# Introduction to Sequential Logic (cont.)

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### Contents

### 1 Memory

- Shift Registers
- Memory Basics
- Technology-DRAM and SRAM

### 2 Timing in Digital Circuits

- Combinational circuit timing
- Sequential circuit timing
- Testing for timing constraints

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#### 2 Timing in Digital Circuits



## Outline

### 1 Memory

### Shift Registers

- Memory Basics
- Technology-DRAM and SRAM



There are a few different types that are made by chaining D latches.

- Serial-in to Parallel-out (SIPO)
- Serial-in to Serial-out (SISO)
- Parallel-in to Serial-out (PISO)
- Parallel-in to Parallel-out (PIPO)

Which can be used for :

- SIPO/PISO: serial communication, i.e., UART, modems...
- SISO: Digital delay line, i.e., a building block of digital filters
- PIPO: usage for bit-shifting operation (exponentiation by 2)

# SIPO shift register





## Outline

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Virtual Memory: abstraction of the hardware!



Figure: Virtual Memory

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- When programming, a programmer sees an abstraction: virtual memory. Which can be assumed to be "infinite."
- In reality, everything is finite
- In computers, the system (i.e., hardware + software) maps virtual addresses to real addresses.
- But on programmable logic, abstractions are not that common... Viva bare metal!

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## Overview of memories

Flip-flop/registers :

- very fast, parallel access
- Expensive (in terms of hardware)
- Static RAM:
  - rather fast,
  - Expensive (in terms of hardware), one data word at a time

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- Dynamic RAM:
  - Cheap (in terms of hardware)
  - Slower, refresh needed, 1 word at a time
- Non-volatile storages:
  - Non-volatile, cheap (in terms of hardware and cost)
  - Much slower, longer access times

A way to store data efficiently:

- A memory array to store data
- Address selection logic (select a row)
- Read the row
- A M-bit value can be read or written at each unique N-bit address
  - All values can be accessed, but only M-bits at a time
  - Access restriction allows a more compact organization

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Figure: ROM M2716, how many bits inside ?

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In a memory array, a cell stores 1-bit

■ In a memory array (like the M2716) with *N*-address bits and *M* data bits:

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- $2^N$  rows of M columns each
- Depth: number of rows/number of words
- Width: number of columns/size of the words
- Array size :  $2^N \times M$

#### Example

For the M2716, we have 11 address bits ( $2^{1}1 = 2048$  rows) and an 8-bit output. Which means:

- The depth is 2048
- The width is 8
- The size is 16384 bits in total

# Example

Address	Value
00000000	EB
00000001	21
00000002	67
0000003	20
00000004	06
00000005	00
00000006	7E
0000007	BB

Table: 8-bit ROM dump (M2732)



### Diving inside a memory array

- Storage nodes in one column connected to one-bit line
- Address decoder activates only ONE-word line/row
- Content of one line of storage available at the output



Figure: Illustration of memory array addressing

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### Two ways to store a bit

- Access transistors configured as switches connect the bit storage to the bit line
- Access controlled by the word line



Figure: Capacitor-based memory element

Figure: Bistable-based memory element

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- M2716 = 16kbits of memory... So small...
- Larger memories  $\Rightarrow$  slow
- Idea: Divide the memory into smaller arrays and interconnect the arrays to input/output buses

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- Large memories are hierarchical array structures
- $\blacksquare DRAM: Channel \rightarrow Rank \rightarrow Bank \rightarrow Subarrays \rightarrow Mats$

- Problem: a single monolithic large memory array takes a long time to access and does not enable multiple accesses in parallel
- Goal: Reduce the latency of memory array access and enable multiple accesses in parallel
- Divide a large array into multiple banks that can be accessed independently (in the same cycle or in consecutive cycles)
  - Each bank is smaller than the entire memory storage
  - Accesses to different banks can be overlapped
- Key Issue: How do you map data to different banks? (i.e., how do you interleave data across banks?)

