Efficient Shift Registers, LFSR Counters, and Long PseudoRandom Sequence Generators

## Summary

Shift registers longer than eight bits can be implemented most efficiently in XC4000E Select-RAM ${ }^{T M}$. Using Linear Feedback Shift-Register (LFSR) counters to address the RAM makes the design even simpler. This application note describes 4-and 5 -bit universal LFSR counters, very efficient RAM-based 32 -bit and 100 -bit shift registers, and pseudo-random sequence generators with repetition rates of thousands and even trillions of years, useful for testing and encryption purposes. The appropriate taps for maximum-length LFSR counters of up to 168 bits are listed.

## Xilinx Family

XC4000E, XC4000L, XC4000EX, XC4000XL

## Demonstrates

Shift registers implemented in RAM
LFSR counters

## Introduction

The XC4000E on-chip distributed synchronous RAM architecture lends itself well to the efficient implementation of long shift registers. The $16 \times 1$ or $32 \times 1$ RAM behaves like an edge-triggered register. An address counter supplies sequential addresses, but there is no need for a conventional binary address sequence. Any repetitive pattern is acceptable, and a linear feedback shift register counter is the most efficient. In the examples below the conventional LFSR counter algorithm has been modified to guarantee no lock-up, even in the all-ones state.

Note that the established literature describes the outputs of LFSRs as Q1 to Qn (not Q0 to Qn-1, as is customary in binary counters). In order to be consistent with prior literature, LFSR bits are therefore labeled 1 to n throughout this application note.

## LFSR Counters

For a 4-bit counter, the basic XNOR feedback from Q3 and Q4 would exclude the all-ones state. By decoding the two states where the lower three bits are all ones, and inverting
the feedback for those states, the 4-bit LFSR counter counts modulo 16, and has no lock-up state. Counters with a shorter cycle require additional decoding of the feedback signal, as shown in Table 1 and Figure 1. Any such decoding is easily done in the front-end CLB function generator. For a 5 -bit counter, Table 2 shows the connections required for dividing by any number up to 32 .

Table 1: Decoding of Feedback Signal, 4-Bit Counter

| $\mathbf{1 2 3 4}$ |  | $\mathbf{1 2 3 4}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0000 |  | 0110 | 3 |
| 1000 | 7 | 0011 | 11 |
| 1100 | 11 | 1001 | $9 \& 8$ |
| 1110 |  | 0100 | 14 |
| 1111 |  | 1010 | 6 |
| 0111 | $13 \& 12$ | 0101 | 2 |
| 1011 | 10 | 0010 | 5 |
| 1101 | $5 \& 4$ | 0001 |  |



Figure 1: Divide by 5 to 16 Counter

Table 2: Decoding of Feedback Signal, 5-Bit Counter

| $\mathbf{1 2 3 4 5}$ |  | $\mathbf{1 2 3 4 5}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 00000 |  | 11101 | 13 |
| 10000 | $23 \& 22$ | 11110 | 31 |
| 11000 | 7 | 11111 |  |
| 11100 | $19 \& 18$ | 01111 | $15 \& 14$ |
| 01110 | 17 | 10111 | 29 |
| 00111 | 8 | 11011 | $6 \& 5$ |
| 10011 | 12 | 01101 | 26 |
| 01001 | $28 \& 27$ | 10110 | 3 |
| 00100 | 15 | 01011 | $11 \& 10$ |
| 00010 | 11 | 00101 | $17 \& 16$ |
| 10001 | 9 | 10010 | 20 |
| 01000 | 4 | 11001 | 25 |
| 10100 | 30 | 01100 | 6 |
| 01010 | 21 | 00110 | 24 |
| 10101 | 2 | 00011 | 21 |
| 11010 | 26 | 00001 | 31 |

## Divide-By 5 to 16 Counter in Two CLBs

Feedback for $\div 16$ :
(Q3 XNOR Q4) XOR (Q1 AND Q2 AND Q3)
To divide by a number smaller than 15, use AND gate "C" in Figure 1 to decode the binary pattern listed in Table 1 next to the desired number. For $\div 15$ and any number listed to
the right of the \& symbol, also add Q4 to AND gate "B", thus skipping the all-ones state. All of these counters avoid lockup in the all-ones state.

