ECE-6473 (Revision)

1) Technology scaling: - Freezy generation, Shrinking transistor sizes leads to an improvement in their performance and reduces energy dissipation. At least, this was true for classical transistor scaling.

Kaling a technology reduces the gate delay by 30% and the lateral and vertical dimensions are also scaled down by 30%.

The die area decreases by 50%.

The areal & fringing capacitances all decrease by 30%

2) To understand the design of integrated circuits, you need to understand transistors.

Need to understand transistors.

need to unaut strong VG

VG

VS

VS

PFET/PMOS

PSSENTIALLY a Switch

Essentially a switch

that is controlled voltage
by the gate voltage

VG

NFET/NMOS

NFET/NMOS

SNFET is good For transmitting "Voo" when it is ON.

PFET is good For transmitting "Voo" when it is ON.

NFET is ON when Vas > VTn

PFET is ON when Vs& < |VTP|. The achal value

of VTP is negative.

However When the transistor is ON it essentially is not a perfect on suitch. That is, it has some finite resistance. Unfortunately, the resistance of the suitch is dependent on the drain to surree voltage. That is, the transistor is a non-linear resistor.

Vs Romas

Vs Vp

Vs Romas

Vs Vp

Vs Romas

Vs Romas

Vs Romas

Vs function of Vos

Vs Romas

Vs Romas

Vs function of Vos

Vs Romas

This makes life a bit harder to work with transistors. But we can often make simplifications to evaluate Rumos and Rumos. When we make some simplifications, we call these resistances as "equivalent" resistances. In that case, it really depends on the voltage swings across the transistor terminals.

he will look at a few specific cases to evaluate equivalent RNMOS and RNMOS

If an NMOS is being used to pull down node From high to low Rumos & T VDD -> VDD/2 VDD T

We evaluate Rumos at the beginning of the transition of then we evaluate RNMos half-way through the transition and take the average of the two resistances.

Reg = 1/2 (RNMUS (VDD) + RNMOS (VDD/2))

Also note in this case, NMOS is not under any body effect, since VSB = D

However, if NMOS were used to pull-up a node in the following configuration.

Vop-VTN

The problem is slightly harder because now Vs8 \$0. At the beginning of the transition

VSB = 0 and 00 VTN = VTO.

thay way through the transition, VSB = (VDD - VTN), where YN must be Obtained self consistently by solving the equation $V_{TN} = V_{TO} + v \left[\sqrt{\frac{2\phi_s}{f}} + \frac{V_{DD} - V_{TN}}{2} - \sqrt{\frac{2\phi_f}{f}} \right]$ This is only a quadratic equation in V_{TN} that has two roots. Select the root that is positive and greater than V_{TO} .

NOTE: - whether the NMOS is pulling a node From VDD to O or its pulling up a node From O to VDD-VTN.

VDS = [VDSat = VGIS-VTN] So just use the equation for resistance in Saturation.

In general (a) Reg ~ /(W/L)

If the transistor size becomes bigger than Reg becomes smaller.

(b) VDD 1 Req V (c) VT 1 Req T (d) (M6x) 1 Req V These scaling trends are important to consider.

If all process parameters are same For PMOS and NMOS except the mobility such that Mn>Mp then Reg.p > Regn For (W) n = (W)p.

Reqn = Reqp
$$\Rightarrow$$
 $(\frac{W}{L})_{P}$ $(\frac{W}{L})_{n}$
 $(\frac{W}{L})_{P}$ = $\frac{Un}{UP}$ if all other process parameters $(\frac{W}{L})_{n}$ are identical. That is, $(\frac{Cox,p}{VN} = \frac{V}{V})_{P}$

Charging and discharging through transistors

Calculate Reg, NMOS as explained earlier.

$$\begin{cases} \text{Req, NMOS} \cong \frac{3}{4} \frac{V_{DD}}{I_{DSat}} \left(1 - \frac{5}{6} \lambda V_{DD}\right) \\ I_{DSat} = \frac{1}{2} \mu_{n} Cox \left(\frac{N}{L}\right)_{n} \left[V_{DD} - V_{TN}\right]^{2} \end{cases}$$

note, the above is true only when we are discharging a node From Voo to 0 using an NMOS.

Go through the 2 where we were charging a node using Nubs to calculate Reg, nuos the proper way.

Concept of self-loading

Self boading capacitance is the capacitance at the output node due to the transistor structure itself:

Components include: - Overlap + Junction Capacitanle
Source Drain

Typically all these capacitances are collectively termed as 'Parasitic Capacitances'. All of these scale according to Cpar & W

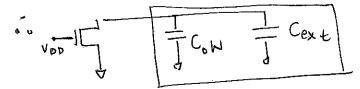
S Coys = Covs W where Covs = $\frac{\mathcal{E}}{\text{to}} \times \text{Nov,s}$ I typically Cov, d = $\frac{\mathcal{E}}{\text{to}} \times \text{Nov,d}$ rame

Cjn = (j W Ls + Gsw (W + 2 Ls)

To remember: parasitic capacitances arise due to the transistor structure & reale proportionally w/ device width.

