	1	1	Indirect absolute jump	1
call	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	R				1	1	1	1	Indirect absolute call	1
ret	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	Х	X	Х	X	1	1	1	1	Return from subroutine	2
reti	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	Х	Х	Х	Х	1	1	1	1	Return from interrupt	2
inv	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	R				1	1	1	1	Invert	1
nop	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	х	Х	Х	Х	1	1	1	1	No-operation	1
rdio	1	0	0	0	Rs				Rd				0	0	0	0	Read from I/O port	1
wrio	1	0	0	1	Rs				Rd				0	0	0	0		1
rdioi	1	0	0	U5					Rd				0	0	1	0		1
wrioi	1	0	0	U5					Rd				0	1	0	0		1
iosc	1	0	0	U5					Bitn	um			0	1	1	Ō		1
iobs	1	0	0	U5					Bitn				1	Ó	Û	To	· · · · ·	1
iobc	1	0	0	U5					Bitn				1	0	1	Ō		1
iots	1	0	0	U5					Bitn				1	1	0		×	1
iotg	1	0	0	U5					Bitn				1	1	1		<u> </u>	1
iorg		0	0	00													needing	

Table 4, original instruction encoding.

For the NanoRisc to able to interpret 16 bits immediate values and instructions with 3 operands, a "pre" instruction is used. This instruction will precede the actual instruction, and it is loaded into a dedicated register in the instruction decoder. The "pre" instruction may also hold additional information about the execution of the instruction. An instruction which may use a "pre" instruction will determine how it is interpreted if it is present. Any such instruction will also clear the dedicated "pre" register. There are currently 5 ways of interpreting the "pre" instruction, and the way they are encoded is referred to as types. This is shown in Table 5.

	Bits																	
Туре	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	Description	Cycles
Type 1	1	1	0	S9[0]	Rs2				S9[8	3:1]							PRE format for 2-register/reg+immediate	1
Type 2	1	1	0	mm/F	Rs2				х	х	х	х	х	х	х	Х	PRE format for shift/rotate	1
Туре З	1	1	0	0	size	!	S10										PRE format for address extension	1
Type 4	1	1	0	1	S12												PRE format for store immediate	1
Type 5	1	1	0	r/a	a/o	CC			U8								PRE format for jmpi/calli, r/a=relative/absolute	1
																	a/o="and/or" extra CC, CC=extra CC (111=always)	
								т	. 1. 1		"		4			41.	nin en se din e	

Table 5, "pre" types and their encoding.

3.3 Tools

There exist two important tools for the NanoRisc processor; an assembler and a simulator. The assembler encodes the NanoRisc assembly language into machine code. The simulator is PC software for a windows platform, and it simulates the behavior of the NanoRisc at a cycle accurate level. It is important to understand how the assembler and simulator are made in order to modify or enhance them. This section will give a short introduction to the existing tools.

3.3.1 Assembler

The NanoRisc assembly language is based on the NanoRisc instruction set (Table 4). Each assembly instruction consists of a mnemonic followed by a possible empty list of arguments, and enables the user to produce all possible machine code instructions from the instruction set. To ease the use of instructions that may need "pre" instructions, the assembler will automatically insert "pre" instructions whenever this is needed.

The GNU Assembly Preprocessor GASP [11] should be used on source code before the NanoRisc assembler is used. This preprocessor includes support for macros with conditional statements, loops, variables, inclusion of files and all other wanted preprocessor functionality. The NanoRisc assembler is implemented as a Windows command-line executable with syntax as seen in Figure 8.

nr_asm input_file [output_file]

Figure 8, Assembler command line syntax.

Currently, the only supported output of the assembler is a simple dump of the instruction words in ASCII hex format followed by the word address of the instruction, the originating filename and line number.

The assembler is written in MS Visual C++ using the lexer generator FLEX [12] and parser generator Bison [13] to generate the lexer and parser. The lexer reads the input stream searching for sequences of characters matching the patterns accepted in the programming language it is reading. The Lexer must therefore recognize all instruction mnemonics, directives, register names, alias identifiers, constant values and operators used in the NanoRisc assembly language. When the Lexer is called, it returns a token with corresponding value, an error or end of file. The parser uses a description of the syntax of the programming language to identify constructs of the language that give meaning, and it sees the program as sequence of program lines that can be an instruction, a label definition or a directive. When one of these program line types is identified, the parser expects a list of arguments of the correct type.

3.3.2 Simulator

The NanoRisc instruction set simulator (ISS) simulates the behavior of the NanoRisc processor at a cycle accurate level. This means that after execution of one clock cycle of a program, its status is the same as for a processor running with the same input. The NanoRisc ISS is written in MS Visual C++ using the Microsoft Foundation Class (MFC) library for window handling.

The simulator has a graphical user interface (GUI) that provides a simple way to supervise and control the simulation. The most important features of the ISS are listed below, and a screenshot is shown in Figure 9.

- Memory view for viewing specified addresses in memory.
- Possibility to load data memory contents.
- Reload button to quickly restart simulation.
- I/O view of specified I/O ports with hexadecimal and graphical representation.
- Register overview.
- Cycle counter, program counter and current instruction word clearly displayed
- Full disassembler
- Code view showing instruction word, program address, filename, line number, assembly code and the number of times it has been executed for each instruction in the program.
- Highlighting of current instruction and color coding of most visited instructions
- "Run", "Step" and "Run to cursor" modes with possibility to break execution at any point.
- Unlimited number of user defined breakpoints.

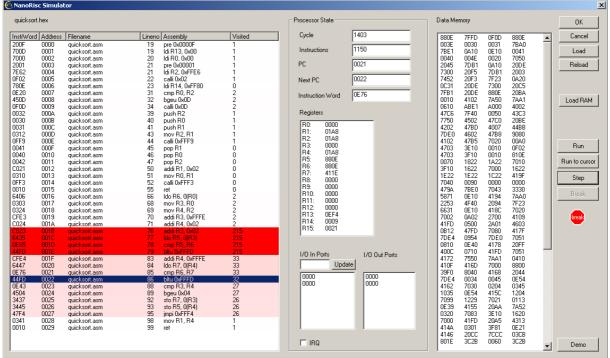


Figure 9, NanoRisc ISS screenshot.

4 Implementation of the Compression Algorithms

To identify possible improvements of the NanoRisc processor, three different compression algorithms are implemented with the current instruction set and HW capabilities. A short theoretical introduction to the three algorithms is represented in section 1.2.1. In that section it is also a short discussion of why these compression algorithms where chosen for implementation. The main argument was their fundamentally different methods of encoding and decoding the data stream. In the actual implementation, other important differences become more visible, and may in fact dominate. Since all three methods are heavily dependent on the modeling stage, they require large supporting data structures for this task. To explore the capabilities of the NanoRisc microprocessor different data structures are chosen, and all algorithms are implemented with adaptive one-pass modeling stages. A short summary will be given in here, but the differences will become more evident in the next sections where the implementations are explained in detail.

- **Rice coding** is implemented with sorted tables that gives each symbol a code value according to its index.
- **Huffman coding** is implemented with a binary tree data structure. The tree consists of linked nodes.
- LZ77 is implemented with a hash table and linked lists. The hash value is made from a CRC hash function.

The algorithms are written in the NanoRisc assembly language, and the enhanced NanoRisc assembler makes the instruction words. All assembly source codes are found in appendix E.

4.1 Implementation of Rice Coding

From section 1.2.1.1 it is evident that the most demanding task of Rice coding is making a good modeling stage and the calculation of the k-value. The encoding stage is just bit shifts and bit masking, and decoding is counting zeroes and bit masking. The implemented k-value calculation is developed by the author [14], and the modeling stage uses tables to sort the data stream according to frequency counts. The tables will assign low code values to high-sorted symbols. A simple flowchart of the implementation is shown in Figure 10. The k-value calculation and the modeling stage will be described in detail in the next subsections.

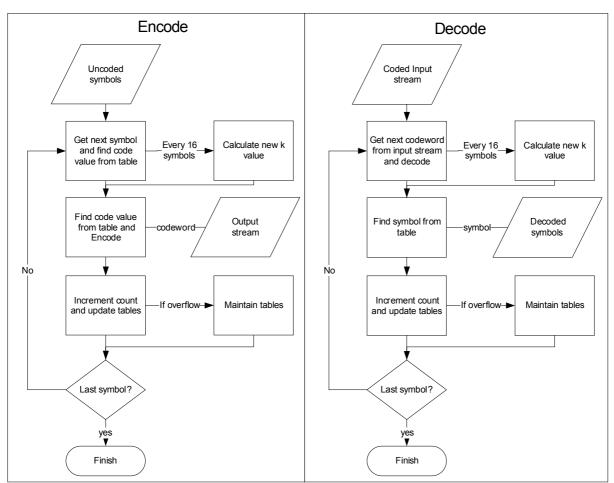


Figure 10, the Rice algorithm flowchart.

4.1.1 Calculating the K-value

From the description in section 1.2.1.1 it is clear that the optimal k-value is dependent on the entropy of the input stream. A mathematical analysis regarding the k-value was established by Dr. Penshu Yeh, R. F. Rice, and W. Miller at the NASA's Goddard Space Flight Center (GSFC) in 1993 [15]. The analysis showed that Rice codes with different k-values basically were Huffman codes for different input streams with different geometrical probability distributions. From this reasoning, it was shown that the optimal k-value could be found using this equation:

Eq. 6
$$k = \log_2(n)$$
 ;[15]

Where n is the average coded symbol value.

Many different methods have been developed to approach this equation. The equation by itself is not complex, but any hardware realization usually requires approximations. One method recommended by the CCSDS sub panel as the standard encoding method for lossless data compression in space applications, avoids any calculation of the optimal *k*-value by encoding the input stream in parallel with different *k*-values [16]. After encoding, the shortest encoded output stream is chosen for transmission. However, the parallel nature of this method is difficult to implement efficiently with one NanoRisc microprocessor. An approach to the actual equation is used in the JPEG-LS standard for image compression [17]. The method

calculates the k-value adaptively as it encodes the input data stream. From equation 6 it is clear that the most exhaustive part is averaging over a large amount of symbols. A way to compensate for the large averaging is calculating k for a given number of past symbols. The method used in JPEG-LS is shown by equation 7.

Eq 7
$$k = \min\{k' | 2^{k'} N \ge A\}$$
 ;[17]

Where N is the count of symbols used for averaging, and A is the accumulated sum of values to be encoded.

Even though equation 7 is more hardware friendly than the original equation, it still requires a bit-shift, a comparison and an accumulation in every iteration. Equation 7 is also a bit more optimistic when calculating the *k*-value than the original equation (Figure 11). The method used to adaptively calculate the *k*-value in the implementation is an approach developed by the author [14]. This approach is a sort of middle course between the CCSDS recommendation and the JPEG-LS method. The method uses a fixed symbol count for averaging which can be described by 2^{b} , where *b* is a positive integer. An approximated averaging of the accumulated symbol values is then made by *b* right shifts. The *k*-value is further approximated by finding the position of the msb in the shifted value. Figure 11 shows the calculated *k*-value using the original equation, the JPEG-LS method and the alternative approach. The calculations are done using a symbol count of 16, and accumulated symbol values from 0 to 240 (16*15). In the implementation, the *k*-value is calculated for every 16 symbol and the initial value is 2.

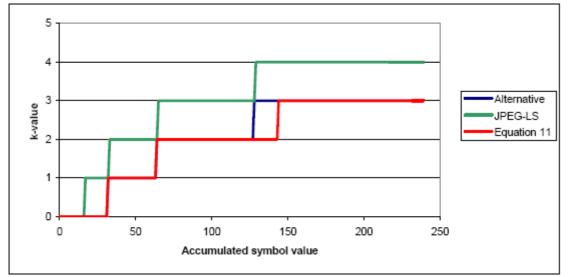


Figure 11, calculation of the k-value using equation 6, the JPEG-LS method and the alternative approach. (symbol count is 16) [14].

4.1.2 Modeling Stage

Since Rice coding makes codewords directly from the value to encode, it is usually implemented together with a prediction stage. A prediction stage may be described as a digital high pass filter. This method does not require a large supporting data structure, but it requires a source that produces samples that results in small values after the prediction stage. This is

typical for e.g. audio and sensor data. However, in order to make the modeling more general, sorted tables are used.

The table is sorted with descending frequency count. When a symbol has been encoded or decoded, it gets its frequency count incremented. If another symbol value with lower frequency count is placed higher in the table, they will swap places. The symbols placement in the table (index) becomes the code value that is Rice coded. If e.g. symbol 6 is found in index 4, the encoder will encode the value 4. When this code value is decoded, and the decoder has sorted its table in the same way as the encoder, the decoder will find symbol 6 in index 4.

There are many ways of implementing this method, but careful considerations of memory use and run time should be made. The most straightforward approach is to implement one table with symbol values and their frequency count. This implementation is memory efficient, but exhaustive searches for symbol values and frequency counts would result in long runtime. The implemented method use two tables; the "symbol index table" and the "code index table". An example of these two tables is shown in Table 6. The "symbol index table" is sorted on descending symbol value, while the "code index table" is sorted in descending frequency count. When encoding, the code value is found by using the symbol value as index to the "symbol index table". After encoding the code value is used as index to the sorted "code index table", and the frequency count for the encoded symbol is incremented in both tables. Sorting is then performed by comparing frequency counts in the "code index table". Since frequency counts are only incremented and the table is sorted for each symbol encoded, the average search for higher frequency counts tends to be short. The search is stopped when a higher or equal frequency count is found, and a swap is performed with the previous index. A swap is of course not needed if the previous index belongs to the current incremented symbol. If a swap is needed, the two rows in the code entry table and the code values in the symbol entry table are swapped.

	Symbol Index	x Table	Code Index	x Table
Index	Frequency Count	Code Value	Frequency Count	Symbol Value
0	13	3	32	5
1	13	4	25	3
2	19	2	19	2
3	25	1	13	0
4	13	5	13	1
5	32	0	13	4
6	4	7	10	8
7	2	8	4	6
8	10	6	2	7

Table 6, Table example for the implementation of the sorting method

If e.g. symbol 4 is incremented to 14 in Table 6, the code value in index 4 is used as index to the "code index table". In this table, the search will begin at index 5 and stop at index 2. From index 3, symbol 0 is found. The swap will hence be performed on symbol 4 and 0. First the row at index 5 and 3 in the "code index table" are swapped, and then the code value in index 4 and 0 in the "symbol index table" are swapped. The symbol size in the implementation is 8 bits and frequency counts are also 8 bits. Total memory use becomes $2*2^{8}*8 = 8192$ bits for the two tables.

4.2 Implementation of Huffman Coding

Many implementations of Huffman coding use a static Huffman tree in the encoder and decoder. This is because it requires significant processor power to build and maintain an adaptive Huffman tree. However, to explore the capabilities of the NanoRisc processor, an adaptive Huffman algorithm is chosen for implementation. Figure 12 shows the flowchart of the implemented method. The next subsections will describe the adaptive tree structure and how this is implemented.

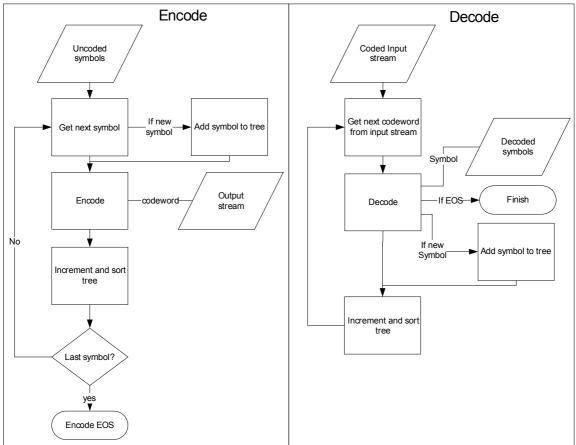


Figure 12, the Huffman algorithm flowchart.

4.2.1 Updating the Huffman tree

Effective algorithms for constructing Huffman trees are usually fairly simple (section 1.2.1.2), but it is not something that should be done after each symbol has been encoded or decoded. This would slow down the process significantly. Because of this, a method to take an existing Huffman tree and adaptively modify it to account for every symbol in the input stream must be used. A Huffman tree is a binary tree that has a weight assigned to every node, whether an internal node or a leaf node. Each node (except for the root) has a sibling that shares the nodes parent. In order to be a Huffman tree, the tree structure must exhibit something called the sibling property. A tree exhibits sibling property if the nodes can be listed in order of increasing weight, and if every node appears adjacent to its sibling in the list. Figure 13 shows a Huffman tree where every node have a weight W and a number # indicating the nodes order in a sorted list. This arrangement shows that the tree exhibits the sibling property because every node is adjacent to its sibling in a sorted list.

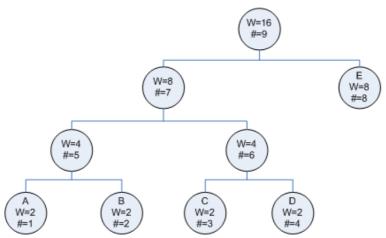
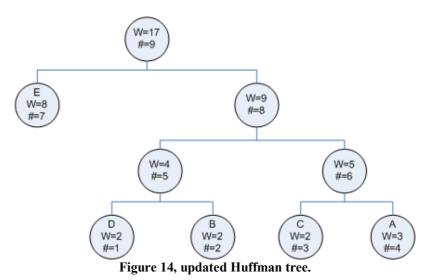


Figure 13, Huffman tree showing the sibling property.

Updating of a Huffman tree is done by incrementing the weight of every node when traversing the tree from the root node representing the current symbol to the root. Maintaining the sibling property when a tree is updated ensures that it is a Huffman tree. Since the tree is incremented for every symbol the parent nodes will always have the accumulated weight of its children.

The increment operation may result in a violation in the sibling property. When this happens, the tree must be rearranged. If a violation occurs, the node being incremented must swap place with a node higher in the sorted list. Swapping an internal node will affect the whole branch. If symbol A is encoded or decoded in the Huffman tree in Figure 13, leaf node A will first be incremented to W=3. This increment will violate the sibling property since other nodes higher in the list have less weight. The first swap must be between node #1 and #4 in the list. After the nodes have been swapped, the increment operation must continue with node #6 and #7. When node #7 is incremented it must be swapped with node #8. The resulting Huffman tree with updated weights and order is shown in Figure 14.



4.2.2 Implementing the Tree Data Structure

The tree is implemented with nodes that each has pointers to its parent and/or children. The use of pointers enables the nodes in the tree to be ordered in a sorted list, since they do not have pre defined memory locations. Traversing the tree is done through pointers, and searching for higher sorted nodes is done by calculating indexes in the sorted list. When choosing this data structure in an environment with strict memory requirements, it is important to hold the memory occupied by a node as small as possible. If the input stream consists of an alphabet of k symbols, a full Huffman tree requires k-1 internal nodes and k leaf nodes. For 8 bits symbols, a full Huffman tree will thus require 511 nodes. If any node should be able to have a pointer to any other node in the Huffman tree, the pointer must be at least 9 bits. An internal node must therefore have 3*9 bits reserved for pointers, and a leaf node must have one 9 bits pointer to its parent. A leaf node must also have 8 bits for its symbol value. In addition, all nodes must have bits for weight and an indicator telling what kind of node it is (internal, leaf, left or right child).

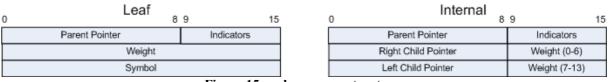
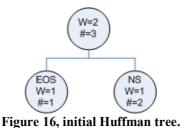


Figure 15, node memory structure.

Figure 15 shows how the node data structure is allocated in the memory. The weight is restricted to 14 bits which makes the maximum number of symbols encoded or decoded before truncating 16384. All nodes allocate 3 fields of 16bits in the memory. When a node in memory location has its first field at memory address a, the next higher sorted node is at memory address a+3. Since there is no way of telling where in the memory a leaf node is situated, the encoder must also have a table of memory addresses to every leaf node. Thus, the static memory allocation required for the encoder is 3578 bytes, while the decoder requires 3066 bytes.

There are three main ways of initiating the Huffman tree when encoding and decoding. The first method is starting with a fully balanced Huffman tree with all symbols, the second is using a predefined weighted Huffman tree. The third and implemented method starts with a Huffman tree of two leaf nodes and the parent (root) node. Figure 16 shows how this tree looks like. When a never before seen symbol is encountered in the input stream at the encoder, it transmits the code found by traversing the tree from the root to the *NS* (New Symbol) leaf node. After this, it can send the new symbol without encoding it. The new symbol must then be inserted as a new leaf node in the Huffman tree. The *EOS* (End Of Stream) leaf is used at the end of the stream. By applying this method, the tree will not occupy more memory than needed and symbols may acquire short codewords earlier in the encoding process. Since the incrementing operation is proportional to the average code length, this method will in most cases require less processing power in the beginning of the stream.



4.3 Implementation of LZ77

The LZ77 compression method was first described in 1977, and during the 1980s and 1990s it was improved several times. Much effort was put into minimizing search time and coding indexes with variable length codes. One of the improved methods is Deflate. This has become a popular compression method that was originally used in the well-known Zip and Gzip software. The method has since been adopted by many applications such as the HTTP protocol, the PNG graphics file format, and Adobe's PDF (Portable Document File). The compression method implemented in the NanoRisc processor is a very simplified version of Deflate developed by the author. This section will first describe the simplified Deflate compression method before describing details of the implemented data structure.

4.3.1 Simplified Deflate

The Deflate compression method is described in detail in [18]. Deflate is a variant of the LZ77 compression method combined with Huffman codes. The original LZ77 method outputs an index to a match and the next symbol in the look-ahead buffer that did not match. By always outputting two components (index and next symbol), the performance of LZ77 is reduced. The Deflate variant eliminates one of the components. If a match was found it outputs the index, or if a match was not found it outputs the next symbol in the look-ahead buffer. Thus, the output stream consists of two types of entities; symbols and indexes. In order to separate these two entities, they are Huffman coded using a static code table. The codewords are prefix codes such that the decoder knows when it reads a symbol or length. If it reads a length, it assumes that a distance will follow.

The reason for making a simplified version of Deflate is mainly to ease memory requirements by not storing large Huffman code tables, and utilizing the fact that most wireless transmission is based on small data packets. The minimum length of a match in Deflate is 3, and the maximum is 257. The maximum distance is 32768. It is evident that a distance of 32768 is not needed in most wireless applications, and a length of 257 would span over most packet lengths. The ZigBeeTM standard uses a maximum packet size of 128 byte with 104 bytes of payload [19], and the Bluetooth[®] standard use a maximum packet size of 359bytes with about 340bytes of payload [19]. In the simplified implementation of Deflate, the maximum length is 150 and the minimum length is 3. The search buffer should cover a number of packets to achieve high compression ratios, but it requires memory to store used packets. A maximum search buffer of 1279 is used in the implemented version. Instead of having prefix Huffman codes, a fixed 3 bits prefix of what to follow in the data stream is used. Each prefix is listed in Table 7. A prefix precedes every symbol or index, except for the *EOS* prefix that follows the last symbol or index in the encoded data stream.

Indicator	Meaning
000	EOS (End of Stream)
001	8bits symbol
010	2bits length, 8bits distance (length: 3-6, distance: 0-255)
011	4bits length, 8bits distance (length:7-22, distance:0-255)
100	7bits length, 8bits distance (length:23-150, distance:0-255)
101	2bits length, 10bits distance (length:3-6, distance:256-1279)
110	4bits length, 10bits distance (length:7-22, distance:256-1279)
111	7bits length, 10bits distance (length:23-150, distance:256-1279)
	Table 7 indicators for simplified Deflate

Table 7, indicators for simplified Deflate

Figure 17 shows a flowchart of the simplified Deflate compression algorithm. The encoding and decoding is like described above. The next subsections will describe how the encoder search for matches and how different data structures make this process as efficient as possible.

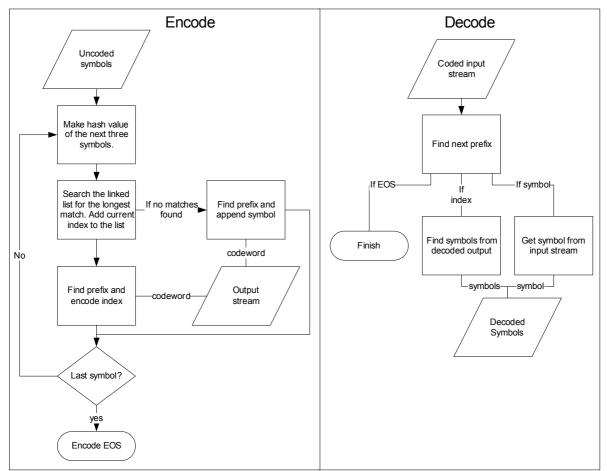


Figure 17, the simplified Deflate flow chart.

