1. Introductory Pointers

1.1. Purpose

OCAPI/RT is a C++ library intended for the design of digital systems. It provides a short path from a system design description to implementation in hardware. The library is suited for a variety of design tasks, including:

- Fixed Point Simulations
- System Performance Estimation
- System Profiling
- Algorithm-to-Architecture Mapping
- System Design according to a Dataflow Paradigm
- Verification and Testbench Development

This manual is not a tutorial to digital design. Also, it is not a C++ course. It is rather a guideline to the use of the library during system design.

The manual is set up in a bottom fashion, starting with simple concepts and constructs, and working towards more complex ones. Starting users therefore can read the manual front-to-back. A few tutorial examples are included as well throughout the sections.

1.2. Publication pointers

Below, some publication references are included. They can help to grasp 'the overall picture' behind OCAPI/RT.

Classics in the dataflow area (which is the entry specification level of OCAPI/RT) are:

- "Recurrences, Iteration, and Conditionals in Statically Scheduled Block Diagram Languages", E. Lee, VLSI Sig. Proc. III

Related to OCAPI itself you may consult:

- "Synthesis of Variable and Multiple Rate Circuits for Telecommunications Applications", P. Schaumont, S. Vernalde, M. Engels, I. Bolsens, EDTC97
- "The OCAPI Design System", IMEC

The synthesis backend of OCAPI/RT is partly based on the Cathedral-3 work:

Finally, introductions to the art of digital design may be found in

- "Digital Systems, Hardware, and Firmware Algorithms", M. Ercegovac, T. Lang, Wiley
- "Digital Systems: with algorithm implementation", M. Davio, A. Thayse, J.P. Deschamps

1.3. In case of trouble

The OCAPI/RT complaint counter is at ocapi@imec.be. Do not hesitate to report any suspicious behavior you encounter. Even if no bug is at play, you could have discovered at least a weak point of this manual.
2. Development flow

2.1. The flow layout

The design flow shown in figure starts off with an untimed, floating point C++ system description. Since data-processing intensive applications such as all-digital transceivers are targeted, this description uses data-flow semantics. The system is described as a network of communicating components.

At first, the design is refined, and in each component, features expressing hardware implementation are introduced, including time (clock cycles) and bittrue rounding effects. The use of C++ allows to express this in an elegant way. Also, all refinement is done in a single environment, which greatly speedups the design effort.

Next, the C++ description is translated into an equivalent HDL description by code generation. For each component, a controller description and a datapath description is generated. This is done because we rely on separate synthesis tools for both parts, each one optimized towards controller or else datapath synthesis tasks. Through the use of an appropriate object modeling hierarchy the generation of datapath and controller HDL can be done fully automatic.

For datapath synthesis, we rely on the Cathedral-3 datapath synthesis tools, that allow to obtain a bitparallel hardware implementation starting from a set of signal flowgraphs. Controller synthesis on the other hand is done by the logic synthesis of Synopsys DC. This divide and conquer strategy towards synthesis allows each tool to be applied at the right place.

During system simulation, the system stimuli are also translated into testbenches that allow to verify the synthesis result of each component. After interconnecting all synthesized components into the system netlist, the final implementation can also be verified using a generated system testbench.

2.2. The system model

The system machine model that is used is a set of concurrent processes. Each process translates to one component in the final system implementation.

At the system level, processes execute using data flow simulation semantics. That is, a process is described as an iterative behavior, where inputs are read in at the start of an iteration, and outputs are produced at the end. Process execution can start as soon as the required input values are available.

Inside of each process, two types of description are possible. The first one is an untimed description, and can be expressed using any C++ constructs available. A firing rule is also added to allow dataflow simulation. Untimed processes are not subject to hardware implementation but are needed to express the overall system behavior. A typical example is a channel model used to simulate a digital transceiver.

The second flavor of processes is timed. These processes operate synchronously to the system clock. One iteration of such a process corresponds to one clock cycle of processing. Such a process falls apart in two pieces: a control description and a data processing description.
The control description is done by means of a finite state machine, while the data description is a set of instructions. Each instruction consists of a series of signal assignments, and can also define process in- and outputs. Upon execution, the control description is evaluated to select one or more instructions for execution. Next, the selected instructions are executed. Each instruction thus corresponds to one clock cycle of RT behavior.

For system simulation, two schedulers are available. A dataflow scheduler is used to simulate a system that contains only untimed blocks. This scheduler repeatedly checks process firing rules, selecting processes for execution as their inputs are available. When the system also contains timed blocks however, a cycle scheduler is used. The cycle scheduler manages to interleave execution of multi-cycle descriptions, but can incorporate untimed blocks as well.
3. The standard program

GNU is one of OCAPI/RT's favorites. In consequence, the library is developed with the g++ C++ GNU compiler. The current version uses the g++ 2.8.1 compiler, and has been successfully compiled and run under the following operating system platforms: HPUX-9 (HPRISC), HPUX-10 (HPUX10), SunOS (SUN4), Solaris (SUN5) and Linux 2.0.0 (LINUX).

In this section the layout of your 'standard' g++ OCAPI/RT program will be explained, including compilation and linking of this program.

First of all, you should make g++ your standard compilation environment. On Linux, this is already the case after installation. Other operating system vendors however usually have their own proprietary C++ compiler, in order to sell you YAL (yet another license). In such cases, install the g++ compiler on the operating system, and adapt your PATH variable such that the shell can access the compiler. The OCAPI/RT library comes as a set of include files and a binary lib. The include files are located under the directory called include and the binary lib under the directory called lib.

The 'standard program' is the minimal contents of an OCAPI/RT program. It has the following layout.

    include "qlib.h"

    int main()
    {
        // your program goes here
    }

Pretty simple indeed. The include qlib.h includes everything you need to access all classes within OCAPI/RT.

If this program is called standard.cxx, then the following makefile will transform the source code into an executable for you. The HOSTTYPE macro defined in the makefile changes with the computing platform. The release of the library resides at /home/user/ocapi. You must assign OCAPI in the makefile to this value.

    OCAPI     = /home/user/ocapi
    HOSTTYPE  = hppa1.1-hp-hpux10.20
    LIB       = $(OCAPI)/lib
    INCLUDE   = $(OCAPI)/include
    CC        = g++
    QFLAGS    = -c -g -Wall -I$(INCLUDE)
    LIBS      = -lm

    %.o: %.cxx
        $(CC) $(QFLAGS) $< -o $@

    define lnkqlib
        $(CC) $^ -o $@ $(LIBS)
    endef

    OBJS = standard.o

    all: $(TARGET)
        $(CC) $(QFLAGS) $(OBJS) -o $(TARGET)

    define lnkqlib
        $(CC) $^ -o $@ $(LIBS)
    endef

    OBJS = standard.o
This is a makefile for GNU’s `make`; other `make` programs can have a slightly different syntax, especially for the definition of the `lnkqlib` macro. It is not the shortest possible solution for a makefile, but it is one that works on different platforms without making assumptions about standard compilation rules.

The compilation flags (`QFLAGS`) mean the following: `-c` selects compilation-only, `-g` turns on debugging information, and `-Wall` will curse you to hell for confusing a reference with a pointer (the warning flag, indeed). The debugging flag allows you to debug your program with gdb, the GNU debugger.

Even if you don’t like a debugger and prefer the good old `printf()` debugging, `gdb` can at least be of great help in the case your program core dumps. Start your program under `gdb` (type `gdb standard` at the shell prompt), type `run` to let `standard` crash again, and then type `bt`. You now see the call trace. There are a load of other reasons to use `gdb` of course.
4. Calculations

OCAPI/RT processes both floating point and fixed point values. In contrast to the standard C++
data types like `int` and `double`, a hybrid data type class is used, that simulates both fixed point and
floating point behavior.

4.1. The dfix class

This class is called `dfix`. The particular floating/fixed point behavior is selected by the class
constructor. The standard format of this constructor is

```cpp
    dfix a;                  // a floating point value
    dfix a(0.5);             // a floating point value with initial value
    dfix a(0.5, 10, 8);      // a fixed point value with initial value,
                           // 10 bits total wordlength, 8 fractional bits
```

A fixed point value has a maximal precision of the mantissa precision of a C++ `double`. On
most machines, this is 53 bits.

A fixed point value can also select a representation, an overflow behavior, and a rounding
behavior. These flags are, in this order, optional parameters to the `dfix` constructor. They can
have the following values.

- Representation flag: `dfix::tc` for two’s complement signed representation, `dfix::ns` for
  unsigned representation.
- Overflow flag: `dfix::wp` for wrap-around overflow, `dfix::st` for saturation.
- Rounding flag: `dfix::fl` for truncation (floor), `dfix::rd` for rounding behavior.

Some examples are

```cpp
    dfix a(0.5, 10, 8);      // the default is two’s complement, wrap-around,
                           // truncated quantisation
    dfix a(0.5, 10, 8, dfix::tc, dfix::st, dfix::rd);
                           // two’s complement, saturation, rounding
                           // quantisation
    dfix a(0.5, 10, 8, dfix::ns);
                           // unsigned, wrap-around, truncated quantisation
```

When working with fixed point `dfix`es, it is important to keep the following rule in mind:

**quantisation occurs only when a value is defined or assigned.** This means that a large
expression with several intermediate results will never have these intermediate values
quantised. Especially when writing code for hardware implementation, this should be kept in
mind. Also intermediate results are stored in finite hardware and therefore will have some
quantisation behavior. There is however a a `cast` operator that will come at help here.

4.2. The dfix operators

The operators on `dfix` are shown below

- `+, -, *, /`
  Standard addition, subtraction (including unary minus), multiplication and division.
- `+=, -=, *=, /=`
  In-place versions of previous operators.
- `abs`
Absolute value.
- \( \ll, \gg \)
  Left and right shifts.
- \( \ll=, \gg= \)
  In-place left and right shifts.
- msbpos
  Most-significant bit position.
- \&; |; ^; ~
  Bitwise and, or, exor, and not operators.
- frac() (member call)
  Fractional part
- \==; \!=; \<=; \>=; <; >
  Relational operators: equal, different, smaller then or equal to, greater then or equal to, smaller then, greater then. These return an \textit{int} instead of a \textit{dfix}.

All operators with exception of the bitwise operators work on the maximal fixed point precision (53 points). The bitwise operators have a precision of 32 bits (a C++ \textit{long}). Also, they assume the fixed point representation contains no fractional bits. This is an anomaly of the fixed point library. The \textit{dfix} type really is a mapping from a high-level type (floating point) in a low-level type (fixed point). A good implementation of the bitwise operators would require the presence of a high-level \textit{int}, which is not present in the fixed point library. This high-level type rather is faked with a low-level fixed point type with zero bits fractional precision. In addition to the arithmetic operators, several utility methods are available for the \textit{dfix} class.

\begin{verbatim}
dfix a, b;

// cast a to another type
b = cast(dfix(0, 12, 10), a);

// assign b to a, retaining the quantisation of a
a = b;

// assign b to a, including the quantisation
a.duplicate(b);

// return the integer part of b
int c = (int) b;

// retrieve the value of b as a double
double d,e:
d = b.Val();
e = Val(b);

// return quantisation characteristics of a
a.TypeW();        // returns the number of bits
a.TypeF();        // returns the number of fractional bits
a.TypeSign();     // returns dfix::tc or dfix::ns
a.TypeOverflow(); // returns dfix::wp or dfix::st
a.TypeRound();    // returns dfix::fl or dfix::rd

// check if two dfixed are identical in value and quantisation
identical(a,b);

// see wether a is floating or fixed point
a.isDouble();
a.isFix();

// write a to cout
\end{verbatim}
cout << a;

// write a to stdout, in float format,
// on a field of 10 characters
write(cout, a, 'f', 10);

// now use a fixed-format
write(cout, a, 'g', 10);

// next assume a is a fixed point number,
// and write out an integer representation
// (considering the decimal point at the lsb of a)

// use a hexadecimal format
write(cout, a, 'x', 10);

// use a binary format
write(cout, a, 'b', 10);

// use a decimal format
write(cout, a, 'd', 10);

// read a from stdin
cin >> a;
5. Communication

Apart from values, OCAPI/RT is concerned with the communication of values in between blocks of behavior. The high level method of communication in OCAPI/RT is a FIFO queue, of type `dfbfix`. This queue is conceptually infinite in length. In practice it is bounded by a sysop phonecall telling that you have wasted up all the swap space of the system.

