

A RECONFIGURABLE ARRAY FOR BLIND SOURCE-SEPARATION ON AN FPGA

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Abstract: We present a reconfigurable array which performs blind source separation on a range of field-programmable gate array (FPGA) devices. Our array uses independent component analysis (ICA) with the InfoMax algorithm to separate a mixture of signals without an external reference. We describe two configurations of the array, representing distinct points in the design space. Our experimental results show a performance improvement of more than one order of magnitude over an optimized software implementation of the algorithm on a computer, with a power consumption of just 100mW. Our array successfully separates a fetal electrocardiogram (ECG) mixture into the source signals of mother and fetus, enabling medical analysis on the resulting independent components.

1 INTRODUCTION

Independent component analysis (ICA) is a signal processing technique used to recover the original sources from unknown mixtures captured by spatially distributed sensors. Due to the weak assumptions imposed by ICA on the nature of the original signals, this technique is widely used to perform blind source separation on medical applications such as electrocardiogram (ECG) and electroencephalogram (EEG) analysis (Zeng et al., 2008; Potter et al., 2002), as well as speech recognition, face classification, and data communications (Bell and Sejnowski, 1997).

Despite these advantages, most ICA algorithms require high computational throughput to operate in real time. Typical software solutions on general purpose computers are large and power hungry, and even digital signal processors do not meet the power, performance, and cost requirements of embedded and portable applications. Custom VLSI implementations usually feature the best power/performance tradeoff, but they lack the flexibility of software solutions, and their design cycle is long and expensive.

We present a hardware implementation of the InfoMax algorithm for ICA on field-programmable gate arrays (FPGAs). Unlike custom-VLSI circuits, FPGA can be easily reprogrammed on-site, retaining the flexibility of software implementations while attaining higher performance and lower power consump-

tion (Anguita et al., 2003). Unlike previous implementations (Yang et al., 2007; Li and Lin, 2005), we can target our array at a wide range of devices, trading size and cost for performance depending on the requirements of the application.

In this paper, we describe the architecture and target it at both an entry-level device and a high-end platform FPGA. First, we describe the InfoMax algorithm. Then, we describe the architecture of the array and discuss the implementation of key functions in fixed-point arithmetic. We discuss and analyze our design trade-offs for both versions of the architecture and their impact on circuit area and performance. Finally, we present experimental results on the separation of mother and fetus EEG signals. The performance of the array on the entry-level FPGA is similar to that of an optimized software implementation on a desktop PC, while the array on the platform FPGA improves the performance of software implementation by more than one order of magnitude. Both arrays dissipate less than 100mW.

2 THE INFOMAX ALGORITHM

As stated in the previous section, Independent Component Analysis performs blind-source separation of an unknown mixture of independent signals. ICA

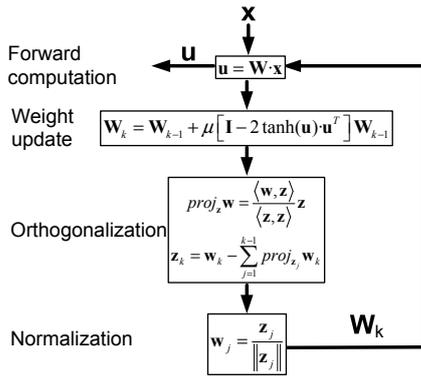


Figure 1: The InfoMax algorithm.

assumes only that the mixture is linear, the original sources are statistically independent, and that at most one of them exhibits a Gaussian distribution. The technique applies a linear transformation on the mixed signals and adapts its coefficients to maximize the statistical independence of the outputs.