4.3.2 Searching for Matches

The most time consuming task in the LZ77 coding method is searching for the longest match. This can be shown from the theoretical description of LZ77 in section 1.2.1.3. A straightforward approach could be to exhaustively search for a match by reading the whole search buffer for every new symbol in the input data stream. This approach would require very little memory allocation, but it would have extensive memory access and long run time. This is a common problem for dictionary methods, and is mainly the reason for their highly asymmetrical behavioral. Repetitive sequences of symbols must be replaced by a codeword, and if this is to be done efficiently, sequences must be found through some sort of dictionary data structure. A dictionary data structure, from now on also referred to as the dictionary, helps finding an index for a match in the search buffer for the next sequence to be encoded in the look-ahead buffer. There are many ways of implementing dictionaries, and the throughput and memory usage of dictionary methods are very much dependent on how this is done.

An often used dictionary is the trie data structure. A trie is essentially a tree where each edge is labeled with a symbol, and sibling edges have different symbols. Thus, every sequence in the search buffer can be found by traversing the trie from the root to a leaf. Even though tries are often used to hold dictionaries, this kind of data structures is not used in the simplified Deflate implementation. The main reason is the heavy use of a tree data structure in the implementation of the adaptive Huffman compression method (section 4.2). Another method of holding the dictionary is therefore preferred.

Hash tables are also used to help the search for sequences in dictionary compression methods, and this is the method chosen for implementation. Hashing is performed by a hash function, and is usually used to associate keys with values. The most common use is hash tables where the hash function transforms a key into an index in a hash table. The hash table is then used to locate the desired value. A good hash functions main features is to produce a hash value of fixed length from an input key, and where two different keys are unlikely to produce the same hash value. If two hash values are different, the two input keys must have been different in some way. This property is a consequence of hash functions being deterministic, mathematical functions. Nevertheless, the feature of producing values of fixed length from a key of arbitrary length implies that different keys may produce the same hash value.

There are many types of hash functions available, and it is important to spend some time choosing a hash function. A good hash function has evenly distributed hash values, and it may be considered as a random number generator. A good hash function will thus minimize the probability of different symbol values generating equal hash values (this is often referred to as collisions). In [20] different hash functions are compared. This paper concludes that checksums generated from standard CRC polynomials provided an excellent hash function. CRC hash values are the remainder of a division based on polynomial arithmetics in a finite field [21]. This hash function is commonly used in packet network traffic or data files to detect errors after transmission or storage. Normally, the result of a CRC hash function is referred to as a checksum, but this is not an accurate term since a checksum would be calculated through addition and not through division, as is the case for a CRC hash function. In this thesis, the result of the CRC function will be referred to as a hash value.

4.3.3 The Dictionary Data Structure

The hash function implemented is based on the CRC8 CCITT standard polynomial [22]. There are several ways of implementing this hash function. The simplest method uses bit shifts and "xor" operations in a Linear Feedback Shift Register (LFSR). This method is simple and easy to implement, but it requires one calculation for every bit. To speed up this process, the implemented method uses look up tables for calculating the hash value for every byte. The look up table contains pre calculated hash values for every byte value, and must be stored in memory. Each pre calculated hash value is 8 bits, so the table requires 256 bytes of memory.

To speed up the search process in the encoding algorithm, every three consecutive symbols in the stream are hased to an 8 bits value. The 8 bits hash value is used as an index to a hash table. In every index there is a pointer to a linked list. The linked lists contain the pointer to every three-symbol sequence in the search buffer that produced the same hash value. The search is then restricted to finding the longest match starting from any of these pointers. Figure 18 shows how the linked lists are linked to the hash table and how they expand.

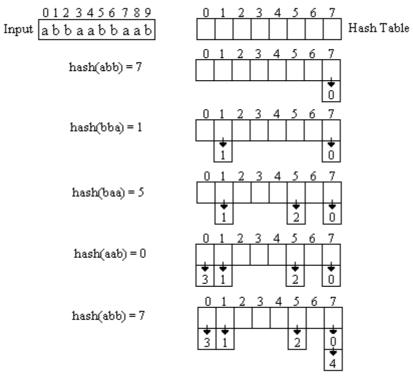


Figure 18, hash table with linked lists

The implemented linked list data structure does not have a limit for its expansion. This is not advised for large search buffers or when dealing with strict memory requirements. A sort of maintenance function should be considered for other implementations. If this is not implemented, the search for matches will be very time consuming in a data stream with many collisions. The memory use for this method is the look up table used in the hash function, the hash table and the linked list. The hash table is 256*1byte, and the hash table with the linked list could potentially grow as large as 256*2bytes + 1000*4bytes = 4512 bytes without a maintenance function. This is in most cases unacceptable for embedded solutions.

5 Enhancements of Existing Tools

To measure the current capabilities of the NanoRisc microprocessor and the effect of improvements made, it was necessary to add some functionality to the existing software tools. This section will describe how the profiling tool is added, and how the assembler and ISS are altered in order to simulate the proposed HW enhancements. Both the enhanced NanoRisc assembler and ISS are found as executables in appendix E.

5.1 Profiling

After the compression algorithms are implemented in the NanoRisc assembly language, it is necessary to profile the resource use when the source code is processed by a NanoRisc microprocessor. A good profiling tool is vital for exploring where processing power is consumed in the algorithms. Estimations are always possible to do from studying technical descriptions or source code, but the real picture is shown through profiling with realistic input data. Since all compression algorithms are heavily dependent on the source data, profiling could visualize unexpected bottlenecks and show where the best improvement potential is. Nevertheless, estimations must be done to evaluate where in the algorithm attention and profiling should be focused.

When these elements are found, there must be some way of telling the ISS where in the code profiling is wanted. The easiest way to implement this feature would be to use the GUI. The user could mark areas of code for profiling in the source code window of the ISS, but since the code in this window may originate from multiple included files and do not show labels and aliases, this approach would not be easy to use. The best way for the user would be to specify areas for profiling in the original assembly source code. This implies that enhancements of both the NanoRisc assembler and the NanoRisc ISS are necessary.

5.1.1 Profiling With the Assembler

The profile enhancement of the assembler enables the user to specify which areas of the source code that profiling is wanted. Profile labels define the areas, and the syntax is shown in Figure 19.

.start_profile identifier [category] .end_profile identifier Figure 19, profile labels syntax.

The ".start_profile" label indicates that the start of a profile area begins at next instruction line, and the ".end_profile" label indicates that the end of a profile area is at the prior instruction line. A pair of ".start_profile" and ".end_profile" labels with the same unique identifier defines a specific profile area. Several profile areas may overlap, as long as they don't start or end at the same instruction line. When an instruction line is being executed, the resource usage is credited to the profile area that is defined for that instruction line. If profile areas overlap, the same resource usage will be credited to all overlapping areas. Every call or branch within a profile area will be credited, and this makes placing ".end_profile" labels critical. A branch or call inside a profile area could result in undesirable effects such as making the end of the profile area unreachable.

The category part of the ".start_profile" label is optional. If a category is specified for a profile area, all resource use credited the profile area is also added to the category. Multiple profile areas may use the same category, and the category will hold the sum of the resources used by the profile areas. This is convenient when elements of the same kind are situated in different locations in the source code.

5.1.1.1 Implementation

The enhanced assembler is made by altering or adding to the original source code. The lexer is altered to recognize the ".start_profile" and ".end_profile" tokens, and the parser is altered to identify profile labels with identifier and category arguments. Every time the assembly program reads a profile label, it will create a profile object and link it to the correct instruction line. The profile objects are made from a profile class, and a linked list data structure is made to organize these objects. Both the profile class and data structure is added to the original C++ source code. It is a separate linked list data structure for ".end_profile" objects and ".start_profile" objects. When the assembler has read the assembly source code, it resolves these two data structures to ensure that every ".start_profile" object has a corresponding ".end_profile" object. The output from the original assembler is a line for every instruction word in ASCII hex format followed by the word address of the instruction, the originating filename and line number. The new profile enhancement will output three additional information fields for every instruction line; a number indicating if the instruction is the start or end of a profile area, the identifier of the profile area and the category.

5.1.2 Profiling In the Simulator

As mentioned, the ISS simulates the behavior of the NanoRisc at a cycle accurate level, it is therefore convenient to profile by measuring the amount of clock cycles used within the profiling areas defined in the source code. Another important measure is the amount of memory access, and this is also feasible by enhancing the original ISS. The new GUI of the enhanced ISS is shown in Figure 20. From the figure, one can see the resemblance from the original GUI in Figure 9. Altering the original GUI as little as possible will help users of the original ISS using the new profiling tool. The only profile information visible in the new GUI is the "Profile" button, the "Prof. Identifier" column in the program window, and the count of memory load and store operations. It will only show RAM access since the NanoRisc will fetch a new instruction from the ROM almost every clock cycle.

To do profiling in the enhanced NanoRisc ISS, it must be loaded with a file containing the output from the enhanced NanoRisc assembler described in section 5.1.1. If the source code is made with profiling labels, their identifier will be shown in the "Prof. Identifier" column on the correct instruction line. Instruction lines that correspond to a ".start_profile" label will have the prefix "S" before its identifier, and instruction lines corresponding to an ".end_profile" label will have "E" as prefix. The two counters showing memory load and store operations will update for every step in the simulation. They will not show the amount of clock cycles used for load and store operations, but the amount of times the memory is accessed during the simulation. In other words, the load and store counters profile the memory access at an instruction accurate level.

inorisc () iffman_e	1													
ostrWord	I Address	Filename	Lineno	Assembly	Visited	Prof. Identifier		Processor State		Memory				
604	20EC	huffman enc.gasp	132	pre	37	The dentilier		Instructions	240665	First add	fress		0	
084	20EE	huffman_enc.gasp	132	sub 0x400, R6, R8	37				·	1			<u> </u>	
72F	20F0	huffman_enc.gasp	133	pre	37			PC	1116	Last ad	liess		8191	
3B1	20F2	huffman_enc.gasp	133	insbfi R11[13:7], R8[15]	37									_
780	20F4	huffman_enc.gasp	134	st R8, [R10 + 0x0]	37			Next PC	1117	4173	206D	656E	7469	-
000	20F6	huffman_enc.gasp	135	pre	37				·	6F6E	6564	2C20	7468	
63	20F8	huffman_enc.gasp	135	stin R6, [R4*+4096]	37			Instruction Word	FCC3	6520	6D6F	7374	2065	_
x04	20FA	huffman_enc.gasp	136	pre	37			inclusion in ora	I	7868 6520	6175	7374 7274	6976 206F	
A4	20FC	huffman_enc.gasp	136	sub 0x404, R10, R10	37			Source	huffman_enc.gasp	6620	7061 7468	6520	206F 4C5A	
.0C	20FE	huffman_enc.gasp	137	pre	37			Source	Indiminan_ene.gasp	3737	7468 2069	7320	4C5A 7468	
A7	2100	huffman_enc.gasp	137	or 0xC00, R10, R10	37					6520	2069 7365	6172	6368	
AB	2102	huffman_enc.gasp	138	st R10, [R6]+	37			Registers		2066	6F72	206D	6174	
000	2104	huffman_enc.gasp	139	pre	37					6368	6573	206D 2E20	5468	
OB	2106 2108	huffman_enc.gasp	139	st.bz 0x0, [R6]+	37			R0: 03E9	IRQ	6973	2069	7320	6120	
4B OF		huffman_enc.gasp	140	st R4, [R6]+	37	E in and an also		R1: 163C		636F	6D6D	6F6E	2070	
0⊦ 70	210A 210C	huffman_enc.gasp	141 148	ret	74 1000	E insert_node		R2: 0000	break	726F	626C	656D	2070	
		huffman_enc.gasp		add 0x1, R7	1000	S increment_tree		R3: 9007	Ureak	6F72	2064	6963	7469	
72 7F	210E 2110	huffman_enc.gasp	149 150	st R7, [R6 + 0x2] call 0x17	1000			R4: 0000		6F6E	6172	7920	6D65	
7F 00	2110	huffman_enc.gasp huffman_enc.gasp	150	DIE	4267			R5: 0006		7468	6F64	732C	2061	
9D	2112	huffman_enc.gasp	153	addbfl 0x400, R9[:9]	4267			R6: 0406		6E64	2069	7320	6D61	
50 A4	2114	huffman_enc.gasp	155	Id (R9 + 0x4), R10	4267			R7: 03E8		696E	6C79	2074	6865	
C2	2118	huffman_enc.gasp	155	Id (R9 + 0x4), R10	4267			R8: 0003		2072	6561	736F	6E20	
00	211A	huffman_enc.gasp	156	pre	4267			R9: 0400		666F	7220	7468	6569	
7C	2110	huffman_enc.gasp	156	str 0x2, R10, R7	4267			R10: 0E0C		7220	6869	6768	6C79	
706	211E	huffman_enc.gasp	157	bre	4267			R11: 0077 B12: 0000		2061	7379	6D6D	6574	
ci .	2120	huffman_enc.gasp	157	insbfi R12[15:7], R7[6]	4267					7269	6361	6C20	6265	
70	2122	huffman_enc.gasp	158	add 0x1. B7	4267					6861	7669	6F72	616C	
'9F	2124	huffman_enc.gasp	159	pre	4267			R14: 0002 R15: 1116		2E20	5265	7065	7469	
71	2126	huffman_enc.gasp	159	insbfi R7[6:7], R12[15]	4267			HID: 1116		7469	7665	2073	6571	
2F	2128	huffman_enc.gasp	160	Die	4267			· ·		7565	6E63	6573	206F	
71	212A	huffman enc.gasp	160	insbfi R7[13:7], R10[15]				1/0 In Ports	1/0 Out Ports	6620	7379	6D62	6F6C	
IC2	2120	huffman_enc.gasp	161	st R12, [R9 + 0x2]	4267					7320	6D75	7374	2062	
A4	212E	huffman enc.gasp	162	st R10, [R9 + 0x4]	4267			Updat	.e	6520	7265	706C	6163	
04	2130	huffman enc.gasp	163	pre	4267			0000	0000	6564	2062	7920	6120	
90	2132	huffman enc.gasp	163	cmp 0x400, R9	4267			0000	0000	636F	6465	776F	7264	
40	2134	huffman enc.gasp	164	bra eg 0x04	4267			0000	0000	2C20	616E	6420	6966	
IGE	2136	huffman enc.gasp	165	mov B9, B6	3267					2074	6869	7320	6973	
)3F	2138	huffman_enc.gasp	166	call 0x03	3267					2074	6F20	6265	2064	
C7	213A	huffman_enc.gasp	168	bra 0xFFEC	3267					6F6E	6520	6566	6669	
OF	213C	huffman_enc.gasp	170	ret	2000	E increment_tree				6369	656E	746C	7920	
6A0	213E	huffman enc.gasp	181	ld [R6 + 0x0], R10	4267	S sort_tree				7365	7175	656E	6365	
9E	2140	huffman_enc.gasp	182	mov R6, R9	4267		_	1		7320	6D75	7374	2062	•
400	2142	huffman_enc.gasp	183	pre	4267		-							_
				Mem Access		000000	-	1			1			
Load	Vie	w Source Pr	ofile	St Ld	Cycle	332738		Run 9	Step Demo	Load	RAM			ок

Figure 20, enhanced NanoRisc ISS GUI.

The profile window shown in Figure 21 will appear if the "Profile" button is pushed. Profile areas defined in the assembly source code are shown in two tables, and the categories are shown in the third. This window can be shown by pushing the "Profile" button any time during the simulation, and it will show the profile information gathered so far. Profile areas listed in the "Active Identifiers" table are areas that embraced the instruction line executed at the time the "Profile" button was pushed. The "Passive Identifiers" table show profile areas that are not affected by the current instruction line. Both the "Active Identifiers" table and the "Passive Identifiers" table have four columns; "Identifier" is of course the name of the profile area, "Cycles" is the amount of cycles credited the profile area, "Calls" is the amount of times the instruction line with the profile areas ".start_profile" label have been executed, and "Per" is the percentage of the total amount of clock cycles which are credited that profile area.

The "Categories" table show profile information for the categories defined in the assembly source code. It is not visible in the profile window which profile areas belong to which category, so profile areas should be defined with identifiers that give a hint of which category they belong to. If the profile area is not defined with a category, a category with the same identifier as the profile area is listed in the table. All tables are ordered by descending cycle count.

ctive Identifiers			Passive Identifiers				Categories			
ctive Identifiers dentifier ICycle ncrement_tree 148 sort_tree 104 switch_nodes 34 ofo_switch_nodes1 1	Calls 1 2 1 1	Is Per 48.21% 33.88% 11.07% 0.33%	Identifier insert_node encode shit_ostream bfo_sort_tree1 sm_main_1 bfo_insert_node2 bfo_ins_count1 bfo_encode1 sm_insert_node2 bfo_ins_count2 bfo_ins_count1 bfo_encode1 sm_insert_node1 sm_insert_node1 sm_insert_node1	3 3 3 3 3 3 3 0 0 0	Calls 1 1 2 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Per 17.26% 10.10% 4.56% 2.61% 1.95% 1.63% 1.63% 1.63% 1.30% 1.30% 0.98% 0.98% 0.98% 0.98% 0.98% 0.98% 0.98% 0.98% 0.98% 0.00% 0.00% 0.00%	Categories Category increment_tree sort_tree insert_node bfo switch_nodes encode streams shift_mul mem_switch	Cycles 148 104 53 44 34 31 14 13 9	Per 48.21% 33.88% 17.26% 14.33% 11.07% 10.10% 4.23% 2.93%	Close

Figure 21, Profile window

5.1.2.1 Implementation

The enhanced NanoRisc ISS is made by altering or adding to the original source code. When the ISS is loaded with a file made from the enhanced NanoRisc assembler, it will look for indicators at every instruction line that tells if the line is the start of a profile area, the end of a profile area, or neither. If the instruction line is the start of a profile area, the simulator will create a profile object. Profile objects are made from a profile class, and are held in a linked list data structure. If the profile area is defined with a category, a category object will be created from a category class if it is not already created by earlier profile areas. If the profile area is not defined with a category, a category object will be created with the profile areas identifier as name. All profile objects are linked to their category objects.

The profile objects are organized in two separate linked list data structures during simulation. One linked list holds the profile objects affected by the current instruction line executed in the simulation, and the other list holds the profile objects not being affected. These lists are called the active and passive list. If the instruction line currently being executed is the start of a profile area, the profile object corresponding to that profile area will be removed from the passive list and added to the active list. When an object is moved in this direction, it will also have its "call" count incremented. If the instruction line is the end of a profile area, the corresponding object is moved from the active list back to the passive list. For every clock cycle of the simulation, all profile objects in the active list will have their clock cycle count incremented. And every time a profile object is incremented, it will also increment the clock cycle count of its linked category object. So if e.g. a category has two overlapping profile areas, it will be incremented twice when both profile areas are "active".

When the "Profile" button is pushed, the linked list data structures holding the active, passive and category objects are passed to the profile GUI object. The profile GUI class is added to the original C++ source code. Before the data is shown, all objects in their respective lists are sorted with descending cycle count.

5.2 Adding New Instructions

In addition to making changes in the hardware module, it is vital that the assembler is able to make code words for the added instructions. This makes it simpler to verify the correct behavior by using actual source code as input to the test bench. To profile and control the behavior, the simulator is also altered in order to simulate the behavior of the NanoRisc according to the changes made.

5.2.1 Adding New Instructions to the Assembler

The lexer is altered to recognize the new instruction mnemonics and their operators. The code words bit pattern must also be defined, and the code generator function must be able to insert parameters in the defined fields. In addition, it must be able to detect when the new instructions need "pre" instructions and insert these. The operation of adding new instructions to the assembler is straightforward for readers who are familiar with lexer and parser generators [12, 13].

5.2.2 Altering the Behavior of the Simulator

In order to simulate the algorithms with added instructions, the behavior of the simulator must be altered. The simulator must recognize the code words and be able to interpret these into the desired behavior. The first task is to alter the disassembler that interprets the instruction into more human readable assembly language. In order to do this it must be able to retrieve parameters from the instruction itself or the "pre" instruction. After this, new functions must be added in order to simulate the behavior and show the correct response to the user in the GUI. The new instructions and behavior is added as options to the original simulator. A new button ("NewISA") is added so the user may turn on or off these changes. When this button is clicked, a new dialog window appears so the user can choose the preferred collection of new behavior. Figure 22 shows this dialog window. This is done in order to do controlled simulation with the desired behavior. It is also useful if some of the enhancements are rejected, or if it is desirable to implement different versions of the NanoRisc with only a collection of the enhancements.

Dialog		×
🔽 Non Block Loa	d	OK
🔽 Move BF		Cancel
🔽 Arith BF		
🗖 Clz		
🔲 Shift Add		
	Stream reg	
🔽 Stream	7	

Figure 22, new ISA dialog window.

6 Finding Enhancements for the NanoRisc Processor

This chapter will explore the capabilities of the NanoRisc microprocessor when processing the implemented algorithms. Based on these profiling results, new instructions and behavior are proposed and implemented in the simulator. Finding improvements are done in two stages, and after each stage proposals are made to increase performance. In the first stage, blocks of codes that emulate possible new instructions are identified and profiled. This is referred to as instruction level profiling. Instruction level profiling is difficult. Small blocks of instructions that may increase performance by replacing them with new instructions must be identified. In the second stage, the blocks of codes are replaced by proposed instructions, and the source codes are profiled once again to find improvements on an algorithmic level. Algorithmic level profiling is profiling major parts of the compression algorithms, e.g. decoding, encoding, updating data structures, etc. These are easy to identify and is often implemented as functions.

All algorithms are tested on four different data streams. A software program is developed to make three of the data streams. This program creates random numbers from different probability distributions. The source code for this program is found in appendix E. The last stream is made from a section of text in this thesis. The streams generated from the software program have Gamma, Poission and exponential probability distributions. All data streams are 1000 byte, and their symbol distributions are found in appendix B.

Improving throughput of the algorithms may be done in different ways, e.g. parallelization, pipelining, instruction level accelerations, hardware accelerators etc. Parallelization of the NanoRisc would require a redefinition of the NanoRisc architecture and behaviour. The compact original NanoRisc instruction set is not big enough to handle parallel processes, and a VLIW type instruction set must be considered. A parallelization of the NanoRisc will not be considered since this will alter the basic principles of the processor, and it would be hard to support programs made with the original instruction set. Pipelining will improve instructions that use several clock cycles, but since the only instructions that use more than one clock cycle in the original instruction set are load operations, it will have minimal effect on the processing power of NanoRisc. The two main enhancements considered are instruction level accelerators.

Instruction level acceleration is about finding ways to add instructions and architectural features that is beneficial for the algorithms, and hopefully also beneficial to other tasks that the processor might be doing. This kind of acceleration is tied very close to the processor core, but it is less intrusive than parallelization and pipelining. Instructions and architectural changes may be added while old programs are still supported. Hardware accelerators are dedicated HW that is designed to do a large portion of a specific task. They are usually detached from the processor core, but still tied closely through memory or buses for low latency communication. Since HW accelerators often do a large portion of a specific task and are heavily optimized, they are usually not very useful for other tasks that the processor might deal with. Other considerations when it comes to HW accelerators are power and area. When accelerators take on a big portion of the total load, it is usually exposed in the power and area

6.1 Instruction Level Profiling

Since all of the implemented algorithms use variable sized codes to achieve compression, instructions that are able to do bit field operations are something that may increase performance. Bit field operations are operations that use variable or a fixed sized part of a register as input. Operations may be anything from moving or inserting bit fields to arithmetic or logical operations. Examples of blocks of instructions from the source codes that do bit field operations are found in Figure 23 and Figure 24.

and	OxFF80, R11	;Clear 9 msb's
sll	2, R11	;Shift to wanted position
and	OxO1FF, R1O	;Clear 9 lsb's
or	R11, R10	;Insert bit field

Figure 23, example insertion of a bit field (6 clock cycles).

and	OxOOFF, R5	;Clear 8 msb's
add	Ox1, R5	;Inc freq

Figure 24, example addition on a bit field (3 clock cycles).

Since many of these blocks use several clock cycles when processed, one can expect that new instructions may be implemented to reduce the amount of clock cycles. Many existing processors have bit field instructions. As mentioned in chapter 2, both Phillips TriMedia and ARM – DSP have bit field instructions for extracting, inserting and bit-packing. In addition to saving clock cycles, bit field operations may also save RAM access. When instructions are able to work with bit fields instead of whole registers, the information held in the generalpurpose registers in the processor can be packed more efficiently and RAM usage may decrease. In addition to bit field operations there are also other instructions that may help increase processing power. Such instructions may be shift-add instructions, detection of the position of the most or least significant bit in a register, instructions for making bit masks, etc. Shift-add instructions are common in most digital signal processor. Since the NanoRisc processor can address the memory at byte level, loading and storing words must be done with even memory addresses. Most shift-add operations are hence used to make memory addresses for table indexes, an example is shown in Figure 25. Intel 80x86, Motorola 680x0 and many ARM cores (to name a few) have instructions for finding leading or trailing ones or zeroes. Such an instruction is especially useful for the decoding stage in the Rice algorithm.

sll	1, R5	;Shift index
st.b	R6, [R5 + 0x0020]	;store index information

Figure 25, example shift add operation for index storage (3 clock cycles).

