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1. Introduction

Current VLSI technology allows the design of sophisticated digital systems with escalated demands in performance and power/energy consumption. The annual increase of chip complexity is 58%, while human designers productivity increase is limited to 21% per annum (ITRS, 2011). The growing technology-productivity gap is probably the most important problem in the industrial development of innovative products. A dramatic increase in designer productivity is only possible through the adoption of methodologies/tools that raise the design abstraction level, ingeniously hiding low-level, time-consuming, error-prone details. New EDA methodologies aim to generate digital designs from high-level descriptions, a process called High-Level Synthesis (HLS) (Coussy & Morawiec, 2008) or else hardware compilation (Wirth, 1998). The input to this process is an algorithmic description (for example in C/C++/SystemC) generating synthesizable and verifiable Verilog/VHDL designs (IEEE, 2006; 2009).

Our aim is to highlight aspects regarding the organization and design of the targeted hardware of such process. In this chapter, it is argued that a proper Model of Computation (MoC) for the targeted hardware is an adapted and extended form of the FSMD (Finite-State Machine with Datapath) model which is universal, well-defined and suitable for either data- or control-dominated applications. Several design examples will be presented throughout the chapter that illustrate our approach.

2. Higher-level representations of FSMDs

This section discusses issues related to higher-level representations of FSMDs (Gajski & Ramachandran, 1994) focusing on textual intermediate representations (IRs). It first provides a short overview of existing approaches focusing on the well-known GCC GIMPLE and LLVM IRs. Then the BASIL (Bit-Accurate Symbolic Intermediate Language) is introduced as a more appropriate lightweight IR for self-contained representation of FSMD-based hardware architectures. Lower-level graph-based forms are presented focusing on the CDFG (Control-Data Flow Graph) procedure-level representation using Graphviz (Graphviz, 2011) files. This section also illustrates a linear CDFG construction algorithm from BASIL. In addition, an end-to-end example is given illustrating algorithmic specifications in ANSI
C, BASIL, Graphviz CDFGs and their visualizations utilizing a 2D Euclidean distance approximation function.

2.1 Overview of compiler intermediate representations

Recent compilation frameworks provide linear IRs for applying analyses, optimizations and as input for backend code generation. GCC (GCC, 2011) supports the GIMPLE IR. Many GCC optimizations have been rewritten for GIMPLE, but it is still undergoing grammar and interface changes. The current GCC distribution incorporates backends for contemporary processors such as the Cell SPU and the baseline Xtensa application processor (Gonzalez, 2000) but it is not suitable for rapid retargeting to non-trivial and/or custom architectures. LLVM (LLVM, 2011) is a compiler framework that draws growing interest within the compilation community. The LLVM compiler uses the homonymous LLVM bitcode, a register-based IR, targeted by a C/C++ companion frontend named clang (clang homepage, 2011). It is written in a more pleasant coding style than GCC, but similarly the IR infrastructure and semantics are excessive.

Other academic infrastructures include COINS (COINS, 2011), LANCE (LANCE, 2011) and Machine-SUIF (Machine-SUIF, 2002). COINS is written entirely in Java, and supports two IRs: the HIR (high level) and the LIR (low-level) which is based on S-expressions. COINS features a powerful SSA-based optimizer, however its LISP-like IR is unsuitable for directly expressing control and data dependencies and to fully automate the construction of a machine backend. LANCE (Leupers et al., 2003) introduces an executable IR form (IR-C), which combines the simplicity of three-address code with the executability of ANSI C code. LANCE compilation passes accept and emit IR-C, which eases the integration of LANCE into third-party environments. However, ANSI C semantics are neither general nor neutral enough in order to express vastly different IR forms. Machine-SUIF is a research compiler infrastructure built around the SUIFvm IR which has both a CFG (control-flow graph) and SSA form. Past experience with this compiler has proved that it is overly difficult both to alter or extend its semantics. It appears that the Phoenix (Microsoft, 2008) compiler is a rewrite and extension of Machine-SUIF in C#. As an IR, the CIL (Common Intermediate Language) is used which is entirely stack-based, a feature that hinders the application of modern optimization techniques. Finally, CoSy (CoSy, 2011) is the prevalent commercial retargetable compiler infrastructure. It uses the CCMIR intermediate language whose specification is confidential. Most of these frameworks fall short in providing a minimal, multi-purpose compilation infrastructure that is easy to maintain and extend.

The careful design of the compiler intermediate language is a necessity, due to its dual purpose as both the program representation and an abstract target machine. Its design affects the complexity, efficiency and ease of maintenance of all compilation phases; frontend, optimizer and effortlessly retargetable backend.

The following subsection introduces the BASIL intermediate representation. BASIL supports semantic-free \( n \)-input/\( m \)-output mappings, user-defined data types, and specifies a virtual machine architecture. BASIL’s strength is its simplicity: it is inherently easy to develop a CDFG (control/data flow graph) extraction API, apply graph-based IR transformations for
domain specialization, investigate SSA (Static Single Assignment) construction algorithms and perform other compilation tasks.

### 2.2 Representing programs in BASIL

BASIL provides arbitrary $n$-to-$m$ mappings allowing the elimination of implicit side-effects, a single construct for all operations, and bit-accurate data types. It supports scalar, single-dimensional array and streamed I/O procedure arguments. BASIL statements are labels, $n$-address instructions or procedure calls.