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### That's a DRAM

#### Capacitor charge state indicates stored value

- Whether the capacitor is charged or discharged indicates storage of 1 or 0
- 1 capacitor
- 1 access transistor
- Capacitor leaks (there is an RC path somewhere)
  - a DRAM cell loses charge over time
  - a DRAM cell needs to be refreshed to hold its data

- That's an SRAM
- Two cross-coupled inverters store a single-bit
  - Feedback path enables the stored value to persist in the "cell."

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- 4 transistors for storage
- 2 transistors for access

Well... That's the fun part... Critical timing, bus clearance, asynchronous vs. synchronous... Maybe later?



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- Until now, we investigated logical functionality
- What about timing?
  - How fast is a circuit?
  - How can we make a circuit faster?
  - What happens if we run a circuit too fast?
- a logically correct design can still fail because of real-world implementation issues!

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### Combination circuit delay

- Outputs do not change instantaneously with inputs
- Transistors take a finite amount of time to switch
- Gate outputs are delayed with respect to inputs



Unfortunately, this is a crude view of circuit delays.

- Delay is fundamentally caused by
  - q Capacitance and resistance in a circuit
  - Finite speed of light (not so fast on a nanosecond scale!)
- Anything affecting these quantities can change delay:
  - Rising (i.e., 0 -> 1) vs. falling (i.e., 1 -> 0) inputs
  - Different inputs have different delays
  - Changes in the environment (e.g., temperature)
- We have a range of possible delays from input to output

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## Delays from input to output

■ Contamination delay *t<sub>cd</sub>*: minimum delay

Propagation delay t<sub>pd</sub>: maximum delay

Note: cross-hatching means the value is changing. This is not a stable state.s



# Calculating path-length

For the following circuit:



Figure: Path length in a digital circuit

- Critical/Longest path :  $t_{pd} = 2t_{pd_{AND}} + t_{pd_{OR}}$
- Shortest path :  $t_{cd} = t_{cd_{AND}}$



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#### Heavy dependence on voltage and temperature!

Symbol	Parameter	Conditions	25 °C			–40 °C to +125 °C		Unit
			Min	Тур	Мах	Max (85 °C)	Max (125 °C)	
74HC00								
t <sub>pd</sub>	propagation delay	nA, nB to nY; see Figure 6						
		V <sub>CC</sub> = 2.0 V	-	25	-	115	135	ns
		V <sub>CC</sub> = 4.5 V	-	9	-	23	27	ns
		V <sub>CC</sub> = 5.0 V; C <sub>L</sub> = 15 pF	-	7	-	-	-	ns
		V <sub>CC</sub> = 6.0 V	-	7	-	20	23	ns
t <sub>t</sub>	transition time	see Figure 6 [2]						
		V <sub>CC</sub> = 2.0 V	-	19	-	95	110	ns
		V <sub>CC</sub> = 4.5 V	-	7	-	19	22	ns
		V <sub>CC</sub> = 6.0 V	-	6	-	16	19	ns

Figure: Datasheet for the 74HC00



#### Two different implementations of a 4:1 multiplexer:



Figure: Two multiplexer architectures

Table 2.7 Timing specifications for multiplexer circuit elements

Gate	t <sub>pd</sub> (ps)
NOT	30
2-input AND	60
3-input AND	80
4-input OR	90
tristate (A to Y)	50
tristate (enable to Y)	35

Figure: Propagation delays for some gates



# Calculating path-length cont.

It's not always easy to determine the long/short paths!

- Not all input transitions affect the output
- Can have multiple different paths from input to output
- In reality, circuits are not all built equally
  - Different instances of the same gate have different delays
  - Wires have a nonzero delay (increasing with length, 30cm/ns)
  - Temperature/voltage affects circuit speeds
  - Not all circuit elements are affected in the same way
  - Can even change the critical path!
- When designing, assume the "worst-case" conditions and run many statistical simulations to balance yield/performance

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Definition

Glitch: one input transition causes multiple output transitions



Figure: Example circuit

Two paths: short (2 gates) and long (3 gates)

■ What happens if B goes from high (1) to low (0)?



