



# 集成电路原理与设计

## 11. 导线

*Wire*

谭志超

zhichaotan@zju.edu.cn

# Syllabus

---

课数	内容	课数	内容
1	导论	9	差分放大器
2	器件模型	10	运算放大器
3	电容特性, 小信号模型	11	导线
4	工艺流程	12	反相器
5	模拟基本单元	13	组合逻辑
6	电流镜与基准	14	时序逻辑
7	单级放大器	15	集成电路专题讲座一
8	课堂测验	16	集成电路专题讲座二

# Goals

---

- Understanding the design metrics that govern digital design is crucial
- Determining and quantifying interconnect parameters
- Introducing circuit models for interconnect wires
- Technology scaling and its impact on interconnect

## ***Design metrics of the gate***

- ***Cost:*** complexity, area
- ***Integrity and robustness:*** static (or steady-state) behavior
- ***Performance:*** dynamic (or transient) response
- ***Energy efficiency:*** energy and power consumption

# Outline

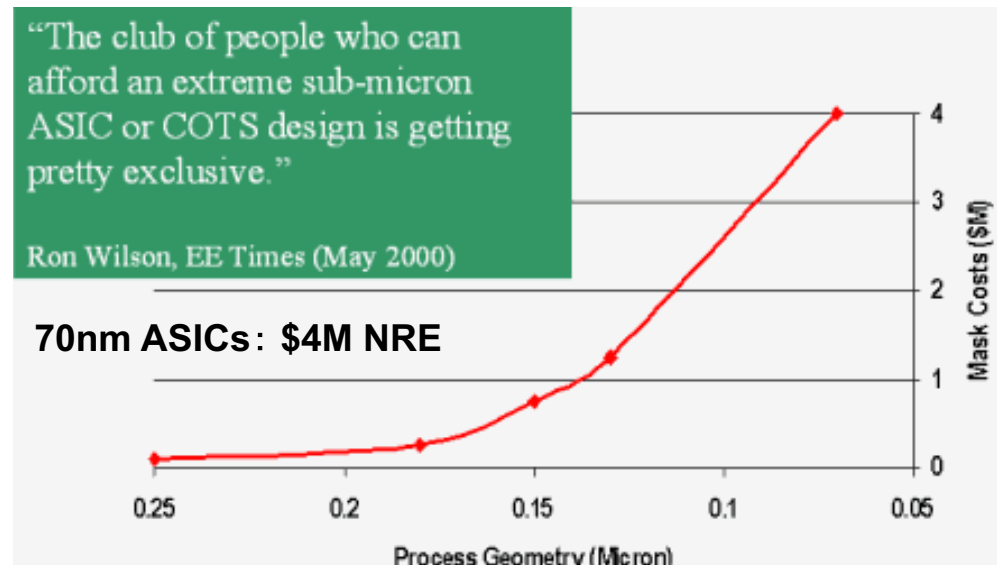
---

- ☐ **Review: Quantity Metrics of Digital Design**
- ☐ **Wire: A First Glance**
- ☐ **Interconnect Parameters: R, C, L**
- ☐ **Electrical Wire Models**

# Cost

- NRE (non-recurrent engineering) cost or *fixed cost*
  - Design Time and Effort, Mask Generation
  - One-time Cost Factor
- Recurrent cost or *variable cost*
  - Silicon Processing, Packaging, Test
  - Proportional to Volume
  - Proportional to Chip Area

**Cost per IC = variable cost  
per IC + fixed cost/volume**



## -- Yield(良率, 成品率)

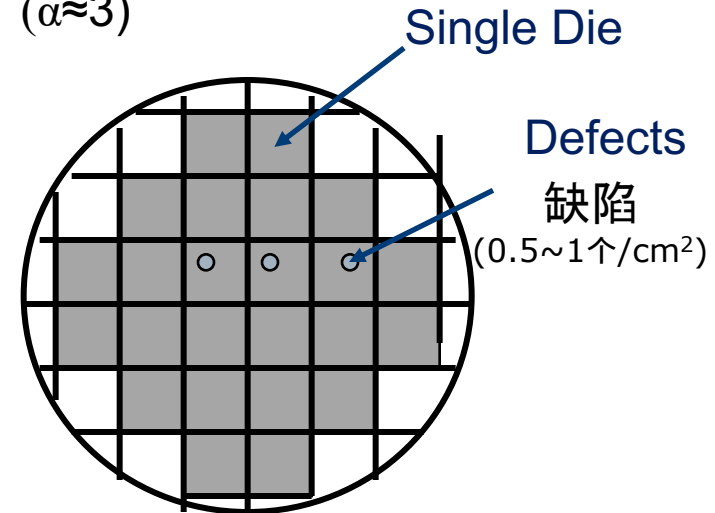
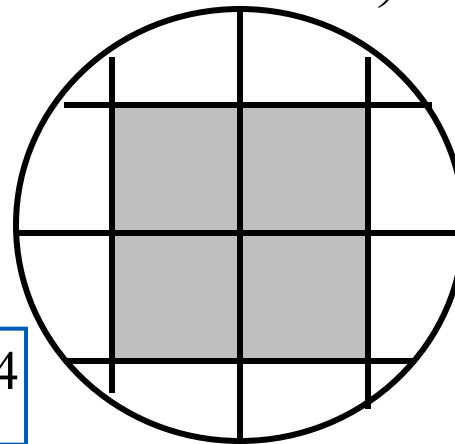
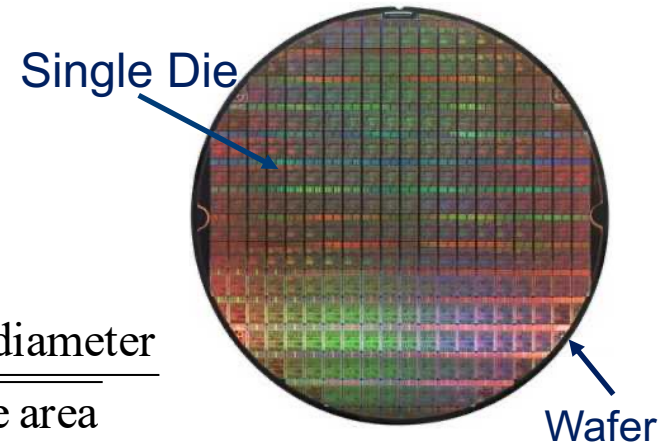
up to 12" (30cm)

$$\text{Yield: } Y = \frac{\text{No. of good chips per wafer}}{\text{Total number of chips per wafer}} \times 100\%$$

$$\text{Die cost} = \frac{\text{Wafer cost}}{\text{Dies per wafer} \times \text{Die yield}}$$

$$\text{Dies per wafer} = \frac{\pi \times (\text{wafer diameter}/2)^2}{\text{die area}} - \frac{\pi \times \text{wafer diameter}}{\sqrt{2} \times \text{die area}}$$

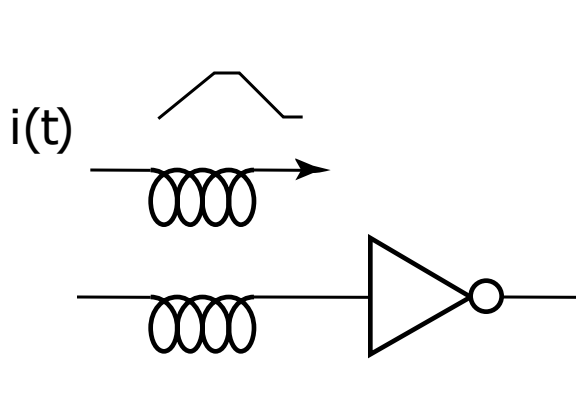
$$\text{die yield} = \left( 1 + \frac{\text{defects per unit area} \times \text{die area}}{\alpha} \right)^{-\alpha} \quad (\alpha \approx 3)$$



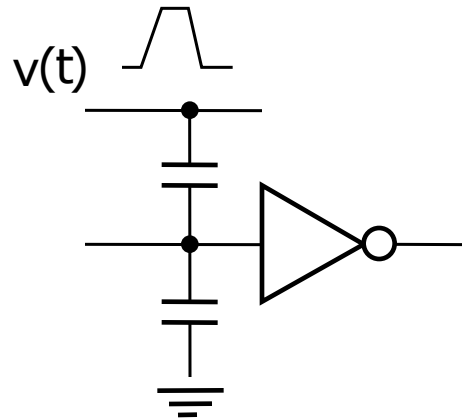
$$\text{die cost} = f(\text{die area})^4$$

# Reliability – Noise

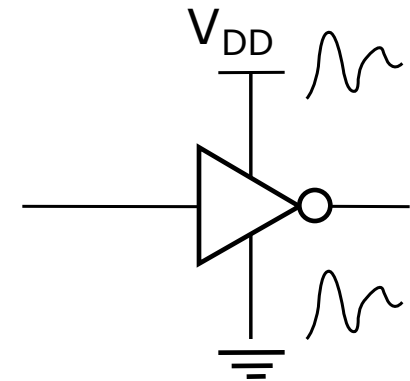
**Noise:** *unwanted variation* of voltages and currents at the logic node.



Inductive coupling



Capacitive coupling



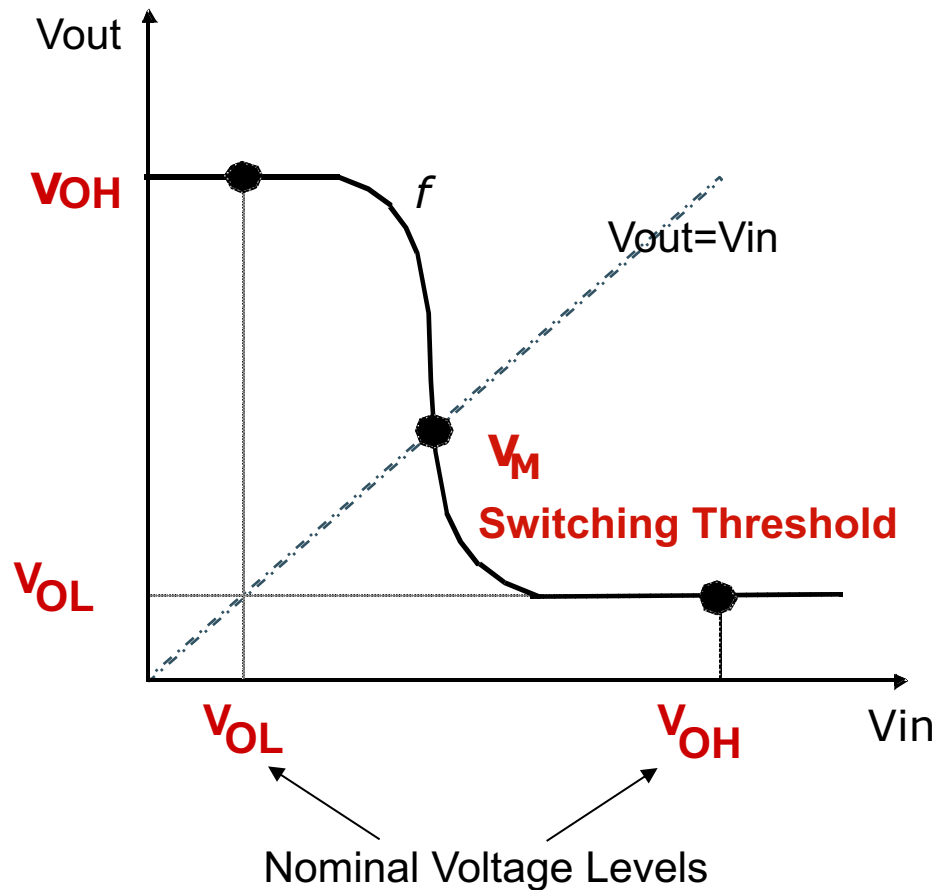
Power and GND



*How to cope with all these disturbances is one of the main challenges in the design of high-performance digital circuits.*