BASIL is similar in concept to the GIMPLE and LLVM intermediate languages but with certain unique features. For example, while BASIL supports SSA form, it provides very light operation semantics. A single construct is required for supporting any given operation as an $m$-to-$n$ mapping between source and destination sites. An $n$-address operation is actually the specification of a mapping from a set of $n$ ordered inputs to a set of $m$ ordered outputs. An $n$-address instruction (or else termed as an $n$, $m$-operation) is formatted as follows:

$$\text{outp}_1, \ldots, \text{outp}_m \leq \text{operation} \ \text{inp}_1, \ldots, \text{inp}_n;$$

where:

- operation is a mnemonic referring to an IR-level instruction
- $\text{outp}_1, \ldots, \text{outp}_m$ are the $m$ outputs of the operation
- $\text{inp}_1, \ldots, \text{inp}_n$ are the $n$ inputs of the operation

In BASIL all declared objects (global variables, local variables, input and output procedure arguments) have an explicit static type specification. BASIL uses the notions of “globalvar” (a global scalar or single-dimensional array variable), “localvar” (a local scalar or single-dimensional array variable), “in” (an input argument to the given procedure), and “out” (an output argument to the given procedure).

BASIL supports bit-accurate data types for integer, fixed-point and floating-point arithmetic. Data type specifications are essentially strings that can be easily decoded by a regular expression scanner; examples are given in Table 1.

The EBNF grammar for BASIL is shown in Fig. 1 where it can be seen that rules “nac” and “pcall” provide the means for the $n$-to-$m$ generic mapping for operations and procedure calls, respectively. It is important to note that BASIL has no predefined operator set; operators are defined through a textual mnemonic.

For instance, an addition of two scalar operands is written: $a \leq \text{add} \ b, c$.

Control-transfer operations include conditional and unconditional jumps explicitly visible in
Fig. 1. EBNF grammar for BASIL.

An interesting aspect of BASIL is the support of procedures as non-atomic operations by using a similar form to operations. In $(y) \leftarrow \sqrt{x}$; the square root of an operand $x$ is computed; procedure argument lists are indicated as enclosed in parentheses.

2.3 BASIL program structure and encoding

A specification written in BASIL incorporates the complete information of a translation unit of the original program comprising of a list of “globalvar” definitions and a list of procedures (equivalently: control-flow graphs). A single BASIL procedure is captured by the following information:

- procedure name
- ordered input (output) arguments
- “localvar” definitions
- BASIL statements.
- basic block labels.

Label items point to basic block (BB) entry points and are defined as $name$, $bb$, $addr$ 3-tuples, where $name$ is the corresponding identifier, $bb$ the basic block enumeration, and $addr$ the absolute address of the statement succeeding the label.

Statements are organized in the form of a C struct or equivalently a record (in other programming languages) as shown in Fig. 2.

The Statement ADT therefore can be used to model an $(n, m)$-operation. The input and output operand lists collect operand items, as defined in the OperandItem data structure definition shown in Fig. 3.
typedef struct {
    char *mnemonic; /* Designates the statement type. */
    NodeType ntype; /* OPERATION or PROCEDURE_CALL. */
    List opnds_in; /* Collects all input operands. */
    List opnds_out; /* Collects all output operands. */
    int bb; /* Basic block number. */
    int addr; /* Absolute statement address. */
} _Statement;
typedef _Statement *Statement;

Fig. 2. C-style record for encoding a BASIL statement.

typedef struct {
    char *name; /* Identifier name. */
    char *dataspec; /* Data type string spec. */
    OperandType otype; /* Operand type representation. */
    int ix; /* Absolute operand item index. */
} _OperandItem;
typedef _OperandItem *OperandItem;

Fig. 3. C-style record for encoding an OperandItem.

The OperandItem data structure is used for representing input arguments (INVAR), output arguments (OUTVAR), local (LOCALVAR) and global (GLOBALVAR) variables and constants (CONSTANT). If using a graph-based intermediate representation, arguments and constants could use node and incoming or outgoing edge representations, while it is meaningful to represent variables as edges as long as their storage sites are not considered.

The typical BASIL program is structured as follows:

<pre>
<Global variable declarations>

procedure name_1 {
    <comma-separated input arguments>,  <comma-separated output arguments>
}
    <Local variable declarations>
    <BASIL labels, instructions, procedure calls>
}
...

procedure name_n {
    <comma-separated input arguments>,  <comma-separated output arguments>
}
    <Local variable declarations>
    <BASIL labels, instructions, procedure calls>
}
</pre>

Fig. 4. Translation unit structure for BASIL.
2.4 A basic BASIL implementation

A basic operation set for RISC-like compilation is summarized in Table 2. \( N_i (N_o) \) denotes the number of input (output) operands for each operation.

The memory access model defines dedicated address spaces per array, so that both loads and stores require the array identifier as an explicit operand. For an indexed load in C (\( b = a[i]; \)), a frontend would generate the following BASIL: \( b \leftarrow \text{load} \ a, \ i; \), while for an indexed store (\( a[i] = b; \)) it is \( a \leftarrow \text{store} \ b, \ i; \).

Pointer accesses can be handled in a similar way, although dependence extraction requires careful data flow analysis for non-trivial cases. Multi-dimensional arrays are handled through matrix flattening transformations.

2.5 CDFG construction

A novel, fast CDFG construction algorithm has been devised for both SSA and non-SSA BASIL forms producing flat CDFGs as Graphviz files (Fig. 5). A CDFG symbol table item is a node (operation, procedure call, globalvar, or constant) or edge (localvar) with user-defined attributes: the unique name, label and data type specification; node and edge type enumeration; respective order of incoming or outgoing edges; input/output argument order of a node and basic block index. Further attributes can be defined, e.g. for scheduling bookkeeping.

