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System Level Design with .NET Technology

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Dedication

For Karine, my parents, and all my family, for their help and support - Frédéric Rousseau

To my spouse and my mother, to all those who helped me, influenced me, or endured me throughout all these years, I express my profound gratitude. El Mostapha Aboulhamid



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Preface

The introduction of VHDL in 1987 and SystemC in 1999 gave a big boost to the Electronic Design Community and played an important role in the development of System Level Design. We were involved with both processes early on. Rich with the experience with these two environments, we wanted to explore new frontiers that can enforce these systems and hopefully constitute a synergy with them. This results in the development of ESys.NET in 2003.

This book had its origin in the overall work done at the Université de Montréal, on the system level design environment named ESys.NET. It is based on the .NET framework and brings a better management of metadata, introspection, and interoperability between tools. The interoperability is one of the most important aspects of frameworks such as .NET. It enabled us to develop for example assertions based observers of ESys.NET models without any interference with the modeler. This can be seen as enabling separation of concerns.

Encouraged by our experience with ESys.NET, we continued our efforts to try to build a bridge between advances in the software community and the needs in the EDA community for new ideas and algorithms. We pursued the development of our environment by exploring new mechanisms such as transaction modeling to help in distributed simulation, or Web Semantics to help with IP (Intellectual Property) reuse.

The collaboration between the SLS group of TIMA in Grenoble (France) and the LASSO group in Université de Montréal was a determining factor in the completion of this work. While the two groups have the same global objectives, they have complementary strengths. The LASSO groups is more focused on modeling and verification, while the SLS group has a valuable expertise in architecture, System on Chip and code generation. Both have also a common interest in accurate and efficient simulation. Sabbatical stays and exchanges helped to strengthen this collaboration.

This work summarizes our efforts and covers three main parts: (a) modeling and simulation, including requirements specification, IP reuse, and applications of design patterns to Hardware/Software systems; (b) simulation and validation, covering Transaction-based models, accurate simulation at cycle and transaction levels, cosimulation and acceleration techniques, and timing specification and validation; (c) practical use of the ESys.NET environment concludes this work.

We would like to thank all the authors for their timely response and the numerous iterations to complete their respective chapters.

Readers are encouraged to visit the companion website <http://www.esys-net.org/> and send us their comments to enrich it.





4

Translating Design Pattern Concepts to Hardware Concepts

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Abstract For half a century, hardware systems have become increasingly complex and pervasive. They are not only found in satellite navigation systems or automated factory machinery but also in everyday cell-phone, parc-o-meter, and car control-and-command systems. This increase in the use of hardware systems led to a revolution in their design and implementation: the chips are becoming more and more powerful, their logics is implemented as software systems executed by the chips, thus helping system designers to cope with their complexity.

These *mixed hardware–software systems* raise the level of generality of the “hardware part” and the level of abstraction of the “software part” of the systems. Thus, they suggest that mainstream software engineering techniques and good practices, such as design patterns, could be used by system designers to design and implement their mixed hardware–software systems.

This chapter presents a proof of concept on “translating” the solutions of design patterns into hardware concepts to alleviate the system designers’ work and, thus, to accelerate the design of mixed hardware–software systems. This chapter opens the path towards a new kind of hardware synthesis.

4.1 Introduction

For half a century, hardware systems have become increasingly complex and pervasive. They are not only found in satellite navigation systems or automated factory machinery but also in everyday cell-phone, parc-o-meter, and car control-and-command systems. This increase in the use of hardware systems led to a (r)evolution in their design and implementation: the chips are becoming more and more powerful, their logics is implemented as software systems executed by the chips, thus helping system designers to cope with their complexity.

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As a variable may match a register, we propose a mapping between design patterns and a hardware implementation. System designers could use this mapping when designing and implementing their mixed hardware–software systems to translate the solution of a design pattern into its appropriate hardware counter-part. Thus, designers would benefit for their systems of the good practices embodied by design patterns from software design.

This chapter presents a mapping to “translate” some design patterns into hardware concepts to alleviate the system designers’ work and, thus, to accelerate the design and quality of mixed hardware–software systems. It focuses on interesting and challenging concepts to foster future research, without trying to be exhaustive.

Design patterns are “good” solutions to recurring design problems in software design. We only consider the design patterns originally defined by Gamma et al. [89], because these patterns are well-defined, well-known, and the subject of many work in the software engineering community. With the beginning of the 21st century, design patterns began to emerge in the system design domain [51, 23].

However, the main challenge of mapping design pattern into hardware systems is that existing design patterns relate to object-oriented systems. Therefore, as a first approach of translating design patterns from software into hardware, we consider that we first build an “object system”—a representation of an object into the hardware world. As there are several ways of designing and implementing a processor, there is not only one way to build an object system.

This chapter is not a catalog of *recurring hardware design patterns* because such a catalog should be compiled by the community based on the hardware designers’ experience and is therefore out of the focus of this chapter.

Motivating Example. Consider as example the problem of a circuit C that performs a computation, as shown in Figure 4.1a. The classic solution to accelerate the given circuit, at the cost of augmenting its latency, is to *pipeline* this circuit into the sub-circuits $\{C_1, C_2, C_3 \dots C_n\}$, each executing a small amount of the computation in

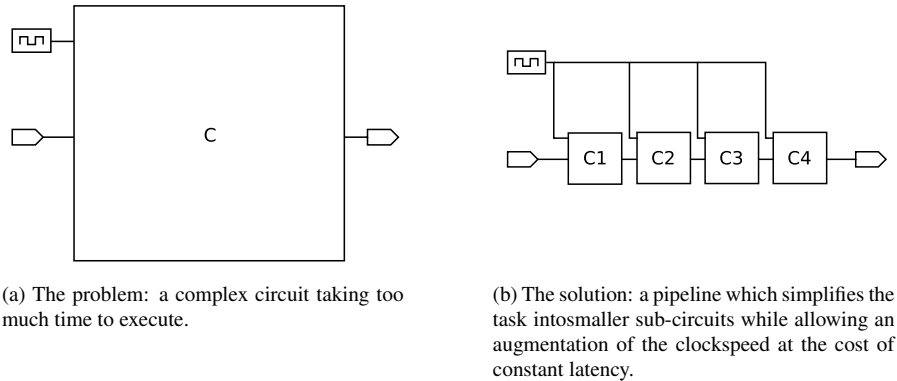


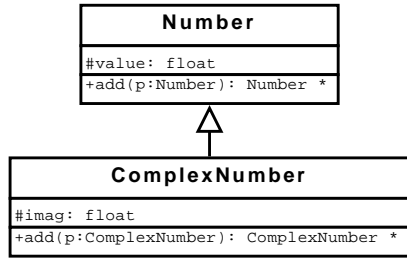
FIGURE 4.1: Motivating example for getting inspiration from software engineering.

parallel, as shown again in Figure 4.1b. (The clock speed could also be increased, resulting in an overall faster execution.)

