



# Token-Based Performance Modeling Using VHDL

#### RASSP Education & Facilitation Program Module 59

### Version 3.00

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This slide shows the application area for performance modeling. It will be explained in more detail later in the module.













The goal of performance modeling is to analyze the performance model of a system using a high-level model. The model needs to be at as high (abstract) a level as possible to reduce model generation, verification, and simulation time, but at a low enough level that accurate results are obtained.

How to determine this level is not an easy process but is usually best approached from the "to little detail" side down.

Abstract performance models may not give completely accurate absolute results as in "this architecture will have a throughput of X jobs per second," but can give accurate comparative results as in "architecture A has a 20% greater throughput than architecture B."



This list comes from many of the references, but mainly from [Jain91]

In this module, we are discussing the mainly the application of performance modeling to the architecture selection process.



This graph shows that most of the final cost of a system is locked in during the early phases of the design process when the architecture of the system is selected. However, the cost incurred in designing and producing the system does not reach its peak until the product is going out the door. Therefore, spending some time (and money) looking at the final cost of candidate architectures and their performance, early in the design process can save a great deal.

Note that these curves will change some if performance modeling is used in that more cost will be incurred early as design cost for the early stages increases, and the cost committed early will be less as the actual selection of the architecture is done later in the design cycle.



This slide shows some of the benefits of performance modeling as seen by some industrial users of the technique. Note that using performance modeling results in design errors being manifested and eliminated earlier in the design process where they are less costly. Also note that initially, the cost of a design process with performance modeling is higher, but the overall cost (area under the curve) is lower.



The initial investment in performance modeling is high in that it increases the time spent in design space exploration before the design of the chosen architecture is actually started. This is increased by the fact that often, designers need to be trained to use the tools and develop the models necessary for performance modeling. However, the goal of performance modeling is to significantly reduce the detailed design time and cost for the chosen system by eliminating costly redesigns and design errors, thereby decreasing the overall design time and cost.



The definition of architecture is different for different systems and different levels of abstraction.



Architecture selection and architecture verification will be explained in more detail later in the module.



All definitions of model types are consistent with the RASSP Taxonomy [Hein97]



# Performance Modeling Definitions (Cont.)



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### **Bus Functional Model**

Used to define the operation of a component with respect to its surrounding environment. The interface between the component and its environment are modeled in detail, even though all of the functions internal to the component do not have to be modeled, particularly not at the same level of detail.

#### **Co-Simulation**

In the context of hardware/software co-simulation, this term refers to the act of simulating the execution of software on target hardware.

In the context of simulation technology, the term refers to the act of cooperatively running multiple distinct simulators concurrently with inter-process communication between them. Each simulator is simulating a distinct section or aspect of the target system.

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# Performance Modeling Definitions (Cont.)



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### Interpreted Model

A model that includes both the timing and the function of a system and associates actual values and transformations with data moving through the system (behavioral model)

#### Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)

The externally visible state of a programmable processor and the functions that the processor can perform. An ISA model of a processor will execute any machine program for that processor with same results as the physical machine, as long as all input stimuli are sent to the model on the same simulated clock cycle as they arrive at the real processor.

#### Logic Level Model

A model that describes a system in terms of Boolean logic functions and simple memory devices such as flip-flops. Logic level models and gate level models are at an equivalent level of abstraction.

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# Performance Modeling Definitions (Cont.)



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## **Top-Down Design**

A design process which starts with a high level, abstract model of a system which is used for design space exploration that is then refined into an implementation level model by an iterative process of partitioning the system and refining the resulting subsystems.

#### **Uninterpreted Model**

A performance model which represents a system by modeling the flow of information within the system as tokens without modeling the actual data values or transformations.

#### **Virtual Prototype**

The set of simulation models that comprises a prototype processor. When exercised, the virtual prototype should behave (function and performance) as closely as possible to its physical counterpart.



This slide shows the RASSP (Rapid Prototyping of Application Specific Signal Processors) design process and where performance modeling fits into it. This includes the processes of System Definition, Architecture Definition, and portions of Detailed Design. Note that Architecture Definition encompasses Functional Design and the processes of Architectural Selection Architectural Verification.

How performance modeling is used within these processes is covered in the following slides...



This slide presents the functions in the system definition process, which begins with customer requirements (which may be executable) and flows into the architecture definition process.

Performance models are not required at the upper levels of the system definition process although they can be applied at any point. In the performance verification phase, some type of performance modeling is required for all but the most trivial of systems.



The architecture definition process is fed by the system definition process and in turn feeds into the detailed design process.

Performance models can be used in the functional design process to help refine requirements and algorithms. They most definitely are used in the architecture selection and verification process for evaluation.

Note that this slide show one view of the architecture definition process, but it can be pursued in other ways (more of an iterative process, less of a waterfall, etc.)



This slide shows the detailed design process and how performance modeling is used in it. Note that this is where mixed level modeling, the notion of cosimulating performance and behavioral models, is introduced.



This slide shows the 5 elements of model characteristics that determines its place in the overall taxonomy of models. The position on each scale that a model occupies determines what type of model it is classified as.

This slide is taken from the RASSP taxonomy document.



General performance models have temporal data (both internal and external) that can be at essentially any level of abstraction. They have no internal data value information, and only high level external data value information (e.g. memory address, size, etc.), no functional information and only external structural information. Software can be represented at any level.

Token-based performance models have higher levels of timing information (e.g. at the task level or data packet level, not instruction level or individual word level), and higher levels of external structure. Software is represented at the task level and above.



This section will present the classical performance modeling metrics of latency, throughput, utilization, and others.



Latency is the time between two events.

Usually, latency is the time between two events on different signals, or in different parts of the model, e.g., the time between the arrival of a memory request and a memory access - memory latency, or the time between the sending and receiving of a message - communications latency. For lack of a better term, this is called intersignal latency.

Sometimes however, the latency between events on the same signal is important, e.g., the time between subsequent memory accesses or the time between the processing of RADAR pulses by a SAR system. This is termed intrasignal latency.



Throughput is basically 1/some type of latency.

Arrival rate is 1/ the intrasignal latency at the system's input, Completion rate is 1/ the intrasignal latency at the system's output.

When used as a requirement, throughput usually means completion rate.



Utilization is simply the percentage of time (that the system is simulated for) that the system is actually busy i.e., it contains a token.



Activity time lines are a helpful way to visualize utilization, especially in a system where some concurrency is possible because they allow that concurrency to be visualized. This helps to see points where concurrency is or isn't happening



Response time is a metric that is sometimes used in "user driven systems" because it measures how long the user must wait from their input to the desired output.


Other metrics typically used in system performance analysis include speedup for a multiprocessor system, and efficiency for a uniprocessor system (these two are related in that they are both basically the ratio of the achieved throughput to the theoretical maximum throughput, or visa versa).



Module Outline



There are two basic techniques for performance modeling, analytical, and simulation-based. The advantages and disadvantages of each will be explained in each section.

Token-based performance modeling using VHDL is a simulation-based technique, but the analytical techniques will be introduced here to provide background for the simulation-based techniques. This section of the module can be omitted from discussion if this background material is not required for the given audience.



Analytical performance modeling techniques consist of constructing and solving a mathematical model of the system. Their main advantage is their accuracy and the speed with which they can be solved. Their main disadvantage is the fact that they become intractable for all but the smallest systems.

