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Research Article

A SystemC-Based Design Methodology for Digital Signal Processing Systems

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Digital signal processing algorithms are of big importance in many embedded systems. Due to complexity reasons and due to the restrictions imposed on the implementations, new design methodologies are needed. In this paper, we present a SystemC-based solution supporting *automatic design space exploration*, *automatic performance evaluation*, as well as *automatic system generation* for mixed hardware/software solutions mapped onto FPGA-based platforms. Our proposed hardware/software codesign approach is based on a SystemC-based library called SysteMoC that permits the expression of different models of computation well known in the domain of digital signal processing. It combines the advantages of executability and analyzability of many important models of computation that can be expressed in SysteMoC. We will use the example of an MPEG-4 decoder throughout this paper to introduce our novel methodology. Results from a five-dimensional design space exploration and from automatically mapping parts of the MPEG-4 decoder onto a Xilinx FPGA platform will demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach.

1. INTRODUCTION

Digital signal processing algorithms, as for example real-time image enhancement, scene interpretation, or audio and video coding, have gained enormous popularity in embedded system design. They encompass a large variety of different algorithms, starting from simple linear filtering up to entropy encoding or scene interpretation based on neuronal networks. Their implementation, however, is very laborious and time consuming, because many different and often conflicting criteria must be met, as for example high throughput and low power consumption. Due to this rising complexity of these digital signal processing applications, there is demand for new design automation tools at a high level of abstraction.

Many design methodologies are proposed in the literature for exploring the design space of implementations of digital signal processing algorithms (cf. [1, 2]), but none of them is able to fully automate the design process. In this paper, we will close this gap by proposing a novel approach based on SystemC [3–5], a C++ class library, and state-of-the-art design methodologies. The proposed approach permits the design of digital signal processing applications with minimal designer interaction. The major advantage with respect to existing approaches is the combination of executability of the specification, exploration of implementation alternatives, and the usability of formal analysis techniques for restricted models of computation. This is achieved through restricting SystemC such that we are able to automatically detect the underlying model of computation (MoC) [6]. Our design methodology comprises the *automatic design space exploration* using state-of-the-art multiobjective evolutionary algorithms, the *performance evaluation* by automatically generating efficient simulation models, and *automatic platform-based system generation*. The overall design flow as proposed in this paper is shown in Figure 1 and is currently implemented in the framework SystemCoDesigner.

Starting with an executable specification written in SystemC, the designer can specify the target architecture template as well as the mapping constraints of the SystemC modules. In order to automate the design process, the SystemC application has to be written in a synthesizable subset of SystemC, called SysteMoC [7], and the target architecture template must be built from components supported by our component library. The components in the component

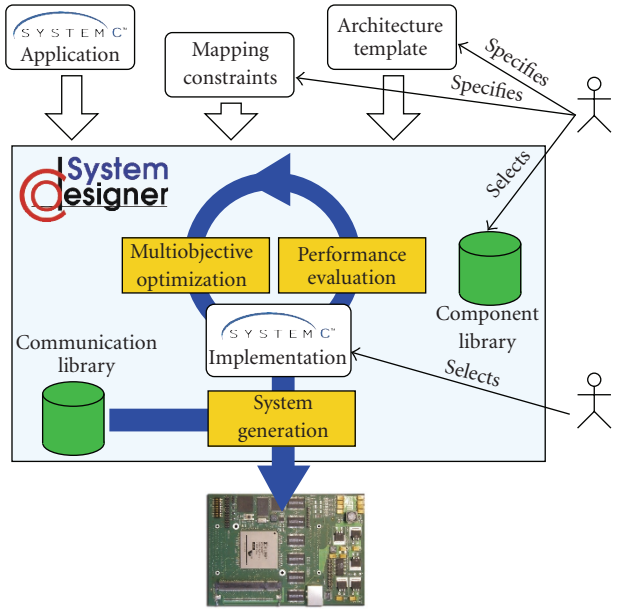

Figure 1: SystemCoDesigner design flow: for a given executable specification written in SystemC, the designer has to specify the architecture template as well as mapping constraints. The design space exploration is performed automatically using multiobjective evolutionary algorithms and is guided by an automatic simulation-based performance evaluation. Finally, any selected implementation can be automatically mapped efficiently onto an FPGA-based platform.

library are either written by hand using a hardware description language or can be taken from third party vendors. In this work, we will use IP cores especially provided by Xilinx. Furthermore, it is also possible to synthesize SysteMoC actors to RTL Verilog or VHDL using high-level synthesis tools as Mentor CatapultC [8] or Forte Cynthesizer [9]. However, there are limitations imposed on the actors given by these tools. As this is beyond the scope of this paper, we will omit discussing these issues here.

With this specification, the SystemCoDesigner design process is automated as much as possible. Inside SystemCoDesigner, a multiobjective evolutionary optimization (MOEA) strategy is used in order to perform design space exploration. The exploration is guided by a simulation-based performance evaluation. Using SysteMoC as a specification language for the application, the generation of the simulation model inside the exploration can be automated. Then, the designer can carry out the decision making and select a design point for implementation. Finally, the platform-based implementation is generated automatically.

The remainder of this paper is dedicated to the different issues arising during our proposed design flow. Section 3 discusses the input format based on SystemC called SysteMoC. SysteMoC is a library based on SystemC that allows to describe and simulate communicating actors. The particularity of this library for actor-based design is to separate *actor functionality* and *communication behavior*. In particular, the separation of actor firing rules and communication behavior is achieved by an explicit finite state machine model associated with each actor. This finite state machine permits the identification of the underlying model of computation of the SystemC application and, hence, if possible, allows to analyze the specification with formal techniques for properties such as boundedness of memory, (periodic) schedulability, deadlocks, and so forth.

Section 4 presents the model and the tasks performed during design space exploration. As the SysteMoC description only models the specified behavior of our system, we need additional information in order to perform *system-level synthesis*. Following the *Y-chart approach* [10, 11], a formal model of architecture (MoA) must be specified by the designer as well as mapping constraints for the actors in the SysteMoC description. With this formal model the system-level synthesis task is twofold: (1) determine the *allocation* of resources from the architecture template and (2) determine a *binding* of SystemC modules (actors) onto the allocated resources. During design space exploration, many implementations are constructed by the system-level exploration tool SystemCoDesigner. Each resulting implementation must be evaluated regarding different properties such as area, power consumption, performance, and so forth. Especially the performance evaluation, that is, latency and throughput, is critical in the context of digital signal processing applications. In our proposed methodology, we will use, beside others, a *simulation-based* approach. We will show how SysteMoC might help to automatically generate efficient simulation models during exploration.

In Section 5 our approach to automatic platform-based system synthesis will be presented targeting in our examples a Xilinx Virtex-II Pro FPGA-based platform. The key idea is to *generate a platform*, perform *software synthesis*, and provide *efficient communication channels* for the implementation. The results obtained by the synthesis will be compared to the simulation models generated during a five-dimensional design space exploration in Section 6. We will use the example of an MPEG-4 decoder throughout this paper to present our methodology.

2. RELATED WORK

In this section, we discuss some tools which are available for the design and synthesis of digital signal processing algorithms onto mixed and possibly multicore system-on-a-chip (SoC). Sesame (simulation of embedded system architectures for multilevel exploration) [12] is a tool for performance evaluation and exploration of heterogeneous architectures for the multimedia application domain. The applications are given by Kahn process networks modeled with a C++ class library. The architecture is modeled by architecture building blocks taken from a library. Using a SystemC-based simulator at transaction level, performance evaluation can be done for a given application. In order to cosimulate the application and the architecture, a trace-driven simulation approach technique is chosen. Sesame is developed in the context of the Artemis project (architectures and methods for embedded media systems) [13].

The MILAN (model-based integrated simulation) framework is a design space exploration tool that works at different levels of abstraction [14]. Following the Y-chart approach [11], MILAN uses hierarchical dataflow graphs including function alternatives. The architecture template can be defined at different levels of detail. The hierarchical design space exploration starts at the system level and uses rough estimation and symbolic methods based on ordered binary decision diagrams to prune the search space. After reducing the search space, a more fine grained estimation is performed for the remaining designs, reducing the search space even more. At the end, at most ten designs are evaluated by cycle-accurate trace-driven simulation. MILAN needs user interaction to perform decision making during exploration.

In [15], Kianzad and Bhattacharyya propose a framework called CHARMED (cosynthesis of hardware-software multimode embedded systems) for the automatic design space exploration for periodic multimode embedded systems. The input specification is given by several task graphs where each task graph is associated to one of M modes. Moreover, a period for each task graph is given. Associated with the vertices and edges in each task graph, there are attributes like memory requirement and worst case execution time. Two kinds of resources are distinguished, processing elements and communication resources. Kianzad and Bhattacharyya use an approach based on SPEA2 [16] with *constraint dominance*, a similar optimization strategy as implemented by our SystemCoDesigner.

Balarin et al. [17] propose Metropolis, a design space exploration framework which integrates tools for simulation, verification, and synthesis. Metropolis is an infrastructure to help designers to cope with the difficulties in large system designs by allowing the modeling on different levels of detail and supporting refinement. The applications are modeled by a metamodel consisting of sequential processes communicating via the so-called *media*. A medium has variables and functions where the variables are only allowed to be changed by the functions. From the application model a sequence of event vectors is extracted representing a partial execution order. Nondeterminism is allowed in application modeling. The architecture again is modeled by the metamodel, where media are resources and processes representing services (a collection of functions). Deriving the sequence of event vectors results in a nondeterministic execution order of all functions. The mapping is performed by intersecting both event sequences. Scheduling decisions on shared resources are resolved by the so-called *quantity managers* which annotate the events. That way, quantity managers can also be used to associate other properties with events, like power consumption. In contrast to SystemCoDesigner, Metropolis is not concerned with automatic design space exploration. It supports refinement and abstraction, thus allowing top-down and bottom-up methodologies with a meet in the middle approach. As Metropolis is a framework based on a metamodel implementing the Y-chart approach, many system-level design methodologies, including SystemCoDesigner, may be represented in Metropolis.

Finally, some approaches exist to map digital signal processing algorithms automatically to an FPGA platform. *Compaan/Laura* [18] automatically converts a Matlab loop program into a KPN network. This process network can be transformed into a hardware/software system by instantiating IP cores and connecting them with FIFOs. Special software routines take care of the hardware/software communication.

Whereas [18] uses a computer system together with a PCI FPGA board for implementation, [19] automates the generation of a SoC (system on chip). For this purpose, the user has to provide a platform specification enumerating the available microprocessors and communication infrastructure. Furthermore, a mapping has to be provided specifying which process of the KPN graph is executed on which processor unit. This information allows the *ESPAM* tool to assemble a complete system including different communication modules as buses and point-to-point communication. The Xilinx *EDK* tool is used for final bitstream generation.

Whereas both *Compaan/Laura/ESPAM* and SystemCoDesigner want to simplify and accelerate the design of complex hardware/software systems, there are significant differences. First of all, *Compaan/Laura/ESPAM* uses Matlab loop programs as input specification, whereas SystemCoDesigner bases on SystemC allowing for both simulation and automatic hardware generation using behavioral compilers. Furthermore, our specification language SysteMoC is not restricted to KPN, but allows to represent different models of computation.

ESPAM provides a flexible platform using generic communication modules like buses, cross-bars, point-to-point communication, and a generic communication controller. SystemCoDesigner currently restricts to extended FIFO communication allowing out-of-order reads and writes.

Additionally our approach tightly includes automatic design space exploration, estimating the achievable system performance. Starting from an architecture template, a subset of resources is selected in order to obtain an efficient implementation. Such a design point can be automatically translated into a system on chip.

Another very interesting approach based on UML is presented in [20]. It is called Koski and as SystemCoDesigner, it is dedicated to the automatic SoC design. Koski follows the Y-chart approach. The input specification is given as Kahn process networks modeled in UML. The Kahn processes are modeled using Statecharts. The target architecture consists of the application software, the platform-dependent and platform-independent software, and synthesizable communication and processing resources. Moreover, special functions for application distribution are included, that is, interprocess communication for multiprocessor systems. During design space exploration, Koski uses simulation for performance evaluation. Also, Koski has many similarities with SystemCoDesigner, there are major differences. In comparison to SystemCoDesigner, Koski has the following advantages. It supports a network communication which is more platform-independent than the SystemCoDesigner approach. It is also somehow more flexible

by supporting a real-time operating System (RTOS) on the CPU. However, there are many advantages when using SystemCoDesigner. (1) SystemCoDesigner permits the specification directly in SystemC and automatically extracts the underlying model of computation. (2) The architecture specification in SystemCoDesigner is not limited to a shared communication medium, it also allows for optimized point-to-point communication. The main advantage of the SystemCoDesigner is its multiobjective design space exploration which allows for optimizing several objectives simultaneously.