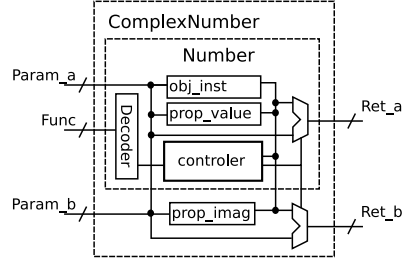
The pipeline architecture has been applied in software engineering to obtain the flexibility to replace particular component seamlessly. For example, it is used to design compilers, where each phase of the compilation corresponds to a component in the pipeline. We believe that other good practices from software engineering could be applied in hardware–software system design and therefore study the feasibility to apply concepts developed in software engineering to the synthesis of hardware systems.

Running Example. In the rest of this chapter, we use the running example of a module `ComplexNumber` to compute and perform operations on complex numbers. Figure 4.2 describe the whole running example, from the software classes to its implementation and instantiation in hardware. We will describe this example step-by-step in the rest of this chapter. In particular, we will use this example to highlight the translation of object-oriented software concepts into hardware concepts, such as inheritance.

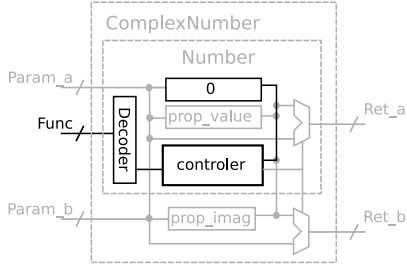
Structure of the Chapter. Design patterns are inherently tied to the object-oriented paradigm. Therefore, in Section 4.2, we present a mapping between software object-oriented concepts and hardware concepts. Then, in Section 4.3, we describe the constraints on our mapping. In Section 4.4, we detail our mapping between design pattern concepts and hardware concepts in the form of a catalog of the most interesting patterns. Such a mapping would be incomplete without a means to translate the patterns into hardware concepts concretely, we therefore present an operational description of design patterns and its use to generate hardware “code” in Section 4.5. In Section 4.6, we describe related work while in Section 4.7, we conclude and introduce future work.



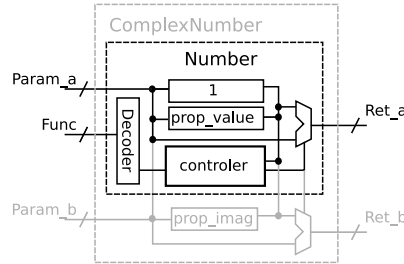
(a) A UML software definition of a ComplexNumber class using a Number base class.



(b) A possible hardware implementation of Object-Oriented inheritance.



(c) The module being in an “not instantiated” state.



(d) The ComplexNumber module down-cast into (or instantiated as) a Number class.

FIGURE 4.2: Running example of a ComplexNumber software class and its hardware module.

4.2 Object-Oriented Translations

The design patterns in Gamma et al.’s catalog [89] are solutions to recurring object-oriented design problems. We therefore present first a mapping between object-oriented concepts and hardware concepts. This mapping will be used in Section 4.4 to map design patterns and hardware concepts.

Essential concepts in object-oriented design and implementation are: objects and their instantiations, methods, inheritance (and casting operations), and polymorphism. We also discuss the cost of generating hardware code from object-oriented code based on our mapping.

4.2.1 Translation of Classes and their Members

In object-oriented programming, the main concepts of interest are Structures or Classes, which contain fields and related methods. For example, in C++,

the distinction between a `struct` and a `class` is the default scope: members of classes are `private` by default while those of structures are `public` by default.

Class members may be of two types: fields, which contain data and define the “state” of a class or of its objects, and method (or constructor) that provide functionalities usually operating on the data contained in the fields. Even if the fields are tied with their methods in the `class`, they are distinct members.

Methods are shared among all the instances of a same `class` while fields are not necessarily. Indeed, fields can be *instance fields*, whose values are unique for a particular object, instance of the class, or *class fields*, whose values are shared by the class and all of its instances.

4.2.2 Translation of Object Encapsulation

Encapsulation is the means by which a class embeds and hides its members. It requires a protection mechanism for the enclosing class to gain the responsibilities over its members and to isolate them from the outside world.

Considering that we are targeting synthesis, with the software being ready to be transformed into hardware, we can treat a base class and its inherited classes similarly to an enclosing class and its encapsulated member. The encapsulated member can be generated directly into the enclosing class or it could be indexed with a pointer to another instance.

4.2.3 Translation of Object Instantiation

An instantiation correspond to the creation of a new object, hence memory allocation for their instance fields. When either a `struct` or `class` are locally declared, their instance fields are allocated on the execution stack. When a dynamic instantiation is requested (with `new` or `malloc`), the instance fields are allocated on the heap.

Unless a class has no fields and therefore provides only methods, its fields must be define in its hardware equivalent. Fields are required to be created in two different situation:

1. At the beginning of the execution of the system, for class fields.
2. At the instantiation of the object, when its constructor gets called.

There are at least four ways of storing instance fields:

As constants, hard-coded as bits. This kind of implementation is interesting for some rare case of static constant fields, which are initialized at the beginning of the execution and which values do not change during execution. Constant fields would be generated with the platform in a ROM (or with a static combinatory circuit) and will have an infinite lifespan.

In registers, distributed in small “modules” that could be generated to corresponds to an object.

In a global RAM memory, probably the best way to store the field values, in a centralized unit.

In a local RAM memory, similar to the previous way, but distributed over the system.

Instantiating class fields, at the beginning of the execution of the system is straightforward because the translator could identify such cases and they can be implemented in hardware as constants or into registers for faster access. The fact that the class fields are shared by all object makes it easy because the fields become unique in the whole system for a given class.

The instantiation of a instance fields is more challenging. The exact moment of a call to a given constructor is not known in advance if not simulated first. For example, nothing forbids the constructor call to be controlled by something like a random draw (e.g.: `Rand()`). Therefore, the time at which the construction takes place, and at which the instance fields must be allocated, cannot be taken for granted and the number of time a given constructor is called could also change between different execution runs.

Therefore, for any realistic system, we cannot pre-compute the exact number and type of each object that will be instantiated in the system. We can only estimate this number and design a system that will be able to contain the most appropriate number of instances of each objects.

4.2.4 Translation of Object Method calls

A method call corresponds to a static function call using an hidden `this` pointers to indicate the object on which to apply the function. For example, the call in Listing 4.1 (Line 13) is the object-oriented equivalent of the function call in Listing 4.2 (Line 12).

The method calls in Figure 4.3a and 4.3b can be translated into a signal sent from one module to another, as shown in Figure 4.3c. Parameters can be sent over the signal data lines and the return values can be sent back as signals as well. If an elaborated structure is to be exchanged, a memory reference, as shown in Figure 4.3d could be sent instead of concrete values.

