# 國立交通大學

電子工程學系 電子研究所

碩士論文

動態考慮多關鍵性迴路之效能感知佈局研究

Throughput-Aware Floorplanning by Dynamically Considering Multiple Critical Cycles

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中華民國九十六年八月

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#### 摘要

隨著製程的進步,導線延遲取代了元件的延遲,逐漸主宰著系統的效率,並且在設計上成為一個非常關鍵的因素。然而,導線的延遲很難在早期的系統設計中預知,必須要等到佈局(floorplan)完成才可以有初步的分析。因此,在這份論文中,我們會介紹導線延遲所造成的潛在因素是如何引響系統的效能,並且重新評估一些具有同成果品質(Quality of Result)目標的舊有佈局方法。接著我們提出一個新的效能感知(Throughput-Aware)佈局方法,這個新的方法會動態考量一個對效能最具關鍵的迴路集合,此迴路集合的元素還會隨著佈局的過程而改變,以達到增進系統效能(system throughput)的目標。實驗結果也顯示出我們的方法可大幅增進系統效能,有些例子裡甚至可以比以往的方法達到兩倍以上的成長。我們另外推薦一個整體設計流程,可以在系統設計步驟時就預估佈局對效能的影響,避免未來因為效能不足而造成冗長且高價的重複設計代價。

Throughput-Aware Floorplanning by Dynamically

**Considering Multiple Critical Cycles** 

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**ABSTRACT** 

The wire delay is gradually dominating the system performance and becoming one of the

most critical design issues. However, it is hard to precisely estimate the wire delay in early

design stages until floorplan is actually done. In this thesis, we first show how the latency

incurred by wire delay dominates system throughput and re-evaluate several exiting

floorplanning strategies which are considered providing the same quality of result (QoR) in

the past. Then we propose a new throughput-aware floorplanning strategy which dynamically

optimizes a set of most critical performance cycles in the system. The experimental results

show that our approach can even double the system performance than the previous method in

certain cases. We also recommend a design flow that considers the floorplanning impact as

early as the system-level design stage to avoid lengthy and costly redesign iterations.

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從進入研究所到這份論文的完成,我得到非常多的人的幫助以及關懷。在此我將對 他們表達我的感謝之意,如果沒有這些幫助,這份論文是無法完成的。

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對於此論文的完成,我有很多的感激。一份論文的研究實在需要很多很多的助力, 不論是實際上的支持,或是背後的幫助,皆無法在此以三言兩語來真正的說明,因此在 最後引用陳之藩先生說的話:「因為需要感謝的人太多了,就感謝天吧。」來表達我完 成論文的心情,謝謝。

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

As entering the era of SoC design using deep submicron (DSM) technology, the trend of continuous shrinking device size and interconnect width makes the performance critically dependent on the latency of long wires. Feature size downscaling speeds up the operating frequency but raises the delay ratio of wire to device [1]. Moreover, due to rapidly increasing design complexity, the delay of global wire fails to shrink as the device delay does. One major reason is shown in Figure 1-1. The impact of technology scaling on global wire is unchanged while the local wire and devices or modules becomes small.

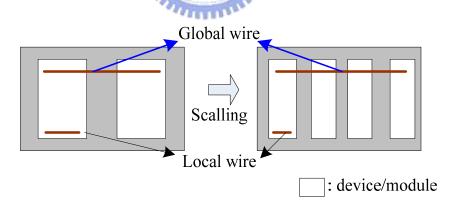


Figure 1-1. Un-shrinking global wire as feature size downscaling.

As a result, the length which a signal can reach within a clock cycle drops quickly. Figure 1-2, which is obtained from [2], shows the trend for metric clock locality in different process generation. The die length is 30mm and the operating frequency is 1.2GHz. In the 80nm process, it needs 16 clock cycles to across the chip. Moreover, the length that a signal

can reach within a clock cycle decreases to only 5% of the die length in the 60nm process node.

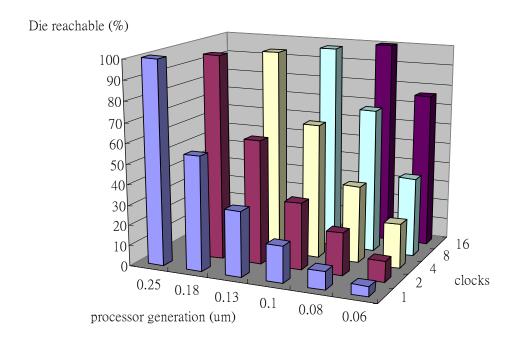


Figure 1-2. The trend for signal propagation length (obtained from [2]).

Hence, it is unavoidable that the chip-scale inter-module communication becomes multi-cycle. Such multi-cycle latency can seriously degrade the performance improvement originally obtained from adopting advanced fabrication technology. The combination of increasing long wire delay and increasing chip operating frequency forces designers to innovate better design methodologies.

Therefore, in physical level, there are wire sizing, buffer insertion, bus encoding...etc helping to relax the wire delay constraint. And in system level, many research works try to find new design paradigms that not only have advantage of being perfectly transparent to the designers but still guarantee the timing closure and correct functional behavior.

One approach is to adopt globally-asynchronous locally-synchronous (GALS) systems [3-5] which utilize asynchronous handshake protocols for global inter-module communication.

The other is to use latency-insensitive systems (LIS) [6-8] in which the communication protocols do not rely on specific latency requirements. In such protocol, modules are surrounded by wrappers and communicate through special pipeline elements, called relay stations. Another one is network-on-chip (NoC) platform [9-10] which organizes the global wire as an on-chip interconnection network. The communication of NoC design passes through every module's router with network interface.

For synchronous designs, inserting pipeline elements into interconnects, like LIS design paradigm and wire pipelining strategy, is generally compatible with the traditional synchronous design mainstream. The LIS design is getting more attention these years and wire pipelining is used popularly. By inserting pipeline elements into interconnects, the time constraint is relaxed. For example, the wires shown in Figure 1-3, the input/output time constraint of wire for all the modules are needed to be smaller than 1 clock cycles. The delay of wire A is 0.9 clock cycle such that it needs no pipelining. On the other side the delay of wire B is 2.4 clock cycles such that two pipeline elements are inserted into wire B. Therefore, the input/output timing constraint of wire B is feasible.

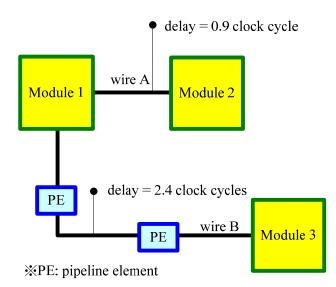


Figure 1-3. An example of the pipeline element insertion.

