

An aerial photograph of a city grid, overlaid with various colored rectangles in shades of green, purple, blue, and red, representing different land use or zoning categories.

CHAPTER 4

Circuit Characterization and Performance Estimation II

Outline

1. Delay Estimation
2. Logical Effort and Transistor Sizing
- 3. Power Dissipation**
4. Interconnect
5. Wire Engineering
6. Design Margin
7. Reliability
8. Scaling

Power and Energy

- Power is drawn from a voltage source attached to the V_{DD} pin(s) of a chip.

- Instantaneous Power: $P(t) = i_{DD}(t)V_{DD}$

- Energy:
$$E = \int_0^T P(t)dt = \int_0^T i_{DD}(t)V_{DD}dt$$

- Average Power:
$$P_{\text{avg}} = \frac{E}{T} = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T i_{DD}(t)V_{DD}dt$$

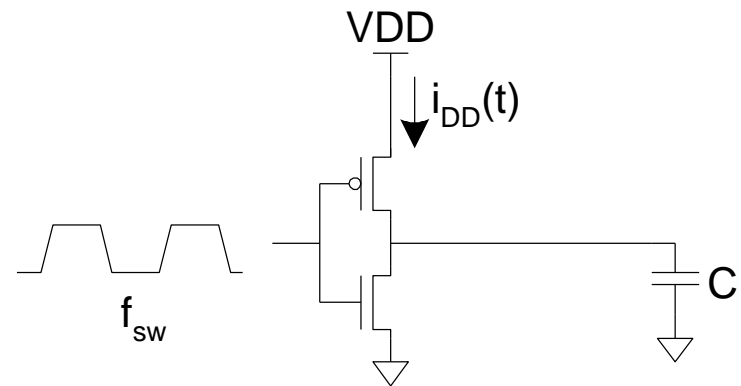
Static and Dynamic Dissipation

$$P_{\text{total}} = P_{\text{static}} + P_{\text{dynamic}}$$

- Static dissipation
 - Subthreshold conduction through OFF transistors
 - Tunneling current through gate oxide
 - Leakage through reverse-biased diodes
 - Contention current in ratioed circuits
- Dynamic dissipation
 - Charging and discharging of load capacitance
 - “Short-circuit” current while both pMOS and nMOS networks are partially ON

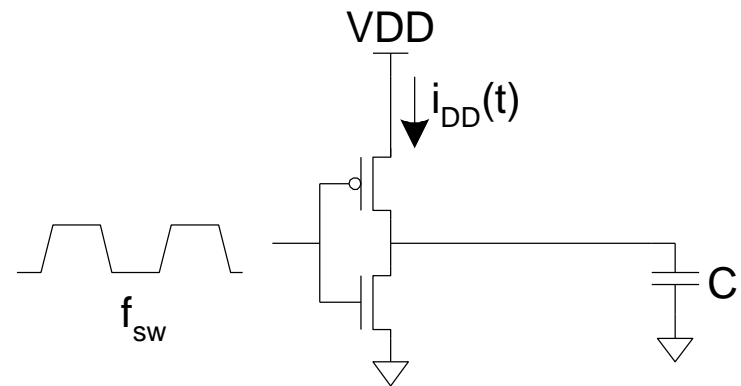
Dynamic Power

- Dynamic power is required to charge and discharge load capacitances when transistors switch.
- One cycle involves a rising and falling output.
- On rising output, charge $Q = CV_{DD}$ is required
- On falling output, charge is dumped to GND
- This repeats Tf_{sw} times over an interval of T



Dynamic Power Cont.

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\text{dynamic}} &= \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T i_{DD}(t) V_{DD} dt \\ &= \frac{V_{DD}}{T} \int_0^T i_{DD}(t) dt \\ &= \frac{V_{DD}}{T} [T f_{\text{sw}} C V_{DD}] \\ &= C V_{DD}^2 f_{\text{sw}} \end{aligned}$$



Activity Factor

- Suppose the system clock frequency = f
- Let $f_{sw} = \alpha f$, where α = activity factor
 - If the signal is a clock, $\alpha = 1$
 - If the signal switches once per cycle, $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$
 - Dynamic gates:
 - Switch either 0 or 2 times per cycle, $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$
 - Static gates:
 - Depends on design, but typically $\alpha = 0.1$
- Dynamic power:

$$P_{dynamic} = \alpha C V_{DD}^2 f$$

Short Circuit Current

- When transistors switch, both nMOS and pMOS networks may be momentarily ON at once
- Leads to a blip of “short circuit” current.
- $< 10\%$ of dynamic power if rise/fall times are comparable for input and output

Example

- 200M transistor chip
 - 20M logic transistors
 - Average width: 12λ
 - 180M memory transistors
 - Average width: 4λ
 - 1.2 V 100 nm process ($\lambda = 0.5^*$ feature size = 50nm)
 - $C_g = 2 \text{ fF}/\mu\text{m}$

Dynamic Example

- Static CMOS logic gates: activity factor = 0.1
- Memory arrays: activity factor = 0.05 (many banks and partially activated at a time!)
- Estimate dynamic power consumption per MHz.
 - Neglect wire capacitance and short-circuit current.

Dynamic Example

- Static CMOS logic gates: activity factor = 0.1
- Memory arrays: activity factor = 0.05 (many banks and partially activated at a time!)
- Estimate dynamic power consumption per MHz.
 - Neglect wire capacitance.

$$C_{\text{logic}} = (20 \times 10^6)(12\lambda)(0.05 \mu\text{m} / \lambda)(2 \text{ fF} / \mu\text{m}) = 24 \text{ nF}$$

$$C_{\text{mem}} = (180 \times 10^6)(4\lambda)(0.05 \mu\text{m} / \lambda)(2 \text{ fF} / \mu\text{m}) = 72 \text{ nF}$$

$$P_{\text{dynamic}} = [0.1C_{\text{logic}} + 0.05C_{\text{mem}}](1.2)^2 f = 8.6 \text{ mW/MHz}$$
$$= 8.6 \text{ W @ 1 GHz}$$

