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# FAST HARDWARE IMPLEMENTATIONS OF STATIC P SYSTEMS

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**Abstract.** In this article we present a simulator of non-deterministic static P systems using Field Programmable Gate Array (FPGA) technology. Its major feature is a high performance, achieving a constant processing time for each transition. Our approach is based on representing all possible applications as words of some regular context-free language. Then, using formal power series it is possible to obtain the number of possibilities and select one of them following a uniform distribution, in a fair and non-deterministic way. According to these ideas, we yield an implementation whose results show an important speed-up, with a strong independence from the size of the P system.

**Keywords:** Reconfigurable hardware, P systems, static P systems, FPGA, membrane computing, parallel implementations of membrane computing, simulator of

membrane computing, hardware implementations of membrane computing, parallel implementations of static P systems, simulator of static P systems

Mathematics Subject Classification 2010: 94-04, 68-04, 68U20

### **1 INTRODUCTION**

The beginning of the membrane computing goes back to the end of the nineties, when G. Păun introduced it [1]. This area gets its essence of living cells and, in consequence, the first models are defined as a hierarchical structure or a tree topology of compartments (membranes that delimits cells), which contains objects (chemicals), which evolves according to applicability rules (chemical reactions). Using this concept as a starting point, more variations, based on more biological processes which take place in living cells, have been detailed during following years (and it continues nowadays). One of the most relevant modifications was the introduction of the tissue P systems [2], in which the tree topology of the structure of membranes is substituted for a graph topology, where the structure is composed by cells, instead of tree nodes [3].

This work is based on the formal framework introduced in [4], in which a general class of multiset rewriting system, which contains P systems and tissue P systems, is designed. So, this section only describes, in a non-formal way, the most relevant aspects for the introduced work. For more details about P systems, we refer to the books [3, 5], and to [4] for specific information relative to the formal framework.

A P system,  $\Pi$ , can be describe as a network of cells

$$\Pi = (n, V, w, Inf, R), \tag{1}$$

where

- *n* is the number of cells.
- V is the alphabet, which contains symbols for each object in the system.
- w is a tuple  $(w_1, \ldots, w_n)$ , where  $w_i$  corresponds to the multiset of objects  $(o \in V)$  contained in cell i.
- Inf represents which symbols are provided by the environment. In this case, a cell can receive an infinite number of objects.  $Inf = (Inf_1, \ldots, Inf_n)$ , where  $Inf_i \subseteq V$  determines which elements of the alphabet are received by cell *i* from the environment.
- R is a finite set of rules,  $r_i$ , with the form  $r_i : X \to Y; P, Q, X \to Y$  are vectors of multisets, which can be written as  $((x_1, 1), \ldots, (x_n, n)) \to ((y_1, 1), \ldots, (y_n, n))$ , meaning that objects in X, also called  $lhs(r_i)$ , left-hand-side of  $r_i$ , are consumed by the evolving rule, whereas objects in Y, also called  $rhs(r_i)$ , right-hand-side of  $r_i$ , are produced. Attending to P and Q, they are also vectors of multisets,

called permitting and forbidding conditions, but in the form  $P = (p_1, \ldots, p_n)$ and  $Q = (q_1, \ldots, q_n)$ . These last ones affect the applicability of the rule in the following way: a rule can be applied, or is applicable, if all elements in P are contained by the cells and none of the elements in Q are contained by them. Obviously, it is necessary that there also exist all elements which are going to be consumed by the rule, i.e. all elements in X.

For the design of the simulator, we have only considered static tissue-like P systems. According to above definition, a P system is static when its cells do not change along the computation. Moreover, in order to reduce complexity, we have removed the permitting and forbidding conditions from the original rule definition. As it is shown in Section 5, these elements can be added easily to the simulator.

The computation of any P system starts with its initial configuration  $C_0$ . A configuration describes the state of the system at a particular time. So, in the case of a static P system, the objects contained in each cell of the system are only required, because the structure does not change along the computation. In consequence, the computation begins with  $C_0 = w$  and, from this state, the system evolves to next configuration  $C_1$  by means of application of rules, what is called a computation step, and continues until a halt condition is reached. We will not enter into details about halting conditions, they are discussed in the bibliography suggested above. However, the most typical conditions take place when the system reaches a configuration in which it is not possible to apply any rule, called total halting condition; or it is equal to previous configuration, i.e. although rules which can be applied exist, their application does not change the configuration, called adult halting condition.

For our purpose, the most interesting aspect of P systems is the computation step, i.e., how they evolve from a configuration  $C_i$ , to the next one,  $C_{i+1}$ . This process is described below.

- 1. At the beginning of the step, the system has a configuration  $C_i$ .
- 2. Given  $C_i$ , there will be rules which can be applied, called as applicable rules, and others which cannot. According to some restrictions, called as derivation mode  $(\delta)$ , it is possible to define multisets of applicable rules. We define  $Appl(\Pi, C_i, \delta)$  as the set of all multisets of applicable rules which verify the restrictions imposed by  $\delta$ . We note that Appl is associated to a P system  $\Pi$ , a configuration  $C_i$  and a derivation mode  $\delta$ . Hence, computing  $Appl(\Pi, C_i, \delta)$ will be the first mini-step.

As the reader can deduce, derivation modes play an important role in the semantic of the model. They can be seen as some restrictions which should be accomplished by a multiset of applicable rules, R, to be included in the *Appl* set. There are several types, and we refer again to bibliography for more details. Maximal parallelism, max, was the first derivation mode and the most used until now. In an informal way, it says that a multiset of applicable rules, R, can be included in *Appl* if, and only if it does not exist another rule, not included in R, and which can be applied; in other words, if we remove from the system all objects consumed by rules in R, there will not be enough resources so that another rule can be applied. Formally, maximal parallelism is defined as:

$$Appl(\Pi, C, max) = \{R' | R' \in Appl(\Pi, C) \text{ and} \\ \nexists R'' \in Appl(\Pi, C) \text{ such that } R'' \supsetneq R'\}.$$
(2)

- 3. Once the  $Appl(\Pi, C, \delta)$  has been computed, an element R must be selected from it. The criteria which must be followed depends on the type of P system. An example is extracting an element following an equi-probable distribution, i.e., all elements have the same probability of being chosen.
- 4. Finally, the last mini-step is applying the selected R. It consists in, for each rule  $r : (X \to Y; P, Q)$  in R, removing all objects contained in X and adding all those ones contained in Y. After that, a new next configuration,  $C_{i+1}$ , is obtained.

In this paper we detail basic ideas about simulation of non-deterministic P systems with a choice of the applicable set of rules following a uniform distribution. Our point of view is slightly different from other approaches, achieving a performance close to an ideal. Although it implies a loss of flexibility, reducing the range of input P systems, it is worth to note that the acceptance of a P system does not depend on its class, as it happens in other simulators, but on the complexity of the dependences of its rules, achieving a wide range of target P systems. In order to exemplify our approach, we present a hardware implementation using FPGA technology and based on our ideas, with a performance of around  $2 \times 10^7$  computational steps per second, independently of the number of used rules or types of objects.