[Kant92]



Simulation-based techniques consist of constructing and executing a model of the system in a high-level programming language or hardware description language (hdl). Simulation-based models are more generally applicable and can handle larger systems. The simulation execution time can become excessive for very complex systems however, if the level of detail of the model becomes too high. Unlike analytical models, which just give indications of system steady-state behavior, simulationbased models allow observation of the transient behavior of the system which may be important.

In addition, simulation-based models typically generate large amounts of data that have to be analyzed using statistical techniques.

[Kant92]



Hybrid modeling is the term used in the queuing model and Petri Net community to describe mixed analytical and simulation based performance modeling. It is a somewhat overloaded term in that hybrid modeling has also been used to describe the mixture of performance and behavioral models although the preferred term for that is "mixed level modeling."

Hybrid modeling attempts to incorporate the benefits of both analytical and simulation-based modeling techniques.



Most analytical performance modeling techniques are based on a Poisson process. This is a stochastic process in which the distribution of events are exponential and occurrences of events in non-overlapping time intervals are independent. Because of this property, the probability that an event occurs in a small interval of time is proportional to the probability distribution.

The Markov model is the basic modeling paradigm. A Markov model is a state based model where the probability of transitioning from one state to another is a Poisson process. This allows the model to be easily solved as will be seen.



This simple two state example (even though it is derived from reliability analysis) shows how a Markov model is solved.

Balance equations that are derived from the fact that the sum of all probabilities entering a state must be equal to all probabilities leaving that state and all probabilities must sum to 1. These balance equations can then be solved to determine the probability of being in each state.



This slide describes the convention with which queues are specified.

The discussion here will be limited to M/M queues since they can be described as Markov models, as will be shown.

iid - independent and identically distributed

[Cassandras93] has probably the best description of queuing networks and how they can be analyzed as Markov models, but [Sauer81] is also good and has some good examples.



Both open and closed queuing networks can be analyzed, but there must be some restrictions on the arrivals and departures in an open queuing network so that it may be analyzed using these techniques.



This slides shows the analysis if a single queue if infinite size with exponential arrival and service rates. As shown, the queue can be modeled with a Markov birth-death process. This allows the steady state behavior of the queue to be modeled analytically. Note that the service rate must be greater than the arrival rate for the model to be stable.



This is calculation of utilization of the server in the single queue system.



This is the calculation of mean number of jobs in the system, mean response time, and mean number of jobs in the queue. Note that this slide introduces Little's Law, an important theorem in queue analysis.



This is an example of how a real life system can be analyzed as a M/M/1 queue. Note that the analysis of a system with a limited queue size (M/M/1/N), which covers more real-life systems, is equally simple.



This is the analysis if an M/M/n system, one with a single exponential queue but multiple servers, e.g. a multiprocessor system for transaction processing.



This is the remainder of the analysis.



An example of an M/M/n queue model.



M/M/n example continued.



This is a brief presentation of the analysis of a chain of M/M/1 queues. Note the form that the solution takes is the general form of the solution of a closed network of M/M/1 queues. Queuing networks whose solution takes this form are called "product form networks."



This is an example of the solution of a closed network of M/M/1 queues. Note how the solution takes the general product form.



Product form queuing networks have a very mathematically "clean" solution, but there are many restrictions on the queuing networks such that they are "product form networks."

Note that complex queuing networks can be solved numerically or by event driven simulation. This is the basis of many performance tools like SES Workbench, Extend, Foresight, etc.



For simple systems that do not exhibit concurrency and contention, detailed performance modeling may not be necessary, a simple "spread sheet" approach might suffice. For systems that exhibit concurrency, and contention (like the transaction system example), queuing models are applicable. However, for systems that exhibit synchronization between concurrent activities, queuing models are not adequate.

Petri Nets, developed in 1962, are suited to modeling systems that have concurrency, contention, and synchronization.

The major reference for Petri Nets is the paper by Murata [Murata89], but [Cassandras93] is a good text reference.



This is the basic definition of a Petri Net. Note that the basic Petri Net contains no notion of time or values on the data modeled in the system.



The basic definitions of the things that make up a Petri Net. Note that the Petri Net definition of a token is slightly different than the definition that will be used in the uninterpreted modeling section. In a Petri Net, a token is a representation that a certain condition, that will cause a transition to fire, has been satisfied. It does not necessarily denote actual data that is moving in the system, as is the case with most (but not all) uninterpreted modeling systems.



No additional notes necessary.



The nondeterminism of Petri Nets is a significant difference between them and other uninterpreted modeling techniques. Where two conflicting transitions are enabled, which one fires first can make a significant difference in how the model behaves.



No additional notes necessary.



This is a Petri Net model of a finite state machine (FSM). By definition, any FSM can be modeled with a Petri Net. One thing to note here is that in the real state machine, the firing of each transition is triggered by an external event, either the insertion of a coin or the pressing of a "get candy" button. However, in the true Petri Net model, which transition would fire, in the case where two or more are enabled (0¢, 15¢, 20¢ state), is non-deterministic.



This is a Petri Net model of a simple interlocking communications protocol. In fact, both hardware and software systems can be modeled with Petri Nets - a powerful feature.



This is a more complex Petri Net model of a multiprocessor system with 5 processors, three shared memories, and two processor-memory busses. It is intended to show how systems of this type can be modeled with Petri Nets and that there is not a one-to-one correspondence between tokens, place, and transitions and hardware components or data packets in a real system - which sometimes makes them difficult to conceive.

See [Murata89] for more details on this example.



This slide introduces reachability graphs which are representations of the "states" or markings of a Petri Net and how they are reached by various transition firings.

The nodes in the reachability graph are markings (e.g., 10 is the marking where there is one token in  $p_1$  and 0 tokens in  $p_2$ .

The arcs in the reachability graph are the transitions that move the Petri Net from one marking to another.

Note that in order to make the reachability graph for this example tractable (as far as drawing it), the example is a finite capacity net in that  $p_1$  can hold no more than 2 tokens and  $p_2$  can hold no more than 1 token.

Once the reachability graph is constructed, it can be analyzed using various graph algorithms.



Here are some of the attributes that the Petri Net can be analyzed for. All of these attributes can be examined analytically using the reachability graph and do not require simulating or "animating" the Petri Net.

Reachability analysis can be used to see if the Petri Net can attain any "undesirable" state. Boundedness can be used to determine if the "capacity of any state (e.g. buffer size) can be overflowed.



Liveness can again show that the Petri Net does not attain an "undesirable" state in which its not exactly deadlocked, but some transitions can no longer be fired.

Reversibility shows that a Petri Net can regain its "home state" from any state it can attain.



Here are more attributes that can be determined from the analysis of a Petri Net and its reachability graph.



Various methods for analyzing Petri Nets for the metrics discussed.



Timed Petri Nets are the more useful form for performance analysis. Both NF and AF semantics can be employed although AF is more general in that NF can be described in AF.

A potential problem with AF is that in conflicting transitions, an enabled transition may be disabled during its delay time by the firing of another transition.


Timing functions for transitions can be a function of the number of tokens in a place. Also, timing functions can be deterministic of stochastic. General Stochastic Petri Nets can be analyzed as Markov Models (as will be shown).