Static Power

- Static power is consumed even when chip is quiescent.
 - Ratioed circuits burn power in fight between ON transistors
 - Leakage draws power from nominally OFF devices

$$I_{ds} = I_{ds0} e^{\frac{V_{gs} - V_t}{nV_T}} \left[1 - e^{\frac{-V_{ds}}{V_T}} \right]$$

$$V_t = V_{t0} - \eta V_{ds} + \gamma \left(\sqrt{\phi_s + V_{sb}} - \sqrt{\phi_s} \right)$$

Ratio Example

- The chip contains a 32 word x 48 bit ROM
 - Uses 1:32 pseudo-nMOS decoder and bitline pullups
 - On average, one wordline and 24 bitlines are high
- Find static power drawn by the ROM
 - $\beta = 75 \mu\text{A}/\text{V}^2$, $V_{DD} = 1.8\text{V}$
 - $V_{tp} = -0.4\text{V}$

- Solution:

$$I_{\text{pull-up}} = \beta \frac{(V_{DD} - |V_{tp}|)^2}{2} = 73\mu\text{A}$$

$$P_{\text{pull-up}} = V_{DD} I_{\text{pull-up}} = 130\mu\text{W}$$

$$P_{\text{static}} = (31 + 24) P_{\text{pull-up}} = 7.2 \text{ mW}$$

Leakage Example

- The process has two threshold voltages and two oxide thicknesses.
- Subthreshold leakage:
 - 20 nA/ μm for low V_t
 - 0.02 nA/ μm for high V_t
- Gate leakage:
 - 3 nA/ μm for thin oxide
 - 0.002 nA/ μm for thick oxide
- Memories use low-leakage transistors everywhere
- Gates use low-leakage transistors on 80% of logic

Leakage Example Cont.

- Estimate static power:

- High leakage: $(20 \times 10^6)(0.2)(12\lambda)(0.05\mu m / \lambda) = 2.4 \times 10^6 \mu m$

- Low leakage: $(20 \times 10^6)(0.8)(12\lambda)(0.05\mu m / \lambda) +$
 $(180 \times 10^6)(4\lambda)(0.05\mu m / \lambda) = 45.6 \times 10^6 \mu m$

$$I_{static} = (2.4 \times 10^6 \mu m) \left[(20nA / \mu m) / 2 + (3nA / \mu m) \right] +$$
$$(45.6 \times 10^6 \mu m) \left[(0.02nA / \mu m) / 2 + (0.002nA / \mu m) \right]$$
$$= 32mA$$

$$P_{static} = I_{static} V_{DD} = 38mW$$

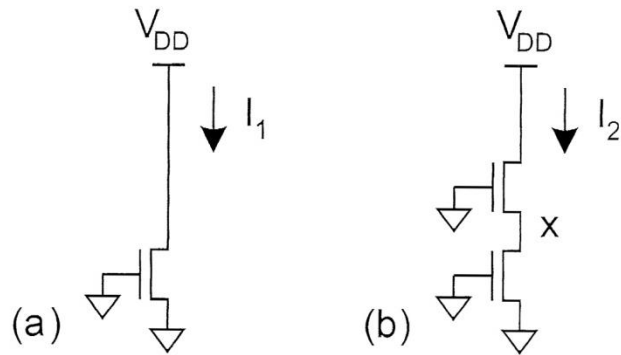
- If no low leakage devices, $P_{static} = 749 mW (!)$

Low Power Design

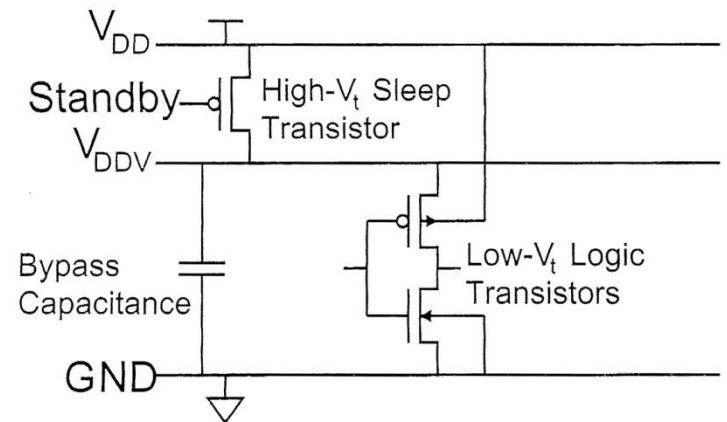
- Reduce dynamic power
 - α : clock gating, sleep mode
 - C: small transistors (esp. on clock), short wires
 - V_{DD} : lowest suitable voltage
 - f: lowest suitable frequency
- Reduce static power
 - Selectively use ratioed circuits
 - Selectively use low V_t devices
 - Leakage reduction:
 - stacked devices, body bias, low temperature

Reduce Static Power

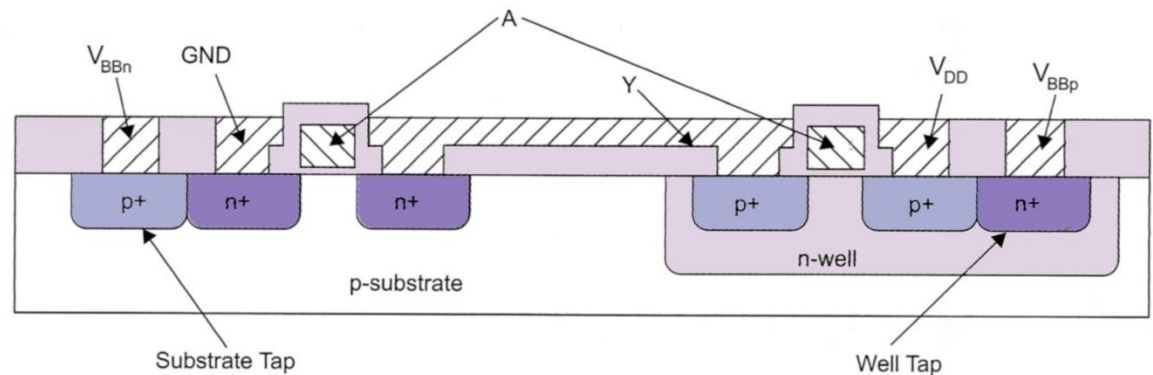
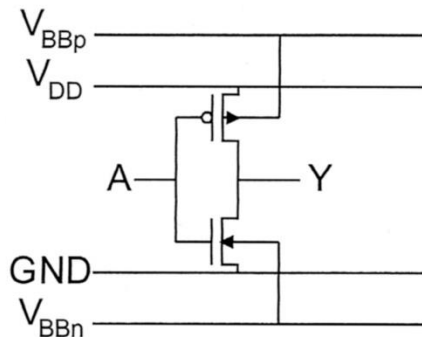
- Leakage stack effect



