

ENERGY-EFFICIENT DADDA MULTIPLIERS WITH IMPROVED LIFETIME VIA VOLTAGE OVERSCALING

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ABSTRACT: An accurate, energy-efficient X-DADDA multiplier is covered in this article. Increases in voltage scaling and approximate width setting approximation controls lead to improvements in multiplier lifespan, reliability, and energy consumption. While the latter can only be used before and after design, the former can be modified whenever needed. Precise computation of partial product columns and overscaled voltage is necessary to optimize energy efficiency. To keep an appropriate accuracy range, columns with higher switching activity and lower bit significances are typically utilized. Because of their low cost, level shifters are rarely used in this design. Every column after that has a link to the one before it. Reduce the output of your multiplier to four bits for increased efficiency. The efficacy of X-DadDa is evaluated with FinFET technology operating at 15 nanometers. Up to 43% of the electricity used in a home can be saved with a 0.11 relative error distance approximation. When this scenario is compared to the exact mode with 50% delay degradation, bias temperature instability (BTI) is reduced by 9.9%. X-accuracy Daddas look into process modifications in more detail. Finally, neural networks are used to test the X-DadDa multiplier for image processing and classification.

Index Terms— An energy-efficient multiplier, a customisable multiplier (AxC), and all of these features can be modified.

1. INTRODUCTION

Critical is embedded CPU power consumption. Programs with high workloads have power budgets to stick to. The least amount of work energy needed is necessary to accomplish this goal. In computers, approximate computing, or AxC, can reduce power usage. If output quality is reduced by computation errors to a manageable level, then this paradigm is possible. AxC is a productive design tool at various levels of abstraction. Diminishing the circuit supply voltage below its error-free value is one method of approximating hardware. It is called voltage scaling (VOS).

VOS increases longevity, dependability, and energy efficiency while facilitating the AxC paradigm. This is particularly crucial for scaled-up current generation technologies. This makes it more difficult to design digital systems that adhere to standards for dependability or lifespan. Because

the VOS approach can modify the VOS level while in operation, precise configurability is possible.

Many approximation multipliers have been developed in the literature as a result of circuit pruning, which is the process of eliminating or streamlining gates to make a circuit more energy-efficient. Numerous studies have looked at the features of the various approximation multipliers because of the abundance of data that is available.

In this study, a VOS-based DadDa multiplier called X-DadDa is proposed and studied. When comparing topologies, variations in VOS voltage levels and estimated column counts are taken into account. These are the primary ideas of the essay.

Approximations are generated and analyzed by the VOS method. DadDa multiplier elements

We consider an implementation-ready, runtime fine-tuned approximation multiplier with low overhead. Research is being done on the X-DadDa

multiplier's accuracy and energy usage. At six VOS voltage levels, a number of approximative bit widths with or without truncation are being tested. More VOS voltage levels and greater accuracy granularity are available with the X Dadda multiplier. The VOS technique enhances the hardware of X-Dadda multipliers. Process variation (PV) and its effect on the output error of the X-Dadda multiplier is being investigated for different voltage operating system (VOS) levels..

2. BACKGROUND WORK

8X8 DADDA MULTIPLIER

The effects of the suggested modifications are calculated using an 8x8-fold unsigned Dadda tree multiplier. During the entrance and preparation stages, the suggested multiplier is applied to every mid-process item. The CSA tree has fewer incomplete devices since it makes use of blowers that are field-offered. The double end result can be calculated precisely by a CPA. To accommodate $n=8$, a multiplier's hardware must be proportionally reduced. Half-adders, full-adders, and four-2 blowers are used in this figure's reduction phase; each object bit is handled by a spot. Eight blowers form the initial formation, and halfway-through objects are divided into four columns by half-and-full adders. Apply a half-viper, a full adder, and ten blowers to the last two columns of items in the middle of the hierarchy as the second or final stage.

