Running RISCs

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Last year, we described the design of RISC I (Fitzpatrick et al. 1981), a 44,500-transistor 32-bit microprocessor. At that time, we had not yet received our first chips. Now we can tell a complete story, including a moral and a happy ending, in which promptness is punished, Murphy's Law is proved, and perseverance and patience are rewarded.

RISC stands for Reduced Instruction Set Computer, a new class of simpler computers promising higher performance using simpler hardware. Examples of RISCs are the IBM 801 (Radin 1982), the Berkeley RISC I (Patterson and Séquin 1981) and the Stanford MIPS (Hennessy et al. 1982). RISC I was the first chip built as part of a new graduate curriculum of the Electrical Engineering and Computer Sciences Department at the University of California, in which students propose and evaluate architectural concepts, learn Mead-Conway design methods, form teams to build the system, and then test their design.

RISC CAD

In our environment, design tools dictate design style. Because we had only five students, and had to complete a 32-bit computer in 23 weeks, we had to rely on programs to increase productivity. We used existing programs whenever possible, building our own only when other solutions were not available. We designed RISC I at two levels: a low-level mask description and a high-level functional description. The masks were entered via Caesar, a color graphics layout editor developed by John Ousterhout (Ousterhout 1981). We used Clark Baker's DRC program to check for layout errors. We counted on visual inspection to discover the few layout errors that DRC overlooked (implant-to-gate spacing, gate overhang, and implant overlay around gates).

The functional description was written in Slang, a LISP-based simulation language created by John Foderaro during the development of RISC I (Van Dyke 1982). The most difficult parts of our logical design were the timing and the miscellaneous gates to drive the control lines. Because we expected to have more errors in this area than in the data path, a program that would simulate a description of the control circuitry to discover timing and control errors was more important. The RISC I Slang description, including all control lines, the PLA's, and miscellaneous control logic, explicitly corresponds to about 2000 transistors in RISC I; Slang simulates the rest of the chip—42,500 transistors corresponding to the registers, ALU, and shifter—at a high level. We debugged the description by running about a dozen small RISC I programs, called diagnostics, on the Slang description of RISC I. Limited time kept us from using formal fault-coverage models to decide whether these diagnostics adequately exercised the chip.

Two more programs linked these two descriptions. Mextro, a circuit extraction program created by Dan Fitzpatrick, takes mask descriptions and derives a transistor-level description. Esim, a switch-level simulator created by Chris Terman, simulates the derived description. Slang "swallows" Esim to monitor the values of several dozen interesting nodes in both the functional- and switch-level simulations. This multi-level simulation found dozens of disagreements between the two levels of simulation—errors that would have kept RISC I from working.

RISC Fabrication

On June 22, 1981, the RISC I design, using single poly and single metal layers with no buried contacts, was complete: it passed all software checks. RISC I then became part of the experiment to see whether commercial silicon foundries would provide fabrication for small-volume custom designs.

When inexperience is combined with ambition, you get a very large chip. The standard fabrication services were giving fast turnaround to small chips using 5-micron minimum features. Even using 4-micron features, RISC I measures 10.3 x 7.75 mm (406 x 305 mil). Fortunately, the MOSIS Implementation Service at USC/ISI agreed to use RISC I to explore the problems of fabricating large chips at 4 microns. Alan Bell and Lynn Conway of Xerox PARC also offered to fabricate our design, and we replied with a copy of the CIF file on July 17, 1981.

Although Xerox and MOSIS selected different maskmakers, both selected the same vendor for fabrication. The Xerox masks arrived first, but promptness was not rewarded. A new vendor employee ran the wafers through the line using the wrong process. The MOSIS masks arrived later and were sent through the right process steps, but the poly lines were too wide because of problems with one of the polysilicon processing steps. As predicted by Murphy's Law, two more errors at the vendor's site kept us from receiving the chips until November: a management reorganization and a fire in the ventilation system.

In November, Michael Arnold finished Lyra, a new layout-ruler checker (Arnold and Ousterhout 1982). Lyra discovered four layout errors—gate overhang and implant-to-gate spacing—overlooked by DRC. These probably would not have kept the chip from working, but they might have reduced the yield. The folly of visual inspection was illustrated while verifying the errors. This early version of Lyra gave the location and layer of the error; nevertheless, three people, using Caesar to explore the design, needed more than two hours to find the errors. The
current version of Lyra pinpoints the error and gives complete error messages.

MOSIS offered a new run in December 1981; therefore, we submitted the corrected CIF to be fabricated by a second vendor. This was an experimental run on a research line to try 4-micron Mead-Conway designs. Thus, the need for a second run in April 1982 did not surprise us. Wafers with good processing arrived at Berkeley in May 1982. MOSIS started another run with the original vendor in late January, and we also received their wafers in May.

In the meantime, because of the processing problems, the original vendor refabricated chips from the original masks (M17A) for Xerox. We received chips from this run in January.

Table 1 shows the chronology of RISC I fabrication.

