

**A Hardware Implementation for Component Failure Handling
in Isotach Token Managers**

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Submitted by
Christopher F. Batten
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On my honor as a University student, on this assignment I have neither given nor received unauthorized aid as defined by the Honor Guidelines for Papers in TCC Courses.

Signed _____

Approved: _____ Date: _____

Ronald Williams (Technical Advisor)

Approved: _____ Date: _____

Kathryn Neeley (TCC Advisor)

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Abstract

Isotach networks are a unique class of networks currently being developed at the University of Virginia under the guidance of Professor Paul Reynolds and Dr. Craig Williams of the computer science department. These networks make powerful guarantees concerning the timing of messages sent between distinct processors, and have the potential to significantly impact distributed processing. The isotach research group has already constructed a software prototype, which is being used for performance analysis and as a platform for further development. In order to reduce the overhead involved in using an isotach network, the major isotach components have also been implemented in hardware under the guidance of Professor Ronald Williams. The preliminary prototypes included only limited fault tolerance capabilities, and specifically lacked the ability to handle failed isotach devices. Therefore, my undergraduate thesis project was to design and implement three modifications necessary for the token manager, an isotach device, to detect and handle failed neighbors.

Isotach networks are based on a system of logical time. Logical time is a method for decentralizing a global clock, and it allows processes in an isotach network to predict when a message will logically reach a destination. The isotach prototypes implement logical time through two isotach specific components: token managers (TMs) and switch interface units (SIUs). Each token manager is located at a network switch and is responsible for advancing logical time. Each SIU is located in between the network and a host and is responsible for buffering messages and delivering them to the host at the appropriate logical time.

In the original prototypes, a TM or SIU failure caused a fatal halt in logical time. I addressed this failure mode through three TM hardware modifications. The *first modification* involved adding the necessary timeout logic for a TM to detect when a neighbor has permanently failed and to allow the TM to sever the failed neighbor from the isotach network. The *second modification* enables the TM to send a one-bit error signal to all hosts. Special consideration was paid to the timely delivery and reset of this error signal. This signal bit notification is insufficient for a host to determine exactly which TM has failed, and thus the *third modification* allows a host to send a special message to a TM asking the TM if it is still operational. By sending these messages to all of the TMs, a host can determine which specific TM has failed. All three modifications were successfully implemented and functionally simulated.

The logical dead space problem is an important anomaly found in systems that attempt to handle failed TMs by logically severing them from the network. The problem arises because tokens and isotach messages propagate through the network differently, and consequently isotach messages can freely pass through logically dead areas of the network while tokens cannot. The logical dead space problem can allow isotach messages to violate the fundamental isotach synchronization guarantees. This problem was one of the primary reasons the isotach architects did not address failed network components in the original prototypes. All three of the modifications can work together to adequately address the logical dead space problem by giving hosts the information necessary to determine which isotach messages are valid and which have passed through dead space.

The project has directly impacted the isotach research group by contributing to the group's year long focus on fault tolerance. More specifically, I have outlined a specific implementation for detecting and handling failed neighbors, and I have also clarified and addressed the logical dead space problem. Even if the design is not actually used, the project has still impacted the group by encouraging discussion on fault tolerance issues. Fault tolerance is a major concern when examining isotach networks for use in critical applications. My undergraduate thesis project has contributed to the fundamental goal of creating robust and useful isotach networks.

Glossary

asynchronous

Tasks are executed independently, and thus the temporal relationship between tasks is not predictable. Asynchronous systems lack shared signals such as clocks and semaphores.

atomicity

Property where tasks appear to be executed as an indivisible unit and are not interrupted by other tasks.

barrier

Isotach synchronization mechanism that allows one host to wait until a specific number of hosts reach the same barrier in their execution.

centralized locks

Method for concurrency control in a distributed environment. A single machine, known as the centralized lock manager, is responsible for causal guarantees and therefore hosts must talk to the centralized lock manager before sending a message.

comparator

Logic component that takes two bit strings as input and outputs a one if they are identical and otherwise outputs a zero.

counter

Logic component that outputs a binary number that is incremented by one on every rising edge of the clock input.

dead space

Area of the network where isotach logical time is no longer valid and thus assumptions concerning isochronicity and sequential consistency can no longer be made. The inverse of the LVR.

deadlock

Situation where multiple processing units cannot continue since each is waiting for the other to do something.

distributed system

Collection of independent (usually heterogeneous) machines that work together for some common goal.

epoch

Higher order unit of isotach logical time that must be greater than the diameter of the network. At each epoch boundary, TMs clear their signal registers and SIUs deliver all signals to their respective hosts.

failure state machine (FSM)

TM state machine that controls the failure counter, valid bits, and issuing the error notification. Part of the first and second modifications.

failure threshold

Multiple of the scale that is related to detecting failed neighbors. It is one more than the number of reminder waves to send before declaring a neighbor dead.

fault tolerance

Ability of a system to continue operating (possibly in a reduced capacity) after a software or hardware failure.

field programmable gate array (FPGA)

Chip that allows logic to be programmed into it after fabrication. Usually made up of an array of logic modules. Both the logic modules themselves and the interconnect between modules are programmable.

first in first out (FIFO)	Buffer where items are taken out in the same order they arrived.
flit	Eight bit Myrinet routing entity that tells a switch how the attached message should be routed through the switch. Each switch strips away one routing flit.
galileo	Software tool that synthesizes hardware logic gates from VHDL for a specific family of FPGAs.
host	Machine in a distributed system responsible for performing application level tasks. The fundamental processing entity.
input valid state machine (IVSM)	TM state machine that monitors incoming words from the input FIFO and determines if they are a valid part of a token or a host-to-TM ping.
isochronicity	Property where a task appears to be executed on multiple machines at the same time.
isotach message	One of two forms of isotach communication. Carries application level data with a timestamp indicating when the message should be delivered to the target host.
isotach networks	Unique type of distributed system that can make low cost and highly scalable synchronization guarantees including isochronicity and sequential consistency.
Linux	Open source operating system for x86 Intel platforms.
lock	Mechanism for concurrency control. When a process needs to perform a mutually exclusive task it sets the lock and then when it is finished it releases the lock.
logic modules	Basic programmable unit of an FPGA that can implement several hardware gates. Synthesis tools translate VHDL into logic modules.
logical time	Method for ordering events in a distributed system that depends on relative time instead of physical time.
logically valid region (LVR)	Area of the network where synchronization guarantees are valid.
mapsh	Tool used to map hardware logic on the gate level into programmable function units for the ORCA FPGAs.
master state machine (MSM)	TM state machine that manages most of the higher level TM functions including sending token waves and reminder waves.
Mentor Graphics	Collection of tools that allow a developer to write, compile, and organize VHDL.
multiplexor	Logic component that allows a signal to choose which of several inputs should be directed to the output.

Myrinet	Commercial high speed network developed by Myricom, Inc. which can handle speeds up to 160 MHz.
network partitioning	Network state where the network is divided into several parts. The network can be physically partitioned if a network link fails or may be logically partitioned if a TM fails.
parallel computer	Computer with multiple (usually homogenous) processors that allow multiple tasks to execute concurrently. These processors are usually in close physical proximity to each other.
parsh	Tool used to place PFUs into the ORCA FPGA framework and to route the wires that connect the PFUs.
ping	Form of network communication that verifies a network component's status. A ping is sent to the target and then is returned to the sender.
ping handler state machine (PHSM)	TM state machine that is responsible for moving the return route information from the return route buffers to the output FIFO bus.
ping verifier	Combinational logic that sets ping_valid to one if the first two bytes of an incoming word match the isotach message type identifier (x0600)
port state machine (PSM)	TM state machine that monitors one of the ports on the adjacent switch. It stores whether or not that port has received an appropriate token.
printed circuit board (PCB)	Board that holds hardware components and provides a medium for connecting those components.
programmable function unit (PFU)	Basic logic module for the ORCA family of FPGAs. Each PFU includes four flip-flops and four 16-bit lookup tables.
programmable read only memory (PROM)	Memory chip that can be programmed by a computer. A user provides an address as input and then the chip will produce the programmed data value at that memory location.
reminder waves	Special token wave that duplicates previously issued token waves in an effort to elicit a response from a neighbor after a token has been lost.
return route buffers	A 16 bit buffer and a 35 bit buffer that store the return route information until it can be placed on the output FIFO bus.
scalability	Property of how a network handles adding more components to the network.
scale	TM configuration parameter that indicates how long to wait before sending a reminder wave. The units are a multiple of the clock speed of the TM.

sequential consistency	Property where tasks on multiple hosts appear to be executed in a specific order.
signal	Isotach communication mechanism that allows a host to notify all other hosts of some predefined event. A signal is delivered to all hosts at the same logical time.
switch	Network component that is responsible for connecting multiple hosts and other switches together.
switch interface unit (SIU)	Isotach devices that reside in between hosts and the rest of the network. These devices buffer isotach messages and then deliver these messages to the host at the appropriate logical time.
synchronous	Tasks are executed at the same rate in lock step. Temporal relationships in synchronous systems are predictable.
synthesis	Process by which hardware logic gates are created from a VHDL structural or behavioral description. Galileo is an example of a synthesis tool.
token	Lightweight communication mechanism that marks the boundary between logical time pulses. Tokens are issued in waves and are propagated through the network by TMs.
token manager (TM)	Isotach devices that are located at each switch in the network. These devices are responsible for monitoring the flow of tokens through the network.
token wave	Collection of tokens issued from a TM to all of that TM's neighbors.
valid buffer	Register on the main FPGA that is responsible for storing whether or not corresponding devices on the adjacent switch are isotach devices.
VHSIC hardware description language (VHDL)	Programming language that includes several constructs suitable for modeling hardware. Developed for the federal government's Very High Speed Integrated Circuits program.

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Chapter

One

Introduction

This report describes the design, implementation, and testing of three modifications made to the current isotach hardware prototype. Isotach networks are a novel class of networks being developed at the University of Virginia that provide low-cost message ordering guarantees [13]. The current isotach hardware prototype, however, lacks the ability to handle permanently failed network components [7, 15]. The three modifications allow the hardware to detect and resolve this failure mode as well as notify all hosts in the system of the failure. These modifications can work together to address the logical dead space problem, an anomaly that occurs in systems that attempt to logically sever isotach devices. This chapter provides the general background on distributed systems, logical time, isotach networks, and the current prototypes necessary to understand the modifications and their impact on the system as a whole.

1.1 DISTRIBUTED SYSTEMS

The need for performance, reliability, and capacity has made the isolated sequential computer almost obsolete. The computing industry has turned to multiple machines or processes working together in order to satisfy growing scientific and commercial computing needs. This type of parallelism can be found in redundant control systems, distributed databases, large multi-processor computers, and isotach networks. The concurrent nature of these distributed systems is their greatest advantage as well as the source of significant complications. For example, data duplicated on multiple machines must be kept consistent, and tasks may have to be executed at the same time or in a specific order on multiple independent machines.

As an analogy, consider a single carpenter who is charged with building a house. The carpenter has complete control over the construction and can work in a very sequential manner, but the complexity and size of the house are limited. A larger house can be built if multiple carpenters work together. Carpenters can work on independent tasks at the same time or jointly work on complex tasks. The carpenters, however, must be coordinated in some way to prevent duplication of work or wrongly ordered tasks. A mechanism is needed to assure that the walls are not put up before the foundation and that the roof goes on at the correct time. Notice that the complication in using multiple carpenters is the communication between and management of the various individuals.

Similarly, the complication in a distributed system is the communication between and management of the various machines. In the construction analogy, these complications are handled with the use of a single foreman who has control over the project as a whole. The problem with this traditional method is that if the foreman becomes ill the project usually goes into disarray. Additionally, the manager-worker paradigm is not scalable. In other words, as more and more carpenters join the project the foreman becomes a bottleneck reducing the overall efficiency. Scalability is a measure of how well a system performs as more carpenters or machines are added. The foreman concept is analogous to the traditional method in distributed systems of using a centralized lock manager [5]. Each machine must talk to the lock manger before performing a task to prevent inappropriate ordering. What is needed is a distributed mechanism for ordering and managing the various carpenters and machines.

1.2 LOGICAL TIME

Isotach networks are a unique type of distributed system that provide a means to efficiently manage the complications arising from concurrency. These networks provide a low cost and highly scalable mechanism to correctly order and manage communication between distributed machines [13]. In the construction analogy, a possible distributed solution would be to give each carpenter a synchronized watch and a list of activities to perform at very specific times. If any specific carpenter wanted to tell another carpenter to perform a task, he would also include the exact time to begin the task. In this way, multiple carpenters could perform the same task at the same time or perform different tasks in the correct sequential order. Unfortunately, machines in a distributed system do not have any form of an absolute synchronized clock. The key concept, however, is not that each machine be synchronized with physical time, but instead that each machine be synchronized relative to the other machines. Isotach networks achieve this form of relative synchronicity through an implementation of logical time.

Logical time is a mechanism by which a host can specify a relative time when a message is to be delivered to another host. In this way, a host can guarantee that multiple hosts receive a message at the same time or in a specific order. Before examining the specific isotach implementation of logical time it is useful to further understand two key properties desired in a distributed system: isochronicity and sequential consistency. *Isochronicity* means that tasks appear to be executed at the same time in a distributed system. Isochronicity is similar to atomicity since tasks appear to be executed as an indivisible unit and are not interrupted by other tasks [13]. Using the carpenter analogy, an isochronous action might be several carpenters laying individual portions of a larger

concrete foundation. All carpenters need to lay their portion at the same time so there are no seams, and thus it is undesirable for a carpenter to be interrupted for a coffee break while in the middle of his task. Similarly, there are instances where it is desirable for several machines to update a duplicated variable at the same logical time without interruption so that the value of the variable remains globally consistent.

Sequential consistency implies that the overall order of operations is consistent with the order desired by each individual machine [13]. With a single carpenter or machine, sequential consistency is trivial. Yet with multiple workers the situation becomes much more complex. For example, assume the worker A tells worker B to lay the foundation and then a few minutes later tells worker C to put up the walls. Worker A has specified an implicit order: he desires the foundation to be laid before the walls are put up for the house. Now assume worker B runs out to get supplies, while worker C immediately proceeds to the site and begins putting up the walls. Even though worker A issued the two tasks in a distinct order, the concurrent nature of distributed processing has allowed these two tasks to be executed such that they violate sequential consistency.

Logical time provides a mechanism to efficiently guarantee isochronicity and sequential consistency. Isotach networks are a specific subset of logical time systems, where the logical time between two machines is related to the logical distance between two machines [16]. Logical distance may be based on the number of switches or some other deterministic metric. This key feature of isotach networks is known as the isotach invariant, and it allows hosts to accurately specify when messages will be delivered to other hosts in the network.

1.3 ISOTACH NETWORKS

Isotach networks are implemented using two isotach-specific devices: token managers (TMs) and switch interface units (SIUs) [15]. TMs are located at each switch in the network, and are

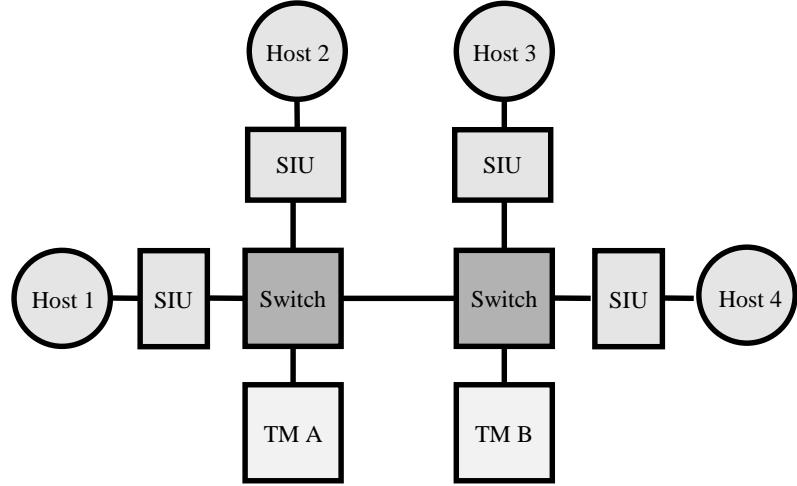


Figure 1-1: Example Isotach Network: TM's are attached to each switch in the network, while SIUs are located in between hosts and the rest of the network.

responsible for handling the flow of tokens through the network. SIUs are positioned as buffers in between the hosts and the network. A sample isotach network is show in *Figure 1-1*. A token has a logical time stamp and is simply a marker that delineates the logical time pulses. If a second is a pulse of real time, then a token is a pulse of logical time. A TM sends out a token with timestamp i to each isotach device attached to the adjacent switch. This is known as a token wave. The TM waits until it has received a return token with timestamp i from each isotach device and then issues a new token wave with timestamp $i+1$. SIUs also receive and issue tokens. Thus, in the example network, TM A would issue a token wave to Host 1's SIU, Host 2's SIU, and to TM B. Each of these three recipients would be responsible for issuing a new token back to TM A. Once TM A receives a token from each of its three neighbors, it increments its local logical time clock and issues a new token wave. In this way, tokens pulsate through the isotach network.

Although the tokens keep track of logical time, they do not carry any application data.* Isotach messages allow hosts to transfer data in an isochronous or sequentially consistent manner. When a host sends an isotach message, it attaches the desired logical time for delivery. This message then

moves through the network normally to a target host's SIU. The target host's SIU will buffer this message until it receives a token indicating the desired logical time for delivery has been reached. Thus, TMs monitor the flow of tokens while the SIUs are responsible for guaranteeing the proper delivery of isotach messages.

Notice the use of the term isotach device in the above description. An important characteristic of an isotach network is that non-isotach traffic is allowed to freely move around the network. This means that it is likely that non-isotach devices may be attached to a switch monitored by a TM. It is important for a TM to differentiate between isotach and non-isotach devices, so that it does not wait to receive tokens from non-isotach devices.

Another significant advantage of the isotach design is its scalability [13]. Additional hosts can be added to the system with a minimal impact on the overall efficiency of the network. This is because logical time is managed locally by the TMs and each host has its own SIU to buffer isotach messages. In theory, the isotach design allows for low cost and highly scalable concurrency control. In the next section, the physical implementation of an isotach network will be discussed.

1.3.1 Current Isotach Prototypes

Both the TM and the SIU have been implemented in software for preliminary testing and development. This software implementation allows the system architects to quickly prototype changes to the isotach design, and also allows progress to be made on applications that exploit isotach functionality. The software prototype is located in the isotach lab in Small Hall at the University of Virginia. The system includes several off-the-shelf (OTS) personal computers running Linux and connected with a Myrinet network. [12]

Since the software prototype introduces significant overhead into the system, the isotach architects decided to also implement both the TM and the SIU in hardware. This hardware prototype will better demonstrate isotach performance by minimizing the additional time required to handle tokens and buffer messages. Two electrical engineering graduate students used a common design process to construct the hardware TM and SIU. [7]

First, the requirements for the hardware component were formalized through discussions with the isotach system architects. Then, computer tools were used to create a VHDL hardware

* Tokens do carry signal and barrier information but these are exceptions. Most application data is carried by isotach messages.

description that satisfied the requirements. The Mentor Graphics software tools allowed the graduate students to create graphical schematics of their designs and compile them into working simulations. VHDL, or VHSIC Hardware Description Language, was developed for the United States government's Very High Speed Integrated Circuits (VHSIC) program. VHDL is similar to a traditional programming language except that it includes several specialized constructs that make it suitable for modeling hardware. Once a digital system is described in VHDL, computer tools can translate this description into the physical connections necessary to actually construct a chip with the specified functionality. The chips used in this process are fabricated in such a way as to allow them to be programmed in the field, and thus they are known as Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs). These FPGAs with their VHDL described functionality form the ‘brain’, or the main computational unit, of the TM and SIU. [1, 7]

For this project the main FPGA was an ORCA FPGA (model OR2C40A) made by Lucent. This chip has a maximum capacity of 900 logic modules. Each logic module is known as a programmable functional unit (PFU) and can implement complex logic functions. Unlike traditional FPGAs that can only be programmed once, this model can be reprogrammed many times. [9] A computer tool known as Galileo was used to synthesize hardware logic from the code-like VHDL. Then, two tools specific to the ORCA family of FPGAs allowed the developers to first map the VHDL into logic modules (called mapsh) and then calculate the most appropriate placement and interconnect for those modules (called parsh).

After the hardware is described in VHDL it can be functionally simulated to verify that the component meets the desired requirements [7]. These simulations can prevent costly debugging later in the design process. If the VHDL is satisfactory, then computer tools are used for synthesis. VHDL synthesis is the programming of the FPGAs with the appropriate interconnections. The FPGAs are then placed on a printed circuit board (PCB) along with other simple hardware components and chips. The PCB undergoes rigorous testing in several practical isotach network configurations. As of the spring of 1999, both the TM and the SIU have been successfully implemented in hardware.

To make modifications, a researcher would need to perform the following steps. First, the VHDL would be changed and then resimulated to verify correct functionality. The modified VHDL would need to be re-synthesized. The newly synthesized VHDL can be used in the current PCB as long as the modifications do not require more space than is available or need the external pins on the chip to be reassigned.

1.3.2 Isotach Fault Tolerance

Failures in distributed systems can take many forms including software crashes, faulty network links, and hardware device failures. A fault tolerant system is one that can satisfactorily handle various failures [5]. Obviously no system can be perfectly fault tolerant, so much of the work on fault tolerance focuses on specific modes of failure. For each mode, a fault tolerant system should be able to detect the failure, handle the failure, and then if possible recover from the failure.

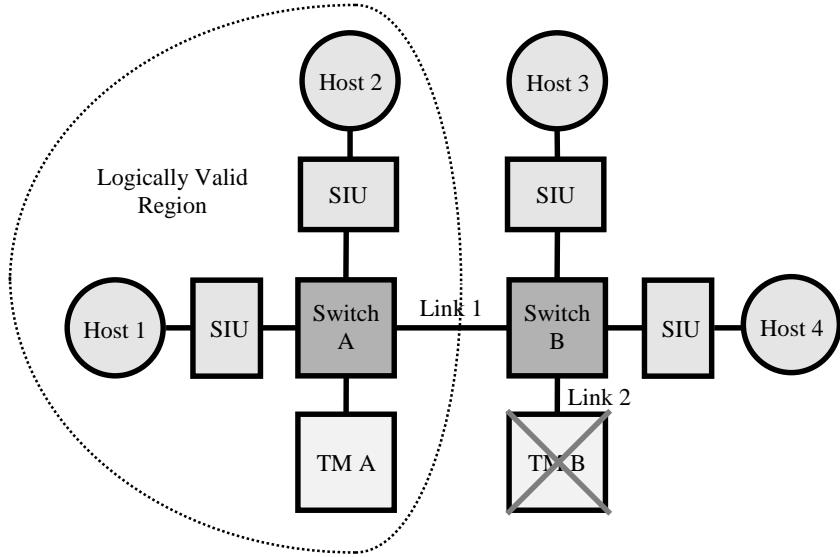


Figure 1-2: Permanent Failure in an Isotach Network: Even though a TM has failed, the network can continue to operate within the logically valid region (LVR). For logical time to continue, TM A needs to detect the failure, logically sever TM B from the network, and notify all hosts of the failure.