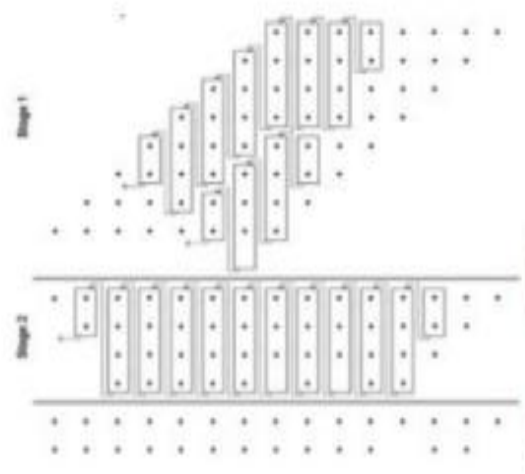


Figure 8x8 Dadda Multiplier

A device's vitality is said to be "in harmony" when its maximum current flows through it at this extremely high voltage (I_p). As voltage rises, current flow decreases, reducing burrowing. Until the voltage reaches "valley voltage" (V_v), this process will continue. The voltage at which the current flows is known as the valley current. Small, high-speed circuits can benefit from negative differential opposition. In diodes without leads, V_p denotes the highest conductance and V_l the lowest. The conductance-voltage (V_v) relationship is depicted in Figure 3. The capabilities of an RTD can be seen in how well-defined its voltage-current plots are. This ratio can be used to estimate the situation.

VOLTAGE SCALING

Given that supply voltage and dynamic power consumption are inversely correlated, even a slight variation in supply voltage can result in a fourfold increase in power consumption. Parallelism, pipelining, threshold voltage reduction, and multi-Vdd are required because lowering the supply voltage results in performance losses. The most popular methods for offsetting the speed disadvantage of voltage scaling will be covered in this section.

Multi Voltage Design

Different Vdd voltage injections into the system can lessen allowable speed loss and protect crucial circuit components. The "multi-voltage design"

technique can be used to lower a system's power consumption. This technique supplies sub-circuits with varying voltages by using multiple supply rails. Variable voltage levels can be applied to a circuit or subcircuits in two different ways:

Static Voltage Scaling:

To function on several levels, designs need to use a lot of blocks. While slower subsystems can use lower voltage to save electricity, higher voltage increases throughput.

Adaptive Voltage Scaling:

Discrete or system voltage zones can be applied dynamically with varying voltages according to performance standards or workload.

It takes multiple power rails to design for multiple voltages. New design challenges arise from the requirement to characterize circuits at different voltage levels and link blocks in different supply voltage regions. Regarding a few of our problems: Blocks with varying voltages had to be connected using level shifters. To make sure the duration requirements are fulfilled, conduct timing analysis and worst-case scenario characterization on each voltage partition. Floor plans become more complex when a chip has multiple power networks. Establish protocols for system on/off switching to prevent a system failure or standstill.

Parallelism

Energy consumption can be decreased by parallelizing some DSP process components, but doing so comes with area penalties. Processing times have increased due to the implementation of parallel-working blocks, which can withstand lower supply voltages and slower, more power-efficient cells. A certain clock frequency (f_{clk}) is needed by some systems. Multiple adders are substituted with simple adders. System parallelism makes it possible for two slow adders to cooperate. But doing so expands the system footprint. We will assume that the dynamic power consumption at frequency f_{clk} of the original single adder architecture equals P_{ref} .

$$P_{ref} = f_{clk} \cdot C_{ref} \cdot V_{dd}^2$$

The throughput is the same when two adders are operated in parallel at half the clock frequency ($f_{clk}/2$). This necessitates meticulously coordinating parallel operations and duplicating the adder's structure. Use an equation or some other method of calculation to determine the combined power of two adders.

$$P_{parallel} = (f_{clk}/2) \cdot (2.4 \cdot C_{ref}) \cdot V_{dd}^2 = 1.2 \cdot P_{ref}$$

The operating voltage of the supply voltage can be lowered by utilizing low-power cells such as highVT and lowering the operating frequency to $f/2$. If the initial supply voltage is scaled by 0.8, then clock speed reductions can be used to estimate power.

$$P_{parallel-VS} = \frac{f}{2} \cdot 2.4 \cdot C_{ref} \cdot (0.8 \cdot V_{dd})^2 \approx 0.77 \cdot P_{ref}$$

Power usage data indicates that the 20% overhead of the circuitry controlling parallel processes counteracts the lower dynamic power consumption that results from the increased silicon area required to construct the device.