This approach is unique since it focuses on building the CDFG symbol table (st) from which the associated graph (cdfg) is constructed as one possible of many facets. It naturally supports loop-carried dependencies and array accesses.

2.6 Fixed-point arithmetic

The use of fixed-point arithmetic (Yates, 2009) provides an inexpensive means for improved numerical dynamic range, when artifacts due to quantization and overflow effects can be tolerated. Rounding operators are used for controlling the numerical precision involved in a series of computations; they are defined for inexact arithmetic representations such as fixed-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>((N_i, N_o))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ldc</td>
<td>Load constant</td>
<td>(1,1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neg, mov</td>
<td>Unary arithmetic op.</td>
<td>(1,1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>add, sub, abs, min, max, mul, div, mod, shl, shr</td>
<td>Binary arithmetic op.</td>
<td>(2,1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not, and, or, xor</td>
<td>Logical</td>
<td>(2,1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>szz</td>
<td>Comparison for sz: ((eq, ne, lt, le, gt, ge))</td>
<td>(2,1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muxzz</td>
<td>Conditional selection</td>
<td>(3,1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>load, store</td>
<td>Load/Store register from/to memory</td>
<td>(2,1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sxt, zxt, trunc</td>
<td>Type conversion</td>
<td>(1,1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jmpun</td>
<td>Unconditional jump</td>
<td>(0,1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jmpzz</td>
<td>Conditional jump</td>
<td>(2,2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>print</td>
<td>Diagnostic output</td>
<td>(1,0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. A set of basic operations for a BASIL-based IR.
**BASILtoCDFG()**

input List BASILs, List variables, List labels, Graph cfg;
output SymbolTable st, Graph cdfg;

begin

Insert constant, input/output arguments and global variable nodes to st;
Insert operation nodes;
Insert incoming {global/constant/input, operation} and outgoing {operation, global/output} edges;
Add control-dependence edges among operation nodes;
Add data-dependence edges among operation nodes,
extract loop-carried dependencies via cfg-reachability;
Generate cdfg from st;
end

---

Fig. 5. CDFG construction algorithm accepting BASIL input.

and floating-point. Proposed and in-use specifications for fixed-point arithmetic of related practice include:

- the C99 standard (ISO/IEC JTC1/SC22, 2007)
- lightweight custom implementations such as (Edwards, 2006)
- explicit data types with open source implementations (Mentor Graphics, 2011; SystemC, 2006)

Fixed-point arithmetic is a variant of the typical integral representation (2’s-complement signed or unsigned) where a binary point is defined, purely as a notational artifact to signify integer powers of 2 with a negative exponent. Assuming an integer part of width \( IW > 0 \) and a fractional part with \( -FW < 0 \), the VHDL-2008 \( \text{sfixed} \) data type has a range of \( 2^{IW-1} - 2^{|FW|} \) to \( -2^{IW-1} \) with a representable quantum of \( 2^{|FW|} \) (Bishop, 2010a;b). The corresponding \( \text{ufixed} \) type has the following range: \( 2^{IW} - 2^{|FW|} \) to 0. Both are defined properly given a \( IW-1:-FW \) vector range.

BASIL currently supports a proposed list of extension operators for handling fixed-point arithmetic:

- conversion from integer to fixed-point format: \( \text{i2ufx}, \text{i2sfx} \)
- conversion from fixed-point to integer format: \( \text{ufx2i}, \text{sfx2i} \)
- operand resizing: \( \text{resize} \), using three input operands; source operand \( \text{src1} \) and \( \text{src2}, \text{src3} \) as numerical values that denote the new size (high-to-low range) of the resulting fixed-point operand
- rounding primitives: \( \text{ceil}, \text{fix}, \text{floor}, \text{round}, \text{nearest}, \text{convergent} \) for rounding towards plus infinity, zero, minus infinity, and nearest (ties to greatest absolute value, plus infinity and closest even, respectively).

### 2.7 Scan-based SSA construction algorithms for BASIL

In our experiments with BASIL we have investigated minimal SSA construction schemes – the Appel (Appel, 1998) and Aycock-Horspool (Aycock & Horspool, 2000) algorithms – that don’t require the computation of the iterated dominance frontier (Cytron et al., 1991).
Table 3. Application profiling with a BASIL framework.

In traditional compilation infrastructures (GCC, LLVM) (GCC, 2011; LLVM, 2011), Cytron’s approach (Cytron et al., 1991) is preferred since it enables bit-vector dataflow frameworks and optimizations that require elaborate data structures and manipulations. It can be argued that rapid prototyping compilers, integral parts of heterogeneous design flows, would benefit from straightforward SSA construction schemes which don’t require the use of sophisticated concepts and data structures (Appel, 1998; Aycock & Horspool, 2000).

The general scheme for these methods consists of series of passes for variable numbering, φ-insertion, φ-minimization, and dead code elimination. The lists of BASIL statements, localvars and labels are all affected by the transformations.

The first algorithm presents a “really-crude” approach for variable renaming and φ-function insertion in two separate phases (Appel, 1998). In the first phase, every variable is split at BB boundaries, while in the second phase φ-functions are placed for each variable in each BB. Variable versions are actually preassigned in constant time and reflect a specific BB ordering (e.g. DFS). Thus, variable versioning starts from a positive integer \( n \), equal to the number of BBs in the given CFG.

The second algorithm does not predetermine variable versions at control-flow joins but accounts φs the same way as actual computations visible in the original CFG. Due to this fact, φ-insertion also presents dissimilarities. Both methods share common φ-minimization and dead code elimination phases.

