On the Error Effects of Random Clock Shifts in Quantum-dot Cellular Automata Circuits

M. Ottavi^{*}, H. Hashempour, V. Vankamamidi Department of ECE Northeastern University Boston, MA 02115, USA

> F. Karim, K. Walus, A. Ivanov Department of ECE University of British Columbia Vancouver, BC, V6T 1Z4, Canada

Abstract

This paper analyzes the effect of random phase shifts in the underlying clock signals on the operation of several basic Quantum-dot Cellular Automata (QCA) building blocks. Such phase shifts can result from manufacturing variations or from uneven path lengths in the clocking network. While previous literature has proposed various clock distribution architectures and also provided analysis of manufacturing variations on QCA layouts, so far no literature is available on the characterization of effects resulting from the lack of phase synchronization in the QCA clocks. We perform numerical simulations of these basic building blocks using two different simulation engines available in the QCADesigner tool. We assume that the phase shifts are characterized by a Gaussian distribution with a mean value of $i\frac{\pi}{2}$, where i is the clock number. Our results indicate that the sensitivity of building blocks to phase shifts depends primarily on the layout of the building block, and that most building blocks were able to operate properly under random phase shifts characterized by $\sigma = 5\%$ of $\pi/2$.

1 Introduction

The feature size of conventional field-effect transistors (FET) has been consistently decreasing in an attempt to increase device density and operating frequency of computing circuits. Today, transistors with gate lengths below 50nm are fabricated and exhibit excellent electrical characteristics [1]. This trend has resulted in an almost exponential growth in integration level of electronic chips and integrated circuits, often referred to as Moore's law [2]. The architectural and fundamental limits to this growth have been revised several times to account for new technologies but novel technological concepts (based on nanodevices and nano-electronics) are projected to play a significant role in future systems [3] [4]. The QCA paradigm is one in which an array of cells, each electrostatically interacting

Currently with Advanced Micro Devices Inc.

with its neighbors, is employed in a locally interconnected manner [5]. Research into implementing these cells using coupled quantum dots [6], nanomagnets [7], or various molecular structures [8] is ongoing. In practice, a system to clock individual cells is required for QCA operation, this involves additional wiring for clock distribution and field generation. While defect tolerance and testing of QCA circuits has been addressed in the past [9] [10], little attention has been paid to variations in the required clock network and its implications on QCA circuit operation. A comprehensive review of QCA can be found in [11].

We employ zone clocking in this paper, where all the cells in a design are grouped into one of four available clocking zones; each cell in a particular clocking zone is connected to one of the four available phases of the QCA clock shown in Fig. 1(a). Each cell in the zone is latched and unlatched as a result of the changing clock signal.



Figure 1. (a) The four phases of the QCA clock used to control information flow in the QCA circuit. (b) Phase Shift on the clock waveform.

The clock signals act to pump information throughout the circuit as a result of the successive latching and unlatching of cells connected to the different clock phases. Cells latch to a polarization that is determined by the electrostatic interaction with their neighbors. Within the zone clocking scheme, each group of cells connected to a particular phase of the clock can be considered as a D-latch[12]. As each group of cells in a particular clocking zone become latched they retain their information until the clock is relaxed, independent of changes in the polarization of neighboring cells. A length of QCA wire can be represented schematically as shown in Fig. 2, the different clocking zones are represented with different shades of gray.

2 Contribution

In this paper, we present the results of numerical simulations of QCA building blocks in the presence of random phase variations in the individual clock signals. It is well known that process variations such as thickness, alignment, and width change occur in deep submicron conventional technologies. These can lead to unexpected variations in resistance, capacitance, and inductance[13], that are shown to may have adverse effects on the operation of such circuits. Clock trees and networks used for field generation and switching in QCA circuits are also susceptible to such variations, particularly because of high-speed



Figure 2. QCA wire shown with cells and schematic representation. C0, C1, C2, C3 are the four phases of the clock. Each of the clocking zones maps to a numbered D-latch in the circuit representation.

switching and aggressive scaling of clock lines due to the inherently small size of QCA cells.

