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A Heterogeneous Reconfigurable Cell Array for MIMO Signal Processing

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Abstract—This paper presents a heterogeneous reconfigurable cell array, designed for high-throughput baseband processing of Multiple-Input Multiple-Output (MIMO) systems. To achieve high performance and energy efficiency while retaining high flexibility, the proposed architecture adopts heterogeneous and hierarchical resource deployments. Additionally, extensive vector computation enhancements and flexible memory access schemes are employed to better support MIMO signal processing. Implemented in a 65 nm CMOS technology, the cell array occupies 8.88 mm² core area and is capable of running at 500 MHz. For illustration, three computationally intensive blocks, namely channel estimation, channel matrix pre-processing, and hard-output data detection, of a 4×4 MIMO processing chain in a 20 MHz 64-QAM 3GPP Long Term Evolution Advanced (LTE-A) downlink are mapped and processed in real-time. Implementation results report a maximum throughput of 367.88 Mbs with 1.49 nJ/b energy consumption. Compared to state-of-the-art designs, the proposed solution outperforms programmable platforms by several orders of magnitude in energy efficiency, and achieves similar level of efficiency to that of ASICs.

Index Terms—Reconfigurable architecture, vector processor, channel estimation, pre-processing, QR Decomposition (QRD), Multiple-Input Multiple-Output (MIMO), data detection.

I. INTRODUCTION

MUltiple-Input Multiple-Output (MIMO) techniques have been adopted in most newly released wireless communication standards, e.g., IEEE 802.11ac and 3GPP Long Term Evolution Advanced (LTE-A), to achieve high spectral efficiency. MIMO provides significant improvements in system capacity and link reliability without increasing bandwidth. However, the price-to-pay is an increased complexity and energy consumption due to the required sophisticated signal processing. In addition, MIMO is often combined with Orthogonal-Frequency-Division Multiplexing (OFDM) as a wireless access scheme to further improve spectral efficiency. Under such circumstances, the receiver needs to perform the corresponding processing at every OFDM subcarrier. This poses even more stringent requirements for hardware implementations, especially for battery-powered terminals operating at wide frequency band and large antenna numbers.

Besides the computational capability and energy consumption, flexibility becomes an important design factor. The fast evolving radio standards (more than 10 in a single module [1]) and the exploding number of operation modes within each protocol (63 for 3GPP LTE) makes the traditional module-specific solution unaffordable in terms of silicon re-design cost and time-to-market. Moreover, being capable of allocating resources dynamically, flexible hardware platforms have the potential to provide run-time power-performance trade-offs by, for example, adopting different algorithms and system setups. This feature is vital to supporting link-adaptive processing [2] to efficiently combat with constantly changing wireless channels. However, flexibility comes at the price of design overhead in terms of processing speed and power, contradicting the aforementioned requirements. Thus, sufficing all three demands at the same time poses a critical design challenge.

Recent work on MIMO signal processing shows a paradigm shift towards flexible hardware designs, for example, to support different operation modes and algorithms [3]–[7]. In this paper, we propose an application-domain specific reconfigurable platform aimed at supporting flexible MIMO signal processing and achieving balanced design requirements. The platform is built upon a heterogeneous cell array architecture, capable of performing multiple tasks while fulfilling the stringent timing requirement such as for a 20 MHz LTE-A system with 4×4 MIMO and 64-QAM setup. Such high performance is primarily achieved by three key architecture-level improvements. First, heterogeneous resource deployments and a hierarchical network topology enable efficient hybrid-format data computing and substantial communication cost reduction. Second, vector-enhanced processing achieves low-latency high-throughput vector computing. Third, flexible memory access schemes relieve processing cores from non-computational address manipulations. Additionally, algorithm-architecture co-optimization is conducted to further improve hardware efficiency. Using previously developed algorithms [8]–[10], most of the operations involved in all three tasks are vectorized and unified, enabling extensive parallel processing and hardware reuse. Note that the proposed reconfigurable cell array is not limited to the presented tasks and algorithms, since the platform is flexible and extendible. Compared to related work, the proposed solution achieves a good design trade-off between flexibility and implementation cost.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section II briefly describes the target system model and the three processing algorithms. Section III introduces the proposed architecture framework and Section IV presents the detailed cell array architecture. Section V summarizes the implementation results. Finally, Section VI concludes the paper.
II. MIMO SIGNAL PROCESSING