4.2.5 Translation of Polymorphism

Polymorphism allows behavioral variations based on the class of an object. Polymorphism corresponds to a method defined in several specialized classes with a signature identical to the signature of the method in the base class. When the method of an object is called, depending on the class that was used when the object was instantiated, the method of the appropriate class is called, even if the object was stored beneath a base class reference, as illustrated in Listing 4.3, Line 6 and 13. In this example, `f()` is polymorphic because it is redefined in the inherited class and it is marked as `virtual`. Both `g()` and `h()` are not polymorphic.

```

1 // Class definition
2 class List {
3     protected:
4         class Item *head;
5     public:
6         // Object-Oriented prototype (method):
7         void add(Item &item_to_add);
8     }
9
10 /* Object-Oriented call, the "*this" pointer is "hidden", made
11 implicit by "my_list", which is the object onto which to apply the
12 "add" method */
13 my_list.add(Item(42));

```

Listing 4.1: Object-oriented way; the Add method applied on a List object.

```

1 // Structure definition
2 struct List {
3     struct Item *head;
4 }
5
6 // Procedural prototype (function):
7 void List_add(List *list_to_modify, Item &item_to_add);
8
9 /* Procedural call, here the structure onto which apply the behavior
10 of "add" must be made explicit by passing the reference to the
11 "List" structure */
12 List_add_function(&my_list, Item(42));

```

Listing 4.2: Classic procedural way; the call of the Add function with the List structure passed explicitly.

Polymorphism is usually implemented using a Virtual table (also known as Vtable), which is a table that maps classes with pointers to methods to direct any call to the appropriate method.

A virtual table is available at compile time, after parsing, before linking, as illustrated in Listing 4.4, which shows the assembly code of the virtual table with names mangling correspondence shown with Table 4.1).

The class of an object is not always known at compile time and the virtual table is persisted in the machine code and preserved for the methods called dynamically. Only virtual methods ends up in the virtual table (Line 106) because ordinary methods can be called directly, they are linked with the object class that is implicit.

The translation of polymorphism into hardware can be achieved by creating several instance of specialized classes into hardware and then controlling the classes of

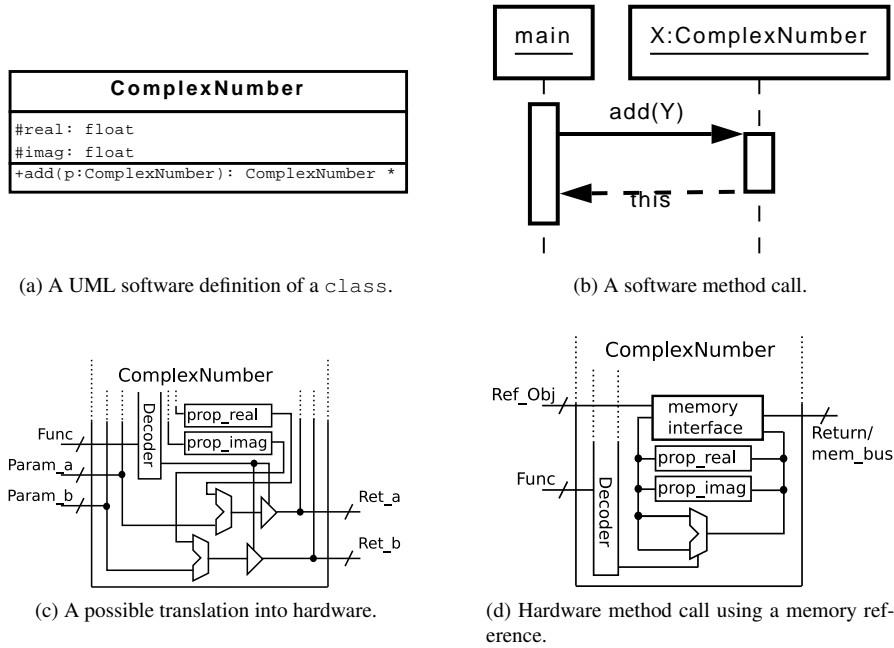


FIGURE 4.3: Example of a class representing complex numbers, from its software design to its hardware implementation.

```

1 class Base
2 {
3 public:
4     virtual void f(void);
5     void g(void);
6 };
7
8 class Derived : public Base
9 {
10 public:
11     virtual void f(void);
12     void h(void);
13 };

```

Listing 4.3: Polymorphic $f()$ method defined in base and derived class.

objects by deactivating some part of the module when base classes are needed.

The translation of the Vtable into hardware then becomes straightforward, as exemplified in Table 4.2, because it is similar to a LUT (Look-Up Table). The LUT

```

1 _ZTV4Base :
2     .long    0
3     .long    _ZTI4Base
4     .long    _ZN4Base1fEv
5     .weak    _ZTS7Derived
6     .section .rodata._ZTS7Derived,"aG",@progbits,_ZTS7Derived,comdat
7     .type    _ZTS7Derived,@object
8     .size    _ZTS7Derived,9
    
```

Listing 4.4: The vtable with the assembly language excerpt of the code of Listing 4.3.

TABLE 4.1: Translation of mangled names of Listing 4.3.

<i>Mangled identifier</i>	<i>Result returned by <code>c++filt</code></i>
<code>_ZTV4Base</code>	vtable for Base
<code>_ZTI4Base</code>	typeinfo for Base
<code>_ZN4Base1fEv</code>	Base::f()
<code>_ZTS7Derived</code>	typeinfo name for Derived

TABLE 4.2: Possible method (and polymorphism) encoding for the `ComplexNumber` module.

<i>Class type</i>	<i>Method</i>	<i>Code assigned</i>
Base	f()	0
Base	g()	1
Derived	f()	2
Derived	h()	3

becomes a decoder; the numbers can be attributed sequentially to each newly discovered method upon parsing during code generation.

4.2.6 Translation of Inheritance and Casting Operations

Inheritance and polymorphism help bringing communality and variation [61]. In software engineering, inheritance is achieved by adding methods and properties to the base inherited structure. We reuse this idea in hardware by generating a module for each specialized `class` at the end of the inheritance tree (all leaf classes of the inheritance tree).

Each of these specialized modules contains its parent class, which would in its

turn, recursively contain all of its parents, as shown in Figure 4.2b. A special register would then be generated within each class module to hold the type of the module, `obj_inst` as shown in our example. When the module is not instantiated, this number is 0, in Figure 4.2c, indicating all the data in the local registers/memories are invalid.

The proposed mechanism enables also to typecast an object into an inherited class easily by changing the `obj_inst` number to the one indicating the type of the new class. If the class is down-cast, as illustrated in Figure 4.2d, the invalidated registers can still holds some valid values (masked by the downcast) and could be restored when the object is cast back to its original class.

4.3 Constraint and Assumptions for Design Pattern Synthesis

The translation of design patterns from software to hardware is subject to one constraint and three assumptions that we present now.

4.3.1 Constraint: Dynamism of the Hardware

Hardware systems used to be static: sets of wires and components “hardwired” together to perform specific computations. For some times now, hardware systems blend altogether with their software systems to benefit from the dynamic nature of the the software. End products are more customizable with flash memories and configurable with small Web servers implemented in embedded systems as software systems running on a generic hardware core.