The Ptolemy II project [21] was started in 1996 by the University of California, Berkeley. Ptolemy II is a software infrastructure for modeling, analysis, and simulation of embedded systems. The focus of the project is on the integration of different models of computation by the so-called *hierarchical heterogeneity*. Currently, supported MoCs are continuous time, discrete event, synchronous dataflow, FSM, concurrent sequential processes, and process networks. By coupling different MoCs, the designer has the ability to model, analyze, or simulate heterogeneous systems. However, as different actors in Ptolemy II are written in JAVA, it is limited in its usability of the specification for generating efficient hardware/software implementations including hardware and communication synthesis for SoC platforms. Moreover, Ptolemy II does not support automatic design space exploration.

The Signal Processing Worksystem (SPW) from Cadence Design Systems, Inc., is dedicated to the modeling and analysis of signal processing algorithms [22]. The underlying model is based on static and dynamic dataflow models. A hierarchical composition of the actors is supported. The actors themselves can be specified by several different models like SystemC, Matlab, C/C++, Verilog, VHDL, or the design library from SPW. The main focus of the design flow is on simulation and manual refinement. No explicit mapping between application and architecture is supported.

CoCentric System Studio is based on languages like C/C++, SystemC, VHDL, Verilog, and so forth, [23]. It allows for algorithmic and architecture modeling. In System Studio, algorithms might be arbitrarily nested dataflow models and FSMs [24]. But in contrast to Ptolemy II, CoCentric allows hierarchical as well as parallel combinations, what reduces the analysis capability. Analysis is only supported for pure dataflow models (deadlock detection, consistency) and pure FSMs (causality). The architectural model is based on the transaction-level model of SystemC and permits the inclusion of other RTL models as well as algorithmic System Studio models and models from Matlab. No explicit mapping between application and architecture is given. The implementation style is determined by the actual encoding a designer chooses for a module.

Beside the modeling and design space exploration aspects, there are several approaches to efficiently represent MoCs in SystemC. The facilities for implementing MoCs in SystemC have been extended by Herrera et al. [25] who have implemented a custom library of channel types like rendezvous on top of the SystemC discrete event simulation kernel. But no constraints have imposed how these new channel types are used by an actor. Consequently, no information about the communication behavior of an actor can be automatically extracted from the executable specification. Implementing these channels on top of the SystemC discrete event simulation kernel curtails the performance of such an implementation. To overcome these drawbacks, Patel and Shukla [26–28] have extended SystemC itself with different simulation kernels for *communicating sequential processes* (CSP), *continuous time* (CT), *dataflow process networks* (PN) dynamic as well as static (SDF), and *finite state machine* (FSM) MoCs to improve the simulation efficiency of their approach.

3. EXPRESSING DIFFERENT MoCs IN SYSTEMC

In this section, we will introduce our library-based approach to actor-based design called SysteMoC [7] which is used for modeling the behavior and as synthesizable subset of SystemC in our SystemCoDesigner design flow. Instead of a monolithic approach for representing an executable specification as done using many design languages, SysteMoC supports an *actor-oriented* design [29, 30] for many dataflow models of computation (MoCs). These models have been applied successfully in the design of digital signal processing algorithms. In this approach, we consider timing and functionality to be orthogonal. Therefore, our design must be modeled in an untimed dataflow MoC. The timing of the design is derived in the design space exploration phase from mapping of the actors to selected resources. Note that the timing given by that mapping in general affects the execution order of actors. In Section 4, we present a mechanism to evaluate the performance of our application with respect to a candidate architecture.

On the other hand, industrial design flows often rely on executable specifications, which have been encoded in design languages which allow unstructured communication. In order to combine both approaches, we propose the SysteMoC library which permits writing an executable specification in SystemC while separating the *actor functionality* from the *communication behavior*. That way, we are able to identify different MoCs modeled in SysteMoC. This enables us to represent different algorithms ranging from simple static operations modeled by *homogeneous synchronous dataflow* (HSDF) [31] up to complex, data-dependent algorithms as run-length entropy encoding modeled as *Kahn process networks* (KPN) [32]. In this paper, an MPEG-4 decoder [33] will be used to explain our system design methodology which encompasses both algorithm types and can hence only be modeled by *heterogeneous* models of computation.

3.1. Actor-oriented model of an MPEG-4 decoder

In actor-oriented design, *actors* are objects which execute concurrently and can only communicate with each other via *channels* instead of method calls as known in object-oriented design. Actor-oriented designs are often represented by bipartite graphs consisting of channels $c \in C$ and actors $a \in A$, which are connected via point-to-point connections from an

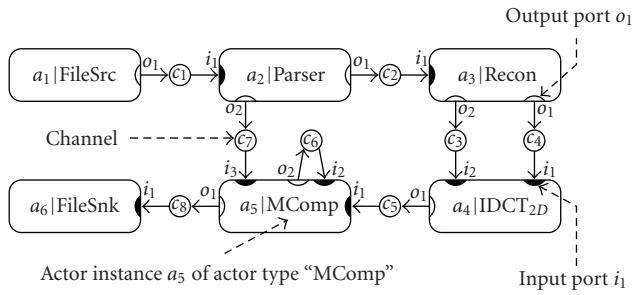

FIGURE 2: The *network graph* of an MPEG-4 decoder. Actors are shown as boxes whereas channels are drawn as circles.

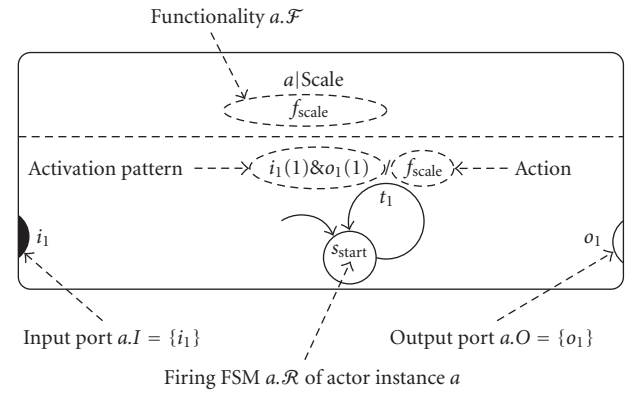

FIGURE 3: Visual representation of the `Scale` actor as used in the $\texttt{IDCT}_{2D}$ network graph displayed in Figure 4. The `Scale` actor is composed of *input ports* and *output ports*, its *functionality*, and the *firing FSM* determining the communication behavior of the actor.

actor output port o to a channel and from a channel to an actor input port i. In the following, we call such representations *network graphs*. These network graphs can be extracted directly from the executable SysteMoC specification.

Figure 2 shows the network graph of our MPEG-4 decoder. MPEG-4 [33] is a very complex object-oriented standard for compression of digital videos. It not only encompasses the encoding of the multimedia content, but also the transport over different networks including quality of service aspects as well as user interaction. For the sake of clarity, our decoder implementation restricts to the decompression of a basic video bit-stream which is already locally available. Hence, no transmission issues must be taken into account. Consequently, our bit-stream is read from a file by the `FileSrc` actor a_1, where $a_1 \in A$ identifies an actor from the set of all actors A.

The `Parser` actor a_2 analyzes the provided bit-stream and extracts the video data including motion compensation vectors and quantized zig-zag encoded image blocks. The latter ones are forwarded to the reconstruction actor a_3 which establishes the original 8×8 blocks by performing an inverse zig-zag scanning and a dequantization operation. From these data blocks the two-dimensional inverse cosine transform actor a_4 generates the motion-compensated difference blocks. They are processed by the motion compensation actor a_5 in order to obtain the original image frame by taking into account the motion compensation vectors provided by the `Parser` actor. The resulting image is finally stored to an output file by the `FileSnk` actor a_6. In the following, we will formally present the SysteMoC modeling concepts in detail.

3.2. SysteMoC concepts

The network graph is the usual representation of an actor-oriented design. It consists of *actors* and *channels*, as seen in Figure 2. More formally, we can derive the following definition.

Definition 1 (network graph). A *network graph* is a directed bipartite graph $g_{\text{n}} = (A, C, P, E)$ containing a set of actors A, a set of channels C, a channel parameter function $P : C \to \mathbb{N}_\infty \times V^*$ which associates with each channel $c \in C$ its buffer size $n \in \mathbb{N}_\infty = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots, \infty\}$, and also a possibly nonempty sequence $\mathbf{v} \in V^*$ of initial tokens, where V^* denotes the set of all possible *finite sequences* of tokens $v \in V$ [6]. Additionally, the network graph consists of directed edges $e \in E \subseteq (C \times A.I) \cup (A.O \times C)$ between actor output ports $o \in A.O$ and channels as well as channels and actor input ports $i \in A.I$. These edges are further constraints such that each channel can only represent a point-to-point connection, that is, exactly one edge is connected to each actor port and the in-degree and out-degree of each channel in the graph are exactly one.

Actors are used to model the functionality. An *actor* a is only permitted to communicate with other actors via its actor ports $a.\mathcal{P}$.[1] Other forms of interactor communication are forbidden. In this sense, a network graph is a specialization of the framework concept introduced in [29], which can express an arbitrary connection topology and a set of initial states. Therefore, the corresponding set of framework states Σ is given by the product set of all possible sequences of all channels of the network graph and the single initial state is derived from the channel parameter function P. Furthermore, due to the point-to-point constraint of a network graph, two framework actions λ_1, λ_2 referenced in different framework actors are constrained to only modify parts of the *framework state* corresponding to different network graph channels.

Our actors are composed from *actions* supplying the actor with its data transformation *functionality* and a *firing FSM* encoding, the *communication behavior* of the actor, as illustrated in Figure 3. Accordingly, the state of an actor is also divided into the *functionality state* only modified by the *actions* and the *firing state* only modified by the *firing FSM*. As actions do not depend on or modify the *framework state*

[1] We use the "."-operator, for example, $a.\mathcal{P}$, for denoting member access, for example, $\mathcal{P}$, of tuples whose members have been explicitly named in their definition, for example, $a \in A$ from Definition 2. Moreover, this member access operator has a trivial pointwise extension to sets of tuples, for example, $A.\mathcal{P} = \bigcup_{a \in A} a.\mathcal{P}$, which is also used throughout this paper.

their execution corresponds to a sequence of *internal transitions* as defined in [29].

Thus, we can define an actor as follows.

Definition 2 (actor). An *actor* is a tuple $a = (\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{R})$ containing a set of *actor ports* $\mathcal{P} = I \cup O$ partitioned into *actor input ports* I and *actor output ports* O, the *actor functionality* $\mathcal{F}$ and the *firing finite state machine (FSM)* $\mathcal{R}$.

The notion of the *firing FSM* is similar to the concepts introduced in FunState [34] where FSMs locally control the activation of transitions in a Petri Net. In SysteMoC, we have extended FunState by allowing guards to check for available space in output channels before a transition can be executed. The states of the firing FSM are called *firing states*, directed edges between these firing states are called *firing transitions*, or *transitions* for short. The transitions are guarded by *activation patterns* $k = k_{\text{in}} \wedge k_{\text{out}} \wedge k_{\text{func}}$ consisting of (i) predicates k_{in} on the number of available tokens on the input ports called *input patterns*, for example, `i(1)` denotes a predicate that tests the availability of at least one token on the actor input port i, (ii) predicates k_{out} on the number of free places on the output ports called *output patterns*, for example, `o(1)` checks if the number of free places of an output is at least one, and (iii) more general predicates k_{func} called *functionality conditions* depending on the *functionality state*, defined below, or the token values on the input ports. Additionally, the transitions are annotated with *actions* defining the *actor functionality* which are executed when the transitions are taken. Therefore, a transition corresponds to a *precise reaction* as defined in [29], where an *input/output pattern* corresponds to an *I/O transition* in the framework model. And an *activation pattern* is always a *responsible trigger*, as actions correspond to a sequence of *internal transitions*, which are independent from the *framework state*.