Colored Petri Nets (CPN) include the notion of values (or classes) on the tokens. Note that CPNs are what is used as the mathematical foundation for UVa's ADEPT tool.

In this example, the color of the token produced by the firing of transition t1 is a function [f(x,y)] of the color of the tokens in the p1 and p2 places.



As shown here, a Stochastic Petri Net can be translated into a Markov Model via its reachability graph.



Here is an example of how a queuing model can be modeled using Petri Nets - a further demonstration of their modeling power.



As mentioned before, complex queuing models and Petri Nets, although they may not be solvable via analytical techniques, can be solved by simulation. There are many commercial tools available that do this.

This is an illustration of the basic event driven simulation cycle. You simply process all events scheduled for a given time, and determine what new events are generated for what future times. These events are added to the "event queue" and time is advanced to the earliest future time in the event queue. All events at that time are then processed and the cycle begins again.

Alternatively to event-driven simulation, the simulation cycle can be done on a discrete time interval (e.g. 1 ns) and simulation time advances at regular intervals. All signals can be updated to new values (which may be the same as old ones) at each time interval. This eases the management of simulation time and the event queue.



It is possible to model systems at a high level without using either the queuing model or Petri Net formalism. This is a separate issue from the analytical vs. simulation-based solution issue, although models that do not have the queuing model or Petri Net formalism obviously have to use simulation-based solutions.

In general "uninterpreted modeling" the system is modeled at such a level as the data in the system that is moved from component to component is modeled, but its values and transformations performed on it are not. Timing is modeled, but usually at a high level. Recall that the taxonomy of performance models showed this level of abstraction. In general, all of the modeling environments discussed from her on out will be general "uninterpreted modeling" environments although some of them may include elements of queuing models (SES Workbench) and Petri Nets (ADEPT)



Here is an example of an uninterpreted model of a CPU and memory system. This is an example that will be utilized in the section on VHDL performance modeling examples. Notice that the tokens in the model actually model the passing of data between the CPU and the memory and are fairly abstract in nature, as are the CPU and memory component models.



This is another type of uninterpreted model that will also be used in the example section, a hardware/software task level model. Here the software is a set of tasks, often modeled as a dataflow graph, that communicates with a "scheduler" to obtain hardware resources (processors, memories, switches) on which to execute. Usually, the software tasks provide information on how much hardware resources they require (data size, number of floating point instructions, etc.) and the hardware model actually delays the required simulated time.



Module Outline



There are a number of commercial and educational packages available for Petri Net analysis and general "uninterpreted" performance modeling. Most of these are implemented in C or C++ and as such, are a bit divorced from the electronic system design process. However, because of their number and popularity, some discussion of them is warranted here.



As an example of the types of tools in the general uninterpreted performance modeling category that are available, SES workbench<sup>®</sup> will be presented in some detail. SES does have some basis in queuing network modeling, but performance models that do not include queues can be built with it, so it falls into the more general category.

This presentation was taken from the Scientific and Engineering Software, Inc. web page: http://www.ses.com

A through reading of the material on Workbench there will suffice as background to present these slides.























## [Ptolemy96].

This section describes UC Berkeley's Ptolemy functional modeling tool. Ptolemy is targeted as a tool to model and simulate the function of a DSP system, but, as is described in this section, it has been used to perform uninterpreted performance modeling.

**Biographical Names** 

Ptol-e-my \'ta^:l-e-me^-\

2d cent. A.D. Claudius Ptolemaeus - Alexandrian astronomer



This slide outlines the parts of a Polemy simulation.



This figure shows the general outline of a system model in Ptolemy. General modeling blocks in Ptolemy are called "stars." A hierarchical collection of stars used to model a large piece of functionality is called a Galaxy. Stars communicate with each other by passing particles (similar to tokens). A specific modeling paradigm in Ptolemy is called a domain. An entire model is Ptolemy is called a Universe.



A model of computation (such as discrete event, synchronous dataflow, dynamic dataflow, etc.) is called a Domain in Ptolemy. Each domain includes building blocks, or stars (which the user can add to by writing their own), a scheduler that executes the portion of a model that resides in its domain, and wormholes that interface data and events between domains.



Stars communicate across different domains using wormholes. Wormholes allow heterogeneous models with stars from different domains to be constructed.



More discussion of domains.

Example:

A high-level dataflow model of a signal processing system can be connected to a hardware simulator that in turn may be connected to a discrete-event model of a communication network

BDF domain implements a compile-time scheduler for DDF graphs that supports run-time flow of control; similar to SDF. Attempts to construct a compile-time scheduler - like DDF

- achieves the efficiency of SDF with the generality of DDF.

HOF domain: takes a function as an argument and/or returns a function. It implements a star called Map, that can apply any other star (or galaxy) to the sequence(s) at its inputs thereby "mapping" itself to the other star or galaxy.



This is a graphical representation of the domains available within Ptolemy and how they interact with the Ptolemy kernel.



This is a presentation of how High Performance Scalable Computing systems can be accomplished using Ptolemy. HPSC systems are those types of systems utilized in the RASSP program. This method for performance modeling is described in detail in [Pauer97], so a through reading of that paper will suffice to explain these slides.
































Module Outline



As a hardware description language, VHDL has many desirable features for describing hardware already built-in such a a timing model, support for design hierarchy and configuration, etc. A general programming language such as C or C++ has none of these things.

A single language approach is beneficial because it means that hardware designers can work in VHDL to describe their components at all levels from the system level on down. Also, the system level VHDL models can be a starting point for fully behavioral or even synthesizable VHDL models of components.



Traditional performance modeling methods such as queuing models and Petri Nets, have been implemented in VHDL by UVa and others, as have more general uninterpreted performance modeling environments.

The major issues in this type of modeling effort in VHDL are discussed above.



This slide includes the source code (somewhat modified) for the generic interface token developed by Honeywell Technology Center as an example.

Tokens in VHDL are probably best described as records. However, if large numbers of user defined fields are to be included, it is sometimes better to define those as arrays within the record structure. This allows the code that accesses the user defined fields to do so with loops and to index them easily (e.g., token.user\_array(value\_one)).

Another issue to consider is that it has become apparent that the size of the token has a great influence on the simulation time of the model, especially if a bus resolution function is used to pass tokens between modules.



The problem with passing large amounts of data in a token is that large tokens slow down the VHDL simulation greatly. Also, if only one token signal in a given model needs to carry a large amount of information, all tokens will be large (because they all have to be the same size) which is a waste of simulation speed and memory.

A solution developed by Honeywell as part of their PML (to be presented later) is to have a global signal, declared in a package and visible to all architectures, that can be used as a storage space to pass large amounts of data. Modules that want to pass data write it into this "functional memory" which is implemented as an array of stacks supporting generic types like integers and reals, and pass pointers to the information to other modules in one of the standard token fields. These other modules can then read the information out of the functional memory as required.



Some type if interlocking mechanism to pass tokens from one module to another is necessary. VHDL bus resolution functions are typically used, both in the point-to-point and multiple driver/reader case, because the token signal is bi-directional. That is, the data source has to be able to drive the new token onto the signal and the data destination has to be able to drive the acknowledgement onto the signal. The two sources require a resolution function.

An alternative (used in the ATL models and in the latest version of ADEPT) is to have unidirectional signals, one from source to destination to place the initial token, and another from the destination to the source to acknowledge the token.



