

A Software-Supported Methodology for Exploring Interconnection Architectures Targeting 3-D FPGAs

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Abstract—Interconnect structures significantly contribute to the delay, power consumption, and silicon area of modern reconfigurable architectures. The demand for higher clock frequencies and logic densities is also important for the Field-Programmable Gate Array (FPGA) paradigm. Three-dimensional (3-D) integration can alleviate such performance limitations by accommodating a number of additional silicon layers. However, the benefits of 3-D integration have yet to be sufficiently investigated. In this paper, we propose a software-supported methodology to explore and evaluate 3-D FPGAs fabricated with alternative technologies. Based on the evaluation results, the proposed FPGA device improves speed and energy dissipation by approximately 38% and 26%, respectively, as compared to 2-D FPGAs. Furthermore, these gains are achieved in addition to reducing the interlayer connections, as compared to existing design approaches, leading to cheaper and more reliable architectures.

Keywords—FPGA; 3-D integration; interconnection architectures; CAD tools

I. INTRODUCTION

Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs) have become the implementation medium for the vast majority of modern digital circuits. This situation makes the FPGA paradigm to grow in importance, as there is a stronger demand for faster, smaller, cheaper, and lower-energy devices. However, such performance enhancement is infeasible for modern technologies. A solution to this drawback can be achieved by three-dimensional (3-D) integration, which practically eliminates the long interconnects [12].

In order for such a technology to be widely accepted, several challenges need to be satisfied. For example, methodologies for architecture-level exploration are essential to design efficient devices, in terms of high performance and/or low energy. As these tasks are complex and time consuming, there is also a demand for CAD tools that facilitate the design of 3-D circuits.

Recently many groups from academia [4, 6, 7, 11, 12], industry [8, 13] and research institutes [1] have put significant effort on designing and manufacturing 3-D systems. A survey of existing 3-D technologies is presented in [12], while the open issues for contemporary and upcoming fabrication processes are emphasized in [1]. A few companies [8, 13] develop 3-D ICs by stacking wafers, where the distance

between the layers is determined by the wafer thickness. The existing industrial research primarily concerns the manufacturing and fabrication of emerging 3-D technologies rather than the development of supporting CAD tools, which are mainly tackled by the academia.

In [4], the potential of a 3-D FPGA, based on 3-D Switch Boxes (SBs), is evaluated using analytic models. The implementation of applications onto this architecture is supported by a CAD tool based on [10]. This approach has, however, several drawbacks. For instance, there is no restriction regarding the amount of interlayer connections. Finally, the assumption that each TSV is electrically equivalent to a wire placed within a layer with equal length, results in inaccurate solutions.

A tool flow regarding the application implementation onto 3-D ICs is discussed in [6]. The placement algorithm is partitioning-based followed by a simulated-annealing refinement for minimizing the total wire-length. However, this approach does not investigate other important design issues, such as power/energy consumption, or the distribution of the power consumption throughout the 3-D stack.

To summarize, in literature there are two main approaches for designing 3-D FPGAs. The first of these approaches includes devices, where all of the layers can be thought to be “functional layers” [4, 6], while in the second approach each of the layers is specialized (*i.e.*, memory, switches, or logic) [11]. Although in this paper the investigated 3-D FPGA architectures contain identical logic resources in each of the layers (we are only interested in the interlayer communication schemes), heterogeneous FPGAs can also be explored.

In this paper we propose a software-supported methodology for exploring and evaluating the effects of employing alternative 3-D technologies, on FPGAs. The contributions of this work are summarized, as follows: (i) we study the spatial distribution of interlayer connections across each layer onto 3-D Virtex-based FPGAs, and (ii) we introduce a novel software-supported methodology for exploring and designing general-purpose interconnection architectures targeting 3-D FPGAs with a reduced number of interlayer wires.

