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應用整數線性規劃達成架構層級合成上 最佳化通道與暫存器配置之技術

Optimal Channel and Register Allocation in Architecture Level Synthesis Using ILP

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中華民國九十五年八月

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摘 要

ATTILLES,

在深次微米科技裡,連線的延迟已經不再能被忽略。而且隨著製程的日益進步,更 漸漸地主導了系統的時間延遲,規律分散式暫存器架構著眼在這個問題上。其相對的 合成流程分散了暫存器並且利用實體區域化的特性來改善整個系統的時間延遲。然 而,多出來的溝通代價,包含連線和暫存器卻限制了應用程式的規模。我們針對這個 問題並且提出了所謂"在架構合成層次上通道與暫存器配置"的問題。輸入這個問題的 是經過排程而且已經指定運算單元的資料流程圖、運算單元的擺置和代表目標架構的 拓樸圖。目標是得到一個配置,它將每一個週期的所有傳輸資料對應到可使用的通道 和暫存器上同時降低溝通的資源。除此之外,我們提出了這個問題正式的模型。藉由 比重分配過的目標函式,我們能使用處理線性規劃的程式來得到最佳解。除此之外, 由捕捉到每一個基本傳輸行為的好處,我們延伸了這一個模型,以利用後製的方式使 他得到更進一步的改進並且模擬了雙向的通道。在實驗的結果裡,相較於之前僅僅使 用專屬溝通的方法,我們所提出的線性規劃模型分別改善了平均58%和35%在連線 和暫存器的使用上。就算和使用了管線連線而且執行了傳輸排程的方法比較,我們提 出的方法也擁有分別為46%和54%的改善在連線和暫存器的使用上。

Optimal Channel and Register Allocation in Architecture Level Synthesis Using ILP

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Abstract

In deep submicron technology, the wiring delay has no longer been trivial and dominated the system latency gradually. The regular distributed register architecture is proposed to resolve this problem. The corresponding synthesis flow partitions the registers and exploits the physical locality to improve the system latency. However, it introduces the extra interconnection overhead, which includes wires and registers, and limits the scale of applications. We address this problem and formulate it as channel and register allocation in architecture level synthesis problem. The inputs are the scheduled and bound DFG, placed FUs and topology information of the target architecture. The goal is to get the assignment which maps all transferred data to available channels and registers at each cycle while minimizing the interconnection resource at the same time. Besides, we propose a formal model for this problem. With the weighted objective function, we can get the optimal solution through an ILP solver. Furthermore, due to the benefit of capturing the basic transfer behavior in our formulation, we also extend the model to get the further improvement and model the bi-directional channel through post processing. According to the experimental results, our proposed ILP method improves 58% and 35% on average in terms of usage on wires and registers compared to the previous method, which uses dedicated interconnections only. Even compared to another one, which uses pipelined wires and performs transfer scheduling, our method gets 46% and 54% improvement in terms of the usage on wires and registers.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

In this chapter, we will introduce the conventional architecture level synthesis flow briefly and notice the topic of delay overhead made by interconnection. Moreover, some methods and new target architecture have been proposed to take consideration about the extra wiring delay problem. Therefore, we will focus on these issues and address the wiring overhead in distributed register architecture.

1.1. Conventional Architecture Level Synthesis Flow

Architecture level synthesis is a sequence of tasks to transform a higher level behavior description to RTL design. There are lots of ways to implement it according to the desired architecture style. Therefore, a large variety of problems, algorithms and tools have been proposed.



Fig. 1. Conventional and simplified architecture level synthesis system

Fig. 1 shows a conventional and simplified architecture level synthesis system, which includes target architecture and corresponding synthesis flow [14]. First, the synthesis system will get the internal representation (i.e. data flow graph here) of design by compiling input application. Second, the scheduling and binding tasks place operations in feasible functional units and timing slots in sequencing order. Finally, it generates the detailed interconnections and corresponding control signals which map the behavior of data transfer and all configurations to circuit cycle by cycle.

This target architecture shown in Fig. 1 has some functional units, centralized register and a corresponding control unit. The centralized registers store all temporal data and provide all operands to functional units. In the view of data transfer, we can say that the scheduling and binding are the tasks which assign when and to where the temporal data go. In addition, the datapath synthesis task generates the needed multiplexers, de-multiplexers and wires of interconnections.

In centralized register architecture, any data generated from some functional unit will be available for other ones at the next cycle. In other words, it always takes no additional cycle to transfer data between functional units. However, it should pay the extra cycle time for this convenience interconnection scheme. Furthermore, the cycle time equal the computation time plus interconnection delay which includes the delay of multiplexers, de-multiplexers and wires.

1.2. Distributed Register Architecture

In Deep Submicron Meter (DSM) technology, the wiring delay is no longer trivial [1]. It will dominate the overall system delay gradually with the scale evaluation of process technology which is due to RC delay, coupling noises, inductance, etc [2][3]. Obviously, the fatal long wiring delay will become a big portion in cycle time and worsen the system latency at that time.

In such a situation, it is important to take the interconnection delay into consideration. Because the interconnection delay information is only available after physical layout, the conventional architecture level synthesis flow cannot obtain the accurate cycle time. To overcome this problem, lots of researchers had used the estimated interconnection delay for a higher level design of abstraction [4][5][6][7][8][9].

In architecture level synthesis, the targeted architecture and corresponding synthesis algorithm will affect the effectiveness of exploiting the interconnection delay. Therefore, the distributed register architecture which partitions the registers has been proposed [10][11]. Fig. 2 represents the simplified model, which has some clusters connected through global interconnection. The cluster includes some functional units which can only access the dedicated registers in the same cluster. The global interconnection responds to transfer the data among all clusters in several cycles.



