

Specification Tuning of System-Level Design

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updated from “parallelization optimization of system-level specification”

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Abstract

This report presents the specification tuning of system-level design. Specification tuning changes the specification representing the design's functionality in the system level thus making the specification suitable for architectural exploration. We introduce parallelization optimization and hierarchy reducing, the two main tasks of specification tuning. In addition, we also introduce two tools, spec profiler and spec optimizer, to implement these tasks automatically.

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This report presents the specification tuning of system-level design. Specification tuning changes the specification representing the design's functionality in the system level thus making the specification suitable for architectural exploration. We introduce parallelization optimization and hierarchy reducing, the two main tasks of specification tuning. In addition, we also introduce two tools, spec profiler and spec optimizer, to implement these tasks automatically.

1 Introduction

In order to handle the ever increasing complexity and time-to-market pressures in the design of system-on-chips(SOCs) or embedded systems, the design has been raised to the system level to increase productivity. Figure 1 illustrates extended Gajski and Kuhn's Y chart[1] representing the entire design flow, which is composed of four different levels: system level, RTL level, logic level, and transistor level. The thick arc represents the system level design. It starts from the specification representing the design's functionality, which is denoted by point S. The system level design then synthesizes the specification to the system architecture denoted by point A. A system architecture consists of a number of PEs (processing elements) connected by buses. Each PE implements a number of functional blocks in the specification. The system level design contains a series of tasks including *PE allocation* and *behavior binding*. *PE allocation* selects PEs for the architecture. *Behavior binding* maps different functional blocks in the specification to different PEs.

Since the design starts from the specification representing the design's functionality, the quality of this specification will heavily influence the later design steps and the final design result. A good-quality specification must have two attributes. First, it specifies all the parallelism existing among functional blocks. Second, it has the minimum hierarchy level

while keeping all the parallelism. Since we focus on the system level, we don't take the optimization of each functional block into account. The importance of these attributes will be explained in later sections.

In order to produce good-quality specifications, in this report, we introduces two tasks of *specification tuning*: *parallelization optimization*, which explores maximal parallelism existing in the specification, and *hierarchy reducing*, which reduce the hierarchy depth while keeping all the parallelism.

In addition to *parallelization optimization* and *hierarchy reducing*, we also produce two tools, spec profiler and spec optimizer, to implement both tasks automatically. With the tools, the design time of *specification tuning* can be hundreds of times faster than without them.

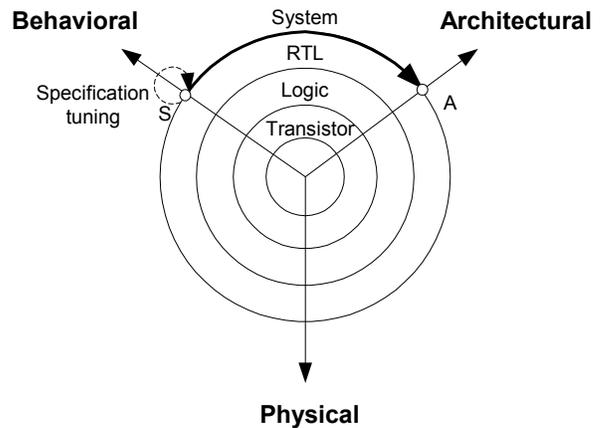


Figure 1: Extended Gajski and Kuhn' s Y chart

The report is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the *parallelization optimization*; Section 3 introduces the *hierarchy reducing*. Finally, the conclusion is given in Section 4.

2 Parallelization Optimization

2.1 Introduction

This section introduces the *parallelization optimization of specification tuning*, which exploits maximal parallelism among functional blocks of the design's specification. Designers can implement *parallelization optimization* manually. In general, designers start modeling the specification from existing C/C++ code. Since C/C++ language does not support parallelism, designers must manually find the parallelism by analyzing the code or designs' algorithms, which is time-consuming.

After finding the parallelism among the functional blocks in the specification, designers must determine the hierarchical parallel structure of the specification. After *parallelization optimization*, one original specification may produce different hierarchical parallel structures. For example, in Figure 2(a), functional blocks A, B, C, and D are executed sequentially. In Figure 2(b), the dependencies among the functional blocks are displayed. Block C can only be executed after the execution of A, while block D can only be executed after the execution of B. In Figure 2(c) and (d), two possible hierarchical parallel structures are shown. The functional blocks separated by dotted line represent parallel executed blocks. In Figure 2(c), block C and D are executed parallel after the parallel execution of A and B. In Figure 2(d), block C is executed after A while block D is executed after B. The execution of A and C is parallel with the execution of B and D. Because one original specification may produce different hierarchical parallel structures, we prefer implementing *parallelization optimization* structurally by tools rather than randomly by hand.

Therefore we make two tools, spec profiler and spec optimizer, to implement *parallelization optimization* automatically: spec profiler analyzes the dependencies among functional blocks; spec optimizer finds out the hierarchical parallel structure with maximal parallelism. We compare the manual parallelization with the automatic parallelization and conclude that the automatic parallelization produce better results in terms of design time and hierarchical parallel structures.

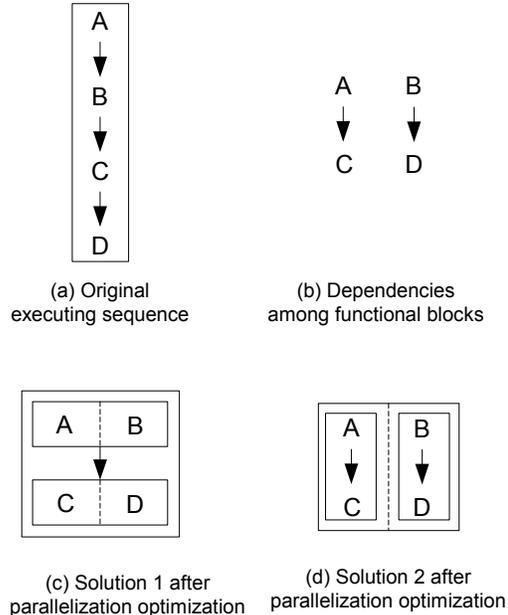


Figure 2: Example 1 of *parallelization optimization*

We use SpecC language[2][3] to model the specification. In contrast to other system level design languages such as SystemC[4], SpecC language is a synthesis-based design language since it provides keywords such as *par* and *pipe* to model parallel and pipeline executing relations among functional blocks. Explicitly specifying the executing relations enables system-level synthesis tools to recognize the hierarchical parallel structures, which make it possible for them to implement *PE selection* and *behavior binding* automatically.

