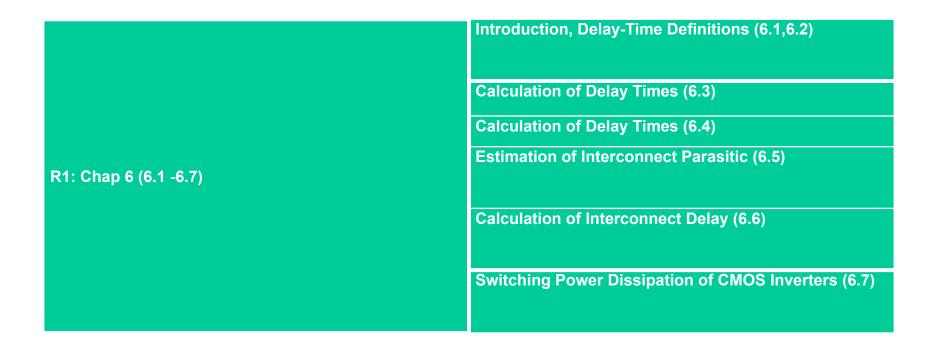


### **MODULE 3**

# Switching Characteristics and Interconnect Effects

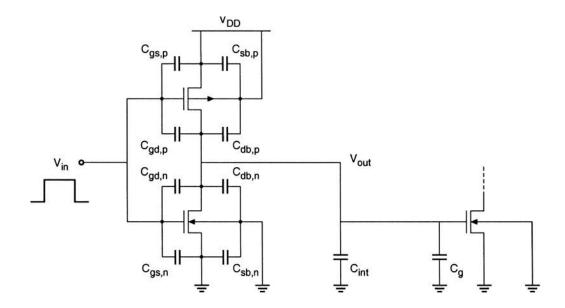
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### Contents:

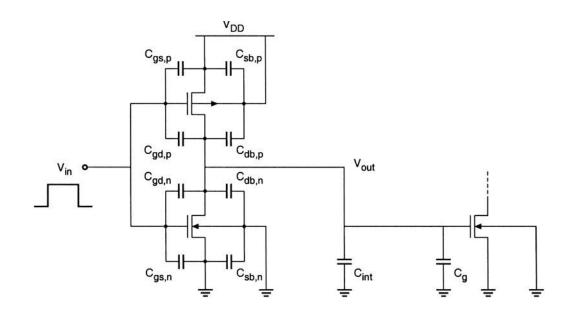


- we studied the DC (or Static) characteristics of the CMOS inverter
- we learned how to calculate:  $V_{OH}$ ,  $V_{OL}$ ,  $V_{IL}$ ,  $V_{IH}$ ,  $V_{th}$ ,  $NM_{L}$ ,  $NM_{H}$ ,
- we learned that we can modify some of these parameters using the W/L ratios of the inverter
- specifically, we say that the V<sub>th</sub> is solely dependant on W/L and is usually the most important and most commonly controlled parameter
- we now turn to the Switching (or AC or Dynamic) behavior of the inverter
- the switching characteristics give us how fast the circuit will run
- when designing, we must meet both DC and AC specs

- in an AC analysis, we need to consider the capacitance in the circuit
- note that the parasitic inductance tends to be small enough to be ignored (for now!)
- we consider an inverter that is driving another CMOS device or multiple CMOS devices in parallel

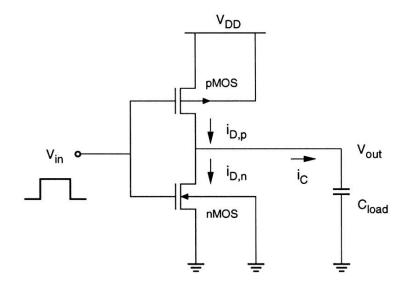


- there are 4 main groups of capacitance in the circuit
  - 1) Driver's Oxide Capacitance
  - 2) Driver's Junction Capacitance
  - 3) Interconnect Capacitance
  - 4) Receiver Oxide Capacitance



- we know that all of these capacitances vary as the dimensions of the inverter are altered and for various interconnect configurations
- in order to get a feel for how the capacitance effects performance, we assume that we can lump all of the capacitances into a fixed load capacitance (C<sub>load</sub>)

$$C_{load} = C_{gd,n} + C_{gd,p} + C_{db,n} + C_{db,p} + C_{int} + C_{gd,p}$$



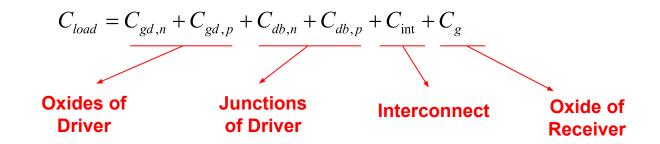
#### CMOS Switching Characteristics

- in this expression we **eliminate** some of the capacitances:

 $C_{sb,n}$ ,  $C_{sb,p}$  : There is no voltage change from  $V_{sb,n}$  or  $V_{sb,p}$  so there is no net capacitance

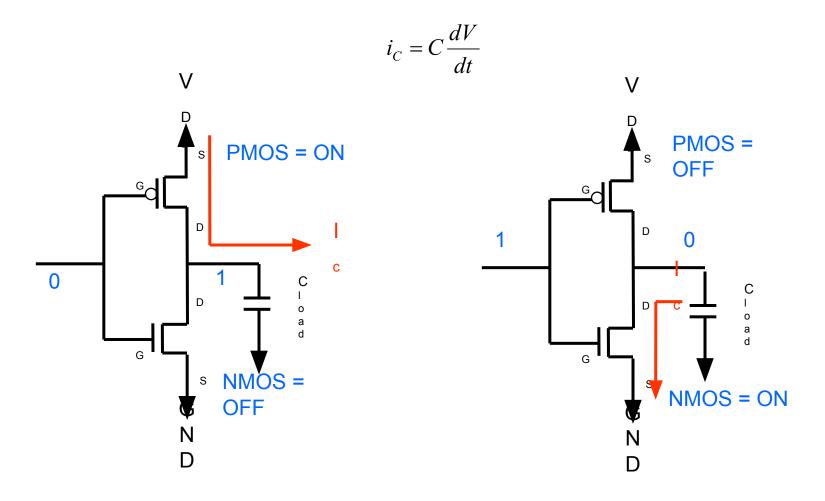
C<sub>gs,n</sub>, C<sub>gs,p</sub>: Since these are connected between V<sub>in</sub> and V<sub>DD</sub>/V<sub>SS</sub>, the *input* drives these capacitances. It is not part of the capacitance that the device *output* drives.

 this expression does include the interconnect and gate capacitance of the circuits that this inverter is driving



### CMOS Switching Characteristics

- the speed of the device describes how fast we can charge or discharge the load capacitor



### Delay Time Definition

- the delay is the time it takes to switch from the steady state level to the 50% level

$$\tau_{PHL} = t_1 - t_0$$

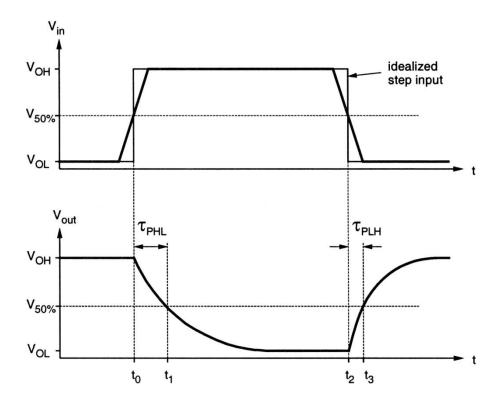
$$\tau_{PLH} = t_3 - t_2$$

- Note that in CMOS:

$$V_{OH} = V_{DD}$$
  
 $V_{OL} = V_{SS}$ 

So 
$$V_{50\%} = V_{DD}/2$$

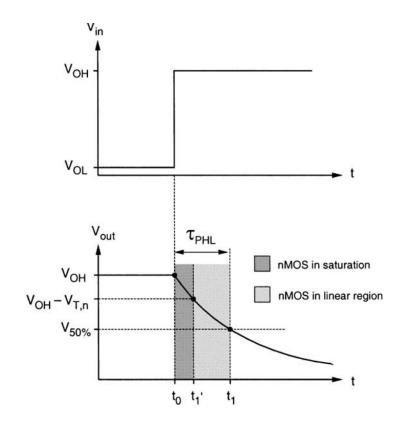
$$V_{50\%} = V_{OL} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot (V_{OH} - V_{OL}) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot (V_{OH} + V_{OL})$$



### Delay Time Derivation (τ<sub>PHL</sub>)

- The current that is used to discharge  $C_{load}$  is dictated by the region of operation that the NMOS is in.
- There are two distinct regions of operation that the NMOS operates in during the transition:

- 1)  $V_{OH}$  to  $(V_{OH} V_{T,n})$  NMOS in Saturation
- 2)  $(V_{OH} V_{T,n})$  to  $V_{50\%}$  NMOS in Linear



### Delay Time Derivation (τ<sub>PHL</sub>)

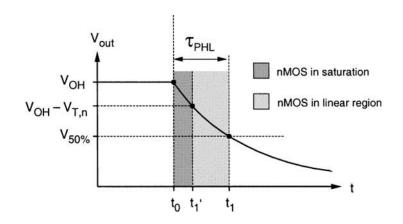
"Differential Equation Method"

- we can re-arrange the current expression in the capacitor to be:

$$i_C = -i_{D,n} = C_{load} \frac{dV_{out}}{dt}$$

$$dt = -C_{load} \frac{dV_{out}}{i_{D,n}}$$

- now we can integrate to solve for dt
- we need to perform two integrals, one for each of the two regions of operation



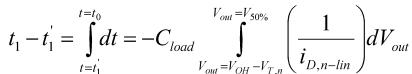
Delay Time Derivation (τ<sub>PHL</sub>)

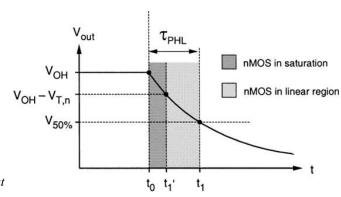
"Differential Equation Method"

- For the *saturation* region, our integral is:

$$t_{1}^{'} - t_{0} = \int_{t=t_{0}}^{t=t_{1}^{'}} dt = -C_{load} \int_{V_{out}=V_{OH}}^{V_{out}=V_{OH}-V_{T,n}} \left(\frac{1}{i_{D,n-sat}}\right) dV_{out}$$

- For the *linear* region, our integral is:





- The delay is simply the sum of these two solutions:

$$\tau_{PHL} = (t_1 - t_0) + (t_1 - t_1)$$

Delay Time Derivation (τ<sub>PHL</sub>)

"Differential Equation Method"

- evaluating these integrals and adding the two delays together, we get:

$$\tau_{PHL} = \frac{C_{load}}{k_n (V_{OH} - V_{T,n})} \cdot \left[ \frac{2 \cdot V_{T,n}}{V_{OH} - V_{T,n}} + \ln \left( \frac{4(V_{DD} - V_{T,n})}{V_{OH} + V_{OL}} - 1 \right) \right]$$

- we can simplify this further by substituting in  $\rm V_{OH}^{-} = \rm V_{DD}^{-}$  and  $\rm V_{OL}^{-} = 0$ 

$$\tau_{PHL} = \frac{C_{load}}{k_{n} (V_{DD} - V_{T,n})} \cdot \left[ \frac{2 \cdot V_{T,n}}{V_{DD} - V_{T,n}} + \ln \left( \frac{4 (V_{DD} - V_{T,n})}{V_{DD}} - 1 \right) \right]$$

### Delay Time Derivation (τ<sub>PLH</sub>)

"Differential Equation Method"

- we can follow the same process to find  $\tau_{Pl\,H}$  using the current equations for the PMOS:

$$\tau_{PLH} = \frac{C_{load}}{k_{p} (V_{DD} - |V_{T,p}|)} \cdot \left[ \frac{2 \cdot |V_{T,p}|}{V_{DD} - |V_{T,p}|} + \ln \left( \frac{4(V_{DD} - |V_{T,p}|)}{V_{DD}} - 1 \right) \right]$$

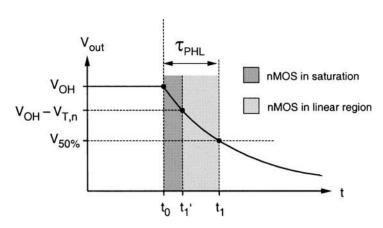
- these solutions are accurate from the standpoint that we use the exact current in the transistors in our derivation of delay.
- these are still estimates and don't include channel-length-modulation or small-geometry effects

### Delay Time Derivation (τ<sub>PHI</sub>)

"Average Current Method"

- a simpler technique to estimate the delay is to use the *average current* in the capacitor during the transition.
- this is accomplished by solving for the current at the beginning of the transition and the current at the end of the transition and then averaging the two.
- at the beginning of the High-to-Low transition, the NMOS is in saturation
- at the end of the High-to-Low transition, the NMOS is in the *linear region*