The current isotach prototypes include some basic fault tolerance mechanisms. Most notably, a lost token algorithm is implemented [15]. The algorithm starts a timer after a token wave is issued. If a token is not received from the neighbor before the timer expires, then the isotach device will reissue both the current and the previous token waves. The reissued token waves are known as reminder waves. This form of fault tolerance addresses temporary failures. If the neighboring device has failed permanently, the system as a whole will not be able to advance logical time and will halt indefinitely. As an example, consider the failure indicated in *Figure 1-2*. In this instance TM B has experienced a permanent failure. Under the current system, isotach logical time would be at a standstill. Ideally, one would like to sever TM B and its attached hosts from the isotach network. This would allow logical time to advance in the logically valid region (LVR). TM A can manage tokens in the LVR and thus permit Host 1 and Host 2 to exchange isotach messages.

There are additional modes of failure that this approach can adequately address. In *Figure 1-2*, a failure in Link 1, Link 2, or Switch B will appear to TM A to be exactly the same as a TM B failure. Even so, these failure modes have subtle differences. A failure in Link 2 will be very similar to a TM B failure in all respects, except this type of failure is much more likely to prevent *any* isotach traffic from TM B (corrupt or valid) from reaching the LVR. While a failed TM A logically partitions the network, a failure in Switch B or Link 1 physically partitions the network as well. This means that neither isotach traffic nor non-isotach traffic can pass through that region. The approach described in this report also applies to failed SIUs, since to a TM a SIU failure appears the same as a neighboring TM failure. Although this report focuses on the case where a TM is handling a neighboring TM failure, it is important to remember that the approach and modifications described within this report are easily extended to failed network links, switches, and SIUs.

A key consequence of handling failed TMs by logically severing them from the network is that dead space can occur in the network. Dead space is an area of the network where logical time has broken down and the isotach synchronization guarantees are no longer valid. Careful consideration must be made on how dead space can impact LVRs in the system. The logical dead space problem was one of the primary reasons the isotach architects did not include failed neighbor handling in the original prototypes. The next section outlines three hardware modifications that will enable TMs to detect and handle permanently failed neighbors as well as notify all the hosts in the system of the failure. These modifications also work together to address the logical dead space problem.

1.4 DESIGN MODIFICATIONS FOR FAILED NEIGHBOR HANDLING

I made three modifications to the TM hardware prototype. My objective was to create a more fault tolerant TM and thus contribute to the isotach group's year long focus on fault tolerance. Each modification is briefly mentioned below and discussed in detail in the following chapters.

- I.** The first modification involved adding the necessary logic for a TM to detect when a neighbor has permanently failed and to allow the TM to sever the failed neighbor from the isotach network. To detect failed neighbors, each TM has a counter that records how many reminder waves have been issued. Once this count exceeds a preset threshold, the neighbor is declared dead. To sever the failed neighbor from the network, the TM changes the status of the failed neighbor from an isotach device to a non-isotach device. This means the TM no longer expects tokens from the failed neighbor and will not issue tokens to the failed neighbor.

- II.** The second modification enables the TM to send out a one bit signal indicating that a failure has occurred. Special consideration was paid to the timely delivery and reset of this error signal.
- III.** This signal bit notification is insufficient for a host to determine exactly which TM has failed, and thus I modified the TM to allow a host to send a special message to a TM asking the TM if it is still alive. This special message is known as a ping. By pinging all TMs, a host can determine which specific TM has failed.

The example introduced in *Figure 1-2* can illustrate how these three modifications allow logical time to advance within the LVR. Assume that TM A has sent out token wave i and is waiting for TM B to send token i . First, TM A will detect the permanent failure of TM B after sending a predetermined number of reminder waves and failing to receive a response. TM A then declares TM B to be a non-isotach device and correspondingly increments its local logical clock to $i+1$. TM A will now send out token wave $i+1$ to Host 1 and Host 2 but will not send a token to TM B. These tokens will have an error bit set so that Host 1 and Host 2 are notified of the failure. Host 1 and Host 2 send special messages to both TM A and TM B to determine which device in the system has failed. Both hosts realize that TM B has permanently failed, and thus they avoid sending isotach messages to the logically inaccessible Host 3 and Host 4. The three hardware modifications have allowed a portion of the isotach network to continue to function. The recovery of these failed hosts, a key fault tolerance issue, will not be addressed in this document. TM and SIU failures occur infrequently enough that once the failed component is fixed, the whole network can be reset. Even though TM and SIU failures are rare, this failure mode is still a concern since these occasional failures halt the entire isotach network.

The next chapter provides a chronological survey of the literature relevant to this project and is useful for determining sources of additional information. The following three chapters outline the design and implementation for each of my three modifications. Chapter 6 discusses the original and modified TM schematics and also addresses the synthesis and simulation of the various modifications. Chapter 7 is dedicated to describing and handling the logical dead space problem. Conclusions and recommendations for further work can be found in the final chapter.

Chapter

Two

Literature Review

This chapter complements the previous general background information by providing a survey of the literature relevant to the project. Causality in distributed systems has long been a source for significant complications, yet isotach networks are able to address these concerns in a low cost and highly scalable manner. It is beneficial to briefly review past approaches and to examine the theoretical basis from which isotach networks developed. Fault tolerance is a major concern in both isolated and distributed systems, and it is particularly relevant to isotach networks in light of the research group's year long focus on fault tolerance. My undergraduate thesis focuses on isotach fault tolerance, thus this chapter will allow the reader to better understand the historical and theoretical basis for the project.

2.1 ADDRESSING CAUSALITY IN DISTRIBUTED SYSTEMS

Regardless of the performance of a single serial processor, multiple processors working on the same task will theoretically be faster [3]. Distributed systems programmers have long desired to capitalize on this fundamental principle, yet many characteristics of distributed systems make achieving this goal difficult. Single processor machines make the basic guarantee that instructions will be executed in sequential order. Distributed systems, however, have no inherent linear execution of instructions. Therefore, the notion of causality, that one event happens before another, has long been a primary focus of distributed system researchers. Causality can aid in preventing deadlock, creating distributed atomic operations, and keeping consistent shared memory [11].

Originally, designers could choose a completely synchronous system in order to simplify the question of causality. In synchronous operation, the designer can make assumptions concerning process execution speeds and message delivery times. This allows for a very controlled environment in which causality is a much simpler problem. Although useful, strictly synchronous systems cannot solve many problems. An asynchronous system avoids making timing assumptions and thus operations are arbitrarily interleaved with no ordering guarantees at all [16]. Early attempts to provide some basic synchronization to asynchronous systems used locks and events to try to control causal relationships. Locks allow a single processor to gain mutually exclusive access to a block of code and data. Events allow one processor to notify another processor that it can continue

a specific operation. Locks and events limit the advantages gained through parallelism by reducing the amount of work that can be executed concurrently [5, 16].

The ground breaking work of Lamport attacked this problem from a unique direction. Lamport's 1978 paper, "Time, Clocks, and the Ordering of Events in a Distributed System" formed the foundation for the concept of logical time, a method for achieving the "happened before" relation without global or physical clocks [8]. "Partially ordered logical clocks can provide a decentralized definition of time for distributed computing systems, which lack a common time base" and can be implemented in various ways [4]. Lamport suggests a scalar implementation, while later researchers examined vector and matrix implementations to store additional logical time information at the cost of increased overhead to maintain the more complex clocks. Raynal and Singhal provide an overview on implementing logical time through these various means [11].

A wide array of research developed from Lamport's work. Awerbuch investigated using a synchronizer to simulate synchronicity on asynchronous networks [2]. Awerbuch's alpha-synchronizers require each node to notify its neighbors in a new pulse once it has determined that it is 'safe'. A node is 'safe' once it has received notification from all of its neighbors concerning the previous pulse. Awerbuch's alpha-synchronizers and Ranade's later work examining controlled concurrent operations contributed to the development of isotach networks [13].

Reynolds and Williams introduced isotach networks in the 1990's at the University of Virginia. This new class of networks achieves isochronicity and sequential consistency by logically relating the message travel time to the message travel distance [16]. This original concept was further developed in a paper published by Reynolds, Williams, and Wagner in 1997 [13]. This paper is the pioneering work on isotach networks and in addition to a general description, it proposes a possible implementation and discusses preliminary performance analysis. The performance analysis demonstrated the increased efficiency of isotach networks over conventional concurrency control techniques. The researchers recognized the controversy concerning the potential overhead involved in implementing isotach logical time. They claim that "the guarantees [isotach networks] offer can be implemented cheaply, yet are sufficiently powerful to enforce fundamental synchronization properties" [13]. The search for a low overhead implementation is a driving factor in the recent desire to implement the isotach algorithm in hardware.

The original implementation proposed in 1997 required isotach specific switches that could buffer messages and send messages to the next switch at the appropriate logical times. The initial prototype, however, was to be implemented using commercial hardware, and therefore this

implementation could not be realized. Instead a new implementation was proposed in the internal working paper, “Design of the Isotach Prototype” [15]. This working paper outlines an implementation that uses token managers (TMs) and switch interface units (SIUs). TMs handle the tokens that keep track of logical time, and are similar to Awerbuch’s pulses [2]. These tokens are passed from switch to switch and synchronize isotach logical time. SIUs reside between the network and the host. Messages are sent asynchronously from a host to the receiving host’s SIU. The message is then buffered in the SIU until the proper logical time, at which time the message is delivered to the host. The hosts, therefore, do not see logical time, although there are mechanisms to partially or fully bring the hosts within logical time [15].

The design specification has currently been implemented both in software and in hardware by a team of computer science and electrical engineering graduate students. Both implementations have unique advantages. The software implementation offers rapid prototyping and convenient flexibility while the hardware implementation should drastically improve the overall performance of the network.* Regehr’s technical report provides the primary reference for the software implementation [12], while Kuebert’s master’s thesis is the main documentation for the hardware implementation of the TM [7]. Both of these implementations assume a fault free network, and although they address the issue of temporarily lost tokens, the implementations do not handle failed isotach devices. The thesis project outlined in the following chapters allows a TM to handle failed isotach devices.

2.2 FAULT TOLERANT DISTRIBUTED SYSTEMS

Fault tolerance and distribution share a symbiotic relationship. David Powell notes that “dependability is an inherent concern of distribution” and thus “distribution can be a motivation for fault-tolerance.” However, Powell also states that the need for redundancy to achieve fault tolerance implies that “fault-tolerance can be a motivation for distribution” [10]. Schneider goes further and states that “Protocols and system architectures that are not fault tolerant simply are not very useful ...” [14]. Fault tolerance of distributed systems involves a wide variety of failure modes and there is significant debate over the best failure model. Some traditional models include failstop, crash, and send omission [14].

There is a large body of research addressing the theory of fault tolerant distributed systems. A review of the relevant concepts involved can be found in Hadzilacos and Toueg’s paper “Fault-

* The hardware implementation is currently being functionally tested. Performance analysis will begin in the near future.

Tolerance Broadcasts and Related Problems” [6]. Both authors have done significant work with distributed fault tolerance. Their paper notes that in synchronous or approximately synchronous systems, such as isotach networks, one can use message timeouts to detect failures. Such methods required bounded message transmissions and therefore make critical assumptions on the underlying hardware’s performance. Great care must be taken when choosing timeout intervals.

The Delta-4 project offers an excellent practical example of distributed fault tolerance [10]. The project uses two part components to create failstop nodes. The Network Attachment Controller (NAC), similar to isotach’s SIU, acts as a barrier between the actual node and the network. If the NAC determines that its node has failed, it can cease the communication between the node and the network and then notify the other nodes. This creates a failstop failure mode. The project also considered using “artificial, minimum frequency [network] traffic that spans all nodes.” Such artificial traffic would allow nodes to detect failures even if there is no normal network traffic. This simulated traffic is implemented in isotach through lightweight tokens.

A recent grant extension from DARPA has allowed the isotach research group to further investigate fault tolerant isotach networks [18]. The statement of work outlines the basic strategy for this research and states the main failure modes to be considered: message loss or corruption, failures of hosts or network components, and receive-omission failures due to buffer overflows. The fundamental assumption when addressing these concerns is a robust token exchange mechanism. Williams states that “Our approach in the proposed work is to make the token mechanism itself robust and to then use the token mechanism as a fast failure detector and as a mechanism for the fast and reliable delivery of critical signals” [18].

The “Fault Tolerant Isotach Systems Working Paper” offers some preliminary approaches to achieving these goals [17]. This internal paper reviews the lost token algorithm, the consensus and commit problems, timeout fault detection, and using layered logical time. The following chapters outline modifications that implement a portion of the concepts mentioned in this internal paper; more specifically, my thesis project provides a mechanism for TMs to addressed failed network devices. The fault tolerant isotach working paper also provides some preliminary discussion of the logical dead space problem. This technical report expands the theoretical basis for the logical dead space problem, and explains how the three modifications can address the problem.

Chapter

Three

Detecting and Handling Failed Neighbors

This chapter examines the design, implementation, and testing of the first of three hardware modifications. This modification allows a TM to detect when a neighbor (either a TM or an SIU) has permanently failed. Once a failure is identified, it is severed from the isotach network by changing its status from an isotach device to a non-isotach device. The modification is divided into two parts: first the detection of a failure and second the handling of that failure. Each part is discussed in a separate section below and includes any necessary additional background information, a discussion of the design decisions, and the actual design. The chapter concludes with the simulation results.

3.1 DETECTING FAILED NEIGHBORS

As mentioned in *Chapter 1*, fault tolerance involves the detection, handling, and recovery of failed components. Detection can be a difficult problem in networks since a failed component may remain undetected for sometime. If no other component initiates communication with the faulty component, there is no way to identify the failure. One way to handle this situation is to constantly send small messages to all components, and if a component does not respond we can assume it has failed. The token exchange mechanism is a convenient method for implementing this type of failure detection. If each TM is monitoring its neighbors, then when a TM does not receive a return token it will have identified a failure. The current prototype includes a simple timer for this purpose, except in its current form it only detects temporary failures.

3.1.1 Additional Background: How Network Configuration Parameters are Stored

There are several parameters used by the TM that depend on the current network configuration. These parameters include routing information about neighboring devices and values that depend on the size of the network. If these parameters were permanently stored on the main FPGA, a user would have to perform the cumbersome task of reprogramming the FPGA whenever these values needed to be updated. A more robust method is to use a separate removable chip to store these commonly changed values. As described in Brian Kuebert's graduate thesis [7], the current hardware TM uses a removable programmable read only memory (PROM) to store these values. A

PROM acts as an electronic look up table. An FPGA sends the PROM an address and the PROM returns the corresponding piece of data. To set the network configuration parameters, a user need only program a PROM and insert it into a special socket on the TM's PCB. Updating the network parameters is simply a matter of replacing the PROM.

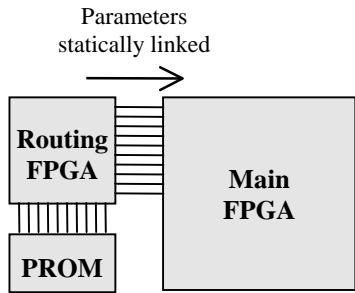


Figure 3-1: Parameter Storage:
Current hardware uses a dual FPGA design to store PROM values yet save space on the main FPGA

For performance considerations, the PROM values need to be stored on the FPGA while the TM is operating, but in Kuebert's design the PROM values are not loaded into the main FPGA. Such a design would require a great deal of the main FPGA's scarce capacity for storing these values [7]. To resolve the problem, Kuebert used a two FPGA solution as illustrated in *Figure 3-1*. The PROM variables are loaded into a second smaller FPGA known as the routing FPGA. Output pins from the routing FPGA have the various parameter values statically connected to pins on the main FPGA.

3.1.2 Additional Background: Current Timer Hardware

The current hardware TM includes a timer that keeps track of the physical time elapsed since the last token wave was sent. A timeout occurs if the timer expires without the TM having received a token from each of the isotach devices attached to the adjacent switch.

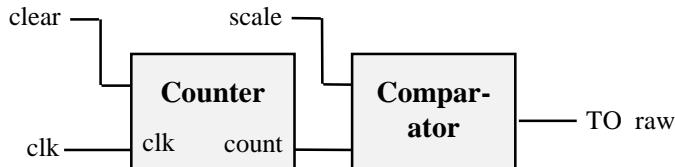


Figure 3-2: Original Timer Hardware Architecture: A counter is incremented on every rising edge while a comparator sets the TO_raw signal to one when the counter reaches the preset scale value. The labels clear, scale, clk, and TO_raw correspond to signals in the TM design.

This timer is implemented using an eight bit counter, and an eight bit comparator. The general architecture is shown in *Figure 3-2*. The counter simply increments its value by one every rising edge of the clock. To set the counter back to zero, a finite state machine sets the clear signal at the appropriate time [*more on the timing state machine can be found in Appendix A*]. The comparator output, labeled TO_raw for timeout received, will be zero unless the counter's output equals a variable threshold. This threshold is known as the scale and is one of the parameters discussed in

Section 3.1.1. When TO_raw is one, a timeout has occurred and the TM takes the necessary action to send out two reminder waves.

3.1.3 Hardware to Detect Permanent Failures

To detect permanent failures, the TM will simply set a limit on the number of times it will try to illicit a response from a neighbor using reminder waves. To determine when a failure has occurred, one need only count the number of times TO_raw becomes one. To do this, I added another 8 bit counter and 8 bit comparator. The modifications necessary to detect a failure and their integration into the original design are shown *Figure 3-3*. This new counter is incremented every time TO_raw becomes one. The output of the counter is compared to a permanent threshold value, known as the failure threshold. Notice that the modification does not require any changes to the original hardware.

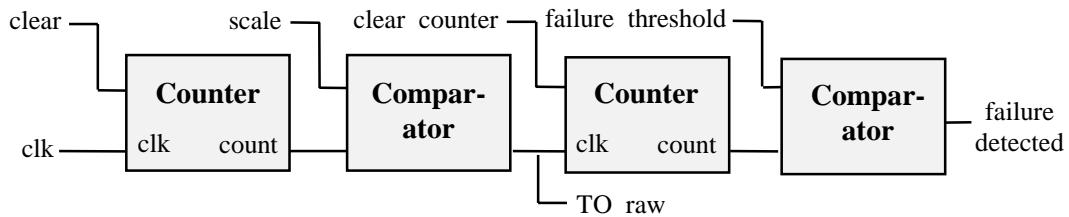


Figure 3-3: Timer Hardware with Modifications: The additional counter and comparator will set the failure_detected signal to one when failure_threshold timeouts have occurred.

The permanent threshold represents how many pairs of reminder waves will be issued before the neighbor is declared dead. Assume the failure threshold is t_1 , the scale is t_2 , and the counter clock width is T nanoseconds. Then a TM will wait $(t_1 \times t_2 \times T)$ nanoseconds before declaring a neighbor dead. While waiting, the TM is sending reminder waves every $(t_1 \times T)$ nanoseconds.* As previously mentioned, the scale is a user set variable. It would be much more convenient from a user perspective to have the failure threshold also be a user set variable since this would allow a user to easily change this parameter. As described in *Section 3.1.2*, user variables must have dedicated pins on the FPGA. Making the failure threshold a user set variable would require changing the board design and thus would be very costly from the board designer perspective. More importantly, there simply are not eight extra pins on the main FPGA that could be used for wiring a new user variable.

* This is a simplified calculation since the counter clock is actually slower than the system clock. The system clock passes through a clock divider, which essentially slows the clock frequency by a factor of 2^9 . The slower clock decreases the timeout granularity but allows the user to use fewer bits when specifying the scale value. [6]

If a user wants to change the failure threshold under the current implementation, the user must use the Mentor Tools to modify the actual VHDL source and then recompile and resynthesize the entire main FPGA.

Another alternative was investigated to make the failure threshold a user variable without modifying the board. One could multiplex the data lines shown in *Figure 3-1*. To do this we would need to store the failure threshold and two other eight bit user variables on the main FPGA (which could cause capacity problems). Upon reset, the routing FPGA would get all three user variables from the PROM and temporarily store them. The main FPGA would use two bits to indicate which of the three variables it was ready to receive and then the routing FPGA would send the appropriate variable across data lines to the main FPGA. The main FPGA would then store this first variable, indicate which variable was next, and wait for the routing FPGA to send it across the same data lines. In this way the main FPGA would get all three variables from the routing FPGA and store them locally. Problems with this strategy included the added complexity and the need to modify the routing FPGA. For these reasons it was chosen to proceed with a hardcoded failure threshold. The idea, however, of storing a user variable on the main FPGA will become useful in the next section.

3.2 HANDLING FAILED NEIGHBORS

The first section of this chapter discussed the modifications that detected when a failure had occurred. The ultimate result is that when a neighbor has failed the `failuredetected` signal becomes one. This section will address how we can use the `failuredetected` signal to initiate the severing of the failed neighbor from the isotach network. Before the actual modification can be discussed, some additional background will be presented.

3.2.1 Additional Background: How TMs Store Neighbor Information

A more detailed look at how the TM interacts with its neighbors is necessary before one can understand the modifications which handle the failed neighbor. As discussed in *Chapter One*, TMs are attached to all switches and are responsible for managing the flow of tokens through the network. TMs are always attached to the highest port number of the adjacent switch. A port number is simply a method for identifying each of the ports on the adjacent switch. Although the hardware TMs are designed to work with either eight port or sixteen port switches, the simple examples in this document use four port switches. TM A in *Figure 3-4* is located on port 3, the highest port of its adjacent switch. There are three types of devices that may also be attached to the remaining ports of the switch: other switches, isotach SIUs, and non-isotach devices. In this example, an isotach SIU is attached to port 0, a non-isotach device is attached to port 1, and another switch is attached to port 2.