The new potential instructions identified in the assembly source code are gathered in three main categories; Bit Field Operations, Shift-Add Operations and Count Leading Zeroes. The rest of this section will show the result from profiling these operations. Detailed profiling results are found in appendix C.

6.1.1 Profiling Rice

Table 8 shows the results from the Rice algorithm. The table shows the total amount of cycles used by the operations per total amount of cycles used by the algorithm. In addition to the Bit Field, Shift-Add operations and the Count Leading Zeroes (CLZ) operation, the RAM access is shown as load/store operations. The cycles/call column shows how many clock cycles the profiling area use on average every time it is moved to the active list. Even though the basic algorithm is symmetrical, the decoding use more clock cycles than the encoding. This is mostly because the use of the CLZ operation in the decoder. The CLZ operation is used when the zeroes in the rice codeword is counted. This is done through shifting the codeword until a one is detected. The operation could be done more effectively by a more recursive operation or by using look up tables, but this would increase the program size and use more memory. The CLZ operation is also used when calculating the k-value.

	Encode		Decode		
	Cycles/Tot.Cycles	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles	Cycles/Call	
Distribution:	Poisson (Tot. Cyc	Poisson (Tot. Cycl	oisson (Tot. Cycles: 112490)		
Bit Field Operations	9.60%	4.50	8.50%	4.47	
ShiftAdd Operations	9.70%	3.00	6.60%	3.47	
Count Leading Zeroes	3.40%	51.68	15.60%	16.56	
Store Operations	8.60%	1.00	7.90%	1.00	
Load Operations	8.90%	2.00	8.10%	2.00	
Distribution:	Gamma (Tot. Cycl	les: 91322)	Gamma(Tot.Cycle	s: 110930)	
Bit Field Operations	9.80%	4.50	8.50%	4.48	
ShiftAdd Operations	9.60%	3.00	6.60%	3.48	
Count Leading Zeroes	3.60%	52.84	16.20%	16.95	
Store Operations	8.60%	1.00	7.80%	1.00	
Load Operations	8.90%	2.00	8.10%	2.00	
Distribution:	Exponential (Tot.Cy	cles: 78729)	Exponential (Tot.Cy	cles: 97912)	
Bit Field Operations	11.50%	4.50	9.30%	4.49	
ShiftAdd Operations	9.20%	3.00	7.30%	3.54	
Count Leading Zeroes	0.60%	7.00	13.50%	12.48	
Store Operations	9.20%	1.00	8.30%	1.00	
Load Operations	9.50%	2.00	8.40%	2.00	
Distribution:	Text (Tot. Cycles	: 121546)	Text (Tot. Cycles	: 141604)	
Bit Field Operations	7.40%	4.50	7.00%	4.45	
ShiftAdd Operations	7.60%	3.00	5.40%	3.45	
Count Leading Zeroes	2.50%	49.45	12.70%	16.75	
Store Operations	7.00%	1.00	6.70%	1.00	
Load Operations	9.30%	2.00	7.50%	2.00	

Table 8, instruction level profiling results from the Rice algorithm.

6.1.2 Profiling Huffman

The profiling results from the Huffman algorithm are found in Table 9. Since the adaptive Huffman algorithm is a symmetric compression algorithm, similar results are found for the encoding and decoding algorithm. It is clear from the results that there is much to gain from bit field operations, in addition to the possible reduction of load/store operations. Shift-Add operations are mostly used when the encoder must find the address to a leaf node from a table (the symbol value is shifted left once before it is added to the base address of the table). The total clock cycle count shows that the implementation is slightly asymmetric. The reason for this is that the decoder spends more clock cycles in the decoding function.

	Encode	9	Decode)			
	Cycles/Tot.Cycles	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles	Cycles/Call			
Distribution:	Poisson (Tot. Cyc	les: 450780)	Poisson (Tot. Cycles: 459299)				
Bit Field Operations	26.30%	3.37	22.50%	3.29			
ShiftAdd Operations	1.20%	3.70	0.30%	3.04			
Store Operations	8.20%	1.00	8.20%	1.00			
Load Operations	14.90%	2.00	15.10%	2.00			
Distribution:	Gamma (Tot. Cycl	les: 411086)	Gamma(Tot.Cycle	es: 418697)			
Bit Field Operations	26.30%	3.38	22.50%	3.30			
ShiftAdd Operations	1.20%	3.78	0.20%	3.06			
Store Operations	8.20%	1.00	8.20%	1.00			
Load Operations	14.90%	2.00	15.00%	2.00			
Distribution:	Exponential (Tot.Cy	vcles: 195059)	Exponential (Tot.Cy	cles: 199180)			
Bit Field Operations	23.50%	3.49	20.30%	3.41			
ShiftAdd Operations	2.20%	3.95	0.10%	3.11			
Store Operations	8.70%	1.00	9.10%	1.00			
Load Operations	14.50%	2.00	14.40%	2.00			
Distribution:	Text (Tot. Cycles	s: 539648)	Text (Tot. Cycles: 550573)				
Bit Field Operations	25.90%	3.36	25.40%	3.36			
ShiftAdd Operations	1.10%	3.61	1.10%	3.61			
Store Operations	8.20%	1.00	8.10%	1.00			
Load Operations	15.10%	2.00	15.20%	2.00			

Table 9, instruction level profiling results from the Huffman algorithm.

6.1.3 Profiling Deflate

The profiling results from the simple Deflate algorithm are found in Table 10. The table clearly shows how the encoder and decoder are asymmetric. It is also interesting to see how the total amount of used clock cycles increase when the encoder algorithm finds many matches in the exponential distributed input stream. It is evident that the encoding algorithm will have limited gain from bit field and shift-add operations. The decoding algorithm is very simple, and only a small increase in throughput is expected.

	Encode	9	Decode	
	Cycles/Tot.Cycles	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles	Cycles/Call
Distribution:	Poisson (Tot. Cyc	les: 138101)	Poisson (Tot. Cyc	es: 33516)
Bit Field Operations	0.20%	2.00	13.90%	3.39
ShiftAdd Operations	3.70%	3.00	0.00%	0.00
Store Operations	7.20%	1.00	7.50%	1.00
Load Operations	15.20%	2.00	7.40%	2.00
Distribution:	Gamma (Tot. Cyc	les: 137268)	Gamma(Tot.Cycle	es: 31946)
Bit Field Operations	0.30%	2.00	12.80%	3.35
ShiftAdd Operations	3.50%	3.00	0.00%	0.00
Store Operations	7.00%	1.00	7.50%	1.00
Load Operations	15.10%	2.00	7.60%	2.00
Distribution:	Exponential (Tot.Cy	/cles: 515066)	Exponential (Tot.Cy	cles: 30513)
Bit Field Operations	0.10%	2.00	7.20%	3.12
ShiftAdd Operations	0.70%	3.00	0.00%	0.00
Store Operations	2.30%	1.00	5.20%	1.00
Load Operations	13.50%	2.00	5.60%	2.00
Distribution:	Text (Tot. Cycle	s: 140460)	Text (Tot. Cycles	s: 30513)
Bit Field Operations	0.20%	2.00	13.90%	3.41
ShiftAdd Operations	3.50%	3.00	0.00%	0.00
Store Operations	6.90%	1.00	7.70%	1.00
Load Operations	15.30%	2.00	7.50%	2.00

Table 10, instruction level profiling results from the simple Deflate algorithm.

6.2 Proposals from Instruction Level Profiling

The results from the profiling show that it is possible to increase the throughput of the original algorithms by finding new instructions. Bit field operations may be needed for moving bit fields between registers or performing arithmetic or logical operations on bit fields in a register. The most common bit field operations in the source codes involve moving, inserting and adding bit fields. Clock cycles used in the blocks of instructions that perform bit field operations range from 3 to 6. Shift-Add operations are mostly used when finding memory addresses for table look-ups. The Count Leading Zeroes operation will also result in savings for the Rice algorithm. Before finding new instructions, the original instruction set (Table 4) must be analyzed to find space for the new instructions. The undefined space in the instructions set is shown in Table 11. From this, it is possible to make 16 two-register instructions in the NanoRisc architecture. The register bank has one write port and two read ports, and adding more ports to the register bank will increase the gate count considerably.

Bits															
15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
1	0	0	Х	Х	х	х	х	Х	Х	х	Х	Х	х	х	1
1	1	1	1	0	х	х	х	х	х	х	Х	1	1	1	1

Table 11, undefined space in the original ISA.

6.2.1 Instruction Level Enhancements

Even though there is undefined space in the original instruction set for 16 two-register instructions, it is not preferable to use more space than necessary. An argument for this limitation is the gate cost when adding more instructions than strictly necessary. Adding instructions will also block future enhancements. If an instruction turn out to be less useful than anticipated, it still is hard to remove it from the instructions set. The removal of an instruction could result in rewriting of a number of programs. The encoding of the new proposed instructions is shown in Table 12. These are found by detailed examination of the source codes and profiling results.

Name								Co	de								Pre
	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	- 7	6	- 5	- 4	3	2	1	0	
insbfi	1	0	0	0	Rd				Rs				0	0	0	1	6
movbfi	1	0	0	0	Rd				Rs				0	1	0	1	6
movbf	1	0	0	0	Rd				Rs				0	1	1	1	7
clz	1	0	0	0	Rs				Rd				1	0	1	1	none
addbfli	1	0	0	0	Len				Rd				1	1	0	1	8
addbfhi	1	0	0	0	Len				Rd				1	1	1	1	8
ldin	1	0	0	1	Ra				Rd				0	0	0	1	8
stin	1	0	0	1	Ra				Rd				0	0	1	1	8
Pre																	
Туре б	1	1	0	1	Len				Pos	Rs			Pos	Rd			
Туре 7	1	1	0	1	Rlen				Pos	Rs			х	х	х	х	
Type 8	1	1	0	Imm	1												

Table 12, encoding of new instructions.

A more detailed description of these instructions is found in appendix A, while a short explanation will be given here. There are five bit field instructions:

- insbfi takes a bit field from the source register (*Rs*) and inserts it in to the contents of the destinations register (*Rd*). All parameters (positions and length) are defined by immediate values in the new "pre" type 6 instruction.
- *movbfi* has the same immediate parameters given by the new "pre" type 6 instruction as the "insbfi" instruction, but the bit field overwrites the contents of the destination register.
- *movbf* has the same functionality as the "movbfi" instruction, but it uses a variable length given by a register (*Rlen*) in the new "pre" type 7 instruction and the bit field is moved to the lsbs of the destination register.
- *Addbfli* adds an immediate value given in the new "pre" type 8 instruction to the lsbs of the source register given by the length parameter
- *Addbfhi* adds an immediate value given in the new "pre" type 8 instruction to the msbs given by the length parameter.

An instruction that inserted a variable sized bit field may in many situations be preferable, but this would require one more read port than available in the architecture. Since the bit field in the "movbf" instruction is not inserted, the instruction needs only two read ports. A side effect from the new bit field instructions is that it becomes easier to pack information in the registers. This may reduce RAM access and hence contribute further to an increase in throughput. Apart from the bit field instructions there are three more instructions:

- *clz* will write the amount of leading zeroes in the source register to the destination register. This instruction does not need a "pre" instruction.
- *ldin* will load the contents of the memory of the address made when the *Ra* register is shifted left and added to the immediate value in the new "pre" type 8 instruction. The instruction will always load 16 bits.
- *stin* stores a 16 bits value in the memory address made in the same way as for the "ldin" instruction.

From the descriptions of the new instructions above there are defined three new "pre" type instructions:

- *Type 6* has three parameters; the length of the bit field, the position of the start bit of the bit field in the source register, and the position of the start bit in the destination register where the bit field is inserted.
- *Type* 7 also has three parameters; the register address holding the length of the bitfield, the position of the start bit of the bit field in the source register, and the position of the start bit in the destination register where the bit field is inserted.
- *Type 8* gives a12 bit immediate value.

Since there is little space in the original instruction set, there is an extensive use of "pre" instructions in the proposed instructions. This is a major disadvantage. A "pre" instruction will add one clock cycle of processing for every instruction that needs one. The original instruction set also has instructions that use "pre" instructions when the immediate values are big, or when three operands are used. However, the assembler will limit the use of "pre"

instructions by inserting them only when it is necessary. Because of limited space in the original instruction set, it is not possible to have small immediate values or other information within the new instructions. Another way of limit the use of "pre" instructions is therefore necessary. Since the instruction itself cannot hold the required information for the operation, default values may be the solution. All instructions in the proposed instructions, except "clz", requires a "pre" instruction, this can be exploited by using default values in the instruction decoder if the instruction processed is not preceded with a "pre" instruction. The default values are chosen by examining the source code, and the result is shown in Table 13.

Instruction	Default values
Insbfi	Len = 8, PosRs = 7, PosRd = 7
Movbfi	Len = 8, PosRs = 7, PosRd = 7
Movbf	None
Clz	None
Addbfli	lmm = 1
Addbfhi	lmm = 1
Ldin	Imm = 0
Stin	Imm = 0

Table 13, default "pre" values.

6.2.2 Adding Non-Blocking Load Behavior

In addition to new instructions and HW accelerators, other enhancements of the NanoRisc processor could also increase the throughput of the algorithms. The RAM access during load operations will halt the processor until the result is retrieved from the RAM. This is shown in the timing diagram in Figure 26. When the processor is given access to the memory it will use two clock cycles until the retrieved data is in the register bank and can be used by other instructions. The first clock cycle is used for memory address calculation and set up, and in the second the result is written to the register and a new instruction is loaded. This is implemented in the instruction decoder as a 1-bit state machine. A way to avoid this extra clock cycle every load operation is to add a non-blocking behavior, from now on also referred to as NBL, to the load instructions. This means that the load instruction will not halt the processor until the data is retrieved, but go on processing the next instruction. However, the return operation from a function will still use two clock cycles when the instruction pointer is loaded from the stack pointer. Further enhancement could be to add NBL when the memory is busy and more clock cycles are wasted awaiting access to the memory, but this may be costly in terms of gates in the instruction decoder. Extra registers must be added in order to hold the load instruction and a possible "pre" instruction over several clock cycles. It would also in many cases save a limited amount of clock cycles, because loaded information is often used as quickly as possible to save register space.

Since the data from the memory is written to the register bank when another instruction is processed, it must have a separate write port. This will be costly in terms of gates. When this is implemented, it is important that the instruction after a load instruction is not dependent on the data retrieved from the memory, or that it does not cause a write conflict. This may be ensured by the programmer, the assembler software or in hardware. The best way of utilizing the NBL is that the programmer is aware of this, and avoids instructions dependent on a load operation to be processed immediately after the actual load operation. This may in many cases be tedious and result in difficult debugging if the programmer does not keep this in mind. A way of preventing such cases could be to enhance the assembler either by inserting "nop"

instructions where needed, or issue warnings or error messages where problems may occur. This would require no extra hardware except for the dedicated write port. The disadvantage of this method is that the program size grows when "nop" instructions are inserted, or in cases where it is difficult to do other tasks while awaiting the retrieved memory data. Such a method would also increase the complexity of the assembler, and may prevent others from enhancing or making their own assembler tools. The method chosen is to stall the processor in hardware when the *Rs* or *Rd* field of an instruction is equal to the *Rd* field of the proceeding load instruction. The extra cost in gate count in the instruction decoder will be small, and it is more user friendly.

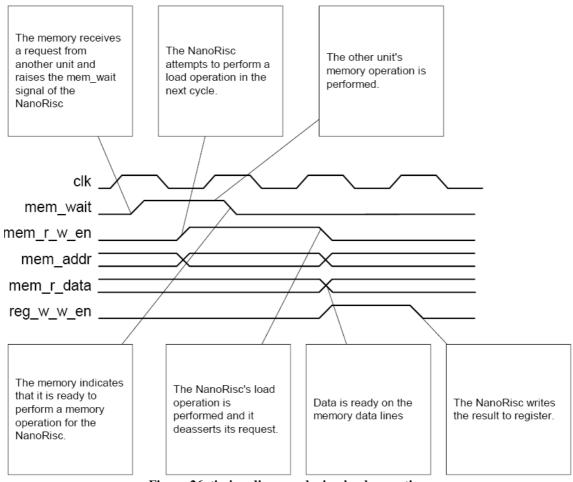


Figure 26, timing diagram during load operation.

6.2.3 Estimating Speedup

From the profiling results, Ahmdahl's law (Eq. 6) may be applied to estimate how the new enhancements may affect the total speedup. The calculation is done by summing all operations that may be affected by the new instructions and the NBL, and estimating a general 2 times speedup for all. An example of this is shown in Table 8 where operations from the Huffman encoding algorithm are summed. The estimation of a general speedup of 2 is a ball park estimate from the profiling result. If all profiled operations are replaced by a "pre" instruction in addition to the new instruction, a speedup of 2 may seem a bit optimistic. However, taken into consideration a possible decrease in RAM access due to new bit field instructions, and that some of the operations will not need "pre" instructions due to default values, it may be a reasonable approximation.

Poisson						
Operation	Cycles/Tot.Cycles					
Bit Field Operations	0.263					
ShiftAdd Operations	0.012					
Load Operations	0.149					
Sum:	0.424					

Table 14	, operations	that may	be affected	by the enha	ncements
----------	--------------	----------	-------------	-------------	----------

Table 15 shows the estimated speedup when applying the considerations explained above and Ahmdal's law. The results vary greatly from about 10% increase up to 25%.

	Rice		Huff	man	Deflate		
Ditribution	Decode	Encode	Decode	Encode	Decode	Encode	
Poisson	1.240	1.188	1.234	1.269	1.119	1.106	
Gamma	1.245	1.190	1.233	1.269	1.113	1.104	
Exponential	1.238	1.182	1.211	1.251	1.068	1.077	
Text	1.195	1.154	1.264	1.267	1.120	1.104	

Table 15, estimated speedup from new instructions and NBL behavior.

6.3 Algorithmic Level Profiling

In section 6.1, the profiling areas contained blocks of instructions that could be replaced by new instructions. This section will show how the performance is increased when using the new enhancements proposed in section 6.2. The profiling areas from the instruction level profiling are hence replaced by new instructions and it would make little sense to use the same profiling areas. This section will describe the enhancements by defining new profiling areas that shows how clock cycles are used on an algorithmic level. As mentioned, algorithmic level profiling is profiling major parts of the compression algorithms, e.g. decoding, encoding, updating data structures, etc. It is therefore important that the reader keep in mind the description of the implementations of the different algorithms in chapter 4. Only a selection of the profiling results is shown in this section, but all profiling results are found in appendix D.

6.3.1 Profiling Rice

From Table 8 in section 6.1.1 it was evident that the decoder algorithm had much to gain from the new "clz" instruction. Both the encoder and decoder had limited use of bit field and shiftadd instructions. Table 16 shows the results of the algorithmic profiling with the NanoRisc processor using the exponentially distributed data stream. Only the decoding algorithm is shown due to the symmetrical behavior of the Rice compression method. The label column shows the label name of the different profiling areas. The resources used by the different profiling areas are shown as clock cycles used in the profiling area, and cycles used in the profile area divided by the total amount of cycles. The total number of cycles shown in the table is not a sum of the clock cycles used in the profile areas, but is the total clock cycles used by the algorithm. The "streams" label shows the resource used when reading variable length codewords from RAM. This operation is used in decoding, and is therefore sorted under the "decode" label in the table. The clock cycles used by the "decode" label thus includes the clock cycles used in the "streams" label. The RAM access is given in operations because it is measured at an instruction accurate level. In most cases, load operations will only use one clock cycle every operations due to the NBL, but function returns will still use two clock cycles.

	Ori	ginal		Enhanced		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot. Cycles	Cycles	Cycles/Tot. Cycles	Speed Up	
Decode	41790	42.68%	25116	36.97%	1.66	
Streams	25050	25.58%	23158	34.09%	1.08	
Calc K	930	0.95%	434	0.64%	2.14	
Maintain Tables	346	0.35%	238	0.35%	1.45	
Update Table	7934	8.10%	7818	11.51%	1.01	
Total Number of Cycles	97912	100.00%	67941	100.00%	1.44	
Memory Access [operations]	14758			8612		
Store Operations	8	8156		5069		
Load Operations	6602		3543			

Table 16, algorithmic profiling from the Rice decoding algorithm with exponential distributed inputstream.

Table 16 shows results from the profiling when the new instructions and the non-blocking load behavior are implemented. The "decode" label has reduced its resource use considerably, and it is the main contributor to the total speed up. Another contribution to the increased throughput is the decrease in RAM access due to more effective register usage. The throughput is increased by 44%.

6.3.2 Profiling Huffman

The profiling results from the original Huffman algorithm showed that bit field instructions and a non-blocking load behavior should increase the throughput considerably. Table 17 shows how the different algorithmic elements consume processing power with the NanoRisc processor. The "Sort Tree" and "Switch Node" are called from the "Increment Tree", and the recourses used by the "Increment Tree" include these two functions. Results found in the table are retrieved from decoding the data stream with a Poisson distribution. Only the decoding algorithm is shown due to the symmetric behavior of the Huffman compression method.

	Ori	ginal		Enhanced	
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot. Cycles	Cycles	Cycles/Tot. Cycles	Speed Up
Increment Tree	345777	75.28%	189617	65.01%	1.82
Sort Tree	174197	37.93%	101965	34.96%	1.71
Switch Nodes	15840	3.45%	10982	3.77%	1.44
Insert Node	1040	0.23%	880	0.30%	1.18
Decode	100900	21.97%	86629	29.70%	1.16
Streams	14924	3.25%	14148	4.85%	1.05
Total Number of Cycles	459299	100.00%	291673	100.00%	1.58
Memory Access [operations]	107	7116		62811	
Store Operations	37	888	19307		
Load Operations	69	228	43504		

 Table 17, algorithmic profiling from the Huffman decoding algorithm with poisson distributed input stream.

It is clear from the table that updating the Huffman tree is the most time consuming task. The throughput is increased when the new instructions and the non-blocking load behaviour is implemented. Most of the savings are found in the "Increment Tree" label. This is mostly because of the implemented data structure (Figure 15). The throughput is increased by 58%. Another important reason for the increase in throughput is the decrease in RAM access.

6.3.3 Profiling Deflate

Section 6.1.3 showed that only a limited increase in throughput because of the enhancements is expected. The main contributor should be the new non-blocking load behavior.

	Ori	ginal		Enhanced		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot. Cycles	Cycles	Cycles/Tot. Cycles	Speed Up	
Decode	29258	95.89%	27238	95.60%	1.07	
streams	13747	45.05%	13462	47.25%	1.02	
Total Number of Cycles	30513	100.00%	28491	100.00%	1.07	
Memory Access [operations]	4	654		4654		
Store Operations		2357		2357		
Load Operations	2.	2297		2297		

Table 18, algorithmic profiling from the Deflate decoding algorithm with text input stream.

Table 18 shows the profiling results from the Deflate decoding algorithm, and Table 19 shows the result from the original Deflate encoding algorithm. The enhanced Deflate decoding algorithm source code shows a small increase in the throughput, about 7%. Because the decoding algorithm has limited use of bit field instructions, the RAM access is not reduced. From Table 19 it is evident that the two most time consuming tasks in the encoding algorithm is making the hash value and controlling matches. There is some gained from the non-blocking load behavior in the hash and control match labels, but since these function is already implemented in tight loops, it is difficult to take full advantage of this behavior. The increase in throughput is 16%.

	Ori	ginal	Enhanced			
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot. Cycles	Cycles	Cycles/Tot. Cycles	Speed Up	
Encode	21828	15.54%	19859	16.41%	1.10	
streams	11452	8.15%	10102	8.35%	1.13	
Add Match	10000	7.12%	8000	6.61%	1.25	
Control Match	40604	28.91%	36418	30.09%	1.11	
CRC	32000	22.78%	26000	21.48%	1.23	
Total Number of Cycles	140460	100.00%	121038	100.00%	1.16	
Mamany Assass [and]						
Memory Access [ops.]		31169		30907		
Store Operations	9	9685		9423		
Load Operations	21	484	21484			

Table 19, algorithmic profiling from the Deflate encoding algorithm with text input stream.

