# Low Power Design – An Emerging Discipline

Historical figure of merit for VLSI design –performance (circuit speed) and chip area (circuit density/cost)

# Power dissipation is now an important metric in VLSI design

- No single major source for power savings across all design levels – Required a new way of THINKING!!!
   Companies lack the basic powerconscious culture and designers need to be educated in this respect
- Overall Goal To reduce power dissipations but maintaining adequate throughput rate

# Need for Low Power VLSI Chips

Power dissipation was neglected due to

- Low device density
- Low operating frequency
- Now it is important issue due to
- High device density
- High operating frequency
- Proliferation of portable consumer electronics
- Concerns on Environments and energy sources

# Competitive Reasons – Low Power

- Battery Powered Systems Extended Battery Life and reduce weight and size.
- High-Performance Systems
- Cost
- Package (chip carrier, heat sink, card slots, plenum,)

- Power Systems (supplies, distribution, regulators, ...)
- Fans (noise, power, reliability, area, ...)
- Operating cost to customer Energy Star issue.
- Reliability
- Failure rate increase by 4X for *Tj* @ 110C vs 70C
- Mission critical operation at 100C
- Size and Weight Product footprint (office and desk space.

#### Moore's Law

• In 1965, Gordon Moore noted that the number of transistors on a chip doubled every 18 to 24 months.

 He made a prediction that semiconductor technology will double its effectiveness every 18 months

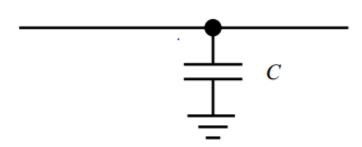


Unit 3: Probabilistic Power Analysis Methods

## Basic Idea

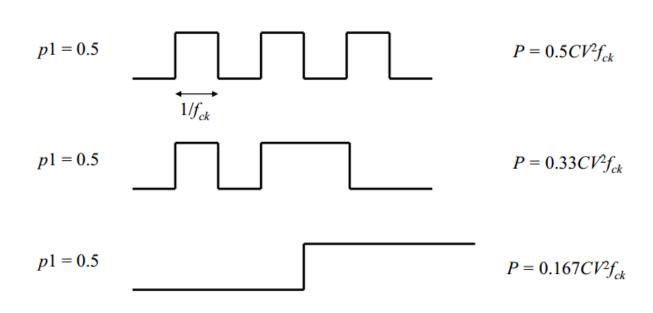
View signals as a random processes

• Prob{s(t) = 1} = p1 p0 = 1 - p1



0→1 transition probability = (1 - p1) p1 Power, P = (1 - p1) p1 CV2fck

## Source of Inaccuracy



# Observe that the formula, Power, P = (1 - p1) p1 CV2fck, is not correct

# Switching Frequency

Number of transitions per unit time:

$$T = \frac{N(t)}{t}$$

For a continuous signal:

$$T = \lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{N(t)}{t}$$

T: is defined as the transition density

# Static Signal Probabilities

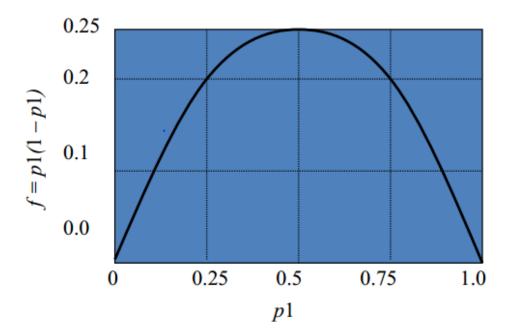
Observe signal for interval t0 + t1 - Signal is 1 for duration t1

- Signal is 0 for duration t0
- Signal probabilities:
- p1 = t1/(t0 + t1)
- p0 = t0/(t0 + t1) = 1 p1