Each TM needs to know what type of device is attached to each port of the adjacent switch. Outgoing tokens are in a different format when sent to SIUs as opposed to another TM, and tokens should not be sent to nor expected from non-isotach devices. Two fifteen bit registers within the TM keep track of this information: the valid bit register and the tm_siu register. A one in the valid register indicates that a valid isotach device is attached to the corresponding port. A one in the tm_siu register indicates that a switch/TM pair is attached to the corresponding port, while a zero in indicates that an SIU is attached to the corresponding port. *Table 3-1* shows the valid and tm_siu bits for the previous example.

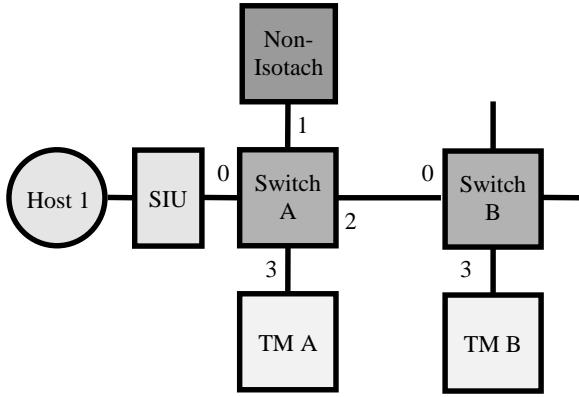


Figure 3-4: TM's Handling of Isotach and Non-Isotach Devices: Each switch port is identified by its port number. A TM has a record of each port number on the adjacent switch and that port's isotach status.

Port Number	valid	tm_siu
0	1	0
1	0	X
2	1	1

Table 3-1: TM A's valid and tm_siu Bits: The valid bit equals one for ports that have isotach devices attached. The tm_siu bit is one for ports with a TM/switch attached and zero for ports with a SIU attached.

3.2.2 Buffering the Valid Bits

The TM can essentially sever a neighbor from the isotach network by changing the valid bit associated with the neighbor from a one to a zero. Once this change is made, the TM will no longer expect tokens from or send tokens to the severed neighbor. Notice that the neighbor is not physically severed from the network but is instead logically severed.

In the original implementation, the valid bits mentioned in the previous section would be set prior to operating the TM, stored in the routing FPGA, and statically linked to the main FPGA. The problem is that one wants to modify the valid bits (to sever a failed neighbor) but the bits are not stored on the main FPGA. There is no way in the original implementation to tell the routing FPGA to modify a stored user variable since the original design engineer had not anticipated this need. To solve this problem, the valid bits are buffered on the main FPGA. The bits are initialized to the PROM user value on reset, and then can be modified by the logic when a failure occurs.

The next issue is knowing which valid bit to change. The failure detection discussed in *Section 3.2.1* results in a single bit signal. It is not possible from this single signal to determine which port and the correspondingly which device is not responding. A careful analysis of the original design [*see Appendix A*] reveals that the port state machines (PSMs) contain the necessary information with which the logic can determine which device failed. The PSM state diagram is shown in *Figure 3-5*. There is one PSM for each port of the adjacent switch.

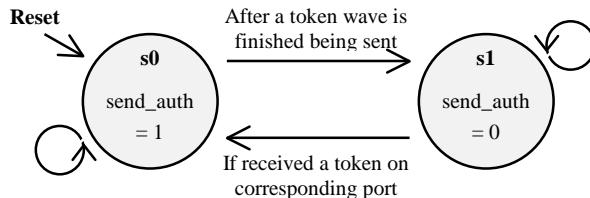


Figure 3-5: Port State Machine: These finite state machines monitor each port of the adjacent switch and indicate when a token has been received.

The port state machine works as follows. When the PSM is waiting for a return token from the corresponding device it stays in state s1 and the send_auth signal is zero. Once the token is received, the PSM moves into state s0 and send_auth becomes one. When the send_auth for all fifteen PSMs is one, the TM knows it has successfully received a full token wave and can increment the local clock and send out a new wave. Once the new wave has been sent, the PSM moves back into s1 to wait for the next token. Thus the send_auth signals contain the information needed to

determine which port is not responding. If a failure is detected, then whichever PSM's send_auth is zero corresponds to the failed neighbor.

Combinational logic is placed in front of the buffered valid bits that allow the TM to initialize the valid bits, and modify the correct bit according to the send_auth signals. This logic requires a new state machine to issue reset and enable signals at the correct time. This new state machine, called the failure state machine (FSM) will be discussed in the next section. The required combinational logic for a single buffered valid bit is shown in the VHDL segment below.

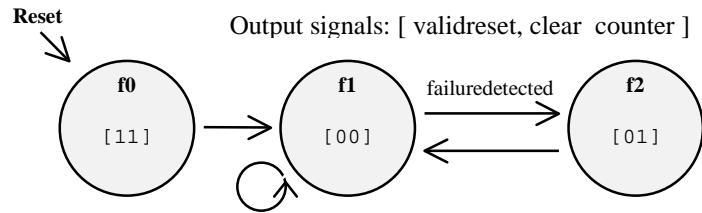
```
if ( reset = '1' ) then
    newvalue <= initialval;
else
    newvalue <= sendauth AND laststored;
end if;
```

This piece of logic has one output signal, newvalue, and four input signals: reset, initialval, sendauth, and laststored. The output signal is directly wired to the load lines of the valid bit buffer. The reset signal is not the global reset, and instead comes from the FSM when the valid bits need to be initialized to the value from the PROM. The intialvalue is attached to the external pins that are in turn wired to the routing FPGA. This value is the initial user specified valid bit. It makes sense to reinitialize the buffered valid bits upon reset since a user will probably reset the network once the failed component is fixed. If the failed component is still down after the reset, the normal failure detection mechanism simply redetects the failure. The sendauth signal is the same as the send_auth signal mentioned above and the laststored signal is simply the current output from the buffer.

The logic output will change from one to zero when sendauth is zero indicating the corresponding port has not received a token. This value will not be loaded into the valid bit buffer until the FSM enables the buffer. Notice that once a valid bit has changed to zero it cannot change back to one since the laststored stored signal will always be zero. The only way to revalidate a port is to reset the entire machine.

A nice consequence of using the send_auth signal to determine which port is invalid is that the system can detect several failed neighbors in parallel. If two neighbors fail at the same time, the failure will be detected and *both* valid bits will be set to zero.

3.2.3 Failure State Machine



*Figure 3-6: Failure State Machine**: This state machine controls the failure counter and the valid bits buffer.

The failure state machine (FSM) shown in *Figure 3-6* provides the timing and control for the hardware discussed above: the counter and the valid bits buffer. The FSM begins in state f0 where the validreset and clear_counter signals are one. These signals set the counter discussed in *Section 3.1.3* to zero and set the reset signal discussed in *Section 3.2.2* to one. On the next clock cycle, the FSM moves into state f1 where all output signals are zero. The FSM stays in state f1 until the failuredetected signal goes to one. This moves the FSM into state f2 where it will clear the counter. States f3 and f4 are needed for the set_errsig and will be discussed in the next chapter. Once finished, the FSM returns to state f1. Notice that the valid buffer bits are only initialized in state f0 and thus only after a reset. The FSM integrated with the hardware described in the above sections integrated into the overall TM is shown in *Chapter 6*.

3.2.4 Modifying the Port State Machines

The design so far is enough to detect the failure and to change the correct valid bit, but unfortunately the PSMs for the failed neighbor will remain in state s0. This is because the transition from s0 to s1 is not based directly on the valid bits but relies instead on a separate register. Details can be found in *Appendix A*. The key point is that we need a way to push the PSM back into state s0 after an error has been detected so that the TM will send out the next token wave. To do this the PSM was modified such that it includes the failuredetected signal as a new input signal. The transition from state s1 to s0 now occurs if the appropriate token has been received *or* if the failure detected signal becomes one. The current configuration skips sending the last two reminder waves when a failure has been detected, since these waves would be ignored by all valid devices and would not be sent to the failed device.

* The final failure state machine is slightly more complex than the one shown in this figure, since it includes the set_errsig signal. The final failure state machine with the set_errsig signal will be discussed in *Chapter 4*.

Chapter

Four

Notifying Hosts of a Failed Neighbor

This chapter examines the design, implementation, and testing of the second of the three hardware modifications. This modification allows a TM to broadcast a one bit error signal to all hosts in the network. The current isotach signal architecture was modified to allow timely propagation of the error signal and a mechanism for resetting the error signal.

4.1 ADDITIONAL BACKGROUND: ISOTACH SIGNALS

A signal is a broadcast communication mechanism issued by an isotach host and delivered synchronously to all other hosts in the system [15]. The isotach specification requires that a signal be delivered to all hosts at the same logical time. In order to guarantee proper delivery, isotach devices monitor a higher order logical time unit known as epochs. If a token wave is analogous to a second, then an epoch is analogous to a minute. The epoch length depends on the size of the network, and is thus stored on the PROM mentioned in *Section 3.1.1*. As defined in the isotach design specification, “An epoch is some number of local time pulses (determined when the system is configured) greater than the diameter of the network.” [15]

The six isotach signals are implemented as a six bit field in the standard token definition. Each of the first five bits correspond to application level signals, while the last bit is reserved as a system wide reset signal. When a host issues a signal, the corresponding SIU will store the signal and wait until the next epoch boundary before sending the signal on to the network. The token with the signal bit set will make its way to the next TM along the route, where that TM will store the signal bit. From then on the TM will issue token waves with the appropriate signal bit set. Since the epoch length is greater than the diameter of the network, all SIUs in the system will eventually receive the signal before the next epoch boundary. At the next epoch boundary, all SIUs pass the signal on to their respective hosts. In this way, the signal propagates through the network and is delivered to all hosts at the same logical time. TMs clear their stored signal bits at the each epoch boundary so that new signals can be propagated in the next epoch. It is important to note that the entire signal architecture assumes that only hosts can initiate a signal. [15]

4.2 DESIGN ALTERNATIVES

Chapter Three outlines the modifications necessary to handle a failed neighbor locally. Although a TM can detect and sever a failed neighbor, hosts will continue to operate under the assumption of a completely functioning network. Hosts may need to redistribute the work load or begin using a replicated data storage in light of the failure. Thus, there is a need to elevate the failure from the local hardware level to the higher host application level for more complex failure handling. To address this need, I implemented a mechanism that allows TMs to notify all hosts in the system of a failure. The primary requirements for the failure notification method is that it be both timely and robust.

The TM notification mechanism was constrained by the current isotach architecture. A possible solution might be for TMs to store the routing information to each host and then to issue a special message directly to each host whenever a failure occurred. This alternative, however, would require drastic changes to the current implementation. My modifications needed to be subtle and exploit the current isotach functionality. I decided to use isotach signals as the method for notifying hosts of the failure. A disadvantage of this decision is that using signals for notification reduces the number of application level signals available for normal use.

The primary problem with isotach signals as a notification mechanism is that the signals were designed to be issued by hosts not TMs. If a TM simply set a specific signal bit whenever a failure occurred, the epoch boundaries would interfere with the proper delivery of the error notification. For example, if a TM issued a failure notification near the end of an epoch, the signal may be cleared at the epoch boundary before it reaches all the hosts. One way to resolve this problem is to implement all signals such that they no longer use epochs, but this would require significant modifications to both the TM and the SIU.

A very simple alternative is for the TM to wait until the next epoch boundary before sending the notification signal. This alternative is advantageous, since it guarantees all hosts in the system will learn of the failure at the same time. However, it also artificially delays delivery of the notification. A better alternative is to remove the failure notification signal from the epoch constraints so that it is not cleared at the epoch boundaries. In this way, the notification reaches each host's SIU as soon as possible. The SIUs still buffer the failure signal until the next epoch boundary, so the SIUs would have to be modified to allow failure notifications to be sent to the host any earlier than the nearest epoch boundary.

An important concern is that hosts are notified of the failure before any illegal messages reach the host. Illegal messages are messages that originate from outside the LVR and thus do not abide by the isotach causal guarantees. This is why the SIU would probably have to be modified to allow failure notifications to reach the hosts as soon as possible. If the SIU waits until an epoch boundary to deliver the failure notification, then an illegal message may have already slipped through while the notification was pending. Of course this discussion assumes that illegal messages are not sent until after a TM has sent several reminder waves and eventually declared the neighbor dead.

I chose to use a two bit failure notification mechanism. The TM sets the first bit, called err_sig, when a failure is detected, and it propagates to the SIU without concern for epoch boundaries. This notification will reach the SIU/host pair as soon as possible. The second bit, called err_clr, is issued by a host and propagates as a normal isotach signal. TMs clear their err_sig bit when they receive an err_clr signal. Err_clr signals also provide a uniform logical time for the failure, which allows hosts to agree when the failure occurred.

4.3 MODIFICATIONS TO THE SIGNAL LOGIC

Normal isotach signals are stored in a buffer, called sig_buf, in the TM. As described above, the sig_buf is cleared at each epoch boundary. Some combinational logic before each bit of the sig_buf controls when the bits change. For normal signals this combinational logic implements the following boolean equation where: $S(i)$ is bit i in the sig_buf, $P(i)$ is true when the most recently received token wave contained at least one token with signal bit i set to one, and $E(i)$ is true at the epoch boundary.

$$S(i) = (\text{NOT } E(i)) \text{ AND } (P(i) \text{ OR } S(i)) \quad [\text{eq 1}]$$

To bring a signal outside the epoch constraint so that it is not cleared at each epoch boundary one need only modify this equation as follows:

$$S(i) = P(i) \text{ OR } S(i) \quad [\text{eq 2}]$$

The err_sig is defined to be signal bit 5, while the err_clr signal is defined to be signal bit 4. The err_sig has the additional constraint that it becomes one if a failure is detected and is cleared if the err_clr signal is true. If we let F indicate that a failure has been detected (F corresponds to the failure_detected signal discussed in *Section 3.1.3*), then the following equation indicates the combinational logic required to implement the err_sig.

$$S(5) = (\text{NOT } S(4)) \text{ AND } (P(5) \text{ OR } S(5) \text{ OR } F) \quad [\text{eq 3}]$$

Modifying the combinational logic to implement equation 3 was largely trivial, and the final result is shown in *Figure 4-1*. This figure is a magnified view of the actual TM schematic. Notice that the err_clr signal is implemented as a normal isotach signal.

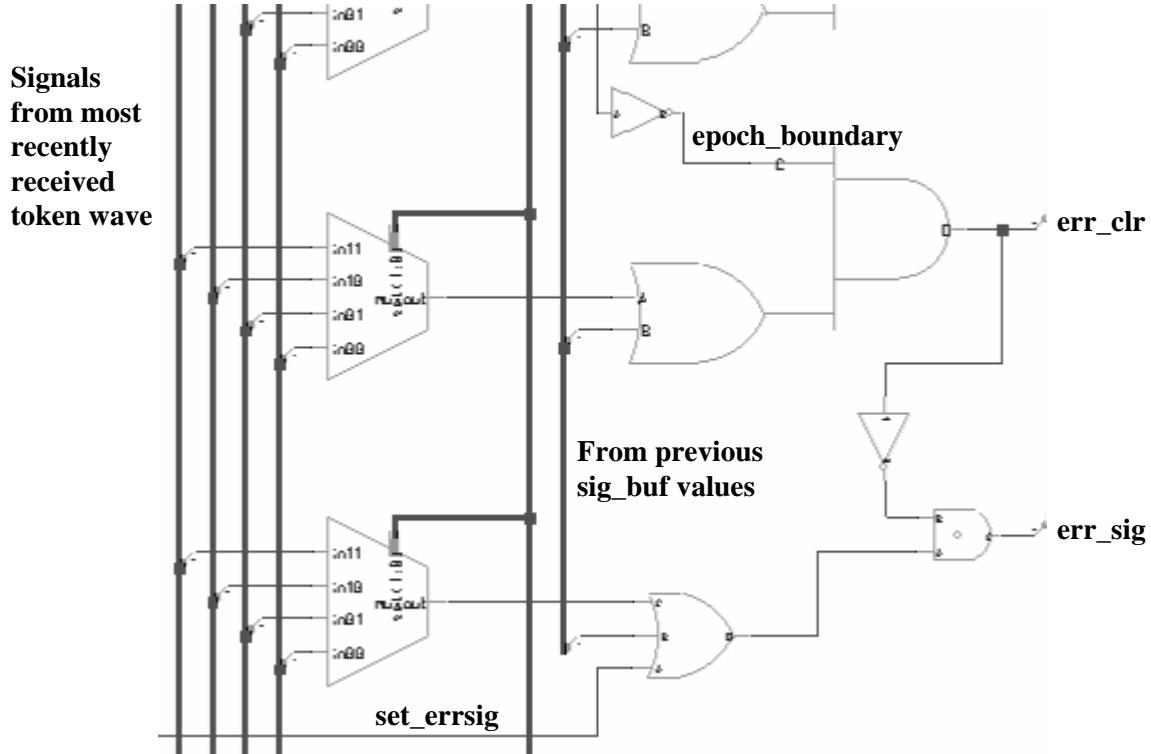


Figure 4-1: Schematic of Err_sig and Err_clr Combinational Logic: Implementing the err_sig signal required modifications to the combinational logic that precedes bit 5 in the sig_buf. The err_clr signal was implemented as a normal isotach signal. This is a screen capture of the actual modified TM schematic.

The problem with this approach is that the err_sig signal will be set to one on the wrong clock cycle. The combinational logic will correctly output a one, but the sig_buf will not be enabled until two clock cycles later when the next token wave is issued. The result is that the err_sig is never sent. To fix this, I needed to modify the failure state machine discussed in *Section 3.2.3*.

4.4 MODIFICATIONS TO THE FAILURE STATE MACHINE

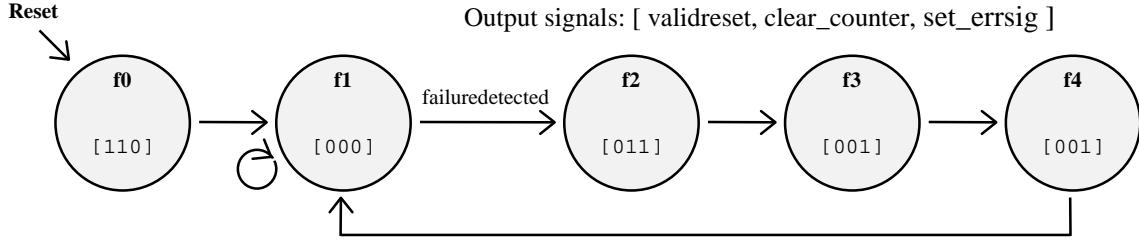


Figure 4-2: Modified Failure State Machine: The FSM presented in Section 3.2.3 was modified so that the set_errsig signal could be held long enough to be loaded into the sig_buf.

To make sure that the err_sig was one the same clock cycle the sig_buf was enabled, I needed to delay the failure_detected signal. I also needed to avoid disturbing the timing established in the previous set of modifications. Therefore, two additional states and a new output signal were added to the FSM originally presented in *Section 3.2.3*. This new output signal, set_errsig, is one for two additional clock cycles *after* the failure is first detected. Thus, the set_errsig signal is used for F in equation 3 instead of the failure_detected signal. Changing the combinational logic before the sig_buf and modifying the FSM were all that was needed to allow the TM to issue a failure notification to the hosts.

Chapter

Five

Token Manager Ping

The third modification allows a host to specifically determine which TM has failed. A signal bit notification fits well within the current system architecture, yet fails to provide enough information for a host to appropriately address the failure. This chapter examines the final modification, which enables a host to send a special message to a TM in order to verify the TM's operational status. When a TM receives this special message, known as a ping, it will return the message to the host. If the host does not receive the returned message, it knows the corresponding TM has failed.

5.1 ADDITIONAL BACKGROUND: MYRINET ROUTING FLITS

TMs and other devices in the network send messages by attaching eight bit routing flits to the front of the message. A flit refers to a byte used explicitly for routing through switches. For example in the network shown in *Figure 5-1*, if TM A wishes to send a token to the SIU attached to port 0, it would need to place a single routing flit at the beginning of the message. This flit would direct the switch to take the message from port 3 and route it to port 0. In the process of routing the token, the switch strips the flit from the front of the message, and thus the SIU receives just the token with no routing flits. For TM A to send a token to TM B, as is indicated by the dark arrow in the figure, it must add two routing flits: one to move the token through switch A and another to move the token through switch B. The first flit would indicate a port 3 to port 2 route while the second flit would indicate a port 0 to port 3 route. The key concept is that these routing flits allow messages to move through the network, and a flit is stripped off at each Myrinet switch.

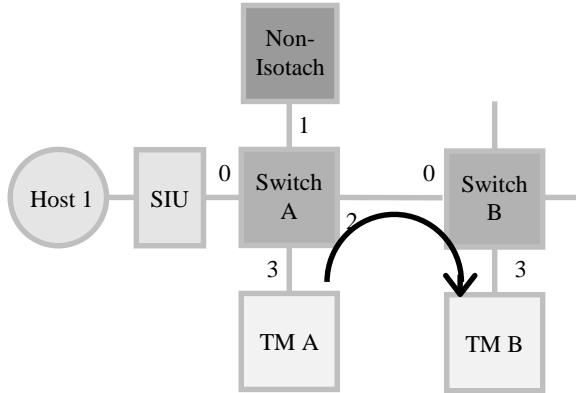


Figure 5-1: How Messages are Routed in Myrinet: Each message has an eight bit flit to direct each Myrinet switch how to route the message through that switch.

5.2 GENERAL PING CONCEPT

A ping is similar to a self-addressed envelope (SAE). Assume Person A wants to see if Person B is healthy. Person A might send a brief message and a SAE inside a normal envelope to Person B, and ask Person B to return the SAE. Notice that Person A must provide the address of Person B and the return address. If Person A does not receive the SAE, Person B can be assumed to be unhealthy. A ping operates on the same principle: a host sends a ping that contains the routing information to get to a specific device, a brief message, and the routing information to return to the host.

The failure notification mechanism described in *Chapter 4* will indicate to a host that a failure has taken place, yet it does not specify which particular isotach device is no longer operational. A host needs a way to determine which specific TM has failed.

Tokens cannot act as pings since they are a fixed length and lack the space necessary for the routing information. A possible solution is to create a new type of message specifically designated for TM pings, yet this would require special permission from Myrinet for the new message type. A much simpler solution can be found if one observes the difference between isotach tokens and isotach messages. Tokens are handled by both TMs and SIUs, but isotach messages are normally only seen by SIUs. Under the current implementation, a TM will simply discard any isotach messages it receives. I therefore decided that when a TM receives an isotach message it should interpret it as a TM ping. This solution works within the current system architecture and does not require any modifications to the SIU.

