Eliminating Nondeterminism to Enable Chip-Level Test of Globally-Asynchronous Locally-Synchronous SoC's

Matthew Heath, Wayne Burleson, University of Massachusetts Amherst Ian Harris, University of California Irvine {mheath, burleson}@ecs.umass.edu, harris@ics.uci.edu

Abstract

Globally asynchronous locally synchronous (GALS) clocking applied to a system-on-a-chip (SoC) results in a design in which each core is a synchronous block (SB) of logic whose locally generated clock has an independent frequency and phase. Data is exchanged between cores using an asynchronous communication protocol. The nondeterministic synchronization strategies used by most GALS architectures makes chip-level silicon debug and functional test difficult and costly. Deterministic GALS methodologies make dataflow assumptions which are valid in a very limited set of applications. This paper describes a novel deterministic GALS methodology called "synchro-tokens". Parameterized wrapper logic with enough flexibility to be useful for a wide range of systems is added to the asynchronous input signals of SBs. The wrapper ensures that each transition, although arriving at the wrapper at a nondeterministic time, is sensed by the SB during a deterministic cycle of the local clock while the system remains globally asynchronous. Synchro-tokens supports synchronous debug and test methodologies, including those based on 1149.1 and P1500, which rely on deterministic system behavior.

1. Nondeterminism

A system specification defines a sequence of states and outputs which must be produced in response to a given input sequence. A correct implementation must conform to this specification. If the specification includes don'tcare bits and partially ordered sequences, there may be many possible responses which a correct implementation may exhibit. A *deterministic* implementation always chooses the same correct response sequence. A *nondeterministic* one, on the other hand, randomly chooses a correct response sequence which may differ when the input sequence is applied to multiple copies of the chip or repeatedly applied to one copy of the chip. The principal sources of nondeterminism are mutual exclusion elements and their close cousins arbiters and synchronizers. The output sequence of these circuits depends on the relative order of input transitions, which is in turn sensitive to variables such as clock frequencies, clock skew, process variation, and noise. These circuits make the fully asynchronous and GALS systems in which they are used nondeterministic. It should be noted that these circuits are also vulnerable to metastability, the condition where a bistable state is neither 0 nor 1 for a period of time. Metastability is a special case of nondeterminism which occurs when the temporal separation of the input signal transitions is very small. The lack of metastability does not imply determinism.

A synchronous design methodology which disallows the use of nondeterministic circuits produces deterministic systems. Delay-insensitive combinational logic uniquely defines the next state and outputs as a function of the current state and inputs. Any nondeterminism arising from setup or hold time violations is considered an error even if the resulting sequence conforms to the higher-level specification.

Thus, each SB in a GALS system produces a deterministic output sequence in response to a given input sequence. However, the use of synchronizers and/or arbiters in a SB makes its input sequence nondeterministic because the relative transition times of clocks and asynchronous signals are neither known nor controlled. Consequently, its internal state and output sequences are also nondeterministic.

In both deterministic and nondeterministic systems, the precise transition times of each state bit may vary, so that the total state of the system at a particular time instant may be non-unique. However, it is the unique sequence of states, not the instantaneous values of the states, which is the hallmark of deterministic behavior.

Nondeterminism negatively impacts debug and test by making the known good response of the system nonunique. In a GALS system with hundreds of asynchronous bits switching for thousands of clock cycles, the number of possible state sequences combinatorially explodes. Finding all possible traces consumes test creation time and is not feasible for sequential ATPG or manually-written tests. Storage of the possible responses costs die area (for BIST) and/or tester memory [1]. Comparing test results with all possible responses costs test time. If a fault effect maps to some other correct response, coverage is lowered. Divide-and-conquer test modes in which the synchronous and asynchronous components are decoupled and tested separately [2] do not enable functional testing and silicon debug at the chip and board levels [3]. Waiting for the test to reach a naturally deterministic state before checking the response provides insufficient observability. Event-based testers [4] which do not map signal transitions to specific clock cycles are still challenged by non-unique sequences of transitions. Intelligent protocolchecking testers might be able to address the non-unique sequence problem, but today's large installed base of synchronous testers do not have such a capability, and the capital cost of replacing them is prohibitive.