SpecC uses a keyword *behavior* to represent a functional block. Each *behavior* contains a number of methods that define the functionality, a set of ports that connect it with other *behaviors*, and a number of *behavior instances* to support *behavior* hierarchical modeling.

2.2 Implementation

2.2.1 Parallelization Optimization Tasks

In this report, we parallelize sequential behaviors. A sequential behavior is defined as the behavior that only contains a number of sequential executing behavior instances.

The *parallelization optimization* contains three tasks shown in Figure 3. The first task, *sequential behavior searching*, finds all the sequential behaviors

in the specification. The second task, *dependency analysis*, computes the dependencies among behavior instances of the sequential behaviors. Finally, the third task, *instance structure optimization*, finds the hierarchical parallel structure for each sequential behavior according to the dependencies.

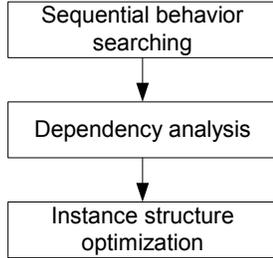


Figure 3: *Parallelization optimization* tasks

2.2.2 Sequential Behavior Searching

We first find all the sequential behaviors in the specification. Sequential behaviors are identified by internally attributes of SpecC internal representing format.

2.2.3 Dependency Analysis

2.2.3.1 Definition

A sequential behavior A contains behavior instances B and C, a set of local variable V_i , and a set of port P_j . B is executed before C. If there exists a V_i or P_j that

- (a) B write to V_i/P_j and C reads from V_i/P_j , or
- (b) Both B and C write to V_i/P_j , or
- (c) There exists a behavior instance D of A such that D depends on B and C depends on D,

then behavior instance C depends on behavior instance B.

If Behavior instance C depends on behavior instance B, then C must be executed after the execution of B. Otherwise, Behavior instances B and C can be executed parallel.

2.2.3.2 Dependency analysis

We compute the dependencies among behavior instances by analyzing the port traffic of behavior instances.

First, we use a spec profiler [5] to produce the specification statistics. Spec profiler generates the static traffic and dynamic traffic of behavior ports.

Static traffic of the port refers to the number of ports of leaf behaviors to which it is connected. Leaf behavior is the behavior containing only a set of methods without any behavior instances, which is used as the instance of other behaviors. Dynamic traffic of the port refers to the number of port access during simulation. If the port is an input port, and static/dynamic traffic is greater than 0 for that port, we conclude that the behavior statically/dynamically read from the port. Likewise, if the port is an output port and static/dynamic traffic is greater than 0, we conclude that the behavior statically/dynamically write to the port. The “inout” port can be treated in a similar way.

Second, we analyze the port connections of behavior instances. If behavior instances B and C of sequential behavior A meet the conditions (a) or (b) in 2.2.3.1 statically or dynamically, then C statically or dynamically depends on B.

Finally, we find the static/dynamic behavior dependencies based on the condition (c) in 2.2.3.1.

After dependency analysis, designers can determine whether one behavior instance depends on another based on either static dependency or more greedy, dynamical dependency.

2.2.4 Instance Structure Optimization

2.2.4.1 Hierarchical Parallel Structure

Instance structure optimization changes the instance structure from one-level pure-sequential structure to multi-level hierarchical parallel structure. Figure 4 gives an example of the hierarchical parallel structure. After instance structure optimization, the produced hierarchical parallel structure has three levels shown in Figure 4(c). In the first level, D and E are parallel executed. In the second level, B is executed before the execution of D and E. In the third level, A and C(C is executed after A) are executed parallel with B, D, and E. Note that two of three levels are parallel structure.

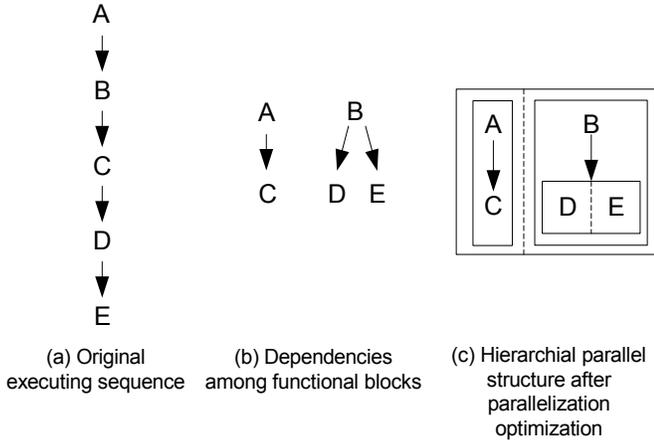


Figure 4: Example 2 of *parallelization optimization*

2.2.4.2 Goals of Instance Structure Optimization

During instance structure optimization, we want to achieve two goals.

(a) Minimize the number of added dependencies among behavior instances.

After instance structure optimization, some independent behavior instances will be changed to dependent behavior instances because of overuse parallelism. For example, the solution shown in Figure 2(c) adds two pairs of dependencies: D depends on A and C depends on B, while do not exist in Figure 2(b). Adding dependencies among behavior instances are unavoidable; therefore we choose minimizing the number of added dependencies as the first goal.

(b) Minimize the length of critical path of produced hierarchical parallel structure.

The length of the critical path of hierarchical parallel structure is defined as the number of behavior instances on the longest path from the first starting behavior instance to the last ending behavior instance, while parallel-executed instances can be executed simultaneously.

2.2.4.3 Algorithms for Instance Structure Optimization

We implemented two algorithms for instance structure optimization: ASAP(as soon as possible) algorithm and constructive algorithm.

