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# Full-Custom Sub-/Near-Threshold Cell Library in 130nm CMOS with Application to an ALU

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Electronics System Design and Innovation

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# Problem Description

**Candidate name:** Glenn André Johnsen

**Assignment title:** Full-Custom Sub-/Near-Threshold Cell Library in 130nm CMOS with Application to an ALU

**Assignment text:**

Energy harvesting systems typically contain an embedded processor to collect, process, and interpret sensory input data. The system typically includes a CPU, memories, buses, and peripherals. In order to build e.g. an Ultra-Low-Voltage CPU a set of standard cells must be designed.

This assignment involves defining standard cells for an ULV standard cell library. These standard cells should be defined and designed using state of the art design techniques and literature.

**Assignment proposer / Co-supervisor:** Jan Rune Herheim from Atmel Norway AS

**Supervisor:** Professor Snorre Aunet



# Abstract

This thesis presents a cell library with limited functionality targeting to operate in sub-threshold (350mV) as well as above-threshold (1.2V) voltages utilizing the dynamic speed requirement of the circuit. The sub-threshold cell library can be used to synthesize any general Finite State Machine (FSM) since it contains logic gates and a D-FF memory element. The sub-threshold cell library proposed in this thesis consists of: Inverter, NAND2, NOR2, XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22, OAI22 and D flip-flop. All cells are designed with static CMOS and use of 130 nm HVT n-well process. The main motivation behind this work is the desirable for longer lasting battery powered IC chips.

CMOS power consumption includes three components where the dynamic component is  $P_{dyn} \propto V_{DD}^2$ . Hence, a promising method to reduce power consumption is to reduce the supply voltage  $V_{DD}$  to the sub-threshold region. The reduction of  $V_{DD}$  increases the delay through the circuit (excellent trade-off in application with low performance requirements) and increases sensitivity to process, voltage and temperature (PVT) variations.

The sub-threshold cells are evaluated with an ALU synthesized into three circuits: No.1: unlimited, with use of provided above-threshold cells; No.2: limited to INV, NAND2, NOR2 and D-FF with sub- and above-threshold cell library; and No.3: limited as No.2 + XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22 and OAI22 with sub- and above-threshold cell library.

The results shows a power consumption reduction of  $\sim 14$  times from  $V_{DD} = 1.2V$  to  $350mV$  for both No.2 and No.3 ALU circuit. It is also shown that a more complex library including XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22 and OAI22 reduces the power consumption with  $\sim 7.7\%$  compared to a library with only Inverter, NAND2, NOR2 and D-FF at 350mV. The No.3 circuit is shown to be the best ALU with use of sub-threshold cells in term of delay and power consumption. Both No.2 and No.3 only fails to comply with the 32KHz frequency in SS and FS corner in  $-40^\circ C$ , 350mV and with use of sub-threshold cells, whereas with use of above-threshold cells fails in all except FF corner in  $-40^\circ C$ , in addition to failing in SS corner at  $25^\circ C$ .



# Sammendrag

Denne avhandlingen presenterer et celle bibliotek med begrenset funksjonalitet designet til å kunne operere i sub-terskel område (350mV) samt i over-terskel område for å utnytte dynamisk hastighetskrav i kretsen. Sub-terskel celle biblioteket kan brukes til å syntetisere enhver generell endelig tilstandsmaskin (FSM) siden det inneholder logiske porter og et D-FF minne element. Sub-terskel celle biblioteket inneholder disse logiske funksjonene med minimum drivestyrke: Inverter, NAND2, NOR2, XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22, OAI22 og D-FF. Alle cellene er designet med bruk av statisk CMOS og 130 nm HVT n-well prosess. Hovedmotivasjonen bak dette arbeidet er ønsket om lengre levetid på batteridrevende IC brikker.

Effektforbruket i CMOS består av tre komponenter hvor den dynamisk komponenten er  $P_{dyn} \propto V_{DD}^2$ . En lovende metode for å redusere strømforbruket er derfor å redusere forsyningsspenningen  $V_{DD}$  til sub-terskel området. Reduksjonen i forsyningsspenningen øker forsinkelsen gjennom en krets (utmerket avveining i applikasjoner med lav ytelseskrav) og øker sensitiviteten til prosess, spenning og temperatur (PVT) variasjoner.

Sub-terskel cellene er evaluert ved bruk i en ALU som er syntetisert til tre kretser: No.1: ubegrenset, med bruk av tilgjengelige over-terskel celler; No.2: begrenset til kun INV, NAND2, NOR2 og D-FF med bruk av sub-terskel og over-terskel celle bibliotek; og No.3: begrenset som No.2 + XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22 og OAI22 med bruk av sub-terskel og over-terskel celle bibliotek.

Resultatene viser at effektforbruket reduseres med  $\sim 14$  ganger fra  $V_{DD} = 1.2V$  til  $350mV$  for både No.2 og No.3 ALU kretsene med bruk av sub-terskel cellene. Det er også vist at et mer komplisert bibliotek med inkludering av XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22 og OAI22 reduserer effektforbruket med  $\sim 7.7\%$  sammenlignet med et bibliotek bestående av kun Inverter, NAND2, NOR2 og D-FF, med 350mV. No.3 er vist å være den beste ALU kretsen med bruk av sub-terskel celler i form av forsinkelse og effektforbruk. Både No.2 og No.3 feiler kun med å etterkomme en 32KHz frekvens i SS og FS prosess hjørner i  $-40^{\circ}C$  og 350mV med bruk av sub-terksel celler, hvor de feiler i alle hjørner unntatt FF i  $-40^{\circ}C$  i tillegg til å feile i SS hjørne ved  $25^{\circ}C$  med bruk av over-terkel celler.





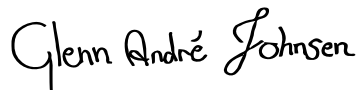
# Preface

This report is written as a result of a Master thesis in the second year of a 2 year Master's degree program in Electronics and the study path Circuit and System Design with main profile Design of Digital Systems at The Norwegian University of Science and Technology (NTNU) in Trondheim. The report was written during the spring of 2014, at the Department of Electronics and Telecommunications.

The company named Atmel Norway AS in Trondheim proposed the project topic in agreement with the author and was decided to be: "Full-Custom Sub-/Near-Threshold Cell Library in 130 nm CMOS with Application to an ALU". Atmel has provided with workplace and computer equipment with access to design tools which I am grateful for.

I will firstly like to thank Professor and supervisor Snorre Aunet for all his help and guidance throughout the project. His positive spirit and good will has inspired and contributed to increased interest within the field of Low Power technology. I will also like to thank co-supervisor Jan Rune Herheim from Atmel Norway AS and fellow student Ole S. Kjøbli for all the help and discussions throughout the project. Last, but not least, a final thanks to Susanne N. Rapp for the love and support through the whole two-year Master education, and feedback on the report.

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# List of Acronyms

<b>ALU</b>	Arithmetic Logic Unit
<b>ASIC</b>	Application-Specific Integrated Circuit
<b>CAD</b>	Computer-Aided Design
<b>CMOS</b>	Complementary Metal–Oxide–Semiconductor
<b>DC</b>	Direct Current
<b>D-FF</b>	D Flip-Flop
<b>DIBL</b>	Drain Induced Barrier Lowering
<b>DRC</b>	Design Rule Checking
<b>EDP</b>	Energy-Delay Product
<b>FO</b>	Fan-Out
<b>FPGA</b>	Field-Programmable Gate Array
<b>FSM</b>	Finite State Machines
<b>GIDL</b>	Gate-Induced Drain Leakage
<b>GND</b>	Ground
<b>HDL</b>	Hardware Description Language
<b>HVT</b>	High $V_T$
<b>IC</b>	Integrated Circuits
<b>LS</b>	Left Side
<b>LVT</b>	Low $V_T$
<b>MCU</b>	MicroController Unit
<b>MOSFET</b>	Metal–Oxide–Semiconductor Field-Effect Transistor
<b>MOP</b>	Multiobjective Optimization Problem
<b>nMOS</b>	n-type MOSFET
<b>PDN</b>	Pull-Down Network
<b>PDP</b>	Power-Delay Product

<b>pMOS</b>	p-type MOSFET
<b>PUN</b>	Pull-Up Network
<b>PVT</b>	Process-Voltage-Temperature
<b>RDF</b>	Random Doping Fluctuations
<b>RNCE</b>	Reverse Narrow Channel Effect
<b>RSCE</b>	Reverse Short Channel Effect
<b>RS</b>	Right Side
<b>RTC</b>	Real-Time Clock
<b>RVT</b>	Regular $V_T$
<b>SOS</b>	Silicon On Sapphire
<b>SRAM</b>	Static Random Access Memory
<b>Tcl</b>	Tool Commando Language
<b>TG</b>	Transmission Gate
<b>ULP</b>	Ultra-Low-Power
<b>ULV</b>	Ultra-Low-Voltage
$V_{DD}$	Voltage Drain Drain (modern used as positive supply voltage)
<b>VHDL</b>	VHSIC Hardware Description Language
$V_{SS}$	Voltage Source Source (modern used as ground or negative supply voltage)
<b>VTC</b>	Voltage Transfer Characteristic

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

This Master thesis is written as a completion of a Master degree study in Electronics with the study path: **Circuit and System Design** and main profile: **Design of Digital Systems** in the Department of Electronics and Telecommunications at NTNU. The introduction chapter will give the reader a brief description of the background and the motivation to solve an assignment within the topic. The chapter also presents previous work, a problem formulation, objectives, main contributions, and finally the structure of the report.

### 1.1 Background and Motivation

The main objective of this master thesis is to design a sub-threshold cell library in 130nm such that the power consumption of various modules in e.g. MCUs is reduced to a minimum while non-critical performance modes are used. Nowadays, more and more battery-powered electronic devices are developed and sold. At the same time the desire for longer lasting battery-powered applications are at increasing interest. Until everlasting energy comes along, we have to reduce the energy consumption in the device to achieve longer battery runtime. Less energy consumption leads to as mentioned longer lasting batteries; however it could also result in smaller batteries and maybe battery-less applications with use of energy harvesting. These benefits lead to cheaper application systems due to smaller batteries, and/or cheaper manpower costs because of less or no need for battery exchange. In extreme cases, some application systems could be placed in unreachable environments such as in space, in concrete construction and in oil drilling heads causing battery charging or battery replacement a difficult or impossible task. Often nowadays electronic systems are designed and produced to perform a specific task(s) within small Integrated Circuits (IC) chips. Hence, the power consumption of these chips should be improved to reach the goals previously mentioned.

The power consumption in static CMOS technology consists of three contributions: switching, short-circuit and leakage power consumption. The power consumption due to switching activity is depended on the square of the supply voltage [1]. Hence, reducing the supply voltage to

the sub-threshold region is a promising and motivating method to reduce power consumption. The reducing of  $V_{DD}$  increases the delay through the circuit, nevertheless an excellent trade-off in application with low performance requirements. The reduction also increases sensitivity to process, voltage and temperature (PVT) variations. Commercial cell libraries are inappropriate for use in sub-/near-threshold operation since they are designed to operate at full supply voltage and thus not optimized resource efficiency for this purpose. Therefore, specialized sub-threshold cells should be designed to operate at weak inversion [2].

As early as late 1960s, people saw that the principle of a threshold of transistors not after all was a threshold and that drain current continues to flow while lowering the gate voltage underneath the threshold voltage. Eric Vittoz then began researching how to exploit this current in analog circuits and ten years later the Vittoz and Fellrath paper was released [3]. This paper describes the characteristics and models for devices operating in weak inversion. Since Eric and his fellow colleague was working at that time at CEH (Centre Electronique Horloger, a research center of the Swiss watch industry), the first wristwatch containing MOS exploiting the weak inversion region was released on the market as early as in 1975 [4].

*"Their killer application was the electronic watch, which stands to reason, given that they were working at CEH, the Centre Electronique Horloger (the research arm of the Swiss watch industry) in Switzerland. The first wristwatch containing weak inversion MOS circuits appeared on the market in 1975."* Y. Tsvividis [4].

One of the popular methods to create ASICs today is to design circuits by describing the architecture and functionality with use of Hardware Description Language (HDL). Then by use of synthesis tools and existing building blocks in a cell library, synthesize the HDL code into IC. The cell library is often designed and well-tested for above-threshold voltages (e.g. 1.2V or 3.3V) and provided by companies that may also provide fabrication for the process technology that the library is based on. Although operating at sub-threshold voltage have been known since the idea was first presented by Eric Vittoz and Jean Fellrath in 1977 [3], Benton H. Calhoun and David Brooks says in their paper published in 2010 that no commercial applications have yet adopted this approach [5].

*"Many research teams have demonstrated the ability to operate digital complementary metal-oxide semiconductor (CMOS) chips in the subthreshold or near-threshold region in recent years, but no commercial applications have yet adopted this approach."* B.H. Calhoun and D. Brooks [5].

## Previous Work

Eric Vittoz and Jean Fellrath described the sub-threshold principle in a paper in 1977 as previously mentioned. As a result of their research the Swiss watch industry used the principle in a watch in 1975.



Nevertheless, very few commercial products today exploit the concept of operating circuits in sub-threshold voltage. By searching the Internet for commercial sub-threshold use, the company Ambiq Micro came up as a result. They claim to have developed an advanced CMOS semiconductor platform that they call "SPOT" (Sub-threshold Power Optimized Technology). With this technology, they have developed a Real-Time Clock (RTC) product, and as today they claim to further release an MCU product with the technology very soon.<sup>1</sup> Another company named Iridium Technologies also seems to have ongoing research and develop sub-threshold logic, but with the addition of being radiation-hardened.<sup>2</sup> This could mean that they and maybe a few others have and are developing sub-threshold circuits. Still, it is good reason to believe that it may not been developed well-tested sub-threshold cell library to be used by synthesis tools.

There exist many scientific papers that present elements and circuits that utilize the concept of sub-threshold voltage. Unfortunately, they are often not transparently transported to commercial production as due to higher demand of yield and robustness in large-scale production line.

## Problem Formulation

How should a logic cell library be designed to be used in sub-threshold voltage region so that it will function and give high production yield in spite of Process-Voltage-Temperature (PVT) variations?

## 1.2 Objectives

The main objectives for this master thesis are:

1. Design the main basic logical cells in a cell library including: INVERTER, NAND2, NOR2 and D Flip-Flop (D-FF), and further: XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22 and OAI22 because they might reduce the number of cells needed and thus reduce die area and power consumption.
2. Characterize the logic cells and perform Monte Carlo analysis to determine robustness against PVT variations.
3. Test the designed sub-threshold cell library in a synthesized 8-bit ALU circuit and analyze performance.
4. Estimate winnings of transforming the design into sub-threshold voltage cells.

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<sup>1</sup>More information about Ambiq Micro at [www.ambiqmicro.com](http://www.ambiqmicro.com).

<sup>2</sup>More information about Iridium Technologies at [www.iridiumtec.com](http://www.iridiumtec.com)

## 1.3 Main Contributions

1. Designed a minimum drive strength sub-threshold cell library including cells needed for a fully functioning library, i.e.: Inverter, NAND2, NOR2 and D-FF aimed to operate at a supply voltage 350mV in 25°C (and probably lower) with the ability of scaling to an above-threshold voltage of 1.2V.
2. High Threshold Voltage (HVT) transistor type is used to reduce leakage to the minimum.
3. Static CMOS technology without body biasing is used to reduce complexity and cost of production.
4. Multiple more complex gates is designed: XNOR2; XOR2; AOI22 and OAI22.
5. Layout for each of the cells in the library is designed.

## 1.4 Structure of the Report

The rest of this report is structured as follows.

**Chapter 2** presents the necessary theory needed to understand the work of this thesis. The first part presents theory about *Semiconductor Technology* which is fundamentally important for understanding this thesis. Important theory for designing logic gates is presented in *Electronic Analysis of CMOS Logic Gates*. Then, theory about *MOSFETs in the sub-threshold region* is described, which is required to designing logic gates aiming at sub-threshold supply voltage. Finally, a brief review of *microelectronic design styles* is presented, and gives the reader a better understanding of what a cell library is.

**Chapter 3** presents into detail the design methodology of all the sub-threshold cell elements designed and proposed in this thesis. Then, the application of the sub-threshold library in an ALU module versus the use of a larger above-threshold library is presented.

**Chapter 4** presents layout of all the cells.

**Chapter 5** describes how simulation, verification and testing have been done in order to give the results.

**Chapter 6** presents the final simulation results gained from this project, and especially results regarding the sub-threshold cell performances and results yielded by use of the library in an ALU circuit module.

**Chapter 7** includes analysis and discussion of the results gained in this thesis.

**Chapter 8** concludes the thesis, and a suggestion for further work is presented.

# Chapter 2

## Theoretical Background

### 2.1 Semiconductor Technologies

Microelectronic circuits are designed to utilize the properties of semiconductor materials. The most important and most extensively studied types of semiconductor materials are silicon, germanium and recent years gallium-arsenide [6]. A semiconductor is a three-dimensional crystal lattice structured material that can have free electrons and/or free holes. Free electrons and free holes are often referred as negative carriers and positive carriers respectively. Semiconductor silicon is found in high concentration in sand and is a material with a valence of four. This implies that each silicon atom has four electrons in its outer shell to share with neighboring atoms and thus forms covalent bonds with four adjacent atoms as shown in figure 2.1(a). Intrinsic silicon (undoped silicon) is a very pure crystal lattice and has equal number of free electrons and holes. These free electrons have gained enough energy from thermal exposure to escape their bonds. The escaped carrier electrons results in free holes [7].

When silicon is doped, a pentavalent impurity (i.e. atoms having five electrons in the outer shell and a valence of five) are combined with the pure silicon lattice forming an unpure silicon lattice as shown in figure 2.1(b). For each impurity atom there will be almost one extra free electron which can be used to conduct current. The pentavalent impurity donates free electrons to the silicon crystal and is known as an n-type dopant. Often used n-type dopants are phosphorus (P) and arsenic (As). Also, one can dope silicon with atoms with valence of three and Boron (B) is one such atom often used. Boron is called a p-type acceptor because it can borrow an electron from a neighboring silicon atom, which then becomes short by one electron. This missing electron forms a hole and can propagate about the lattice and act as a positive carrier. Doping silicon with this acceptor will give almost one extra hole for each Boron atom [7]. Figure 2.1(c) depicts a silicon lattice doped with a p-type dopant Boron.

A Metal-Oxide-Semiconductor (MOS) is created by stacking several layers of conducting and insulating materials. To exploit the properties of semiconductor materials the circuits are constructed by first patterning a substrate and locally modify its properties by introduction of dopants and then by shaping layers of interconnecting wires. This fabrication process is of-

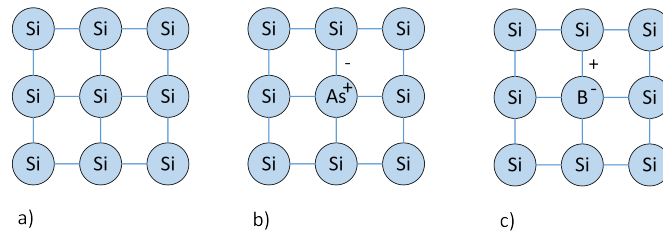


Figure 2.1: Three basic bond lattices of a semiconductor: (a) Intrinsic with negligible impurities; (b) n-type with donor (Arsenic); and (c) p-type with acceptor (Boron) [6].

ten very complex and involves series of chemical processes. The fabrication can be classified by terms of the type of semiconductor used and in terms of the electronic device types being constructed. The most often used circuit technology families for silicon substrate are Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor (CMOS), Bipolar and a combination of the two named BiCMOS. Within a family there may also be different technologies. The CMOS family provides two types of transistors: an n-type (nMOS) and a p-type (pMOS) as depicted in figure 2.2(a) and (b) respectively. These can be created by use of e.g.: single-well (P or N), twin-well and silicon on sapphire (SOS) technology [8] [9].

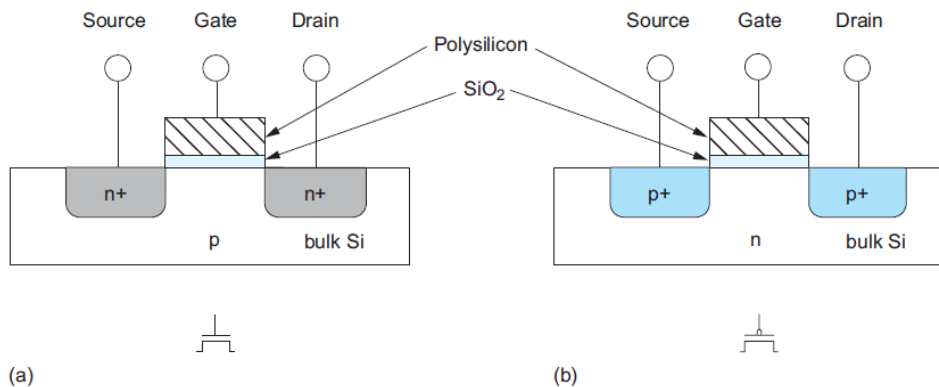


Figure 2.2: Cross section of MOS transistors: (a) nMOS transistor; (b) pMOS transistor [8].

## 2.2 Electronic Analysis of CMOS Logic Gates

In this section, theory for electrical analysis and characterization of logic gates are presented. Two types of characteristics are needed to characterize logic gates: DC characteristics (DC analysis) and switching characteristics (transient analysis). The characteristics for an inverter are only presented since the other gates are similar though multiple VTC curves may arise due to multiple logic states.

## 2.2.1 DC Characteristics of CMOS Inverter

The inverter gate is one of the simplest existing logic gates. Thus, the inverter provides as a basis for electrical characteristics of logic gates. DC analysis determines output voltage  $V_{out}$  for a given input voltage  $V_{in}$ . It is assumed that  $V_{in}$  is changed so slowly that  $V_{out}$  is allowed to stabilize before sampling is done. A DC analysis yields a 2D plot that shows  $V_{out}$  as function of  $V_{in}$ , and an example is shown in figure 2.3. The plot is often called **Voltage Transfer Characteristic (VTC)** curve. In VTC the voltage  $V_{in}$  is varied from 0 V to  $V_{DD}$  which in turn gives the output voltage  $V_{out}$  [10].

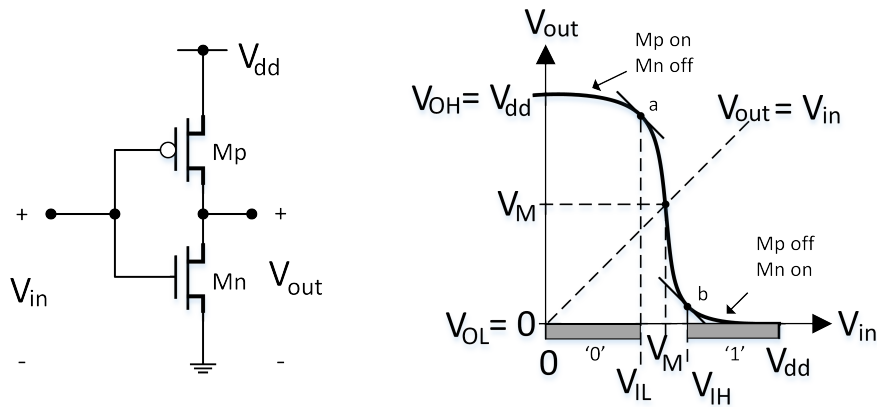


Figure 2.3: Left side (LS): An inverter gate, and right side (RS): Voltage transfer curve for the inverter.

An inverter gate consist of two MOS transistors (complementary pair) connected in a network for switching the output voltage  $V_{out}$  between  $V_{DD}$  and ground ( $gnd$ ). The pMOS (Mp) is connected to  $V_{DD}$  and nMOS (Mn) is connected to  $gnd$  because of their distinctly good ability to lead high and low voltages respectively. Both transistor gates are connected to the input  $V_{in}$  node. If  $V_{in} = 0V$  then Mn is OFF while Mp is ON connecting the output to the power supply and gives  $V_{out} = V_{DD}$  as shown in the upper-left region of figure 2.3. Output high voltage ( $V_{OH}$ ) is then defined as [10]

$$V_{OH} = V_{DD} \quad (2.1)$$

On the other hand, if  $V_{in} = V_{DD}$ , then Mp is OFF while Mn is ON connecting the output to 0 volt ( $gnd$ ). Output low voltage ( $V_{OL}$ ) is then defined as [10]

$$V_{OL} = 0 \text{ V} \quad (2.2)$$

The output is called a full-rail output if the logic swing at the output is [10]

$$\begin{aligned} V_L &= V_{OH} - V_{OL} \\ &= V_{DD} \end{aligned} \quad (2.3)$$

### The Logic Voltage Ranges

There are voltage ranges where logic 0 and logic 1 is defined. These are defined by the changing slope of the VTC curve. A logic 0 input is defined to be the range from 0 V to the point where the VTC curve has a slope of -1 at point 'a' in figure 2.3. The point 'a' is defines as input low voltage  $V_{IL}$  and the logic 0 input range is defined as [10]

$$0 \leq V_{in} \leq V_{IL} \quad (2.4)$$

The logic 1 input is defined to be the range from the point where the second VTC has a slope of -1 at point 'b' to  $V_{DD}$  value as shown at lower-right region in figure 2.3. The point 'b' where the slope is -1 is defined as input high voltage  $V_{IH}$  giving the logic 1 input range defined as [10]

$$V_{IH} \leq V_{in} \leq V_{DD} \quad (2.5)$$

### Noise Margins

The noise margins of a logic gate are a measure of how stable the gate is at both logical 1 and 0 against electromagnetic signal interference. The noise margins for high logic levels and low logic levels are given as [10] [11] [12]

$$\begin{aligned} VNM_H &= V_{OH} - V_{IH} \\ VNM_L &= V_{IL} - V_{OL} \end{aligned} \quad (2.6)$$

### Regenerative Property

The effect of different noise sources may accumulate and eventually force a signal level into the undefined region. This, fortunately, does not happen if the gate possesses the regenerative property. [12]

## The VTC Midpoint

The VTC midpoint is where the input voltage is equal to the output voltage in the VTC curve, or equally where the VTC curve intersects a line given by  $V_{out} = V_{in}$ . This point is also referred as the midpoint voltage  $V_M$  and is depicted in figure 2.3. [12].

## The ideal VTC of an Inverter

The ideal DC characteristics of an inverter are important as it gives a reference to judge the quality of non-ideal designed inverters. The ideal inverter DC characteristic is when the VTC curve has the following properties [12]:

- Infinite gain in the transient region ( $g = -\infty$ ).
- The midpoint located in the middle of the logic swing (typically  $V_{DD}/2$ ).
- With both high and low noise margins equal to half of the logic swing.
- The input and output impedances are infinity and zero respectively.

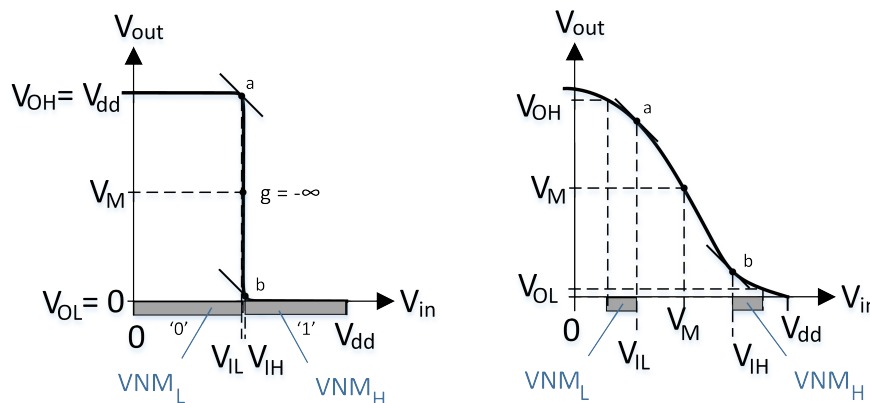


Figure 2.4: LS: Ideal VTC curve, and RS: non-ideal VTC curve for an inverter.

To the left side of figure 2.4 an ideal VTC curve for an inverter is shown. Infinite gain is demonstrated as the curve is completely vertical at midpoint, and the midpoint is also located at  $V_{DD}/2$ . Point 'a' and 'b', where the slope is -1, is located at midpoint, and the value of voltage output high ( $V_{OH}$ ) and output low ( $V_{OL}$ ) is  $V_{DD}$  and zero volt respectively yielding a noise margins of half the logic swing.

On the other hand, the non-ideal VTC is presented to the right side in figure 2.4. Although this VTC curve is non-ideal, it could be sufficient if there is minimal noise present (because of low noise margins).

When designing a logic gate, the VTC curve should be as close to the ideal case. However, the ideal VTC curve is in maybe all cases impossible to achieve in real designs.

### 2.2.2 Switching Characteristics of CMOS Inverter

CMOS circuits are often designed to perform calculations as fast as possible. This leads to the requirement of having as low delay through each logic gate in the digital circuit as possible for a given application. The second and important characteristics of logic gates is therefore the *switching characteristics* or may be known as *transient analysis*. As stated for the DC analysis, the inverter gate provides as a basis for electrical characteristics and the inverter is thus further used to describe the switching characteristics of logic gates.

The difference between DC analysis and transient analysis is that in DC analysis the input voltage  $V_{in}$  is changed so slowly that  $V_{out}$  is allowed to stabilize before sampling, while in transient analysis the input voltage  $V_{in}$  is changing faster in time and thus both  $V_{in}(t)$  and  $V_{out}(t)$  are functions of time  $t$ . Figure 2.5 depict waveforms of the general case when an unit-step function is applied to the input of an inverter gate and how the output voltage responds to this abrupt change in voltage at timestamp  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ . The output reacts to the unit-step input, however the output cannot change as abrupt as the unit-step and introduces fall time ( $t_f$ ) and rise time ( $t_r$ ). This is due to parasitic resistance and capacitances of the transistors [10].

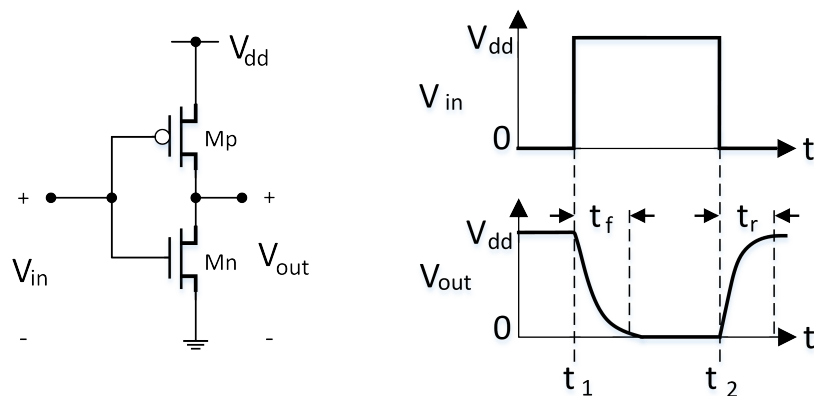


Figure 2.5: LS: An inverter gate, and RS: Switching waveforms for the inverter.

#### The Fall Time

Both rise ( $t_r$ ) and fall time ( $t_f$ ) are traditionally defined to be the time interval from  $V_0 = 0.1 \cdot V_{DD}$  to  $V_1 = 0.9 \cdot V_{DD}$  and  $V_0 = 0.9 \cdot V_{DD}$  to  $V_1 = 0.1 \cdot V_{DD}$  respectively. This is also known as the 10% and 90% voltages as referenced to full rail voltage swing of  $V_{DD}$ .



As mentioned earlier, the rise and fall time is due to parasitic resistance and capacitances in the transistors and external capacitive loads. Both FETs in the gate can be replaced with switch equivalents and results in simplified RC models of the FETs. For the falling case, the output voltage is falling from  $V_{DD}$  to 0 V and discharges the output capacitance through the Pull-Down Network (PDN) of the inverter gate, which is also the resistance  $R_n$  of the nMOS transistor. The discharging current leaving the capacitor is the differential equation [10]

$$i = -C_{out} \cdot \frac{dV_{out}}{dt} = \frac{V_{out}}{R_n} \quad (2.7)$$

and solving with the initial output voltage  $V_{out} = V_{DD}$  and time constant  $\tau_n = R_n C_{out}$  gives the well-known output voltage form

$$V_{out}(t) = V_{DD} e^{-t/\tau_n} \quad (2.8)$$

Now if this solution is rearranged to solve the time  $t$ , and only the time interval between when the output voltage is 90% and 10% of  $V_{DD}$  the solution for the fall time is

$$\begin{aligned} t_f &= \tau_n \ln \frac{V_{DD}}{0.1V_{DD}} - \tau_n \ln \frac{V_{DD}}{0.9V_{DD}} \\ &= \tau_n \cdot \ln(9) \\ &= 2.2 \cdot \tau_n \end{aligned} \quad (2.9)$$

### The Rise Time

In the case when the output voltage is rising from 0 V to  $V_{DD}$ , the output capacitance is charging through the Pull-Up Network (PUN) of the inverter gate and the resistance is now denoted as  $R_p$  of the pMOS transistor. The charge current flowing to the output capacitor is then given by [10]

$$i = C_{out} \cdot \frac{dV_{out}}{dt} = \frac{V_{DD} - V_{out}}{R_p} \quad (2.10)$$

and solving with the initial output voltage  $V_{out} = 0V$  and time constant  $\tau_p = R_p C_{out}$  gives the other well-known output voltage form

$$V_{out}(t) = V_{DD}[1 - e^{-t/\tau_p}] \quad (2.11)$$

Again if this solution is rearranged to solve the time  $t$ , and only the time interval between when the output voltage is 10% and 90% of  $V_{DD}$  the solution for the rise time is

$$\begin{aligned} t_r &= \tau_p \cdot \ln(9) \\ &= 2.2 \cdot \tau_p \end{aligned} \quad (2.12)$$

### Propagation Delay

The propagation delay through a cell or even a chain of logic elements are the mean of High-to-Low  $t_{pHL}$  and Low-to-High  $t_{pLH}$  propagation delays. That is  $Delay = (t_{pHL} + t_{pLH})/2$ . The High-to-Low and opposite is referred to a propagation that leads to a transition on the output of a chain or cell. The propagation delay is defined as the time from the input signal crosses 50% to the output crosses 50%, both percentages referred to  $V_{DD}$  [8].

## 2.3 The D Flip-Flop Memory Element

D Flip-Flop (D-FF) is a storage element that holds a bit value such as a latch, but with the difference of being non-transparent. The non-transparency is explained as the D-FF is only changing output value to the input value on rising or falling edge of a clock signal, while a latch is transparent from input to output as long as the enable signal is set. Standard symbols for both positive- and negative edge-triggered D-FF is shown in figure 2.6.

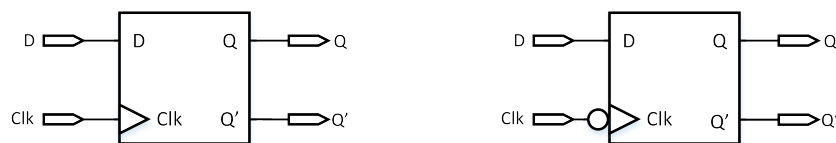


Figure 2.6: LS: Positive edge-triggered D-FF, and RS: Negative edge-triggered D-FF.

The D-FF element is basically designed on the principle of cascading two D-latches in a master-slave configuration where each latch is oppositely clock-phased. Figure 2.7 depicts the principle of cascading master-slave D-latches. The functionality is such that when the clock signal  $Clk = 0$  the master D-latch propagates the input signal to the slave D-latch. When the clock signal makes a transition from  $Clk = 0 \rightarrow 1$ , then the input value of the slave latch propagates to the output while the master latch is blocking while  $Clk = 1$  [10].

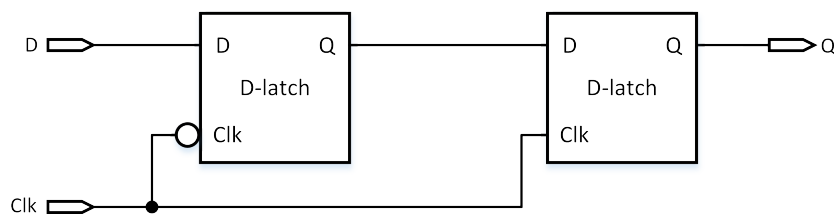


Figure 2.7: Master-slave configuration of D-latches.