# -- Voltage Transfer Characteristic (VTC)

- VTC or DC operation for an inverting gate

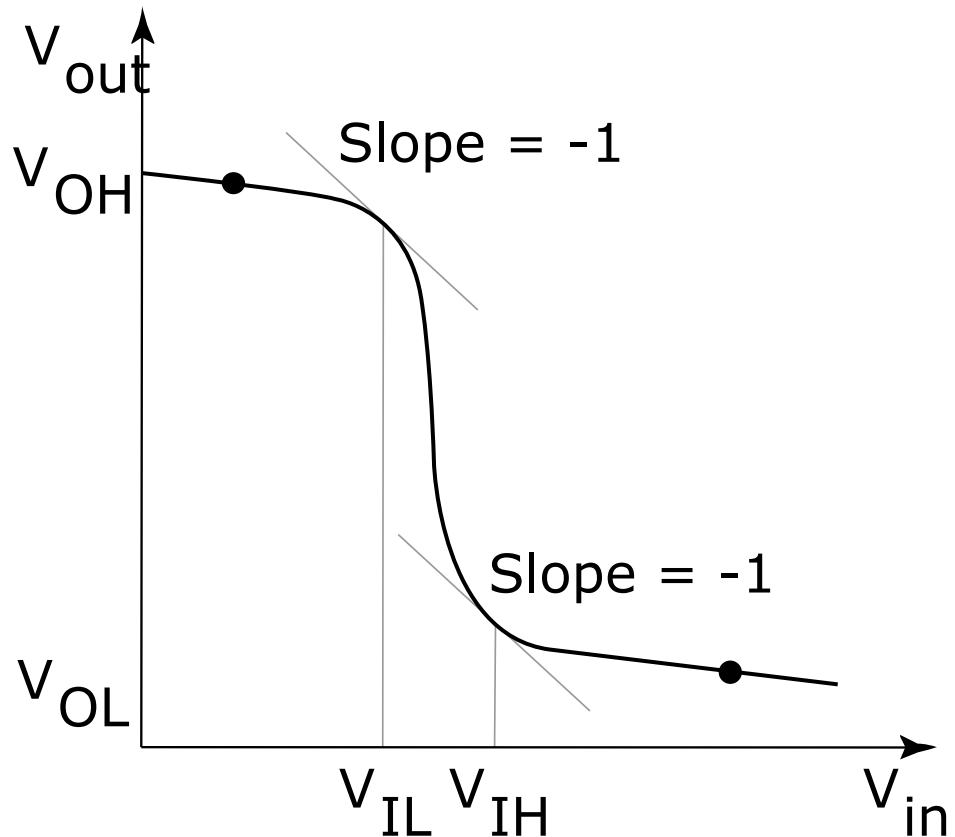
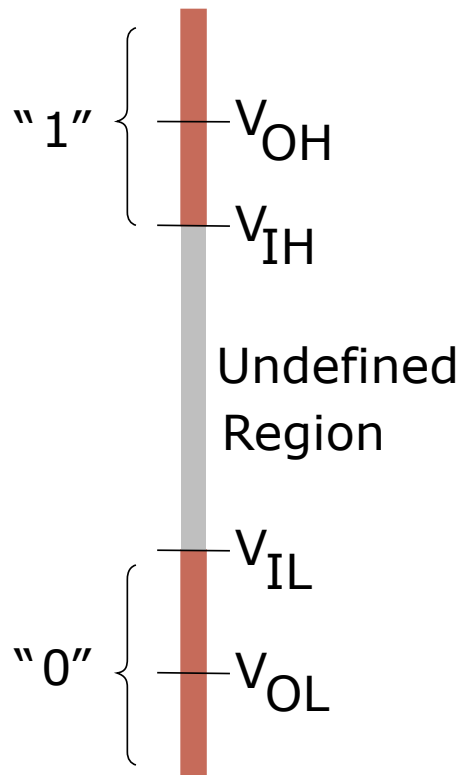


$$\begin{aligned}V_{OH} &= f(V_{OL}) \\V_{OL} &= f(V_{OH}) \\V_M &= f(V_M)\end{aligned}$$



# Relationship between voltage and logic levels

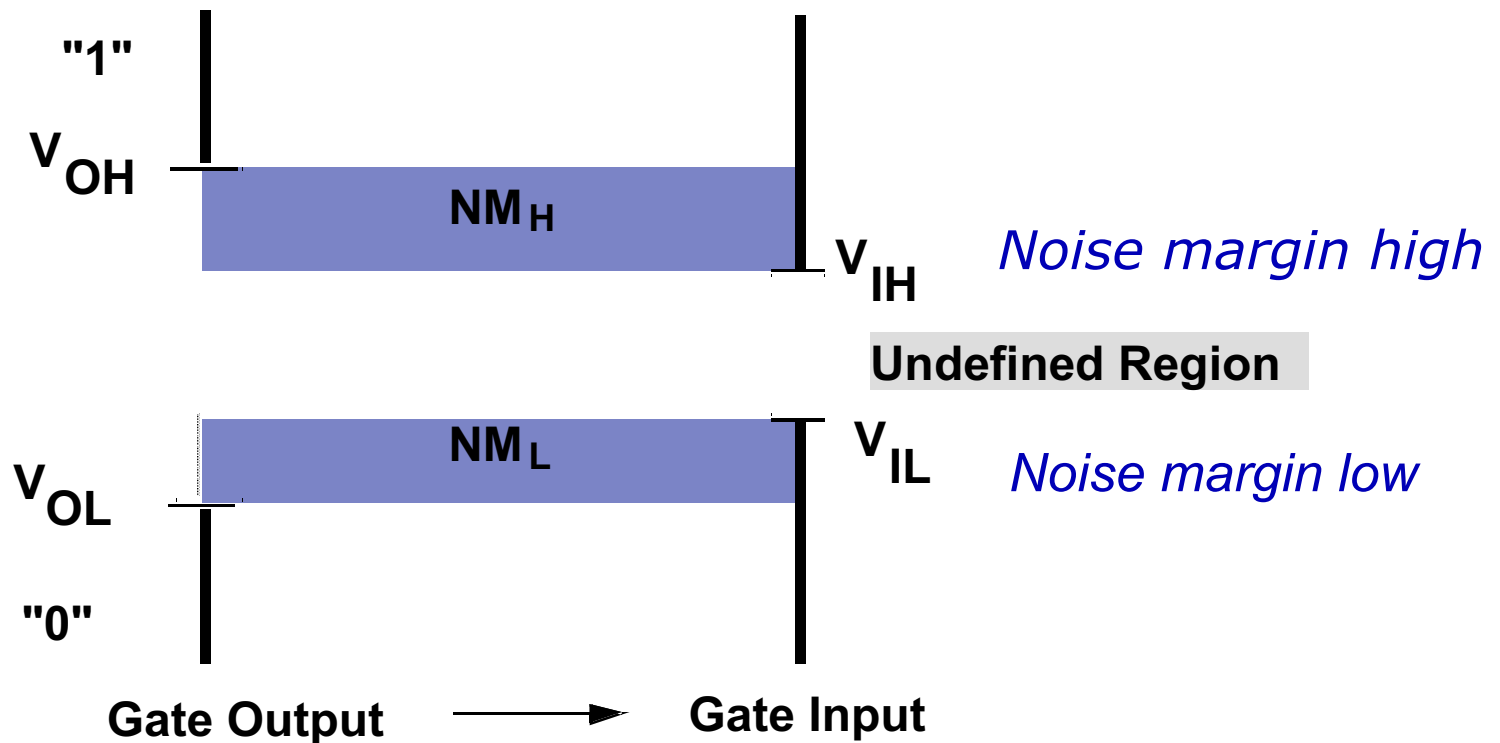
- A range of acceptable voltages



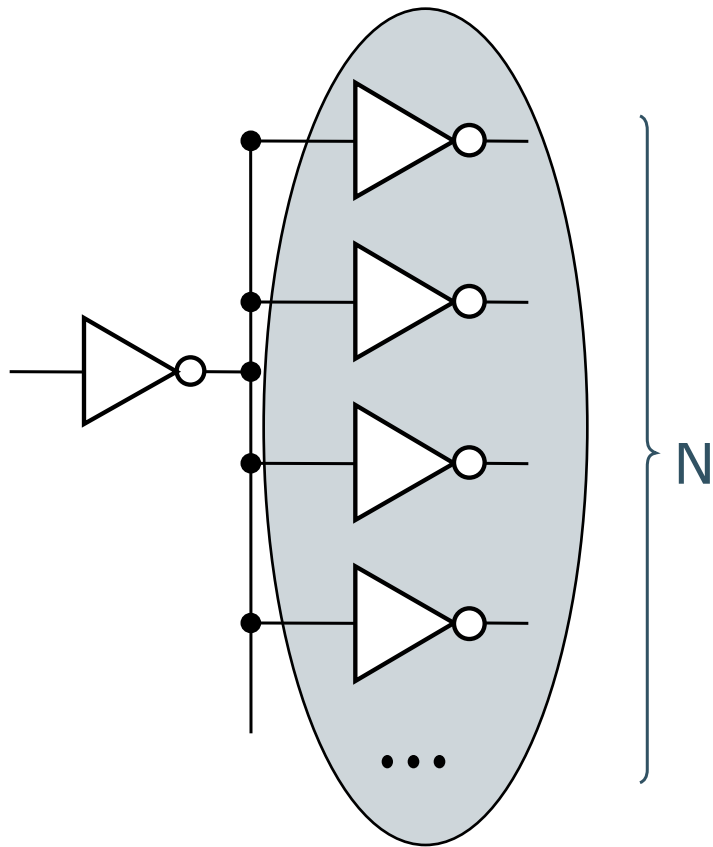
Undefined region (Transition width, TW)

# -- Noise Margin

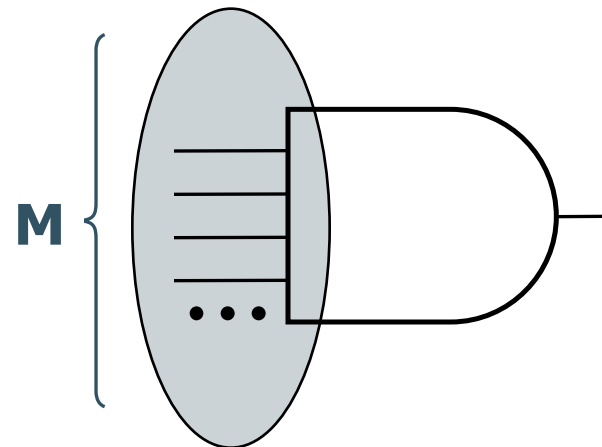
- “0” and “1” intervals be as large as possible => robust and intensive to noise disturbances
- Noise margin: the levels of noise that can be sustained when gates are cascaded.