5.3 STRUCTURE OF A PING MESSAGE

A TM ping message consists of the following four parts: the route from the host to the TM, the isotach message type identifier, the route from TM to the host, and a brief message. The message shown in *Figure 5-2* is the format for a ping when it is first issued from a host. *Figure 5-2* also illustrates an example where host 1 wants to ping TM B to determine if it has failed. The first part of the ping message is the routing information necessary for the ping to get to the TM, and it is removed as the ping moves through the various Myrinet switches. In the example, there are two routing flits required to move the message from host 1 to TM B: one for switch A (port 0 to port 2) and one for switch B (port 0 to port 3). When the ping message reaches TM B, the initial routing flits will have been completely stripped off leaving the last three parts. The second part of the ping message is simply an isotach message type identifier, which is removed by the TM, while the third part is the return routing information. By the time the ping has returned to host 1, all that will

remain is the dummy message. The dummy message can contain any unique value, and it enables the original host to differentiate between multiple pings. The main issue in such a design is handling the return routing information within the TM. Two possible solutions will be examined in the next section.

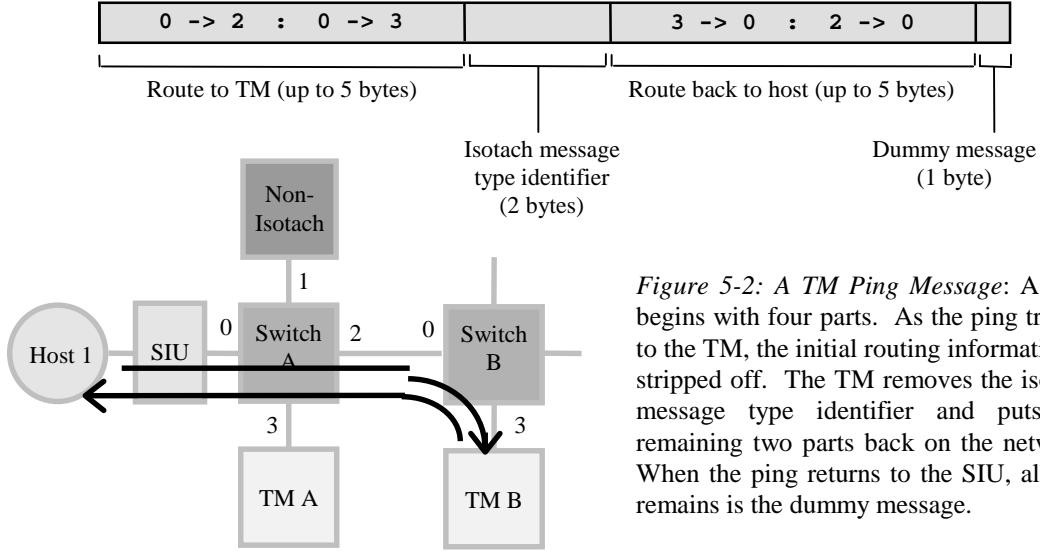


Figure 5-2: A TM Ping Message: A ping begins with four parts. As the ping travels to the TM, the initial routing information is stripped off. The TM removes the isotach message type identifier and puts the remaining two parts back on the network. When the ping returns to the SIU, all that remains is the dummy message.

5.4 TWO METHODS FOR HANDLING RETURN ROUTE INFORMATION

The TM needs to perform the following four steps in order to correctly handle host-to-TM pings:

1. Recognize that the current incoming word is the first word in a ping.
2. Remove the two byte isotach message type identifier.
3. If a token wave is currently being issued, wait until the wave is finished.
4. Pass the ping (return route information and dummy message) back onto the network.

Step one was simply an issue of modifying the logic that examines the token type identifier, and step two was trivial. Step four required modifying the state machines that monitor sending token waves so as to allow the output lines to serve a dual purpose: issuing token waves and returning pings. Step three, however, provided an interesting challenge.

The incoming network traffic comes through a first in first out buffer (FIFO) before it reaches the actual main FPGA. This FIFO prevents the FPGA from missing anything if the incoming network traffic is arriving too quickly. Kuebert decided to permanently wire the FIFO such that it was always enabled [7]. This means the FIFO will *always* output one word to the main FPGA every clock cycle. This was a reasonable decision in the original implementation, since the TM is designed to always accept input. This input is either discarded if it is not a token, or the applicable

token information is buffered. With respect to the host-to-TM ping situation, however, it would be useful if the main FPGA could force the input FIFO to pause for several clock cycles. This would allow the main FPGA to finish sending the current token wave and then enable the input FIFO when the output lines were available. The ping return route information could then be directly passed through to the output lines one word at a time irrespective of the actual length of the overall ping. The fact that this solution does not constrain the length of a host-to-TM ping allows any host to ping any TM in the network.

The first step to allow the FPGA to pause the FIFO is to sever the permanent connection between the FIFO enable and ground. This connection is actually a piece of metal embedded in the PCB board, but it can be broken with a special knife. A physical wire is used to attach the FIFO enable pin to a free pin on the main FPGA. This connection is much less reliable than a permanent embedded connection, but it is a common technique used in constructing prototypes. The FPGA logic could then directly enable or disable the FIFO. The main problem with such a solution is that it requires drastic modifications to the PCB. I decided to sacrifice the flexibility of unlimited size ping messages in order to achieve a less intrusive modification.

An alternative to forcing the FIFO to wait until the current token wave is sent is to simply buffer the ping message until the ping can be returned. This requires the designer to set a limit as to the size of the ping. After discussions with the isotach architects, I decided that a limit of two words for the ping message would be more than adequate. Two 32 bit words contain eight bytes. Two of these bytes would be reserved for the isotach message type identifier and at least one would be required for the dummy message. This leaves a maximum of five bytes for the return routing information, and correspondingly, this limits a host's ability to ping TMs. A host can only ping a TM that is within five switches. Although every host will not be within five switches of every TM, it is highly unlikely that there will be a TM that is not within five switches of at least one host. This realization means that all hosts can still learn the status of all TMs if one takes a distributed approached to discovering the failed TM.

As an example, consider a large network with several TMs and hosts. All hosts receive a failure notification signal and thus all hosts would like to determine which specific TM or SIU has failed. To do so, each host has a few TMs (within five switches) and SIUs for which it is responsible. The host determines the status of all devices for which it is responsible and broadcasts this information to the other hosts. The hosts can work together to quickly identify the failed device.

The buffered return route approach constrains the size of the host-to-TM ping in two ways. As discussed above, the total size of the host-to-TM ping cannot exceed 13 bytes: five bytes for routing to the TM, five bytes for routing from the TM back to the host, two bytes for the isotach message identifier, and one byte for the dummy message. The minimum host-to-TM ping size is also constrained, since my modifications assume that the TM needs to buffer two words. This is only a concern when a host is pinging a TM on the same adjacent switch (such as host 1 and TM A in *Figure 5-2*). In this case, the total host-to-TM ping size would be five bytes: one byte for routing to the TM, one byte for routing from the TM back to the host, two bytes for the isotach message identifier, and one byte for the dummy message. The problem is that when this ping reaches the TM it will only be one word long, since the first routing flit will have been stripped away. The TM, however, expects all pings to be two words. Therefore, when a host needs to ping a TM on the same adjacent switch, it should make the dummy message two bytes long. This guarantees that the TM will always have two words of ping information to buffer.

5.5 MODIFICATIONS TO THE INPUT STATE MACHINE AND THE RETURN ROUTE BUFFERS

Figure 5-2 shows the modified input valid state machine (IVSM). The original state machine was comprised of only states s0 and s1. State s2 was added to handle host-to-TM pings. The state machine begins in state s0. Two separate blocks of logic control the buff_en and ping_valid signals. Buff_en will be one if the current word from the input FIFO is the first word of a token, while ping_valid will be one if the current word is the first word of a host-to-TM ping. As discussed above, the first two bytes of the first word of a host-to-TM ping will be the isotach message identifier. Once the state machine enters either state s1 or s2, it will set either ping_recv or inp_valid to one. These output signals are used as enables for various buffers, which store parts of the incoming word from the FIFO.

A 16 bit buffer and a 35 bit buffer are used to store the return route. Since two bytes of the first word of a host-to-TM ping are the isotach message identifier, one need only store the last two bytes of the first word. The entire second word of the host-to-TM ping must be buffered. The enable for

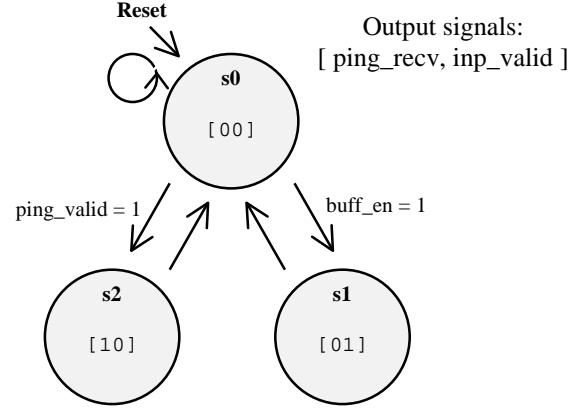


Figure 5-3: Modified Input Valid State Machine:
This state machine controls the movement of words from the input FIFO into the rest of the TM. State s2 was added.

the return_route_word1 (16 bit) buffer is simply the ping_valid signal mentioned above. The enable for the return_route_word2 (35 bit) buffer is the ping_recv signal from state s2 of the IVSM.

A small component adds 19 static bits to the first word of the return route. These 19 bits include two bytes of all zeros and three Myrinet control signals. The control signals inform the network what part of the 32 bit word is valid, and thus I used the control signals “010”. These signals indicate that only the last two bytes are valid data. For the second word, the control signals are buffered with the return route and are simply passed along to the output FIFO bus.

5.6 THE PING HANDLER STATE MACHINE

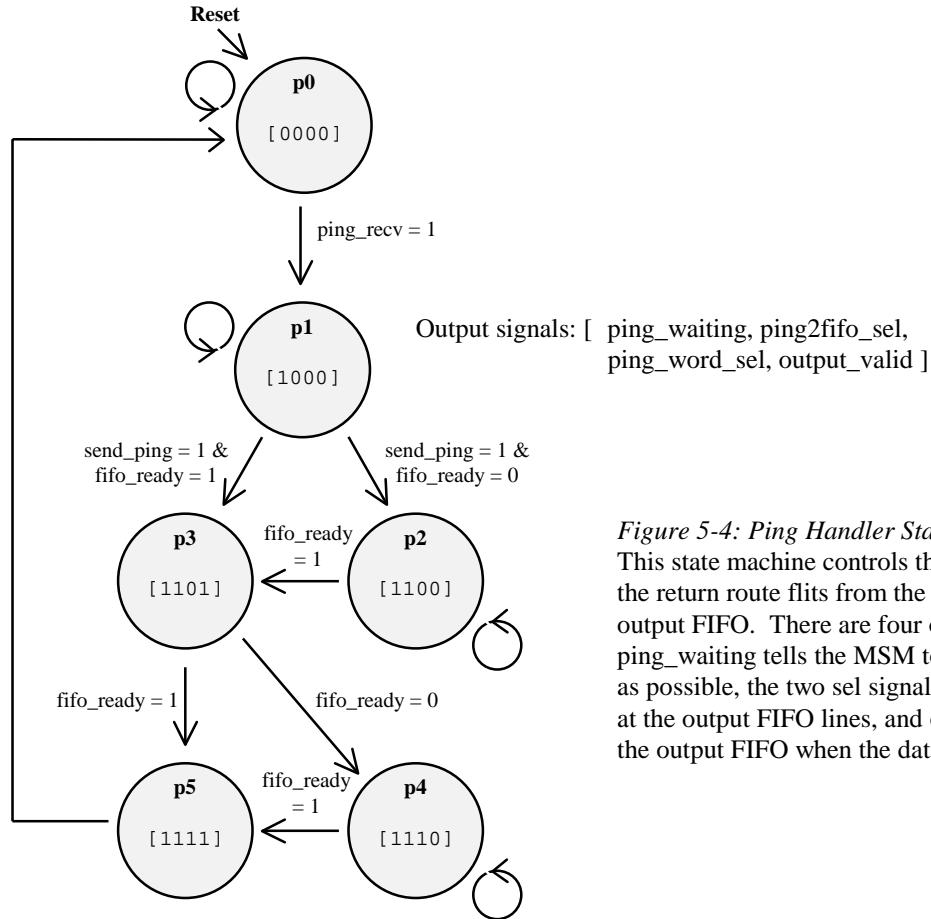


Figure 5-4: Ping Handler State Machine:
This state machine controls the movement of the return route flits from the buffers to the output FIFO. There are four output signals: ping_waiting tells the MSM to pause as soon as possible, the two sel signals control muxes at the output FIFO lines, and output_valid tells the output FIFO when the data is ready.

The ping handler state machine (PHSM) is responsible for getting the return route information from the buffers to the output FIFO. The PHSM begins in state p0 where it remains during all normal TM activity. When a host-to-TM ping is received (ping_recv from the IVSM is one), then the PHSM moves into state p1 where it will wait until the current token wave has been issued. While in state p1, the PHSM lets the master state machine know a ping has been received with the ping_waiting signal. The send_ping signal comes from the master state machine, and it indicates that the all token waves have been sent. The PHSM now moves into state p2 or state p3 depending upon whether or not the output FIFO is ready. If the FIFO is not ready, the PHSM will simply wait in state p3 until it is ready. In state p2, the PHSM puts the first word of the return route information into the output FIFO and then repeats the same procedure with states p4 and p5 for the second word. Once both words have been placed into the output FIFO, the PHSM returns to state p0.

5.7 MODIFICATIONS TO THE MASTER STATE MACHINE AND AT THE OUTPUT FIFO BUS

As implied in the previous section, it was necessary to modify the master state machine. The master state machine (MSM) is the main control structure for the entire TM and it is responsible for telling the sender state machine when to issue token waves. I added a new state (labeled “1000”) to the MSM so that the MSM would pause while the return route information was being placed into the output FIFO. The MSM will enter state “1000” from its primary wait state when the ping_waiting signal is one. Since the MSM will finish sending any current token wave before returning to its primary wait state, we can guarantee that a ping will not interrupt a currently outgoing token wave.

In addition to modifying the MSM, I needed to multiplex the bus going to the output FIFO. The ping2fifo_sel signal from the PHSMS selects either the normal output from the sender or the output from the return route buffers. The ping_word_sel signal chooses which word of the return route should be sent to the output FIFO. An or gate was also needed to allow either the original logic or the new PHSMS to set the output_valid signal. This signal goes to the output FIFO and tells the FIFO when the data on the output FIFO bus is valid for buffering. *Figure 5-5* is a magnified portion of the TM schematic showing the multiplexors at the output FIFO bus.

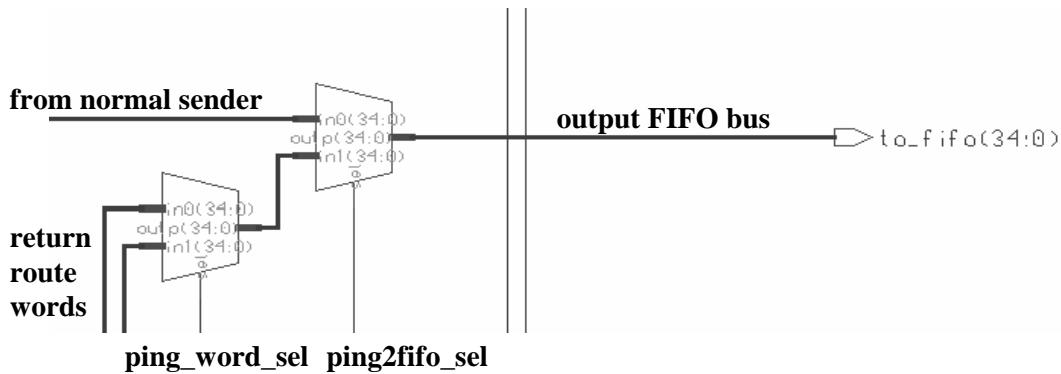


Figure 5-5: Schematic of Muxes at Output FIFO Bus: Two 2:1 35 bit muxes were required at the output FIFO bus so that both normal token waves and return route information could be placed onto the output FIFO bus. The select signals come from the PHSMS. This is a screen capture of the actual TM schematic.

Chapter

Six

Results: Schematics, Simulation, and Synthesis

The previous three chapters individually outlined the design and implementation for the three modifications. This chapter views the modifications from a system perspective in order to analyze their impact on the overall TM schematic, TM functionality, and FPGA constraints. First, the original and modified TM schematics are presented. Second, a few illustrative functional tests are discussed to demonstrate that the modifications perform as expected. The last section describes the results from synthesizing the modified TM.

6.1 THE TOKEN MANAGER SCHEMATICS

As discussed in *Chapter 1*, the Mentor Graphics tools allow a developer to connect various VHDL components in a system schematic. This provides a graphic depiction of how the sub-components are interconnected. I have included both the original schematic and the modified schematic. The original schematic can be found in *Figure 6-1*, and it is annotated to denote the various parts of the TM. The TM can be divided into three main regions: the receiver, the control unit, and the sender. The receiver is responsible for storing the information contained in each incoming token, while the sender is responsible for managing the issue of token waves. The control unit coordinates the receiver and the sender and monitors device timeouts. [*More detail on the original hardware can be found in Appendix A*] This figure clearly indicates the need for a detailed study of the original hardware before attempting modifications. With a system this complex, each component is closely interrelated with several other components. When modifying the TM, I was required to carefully consider each modification's impact on the rest of the system.

Figure 6-2 shows the TM schematic after all three modifications have been fully implemented. Each modification is highlighted in a different color. Notice the wide scope of the modifications. I modified several of the original finite state machines and created several new components.

Figure 6-1: Original TM Schematic: This schematic shows the TM before any modifications were made. The design is divided into three regions: a receiver for storing information about each token wave, a sender for handling the issue of new token waves, and a control unit for managing the TM and monitoring timeouts.

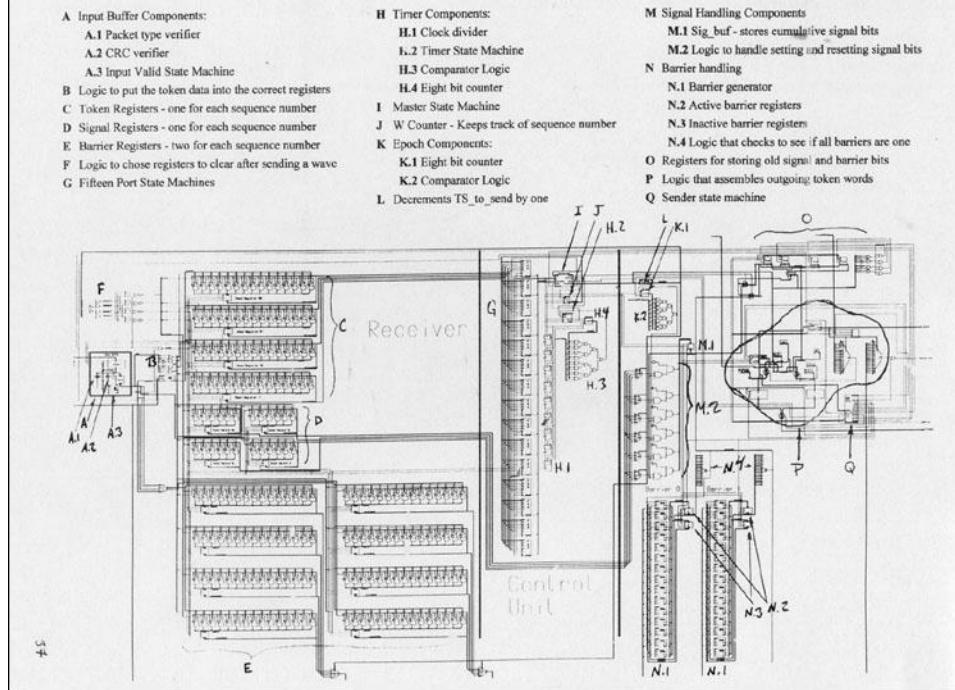
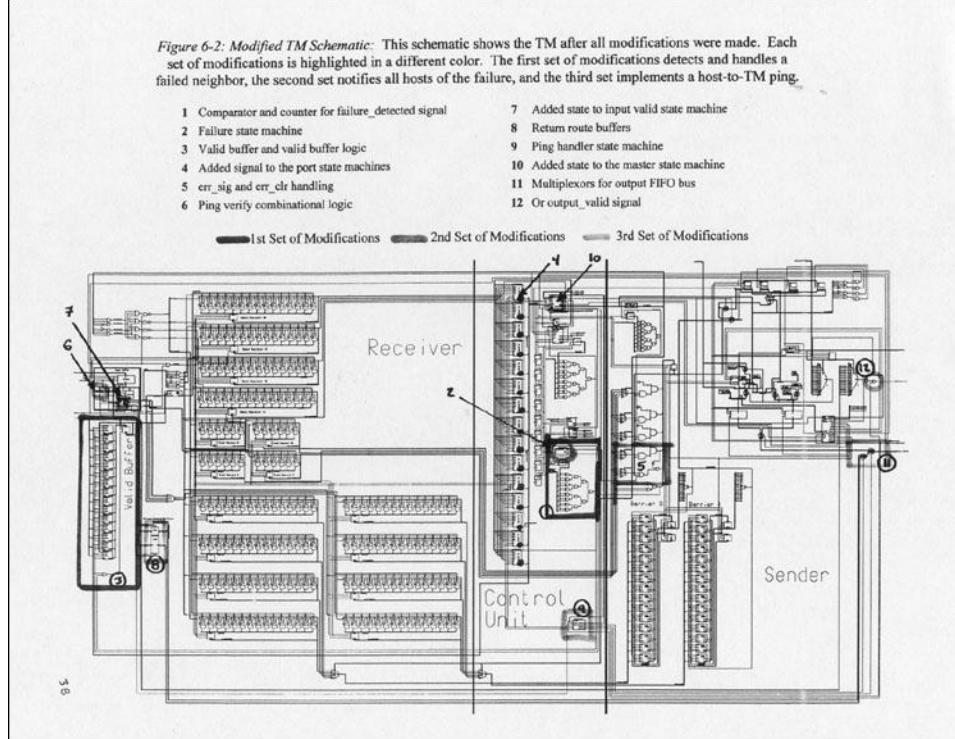


