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 zero-skew 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 high-performance, 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 as 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 Politècnica 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 Politècnica 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 control-dominated 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 low-power 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.
Clock Synthesis
and Chip Variability

Koen van Eijk
Synopsys
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
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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Multiple clock domains, clock gating, latches, path exceptions, ...
Clock Tree Synthesis

- Clock tree synthesis creates the network that connects the system clock to the sequential elements of the chip
- Main goals
  - Balance insertion delays
  - Minimize clock area and power
- The later flow stages include clock optimization

Clock Balancing

- **Skew**: Difference in arrival times at clock inputs
  - **Global**: Between the clock inputs of any two sequential elements in the same clock domain
  - **Local**: 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
- **Useful skew**: 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, \(\text{di/dt}\) noise)

**Temperature**
- Ambient temperature changes
- Global variations and local fluctuations due to power dissipation

**Aging**
- Hot carrier injection
- Bias temperature instability

• 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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**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

- **Multicorner analysis**
  - Model chip-to-chip variations
  - Examples: Ambient temperature, metal dimensions

- **Basic OCV modeling**
  - 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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Basic OCV Modeling

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

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![Setup timing check](image1)

- **Setup timing check**
  - FF1: D Q
  - FF2: D Q
  - Combinational logic
  - CLK

---

![Hold timing check](image2)

- **Hold timing check**
  - FF1: D Q
  - FF2: D Q
  - Combinational logic
  - CLK
  - Max delay
  - Min delay
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.

Advanced and Parametric OCV

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

- **Parametric OCV**
  - Computes arrival times, required times and slacks as statistical distributions
Creating Robust Clock Structures

Synthesis algorithm
– Bottom-up tree construction using clustering, buffering, clock gate merging, splitting, sizing and relocation

Techniques for improving variation tolerance
– Multi-corner optimization
– Gate/wire delay balancing
– Common path sharing

Gate/Wire Delay Balancing

Balancing with Cell Delay Only

Corner 1

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Wire</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>4.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
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Corner 2

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<th>Gate</th>
<th>Wire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Corner Scaling Ratio
For gate: 2:1
For Wire: 1:1.5

Balancing with Cell & Wire Delay

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<td>B</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
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<th>Gate</th>
<th>Wire</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>6.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Common Path Sharing

- Prefer late branching

![Early branching diagram](image1)

![Late branching diagram](image2)

- Timing-aware clustering

![Timing-aware clustering diagram](image3)

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

Regular CTS

Multisource CTS w/o mesh

Multisource CTS with mesh

More robust against global and local variations
Lower latency

Lower power
Fewer flow steps

Automation & easy exploration

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

Correctness Yield Lifetime

Chip Variability

Timing Closure Die Size Power
Asynchronous Timing

Alex Yakovlev

University of Newcastle
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

Synchronous circuit
Synchronous circuit

Two competing paths:
• Launching path
• Capturing path

Launching path < Capturing path + Period
CLKtree + CL < CLKtree + Period

CL < Period (no clock skew)

Source-synchronous

• No global clock required
• More tolerance to PVT variations
• Period > longest combinational path
• Good for acyclic pipelines
How to synchronize incoming events?

Completion detection
C element (Muller 1959)

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
A & B & C \\
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & C \\
1 & 0 & C \\
1 & 1 & 1 \\
\end{array}
\]

(Many implementations exist)

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A.t</th>
<th>A.f</th>
<th>A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Spacer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Not used</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**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

<p>| | | |</p>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>SP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
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</table>

Single rail data vs. dual rail

Some back-of-the-envelope estimations:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Single rail</th>
<th>Dual Rail</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Area</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delay</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>&lt;&lt; 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Static power</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic power</td>
<td>&lt; 0.2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dual rail:
- Good for speed
- Large area
- High power consumption
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
Asynchronous elastic pipeline

- David Muller’s pipeline (late 50’s)
- Sutherland’s Micropipelines (Turing award, 1989)
Multiple inputs and outputs
Channel-based communication

- A channel contains data and handshake wires

Two-phase protocol

- 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?

Modularity

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

Good correlation for:

- Process variability (systematic)
- Global voltage fluctuations
- Temperature
- Aging (partially)
Margins

Rigid Clocks:

- Gate and wire delays (typ)
- P
- V
- T
- Aging
- PLL
- Jitter
- Skew

Cycle period

Elastic Clocks:

- Gate and wire delays (typ)
- P
- V
- T
- Aging
- Skew

Cycle period

Margin reduction

Speed-up / Power savings

Clock elasticity

Rigid clock

computation time

Cycle period

Elastic clock

computation time

Cycle period
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-Low-Power Digital Circuits into the Nanometer Era, PhD thesis,
Relationship with timing variability

But we need to be more timing robust!

