

# CPE 690: Introduction to VLSI Design

## Lecture 11

### Combinational Logic

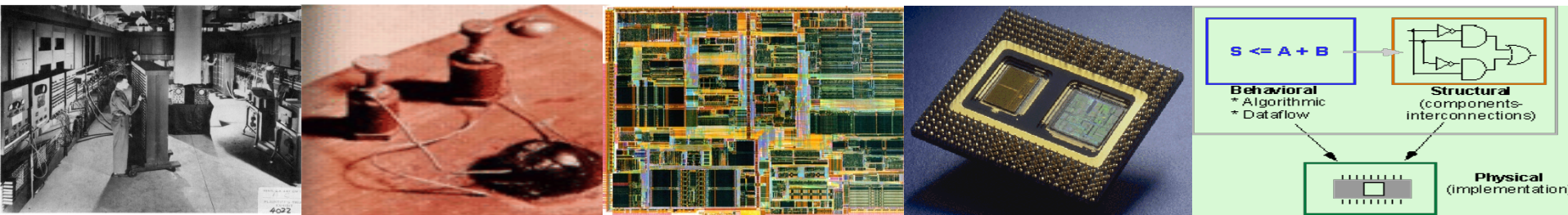
Bryan Ackland

Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering

Stevens Institute of Technology

Hoboken, NJ 07030

Adapted from Lecture Notes, David Mahoney Harris CMOS VLSI Design



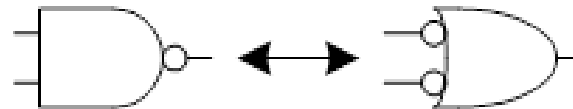
# Combinational Logic Families

- Combinational circuits: outputs depend only on current inputs (no memory)
- CMOS Combinational Circuit Families:
  - Static (compound) gates
  - Ratio'ed CMOS gates
  - Dynamic CMOS gates
  - Pass Transistor Logic
- Compound Gates: complimentary N and P networks that ensure gate is always driven high or low (but not both)
- Techniques to optimize compound gates
  - Bubble pushing
  - Input ordering
  - Asymmetric gates
  - Skewed gates

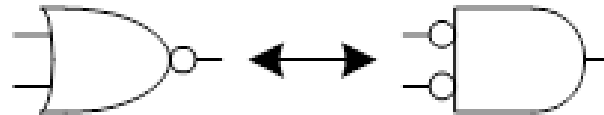
# Bubble Pushing

- Logic traditionally expressed in terms of AND & OR
- CMOS compound gates are always inverting
  - NAND, NOR, INV etc.
- “Push bubbles” around to reformat logic expressions in form amenable to CMOS compound gates
- DeMorgan's Law:

$$\overline{A \cdot B} = \bar{A} + \bar{B}$$

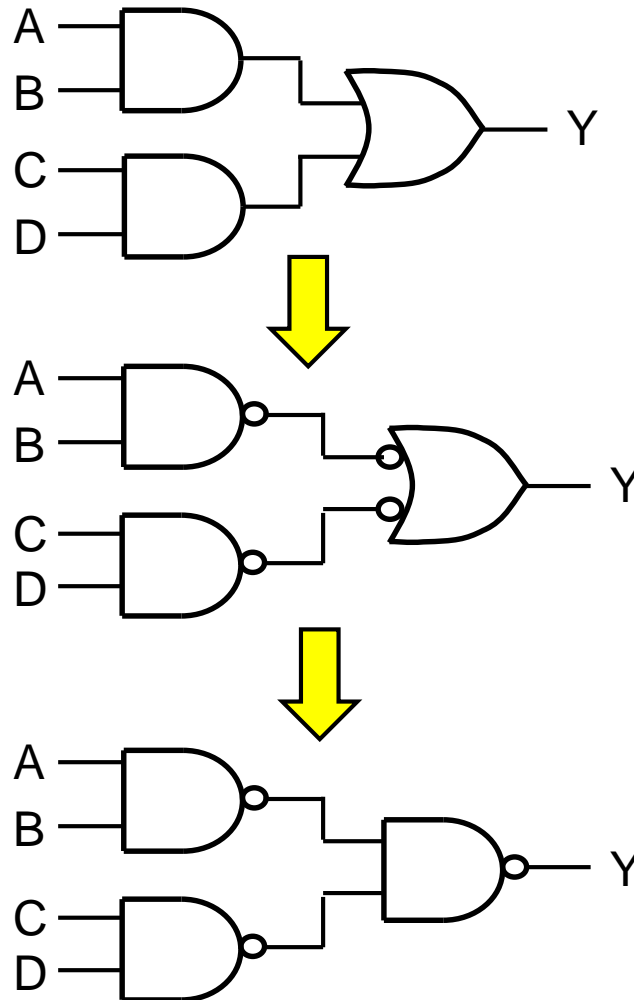


$$\overline{A + B} = \bar{A} \cdot \bar{B}$$



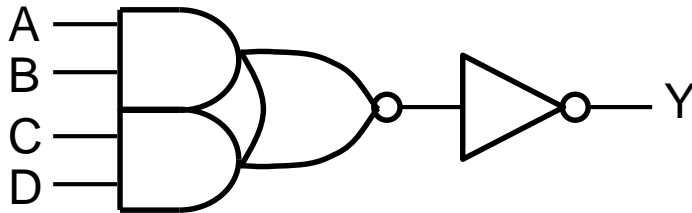
# Example: AOI22

- $Y = A.B + C.D$ 
  - used frequently as 2-input multiplexer:  $Y = \bar{S}.I_0 + S.I_1$

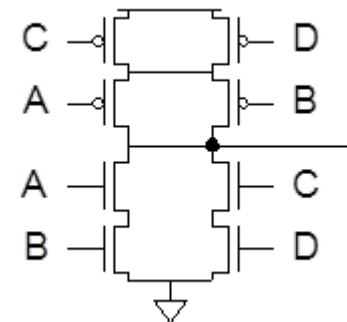
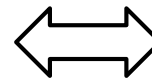
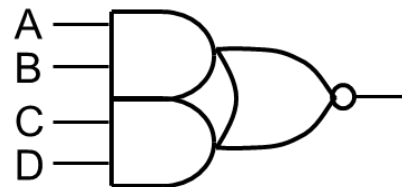


## Example: Alternate Solution

- $Y = A.B + C.D$
- Implement as a single-stage compound gate plus inverter:



where



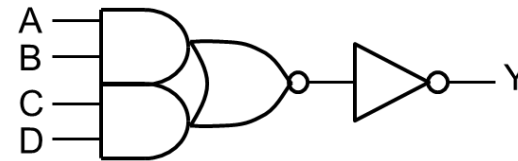
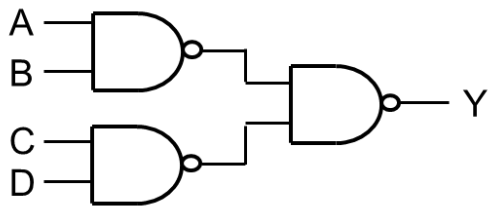
- *Which implementation is better?*

## Example: Compare delays

- Suppose the  $Y = A.B + C.D$  function must drive a load of 160 units of capacitance and is limited to a  $C_{in}$  of 16 units of capacitance on each input.

$$H = 160/16 = 10 \quad B = 1$$

$$N = 2$$



$$P = 2 + 2 = 4$$

$$P = 4 + 1 = 5$$

$$G = 4/3 \times 4/3 = 16/9$$

$$G = 2 \times 1 = 2$$

$$F = G.B.H = 160/9$$

$$F = G.B.H = 20$$

$$\hat{f} = \sqrt[N]{F} = 4.2$$

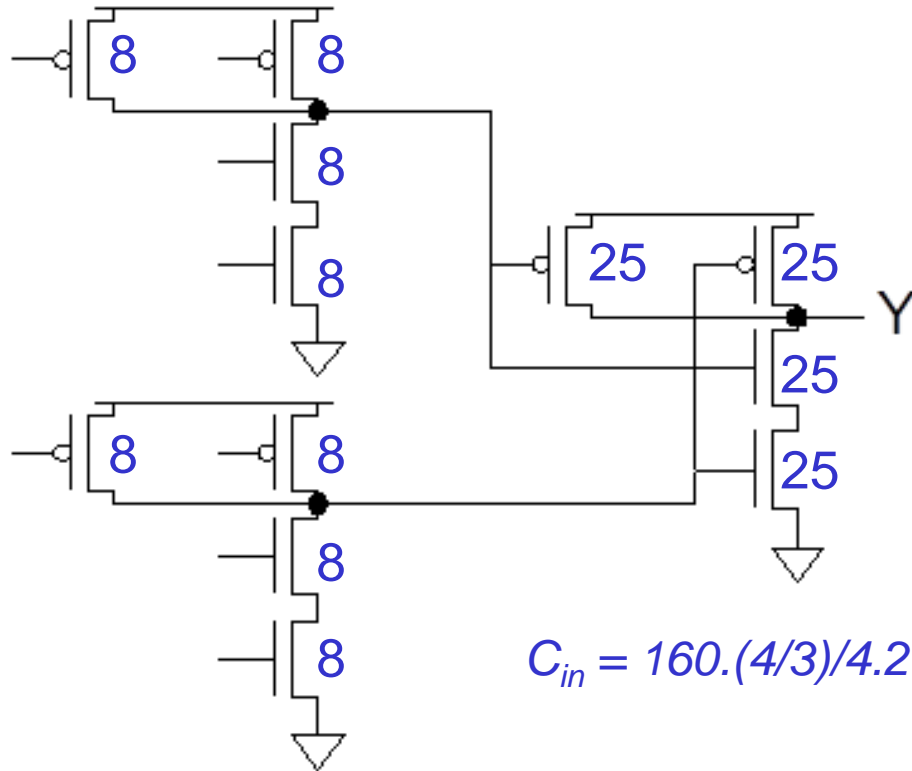
$$\hat{f} = \sqrt[N]{F} = 4.5$$

$$D = N.\hat{f} + P = 12.4\tau$$

$$D = N.\hat{f} + P = 14\tau \quad 6$$

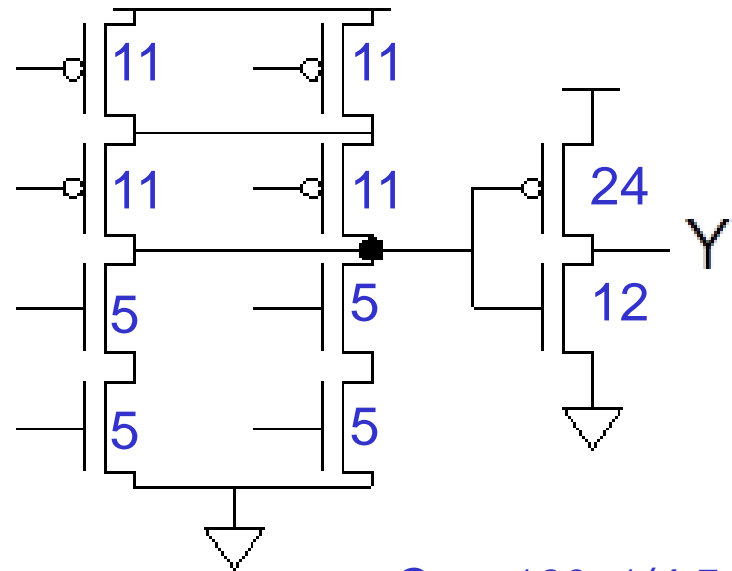
# Example: Determine Transistor Sizes

$$C_{in} = 50.(4/3)/4.2 = 16$$



$$C_{in} = 160.(4/3)/4.2 = 50$$

$$C_{in} = 36 \times 2 / 4.5 = 16$$



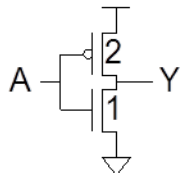
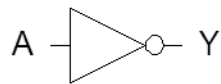
$$C_{in} = 160 \times 1 / 4.5 = 36$$