This is an example of how a four state, point-to-point token passing protocol works and why it need a resolution function (taken from ADEPT).



This is a multipoint communications protocol. Why a bus resolution function is needed here is self-evident. This is the token passing protocol used in the Honeywell PML, eArchitect.



Finally, once all of the information necessary to do performance modeling is defined (types, functions, procedures), it should be encapsulated into a package that can be made visible to any performance modeling component that needs it.



Module Outline



UVa's ADEPT system is a set of library elements and a set of tools for constructing VHDL performance models.

Viewlogic's eArchitect product is a set of tools for constructing and analyzing the results of, VHDL performance models. It includes a performance modeling library based on the Performance Modeling Library developed by Honeywell Technology Center.

The Lockheed Martin, Advanced Technology Laboratory has developed a small library of VHDL performance modeling elements, specifically targeted at modeling Mercury Race Multicomputers, and a few tools for analyzing their results.



The Advanced Prototype Design Environment from UVa is a general VHDL-based uninterpreted modeling environment that also includes a Petri Net foundation (as will be explained). It consists of a library of modules for constructing system-level performance and Dependability models, and a set of tools for constructing and analyzing those models.

More information, including complete documentation and source code for ADEPT can be found on the UVa Center For Semicustom Integrated Systems web page:

http://csis.ee.virginia/

under the Publications and Tools sections. This includes some more detailed examples of performance, dependability, and mixed level modeling using ADEPT.



ADEPT's strengths consist of:

• the inclusion of a mathematical foundation which makes analytical analysis of ADEPT models possible,

• the capability to perform performance and reliability modeling from the same ADEPT model without modification,

• the inclusion of a library of elements with which interfaces to behavioral models can be easily constructed for mixed level modeling, and

• the ability of the user to easily extend the ADEPT libraries.

## ADEPT's weaknesses include:

• the fact that the low level nature of the ADEPT modules sometimes makes model construction difficult and time consuming<sup>1</sup>, and

• the fact that because its VHDL based, simulation of ADEPT models can take a long time<sup>2</sup>.

Notes:

1) This is being alleviated somewhat by the addition of libraries of more complex modules, although these modules often lack the Petri Net representation.

2) This is being addressed by an effort to simplify and speedup the simulation of ADEPT models.



This figure shows the ADEPT symbol for an arbiter module - a module that serializes two tokens that arrive simultaneously on its inputs - its corresponding VHDL behavioral description, and its corresponding Colored Petri Net description. All of the ADEPT modules have a symbol and VHDL behavioral description that can be used for simulation. The ADEPT primitive modules - those in the Control, Color, Delay, Fault, Miscellaneous, and Hybrid categories - have colored Petri Net descriptions.



ADEPT modules are connected via VHDL signals. These signals carry the tokens between the modules. The ADEPT tokens are implemented in VHDL as a record structure with two fields, a status field that is used to implement the 4 state handshaking, and a color field which is an array of integers used to hold user-defined information.

A VHDL bus resolution function, called token\_res\_function, is used to implement the point-to-point token passing mechanism as described earlier.

The point-to-point token mechanism uses a 4 state, fully-interlocked protocol. The states (enumerated in the handshake type) are "present," "ack(nowledg)ed," "released," and "removed."

Reinventing Electronic Design cture Infrastru		AL	EPT Token Passing Mechanism	)	RASSP E SGRA • GT • U Raytheon • UCho •
	SOUR step:1 ns timebase src1	:1 ns	Image: Constraint of the second se	SINK	
			Event Sequence		
Event	Time	Delta	Description	Resolved Signal A	Resolved Signal B
1	0 ns	1	Source module places token on A	present	removed
2	5 ns	0	Delay module places token on B		present
	5 ns	1	Sink module acknowledges token on B		acked
3	5 ns	2	Delay module releases token on B		released
3 4	<b>F</b>	2	Delay module acknowledges token on A	acked	
-	5 ns		Sink module removes token on B		removed
4	5 ns 5 ns	3			
4 5		3 3	Source module releases token on A	released	
4 5 6	5 ns	-		released removed	

This is a detailed description of the ADEPT token passing protocol using a simple source/delay/sink model. Note that the only time that actually passes in the model is that taken up by the delay module - the token handshaking takes place in VHDL delta cycles with no time delay. In general, only delay module in ADEPT have actual time delays associated with them. All other modules use only delta delay. This fact can sometimes cause problems (delta cycle races) in constructing an ADEPT model.



There are six categories of basic ADEPT building blocks out of which general system models can be constructed. As stated previously, these module have both a VHDL behavioral description and the Colored Petri Net description.

Because of the difficulty with which users have been constructing complex models out of the basic building blocks, libraries of more complex constructs and modeling modules have been developed. The elements in these libraries, which are targeted towards modeling systems in certain application areas, have only the VHDL behavioral description for simulation.

See [ADEPT\_LR96] for more details on all of the ADEPT modules.



There are 19 modules in the Control category. These modules include the source and sink module for creating and destroying tokens, the wye, junction and union modules for fanning in and fanning out tokens, the buffer and feedback modules for buffering parts of the a system model from others, queue modules, for storing tokens, and other modules for routing tokens within a model.

There are also the "C" modules, like the CNOT and CXOR, that manipulate so called "control," or independent tokens. In ADEPT, the tokens that are passed between modules using the 4 state interlocked protocol, are called "data" or dependent tokens. Independent or "control" tokens are tokens which have one source, but no real sinks. Then can take on only two of the 4 states in the protocol, present and released. They are generally used to carry routing and control information. For example, the output from the queue module which tells if the queue is full or not, and the inputs to the decider and switch module which determine if, and which output is active, are "control" tokens. See [ADEPT\_UM96] for more details.



The color modules are used to access the user-defined (color fields) of the tokens. The set color (SC\_D, SC\_I) modules set values on tokens passing through them, and does the file\_read module the read color (RC) module and the file\_write module read color fields and write them onto other tokens or a file. The operator and comparator modules allow arithmetic and logical operations with token color fields, and the random module puts a random value on a color field.



As stated previously, the delay modules are the only modules in the basic ADEPT set that have simulation time associated with them. There are fixed and data dependent delays for both "data" and "control" type tokens and more complex delay modules for modeling synchronization type events.



The miscellaneous module category includes the collector, which writes the time that a token passes a certain point in the model to a file, the terminator module, which can stop a simulation after a chosen number of tokens have gone past a specific point, and the monitor module, which writes latency and utilization data out to a file for post-processing by the ADEPT tools.



The fault modules allow the insertion and detection of faults into an ADEPT model for reliability analysis.



The Module Builders Library is a library of constructs commonly used in constructing ADEPT models. For example, the random delay module delays a token according to a random number. It is a hierarchical module built up mainly from a Random module and a Data Delay module. The Decrementer module will decrement the value on a token tag by a set amount. It is built up from a Read Color, Operator, and Set Color module.



The Task Level Library is intended to allow users to build high level models of various application areas. The elements in this library consist of various Server module, various type of queue, like FIFO, LIFO, and Priority, and special routing modules like the gate and hold. The modules in this library were modeled, to some extent, on the types of modules available in the Extend tool from Imagine That Inc.