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}_{\mathit{PHL}} = \frac{C_{\mathit{load}} \cdot \Delta V_{\mathit{HL}}}{I_{\mathit{avg},\mathit{HL}}} = \frac{C_{\mathit{load}} \cdot \Delta V_{\mathit{HL}}}{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left[ i_{\mathit{D-sat}} + i_{\mathit{D-lin}} \right]} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \mathsf{v}_{\mathsf{OH}} - \mathsf{v}_{\mathsf{T,n}} \\ \mathsf{v}_{\mathsf{50\%}} \end{array}$$



Delay Time Derivation (τ<sub>PHL</sub> & τ<sub>PLH</sub>)

"Average Current Method"

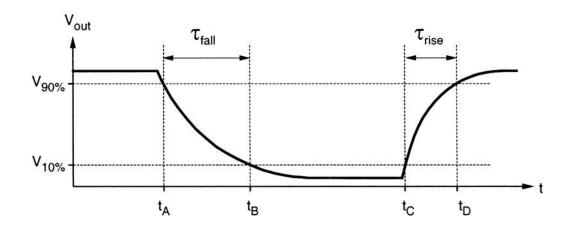
- we can write the expression in terms of the voltages at  $V_{in}$  ( $V_{gs,n}$ ) and  $V_{out}$  ( $V_{ds,n}$ ):

$$\tau_{PHL} = \frac{C_{load} \cdot \Delta V_{HL}}{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left[ i_{D-sat} \left( V_{in} = V_{OH}, V_{out} = V_{OH} \right) + i_{D-lin} \left( V_{in} = V_{OH}, V_{out} = V_{50\%} \right) \right]}$$

$$\tau_{PLH} = \frac{C_{load} \cdot \Delta V_{LH}}{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left[ i_{D-sat} \left( V_{in} = V_{OL}, V_{out} = V_{OL} \right) + i_{D-lin} \left( V_{in} = V_{OL}, V_{out} = V_{50\%} \right) \right]}$$

- this technique tends to be faster and easier to use than the differential equation method.

- Rise & Fall Time Definitions (τ<sub>rise</sub> & τ<sub>fall</sub>)
  - rise time ( $\tau_{\text{rise}}$ ) is the time it takes to transition from  $V_{10\%}$  to  $V_{90\%}$
  - fall time  $(\tau_{\text{fall}})$  is the time it takes to transition from  $V_{90\%}$  to  $V_{10\%}$



- we can use either the (1) differential equation or the (2) average current technique to solve for these
- in these transitions, the transistors again operate in both the saturation and linear regions
- the only difference is that the limits of the transition are  ${
  m V}_{
  m 10\%}$  and  ${
  m V}_{
  m 90\%}$

#### Non-ideal Inputs

- in all of these derivations, we have assumed a perfect step input.
- if the input is not a perfect step (i.e., it has a finite delay or rise time), it will increase the delay of the gate
- we can use an RMS estimation to account for the non-ideal input:

$$au_{PHL(actual)}^2 = au_{PHL(to\_step\_input)}^2 + au_{PLH(of\_input)}^2$$

$$au_{PLH\,(actual\,)}^2 = au_{PLH\,(to\_step\_input)}^2 + au_{PHL\,(of\_input)}^2$$

- we can also estimate the delay of the input if we are only given its rise/fall time by using:

$$\tau_{PLH} = \frac{\tau_{rise}}{2}$$

$$au_{PHL} = \frac{ au_{fall}}{2}$$

### Non-ideal Inputs

- we can apply this technique to the rise and fall times also:

$$au_{rise(actual)}^2 = au_{rise(to\_step\_input)}^2 + au_{fall(of\_input)}^2$$

$$au^2_{\mathit{fall(actual)}} = au^2_{\mathit{fall(to\_step\_input)}} + au^2_{\mathit{rise(of\_input)}}$$

#### Designing for Constraints

- when we begin a design, we typically start with specification
- we then size the transistors to achieve the desired performance
- we saw how the sizes of the transistor effect the DC specs, specifically  $\rm V_{th}$
- we also need to size the transistors so that for a given load capacitance, the gate can achieve a designed delay or rise/fall time.
- we can use the expressions for delay and rise/fall time that we derived to calculate the necessary transistor sizes.