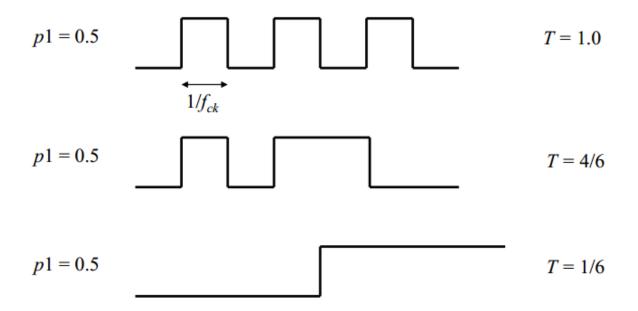
#### Static Transition Probabilities

- Transition probabilities:
- T01 = p0 Prob{signal is  $1 \mid \text{signal was } 0$ } = p0
- T10 = p1 Prob{signal is  $0 \mid \text{signal was } 1$ } = p1
- T = T01 + T10 = 2 p0 p1 = 2 p1 (1 p1)
- Transition density: T = 2 p1 (1 p1)
- Transition frequency: f = T/2
- Power = CV2T/2 (correct formula)

# Static Transition Frequency



Inaccuracy in Transition Density



Observe that the formula, T = 2 p1 (1 - p1), is not correct.

## Cause for Error and Correction

- Probability of transition is not independent of the present state of the signal
- Consider probability p01 of a  $0 \rightarrow 1$  transition,
- Then  $p01 \neq p0 \ p1$
- We can write p1 = (1 p1)p01 + p1 p11p01

$$p1 = \frac{1 - p11 + p01}{1 - p11 + p01}$$

## Correction (Cont.)

• Since p11 + p10 = 1, i.e., given that the signal was previously 1, its resent value can be either 1 or 0,

Therefore,

$$p1 = \frac{p01}{p10 + p01}$$

This uniquely gives signal probability as a function of transition probabilities.

Transition and Signal probabilities

$$p01 = p10 = 0.5$$
 $p1 = 0.5$ 
 $p01 = p10 = 1/3$ 
 $p1 = 0.5$ 
 $p01 = p10 = 1/6$ 
 $p1 = 0.5$ 

148

Probabilities: p0, p1, p00, p01, p10, p11

• 
$$p01 + p00 = 1$$

• 
$$p11 + p10 = 1$$

• 
$$p0 = 1 - p1$$

$$p1 = \frac{p01}{p10 + p01}$$

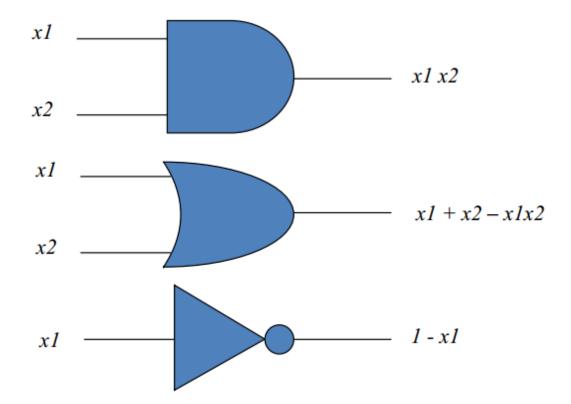
# **Transition Density**

• T = 2 pI(1 - pI) = p0 p0I + p1 p10= 2 pI0 p0I/(pI0 + p0I)= 2 pI pI0 = 2 p0 p0I

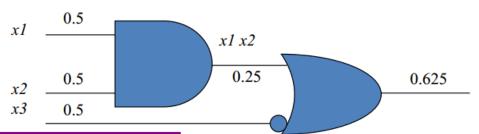
#### Power Calculation

- Power can be estimated if transition density is known for all signals.
- Calculation of transition density requires
- Signal probabilities
- Transition densities for primary inputs;
   computed from vector statistics

Signal Probabilities



# Signal Probabilities

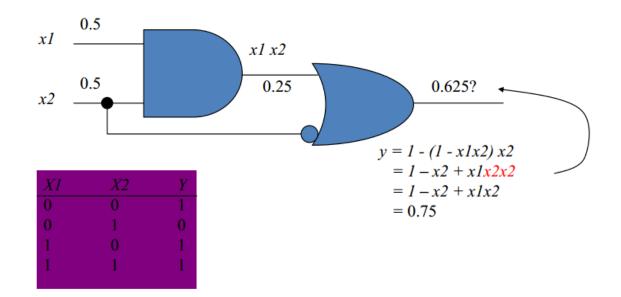


<i>X1</i>	<i>X2</i>	<i>X3</i>	Y
0	0	0	1
0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1
0	1	1	0
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	1