There are several algorithms that perform ICA, but one of the most widely used is InfoMax (Cardoso, 1997), which separates the sources by minimizing the mutual information between the outputs. Figure 1 outlines the data flow of the algorithm. Like all ICA algorithms, the InfoMax computes the output vector $\mathbf{u}(k)$ as the product of the n -input vector $\mathbf{x}(k) = [x_1(k) \dots x_n(k)]^T$ and a weight matrix $\mathbf{W}(k)$:

$$\mathbf{u}(k) = \mathbf{x}(k)^T \mathbf{W}(k) \quad (1)$$

where k is the time step. After each block of data (256 samples in our implementation), the algorithm applies a nonlinear learning rule to update the coefficients of \mathbf{W} . InfoMax maximizes the entropy of the output, using the learning rule $\mathbf{W}(k+1) = \mathbf{W}(k) + \mu \Delta \mathbf{W}(k)$, where μ is the learning rate and

$$\Delta \mathbf{W}(k) = (\mathbf{I} - \varphi(\mathbf{u}(k)) \mathbf{u}^T) \mathbf{W}(k) \quad (2)$$

is the weight increment at time k , where \mathbf{I} is the identity matrix, $\varphi(u) = \frac{\partial g(u)}{\partial u}$ and $g(\cdot)$ is an invertible and nonlinear function.

Both the learning rate and the nonlinear function $g(\cdot)$ are parameters chosen by the designer, and affect the dynamic and stationary behavior of the algorithm. One of the most widely used nonlinear functions is $g(u) = \tanh(u) \Rightarrow \varphi(u) = 2 \tanh(u)$.

To prevent all vectors of matrix \mathbf{W} from converging in the same direction, the algorithm orthogonalizes and normalizes them after each iteration. We use Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization:

$$proj_{\mathbf{z}} \mathbf{w} = \frac{\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{z} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{z} \rangle} \mathbf{z}$$

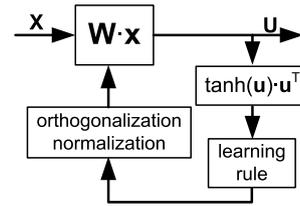


Figure 2: Array architecture.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{z}_1 &= \mathbf{w}_1 & \mathbf{w}_1 &= \frac{\mathbf{z}_1}{\|\mathbf{z}_1\|} \\ \mathbf{z}_2 &= \mathbf{w}_2 - proj_{\mathbf{z}_1} \mathbf{w}_2 & \mathbf{w}_2 &= \frac{\mathbf{z}_2}{\|\mathbf{z}_2\|} \\ & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \mathbf{z}_k &= \mathbf{w}_k - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} proj_{\mathbf{z}_j} \mathbf{w}_k & \mathbf{w}_k &= \frac{\mathbf{z}_k}{\|\mathbf{z}_k\|} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where \mathbf{w}_k are the weight vectors, \mathbf{z}_k are their orthogonal projections before normalization, $\langle \cdot \rangle$ is the dot product, and $\|\cdot\|$ is the Euclidian norm.

3 THE ARRAY

3.1 Architecture

Figure 2 depicts the general architecture of our hardware implementation of InfoMax. The algorithm executes in three main stages:

- First, an array of hardware multipliers performs a vector-matrix multiplication to compute the outputs following Equation 1. The weight matrix $\mathbf{W}_{n \times n}$ is stored on on-chip RAM memory blocks.
- Second, for every block of 256 samples, the output values are used to compute the InfoMax weight update according to Equation 2, which involves computing the tanh function and a matrix multiplication.
- Finally, the array applies the updates to the stored weight matrix, and then normalizes and orthogonalizes the weight vectors using Gram-Schmidt (Equation 3), which require multiplications, divisions, and square roots.

We exploit the available data parallelism both within each stage, and also between stages using pipelining. The scheduling of the computations differs between the two different configurations of the array, and are explained in more detail in Sections 3.3 and 3.4. First, we discuss the implementation of basic arithmetic functions that are common to both configurations.

3.2 Basic Functions

The basic operations required by the InfoMax algorithm are multiplication, addition, hyperbolic tangent, square root, and division. Our current implementation uses Xilinx FPGAs, which feature 18-bit signed integer multipliers. Therefore, the input signals, coefficients and most intermediate values are encoded as 18-bit fixed-point quantities (5-bit integer and 12-bit fractional, plus sign). Addition is performed using 18-bit ripple-carry adders supported directly by the FPGA hardware with a fast carry chain. We use the available 18-bit hardware multipliers to compute the products, selecting the corresponding 18-bit slice out of the 36-bit result, and performing arithmetic rounding to improve resolution.