#### 1.1 Motivation

For synchronous design, how to realize multi-cycle communication is addressed well. However, besides the overhead of additional pipeline elements, it also jeopardizes overall system throughput due to the existence of multi-cycle communication feedback loops within the system.\* If this issue can not be properly addressed, the advantage obtained from technology improvement is likely to vanish as mentioned previously.

Moreover, notice that it is particularly hard to deal with this throughput degradation issue in early system design stage. This is because the wire delay information remains unknown until the floorplanning is actually performed. Thus, how many clock cycles for the interconnect communication is dependent on the result after performing floorplan. Therefore, the floorplan needs to be modified appropriately to deal with this important subject otherwise the system performance is endangered. The floorplaner that considers multi-cycle communication becomes necessary and is very important in the coming era of high speed synchronous design.

The overall system throughput is virtually unpredictable at early design phase. If the throughput result after floorplanning doesn't meet the requirement, significant redesign iterations are likely required to achieve the target throughput. These redesign iterations may become a terrible encumbrance and damage the project schedule. Hence, the effect of floorplan to the throughput must be evaluated in advance. As a result, a more effective design flow is needed to minimize the redesign iterations.

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<sup>\*</sup> This influence is discussed in Section 2-1.

#### 1.2 Our Contribution

In this thesis, a new floorplanning strategy is proposed. This strategy is based on simulated annealing (SA) and the cost function is defined to considering the important issue of system performance—throughput. Moreover this new strategy dynamically considers a set of most critical cycles. This dynamic set of cycles is initially set to certain range of cycles according to their throughput and its size changes with temperature. It has a good balance between high correlation and low sensitivity than previous works. The experimental results show that our method provides significant improvement on throughput. Furthermore, the improvement of our method increases very much as the interconnect delay gets larger.

According to the experiment of optimizing the throughput, a global design flow is recommended. This recommended design flow evaluates the throughput result affected by floorplanning after system-level design. If the throughput result is not satisfied at this stage, it can be fast backward to change the system-level design and doesn't need to wait until finishing the backend floorplan. Thus, this new design flow helps reduce the redesign iterations between backend floorplan backward to system-level architecture or RTL & logic design stages.

#### 1.3 Organization of This Thesis

This thesis is organized as follows. In Chapter 2 we show the preliminaries for our work. It includes the throughput calculation, the effects of floorplanning to throughput, and the related works. The proposed throughput-aware floorplanning strategy is given in Chapter 3. Experimental results are provided in Chapter 4. The recommended overall design flow is discussed in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 concludes this thesis.

# Chapter 2

## **Preliminaries**

#### 2.1 System Throughput

Data rate is the major performance metric in system design and it is calculated by multiplying the system throughput and the operating frequency. Obviously, the throughput serves as an important performance factor. As described, the throughput depends on not only the latency of functional blocks but also the latency incurred by long wires. An example is given to show how the wire latency impacts the throughput.

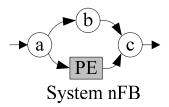


Figure 2-1. The system **nFB** without feedback loop.

Consider the system **nFB** shown in Figure 2-1, the circles **a**, **b**, and **c** are functional blocks, while the rectangle **PE** is a pipeline element. Assume the interconnect delay between **a** and **c** is greater than one clock period but less than two. It implies that at least one pipeline element must be inserted between **a** and **c** to preserve the correct functionality. Hence, the interconnection latency from **a** to **c** is 1 clock cycle. Assume the latency of every functional

block is 1 clock cycle. Also assume that the interconnect channel can properly queue the transfer data. The output sequence at the functional block  $\mathbf{c}$  is considered as the output of the system  $\mathbf{nFB}$ .

At the time slot  $\mathbf{t_0}$ , all functional blocks  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$ , and  $\mathbf{c}$  produce the first valid data tokens  $\mathbf{a_0}$ ,  $\mathbf{b_0}$ , and  $\mathbf{c_0}$  while **PE** only contains an empty data token  $\boldsymbol{\tau}$  initially. For following time slots, every functional block produces a valid data if its input data are ready at the previous time slot. Otherwise it produces empty data. A pipeline element only keeps a token one clock cycle then forwards it out from senders to receivers.

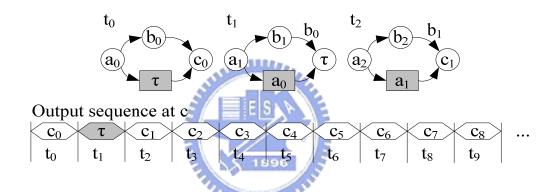


Figure 2-2. Time slot sequence in the system **nFB**.

In Figure 2-2, at time slot  $\mathbf{t_1}$ , because one input data of the block  $\mathbf{c}$  is  $\boldsymbol{\tau}$  at the previous time slot,  $\mathbf{c}$  produces  $\boldsymbol{\tau}$  and the data  $\mathbf{b_0}$  is queued in the interconnecting channel from  $\mathbf{b}$  to  $\mathbf{c}$ . Also at time slot  $\mathbf{t_1}$ , the pipeline element **PE** receives the data  $\mathbf{a_0}$ , and passes it to the block  $\mathbf{c}$  at the next time slot. Then the empty data  $\boldsymbol{\tau}$  is popped out since  $\mathbf{t_2}$  and all functional blocks produce valid data since then. Note that there exists only one  $\boldsymbol{\tau}$  in the output sequence of the system  $\mathbf{nFB}$ . Therefore the overall throughput of the system  $\mathbf{nFB}$  approaches 1 as  $\mathbf{t} \rightarrow \infty$ .

Now consider the system **FB** with a feedback loop as shown in Figure 2-3. Though it looks similar as the system **nFB**, it presents a totally different throughput.

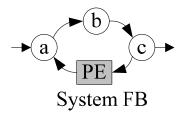


Figure 2-3. The system **FB** with feedback loop.

As Figure 2-4 points out, the empty data token  $\tau$  introduced by **PE** circles around during  $t_0 \sim t_4$ . It becomes obvious that the empty data token never disappears and always presents at the system output every 4 clock cycles. As a result, the throughput of the system **FB** approaches only 3/4 as  $t \to \infty$ .

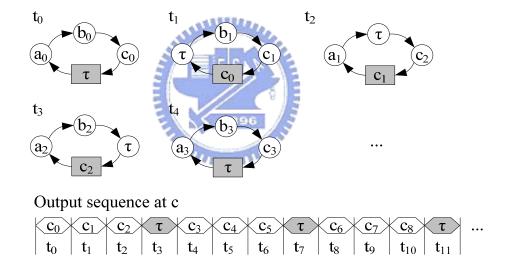


Figure 2-4. Time slot sequence in the system **FB**.