Source of variability analysis: Yu Cao, Clark, L.T., 2007

Optimising Vdd for energy per operation shifts us towards Subthreshold operation

Technology node: 90nm

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

Multiplier: Power-speed scaling

DATE 2016 Asynchronous timing

DATE 2016 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


Clocking and interfaces: Towards GALS

Example from IHP Baseband processor design (Moonrake chip), GALAXY project
Measurements of Moonrake Chip

GALS has shown:

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Area (mm²)</th>
<th>Power Dissipation (mW)</th>
<th>Spectral amplitude of Core VDD (dBm)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1st peak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SYNC TX</td>
<td>2.33 (43.2%)</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>-15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GALS TX</td>
<td>2.22 (41.0%)</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>-41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difference</td>
<td>+4.7%</td>
<td>+8.2%</td>
<td>26dB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


GALS: asynchronous wrapper

Diagram of asynchronous wrapper with request-acknowledge window.
Optimization of async wrapper

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

Xin Fan, Milos Krstic, and Eckhard Grass, “Analysis and optimization of pausable clocking based GALS design,” ICCD 2009
Design Automation

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
Synthesis of asynchronous controllers

Example: Petrify
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/](http://workcraft.org/)
- And installed in 10 minutes
- There is a simple to use tutorial for that
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

Some references

Metastability and Clock Domain Crossing

David M. Zar

Blendics, Inc.
Modern Clocking Strategies: Metastability and Clock Domain Crossing

David M. Zar
Blendics, Inc

Overview

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

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.
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

Properly Dealing With CDC

- Here we have a CDC with no synchronization. Nobody does this, right?
- Use the 2-stage synchronizer we all learned about. But what is being synchronized? How long can you wait? Are two stages enough?
- How about a DCFIFO? It’s big and how wide? Oh wait, what’s inside?
Properly Dealing With CDC

Here we have a CDC with no synchronization. Nobody does this, right?

How about a DCFIFO? It’s big and how wide? Oh wait, what’s inside?

Use the 2-stage synchronizer we all learned about. But what is being synchronized? How long can you wait? Are two stages enough?

So it seems until you look under the covers:

• This still can have a synchronizer failure!

Handshaking Solves the CDC Problem! [?]
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…

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)
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 \( V_1 \) and initial output voltage \( V_0 \):

\[
V_1 = V_0 e^{t'/\tau} \quad \tau = C / g_m
\]

For \( V_0 \) small

- \( \tau \) is a time constant related to the time it takes to get from the metastable voltage to a valid logic voltage level

Failing Master-Slave Flip-Flop

- Given a data-clock offset (\( \delta \)) 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 \( \tau_m \)
- When \( C \) is low, \( Q_s \) is a function of \( \tau_s \)
• 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?

Failure Analysis

• For a given synchronizer
  • We can determine some intrinsic parameters that govern how fast it resolves \((\tau \text{ and } T_w)\)
  • 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
We commonly use Mean Time Between Failures (MTBF) when speaking of synchronizer failures:

\[
MTBF = \frac{e^{S/\tau}}{T_w f_d f_c}
\]

\(S\) 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!)
- \(Pr(\text{safe})\) – Probability of Being Safe – measures the probability that all units in the field perform safely through the average lifetime of said units:

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

Where \(L\) is the average lifetime of a unit.

**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, $\tau$ starts to increase (lowering MTBF) relative to FO4 delay

$\tau$ is sensitive to $V_t$

Know Your MTBF (2)

- Process variability affects MTBF
- For example, $\tau$ is sensitive to $V_t$

From Beer, et al. Devolution of Synchronizers
Know Your MTBF (3)

- $V_{dd}$ matters, too

Know Your MTBF (4)

- The duty cycle of the clock can affect MTBF in master-slave type flip-flops/synchronizers
  - Typically, $\tau$ 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 $\tau_{eff}$ is the effective $\tau$ of the device.
- $\alpha$ is the duty cycle (e.g. 0.4 means the clock is high for 40% of the clock period)
- $\tau_m$ is the $\tau$ for the master latch; $\tau_s$ is the $\tau$ for the slave latch
Effective $\tau$ Example

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

**Nearly the Same**

$\tau_m = 80$ ps, $\tau_s = 60$ ps

**Very Different**

$\tau_m = 150$ ps, $\tau_s = 30$ ps

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

Data Flip-Flops Vs. Synchronizer Flip-Flops

Different performance characteristics to optimize based on FF use:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( t_{pd} )</th>
<th>( t_{su} )</th>
<th>( t_h )</th>
<th>( \tau )</th>
<th>( T_w )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Data FF</td>
<td>minimize</td>
<td>minimize</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Synchronizer FF</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>minimize</td>
<td>minimize</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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**

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)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Library VTG (ps)</th>
<th>Good VTG (ps)</th>
<th>Good VTL (ps)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\tau_m$</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\tau_s$</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\tau_{eff}$</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MTBF of Dual Scan DFF

MTBF (years) vs Clock (MHz)
Design for Good Synchronization

- You want a large MTBF
- So you need small $\tau$
  - 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?!