2. Previous Work

existing GALS methodologies Most are nondeterministic they because use arbiters or Some sample all SB inputs with synchronizers. synchronizers with internal metastability detectors which stop the local clock until the metastability resolves itself [5] or which don't update their outputs if the metastability persists for too long [6]. Others use bundled data signaling and arbitrate between incoming requests and the local clock in a variety of ways: using the clock as a nonpersistent arbiter input [7], generating a clock disable signal [8], or inserting an arbiter directly into the ring oscillator [9] [10].

Chapiro showed how to design a GALS "escapement organization" [11] without synchronizers and arbiters, instead using handshake signals to control a stoppable clock. Prior to the cycle during which a handshake is expected, the local clock remains enabled and insensitive to the state of the handshake signal. At the prescribed time, clock control is passed to the handshake signal. If the handshake has already occurred, clock control is immediately passed back to the synchronous logic, leaving the clock enabled. Otherwise, the clock synchronously stops until the handshake occurs. Because the clock enable interrupts the ring oscillator instead of simply gating its output, the handshake can restart the clock asynchronously with no runt pulses and return control to the synchronous logic. Because they don't decide whether to wait for an asynchronous signal or proceed with another local clock cycle, escapement organizations force a deterministic relative order of asynchronous transitions and clock edges, and thus deterministic state sequences in their synchronous logic. An escapement design of a DSP chip [12] completes all local processing of a previous input data word, stops the clock, and waits for the next asynchronous data word to appear at its inputs. Determinism was neither a stated goal nor a recognized benefit of the DSP chip design. This GALS methodology is useful only for applications with low bandwidth communication between SBs.

Synchronizers can be avoided during steady-state operation by propagating data through a self-timed FIFO between the two SBs as in STARI [13]. To prevent the FIFO from asynchronously becoming empty or full, it is initialized to roughly half full and data is added to it and removed from it every cycle. The SB clocks must be derived from a common source in order to be frequencymatched. Since the skew between the two SB clocks is absorbed inside the FIFO, each end always appears to be synchronized to the local clock. Another unintentionally deterministic methodology, it constrains the rates of output data production and input data consumption.

3. Making GALS Deterministic

In general, for a GALS system to be deterministic, each SB must know, in advance, during which local clock cycle each transition on each of its asynchronous inputs will occur. The SB must not recognize a transition if it occurs earlier than expected, and it must stop the local clock if a transition occurs later than expected. Of course, such complete knowledge is never available in practice; indeed, its existence would imply that the inputs carry no information and thus aren't even needed! Fortunately, however, this knowledge can be inferred for all inputs if it is available for select inputs and if the timing relationship between those and all other inputs is known.

First, the inputs of a SB can be divided into two sets: data signals which carry information in their logic levels and handshake signals which carry information in their transition times. The data signals can then be bundled to the handshake signals, with timing verification used during design to ensure that the logic level of a data signal at the time of a transition of its associated handshake signal is deterministic.

Second, all handshake signals with a common source SB and a common destination SB can be bundled to a single master handshake signal. Again, careful design ensures that the values of all bundled handshake signals at the time of a transition of the master handshake signal are deterministic. The master handshake can control the stoppable clock in an escapement organization.

Optionally, the asynchronous data and handshakes bundled to the master handshake can be pipelined with a self-timed FIFO. This allows multiple data words to be transferred between SBs with each master handshake. However, care must be taken to prevent a FIFO which has been emptied from asynchronously becoming non-empty or a FIFO which has been filled from asynchronously becoming non-full. The most straightforward safeguard is to make access to the FIFO mutually exclusive for the two SBs connected to it, using the master handshake signal to decide which is enabled.

4. Synchro-Tokens System Architecture

"Synchro-tokens" is a novel deterministic GALS methodology which adds parameterized wrapper logic to the SBs as shown in Figure 1A. Data is transferred between SBs through asynchronous communication channels which may be pipelined with self-timed FIFOs. Each channel has its own request and acknowledge handshake signals which accompany arbitrarily wide bundled data words. For each pair of SBs with at least one communication channel between them, a token ring with a node inside each SB's wrapper acts as the master handshake signal. Each node counts local clock cycles to determine when the token is expected to arrive and when it should depart. A SB may have any number of nodes, and each node may be associated with any number of communication channels propagating data in either direction. One SB in the system is designated as the Test SB and one or more SBs are designated as I/O. These SBs are synchronized to and communicate with the

environment (a board or a tester) without any intervening wrapper logic. Standards 1149.1 and P1500 can be implemented with the Test SB and self-timed scan chains whose heads and tails are synchronized to the test clock. Custom debug and test hooks can take advantage of synchro-tokens FIFOs and token rings for controllability, observability, and clock manipulation.