## -- Fan-in and Fan-out



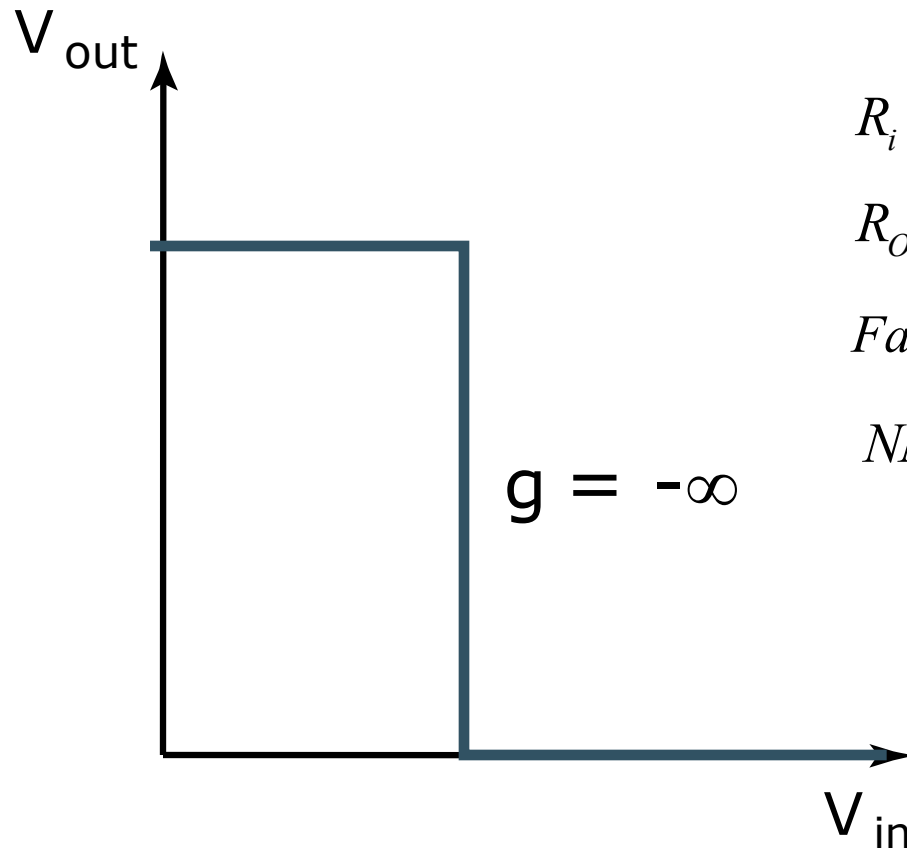
Fan-out N



Fan-in M

## -- Ideal Gate

---



$$R_i = \infty$$

$$R_o = 0$$

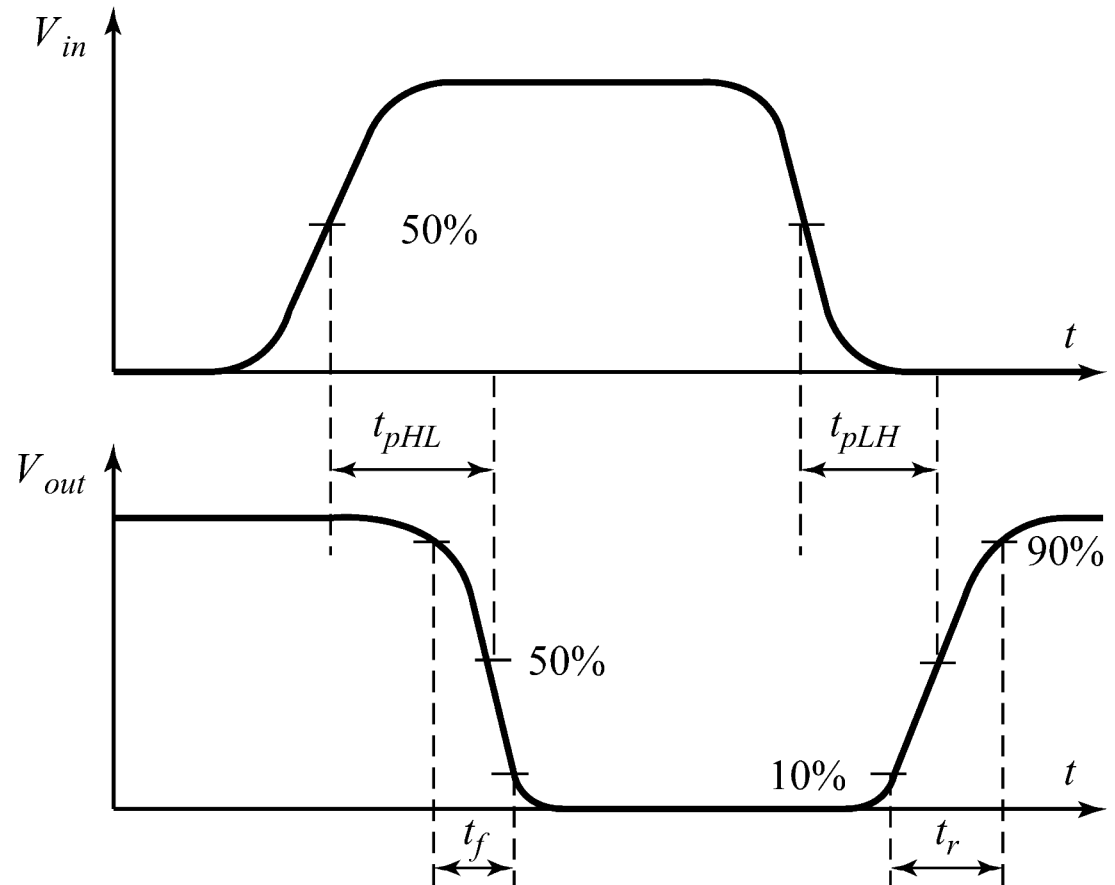
$$Fanout = \infty$$

$$NM_H = NM_L = V_{DD}/2$$

# Speed: Delay Definition

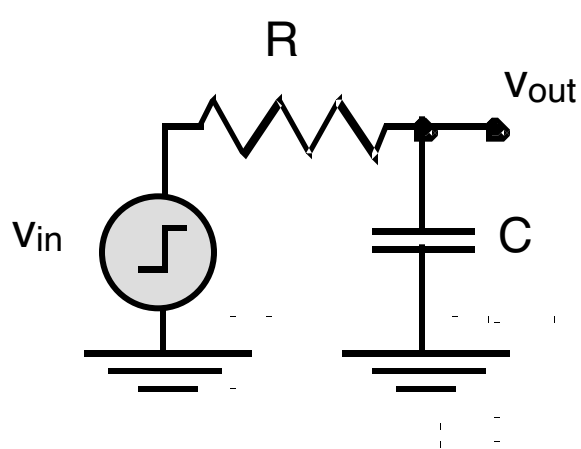
□ Propagation delay  $t_p = \frac{t_{pLH} + t_{pHL}}{2}$

□  $t_f$   $t_r$



## Example: *First-order RC network*

---



$$v_{out}(t) = (1 - e^{-t/\tau}) V$$

$$t_p = \ln(2) \tau = 0.69 RC$$

$$t_{0.1-0.9} = \ln(9) \tau = 2.2 RC$$

# Power Dissipation

---

- Instantaneous power:

$$p(t) = v(t)i(t) = V_{\text{supply}}i(t)$$

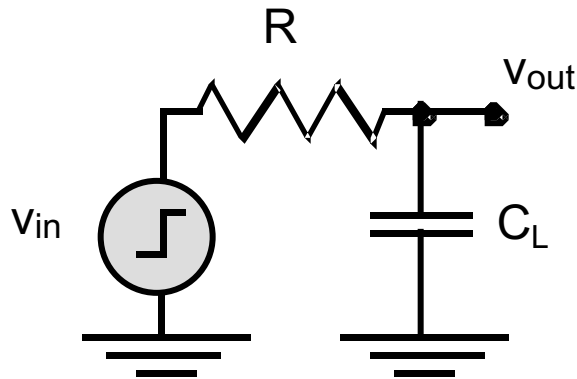
- Peak power:

$$P_{\text{peak}} = V_{\text{supply}}i_{\text{peak}}$$

- Average power:

$$P_{\text{ave}} = \frac{1}{T} \int_t^{t+T} p(t) dt = \frac{V_{\text{supply}}}{T} \int_t^{t+T} i_{\text{supply}}(t) dt$$

# Example: *First-order RC network*



$$E_{0 \rightarrow 1} = \int_0^T P(t) dt = V_{dd} \int_0^T i_{supply}(t) dt = V_{dd} \int_0^{V_{dd}} C_L dV_{out} = C_L \cdot V_{dd}^2$$

$$E_{cap} = \int_0^T P_{cap}(t) dt = \int_0^T V_{out} i_{cap}(t) dt = \int_0^{V_{dd}} C_L V_{out} dV_{out} = \frac{1}{2} C_L \cdot V_{dd}^2$$

□ The other half is dissipated as heat in the R



# Interconnect

## 电子系统中的互连线



同轴电缆



三层平带线



微带线



导线在接  
地平面上

$$CL = \epsilon\mu$$

$C$ : 电容,  $L$ : 电感

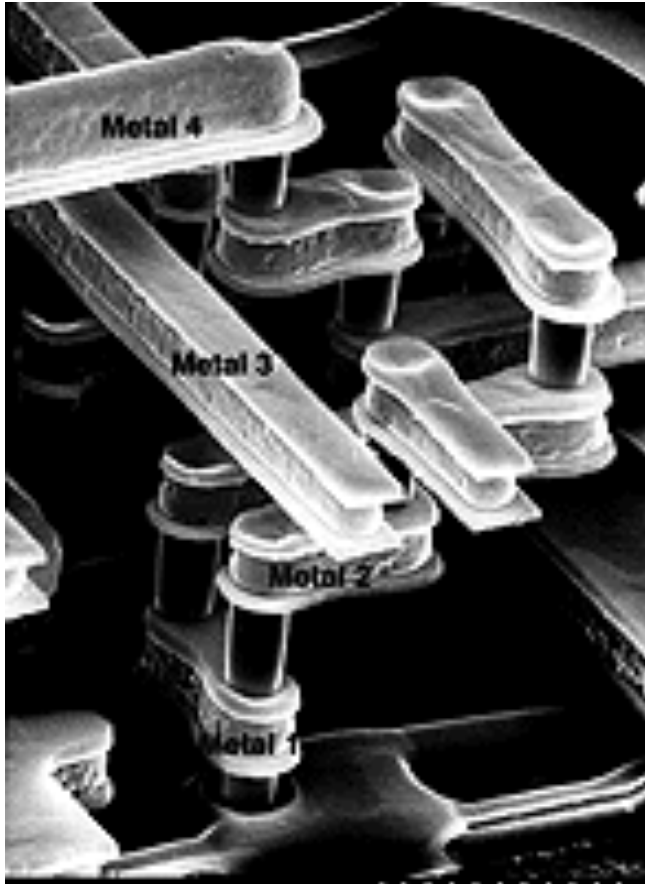
芯片上互连线

PC板上互连线

美国标准双股线

W	R	C	L
0.6 $\mu\text{m}$	150k $\Omega/\text{m}$	200pf/m	600nH/m
150 $\mu\text{m}$	5 $\Omega/\text{m}$	100pf/m	300nH/m
511 $\mu\text{m}$	0.08 $\Omega/\text{m}$	40pf/m	400nH/m

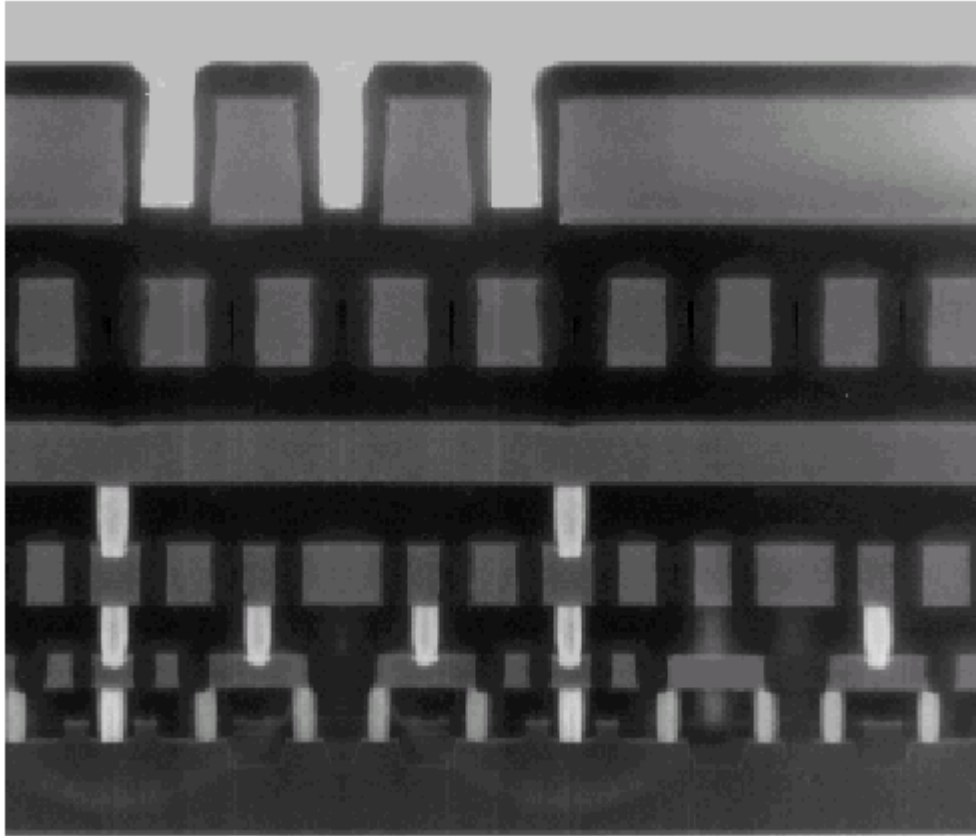
# Modern Interconnect



## Layer Stack

- **AMI 0.6  $\mu\text{m}$  process: 3 metal layers**
  - M1: within-cell routing*
  - M2: vertical routing between cells*
  - M3: horizontal routing between cells*
- **Modern processes: 6-10+ metal layers**
  - M1: thin, narrow ( $< 3\lambda$ )*  
*(High density cells)*
  - Mid layers: thicker and wider*  
*(density vs. speed)*
  - Top layers: thickest*  
*(For  $V_{DD}$ , GND, clk)*

# Intel 0.25 $\mu$ m Process



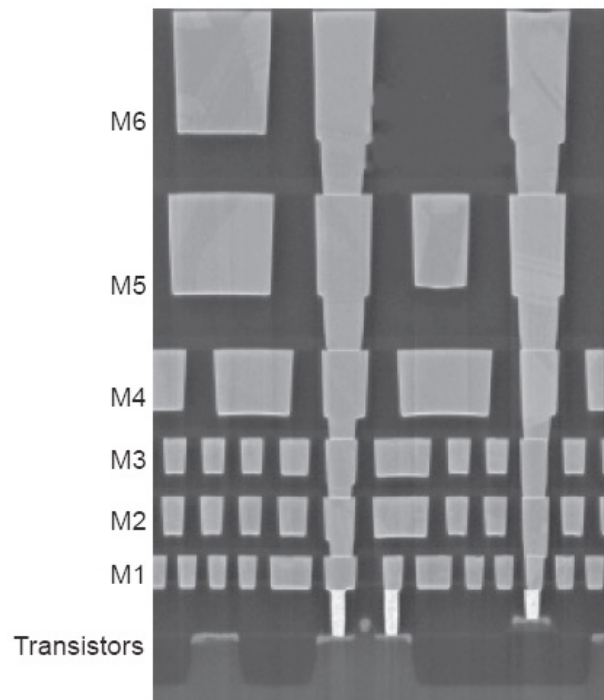
5 metal layers  
Ti/Al - Cu/Ti/TiN  
Polysilicon dielectric

<u>LAYER</u>	<u>PITCH</u>	<u>THICK</u>	<u>A.R.</u>
Isolation	0.67	0.40	-
Polysilicon	0.64	0.25	-
Metal 1	0.64	0.48	1.5
Metal 2	0.93	0.90	1.9
Metal 3	0.93	0.90	1.9
Metal 4	1.60	1.33	1.7
Metal 5	2.56	1.90	1.5
	$\mu\text{m}$	$\mu\text{m}$	

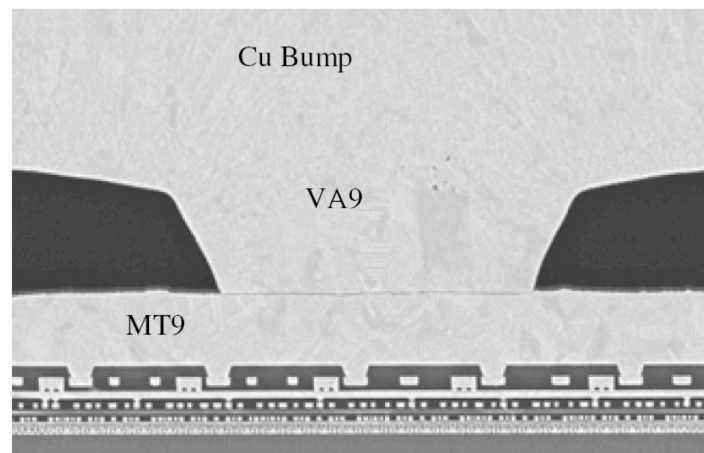
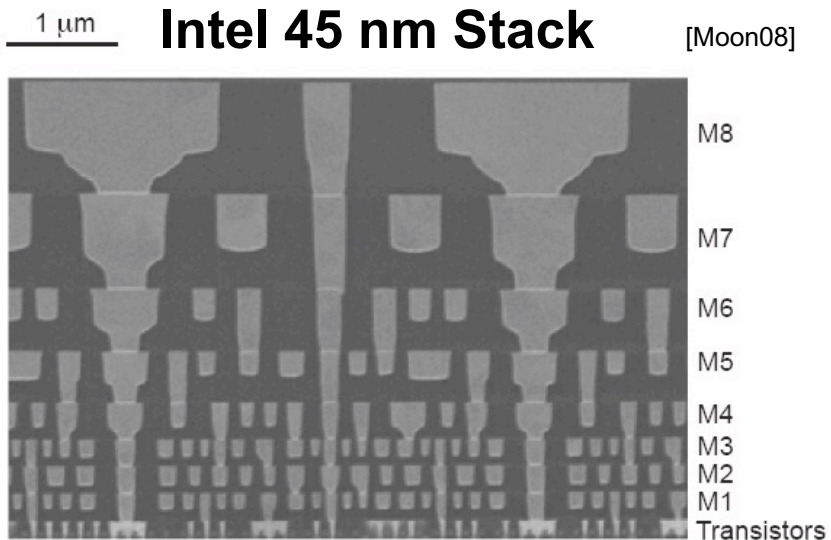
Layer pitch, thickness and aspect ratio