Our methodology results in a general-purpose 3-D FPGA that exhibits similar improvements in performance, as compared to existing design approaches, but it requires fewer interlayer connections. From 3-D fabrication/manufacturing

point of view, fewer interlayer connections means: (i) smaller fabrication cost and (ii) larger useful silicon area in each layer (an interlayer contact occupies considerably more silicon area than a simple metal contact). Experimental results demonstrate the efficiency of the proposed 3-D FPGA architectures. More specifically, the presented FPGA device achieves performance improvement, in terms of speed and energy dissipation of approximately 38% and 26%, respectively, as compared to 2-D FPGAs. Additionally, fewer interlayer resources are used, resulting in cheaper and more reliable devices.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section II, we describe the modeling of the 3-D FPGA, while the proposed architecture level exploration methodology is presented in Section III. In Section IV, we derive the architectural characteristics of the 3-D FPGA and a comparison between existing 2-D and 3-D FPGAs is performed. Finally, the main points of the paper are summarized in Section V.

II. MODELING OF THE 3-D FPGA ARCHITECTURE

Our target device consists of multiple functional layers, while the interlayer connectivity is provided by vertically aligned SBs. For our case study, the functionality of the employed SBs is similar to the SBs in Xilinx FPGAs [10]. Two different types of SBs are used. The first is a 2-D SB, where an incoming routing track can be connected to wires in the three other directions ($F_s = 3$) within the same layer, whereas the latter type of SB supports also connections to the third dimension (upper and lower layers) ($F_s = 5$). For the topmost and lowest layers of a 3-D stack the SBs have $F_s = 4$. The 2-D SB is formed by $6 \times W$ transistors, while the 3-D SB requires $15 \times W$ transistors, where W denotes the width of the routing channel. As discussed later, the increased number of transistors inside the 3-D SBs affects both the device performance and fabrication complexity. Consequently, the total number and the spatial location of the 3-D SBs in each layer should be chosen carefully.

Three means of interlayer communication are investigated. We evaluate the wire-bonding, the Face-to-Face (denoted as F2F), and the Face-to-Back (F2B or TSV) technologies. Note that the F2F approach is applicable only to 3-D devices composed solely of two layers. Regarding the spatial distribution of interlayer connections in the wire-bonding approach, the 3-D SBs are assigned to the periphery of each layer, while for the F2F and F2B technologies, the 3-D SBs can be assigned anywhere across the area of a layer.

III. EXPLORATION METHODOLOGY FOR 3-D FPGAS

In this section we provide a detailed description of the proposed methodology for building 3-D FPGAs. The methodology to explore and evaluate interconnection structures within 3-D FPGAs is depicted in Figure 1. A tool flow that embodies this methodology named 3-D MEANDER Framework has been developed [5]. The proposed methodology consists of four stages: (i) the application partitioning, (ii) the selection of parameters related to the 3-D architecture, (iii) the physical design of the application, and

(iv) the evaluation of the implementation of the application onto the derived 3-D FPGA device.

To the best of our knowledge, this toolset is the first complete framework (starting from an HDL description down to the generation of the configuration file) in academia for exploring and supporting the implementation of applications onto full-custom 3-D FPGAs.

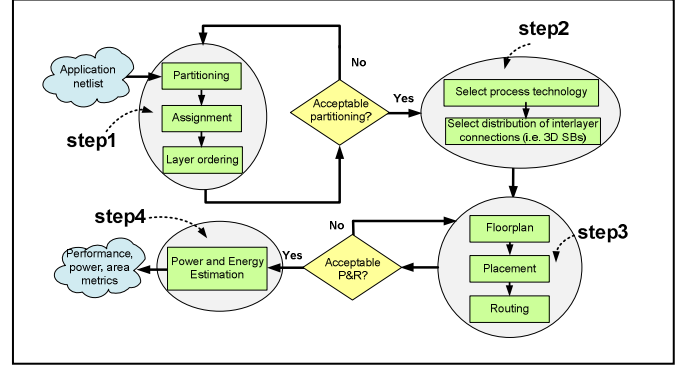


Figure 1. The proposed methodology for exploring 3-D FPGAs.

The first step of the proposed methodology deals with application partitioning. Initially, the application is partitioned to a number of sections, which is at least equal to the layers comprising the target 3-D FPGA. Then, these sections are grouped together based on specific features (*i.e.*, their functionality) of the architecture (or application). After the grouping task, we assign the resulting partitions to the physical layers. During this task, one (or more) partition(s) is (are) assigned to each of the 3-D FPGA layers. Finally, the last task of the first step deals with the layer ordering.