If we lump all of the parasitics into one component Cpar = GoW

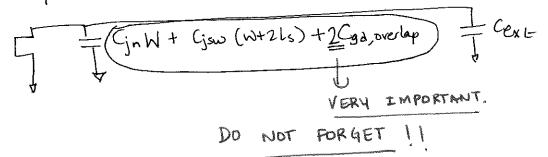
Per-unit-width capacitance.



at the output node of the transistor

Co comes From overlap and junction of the NMOS.

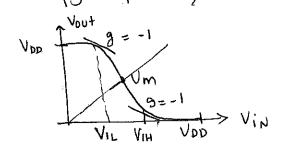
However, the overlap capacitance must be doubted because it is a miller capacitance. And remember, when capacitance connects input mode with the output node then it is essentially a miller capacitance and its effect is doubted.



INVERTER ANALYSIS

- a) Inverter consists of Amos in pull-up and NMOS in pull-down network.
- 6) Jigures of merit
 - (a) switching threshold
 - (b) Low to high delay
 - (c) High to low delay
 - (d) Driving another inverter
 - (e) inverter gain -> useful concept for noise margins.

Inverter can work even when supply voltage < VTH because it still conducts in sub-threshold. As long as Igain /> 1, inverter will continue to work.



NML = VIL Y moise NMH = VDD-VIH Y margins

Vm = VIN = Vout & suitching threshold

Vm is calculated when both NMOS & PMOS are in saturation.

A general rule is that when PMDs becomes stronger than Vm goes toward VDD, while When NMOS becomes stronger than Vm goes toward GND.

What does a transistor being "strong" Mean?

A transistor is said to be strong when its

ON current is high. By ON-current, we

mean the current in saturation.

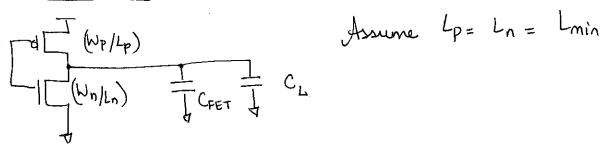
A transistor can be made strong by increasing its size or by increasing (VGIS-VT) drop.

For $V_m = \frac{V_{DD}}{2} \Rightarrow \frac{P_n}{P_p} = \frac{0.5 \text{ V}_{DD} - \text{IV}_{TP}}{0.5 \text{ V}_{DD} - \text{V}_{TN}}$ General equation for $V_m = \frac{V_{DD}}{2}$

Switching Delay of the inverter tpl = 0.69 Req,, CL For making bpl = tpml tphl = 0.69 Req, n CL | Mb = mn Hp tp = 1/2 (tpl + tpml)

Req.p =
$$\frac{3}{4} \frac{V_{DD}}{I_{psatp}}$$

Req.p = $\frac{3}{4} \frac{V_{DD}}{I_{psatp}}$



CFET = PARASITIC

CL = Fan-out or a constant load + wire.

Lets compute CFET

CFET = CFET_NMOS + CFET_PMOS

CFETNMOS = Cjn Wn + 2 Cov Wn

CFET PMOS = Cjn Wp + 2 Gov Wp

$$t_{pLH} = 0.693 \frac{V_{DD}}{4 \frac{I_{DSutp}}{I_{DSutp}}} \left(C_{FET-nmos} \left(1 + \frac{W_{D}}{W_{D}} \right) + C_{L} \right)$$

Assume that there is no extra load at the output From Cr but that the inverter is self loaded.

As (We) A Bp A Req, p & but parasitic Capacitance increases. Hence, self-loading spets means that increasing the Device Size does not affect the delay.

When a CMOS inverter is loaded by an identical inverter, BP,Bn RP,Bn choose Wp = & How do you minimize the Delay From IN to DUT. ? Calculate the net capacitance at the output. CL = CFET_n (1+ d) + Cwire + (1+d) (gn

V

parasitic

(Wp/Nn) input gate cap $bd = 0.5 \frac{C_L V_{DD}}{\left(V_{DD} - V_T\right)^2} \left(\frac{L}{\beta_n} + \frac{L}{\beta_p}\right)$ Substitute CL in the above equation & minimize the delay $\frac{\partial t_d}{\partial \alpha} = 0 \Rightarrow \alpha_{opt} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_n}{\mu_p}}$ for neg. Now if the inverter is driving two identical inverters. WP/Wn = a how should you size the First inverter

(MP/Nn) = a CL = (FETT (1+ x) + Cwire +2(1+x) (gn extra due to two investers as the Fan-out. $t_{d} = \frac{0.5 \text{ CLVaD}}{(V_{DD} - V_{f})^{2}} \left(\frac{1}{\beta_{n}} + \frac{1}{\beta_{p}} \right) \Rightarrow \frac{\partial t_{d}}{\partial \alpha} = 0$

So the general principle of obtaining, delay is the same. All you need to know is two things: (a) Equivalent resistance (b) Load Capacitance.

For parasitic capacitance of a transistor, I always use the symbol CFET.