Fig. 2. Model of distributed register architecture

Additionally, some partition constraints prevent the overloading of interconnection delay constituted by multiplexers (e.g. adding constraints on the number of access ports of registers) and long wiring (e.g. adding constraints on the number of functional units). Contrary to the conventional centralized register architecture, the distributed register architecture partitions the interconnection delay in several cycles. Only the interconnection delay within a cluster makes a portion in system cycle time. The other one in global interconnection only makes the additional cycles. Therefore, the parallel execution of computations and data transfers.

Base on the same concept, the Regular Distributed Register (RDR) architecture was proposed [12], which offers high regularity and direct support of multi-cycle communication. The RDR architecture divides the entire chip into an array of clusters. Fig. 3 shows an example of RDR architecture with 2×3 cluster array. For the highly regular advantage of RDR architecture, the information of inter-cluster and intra-cluster interconnection delay can be accurately recorded in lookup tables and pre-computed once the parameter of RDR structure (e.g. size of cluster, clock period) are specified.



Fig. 3. RDR architecture with 2×3 cluster array

1.3. Extra Wire Loading in RDR-based Architecture

The corresponding synthesis flow for RDR is MCAS (Architectural Synthesis for Multi-cycle Communication). At the front end, after generating the Control Data Flow Graph (CDFG) of application, the MCAS performs resource allocation, functional unit binding and scheduling-driven placement in order. These tasks place the functional units to clusters and assign the operations in CDFG when and where to be executed. At the backend, MCAS performs register and port binding followed by datapath and distributed controller generation. The experimental results reported in [12] shows 44% and 37% improvement on average in terms of the cycle time and final latency for data flow intensive examples. It also shows 28% and 23% improvement on average in terms of the cycle time and final latency for data flow intensive and final latency for designs with control flow.

However, the RDR architecture may introduce extra global wiring overhead in the presence of many simultaneous data transfers, when each one requires a dedicated global connection. The significant wiring overhead would eventually limit the scaling of the application in RDR architecture. To overcome this problem, [13] presents an architecture level synthesis solution, which is called RDR-pipe, to support automatic interconnection pipelining extended from RDR. The interconnection pipelining potentially improves the wiring utilization by sharing the wires between each pair of clusters. Compared to RDR architecture, 28% global wire-length reduction is reported [13] in RDR-pipe architecture.

A good way to reduce resource demand is sharing. The interconnection pipelining improves the wiring overhead by sharing the wires between each two clusters. However, this methodology still limits the sharing capability to divided localized regions, because the transferred data are still scheduled and allocated within dedicated wires. Therefore, a global sharing methodology in which the wires and registers are both shared by all transferred data might greatly minimize the interconnection overhead. In this thesis, we propose the formal formulation of channel and register allocation problem in architecture level synthesis, which captures the behavior of the transfer data at each cycle in distributed register architecture. Therefore, base on the formulation, it can be extended to minimize the required interconnection resource easily.

1.4. Thesis Organization

The rest of the thesis is organized as follows: chapter 2 addresses the channel and register allocation problem. Then it gives a motivational example which shows the difference between pervious methods and the desired optimal solution. Chapter 3 presents the detailed description of the proposed ILP formulation including problem formulation, variables definition, constraints and the objective function. Chapter 4 gives some useful extensions to the ILP model described in Chapter 3. Chapter 5 shows the experimental results compared to the previous works. Finally, conclusions and future works are drawn in chapter 6.

Chapter 2 Channel and Register Allocation Problem

In this chapter, we introduce the channel and register allocation problem in architecture level synthesis which has distributed registers. After that, a motivational example is given to show why we need a new methodology to share the interconnection resource globally.

2.1. Channel and Register Allocation Problem

The RDR architecture gives lots of dedicated interconnection wires between clusters. Because it has no interconnection pipelining, the sender will hold the transferred data for several cycles. Therefore, one transferred datum will occupy a long wire for several cycles, which wastes the interconnection resource.

The RDR-pipe is extended from RDR. It puts the registers in appropriate positions to pipeline the long wires. By performing the transfer scheduling, it has higher utilization in wiring resource. However, the register station in RDR-pipe has no control signal. It makes the pipeline register dedicate to its interconnection wire only and cannot be shared for the data generated from the other clusters.

Therefore, we address a further extension on the register station, which is capable of incoming data and forward them to any directions. Besides, we take the distributed wiring segments in available channels between register stations instead of the dedicated interconnection. That is, any interconnection can be combined by several wiring segments. Consequently, how to allocate those transfers to channels becomes a new problem because the behavior of transfers deeply affects the interconnection resource including wires and registers. Thus, this is the proposed channel and register allocation problem.



Fig. 4. Scheduled and bound DFG of DCT

The given input of this problem is the scheduled and bound data flow graph and placement of functional units in distributed register architecture. The given input should be checked whether the transfer latency is enough in advance. Fig. 4 shows a data flow graph of discrete cosine transform [12] with two ALUs and two multipliers. Each circle which is bound to a specific functional unit represents an operation. Also, these operations are scheduled in a time slot divided by horizontal lines. The scheduled and bound data flow graph describes when and which FU should take the temporary data to be computed.

Fig. 5 shows a 3×3 cluster array architecture and the placement of two ALUs and two multipliers. One cluster includes a meshed square as FUs which only access the dedicated registers in the white square called register station. According to the placement of functional units in Fig. 5(a) and the bound DFG, Fig. 5(b) replaces the relative operations in it. Therefore, with the scheduling and binding information, we can specify the transfer where and when it is generated or required.



Fig. 5. Placement functional units in distributed register architecture

2.2. Previous Methodology

Because the channel and register allocation problem is extended from the RDR/RDR-pipe architecture, we take those register and port binding tasks as the pervious work. Fig. 6 shows a simple example of the scheme performed in RDR/MCAS. The operation number 1 and 2 are executed in cluster A and the number 3 and 4 are in cluster C. According to this architecture, the register 1 and 2 of sender A hold these transferred values at least two cycles. Therefore, two parallel inter-cluster wires are needed between cluster A and C for the overlap transfer time of data.