The results of the first step are crucial for achieving cheaper and more reliable 3-D architectural solutions. For instance, by reducing the number of signals that cross multiple partitions, we achieve higher utilization ratios for the fabricated interlayer connections. More specifically, for our study, the term utilization ratio is described by Equation (1)

$$utilization_{ratio} = \frac{Utilized\ interlayer\ resources}{Total\ interlayer\ resources}. \quad (1)$$

In order to automate the first step of the proposed methodology, we employ the CAD tool presented in [5]. In contrast to existing approaches [3, 9], which focus on reducing the interlayer communication, our algorithm exhibits higher flexibility, as the cost functions can be tuned to satisfy the specifications of the systems.

Then, a high-level estimation, based on the demand of the interlayer connectivity, is performed to determine the efficiency of the resulting application partitioning. Based on the design goals, the derived partitioning is either accepted or not. If an acceptable solution is derived, we proceed to the second step of our proposed methodology; otherwise the application is feedback to the first step for further improvement.

The output of the first step produces some guidelines regarding the demand of the interlayer communication fabric. This information is appropriately extracted and analyzed from the proposed methodology during the second step. More specifically, by studying the performance enhancement of numerous applications implemented onto 3-D FPGAs, where the interlayer connectivity is provided through one of the available integration technologies (*i.e.*, wire-bonding, F2F, and F2B), we determine both the total number of the actually required 3-D SBs, as well as their spatial distribution across each layer. Additionally, during the second step we also select the VLSI process technology for fabricating each of the functional layers that form the 3-D FPGA device.

During the third step of the proposed methodology, the application is floor-planned, placed and routed (P&R) onto the selected 3-D FPGA. Each of these tasks is performed simultaneously for all of the device layers, in order to appropriately propagate constraints among layers. This step is implemented by our P&R tool, named 3DPRO [5].

Similar to the output of the first step, after the physical implementation there is a conditional statement that checks the quality of the P&R of the application. If the gains of the resulting implementation are not acceptable, there is a feedback for additional improvements.

Finally, the efficiency of the resulting implementation of the application is evaluated through several design parameters. These parameters include the maximum operating frequency, the power/energy consumption, as well as the *utilization_{ratio}* of the interlayer communication fabric.

IV. DESIGNING HETEROGENEOUS 3-D FPGAS

In this section we provide the results of the architecture-level exploration of heterogeneous 3-D FPGAs. This heterogeneity is based on three concepts. We study the effect of employing layers composed by a limited number of 3-D SBs (as compared to existing approaches [4, 6]), while the spatial assignment of 3-D SBs across each layer is determined based on previous results [5]. We also discuss the usage of alternative bonding technologies in order to build the 3-D FPGA (namely TSV, F2F, and wire-bonding). Finally, we analyze a scenario where the layers of the 3-D FPGA are fabricated with different VLSI process technologies (ranging from 45 nm up to 180 nm).

A. Investigate the demand for interlayer connectivity

In order to investigate the actual demand for interlayer connectivity, Figure 2 visualizes this parameter across a 3-D FPGA consisting of three functional layers. Based on the results depicted in this figure, we conclude that the demand for interlayer communication varies between two arbitrary points (x_1, y_1, z_1) and (x_2, y_2, z_2) of the FPGA device, even for 3-D SBs placed on adjacent spatial locations within the same layer. More specifically, the utilization ratio of vertical connectivity gradually decreases from the center of each layer to the periphery or from the middle of the 3-D stack to the top/bottom layers. This occurs due to the inherent feature of

the placement algorithms that physically map the applications from the center of each layer to its periphery (as at the center of the layers there are more degrees of freedom to reduce the perimeter of the bounding-box).

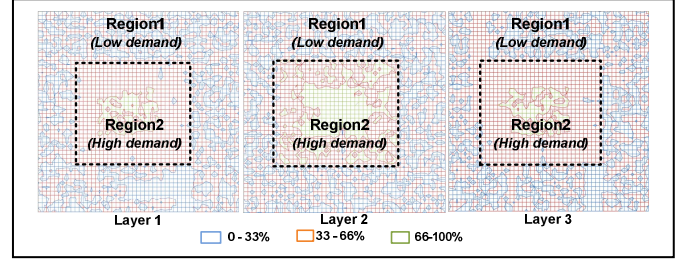


Figure 2. Variation of the demand for interlayer connections.