This paper is organized as follows. Firstly, in Section 2 we describe previous implementations of P systems simulators, focusing on those ones using FPGA technology. Besides, we give a brief introduction to the theory of formal power series (Subsection 2.1), giving examples of the computation of generating series for different languages. In Section 3 we explain our method of pre-computation of all possible applications of rules (Subsection 3.1), and the general architecture of our simulator (Subsection 3.2). Section 4 gives an example of a FPGA implementation of a concrete P system using our ideas: firstly, we present the mathematical details concerning the example, secondly, Subsection 4.1 overviews the specific hardware design for the simulator and lastly, Subsection 4.2 presents the obtained results. Finally, in Section 5 we discuss about some improvements and future research tasks, and in Section 6 we summarize our conclusions.

### **2 PRELIMINARIES**

The problem of computer simulation of different variants of P systems arose at the very beginning of the area development. The first software simulators [6, 7] were quite inefficient, but they provided an important understanding of related problems. Since most variants of P systems are by definition inherently parallel and non-deterministic, it is natural to use distributed or parallel architectures in order to achieve better performances [8, 9, 10].

Another fruitful idea is to use a specialized hardware for the simulation. This approach was taken in [11, 12] using FPGA reconfigurable hardware technology. The first implementation from [11] is based on region processors which have rules as instructions and multiplicity of objects as data. Although it has several limitations what limits its performance (parallelism across membranes only and a reduced extensibility and scalability), it demonstrates that P systems can be executed on FPGAs. In the other [12, 13, 14] two possible designs are detailed: rule-oriented and region-oriented systems. In the first one, each rule is considered as a basic processing unit and, in consequence, has a specific hardware core. As a result, the system achieves a maximum degree of parallelism, because of all rules are executed in parallel by specific hardware components. In the second case, the basic processing units are regions. Thus, communication between regions acquire more relevance: local rules are processed by the region processors and, after that, a communication process between regions takes place in order to update the multiplicity of objects. In both architectures, there is a control logic which synchronizes the operations of processing units and updating of registers what saves the configuration of the system. How registers are grouped and what is considered as a basic processing unit depends on the approach (rules or regions).

An important point for a (parallel) computing platform for membrane computing is to achieve a good balance between performance, flexibility and scalability. This is especially important for hardware simulators because the high performance comes often at an important price of flexibility or scalability. The important drawback of FPGA simulators from [11, 12] is that they suppose that the evolution of a P system is deterministic, and thus these simulators will yield always the same result for the same initial configuration. However, the non-determinism in P systems plays an important role and its absence reduces drastically the classes of P systems that can be used with the above simulators.

Furthermore, the simulators are based on the model detailed in the foundational article [1]. As a consequence, they have strong restrictions about topology, type of objects and rules of the P system. So, a more flexible simulator would be desirable. In that way, some theoretical results, as [4], can be a starting point in order to develop a simulator which covers most of the restrictions about topology, rules and objects, that is to get a more flexible one.

#### 2.1 Context-Free Grammars as Generators of Formal Power Series

We assume that the reader is familiar with some notions from the formal power series theory, especially related to the theory of formal languages. We suggest reading of [15] for more details on this topic. We denote by |w| the length of the word w or the cardinality of the multiset or set w. For our purposes we consider that a formal power series f is a mapping  $f : A^* \to \mathbb{N}$ , where A is an alphabet and  $\mathbb{N}$  is the set of non-negative integers (in the general case a formal power series is a mapping from a free monoid to a semiring). This mapping is usually written as

$$f = \sum_{w \in A^*} f(w)w.$$
(3)

It is known that a context-free grammar G = (N, T, S, P) can be seen as a set of equations  $x_i = \alpha_1 + \cdots + \alpha_{n_i}$ , for each non-terminal  $x_i$  of G, where  $\alpha_j$  are the right-hand sides of productions  $x_i \to \alpha_j$ ,  $1 \le j \le n_i$ . A solution of G is a set of formal power series  $s_1, \ldots, s_k$ , such that the substitution of  $x_i$  by  $s_i$  in above equations converts them to the identity, i.e., corresponding series are equal term by term. It is well known [16] that  $s_i = \sum_{w \in A^*} f_i(w)w$ , where  $f_i(w)$  is the number of distinct leftmost derivations of w starting from  $x_i$ . Under the mapping that sends any symbol from A to the same symbol, say x, we obtain the generating series for a non-terminal  $x_i$ :

$$f_{i} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{|w|=n} f_{i}(w) x^{n}.$$
 (4)

Let  $f_i(n) = \sum_{|w|=n} f_i(w)$ . Then the above equation can be rewritten as:

$$f_i = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_i(n) x^n.$$
(5)

Suppose that  $x_1 = S$ , where S is the starting symbol of G. Then  $f_1$  is called the generating series of G. If G is unambiguous, then  $f_1(n)$  gives the number of words of length n in G. We denote by  $[x^n]f$  the n<sup>th</sup> coefficient of f, i.e.  $[x^n]f = f(n)$ .

Let  $\phi$  be the morphism defined by

$$\begin{aligned}
\phi(\lambda) &= 1, \\
\phi(a) &= x, \quad \forall a \in T, \\
\phi(x_i) &= f_i, \quad x_i \in N.
\end{aligned}$$
(6)

Let  $x_i \to v_{i1} \mid \cdots \mid v_{ik}$  be the set of productions associated to  $x_i$ . Then  $f_i$  can be obtained as the solution of the following system of equations:

$$f_i = \sum_{j=1}^k \phi(v_{ij}). \tag{7}$$

For a regular grammar G the system (7) becomes linear. By considering a finite automaton  $\mathcal{A} = (V, \mathbb{Q}, q_0, Q_f, \delta)$  equivalent to G we obtain that system (7) corresponds to the following system (recall that x is considered as a constant)

$$Q = xMQ + F, (8)$$

where:

- $Q = [q_1 \dots q_n]^t, q_i \in \mathbb{Q}, 1 \le i \le n$  is the vector containing all states.
- $F = [a_0 \dots a_n]^t$ , is the final state characteristic vector, i.e.,  $a_i = 1$  if  $q_i$  is a final state and 0 otherwise.
- M is the transfer matrix of the automaton  $\mathcal{A}$ , i.e. the incidence matrix of the graph represented by  $\mathcal{A}$  with negative values replaced by zero.

We remark that in the case of a regular language it is also possible to count the number of words of length n by summing the columns corresponding to the final states of the  $n^{\text{th}}$  power of the transfer matrix of the corresponding automaton:

$$f_i(n) = \sum_{q_j \in Q_f} (M^n)_{i,j}.$$
(9)

It is known that the generating series f for a regular language is rational. That implies that there exists a finite recurrence  $f(n) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} a_j f(n-j), k > 0, a_j \in \mathbb{Z}$  which holds for large n.