# Logical Effort of Compound Gates

- In general, logical effort of compound gate depends on which input path is passing through:

unit inverter

$$Y = \bar{A}$$

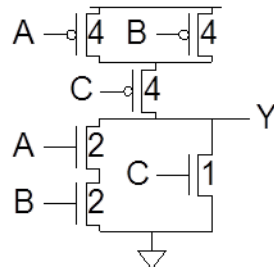
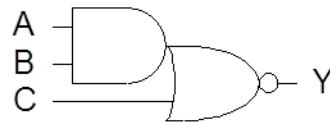


$$g_A = 3/3$$

$$p = 3/3$$

AOI21

$$Y = \overline{A \cdot B + C}$$



$$g_A = 6/3$$

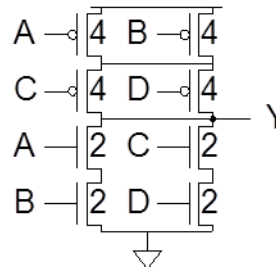
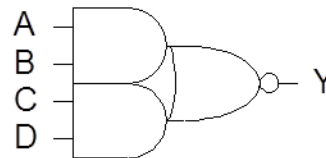
$$g_B = 6/3$$

$$g_C = 5/3$$

$$p = 7/3$$

AOI22

$$Y = \overline{A \cdot B + C \cdot D}$$



$$g_A = 6/3$$

$$g_B = 6/3$$

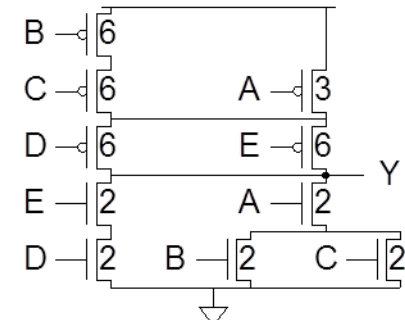
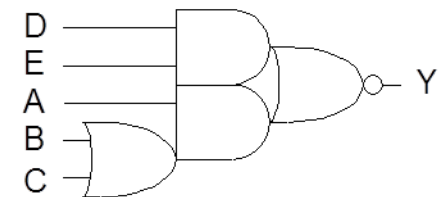
$$g_C = 6/3$$

$$g_D = 6/3$$

$$p = 12/3$$

Complex AOI

$$Y = \overline{A \cdot (B + C) + D \cdot E}$$



$$g_A = 5/3$$

$$g_B = 8/3$$

$$g_C = 8/3$$

$$g_D = 8/3$$

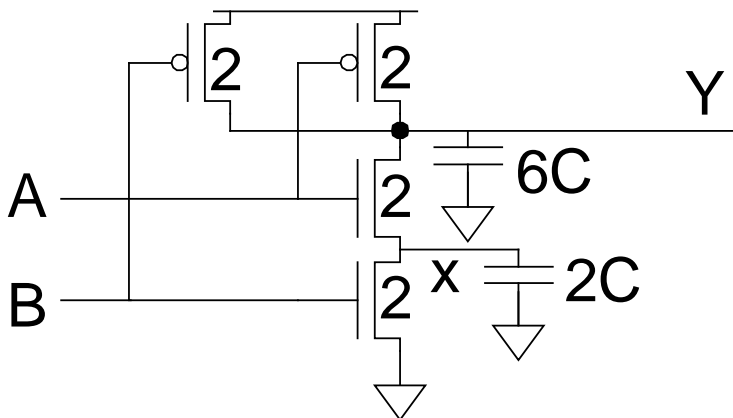
$$g_E = 8/3$$

$$p = 16/3$$



# Input Ordering Delay

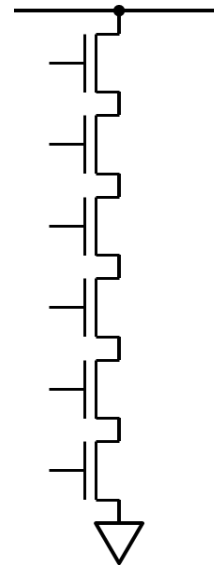
- When using *logical effort*, our parasitic delay model only accounted for *capacitance* on output node
- Recall that *Elmore delay* allows us to account for *capacitance* on intermediate nodes
  - then nominally symmetric gates (NAND, NOR etc) will show different parasitic delays at different inputs
- Calculate NAND2 parasitic (Elmore) delay for Y falling
  - If B arrives latest?  $p = (R/2)(2C) + R(6C) = 7RC = 2.33\tau$
  - If A arrives latest?  $p = R(6C) = 6RC = 2\tau$



# Inner vs. Outer Inputs

- *Inner* input is closest to output (A)
- *Outer* input is closest to rail (B)
- Effect is more pronounced with higher fan-in gates
- e.g., a NAND6 has parasitic delays:

$6\tau$  (innermost)  
 $7.7\tau$   
 $9\tau$   
 $10\tau$   
 $10.7\tau$   
 $11\tau$  (outermost)

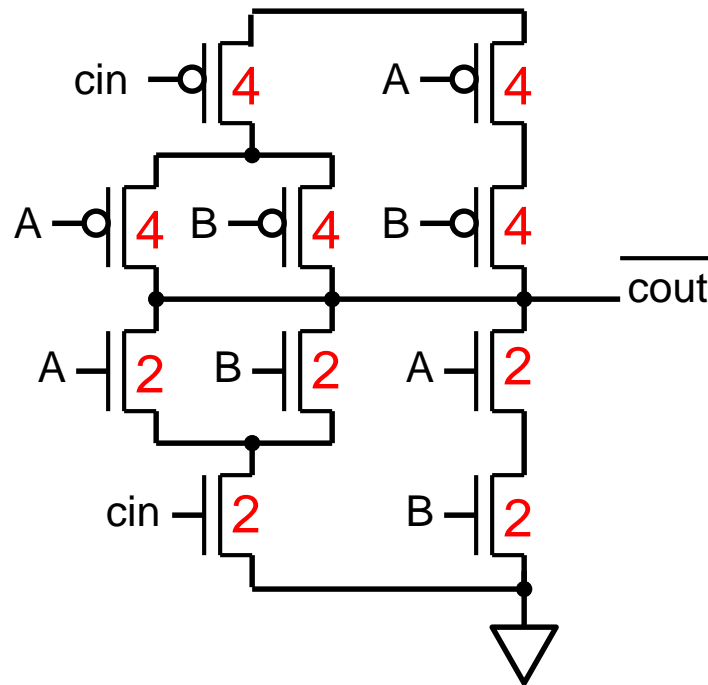


*almost 2:1 variation!*

- If input arrival time is known
  - Connect “latest” input to inner-most terminal

# Example: Carry Ripple Delay

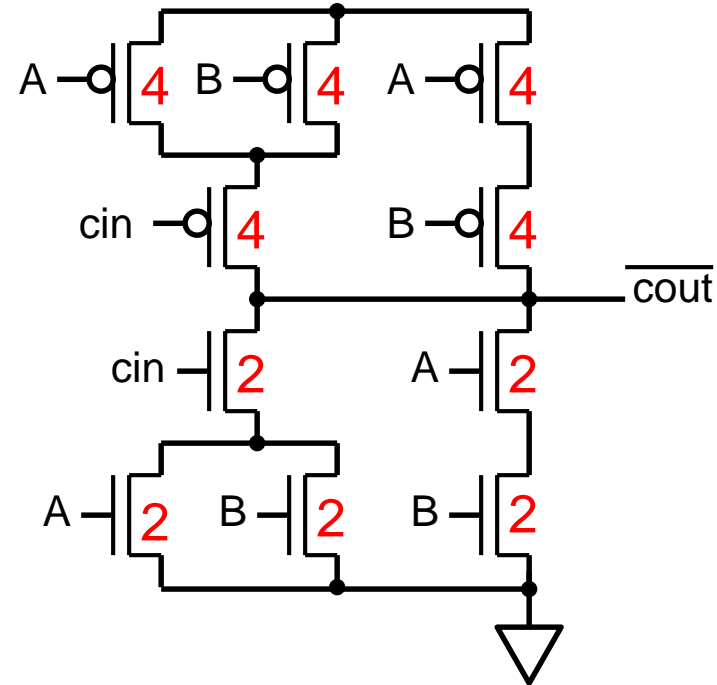
- Need to minimize delay from  $cin$  to  $cout$
- $\overline{cout} = \overline{a \cdot b + cin(a + b)}$



$$p_d = (R/2)(6C) + R(18C)$$

$$= 21RC = 7\tau$$

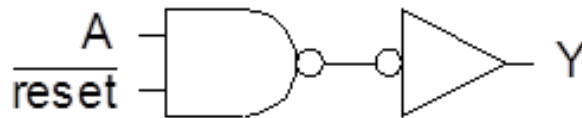
$$p_u = 24RC = 8\tau$$



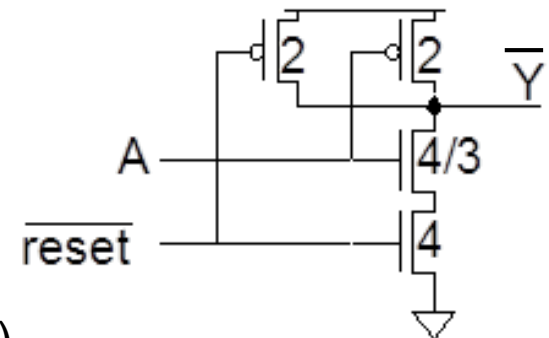
$$p_d = p_u = R(12C) = 12RC = 4\tau$$

# Asymmetric Gates

- In addition to choosing innermost gate, we can change relative size of inner and outer transistors
- Ex: suppose input A of a NAND gate is most critical

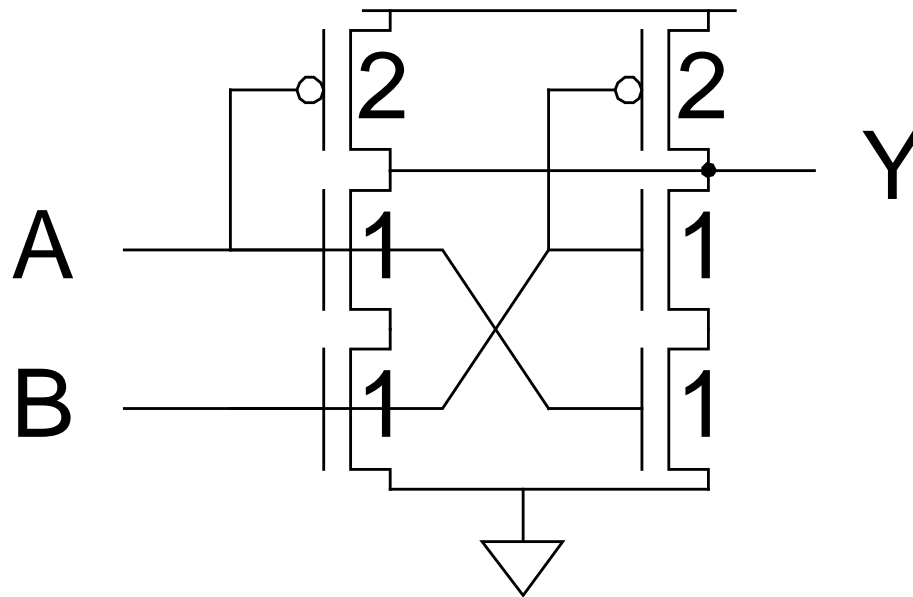


- Use smaller transistor on A (less capacitance)
  - Boost size of noncritical input so total resistance is same
- $g_A = 10/9$  (normally NAND2 is  $4/3$ )
- $p_A = 16/9$  (normally 2)
- $g_{\text{reset}} = (6/3) = 2$ ,  $p_{\text{reset}} = 19/9$
- $g_{\text{avg}} = (g_A + g_{\text{reset}})/2 = 14/9$  (normally  $12/9$ )
- As asymmetry increases,  $g \Rightarrow 1$  on critical input
  - at expense of much greater delay on non-critical input