#### Designing for Constraints

- the average current method is the simplest technique to use:

$$\tau_{P\!H\!L} = \frac{C_{load} \cdot \Delta V_{H\!L}}{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left[ i_{D-sat} \left( V_{in} = V_{O\!H}, V_{out} = V_{O\!H} \right) + i_{D-lin} \left( V_{in} = V_{O\!H}, V_{out} = V_{50\%} \right) \right]}$$

$$\tau_{PLH} = \frac{C_{load} \cdot \Delta V_{LH}}{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left[ i_{D-sat} \left( V_{in} = V_{OL}, V_{out} = V_{OL} \right) + i_{D-lin} \left( V_{in} = V_{OL}, V_{out} = V_{50\%} \right) \right]}$$

- in this expression, we can insert our timing spec in for  $\tau_{PHL}$  or  $\tau_{PLH}$
- the RHS of the expression must evaluate to be less than or equal to the timing spec

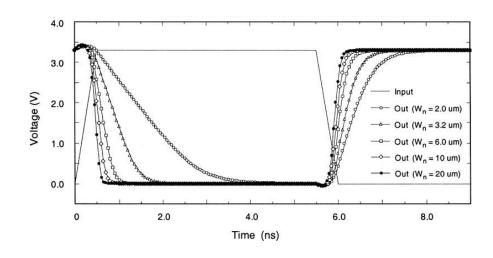
### **Designing for Constraints**

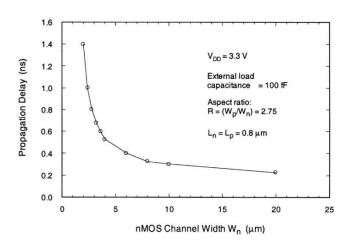
- in the timing expression, notice that  $k_n$  and  $k_p$  are parameters under our control
- these parameters are in the denominator of the timing expression, meaning that as  $k_n$  and  $k_n$ increase, the delay of the circuit will decrease.
- this means that *larger = faster*
- we typically leave the lengths of the NMOS and PMOS transistors equal to each other
- we also typically set the lengths to the smallest possible dimension for a given process.
- this gives us the highest transconductance for a given *Length* and also minimizes the area.
- a given design process consists of the following steps:

  - set L<sub>p</sub>=L<sub>n</sub>=L<sub>min</sub>
     find the W<sub>p</sub>/W<sub>n</sub> ratio that will yield the desired V<sub>th</sub>
     find the minimum values for W<sub>p</sub> and W<sub>n</sub> to achieve timing
     combine the minimum sizes and the W<sub>p</sub>/W<sub>n</sub> ratio to select final sizes
     round up the dimensions to give additional margin and standard sizes (i.e., 4.927um rounds up to 5um)

### Area vs. Delay

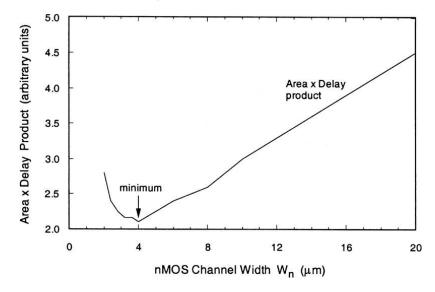
- we've seen that *larger* = *faster* for a given inverter
- however, we have made an assumption that the load capacitance is independent of transistor size
- we know what a portion of the load capacitance comes from the driver oxide and driver junctions
- this means that as the inverter gets larger, so does the capacitance
- this leads to a point of diminishing returns with regards to reducing delay





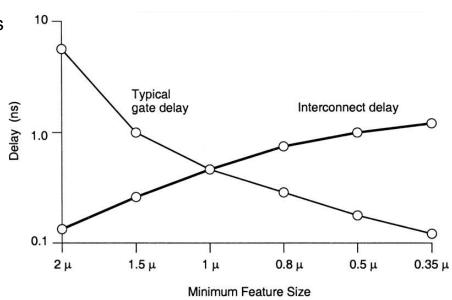
### Area vs. Delay

- we can look at the **Area X Delay Product** to gauge the *quality* of a design with regards to efficient area usage.
- typically we will see an inflection point which indicates the point at which increasing the size of the transistors to decrease delay is out-weighed by the negative impact of increasing the area used on the silicon.
- if a timing specifications requires an excessively large sized gate, it typically means that the process is not sufficient to meet timing.



