DESIGN, AUTOMATION & TEST IN EUROPE

14 – 18 March, 2016 · ICC · Dresden · Germany The European Event for Electronic System Design & Test

Modern Clocking Strategies

Organisers:

Jordi Cortadella, Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya Luciano Lavagno, Politecnico di Torino Alex Yakovlev, University of Newcastle

Speakers:

Koen van Eijk, Synopsys Alex Yakovlev, University of Newcastle David M. Zar, Blendics Jordi Cortadella, Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya

1 Overview

Clock network design and timing analysis are among the most challenging tasks in integrated circuit design. The former also exhibits the broadest range of very different solutions, ranging from classical zero-skew clocking, to multiple independent clock islands, each operating at a different Dynamic Voltage and Frequency Scaling (DVFS) point, and to clocks that dynamically adapt to the timing characteristics of the underlying logic. Of course, every clocking strategy must be supported by a corresponding verification method on the static timing analysis side. This can be particularly tricky when the clocks become less and less synchronous, due to power management methods or to techniques that improve robustness with respect to variability.

This tutorial is aimed at covering the full range of synthesis and verification tasks for the clocks, starting from basic definitions and techniques, and then gradually expanding the horizon.

Each talk will be offered by a leading industrial or academic expert, and will enable designers to choose the best synchronization technique for the problem at hand.

Attendees are assumed to know about sequential logic design and basic single-phase zeroskew clocking. They will gain knowledge about the following topics: (1) clock synthesis and timing analysis, especially in conjunction with power management techniques such as clock gating, power gating and DVFS; (2) reliability analysis in the presence of meta-stability for clock domain crossing; (3) asynchronous synchronization techniques; (4) advanced adaptive clocking strategies, where the clock latency or period adapts to the operating conditions of the logic.

2 Lectures

The tutorial will be organized in four lectures, each one covering different aspects of clock synthesis and timing. Next, an abstract of each lecture is presented.

Clock Synthesis and Chip Variability (Koen van Eijk, Synopsys)

One of the main challenges for clock synthesis is dealing with chip variability. With the decreasing dimensions and lower voltages used by new generations of CMOS technology, global and local variations are becoming more and more important. Clock synthesis needs to take variation tolerance into account, to mitigate the impact of these variations.

Mainstream methods for clock tree synthesis typically work by building an initial clock structure in a bottom-up fashion, and then optimizing this structure to improve insertion delay, skew, power and area. These methods can consider variation tolerance by including techniques such as multi-corner optimization, common path sharing and balancing of cell and wire delays. For the global distribution of high-frequency clocks, a different approach is commonly used, which is based on using clock structures that are robust by construction, such as H-trees and clock meshes. Multisource clock synthesis combines these approaches, to support a range of clock structures that provide good trade-offs between robustness, power and area.

In this lecture we will first explain the basics of clock synthesis and timing closure for synchronous circuits, and then describe in more detail techniques and design styles for highperformance, variation tolerant clock structures.

Asynchronous timing (Alex Yakovlev, University of Newcastle)

Can we coordinate circuits in time without clock? The answer is yes, if we use asynchronous circuits. These circuits, also called self-timed circuits, do not rely on a global clock signal and operate using local synchronization mechanisms such as handshakes. This makes them very different from widely adopted synchronous circuits and promises many benefits, such as inherent resilience to process, voltage, temperature and aging variations, average rather than worst-case operation in time and power domains, and better modularity and compositionality. For example, asynchronous timing enables robust operation at near-threshold or sub-threshold voltages (NTV and STV), where the optimum point for energy-per-operation lies for many types of logic and memory. This capability allows asynchronous timing to fit ideally for systems powered by energy harvesting, e.g. Internet-of-Things nodes.

Despite these benefits, asynchronous timing is not yet widely adopted by industry, mainly because of the difficulties of integrating it into the standard EDA tool flows.

In this lecture we will provide a brief overview of the state-of-the-art of asynchronous timing. We will focus on its two main design paradigms, bundled data and delay-insensitive circuits, and compare their gains and penalties. We will demonstrate existing asynchronous tool support for both paradigms.

We will also highlight recent success stories, in particular, industrially adopted design flow for little digital hardware components asynchronous circuits providing flexible timing for analog/mixed-signal circuits such a power converters and AD converters.

Finally, we will discuss how these tools can be used for the design of elastic data-flow pipelines, as well as fully self-timed SRAMs, which allows creating systems where processors and memory can seamlessly operate at NVT/SVT. We will conclude by posing future research and development challenges that are currently on the agenda of the asynchronous community.