5.1. The dfbfix class

A queue is declared as

```plaintext
dfbfix a("a");
```

This creates a queue with name a. The queue is intended to pass value objects of the type `dfix`. There is also an alias type of `dfbfix`, known as `FB` (flow buffer). So you can also write

```plaintext
FB a("a");
```

2. The dfbfix operators

The basic operations on a queue allow to store and retrieve `dfix` objects. The operations are

```plaintext
dfix k;
dfix j(0.5);
dfbfix a("a");

// insert j at the front of a
a.put(j);

// operator format for an insert
a << j;

// insert j at position 5, with position 0 corresponding to
// the front of a.
a.putIndex(j,5);

// read one element from the back of a
k = a.get();

// operator format for a read
a >> j;

// peek one element at position 1 of a
k = a.getIndex(1);

// operator format for peek
k = a[1];

// retrieve one element from a and throw it
a.pop();

// return the number of elements in a as an int
int n = a.getSize();

// return the name of the queue
char *p = a.name();
```
Whenever you perform an access operation that reads past the end of a FIFO, a runtime error results, showing

Queue Underflow @ get in queue a

5.3. Utility calls for dfbfix

Besides the basic operations on queues, there are some additional utility operations that modify a queue behavior

```c
// make a queue of length 20. The default length of a queue is 16.
// whenever this length is exceeded by a put, the storage in the queue
// is dynamically expanded by a factor of 2.
dfbfix a("a", 20);

// After the asType() call, the queue will have an input "quantizer"
// that will quantize each element inserted into the queue to that of
// the quantizer type
dfix q(0, 10, 8);
a.asType(q);

// After an asDebug() call, the queue is associated with a file, that
// will collect every value written into the queue. The file is opened
// as the queue is initialized and closed when the queue object is destroyed.
a.asDebug("thisfile.dat");

// Next makes a duplicate queue of a, called b. Every write into a will also
// be done on b. Each queue is allowed to have at most ONE duplicate queue.
dfbfix b("b");
a.asDup(b);

// Thus, when another duplicate is needed, you write is as
dfbfix c("c");
b.asDup(c);
```

During the communication of dfix objects, the queues keep track of some statistics on the values that are passed through it. You can use the << operator and the member function stattitle() to make these statistics visible.

The next program demonstrates these statistics

```c
#include "qlib.h"

void main()
{
    dfbfix a("a");
a << dfix(2);
a << dfix(1);
a << dfix(3);
    a.stattitle(cout);
cout << a;
}
```

When running this program, the following appears on screen

```
Name  put  get      MinVal @idx      MaxVal @idx Max# @idx
a    3    0  1.0000e+00    2  3.0000e+00    3    3    3
```

The first line is printed by the stattitle() call as a mnemonic for the fields printed below. The next line is the result of passing the queue to the standard output stream object. The fields mean the following:
- **Name**
  The name of the queue

- **put**
  The total number of elements `put()` into the queue

- **get**
  The total number of elements `get()` from the queue

- **MinVal**
  The lowest element put onto the queue

- **@idx**
  The put sequential number that passed this lowest element

- **MaxVal**
  The highest element put onto the queue

- **@idx**
  The put sequential number that passed this highest element

- **Max#**
  The maximal queue length that occurred

- **@idx**
  The put sequential number that resulted in this maximal queue length

### 5.4. Globals derivatives for dfbfix

There are two special derivatives of dfbfix. Both are derived classes such that you can use them wherever you would use a `dfbfix`. Only the first will be discussed here, the other one is related to cycle-true simulation and is discussed in Chapter 16: Faster communications.

The `dfbfix_nil` object is like a `/dev/null` drain. Every `dfix` written into this queue is thrown. A read operation from such a queue results in a runtime error.

There are two global variables related to queues. The `listOfFB` is a pointer to a list of queues, containing every queue object you have declared in your program. The member function call `nextFB()` will return the successor of the queue in the global list. For example, the code snippet

```c
dfbfix *r;
for (r = listOfFB; r; r = r->nextFB())
{
    ...
}
```

will walk through all the queues present in your OCAPI/RT program.

The other global variable is `nilFB`, which is of the type `dfbfix_nil`. It is intended to be used as a global trashcan.
6. The basic block

OCAPI/RT supports the dataflow simulation paradigm. In order to define the actors to the system, one base class is used, from which all actors will inherit. In order to do untimed simulations, you must follow a standard template to which new actor classes must conform. In this section, the standard template will be introduced, and the writing style is documented.

6.1. Basic block include and code file

Each new actor in the system is defined with one header file and one source code C++ file. We define a standard block, add, which performs an addition.

The include file, add.h, looks like

```cpp
#ifndef ADD_H
#define ADD_H

#include "qlib.h"

class add : public base
{
    public:
        //----- constructor ----- 
        add  (char *name,
                FB & _in1,
                FB & _in2,
                FB & _o1
        );
        //----- untimed simulation ----- 
        int  run();
    private :
        FB   *in1;
        FB   *in2;
        FB   *o1;
};
#endif
```

This defines a class add, that inherits from base. The base object is the one that OCAPI/RT likes to work with, so you must inherit from it in order to obtain an OCAPI/RT basic block.

The private members in the block are pointers to communication queues. Optionally, the private members should also contain state, for example the tap values in a filter. The management of state for untimed blocks is entirely the responsibility of the user; as far as OCAPI/RT is concerned, it does not care what you use as extra variables.

The public members include a constructor and an execution call run. The constructor must at least contain a name, and a list of the queues that are used for communication. Optionally, some parameters can be passed, for instance in case of parametrized blocks (filters with a variable number of taps and the like).

The contents of the adder block will be described in add.cxx.

```cpp
#include "add.h"

//----- constructor ----- 
add::add(char *name,
         FB & _in1,
```
FB & _in2,
FB & _o1
) : base(name)
{
    in1 = _in1.asSource(this);
    in2 = _in2.asSource(this);
    o1  = _o1 .asSink  (this);
}

//-- untimed simulation: run() -----
int add::run()
{
    // firing rule
    if ( ( in1->getSize() < 1) ||
         ( in2->getSize() < 1) )
    {
        return 0;
    }
    o1->put(in1->get() + in2->get());
    return 1;
}

The constructor passes the name of the object to the base class it inherits from. In addition, it initializes private members with the other parameters. In this example, the communication queue pointers are initialized. This is not done through simple pointer assignment, but through function calls asSource and asSink. This is not obligatory, but allows OCAPI/RT to analyze the connectivity in between the basic blocks. Since a queue is intended for point-to-point communication, it is an error to use a queue as input or output more than once. The function calls asSource and asSink keep track of which blocks source/sink which queues. They will return a runtime error in case a queue is sourced or sinked more than once. The constructor can optionally also be used to perform initialization of other private data (state for instance).

The run() method contains the operations to be performed when the block is invoked. The behavior is described in an iterative way. The run function must return an integer value, 1 if the block succeeded in performing the operation, and 0 if this has failed.

This behavior consists of two parts: a firing rule and an operative part. The firing rule must check for the availability of data on the input queues. When no sufficient data is present (checked with the getSize() member call), it stops execution and returns 0. When sufficient data is present, execution can start. Execution of an untimed behavior can use the different C++ control constructs available. In this example, the contents of the two input queues is read, the result is added and put into the output queue. After execution, the value 1 is returned to signal the behavior has completed.

6.2. Predefined standard blocks: file sources and sinks

The OCAPI/RT library contains three predefined standard blocks, which is a file source src, a file sink snk, and a ram storage block ram.

The file sources and sinks define operating system interfaces and allow you to bring file data into an OCAPI/RT simulation, and to write out resulting data to a file. The examples below show various declarations of these blocks. Data in these files is formatted as floating point numbers separated by white space. For output, newlines are used as whitespace.
// define a file source block, with name a, 
// that will read data from the file "in.dat" 
// and put it into the queue k

dfbfix k("k"); 
src a("a", k, "in.dat");

// an alternative definition is
dfbfix k("k"); 
src a("a", k); 
a.setAttr(src::FILENAME, "in.dat");

// which also gives you a complex version
dfbfix k1("k1");
dfbfix k2("k2");
src a("a", k1, k2); 
a.setAttr(src::FILENAME, "in.dat");

// define a sink block b, that will put data 
// from queue o into a file "out.dat".
dfbfix o("o"); 
snk b("b", o, "out.dat");

// an alternative definition is
dfbfix o("o"); 
snk b("b", o); 
b.setAttr(snk::FILENAME, "out.dat");

// which gives you also a complex version
dfbfix o1("o1"); 
dfbfix o2("o2"); 
snk b("b", o1, o2); 
b.setAttr(snk::FILENAME, "out.dat");

// the snk mode has also a matlab-goodie 
// which will format output data into a matrix 
// A that can be read in directly by Matlab.
dfbfix o("o"); 
snk b("b", o); 
b.setAttr(snk::FILENAME, "out.m"); 
b.setAttr(snk::MATLABMODE, 1);

6.3. Predefined standard blocks: RAM

The ram untimed block is intended to simulate single-port storage blocks at high level. By necessity, some interconnect assumptions had to be made on this block. On the other hand, it is supported all the way through code generation. OCAPI/RT does not generate RAM cells. However, it will generate appropriate connections in the resulting system netlist, onto which a RAM cell can be connected. The declaration of a ram block is as follows.

// make a ram a, with an address bus, a data input bus, a data output bus, a read command line, a write command line, with
// 64 locations

dfbfix address ("address");
dfbfix data_in ("data_in");
dfbfix data_out ("data_out");
dfbfix read_c ("read_c");
dfbfix write_c ("write_c");

ram a ("a", 
  address,
data_in,
data_out,
write_c,
read_c,
64);

// clear the ram
a.clear();

// fill the ram with the linear sequence
// data = k1 + address * k2;
a.fill(k1, k2);

// dump the contents of a to cout
a.show();

The execution semantics of the ram are as follows. For each read or write, an address, a read command and a write command must be presented. If the read command equals \texttt{dfix(1)}, a read will be performed, and the value stored at the location presented through \texttt{address} will be put on \texttt{data_out}. If the read command equals any other value, a dummy byte will be presented at \texttt{data_out}. If no read command was presented, no data will be presented on \texttt{data_out}. For writes, an identical story holds for reads on the \texttt{data_in} input: Whenever a write command is presented, the data input will be consumed. When the write command equals 1, then the data input will be stored in the location provided through \texttt{address}. When a read and write command are given at the same time, then the read will be performed before the write. The ram also includes an online "purifier" that will generate a warning message whenever data from an unwritten location is read.
7. Untimed simulations

Given the descriptions of one or more untimed blocks, a simulation can be done. The description of a simulation requires the following to be included in a standard C++ `main()` procedure:

- The instantiation of one or more basic blocks.
- The instantiation of one or more communication queues that interconnect the blocks.
- The setup of stimuli. Either these can be included at runtime by means of the standard file source blocks, or else dedicated C++ code can be written that fills up a queue with stimuli.
- A schedule that drives the execution methods of the basic blocks.

A schedule, in general, is the specification of the sequence in which block firing rules must be tested (and fired if necessary) in order to run a simulation. There has been quite some research in determining how such a schedule can be constructed automatically from the interconnection network and knowledge of the block behavior. Up to now, an automatic mechanism for a general network with arbitrary blocks has not been found. Therefore, OCAPI/RT relies on the designer to construct such a schedule.

7.1. Layout of untimed simulation

In this section, the template of the standard simulation program will be given, along with a description of the `scheduler` class that will drive the simulation. A configuration with the `adder` block (described in the section on basic blocks) is used as an example.

```cpp
#include "qlib.h"
#include "add.h"

void main()
{
    dfbbox i1("i1");
    dfbbox i2("i2");
    dfbbox o1("o1");
    src    SRC1("SRC1", i1, "SRC1");
    src    SRC2("SRC2", i2, "SRC2");
    add    ADD ("ADD", i1, i2, o1);
    snk    SNK1("SNK1", o1, "SNK1");

    schedule S1("S1");
    S1.next(SRC1);
    S1.next(SRC2);
    S1.next(ADD );
    S1.next(SNK1);

    while (S1.run());

    i1.statitle(cout);
    cout << i1;
    cout << i2;
    cout << o1;
}
```

The simulation above instantiates three communication buffers, that interconnect four basic blocks. The instantiation defines at the same time the interconnection network of the simulation. Three of the untimed blocks are standard file sources and sinks, provided with OCAPI/RT. The `add` block is a user defined one.
After the definition of the interconnection network, a schedule must be defined. A simulation schedule is constructed using \texttt{schedule} objects. In the example, one schedule object is defined, and the four blocks are assigned to it by means of a \texttt{next()} member call.