**Example 1.** Considering the regular language  $L_I$  recognized by the following automaton



the final state characteristic vector F of this automaton is defined by  $F = [0, 1, 0, 1, 0]^t$  and the transfer matrix M by

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (10)

The corresponding system (8) of linear equations has the following solution:

$$q_{0} = \frac{x^{3} + 2x^{2} + x}{1 - x^{2} - x^{3}},$$

$$q_{1} = \frac{x + 1}{1 - x^{2} - x^{3}},$$

$$q_{2} = \frac{x^{2} + x}{1 - x^{2} - x^{3}},$$

$$q_{3} = \frac{x^{2} + x + 1}{1 - x^{2} - x^{3}},$$

$$q_{4} = \frac{x^{2} + x}{1 - x^{2} - x^{3}}.$$
(11)

We can expand  $q_0$  to obtain  $q_0(n)$  (=  $[x^n]q_0$ ),

$$q_0 = x + 2x^2 + 2x^3 + 3x^4 + 4x^5 + 5x^6 + 7x^7 + 9x^8 + \dots$$
(12)

The coefficients of the above series give the number of words of the corresponding length. For example, there are 9 words of length 8 in  $L_I$ .

It is not difficult to verify that the obtained coefficients  $[x^n]q_k$ ,  $0 \le k \le 4$ , of the corresponding power series are particular cases of the Padovan sequence  $q_k(n) = q_k(n-2) + q_k(n-3)$ , n > 3, with the following starting values:

k	$q_k(0)$	$q_k(1)$	$q_k(2)$
0	1	1	2
1	1	1	1
2	0	1	1
3	1	1	2
4	0	1	1

### **3 DESIGN OF THE SIMULATOR**

### 3.1 Formal Part

As it was detailed in Section 1, there are several features of a static P system which define it: topology, type of objects, rules, derivation mode and how a multiset of rules is chosen from the Appl set. The formal framework lets us remove the topology, type of objects and rules from this list. Hence we must only worry about the application of the rules. In this section, we consider a (static) P system,  $\Pi$ , of any type evolving in any derivation mode, chosen a multiset of rules in a nondeterministic way. The main idea for the construction of a fast simulator is to avoid the computation of the set  $Appl(\Pi, C, \delta)$  and to compute R, the multiset of rules to be applied directly. In this article we are interested in algorithms that permit to

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perform this computation on FPGA in *constant* time. We remark that, in a digital FPGA circuit synchronized by a global clock signal, in one cycle of FPGA, it is possible to compute any function where implementation has a delay which does not exceed the period of the global clock signal. A pipeline using arithmetical operations and, in general, any combinatorial and sequential asynchronous subsystems, are usually included in this group.

In order to simplify the problem we split it into two parts corresponding to the construction of the following *recursive* functions:

### *NBVariants* $(\Pi, C, \delta)$ :

gives the cardinality of the set  $Appl(\Pi, C, \delta)$ .

**Variant** $(n, \Pi, C, \delta)$ , where  $1 \le n \le NBVariants(\Pi, C, \delta)$ : gives the multiset of rules corresponding to the  $n^{\text{th}}$  element of some initially fixed enumeration of  $Appl(\Pi, C, \delta)$ .

It is clear that if each function is computed in constant time, then the multiset of rules to be applied can also be computed in a constant time. In the following, we will discuss methods for the construction of these two functions for different classes of P systems.

We will need the notion of the rules' dependence graph. This is a weighted bipartite graph where the first partition U contains a node labeled by a for each object a of  $\Pi$ , while the second partition V contains a node labeled by r for each rule r of  $\Pi$ . There is an edge between a node  $r \in V$  and a node  $a \in U$  labeled by a weight k if  $a^k \in lhs(r)$  (and  $a^{k+1} \notin lhs(r)$ ).

**Example 2.** Considering a P system  $\Pi_1$  having two rules  $r_1 : ab \to u$  and  $r_2 : bc \to v$ . These rules have the following dependence graph:



Let  $N_a, N_b$  and  $N_c$  be the number of objects a, b and c in a configuration C. We define

$$N_1 = \min(N_a, N_b),$$

$$N_2 = \min(N_b, N_c),$$

$$N = \min(N_1, N_2).$$
(13)

Suppose that  $\Pi$  evolves in a maximally parallel derivation mode. Then the set  $Appl(\Pi, C, max)$  can be computed as follows:

$$Appl(\Pi, C, max) = \bigcup_{p+q=N} \left\{ r_1^{p+k_1} r_2^{q+k_2} \right\},$$
(14)

where  $k_j = N_j \ominus N$ ,  $1 \le j \le 2$ , where  $\ominus$  is the positive subtraction operation.<sup>1</sup> The dependence of  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  is captured by condition p + q = N, considering p and q are greater than N, while  $k_j$  cover those situations in which  $N_j > N$ .

From this representation it is clear that  $NBVariants(\Pi, C, max) = N + 1$ , which can be computed in constant time on an FPGA.

The  $Variant(n, \Pi, C, max)$  function can be defined as the  $n^{\text{th}}$  element in the lexicographical ordering of elements of  $Appl(\Pi, C, max)$  and it has the following formula

$$Variant(n, \Pi, C, max) = r_1^{N-n-1+k_1} r_2^{n-1+k_2}.$$
(15)

We remark that the above formula can also be computed in constant time using an FPGA.

We could obtain the *NBVariants* formula using formal power series. In order to do this we observe that the language  $\bigcup_{N>0} L_N$ , where  $L_N = \{r_1^p r_2^q \mid p+q=N\}$  is regular. Moreover, it holds that  $L_N = r_1^* r_2^* \cap A^N$ , with A being the alphabet  $\{r_1, r_2\}$ . Below we give the automaton  $A_1$  for the language  $r_1^* r_2^*$ .



The transfer matrix of this automaton is  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  and the final state characteristic vector is  $[1, 1]^t$ . Using Equation (8) this yields the generating function for  $L_N$ :  $q_0 = \frac{1}{(1-x)^2}$ . It is easy to verify that  $[x^n]q_0 = n + 1$ .

We modify the previous example by considering weighted rules.

**Example 3.** Considering a P system  $\Pi_1$  having two rules  $r_1 : a^{k_a}b^{k_{b1}} \to u$  and  $r_2 : b^{k_{b2}}c^{k_c} \to v$ . These rules have the following dependence graph:



Let  $N_a, N_b$  and  $N_c$  be the number of objects a, b and c in a configuration C. We define

$$N_{1} = \min([N_{a}/k_{a}], [N_{b}/k_{b1}]),$$

$$N_{2} = \min([N_{b}/k_{b2}], [N_{c}/k_{c}]),$$

$$N = \min(N_{1}, N_{2}),$$

$$\bar{N} = \min(k_{b1}N_{1}, k_{b2}N_{2}).$$
(16)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>  $a \ominus b$  is equal to a - b when a > b and 0 otherwise.

Supposing that  $\Pi$  evolves in a maximally parallel derivation mode. Let  $A_2$  be the automaton recognizing the language  $(r_1^{kb1})^*(r_2^{kb2})^*$ .