- MTCMOS : Multiple Threshold CMOS



- Body bias



Outline

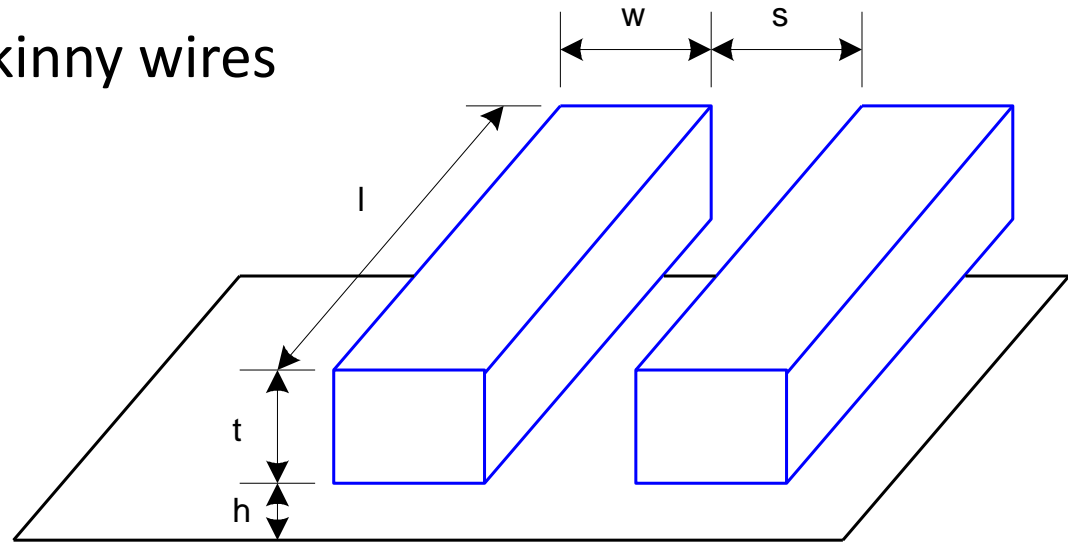
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Interconnect

- Chips are mostly made of wires called *interconnect*
 - In stick diagram, wires set size
 - Transistors are little things under the wires
 - Many layers of wires
- Wires are as important as transistors
 - Speed
 - Power
 - Noise
- Alternating layers run orthogonally



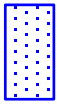










Wire Geometry

- Pitch = $w + s$
- Aspect ratio: $AR = t/w$
 - Old processes had $AR \ll 1$
 - Modern processes have $AR \approx 2$
 - Pack in many skinny wires



Layer Stack

- AMI 0.6 μm process has 3 metal layers
- Modern processes use 6-10+ metal layers
- Example: Intel 180 nm process
- M1: thin, narrow ($< 3\lambda$)
 - High density cells
- M2-M4: thicker
 - For longer wires
- M5-M6: thickest
 - For V_{DD} , GND, clk

Layer	T (nm)	W (nm)	S (nm)	AR	
6	1720	860	860	2.0	
	1000				
5	1600	800	800	2.0	
	1000				
4	1080	540	540	2.0	
	700				
3	700	320	320	2.2	
	700				
2	700	320	320	2.2	
	700				
1	480	250	250	1.9	
	800				
					

Wire Resistance

- $\rho = \text{resistivity } (\Omega \cdot \text{m})$

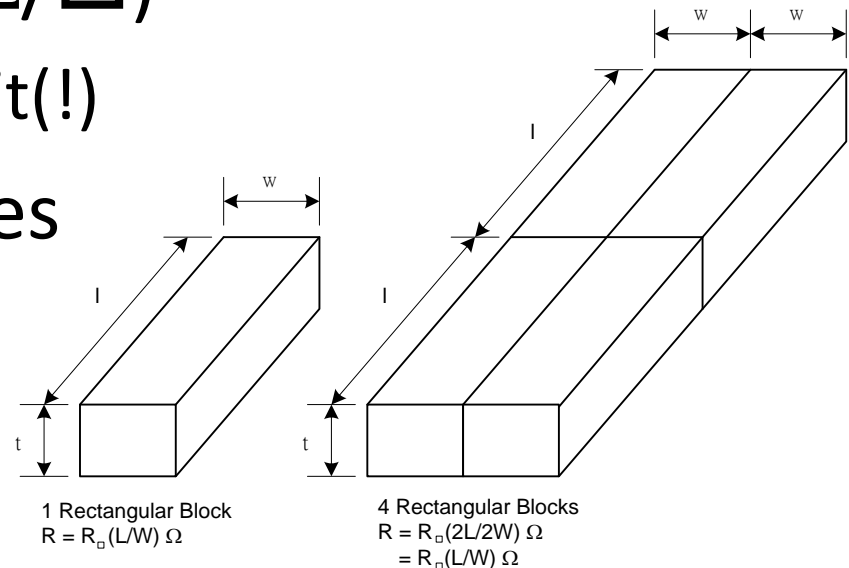
$$R = \frac{\rho}{t} \frac{l}{w} = R_{\square} \frac{l}{w}$$

- $R_{\square} = \text{sheet resistance } (\Omega/\square)$

– \square is a dimensionless unit(!)