More formally, we derive the following two definitions.

Definition 3 (firing FSM). The *firing FSM* of an actor $a \in A$ is a tuple $a.\mathcal{R} = (T, Q_{\text{firing}}, q_{0\text{firing}})$ containing a finite set of *firing transitions* T, a finite set of *firing states* Q_{firing}, and an *initial firing state* $q_{0\text{firing}} \in Q_{\text{firing}}$.

Definition 4 (transition). A *firing transition* is a tuple $t = (q_{\text{firing}}, k, f_{\text{action}}, q'_{\text{firing}}) \in T$ containing the current firing state $q_{\text{firing}} \in Q_{\text{firing}}$, an *activation pattern* $k = k_{\text{in}} \wedge k_{\text{out}} \wedge k_{\text{func}}$, the associated *action* $f_{\text{action}} \in a.\mathcal{F}$, and the next firing state $q'_{\text{firing}} \in Q_{\text{firing}}$. The activation pattern k is a Boolean function which determines if transition t can be taken (true) or not (false).

The actor functionality $\mathcal{F}$ is a set of *methods* of an actor partitioned into *actions* used for data transformation and *guards* used in *functionality conditions* of the *activation pattern*, as well as the internal variables of the actor, and their initial values. The values of the internal variables of an actor are called its *functionality state* $q_{\text{func}} \in Q_{\text{func}}$ and their initial values are called the *initial functionality state* $q_{0\text{func}}$. Actions and guards are partitioned according to two fundamental differences between them: (i) a guard just returns a Boolean value instead of computing values of tokens for output ports, and (ii) a guard must be side-effect free in the sense that it must not be able to change the functionality state. These concepts can be represented more formally by the following definition.

Definition 5 (functionality). The *actor functionality* of an actor $a \in A$ is a tuple $a.\mathcal{F} = (F, Q_{\text{func}}, q_{0\text{func}})$ containing a set of *functions* $F = F_{\text{action}} \cup F_{\text{guard}}$ partitioned into *actions* and *guards*, a set of *functionality states* Q_{func} (possibly infinite), and an *initial functionality state* $q_{0\text{func}} \in Q_{\text{func}}$.

Example 1. To illustrate these definitions, we give the formal representation of the actor a shown in Figure 3. As can be seen the actor has two *ports*, $\mathcal{P} = \{i_1, o_1\}$, which are partitioned into its set of *input ports*, $I = \{i_1\}$, and its set of *output ports*, $O = \{o_1\}$. Furthermore, the actor contains exactly one *method* $\mathcal{F}.F_{\text{action}} = \{f_{\texttt{scale}}\}$, which is the *action* $f_{\texttt{scale}} : V \times Q_{\text{func}} \to V \times Q_{\text{func}}$ for generating token $v \in V$ containing scaled IDCT values for the output port o_1 from values received on the input port i_1. Due to the lack of any *internal variables*, as seen in Example 2, the *set of functionality states* $Q_{\text{func}} = \{q_{0\text{func}}\}$ contains only the *initial functionality state* $q_{0\text{func}}$ encoding the scale factor of the actor.

The execution of SysteMoC actors can be divided into three phases. (i) Checking for enabled transitions $t \in T$ in the firing FSM $\mathcal{R}$. (ii) Selecting and executing one enabled transition $t \in T$ which executes the associated actor functionality. (iii) Consuming tokens on the input ports $a.I$ and producing tokens on the output ports $a.O$ as indicated by the associated input and output patterns $t.k_{\text{in}}$ and $t.k_{\text{out}}$.

3.3. Writing actors in SysteMoC

In the following, we describe the SystemC representation of actors as defined previously. SysteMoC is a C++ class library based on SystemC which provides base classes for actors and network graphs as well as operators for declaring *firing FSMs* for these actors. In SysteMoC, each actor is represented as an instance of an *actor class*, which is derived from the C++ base class `smoc_actor`, for example, as seen in Example 2, which describes the SysteMoC implementation of the `Scale` actor already shown in Figure 3. An actor can be subdivided into three parts: (i) actor *input ports* and *output ports*, (ii) actor *functionality*, and (iii) actor *communication behavior* encoded explicitly by the *firing FSM*.

Example 2. SysteMoC code for the `Scale` actor being part of the MPEG-4 decoder specification.

```
00 class Scale: public smoc_actor {
01 public:
02   // Input  port declaration
03   smoc_port_in<int>  i1;
04   // Output port declaration
05   smoc_port_out<int> o1;
06 private:
```

```
07   // Actor parameters
08   const int G, OS;
09
10   // functionality
11   void scale() { o1[0] = OS
12                  + (G * i1[0]); }
13
14   // Declaration of firing FSM states
15   smoc_firing_state start;
16 public:
17   // The actor constructor is responsible
18   // for declaring the firing FSM and
19   // initializing the actor
20   Scale(sc_module_name name, int G, int OS)
21     : smoc_actor(name, start),
22       G(G), OS(OS) {
23     // start state consists of
24     // a single self loop
25     start =
26       // input pattern requires at least
27       // one token in the FIFO connected
28       // to input port i1
29       (i1.getAvailableTokens() >= 1) >>
30       // output pattern requires at least
31       // space for one token in the FIFO
32       // connected to output port o1
33       (o1.getAvailableSpace()  >= 1) >>
34       // has action Scale::scale and
35       // next state start
36       CALL(Scale::scale)             >>
37       start;
38   }
39 };
```

As known from SystemC, we use port declarations as shown in lines 2-5 to declare the input and output ports $a.\mathcal{P}$ for the actor to communicate with its environment. Note that the usage of `sc_fifo_in` and `sc_fifo_out` ports as provided by the SystemC library would not allow the separation of actor functionality and communication behavior as these ports allow the actor functionality to *consume tokens* or *produce tokens*, for example, by calling `read` or `write` methods on these ports, respectively. For this reason, the SysteMoC library provides its own input and output port declarations `smoc_port_in` and `smoc_port_out`. These ports can only be used by the actor functionality to peek token values already available or to produce tokens for the actual communication step. The token production and consumption is thus exclusively controlled by the local *firing FSM* $a.\mathcal{R}$ of the actor.

The functions $f \in F$ of the actor functionality $a.\mathcal{F}$ and its functionality state $q_{\text{func}} \in Q_{\text{func}}$ are represented by the class methods as shown in line 11 and by class member variables (line 8), respectively. The *firing FSM* is constructed in the constructor of the actor class, as seen exemplarily for a single transition in lines 25–37. For each transition $t \in \mathcal{R}.T$, the number of required input tokens, the quantity of produced output tokens, and the called function of the actor functionality are indicated by the help of the methods `getAvailableTokens()`, `getAvailableSpace()`, and `CALL()`, respectively. Moreover, the source and sink state of the firing FSM are defined by the C++-operators `=` and `>>`. For a more detailed description of the *firing FSM* syntax, see [7].

3.4. Application modeling using SysteMoC

In the following, we will give an introduction to different MoCs well known in the domain of digital signal processing and their representation in SysteMoC by presenting the MPEG-4 application in more detail. As explained earlier in this section, MPEG-4 is a good example of today's complex signal processing applications. They can no longer be modeled at a granularity level sufficiently detailed for design space exploration by restrictive MoCs like synchronous dataflow (SDF) [35]. However, as restrictive MoCs offer better analysis opportunities they should not be discarded for subsystems which do not need more expressiveness. In our SysteMoC approach, all actors are described by a uniform modeling language in such a way that for a considered group of actors it can be checked whether they fit into a given restricted MoC. In the following, these principles are shown exemplarily for (i) synchronous dataflow (SDF), (ii) cyclo-static dataflow (CSDF) [36], and (iii) Kahn process networks (KPN) [32].

Synchronous dataflow (SDF) actors produce and consume upon each invocation a static and constant amount of tokens. Hence, their external behavior can be determined statically at compile time. In other words, for a group of SDF actors, it is possible to generate a static schedule at compile time, avoiding the overhead of dynamic scheduling [31, 37, 38]. For homogeneous synchronous dataflow, an even more restricted MoC where each actor consumes and produces exactly one token per invocation and input (output), it is even possible to efficiently compute a rate-optimal buffer allocation [39].

The classification of SysteMoC actors is performed by comparing the firing FSM of an actor with different FSM templates, for example, single state with self loop corresponding to the *SDF* domain or circular connected states corresponding to the *CSDF* domain. Due to the SysteMoC syntax discussed above, this information can be automatically derived from the C++ actor specification by simply extracting the firing FSM specified in the actor.

More formally, we can derive the following condition: given an actor $a = (\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{R})$, the actor can be classified as belonging to the SDF domain if each transition has the same input pattern and output pattern, that is, for all $t_1, t_2 \in \mathcal{R}.T$: $t_1.k_{\text{in}} \equiv t_2.k_{\text{in}} \wedge t_1.k_{\text{out}} \equiv t_2.k_{\text{out}}$.

Our MPEG-4 decoder implementation contains various such actors. Figure 3 represents the firing FSM of a scaler actor which is a simple SDF actor. For each invocation, it reads a frequency coefficient and multiplies it with a constant gain factor in order to adapt its range.

Cyclo-static dataflow (CSDF) actors are an extension of SDF actors because their token consumption and production do not need to be constant but can vary cyclically. For this purpose, their execution is divided into a fixed number

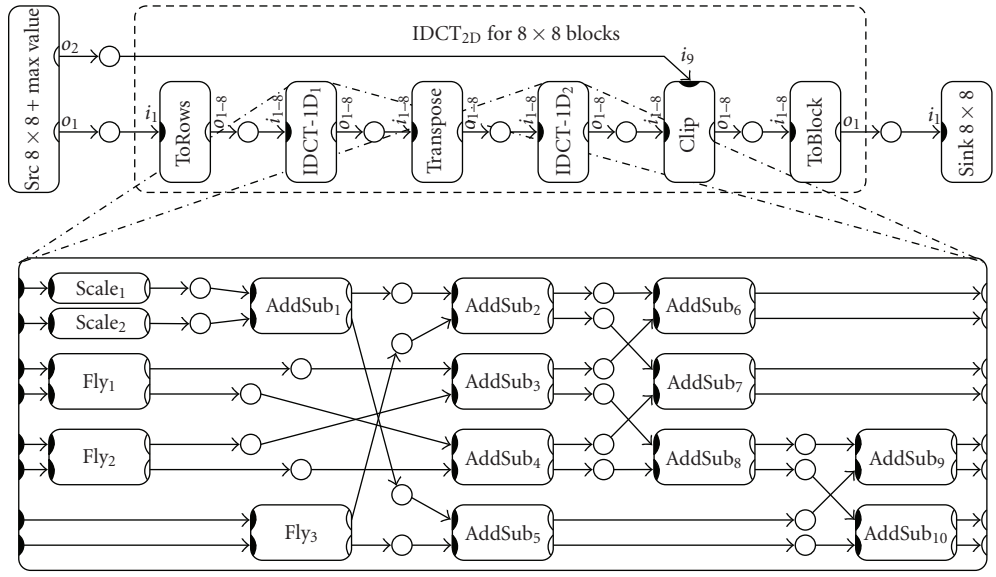

FIGURE 4: The displayed *network graph* is the hierarchical refinement of the $\texttt{IDCT}_{2D}$ actor a_4 from Figure 2. It implements a two-dimensional inverse cosine transformation (IDCT) on 8×8 blocks of pixels. As can be seen in the figure, the two-dimensional inverse cosine transformation is composed of two one-dimensional inverse cosine transformations $\texttt{IDCT-1D}_1$ and $\texttt{IDCT-1D}_2$.

of phases which are repeated periodically. In each phase, a constant number of tokens is written to or read from each actor port. Similar to SDF graphs, a static schedule can be generated at compile time [40]. Although many CSDF graphs can be translated to SDF graphs by accumulating the token consumption and production rates for each actor over all phases, their direct implementation leads mostly to less memory consumption [40].

In our MPEG-4 decoder, the inverse discrete cosine transformation (IDCT), as shown in Figure 4, is a candidate for static scheduling. However, due to the CSDF actor `Transpose` it cannot be classified as an SDF subsystem. But the contained one-dimensional IDCT is an example of an SDF subsystem, only consisting of actors which satisfy the previously given constraints. An example of such an actor is shown in Figure 3.