Metastability and Clock Domain Crossing (David M. Zar, Blendics)

Multiple-clock system-on-chip (SOC) designs require synchronization when transferring signals and data among clock domains and when receiving asynchronous inputs. Such synchronizations are often susceptible to metastability effects that may propagate into the receiving circuit and may cause malfunctions. To mitigate the nondeterministic effects associated with metastability, latches and flip-flops are often used to synchronize the data. Common structures for this purpose include pipelined flip-flops and FIFOs. There is, however, a probability that these circuits will not resolve from a metastable state within the allowed time. The probabilities are becoming a concern as technology nodes get smaller and as the intrinsic parameters of the devices become increasingly variable and problematic; scaling does not help us, anymore!

For multiple-clock SOC designs it is important to understand how synchronizer circuits may fail, and to be able to design reliability as measured by a particular allowable probability of failure, or level of failures in time (FIT). This lecture will present some common synchronization structures, where they may be used and how to evaluate their reliability for both an individual synchronizer and for a system with many synchronizers. Parameters that govern synchronizer reliability are contained in the process transistor-model and in the application of the synchronizer. These two different sources of parameters often involve two different designers and who may work in two different companies. Methods to unite these sources will be discussed.

Some of the latest research in this area will be presented along with models, examples of good synchronizer circuits and a discussion of why data flip-flops make terrible synchronizing devices.

Advanced Clocking (Jordi Cortadella, Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya)

Clock frequency is one of the most important parameters in system design and typically is a pre-defined target before synthesis. The time uncertainties in nanoelectronics circuits due to process, voltage, temperature and aging (PVTA) variations demand safe guardband margins that result in conservative clock frequencies. These margins imply a high cost in energy and performance.

In the last few years, several techniques for adaptive clocking have emerged with the aim of dynamically adapting the frequency of the clock to the dynamic variations (VTA) of the system. These techniques may contribute to reduce energy consumption up to 40%. Among all the sources of variations, the most challenging problem is the safe adaptation to voltage droops. This lecture will review some of the most recent advances in adaptive clocking.

Few companies have proposed different schemes based on anticipating voltage droops and quickly adapting the clock frequency to the delays of the system while the droop is active. Various approaches around this idea will be presented and discussed.

Techniques based on resilient circuits proposed by ARM and Intel will be also covered. These techniques are based on pushing clock frequency to the limits in a way that timing errors may be detected and corrected at runtime. These techniques require sophisticated mechanisms for error detection/correction not always available in conventional systems.

Finally, a technique based on substituting the PLL by a ring oscillator will be presented. The design and power/performance benefits of this technique will be analyzed.

3 Biographies

Jordi Cortadella is Professor and Head of the Computer Science Department at the Universitat Politcnica de Catalunya. He is a Fellow of the IEEE and member of the Academia Europaea. He holds a M.S. and a Ph.D. degree in Computer Science (Universitat Politcnica de Catalunya, 1985 and 1987). In 1988, he was a Visiting Scholar at the University of California, Berkeley. His research interests include formal methods and computer-aided design of VLSI systems with special emphasis on asynchronous circuits, concurrent systems and logic synthesis. He has co-authored numerous research papers and has been invited to present tutorials at various conferences.

Prof. Cortadella has served on the technical committees of several international conferences in the field of Design Automation and Concurrent Systems and is associate editor of the IEEE Transactions on CAD of Integrated Circuits and Systems. He received best paper awards at DAC 2004, ASYNC 2004 and ACSD 2009. In 2003, he was the recipient of a Distinction for the Promotion of the University Research by the Generalitat de Catalunya.

Luciano Lavagno received his Ph.D. in electrical engineering and computer science from the University of California at Berkeley, CA, USA, in 1992. He has been the architect of the POLIS project, developing a complete hardware/software co-design environment for controldominated embedded systems, and an architect of the CtoSilicon high-level synthesis system from Cadence Design Systems. He is a co-author of two books on asynchronous circuit design, of a book on hardware/software co-design of embedded systems, and has published over 200 journal and conference papers.

He is currently a full Professor with the Department of Electronics and Telecommunication Engineering of Politecnico di Torino, Italy. He has been an Associate Editor of IEEE TCAS and ACM TECS. His research interests include the synthesis of asynchronous and lowpower circuits, the concurrent design of mixed hardware and software embedded systems, and the high-level synthesis of hardware modules from algorithmic specifications.

Koen van Eijk is a Scientist in the Design Group at Synopsys, Inc, where he works on clock tree synthesis. Prior to joining Synopsys in 2012, he was a Chief Technologist at Magma Design Automation, where he worked on placement, physical optimization, floorplanning, and hierarchical design implementation. Dr. van Eijk studied at the Electrical Engineering Department of the Eindhoven University of Technology, from which he graduated with honors in 1992 and obtained a Ph.D. degree in 1997, on the topic of equivalence checking for digital circuits.