Figure 1 shows a typical MIMO-OFDM system with \( N \) transmit (Tx) and receive (Rx) antennas. Assuming perfect front-end processing, the received vector \( y \) after Cyclic Prefix (CP) removal and FFT can be written as

\[
y = Hx + n,
\]

where \( H \) denotes the complex-valued channel matrix, \( x \) is the transmitted vector obtained by mapping a set of encoded information bits onto a Gray-labelled complex constellation, and \( n \) is the i.i.d. complex Gaussian noise vector with zero mean and variance \( \sigma_n^2 \).

As a case study, this work adopts a 20 MHz LTE-A transceiver to present processing algorithms and hardware configurations. Three tightly coupled Rx blocks (highlighted in Fig. 1), which are unique and crucial in MIMO for exploiting its full superiorities, are mapped onto the cell array: estimation of the channel matrix \( H \) using pilot tones, channel matrix pre-processing that is an indispensable step for detection algorithms, and data detection that recovers \( x \).

As mentioned in Section I, previously developed MIMO processing algorithms [8]–[10] are used to demonstrate the performance-complexity trade-off. The following, the three adopted algorithms are briefly summarized for the sake of completeness.

A. Robust MMSE Channel Estimation

Utilizing the scattered pilot tones, the Robust MMSE (R-MMSE) algorithm [8] is adopted in this work, due to its estimation robustness and high Data-Level Parallelism (DLP). R-MMSE starts by Least Square (LS) estimation of channel vector \( h \) at pilot positions (denoted by subscript \( p \)),

\[
h_{p,LS} = y_p x_p^{-1}.
\]

Data-tone channel coefficients are obtained by interpolation,

\[
h_{\text{MMSE}} = \mathcal{F} h_{p,LS} = R_{h_p,h_p} \left( R_{h_p,h_p} + \frac{\beta}{\text{SNR}} I \right)^{-1} h_{p,LS},
\]

where \( R_{h_p,h_p} \) represents the channel cross-correlation between pilot and data-carrying subcarriers, \( R_{h_p,h_p} \) is the channel auto-correlation between pilots, \( \beta \) is a constellations dependent constant [8], and \( I \) denotes the identity matrix.

Employing the robust correlation matrix [8], obtained by assuming a uniform power-delay profile, the function \( \mathcal{F} \) in (3) becomes a constant scaling matrix that can be computed off-line. In addition, a sliding window approach is applied to the R-MMSE algorithm, named as R-MMSE-SW for short, which dramatically reduces the dimension of \( \mathcal{F} \) due to the adoption of low-rank approximations [8]. In R-MMSE-SW, the sliding window size (\( N_{\text{SW}} \)) is a performance-complexity trade-off parameter, which can be adjusted based on the channel condition and performance demand.

B. Channel Matrix Pre-processing

Given the estimated channel matrix \( \hat{H} \), MMSE-SQRD [9] algorithm is adopted to compute the MMSE detection matrix required in the succeeding data detector [10]. According to [9], MMSE-SQRD is equivalent to calculating the pseudo-inverse of an augmented channel matrix of size \( 2N \times N \),

\[
\hat{H}^\dagger = \left( \left( \begin{array}{c|c} H & \sigma_n I \end{array} \right)^T \right)^\dagger = \left( \hat{H}_p P^T \right)^\dagger,
\]

where \( \hat{H}_p \) and \( P \) represent the sorted channel and the permutation matrix respectively, \( (\cdot)^T \) indicates matrix transpose, and \( (\cdot)^\dagger \) denotes matrix pseudo-inverse. In MMSE-SQRD, \( \hat{H}_p \) can be decomposed as \( \hat{H}_p = QR = [Q_e, Q_o]^T R \) and \( R^{-1} \) is obtained as a by-product of the decomposition. Correspondingly, the system model in (1) can be rewritten as

\[
\hat{y} = Q_a^H y = Rx_p + \hat{n},
\]