Let  $L'_N = A_2 \cap A^N$   $(A = \{r_1, r_2\})$ . Then it is clear that

$$Appl(\Pi, C, max) = \bigcup_{pk_{b1}+qk_{b2}=\bar{N}} \left\{ r_1^{p+k_1} r_2^{q+k_2} \right\},$$
(17)

where  $k_1 = k_a(N_1 \ominus N), k_2 = k_c(N_2 \ominus N).$ 

The transfer matrix of  $A_2$  (considering the weights) is  $\begin{pmatrix} k_{b1} & k_{b2} \\ 0 & k_{b2} \end{pmatrix}$  and the vector F = [1, 1]. This gives the following generating function for  $A_2$ :

$$q_0 = \frac{1}{(1 - x^{k_{b1}})(1 - x^{k_{b2}})}.$$
(18)

The coefficients  $[x^n]q_0$  can be obtained by the recurrence

$$a(n) = a(n - k_{b1}) + a(n - k_{b2}) - a(n - k_{b1} - k_{b2}); n \ge k_{b1} + k_{b2}.$$
 (19)

The initial values are given by the following cases (we suppose that  $k_{b1} \ge k_{b2}$ ):

$$\begin{array}{ll}
1, & n = 0, \\
0, & 1 \le n \le k_{b2} - 1, \\
1, & k_{b2} \le n \le k_{b1} - 1 \text{ and } n = 0 \pmod{k_{b2}}, \\
0, & k_{b2} \le n \le k_{b1} - 1 \text{ and } n \ne 0 \pmod{k_{b2}}, \\
2, & k_{b1} \le n \le k_{b1} + k_{b2} \text{ and } n = 0 \pmod{k_{b2}} \text{ and } n = 0 \pmod{k_{b1}}, \\
1, & k_{b1} \le n \le k_{b1} + k_{b2} \text{ and } n = 0 \pmod{k_{b2}} \text{ or } n = 0 \pmod{k_{b1}}, \\
0, & k_{b1} \le n \le k_{b1} + k_{b2} - 1 \text{ and } n \ne 0 \pmod{k_{b2}} \text{ or } n \ne 0 \pmod{k_{b1}}.
\end{array}$$
(20)

Now we concentrate on the function Variant. If the set  $Appl(\Pi, C, \delta)$  is regular, then we can use the following algorithm to compute  $Variant(n, \Pi, C, \delta)$ . Let  $A(\Pi, C, \delta) = (Q, V, q_0, F)$  be the automaton corresponding to the language defined by rules joint applicability and let  $s_j, q_j \in Q$  be the generating series for the state  $q_j$ .

### Algorithm 1.

- 1. In the initial situation, the current state is  $q_0$ , and the other variables take the following values: step = 0,  $nb = s_0(n)$ ,  $out = \lambda$ .
- 2. If step = n then the system stops.

- 3. Otherwise, let  $\{t : (q_i, a_t, q_{j_t})\}, 1 \le t \le k_i$  be the set outgoing transitions from  $q_i$ , the systems computes  $S(k) = \sum_{m=1}^k s_{j_m}(n step)$ . We put by definition S(0) = 0. Then, there exists k such that  $S(k) \ge nb$  and there is no k' < k such that S(k') > nb.
- 4. *nb* and *out* variables are updated with the following values: nb = nb S(k-1)and *out* = *out*  $\cdot a_k$ .
- 5. The system goes to step 2.

The main idea of this algorithm is to compute the  $n^{\text{th}}$  variant using the lexical ordering of transitions using an algorithm similar to the computation of the number written in the combinatorial number system. Being in a state q and looking for a sequence of applications of k rules we will use the transition t : (q, r, q') (and add rto the multiset of rules) if the transition t is the first in the lexicographical ordering of transitions having the property that the number of words of length k - 1, that can be obtained using all outgoing transitions from state q, that are less than or equal to t is greater than n.

#### 3.2 Hardware Implementation

The goal or design key for the implemented architecture is to achieve a good balance between flexibility, scalability, extensibility and performance. From the point of view of a hardware designer, one of the major drawbacks about implementation and/or simulation of P systems is not their inherent parallelism, which is already an important challenge, but the great range of types, consequence of being an oriented-machine model. As a consequence, a machine must be generated for each instance of the problem, what makes non-reprogrammable hardware, as custom hardware or Application-Specific Integrated Circuit (ASIC), unfeasible. In that way, FPGAs are the only alternative in hardware to implement this computational model. FPGAs contain lots of reprogrammable logic blocks and interconnections. Users can change the hardware design a number of times limited only by the number of writing supported by the device store technology. Thus, users obtain all advantages associated to reprogram, although at the performance cost, if compared to ASIC or custom hardware. When a design is implemented using FPGAs, finding a path which communicates two logic blocks is usually the task where speed, i.e. performance, is compromised. As a result, modular designs which minimize long paths between logic components are the ones which best fit in this kind of technology. Our design is based on layers with interfaces clearly defined. Each layer is a block which performs a main task of the algorithm, and it only communicates with the previous layer, where outputs are its inputs, and next layer, which receives its outputs.

In order to design the simulator, the graph of dependences between rules has been chosen as a starting point to model P systems. This approach reduces complexity, because of deleting some elements, like membranes and, in consequence,

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the hierarchical structure of them. Objects and rules are the only elements which have been having in mind to model the system. Moreover, the implementation is based on the mathematical foundations described in the previous section, following a division of tasks, which assures enough encapsulation to achieve a design with a right flexibility and performance. The objects are explicitly represented using registers, but it is not the case for the rules. Their logic is distributed along most of the components, thus there is no correspondence between a rule and a hardware core.

An execution of a P system consists of running iterations until it reaches a halting condition. At each iteration there is a set of operations to be carried out in order to obtain the next configuration. To implement the simulator, these tasks have been divided in the following stages:

- 1. *Persistence stage*: Obviously, it is necessary to save the states for which the system goes through.
- 2. Independent stage: How Appl is built and how a multiset of rules is selected from it depends on the type of the P system. Whereas there are some auxiliary operations which are independent of this computation and common to most of the types: according to the rules and to the multiplicity of each type of object in the system, it is needed to know the maximum number of times that each rule can be applied without considering no others.
- 3. Assignment stage: In this stage the system chooses which rules will be applied (and how many times).
- 4. *Application stage*: In this level, the selected rules are applied, computing new values for multiplicity of objects.
- 5. *Updating stage*: In this stage, the current configuration is updated with the result of the computation of the previous stage.
- 6. *Halting stage*: Finally, the system has to check if the halting condition has been reached.

The simulator is divided into six blocks, two of them are dedicated to the control of it and input/output interface. So, all specific functionality of the P systems is achieved by four blocks, which follow the principle of encapsulation. All blocks take only one clock cycle to perform their tasks, except for *assignBlock*, which requires two cycles. In consequence, the simulator is able to compute and apply a transition and save the new configuration in only five clock cycles. In order to simplify the explanation, the blocks which compound the design are described following the functional division commented above (Figure 1).

### persistenceBlock:

Its goal is to persist the current configuration of the P system, update it and check adult halting condition. Hence, it implements persistence, updating and a portion of halting stages. Concerning to the two first ones, it is independent

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Figure 1. Overview of the architecture. This illustration shows the main blocks and the flow of information between them.

of the type of the system, being only dependent on the number of different objects and their maximum multiplicities. There is one register per type of object, that saves its current multiplicity as an unsigned integer, because it is not possible to have a negative number of any objects. An adder performs the operation of updating the current configuration. Because the multiplicity can decrease, this arithmetical component uses signed integers, making the conversion of the value saved in the register from unsigned to signed integer. This block receives, for each object, the differences between current and next multiplicities, and it sends the current number of objects in the system to the next module.