The Multiprocessor Communication Network Modeling library was developed under the RASSP program to ease modeling of embedded multicomputer applications. It includes a generic CPU, much like the ATL CPU model to be discussed, and network modules to model Raceway, Myrinet, SCI, Ethernet, and ATM networks.



This is a representation of the ADEPT modeling flows. Notice that there are two basic types of analysis, analytical (mainly for dependability modeling) and simulation-based (for both dependability and performance modeling). The boxes shown in blue are processes that are automated by tools developed for the ADEPT environment and the blue drums are ADEPT libraries of symbols, VHDL behavioral descriptions, and CPN descriptions.



This slide shows how the actual ADEPT tools fit together with the various intermediate formats. Unfortunately, not all tools are available in all versions of ADEPT. Specifically, only the EDIF to structural VHDL path is supported on the PC platform with the OrCAD Capture tool.



This screen shot shows the construction of an ADEPT schematic within Design Architect. Notice that all of the ADEPT utilities for constructing, simulation, and analyzing the results of an ADEPT model are available via pull-down menus.


This is a screen shot of one of the available ADEPT post processing tools. This tool will give the user a dynamic playback of queue lengths, and module latency, utilization, and throughput over simulation time and then graph the results.



This is a screen shot of another of the available ADEPT post processing tools. This tool presents utilization as a standard timeline display.



Now the Performance Modeling Library (PML) developed by Honeywell Technology Center in Minneapolis MN will be discussed. PML is a VHDL-based performance modeling library of elements targeted towards modeling a system at the processor-memory-switch level. It allows the modeling and simulation of the system's hardware and software. PML is the basis of the Viewlogic eArchitect performance modeling tool.



This figure illustrates where the PML (and eArchitect) are intended to be used in the design process. Note that a capability for mixed level modeling (explained in the next section) is built into PML/eArchitect.



The overall approach in PML was to develop a small library of generic building blocks with many generic inputs that allowed them to be parameterized to model many different devices. The library actually contains only 5 modules and several different bus resolution functions to model communications protocols. These devices are targeted at modeling the architectural (PMS) level.

Methodology Reinventing Design Architecture DARPA • Tri-Service	ML Token D	Description	RASSP EAF SOM + GT + UM Ryfron + UCht + AC
TYPE uinterface_to	ten IS		
RECORD user field			
parml_real parm2_real parm2_int parm2_int parm2_int	: REAL; : REAL; : INTEGER;	these are placed first to some oddities on Sparcs (#	
control f destination source t_type	: name_type;		
performan size value	: data_size;		
token tra	king or statistics fi	elds	
id start_time	: uGIDType; : TIME;		
communica			
priority state protocol	: INTEGER; : State_Type; : Protocol_Type;		
collisions	nication tracking and : INTEGER; : INTEGER; : INTEGER;	control fields	
END RECORD;			
Copyright © 1995-1999 SCRA		[	Honeywell] 150

Here is a description of the generic token defined by Honeywell Technology Center for interoperability of performance models [HTC97]. The actual token used inside of PML is proprietary and slightly different than this, but this example gives the overall structure and how it is different from the ADEPT token.



The VHDL bus resolution function (BRF) used in PML uses four states to pass tokens on busses that have multiple drives and sources. For simple point-to-point connections, only three states are used for simulation efficiency. The BRF can be parameterized (or modified) to model several "real" bus protocols - thus the VHDL BRF is actually part of the model.



As stated previously, the PML library consists of 5 major modules, but there are many examples of modules parameterized to model specific devices in the library.

PML contains a sophisticated string processing language for specification of complex generic parameters to the models.



A PML input device is like a Source module in ADEPT, it creates tokens at a specified rate. Note that all modules in PML participate in the generation of performance statistics like latency and utilization.



An output device is like a Sink module in ADEPT. It consumes tokens.



The pipeline component delays tokens. It can also, by changing token fields, route tokens.



The memory component consumes memory request tokens and after a specified delay, generates memory access tokens.



The processor model is the heart of the PML. It is capable of running a representation of the software that the real system will execute. That software representation, while written in VHDL can be at a level of abstraction that ranges from the task level down to the detailed functional level.

The PML processor is basically a request-resource model. The software representation executes and a specified point, requests resources (e.g. memory access, 1000 floating point multiplies, 100 integer adds, etc.) from the processor. The processor schedules these operations on the hardware resource when it is available and delays the software execution until they are completed. The software continues from that point until more hardware resources are needed.

The processor is parameterized by specifying its Instruction Set Architecture (ISA) and what and how many resources are consumed by each instruction in the ISA. Sophisticated operating system constructs such as interrupts and multitasking can be modeled as well.



The processor model allows detailed modeling of software at various levels of abstraction executing on different types and speeds of processors. One drawback of this fidelity (and its associated complexity) is long simulation times.



This section describes Viewlogic's eArchitect <sup>TM</sup> tool. eArchitect is very ADEPT like in that it includes tools for constructing, simulating, and analyzing performance models in VHDL. It uses the Performance Modeling Library (PML) developed by Honeywell Technology Center as its module library. The development of eArchitect was funded as part of the RASSP program.

Note that unlike ADEPT, eArchitect (like PML) is targeted at one specific level of performance modeling (the processor, memory, switch (PMS) level) and does not have a mathematical foundation or support dependability analysis.



This is the eArchitect tool set. Like ADEPT, a commercial, third party, VHDL simulator is used as the simulation engine and must be obtained separately.



This is an illustration of the construction of the hardware model in eArchitect. The hardware model consists of processor models and communications switch models from the PML library (as will be presented). The modules used in the model can be parameterized, via the GUI, to model different types of processors and networks.



This is the eArchitect library browser. It is used to select standard hardware components out of the library for instantiation into a performance model. eArchitect comes with the complete PML library of generic elements and several specific components (like a Mercury RaceWay crossbar switch) built out of those generic components.



This is an illustration of the description of the software application in eArchitect. Here, the software is described as a dataflow graph as is common in embedded DSP applications.

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Copyright © 1995-1999 SCRA	Copyright 1999, Viewlogic Systems, Inc		[Viewlogic] 164

Software can also be described as a control flow graph in eArchitect as shown here.

In addition to the two methods shown in this slide and the previous one, software in eArchitect can be coded directly in VHDL by the user (with appropriate calls to the hardware resource models), and included in the eArchitect model.



Once the hardware and software models are completed, the next step is to map the software tasks onto specific hardware processors for execution. This is done with the software mapping tool as shown here.



Like ADEPT, eArchitect contains a number of tools for analyzing the data from the performance model simulation. This is the eArchitect utilization tool display. It displays specific processor utilization as a moving horizontal bar graph.



Here is another eArchitect post-simulation data display tool. In this case, its a "hot spot" display which show module utilization in color codes. Modules that appear towards the red side of the spectrum are highly utilized and may represent a bottleneck in the computation. If however, all modules are towards the blue side of the spectrum, the overall system may be over designed resulting in wasted resources.



This is a screen shot of the activity time line display available in eArchitect. It is fairly standard.



Here is the throughput display from eArchitect.



This slide shows the overall design flow in eArchitect. Again, the hardware architecture is modeled using the PML library modules configured to model the chosen hardware architecture. This includes specifying the ISA of the chosen processors and their execution rates, and the network configuration and its communication rates. The software is modeled as a set of tasks that communicate in a specific way and take a certain amount of resources in terms of computation and communication. Finally, the mapping of software tasks to processors is specified. The eArchitect tools then generate a VHDL model of the complete system which is then compiled and simulated on the chosen commercial VHDL simulator. The data that results from that simulation can then be displayed graphically by the eArchitect post-simulation analysis tools.