### 2.3.1 D FF Timing and Delay

All timing simulations described next are presented in the timing diagram of figure 2.8.

#### The Setup Time

The input data must be valid and stable a certain time before the clock signal makes an edge-triggered transition. This minimum time is because the input data  $D$  has to propagate through the master latch and be applied to the input of the slave before a clock edge-triggered transition can be applied. Hence, the setup time  $t_{su}$  is the minimum time that the input  $D$  has to be stable before the clock  $Clk$  makes the edge-triggered transition [11].

#### The Hold Time

Assuming that the input data  $D$  has been stable for  $t_{su}$  complying with the minimum setup time described above, the input data also needs to be stable for a minimum time after the clock transition. This minimum required time is called the hold time  $t_h$  [11].

#### The Propagation Delay

The propagation delay  $t_{co}$  is the time from a valid clock edge transition to an input value is propagated to the output  $Q$ , also known as the clock-to-output time.

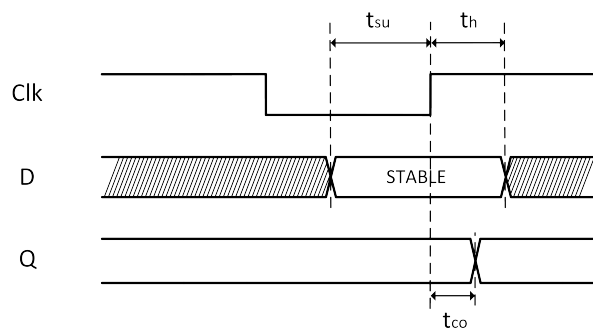


Figure 2.8: Setup-, hold time and propagation delay of D-FF.

## 2.4 CMOS Power Consumption

In CMOS transistor circuits, the average power consumption is equal to [1]:

$$\begin{aligned} P_{avg} &= P_{switching} + P_{short-circuit} + P_{leakage} \\ &= \alpha \cdot f_{clk} \cdot C_L \cdot V_{DD}^2 + I_{sc} \cdot V_{DD} + I_{leakage} \cdot V_{DD} \end{aligned} \quad (2.13)$$

where  $P_{switching}$  is due to the power consumption of switching activity. The second term,  $P_{short-circuit}$  is due to direct-path short circuit current  $I_{sc}$  which arises when both NMOS and PMOS are active in transition of  $V_{gs}$  from high->low or low->high. The last term,  $P_{leakage}$  is the power due to leakage currents arising from substrate injection and sub-threshold effects.

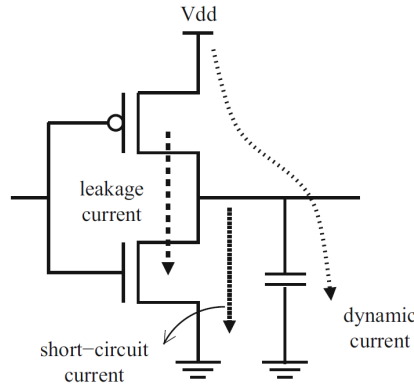


Figure 2.9: The dynamic, short-circuit and leakage power component of CMOS power consumption [13].

### 2.4.1 Dynamic Power Consumption

Power consumption due to switching activity is also referred to dynamic power consumption. It arises in CMOS circuits when a capacitive load  $C_L$  is charged or discharged in transitions from low-to-high or high-to-low respectively. When a transition from low-to-high occurs, energy is drawn from  $V_{DD}$  through PMOS charging the  $C_L$ . This energy is equal to  $C_L V_{DD}^2$  where half is dissipated by the PMOS and half is stored in  $C_L$ . However, in the other case when a transition from high-to-low the energy held by  $C_L$  is dissipated by a short circuit through the NMOS to ground and this energy is  $\frac{1}{2} C_L V_{DD}^2$ . Not to be confused, the total dynamic power in a transition pair is only equal to  $C_L V_{DD}^2$ . If the occurrence of transitions happens at a rate of  $f_{clk}$ , the average dynamic power consumption is equal to  $f_{clk} C_L V_{DD}^2$ . However, in most cases this is not true. The rate of transitions is often reduced compared to  $f_{clk}$  and is related to the probability of a transition occurring in a given circuit. A number with range [0-1] named  $\alpha$  is defined to be

the average number of transitions from low->high occurring in each clock cycle of  $f_{clk}$ . Thus, the total average dynamic power consumption is as shown in second line of equation (2.13) and (2.14) [13].

$$P_{switching} = \alpha \cdot f_{clk} \cdot C_L \cdot V_{DD}^2 \quad (2.14)$$

## 2.4.2 Short-Circuit Power Consumption

The short-circuit contribution of power consumption is independent on rise and fall time of output nodes in a logic circuit. If there were infinitely short rise and fall times in transitions described in the former section, the short-circuit contribution would be equal to zero. However, a finite rise and fall time in transitions gives rise to a short-circuit path from  $V_{DD}$  to GND which is dependent of and increases with rise and fall times. However, it will only be a short-circuit path if  $V_{tn} < V_{in} < V_{DD} - |V_{tp}|$  making both nMOS and pMOS ON, where  $V_{tn}$  and  $V_{tp}$  is the threshold voltage for NMOS and PMOS respectively [14].

## 2.4.3 Leakage Power Consumption

Even when a transistor is in a stable logic state, it continues to consume power due to undesirable leakage. The leakage component of power consumption is due to these leakage contributions: sub-threshold leakage; reverse biased diode leakage; Gate-Induced Drain Leakage (GIDL); and gate oxide tunneling leakage [13]. The leakage component is often referred as the static power consumption.

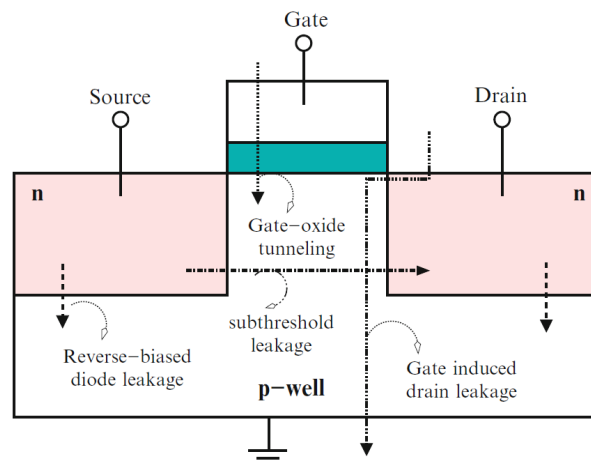


Figure 2.10: The components of leakage power consumption [13].

## 2.4.4 Techniques to Reduce Power Consumption

### Dynamic Power Reduction

As shown in equation (2.14), the dynamic power component is proportional to the square of supply voltage  $V_{DD}$ . Thus, reducing the supply voltage significantly reduces power consumption. E.g. a reduction of  $V_{DD}$  to the half gives a reduction in dynamic power to a quarter ( $1/4$ ) of originally power consumption. Another term in the equation easily adjustable is the clock frequency  $f_{clk}$ . A reduction in frequency reduces power consumption proportionally. However, reducing frequency would give a throughput performance penalty which means that a duty-cycled (computes and sleeps) application may have to be awake for a longer time, increasing power consumption.

### Short-circuit Power Reduction

Short-circuit component of power consumption is only present if the condition  $V_{tn} < V_{in} < V_{DD} - |V_{tp}|$  holds. However, if  $V_{DD}$  supply is lowered to below the sum of thresholds with  $V_{DD} < V_{tn} + |V_{tp}|$  condition met, then the short-circuit power dissipation eliminates as because both transistors will not be ON simultaneously [13] [14].

### Leakage Power Reduction

To reduce the leakage power consumption, different methods are discussed in [13]. Among these are without going into details:

- Multiple supply voltage.
- Multiple threshold voltage (HVT type is used whenever speed is not critical).
- Adaptive body biasing (Effective, but fabrication is complex due to need of twin or triple well technology).
- Transistor stacking (Design methodology).
- Power gating (Particularly useful for duty-cycled applications where blocks on chip can be turned off while in "sleep").

## 2.5 MOSFETs in the Sub-Threshold Region

### 2.5.1 Operation of MOS Transistor in Sub-threshold Region

Reducing the supply voltage  $V_{DD}$  is shown to be an effective method to reduce the power consumption (see section 2.4 for more details). The supply voltage can be scaled down as far as below the threshold voltage of the transistors  $V_T$  (as a common name for  $V_{tn}$  and  $V_{tp}$ ), and into the sub-threshold region. In sub-threshold region, the gate-source voltage  $V_{gs}$  is smaller than  $V_T$  which gives a negative  $V_{eff}$  by the equation  $V_{eff} = V_{gs} - V_T$  and the transistor is thus in weak inversion. The transistor is on the other hand said to be in strong inversion if  $V_{gs}$  is greater than about 100mV, and the region in between weak and strong is called moderate inversion [7].

In sub-threshold region, the square-law equation that relates the current to the voltage of a transistor is no longer valid. Instead the transistors obey an exponential voltage-current relationship. In sub-threshold region, the drain current is dominated by the sub-threshold contribution  $I_{ST}$  over gate current  $I_G$  and junction current  $I_J$ , and is approximately [15] [16]

$$I_{d(sub-th)} \approx I_0 \frac{W}{L} e^{(V_{gs}-V_T)/n \cdot V_{th}} \left(1 - e^{-V_{ds}/V_{th}}\right) \quad (2.15)$$

where  $I_0$  is the technology dependent drain current extrapolated for  $V_{gs} = V_T$ ,  $V_T$  is the transistor threshold voltage,  $n$  is the sub-threshold slope factor ( $n = a + C_d/C_{ox}$ ), and  $V_{th}$  is the thermal voltage  $V_{th} = kT/q$ . The term within the parenthesis to the right of equation 2.15 is the roll-off current which occurs when  $V_{ds}$  is lower than a few times the thermal voltage  $V_{th}$ . Figure 2.11 illustrates the relationship between the drain current  $I_d$  and control voltage  $V_{gs}$  for an arbitrary nMOS transistor with  $V_T \approx 0.5V$ . The inversion regions are marked as weak, moderate and strong, and it is shown in the weak region that the drain current varies exponentially with  $V_{gs}$ .

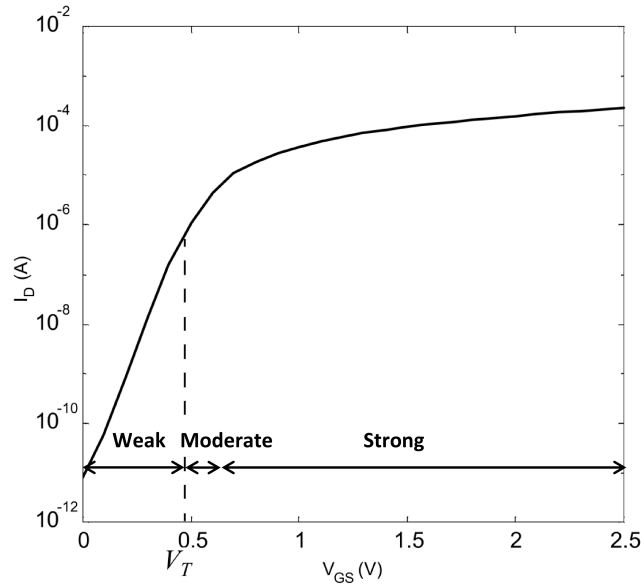


Figure 2.11: Arbitrary  $I_d$  current versus  $V_{gs}$  (on a semilogarithmic scale) , showing the exponential characteristics in sub-threshold region marked as the weak region in the figure. The other regions are pointed out as moderate region from  $V_T$  to approximately 100mV and strong region above. [12]

## 2.5.2 The Threshold Voltage

The threshold voltage  $V_T$  of a MOSFET transistor in sub-threshold region depends on the drain-source voltage  $V_{ds}$  through the drain induced barrier lowering (DIBL) effect and the bulk-source voltage  $V_{bs}$  through the body effect. Thereby, the threshold voltage is expressed as [16]

$$V_T = V_{TH0} - \lambda_{ds}V_{ds} - \lambda_{bs}V_{bs} \quad (2.16)$$

where  $V_{TH0}$  is the intrinsic threshold voltage when  $V_{ds} = V_{bs} = 0$ ,  $\lambda_{ds} > 0$  is the DIBL coefficient and  $\lambda_{bs} > 0$  is the body effect coefficient. By combining equations 2.15 and 2.16, it is shown by [16] how the  $I_d$  current is more dependent on  $V_{ds}$  and  $V_{gs}$  through the threshold voltage

$$I_{d(sub-th)} = \beta \cdot e^{V_{gs}/n \cdot V_{th}} \cdot \left[ e^{\lambda_{ds}V_{ds}/n \cdot V_{th}} \left( 1 - e^{-V_{ds}/V_{th}} \right) \right], \quad (2.17)$$

$$\beta = I_0 \frac{W}{L} e^{-(V_{TH0} - \lambda_{bs}V_{bs})/n \cdot V_{th}} \quad (2.18)$$

where all other terms are grouped in the parameter  $\beta$  which represents the "transistor strength".

The transistor strength can be tuned by modifying the aspect ratio ( $W/L$ ) or by the bulk-source voltage  $V_{bs}$ . However, an increase in  $W$  leads to an increase of the threshold voltage due to



an effect called reverse narrow channel effect (RNCE), and this has most impact on  $V_T$  when  $W \sim W_{min}$ . Hence, the expected increase of transistor strength is thus overcompensated by the increase of threshold voltage. On the other hand, an increase of  $L$  could lead to an increase of transistor strength thanks to the reverse short channel effect (RSCE) by its decrease of threshold voltage as  $L$  is increased. By this, sizing transistors for ULV is much different than from above-threshold and is strongly technology dependent [17].

### 2.5.3 nMOS / pMOS Imbalance Factor

The strengths ( $\beta$ ) of the pMOS and nMOS transistors are of important interest, especially the imbalance between them. The strengths should be close to each other to ensure sufficient noise margins and reasonable equal rise and fall time transients.

At above-threshold, the nMOS strength is often twice the pMOS strength for equal dimensions. However, at ultra-low voltages and sub-threshold the nMOS/pMOS imbalance is usually higher. The imbalance factor is defined as the highest of the strength ratios that is equal or above 1 between nMOS and pMOS regardless of which of them is the stronger one [17].

$$IF = \max \left[ \frac{\beta_p}{\beta_n}, \frac{\beta_n}{\beta_p} \right] \geq 1 \quad (2.19)$$

### 2.5.4 Delay in Saturated MOSFETs

The delay of a CMOS circuit depends on the supply voltage  $V_{DD}$  as shown in equation (2.20) taken from [13] [14]:

$$T_d = \frac{C_L \cdot V_{DD}}{I} = \frac{C_L \cdot V_{DD}}{\frac{\mu C_{ox}}{2} (W/L) (V_{DD} - V_T)^2} = k \cdot C_L \cdot \frac{V_{DD}}{(V_{DD} - V_T)^2} \quad (2.20)$$

where: in the first term  $C_L$  is a load capacitance,  $V_{DD}$  is as usual supply voltage and  $I$  is the current through either PMOS or NMOS during transition. In the second term  $I$  from first term is exchanged with the square law model and  $V_{DD} = V_{gs}$  for digital circuits and  $V_T$  is transistor threshold voltage. In the last term transistor parameters are collected into  $k$  for simplicity's sake.

From the first term in equation (2.20), one could as a first consideration suppose that a reduction in  $V_{DD}$  would gain better delay time. However, when looking at the last term of equation (2.20),  $V_{DD}$  is squared in the denominator which gives an exponential increase in delay when  $V_{DD}$  is reduced.

### 2.5.5 Delay in Sub-threshold Region of MOSFETs

In this case, another equation is presented to model the current passing through a MOSFET when in near and sub-threshold region. However, the form is adopted from (2.20). The equation is as shown in equation (2.21) taken from [15]:

$$T_d = k \cdot C_L \cdot \frac{V_{DD}}{I_0 \exp\left(\frac{V_{DD}-V_T}{nV_{th}}\right)} \quad (2.21)$$

where,  $k$  is the fitting parameter as in equation (2.20).  $V_{th}$  is the thermal voltage i.e.  $V_{th} = kT/q$ .

### 2.5.6 High Fan-in Problematics in Sub-threshold Voltage

A cell library often consists of complex gates with various numbers of stacked and/or parallel devices (transistors) connected to a node. However, when the supply voltage is to be lowered to near/sub-threshold, it is discussed in [15] how cells with large number of parallel or stacked devices significantly raised the lowest supply voltage that the cell could function in.

A problem mentioned in [15] is that the  $I_{on}/I_{off}$  ratio is effectively degraded when there are several parallel OFF transistors increasing the  $I_{off}$ . While the cell is in strong inversion, this degradation does not affect functionality and there is no problem pulling an output node high. However, when scaling the voltage down below sub-threshold region, the  $I_{off}$  current can dominate the  $I_{on}$  current of a single pull-up transistor raising problems in the functionality.

Another problem mentioned in [15] is when several devices are stacked. Actually two effects of stacking are discussed. The first one is when two devices are stacked and conduct current, the drive current is approximately halved. The second is that the threshold voltage in a stacked device increases when the  $V_{sb}$  source-to-body voltage increases.

In [15], a comparison simulation is discussed between a 2-input and a 3-input NAND gate. It is stated that the 3-input gate required about 15mV higher minimum supply voltage than the 2-input gate.

### 2.5.7 Robustness

*Robustness* may be defined as "the ability of a system to resist change without adapting its initial stable configuration". Other specific definitions exist, but in the topic of digital CMOS design the definition could better be defined as "the ability of a logic element or system to withstand Process-Voltage-Temperature (PVT) variations".

## Process Variations

Process variations are manufacturing variations that cause film thickness, lateral dimensions and doping concentration to vary. The variations can be classified as inter-die or global (equally influence all transistors on a die) and intra-die or local (transistor mismatch within a die due to e.g. random dopant atoms implanted). [8]

## Supply Voltage Variations

The supply voltage may vary by the fluctuations in the external supply, IR drop through supply rails and others. However, sub-threshold operation requires a lower amount of current than above-threshold and especially the IR drop can be neglected [17].

## Temperature Variations

Temperature variations are due to environment influence because there is no source for self-heating at sub-threshold supply voltage. However, the temperature affects the  $I_{on}$  and  $I_{off}$  and the currents are increasing when the temperature is increased [17]. Ambient temperature range standards are defined as: Commercial [0, 70 °C]; Industrial [-40, 85 °C]; and Military [-55, 125 °C] [8].

### 2.5.8 Corner Simulation

Corner simulation is when a single run is done with use of the transistor model corners. Corners are process corners that with the effect of process variations model transistors into worst, nominal and best cases. These corners are often named typical (also called nominal), fast and slow. Each corner can influence pMOS and nMOS independently, and thus there are five corners modeling each case: TT (Typical nMOS, Typical pMOS), FF (Fast nMOS, Fast pMOS), SS (Slow nMOS, Slow pMOS), SF (Slow nMOS, Fast pMOS) and FS (Fast nMOS, Slow pMOS). The TT corner is however not an actual corner, but a point in between the other four corners and models the mean expected case [8]. These five process corners can further be combined with wire,  $V_{DD}$  and temperature corners. However, in this thesis the corners are only combined with the temperatures:  $-40^{\circ}C$ ,  $25^{\circ}C$  and  $85^{\circ}C$ .

### 2.5.9 Monte Carlo Simulation

Monte Carlo simulation is used to find the influence of random variations on a circuit. Monte Carlo simulation repeats a simulation with different randomly selected parameters in a model. Hence, a model file with a statistical distribution has to be available in order to do Monte Carlo simulation. Manufacturers often provide such model files. Results often reported from Monte Carlo simulation is mean, minimum, maximum and standard deviation  $\sigma$  [8].

## 2.6 Microelectronic Design Styles

Different design styles or methodologies have been used to design IC circuits. They can basically be classified into full-custom or semi-custom design styles. In full-custom style, the functional and physical designs are handcrafted and thus require comprehensive effort of the design team to achieve satisfactory performance in each detailed feature in the circuit. The high design effort gives long design time and high cost. However, the effort is often compensated by achieving high-quality circuits. Semi-custom design, on the other hand, is based on the concept of using a restricted number of predesigned primitives in order to reduce design time and cost through exploiting well-designed and well-characterized primitives. Due to the fact that fine-tuning large and complex full-custom design may be extremely difficult, and the possibility of automated optimization technique with use of Computer-Aided Design (CAD) tools, the loss in quality in semi-custom design is often very small. Nowadays, the number of semi-custom designs outnumbers full-custom designs.

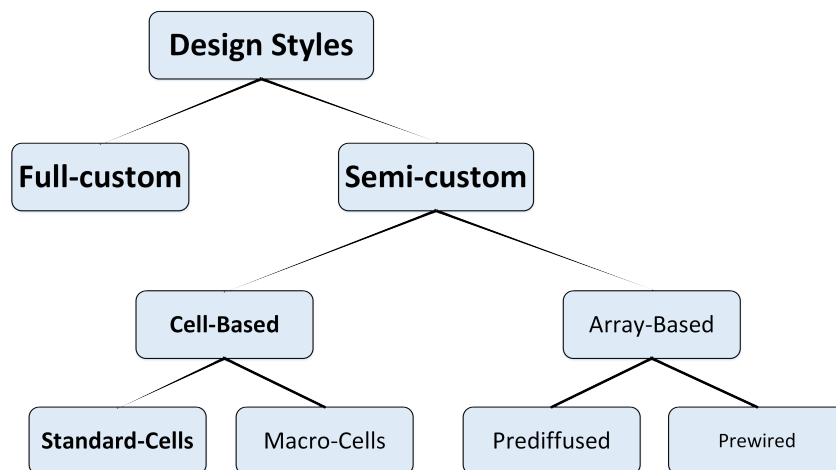


Figure 2.12: Microelectronic design styles [9].

Semi-custom designs are partitioned into two major classes which are Cell-based design and

array-based design. These major classes are further partitioned into subclasses as shown in figure 2.12. Cell-based design utilizes the use of library cells. Library cells can be designed once and stored. Also, cell-based design can use cell generators that synthesize macro-cell layouts from functional specifications.

Cell-based design by use of standard-cells, the fundamental cells are stored in a library and the cells are designed once. However, as the semiconductor process technology scales down updates on the cell library is required. Each cell needs to be parameterized in terms of area and delay over ranges of supply voltages and temperatures, and thus the maintenance of a library is not a trivial task.

Cell-based design by use of macro-cells consists of combining already synthesized building blocks that is synthesized by a program called cell or module generators. These generator programs vary widely in capabilities and have evolved over the last decades. To use a macro-cell generator one has to provide the functional description. Then macro-cells are placed and wired. Although these steps have been automated through software, they are more difficult and may be less efficient when compared to standard-cell placement and wiring due to irregularity in size of macro-cells [9].

When choosing design style to be used in development of microelectronic circuits, a trade-off between performance and design cost and time is often considered. A full-custom design may only be justified if high production volume is assumed, however it might involve higher risk with longer time to marked due to very long design time. On the other hand, if a reduction in performance is acceptable, one could chose cell-based semi-custom design style to reduce time to marked and thus reduce risk of manufacturing lower volume than anticipated. A comparison between design styles, in terms of density, performance, flexibility, design time, manufacturing time and cost is shown in table 2.1 and could be used as a guideline in choosing a style for a given application and market.

Table 2.1: Tradeoffs between design styles [9].

	Custom	Cell-based	Prediffused	Prewired
Density	Very High	High	High	Medium-Low
Performance	Very High	High	High	Medium-Low
Flexibility	Very High	High	Medium	Low
Design time	Very Long	Short	Short	Very Short
Manufacturing time	Medium	Medium	Short	Very Short
Cost - low volume	Very High	High	High	Low
Cost - high volume	Low	Low	Low	High



# Chapter 3

## Design Methodology and Application of the Sub-Threshold Cells

This chapter presents the design of cell library elements/gates targeting at sub-threshold supply voltage of 350mV. The sub-threshold logic elements are designed with minimum drive strength and with use of an available 130nm HVT technology. The cells and logic elements designed are: Inverter, NAND2, NOR2, XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22, OAI22 and D flip-flop. The sub-threshold cells are further applied in an ALU circuit to test the performance and power reduction gained.

### 3.1 Library Specifications

Before the design phase of the sub-threshold cell library, initial specifications were established. The requirements were:

- A circuit with the sub-threshold cell library applied should be able to operate at a frequency of least 32kHz.
- The main focus should be robustness, not lowest voltage / lowest power consumption.
- The library should include at least the minimum basic logic functions in order to create functioning circuits with use of synthesis tools (Inverter, NAND2, NOR2 and D-FF).
- Additionally complex gates as the XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22 and OAI22 may be included if available time left.
- The temperature range is set to  $[-40, 85^{\circ}C]$ , a standard for industrial products.

## 3.2 Design of Sub-Threshold Cells

Designing a cell library for use in sub-threshold is very different from above-threshold supply voltage. In a sub-threshold cell library, cells with larger fan-in than 2-3 should be avoided, and particularly logic cells that stacks transistors of the weaker type between nMOS and pMOS due to the increase of  $V_{DD}$  needed to make the cell fully functioning. This is because the effective  $I_{on}/I_{off}$  ratio is lowered due to decreased  $I_{on}$  by the increased stacking in one network, and increased  $I_{off}$  by the increased parallel transistors in the other network (PDN/PUN). Consequently, increase of  $V_{DD}$  would probably make the library infeasible for ULP operation [15]. Synthesized circuits for ULP often require cells with small drive strengths. Hence, very few strength versions of cells may be needed in an ULP library. Stronger cells are often needed in critical paths where the speed must be increased to achieve the clocking requirement. However, in ULP circuits where these critical paths occurs, it might be better to parallelize minimum strength cells to increase overall strength and thereby achieving better speed [17]. In another perspective, the number of cells in an ULP library should be small (in order of tens) such that development and porting cost from technology scaling are as low as possible.

The proposed sub-threshold cell library is from the above viewing designed with use of maximum fan-in of 2 and with minimum drive strengths. The logic elements that are designed and described further in this chapter are: Inverter, NAND2, NOR2 and memory element D-FF. These cells may be the minimum logic cells required to create area and power efficient circuits. Beyond this, four cells are designed to extend the library such that synthesized circuits may(!) be more area, delay and power efficient. These are: XOR2, XNOR2, AOI22 and OAI22.

All logic gates are designed with use of static CMOS logic style and all transistor topologies are obtained from [10].

### 3.2.1 Choice of Transistor Type and Supply Voltage for the Sub-Threshold Cells

In order to design an ULP cell library, the components of power consumption should be minimized as much as possible. In section 2.4, the components of power consumption is presented as: dynamic, short-circuit and leakage/static components. As described in section 2.4.4, the dynamic power consumption is most effectively reduced by lowering the supply voltage and/or by lowering the frequency. In fact, as stated in section 2.5.4 and 2.5.5 the delay increases with decreased  $V_{DD}$  (delay increases exponentially for sub-threshold  $V_{DD}$ ), and thus the frequency may have to be lowered in order to sustain a functioning circuit. Hence, at lower frequencies, the static power consumption is of increased importance and should be taken accounted for.



## Transistor Type

The static power consumption is the product of leakage current  $I_{leakage}$  and  $V_{DD}$ , and a reduction in the supply voltage obviously reduces the leakage. However, within a MOSFET technology, there are often two or more transistor types which has different threshold voltages  $V_T$ . These transistors types are often referred as Low- $V_T$  (LVT), High- $V_T$  (HVT) and Regular- $V_T$  (RVT) in between. Properties that differ with these types are the static leakage power consumption and the speed. High speed circuits are often designed by using LVT transistors, while other non-speed critical circuits are designed with HVT in order to reduce the sub-threshold leakage current [13]. This means that the LVT type is the fastest, but with the drawback of high static leakage current, while the HVT type is the slowest, but with the advantage of low leakage. The 130nm process technology provided for this project includes all these three types mentioned. The transistor type chosen for this project is the HVT type. One reason for the choice is because the HVT type possesses the least leakage power consumption. Secondly, requirement specifications were that a circuit should be able to operate at a frequency of at least 32kHz, and be able to scale the supply voltage to above-threshold voltage for speed critical modes. Hence, choosing HVT will give least leakage for all  $V_{DD}$  modes. It might be beneficial to use the same transistor type for the sub-threshold cell library as used in an above-threshold library due to the requirement of additional fabrication steps to support multiple  $V_T$  types which in hand lengthens the design time, increases fabrication complexity and may decrease yield [13].

## Supply Voltage

The ultra-low-voltage (ULV) supply voltage at which the sub-threshold cell library is designed to operate at, is chosen from analysis of an existing above-threshold library, and specifically the inverter gate. The first analysis was to simulate a five stage ring oscillator of inverters and simulate the power-delay product (PDP) versus  $V_{DD}$ . However, the PDP curve depicted in figure 3.1a is inconclusive as it has no optimum point and continued to decreased as  $V_{DD}$  decreased. Another analysis was to simulate the propagation delay versus  $V_{DD}$  through an inverter gate. It is shown in figure 3.1b for  $25^\circ C$  how the three propagation delays: rising, falling and delay (which is the mean of the two) is increased exponentially from below approximately 400mV and down. This is as expected due to that the provided 130nm HVT transistor technology has an intrinsic threshold voltage of approximately 400mV and the delay is exponential at near/sub-threshold as described in section 2.5.5. However, as it is impossible to accurately predict logic depth of critical paths in future synthesized designs, and the requirement of an operating frequency of least 32kHz, it might be a good idea aiming at a  $V_{DD}$  of 350mV at  $25^\circ C$  before the delay grows exponentially to the ceiling. The following paragraphs substantiates the choice of supply voltage by involving noise margins and the lower bound  $V_{DD,min}$ .

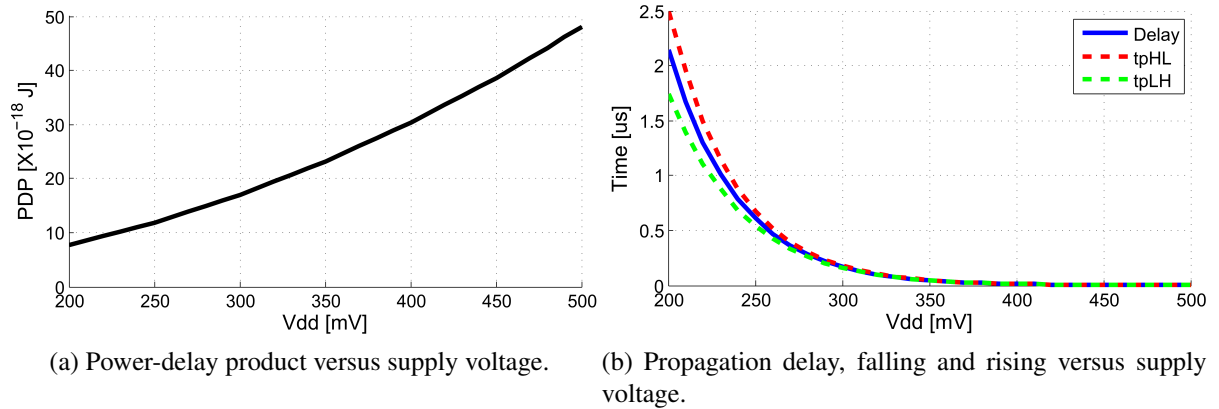


Figure 3.1: Both plots for an existing above-threshold inverter at  $25^{\circ}C$  and nominal corner.

In [17], the physical lower bound of supply voltage  $V_{DD,min}$  is given by the requirement of non-negative noise margin (NM), NM should not be  $NM < 0$ . The NM is found to be, by assuming  $n_n \approx n_p \approx n$

$$\begin{aligned}
 NM &= \min(NM_L, NM_H) \\
 &= \frac{V_{DD}}{2} - V_{th} \frac{n}{2} \ln(IF) - V_{th} \frac{n}{2} \left[ \ln\left(\frac{2}{n}\right) + 1 \right]
 \end{aligned} \tag{3.1}$$

where  $V_{th} = \frac{kT}{q}$  is the thermal voltage,  $n$  is the sub-threshold slope factor and IF is the imbalance factor as described in section 2.5.3. The lower bound  $V_{DD,min}$  is then derived from inverting the NM equation (3.1) and setting  $NM=0$  providing (this provides a theoretical  $V_{DD,min}$  and in practical circuits the NM should be higher to ensure robustness)

$$V_{DD,min} = nV_{th} \left[ \ln(IF) + \ln\left(\frac{2}{n}\right) + 1 \right] \tag{3.2}$$

The equation (3.2) gives in the ideal case with perfect imbalance factor ( $IF=1$ ) a lower bound of only  $2V_{th} \approx 50mV$  at  $25^{\circ}C$ . However, the lower bound supply voltage with a non-ideal IF will significantly increase the value. Estimation of the practical lower bound supply voltage for the 130nm has been done. However, to do so, the IF value is first calculated by deriving the equation (3.3) from [16] for practical midpoint DC voltage  $V_M$  and setting  $V_{DD} = 350mV$ .

$$V_M \approx \frac{V_{DD}}{2} \pm \frac{n}{2} V_{th} \ln(IF) \tag{3.3}$$

If a pessimistic assumption of the midpoint deviation of a worst case cell in the cell library is 20% deviation from  $V_M$  with respect to  $V_{DD}/2 = 175mV$ , the IF is calculated to be  $IF \approx 10$  at  $25^{\circ}C$ . The calculations, accuracy and sub-threshold slope factor  $n$  is left out from the

report to protect sensitive information regarding the process technology. However, the lower bound  $V_{DD,min}$  is calculated by (3.2) to  $4.5V_{th} \sim 115mV$  with  $IF \sim 10$ . This confirms the predictions discussed in [17], and thus by adopting the increased voltage to overcome PVT and IF variations,  $V_{DD,min}$  should be approximately 13 - 14  $V_{th}$  that is between 325 - 350 mV at  $25^\circ C$ . This also confirms the previously choice of  $V_{DD} = 350mV$ . However, in terms of timing the propagation delay is exponentially dependent on the temperature through the thermal voltage  $V_{th}$  in equation 2.21 in section 2.5.5. Thus the supply voltage should be adjusted to mitigate a critical path delay in a specific circuit design to achieve requirement specifications in all temperatures.

### 3.2.2 Transistor Sizing

An initial analysis of the transistors has been done prior the design stage of the sub-threshold cells. The analysis was to find how the strength of both pMOS and nMOS changes as the geometry (i.e. the width and length) changes. The analysis is important as it gives better knowledge of the difference between pMOS and nMOS, and how they should be sized to give better imbalance factor between them.

Each curve in figure 3.2 depicts the normalized  $I_{on}$  strength with supply voltage of 350mV for nMOS and pMOS, and with the cases of one geometry parameter set to the minimum and the other changed from minimum to 800nm. For instance, the *nMOS*  $I_{on}$  vs.  $L$  curve versus nMOS length ( $L$ ) is with the width parameter of nMOS fixed to the minimum ( $W=160nm$ ).