Alex Yakovlev was a Dream Fellow of Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council (EPSRC), United Kingdom, to investigate different aspects of energy-modulated computing during 2012-2013.

He received D.Sc. from Newcastle University in 2006, and M.Sc. and Ph.D. from St. Petersburg Electrical Engineering Institute in 1979 and 1982 respectively, where he worked in the area of asynchronous and concurrent systems since 1980, and in the period between 1982 and 1990 held positions of assistant and associate professor at the Computing Science

department. Since 1991 he has been at the Newcastle University, where he is a professor and head of the MicroSystems research group at the School of Electrical and Electronic Engineering. His current interests and publications are in the field of modelling and design of asynchronous, concurrent, real-time and dependable systems on a chip. He has published 8 edited and co-authored monographs and more than 300 papers in academic journals and conferences, and has managed over 30 research contracts. He is a Senior Member of the IEEE and Fellow of IET.

He has chaired program committees of several international conferences, including the IEEE Int. Symposium on Asynchronous Circuits and Systems (ASYNC), Petri nets (ICATPN), Applications of Concurrency to Systems Design (ACSD), and he has been Chairman of the Steering committee of the Conference on Application of Concurrency to System Design since 2001. In April 2008 he was General Chair of the 14th ASYNC Symposium and 2nd Int. Symposium on Networks on Chip, 22nd PATMOS, and Tutorial Chair at Design Automation and Test in Europe (DATE) in 2009. He has served as a Steering committee member for ASYNC, NOCS, ICATPN, PATMOS. He was recently an invited speaker at DDECS 2010, KTN event on Power Management in 2010, DATE 2011, DCIS 2014, where he spoke on Asynchronous Systems and Energy-Modulated Computing. He was a tutorial organiser and speaker at DATE 2013, gave lectures and courses on asynchronous design at ARM, IMEC and Dialog Seminconductor in 2015.

David M. Zar is a Co-Founder of Blendics where he is also a Senior Engineer working on metastability-related tools and analysis. Along with several of the other Co-Founders of Blendics, Mr. Zar came from Washington University in St. Louis where he was involved in asynchronous circuit design as well as metastability work on and off for over 19 years. He is the principal developer of MetaACE, the first commercially available tool for the analysis of metastability in synchronizers. In addition, Mr. Zar has worked in the areas of medical devices, networking and cybersecurity for the past 25 years. DESIGN, AUTOMATION & TEST IN EUROPE



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Clock Synthesis

and Chip Variability

Koen van Eijk

Synopsys



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Modern Clocking Strategies: Clock Synthesis and Chip Variability

Koen van Eijk Synopsys



Overview

- **1.** Clock Synthesis Fundamentals
- 2. Chip Variability and Timing Sign-Off
- 3. Variation Tolerant Clock Structures
- 4. Design Flow Aspects and Automation

Synchronous Circuits



Setup timing check

 The data must arrive at the D input before the arrival of the next clock edge

Hold timing check

• The data must remain valid long enough after the arrival of the clock edge

Multiple clock domains, clock gating, latches, path exceptions, ...

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Clock Synthesis and Chip Variability

Synchronous Circuits



Setup timing check

 The data must arrive at the D input before the arrival of the next clock edge

Hold timing check

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Clock Tree Synthesis



Clock Balancing

- <u>Skew</u>: Difference in arrival times at clock inputs
 - <u>Global</u>: Between the clock inputs of any two sequential elements in the same clock domain
 - <u>Local</u>: Between two clock inputs that launch and capture a timing path
 - Positive skew: Capture comes later than launch
 - Negative skew: Capture comes earlier than launch
- <u>Useful skew</u>: Use skew to meet signal timing
 - Create positive skew on timing-critical paths
 - Accept negative skew on non-timing-critical paths

Timing Sign-Off

- Use static timing analysis to check that all timing constraints are satisfied
- Determine the worst possible conditions for each type of timing check
- How to account for chip variability?