2.2.4.3.1 ASAP Algorithm

Algorithm 1 outlines the ASAP algorithm for instance structure optimization for each sequential behavior. B is an instance group that contains a set of behavior instances in sequential behaviors. $Hier_Struct$ denotes the generated hierarchical parallel structure containing a link of groups, each of which is executed sequentially from the head to the tail of the link. The function $DependentOnB(b)$ returns Φ if no behavior instance on which b depends is in B , otherwise it returns the first instance on which b depends. $CurGroup.Append(b)$ inserts b to a group $CurGroup$. All the instances in $CurGroup$ are executed parallel. After the execution of *for* loop each time, $CurGroup$ records a set of parallel executing behavior instances. $Hier_Struct.Append(CurGroup)$ then appends the current $CurGroup$ at the end of the link of $Hier_Struct$. Figure 2(c) is the hierarchical parallel structure generated by ASAP algorithm.

The ASAP algorithm has only goal (b), which is to minimize the length of the critical path. It gives the optimal solution in terms of the critical path but may add a large amount of dependencies among behavior instances.

Algorithm 1: ASAP Algorithm.

```

B = {all the behavior instances};
Hier_Struct = {};

while B ≠ ∅ do
  CurGroup = {};
  for each instance  $b_i \in B$  do
    if  $DependentOnB(b_i) = \Phi$  then
      CurGroup = CurGroup.Append( $b_i$ , Par);
      B = B - { $b_i$ };
    do
  endfor
  Hier_Struct = Hier_Struct.Append(CurGroup, Sequ);
do

```

2.2.4.3.2 Constructive Algorithm

Besides ASAP algorithm, we also implemented a constructive algorithm. The constructive algorithm schedules one behavior instance at a time in the order of the execution sequence in the original sequential behavior and produces a temporal hierarchical parallel structure. It is constructive because it constructs the hierarchical parallel structure without performing any backtracking, i.e. changing the previously produced temporal structure. The constructive algorithm has both goals (a) and (b) during instance structure

optimization. Figure 2(d) is the hierarchical parallel structure generated by the constructive algorithm.

2.2.4.3.2.1 Data Structure of Hierarchical Parallel Structure

Before introducing the constructive algorithm, we first specify the data structure for the hierarchical parallel structure in the algorithm. Each hierarchical parallel structure is represented by a data structure *ParGroup*. Each *ParGroup* contains a set/link of child *ParGroups*, or a link of behavior instances. The items in the links are executed sequentially from head to tail of the link. The items in the set are executed parallel. Figure 5 shows three types of *ParGroups*. *Flat ParGroup* contains a behavior instance link without any child *ParGroups*. *Par ParGroup* contains a set of child *ParGroups*. *Sequ ParGroup* contains a link of child *ParGroups*.

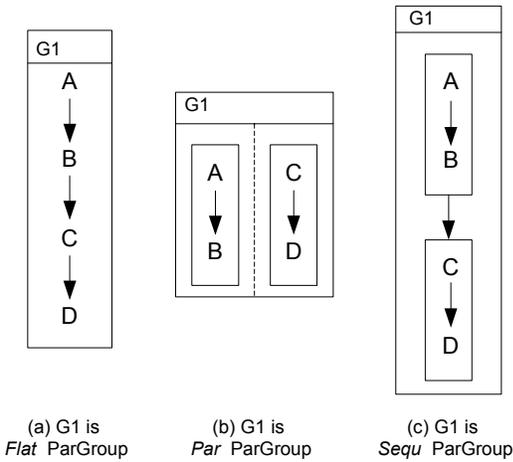


Figure 5: Three types of ParGroup

2.2.4.3.2.2 Algorithm Overview

Algorithm 2.1 outlines the constructive algorithm. The behavior instance link *B* contains all of the behavior instances of the sequential behavior, which are saved in the order of execution sequence of the sequential behavior. Starting from the head of link *B*, an instance of *B* is inserted into a *ParGroup Hier_Struct* at a time by function *Insert*. Function *Insert* calls different inserting functions according to the type of *Hier_Struct*. After all of the instances in *B* are inserted, *Hier_Struct* represents the final hierarchical parallel structure.

Algorithm 2.1: The Constructive Algorithm

```

B = {all the behavior instances}
Hier_Struct = {};

for each instance  $b_i \in B$  do
    Insert(Hier_Struct,  $b_i$ );
endfor

Function Insert(Hier_Struct, b)
switch Type(Hier_Struct) do
case FLAT: Hier_Struct = InsertToFlat(Hier_Struct,
 $b_i$ );
break;
case PAR: Hier_Struct = InsertToPar(Hier_Struct,  $b_i$ );
break;
case SEQU: Hier_Struct = InsertToSequ(Hier_Struct,
 $b_i$ );
endswitch

```

2.2.4.3.2.3 Insert to Flat ParGroup

Algorithm 2.2 outlines the function *InsertToFlat* that inserts an instance *b* to a *Flat ParGroup Hier_Struct*. *InsertToFlat* contains four different cases according to different dependency relations between *b* and instances in *Hier_Struct*'s instance links. The *result* records the produced hierarchical parallel structure. The examples of the four cases are displayed in Figure 6.

Algorithm 2.2: InsertToFlat(Hier_Struct, b)

```

// Case 1
if NoInstInGroup(Hier_Struct) = 1 do
    result = AppendInst(Hier_Struct, b);

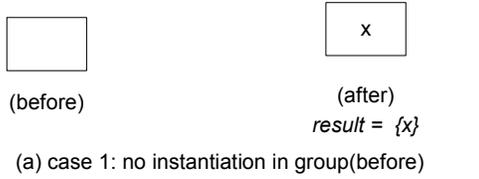
// Case 2
else if NotDependOnGroup(Hier_Struct, b) = 1 do
    new_group = Group(b, FLAT);
    result = Group(Hier_Struct, new_group, PAR)

// Case 3
else if DependOnLastInst(Hier_Struct, b) = 1 do
    result = AppendInst(Hier_Struct, b);

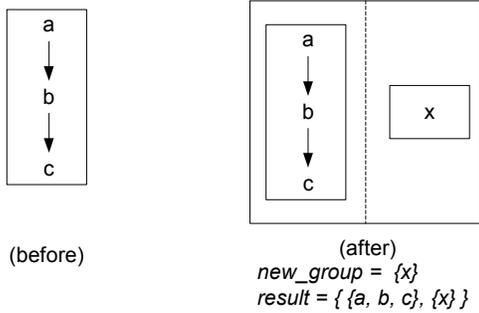
// Case 4
else if
    d1 = FindLastDependInst(Hier_Struct, b);
    new_group1 = Group(b, FLAT);
    new_group2 = Group( AllSucc(Hier_Struct, d1), FLAT);
    new_group3 = Group( AllPred(Hier_Struct, d1), FLAT);
    new_group4 = Group( new_group1, new_group2, PAR);
    result = Group(new_group3, new_group4, SEQU);
endif

return result;

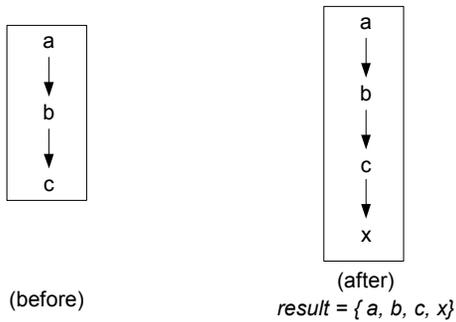
```