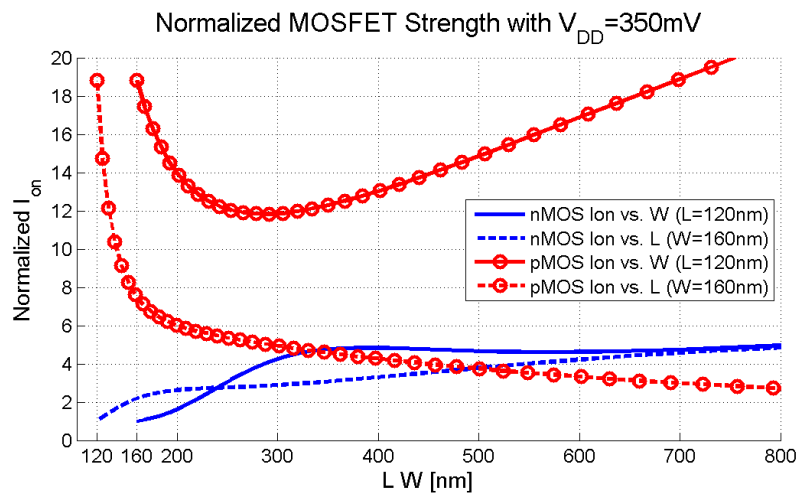


Figure 3.2: Normalized nMOS and pMOS strength to the case with  $W=W_{min}$  ( $L=L_{min}$ ) versus  $W$  ( $L$ ) with  $V_{DD} = 350mV$ ,  $25^\circ C$ , nominal process and mismatch.

To the leftmost in figure 3.2, it is shown that the pMOS is about 19 times stronger than nMOS

at 350mV with all dimensions of both pMOS and nMOS minimum sized. This means that the pMOS strength should be lowered and nMOS strength should be increased to yield better imbalance factor and performance when designing logic gates for 350mV supply voltage.

Focusing on the pMOS, both strength curves for the pMOS depicted in red in figure 3.2 decreases as one of the dimensions are increased from minimum. Nevertheless, one can see that the solid red curve for  $pMOS I_{on}$  vs.  $L$  has a steeper strength reduction than the other. Thus, the pMOS length is the most effective dimension to modify in order to reduce the strength. The other less effective red dotted curve also stops reducing the strength at almost 300nm and rather increases the strength. Although it might look like it would be effective to increase both length and width of the pMOS, it is discovered that from a certain point of  $L$  it rather worsened if  $W$  is increased. The point of  $L$  where it shifted from being better to worse for increasing the  $W$  is when  $L \geq 160nm$  approximately. Setting the pMOS length to  $L=160nm$  provides a new  $pMOS I_{on}$  vs.  $W$  curve shown in figure 3.3 where the pMOS strength only increases if the width is increased.

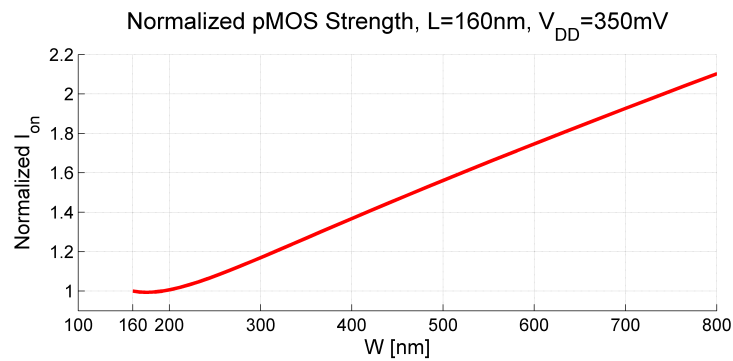


Figure 3.3: Normalized pMOS strength to the case with  $L=160nm$  versus  $W$ , with  $V_{dd}=350mV$ ,  $25^{\circ}C$  and nominal process and mismatch.

Now by focusing on the nMOS, both strength curves for the nMOS increases with increasing dimensions as shown in the blue lower curves of figure 3.2. The blue solid curve of  $nMOS I_{on}$  vs.  $W$  has a strength peak at approximately 380nm and then barely decreases for larger widths. On the other hand, the dotted blue line strength of  $nMOS I_{on}$  vs.  $L$  increases as the length is increased until the end of the plot. Again, it might look like it would be effective to increase both length and width of nMOS, but as also discovered for the pMOS, it is a low point of each dimension where it would rather worsen the strength if both dimensions are increased from minimum size. Since both nMOS curves are similar, both with increasing pMOS length could be used strategically in two ways to design gates. These strategies are listed in table 3.1.

Table 3.1: General sizing strategies.

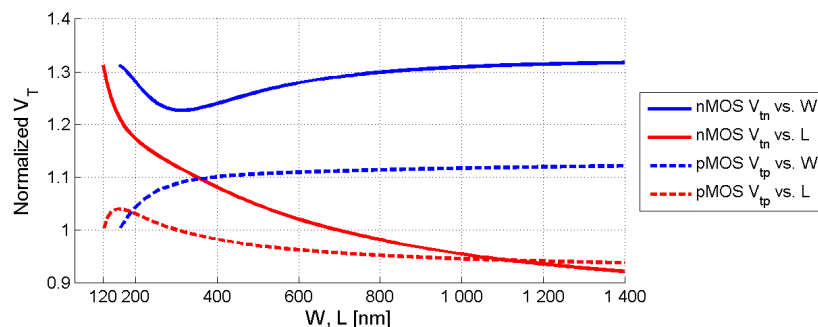
Strategy	Description
1	Increasing pMOS length and nMOS width
2	Increasing pMOS and nMOS length

The threshold voltage of pMOS and nMOS transistor is highly sensitive to changes in dimensions when the dimensions are minimum sized due to Reverse narrow channel effect (RNCE) and Reverse short channel effect (RSCE) [17] as discussed in section 2.5.2. This effect is shown in figure 3.4 where the normalized threshold voltages versus width and length are plotted and the thresholds are changing rapidly for small dimensions.

In terms of variability it is stated and shown in [15, 18, 19] that the variance and std. deviation for the threshold voltage  $V_T$  due to Random Doping Fluctuations (RDF) is  $\sigma \propto 1/\sqrt{WL}$ . Additionally, [19] states that RDF is the dominant source of variation in sub-threshold operation. Hence, this also applies to the  $I_{on}$  variations due to its dependence of threshold voltage as shown in section 2.5.1 and equation (2.15). Although minimum sized transistors might yield best timing performance due to less input-output capacitances, sizing transistors for operation in sub-threshold region requires larger area  $WL$  to decrease threshold variations.

Table 3.2: Approximately threshold voltages for the 130nm HVT technology at  $V_{DD} = 350mV$ .

Device	Threshold Voltage
pMOS $V_{tp}$	$\sim -400mV$
nMOS $V_{tn}$	$\sim 600mV$
Intrinsic $V_{TH0}$	$\sim 400mV$

Figure 3.4: Normalized threshold voltage versus  $L$  or  $W$  with other dimension minimized and  $V_{DD} = 350mV$ .

### 3.2.3 General design methodology of logic elements

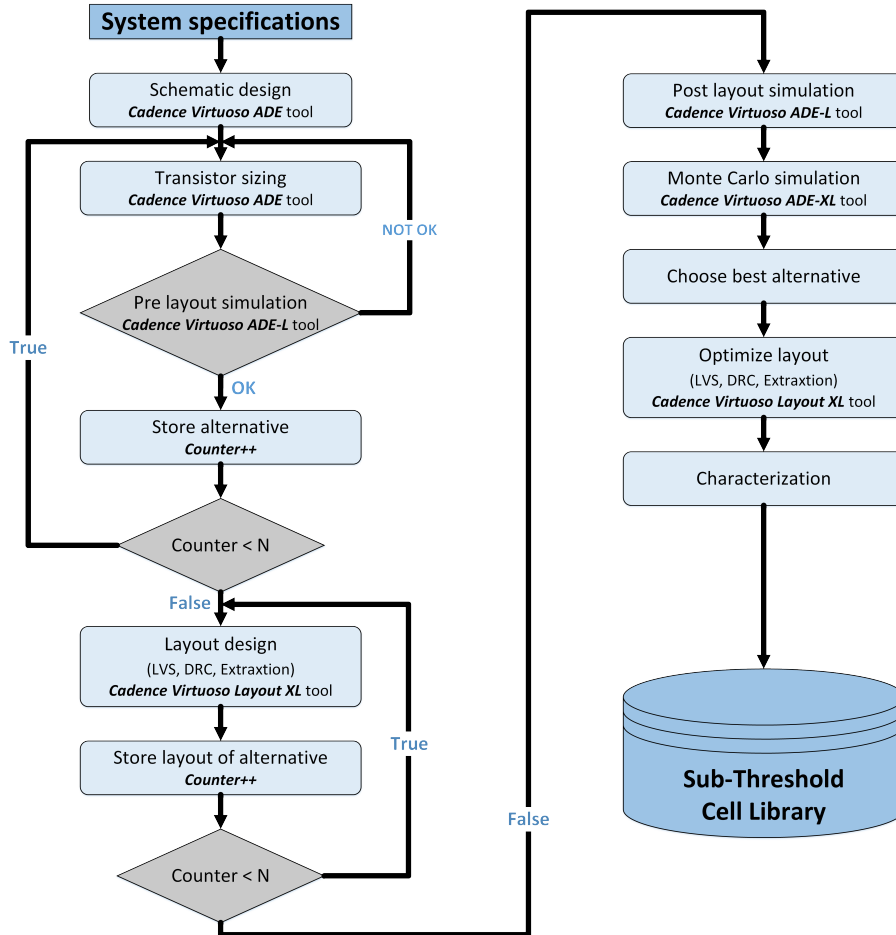


Figure 3.5: Design methodology of cells and tools used in each step where  $N$  is chosen number of alternative designs to further explore.

A general methodology is used for designing all the cells. Figure 3.5 presents a flow diagram and all steps in the design methodology is described next. Initial **System specifications** including logical behavior, supply voltage, drive strength etc. are determined prior designing a cell. The next step is to do transistor level **Schematic design** in Cadence Virtuoso Schematic Editor tool [20] where the focus is to realize desired behavior. The next few steps are within a loop where **Transistor sizing** and **Pre layout simulation** including DC and transient analysis are repeated until satisfied results are achieved. A number of  $N$  alternative designs are **Stored** for further evaluation such that higher confidence of choosing the best design is achieved. When all alternatives are found, then **Layout design** is done on every alternatives with use of Cadence

Virtuoso Layout XL tool [21]. The layout design is important as it provides the ability to extract capacitive and resistive parasitics that are due to interconnecting wires and placements. 2D extraction mode (xRC) is the method used to parasitic extraction. This gives a more realistic model of the alternatives than schematic. These alternatives with parasitic models are then **Post layout simulated** to verify correct behavior and observe expected increase of delay due to larger capacitive parasitics. However, to gain even more confidence, each alternative is simulated with use of **Monte Carlo simulation** in  $-40, 25$  and  $85^{\circ}C$  so that variations by process and mismatch are taken in to account when **Choosing best alternative**. The final steps are to **Optimize layout** and do **Characterization** prior the logic cell is put in a cell library ready to be used by synthesis tools to create ULP circuits.

The design of logic gates for sub-threshold supply voltage is done with focus of optimizing DC analysis results so that midpoint voltage  $V_M$  moves towards  $V_{DD}/2$ , and at the same time minimizing transient analysis results such as propagation delay. However, in most cases improving the midpoint voltage causes the propagation delay to increase and vice versa. Thus, the difficult part is to balance the trade-offs when choosing design geometries of the pMOS and nMOS transistors in the logic gate.

The test bench setup and method used to design minimum strength logic gates is by connect an odd number of logic gates in a ring oscillator to make an uniform way without influence of fan-in and fan-out while transient analysis simulation [12].

Minimum strength logic gates are simulated and designed by use of an odd number stage ring oscillator. This method provides a uniform way of measuring timing results without influence of undefined fan-in and fan-outs [12]. The odd number is typically least five stages [12], thus also chosen in this project. Simulation setup and figures of test benches are presented in section 5.1.2. The ring oscillator oscillates at the maximum possible speed rate allowed by the gate under design enabling simulation of all important transient analysis results as: rise  $t_r$  and fall times  $t_f$ ; propagation delays  $t_{pHL}, t_{pLH}$ ; and delay. Although the ring oscillator has nothing to do with DC analysis, it is convenient to use the same test bench and do DC analysis on the first stage of the ring. DC analysis applies a steady DC voltage which does not allow oscillations to begin, thus enabling VTC curves to be simulated. Nevertheless, most gates besides the simple inverter gate have multiple inputs and even more logic operations. For example the NAND2 gate has two inputs and four states. To propagate a signal through a NAND2 ring oscillator there are several options to bias the gates. Either bias input A or B to  $V_{DD}$  while connecting the other to the chain, or no biasing and connecting both inputs to the chain. However, the worst case biasing in term of DC and transient analysis is focused on while designing the gates. The design of the different logic gates or cells is described in the forthcoming sections.

### 3.2.4 Monte Carlo Simulation and the Number of Runs

Monte Carlo simulation described in section 2.5.9 is used to determine how random variations influence the results of a circuit or cell. Monte Carlo simulation repeats a simulation  $n$  times and the number is chosen by the designer. However, the question is how many runs  $n$  should be chosen.

The number of Monte Carlo runs  $n$  for the intermediate results is chosen by iterative testing. The procedure was to first obtain a std. deviation for  $n=30$  runs which is greater than the minimum required number 20 stated as a rule of thumb by the central limit theorem to create an approximate normal distribution [22]. The std. deviation was then observed while increasing the number of runs until the value stabilized. When a final sizing design is chosen for a logic gate, final results are obtained with a higher number of runs  $n = 220$  to increase accuracy. How accurate the results are with number of runs  $n$  is described in the forthcoming paragraphs.

A confidence interval gives an idea of how accurate an estimated value  $\bar{X}$  of  $\mu$  is. Both expectation value  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$  is unknown prior any simulation. Hence, the T-interval is used to find the confidence interval. This method requires that the measurements are either normal distributed or the number of measurements larger than 30. The T-interval is defined and shown in equation (3.4) where  $S$  is an estimator of std. deviation and  $t_{\alpha/2}$  is the T-interval quantile [22].

$$\left[ \bar{X} - t_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{X} + t_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}} \right] \quad (3.4)$$

Equation (3.4) is transformed into a relative percentage interval in equation (3.5). More than 30 Monte Carlo runs must be simulated to find an estimator  $S$  of std. deviation. As an example, the designed inverter gate yields an estimator  $S \approx 0.5$  (50% relative to  $\mu$ ) with  $V_{DD} = 350mV$  after 100 runs shown as design 3 in figure D.2a. For a 99% confidence interval then  $(1 - \alpha) = 0.99$  and  $t_{\alpha/2} = t_{0.005}$ . The number of run and degree of freedom equal to 100 gives a value of  $t_{0.005} = 2.626$  obtained from a T-interval quantile table in [22]. A 99% confidence interval is then  $\epsilon_{\mu} = \pm 2.626 \cdot \frac{0.5}{\sqrt{100}} = 0.1313$ , which is  $\pm 13.13\%$  relative to  $\mu$ . The final results for each logic gate is obtained with a number of run  $n = 220$ . The 99% confidence interval is then  $\epsilon_{\mu} = \pm 2.59836 \cdot \frac{0.5}{\sqrt{220}} \approx 0.0876$  which is  $\pm 8.76\%$ , with  $t_{0.005} = 2.59836$  obtained for  $n = 220$ .

The std. deviation estimator  $S$  is also influencing the accuracy and number of runs. All the intermediate delay results show that std. deviation is relatively much smaller for above-threshold than sub-threshold. For instance, the chosen inverter design 3 has an estimated std. deviation of 4.5% relative to mean in  $V_{DD} = 1.2V$  and  $-40^{\circ}C$ . This is a much smaller estimated  $S$  compared to the sub-threshold case with an estimated std. deviation of  $\sim 50\%$ . The 99% confidence interval for  $V_{DD} = 1.2V$  and  $n=220$  is thus only  $\epsilon_{\mu} = \pm \frac{2.59836 \cdot 0.045}{\sqrt{220}} \approx 0.008$  ( $\pm 0.8\%$ ) which is



much better than  $\pm 8.76\%$  for the sub-threshold case.

$$\epsilon_\mu = \pm t_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}} \quad (3.5)$$

To find out how many runs that should be simulated to give a specific interval  $\pm$  length ( $\epsilon_\mu$ ), equation (3.6) is used with standard normal distributed quantile  $z_\alpha = 2.576$  for  $\alpha = 0.005$ . An example in [22] uses this method. With continue of the inverter example with  $S=0.5$ , the number of runs required to gain a 99% confidence interval with  $\epsilon_\mu = \pm 0.1$  (10%) is  $n \geq \left(\frac{2.576 \cdot 0.5}{0.1}\right)^2 = 166$ . For a 99% confidence interval with  $\epsilon_\mu = \pm 5\%$  the number of run should be greater or equal to  $n \geq \left(\frac{2.576 \cdot 0.5}{0.05}\right)^2 = 664$ . Even more radically, a 99% confidence interval with  $\epsilon_\mu = \pm 1\%$  requires a number of runs greater or equal to  $n \geq \left(\frac{2.576 \cdot 0.5}{0.01}\right)^2 = 16590$ . Hence, the interval length  $\epsilon_\mu$  is not decreasing proportionally with the number of runs  $n$  since the  $n$  is square rooted in the denominator of equation (3.5). In order to double the accuracy the number of Monte Carlo runs has to be increased by four.

$$n \geq \left(\frac{z_{\alpha/2} \cdot S}{\epsilon_\mu}\right)^2 \quad (3.6)$$

### 3.2.5 Design of Inverter Gate

The inverter gate is the most important and fundamental logic cell in a cell library. The sub-threshold inverter is designed with use of static CMOS logic style as shown in figure 3.14, where the symbol is shown to the left and the transistor schematic is at the right side [10]. The inverter gate only possesses a single logical operation and inverts a single bit. Hence, only one DC and transient operation is needed to be examined meanwhile designing the inverter. The test bench with inverters connected in a ring oscillator is presented in section 5.1.2.

The pMOS is clearly the strongest transistor compared to nMOS with  $V_{DD} = 350mV$  and minimum geometry sizes as discussed in section 3.2.2. Thus, the midpoint with both transistors minimum sized gives a non-optimal percentage deviation from  $V_{DD}/2$  equal to  $\sim 35\%$  as seen in figure 3.6a with  $n_w = 160nm$ . In addition, the propagation delay is very large as seen in figure 3.6b. To explore trade-offs in the two sizing strategies described in section 3.2.2, the Cadence Sim. tool enables use of parametric sweep of custom parameters.

The objectives behind the parametric sweep is to find the minimum point of midpoint  $V_M$  [%] and timing by searching for the optimum transistor dimensions. The idea behind this methodology is to fix two transistor size parameters to the minimum and then coarse sweep the other two size parameters from minimum to a relatively large size (720nm) with steps of 5 points in each parameter. The first coarse sweep indicates which region the optimum sizes may be located.

A new narrower region is secondly swept after analyzing the previous result. This is repeated until optimum sizes are found with good certainty. The same sweep procedure is done on each cell designed in this thesis and a brief explanation is given in the following paragraphs. Only the sizing strategy 1 is shown although sizing strategy 2 is found to be the best strategy in all designed gates.

### First Coarse Parametric Sweep of $n_w$ and $p_l$

The first coarse sweep of transistor sizes is done by setting nMOS length  $n_l$  and pMOS width  $p_w$  to minimum size (120 nm and 160 nm respectively) and sweep the nMOS width from minimum 160 nm to 720 nm with 5 steps ( $n_w = [160 \text{ nm}, 720 \text{ nm}]$ ). For each step of  $n_w$  the pMOS length is swept from minimum 120 nm to 720 nm with steps of 5 ( $p_l = [120 \text{ nm}, 720 \text{ nm}]$ ). The first coarse sweep gives an indication of the change in VTC midpoint and the transient propagation delay versus  $n_w$  and  $p_l$  shown in figures 3.6.

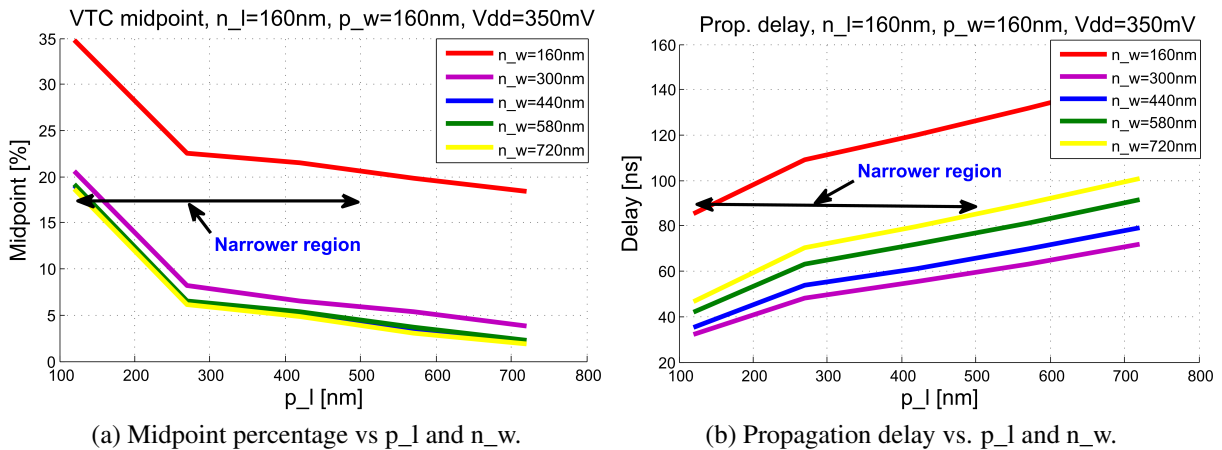


Figure 3.6: INV: First coarse parametric sweep.

### Second Coarse Parametric Sweep of $n_w$ and $p_l$

A second parametric sweep is done with narrower regions of  $n_w$  and  $p_l$  decided to be  $n_w = [250 \text{ nm}, 440 \text{ nm}]$  and  $p_l = [120 \text{ nm}, 500 \text{ nm}]$  by analyzing the results given in the preceding sweep. The second sweep is done with higher number of steps in  $p_l$  direction to increase resolution, resulting in midpoint and propagation delay curves as shown in figures 3.7. A size of  $n_w \geq 350 \text{ nm}$  gives best midpoint, but  $n_w \approx 350 \text{ nm}$  gives best propagation delay. The  $p_l$  size on the other hand gives a trade-off between midpoint and delay. This parametric sweep method is further used to find the other alternatives listed in table 3.3.

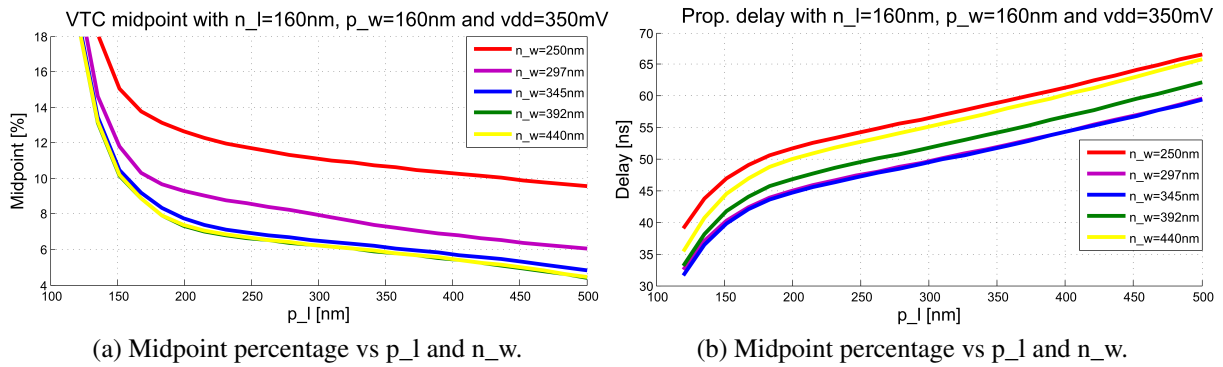


Figure 3.7: INV: Second coarse parametric sweep.

### The Chosen Inverter Design

Table 3.3 lists all the Inverter sizing designs that are chosen for further investigation by use of Monte Carlo simulation on schematic and layout. Design 1 and 2 is found by sizing strategy 1 referred to table 3.1. All the other designs are found with sizing strategy 2. These are chosen with different trade-offs between midpoint and delay. Layout is designed for all alternatives and simulated with Monte Carlo and 100 runs to explore the difference between the sizing strategies in term of mean and standard deviation. The results are called intermediate results and are found in appendix D.2. The sizing strategy 2 is found to be best when considering the intermediate delay results for  $V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$ . The sizing strategy 1 is found to be almost twice in mean delay and standard deviation than the strategy 2 in the worst case with temperature of  $-40^\circ\text{C}$  seen in figure D.2a. There is no distinction between the strategies when it comes to the midpoint percentage besides the strategy 1 has slightly worse standard deviation than the others.

By analyzing the intermediate results found in appendix D.2, design 3 is chosen as the final Inverter design. Design 3 has not the best mean midpoint percentage and std. deviation for  $V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$ , but a value of  $\sim 10\%$  for all temperatures is adequate. The midpoint percentage is however the best one with  $V_{DD} = 1.2\text{V}$  and in all temperatures with a value  $\sim -2\%$ . The design 3 the best delay in 350mV and temperature of 25 and  $85^\circ\text{C}$ , and one of three best at  $-40^\circ\text{C}$ .

Table 3.3: Inverter: Design sizes chosen for further investigation.

Design	1	2	3 (Chosen)	4	5	6
pMOS (W / L)	160 / 389	160 / 500	160 / 240	160 / 480	160 / 600	160 / 720
nMOS (W / L)	385 / 120	350 / 120	160 / 480	160 / 480	160 / 600	160 / 720
MOS Area [ $f\text{m}^2$ ]	108.4	122.0	115.2	153.6	192.0	230.4

### 3.2.6 Design of NAND2 Gate

The sub-threshold NAND2 is designed with use of static CMOS logic style as shown in figure 3.15, where the symbol is shown to the left and the transistor schematic is to the right side [10]. The NAND2 gate has two inputs and four logical operations as shown in the truth table of figure 3.8a. The same figure shows three possible transitions that can occur. Two transitions with only one input value changing (either A or B changing) with the other kept low and the third transition occurs if both inputs are changing from low to high simultaneously. Hence, there exist three VTC curves in DC analysis shown in figure 3.8b. However, two of the transients (1) and (2) are similar and occurs at approximately the same midpoint in VTC diagram whereas the third transient curve (0) occurs to the right of the other two. Since the pMOS has the largest drive strength compared to nMOS with minimum sized dimensions, the VTC curves are positioned to the right of optimum midpoint  $V_{DD}/2$ . Transient (0) gives the worst case VTC curve, unless if the whole VTC family is moved to the left side of  $V_{DD}/2$ .

The same number of transient opportunities exists to configure the ring oscillator in the transient analysis test bench. However, since transient (1) and (2) are similar only one of them are configured in the test bench. In addition the transient (0) who gives the worst case VTC is also DC and transient analyzed in test bench. The test bench configuration for DC and transient analysis are found in section 5.1.2. By simulation, the transient (0) case is also found to be the worst case in terms of propagation delay in transient analysis.

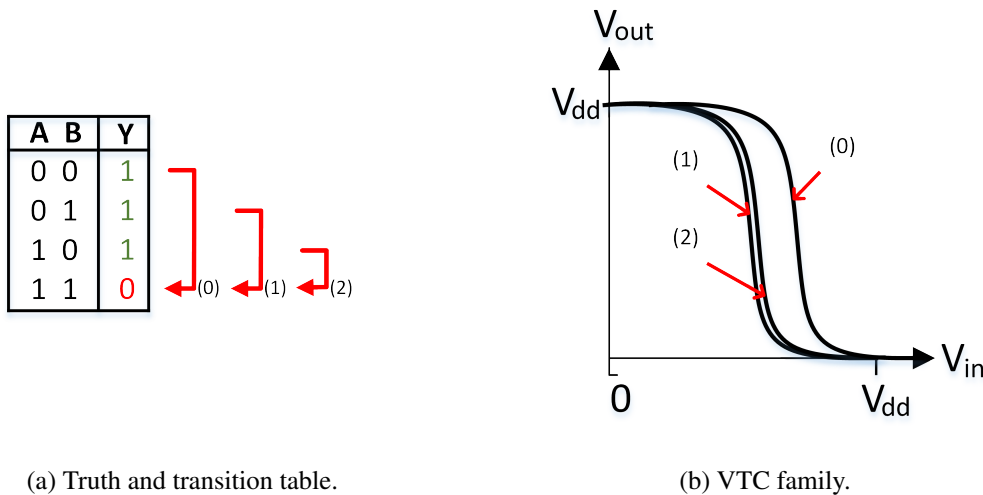


Figure 3.8: NAND2 truth- and transition table where green numbers are common starting point for each arrow column and red numbers are ending points.

### The Chosen NAND2 Design

Table 3.4 lists all the NAND2 sizing designs that are chosen for further investigation with use of Monte Carlo simulation on schematic and layout. Experienced by designing the Inverter gate, the sizing strategy 1 is worse than strategy 2 (referring to table 3.1). Thus, design 1 holding the sizing strategy 1 is included to check that the same experience applies to the NAND2 gate. Layout and Monte Carlo simulation with 100 runs is done on each design to explore the difference between the sizing strategies in term of mean and standard deviation. The intermediate results are found in appendix D.3. The sizing strategy 2 is as with the inverter found to be the best in term of mean propagation delay and std. deviation in  $V_{DD} = 350mV$ . In the worst case delay with temperature of  $-40^{\circ}C$  and  $V_{DD} = 350mV$  as shown in figure D.4a, the design 1 has again almost twice the mean delay and std. deviation compared to the others with sizing strategy 2. Similar to the Inverter gate there are no distinction between the strategies for the NAND2 gate when it comes to the midpoint percentage besides that the strategy 1 has slightly worse standard deviation than the others.

By analyzing the intermediate results found in appendix D.3, design 4 is chosen as the final NAND2 design. Design 4 has not the best mean midpoint in  $V_{DD} = 350mV$ , however it is in the middle range with sufficient mean midpoint value of  $\sim 20\%$ . This is higher than for the Inverter gate because the PUN has two pMOS in parallel instead of one. The midpoint may be impossible to improve without sacrifice of timing such as propagation delay. Considering the trade-off, the transient results are given higher weight than VTC midpoint when deciding which design to choose. Hence, the design 4 is chosen because it has the least mean propagation delay and std. deviation for all temperatures at  $V_{DD} = 350mV$  as shown in figure D.4(a-c).

Table 3.4: NAND2: Design sizes chosen for further investigation.

Design	1	2	3	4 (Chosen)	5	6
pMOS (W / L)	160 / 389	160 / 240	160 / 480	160 / 270	160 / 520	160 / 720
nMOS (W / L)	385 / 120	160 / 480	160 / 480	160 / 720	160 / 720	160 / 720
MOS Area [ $f m^2$ ]	216.9	230.4	307.2	316.8	396.8	460.8

### 3.2.7 Design of NOR2 Gate

The sub-threshold NOR2 is designed with use of static CMOS logic style as shown in figure 3.16, where the symbol is shown to the left and the transistor schematic is to the right side [10]. The NOR2 gate has similar to NAND2 gate two inputs and four logic operations, but with the difference of only producing a logical high when both inputs are low as shown in figure 3.9a. The NOR2 gate has also similarly three transitions as shown in figure 3.9b where two of them (0) and (1) occurs at approximately the same midpoint in VTC diagram. However,

the difference compared to the NAND2 gate is that the third single transition (2) occurs to the left instead of to the right of the two similar transitions. Hence, there are two worst case VTC transitions: both (0) and (1). Nevertheless, only transition (1) in addition to transition (2) is used in the test bench.

The test bench configuration for DC and transient analysis is shown in section C.1. By simulation, the transients are found to be similar in terms of transient analysis and timing measurements. Worst case is thus not easily determined. The test bench configuration for DC and transient analysis are found in appendix C.1.

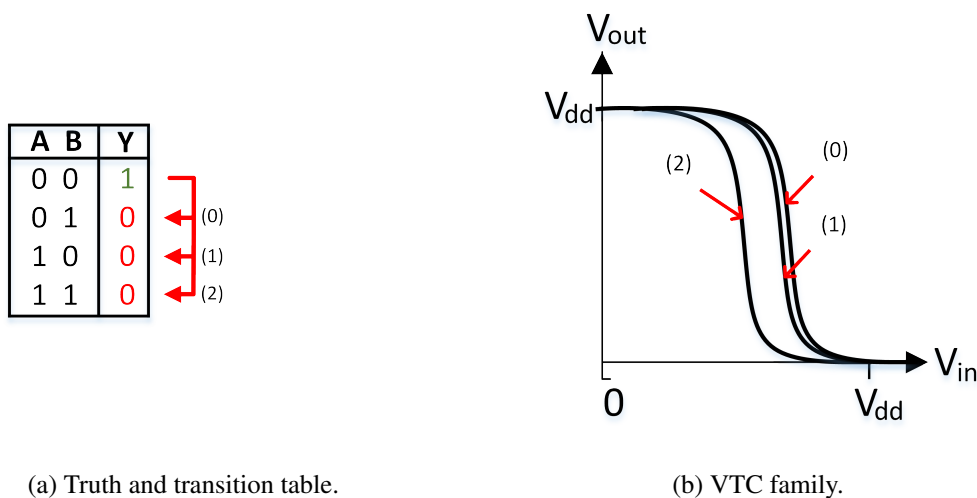


Figure 3.9: NOR2 truth- and transition table where green numbers are common starting point for each arrow column and red numbers are ending points.

### The Chosen NOR2 Design

Table 3.5 lists all the NOR2 sizing designs that were chosen for further investigation with use of Monte Carlo simulation on schematic and layout. Even though experience through designing the inverter and NAND2 gate shows that sizing strategy 1 is worse than strategy 2, then two designs have been included in the list of further investigated designs (design 1 and 2). Layout and Monte Carlo simulation with 100 runs is done on each design to explore the difference between the sizing strategies in term of mean and standard deviation. The intermediate results are found in appendix D.4. The same conclusion with respect of which sizing strategy is the best applies to the NOR2 gate as for the previously discussed gates. I.e. the mean delay and std. deviation in sizing strategy 1 at  $-40^{\circ}\text{C}$  and 350mV is almost twice as slow as the other strategy 2 as shown in figure D.5a.

The design 5 is chosen after analyzing the intermediate results found in appendix D.4. The reason is that the design 5 has one of the least propagation delays in all temperatures and 350mV compared to the others. Although design 3 has similar results in delay, the design 5 is chosen prior design 3 due to slightly better mean midpoint percentage and std. deviation in all temperatures and 350mV. Design 5 has a sufficient mean midpoint percentage of  $\sim 10 - 12\%$ .

Table 3.5: NOR2: Design sizes chosen for further investigation.

Design	1	2	3	4	5 (Chosen)
pMOS (W / L)	160 / 200	160 / 200	160 / 150	160 / 240	160 / 150
nMOS (W / L)	300 / 120	350 / 120	160 / 600	160 / 480	160 / 720
MOS Area [ $fm^2$ ]	136.0	148.0	240.0	230.4	278.4

### 3.2.8 Design of XNOR2 and XOR2 Gate

The sub-threshold XNOR2 and XOR2 gate are designed with use of static CMOS logic style as shown in figure 3.17 and 3.18 respectively, where the symbol is shown to the left and the transistor schematic is at the right side [10]. The only difference between the gates in the structure is how the inputs are organized. The complementary inputs are produced by including sub-threshold inverters which are designed earlier and described in section 3.2.5.

Both XNOR2 and XOR gate has two inputs and four logical operations. The difference between them are that XOR2 produces a logical high only when inputs are different from each other, while XNOR2 produces the opposite as shown in the truth tables in figure 3.10a and 3.11a. Both gates have two possible transitions. The XNOR2 gate has both transitions going from when both inputs are logical low to either input A or B changes to logical high. These transitions are labeled (0) and (1) in figure 3.10a and the respective VTC curves are shown in figure 3.10b. The XOR2 gate has similar behavior, but with transitions going from when either input is logical high to when both inputs are logical high as shown in figure 3.11a. For both gates the transitions (0) and (1) occurs at approximately the same midpoint in VTC diagram. Hence, there is no worst case VTC curve in these gates. The input B is causally selected as the biased input. For the XNOR2 gate input B is sink to GND, and for the XOR2 gate input B is sourced to  $V_{DD}$  while input A is swept in DC analysis.