Sources of Variation

 Process Variation in critical dimensions Random dopant fluctuation Variation of the gate oxide thickness 	 Voltage Offset in the voltage regulator Power noise (IR drop, di/dt noise)
 Temperature Ambient temperature changes Global variations and local fluctuations due to power dissipation 	Aging Hot carrier injection Bias temperature instability

Circuits, Springer Series in Advanced Microelectronics 41 Clock Synthesis and Chip Variability

Example: Random Dopant Fluctuation



Technology Node (nm)

Source: K. Kuhn et al., Managing Process Variation in Intel's 45nm CMOS Technology, Intel Technology Journal, Volume 12, Issue 2, 2008



- Main origin of random variability in conventional bulk transistors •
 - Responsible for ~60% of device-to-device V_T variation at 45nm
- For SOI and 3D multi-gate transistors, the channel/body doping can be • eliminated to mitigate RDF effects
 - Still other sources of random variability

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Clock Synthesis and Chip Variability

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Classifying Variation

- Systematic versus random
 - Systematic variations are deterministic in nature, can be attributed to layout or manufacturing equipment related effects, and generally show spatial correlation behavior
- Global versus local
 - Global variations affect similar components on the same die in the same way
- Static versus dynamic
 - Dynamic variation is time-dependent, with time constants ranging from small (power noise) to large (aging)
 - Process variation is static

Modeling variation

- <u>Multicorner analysis</u>
 - Model chip-to-chip variations
 - Examples: Ambient temperature, metal dimensions
- <u>Basic OCV modeling</u>
 - Model variations with min/max delays
 - Examples: Power noise, temperature fluctuations

Advanced and parametric OCV

- Model correlations to reduce pessimism
- Examples: Random dopant fluctuation, effective gate lengths

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Clock Synthesis and Chip Variability

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Basic OCV Modeling

- Perform conservative checks by applying maximum and minimum delays
 - Example: Define min/max by -10%/+10% derating



Clock Reconvergence Pessimism Removal



- It is pessimistic to assume both minimum and maximum delays for the common part
- CRPR removes this pessimism by only assuming maximum delays for the common part

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Clock Synthesis and Chip Variability

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Advanced and Parametric OCV

Advanced OCV

 Derate values as a function of logic depth (for random variations) and location (for systematic variations)



Clock Synthesis and Chip Variability

Creating Robust Clock Structures



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Α

Balancing with Cell & Wire Delay

Gate/Wire Delay Balancing



Balancing with Cell Delay Only



Common Path Sharing

• Prefer late branching





• Timing-aware clustering



Robust by Construction

Global clock tree (H-tree)

- Structural balancing
- Strong repeaters and high layers to achieve low latency
 Less impact from OCV derating
 Less sensitive to variations

Clock mesh

- OCV tolerance

Clock subtrees

 Flexibility for fine-grain clock gating and useful skew



Trade-offs for Multisource CTS



Mesh Creation

- 1. Create mesh routes
 - Non-default rule, shielding
- 2. Insert mesh drivers
 - Placed in regular pattern
- 3. Hook up pins to mesh
 - Restrict topology to avoid daisy chaining
- 4. Analyze and annotate delays
 - Integrated circuit simulation





Assigning clock sinks to tap drivers

Involves clock gate splitting



Global Distribution with H-tree

- H-tree synthesis
 - Simultaneous buffering and routing
 - Balanced routing per level
 - Layers that are primarily used for power distribution, with few tracks available
- Handle fragmented floorplans
 - Obstructed areas
 - Areas with less regular placement
 - Dummy branches for balancing





Post-Silicon Clock Tuning

- Insert cells with tunable delays and tune the delay to minimize skew
 - Typically part of the global clock distribution



Summary



- Variation tolerant clock structures
 - Improving balancing and path sharing in bottom-up tree construction
 - Global distribution with H-tree
 - Clock mesh for very high performance designs
- Complete flow support for multisource CTS
 - Tap synthesis, mesh creation and analysis, global tree synthesis

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Asynchronous Timing

Alex Yakovlev University of Newcastle



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Modern Clocking Strategies: Asynchronous Timing

Jordi Cortadella UPC, Barcelona Alex Yakovlev Newcastle University, UK

Overview

- Starting from Synchronous
- Completion Detection
- Handshaking
- Why going asynchronous?
- Towards near and sub-threshold
- GALS Globally Asynchronous, Locally Synchronous
- Design Automation

Synchronous circuits

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Synchronous circuit



Synchronous circuit



Source-synchronous



- No global clock required
- More tolerance to PVT variations
- Period > longest combinational path
- Good for acyclic pipelines

Source-synchronous with forks and joins



How to synchronize incoming events?

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Completion detection

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C element (Muller 1959)



Α	В	С
0	0	0
0	1	С
1	0	С
1	1	1

(many implementations exist)



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Completion detection



The fixed delay must be longer than the worst-case logic delay (plus variability)

Q: could we detect when a computation has completed ASAP ?