Pipelining

Pipelining is also capable of multitasking. Here's an additional choice. This technique allows for the placement of extra registers in between logic stages. This makes it possible to divide up difficult jobs into smaller, more manageable tasks that can be completed faster and separately.

In comparison to the other two approaches, pipelining consumes more energy and space, but it speeds up the system by increasing registers and lowering latency. As pipelining doesn't replicate circuits, it has less overhead than parallelism.

VOLTAGE OVER-SCALING (VOS)

Energy-efficient VLSI can be designed and implemented using voltage scaling. Elevated supply voltage can significantly lower K2 primary dynamic power consumption. Integration became possible when CMOS technology advanced. These modifications necessitated additional design considerations. Strict design constraints can be imposed on a circuit by altering its critical

path. These modifications may result in designs that are power-hungry and conservative.

When supply voltage falls below the minimal threshold for a cautious V_{ddcrit} approach, design gate responsiveness decreases. Gate responsiveness also decreases with a decrease in system performance. The most common model of decreasing transistor performance used in fault-tolerant approach evaluations is the Alpha-power model. The relationship between supply voltage and circuit delay is defined as follows in this model.

$$\tau_d = \frac{C_L V_{dd}}{\beta(V_{dd} - V_t)^\alpha}$$

The symbols C_L , G_t , V_t , and V_s stand for threshold voltage, saturation index, load capacitance, and gate transconductance, respectively. Moreover, saturation index letters are employed. The model of Alpha-power delay is described in Appendix C. VOS activates crucial pathways, which throws off the timing of circuits. Because of the significant difference between average and worst-case circuit delays, energy savings from supply scaling and corrective loads can be traded off when employing VOS on arithmetic circuits.

Error-resiliency or fault tolerance was previously looked into as a means to improve DVS cautious use and energy efficiency. Worst-case safety margins have historically been constrained by design failure. Circuits with virtually no worst-case safety margins can be designed by dynamically monitoring the error rate and actively adjusting the operating point. Hence, compared to traditional methods, system performance and energy efficiency can be significantly increased.

THE GAUSSIAN FILTER'S ACM EFFICIENCY

We demonstrate the proposed multiplier with a Gaussian smoothing filter (GSF). Convolution of the input picture sub-matrix with the Gaussian kernel is how Gaussian smoothing is achieved.

$$\frac{1}{2^8} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 6 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 15 & 25 & 15 & 3 \\ 6 & 25 & 41 & 25 & 6 \\ 3 & 15 & 25 & 15 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 6 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} * \begin{bmatrix} P_{11} & P_{12} & P_{13} & P_{14} & P_{15} \\ P_{21} & P_{22} & P_{23} & P_{24} & P_{25} \\ P_{31} & P_{32} & P_{33} & P_{34} & P_{35} \\ P_{41} & P_{42} & P_{43} & P_{44} & P_{45} \\ P_{51} & P_{52} & P_{53} & P_{54} & P_{55} \end{bmatrix}$$