# More Examples



**Intel 90 nm Stack** [Thompson02]



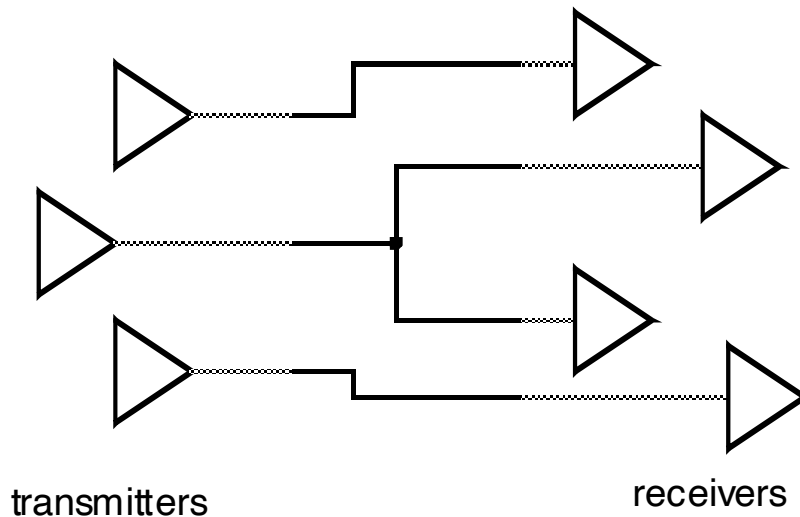
**FIGURE 6.3** SEM image of complete cross-section of Intel's 45 nm process including M9 and I/O bump (From [Moon08] with permission of Intel Corporation.)

# Wire Model

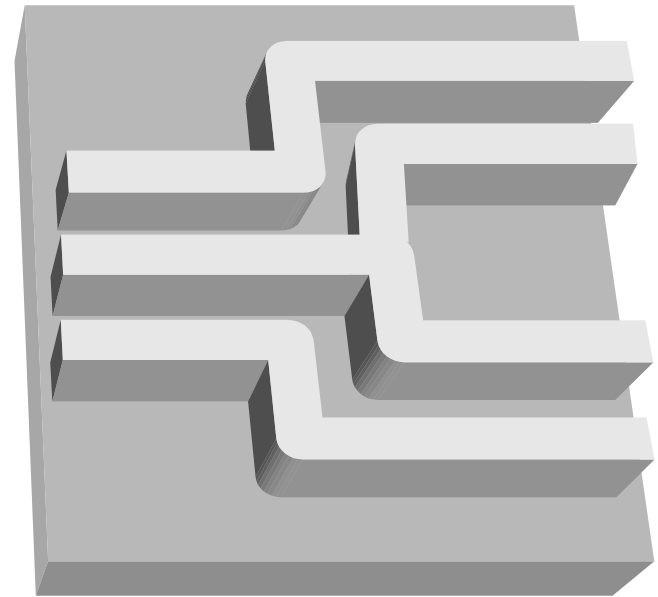
Parasitics: capacitance, resistance, inductance

- ▣ increase in propagation delay, or drop in performance
- ▣ an impact on power consumption
- ▣ an introduction of extra noise sources -> reliability

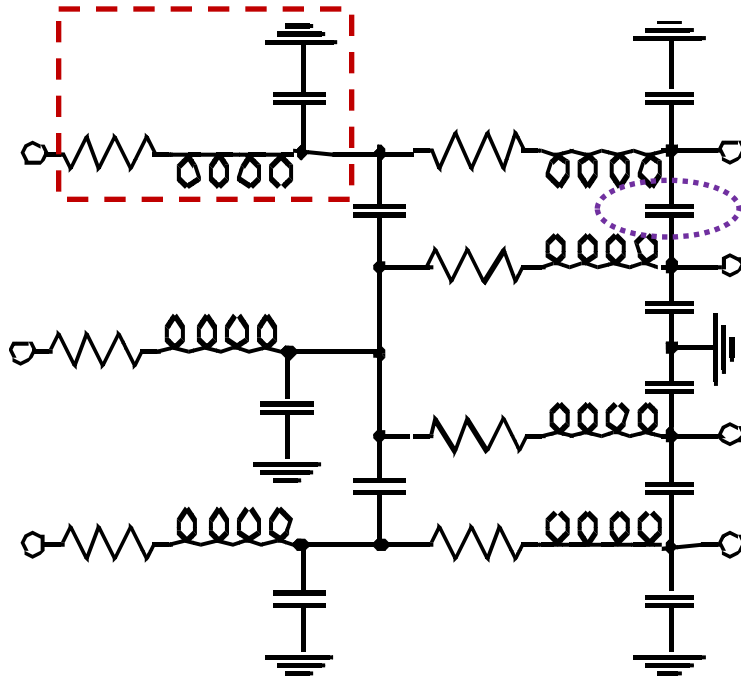
**Schematics**



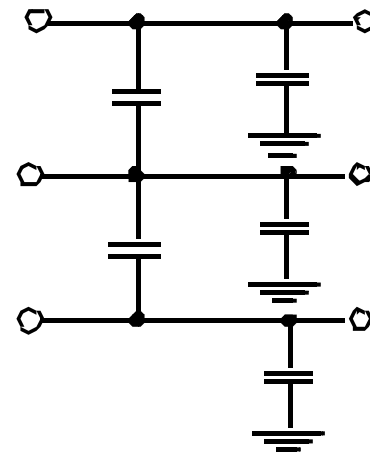
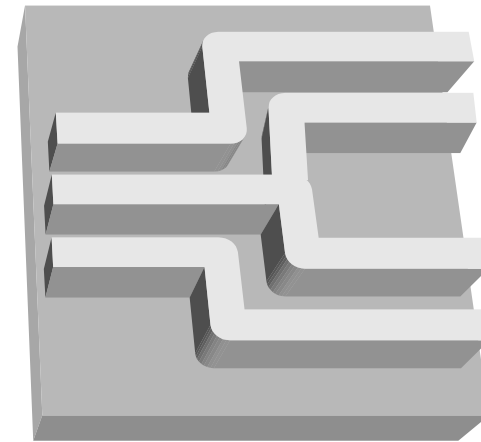
**Physical**



# Wire: Models



**All-inclusive model**



**Capacitance-only model**

# Wire: Parasitic Simplifications

---

- Inductive effects can be **ignored**
  - if the resistance of the wire is **substantial enough** (as is the case for long Al wires with small cross-section)
  - If the rise and fall times of the applied signals are **slow enough**
- Capacitance only model can be used
  - When the wire is **short**, or the cross-section is **large**,
  - The interconnect material has **low resistivity**,
- Interwire capacitance can be **ignored**, and all the parasitic capacitance can be modeled as capacitance to ground
  - when the separation between neighboring wires is **large**
  - when the wires run together for only a **short distance**

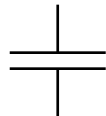
# Interconnect Modeling

- Current in a wire is analogous to current in a pipe
  - **Resistance:** narrow size impedes flow
  - **Capacitance:** trough under the leaky pipe must fill first
  - **Inductance:** paddle wheel inertia opposes changes in flow rate

*(Negligible for most wires)*

- Classes of parasitics

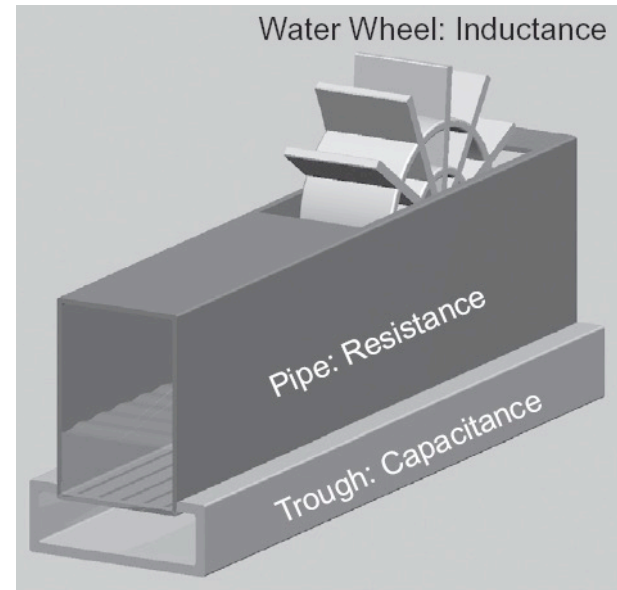
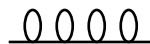
-- Capacitive



-- Resistive

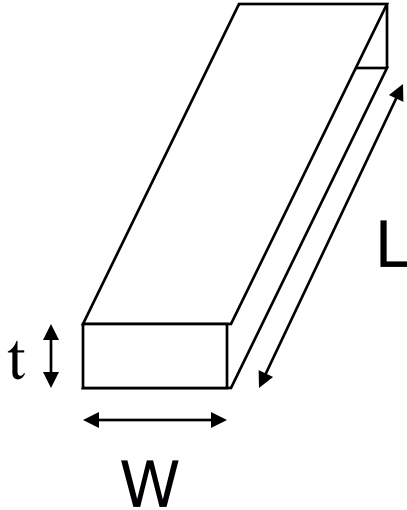


-- Inductive





# Wire Resistance



$$R = \frac{\rho L}{A} = \frac{\rho L}{t W} = R_{\square} \frac{L}{W}$$

方块电阻  
 $R_{\square}$ : Sheet Resistance

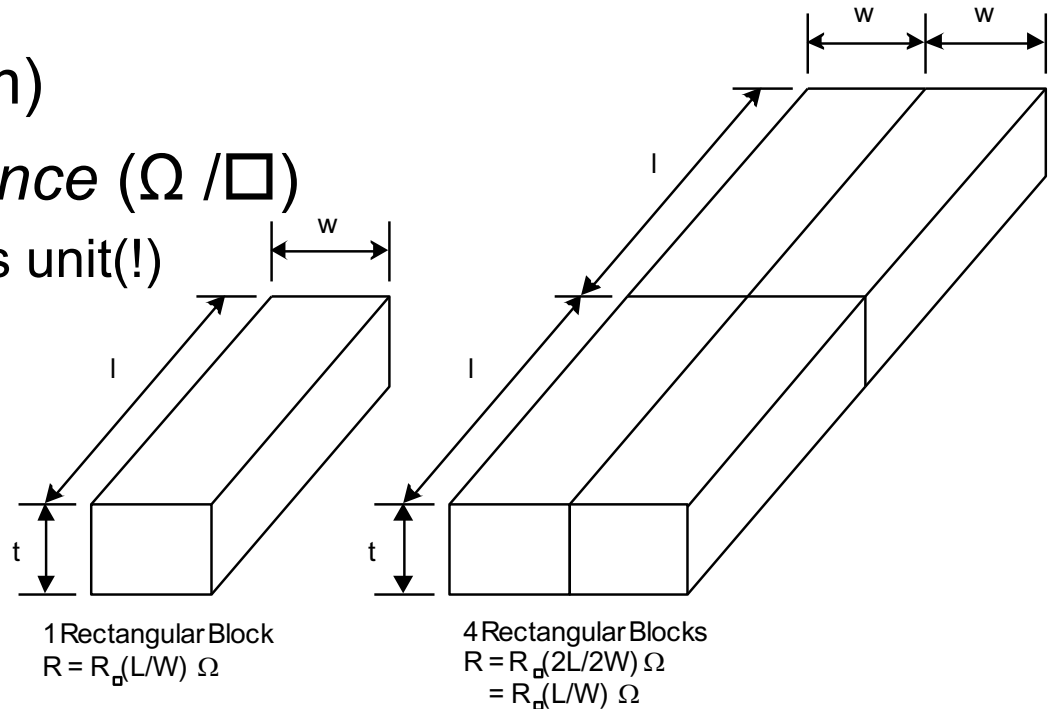
Material	$\rho(\Omega\cdot\text{m})$
Silver (Ag)	$1.6 \times 10^{-8}$
<i>Copper (Cu)</i>	<i><math>1.7 \times 10^{-8}</math></i>
Gold (Au)	$2.2 \times 10^{-8}$
<i>Aluminum (Al)</i>	<i><math>2.7 \times 10^{-8}</math></i>
Tungsten (W)	$5.5 \times 10^{-8}$

Material	$R_{\square} (\Omega/\square)$
n, p well diffusion	1000 to 1500
n+, p+ diffusion	50 to 150
n+, p+ diffusion with silicide	3 to 5
polysilicon	150 to 200
polysilicon with silicide	4 to 5
Aluminum	0.05 to 0.1

# Wire Resistance: $\rho$ vs. $R_{\square}$

- $\rho$ : resistivity ( $\Omega \cdot \text{m}$ )
- $R_{\square}$ : sheet resistance ( $\Omega / \square$ )  
 □ is a dimensionless unit(!)

$$R = \frac{\rho L}{A} = R_{\square} \frac{L}{W}$$



## Example

The Al wire is 10cm long and  $1\mu\text{m}$  wide and is routed on the first Al layer:

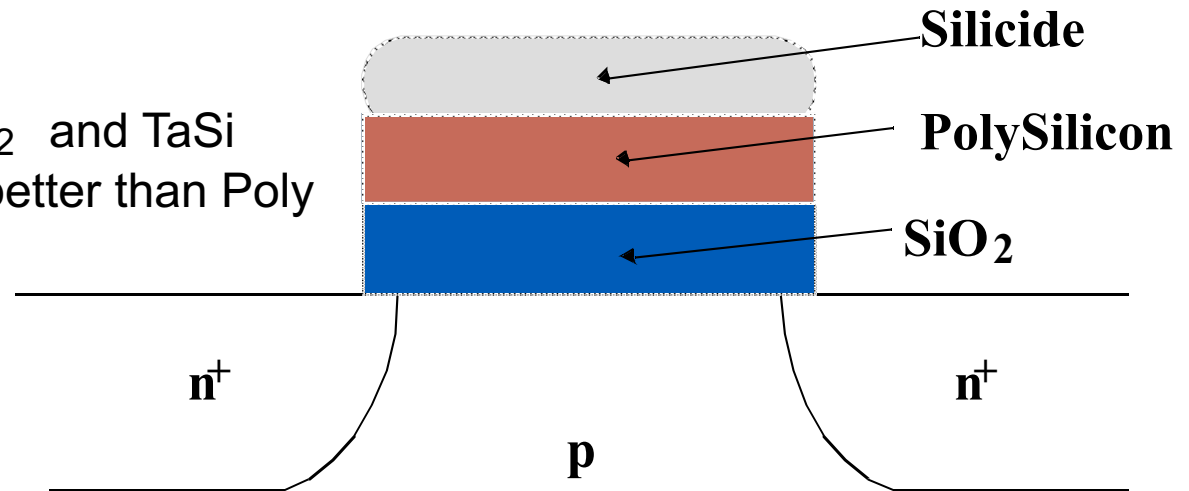
$$R_{\text{wire}} = 0.075 \Omega / \square \times (0.1 \times 10^6 \mu\text{m}) / 1 \mu\text{m} = 7.5 \text{k}\Omega$$

Poly( $175 \Omega / \square$ ) :  $17.5 \text{M}\Omega$ ; Silicided Polysilicon( $4 \Omega / \square$ ) :  $400 \text{k}\Omega$

# Dealing with Resistance

- Use better interconnect materials
  - reduce average wire-length
  - e.g. copper, silicides
- More interconnect layers
  - reduce average wire-length

Silicides:  $\text{WSi}_2$ ,  $\text{TiSi}_2$ ,  $\text{PtSi}_2$  and  $\text{TaSi}$   
Conductivity: **8-10 times** better than Poly



# Choice of Metals

---

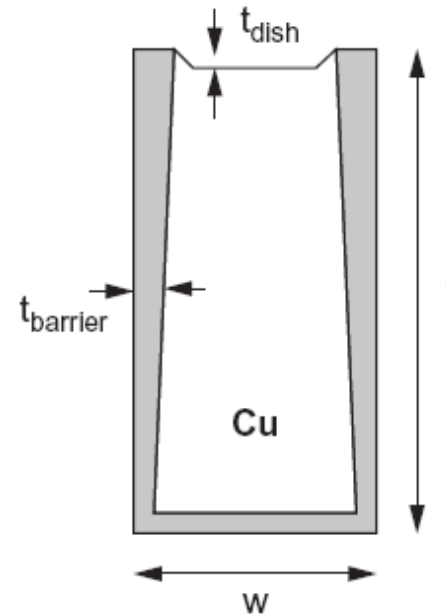
- Until 180 nm generation, most wires were **aluminum**
- Contemporary processes normally use **copper**
  - Cu atoms diffuse into silicon and damage FETs
  - Must be surrounded by a diffusion barrier

Metal	Bulk resistivity ( $\mu\Omega \cdot \text{cm}$ )
Silver (Ag)	1.6
<b>Copper (Cu)</b>	<b>1.7</b>
Gold (Au)	2.2
Aluminum (Al)	2.8
Tungsten (W)	5.3
Titanium (Ti)	43.0

## Appendix: Copper Issues

- Copper wires diffusion barrier has high resistance
- Copper is also prone to *dishing* during polishing
- Effective resistance is higher

$$R = \frac{\rho}{(t - t_{\text{dish}} - t_{\text{barrier}})} \frac{l}{(w - 2t_{\text{barrier}})}$$



# Contacts Resistance

---

- Contacts Resistance: transitions between routing layers add extra resistance to a wire
  - Contacts: **5-20 $\Omega$**                       vias: **1-5  $\Omega$**
  - **Preferred routing strategy: keep signal wire on a single layer**
- Use many contacts for lower R
  - Many small contacts for current crowding around periphery

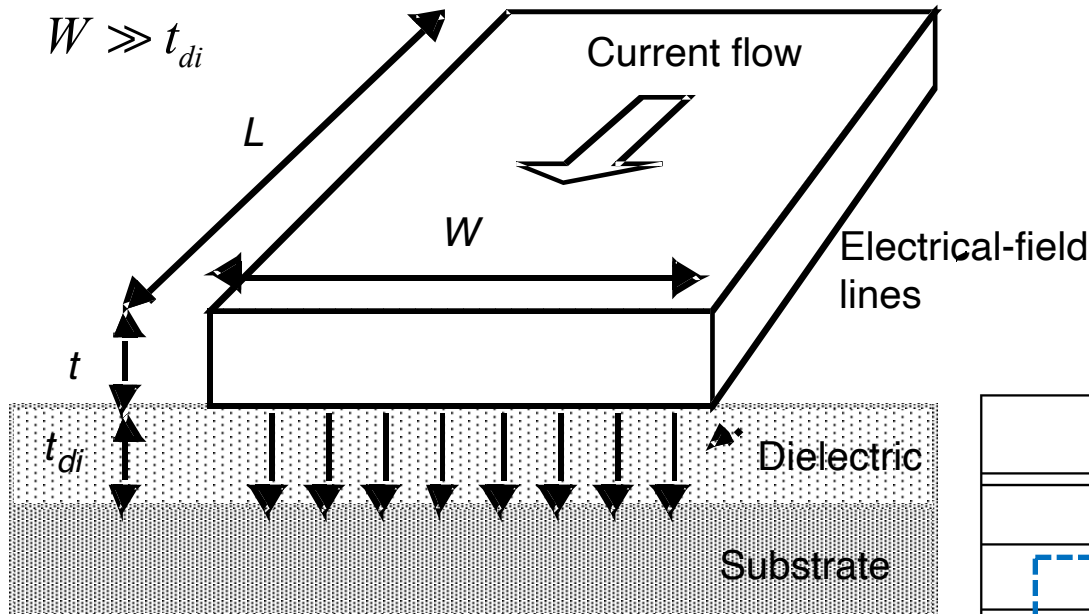


# Outline

---

- Review: Quantity Metrics of Digital Design
- Wire: A First Glance
- Interconnect Parameters: R, C, L
  - Resistance
  - Capacitor
  - Inductance
- Electrical Wire Models
- Perspective

# Capacitance: Parallel-Plate Model



$$C_{int} = \frac{\epsilon_{di}}{t_{di}} WL$$

## Permittivity Constant

Material	$\epsilon_r$
Free space	1
Aerogels	~1.5
Polyimides (organic)	3-4
Silicon dioxide	3.9
Glass-epoxy (PC board)	5
Silicon Nitride ( $\text{Si}_3\text{N}_4$ )	7.5
Alumina (package)	9.5
Silicon	11.7

$$\epsilon_0 = 8.854 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F/m}$$

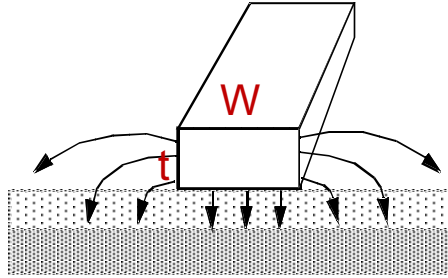


# Capacitance Trends

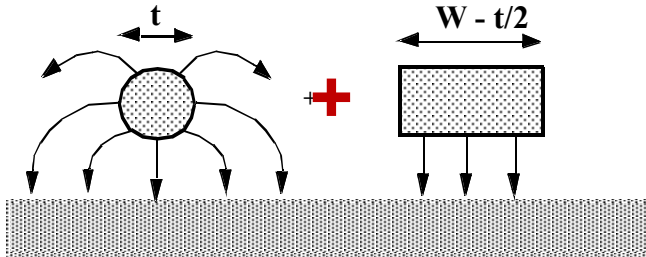
---

- Parallel-plate equation:  $C = \epsilon_{\text{ox}} A / t_{\text{di}}$ 
  - Wires are not parallel plates, but obey trends
  - Increasing area (W, L) increases capacitance
  - Increasing distance ( $t_{\text{di}}$ ) decreases capacitance
- Dielectric constant
  - $\epsilon_{\text{ox}} = k\epsilon_0$ 
    - $\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-14} \text{ F/cm}$
    - $k = 3.9$  for  $\text{SiO}_2$  (ideal oxide, 4.1 with phosphorous)
- Processes are starting to use low-k dielectrics
  - $k \approx 3$  (or less) as dielectrics use air pockets

# Fringing Capacitance边缘电容



II



$$C_{wire} = C_{pp} + C_{fringe} = \frac{W\epsilon_{di}}{t_{di}} + \frac{2\pi\epsilon_{di}}{\log(\frac{2t_{di}}{t} + 1)}$$

$$w = W - t/2$$

- Capacitance of a line without neighbors is approximated as

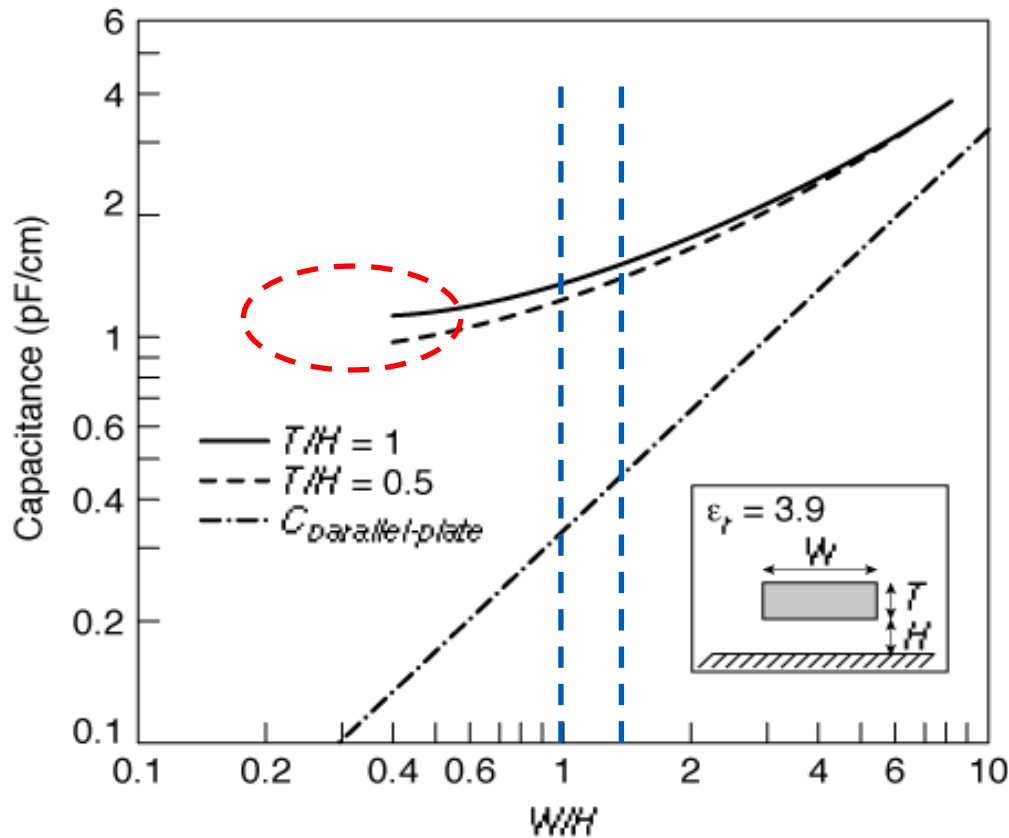
$$C_{tot} = \epsilon_{ox} l \left[ \frac{w}{h} + 0.77 + 1.06 \left( \frac{w}{h} \right)^{0.25} + 1.06 \left( \frac{t}{h} \right)^{0.5} \right]$$

--the empirical formula is accurate to 6% for AR < 3.3



# Capacitance: Fringing vs. Parallel Plate

## Fringing versus Parallel Plate



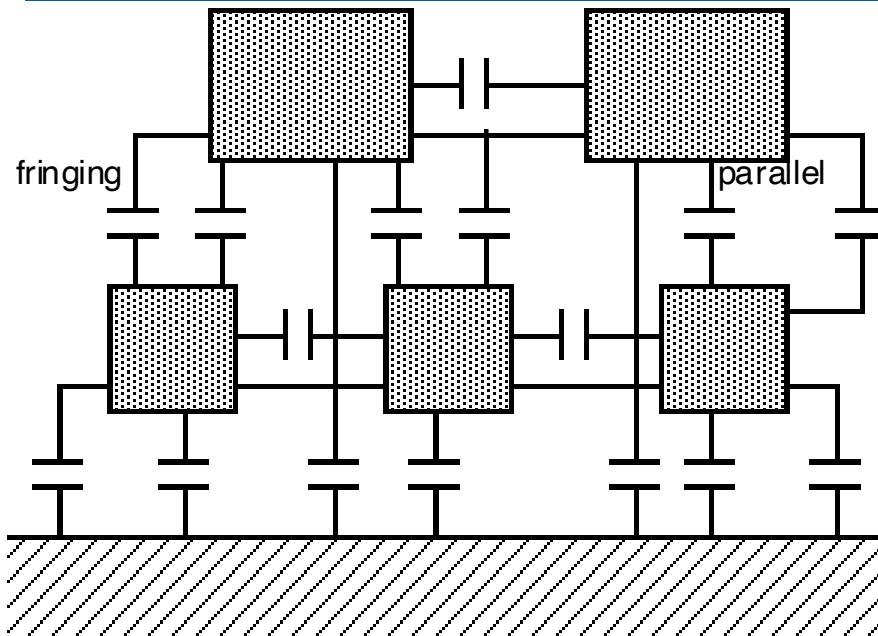
For  $W/H < 1.5$ , the fringe component dominates the parallel-plate component.