#### Interconnect

- one of the components in the load capacitance is the interconnect.
- the interconnect refers to the polysilicon and metal layers that are used to connect the gates together.
- as sizes on-chip shrink, we've seen that the scaling of interconnect is a big problem because the delay actually increases as you get smaller.
- in addition, the delay scales quadradically with length meaning that intra-module traces and global interconnect can create significant timing challenges.
- in modern processes, the delay of the interconnect is actually more than the switching delay of the transistors.



#### Interconnect Modeling

- modeling of the interconnect describes the equivalent circuits we use to describe the electrical behavior of the materials.
- the type of model we use is a trade-off between accuracy and simulation time
- we typicall use 1 of the 3 following models:

#### **Typical Uses**

1) Lumped Capacitance inter-module

2) RC network intra-module and global

3) Transmission Line global and off-chip

#### Interconnect Modeling

- we choose the appropriate model based on the rise/fall time of the driver relative to the prop delay of the interconnect
- the  $prop\ delay\ (t_{prop})$  is the time it takes for the wave to travel down the length of the interconnect:
- the velocity of a wave in a dielectric is given by:

$$v = \frac{c}{\varepsilon_r}$$

- the *prop delay* can then be given by:

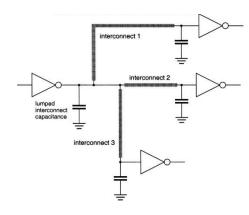
$$t_{prop} = \frac{length}{v}$$

### Interconnect Modeling

- we move between a *lumped* (C or RC) and a *distributed* (transmission line) model as follows:

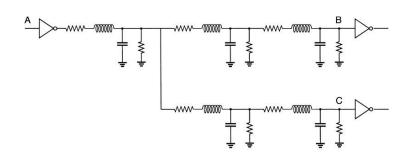
"Lumped"

$$\tau_{rise} < 2.5 \cdot \left(\frac{l}{v}\right)$$



"Distributed"

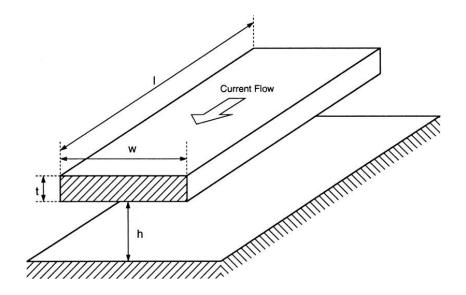
$$\tau_{rise} \ge 2.5 \cdot \left(\frac{l}{v}\right)$$



#### Interconnect Resistance

- resistance is based on the geometry and materials of the interconnect

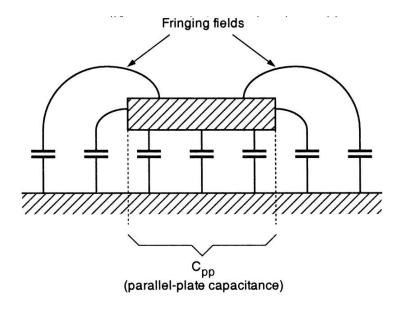
$$R = \frac{\rho \cdot l}{A} = R_S \cdot (\#\_of\_squares)$$



### • Interconnect Capacitance

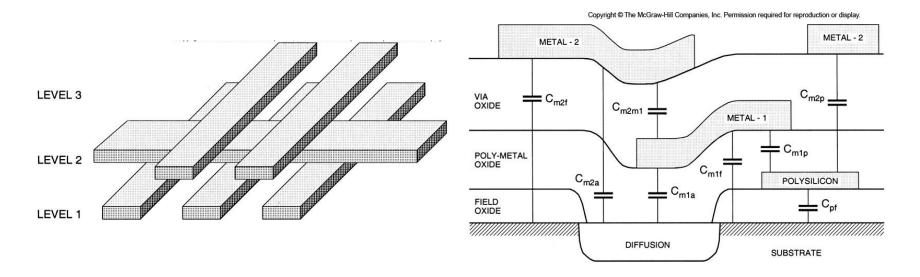
- capacitance depends on the surface area of the conductor, the insulating materials between the conductors, and the distance between the conductors.

$$C = \frac{\varepsilon \cdot A}{t}$$



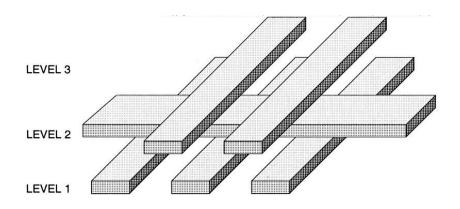
#### Interconnect Capacitance

- interconnect modeling becomes a complex problem due to the 3D geometries present on-chip
- we typically take a *guess* at the capacitance of the interconnect for initial simulations.
- once we start physically laying out our design, we can use the CAD tool to *extract* the actual capacitance and back annotate it into our simulation.
- we then run a new simulation with accurate capacitance models to verify timing is still met post-layout.