- Count number of squares

– $R = R_{\square} * (\# \text{ of squares})$



Choice of Metals

- Until 180 nm, most wires were aluminum
- Modern processes often 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
Copper (Cu)	1.7
Gold (Au)	2.2
Aluminum (Al)	2.8
Tungsten (W)	5.3
Molybdenum (Mo)	5.3

Sheet Resistance

- Typical sheet resistances in 180 nm process

Layer	Sheet Resistance (Ω/\square)
Diffusion (silicided)	3-10
Diffusion (no silicide)	50-200
Polysilicon (silicided)	3-10
Polysilicon (no silicide)	50-400
Metal1	0.08
Metal2	0.05
Metal3	0.05
Metal4	0.03
Metal5	0.02
Metal6	0.02

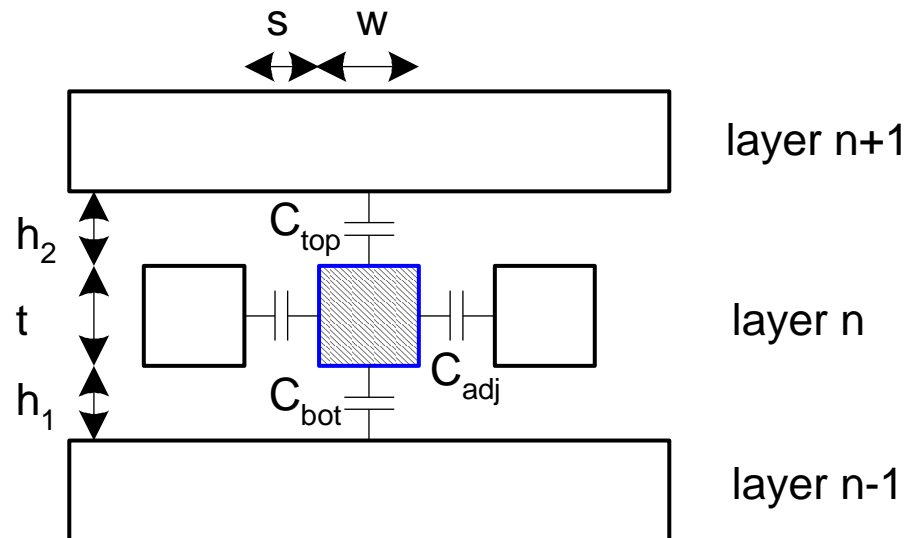
Contacts Resistance

- Contacts and vias also have 2-20 Ω
- Use many contacts for lower R
 - Many small contacts for current crowding around periphery



Wire Capacitance

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

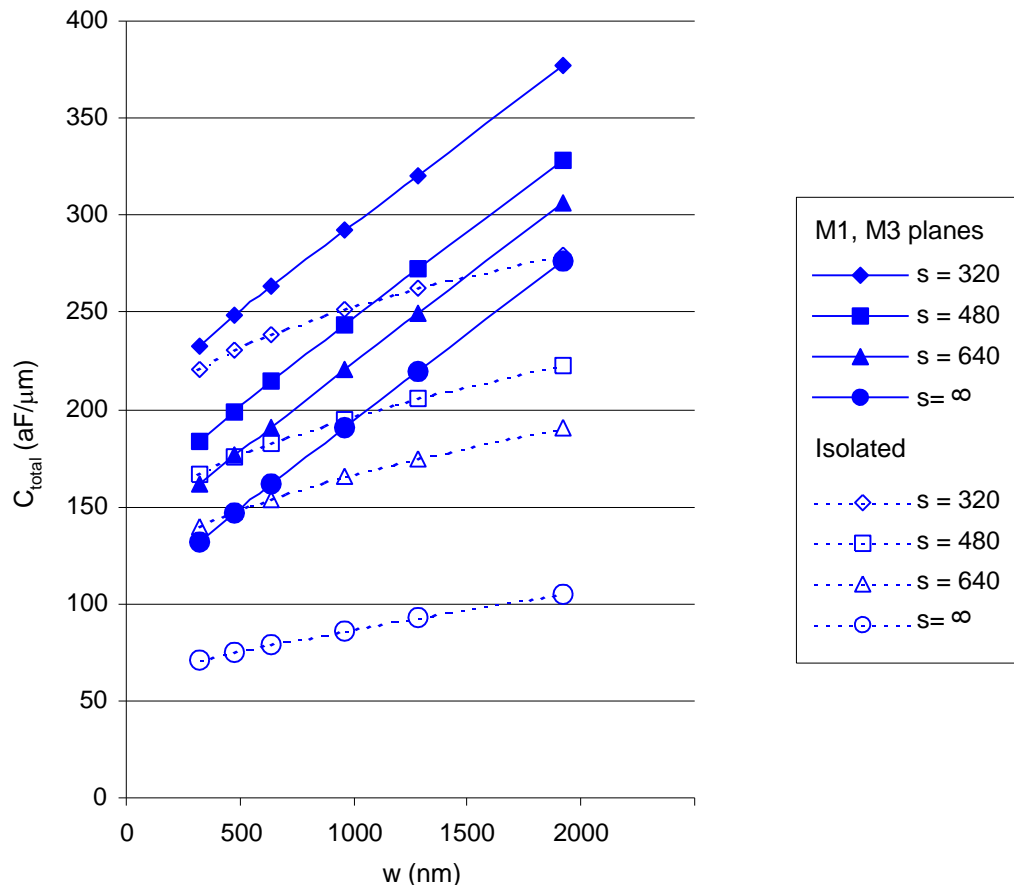


Capacitance Trends

- Parallel plate equation: $C = \epsilon A/d$
 - Wires are not parallel plates, but obey trends
 - Increasing area (W, t) increases capacitance
 - Increasing distance (s, h) decreases capacitance
- Dielectric constant
 - $\epsilon = k\epsilon_0$
 - $\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-14}$ F/cm
 - $k = 3.9$ for SiO_2
- Processes are starting to use low- k dielectrics
 - $k \approx 3$ (or less) as dielectrics use air pockets