3 Method

In this section, we present our method of characterizing the different QCA building blocks. The goal of the simulation is to reproduce a random variation in the phase of the clock signals delivered to the different clocking zones and to evaluate its impact on the functional behavior of the building blocks. The algorithm is summarized as follows:

- 1. For each of the simulated layouts, we generate simulation results for the circuit without introducing any phase shifts. These results are used to automatically compare against simulations with phase shifts to determine if the circuits continue to operate properly.
- 2. A set of 500 batch simulations are executed using a random variable, X, to represent the possible phase shift values as a fraction of $\pi/2$. The random variable X is characterized by a Gaussian probability distribution function with mean value $\mu = i\frac{\pi}{2}$, where i is the clock number and standard deviation σ .
- 3. The percentage of successful circuits is recorded.
- 4. Step 2 is repeated for consecutively increasing values of σ

Our objective is to obtain the percentage of successful circuits as a function of σ . The chosen interval is $\sigma \in (0, \pi/4)$ with a step of $\pi/40$. Therefore, phase shift values have a standard deviation $\sigma_{\phi} = \pi/4$ and are incremented with a step of $\pi/40$. The choice of σ_{ϕ} is motivated by a consideration that a higher value would increase the probability of having two clocking zones whose phases are inverted, a condition that is unlikely in reality.

3.1 Building blocks of QCA Circuits

The tested QCA building blocks are divided into wires shown in Figure 3 (Straight-wire and L-shaped Wire), logical devices shown in Figure 4 (Inverter and Majority Gate), and branches shown in Figure 5 (Fanout2 and Fanout3). The coplanar crossing is not considered in this paper.

3.2 Simulation setup

Simulations were conducted using both the bistable (time independent) and coherence vector (time dependent) simulation engines available in QCADesigner [14] to determine



Figure 3. Simulated QCA Building blocks: (a) Straight-Wire (b) L-Shaped Wire.



Figure 4. Simulated QCA Building blocks: (a) Inverter (b) Majority Gate.



Figure 5. Simulated QCA Building blocks: (a) Fanout 2 (b) Fanout 3.

if the behaviour is dependent on the particular choice of model. Cell sizes of 2 nm were used throughout with ϵ_r selected to be 1. A set of batch simulations were run on each of the six building blocks to determine optimal values for both the Clock High and Low parameters which were found to be 7.473^{-20} J and 1.179^{-20} J, respectively. A relaxation time of $\tau = 1.11^{-16}$ s, a time step of $t_{step} = 1.11^{-18}$ s, and simulation time of $t = 1.11^{-12}$ s, were used in the coherence vector simulation engine to ensure that the solver converged, while the radius of effect was kept at 200 nm in order to encapsulate the entire circuit. All other parameters were kept at their default values.

The simulations required the implementation of a phase shifting capability in each of the two simulation engines within the QCAD esigner tool. The clock signal in QCAD esigner is calculated as a hard-saturating cosine as shown in Figure 1(b). The variations result in a phase shift as shown in the figure.

4 Fault Analysis

Faults due to random phase shifts in the clock can manifest themselves in one of two ways. They can result in either an unwanted delay or inversion at the primary outputs. The delays occur because the clocking zone to which the output is connected latches out of sequence, propagating the information either sooner or later than is expected. These delays can often be masked at the output if an unwanted inversion were to occur at the same time and cause us to incorrectly identify a faulty circuit as functional. Thus, it becomes critical that the input pattern be selected appropriately such that no such false positives occur. Here, the test sequence $\{0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1\}$ is selected for all QCA building blocks featuring a single input, and $\{000, 100, 110, 010, 011, 001, 101, 111\}$ for the majority gate. These test sequences ensure that the values at the primary outputs do not depend on any of its previous values.

The unwanted inversions are slightly less intuitive. Consider the fanout circuit shown in Figure 6(a). In this figure, the signal has already propagated to the cells in clocking zone C1. Here, we expect C2 to move into a latching state and propagate the signal forward. However, if phase shifts in clocking zones C2 and C3 are significant enough, then it is possible that the cells in C3 will latch before those in C2. If this occurs, then the cells in C3 will take on the opposite polarity of those in C1 due to the 45° angle that exists between their cells as shown by the NOT gates in Figure 6(b). Output F2 is not affected by this phase shift since it is lined up directly with the input and is not subject to any inversion. The same analysis can be applied to the Fanout2 building block as well.