The order in which \texttt{next()} calls are done determines the order in which firing rules will be tested. For each execution of the schedule object \texttt{S1}, the \texttt{run()} methods of \texttt{SRC1}, \texttt{SRC2}, \texttt{ADD} and \texttt{SNK1} are called, in that order. The execution method of a scheduler object is called \texttt{run()}. This function returns an integer, equal to one when at least on block in the current iteration has executed (i.e. the \texttt{run()} of the block has returned one). When no block has executed, it returns zero.

The while loop in the program therefore is an execution of the simulation. Let us assume that the directory of the simulator executable contains the two required stimuli files, \texttt{SRC1} and \texttt{SRC2}. Their contents is as follows

\begin{verbatim}
 SRC1 SRC2 -- not present in the file
---- ---- -- not present in the file
1  4
2  5
3  6
\end{verbatim}

When compiling and running this program, the simulator responds:

\begin{verbatim}
*** INFO: Defining block SRC1
*** INFO: Defining block SRC2
*** INFO: Defining block ADD
*** INFO: Defining block SNK1
Name  put  get      MinVal @idx      MaxVal @idx Max# @idx
i1    3    3  1.0000e+00    1  3.0000e+00    3    1    1
i2    3    3  4.0000e+00    1  6.0000e+00    3    1    1
o1    3    3  5.0000e+00    1  9.0000e+00    3    1    1

and in addition has created a file \texttt{SNK1}, containing

\begin{verbatim}
SNK1 -- not present in the file
----- -- not present in the file
5.000000e+00
7.000000e+00
9.000000e+00
\end{verbatim}

The \texttt{INFO} message appearing on standard output are a side effect of creating a basic block. The table at the end is produced by the print statements at the end of the program.

### 7.2. More on schedules

If you would examine closely which blocks are fired in which iteration, (for instance with a debugger) then you would find

\begin{verbatim}
iteration 1
    run SRC1 => i1 contains 1.0
    run SRC2 => i2 contains 4.0
    run ADD => o1 contains 5.0
    run SNK1 => write out o1
    schedule.run() returns 1
iteration 2
    run SRC1 => i1 contains 2.0
    run SRC2 => i2 contains 5.0
    run ADD => o1 contains 7.0
    run SNK1 => write out o1
\end{verbatim}
schedule.run() returns 1
iteration 3
  run SRC1 => i1 contains 3.0
  run SRC2 => i2 contains 6.0
  run ADD  => o1 contains 9.0
  run SNK1 => write out o1
schedule.run() returns 1
iteration 4
  run SRC1 => at end-of-file, fails
  run SRC2 => at end-of-file, fails
  run ADD  => no input tokens, fails
  run SNK1 => no input tokens, fails
schedule.run() returns 0 => end simulation

There are two schedule member functions, `traceOn()` and `traceOff()`, that will produce similar information for you. If you insert

```cpp
S.traceOn();
```

just before the while loop, then you see

```text
*** INFO: Defining block SRC1
*** INFO: Defining block SRC2
*** INFO: Defining block ADD
*** INFO: Defining block SNK1
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>put</th>
<th>get</th>
<th>MinVal @idx</th>
<th>MaxVal @idx</th>
<th>Max# @idx</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.0000e+00</td>
<td>3.0000e+00</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.0000e+00</td>
<td>6.0000e+00</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0000e+00</td>
<td>9.0000e+00</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

appearing on the screen. This trace feature is convenient during schedule debugging.

In the simulation output, you can also notice that the maximum number of tokens in the queues never exceeds one. When you had entered another schedule sequence, for example

```cpp
schedule S1("S1");
S1.next(ADD);
S1.next(SRC2);
S1.next(SRC1);
S1.next(SNK1);
```

then you would notice that the maximum number of tokens on the queues would result in different figures. On the other hand, the resulting data file, `SNK1`, will contain exactly the same results. This demonstrates one important property of dataflow simulations: any arbitrary but consistent schedule yields the same results. A 'consistent' schedule means that no block will be scheduled zero or an infinite number of times. Only the required amount of storage will change from schedule to schedule.

### 7.3. Profiling in untimed simulations

Untimed simulations are not targeted to circuit implementation. Rather, they have an explorative character. Besides the queue statistics, OCAPI/RT also enables you to do precise profiling of operations. The requirement for this feature is that
1. You use schedule objects to construct the simulation.
2. You describe block behavior with dfix objects.

Profiling is by default enabled. To view profiling results, you send the schedule object under consideration to the standard output stream. In the main example program given above, you can modify this as

```c
#include "qlib.h"
#include "add.h"

void main()
{
    ...
    schedule S1("S1");
    ...
    cout << S1;
}
```

When running the simulation, you will see the following appearing on stdout:

```
*** INFO: Defining block SRC1
*** INFO: Defining block SRC2
*** INFO: Defining block ADD
*** INFO: Defining block SNK1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>put</th>
<th>get</th>
<th>MinVal @idx</th>
<th>MaxVal @idx</th>
<th>Max# @idx</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.0000e+00</td>
<td>3.0000e+00</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.0000e+00</td>
<td>6.0000e+00</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0000e+00</td>
<td>9.0000e+00</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Schedule S1 ran 4 times:
   SRC1    3
   SRC2    3
   ADD     3
   +       3
   SNK1    3
```

For each schedule, it is reported how many times it was run. Inside each schedule, a firing count of each block is given. Inside each block, an operation execution count is given. The simple add block gives the rather trivial result that there were three additions done during the simulation.

The gain in using operation profiling is to estimate the computational requirement for each block. For instance, if you find that you need to do 23 multiplications in a block that was fired 5 times, then you would need at least five multipliers to guarantee the block implementation will need only one cycle to execute.

Finally, if you want to suppress operation profiling for some blocks, then you can use the member function call `noOpsCnt()` for each block. For instance, writing

```c
ADD.noOpsCnt();
```

suppresses operation profiling in the ADD block.
8. The path to implementation

The features presented in the previous sections contain everything you need to do untimed, high level simulations. These kind of simulations are useful for initial development. For real implementation, more detail has to be added to the descriptions.

OCAPI/RT makes few assumptions on the target architecture of your system. One is that you target bitparallel and synchronous hardware. Synchronicity is not a basic requirement for OCAPI/RT. The current version however constructs single-thread simulations, and also assumes that all hardware runs at the same clock. If different clocks need to be implemented, then a change to the clock-cycle true simulation algorithm will have to be made. Also, it is assumed that one basic block will eventually be implemented into one processor.

One question that comes to mind is how hardware sharing between different basic blocks can be expressed. The answer is that you will have to construct a basic block that merges the two behaviors of two other blocks. Some designers might feel reluctant to do this. On the other hand, if you have to write down merged behavior, you will also have to think about the control problems that are induced from doing this merging. OCAPI/RT will not solve this problem for you, though it will provide you with the means to express it.

Before code generation will translate your description to an HDL, you will have to take care of the following tasks:

1. You will have to specify wordlengths. The target hardware is capable of doing bitparallel, fixed point operations, but not of doing floating point operations. One of your design tasks is to perform the quantisation on floating point numbers. The dfix class discussed earlier contains the mechanisms for expressing fixed point behavior.

2. You will have to construct a clock-cycle true description. In constructing this description, you will not have to allocate actual hardware, but rather express which operations you expect to be performed in which clock cycle. The semantical model for describing this clock cycle true behavior consists of a finite state machine, and a set of signal flow graphs. Each signal flow graph expresses one cycle of implemented behavior. This style of description splits the control operations from data operations in your program. In contrast, the untimed description you have used before has a common representation of control and data.

OCAPI/RT does not force an ordering on these tasks. For instance, you might first develop a clock cycle true description on floating point numbers, and afterwards tackle the quantization issues. This eases verification of your clock-cycle true circuit to the untimed high level simulation.

The final implementation also assumes that all communication queues will be implemented as wiring. They will contain no storage, nor will they be subject to buffer synthesis. In a dataflow simulation, initial buffering values can however be necessary (for instance in the presence of feedback loops). In OCAPI/RT, such a buffer must be implemented as an additional processor that incorporates the required storage. The resulting system dataflow will become deadlocked because of this. The cycle scheduler however, that simulates timed descriptions, is clever enough to look for these ‘initial tokens’ inside of the descriptions.

In the next sections, the classes that allow you to express clock cycle true behavior are introduced.
9. Signals and signal flowgraphs

Some initial considerations on signals are introduced first. If you are not philosophically inclined you might want to skip a paragraph to the hands on section.

9.1. Hardware versus Software

Software programs always use memory to store variables. In contrast, hardware programs work with signals, which might or might not be stored into a register. This feature can be expressed in OCAP/RT by using the _sig class. Simply speaking, a _sig is a dfix for which you have indicated whether is needs storage or not.

In implementation, a signal with storage is mapped to a net driven by a register, while an immediate signal is mapped to a net driven by an operator.

Besides the storage issue, a signal also departs from the concept of scope you use in a program. For instance, in a function you can use local variables, which are destroyed (i.e. for which the storage is reclaimed) after you have executed the function. In hardware however, you control the signal-to-net mapping by means of the clock signal.

Therefore you have to manage the scope of signals yourself. A syntactical effect of this is the use of a _sig class rather then just a sig class. Within the OCAP/RT library, a _sig actually encapsulates a sig because OCAP needs to distinguish between C++ scope (procedures) and hardware scope (signal flowgraphs). The signal scope is expressed by using a signal flowgraph object, sfg. A signal flowgraph marks a boundary on hardware behavior, and will allow subsequent synthesis tools to find out operator allocation, hardware sharing and signal-to-net mapping for you.

9.2. The _sig class and related operations

Hardware signals can expressed in three flavors. They can be plain signals, constant signals, or registered signals. The following example shows how these three can be defined.

```csharp
// define a plain signal a, with a floating point dfix inside of it.
_sig a("a");

// define a plain signal b, with a fixed point dfix inside of it.
_sig b("b", dfix(0,10,8));

// define a registered signal c, with an initial value k
// and attached to a clock ck.
dfix k(0.5);
clk  ck;
_sig c("c", ck, k);

// define a constant signal d, equal to the value k
_sig d(k);
```

The registered signals, and more in particular the clock object, are explained more into detail when signal flowgraphs and finite state machines are discussed. In this section, we will concentrate on operations that are available for signals.
Using signals and signal operations, you can construct expressions. The signal operations are a subset of the operations on \texttt{dfix}. This is because there is a hardware operator implementation behind each of these operations.

- \texttt{+, -,*}
  Standard addition, subtraction (including unary minus), multiplication
- \texttt{&, |, ^, ~}
  Bitwise and, or, exor, and not operators.
- \texttt{==, !=, <=, >=, <, >}
  Relational operators.
- \texttt{<<, >>}
  Left and right shifts.
- \texttt{s.cassign(s1,s2)}
  Conditional assignment with s1 or s2 depending on s.
- \texttt{cast(T,s)}
  Convert the type of s to the type expressed in \texttt{dfix} T.
- \texttt{lu(L,s)}
  Use s as in index into lookuptable L and retrieve.
- \texttt{msbpos(s)}
  Return the position of the msb in s.

Precision considerations are the same as for \texttt{dfix}. That is, precision is at most the mantissa precision of a double (53 bits). For the bitwise operations, 32 bits are assumed (a long). \texttt{cast}, \texttt{lu} and \texttt{msbpos} are not member but friend functions. In addition, \texttt{msbpos} expects fixed-point signals.