M2 Capacitance Data

- Typical wires have ~ 0.2 fF/ μm
 - Compare to 2 fF/ μm for gate capacitance

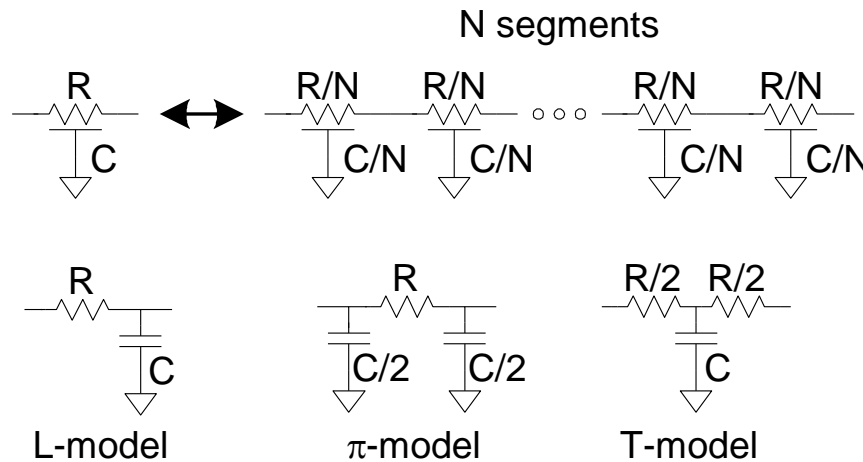


Diffusion & Polysilicon

- Diffusion capacitance is very high (about 2 fF/ μm)
 - 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

Lumped Element Models

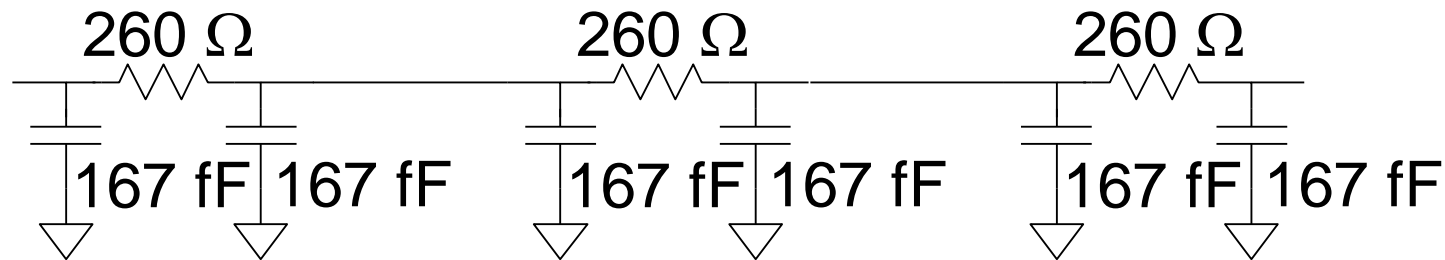
- Wires are a distributed system
 - Approximate with lumped element models



- 3-segment π -model is accurate to 3% in simulation
- L-model needs 100 segments for same accuracy!
- Use single segment π -model for Elmore delay

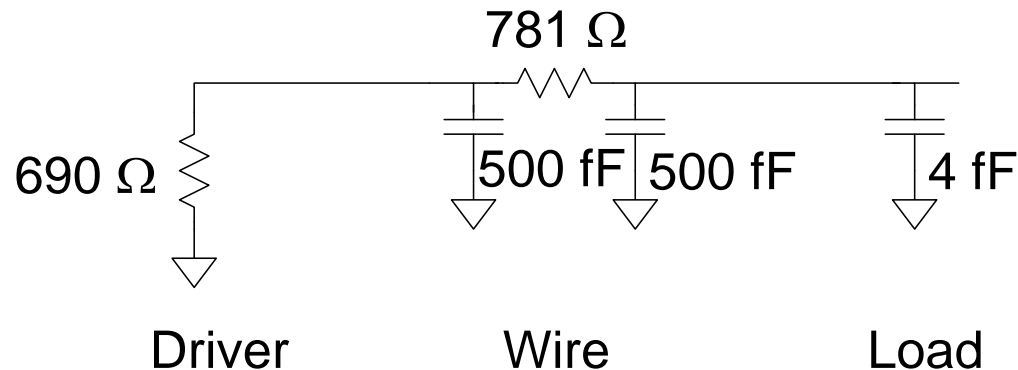
Example

- Metal2 wire in 180 nm process
 - 5 mm long
 - 0.32 μm wide
- Construct a 3-segment π -model
 - $R_{\square} = 0.05 \Omega/\square$ $\Rightarrow R = 781 \Omega$
 - $C_{\text{permicron}} = 0.2 \text{ fF}/\mu\text{m}$ $\Rightarrow C = 1 \text{ pF}$



Wire RC Delay

- Estimate the delay of a 10x inverter driving a 2x inverter at the end of the 5mm wire from the previous example.
 - Effective $R = 2.5 \text{ k}\Omega/\mu\text{m}$ for gates, $C = 2 \text{ fF}/\mu\text{m}$
 - Unit inverter: $4\lambda = 0.36 \mu\text{m}$ nMOS, $8\lambda = 0.72 \mu\text{m}$ pMOS
 - $R(10x) = 2.5\text{k}\Omega/(0.36 \times 10) = 690$, $C(2x) = (0.36 + 0.72) \times 2 = 2 \text{ fF}$.
 - $t_{pd} = (690\Omega) * (500\text{fF}) + (690\Omega + 781\Omega) * (5000\text{fF} + 4\text{fF}) = 1.1 \text{ ns}$.



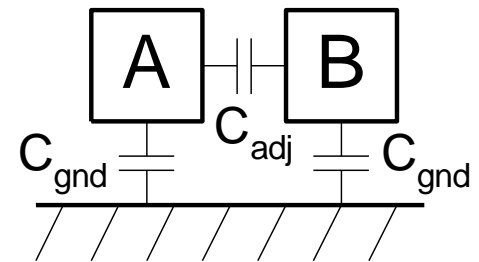
Crosstalk

- A capacitor does not like to change its voltage instantaneously.
- A wire has high capacitance to its neighbor.
 - When the neighbor switches from 1- \rightarrow 0 or 0- \rightarrow 1, the wire tends to switch too.
 - Called capacitive *coupling* or *crosstalk*.
- Crosstalk effects
 - Noise on nonswitching wires
 - Increased delay on switching wires

Crosstalk Delay

- Assume layers above and below on average are quiet
 - Second terminal of capacitor can be ignored
 - Model as $C_{\text{gnd}} = C_{\text{top}} + C_{\text{bot}}$
- Effective C_{adj} depends on behavior of neighbors
 - *Miller Coupling Factor (MCF)*