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## Output glitches

- Two paths: short (2 gates) and long (3 gates)
- Let's assume A = 0, C = 1
- What happens if B goes from high (1) to low (0)?
- n1 output of the upper AND gate
- n<sub>2</sub> output of the lower AND gate



Glitches are visible in K-maps :

- Recall: K-maps show the results of a change in a single input by construction (Gray Code, etc.)
- A glitch occurs when moving between prime implicants (i.e., when groupings are separated)



Figure: K-map and prime implicants

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# Fixing a glitch

Glitches are visible in K-maps :

- We can fix the issue by adding the consensus term
- In general, ensures no transition between different prime implicants



Figure: K-map without prime implicants transitions



#### Question: Do we always care about glitches?

- Fixing glitches is undesirable
  - More chip area (more gates)
  - More power consumption (more silicon)
  - More design effort (more work)
- The circuit is eventually guaranteed to converge to the right value regardless of "glitchiness."

 Answer: No, not always! If we only care about the long-term steady-state output, we can safely ignore glitches

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- Flip-flop samples D at the active clock edge
- It outputs the sampled value to Q
- It "stores" the sampled value until the next active clock edge

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- The D flip-flop is made from combinational elements
- D, Q, and CLK all have timing requirements!

## Timing constraints on the D flip-flop



Figure: D flip-flop timing

- The input D must be stable when sampled
- Setup time (t<sub>setup</sub>): time before the clock edge where D must be stable (i.e. not changing)
- Hold time  $(t_{hold})$ : time after the clock edge where D must be stable
- Aperture time  $(t_a)$ : time around clock edge where D must be stable  $(t_a = t_{setup} + t_{hold})$

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## Metastability 2 - in colors

If D is changing when sampled, metastability can occur

- Flip-flop output is stuck somewhere between '1' and '0'
- Output eventually settles non-deterministically (i.e., probabilities and stuff)



Figure: Metastability and timing violation in an SR latch



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## D flip-flop 3 - Output timing constraints



Figure: D flip-flop output timing

- Contamination delay clock-to-q (t<sub>cqq</sub>): earliest time after the clock edge that Q starts to change (i.e., is unstable)
- Propagation delay clock-to-q  $(t_{pcq})$ : latest time after the clock edge that Q stops changing (i.e., is stable)

### Ensuring Correct Sequential Operation

- We Need to ensure correct input timing on R2
- Specifically, D2 must be stable:
  - at least *t<sub>setup</sub>* before the clock edge
  - at least until *t*<sub>hold</sub> after the clock edge



Figure: Sequential circuit



# Sequential timing

This means there is both a minimum and maximum delay between two flip-flops

- Comb. Logic too fast  $\rightarrow$  R2  $t_{hold}$  violation
- Comb. Logic too slow -> R2 t<sub>setup</sub> violation



Figure: Sequential circuit flip-flop timing



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## Setup Time Constraint

- Depends on the maximum delay from R1 to R2
- the input to R2 must be stable at least  $t_{setup}$  before the clock edge.
- Sequencing overhead: the amount of time wasted each cycle due to sequencing element timing requirements



- Overall design performance is determined by the critical path  $t_{pd}$
- Determines the minimum clock period (i.e., max operating frequency)
- If the critical path is too long, the design will run slowly
- if the critical path is too short, each cycle will do very little useful work, i.e., most of the cycle will be wasted in sequencing overhead

### Hold Time Constraint

- Depends on the minimum delay from R1 to R2
- The input to R2 must be stable for at least  $t_h old$  after the clock edge

$$t_{hold} < t_{ccq} + t_{cd} \tag{2}$$

$$t_{cd} > t_{hold} - t_{ccq} \tag{3}$$





### Timing constraint



**Timing Characteristics** 

t <sub>ccq</sub>	= 30 ps
t <sub>pcq</sub>	= 50 ps
<b>t</b> <sub>setup</sub>	= 60 ps
<b>t</b> <sub>hold</sub>	= 70 ps
	= 35 ps
	= 25 ps