Delay-insensitive codes: Dual Rail

• Dual rail: every bit encoded with two signals

A.t	A.f	Α
0	0	Spacer
0	1	0
1	0	1
1	1	Not used

Plus:

- Systematic code
- Easy to extract value
- Easy to detect completion Minus:
- More area
- More power



DI codes (1-of-n and m-of-n)

- 1-of-4:
 - 0001=>00,0010=>01,0100=>10,1000=>11
- 2-of-4:
 - 1100, 1010, 1001, 0110, 0101, 0011 total 6 combinations (cf. 2-bit dual-rail – 4 comb.)
- 3-of-6:
 - 111000, 110100, ..., 000111 total 20 combinations (can encode 4 bits + 4 control tokens)
- 2-of-7:
 - 1100000, 1010000, ..., 0000011 total 21 combinations (4 bits + 5 control tokens)

Dual-Rail AND gate









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 Single rail data vs. dual rail

Some back-of-the-envelope estimations:

	Single rail	Dual Rail
Area	1	2
Delay	1	<< 1
Static power	1	2
Dynamic power	< 0.2	2

Dual rail:

- Good for speed
- Large area
- High power consumption

Handshaking



Assume that the source module can provide data at any rate:

• When should the CLK generator send an event if the

internal delays of the circuit are unknown?

Solution: handshaking

Handshaking



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Asynchronous elastic pipeline



Multiple inputs and outputs



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Multiple inputs and outputs



Channel-based communication

• A channel contains data and handshake wires



- Every edge is active
- It may require double-edge triggered flip-flops or pulse generators

Four-phase protocol



- Valid data on the active edge of Req
- Req/Ack must *return to zero* before the next transfer
- Different variations of the 4-phase protocol exist



How to memorize?



Why going asynchronous?

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Modularity

- Time-independent functional composability
 - Performance may be affected (but not functionality)



Tracking variability



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Tracking variability



Margins

Rigid Clocks:



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Clock elasticity


Voltage scaling and power savings



Scaling Vdd to near or sub-threshold



Optimising Vdd for energy per operation shifts us towards Subthreshold operation

Source: David Bol, Pushing Ultra-ILow-Power Digital Circuits into the Nanometer Era, PhD thesis,

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Relationship with timing variability



Example: 8-bit Booth's Multiplier

- Synchronous
 - Rigid 1GHz clock
- Frequency scaling
 - Tuned for 1GHz, 500MHz and 250MHz
- Asynchronous, bundled data
 - Extra control logic and delay lines
- Asynchronous, dual-rail
 - Double comb. logic and FF size (more leakage)
 - Extra completion detection and single-rail to dual-rail converters
 - Double switching activity (spacer/code-word)

Benchmark Architectures



Adaptive frequency scaling

Bundled data



Dual-rail

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Multiplier: Power-speed scaling



Asynchronous timing

Globally Asynchronous Locally Synchronous (GALS)

- Comprises generation of stretchable clocks and processing of external handshake
- Proper arbitration in clock stretching
- Requires at least 2 clock cycles to transfer data
- At most 1 port can be active at a time

D.Chapiro, "Globally asynchronous locally synchronous systems", PhD thesis, 1984 K.Yun, et al., "Pausible clocking: a first step towards heterogeneous systems", ICCD, 1996

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Clocking and interfaces: Towards GALS



Asynchronous timing

Measurements of Moonrake Chip

GALS has shown:

- much better EMI profile
- improved power consumption and
- reduced area!



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	Amplitude of on-chip core VDD from GALS TX								

	Area	Power	Spectral amplitude of Core VDD (dBm)			
	(mm ²)	Dissipation (mW)	1 st peak	2 nd peak	3 rd peak	
SYNC TX	2.33 (43.2%)	258	-15	-32	-23	
GALS TX	2.22 (41.0%)	237	-41	-48	-53	
Difference	+4.7%	+8.2%	26dB	16dB	30dB	

Source: M. Krstic et al. Evaluation of GALS Methods in Scaled CMOS Technology: Moonrake Chip Experience, IJERTCS, 3(4), 2012 DATE 2016 Asynchronous timing

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GALS: asynchronous wrapper



Optimization of async wrapper



Xin Fan, Milos Krstic, and Eckhard Grass, "Analysis and optimization of pausible clocking based GALS design," ICCD 2009

Two-way arbiter (Mutual exclusion element)

Basic arbitration element: Mutex (due to Seitz, 1979)



An asynchronous data latch with metastability resolver can be built similarly

Design Automation

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Asynchronous timing

Design automation paradigms

- Synthesis of asynchronous controllers
 - Logic synthesis from Petri nets or asynchronous FSMs
- Syntax-directed translation
 - Correct-by-construction composition of handshake components
- De-synchronization
 - Automatic transformation from synchronous to asynchronous

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Synthesis of asynchronous controllers



Workcraft tool

- Workcraft is a software package for graphical edit, analysis, synthesis and visualisation of asynchronous circuit behaviour
- Petrify, MPSAT, plus a few other tools are part of it as plug-ins
- It is based in Java tools
- Can be downloaded from http://workcraft.org/
- And installed in 10 minutes
- There is a simple to use tutorial for that

