A 3.4pJ FeRAM-enabled D flip-flop in 0.13µm CMOS for nonvolatile processing in digital systems

The MIT Faculty has made this article openly available. Please share how this access benefits you. Your story matters.
Nonvolatile processing—continuously operating a digital circuit and retaining state through frequent power interruptions—creates new applications for portable electronics operating from harvested energy [1] and high-performance systems managing power by operating “normally off” [2]. To enable these scenarios, energy processing must happen in parallel with information processing. This work makes the following contributions: 1) the design of a nonvolatile D flip-flop (NVDFF) with embedded ferroelectric capacitors (fecaps) that senses data robustly and avoids race conditions; 2) the integration of the NVDFF into the ASIC design flow with a power management unit (PMU) and a simple one-bit interface to brown-out detection circuitry; and 3) a characterization of the NVDFF statistical signal margin and the energy cost of retaining data.

This chip’s process technology features embedded ferroelectric capacitors that store data in a charge versus bias voltage hysteresis [3]. This hysteresis is shown in Fig. 1 along with the principle of self-timed sensing. Prior to sensing, the fecaps have been programmed to opposite data states, corresponding to opposite points on the zero bias voltage points of the hysteresis curve. Identical charging currents integrate the difference in remnant charge between the two fecaps onto nodes FET and FEC. The node to first cross the diode voltage plus a PMOS threshold will quickly pull the internal node of the sensing latch high. The ferroelectric capacitance is large compared to the internal node of the sensing latch, so a small voltage difference on the high capacitance nodes FET and FEC is converted to a large voltage difference on the latch nodes. In addition to being self-timed, this approach develops sufficient bias (1.1 V) before the fecaps are sensed. Fecap signal dynamics are exponentially sensitive to voltage bias [4], so it is important to avoid the performance penalty associated with sensing at low bias.

The schematic of the nonvolatile latch in Fig. 2 shows the additional transistors for saving data, isolating fecaps during active operation, and protecting fecaps during power loss. This latch is combined as the slave stage with a clocked CMOS master latch to form the NVDFF in Fig. 3. The waveforms show how the ports PG, LD, EQ, and VDDNV need to be sequenced during power interruption. While active, PG=LD=0, and nodes FET and FEC act as a virtual supply for the slave latch. The save operation initiates when PG rises as CK is held low, cutting off VDDNV and enabling a weak pull-down path (M8-M10) to discharge one of the two fecaps (write “0”) depending on the data state of the NVLATCH node is buffered with an inverter). The PMU waits another 2 cycles before the EQ signal assertion clears floating voltages inside the slave latch. The subsequent rise of LD preserves the data in the other fecap, which has already been written to a “1” during the previous restore operation.

Fig. 4 shows the architecture of the nonvolatile state management. A test case FIR filter has all of its volatile DFFs replaced by NVDFFs. Also added are buffer trees for the PG, LD, and EQ signals and a global rail VDDNV that supplies current for the logging of internal slave latch nodes and FET/FEC. This system works with the energy harvester interface in [6] which provides a VBAT_OK signal that rises only if a sufficient amount of energy exists in the system to restore and save state. Similarly VBAT_OK falls when the system is about to lose its minimum energy reserve. A free running clock that settles before VBAT_OK goes high is also required. The signals VBAT_OK, CLK, and the 1.5 V chip supply are emulated by a pattern generator during chip testing. An on-chip power management unit (PMU) takes the VBAT_OK signal and generates a control signal sequence (see FSM in Fig. 4) whose transitions align to the PMU’s clock edges and satisfies the timing constraints in Fig. 3.

The waveform set “A” in Fig. 5 shows the measured output of the test-chip during a power interruption in which all chip VDDS are actively driven to ground. Afterwards, the FIR filter resumes operation with the correct state. The waveform set “B” zooms in on the power-loss event. The FIR values are consistent with the relation in Fig. 4, the provided inputs, and the programmed coefficients (w1, w2, w3) equal to (87, -77, -98). The fall of VBAT_OK passes through a two-register synchronizer and then the FIR filter freezes as the PMU coordinates the save operation. In the 8th cycle after the fall of VBAT_OK, the save completes and the rise of EQ sets all outputs of the FIR filter to “1” (the NVLATCH node is buffered with an inverter). The PMU waits another 2 cycles to let the internal VDDNV rail completely discharge. Then, it is safe to cut off all power to the chip. The waveform set “C” zooms in on the power-restoration. In the 6th cycle after VBAT_OK rises, the correct data has been restored to the FIR filter. In the 10th cycle after VBAT_OK rises, the FIR filter resumes computation with the previously programmed coefficients. In the example of the FIR filter, the parallel save and restore of the NVDFF takes only 10 cycles to resume; whereas a volatile implementation would have required 24 cycles to reprogram the 3 filter coefficients.

The FIR filter has 96 NVDFFs and about 500 gates. For a target application of a microcontroller, approximately 5,000 DFFs need to be retained. The plot in Fig. 6 shows the amount of failures induced in 8 shift registers of 512 NVDFFs (4096 total) when a skew is applied. The NVDFF has a split supply rail, so the sensing current ramps can be perturbed from their nominally identical values. In simulation, the relationship between the skew on VDDNV/VDNV and percentage skew in current ramp rate is roughly linear. The distribution of fails exhibits a Gaussian-like quadratic decrease on a logarithmic vertical scale as the skew is reduced. With zero skew, all NVDFFs in all 5 measured chips (about 21,000 NVDFFs) operate without failure, and extrapolation of the distribution under skew suggests well below 1 ppm failure for the un-skewed NVDFF. The pie chart in Fig. 6 describes the total round-trip save and restore energy for the NVDFF. By measuring the energy in both the context of a shift register (no logic and little interconnect) and the context of an FIR filter, the additional energy cost from nodes glitching in the FIR filter, cycle overheads, and PMU energy can be quantified to 1.780 pJ out of 3.439 pJ.

Fig. 7 shows the die photo, summarizes key parameters, and makes comparison to related work in [7]. The present approach of replacing every volatile DFF with an NVDFF incurs a 49% area overhead in the FIR filter (based on the synthesis report) in exchange for nonvolatile processing capability.

Acknowledgements:
This work was funded in part by the C2S2 Focus Center, one of six research centers funded under the Focus Center Research Program (FCRP), a Semiconductor Research Corporation entity. The authors thank Scott Summerfelt for technical discussion and Raj Aggarwal for her support.

References:
Figure 11.1.1: Principle of self-timed sensing for ferroelectric capacitors through charge sharing

Figure 11.1.2: Schematic of the nonvolatile latch (NVLATCH)

Figure 11.1.3: The nonvolatile D flip-flop (NVDFF) and simulation of its four modes

Figure 11.1.4: A nonvolatile system implementation with NVDFFs in a test-case FIR filter

Figure 11.1.5: Logic analyzer waveforms from the test chip undergoing power loss and recovery

Figure 11.1.6: NVDFF measured properties of statistical margin (from 5 chips) and round-trip energy

Figure 11.1.7: FeCap read and write circuits

Figure 11.1.8: FeCap sense amplifier and slave-stage jam latch

Figure 11.1.9: Harmonic analyzer waveforms from the test chip undergoing skew circuit