The transient test bench with a ring oscillator is configured equally as for the DC analysis described in previous paragraph. Since the VTC curves are similar it is assumed that this is approximately the same case for the timing measurements. The test bench configuration for DC and transient analysis are found in appendix C.2 and C.3.

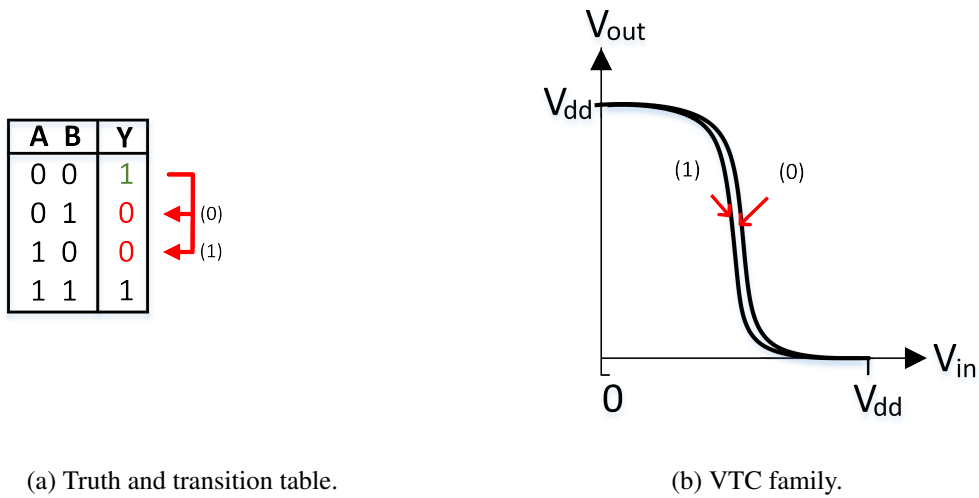


Figure 3.10: XNOR2 truth- and transition table where green numbers are common starting point for each arrow column and red numbers are ending points.

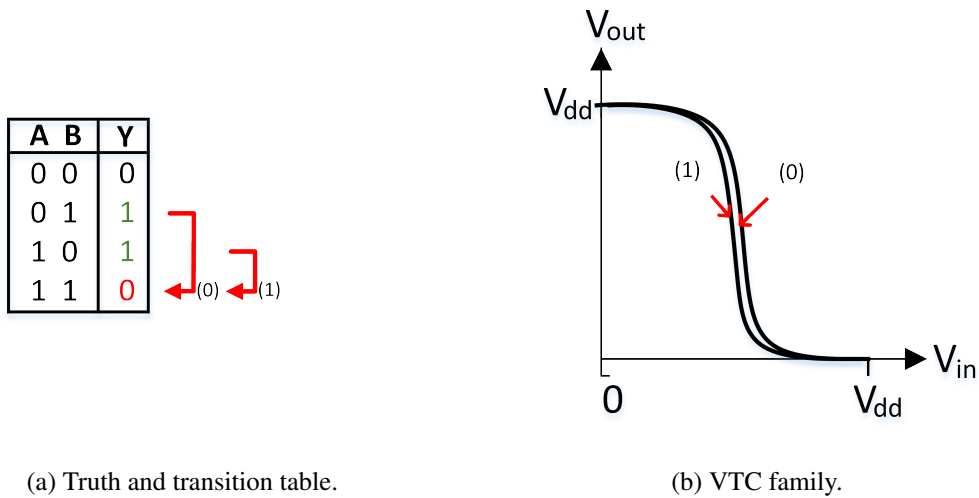


Figure 3.11: XOR2 truth- and transition table where green numbers are common starting point for each arrow column and red numbers are ending points.

### The Chosen XNOR2 and XOR Design

Table 3.6 lists all the XNOR2 sizing designs that were chosen for further investigation with use of Monte Carlo simulation on schematic and layout. Design 1 is again included to investigate



if the sizing strategy 1 referred to table 3.1, but is still the worse strategy compared to the other. Layout is made for all the alternatives and further they are Monte Carlo simulated with 100 runs to explore differences between designs in term of mean and standard deviation. The intermediate results are found in appendix D.5. The worst case propagation delay with  $V_{DD} = 350mV$  and  $-40^{\circ}C$  depicted in figure D.8a shows that design 1 with sizing strategy 1 is still the worse with approximately twice mean and std. deviation compared to the rest. Additionally, design 1 has also worse mean midpoint percentage and std. deviation than the others in  $-40^{\circ}C$  and  $25^{\circ}C$  shown in figure D.7(a-c).

Design 3 is chosen for the XNOR2 gate because it has the least mean propagation delay in worst case temperature of  $-40^{\circ}C$ . Additionally, it is the best for  $25^{\circ}C$  and second best in  $85^{\circ}C$  (however, best compared to those with sizing strategy 2). On the other hand, design 3 does not stand out from the rest in terms of mean midpoint percentage and std. deviation. Nevertheless, the mean midpoint and std. deviation is sufficient with a mean value of  $\sim 10 - 12\%$ .

Only the XNOR2 gate has been thoroughly investigated by exploring different sizing designs. The XNOR2 and XOR2 gates are totally equal in transistor structure (different input labels) and therefore the results gained from the former gate is assumed applicable to the latter gate. Nevertheless, the XOR2 gate is simulated with a distinct test bench do verify that the same sizing design holds as for the XNOR2. By this, design 3 is also concluded to be the best design for the XOR2 as well.

Table 3.6: XNOR2: Design sizes chosen for further investigation.

Design	1	2	3 (Chosen)	4
pMOS (W / L)	160 / 160	160 / 200	160 / 160	160 / 200
nMOS (W / L)	350 / 120	160 / 600	160 / 720	160 / 720
MOS Area [ $fm^2$ ]	270.4	448.0	563.2	588.8

### 3.2.9 Design of AOI22 Gate

The AND-OR-INVERT-22 gate is a combination of two AND2 input gates with a NOR2 gate (which includes the Inverting feature) at the output. Conveniently, the AOI22 gate inherits the transistor structure of XNOR2 and XOR2, but with the difference of eliminating the inverters and labeling four inputs from A to D as shown in figure 3.19 [10]. If a functionality of the AOI22 gate is desired in a circuit, then it could be more area and power efficient to use the 8T (8 transistors) structure rather than combining existing logic gates (NAND2, NOR2 and Inverter) to realize the same functionality. Intuitively, two NAND2s and inverters are needed to construct the two input AND gates, and one NOR2 gate as the OR-Invert at the output. This gives a number of transistors equal to 16 which is twice the amount of transistors as the AOI22.

The AOI22 gate has four inputs and thus sixteen combinations of the input. However, by analyzing the truth table the AOI22 gate is found to possess thirty-nine (39) transitions labeled with distinct numbers as depicted in figure 3.12a. Hence, the gate has 39 possible VTC curves instead of 1-3 VTC curves as for most other gates in this thesis. In order to find the worst case VTC curve combination, all the possibilities are simulated with DC analysis. It is discovered that there are four distinct regions where multiple VTC curves occurs at. These regions are labeled (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv) in figure 3.12b. Transitions that occur at region (i) are: 0-5, 10, 15, 17 and 28. In region (ii): 6-9, 12-14, 18-20, 22, 23, 25, 26, 29-31, 33, 34, 36 and 37. In region (iii): 11, 16, 21 and 32. And finally region (iv) holds these transitions: 24, 27, 35 and 38. Because the pMOS transistor is the stronger one with minimum dimensions the VTC curves typically occurs with midpoint location to the right of  $V_{DD}/2$ . Hence, (i) is the worst case VTC region. For the sake of simplicity the transition (0) is chosen as the configuration for VTC analysis in the test bench.

The same number of transitions holds when it comes to transition analysis simulations. In order to find the worst case transition with respect to timing, all combinations are simulated by connecting an 1f capacitance the output and applying a rising and falling signal to simulate  $t_r$  and  $t_f$ . The worst case is the transition number (37) and is not consistent with the worst case VTC region. The transition number (37) is thus used as the transition analysis configuration in a ring oscillator test bench. The test bench configuration for DC and transient analysis are found in appendix C.4.

After simulating the AOI22 gate with worst case VTC and transient test bench configuration the optimal sizing is found to be the same as for the XNOR2 and XOR2 gates. This is not unexpected since the AOI22 gate has similar transistor structure. The transistor dimensions chosen are repeated convenience sake: pMOS  $W/L = 160n/160n$  and nMOS  $W/L = 160n/720n$ .

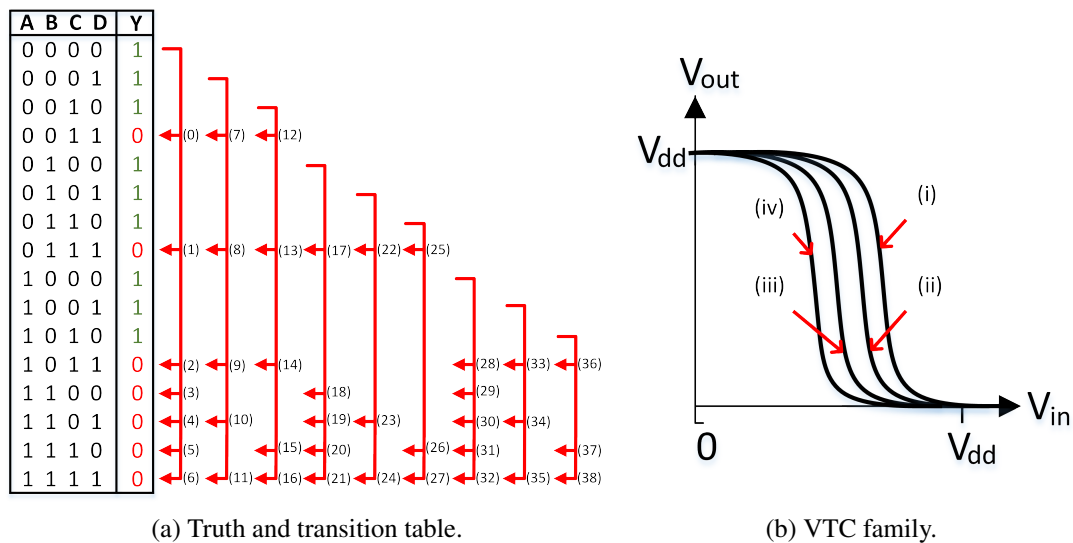


Figure 3.12: AOI22 truth- and transition table where green numbers are common starting point for each arrow column and red numbers are ending points.

### 3.2.10 Design of OAI22 Gate

The OR-AND-INVERT-22 gate is a combination of two OR gates at the input and a NAND2 at the output. The OAI22 also inherits basic structure from XNOR2 and XOR2 as the AOI22 gate does, but with the difference of connecting together midpoint of nMOS rather than midpoint of pMOS as with the AOI22 gate shown in figure 3.20 and 3.19 respectively [10]. Also, the inputs are labeled different from the AOI22 gate.

The OAI22 gate has similar features as the AOI22 gate described in section 3.2.9. It has equal number of transitions (39 transitions) and four distinct VTC family regions labeled (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv) in figure 3.13b. However, the difference are the logic functionality and transitions shown in figure 3.13a. Transitions that occur in region (i) are: 0-4. In region (ii): 2 and 5-7. In region (iii) these transitions occur: 8-12, 15-18, 21, 22, 24, 25, 27, 28, 30, 31, 33, 34, 36 and 37. And finally in region (iv) these transitions occur: 13, 14, 19, 20, 23, 26, 29, 32, 35 and 38. The VTC family region (i) is the worst case as similar to the AOI22 gate and transition number (0) is used as the DC analysis test bench configuration.

The worst case transition with respect of transition analysis with timing measurements is found to be the transition number (31). Hence, the (31) transition is used as configuration in the ring oscillator test bench. The test bench configuration for DC and transient analysis are found in appendix C.5.

After simulating the OAI22 with worst case VTC and transient test bench configuration, the

same conclusion of transistor dimensions are applied as for the AOI22 gate described in section 3.2.9. This means that the optimal transistor dimensions is found to be equal as AOI22, XNOR2 and XOR2. Transistor dimensions are conveniently repeated: pMOS  $W/L = 160n/160n$  and nMOS  $W/L = 160n/720n$ .

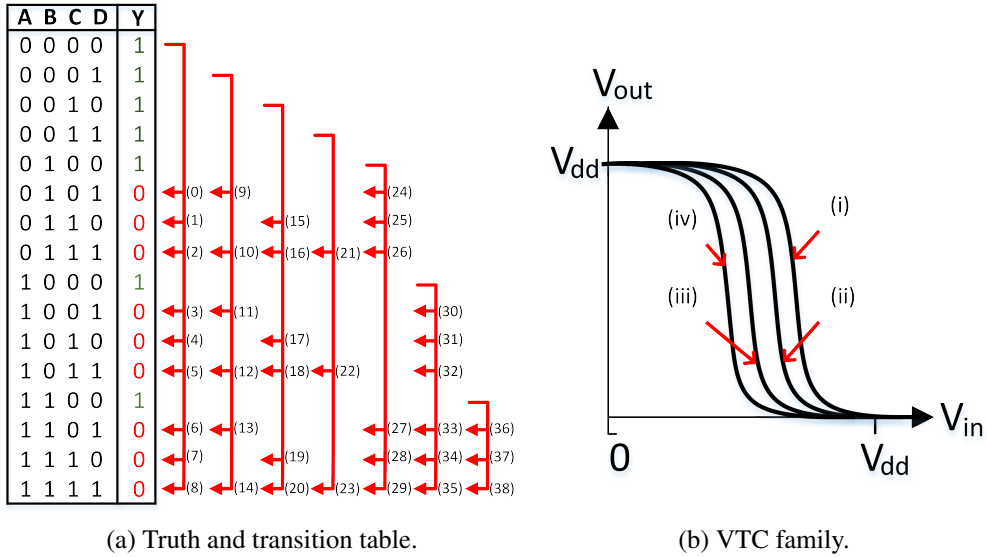


Figure 3.13: AOI22 truth- and transition table where green numbers are common starting point for each arrow column and red numbers are ending points.

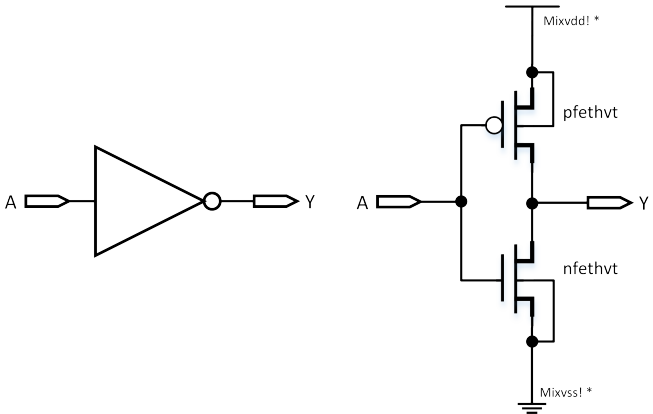


Figure 3.14: Symbol (LS) and schematic (RS) of the designed Inverter gate.

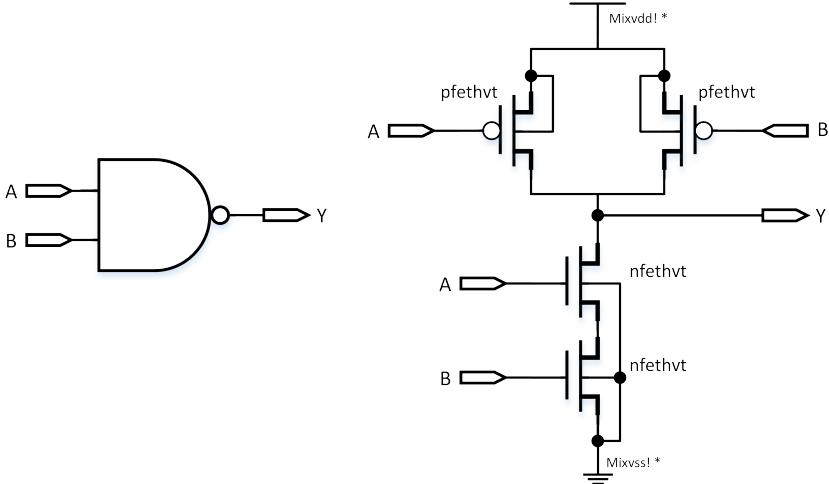


Figure 3.15: Symbol (LS) and schematic (RS) of the designed NAND2 gate.

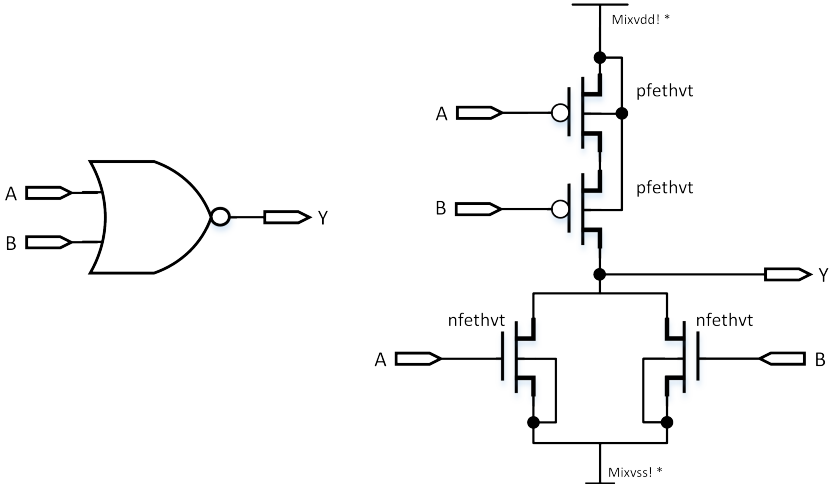


Figure 3.16: Symbol (LS) and schematic (RS) of the designed NOR2 gate.

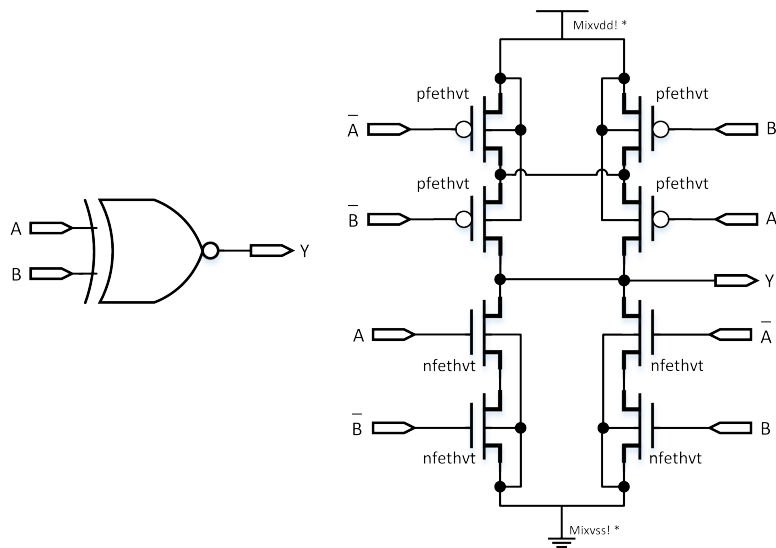


Figure 3.17: Symbol (LS) and schematic (RS) of the designed XNOR2 gate.

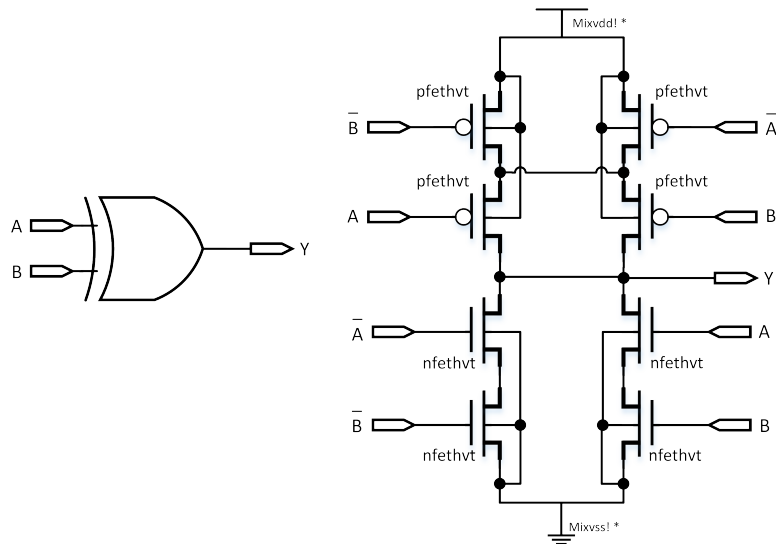


Figure 3.18: Symbol (LS) and schematic (RS) of the designed XOR2 gate.

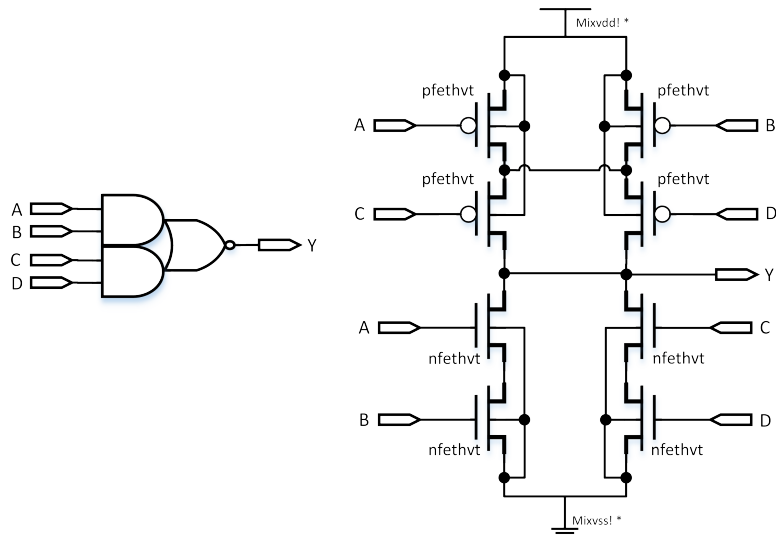


Figure 3.19: Symbol (LS) and schematic (RS) of the designed AOI22 gate.

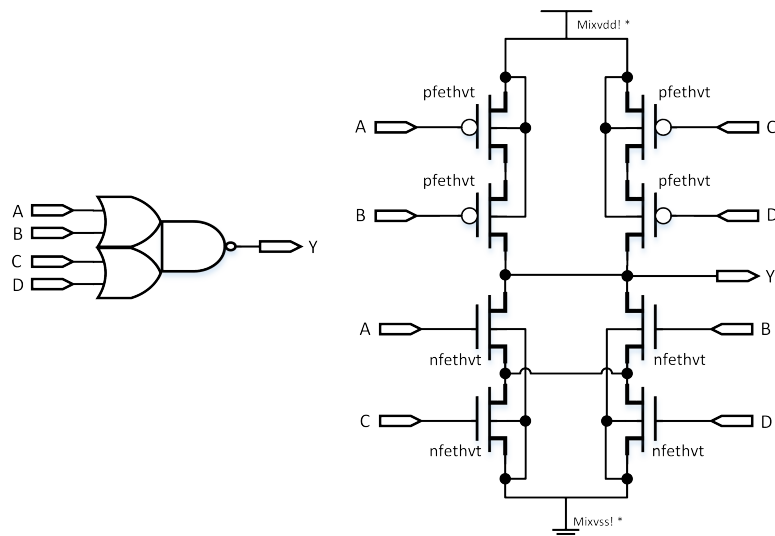


Figure 3.20: Symbol (LS) and schematic (RS) of the designed OAI22 gate.

### 3.2.11 Design of D Flip-Flop Memory Element

#### The PowerPC 603 Flip-Flop

The D Flip-Flop design structure chosen for this project is the PowerPC 603 D-FF. The choice is based on the results gained in a former Master thesis at NTNU [23], which is a comparative study between these D-FF design structures: PowerPC 603; C<sup>2</sup>MOS; a Classic NAND-based D Flip-Flop; and two Minority3-based D Flip-Flops. The PowerPC 603 was concluded to have the lowest PDP, lowest total and static power consumption, very low propagation delay and average relative std. deviation with respect to delay compared with the rest. However, the Minority3 D-FF was concluded to be the best choice if yield and robustness are prioritized, but in cost of speed, power consumption and energy per transition. Although robustness and yield should be prioritized in this project, the PowerPC 603 is chosen as the D-FF structure. The robustness and yield are enhanced by increased supply voltage  $V_{DD}$  rather than use of design strategies that are speed, power, energy and area costly. Without dummy transistors, the Minority3 designs has  $\sim 3X$  more transistors than PowerPC 603. Another comparative study [24] also concludes that the PowerPC 603 D-FF is the best of static D Flip-Flops in terms of delay, power consumption, PDP and EDP.

The PowerPC 603 D-FF was introduced in a PowerPC 603 RISC Microprocessor architecture presented in [25]. The structure of the D-FF is based on master-slave D-latch configuration with use of Transmission Gates (TG) on the input of each latch instead of clocked-inverters used in C<sup>2</sup>MOS D-FF. Figure 3.21 depicts to the left side the standard symbol for a D-FF, and to the right side the PowerPC 603 structure.

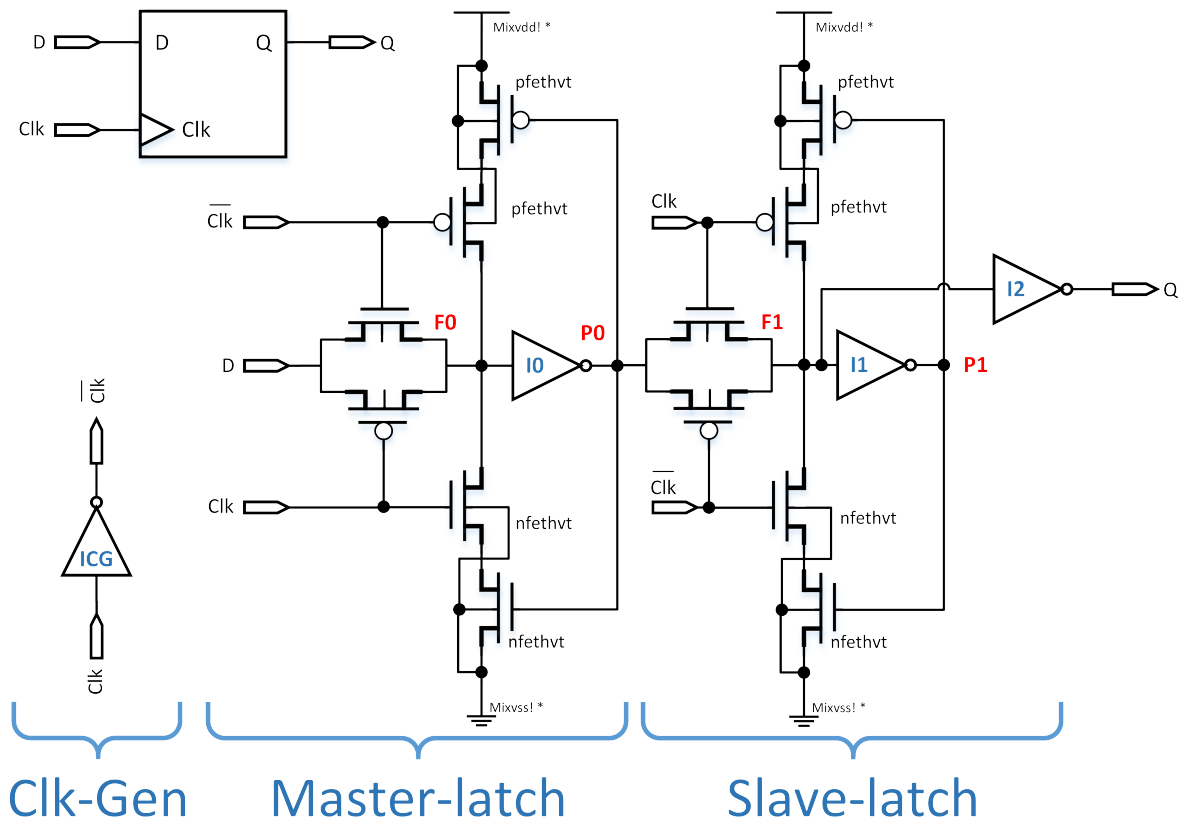


Figure 3.21: Symbol (LS) and schematic (RS) of the designed D Flip-Flop PowerPC 603.

### Clock Generation Circuit

The PowerPC 603 D-FF assumes dual-phase clocking scheme with  $Clk$  and complementary  $\overline{Clk}$  as shown in figure 3.21. However, in this project the D-FF is intended to be designed with single-phase clocking scheme circuit. Thus, clock generation circuitry is implemented in the PowerPC such that the dual-phase scheme is ported to a single-phase clocking scheme.

To sustain proper functionality of the D-FF, it is important to have high quality of the dual-phase clocks seen internally. The rise and fall times should be as low as possible to provide as abrupt transition between transmission gates as possible. In the other case, if the clock rise and fall times are slow, the D-FF might not function properly, especially for high mismatch and low temperatures (i.e.  $-40^{\circ}C$ ). One method to generate dual-phase clocks is by complementary clock generation using a D-latch [10]. This method demands relatively many gates and consequently large die area if used in each D-FF. Hence, this clock generator may usually be globally shared by a number of D-FFs, and would then be an area efficient method. Another way to generate the complementary clock is to use an inverter gate in each D-FF shown as ICG



in figure 3.21, however with the cost of a clock skew equal to the delay through the inverter gate. This method is used in this project and in the designed D-FF as the flip-flop operates correctly in Monte Carlo simulation at  $-40^{\circ}C$  which is the worst case temperature with respect to delay.

The clock generator inverter was in the first revision of the D-FF simply designed as the inverter gate previously described in section 3.2.5. However, after simulating the D-FF with  $V_{DD} = 350mV$  and  $-40^{\circ}C$ , it was discovered that the clock-gen inverter was too weak when discharging the complementary clock node, and consequently the fall time  $t_f$  was too long compared to other clock signal. The reason for the problem was that the clock-gen inverter has a large capacitive load from four transistor gates in the D-FF. The solution for the problem was to design a new stronger inverter with 2X strength since it has  $\sim 2X$  capacitive load as the first inverter is designed for. The method to design the 2X inverter was to use a ring oscillator with four inverters connected in cascade and two inverters added in the chain, but in parallel giving 2X capacitive load to the preceding inverter. Then the inverters are sized such that rise  $t_r$  and fall times  $t_f$  are minimized and VTC imbalance curve is optimized towards  $V_{DD}/2$ . The 2X inverter is dimensioned with pMOS  $W/L = 160nm/200nm$  and nMOS  $W/L = 160nm/720nm$  and is proven to be sufficiently strong after new simulations.

### The Design of D-FF Building Blocks

The D Flip-Flop can be divided into two D-latches with different clock-phases. The D-latch can further be divided into several building blocks. These are: inverters (I0, I1, and I2); TGs (parallel transistors before net F0 and F1); and clocked-inverters (the upper and lower transistors) as shown in figure 3.21. These building blocks are designed individually and will be described in the following paragraphs.

All the inverter building blocks were in the first revision of the D-FF designed as the inverter gate previously designed in section 3.2.5. However, after simulating the D-FF with  $V_{DD} = 350mV$  and  $-40^{\circ}C$ , it was discovered that inverter I0 was too weak when discharging the P0 node and the fall time was too long with respect to the 32KHz frequency. Similarly to the clock-generator, node P0 has the capacitive load of four transistors of inverter I1 and I2, and additionally a small resistance through the TG before the F1 node. The solution was to use the 2X strength inverter designed for the clock-generator to increase the drive strength and provide sufficient fast rise and fall times. Besides this, the rest of the inverters (I1 and I2) are designed as the inverter described in section 3.2.5.

A clocked-inverter building block (depicted in figure 3.22) is used in each latch of D-FF as feedback. When input TG is open (i.e. stops the input signal to propagate), the clocked-inverter is enabled and feeds back the latch output signal to retain stable state. The feedback clocked-inverter was first sized so that the D-FF performance is optimized in terms of minimum setup

times  $t_{su}$  and clock-to-Q delays  $t_{co}$ . The best sizing is then simulated to be when all transistors in the clock-inverters were minimized, i.e.  $W/L = 160nm/120nm$ . Minimum sizes give the least capacitive load on both clock nodes and latch outputs, and thus gives best performance. However, after Monte Carlo simulating the D-FF with 32KHz clock and toggling the input every period with temperature equal to  $-40^{\circ}C$ , the feedback node F1 noted in figure 3.21 of the slave-latch was increasing slowly towards 120mV instead of near zero volt producing a logic "1" on the output while the feedback is ON in the zero clock period (i.e. Clk=0). A timing diagram of the problem is shown in figure 3.23. Still the D-FF did not fail with the floating value of F1 and produced correct output value every time. However, since the value was floating in opposite desired direction, it could happen that the flip-flop fail and flip the stored value after a certain time or if a sudden noise peak arises. The problem was that all transistors in the clocked-inverter were minimum sized which gave to low  $I_{on}$  current by the stacked nMOS compared to the pMOS  $I_{off}$  current, due to improper sizing and the fact that only one pMOS is OFF in the PUN in this case. The solution was to increase all transistor lengths (both nMOS and pMOS), although, as little as possible to accompany the previously discussed principle of keeping the capacitive load as small as possible. All transistors, both pMOS and nMOS are sized to  $W/L = 160nm/190nm$  and improved the worst case floating voltage by half, thus not eliminating the floating problem with cost of minor increase of  $t_{co}$  and  $t_{su}$ .

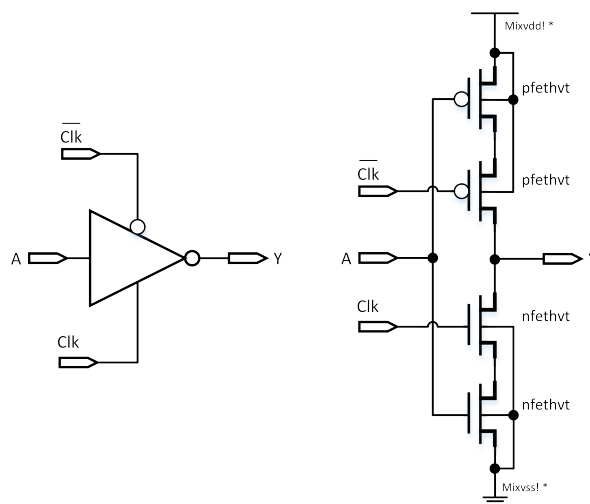


Figure 3.22: Symbol (LS) and schematic (RS) of the Clocked-Inverter Gate.

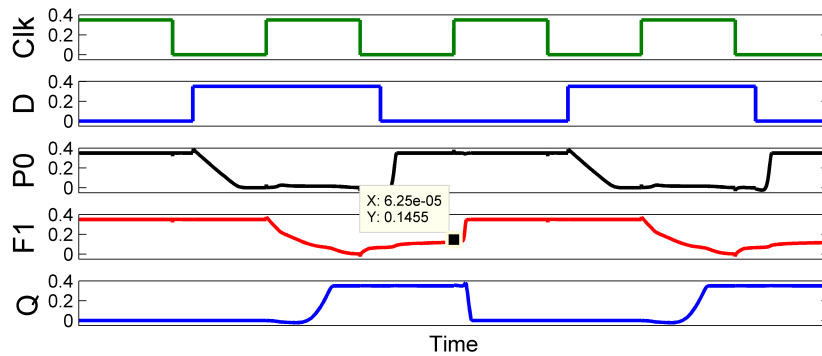


Figure 3.23: Feedback F1 floating in precharge phase problem at  $-40^{\circ}C$ .

The Transmission Gate should have as small propagation delay since the minimum required setup time and clock-to-output time is affected by the delay through master and slave-latch respectively. The TG has however no VTC problematic as it follows a transparency logic scheme, i.e. 1 to 1 or 0 to 0 relationships. By simulation of a TG incorporated in an inverter ring oscillator with three inverters and one TG, it is confirmed that the transistors with as high strength as possible gave best transient time in order of rise  $t_r$  and fall time  $t_f$ , and best propagation delay in order of  $t_{pHL}$  and  $t_{pLH}$ . The nMOS and pMOS strengths versus sizing is depicted in figure 3.2, and to yield highest strengths, the pMOS is minimum sized, i.e.  $W/L = 160nm/120nm$  and the nMOS is sized with long length i.e.  $W/L = 160nm/720nm$ .