Although the major principle which guides the design is the modularity, some logic related to checking halting condition must be done in this block. There are several halting conditions, and which one is used it depends on the type of the system chosen. If this condition is reached when the state of the system does not change, it is necessary to compare the current and new multiplicities. It is done using a comparator and a logic *and gate* which indicates to the unit control when the system fits it.

### independentBlock:

It receives as input the number of objects of the current configuration from persistenceST and implements the independent stage functionality. It is, in a consequence, an arithmetical component. In that sense, the Xilinx IP Core xilinx.com:ip:mult\_gen:11.2 has been used in order to implement divisions and multiplications, being configured with a latency of 1 cycle. Although this operation is independent of the derivation mode, the fact of considering it can help to optimize the design. So, instead of giving the maximum number in absolute terms to the next block, this one usually gives this parameter in the context of the derivation mode (see Section 1 for more details).

#### assignBlock:

This block computes the assignment stage, so it is dependent of the derivation mode and how a multiset of rules is chosen to be applied. Moreover, and as it has been previously detailed, these functionalities are performed through the implementation of the automaton which recognizes the regular language associated to dependence graph of rules. In consequence, a third dependence should be kept in mind: the resource's consumption of the rules. According to hardware design, it is not possible to give a general implementation. However, we give an overview about the architecture of this block and we refer to Section 4.1 for a concrete implementation.

This unit receives the maximum number of times which a rule can be applied without considering the rest, and it gives the number of applications of each rule, i.e. the multiset of rules which will be applied to evolve to the next configuration to the next one. It contains one sub-block per rule which implements the logic of the automaton. Interconnections between these components are based on design keys and propagation concepts: each sub-block is only connected to those ones associated to rules which have a direct dependence, being similar to a daisy chain network topology. Two additional components are required: the non-deterministic block (ndBlock) and a small unit control. The last one controls the computation of this block, because it is usually the most complex task and it takes more than one clock cycle. It is also connected to all sub-blocks. The ndBlock gives to the system the non-deterministic behaviour. Its implementation and connection with the other sub-blocks depend on the necessities of the system, but the most basic form is a pseudorandom number generator. The design of this block is based on a LFSR, whose width and taps depend on the number of rules and dependences among them.

### appBlock:

It performs the application stage. It is an arithmetical component which contains adders and multipliers (same IP Core and configuration that is used in the *independentBlock*) according to the rules. It gives the number of objects which must be added to current multiplicities to evolve into the next configuration. Although other blocks (*persistenceBlock* partially) use unsigned integers in order to save hardware resources, this one operates with signed integers, because some objects can be consumed (negative number) or produced (positive number).

### controlBlock:

It is required to provide communication and control logic. Control is implemented using a finite state machine, which requires five states, and it generates all control signals. This block contains the rest of the logic associated to halting conditions and its complexity depends on the type of P system. The most frequent conditions are executing a fixed number of transitions; when, given a configuration, the Appl set is empty; or when the configuration does not change, even when Appl is not empty.

#### inoutBlock:

Besides the previous cores, an additional block is required to provide communication with the computer. It is strictly linked to software which runs in the computer. We are developing a new software which is able to be connected to a wide range of simulators, using a serial port as a first approach. Although, it is not complete yet. In consequence, some debug cores are used to control execution and to get results.

## **4 EXAMPLE OF SIMULATOR CONSTRUCTION**

Once general architecture and the ideas (modelling of P Systems applying formal framework) and algorithms on which it is based have been presented in previous sections, we used the following example to illustrate the FPGA implementation for our ideas. We considered multiset rewriting rules working in set-maximal mode (*smax*). This mode corresponds to the maximally parallel execution of rules, but where the rules cannot be applied more than once. This mode can be formally defined as follows (where *asyn* is the asynchronous mode [4] and  $\mathcal{R}$  is the set of all rules):

$$S_1 = \{ R \in Appl(\Pi, C, asyn) \mid |R|_{r_j} \le 1, 1 \le j \le |\mathcal{R}| \},$$
  
$$Appl(\Pi, C, smax) = \{ R \in S_1 \mid \text{there is no } R' \in S_1 \text{ such that } R' \supset R \}.$$
(21)

We remark that *smax* mode corresponds to  $min_1$  mode [4] with a specific partition of rules: the size of the partition is  $|\mathcal{R}|$  and each partition  $p_j$  contains exactly one rule  $r_j \in \mathcal{R}$ .

Considering now a multiset rewriting system (corresponding to a P system with one membrane) evolving in *smax* mode. To simplify the construction we consider rules having a dependence graph in a form of chain without weights.



Let  $N_{a_i}$  be the number of objects  $a_i$  in configuration C. The number of variants of applications of a chain of rules  $r_1, \ldots, r_k$  to the configuration C in *smax* mode is denoted by  $NBV([r_1, \ldots, r_k], C), k > 0$ . We remark that for a P system II having the set of rules  $\mathcal{R}$ ,  $NBVariants(\Pi, C, smax) = NBV(\mathcal{R}, C)$ .

It is possible to distinguish 3 cases with respect to the number of objects  $N_{a_i}$ ,  $0 \le i \le n$  (considering that  $0 \le s \le i \le e \le n$ ):

•  $N_{a_i} = 0$ . Then the two surrounding rules  $(r_i \text{ and } r_{i+1})$  are not applicable. In this case the parts of the chain at the left and right of  $a_i$  are independent, so the number of variants is a product of corresponding variants:

$$NBV(r_s, \dots, r_e, C) = NBV(r_s, \dots, r_{i-1}, C) * NBV(r_{i+2}, \dots, r_e, C).$$
(22)

•  $N_{a_i} > 1$ . As in the previous case the chain can be split into two parts because both rules  $r_i$  and  $r_{i+1}$  can be applied:

$$NBV(r_s, \dots, r_e, C) = NBV(r_s, \dots, r_i, C) * NBV(r_{i+1}, \dots, r_e, C).$$
(23)

•  $N_{a_i} = 1$ . In this case  $r_i$  and  $r_{i+1}$  are in conflict.

Now let us concentrate on the last case. Without loss of generality we can suppose that  $N_{a_i} = 1, 0 \le i \le n$ . We remark that the language of binary strings of length *n* corresponding to the joint applicability vector of rules  $r_1, \ldots, r_n$  coincides with the language  $L_I$  from Example 1. Therefore the number of possibilities of application of such a chain of rules of length *n* is equal to  $NBV(r_1, \ldots, r_n, C) =$  $[x^n]q_0$ , i.e.,  $q_0(0) = 1, q_0(1) - 1, q_0(2) = 2$  and  $q_0(n) = q_0(n-2) + q_0(n-3), n > 3$ .

Hence, in order to compute  $NBVariants(\Pi, C, smax)$  we first split the chain into k > 0 parts of length  $n_j$  according to the multiplicities of objects and compute the NBV function for each part using the decomposition above.