Ideally, we have to employ a continuously varying density of interlayer connectivity at each (x, y, z) point of the 3-D architecture, producing a totally irregular device. In order to avoid such an ASIC-based design, we introduce a piecewise homogeneous interconnection architecture consisting of a few regular regions. By selecting to design each of the layers with the same percentage as well as distribution of 3-D SBs across the layers, (rather than making separate masks for each of them), we achieve to reduce significantly the fabrication cost.

B. 3-D architectures with limited interlayer connections

An example of defining the regions with different density of interlayer fabric is illustrated in Figure 3. This layer consists of slices which are divided into two regions based on the spatial/statistic results of the actual utilization of interlayer connections, as shown in Figure 2. The distribution of 3-D SBs onto this layer is described by the vector $\vec{r} = \{1, 2\}$, where the values of this vector denote the Manhattan distance between successive 3-D SBs belonging to region i . To determine the exact spatial locations of the distributed interlayer routing fabric for F2F or F2B technologies, we apply the following procedure: Initially, we assign a 3-D SB on a spatial location (x, y, z) . For each of the already assigned 3-D SBs the four neighbors of each SB are successively placed to the locations $(x + [r_i], y, z)$, $(x - [r_i], y, z)$, $(x, y + [r_i], z)$ and $(x, y - [r_i], z)$, respectively. r_i is the corresponding value of the $\vec{r}$ vector of the initially assigned 3-D SB. For the wire-bonding approach, we have determined that the optimal distribution of 3-D SBs (across the layer periphery) is described by vector $\vec{r} = \{2\}$.

The values of the $\vec{r}$ vector are determined after evaluating a representative number of applications belonging to different application domains. The $\vec{r}$ vectors, however, can differ if the 3-D FPGA targets specific application-domain solutions (*i.e.*, DSP and multimedia).

The proposed approach should not be thought as a SB depopulation technique, as there is no SB removal. More specifically, starting from a device where the layers have solely 2-D SBs, we selectively assign 3-D SBs on parts of the layers (based on an approach similar to that shown in Figure

3). The resulting FPGA device consists of a combination of 2-D and 3-D SBs. The formed 3-D FPGA is characterized by factor K (described by Equation (2)), which defines the percentage of 3-D SBs over all the SBs of the device

$$K(\%) = \frac{\text{Number of 3D SBs on the FPGA}}{\text{Total number of SBs (2D+3D) on the FPGA}} \quad (2)$$

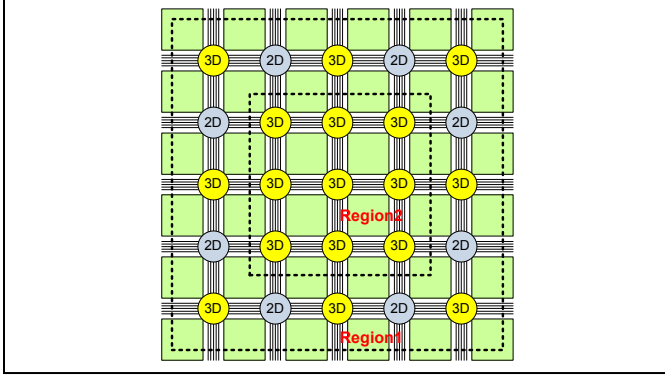


Figure 3. Abstract view of the proposed 3-D SB distribution over layers.

C. Investigate the impact of using alternative bonding technologies

In this paragraph we investigate the impact of using 3-D FPGAs, where the bonding technology among layers is either wire-bonding, TSV, or F2F. The employed experimental setup can be summarized, as follows:

- The 3-D FPGA consists of up to four functional layers.
- The hardware resources among layers are identical.
- The interlayer connections are realized inside 3-D SBs.
- The RLC parameters (shown in Table I) for the interlayer fabric are extracted from the state-of-the-art solutions published in literature [8, 15].