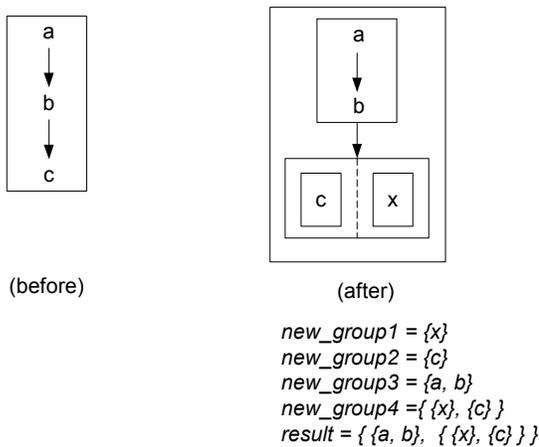
(a) case 1: no instantiation in group(before)



(b) case 2: x does not depends on a, b, c



(c) case 3: x depends on b, c



(d) case 4: x depends on a, b

In the first case, function *NoInstInGroup* finds whether *Hier_Struct*'s instance link contains any instances. If not, *b* is inserted in to the link by function *AppendInst*. In the second case, if function *NotDependOnGroup* finds that *b* does not depend on any instances in the link, then function *Group* creates a new *Flat ParGroup* *new_group* containing only *b* and creates a new *Par ParGroup* *result* which contains *Hier_Struct* and *new_group* as its child *ParGroups*. In the third case, function *DependOnLastInst* finds whether *b* depends on the last instance in the link. If so, *AppendInst* appends *b* to the end of the instance link of *Hier_Struct*.

In the last case, function *FindLastDependInst* finds the latest instance *d1* on which *b* depends. The latest instance refers to the instance that is most close to the tail of the instance link of *Hier_Struct*. *New_group1* is a new *Flat ParGroup* containing *b*. *New_group2* is another new *Flat ParGroup* containing all the instances following *d1* in the instance link of *Hier_Struct*. The instances in *New_group2* are stored in *New_group2*'s instance link in the same order as that of *Hier_Struct*. *New_group3* is the third new *Flat ParGroup* that contains all the instances in front of *d1* inclusively, saved in the same order as that of *Hier_Struct*. *New_group4* is a *Par ParGroup* containing *new_group1* and *new_group2*. The *result* is a new *Sequ ParGroup* containing *new_group3* followed by *new_group4* in its child *ParGroup* link.

Algorithm 2.3: InsertToPar(Hier_Struct, b)

```
// Case 1
if NotDependOnChildGroup(Hier_Struct, b) = 1 do
  new_group = Group(b, FLAT);
  result = AddChildGroup(Hier_Struct, new_group);

// Case 2
else if DependOnOneChildGroup(Hier_Struct, b) = 1 do
  sub_group = FindDependChildGroup(Hier_Struct, b);
  result = Insert(sub_group, b);

// Case 3
else if
  new_group1 = Group(b, FLAT);
  new_group2 = Group( DependChildGroup(Hier_Struct, d1)
    , PAR);
  new_group3 = Group(IndependChildGroup(Hier_Struct, d1)
    , PAR);
  new_group4 = Group( new_group2, new_group1, SEQU);
  result = Group(new_group3, new_group4, PAR);
endif
```

2.2.4.3.2.4 Insert to Par ParGroup

Algorithm 2.3 outlines the function *InsertToPar* that inserts an instance *b* to a *Par ParGroup* *Hier_Struct*. *InsertToPar* contains three different cases according to different dependency relations between *b*

Figure 6: Four cases of inserting instance x to a Flat ParGroup.

and child *ParGroups* in *Hier_Struct*'s instance. We define that an instance A depends on a *ParaGroup* B if and only if A depends on at least one instance in *ParaGroup* B. The *result* records the produced hierarchical parallel structure. The examples of the three cases are displayed in Figure 7.

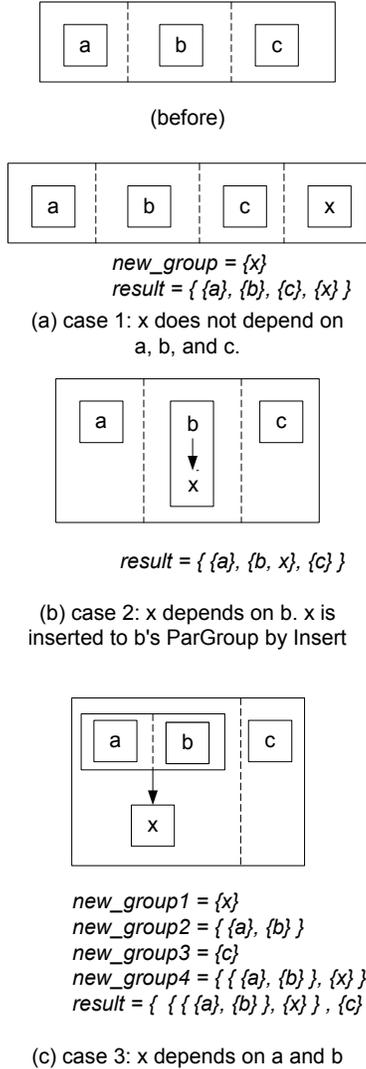


Figure 7: Three cases of inserting instance x to a *Par ParGroup*.