where \( x_p = P^T x \) and \( \hat{n} = Q_o^H n \) are the permuted \( x \) and the noise vector, respectively. Considering the accuracy and numerical stability, computational complexity, and hardware reusability, Modified Gram-Schmidt (MGS) algorithm is used for implementing QR decomposition. Core operations of the MGS-QRD per iteration \( i \) is briefly summarized as follows, where the index \( k = i + 1, \ldots, N \), \( (\cdot)_i \) denotes a column vector, and \( (\cdot)_{i,i} \) represents the \( (i, i)^{th} \) matrix element

\[
\xi_{i,i} = ||\hat{h}_{p,i}||_2^2, \tag{6}
\]

\[
q_i = q_i / \xi_{i,i}, \tag{7}
\]

\[
\xi_{i,k} = q_i^H q_k, \tag{8}
\]

\[
q_k = q_k - \xi_{i,k} q_i. \tag{9}
\]

C. Node-Perturbed MMSE Data Detection

For data detection, we adopt the Node-Perturbation-enhanced MMSE (MMSE-NP) algorithm [10] to utilize its highly parallelized operations. MMSE-NP originates from a linear MMSE detection

\[
x_p^{\text{MMSE}} = Q \left( R^{-1} \hat{y} \right) = Q \left( \frac{1}{\sigma_n} Q_b Q_o^H y \right), \tag{10}
\]

where \( Q(\cdot) \) denotes the slicing function returning a constellation point nearest to the computed symbol. After expanding
which are typical parameters used in baseband processing [5] [13]. Moreover, both coordinates in Fig. 2 are normalized to a reference case, “LMMSE+FSD” in the right-bottom corner, which provides the best performance among the considered algorithms. The selected scheme “R.MMSE-SW+MMSE-NP” with parameters $N_{SW} = 24$ and $\Omega = \{F, 4, 3, 2\}$ [10] achieves a good trade-off between performance and complexity, providing more than 7 dB performance gain to “LS+MMSE” (left-up corner) and 100 times complexity reduction to the reference case “LMMSE+FSD”. It should be re-emphasized that $N_{SW}$ and $\Omega$ are tunable parameters and should be optimized depending on the system requirement.

With the presented algorithms, primitive operations required by the R.MMSE-SW estimator, MMSE-SQRD pre-processor, and MMSE-NP detector are characterized. Table I summarizes required vector and scalar operations and their proportion in each task. Two meaningful properties can be observed. First, more than 90% of operations in all three tasks are at vector level, indicating high DLP. Second, most of the operations are shared among the three algorithms, implying the potential of extensive hardware reuse. Before going on to present the hardware development, it is worth mentioning that algorithm selection is one of the important steps during the entire system design. Although reconfigurable platforms can support different algorithms, appropriate algorithm selection will lead to high hardware efficiency by making use of essential architectural characteristics.

### III. Reconfigurable Architecture

In this section, we introduce the reconfigurable architecture that can efficiently support MIMO processing algorithms. To do so, we start by identifying hardware requirements, and then analyzing and comparing different reconfigurable architectures including our previously proposed cell array framework [14].

#### A. Requirements for Hardware Platform

Inspired by the aforementioned operation analysis, we extract three main properties of MIMO signal processing and the corresponding hardware requirements with respect to computation, memory access, and data transfer.

- **Massive vector operations**: in view of the massive vector operations, efficient vector computing and high bandwidth memory access are essential.
- Hybrid data-widths and formats: the coexistence of scalar and vector operations requires a hybrid computational data-path. Additionally, efficient communication mechanisms are expected to offload processing units from non-computational operations, e.g., data alignments, during data transfers of various data-widths and formats.

- Multi-subcarrier processing: as a scheduling technique to further exploit DLP [3], multi-subcarrier processing requires various data access patterns to perform operations simultaneously at multiple subcarriers. Therefore, flexible memory access schemes are required.

Architecture selection should take all these challenging requirements into account to obtain high hardware efficiency.

B. Comparison of Reconfigurable Architectures

Based upon the coupling between processing and memory units and their interconnects, previously proposed reconfigurable architectures can be classified into four broad categories, illustrated in Fig. 3.

The first group of architectures (Fig. 3(a)), such as [13] and [15], are constructed from an array of homogeneous processors, each having exclusive access to its own memory. The homogeneous deployment of resources is inefficient in supporting hybrid data computing. Besides, inter-core data transfers may take significant amount of processing power, as they require controls from processors at both ends.