For input Capacitance of a transistor, I always use the symbol Cg.

$$d = p + ghb \qquad g = 1$$

$$b = 1$$

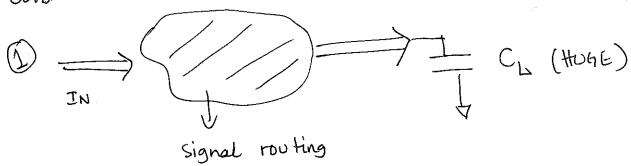
$$d = p + h$$
 $h = \frac{Cout}{Gn} = 2$

$$d = 2$$
 for $p = 0$

The whole deal about inverter sizing :-

often times we want to route a signal From one point on the chip to another and the Load apacitance is <u>large</u>. It always makes sense to route the signal via a chain of inverters to minimize the propagation delay.

Consider the scenario : -



It was shown a long time ago that if
You were to use 2 to drive the large
load and sized the inverters appropriately,
the delay of 2 < delay of 1.

So the question becomes a) how do you size this Chain of inverters b) how large should this load capacitance be for us to know that scenario @ makes sense.

First, lels address point (6) above. That is, how large should CL be For US to consider the inverter chain.

Lets say the first inverter is sized 'a' and second one is sized 'ua'.

 $t_{\text{delay}} = t_{\text{INV}} + t_{\text{INV}2}$ $t_{\text{INV}} = 0.69 \text{ Req. } C_{\text{X}} = 0.69 \text{ Req. } \left(\frac{C_{\text{INV}}}{u}\right)$ $t_{\text{INV}} = 0.69 \text{ Req. } C_{\text{L}}$

CX = input capacitance of inverter 2 = Cinv1 * U Now me have the delay: - $\frac{1}{2} = 0.69 \text{ Req Cinv,1 u + 0.69 } \frac{\text{Req. CL}}{\text{u}} = 0$ $\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\text{u}} = 0 \implies u_{\text{pt}} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{CL}}{\text{Ginv,1}}}$

td, opt = 0.69 Req √ CL GINVI + 0.69 Req √ CL GINVI
=2x0.69 Req √ CL CINVI

Without the second unuiter, the delay of driving the load will be:
td = 0.69 Req CL

... Adding the second innerter makes sense

Only When 2x 0.69 Reg VCLCiNV × 0.69 Reg CL

\[\frac{CL}{CiNV} \rightarrow 4 \]

makes sense to add only when the load is at least "4" times bigger than the input apacitance of the 1st inverter.

Now we know when we must add a chain of inverters to drive a large load.

Hake the 1st inverter in the chain as the "unit" inverter or the reference inverter. Up size each following inverter by a factor of $\underline{\mu}$:

Nopt = $\ln\left(\frac{C_L}{C_1}\right) \Rightarrow u^{Nopt} = \left(\frac{C_L}{C_1}\right)$

Up= e

In a general Scenario, first Calculate Nopt and round it off to the nearest integer.

Then calculate Nopt = (CL/C1) \[Nopt]

gradestiat.

-> This is equivalent to saying lets make the electrical effort of each stage the same.

Electrical effort is (output (ap)/(input (ap)

ENERGY DISSIPATION

$$E_{VDD} = \int_{0}^{\infty} i_{VDD}(t) V_{DD}dt$$

$$Current drawn from supply$$

$$E_{C} = \int_{0}^{\infty} i_{C}(t) V_{OUT} dt$$

$$E_{R} = \int_{0}^{\infty} i_{R}(t) R dt$$

BASIC DEFINITIONS.

AVERAGE POWER DISSIPATION

d = Activity Factor

Fraction of the times, the output node transitions

From "o" to "1"

STATIC CMOS GATES

Consist of PULL-UP network W/ PMDS

Pull-down network w/ NMOS.

- a) While sizing the gates, Figure out the worst case path for low to high & high to low transition & make it equal to the reference inverter.
- b) When considering dependence of input pattern on the delay, pay special attention to the internal node capacitance.

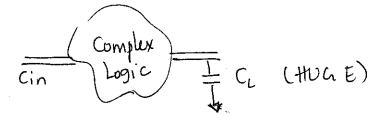
Large Fan-in and large to effect on delay can be represented as:

 $t_{p} = a_{1} FI + a_{2} FI^{2} + a_{3} FO$ fan in fan in

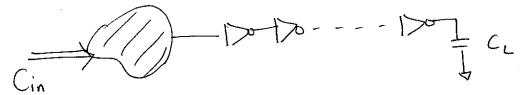
Remember techniques to size galas to minimize the delay.

- a) progressive Sizing.
- b) Input re-ordering.
- c) alternative logic structures
- d) Isolating Fan-in From Fan out.

Lets look at the last point in more detail



If we have a large capacitance to drive then we can do something like



Remember this technique of buffering makes Sense only when $F = \frac{CL}{Cin} > 4$.

Also correlate this with logical effort discussion.

L> size each one of these P = 0 for P = 0 } P = 0 } Faraistic

$$B = \prod_{i} b_{i}$$

$$G = \prod_{i} g_{i}$$

$$H = \prod_{i} h_{i} = \left(\frac{C_{L}/C_{I}}{C_{I}}\right)$$