2.8 Application profiling with BASILVM

BASIL programs can be translated to low-level C for the easy evaluation of nominal performance on an abstract machine, called BASILVM. To show the applicability of BASILVM profiling, a set of small realistic integer/fixed-point kernels has been selected: atsort (an all topological sorts algorithm (Knuth, 2011)), coins (compute change with minimum amount of coins), easter (Easter date calculations), fixsqrt (fixed-point square root (Turkowski, 1995)), perfect (perfect number detection), sieve (prime sieve of Eratosthenes) and xorshift (100 calls to George Marsaglia’s PRNG (Marsaglia, 2003) with a \( 2^{128} – 1 \) period, which passes Diehard tests).

Static and dynamic metrics have been collected in Table 3. For each application (App.), the lines of BASIL and resulting CDFGs are given in columns 2-3, number of CDFGs (\( P:\))
2.9 Representative example: 2D Euclidean distance approximation

A fast linear algorithm for approximating the euclidean distance of a point \((x, y)\) from the origin is given in (Gajski et al., 2009) by the equation:

\[
eda = \text{MAX}((0.875 \times x + 0.5 \times y), x)
\]

where 

\[
x = \text{MAX}(|a|, |b|)
\]

and

\[
y = \text{MIN}(|a|, |b|).
\]

The average error of this approximation against the integer-rounded exact value \((\text{dist} = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2})\) is 4.7% when compared to the rounded-down \([\text{dist}]\) and 3.85% to the rounded-up \([\text{dist}]\) value.

Fig. 6 shows the three relevant facets of \(eda\): ANSI C code (Fig. 6(a)), a manually derived BASIL implementation (Fig. 6(b)) and the corresponding CDFG (Fig. 6(c)). Constant multiplications have been reduced to adds, subtracts and shifts. The latter subfigure naturally also shows the ASAP schedule of the data flow graph, which is evidently of length 7.

3. Architecture and organization of extended FSMDs

This section deals with aspects of specification and design of FSMDs, especially their interface, architecture and organization, as well as communication and integration issues. The section is wrapped-up with realistic examples of CDFG mappings to FSMDs, alongside their performance investigation with the help of HDL simulations.
3.1 FSMD overview

A Finite State Machine with Data (FSMD) specification (Gajski & Ramachandran, 1994) is an upgraded version of the well-known Finite State Machine representation providing the same information as the equivalent CDFG (Gajski et al., 2009). The main difference is the introduction of embedded actions within the next state generation logic. An FSMD specification is timing-aware since it must be decided that each state is executed within a certain amount of machine cycles. Also the precise RTL semantics of operations taking place within these cycles must be determined. In this way, an FSMD can provide an accurate model of an RTL design’s performance as well as serve as a synthesizable manifestation of the designer’s intent. Depending on the RT-level specification (usually VHDL or Verilog) it can convey sufficient details for hardware synthesis to a specific target platform, e.g., Xilinx FPGA devices (Xilinx, 2011b).

3.2 Extended FSMDs

The FSMDs of our approach follow the established scheme of a Mealy FSM with computational actions embedded within state logic (Chu, 2006). In this work, the extended FSMD MoC describing the hardware architectures supports the following features, the most relevant of which will be sufficiently described and supported by short examples:

- Support of scalar and array input and output ports.
- Support of streaming inputs and outputs and allowing mixed types of input and output ports in the same design block.
- Communication with embedded block and distributed LUT memories.
- Design of a latency-insensitive local interface of the FSMD units to master FSMDs, assuming the FSMD is a locally-interfaced slave.
- Design of memory interconnects for the FSMD units.

Advanced issues in the design of FSMDs that are not covered include the following:

- Mapping of SSA-form (Cytron et al., 1991) low-level IR (BASIL) directly to hardware, by the hardware implementation of variable-argument $\phi$ functions.
- External interrupts.
- Communication to global aggregate type storage (global arrays) from within the context of both root and non-root procedures using a multiplexer-based bus controlled by a scalable arbiter.

3.2.1 Interface

The FSMDs of our approach use fully-synchronous conventions and register all their outputs (Chu, 2006; Keating & Bricaud, 2002). The control interface is rather simple, yet can service all possible designs:

- $clk$: signal from external clocking source
- $reset$ ($rst$ or $arst$): synchronous or asynchronous reset, depending on target specification
Fig. 7. FSMD I/O interface.

- **ready**: the block is ready to accept new input
- **valid**: asserted when a certain data output port is streamed-out from the block (generally it is a vector)
- **done**: end of computation for the block

*ready* signifies only the ability to accept new input (non-streamed) and does not address the status of an output (streaming or not).

Multi-dimensional data ports are feasible based on their equivalent single-dimensional flattened array type definition. Then, port selection is a matter of bitfield extraction. For instance, data input *din* is defined as:

```vhdl
din: in std_logic_vector(M*N-1 downto 0);
```

where *M*, *N* are generics. The flattened vector defines *M* input ports of width *N*. A selection of the form `din((i+1)*N-1 downto i*N)` is typical for a for-generate loop in order to synthesize iterative structures.

The following example (Fig. 8) illustrates an element-wise copy of array *b* to *c* without the use of a local array resource. Each interface array consists of 10 elements. It should be assumed that the physical content of both arrays lies in distributed LUT RAM, from which custom connections can be implemented.