Architectures in Fig. 3(b) are built from atomic Functional Units (FUs), e.g., [16] and [17]. Since data memories are accessible only from the border of the cluster, it may result in high data transfer overhead especially for large-size clusters. Additionally, centralized memory organization may become a bottleneck for vector and multi-subcarrier processing, due to memory contention during concurrent data accesses.

Figure 3(c) shows architectures that consist of heterogeneous units interconnected through a shared homogeneous network, such as [18] and [19]. Since the overhead of homogeneous interconnects (e.g., the crossbar switch) increases linearly with the number of array nodes and data precision, it may have restricted usage in large-size networks and high dimensional (e.g., vector) data applications. Additionally, when considering hybrid computing, various-width data transfers via shared homogeneous interconnects is not cost effective and may require frequent data alignment operations.

The last group, e.g., [14] and [20], is a heterogeneous array communicating via hierarchical network interconnects. This arrangement provides efficient hybrid data computing and low-cost network interconnects. As an example, our previously proposed cell array [14] (Fig. 3(d)) is constructed from heterogeneous tiles, containing any size, type, and combination of Resource Cells (RCs). RC is a common name for all hardware units, categorized into processing and memory cells. The separation of memory from processing cells significantly simplifies data sharing, as memory cells can be shared by multiple processors without physically transferring data. Memory coherence is preserved by allowing direct data transfers between memories without involving processors. Communication between RCs is managed hierarchically: neighbouring cells are bidirectionally interconnected with low-latency high-bandwidth local links, while inter-tile transfers allow any RC to communicate through a hierarchical network using routing cells denoted as ‘R’ in Fig. 3(d). Compared to other interconnect topologies, the hierarchical network provides tighter coupling to RCs. For instance, connections within each tile can be localized to suffice both bandwidth and efficiency requirements, while hierarchical links provide flexible routing paths for inter-tile communication.

In conclusion, the architecture in Fig. 3(d) suffices all hardware requirements for MIMO signal processing. Hence, it is selected as a hardware infrastructure for further development.

IV. HETEROGENEOUS BASEBAND PROCESSOR

Built upon the cell array framework, the proposed baseband processor is composed of four heterogeneous tiles that are partitioned into scalar- and vector-processing domains, see Fig. 4. In the vector domain, Tile-0 handles vector processing while Tile-1 provides data storages and various forms of vector and matrix accesses. In the scalar domain, Tile-3 controls other RCs during run-time and handles scalar and irregular operations with memory supports from Tile-2. Data transfers between the two domains are bridged by memory cells using a micro-block function [14], which is a technique used to provide data access with finer wordlength than the physical memory provides. This feature efficiently supports hybrid data transfers without additional controls from processors.

A. Hybrid Resource Configuration

Configurations for all RCs are managed in two ways, either by an external host via hierarchical network or by distributed controllers inside the cell array, as illustrated in Fig. 5. The former approach is mainly used for streaming data inputs, like the received vector $y$, and off-line configurations, such as power-up setups. The latter approach is used to conduct run-time configurations, which are issued on a per-clock-cycle basis and managed jointly by a task manager (i.e.,
a processing cell in Tile-3) and local controllers distributed in RCs. Specifically, the task manager tracks the overall processing flow and controls context switching (e.g., changing from channel estimation to QRD), while local controllers are responsible for applying configurations onto processing data and memory access-paths (e.g., to switch between operations listed in Table I). This joint management of run-time configuration is advantageous in two aspects. First, local controllers within RCs are considerably simplified, since no individual tracking of the processing flow is required. Therefore, only one set of control circuits common to all local controllers is required, resulting in reduced overhead compared to that of a fully distributed configuration scheme. Second, deploying a dedicated task manager close to RCs inside the cell array smoothly integrates run-time configurations into the normal processing flow. For example, configurations are issued as soon as the current task is completed without interrupting and waiting for responses from an external host.

B. Vector Data Flow Processor

Figure 6(a) shows the architecture of Tile-0, consisting of three processing cells (pre-, core-, and post-processing), a register bank, and a sequencer. The three processing cells, shown on the upper half of Fig. 6(a), are deployed for vector computations, while the register bank provides data accesses from both internal registers and other tiles through register-mapped IO ports. The sequencer controls operations of the other cells via a control bus, drawn in dashed lines in Fig. 6(a). In the following, we present two architectural improvements for achieving efficient vector processing.