Convolution produces 8-bit approximate multipliers, which are used in addition, division, and other operations. A 90nm PDK and Synopsys Design Compiler were utilized to generate Verilog netlists with variable multipliers for every design. Filters embedded with ACM use 53.8% less power than filters integrated with appropriate (46.02%), truncated (46.02%), or UDM multipliers (14.48%), according to post-synthesis simulations. Filter area and delay both drastically decrease with this power drop. Lastly, when compared to the Truncate multiplier and UDM, the ACM saves 21.2% and 39.9%. A high-quality energy tradeoff is offered by the multiplier proposed for the generalized squared function (GSF), edge detection, image-enhancing algorithms, and discrete cosine transform (DCT). PSNR and SSIM are computed using filter models and benchmark images such as Lena and Mandrill. The suggested multiplier has higher quality metrics than the existing one, as the table demonstrates. Comparing ACM integrated filters to ETM multipliers, their PSNR is 7.71dB higher and that of Truncate multipliers, 1.28dB higher. The ACM embedded filter is far more accurate, which is more significant. The multiplier suggested for image filtering applications might lower image quality loss while improving energy efficiency. Although there is noise in photos taken with the Truncate/ETM embedded filter, the ACM's reduced picture quality is negligible and visually appealing.

Parameter	Accurate	Truncate	ETM	UDM	ACM
PSNR (dB)	26.75	24.082	17.61	26.74	25.32
SSIM	0.8648	0.8622	0.7882	0.8641	0.860
FSIM	0.9498	0.9478	0.9137	0.9486	0.948
Area(μm^2)	166040	98636	95315	135339	130616
Power (mW)	23.38	20.01	6.64	12.63	10.8
Delay (nS)	79.67	62.34	43.29	75.96	69.36
PDP (pJ)	1862.7	1247.4	287.4	959.4	749.0

Table Design and quality metrics for various 8-bit multipliers

3. SYSTEM DESIGN

DADDA MULTIPLIER DESIGN

Addition and multiplication are the two most frequently performed multiplier circuit operations. An entire adder circuit in these devices computes the approximation; in mathematics, we refer to these operations as "arithmetic." Adders are compared using a number of criteria. Numerous applications can be used to build probabilistic and approximate adders. Numerous computational tasks can be completed by these adders. Errors and circuit interferences can be seen in the rectified input and output. "Error distance" (ED) is a measure of the arithmetic error between the incorrect output and the correct output of a circuit. The average effect of multiple inputs and multibit adder normalization are taken into account for these distances.

NED is impacted by multiplexer resilience and size. There was also an objective precision-power analysis performed. Guess multipliers haven't gotten as much attention as other factors, though. Estimating adders solely for a hypothetical multiplier is wasteful due to accuracy, gear complexity, and other implementation issues. due to the possibility of unforeseen consequences. The writers only used a few basic multipliers. Since truncated growth is used in the majority of these structures, only the smallest portions of the final products are routinely inspected. A cluster multiplier might eliminate a few adders by

ignoring some of the smallest bits in the central devices for neural methodology.

It is advised to use truncated multipliers and comfort regulars. Half of each half-way object is combined, and the other half is shrunk, to create a nn multiplier. The n+ok bit only has n bits of influence after this. The challenges at hand include truncating the least important bits or reducing the result to n bits. Either of these actions may result in the above-mentioned errors. All errors are estimated as near to the evaluated estimation as feasible in order to minimize errors discarded. Finally, not much has been written about multiplier construction.

Creating an imprecise multiplier by directly using complex adders may lead to inaccuracies, increased complexity of the apparatus, and other execution metrics. Numerous multipliers were mentioned by the essayist. Usually, the center half-way devices are constructed before the remainder of the structure. The neural approach uses an uncertain cluster multiplier (and thus eliminates only a few adders) because in an uncertain cluster, only a small number of the least significant bits of fractional elements matter. Maybe you could try a shorter multiplier with uniform relief.

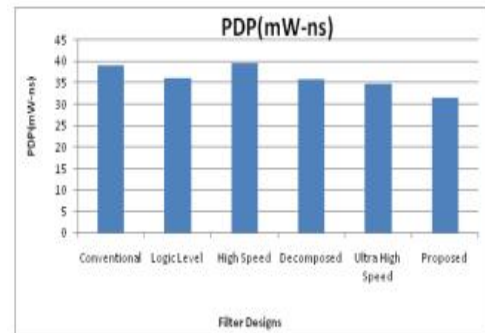
For all fractional devices, this structure can compute their n+k largest segments and, for nn multipliers, truncate their opposing n-okay segments. The n+k bit outcomes are reduced in order to reduce the n bit results to n bits. Reporting reduced or corrected errors is the next step. This covers errors related to reduction, adjustment (e.g., reducing results to K bits), and other adjustments. To separate errors, we select the modification constant (n+k bits) such that it closely matches our expected estimates. Error separation is made easier by this.