### RISC Testing

Although the fabrication delays were longer than we had expected, building the hardware and software to test the chips kept us busy. The tester receives bit patterns for a test from a host computer, applies these bit patterns to the inputs of the chip under test, and sends the resulting output bit patterns back to the host computer for analysis.

The tester was simply a buffer that could drive and record any pattern of 64 bits every 250 ns. Figure 1 shows a photograph of the tester hardware. This tester provided variable-speed clocks and power supplies, and could repeat a test indefinitely (although it could record only the last 1024 entries). We needed programs on the VAX to prepare the test patterns and massage the test results.

Once again Slang came to the rescue, as shown symbolically in Figure 2. Slang uses the test programs and computes the correct patterns for the tester and the correct results for those patterns. Slang then checks the results from the real system.

### RISC Results

Our test plan was founded on pessimism. We planned to drive Scan-In-Scan-Out (SISO) hardware to test each block. There are 5 SISO loops in RISC I, one each for the shifter, ALU input, ALU output, the program counters, and control. We tested the first chips from MOSIS (M17M), but no chip emerged with all SISO loops working. We depended on a functioning control loop to test some other modules in the chip, but this loop rarely functioned. The SISO loops were routed after the main area was laid out, resulting in very long poly lines which were potentially more susceptible to yield errors.

Following the same plan, we tested the second batch from Xerox during the winter. Testing proceeded slowly, owing to both the debugging of the RISC I testing software and hardware, and to the other educational requirements of Foderaro and Van Dyke (the only RISC I designers still at Berkeley). We never found working SISO loops on this batch of chips, but two chips displayed "signs of life" when programs were fed to them. Further testing showed that in spite of yield flaws or design errors, these chips performed most of the intended functions. A few bits of the data path were stuck at 0 or 1; nevertheless these chips could still execute some instructions.

Van Dyke designed and built a board for RISC I including the miscellaneous "glue" around the CPU, the memory, the I/O, and the memory management elements. A Xerox refab chip, even with some of the upper bits stuck high, successfully ran the first RISC I program on June 11, 1982. Figure 3 shows a photograph of that board. The first RISC I program read characters from the terminal, changed the text, and wrote the characters back out.

Because we considered the logical design to be largely correct, we ignored the SISO loops and began running diagnostic programs on the chips. Before this, we were testing diced and
bonded chips. As the students' "lifetimes" were running short, we skipped the dicing and bonding stages and tested whole wafers from the second round of MOSIS fabrication. Figure 1 also shows the probe station we connected to our VLSI tester. These new chips ran the diagnostic programs used to verify our original design. We (foolishly) created new diagnostics and uncovered a design error associated with the optional setting of condition codes on the load and shift instructions. In defiance of historical precedent for solving a design problem by turning it around and calling the problem a new architectural "feature," we decided to fix this error by modifying the RISC I assembler. (This was possible because ALU operations properly set all condition codes, whereas load and shift instructions do not set the negative condition bit. The patch consists of inserting an arithmetic test instruction when a conditional jump needs the N condition from a load or shift operation.) At this writing, we have tested about 40 chips from the second MOSIS wafers. We have found four fully functional chips, (although the SISO circuitry has not been verified yet), giving a 10% yield. This is a better yield than we had expected from such a large chip.

The fastest of these chips runs all diagnostics at 1.5 MHz at room temperature, using the probe card with a floating substrate bias, or 2 μsec per RISC I instruction. This rate was calculated by running the tester at 4-μsec per instruction, with the gap between the three non-overlapped clock phases being as large as the clock. We had based our original performance projections for RISC I on a 4-μsec register-register instruction, derived from the 4-μsec register-register operation of the 10-MHz Motorola MC68000 and the 3-μsec register-register operation of the 10-MHz National NS16032.

Several factors caused this difference. To understand the speed of this fabrication process, we measured the speed of the ring oscillator on the test strip (which is routinely inserted by MOSIS). It ran at 11 MHz. Previous chips processed with the same design-rule features have run the same oscillator at 20 MHz. The later stages of design involved connecting cells, and we concentrated on logical correctness rather than circuit speed. Although we followed the rule of avoiding long unbuffered lines, we had no tool to check for such mistakes. We recently re-examined the design, and found four long clocked control lines that SPICE predicts will limit the maximum clock speed to 4 MHz. Furthermore, many of our diagnostics can be run with a 3-MHz clock, suggesting that only a few RISC I instructions (CALL and LOAD) are limiting the performance. Finally, because we still have 200 more chips to test, we may well find faster RISC I's.

Table 2 compares commercial microprocessors to a 1.5-MHz RISC I (including the assembler changes to fix the error). Hansen et al. (1982) ran programs on a 5-MHz 8086 with no wait states on an Intel MDS III development system, an 8-MHz MC68000 with two wait states on a Dual Systems Corporation Dual 8312, and a simulator of the newest version (release 3) of the Intel 432/800, (an 8-MHz, 4-wait state system). As the table shows, a 1.5-MHz RISC I runs these programs a bit faster than do current commercial microprocessors.