```cpp
_en sig a("a");
_en sig b("b");
_en sig c("c");

// some simple operations
  c = a + b;
  c = a - b;
  c = a * b;

// bitwise operations works only on fixed point signals
_en sig e(dfix(0xff, 10, 0));
_en sig d("d", dfix(0,10,0));
_en sig f("f", dfix(0,10,0));
  f = d & e;
  f = d | e;
  f = ~d;
  f = d ^ _en sig(dfix(3,10,0));

// shifting
// a dfix is automatically promoted to a constant _en sig
  f = d << dfix(3,8,0);

// conditional assignment
  f = (d < dfix(2,10,0)).cassign(e,d);

// type conversion is done with cast
_en sig g("g", dfix(0,3,0));
g = cast(dfix(0,3,0), d);

// a lookup table is an array of unsigned long
unsigned long j = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
```
// a lookuptable with 5 elements, 3 bits wide
lookupTable j_lookup("j_lookup", 5, dfix(0,3,0)) = j;
// find element 2
g = lu(j_lookup, dfix(2,3,0));

If you are interested in simulation only, then you should not worry too much about type casting and the like. However, if you intend implementation, then some rules are at hand. These rules are induced by the hardware synthesis tools. If you fail to obey them, then you will get a runtime error during hardware synthesis.

- All operators, apart from multiplication, return a signal with the same wordlength as the input signal.
- Multiplication returns a wordlength that is the sum of the input wordlengths.
- Addition, subtraction, bitwise operations, comparisons and conditional assignment require the two input operands to have the same wordlength.

Some common pitfalls that result of this restriction are the following.

- Intermediate results will, by default, not expand wordlength. In contrast, operations on dfix do not loose precision on intermediate results. For example, shifting an 8 bit signal up 8 positions will return you the value of zero, on 8 bits. If you want too keep up the precision, then you must first cast the operation to the desired output wordlength, before doing the shift.
- The multiplication operator increases the wordlength, which is not automatically reduced when you assign the result to a signal of smaller with. If you want to reduce wordlength, then you must do this by using a cast operation.

For complex expressions, these type promotion rules look a bit tedious. They are however used because they allow you to express behavior precisely down to the bit level. For example, the following piece of code extracts each of the bits of a three bit signal:

```plaintext
_sig threebits(dfix(6,3,0));
dfix bit(0,1,0);
_sig bit2("bit2"), bit1("bit1"), bit0("bit0");

bit2 = cast(bit, threebits >> dfix(2));
bit1 = cast(bit, threebits >> dfix(1));
bit0 = cast(bit, threebits);
```

These bit manipulations were not possible without the given type promotion rules.

For hardware implementation, the following operators are present.

- Addition and subtraction are implemented on ripple-carry adder/subtractors.
- Multiplication is implemented with a booth multiplier block.
- Casts are hardwired.
- Shifts are either hardwired in case of constant shifts, or else a barrel shifter is used in case of variable shifts.
- Comparisons are implemented with dedicated comparators (in case of constant comparisons), or subtractions (in case of variable comparisons).
- Bitwise operators are implemented by their direct gate equivalent at the bit level.
- Lookup tables are implemented as PLA blocks that are mapped using two-level or multi-level random logic.
- Conditional assignment is done using multiplexers.
Msbit detection is done using a dedicated msbit-detector.

9.3. Globals and utility functions for signals

There are a number of global variables that directly relate to the _sig class, as well as the embedded sig class. As an OCAPI/RT user, the sig class is presumably invisible to you. Hackers however always like to know more ... to do more. In normal circumstances, you do not need to use these functions.

The variables glbNumberOf_Sig and glbNumberOfSig contain the number of _sig and sig that your program has defined. The variable glbNumberOfReg contains the number of sig that are of the register type. This represents the word-level register count of your design. The glbSigHashConflicts contain the number of hash conflicts that are present in the internal signal data structure organization. If this number is more then, say 5% of glbNumberOf_Sig, then you might consider knocking at OCAPI/RTs complaint counter. The simulation is not bad if you exceed this bound, only it will go s-l-o-w-e-r.

The variable glbListOfSig contains a global list of signals in your system. You can go through it by means of

```c
sig *run;
for (run = glbListOfSig; run; run = run->nextsig())
{
    ...
}
```

For each such a sig, you can access a number of utility member functions.

- **isregister()** returns 1 when a signal is a register.
- **isconstant()** returns 1 when a signal is a constant value.
- **isterm()** returns 1 when you have defined this signal yourself. These are signals which are introduced through _sig() class constructors. OCAPI/RT however also adds signals of its own.
- **getname()** returns the char * name you have used to define the signal.
- **get_showname()** returns the char * name of the signal that is used for code generation. This is equal to the original name, but with a unique suffix appended to it.

9.4. The sfg class

In order to construct a timed (clocked) simulation, signals and signals expressions must be assigned to a signal flowgraph. A signal flowgraph (in the context of OCAPI/RT) is a container that collects all behavior that must be executed during one clock cycle.

The sfg behavior contains

1. A set of expressions using signals
2. A set of inputs and outputs that relate signals to output and input queues

Thus, a signal flowgraph object connects local behavior (the signals) to the system through communications queues. In hardware, the indication of input and output signals also results in ports on your resulting circuit.
In the philosophical paragraph at the beginning of this section, a signal flowgraph was also indicated as a marker of hardware scope. This is also demonstrated by the following example.

```c
_sig      a("a");
_sig      b("b");
_sig      c(dfix(2));
dfbfix    A("A");
dfbfix    B("B");

// a signal flowgraph object is created
sfg       add_two, add_three;

// from now on, every signal expression written down will be included
// in the signal flowgraph add_two
add_two.starts();
a = b + c;

// You must also give a name to add_two, for code generation
add_two << "add_two";

// also, inputs and outputs have to be indicated.
// you use the input and output objects ip and op for this
add_two << ip(b, B);
add_two << op(a, A);

// next expression will be part of add_three
add_three.starts();
a = b + dfix(3);
add_three << "add_three";
add_three << ip(b, B);
add_three << op(a, A);

// you can also do semantical checks on signal flowgraphs
add_two.check();
add_three.check();
```

The semantical check warns you for the following specification errors:

- Your signal flowgraph contains a signal which is not declared as a signal flowgraph input and at the same time, it is not a constant or a register. In other words, your signal flowgraph has a dangling input.
- You have written down a combinatorial loop in your signal flowgraph. Each signal must be ultimately dependent on registered signals, constants, or signal flowgraph inputs. If any other dependency exists, you have written down a combinatorial loop for which hardware synthesis is not possible.

### 9.5. Execution of a signal flowgraph

A signal flowgraph defines one clock cycle of behavior. The semantics of a signal flowgraph execution are well defined.

1. At the start of an execution, all input signals are defined with data fetched from input queues.
2. The signal flowgraph output signals are evaluated in a demand driven way. That is, if they are defined by an expression that has signal operands with known values, then the output signal is evaluated. Otherwise, the unknown values of the operands are
determined first. It is easily seen that this is a recursive process. Signals with known values are: registered signals, constant signals, and signals that have already been calculated in the current execution.

3. The execution ends by writing the calculated output values to the output queues.

Signal flowgraph semantics are somewhat related to untimed blocks with firing rules. A signal flowgraph needs one token to be present on each input queue. Only, the firing rule on a signal flowgraph is not implemented. If the token is missing, then the simulation crashes. This is a crude way of warning you that you are about to let your hardware evaluate a nonsense result.

The relation with untimed block firing rules will allow to do a timed simulation which consist partly of signal flowgraph descriptions and partly of untimed basic blocks. [Chapter12: Timed simulations] will treat this more into detail.

9.6. Running a signal flowgraph by hand

A signal flowgraph is only part of a timed description. The control component (an FSM) still needs to be introduced. There can however be situations in which you would like to run a signal flowgraph directly. For instance, in case you have no control component, or if you have not yet developed a control description for it.

The sfg member function run() performs the execution of the signal flowgraph as described above. An example is used to demonstrate this.

```plaintext
#include "qlib.h"

void main()
{

    _sig a("a");
    _sig b("b");
    _sig c(dfix(2));

dfbfix A("A");
dfbfix B("B");

    sfg add_two;
    add_two.starts();
    a = b + c;
    add_two << "add_two";
    add_two << ip(b, B);
    add_two << op(a, A);
    add_two.check();

    // running silently
    add_two.eval();
    cout << A.get() << "\n";

    // running with debug information
    add_two.eval(cout);
    cout << A.get() << "\n";

    add_two.eval(cout);
}
```
When running this simulation, the following appears on the screen.

```
3.000000e+00
add_two(                   b                   2)
            :                    a                   4
   =>                   a                   4
4.000000e+00
add_two(Queue Underflow @ get in queue B
```

The first line shows the result in the first `eval()` call. When this call is given an output stream as argument, some additional information is printed during evaluation. For each signal flowgraph, a list of input values is printed. Intermediate signal values are printed after the `:` at the beginning of the line. The output values as they are entered in the output queues are printed after the `=>`. Finally, the last line shows what happens when `eval()` is called when no inputs are available on the input queue `B`.

For signal flowgraphs with registered signals, you must also control the clock of these signals. An example of an accumulator is given next.

```
#include "qlib.h"

void main()
{
    clk       ck;

    _sig      a("a", ck, dfix(0));
    _sig      b("b");

dfbfix    A("A");
dfbfix    B("B");

    sfg       accu;
    accu.starts();
    a = a + b;
    accu << "accu";
    accu << ip(b, B);
    accu << op(a, A);
    accu.check();

    B << dfix(1) << dfix(2) << dfix(3);
    while (B.getSize())
    {
        accu.eval(cout);
        accu.tick(ck);
    }
}
```

The simulation is controlled in a while loop that will consume all input values in queue `B`. After each run, the clock attached to registered signal `a` is triggered. This is done indirectly through the `sfg` member call `tick()`, that updates all registered signals that have been assigned within the scope of this `sfg`. Running this simulation results in the following screen output:
The registered signal \( a \) has two values: a present value (shown left of \( / \)), and a next value (shown right of \( / \)). When the clock ticks, the next value is copied to the present value. At the end of the simulation, registered signal \( a \) will contain 6 as its present value. The output queue \( A \) however will contain the 3, the ‘present value’ of \( a \) during the last iteration.

Finally, if you want to include a signal flowgraph in an untimed simulation, you must make sure that you implement a firing rule that guards the sfg evaluation.

An example that incorporates the accumulator into an untimed basic block is the following.

```cpp
#include "qlib.h"

class accu : public base
{
public:
    //----- constructor ----- 
    accu(char * name, 
          dfbfix & i, 
          dfbfix & o);

    //----- simulation ----- 
    int run();
private :
    dfbfix * ipq;
    dfbfix * opq;
    sfg _accu;
    clk ck;
}

//----- constructor ----- 
accu::accu(char * name, 
           dfbfix & i, 
           dfbfix & o)
    : base(name)
{
    ipq = i.asSource(this);
    opq = o.asSink(this);

    _sig a("a", ck, dfix(0));
    _sig b("b");

    _accu.starts();
    a = a + b;
    _accu << "accu";
    _accu << ip(b, *ipq);
    _accu << op(a, *opq);
    _accu.check();
}

//----- simulation: run() ----- 
int accu::run()
{
    if (ipq->getSize() < 1) 
    {
```
In this example, the signal flowgraph \texttt{\_accu} is included into the private members of class \texttt{\_accu}.

9.7.Globals and utility functions for signal flowgraphs

The global variable \texttt{glbNumberOfSfg} contains the number of \texttt{sfg} objects that you have constructed in your present OCAPI/RT program. Given an \texttt{sfg()} object, you have also a number of utility member function calls.

- \texttt{getname()} returns the \texttt{char *} name of the signal flowgraph.
- \texttt{merge()} joins two signal flowgraphs.
- \texttt{getisig(int n)} returns a \texttt{sig *} that indicates which signal corresponds to input number \texttt{i} of the signal flowgraph. If 0 is returned, this input does not exist.
- \texttt{getiqueue(int n)} returns the queue (\texttt{dfbfix *}) assigned to input number \texttt{i} of the signal flowgraph. If 0 is returned, then this input does not exist.
- \texttt{getosig(int n)} returns a \texttt{sig *} that indicates which signal corresponds to output number \texttt{i} of the signal flowgraph. If 0 is returned, this output does not exist.
- \texttt{getoqueue(int n)} returns the queue (\texttt{dfbfix *}) assigned to output number \texttt{i} of the signal flowgraph. If 0 is returned, then this output does not exist.

You should keep in mind that a signal flowgraph is a data structure. The source code that you have written helps to build this data structure. However, a signal flowgraph is not executed by running your source code. Rather, it is interpreted by OCAPI/RT. You can print this data structure by means of the \texttt{cg(ostream)} member call.

For example, if you appended

\begin{verbatim}
    accu.cg(cout);
\end{verbatim}

to the "running-an-sfg-by-hand" example, then the following output would be produced:

\begin{verbatim}
sfg accu
    inputs  { b_2 }
    outputs { a_1 }
    code    {
        a_1 = a_1_at1 + b_2;
    };
\end{verbatim}
10. Finite state machines

With the aid of signals and signal flowgraphs, you are able to construct clock-cycle true data processing behavior. On top of this data processing, a control sequencing component can be added. Such a controller allows to execute signal flowgraphs conditionally. The controller is also the anchoring point for true timed system simulation, and for hardware code generation. A signal flowgraph embedded in an untimed block cannot be translated to a hardware processor: you have to describe the control component explicitly.

10.1. The ctlfsm and state classes

The controller model currently embedded in OCAPI/RT is a Mealy-type finite state machine. This type of FSM selects the transition to the next state based on the internal state and the previous output value.

In an OCAPI/RT description, you use a `ctlfsm` object to create such a controller. In addition, you make use of `state` objects to model controller states. The following example shows the use of these objects.