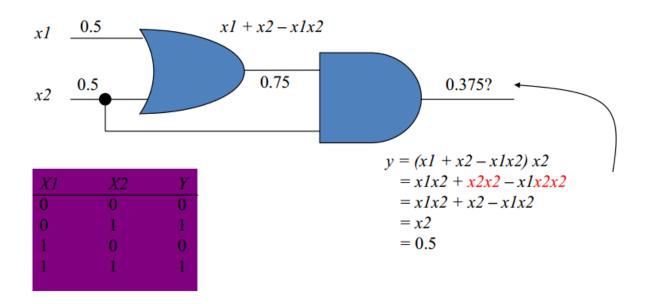
$$y = 1 - (1 - x1x2) x3$$
  
= 1 - x3 + x1x2x3  
= 0.625

*Ref:* K. P. Parker and E. J. McCluskey, "Probabilistic Treatment of General

# Correlated Signal Probabilities



# **Correlated Signal Probabilities**



### Observation

• Numerical computation of signal probabilities is accurate for fan out-free circuits.

## Remedies

- Use Shannon's expansion theorem to compute signal probabilities.
- Use Boolean difference formula to compute transition densities.

# Shannon's Expansion Theorem

- C. E. Shannon, "A Symbolic Analysis of Relay and Switching Circuits," *Trans. AIEE*, vol. 57, pp. 713-723, 1938.
- Consider: Boolean variables, X1, X2, . .
  . , Xn
- Boolean function, F(X1, X2, ..., Xn)
- Then F = Xi F(Xi=1) + Xi' F(Xi=0)
- Where
- Xi' is complement of X1
- Cofactors, F(Xi=j) = F(X1, X2, ..., Xi=j, ...,
   Xn), j = 0 or 1

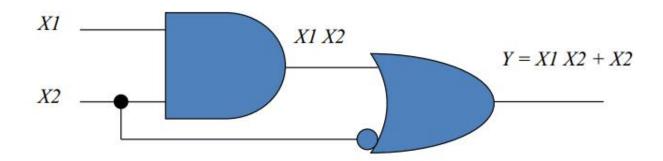
# **Expansion about Two Inputs**

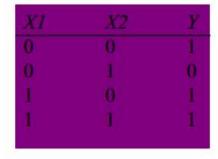
• F = XiXj F(Xi=1, Xj=1) + XiXj' F(Xi=1, Xj=0)+ Xi'Xj F(Xi=0, Xj=1) + Xi'Xj' F(Xi=0,

### Xj=0)

- In general, a Boolean function can be expanded about any number of input variables.
- Expansion about k variables will have 2k terms.

# Correlated Signal Probabilities





Shannon expansion about the reconverging input:

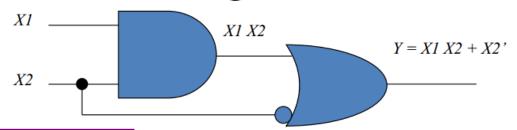
$$Y = X2 Y(X2=1) + X2' Y(X2=0)$$
  
=  $X2 (X1) + X2' (1)$ 

## **Correlated Signals**

- When the output function is expanded about all reconverting input variables,
- All cofactors correspond to fan out-free circuits.
- Signal probabilities for cofactor outputs can be calculated without error.
- A weighted sum of cofactor probabilities gives the correct probability of the output.
- For two reconverging inputs:
  f = xixj f(Xi=1, Xj=1) + xi(1-xj) f(Xi=1, Xj=0)
  + (1-xi)xj f(Xi=0, Xj=1) + (1-xi)(1-xj) f(Xi=0,

Xj=0)

