

# On Tokens and Signals: Bridging the Semantic Gap between Dataflow Models and Hardware Implementations

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**Abstract**—Dataflow models serve as useful abstractions of digital hardware in signal processing and other application domains. But when can one say that a certain dataflow model faithfully captures a given piece of hardware? To answer this question we develop a formal conformance relation between the heterogeneous formalisms of (1) finite state machines with synchronous semantics, used to model hardware, and (2) asynchronous processes communicating via queues, used as a formal model for dataflow. The conformance relation preserves performance properties such as worst-case throughput and latency.

## I. INTRODUCTION

The standard way to model hardware (HW) is by using (synchronous) finite state machines (FSMs). This is natural, as FSMs are semantically very close to (synchronous) HW. Ignoring concerns such as critical path delay (which are taken care of during timing analysis), a piece of HW logically behaves as an FSM, where a transition of the FSM corresponds to a tick of the HW clock.

Another model widely used in HW design is dataflow. A primary motivation for using dataflow for HW design is the fact that many dataflow models, such as SDF [1], CSDF [2], and SADF [3], admit efficient analysis methods for computing key performance metrics such as throughput, latency, or buffer sizes. In principle these metrics could be also computed at the (cycle-accurate) FSM level. In practice, doing so is infeasible due to the well-known *state explosion* problem. Dataflow models suffer much less from state explosion because they abstract much of the information contained in the FSM descriptions (e.g., Verilog or VHDL). For example, models such as SDF typically omit data values and use only abstract notions of *tokens* (as done in, say, Petri nets [4]).

Still, two questions remain, namely: (1) how to build a dataflow model for a given piece of HW, and (2) how to ensure that the model is *faithful* to the original HW. (2) is not simply a theoretical concern. As shown in [5], dataflow models are often used incorrectly (meaning that the dataflow model does not conservatively approximate the HW), or too defensively (meaning that the dataflow model is too conservative). A prerequisite for answering questions (1) and (2) is to make the notion of faithfulness precise, and this is the question that concerns us in this paper.

When attempting to define faithfulness, we are faced with a major difficulty. The dataflow model is semantically very different from FSMs. FSMs communicate synchronously

by means of input/output (boolean) *signals*. In dataflow, a set of concurrent processes communicate *asynchronously* by producing and consuming tokens from/to a set of (usually FIFO) queues. It appears that the two models “live in different worlds” and that comparing them is a bit like comparing apples and oranges.

In this paper, we study this comparison problem. Our goal is to bridge the semantic gap between dataflow and HW implementations. We do this by defining a formal *conformance* relation between FSMs and a formal operational model of dataflow. The latter has a notion of time that we map to HW clock ticks.<sup>1</sup> In addition, we require explicit signals at the HW level that allow us to observe token production and consumption events that are primitive events at the dataflow level. Conformance is then defined with respect to a mapping of HW signals to the above events, which allows to translate HW behaviors to dataflow behaviors.

In the rest of the paper, and after discussing related work, we briefly review FSMs and their composition in Section II and propose an operational process model for dataflow in Section III. We present a conformance relation between FSMs and dataflow networks in Section IV, discussing the rationale behind the definition and illustrating the concepts through a series of examples. Conclusions and plans for future work are presented in Section V.

### Related Work

Prior research has extensively studied methods to generate (HW or SW) implementations from dataflow models. Algorithmic solutions have been developed for joint code and buffer size optimization, throughput computation, buffer sizing under throughput constraints, and schedule computation, e.g., [8], [1], [9], [10], [11], [12], [13], [14]. Hardware generation from dataflow models has also been extensively studied, e.g., in [15], [16], [17], [18], [19], [20], [21], [22]. The goals of that line of work are akin to those of high-level synthesis, namely, obtaining efficient HW implementations automatically from high-level descriptions. Even if we admit that these methods are *correct-by-construction*, in which case the resulting implementation is guaranteed to conform to the high-level description, there is still a need to explicitly define conformance, something missing from the above works. An explicit notion of conformance is useful in the context of high-level synthesis, for instance, in order to catch compiler bugs.

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<sup>1</sup>Our formal dataflow model is similar to standard timed dataflow models such as timed SDF [6]. Original works on dataflow models such as SDF consider their untimed versions, e.g., [1], [7]. Timed properties such as throughput cannot be evaluated on untimed models. For this reason, we work with timed dataflow models.

But conformance is also useful in other contexts, for instance, when abstract models are used to estimate performance of an existing HW system (e.g. [23]), or in the context of IP integration (e.g. [5]).

The problem of bridging the semantic gap between hardware and higher-level models arises in many abstraction-based design and verification methodologies, such as *transaction-level modeling* (TLM), e.g. [24] or *equivalence checking between system-level and RTL models*, e.g. [25]. A rigorous formalization of the relation between the concrete (RTL) and the abstract (transaction- or system-level) models is often missing in such methodologies, and it is unclear how such a relation could be defined, since the models “live in different semantical worlds” (e.g., clock cycles vs. transactions). Indeed, the abstract models are often untimed C programs and the focus is to check functional equivalence within a cycle [26].

The works [23], [5] pursue goals similar in spirit to this paper, however, they do not define a formal conformance relation. [23] presents a method for building conservative dataflow models of a specific class of network-on-chip channels. Our work aims to be more general, and applicable to general hardware modeled as FSMs. The main focus of [5] is the synthesis of glue, and the notions of correctness and non-defensiveness between models and systems are defined with respect to the glue (e.g., whether buffer sizes estimated by the model are overly pessimistic or optimistic).

Formal conformance relations abound in the field of formal verification, such as trace inclusion, simulation, bisimulation, and so on (see, for instance, [27], [28]). However, these works typically relate processes that “live in the same world”, in other words, follow the same model of computation. In contrast, we develop a conformance relation between two heterogeneous models that preserves key execution properties.