4.1. Wrapper Logic Design

The wrapper logic, which consists of a node for each token ring, an interface for each FIFO, and one stoppable clock, is shown in Figure 1B.

The stoppable clock is a ring oscillator whose frequency can be digitally controlled with either variable delay inverters or a clock divider circuit on its output.

The node is a synchronous state machine clocked by the SB's stoppable clock. The node connects to the token ring through the TokenIn and TokenOut signals. The node produces a FIFO clock enable, Fclken, for the local interfaces of its associated FIFOs. The node also generates a stoppable clock enable, SBclken; the enables from all nodes in the SB are ANDed together so that the clock stops when any node de-asserts its SBclken.

Each node contains a pair of decrementing counters, called the *hold counter* and the *recycle counter*, which control the arrival and departure of the token. Each counter is parallel loadable from a dedicated register, which in turn may be downloadable from ROM bits,



Figure 1: A. Synchro-tokens system architecture.

B. Wrapper logic.

fuses, or directly from the tester. The hold counter determines how many local clock cycles the node holds the token before passing it to the other node on the token ring. While the token is being held, both SBclken and Fclken are asserted. The recycle counter determines how many local clock cycles after passing the token to the other node it expects to get the token back. While the token is recycling, SBclken is asserted but Fclken is not. This allows multiple SBs to operate concurrently and other FIFO interfaces of the same SB to be enabled if their nodes are holding their tokens.

The operation of the node state machine is illustrated in Figure 2. When the incoming token has arrived (A) and the recycle counter reaches zero (B), the Fclken signal enables the interfaces of the node's associated FIFOs (C). The hold counter decrements by one for each local clock cycle (D). When the hold counter reaches zero, it immediately presets to its original value (E), the token is passed (F), and the FIFOs are disabled (G). The recycle counter then decrements by one for each local clock cycle (H). If the token has not yet returned by the time the recycle counter reaches zero, SBclken is deasserted (I), synchronously stopping the local clock (J). When the token returns (K), the clock is asynchronously restarted (L). A late token stops the clock not only to the associated node but to the entire SB, even if there are other nodes which are holding (M) or recycling.

The FIFO interfaces process the handshakes needed to ensure that each transmitted data word is received exactly once. While the associated node is holding that ring's token, it is permitted but not required for data exchange between the SB and the FIFO to occur. An input FIFO interface receives asynchronous requests and informs the SB when the FIFO is empty. An output FIFO interface produces asynchronous requests when valid synchronous data is available and informs the SB when the FIFO is full. Each stage of the FIFO must be able to complete a four-phase handshake within one local clock cycle of the transmitter or sender SB. Additionally, because the FIFO handshakes are bundled to the token, data must propagate through the FIFO fast enough that data added to its tail just before the departing token disables the tail interface reaches the FIFO's head before the token enables the head interface.

4.2. Debug and Test Features

The core of the Test SB is a Test Access Port (TAP) and associated controller which is 1149.1 compliant. The clock of the Test SB is provided by the tester through the TCK pin. The test clock has two modes of operation, similar to [14]. In Interlocked Mode, tokens passing through the Test SB may stop the clock; data exchange between the tester and the mission mode logic is deterministic. Interlocked Mode is best suited for ontester debug and production test. In Independent Mode, the operation of TCK and the flow of tokens through the Test SB have no effect on each other, but communication with mission mode logic is nondeterministic. Independent Mode is appropriate for off-tester usage of TAP public instructions and for mission mode (where TCK never toggles).

Self-timed shift registers can be used for the boundary scan chain, P1500 registers in the core wrappers, internal scan chains for ATPG or BIST, or controls for other custom features. Adding several empty stages to the tail



Figure 2. Waveforms illustrating operation of the node state machine.

of the chain allows both ends of the chain to be synchronized to TCK. Making the hold, recycle, and clock frequency registers in each system SB accessible through a scan chain facilitates system performance tuning and clock frequency shmooing to find critical paths within SBs.