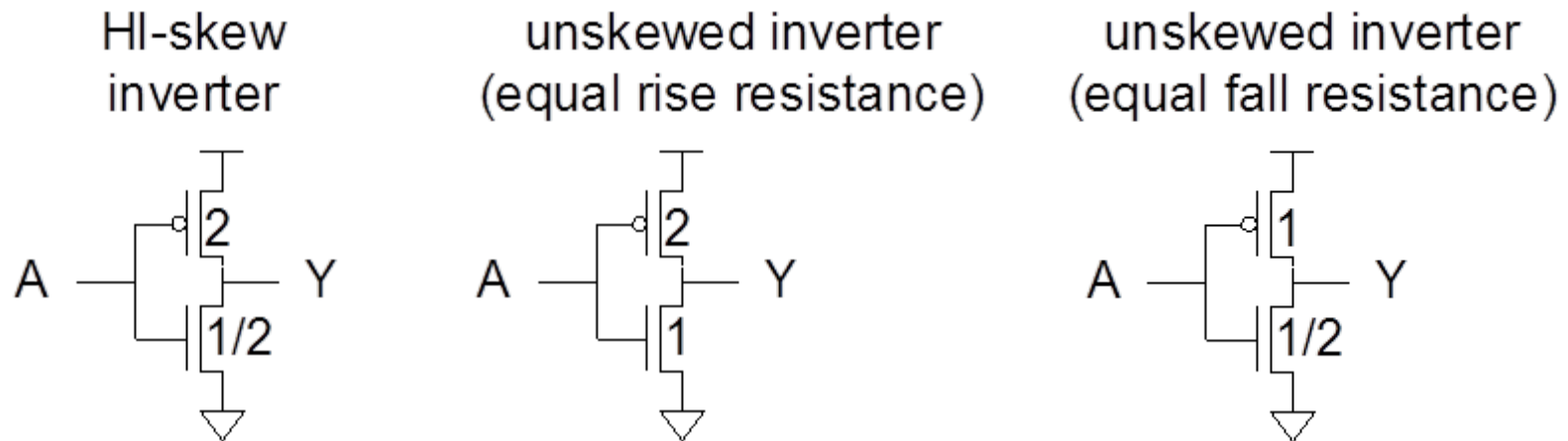
# Symmetric Gates

- Can we build a perfectly symmetric gate?



# Skewed Gates

- Skewed gates favor one edge over another
- Ex: suppose rising output of inverter is most critical
  - downsize noncritical nMOS transistor



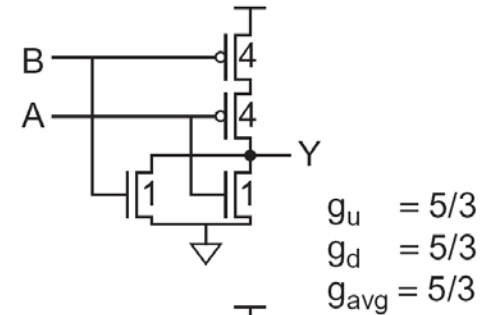
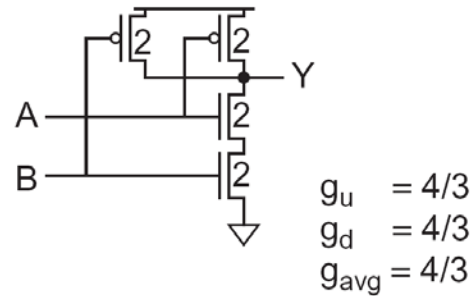
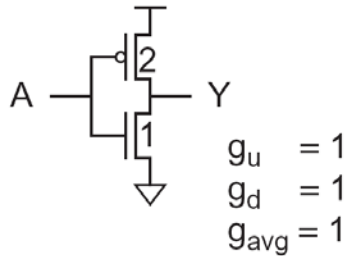
- Calculate logical effort by comparing to un-skewed inverter with same effective resistance on that edge.
  - $g_u = 2.5 / 3 = 5/6$
  - $g_d = 2.5 / 1.5 = 5/3$

# HI and LO Skew

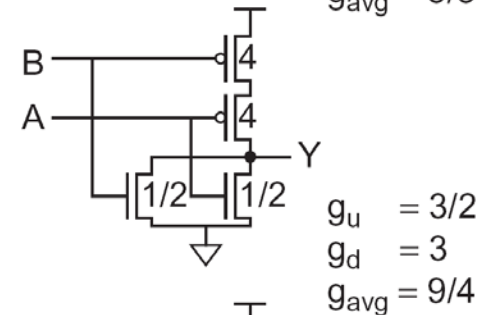
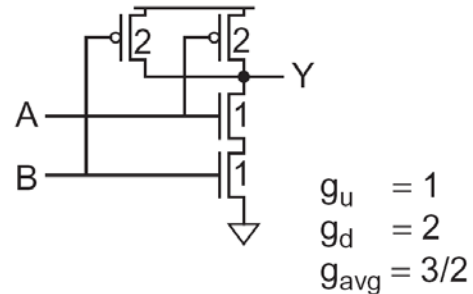
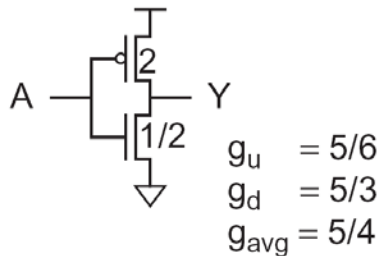
- Define: Logical effort of a skewed gate for a particular transition is the ratio of the input capacitance of that gate to the input capacitance of an un-skewed inverter delivering the same output current for the same transition.
- Skewed gates reduce size of noncritical transistors
  - HI-skew gates favor rising output (small nMOS)
  - LO-skew gates favor falling output (small pMOS)
- Reduced logical effort in the favored direction
  - at expense of larger logical effort in the other direction
  - also reduced noise margin

# HI and LO Skew

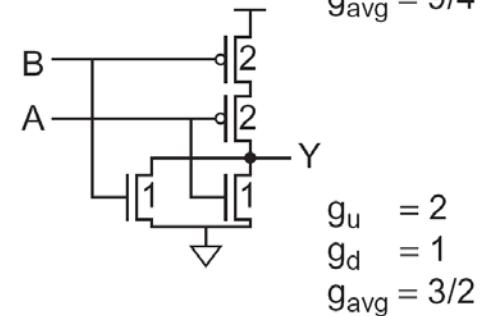
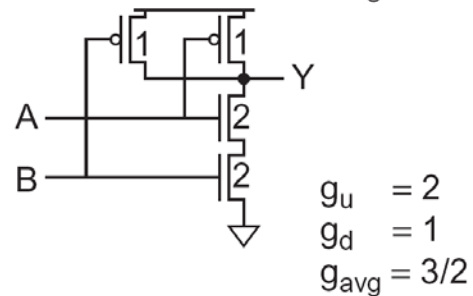
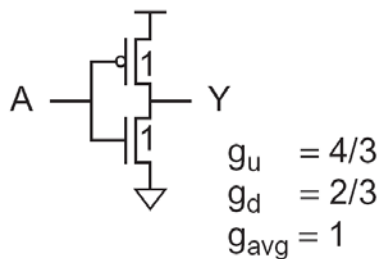
Unskewed



HI-skew



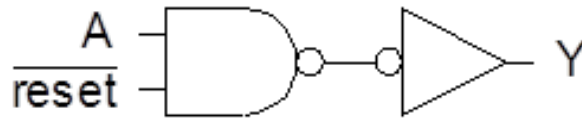
LO-skew



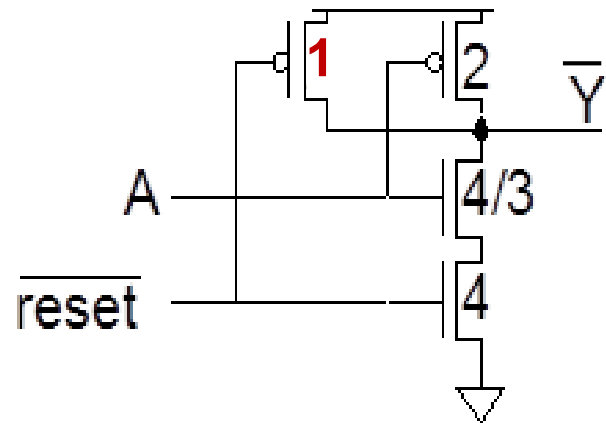


# Asymmetric + Skew

- ❑ Combine asymmetric and skewed gates
  - Downsize noncritical transistor on unimportant input
  - Reduces parasitic delay for critical input

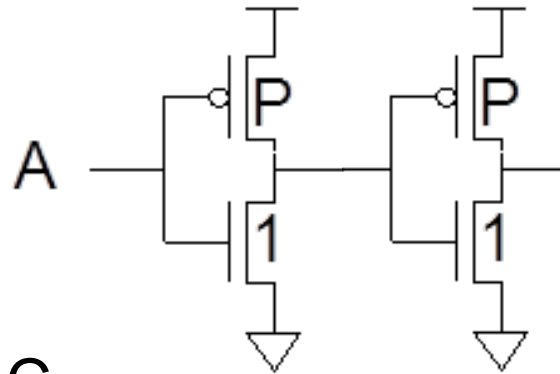


- $g_A = 10/9$  (normally NAND2 is  $4/3$ )
- $p_A = 13/9$  (normally 2)
- $g_{\text{reset}} = (5/1.5) = 10/3$
- $g_{\text{avg}} = (g_A + g_{\text{reset}})/2 = 20/9$  (normally  $12/9$ )



# What is best nominal P/N ratio?

- We normally set P/N ratio for equal rise and fall resistance ( $\mu = \mu_n/\mu_p = 2-3$  for an inverter).
- Alternative: choose ratio for least average delay
- Ex: Calculate delay of inverter driving identical inverter



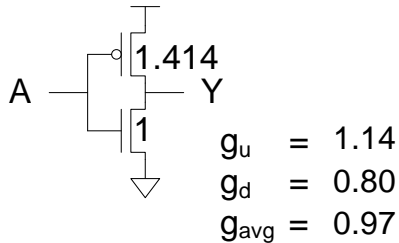
- $t_{pdf} = 2.(P+1).RC$
- $t_{pdr} = 2.(P+1)(\mu/P).RC$
- $t_{pd} = 2.RC.(P+1).(1+\mu/P)/2 = RC.(P + 1 + \mu + \mu/P)$
- Least delay when  $dt_{pd} / dP = RC.(1 - \mu/P^2) = 0$
- when  $P = \sqrt{\mu}$