As the two systems **nFB** and **FB** demonstrate, a system can be modeled as a graph, in which vertices depict the functional modules and edges describe inter-module communication channels. Every vertex and edge has a weight indicating its required number of clock cycles for signal transmission. The throughput P of a cycle C can be calculated as the reciprocal of the cycle mean  $\lambda$  and is shown in Equation (1)

$$P_C = \lambda_C^{-1} = \left(\frac{W(C)}{|C|}\right)^{-1} \tag{1}$$

In Equation (1), |C|, usually called the size of cycle C, is the number of vertices in C and W(C) is the sum of weights of all vertices and edges within the cycle C.

If a system contains more than one cycle, then the system throughput is bounded by the most critical cycle possessing the maximum cycle mean, shown in Equation (2). The equation has been proven in [7-8] and [16].

$$P_{system} = \lambda_{\max}^{-1} = \left(\max_{\forall C \in system} \lambda(C)\right)^{-1} = \left(\max_{\forall C \in system} \frac{W(C)}{|C|}\right)^{-1}$$
(2)

The system shown in Figure 2-5 is an example that the critical cycle bounds the system throughput. This system has 2 cycles  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ . Although the output functional block  $\mathbf{f}$  belongs to  $C_2$  whose throughput is 4/5 and the output sequence at  $\mathbf{f}$  shown in Figure 2-6 presents a throughput approaching 4/5 before  $\mathbf{t_{19}}$ , the cycle  $C_1$  eventually blocks the input data of the block  $\mathbf{d}$  such that the throughput of functional block  $\mathbf{f}$  is 3/4 after  $\mathbf{t_{19}}$ . Thus, the final throughput of this system is bounded by the cycle  $C_1$  with the maximum cycle mean and approaches 3/4 as  $\mathbf{t} \rightarrow \infty$ .

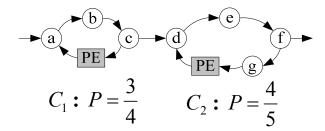


Figure 2-5. The system with two cycles.

#### Output sequence at f $f_6$ $f_5$ τ $t_1$ $t_5$ $t_6$ $t_7$ $t_9$ $t_0$ $t_2$ $t_4$ $t_8$ $f_{14}$ $f_8$ $f_9$ $f_{10}$ $f_{11}$ $(f_{12})$ $f_{13}$ $f_{15}$ τ τ $t_{12}$ $t_{18} \\$ $t_{10}$ $t_{11}$ $t_{13}$ $t_{14}$ $t_{15}$ $t_{16}$ $t_{17}$ $t_{19}$ $f_{23}$ $f_{20}$ τ $f_{21}$ $t_{20}$ $t_{22}$ $t_{21}$ $t_{23}$ $t_{24}$ $t_{27}$ $t_{25}$ $t_{26}$ $t_{28}$ $t_{29}$

Figure 2-6. Time slot sequence of the system in Figure 2-5.

#### 2.2 The Effect of Floorplanning to Throughput

In the previous section, how wire latency affects system throughput is described. However, what latency a interconnect channel possesses depends on the floorplanning result. For example, two different floorplans, FP1 and FP2, for the same system are shown in Figure 2-7. This system has one cycle a-b-c-a and the two floorplan have the same area and wire length. The only difference between them is the positions of blocks **c** and **d**.

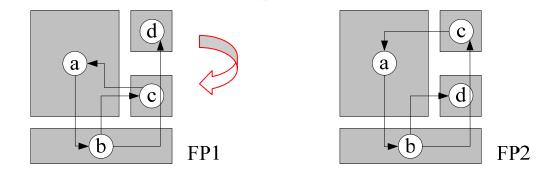


Figure 2-7. Floorplanning results FP1 & FP2.

It is assumed that the data transfer cannot be successfully completed from **b** to **d** in FP1 and from **b** to **c** in FP2 within one clock cycle. Hence, a pipeline element must be inserted in both cases. After inserting pipeline elements, surprisingly, the performances of two floorplans are significantly different. As shown in Figure 2-8, FP1 remains its throughput to be 1 while

FP2's throughput drops from 1 to 3/4 (25% performance loss).

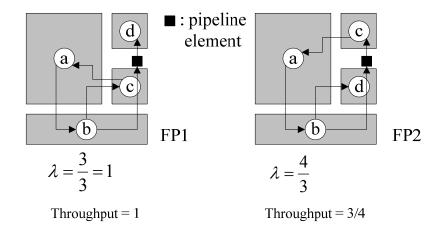


Figure 2-8. Floorplan FP1 & FP2 after pipelining.

This example shows the strong effect of floorplanning to throughput. If the floorplan without carefully dealing with this issue, the degradation of throughput becomes large. Therefore, we try to find a new method that improve the system throughput under simular area and wire length cost.

#### 2.3 Problem Formulation

This problem is formulated to be a modified floorplan problem. The modifications are the input data type and the additional new objective. It can be further formulated as following.

**Given:** 1. A system task graph with physical information

2. The wire length that a signal can reach within one clock cycle,  $W_{\rm CLK}$  (The wire length  $W_{\rm CLK}$  is used to calculate the latency on an interconnect.)

**Constraint:** A non-overlap feasible floorplan result

**Objective:** 1. Maximize throughput (i.e. minimize the maximum cycle mean)

2. Minimize area and wire length

**Algorithm:** The SA-based algorithm

In an SA-based floorplanning algorithm, the cost function is the guide to reach the objectives. Conventionally the cost function only contains the objectives for area and wire length. We add a new one for maximizing throughput into cost function  $\Phi$ , and it is now defined as Equation (3).

Cost function: 
$$\Phi = \alpha A + \beta W + \gamma \cdot f(P)$$
 (3)

In Equation (3), A is for total area, W is for total wire length, f(P) represents the cost of throughput. Smaller f(P) means higher throughput.  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  are weighting constants. If one objective is emphazied, raising its weighting constant can make the floorplan be better on the objective.

#### 2.4 Related Works

The floorplan with throughput consideration has been discussed. There are two related works with discussion as in the following sections.

# 2.4.1 The Modified SA-based Adjacent Constraint Graph (ACG) Floorplaner[14]

In [14], authors identify the maximum cycle mean among all cycles and directly use that mean as f(P) of the cost function in their SA-based floorplaner [15]. This method immediately gives the response of the overall system throughput in cost function without considering any minor factors. The high correlation between cost and throughput is provided. However, the maximum cycle mean might not be smooth enough to serve as a good cost function.

For example, consider the system S1 and the floorplan FS1-a shown in Figure 2-9. This system has three cycles  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$ , and  $C_3$ . According to FS1-a, the cycle  $C_2$  is the critical cycle

with the maximum cycle mean and it dominates this system throughput bounded to be 3/4. The other two cycles have equal cycle mean to be 5/4.