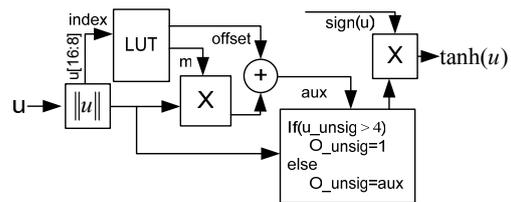
Nonlinear functions such as tanh, division and square root are not supported by the FPGA hardware, so they must be implemented by hand. The algorithm computes the tanh of every output value, therefore its implementation must be fast. As depicted in Figure 3(a), we use on-chip block RAM to implement lookup tables (LUTs) that contain selected values of the tanh function, and use linear interpolation to obtain intermediate values. Because the function is symmetrical, we only store values for positive arguments. Each of the 512 table entries contains the slope and offset of a linear segment of the approximation, and the table is indexed using the 9 most-significant bits of the absolute value of the argument.

We also use LUTs to compute the square-root function. The function is smooth for large arguments, but changes rapidly for small ones. The resolution of the square root function greatly affects the convergence of the InfoMax algorithm, so the uniformly-spaced table approach used for tanh is inadequate. Our solution, depicted in Figure 3(b) is to use two LUTs : the first table provides an exact value for the first 512 values of the argument, while the second table implements a linear approximation for the rest of the argument's 18-bit dynamic range.

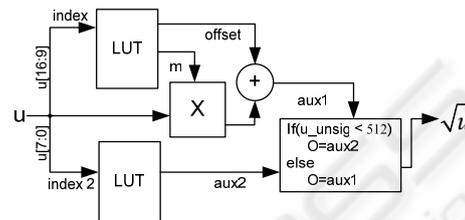
The convergence of InfoMax is very sensitive to the resolution of the division operation. Therefore, implementing it with LUTs would require extremely large tables. Instead, we opted for an iterative algorithm which computes the quotient with 18-bit resolution in 24 clock cycles using a series of bit shifts, comparisons, and subtractions. Figure 3(c) illustrates the algorithm.

3.3 Fully-Parallel Configuration

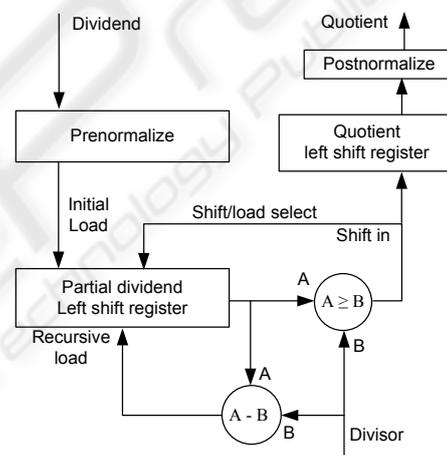
The fully-parallel implementation of the algorithm targets large FPGA devices to maximize performance



(a) Hyperbolic tangent.



(b) Square root.



(c) Division.

Figure 3: Implementation of basic functions.

at the expense of die area. In our current implementation, we target this configuration to a Xilinx Virtex-II Pro XC2VP30 platform FPGA, which contains 136 multipliers, 30,816 logic cells, and 2,448 Kbits of block RAM. The device also contains two PowerPC processor cores, which we do not currently use. Our current implementation reads 4 data streams and produces 4 output streams.

The fully-parallel array breaks up the algorithm into four stages, each of them further decomposed in substages which execute concurrently in a pipelined fashion. The hardware multipliers ultimately constrain how many operations of the algorithm we can perform in parallel on the chip. Table 1 summarizes the actions performed by each stage and their resource utilization. We briefly describe their operation and re-

Table 1: Fully-parallel configuration.