Fig. 6. Register and port binding task with dedicated interconnection



Fig. 7. Register and port binding task with dedicated pipelining interconnection

Fig. 7 performs the scheme of RDR-pipe/MCAS-pipe in the same example. With the presence of pipeline register 2 in cluster B, register 1 can forward one data to register 2 at the first cycle and forward the other one at the next cycle. These two data were issued at different cycles and forwarded by pipeline register (i.e. register 2) without stalling until reaching the cluster C. With transfer scheduling, it serializes the transfers by differing the issued cycle of each datum. Therefore, only one interconnection wire is needed and it has one wire reduction compared to RDR/MCAS.

2.3. Motivational Example

Sharing is the way to reduce resource requirement. We take a motivational example to illustrate how the sharing capability affects the requirement of interconnection resource. The comparison of results among RDR/MCAS, RDR-pipe/MCAS-pipe and the idealized global sharing method will be discussed. Fig. 8 gives the scheduled and bound data flow graph and the mapping of operations in a 3×3 cluster array. For comparing the result of resource requirement, we will count the number of registers and the wiring segments. A simple definition of wiring segment is one wire between two adjacent clusters. The definition is intuitional and directly proportion to the wire length.



Fig. 8. Given scheduled, bound DFG and placed functional units

Fig. 9 shows the result of transfer allocation in RDR/MCAS. The cluster generating data always holds the transferred value until the slack time equal to the interconnection delay. No transfer scheduling and pipeline register makes extra wiring requirement. It needs 12 wiring segments and 10 registers in total.

Fig. 10 shows the result of data transfer in RDR-pipe/MCAS-pipe. The pipeline registers are inserted in each register stations where interconnections would pass away. Besides, the transfer scheduling is performed to minimize the wire requirement. Consequently, it reduces the wiring segments to 7 at the cost of additional 2 registers (i.e. totally 12 registers).



Fig. 9. Result of allocation in RDR/MCAS



Fig. 10. Result of allocation in RDR-pipe/MCAS-pipe

The sharing of wires and registers by transferred data reduce the resource requirement. Under the principle, we extend the capability of register stations which can store data for cycles and forward them to arbitrary directions. The extension enables the transfer data use all interconnection wires and registers. Therefore, it implies global sharing and more resource reduction. Fig. 11 shows the result, with the hand-scheduling, it use only 4 wire segments and 7 registers.



Fig. 11. Result of the global sharing of interconnection resource

Chapter 3 Proposed ILP Formulation for the Channel

and Register Allocation Problem

In the chapter, we will formulate the behavior of transfers in distributed register architecture with extended capability, which permits the register station to store or forward data at each cycle. In our proposed formulation, the definition of problem and input will be given initially. Then we will make an explanation of variables and decide the feasible region of them. Finally, we will write down the objective function to minimize interconnection resources which should be subject to uniqueness, continuity and resource counting constraints.

3.1. Definition of Problem Given

Before solving the channel and register allocation problem, we assume the tasks of scheduling and functional unit binding have been performed. Therefore, the scheduled and bound data flow graph, functional unit placement are taken as input. Besides, the topology information including the position and connectivity of clusters is also needed.

First, we use the graph representation $G_s(V_s, E_s)$ to describe the input data flow graph. The vertex set $V_s = \{o_i | i = 0, 1, 2, ..., | V_s | -1\}$ represents the operations in data flow graph. The directed edge set $E_s = \{e_i | i = 0, 1, 2, ..., | E_s | -1\}$ represents the data dependency implying data transfer, such that $e_i : o_j \rightarrow o_k$ means the data generated from o_j should be sent to o_k .



Fig. 12. Data flow graph as input application

Fig. 12 is a simple example of data flow graph, which has the vertex set $V_s = \{o_i \mid i = 0, 1, 2, 3\}$ and the edge set $E_s = \{e_i \mid i = 0, 1, 2\}$ such that $e_0 : o_0 \to o_2$, $e_1 : o_1 \to o_2$ and $e_2 : o_2 \to o_3$.

Second, we use the graph representation $G_r(V_R, E_W)$, called topology information, to specify the target distributed register architecture, which indicates the available positions for putting interconnection wires or registers. The vertex set $V_R = \{r_i | i = 0, 1, 2, ..., |V_R| - 1\}$ represents the register stations. The directed edge set $E_W = \{w_i | i = 0, 1, 2, ..., |E_W| - 1\}$ represents the available channels, such that we can describe the behavior of transferred data from r_j to r_k as $w_i : r_j \rightarrow r_k$. It is notable that we can use a self loop to enable the transferred data stay at the same register station for one cycle.

Fig. 13 takes a 2×2 cluster array of distributed register architecture as topology information, which has the vertex set $V_R = \{r_i \mid i = 0, 1, 2, 3\}$ and the edge set $E_W = \{w_i \mid i = 0, 1, 2, ..., 11\}$ implying the register station has the capability to transfer data to adjacent one horizontally, vertically by $e_2, e_3, ..., e_7$, or keeping them for cycles by e_0, e_1, e_8, e_9 .



Fig. 13. Topology information

The input data flow graph is scheduled and bound. What do the "scheduled" and "bound" mean for? First, we can treat each data dependency in data flow graph as a transfer. Besides, by the "scheduled" and "bound" information, we can know when these operations are done and in which cluster the outputs are stored. In fact, we can use this information with placement of functional units to specify each transfer like this statement – some transfer e_i is the task that taking data from register station r_x to r_y from cycle n to m.

Precisely, we can use a set of pair $\{e_i = (st_i, ft_i) | e_i \in E_s\}$ to specify the transfer e_i generated at cycle st_i and required at cycle ft_i . And another set of pair is used to specify the transfer e_i generated at register station sr_i and required at register station fr_i .

In Fig. 14, we focus on the edge e_0 , which is a data dependency between o_0 and o_2 . By the information of et_0 and er_0 , we could know there is a datum needed to be transferred from register station $sr_0 = 1$ at cycle $st_0 = 5$ to register station $fr_0 = 2$ at cycle $ft_0 = 8$.