An example of a CSDF actor in our MPEG-4 application is the `Transpose` actor shown in Figure 4 which swaps rows and columns of the 8×8 block of pixels. To expose more parallelism, this actor operates on rows of 8 pixels received in parallel on its 8 input ports i_{1-8}, instead of whole 8×8 blocks, forcing the actor to be a CSDF actor with 8 phases for each of the 8 rows of a 8×8 block. Note that the CSDF actor `Transpose` is represented in SysteMoC by a firing FSM which contains exactly as many circularly connected firing states as the CSDF actor has execution phases. However, more complex firing FSMs can also exhibit CSDF semantic, for example, due to redundant states in the firing FSM or transitions with the same input and output patterns, the same source and destination firing state but different functionality conditions and actions. Therefore, CSDF actor classification should be performed on a transformed firing FSM, derived by discarding the *action* and *functionality conditions* from the transitions and performing FSM minimization.

More formally, we can derive the following condition: given an actor $a = (\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{R})$, the actor can be classified as belonging to the CSDF domain if exactly one transition is leaving and entering each firing state, that is, for all $q \in \mathcal{R}.Q_{\text{firing}} : |\{t \in \mathcal{R}.T \mid t.q_{\text{firing}} = q\}| = 1 \wedge |\{t \in \mathcal{R}.T \mid t.q'_{\text{firing}} = q\}| = 1$, and each state of the firing FSM is reachable from the initial state.

Kahn process networks (KPN) can also be modeled in SysteMoC by the use of more general *functionality conditions* in the *activation patterns* of the transitions. This allows to represent data-dependent operations, for example, as needed by the bit-stream parsing as well as the decoding of the variable length codes in the `Parser` actor. This is exemplarily shown for some transitions of the firing FSM in the `Parser` actor of the MPEG-4 decoder in order to demonstrate the syntax for using *guards* in the *firing FSM* of an actor. The actions cannot determine presence or absence of tokens, or consume or produce tokens on input or output channels. Therefore, the *blocking reads* of the KPN networks are represented by the blocking behavior of the firing FSM until at least one transition leaving the current firing state is enabled. The behavior of Kahn process networks must be independent from the scheduling strategy. But the scheduling strategy can only influence the behavior of an actor if there is a choice to execute one of the enabled transitions leaving the current state. Therefore, it is possible to determine if an actor a satisfies the KPN requirement by checking for the sufficient condition that all functionality conditions on all transitions leaving a firing state are mutually

exclusive, that is, for all $t_1, t_2 \in a.\mathcal{R}.T, t_1.q_{\text{firing}} = t_2.q_{\text{firing}}$: for all $q_{\text{func}} \in a.\mathcal{F}.Q_{\text{func}} : t_1.k_{\text{func}}(q_{\text{func}}) \Rightarrow \neg t_2.k_{\text{func}}(q_{\text{func}}) \wedge t_2.k_{\text{func}}(q_{\text{func}}) \Rightarrow \neg t_1.k_{\text{func}}(q_{\text{func}})$. This guarantees a deterministic behavior of the Kahn process network provided that all actions are also deterministic.

Example 3. Simplified SysteMoC code of the firing FSM analyzing the header of an individual video frame in the MPEG-4 bit-stream.

```
00 class Parser: public smoc_actor {
01 public:
02 // Input port receiving MPEG-4 bit-stream
03 smoc_port_in<int> bits;
04 ...
05 private:
06 // functionality ...
07 // Declaration of guards
08 bool guard_vop_start() const
09  /* code here */
10 bool guard_vop_done () const
11  /* code here */
12 ...
13 // Declaration of firing FSM states
14 smoc_firing_state vol, ..., vop2,
15 vop3, ..., stuck;
16 public:
17 Parser(sc_module_name name)
18 : smoc_actor(name, vol) {
19 ...
20 vop2 = ((bits.getAvailableTokens() >=
21 VOP_START_CODE_LENGTH) &&
22 GUARD(&Parser::guard_vop_done)) >>
23 CALL(Parser::action_vop_done) >>
24 vol
25 | ((bits.getAvailableTokens() >=
26 VOP_START_CODE_LENGTH) &&
27 GUARD(&Parser::guard_vop_start)) >>
28 CALL(Parser::action_vop_start) >>
29 vop3
30 | ((bits.getAvailableTokens() >=
31 VOP_START_CODE_LENGTH) &&
32 !GUARD(&Parser::guard_vop_done) &&
33 !GUARD(&Parser::guard_vop_start)) >>
34 CALL(Parser::action_vop_other) >>
35 stuck;
36 ... // More state declarations
37 }
38 };
```

The data-dependent behavior of the firing FSM is implemented by the guards declared in lines 8-11. These functions can access the values of the input ports without consuming them or performing any other modifications of the functionality state. The `GUARD()`-method evaluates these guards during determination whether the transition is enabled or not.

4. AUTOMATIC DESIGN SPACE EXPLORATION FOR DIGITAL SIGNAL PROCESSING SYSTEMS

Given an executable signal processing network specification written in SysteMoC, we can perform an automatic design space exploration (DSE). For this purpose, we need additional information, that is, a formal model for the *architecture template* as well as *mapping constraints* for the actors of the SysteMoC application. All these information are captured in a formal model to allow automatic DSE. The task of DSE is to find the best implementations fulfilling the requirements demanded by the formal model. As DSE is often confronted with the simultaneous optimization of many conflicting objectives, there is in general more than a single optimal solution. In fact, the result of the DSE is the so-called *Pareto-optimal set of solutions* [41], or at least an approximation of this set. Beside the task of covering the search space in order to guarantee good solutions, we have to consider the task of evaluating a single design point. In the design of FPGA implementations, the different objectives to minimize are, namely, the number of required look-up tables (LUTs), block RAMs (BRAMs), and flip-flops (FFs). These can be evaluated by analytic methods. However, in order to obtain good performance numbers for other especially important objectives such as latency and throughput, we will propose a simulation-based approach. In the following, we will present the formal model for the exploration, the automatic DSE using multiobjective evolutionary algorithms (MOEAs), as well as the concepts of our simulation-based performance evaluation.

4.1. Design space exploration using MOEAs

For the automatic design space exploration, we provide a formal underpinning. In the following, we will introduce the so-called *specification graph* [42]. This model strictly separates behavior and system structure: the *problem graph* models the behavior of the digital signal processing algorithm. This graph is derived from the *network graph*, as defined in Section 3, by discarding all information inside the actors as described later on. The architecture template is modeled by the so-called *architecture graph*. Finally, the *mapping edges* associate actors of the problem graph with resources in the architecture graph by a "can be implemented by" relation. In the following, we will formalize this model by using the definitions given in [42] in order to define the task of design space exploration formally.

The application is modeled by the so-called *problem graph* $g_{\text{p}} = (V_{\text{p}}, E_{\text{p}})$. Vertices $v \in V_{\text{p}}$ model actors whereas edges $e \in E_{\text{p}} \subseteq V_{\text{p}} \times V_{\text{p}}$ represent data dependencies between actors. Figure 5 shows a part of the problem graph corresponding to the hierarchical refinement of the $\text{IDCT}_{2\text{D}}$ actor a_4 from Figure 2. This problem graph is derived from the network graph by a one-to-one correspondence between network graph actors and channels to problem graph vertices while abstracting from

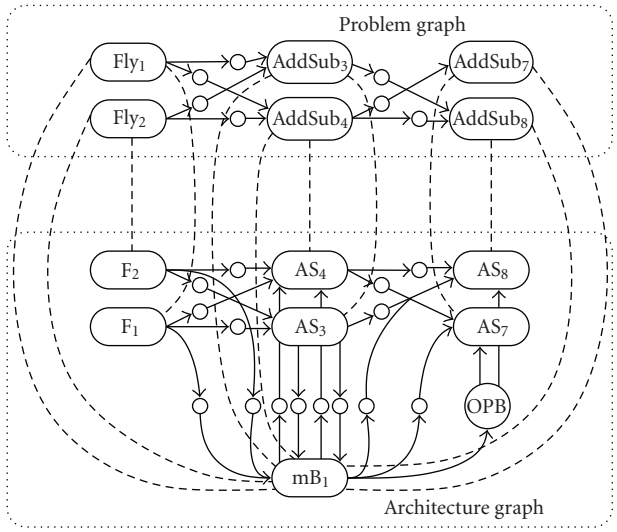

Figure 5: Partial specification graph for the IDCT-1D actor as shown in Figure 4. The upper part is a part of the problem graph of the IDCT-1D. The lower part shows the architecture graph consisting of several dedicated resources $\{F_1, F_2, AS_3, AS_4, AS_7, AS_8\}$ as well as a MicroBlaze CPU-core $\{mB_1\}$ and an OPB (open peripheral bus [43]). The dashed lines denote the mapping edges.

actor ports, but keeping the connection topology, that is, $\exists f : g_p.V_p \to g_n.A \cup g_n.C$, f is a *bijection* : for all $v_1, v_2 \in g_p.V_p : (v_1, v_2) \in g_p.E_p \Leftrightarrow (f(v_1) \in g_n.C \Rightarrow \exists p \in f(v_2).I : (f(v_1), p) \in g_n.E) \vee (f(v_2) \in g_n.C \Rightarrow \exists p \in f(v_1).O : (p, f(v_2)) \in g_n.E)$.

The architecture template including functional resources, buses, and memories is also modeled by a directed graph termed *architecture graph* $g_a = (V_a, E_a)$. Vertices $v \in V_a$ model functional resources (RISC processor, coprocessors, or ASIC) and communication resources (shared buses or point-to-point connections). Note that in our approach, we assume that the resources are selected from our component library as shown in Figure 1. These components can be either written by hand in a hardware description language or can be synthesized with the help of high-level synthesis tools such as Mentor CatapultC [8] or Forte Cynthesizer [9]. This is a prerequisite for the later automatic system generation as discussed in Section 5. An edge $e \in E_a$ in the architecture graph g_a models a directed link between two resources. All the resources are viewed as *potentially allocatable* components.

In order to perform an automatic DSE, we need information about the hardware resources that might by allocated. Hence, we annotate these properties to the vertices in the architecture graph g_a. Typical properties are the occupied area by a hardware module or the static power dissipation of a hardware module.

Example 4. For FPGA-based platforms, such as built on Xilinx FPGAs, typical resources are MicroBlaze CPU, open peripheral buses (OPB), fast simplex links (FSLs), or user specified modules representing implementations of actors in the problem graph. In the context of platform-based FPGA designs, we will consider the number of resources a hardware module is assigned to, that is, for instance, the number of required look-up tables (LUTs), the number of required block RAMs (BRAMs), and the number of required flip-flops (FFs).

Next, it is shown how user-defined mapping constraints representing possible bindings of actors onto resources can be specified in a graph-based model.

Definition 6 (specification graph [42]). A *specification graph* $g_s(V_s, E_s)$ consists of a problem graph $g_p(V_p, E_p)$, an architecture graph $g_a(V_a, E_a)$, and a set of *mapping edges* E_m. In particular, $V_s = V_p \cup V_a$, $E_s = E_p \cup E_a \cup E_m$, where $E_m \subseteq V_p \times V_a$.

Mapping edges relate the vertices of the problem graph to vertices of the architecture graph. The edges represent user-defined mapping constraints in the form of the relation "can be implemented by." Again, we annotate the properties of a particular mapping to an associated mapping edge. Properties of interest are dynamic power dissipation when executing an actor on the associated resource or the worst case execution time (WCET) of the actor when implemented on a CPU-core. In order to be more precise in the evaluation, we will consider the properties associated with the actions of an actor, that is, we annotate for each action the WCET to each mapping edge. Hence, our approach will perform an *actor-accurate binding* using an *action-accurate performance evaluation*, as discussed next.

Example 5. Figure 5 shows an example of a specification graph. The problem graph shown in the upper part is a subgraph of the IDCT-1D problem graph from Figure 4. The architecture graph consists of several dedicated resources connected by FIFO channels as well as a MicroBlaze CPU-core and an on-chip bus called OPB (open peripheral bus [43]). The channels between the MicroBlaze and the dedicated resources are FSLs. The dashed edges between the two graphs are the additional mapping edges E_m that describe the possible mappings. For example, all actors can be executed on the MicroBlaze CPU-core. For the sake of clarity, we omitted the mapping edges for the channels in this example. Moreover, we do not show the costs associated with the vertices in g_a and the mapping edges to maintain clarity of the figure.