TABLE I. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE ALTERNATIVE 3-D TECHNOLOGIES

Wire-bonding [15]	F2F [8]	F2B [8]
Length: 1 mm	Diameter: 1.7um	Diameter: 1.2 um
Inductance: 2 nH	Min. Pitch: 2.4um	Min. Pitch: 4 um
Capacitance: 0.3 pF	Resistance: 0.15Ω	Resistance: 0.35 Ω
	Capacitance: 0.25fF	Capacitance: 2.5 fF
	Height: 4-9um	Height: 4-9 um

Figure 4 plots in normalized manner (over the 2-D architecture) the variation of delay with energy consumption for 3-D FPGAs with three different integration technologies (wire-bonding, F2F, and F2B), and different number of layers. A number of conclusions can be derived from this graph.

For specific 3-D technologies, the increase in device layers results in energy savings and delay reduction. Additionally, given the number of layers, a 3-D device with TSV or F2F technology outperforms the wire-bonding technology. Furthermore, our results indicate that the improvement in performance is a strong function of the manufacturing technology. Alternatively, the number of layers of the 3-D FPGA comparatively offers a smaller improvement in

performance. For instance, F2B or TSV technologies result in greater improvement in performance, as compared to 3-D FPGAs with wire-bonding technology consisting of a larger number of layers. As the number of device layers is directly related to the fabrication cost, fewer layers result in cheaper products. Consequently, the tradeoffs between the improvement in performance, design complexity and cost due to alternative bonding technologies should be carefully considered.

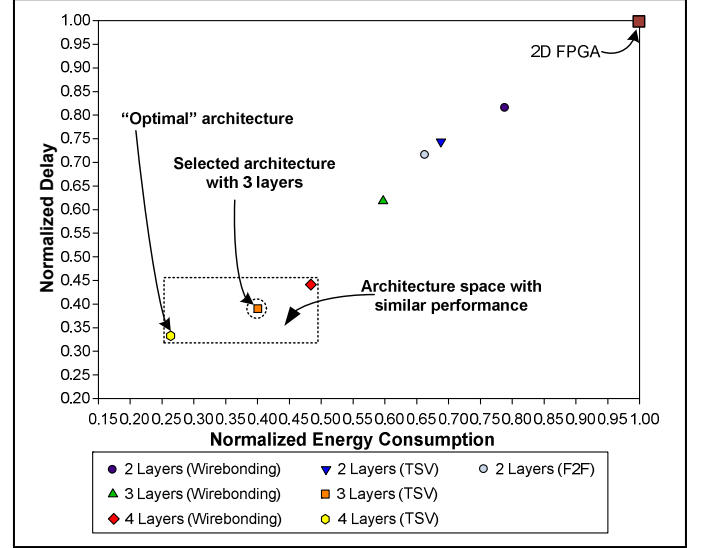


Figure 4. The Pareto solutions for evaluating alternative 3-D FPGA devices in terms of delay and energy consumption.

Based on the results provided in Figure 4, the architecture with minimum delay and energy consumption contains four layers, where a TSV manufacturing technology is used. This architecture, marked as “Optimal architecture” in Figure 4, achieves the maximum gains in delay and energy consumption. More specifically, this device reduces the delay and the energy consumption by almost 75% and 67%, respectively, as compared to a conventional 2-D FPGA with identical hardware resources.

Alternatively, the design complexity of building 3-D FPGAs can be significantly improved by either decreasing the number of layers and/or using another bonding technology. These alternative approaches encompass a small penalty in the speed and energy consumption of the system. Therefore, in Figure 4 we group a number of 3-D FPGAs that exhibit comparable performance metrics as compared to the optimal architecture. By varying the delay and energy consumption of up to 15% and 25%, respectively, we consider devices (inscribed within a dotted rectangular) consisting of fewer layers, while exhibiting comparable performance.

As we are interested in applying the proposed methodology to design a general-purpose 3-D FPGA, we select as a case study a device which exhibits the following features: (i) high operating frequencies (or smaller delay), (ii) low energy consumption, and (iii) reduced design complexity. Based on

these criteria, the architecture marked in Figure 4 as “Optimal” exhibits superior performance regarding criteria (i) and (ii); however, the increased design complexity of this device composed of four layers results in a non-optimal solution.

Consequently, we choose as a case study, a 3-D FPGA with three layers interconnected with a TSV technology. This device, shown as “Selected architecture” in Figure 4, exhibits comparable performance metrics with the “Optimal architecture” (average increase in delay and energy consumption of almost 13% and 8%, respectively), while requiring fewer layers.