Stage	Operation	Mult.
A1	Read input $\mathbf{x}_{4 \times 1}$	0
A2	$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{W}_{4 \times 4} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{4 \times 1}$	16
A3a	Read 4 tanh LUT	0
A3b	4 times: $\tanh(u_k) = c_k + m_k \cdot u_k$	4
A4	$\mathbf{A}_{4 \times 4} = \mathbf{A}_{4 \times 4} + \tanh(\mathbf{u}_{4 \times 1}) \cdot \mathbf{u}_{4 \times 1}^T$	16
B1	$\mathbf{B}_{4 \times 4} = \mathbf{I}_{4 \times 4} - 2 \cdot \mathbf{A}_{4 \times 4}$	0
B2	$\mathbf{D}_{4 \times 4} = \mathbf{B}_{4 \times 4} \cdot \mathbf{W}_{4 \times 4}$	16
B3	$\mathbf{W}_{4 \times 4} = \mathbf{W}_{4 \times 4} + c \cdot \mathbf{D}_{4 \times 4}$	4
C1	4 dot products $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle$	16
C2	$\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{z} \rangle / \langle \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{z} \rangle$	0
C3	3 times: $\mathbf{z}_k = \mathbf{w}_k - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} proj_{\mathbf{w}_j} \mathbf{z}_k$	12
D1	$a = \sum_{j=1}^4 z_{jk}$	4
D2	$b = \text{sqrt}(a)$	1
D3	$\mathbf{w}_k = \mathbf{z}_k / b$	0

relationship to the equations in Section 2:

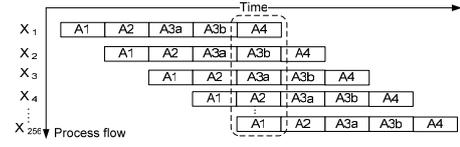
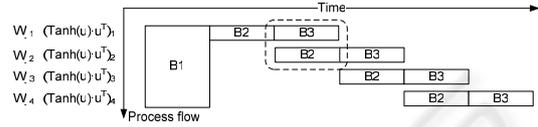
Stage A - Separation. Computes the output vector and the tanh of each output element in a 256-sample block. Stage A1 loads the input vector from memory, while A2 performs the matrix - vector multiplication $\mathbf{x}(k)^T \mathbf{W}(k)$ depicted in Equation 1. Stages A3a and A3b compute $\tanh(\mathbf{u})$ using the LUTs, and stage A4 accumulates $\varphi(\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{u}^T$ according to Equation 2.

Stage B - Update. Every 256 samples, the array updates the weight matrix \mathbf{W} according to the InfoMax learning rule. Stage B1 computes $\mathbf{I} - \varphi(\mathbf{u}) \mathbf{u}^T$ in Equation 2, stage B2 completes the computation of $\Delta \mathbf{W}$, and stage B3 applies the weight update.

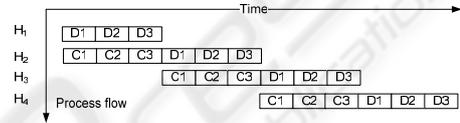
Stage C - Orthogonalization. Orthogonalizes the new weights according to Equation 3. Stages C1 performs up to four dot products in parallel, C2 compute the projections, and stage C3 subtracts them from the original weight vectors.

Stage D - Normalization. Normalizes the weight vectors. Stages D1 and D2 compute the Euclidean norm of each vector using multiplies and square-root operations, and stage D3 divides each weight vector by its norm.

Figure 4 depicts the schedule of execution of all four stages in the fully-parallel architecture. The architecture uses pipelining to overlap the execution of different substages for consecutive input vectors. Thus, in stage A up to five substages are executed simultaneously on the array, and the array processes a new input vector on each clock cycle.


 (a) $\tanh(u) \cdot u^T$.


(b) Weight update.



(c) Orthogonalization and normalization.

Figure 4: Schedule of fully-parallel configuration.

3.4 Folded Configuration

In order to fit the array into smaller (and thus less expensive) FPGA devices, we fold each stage of the architecture onto itself to process fewer input elements simultaneously. Thus, instead of performing every operation of each substage in parallel, we use time-multiplexing to share multiple hardware resources between different elements of an input vector. The current target device for our folded configuration is a Xilinx Spartan 3 XC3S1000, which features 24 multipliers, 17,280 logic cells, and 432 Kbits of block RAM. A software tool aids the designer in the process of folding the architecture based on the available resources in the target device, and generates the correct HDL code.