Fringing capacitance can increase the overall capacitance by a factor of 10 or more.

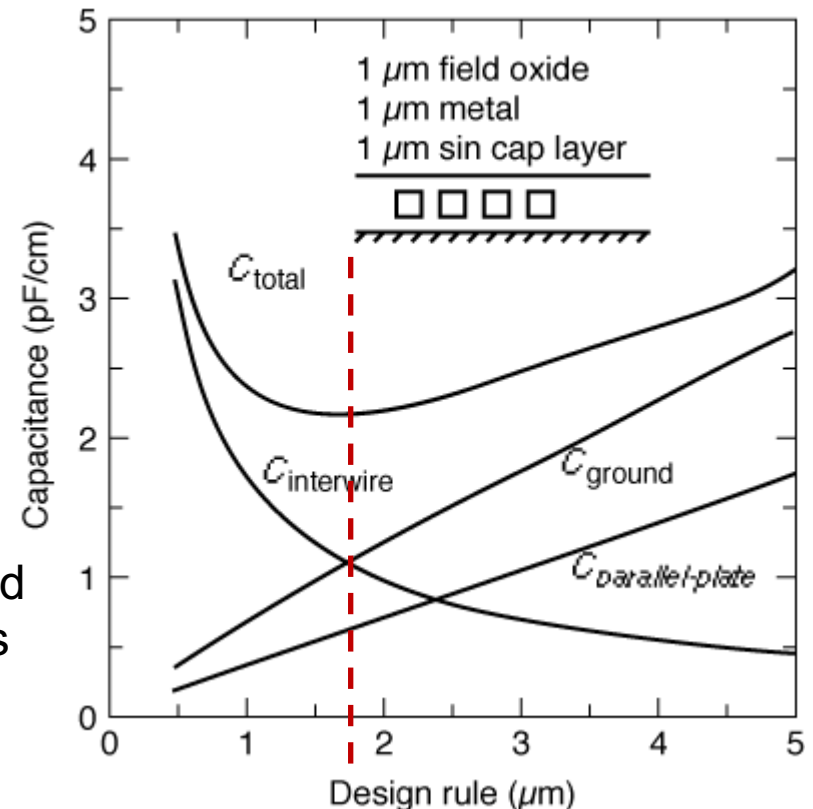
Note that the cap level levels off to a constant value of approx: 1pf/cm

# Interwire Capacitance

$$C_{\text{wire}} = C_{\text{pp}} + C_{\text{fringe}} + C_{\text{interwire}}$$



- ❑ When  $W < 1.75H$ , interwire capacitance: dominate
- ❑ Interwire capacitance is more pronounced for wires in the higher interconnect layers (further from the substrate)



# Interwire Capacitances: 0.25 $\mu$ m CMOS

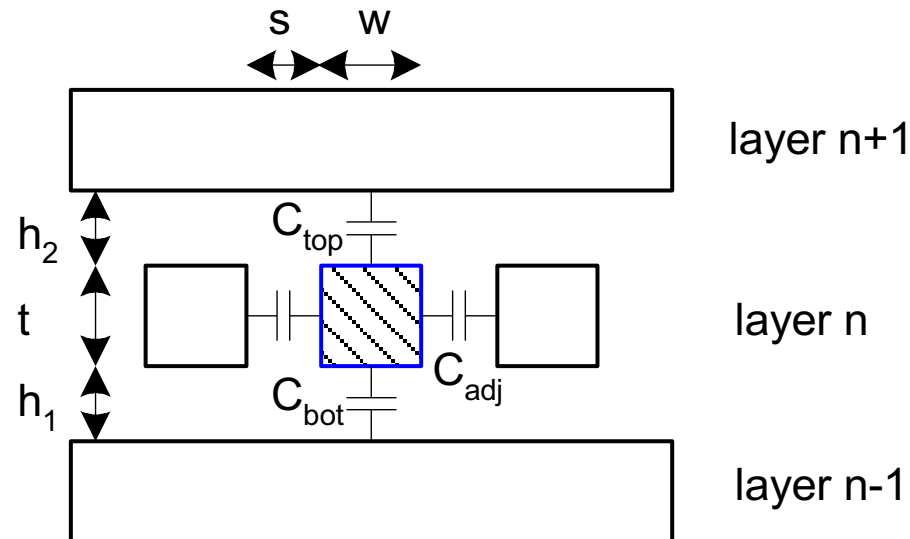
	Field	Active	Poly	Al1	Al2	Al3	Al4
Poly	88				<i>pp: in aF/<math>\mu</math>m<sup>2</sup></i>		
	54				<i>fringe: in aF/<math>\mu</math>m</i>		
Al1	30	41	57				
	40	47	54				
Al2	13	15	17	36			
	25	27	29	45			
Al3	8.9	9.4	10	15	41		
	18	19	20	27	49		
Al4	6.5	6.8	7	8.9	15	35	
	14	15	15	18	27	45	
Al5	5.2	5.4	5.4	6.6	9.1	14	38
	12	12	12	14	19	27	52

同一层	Poly	Al1	Al2	Al3	Al4	Al5	aF/ $\mu$ m
Interwire Cap	40	95	85	85	85	115	

单位长度的线间电容

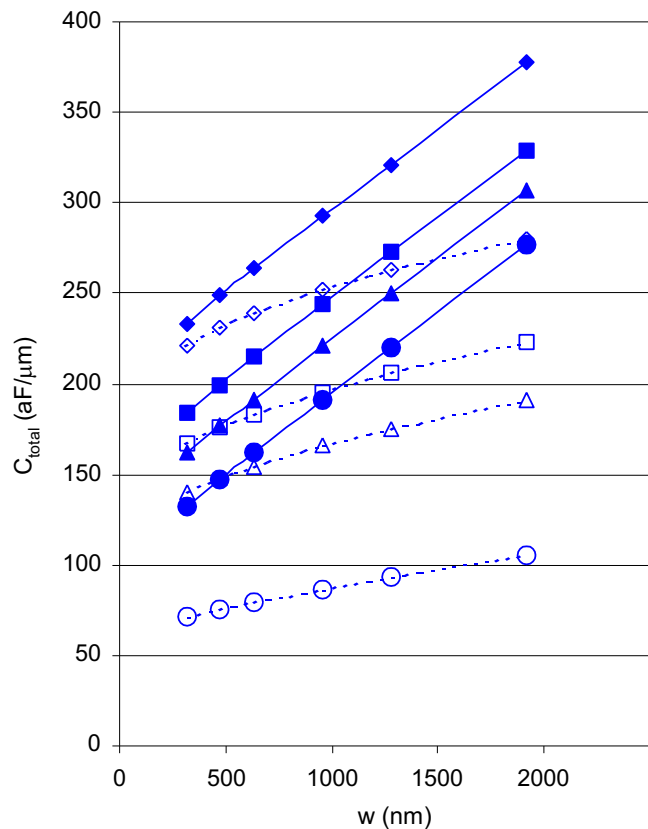
# Multilayer Wire Capacitance

- Wire has capacitance per unit length
  - To neighbors
  - To layers above and below
- $C_{\text{total}} = C_{\text{top}} + C_{\text{bot}} + 2C_{\text{adj}}$



# Example: M2 Capacitance Data

- Typical dense wires have  $\sim 0.2$  fF/mm
  - Compare to 1-2 fF/mm for gate capacitance



A metal2 wire in a 180 nm process with wire and oxide thicknesses of 0.7mm.

- For an isolated wire above the substrate, the capacitance is strongly influenced by spacing between conductors
- For a wire sandwiched between metal1 and metal3 planes, the capacitance is higher and is more sensitive to the width but less sensitive to spacing

# Diffusion & Polysilicon

---

## ☐ Rules of thumb

- Use poly only for short runs
- Shorter wires – lower R and C
- Thinner wires – lower C but higher R

## Insights



- ☐ Diffusion capacitance is very high (1-2 fF/mm)
  - Comparable to gate capacitance
  - Diffusion also has high resistance
  - Avoid using diffusion *runners* for wires!
- ☐ Polysilicon has lower C but high R
  - Use for transistor gates
  - Occasionally for very short wires between gates



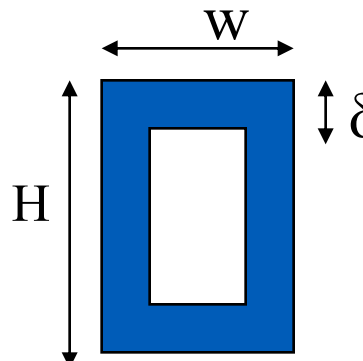
# Skin Effect(趋肤效应)

At high frequency, currents tend to flow primarily on the surface of a conductor with the current density falling off exponentially with depth into the wire

**Skin depth:**

$$\delta = \sqrt{\frac{\rho}{\pi f \mu}}$$

permeability:  $\mu = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ H/m}$   
 $\delta = 2.6 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$  for Al at 1 GHz



⇒ the overall cross section is  $\sim 2(w+t)\delta$

$$r(f) = \frac{\sqrt{\pi f \mu \rho}}{\pi \mu (\max(W, H))^2}$$

- The onset of skin effect is at  $f_s$  - where the skin depth is equal to half the largest dimension of the wire

$$f_s = \frac{4\rho}{\pi \mu (\max(W, H))^2}$$



An issue for **wide (tall)** wires in high frequency: **i.e., clocks!**

# Inductance

- On-chip inductance: ringing and overshoot effects, reflections of signal due to impedance mismatch, inductive coupling between lines, and switching noise due to  $L di/dt$  voltage

$$\Delta V = L \frac{di}{dt}$$

- The capacitor  $c$  and the inductance  $l$  (per unit length) of a wire:

$$cl = \epsilon\mu \quad v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{cl}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon\mu}} = \frac{c_0}{\sqrt{\epsilon_r\mu_r}}$$

Dielectric	$\epsilon_r$	Propagation speed (cm/nsec)
Vacuum	1	30
SiO <sub>2</sub>	3.9	15
PC board (epoxy glass)	5.0	13
Alumina (ceramic package)	9.5	10

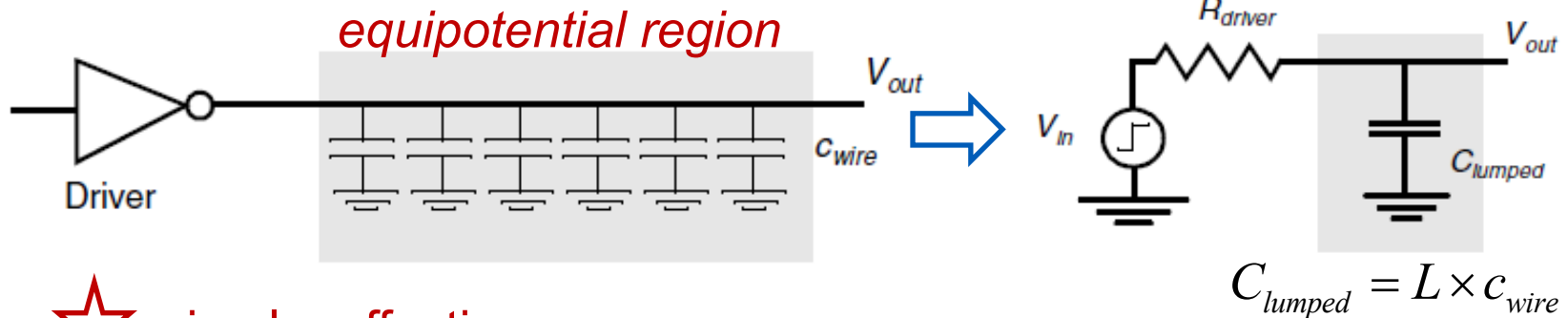
# Wire Delay Model: Ideal Wire

---

- Ideal wire      **simplistic**
  - The same voltage is present at every segment of the wire at every point in time: *equipotential region*
  - **early phases of the design process**
  - only holds for *very short* wires, i.e., interconnects between *very* nearest neighbor gates

# Lumped Model

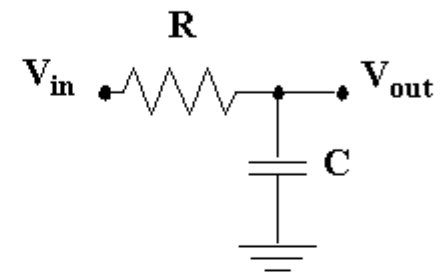
## □ Lumped Model



★ simple, effective  
an ordinary differential equation

## □ Lumped RC model

- total wire resistance is lumped into a single  $R$  and total capacitance into a single  $C$
- good for short wires
- pessimistic and inaccurate for long wires