# P/N Ratios

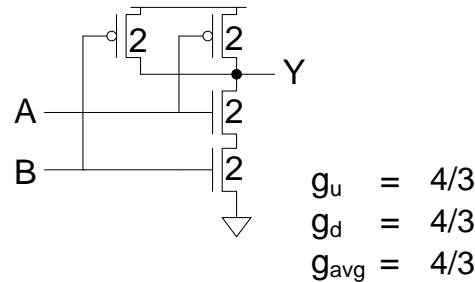
- ❑ In general, **fastest avg.** P/N ratio is *sqrt* of **equal delay** ratio.
  - Only improves average delay slightly for inverters
  - But significantly decreases area and power

fastest  
P/N ratio

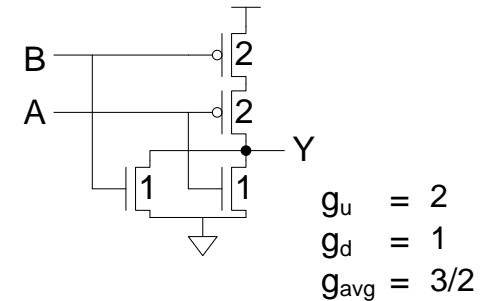
Inverter



NAND2



NOR2

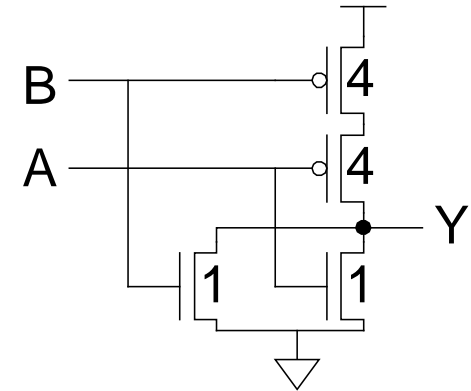


# Observations

- For speed:
  - NAND vs. NOR
  - Many simple stages vs. fewer high fan-in stages
  - Latest-arriving input
- For area and power:
  - Many simple stages vs. fewer high fan-in stages
- P/N ratio should be chosen on the basis of area & power, not average delay
  - In most standard cell libraries, the pitch of the cell influences P/N ratio of individual gates

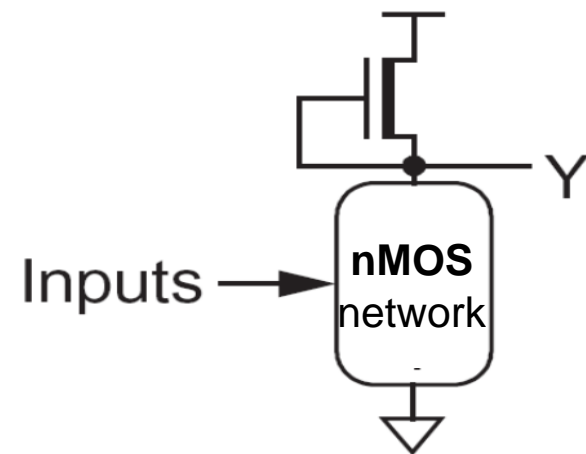
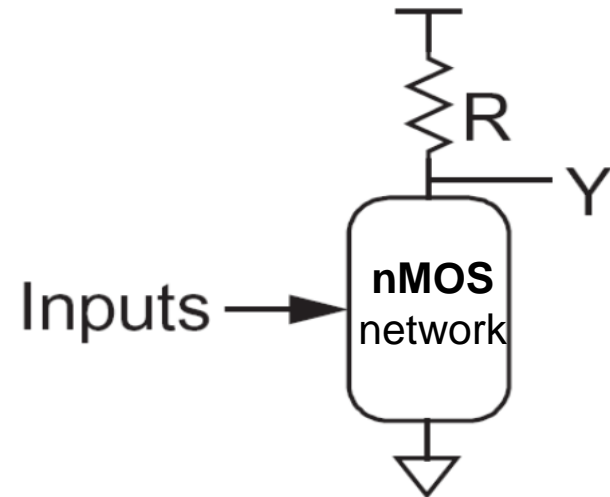
# Beyond Static CMOS

- What makes a circuit fast?
  - $I = C \, dV/dt \rightarrow t_{pd} \propto (C/I) \Delta V$
  - low capacitance
  - high current
  - small swing
- Logical effort is proportional to  $C/I$
- pMOS transistors are the enemy!
  - High capacitance for a given current
- Can we take the pMOS capacitance off the input?
- Various circuit families try to do this...



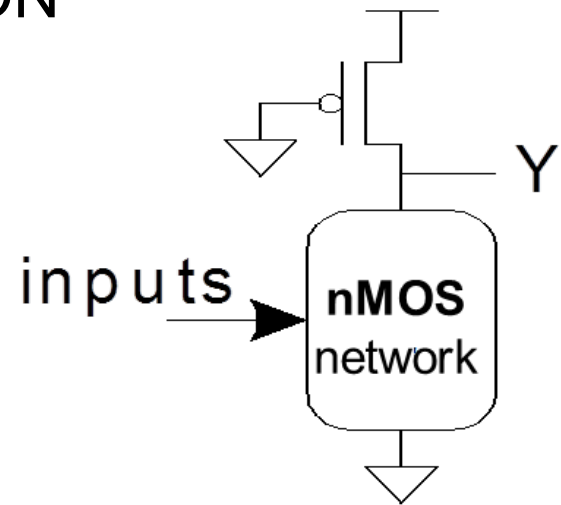
# Ratio'd Circuits

- Ratio's circuits use a passive pullup instead of active pMOS devices.
  - when nMOS network is not conducting, output is high
  - when nMOS network is conducting, it is stronger than R and pulls output low
  - resistors are impractically large
- Before CMOS, nMOS logic families used depletion device as passive load
  - depletion transistor has  $V_T < 0$
- Unlike complimentary CMOS, ratio of transistor sizes must be carefully chosen to ensure correct operation



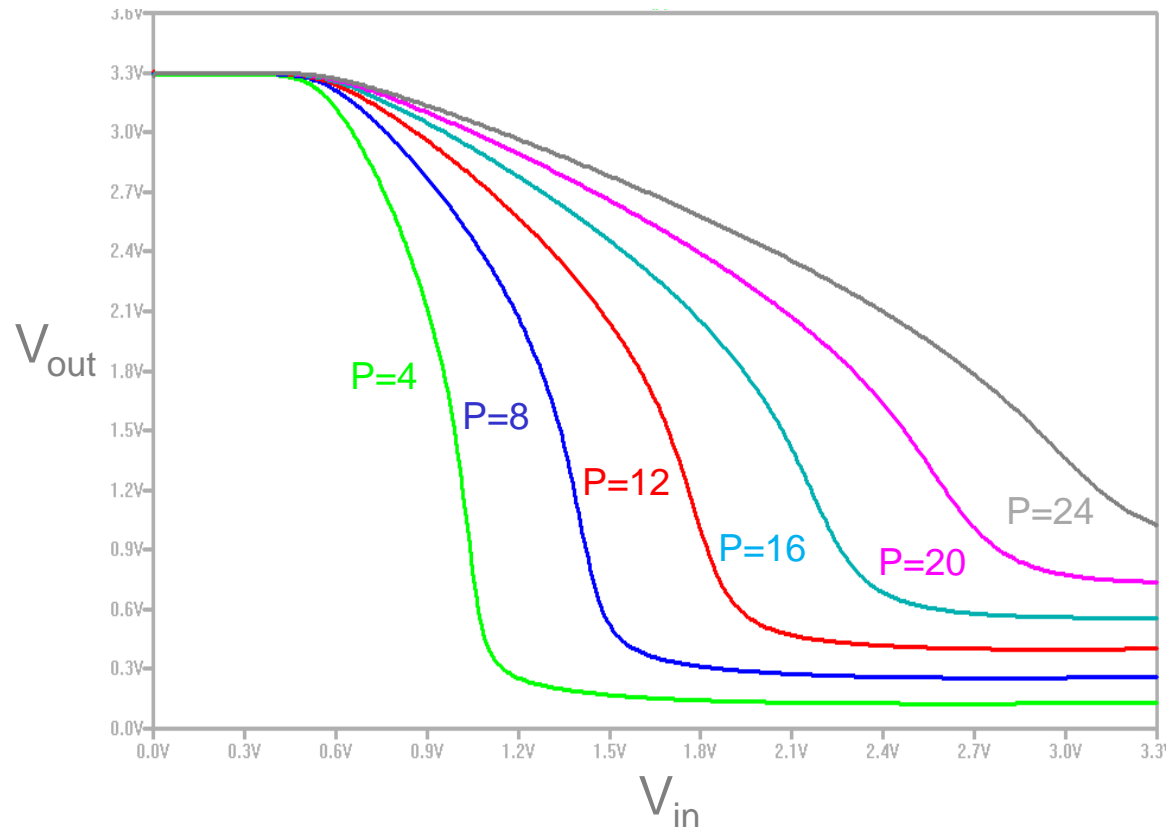
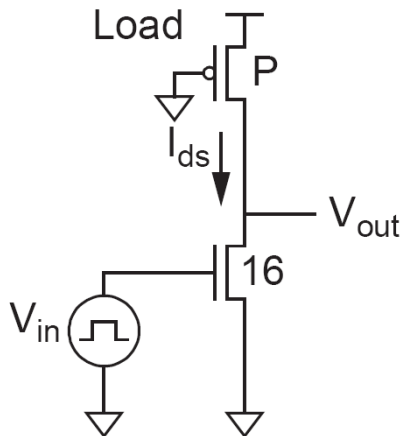
# Pseudo-nMOS

- In CMOS, use a single pMOS transistor as load
- pMOS gate grounded so its always ON
  - *ratio* issue
- What size should the pMOS be?
  - If too large, will slow  $1 \rightarrow 0$  transition and gate may not pull down properly
  - If too small, will slow  $0 \rightarrow 1$  transition



# Pseudo-nMOS

- Use SPICE to try out different ratios:

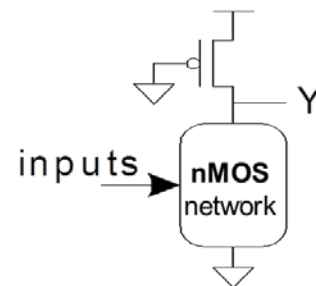


- Make pMOS about  $\frac{1}{4}$  strength of pulldown network
  - compromise between speed & noise margin

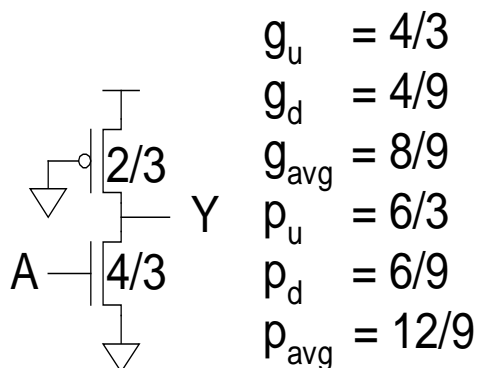


# Pseudo-nMOS Performance

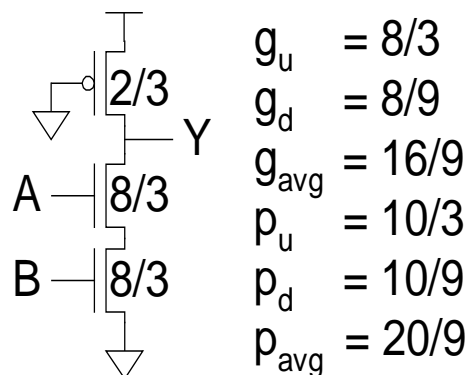
- Logical effort is ratio of input capacitance of gate to that of standard complimentary inverter that delivers same current
- Parasitic delay is ratio of output capacitance compared to standard inverter delivering same current
- Remember that on pull-down: pMOS fights nMOS