- For $\div$ 16: do not connect Q4 to AND gate "B", do not use AND gate "C"
- For $\div 15$ : connect Q4 to AND gate " $B$ ", do not use AND gate "C"
- For $\div<15$ : program AND gate " C " according to the table
- For $\div 4,8,12,15$ : connect Q4 to AND gate "B"
- For all other numbers: do not connect Q4 to AND gate "B"


## Divide-By 2 to 32 Counter in 2.5 CLBs

Feedback for $\div 32$ :
(Q3 XNOR Q5) XOR (Q1 AND Q2 AND Q3 AND Q4)
To divide by a number smaller than 31, use AND gate " $C$ " in Figure 2 to decode the binary pattern listed in Table 2 next to the desired number. For $\div 31$ and any number listed to the right of the \& symbol, also add Q5 to AND gate "B", thus skipping the all-ones state. All of these counters avoid lockup in the all-ones state.

- For $\div 32$ : do not connect Q5 to AND gate "B", do not use AND gate "C"
- For $\div 31$ : connect Q5 to AND gate "B", do not use AND gate "C"
- For $\div<31$ : program AND gate "C" according to the table
- For $\div 5,10,14,16,18,22,27,31$ :
connect Q5 to AND gate "B"
- For all other numbers: do not connect Q5 to AND gate "B"


Figure 2: Divide by 2 to 32 Counter

## RAM-Based Shift Registers

As shown in Figure 3, a $32 \times 1$ shift register design requires two CLBs for the $\div 16$ address counter plus one CLB for the RAM. An 8 -bit wide, 32 -bit long shift register would use seven additional CLBs for RAM storage and output registers. Wider and longer shift registers can easily be implemented using the same concept. For increased length, it is most efficient to divide the length into equal parts of up to 16 bits each and use a common address counter.
Figure 4 shows a 100 -bit long, 8 -bit wide shift register as an example. It uses two CLBs to implement a divide-by 16 counter, plus 24 CLBs for RAM storage and additional registers. Each bitstream uses three cascaded CLBs with their RAMs acting as $16+16$ bit registers, plus four of their flipflops used to bring the total shift-register length to 100 . This design thus emulates 800 bits of shift register in only 26 CLBs, and it can run at a 70 MHz clock rate. Traditional reg-ister-based designs would use 5,600 equivalent gates for this complete function (seven gates per register bit). Here it occupies $6.5 \%$ of an XC4010E. Does that qualify the XC4010E as an 86,000 gate device?


Figure 3: $32 \times 1$ Shift Register in $\mathbf{3}$ CLBs


Figure 4: $100 \times 8$ Shift Register in $\mathbf{2 6}$ CLBs

## Pseudo-Random Sequence Generator in Four CLBs

Any long LFSR counter generates a long pseudo-random sequence of zeros and ones. The sequence is not exactly random since it repeats eventually, and it also follows a mathematically predictable sequence. But for most practical purposes it can be considered random.
A 63 -bit LFSR counter has a repetition time of $\left(2^{63}-1\right)$ clock periods. Running at 50 MHz , such a counter repeats after more than five thousand years ( 5,849 years to be more precise), which is long enough to be irrelevant for most practical purposes. Conceptually, a 63-bit LFSR counter consists of a 63 -bit shift register, with an XNOR feedback from the last stage and the next-to-last stage. (See Figure 5.) The 63 -bit length was actually chosen because of its conveniently simple feedback. Other maximum-length LFSR counters require different XNOR feedback taps. Table 3 describes the maximum-length feedback connections for all LFSR counters of up to 168 bits in length.