A formal refinement relation for a model of actors has been proposed in [29]. Actors are viewed as relations between input and output timed traces and the refinement relation preserves worst-case throughput and latency properties. Our work pursues goals similar to those pursued in that paper, however, there are differences. The primary difference is that [29] uses an abstract, denotational model of actors, which does not answer the question how to map the semantic gap between tokens and signals. Here we use operational models for both dataflow and hardware, and directly consider how to map signals to tokens. A secondary difference is that the refinement relation used in [29] is based on the “earlier the better” principle, whereas here we employ the more traditional principle of subset of behaviors. More discussion on the relation to [29] is provided in Section V.

## II. A MODEL FOR HARDWARE

We model hardware as *finite-state machines* (FSMs) and in particular *Mealy machines* [30].<sup>2</sup> An FSM is a tuple  $M = (X, Y, S, s_0, \delta, \lambda)$ , where:  $X$  and  $Y$  are finite sets of Boolean variables, called the input and output signals of  $M$ ;  $S$  is a finite set of states;  $s_0 \in S$  is the initial state;  $\delta : S \times 2^X \rightarrow S$  is the transition function (total);  $\lambda : S \times 2^X \rightarrow 2^Y$  the output function (total).  $\delta$  takes a state  $s \in S$  and an input assignment  $a \in 2^X$  and produces a next state  $s' = \delta(s, a) \in S$ .  $\lambda$  takes a

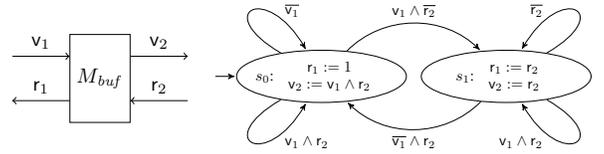


Fig. 1. Example FSM: structure (left) and behavior (right).

state  $s \in S$  and an input assignment  $a \in 2^X$  and produces an output assignment  $b = \lambda(s, a) \in 2^Y$ .

An FSM  $M$  is *closed* if its set of input signals is empty, i.e.,  $X = \emptyset$ . In that case, the transition and output functions become simply functions of  $S$ :  $\delta : S \rightarrow S$  and  $\lambda : S \rightarrow 2^Y$ . If  $X \neq \emptyset$  then  $M$  is called *open*.

An FSM  $M$  is a *Moore machine* if the value of each one of its output signals only depends on the current state and not on the inputs, that is,  $\lambda$  is only a function of  $S$ :  $\lambda : S \rightarrow 2^Y$ . Clearly, every closed FSM is a Moore machine. More generally, we will say that a certain output signal  $y \in Y$  is a *Moore output* of  $M$  if the value of that output only depends on the current state (whereas the value of other outputs may also depend on the inputs), that is,  $\lambda_y$  is only a function of  $S$ :  $\lambda_y : S \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ . Clearly,  $M$  is a Moore machine iff every output of  $M$  is a Moore output.

An FSM  $M$  defines a set of behaviors of the form

$$s_0 \xrightarrow{a_0/b_0} s_1 \xrightarrow{a_1/b_1} s_2 \xrightarrow{a_2/b_2} \dots$$

where  $s_i \in S$ ,  $a_i \in 2^X$ ,  $b_i \in 2^Y$ ,  $s_{i+1} = \delta(s_i, a_i)$  and  $b_i = \lambda(s_i, a_i)$ , for all  $i$ . Intuitively, at synchronous clock cycle  $i$ , if the current state is  $s_i$  and the current inputs are  $a_i$ , then the current outputs are  $b_i$  and the next state (at clock cycle  $i + 1$ ) will be  $s_{i+1}$ . We say that the sequence  $(a_0, b_0)(a_1, b_1) \dots$  is an *observable behavior* of  $M$ .

### FSM example

An example of an FSM is shown in Figure 1. The left part of the figure shows the structure (or “black-box” view) of the FSM, namely, its name  $M_{buf}$ , its set of input signals  $\{v_1, r_2\}$  and its set of output signals  $\{r_1, v_2\}$ . The right part of the figure shows the behavior of the FSM, namely, its set of states, initial state, and transition and output functions.  $M_{buf}$  models a simple buffer of size one. See [31] for a detailed explanation of this example. Notice that data values are abstracted away in this FSM, and only control signals are captured.

### FSM composition

FSMs can be composed with other FSMs. Different composition operators can be considered: parallel composition (putting two FSMs “side by side”), serial composition (connecting an output signal of one FSM to an input signal of another FSM), feedback composition (connecting an output signal of an FSM to one of its input signals), and so on. The FSM model is *compositional* in the sense that, under quite mild conditions, the composition of a set of FSMs (with respect to any of the above composition operators) defines an FSM.

The conditions are imposed to avoid problems of *cyclic dependencies* during feedback composition: the fact that the value of a signal may depend on itself. To avoid this, a typical condition is to require that in order to form a feedback loop

<sup>2</sup>For simplicity, we use deterministic FSMs. However, the results, and in particular the definition of conformance, directly extend to non-deterministic FSMs as well.

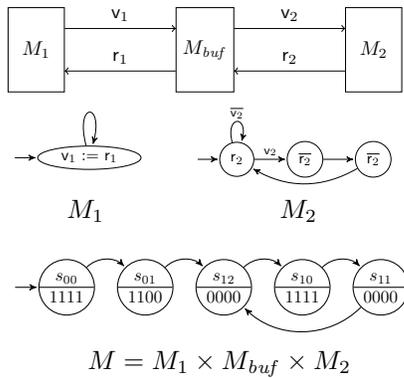


Fig. 2. Closed FSM  $M$  obtained by composing FSMs  $M_1$ ,  $M_2$  above, with  $M_{buf}$  from Figure 1. The vectors in the lower half of each state denote the values of the four output signals  $r_1, v_1, r_2, v_2$  in that state.

connecting an output signal  $y$  to an input signal  $x$ ,  $y$  must be a Moore output.