In order to improve the throughput, the floorplaner tends to choose a result improving the critical cycle  $C_2$ . As a result shown in Figure 2-10, the cycle mean of  $C_2$  is improved from 4/3 to 1, however, the cycle mean of  $C_3$  (=3/2) takes the place of critical cycle and the system throughput decreases from 3/4 (of FS1-a) to 2/3 (of FS1-b).

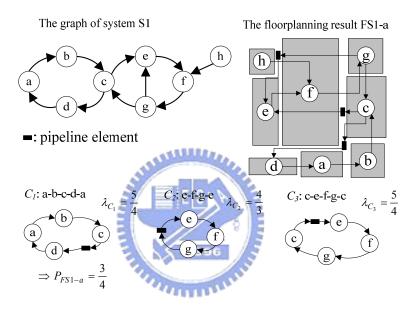


Figure 2-9. The system S1 and its resulting floorplan FS1-a.

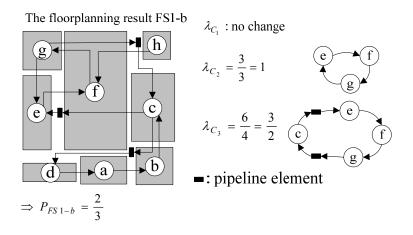


Figure 2-10. The resulting floorplan FS1-b of the system S1.

From this example of the system S1, directly using the maximum cycle mean to be f(P) of the cost function may increase the other minor cycle means. Thus, f(P) must be considered to prevent the increasing of critical and minor cycle means simultaneously.

# 2.4.2 The SA-based Floorplaner with Correlative Cost Function[11-13]

In [11-13], authors first investigate the throughput-driven floorplanning. They introduce a simulated annealing (SA)-based floorplaner optimize for system throughput. However, they claim that the throughput is too sensitive to small local changes such that it is not a good idea to directly use it in the cost function.

Instead, they create a correlative f(P) for preventing the pipeline element insertion into the edges in the critical cycles. Initially, every edge is assigned a weight with the reciprocal of the smallest cycle size containing it. It is because the pipeline element insertion in the cycle with small size is easy to decrease the system throughput. If an edge with a large reciprocal value, inserting pipeline element into the edge has much danger to the throughput. Then at each following iteration, the edge latency is updated according to the current floorplanning solution. After that, the SA-based floorplaner is guided to reduce the sum of product of the weight and the latency for all edges. The small value of this method means that the less pipeline elements in the critical edges such that the system throughput is improved. Taking the resulting floorplan of the system S1 shown in Figure 2-9 as an example, the edge g-e has one pipeline element and its smallest cycle size is  $|C_3| = 3$ . Hence the partial cost of it is 1/3. The respected the partial cost of edge c-d is 1/4 and edge c-e is 1/4. Thus the final cost of f(P) of this method is 10/12.

The authors claim that the designated cost function is better than the real system

throughput for SA-based floorplaner due to its modest sensitivity to local changes and fast computation. However, the fact is that the overall system throughput solely depends on the most critical cycle with the maximum cycle mean. Thus, it is arguable how strong the correlation between the designated cost function and the final system throughput is. According to the claim in [11], the throughput with smaller cost is better than the other one. For example, to reduce the cost of FS1-a in Figure 2-9, which is computed to be 0.83 (10/12), the FS1-b in Figure 2-10 could be the new floorplan because it has smaller cost 0.75 (9/12). However, FS1-b with throughput 0.75 (3/4) is actually better than that of FS1-a with throughput 0.67 (2/3). Therefore, neither the weighted edge cost nor the most critical cycle mean can improve the actual system throughput very well.



# Chapter 3

# Throughput-Aware Floorplan by Dynamically Considering Multiple Critical Cycles

#### 3.1 The Consideration of Multiple Critical Cycles

According to the discussion in section 2.4, a new method for f(P) is considered in order to balance the correlation and sensitivity. Therefore, instead of the overall cycles in [11] and the maximum cycle mean in [14], a set of most critical cycles is taken into consideration in our methodology. The set of most critical cycles is defined as  $C_{Tp}$  and the number of cycles in  $C_{Tp}$  is defined as its size  $|C_{Tp}|$ . The cycles in  $C_{Tp}$  are chosen according to their cycle means and the  $|C_{Tp}|$  is parameterizable. For example, assume we have ten cycles in a system, Figure 3-1 shows the cycle means of these cycles. The number in x-axis is the cycle number and the height of the bar is the cycle's corresponding cycle mean.

In this example, if we decided to choose the 50% most critical cycles, then the cycles with 50% larger cycle means (C3, C4, C5, C9, and C10 which are colored in Figure 3-1) are picked up to form  $C_{Tp}$  and  $|C_{Tp}|$  is five in the floorplaner. f(P) now designed to considering how to improve the cycle means in  $C_{Tp}$ . Minimizing the cycle mean of each cycle in  $C_{Tp}$  is our objective. Hence, we use the average cycle mean of all cycles in  $C_{Tp}$ , called  $\lambda_{Tp}$ , to

represent the influence of throughput in the cost function. Therefore, the f(P) in Equation (3) can be rewritten as Equation (4).

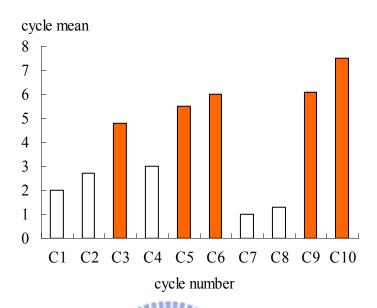


Figure 3-1 The cycle means of 10 cycles in a system.

$$f(P) = \lambda_{\mathbf{Tp}} = \frac{\sum_{C_i \in C_{\mathbf{Tp}}} \lambda_{C_i}}{\left| C_{\mathbf{Tp}} \right|}$$
(4)

In our work, the chosen cycles' percentage is initially set in SA floorplaner. However, Equation (4) is not ideal application of f(P). Although this method gives the opportunity to prevent forming a worse critical cycle from the minor ones, it has the criticism mentioned in section 2.4.2 that the small cost may not imply good throughput result. In addition, as mentioned in section 2.1, the system throughput is only decided by the maximum cycle mean. Thus it seems that keeping fixed number of multiple cycles in  $C_{Tp}$  during whole SA iterations is not suitable. Therefore, in next section, a more feasible application is evolved.