D. Investigate the impact of employing different VLSI technologies

Next, we study the impact of fabricating the functional layers of the 3-D FPGA with different VLSI process technologies, ranging from 45 nm up to 180 nm. In this experiment we evaluate the gains of using devices consisting of up to four layers, while the bonding technology provided either by wire-bonding, F2F, or TSV. For sake of completeness, we also provide results for conventional (*i.e.*, 2-D) FPGA devices. The results of this comparison are summarized in Figure 5. The vertical axis of this figure demonstrates the normalized EDP over the maximum EDP among alternative implementations, while the horizontal axis corresponds to the alternative 3D architectures.

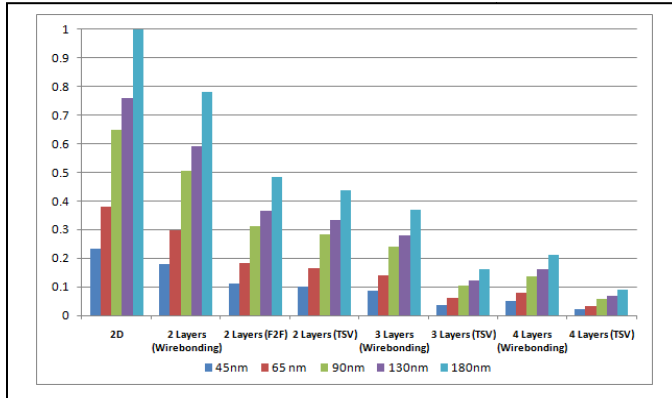


Figure 5. Comparison in terms of EDP for the 3-D FPGAs at different technology nodes.

Based on Figure 5, we can conclude that technology scaling offers higher improvements for both 2-D and 3-D FPGAs. In addition, the relative gains of fabricating a 3-D chip in advanced VLSI technologies are practically invariable among different bonding approaches. Thus, 3-D FPGAs with fewer layers can achieve comparable improvement in performance as compared to other 3-D architectures fabricated with more layers but at an older technology node. This tradeoff can be useful to decrease the fabrication cost, since older VLSI technologies are cheaper, and they offer higher yield.

E. Investigate the percentage of utilized interlayer connections

In order to investigate the percentage of actually utilized interlayer connections, we employ a scenario where all of the SBs can form connections to the adjacent layers (*i.e.*, 3-D SBs). This architecture is the existing approach for designing 3-D FPGAs [4, 6]. However, as shown in Figure 2, the actual demand for interlayer connections is not uniformly distributed across the layers of the 3-D stack. Based on previous results [5], we have shown that when a 3-D FPGA is composed of three layers and $K = 30\%$ 3-D SBs, the interlayer routing resources are more efficiently utilized.

To demonstrate that heterogeneous interconnect fabrics (combination of 2-D and 3-D SBs) produce comparable or superior performance as compared to homogeneous interconnect fabrics in 3-D FPGAs, the proposed methodology has been evaluated on the 20 largest MCNC benchmark applications. These benchmark applications are implemented on two 3-D FPGAs, each of which consists of three layers (designed in 90nm CMOS technology) and the same logic resources but with a different number of 3-D SBs (*i.e.*, different K). The vertical axis in Figure 6 corresponds to the utilization ratio of interlayer connections, over the total fabricated interlayer connections.

The results showing the percentage of actually utilized interlayer connections (denoted as $K\%$) are summarized in Figure 6. Based on these results, the percentage of utilized interlayer connections for architectures consisting of $K = 30\%$ and $K = 100\%$ 3-D SBs is about 43% and 46%, respectively. This result shows that the utilization ratio for this type of routing resources is almost constant, if these connections exceed a minimum density threshold, which is required for the application to be routable.