Traditionally, objects are generated in memory, having a generic processor performing method calls and fields accesses. Although such a solution is the usual way of reaching the dynamism found in software systems, it is an extreme case that relies on a “pure” software implementation and a generic processor and that is therefore uninteresting in the context of this chapter.

We are interested in implementing design patterns using a “pure” hardware system, which we could define as a hardware system with as less software as possible, and which would potentially bring faster execution at the cost of specializing the hardware. Such solution is more desirable for embedded systems, where the computations or application are unlikely to change.

Naturally, this solution would also work for mixed software–hardware systems (e.g.: FPGAs) which are consequently implicitly be covered by this chapter, because such solution does not directly implement (or emulate) an object-oriented system: we assume a more conservative hardware system, thus guaranteeing that the translation would work on more dynamic hardware systems.

4.3.2 Assumption: Compiled Once

If we were to target an FPGA for our compiled system, it is possible to change the hardware on the fly, thus easing the task of implementing polymorphism.

Such a solution complies with our constraint of obtaining a “pure” hardware solution, even though changing the nature of the hardware on the fly requires more logic gates (as the control logic of the FPGA cell blocks). Indeed, changing the hardware only requires more knowledge at the start of the system.

This knowledge is available if we limit our discussion to such a case where the software system is known and is available as software code, ready to be transformed into hardware by an hypothetical “software to hardware” compiler.

If we are to generate a solution for an ASIC (Application-Specific Integrated Circuit), we have to assume that the translation into hardware will occur once and that the nature of the hardware—unless designed for—can not be changed.

Hence, in this chapter we shall focus the most restrictive platform type, and restrict ourselves to a one-time compilation and synthesis, no dynamic compilation or synthesis.

4.3.3 Assumption: Limited Number of Objects

We could also create several hardware modules to simulate an object-oriented software system, each module matching a `class` and its inheritance tree. We prefer, however, to reuse specialized modules and use them as base modules. In order for each class to be instantiated at least once in our system, we can then assume the number of module must be at least, the number of leaf classes of our system.

Let n be the number of classes in our system at compile time. Assuming that no new classes can be added after generation and that we have a complete binary common-rooted balanced inheritance tree, there are $\frac{n+1}{2}$ leaf classes, the minimum number of modules that must be generated in the hardware.

By generating more hardware modules for a class, we bring parallelism in the system by enabling the existence and computation capability of several objects at the same time. As mentioned earlier, unless the hardware is capable of mutating into another class, once generated, the number of active class in the system at the same time is limited by the number of time the designer instantiate a specific class. This limitation means that a constant must be defined for each class, indicating the maximum number of active objects allowed in the system at a same time.

Computing the maximum of number of active objects is in general impossible, because objects can be created dynamically in software systems and with no other constraints but the size of the memory. For example, a large and unknown number of objects could be created to compute a complex scene in a ray tracer. Yet, it is possible to run the software systems in a set of reasonable scenarios and obtain an insight on the maximum number of objects of its classes. Such practice is already used when developing for example software systems for cell-phones.

4.3.4 Assumption: Pattern Automatic Recognition Problem

Although design patterns are quite formally described with Gamma et al. [89], they were not meant to be defined into a computer language and parsed in an automated way. They express generic solutions to recurring design problems: they cannot be easily automatically identified in a software system.

Since a design pattern can have several variants, identifying occurrences of the pattern in a software system becomes a challenge of its own, which has been tackled by the software engineering community as early as 1998 [206].

Therefore, we assume that we know explicitly which design patterns have been used to implement a software system and which classes play some roles in their occurrences.

4.3.5 Translation Cost versus Performance

An optimization phase can occur to reuse part of the behavioral synthesis process. For example, the controller for the `ComplexNumber` class could use only one ALU, at the cost of a more complex controller module.

In Figure 4.3c, we show a solution to our running example where its behavioral parts, the ALU, are duplicated. Such solution provides more parallelism but at the expense of more hardware.

In Figure 4.3d, we depict an alternate solution where the behavioral part is reused for several distinct method. The need of buses then arises and complexifies the logic circuits of the overall unit (not shown in the figure). Yet, this solution saves on hardware, at the cost of serializing the operations. This solution, in worst case, corresponds to the execution on a classic mono processor architecture. A threshold could be set by the designer generating the hardware system, indicating how many processing modules are to be generated to accelerate the overall architecture.

Another part of reuse could be achieved by replacing local registers by a local memory that could hold an array of objects of the same inherited branch. Let n be the number of distinct classes in a given branch, we can then pose $\{i \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ to be a number identifying each class. Let x_i be the number of living objects required for class type i . The minimal required memory size is then defined by Equation 4.1.

$$\text{memory size} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \times \text{memory usage of}(i) \quad (4.1)$$

For example, in the running example, the architecture could be configured to hold, in the same `ComplexNumber` module, x_0 objects of the `Number` class and x_1 objects of the `ComplexNumber` class. Such a solution means larger amounts of memory to hold more objects in a same module, at the cost of creating an execution bottleneck if the number of executing units in the module is low. Local buses of units will also be a bottleneck if the number of objects contained by a module is high.

It is advisable to use a mixed approach, where one could generate several modules of the same kind, with each a small memory capable of handling several objects at a same time, to distribute the computations whenever possible while minimizing the

hardware cost. The acceleration could be thus maximized, especially with massively parallel systems, where objects are relatively independent.

4.4 Design Pattern Mappings

We now describe some interesting patterns using the mappings of object-oriented concepts into hardware concepts and the constraint and assumptions described before.

4.4.1 Creational Patterns

Creational patterns are the patterns related to the dynamic creations of objects. As explained in Section 4.3.1, we consider hardware as being more static than dynamic. Applying these kinds of dynamic patterns to “pure” hardware is challenging because of the static nature of the hardware. Therefore, we present the mapping of two characteristic creational patterns into hardware: the Prototype and Singleton design patterns.

Prototype is a pattern that provides a “typical” instance that can be copied before being customised, with the help of the public method `clone()`. It allows a class to have a default instantiation, and avoid having to call several (maybe complex) methods to initialize an object with its default values.

The prototype pattern corresponds to a ROM (Read Only Memory) that can hold a block of data containing the prototype. Upon call of the `clone()` method, an object is allocated and the data is copied into the newly created instance, creating a new object based on the prototype. The new object will typically have to evolve in time and should be allocated in a RAM or in a register as described in Section 4.2.3

Singleton is a pattern that restricts the number of objects of a class to one. In a software system, where a class can usually be instantiated at will, the need quickly arises to ensure there is only one instance of a certain class that is shared by all other objects of the system, when a second object of the same class could cause miscomputations or crashes (e.g.: a multi-threading controller).

Implementing the Singleton pattern is usually achieved by hiding the constructor from the outside world and providing a class method to obtain the unique object (e.g.: `instance()`, `get_new()`, `get_instance()`...). Any other object is forced to use the class method supplied to get the unique instance of the Singleton class. The class members (and inherited) still have access to the constructor.