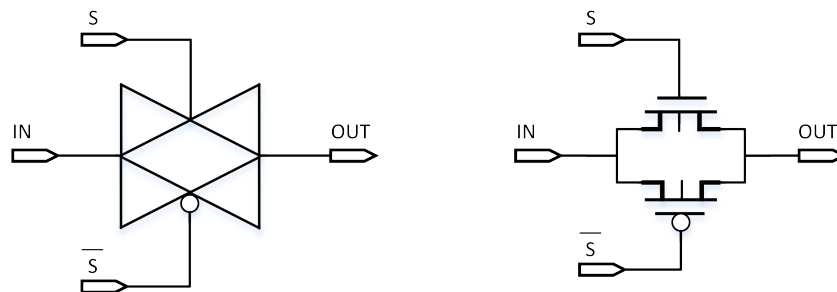


Figure 3.24: Symbol (LS) and schematic (RS) of the Transmission Gate.

### 3.3 The ALU Test Circuits

An Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU) with word length of 8 bit is used as a test case for the sub-threshold cell library. A simple VHDL code is taken from [26] and contains ALU operations except multiplication and division. The list of operations are listed in table 3.7 and the ALU symbol is depicted in figure 3.25.

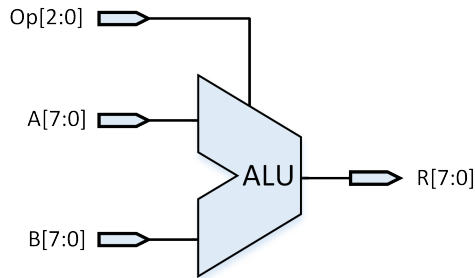


Figure 3.25: ALU block schematic.

ALU Operation	Description
Add Signed	$R = A + B$ : (signed two's complement integers)
Subtract Signed	$R = A - B$ : (signed two's complement integers)
Bitwise NOT	$R(i) = \text{NOT } A(i)$ .
Bitwise NAND	$R(i) = A(i) \text{ NAND } B(i)$ .
Bitwise NOR	$R(i) = A(i) \text{ NOR } B(i)$ .
Bitwise AND	$R(i) = A(i) \text{ AND } B(i)$ .
Bitwise OR	$R(i) = A(i) \text{ OR } B(i)$ .
Bitwise XOR	$R(i) = A(i) \text{ XOR } B(i)$ .

Table 3.7: ALU operations [26].

The ALU test case is intended to be a circuit between two pipelines, as synchronous systems often is. Some modifications to the VHDL code were required to realistically simulate the circuit with respect to timing scheme. The ALU is modified to include D-FFs at both inputs and outputs to model the pipeline registers, since the original VHDL module only had output registers. The VHDL is modified by including a "process()" statement sensitive to Clk, which at each rising edge assigns the inputs A, B and Op to registers named Reg1, Reg2 and Reg4. These registers are read from the "process()" originally present in the code, which performs the ALU operations and assigning the result to the output registers. The pipelined test case is depicted in figure 3.26 where the input and output has D-FFs as registers. The modified ALU VHDL code is provided in appendix A.1.

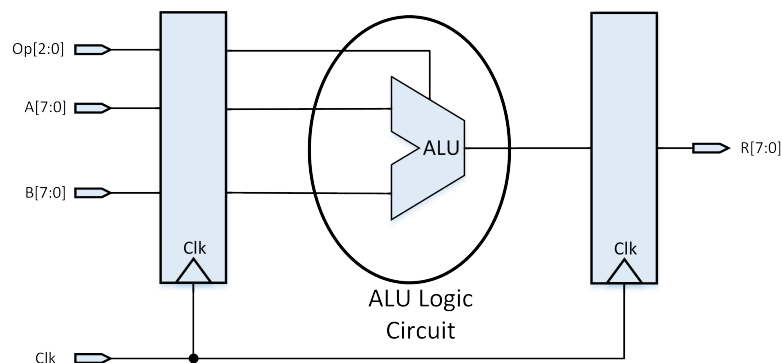


Figure 3.26: Block schematic of pipelined ALU after modifications.

### 3.3.1 Logic Synthesis

The ALU HDL design is synthesized with use of Cadence Encounter RTL Compiler tool [27] and with an available 130nm HVT cell library for above-threshold. There is multiple characterization steps needed to make the sub-threshold cell library fully supported by the synthesis tool. This characterization work is not part of this thesis. Hence, the ALU circuit is synthesized with an above-threshold cell library, and afterwards the cells in the synthesis are manually changed to the sub-threshold cells in the resulting netlist.

Two files are needed to use the synthesis tool. One is a Tool Commando Language (Tcl) script file which applies numerous commandos to the synthesis tool. The script contains specification of attributes such as: HDL language; library and search path; commando to read HDL file; commando to read constraint file (.sdc); and to start the synthesis (and others). It is also possible to define avoidance of cells in the script such that a circuit is only synthesized with e.g. Inverter, NAND2, NOR2 and D-FF. The second file is a constraint file (.sdc). The constraint file is used to define output capacitances, define clock and clock frequency and especially define maximum allowable fan-out for each node or specific node in a design. Content of both files for synthesizing an ALU with restriction to cells of Inverters, NAND2, NOR2 and D-FFs, and with maximum fan-out for each node to 3 is provided in appendix A.2 and A.3.

The sub-threshold cell library is designed with minimum drive strength in each logical element. The sub-threshold cell library is not characterized in the way that enables the synthesis tool to use the library and thereby optimize the circuit for sub-threshold operation. With this in mind, it is not certain that a synthesized circuit without fan-out restriction and use of above-threshold library would be robust for sub-threshold operation. Six ALU circuits with restriction to Inverter, NAND2, NOR2 and D-FF cells and with restricted node fan-out of 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and  $\infty$  (i.e. without fan-out restriction) is therefore synthesized to find the optimum fan-outs for the circuit. The number of synthesized cells and corresponding critical path delays for each fan-out case are depicted in the graph of figure 3.27. For instance, when restricting the synthesis to only allow a fan-out of 2 (FO2) in each node of the circuit, the number of cells increases to 512 cells. Although the circuit has lowest fan-out, the critical path seems to increase in length and thereby yield longer delay through the circuit. At the other end with no restriction of fan-outs, the number of cells is the least with a number of 319 cells. However, due to large fan-outs, the critical path delay is even worse than the former case. There is a trade-off between number of cells and delay. Higher number of cells increases the die area and even more important static and probably dynamic power consumption since more cells are needed to switch in order to produce the same functionality. However, due to speed requirements, especially in low environment temperature that increases the delay rapidly, the main objective is to decrease worst case delay to the minimum. A minimum delay point is found with a fan-out of 3 with 393 cells and is thus chosen as the best sub-threshold ALU circuit restricted to INV, NAND2, NOR2 and D-FF. This ALU design is shown as No.2 in table 3.8.

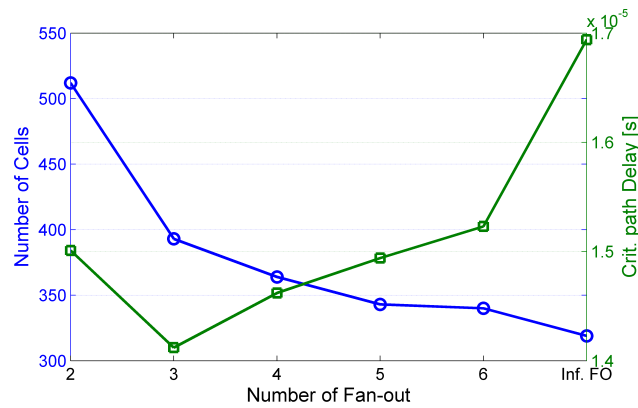


Figure 3.27: Number of synthesized cells (circles) and critical path delay (squares) versus number of Fan-outs allowed. Delay is simulated at  $-40^{\circ}C$  and nominal corner.

Another ALU circuit is synthesized to include all the designed sub-threshold cells (i.e. + XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22, OAI22). This ALU synthesis is also restricted to a fan-out of 3 assuming that the number of fan-out is approximately optimal in this case to. The synthesis resulted in less number of total cells of 272 as shown in table 3.8 as the No.3 design.

A ALU circuit without restrictions of cells and fan-out is also synthesized and yielded a total number of cell of 118 as shown in table 3.8 as the No.1 design. This circuit is used with the above-threshold library and is compared against the fan-out restricted sub-threshold circuits in term of power consumption. However, the use of above-threshold library does not include extracted layout parasitics though.

The fan-out 3 circuit No.2 and No.3 are intended as test circuits for comparison between the existing above-threshold library and the designed sub-threshold cell library in this thesis. The procedure to apply the sub-threshold cells in the ALU circuits is to modify the netlist file such that all e.g. inverter names are replaced with the sub-threshold inverter name found in the library and with corresponding input and output letters (above-threshold library used "I" for input and "O" for output, while in the sub-threshold library "A" and "Y" is used respectively). The modified netlist is then imported into Cadence schematic editor with reference to the sub-threshold cell library.

### 3.3.2 Circuit Design Method (i.e. The ALU Module)

Figure 3.28 depicts a block schematic over the methodology used in this project to design the ALU circuit. The blue boxes present steps that have been done. However, since the circuit in this project is only a test case for the cell library designed, less time is spent in system specifications and Abstract high-level model part. The boxes in darker colors presents further

Table 3.8: Logic synthesis results for the ALU cases: (1): no restrictions of logic gates and FO; (2): restricted to FO3 and INV, NAND2, NOR2 and D FF; (3): restricted as No.2 + XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22 and OAI22. Synthesis is based on 1.2V, 25°C, nominal with Atmel's above-threshold cell library.

Design	No.1 (Above-threshold)	No.2 (Above- & sub-threshold)	No.3 (Above- & sub-threshold)
Mapped Gates			
Gate	Instances		
Inverter	4	131	123
NAND2	12	105	39
NOR2	3	130	26
D-FF	27	27	27
XNOR2	0		1
XOR2	0		9
AOI22	6		34
OAI22	1		13
Misc	65	0	0
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>118</b>	<b>393</b>	<b>272</b>

work steps to realized a finished chip and are not part of this project. Specifications for the ALU circuit were decided to be 8-bit word length and most of the functionality except multiplication and division. The next steps are described in the next paragraphs.

The method used to design the ALU module was firstly to research after available high level hardware description language code. A HDL code was found in [26] and the behavior of the module is verified and modified to contain input registers. VHDL language is used with Active-HDL EDA tool [28] as editor and simulator. The VHDL code is provided in appendix A.1.

In the next step, a logic synthesizer tool named Cadence Encounter RTL Compiler [27] is used to synthesize the VHDL code into a Verilog netlist. After synthesis, the tool reports estimated values for area, power, timing and so on.

The design is then imported into Cadence Virtuoso Schematic Editor tool [20] with use of the synthesized netlist. Virtuoso platform is a tool for designing full-custom integrated circuits and comes with a schematic editor. Within Virtuoso there exists simulators called Analog Design Environment [29] (ADE-L,XL,GXL) that are used to simulate, analyze and verify circuit behavior. This tool is used to give results in term of power, delay and so on.

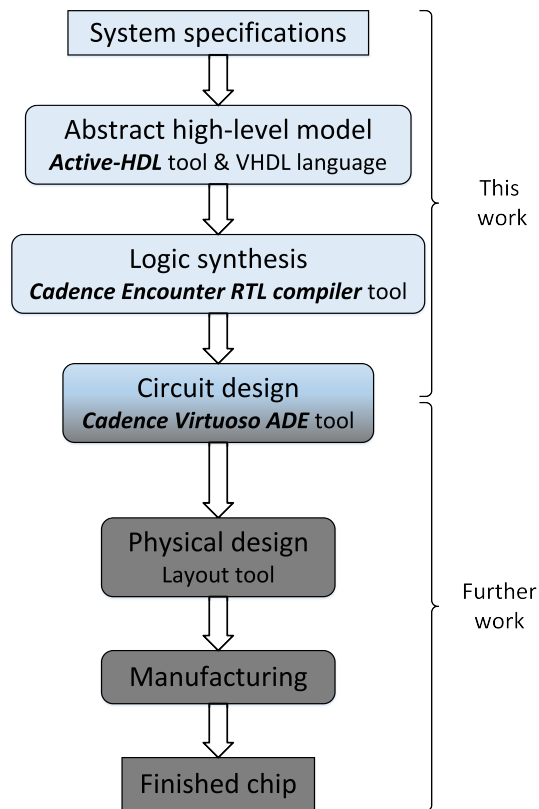


Figure 3.28: Design hierarchy showing methods and tools used.



# Chapter 4

## Layout

Layout design is done on each logic element such that more realistic model with capacitive and resistive parasitics is taken into account when simulating DC and transient analysis. The extraction method used is the 2D extraction mode (xRC) with R+C+CC and no inductance type in Calibre PEX tool. The extraction format is CALIBREVIEW. The focus of this thesis has not been to optimize layout for sub-threshold operation with use of techniques available in literature and papers. Such study should be considered prior finalizing the layout. However, some guidelines and rules have been followed while designing the layout for every logic gate. To make the layout as realistic and portable into existing above-threshold cell library, the rail-to-rail pitch is set to the same as in the mentioned library<sup>1</sup>. All transistors are orientated in the same directions to minimize mismatch, and transistors with gate connected together are placed above each other as long as possible to make poly wire as short and vertical as possible. Additionally, Design Rule Checking (DRC) rules are complied with use of Calibre DRC tool where rules such as minimum metal and poly widths, and minimum distances in different layers are met. The nMOS and pMOS transistor is not custom made and ready-made layout for those is used. However, properties of the transistors are changed such as the contacts not in use due to direct connection to the neighboring transistor is removed as shown in the bottom of the NAND2 layout of figure 4.2 and top of NOR2 layout of figure 4.3. The layout of all designed cells is presented in the remainder of this chapter.

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<sup>1</sup>Design rules are not revealed due to confidentiality.

### 4.1 Layout of Inverter Gate

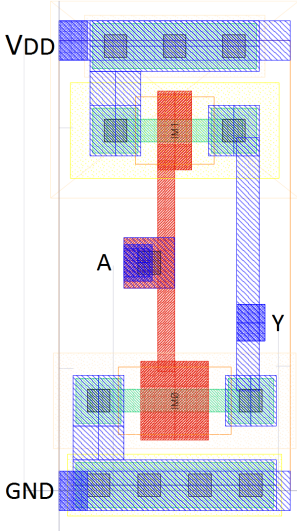


Figure 4.1: Layout of the Inverter gate.

### 4.2 Layout of NAND2 Gate

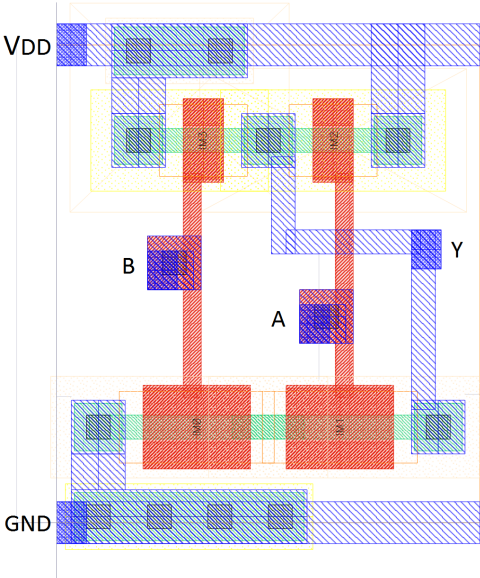


Figure 4.2: Layout of the NAND2 gate.

### 4.3 Layout of NOR2 Gate

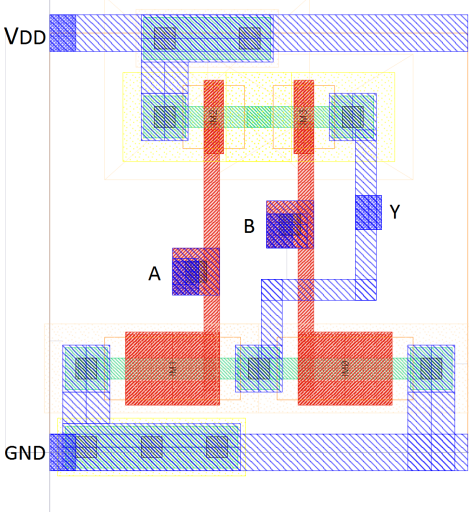


Figure 4.3: Layout of the NOR2 gate.

### 4.4 Layout of XNOR2 Gate

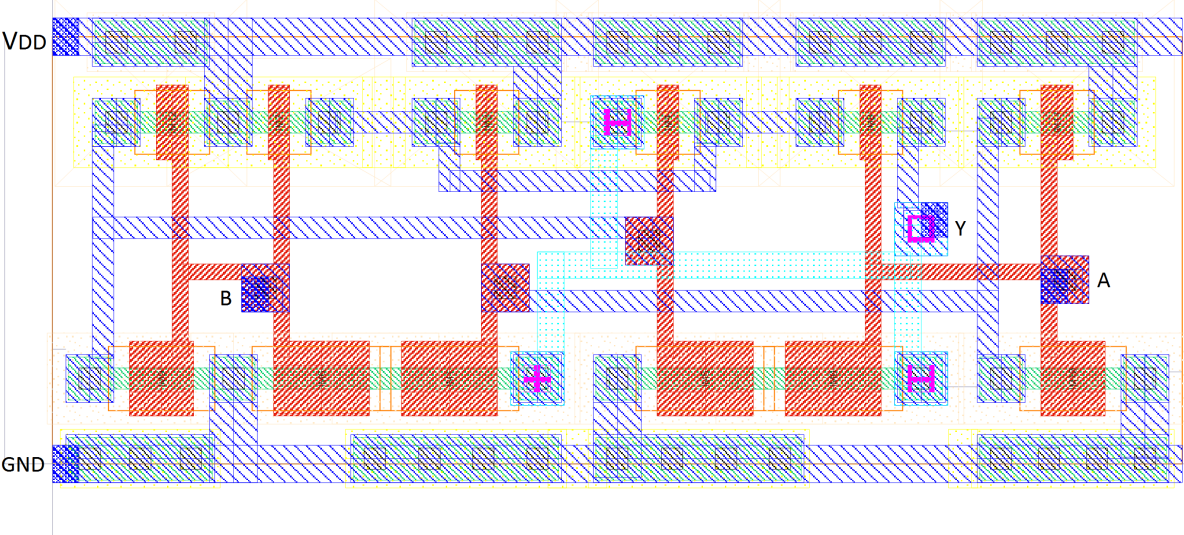


Figure 4.4: Layout of the XNOR2 gate.

### 4.5 Layout of XOR2 Gate

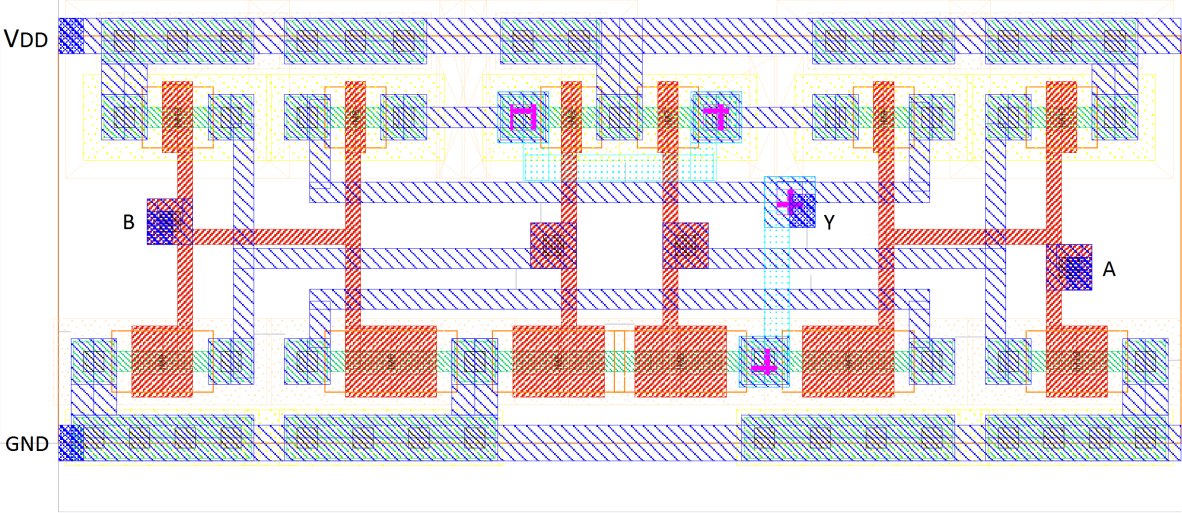


Figure 4.5: Layout of the XOR2 gate.

### 4.6 Layout of AOI22 Gate

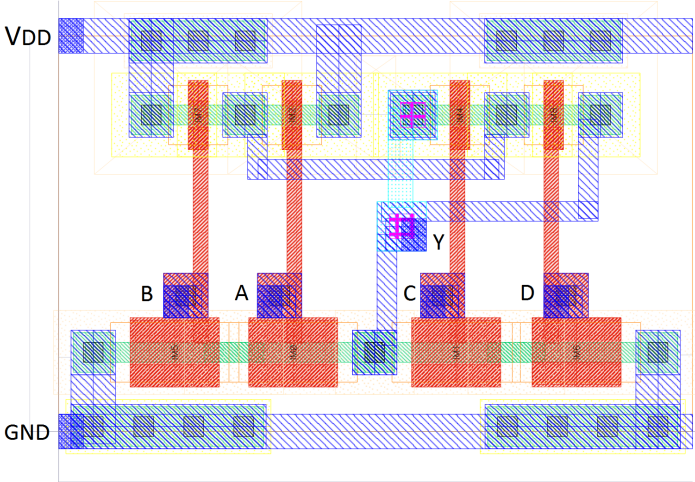


Figure 4.6: Layout of the AOI22 gate.

### 4.7 Layout of OAI22 Gate

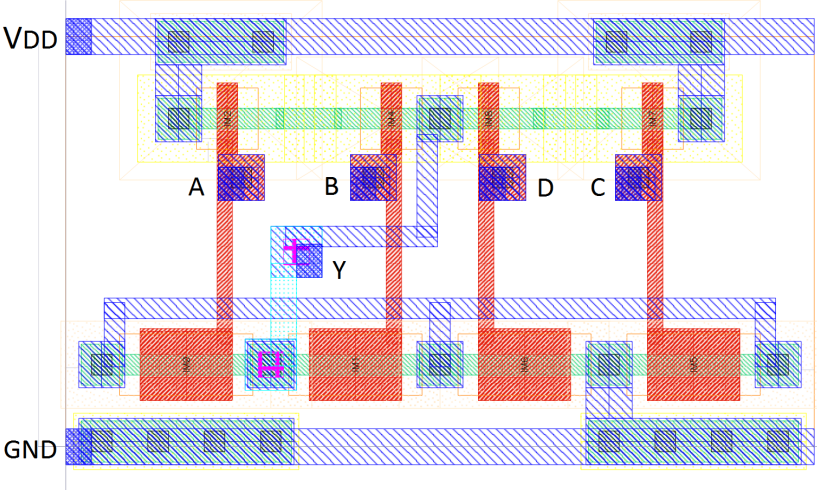


Figure 4.7: Layout of the OAI22 gate.

### 4.8 Layout of D Flip-flop Memory Element

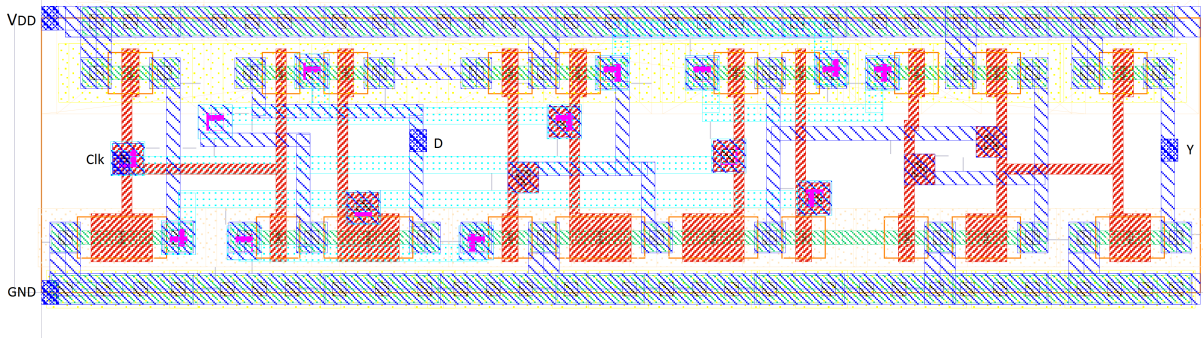


Figure 4.8: Layout of the D-FF memory element.



# Chapter 5

## Simulations and Test of Sub-Threshold Cells and ALU Application

This chapter presents the methods used to simulate, test and verify the correctness of the proposed sub-threshold cells and the ALU applications. This chapter will first present how test bench and simulation is done considering the sub-threshold cells designed including DC, transient and power simulations. Then finally the test bench and simulation of the test case ALU circuits is presented. All test benches related to logic cells, MOS transistors and ALU circuit are drawn in Cadence Schematic editor tool [20] and simulated by use of Cadence ADE-L and ADE-XL tools [29] and Spectre simulator.

### 5.1 Sub-Threshold Cell Design Simulations

#### 5.1.1 Transistor Strength and Threshold Voltage Simulation

Transistor strength is simulated in term of ON current  $I_{on}$ . The ON currents are simulated by biasing pMOS to zero volt and nMOS to  $V_{DD}$  as shown in figure 5.1, and setting supply voltage to 350mV. The currents are simulated on the drain and source terminal of nMOS and pMOS respectively with use of DC analysis in ADE-L. The DC analysis is set up to sweep either width or length of the transistors from minimum to 800nm to model the strength variation versus either dimension.

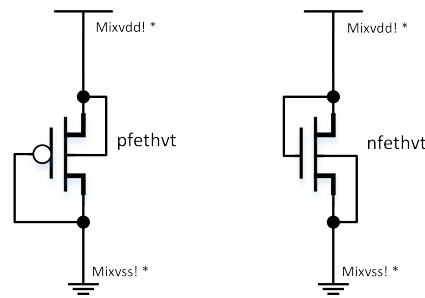


Figure 5.1: Test bench setup to simulate the ON transistor strength.

The same test bench and simulation setup is used to simulate the change in transistor threshold voltage versus dimensions. Threshold voltages are found in result browser as "vth" under the "dcOpInfo" and transistor folder. Intrinsic threshold voltages are found as "vtho" under model and transistor folder.

### 5.1.2 Cell Test bench Setup and Simulation

In order to design, simulate and analyze logic elements targeting minimum drive strength, the general test bench setup is by connecting logic elements in a five stage ring oscillator configuration [12]. A test bench for the inverter gate is depicted in figure 5.2 with the configuration mentioned. The test bench is designed to enable both DC and transient analysis by use of a basic simulator switch S0 that closes during DC analysis and opens during transient analysis. In order to make the ring oscillator converge and start oscillate in transient analysis a voltage controlled switch (W0) is connected to the input node of the first gate such that the node is initialized to  $V_{DD}$  in a period of 1ns at the start of simulation. The voltage controlled switch is closed while the voltage is grounded for 1ns, and opened for the rest of the simulation time by holding the voltage equal to  $V_{DD}$  by a signal period longer than the double of simulation time. The 1ns time is made by setting the delay parameter of the voltage pulse source to "-1ns".

#### DC Analysis Simulation

DC analysis simulations results in a VTC curve by simulating the first gate of the ring oscillator. The DC analysis is further described. Input denoted "A" in test benches are sweep from zero to  $V_{DD}$  voltage where each point is held stable for long enough time to produce stable DC behavior at the output Y. Hence, a VTC curve is produced from the whole voltage sweep range. All the expressions used to simulate interesting DC values in Cadence ADE-L and ADE-XL tools are listed in table 5.1. The parameters of the functions are set through a calculator GUI and the functions are further described in Help menu.



Table 5.1: DC analysis simulations and expressions where "/Y" is the VTC curve. VS(): nodal voltage (DC sweep), VAR(): variable.

Simulation	Expression
$V_M$	cross(VS("/Y") (VAR("vdd_var")/2) 1 "either" nil nil)
$V_M \%$	100 * ( $V_M$ / (VAR("vdd_var") / 2) ) - 1)
$V_{IL}$	cross(deriv(VS("/Y")) -1 1 "falling" nil nil)
$V_{IH}$	cross(deriv(VS("/Y")) -1 1 "rising" nil nil)
$V_{OH}$	value(VS("/Y") 0)
$V_{OL}$	value(VS("/Y") VAR("vdd_var"))
$NM_H$	$V_{OH} - V_{IH}$
$NM_L$	$V_{IL} - V_{OL}$
Gain	ymin(deriv(VS("/Y")))

### Transient Analysis Simulation

Transient analysis simulations are done by first making the ring oscillator oscillate for a sufficient number of periods to exclude startup errors. Hence, the transient analysis starts at time zero, but does not output simulation data before e.g.  $10\mu s$ . All transient results such as rise time, fall time, propagation delay etc. are found at the first occurrence after output start time. The transient analysis simulation could actually stop immediately after timing simulations are found. However, this is not supported by the simulator and therefore the simulation stop time has to be sufficiently long to capture all needed transient values. All the expressions used to simulate transient values in Cadence ADE-L and ADE-XL tools are listed in table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Transient analysis simulations and expressions where "/A" is the input and "/Y" is the output of the gate simulated. VT(): nodal voltage (transient analysis), VAR(): variable.

Simulation	Expression
$t_f$	fallTime(VT("/A") VAR("vdd_var") nil 0 nil 90 10 nil "time")
$t_r$	riseTime(VT("/A") 0 nil VAR("vdd_var") nil 10 90 nil "time")
$t_{pLH}$	delay(?wf1 VT("/A") ?value1 (0.5*VAR("vdd_var")) ?edge "falling" ?nth1 1 ?td1 0.0 ?wf2 VT("/Y") ?value2 (0.5*VAR("vdd_var")) ?edge2 "rising" ?nth2 1 ?td2 0.0 ?stop nil ?multiple nil)
$t_{pHL}$	delay(?wf1 VT("/A") ?value1 (0.5*VAR("vdd_var")) ?edge "rising" ?nth1 1 ?td1 0.0 ?wf2 VT("/Y") ?value2 (0.5*VAR("vdd_var")) ?edge2 "falling" ?nth2 1 ?td2 0.0 ?stop nil ?multiple nil)
Delay	$(t_{pLH} + t_{pHL}) / 2$

### Power Consumption Simulation

Power consumption is simulated in term of total and static power consumption by averaging  $U \cdot I$ . Dynamic power consumption is calculated by the relation of  $P_{total} = P_{dynamic} + P_{static}$ .

Logic gates have multiple states and these may consume different static power. These are simulated by applying distinct stable logic inputs signals. The total power consumption is through the dynamic component depended on the activity factor, frequency, capacitive load and supply voltage. Two power cases are thus simulated: the fullspeed power with use of a five stage ring oscillator, and 32KHz power consumption with a five stage chain. To simulate the distinct currents drawn from a selection of gates, the gate Vdd Net Expressions are overridden to distinctly made voltage sources and the currents are then simulated from each voltage sources [30]. All the expressions used to simulate power are listed in table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Power simulations and expressions. IT(): terminal current (transient analysis), VAR(): variable.

Simulation	Expression
$P_{tot}$ fullspeed	$(\text{VAR}(\text{"vdd\_var"}) * \text{average}(\text{abs}(\text{IT}(\text{"Vfullspeed/PLUS"})))) / 5$
$P_{tot}$ 32KHz	$(\text{VAR}(\text{"vdd\_var"}) * \text{average}(\text{abs}(\text{IT}(\text{"V32khz/PLUS"})))) / 5$
$P_{stat}$ 00	$\text{VAR}(\text{"vdd\_var"}) * \text{average}(\text{abs}(\text{IT}(\text{"Vstatic00/PLUS"})))$
$P_{stat}$ 01	$\text{VAR}(\text{"vdd\_var"}) * \text{average}(\text{abs}(\text{IT}(\text{"Vstatic01/PLUS"})))$
$P_{stat}$ 10	$\text{VAR}(\text{"vdd\_var"}) * \text{average}(\text{abs}(\text{IT}(\text{"Vstatic10/PLUS"})))$
$P_{stat}$ 11	$\text{VAR}(\text{"vdd\_var"}) * \text{average}(\text{abs}(\text{IT}(\text{"Vstatic11/PLUS"})))$

### Inverter Gate Simulation

The inverter gate has only one input and output. For this reason the inverter gate can only be connected in a ring oscillator in one configuration in a chain of inverters as shown in figure 5.2.

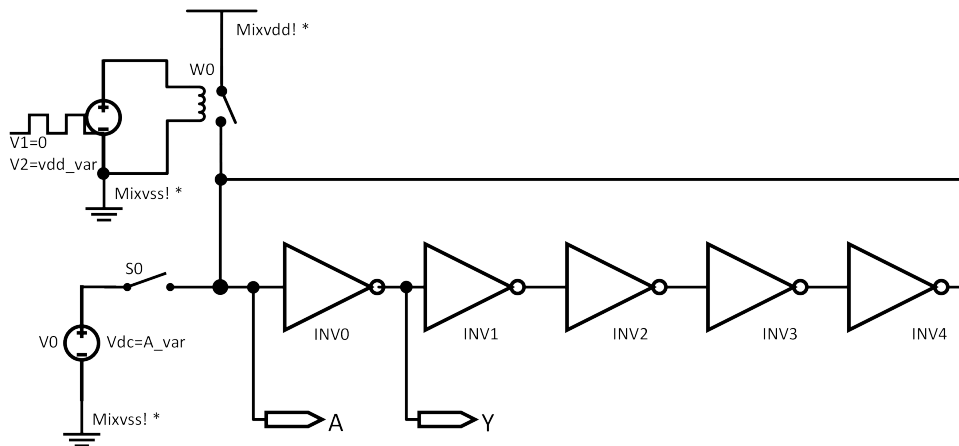


Figure 5.2: Test bench setup to simulate both VTC and switching analysis of Inverter gate.

## NAND2 Gate Simulation

The NAND2 and NOR2 gate has two different connection configuration methods in a ring oscillator. These are depicted in figure 5.3 and 5.4 for the NAND2 gate where one input is biased to  $V_{DD}$  in the former case and both inputs connected in the chain in the latter case. The difference for the NOR2 gate is that one input is biased to ground, while the second case is equal. This means that logic gates with more inputs than one has multiple VTC curves and transient analysis results. However, the focus is at the worst case of  $V_M$  and transient results.

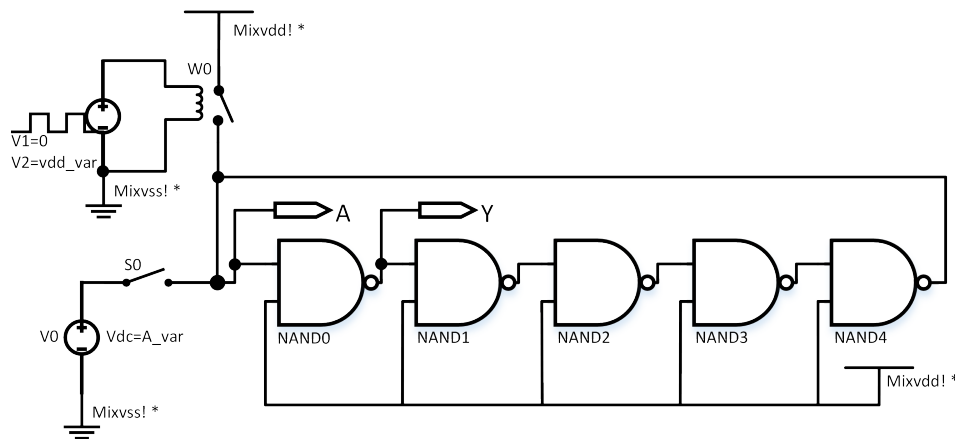


Figure 5.3: Test bench setup to simulate both VTC and switching analysis of NAND2 gate with one input sourced to  $V_{DD}$  and the other connected in chain.