```cpp
#include "qlib.h"

void main()
{
    sfg dummy;
    dummy << "dummy";

    // create a finite state machine
    ctlfsm f;

    // give it a name
    f << "theFSM";

    // create 2 states for it
    state rst;
    state active;

    // give them a name
    rst    << "rst";
    active << "active";

    // identify rst as the initial state of ctlfsm f
    f << deflt(rst);

    // identify active as a plain state of ctlfsm f
    f << active;

    // create an unconditional transition from rst to active
    rst << allways << active;

    // create an unconditional transition from active to active,
    // executing the dummy sfg.
    active << allways << dummy << active;

    // show what’s inside f
    cout << f;
}
```
There are two states in this fsm, \textit{rst} and \textit{active}. Both are inserted in the fsm by means of the \texttt{<<} operator. In addition, the \texttt{rst} state is identified as the default state of the fsm, by embedding it into the \texttt{deflt} object. An fsm is allowed to have one default state. When the fsm is simulated, then the state at the start of the first clock cycle will be \texttt{rst}. In the hardware implementation, a \texttt{reset} pin will be added to the processor that is used to initialize the fsm’s state register with this state.

Two transitions are defined. A transition is written according to the template: starting state, conditions, actions, target state, all of this separated by the \texttt{<<} operator. The condition \texttt{always} is a default condition that evaluates to true. It is used to model unconditional transitions.

The last line of the example shows a simple operation you can do with an fsm. By relating it to the output stream, the following will appear on the screen when you compile and execute the example.

\begin{verbatim}
digraph g {  
  rst [shape=box];  
  rst->active;  
  active->active;  
}
\end{verbatim}

This output represent a textual format of the state transition diagram. The format is that of the \texttt{dotty} tool, which produces a graphical layout of your state transition diagram. \texttt{dotty} is commercial software available from AT&T. You cannot simulate a \texttt{ctfsm} object on itself. You must do this indirectly through the \texttt{sysgen} object, which is introduced in Chapter 12: Timed simulations.

\section*{10.2. The cnd class}

Besides the default condition \texttt{always}, you can use also boolean expressions of registered signals. The signals need to be registered because we are describing a Mealy-type fsm. You construct conditions through the \texttt{cnd} object, as shown in the next example.

\begin{verbatim}
#include "qlib.h"

void main() {
  clk       ck;  
  _sig      a("a", ck, dfix(0));  
  _sig      b("b", ck, dfix(0));  
  _sig      a_input("a_input");  
  _sig      b_input("b_input");  
  dfbfix    A("A");  
  dfbfix    B("B");

  sfg some_operation;  
  // some operations go here ...  

  sfg readcond;  
  readcond.starts();  
  a = a_input;  
  b = b_input;  
  readcond << "readcond";  
  readcond << ip(a_input,A);  
  readcond << ip(b_input,B);  
  readcond.check();  

  // create a finite state machine
\end{verbatim}
The first signal flowgraph `readcond` takes care of reading in two values `a` and `b` that are used in transition conditions. The sfg reads the signals `a` and `b` in through the intermediate signals `a_input` and `b_input`. This way, `a` and `b` are explicitly assigned in the signal flowgraph, and the semantical check `readcond.check()` will not complain about unassigned signals.

The fsm below it defines three states. Besides an initial state `rst` and an operative state `active`, a wait state `wait` is defined, that is entered when the input signal `a` is high. This is expressed by the `_cnd(a)` transition condition in the second fsm transition. You must use `_cnd()` instead of `cnd()` because of the same reason that you must use `_sig()` instead of `sig()`:

The underscore-type classes are empty boxes that allocate the objects that do the real work for you. This allocation is dynamic and independent of the C++ scope.

Once the wait state is entered, it can leave it only when the signals `a` or `b` go low. This is indicated in the transition condition of the third fsm transition. A `&&` operator is used to express the and condition. If the signals `a` and `b` remain high, then the wait state is not left. The transition condition of the last transition expresses this. It uses the logical not `!` and logical or `||` operators to express this.

The `readcond` signal flowgraph is executed at all transitions. This ensures that the signals `a` and `b` are updated every cycle. If you fail to do this, then the value of `a` and `b` will not change, potentially creating a deadlock.

To summarize, you can use either `allways` or a logical expression of `_cnd()` objects to express a transition condition. The signals use in the condition must be registers. This results in a Mealy-type fsm description. A FAQ is why condition signals must be registers, and whether they can be plain signals also. The answer is simple: no, they can’t. The fsm control object is a stand-alone machine that must be able to ’boot’ every clock cycle. During one execution cycle, it will first select the transition to take (based on conditions), and then execute the signal flowgraphs that are attached to this transition. If ‘immediate’ transition conditions had to be expressed, then the signals should be read in before the fsm transition is made, which is not possible: the execution of an sfg can only be done when a transition is selected, in other words: when the condition signals are known. Besides this semantical consideration, the registered-condition requirement will also prevent you from writing combinatorial control loops at the system level.
10.3. Utility functions for fsm objects

A number of utility functions on the `ctlfsm` and `state` classes are available for query purposes. This is only minimal: The objects are intended to be manipulated by the cycle scheduler and code generators.

```c
sfg action;
ctlfsm f;
state s1;
state s2;

f << deflt(s1);
f << s2;

s1 << allways << s2;
s2 << allways << action << s1;

// run through all the state in f
statelist *r;
for (r = f.first; r; r = r->next)
{
    ...
}

// print the number of states in f,
// print the number of transitions in f,
// print the name of f,
// print the number of sfg’s in f
cout << f.numstates() << "\n";
cout << f.numtransitions() << "\n";
cout << f.getname() << "\n";
cout << f.numactions() << "\n";

// print the name of a state
cout << s1.getname() << "\n";
```
11. The basic block for timed simulations

Using signals, signal flowgraphs, finite state machines and states, you can construct a timed description of a block. Having obtained such a description, it is convenient to merge it with the untimed description. This way, you will have one class that allows both timed and untimed simulation. Of course, this merging is a matter of writing style, and nothing forces you to actually have both a timed and untimed description for a block.

The basic block example, that was introduced in section Chapter 6: The basic block, will now be extended with a timed version. As before, both an include file and a code file will be defined. The include file, add.h, looks like

```c
#ifndef ADD_H
#define ADD_H

#include "qlib.h"

class add : public base
{
  public:
    //------ constructor ------
    add (char * name,
         FB & _in1,
         FB & _in2,
         FB & _o1);

    //------ untimed simulation ------
    int run();

    //------ timed simulation ------
    void define();
    ctfsm & fsm() { return _fsm; }

  private:
    FB *in1;
    FB *in2;
    FB *o1;
    ctfsm _fsm;
    sfg _add;
    state _go;
  }

#endif
```

The private members now also contain a control fsm object, in addition to signal flowgraph objects and states. If you feel this is becoming too verbose, you will find help in section Chapter 17: Faster description using macros that defines a macro set that significantly accelerates description entry.

In the public members, two additional member functions are declared: the `define()` function, which will setup the timed description data structure, and the `fsm()`, which returns a pointer to the fsm controller. Through this pointer, OCAPI/RT accesses everything it needs to do simulations and code generation.

The contents of the adder block will be described in add.cxx.

```c
#include "add.h"

//------ constructor ------
add::add(char * name,
```
FB & _in1,
FB & _in2,
FB & _o1
) : base(name)
{
in1 = _in1.asSource(this);
in2 = _in2.asSource(this);
o1 = _o1 .asSink (this);
define();
}

//------ untimed simulation: run() ------
int add::run()
{
...
}

//------ timed simulation: define() ------
void add::define()
{
  _sig i1("i1");
  _sig i2("i2");
  _sig ot("ot");

  _add << "add";
  _add.starts();
  ot = i1 + i2;
  _add << ip(i1, *in1);
  _add << ip(i2, *in2);
  _add << op(ot, *o1);

  _fsm << "fsm";
  _go << "go";

  _fsm << deflt(_go);
  _go << allways << _add << _go;
}

If the timed description uses also registers, then a pointer to the global clock must also be provided (OCAP/RT generates single-clock, synchronous hardware). The easiest way is to extend the constructor of `add` with an additional parameter `clk &ck`, that will also be passed to the `define` function.
12. Timed simulations

By obtaining timed descriptions for your untimed basic block, you are now ready to proceed to a
timed simulation. A timed simulation differs from an untimed one in that it proceeds clock cycle
by clock cycle. Concurrent behavior between different basic blocks is simulated on a
cycle-by-cycle basis. In contrast, in an untimed simulation, this concurrency is present on an
iteration by iteration basis.

12.1. The sysgen class

The `sysgen` object is for timed simulations the equivalent of a scheduler object for untimed
simulations. In addition, it also takes care of code and testbench generation, which explains
the name.

The sysgen class is used at the system level. The timed `add` class, defined in the previous
section, is used as an example to construct a system which uses untimed file sources and
sinks, and a timed `add` class.