In terms of hardware, this pattern is easily implemented by directing the synthesis to generate only one object of a class. A Boolean flag can also be in-

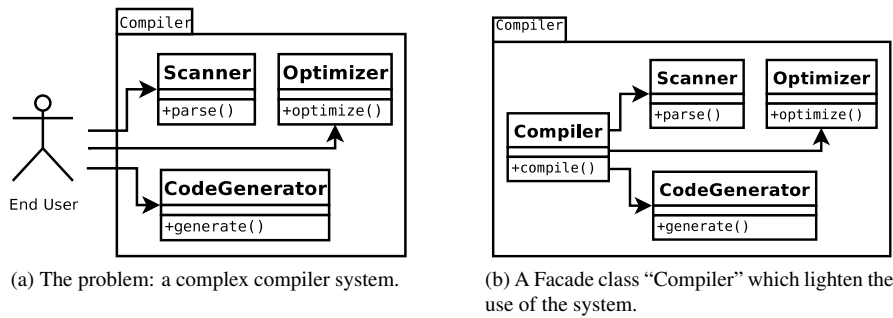


FIGURE 4.4: Example of a Façade.

cluded in the controller (for example the one in our inheritance example in Figure 4.2b) to check that the object has been instantiated, and if so, to raise an error with the calling entity to indicate it can not provide a new instance.

4.4.2 Structural Patterns

Structural patterns are useful to create the design of a software systems. Beck [29] pointed out that design patterns generate architectures. We describe two typical structural design patterns that are useful to make object interact seamlessly and to isolate a set of objects from the rest of the system.

Adapter is the software equivalent of a wrapper. The goal of the Adapter pattern is to enable the interconnection of several directly incompatible objects by delegating method calls to the appropriate (incompatible) methods either by using multiple inheritance or object composition.

In terms of hardware, it is not rare to see wrappers constructed around IP blocks (Intellectual Properties blocks). As for the software pattern, wrappers may be used to enhance, break into several subcomponents, reroute, or even disable some behavior (or structure) of the component that they are “masquerading” by intercepting part of the communication with the external entity.

Façade is a class that hides the complexity of a whole sub-system into a single object. The classical example of a Façade is a compiler, as shown in Figure 4.4a, where several compilation steps are implemented with several different objects of various classes, each having distinct responsibilities. Façade helps to separate a functionality and to segment the code into simpler parts that are easier to maintain.

The Façade is the class “Compiler” in our example in Figure 4.4b) that is inserted between the system and the external world and acts as an interface to the system. The cost of using a Façade is an extra level of indirection and

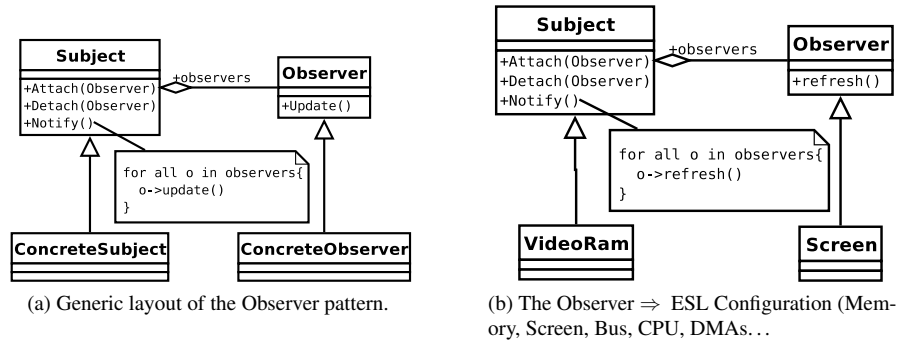


FIGURE 4.5: Example of an Observer.

the extra burden of updating the Façade when a major change occurs in the system. Moreover, the Façade is sometime blamed for quickly getting big and may lead to an entanglement when it needs to be tightly coupled with a lot of other classes.

In terms of hardware, a Façade corresponds to an interface, where a protocol is defined to access a more complex system. Usually pins are created that might corresponds directly to some internal components, but the interface is usually simplified to reduce its complexity.

A bus can be considered as a Façade as it usually gives access to (while caching access to) a whole complex system. It also usually provides a simple interface (rather than have the external system communicating with every other subsystem.)

4.4.3 Behavioral Patterns

Finally, the last category of patterns include patterns related to the behaviour of objects at runtime.

Observer is a pattern that allows a Subject to notify its Observers when some of its data change thus ensuring consistency among the Observers, as shown in Figure 4.5a.

In terms of hardware, a memory can be considered as a Subject that is observed, as illustrated in Figure 4.5b. The Observers are all the different components that needs to access the memory data (CPU, DMA, peripherals. . .). The bus along with its communication protocol form the “contract” that matches the software interface using inheritance and polymorphism mechanism. We show a screen as the observer in our example.

4.5 Operational Description of Design Patterns

To operationalise our mapping between software design patterns and hardware systems, we choose Esys.NET [138, 139]. Esys.NET is a system design environment (similar to SystemC) based on C# and the corresponding .NET framework (rather than C++).

Design motifs are the “Solution” parts of design patterns. They are what developers actually implement in their systems when using design patterns. The generation of design motifs for Esys.NET require a means to describe design motifs in a form that can be manipulated by a computer to perform code synthesis into hardware.

We use the Pattern and Abstract-level Description Language (PADL) as formalism to describe design patterns. We first present PADL. Then, we introduce MIP, an extension to PADL to describe more precisely the behaviour of the methods declared in a motif. Finally, we show the use of PADL and MIP to generate Esys.NET code on the Observer design pattern.

4.5.1 PADL in a Nutshell

PADL is a meta-model that can be used by developers to describe design motifs and object-oriented software systems. A meta-model is essentially a set of classes whose instances represent a model. The methods of the classes in the meta-model describe the semantics of the model. Consequently, PADL provides a set of classes representing constituents of design motifs and the methods required to instantiate and link the instances together in a meaningful way.

Figure 4.6 shows a UML-like class diagram representing the architectural layers of the PADL meta-model, their main packages and classes, and the design patterns used in the design.

The diagram decomposes in three horizontal parts representing three different layers of services: First, CPL (Common PADL Library); Then, PADL; Finally, PADL ClassFile Creator, PADL AOL Creator, POM, and PADL Analyses. The first layer, CPL, provides utility classes and libraries used across PADL.

The second layer, PADL, provides the meta-model to describe models of systems and motifs. The meta-model defines the interfaces (and implementation classes) of the possible constituents of motifs, for example, `IDesignMotif`, whose instance are motifs and `IClass`, whose instances describe the classes suggested by a motif. These instances are combined to describe motifs and subsets of their behaviours.

The `padl.kernel` and `padl.kernel.impl` packages declares respectively the types of the constituents (as Java interfaces) and their implementations.