If the Clock High value is selected appropriately ($\approx 7.473^{-20}$ J), then there will exist some residual polarization in the cells in C2 which may be sufficient enough to perturb the cells in clocking zone C3 and overcome the inversion. However for this to occur in either of the Fanout building blocks, the residual polarization left in the cells in C2 would have to be large enough to overcome the positive feedback that occurs between the outputs as shown in Figure 6(c). Here, after output Fanout3(F2) is latched, it interacts with both Fanout3(F1) and Fanout3(F3) and the positive feedback ensures the system remains latched to the current state. Similarly, outputs Fanout3(F1) and Fanout3(F3) will interact with one another ensuring they also maintain their current states. However, the LWire building block does not have any other outputs with which to interact and therefore, may be able to recover its correct output, provided that there exists enough residual polarization in the cells in clocking zone C2.

The majority gate behaves similarly to the Fanout3 building block. Consider the majority



Figure 6. Inversion error in the Fanout3 circuit. If clocking zone C3 latches before C2, then two of the outputs will experience unwanted inversion (F1, F3). The different clocking zones are labeled in the top-left hand corner for reference.

gate shown in Figure 7(a). Here, the signal has propagated to the cells in clocking zone C0. Assume that the variations in the clock phase have caused C2 to latch before C1. In this case, inputs A and C will have an inverting effect on the output, while input B will drive the output without inversion. Figures 7(b) and 7(c) outline the two possible scenarios that need to be considered under these circumstances. The first results when inputs A and C are logically opposite. If this is the case then the output will simply be equal to input B and the inverting error that occurs due to inputs A and C are logically error that occurs when both inputs A and C are logically equivalent. Under these circumstances, the combined inverting interaction with the output of these two inputs cannot be overcome and the output will polarize to the incorrect result as shown in Figure 7(c).



Figure 7. Inversion error in the majority gate circuit. If clocking zone C3 latches before C2, then the output may exhibit an inversion error.

Another example of unwanted inversion can occur in the case of the inverter. Consider Figure 8(a). Here, the cells in clocking zone C0 are holding the signal to be propagated through the inverter. If the phase shifts are such that C3 latches before C1 and C2, then the signal will propagate directly from the cells in C0 directly to the output without undergoing any inversion as shown in Figure 8(b). Under this scenario, the inverter acts like a wire.



Figure 8. Inversion error in the inverter circuit. If clocking zone C3 latches before C1 and C2, then the output will simply take on the value of the input, effectively replicating the behavior of a straight wire.

It is important to note that these circuits are simulated in a noise-less environment, *i.e.*, nothing in the circuit environment has the ability to influence a given cell other than its neighbors. All simulations are run at a temperature of 0 K in order to remove the influence of thermal noise. In any practical system, this noise would prevent any long range interaction.

5 Simulation Results

Figures 9(a) and 9(b) plot the simulation results for each of the layouts using the bistable and coherence vector, respectively. For the bistable simulation engine, Figure 9(a) shows that circuits experiencing phase shifts up to 15% of $\pi/2$ can still operate at a 95% success rate. Similarly, from Figure 9(b), QCA circuits using the coherence vector simulation engine can operate at a 90% success rate while withstanding phase shifts with standard deviations of 10% of $\pi/2$. The non-monotonic behavior of the results shown in Figures 9(a) and 9(b) are likely a result of relatively small number of simulations. Simulation number was limited by the high computational time required.

From Figures 9(a) and 9(b), the simulated QCA building block outputs can be grouped into one of three groups based on performance. The first group consists of outputs that resemble a straight wire, i.e., to represent a straight path from the input to its output. The Wire, Fanout2(F1) and Fanout3(F2) all fall into this group of outputs. This group sees the highest success rate of any other group because the variations in clock phase can only cause delay at these outputs as mentioned in Section 4, and are not affected by any unwanted inversion.

The second group of outputs are those belonging to either Fanout2 or Fanout3 that do not see a straight path from the input to its output, i.e., there exists a 90° bend between the

input and output. It is clear from Figures 9(a) and 9(b) that the outputs that belong to this group - Fanout2(F2), Fanout3(F1) and Fanout3(F2) - produce the worst success rate of any group due to the potential of unwanted inversion at the outputs as discussed in the previous section.