In the first case, if function *NotDependOnChildGroup* finds that b does not depend on any child *ParGroups* of *Hier_Struct*, then function *Group* creates a new *Flat ParGroup* *new_group* containing b. Function *AddChildGroup* then adds *new_group* into *Hier_Struct* as its child *ParGroup*.

In the second case, if function *DependOnOneChildGroup* finds that b only depends on one child *ParGroup* of *Hier_struct* denoted by *sub_group*, then function *Insert* described in Algorithm 2.1 inserts b to *sub_group*.

In the last case, if b depends on more than one child *ParGroups* of *Hier_struct*, then five new *ParGroups* will be produced. *New_group1* is a *Flat ParGroup* containing b. *New_group2* is a *Par ParGroup* containing all the child *ParGroups* of *Hier_struct* that b depends on. *New_group3* is a *Par ParGroup* containing all the child *ParGroups* of *Hier_struct* that b does not depend on. *New_group4* is *Sequ ParGroup* containing *new_group2* followed by *new_group1* in this child *ParGroup* link. Finally, the *result* is a *Par ParGroup* containing child *ParGroup* *new_group3* and *new_group4* in its child *ParGroup* set.

2.2.4.3.2.5 Insert to Sequ *ParGroup*

Algorithm 2.4 outlines the function *InsertToSequ* that inserts an instance b to a *Sequ ParGroup* *Hier_Struct*. *InsertToSequ* contains three different cases according to different dependency relations between b and child *ParGroups* in *Hier_Struct*. The examples of the three cases are displayed in Figure 8.

Algorithm 2.4: *InsertToSequ*(*Hier_Struct*, b)

```

// Case 1
if NotDependOnChildGroup(Hier_Struct, b) = 1 do
    new_group = Group(b, FLAT);
    result = result = AddChildGroup(Hier_Struct,
    new_group);

// Case 2
else if DependOnLastChildGroup(Hier_Struct, b)
    = 1 do
    child_group = FindLastChildGroup(Hier_Struct);
    result = Insert(child_group, b);

// Case 3
else if
    last_depend_child = FindLastDependChildGroup
        (Hier_Struct, b);
    next_child = Next(last_depend_child);
    solution1 = Insert(last_depend_child, b);
    solution2 = Insert(next_child, b)
    result = Best(solution1, solution2);

```

The first case of *InsertToSequ* is the same as the first case of *InsertToPar*. In the second case, if function *DependOnLastChildGroup* finds that b depends on the tail *ParGroup* of child *ParGroup* link of *Hier_struct*, then function *Insert* described in Algorithm 2.1 inserts b to this child *ParGroup* *child_group*.

In the third case, function *FindLastDependChildGroup* finds *last_depend_group*, which is the child *ParGroup* in its child *ParGroup* link that is most closest to the tail of its child *ParGroup* link, among the child *ParGroups* on which *b* depends. *Next_child* is the immediate successive child *ParGroup* of *last_depend_group* in the link. Then two alternate solutions, inserting *b* in *last_depend_group* and inserting *b* in *next_child*, are explored. The first solution ensures that its amount of added dependencies are not greater than that of the second solution, while the second solution ensures that its length of critical path is not longer than that of the first solution. Finally, function *Best* chooses the *solution1* in the case that the length of critical path of *solution1* is not longer than that of *solution2*. Otherwise, *Best* chooses *solution2* as the result.

2.3 Specification Modeling Process

We introduce the process of specification modeling using the spec profiler and the spec optimizer, which contains three steps. First, designers write SpecC specification model by referencing original C/C++ code. Designers can specify top level parallelism among behavior instances according to design algorithms/standards. Second, designers use the spec profiler and the spec optimizer. The tools read SpecC specification model and generate hierarchical parallel structures in the format of textual file for sequential behaviors. Third, designers optimize the specification model based either on the result of ASAP algorithm or on the result of the constructive algorithm.

In the third step, designers can also change the result of constructive algorithm by referencing ASAP algorithm for shorter critical path, which is illustrated in Figure 9. By referencing the result of ASAP algorithms shown in Figure 9(b), designers can change the result of constructive algorithm shown in Figure 9(c), to parallel execute instance *e* and *f*. As shown Figure 9(d), the improved solution has the shorter critical path than the solution in Figure 9(c). Table 1 gives overview of three solutions.

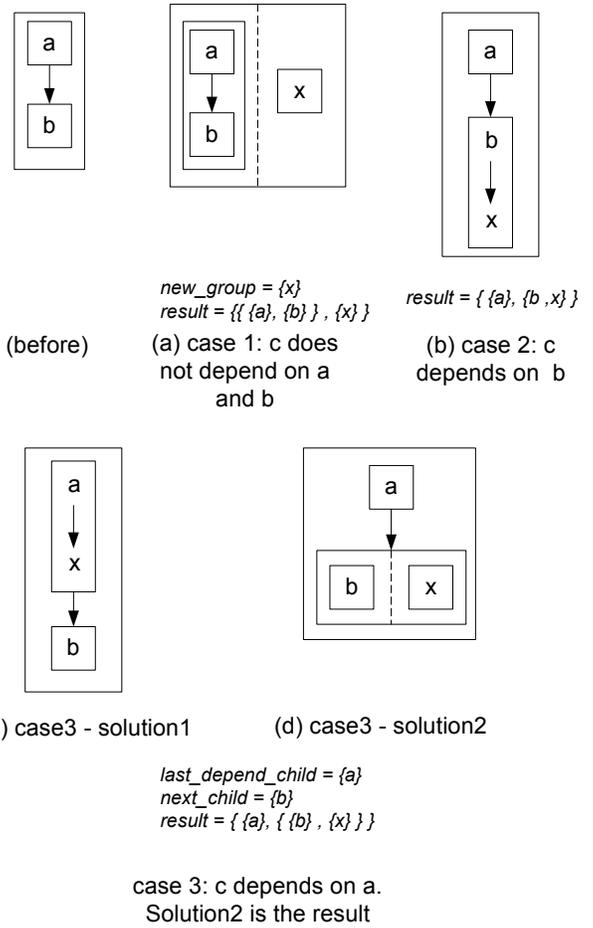


Figure 8: Three cases of inserting instance *x* to a *Sequ ParGroup*.