The PADL meta-model is at the heart of the Ptidej project (Pattern Trace Identification, Detection, and Enhancement in Java) to evaluate and to enhance the quality of object-oriented software systems, promoting the use of patterns, either at the language-, design-, or architectural-levels. In particular, it has been extensively used to identify occurrences of motifs in systems, for example in [103].

4.5.2 PADL in Details

Figure 4.7 shows the classes and main methods of the constituents of the PADL meta-model. Essentially, the meta-model divides in four parts. The first part includes all the possible constituents (inheriting from `Constituent`) of the structure of a system or a motif. These constituents include different types of entities, `Interface` (interface à la Java) and `Class` (classes found in C++ or Java); methods and fields; parameters.

The second part includes add constituents to refine a model of a system or of a motif with a comprehensive set of binary class relationships. These relationships are important because the interaction among classes and their objects in design motifs are often described in terms of such relationships. The relationships include, from less constraining to the more constraining, the `Use`, `Association`, `Aggregation`, and `Composition` relationships [102]. The `Creation` relationship is also available to describe that objects of a class instantiates objects of another class.

The third part includes the constituents specific to the descriptions of design motifs. A design motif `DesignMotif` is described in terms of its participating classes `Participants` which could be played by classes (`ClassParticipant`) or interfaces (`InterfaceParticipant`). Any participant can declare elements as defined in the part one and two of the meta-model.

Finally, the fourth part includes the constituents specific to the description of a `ProgramModel` and its possible set of `MicroArchitectures` that are the concrete manifestations of a `DesignMotif`. A micro-architecture knows which of its consistent plays which role in a `DesignMotif`.

We use the Abstract Factory design pattern to manage the concrete instantiation of the constituents of PADL. The concrete factory, class `Factory`, implements the Singleton design pattern. We use the Builder design pattern to let the parsers choose the constituents to instantiate, through the `Builder` class. We use the Visitor design pattern to offer a standard mean to iterate over a model or a subset of a model, the `padl.visitor` package provides default visitors. The `padl.pattern` and `padl.pattern.repository` packages define several prototypal models of well-known design motifs, which we can clone and parameterise, using the Prototype design pattern.

The third layer contains several separate projects:

- Parsers for Java class-files and AOL files (`PADL Java` and `AOL Creator`). These parsers are independent of the meta-model and new parsers for other programming languages can be added seamlessly using the Builder design pattern.
- A metric computation framework (POM), in which we use the Singleton design pattern. POM decomposes in a set of primitives defined in terms of the meta-model constituents. These primitives are combined using set operators to define metrics.
- A repository of analyses based on the meta-model, in which we use a simpler version of the Command design pattern. An analyse is invoked on a model of

```

1 public class Observer extends BehaviouralMotifModel implements
2     PropertyChangedListener, Cloneable {
3
4     private IClass subject, concreteSubject;
5     private IInterface observer;
6     private IDelegatingMethod notify;
7     private IMethod update, getState;
8
9     public Observer() throws CloneNotSupportedException,
10         ModelDeclarationException {
11
12         super("Observer");
13         this.setFactory(Factory.getInstance());
14
15         // Interface Observer
16         this.observer = this.getFactory().createInterface("Observer");
17         this.update = this.getFactory().createMethod("Update");
18         this.observer.addConstituent(this.update);
19         this.observer.setPurpose(MultilingualManager.getString(
20             "Observer.PURPOSE",
21             Observer.class));
22         this.addConstituent(this.observer);

```

Listing 4.5: The Observer design motif using the PADL meta-model: declaration of the Observer role.

a software system or of a pattern and returns a (potentially modified) model when the analysis is done. Reflection is used by the repository to build the list of available analyses dynamically.

4.5.3 PADL by Examples

PADL has been used to develop a library of design motifs from the 23 design patterns by Gamma et al. [89], including Chain of Responsibility, Composite, Observer, Visitor... For example, we show with the code of Listing 4.5 the Observer design motif using the PADL meta-model. The following PADL code systematically instantiates constituents of the meta-model according to the motif as suggested by Gamma et al., see Figure 4.8.

We show in Listing 4.5 the declaration of the Observer design motif, as a class `Observer`. The motif declares an interface `Observer` that plays the role of Observer in the motif. The interface is built using a `Factory`.

In Listing 4.6 we show the declaration of the Subject role as a `Subject` as a class. This class is abstract and is associated, using an embedded aggregation `ContainerAggregation`, to the previously declared `Observer` class. The `Subject` class also declares a `Notify` methods that delegates its call, through the aggregation, to all the subject's observers.

Listing 4.7 illustrates the declaration of the role of Concrete Subject as a class `ConcreteSubject` that declares a method `getState`. The concrete subjects inherits from the subject and assumes all its interface.

Finally, Listing 4.8 shows the declaration of the role Concrete Observer as a class

```

1      // Association observers
2      final IContainerAggregation anAssoc =
3          this.getFactory().createContainerAggregationRelationship(
4              "observers",
5              this.observer,
6              Constants.CARDINALITY_MANY);
7
8      // Classe Subject
9      this.subject = this.getFactory().createClass("Subject");
10     this.subject.setAbstract(true);
11     this.subject.addConstituent(anAssoc);
12     this.notify =
13         this.getFactory().createDelegatingMethod(
14             "Notify",
15             anAssoc,
16             this.update);
17     this.subject.addConstituent(this.notify);
18     this.subject.assumeAllInterfaces();
19     this.subject.setPurpose(MultilingualManager.getString(
20         "Subject.PURPOSE",
21         Observer.class));
22     this.addConstituent(this.subject);

```

Listing 4.6: The Observer design motif using the PADL meta-model: declaration of the Subject role.

```

1      // Classe Concrete Subject
2      this.getState = this.getFactory().createMethod("getState");
3      this.concreteSubject = this.getFactory().createClass("ConcreteSubject");
4      this.concreteSubject.addInheritedEntity(this.subject);
5      this.concreteSubject.setPurpose(MultilingualManager.getString(
6          "ConcreteSubject.CLASS.PURPOSE",
7          Observer.class));
8      this.concreteSubject.addConstituent(this.getState);
9      this.concreteSubject.assumeAllInterfaces();
10     this.addConstituent(this.concreteSubject);

```

Listing 4.7: The Observer design motif using the PADL meta-model: declaration of the Concrete Subject role.

`ConcreteObserver`. This class is associated to the concrete subjects through another aggregation. It declares an `update` method that is being called by the concrete subject `notify` method when appropriate and that fetches the concrete subject's changes through a call to its `getState` method.

An instance of the `Observer` class is *an instance* of the Observer design motif, which can then be parameterised to fit a given implementation. This parameterised instance can be used to identify occurrences of the motif in a system or to generate source code.