We will not define FSM composition formally, as it is standard. Instead, we give an example. Consider the composition of the three FSMs shown in Figure 2.  $M_{buf}$  is the FSM from Figure 1, while the behaviors of  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are shown in Figure 2. The composite FSM  $M$  is shown at the bottom of the figure.  $M$  is the synchronous composition of  $M_1$ ,  $M_{buf}$  and  $M_2$ , denoted  $M_1 \times M_{buf} \times M_2$ .  $M$  has no input signals: all its four signals  $r_1, v_1, r_2, v_2$  are outputs. Therefore, by definition,  $M$  is a Moore machine. The vectors in the lower half of each state denote the values of the four output signals  $r_1, v_1, r_2, v_2$  in that state. Each state of  $M$  is a composite state, that is, a vector describing the local states of the components of  $M$ . Since  $M_1$  is *stateless* (it has a single state that never changes) we omit its state from the composite vector and include only the states of  $M_{buf}$  and  $M_2$ . Thus, state  $s_{12}$  of  $M$  represents the fact that  $M_{buf}$  is at state  $s_1$  and  $M_2$  is at state 2 (we suppose that the states of  $M_2$  are numbered 0, 1, 2).

### III. A MODEL FOR DATAFLOW

A variety of formal models for dataflow systems exist in the literature, e.g., see [32], [33], [34], [35], [11], [29], although they are not as standard as FSMs are for hardware. The operational model we present here is in the spirit of those proposed in [6], [11], [36], [35]. Time is typically introduced in dataflow models by means of a special action denoted *tick*, modeling the lapse of one unit of time. We follow the same approach. Specifically, we model a dataflow system using two types of components:

*Processes*: These are finite-state automata whose transitions are labeled with actions of the following three types:  $get_i$  (get token from the  $i$ -th input queue),  $put_i$  (put token into the  $i$ -th output queue), or *tick* (one time unit elapses).

*Queues*: These are essentially counters counting the number of tokens in the queue at a given point in time. *put* actions increment the queue's counter by one. *get* actions decrement the queue's counter by one when the counter is greater than zero, otherwise *get* is not possible. A queue may be unbounded which means the counter can grow arbitrarily large, yielding an infinite-state automaton; or the queue may be bounded meaning the counter can only grow up to a given constant  $K$ , at which point *put* is no longer possible.

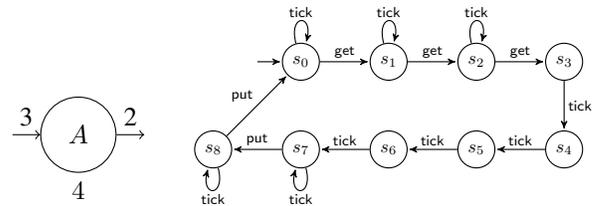


Fig. 3. Example SDF process: structure (left) and behavior (right).

The above models abstract away from data and the functional aspects of dataflow. They only maintain information on production/consumption of tokens and timing, which is our focus in this paper.

Formally, a dataflow process is modeled as an automaton  $A = (n, m, S, s_0, \rightarrow)$  where:

- $n \geq 0$  is an integer representing the number of *input ports* of  $A$ . Each input port will be connected to an input queue.
- $m \geq 0$  is an integer representing the number of *output ports* of  $A$ . Each output port will be connected to an output queue.
- $S$  is a set of states (not necessarily finite).
- $s_0 \in S$  is the initial state of  $A$ .
- $\rightarrow \subseteq S \times L \times S$  is the *transition relation* of  $A$ , where the set of labels  $L$  is defined as follows:

$$L = \{get_1, get_2, \dots, get_n, put_1, put_2, \dots, put_m, tick\}$$

A transition  $(s, \ell, s') \in \rightarrow$  is also denoted  $s \xrightarrow{\ell} s'$ .

An example dataflow process is shown in Figure 3.  $A$  is an SDF process with a single input queue and a single output queue, represented by the incoming and outgoing arrows of  $A$ , respectively.  $A$  repeatedly consumes 3 tokens and then produces 2 tokens, as indicated by the numbers annotating the arrows. Each such repetition is called a firing of  $A$ . The firing lasts for 4 time units, as indicated by the number below  $A$  in the figure. That is, from the moment the last of the 3 input tokens is consumed, until the moment the first of the 2 output tokens is produced, in a given firing, 4 time units elapse. This behavior is specified at the right of Figure 3.  $A$  has nine states, labeled  $s_0, \dots, s_8$ .  $A$  waits at state  $s_0$  until there is a token to consume, in which case the *get* transition occurs representing consumption of one token, and moving  $A$  to state  $s_1$ . For simplicity, we write *get* instead of  $get_1$ , since there is only one input queue. Similarly we write *put* instead of  $put_1$ . After all three tokens have been consumed,  $A$  is at state  $s_3$ . The next four transitions are labeled with *tick* actions, representing the passage of time. Once four time units have elapsed,  $A$  is at state  $s_7$  and is ready to output tokens, which is represented by transitions labeled with *put* actions. After producing two tokens,  $A$  returns to its initial state for a new firing.<sup>3</sup>

Note that states  $s_7$  and  $s_8$  have self-loop *tick* transitions, as do states  $s_0, s_1, s_2$ . Such transitions are perhaps to be expected in states  $s_0, s_1, s_2$ , since  $A$  receives its input tokens from an input queue, which might be empty. As long as the input queue is empty,  $A$  must wait, therefore, it must allow time to elapse

<sup>3</sup>For simplicity, in our examples we assume no *auto-concurrency*, that is, no overlapping of firings of the same process. Auto-concurrency can be captured in our model using more elaborate and potentially infinite-state processes.