Table 1 : Overview of three solutions for the example in Figure 9

	Added Dependency	Length of critical path
ASAP	4	3
Constructive	1	4
Improved	2	3

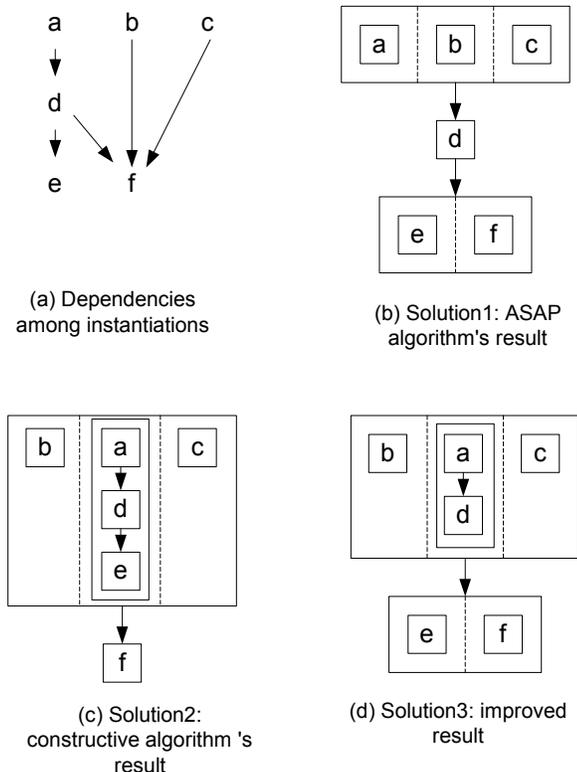


Figure 9: An example of designers' improvements on the results of constructive algorithm

2.4 Experimental results

We evaluate the efficiency of the spec profiler and the spec optimizer in terms of design time, the length of the critical path of the resulting hierarchical parallel structure, and the added dependencies of the resulting structure.

We chose four sets of testing examples. First, we chose three examples for comparing the manual parallelization with the automatic parallelization. Second, we chose behaviors with no more than 10 instances. Third, we chose behaviors with more than 20 instances. Finally, we chose real project examples.

2.4.1 Manual Parallelization vs. Automatic Parallelization

First, we evaluate the efficiency of the spec profiler and the spec optimizer in terms of design time. We randomly generated three sequential behaviors, two of which contains 10 behavior instances, the rest of which contains 20 behavior instances. The required

design time for the manual parallelization is listed in Table 2. Table 2 also shows that the manual parallelization cannot analyze dynamic dependency.

Table 2: Design time of the manual parallelization.

		Design time (mins)		
Manual tasks	design	Ex. 1 (10 inst.)	Ex. 2 (10 inst.)	Ex. 3 (20 inst.)
Analyze	static dependency	6	7	16
Analyze	dynamic dependency	Not aval.	Not aval.	Not aval.
ASAP		2	2	6
Constructive		3	2	17
Total		11	11	39

In contrast to 11/11/39 minutes required by the manual parallelization in the examples, the automatic parallelization took less than 3 seconds for each example, which is 220/220/780 times faster than the time for the manual parallelization. As the complexity of a design increases, designers can save more time by using the tools.

Table 3: Results for 10 instance examples

	Ex1	Ex2	Ex3	Ex4	Ex5
Original					
Num. instantiation	8	10	10	10	10
Num. dependency	14	34	13	22	36
Length. CP	8	10	10	10	10
Constructive Algorithm					
Num. dependency	18	39	15	23	37
Length. CP	4	8	4	5	7
Added dependency (%)	28.57%	14.71%	15.38%	4.55%	2.78%
Reduced CP (%)	50.00%	20.00%	60.00%	50.00%	30.00%
ASAP Algorithm					
Num. Dependency	24	42	32	38	40
Length. CP	4	7	4	5	6
Added Dependency (%)	71.43%	23.53%	146.15%	72.73%	11.11%
Reduced CP (%)	50.00%	30.00%	60.00%	50.00%	40.00%

2.4.2 Results for 10 Instance Examples

We randomly generate 5 behaviors, each of which contains no more than 10 instances. Table 3 shows the results of *parallelization optimization* for the examples. *Length. CP* represents the length of critical path. *Num. dependency* represents the number of

static dependencies among instances of behavior. *Added dependency (%)* is equal to the difference between *Num. dependency(Original)* and *Num. dependency(Constructive/ASAP algorithm)* divided by *Num. dependency(Original)*. *Reduced CP(%)* is equal to the difference between *Length. CP (Original)* and *Length. CP (Constructive/ASAP algorithm)* divided by *Length. CP(Original)*.

Table 3 shows that the average *Added dependency* for the constructive algorithm is 13.2%, while for ASAP algorithm is 65.0%. Therefore, constructive algorithm is much better than ASAP algorithm in terms of goal (a) described in 2.2.4.2. On the other hand, the average *Reduced CP* for the constructive algorithm is 42%, while for the ASAP algorithm is 46%, both of which are similar. By considering the number of dependency as well as the length of the critical path, we conclude that the constructive algorithm is better for 10 instance behaviors.

2.4.3 Results for 20 Instance Examples

We generate another five examples shown in Table 4, each of which has no less than 20 instances. Ex6 and Ex9 do not have locality attribute, while Ex7, Ex8, and Ex10 have. For a behavior without locality attribute, the instance has the same probability of having dependent relations with any other instances. For a behavior with locality attribute, the instance has larger probability of having dependent relations with instances close to it than instances not close to it. The closeness between two instances is equal to the number of instances between them during the execution of original sequential behavior. Attribute locality exists in most designs. In this report, when the closeness of two instances is no more than 4, we called them close instances. For Ex7, Ex8, and Ex10, each instance can depend on any close instances, but can depend on only one un-close instance.

Table 4 shows that the average *Added dependency* for the constructive algorithm is 70%, while for ASAP algorithm is 128%. Although *Added dependency* of constructive algorithm is much better than ASAP algorithm, they are much worse than the results for 10 instance behaviors. It is reasonable because later executed instances will add more dependencies than the previous ones. On the other hand, the average *Reduced CP* for the constructive algorithm is 61%, while for ASAP algorithm is 67%, both of which are similar. Obviously, *Reduced CPs* of 20 instance behaviors are greater than the results of 10 instance behaviors.