6.4 Proposals from Algorithmic Level Profiling

Profiling on an algorithmic level showed that some parts of the algorithms could be further improved by adding enhancements that are more complex. This section will show how the stream functions and the hash function is speeded up.

6.4.1 The Stream Function

Common for all variable length coding algorithms is the task of reading or writing a stream of variable codes to or from RAM. From section 2.1, it was described how the Phillips TriMedia core used a coprocessor to deal with this task. A viable alternative for further improvement of the implemented algorithms could therefore be a hardware accelerator. It would speed up all of the implemented algorithms, and could be useful for other applications as well, but the gate cost will be considerable. For maximum speed up, the hardware accelerator must access memory, calculate memory addresses and length of the current stream, do shift operations, and have registers in order to hold initialization parameters, memory addresses, and parts of the stream. This sum up to a 16 bits adder, a 32 bits barrel shifter, memory interface, at least 4 registers and additional control logic. The gate count would be in the area of 1500 gates. This is rather expensive. Another approach described in section 2.2 is the bit-band regions used by the Atmel Cortex core. The bit-band regions enable the load and store operations in the Cortex core to address a stream of variable length codewords on a bit level. However, if this shall reduce the amount of clock cycles it must be able to address bit fields that expand over two memory addresses. In the NanoRisc core, this will require a state machine in the memory access module, and hence making these load and store operations require several clock cycles.

shift istr	ceam:	
sub	R8, R_Count	;Check if there is enough bits left in R_Res
bra.n	get_packet	_
movbf	R_Res[15:R8], R12	;Extract bits R_Res
sll	R8, R_Res	;Shift out bits from R_Res
sll	R8, R_IStr	;Make room in R_IStr for bits from R_Res
or	R12, R_IStr	;Mask in bits in R_IStr from R_Res
ret		;Return from call
get_packet	::	
add	R8, R_Count	;Calculate bits left in R_Res
movbf	R_Res[15:R_Count], R12	;Extract the remaining bits from R_Res
3 11	R_Count, R_IStr	;Make room in R_IStr for bits from R_Res
or	R12, R_IStr	;Mask in remaining bits
ld.w	[R_IStr_Addr]+, R_Res	;Load new bits to R_Res
sub	R_Count, R8	;Calculate bits left to stream in to R_Istr
mov	Ox10, R_Count	;Reset R_Count to 16
bra	shift_istream	
	Elauna 27 ald atmost	· function fou deceding algorithms

Figure 27, old stream function for decoding algorithms.

Figure 27 show the assembly code for the stream function in decoding algorithms, using the new instructions proposed in section 6.2. The function uses two registers to hold a part of the stream. The *R_Istr* must always hold 16 bits from the stream in order to simplify the decoding process. To reduce memory access, the *R_Res* holds a reservoir of bits to be shifted in to *R_Istr*. When *R_Res* is empty, the next 16 bits of the stream is loaded from RAM. *R_Count* is the register that holds the amount of bits left in the *R_Res* register. When calling this function, the amount of bits to be shifted into the stream is held in *R8*. The memory address for the input stream is held by register *R_IStr_Addr*. When the reservoir stream has enough bits for the operation, it will use 11 clock cycles, but if not it will use 23 clock cycles. Table 20 shows data from the stream profiling label when decoding the text stream. The Rice and Deflate

decoding algorithms have much to gain from enhancements affecting the stream function, but the Huffman decoding algorithm will not see that much improvement compared to the total clock cycle use.

	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Rice	2010	12.87	23.37%
Huffman	1037	14.31	3.96%
Deflate	734	18.34	44.67%

Table 20, profiling results from the stream	n label when decoding the text stream.
---	--

A stream instruction is proposed for speeding up the streaming function. This instruction will shift in bits from a register into the register holding the stream according to a register holding the length. The instruction needs three read ports from the register bank, but the NanoRisc processor has only two. An extra read port will be expensive in terms of gates. To avoid this, a dedicated register is chosen to hold the bits to be shifted in. The dedicated register is one of the general registers, so it may still be used as a general register for all other instructions. This implies that when the instruction is executed, the bits intended to be shifted in must have been written to the dedicated register. The dedicated register must be chosen before synthesis. The encoding of the new instruction is shown in Table 21.

Name								Co	de								Pre
	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	- 7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	
str	1	0	0	1	Rlen				Rd				1	1	1	1	
l		-			1.01	•	11	c	41		4						

Table 21, encoding of the str instruction.

When using this instruction in the stream function, we get the profiling results in Table 22. The table shows that the amount of clock cycles used by the function has been reduced, but it is still a major contributor to the total cycle count in the Rice and Deflate decoding algorithm.

	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Rice	2010	8.25	17.70%
Huffman	1037	9.21	2.78%
Deflate	734	11.89	36.65%

 Table 22, profiling results from the stream label when decoding the text stream and using the new str

 instruction.

The resulting assembly code when the "str" instruction is used is shown in Figure 23. The "str" instruction will only use one clock cycle because it needs no "pre" instruction. Table 22 and Figure 28 clearly show that it is still room for improvements in the stream function, but at a fairly high implementation cost as explained in the beginning of this section. The "str" instruction will be cheap in terms of gate count and easy to implement.

shift_istre	am:	
sub	R8, R_Count	;Check if there is enough bits left in R_Res
bra.n	get_packet	
str	R8, R_IStr	;Stream in bits from special register R_Res
sll	R8, R_Res	;Shift R_Res accordingly
ret		;Return from Call
get_packet:		
add	R8, R_Count	;Calculate bits left in R_Res
str	R_Count, R_IStr	;Stream in bits from special register R_Res
ld.w	[R_IStr_Addr]+, R_Res	;Load new bit to R_Res
sub	R_Count, R8	;Calculate bits left to stream in to R_Istr
mov	Ox10, R_Count	;Reset R_Count to 16
bra	shift_istream	

Figure 28, new stream function for decoding algorithms.

6.4.2 The Hash Function

Even though the hash function in the Deflate encoding algorithm is implemented with the use of look up tables, it contributes greatly to the overall clock cycle use. A solution to this is to implement the hash function in hardware. This may be done through a separate hardware accelerator. Another method is to add a hash module in the NanoRisc architecture and use it with a new instruction. The latter method is chosen, and a new "crc" instruction is introduced.

The implemented hash function in the assembly source code is based on the 8 bits CRC8-CCITT standard. If a hash function is implemented in hardware, a simpler method could be used to reduce the gate cost. The drawback of a simpler hash function could be that the probability of collisions will increase. This will again decrease the throughput of the encoding algorithm because more potential matches would have to be checked out. Another consideration when deciding the hash function for a hardware implementation is the portability for other applications. Since the NanoRisc is likely to be implemented in a transceiver SoC, some sort of error detection is often implemented. One of the most frequently used error detection method is the CRC16-CCITT. This method will cost more gates than a simple hash function or the CRC8-CCITT. A way to decrease the gate cost is to limit the amount of bits used in the CRC calculation every clock cycle. By not using the whole 16 bits register as input, but still only calculating the hash value for 8 bits at a time (as for the old LUT-version), the gate count will be halved. The CRC16-CCITT will produce 16 bits hash values, but the table has only 256 entries. In [20] it is shown that all bits in a hash value from a CRC function have high information content. Thus, it does not matter which of the bits in the hash value that are chosen for the final 8 bits table index. The lower byte is used. When the "crc" instruction is implemented, the amount of clock cycles in the CRC function is halved, and the increase in throughput is now 31%. The 256 bytes look up table is made obsolete and removed. The CRC module is used with the instruction encoding in Table 23.

Name					Code												
	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	- 7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	
СГС	1	0	0	0	Rs				Rd				1	0	0	1	

Table 23, encoding of the crc instruction.

6.5 Proposed Enhancements for the NanoRisc

From the last sections, it is evident that the new instructions and the non-blocking load behavior have shown promise by increasing the throughput for all algorithms. Two new

instructions where identified through the algorithmic profiling, "str" and "crc". The "str" instruction improves throughput for all algorithms, especially for the decoding algorithms. Its contribution is mainly through the stream function, but it has been useful in other parts of the algorithms as well. In the Deflate encoding algorithm, a new "crc" instruction was identified. The "crc" instruction has limited use in the implemented algorithms, except for the Deflate encoding algorithm, but for other programs it may increase processing power. Especially when taking into account that the NanoRisc is most likely to be used in a transceiver SoC. It will provide an effective instruction for error detection, generating pseudo random sequences, or for making hash values.

The enhancements chosen for implementation is adding the new instructions in Table 24, and implementing the non-blocking behavior. The new instructions are encoded as shown in Table 12, Table 21 and Table 23. The default values from Table 13 (section 6.2) are used to decrease the amount of "pre" instructions. The new "pre" types are shown in table Table 25. A more detailed description of the proposed instructions is found in appendix A.

Instruction	Cycles	Description	Рге
1.11.02			
addbfli	1	Adds an immediate value to a bit field in the lsb's	8
addbfhi	1	Adds an immediate value to a bit field in the msb's	8
clz	1	Count the amount of leading zeroes	none
crc	1	Calculate CRC16-CCITT for 8 bits.	none
inbfi	1	Inserts a bitfield from a register into another register. Bit field given by immediate values.	6
ldin	1 or 2	Load word with left shifted address register and offset	8
movbf	1	Extracts a bitfield from a source register. Bit field given by immediate values.	7
movbfi	1	Extracts a bitfield from a source register. Length of bit field given by a register.	6
stin	1	Store word with left shifted address register and offset	8
		Shifts in bits from a dedicated register into the destination	
str	1	register. The amount of bits shifted in is given by a register.	none

l able 24, new Instructions.

The most costly enhancements in terms of gates will be the non-blocking load behavior and the bit field instructions. The non-blocking load behavior will require an additional write port in the register bank, and the bit field instructions will require additional shifters and mask operations. Both the "clz" and "crc" instruction will also require additional modules, but the cost of these modules is moderate. The "stin" and "ldin" instructions will only require architectural changes by adding a path from the barrel shifter to the ALU. This will change the critical path, and may in turn increase the gate count in order to meet timing constraints.

Pre type	Cycles	Description
6	1	Immediate Rs pos, Rd pos and length for bit field operations
7	1	Immedate Rs pos and length register for bit field operations
8	1	12 bit immediate value
		Table 25, now "nno" types

Table 25, new	"pre" types.
---------------	--------------

6.6 Results Obtained From the Proposed Enhancements

Due to the new instruction introduced in section 6.4, the throughput has increased further compared to the profiling results in section 6.3. A summary of the increase in throughput for all algorithms when all enhancements are included are shown in Table 26. When comparing the results with the estimated speedup in Table 15 (section 6.2.3), it is evident that an approximate general speedup of 2 gave conservative results, even when taking into account that these estimation was made without considering the "str" and "crc" instruction. While the estimated speedup varied between 10% and 25%, the real speedup is between 18% and 103%.

	Ri	се	Huff	man	Deflate			
	Decode	Encode	Decode	Encode	Decode	Encode		
Poisson	63%	36%	60%	62%	29%	28%		
Gamma	65%	36%	60%	61%	28%	24%		
Exponential	64%	32%	56%	52%	103%	18%		
Text	51%	30%	60%	62%	28%	31%		

Table 26, increase in throughput.

Another effect, especially due to the bit field instructions, is that RAM access has been reduced. Table 27 show how much the RAM access has decreased in all algorithms. The only algorithm that shows no reduction is the Deflate decoding algorithm. This is because of its limited use of bit field instructions.

		Ri	се			Huff	man		Deflate					
	Decode		Encode		Decode		Encode		Decode		Encode			
	Load	Store	Load	Store	Load	Store	Load	Store	Load	Store	Load	Store		
Poisson	-30%	-30%	-37%	-40%	-37%	-49%	-37%	-47%	0%	0%	-13%	-1%		
Gamma	-40%	-38%	-38%	-41%	-37%	-49%	-37%	-47%	0%	0%	-11%	-1%		
Exponential	-53%	-43%	-41%	-42%	-35%	-42%	-31%	-39%	0%	0%	-5%	-5%		
Text	-27%	-35%	-27%	-39%	-37%	-48%	-37%	-47%	0%	0%	-15%	-3%		

Table 27, RAM access reduction.

In addition to the increased throughput and reduced memory access, the code size for all algorithms has been reduced because new instructions have replaced blocks of old instructions. Table 28 shows the code size and the reduction.

		Decode			Encode	
	Original [byte]	Enhanced [byte]	Reduction	Original [byte]	Enhanced [byte]	Reduction
Rice	358	246	-31%	336	246	-27%
Huffman	686	540	-21%	684	556	-19%
Deflate	172	156	-9%	360	340	-6%

Table 28, reduction in code size due to new instructions.

The compression ratios achieved by the profiled compression methods and the different input streams are found in Table 29. The streams symbol distributions are found in appendix B.

	Poisson	Gamma	Ехр	Text
Rice	51.30%	54.70%	79.80%	37.20%
Huffman	51.40%	55.20%	79.40%	43.00%
Deflate	0.20%	10.20%	64.30%	10.20%

 Table 29, compression ratios.

7 The Enhanced NanoRisc Processor

In order to make the original NanoRisc capable of behaving according to the new instructions found in chapter 6, new modules and signal paths are added while some of the original modules are altered. This chapter will describe how this is implemented in HW. First a quick overview of the changes in the data flow is given. In the following sections, some of the changes are described in detail. In the end, synthesis results concerning area, timing and power are described.

7.1 Implementation

The simple overview of the architecture in chapter 3 is still valid, but the data flow diagram has changed. New modules and data paths are added in order to support the new instructions and the non-blocking load behavior. Figure 29 shows the new data flow diagram where new modules are filled blue and new signal paths are marked red. As mentioned, a more detailed description of the most important new modules and implementation is given in the next sections, while a quick description will be given here:

- **Sign Extm**, has the same function as the original Sign Ext module. This new module is needed since the non-blocking load behavior needs a dedicated write port in the register bank.
- **Mask** produces two bit masks. A length indicator tells the module the amount of ones that it shall append to the two bit masks. One bit mask append ones from the msb, while the other appends them from the msb.
- **Extr** uses one of the bit masks produced by the Mask module to extract a bit field. It can extract a bit field from the shifter module or SRC MUX output. The bit field is used by the BFU or ALU module.
- **BFU** shifts and if necessary inserts the bit field from the Extr module to a given porsition.
- CLZ gives the amount of leading zeroes in the input.
- **CRC** calculates the new CRC value from the LSB of the input. It uses the standard CRC16-CCITT polynomial.

Some of the original modules are altered. Those altered have new signal lines to or from them, and in all cases, except for the register module and shifter module, it is only the MUX units inside the modules that are altered because of the new signals. The shifter module is also moved in front of the ALU module. This is done in order to do addition on shifted values for the new "ldin" and "stin" instructions. The VHDL source code for the CLZ, CRC, BFU, Extr and Mask modules are found in appendix E.

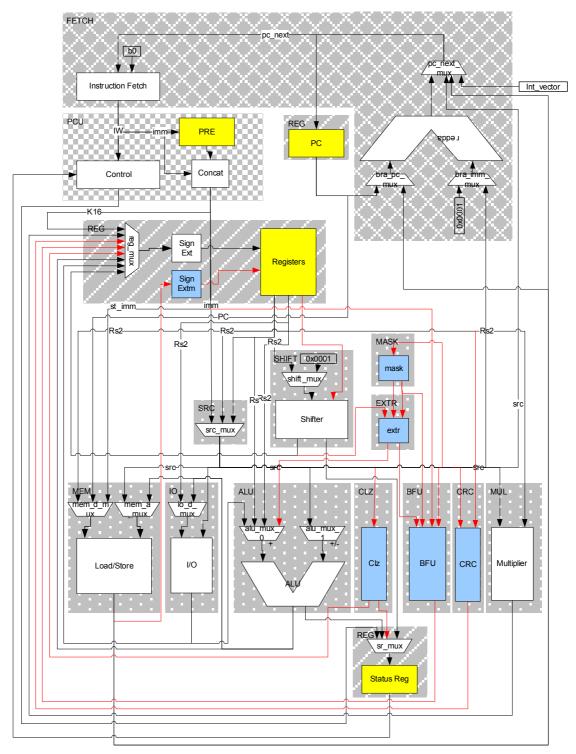


Figure 29, the enhanced NanoRisc data flow diagram.

7.1.1 Non-Blocking Load Behavior

As described in section 6.2.2, the original load instructions uses two clock cycles. This can be described by the 1-bit state machine in Figure 30. This state machine is controlled in the PCU, and it is reused when the new non-blocking behavior (NBL) is implemented. Both the NBL and the original state machine stall the next instruction fetch in the idle state if the memory is not ready for access. When the memory is ready, the idle state will set up the address on the

memory address bus before making the transition to the load state in the next clock cycle. When making this transition, the original idle state will stall the next instruction fetch while the new NBL idle state will not. The load states purpose is to load the data on the memory data bus into the register bank. Since the original idle state stalled the instruction fetch, the original load state will not have a new instruction to decode, but the new NBL load state will. However, if the source or destination register in the new instruction is the same as the destination register in the load instruction, it will decode a "nop" instruction and stall the next instruction fetch. The new instruction is then decoded in the next clock cycle instead. If the source or destination register is not the same as the destination register in the load instruction, the new instruction will be decoded in the same clock cycle as the data is loaded from the memory data bus into the register bank.

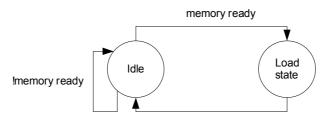


Figure 30, state machine during load instructions.

In order to fetch a new instruction in the idle state, a register is needed to hold the load instruction. Fortunately, this can be done through an extended use of a register already present in the PCU. The PCU has a dedicated register witch holds the last instruction word in cases where a new instruction fetch is not performed. The use of this register is now extended to decode the load instruction during the load state. The changes in the *PCU* should not contribute much to the increase in gate count caused by the NBL behavior. The main contributor is expected to be the new dedicated write port in the register bank. This will add a DEMUX in order to be able to write all registers. Additional MUXes are also added by the synthesis tool since both write ports have access to the same registers. However, since the load state will decode a "nop" instruction in cases where the new instruction has the same source or destination register as the destination register in the load instruction, there can be no write conflicts.

7.1.2 Bit Field Instructions

The modules implemented for the bit field instructions are best explained through an example. The example will show the data flow when the "insbfi" instruction is decoded with these parameters:

Len = 5PosRs = 12PosRd = 9

The content of the source register (Rs), the original destination register before the instruction, (Rd) and the new contents written to the destination register after the instruction (New Rd) are shown in Table 30. The bit field inserted from Rs to the new Rd is marked by a red outline.

Register								Bin	агу								Hexadecimal
	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	
Rs	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	ABCD
Rd	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	DCBA
New Rd	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	DD7A

Table 30, Register contents in bit field example.

Figure 31 shows the data flow in the example. First, the contents of the *Rs* register is fed to the shift register. The shift registers control lines are set to left shift by the amount given by the inverted *PosRs*. This will shift the bit field to the msbs. The length is given to the Mask module, and it produces a bit mask with ones in the 5 msbs (zeroes in the rest). The result from the shifter and mask module is then given to the Extr module that simply do a bit-wise "and" operation on them. The BFU will take the results from the Mask and Extr module and right shift them according to the inverted *PosRd*. When this is done, both the bit mask and bit field is positioned correctly according to the insert position. In order to remove the bits in *Rd* which is to be replaced, the shifted bit mask is inverted and a bitwise "and" operation is performed on the inverted mask and Rd. A bitwise "or" operation between this result and the shifted bit field is then enough to insert the bit field.

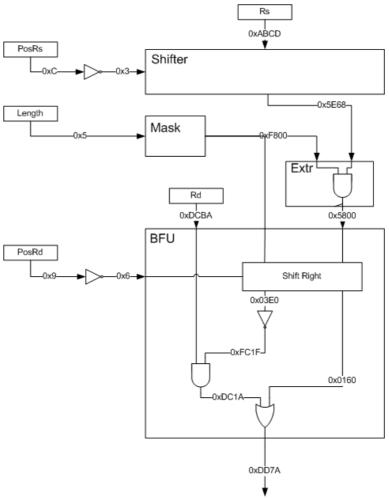


Figure 31, data flow in the bit field example.

In the "movbfi" and "movbf" instructions, the contents of the *Rd* register are not read since no insertion is needed. The "movbf" instruction will use the inverted *Len* as the amount of right shifts. Both the shift operations in the Shifter module and in the BFU module use inverted values for the amount of shifts. Because of this, the *PosRs* is inverted in the assembler. Thus no additional inverter is needed in the original Shifter module. The shift right operation in the BFU module will interpret the amount of right shift as an inverted value, so no inverter is needed in this case either. The inverters in Figure 31 are only illustrative. The "addbfli" and "addbfhi" instruction do not use the BFU module. For both instructions, the mask module will produce a mask with ones in the lsbs according to *Len*. The content of the destination register in the "addbfli" instruction is just fed to the Extr module together with the bit mask, and the result from this module is sent to the ALU. In the case of the "addbfhi" instruction, the content of the destination register is rotated left in the Shifter module according to *Len* before the same procedure is performed.

The most expensive part of this implementation is the Shift right operation in the BFU module. Since this operation must shift an arbitrary value in less than one clock cycle, it is implemented as a barrel shifter. The original Shifter module is also a barrel shifter and is implemented at the cost of 430 gates. This module has some additional features that are not used in the BFU, such as shift left and rotate operations. The gate count of the BFU module should be slightly less than that of the Shifter. However, the cost of the Mask and Extr modules also adds to the total costs of implementing bit field instructions. Taken this into account, the total cost will probably pass the gate count of the Shifter module.

7.1.3 Clz Module

There are several possibilities for implementing the "clz" function in HW. One method could be to add more logic to the shifter such that it could output information on the amount of leading zeroes. However, since the shifter is part of the most critical path after moving it in front of the ALU, adding more logic could further increase area to meet timing constraints. A separate CLZ module is therefore implemented.

The method used in the module can be described as a simple recursive function. In the first stage, the 16 bits input bits are divided in to the most and least significant byte. If the bits in the most significant byte are all zeroes, one is appended to the result and the least significant byte is multiplexed to the next stage. In each stage, the result from the last stage; if the most significant halves of bits being considered are all zeroes, one is appended to the result and the least significant bits are multiplexed to the next stage. If they are not all zeroes, zero is appended to the result and the most significant bits are multiplexed to the next stage. If they are not all zeroes, zero is appended to the result and the most significant bits are multiplexed to the next stage. This is repeated until just a single bit remains.

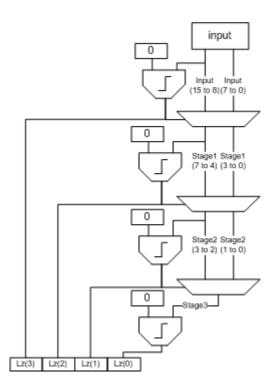


Figure 32, CLZ data flow diagram.

Figure 32 shows the data flow in this method. Lz is the result. The flow in the figure limits the result to 15, but an additional comparator not shown sets the result to 16 if all bits in the input are zero. If the result is 16 the zero flag in the status register is set, if the result is zero the negative flag in the status register is set. The module in itself should be synthesized to a small amount of gates. An estimate would be in the area of 50 gates.

7.1.4 Crc Module

As explained in section 4.3.2, all CRCs are binary polynomials that are divided with the data. In general, division of large numbers is hard to implement in HW efficiently. Therefore it is more convenient to convert the binary information into a more appropriate form. The string of bits to be verified is represented as the coefficient of a large polynomial, rather than as a large binary number. The conversion of the CRC16-CCITT polynomial will be as follow:

G = 1000100000100001 = x16 + x12 + x5 + 1

The CRC hash value is based on polynomial arithmetic. More accurate, the hash value is the remainder of dividing the polynomial in a Galois field with two elements (GF(2)). A polynomial in GF(2) is a polynomial in a single variable x whose coefficients are 0 or 1. Addition and subtraction are done modulo 2, i.e. both operations are the same as the exclusive or operator ("xor"). Partial sums in division and multiplication are "xor'ed". Using this kind of arithmetic, any remainder of a polynomial of n bits is no more than n-1 bits long. n is referred to as the order of the polynomial. Another term often used is that the CRC hash value is the remainder of a binary division with no carry. As mentioned in section 4.3.2, CRC calculations are often implemented as liner feedback shift registers (LFSR). Figure 33 illustrates CRC16-CCITT calculation with an LFSR. The flip-flops are shift registers which store the remainder after every clock cycle. When the whole message has been shifted through, the LFSR will hold the final CRC hash value.

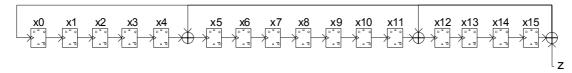


Figure 33, CRC16-CCITT calculation with LFSR.