The conventional shift register implementation of a 63 -bit LFSR counter requires 32 CLBs in XC3000 or XC4000 family devices. By using a RAM-based approach, only two CLBs are needed, plus the addressing counter, which can be $\mathrm{a} \div 15$ LFSR counter in two CLBs. With proper partitioning, the complete 63 -bit pseudo-random sequence generator shown in Figure 5 requires only four CLBs, and is capable of running at up to 70 MHz . A starting pattern of up to 63 bits can be first loaded into the shift register, and the output then generates a pseudo-random sequence of zeros and ones. The design can be expanded to a 127 -bit LFSR counter in six CLBs, or a 159-bit LFSR counter in seven CLBs. Either of these two counters has a repetition period many billion times longer than the life of the universe.


Figure 5: 63 -Bit LFSR Counter in 4 CLBs

## Linear Feedback Shift Register Taps

This table lists the appropriate taps for maximum-length LFSR counters of up to 168 bits. The basic description and the table for the first 40 bits was originally published in XCELL and reprinted on page 9-24 of the 1993 and 1994 Xilinx Data Books.
Table 3: Taps for Maximum-Length LFSR Counters

| n | XNOR from | n | XNOR from | n | XNOR from | n | XNOR from |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | 3,2 | 45 | 45,44,42,41 | 87 | 87,74 | 129 | 129,124 |
| 4 | 4,3 | 46 | 46,45,26,25 | 88 | 88,87,17,16 | 130 | 130,127 |
| 5 | 5,3 | 47 | 47,42 | 89 | 89,51 | 131 | 131,130,84,83 |
| 6 | 6,5 | 48 | 48,47,21,20 | 90 | 90,89,72,71 | 132 | 132,103 |
| 7 | 7,6 | 49 | 49,40 | 91 | 91,90,8,7 | 133 | 133,132,82,81 |
| 8 | 8,6,5,4 | 50 | 50,49,24,23 | 92 | 92,91,80,79 | 134 | 134,77 |
| 9 | 9,5 | 51 | 51,50,36,35 | 93 | 93,91 | 135 | 135,124 |
| 10 | 10,7 | 52 | 52,49 | 94 | 94,73 | 136 | 136,135,11,10 |
| 11 | 11,9 | 53 | 53,52,38,37 | 95 | 95,84 | 137 | 137,116 |
| 12 | 12,6,4,1 | 54 | 54,53,18,17 | 96 | 96,94,49,47 | 138 | 138,137,131,130 |
| 13 | 13,4,3,1 | 55 | 55,31 | 97 | 97,91 | 139 | 139,136,134,131 |
| 14 | 14,5,3,1 | 56 | 56,55,35,34 | 98 | 98,87 | 140 | 140,111 |
| 15 | 15,14 | 57 | 57,50 | 99 | 99,97,54,52 | 141 | 141,140,110,109 |
| 16 | 16,15,13,4 | 58 | 58,39 | 100 | 100,63 | 142 | 142,121 |
| 17 | 17,14 | 59 | 59,58,38,37 | 101 | 101,100,95,94 | 143 | 143,142,123,122 |
| 18 | 18,11 | 60 | 60,59 | 102 | 102,101,36,35 | 144 | 144,143,75,74 |
| 19 | 19,6,2,1 | 61 | 61,60,46,45 | 103 | 103,94 | 145 | 145,93 |
| 20 | 20,17 | 62 | 62,61,6,5 | 104 | 104,103,94,93 | 146 | 146,145,87,86 |
| 21 | 21,19 | 63 | 63,62 | 105 | 105,89 | 147 | 147,146,110,109 |
| 22 | 22,21 | 64 | 64,63,61,60 | 106 | 106,91 | 148 | 148,121 |
| 23 | 23,18 | 65 | 65,47 | 107 | 107,105,44,42 | 149 | 149,148,40,39 |
| 24 | 24,23,22,17 | 66 | 66,65,57,56 | 108 | 108,77 | 150 | 150,97 |
| 25 | 25,22 | 67 | 67,66,58,57 | 109 | 109,108,103,102 | 151 | 151,148 |
| 26 | 26,6,2,1 | 68 | 68,59 | 110 | 110,109,98,97 | 152 | 152,151,87,86 |
| 27 | 27,5,2,1 | 69 | 69,67,42,40 | 111 | 111,101 | 153 | 153,152 |
| 28 | 28,25 | 70 | 70,69,55,54 | 112 | 112,110,69,67 | 154 | 154,152,27,25 |
| 29 | 29,27 | 71 | 71,65 | 113 | 113,104 | 155 | 155,154,124,123 |
| 30 | 30,6,4,1 | 72 | 72,66,25,19 | 114 | 114,113,33,32 | 156 | 156,155,41,40 |
| 31 | 31,28 | 73 | 73,48 | 115 | 115,114,101,100 | 157 | 157,156,131,130 |
| 32 | 32,22,2,1 | 74 | 74,73,59,58 | 116 | 116,115,46,45 | 158 | 158,157,132,131 |
| 33 | 33,20 | 75 | 75,74,65,64 | 117 | 117,115,99,97 | 159 | 159,128 |
| 34 | 34,27,2,1 | 76 | 76,75,41,40 | 118 | 118,85 | 160 | 160,159,142,141 |
| 35 | 35,33 | 77 | 77,76,47,46 | 119 | 119,111 | 161 | 161,143 |
| 36 | 36,25 | 78 | 78,77,59,58 | 120 | 120,113,9,2 | 162 | 162,161,75,74 |
| 37 | 37,5,4,3,2,1 | 79 | 79,70 | 121 | 121,103 | 163 | 163,162,104,103 |
| 38 | 38,6,5,1 | 80 | 80,79,43,42 | 122 | 122,121,63,62 | 164 | 164,163,151,150 |
| 39 | 39,35 | 81 | 81,77 | 123 | 123,121 | 165 | 165,164,135,134 |
| 40 | 40,38,21,19 | 82 | 82,79,47,44 | 124 | 124,87 | 166 | 166,165,128,127 |
| 41 | 41,38 | 83 | 83,82,38,37 | 125 | 125,124,18,17 | 167 | 167,161 |
| 42 | 42,41,20,19 | 84 | 84,71 | 126 | 126,125,90,89 | 168 | 168,166,153,151 |
| 43 | 43,42,38,37 | 85 | 85,84,58,57 | 127 | 127,126 |  |  |
| 44 | 44,43,18,17 | 86 | 86,85,74,73 | 128 | 128,126,101,99 |  |  |