4. IMPLEMENTING PROPOSED COMPRESSOR IN SYSTOLIC ARRAY DIGITAL FILTER

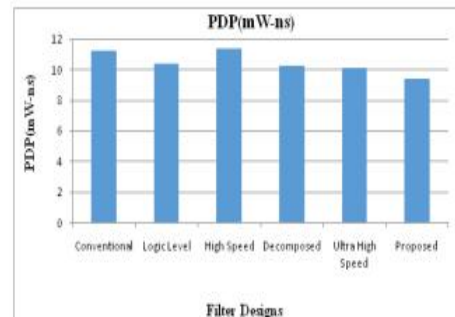
This picture illustrates a digital filter for compressor performance testing that is based on a systolic array. This section includes state-of-the-art parts such as Wallace tree multipliers and look ahead adders. The table provides an estimate of the space, delay, and power dissipation of a digital filter. In comparison to similar state-of-the-art technologies, the digital filter and compressor reduce PDP by 8.67% and 6.98%, respectively, at 180 nm and 90 nm. Digital filter compressors using 180-90 nm technology are displayed in these PDP plots. The size, delay, and power consumption of digital filters are contrasted with other state-of-the-art compressors and the recommended compressor design.

Performance Metrics Compressors		Area (μm^2)	Delay (ns)	Power (μW)	PDP ($\mu\text{W}\cdot\text{ns}$)
180 nm	Using Conventional Compressor	13.567	21.103	1.852	39.083
	Using Logic Level Optimized Compressor (Chang et al. 2004)	1.8736	14.924	2.422	36.146
	Using High Speed Compressor (Baran et al. 2010)	1.9679	14.691	2.702	39.695
	Using Logical Decomposed Compressor (Pishvaie et al. 2013)	1.8212	15.172	2.360	35.806
	Using Ultra High Speed Compressor (Aliparast et al. 2013)	1.9212	14.107	2.456	34.647
	Using Proposed Compressor	1.5530	15.573	2.032	31.644
90 nm	Using Conventional Compressor	6.887	13.976	0.802	11.209
	Using Logic Level Optimized Compressor (Chang et al. 2004)	9.511	9.884	1.049	10.368

90 nm	Using High Speed Compressor (Baran et al. 2010)	99.89	9.729	1.170	11.383
	Using Logical Decomposed Compressor (Pishvaie et al. 2013)	9.245	10.048	1.022	10.269
	Using Ultra High Speed Compressor (Aliparast et al. 2013)	97.52	9.342	1.083	10.117
	Using Proposed Compressor	793.4	10.446	0.901	9.412



Possible Compressor Design for 180nm Filter PDP Implementation



The 90 nm Digital Filter PDP used the proposed compressor and cutting-edge designs.

5. SIMULATION RESULTS

Verilog HDL (hardware description language) is one example. To describe a laptop or computer system, use Hardware Description Language, or HDL for short. A complex framework can be represented with a small number of dimensions.