#### Interconnect Capacitance

- *Cross-talk* refers to the noise that is generated on a line due to capacitive coupling from neighboring lines that are switching.
- as geometries get smaller, lines are closer together so capacitance goes up.
- we can reduce cross-talk by separating the traces or inserting ground lines between the signals, but this takes area.

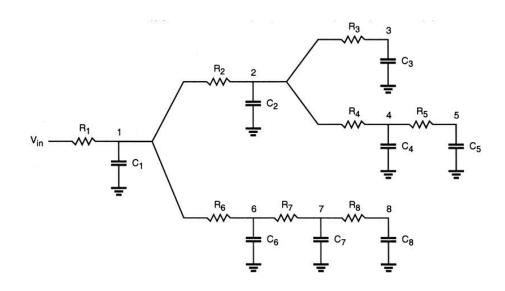


#### Elmore Delay

- when we model interconnect using RC networks, it doesn't take many branches in the net before the KVL/KCL solution for the delay gets complex.
- *Elmore Delay* is a technique to estimate the overall delay between two nodes of an RC network tree.
- in Elmore Delay, we find the equivalent RC network of the path between two nodes by:
  - summing the delay of each segment in our path-of-interest
  - we construct a set of RC networks as seen by our path-of-interest and then sum them together
  - we walk through the series resistance in our path-of-interest.
  - for each resistor node in our path-of interest, we include RC's in our expression as follows:
    - C's NOT in our path-of-interest are included as (R<sub>seq</sub>·C<sub>x</sub>)
    - C's that ARE in our path-of-interest can't be seen if they are on the far side of a resistor in our path-of-interest
    - as we get to the end of our path-of-interest, we can see all of the downstream Capacitances past our end-node.

#### Elmore Delay

- example: Find the expression for the equivalent RC from  $V_{\rm in}$  to node 7:



$$\tau_{D7} = (R_1) \cdot (C_1) + (R_1) \cdot (C_2) + (R_1) \cdot (C_3) + (R_1) \cdot (C_4) + (R_1) \cdot (C_5) + (R_1 + R_6) \cdot (C_6) + (R_1 + R_6 + R_7) \cdot (C_7) + (R_1 + R_6 + R_7) \cdot (C_8)$$

#### Dynamic Power Consumption

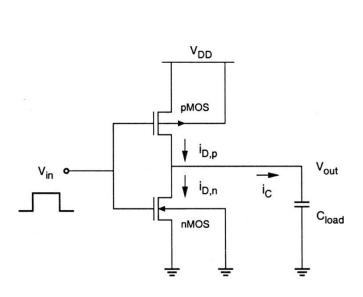
- in theory, a CMOS gate does not consume any Static Power because the NMOS and PMOS transistors are in the cut-off regions when driving  $V_{OH}$  or  $V_{OI}$
- we know what there is leakage current in cut-off, however to the first order we neglect it.
- the majority of the power is due to the charging and discharging of  $\mathbf{C}_{\mathsf{load}}$
- this is called *Dynamic Power* because it is AC in nature and only occurs when the gate switches
- this current is described as:

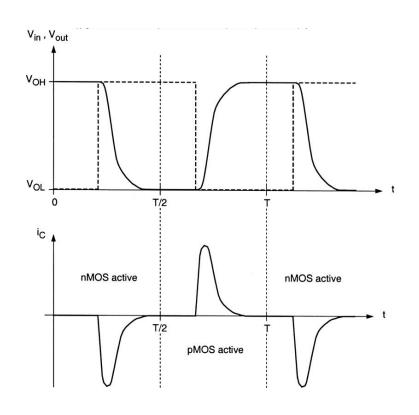
$$i_C = C_{load} \frac{dV_{out}}{dt}$$

- since the current consumed is proportional to the number of times that the gate switches, we need to make an assumption to the number of times per second that V<sub>out</sub> switches
- since we have a binary system, we can assume that the output will be a '0' 50% of the time and a '1' 50% of the time.
- we can model the voltage on V<sub>out</sub> as a periodic square wave