The function *Variant* for each part can be computed using Algorithm 1.

The next section gives more details on the implementation of the above algorithms on FPGA.

### 4.1 Implementation Details

Starting from general architecture, there are only two blocks which can be affected by the implementation of a new type of P system: *controlBlock* and *assignBlock*. The first modification is originated by the halting conditions, and its impact is reduced to *controlBlock*. In this case, the halting configuration is reached when the configuration of the system does not change, even the *Appl* set being not empty. Attending to *assignBlock*, the derivation mode of the P system changes the way in which P system evolves, being needed to modify it. These situations are explained in Section 3.2, so we will not give more details about it here.

The implementation of *assignBlock* depends on the selected evolving mode, *smax* mode in this case. According to algorithms explained in previous sections, it has to perform the following steps:

### Algorithm 2.

- 1. The input chain is split into k parts as it is described in Section 4.
- 2. For each part:
  - (a) The system computes  $NBVariants(\Pi, C, smax)$ . For this purpose, algorithms detailed in 2.1 and 4 are used.
  - (b) The value of n, which indicates which combination will be chosen (n<sup>th</sup> element), is obtained. It is worth to note that its domain is from 0 to NBVariants(Π, C, smax)-1, so, considering that the random number generator produces numbers in binary format, the following correction is sometimes needed in order to obtain it.
    - i. A random number, rn, is generated by the random number generator, where

 $0 \leq width(rn) \leq \lceil \lg_2(NBVariants(\Pi, C, smax)) \rceil.$ 

- ii. If  $rn < NBVariants(\Pi, C, smax)$  then n = rn. Otherwise,  $n = rn + NBVariants(\Pi, C, smax)$ .
- (c) Compute  $Variant(n, \Pi, smax)$ , according to Algorithm 1.

We note that the computation of  $NBVariants(\Pi, C, smax)$  uses a subset of operations needed to compute  $Variant(n, \Pi, smax)$ , moreover, these operations can be done in parallel with the generation of the random number n, necessary to compute  $Variant(n, \Pi, smax)$ . Hence, this stage can be performed in 2 clock cycles by dividing operations into two sets, called *left* and *right propagation*, respectively. As it is shown by Figure 2, left propagation is the first to be executed. In this sub-stage, steps 2.a and 2.b.i of Algorithm 2 are computed from the last rule to the first one. Right propagation, which is the compound of steps 2.b.ii and 2.c, is executed in opposite way in the next clock cycle. One advantage of this approach is that it is not necessary to divide, implicitly, the chain of rules in k parts, deleting a step of the algorithm which let us reduce the number of required cycles from three to two. This logic is implemented, explicitly, by signals *prevIsDep* and *chainStateSignal*. After this stage, all rules have a random multiplicity assigned.

In consequence, the architecture of this block is divided into one sub-block per rule (Figure 2), which implements the operations required in order to obtain the number of applications of its associated rule (*left* and *right propagation*). The interconnections between these components are based on design keys and propagation concepts: a sub-block is only connected to blocks located on its right and left.



Figure 2. Details of sub-blocks which compound the *assignRule* block. Flow of information between sub-blocks in left and right propagation is shown at the top of the figure (1). Below it, the algorithm is detailed using UML notation (2).

Because assignBlock is the most critical component in order to achieve the maximum performance of the simulator, all operations which are required to compute  $NBVariants(\Pi, C, smax)$  and  $Variant(n, \Pi, smax)$  are defined recursively and are pipelined for the sake of a powerful performance. Hence, each sub-block associated to the  $n^{\text{th}}$  rule computes asynchronously the number of times which the associated rule will be applied, based on values obtained by previous block. It permits to execute all operations in only two cycles, one for left propagation and another for right propagation, in contrast to synchronous version, which requires, at least, n cycles, due to dependences between rules and, in consequence, between operations for computing Variant and NBVariants.

#### 4.2 Experimental Results

Experimental results are divided into two tests. In the first one, the accuracy of the results generated by the simulator has been proved. Right after, we have obtained some results about the limitations of the physical hardware (FPGA) regarding size of the P system, and the relation performance-area required by the simulator in the device.

The P systems are the same in both tests, only modifying its size (number of rules and objects). All of them consider rules where dependence graph forms a chain, the difference being in the right-hand side. Using these four types of dependences between rules let us check the accuracy of the results, because their design makes their behaviour predictable. We consider four P systems with the alphabet  $O = \{o_0, \ldots, o_N\}, N > 0$  and having the following rules (we consider index operations modulo N + 1):

• System 1 (circular)

$$r_i: \begin{cases} o_{i-1}o_i \to o_i o_{i+1}, & 1 \le i < N-1, \\ o_{N-1}o_N \to o_0 o_1, & i = N. \end{cases}$$
(24)

• System 2 (2-circular)

$$r_i: o_{i-1}o_i \to o_{i+1}o_{i+2}, \qquad 1 \le i \le N.$$
 (25)

• System 3 (linear)

$$r_i: \begin{cases} o_{i-1}o_i \to o_i o_{i+1}, & 1 \le i < N-1, \\ o_{N-1}o_N \to o_N o_N, & i = N. \end{cases}$$
(26)

• System 4 (opposite),  $1 \le i \le N$ 

$$r_{i}: \begin{cases} o_{i-1}o_{i} \to o_{i}o_{i+1}, & i \mod 2 = 0, \\ o_{i}o_{i+1} \to o_{i}o_{i-1}, & \text{otherwise} . \end{cases}$$
(27)

The target circuit for executions was the XILINX VIRTEX-7 XC7VX485T, although similar results have been obtained with a XILINX VIRTEX-5 FXT70 FPGA. Regarding code generation and extraction of results, different P systems were generated by a Java software and this code was synthesised, placed and routed using XILINX tools. Since the input/output interface has not been developed yet, CHIP-SCOPE, a XILINX debug tool has been used. This tool lets us, synchronously, change and capture the results, i.e. computation results and consumption of hardware resources, directly from the FPGA.

In order to carry out accuracy tests, an initial multiplicity of all objects equal to one and values 10, 20 and 50 were considered for N parameter for accuracy test. The P systems with these sizes are manageable enough to let us check this parameter of the simulator. Values 10, 30, 50, 70, 90, 110, 150 and 200 for N parameter were considered in case of hardware test. These values are enough in order to give a general idea about the relationship between consumption of hardware resources by the simulator and the size of the P systems. Then, for each obtained system, 1024 executions of 8 192 transitions have been carried out. Each execution differs from the others by the seed required by the random number generator in the initialization stage. In consequence, different values are obtained during the assignment stage, which results in different executions. As results of experiments, the following values are collected: the cardinality of objects in the last configuration, the seed of the random number generator (just for internal results) and the number of steps to reach the halting configuration, in case the system reached it.