In the above way, the model of a specification graph allows a flexible expression of the expert knowledge about useful architectures and mappings. The goal of design space exploration is to find optimal solutions which satisfy the specification given by the specification graph. Such a solution is called a *feasible implementation* of the specified system. Due to the multiobjective nature of this optimization problem, there is in general more than a single optimal solution.

System synthesis

Before discussing automatic design space exploration in detail, we briefly discuss the notion of a *feasible implementation* (cf. [42]). An implementation $\psi = (\alpha, \beta)$, being the result of

a system synthesis, consists of two parts: (1) the *allocation* α that indicates which elements of the architecture graph are used in the implementation and (2) the *binding* β, that is, the set of mapping edges which define the binding of vertices in the problem graph to resources of the architecture graph. The task of system synthesis is to determine optimal implementations. To identify the feasible region of the design space, it is necessary to determine the set of *feasible allocations* and *feasible bindings*. A *feasible binding* guarantees that communications demanded by the actors in the problem graph can be established in the allocated architecture. This property makes the resulting optimization problem hard to be solved. A *feasible allocation* is an allocation α that allows at least one feasible binding β.

Example 6. Consider the case that the allocation of vertices in Figure 5 is given as $\alpha = \{\mathrm{mB}_1, \mathrm{OPB}, \mathrm{AS}_3, \mathrm{AS}_4\}$. A feasible binding can be given by $\beta = \{(\mathrm{Fly}_1, \mathrm{mB}_1), (\mathrm{Fly}_2, \mathrm{mB}_1), (\mathrm{AddSub}_3, \mathrm{AS}_3), (\mathrm{AddSub}_4, \mathrm{AS}_4), (\mathrm{AddSub}_7, \mathrm{mB}_1), (\mathrm{AddSub}_8, \mathrm{mB}_1)\}$. All channels in the problem graph are mapped onto the OPB.

Given the implementation ψ, some properties of ψ can be calculated. This can be done analytically or simulation-based.

The optimization problem

Beside the problem of determining a single feasible solution, it is also important to identify the set of optimal solutions. This is done during automatic design space exploration (DSE). The task of automatic DSE can be formulated as a *multiobjective combinatorial optimization problem*.

Definition 7 (automatic design space exploration). The task of *automatic design space exploration* is the following multiobjective optimization problem (see, e.g., [44]) where without loss of generality, only minimization problems are assumed here:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{minimize } f(x), \\ &\text{subject to :} \\ &\quad x \text{ represents a feasible implementation } \psi, \\ &\quad c_i(x) \le 0, \quad \forall i \in \{1, \ldots, q\}, \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where $x = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{\mathrm{m}}) \in X$ is the *decision vector*, X is the *decision space*, $f(x) = (f_1(x), f_2(x), \ldots, f_n(x)) \in Y$ is the *objective function,* and Y is the *objective space*.

Here, x is an encoding called *decision vector* representing an implementation ψ. Moreover, there are q constraints $c_i(x)$, $i = 1, \ldots, q$, imposed on x defining the set of feasible implementations. The *objective function* f is n-dimensional, that is, n objectives are optimized simultaneously. For example, in embedded system design it is required that the monetary cost and the power dissipation of an implementation are minimized simultaneously. Often, objectives in embedded system design are conflicting [45].

Only those *design points* $x \in X$ that represent a feasible implementation ψ and that satisfy all constraints c_i are in the set of feasible solutions, or for short in the *feasible set* called $X_{\mathrm{f}} = \{x \mid \psi(x) \text{ being feasible} \wedge c(x) \le 0\} \subseteq X$.

A decision vector $x \in X_{\mathrm{f}}$ is said to be nondominated regarding a set $A \subseteq X_{\mathrm{f}}$ if and only if $\nexists a \in A : a \succ x$ with $a \succ x$ if and only if for all $i : f_i(a) \le f_i(x)$.[2] A decision vector x is said to be Pareto optimal if and only if x is nondominated regarding X_{f}. The set of all Pareto-optimal solutions is called the *Pareto-optimal set*, or the *Pareto set* for short.

We solve this challenging multiobjective combinatorial optimization problem by using the state-of-the-art MOEAs [46]. For this purpose, we use sophisticated decoding of the individuals as well as integrated symbolic techniques to improve the search speed [2, 42, 47–49]. Beside the task of covering the design space using MOEAs, it is important to evaluate each design point. As many of the considered objectives can be calculated analytically (e.g., FPGA-specific objectives such as total number of LUTs, FFs, BRAMs), we need in general more time-consuming methods to evaluate other objectives. In the following, we will introduce our approach to a simulation-based performance evaluation in order to assess an implementation by means of latency and throughput.

4.2. Simulation-based performance evaluation

Many system-level design approaches rely on application modeling using static dataflow models of computation for signal processing systems. Popular dataflow models are SDF and CSDF or HSDF. Those models of computation allow for static scheduling [31] in order to assess the latency and throughput of a digital signal processing system. On the other hand, the modeling restrictions often prohibit the representation of complex real-world applications, especially if data-dependent control flow or data-dependent actor activation is required. As our approach is not limited to static dataflow models, we are able to model more flexible and complex systems. However, this implies that the performance evaluation in general is not any longer possible through static scheduling approaches.

As synthesizing a hardware prototype for each design point is also too expensive and too time-consuming, a methodology for analyzing the system performance is needed. Generally, there exist two options to assess the performance of a design point: (1) by simulation and (2) by analytical methods. Simulation-based approaches permit a more detailed performance evaluation than formal analyses as the behavior and the timing can interfere as is the case when using nondeterministic merge actors. However, simulation-based approaches reveal only the performance for certain stimuli. In this paper, we focus on a simulation-based performance evaluation and we will show how to generate efficient SystemC simulation models for each design point during DSE automatically.

Our performance evaluation concept is as follows: during design space exploration, we assess the performance of each

[2] Without loss of generality, only minimization problems are considered.

feasible implementation with respect to a given set of stimuli. For this purpose, we also model the architecture in SystemC by means of the so-called *virtual processing components* [50]: for each activated vertex in the architecture graph, we create such a virtual processing component. These components are called *virtual* as they are not able to perform any computation but are only used to simulate the delays of actions from actors mapped onto these components. Thus, our simulation approach is called virtual processing components.

In order to simulate the timing of the given SysteMoC application, the actors are mapped onto the virtual processing components according to the binding β. This is established by augmenting the end of all actions $f \in a.\mathcal{F}.F_{\text{action}}$ of each actor $a \in g_{\text{n}}.A$ with the so-called `compute` function calls. In the simulation, these function calls will block an actor until the corresponding virtual processing components signal the end of the computation. Note that this end time generally depends on (i) the WCET of an action, (ii) other actors bound onto the same virtual processing component, as well as (iii) the stimuli used for simulation. In order to simulate effects of resource contention and resolve resource conflicts, a scheduling strategy is associated with each virtual processing component. The scheduling strategy might be either preemptive or nonpreemptive, like *first come first served*, *round robin*, *priority based* [51].

Beside modeling WCETs of each action, we are able to model functional pipelining in our simulation approach. This is established by distinction of WCET and the so-called *data introduction interval* (DII). In this case, resource contention is only considered during the DII. The difference between WCET and DII is an additional delay for the production of output tokens of a computation and does not occupy any resources.

Example 7. Figure 6 shows an example for modeling preemptive scheduling. Two actors, AddSub_7 and AddSub_8, perform `compute` function calls on the instantiated MicroBlaze processor mB_1. We assume in this example that the MicroBlaze applied a priority-based scheduling strategy for scheduling all actor action execution requests that are bound to the MicroBlaze processor. We also assume that the actor AddSub_7 has a higher priority than the actor AddSub_8. Thus, the execution of the action $f_{\texttt{addsub}}$ of the AddSub_7 actor preempts the execution of the action $f'_{\texttt{addsub}}$ of the AddSub_8 actor. Our VPC framework provides the necessary interface between virtual processing components and schedulers: the virtual processing component notifies the scheduler about each `compute` function call while the scheduler replies with its scheduling decision.

The performance evaluation is performed by a combined simulation, that is, we simulate the functionality and the timing in one single simulation model. As a result of the SystemC-based simulation, we get traces logged during the simulation, showing the activation of actions, the start times, as well as the end times. These traces are used to assess the performance of an implementation by means of *average latency* and *average throughput*. In general, this approach leads

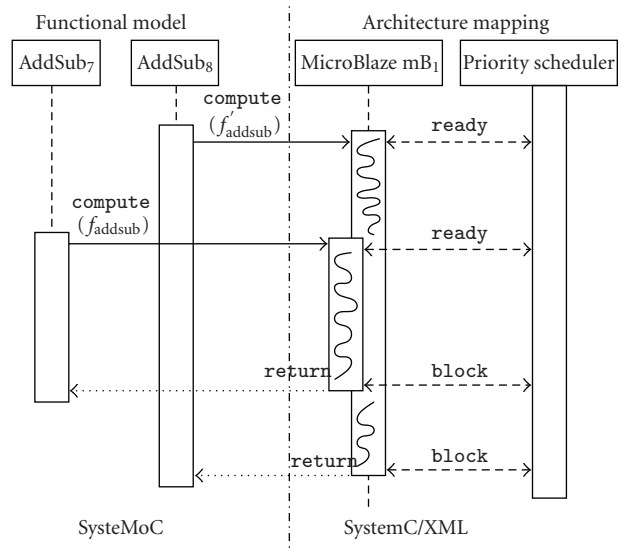

Figure 6: Example of modeling preemptive scheduling within the concept of virtual processing components [50]: two actor actions compete for the same virtual processing component by `compute` function calls. An associated *scheduler* resolves the conflict by selecting the action to be executed.

to very precise simulation results according to the level of abstraction, that is, *action accuracy*.

Compared to other approaches, we support a detailed performance evaluation of heterogeneous multiprocessor architectures supporting arbitrary preemptive and nonpreemptive scheduling strategies, while needing almost no source code modifications. The approach given in [52, 53] allows for modeling of real-time scheduling strategies by introducing a real-time operating system (RTOS) module based on SystemC. Therefore, each atomic operation, for example, any code line, is augmented by an `await()` function call within all software tasks. Each of those function calls enforces a scheduling decision, also known as *cooperative scheduling*. On top of those predetermined breaking points, the RTOS module emulates a preemptive scheduling policy for software tasks running on the same RTOS module. Another approach found in [54] motivates the so-called *virtual processing units* (VPU) for representing processors. Each VPU supports only a priority-based scheduling strategy. Software processes are modeled as *timed communication extended finite state machines* (tCEFSM). Each state transition of a tCEFSM represents an atomic operation and consumes a fixed amount of processor cycles. The modeling of time is the main limitation of this approach, because each transition of a tCEFSM requires the same number of processor cycles. Our VPC framework overcomes those limitations by combining (i) action-accurate, (ii) resource-accurate, and (iii) contention- and scheduling-accurate timing simulation.

In the Sesame framework [12] a *virtual processor* is used to map an event trace to a SystemC-based transaction level architecture simulation. For this purpose, the application

code given as a Kahn process network is annotated with *read*, *write*, and *execute* statements. While executing the Kahn application, traces of *application events* are generated and passed to the *virtual processor*. Computational events (*execute*) are dispatched directly by the *virtual processor* which simulates the timing and communication events (*read*, *write*) are passed to a transaction level SystemC-based architecture simulator. As the scheduling of an event trace in a *virtual processor* does not affect the application, the Sesame framework does not support modeling of time-dependent application behavior. In our VPC framework, application and architecture are simulated in the same simulation-time domain and thus the blocking of a `compute` function call allows for simulation of time-dependent behavior. Further on, we do not explicitly distinguish between communication and computational execution, instead both types of execution use the `compute` function call for timing simulation. This abstract modeling of computation and communication delays results in a fast performance evaluation, but does not reveal the details of a transaction level simulation.

One important aspect of our design flow is that we can generate these efficient simulation models automatically. This is due to our SysteMoC library.[3] As we have to control the three phases in the simulation as discussed in Section 3.2, we can introduce the `compute` function calls directly at the end of phase (ii), that is, no additional modifications of the source code are necessary when using SysteMoC.