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Workcraft



Conclusions

- Asynchrony offers flexibility in time
 - Modularity
 - Dynamic adaptability
 - Tolerance to variability
- Better optimization of power/performance
 - Facilitates near and sub-threshold modes
 - Facilitates easier power-gating
- Why isn't it an important trend in circuit design?
 - Lack of commercial EDA support (timing sign-off)
 - Designers do not feel comfortable with "unpredictable" timing
 - Other aspects: testing, verification, ...
- De-synchronization might be a viable solution

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Metastability and

Clock Domain Crossing

David M. Zar

Blendics, Inc.



Modern Clocking Strategies: Metastability and Clock Domain Crossing

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David M. Zar Blendics, Inc



Overview

- Clock Domain Crossing (CDC) Fundamentals
- How Synchronizers Can Fail
- Common Synchronizer Structures
- Analysis of Synchronizer Failure
- Good Synchronizers

Clock Domain Crossing (CDC) Fundamentals

- A CDC occurs whenever a signal crosses from one clock domain to another
- Any data input not synchronous to a clock is a CDC, in general (e.g. an asynchronous input)
- In modern SOCs, there could be hundreds, or even thousands, of CDCs ocurring between any number of disparate clock domains
- If any of these CDCs are not dealt with, the circuit may fail due to a synchronization failure:
 - Metastability failure or
 - Under/over sampling failure

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Metastability and Clock Domain Crossing

Metastability Failure

• A violation of input timing at the synchronizer can cause the output of the synchronizer to go metastable:



• During the transition, the output must not be sampled at the destination until it has resolved

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Sampling Failure

• If the clock frequency of the receiver is too fast/slow, a sampling failure may occur:



- Destination clock too slow → data lost
- Destination clock too fast → data repeated

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Metastability and Clock Domain Crossing

Properly Dealing With CDC



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Properly Dealing With CDC



Handshaking Solves the CDC Problem! [?]



• So it seems until you look under the covers:

• This still can have a synchronizer failure!

CDC Identification

- The good news is that identifying CDCs is *easy*:
 - Designer should know, right:
 - Static analysis did you find them all?
 - Power islands dynamic powering up/down?
 - Reset where does it go and when?
 - Helpful tools:
 - Blue Pearl ACE
 - Mentor Graphics Questa CDC
 - Real Intent Meridian
 - Synopsys SpyGlass CDC (Formerly Atrenta)
 - vSync Circuits vChecker
 - Others...

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Metastability and Clock Domain Crossing

Analysis of Synchronizer Failure

- If you have removed all unnecessary CDCs and then properly added synchronization at the remaining CDCs, your synchronizer may still fail
- What is a synchronizer failure?
 - A synchronizer failure is when the output fails to resolve to a valid logic level by a certain point in time (typically clock period minus setup time)
 - Is caused by the inputs changing at the *wrong time* (like violating setup or hold time at a flip-flop)



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How Does a Latch Resolve?

- Flip-flop is too complex, but is made up of latches; use a latch!
- Now small signal analysis finds the relationship between output voltage (V₁) and initial output voltage (V₀)



• au is a time constant related to the time it takes to get from the metastable voltage to a valid logic voltage level

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Metastability and Clock Domain Crossing

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Failing Master-Slave Flip-Flop

- Given a data-clock offset (δ) in the red window for D, output Q_m resolves near or past the falling edge of C
- A narrower red window causes output Q_s to resolve near or past next rising edge of C. (We define T_w as the largest such window that causes the output to "push out" past the nominal clock-output delay)
- When C is high, the settling behavior at Q_m is a function of au_m
- When C is low, Q_s is a function of τ_s



CDC Failure Analysis

- So given that you can identify CDCs in circuits, and
- Given that you cannot guarantee they will always work,
- What are you to do?
 - Give up?
 - Pretend the problem won't happen because you used a two flip-flop synchronizer?
 - Design *good* synchronizers, use them, and analyze their failure rates to be sure you are at acceptable levels?