Table 1 gives some statistics concerning the experiments. For each P system (type, size), the table shows if the stop condition is reached and, in this case, the minimum and maximum number of required transitions to achieve it (column Haltinq). The third column shows how many different configurations have been reached by the system. This parameter indicates the grade in which the system evolves following an equiprobable distribution. As expected, linear and 2-circular systems reach a halting configuration, while in the other two cases it cannot, due to dependences among their rules. It can be seen that the simulation of non-determinism is done correctly - in some cases all resulting configurations are different. Figure 3 shows the maximal, the minimal and the mean value of the number of different objects. Due to size of the obtained graphs, we only show the case of 10 rules, the other cases present a similar picture. It can be seen that in the case of the linear system there is a high chance to have a big value for the last object and in the case of 2-circular systems the second and penultimate objects are never present. In the case of circular systems it is possible to see an equiprobable distribution of objects, while for the opposite systems even values have a higher multiplicity. It can be easily seen that the rules used should exhibit exactly this behavior.

Concerning performance tests, they only differ in the N parameter from values of the P systems. The XILINX tools let user control the generation of final bitstream providing some parameters. In that way, three sets of parameters, with three implementation goals, have been used: one to maximize performance, another

Type N Difference final confi		Different final conf.	Halting		
			Y/N	min	max
	10	982	No	-	_
Circular	20	1 0 2 4	No	-	_
	50	1 0 2 4	No	-	_
	10	161	Yes	5	89
2-circular	20	818	Yes	11	197
	50	1024	Yes	57	609
	10	204	Yes	7	17
Linear	20	944	Yes	14	29
	50	1 0 2 4	Yes	50	65
	10	4	No	-	-
Opposite	20	938	No	-	_
	50	1 0 2 4	No	-	_

Table 1. Statistics concerning the executions of example systems

to minimize area and a balanced configuration. For each hardware design and set of parameters, values relative to performance (Table 2) and hardware resource consumption (Figure 4) were taken. In Table 2 and Figure 4 only the best results are shown: those ones achieved with performance configuration and area minimization, respectively.

Table 2 shows hardware period in ns of the system without the debug logic and Figure 4 shows resource consumption using relative values of LUTs and Slices. The implementation achieves high performance, with frequencies higher than 100 MHz, i.e., it allows to simulate around  $2 \times 10^7$  computational steps per second. A runtime comparison between P-Lingua simulator and our hardware simulator is shown in Table 3. P-Lingua is a Java software framework developed by members of the Research Group on Natural Computing, at the University of Seville. In order to make the comparison, several opposite P systems, see Definition 27, with a number of rules between 10 and 200, have been chosen. These P systems have been converted to equivalent probabilistic P systems: they have an environment with a membrane, they follow the same dependences between rules as opposite P Systems and they have the same number of rules and objects. The computing platform for execution was an Intel Core i5 5220 at 3 GHz, with 8 GB of RAM. The comparison shows that hardware architecture is 5600 times faster than P-Lingua implementation in the worst case, when a P system with 10 rules is used, and approx. 30 000 times faster than P-Lingua in the best case, when the P system has 200 rules.

Attending to the hardware resource consumption, it only depends on the number of rules. This result is coherent with the fact that rules of all systems do not change



the total number of objects and share the same dependence graph. While the period is stable, with a slightly linear increase, the resources grow exponentially, reducing the use of the simulator for really large problems, in terms of thousands of rules. Current implementation has problems for P systems with more than 1 000 rules. In this case, configurations composed of several devices can be developed to move this barrier.



Figure 3. Objects min/max/mean values for the experiments using 10 rules; a) Linear, b) 2-circular, c) Circular, d) Opposite

Type $\setminus$ Size	Circular	2-circular	Linear	Opposite
10	$7.06\mathrm{ns}$	$5.63\mathrm{ns}$	$5.46\mathrm{ns}$	$7.85\mathrm{ns}$
30	$8.23\mathrm{ns}$	$8.55\mathrm{ns}$	$7.33\mathrm{ns}$	$6.99\mathrm{ns}$
50	$7.69\mathrm{ns}$	$6.71\mathrm{ns}$	$6.11\mathrm{ns}$	$6.03\mathrm{ns}$
70	$9.14\mathrm{ns}$	$7.33\mathrm{ns}$	$7.34\mathrm{ns}$	$6.87\mathrm{ns}$
90	$7.32\mathrm{ns}$	$6.38\mathrm{ns}$	$7.02\mathrm{ns}$	7.89 ns
110	$7.00\mathrm{ns}$	$7.84\mathrm{ns}$	$6.23\mathrm{ns}$	8.30 ns
150	$7.85\mathrm{ns}$	$7.42\mathrm{ns}$	8.88 ns	7.40 ns
200	$7.74\mathrm{ns}$	$8.42\mathrm{ns}$	7.98 ns	$8.35\mathrm{ns}$

Table 2. Period of hardware implementation for each combination (type, sizes)

## **5 DISCUSSION**

One of the major characteristics of the simulator is its speed, offering a constant time execution step (in terms of clock cycles). Its design is based on the method discussed

Size	Software	Hardware
10	$0.22\mathrm{s}$	$3.927 \times 10^{-5} \mathrm{s}$
30	$0.326\mathrm{s}$	$3.495 \times 10^{-5} \mathrm{s}$
50	$0.453\mathrm{s}$	$3.017 \times 10^{-5} \mathrm{s}$
70	$0.542\mathrm{s}$	$3.435 \times 10^{-5} \mathrm{s}$
90	$0.639\mathrm{s}$	$3.945 \times 10^{-5} \mathrm{s}$
110	$0.742\mathrm{s}$	$4.151 \times 10^{-5} \mathrm{s}$
150	$0.911\mathrm{s}$	$3.7 \times 10^{-5}  \mathrm{s}$
200	$1.245\mathrm{s}$	$4.174 \times 10^{-5} \mathrm{s}$

Table 3. Runtime comparison between a software simulation using P-Lingua, and a hardware simulation using architecture



Figure 4. LUTs and Slices consumption of hardware implementation for each combination (type, sizes) in rules; a) LUTs, b) Slices

in Section 3.1 where, although it is possible to design *ad-hoc* functions that describe the execution strategy of the rules, we concentrated on the cases where the multisets of rules that can be applied form a non-ambiguous context-free language. This fact allows to easily compute the generating function of the corresponding language and gives a simple algorithm for the enumeration strategy.

In this work we have focused on P systems whose rules are restricted to dependence graphs which form chains. However, the class of P systems where the set  $Appl(\Pi, C, \delta)$  corresponds to a non-ambiguous context-free language is quite big. For example, considering a set of rules forming a circular dependence graph for a system working in the *smax* mode.



Now let C be a configuration where all these rules are applicable exactly one time (corresponding to the case 3 described in Section 4). Then the joint applicability vectors of these rules (i.e. binary strings of length n with value 1 in  $i^{\text{th}}$  position corresponding to the choice of rule  $r_i$ ) can be described by taking the words of length n of the following automaton:



This automaton is obtained from the automaton for the language  $L_I$  from Example 1 by adding an additional condition: if rule  $r_1$  is chosen then  $r_n$  is not chosen and conversely.