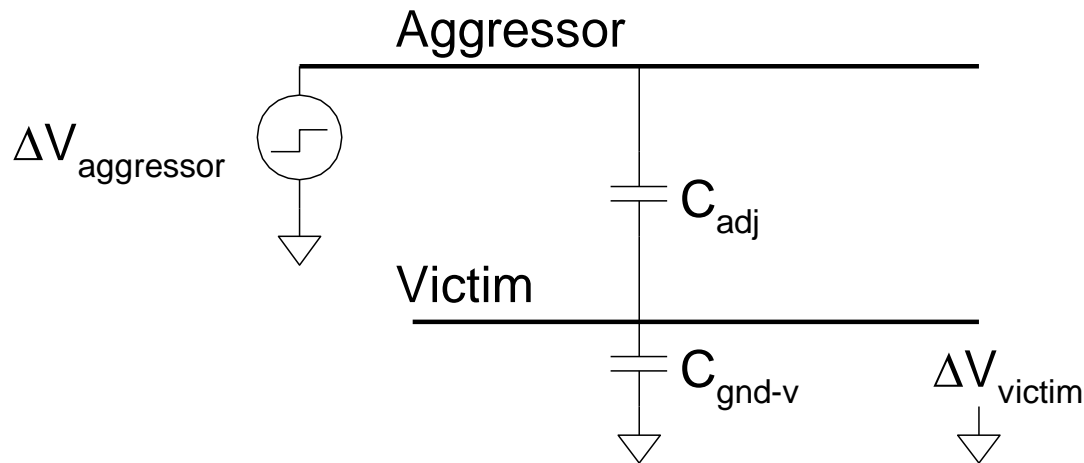
B	ΔV	$C_{\text{eff(A)}}$	MCF
Constant	V_{DD}	$C_{\text{gnd}} + C_{\text{adj}}$	1
Switching with A	0	C_{gnd}	0
Switching opposite A	$2V_{\text{DD}}$	$C_{\text{gnd}} + 2 C_{\text{adj}}$	2



Crosstalk Noise

- Crosstalk causes noise on nonswitching wires
- If victim is **floating**:
 - model as capacitive voltage divider

$$\Delta V_{victim} = \frac{C_{adj}}{C_{gnd-v} + C_{adj}} \Delta V_{aggressor}$$

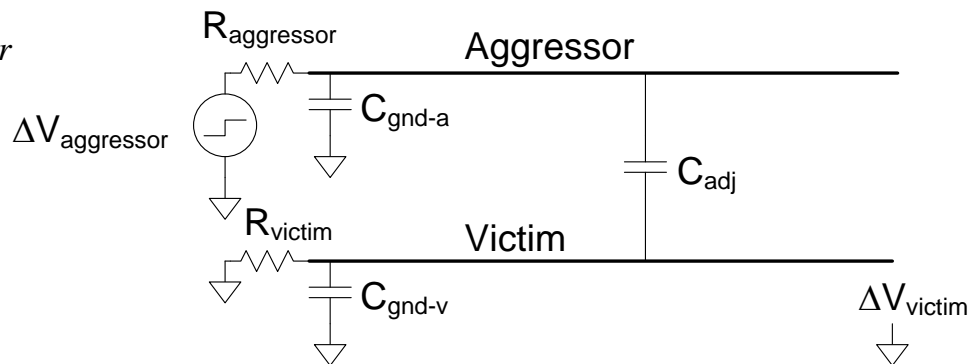


Driven Victims

- Usually victim is driven by a gate that fights noise
 - Noise depends on relative resistances
 - Victim driver is in linear region, and aggressor driver is in saturation. (p3-53)
 - If sizes are same, $R_{aggressor} = 2-4 \times R_{victim}$

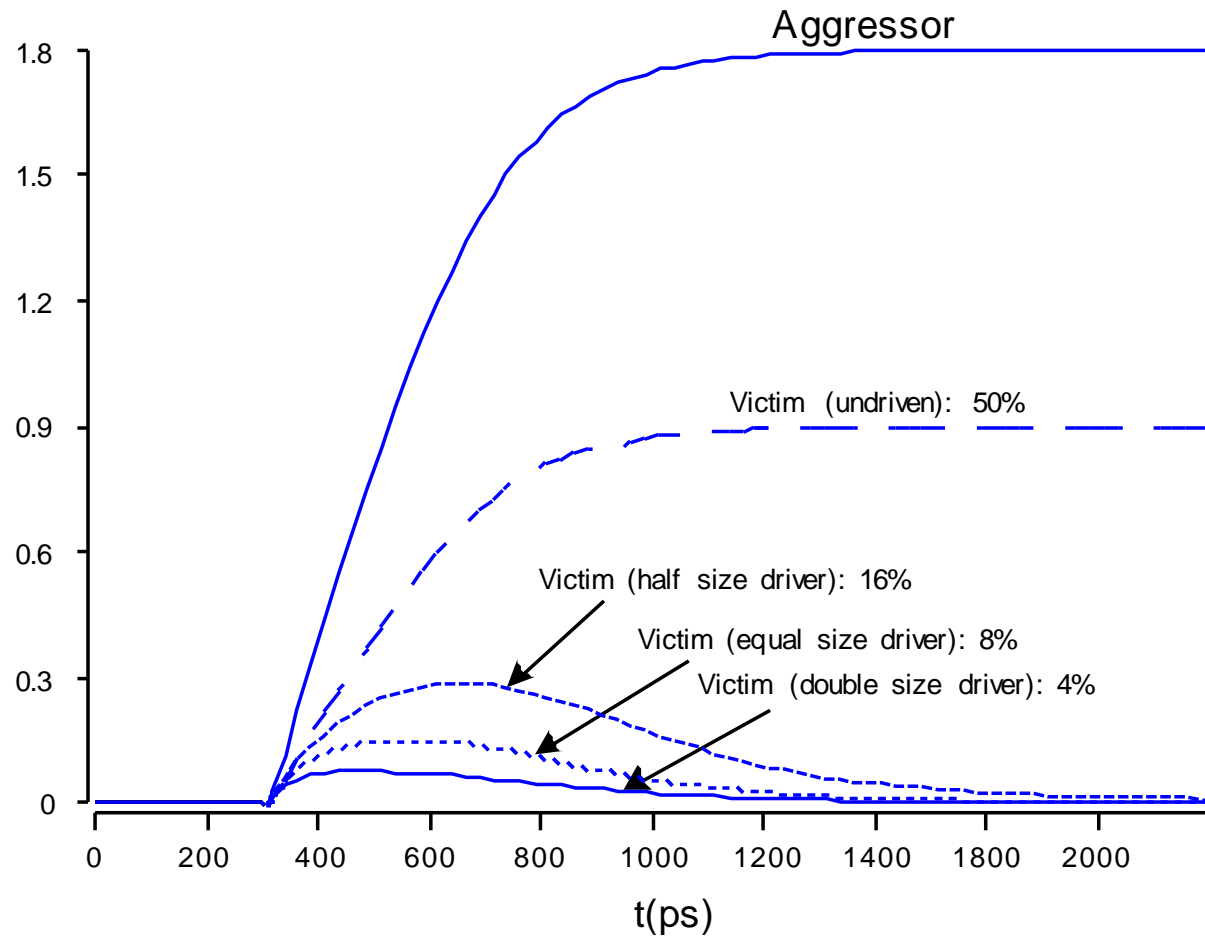
$$\Delta V_{victim} = \frac{C_{adj}}{C_{gnd-v} + C_{adj}} \frac{1}{1+k} \Delta V_{aggressor}$$