#### 3.2 Dynamic Cycle Set $C_{Tp}$

Although the cycle set  $C_{Tp}$  is high correlative and not so sensitive to local change, the computing method of  $\lambda_{Tp}$  is still not good enough to stand for the system throughput improving. It is always that the maximum cycle mean bounds the system throughput. Thus when SA process is near to the end, we should concentrate on decreasing the maximum cycle mean only. On the other words,  $C_{Tp}$  should eventually contain only the cycle with the maximum cycle mean at low annealing temperature (i.e.  $|C_{Tp}|$  becomes on the end of SA iterations). It is more practical than to consider multi-cycle for the final floorplanning result.

An example is shown in Figure 3-2. (a) is represents the cycle means at the beginning iteration of floorplanning and (b) is the cycle means at almost the end of the floorplan. The cycle means in (a) are worse that needs to consider the most critical cycles. But during the SA iterations,  $\lambda_{Tp}$  decreases such that the most cycle means are small in (b). Therefore, the multiple cycle consideration is not suitable for (b). On the other words, reducing the maximum cycle mean is the best way under (b)'s condition.

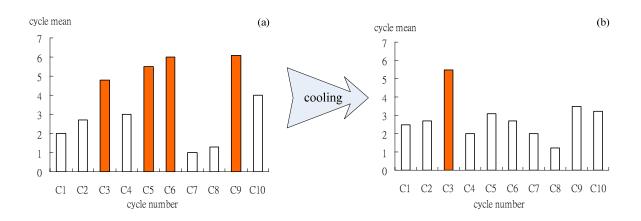


Figure 3-2. The possible cycle-means at the beginning (a) and ending (b) in SA process.

However, dramatically drop of  $|C_{Tp}|$  should be avoided in the SA process. For SA

algorithm, it is a gradually converging process and a violent changing may destroy the process. Therefore, the violent decreasing change of  $|C_{Tp}|$  may damage the smooth characteristic of SA-based floorplanning algorithm such that the throughput may not be improved. Thus we develop a mechanism to decrease  $|C_{Tp}|$  smoothly during SA process.

Assume that when temperature going down, the most cycle means in  $C_{Tp}$  decrease such that the non-critical cycles increase. Therefore,  $|C_{Tp}|$  can be shrunk as temperature cooling down and should contain only the cycle with maximum cycle mean near the end of SA iterations. T means the annealing temperature in SA algorithm and r is the cooling down ratio of T (i.e.  $T_{new} = rT_{old}$ ) and 0 < r < 1. In order to guarantee that  $C_{Tp}$  remains only the cycle with maximum cycle mean, a threshold of temperature, called  $T_{threshold}$ , is given. Therefore,  $|C_{Tp}|$  decrease with the same down ration r of T as T greater than or equal to  $T_{threshold}$ . This formulation of  $|C_{Tp}|$  is given in Equation (5).

$$\left| C_{\mathbf{Tp}} \right|_{new} = \begin{cases} r \left| C_{Tp} \right|_{old} & , T \ge T_{threshold} \\ 1 & , T < T_{threshold} \end{cases}$$
(5)

Consequently  $C_{Tp}$  is the set of most critical cycles which change according their cycle means and  $|C_{Tp}|$  decreases with the temperature until T is smaller than  $T_{threshold}$ . The initial value of  $C_{Tp}$  is decided by how worse the cycle mean is wanted to be improved. The other parameter  $T_{threshold}$  can be decided by when the multiple cycles consideration should be finished. By this dynamically considering the multiple critical cycles,  $\lambda_{Tp}$  in Equation (4) just becomes the best computation method of f(P) in our opinion.

#### 3.3 The SA-based Flow of Our Approach

Combining the SA-based floorplanning algorithm with our approach, the flow chart of Figure 3-3 displays the whole process for the new throughput-aware floorplanning. The abbreviations in Figure 3-3 are described in Table 3-1. G is the system task graph with hard blocks physical information. X is the representation of a floorplan. FP() is the floorplanning generation to generate a new X. p is the acceptance probability decided by the cost and temperature. R is a random number between  $0\sim1$ .

Table 3-1: The meanings of the abbreviations in Figure 3-3.

G	The system task graph
T	Annealing temperature
r	The cooling speed of Temperature
X	Floorplan
FP()	Floorplanning generation
Φ	Cost
p	Acceptance probability
R	Random number

This flow is separated into three main processes that are discussed as following:

- 1. Initial setup: In this process, the parameters, like initial temperature, chip aspect ratio, temperature cooling down ratio...etc, are given. All cycles in the system task graph are identified and the initial set of  $C_{Tp}$  is also determined.
- 2. SA iteration: This is the main process of the SA-based floorplaner. At every iteration it generates a new floorplan  $X_{new}$  and the new cost of this floorplan is computed. If the cost does not change any more or T is decreased to zero, the iteration stops. Otherwise, the judgement of taking  $X_{new}$  or not is applied and the floorplaner decreases  $|C_{Tp}|$  with temperature by Euqation (5). The cycles of  $C_{Tp}$  are also re-chosen according to their new cycles. The floorplan  $X_{new}$  is taken by its

decreasing cost or the greater computed acceptance probability than a random number. Then the next new floorplan is continuously generated.

3. Final result: It outputs the best floorplan in the SA process and it throughput.

# 1. Initial setup Input data: G, T Initialize: $X = X_0$ $\Phi = \Phi_0$ 2. SA iteration $T_{\text{new}} = rT_{\text{old}}$ $X_{\text{new}} = FP(G, X, T)$ , $T < T_{threshold}$ $\Phi = \alpha A + \beta W + \gamma \lambda_{\mathbf{Tp}}$ $X = X_{new}$ X = XR < p? $p = p(\Delta \mathbf{\Phi}, T)$ No Terminate? No Yes Yes $\Phi$ decreased ? 3. Final result Output final result

Figure 3-3. The flow chart of SA-based floorplaner.

# Chapter 4

# **Experimental Results**

#### 4.1 Environment Setup and Benchmarks

The benchmarks we use contain two sets, MCNC and GSRC. However, the original benchmarks lack of transfer direction information. In order to add data dependency between the modules in each benchmark, we break each net into a 2-pin net and randomly assign it with a direction. The system has cycles because of this direction assignment. To provide a moderate number of cycles in a system, we limit the number of cycles around one tenth the number of blocks in every benchmark. The number of cycles in every benchmark is show in Table 4-1 after our modification.

Table 4-1. The number of blocks and cycles for each benchmark

filo nomo		1	MC.	GSRC					
file name	apte	xeorx	hp	ami33	ami49	n10	n30	n50	n100
blocks	9	10	11	33	49	10	30	50	100
cycles	4	2	1	5	7	2	3	9	12

The experiments are conducted on a Linux workstation with two Intel Xeon 3.2G CUPs and 3GB DRAM.