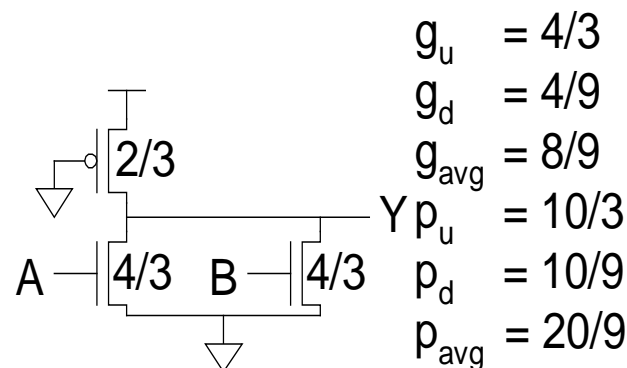
## Inverter



## NAND2



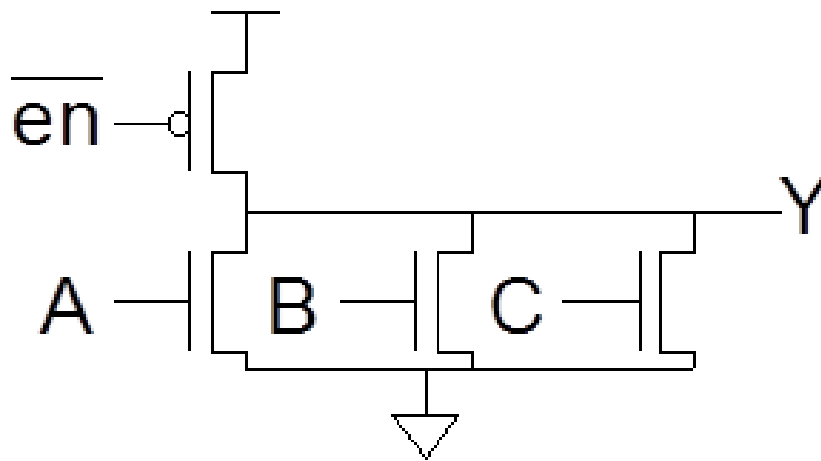
## NOR2



- Best suited to large fan-in NOR networks

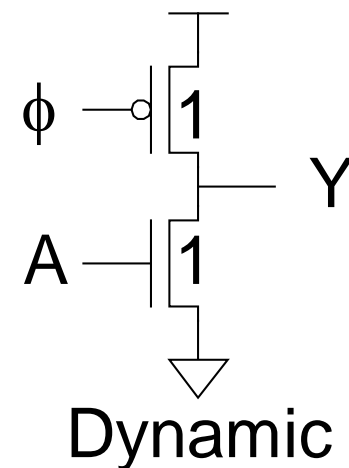
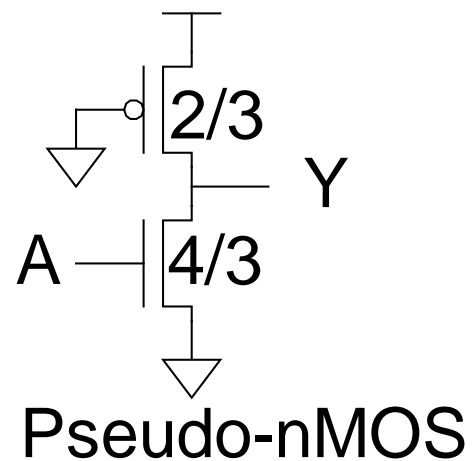
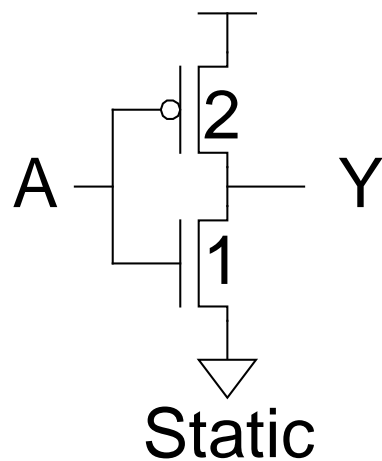
# Pseudo-nMOS Power

- Pseudo-nMOS draws power whenever  $Y = 0$ 
  - Called static power  $P = I_{DD} V_{DD}$
  - A few hundred  $\mu\text{A}$  / gate \* 1M gates is a problem
  - Explains why nMOS went extinct
- Use pseudo-nMOS sparingly for wide NORs
- Turn off pMOS when not in use



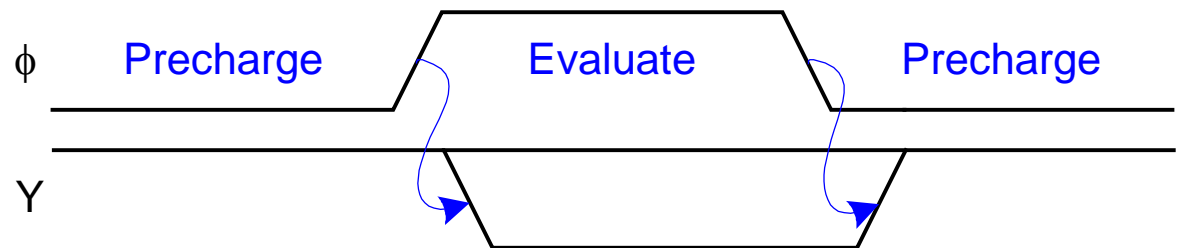
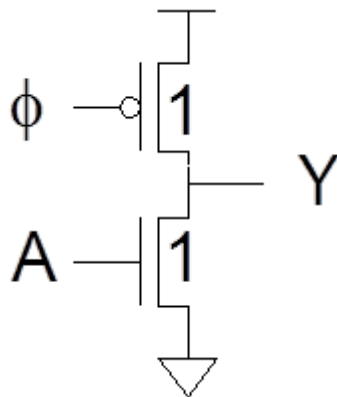
# Dynamic Logic

- Ratio'd circuits reduce input capacitance by replacing pMOS pullup tree with a single static load
  - slow rising transitions
  - contention on falling transitions
  - static power dissipation
  - non-zero  $V_{OL}$  (reduced noise margin)
- *Dynamic* gates use a clocked pMOS pullup



# Dynamic Logic Phases

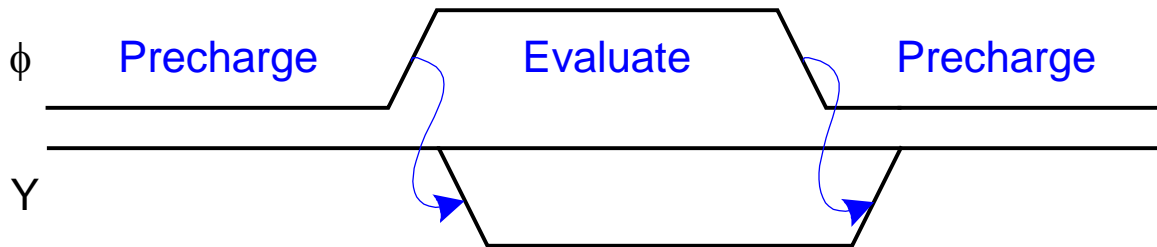
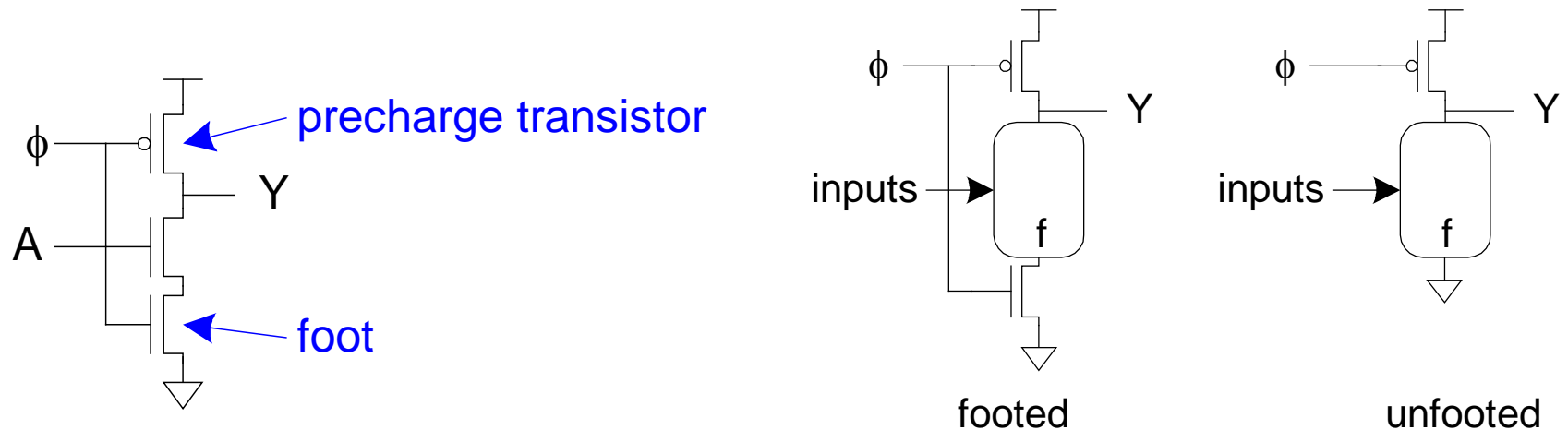
- *Dynamic* gates operate in two phases: **precharge** and **evaluate**
- During pre-charge phase ( $\phi=0$ ), the output  $Y$  is initialized high
- During the evaluate phase ( $\phi=1$ ),  $Y$  is conditionally discharged low, depending on the value of input  $A$



- What happens if  $A=1$  during precharge?

# The Foot

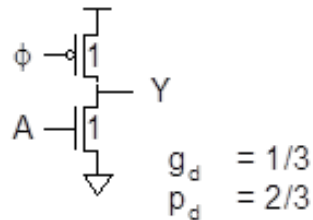
- Introduce series nMOS evaluation transistor called **foot**
  - eliminates contention during precharge



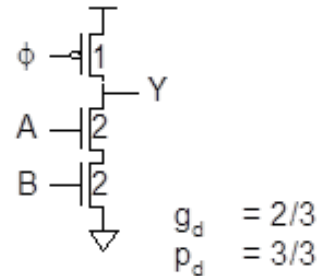
# Logical Effort of Dynamic Gates

unfooted

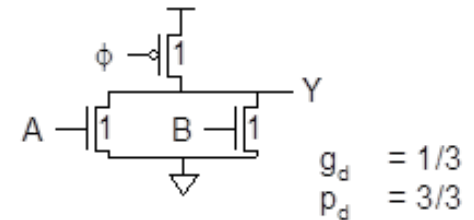
Inverter



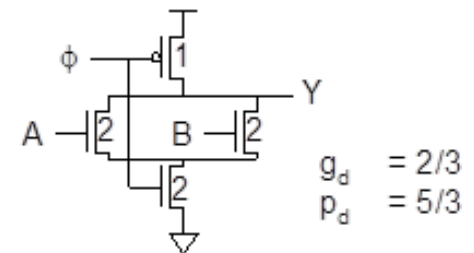
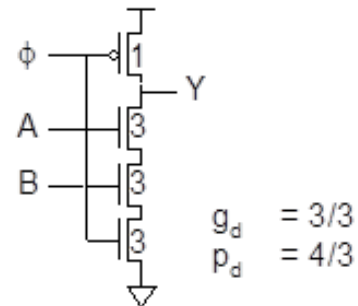
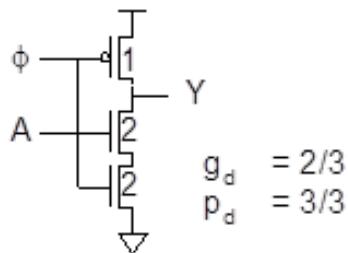
NAND2