1) Vector enhanced SIMD core: In wireless baseband processing, Single Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD) is commonly used as a baseline architecture to exploit inherent DLP. Similarly, an SIMD-based architecture is adopted in the core-processing cell, consisting of \( N \times N \) homogeneous Complex-valued Multiply-ACcumulate (CMAC) units, see Fig. 6.

Concerning the execution latencies of vector operations, conventional SIMD architectures (e.g., [13] and [15]) are inefficient, since they are designed to handle parallel independent scalar data operands and their internal function units cannot operate collaboratively during instruction execution. For example, the computation of Vector Dot Product (VDP), which takes about 80% of entire vector processing in Table I, requires multiple clock cycles (depending on vector length), since each VDP operation is performed in a folded fashion using at most one CMAC unit.

To tackle the latency issue, we adopt an efficient vectorization technique to the SIMD core, so that all vector operations with length \( N \) have single-cycle execution speed. Specifically, each CMAC unit is equipped with an inter-cell connection (\( e \)-path) to link up with neighbouring CMACs during instruction execution, e.g., the \( e \) input in Fig. 6(b) is connected to the level-2 output \( (O_e) \) of the previous CMAC unit. Using this simple connection, level-2 adders of CMACs in every processing lane can be concatenated to form an adder-tree, capable of computing one \( N \)-length vector in every clock cycle, e.g., a VDP with an atomic operation of \( [ab + c] \). Vectors exceeding this length are processed by folding, i.e., they are decomposed into data segments suitable for atomic operations.

2) VLIW-style multi-stage computing: Another important observation from the algorithm analysis (Section II-D) is that most of the vector processing involves several tightly coupled operations, such as complex conjugation (8) and result sorting (11) performed before and after vector computations, respectively. Mapping of such “long” processing solely on the SIMD core requires multiple operations, causing not only increased execution time but also redundant register accesses for intermediate result buffering. Therefore, we extend the SIMD core by adopting a Very Long Instruction Word (VLIW)-style multi-stage computation chain to accomplish several consecutive data manipulations in one single instruction. Specifically, two distinct processing cells are arranged around the SIMD core to pre- and post-process data respectively, see Fig. 6(a). Benefiting from this arrangement, more than 60% of register accesses are avoided, as the pre- and post-processing together take about two-thirds of the total vector computations. As an example, Table II summarizes operations required for implementing the MMSE-SQRD algorithm. A similar technique named operation chaining can be found in [13].

One drawback of VLIW-style architectures is the control overhead caused by the rigid instruction format. For example, any change of its sub-operations requires loading of a whole new instruction, resulting in unnecessary program storage and memory access for those unchanged parts. Although many code size reduction schemes exist, e.g., [21], they require a huge area cost to restore the instructions at run-time. In
TABLE II
AN EXAMPLE OF THE MULTI-STAGE COMPUTING IN MMSE-SQRD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Pre-process</th>
<th>Core-process</th>
<th>Post-process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(4) &amp; sort</td>
<td>Pre-3</td>
<td>VDP (ab + e)</td>
<td>Post-1, 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6)</td>
<td>Pre-2</td>
<td>VDP (ab + e)</td>
<td>Post-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7)</td>
<td>Pre-1</td>
<td>bc</td>
<td>Post-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8)</td>
<td>Pre-2</td>
<td>a - bc</td>
<td>Post-1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In contrast, we adopt a distributed control scheme to tackle the overhead issue by using the available configuration memories deployed inside RCs (Fig. 6(a)). This is based on an observation from Table II that operations tend to be used for more than one instruction, e.g., barrel shifting (Post-1). Therefore, by preloading data-path configurations into the distributed configuration memories, the run-time instruction control involves only memory address managements, which have much smaller code size than the content of configurations. Furthermore, partial processing updates are issued on-demand to a specific cell without reloading others.

Implementation of the pre- and post-processing cells depends on the operation profile of target applications. In the case of MIMO processing, the pre-processor is capable of performing data negation and absolute calculations, generation of access patterns using matrix masks, and data shuffling and broadcasting. The post-processing cell provides support for barrel shifting, $e$-path accumulations, and vector permutations.