In summary, the advantages of virtual processing components are (i) a clear separation between model of computation and model of architecture, (ii) a flexible mapping of the application to the architecture, (iii) a high level of abstraction, and (iv) the combination of functional simulation together with performance simulation.

While performing design space exploration, there is a need for a rapid performance evaluation of different allocations α and bindings β. Thus, the VPC framework was designed for a fast simulation model generation. Figure 7 gives an overview of the implemented concepts. Figure 7(a) shows the implementation $\psi = (\alpha, \beta)$ as a result of the automatic design space exploration. In Figure 7(b), the automatically generated VPC simulation model is shown. The so-called *Director* is responsible for instantiating the virtual processing components according to a given allocation α. Moreover, the binding β is performed by the *Director*, in mapping each SysteMoC actor `compute` function call to the bound virtual processing components.

Before running the simulation, the *Director* is configured with the necessary information, that is, implementation which should be evaluated. Finally, the *Director* manages the mapping parameters, that is, WCETs and DII of the actions in order to control the simulation times. The configuration is performed through an .xml-file omitting unnecessary recompilations of the simulation model for each design point and, thus, allowing for a fast performance evaluation of large populations of implementations.

[3] VPC can also be used together with plain SystemC modules.

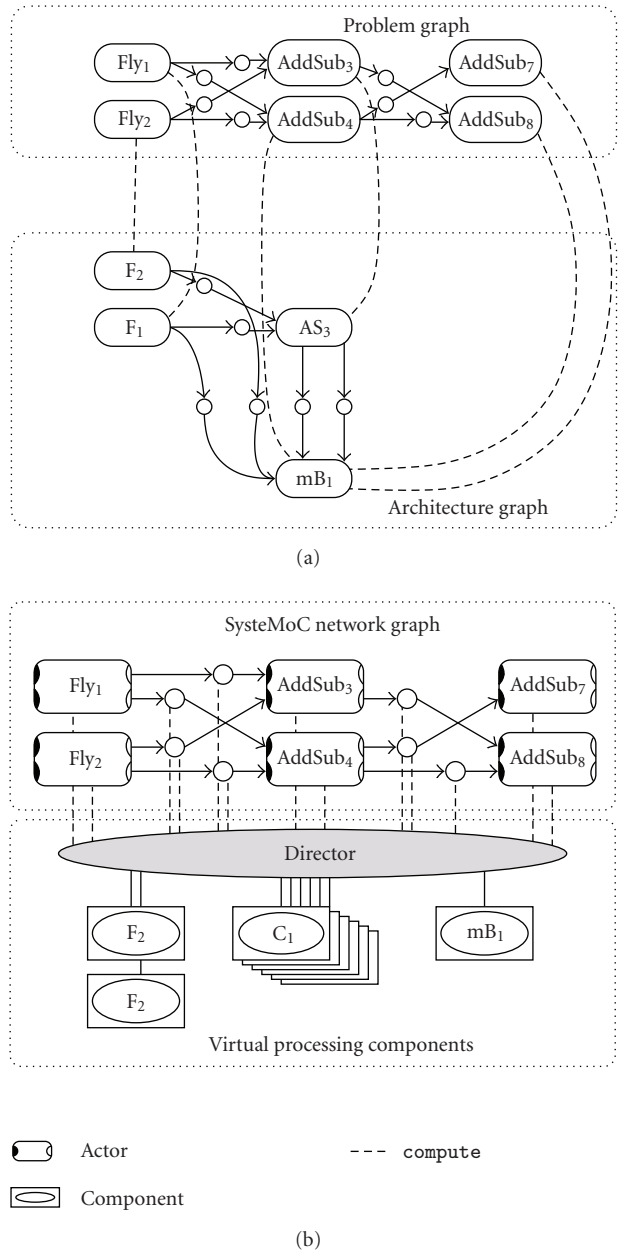

Figure 7: Approach to (i) action-accurate, (ii) resource-accurate, and (iii) contention- and scheduling-accurate simulation-based performance evaluation. (a) An example of one *implementation* as result of the automatic DSE, and (b) the corresponding VPC simulation model. The *Director* constructs the virtual processing components according to the allocation α. Additionally, the *Director* implements the binding of SysteMoC actors onto the virtual processing components according to a specific binding β.

5. AUTOMATIC SYSTEM GENERATION

The result of the automatic design space exploration is a set of nondominated solutions. From these solutions, the designer can select one implementation according to additional requirements or preferences. This process is known as *decision making* in multiobjective optimization.

In this section, we show how to automatically generate a hardware/software implementation for FPGA-based SoC platforms according to the selected allocation and binding. For this purpose, three tasks must be performed: (1) generate the allocated hardware modules, (2) generate the necessary software for each allocated processor core including action code, communication code, and finally scheduling code, and (3) insert the communication resources establishing software/software, hardware/hardware, as well as hardware/software communication. In the following, we will introduce our solution to these three tasks. Moreover, the efficiency of our provided communication resources will be discussed in this section.

5.1. Generating the architecture

Each implementation $\psi = (\alpha, \beta)$ produced by the automatic DSE and selected by the designer is used as input to our automatic system generator for FPGA-based SoC platforms. In our following case study, we specify the system generation flow for Xilinx FPGA platforms only. Figure 8 shows the general flow for Xilinx platforms. The architecture generation is threefold: first, the system generator automatically generates the MicroBlaze subsystems, that is, for each allocated CPU resource, a MicroBlaze subsystem is instantiated. Second, the system generator automatically inserts the allocated IP cores. Finally, the system generator automatically inserts the communication resources. The result of this architecture generation is a hardware description file (.mhs-file) in case of the Xilinx EDK (embedded development Kit [55]) toolchain. In the following, we discuss some details of the architecture generation process.

According to these three above-mentioned steps, the resources in the architecture graph can be classified to be of type *MicroBlaze*, *IP core*, or *Channel*. In order to allow a hardware synthesis of this architecture, the vertices in the architecture graph contain additional information, as, for example, the memory sizes of the MicroBlazes or the names and versions of VHDL descriptions representing the IP cores.

Beside the information stored in the architecture graph, information of the SysteMoC application must be considered during the architecture generation as well. A vertex in the problem graph is either of type *Actor* or of type *Fifo*. Consider the Fly_1 actor and communication vertices between actors shown in Figure 8, respectively. A vertex of type *Actor* contains information about the order and values of constructor parameters belonging to the corresponding SysteMoC actor. A vertex of type *Fifo* contains information about the depth and the data type of the communication channel used in the SysteMoC application. If a SysteMoC actor is bound onto a dedicated IP core, the VHDL/Verilog source files of the IP core must be stored in the component library (see Figure 8). For each vertex of type *Actor*, the mapping of SysteMoC constructor parameters to corresponding VHDL/Verilog generics is stored in an *actor information file* to avoid, for example, name conflicts. Moreover, the mapping of SysteMoC ports to VHDL ports has to be taken into account as they do not have to be necessarily the same.

As the system generator traverses the architecture graph, it starts for each vertex in the architecture graph of type *MicroBlaze* or *IP core* the corresponding subsynthesizer which produces an entry in the EDK architecture file. The vertices which are mapped onto a MicroBlaze are determined and registered for the automatic software generation, as discussed in the next section.

After instantiating the MicroBlaze cores and the IP cores, the final step is to insert the communication resources. These communication resources are taken from our platform-specific communication library (see Figure 8). We will discuss this communication library in more detail in Section 5.3. For now, we only give a brief introduction. The software/software communication of SysteMoC actors is done through special SysteMoC software FIFOs by exchanging data within the MicroBlaze by reads and writes to local memory buffers. For hardware/hardware communication, that is, communication between IP cores, we insert the special so-called SysteMoC FIFO which allows, for example, nondestructive reads. It will be discussed in more detail in Section 5.3. The hardware/software communication is mapped on special SysteMoC hardware/software FIFOs. These FIFOs are connected to instantiated fast simplex link (FSL) ports of a MicroBlaze core. Thus, outgoing and incoming communication of actors running on a MicroBlaze use the corresponding implementation which transfers data via the FSL ports of MicroBlaze cores. In case of transmitting data from an IP core to a MicroBlaze, the so-called *smoc2fsl-bridge* transfers data from the IP core to the corresponding FSL port. The opposite communication direction instantiates an *fsl2smoc-bridge*.

After generating the architecture and running our software synthesis tool for SysteMoC actors mapped onto each MicroBlaze, as discussed next, several Xilinx implementation tools are started which produce the platform specific bit file by using several Xilinx synthesis tools including *mb-gcc*, *map*, *par*, *bitgen*, *data2mem*, and so on. Finally, the bit file can be loaded on the FPGA platform and the application can be run.

5.2. Generating the software

In case multiple actors are mapped onto one CPU-core, we generate the so-called *self-schedules*, that is, each actor is tested round robin if it has a fireable action. For this purpose, each SysteMoC actor is translated into a C++ class. The actor functionality $\mathcal{F}$ is copied to the new C++ class, that is, member variables and functions. Actor ports $\mathcal{P}$ are replaced by pointers to the SysteMoC software FIFOs. Finally, for the firing FSM $\mathcal{R}$, a special method called `fire` is generated. Thus, the `fire` method checks the activation of the actor and performs if possible an activated state transition.

To finalize the software generation, instances of each actors corresponding C++ class as well as instances of required SysteMoC software FIFOs are created in a top-level file. In our default implementation, the main function of each CPU-core consists of a `while(true)` loop which tries to execute each actor in a round robin discipline (self-scheduling).

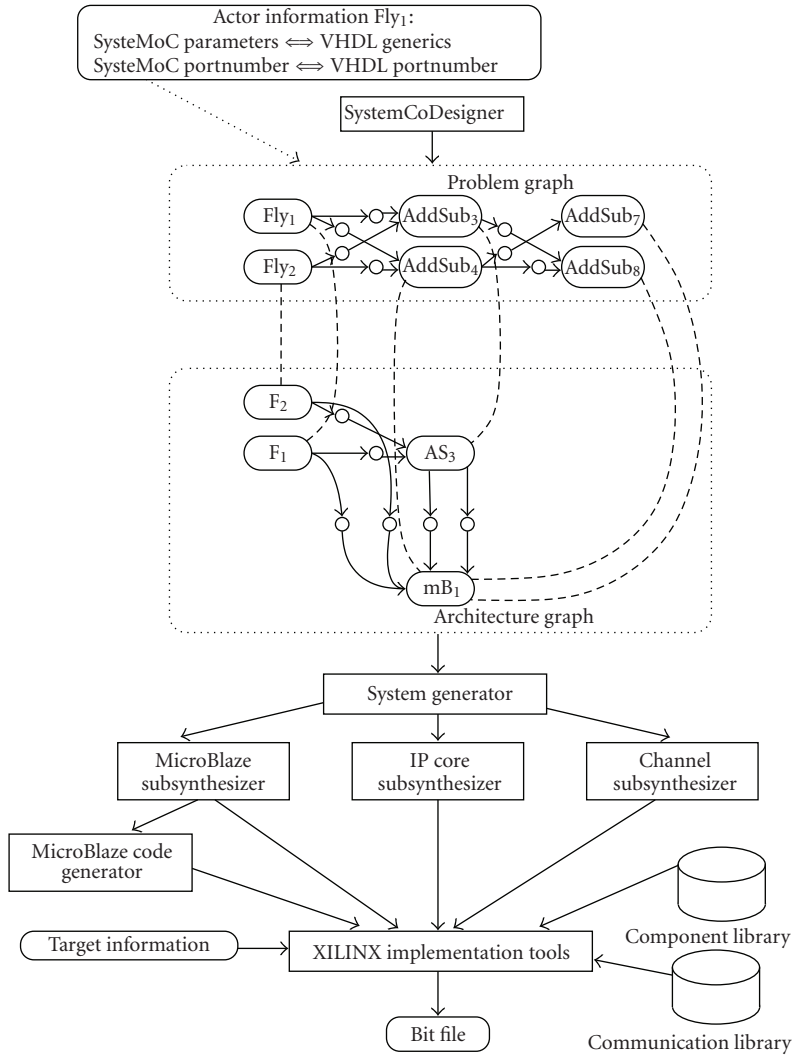

Figure 8: Automatic system generation: starting with the selected implementation within the automatic DSE, the system generator automatically generates the MicroBlaze subsystems, inserts the allocated IP cores, and finally connects these functional resources by communication resources. The bit file for configuring the FPGA is automatically generated by an additional software synthesis step and by using the Xilinx design tools, that is, the embedded development kit (EDK) [55] toolchain.