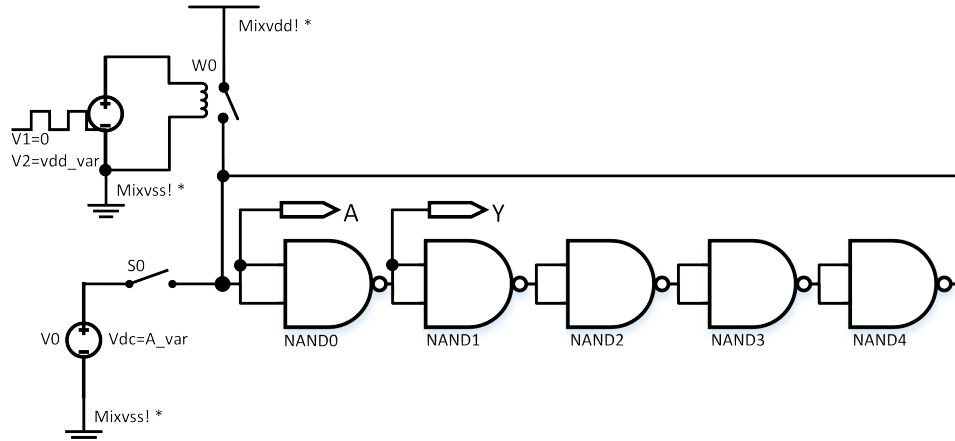


Figure 5.4: Test bench setup to simulate both VTC and switching analysis of NAND2 gate with both input connected in chain.

## The Other Cell Test Benches

The test benches for NOR2, XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22 and OAI22 are similar to NAND2, but with different biasing. The test benches are depicted and found in appendix C.

### 5.1.3 D Flip-Flop memory element Test bench Setup

#### The Setup and Hold time Simulation

The minimum setup time  $t_{su}$  is the minimum time an input data value should be stable prior a valid clock edge. In [31], a method to find the metastability window is presented. The method is to iteratively narrow the distance between a data input transition and a valid clock edge, and simulate the clock-to-output propagation delay  $t_{co}$ . This method can be used to find both setup  $t_{su}$  and hold time  $t_h$ . Figure 5.5 depicts the method in detail. The metastability window is defined by the maximum tolerable Clock-to-output delay  $t_{p_{cq\_max}}$  chosen by the designer. This point can be defined as the minimum allowable setup and hold time. The downside of this method is the lack of implementation in tools. Thus, comprehensive programming skills and design time is needed to implement automatic search for metastability window. In Cadence tools, it may be possible to use the method by use of bisection function in HSPICE or search in SpectreMDL.

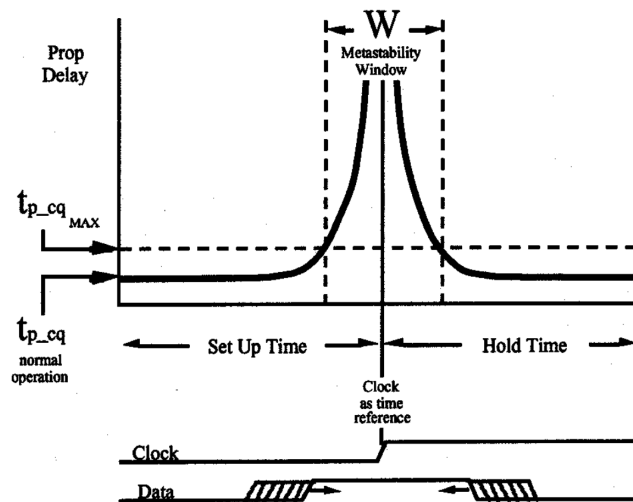


Figure 5.5: The method to determine setup and hold time presented in [31].

Due to design time constraints, another simpler method is used to simulate the setup time. The method is to simulate the propagation delay from the data input to the output of the master latch

$P0$ . The method is manually checked against the method described in the former paragraph by parametric sweep of data input delay where the transition of data input is approaching the clock edge, and the clock-to-output propagation delay  $t_{co}$ , master-latch propagation delay  $t_{D\_P0}$  and setup time  $t_{su}$  is simulated for each sweep step. These three simulations are presented in figure 5.6. The D-FF fails when data input delay is too long, or equally the setup time is too short. This is shown when  $t_{co}$  increases and suddenly flattens because no transition occurs on the output. However, at point 'a' in the figure, the simulated  $t_{D\_P0}$  and  $t_{su}$  intersects and represents the point at where the minimum setup time is defined by  $t_{D\_P0}$ . Both rising and falling master-latch delay setup time method is checked. The rising case resulted in a  $t_{co}$  increase of  $\sim 30\%$ , and the falling case resulted in a  $t_{co}$  increase of  $\sim 5\%$ . These results confirm that the method is reliable enough with acceptable tolerance.

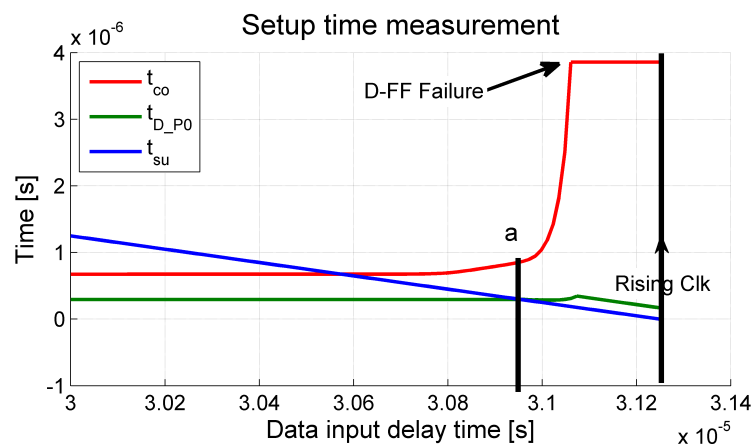


Figure 5.6: Check validity of master-latch propagation delay  $t_{D\_P0}$  as the setup time simulation method against iteratively narrowing data input transition towards clock edge.

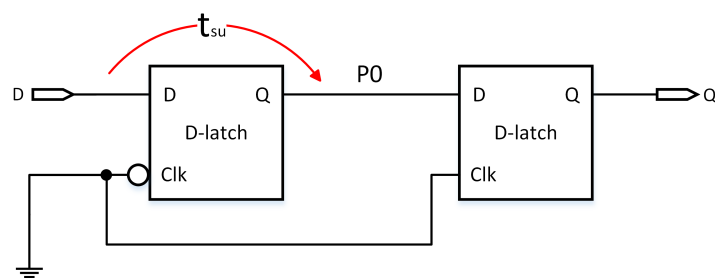


Figure 5.7: Simulation of propagation delay through master-latch setup.

The procedure to simulate the propagation delay through master-latch (setup time) is to apply zero volt to the clock input which enables and closes the master-latch TG, then apply a pulse

signal on the data input and simulate the propagation delay from data input to the output of master-latch  $P0$ .

The hold time  $t_h$  is unfortunately not achieved by simulation of propagation delay through any part of the D-FF, and due to lack of time to implement search algorithm the hold time is not simulated in this project.

### The Clock-to-output Propagation Delay Simulation

The clock-to-output propagation delay  $t_{co}$  is dependent on the length of setup time applied before a valid clock edge. This is shown in figure 5.5 and 5.6 where  $t_{p_{c,q}}$  or  $t_{co}$  respectively is increasing as setup time is shortened towards the clock edge. Hence, the data input should be applied at the point where minimum setup time is achieved which gives worst case clock-to-output propagation delay  $t_{co}$ . However, due to difficulties in applying present simulated minimum setup time, a nominal clock-to-output delay is rather simulated by applying data input at time  $T_{clk}/2 + \sim 3\mu s$  as shown in figure 5.8. The extra  $3\mu s$  time is to let the TG fully close before data input is applied.

The rise and fall time of Clk and data D input for all tests is set to the mean between the Monte Carlo simulated mean values of  $t_r$  and  $t_f$  for the designed inverter gate and distinctively for the different temperatures. For instance, the rise and fall time is set to  $(t_r + t_f)/2 = (476ns + 879ns)/2 \sim 677ns$  for the  $-40^\circ C$  simulation case. This is not perfect for all corners, but it is a much better estimate than ideal rise and fall times of 1ns.

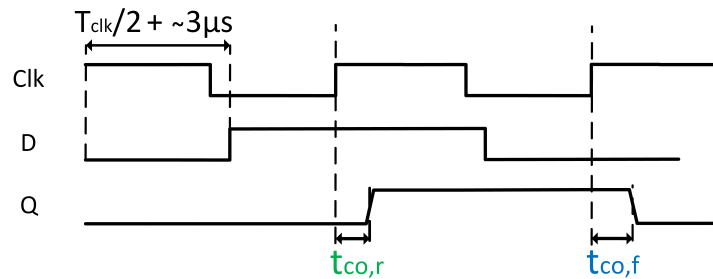


Figure 5.8: Timing diagram of clock-to-output  $t_{co}$  simulation.

### The D-FF Power Simulation

There are two cases of total power consumption simulated. The first case is power consumption with a clock frequency of 32KHz and data toggling with a rate of  $2 \cdot 32KHz$  which makes the output toggle between zero and one logically. The power consumption is simulated by averaging  $U \cdot I$  over four clock periods. The same applies for the simulation of static power consumption,

but with static input signals on data and clock input. To simulate the current drawn from the distinct D-FF instances in the test bench the Net Expression are overridden to a distinctly made voltage source and the currents are then simulated from each voltage sources [30].

## 5.2 ALU Module Simulation

### 5.2.1 Test bench Setup

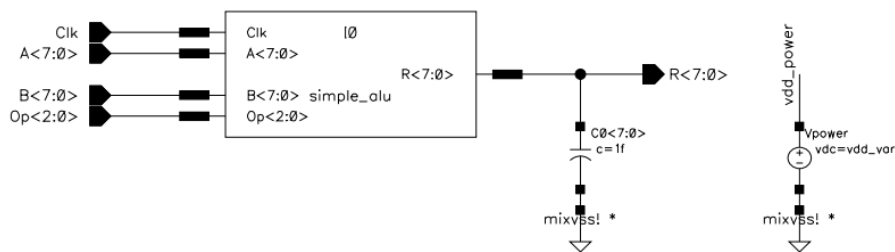


Figure 5.9: ALU test bench in Cadence Virtuoso schematic editor.

### 5.2.2 Simulation Setup

The clock input frequency is set to 32KHz. The rise and fall time of Clk signal is set to 1ns for all simulations (power, delay etc.) since these are difficult to scale for the range of temperatures and supply voltages. Hence, it seems to be better to set the rise and fall times to 1ns, which is much lower than realistic times for an inverter gate output. This gave insignificant difference in critical path delay and power consumption simulation compared to higher rise and fall times closer to realistic values, however it gave more realistic simulation results for higher supply voltage towards 1.2V.

The A<7:0> and B<7:0> inputs are statically set to "1000 0000" and "0111 1111" respectively so that it is high activity on the output R. The Op<2:0> input is changed in the middle between valid rising edges of the clock every clock period. The Op input is changed in ascending order from "000" up to "111" to cycle through the available operations (addition, subtraction, NOT, NAND, etc.). Stimulus files are shown in appendix B.1 and B.2, where the former is a stimulus file to simulate dynamic power consumption and the latter is to simulate static power consumption.

### 5.2.3 Power Consumption

The power consumption is simulated by averaging  $U \cdot I$ . The best method to simulate total power consumption is to have long simulation time to increase accuracy and to apply various input signals to obtain average over different activities. However, the used method is simplified to only use static values on input A and B and sequentially change Op input in ascending order as described in section 5.2.2. The simulation time is set to  $[0 : 5.0 \cdot T_{Clk}]$ , and simulation output start time  $1.0 \cdot T_{Clk}$  such that every logic block is at a stable state before simulations are done. The power simulation is done with averaging power over four clock periods  $T_{Clk}$ . Additionally the simulator accuracy is set to conservative such that better accuracy is gained. The power consumptions (total and static) is simulated in TT corner and  $25^\circ C$  for the range of supply voltage of [350m, 1.2V] with 50mV spacing resulting in 17 parametric sweeps.

The static power consumption is computationally easier for the simulation tool due to static input values, and is simulated for a sufficiently longer time. However, there is no point in simulating for a way to long time since the static power consumption is fairly stable.

The dynamic power consumption is implicitly simulated by calculating it from the relation  $P_{total} = P_{dynamic} + P_{static}$ .

### 5.2.4 Propagation Delay Through Critical Path

The critical delay through the circuits was simulated by simulating critical path in the design in Cadence ADE-XL simulator [29]. The critical path is only informal reported by the synthesis tool (timing\_report.rep) and thus had to be manually made in a custom netlist file prior import to Cadence Schematic Editor. The timing report also states a number of fan-out on each node in the critical path. Hence, the same numbers of dummy inverters are included to each node to model the fan-out capacitance. The propagation delay is simulated within a temperature of  $-40^\circ C$  and in every corner for the range of supply voltage of [350m, 1.2V] with 25mV spacing resulting in 35 parametric sweeps.



# Chapter 6

## Results

This section presents the results of the sub-threshold cells and simulation results of ALU test case circuits. The former results are gained from Monte Carlo simulation (220 runs, seed=47) and the latter results are gained from corner simulations. Intermediate results regarding the logic gates are found in appendix D.

### 6.1 Sub-Threshold Cell Library Results

Table 6.1: Chosen gate design dimensions

Logic gate	pMOS [nm]		nMOS [nm]		Cell area [ $\mu m^2$ ]	N. Transistors
	W	L	W	L		
Inverter	160	240	160	480	5.248	2
NAND2	160	270	160	720	9.088	4
NOR2	160	150	160	720	10.24	4
XNOR2					27.136	12
<i>XNOR2 structure</i>	160	160	160	720		8
<i>XNOR2: 2x Inverter</i>	160	240	160	480		2x 2
XOR2					28.288	12
<i>XOR2 structure</i>	160	160	160	720		8
<i>XOR2: 2x Inverter</i>	160	240	160	480		2x 2
AOI22	160	160	160	720	18.688	8
OAI22	160	160	160	720	16.432	8
D-FF					43.328	20
<i>D-FF: 2x Inverter</i>	160	240	160	480		2x 2
<i>D-FF: 2x Inverter</i>	160	200	160	720		2x 2
<i>D-FF: 2x TG</i>	160	120	160	720		2x 2
<i>D-FF: 2x Clk-Inverter</i>	160	190	160	190		2x 4

### 6.1.1 Inverter Gate

Table 6.2: Monte Carlo DC results for the inverter gate with process and mismatch and extracted parasitics.

DC Test	Temp	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma
	[°C]	$V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$				$V_{DD} = 1.2\text{V}$			
Midpoint [%]	-40	-10.1	30.33	10.93	7.16	-9.48	4.23	-2.08	2.33
	25	-10.45	29.94	9.948	7.219	-9.93	3.12	-2.77	2.42
	85	-12.43	29.75	9.042	7.293	-10.03	2.79	-3.24	2.45
NMH [mV]	-40	100.4	172.7	135.3	12.60	528	600.6	563.9	13.4
	25	103.5	175.4	138.2	12.61	516.6	600	558.3	14.0
	85	102.4	175.4	138	12.71	507.9	591.1	551.3	14.4
NML [mV]	-40	141.9	215.6	179.5	12.89	517.9	596.6	557.2	13.5
	25	141.8	214	179.2	12.62	502.9	580.3	541.3	13.9
	85	138.6	210.9	175.6	12.68	484.1	567.5	526.9	14.7
Gain	-40	-36.47	-7.31	-25.92	5.36	-45.35	-23.3	-38.7	5.66
	25	-37.04	-21.18	-32.92	4.31	-42.67	-21.81	-35.11	5.461
	85	-34.8	-20.13	-30.76	4.26	-39.59	-21.26	-32.43	4.829

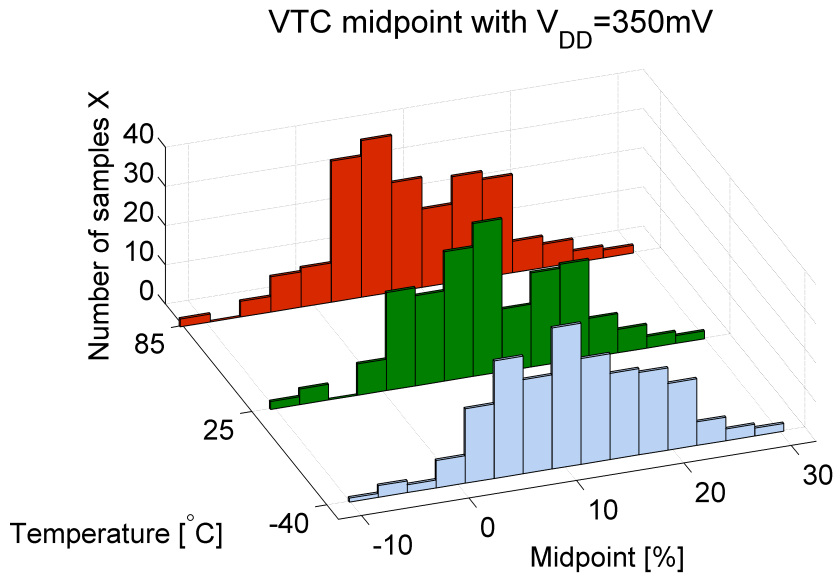


Figure 6.1: Monte Carlo Inverter layout,  $V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$ : Midpoint percentage with process and mismatch.

Table 6.3: Monte Carlo AC results for the inverter gate with process and mismatch and extracted parasitics.

AC Test	Temp	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma	V <sub>DD</sub> = 350mV		V <sub>DD</sub> = 1.2V	
						Min	Max	Mean	Sigma
	[°C]								
<i>t<sub>r</sub></i> [ns],[ps]	-40	138.4	1844	476.1	271.9	144.3	194.4	167.9	8.79
	25	22.71	166.6	58.1	23.74	184.1	245.9	210.9	10.63
	85	7.816	41.73	17.55	5.667	218.3	291.9	250.4	12.32
<i>t<sub>f</sub></i> [ns],[ps]	-40	119	3805	878.6	640.1	115.9	150.7	130.6	6.18
	25	19.83	243.3	82.63	42.19	151.9	196.5	170.3	8.07
	85	7.457	51.67	21.88	8.563	186.7	239.9	209.9	9.68
<i>t<sub>PHL</sub></i> [ns],[ps]	-40	225.2	2939	812.3	459.2	106.3	144	125.1	6.79
	25	30.92	201.9	82.54	32.44	127.4	171.3	149.7	8.09
	85	10.11	47.06	22.42	6.843	145.4	194.2	170.4	9.15
<i>t<sub>PLH</sub></i> [ns],[ps]	-40	187.9	3580	778.4	438.7	119.7	161.5	137.3	8.18
	25	29.58	266.6	78.73	30.94	144.9	193.6	166.3	9.81
	85	10.08	59.08	21.17	6.534	166.8	220.3	191	11.11
Delay [ns],[ps]	-40	266.6	2975	795.3	366.2	117.3	149.7	131.2	5.83
	25	37.56	230.7	80.64	26.0	141.5	179	158	6.90
	85	12.12	52.31	21.8	5.484	161.9	203.5	180.7	7.74
Pstatic Vdd [fW]	-40	368	375.7	369.4	1.117	4681	8041	5530	476.9
	25	420.5	1211	589	125.8	5384	11210	7061	985.3
	85	1893	15120	5133	2204	11740	64970	24890	8679
Pstatic gnd [fW]	-40	367.9	369.1	368.2	0.162	4344	4586	4401	33.32
	25	373.8	519.2	413.5	28	4406	5304	4624	135.6
	85	699.6	4228	1799	685.1	5741	20310	10270	2825
Pavg max freq [pW],[uW]	-40	13.51	91.73	38.5	14.61	2.707	3.289	2.983	0.117
	25	167.3	682.7	358.9	99.43	2.315	2.8	2.544	0.098
	85	712.7	2230	1329	294.6	2.082	2.512	2.285	0.086
Pavg 32KHz [pW]	-40	9.15	17.27	13.61	1.57				
	25	10.44	21.99	12.55	1.785				
	85	11.31	32.97	16.69	3.504				

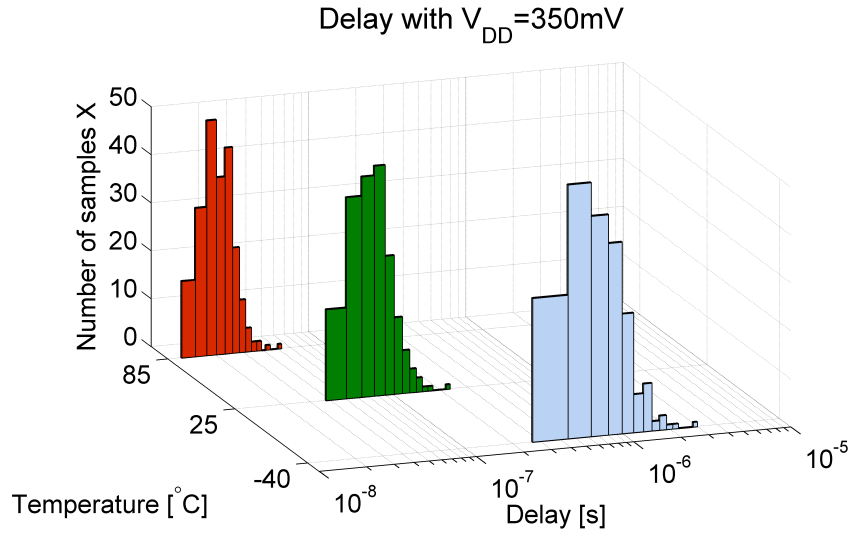


Figure 6.2: Monte Carlo Inverter layout,  $V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$ : Delay with process and mismatch.

## 6.1.2 NAND2 Gate

Table 6.4: Monte Carlo DC results for the NAND2 gate with process and mismatch and extracted parasitics.

DC Test	Temp	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma
	[°C]	$V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$				$V_{DD} = 1.2\text{V}$			
Midpoint [%]	-40	5.79	34.07	19.16	5.27	2.046	10.16	6.406	1.865
	25	6.02	34.14	20.09	5.30	5.995	14.16	9.866	1.988
	85	7.66	37.71	22.13	5.40	9.397	18.1	13	1.939
NMH [mV]	-40	93.65	147.1	121.6	9.211	479.5	532	507.1	11.06
	25	94.58	144.7	120.5	9.264	440.4	498.9	471.7	11.68
	85	88.33	139.2	114.4	9.329	408.7	467	438.8	12.31
NML [mV]	-40	172.2	220.1	195.1	9.275	586.2	645.9	614	10.43
	25	173.3	223.5	197.3	9.269	601.2	655.8	628.3	10.53
	85	174.7	224.9	199	9.304	611.7	672.1	641	11
Gain	-40	-39.03	-19.56	-28.7	4.735	-44.75	-23.97	-41.08	4.418
	25	-38.11	-21.55	-34.31	4.273	-41.32	-22.58	-37.62	4.259
	85	-35.33	-20.14	-31.9	3.885	-38.38	-21.57	-34.05	4.307

Table 6.5: Monte Carlo AC results for the NAND2 gate with process and mismatch and extracted parasitics.

AC Test	Temp	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma
	[°C]	$V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$				$V_{DD} = 1.2\text{V}$			
$t_r$ [ns],[ps]	-40	170.3	1495	531.1	201.9	223	268.5	244.5	7.737
	25	32.22	159.3	73.12	19.92	292.8	353.3	323.1	9.884
	85	13.08	45.13	24.55	5.21	363.6	435.6	400.6	11.81
$t_f$ [ns],[ps]	-40	417	4559	1584	782.3	536.1	665.4	603.8	24.84
	25	71.47	414.4	187.7	67	732.3	899.8	819.7	31.57
	85	27.58	110.3	58.2	16.1	926.6	1131	1032	37.5
$t_{PHL}$ [ns],[ps]	-40	408.9	4370	1350	561.6	364.2	483.2	424	18.5
	25	66.19	372.3	160	47.24	464.9	612.1	538.9	23.06
	85	24.71	94.77	49.5	11.29	557.6	729.3	643.9	26.93
$t_{PLH}$ [ns],[ps]	-40	395.6	2401	1071	409.3	244.7	308.7	277.1	12.61
	25	61.93	215.6	123.2	33.38	296.5	378.9	337.3	15.87
	85	20.79	55.6	35.5	7.46	336	435.1	383.5	18.82
Delay [ns],[ps]	-40	449.6	3079	1211	425.9	314.7	382.6	350.5	12.24
	25	69.48	271	141.6	35.37	394.5	476.9	438.1	15.08
	85	24.46	68.78	42.46	8.15	463.8	557	513.7	17.41
Pstatic 00 [fW]	-40	306.5	307.7	306.8	0.229	3658	3983	3766	62.28
	25	312.8	392.3	332.8	14.26	3721	4480	3927	113.2
	85	665.1	2008	1129	272.2	4897	10680	6828	1058
Pstatic 10 [fW]	-40	368.2	370.4	368.9	0.444	5011	8312	6162	636.9
	25	379.9	566.4	423.7	31.04	5515	10860	7399	1028
	85	866	4849	1950	686.6	8979	26890	14170	3248
Pstatic 01 [fW]	-40	312.7	327.6	317.6	2.716	3994	4208	4074	40.41
	25	348.9	515.4	393.1	27.02	4187	4985	4415	131
	85	782.8	4485	1869	613.9	5835	20050	10030	2354
Pstatic 11 [fW]	-40	491.1	502.5	494.1	1.904	7082	13370	9281	1213
	25	596.2	1718	909.2	190.1	8403	20260	12830	2194
	85	3398	21610	9288	3245	21050	96920	45730	13000
Pavg max freq [pW],[uW]	-40	15.89	87.53	41.42	13.69	2.005	2.421	2.204	0.078
	25	170.7	596	339.9	81.53	1.666	1.994	1.824	0.065
	85	680	1817	1162	218.3	1.463	1.754	1.609	0.054
Pavg 32KHz [pW]	-40	16.22	33.01	23.98	3.326				
	25	16.98	35.44	22.01	2.435				
	85	18.82	51.06	29.84	6.443				

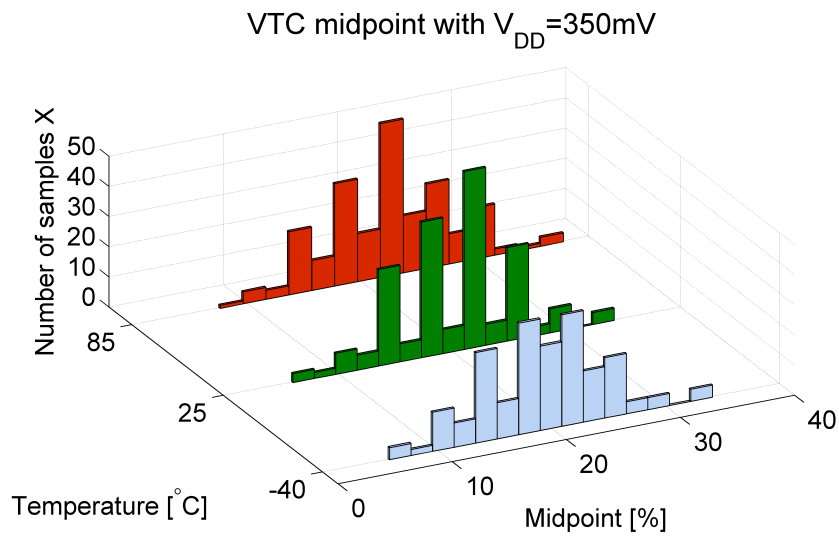


Figure 6.3: Monte Carlo NAND2 layout,  $V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$ : Midpoint percentage with process and mismatch.

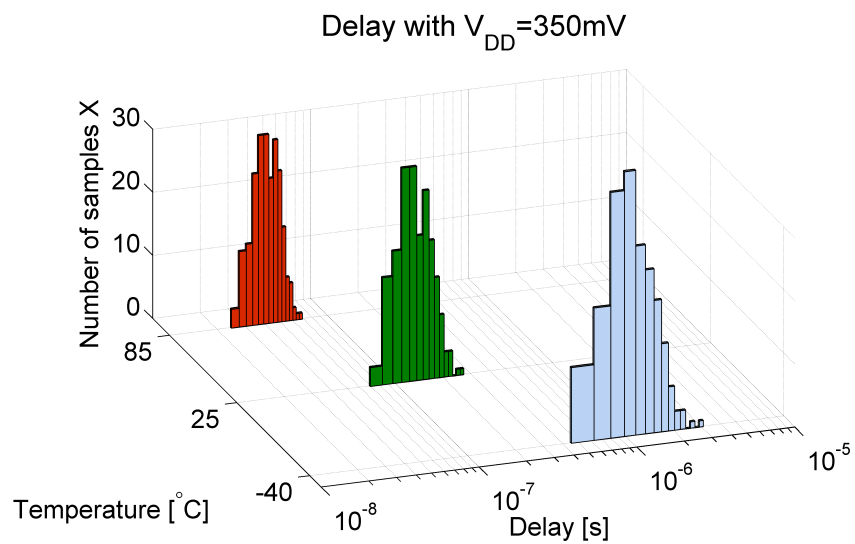


Figure 6.4: Monte Carlo NAND2 layout,  $V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$ : Delay with process and mismatch.

### 6.1.3 NOR2 Gate

Table 6.6: Monte Carlo DC results for the NOR2 gate with process and mismatch and extracted parasitics.

DC Test	Temp	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma	$V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$		$V_{DD} = 1.2\text{V}$	
						Min	Max	Mean	Sigma
Midpoint [%]	-40	-18.58	26.03	7.524	8.036	-12.41	-2.151	-7.426	1.961
	25	-16.64	29.27	9.78	8.005	-14	-5.009	-9.074	1.859
	85	-14.33	29.9	11.15	7.923	-14.26	-5.984	-10.26	1.887
NMH [mV]	-40	111.6	188.6	142.5	13.74	573.1	624.4	596.9	10.27
	25	106.6	184.5	139.3	13.83	571.4	626.5	599	10.94
	85	102	180.7	135	14	567.5	626.9	599.4	11.5
NML [mV]	-40	126.6	208.6	172.9	14.83	498.1	553.4	523.8	10.37
	25	133.3	211	178.5	13.85	475.3	532.2	501.5	10.66
	85	133.5	211.4	178.8	13.93	455.4	512.8	481.2	11
Gain	-40	-39.24	-13.71	-27.81	5.609	-44.63	-23.29	-38.89	6.001
	25	-37.91	-21.35	-33.95	4.314	-41.65	-22.07	-36.61	4.751
	85	-35.26	-20.27	-31.52	3.968	-38.83	-21.11	-33.66	4.606

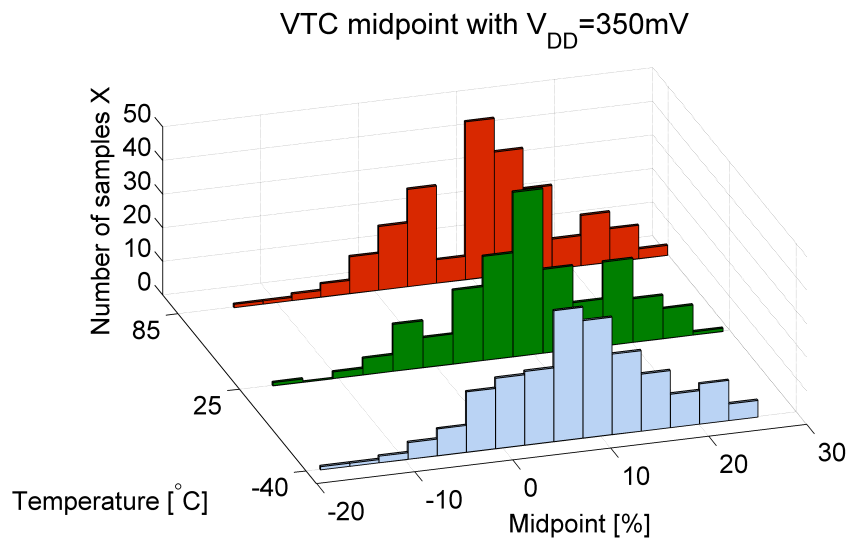


Figure 6.5: Monte Carlo NOR2 layout,  $V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$ : Midpoint percentage with process and mismatch.

Table 6.7: Monte Carlo AC results for the NOR2 gate with process and mismatch and extracted parasitics.

AC Test	Temp	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma	V <sub>DD</sub> = 350mV		V <sub>DD</sub> = 1.2V	
						Min	Max	Mean	Sigma
	[°C]								
<i>t<sub>r</sub></i> [ns],[ps]	-40	186.9	4059	1068	668.9	317.1	460.5	391.7	27.57
	25	33.77	320.8	114.5	51.98	393.6	557.9	478.5	32.49
	85	12.99	75.69	32.87	11.69	463.7	647.2	558.9	36.53
<i>t<sub>f</sub></i> [ns],[ps]	-40	157.6	1575	495.2	202.3	187.4	225.4	203.4	6.781
	25	27.16	142.8	60.18	17.44	246.3	296	267.5	8.815
	85	10.14	36.49	18.74	4.168	303.8	365.8	331.2	10.71
<i>t<sub>PHL</sub></i> [ns],[ps]	-40	281.2	2653	913.3	443.7	187.8	241.5	211.2	9.635
	25	42.34	212.6	98.07	33.44	219.3	281.1	246	10.92
	85	14.6	50.2	27.73	7.183	244.7	311.9	273.5	11.91
<i>t<sub>PLH</sub></i> [ns],[ps]	-40	242.5	4638	1029	576.2	230.8	318.9	270.5	15.64
	25	39.49	312.9	108.7	41.98	282.7	389.3	329	18.67
	85	14.07	68.33	30.52	9.149	329.4	451.8	381.3	21.14
Delay [ns],[ps]	-40	284.7	2986	970.9	424.7	212	271.7	240.9	10.47
	25	42.5	232.8	103.4	31.79	254.6	323.5	287.5	12.18
	85	14.57	54.73	29.13	6.934	291.5	368.3	327.4	13.5
Pstatic 00 [fW]	-40	490.3	492.4	490.8	0.315	5801	6011	5871	39.76
	25	523.3	785	598.7	45.2	6000	7166	6338	205.6
	85	1683	7189	3520	1009	10460	31810	17570	3914
Pstatic 10 [fW]	-40	367.8	380.4	370.2	2.17	4998	8254	6138	626.3
	25	439.4	1814	742.6	260.9	5936	15410	8870	1640
	85	2554	26540	8517	4642	16720	124800	43700	20600
Pstatic 01 [fW]	-40	311.8	340.9	323.2	5.104	4590	7779	5715	613
	25	380.9	2554	703.1	281.8	5487	15820	8388	1653
	85	1647	35900	8251	4970	13010	156600	41130	21330
Pstatic 11 [fW]	-40	306.4	314.5	308.3	1.335	4918	11200	7114	1211
	25	328.3	793.9	457.8	85.64	6052	15970	9665	1958
	85	1224	10120	3901	1575	10380	49230	24630	7058
Pavg max freq [pW],[uW]	-40	18.98	108.4	50.65	17.27	2.695	3.319	2.993	0.11
	25	225.9	812.1	452.1	112	2.339	2.856	2.587	0.093
	85	955.2	2626	1627	318.4	2.123	2.573	2.341	0.082
Pavg 32KHz [pW]	-40	13.9	22.83	16.09	1.585				
	25	14.59	27.23	19.39	3.076				
	85	17.41	70.58	27.54	8.006				



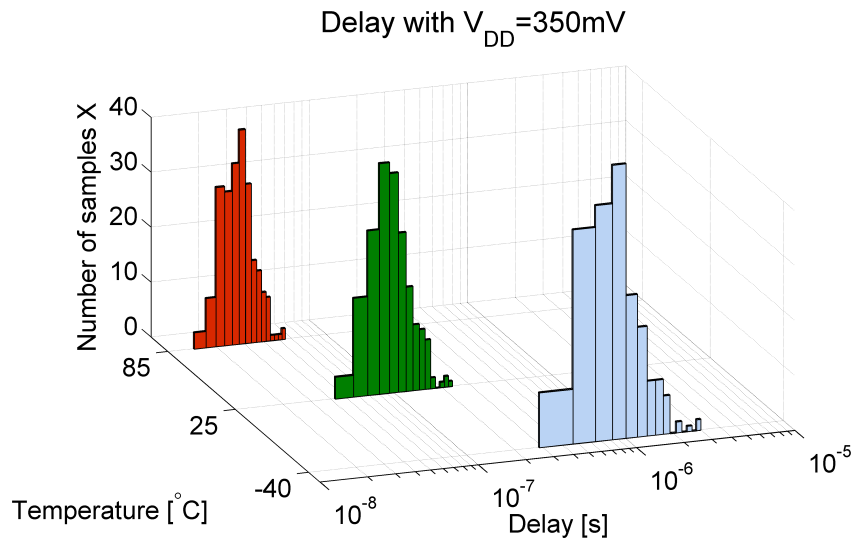


Figure 6.6: Monte Carlo NOR2 layout,  $V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$ : Delay with process and mismatch.