Fig. 8(a) illustrates the corresponding function *func1*. The VHDL interface of *func1* is shown in Fig. 8(b), where the derived array types *b_type* and *c_type* are used for *b*, *c*, respectively. The definitions of these types can be easily devised as aliases to a basic type denoted as:

```vhdl
type cdt_type is array (9 downto 0) of std_logic_vector(31 downto 0);
```

Then, the alias for *b* is:

```vhdl
alias b_type is cdt_type;
```

### 3.2.2 Architecture and organization

The FSMDs are organized as computations allocated into *n* + 2 states, where *n* is the number of required control steps as derived by an operation scheduler. The two overhead states are the entry (*S_ENTRY*) and the exit (*S_EXIT*) states which correspond to the source and sink nodes of the control-data flow graph of the given procedure, respectively.

Fig. 9 shows the absolute minimal example of a compliant FSMD written in VHDL. The FSMD is described in a two-process style using one process for the current state logic and another process for a combined description of the next state and output logic. This code will serve as a running example for better explaining the basic concepts of the FSMD paradigm.
Fig. 8. Array-to-array copy without intermediate storage.

The example of Fig. 9(a), 9(b) implements the computation of assigning a constant value to the output port of the FSMD: \( \text{outp} \leftarrow \text{ldc} 42 \). Thus, lines 5–14 declare the interface (entity) for the hardware block, assuming that \( \text{outp} \) is a 16-bit quantity. The FSMD requires three states. In line 17, a state type enumeration is defined consisting of types \( \text{S\_ENTRY} \), \( \text{S\_EXIT} \) and \( \text{S\_1} \). Line 18 defines the signal 2-tuple for maintaining the state register, while in lines 19–20 the output register is defined. The current state logic (lines 25–34) performs asynchronous reset to all storage resources and assigns new contents to both the state and output registers. Next state and output logic (lines 37–57) decode \( \text{current\_state} \) in order to determine the necessary actions for the computational states of the FSMD. State \( \text{S\_ENTRY} \) is the idle state of the FSMD. When the FSMD is driven to this state, it is assumed ready to accept new input, thus the corresponding status output is raised. When a start prompt is given externally, the FSMD is activated and in the next cycle, state \( \text{S\_1} \) is reached. In \( \text{S\_1} \) the action of assigning \( \text{CNST\_42} \) to \( \text{outp} \) is performed. Finally, when state \( \text{S\_EXIT} \) is reached, the FSMD declares the end of all computations via \( \text{done} \) and returns to its idle state.

It should be noted that this design approach is a rather conservative one. One possible optimization that can occur in certain cases is the merging of computational states that immediately predate the sink state (\( \text{S\_EXIT} \)) with it.

Fig. 9(c) shows the timing diagram for the “minimal” design. As expected, the overall latency for computing a sample is three machine cycles.

In certain cases, input registering might be desired. This intent can be made explicit by copying input port data to an internal register. For the case of the \( \text{eda} \) algorithm, a new \texttt{localvar}, \( \text{a} \), would be introduced to perform the copy as \( \text{a} \leftarrow \text{mov in1} \). The VHDL counterpart is given as \( \text{a\_1\_next} \leftarrow \text{in1} \), making this data available through register \( \text{a\_1\_reg} \) in the following cycle. For register \( r \), signal \( r\_\text{next} \) represents the value that is available at the register input, and \( r\_\text{reg} \) the stored data in the register.
library IEEE;
use IEEE.std_logic_1164.all;
use IEEE.numeric_std.all;

entity minimal is
  port (
    clk : in std_logic;
    reset : in std_logic;
    start : in std_logic;
    outp : out std_logic_vector(15 downto 0);
    done : out std_logic;
    ready : out std_logic
  );
end minimal;

architecture fsmd of minimal is

  type state_type is 
    (S_ENTRY, S_EXIT, S_1);

  signal current_state, next_state : state_type;
  signal outp_next : std_logic_vector(15 downto 0);
  signal outp_reg : std_logic_vector(15 downto 0);
  constant CNST_42 : std_logic_vector(15 downto 0) := "0000000000101010";

  begin
    -- current state logic
    process (clk, reset)
    begin
      if (reset = '1') then
        current_state <= S_ENTRY;
        outp_reg <= (others => '0');
      elsif (clk = '1' and clk’EVENT) then
        current_state <= next_state;
        outp_reg <= outp_next;
      end if;
    end process;

    -- next state and output logic
    process (current_state, start, outp_reg)
    begin
      done <= '0';
      ready <= '0';
      outp_next <= outp_reg;
      case current_state is
        when S_ENTRY =>
          if (start = '1') then
            next_state <= S_1;
          else
            next_state <= S_ENTRY;
          end if;
        when S_1 =>
          outp_next <= CNST_42;
          next_state <= S_EXIT;
        when S_EXIT =>
          done <= '1';
          next_state <= S_ENTRY;
      end case;
    end process;

    outp <= outp_reg;
  end fsmd;

end minimal;

Fig. 9. Minimal FSMD implementation in VHDL.

3.2.3 Communication with embedded memories

Array objects can be synthesized to block RAMs in contemporary FPGAs. These embedded memories support fully synchronous read and write operations (Xilinx, 2005). A requirement for asynchronous read mandates the use of memory residing in distributed LUT storage.

In BASIL, the load and store primitives are used for describing read and write memory access. We will assume a RAM memory model with write enable, and separate data input (din) and output (dout) sharing a common address port (rwaddr). To control access to such block, a set of four non-trivial signals is needed: mem_we, a write enable signal, and the corresponding signals for addressing, data input and output.

store is the simpler operation of the two. It requires raising mem_we in a given single-cycle state so that data are stored in memory and made available in the subsequent state/machine cycle.
when STATE_1 =>
  mem_addr <= index;
  waitstate_next <= not (waitstate_reg);
  if (waitstate_reg = '1') then
    mysignal_next <= mem_dout;
    next_state <= STATE_2;
  else
    next_state <= STATE_1;
  end if;
when STATE_2 =>
  ...