C. Vector Data Memory Tile

Besides vector computation enhancements, the efficiency of the vector processor is contingent on memory access with regard to accessing bandwidth and flexibility. By inspection of the presented algorithms, it is required that the SIMD core has access to multiple matrices and/or vectors in each operation, so as to avoid poor resource utilization and throughput. As an example, efficient mapping of (6) requires two $N \times N$ matrix inputs, equivalent to having a $2 	imes (4 \times 4) \times (16+16)=1024$ bits/cycle memory bandwidth for a 16-bit $4 \times 4$ MIMO system. In addition to the bandwidth requirement, various forms of data accesses are needed, such as row- and column-wise addressing in matrix transposition. To meet these requirements, we adopt a hybrid memory organization and a flexible matrix access mechanism in the vector data memory tile (Tile-1).

1) Hybrid memory organization: To suffice the high memory accessing bandwidth, Tile-1 consists of vector and matrix access partitions, allowing simultaneous accesses of both vectors and matrices, see Fig. 7(a). The basic element in both partitions is a dual-port memory cell, which provides a vector-level data storage and allows simultaneous read and write operations to ease memory access and improve processing throughput at the price of a larger memory footprint. In addition, the matrix partition provides matrix data access, which is realized by concurrently accessing a group of memory cells using only one set of address control. This arrangement is referred to as a memory page, shown in Fig. 7(a). The vector accessing wordlength and the number of cells in a memory page are designed to match the processing capacity of the SIMD core in Tile-0, i.e., $N$ scalar elements and $N$ memory cells, respectively. On the other hand, the number of memory cells and pages are application dependent and should be optimized with respect to the bandwidth requirement and hardware cost. In this work, Tile-1 is configured to have 2 memory cells and 5 pages to ensure a sufficient memory storage required for the MIMO processing.

Memory operations and accessing modes of each cell and page are managed by a local controller with configurations stored in embedded registers, see Fig. 7(b). To communicate with other tiles, memory accesses are multiplexed using a crossbar network and interfaced through IO ports. For the array shown in Fig. 4, Tile-1 contains four IO ports, allowing simultaneous accesses of two $N \times 1$ vectors and two $N \times N$ matrices for providing accesses to both Tile-0 and Tile-2. Referring to the aforementioned example, this corresponds to a memory bandwidth of 1280 bits/cycle.
two acceleration units, see Fig. 8. The generic processor is a
is useful, for example, in supporting sorted matrix access in
an access index associated with each matrix storage. Benefit
D. Scalar Resource Cells and Accelerators

In the scalar domain, Tile-2 and 3 perform scalar and
conditional operations as well as dynamic configurations of
other tiles in the array. Among them, Tile-2 consists of two
scalar memories for storing data and configurations, respect-
ively. Tile-3 contains one memory cell for data buffering and
three processing cells, including one generic processor and
two acceleration units, see Fig. 8. The generic processor is a
customized RISC with optimized conditional instructions and
specialized functionality for dynamic RC configurations [14].
The two accelerators behave like co-processors of the generic
cell for performing irregular operations, i.e., the inverse
square-root in (6) and the node perturbation in MMSE-NP,
respectively. Detailed architectures of the generic processor
and the scalar memory cell can be found in [14].

V. IMPLEMENTATION RESULTS AND COMPARISON

To cope with different system configurations and design
constraints, the heterogeneous cell array is fully paramet-
izable at system design-time. For the case of 20 MHz 4×4 MIMO
LTE-A downlink, the SIMD core in Tile-0 is configured to
have 16 CMAC units. All computations (Tile-0 and Tile-3) are
performed in 16 bits fixed-point arithmetic with 8 guard
bits for accumulations. Besides, the array contains 2.34 Mbit
of memory, in which 88% are data buffers for keeping data re-
quired in one LTE-A time slot (e.g., channel and decomposed
matrices), 2% are control memories for storing instructions and
resource configurations, and 10% are reserved for facilitating
flexible algorithm mappings and future system updates.

A. Implementation Results

Implemented in a 65 nm CMOS technology, the cell array
has a core area of 8.88 mm² at 74% cell density in chip
layout, equivalent to 2.76 M two-input NAND gates. Data
buffers occupy more than 60% of the area, while logic blocks,
including control memories and the hierarchical network, share
the rest. Excluding those data buffers, it shows in Table III that
most of the logic gates are taken by the vector partition, i.e.,
Tile-0 and 1. At 1.2 V nominal core voltage supply, the cell
array is capable of running at 500 MHz reported from Static
Timing Analysis (STA) of the post-layout design.