### 6.1.4 XNOR2 Gate

Table 6.8: Monte Carlo DC results for the XNOR2 gate with process and mismatch and extracted parasitics.

DC Test	Temp	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma
	[°C]	$V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$				$V_{DD} = 1.2\text{V}$			
Midpoint [%]	-40	-14.61	29.38	7.974	7.789	-6.097	9.544	0.958	2.642
	25	-14.01	30.03	8.919	7.912	-5.255	10.76	3.218	2.804
	85	-13.39	32.83	10.39	7.92	-2.069	14.12	5.568	2.77
NMH [mV]	-40	106.1	172.5	139.3	12.79	484.3	586	538.5	16.69
	25	102.3	179.6	139.9	13.67	452.6	562.6	511	18.06
	85	97.08	176	135.4	13.96	420	622.6	485.4	24.13
NML [mV]	-40	127.5	212.5	172.8	14.71	530.6	621.8	575.2	15.71
	25	136.7	213.9	176.7	13.62	532.7	627.4	581.1	18.19
	85	136.8	215.1	177.1	13.79	534.5	635.6	589.6	19.76
Gain	-40	-35.74	-8.227	-23.31	5.804	-44.12	-22.55	-36.35	6.184
	25	-36.42	-21.16	-32.03	4.259	-39.63	-21.17	-34.1	5.121
	85	-33.94	-19.78	-29.44	4.158	-37.49	-19.35	-30.72	4.739

Table 6.9: Monte Carlo AC results for the XNOR2 gate with process and mismatch and extracted parasitics.

AC Test	Temp	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma
	[°C]	$V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$				$V_{DD} = 1.2\text{V}$			
$t_r$ [ns],[ps]	-40	486.5	19940	1856	1741	506.4	678.3	580.8	33.78
	25	81.56	1130	200.8	109.5	636.3	841.1	725.5	39.61
	85	30.72	220.8	59.83	22.19	763.3	993.1	860.9	44.55
$t_f$ [ns],[ps]	-40	587.3	8380	2307	1179	701.5	850	774.4	30.06
	25	100.2	712.7	268.5	98.81	937.9	1128	1033	38.07
	85	39.01	180.7	82.39	23.56	1169	1398	1285	45.39
$t_{PHL}$ [ns],[ps]	-40	775.2	9498	2314	1207	449.8	580.4	514.9	23.89
	25	115.5	595	244.9	84.83	554.3	706.7	630.6	28.36
	85	39.19	140.7	69.71	18.03	647.3	817.8	733.2	32.04
$t_{PLH}$ [ns],[ps]	-40	669.7	6073	2109	942.7	324	485	416.8	27.27
	25	96.33	506.5	223.2	72.54	383.5	579.8	498.4	33.43
	85	31.55	121	61.5	16.09	429.5	655.1	562.6	38.8
Delay [ns],[ps]	-40	848.1	6395	2211	900.7	407.6	514.3	465.9	20.1
	25	118.6	527.6	234.1	67.02	494.8	622	564.5	23.85
	85	39.18	125.9	65.6	14.56	569	712.4	647.9	26.79
Pstatic 00 [fW]	-40	663.4	688.2	673.7	4.024	9035	12430	10210	708.2
	25	760.7	1171	891	79.71	10010	16000	12150	1258
	85	3391	12880	6510	1849	22170	64090	35220	8085
Pstatic 10 [fW]	-40	613	661.8	634.7	8.542	9762	17810	12620	1662
	25	940.5	3360	1603	422.4	12690	32660	19310	3594
	85	8571	50760	21470	7491	45890	222100	102000	31970
Pstatic 01 [fW]	-40	723.5	768.9	729.8	4.753	10630	18790	13480	1696
	25	931.3	5169	1658	485.4	13070	41970	20130	4021
	85	7049	74650	21310	8290	40810	338900	103700	36410
Pstatic 11 [fW]	-40	665.4	687.5	673.7	4.102	9964	17020	12450	1472
	25	859	2188	1241	219.7	11690	25960	16970	2676
	85	5662	28850	13190	3854	31980	127600	64450	15920
Pavg max freq [pW],[uW]	-40	16.49	95.07	44.22	14.48	2.27	2.766	2.514	0.096
	25	202	698.7	395.5	95.54	1.936	2.362	2.148	0.082
	85	832.7	2225	1418	271	1.753	2.143	1.947	0.074
Pavg 32KHz [pW]	-40	17.89	43.31	34.21	3.204				
	25	37.16	57.05	42.25	2.851				
	85	40.06	60.56	47.6	3.466				

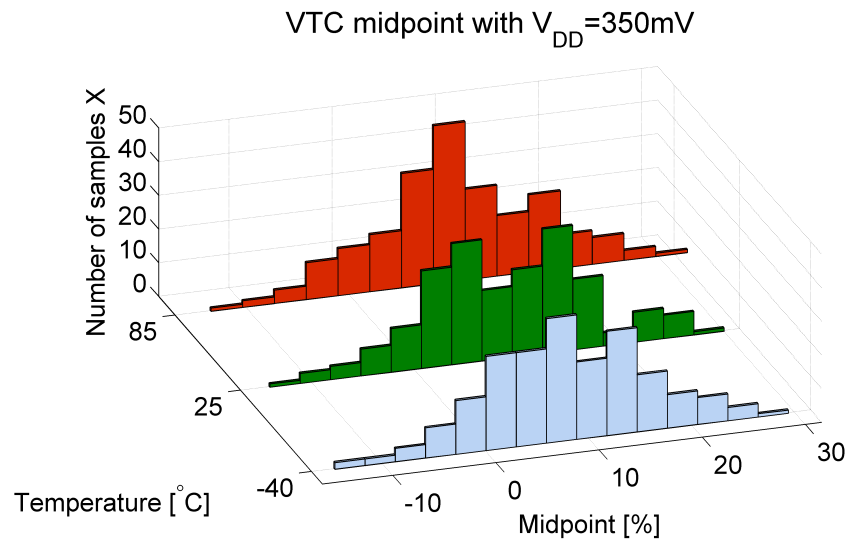


Figure 6.7: Monte Carlo XNOR2 layout,  $V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$ : Midpoint percentage with process and mismatch.

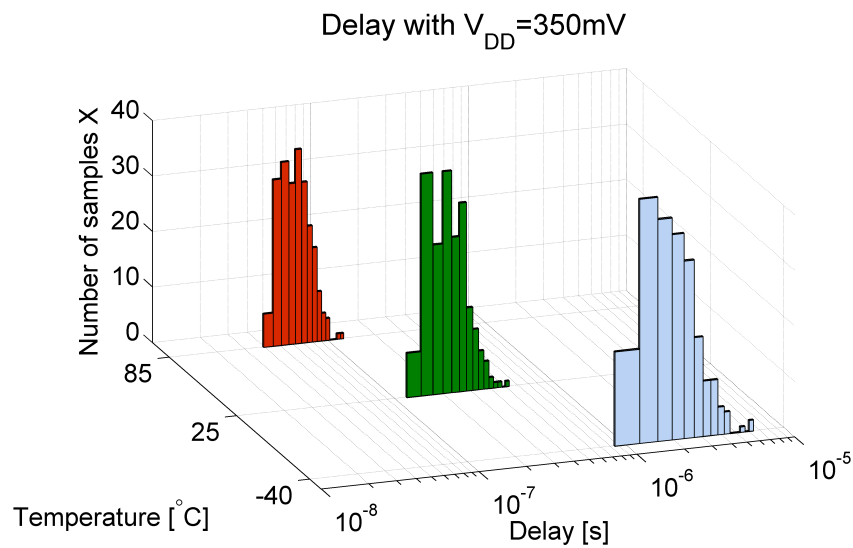


Figure 6.8: Monte Carlo XNOR2 layout,  $V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$ : Delay with process and mismatch.

### 6.1.5 XOR2 Gate

Table 6.10: Monte Carlo DC results for the XOR2 gate with process and mismatch and extracted parasitics.

DC Test	Temp	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma	$V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$		$V_{DD} = 1.2\text{V}$	
						Min	Max	Mean	Sigma
Midpoint [%]	-40	-13.96	29.77	7.756	7.522	-6.064	9.18	0.908	2.511
	25	-13.84	30.43	8.713	7.611	-5.706	10.38	3.15	2.749
	85	-12.99	33.64	10.21	7.702	-2.142	14.06	5.429	2.725
NMH [mV]	-40	104.3	174.2	139.6	12.59	489.5	585.7	539.2	16.1
	25	100.7	178.6	140.2	13.23	457.7	561.3	511.7	17.25
	85	95.3	175.7	135.7	13.5	424.6	604.5	485.3	21.21
NML [mV]	-40	131.2	212.8	172.4	13.95	531.3	624.1	574.8	15.3
	25	138.1	215.7	176.4	13.21	532.6	630.4	581.3	18.03
	85	137.6	217	176.8	13.38	533.8	638.9	589.7	19.83
Gain	-40	-36.59	-8.642	-22.99	5.354	-43.83	-22.77	-36.75	5.903
	25	-36.35	-21.05	-31.73	4.619	-40.01	-21.26	-33.96	5.11
	85	-34.07	-19.88	-29.7	3.861	-37.35	-20.14	-30.87	4.794

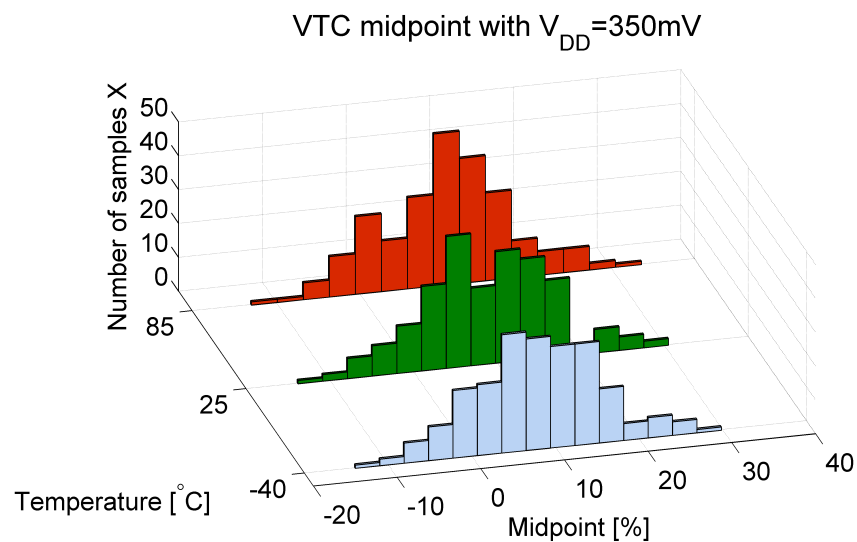


Figure 6.9: Monte Carlo XOR2 layout,  $V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$ : Midpoint percentage with process and mismatch.

Table 6.11: Monte Carlo AC results for the XOR2 gate with process and mismatch and extracted parasitics.

AC Test	Temp	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma	V <sub>DD</sub> = 350mV		V <sub>DD</sub> = 1.2V	
						Min	Max	Mean	Sigma
	[°C]								
t <sub>r</sub> [ns],[ps]	-40	389.9	15740	1871	1603	523.8	667	584.6	30.46
	25	69.05	914.4	202.2	101.9	657.2	823.5	728.2	36.3
	85	26.54	184.5	60	20.84	779.9	972.1	861.9	41.31
t <sub>f</sub> [ns],[ps]	-40	569.9	6621	2183	1043	688.9	841.4	762.1	28.56
	25	96.05	583.8	255.8	89.22	924.8	1119	1015	36.28
	85	37.72	150.9	78.76	21.55	1155	1391	1264	43.56
t <sub>PHL</sub> [ns],[ps]	-40	679.4	11580	2209	1192	444.1	579	498.8	24.23
	25	102.5	730.5	234.8	81.28	542.8	704.1	608.5	29.14
	85	36.11	156.6	66.89	17.15	630.4	813.5	705.2	33.2
t <sub>PLH</sub> [ns],[ps]	-40	612.7	4952	2075	779.8	342.5	485	421	27.05
	25	85.38	424.5	220.8	62.08	403.8	579.8	502.3	33.06
	85	28.11	106.1	60.97	14.07	449.9	658.8	565.9	38.33
Delay [ns],[ps]	-40	682.5	8266	2142	876.6	401	517.1	459.9	20.07
	25	98.78	577.5	227.8	63.79	486.7	623.8	555.4	23.94
	85	32.83	128.6	63.93	13.78	559.4	713.4	635.5	27.05
Pstatic 00 [fW]	-40	627.7	673.7	647.4	8.857	9358	15550	11580	1284
	25	865.5	3564	1428	426.3	11220	28320	17000	3128
	85	6711	53200	17890	7583	35810	235300	86610	32520
Pstatic 01 [fW]	-40	682	703	689.7	3.762	9628	14840	11460	1091
	25	819.8	2108	1088	170.4	11170	21210	14770	2065
	85	4413	26790	9946	3073	26790	118600	50330	12970
Pstatic 10 [fW]	-40	681.6	700	688.6	3.35	9588	14830	11450	1090
	25	866.3	1566	1086	132.3	11520	20580	14760	1909
	85	5522	17850	9981	2516	31250	85460	50460	10640
Pstatic 11 [fW]	-40	738	770.2	747.6	5.736	11270	21180	14700	2073
	25	1077	3770	1864	478.9	15590	36230	22820	4245
	85	10060	56260	25000	8350	53780	255600	120100	36100
Pavg max freq [pW],[uW]	-40	13.75	108.3	44.18	14.33	2.26	2.785	2.534	0.093
	25	174.4	768.4	397.4	94.21	1.937	2.382	2.168	0.080
	85	762.4	2399	1431	267.3	1.769	2.162	1.969	0.073
Pavg 32KHz [pW]	-40	23.77	45.56	35.1	3.389				
	25	37.48	58.29	42.22	4.078				
	85	43.02	63.06	51.5	4.282				

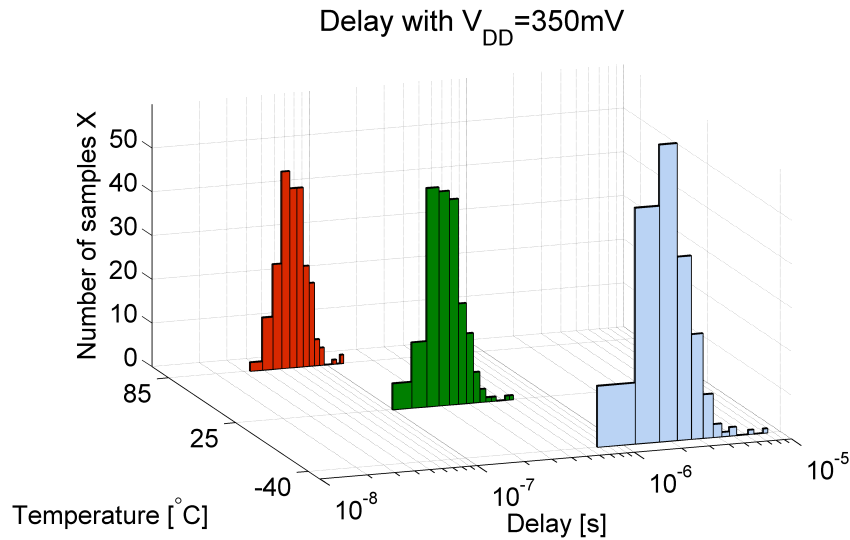


Figure 6.10: Monte Carlo XOR2 layout,  $V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$ : Delay with process and mismatch.

### 6.1.6 AOI22 Gate

Table 6.12: Monte Carlo DC results for the AOI22 gate with process and mismatch and extracted parasitics.

DC Test	Temp	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma
	[°C]	$V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$				$V_{DD} = 1.2\text{V}$			
Midpoint [%]	-40	6.01	34.24	20.74	6.004	2.55	13.98	8.67	2.105
	25	9.65	37.89	23.45	6.084	6.56	18.08	12.95	2.165
	85	13.45	41.77	27.04	6.12	10.34	22.1	16.65	2.218
NMH [mV]	-40	94.1	142.9	118.1	10.29	457.7	528.1	488.4	13.24
	25	88.94	139.7	113.8	10.58	414.3	486.8	447.4	14.08
	85	79.76	130.4	105.2	10.65	376.6	452.6	410.5	14.64
NML [mV]	-40	166.4	222.7	196.6	10.89	600.1	651.4	626.1	11.72
	25	176.9	227.1	202.6	10.57	617.1	674.2	646.4	12.05
	85	182.1	231.5	206.7	10.57	631.4	695.2	663.8	12.36
Gain	-40	-36.88	-13.31	-25.91	4.696	-43.66	-22.61	-37.15	6.033
	25	-36.76	-21.05	-32.38	4.522	-40.36	-21.22	-34.26	5.522
	85	-34.17	-19.83	-30.27	3.801	-37.57	-20.07	-32.02	4.506

Table 6.13: Monte Carlo AC results for the AOI22 gate with process and mismatch and extracted parasitics.

AC Test	Temp	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma	V <sub>DD</sub> = 350mV		V <sub>DD</sub> = 1.2V	
						[°C]			
t <sub>r</sub> [ns],[ps]	-40	304.4	6176	1240	741.6	414.7	554.8	475.8	23.5
	25	52.2	440.2	138.8	55.97	532.2	698.9	601.6	28.2
	85	19.98	99.65	41.91	12.43	648.3	833.6	723.7	31.9
t <sub>f</sub> [ns],[ps]	-40	501.7	4925	1729	850.8	584.1	692.4	638.9	22.45
	25	89.21	477.6	212.6	75.26	801.7	946.9	876	29.86
	85	35.28	130	67.62	18.41	1027	1209	1119	37.35
t <sub>PHL</sub> [ns],[ps]	-40	611.1	4939	1816	719.6	400.3	494.8	445.5	18.42
	25	94.13	432.2	208.9	59.38	508.5	626.2	566.8	23
	85	33.72	110.8	62.82	14.01	609.8	751.9	679.7	27.22
t <sub>PLH</sub> [ns],[ps]	-40	657.4	4932	1826	715.7	431.7	567.2	498.2	28.24
	25	97.8	446.3	205.3	58.69	514	684.9	598.7	34.97
	85	33.58	114.2	60.64	13.93	576.6	778	676.4	40.74
Delay [ns],[ps]	-40	772.9	4035	1821	601.2	427.3	522.9	471.9	17.64
	25	110.4	388.5	207.1	49.24	527.1	646.1	582.7	21.84
	85	37.86	103.7	61.73	11.44	613.4	752.7	678	25.44
Pavg max freq [pW],[uW]	-40	12.42	60.07	27.58	7.767	1.726	2.019	1.875	0.062
	25	137	454.5	252.1	52.15	1.471	1.719	1.6	0.050
	85	564.1	1485	923.9	152	1.326	1.546	1.442	0.045
Pavg 32KHz [pW]	-40	9.822	23.92	17.75	1.436				
	25	19.91	37.68	24.38	2.455				
	85	25.55	48.45	32.97	3.531				

## 6.1.7 OAI22 Gate

Table 6.14: Monte Carlo DC results for the OAI22 gate with process and mismatch and extracted parasitics.

DC Test	Temp	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma	V <sub>DD</sub> = 350mV		V <sub>DD</sub> = 1.2V	
						[°C]			
Midpoint [%]	-40	5.05	37.7	19.63	6.061	2.33	15.01	8.28	2.168
	25	6.88	41.58	22.44	6.101	6.34	20.88	12.54	2.263
	85	10.18	45.54	26.02	6.118	10.27	24.87	16.28	2.318
NMH [mV]	-40	91.42	146	120	10.33	439.4	527.5	490.7	13.66
	25	84.07	141.4	115.8	10.72	394.9	486.1	449.6	14.43
	85	73.89	133.6	107.1	10.75	356.2	451.9	412.7	14.99
NML [mV]	-40	166.9	227.6	194.6	11.06	597.5	668.5	624	11.93
	25	175.2	232.5	200.6	10.69	612.1	688.9	644.2	12.31
	85	178	237.7	204.8	10.65	628.5	706.8	661.8	12.74
Gain	-40	-37.63	-10.67	-26.43	5.035	-43.42	-22.93	-37.51	6.017
	25	-36.74	-20.92	-32.61	4.218	-40.02	-21.67	-34.58	5.486
	85	-34.03	-19.71	-29.99	3.939	-37.25	-20.36	-32.41	4.688

Table 6.15: Monte Carlo AC results for the OAI22 gate with process and mismatch and extracted parasitics.

AC Test	Temp	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma
	[°C]	$V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$				$V_{DD} = 1.2\text{V}$			
$t_r$ [ns],[ps]	-40	267.6	4763	1323	856.4	416.5	548.4	477.1	24.39
	25	49.53	415.4	152.5	68.48	535.2	694.5	608.3	29.76
	85	20.26	105.5	47.19	15.71	655.5	832.9	737.6	33.91
$t_f$ [ns],[ps]	-40	421.5	5640	1519	800	471.2	562.9	519.2	19.25
	25	73.02	500.9	185.7	70.68	650.2	773.7	714.1	25.56
	85	28.61	129.5	58.95	17.35	830	988.4	912.5	31.35
$t_{PHL}$ [ns],[ps]	-40	743.8	5722	2021	799.4	437.4	550.5	498.6	18.81
	25	112.9	508.7	239.3	67.23	556.3	697.4	632.6	23.45
	85	39.93	131.9	73.62	16	664.5	827	753	27.28
$t_{PLH}$ [ns],[ps]	-40	432.9	10080	1656	1007	315.3	463.4	387.3	22.85
	25	69.8	636.1	181.1	68.11	378	561.1	467.9	28.1
	85	24.61	136.7	52.28	14.83	428.7	641.6	533.9	32.75
Delay [ns],[ps]	-40	619.9	6079	1838	724.2	405	475.9	442.9	14.99
	25	94.03	440.7	210.2	54.68	503.9	592.3	550.2	18.42
	85	33.27	105.9	62.95	12.4	591.4	693.3	643.4	21.32
Pavg max freq [pW],[uW]	-40	11.13	56.57	28.74	8.488	1.764	2.053	1.908	0.063
	25	133.2	435.3	262.7	56.68	1.506	1.751	1.627	0.053
	85	565.7	1439	962.1	164.1	1.359	1.57	1.461	0.046
Pavg 32KHz [pW]	-40	14.55	17.75	16.22	0.69				
	25	19.37	29.79	23.68	2.26				
	85	26.43	38.57	31.29	2.57				



## 6.1.8 D Flip-Flop Memory Element

Table 6.16: Monte Carlo AC results for the PowerPC 603 memory element with process and mismatch and extracted parasitics.

AC Test	Temp	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma	Min	Max	Mean	Sigma
	[°C]	$V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$				$V_{DD} = 1.2\text{V}$			
$t_{co\_falling}$ [ns],[ps]	-40	1129	8918	3380	1425	554.5	713.7	633.1	27.61
	25	161.5	768.2	366.2	111.9	669	858.7	762.1	32.62
	85	52.37	183.8	100.6	24.5	765.1	980.6	871.3	36.58
$t_{co\_rising}$ [ns],[ps]	-40	760.2	10320	2292	1174	481.7	624.6	539.6	24.92
	25	119.9	788.8	277.4	96.93	598.6	768.5	667.1	29.96
	85	40.81	175.7	80.22	21.34	697.4	890.4	774.3	33.62
$t_{su\_falling}$ [ns],[ps]	-40	666.4	3525	1454	519.5	278.4	376.4	322.1	15.18
	25	85.88	332.3	162.6	45.02	329	445.4	381.4	18.08
	85	26.54	83.53	45.32	10.26	369.2	500.1	429.4	20.33
$t_{su\_rising}$ [ns],[ps]	-40	475.6	3633	1063	446.7	227	288.5	254.1	11.55
	25	61.94	314.7	122.2	37.99	271.1	343.6	303.7	13.52
	85	19.83	76.61	35.22	8.833	310.5	393.7	348	15.07
Pstatic 00 [fW][pW]	-40	874.7	2664	945.4	247.9	12.47	148800	8931	30250
	25	1161	9090	1732	858.7	15.37	180600	9039	31520
	85	9041	48300	18250	5001	52.39	12680	1946	2680
Pstatic 01 [fW][pW]	-40	882.3	917.4	893.9	6.202	12.23	21.49	16.04	1.86
	25	1300	4525	1994	471.4	16.31	35.65	23.47	4.021
	85	11860	66200	24860	8147	61.48	278.5	114.7	33.5
Pstatic 10 [fW][pW]	-40	884.6	2883	1190	251.2	11.98	148500	24920	46700
	25	1148	14460	4304	3292	15.65	166300	12930	35400
	85	8124	113700	38570	19340	42.84	16090	3589	2852
Pstatic 11 [fW][pW]	-40	861.9	1124	875.3	18.41	12.33	22.82	16.67	2.12
	25	1157	3172	1653	328.6	15.5	37.24	23.37	3.979
	85	8256	44990	19070	6021	50.17	214.3	97.03	26.46
Pavg 32KHz [pW][nW]	-40	54.95	64.91	60.37	1.165	5.534	147.4	58.81	35.16
	25	62.17	69.71	65.27	1.224	3.114	75.28	31.43	16.37
	85	77.82	126.3	93.98	8.505	2.679	121.9	46.13	28.14

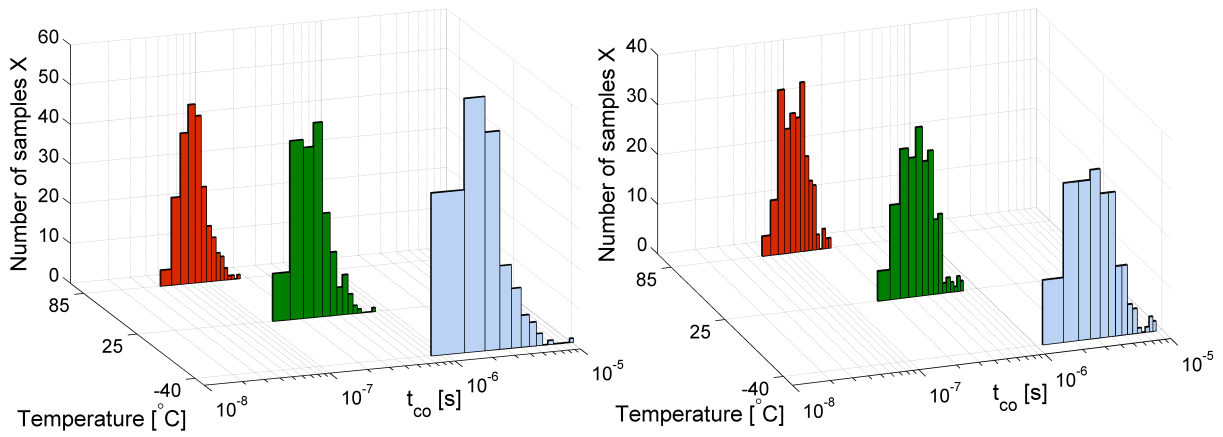


Figure 6.11: Monte Carlo D-FF layout,  $V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$ : Clock-to-output propagation delay with process and mismatch. Left side: rising  $t_{co}$ , right side: falling  $t_{co}$ .

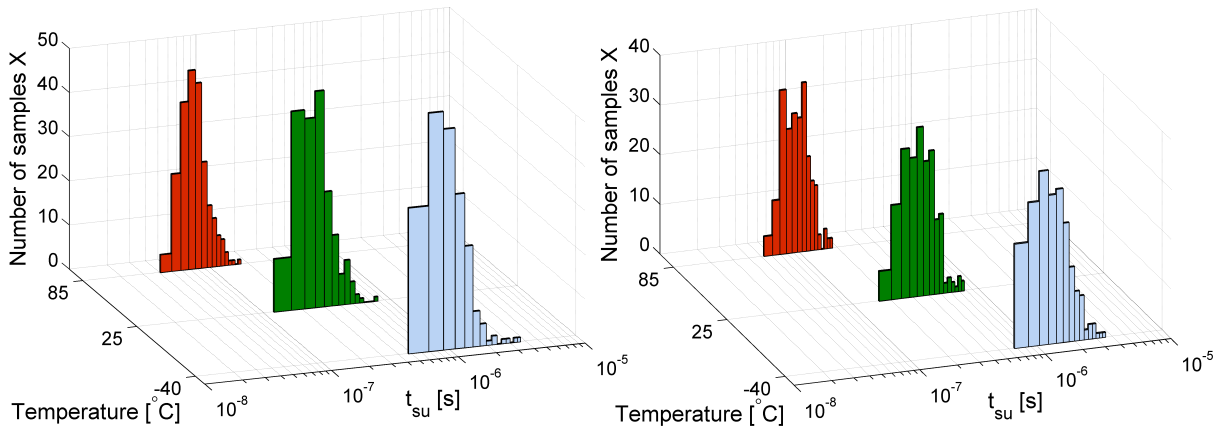


Figure 6.12: Monte Carlo D-FF layout,  $V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$ : Setup time with process and mismatch. Left side: rising  $t_{su}$ , right side: falling  $t_{su}$ .

## 6.2 ALU Results

Results in term of corner functionality check, critical path propagation delay and power consumption is presented in this chapter. Details on the various ALU synthesis is found in section 3.3<sup>1</sup>. All synthesizes except No.1 are simulated with above- and sub-threshold cells.

### 6.2.1 ALU No.1: Results with use of Above-Threshold Library

#### Corner Functionality Simulation Results

Table 6.17: ALU No.1: Corner functionality results with  $V_{DD} = 350mV$  and  $400mV$  where faulty=**X** and pass=**✓**.

Corner	350mV			400mV		
	$-40^{\circ}C$	$25^{\circ}C$	$85^{\circ}C$	$-40^{\circ}C$	$25^{\circ}C$	$85^{\circ}C$
FF	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
SF	X	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
TT	X	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
FS	X	✓	✓	X	✓	✓
SS	X	✓	✓	X	✓	✓

<sup>1</sup>No.1: all available above-threshold cells, No.2: restricted to INV, NAND2, NOR2 and D-FF with FO3, and No.3: same as No.2 including XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22 and OAI22.

**Delay Results of Critical Path**

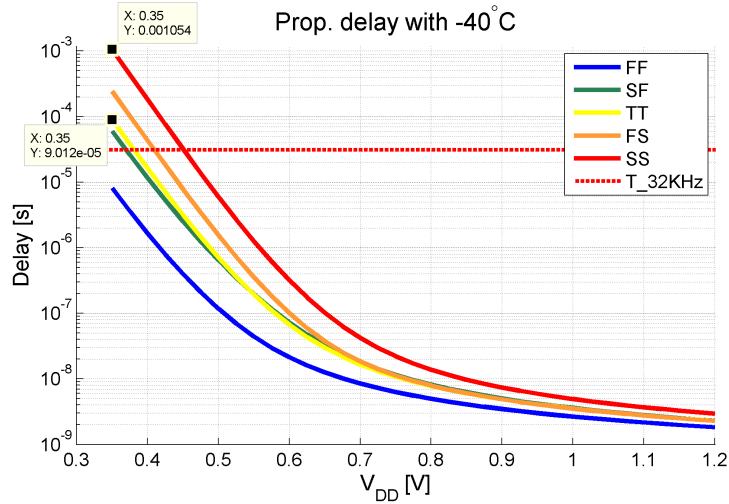


Figure 6.13: ALU No.1: Corner sim. results of critical path delay in semilog plot and -40°C.

**Power Consumption Results**

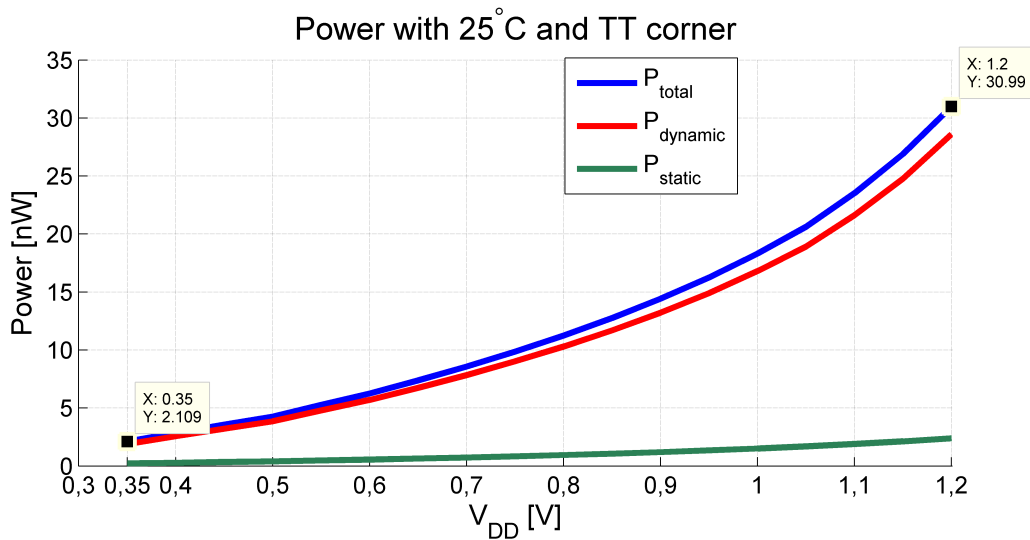


Figure 6.14: ALU No.1: Power consumption in the components of total, dynamic and static with 32KHz, 25°C and TT corner.

## 6.2.2 ALU No.2: Sub-Threshold VS Above-Threshold Library Cells

### Corner Functionality Simulation Results

Table 6.18: ALU No.2: Corner functionality results with  $V_{DD} = 350mV$  and  $400mV$  where faulty= $\times$  and pass= $\checkmark$ .