Fig. 10. Wait-state-based communication for loading data from a block RAM.

Synchronous load requires the introduction of a waitstate register. This register assists in
devising a dual-cycle state for performing the load. Fig. 10 illustrates the implementation of
a load operation. During the first cycle of STATE_1 the memory block is addressed. In the
second cycle, the requested data are made available through mem_dout and are assigned to
register mysignal. This data can be read from mysignal_reg during STATE_2.

### 3.2.4 Hierarchical FSMDs

Our extended FSMD concept allows for hierarchical FSMDs defining entire systems with
calling and callee CDFGs. A two-state protocol can be used to describe a proper
communication between such FSMDs. The first state is considered as the “preparation” state
for the communication, while the latter state actually comprises an “evaluation” superstate
where the entire computation applied by the callee FSMD is effectively hidden.

The calling FSMD performs computations where new values are assigned to *_next signals
and registered values are read from *_reg signals. To avoid the problem of multiple signal
drivers, callee procedure instances produce *_eval data outputs that can then be connected
to register inputs by hardwiring to the *_next signal.

Fig. 11 illustrates a procedure call to an integer square root evaluation procedure. This
procedure uses one input and one output std_logic_vector operands, both considered
to represent integer values. Thus, a procedure call of the form (m) <= isqrt(x);
is implemented by the given code segment in Fig. 11.

STATE_1 sets up the callee instance. The following state is a superstate where control is
transferred to the component instance of the callee. When the callee instance terminates its
computation, the ready signal is raised. Since the start signal of the callee is kept low, the
generated output data can be transferred to the m register via its m_next input port. Control
then is handed over to state STATE_3.

The callee instance follows the established FSMD interface, reading x_reg data and
producing an exact integer square root in m_eval. Multiple copies of a given callee are
supported by versioning of the component instances.
when STATE_1 =>
isqrt_start <= '1';
next_state <= SUPERSTATE_2;
when SUPERSTATE_2 =>
  if ((isqrt_ready = '1') and (isqrt_start = '0')) then
    m_next <= m_eval;
    next_state <= STATE_3;
  else
    next_state <= SUPERSTATE_2;
  end if;
when STATE_3 =>
...
isqrt_0 : entity WORK.isqrt(fsmd)
port map (
  clk, reset,
  isqrt_start, x_reg, m_eval,
  isqrt_done, isqrt_ready
);

Fig. 11. State-superstate-based communication of a caller and callee procedure instance in VHDL.

{B} <= func1 (A);
{C} <= func2 (B);
{D} <= func3 (C);
...

Fig. 12. Example of a functional pipeline in BASIL.

3.2.5 Streaming ports

ANSI C is the archetypical example of a general-purpose imperative language that does not support streaming primitives, i.e. it is not possible for someone to express and process streams solely based on the semantics of such language. Streaming (e.g. through queues) suits applications with near-complete absence of control flow. Such example would be the functional pipeline of the form of Fig. 12 with A, B, C, D either compound types (arrays/vectors). Control flow in general applications is complex and it is not easy to intermix streamed and non-streamed inputs/outputs for each FSMD, either calling or callee.

3.2.6 Other issues

3.2.6.1 VHDL packages for implicit fixed-point arithmetic support

The latest approved IEEE 1076 standard (termed VHDL-2008) (IEEE, 2009) adds signed and unsigned (sfixed, ufixed) fixed-point data types and a set of primitives for their manipulation. The VHDL fixed-point package provides synthesizable implementations of fixed-point primitives for arithmetic, scaling and operand resizing (Ashenden & Lewis, 2008).

3.2.6.2 Design organization of an FSMD hardware IP

A proper FSMD hardware IP should seamlessly integrate to a hypothetical system. FSMD IPs would be viewed as black boxes adhering to certain principles such as registered outputs.
Unconstrained vectors help in maintaining generic blocks without the need of explicit generics, and it is an interesting idea, however not easily applicable when derived types are involved.

The outer product of two vectors $A$ and $B$ could be a theoretical case for a hardware block. The outer (or “cross”) product is given by $C = A \times B$ or $C = \text{cross}(A, B)$ for reading two matrices $A, B$ to calculate $C$. Matrices $A, B, C$ will have appropriate derived types that are declared in the `cross_pkg.vhd` package; a prerequisite for using the `cross.vhd` design file.

Regarding the block internals, the cross product of $A, B$ is calculated and stored in a `localvar` array called $C_{local}$. $C_{local}$ is then copied (possibly in parallel) to the $C$ interface array with the help of a `for-generate` construct.

### 3.2.6.3 High-level optimizations relevant to hardware block development

Very important optimizations for increasing the efficiency of system-level communication are matrix flattening and argument globalization. The latter optimization is related to choices at the hardware interconnect level.

Matrix flattening deals with reducing the dimensions of an array from $N$ to one. This optimization creates multiple benefits:

- addressing simplification
- direct mapping to physical memory (where addressing is naturally single-dimensional)
- interface and communication simplifications

Argument globalization is useful for replacing multiple copies of a given array by a single-access “globalvar” array. One important benefit is the prevention of exhausting interconnect resources. This optimization is feasible for single-threaded applications. For the example in Fig. 12 we assume that all changes can be applied sequentially on the $B$ array, and that all original data are stored in $A$.