$$k = \frac{\tau_{aggressor}}{\tau_{victim}} = \frac{R_{aggressor} (C_{gnd-a} + C_{adj})}{R_{victim} (C_{gnd-v} + C_{adj})}$$



Coupling Waveforms

- Simulated coupling for $C_{adj} = C_{gnd}$



Noise Implications

- *So what* if we have noise?
- If the noise is less than the noise margin, nothing happens
- Static CMOS logic will eventually settle to correct output even if disturbed by large noise spikes
 - But glitches cause extra delay
 - Also cause extra power from false transitions
- Dynamic logic never recovers from glitches
- Memories and other sensitive circuits also can produce the wrong answer

Outline

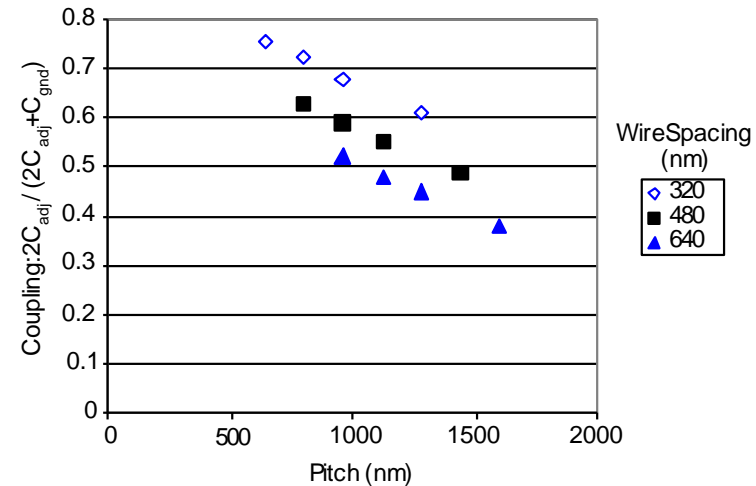
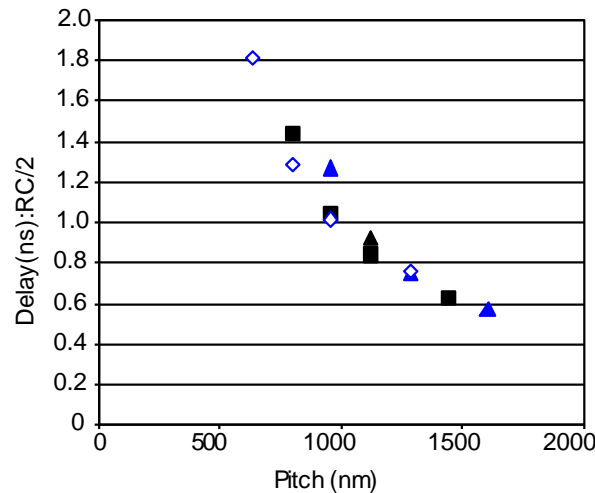
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Wire Engineering

- Goal: achieve delay, area, power goals with acceptable noise
- Degrees of freedom:

Wire Engineering

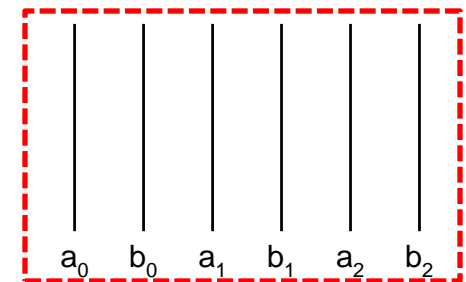
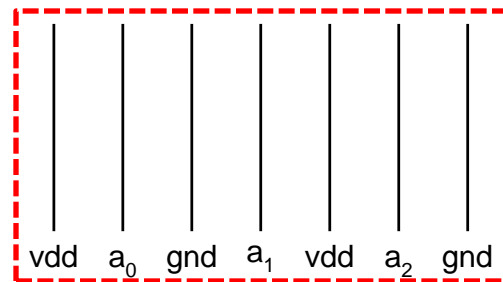
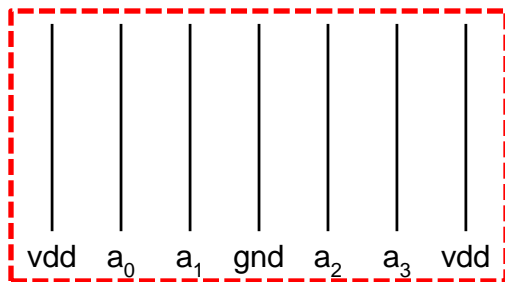
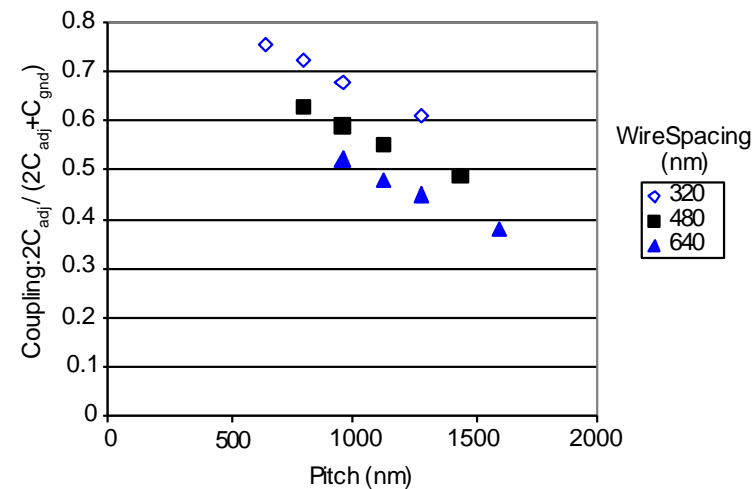
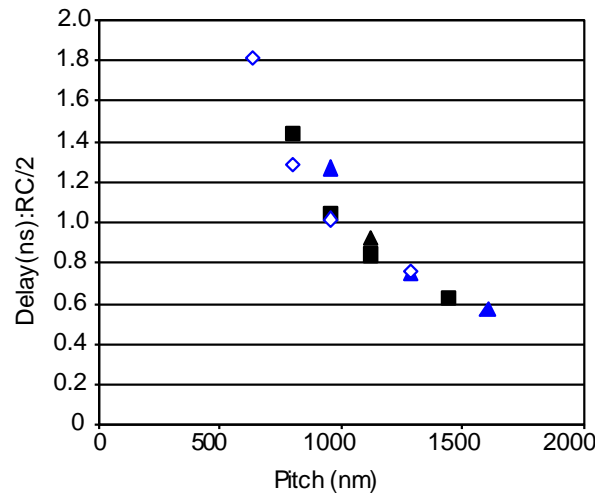
- Goal: achieve delay, area, power goals with acceptable noise
- Degrees of freedom:
 - Width
 - Spacing



Wire Engineering

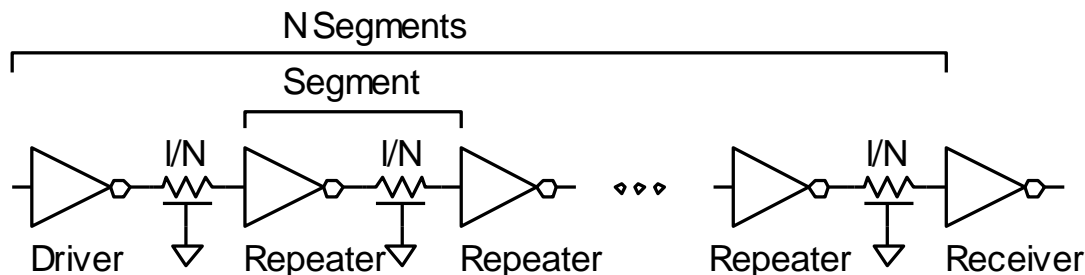
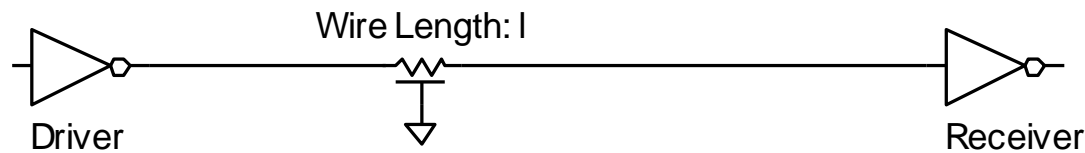
- Goal: achieve delay, area, power goals with acceptable noise
- Degrees of freedom:

- Width
- Spacing
- Layer
- Shielding



Repeaters

- R and C are proportional to l (*length*)
- RC delay is proportional to l^2
 - Unacceptably great for long wires
- Break long wires into N shorter segments
 - Drive each one with an inverter or buffer

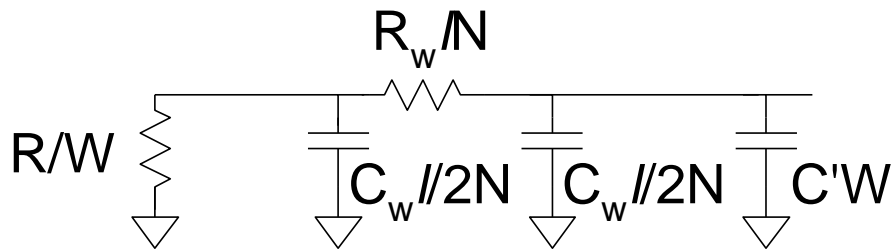


Repeater Design

- How many repeaters should we use?
- How large should each one be?
- Equivalent Circuit
 - Wire length l
 - Wire Capacitance $C_w * l$, Resistance $R_w * l$
 - Inverter width W (nMOS = W , pMOS = $2W$)
 - Gate Capacitance $C' * W$, Resistance R/W

Repeater Design

- How many repeaters should we use?
- How large should each one be?
- Equivalent Circuit
 - Wire length l/N
 - Wire Capacitance $C_w * l/N$, Resistance $R_w * l/N$
 - Inverter width W (nMOS = W , pMOS = $2W$)
 - Gate Capacitance $C' * W$, Resistance R/W



Repeater Results

- Write equation for Elmore Delay

$$t_{pd} = N \left[\frac{R}{W} \left(C_w \frac{l}{N} + C'W \right) + R_w \frac{l}{N} \left(\frac{C_w}{2} \frac{l}{N} + CW \right) \right]$$

- Differentiate with respect to W and N
- Set equal to 0, solve

$$\frac{l}{N} = \sqrt{\frac{2RC'}{R_w C_w}}$$

$$\frac{t_{pd}}{l} = \left(2 + \sqrt{2} \right) \sqrt{RC'R_w C_w}$$

~60-80 ps/mm
in 180 nm process

$$W = \sqrt{\frac{RC_w}{R_w C'}}$$