The third group consists of the LWire, MG, and Inverter building blocks. For reasons described in Section 4, these building blocks have success rates that lie in between the other two mentioned groups.



Figure 9. Success Rate vs Standard Deviation of the phase shift.

6 Conclusion

This paper has presented an analysis based on results of numerical simulations of the robustness of QCA circuit building blocks against the effect of random phase shifts on the underlying clocking network. Simulations were run on a set of universal QCA building blocks, and were repeated using both the bistable and coherence vector simulation engines in QCADesigner. All devices showed success rates of over 90% for phase shifts with standard deviations of up to 10% of $\pi/2$. We found that the success rate of a given output is highly layout-dependent. Outputs resembling a straight wire displayed more robustness to the phase variations than did those featuring kinks. As a result, QCA building blocks can be grouped into distinct classes depending on the number of kinks and outputs that they contain making it easier to pre-determine sensitive areas in a circuit. These results should help in developing fabrication specifications for QCA clocking networks. Additionally, the results from both simulation engines remained consistent, confirming that the behavior of the circuits is not dependent on the choice of model.

References

 R. Chau, J. Kavalieros, B. Roverts, R. Schenker, D. Lionberger, D. Barlag, B. Doyle, R. Arghavani, A. Murthy, and G. Dewey, "30-nm Physical Gate Length CMOS Transistors With 1.0-ps nMOS and 1.7-ps pMOS Gate Delays," *IEDM Tech. Dig.*, pp. 45-48, 2000.

- [2] G. E. Moore, "Lithography and the Future of Moore's Law," Proc. of SPIE, Advances in Resist Technology and Processing, Vol. 2438, pp. 2-17, 1995.
- [3] L. Risch, "How Small Can MOSFETs Get?," Proc. of SPIE, Advances in Microelectronic Device Technology, Vol. 4600, pp. 1-9, 2001.
- [4] D. J. Frank, R. H. Dennard, E. Nowak, P. M. Solomon, Y. Taur, and H. S. P. Wong, "Device Scaling Limits of Si MOSFETs and their Application Dependencies," *Proc. of IEEE*, Vol. 89, No. 3, pp. 259-288, March 2001.
- [5] "International Technology Roadmap for Semiconductors: Emerging Technologies," http://public.itrs.net/, Edition 2005.
- [6] V. P. Chowdhury, D. B. Janes, S. Babdyopadhyay, and X. Wang, "Collective Computational Activity in Self-Assembled Arrays of Quantum Dots: A Novel Neuromorphic Architecture for Nanoelectronics," *Proc. of IEEE Trans. Electron Devices*, Vol. 43, pp. 1688-1696, 1996.
- [7] R. Cowburn and M. Welland, "Room-Temperature Magnetic Quantum Cellular Automata," Science, Vol. 287, pp. 1466-1468, 2000.
- [8] B. Isaksen and C. Lent, "An Architecture for Molecular Computing Using Quantum-Dot Cellular Automata," Proc. IEEE Conf. on Nanotechnology, pp. 402-405, 2003.
- [9] M. B. Tahoori, M. Momenzadeh, J. Huang, and F. Lombardi, "Defects and Faults in Quantum Cellular Automata at Nano Scale," Proc. IEEE VLSI Test Symposium, pp. 291-296, 2003.
- [10] M. Momenzadeh, M. Ottavi, and F. Lombardi, "Modeling QCA Defects at Molecular-level in Combinational Circuits," Proc. IEEE Conf. on Defect and Fault Tolerance, pp. 208-216, 2005.
- [11] K. Walus and G. A. Julien, "Design tools for an emerging SoC technology: quantum-dot cellular automata," Proc. IEEE, pp. 1225-1244, 2006.
- [12] K. Walus, G. A. Jullien and R. A. Budiman, "Computer Arithmetic Structures for Quantum Cellular Automata," Proc. of IEEE Asilomar Conf. on Signals, Systems, and Computers, 2003.
- [13] S. Natarajan, M. A. Breuer, and S. K. Gupta, "Process variations and their impact on circuit operation," Proc. IEEE Conf. on Defect and Fault Tolerance, pp. 73-81, 1998.
- [14] "www.qcadesigner.ca," Available Online,