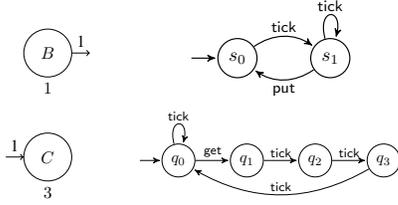


Fig. 4. Source SDF process (top) and sink SDF process (bottom).

at these states. The situation is similar in states  $s_7$  and  $s_8$ : even though queues in dataflow semantics are typically considered to be of unbounded size, in which case put actions can never be blocked, it is often useful, as we shall see below, to consider an alternative semantics where queues are bounded. In that case, put may block when a queue is full, and in that case time must be allowed to elapse.

A dataflow process may have no input queues, in which case it is called a *source*, or no output queues, in which case it is called a *sink*. Examples of SDF source and sink processes are shown in Figure 4.

Note that Figures 3 and 4 are simply examples, and do not prescribe a way to capture SDF as dataflow processes. In fact, as we shall see, there are different ways to model SDF operationally, and this is part of the challenge in coming up with faithful models.

*Remark 1:* Although our examples are simple dataflow processes that fall in the SDF or Kahn Process Network (KPN) [32] classes, the modeling framework as well as the conformance relation defined in Section IV are more broadly applicable. In particular, contrary to what is customary [35], we make no assumptions on determinism or confluence of the transition relation  $\rightarrow$  of a dataflow process. For instance, it is allowed to have a process with multiple transitions  $s \xrightarrow{\text{get}_1} s_1$  and  $s \xrightarrow{\text{get}_2} s_2$  emanating from the same state  $s$ . This would typically be interpreted as the process choosing non-deterministically to read from channel 1 or from channel 2, something which is not allowed in neither SDF nor KPN. It is also possible to have non-determinism in the successor states, e.g.,  $s \xrightarrow{\text{get}_1} s_1$  and  $s \xrightarrow{\text{get}_1} s'_1$ , with  $s_1 \neq s'_1$ . These types of non-determinism are useful, for instance, when abstracting data-dependent behavior. An example of a non-deterministic dataflow process is given in [31].

#### Dataflow process semantics

A dataflow process  $A$  defines a set of behaviors of the form

$$s_0 \xrightarrow{\ell_0} s_1 \xrightarrow{\ell_1} s_2 \xrightarrow{\ell_2} \dots$$

where  $s_i \in S$ ,  $\ell_i \in L$ , and  $s_i \xrightarrow{\ell_i} s_{i+1}$ , for all  $i$ . Intuitively, from state  $s_i$ , the process can perform action  $\ell_i$  and move to state  $s_{i+1}$ . If  $\ell_i = \text{tick}$  then this action represents the passage of one time unit. Otherwise, the action is instantaneous. Action  $\text{get}_i$  means that  $A$  removes a token from its  $i$ -th input queue. Action  $\text{put}_i$  means that  $A$  adds a token to its  $i$ -th output queue.

As we did for FSMs, we will define a concept of observable behaviors for dataflow. This is a little more involved to do for dataflow than for FSMs because in the case of dataflow, consecutive put and get actions that are not “interrupted” by ticks are considered to be instantaneous. Therefore, it is

reasonable to group all such actions together in a set. We will do this, and define an *observable behavior* of  $A$  to be a sequence  $\alpha_0\alpha_1\dots$  obtained by a behavior  $\rho$  of  $A$ , such that  $\alpha_i$  is either tick or a set of consecutive put and get actions in  $\rho$ . For example, if

$$s_0 \xrightarrow{\text{tick}} s_1 \xrightarrow{\text{put}} s_2 \xrightarrow{\text{get}} s_0 \xrightarrow{\text{tick}} s_1 \xrightarrow{\text{get}} s_2 \xrightarrow{\text{put}} \dots$$

is a dataflow behavior, then the corresponding observable dataflow behavior is

$$\text{tick} \cdot \{\text{put}, \text{get}\} \cdot \text{tick} \cdot \{\text{put}, \text{get}\} \dots$$

#### Queues

Dataflow processes communicate via FIFO queues. In our model, data is abstracted away, therefore, the FIFO property of such queues is irrelevant, and does not have to be modeled. Therefore, we can easily model queues as counters that count the number of tokens currently in the queue. We can capture such counters using the same formalism as for processes. For example, the processes for an infinite queue and for a finite queue are shown in Figure 5. Queues are assumed to have an implicit self-loop transition labeled tick at every state: we omit these self-loops from the figures for the sake of simplicity.

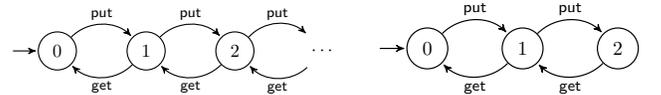


Fig. 5. Queue processes: infinite queue (left) and queue of size 2 (right).

#### Closed and open dataflow networks

A *dataflow network* is a collection of dataflow processes connected via queues. A dataflow network is *closed* if every input port of every process in the network is connected to some output port. This includes the ports get and put of queue processes, which are both inputs, since a queue is essentially a “passive” object: it waits for a writer process to perform a put or for a reader process to perform a get, and it may sometimes disallow these actions (when full or empty), but it cannot initiate them.