NOR2



footed



compare  
to static:

$$g=1$$

$$p=1$$

$$g=4/3$$

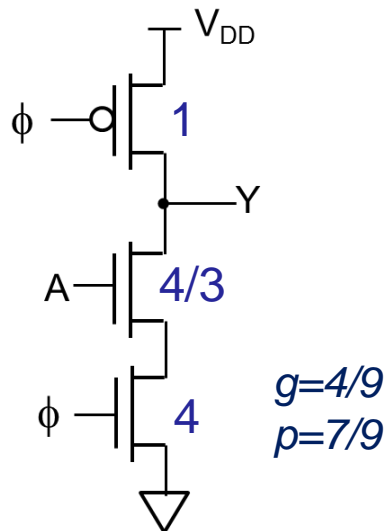
$$p=2$$

$$g=5/3$$

$$p=2$$

# Dynamic Gates with Large (W=4) Foot

Inverter



compare to  
regular foot:

$$g=2/3$$

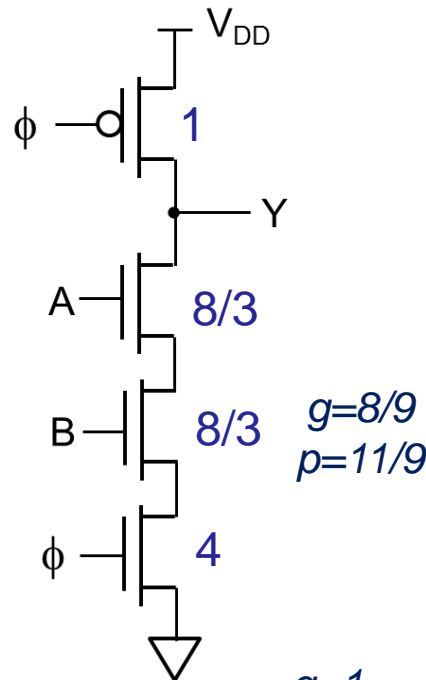
$$p=1$$

compare  
to static:

$$g=1$$

$$p=1$$

NAND2



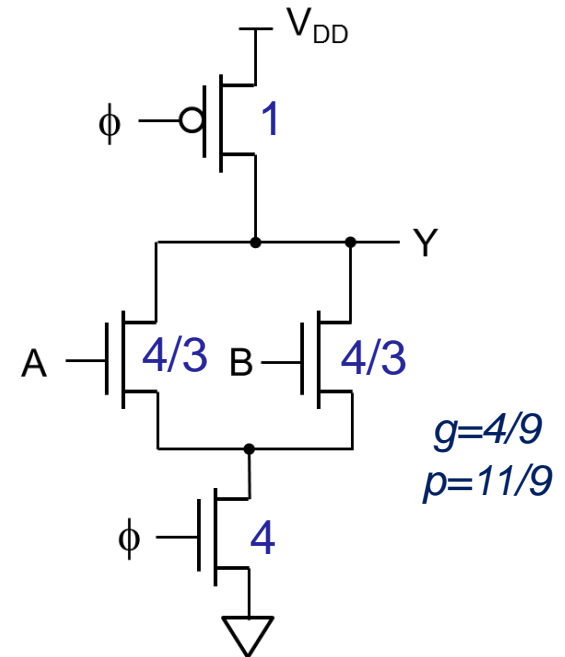
$$g=1$$

$$p=4/3$$

$$g=4/3$$

$$p=2$$

NOR2



$$g=2/3$$

$$p=5/3$$

$$g=5/3$$

$$p=2$$

- at expense of considerably increased area and power!

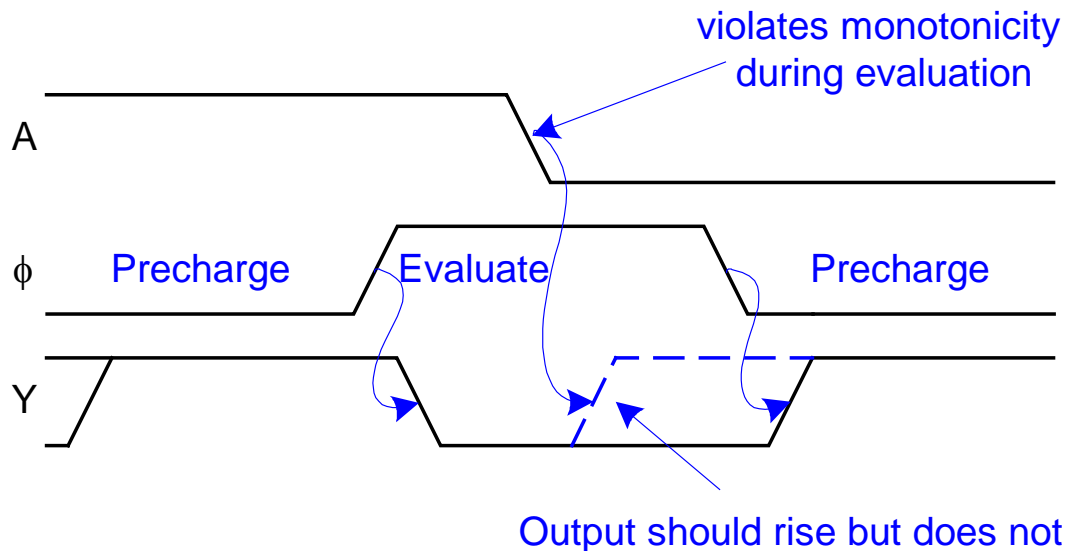
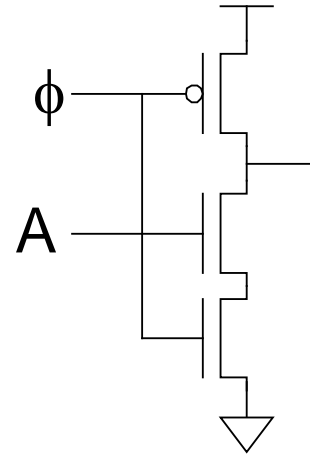
# Compared to static logic

- Advantages of dynamic gates:
  - fastest commonly used circuit family
  - lower input capacitance
  - no contention during switching
  - zero static power dissipation
  - no ratio issues
- Limitations of dynamic gates:
  - precharge/evaluate paradigm
  - require careful clocking
  - consume significant dynamic power
  - reduced noise margin
  - monotonicity requirement



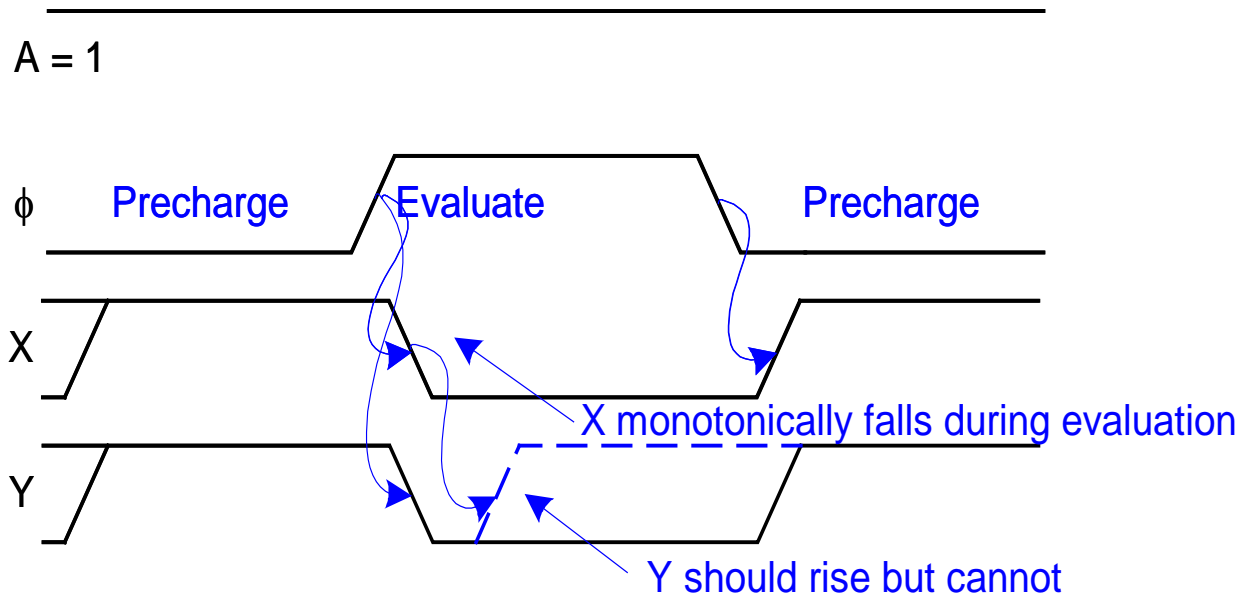
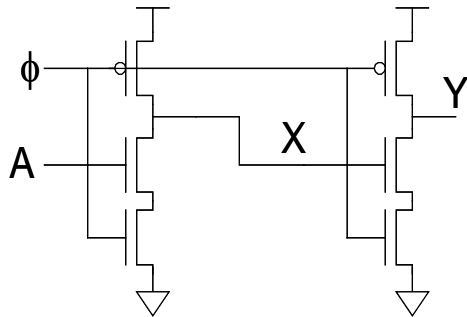
# Monotonicity

- Dynamic gates require *monotonically rising* inputs during evaluation
  - 0  $\rightarrow$  0
  - 0  $\rightarrow$  1
  - 1  $\rightarrow$  1
  - but not 1  $\rightarrow$  0!



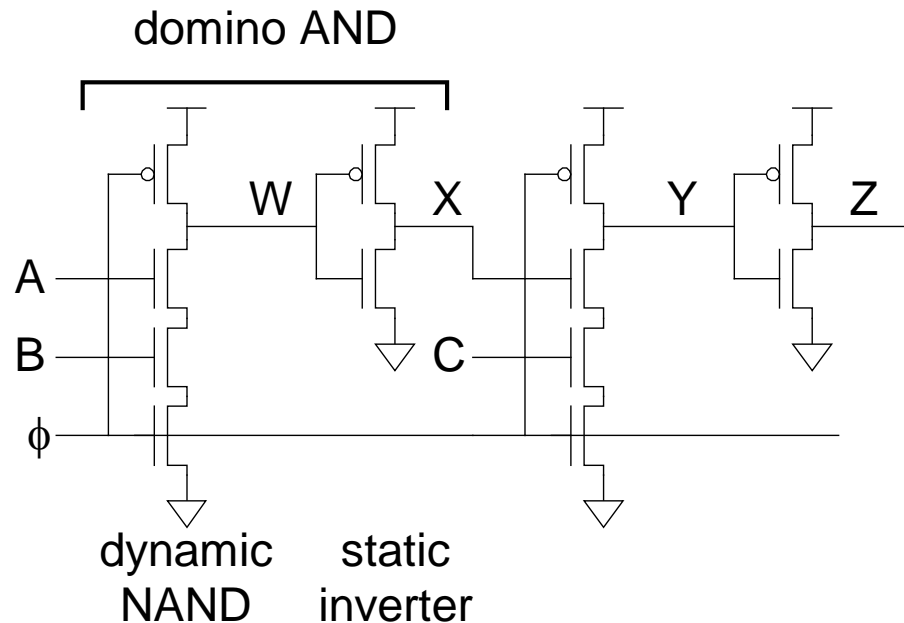
# Monotonicity Woes

- But dynamic gates produce *monotonically falling* outputs during evaluation
- Illegal for one dynamic gate to drive another!