System clocks can be stopped while TCK is in Interlocked Mode by holding tokens indefinitely in the Test SB and waiting for all of the recycle counters in the system to reach zero and deterministically stop the local clocks. The granularity of these natural breakpoints can be increased - all the way to single stepping if desired by adding token rings between more of the system SBs and the Test SB, and by changing the values of the hold and recycle registers. After the system clocks have been stopped, the asynchronous scan chains can be used to deterministically read and write system state.

5. Results

The deterministic behavior of synchro-tokens was demonstrated using Verilog, whose ability to specify nonzero delays and concurrent events made it a convenient validation platform. The test case was a system composed of three SBs and six FIFOs. Nominal values for FIFO delays, token ring delays, and local clock frequencies were chosen such that the token returned exactly when expected - never early and never late. Scenarios in which one or more of the delays could change to 50%, 75%, 150%, or 200% of their nominal values were simulated. The data sequences on each SB's I/Os were monitored for the first 100 local clock cycles and compared with the data sequences associated with the nominal delay settings. In all simulations - over 16,000 of them - all data sequences were found to match exactly. However, when the synchro-tokens control logic was bypassed by forcing the FIFO interfaces and local clocks always to be enabled, the data sequences were observed to be nondeterministic.

The area overhead of synchro-tokens has been approximated using a gate-level model of the wrapper logic and layouts from a 0.25-micron cell library [15]. Summing the areas of the library cells used in the wrapper logic and using the average area of the library's 2-input gates as the unit of measurement, the models shown in Table 1 have been developed. A comparison with another GALS implementation should not include the FIFO components, since the FIFO interface is always needed to ensure error-free transmission of asynchronous data, and the FIFO stages are always optional. Since there is just one pair of nodes for each pair of communicating SBs, the system-wide area overhead is reasonably low.

Component	Area (2-input gates)
FIFO interface	12 + 4.5*(number of data bits)
FIFO stage	4 + 4.5*(number of data bits)
Node	145

Table 1. Synchro-tokens component area models.

The impact of synchro-tokens on throughput and latency is due to each FIFO being accessible by only one SB at a time. For a worst-case analysis, synchro-tokens can be compared with STARI. In the synchro-tokens system, let the hold register value of both nodes be H, and let the recycle register value of both nodes be R (the smallest value which prevents the local clock from stopping due to a late token). In both systems, let the period of both clocks be T and the propagation delay of one FIFO stage be F. Also in both systems, let the FIFO depth be H, so that the FIFO depth equals the hold register value of the synchro-tokens system and the FIFO depths of both systems are equal.

The throughput of the STARI FIFO is 1 data word per cycle, while that of the synchro-tokens FIFO is at most H/(H+R). The synchro-tokens system can match the throughput of STARI by increasing the channel width by a factor of at least (H+R)/H and providing hardware within the SB to synchronously queue data produced while the FIFO interface is disabled. Obviously, this is an area/performance tradeoff.

The latency L_{STARI} of the STARI FIFO, which is kept roughly half full, is the FIFO delay for the empty half of its stages plus one data word per clock for the full half of its stages:

$$L_{\text{STARI}} = F^* H/2 + T^* H/2$$
(1)

In this analysis, the synchro-tokens FIFO is repeatedly filled by the transmitter and emptied by the receiver. Its latency $L_{SYNCHRO}$ is the sum of the time from when data is ready at the transmitter FIFO interface until the token is passed, plus the token delay (which is approximately equal to the FIFO delay), plus the time until data is available at the receiver FIFO interface:

$$L_{\text{SYNCHRO}} = T^{*}(R+H+1)/2 + F^{*}H + T^{*}(H+1)/2$$
(2)

Clearly, the latency of the synchro-tokens FIFO can be minimized by decreasing the period of the clocks and the hold register value (recall that the recycle register is already a minimum value). This causes the token to be passed more frequently, but decreases the throughput.

Even though synchro-tokens has a performance penalty compared with STARI, its power comes from its ability to be optimized for different dataflow profiles and its deterministic behavior which is maintained even if the actual data fails to follow that profile. A synchro-tokens system may deadlock if there is a cyclic dependency among a set of SBs in which each SB has stopped its clock to wait for a late token [17]. Whether or not deadlock occurs is deterministic; thus, no detection or recovery methodology is needed. A set of deadlock-preventing design rules which govern the choice of hold and recycle register values for a given system topology has been formally derived. The details are beyond the scope of this paper.