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

References

Adaptive Clocking

Jordi Cortadella

Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya
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

Goal: Reduce margins

Impact:
- Speed
- Energy

Process variability

leakage

frequency
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, ...)

Global and local variability

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

Comb. Logic

PVTA variability

Two competing paths:
- Launching path
- Capturing path

Launching path < Capturing path + Period

Margins

Margins for Variability

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

Is there room to reduce margins?
Voltage variability:
- Static IR drop
- Dynamic IR drop
- Inductive noise \( L \cdot \frac{di}{dt} \)

Reducing Margins for Static and Slow Variability
V-F operation points

Speed binning
Dynamic Voltage Frequency Scaling (DVFS)

Open loop control (SW).
(V,F) selected according to:
- Workload
- Temperature
- Power budget

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DVFS Table</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$V_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_4$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_5$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_6$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**DVFS scheme**

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

**AVS scheme**
Performance monitors

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

![Diagram of a ring oscillator and time-to-digital converter](image)

Time-to-digital converter

Reducing Margins for Fast Variability
Resilient circuits

Conventional timing

Resilient timing

Error recovery

Different values

Main flip-flop

Shadow latch

Error

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

Source: S. Das et al.,
RazorII: In Situ Error Detection and Correction for PVT and SER Tolerance.
IEEE JSSC 44(1), Jan 2009.
$P_{\text{eff}} = \hat{P}(1 + n\varepsilon)$

Closed Loop Control:
- Raise voltage if too many errors
- Lower voltage if too few errors

Error recovery mechanism:
- Reuse existing checkpoint schemes in advanced processors

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


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
Mechanisms are needed for:
- Droop detection
- Clock period stretching
- Frequency reduction
Source: K. Wilcox et al.  
Steamroller Module and Adaptive Clocking System in 28nm CMOS  
IEEE JSSC 50(1), Jan 2015.

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.
Margins for Adaptive Clocks

Other approaches:

Reactive Clocks

Mechanisms to reduce margins

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mechanism</th>
<th>Reduces margins for ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Binning, DVFS (open loop)</td>
<td>Static variability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVS (close loop)</td>
<td>+ Slow global variability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptive Clocks</td>
<td>+ Fast global variability (moderate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reactive Clocks</td>
<td>+ Fast global variability (aggressive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resilient circuits</td>
<td>Any variability (aggressive)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Static</th>
<th>Dynamic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Slow (ms)</td>
<td>Fast (ns)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global (corners)</td>
<td>PV</td>
<td>VTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local (OCV)</td>
<td>PV</td>
<td>VTA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Timing: setup constraint

Two competing paths:
- Launching path
- Capturing path

Launching path < Capturing path + Period

PVTA variability

No variability (or very little)

Reactive Clock

Correlated!

Launching path < Capturing path + Period + Margins
Variability: PLL vs. Reactive Clock

PLL vs. Reactive Clock

Adaptive frequency

Fixed frequency
**Reactive Clock**

**Gain:** 40% less Energy or 1.6x speed-up

**Pain:** Negligible

**Risk:** Zero

---

PLL vs. Reactive Clocks

---

**PLL vs. Reactive Clocks**

**DUT**

**SPICE models (65nm)**

**Process variability**

- **25°C**
- **75°C**
- **125°C**

**Temperature**

---

**PLL**

**Rclk**

**Enable**

---

**PLL**

**Rclk**

---

**J. Cortadella, L. Lavagno, P. López, M. Lupon, A. Moreno, A. Roca, and S. S. Sapatnekar.**

*Reactive clocks with variability-tracking jitter.*

*ICCD 2015.*
PLL vs. Reactive Clocks

SPICE models
(65nm)

Process variability

25°C
75°C
125°C
temperature

DUT
PLL
Rclk

25°C
125°C
75°C

SPICE models
(65nm)

-20%
(1.07V)

-42%
(0.91V)

Energy reduction
(@iso-performance)

Synthesis of the Ring oscillator

Library Corners
PLL period
OCV

Programmable by SW
CDC structures required for communication outside the clock domain

GALS with Reactive Clocks

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

- 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