Figure 6-2: Modified TM Schematic: This schematic shows the TM after all modifications were made. Each set of modifications is highlighted in a different color. The first set of modifications detects and handles a failed neighbor, the second set notifies all hosts of the failure, and the third set implements a host-to-TM ping.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1 Comparator and counter for failure_detected signal | 7 Added state to input valid state machine |
| 2 Failure state machine | 8 Return route buffers |
| 3 Valid buffer and valid buffer logic | 9 Ping handler state machine |
| 4 Added signal to the port state machines | 10 Added state to the master state machine |
| 5 err_sig and err_clr handling | 11 Multiplexors for output FIFO bus |
| 6 Ping verify combinational logic | 12 Or output_valid signal |

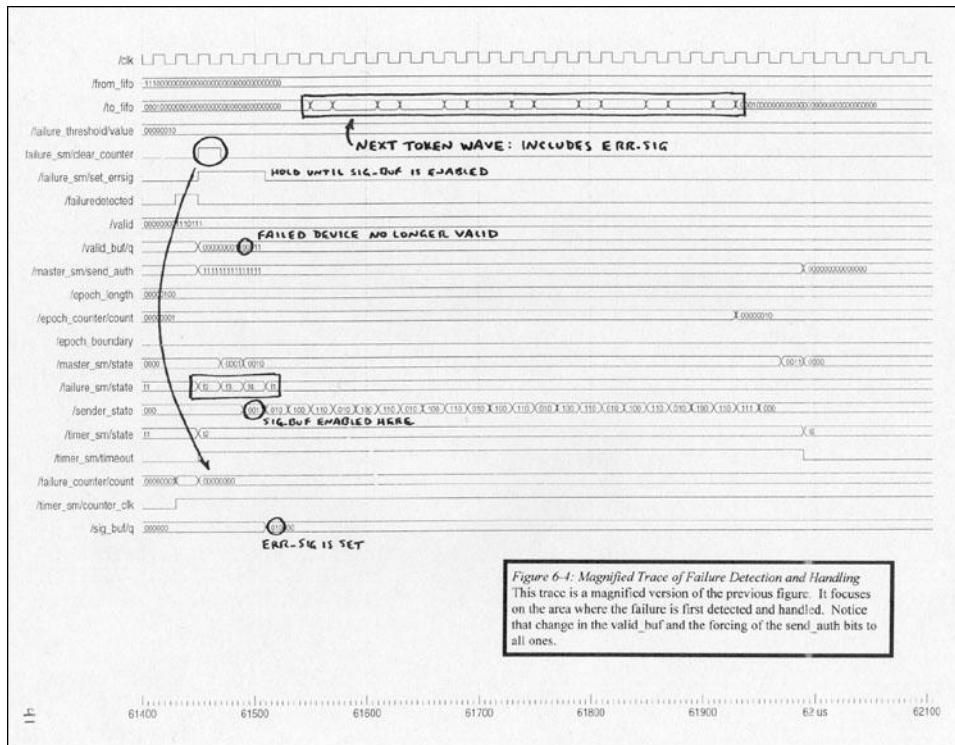
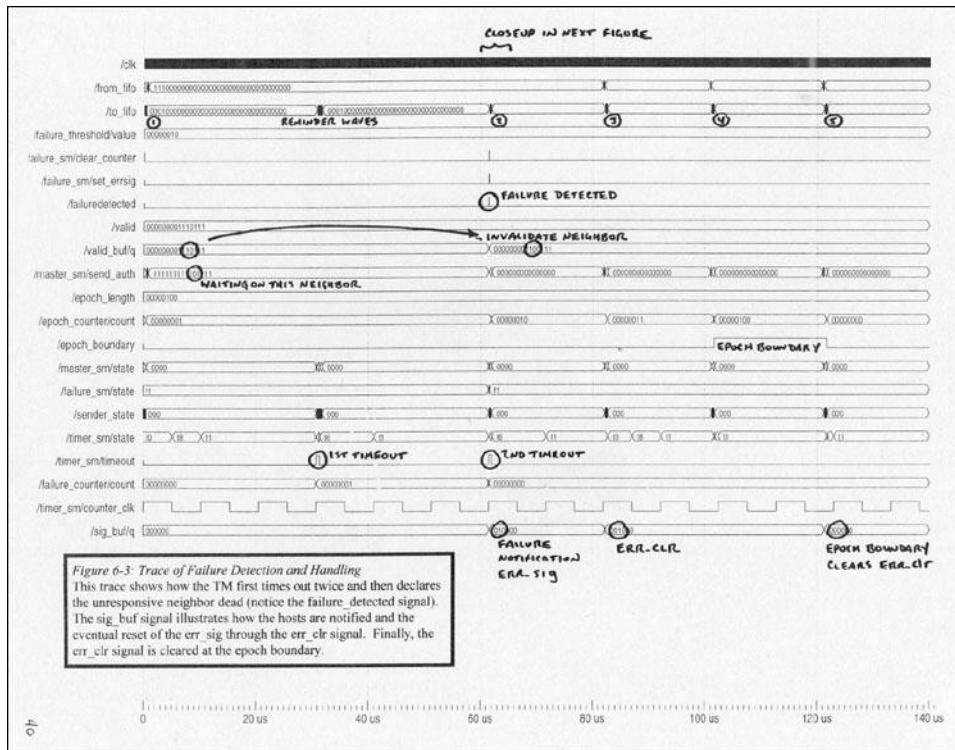
— 1st Set of Modifications — 2nd Set of Modifications — 3rd Set of Modifications

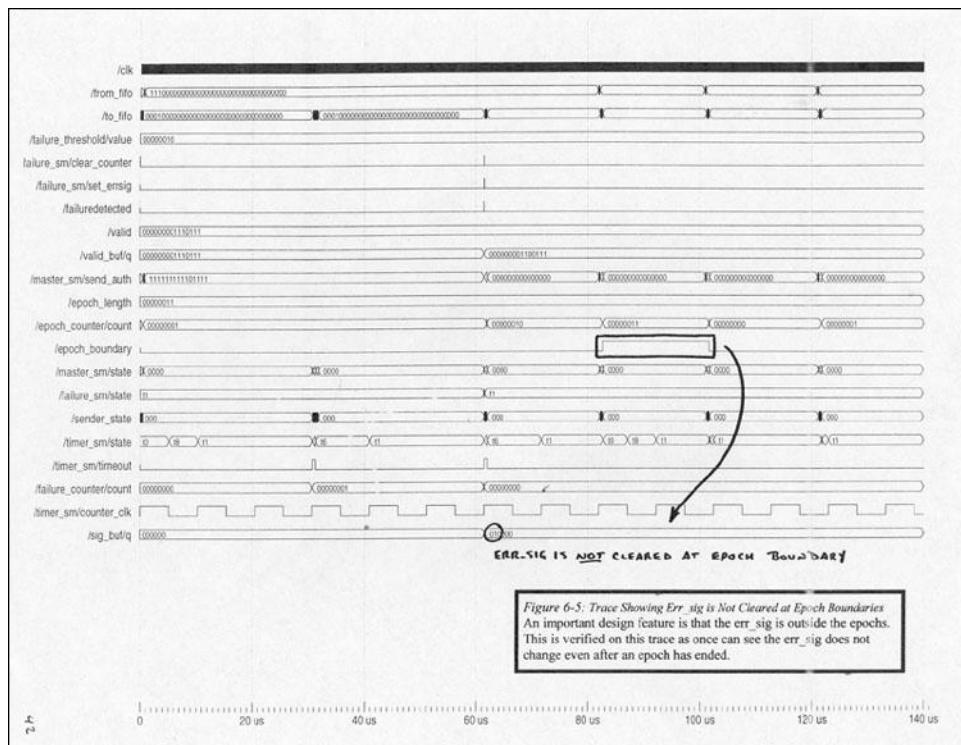


6.2 FUNCTIONAL SIMULATION

Using a VHDL simulator, I was able to functionally verify that the modifications performed as expected. The simulations began with a script file that instructed the simulator on the initial values for the signals in the system. [*The script files can be found in Appendix B*] The simulator uses the script file to simulate the entire TM and produce a waveform trace. These traces illustrate what is going on inside the TM and help the developer determine if the TM is functioning correctly. Two functional tests are included in this chapter to illustrate the functional correctness of my modifications. The first test examines the failure detection and notification, and the second test examines the host-to-TM ping handling.

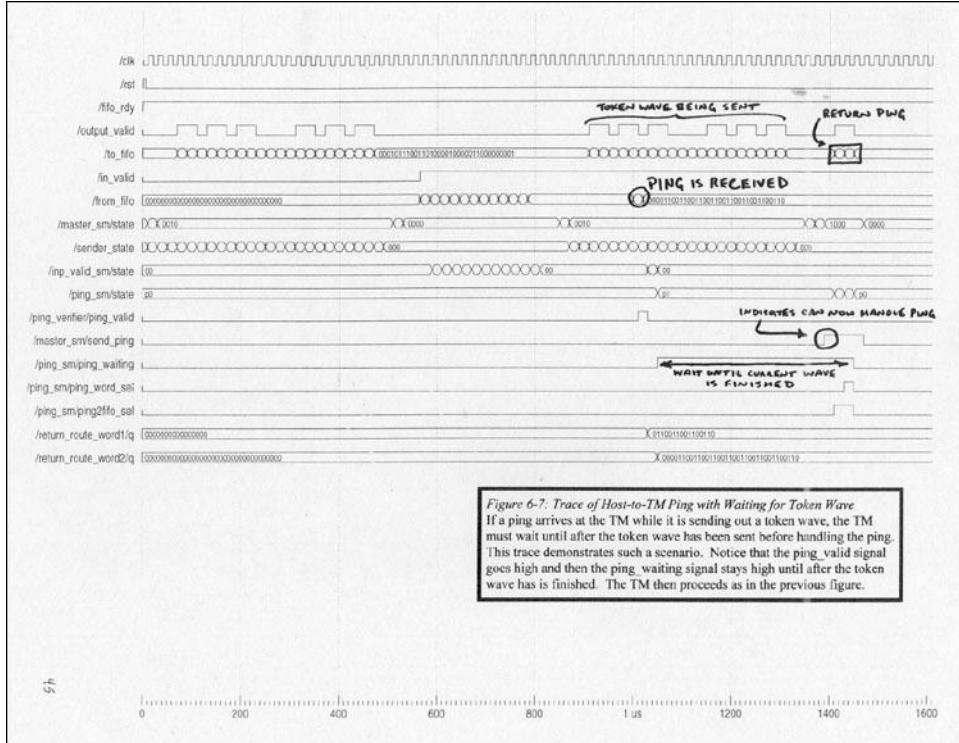
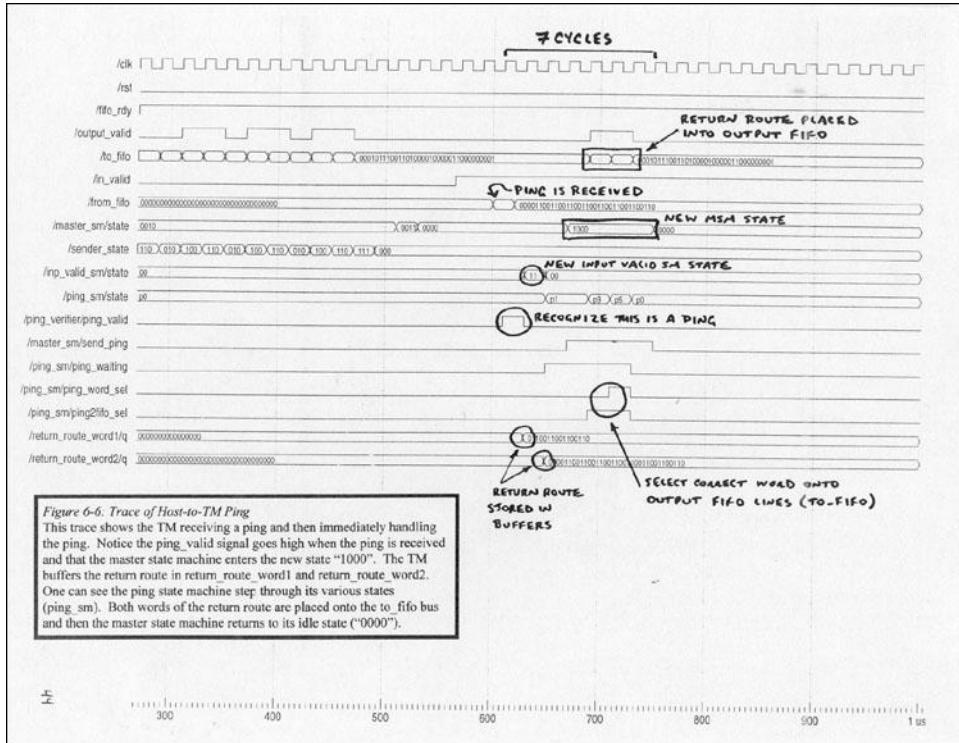
The first test is shown in *Figures 6-3, 6-4, and 6-5*. *Figure 6-3* illustrates the complete procedure for failure detection, handling, and notification. The test begins with the TM issuing its first token wave, and the script file artificially responds by sending tokens back to the TM. Notice that the `send_auth` signal has one zero indicating that the TM is waiting to receive a token from that device. The `timeout` signal goes high, and so the TM issues a reminder wave. The neighbor still does not respond, and the TM experiences another timeout. This time the `failure_counter` has reached the `failure_threshold`, so the TM declares the unresponsive neighbor dead. Examining the `valid_buf` signal shows how the TM switches the bit corresponding to the unresponsive neighbor from a one to a zero. The `sig_buf` shows that the TM sets the `err_sig` bit to one in order to notify hosts of the failure. The TM issues a new token wave (with the `err_sig` bit set) and will neither expect tokens from nor send tokens to the dead neighbor. The script file responds by having the valid neighbors send tokens back to the TM. I have setup the test such that this token wave also includes the `err_clr` signal. Correspondingly, the `err_sig` bit is cleared. Notice that the `err_clr` signal is cleared as a normal isotach signal at the end of the epoch. *Figure 6-4* shows a magnified area of the trace when the failure is detected. *Figure 6-5* is a trace from a slightly different script file. This figure verifies that the `err_sig` is *not* cleared at epoch boundaries. As discussed in *Chapter 4*, this is a key requirement for timely failure notification.





The second test examines the host-to-TM ping. *Figures 6-6* and *6-7* illustrate how the TM handles the ping. *Figure 6-6* shows a ping arriving at the TM on the from_fifo lines. The ping_valid signal goes high indicating that this ping has the correct ping message identifier, and therefore the TM buffers the return route information (as illustrated by the return_route_word1 and return_route_word2 signals). The TM then places each of the two words onto the to_fifo lines. The entire ping handling process takes seven clock cycles.

Figure 6-7 demonstrates how the TM handles a ping when it is received while a token wave is being issued. The TM cannot immediately put the return route onto the to_fifo lines since the sender is using these lines. Instead the TM must wait until the token wave is finished before handling the ping. The from_fifo signals in *Figure 6-7* show when the ping is received. Notice that the ping_waiting signal goes high to remind the TM that it needs to handle the ping once the current token wave has been sent. Once the sender state machine is done, the master state machine enters state “1000” (as seen on signal master_sm/state). The return route can be seen on the to_fifo lines.



6.3 TOKEN MANAGER SYNTHESIS

Synthesis is the process by which VHDL is transformed into the actual FPGA hardware logic. A real concern was whether or not the modifications would cause the TM to exceed the maximum capacity of the main FPGA. To address this concern, I used three tools to generate, place, and route the design: galileo, mapsh, and parsh. These tools provide information on the size of the design compared to the maximum possible size. Additionally, the parsh tool tries to connect together the various pieces of hardware logic, and thus it reports on whether or not it was able to route the design. Some basic timing information can also be gathered from the parsh tool. As described in *Section 1.3.1*, a Lucent ORCA or2c40a FPGA was used for the main FPGA. This chip has a maximum capacity of 900 PFUs. *Table 6-1* shows the PFU usage for the original design and after each of the three modifications.

TM Version	PFUs	Flip-Flops	Combinational LUTs
Original	488 (54%)	459	531
with Modifications #1	482 (53%)	485	486
with Modifications #1, #2	511 (56%)	486	514
with Modifications #1, #2, #3	525 (58%)	542	467

Table 6-1: FPGA Usage: The table illustrates how the modifications impacted the size of the design. The or3c40a FPGA has four flip-flops and four LUTs per programmable function unit (PFU).

Notice that the size of the design in PFUs actually *decreases* following the initial set of modifications. This is counterintuitive, since one would think that making additions to a design would generally make that design larger. The reason for this discrepancy is probably due to the structure of a single PFU. Each PFU contains four flip-flops. Thus, a whole PFU is considered ‘in use’ whether one flip-flop is used or all four flip-flops are used. The original design may have had several PFUs that were not fully exploited, and thus, the modifications simply took advantage of the unused portions. This might explain why the size would stay the same, but it does not explain why the size actually decreased. Notice in *Table 6-1* that the first set of modifications resulted in an increase in the number of flip-flops but a decrease in the number of combinational look up tables (LUTs). The computer tools may have been able to better optimize the combinational logic after the additions were made. If additional flip-flops were placed in partially used PFUs and additional combinational logic allowed for further optimization, it is quite possible that the number of PFUs might decrease after making additions.

The key point from *Table 6-1* is that all three modifications cause an eight percent increase in the total PFU usage for the main FPGA. This brings the final FGPA capacity to 58%. Although far from being completely full, it is important to note that as a design nears 60% capacity, the design becomes much more difficult to route. Therefore, I also used the parsh tool to verify that the final design could be routed successfully.

Routing a design is a non-deterministic problem, and therefore, various runs of the parsh tool can result in different routing. These different interconnects can result in drastically different design speeds. Brian Kuebert, the electrical engineer responsible for the original TM, used a conservative single routing pass, and thus, I used a similar method. I also attempted a much more aggressive routing strategy using several optimization passes. The result was much lower delays through the TM. These timing results are shown in *Table 6-2*. It is important to note that this timing analysis is not particularly accurate and simply allows one to qualitatively examine the impact of the modifications on the overall design's speed. As expected, the delay through the TM increases after the modifications. One area where the modifications definitely slow down the original design is at the output FIFO bus where I added a 2:1 mux. This mux will introduce an additional delay in the TM's primary output path.

TM Version	Avg Connection Delay (ns)	Max Delay From Pin-to-Pin (ns)
Original	8.92	41.72
with Modifications	10.13	57.71
Original (multi-pass)	6.00	17.01
with Modifications (multi-pass)	6.59	18.47

Table 6-2: Timing Results: The parsh tool gives basic timing information that can be useful in qualitatively examining the modifications' impact on the overall TM's speed. The aggressive multi-pass routing strategy produced much better timing results.

Chapter

Seven

The Logical Dead Space Problem

Dead space is a consequence of the modifications discussed in *Chapter 1*. It refers to an area of the network where logical time has stopped (the inverse of the LVR). The underlying problem is that although tokens are barred from entering dead space (through the *Chapter 1* modifications), isotach messages are not similarly constrained. This means that a host in the LVR could receive an isotach message originating outside the LVR, which could easily violate causal guarantees. The dead space problem was one of the main reasons failed neighbor handling was not included in the original prototype, thus this chapter explains how the three modifications presented in the previous chapters can work together to address this problem.

7.1 WHAT IS DEAD SPACE?

Figure 7-1 illustrates a typical dead space scenario. The circles represent a host/SIU pair, while the squares represent TMs and SIUs. The key to understanding dead space is the difference between how isotach tokens and isotach messages propagate through the network.

As discussed in earlier chapters, tokens move from TM to TM to SIU in the form of token waves. SIUs handle tokens exactly like a TM: when they receive a token they increment their internal logical clock and send a new token with the incremented timestamp. Isotach messages, however, do not move from TM to TM. Instead they simply move through the Myrinet switches like normal network traffic until they reach the target host's SIU where they are buffered. For example, assume that TM 2 has not failed in *Figure 7-1*. Then a token moving from host 1's SIU would move through switch 1 (S1) and stop at TM1. It would then move through switch 2 (S2) and stop at TM2,

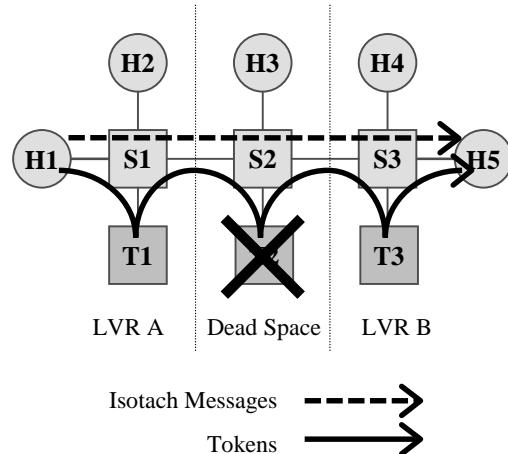


Figure 7-1: Dead Space: Dead space, the inverse of the LVR, can cause problems since tokens and isotach messages propagate differently.

and so on until it reaches host 5's SIU. An isotach message would simply move through each of the three switches until it reaches host 5's SIU.

Now assume TM2 has failed. TM1 and TM2 will both declare TM2 dead and will correspondingly stop sending tokens to or expecting tokens from TM2. This partitions the network into two separate and unsynchronized LVRs. The problem is that although tokens can no longer pass through the logically dead space, isotach messages can *freely move between LVRs through the dead space*. Similarly, messages can be generated within the dead space by host 3 and then sent into the LVRs.

Let us examine the dead space problem with other component failure modes. If the network link connecting two switches fails or if a switch itself fails, then the network will be physically partitioned instead of logically partitioned. A physical partition avoids the dead space problem, since neither tokens nor isotach messages can travel through a failed network link. A network link failure between a switch and a TM will act the same as a failed TM, and thus, the dead space problem will still be present. Notice that a failed SIU can cause similar problems, even though the dead space is not in the middle of the network. The SIU failure could take many forms and even though it may not be responding to its neighboring TM, it could still allow isotach messages to pass onto the network. Thus isotach messages are being generated in dead space and then allowed to travel into the LVR.

The dead space problem is significant since it allows messages to violate the fundamental isotach synchronization guarantees. The problem seems to outweigh any benefit derived from handling the failure and allowing a portion of the network to continue to function. The three main solutions to the dead space problem will be discussed in the next section.