4.5.4 MIP

The PADL meta-model has been extended with additional constituents to describe the inner working of the methods of systems and motifs. This extension to the meta-

```

1      final IContainerAggregation a2Assoc =
2          this.getFactory().createContainerAggregationRelationship(
3              "subject",
4              this.concreteSubject,
5              Constants.CARDINALITY.ONE);
6
7      // Classe Concrete Observer
8      this.notify =
9          this.getFactory().createDelegatingMethod(
10             "Update",
11             a2Assoc,
12             this.getState());
13      this.notify.setComment(MultilingualManager.getString(
14          "DELEG.METHOD.COMMENT",
15          Observer.class));
16      this.notify.attachTo(this.update);
17      this.concreteSubject = this.getFactory().createClass("ConcreteObserver");
18      this.concreteSubject.setPurpose(MultilingualManager.getString(
19          "ConcreteObserver.CLASS.PURPOSE",
20          Observer.class));
21      this.concreteSubject.addImplementedEntity(this.observer);
22      this.concreteSubject.addConstituent(a2Assoc);
23      this.concreteSubject.addConstituent(this.notify);
24      this.concreteSubject.assumeAllInterfaces();
25      this.addConstituent(this.concreteSubject);
26  }
27 }

```

Listing 4.8: The Observer design motif using the PADL meta-model: declaration of the Concrete Observer role.

model, called MIP, is necessary to describe the behaviour of design motifs more precisely than with PADL alone.

MIP proposes new constituents implementing the interface `IConstituentOfMethods` to describe the various statements that can be used to define the behaviour of methods. This set includes: `IMethodInvocation`, `IParameter`, `IConditional`, `IInstantiation`, `IAssignment`. Figure 4.9 shows the extension of the PADL meta-model with MIP.

Essentially, the PADL meta-model was refactored to distinguish constituents of methods using the interface `IConstituentOfMethods`. The MIP extension provide a set of such constituents of methods. This set is sufficient to describe several behavioural and creational design motifs more precisely than with PADL alone.

For example, using PADL extended with MIP, the description of the Observer design motif would be extended with the code shown of Listing 4.9 code:

This code describes in more details the behaviour of the `notify` method. Thus, with MIP, it is possible to describe completely the structure and the behaviour of behavioural, creational, and structural design motifs.

4.5.5 ESys.NET Code Generation

The PADL meta-model provides an implementation of the `Visitor` design pattern that allow any client to write visitor to traverse the constituents of a model. We

```
1 IBlock block = StatementFactory.getStateInstance().createBlock();
2 this.notify.addConstituent(block);
3 Iterator iterative =
4     StatementFactory.getStateInstance().createIteratorS(this.update);
5 block.addConstituent(iterative);
6 IMethodInvocation invocation =
7     Factory.getInstance().createMethodInvocation(2, 1, 1, this.subject);
8 invoc.addCallingField(this.observer);
9 invoc.setCalledMethod(this.update);
10 iterative.addConstituent(invocation);
```

Listing 4.9: Extending the the description of the design motif Observer using PADL extended with MIP.

implement such a visitor to generate Esys.NET code from the extended models of design motifs.

4.6 Related Work & Background

4.6.1 Object Oriented Synthesis & Patterns in Hardware

The synthesis of complex C structures has been discussed by [181] and they claim at the end of the article that their methodology can be applied for more complex C++ structures.

Some hardware designs for Object Oriented paradigm have been put forward, especially an Object Oriented processor by [124]. They discuss on an interesting hardware object allocation strategy, although their approach analysis was limited to a global shared memory.

Some patterns were used for hardware modeling as in [64].

4.6.2 Original Patterns

Original Design Patterns were introduced by [89]. Design Patterns express structured and elegant solution (based on the experience of software engineers) applied to object oriented commonly encountered problem.

Design Patterns are sometimes critiqued for a lack of coherency in their interrelations, and blamed for degradation of performance by rising overall design complexity. Despite these disputed drawbacks, they bring other interesting benefits such as:

- clarification of object responsibilities,
- reduced class couplings,
- enhance code genericity,

- augment reusability of classes and algorithms. . .

Patterns are classified under three major groups:

Creational Patterns are solving problems related to class instantiations. Usually, each given objects know how to instantiate itself. With these patterns, the instantiation responsibility is often delegated to other classes. The creation of complex objects is more structured and more flexible.

Structural Patterns are solving problems related to class structures and interrelations. They help creating more dynamic and flexible class constructions.

Behavioral Patterns are solving problems related to class functionality. Usually, a class contains the implementation of the functionality of each of its instances. Behavioral patterns helps to isolate object compartment from the class definition, bringing a more flexible approach.

4.7 Conclusion

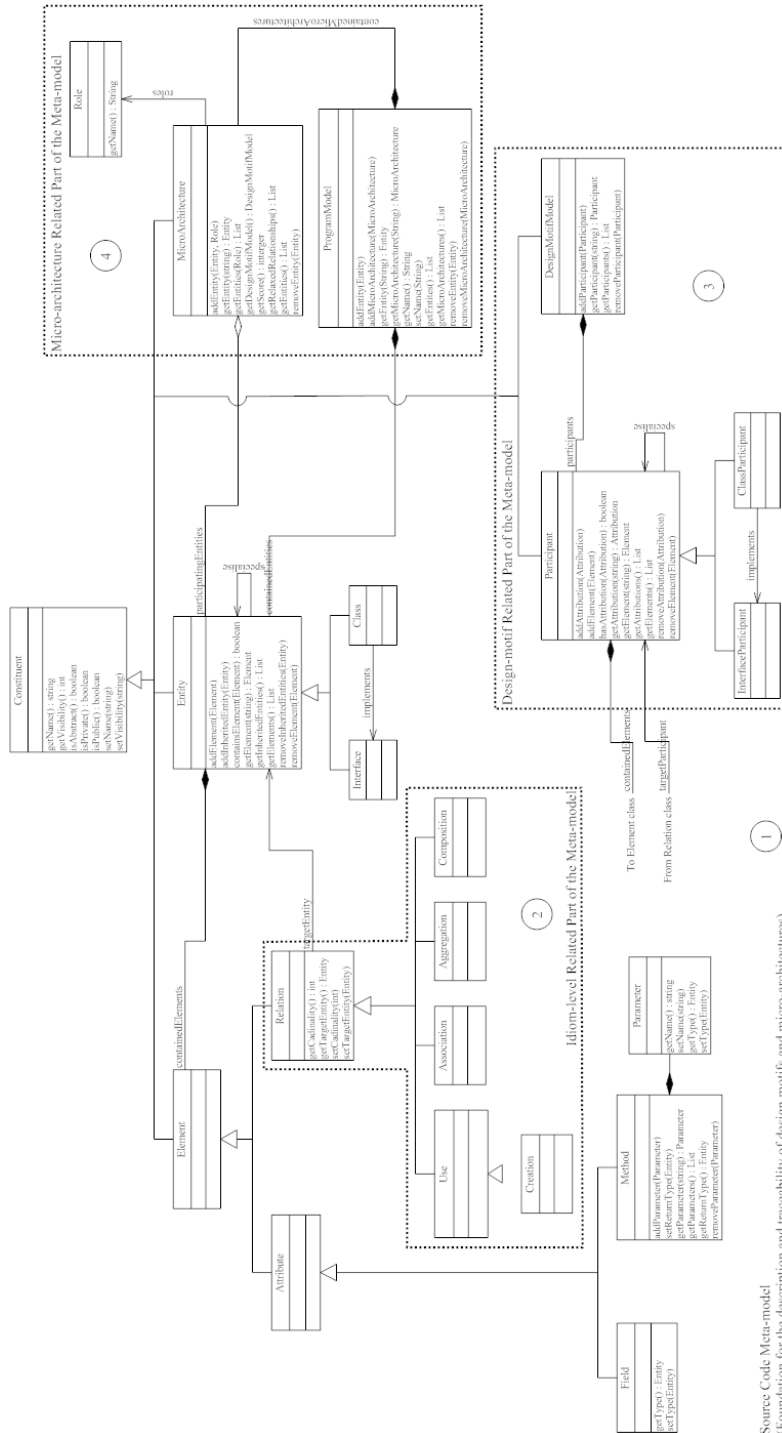
We discussed relations between and matches between some of the Design Pattern in a software form, and their various correspondence in hardware. With the help of such thing as the *Pipeline* pattern, we showed that Design Patterns are not only software specific, but are already present in the domain and should be better outlined.