Fig. 14. Specification of a transfer

3.2. The Definition of Variables

How to define appropriate variables is important, which affects the complexity, flexibility of an ILP formulation. To minimize the limitation of extension capability in our proposed formulation, we decide to capture the basic behavior of transfer at each cycle. Without lots of indirect specifications, a simple type of zero-one integer variable $x_{i,j,k}$ is adopted and called channel allocation variable.



Fig. 15. Specifying a transfer path with channel allocation variables

The meaning of $x_{i,j,k}$ is that whether the transfer datum e_i at cycle j is allocated to channel w_k . "One" value means yes, and "zero" stands for no. The set X collects all these zero-one variables and can be written as:

$$X = \{x_{i,i,k} \mid i = 0, 1, \dots, |E_s| - 1; ft_i \ge j > st_i; k = 0, 1, \dots, |E_w| - 1\}$$

How do these variables work for describing a transfer path? Fig. 15 shows an example. In this example, transfer e_0 should be taken from register station r_1 to r_2 from cycle 6 to 8. If we have chosen a transfer path, which is sending the data to r_0 at first cycle, staying one cycle in r_0 at next step and achieving r_2 in the end of cycle 8. What we need to do is specifying this path by setting variables $x_{0.6,3}$, $x_{0.7,0}$ and $x_{0.8,4}$, which means using the channels w_3 , w_0 and w_4 respectively cycle by cycle. Then preserve the other allocation variables of transfer e_0 to zero for preventing the ambiguity in assignment of transfer behavior. Therefore, one assignment of allocation variables without ambiguity stands for one transfer behavior of data. It is the one to one and onto mapping implying that the entire solution space is included in the variety of assignment.

Otherwise, to minimize the interconnection resource, the counting resource variables are also defined. The interconnection resource includes wires and registers. In our formulation, we care about the resource requirement in available channels and register stations. Therefore, the straightforward types of integer variables, Nw_i and Nr_i , are used. They mean the number of wires in available channel w_i and registers in available register station r_i , respectively.

3.3. The Feasible Region of Variables

In fact, there are lots of redundant allocation variables included in the set X. With the specification of generating and requiring register stations, the active region of transferred data is limited. That is, there are lots of channels of transfers would never be used, and these corresponding allocation variables are always zero. To minimize the allocation variables while preserving complete behavior of transfer, it is needed to decide the feasible activitive region of transfer at each cycle.

As mention above, the activity region of transfer is limited by generating and requiring register station. We take the same example in Fig. 16. Fig. 16(a) shows that the possible channels used for transfer e_0 at cycle 6. Those feasible channels are limited to w_1 , w_3 and w_6 , which are all emitted from generating register station r_1 . Even at the next cycle, the feasible channels are also limited to those ones emitted from register stations r_0 , r_1 and r_3 . Therefore, the feasible channels are spread out from generating register station and the effect of limitation can be traced cycle by cycle. Base on this idea, we define the set $WS_{i,j}$ which includes the number of feasible channels traced from the generating register station sr_i at cycle j:

$$WS_{i,j} = \begin{cases} \bigcup_{k \in WS_{i,j-1}} NW(k) &, ft_i \ge j > st_i + 1\\ \{k \mid w_k : r_{sr_i} \to r_m, w_k \in E_W\} &, j = st_i + 1 \end{cases}$$

Such that

$$NW(i) = \{ j \mid w_i : r_x \to r_y, \ w_j : r_y \to r_z; \ w_i, w_j \in E_W \}$$



Fig. 16. Limitation of activitive region of transfer

The $WS_{i,j}$ is defined recursively and takes the generating cycle as the initial condition. Fig. 17 shows an example. The set of feasible channels of transfer e_0 , which is equal to WS_{0j} , has carried out. The $WS_{0,6}$ includes channel 1, 3 and 6 which are all leaving from the generating register stations r_1 and entering into r_0 , r_1 , or r_3 . At the next cycle, the $WS_{0,7}$ should include those channels leaving from r_0 , r_1 , or r_3 . We can get $WS_{0,8}$ in the same manner.

On the other side, Fig. 16(b) shows that the possible channels used for transfer e_0 at cycle 8. Those feasible channels are limited to w_4 , w_9 and w_{10} , which are all achieving requiring register station r_2 . Therefore, the feasible channels at the last cycle, or cycle 7, are limited to those entering into register stations r_0 , r_2 or r_3 . Base on the same idea, these traceable feasible channels spread out from requiring register station fr_i of transfer e_i at cycle j can be collected in the other sets $WF_{i,j}$:

$$WF_{ij} = \begin{cases} \bigcup_{k \in WS_{i,j+1}} LW(k) &, ft_i > j \ge st_i + 1\\ \{k \mid w_k : r_m \to r_{fr_i}, w_k \in E_W\} &, j = ft_i \end{cases}$$

Such that

$$LW(i) = \{ j \mid w_j : r_x \to r_y, \ w_i : r_y \to r_z; \ w_i, w_j \in E_W \}$$



Fig. 17. Tracing feasible channels from generating register station

The $WF_{i,j}$ is defined recursively and takes the requiring cycle as the initial condition. Fig. 18 shows the same example in Fig. 17 and contrarily traces from the other side. The $WF_{0,8}$ includes channels 4, 9 and 11 which are all achieving the requiring register stations r_2 and are leaving from r_0 , r_2 or r_3 . At the last cycle, or cycle 7, the $WF_{0,7}$ should include those channels entering into r_0 , r_2 or r_3 . Then we can get $WF_{0,6}$ in the same manner.