7.2 SOLUTIONS TO THE DEAD SPACE PROBLEM

The first solution to the dead space problem is to simply assume a fault free network. This was the isotach group's original strategy, and it is quite reasonable when one considers the probability of TM or SIU failure. These isotach devices have been thoroughly tested and use highly reliable parts so that a TM or SIU failure is theoretically unlikely. Unfortunately, there has been no quantitative analysis of the isotach hardware devices' reliability. Furthermore, a TM or SIU failure is critical. Such a failure mode causes the *entire* isotach network to come to a halt. Providing a mechanism for handling TM and SIU failure, even though such failures are rare, is important to creating a robust and fault tolerant isotach implementation.

Another solution to the dead space problem is the barrier method. The idea is to create a barrier in the dead space that prevents isotach messages from passing through. The most drastic possibility is to force the switch to fail whenever its adjacent TM fails. This would be both difficult to implement and would hinder non-isotach network traffic. Another possibility is to make isotach messages propagate from TM to TM in the same way as tokens. When a TM or SIU fails, the neighboring TM would disregard isotach messages in the same way it disregards tokens and effectively create a barrier in the dead space. Unfortunately, this solution would require a completely new implementation of the TM.

The third solution is the invalidation method. The idea is to give a host or SIU in the LVR the ability to differentiate between messages that originated inside the same LVR and messages that originated outside the LVR. Adding this capability to the SIU would require extensive hardware modification. Allowing the host to decide the validity of an isotach message is much more reasonable. The host could proceed as normal until it receives notification of a failure. The host would then move into a failure mode where it identifies the failed device and disregards any messages that originate from outside the LVR. The additional overhead involved in checking the validity of isotach messages would not be trivial, but it would only be required when a failure has actually occurred. The three modifications described in *Chapters 3, 4, and 5* provide the tools necessary to implement this solution.

7.3 HOW ALL THREE MODIFICATIONS ADDRESS THE DEAD SPACE PROBLEM

Let us examine the failure scenario presented in the previous section and in *Figure 7-1*. TM2 has failed and TM1 and TM3 correspondingly send several reminder waves. Once the failure threshold has been exceeded, both TM1 and TM3 declare TM2 dead and set the appropriate valid bit to zero. TM1 and TM3 will no longer expect tokens from TM2, nor will they send tokens to TM2. Both TM2 and TM3 will then set err_sig to one in the next token wave. Hosts 1, 2, 4, and 5 will receive the notification, but host 3 will be unaware of the failure since tokens cannot enter dead space. These hosts will then attempt to determine which SIU or TM has failed. Each host will then ping each of the three TMs to determine which has failed. Notice that all hosts can ping all TMs since no TM is more than five switches away from all hosts. Pings to TM2 will not be returned since that device has failed. Once all hosts have determined that TM2 has failed, the hosts should send an err_clear signal. This signal will reset the err_sig in all working TMs.

If a SIU had failed instead of a TM, a host would still ping all TMs first. Once the host had determined that a TM has not failed, the host could send isotach messages as pings to the other four hosts in the network. If one of the other hosts did not return the isotach message then that SIU/host pair is assumed to have failed. Hosts cannot perform this host-to-host pinging first, since hosts in a dead space caused by a failed TM will be unable to return a direct ping. In *Figure 6-1*, host 3 cannot return a host-to-host ping since the failed TM2 will stop logical time and prevent host 3's SIU from ever delivering an isotach message.

Hosts can determine the location of LVRs and dead space by combining failure and network layout information. Once determined, hosts in the LVR can notify hosts in the dead space (such as host 3) that they are in a logically invalid area and should cease sending isotach messages. This will help to reduce the number of illegal messages in the network. In order for a host to determine the validity of an incoming isotach message, a host will have to know routing information about the message. Under the current implementation, such routing information is not normally included in an isotach message, but such information could be made a standard part of all isotach messages. This would increase the size overhead of messages but would also provide a mechanism to determine if a message has passed through dead space. If messages are always routed the same way from one host to another, then the routing information may just be a sending host identifier.

All three modifications work together to help address the dead space problem. With additional handling at the host level, these modifications can prevent illegal messages by allowing a host to recognize when messages originated outside of the LVR. There are probably several more efficient methods for addressing the dead space problem, yet this solution requires a minimum of hardware modifications and fits well within the current system architecture.

Chapter

Eight

Conclusions

8.1 PROJECT SUMMARY

This report described the design, implementation, and testing of three hardware modifications that allow an isotach token manager to handle failed neighbors. The first modification enabled a TM to detect and handle the failure, while the second modification provided a mechanism for the TM to notify all hosts in the system of the failure. The third modification implemented a host-to-TM ping. These three modifications work together to address the logical dead space problem, an anomaly that results from logically severing an isotach device. All three modifications were successfully implemented and functionally simulated.

The primary design principle throughout the project was to minimize the modifications' impact on the implementation as a whole. I avoided designs that would require extensive changes to the SIU or components external to the TM's main FPGA. Additionally, I analyzed the impact of my modifications on the main FPGA capacity usage. The final results revealed an increase of eight percent in capacity usage between the original and modified token managers. This design principle helped make the modifications reasonable to implement and acceptable to the isotach research group.

This report targeted failed TMs and SIUs, yet the modifications also address the issue of failed network links and switches. These additional failure modes will appear the same to the neighboring TM, and thus, the TM will detect and handle them in a similar manner. This report primarily focused on a neighboring TM failure, yet the approach is applicable to several failure modes.

Although each of the three modifications can be seen to meet a specific need, all three modifications work together to address the logical dead space problem. The logical dead space problem was the primary reason the isotach research group did not provide a permanent fault detector in the original implementation. It was important that I address this problem and modify the TM so that the network could properly manage logically dead space following an isotach device failure. The modified TM can detect and sever a failed neighbor and thus prevent tokens from

crossing a logically dead space or entering into the LVR. The modified TM can also notify all hosts of the error so that the hosts are aware that illegal messages may be present in the network. Furthermore, the TM can handle host-to-TM pings that allow a host to determine which specific isotach device has failed. When all three modifications are used together, they can allow the network as a whole to address the logical dead space problem. This may not be the most direct solution, but it works well within the original system architecture and requires a minimum number of changes.

8.2 REFLECTIONS AND INTERPRETATION

The modifications described in this report are relatively simple, yet their implementation was far from trivial. The modifications attempted to alter an extremely complex system that lacked detailed documentation and included several interacting subsystems. Consequently, I needed to perform an extensive study of the original hardware before attempting to make alterations. A real danger in modifying complex systems is that changes can appear to function correctly, but in reality they may fail to address a certain case or lack a specific piece of logic. A thorough understanding of the original implementation as well as extensive functional testing help to mitigate this risk.

It is important to realize that a primary application for isotach networks is as a distributed control system on naval ships. DARPA has provided a significant portion of the isotach group's funding over the last three years, and thus it is quite possible that isotach networks could be used in real world naval control systems. These are critical control systems where the lives of many people and millions of dollars of equipment are at stake. In such situations, even improbable failures could have serious repercussions. DARPA is providing additional funding for the project this year specifically for the isotach research group to study fault tolerance. My work directly contributes to this goal of robust and practical isotach networks.

There are other more immediate impacts of my work. The newly modified VHDL could be used as a basis for the next version of the hardware prototype. The modifications address a specific failure mode, and if combined with further fault tolerance functionality, the next hardware prototype could be much more robust than the current implementation. This report can serve as a preliminary test implementation when the isotach research group formalizes their ideas on fault tolerance.

This report can also serve in two reference capacities. The first two chapters provide a general description of isotach networks to the non-technical reader, and thus, this report can serve as an introduction for other students interested in working on either the software or the hardware aspects

of the isotach project. Secondly, this report complements Brian Kuebert's documentation of the TM hardware implementation. The original hardware is described in this document on the signal level and could be quite useful for students interested in making additional hardware modifications to the TM.

8.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

There are several opportunities for further related work. The most direct extension of this report would be to conduct further functional and timing simulation, reprogram the main FPGA, and test the fault tolerant TM in the isotach testbed. This work would take my work from inside the computer and put it into the actual TM board. Another useful modification would be to alter the SIU to pass failure notification through to the host without waiting for an epoch boundary.

A more divergent research opportunity would be to address host failure. This ambitious task would require modifying the SIU such that it provided mechanisms to detect and handle a failed host. This is particularly relevant since host failures are much more likely than isotach device failures. Also of interest is the complex problem of recovering failed isotach devices and failed hosts. Failure recovery could potentially require synchronizing multiple partitions in the network, which is a challenging theoretical and practical problem.

This report has outlined the modifications necessary for a TM to detect and handle failed neighbors. The report includes design decisions, implementation details, simulation results, and dead space strategies. This report can serve as a reference, a basis for further modification, or simply as an addition to the isotach research group's year long focus on fault tolerance. Hopefully, this undergraduate thesis has in some small way contributed to making isotach networks more robust and thus a practical solution to real world problems.

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Appendix A: Detailed Description of Original Token Manager Design

The hardware implementation assumes a 160 MHz Myrinet network and that the token manager is attached to a Myrinet switch. The overall data flow can be seen in *Figure A-1*.

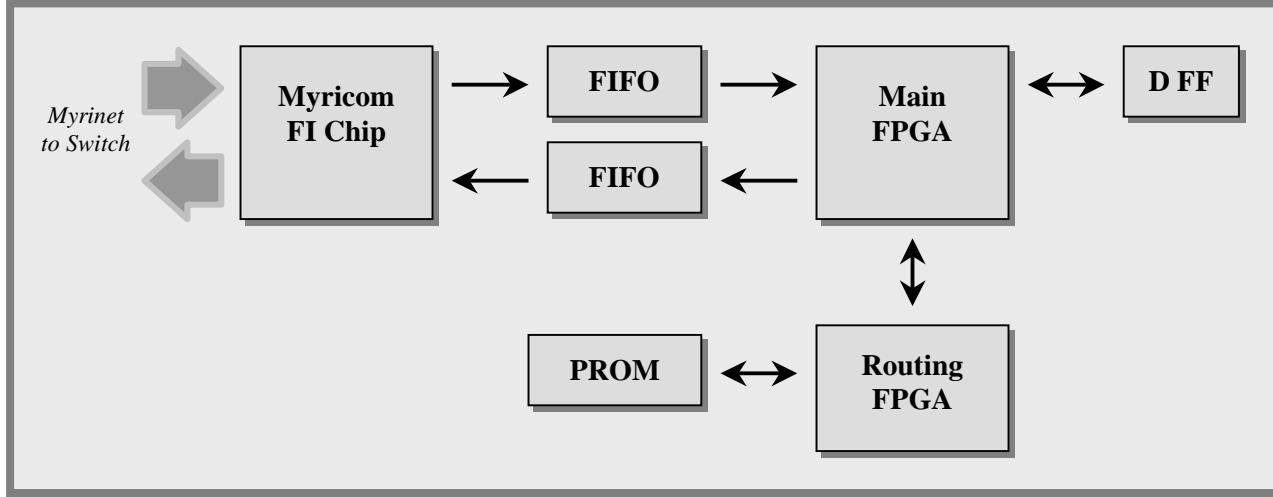


Figure A-1: General Dataflow Diagram

The Myricom FI chip is responsible for taking the 160 Mhz eight bit data stream and reducing it to a 40 Mhz 32 bit data stream. The FIFOs are two kilobytes by 36 bits and serve as the interface between the Main FPGA and the FI chip. The routing FPGA is loaded from the PROM upon start up. This FPGA simply stores all variables for the system including the number of ports on the adjacent switch (`small_or_big`), the epoch length (`epoch_length`), which ports are Isotach ports (`valid[]`), which ports have TM's attached to them (`tin_or_siu[]`), and routing information for ports which have TM's attached to them (`route[]`). These parameters are discussed in more detail in later sections.

The D flipflop shown attached to the main FPGA is used to hold the state of the reset LED. This reset LED is used to help solve situations where reset tokens are lost. From the specification, "Every TM and SIU has an LED indicator that toggles between on and off with each reset. If the LED's of all the TM's and SIU's are initially on, then after reset they should all be off." If an LED remains on then it did not receive the reset token. A toggle switch on the TM should be pressed and a token with the reset bit set should be resent.

The remaining portion of this section will focus on the main FPGA since it contains the bulk of the TM functionality. The main FPGA design includes three logical sections: the receiver, control unit, and sender. The receiver handles decoding and storing the token, while the sender handles assembling an output token and putting it into the output FIFO. The control unit is responsible for managing the receiver and the sender. The control unit keeps track of timeouts and tells the sender when to send reminder tokens. The main FPGA dataflow is shown below and illustrates how the three logical sections

work together. It is helpful when reading about the logical sections to also examine the schematic. The schematic itself is physically quite large so a scaled version was presented in *Chapter 6* of the text.

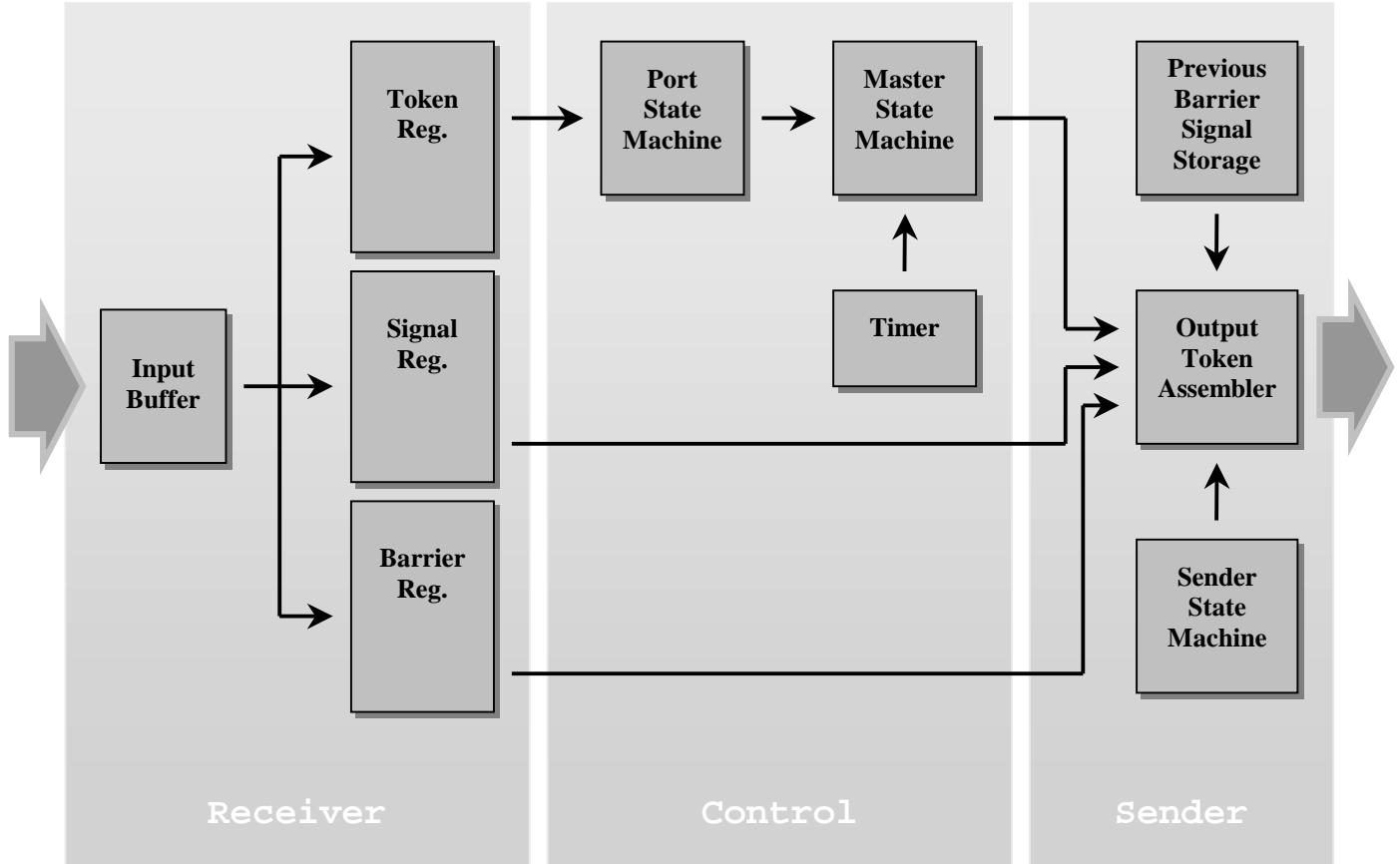


Figure A-2: Main FPGA Dataflow Diagram

A.1 The Receiver

A token arrives as two 35 bit words in the input FIFO. The first word contains the FI control signals, Isotach packet type, sequence number, from port, signal bits, and barrier bits. The second word contains the FI control signals and the CRC. The receiver's input buffer performs the following steps:

1. Examine the first word and verify the correct FI control signals (000) and Isotach packet type (0x0601)
2. Temporarily store the sequence number, from port, signal bits, and barrier bits
3. Look at the next word and verify the correct FI control signals (111) and that the CRC byte is all zeros.
4. If both words are valid then allow the temporarily stored token data to be distributed

Thus the input buffer verifies the validity of the token under consideration. If it is valid, then the token, signal, and barrier registers are enabled. If either word is invalid, the registers are not enabled and a new

token will be examined (the invalid token data will be correctly overwritten). *[The input buffer is described in more detail in Section A.4]*

The token, signal, and barrier registers store information concerning tokens to be used by both the control unit and the sender. Each of the registers is a set of four registers, one for each sequence number (zero through three). It is important to realize how the TM handles logical time. A counter closely associated with the master state machine in the control unit keeps track of a W value. W is a number ranging from zero to three and is the internal representation of logical time in the TM. W is the number of waves sent modulus four. The TM is waiting for tokens with a sequence number of W-1. The TM uses the sequence number field in the token to determine which of the four registers to use.

Each of the four token registers is 15 bits wide, one bit for each port. A bit in the register is set to one when a valid token is received on the corresponding port. Thus an entire token wave has been received for a specific sequence number when all bits in the token register with the corresponding sequence number are ones. A decoder uses the from port field in the token to determine which port the token came from and thus enable the correct bit in the token registers. Each of the four signal registers is six bits wide since there are six signal bits in a token. Thus all six bits, regardless of value, are put into the appropriate signal register. There are two sets of four barrier registers. This is because any one token can have two distinct barriers. All barrier calculations must keep these two barriers separate. Each of the eight barrier registers is 15 bits wide, one bit for each port. Again the from port field in the token is used to enable the correct bit in the barrier register. A bit in a barrier register is set to one if the barrier bit in the token for that sequence number is one. A cumulative collection of barrier and signal bits is stored in the sender and will be discussed below.

Certain registers in the receiver are cleared every token wave. This prevents one wave's information from being confused with a wave that occurred four waves earlier. After a wave with sequence number x is sent, then x-1, x-2, and x-3 registers will be cleared. Notice that sending a wave with sequence number x relies upon signal and barrier information from x-1, thus it is appropriate to clear x-1. Registers with a sequence number x are not cleared since they could contain information concerning tokens that have arrived early. Registers are cleared to all zeros. The only exception is the barrier registers for sequence number zero. These registers are cleared to all ones at startup to force the first token wave to be a barrier wave.

A.2 The Control Unit

The control unit has three main parts: the port state machines (PSM), the master state machine (MSM), and the timer. There is a PSM for each of the 15 possible ports. They keep track of whether or not a valid token has been received for the corresponding port and with a sequence number of W-1. *[see*

[see Section A.5 for details on the port state machine] The MSM monitors all of the PSMs. Once all of the PSMs indicate that a token has been received, then the whole token wave has been received, and the MSM signals the sender state machine (SSM) to send the next token wave. Once a token wave is successfully sent, W is incremented. *[see Section A.6 for details on the master state machine]* The MSM uses the timer to determine if it has been waiting too long for any one token. If a timeout occurs, the MSM notifies the SSM to send token waves with sequence numbers W-2 and W-1 (the last two waves sent).

4.3 The Sender

The sender is responsible for assembling an output token and putting it into the output FIFO. The sender state machine (SSM) manages the sender and handles looping through all tokens so as to send a token wave. *[see Section A.8 for details on the sender state machine]* The sender has two fundamental inputs which dictate how it creates a token wave: the sequence number of the outgoing token wave (TS_to_send) and whether or not this is a reminder wave (reminder). The TS_to_send allows the sender to retrieve the correct signal and barrier data from the receiver and is also used to fill the sequence number field in the outgoing token. Cumulative signal bits are stored in a register in the sender. This cumulative signal register is cleared at the end of an epoch. Epochs are a number of token waves and the epoch length is specified as an initialization parameter. Epochs guarantee that a signal will get propagated to all hosts before being cleared. Cumulative barrier bits are stored in an active and inactive barrier register according to the specification. For normal token waves the signal and barrier cumulative registers are used to fill the signal and barrier fields in the outgoing token. These normal values are also stored in one of four previous registers. There is one previous register for each sequence number.

For reminder waves, the sender uses the correct previous register instead of the signal and barrier information from the receiver. This is the only difference between a normal and reminder wave. Notice that the sequence number need not be altered for reminder waves. The appropriate sequence number is sent by the master state machine as the TS_to_send.

The SSM will send a token on each port by correctly adding appropriate routing information to the beginning of the outgoing token. If the token is meant for an SIU one routing flit will be added that tells Myrinet how to get from the TM to the SIU. If the token is meant for another TM, then two routing flits must be added. Since each outgoing token is two words in length, the SSM coordinates sending both words including adding the CRC byte as part of the second word.

A.4 The Input Buffer State Machine

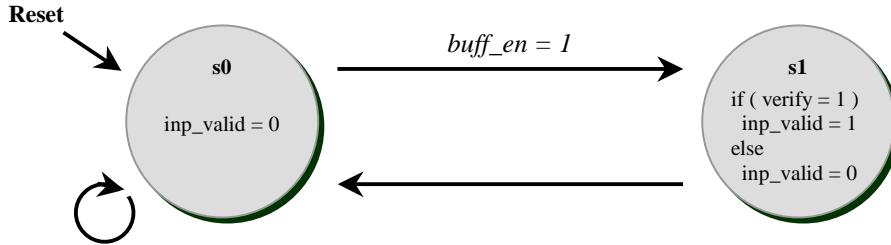


Figure A-3: Input Buffer State Machine

The input buffer section of the receiver handles error checking. It contains five parts: a 35 bit register, a 16 bit register, the input buffer state machine (IBSM), a packet type verifier, and a CRC verifier. A valid token will have two 32 bit words. In the beginning of each word, there will be the appropriate three bit FI control signal. The appropriate control signals are found in an informal email from Myricom to the Isotach development team. These control signals tell the FI chip which bytes in the current word are valuable and which can be ignored. A control signal of 000 on an incoming token indicates that all four bytes in the word are valuable. A control signal of 111 on an incoming token indicates that only the first byte in the word is valuable, and that the remaining three bytes can be ignored.