#### 4.2 Weight Assignment

The weight of each block in a benchmark is assigned to be one. This means that each block requires one clock cycle for computation. The weight of an interconnect  $e_i$  is the number of pipeline elements it needing and this number is determined by how many clock cycles a signal propagates from the interconnect's one end to the other. For example, and interconnect with 2.4 clock cycle delay needs to be inserted into two pipeline elements. Therefore, the weight of  $e_i$  is defined by Equation (6)

$$weight(e_i) = \left| \frac{length(e_i)}{W_{CLK}} \right|$$
(6)

The interconnect length is modelled as the Manhattan distance between the centers of two blocks. Equation (6) computes the clock cycle delay of  $e_i$  and takes the floor value which is the number of pipeline elements needed at least for  $e_i$ .

To model the effect of the advancing technology, we assume  $W_{\rm CLK}$  to shorten as 1/k times of the die length and give several kind of k. We applied k to be the number of 1, 2, 4, ... to 32. 1 means that the signal can reach the die length in one clock cycle in 0.25 um processor generation [2]. 32 is the required cycle for cross-chip signal propagation through the top-level metal wire in 35nm processor generation [18].

#### 4.3 Results

#### **4.3.1** Experiment I

We apply four different methods for cost computation in the same floorplaner: Method\_A is like the conventional floorplaner optimizing are only. The other methods not only reduce area but also consider the throughput with their own way: Method M is reducing

the maximum cycle mean only [13]; Method\_C is re-implementation of the correlative cost in [10]; and Method\_D is our approach. In our method,  $C_{Tp}$  initially contains all cycles and  $T_{threshold}$  is set as 1/1000 of the initial temperature.

Under the same value of k, we run every benchmark for ten times by using the four different methods. The results of average throughput and dead space are shown in Table 4-2. P is the system throughput and DS is the percentage of dead space.

Table 4-2. Average throughput and dead space.

	Method_A		Meth	Method_M		od_C	Method_D		
k	P	<b>DS(%)</b>	P	<b>DS(%)</b>	P	<b>DS(%)</b>	P	<b>DS(%)</b>	
1	0.73	8.15	0.92	8.41	0.99	8.38	1.00	8.49	
2	0.45	7.75	0.64	8.68	0.76	9.92	0.88	10.69	
4	0.26	8.04	0.39	8.35	0.49	9.96	0.63	12.51	
8	0.15	7.94	0.23	8.58	0.26	9.94	0.41	12.18	
16	0.07	7.95	0.12	8.59	0.14	9.84	0.22	12.69	
32	0.04	7.74	0.06	8.50	0.07	10.26	0.11	12.54	

Form Table 4-2, the throughput decreases very much as *k* increases. The dead space of our method is smaller than 13% while Method\_A and Method\_M are smaller than 9% and Method\_C is smaller than 11%. The throughput of our method (Method\_D) always has better throughput results than others.

The comparison between the four different methods on the thoughput is shown in Figure 4-1. The area overhead is shown in Table 4-3. All the results are normalized to Method A.

Form Figure 4-1, the improvement of throughput is increasing as the number of cycles increasing and our method has the best achievements. The area overhead, which does not exceed 5%, is quite small as shown in Table 4-3.

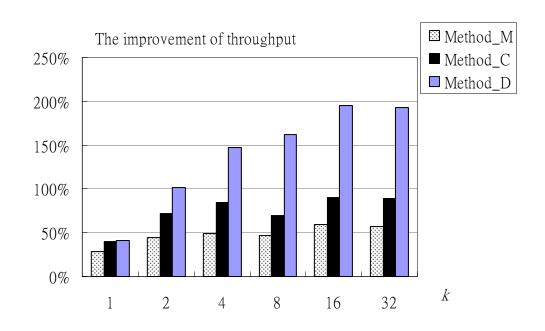


Figure 4-1. Average throughput improvement for Method M, Method C and Method D.

Table 4-3. Average area overhead for Method\_M, Method\_C, and Method\_D

	Method_M	Method_C	Method_D
k	(%)	(%)	(%)
1	0.24	0.21	0.31
2	0.85	2.04	2.78
4	0.30	1.81	4.19
8	0.58	1.86	3.97
16	0.59	1.77	4.43
32	0.71	2.37	4.50

#### **4.3.2** Experiment II

In this experiment, we try to allow more are overhead by decreasing the weighting constant  $\alpha$  in our method, called Method\_D\* and do the experiment of Method\_D\*. The comparisons of throughput and area overhead of Method\_D and Method\_D\* are shown in Figure 4-2 and Table 4-4. The data is also normalized to Method\_A.

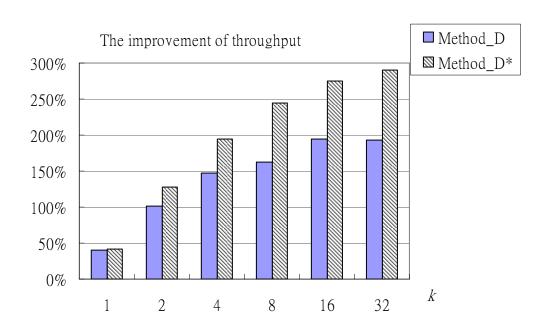


Figure 4-2. Average throughput increasing of Method D and Method D\*.

Table 4-4. Average area overhead for Method D and Method D\*

	Method_D	Method_D*
$k \setminus$	(%)	(%)
1	0.31	1.42
2	2.78	2.76
4	4.19	7.90
8	3.97	9.36
16	4.43	10.43
32	4.50	9.79

According to Figure 4-2 and Table 4-4, if more area overhead is allowed, even more significant improvement of throughput can be achieved as the value of k increases. It shows that the area overhead increase about 10% but the improvement of Method\_D\* increases near to 300% as k=32.

#### 4.4 Stability

For all methods, we compute the average standard deviation of the maximum cycle mean

for the results of each benchmark. The results are shown in Figure 4-3.

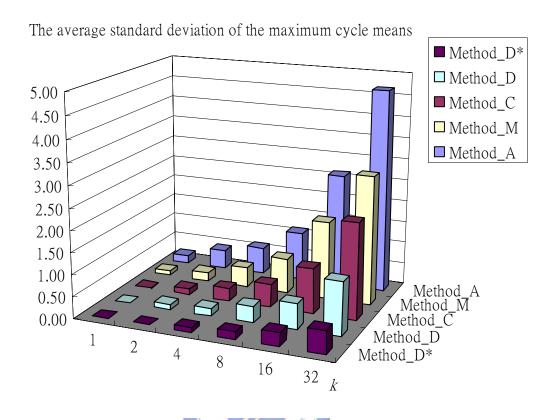


Figure 4-3. The standard deviations for every method under different number of cycles.