As part of the RASSP program, ATL was tasked to use performance modeling in the design of several benchmark embedded DSP systems. Their efforts to use PML and ADEPT at an early point in the program were hindered by the long simulation times of both ADEPT and PML models and by the unavailability, at that time, of the eArchitect tool and a suitable PMS level modeling library in ADEPT. In response, they developed a very lightweight PMS level modeling environment for Mercury Raceway systems with an emphasis on reduced simulation times.

Note that both ADEPT and PML have since addressed the simulation time problem with good results.



The ATL library consists of two components, a processor model (which includes a network interface), and a switch model. The switch is intended to model the Mercury Raceway crossbar switch.

Much emphasis was placed on reducing simulation times and the results were very good in that regard - ATL VHDL performance models of the Raceway system simulate in an equivalent time to models written in C. However, the disadvantage of this more ad hoc approach over ADEPT or PML is the limited library of components available (which had to be written specifically for this network model) and a less general applicability.



The ATL processing element (PE) consists of two parts; the computation agent that reads CPU instruction from a file and executes them, and a communications agent that interfaces to the network model and handles message sends and receives.



The ATL CPU model has 6 instructions that fall into three basic modes, compute, send and receive. Additional instructions that perform actual data translations (complex multiply, matrix operations, etc.) can be added in the first "virtual prototype" stage when some functionality is added to the model.



The switch element in the ATL library models a 6 port Mercury Raceway crossbar switch. This crossbar is circuit switched and can handle up to three simultaneous connections. It is modeled in VHDL using 6 concurrent VHDL processes, one to handle each port on the crossbar. The crossbar functions of circuit setup, teardown and preemption are handled.



This is an illustration of how the normal message passing protocol, as modeled in a performance modeling environment, was simplified to reduce the number of tokens needed. Note that this token passing mechanism is a modeling artifact, it is not how the Raceway actually passes data, so changing it does not affect the model fidelity as long as care is taken to keep the timing the same.

Also note that the ATL module do not use bus resolution functions to pass tokens - they use two unidirectional signals - further decreasing the execution time of the simulation.



These figures illustrate how preemption and contention (requesting a busy path) are handled in the simplified ATL protocol.



The communications agent and how it handles the various network functions such as requesting a path for a message, sending the message, and responding to preemption, is fairly complex, so it was designed as a state machine. This state machine was then implemented in VHDL to perform the required function. Note that within the PE VHDL code, the communications agent and computation agent pass data back and forth using shared variable instead of signals, further reducing simulation execution time.



This is the state diagram for the VHDL process that implements the procedures of the port in the switch element (crossbar).



A simple set of tools for collecting and analyzing performance metrics from the ATL modules was devised. The main tool is a time line utilization analysis tool that is capable of displaying both the times when the PEs are busy computing and when the communications network is busy.


After a high level performance model (with timing, but no functional information) is developed and analyzed, function can be added in terms of data values and data transformations. This forms what is termed in the Virtual Prototyping module as a level 0 virtual prototype (high level function plus timing).



Module Outline



There are several examples of VHDL based performance models included in this module. Most are based on the ADEPT system, but on uses the ATL performance modeling modules. However, there are many more examples available in the documentation for eArchitect and ADEPT and in the applications notes and case studies prepared as part of the RASSP program.



This is a simple model of the M/M/1 queuing system presented and analyzed earlier, using the ADEPT system. The modules used to construct this model come from the ADEPT Task Level Modeling and Module Builder's libraries.

The random\_timed\_source module generates a token with a random exponential arrival rate with a mean of 1000 ns (this example is modeled on a ns time scale instead of the ms time scale of the analytical example - the results are the same however). The delay module is connected to a random module such that it has a random, exponential service rate with a mean of 150 ns.

The monitor modules are standard ADEPT modules that are place in an ADEPT model to measure standard performance metrics. They record tokens as the pass by their inputs and outputs and write the information into files that are then interpreted and displayed by the ADEPT post-simulation analysis tools.



These are the results of the simulation of the M/M/1 ADEPT model. Note that the average latency of jobs (tokens) within the system is 173.126 ns as reported by the ADEPT analysis tools and that the average utilization of the server is 15%.

Recall that the analytical results for this model were 176.5 ns and 15% respectively.



This an ADEPT model of an M/M/3 queue. It is similar to the M/M/1 model except that it obviously has three servers (delay/random module combinations). The pro\_3 module is from the Task Level Modeling library and it routes tokens on its input, from the queue, to any output that is free (I.e. any server that is not busy). Note that it has a built-in priority that if more than one server is free, then it routes the token (job) to the lowest numbered output first, but that is immaterial to this model.



Here are the results of the ADEPT M/M/3 model. Note that the average utilization for the servers is 75% which agrees with the analytical results and the average latency seems to be close to the analytical result of 81 ns (again, this simulation was on a ns scale as opposed to the ms scale of the analytical analysis).



This is a simple task graph problem that further illustrates the ADEPT performance modeling environment. In this problem, there is a set of jobs (say images to process) that arrive from a sensor at a regular rate. The first task is to classify the images as to their clarity - noisy or non-noisy. An average of 30% of the images are classified as noisy and must be filtered. The remaining non-noisy images must be formatted, but that takes much less time than the filtering operation. Finally, all images must be compressed for storage. Images do not need to remain correlated in the time that they arrived as they pass through the system, I.e., non-noisy images may move ahead of noisy images during processing.

An ADEPT model will be constructed to explore the issue of how many processors are required to perform the noisy image filtering to meet throughput requirements. A more detailed version of this model, with links to lower levels of hardware/software codesign and mixed level modeling, is available in the standard ADEPT deliverable.



This is the initial ADEPT performance model of the task graph problem. It is a high-level queuing network model with only one processor performing the noisy image filtering process.



This is a plot of the number of items in the input queues to each task. Note that the number of items in the input queue to task 3 is increasing. Despite the slight decrease in the number of images in the queue towards the end of the simulation, it is clear that one processor is not enough to keep up with the number of filtering requests and that at least one more processor performing that task will be necessary.



Here is a model with two processors for task 3. Again, a pro\_2 module is used to schedule jobs from the task 3 queue onto idle task 3 processors.

Again, a more detailed model of this scenario, where task 3 is taken down one more level to model actual software algorithms executing on a Digital Signal Processor, and task 4 is taken down to a behavioral model of an ALU using mixed level modeling, is included in the ADEPT package.



Here is the plot of queue depths for the two task 3 processor model and it shows that the depth of the task 3 queue is bounded, so two processors for that task should be enough. However, more detail should be added to the model to further prove this conclusion as the results show that the task 3 queue still may fill up if the estimate of the time required to perform the filtering is optimistic.



Next will be presented two more performance modeling example. One, a performance model of a CPU and memory modeled with ADEPT, and another, a hardware/software task level performance model done with the ATL performance modeling modules.



The CPU/memory performance model is a simple example of a "hardware only" type of performance model. The objective of the performance model is to be able to determine the performance of various memory system architectures on typical memory traces.