A Retrospective Look

Hindsight lets us see our mistakes and offer warnings for future designers. First, don't rely on visual inspection to catch any layout errors. (A second layout-rule checker would have found our mistakes in the first mask.) Our second mistake was incomplete diagnostics. A few more diagnostics would likely have found our only design error. SISO proved difficult to use; if we had written SISO diagnostics, we would have noticed the difficulty and changed the chip.

Although we were concerned with performance, the lack of a simulator between analog-level SPICE and switch-level Esim precluded performance-tuning of the complete design. Existing higher-level timing analyzers, such as MOTIS-C and LOGIS, were not integrated into the UNIX environment; perhaps more importantly, they required a new description of the design which could not easily be extracted from the other descriptions. Manufacturers apparently have budgets for hours of SPICE runs on CRAY-I's—a luxury not likely to be found soon in academia. We believe higher-level timing analyzers have a promising future.

We hope this article has made it clear that the work required to build hardware and software to test a chip of this size approached the amount of effort required to design it. If we had started over, we would have used more resources on this tedious but important chore. Many people were working on methods to improve chip design, but very few are working on testing. This research area is ripe for new ideas.

The short student "lifetime" requires fast-turnaround silicon. If we have chips with good processing within 3 months after design, we can rely on students to test and perhaps even to improve the chips. If it takes a year, students can rarely enjoy that important advantage. Therefore, one must balance ambi-
tion with die size. MOSIS can provide a 6-week turnaround for standard-size chips that use the standard process (Cohen and Tyree 1982). Furthermore, even special runs have problems with designs larger than 8 mm on a side, because the makers of vendor software (to compensate the masks for the process) never dreamed of a chip that big.

Fortunately, hindsight has also shown successes. For first silicon, the chip had acceptable yield. (One terrible possibility was that the chip might be too large ever to result in a working die.) The working chips testify to the quality of the design tools. (For more information about these tools, see University Scene in this issue.) Perhaps the most unusual aspect of this approach to design was that we kept all knowledge of the chip on-line in "program-understandable" form. Furthermore, the on-line description superseded any written documentation.

Perhaps the most unusual aspect of this approach to design was that we kept all knowledge of the chip on-line in "program-understandable" form. Furthermore, the online description superseded any written documentation. Because the description was finished before the layout was done, we could write a few programs to ask Slang what was connected to a given line, or what nodes should be connected. Designers usually keep a set of official logic diagrams for the chip in a project notebook, and derive all other descriptions of the chip from those logic diagrams. We believe that if we had done this, the chip would have taken longer to build and contained more errors, because you can't compare a sheet of paper with an extracted circuit using a program. Unlike the procedure used by most systems, control circuitry was drawn "on-line" using specifications from our Slang simulator description.

The bottom line of the RISC I effort is that as part of the graduate curriculum, students designed and evaluated an architecture, learned VLSI design methods, built new CAD tools, and tested their design. The end product, a 44,000-transistor integrated circuit, had one minor design error, worked on the first good silicon, and ran diagnostic programs faster than commercial microprocessors.

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References


Afterword

We thought the readers of VLIS DESIGN might like to know what happened to the Berkeley authors who appeared in the Fourth Quarter 1981 issue. Most graduates joined small start-up companies and, in one way or another, are capitalizing on their IC design experience. First, the students:

Dan Fitzpatrick is finishing his Ph.D. thesis, and working on CAD tools at CADLINC in Palo Alto.

John Foderaro, the only RISC I designer still at Berkeley, plans to finish his Ph.D. in symbolic computation next year. He won the 1982 Dimitri Angelakos award as the person who gave the most help to his fellow students.

Manolis Katevenis is working on RISC II, and doing his Ph.D. dissertation on VLSI computer architecture.

Howardlandman finished his M.S. thesis, and is now building CAD tools at Medelec in Portland, Oregon.

Jim Peek is finishing his M.S. thesis, and is now building a VLSI graphics chip at CADLINC.

Zvi PeshkeS finished his M.S. thesis, and is designing analog chips for a communications system at Silicon Systems in Tustin, California.

Bob Sherburne is doing his dissertation on VLSI computer constructs, and also working with Katevenis on RISC II.

Korbin Van Dyke finished his M.S. thesis and is now a VLSI systems engineer at VLSI Technology in San Jose, California. Korbin is probably one of the few people in the world who has investigated architecture, designed a microprocessor, tested the chip, built memory and I/O boards for the chip, written programs for the chip, and seen it all work. Now the faculty:

Carlo Séquin, chairman of the Computer Science Division, has been teaching seminars on VLSI design across the U.S. He was named a Fellow of the IEEE this year.

John Ousterhout is teaching the VLSI layout class at Berkeley. In addition to supervising new tools such as Lyra, he is beginning to work on his next CAD system. His first system, Caesar, has been distributed to 70 universities and companies.

Dave Patterson is teaching the Experimental Architecture and VLSI Systems classes that produced RISC I. He is leading the design of an instruction cache for RISC II, and is looking for a new vehicle to investigate cost-effective, VLSI-based software systems. He was awarded the 1982 Distinguished Teaching Award by the Academic Senate of the University of California.