From Figure 4-3, Method\_A has the greatest standard deviation because it does not condiering throughput at all. Among all the throughput-aware floorplan, Method\_M has the greatest standard deviation because it considers only the maximum cycle mean. And our method has smaller standard deviation than Method\_C because improving the throughputs for all cycles by [10] may not actually improve the system throughput. Moreover, our method considers a set of multiple critical cycles with dynamically decreasing size, thus it really improves the system throughput at low temperature.

Method\_D\* has smaller standard deviation than Method\_D because the more area overhead is allowed in Method\_D\*. Therefore, the floorplaner has more opportunities to place the blocks without damaging the throughput too much.

#### 4.5 Discussion

In Experiment I, the throughput degrades is very fast as the required number of cycles increases. Therefore, all method for optimizing throughput has improvement of throughput and the improvement of throughput increases when the number of cycles increases (i.e. the wire delay becomes worse). When the number of cycles is small, the improving of throughput has little difference. It is because the wire weight is still small such that achieving high throughput is easy. Our throughput-aware floorplanning shows the greatest improvement on the throughput. Even when the number of cycle increases, our approach has more improvement than other methods. It reaches almost 200% improving when the number of clocks is 16 and 32 cycles. Moreover, the area overhead of our method is no more than 5% corresponding to the Method 1.

In Experiment II, Method\_4\* has even more improvement than Method\_4. It can have more than 250% improvement when the number of clocks is greater than 16. And the area overhead is only increasing about 9%. Thus if relaxing area constraint is allowed, the better throughput is achieved than having area constraint.

In section 4.4, our method has the smallest standard deviation between Method\_1~Method\_4\*. Therefore our method can provide a more stable result than other methods. Specially, Method\_4\* which relax the area constraint has smaller standard deviation than Method\_4. It may be because that relaxing area constraint makes the more possible positions for the movements of the blocks become large. Thus the standard deviation of relaxing area constraint is smaller than having it.

# Chapter 5

# **Throughput-Aware Design Flow**

Our experimental results show a great improvement can be achieved on the system throughput by using our method. However, if the result given by the throughput-aware floorplaner still can not satisfy the design constraint, redesign iteration is unavoidable. Figure 5-1 shows a design process from the system-level design to floorplanning.

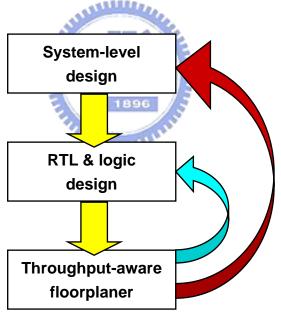


Figure 5-1. The redesign iterations.

If the throughput-aware floorplaner can not generate a satisfied result, the RTL & Logic design is modified again and expects to get an improved result after performing floorplan. However, if this redesign iteration is useless on improving throughput, the system-level architecture is needed to be rebuilt. Nevertheless the throughput of the rebuilt system

architecture is still unknown until floorplan is done. Thus an un acceptable resulting throughput of the floorplan makes the design process repeat form system level to floorplan. Such redesign iterations cost too much time and decrease the benefit.

Therefore, we propose a new methodology that can help to reduce the possible design iterations. The flow of this throughput-evaluation methodology is shown in Figure 5-2. The gray part is the proposed new design stages for reducing the redesign iterations form floorplan back to system level. It helps evaluate the throughput at early design stage.

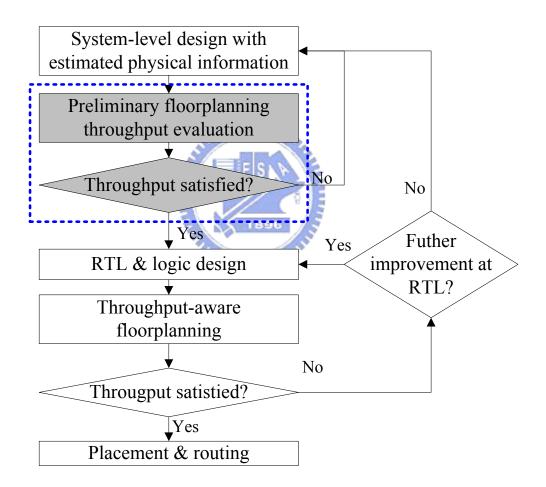


Figure 5-2 The recommended global design flow chart for preliminary throughput.

First the functional blocks are give the estimated physical information of area size and the clock-latency. Then, our proposed method can be applied to calculate the preliminary throughput value for floorplanning. If the resulting throughput is not satisfied, it can immediately modify the system-level design such that the possibility of redesigns from floorplan back to system level is greatly reduced.



# Chapter 6

# **Conclusions**

In this thesis, a new throughput-aware floorplanning strategy is proposed to maximize the system performance. It optimizes a dynamic set of most critical cycles simultaneously. Thus a more stable and better result can be obtained. Compared to the previous works, our approach is not only highly correlated to the final system throughput but also insensitive and stable to the locally minor changes during floorplanning refinement processes in floorplanning. The experimental results show that our floorplaner can achieve about twice the throughput of that minimizing area only as the applied clock cycles increasing to 16~32. And the area overhead only increases about 3%~10% more area under various setting of applied cycles. Meanwhile, a recommend design flow is proposed for preliminary throughput-aware floorplanning in system level. It helps reduce the design iterations. Hence, we believe the proposed method and flow can provide better floorplan solutions in the coming multi-cycle communication era.

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# **Appendix**

The average throughput and dead space of every benchmark with Method\_A, Method\_M, Method\_C, Method\_D, and Method\_D\* is shown in Table A-1.

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Table A-1. Average P and DS of every benchmark

apte						Se.				
	Met	Method_A Me		thod_M   Method_C			Met	hod_D	Method_D*	
k	P	DS (%)	P	DS (%)	P	DS (%)	P	DS (%)	P	DS (%)
1	0.751	1.59	1.000	2.48	1.000	1.84	1.000	1.93	1.000	2.22
2	0.462	1.64	0.729	2.26	0.722	6.89	1.000	12.12	1.000	3.35
4	0.245	1.59	0.413	2.04	0.400	4.14	0.602	4.77	0.685	5.71
8	0.134	1.64	0.228	2.06	0.215	3.30	0.338	7.43	0.348	5.52
16	0.070	1.64	0.120	2.33	0.112	2.87	0.170	4.95	0.205	4.87
32	0.034	1.64	0.060	2.21	0.059	3.22	0.090	6.35	0.107	4.47
xeorx										
	Met	hod_A	Metl	hod_M	Met	hod_C	Met	hod_D	Method_D*	
k	P	DS (%)	P	DS (%)	P	DS (%)	P	<b>DS</b> (%)	P	<b>DS</b> (%)
1	0.833	6.04	0.909	6.16	1.000	6.33	1.000	6.98	1.000	6.69
2	0.435	5.85	0.541	6.31	0.909	9.64	1.000	10.29	1.000	8.89
4	0.215	5.60	0.323	6.74	0.455	10.79	0.667	22.88	0.656	19.13
8	0.122	6.09	0.174	5.73	0.242	10.87	0.351	19.39	0.388	17.48
16	0.057	5.60	0.103	6.86	0.137	10.84	0.190	22.61	0.213	18.81
32	0.033	5.70	0.047	6.50	0.069	12.40	0.097	21.23	0.110	17.51