At this point, only two different memory architectures were tested:

- a simple memory model in which each access takes a uniform time (based on the size of the access) of 80 ns per word.

- a page mode dram memory model where the memory system is divided up into "pages" of a specified size. If an access is made to a memory location that is on the same page as the one immediately preceding in, the "page hit access time" is 40 ns. If the access is on a different page, then the current page has to be closed and a new one opened which results in a "page miss access time" of 120 ns. Therefore, grouping accesses into groups that hit the same page (as will be seen in the DAXPY example trace) can result in significantly decreased access time.



This is the simple CPU model. At the start of simulation time, the Source module generates a token which passes through the File read module and picks up the first set of trace information. The token then weights at the Switch module until it is released by it. Also at time zero, the Feedback module generates an initial token (once at time 0 only) which enters the Data delay module. The Data delay module models the actual execution of instructions by the CPU and delays the CPU's instruction time (10 ns) times the number of instructions the current memory access allows to execute (contained on tag1 of the token). The initial token from the feedback module delays for one instruction (10 ns) and then passes through the RC module. The RC module produces a "control" token on its output which is connected to the Switch module which causes the Switch to release the next token to the memory system. The token from the RC module is then consumed by the Sink module. After the token leaves the switch module and is passed to the memory system model (through the CPU OUT port), the Source module produces another token which passes through the File Read module and waits at the Switch module until it is released by the token returning from the memory model (through the CPU IN port). When the File read module reaches the end of the address trace file, it sends a "control" token to the terminator module which terminates the simulation.



This is the simple memory system model. When the token arrives from the CPU (through the MEM\_IN port), it is buffered by the buffer module and then waits at the data delay module for a time determined by the number of words the access is for (determined by tag2 of the incoming token). Notice that the access time is independent of the actual address that is addresses (specified by tag3 of the token). Also note that the default delay time is 20 ns per word, but that is overwritten by the 80 ns specified on the top level schematic (as seen in the coming slide).



This is the model of the page mode dram which is more complex than the simple memory model, but still very straight froward. When a token enters the model (through the MEM\_IN port), the Sequence module creates a copy of it and send it to the Operator module. The address of that token (on tag3) is divided by the specified page size (provided on tag3 of the other token input to the Operator by the Constant Source module and the Page size generic on the overall symbol) to generate the resulting page number on tag1 of the output at the bottom of the Operator module. Once this process is complete, the first Sequence module passes the original token to the SC D module where the page number is written onto tag4 for the token. It then passes to the second Sequence module which creates a copy of the token and send it to the Comparator module. The comparator module compares the page number on tag4 of the token to the previous page number stored on its other input token. If they are equal, the Comparator signals the Decider module to send the original token through the Data delay that has the hit delay. If they are not equal, the Decider sends the token though the lower path. In the lower path, the token is delayed for one miss delay time to simulate the opening of the new page and the accessing of the first word of the request. Then the number of words requested is decremented by one and the token is delayed for the remaining number of words times the hit\_delay. Finally the token passes through the Wye module which sends one copy of the token, containing the new current page number on its tag4, to the Comparator module and another copy out of the memory back to the CPU.



This is the ADEPT schematic of the overall model with the simple memory. Notice that the memory access time on the memory model has been changed to 80 ns which will override the 20 ns default as explained before.



This is the ADEPT schematic of the CPU with the page mode memory model.



Three traces were run through the two memory system models, a simple uniform access, a random access, and a DAXPY algorithm access with loop unrolling. The traces were in the following format:

<number of instructions> <number of words> <memory address>

where number of instructions is the number of CPU instruction (time 10 ns) that the CPU will delay for after the access is granted, number of words is the number (times the access time) that the memory will delay in returning the access, and memory address is just that.

The uniform access is a single instruction, single word access where the address starts at a specify point (1000 in this example) and increments by 1 for each successive access.

The random access is an access where the number of instruction is random uniformly distribute between 1 and 4, the number of words is random uniformly distributed over the values of 1,2,4, and 8, and the address is a uniform randomly distributed number.



The DAXPY algorithm access is the simulation of the accesses that would happen if the CPU was running the algorithm to add two vectors (one times a constant), resulting in a third vector as shown. The vectors are stored in contiguous areas of memory as arrays that are typically on different memory pages.

If the DAXPY algorithm is executed in its native form, it will result in the pattern: read first X value, read first Y value, write first Z value, read second X value, etc. The problem with this is that if the vectors are indeed on different pages, each memory access will result in a page miss.

One solution to this is to "unroll" the loop so as to group accesses to the same page together. For example, in a twice unrolled case (loop unrolling factor of 2) the access pattern would be: read first X (and store in register) read second X, read first Y, read second Y, perform two multiply/adds, write first Z, write second Z. In this case, the first read or write would be a page miss, and the second would be a page hit. Obviously, the ideal would be to unroll the loop many times, but in reality, the amount of unrolling that can be done is limited by the size of the processor's register file.



Here are the results for the uniform access trace for both the simple memory and the page mode DRAM. The simple memory has a uniform access time of 80 ns for each request (of one word size). The page mode DRAM has an initial access time of 120 ns, but then subsequent accesses have times of only 40 ns until the address jumps to the next page. Note that the pages in this example are 64 words long and the addresses start in the middle of a page, that's why the second miss comes earlier than the third.



These are the results for the random access traces. The page mode DRAM is somewhat better than the simple memory here in spite of the fact that the addresses are random because many of the accesses are for multiple words and the page mode DRAM has a lower overall access time for them.



Here are the results for the DAXPY accesses. The time for the simple memory is fixed because the access size is fixed. However, for the page mode DRAM, the results vary with the unrolling factor - more unrolling, lower average latency as the page misses are amortized over more page hits.



Here are the results graphed as memory bandwidth (1/average latency). Note that as the unrolling factor goes up, the average latency for the page mode DRAM approaches the theoretical maximum (1/page hit time).



This section describes an example of a hardware/software performance model constructed using the ATL model elements.



The upper part of the figure shows the overall structure of the software algorithm in terms of tasks, how long they require for computation (on the bottom in blue), and communications between them and the amounts of communication (in black above). The algorithm is a 2D Fast Fourier Transform (FFT). The NOPs in the algorithm are simply place holders to make the figure more clear. For example, after receiving the initial data from the pre-processing task, all of the processors, without doing any computation, exchange data with each other to perform the row FFT. This is shown in more detail on the next page.

The lower part of the figure show the hardware architecture. A 4 processor Mercury Race Multicomputer (called an MCV6), with either one or two I/O processors.



This is more detail on how the image data is allocated to the processors and how it is exchanged during the processing of the algorithm.



These are the two alternate systems architectures that are investigated using the performance model. Both architectures have 4 processors and a Raceway crossbar switch, but the first architecture has a single I/O board which must perform both the pre and post-processing tasks and sending and receiving images to/from the other processors must be serialized.

In the second architecture, there is a separate source and sink processor to perform the pre and post-processing task respectively, and sending and receiving images to/from the 4 processors can occur in parallel.

Note that in the ATL performance model, regular processing elements (PEs) are used to model the I/O, Source and Sink processors.



This slide shows more detail on the ATL performance model and how the PE modules (for the Source and Sink modules) read their programs out of a file.

Notice that the programs end in a "startover" command which makes them run the program in an endless loop. This way, the performance model can be simulated for some fixed amount of time and the number of loops which the model executes can be observed as a performance measure.