6. Conclusion and Future Work

Synchro-tokens, a novel GALS design methodology, has been presented. Its deterministic behavior facilitates debug and test, while its parameterization makes it useful for a wide variety of dataflow profiles. Compatibility with IEEE Standards 1149.1 and P1500 and other common test and debug methodologies has been shown. The deterministic behavior and the test and debug features have been validated in Verilog. Its area overhead has been shown to be modest. Its performance impact has been analyzed in terms of its parameters.

Future research includes SPICE simulations of the synchro-tokens control logic and the implementation of a larger system for further performance studies. Formal methods need to be applied to prove that synchro-tokens enforces deterministic behavior. Performance-improving methodology enhancements also need investigation.

7. References

[1] Y. Zorian, E. Marinissen, and S. Dey. "Testing Embedded-Core Based System Chips". *Proceedings of the 1998 International Test Conference*, pp 130-143.

[2] F. Gurkaynak, T. Villiger, S. Oetiker, N. Felber, H. Kaeslin, and W. Fichtner. "A Functional Test Methodology for Globally-Asynchronous Locally-Synchronous Systems". *8th International Symposium on Asynchronous Circuits and Systems (ASYNC 2002).*

[3] D. Josephson, S. Poehlman, and V. Govan. "Debug Methodology for the McKinley Processor". *Proceedings of the 2001 International Test Conference*, pp 451-460.

[4] J. Katz and R. Rajsuman. "A New Paradigm in Test for the Next Millennium". *Proceedings of the 2000 International Test Conference*, pp 468-476.

[5] F. Rosenberger, C. Molnar, T. Chaney, and T.-P. Fang. "Q-Modules: Internally-Clocked Delay Insensitive Modules". *IEEE Transactions on Computers*, Vol. 37, No. 9, September 1988, pp. 1005-1018.

[6] W. S. VanScheik and R. F. Tinder. "High Speed Externally Asynchronous / Internally Clocked Systems". *IEEE Transactions on Computers*, Vol. 46, No. 7, July 1997, pp. 824-829.

[7] S. Kim and R. Sridhar. "Hierarchical Synchronization Scheme Using Self-Timed Mesochronous Interconnections". *1997 IEEE International Symposium on Circuits and Systems*, pp. 1824-1827.

[8] W. Lim. "Design Methodology for Stoppable Clock Systems". *IEE Proceedings*, Vol. 133, Part E, No. 1, January 1986, pp 65-69.

[9] K. Yun and A. Dooply. "Pausible Clocking-Based Heterogeneous Systems". *IEEE Transactions on VLSI Systems*, Vol. 7, No. 4, December 1999, pp. 482-488.

[10] J. Muttersbach, T. Villiger, and W. Fichtner. "Practical Design of Globally-Asynchronous Locally-Synchronous Systems". *ASYNC 2000*, pp. 52-59.

[11] D. Chapiro. "Globally-Asynchronous Locally-Synchronous Systems". PhD Thesis, Stanford University, Report No. STAN-CS-84-1026, Oct. 1984.

[12] P. Nilsson and M. Torkelson. "A Monolithic Digital Clock-Generator for On-Chip Clocking of Custom DSP's". *IEEE Journal of Solid-State Circuits*, Vol. 31, No. 5, May 1996, pp. 700-706.

[13] M. Greenstreet. "Implementing a STARI Chip". Proceedings of the 1995 IEEE International Conference on Computer Design, pp. 38-43.

[14] D. Bhavsar, D. Akeson, M. Gowan, and D. Jackson. "Testability Access of the High Speed Test Features in the Alpha 21264 Microprocessor". *Proceedings of the 1998 International Test Conference*, pp. 487-495.

[15] J. Sulistyo and D. Ha. "Developing Standard Cells for TSMC 0.25um Technology under MOSIS DEEP Rules". Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, Virginia Tech, Technical Report VISC-2002-02, April 2002.

[16] V. Iyengar, K. Chakrabarty, and E. J. Marinissen. "Test Wrapper and Test Access Mechanism Co-Optimization for System-on-a-Chip". *Journal of Electronic Testing: Theory and Applications (JETTA)*, Vol. 18, April 2002, pp. 213-230.

[17] A. Datta and S. Ghosh. "Deadlock Detection in Distributed Systems". *Ninth Annual International Phoenix Conference on Computers and Communications*, 1990, pp 131-136.