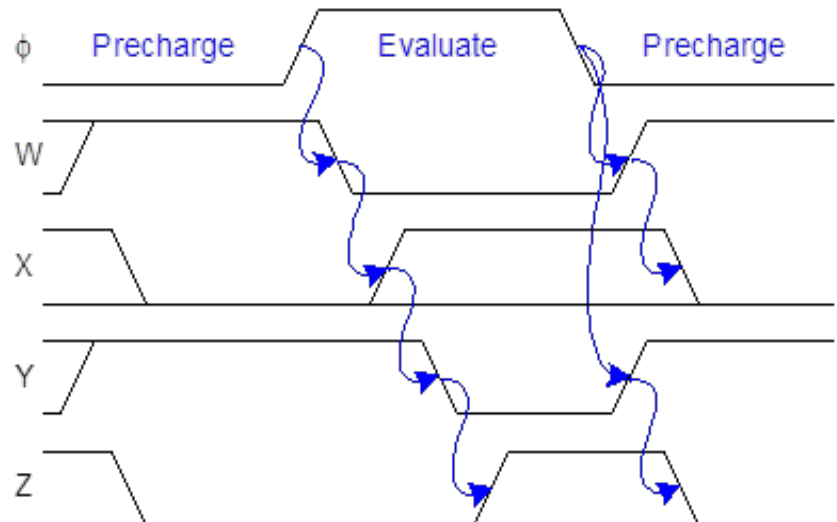
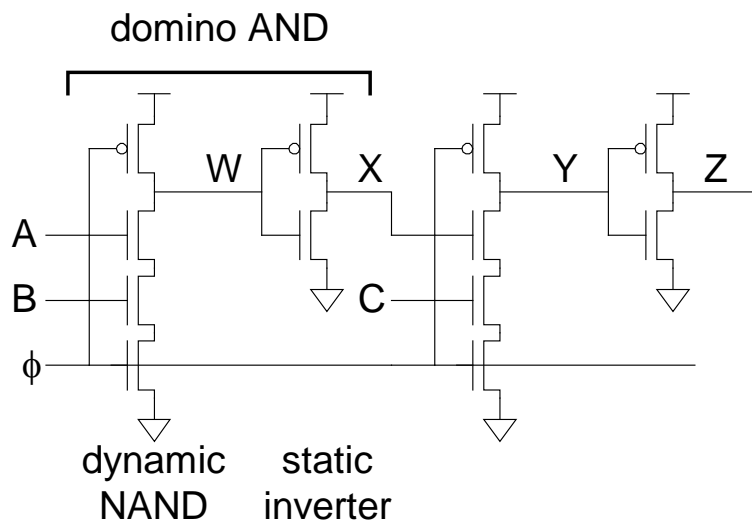
# Domino Gates

- Monotonicity problem can be solved by putting an static inverter between each dynamic gate
- Inverter output will be monotonically rising



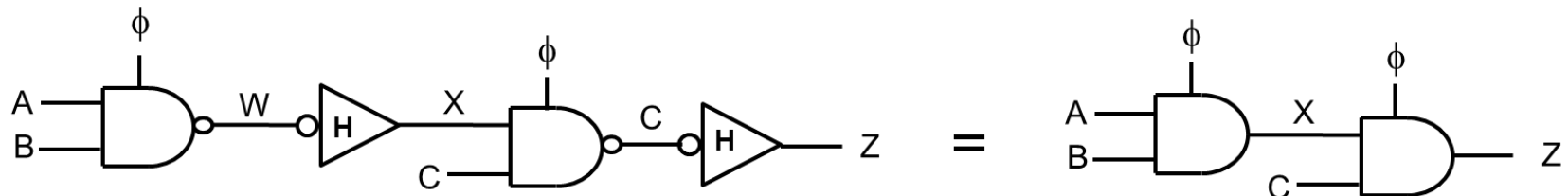
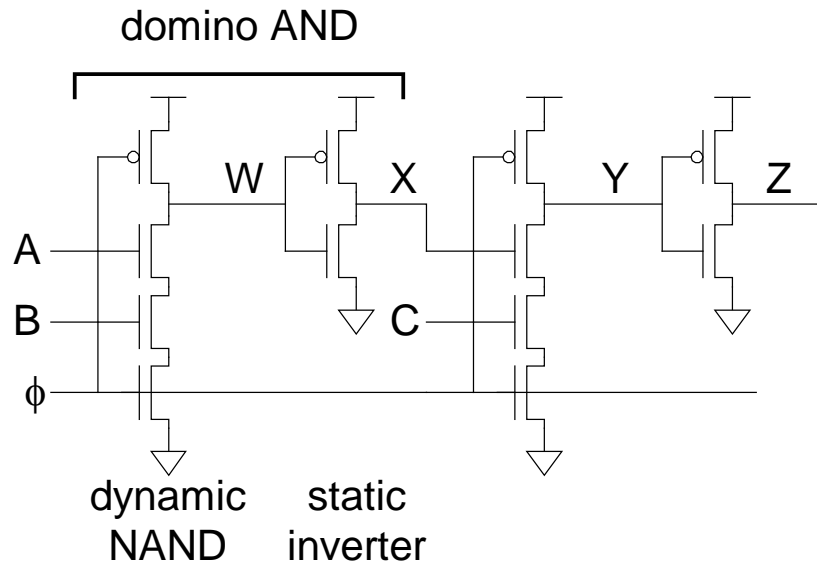
# Domino Operation

- All dynamic gates in chain are precharged in parallel
- During evaluation phase, a falling transition at the output of the first dynamic gate generates a rising transition at the output of the inverter which, in turn, is input to the second dynamic gate.
- Each domino gate triggers next one, like a string of dominos toppling over



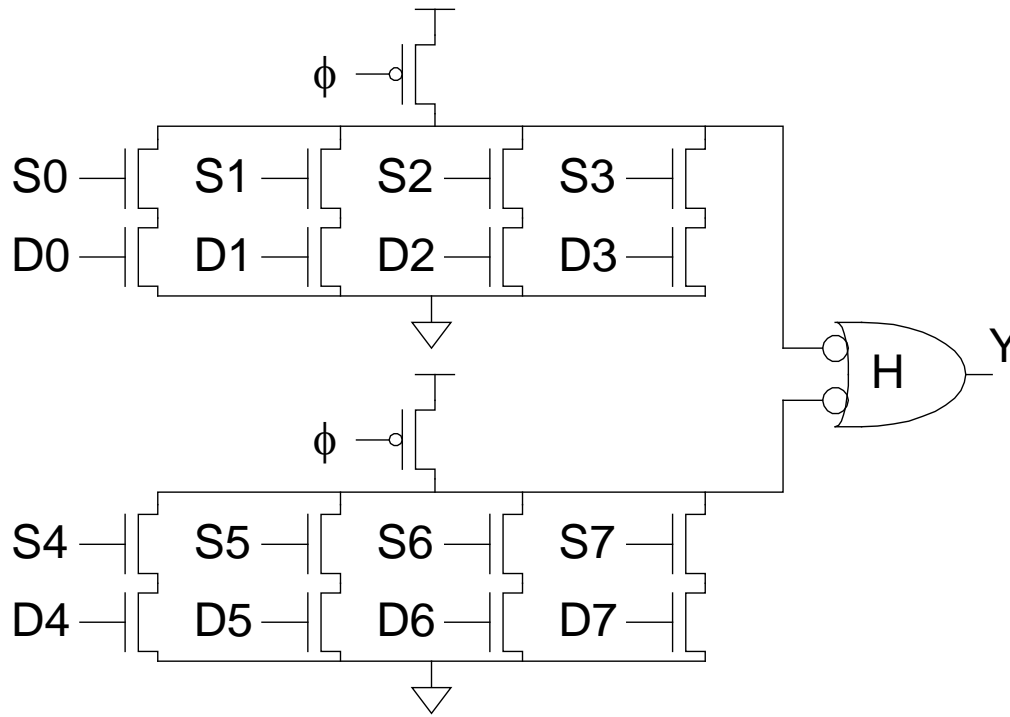
# Domino Optimization

- Gates evaluate sequentially but precharge in parallel
- Thus evaluation is more critical than precharge
- Use high-skew inverter



# Compound Domino

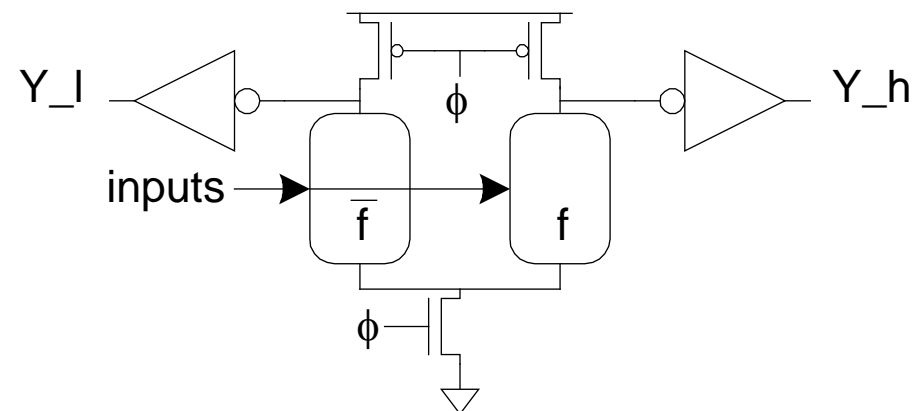
- More complex inverting (high skew) static gates can be used in place of inverter
- Example: 8 input domino multiplexer



# Dual Rail Domino

- Domino only performs non-inverting functions:
  - AND, OR but not NAND, NOR, or XOR
- Dual-rail domino solves this problem
  - Takes true and complementary inputs
  - Produces true and complementary outputs