For example, the network shown in Figure 6 is closed. If we removed  $C$ , however, it would be open. A network containing only process  $B$  would be closed. A network containing only process  $A$  of Figure 3, however, would be open.

#### Dataflow composition

Having obtained formal behavioral models for dataflow processes and for queues, the semantics of a dataflow network can be captured as the composition of the individual processes and queues. This composition can be defined as a standard composition of processes with *rendez-vous* communication in the style of CCS [37] or CSP [38]. In particular:

- a get action of a dataflow process  $A$  synchronizes with the get action of the process of the corresponding input queue of  $A$ ;
- a put action of a dataflow process  $A$  synchronizes with the put action of the process of the corresponding output queue of  $A$ ;
- tick actions synchronize across all processes in the network.

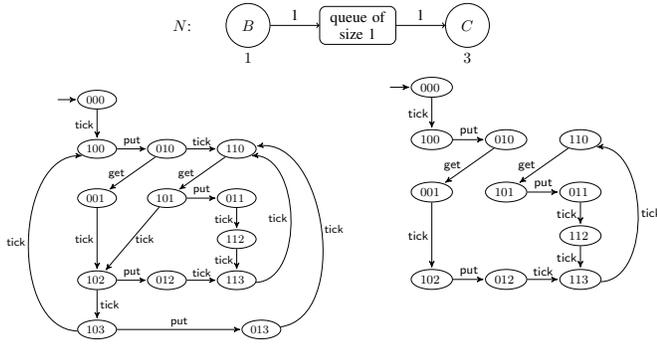


Fig. 6. A closed dataflow network  $N$  (top) and the corresponding composite dataflow processes: non-idling (bottom-left) and eager (bottom-right).

A composite process obtained by following the above rules is *maximal* in the sense that it contains all possible behaviors of a network. Maximality is important to have in an open network, that is, one that could be further composed (see paragraph below for a formal definition of open and closed networks). On the other hand, in a closed network, maximality may sometimes result in including behaviors that are not interesting or not optimal from a performance perspective. We may therefore need to exclude such behaviors. In order to do this, we define two composition semantics, obtained by restricting the maximal set of behaviors by adding extra rules.

*Non-idling semantics:* This semantics is obtained by computing the composition according to the above rules, and then removing all self-loop transitions labeled with tick, except if such a transition is the only one left at a given state. Indeed, such transitions represent *idling* where time passes without any process doing something useful.

*Eager semantics:* Non-idling semantics guarantees absence of idling but often we require something more, namely, that processes consume and produce tokens *as soon as possible*. In order to obtain this *eager* semantics, we additionally impose the following rule: a tick action is allowed at a given state only when no other action is possible.

*Example:* As an example, a dataflow network is shown at the top of Figure 6. It consists of the two SDF processes  $B$  and  $C$  of Figure 4 connected via a queue of size 1. The non-idling and eager composite processes obtained for  $N$  by following the rules described above are shown at the bottom of Figure 6, left and right, respectively. The states of the composite processes are product states, that is, vectors consisting of one element state for each process in the network. To save space, we write  $ijk$  for a composite state instead of  $(s_i, j, s_k)$ . Thus, 010 represents product state  $(s_0, 1, q_0)$  where  $B$  is at state  $s_0$ , the queue is at state 1 (i.e., contains one token) and  $C$  is at state  $q_0$ . Notice that the eager semantics has no tick transition from that state, whereas the non-idling semantics has one.

#### IV. CONFORMANCE

Having defined formal models and semantics for hardware and dataflow, we proceed in attacking our main problem, which is to define a formal conformance relation between the two. We are immediately faced with a difficulty. FSMs and dataflow processes are different mathematical objects, with heterogeneous semantics. How to compare them?

To overcome this difficulty, we take a pragmatic approach. Before defining conformance, let us recall that dataflow models

are usually employed for estimation of timing and performance properties of the HW system. We examine such properties first, and then define conformance.

#### Timing properties

At the dataflow level, timing properties can be defined by referring to basic events: token consumptions, token productions, and the passage of time. More specifically: throughput can be defined by measuring how many tokens are produced within a given window of time (or the limit of such); latency can be defined by measuring the amount of time that elapses between the consumption and production of certain tokens; timing properties refer to which points in time certain consumptions or productions may or may not occur.

For example, consider the SDF network  $N$  shown in Figure 6. We can define throughput as the asymptotic average of the number of tokens consumed by  $C$  per unit of time. In the behaviors of  $N$ , consumptions are represented by get actions and time units by tick actions. Therefore, for a given behavior, we can compute the throughput by counting the average number of gets per number of ticks. As we can see from the composite processes for  $N$  shown in Figure 6, different behaviors achieve different throughput. In the non-idling process, there are behaviors that achieve throughput  $\frac{1}{3}$  but also others that achieve throughput  $\frac{1}{4}$ . In the eager process there is only one behavior that achieves the optimal throughput  $\frac{1}{3}$ .

As for latency, we can define it as the time delay between the production of a token by  $B$  and the next corresponding consumption by  $C$ . This delay is not constant: it depends not only on the behavior of  $N$ , but it can also vary at different points within a behavior, for different productions and consumptions. In the case of the example of Figure 6, the worst-case latency between a put and a get is equal to 3 ticks, and the best-case latency is 0 ticks.

#### Conformance for closed systems

Having seen examples of typical properties that we are interested in, let us return to the question of conformance. In this paper we tackle this question in the case of closed systems. The case of open system is the subject of future investigation (see Section V).

Suppose we want to compare a closed dataflow network such as the one of Figure 6 with a closed FSM. When should one say that the FSM conforms to the dataflow network? A standard principle for defining conformance in behavioral models is that of *containment* of sets of behaviors: a certain model  $M_1$  conforms to another model  $M_2$  if the set of all possible behaviors of  $M_1$  is a subset of the set of behaviors of  $M_2$ .