*t<sub>pd</sub>* = 3 x 35 ps = 105 ps

*t<sub>cd</sub>* = 25 ps

Check setup time constraints:

$$T_c \ge (50 + 105 + 60) \text{ ps} = 215 \text{ ps}$$

 $f_{max} = 1/T_c = 4.65 \text{ GHz}$ 

#### **Check hold time constraint:**

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 $t_{cca} + t_{cd} > t_{hold}$ ? (30 + 25) ps > 70 ps ?

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### Timing constraint

#### Add buffers to the short paths:



t<sub>pd</sub> = 3 x 35 ps = 105 ps

t<sub>cd</sub> = 2 x 25 ps = 50 ps

Check setup time constraints:

 $f_c = 1/T_c = 4.65 \text{ GHz}$ 

## **Timing Characteristics**



#### Check hold time constraint:

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$$t_{ccq} + t_{cd} > t_{hold}$$
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(30 + 50) ps > 70 ps ?

## Clock skew

- To make matters worse, clocks have delays too!
- The clock does not reach all parts of the chip simultaneously!
- TL;DR: Reality sucks.

### Definition

Clock skew: the time difference between two clock edges



Figure: Skew in a processor - Alpha 21264



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- The definition of clock skew we used considers both the spatial skew and the jitter, i.e., the timing deviation from true periodicity.
- We chose this definition to simplify the description. And consider one variable as the worst of the worst-case scenario.



### Revised setup timing with Clock Skew

Safe timing requires considering the worst-case skew

- Clock arrives at R2 before R1
- Leaves as little time as possible for the combinational logic

$$T_c \ge t_{pcq} + t_{pd} + t_{setup} + t_{skew} \tag{4}$$



## Revised hold timing with Clock Skew

Safe timing requires considering the worst-case skew

- Clock arrives at R2 after R1
- Increases the minimum required delay for the combinational logic



## Outline

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There are many levels of "it works":

• You have designed a circuit! Is it functionally correct? Does the hardware meet all the timing constraints, even if it is logically correct?

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- How can you test for functionality and timing?
- Answer: simulation tools! For everything, more or less.

Note: aim for something higher than "It just works."

### Testing

Testing can be the most time-consuming design stage

- Functional correctness of all logic paths
- Timing, power, etc. of all circuit elements

Unfortunately, low-level (e.g., circuit) simulation is much slower than high-level (e.g., HDL, C) simulation.

Solution: splitting responsibilities.

- **I** Check only functionality at a high level (e.g., C, HDL)
  - (Relatively) fast simulation time allows high code coverage (remember, this is very TDD-like).

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- Easy to write and run tests
- 2 Check only timing, power, etc., at low level (e.g., circuit)
  - No functional testing of low-level model
  - Instead, test functional equivalence to high-level model
  - Hard, but easier than testing logical functionality at this level

- Testbench: a module created specifically to test a design
- Tested design is called the "Unit under test (UUT)" or "Device Under Test."

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- A Testbench provides inputs (called test patterns) to the UUT
  - Hand-crafted values
  - Automatically generated (e.g., sequential or random values)
- A testbench checks outputs of the UUT against
  - Hand-crafted values
  - A "golden design" that is known to be bug-free

High-level simulation (e.g., C, VHDL)

- Useful for hierarchical modeling
- Insert delays in FFs, basic gates, memories, etc.
- High-level design will have some notion of timing
- Usually not as accurate as real circuit timing

Circuit-level timing verification

- Needed to synthesize your design to actual circuits
- No one general approach: it is very design flow specific. FPGA/ASIC/etc. has special tools: Vivado/Quartus for FPGA, Cadence for ASIC/VLSI.

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- Tools exist, and they work (most of the time)
- When they fail, place-and-route and manual optimization (many fun, very lol).



Enough for today. And it doesn't make noises.