hp										
Method_A		Met	Method_M		Method_C		Method_D		Method_D*	
k	P	DS (%)	P	DS (%)	P	DS (%)	P	DS (%)	P	DS (%)
1	1.000	7.84	1.000	7.91	1.000	7.39	1.000	7.16	1.000	9.70
2	0.714	7.65	1.000	9.25	1.000	7.28	1.000	8.05	1.000	8.52
4	0.476	6.76	0.667	7.64	1.000	7.13	1.000	8.66	1.000	9.33
8	0.333	7.93	0.500	8.21	0.500	7.83	1.000	9.22	0.500	11.40
16	0.135	7.55	0.250	8.14	0.333	7.66	0.500	9.48	0.333	10.60
32	0.092	6.76	0.141	7.76	0.167	8.44	0.250	9.57	0.167	12.50
ami33										
	Met	hod_A	Met	hod_M	Met	hod_C	Met	hod_D	Meth	nod_D*
k	P	DS (%)	P	DS (%)	P	DS (%)	P	DS (%)	P	DS (%)
1	0.665	10.29	0.930	10.24	0.980	11.04	1.000	11.21	1.000	11.01
2	0.361	10.42	0.579	10.68	0.656	11.27	0.784	11.52	1.000	14.52
4	0.246	11.16	0.341	9.75	0.349	11.07	0.509	13.61	0.800	23.11
8	0.124	10.24	0.182	9.97	0.192	10.89	0.325	13.30	0.493	27.84
16	0.063	10.59	0.106	10.59	0.096	11.48	0.173	13.00	0.261	26.43
32	0.028	10.15	0.048	10.18	0.051	11.13	0.084	11.54	0.148	26.42
ami49			3		7	FE			ı	
	Met	hod_A	-	hod_M	1896	hod_C	Met	hod_D	Meth	nod_D*
k	P	DS (%)	P	<b>DS</b> (%)		<b>DS</b> (%)	P	DS (%)		<b>DS</b> (%)
1	0.649	10.19	0.930	10.24	1.000	9.65	1.000	9.84	1.000	10.80
2	0.400		0.579		0.701		0.968		1.000	
4	0.218	9.66	0.341	9.75	0.424	10.81	0.632	12.22	0.910	
8	0.128	9.73	0.182	9.97	0.215	11.29	0.358	10.86	0.588	24.06
16	0.074	9.61	0.106	10.59	0.109	10.74	0.176	12.53	0.331	28.10
32	0.032	9.84	0.048	10.18	0.067	10.50	0.111	11.64	0.183	25.34
n10			Τ		Τ				T	
	Met	hod_A		hod_M		hod_C	Met	hod_D	Meth	nod_D*
k	P	<b>DS</b> (%)		DS (%)		<b>DS</b> (%)	P	<b>DS</b> (%)	P	<b>DS</b> (%)
1	0.728	6.48	1.000	6.02	1.000	6.82	1.000	7.16	1.000	
2	0.504		0.760		1.000	9.92	1.000	8.30	1.000	8.13
4	0.255		0.471		0.656		0.752		0.752	10.44
8	0.154		0.236		0.360		0.429		0.429	10.70
16	0.074	6.09	0.126	6.35	0.203	11.59	0.271	12.76	0.267	
32	0.036	5.74	0.071	6.71	0.102	11.93	0.148	12.26	0.137	12.59

n30											
	Met	hod_A	I_A Method_M		Met	Method_C		Method_D		Method_D*	
k	P	<b>DS</b> (%)	P	<b>DS</b> (%)	P	<b>DS</b> (%)	P	<b>DS</b> (%)	P	DS (%)	
1	0.755	10.33	0.930	11.24	1.000	11.29	1.000	11.37	1.000	10.32	
2	0.414	10.19	0.519	11.28	0.667	11.57	0.828	12.76	1.000	11.74	
4	0.234	10.78	0.338	10.91	0.390	11.56	0.582	15.18	0.930	23.16	
8	0.147	10.09	0.180	12.10	0.210	12.37	0.308	14.68	0.588	21.82	
16	0.067	10.67	0.095	10.97	0.120	11.70	0.220	15.15	0.317	24.90	
32	0.039	10.06	0.050	10.94	0.058	12.70	0.090	14.27	0.175	23.91	
n50	n50										
	Method_A		Metl	hod_M	Met	hod_C	Met	hod_D	Meth	nod_D*	
k	P	DS (%)	P	<b>DS</b> (%)	P	DS (%)	P	DS (%)	P	DS (%)	
1	0.635	9.46	0.794	9.10	0.973	10.17	1.000	9.57	1.000	12.81	
2	0.385	9.22	0.583	9.17	0.596	10.87	0.693	9.78	0.976	14.67	
4	0.233	9.04	0.324	9.46	0.369	10.44	0.484	11.16	0.679	22.79	
8	0.117	9.59	0.179	9.85	0.190	10.52	0.277	11.04	0.405	24.05	
16	0.060	9.50	0.098	9.83	0.095	10.50	0.146	10.87	0.222	22.84	
32	0.032	9.00	0.047	9.98	0.049	10.54	0.080	10.72	0.117	24.43	
n100			3		7	FE					
	Met	hod_A	Met	hod_M	and the second	hod_C	Met	hod_D	Meth	nod_D*	
k	P	<b>DS</b> (%)	P	<b>DS</b> (%)	P	<b>DS</b> (%)	P	DS (%)	P	<b>DS</b> (%)	
1	0.548	11.15	0.760	12.01	0.980	10.85	1.000	11.16	1.000	14.25	
2	0.353	10.12	0.481	11.53	0.606	11.14	0.661	11.74	0.990	18.03	
4	0.209	11.46	0.270	11.03	0.324	11.97	0.449	12.85	0.623	19.12	
8	0.116	10.14	0.157	12.05	0.182	11.70	0.300	13.56	0.385	26.73	
16	0.063	10.35	0.069	10.77	0.098	11.21	0.163	12.83	0.227	25.97	
32	0.029	10.74	0.038	11.64	0.048	11.49	0.080	15.26	0.114	29.13	