We presented a specialized object system which can be implemented in “pure” hardware in order to reproduce the behavior of a generic object system running on a processor. We also discussed on how every Object-Oriented aspects can be integrated into hardware, using our object system as examples.

We introduced Esys.NET, a new System Design platform based on C#, along with PADL, a Design Pattern framework into which Patterns can be defined and used in order to generate code.

Future area of interests is to further develop the object-oriented system in order to implement a full scale prototype on an FPGA.

The system design community needs to gather the experience they collectively possess into a hardware focused pattern catalog in order to stop reinventing the wheel, and drive the reuse of well known and proofed solutions. This chapter is a first step into the right direction, but only with the help of a thriving community, will we succeed in building a strong collaborative tool based on Design Patterns.



Source Code Meta-model (Foundation for the description and traceability of design motifs and micro-architectures)

FIGURE 4.7: The PADL meta-model.

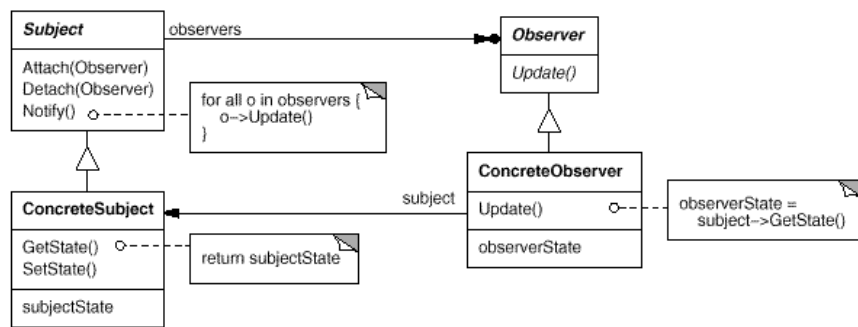


FIGURE 4.8: The Observer design motif (from [89]).

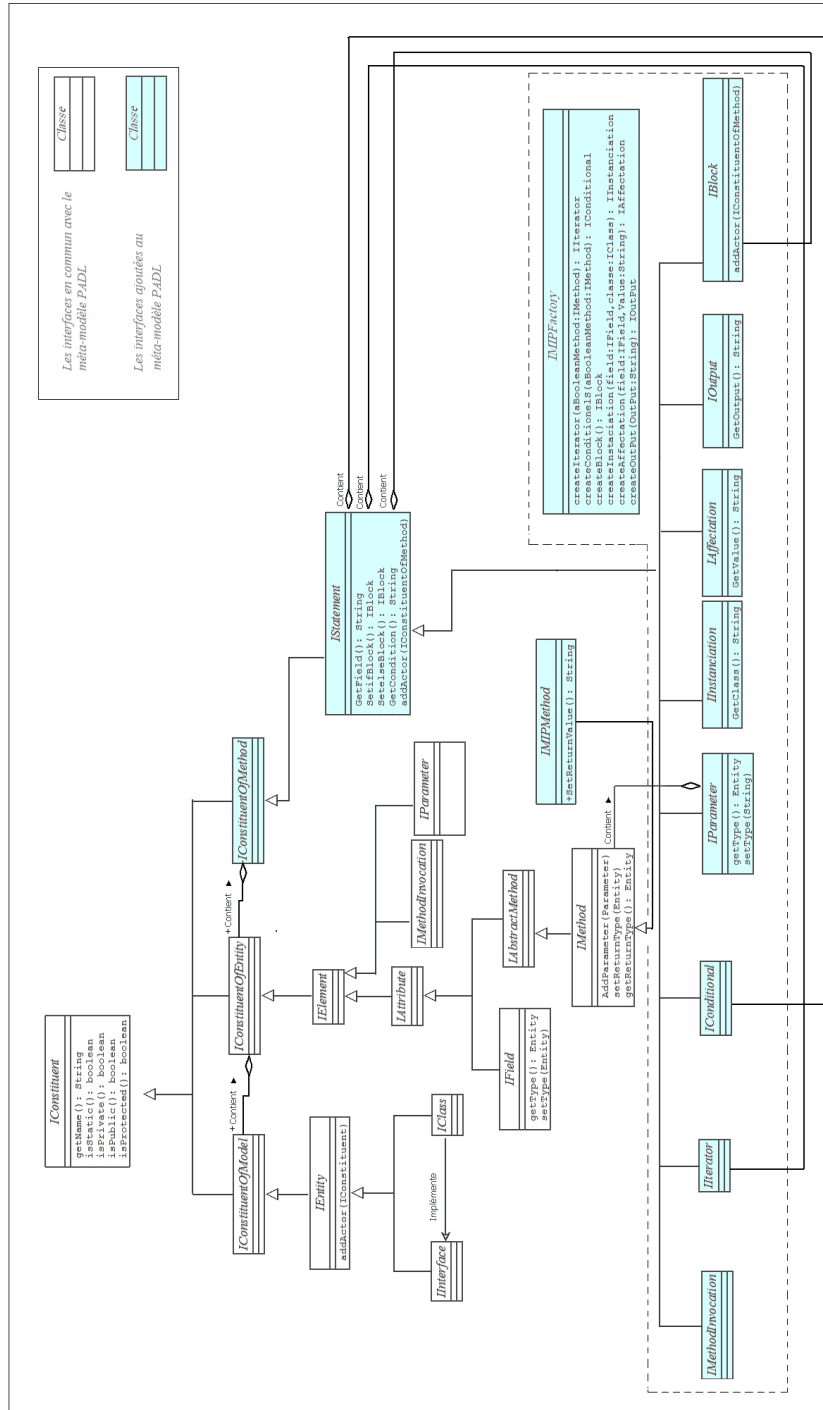


FIGURE 4.9: The MIP extension to the PADL meta-model.



10

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