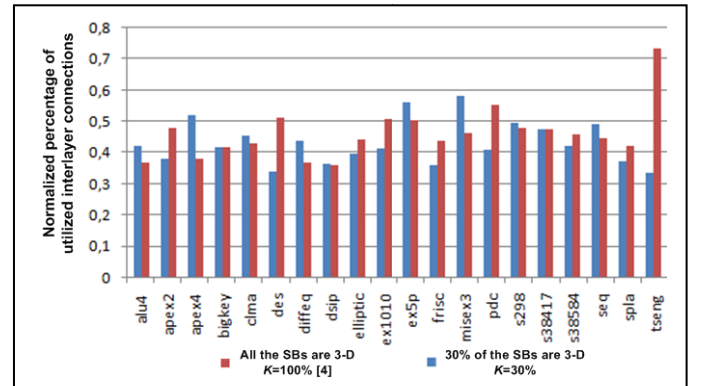


Figure 6. Comparison results of the 20 largest MCNC benchmark applications: Via utilization in a 3-D FPGA architecture (with $K = 30\%$ and $K = 100\%$ [4]).

In other words, the interconnection network is not significantly improved by incorporating more vertical connections (*i.e.*, by replacing 2-D SBs with 3-D). This behavior occurs due to the inefficiency of the routing

algorithms to manage the additional interlayer connection, beyond a specified threshold density.

In order to exhaustively evaluate the behavior of architectures with fewer interlayer connections, we provide experimental results for another two 3-D FPGAs. Each of these 3-D FPGAs consists of three layers, assuming a 90 nm CMOS technology, while the interlayer communication is provided through TSVs. These alternative 3-D FPGAs differ in the amount of 3-D SBs placed on each layer. We explore the efficiency of implementing various applications, in terms of EDP, onto the proposed 3-D FPGAs with $K = 30\%$, as compared to a scenario where $K = 100\%$. For shake of completeness, we also provide results for 2-D FPGAs with identical logic resources. The comparison results are provided in Figure 7.

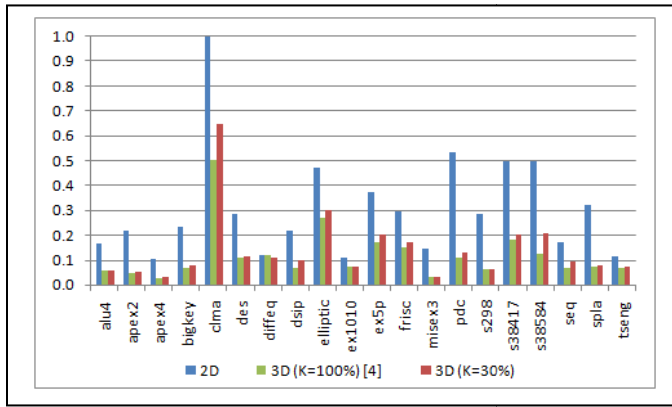


Figure 7. Comparison results in terms of EDP for the MCNC benchmark applications: Implementation in 2-D and 3-D FPGAs with three layers where $K = 30\%$ and $K = 100\%$ [4] of interlayer communication fabric.

From this figure, the 3-D architectures achieve average EDP reduction, as compared to conventional (*i.e.*, 2-D) FPGAs, ranging from 55% (for the “Proposed” architecture) to 62% for an architecture with $K = 100\%$. These results demonstrate that the proposed methodology for designing 3-D FPGAs with a reduced number of 3-D SBs, as well as the supporting CAD tools from the 3-D MEANDER Framework, can achieve comparable performance improvements with existing approaches [4, 6] where all of the SBs can form connections to the adjacent layers. However, the fewer interlayer connections result in a decrease in fabrication cost.

V. CONCLUSIONS

A systematic methodology for exploring and evaluating alternative 3-D FPGA architectures is presented. The methodology is supported by the 3-D MEANDER Framework. The proposed methodology was applied to evaluate alternative 3-D bonding styles (*i.e.*, wire-bonding, F2F, TSV) and technology nodes (ranging from 45nm up to 180nm). The experimental results show that the proposed 3-D FPGAs achieve performance improvements in terms of delay and energy dissipation of almost 38% and 26%, respectively, as compared to 2-D FPGAs. Additionally, these gains are

achieved in addition to decreasing the amount of interlayer connections, as compared to existing design approaches for 3-D FPGAs. Thus, new opportunities for improving the yield and reducing the design complexity of 3-D FPGAs emerge. Finally, we demonstrate that 3-D FPGA devices with fewer interlayer connections exhibit similar efficiency (in terms of EDP) with FPGA devices that contain significantly more interconnection resources.

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