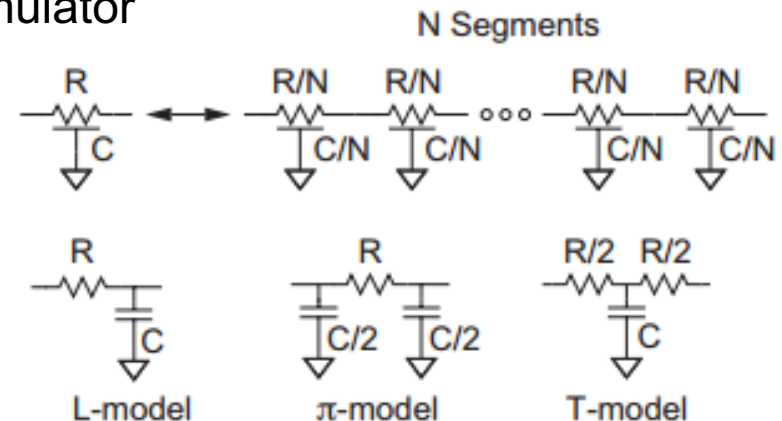


# Distributed RC Model

- A wire is a distributed circuit with a resistance and capacitance per unit length. Its behavior can be approximated with a number of lumped elements.
- Three standard approximations:
  - **L-model**: a large number of segments are required for accurate results => poor choice
  - **$\pi$ -model**: three segments are sufficient to give results accurate to 3% [Sakurai83].
  - **T-model**: produces a circuit with one more node that is slower to solve by hand or with a circuit simulator

- Common practice to model long wires for simulation:

**3–5 segment  $\pi$ -model**



# -- RC Tree Definitions

- A unique resistive path exists between the source node and any node of the network
  - Single input (source) node:  $s$
  - All capacitors are between a node and GND
  - No resistive loops
- **Path resistance** 路径电阻 (sum of the resistances on the path from the input node  $s$  to node  $i$ )

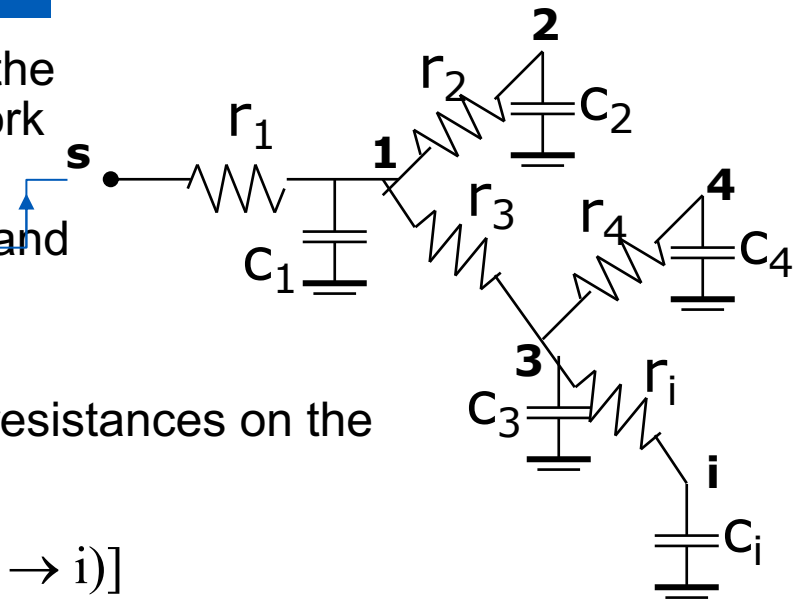
$$R_{ii} = \sum_{j=1}^i r_j \Rightarrow (r_j \in [\text{path}(s \rightarrow i)])$$

- **Shared path resistance** 共享路径电阻 (resistance shared along the paths from the input node  $s$  to nodes  $i$  and  $k$ )

$$R_{ik} = \sum_{j=1}^N r_j \Rightarrow (r_j \in [\text{path}(s \rightarrow i) \cap \text{path}(s \rightarrow k)])$$

- **Elmore Delay**

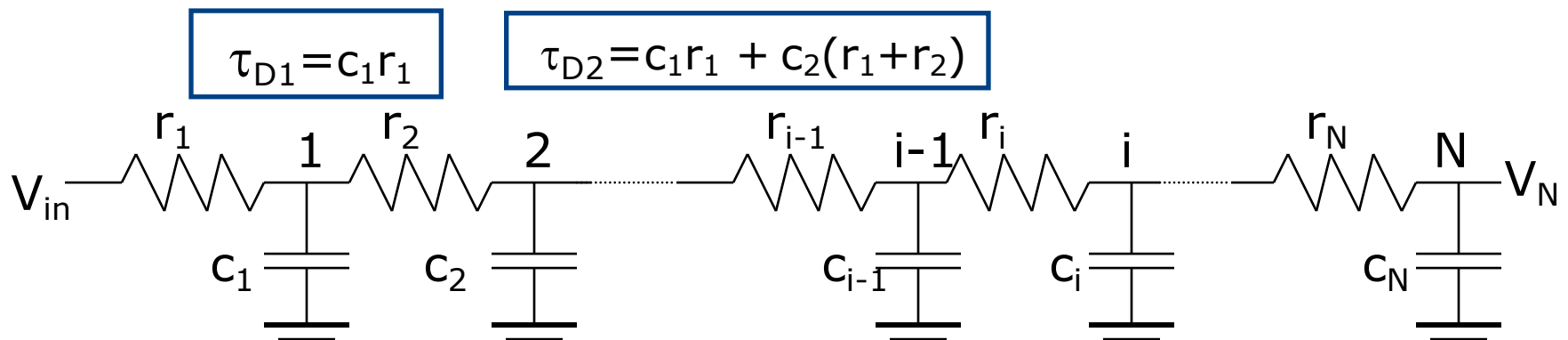
$$\tau_{Di} = \sum_{k=1}^N C_k R_{ik} \Rightarrow \tau_{Di} = R_1 C_1 + R_1 C_2 + (R_1 + R_3) C_3 + (R_1 + R_3) C_4 + (R_1 + R_3 + R_i) C_i$$



# -- Chain Network Elmore Delay

## □ Elmore delay equation

$$\tau_{Di} = \sum_{k=1}^N C_k R_{ik} \Rightarrow \tau_{DN} = \sum_{i=1}^N C_i \sum_{j=1}^N R_j = \sum_{i=1}^N C_i R_{ii}$$



$$\tau_{Di} = c_1 r_1 + c_2 (r_1 + r_2) + \dots + c_i (r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_i)$$

$$\tau_{Di} = c_1 r_{eq} + 2c_2 r_{eq} + 3c_3 r_{eq} + \dots + i c_i r_{eq}$$

## -- Distributed RC Model for Simple Wires

---

- A length  $L$  wire can be modeled by  $N$  segments of length  $L/N$ 
  - The resistance and capacitance of each segment are given by  $r L/N$  and  $c L/N$

$$\tau_{DN} = \left(\frac{L}{N}\right)^2 (rc + 2rc + \dots + Nrc) = (rcL^2) \frac{N(N+1)}{2N^2} = RC \frac{N+1}{2N}$$

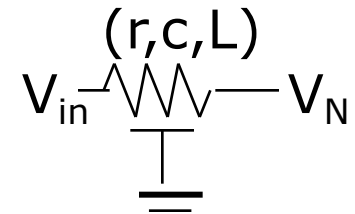
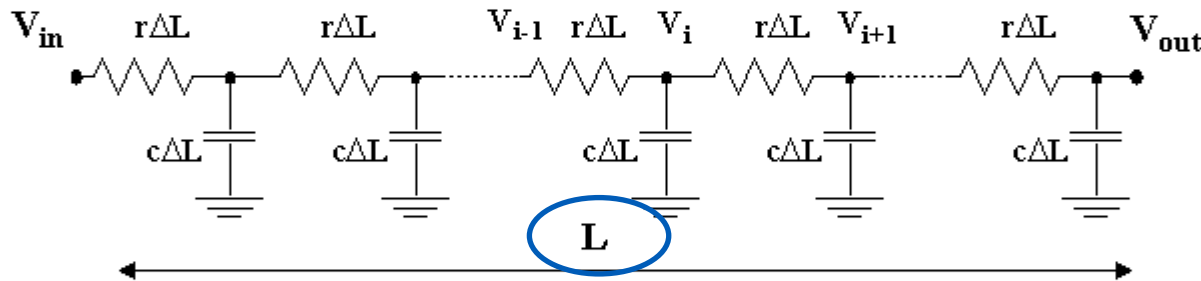
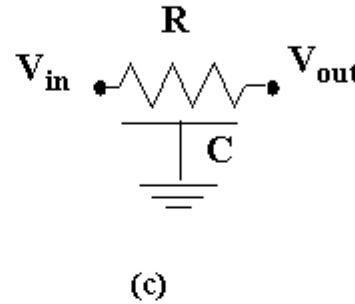
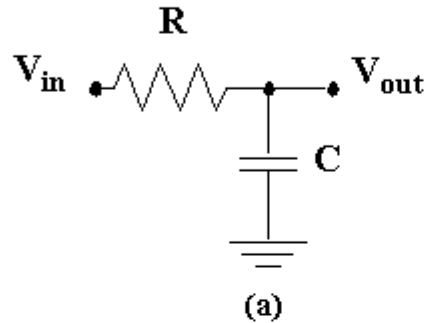
$$N \rightarrow \infty \quad \tau_{DN} = \frac{RC}{2} = \frac{rcL^2}{2}$$

- For large  $N$ 
  - Delay of a wire is a **quadratic** function of its length,  $L$
  - The delay is **1/2 of that predicted** by the lumped model



# Distributed $rc$ line

--SPICE Model



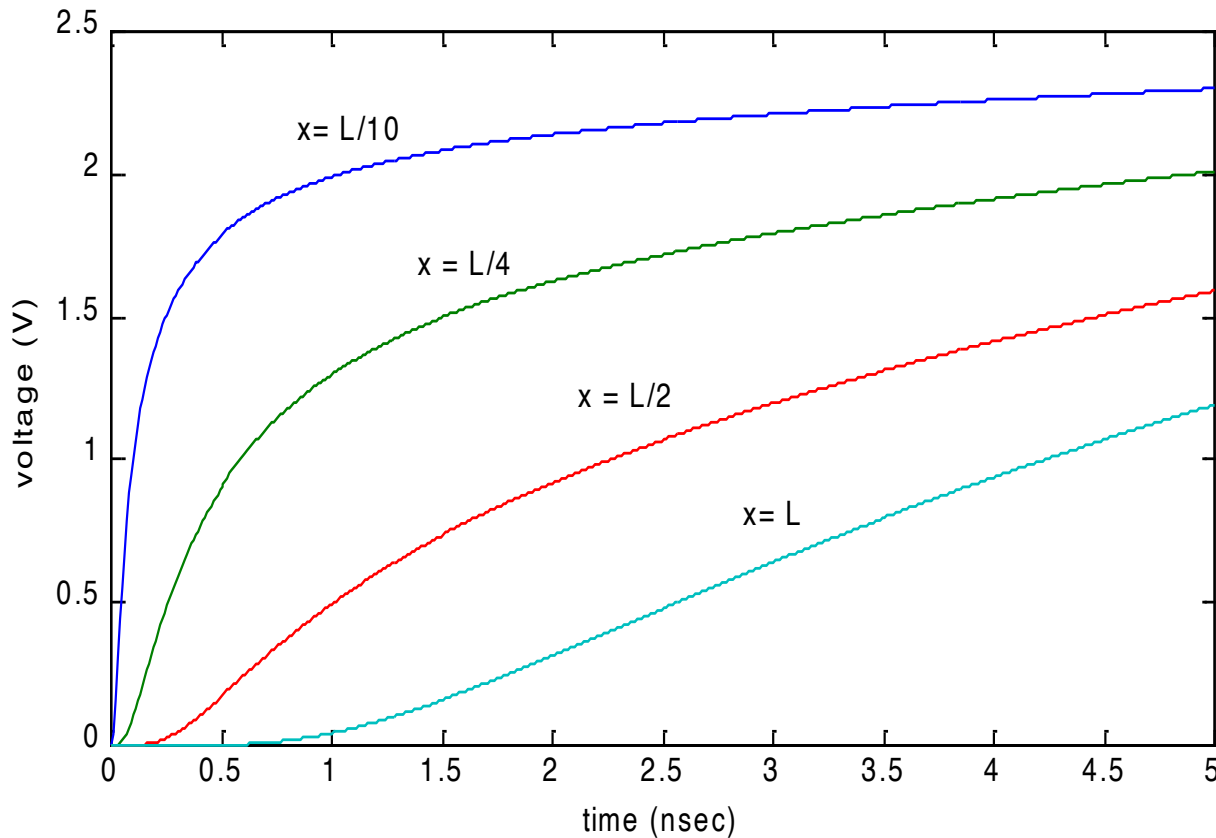
Partial differential equation: 
$$c\Delta L \frac{\partial V_i}{\partial t} = \frac{(V_{i+1} - V_i) + (V_{i-1} - V_i)}{r\Delta L}$$

$$\Downarrow \Delta L \rightarrow 0$$

Diffusion equation: 
$$rc \frac{\partial V}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2}$$

$$\tau(V_{out}) = \frac{rcL^2}{2}$$

# Step-response of *rc* line



**Driving these *rc* lines and minimizing the delay and signal degradation is one of the trickiest problems in IC design.**