Table 2 shows the stages and resource utilization of the folded configuration. Compared to Table 1, the resource utilization has been now reduced to process only one vector element at a time, while the fully-parallel configuration processes a entire new vector at each clock cycle. As a result, the folded configuration uses approximately 25% of the resources of the fully-parallel version, at the cost of extended execution time and a slightly more complex control structure.

Figure 5 shows the pipelined scheduling of the operations within each stage in the folded configuration. Stage A now processes a new input vector every eleven clock cycles. Orthogonalization and normalization take place sequentially, and the division oper-

Table 2: Folded configuration.

Stage	Operation	Mult.
A1	Read input $\mathbf{x}_{4 \times 1}$	0
A2	$\mathbf{u}_{i4 \times 1} = \mathbf{w}_{i1 \times 4} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{4 \times 1}$	4
A3a	Read 1 tanh LUT	0
A3b	1 time: $\tanh(u_k) = c_k + m_k \cdot u_k$	1
A4	$\mathbf{a}_{i1 \times 4} = \mathbf{a}_{i1 \times 4} + \tanh(\mathbf{u}_{4 \times 1}) \cdot \mathbf{u}_{4 \times 1}^T$	4
B1	$\mathbf{B}_{4 \times 4} = \mathbf{I}_{4 \times 4} - 2 \cdot \mathbf{A}_{4 \times 4}$	0
B2	$\mathbf{d}_{k1 \times 4} = \mathbf{b}_{k1 \times 4} \cdot \mathbf{w}_{k4 \times 1}$	4
B3	$\mathbf{w}_{k4 \times 1} = \mathbf{w}_{k4 \times 1} + c \cdot \mathbf{d}_{k4 \times 1}$	1
C1	1 dot product $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle$	4
C2	$\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{z} \rangle / \langle \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{z} \rangle$	0
C3	1 time: $\mathbf{z}_k = \mathbf{w}_k - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} proj_{\mathbf{w}_j} \mathbf{z}_k$	4
D1	$a = \sum_{j=1}^4 z_{jk}$	4
D2	$b = \text{sqrt}(a)$	1
D3	$\mathbf{w}_k = \mathbf{z}_k / b$	0

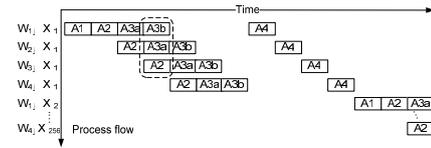
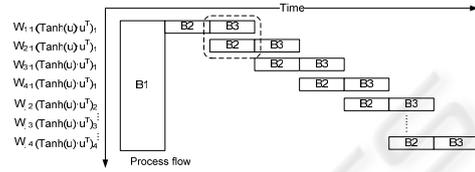
ation during normalization (D3) is computed simultaneously for all weights at the end of the update.

4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

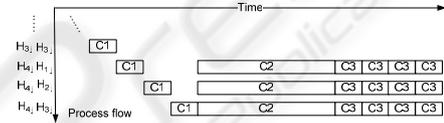
We mapped the fully-parallel configuration of the array to a Xilinx Virtex-II Pro XC2VP30 platform FPGA. The maximum clock rate achieved by our implementation is 55.8MHz, corresponding to a critical path of 18ns. The chip dissipates 103mW of power. We tested the array on a 4-input experiment of blind source-separation with InfoMax. The chip is capable of processing a 256-sample block and update the InfoMax weights in $7.8\mu\text{s}$, corresponding to 431 clock cycles. The algorithm converges in approximately 7.5ms (less than 1000 block iterations).

The folded configuration mapped onto a Xilinx Spartan 3 XC3S1000 FPGA exhibits a critical path of 22.3ns, achieving a clock rate of 49.9MHz, and dissipating 93.4mW. On the same 4-input experiment, the chip processes a 256-sample block in $113\mu\text{s}$, corresponding to 5,073 clock cycles. The algorithm converges in less than 110ms in this configuration of the architecture. Table 3 summarizes the resource utilization (excluding multipliers and block RAM) of each configuration of the array on their corresponding device.