1) Timing analysis: The three MIMO processing tasks, i.e.,
channel estimation (CE), channel matrix pre-processing
(QRD), and data detection (DT), are manually mapped onto
the cell array with a primary focus on sufficing the stringent
timing constraint and achieving high processing throughput.
Figure 9 illustrates the structure of a 4×4 MIMO LTE-A data
frame and the adopted task-oriented processing flow, which
performs one task on all subcarriers before switching to the
subsequent one. This is different from a subcarrier-oriented
scheme (handling one subcarrier at a time), which requires
more frequent context switching and thus long configuration
time and more power consumption. In this work, processing is
scheduled on a basis of one LTE-A time slot (t_slot). Every
iteration starts as soon as the last pilot tone in OFDM symbol
1 is received. To avoid the need for additional data buffers
(i.e., more than one time slot), the computation time of each data dependencies, (b) the proposed task-oriented processing flow.

Table IV summaries achieved performance of the three task mappings. Besides, configurations, such as program loadings from external host and memory initializations, are presented separately under “Miscellaneous”. Run-time reconfigurations, hidden inside the processing time of each task, consume about 2% of the total computation time. This low control overhead is achieved by conducting the hybrid resource configurations (Section IV-A). Operating at 500 MHz, the total processing time for one LTE-A time slot is 469.72 µS. This fulfills the real-time requirement of the target LTE-A setup and results in about 6% spare time that can be used to map more advanced algorithms or upgrade system parameters. Based on the processing time and the number of tones/bits required to compute, Table IV presents the corresponding throughput achieved as an overview of the design efficiency and operating scenario. Therefore, the following discussion only serves to give an overview of the design efficiency for related implementations. To ease the discussion, related hardware architectures are divided into three broad categories:

3) Power and energy consumption: Working at 500 MHz and 1.2 V voltage supply, the average power consumption for processing one data-carrying tone is 548.78 mW, including 306.84 mW from the logic blocks and 241.94 mW from the data buffers. The corresponding energy consumption for processing one information bit is 0.83 nJ/b and 1.49 nJ/b, without and with data buffers respectively. Table IV summaries average power and energy consumption of different tasks with data buffers excluded. As can be seen, power consumption of different tasks is quite balanced because of the high computation efficiency of the cell array achieved by the algorithm-architecture co-design. Moreover, Table III shows a tile-level power breakdown of the array. Among all, Tile-0 is the most power consuming block, because of the large area occupation and high resource utilization. It should be mentioned that simulated power figures from the post-layout design may be different from those observed in the fabricated chip measurements.

4) Flexibility: The flexibility is demonstrated by time-multiplexing three different tasks onto the reconfigurable cell array. Additionally, by making use of dynamic hardware reconfigurability, such as loading different programs and configurations to processing and memory cells respectively, the platform has the potential to support other system configurations. Examples include mapping of different algorithms and antenna setups, and run-time adaption of system performance, e.g., adjusting the frequency of channel estimation and detection parameters. Furthermore, the platform is extendible, thanks to the tile-based heterogeneous and hierarchical resource deployments. For example, larger antenna setups can be supported by extending resource cells and the bandwidth of local links, higher throughput can be achieved by doubling the number of tiles, and system performance can be improved by extending the scalar processing tile (Tile-3) with Log Likelihood Ratio (LLR) unit to perform soft-output data detection [16]. Based on the list of candidate vectors generated in the adopted detection algorithm, a searching unit is needed to find bit-level vectors required in LLR computations. Other scalar operations can be mapped onto the generic processor in Tile-3.

B. Comparison Analysis

In Table V, implementation results of the cell array are compared with previously reported designs. In fact, a fair quantitative comparison is difficult due to many different design factors, such as flexibility, algorithm selection, performance and operating scenario. Therefore, the following discussion only serves to give an overview of the design efficiency for related implementations. To ease the discussion, related hardware architectures are divided into three broad categories:

![Fig. 9. Timing diagram of MIMO signal processing.](image-url)
outperforms the GPU approach [25] by 4 orders of magnitude. Compared to ASICs [6], [22]–[24], 2–13.6 times less area efficiency is observed for each individual task mapping.