The proposed software generation shows similarities to the software generations discussed in [56, 57]. However, in future work our approach has the potential to replace the above self-scheduling strategy by more sophisticated dynamic scheduling strategies or even optimized static or quasi-static schedules by analyzing the firing FSMs.

In future work we can additionally modify the software generation for DSPs to replace the actor functionality $\mathcal{F}$ with an optimized function provided by DSP vendors, similar as described in [58].

5.3. SysteMoC communication resources

In this section, we introduce our communication library which is used during system generation. The library supports software/software, hardware/hardware, as well as hardware/software communication. All these different kinds of communication provide the same interface as shown in Table 1. This is a quite intuitive interface definition that is similar to interfaces used in other works, like, for example, [59]. In the following, we call each communication resource which implements our interface a SysteMoC FIFO.

The SysteMoC FIFO communication resource provides three different services. They store data, transport data, and synchronize the actors via availability of tokens, respectively, buffer space. The implementation of this communication resource is not limited to be a simple FIFO, it may, for example, consist of two hardware modules that communicate over a bus. In this case, one of the modules would implement the read interface, the other one the write interface.

To be able to store data in the SysteMoC FIFO, it has to contain a buffer. Depending on the implementation, this

Table 1: SysteMoC FIFO interface.

Operation	Behavior
rd_tokens()	Returns how many tokens can be read from the SysteMoC-FIFO (available tokens).
wr_tokens()	Returns how many tokens can be written into the SysteMoC-FIFO (free tokens).
read(offset)	Reads a token from a given *offset* relative to the first available token. The read token is not removed from the SysteMoC-FIFO.
write(offset, value)	Writes a token to a given *offset* relative to the first free token. The written token is not made available.
rd_commit(count)	Removes *count* tokens from the SysteMoC-FIFO.
wr_commit(count)	Makes *count* tokens available for reading.

buffer may also be distributed over different modules. Of course, it would be possible to optimize the buffer sizes for a given application. However, this is currently not supported in SystemCoDesigner. The network graph given by the user contains buffer sizes.

As can be seen from Table 1, a SysteMoC FIFO is more complex than a simple FIFO. This is due to the fact that simple FIFOs do not support nonconsuming read operations for guard functions and that SysteMoC FIFOs must be able to commit more than one read or written token.

For actors that are implemented in software, our communication library supports an efficient software implementation of the described interface. These SysteMoC software FIFOs are based on shared memory and thus allow actors to use a low-overhead communication. For hardware/hardware communication, there is an implementation for Xilinx FPGAs in our communication library. This SysteMoC hardware FIFO uses embedded Block RAM (BRAM) and allows to write and read tokens concurrently every clock cycle. Due to the more complex operations of the SysteMoC hardware FIFO, they are larger than simple native FIFOs created with, for example, CORE Generator for Xilinx FPGAs.

For a comparison, we synthesized different 32 bit wide SysteMoC hardware FIFOs as well as FIFOs generated by Xilinx's CORE generator for an Xilinx XC2VP30 FPGA. The CORE generator FIFOs are created using the synchronous FIFO v5.0 generator without any optional ports and using BRAM. Figure 9 shows the number of occupied flip-flops (FFs) and 4-input look-up tables (LUTs) for FIFOs of different depths. The number of used Block RAMs only depends on the depth and the width of the FIFOs and thus does not vary between SysteMoC and CORE Generator FIFOs.

As Figure 9 shows, the maximum overhead for 4096 tokens depth FIFOs is just 12 FFs and 33 4-input LUTs. Compared to the required 8 BRAMs, this is a very small overhead. Even the maximum clock rates for these FIFOs are very similar and with more than 200 MHz about 4 times higher than typically required.

The last kind of communication resources is the SysteMoC hardware/software FIFOs. Our communication library

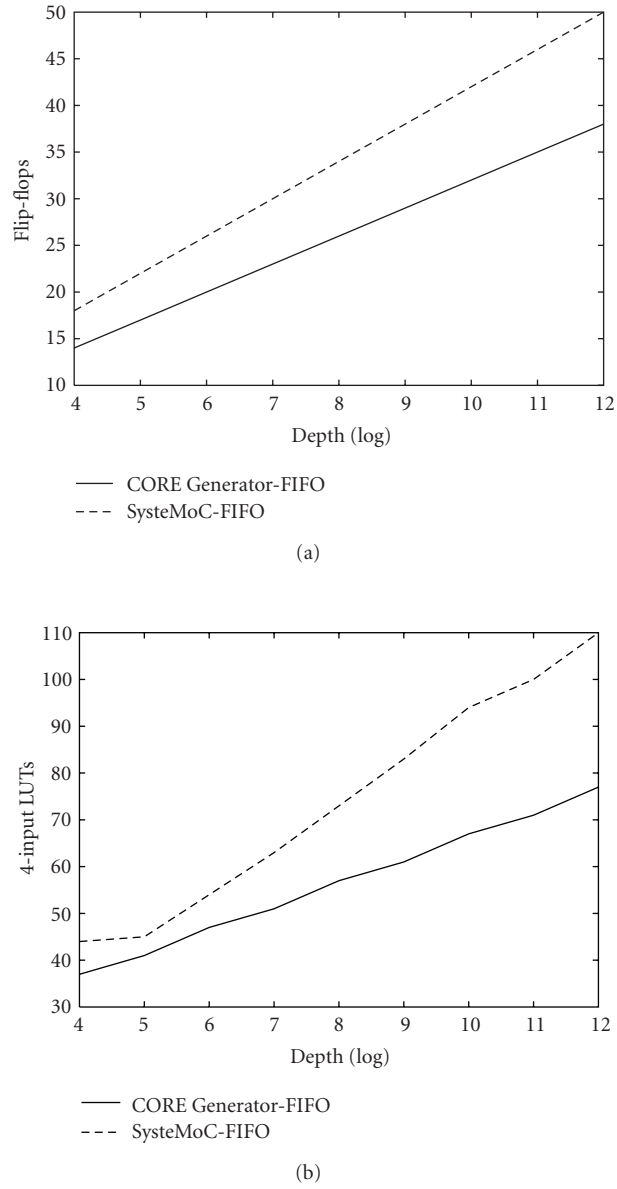

Figure 9: Comparison of (a) flip-flops (FF) and (b) 4-input look-up tables (LUTs) for SysteMoC hardware FIFOs and simple native FIFOs generated by Xilinx's CORE Generator.

supports two different types called *smoc2fsl-bridge* and *fsl2smoc-bridge*. As the name suggests, the communication is done via fast simplex links (FSLs). In order to provide the SysteMoC FIFO interface as shown in Table 1 to the software, there is a software driver with some local memory to implement this interface and access the FSL ports of the MicroBlazes. The *smoc2fsl-bridge* and *fsl2smoc-bridge* are required adapters to connect hardware SysteMoC FIFOs to FSL ports. Therefore, the *smoc2fsl-bridge* reads values from a connected SysteMoC FIFO and writes them to the FSL port. On the other side, the *fsl2smoc-bridge* allows to transfer data from a FSL port to a hardware SysteMoC FIFO.

6. RESULTS

In this section, we demonstrate first results of our design flow by applying it to the two-dimensional inverse discrete cosine transform ($\texttt{IDCT}_{2D}$) being part of the MPEG-4 decoder model. Principally, this encompasses the following tasks. (i) Estimation of the attributes, like number of flip-flops or execution delays required for the automatic design space exploration (DSE). (ii) Generation of the specification graph and performing the automatic DSE. (iii) Selection of design points due to the designer's preferences and their automatic translation into a hardware/software system with the methods described in Section 5. In the following, we will present these issues as implemented in SystemCoDesigner in more detail using the $\texttt{IDCT}_{2D}$ example. Moreover, we will analyze the accuracy between design parameters estimated by our simulation model and the implementation as a first step towards an optimized design flow. By restricting to the $\texttt{IDCT}_{2D}$ with its data independent behavior, comparison between the VPC estimates and the measured values of the real implementations can be performed particularly well. This allows to clearly show the benefits of our approach as well as to analyze the reasons for observed differences.

6.1. Determination of the actor attributes

As described in Section 4, automatic design space exploration (DSE) selects implementation alternatives based on different objectives as, for example, the number of hardware resources or achieved throughput and latency. These objectives are calculated based on the information available for a single actor action or hardware module. For the hardware modules, we have taken into account the number of flip-flops (FFs), look-up tables (LUTs), and block RAM (BRAM). As our design methodology allows for parameterized hardware IP cores, and as the concrete parameter values influence the required hardware resources, the latter ones are determined by generating an implementation where each actor is mapped to the corresponding hardware IP core. A synthesis run with a tool like Xilinx XST then delivers the required values.

Furthermore, we have derived the execution time for each actor action if implemented as hardware module. Whereas the hardware resource attributes differ with the actor parameters, the execution times stay constant for our application and can hence be predetermined once for each IP core by VHDL code analysis. Additionally, the software execution time is determined for each action of each SysteMoC actor through processing it by our software synthesis tool (see Section 5.2) and execution on the MicroBlaze processor, stimulated by a test pattern. The corresponding execution times can then be measured using an *instruction set simulator*, a hardware profiler, or a simulation with, for example, *Modelsim* [8].

6.2. Performing automatic design space exploration

To start the design space exploration we need to construct a specification graph for our $\texttt{IDCT}_{2D}$ example which consists of about 45 actors and about 90 FIFOs. Starting from the problem graph, an architecture template is constructed, such that a hardware-only solution is possible. In other words, each actor can be mapped to a corresponding dedicated hardware module. For the FIFOs, we allow two implementation alternatives, namely, block RAM (BRAM) based and look-up table (LUT) based. Hence, we force the automatic design space exploration to find the best implementation for each FIFO. Intuitively, large FIFOs should make use of BRAMs as otherwise too many LUTs are required. Small FIFOs on the other hand can be synthesized using LUTs, as the number of BRAMs available in an FPGA is restricted.

To this hardware-only architecture graph, a variable number of MicroBlaze processors are added, so that each actor can also be executed in software. In this paper, we have used a fixed configuration for the MicroBlaze softcore processor including 128 kB of BRAM for the software. Finally, the mapping of the problem graph to this architecture graph is determined in order to obtain the specification graph. The latter one is annotated with the objective attributes determined as described above and serves as input to the automatic DSE.

In our experiments, we explore a five-dimensional design space where throughput is maximized, while latency, number of look-up tables (LUTs), number of flip-flops (FFs), as well as the sum of BRAM and multiplier resources are minimized simultaneously. The BRAM and the multiplier resources are combined to one objective, as they cannot be allocated independently in Xilinx Virtex-II Pro devices. In general, a pair of one multiplier and one BRAM conflict each other by using the same communication resources in a Xilinx Virtex-II Pro device. For some special cases a combined usage of the BRAM-multiplier pair is possible. This could be taken into account by our design space exploration through inclusion of BRAM access width. However, for reasons of clarity this is not considered furthermore in this paper.

Table 2 gives the results of a single run of the design space exploration of the $\texttt{IDCT}_{2D}$. The exploration has been stopped after 300 generations which corresponds to 14 hours, and 18

Table 2: Results of a design space exploration running for 14 hours and 18 minutes using a Linux workstation with a 1800 MHz AMD Athlon XP Processor and 1 GB of RAM.

Parameter	Value
Population archive	500
Parents	75
Children	75
Generations	300
Individuals overall	23 000
Nondominated individuals	1 002
Exploration time	14 h 18 min
Overall simulation time	3 h 18 min
Simulation time	0.52 s/individual

Table 3: Comparison of the results obtained by estimation during exploration and after system synthesis. The last table line shows the values obtained for an optimized two-dimensional IDCT module generated by the Xilinx CORE Generator, working on 8×8 blocks.