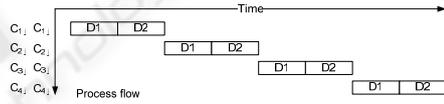
For comparison purposes, we implemented the InfoMax algorithm in software on a laptop PC featuring floating-point arithmetic, a dual-core processor running at 1.73GHz, and 2GBytes of DDR2 RAM. An optimized C implementation of the InfoMax algorithm running the same experiment used to test the array, completes one iteration every $90\mu\text{s}$, and con-


 (a) $\tanh(u) \cdot u^T$.


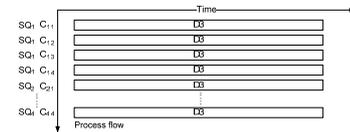
(b) Weight update.



(c) Orthogonalization



(d) Normalization (1).



(e) Normalization (2)

Figure 5: Schedule of folded configuration.

verges in 85ms. Thus, the fully-parallel configuration of the array reduces the execution time of the software implementation by a factor of 11.3. On the other hand, the execution time of the software version is smaller than that of the folded array by a factor of 1.3. The power consumption of both hardware implementations is smaller than the computer by more than two orders of magnitude.

We tested both arrays on fetal ECG signals. In this application, spatially-distributed electrodes capture four mixtures of signals which contain the ECG of the mother and the fetus. We recorded the results obtained from both hardware implementations of the algorithm, and from the software running on a PC.

Table 3: Global resource utilization.

Resource	Fully parallel		Folded	
	Qty.	%	Qty.	%
Slices	5,115	37%	6,680	86%
Flip Flops	4,010	14%	4,743	30%
Input LUTs	6,686	24%	11,009	71%
IOBs	44	7%	43	24%
Block RAM	1	24%	1	68%
Block ROM	8	2%	5	13%
Multipliers	91	67%	13	54%

Because they are based on the same architecture, both arrays produce the same results. Figure 6 shows the waveforms obtained from the hardware implementation of the algorithm. The chips successfully produce the ECG signal of the fetus, two ECG signals of the mother, and the noise. Figure 7 compares the software and hardware results for one waveform. We measured the error of the results produced by the array relative to the floating-point software implementation. The RMS value of the error, normalized to the amplitude of the signal, varies between 0.07% and 0.09%.

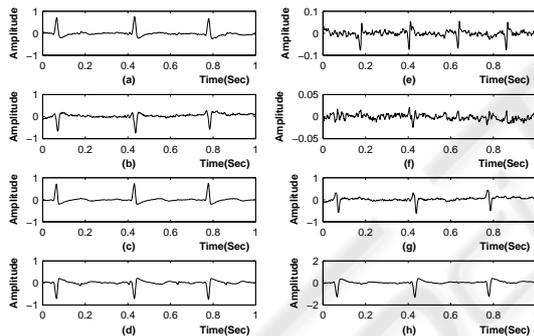


Figure 6: (a)-(d): Measured mixtures, (e): ECG - fetus, (f): Noise, (g)-(h): ECG - mother.

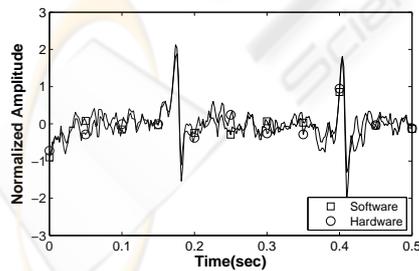


Figure 7: ECG results - fetus.

5 CONCLUSIONS

We described an array architecture for ICA using the InfoMax algorithm. The array can be reconfigured to target a wide range of FPGA devices, representing different price/performance tradeoffs. We showed two configurations: a fully-parallel version mapped to a Xilinx Virtex-II Pro XC2VP30, and a folded implementation mapped to a Xilinx Spartan-3 XC3S1000. The parallel array outperforms both the folded configuration by a factor of 14.5, and a PC-based software implementation by a factor of 11.3. Both hardware arrays consume in the order of 100mW, use 18-bit fixed-point arithmetic, and achieve a resolution within 0.08% of a floating-point software implementation of the algorithm. Future and ongoing work includes developing a software tool to automate the reconfiguration process, and integrating the folded version of the array on a portable ECG instrument.

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