```c
#include "qlib.h"
#include "add.h"

void main()
{
    dfbfix    i1("i1");
    dfbfix    i2("i2");
    dfbfix    o1("o1");
    src       SRC1("SRC1", i1, "SRC1");
    src       SRC2("SRC2", i2, "SRC2");
    add       ADD ("ADD", i1, i2, o1);
    snk       SNK1("SNK1", o1, "SNK1");

    sysgen S1("S1");
    S1 << SRC1;
    S1 << SRC2;
    S1 << ADD.fsm();
    S1 << SNK1;
    S1.setinfo(verbose);
    clk ck;
    int i;
    for (i=0; i<3; i++)
    {
        S1.run(ck);
    }
}
```

The simulation is set up as before with queue objects and basic blocks. Next, a `sysgen` object
is created, with name "S1". All basic blocks in the simulation are appended to the `sysgen`
objects by means of the `<<` operator. If a timed basic block is to be used, as for instance in
case of the `add` object, then the `fsm()` pointer must be presented to `sysgen` rather than the
basic block itself. A `sysgen` object knows how to run and combine both timed and untimed
objects. For the description shown above, untimed versions of the file sources and sink `src`
and `snk` will be used, while the timed version of the `add` object will be used.
Next, three clock cycles of the system are run. This is done by means of the \texttt{run(ck)} member function call of \texttt{sysgen}. The clock object \texttt{ck} is, because this simulation contains no registered signals, a dummy object. When running the simulator executable with stimuli file contents

\begin{verbatim}
SRC1   SRC2  -- not present in the file
---     ----  -- not present in the file
1 4
2 5
3 6
\end{verbatim}

you see the following appearing on the screen.

\begin{verbatim}
*** INFO: Defining block SRC1
*** INFO: Defining block SRC2
*** INFO: Defining block ADD
*** INFO: Defining block SNK1
fsm fsm: transition from go to go
add#0
add#1
  in         i1          1
  in         i2          4
  sig        ot          5
  out'       ot          5
fsm fsm: transition from go to go
add#0
add#1
  in         i1          2
  in         i2          5
  sig        ot          7
  out'       ot          7
fsm fsm: transition from go to go
add#0
add#1
  in         i1          3
  in         i2          6
  sig        ot          9
  out'       ot          9
\end{verbatim}

The debugging output produced is enabled by the \texttt{setinfo()} call on the \texttt{sysgen} object. The parameter \texttt{verbose} enables full debugging information. For each clock cycle, each fsm responds which transition it takes. The fsm of the \texttt{add} block is called "fsm", as is seen it makes transitions from the single state \texttt{go} to the obvious destination. Each signal flowgraph during this simulation is executed in two phases (below it is indicated why). During simulation, the value of each signal is printed.

### 12.2. Selecting the simulation verbosity

The \texttt{setinfo} member function call of \texttt{sysgen} selects the amount of debugging information that is produced during simulation. For values are available

- \texttt{silent} will cause no output at all. This can significantly speed up your simulation, especially for large systems containing several hundred of signal flowgraphs.
- \texttt{terse} will only print the transitions that fsm’s make.
- \texttt{verbose} will print detailed information on all signal updates.
- \texttt{regcontents} will print a list the values of registered signals that change during the current simulation. This is by far the most interesting option if you are debugging at the system level: when nothing happens, for instance when all your timed descriptions are
in some 'hold' mode, then no output is produced. When there is a lot of activity, then you will be able to track all registered signals that change.

For instance, the code fragment

```cpp
sysgen S("S");
S.setinfo(regcontents);

int cycle;
for (cycle=0; cycle < 100; cycle++)
{
    cout << " Cycle " << cycle << "\n";
    S.run(ck);
}
```

can produce an output as shown below.

```
> Cycle 18
  coef_ram_ir_2    0    1
  copy_step_flag   1    0
  ext_ready_out    1    0
  pc               15   16
  step_flag        1    0

> Cycle 19
  coef_ram_ir_2    1    0
  coef_wr_adr      12   13
  hold_pc          0    16
  pc               16   17
  pc_ctl_ir_1      1    0

> Cycle 20
  step_clock       0    1

> Cycle 21
  copy_step_flag   0    1
  prev_step_clock  0    1
  step_flag        0    1
```

12.3. Two phases are better

Although you will be saved from the details behind two-phase simulation, it is worthwhile to see the motivation behind it.

When you run an sfg 'by hand' using the run() method of an sfg, the simulation proceeds in one phase: read inputs, calculate, produce output. The sysgen object, on the other hand, uses a two-phase simulation mechanism.

The origin is the following. In the presence of feedback loops, your system data flow simulation will need initial values on the communication queues in order to start the simulation. However, the code generator assumes the communication queues will translate to wiring. Therefore, there will never be storage in the implementation of a communication queue to hold these initial values. OCAPI/RT works around this by producing these initial values at runtime. This gives rise to a two-phase simulation: in the first phase, initial values are produced, while in the second phase, they are consumed again. This process repeats every clock cycle.

The two-phase simulation mechanism is also able to detect combinatorial loops at the system level. If there exists such a loop, then the first phase of the simulation will not produce any initial value on the system interconnect. Consequently, in the second phase there will be at least one signal flowgraph that will not be able to complete execution in the
current clock cycle. In that case, OCAPI/RT will stop the simulation. Also, you get a list of all signal flowgraphs that have not completed the current clock cycle, in addition to the queue statistics that are attached to these signal flowgraphs.
13. Hardware code generation

This is it. This is why you have suffered all this C++ code typing: OCAPI/RT allows you to translate all timed descriptions to a synthesizable hardware description. Regarding implementation, you get the following in return for your coding efforts:

- For each timed description, you get a datapath .dsfg file, that can be entered into the Cathedral-3 datapath synthesis environment, converted to VHDL and postprocessed by Synopsys-dc logic synthesis.
- For each timed description, you also get a controller .dsfg file, which is synthesized through the same environment.
- You also get a glue cell, that interconnects the resulting datapath and controller VHDL file.
- You get a system interconnect file, that integrates all glue cells in your system. For this system interconnect file, you optionally can specify system inputs and outputs, scan chain interconnects, and RAM interconnects. The file is VHDL.
- Finally, you also get debug information files, that summarize the behavior of and ports on each processor.

Untimed blocks, of course, are not translated to hardware. The use of the actual synthesis environments will not be discussed in this section. It is assumed that you know what they do and/or that you have a manual for them.

13.1. The generate() call

The member call generate() performs the code generation for you. In the adder example, you just have to add

\[ S1.generate(); \]

at the end of the main function. If you would compile this description, and run it, then you would see things are not quite OK:

*** INFO: Generating System Link Cell
*** INFO: Component generation for S1
*** INFO: C++ currently defines 5 sig, 4 _sig, 1 sfg.
*** INFO: Generating FSMD fsm
*** INFO: FSMD fsm defines 1 instructions
DSFGgen: signal i1 has no wordlength spec.
DSFGgen: signal i2 has no wordlength spec.
DSFGgen: signal ot has no wordlength spec.
DSFGgen: not all signals were quantized. Aborting.
*** INFO: Auto-cleanup of sfg

Indeed, in the adder example up to now, nothing has been entered regarding wordlengths. During code generation, OCAPIRT does quite some consistency checking. The general advice in case of warnings and errors is: If you see an error or warning message, investigate it. When you synthesize code that showed a warning or error during generation, you will likely fail in the synthesis process too.

The add description is now extended with wordlengths. 8 bit wordlengths are chosen. You modify the add class to include the following changes.
```c++
void add::define()
{
  dfix wl(0, 8, 0);
  _sig i1("i1", wl);
  _sig i2("i2", wl);
  _sig ot("ot", wl);
  ...
}
```

After recompiling and rerunning the OCAPI/RT program, you now see:

```plaintext
*** INFO: Generating Systen Link Cell
*** INFO: Component generation for S1
*** INFO: C++ currently defines 5 sig, 4 _sig, 1 sfg.
*** INFO: Generating FSMD fsm
*** INFO: FSMD fsm defines 1 instructions
*** INFO: C++ currently defines 31 sig, 21 _sig, 3 sfg.
*** INFO: Auto-cleanup of sfg
```

In the directory where you ran this, you will find the following files:

- `fsm_dp.dsfg`, the datapath description of `add`
- `fsm fsm.dsfg`, the controller description of `add`
- `fsm.vhd`, the glue cell description of `add`
- `S1.vhd`, the system interconnect cell
- `fsm.ports`, a list of the I/O ports of `add`.

The glue cell `fsm.vhd` has the following contents (only the entity declaration part is shown).

```vhdl
-- Cath3 Processor for FSMD design fsm
library IEEE;
use IEEE.std_logic_1164.all;

entity fsm is
  port (
    reset :  in std_logic;
    clk :  in std_logic;
    i1 :  in std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 );
    i2 :  in std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 );
    ot : out std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 )
  );
end fsm;
```

Each processor has a reset pin, a clock pin, and a number of I/O ports, depending on the inputs and outputs defined in the signal flowgraphs contained in this processor. All signals are mapped to `std_logic` or `std_logic_vector`. The reset pin is used for synchronous reset of the embedded finite state machine. If you need to initialize registered signals in the datapath, then you have to describe this explicitly in a signal flowgraph, and execute this upon the first transition out of the initial state.

The `fsm.ports` file, indicates which ports are read in in each transition. In the example of the `add` class, there is only one transition, which results in the following `.ports` file:

```
******************** SFG fsmgogo0 ********************
Port # I/O  Port     Q
 1  I    i1     i1
 2  I    i2     i2
 1  O    ot     ot
```

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13.2. System cell refinements

The system link cell incorporates all glue cells of your current timed system description. These glue cells are connected if they read/write from the same system queue. There are some refinements possible on the *sysgen* object that will also allow you to indicate system level inputs and outputs, scan chains, and RAM connections.

System inputs and outputs are indicated with the *inpad()* and *outpad()* member calls of *sysgen*. In the example, this is specified as

```vhd
sysgen S1("S1");
dfix b8(0,8,0);
S1.inpad (i1, b8);
S1.inpad (i2, b8);
S1.outpad(o1, b8);
```

Making these connections will make the *i1, i2, o1* signals appear in the entity declaration of the system cell *S1*. The entity declaration inside of the file *S1.vhd* thus looks like

```vhd
entity S1 is
    port(
        reset : in std_logic;
        clk : in std_logic;
        i1 : in std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 );
        i2 : in std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 );
        o1 : out std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 )
    );
end S1;
```

Scan chains can be added at the system level, too. For each scan chain you must indicate which processors it should include. Suppose you have three basic blocks (including a timed description and registers) with names *BLOCK1, BLOCK2, BLOCK3*. You attach the blocks to two scan chains using the following code.

```vhd
scanchain SCAN1("scan1");
scanchain SCAN2("scan2");
SCAN1.addscan(& BLOCK1.fsm());
SCAN1.addscan(& BLOCK2.fsm());
SCAN2.addscan(& BLOCK3.fsm());
```

The *sysgen* object identifies the required scan chain connections through the *fsm* objects that are assigned to it. In order to have reasonable circuit test times, you should not include more than 300 flip-flops in each scan chain. If you have a processor that contains more than 300 flip-flops, then you should use another scan chain connection strategy.

Finally, you can generate code for the standard untimed block RAM. There are two possible interconnection mechanisms: the first will include the untimed RAM blocks in *sysgen* as internal components of the system link cell. The second will include the RAM blocks as external components. This latter method requires you to construct a new 'system-system link cell', that includes the RAM entities and the system link cell in a larger structure. However, it might be required in case you have to remap the standard RAM interface, or introduce additional asynchronous timing logic.
An example of the two methods is shown next

```vhdl
ram RAM1("ram1", addr1, di1, do1, wr, rd, 128);
ram RAM2("ram2", addr2, di2, do2, wr, rd, 128);
```

// types of address and data bus
dfix addrtype(0, 7, 0);
dfix dattype (0, 4, 0);

```vhdl
sysgen S1("S1");
```

```vhdl
// define an external ram
S1.extern_ram(RAM1, addrtype, dattype);
```

```vhdl
// define an internal ram
S1.intern_ram(RAM2, addrtype, dattype);
```

### 13.3. Pitfalls for code generation

As always, there are a number of pitfalls when things get complex. You should watch the following when diving into code generation.

OCAPI/RT tries to generate nicely formatted code, that you can investigate. To help you in this process, also the actual signal names that you have specified are regenerated in the VHDL and DSFG code. This implies that you have to stay away from VHDL and DSFG keywords, or else you will get an error from either Cathedral-3 or Synopsys. An exhaustive list is not yet made. But you can be sure that if you use names like 'port', 'in', 'out', 'for' and the like, that you will run into trouble. In case of doubt, append some numerical suffix to your signal name, like `inp1`.

The mapping of the fixed point library to hardware is, in the present release, minimal. First of all, although registered signals allow you to specify an initial value, you cannot rely on this for the hardware circuit. Registers, when powered on, take on a random state. Therefore, make sure that you specify the initialization sequence of your datapath. A second fixed point pitfall is that the hardware support for the different quantization schemes is lacking. It is assumed that you finally will use truncated quantization on the lsb-side and wrap-around quantization on the msb-side of all signals. The other quantization schemes require additional hardware to be included. If you really need, for instance, saturated msb quantization, then you will have to describe it in terms of the default quantization.

Finally, the current set of hardware operators in Cathedral-3 is designed for signed representations. They work with unsigned representations also as long as you do no use relational operations (<, > and the like). In this last case, you should implement the unsigned operation as a signed one with one extra bit.
14. Verification and testbenches

Once you have obtained a gate level implementation of your circuit, it is necessary to verify the synthesis result. OCAPI/RT helps you with this by generating testbenches and testbench stimuli for you while you run timed simulations and do code generations.

The example of the add class introduced previously is picked up again, and testbench generation capability is included to the OCAPI/RT description.

14.1. Generation of testbench vectors

The next example performs a three cycle simulation of the add class and generates a testbench vectors for it.