Here are the results of the performance model from the STL time line tool. These graphs show the compute times for the modules. Notice that the second architectural alternative (with the Source and Sink processors) has much better throughput in terms of the number of loop iterations (> 20) than the first architectural alternative (<11).



This is an activity time line plot of the communications (including waiting time) in the two alternative architectures. Note that the second architecture spends a great deal less time communicating or waiting for communications resulting in the higher throughput.



Module Outline



This section explains the concept of mixed level modeling, the cosimulation of performance and behavioral models, and how it is implemented in ADEPT. ADEPT was chosen as the example for this section as the theory and implementation of mixed level modeling is more advanced in ADEPT than other performance modeling environments as of this date. More information on this subject can be obtained from the UVa Center For Semicustom Integrated Systems web page:

http://csis.ee.virginia.edu/

eArchitect (through PML) includes the capability for constructing mixed level models, but the facilities for developing methods to resolve timing and data abstraction are less well developed and require more user interaction.



This figure illustrates where the components of mixed level models lie in the RASSP taxonomy. It is clear from this description that token-based performance models have abstract timing and little or no data values (and data transformations - function) and that behavioral models have more detailed timing and data values. Therefore, it is easy to see that an interface(s) is needed between them when they are simulated in the same model.



This is the general structure of a mixed level model. Here a single component in the performance model has been replaced with a behavioral component. Interfaces are required on its input and output to resolve the tokens to values and values to token conversion problem.


This figure shows the taxonomy of hybrid models that was developed jointly between UVa and Honeywell Technology Center (their version is slightly different) to classify the solutions. Note that most work thus far has concentrated on the problem of timing verification.



As stated previously, PML has a mixed level modeling interface capability, but it is mainly code based and the user must supply the VHDL code that performs the tokens to values and values to tokens conversion.

ADEPT has a library of standard "hybrid" elements out of which mixed level modeling interfaces can be developed. For some classes of models in the taxonomy, the interface can be generated with no user coding, or new modules required. In other cases, some generation of application specific modules by the user is required.



This figure illustrates the problem of timing in mixed level models when the behavioral (or interpreted) element is combinational. A token arriving at the interface to the hybrid element, which contains the interpreted combinational component, triggers application of the new values to the inputs of the combinational element. Then after some time, the generation of the final outputs from the combinational element will trigger the release of the token from the hybrid element. The problem is the fact that the outputs of the combinational element take variable times to settle to the final value and it is difficult to determine when that has happened. The solution, called time expansion, is to run the combinational element in "fast time" which is usually 10 times faster than the performance model time scale, wait the maximum delay time of the combinational element in fast time, observe when, in fast time, the combinational element's outputs settled to their final values, and then scale this time up to slow time and release the token at the proper time in slow time.



Another problem attacked in the mixed level area in ADEPT is the problem of specifying the inputs to the combinational element, that could not be derived from the incoming toke (called "unknown inputs") in such a way as to generate meaningful results, usually either minimum or maximum delay.

A technique has been developed to determine the inputs that have the most influence on the delay of the combinational element (called DCIs) and setting them to the values that cause the best or worst case values. In theory, this is an exponentially complex problem, but the results, as shown here, have demonstrated that as a few inputs are known from the performance model, the number of DCIs drops dramatically, resulting in the problem quickly becoming tractable.



This is the structure of the mixed level interface in ADEPT for combinational interpreted elements that implements time expansion. When a token arrives at the input to the hybrid element, the U/I component converts values on the token to values on the combinational element's inputs and runs the DCI algorithm if need be. At the same time, the activator records the token arrival time and passes it to the evaluator. The evaluator waits the maximum combination delay time in fast time, measures the actual combination delay in fast time, and scales that up and releases the token at the proper time in slow time.



Here are some simple results from a mixed level model with a combinational element. Note that the throughput achieved by the mixed level model has the same shape as the original performance modeling results (which is good), but it is shifted as a result of having actual delay values from the behavioral component.



Another area of mixed level modeling investigated in ADEPT was that of an interpreted component that was a finite state machine with datapath (FSMD). This is an interpreted component who's function can be described by a state transition graph (STG). This is important because it allows graph algorithms to be used to analyze the STG to determine maximum and minimum delay. In addition, a requirement is that there be some outputs, either from the state machine or datapath, the can be used to determine the completion of processing for a given token arrival event.

Examples of these types of elements include a dedicated FFT chip or a floating point coprocessor.



The timing abstraction problem is easier with FSMD components as there is no settling problem - everything is resolved on a clock edge. However, the clock input to the FSMD must be generated, usually by the mixed level interface elements.

The data abstraction problem is similar to the combinational element one - how to specify the unknown inputs such that minimum or maximum delay results.



This is the structure of the mixed level interface for FSMD components. The driver and clock generator perform the U/I function and the activator performs the same function as in the previous example. The Colorer, output\_condition\_detector, and sequential\_releaser perform the functions of the evaluator, that is, determining when to release the token from the hybrid element after the proper delay time according to the interpreted component.



This figure outlines the methodology used to determine the minimum or maximum delay, in terms of clock cycles, for the FSMD interpreted component using the component's STG. First, the outputs that do not affect when the token is released are removed from the STG and the resulting STG is simplified. Next, the resulting STG is searched to find the shortest (minimum time) or longest (maximum time) path from the initial state to the final state. Finally, the inputs necessary to drive the FSMD along this path are applied to the interpreted component in the simulation.



Here are some results from an example of applying the technique to an FSMD mixed level model. In this case, it was a performance model of a processor with a fetch unit, an integer unit and a floating point unit. The floating point unit was replaced with its interpreted (behavioral) representation. The results show how the upper and lower bounds (minimum and maximum delay) on performance can be generated for the model at various levels of refinement. As the model is refined, the fraction of inputs for which the actual values are known from the performance model increase, and the bounds get tighter and finally converge. Also notice that, as is quite typical, the initial estimate of the performance as used in the high level performance model, was inaccurate.



Finally, mixed level interface elements were developed for "complex sequential elements" which are sequential elements that are too complex to describe as state machines. In this case, the interface is more ad hoc, and is targeted at solving the timing abstraction problem. The user must solve the data abstraction problem for interpreted elements such as these.

Elements that fall into this category include microprocessors, microcontrollers, and even entire computer systems.



The so called "watch and react" hybrid interface is build on the principals of logic analyzers. The interface watches the outputs of the interpreted element for certain "trigger" conditions, and when they occur, it takes the appropriate action. Likewise, when the performance model dictates that some new inputs be supplied to the interpreted component, a "program" can be executed that generates a complex set of input sequences to the interpreted component.



Here is the general structure of the watch and react interface. Both the trigger and driver element can be programmed by input files - which keeps them general in nature and avoids having the user to generate new VHDL code for a specific application.



Here is an example of the use of the watch and react interface. It is a motor control system in which an actual behavioral model of a microcontroller, along with its associated memory system has been inserted. The motor control system and its feedback mechanism are modeled at a system level using ADEPT modules.



Here are some results from the mixed level model illustrating the proper control of the motor speed. Note that the behavioral model of the microcontroller is executing an actual control program from a memory model and responding to perturbations in the motor speed in the performance model of the motor system.



## Module Outline