2) Energy efficiency: Besides the area and throughput evaluation, energy consumption per operation is another important measure for baseband processing. In comparison to related baseband processors, similar energy figures are observed. However, it should be pointed out that the cell array operates in a more complicated system setup (e.g., 4 MIMO vs. 2×2) and has more tasks assigned at the same time. Compared to ASICs, the cell array consumes 4–11 times more energy for performing each individual task, whereas a 1.3 times energy gain is obtained compared to the FPGA solution supporting only upto 16-QAM detection. Moreover, its energy efficiency outperforms the GPU approach by 6 orders of magnitude. Such high energy efficiency is achieved mainly by the hardware developments in the array: the architecture partitioning for attaining efficient vector and scalar processing, the hierarchical network topology for reducing communication costs, the vector processing enhancements and substantial register-access reduction for improving computation efficiency, and the flexible memory access schemes for relieving non-computational operations from processing cores.

VI. Conclusion

This paper presents an application-domain specific reconfigurable platform developed based on a heterogeneous cell array architecture. The efficiency of the proposed solution is exhibited by mapping three crucial MIMO processing blocks, namely channel estimation, channel matrix pre-processing, and

### TABLE V
COMPARISON OF THIS WORK WITH ACCELERATORS AND RECONFIGURABLE PLATFORMS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Platform</th>
<th>[22]</th>
<th>[23]</th>
<th>[24]</th>
<th>[6]</th>
<th>[25]</th>
<th>[19]</th>
<th>[1]</th>
<th>[5]</th>
<th>This work</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Antenna</td>
<td>−</td>
<td>4×4</td>
<td>4×4</td>
<td>4×4</td>
<td>4×4</td>
<td>4×2</td>
<td>2×2</td>
<td>4×4</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modulation (QAM)</td>
<td>−</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mapping (CE</td>
<td>QRD</td>
<td>DT)</td>
<td>√1−1√</td>
<td>−1√ &amp; −</td>
<td>−1√ &amp;</td>
<td>−1√</td>
<td>−1√</td>
<td>−</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology [nm]</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gate count [KG]</td>
<td>0.68a,b,c</td>
<td>2.81a</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>2.02a</td>
<td>26a</td>
<td>306.82a</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>16.06b,d</td>
<td>32  8.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area [mm²]</td>
<td>325a,b,c</td>
<td>152a</td>
<td>340b</td>
<td>505c</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>4.5e5b,d</td>
<td>71e</td>
<td>5969d</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency [MHz]</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>417</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>1150</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power [mW]</td>
<td>154a,b,c</td>
<td>51.2a</td>
<td>53.6a</td>
<td>39.07b</td>
<td>62.4a</td>
<td>323e3d</td>
<td>20.48a</td>
<td>219b,d</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a With data buffers excluded.
b Normalized to 65 nm with 1.2 V core voltage: $f_{cut} \propto s$ and $P \propto (1/s)(1.2/V_{dd})^2$, where $s = \text{Tech.}/65 \text{nm}$.
c Scaled up to 4×4 MIMO configuration: $\{A, P\} \propto d$, where $d = \#\text{Rx-antenna}$.
d Only counted relevant parts of the chip.

![Fig. 10. Utilization of the SIMD core in Tile-0 during MIMO signal processing of two LTE-A resource blocks (24 subcarriers). Horizontal lines in the figure show the average utilization of the corresponding task.](image-url)
data detection, onto the processor, while the capability of real-time processing in a 20 MHz 4×4 MIMO 64-QAM LTE-A downlink is demonstrated. Achievements in area and energy efficiency are mainly enabled by algorithm-architecture co-development, including unified and vectorized operations in algorithms, heterogeneous and hierarchical hardware resource deployments, vector processing enhancements, and flexible self-governed memory access schemes. Implementation results show that the proposed cell array platform is well positioned among the conventional architectures. It outperforms GPU platforms by 4–6 orders of magnitude in area and energy efficiency and reveals 1.3–2.8 times gain to FPGAs, and is 2–14 and 4–11 times less efficient than ASICs.

**REFERENCES**