Fig. 18. Tracing feasible channels from requiring register station

The set $WS_{i,j}$ and $WF_{i,j}$ collect the feasible channels from contrary side of register stations of transfers. Therefore, the new set $W_{i,j}$ generated by intersecting $WS_{i,j}$ and $WF_{i,j}$ can delete all the redundant candidates and preserve the capability of representing all possible transfer paths at the same time. It can be written as:

$$W_{i,j} = WS_{i,j} \bigcap WF_{i,j}$$

 $W_{i,j}$ describes the activity region of transfer, which are the all possible number of feasible channels of transfer e_i at cycle j. By this information, the set $X_{i,j}$ including all feasible channel allocation variables of transfer e_i at cycle j could be easily written as follow:



Table 1 follows the example in Fig. 17 and Fig. 18, and generates $W_{0,j}$ set by intersecting $WS_{0,j}$ and $WF_{0,j}$. Therefore, we can find the feasible channel variables of transfer e_0 at cycle 6, cycle 7 and cycle 8 are as followed, respectively:

$$\begin{split} X_{0,6} &= \{x_{0,6,1}, x_{0,6,3}, x_{0,6,6}\};\\ X_{0,7} &= \{x_{0,6,0}, x_{0,6,3}, x_{0,6,4}, x_{0,6,6}, x_{0,6,9}, x_{0,6,11}\};\\ X_{0,8} &= \{x_{0,6,4}, x_{0,6,9}, x_{0,6,10}\}; \end{split}$$

Tab. 1. Possible channels of transfer e_0 in Fig. 17 and Fig. 18

J (cycle)	WS _{0,j}	WF _{0,j}	$\mathbf{W}_{0,\mathbf{j}}$
6 {1,3,6}		(0~11)	{1,3,6}
7	{0,1,2,3,4,6,7,9,11}	{0,3,4,5,6,8,9,10,11}	{0,3,4,6,9,11}
8	{0~11}	{4,9,10}	{4,9,10}

Addition to allocation variables, we also give the upper bound of resource counting variables. It is useful for the requirement evaluation of interconnection resource and being an effective limitation of the variable range in generic ILP solver. The idea is that the numbers of interconnection resource, which are wires in channels or registers in register stations, are not more than the possible maximum requirement of all cycles. To do this, we define the set $Rw_{k,j}$ including all the numbers of transfer. It is possible for all the numbers of transfer to be allocated in channel w_k at cycle j:

$$Rw_{k,j} = \{i \mid x_{i,j,k} \in X\}$$

With the same idea, $Rr_{k,j}$ is defined to include all the numbers of transfer. It is possible for all the numbers of transfer to be allocated and entered into register station r_k at cycle j:

$$Rr_{y,j} = \{i \mid w_k : r_x \to r_y \in E_R, x_{i,j,k} \in X\}$$

Finally, find the maximum in these sets, which will be the upper bound of the corresponding resource requirements. The upper bound of the number of wire segments in channel w_k could be written as:

upper bound of
$$Nw_k = \max(\{|Rw_{k,i}|| j = 0, 1, ..., |T| - 1\})$$

The upper bound of number of registers in register station r_k could be written as:

upper bound of
$$Nr_{v} = \max(\{|Rr_{v,j}|| j = 0, 1, ..., |T| - 1\})$$

3.4. The Objective Functions and Subjected Constraints

I

With the previous definition, we can write down our objective function, which is the summation of all weighted required resources:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{E_W|-1} \alpha_i Nr_i + \sum_{i=0}^{|V_R|-1} \beta_i Nw_i$$

It is notable that the constant factors α_i and β_i weight the affection of resource types, and usually the weight of self loop which implies to stay one cycle is set to zero. However, there are some constraints which the formulation should be subject to will preserve the correctness of transfer behaviors.

The first are the Uniqueness constraints, which describe that the channel allocation of each transfer should be unique at each cycle. More than one channel allocated at the same cycle will make ambiguity. The uniqueness constraints can be written as:

$$\sum_{k \in W_{i,j}} x_{i,j,k} = 1, \quad |E_s| > i \ge 0, \ ft_i \ge j > st_i$$

It makes a summation of all objects in each set $X_{i,j}$ and forces it to one. These constraints imply that only one allocation variable could be set at one cycle and prevent the ambiguity of transfer behavior. Fig. 19 shows an example that transfer e_0 should be assigned a transfer path from register station 1 to 2 from cycle 6 to 8. Then the allocation should subject to the uniqueness constraint written as:

$$\sum_{k \in W_{0,j}} x_{0,j,k} = 1, \quad 8 \ge j > 5;$$

The expanded equations are followed for cycle 6, cycle 7 and cycle 8, respectively:

$$\begin{aligned} x_{0,6,1} + x_{0,6,3} + x_{0,6,6} &= 1, \\ x_{0,7,0} + x_{0,7,3} + x_{0,7,4} + x_{0,7,6} + x_{0,7,9} + x_{0,7,11} &= 1, \\ x_{0,8,4} + x_{0,8,9} + x_{0,8,10} &= 1; \end{aligned}$$

The second one are the continuity constraints, which describe that the transfer at two consecutive cycles must be continuous in feasible channels. These constraints hold the transfer path available, that is, the register station allocated channel entering into must be the same one allocated channel leaving from at next cycle. The continuity constraints can be written as:

$$-x_{i,j,k} + \sum_{k' \in NW(k) \bigcap W_{i,j+1}} x_{i,j+1,k'} \ge 0, \quad |E_s| > i \ge 0, \ ft_i \ge j > st_i, \ |E_W| > k \ge 0;$$



Fig. 19. Uniqueness constraints of transfer e_0 at cycle 6

It describes that if the allocation variable entering into register r_x at cycle j is set, then one of those variables which is leaving from r_x must be set at cycle j+1 to hold the continuity of the transfer path. Any channel allocation variable has its own continuity constraints, except for those ones at the last transfer cycle. Because only the chosen allocation variable should hold this constraint, the inequality (i.e. relation of larger than) exists to prevent the violation from the other unset ones. With the same example shown in Fig. 19, the constraints could be expanded as follows:

At cycle 6,

$$-x_{0,6,1} + x_{0,7,3} + x_{0,7,6} \ge 0,$$

$$-x_{0,6,3} + x_{0,7,0} + x_{0,7,4} \ge 0,$$

$$-x_{0,6,6} + x_{0,7,9} + x_{0,7,11} \ge 0$$

At cycle 7,

$$\begin{aligned} &-x_{0,7,0} + x_{0,8,4} \ge 0, \\ &-x_{0,7,3} + x_{0,8,4} \ge 0, \\ &-x_{0,7,4} + x_{0,8,10} \ge 0, \\ &-x_{0,7,6} + x_{0,8,9} \ge 0, \\ &-x_{0,7,9} + x_{0,8,10} \ge 0, \\ &-x_{0,7,11} + x_{0,8,9} \ge 0; \end{aligned}$$

Additional to hold the correctness of transfer behavior, the other constraints make the number of interconnection resource enough to transfer all the data. The number of wires in channel w_i is represented by the wiring counting variable Nw_i , and the number of registers in register station r_i is represented by register counting variable Nr_i . However, they must be more than the amount of the requirement at each cycle. For the wire counting variable, this can be addressed as:

$$Nw_k - \sum_{x_{i,j,k} \in X_{i,j}} x_{i,j,k} \ge 0, \quad |E_W| > k \ge 0, \quad |T| > j \ge 0$$

Each wiring counting variable has a set of constrains which are formulated to check whether the number of wires is sufficient. The number of constraints in a set we need to written down is equal to the total cycle counts. And with the same idea, the constraints of register counting variables are:

$$Nr_{y} - \sum_{\{k \mid w_{k}: r_{x} \to r_{y}, w_{k} \in E_{W}\}} \sum_{\{i \mid x_{i,j,k} \in X_{i,j}\}} x_{i,j,k} \ge 0, \quad |T| > j \ge 0$$

Likewise, each register counting variable has a set of constrains which are formulated to check whether the value of counting variable is sufficient. The number of constraints in a set we need to write down is equal to the total cycle counts. The example is shown in Fig. 20, which specifies another transfer e_1 . The constraints checking the resource variables are written as follows:



Fig. 20. Example for resource counting variables

For wire counting variable

$$\begin{split} Nw_0 - x_{0,7,0} &\geq 0, \\ Nw_1 - x_{0,6,1} &\geq 0, \\ Nw_3 - x_{0,6,3} &\geq 0, \\ Nw_3 - x_{0,7,3} &\geq 0, \\ Nw_4 - x_{0,7,4} &\geq 0, \\ Nw_4 - x_{0,8,4} &\geq 0, \\ Nw_6 - x_{0,6,6} &\geq 0, \\ Nw_6 - x_{0,7,6} &\geq 0, \\ Nw_9 - x_{0,7,9} - x_{1,7,9} &\geq 0, \\ Nw_9 - x_{0,8,9} - x_{1,8,9} &\geq 0, \\ Nw_{10} - x_{0,8,10} - x_{1,8,10} &\geq 0, \\ Nw_{11} - x_{0,7,11} - x_{1,7,11} &\geq 0, \end{split}$$

For register counting variable

$$Nr_{0} - x_{0,6,3} \ge 0,$$

$$Nr_{0} - x_{0,7,0} - x_{0,7,3} \ge 0,$$

$$Nr_{1} - x_{0,6,1} \ge 0,$$

$$Nr_{2} - x_{0,7,4} - x_{0,7,9} - x_{1,7,9} \ge 0,$$

$$Nr_{2} - x_{0,8,4} - x_{0,8,9} - x_{0,8,10} - x_{1,8,9} - x_{1,8,10} \ge 0,$$

$$Nr_{3} - x_{0,6,6} \ge 0,$$

$$Nr_{3} - x_{0,7,6} - x_{0,7,11} - x_{1,7,11} \ge 0,$$

Chapter 4 Useful Extension on the ILP Formulation

With the high flexibility, the extensions of model, objective function, or specific behavior of transfer could be introduced in our proposed ILP formulation. Therefore, in this chapter, we will give two useful extensions. One is the further reduction on requirement of interconnection resource, which is called resource counting problem. The other one is modeling the transfer behavior of the bi-directed channel from existing directed ones.

4.1. Resource Counting Problem

In some case, the resource requirement would be overestimated. That is, when more than one data outputted from the same operation and allocated in the same channel, they would be counted owning individual one channel requirement and result in two wire requirements. In other words, the formulation would use more wires to transfer the same datum. Thus, the resource requirement has been overestimated. Not only the wire segments in channel, but also the registers in register station would face this problem. Fig. 21 shows the example which experiments this situation. In this example, transfer e_3 and e_4 outputted from operation o_3 are assumed to be the same datum. From the previous resource constraints written as:

$$Nw_{2} - x_{3,11,2} - x_{4,11,2} \ge 0,$$

$$Nw_{4} - x_{4,11,4} \ge 0,$$

$$Nw_{6} - x_{4,12,6} \ge 0,$$

$$Nw_{8} - x_{4,12,8} \ge 0,$$

$$Nr_{1} - x_{3,11,2} - x_{4,11,2} \ge 0,$$

$$Nr_{2} - x_{4,11,4} \ge 0,$$

$$Nr_{3} - x_{4,12,6} - x_{4,12,8} \ge 0,$$



Fig. 21. Resource counting problem

There are at least two wires in channel w_2 and two registers in register station r_1 counted for the final adoption of (w_2, w_6) path by transfer e_4 . However, they are all overestimated by one.

To overcome this problem, new zero-one integer variable $c_{m,j,k}$ are introduced instead of original $x_{i,j,k}$. The meaning of $c_{m,j,k}$ is that, whether there is any datum from the operation o_m allocated to the channel w_k at the cycle j. It implies not only capturing the behavior of each transfer datum, but also checking which operation they come from.