We would like to apply the above principle in our setting. However, we are still faced with the problem that the behaviors of dataflow and FSM models are not directly comparable. In particular, although time elapse is observable from the behaviors of FSMs (by simply counting the number of transitions), token productions and consumptions are not directly observable at the FSM level. Indeed, it is not clear, by looking at the input and output Boolean signals of an FSM as they take values across successive clock cycles, when do token consumptions or productions occur.

To overcome this, we propose to make such events explicitly observable at the FSM level.<sup>4</sup> More specifically, with each put or get action of the dataflow network that we are interested in observing, we associate a corresponding output signal of the FSM. The intended meaning is that whenever that signal becomes 1, the corresponding production or consumption occurs.

Let us formalize this. Let  $N$  be a closed dataflow network and let  $L$  be the set of actions of  $N$  to be observed. Let  $M = (X, Y, S, s_0, \delta, \lambda)$  be a closed FSM. Because  $M$  is closed,  $X = \emptyset$ . Let  $\theta : L \rightarrow Y$  be a 1-1 mapping from  $L$  to  $Y$ , associating to each action  $\ell \in L$  a distinguished output signal  $\theta(\ell) \in Y$  serving to observe action  $\ell$  at the FSM level.

The mapping  $\theta$  defines a mapping  $\Theta$  from FSM observable behaviors to dataflow observable behaviors as follows. Let  $\sigma = (a_0, b_0)(a_1, b_1) \cdots$  be an observable behavior of  $M$ . Because  $X = \emptyset$ , all  $a_k$ 's are trivial (empty assignments). Then, each  $b_k$  is mapped to a subsequence  $\rho_k = \text{tick} \cdot \alpha_k$ , where

$$\alpha_k := \{\ell \in L \mid b_k(\theta(\ell)) = 1\}.$$

That is,  $\alpha_k$  is the set of all actions that are observed to occur at the FSM level, according to the distinguished outputs that are true in  $b_k$ . If  $\alpha_k$  is empty then we let  $\rho_k$  be simply tick. Then,  $\Theta$  maps the FSM observable behavior  $\sigma$  to the dataflow observable behavior  $\Theta(\sigma) = \rho_0 \cdot \rho_1 \cdots$ .

For example, let  $L = \{\text{put}, \text{get}\}$  and  $Y = \{y_{\text{put}}, y_{\text{get}}\}$ . Let  $\theta = \{\text{put} \mapsto y_{\text{put}}, \text{get} \mapsto y_{\text{get}}\}$ . Then we have the following mappings from FSM observable behaviors to dataflow observable behaviors:

$(y_{\text{put}} = 0, y_{\text{get}} = 0) \cdot (y_{\text{put}} = 1, y_{\text{get}} = 0) \cdot (y_{\text{put}} = 0, y_{\text{get}} = 1)$  is mapped to

$$\text{tick} \cdot \text{tick} \cdot \{\text{put}\} \cdot \text{tick} \cdot \{\text{get}\}$$

and

$(y_{\text{put}} = 0, y_{\text{get}} = 0) \cdot (y_{\text{put}} = 1, y_{\text{get}} = 1) \cdot (y_{\text{put}} = 0, y_{\text{get}} = 0)$  is mapped to

$$\text{tick} \cdot \text{tick} \cdot \{\text{put}, \text{get}\} \cdot \text{tick}.$$

Having specified this mapping, we define two types of conformance as follows:

*Definition 1:*  $M$  conforms to the non-idling (respectively, eager) semantics of  $N$  with respect to mapping  $\theta$  iff for every observable behavior  $\sigma$  of  $M$ , the sequence  $\Theta(\sigma)$  defined as above, is an observable behavior in the non-idling (respectively, eager) semantics of  $N$ .

It is worth noting that if  $N$  is a dataflow model whose eager semantics is a subset of its non-idling semantics (e.g., as in a KPN), then, if  $M$  conforms to the eager semantics of  $N$  then it also conforms to the non-idling semantics of  $N$ .

Also note that since  $M$  is a closed FSM, it is by definition a Moore machine, and since we consider deterministic FSMs,  $M$  has a single behavior. We could therefore simplify the above definition to state “for the unique observable behavior  $\sigma$  of  $M$ ” instead of “for every observable behavior  $\sigma$  of  $M$ ”. We

<sup>4</sup>An alternative could be to attempt to *discover* consumptions and productions automatically by observing the behavior of the FSM. This problem is much more difficult, and is the topic of future work.

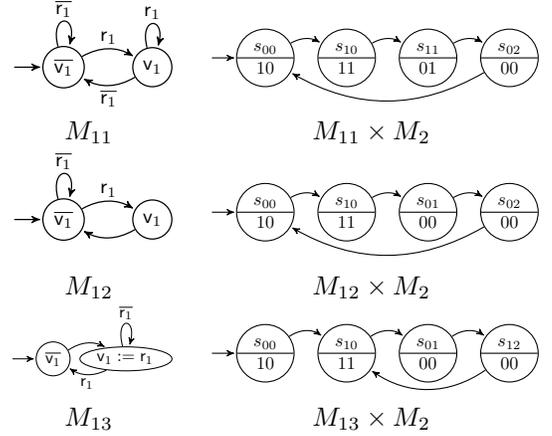


Fig. 7. Left: three variants,  $M_{11}, M_{12}, M_{13}$ , of FSM  $M_1$  of Figure 2. We compose each of these with  $M_2$  (without use of  $M_{buf}$  in the middle). Let states of  $M_2$  be labeled  $q_0, q_1, q_2$ . Let states of  $M_{1i}$  be labeled  $s_0, s_1$ . Resulting three composite FSMs are shown to the right column of the figure. In each of the composites, state  $s_{ij}$  is composed of  $s_i$  of  $M_{1k}$  and  $q_j$  of  $M_2$ , and vector in the lower half of each state denotes values of signals  $r = r_1 = r_2$  and  $v = v_1 = v_2$  respectively in that state.

prefer not to do so, however, in order to have a definition that generalizes to the case of non-deterministic FSMs.