Table 4: Results for 20-30 instance examples

	Ex. 6	Ex. 7	Ex. 8	Ex. 9	Ex. 10
Original					
Attribute	random	locality	locality	random	locality
Num. Instantiation	20	20	21	30	30
Num. Dependency	98	95	79	193	109
Length. CP	20	20	21	30	30
Constructive Algorithm					
Num. Dependency	158	135	126	328	239
Length. CP	11	8	7	12	7
Added Dependency (%)	61.22%	42.11%	59.49%	69.95%	119.27%
Reduced CP (%)	45.00%	60.00%	66.67%	60.00%	76.67%
ASAP Algorithm					
Num. Dependency	169	173	185	400	375
Length. CP	7	8	7	10	7
Added Dependency (%)	72.45%	82.11%	134.18%	107.25%	244.04%
Reduced CP (%)	65.00%	60.00%	66.67%	66.67%	76.67%

Furthermore, we do more research on example 7, 8, and 10 for behaviors with locality attribute. We find that the *Reduced CPs* of constructive algorithm and ASAP algorithm are the same for these examples. Because of this and the analysis on the constructive algorithm, we conclude that the probability of having similar length of critical path of the results of ASAP and constructive algorithm for behaviors with locality attribute is larger than the probability for behaviors without locality attribute. Therefore, constructive algorithm is more suitable for behaviors with locality attribute.

2.4.4 Real Project Examples

We use the spec profiler and the spec optimizer on JPEG project[6] and Vocoder project[7]. Although designers have implemented the *parallelization optimization* manually for the projects, the tools still found parallelization instances existing in four sequential behaviors shown in Table 5. We updated the specification based on the produced hierarchical parallel structures and had the same simulation results with the original specifications. It proves that using the tools are more reliable than implementing *parallelization optimization* manually.

Table 5: Results for JPEG and Vocode Project Examples

	JPEG_Init (Jpeg)	Pre_ process (vocoder)	Ex_syn_ upd_sh (vocoder)	Lp_ Analysis (vocoder)
Original				
Num. Instantiation	3	3	5	9
Num. Dependency	2	2	8	30
Length. CP	3	3	5	9
Constructive Algorithm				
Num. Dependency	2	2	8	30
Length. CP	2	2	3	6
Added Dependency (%)	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Reduced CP (%)	33.33%	33.33%	40.00%	33.33%
ASAP Algorithm				
Num. Dependency	2	2	8	32
Length. CP	2	2	3	6
Added Dependency (%)	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	6.67%
Reduced CP (%)	33.33%	33.33%	40.00%	33.33%

In addition to sequential behaviors shown in Table 5, the tools also found that sequential behavior *Coder_12k2* of Vocoder contained behavior instances executed in parallel. However, the simulation result of updated specification according to the tools is different from the simulation result of the original specification. The reason for this difference is that an address of a *Coder_12k2*'s port is assigned as a value to an address of another *Coder_12k2*'s port. Since the task *dependency analysis* could not treat read/write access of the second port as the read/write access of the first port, the tools produced a wrong result. To prevent this from happening, designers need to avoid address transfer between ports in the specification.

3 Hierarchy Reducing

3.1 Introduction

Another task of *specification tuning* is *hierarchy reducing*, which combines the parent and child behaviors that have the same type. SpecC language defines five different types of behavior according to different execution types[2][3]. Among them, sequential behavior contains a set of sequential executing behavior instances. Parallel behavior contains a set of parallel executing behavior instances. Pipeline behavior contains a set of behavior instances executing in the pipeline fashion. FSM behavior is composed of behavior instances based on the finite state machine. Finally, Leaf behavior contains a set of statements without any behavior instantiations. In this

report we focus on the *hierarchy reducing* for sequential behavior and parallel behavior.

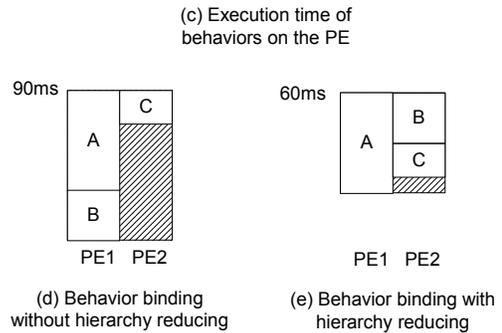
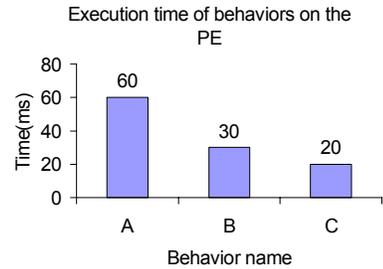
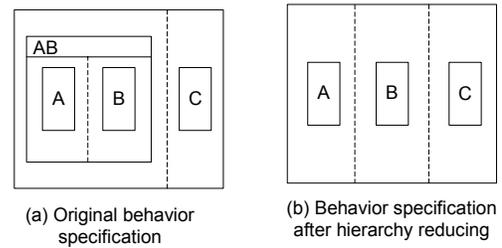


Figure 10: Example of behavior binding with and without *hierarchy reducing*

Hierarchy reducing reduces the hierarchy depth and the number of behaviors in the specification, which makes later design steps simpler. For example, Figure 10 illustrates the *behavior binding* with and without *hierarchy reducing*. The original design specification shown in Figure 10(a) contains parallel executing behavior instances AB and C, while behavior AB contains parallel executing behavior instances A and B. After *hierarchy reducing*, the specification contains parallel executing behavior instances A, B, and C shown in Figure 10(b). During *PE allocation*, designers select two PE of the same type. The execution time of behaviors on the PEs is displayed in Figure 10(c). The solution of *behavior binding* based on Figure 10(a) is shown in Figure 10(d). Since behavior instances A and B are at the same hierarchy level, designers group these instances

and map them to PE1 and map behavior instance C to PE2. For the specification after *hierarchy reducing* shown in Figure 10(b), during *behavior binding*, designers can group any two of the behavior instances A, B, or C because they are at the same hierarchy level. As a result, after *behavior binding*, the performance of the design with *hierarchy reducing* is 30ms faster than the performance without it.