```c
#include "qlib.h"
#include "add.h"

void main()
{
    dfbfix    i1("i1");
    dfbfix    i2("i2");
    dfbfix    o1("o1");

    src       SRC1("SRC1", i1, "SRC1");
    src       SRC2("SRC2", i2, "SRC2");
    add       ADD("ADD", i1, i2, o1);
    snk       SNK1("SNK1", o1, "SNK1");

    sysgen    S1("S1");

    S1 << SRC1;
    S1 << SRC2;
    S1 << ADD.fsm();
    S1 << SNK1;

    ADD.fsm().tb_enable();

    clk ck;
    int i;
    for (i=0; i<3; i++)
    {
        S1.run(ck);
    }

    ADD.fsm().tb_data();
}
```

Just before the timed simulation starts, you enable the generation of testbench vectors by means of a `tb_enable()` member call for each fsm that requires testbench vectors.

During simulation, the values on the input and output ports of the add processor are recorded. After the simulation is done, the testbenches are generated using a `tb_data()` member function call.

Testbench generation leaves three data files behind:

- `fsm_tb.dat` contains binary vectors of all inputs of the add processor. It is intended to be read in by the VHDL simulator as stimuli.
- *fsm_tb.dat_hex* contains hexadecimal vectors of all inputs and outputs of the *add* processor. It contains the output that should be produced by the VHDL simulator when the synthesis was successful.

- *fsm_tb.dat_info* documents the contents of the stimuli files by saying which stimuli vector corresponds to which signal

When compiling and running this OCAPI/RT program, the following appears on screen.

```plaintext
*** INFO: Defining block SRC1
*** INFO: Defining block SRC2
*** INFO: Defining block ADD
*** INFO: Defining block SNK1
*** INFO: Creating stimuli monitor for testbench of FSMD fsm
*** INFO: Generating stimuli data file for testbench fsm_tb.
*** INFO: Testbench fsm_tb has 3 vectors.
```

Afterwards, you can take a look at each of the three generated testbenches.

```plaintext
-- file: fsm_tb.dat
00000001 00000100
00000010 00000101
00000011 00000110

-- file: fsm_tb.dat_hex
01 04 05
02 05 07
03 06 09

-- file: fsm_tb.dat_info
Stimuli for fsm_tb contains 3 vectors for
  i1_stim  read
  i2_stim  read

Next columns occur only in _hex.dat file and are outputs
  o1_stim  write
```

### 14.2. Generation of testbench drivers

To generate a testbench driver, simply call the *tb_enable()* member function of the *add fsm* before you initiate code generation. You will end up with a VHDL file *fsm_tb.vhd* that contains the following driver.

```vhdl
-- Test Bench for FSMD design fsm

library IEEE;
use IEEE.std_logic_1164.all;

use IEEE.std_logic_textio.all;
use std.textio.all;

library clock;
use clock.clock.all;

entity fsm_tb is
  end fsm_tb;
end entity fsm_tb;

architecture rtl of fsm_tb is
  signal reset : std_logic;
  signal clk : std_logic;
  signal i1 : std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 );
  signal i2 : std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 );
  signal ot : std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 );
```

component fsm
port (reset : in std_logic;
     clk : in std_logic;
     i1 : in std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 );
     i2 : in std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 );
     ot : out std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 )
);
end component;

begin
    crystal(clk, 50 ns);
    fsm_dut : fsm
    port map (reset => reset,
              clk => clk,
              i1 => i1,
              i2 => i2,
              ot => ot);
ini: process
begin
    reset <= '1';
    wait until clk'event and clk = '1';
    reset <= '0';
    wait;
end process;
input: process
file stimuli : text is in "fsm_tb.dat";
variable aline : line;
file stimulo : text is out "fsm_tb.sim_out";
variable oline : line;
variable v_i1 : std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 );
variable v_i2 : std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 );
variable v_ot : std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 );
variable v_i1_hx : std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 );
variable v_i2_hx : std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 );
variable v_ot_hx : std_logic_vector ( 7 downto 0 );
begin
    wait until reset'event and reset = '0';
    loop
        if (not(endfile(stimuli))) then
            readline(stimuli, aline);
            read(aline, v_i1);
            read(aline, v_i2);
        else
            assert false
            report "End of input file reached"
            severity warning;
        end if;
        i1 <= v_i1;
        i2 <= v_i2;
        wait for 50 ns;
        v_ot := ot;
        v_i1_hx := v_i1;
        v_i2_hx := v_i2;
        v_ot_hx := v_ot;
        hwrite(oline, v_i1_hx);
        write(oline, ' ');
        hwrite(oline, v_i2_hx);
        write(oline, ' ');
        hwrite(oline, v_ot_hx);
        write(oline, ' ');
        writeln(stimulo, oline);
        wait until clk'event and clk = '1';
    end loop;
end process;
end rtl;
configuration tbc_rtl of fsm_tb is
  for rtl
    for all : fsm
      use entity work.fsm(structure);
    end for;
  end for;
end tbc_rtl;

The testbench uses one additional library, clock, which contains the crystal component. This component is a simple clock generator that drives a 50% duty cycle clk.

This testbench will generate a file fsm_tb.sim_out. After running the testbench in VHDL, this file should be exactly the same as the fsm_tb.dat_hex. You can use the unix diff command to check this. The only possible differences can occur in the first few simulation cycles, if the VHDL simulator initializes the registers to ‘X’.

Using automatic testbench generation greatly speedups the verification process. You should consider using it whenever you are into code generation.
15. Compiled code simulations

For large designs, simulation speed can become prohibitive. The restricting factor of OCAPI/RT is that the signal flowgraph data structures are interpreted at runtime. In addition, runtime quantization (fixed point simulation) takes up quite some CPU power.

OCAPI/RT allows you to generate a dedicated C++ simulator, that runs compiled code instead of interpreted code. Also, additional optimizations are done on the fixed point simulation. The result is a simulator that runs one to two orders of magnitude faster then the interpreted OCAPI/RT simulation. This speed increase adds up to the order of magnitude that interpreted OCAPI/RT already gains over event-driven VHDL simulation.

As an example, a 75Kgate design was found to run at 55 cycles per second (on a HP/9000). This corresponds to 4.1 million gates per second, and motivates why C++ is the way to go for system synthesis.

15.1. Generating a compiled code simulator

The compiled code generator is integrated into the sysgen object. There is one member function, compiled(), that will generate this simulator for you.

```cpp
#include "qlib.h"
#include "add.h"

void main()
{
    dfbfix i1("i1");
    dfbfix i2("i2");
    dfbfix o1("o1");

    add ADD("ADD", i1, i2, o1);

    sysgen S1("S1");
    S1 << ADD.fsm();
    S1.compiled();
}
```

In this simple example, a compiled code generator is made for a design containing only one FSM. The generator allows to include several fsm blocks, in addition to untimed blocks.

When this program is compiled and run, it leaves behind a file S1_ccs.cxx, that contains the dedicated simulator. For the OCAPI/RT user, the simulator defines one procedure, one_cycle(), that simulates one cycle of the system.

When calling this procedure, it also produces debugging output similar to the setinfo(regcontents) call for ctrlfsm objects. This procedure must be linked to a main program that will execute the simulation.

If an untimed block is present in the system, then it will be included in the dedicated simulator. In order to declare it, you must provide a member function CCSdecl(ofstream &) that generates the required C++ declaration. As an example, the basic RAM block declares itself as follows:
This code enables the \texttt{ram} to reproduce the declaration by which it was originally constructed in the interpreted OCAPI/RT program. Every untimed block that inherits from \texttt{base}, and that you wish to include in the compiled code simulator must use a similar \texttt{CCSdecl} function.

### 15.2. Compiling and running a compiled code simulator

The compiled code simulator is compiled and linked in the same way as a normal OCAPI/RT program. You must however also provide a \texttt{main} function that drives this simulator.

The following code contains an example driver for the \texttt{add} compiled code simulator.

```c++
#include "qlib.h"

void one_cycle();

extern FB i1;
extern FB i2;
extern FB o1;

void main()
{
    i1 << dfix(1) << dfix(2) << dfix(3);
    i2 << dfix(4) << dfix(5) << dfix(6);
    one_cycle();
}
```
When run, this program will produce the same results as before. In contrast to the compiled simulation of your MPEG-4 image processor, you will not be able to notice any speed increase on this small example.
16. Faster communications

OCAPI/RT uses queues as a means to communicate during simulation. These queues however take up CPU power for queue management. To save this power, there is an additional queue type, wireFB, which is used for the simulation of point-to-point wiring connections.

16.1. The dfbfix_wire class

A wireFB does not move data. In contrast, it is related to a registered driver signal. At any time, the value read of this queue is the value defined by the registered signal. Because of this signal requirement, a wireFB cannot be used for untimed simulations. The following example of an accumulator shows how you can use a wireFB, or the equivalent dfbfix_wire.

```c
#include "qlib.h"

void main()
{
    clk ck;

    _sig a("a", ck, dfix(0));
    _sig b("b");

    dfbfix_wire A("A", a);
    dfbfix      B("B");

    sfg accu;
    accu.starts();
    a = a + b;
    accu << "accu";
    accu << ip(b, B);
    accu << op(a, A);
    accu.check();

    B << dfix(1) << dfix(2) << dfix(3);
    while (B.getSize())
    {
        accu.eval(cout);
        accu.tick(ck);
    }
}
```

A wireFB is identical in use as a normal FB. Only, for each wireFB, you indicate a registered driver signal in the constructor.

16.2. Interconnect strategies

The wireFB object is related to the interconnect strategy that you use in your system. An interconnect strategy includes a decision on bus-switching, bus-storage, and bus-arbitration. OCAPI/RT does not solve this problem for you: it depends on your application what the right interconnection strategy is.

One default style of interconnection provided by OCAPI/RT is the point-to-point, register driven bus scheme. This means that every bus carries only one signal from one processor to another. In addition, bus storage in included in the processor that drives the bus.
More complex interconnect strategies, like the one used in Cathedral-2, are also possible, but will have to be described in OCAPI explicitly. Thus, the freedom of target architecture is not without cost. In [Chapter 18: Meta Code generation] a solution to this specification problem is presented.
17. Faster description using macros

Up to now, every C++ example was given without recurring to accelerated description techniques using macros. OCAPI/RT provides however a set of macros that saves you from a lot of extra typing.

17.1. Macros for signals, signal flowgraphs and queues

The following macros are used for signal and signal flowgraph definition.

```c
dfix typ(0, 8, 4);
clk  ck;

// define a signal a with name "a"
SIG(a);
// define a signal a with name "a" and fixed wordlength w
SIGW(a, typ);
// define a constant signal
SIGC(a, dfix(3));
// define a constant, casted signal to use in signal expressions
W(typ, 0.26);
// define a clocked signal
SIGCK(a, ck, typ);

// define a dynamically allocated signal flowgraph
// and make it the current one
SFG(r);
// define an input for the current sfg
IN(signal, queue);
// define an output for the current sfg
OUT(signal, queue);

// define a queue g with name "g"
Q(g);
// read in the queue g from file "p.dat"
READQ(g, "p.dat");
// write out the queue k to file "p.dat"
WRITEQ(k, "p.dat");
```

The accumulator example signal flowgraph that was introduced can be described using these macros as follows.

```c
#include "qlib.h"

void main()
{
    clk ck;

    SIG(a, ck, dfix(0));
    SIG(b);
    Q(A);
    Q(B);
    SFG(accu);
    a = a + b;
    IN(b, B);
    OUT(a, A);
    B << dfix(1) << dfix(2) << dfix(3);
    while (B.getSize())
```

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17.2. Macros for finite state machines

As for signals, several macros allow you to speed up entry of the fsm descriptions. These are especially intended to clarify the description.