### • Dynamic Power Consumption

- current will be drawn from  $\boldsymbol{V}_{DD}$  and sunk into  $\boldsymbol{V}_{SS}$  during a transition





#### • Dynamic Power Consumption

- assuming a periodic input and output waveform, the average power dissipated by a device over one period is given as:

$$P_{avg} = \frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} v(t) \cdot i(t) dt$$

- we split up the period into two sections:

 $0 \rightarrow T/2$   $V_{in}$  transitions from a 0 to a 1, the NMOS discharges  $C_{load}$ 

 $T/2 \rightarrow T$   $V_{in}$  transitions from a 1 to a 0, the PMOS charges  $C_{load}$ 

### • Dynamic Power Consumption

- we can now re-write our average power expression as:

$$P_{avg} = \frac{1}{T} \left[ \int_{0}^{T/2} V_{out} \cdot \left( -C_{load} \frac{dV_{out}}{dt} \right) dt + \int_{T/2}^{T} \left( V_{DD} - V_{out} \right) \cdot \left( C_{load} \frac{dV_{out}}{dt} \right) dt \right]$$

$$P_{\mathit{avg}} = \frac{1}{T} \Bigg[ \left( -C_{\mathit{load}} \, \frac{V_{\mathit{out}}^2}{2} \right) \bigg|_0^{T/2} + \left( V_{\mathit{DD}} \cdot V_{\mathit{out}} \cdot C_{\mathit{load}} - C_{\mathit{load}} \, \frac{V_{\mathit{out}}^2}{2} \right) \bigg|_{T/2}^{T} \Bigg]$$

$$P_{avg} = \frac{1}{T} \cdot C_{load} \cdot V_{DD}^2$$

$$P_{\text{avg}} = f \cdot C_{\text{load}} \cdot V_{\text{DD}}^2$$

### Dynamic Power Consumption

- a more qualitative view of this power consumption is as follows:

Capacitance is defined as:

$$C = \frac{Q}{V}$$

Each cycle, the average current in the capacitor is:

$$I_{AVG} = \frac{Q}{T} = \frac{C \cdot V}{T}$$

Power is I·V, which gives:

$$P_{AVG} = V_{AVG} \cdot I_{AVG} = V \cdot \frac{C \cdot V}{T} = \frac{1}{T} \cdot C_{load} \cdot V_{out}^2 = f \cdot C_{load} \cdot V_{out}^2$$

### Power Delay Product (PDP)

- another quality measure of a design is the PDP
- this is a measure of the energy required to switch logic levels in a given period.
- qualitatively, Power x Time is:

$$P_{avg} = \frac{1}{time} \cdot C_{load} \cdot V_{DD}^2$$

$$P_{avg} \cdot \tau = C_{load} \cdot V_{DD}^2$$

#### Power Delay Product (PDP)

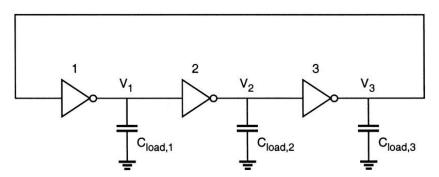
- as the delay goes down, the power goes up.
- the power going up is due to the increase in intrinsic junction capacitance of the driver.
- the delay reaches an ~asymptotic limit as the size is increased.
- the power increases as the size is increased.
- looking at the PDP can give an estimate of when you are optimally sized to deliver energy in the most effective manner.

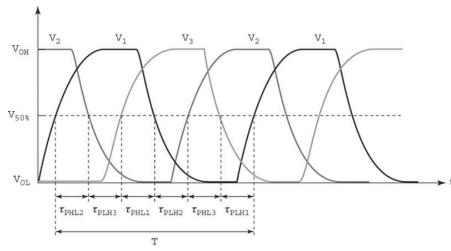
$$PDP=(C * V*V)$$

## **Ring Oscillator**

### Ring Oscillator

- if we connect a chain of inverters in a loop and have an ODD number of inverters, the circuit is inherently unstable.
- the circuit will oscillate between a 0 and 1 indefinitely.
- the frequency of the oscillation depends on the gate delay of the inverter.
- this type of circuit is commonly used to test the device delay of a given process.
- this can also be used to create a clock.
- the clock frequency of the ring oscillator is not typically controlled tight enough to be used as the system clock.





$$f = \frac{1}{2 \cdot n_{inv} \cdot \tau_{inv}}$$