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Failure Analysis

- For a given synchronizer
 - We can determine some intrinsic parameters that govern how fast it resolves (τ and T_w)
 - We can determine some extrinsic parameters that describe the environment (clock frequency, data arrival rates, etc.)
 - We can then determine the failure rate for any particular synchronizer



Failure Rate/MTBF/Pr(safe)

 We commonly use Mean Time Between Failures (MTBF) when speaking of synchronizer failures:

$$MTBF = \frac{e^{S/\tau}}{T_w f_d f_d}$$

S is the settling time by which the signal must be resolved, f_d is the data rate and f_c is the sampling clock rate

- Failure Rate = 1/MTBF (also known as Failures In Time, or FIT)
- For N such synchronizers in C chips shipped, the total Failure Rate is NC/MTBF (or many orders of magnitude higher than for a single synchronizer!)
- Pr(safe) Probability of Being Safe measures the probability that all units in the field perform safely through the average lifetime of said units:

$$Pr(safe) = \exp\left[\frac{-NCL}{MTBF}\right]$$

Where *L* is the average lifetime of a unit

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MTBF/Failure Rate Fallacies

- MTBF is not how long it will take, on average, for your circuit to fail.
 - MTBF of 100 years is fine for one failure in 100 years and is acceptable for my calculator.
- MTBF is not the expected lifetime of your device.
 - MTBF of 5 years for a cell phone is fine if nobody uses it for that long.
- MTBF is not the service time of your device.
 - MTBF of 2 years for the IV pump is acceptable if we will service it every year, test it, etc.
- For example, an MTBF of 10 years implies that:
 - In the first year, we expect ~10% of our devices to fail,
 - After 10 years, we expect ~63% of our devices to fail!

Know Your MTBF

- It is imperative to know the MTBF for your synchronizer:
 - Turns out, as feature size goes below about 65 nm, τ starts to increase (lowering MTBF) relative to FO4 delay



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Know Your MTBF (2)

- Process variability affects MTBF
 - For example, τ is sensitive to V_t



Know Your MTBF (3)

• V_{dd} matters, too



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Know Your MTBF (4)

- The duty cycle of the clock can affect MTBF in master-slave type flip-flops/synchronizers
 - Typically, τ is assumed to be only a function of the master (or slave) of a master-slave FF; This is not the case.

$$\tau_{eff} = \left(\frac{\alpha}{\tau_m} + \frac{(1-\alpha)}{\tau_s}\right)^{-1}$$

- Where τ_{eff} is the *effective* τ of the device.
- *α* is the duty cycle (e.g. 0.4 means the clock is high for 40% of the clock period)
- τ_m is the τ for the master latch; τ_s is the τ for the slave latch

Effective au Example

- A τ_{eff} will vary between the τ values of the master and the slave, being their harmonic mean at a 50% duty cycle when the two τ values are close to each other.
- Things are more interesting when the au values are very different



Know Your MTBF (5)

• Finally, most published MTBF models are not correct for multi-stage FF-based synchronizers (see Beer, MTBF Bounds for Multistage Synchronizers)



Good Synchronizers

(Or... Why You Should Never Use a Data Flip-Flop as a Synchronizer)

- Data Flip-Flop
 - Used for temporary storage of data
 - Prevent data values from corruption during a clock cycle
 - Hold data values for multiple clock cycles
 - Designed for deterministic cycle-to-cycle operation
 - Implies large setup/hold times
- Synchronizer Flip-Flop
 - Used to minimize Pr(failure)
 - Data/clock may arrive at any time which may cause a setup/hold violation at a following data flip-flop
 - Needs to preserve data transition sequence
 - No guarantee of deterministic cycle-to-cycle timing

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Data Flip-Flops Vs. Synchronizer Flip-Flops



Different performance characteristics to optimize based on FF use:

	t _{pd}	t _{su}	t _h	τ	T _w
Data FF	minimize	minimize	0	-	-
Synchronizer FF	-	-	0	minimize	minimize

Good Synchronizing Scan D Flip-Flop (SDFF)

- From Cox, Synchronization and Data Flop-Flops are Different
- Green devices are what you want to optimize
- Red devices are what should be minimized



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How Good is a Good Synchronizer?

 A SDFF cell from a library was compared to this good cell (at 45 nm) (VTG uses standard V_t devices whereas VTL uses low-V_t devices)



Design for Good Synchronization

- You want a large MTBF
- So you need small τ
 - Use low-V_t transistors if you can
 - Use largest V_{dd} you can
 - Reduce capacitance on nodes in regenerative loops including output node(s)
 - Design a custom synchronization flip-flop (as in reference: Synchronization and Data Flop-Flops are Different)
- BEWARE: Many *clever* synchronizing flop-flop designs have new issues. Why be complicated when you can analyze?!

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So...