# Layout example of buffers insertion

---



**Core terminals**

**Pads**

**Inserted buffers**

# Step Response Points

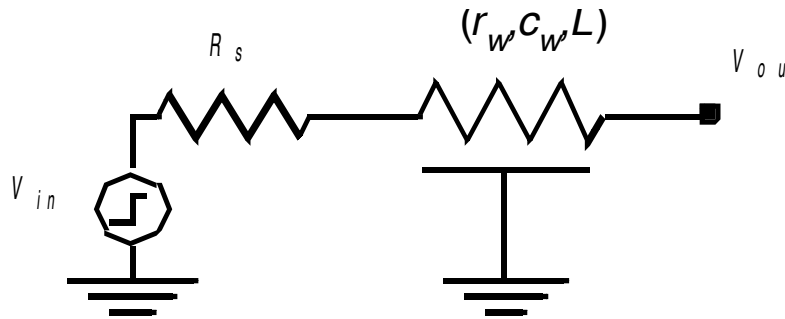
Voltage Range	Lumped RC	Distributed RC
0 → 50% ( $t_p$ )	0.69 RC	0.38 RC
0 → 63% ( $\tau$ )	RC	0.5 RC
10% → 90% ( $t_r$ )	2.2 RC	0.9 RC

Time to reach the 50% point:  $t = \ln(2)\tau = 0.69\tau$

Time 10%- 90% point:  $t = \ln(9)\tau = 2.2\tau$

- Example** Consider a Al1 wire: 10 cm long and 1  $\mu\text{m}$  wide
  - Using a lumped C only model with a source resistance ( $R_{\text{Driver}}$ ) of 10 k $\Omega$  and a total lumped capacitance ( $C_{\text{lumped}}$ ) of 11 pF
    - $t_{50\%} = 0.69 \times 10 \text{ k}\Omega \times 11 \text{ pF} = 76 \text{ ns}$
    - $t_{90\%} = 2.2 \times 10 \text{ k}\Omega \times 11 \text{ pF} = 242 \text{ ns}$
  - Using a distributed RC model with  $c = 110 \text{ aF}/\mu\text{m}$  and  $r = 0.075 \Omega/\mu\text{m}$ 
    - $t_{50\%} = 0.38 \times (0.075 \Omega/\mu\text{m}) \times (110 \text{ aF}/\mu\text{m}) \times (10^5 \mu\text{m})^2 = 31.4 \text{ ns}$
    - $t_{90\%} = 0.9 \times (0.075 \Omega/\mu\text{m}) \times (110 \text{ aF}/\mu\text{m}) \times (10^5 \mu\text{m})^2 = 74.25 \text{ ns}$
    - Poly:  $t_{50\%} = 0.38 \times (150 \Omega/\mu\text{m}) \times (88+2 \times 54 \text{ aF}/\mu\text{m}) \times (10^5 \mu\text{m})^2 = 112 \mu\text{s}$
    - Al5:  $t_{50\%} = 0.38 \times (0.0375 \Omega/\mu\text{m}) \times (5.2+2 \times 12 \text{ aF}/\mu\text{m}) \times (10^5 \mu\text{m})^2 = 4.2 \text{ ns}$

# Driving an $rc$ line



$$\tau_D = R_s C_w + \frac{R_w C_w}{2} = R_s C_w + 0.5 r_w c_w L^2$$

$$t_p = 0.69 R_s C_w + 0.38 R_w C_w$$

The delay introduced by the wire resistance becomes dominant when  $R_w C_w / 2 \geq R_s C_w$ , or  $L \geq 2 R_s / r$

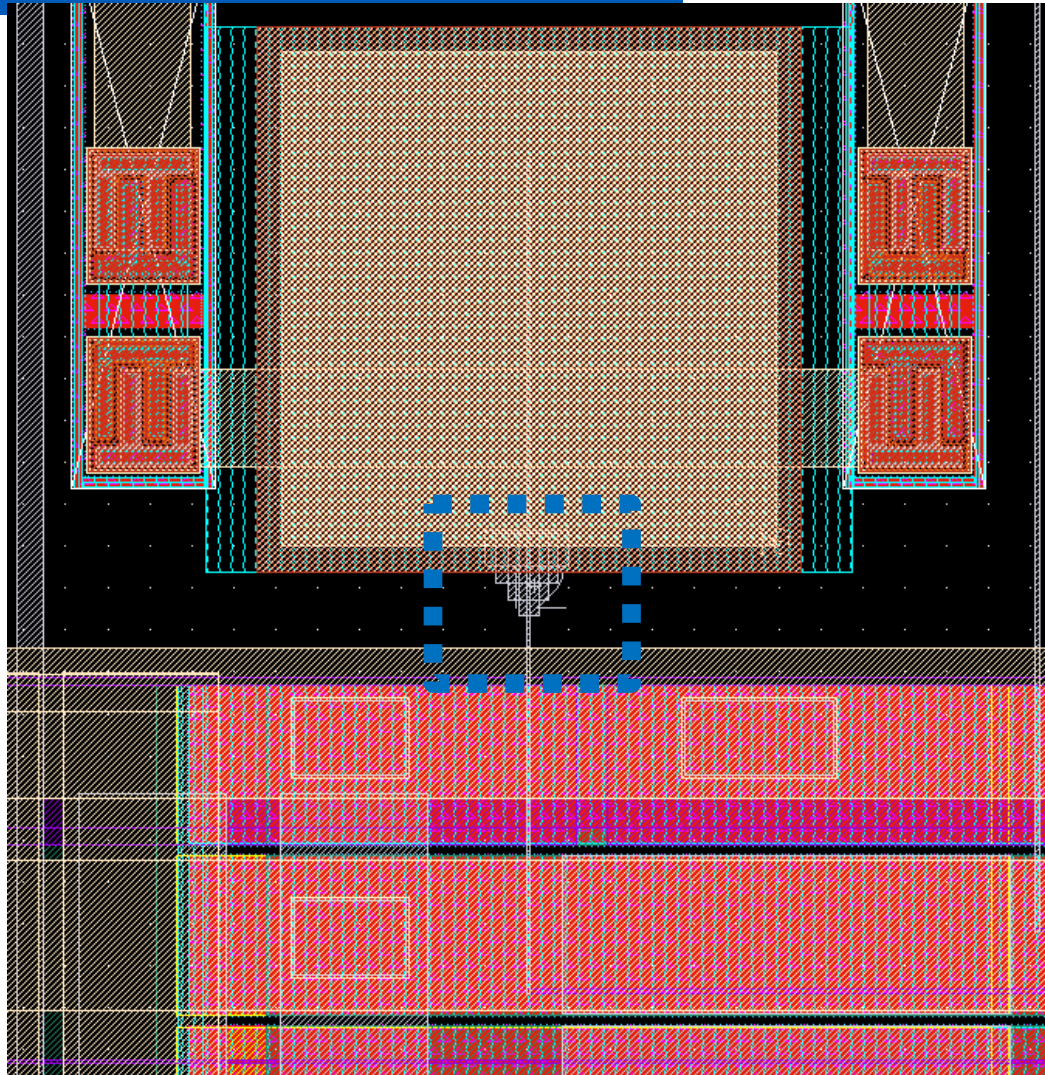
# Wire Sizing

---

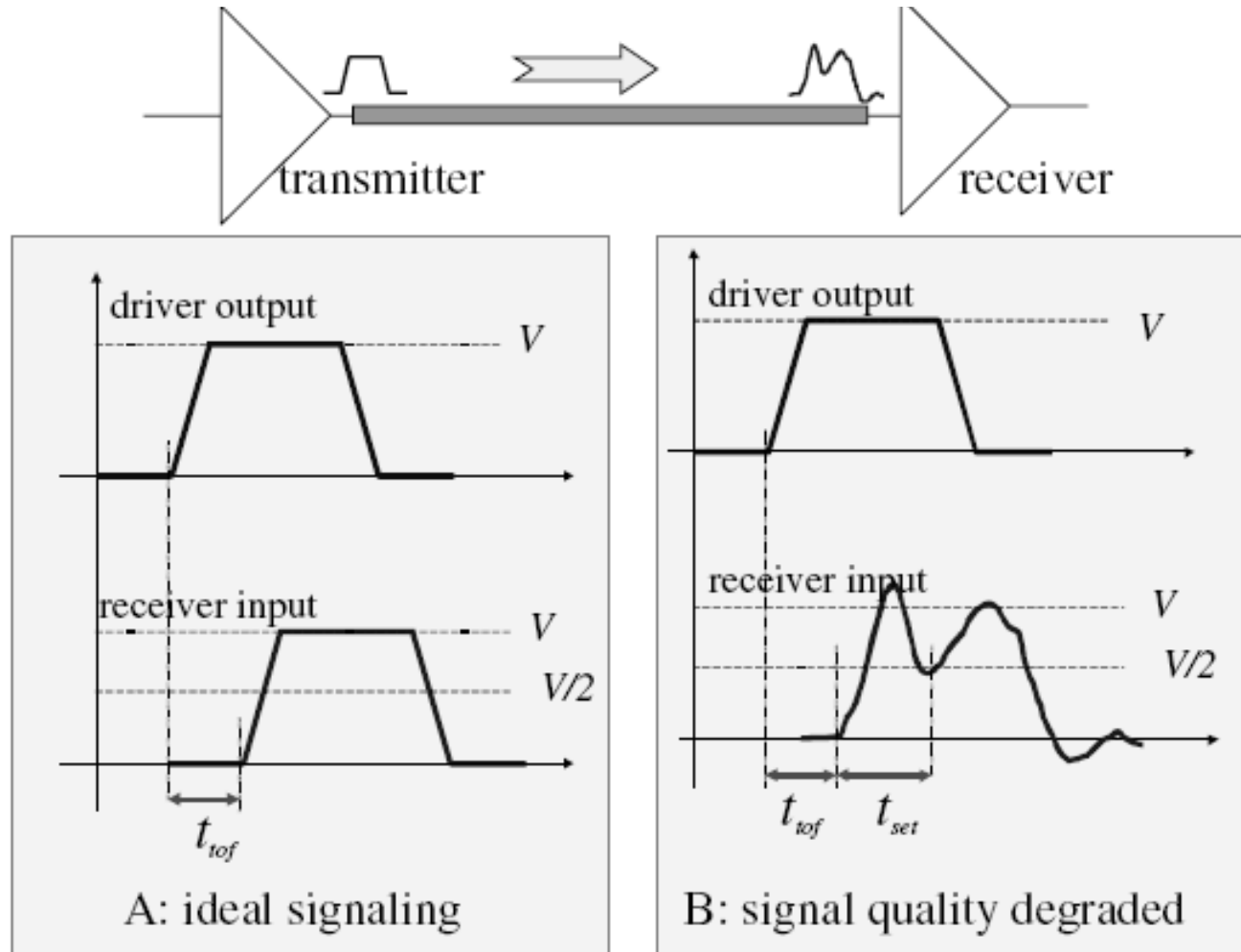
- Wire **length** is determined by layout architecture, but we can choose wire **width** to minimize delay.
- Wire width can vary with distance from driver to adjust the resistance which drives downstream capacitance.
- Wire with minimum delay has an **exponential taper**.
- Optimal tapering improves delay by about 8%.



# Example of Approximate tapering



# Signal Integrity(信号完整性)

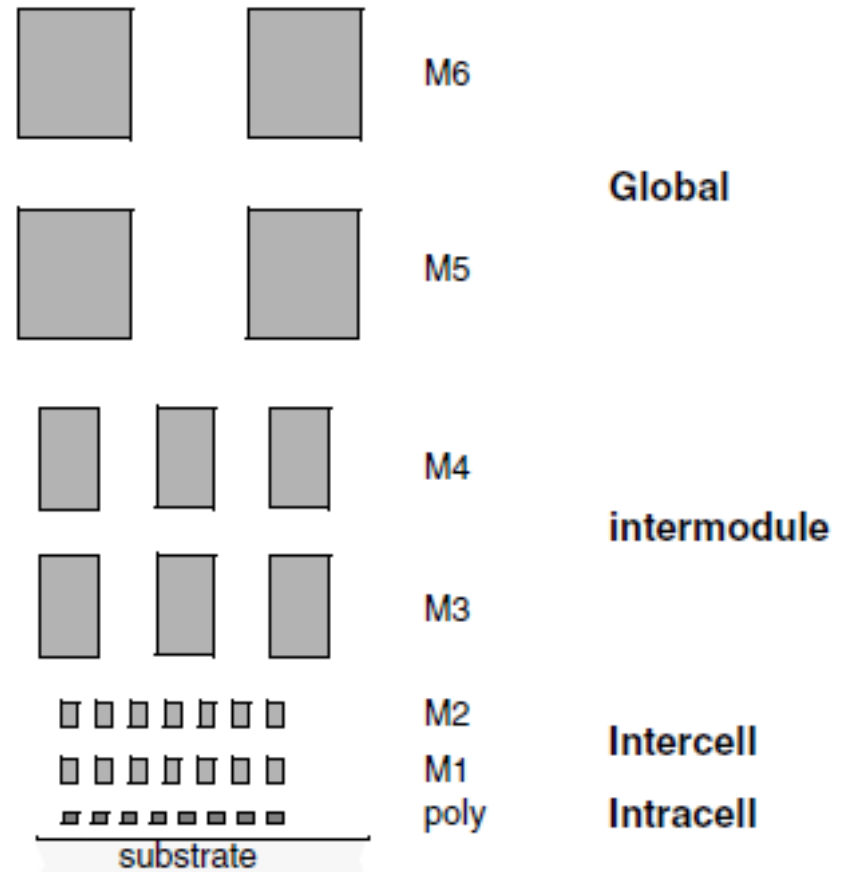




© 2013 Pearson Education, Inc. or its affiliate(s). All rights reserved. Pearson Education, Inc., publishing as Pearson Benjamin Cummings, 101 Philip Drive, Assinippi Park, New York, NY 10984-2135

# Perspective

- Better interconnect (Cu) and insulation material (polymers and air)
- Differentiate between wires
  - Local: density, low-cap
  - Global: low-resistance





# 集成电路原理与设计

## 11. 导线

*Wire*

谭志超

zhichaotan@zju.edu.cn