sig_h	sig_l	Meaning
0	0	Precharged
0	1	'0'
1	0	'1'
1	1	invalid



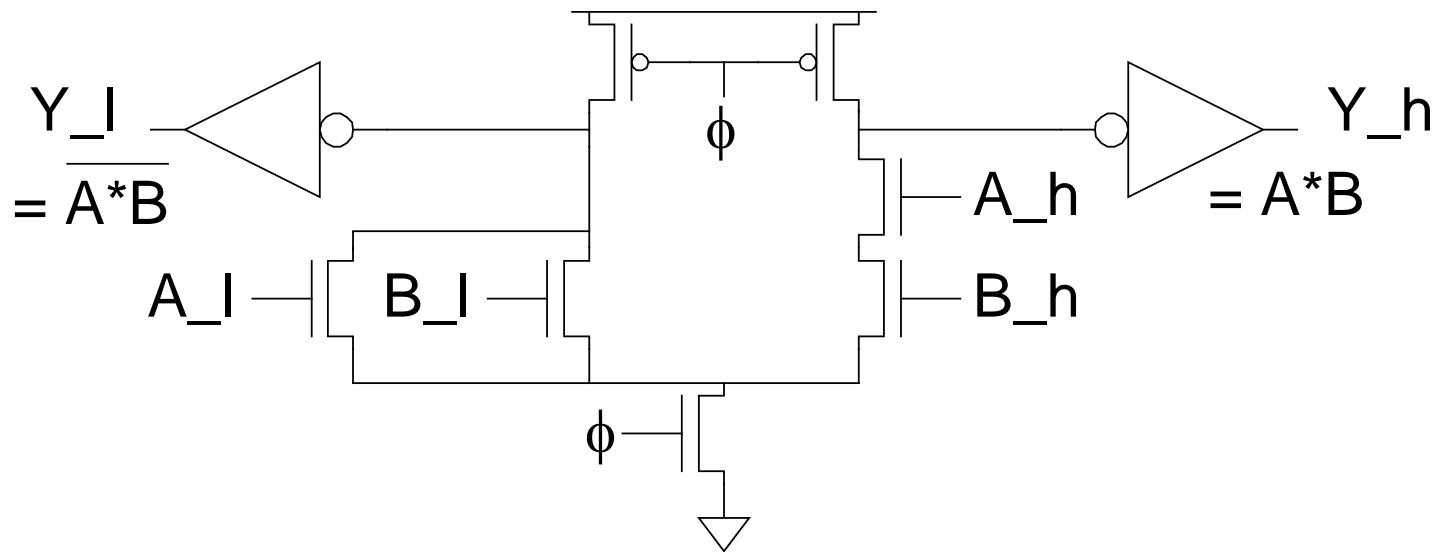
# Example: AND/NAND

- Given  $A_h, A_l, B_h, B_l$

compute  $Y_h = A \cdot B = A_h \cdot B_h$

and  $Y_l = \overline{A \cdot B} = \overline{A} + \overline{B} = A_l + B_l$

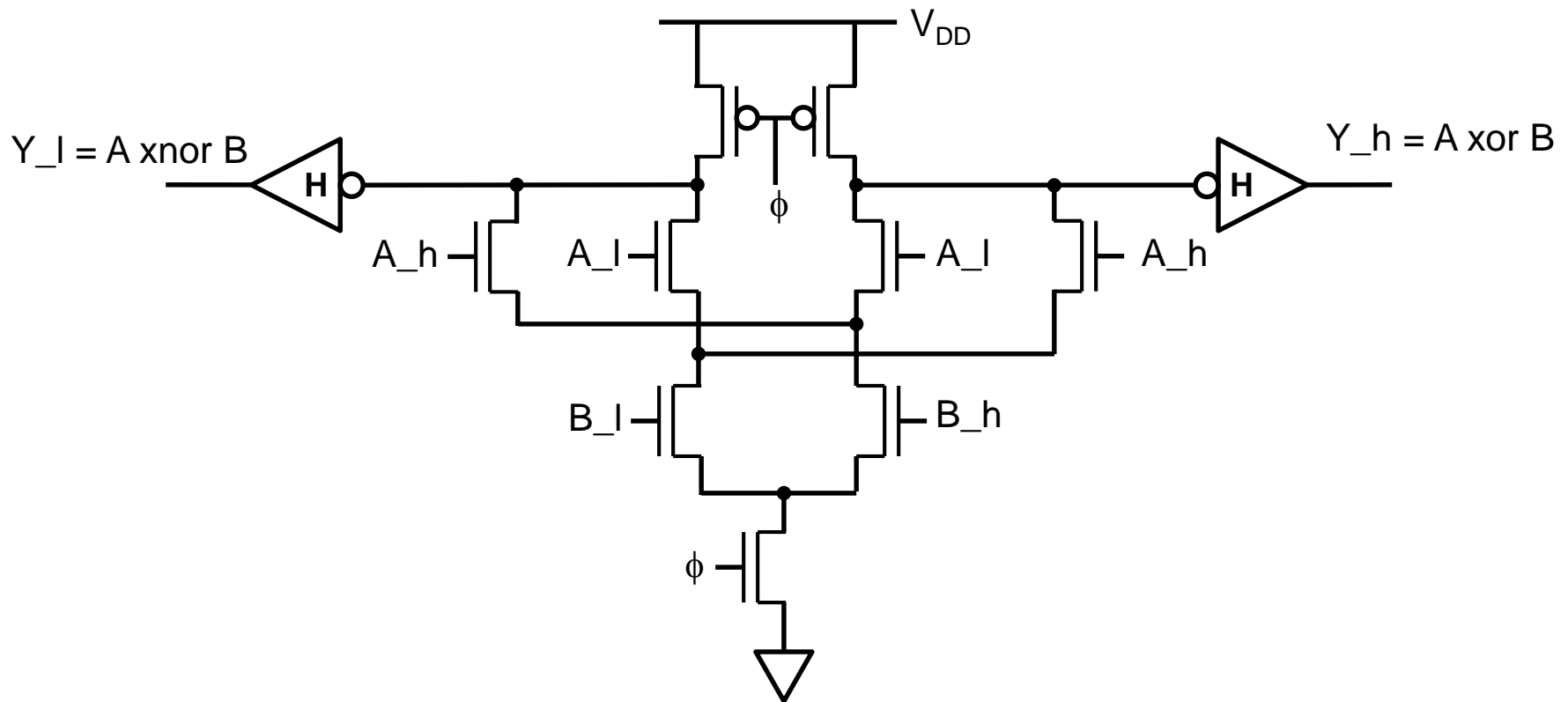
- Pulldown networks are topological complements





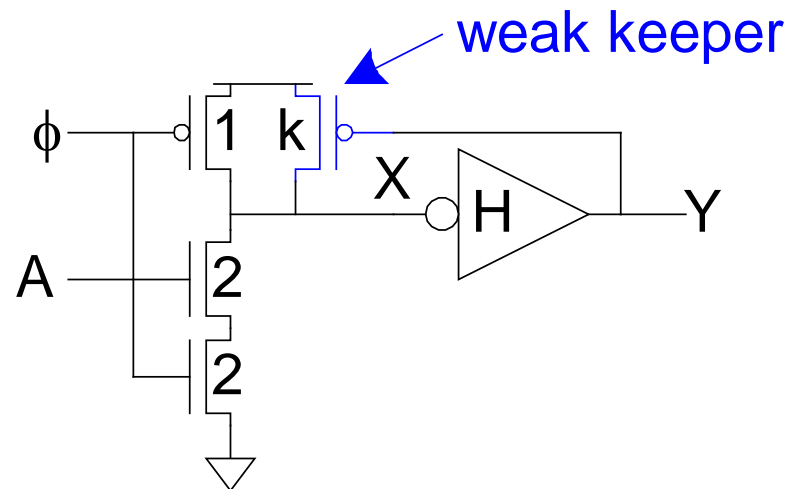
# Example: XOR/XNOR

- Sometimes possible to share transistors:



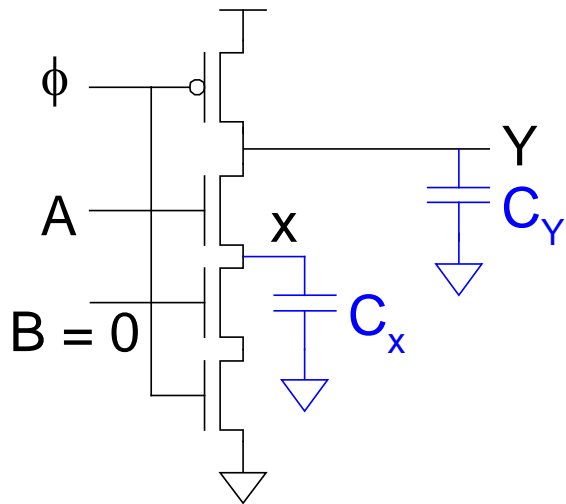
# Dynamic Hazards: Leakage

- Dynamic node is not driven high during evaluation
  - Floating node held by charge on node capacitance
  - Transistors are leaky ( $I_{OFF} \neq 0$ )
  - Dynamic value will leak away over time
  - Used to be milliseconds, now nanoseconds
- Use keeper to hold dynamic node
  - Must be weak enough not to fight evaluation



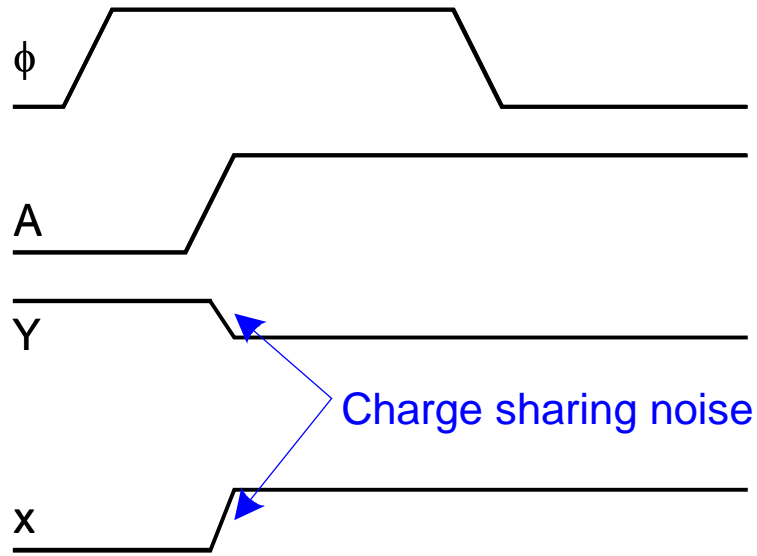
# Dynamic Hazards: Charge Sharing

- Transitions on inner inputs can steal charge from output node:



$$V_x = \frac{C_Y}{C_x + C_Y} \cdot V_{DD}$$

*(not important)*

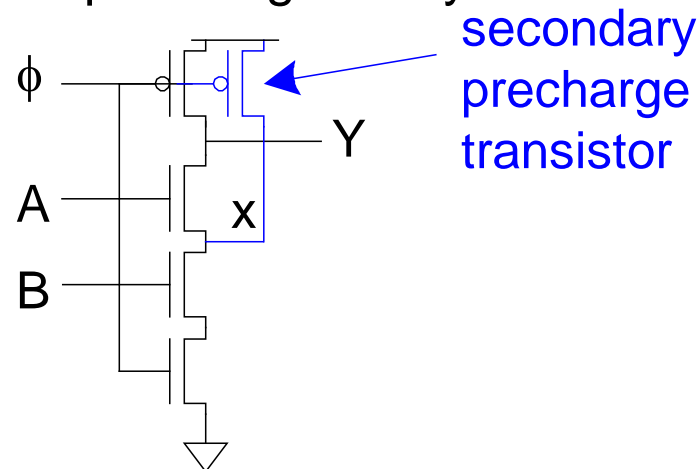
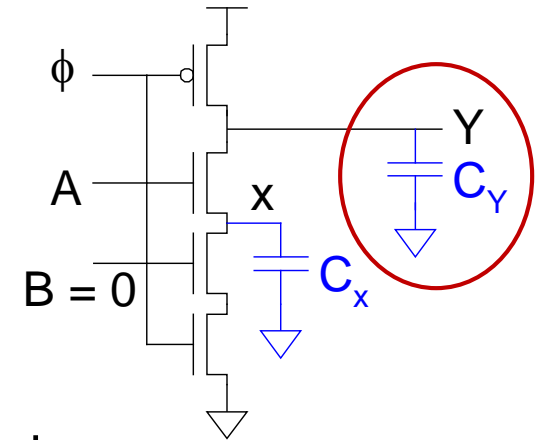


$$\Delta V_Y = \frac{C_x}{C_x + C_Y} \cdot V_{DD}$$

*may cause output error!*

## Solutions to Charge Sharing

- Increase size of load capacitance  $C_Y$ 
  - increases gate delay
- Add secondary precharge transistors
  - typically need to precharge every other node



- A keeper transistor can restore output if charge sharing is small

# Dynamic Hazards: Noise

- Dynamic gates are very sensitive to noise
  - Inputs:  $V_{IL} \approx V_{tn}$
  - Outputs: floating output susceptible noise
- Noise sources include:
  - Capacitive crosstalk
  - Charge sharing
  - Power supply noise
  - Feedthrough noise

# Dynamic Hazards: Dynamic Power

- Domino gates have high activity factors
  - Gate precharges and evaluates each clock cycle
  - When output of dynamic gate remains high
    - no transitions per clock cycle
  - When output of dynamic gate is pulled low
    - 2 transitions per clock cycle
  - If output transition probability = 0.5,
    - Gate activity factor  $\alpha = 0.5$
  - Also clock power dissipated in precharge and foot transistors
- Leads to very high power consumption

# Domino Summary

- Domino logic is attractive for high-speed circuits
  - 1.3 – 2x faster than static CMOS
  - But many challenges:
    - Monotonicity, leakage, charge sharing, noise
- Widely used in high-performance microprocessors in 1990s when speed was primary driver
- Largely displaced by static CMOS now that power is the limiter
- Still used in memories for speed & area efficiency
  - wide NOR decoder structures