During swapping, the wiring, resistors, and transistors of an integrated circuit can be painted using an HDL. It may signify the beginning of an intricate construction featuring flip tumbles and useful entrances. Following disintegration, the modules displayed Verilog activity yields. The following outcomes were attained:

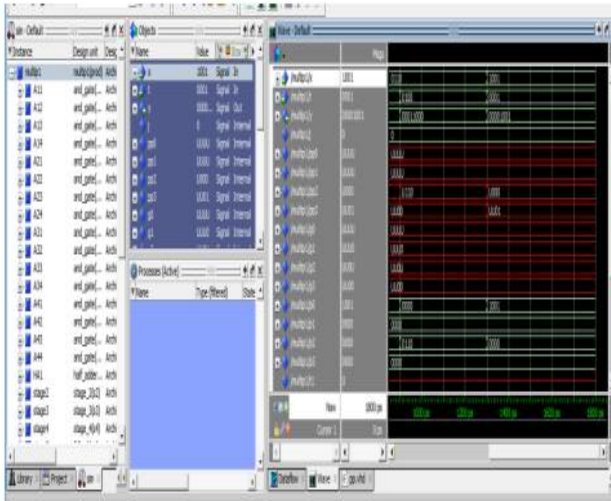


Figure True compressor Verilog output.

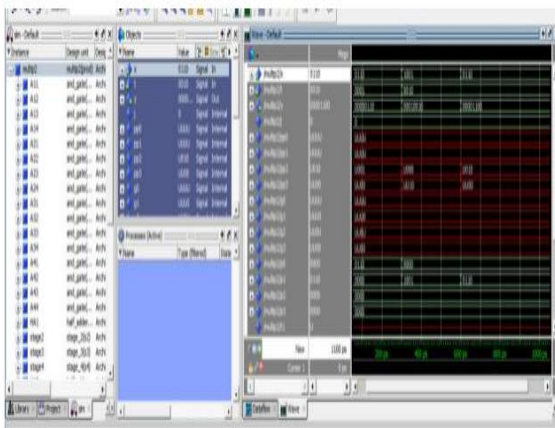


Figure 1 Verilog output waveform approximate compressor design

```
Minimum period: No path found
Minimum input arrival time before clock: No path found
Maximum output required time after clock: No path found
Maximum combinational path delay: 11.582ns
```

Timing Detail:

All values displayed in nanoseconds (ns)

Timing constraint: Default path analysis
Total number of paths / destination ports: 91 / 8

Delay: 11.582ns (Levels of Logic = 8)
Source: t<4> (PAD)
Destination: y<7> (PAD)

Figure Compressor Verilog output specs

```
Minimum period: No path found
Minimum input arrival time before clock: No path found
Maximum output required time after clock: No path found
Maximum combinational path delay: 7.796ns
```

Timing Detail:

All values displayed in nanoseconds (ns)

Timing constraint: Default path analysis
Total number of paths / destination ports: 40 / 8

Delay: 7.796ns (Levels of Logic = 4)
Source: x<2> (PAD)
Destination: y<2> (PAD)

Figure

e. Verilog output parameter compressor design estimate in MATLAB.

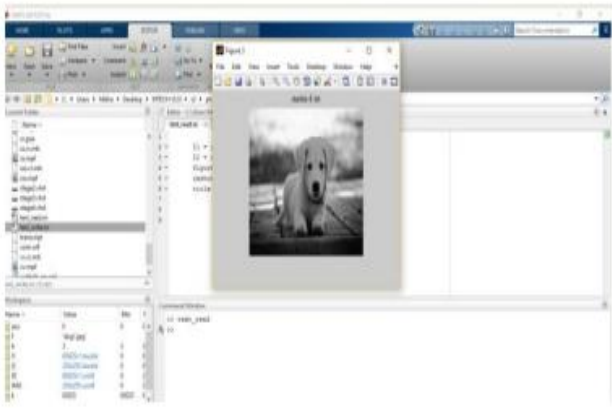


Figure image dadda multiplier output

6. CONCLUSION

According to this page, X-Dadda that is based on VOS can be customized. Life expectancy rose with decreased energy use. The X-Dadda multiplier could function in either approximate or precise mode depending on whether the approximation component's operating voltage stayed constant throughout system operation. The approximation width and voltage level of the multiplier were taken into account in order to evaluate its lifetime, accuracy, and energy consumption. For 0.057 MRED, the multiplier decreased energy usage by 21%. Reduce the component's operating voltage and cut its width in half.

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