Figure A-3 shows that two conditions must be true in consecutive clock cycles in order for the `inp_valid` signal to become one: `buff_en` must be one and then in the next clock cycle `verify` must be one. These conditions are set by the packet type verifier and the CRC verifier respectively. Token data will only be loaded into the various registers in the receiver if `inp_valid` is one.

Every clock cycle, the next word in the FIFO is placed in the 35 bit register. The packet type verifier checks to see if the first 19 bits of the current word are 000 (the appropriate FI control signals) followed by 0x0601 (the token packet type). The CRC verifier checks to see if the first bits of the current word are 111 (the appropriate FI control signals) followed by eight zeros (the CRC byte). If the packet type verifier sets `buff_en` to one in the first clock cycle, then the token data will be loaded into the 15 bit register and the IBSM will enter state `s1`. The IBSM waits one clock cycle to see if the CRC verifier sets `verify` to one. If so, then this is a valid token and `inp_valid` will go to one allowing the token data to be loaded into the appropriate registers in the receiver. After one clock cycle the IBSM returns to state `s0`.

4.5 The Port State Machine

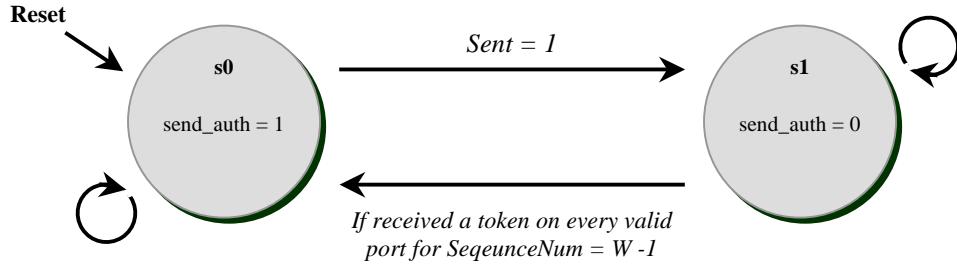


Figure A-4: Port State Machine

There are 15 port state machines (PSMs) in the control unit, one for each port. Send_auth is a transition signal for the MSM. The PSM begins in state s0 and thus notice that all PSMs will indicate to the MSM that a token wave should be sent upon reset. Once a token wave is sent, the MSM sets Sent to one and the PSM enters state s1. It waits here until the corresponding bit in the appropriate token register becomes one, at which time the PSM enters state0 and sets send_auth to one.

A.6 The Master State Machine

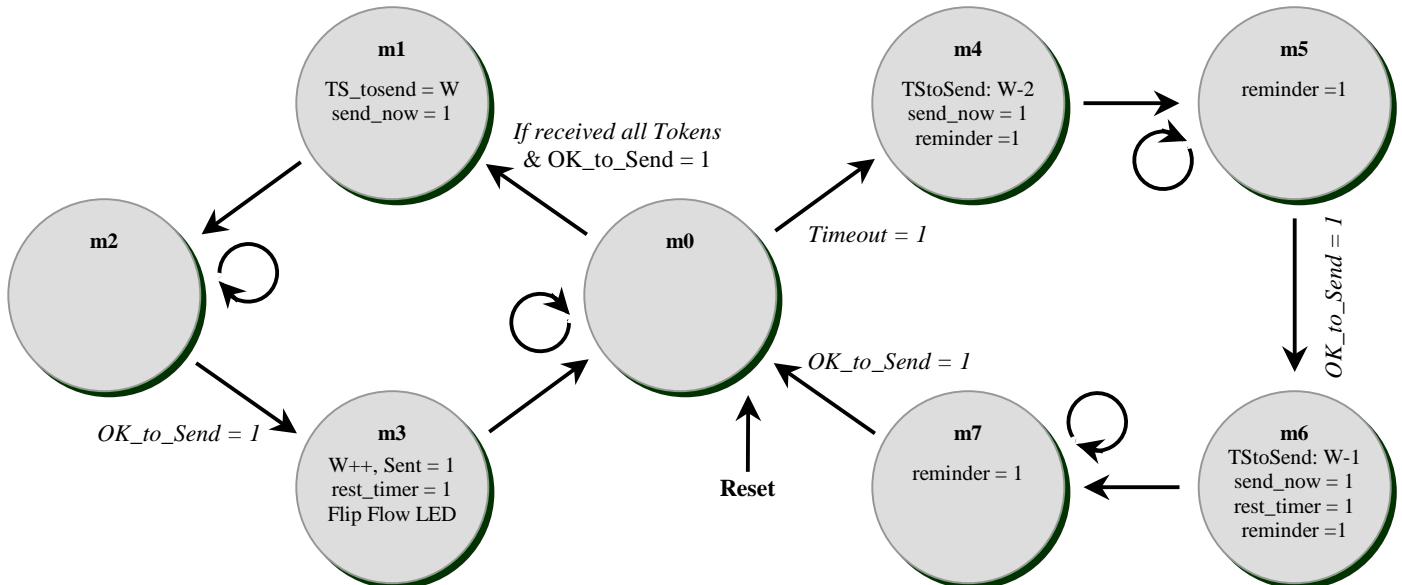


Figure A-5: Master State Machine

The master state machine (MSM) monitors the PSMs and tells the SSM when to send what. It begins in state m0 and waits until either all tokens are received (i.e. send_auth for all PSMs becomes true) and

the sender is finished with the previous wave (`Ok_to_send = 1`) or the timer expires (and thus `timeout` becomes true). The timer state machine (TSM) handles the `Timeout` signal.

If both a timeout and all PSMs' `send_auth` become true in the same clock cycle, the MSM gives priority to the transition into state `m1`. Once a wave has been received, the MSM enters state `m1` and sets `TS_to_send` to the current `W` value. `Send_now` is a transition signal for the SSM. The MSM then automatically enters state `m2` and waits until the SSM sets `OK_to_send` to one indicating that it is has finished. Now in state `m3`, the MSM increments `W` modulus four, sets `Sent` to one so that the PSMs can begin waiting for new tokens, and resets the timer. The flow LED is an external LED that changes color after every normal token wave sent. Upon proper operation, a red-greed LED should appear orange since the LED is flipping back and forth extremely fast.

If a timeout occurs, the MSM will enter state `m4`. The MSM signals the SSM that this is a reminder wave and sets the first reminder wave's sequence number to `W-2`. As in normal operation, the MSM waits until the SSM has finished sending that wave and then signals the SSM to send the second reminder wave with a sequence number of `W-1`. Notice that the MSM resets the timer in state `m6`. Once the SSM is finished with this second reminder wave, the MSM returns to state `m0`.

A.7 The Timer State Machine

The timer state machine (TSM) is responsible for monitoring the 'timer' and signaling the MSM when a the 'timer' expires. The state machine for the TSM is shown on the next page. The timer is really just a counter with a slower clock (the `counter_clk`). When this counter expires, it sets `TO_raw` to one. `TO_rst` is the `reset_timer` signal from the MSM. `Signal6` refers to the sixth signal bit which indicates a software reset. `Rest_recv` is a signal from the sender that indicates a wave has just finished being sent. Notice the buzzer output. This signal goes low whenever there is a timeout or a software reset.

The TSM begins in state `t0`. For now, assume that a reset token will not arrive. The TSM waits until the `counter_clk` is zero and then enters state `t8` where it sets the `counter_rst` to one. The TSM must then wait for the `counter_clk` to become one. The reason the TSM must include this state, which is trigger by the `counter_clk`, is because the `counter_clk` is slower than the TSM clock and the `counter_rst` signal is wired to a synchronous clear input on the counter. If the TSM did not wait to guarantee that the `counter_clk` goes high, then the `counter_rst` signal could go back to zero before the counter actually got a chance to register the clear. Once the counter has been cleared, the TSM moves into state `t1`. The TSM waits in state `t1` while the counter is running. If the counter expires (i.e. `TO_raw` goes to one) a timeout has occurred and the TSM moves into state `t2`. If the MSM receives all the appropriate tokens, then a new wave is sent and the TSM is reset through setting `TO_rst` to one (and thus the TSM will move back through states `t0` and `t8` to clear the counter).

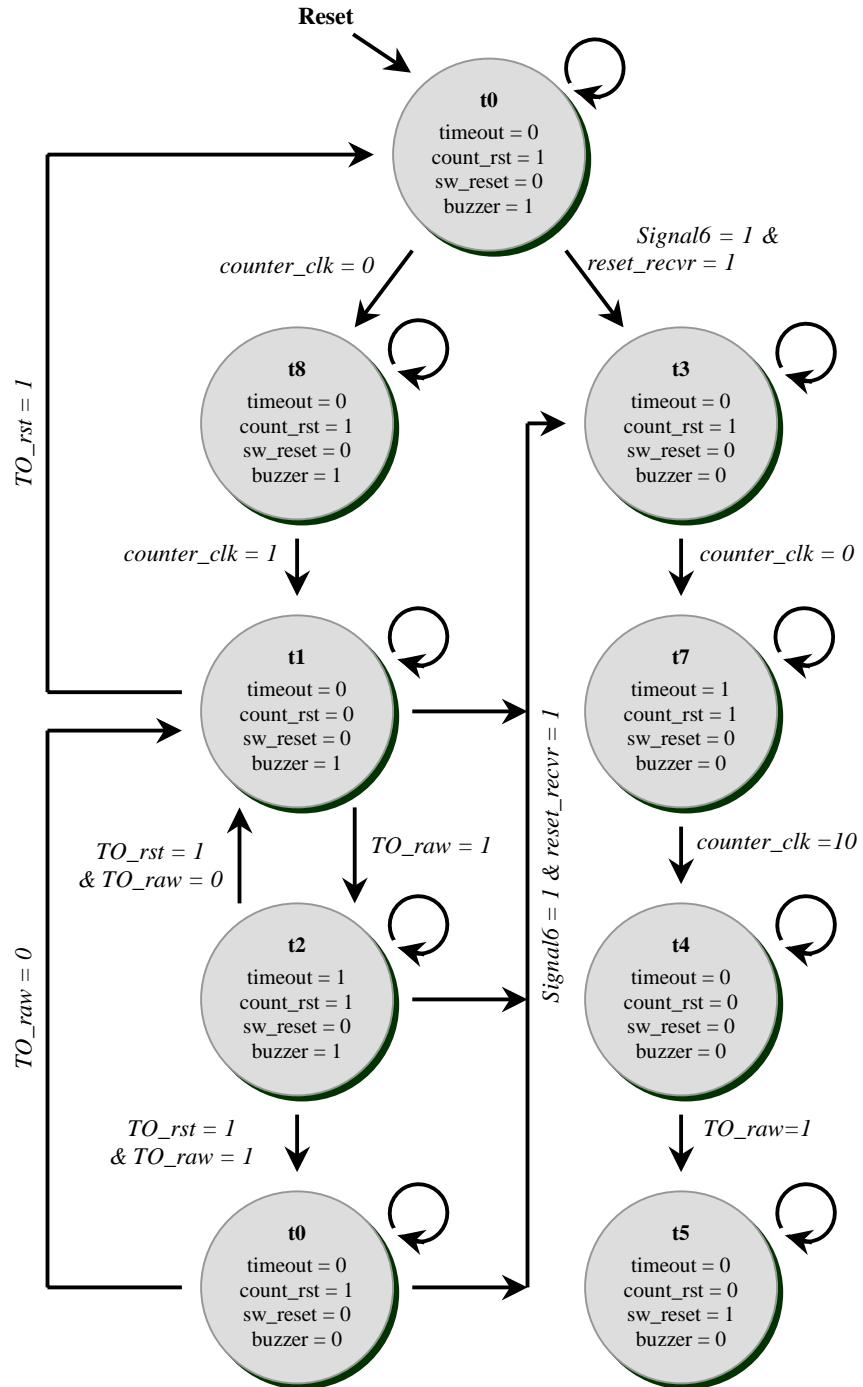


Figure A-6: Timer State Machine

When the TSM enters state t2, it signals the MSM that a timeout has occurred through the timeout signal and resets the counter. While in state t2, the TSM waits until the MSM resets the TSM (i.e. TO_rst goes to one). The MSM is meanwhile handling the reminder tokens. If at this time the counter has not been cleared yet because of its slow clock (i.e. TO-raw is not zero yet) the TSM enters state t6 and waits until it does. When the counter is cleared, the TSM returns to state t1.

The sixth signal bit is reserved to indicate a software reset. If such a signal is received and the TSM is in any state mentioned so far except t8, the TSM will wait for the SSM to finish sending this reset token wave and enter state t3. From here the TSM uses state t7 to clear the counter as mentioned above with state t8. The TSM then waits for the counter to expire in state t4. This creates a period of silence after a reset wave is sent. Once the counter expires the TSM moves into t5 where the SW_reset signal is set high. This signal causes the entire FPGA to clear and reboot which of course restarts all state machines including the TSM.

A.8 The Sender State Machine

The sender state machine (SSM) is responsible for monitoring and driving the placing of an outgoing token wave in the output FIFO. The state machine for the SSM is shown on the next page. The SSM begins in state0 and waits until send_now becomes true. Send_now becomes true when the MSM needs to send a token wave. The SSM then enters state1 where it enables the signal and barrier registers. This means it takes either the cumulative signal and barrier values as updated by the most recently received token wave or it takes the previously saved cumulative signal and barrier values if this is a reminder wave. Using the previous registers was described in *Section A.3*.

The SSM then automatically enters state2 where it clocks both words of the outgoing token into two word length registers. Notice that this requires that all information necessary for the token be ready by this time. If the FIFO is ready then the SSM goes ahead and puts the first word into the FIFO, otherwise the SSM enters state3 and waits until the FIFO is ready. In state4 the count is decremented. The count keeps track of which token in the token wave is being sent (and thus is used to determine the correct routing information). OutputVld is and'ed with the initialization validity bit for this port and then goes to the FIFO enable. The initialization validity bit indicates whether this is an Isotach port and thus whether or not tokens should be send out or expected from this port. The SSM then uses state5 and state6 to put the second word of the token into the output FIFO. If at this point the SSM still has additional ports on which to send tokens, it will return to state1. If the wave is finished, the SSM will enter state7 where three things occur. First, the receiver is cleared as described in *Section A.1*. Then, the epoch counter is incremented. Finally, the previous registers are enabled, which saves the signal and barrier information

sent in this past wave in case it must be resent. From state6, the SSM automatically returns to state0 where it resets the count (so that the SSM will begin with the first port on the next wave) and signals the MSM that it has finished sending the wave.

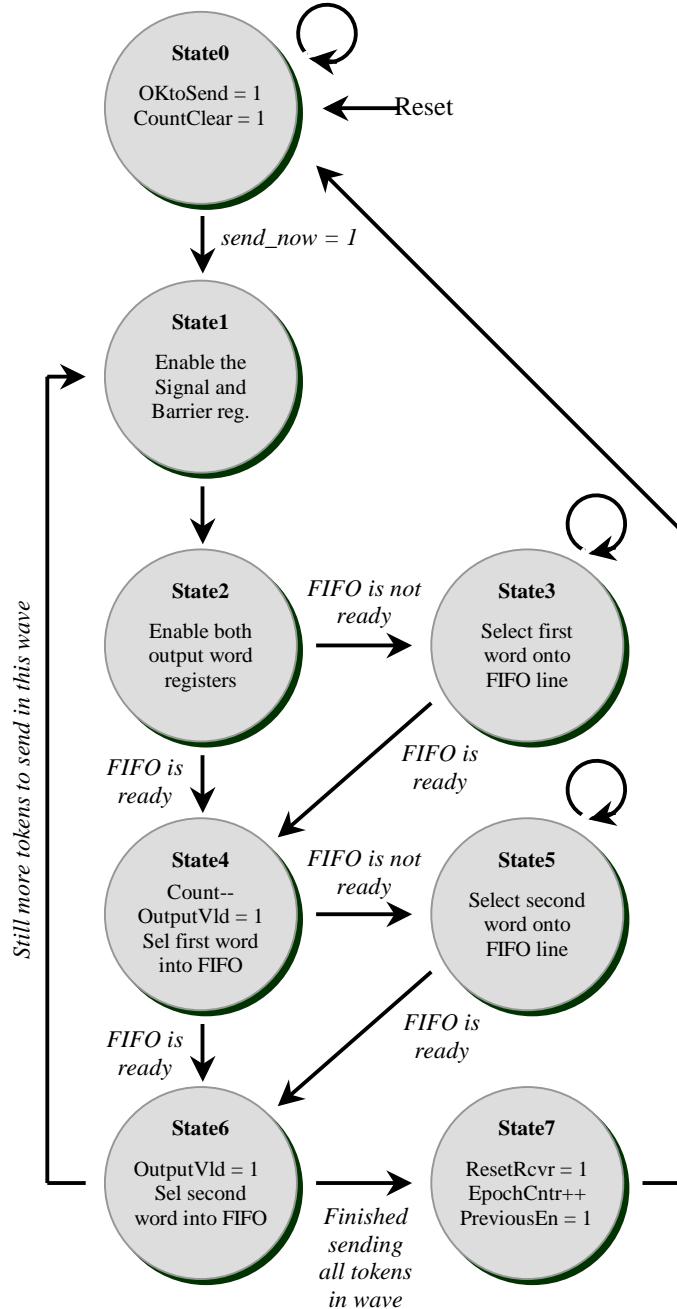


Figure A-7: Sender State Machine

Appendix B: VHDL and Simulation Script Files

- failure_sm.vhd
- numreminderwaves.vhd
- ping_sm.vhd
- ping_verify.vhd
- ping_word1_header.vhd
- valid_buffer_logic.vhd
- master.vhd
- inp_valid_sm.vhd
- psm.vhd
- tm.do
- tm_2.vhd
- tm_ping2.vhd
- tm_ping.vhd

```

-- Christopher Batten
-- cbatten@virginia.edu

-- Created for use in undergraduate thesis:
-- "A Hardware Implementation for Component Failure Handling
-- in Isotach Token Managers"

-- April 2, 1999

-- Failure State Machine
-- Responsible for controlling the valid buffer and setting the
-- set_errsig singal.

LIBRARY MGC_PORTABLE;
USE MGC_PORTABLE.QSIM_LOGIC.ALL;

ENTITY failure_detect_sm IS
  PORT (clk : IN QSIM_STATE;
        rst : IN QSIM_STATE;
        failure_detected : IN QSIM_STATE;
        validreset       : OUT QSIM_STATE;
        clear_counter    : OUT QSIM_STATE;
        set_errsig       : OUT QSIM_STATE );
END failure_detect_sm;

ARCHITECTURE failure_detect_sm_arch OF failure_detect_sm IS
  TYPE failure_states IS (f0, f1, f2, f3, f4);
  SIGNAL state      : failure_states;
  SIGNAL next_state : failure_states;
BEGIN

  clocked: PROCESS (clk, rst)
  BEGIN
    IF (rst = '1') THEN
      state <= f0;
    ELSIF (clk'EVENT AND clk = '1') THEN
      state <= next_state;
    END IF;
  END PROCESS clocked;

  output: PROCESS (state)
  BEGIN
    CASE state IS

      -- Init state
      WHEN f0 =>
        validreset     <= '1';
        clear_counter <= '1';
        set_errsig    <= '0';

      -- Idle state
      WHEN f1 =>
        validreset     <= '0';
        clear_counter <= '0';
        set_errsig    <= '0';

    END CASE;
  END PROCESS output;
END;

```

```

-- Failure has occurred
WHEN f2 =>
    validreset      <= '0';
    clear_counter   <= '1';
    set_errsig      <= '1';

-- Hold set_errsig for 3 cycles
WHEN f3 =>
    validreset      <= '0';
    clear_counter   <= '0';
    set_errsig      <= '1';

-- Hold set_errsig for 3 cycles
WHEN f4 =>
    validreset      <= '0';
    clear_counter   <= '0';
    set_errsig      <= '1';

WHEN OTHERS =>
    validreset      <= '0';
    clear_counter   <= '0';
    set_errsig      <= '0';

END CASE;
END PROCESS output;

state_trans: PROCESS (state, failure_detected)
BEGIN
    CASE state IS

        WHEN f0 =>
            next_state <= f1;

        WHEN f1 =>
            IF (failure_detected = '1') THEN
                next_state <= f2;
            ELSE
                next_state <= f1;
            END IF;

        WHEN f2 =>
            next_state <= f3;

        WHEN f3 =>
            next_state <= f4;

        WHEN f4 =>
            next_state <= f1;

        WHEN OTHERS =>
            next_state <= f0;

    END CASE;
END PROCESS state_trans;
END failure_detect_sm_arch;

```

```
-- Christopher Batten
-- cbatten@virginia.edu

-- Created for use in undergraduate thesis:
-- "A Hardware Implementation for Component Failure Handling
-- in Isotach Token Managers"

-- April 2, 1999

-- Hardcoded constant: the failure threshold
-- (The number of reminder waves before a neighbor is declared dead)

LIBRARY MGC_PORTABLE;
USE MGC_PORTABLE.QSIM_LOGIC.ALL;

ENTITY num_reminder_waves IS
  PORT (value : OUT QSIM_STATE_VECTOR(7 DOWNTO 0));
END num_reminder_waves;

ARCHITECTURE num_reminder_waves_arch OF num_reminder_waves IS
BEGIN
  value <= "00000010";
END num_reminder_waves_arch;
```

```

-- Christopher Batten
-- cbatten@virginia.edu

-- Created for use in undergraduate thesis:
-- "A Hardware Implementation for Component Failure Handling
-- in Isotach Token Managers"

-- April 2, 1999

-- Ping handler state machine
-- Responsible for moving return route information from buffers
-- to the output FIFO bus.

LIBRARY MGC_PORTABLE;
USE MGC_PORTABLE.QSIM_LOGIC.ALL;

ENTITY ping_handler_sm IS
  PORT (rst          : IN QSIM_STATE;
        clk          : IN QSIM_STATE;
        ping_recv    : IN QSIM_STATE;
        send_ping   : IN QSIM_STATE;
        fifo_ready  : IN QSIM_STATE;
        ping_waiting : OUT QSIM_STATE;
        ping2fifo_sel : OUT QSIM_STATE;
        ping_word_sel : OUT QSIM_STATE;
        output_valid : OUT QSIM_STATE );
END ping_handler_sm;

ARCHITECTURE ping_handler_sm_arch OF ping_handler_sm IS
  TYPE ping_states IS (p0, p1, p2, p3, p4, p5);
  SIGNAL state : ping_states;
  SIGNAL next_state : ping_states;
BEGIN
  output: PROCESS (state)
  BEGIN
    CASE state IS
      WHEN p0 =>
        ping_waiting  <= '0';
        ping2fifo_sel <= '0';
        ping_word_sel <= '0';
        output_valid  <= '0';

      WHEN p1 =>
        ping_waiting  <= '1';
        ping2fifo_sel <= '0';
        ping_word_sel <= '0';
        output_valid  <= '0';

      WHEN p2 =>
        ping_waiting  <= '1';
        ping2fifo_sel <= '1';
        ping_word_sel <= '0';
        output_valid  <= '0';
    END CASE;
  END PROCESS;
  state <= next_state;
END;