## LFSR Counters, 3 to 168 Bits

Conventional binary counters use complex or wide fan-in logic to generate high end carry signals. A much simpler structure sacrifices the binary count sequence, but achieves very high speed with very simple logic, easily packing two bits into every CLB. Such Linear Feedback Shift-Register (LFSR) counters are also known as pseudorandom sequence generators.
An n-bit LFSR counter can have a maximum sequence length of $2^{n}-1$. In that case, it goes through all possible code permutations except one, which would be a lock-up state. A maximum length $n$-bit LFSR counter consists of an $n$-bit shift register with an XNOR in the feedback path from the last output Qn to the first input D1. The XNOR makes the lock-up state the all-ones state; an XOR would make it the all-zeros state. For normal Xilinx applications, all-ones is more easily avoided, since "by default" the flip-flops wake up in the all-zeros state. Table 3 describes the outputs that must be used as inputs of the XNOR. LFSR outputs are traditionally labeled 1 through $n$, with 1 being the first stage of the shift register, and $n$ being the last stage. This is different from the conventional 0 to ( $\mathrm{n}-1$ ) notation for binary counters. A multi-input XNOR is also known as an evenparity circuit. Note that the connections described in this table are not necessarily unique; certain other connections may also result in maximum length sequences.

## Examples

- A 10 -bit shift register counts modulo 1023 , if the input D1 is driven by the XNOR of Q10 and the bit three positions to the left (Q7), i.e. a one is shifted into D1 when Q10 and Q7 have even parity, which means they are identical.
- An 8 -bit shift register counts modulo 255 if the input D1 is driven by the XNOR of Q8, Q6, Q5, Q4, i.e., a one is shifted into D1 if these four outputs have even parity, (four zeros, or two ones, or four ones).


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