SW-actors	LUT	FF	BRAM/MUL	Throughput (Blocks/s)	Latency (μs/Block)	
0	12 436	7 875	85	155 763.23	22.71	Estimation
	11 464	7 774	85	155 763.23	22.27	Synthesis
	8.5%	1.3%	0%	0%	2.0%	rel. error
24	8 633	4 377	85	75.02	65 505.50	Estimation
	7 971	4 220	85	70.84	71 058.87	Synthesis
	8.3%	3.7%	0%	5.9%	7.8%	rel. error
40	3 498	2 345	70	45.62	143 849.00	Estimation
	3 152	2 175	70	24.26	265 427.68	Synthesis
	11.0%	7.8%	0%	88.1%	45.8%	rel. error
44	2 166	1 281	67	41.71	157 931.00	Estimation
	1 791	1 122	67	22.84	281 616.43	Synthesis
	23.0%	14.2%	0%	82.6%	43.9%	rel. error
All	1 949	1 083	67	41.27	159 547.00	Estimation
	1 603	899	67	22.70	283 619.82	Synthesis
	21.6%	20.5%	0%	81.8%	43.7%	rel. error
0	2 651	3 333	1	781 250.00	1.86	CORE Generator

minutes.[4] This exploration run was made on a typical Linux workstation with a single 1800 MHz AMD Athlon XP Processor and a memory size of 1 GB. Main part of the time was used for simulation and subsequent throughput and latency calculation for each design point using SysteMoC and the VPC framework. More precisely, the accumulated wall-clock time for all individuals is about 3 hours and the accumulated time needed to calculate the performance numbers is about 6 hours, leading to average wall-clock time of 0.52 seconds and 0.95 seconds, respectively. The set of stimuli used in simulation consists of 10 blocks with size of 8×8 pixels. In summary, the exploration produced 23 000 design points over 300 populations, having 500 individuals and 75 children in each population.[5] At the end of the design space exploration, we counted 1,002 non-dominated individuals. Two salient Pareto-optimal solutions are the hardware-only solution and the software-only solution. The hardware-only implementation obtains the best performance with a latency of 22.71 μs/Block and a throughput of one block each 6.42 μs, more than 155.76 Blocks/ms. The software-only solution needs the minimum number of 67 BRAMs and multipliers, the minimum number of 1 083 flip-flops, and the minimum number of 1 949 look-up tables.

6.3. Automatic system generation

To demonstrate our system design methodology, we have selected 5 design points generated by the design space exploration, which are automatically implemented by our system generator tool.

[4] Each generation corresponds to a population of several individuals where each individual represents a hardware/software solution of the $\texttt{IDCT}_{2D}$ example.

[5] The initial population started with 500 random generated individuals.

Table 3 shows both the values determined by the exploration tool (estimation), as well as those measured for the implementation (synthesis). Considering the hardware resources, the estimations obtained during exploration are quite close to the results obtained for the synthesized FPGA circuit. The variations can be explained by post synthesis optimizations as, for example, by register duplication or removal, by trimming of unused logic paths, and so forth, which cannot be taken into account by our exploration tool. Furthermore, the size of the MicroBlaze varies with its configuration, as, for example, the number of FSL links. As we have assumed the worst case of 16 used FSL ports per MicroBlaze, this effect can be particularly well seen for the software-only solution, where the influence of the missing FSL links is clearly visible.

Concerning throughput and latency, we have to distinguish two cases: pure hardware implementations and designs including a processor softcore. In the first case, there is a quite good match between the expected values obtained by simulation and the measured ones for the concrete hardware implementation. Consequently, our approach for characterizing each hardware module individually as an input for our actor-based VPC simulation shows to be worthwhile. The observed differences between the measured values and the estimations performed by the VPC framework can be explained by the early communication behavior of several IP cores as explained in Section 6.3.1.

For solutions including software, the differences are more pronounced. This is due to the fact that our simulation is only an approximation of the implementation. In particular, we have identified the following sources for the observed differences: (i) communication processes encompassing more than one hardware resource, (ii) the scheduling overhead caused by software execution, (iii) the execution order caused by different scheduling policies, and (iv) variable

Table 4: Overall overhead for the implementations shown in Table 3. The overhead due to scheduling decisions is given explicitly.

SW-actors	Overhead		Throughput (Blocks/s)		Latency (μs/Block)	
	Overall	Sched.	Cor. simulation	Cor. error	Cor. simulation	Cor. error
24	6.9%	0.9%	69.84	1.4%	70 360.36	1.0%
40	43.7%	39.9%	25.68	5.9%	255 504.44	3.7%
44	41.3%	40.2%	24.48	7.2%	269 047.70	4.5%
All	41.0%	41.0%	24.36	7.3%	270 267.58	4.7%

guard and action execution times caused by conditional code statements.

In the following sections, we will shortly review each of the above-mentioned points explaining the discrepancy between the VPC values for throughput and latency and the results of our measurements.

Finally, Section 6.3.5 is dedicated to the comparison of the optimized CORE Generator module and the implementations obtained by our automatic approach.

6.3.1. Early communication of hardware IP cores

The differences occurring for the latency values of the hardware-only solution can be mainly explained by the communication behavior of the IP cores. According to SysteMoC semantics, communication takes only place after having executed the corresponding action. In other words, the consumed tokens are only removed from the input FIFOs after the actor action has been terminated. The equivalent holds for the produced tokens.

For hardware modules, this behavior is not very common. Especially the input tokens are removed from the input FIFOs rather than at the beginning of the action. Hence, this can lead to earlier firing times of the corresponding source actor in hardware than supposed by the VPC simulation. Furthermore, some of the IP cores pass the generated values to the output FIFOs' some clock cycles before the end of the actor action. Examples are, for instance, the actors `block2row` and `transpose`. Consequently, the corresponding sink actor can also fire earlier. In the general case, this behavior can lead to variations in both throughput and latency between the estimation performed by the VPC framework and the measured value.

6.3.2. Multiresource communication

For the hardware/software systems, parts of the differences observed between the VPC simulation and the real implementation can be attributed to the communication processes between IP cores and the MicroBlaze. As our SysteMoC FIFOs allow for access to values addressed by an offset (see Section 5.3), it is not possible to directly use the FSL interface provided by the MicroBlaze processor. Instead, a software layer has to be added. Hence, a communication between both a MicroBlaze and an IP core activates the hardware itself as well as the MicroBlaze. In order to represent this behavior correctly in our VPC framework, a communication process between a hardware and a software actor must be mapped to several resources (multihop communication). As the current version of our SystemCoDesigner does not provide this feature, the hardware/software communication can only be mapped to the hardware FIFO. Consequently, the time which the MicroBlaze spends for the communication is not correctly taken into account and the estimations for throughput and latency performed by the VPC framework are too optimistic.

6.3.3. Scheduling overhead

A second major reason for the discrepancy between the VPC estimations and the real implementations is situated in the scheduling overhead. The latter one is the time required for determination of the next actor which can be executed. Whereas in our simulation performed during automatic design space exploration, this decision can be performed in zero time (simulated time), this is not true any more for implementations running on a MicroBlaze processor. This is because the test whether an actor can be fired requires the verification of all conditions for the next possible transitions of the firing state machine. This results in one or more function calls.

In order to assess the overhead which is not taken into account by our VPC simulation, we evaluated it for each example implementation given in Table 3 by hand. For the software-only solutions, this overhead exactly corresponds to the scheduling decisions, whereas for the hardware/software realizations it encompasses both schedule decisions and communication overhead on the MicroBlaze processor (Section 6.3.2).

The corresponding results are shown in Table 4. It clearly shows that most of the differences between the VPC simulation and measured results are caused by the neglected overhead. However, inclusion of this time overhead is unfortunately not easy to perform, because the scheduling algorithms used for simulation and for the MicroBlaze implementation differ at least in the order by which the activation patterns of the actors are evaluated. Furthermore, due to the abbreviated conditional execution realized in modern compilers, the verification of the transition predicate can take variable time. Consequently, the exact value of the overhead depends on the concrete implementation and cannot be calculated by some means as clearly shown by Table 4.

For our $\texttt{IDCT}_{2D}$ example, this overhead is particularly pronounced, because the model has a very fine granularity. Hence, the neglected times for scheduling and communication do not differ substantially from the action execution

times. A possible solution to this problem is to determine a quasi-static schedule [60], whereas many decisions as possible are done during compile time. Consequently, the scheduling overhead would decrease. Furthermore, this would improve the implementation efficiency. Also, in a system-level implementation of the $\texttt{IDCT}_{2D}$ as part of the MPEG-4 decoder, one could draw the conclusion from the scheduling overhead that the level of granularity for actors that are explored and mapped should be increased.

6.3.4. Execution order

As shown in Table 4, most of the differences occurring between estimated and measured values are caused by the scheduling and communication overhead. The staying difference, typically less than 10%, is due to the different actor execution order, because it influences both initialization and termination of the system.

Taking, for instance, the software-only implementation, then at the beginning all FIFOs are empty. Consequently, the workload of the processor is relatively small. Hence, the first 8×8 block can be processed with a high priority, leading to a small latency. As however the scheduler will start to process a new block before the previous one is finished, the system load in terms of number of simultaneously active blocks will increase until the FIFOs are saturated. In other words, different blocks have to share the CPU, hence latency will increase. On the other hand, when the source stops to process blocks, the system workload gets smaller, leading to smaller latency.

These variations in latency depend on the time, when the scheduler starts to process the next block. Consequently, as our VPC simulation and the implementation use different actor invocation order, also the measured performance value can differ. This can be avoided by using a simulation where the CPU only processes one block per time. Hence, the latency of one block is not affected by the arrival of further blocks.

A similar observation can be made for throughput. The latter one meets its final value only after the system is completely saturated, because it is influenced by the increasing and decreasing block latencies caused at the system startup and termination phase, respectively.

By taking this effects into account, we have been able to further reduce the differences between the VPC estimations and the measured values to 1%-2%.

6.3.5. Comparison with optimized core generator module

Efficient implementation of the inverse discrete cosine transform is very challenging and extensively treated in literature (i.e., [61–64]). In order to compare our automatically built implementations with such optimized realizations, Table 3 includes a Xilinx CORE Generator Module performing a two-dimensional cosine transform. It is optimized to Xilinx FPGAs and is hence a good reference for comparison.

Due to the various possible optimizations for efficient implementations of an $\texttt{IDCT}_{2D}$, it can be expected that automatically generated solutions have difficulties to reach the same efficiency. This is clearly confirmed by Table 3. Even the hardware-only solution is far slower than the Xilinx CORE Generator module.

This can be explained by several reasons. First of all, our current IP library is not already optimized for area and speed, as the major intention of this paper lies in the illustration of our overall system design flow instead of coping with details of IDCT implementation. As a consequence, the IP cores are not pipelined and their communication handshaking is realized in a safe, but slow way. Furthermore, for the sake of simplicity we have abstained from extensive logic optimization in order to reduce chip area.

As a second major reason, we have identified the scheduling overhead. Due to the self-timed communication of the different modules on a very low level (i.e., a *clip* actor just performs a simple minimum determination), a very large overhead occurs due to required FIFOs and communication state machines, reducing system throughput and increasing chip area. This is particularly true, when a MicroBlaze is instantiated slowing down the whole chain. Due to the simple actions, the communication and schedule overhead play an important role. In order to solve this problem, we currently investigate on quasi-static scheduling and actor clustering for more efficient data transport. This, however, is not in the scope of this paper.

7. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we have presented a first prototype of SystemCoDesigner, which implements a seamless automatic design flow for digital signal processing systems to FPGA-based SoC platforms. The key advantage of our proposed hardware/software codesign approach is the combination of executable specifications written in SystemC with formal methods. For this purpose, SysteMoC, a SystemC library for actor-based design, is proposed which allows the identification of the underlying model of computation. The proposed design flow includes application modeling in SysteMoC, automatic design space exploration (DSE) using simulation-based performance evaluation, as well as automatic system generation for FPGA-based platforms. We have shown the applicability of our proposed design flow by presenting first results from applying SystemCoDesigner to the design of a two-dimensional inverse discrete cosine transformation ($\texttt{IDCT}_{2D}$). The results have shown that (i) we are able to automatically optimize and correctly synthesize digital signal processing applications written in SystemC and (ii) our performance evaluation during DSE produces good estimations for the hardware synthesis and less-accurate estimations for the software synthesis.

In future work we will add support for different FPGA platforms and extend our component and communication libraries. Especially, we will focus on the support for non-FIFO communication using on-chip buses. Moreover, we will strengthen our design flow by incorporating formal analysis methods, automatic code transformations, as well as verification support.

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