In addition to introduce the *hierarchy reducing*, we use spec optimizer to implement *hierarchy reducing* automatically.

3.2 Implementation

There are two tasks of *hierarchy reducing*: behavior-pair detection and specification updating.

3.2.1 Behavior-Pair Detection

Behavior-pair detection traverses the specification and finds all the parent and child behavior pairs that have the same type. Since the behavior type is specified explicitly in the SpecC immediate representation, behavior-pair detection is a straightforward task. In this report behavior-pair detection applies only on sequential and parallel types of behaviors.

3.2.2 Specification Updating

Specification updating combines the behavior-pairs found by behavior-pair detection in the specification. For example, after behavior-pair detection find that behavior A and B in Figure 11 can be combined, specification updating then updates the specification in Figure 11. The newly specification is displayed in Figure 12.

Specification updating consists of four steps:

1. Variables/channels inserting.

It inserts variables/channels into the parent behavior of the behavior pair to represent the variables/channels in the child behavior of the behavior pair. For example, variable `_b_varB` shown in Figure 12 is inserted to behavior A to represent `varB` in behavior B shown in Figure 11.

```
behavior B(int portB){
    int varB;
    D1 d1(portB);
    D2 d2(varB);
    void main(){
        d1.main();
        d2.main();
    }
};

behavior A(int portA){
    B b(portA);
    C c(portA);
    void main(){
        c.main();
        b.main();
    }
};
```

Figure 11: The specification before *hierarchy reducing*

2. Behavior instances updating.

First, It inserts behavior instances into the parent behavior to represent the behavior instances in the child behavior. For example, behavior instances `D1 _b_d1` and `D1 _b_d2` shown in Figure 12 are inserted to behavior A to represent `D1 d1` and `D1 d2` in behavior B shown in Figure 11.

Second, It updates the argument of behavior instances. The argument `portB` of `d1` and `varB` of `d2` in behavior B in Figure 11 are replaced by `portA` of `_b_d1` and `_b_varB` of `_b_d2`, which are inserted into behavior A in Figure 12.

Finally, the behavior instance representing the child behavior in the parent behavior is deleted. In Figure 12, `B b(portA)` is deleted from behavior A.

3. Calling statement updating.

First, the execution sequence of behavior instances in the child behavior is recorded. In Figure 11, behavior instance `d1` is executed before `d2`.

According to this execution sequence, the calling statements of behavior instances inserted in step 2 are then inserted to the main function of the parent behavior. In Figure 12, the statements `_b_d1.main()` and `_b_d2.main()` are inserted into behavior A while keeping `_b_d1.main()` before `_b_d2.main()`

Finally, the calling statement of the child behavior instances is removed from the main function of the parent behavior. In Figure 12, *b.main()* is removed from behavior A.

4. Unused behavior deleting.

If the child behavior is not used by any other behavior, then the child behavior is deleted. In Figure 12, behavior B is deleted.

```
behavior A(int portA){
    int _b_varB;
    D1 _b_d1(portA);
    D2 _b_d2(_b_varB);
    C c(portA);

    void main(){
        c.main();
        _b_d1.main();
        _b_d2.main();
    }
};
```

Figure 12: The specification after *hierarchy reducing*

3.3 Experimental Result

3.3.1 Automatic vs. Manual Hierarchy Reducing

We randomly generate 3 examples, each of which contains no more than 10 behaviors. Table 6 shows design time of the manual hierarchy reducing and automatic reducing using spec optimizer.

Table 6: Design time of the hierarchy reducing

	Ex. 1	Ex. 2	Ex. 3
Number of behavior	8	8	7
Number of combined behavior-pair	11	8	5
Hierarchy depth	5	4	3
Manual time	660s	480s	240s
Automatic time	2 s	2 s	2 s

The manual *hierarchy reducing* took 460 seconds on a average, while using spec optimizer took only 2 seconds, which is 230 times faster than the manual one. Manual reducing is time-consuming mainly because of the behavior hierarchy. For example, assume each hierarchy level contains only one behavior and the behavior in the level *i* contains two behavior instantiations of the behavior in the level *i+1* (level 1 is the top hierarchy level). In this case, if the

hierarchy depth is *n*, then the total amount of behavior instances in the specification is $2 \times (n-1)$ before *hierarchy reducing*, but is $2^{(n-1)}$ after before *hierarchy reducing*. Therefore manual *hierarchy reducing* took a long time.

3.3.2 JPEG Design Example

We also use the spec optimizer on the JPEG project[6]. Three behavior pairs for *hierarchy reducing* are found. After updating the specification by the spec optimizer, the simulation result is the same with the original specification.

4 Conclusion

This report presents the *specification tuning*. *Specification tuning* changes the specification representing the design’s functionality in the system level thus making the specification suitable for architectural exploration. It contains two tasks: *parallelization optimization* and *hierarchy reducing*.

Parallelization optimization exploits maximal parallelism among functional blocks. By using spec profiler and spec optimizer to implement *parallelization optimization* automatically, we achieve three goals.

First, it shortens the design time. The automatic parallelization is 200 times faster than the manual parallelization for 10-instance behaviors, 700 times faster for 20-instance behaviors. As the complexity of a design increases, the automatic parallelization can save more time.

Second, it generates required hierarchical parallel structures. ASAP algorithm produces the optimal structures in terms of the length of the critical path. Constructive algorithm produces the structures that have the similar length of the critical path as that of the ASAP algorithm and have the much smaller number of added dependencies among behavior instances than that of ASAP algorithm.

Third, it optimizes every possible parallelism in the design.

We also find that with the increase in the number of instances of behaviors, or with the loss of behavior’s locality attribute, it is impossible to keep both the length of the critical path and the amount of the added dependencies to a minimum for generated structures. This is due to the nature of the problem rather than the limitation of the tools.

In addition to *parallelization optimization*, *hierarchy reducing* reduces the hierarchy depth and the number of behaviors in the specification while keeping all the parallelism. Automatic *hierarchy reducing* using spec optimizer is 230 times faster than manual *hierarchy reducing*, for the random generated examples.

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