The aforementioned optimization would rapidly increase the number of “globalvar” arrays. A “safe” but conservative approach would apply a restriction on “globalvar” access, allowing access to globals only by the root procedure of the call graph. This can be overcome by the development of a bus-based hardware interface for “globalvar” arrays making globals accessible by any procedure.

### 3.2.6.4 Low-level optimizations relevant to hardware block development

A significant low-level optimization that can boost performance while operating locally at the basic block level is operation chaining. A scheduler supporting this optimization

```vhdl
globalvar B [...] = ...;
...
() <= func1 (A);
() <= func2 ();
() <= func3 ();
```
would assign to a single control step, multiple operations that are associated through data dependencies. Operation chaining is popular for deriving custom instructions or superinstructions that can be added to processor cores as instruction-set extensions (Pozzi et al., 2006). Most techniques require a form of graph partitioning based on certain criteria such as the maximum acceptable path delay.

A hardware developer could resort in a simpler means for selective operation chaining by merging ASAP states to compound states. This optimization is only possible when a single definition site is used per variable (thus SSA form is mandatory). Then, an intermediate register is eliminated by assigning to a $\star_{\text{next}}$ signal and reusing this value in the subsequent chained computation, instead of reading from the stored $\star_{\text{reg}}$ value.

### 3.3 Hardware design of the 2D Euclidean distance approximation

The eda algorithm shows good potential for speedup via operation chaining. Without this optimization, 7 cycles are required for computing the approximation, while chaining allows to squeeze all computational states into one; thus three cycles are needed to complete the operation. Fig. 14 depicts VHDL code segments for an ASAP schedule with chaining disabled (Fig. 14(a)) and enabled (Fig. 14(b)). Figures 14(c) and 14(d) show cycle timings for the relevant I/O signals for both cases.

### 4. Non-trivial examples

#### 4.1 Integer factorization

The prime factorization algorithm ($p\text{factor}$) is a paramount example of the use of streaming outputs. Output $\text{out}$ is streaming and the data stemming from this port should be accessed based on the valid status. The reader can observe that $\text{out}$ is accessed periodically in context of basic block BB3 as shown in Fig. 15(b).

Fig. 15 shows the four relevant facets of $p\text{factor}$: ANSI C code (Fig. 15(a)), a manually derived BASIL implementation (Fig. 15(b)) and the corresponding CFG (Fig. 15(c)) and CDFG (Fig. 15(d)) views.

Fig. 16 shows the interface signals for factoring values 6 (a composite), 7 (a prime), and 8 (a composite which is also a power-of-2).

#### 4.2 Multi-function CORDIC

This example illustrates a universal CORDIC IP core supporting all directions (ROTATION, VECTORING) and modes (CIRCULAR, LINEAR, HYPERBOLIC) (Andraka, 1998; Volder, 1959). The input/output interface is similar to e.g. the CORDIC IP generated by Xilinx Core Generator (Xilinx, 2011a). It provides three data inputs ($x_{in}, y_{in}, z_{in}$) and three data outputs ($x_{out}, y_{out}, z_{out}$) as well as the direction and mode control inputs. The testbench will test the core for computing $\cos(x_{in}), \sin(y_{in}), \arctan(y_{in}/x_{in}), y_{in}/x_{in}, \sqrt{w}, 1/\sqrt{w}$, with $x_{in} = w + 1/4, y_{in} = w - 1/4$, but it can be used for anything computable by CORDIC iterations. The computation of $1/\sqrt{w}$ is performed in two stages: a) $y = 1/w$, b) $z = \sqrt{y}$. The
type state_type is (S_ENTRY, S_EXIT, S_1_1, S_1_2, S_1_3, S_1_4, S_1_5, S_1_6, S_1_7);

signal current_state, next_state: state_type;

... case current_state is
when S_ENTRY =>
    if start = '1' then
        next_state <= S_1_1;
    else
        next_state <= S_ENTRY;
    end if;
... when S_1_3 =>
    t3_next <= x_next(15 downto 3);
    t4_next <= y_next(15 downto 1);
    next_state <= S_1_4;
... when S_1_4 =>
    t5_next <= std_logic_vector(unsigned(x_next) - unsigned(t3_reg));
    next_state <= S_1_5;
... when S_1_5 =>
    t6_next <= std_logic_vector(unsigned(t4_reg) + unsigned(t5_reg));
    next_state <= S_1_6;
... when S_1_6 =>
    out1_next <= t7_reg;
    next_state <= S_EXIT;
... when S_1_7 =>
    out1_next <= t7_reg;
    next_state <= S_ENTRY;
... when S_EXIT =>
done <= '1';
    next_state <= S_ENTRY;
... end case;

(a) VHDL code without chaining.

(b) VHDL code with chaining.

(c) Timing diagram without chaining.

(d) Timing diagram with chaining.

Fig. 14. FSMD implementation in VHDL and timing for the eda algorithm.
void pfactor(unsigned int x, 
unsigned int *outp) 
{
unsigned int i, n;
i = 2;
while (i <= n) 
{
while ((n % i) == 0) 
{
    n = n / i;
    // emitting to file stream
    PRINT(i);
    outp = mov i;
    } 
i = i + 1;
}
}

procedure pfactor (in u16 x, out u16 outp) 
{
localvar u16 i, n, t0;
BB1:
    n = mov x;
    i = ldc 2;
BB2:
    BB3, BB_EXIT = jmpl eq i, n;
BB3:
    t0 = rem n, i;
BB4, BB5 = jmpeq t0, 0;
BB4:
    n = div n, i;
outp = mov i;
BB3:
    BB5:
    i = add i, 1;
BB2:
BB_EXIT:
    nop;
}

Fig. 15. Different facets of a prime factorization algorithm.
Fig. 16. Non-trivial interface signals for the pfactor FSMD design.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Design</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Max. frequency</th>
<th>Area (LUTs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cordic1cyc</td>
<td>1-cycle/iteration; uses asynchronous read LUT RAM</td>
<td>204.5</td>
<td>741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cordic5cyc</td>
<td>5-cycles/iteration; uses synchronous read (Block) RAM</td>
<td>271.5</td>
<td>571, 1 BRAM</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Logic synthesis results for multi-function CORDIC.

design is a monolithic FSMD that does not include post-processing needed such as the scaling operation for the square root.