Using similar ideas it is possible to describe sequences of rules forming more complicated structures with regular languages. For example, the following structure



can be represented as a regular language over the binary alphabet if the number of symbols  $a_2$  is known. This language can be constructed in a similar way as the language above for circular dependence. This permits to compute the function *NBVariants*( $\Pi, C, smax$ ) by first choosing the appropriate automaton based on the value of  $N_{a_2}$  and after that by computing its generating function. Clearly, this can be done in constant time on FPGA.

In a similar way it is possible to describe regular languages for the applicability of rules having the dependence graph that has no intersecting cycles.

We would like to point out another algorithm for the rule application, applicable to any type of rule dependence.

Let  $\Pi$  be a P system evolving in the set-maximal derivation mode. Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be the set of rules of  $\Pi$  and  $n = |\mathcal{R}|$ . Let C be a configuration.

### Algorithm 3.

- 1. Compute a permutation of rules of  $\mathcal{R}$ :  $\sigma = (r_{i_1}, \ldots, r_{i_n}), i_k \neq i_m, k \neq m$ .
- 2. For j = 1, 2, ..., n if  $r_{i_i}$  is applicable then apply  $r_{i_i}$  to C.

The step 1 of the above algorithm can be optimized using the Fisher-Yates shuffle algorithm [17] (Algorithm P). However, the implementation of Algorithm 3 is slower than the implementation we presented in Section 3 because the computation of the rules' permutation needs a register usage, so it cannot be done in one clock cycle and it is dependent on the number of rules.

By extending Algorithm 3 it is possible to construct a similar algorithm for the maximally parallel derivation mode.

### Algorithm 4.

- 1. Compute a permutation of rules of  $\mathcal{R}$ :  $\sigma = (r_{i_1}, \ldots, r_{i_n}), i_k \neq i_m, k \neq m$ .
- 2. Compute the applicability vector of rules  $V = (m_1, \ldots, m_n)$ , being  $m_j, 1 \le j \le n$  the number of times rule  $r_{i_j}$  can be applied.
- 3. If the vector V is null, then stop.
- 4. Otherwise, repeat step 5 for  $j = 1, \ldots, n$ .
- 5. Compute a random number t between 0 and V[j]. Apply  $r_{i_j}$  t times.
- 6. Goto step 2.

This algorithm has similar drawbacks and the number of clock cycles it uses is at least proportional to the number of rules.

In Section 1 we simplified the model removing the forbidding and permitting conditions. Adding this feature only affects *independentBlock*. In case of forbidding conditions, a specific comparator which checks if the objects exist should be added, this new component only differs in a *not gate* in its output, hence its logical function is the inverse of others. Then, if it returns *false*, the maximum number of applications of the rule will be set to zero. Modifications required to give support to permitting condition are similar, but checking the existence of the object, instead of inexistence.

On the other hand, P systems are a machine-oriented computational model. In consequence, each instance of a problem has a tailor-made machine which resolves it, and each machine has associated a specific hardware which simulates it. So, once we have defined an architecture which is able to simulate P systems, we need a software which generates the specific hardware design in order to program the FPGA and obtain the results. Additionally, a software which gets the results, processes it and shows it to the user will be welcome, specially for this last one.

As it is said in Section 4.2, the generation of the hardware design is done by an *ad-hoc* software written in Java. Although this solution is acceptable for testing purposes, it has several limitations, all of them derived from its poor flexibility, extensibility and modularity. In addition, there are several research lines whose straight results are simulators. Each research group deals with the same developing problems, giving different solutions and building incompatible systems, taking a high cost in effort. The P system framework can resolve, or mitigate in the worst case, all these problems. This software will resolve general problems related to end-user and developer interface, debugging and generation of code. Thus, it let developers focus on the implementation of the algorithm of its simulator. For this purpose, Model Drive Engineering (MDE) is the most suitable technology [18]. Simulators and classes of P systems will be represented as models connected by transformations: in order to generate the simulator code of a P system we need a transformation from the model of the class to which the P system belongs, to the model of the simulator. Once an instance of the simulator model is created, generating the associated code is possible using MDE.

Concerning this work, the P system framework constitutes an elegant solution for software problems. The general architecture can be seen as the model of our simulator, thus, the input is resolved by the transformation from the meta model which represents the class of P systems where the set  $Appl(\Pi, C, \delta)$  corresponds to a non-ambiguous context-free language to the first one, and the hardware code generation by the transformation from the model of our simulator directly to code. In that sense, the software tool of our simulator will be highly flexible, scalable, and modular. Additionally, end-user interface will be also resolved by this framework.

Attending to performance, results show that hardware architecture is approx. 30 000 times faster than P-Lingua in the best case, when the P system has 200 rules. This result only refers to execution time. In that sense, if generation time is considered, i.e. from specification of P system to bitfile generation, first execution would take about 3 hours more.<sup>2</sup> This can be an important drawback if the P system is only executed one time. However, this kind of simulators are widely used in problems where thousands of computatios are needed. In consequence, user should use software or hardware simulator, depending on the number of executions and size of the problem.

### 6 CONCLUSIONS

In this article we have introduced a fast hardware simulator for static P systems whose set  $Appl(\Pi, C, \delta)$  corresponds to a non-ambiguous context-free language. Its major feature is the performance that it is possible to achieve: the hardware implementation is able to execute one transition in a constant time of 5 clock cycles, closed to the ideal value of one transition per clock cycle. In addition, the range of P systems which can be simulated is only affected by the dependences between their rules. The key point of our approach is to represent all possible applications as words of some regular or non-ambiguous context-free language. Then it is possible, using formal power series for the corresponding language, to generate the total number of

 $<sup>^2\,</sup>$  The computing platform for execution was an Intel Core i5-5220 at 3 GHz, with 8 GB of RAM.

possible applications and select and apply one of them. It is worth to note that the number of clock cycles is independent of any P system structure, including number of rules or types of objects. Nevertheless, a relationship between size of P systems and required hardware resources exists. According to our experimental results, the area grows exponentially, limiting really large P systems. In these situations, the hardware platform should use several devices or new architectures which combine this one with others in order to simulate the system. Besides, P systems which can be simulated only have to verify that its set  $Appl(\Pi, C, \delta)$  is a non-ambiguous context-free language, accepting a wider range of P systems as input in contrast to other simulators which depend on structural elements, as type of objects.

In order to exemplify our approach, we developed several hardware simulators using a FPGA. Input P systems work in a maximal set mode with rules dependence graph in a form of chain. We obtained a speed greater than  $2 \times 10^7$  computational steps per second. Our different tests gave right values, showing a non-deterministic behaviour in the computations and obtaining expected mean values for the outputs. Moreover, the architecture of the simulator is highly modular, enclosing all dependent logic of the type of the P system in one block, and reducing the impact of any other modification.

As a future research we plan to develop a software which generates the hardware implementation automatically from the regular language describing the rules joint applicability. This software will be integrated in a framework of P system simulators with the objective to resolve common problems in P systems development, specially those based on hardware development, and standardize them as well as their related tools.

#### Acknowledgements

This work has been partially supported by the Ministry of Science and Innovation of the Spanish Government under the project TEC2011-27936 (HIPERSYS), by the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) and by the Ministry of Education of Spain (FPU grant AP2009-3625). Authors also acknowledges the support of ANR project SynBioTIC.

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