To find out the fixed allocation variables $c_{m,j,k}$, we use the new set $Y_{m,j,k}$ to collect those original allocation variables $x_{i,j,k}$ generated from operation o_m and allocated in channel e_k at cycle j. The definition could be written as:

$$Y_{m,j,k} = \{ x_{i,j,k} \mid x_{i,j,k} \in X_{i,j}; \ (e_x : o_m \to) \in E_S \}$$

Therefore, we can get the fixed allocation variables $c_{m,j,k}$ from original ones $x_{i,j,k}$ and the set $Y_{m,j,k}$ by the equation:

$$|Y_{m,j,k}| > |Y_{m,j,k}| c_{m,j,k} - \sum_{\{i \mid x_{i,j,k} \in Y_{m,j,k}\}} x_{i,j,k} \ge 0$$

This equation describes that if the summation of $x_{i,j,k}$ in set $Y_{m,j,k}$ larger than zero,

then the variables $c_{m,j,k}$ will be set to one. On the other hand, the variables $c_{m,j,k}$ will be forced to zero if the summation is equal to zero. These variables represent the exactly requirement of wires by resource sharing of the same datum. Four new sets $Y_{3,11,2}$, $Y_{3,11,4}$, $Y_{3,12,6}$ and $Y_{3,12,8}$ which is the transferred data outputted from o_3 have been generated:

$$Y_{3,11,2} = \{ x_{3,11,2}, x_{4,11,2} \}$$

$$Y_{3,11,4} = \{ x_{3,11,4} \}$$

$$Y_{3,12,6} = \{ x_{3,12,6} \}$$

$$Y_{3,12,8} = \{ x_{3,12,8} \}$$

we now deduced the corresponding fixed channel allocation variables $c_{3,11,2}$, $c_{3,11,4}$, $c_{3,12,6}$ and $c_{3,12,8}$ by:



Two things are worth to observe. First one is that, if the $Y_{m,j,k}$ includes only one object $x_{i,j,k}$, than we can get the result $c_{m,j,k} = x_{i,j,k}$, which implies the conversion process affects nothing. The allocation variables $c_{3,11,4}$, $c_{3,12,6}$ and $c_{3,12,8}$ are in this situation. The second one is shown in the fixed allocation variable $c_{3,11,2}$. The corresponding set $Y_{3,11,2}$ has more than one object, which are $x_{3,11,2}$ and $x_{4,11,2}$. The $x_{4,11,2}$ is always taken for the correctness of transfer e_4 . Therefore, No matter the $x_{3,11,2}$ is adopted by transfer e_3 or not, the $c_{3,11,2}$ is always one. That is, the fixed variable $c_{m,j,k}$ marks only whether the data outputted from o_m at cycle j exist or not, and the count of them dose not matter.

Finally, we use these new fixed channel allocation variables instead of original ones to count the interconnection resource. The resource counting constraints are rewritten as follows:

$$\begin{split} Nw_k &- \sum_{\{m \mid c_{m,j,k} \in Y_{m,j}\}} c_{m,j,k} \geq 0, \quad \mid E_W \mid > k \geq 0, \quad \mid T \mid > j \geq 0 \\ Nr_y &- \sum_{\{k \mid (w_k: \rightarrow r_y) \in E_W\}} \sum_{\{m \mid c_{m,j,k} \in Y_{m,j}\}} c_{i,j,k} \geq 0, \quad \mid T \mid > j \geq 0 \end{split}$$

The new constraints take the $c_{m,j,k}$ and $Y_{m,j}$ instead of $x_{i,j,k}$ and $X_{i,j}$ and these constraints of example in Fig. 21 for cycle 11 to 12 are also shown here:



4.2. Integrating Bi-directional Channels in the Model

To minimize the wiring overhead, the bi-directional channel is usually considered in the scope of design methodology. There are two ways to achieve the goal in our proposed ILP formulation. One is introducing the new bi-directional wires in topology information and making some modification in continuity constraints, resource counting constraints and objective function.



Fig. 22. Modeling the bi-directional channel

We take a new example in Fig. 22. It should transfer one datum e_5 from r_0 to r_1 , and the other two data e_6 and e_7 from r_1 to r_0 at cycle 15. The new bi-directional channel x_{12} is used to share the transfer loading instead of only directed ones (i.e. w_2 and w_3). Intuitively, at cycle 15 we can write down the substitute resource counting constraints as follows:



This method is straightforward, but it introduces lots of additional allocation variables. In the worst case, if we take bi-directional channels beside all directed pairs of wires which are mutually inverse, they will introduce at most two times of original allocation variables in our ILP formulation. These additional variables will be a nightmare for the ILP solver especially in a great scale application.

The other way to reach the goal is using post processing. In fact, the original formulation with only directed channels has captured enough information about the behavior of transfer. All we need to do is to decide who should take these transfers loading, the directed channel or bi-directional one? In other words, the original directed channels could be treaded as the permission of transfer direction but not the physical channels. However, after finding out

the feasible channel allocation by these permissions, we choose the type of interconnection resources to take these possible loadings. It has the modification in resource counting constraints, which adds the new term SB_x . This new term is the transfer resource supported by additional bi-directional channels:

$$Nw_{x} + SB_{x} - \sum_{\{i \mid x_{i,j,x} \in X_{i,j}\}} x_{i,j,x} \ge 0, \quad \mid E_{W} \mid > x \ge 0, \quad \mid T \mid > j \ge 0$$

The third term is the transfer requirements, the first and second ones could be treaded as two types of transfer resource sharing the loading together. Because of the bi-direction of channel, there is another side of transfer written as:

$$Nw_{y} + SB_{y} - \sum_{\{i | x_{i,j,y} \in X_{i,j}\}} x_{i,j,y} \ge 0, \quad |E_{W}| > y \ge 0, \quad |T| > j \ge 0$$

Thus, the added bi-directional channels represented by the resource counting variable $NB_{x,y}$ take the loading from w_x and w_y at the same time. Hence, it should subject to the resource counting constraints which could be written as:

$$NB_{x,y} - SB_{x} - SB_{y} \ge 0, \quad |T| > j \ge 0$$

The same example in Fig. 22 could be reformulated with this post processing:

$$Nw_{2} + SB_{2} - x_{5,15,2} \ge 0$$

$$Nw_{3} + SB_{3} - (x_{6,15,3} + x_{7,15,3}) \ge 0$$

$$SB_{2,3} - SB_{2} - SB_{3} \ge 0$$

Finally, the rest work would give the weight of resource overhead on directed channels (i.e. Nw_2 , Nw_3) and bi-directional channel (i.e. $SB_{2,3}$) individually in the objective function. In summary, this type of formulation takes only some post processing without introducing any additional allocation variables.