We proceed to illustrate conformance by examples.

#### Examples of conformance and non-conformance

Consider the dataflow network  $N$  shown in Figure 6 and the FSM  $M$  shown in Figure 2. Let  $\theta$  be the mapping

$$\theta = \{\text{put} \mapsto v_1, \text{get} \mapsto v_2\}.$$

That is, at the level of  $M$ , every time  $v_1 = 1$  this corresponds to a put in the buffer, and every time  $v_2 = 1$  this corresponds to a get.

We claim that  $M$  conforms to both the eager and non-idling semantics of  $N$  with respect to  $\theta$ . As shown in Figure 2,  $M$  has a single infinite behavior yielding the infinite observable behavior

$$\sigma = (r_1, v_1, r_2, v_2) \cdot (r_1, v_1, \bar{r}_2, \bar{v}_2) \cdot ((\bar{r}_1, \bar{v}_1, \bar{r}_2, \bar{v}_2) \cdot (r_1, v_1, r_2, v_2) \cdot (\bar{r}_1, \bar{v}_1, \bar{r}_2, \bar{v}_2))^\omega$$

where  $\rho^\omega$  denotes the infinite repetition of a sequence  $\rho$ .

$\sigma$  is mapped to the dataflow observable behavior

$$\Theta(\sigma) = \text{tick} \cdot \{\text{put}, \text{get}\} \cdot \text{tick} \cdot \{\text{put}\} \cdot (\text{tick} \cdot \text{tick} \cdot \{\text{put}, \text{get}\} \cdot \text{tick})^\omega.$$

It can be seen that  $\Theta(\sigma)$  is identical to the observable behavior of the eager semantics of  $N$  – Figure 6, bottom. Therefore,  $M$  conforms to both the eager and non-idling semantics of  $N$ .

Consider next Figure 7. The figure shows three variants of FSM  $M_1$  of Figure 2 and the synchronous FSM composition of each of these variants with FSM  $M_2$  of Figure 2. Note that the buffer FSM  $M_{buf}$  is not used in these compositions. Let  $r = r_1 = r_2$  and  $v = v_1 = v_2$  be the names of the signals of the composite FSMs.

Define  $\theta = \{\text{put} \mapsto v, \text{get} \mapsto q_0 \wedge v\}$ . The expression  $\text{get} \mapsto q_0 \wedge v$  means that we interpret  $v$  to correspond to a get action only when  $M_2$  is at its initial state  $q_0$ , otherwise, even if  $v = 1$ , we will not consider this a get. We use such expressions merely for reasons of convenience, without departing from the

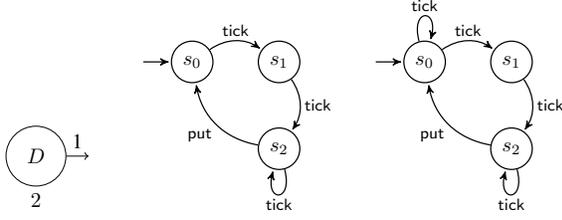


Fig. 8. Two variants of SDF process  $D$ .

framework we set up above. Indeed, we could easily consider an additional signal  $v'$  defined to be 1 iff  $M_2$  is at  $q_0$  and  $v = 1$ . Then, we could define  $\theta$  equivalently as  $\theta = \{\text{put} \mapsto v, \text{get} \mapsto v'\}$ . Therefore, using such expressions is not more expressive than our original framework.

With the above mapping  $\theta$ , the observable behaviors of the three composite FSMs are mapped to the following observable dataflow behaviors:

- 1)  $(\text{tick} \cdot \text{tick} \cdot \{\text{put}, \text{get}\} \cdot \text{tick} \cdot \{\text{put}\} \cdot \text{tick})^\omega$ ,
- 2)  $(\text{tick} \cdot \text{tick} \cdot \{\text{put}, \text{get}\} \cdot \text{tick} \cdot \text{tick})^\omega$ ,
- 3)  $(\text{tick} \cdot \text{tick} \cdot \{\text{put}, \text{get}\} \cdot \text{tick})^\omega$ .

None of these composites conforms to dataflow network  $N$  of Figure 6, because  $N$  does not admit the starting sequence  $\text{tick} \cdot \text{tick} \cdot \{\text{put}, \text{get}\}$ . This non-conformance indicates that SDF process  $B$  of Figure 4 may incorrectly capture HW blocks  $M_{1k}$ . Indeed,  $B$  can produce a token every 1 time unit, whereas it appears that,  $M_{1k}$  require 2 time units.