In many systems where CRC is used for error detection, data is transferred as a serial bit stream. This is true for floppy disks, hard disks, modems, and as well as for newer optical disks. When the data stream is serial, the LFSR is trivial to implement and can operate at high speed. However, for this application (the "crc" instruction) it must operate at the clock speed used in the NanoRisc processor. The LFSR method is therefore too slow, and will not save many clock cycles in the compression algorithm. A method of calculating the hash value from more than one bit each clock cycle is necessary. Fortunately, there are many other applications that benefit from parallel CRC calculation (e.g. RAM disks and SCSI devises) and many methods have been developed to meet their need. One method has already been presented and implemented in this thesis; parallel CRC calculation with look up tables. This method is mostly used in software applications, and was proven too slow. The implemented HW method uses a "xor" network. The "xor" network express the contents of the shift register after 8 shifts as a function of the initial contents of the shift register and the 8 data bits shifted in. The resulting "xor" network using the CRC16-CCITT standard polynomial is shown below. The bits in the byte shifted in are denoted z_0 through z_7 .

$x_0 = z_0 \oplus z_4 \oplus x_8 \oplus x_{12}$	$x_1 = z_1 \oplus z_5 \oplus x_9 \oplus x_{13}$
$x_2 = z_2 \oplus z_6 \oplus x_{10} \oplus x_{14}$	$x_3 = z_3 \oplus z_7 \oplus x_{11} \oplus x_{15}$
$x_4 = z_4 \oplus x_{12}$	$x_5 = z_0 \oplus z_4 \oplus z_5 \oplus x_8 \oplus x_{12} \oplus x_{13}$
$x_6 = z_1 \oplus z_5 \oplus z_6 \oplus x_9 \oplus x_{13} \oplus x_{14}$	$x_7 = z_2 \oplus z_6 \oplus z_7 \oplus x_{10} \oplus x_{14} \oplus x_{15}$
$x_8 = x_0 \oplus z_7 \oplus z_3 \oplus x_{11} \oplus x_{15}$	$x_9 = x_1 \oplus z_4 \oplus x_{12}$
$x_{10} = x_2 \oplus z_5 \oplus x_{13}$	$x_{11} = x_3 \oplus z_6 \oplus x_{14}$
$x_{12} = x_4 \oplus z_0 \oplus z_4 \oplus z_7 \oplus x_8 \oplus x_{12} \oplus x_{15}$	$x_{13} = x_5 \oplus z_1 \oplus z_5 \oplus x_9 \oplus x_{13}$
$x_{14} = x_6 \oplus z_6 \oplus z_2 \oplus x_{10} \oplus x_{14}$	$x_{15} = x_7 \oplus z_3 \oplus z_7 \oplus x_{11} \oplus x_{15}$

These "xor" operations are then simply implemented in VHDL. The CRC module uses the standard CRC16-CCITT polynomial. This makes the module useless when other polynomials are required, but it limits the gate count considerably. A module with an optional polynomial will have the same complexity as a division module (600-700 gates), while this module with one fixed polynomial will have less than100 gates.

7.1.5 The Str Instruction

Since the "str" instruction need three registers (a register that holds the stream, a register that holds the length to shift the stream and a register that holds the bits to be shifted into the stream) an extra read port in the register bank is needed. This is discussed in section 6.4.1. To avoid an extra read port a dedicated register is chosen to hold the bits to be shifted into the stream. This register must be chosen from one of the general-purpose registers before synthesizing, and it will not be possible change it during operation. The chosen register may

still be used as a general-purpose register, but when processing the "str" instruction it must hold the bits to be shifted in.

The original shifter module is enhanced in order to shift in bits to the stream register. The contents of the dedicated register are shifted left as many times as the destination register, and the bits falling off the dedicated register are shifted in to the destination register. The "str" instruction is only able to do left shifts. Hence, the original shifter is extended with one input port that is shifted equal amounts of times to the left as the other input port. This is a small operation, and the total cost in gates should be below 100. Figure 34 shows how the bits are shifted in to the stream register from the dedicated register. The amount of bits shifted in is given by the 4 lsbs of the length register.

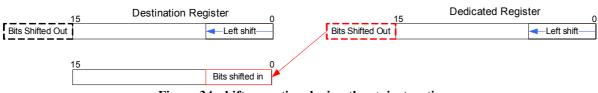


Figure 34, shift operation during the *str* instruction.

7.2 Synthesis

The synthesis of the design was done using the Synopsys Design Compiler with the Virage Logic TSMC 0.18um FSG DUS Standard Cell Library. The synthesis was done at two clock speeds: 25MHz for low power applications and 62.5 MHz for high performance applications. The synthesis was performed by scripts.

Since the NanoRisc microprocessor has no internal instruction register, the timing of the arrival from the program ROM is crucial. The timing data used to model this is taken from a high-speed single-port synchronous diffusion ROM made with the Artisan Rom generator for the TSMC 0.18um process. In a typical process with typical conditions, it has an address setup time of 0.31 ns and an access time of 1.29 ns. The address setup is the time the instruction address has to be stable on the address lines, and access time is the time from the rising clock to the instruction is stable on the data lines. These two constraints where given to the synthesis tool by using the "set_output_delay" and "set_input_delay" statements. The enhancements are added to the original NanoRisc processor core in six stages:

- 1. Non-Blocking Load Behavior (NBL).
- 2. The Count Leading Zeroes instruction.
- 3. Bit field instructions.
- 4. Load Index and Store Index instructions.
- 5. The CRC instruction.
- 6. The Stream instruction.

The stages are cumulative, so e.g. in stage number 6 all enhancements are added.

7.2.1 Timing

Timing reports show the estimated propagation delay through different paths in the circuit. The difference between this propagation delay and the timing constraint is called slack. If the slack is positive, the timing constraints are met, if it is negative, the timing constraints are not met. The synthesis tool will always try to meet the timing constraints by increasing drive

strength, insert clock buffers or inverter chains until the slack is zero. The path with least slack is often referred to as the critical path.

At 25 MHz the slack of the original NanoRisc is 20.54 ns, while after all enhancements are implemented (stage 6), the slack is 17.51 ns. This is a fairly large slack at 25 MHz, and the clock frequency may be increased by a factor of two without making noticeable changes in drive strength. The critical path in the original NanoRisc is from the program data lines, through the PCU, through the MUL module, and to the register bank. In stage 3, the shifter module and the Extr module is moved in front of the ALU, and this changes the critical path. The critical path after stage 3 is from the program data lines, through the PCU, trough the Shifter module and to the register bank.

At about 62.5 MHz, the synthesis tool starts to insert buffers and inverter chains to reduce fan out. The slack is zero for the original NanoRisc and all enhancement stages. The critical path changes much more between the stages depending on the choices the synthesis tool makes when trying to meet timing constraints. The original NanoRisc, stage 1, 4 and 5 has the same critical path as before (at 25 MHz), while stage 2 has a new critical path going from the program data lines, through the PCU, through the I/O module, through the ALU, and to the register bank. Stage 3 and 6 has the same critical path as the original NanoRisc and stage 1.

7.2.2 Area

The area of a circuit will often grow larger at higher speed. This is because of timing constraints that need to be met by the synthesis tool. Drive strength of components have to be increased to reduce propagation delay, and a unit with greater drive strength use more area. The synthesis tool may also insert buffers and inverter chains in order to meet timing constraints, and this will also add to the total gate count. Table 31 shows the gate count when the original NanoRisc is synthesized at 25 MHz and 62.5MHz. The difference in gate count is 323 gates.

	25 MHz	62.5 MHz
nb_alu	429.00	455.50
nb_const_gen	28.00	28.00
nb_fetch	252.50	252.50
nb_int	6.25	6.25
nb_io	170.00	195.25
nb_mem	218.50	218.50
nb_mul	408.50	425.75
nb_pcu	862.25	980.25
nb_reg	2299.27	2424.01
nb_shift	426.75	426.75
nb_src	69.00	80.25
Total	5170.02	5493.01

Table 31, gate count for the original NanoRisc.

As mentioned in section 7.2.1, the slack at 25 MHz was high. This implies that the gate count reported at 25 MHz should be near the minimum for the circuit. Table 32 shows how much each stage and module contributes to the total increase in gate count at 25 MHz. The extra cost in gates when implementing all enhancements is 1565 gates, making the total cost of the

Module	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4	Stage 5	Stage 6	Total increase
nb_alu	0.50	-0.50	26.00	-0.50	0.00	-0.50	25.00
nb_const_gen	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
nb_fetch	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
nb_int	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
nb_io	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
nb_mem	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.25	-0.25	0.00	0.00
nb_mul	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
nb_pcu	59.75	13.25	125.75	40.00	6.25	6.00	251.00
nb_reg	573.03	19.50	20.50	2.50	41.00	-0.50	656.03
nb_shift	-0.50	0.50	0.00	-0.50	0.50	57.00	57.00
nb_src	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
nb_clz	0.00	39.75	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	39.75
nb_extr	0.00	0.00	48.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	48.00
nb_mask	0.00	0.00	67.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	67.00
nb_bfu	0.00	0.00	357.75	0.00	0.50	0.00	358.25
nb_crc	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	63.50	0.00	63.50
Total increase	632.78	72.50	645.00	41.75	111.50	62.00	1565.53

enhanced NanoRisc 6735 gates at 25 MHz. The two major contributors to the total gate cost of the enhancements are the NBL and the modules needed for bit field instructions.

Table 32, contributions from each stage and module to the gate count at 25 MHz.

Table 33 shows how much each stage and module contributes to the increased gate count at 62.5 MHz. The penalty of moving the shifter in front of the ALU, and thereby changing the critical path, is clearly shown from stage 3 in the table. The resulting increase in gate count is more than double the increase from the non-blocking load in stage 1. The cost in gates for all enhancements is 1868, making the total cost of the enhanced NanoRisc 7361 at 62.5 MHz.

Module	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4	Stage 5	Stage 6	Total increase
Sum buffers	-4.00	8.75	42.00	-26.25	-5.00	32.00	47.50
nb_alu	0.25	5.25	118.25	-16.25	5.00	0.00	112.50
nb_const_gen	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
nb_fetch	0.00	0.00	-1.50	3.50	-3.50	0.00	-1.50
nb_int	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
nb_io	-21.75	1.00	-4.50	0.00	0.00	0.00	-25.25
nb_mem	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
nb_mul	-4.00	12.50	-9.00	-0.50	-3.50	4.25	-0.25
nb_pcu	44.50	-3.75	288.50	122.50	-142.50	81.75	391.00
nb_reg	472.29	11.25	134.26	-17.50	-4.25	26.50	622.55
nb_shift	0.00	0.00	111.75	-36.00	19.00	48.00	142.75
nb_src	-7.50	3.00	5.00	-4.00	0.25	-2.25	-5.50
nb_clz	0.00	39.50	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	39.50
nb_extr	0.00	0.00	48.00	0.00	0.25	-0.25	48.00
nb_mask	0.00	0.00	78.75	2.50	-1.75	-4.75	74.75
nb_bfu	0.00	0.00	358.75	-0.50	0.50	-0.50	358.25
nb_crc	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	64.00	-0.50	63.50
Total increase	479.79	77.50	1170.26	27.50	-71.50	184.25	1867.80

Table 33, contributions from each stage and module to the gate count at 62.5MHz.

An interesting effect is shown in stage 5 when the CRC module is introduced; the gate count is reduced. Because of the heavy timing constraints, the synthesis tool is forced to make decisions that may result in an area that is not optimal. By introducing the CRC module, it chooses a different approach to meet the timing constraints, and the result is reduced gate count.

7.2.3 Power

The power consumption was calculated in running mode without memories. The calculation was done by Synopsys Power Compiler. To estimate switching activity, the VHDL files are analyzed and elaborated in Design Compiler before creating a SAIF (Switching Activity Interchange Format) forward annotation file. This file tells the simulation tool which ports to log switching activity during simulation. ModelSim is used for simulation with the SAIF file, and it creates a SAIF back annotation file with the measured switching activity during simulation. This file contains average switching activity for all modules on RTL level, and is included in the synthesis before the design is compiled in Design Compiler. Power Compiler is then used to estimate power consumption. The global operating voltage is 1.62 V.

	Switch Power	Int Power	Leak Power	Total Power			
Original [mW]	0.362	0.561	6.79E-03	0.929			
Enhanced [mW]	0.427	0.632	8.61E-03	1.068			
Table 34, estimated power consumption at 25 MHz [mW].							

Table 34 show the estimated power at 25 MHz, while Table 35 show estimated power at 62.5 MHz. Both tables show values in mW. The total power consumption of the enhanced NanoRisc is 1.068 mW at 25 MHz, while at 62.5 MHz it is 2.816 mW. When the processor is in halted mode, no signals are toggling and the only power consumption should be leakage power.

	Switch Power	Int Power	Leak Power	Total Power			
Original [mW]	0.928	1.433	7.19E-03	2.369			
Enhanced [mW]	1.117	1.689	9.38E-03	2.816			
Table 35 estimated power consumption at 62.5 MHz [mW]							

 Table 35, estimated power consumption at 62.5 MHz [mW].

The increase in power consumption for the enhanced NanoRisc is 15% at 25 MHz, and 19% at 62.5 MHz. However, these power estimations do not include the power consumption for ROM and RAM access. To investigate this, a 512x16 bits diffusion ROM and a 2048x16 bits single port synchronous SRAM is generated in an Artisan ROM and RAM generator. These generators use a TSMC 0.18um process. The results are found in Table 36.

Module	Read Power	Write Power	Standby Power
ROM	3.323	х	0.006
RAM	2.561	3.041	0.024

Table 36, power consumption for 512x16 bits ROM and 2048x16 bits RAM [mW] (global voltage 1.62,
25Mhz operation)

The power consumption for the ROM should be fairly accurate since the NanoRisc fetches a new instruction every clock cycle, but the power consumption in the RAM is too much since the access rate will be far less than 25 MHz.

7.3 Performance

Choosing measurements for comparison of the performance of processors are difficult. Many x86 based PC manufacturers tend to use clock frequency as a measure, but this is inaccurate when processors have different architectures and instruction sets. MIPS (Millions of Instructions per Second) is another measure that is frequently used among microcontroller manufacturers, but this may again be very misleading because of different instruction sets and architectures. Some instructions may be processed in one clock cycle in one microprocessor core, while two or three may be spent in another.

Eq. 8
$$MIPS = \frac{InstructionCount}{ExecutionTime*10^6}$$

A more comparable measure is CPI (Cycles per Instruction). It measures how effective the cycles in a processor core are.

Eq. 9
$$CPI = \frac{ClockCycles}{InstructionCount}$$

Even though the NanoRisc is a RISC processor, the CPI deviates from 1 because of RAM reads may need more than one clock cycles and "pre" instructions do not count as an instruction. CPI can be calculated by running a program in the simulator and using the cycle and instruction count. When weighing the results from all input streams and algorithms equally, the CPI becomes 1.44 for the original NanoRisc and 1.37 with all enhancements. The difference would have been greater if only the non-blocking load behavior had been implemented, but since the new instructions are heavy users of "pre" instructions, the difference becomes smaller. Calculating MIPS at 25 MHz, the original NanoRisc get a value of 17.36 while the enhanced NanoRisc gets 18.25.

However, the NanoRisc processor is likely to be implemented in a transceiver SoC where the performance is much more than speed. A more appropriate measurement in this setting is a function of speed, size and power consumption. These factors should be weighted according to the application. Another measurement is speed compared with power consumption. From the power synthesis report, the power consumption in the original NanoRisc was 0.929 mW, while the enhancements increased it to 1.068 mW at 25 MHz. The original NanoRisc will hence consume approximately 0.054 mW per MIPS, while the enhanced NanoRisc will consume approximately 0.059 mW per MIPS. This is an increase of 7% in power consumption per MIPS. However, considering the reduction in number of clock cycles used to process the compression algorithms and the reduced RAM access, the net power consumption for the algorithms will be decreased. As shown in section 7.2.3, memory access costs more power than computations. From Table 27 in section 6.6 it is shown that all algorithms, except the Deflate decoding algorithm, have less RAM access due to the enhancements.

7.3.1 Energy Savings

Section 7.2.3 showed the power consumption in the original NanoRisc, and the NanoRisc with all enhancements. A RAM and ROM module was also generated using the Artisan RAM and ROM generator. These modules were generated in a similar process as used when synthesizing the NanoRisc. A summary of these power estimations and the resulting energy consumption per clock cycle at 25 MHz are found in Table 37.

Module	Power Consumption [mW]	Energy per clock cycle [pJ]			
Original NanoRisc	0.929 Average	37 Average			
Enhanced NanoRisc	1.068 Average	42 Average			
1 kB ROM	3.320 Read	132 Read			
2 kB RAM	2.560 Read, 3.040 Write	102 Read, 121 Write			
Table 37, power and energy consumption at 25 MHz.					

From the profiling results presented in chapter 5 and found in appendix C and D, the energy consumed per bit for all algorithms can be calculated. The results for enhanced NanoRisc with the RAM and ROM module in Table 37 are shown in Table 38.

	Poisson [nJ]		Gamma [nJ]		Exponer	ntial [nJ]	Text [nJ]	
	Encode	Decode	Encode	Decode	Encode	Decode	Encode	Decode
Rice	1.65	1.66	1.61	1.61	1.43	1.43	2.23	2.25
Huffman	9.69	7.14	6.36	6.51	3.23	3.20	8.32	8.57
Deflate	2.76	0.64	2.81	0.61	10.60	0.38	2.72	0.59

Table 38, energy consumption per bit for the enhanced I

The original NanoRisc consumes less power, but uses more clock cycles and memory access than the enhanced. This results in total savings in energy for all algorithms. Reduced energy consumption for the enhanced NanoRisc compared to the original is shown in Table 39.

	Poisson		Gamma		Expor	ential	Text	
	Encode Decode		Encode Decode		Encode	Decode	Encode	Decode
Rice	-20%	-33%	-21%	-34%	-18%	-35%	-16%	-28%
Huffman	-30%	-29%	-29%	-29%	-25%	-27%	-30%	-29%
Deflate	-8%	-13%	-6%	-13%	-2%	-44%	-11%	-13%

Table 39, energy reduction per bit for the enhanced NanoRisc.

All calculations for the enhanced NanoRisc assume ROM access every clock cycle. This is because of the NBL behavior. In the original NanoRisc ROM, access is not performed during the first clock cycle in the load operation. Because of this and the fact that energy consumed in the NanoRisc core is small compared to ROM and RAM access, makes reduced RAM access the main contributor to the reduced energy.

All the implemented algorithms achieved bit compression. Thus, if the NanoRisc processor was implemented in a SoC to process compression algorithms, energy may be saved because fewer bits must be transmitted or received. For comparison, the CC2400 2.4 GHz low power transceiver [23] consumes 34.2 mW during transmission with a transmit power of 0dBm, while receiving it consumes 41.4 mW. The highest data rate is 1 Mbps. The energy consumed per bit when transmitting or receiving at this rate is hence 32 nJ and 41 nJ. Compared with the energy consumed in the NanoRisc per clock cycle the difference is a factor of 1000.

	Poisson		Gamma		Expor	nential	Text	
	Encode	Decode	Encode	Decode	Encode	Decode	Encode	Decode
Rice	-46%	-47%	-50%	-51%	-75%	-76%	-30%	-32%
Huffman	-30%	-34%	-35%	-39%	-69%	-72%	-17%	-22%
Deflate	8%	1%	-1%	-9%	-31%	-63%	-2%	-9%

Table 40, reduction in energy consumption due to compression with the enhanced NanoRisc.

Table 40 show the reduction in energy consumption due to compression with the enhanced NanoRisc. Encoding is assumed in the transmitter and decoding is assumed in the receiver. All algorithms except Deflate show energy reduction for all input streams. This is because of its poor compression ratios. For the poisson distributed input stream, the Deflate encode algorithm only removes 16 bits while using 108090 clock cycles and 28152 memory accesses. Still, the excess energy consumption is only 8.

The implemented algorithms are adaptive and they are therefore quite demanding when it comes to processing power. If the source is known and tend to have a rigid probability distribution, a static model may achieve good compression ratios. This is true for Rice and Huffman, but the Deflate algorithm must in all cases be adaptive. A static model will reduce clock cycle count and reduce RAM access significantly.

7.3.2 Benchmarks

The test of time is important for all instruction sets. The instruction set is one of the most important design issues for microprocessor core designers. If the core is to be widespread and used in many embedded solutions, a rigid and comprehensive instruction set is important for embedded software developers. Often it is the case that microprocessor core designers feel that some instructions are important, while in real life they are seldom used. Adding instructions may limit future expandability, especially for cores that are widespread. If an instruction proves to be less useful than anticipated, a removal may result in rewriting a number of programs.

A way to measure the effect of the improvements added to the NanoRisc for other types of tasks than data compression, is by using benchmarks. Benchmarks are important for embedded microprocessors in order to compare different microprocessors with different architectures and instruction sets. The Embedded Microprocessor Benchmark Consortium (EEMBC) is a non-profit group formed in 1997 to develop meaningful performance benchmarks for the hardware and software used in embedded systems. Their benchmarks have become an industry standard for evaluating the capabilities of embedded processors. The EEMBC benchmarks reflect real world applications and they are available as different suites targeting telecommunication, networking, network storage, digital entertainment, Java, automotive, industrial, consumer and office equipment products. Among these, the network benchmark suite is the most relevant since the NanoRisc is likely to be embedded in a transceiver SoC. Unfortunately the EEMBC benchmark suites are licensed, but earlier work [24] describes a benchmark, called NetBench, that is similar to the EEMBC network benchmark suite. NetBench is used for evaluating and designing network processors. A short summary of the programs used in the benchmark suite:

- CRC Calculates the CRC-32 CCITT checksum.
- TL A table lookup routine using a radix-tree routing table.
- DRR Deficit-round robin scheduling
- NAT Network Address Translation for IP address simplification and conservation.
- IPCHAINS A firewall application that checks the IP source of incoming packets.
- URL Implements URL-based switching.
- DH Diffie-Hellman public key encryption.
- MD5 Message Digest Algorithm creates a cryptographically signature for outgoing packets.

The deficit-round robin routine and the encryption algorithms will probably not gain much from the added instructions. However, for some of the other functions it is possible to estimate or show effects of the new improvements. The radix-tree routing table is very similar to Huffman Trees. A radix-tree is a tree with leafs representing keys, and each key can be found by traversing the path from the root to the leaf. This is in fact the decode routine in the implemented Huffman algorithm. Other important features of a radix-tree are switching nodes, inserting nodes and removing nodes. All except the remove nodes are implemented in the Huffman algorithm. Figure 35 shows the clock cycles used during these operations in the Huffman decoding algorithm. All input distributions show about 20% savings with the new extensions.

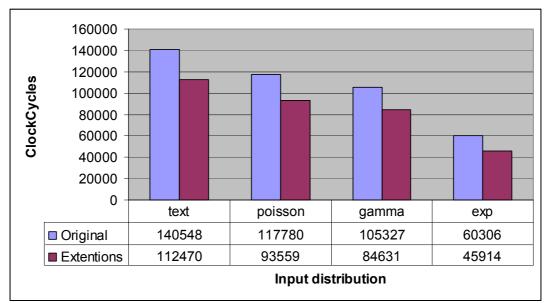


Figure 35, clock cycles used to decode, switch nodes and inserting nodes during Huffman decoding.

A CRC-32 calculation will be difficult since the NanoRisc has 16 bits data width. However, if the CRC-16 CCITT polynomial is used, it will of course gain from the "crc" instruction. This is shown in the Deflate encoding algorithm where the "crc" instruction halved the clock cycles used in the hash function and saved 256 bytes of memory. The other programs include some sort of fragmentation of the IP packet. Packet fragmentation is very typical for network processors or transceivers. When data packets are sent over a transmission medium, it is desirable that each data item in the packet is expressed in its natural size and not expanded to e.g. a 16 bits entity for convenience. This is to make the best use of the communication bandwidth. When packets are received or sent, they must be fragmented or assembled. It is not hard to think that such operations may benefit heavily from bit field operations.

From these estimations, it is probable that network applications would benefit from the improvements added to the original NanoRisc. The non-blocking load behavior will improve performance for applications that load information from RAM. Bit field instructions and the "ldin" and "stin" instructions will improve packet fragmentation and radix-tree routing. If the CRC-16 CCITT polynomial is used for error control, the "crc" instruction will also be a useful addition. In addition, as shown in this thesis, the "crc" instruction will provide a high quality hash function.

8 Discussion

In this chapter, some of the most interesting problems encountered in the thesis will be discussed. Also, a comparison is made in order to discuss the performance of the enhanced NanoRisc and the implemented algorithms. The last section will cover some of the future work that could be done.