Chapter 5 Experimental Result

In this chapter, we will introduce the pre-work of our experiment initially. Then the experimental results compared to the two previous works will be presented. Finally, we will give a brief summary about this experiment.

5.1. Pre-work for the Input of Experiment

One of the input source in the channel and register allocation problem is the scheduled and bound data flow graph and the placement of functional units. For getting this information, we construct a simplified architecture level synthesis flow including these tasks - data flow graph generation, scheduling, functional units binding and placement of functional units with rescheduling. However, the synthesis flow does not address any performance issue (e.g. cycle time or overall latency). It is just generating the inputs of our experiments.

This synthesis flow takes the c++ code as input application. First, the task of data flow graph generation takes the SUIF compiler infrastructure [17] as the front end and generates the virtual machine codes by Machine SUIF [18]. Then we convert the internal representation of this code to our desired data flow graph. Second, we use force-directed scheduling with the minimal cycle timing constraints [15] to get the resource allocation and the initial scheduled data flow graph. Third, an approximate max-clique based algorithm [14] is performed to assign the operations in data flow graph to functional units. Fourth, we randomly put the functional units to cluster and perform rescheduling, because of adding multi-cycle interconnection. Finally, we have got the final scheduled and bound data flow graph and also know in which cluster these operations are executed.



Fig. 23. The target architecture in experiment

The other input of our experiment is the topology information which has the specification of distributed register architecture. In out experiment, we use a 3×3 cluster array with vertical and horizontal adjacent connectivity as our target architecture. There are 9 available register stations and 33 available directed channels including 9 self loops shown in Fig. 23.

The system is implemented in C++/UNIX environment and using the lpsolve version 5.5.0.0 [19] as the ILP solver.



We take the source code of mpeg2enc, jpeg and rasta from Mediabench [16] as our input applications and classify these operations into two functional unit types - ALU and multiplier. One stage ALU and two-stage multiplier are adopted as our functional units.

We have implemented three methods including two previous works and the proposed ILP formulation. For addressing the minimization on interconnection wires, we give the weight ratio to register and wires are 5 to 1, that is

$$\sum_{i=0}^{7} 1 \times Nr_i + \sum_{j=0}^{31} 5 \times Nw_j$$

	Node#	Resour	Cycle Count	
		ALU#	MUL#	
(1) mpeg2enc (dfg 1)	66	5	2	23
(2) mpeg2enc (dfg 2)	101	9	4	23
(3) mpeg2enc (dfg 3)	196	18	8	18
(4) jpeg (dfg 1)	93	9	2	35
(5) jpeg (dfg 2)	109	9	2	33
(6) jpeg (dfg 3)	140	11	6	23
(7) rasta	119	7	5	33

Tab. 2. Information of data flow graph in applications

Tab. 2 shows the information of each data flow graph in applications. The nodes in data flow graph represent the operations. After initial scheduling, we can get the number of ALUs and multipliers. Because of the functional placement, the final cycle count presents after the rescheduling.

We implement three methods to solve the channel and register allocation problem. Method 1 is the previous one which has dedicated interconnection wireS without pipelining. Method 2 is also the previous work which pipelines the interconnection wires and performs the transfer scheduling to improve the wiring overhead. The third method is our proposed ILP model, which share all interconnection resource globally and solved by ILP solver.

The interconnection overhead including wires and registers are all the metrics to evaluate the performance. Those results are shown in Tab. 3, which report the requirement of interconnection wires and registers and normalized the average count to method 1.

	Method 1		Method 2		Method ILP		
	Ch#	Reg#	Ch#	Reg#	Ch#	Reg#	Run time (sec)
(1) mpeg2enc (dfg 1)	42	28	37	45	25	25	0.16
(2) mpeg2enc (dfg 2)	76	53	60	76	42	38	102.58
(3) mpeg2enc (dfg 3)	130	92	109	133	68	61	6.26
(4) jpeg (dfg 1)	81	50	64	78	24	28	8.9
(5) jpeg (dfg 2)	78	44	59	68	28	28	0.98
(6) jpeg (dfg 3)	75	72	58	87	24	48	235.53
(7) rasta	74	56	57	75	25	27	340.11
average	79.43	56.43	63.43	80.29	33.71	36.43	
normalized to Method 1	1	1	0.798	1.423	0.424	0.646	

Tab. 3. Experimental result in three methods

Method 1 uses lots of interconnection wires, which seems a nightmare for whole system. Method 2 pipelines the interconnection wires and tries to share the dedicated wires between each two clusters. It improves about 20% in wiring overhead but pays the 40% additional registers cost. However, the sharing scheme of method 2 is limited to divided local region.

In our formulation, we try to let all transferred data share whole interconnection resource by taking the wire segments instead of the dedicated interconnections. Besides, we also take the pipeline registers as general ones. We enable a global sharing and using ILP solver to find the optimal solution, which make around 60% and almost 45% improvement on requirement of wires and registers relatively at the same time.

Chapter 6 Conclusions and Future Works

Base on the regular distributed register architecture, we extend the capability of register stations and try to use the global sharing of interconnection resource to improve the wiring overhead. We propose the channel and register allocation problem and give it a formal formulation. This formal model has high flexibility to make lots of extension, because it captures the basic behavior of transferred data at each cycle. Through ILP solver, we get the optimal solution under some experimental specification. It results in 53% wires and 35% registers improvement on average compared to previous methods. However, it must be noticed that the ILP solver cannot deal with large scale applications. Thus, we still need to propose a heuristic algorithm to firmly establish our method in the future.



Chapter 7 Reference

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