- To properly handle the CDC in your circuit, you need to identify all such occurrences
- Then you need to ensure a proper synchronization mechanism is used
- Then you need to determine the MTBF/FIT for each CDC
- Finally, you can calculate the MTBF/FIT/Pr(safe) for the entire circuit based on the individual MTBF/FIT, the number of each, the length of service and the number of copies you expect to be in use

Questions

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Adaptive Clocking

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Modern Clocking Strategies: Adaptive Clocking

Jordi Cortadella Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya

Outline

- Sources of variability

 Static/dynamic, local/global
- Reducing Margins for Static and Slow Variability
 - Binning
 - Voltage-Frequency Scaling
- Reducing Margins for Fast Variability
 - Resilient circuits
 - Adaptive Clocks
- Reactive Clocks and GALS

The cost of variability



Process variability



Dynamic variability



- Dynamic variability (V,T) depends on the actual activity of the circuit
- Assumptions required on the min/max values for voltage and temperature
- Ranges may depend on the application domain (automotive, HPC, handheld devices, ...)

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Global and local variability



Source: H. Masuda et al. (ICICC 2005) Challenge: Variability Characterization and Modeling for 65- to 90-nm Processes

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Timing: setup constraint



Margins are required to account for the worst-case variability (static and dynamic)

Is there room to reduce margins?

	Statio	Dynamic			
	Static	Slow (ms)	Fast (ns)		
Global (corners)	PV	VTA	V		
Local (OCV)	PV	VTA	V		

(P:Process; V: Voltage; T: Temperature; A: Aging)

Voltage variability:

- Static IR drop
- Dynamic IR drop
- Inductive noise (L·di/dt)

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Reducing Margins for Static and Slow Variability

V-F operation points



 F_1

 F_2

 F_3

Frequency

Voltage binning



Temperature

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Power budget

Frequency

 V_6

 F_5



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AVS scheme



- Every die works at its best (V,F) point (plus some guardband margins)
- AVS can compensate slow variability (temperature, aging)

- Estimate the voltage/frequency relationship of the actual silicon
- Examples:



Reducing Margins for Fast Variability
Resilient circuits





Source: D. Ernst et al., Razor: circuit-level corrrection of timing errors for low-power operation, IEEE Micro, Nov-Dec 2004.

Resilient circuits: technical issues



- Only critical flip-flops require shadow latches
- Short paths must have a min delay
- Metastability may take several cycles to resolve
- Sophisticated error-recovery procedures are required

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Source: S. Das et al.,

RazorII: In Situ Error Detection and Correction for PVT and SER Tolerance. IEEE JSSC 44(1), Jan 2009.

Resilient circuits



- Raise voltage if too many errors
- Lower voltage if too few errors

Error recovery mechanism:

• Reuse existing checkpoint schemes in advanced processors

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Schemes with resilient circuits

• ARM + University of Michigan

- Different variations: Razor I, Razor II, Bubble Razor

- Intel:
 - Transition Detector with Time Borrowing (TDTB)
 - Double Sampling with time Borrowing (DSTB)
- Using pausable clocks and metastability detectors
 - SafeRazor (Torino, Technion and UPC)
 - Blade (USC)

Voltage droops are the main source of fast variability



Source: Y. Kim et al.,

Automating Stressmark Generation for Testing Processor Voltage Fluctuations, IEEE Micro, July-August 2013.

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Power Delivery Network



Source: Jitesh Shah Floorplanning A Power Delivery Network With Spice Electronic Design July 24, 2008 http://electronicdesign.com/energy/floorplanning-power-delivery-network-spice

PDN model



AMD Steamroller



Intel Adaptive Clock



Tunable-Length Delay



Dynamic Variation Monitor (DVM)

Source: K.A. Bowman et al. A 22 nm All-Digital Dynamically Adaptive Clock Distribution for Supply Voltage Droop Tolerance, IEEE JSSC 48(4), April 2013.



Intel Adaptive Clock



to save energy and maintain reliability, IEEE Micro 33(4), 2013.

Reactive Clocks

Mechanisms to reduce margins

	Static	Dynamic	
		Slow (ms)	Fast (ns)
Global (corners)	PV	VTA	V
Local (OCV)	PV	VTA	V

Mechanism	Reduces margins for
Binning, DVFS (open loop)	Static variability
AVS (close loop)	+ Slow global variability
Adaptive Clocks	+ Fast global variability (moderate)
Reactive Clocks	+ Fast global variability (aggressive)
Resilient circuits	Any variability (aggressive)

Timing: setup constraint



Variability: PLL vs. Reactive Clock



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Adaptive Clocking PLL vs. Reactive Clock



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Reactive Clock



PLL vs. Reactive Clocks



Adaptive Clocking



CDC structures required for communication outside the clock domain

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GALS with Reactive Clocking



- A different Reactive Clock for each domain
- Clock Domain Crossing structures between domains

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Summary



- Moore's law is (economically) over. It is time to exploit what is left in established nodes.
- What is left? Margins for variability.
- Dilemma: how to spend your money?
 - introducing techniques to reduce margins, or
 - moving to a new (expensive) technology node