8.1 Enhancements

All enhancements except the non-blocking load behavior has been instruction level enhancements. Instruction level enhancements are more intrusive to the processor core than HW accelerators. When instructions and modules are added to the core, it is important that these improvements are beneficial for a wide range of applications. In this thesis, only lossless compression algorithms are considered, while in a SoC the embedded microcontroller will handle a wide variety of tasks. This reasoning makes HW accelerators seem more suitable because they are easier to change/add between designs. As an example, the "crc" instruction is used to make hash values or checksums for error control, and it uses a fixed polynomial according to the CRC16-CCITT standard. If this function is implemented as a HW accelerator controlled by I/O ports, it will be easier to change polynomials or type of hash function between designs. The tradeoffs in such a HW accelerator would be speed and area. However, the "crc" instruction calculates a new CRC16-CCITT hash value from 8 bits in one clock cycle. If the accelerator where to compete with the implemented instruction in speed, it must have its own memory access module in addition to the hash function. This will increase the area considerably compared with the implemented CRC module, but it will enable the HW accelerator to work in parallel to the NanoRisc.

If the transceiver SoC is specified to transfer large amounts of data, data compression algorithms and the throughput of these may become vital. However, if the transceiver is specified to transfer a small amount of data, data compression is less vital and throughput requirements may be easier to meet. Adding or changing HW accelerators are more flexible between designs, but when implemented they tend to be more rigid (depending on how the module is specified). Another disadvantage of HW accelerators is that they do not usually utilize the capabilities already present in the processor core. If HW accelerators shall provide maximum speed up, they usually must have their own memory access module, ALU, registers etc. This implies a considerable increase in gate count compared to the implemented instructions.

As mentioned in section 2.1, the Phillips Trimedia uses a coprocessor (the VLD) to decode Huffman code words in MPEG1 and MPEG2. It is initialized with pointer to an MPEG1 or MPEG2 data stream. This module is thus responsible for the whole entropy decoding task. Such solutions could also be considered for the NanoRisc. A specialized HW accelerator dedicated for a specific compression algorithm should be superior in throughput compared to a program processed on the NanoRisc. So if speed is a major issue and if targeting a specific standard, such solutions must be taken into consideration. Another solution in high speed and high bit rate applications could be to run several NanoRisc processors in parallel. This would provide full flexibility, but possibly require more power and less speed compared to a specialized HW accelerator.

Another possibility to increase the performance is by altering or redesigning the original instruction set. This could make more room for specialized instructions for compression algorithms, and thereby reducing the number of "pre" instructions needed by the added instructions. Instructions removed or changed could still be performed by inserting macros to emulate the original instructions. A simple example of instructions that could be changed to improve the throughput is the shift and rotate instructions. In the encoding of these instructions there is one bit field that holds the immediate number of shifts/rotates or the register containing the amount of shits/rotates. Which of the two possibilities that are valid, is decided by a "pre" instruction. If the shift or rotate instruction is preceded by a "pre" instruction, the PCU will know that the field contains a register address. When making a data compression program, using shift or rotate instructions with a register holding the amount of shifts/rotates is more probable than using immediate values. This is because data compression algorithms normally use variable length codes. Changing the decoding of this instruction in the PCU in a way that a "pre" instruction indicated an immediate value, rather than a register address, would be easy and probably have no effect on the gate count. However, since the main purpose of the NanoRisc microprocessor is to handle complex control tasks in SoC solutions, such enhancements are not considered. Changing or altering the original instruction set may have a negative affect on other applications.

8.2 Power

The executing modules in the NanoRisc architecture are implemented without enable signals. This implies that all these modules may get new inputs and toggle accordingly every clock cycle, even though their result is not used. This is done to reduce area by keeping control logic at a minimum. The new modules added to the NanoRisc architecture are inserted in a similar way. The increase in power due to the new modules is in the area of 15%. This could be reduced by adding enable signals to the most power consuming modules. The enable signal would make sure that modules not in use had stable inputs and hence not toggle unnecessarily.

8.3 Timing and Throughput

Through this thesis, improvements regarding throughput has been measured in clock cycles per processed bit of the input stream, but a more real life measurement is bits per second. This measure is similar to clock cycles per bit, except that clock cycles are converted to time units. Hence, timing becomes critical to the throughput. Considering this, improving or restructuring the architecture of the NanoRisc in order to increase the maximum clock frequency is a viable alternative to improving the functionality. This reasoning makes changing the critical path by moving the shifter and extr modules in front of the ALU seem like a bad choice. However, using the NanoRisc at very high clock speeds is not likely. In a transceiver SoC power is a vital measure, and this prevents very high clock speeds. The most likely clock frequency for an implementation with the NanoRisc microprocessor will be closer to 25 MHz than 62.5 MHz.

8.4 Assembly Source Code

The task of writing complex adaptive data compression algorithms in assembly proved to be a time consuming task. The author had very little experience in this before writing the test algorithms. The enhancements were proposed based on the profiling results from the original source codes. In the enhanced source codes, the changes were mostly added by replacing blocks of instructions that emulated the proposed instructions. Further increase of throughput could very well be obtained from rewriting the algorithms. This is true for both the original source codes and the enhanced source codes, and it could shift the effect of the enhancements either way. However, a total rewrite of the algorithms with full awareness of the capabilities in the proposed enhancements should in any case result in higher throughput. If this is not true, the proposed instructions are unnecessary and should be dismissed.

As mentioned, large or complex programs like some of the implemented data compression algorithms are time consuming to write in assembly. A "C" compiler would make this task less tedious. "C" has become the standard for writing high-level language programs for small microprocessors. The original NanoRisc architecture is very "C" compiler friendly with a large number of general registers and stack functionality. If a "C" compiler is to be made in the future and the instructions proposed in this thesis become part of the design, a "C" compiler must be able to utilize the proposed enhancements. This will not be straightforward. The bit field instructions may provoke unfamiliar "C" syntax, and the "str" instruction needs a dedicated register.

8.5 Area

The increase in area due to the enhancements is in the area of 30% at both clock speeds. This is based on the gate count of the processor core. Other considerations that can be taken into account when measuring the increase in area is the program ROM size. In Table 28, section 6.6 it is shown that all algorithms has reduced their program size.

There are mainly three different types of ROM available for implementation with the NanoRisc microprocessor; Diffusion ROM, Metallic ROM and One-Time Programmable ROM. There is also possible to synthesize the program as a logic gate array. The diffusion ROM is cheapest among the ROM alternatives in terms of bit density, and is the most probable to be chosen for implementations. The bit density varies from 2-4 gates per byte. A logic gate array is even cheaper in terms of area because the synthesis tool will utilize redundancy in the bit pattern of the program. When a logic gate array with random bit patterns are synthesized with the same library used in section 7.2, the bit density is in the area of 1 gates per byte. A logic gate array is very rigid and cannot be altered in the production stage. The contents of a diffusion ROM however can be altered in the production stage, but it is rather expensive and time consuming.

If a diffusion ROM with bit density of 2 gates per byte is chosen, the equivalent gate reduction due to reduced program size is in the area of 300 for Huffman, 200 for Rice and 40 for Deflate. When also taken into consideration the removal of the CRC LUT in the Deflate encoding algorithm, the gate count is further decreased by about 600 gates for this algorithm.

8.6 A Comparison

Some studies have been done in the area of lossless data compression for energy savings in wireless LAN networks. At MIT Laboratory for Computer Science, a report [25] has been published that uses lossless data compression software programs for compressing text and web data before transmission. The test setup used in the report is between a stationary PC and a handheld computer. The compression software evaluated in the report is asymmetrical library methods, and they are used on the whole file before transmission. A summary of the most important results are found in Table 41.

	bzip2	compress	lzo	ppmd	zlib
Compression Ratio	70	53	38	72	61
Static memory allocation [Kbyte]	8400	500	16	10000	130
Intructions per bit removed (comp.)	116	10	7	76	74
Intructions per bit removed (decomp.)	31	6	2	10	5
Throughput (comp.) [Mbps]	0.91	3.70	24.22	1.57	0.82
Throughput (decomp.) [Mbps]	2.59	11.65	109.44	1.42	41.15

 Table 41, summary of results from "Energy Aware Lossless Data Compression" [25]

Table 42 shows the results obtained by the enhanced NanoRisc at 25 MHz. The results are calculated by averaging the results from all input data streams. Even though measurements concerning lossless data compression algorithms are very dependent on the input data stream, comparing the two tables will give a ball park estimate on the performance. A major difference between the two tables is the processing power. While the results from Table 41 are obtained by processing algorithms on a 233 MHz 32 bits StrongARM SA-110, the enhanced NanoRisc is running at 25 MHz using 16 bits computations. The difference in clock frequency and bit width is of great importance for the throughput and instructions per bit removed. There is also a difference in the file size. In Table 41 a whole data file is used, while all data streams used when testing the NanoRisc where 1000 bytes. This has impact on compression ratios and instructions per bit removed. Adaptive compression algorithms tend to use more computing and achieve less compression ratios in the beginning of the stream. This is because the modeling stage must adjust the incoming probability distribution. Later in the stream, the modeling stage has gathered more information and uses less time updating the memory structure holding the statistics.

	Rice	Huffman	Deflate
Compression Ratio [%]	55.75	57.25	21.23
Static memory allocation [Kbyte]	1	3.5	4.5
Intructions per bit removed (comp.)	16	54	112
Intructions per bit removed (decomp.)	16	55	14
Throughput (comp.) [Mbps]	2.76	0.80	1.05
Throughput (decomp.) [Mbps]	2.76	0.78	8.92

Table 42, results from the implemented algorithms in the enhanced NanoRisc at 25 MHz.

Considering the differences explained above, it seems like the enhanced NanoRisc is a powerful yet small and energy efficient alternative for data compression in small network applications.

8.7 Future Work

As mentioned in chapter 2 a paper [4] showed that adding bit field instructions to an ARM processor reduced the instructions executed at runtime between 5% and 28%, while the code size was reduced by between 2% and 21%. These results were gathered from testing the extensions with various benchmark suites. In this thesis, enhancements are added to the NanoRisc processor. Bit field instructions are added together with shift-add memory mode, non-blocking load behavior, and two instructions that are beneficial for streaming variable sized codes and CRC-16 calculations. These enhancements increased the throughput for the three implemented data compression algorithms by between 18% and 103%, while the code size was reduced by between 6% and 31%. In section 7.3.2, it is discussed how the improvements may benefit programs in a network benchmark suite, but the implemented enhancements have only shown their effect on the tested algorithms, so testing on a wide variety of applications should be done before deciding if they should be part of the design.

8.7.1 Processor Core

Since the processor core has no enable signals to its internal modules, it consumes power unnecessary when a program is processed. The power consumption during operation becomes very dependent on the gate count in the core, and this has a very negative effect on the added enhancements. To minimize this negative side effect, enable signals providing stable inputs for modules not in use should be considered.

8.7.2 Testing

The testing of the enhancements made to the NanoRisc was limited to simulations in the ISS and ModelSim. These tests verified the functionality, but it would also been useful to test the NanoRisc in hardware. An FPGA implementation was too time consuming for this thesis, but it should be considered for further evaluation and verification.

It is important to test the effect of the proposed instructions on other applications as well. If other applications seem to gain little from the enhancements, careful considerations should be made before deciding whether the enhancements should be part of the design. Further testing with a wide variety of programs should be done. It is also important to measure the effect of all proposed instructions individually. As mentioned, every added instruction may block future extensions.

In general, all programs that use information stored in memory will benefit from the nonblocking load behavior, and if they use memory, bit field operations may help them reduce memory access or memory allocation requirements. As shown in section 7.3.2, some programs in the NetBench benchmark suite will probably benefit from the new instructions, but a more comprehensive study should be done in order to establish their effect on common applications for the NanoRisc microprocessor.

Some may also argue that the proposed instructions are inconsistent. The only arithmetic bit field instructions are "addbfhi" and "addbfli". Further testing could reveal a need for e.g. bit field subtraction instructions. A major drawback in the "addbfhi" and "addbfli" instructions is that the immediate value is limited to 12 bits. This is an effect of the limited space in the original instruction set. Further testing should reveal if this limits the effect of the instructions.

8.7.3 Tools

As mentioned in section 8.4 a "C" compiler should be made in order to ease the development of complex algorithms or control programs. In the beginning of this thesis when different data compression algorithms were evaluated for implementation, the complexity of the implementations called for an evaluation of making a "C" compiler. Writing a "C" compiler from scratch would not be feasible within the time limitation, but different toolsets could reduce the development time. One of the most widespread open source compiler framework is GCC [26]. However, even with the help from this toolset a report [27] estimates that 4 manmonths are needed in order to port GCC to the OpenRISC architecture [28]. Thus, even with the help of toolsets it would not have been feasible within the time limitations.

The added profile enhancements to the existing tools measures clock cycle use within profile areas in the source code. As seen in section 6.6 and 7.2, there are more effects from adding functionality and instructions than reduced clock cycles. The bit field instructions helped reducing memory access, while all enhancements resulted in increased power consumption by the core. Power is an important measure in many SoC transceiver solutions. The profile tool added in this thesis could be further enhanced so it could estimate power consumption. From synthesis and experience power figures could be linked to instructions, memory access etc. This would help software developers to make power efficient programs.

Conclusion

The goal of this thesis was to investigate the current capabilities of the NanoRisc microprocessor to process lossless compression algorithms, and find enhancements that improved its performance in this task. In order to measure performance, existing software tools are enhanced for profiling and simulating the improvements. Three fundamentally different data compression algorithms are implemented in the NanoRisc assembly language and simulated with the enhanced tools. On the background of these profiling results, some enhancements to the NanoRisc are proposed:

- Bit field instructions.
- New load and store instructions for table data structures.
- An instruction improving read and writes of variable length codewords from memory.
- An instruction improving CRC-16 checksum calculation.
- Non-blocking load behavior.

The new enhancements have improved throughput of the three implemented algorithms by between 18% and 103%, and the code size has decreased between 6% and 31%. Bit field instruction has also reduced RAM access by up to 53%. Compression ratios for the implemented algorithms on the tested input streams varied from 0.2% to 79.8%. Synthesis reports showed an increase in gate count of 30%, but the whole NanoRisc core is still below 7k gates. Power consumption per MIPS increased by 7%, however reduced clock cycle count and memory access due to bit field operations decreased the net power consumption for all tested algorithms. When calculating the energy used to remove bits in the compression algorithms with the transmit and receive power of the CC2400 2.4 GHz low power RF transceiver, the best case resulted in 76 % energy savings while the worst case resulted in a 8% energy increase.

This thesis has shown that major improvements of throughput for lossless compression algorithms are possible through enhancements of the NanoRisc processor at a fairly low gate cost. It is also shown that data compression with the enhanced NanoRisc may increase battery lifetime in a CC2400 low power transceiver 4 times. However, poor compression ratios may increase power consumption. This makes choosing the right compression algorithm crucial, but even though 108090 clock cycles and 28152 memory accesses are used to remove 2 out of 1000 bytes, the increased power consumption is no more than 8%.

The next step would be to do a more comprehensive study in order to establish the proposed instructions effect on common applications for the NanoRisc microprocessor.

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Appendix

- A. New Instructions
- B. Symbol Distributions
- C. Detailed Instruction Level Profiling
- D. Detailed Algorithmic Level Profiling
- E. ZIP-File

A. New Instructions

addbfhi – Add Bit Field High Immidiate

Description	The bit field in Rs given by position 15 and length $Len(K_1)$ is added with an immediate value $Imm(K_2)$. The immediate value is limited to 12 bit and is given by the pre instruction. If the instruction is not preceded by a pre instruction it assumes a default immediate value. The addition is unsigned.						
Syntax	addbf 1, Rd[K ₁ :] pre: addbf K ₂ , Rd[K ₁ :]						
Operation	$Rs = 1 + Rd[15:K_1]$ pre: $Rs = K_2 + Rd[15:K_1]$						
Coding	1 0 0	0 0 Lei	n	Rd		1 1	1 1
Program counter	PC = PC -	+ 1					
Status register	HALT	IRQ	IE	V	Ν	Z	С
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Pre	Type 8						
Default Value	Imm = 1						
Cycles	1						

addbfli – Add Bit Field Low Immidiate

Description	The bit field in Rs given by position <i>Len</i> (K_1)-1 and length <i>Len</i> (K_1) is added with an immediate value <i>Imm</i> (K_2). The immediate value is limited to 12 bit and is given by the pre instruction. If the instruction is not preceded by a pre instruction it assumes a default immediate value. The addition is unsigned.					
Syntax	addbf 1, Rd[:K ₁] pre: addbf K ₂ , Rd[:K ₁]					
Operation	$Rs = 1 + Rd[K_1-1:K_1]$ pre: $Rs = K_2 + Rd[K_1-1:K_1]$					
Coding	1 0 0 Len Rd 1 1 0 1					
Program counter	PC = PC + 1					
Status register	HALT IRQ IE V N Z C - </th					
Pre	Type 8					
Default Value	Imm = 1					
Cycles	1					

Description	Rd is given the value of the number of leading zeroes in Rs.						
Syntax	clz Rs, Ro	d					
Operation	Rd = 16 –	log ₂ (Rs)					
Coding	1 0	1 0 0 Rs Rd Rd 1 0 1 1					
Program counter	PC = PC -	+ 1					
Status register	HALT	IRQ	IE	V	N *	Z *	С
	The negation and the zet	•	/		f register]	Rs (answe	
Pre	None						
Default Value	None						
Cycles	1						

clz – Count Leading Zeroes

crc – CRC16					
Description	Updates the value in Rd with a CRC calculation using the LSB of Rs. Will always use the CRC16-CCITT standard polynomial.				
Syntax	crc Rs, Rd				
Operation	Rd = CRC(Rd[7:8], Rd)				
Coding	1 0 0 <mark>Rs Rd Rd 1</mark> 0 0 1				
Program counter	PC = PC + 1				
Status register	HALT IRQ IE V N Z C - </th				
Pre	None				
Default Value	None				
Cycles	1				

insbfi – Insert Bit Field Immidiate

Description	The bit field in Rs given by position $PosRs$ (K ₁) and length Len (K ₃) is inserted into Rd from position $PosRd$ (K ₂). Positions $PosRs$ and $PosRd$ and length Len are given the pre instruction. If the instruction is not preceded by a pre instruction it assumes default values.						
Syntax	insbf Rs pre: insbf Rs[[7:8], Rd[[K ₁ :K ₃], R	-				
Operation	Rd[7:8] = pre: Rd[K ₂ :K ₃]				, Rd[K2- I	K3:K2- K3-	+1]}
Coding	1 0 0) 0 Rd		Rs		0 0	0 1
Program counter	PC = PC +	- 1					
Status register	HALT	IRQ	IE	V	Ν	Z	С
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Pre	Туре 6						
Default Value	Len = 8, Po	sRs = 7, F	PosRd = 7				
Cycles	1						

Description	The contents in the memory location specified by the value in Rs shifted left once and added with an immediate value (offset), are loaded into register Rd. This memory instruction has no size indicator, and will always load words. The immediate offset <i>Imm</i> is given by the pre instruction, and is limited to 12 bits. If the instruction is not preceded with a pre instruction it assumes a default immediate value.					
Syntax	ldin [Rs*+0], Rd pre: ldin [Rs*+ K_1], Rd					
Operation	$Rd = M[Rs \le 1+0]$ pre: $Rd = M[Rs \le 1+K_1]$					
Coding	1 0 0 1 Ra Rd Rd 0 0 0 1					
Program counter	PC = PC + 1					
Status register	HALT IRQ IE V N Z C					
Pre	Type 8					
Default Value	Imm = 0					
Cycles	1					

Idin – Load index

Description	The bit field in Rs given by position $PosRd$ (K ₁) and the length in register <i>Rlen</i> (Rl) is moved to Rd from position <i>Rlen</i> -1. Positions <i>PosRd</i> and the length <i>Rlen</i> register are given by the pre instruction.						
Syntax	movbf $Rs[K_1:Rl], Rd$						
Operation	$Rd[K_2:K_3] = \{0[15:15-Rl], Rs[K_1:Rl]\}$						
Coding	1 0	0 0 Rd		Rs		0 1	1 1
Program counter	PC = PC	+ 1					
Status register	HALT	IRQ	IE	V	Ν	Z	С
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Pre	Type 7						
Default Value	None						
Cycles	1						

movbf – Move Bit Field

_

movbfi – Move Bit Field Immidiate

Description	The bit field in Rs given by position $PosRs$ (K ₁) and length Len (K ₃) is moved to Rd from position $PosRd$ (K ₂). Positions $PosRs$ and $PosRd$ and length <i>Len</i> are given by the pre instruction. If the instruction is not preceded by a pre instruction it assumes default values.					
Syntax	movbf Rs[7:8], Rd[7] pre: movbf Rs[K ₁ :K ₃], Rd[K ₂]					
Operation	$Rd[7:8] = \{0[15:8], Rs[7:8]\}$ pre: $Rd[K_2:K_3] = \{0[15:15-K_2], Rs[K_1:K_3], 0[K_2-K_3:K_2-K_3+1]\}$					
Coding	1 0 0 Rd Rs 0 1 0 1					
Program counter	PC = PC + 1					
Status register	HALT IRQ IE V N Z C - - - - - - - -					
Pre	Гуре 6					
Default Value	PosRs = 7, $PosRd = 7$, Len					
Cycles	1					

Description	The contents in Rd are stored to the memory location specified by the value in Rs shifted left once and added with an immediate value <i>Imm</i> (offset). This memory instruction has no size indicator, and will always store words. The immediate offset is given by the pre instruction, and is limited to 12 bits. If the instruction is not preceded with a pre instruction it assumes a default immediate value.						
Syntax	stin Rd, [Rs*+0] pre: stin Rd, [Rs*+K ₁]						
Operation	M[Rs << 1+0] = Rd pre: $M[Rs << 1+K_1] = Rd$						
Coding	1 0 0 1	Ra		Rd		0 0	1 1
Program counter	PC = PC + 1						
Status register	HALT IR	Q	IE	V	Ν	Z	С
			-	-	-	-	-
Pre	Type 8						
Default Value	Imm = 0						
Cycles	1						

stin – Store Index

Sti Ottean						
Description	Shifts Rd and the dedicated register Rk equal amounts of times to the left. The Amount of shifts is the value in Rlen. The bits falling off Rk is shifted into Rd.					
Syntax	Str Rlen, Rd					
Operation	$Rd = \{Rd[15-Rlen:15-Rlen+1], Rk\{15:15-Rlen+1\}\}$					
Coding	1 0 0 1 Rien Rd 1 1 1 1					
Program counter	PC = PC + 1					
Status register	HALT IRQ IE V N Z C					
C .						
Pre	None					
Default Value	None					
Cycles	1					

str – Stream

New Prefixes

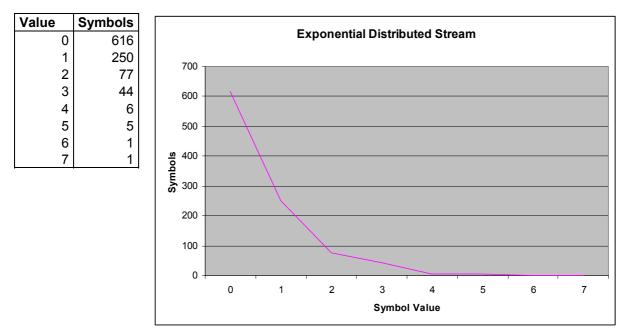
Туре 6	1	1	0	1	Len	Pos Rs	Pos	Rd		
Туре 7	1	1	0	1	Rlen	Pos Rs	х	х	х	x
Туре 8	1	1	0	Imm						

Unused Space

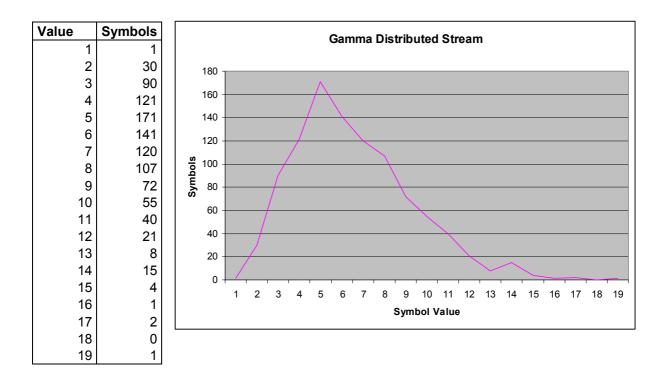
1	0	0	0	х	Х	х	Х	х	х	x	X	0	0	1	1
1	0	0	1	х	х	х	х	х	х	х	х	0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	х	х	х	х	х	х	x	x	0	1	1	1
1	0	0	1	х	х	х	х	х	х	x	x	1	0	0	1
1	0	0	1	х	х	х	х	х	х	x	x	1	0	1	1
1	0	0	1	х	х	x	x	x	x	x	x	1	1	0	1