The FSMD for the CORDIC uses Q2.14 fixed-point arithmetic. While the required lines of ANSI C code are 29, the hand-coded BASIL representation uses 56 lines; the CDFG representation and the VHDL design, 178 and 436, respectively, showing a clear tendency among the different abstraction levels used for design representation.

The core achieves 18 (CIRCULAR, LINEAR) and 19 cycles (HYPERBOLIC) per sample or \( n + 4 \) and \( n + 5 \) cycles, respectively, where \( n \) is the fractional bitwidth. When the operation chaining optimization is not applied, 5 cycles per iteration are required instead of a single cycle where all operations all collapsed. A single-cycle per iteration constraint imposes the use of distributed LUT RAM, otherwise 3 cycles are required per sample.

Fig.17(a) shows a C-like implementation of the multi-function CORDIC inspired by recent work (Arndt, 2010; Williamson, 2011). CNTAB is equivalent to fractional width \( n \), HYPER, LIN and CIRC are shortened names for CORDIC modes and ROTN for the rotation direction, \( \text{cordic\_tab} \) is the array of CORDIC coefficients and \( \text{cordic\_hyp\_steps} \) an auxiliary table handling repeated iterations for hyperbolic functions. \( \text{cordic\_tab} \) is used to access coefficients for all modes with different offsets (0, 14 or 28 for our case).

Table 4 illustrates synthesis statistics for two CORDIC designs. The logic synthesis results with Xilinx ISE 12.3i reveal a 217MHz (estimated) design when branching is entirely eliminated in the CORDIC loop, otherwise a faster design can be achieved (271.5 MHz). Both cycles and MHz could be improved by source optimization, loop unrolling for pipelining, and the use of embedded multipliers (pseudo-CORDIC) that would eliminate some of the branching needed in the CORDIC loop.
```c
void cordic(dir, mode, xin, yin, zin, *xout, *yout, *zout) {
...
x = xin; y = yin; z = zin;
offset = (mode == HYPER) ? 0 : (mode == LIN) ? 14 : 28);
kfinal = (mode != HYPER) ? 0 : (mode == LIN) ? 14 : 28;
for (k = 0; k < kfinal; k++) {
    d = (dir == ROTN) ? 0 : (y < 0) ? 1 : 0);
    kk = (mode != HYPER) ? k : k + 1;
    xbyk = x >> kk;
ybyk = (mode == HYPER) ? y >> kk : (mode == LIN) ? 0 : (y << kk);
    tabval = cordic_tab[kk + offset];
x1 = x - ybyk; x2 = x + ybyk;
y1 = y + xbyk; y2 = y - xbyk;
z1 = z - tabval; z2 = z + tabval;
x = (d == 0) ? x1 : x2;
y = (d == 0) ? y1 : y2;
z = (d == 0) ? z1 : z2;
*xout = x; *yout = y; *zout = z;
}
```

(a) C-like code.

```vhdl
process (*)
begin
... case current_state is ...
  when S_3 =>
    t1_next <= cordic_hyp_steps(
        to_integer(unsigned(k_reg[3 downto 0])));
    if (mode /= CNST_2) then
      kk_next <= k_reg;
    else
      kk_next <= t1_next;
    end if;
    t2_next <= shr(y_reg, kk_next, '1');
...
  when S_4 =>
    xout_next <= x_5_reg;
yout_next <= y_5_reg;
zout_next <= z_5_reg;
next_state <= S_EXIT;
...
end process;
zout <= zout_reg;
yout <= yout_reg;
xout <= xout_reg;
```

(b) Partial VHDL code.

Fig. 17. Multi-function CORDIC listings.
5. Conclusion

In this chapter, a straightforward FSMD-style model of computation was introduced that augments existing approaches. Our FSMD concept supports inter-FSMD communication, embedded memories, streaming outputs, and seamless integration of user IPs/black boxes. To raise the level of design abstraction, the BASIL typed assembly language is introduced which can be used for capturing the user’s intend. We show that it is possible to convert this intermediate representation to self-contained CDFGs and finally to provide an easier path for designing a synthesizable VHDL implementation.

Along the course of this chapter, representative examples were used to illustrate the key concepts of our approach such as a prime factorization algorithm and an improved FSMD design of a multi-function CORDIC.

6. References


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COINS (2011).


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Nowadays, embedded systems - the computer systems that are embedded in various kinds of devices and play an important role of specific control functions, have permitted various aspects of industry. Therefore, we can hardly discuss our life and society from now onwards without referring to embedded systems. For wide-ranging embedded systems to continue their growth, a number of high-quality fundamental and applied researches are indispensable. This book contains 19 excellent chapters and addresses a wide spectrum of research topics on embedded systems, including basic researches, theoretical studies, and practical work. Embedded systems can be made only after fusing miscellaneous technologies together. Various technologies condensed in this book will be helpful to researchers and engineers around the world.

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