```c
ctlfsm fsm;
// set the current fsm
FSM(fsm);

// dynamically create a new state
STATE(s1);

// dynamically create the default state
INITIAL(s0);

// define an unconditional transition
SFG(action);

AT(s0) ALWAYS DO(action) GOTO(s1);

// define a conditional transition
SIGCK(a, ck, dfix(0));

AT(s0) ON(!_cnd(a)) DO(action) GOTO(s1);
```

The use of dynamic allocation for signal flowgraphs and states saves you specification effort when writing down a timed description. The adder timed description, shown earlier, can be described in a more compact way as follows

```c
------ in add.h
#ifndef ADD_H
#define ADD_H

#include "qlib.h"

class add : public base
{
public:
    //------- constructor -------
    add (char * name,
         FB & _in1,
         FB & _in2,
         FB & _o1);
    //------- untimed simulation ------
    int run();
    //------- timed simulation ------
    void define();
    ctlfsm & fsm() { return _fsm; };
private :
    FB * in1;
    FB * in2;
    FB * o1;
    ctlfsm _fsm;
};
#endif
```
----- in add.cxx
#include "add.h"

//----- constructor -----
add::add(char *    name,
FB &      _in1,
FB &      _in2,
FB &       _o1
    ) : base(name)
{
    in1 = _in1.asSource(this);
    in2 = _in2.asSource(this);
    o1  = _o1 .asSink  (this);
    define();
}

//----- untimed simulation: run() -----  
int add::run()
{
    ...
}

//----- timed simulation: define() -----  
void add::define()
{
    SIG(i1);
    SIG(i2);
    SIG(ot);

    SFG(_add);
    ot = i1 + i2;
    IN(i1, *in1);
    IN(i2, *in2);
    OUT(ot, *o1);

    FSM(_fsm);
    INITIAL(go);

    AT(go) ALWAYS DO(_add) GOTO(go);
}

17.3. Supermacros for the standard interconnect

The standard interconnect scheme allows an even greater improvement of specification speed. These macros make assumptions on the signal naming of system and block interconnect to save you from most of the declarations in a timed description. First the macros are summarized, next an example is given.

// in the class declaration .h file as private members
// plain dfbfix connections
PRT(p);
// dfbfix_wire connections
REG(p);

// as the class constructor parameters
// plain dfbfix
_PRRT(p);
// dfbfix_wire
_GRREG(p);

// as inherited class constructors (after :base(name))
As the example, we rewrite the accumulator timed description to accumulate a stream of input signals.

--- in accu.h
 ifndef ACCU_H
 define ACCU_H

 include "qlib.h"

class accu : public base {

 public:
  //------ constructor ------
  accu(char * name,
       clk & ck,
       _PRT (i1),
       _REG (o1));

  //------ timed simulation ------
  define (clk &ck);
  ctlfsm & fsm() { return _fsm; };

 private :
  PRT (i1);
  REG (o1);
  ctlfsm _fsm;
};
#endif

--- in accu.cxx
 include "accu.h"

dfix typ(0,8,0);

//------ constructor ------
accu::accu(char * name,
            clk & ck,
            _PRT (i1),
            _REG (o1)
) : base(name),
     IS_SIG(i1, typ),
     IS_REG(o1, ck, typ)
{
  IS_IP(i1);
  IS_RG(o1);
  define(ck);
}
void accu::define(clk &ck)
{
  SFG(rst);
  o1 = dfix(0);
  PUT(o1);

  SFG(go);
  o1 = o1 + i1;
  GET(i1);
  PUT(o1);

  FSM(_fsm);
  INITIAL(rst);
  STATE(go);

  AT(rst) ALWAYS DO(rst) GOTO(go);
  AT(go) ALWAYS DO(go) GOTO(go);
}

The macros hide a significant amount of declarations. In addition, they do internal renaming, such that for example a state go is distinguished from a signal flowgraph go.
18. Meta-code generation

OCAPI/RT internally uses meta-code generation. With this, it is meant that there are code generators that generate new \textit{fsm}, \textit{sfg} and \textit{sig} objects which in turn can be translated to synthesizable code.

Meta-code generation is a powerful method to increase the abstraction level by which a specification can be made. This way, it is also possible to make parametrized descriptions, eventually using conditions. VHDL is not suited to express conditional structure. You really need some generator-method like the meta-code generation of OCAPI/RT to do this. Therefore, it is the key method of soft-chip components, which are software programs that translate themselves to a wide range of implementations, depending on the user requirements.

The meta-code generation mechanism is also available to you as a user. To demonstrate this, a class will be presented that generates an ASIP datapath decoder.

18.1. An ASIP datapath idiom

An ASIP datapath, when described as a timed description within OCAPI/RT, will consist of a number of signal flowgraphs and a finite state machine. The signal flowgraphs express the different functions to be executed by the datapath. The \textit{fsm} description is a degenerated one, that will use one transition per decoded instruction. The transition condition is expressed by the ’instruction’ input, and selects the appropriate signal flowgraph for execution.

Because the finite state machine has a fixed, but parametrizable structure, it is subject for meta-code generation. You can construct a \textit{decoder} object, that generates the \textit{fsm} for you. This will allow compact specification of the instruction set.

First, the \textit{decoder} object (which is present in OCAPI/RT) itself is presented

```cpp
-- the include file
#define MAXINS 100
#include "qlib.h"

class decoder : public base
{
  public:
    decoder(char *name, clk &ck, dfbfix &insq);
    void dec(int _numinstr);
    ctrlfsm &fsm();
    void dec(int _code, sfg &);
    void dec(int _code, sfg &, sfg &);
    void dec(int _code, sfg &, sfg &, sfg &);
  private :
    char *name;
    clk *ck;
    dfbfix *insq;
    int inswidth;
    int numinstr;
    int codes[MAXINS];
    ctrlfsm _fsm;
    state active;

    sfg decode;
    _sigarray *ir;
    cnd * deccnd(int );
    void decchk(int );
};
```
-- the .cxx file
#include "decoder.h"

static int numbits(int w)
{
    int bits = 0;
    while (w) {
        bits++;
        w = w >> 1;
    }
    return bits;
}

int bitset(int bitnum, int n)
{
    return (n & (1 << bitnum));
}

decoder::decoder(char *name, clk &ck, dfbfix &insq) : base(name)
{
    name     = _name;
    insq     = _insq.asSource(this);
    ck       = &ck;
    numinstr = 0;
    inswidth = 0;
    _fsm << _name;
    //  active << strapp(name,"_go_"));
    active << "go";
    _fsm << deflt(active);
}

void decoder::dec(int n)
{
    // define a decoder that decodes n instructions
    // instruction numbers are 0 to n-1
    // create also the instruction register
    if (!(n>0))
    {
        cerr << "*** ERROR: decoder " << name << " must have at least one instruction\n";
        exit(0);
    }
    inswidth = numbits(n-1);
    if (n > MAXINS)
    {
        cerr << "*** ERROR: decoder " << name << " exceeds decoding capacity\n";
        exit(0);
    }
    dfix bit(0,1,0,dfix::ns);
    ir = new _sigarray((char *) strapp(name,"_ir"), inswidth, ck, bit);
    decode.starts();
    int i;
    SIGW(irw, dfix(0, inswidth, 0, dfix::ns));
    for (i=0; i<inswidth; i++)
    {
        if (i)
        {
            (*ir)[i] = cast(bit, irw >> _sig(dfix(i,inswidth,0,dfix::ns))));
        }
        else
        {
            (*ir)[i] = cast(bit, irw);
        }
    }
    decode << strapp("decod", name);
    decode << ip(irw, *insq);
}

void decoder::dechk(int n)
{
    // check if the decoder can decode this instruction
    int i;
    if (!inswidth)
    {
        cerr << "*** ERROR: decoder "
    }
name must first define an instruction width\n};
exit(0);
}
if (n > ((1 << inswidth)-1))
{
  cerr << "*** ERROR: decoder "
  << name << " cannot decode code " << n << "\n";
  exit(0);
}
for (i=0; i<numinstr; i++)
{
  if (n == codes[i])
  {
    cerr << "*** ERROR: decoder "
    << name << " decodes code " << n << " twice\n";
    exit(0);
  }
  codes[numinstr] = n;
  numinstr++;
}
cnd *decoder::deccnd(int n)
{
  // create the transition condition that corresponds to
  // the instruction number n
  int i;
  cnd *cresult = 0;
  if (bitset(0, n))
  {
    cresult = _cnd((*ir)[0]);
  }
  else
  {
    cresult = (!_cnd((*ir)[0]));
  }
  for (i = 1; i < inswidth; i++)
  {
    if (bitset(i, n))
    {
      cresult = *(cresult && _cnd((*ir)[i]));
    }
    else
    {
      cresult = *(cresult && !_cnd((*ir)[i]));
    }
  }
  return cresult;
}
void decoder::dec(int n, sfg &s)
{
  // enter an instruction that executes one sfg
  decchk(n);
  active << *deccnd(n) << decode << s << active;
}
void decoder::dec(int n,
  sfg &s1,
  sfg &s2)
{
  // enter an instruction that executes two sfgs
  decchk(n);
  active << *deccnd(n) << decode << s1 << s2 << active;
}
void decoder::dec(int n,
  sfg &s1,
  sfg &s2,
  sfg &s3)
{
  // enter an instruction that executes three sfgs
  decchk(n);
  active << *deccnd(n) << decode << s1 << s2 << s3 << active;
}
The main principles of generation are the following. Each instruction for the ASIP decoder is defined as a number, in addition to one to three signal flowgraphs that need to be executed when this instruction is decoded. The decoder object keeps track of the instruction numbers already used and warns you if you introduce a duplicate. When the instruction number is unique, it is split up into a number of instruction bits, and a fsm transition condition is constructed from these bits.

18.2. The ASIP datapath at work

The use of this object is quite simple. In a timed description were you want to use the decoder instead of a plain fsm, you inherit from this decoder object rather then from the base class. Next, instead of the fsm description, you give the instruction list and the required signal flowgraphs to execute.

As an example, an add/subtract ASIP datapath is defined. We select addition with instruction number 0, and subtraction with instruction number 1. The following code (that also uses the supermacros) shows the specification. The inheritance to decoder also establishes the connection to the instruction queue.

```cpp
class asip_dp : public decoder
{
  public:
    asip_dp   (char *    name,
                clk &     ck,
                FB &      ins,
                _PRT      (in1),
                _PRT(in2),
                _PRT(o1));
  
  private :  
    PRT  (in1);  
    PRT  (in2);  
    PRT  (o1 );
};
```

```cpp
-- code file
#include "asip_dp.h"

dfix typ(0,8,0);

asip_dp::asip_dp(char *    name,
                 clk &     ck,
                 FB &      ins,
                 _PRT      (in1),
                 _PRT(in2),
                 _PRT(o1)) : decoder(name, ck, ins),
               IS_SIG(in1, typ),
               IS_SIG(in2, typ),
               IS_SIG(o1, typ)
{
  IS_IP(in1);
}
```
IS_IP(in2);
IS_OP(o1);

SFG(add);
GET(in1);
GET(in2);
o1 = in1 + in2;
PUT(o1);

SFG(sub);
GET(in1);
GET(in2);
o1 = in1 - in2;
PUT(o1);

dec(2); // decode two instructions
dec(0, SFGID(add));
dec(1, SFGID(sub));
}
## 19. Summary of classes and functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dfix</td>
<td>dfix()</td>
<td>floating point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dfix</td>
<td>dfix(double v)</td>
<td>initialized floating point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dfix</td>
<td>dfix(double v, int W, int L)</td>
<td>initialized fixed point, width W, fraction L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dfix</td>
<td>dfix(double v, int W, int L, int rep, int ovf, int rnd)</td>
<td>initialized fixed point with quantization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dfix</td>
<td>dfix + dfix</td>
<td>addition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dfix</td>
<td>dfix - dfix</td>
<td>subtraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dfix</td>
<td>dfix * dfix</td>
<td>multiplication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dfix</td>
<td>dfix / dfix</td>
<td>division</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dfix</td>
<td>dfix += dfix</td>
<td>in-place addition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dfix</td>
<td>dfix -= dfix</td>
<td>in-place subtraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dfix</td>
<td>dfix *= dfix</td>
<td>in-place multiplication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dfix</td>
<td>dfix /= dfix</td>
<td>in-place division</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dfix</td>
<td>abs(dfix)</td>
<td>absolute value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dfix</td>
<td>dfix &lt;&lt; dfix</td>
<td>left shift</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dfix</td>
<td>dfix &gt;&gt; dfix</td>
<td>right shift</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dfix</td>
<td>dfix &lt;&lt;= dfix</td>
<td>in-place left shift</td>
</tr>
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