B. Symbol Distributions

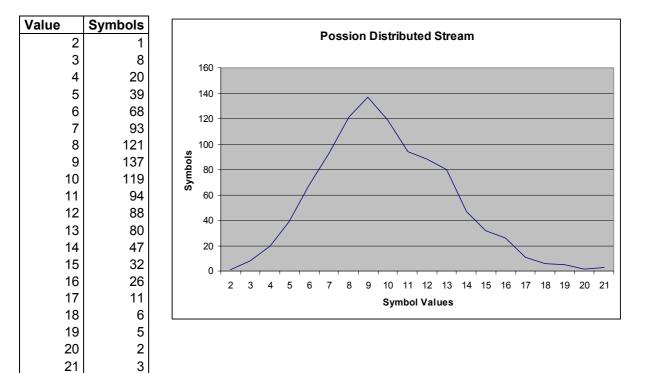
Exponential



Gamma



Poisson



Text

Value	Symbols		
0	1	Text Input Stream	
32	165	180 –	
44	8		
45	1	160	
46	7	140	
55	2	120	
65	2 2 1	8 100	
72	1		
76	1	5 80	
82	1	60 + + +	
83	1	40 +	
84	3	20	
90	1		
97	61		
98	12		?``
99	33	Symbol Values	
100	35		
101	103		
102	31		
103	8		
104	42		
105	61		
107	2		
108	18		
109	29		
110	56		
111	61		
112	10		
113	6		
114	54		
115	54		
116	63		
117	29		
118	6		
119	5		
120	4		
121	23		

C. Instruction Level Profiling

Adaptiv	ve Huffman	Encode	(Exponential)	
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
bfo1_insert_node1	24	8	3.0	0.0001
bfo1_ext_count2	3384	1692	2.0	0.0171
sum type 1	3408	1700	2.0	0.0172
bfo2_insert_node2	24	8	3.0	0.0001
bfo2_ext_count1	5076	1692	3.0	0.0256
bfo2_ins_count2	4815	1605	3.0	0.0243
sum type 2	9915	3305	3.0	0.0501
bfo3_ins_count1	8025	1605	5.0	0.0405
sum type 3	8025	1605	5.0	0.0405
bfo5_switch_nodes2	48	16	3.0	0.0002
bfo5_switch_nodes4	48	16	3.0	0.0002
bfo5_switch_nodes6	36	12	3.0	0.0002
bfo5_switch_nodes8	36	12	3.0	0.0002
bfo5_ins_count3	4815	1605	3.0	0.0243
sum type 5	4983	1661	3.0	0.0252
bfo9_switch_nodes1	64	16	4.0	0.0003
bfo9_switch_nodes3	64	16	4.0	0.0003
bfo9_switch_nodes5	48	12	4.0	0.0002
bfo9_switch_nodes7	48	12	4.0	0.0002
bfo9_encode1	6444	1611	4.0	0.0325
bfo9_sort_tree1	6420	1605	4.0	0.0324
bfo9_increment_tree1	6420	1605	4.0	0.0324
sum type 9	19508	4877	4.0	0.0985
Sum Bit Field Operations	45839	13148	3.5	0.2315
sa2_insert_node1	24	8	3.0	0.0001
sa2_insert_node2	32	8	4.0	0.0002
sa2_switch_nodes1	63	21	3.0	0.0003
sa2_switch_nodes2	75	25	3.0	0.0004
sum type 2	194	62	3.1	0.0010
sa3_main1	4000	1000	4.0	0.0202
sum type 3	4000	1000	4.0	0.0202
Sum ShiftAdd Operations	4194	1062	3.9	0.0212
Streams	7504	1008	7.4	0.0379

Total Number of Cycles	198035
Memory Access [ops.]	47305
Store Operations	17955
Load Operations	29350

Adaptive Huffman Decode (Exponential)							
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles			
bfo1_insert_node1	24	8	3.0	0.0001			
bfo1_ext_count2	3476	1738	2.0	0.0175			
Sum type 1	3500	1746	2.0	0.0176			
bfo2_insert_node2	24	8	3.0	0.0001			
bfo2_ext_count1	5214	1738	3.0	0.0262			
bfo2_ins_count2	4932	1644	3.0	0.0248			
Sum Type 2	10170	3390	3.0	0.0511			
bfo3_ins_count1	8220	1644	5.0	0.0413			
Sum Type 3	8220	1644	5.0	0.0413			
bfo5_switch_nodes2	54	18	3.0	0.0003			
bfo5_switch_nodes4	54	18	3.0	0.0003			
bfo5_switch_nodes6	42	14	3.0	0.0002			
bfo5_switch_nodes8	42	14	3.0	0.0002			
bfo5_ins_count3	4932	1644	3.0	0.0248			
Sum type 5	5124	1708	3.0	0.0257			
bfo9_switch_nodes1	72	18	4.0	0.0004			
bfo9_switch_nodes3	72	18	4.0	0.0004			
bfo9_switch_nodes5	56	14	4.0	0.0003			
bfo9_switch_nodes7	56	14	4.0	0.0003			
bfo9_sort_tree1	6576	1644	4.0	0.0330			
bfo9_increment_tree1	6576	1644	4.0	0.0330			
Sum type 9	13408	3352	4.0	0.0673			
Sum Bit Field Operations	40422	11840	3.4	0.2029			
sa2_insert_node1	24	8	3.0	0.0001			
sa2_switch_nodes1	75	25	3.0	0.0004			
sa2_insert_node2	32	8	4.0	0.0002			
sa2_switch_nodes2	87	29	3.0	0.0004			
Sum type 2	218	70	3.1	0.0011			
Sum ShiftAdd Operations	218	70	3.1	0.0011			
Streams	12265	1008	12.2	0.0616			

Total Number of Cycles	199180
Memory Access [ops.] Store Operations	46966 18205
Load Operations	28761

Adaptive Huffman Encode (Gamma)							
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles			
bfo1_insert_node1	54	18	3.0	0.0001			
bfo1_ext_count2	10842	5421	2.0	0.0262			
sum type 1	10896	5439	2.0	0.0263			
bfo2_insert_node2	54	18	3.0	0.0001			
bfo2_ext_count1	16263	5421	3.0	0.0393			
bfo2_ins_count2	10335	3445	3.0	0.0250			
sum type 2	26652	8884	3.0	0.0644			
bfo3_ins_count1	17225	3445	5.0	0.0416			
sum type 3	17225	3445	5.0	0.0416			
bfo5_switch_nodes2	123	41	3.0	0.0003			
bfo5_switch_nodes4	123	41	3.0	0.0003			
bfo5_switch_nodes6	222	74	3.0	0.0005			
bfo5_switch_nodes8	222	74	3.0	0.0005			
bfo5_ins_count3	10335	3445	3.0	0.0250			
sum type 5	11025	3675	3.0	0.0266			
bfo9_switch_nodes1	164	41	4.0	0.0004			
bfo9_switch_nodes3	164	41	4.0	0.0004			
bfo9_switch_nodes5	296	74	4.0	0.0007			
bfo9_switch_nodes7	296	74	4.0	0.0007			
bfo9_encode1	13880	3470	4.0	0.0335			
bfo9_sort_tree1	13780	3445	4.0	0.0333			
bfo9_increment_tree1	13780	3445	4.0	0.0333			
sum type 9	42360	10590	4.0	0.1023			
Sum Bit Field Operations	108158	32033	3.4	0.2612			
sa2_insert_node1	54	18	3.0	0.0001			
sa2_insert_node2	72	18	4.0	0.0002			
sa2_switch_nodes1	465	155	3.0	0.0011			
sa2_switch_nodes2	366	122	3.0	0.0009			
sum type 2	957	313	3.1	0.0023			
sa3_main1	4000	1000	4.0	0.0097			
sum type 3	4000	1000	4.0	0.0097			
Sum ShiftAdd Operations	4957	1313	3.8	0.0120			
Streams	9258	1037	8.9	0.0224			

414032
96823
34687
62136

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Adaptive Huffman Decode (Gamma)							
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles			
bfo1_insert_node1	54	18	3.0	0.0001			
bfo1_ext_count2	10850	5425	2.0	0.0259			
Sum type 1	10904	5443	2.0	0.0260			
bfo2_insert_node2	54	18	3.0	0.0001			
bfo2_ext_count1	16275	5425	3.0	0.0389			
bfo2_ins_count2	10335	3445	3.0	0.0247			
Sum Type 2	26664	8888	3.0	0.0637			
bfo3_ins_count1	17225	3445	5.0	0.0411			
Sum Type 3	17225	3445	5.0	0.0411			
bfo5_switch_nodes2	164	41	4.0	0.0004			
bfo5_switch_nodes4	123	41	3.0	0.0003			
bfo5_switch_nodes6	222	74	3.0	0.0005			
bfo5_switch_nodes8	222	74	3.0	0.0005			
bfo5_ins_count3	10335	3445	3.0	0.0247			
Sum type 5	11066	3675	3.0	0.0264			
bfo9_switch_nodes1	164	41	4.0	0.0004			
bfo9_switch_nodes3	164	41	4.0	0.0004			
bfo9_switch_nodes5	296	74	4.0	0.0007			
bfo9_switch_nodes7	296	74	4.0	0.0007			
bfo9_sort_tree1	13780	3445	4.0	0.0329			
bfo9_increment_tree1	13780	3445	4.0	0.0329			
Sum type 9	28480	7120	4.0	0.0680			
Sum Bit Field Operations	94339	28571	3.3	0.2253			
sa2_insert_node1	54	18	3.0	0.0001			
sa2_switch_nodes1	465	155	3.0	0.0011			
sa2_insert_node2	72	18	4.0	0.0002			
sa2_switch_nodes2	366	122	3.0	0.0009			
Sum type 2	957	313	3.1	0.0023			
Sum ShiftAdd Operations	957	313	3.1	0.0023			
Streams	13673	1018	13.4	0.0327			

Total Number of Cycles	418697
Memory Access [ops.]	97328
Store Operations	34484
Load Operations	62844

Ada	Adaptive Huffman Encode (Poisson)					
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles		
bfo1_insert_node1	60	20	3.0	0.0001		
bfo1_ext_count2	12070	6035	2.0	0.0266		
sum type 1	12130	6055	2.0	0.0267		
bfo2_insert_node2	60	20	3.0	0.0001		
bfo2_ext_count1	18105	6035	3.0	0.0399		
bfo2_ins_count2	11181	3727	3.0	0.0246		
sum type 2	29346	9782	3.0	0.0647		
bfo3_ins_count1	18635	3727	5.0	0.0411		
sum type 3	18635	3727	5.0	0.0411		
bfo5_switch_nodes2	213	71	3.0	0.0005		
bfo5_switch_nodes4	213	71	3.0	0.0005		
bfo5_switch_nodes6	324	108	3.0	0.0007		
bfo5_switch_nodes8	324	108	3.0	0.0007		
bfo5_ins_count3	11181	3727	3.0	0.0246		
sum type 5	12255	4085	3.0	0.0270		
bfo9_switch_nodes1	284	71	4.0	0.0006		
bfo9_switch_nodes3	284	71	4.0	0.0006		
bfo9_switch_nodes5	432	108	4.0	0.0010		
bfo9_switch_nodes7	432	108	4.0	0.0010		
bfo9_encode1	15020	3755	4.0	0.0331		
bfo9_sort_tree1	14908	3727	4.0	0.0329		
bfo9_increment_tree1	14908	3727	4.0	0.0329		
sum type 9	46268	11567	4.0	0.1020		
Sum Bit Field Operations	118634	35216	3.4	0.2615		
sa2_insert_node1	60	20	3.0	0.0001		
sa2_insert_node2	80	20	4.0	0.0002		
sa2_switch_nodes1	672	224	3.0	0.0015		
sa2_switch_nodes2	561	187	3.0	0.0012		
sum type 2	1373	451	3.0	0.0030		
sa3_main1	4000	1000	4.0	0.0088		
sum type 3	4000	1000	4.0	0.0088		
Sum ShiftAdd Operations	0	0	3.8	0.0207		
Streams	9536	1020	9.3	0.0210		

Total Number of Cycles453720Memory Access [ops.]106383Store Operations38123Load Operations68260

Adaptive Huffman Decode (Poisson)					
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles	
bfo1_insert_node1	60	20	3.0	0.0001	
bfo1_ext_count2	12062	6031	2.0	0.0263	
Sum type 1	12122	6051	2.0	0.0264	
bfo2_insert_node2	60	20	3.0	0.0001	
bfo2_ext_count1	18093	6031	3.0	0.0394	
bfo2_ins_count2	11172	3724	3.0	0.0243	
Sum Type 2	29325	9775	3.0	0.0638	
bfo3_ins_count1	18620	3724	5.0	0.0405	
Sum Type 3	18620	3724	5.0	0.0405	
bfo5_switch_nodes2	213	71	3.0	0.0005	
bfo5_switch_nodes4	213	71	3.0	0.0005	
bfo5_switch_nodes6	324	108	3.0	0.0007	
bfo5_switch_nodes8	324	108	3.0	0.0007	
bfo5_ins_count3	11172	3724	3.0	0.0243	
Sum type 5	12246	4082	3.0	0.0267	
bfo9_switch_nodes1	284	71	4.0	0.0006	
bfo9_switch_nodes3	284	71	4.0	0.0006	
bfo9_switch_nodes5	432	108	4.0	0.0009	
bfo9_switch_nodes7	432	108	4.0	0.0009	
bfo9_sort_tree1	14896	3724	4.0	0.0324	
bfo9_increment_tree1	14896	3724	4.0	0.0324	
Sum type 9	31224	7806	4.0	0.0680	
Sum Bit Field Operations	103537	31438	3.3	0.2254	
sa2_insert_node1	60	20	3.0	0.0001	
sa2_switch_nodes1	675	225	3.0	0.0015	
sa2_insert_node2	80	20	4.0	0.0002	
sa2_switch_nodes2	564	188	3.0	0.0012	
Sum type 2	1379	453	3.0	0.0030	
Sum ShiftAdd Operations	1379	453	3.0	0.0030	
Streams	13904	1020	13.6	0.0303	

Total Number of Cycles	459299
Memory Access [ops.]	107116
Store Operations	37888
Load Operations	69228

Ada	Adaptive Huffman Encode (Text)					
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles		
bfo1_insert_node1	111	37	3.0	0.0002		
bfo1_ext_count2	14510	7255	2.0	0.0267		
sum type 1	14621	7292	2.0	0.0269		
bfo2_insert_node2	111	37	3.0	0.0002		
bfo2_ext_count1	21765	7255	3.0	0.0401		
bfo2_ins_count2	12801	4267	3.0	0.0236		
sum type 2	34677	11559	3.0	0.0639		
bfo3_ins_count1	21335	4267	5.0	0.0393		
sum type 3	21335	4267	5.0	0.0393		
bfo5_switch_nodes2	465	155	3.0	0.0009		
bfo5_switch_nodes4	465	155	3.0	0.0009		
bfo5_switch_nodes6	648	216	3.0	0.0012		
bfo5_switch_nodes8	648	216	3.0	0.0012		
bfo5_ins_count3	12801	4267	3.0	0.0236		
sum type 5	15027	5009	3.0	0.0277		
bfo9_switch_nodes1	620	155	4.0	0.0011		
bfo9_switch_nodes3	620	155	4.0	0.0011		
bfo9_switch_nodes5	864	216	4.0	0.0016		
bfo9_switch_nodes7	864	216	4.0	0.0016		
bfo9_encode1	17160	4290	4.0	0.0316		
bfo9_sort_tree1	17068	4267	4.0	0.0315		
bfo9_increment_tree1	17068	4267	4.0	0.0315		
sum type 9	54264	13566	4.0	0.1000		
Sum Bit Field Operations	139924	41693	3.4	0.2579		
sa2_insert_node1	111	37	3.0	0.0002		
sa2_insert_node2	148	37	4.0	0.0003		
sa2_switch_nodes1	1041	347	3.0	0.0019		
sa2_switch_nodes2	858	286	3.0	0.0016		
sum type 2	2158	707	3.1	0.0040		
sa3_main1	4000	1000	4.0	0.0074		
sum type 3	4000	1000	4.0	0.0074		
Sum ShiftAdd Operations	6158	1707	3.6	0.0114		
Streams	10226	1037	9.9	0.0188		

Total Number of Cycles	542537
Memory Access [ops.]	127339
Store Operations	45099
Load Operations	82240

Adaptive Huffman Decode (Text)					
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles	
bfo1_insert_node1	111	37	3.0	0.0002	
bfo1_ext_count2	14512	7256	2.0	0.0264	
Sum type 1	14623	7293	2.0	0.0266	
bfo2_insert_node2	111	37	3.0	0.0002	
bfo2_ext_count1	21768	7256	3.0	0.0395	
bfo2_ins_count2	12801	4267	3.0	0.0233	
Sum Type 2	34680	11560	3.0	0.0630	
bfo3_ins_count1	21335	4267	5.0	0.0388	
Sum Type 3	21335	4267	5.0	0.0388	
bfo5_switch_nodes2	465	155	3.0	0.0008	
bfo5_switch_nodes4	465	155	3.0	0.0008	
bfo5_switch_nodes6	648	216	3.0	0.0012	
bfo5_switch_nodes8	648	216	3.0	0.0012	
bfo5_ins_count3	12801	4267	3.0	0.0233	
Sum type 5	15027	5009	3.0	0.0273	
bfo9_switch_nodes1	620	155	4.0	0.0011	
bfo9_switch_nodes3	620	155	4.0	0.0011	
bfo9_switch_nodes5	864	216	4.0	0.0016	
bfo9_switch_nodes7	864	216	4.0	0.0016	
bfo9_sort_tree1	17068	4267	4.0	0.0310	
bfo9_increment_tree1	17068	4267	4.0	0.0310	
Sum type 9	37104	9276	4.0	0.0674	
Sum Bit Field Operations	122769	37405	3.3	0.2230	
sa2_insert_node1	111	37	3.0	0.0002	
sa2_switch_nodes1	1041	347	3.0	0.0019	
sa2_insert_node2	148	37	4.0	0.0003	
sa2_switch_nodes2	858	286	3.0	0.0016	
Sum type 2	2158	707	3.1	0.0039	
Sum ShiftAdd Operations	2158	707	3.1	0.0039	
Streams	14553	1037	14.0	0.0264	

Total Number of Cycles	550573
Memory Access [ops.]	128674
Store Operations	44851
Load Operations	83823

Deflate Encode (Exponential)					
Label Cycles Calls Cycles/Calls Cycles/Tot.Cycles					
bfo1_make_code2	0	0	#DIV/0!	0	
bfo1_make_code3	236	118	2	0.0005	
bfo1_make_code4	90	45	2	0.0002	
Sum Type 1	326	163	2	0.0006	
Sum Bit Field Operations	326	163	2	0.0006	
sa3_encode1	645	215	3	0.0013	
sa3_add_match1	3000	1000	3	0.0058	
Sum type 3	3645	1215	3	0.0071	
Sum ShiftAdd Operations	3645	1215	3	0.0071	
Streams	4800	380	12.6	0.0093	
CRC	31000	1000	31.0	0.0602	

Total Number of Cycles	515066
Memory Access [ops.]	81537
Store Operations	11751
Load Operations	69786

Deflate Decode (Exponential)				
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Calls	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
bfo4_dec_stream3	156	52	3	0.0083
Sum Type 4	156	52	3	0.0083
bfo10_dec_stream4	236	118	2	0.0126
bfo10_dec_stream5	90	45	2	0.0048
bfo10_dec_stream6	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
Sum Type 10	326	163	2	0.0173
bfo12_dec_stream1	864	216	4	0.0460
Sum Type 12	864	216	4	0.0460
Sum Bit Field Operations	1346	431	3.1	0.0716
Streams	6116	378	16.2	0.3253

Total Number of Cycles	18802
Memory Access [ops.]	3315
Store Operations	1594
Load Operations	1721

Deflate Encode (Gamma)					
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Calls	Cycles/Tot.Cycles	
bfo1_make_code2	0	0	#DIV/0!	0	
bfo1_make_code3	360	180	2	0.0026	
bfo1_make_code4	0	0	#DIV/0!	0	
Sum Type 1	360	180	2	0.0026	
Sum Bit Field Operations	360	180	2	0.0026	
sa3_encode1	1824	608	3	0.0133	
sa3_add_match1	3000	1000	3	0.0219	
Sum type 3	4824	1608	3	0.0351	
Sum ShiftAdd Operations	4824	1608	3	0.0351	
Streams	11040	790	14.0	0.0804	
CRC	31000	1000	31.0	0.2258	

Total Number of Cycles	137286
Memory Access [ops.]	30322
Store Operations	9564
Load Operations	20758

Deflate Decode (Gamma)				
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Calls	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
bfo4_dec_stream3	1287	429	3	0.0403
Sum Type 4	1287	429	3	0.0403
bfo10_dec_stream4	360	180	2	0.0113
bfo10_dec_stream5	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
bfo10_dec_stream6	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
Sum Type 10	360	180	2	0.0113
bfo12_dec_stream1	2436	609	4	0.0763
Sum Type 12	2436	609	4	0.0763
Sum Bit Field Operations	4083	1218	3.4	0.1278
Streams	13607	788	17.3	0.4259

Total Number of Cycles	31946
Memory Access [ops.]	4816
Store Operations	2397
Load Operations	2419

Deflate Encode (Poisson)				
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Calls	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
bfo1_make_code2	0	0	#DIV/0!	0
bfo1_make_code3	292	146	2	0.0021
bfo1_make_code4	0	0	#DIV/0!	0
Sum Type 1	292	146	2	0.0021
Sum Bit Field Operations	292	146	2	0.0021
sa3_encode1	2058	686	3	0.0149
sa3_add_match1	3000	1000	3	0.0217
Sum type 3	5058	1686	3	0.0366
Sum ShiftAdd Operations	5058	1686	3	0.0366
Streams	12004	834	14.4	0.0869
CRC	31000	1000	31.0	0.2245

Total Number of Cycles	138101
Memory Access [ops.]	30941
Store Operations	9898
Load Operations	21043

Deflate Decode (Poisson)				
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Calls	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
bfo4_dec_stream3	1620	540	3	0.0483
Sum Type 4	1620	540	3	0.0483
bfo10_dec_stream4	292	146	2	0.0087
bfo10_dec_stream5	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
bfo10_dec_stream6	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
Sum Type 10	292	146	2	0.0087
bfo12_dec_stream1	2748	687	4	0.0820
Sum Type 12	2748	687	4	0.0820
Sum Bit Field Operations	4660	1373	3.4	0.1390
Streams	14630	832	17.6	0.4365

Total Number of Cycles	33516
Memory Access [ops.]	4997
Store Operations	2519
Load Operations	2478

Deflate Encode (Text)					
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Calls	Cycles/Tot.Cycles	
bfo1_make_code2	0	0	#DIV/0!	0	
bfo1_make_code3	194	97	2	0.0014	
bfo1_make_code4	30	15	2	0.000213584	
Sum Type 1	224	112	2	0.0016	
Sum Bit Field Operations	224	112	2	0.0016	
sa3_encode1	1866	622	3	0.0133	
sa3_add_match1	3000	1000	3	0.0214	
Sum type 3	4866	1622	3	0.0346	
Sum ShiftAdd Operations	4866	1622	3	0.0346	
Streams	10716	736	14.6	0.0763	
CRC	31000	1000	31.0	0.2207	

Total	Number	of C	Cycles
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Memory Access [ops.]	31169
Store Operations	21484
Load Operations	9685

Deflate Decode (Text)				
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Calls	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
bfo4_dec_stream3	1530	510	3	0.0501
Sum Type 4	1530	510	3	0.0501
bfo10_dec_stream4	194	97	2	0.0064
bfo10_dec_stream5	30	15	2	0.0010
bfo10_dec_stream6	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
Sum Type 10	224	112	2	0.0073
bfo12_dec_stream1	2492	623	4	0.0817
Sum Type 12	2492	623	4	0.0817
Sum Bit Field Operations	4246	1245	3.4	0.1392
Streams	13013	734	17.7	0.4265

Total Number of Cycles	30513
Memory Access [ops.]	4654
Store Operations	2357
Load Operations	2297

Rice Encode (Exponential)				
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
bfo6_maintain_tables1	64	16	4.0	0.0008
bfo6_get_byte1	3996	999	4.0	0.0508
Sum Type 6	4060	1015	4.0	0.0516
bfo8_encode1	4995	999	5.0	0.0634
Sum Type 8	4995	999	5.0	0.0634
Bit Field Operations	9055	2014	4.5	0.1150
sa1_comp_freq1	1158	386	3.0	0.0147
Sum Type 1	1158	386	3.0	0.0147
sa3_get_byte1	2997	999	3.0	0.0381
Sum Type 3	2997	999	3.0	0.0381
sa4_encode1	2997	999	3.0	0.0381
sa4_switch1	42	14	3.0	0.0005
Sum Type 4	3039	1013	3.0	0.0386
sa5_maintain_tables	42	14	3.0	0.0005
Sum Type 5	42	14	3.0	0.0005
Sum ShiftAdd Operations	7236	2412	3.0	0.0919
CLZ	434	62	7.0	0.0055
Streams	13436	1999	6.7	0.1707