Instead of  $B$ , consider SDF process  $D$  of Figure 8 and dataflow network  $N_{DC}$  shown at the top of Figure 9.  $N_{DC}$  is similar to the network of Figure 6 except that  $B$  is replaced by  $D$ .  $N_{DC}$  defines two composite dataflow processes, one for each of the two variants of  $D$ : the two composite processes are denoted  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  and are shown in Figure 9, bottom. Then:

- (1)  $M_{11} \times M_2$  conforms to neither  $N_1$  nor  $N_2$ . On inspecting the behavior of  $M_{11} \times M_2$ , it is evident that every other token generated by  $M_{11}$  is dropped, i.e., it is not read by  $M_2$  because  $M_2$  is busy processing the previous token. This is a case of wrong synchronization between the two FSMs, which is revealed by attempting to show conformance to an SDF model.
- (2)  $M_{12} \times M_2$  does not conform to  $N_1$ , but conforms to the non-idling semantics of  $N_2$ . In this case, one may interpret  $M_{12} \times M_2$  as a non-idling implementation of  $N_{DC}$  where the execution of  $D$  and  $C$  is pipelined in such a way as to overlap the last cycle of  $C$  with the first one of the next  $D$ , achieving a non-optimal throughput of  $\frac{1}{4}$ . Such a pipelining can be captured by  $N_2$  but not by  $N_1$ . This indicates that  $N_1$  is not a faithful model of this HW. Also, although  $M_{12} \times M_2$  conforms to the non-idling semantics of  $N_2$ , it does not conform to its eager semantics, and indeed, does not achieve the optimal throughput of  $\frac{1}{3}$ .
- (3)  $M_{13} \times M_2$  conforms to the non-idling semantics of  $N_1$  and therefore also of  $N_2$  since  $N_1$  is a subset of  $N_2$ .  $M_{13} \times M_2$  achieves optimal throughput  $\frac{1}{3}$ . Despite this, its behavior is not eager, and therefore it does not conform to the eager semantics of  $N_1$  or  $N_2$ .

#### Discussion

As seen from the examples presented above, conformance can be used in a number of different scenarios. It can pro-

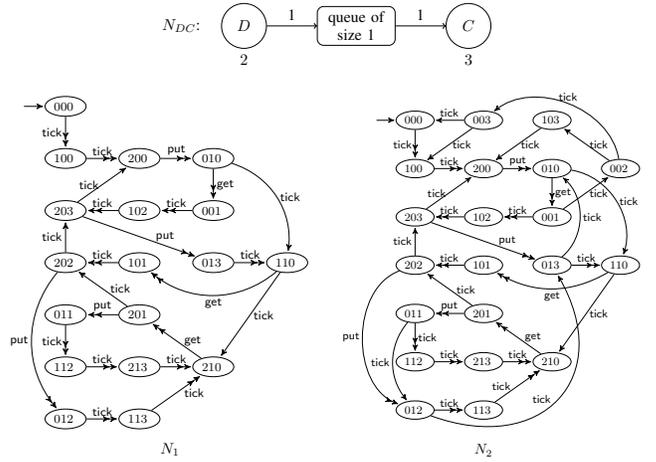


Fig. 9. Top: closed dataflow network of actors  $D$ ,  $C$  connected using queue of size 1. Bottom-left: composite non-idling dataflow process,  $N_1$ , using left-most variant of process  $D$  from Figure 8. Bottom-right: composite non-idling dataflow process,  $N_2$ , using right-most variant of  $D$ . In each of the composites, the corresponding eager composition is embedded, as shown by edges with double arrowheads.

vide guarantees of throughput preservation between dataflow models and HW implementations. It can point to timing or synchronization errors in HW implementations, or to inadequacies of the dataflow model of the HW. Thus, our framework can be used in a *bottom-up* methodology where HW is given and the goal is to build faithful performance models of this HW, as well as in a *top-down* or *model-based design* methodology where the goal is to synthesize from a high-level model (e.g., SDF) a HW implementation that preserves the properties of the model.

The definition of conformance as containment of behaviors allows to derive such preservation for properties of type “for-all”. More precisely, if a property  $P$  is stated as “for all behaviors of  $N$  something holds” then if  $N$  satisfies  $P$ , any model whose behaviors are a subset of  $N$  also satisfies  $P$ .

Conformance can be used in particular to show preservation of performance bounds such as worst-case or best-case throughput and latency. For example, bounds on throughput can be expressed using “for-all” properties of the form “for any behavior  $\rho$ , the throughput of  $\rho$  is in  $[T_{\min}, T_{\max}]$ ”.

Our conformance relation is essentially a *language inclusion* type of conformance, modulo the fact that a translation  $\Theta$  from FSM behaviors to dataflow process behaviors needs to be performed first. Such a translation can be performed automatically by appropriately transforming an FSM into another type of finite automaton. If the process automaton is also finite-state, then conformance can be checked automatically, using standard model-checking type of techniques.

## V. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

We have investigated the question of faithfulness of dataflow models to hardware implementations by proposing a formal conformance relation between the two. The examples of dataflow processes presented above are SDF, but our process model is general enough to capture other dataflow variants as well. Since conformance is defined with respect to the process model, this means that the framework is applicable to a wide class of dataflow models.

Our current study is limited to closed systems. One of our future goals is to study conformance between open systems, with the main challenge being to guarantee some notion of *compositionality*. For instance, we would like our framework to guarantee that if  $M_1$  conforms to  $N_1$  and  $M_2$  conforms to  $N_2$ , then  $M_1 \times M_2$  conforms to  $N_1 \parallel N_2$  (where  $\parallel$  denotes dataflow composition). This is essential for scalable conformance checking, but also for incremental design, where a HW component can replace another one without compromising the properties of the overall system.

Another direction of future work is to develop “recipes” for generating dataflow processes such as the ones used in the examples above for a variety of dataflow models (SDF, CSDF, HDF, ...). Developing specialized algorithms for checking conformance with respect to these subclasses is an additional interesting objective.

An alternative way to bridge the gap between dataflow and hardware is to give them both semantics in terms of the denotational actor model of [29]. This has already partly been done in [29] for SDF but not for general dataflow. It has also been done in [29] for different models of discrete automata, but not for the Mealy and Moore machines which are the standard hardware models. Once both dataflow and hardware are given actor semantics, they “live in the same world” and can therefore be compared using the refinement relation defined in [29], or another relation such as the one based on subsets of behaviors that we employ here.

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