```

```

WHEN p3 =>
    ping_waiting  <= '1';
    ping2fifo_sel <= '1';
    ping_word_sel <= '0';
    output_valid   <= '1';

WHEN p4 =>
    ping_waiting  <= '1';
    ping2fifo_sel <= '1';
    ping_word_sel <= '1';
    output_valid   <= '0';

WHEN p5 =>
    ping_waiting  <= '1';
    ping2fifo_sel <= '1';
    ping_word_sel <= '1';
    output_valid   <= '1';

END CASE;
END PROCESS output;

state_trans : PROCESS (state, ping_recv, fifo_ready, send_ping)
BEGIN
    CASE state IS

        WHEN p0 =>
            IF (ping_recv = '1') THEN
                next_state <= p1;
            ELSE
                next_state <= p0;
            END IF;

        WHEN p1 =>
            IF (send_ping = '1' AND fifo_ready = '1') THEN
                next_state <= p3;
            ELSIF (send_ping = '1' AND fifo_ready = '0') THEN
                next_state <= p2;
            ELSE
                next_state <= p1;
            END IF;

        WHEN p2 =>
            IF (fifo_ready = '1') THEN
                next_state <= p3;
            ELSE
                next_state <= p2;
            END IF;

        WHEN p3 =>
            IF (fifo_ready = '1') THEN
                next_state <= p5;
            ELSE
                next_state <= p4;
            END IF;
    END CASE;
END PROCESS state_trans;

```

```
WHEN p4 =>
  IF (fifo_ready = '1') THEN
    next_state <= p5;
  ELSE
    next_state <= p4;
  END IF;

WHEN p5 =>
  next_state <= p0;

END CASE;
END PROCESS state_trans;

clocked: PROCESS (clk, rst)
BEGIN
  IF (rst = '1') THEN
    state <= p0;
  ELSIF (clk'EVENT AND clk = '1') THEN
    state <= next_state;
  END IF;
END PROCESS clocked;
END ping_handler_sm_arch;
```

```

-- Christopher Batten
-- cbatten@virginia.edu

-- Modified/Created for use in undergraduate thesis:
-- "A Hardware Implementation for Component Failure Handling
-- in Isotach Token Managers"

-- April 2, 1999

-- Ping verifier: Checks first 19 bits of an incomming word to
-- see if it matches the isotach message type identifier.

LIBRARY MGC_PORTABLE;
USE MGC_PORTABLE.QSIM_LOGIC.ALL;

ENTITY ping_verifier IS
  PORT (msg_type : IN QSIM_STATE_VECTOR(18 DOWNTO 0);
        ping_valid : OUT QSIM_STATE);
END ping_verifier;

ARCHITECTURE ping_verifier_arch OF ping_verifier IS
BEGIN
  PROCESS (msg_type)
  BEGIN
    IF (msg_type = "000000001100000000") THEN
      ping_valid <= '1';
    ELSE
      ping_valid <= '0';
    END IF;
  END PROCESS;
END ping_verifier_arch;

```

```

-- Christopher Batten
-- cbatten@virginia.edu

-- Modified/Created for use in undergraduate thesis:
-- "A Hardware Implementation for Component Failure Handling
-- in Isotach Token Managers"

-- April 2, 1999

-- Header for the first word of the ping return route:
-- The first word will always be two bytes long and thus we will
-- need to prepend two bytes of zeros. Additionally, we need to set
-- the FI control signals to indicate that only the last two bytes
-- have useful information. According to FI docs this requires
-- the control signals 010 to begin the first word.

LIBRARY MGC_PORTABLE;
USE MGC_PORTABLE.QSIM_LOGIC.ALL;

ENTITY ping_word1_head IS
  PORT (ping_word1_header: OUT QSIM_STATE_VECTOR(18 DOWNTO 0));
END ping_word1_head;

ARCHITECTURE ping_word1_head_arch OF ping_word1_head IS
BEGIN
  ping_word1_header <= "01000000000000000000";
END ping_word1_head_arch;

```

```

-- Christopher Batten
-- cbatten@virginia.edu

-- Modified/Created for use in undergraduate thesis:
-- "A Hardware Implementation for Component Failure Handling
-- in Isotach Token Managers"

-- April 2, 1999

-- Valid buffer logic: Combinational block that sets the
-- valid bits. Allows these bits to be initialized by the
-- initialval and determines if the valid bit should be set
-- to zero based on sendauth.

LIBRARY MGC_PORTABLE;
USE MGC_PORTABLE.QSIM_LOGIC.ALL;

ENTITY valid_buf_logic IS
PORT (laststored : IN QSIM_STATE;
      sendauth    : IN QSIM_STATE;
      initialval  : IN QSIM_STATE;
      reset       : IN QSIM_STATE;
      newvalue    : OUT QSIM_STATE);
END valid_buf_logic;

ARCHITECTURE valid_buf_logic_arch OF valid_buf_logic IS
BEGIN
PROCESS ( laststored, sendauth, initialval, reset )
BEGIN
  if ( reset = '1' ) then
    newvalue <= initialval;
  else
    newvalue <= sendauth AND laststored;
  end if;
END PROCESS;
END valid_buf_logic_arch;

```

```

-- Token Manager Control Unit: Master State Machine
-- Originally written by Brian Kuebert
-- Modified by Chris Batten (4/2/99) to add a new state
-- for handling host-to-TM pings

LIBRARY MGC_PORTABLE;
USE MGC_PORTABLE.QSIM_LOGIC.ALL;

ENTITY master IS
  PORT (ok_to_send      : IN QSIM_STATE;
        timeout        : IN QSIM_STATE;
        send_auth      : IN QSIM_STATE_VECTOR(14 DOWNTO 0);
        rst            : IN QSIM_STATE;
        clk            : IN QSIM_STATE;
        W              : IN QSIM_STATE_VECTOR(1 DOWNTO 0);
        rec_sig_6      : IN QSIM_STATE;

        -- New signal indicates return route info is ready
        -- to be move to the output FIFO [CFB 4/2/99]
        ping_waiting   : IN QSIM_STATE;

        sent           : OUT QSIM_STATE;
        TS_to_send     : OUT QSIM_STATE_VECTOR(1 DOWNTO 0);
        send_now       : OUT QSIM_STATE;
        incW           : OUT QSIM_STATE;
        timeout_reset : OUT QSIM_STATE;
        reminder       : OUT QSIM_STATE;

        -- New signal indicates that the MSM is paused so
        -- the PHSM may move the return route info to the
        -- output FIFO [CFB 4/2/99]
        send_ping      : OUT QSIM_STATE;

        master_state   : OUT QSIM_STATE_VECTOR(2 DOWNTO 0));
END master;

ARCHITECTURE master_arch OF master IS
  SIGNAL state : QSIM_STATE_VECTOR(3 DOWNTO 0);
  SIGNAL next_state : QSIM_STATE_VECTOR(3 DOWNTO 0);
BEGIN

  -- In order not to modify the output pins only the low 3 bits
  -- of the state vector are sent to output [CFB]
  master_state <= state(2 downto 0);

  output: PROCESS (state, W)
  BEGIN
    CASE state IS
      WHEN "0000" => sent <= '0';                                -- state m0
                      TS_to_send <= "XX";
                      send_now <= '0';
                      incW <= '0';
                      timeout_reset <= '0';
                      reminder <= '0';
                      send_ping <= '0';

```

```

WHEN "0001" => sent <= '0'; -- state m1
CASE W IS
    WHEN "00" => TS_to_send <= "00";
    WHEN "01" => TS_to_send <= "01";
    WHEN "10" => TS_to_send <= "10";
    WHEN "11" => TS_to_send <= "11";
    WHEN OTHERS => TS_to_send <= "XX";
END CASE;
send_now <= '1';
incW <= '0';
timeout_reset <= '0';
reminder <= '0';
send_ping <= '0';

WHEN "0010" => sent <= '0'; -- state m2
CASE W IS
    WHEN "00" => TS_to_send <= "00";
    WHEN "01" => TS_to_send <= "01";
    WHEN "10" => TS_to_send <= "10";
    WHEN "11" => TS_to_send <= "11";
    WHEN OTHERS => TS_to_send <= "XX";
END CASE;
send_now <= '0';
incW <= '0';
timeout_reset <= '0';
reminder <= '0';
send_ping <= '0';

WHEN "0011" => sent <= '1'; -- state m3
    TS_to_send <= "XX";
    send_now <= '0';
    incW <= '1';
    timeout_reset <= '1';
    reminder <= '0';
    send_ping <= '0';

WHEN "0100" => sent <= '0'; -- state m4
CASE W IS
    WHEN "00" => TS_to_send <= "10";
    WHEN "01" => TS_to_send <= "11";
    WHEN "10" => TS_to_send <= "00";
    WHEN "11" => TS_to_send <= "01";
    WHEN OTHERS => TS_to_send <= "XX";
END CASE;
send_now <= '1';
incW <= '0';
timeout_reset <= '0';
reminder <= '1';
send_ping <= '0';

```

```

WHEN "0101" => sent <= '0';                                -- state m5
CASE W IS
    WHEN "00" => TS_to_send <= "10";
    WHEN "01" => TS_to_send <= "11";
    WHEN "10" => TS_to_send <= "00";
    WHEN "11" => TS_to_send <= "01";
    WHEN OTHERS => TS_to_send <= "XX";
END CASE;
send_now <= '0';
incW <= '0';
timeout_reset <= '0';
reminder <= '1';
send_ping <= '0';

WHEN "0110" => sent <= '0';                                -- state m6
CASE W IS
    WHEN "00" => TS_to_send <= "11";
    WHEN "01" => TS_to_send <= "00";
    WHEN "10" => TS_to_send <= "01";
    WHEN "11" => TS_to_send <= "10";
    WHEN OTHERS => TS_to_send <= "XX";
END CASE;
send_now <= '1';
incW <= '0';
timeout_reset <= '1';
reminder <= '1';
send_ping <= '0';

WHEN "0111" => sent <= '0';                                -- state m7
CASE W IS
    WHEN "00" => TS_to_send <= "11";
    WHEN "01" => TS_to_send <= "00";
    WHEN "10" => TS_to_send <= "01";
    WHEN "11" => TS_to_send <= "10";
    WHEN OTHERS => TS_to_send <= "XX";
END CASE;
send_now <= '0';
incW <= '0';
timeout_reset <= '0';
reminder <= '1';
send_ping <= '0';

-- New state for waiting until a ping has finished
WHEN "1000" => sent <= '0';                                -- state m8
    TS_to_send <= "XX";
    send_now <= '0';
    incW <= '0';
    timeout_reset <= '0';
    reminder <= '0';
    send_ping <= '1';

```

```

WHEN OTHERS => sent <= 'X';
    TS_to_send <= "XX";
    send_now <= 'X';
    incW <= 'X';
    timeout_reset <= 'X';
    reminder <= 'X';
    send_ping <= 'X';
END CASE;
END PROCESS output;

state_trans : PROCESS (ok_to_send, timeout, send_auth, state,
                      rec_sig_6, ping_waiting)
BEGIN
CASE state IS

    WHEN "0000" => -- state m0
        IF ((ok_to_send = '1' AND send_auth = "1111111111111111")
            OR (rec_sig_6 = '1')) THEN
            next_state <= "0001"; --M1
        ELSIF (ok_to_send = '1' AND timeout = '1') THEN
            next_state <= "0100"; --M4
        ELSIF (ping_waiting = '1') THEN
            next_state <= "1000";
        ELSE
            next_state <= "0000"; --M0
        END IF;

    WHEN "0001" => -- state m1
        next_state <= "0010"; --M2

    WHEN "0010" => -- state m2
        IF (ok_to_send = '1') THEN
            next_state <= "0011"; --M3
        ELSE
            next_state <= "0010"; --M2
        END IF;

    WHEN "0011" => -- state m3
        next_state <= "0000"; --M0

    WHEN "0100" => -- state m4
        next_state <= "0101"; --M5

    WHEN "0101" => -- state m5
        IF (ok_to_send = '1') THEN
            next_state <= "0110"; --M6
        ELSE
            next_state <= "0101"; --M5
        END IF;

    WHEN "0110" => -- state m6
        next_state <= "0111"; --M7

```

```

WHEN "0111" => -- state m7
  IF (ok_to_send = '1') THEN
    next_state <= "0000"; --M0
  ELSE
    next_state <= "0111"; --M7
  END IF;

-- Wait in state m8 until finished sending ping
WHEN "1000" => -- state m8
  IF (ping_waiting = '0') THEN
    next_state <= "0000";
  ELSE
    next_state <= "1000";
  END IF;

WHEN OTHERS =>
  next_state <= "0000";
END CASE;
END PROCESS state_trans;

clocked: PROCESS (clk, rst)
BEGIN
  IF (rst = '1') THEN
    state <= "0000";
  ELSIF (clk'EVENT AND clk = '1') THEN
    state <= next_state;
  END IF;
END PROCESS clocked;
END master_arch;

```

```

-- Brian D. Kuebert
-- modified 8/04/98 by AWS to bring out state bit - add in_valid input
-- modified 3/15/99 by CFB to add additional state for host-to-TM
-- ping handling

LIBRARY MGC_PORTABLE;
USE MGC_PORTABLE.QSIM_LOGIC.ALL;

ENTITY inp_valid_sm IS
  PORT (clk           : IN  QSIM_STATE;
        rst           : IN  QSIM_STATE;
        buff_en       : IN  QSIM_STATE;
        verify        : IN  QSIM_STATE;
        ping_valid    : IN  QSIM_STATE;
        in_valid      : IN  QSIM_STATE;
        ping_recv     : OUT QSIM_STATE;
        inp_valid_state : OUT QSIM_STATE;
        inp_valid     : OUT QSIM_STATE);
END inp_valid_sm;

ARCHITECTURE inp_valid_sm_arch OF inp_valid_sm IS
  SIGNAL state      : QSIM_STATE_VECTOR( 1 downto 0 );
  SIGNAL next_state: QSIM_STATE_VECTOR( 1 downto 0 );
BEGIN
  clocked: PROCESS (clk, rst)
  BEGIN
    IF (rst = '1') THEN
      state <= "00";
    ELSIF (clk'EVENT AND clk = '1') THEN
      state <= next_state;

      -- In order to avoid modifying the output pins, we do not
      -- use two pins to output the inp_valid_state. [CFB 3/15/99]
      inp_valid_state <= next_state(0);
    END IF;
  END PROCESS clocked;

  output: PROCESS (state, verify)
  BEGIN
    CASE state IS
      WHEN "00" =>
        ping_recv <= '0';
        inp_valid <= '0';

      WHEN "01" =>
        ping_recv <= '0';
        IF (verify = '1') THEN
          inp_valid <= '1';
        ELSE
          inp_valid <= '0';
        END IF;
    END CASE;
  END PROCESS output;

```

```

-- New state to handle host-to-TM pings [CFB 4/2/99]
WHEN "11" =>
    ping_recv <= '1';
    inp_valid <= '0';

WHEN OTHERS =>
    ping_recv <= 'X';
    inp_valid <= 'X';
END CASE;
END PROCESS output;

state_trans: PROCESS (state, buff_en, in_valid, ping_valid)
BEGIN
    CASE state IS

        WHEN "00" =>
            IF (buff_en = '1') THEN
                next_state <= "01";
            ELSIF (ping_valid = '1') THEN
                next_state <= "11";
            ELSE
                next_state <= "00";
            END IF;

        WHEN "01" =>
            IF (in_valid = '1') THEN
                next_state <= "00";
            ELSE
                next_state <= "01";
            END IF;

        WHEN "11" =>
            IF (in_valid = '1') THEN
                next_state <= "00";
            ELSE
                next_state <= "11";
            END IF;

        WHEN OTHERS =>
            next_state <= "00";

    END CASE;
END PROCESS state_trans;
END inp_valid_sm_arch;

```

```

-- Token Manager Control Unit: Port State Machine
-- Created by Brian Kuebert
-- Modified by Chris Batten [4/2/99]
-- Added faildetect signal to allow the failure state machine
-- to push a PSM into state s1.

LIBRARY MGC_PORTABLE;
USE MGC_PORTABLE.QSIM_LOGIC.ALL;

ENTITY psm IS
  PORT (rst      : IN QSIM_STATE;
        clk      : IN QSIM_STATE;
        sent     : IN QSIM_STATE;
        got00   : IN QSIM_STATE;
        got01   : IN QSIM_STATE;
        got10   : IN QSIM_STATE;
        got11   : IN QSIM_STATE;

        -- New signal that is high when failure has been detected [CFB]
        faildetect : IN QSIM_STATE;

        W         : IN QSIM_STATE_VECTOR(1 DOWNTO 0);
        send_auth : OUT QSIM_STATE);
END psm;

ARCHITECTURE psm_arch OF psm IS
  TYPE psm_states IS (s0, s1);
  SIGNAL state : psm_states;
  SIGNAL next_state : psm_states;
BEGIN

  output: PROCESS (state)
  BEGIN
    CASE state IS
      WHEN s0 => send_auth <= '1';
      WHEN s1 => send_auth <= '0';
    END CASE;
  END PROCESS output;

  state_trans : PROCESS (sent, got00, got01, got10, got11, state,
                        faildetect, W)
  BEGIN
    CASE state IS

      WHEN s0 =>
        IF (sent = '1') THEN
          next_state <= s1;
        ELSE
          next_state <= s0;
        END IF;
    END CASE;
  END PROCESS state_trans;

```

```

WHEN s1 =>

    -- if failure detected move back into ready state
    IF ( faildetect = '1' ) THEN
        next_state <= s0;

    ELSE

        IF (W = "00" AND got11 = '1') THEN
            next_state <= s0;

        ELSIF (W = "01" AND got00 = '1') THEN
            next_state <= s0;

        ELSIF (W = "10" AND got01 = '1') THEN
            next_state <= s0;

        ELSIF (W = "11" AND got10 = '1') THEN
            next_state <= s0;

        ELSE next_state <= s1;

    END IF;

    END IF;
END CASE;
END PROCESS state_trans;

clocked: PROCESS (clk, rst)
BEGIN
    IF (rst = '1') THEN
        state <= s0;
    ELSIF (clk'EVENT AND clk = '1') THEN
        state <= next_state;
    END IF;
    END PROCESS clocked;
END psm_arch;

```

```

## Christopher Batten
## cbatten@virginia.edu
## tm.do

## Modified/Created for use in undergraduate thesis:
## "A Hardware Implementation for Component Failure Handling
## in Isotach Token Managers"

## April 2, 1999

## Corresponds to Figure 6-3 in text

restart -force -nowave

wave /clk
wave /from_fifo
wave /to_fifo

wave /failure_threshold/value
wave /failure_sm/clear_counter
wave /failure_sm/set_errsig
wave /failuredetected
wave /valid
wave /valid_buf/Q
wave /master_sm/send_auth
wave /epoch_length
wave /epoch_counter/count
wave /epoch_boundary

wave /master_sm/state
wave /failure_sm/state
wave /sender_state
wave /timer_sm/state
wave /timer_sm/timeout
wave /failure_counter/count
wave /timer_sm/counter_clk
wave /sig_buf/Q

force -freeze /route 100001
force -freeze /epoch_length 00000100
force -freeze /scale 00000010
force -freeze /small_or_big 1
force -freeze /tm_or_siu 0000000000000001
force -freeze /valid 00000001110111

force -freeze /rst 1
force -freeze /rst 0 5
force -freeze /toggle_button 0
force -freeze /clk 0 -repeat 20
force -freeze /clk 1 10 -repeat 20
force -freeze /in_valid 0
force -freeze /from_fifo 00000000000000000000000000000000
force -freeze /fifo_rdy 1
force -freeze /toggle_button 1 500
force -freeze /toggle_button 0 510
force -freeze /in_valid 1 565

```



```

## Christopher Batten
## cbatten@virginia.edu
## tm_2.do

## Modified/Created for use in undergraduate thesis:
## "A Hardware Implementation for Component Failure Handling
## in Isotach Token Managers"

## April 2, 1999

## Corresponds to Figure 6-5 in text

restart -force -nowave

wave /clk
wave /from_fifo
wave /to_fifo

wave /failure_threshold/value
wave /failure_sm/clear_counter
wave /failure_sm/set_errsig
wave /failuredetected
wave /valid
wave /valid_buf/Q
wave /master_sm/send_auth
wave /epoch_length
wave /epoch_counter/count
wave /epoch_boundary

wave /master_sm/state
wave /failure_sm/state
wave /sender_state
wave /timer_sm/state
wave /timer_sm/timeout
wave /failure_counter/count
wave /timer_sm/counter_clk
wave /sig_buf/Q

force -freeze /route 100001
force -freeze /epoch_length 00000011
force -freeze /scale 00000010
force -freeze /small_or_big 1
force -freeze /tm_or_siu 0000000000000001
force -freeze /valid 00000001110111

force -freeze /rst 1
force -freeze /rst 0 5
force -freeze /toggle_button 0
force -freeze /clk 0 -repeat 20
force -freeze /clk 1 10 -repeat 20
force -freeze /in_valid 0
force -freeze /from_fifo 00000000000000000000000000000000
force -freeze /fifo_rdy 1
force -freeze /toggle_button 1 500
force -freeze /toggle_button 0 510
force -freeze /in_valid 1 565

```



```
force -freeze /toggle_button 0 510
force -freeze /in_valid 1 565

## Host-to-TM ping
#
#                                     FI -- PingTypeID --
#
force -freeze /from_fifo 00000000110000000000110011001100110 600
force -freeze /from_fifo 0000110011001100110011001100110 620

run 1000
```