# Correlated Signal Probabilities

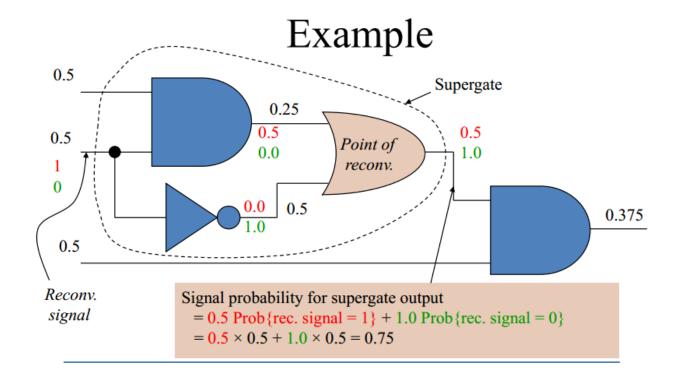


<i>X1</i>	X2	Y
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	1
1	1	1

Shannon expansion about the reconverging input:

$$Y = X2 Y(X2=1) + X2' Y(X2=0)$$
  
=  $X2 (X1) + X2' (1)$ 

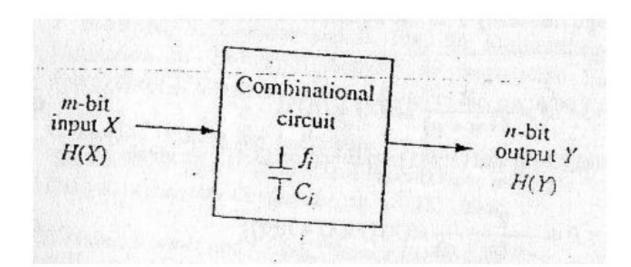
$$y = x2 (0.5) + (1-x2) (1)$$
  
= 0.5 (0.5) + (1-0.5) (1)  
= 0.75



# Signal entropy

- The entropy of a set of logic signals is a measure of its randomness
- Entropy correlates to the average switching frequency of the signals
- Skewed occurrence probability gives a low probability measure
- If signal switching is active, it maximizes the entropy of the signals
- These observations prompts the idea of using signal entropy for power estimation.

Power estimation of combinational logic using entropy analysis



# Entropy

- Entropy based approach
  - Entropy: Measure of uncertainty in a random va
  - Entropy H of a random variable x is given by

$$H(x) = p \log \frac{1}{p} + (1-p) \log \frac{1}{1-p}$$

- p: probability of x being 1
- Recall that

$$P_{avg} \propto D_{avg}.GE.C_{avg}$$

- ➤ D<sub>avg</sub>: Average node switching activity
- ➤ GE: Gate equivalents
- ➤ C<sub>avg</sub>: Average gate capacitance

- Hypothesis
  - Can D<sub>avg</sub> be estimated only from knowledge of inputs and output behavior?
- · Answer: Yes!

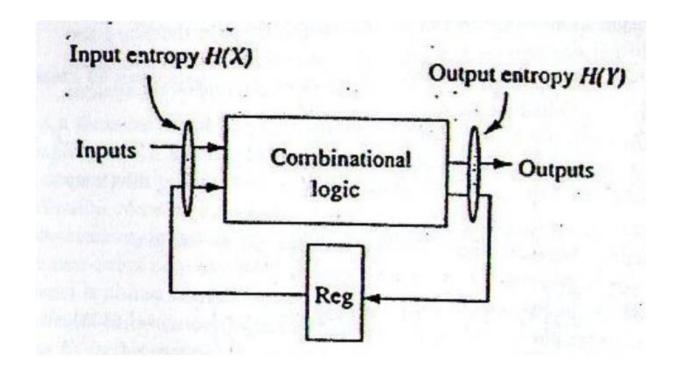
$$P_{avg} \propto H.GE.C_{avg}$$

Entropy H is given by

$$H \approx \frac{2/3}{n+m}(H(X) + H(Y))$$

H(X) and H(Y) are respectively the input and output
 entropies

## Entropy analysis of a sequential circuit



# Entropy

- Entropy Based Power Estimation Methodology:
- Run a structural RTL simulation to measure input/output entropies
- Using input/output entropies, estimate Pavg

for the combinational block

 Use other techniques to estimate latch and clock power