Total Number of Cycles	78729
Memory Access [ops.]	14768
Store Operations	7259
Load Operations	7509

Rice Decode (Exponential)				
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
bfo6_switch1	56	14	4.0	0.0006
bfo6_decode_loop1	3988	997	4.0	0.0407
bfo6_maintain_tables1	64	16	4.0	0.0007
Sum Type 6	4108	1027	4.0	0.0420
bfo7_decode1	4985	997	5.0	0.0509
Sum Type 7	4985	997	5.0	0.0509
Bit Field Operations	9093	2024	4.5	0.0929
sa1_comp_freq1	2991	997	3.0	0.0305
Sum Type 1	2991	997	3.0	0.0305
sa4_switch	42	14	3.0	0.0004
sa4_comp_freq2	3988	997	4.0	0.0407
Sum Type 4	4030	1011	4.0	0.0412
sa5_maintain_tables1	142	14	10.1	0.0015
Sum Type 5	142	14	10.1	0.0015
Shift Add Operations	7163	2022	3.5	0.0732
clz1	12785	997	12.8	0.1306
clz2	434	62	7.0	0.0044
CLZ	13219	1059	12.5	0.1350
Streams	23056	1994	11.6	0.2355

Total Number of Cycles	97912
Memory Access [ops.]	14758
Store Operations	8156
Load Operations	6602

Rice Encode (Gamma)				
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
bfo6_maintain_tables1	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
bfo6_get_byte1	3996	999	4	0.0438
Sum Type 6	3996	999	4	0.0438
bfo8_encode1	4995	999	5	0.0547
Sum Type 8	4995	999	5	0.0547
Bit Field Operations	8991	1998	4.5	0.0985
sa1_comp_freq1	2493	831	3	0.0273
Sum Type 1	2493	831	3	0.0273
sa3_get_byte1	2997	999	3	0.0328
Sum Type 3	2997	999	3	0.0328
sa4_encode1	2997	999	3	0.0328
sa4_switch1	321	107	3	0.0035
Sum Type 4	3318	1106	3	0.0363
sa5_maintain_tables	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
Sum Type 5	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
Sum ShiftAdd Operations	8808	2936	3	0.0964
CLZ	3276	62	52.8	0.0359
Streams	15186	1999	7.6	0.1663

Total Number of Cycles	91322
Memory Access [ops.]	15971
Store Operations	7821
Load Operations	8150

Rice Decode (Gamma)					
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles	
bfo6_switch1	428	107	4.0	0.0039	
bfo6_decode_loop1	3988	997	4.0	0.0360	
bfo6_maintain_tables1	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000	
Sum Type 6	4416	1104	4.0	0.0398	
bfo7_decode1	4985	997	5.0	0.0449	
Sum Type 7	4985	997	5.0	0.0449	
Bit Field Operations	9401	2101	4.5	0.0847	
sa1_comp_freq1	2991	997	3.0	0.0270	
Sum Type 1	2991	997	3.0	0.0270	
sa4_switch	321	107	3.0	0.0029	
sa4_comp_freq2	3988	997	4.0	0.0360	
Sum Type 4	4309	1104	3.9	0.0388	
sa5_maintain_tables1	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000	
Sum Type 5	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000	
Shift Add Operations	7300	2101	3.5	0.0658	
clz1	14678	997	14.7	0.1323	
clz2	3276	62	52.8	0.0295	
CLZ	17954	1059	17.0	0.1618	
Streams	24420	1994	12.2	0.2201	

Total Number of Cycles	110930
Memory Access [ops.]	16045
Store Operations	8682
Load Operations	7363

Rice Encode (Poisson)				
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
bfo6_maintain_tables1	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
bfo6_get_byte1	3996	999	4	0.0428
Sum Type 6	3996	999	4	0.0428
bfo8_encode1	4995	999	5	0.0536
Sum Type 8	4995	999	5	0.0536
Bit Field Operations	8991	1998	4.5	0.0964
sa1_comp_freq1	2619	873	3	0.0281
Sum Type 1	2619	873	3	0.0281
sa3_get_byte1	2997	999	3	0.0321
Sum Type 3	2997	999	3	0.0321
sa4_encode1	2997	999	3	0.0321
sa4_switch1	417	139	3	0.0045
Sum Type 4	3414	1138	3	0.0366
sa5_maintain_tables	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
Sum Type 5	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
Sum ShiftAdd Operations	9030	3010	3	0.0968
CLZ	3204	62	51.7	0.0344
Streams	15424	1999	7.7	0.1654

Total Number of Cycles	93275
Memory Access [ops.]	16296
Store Operations	7998
Load Operations	8298

Rice Decode (Poisson)					
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles	
bfo6_switch1	556	139	4.0	0.0049	
bfo6_decode_loop1	3988	997	4.0	0.0355	
bfo6_maintain_tables1	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000	
Sum Type 6	4544	1136	4.0	0.0404	
bfo7_decode1	4985	997	5.0	0.0443	
Sum Type 7	4985	997	5.0	0.0443	
Bit Field Operations	9529	2133	4.5	0.0847	
sa1_comp_freq1	2991	997	3.0	0.0266	
Sum Type 1	2991	997	3.0	0.0266	
sa4_switch	417	139	3.0	0.0037	
sa4_comp_freq2	3988	997	4.0	0.0355	
Sum Type 4	4405	1136	3.9	0.0392	
sa5_maintain_tables1	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000	
Sum Type 5	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000	
Shift Add Operations	7396	2133	3.5	0.0657	
clz1	14336	997	14.4	0.1274	
clz2	3204	62	51.7	0.0285	
CLZ	17540	1059	16.6	0.1559	
Streams	25036	1994	12.6	0.2226	

Total Number of Cycles	112490
Memory Access [ops.]	16402
Store Operations	8874
Load Operations	7528

Rice Encode (Text)				
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
bfo6_maintain_tables1	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
bfo6_get_byte1	3996	999	4	0.0329
Sum Type 6	3996	999	4	0.0329
bfo8_encode1	4995	999	5	0.0411
Sum Type 8	4995	999	5	0.0411
Bit Field Operations	8991	1998	4.5	0.0740
sa1_comp_freq1	2520	840	3	0.0207
Sum Type 1	2520	840	3	0.0207
sa3_get_byte1	2997	999	3	0.0247
Sum Type 3	2997	999	3	0.0247
sa4_encode1	2997	999	3	0.0247
sa4_switch1	699	233	3	0.0058
Sum Type 4	3696	1232	3	0.0304
sa5_maintain_tables	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
Sum Type 5	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
Sum ShiftAdd Operations	9213	3071	3	0.0758
CLZ	3066	62	49.5	0.0252
Streams	16514	2015	8.2	0.1359

Total Number of Cycles	121546
Memory Access [ops.]	19801
Store Operations	8555
Load Operations	11246

Rice Decode (Text)				
Label	Cycles	Calls	Cycles/Call	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
bfo6_switch1	928	232	4.0	0.0066
bfo6_decode_loop1	3988	997	4.0	0.0282
bfo6_maintain_tables1	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
Sum Type 6	4916	1229	4.0	0.0347
bfo7_decode1	4985	997	5.0	0.0352
Sum Type 7	4985	997	5.0	0.0352
Bit Field Operations	9901	2226	4.4	0.0699
sa1_comp_freq1	2991	997	3.0	0.0211
Sum Type 1	2991	997	3.0	0.0211
sa4_switch	696	232	3.0	0.0049
sa4_comp_freq2	3988	997	4.0	0.0282
Sum Type 4	4684	1229	3.8	0.0331
sa5_maintain_tables1	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
Sum Type 5	0	0	#DIV/0!	0.0000
Shift Add Operations	7675	2226	3.4	0.0542
clz1	14944	1013	14.8	0.1055
clz2	3066	62	49.5	0.0217
CLZ	18010	1075	16.8	0.1272
Streams	25036	1994	12.6	0.1768

Total Number of Cycles	141604
Memory Access [ops.]	20025
Store Operations	9464
Load Operations	10561

D. Algorithmic Level Profiling

With Original Instruction Set

Adaptive Huffman Encode (Exponential)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Increment Tree	124230	63.69%
Sort Tree	47400	24.30%
Switch Nodes	2078	1.07%
Insert Node	408	0.21%
Encode	40776	20.90%
Streams	7504	3.85%

Total Number of Cycles	195059
Memory Access [ops.] Store Operations	45321 16963
Load Operations	28358

Adaptive Huffman Decode (Exponential)			
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles	
Increment Tree	128037	64.28%	
Sort Tree	49413	24.81%	
Switch Nodes	2402	1.21%	
Insert Node	408	0.20%	
Decode	57496	28.87%	
Streams	12265	6.16%	

Total Number of Cycles	199180
Memory Access [ops.]	46966
Store Operations	18205
Load Operations	28761

Adaptive Huffman Encode (Gamma)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Increment Tree	309969	75.40%
Sort Tree	148499	36.12%
Switch Nodes	10208	2.48%
Insert Node	918	0.22%
Encode	68670	16.70%
Streams	9258	2.25%

Total Number of Cycles	411086
Memory Access [ops.] Store Operations	94859 33705
Load Operations	61154

Adaptive Huffman Decode (Gamma)			
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles	
Increment Tree	310020	74.04%	
Sort Tree	148550	35.48%	
Switch Nodes	10208	2.44%	
Insert Node	918	0.22%	
Decode	94201	22.50%	
Streams	13673	3.27%	

Total Number of Cycles	418697
Memory Access [ops.]	97328
Store Operations	34484
Load Operations	62844

Adaptive Huffman Encode (Poisson)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Increment Tree	344957	76.52%
Sort Tree	170515	37.83%
Switch Nodes	15506	3.44%
Insert Node	1020	0.23%
Encode	72970	16.19%
Streams	9536	2.12%

Total Number of Cycles	450780
Memory Access [ops.]	104423
Store Operations	37143
Load Operations	67280

Adaptive Huffman Decode (Poisson)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Increment Tree	345777	75.28%
Sort Tree	174197	37.93%
Switch Nodes	15840	3.45%
Insert Node	1040	0.23%
Decode	100900	21.97%
Streams	14924	3.25%
Total Number of Cycles	459299	
Memory Access [ops.]	107116	
Store Operations	37888	
Load Operations	69228	

Static Memory Allocation [byte]	3578
Huffman Tree	3066
Symbol Address Table	512

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Adaptive Huffman Encode (Text)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Increment Tree	423895	78.55%
Sort Tree	224613	41.62%
Switch Nodes	27980	5.18%
Insert Node	1887	0.35%
Encode	81122	15.03%
Streams	10226	1.89%

Total Number of Cycles	539648
Memory Access [ops.]	125413
Store Operations	44136
Load Operations	81277

Adaptive Huffman Decode (Text)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Increment Tree	423919	77.00%
Sort Tree	224637	40.80%
Switch Nodes	27980	5.08%
Insert Node	1887	0.34%
Decode	110681	20.10%
Streams	14553	2.64%

Total Number of Cycles	550573
Memory Access [ops.]	128674
Store Operations	44851
Load Operations	83823

Deflate Encode (Exponential)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Encode	10387	0.0202
streams	4800	0.009319194
Add Match	9000	0.0175
Control Match	389452	0.7561
CRC	31000	0.0602

Total Number of Cycles	515066
Memory Access [ops.]	81537
Store Operations Load Operations	11751 69786
	00700

Deflate Decode (Exponential)		
Label Cycles Cycles/Tot.Cycles		
Decode	18146	0.594697342
streams	6116	0.2004

Total Number of Cycles	30513
Memory Access [ops.]	3315
Store Operations	1594
Load Operations	1721

Deflate Encode (Gamma)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Encode	22370	0.1629
streams	11040	0.080416066
Add Match	9000	0.0656
Control Match	37051	0.2699
CRC	31000	0.2258

Total Number of Cycles	137286
Memory Access [ops.]	30322
Store Operations	9564
Load Operations	20758

Deflate Decode (Gamma)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Decode	30111	0.942559319
streams	13607	0.4259
Total Number of Cycles	31946	
Memory Access [ops.]	4816	
Store Operations	2397	
Load Operations	2419	

Deflate Encode (Poisson)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Encode	23904	0.1731
streams	12004	0.086921891
Add Match	9000	0.0652
Control Match	33809	0.2448
CRC	31000	0.2245

Total Number of Cycles	138101
Memory Access [ops.]	30941
Store Operations	9898
Load Operations	21043

Deflate Decode (Poisson)			
Label Cycles Cycles/Tot.Cycles			
Decode	31447	0.93826829	
streams	14630	0.4365	

Total Number of Cycles	33516
Memory Access [ops.]	4997
Store Operations	2519
Load Operations	2478

Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Encode	21828	15.54%
streams	11452	8.15%
Add Match	10000	7.12%
Control Match	40604	28.91%
CRC	32000	22.78%

Total Number of Cycles	140460
Memory Access [ops.]	31169
Store Operations	9685

Load Operations	21484	
Deflate D	Decoding (T	ext)
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Decode	29258	95.89%
streams	13747	45.05%
Total Number of Cycles	30513	

Memory Access [ops.]	4654
Store Operations	2357
Load Operations	2297

Rice Encode (Exponential)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Encode	24363	0.3095
Streams	13436	0.1707
Calc K	930	0.0118
CLZ	434	0.0055
Maintain Tables	338	0.0043
Update Tables	7934	0.1008

Total Number of Cycles	78729
Memory Access [ops.]	14768
Store Operations	7259
Load Operations	7509

Rice Decode (Exponential)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Decode	41790	0.4268
Streams	25050	0.2558
CLZ1	14728	0.1504
Calc K	930	0.0095
CLZ2	434	0.0044
Maintain Tables	346	0.0035
Update Table	7934	0.0810

Total Number of Cycles	97912
Memory Access [ops.]	14758
Store Operations	8156
Load Operations	6602

Rice Encode (Gamma)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Encode	24909	0.2728
Streams	15186	0.1663
Calc K	3772	0.0413
CLZ	3276	0.0359
Maintain Tables	0	0.0000
Update Tables	15199	0.1664

Total Number of Cycles	91322
Memory Access [ops.]	15971
Store Operations	7821
Load Operations	8150

Rice Decode (Gamma)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Decode	44101	0.3976
Streams	24420	0.2201
CLZ1	14678	0.1323
Calc K	3772	0.0340
CLZ2	3276	0.0295
Maintain Tables	0	0.0000
Update Table	15199	0.1370

Total Number of Cycles	110930
Memory Access [ops.]	16045
Store Operations	8682
Load Operations	7363

Rice Encode (Poisson)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Encode	24909	0.2670
Streams	15424	0.1654
Calc K	3700	0.0397
CLZ	3204	0.0344
Maintain Tables	0	0.0000
Update Tables	16956	0.1818

Total Number of Cycles	93275
Memory Access [ops.]	16296
Store Operations	7998
Load Operations	8298

Rice Decode (Poisson)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Decode	43789	0.3893
Streams	26601	0.2365
CLZ1	18629	0.1656
Calc K	3700	0.0329
CLZ2	3204	0.0285
Maintain Tables	0	0.0000
Update Table	16956	0.1507

Total Number of Cycles	112490
Memory Access [ops.]	16402
Store Operations	8874
Load Operations	7528

Rice Encode (Text)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Encode	25297	0.2081
Streams	16514	0.1359
Calc K	3562	0.0293
CLZ	3066	0.0252
Maintain Tables	0	0.0000
Update Tables	44529	0.3664

Total Number of Cycles	121546
Memory Access [ops.]	19801
Store Operations	8555
Load Operations	11246

Rice Decode (Text)			
Label	Label Cycles Cycles/Tot.Cycle		
Decode	44852	0.3167	
Streams	25564	0.1805	
CLZ1	14944	0.1055	
Calc K	3562	0.0252	
CLZ2	3066	0.0217	
Maintain Tables	0	0.0000	
Update Table	44529	0.3145	

Total Number of Cycles	141604
Memory Access [ops.]	20025
Store Operations	9464
Load Operations	10561

With All Enhancements

Adaptive Huffman Encode (Exponential)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Increment Tree	67165	52.57%
Sort Tree	28250	22.11%
Switch Nodes	1453	1.14%
Insert Node	352	0.28%
Encode	32943	25.78%
Streams	8200	6.42%

Total Number of Cycles	127771
Memory Access [ops.]	29921
Store Operations	10406
Load Operations	19515

Adaptive Huffman Decode (Exponential)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Increment Tree	69319	52.44%
Sort Tree	29507	22.32%
Switch Nodes	1681	1.27%
Insert Node	352	0.27%
Decode	48301	36.54%
Streams	12372	9.36%

Total Number of Cycles	132183
Memory Access [ops.]	29135
Store Operations	10475
Load Operations	18660

Adaptive Huffman Decode (Gamma)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Increment Tree	169678	63.68%
Sort Tree	88443	33.19%
Switch Nodes	7220	2.71%
Insert Node	792	0.30%
Decode	81475	30.58%
Streams	13898	5.22%

Total Number of Cycles	266454	
Memory Access [ops.]	56867	
Store Operations	17478	
Load Operations	39389	

Adaptive Huffman Encode (Gamma)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Increment Tree	169652	66.66%
Sort Tree	88417	34.74%
Switch Nodes	7220	2.84%
Insert Node	792	0.31%
Encode	55260	21.71%
Streams	9601	3.77%

Total Number of Cycles	254506
Memory Access [ops.]	56410
Store Operations	17705
Load Operations	38705

Adaptive Huffman Encode (Poisson)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Increment Tree	189703	68.16%
Sort Tree	101982	36.64%
Switch Nodes	10953	3.94%
Insert Node	880	0.32%
Encode	58705	21.09%
Streams	9824	3.53%

Total Number of Cycles	278331
Memory Access [ops.] Store Operations	62094 19553
Load Operations	42541

Adaptive Huffman Decode (Poission)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Increment Tree	189617	65.01%
Sort Tree	101965	34.96%
Switch Nodes	10982	3.77%
Insert Node	880	0.30%
Decode	86629	29.70%
Streams	14148	4.85%

Total Number of Cycles	291673
Memory Access [ops.]	62811
Store Operations	19307
Load Operations	43504

Adaptive Huffman Encode (Text)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Increment Tree	235689	70.92%
Sort Tree	135548	40.79%
Switch Nodes	19536	5.88%
Insert Node	1628	0.49%
Encode	65252	19.63%
Streams	10405	3.13%

Total Number of Cycles	332346
Memory Access [ops.]	74760
Store Operations	23508
Load Operations	51252

Adaptive Huffman Decode (Text)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Increment Tree	235703	67.60%
Sort Tree	135562	38.88%
Switch Nodes	19536	5.60%
Insert Node	1628	0.47%
Decode	96366	27.64%
Streams	14839	4.26%

Total Number of Cycles	348687
Memory Access [ops.] Store Operations	76015 23220
Load Operations	52795

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Deflate Decode (Exponential)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Decode	16782	0.974507868
streams	6294	0.3655
Total Number of Cycles	17221	

Memory Access [ops.]	3315
Store Operations	1594
Load Operations	1721

Deflate Encode (Exponential)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Encode	9853	0.0218
streams	4640	0.010287222
Add Match	8000	0.0177
Control Match	349948	0.7759
CRC	26000	0.0576

Total Number of Cycles	451045
Memory Access [ops.]	77320
Store Operations	11133
Load Operations	66187

Deflate Decode (Gamma)			
Label Cycles Cycles/Tot.Cycles			
Decode	28591	0.958914677	
streams	14056	0.4714	

Total Number of Cycles	29816
Memory Access [ops.]	4816
Store Operations	2397
Load Operations	2419

Deflate Encode (Gamma)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Encode	21023	0.1774
streams	10480	0.088440311
Add Match	8000	0.0675
Control Match	34186	0.2885
CRC	26000	0.2194

Total Number of Cycles	118498
Memory Access [ops.]	27964
Store Operations	9446
Load Operations	18518

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Deflate Encode (Poisson)		
Label Cycles Cycles/Tot.Cycle		Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Encode	22410	0.1882
streams	11338	0.095228496
Add Match	8000	0.0672
Control Match	31440	0.2641
CRC	26000	0.2184

Total Number of Cycles	119061
Memory Access [ops.]	28152
Store Operations	9782
Load Operations	18370

Deflate Decode (Poisson)			
Label Cycles Cycles/Tot.Cycles			
Decode	29966	0.955944748	
streams	15128	0.4826	

Total Number of Cycles	31347
Memory Access [ops.]	4997
Store Operations	2519
Load Operations	2478

Deflate Encode (Text)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Encode	19859	16.41%
streams	10102	8.35%
Add Match	8000	6.61%
Control Match	36418	30.09%
CRC	26000	21.48%

Total Number of Cycles	121038
Memory Access [ops.]	27701
Store Operations	9423
Load Operations	18278

Deflate Decode (Text)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Decode	27238	95.60%
streams	13462	47.25%
Total Number of Cycles	28491	
Memory Access [ops.]	4654	
Store Operations	2357	
Load Operations	2297	

Rice Encode (Exponential)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Encode	30093	0.4707
Streams	15126	0.2366
Calc K	434	0.0068
Maintain Tables	238	0.0037
Update Tables	8156	0.1276

Total Number of Cycles	63932
Memory Access [ops.]	8616
Store Operations	4184
Load Operations	4432

Rice Decode (Exponential)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Decode	25116	36.97%
Streams	23158	34.09%
Calc K	434	0.64%
Maintain Tables	238	0.35%
Update Table	7818	11.51%

Total Number of Cycles	67941	
Memory Access [ops.]	8612	
Store Operations	5069	
Load Operations	3543	

Rice Decode (Gamma)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Decode	25572	0.3360
Streams	24646	0.3238
Calc K	434	0.0057
Maintain Tables	0	0.0000
Update Table	15124	0.1987

Total Number of Cycles	76111
Memory Access [ops.]	9830
Store Operations	5413
Load Operations	4417

Rice Encode (Gamma)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Encode	31468	0.4393
Streams	16501	0.2303
Calc K	434	0.0061
Maintain Tables	0	0.0000
Update Tables	14724	0.2055

Total Number of Cycles	71637
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Memory Access [ops.]	9744
Store Operations	4653
Load Operations	5091

Rice Encode (Poisson)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Encode	31655	0.4325
Streams	16688	0.2280
Calc K	434	0.0059
Maintain Tables	0	0.0000
Update Tables	16097	0.2199

73197
10037
4798
5239

Rice Decode (Poisson)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Decode	25572	0.3286
Streams	24850	0.3193
Calc K	434	0.0056
Maintain Tables	0	0.0000
Update Table	16625	0.2136

Total Number of Cycles 77817

Memory Access [ops.]	10294
Store Operations	5680
Load Operations	4614

Rice Encode (Text)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Encode	32628	0.3335
Streams	17581	0.1797
Calc K	434	0.0044
Maintain Tables	0	0.0000
Update Tables	39763	0.4064

Total Number of Cycles	97836
Memory Access [ops.]	13448
Store Operations	5261
Load Operations	8187

Rice Decode (Text)		
Label	Cycles	Cycles/Tot.Cycles
Decode	26024	0.2528
Streams	25878	0.2513
Calc K	434	0.0042
Maintain Tables	0	0.0000
Update Table	40644	0.3948

Total Number of Cycles	102960
Memory Access [ops.]	13885

Store Operations	6161
Load Operations	7724

E. Zip-File

This thesis has been delivered with zip-file named Appendix_E.zip. The folder structure in this file is shown here.

```
Appendix_E
     L Assembly_Source_Code
           L <sup>→</sup>Enhanced
                 L Deflate
                      L Decode
                            L<sup>2</sup>→RAM
                      L<sup>[</sup>→Encode
                            L  
☐ Huffman
                      L Decode
                            L∕⊇RAM
                      L 🗁 Rice
                      L Decode
                            L /⊇RAM
                      L Encode
                            L □ RAM
           L 🗁 Original
                 L Decode
                            L∕⊇RAM
                      L<sup>[</sup>→Encode
                            L<sup>™</sup> RAM
                ⊟Huffman
                      L Decode
                            L<sup>⊂</sup>⊂RAM
                      L / Encode
                            L 🗁 Rice
                       L Decode
                            L □ RAM
      L NanoRisc Assembler
      L NanoRise ISS
     L Stream Builder Source Code
     L VHDL Source Code
```