Corner	Sub-Threshold Cells						Above-Threshold Cells					
	350mV			400mV			350mV			400mV		
	-40°C	25°C	85°C	-40°C	25°C	85°C	-40°C	25°C	85°C	-40°C	25°C	85°C
FF	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
SF	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\times$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
TT	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\times$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
FS	$\times$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\times$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
SS	$\times$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\times$	$\times$	$\checkmark$	$\times$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$

### Delay Results of Critical Path

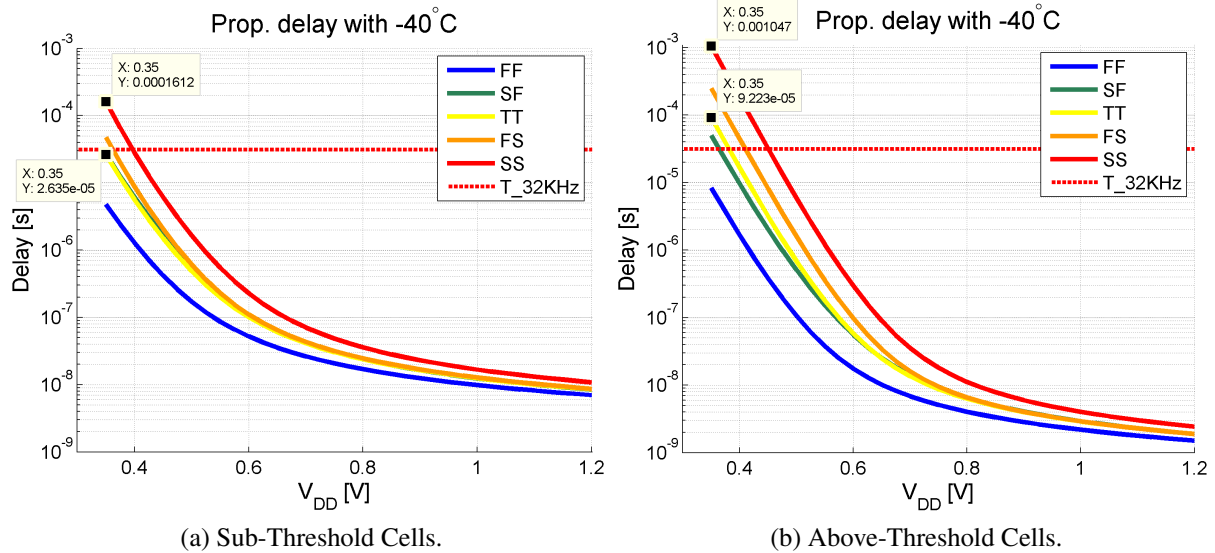


Figure 6.15: ALU No.2: Corner sim. results of critical path delay in semilog plot and  $-40^\circ C$ .

### Power Consumption Results

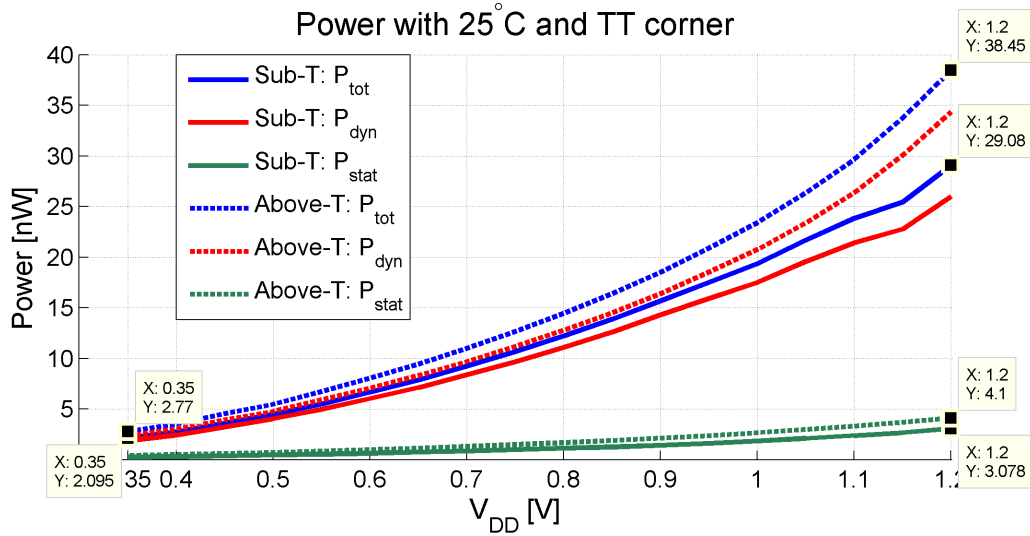


Figure 6.16: ALU No.2: Power consumption comparison between use of sub-threshold and above-threshold cells in terms of total, dynamic and static with 32KHz, 25°C and TT corner.

### Calculation of Estimated Power Consumption for the No.2 Synthesis

An estimation of the power consumption is important to evaluate the quality of the measured power consumption by simulation. The estimation is based on 32KHz mean power consumption in 25°C for each cell. For the fan-out of 3 circuit used as a test case for the sub-threshold cell library, the estimated power is the sum of all mean  $P_{avg}$  times the number of cells in the circuit as shown next:

Table 6.19: Estimated  $P_{total}$  for the ALU FO3 with  $V_{DD} = 350mV$ , nominal corner and 25°C.

131 X <b>INV</b>	$131 \cdot 12.55pW \Rightarrow$	$1.644nW$
105 X <b>NAND2</b>	$105 \cdot 22.01pW \Rightarrow$	$+2.31nW$
130 X <b>NOR2</b>	$130 \cdot 19.39pW \Rightarrow$	$+2.52nW$
27 X <b>D-FF</b>	$27 \cdot 65.27pW \Rightarrow$	$+1.76nW$
<b>Pavg Total with <math>\alpha = 1</math></b>		<b><math>= 8.234nW</math></b>
<b>Pavg Total with <math>\alpha = 0.2</math></b>		<b><math>= 1.647nW</math></b>

where the activity factor  $\alpha$  is estimated by the activity on the inputs of the ALU circuit. The activity factor is based on the test stimulus applied where input A and B is set to a static value,

the Op input is changed every clock period, and the clock has its activity equal to the clock period. Hence, four inputs are actively changing every clock period. The activity factor is thus estimated to  $\alpha = \frac{4}{20} = 0.2$ .

### 6.2.3 ALU No.3: Sub-Threshold VS Above-Threshold Library Cells

#### Corner Functionality Simulation Results

Table 6.20: ALU No.3: Corner functionality results with  $V_{DD} = 350mV$  and  $400mV$  where faulty=**X** and pass=**✓**.

Corner	Sub-Threshold Cells						Above-Threshold Cells					
	350mV			400mV			350mV			400mV		
	$-40^{\circ}C$	$25^{\circ}C$	$85^{\circ}C$	$-40^{\circ}C$	$25^{\circ}C$	$85^{\circ}C$	$-40^{\circ}C$	$25^{\circ}C$	$85^{\circ}C$	$-40^{\circ}C$	$25^{\circ}C$	$85^{\circ}C$
FF	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
SF	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	X	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
TT	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	X	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
FS	X	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	X	✓	✓	X	✓	✓
SS	X	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	X	X	✓	X	✓	✓

**Delay Results of Critical Path**

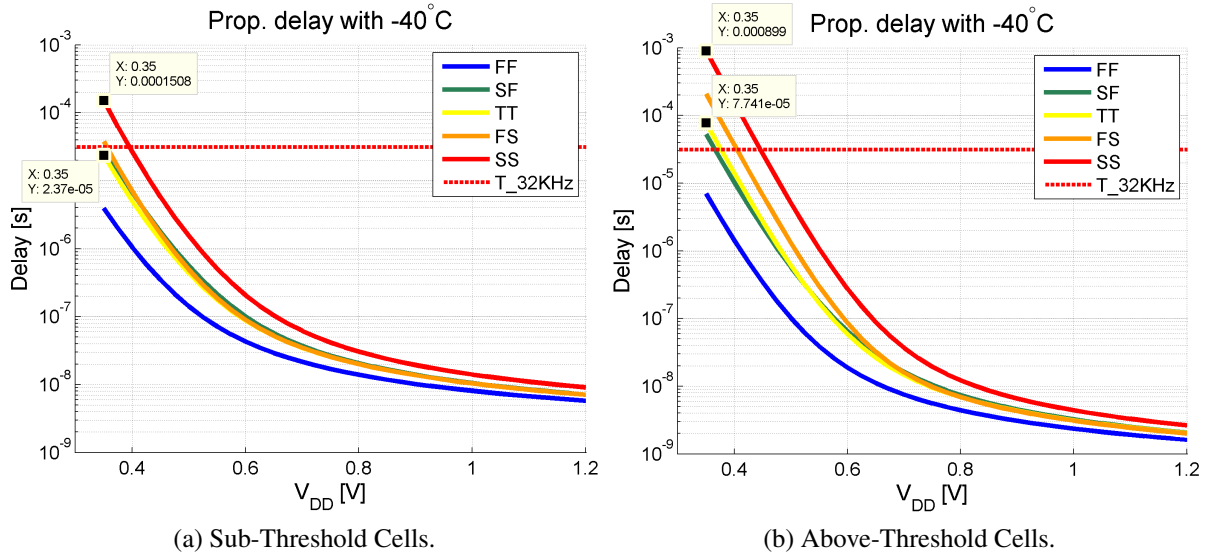


Figure 6.17: ALU No.3: Corner sim. results of critical path delay in semilog plot and -40°C.

**Power Consumption Results**

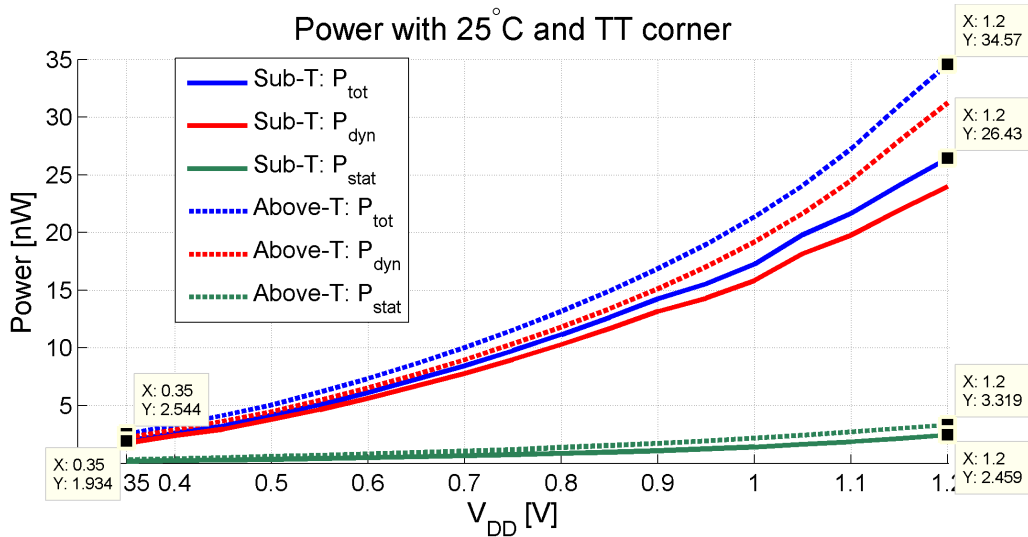


Figure 6.18: ALU No.3: Power consumption comparison between use of sub-threshold and above-threshold cells in terms of total, dynamic and static with 32KHz, 25°C and TT corner.



## 6.2.4 Comparison between ALU Synthesis Results

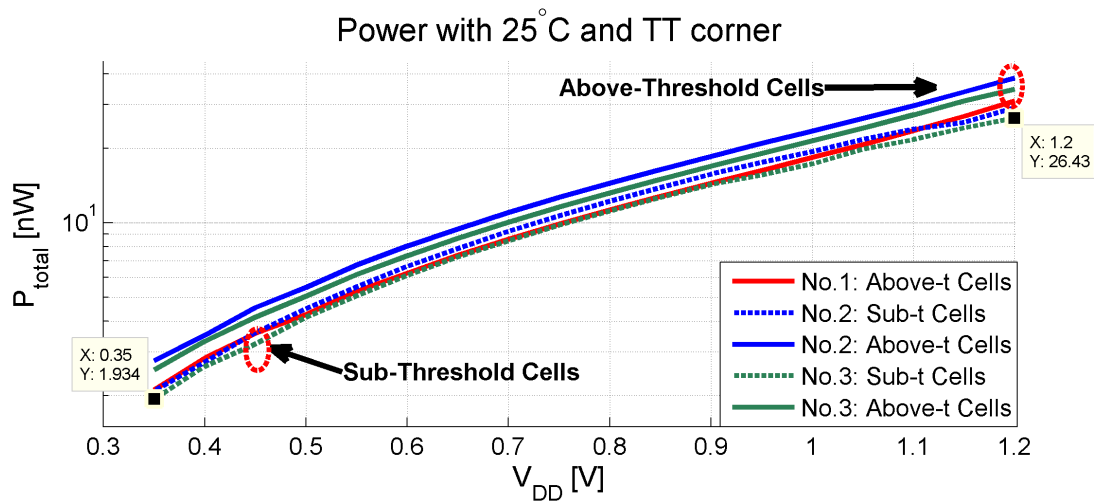
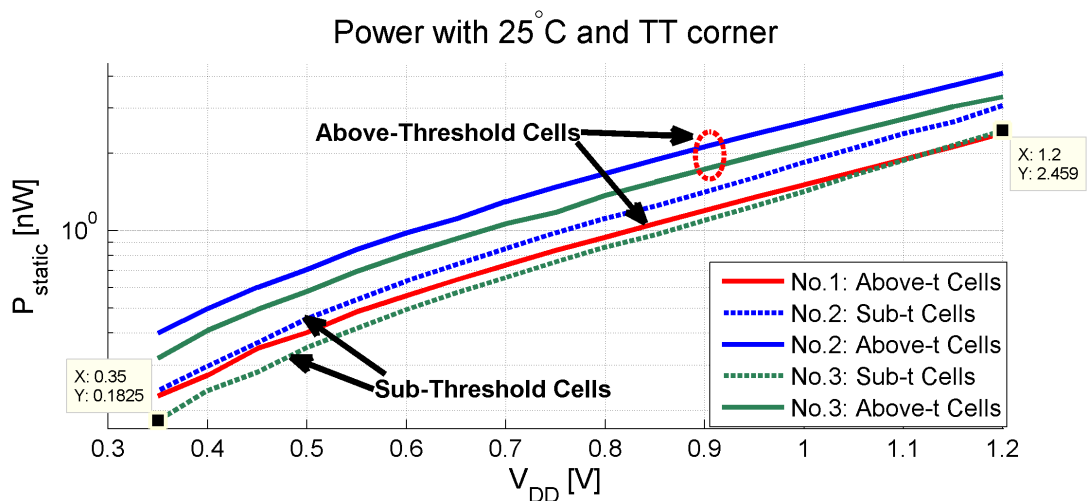
(a)  $P_{total}$  comparison.(b)  $P_{static}$  comparison.

Figure 6.19: Comparison between ALU design No.1, No.2 and No.3 in power consumption with 32KHz, 25°C and TT corner.

Table 6.21: Summarized power results from ALU simulation in 32KHz, 25°C and TT corner.

Design	No.1		No.2				No.3			
			Sub-T Cells		Above-T Cells		Sub-T Cells		Above-T Cells	
$V_{DD}$ [V]	$P_{total}$ [nW]	$P_{stat}$ [nW]	$P_{total}$ [nW]	$P_{stat}$ [nW]	$P_{total}$ [nW]	$P_{stat}$ [nW]	$P_{total}$ [nW]	$P_{stat}$ [nW]	$P_{total}$ [nW]	$P_{stat}$ [nW]
1.2	30.99	2.39	29.08	3.08	38.45	4.1	26.43	2.46	34.57	3.32
1.0	18.31	1.51	19.35	1.85	23.4	2.65	17.27	1.42	21.37	2.18
800m	11.25	0.95	12.2	1.12	14.44	1.67	11.2	0.86	13.2	1.37
600m	6.25	0.56	6.66	0.64	8.04	0.98	6.13	0.493	7.34	0.81
400m	2.84	0.275	2.73	0.298	3.51	0.498	2.63	0.239	3.32	0.409
350m	2.11	0.228	2.095	0.239	2.77	0.399	1.934	0.183	2.54	0.319

# Chapter 7

## Discussion

### 7.1 The Accuracy of the Results

Intermediate results for all the logic gates and their alternative sizing designs are obtained with use of Monte Carlo simulation and  $n = 100$  runs. The intermediate results are used to explore how variations affect the different sizing strategies and sizing designs. The number of  $n = 100$  runs is chosen to reduce simulation time as the results are only used to designate a final chosen sizing design. The number of  $n = 100$  gives a 99% confidence interval of  $\pm 13.13\%$  for the  $V_{DD} = 350mV$  case as discussed in section 3.2.4.

The final chosen sizing designs for all sub-threshold cells are further simulated with use of  $n = 220$  to increase accuracy and narrowing the 99% confidence interval. The confidence interval with  $n = 220$  is equal to  $\pm 8.76\%$  which is more accurate than the intermediate results. To increase the 99% confidence accuracy of the sub-threshold Monte Carlo simulation to a  $\pm 1\%$  interval, the number of runs have to be  $n = 16590$  which is a huge amount and time demanding task. The final results are in sufficient accuracy, but with room for improvements by increasing the number of runs.

### 7.2 The Sub-Threshold Cells

#### 7.2.1 The Inverter Gate

The designed inverter gate has in term of DC analysis a mean midpoint percentage of the VTC curve  $\sim 9 - 11\%$ <sup>1</sup> and a std. deviation  $\sigma \sim 7.3\%$  over the range of temperatures and  $V_{DD} = 350mV$ . This is shown in section 6.1.1, table 6.2 and the distribution of midpoint percentage over temperatures  $-40^\circ C$ ,  $25^\circ C$  and  $85^\circ C$  in figure 6.1. Although the optimal midpoint is  $V_{DD}/2$  as described in section 2.2.1, the mean midpoint is considered to be sufficient as it gives a  $\mu \pm 3\sigma$  interval for the midpoint approximated to a  $[-12.9\%, 32.9\%]$  range. It is however

not just the midpoint that is of importance. The gain and noise margins (NMH and NML) reveals the quality of a VTC curve and how resistant the gate is against noise exposure. The inverter has a mean gain with a range of  $\sim[-26, -33]$  and a  $\sigma \sim 4.3 - 5.4$  over the temperature range. The noise margins are sufficient with a minimum mean NMH of  $\sim 135mV$  and NML of  $\sim 175mV$ , and both with  $\sigma \sim 13mV$ . Hence, the DC analysis values are minimally affected by temperature variations.

The inverter resulted in in term of transient analysis a mean propagation delay ranging between  $\sim[796ns, 81ns, 22ns]$  in the temperatures  $-40^\circ C$ ,  $25^\circ C$  and  $85^\circ C$  respectively with  $V_{DD} = 350mV$ . The transient analysis results are presented in table 6.3 and with a distribution of delay over the three temperatures in figure 6.2. The  $\sigma$  is following the same tendency over the temperature range with  $\sim[366 ns, 26 ns, 5.5 ns]$ . However, the relative  $\sigma$  to the mean increases with decreasing temperature. At  $85^\circ C$  the  $\sigma/\mu = 0.25$  (25%), but in  $-40^\circ C$  the ratio is  $\sigma/\mu = 0.46$  (46%). This can be observed as the delay distribution in figure 6.2 increases in width as the temperature decreases. The same tendency is observed in the other timing results such as rise  $t_r$ , fall time  $t_f$ ,  $t_{PHL}$  and  $t_{PLH}$ .

## 7.2.2 The NAND2 Gate

The NAND2 gate has in term of DC analysis a mean midpoint percentage of  $\sim 19 - 22\%$  over the temperature ranges as shown in section 6.1.2, table 6.4 and the distribution of midpoint percentage is shown over the temperatures in figure 6.3. The mean midpoint is higher than for the inverter probably due to the structure with two parallel pMOS in the PUN and two stacked nMOS in the PDN. Additionally, a contributive factor might be that the pMOS is intrinsically stronger than nMOS in sub-threshold. On the other hand, the NAND2 gate has lower midpoint  $\sigma \sim 5.3\%$  than the inverter gate ( $\sim 7.2\%$ ). The  $\mu \pm 3\sigma$  range is thus  $\sim[3.1\%, 37.9\%]$ , which is only  $\sim 5.3\%$  higher in the extremity (37.9%) compared to the inverter gate (32.6%). The VTC curve quality is slightly better than the inverter with a mean gain  $\sim[-29, -32]$  and lower  $\sigma \sim 3.9 - 4.7$  for all temperature ranges. The NMH noise margin is slightly worse than the inverter gate with a mean of  $\sim 115mV$  due to the increased midpoint position. The same reason makes on the other hand the NML better with a value of  $\sim 195mV$  than the inverter gate. Both noise margins have lower  $\sigma$  than the inverter with  $\sigma \sim 9.3mV$ . Hence, the DC analysis results are minimally affected by temperature variations.

The NAND2 gate has in term of transient analysis results a mean propagation delay ranging between  $\sim[1.2 \mu s, 142 ns, 42.5 ns]$  in the temperatures  $-40^\circ C$ ,  $25^\circ C$  and  $85^\circ C$  respectively with  $V_{DD} = 350mV$  as shown in table 6.5 and with a distribution of delay over the three temperatures in figure 6.4. This might be due to increased ON resistance in the PDN (two nMOS stacked), higher input capacitance (additional transistor gates) and higher output capacitance

<sup>1</sup>% relative to  $V_{DD}/2$  e.g. 0% means midpoint of  $V_{DD}/2$ , and +100%(-100%) means a midpoint of  $V_{DD}$ (0V).

(more parasitics due to internal wiring etc.). The delay  $\sigma$  is higher than for the inverter gate with a  $\sigma \sim [426 \text{ ns}, 36 \text{ ns}, 8.2 \text{ ns}]$ . However, the relative  $\sigma$  ( $\sigma/\mu$ ) is lower than for the inverter gate with  $\sigma/\mu = 0.19$  (19%) in  $85^\circ\text{C}$ , and  $\sigma/\mu = 0.35$  (35%) in  $-40^\circ\text{C}$ .

### 7.2.3 The Other Gates

Besides the previously discussed gates other gates are additionally designed. These are: NOR2, XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22 and OAI22. The NOR2 gate has a mean midpoint range between  $\sim 7.5 - 11\%$  with a  $\sigma \sim 8\%$  for all temperature ranges and  $V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$ . The quality of the VTC curve is revealed with a mean gain ranging between  $\sim [-28, -34]$  with  $\sigma \sim 4 - 5.6$ . The noise margins has a mean NMH of  $\sim 135\text{mV}$  and NML of  $173\text{mV}$ , both with  $\sigma \sim 14\text{mV}$ . In term of transient analysis the NOR2 has a mean propagation delay ranging between  $\sim [970 \text{ ns}, 104 \text{ ns}, 30 \text{ ns}]$  and  $\sigma \sim [425 \text{ ns}, 32 \text{ ns}, 7 \text{ ns}]$ .

The XNOR and XOR gates are designed equally, but with difference in input ordering and minor layout differences. Hence, it is inconclusive which one of them is the better one since both DC and transient results are similar. Both has a mean midpoint ranging between  $\sim 7.8 - 10.4\%$  with the highest at  $85^\circ\text{C}$  and  $\sigma \sim 8\%$ . The XNOR2 and XOR2 VTC quality in term of gain and noise margins are similar to the NOR2 previously discussed with some small deviations. The AOI22 and OAI22 gates are not verified as thoroughly with exploration of other alternatives as the other designed gates due to lack of time. Nevertheless, the results shown in section 6.1.6 and 6.1.7 has equal quality as the rest by Monte Carlo sim. with 220 runs. The AOI22 and OAI22 gates are designed with similar transistor dimensions as the XNOR2 and XOR2 since they possess similar transistor structure, but with difference of excluding the inverters, including more inputs and connecting the nMOS network together in the OAI22 gate. The AOI22 and OAI22 gates has several more possible transitions and four distinct VTC curve regions due to multiple inputs as described in section 3.2.9 and 3.2.10. The simulation results for the gates in section 6.1.6 and 6.1.7 shows a DC mean midpoint in the range of  $20.7 - 27\%$  for the AOI22 and  $19.6 - 26\%$  for the OAI22, both with  $\sigma \sim 6.1\%$ . The noise margins are still only slightly worse than the NAND2 gate with a mean NMH above  $100\text{mV}$ . Also the gain is similar to the other gates. On the other hand, the transient analysis results are better for the AOI22 and OAI22 than XNOR2 and XOR2 across all simulated temperatures. This is probably partly due to the excluded inverters needed in XNOR2 and XOR2 which leads to an increase of propagation delay through the XNOR and XOR gate.

### 7.2.4 The D-FF Memory Element

The D-FF memory element has a mean falling clock-to-output  $t_{co}$  range of  $\sim [3.4 \mu, 366 \text{ ns}, 101 \text{ ns}]$  and rising in the range of  $[2.3 \mu, 277 \text{ ns}, 80 \text{ ns}]$  for the temperatures  $-40^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $25^\circ\text{C}$

and  $85^{\circ}\text{C}$  respectively, an output capacitance of  $1\text{fF}$  and  $V_{DD} = 350\text{mV}$ . Additionally, the minimum mean setup times  $t_{su}$  falling range of  $\sim[1.45\ \mu\text{s}, 163\ \text{ns}, 46\ \text{ns}]$  and rising range of  $\sim[1.06\ \mu\text{s}, 123\ \text{ns}, 36\ \text{ns}]$  for the temperatures  $-40^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $85^{\circ}\text{C}$  respectively.

### 7.2.5 Common Discussion Considering the Cells

Common for the logic gates is that the DC analysis results are minimally affected by temperature variations. This means that the DC analysis values are of little concern with varying temperature and the focus is process variations. However, the temperature exponentially affects the timing results and  $\sigma$  with the worst case occurring in  $-40^{\circ}\text{C}$ . This means that the exponentially worse timing results should be taken into account if a circuit is designed to operate in low temperatures. However, all the designed sub-threshold cells works in Monte Carlo simulations with 100% yield and thus a circuit may only fail due to insufficient timing margin. One of the simplest method to compensate for the increase delay in  $-40^{\circ}\text{C}$  may be to increase the supply voltage. However, if the increased supply voltage is statically scaled it may give a penalty of power consumption reduction over all the temperatures to compensate for the worst case temperature delay. Instead, it might be better to incorporate a dynamically temperature compensated supply voltage regulator. Hence, the supply voltage is scaled up when the temperature is reduced to improve timing results giving a more efficient power reduction for the whole temperature range. Multiple visual figures could be made in the result chapter, however the most important ones are included visualizing the distribution of DC the VTC midpoint and transient delay over temperatures.

The design and results may be improved by improving the design methodology. A question is what corner case the logic gates should be optimized for. In this thesis the logic gates are designed by search for good sizing design alternatives by deciding trade-offs between DC and transient analysis values versus transistor dimensions with use of test benches as described in section 5 prior layout and Monte Carlo simulation of the alternatives. Nevertheless, the strategy is used with a temperature of  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$  and nominal corner. This corner is not the worst case with respect of transient analysis and it could be better to use worst case corner SS with a temperature of  $-40^{\circ}\text{C}$  to optimize worst case. On the other hand, it may still be better to optimize the nominal corner with  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$  as done in this thesis since the corner occurs in the middle of all possible corners and is the most frequent case, rather than optimizing the worst case that rarely occurs. In [2], another design methodology by use of Multiobjective Optimization Problem (MOP) algorithms is shown to be necessary and beneficial when designing sub-threshold cells. The method searches for optimal tradeoffs in the resources and robustness giving an entire set of optimal tradeoffs (Pareto set). By this, a broad set of varying tradeoff and resource efficient sizing solutions in a cell library is achieved. This method may give multiple more various cells in much shorter design time and allow a synthesis tool to use optimal cells whenever needed to achieve design rules as e.g. critical path delay versus overall power consumption.

### 7.3 The ALU Test Circuits

The ALU circuit is used as a test case for the designed sub-threshold library. Three ALU circuits are synthesized where No.1: unlimited with use of available above-threshold cell library (total cells synthesized=118), No.2: synthesized with restriction to INV, NAND2, NOR2 and D-FF and FO3 (total cells=393), and No.3: as with No.2 + XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22 and OAI22 gates (total cells=272). The two latter ALUs are both simulated with use of above- and the designed sub-threshold cells in order to make a comparison. The decrease in cell number from No.2 to No.3 with 31% shows that a richer cell library may give a more optimal solution in term of area and power consumption probably due to less total parasitic capacitance and less paths to ground.

The ALU No.2 with above-threshold cells has the worst power consumption in all power components compared to the others as seen in figure 6.19 and table 6.21. Additionally the No.3 with above-threshold cells is the second worst. The No.1 (which is only made with above-threshold cells) is third worst, but only in total power consumption. This might be due to the low number of cells of 118 in No.1 synthesis and thus less paths to ground than the others. By these results, the sub-threshold cell library is shown to be more power efficient than an existing above-threshold cell library.

The ALU No.2 shows a reduction in total power of  $\sim 24.3\%$  with use of sub-threshold cells compared to the same ALU with use of above-threshold cells for  $V_{DD} = 350mV$  and  $1.2V$ . Additionally in term of static power consumption, the sub-threshold application shows a reduction of  $\sim 40\%$  with  $V_{DD} = 350mV$  and  $\sim 25\%$  reduction with  $V_{DD} = 1.2V$  compared to the above-threshold case. Table 6.21 summarizes the power consumptions and figures 6.16 depicts total, dynamic and static comparison between the No.2 above- and sub-threshold cases. It is also shown in figure 6.15 how the critical path delay develops versus  $V_{DD}$  for all corners and  $-40^{\circ}C$ , and that the sub-threshold implementation is more robust than the above-threshold case. The sub-threshold case has a lower critical path delay in all corners in sub-threshold region compared to the above-threshold case. In a functionality test seen in table 6.18, the sub-threshold case fails only in SS and FS corner where the above-threshold case fails in all except FF within  $350mV$  and  $-40^{\circ}C$  as well as fails for SS corner at  $25^{\circ}C$ . By increasing the  $V_{DD}$  to  $400mV$  makes the sub-threshold case pass in all corners while the above-threshold still fails at SS and FS corner with  $-40^{\circ}C$ . Hence, the sub-threshold cells yields greater robustness in sub-threshold region than a existing above-threshold library.

The ALU No.3 shows a reduction in total power of  $\sim 23.8\%$  with use of sub-threshold cells compared to the same ALU with use of above-threshold cells for  $V_{DD} = 350mV$  and  $1.2V$ . In static power consumption the sub-threshold application shows a reduction of  $\sim 43\%$  with  $V_{DD} = 350mV$  and  $\sim 26\%$  reduction with  $V_{DD} = 1.2V$  compared to the above-threshold case. Figure 6.18 depicts the difference in power consumption. The No.3 shows similar trends as

for the No.2 in term of critical path delay and functionality test as shown in figure 6.17 and table 6.20. However, the No.3 ALU with additional complex gates included shows a reduction in total power consumption of  $\sim 7.7\%$  compared to the No.2 case with 350mV, and  $\sim 9.1\%$  reduction with 1.2V, both ALUs with sub-threshold cells. By comparing the best ALU No.3 with sub-threshold cells against No.1 with above-threshold cells shows that the sub-threshold case yields a reduction in total power consumption of  $\sim 8.4\%$  with 350mV and  $\sim 15\%$  reduction in 1.2V. Additionally, the static power consumption is reduced by  $\sim 20\%$  within 350mV, but increased by  $\sim 3\%$  in 1.2V. This might be because the No.1 has fewer total cells of 118 versus the No.3 with 272 cells and the fact that the above-threshold library is optimized for 1.2V region. To overcome the worst case propagation delay in  $-40^{\circ}C$  and SS corner, an increase of  $V_{DD}$  seems to be the best solution. However, to fully utilize maximum possible power savings in all temperature ranges it should be considered to incorporate a dynamic voltage scaled power supply that increases the voltage in low temperatures such that better propagation delays are yielded.



# Chapter 8

## Conclusion

The designed sub-threshold cell library including Inverter, NAND2, NOR2, XNOR2, XO2, AOI22, OAI22 and D-FF shows an increase of robustness within ALU No.2 (INV, NAND2, NOR2, D-FF) and No.3 (as No.2 + XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22, OAI22) compared to an above-threshold library, and also compared to an unlimited optimized No.1 ALU with above-threshold cells. Adding XNOR2, XOR2, AOI22 and OAI22 in the sub-threshold library clearly shows improvement in delay of  $\sim -6.5\%$  in 350mV,  $-40^\circ C$  and SS corner. It also shows a reduction in power consumption of  $\sim -7.7\%$  with 350mV, and  $\sim -9.1\%$  reduction with 1.2V compared to a library consisting of only INV, NAND2, NOR2 and D-FF (TT corner and  $25^\circ C$ ). The larger sub-threshold library also shows a reduction in total number of synthesized cell from 393 cells for the No.2 case to 272 cells for the No.3 case ( $\sim -30.1\%$ ).

The power consumption for the best case (i.e. ALU No.3 with sub-threshold cells) yields a reduction from  $V_{DD} = 1.2V$  to 350mV of  $\sim 13.7$  times (-92.7%). Additionally, the ALU No.2 with use of sub-threshold cells yields a reduction from  $V_{DD} = 1.2V$  to 350mV of  $\sim 13.9$  times (-92.8%).

*The sub-threshold cell library includes 7 logic cells and one memory element so that any general FSM can be synthesized. The cells are designed with min. drive strength with tradeoffs between imbalance and timing, where timing has been the 1. priority in term of absolute value and variations  $\sigma$ .*

### 8.1 Future Work

- Research and optimize layout such that the variations may be reduced.
- Implement a dynamical supply voltage regulator that compensate for the increased timing in decreased temperature.
- Realization of a prototype and measurements.



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# Appendix A

## HDL and Synthesis Scripts

### A.1 8-bit ALU VHDL Module

```
library IEEE;
use IEEE.STD_LOGIC_1164.ALL;
use IEEE.NUMERIC_STD.ALL;

entity simple_alu is
port( Clk : in std_logic; --clock signal
      A,B : in signed(7 downto 0); --input operands
      Op : in unsigned(2 downto 0); --Operation to be performed
      R : out signed(7 downto 0) --output of ALU
    );
end simple_alu;

architecture Behavioral of simple_alu is

--temporary signal declaration.
signal Reg1,Reg2,Reg3 : signed(7 downto 0) := (others => '0');
signal Reg4 : unsigned(2 downto 0) := (others => '0');

begin
R <= Reg3;

process(Clk)
begin
    if(rising_edge(Clk)) then
        Reg1 <= A;
        Reg2 <= B;
        Reg4 <= Op;
    end if;
end process;

process(Clk)
begin
    if(rising_edge(Clk)) then --Do the calculation at the positive edge of clock cycle.
        case Reg4 is
            when "000" =>
                Reg3 <= Reg1 + Reg2; --addition
            when "001" =>
                Reg3 <= Reg1 - Reg2; --subtraction
            when "010" =>
                Reg3 <= not Reg1; --NOT gate
```

```

when "011" =>
    Reg3 <= Reg1 nand Reg2; --NAND gate
when "100" =>
    Reg3 <= Reg1 nor Reg2; --NOR gate
when "101" =>
    Reg3 <= Reg1 and Reg2; --AND gate
when "110" =>
    Reg3 <= Reg1 or Reg2; --OR gate
when "111" =>
    Reg3 <= Reg1 xor Reg2; --XOR gate
when others =>
    NULL;
end case;
end if;
end process;
end Behavioral;

```

## A.2 Encounter RTL TCL Script .tcl

```

#####
## Define what RTL language is used
set_attribute hdl_language vhdl
## Define the library search path
set_attribute lib_search_path /home/glenn_andre.johnsen/master_thesis/svn/digital/
standalone/lib/import/STDCELLLIB/lib/
## Define the specific library and/or characterized corner
set_attribute library {STDCELLLIB.lib}
## inserted constraints: to avoid cells:
set_attribute avoid true ao*
set_attribute avoid true fa*
set_attribute avoid true ha*
set_attribute avoid true ma0*
set_attribute avoid true moa*
set_attribute avoid true mux*
set_attribute avoid true mx*
set_attribute avoid true nd3*
set_attribute avoid true nd4*
set_attribute avoid true nd5*
set_attribute avoid true nd6*
set_attribute avoid true nd8*
set_attribute avoid true nr3*
set_attribute avoid true nr4*
set_attribute avoid true nr5*
set_attribute avoid true nr6*
set_attribute avoid true nr8*
set_attribute avoid true oa*
set_attribute avoid true or*
set_attribute avoid true an*
set_attribute avoid true xor*
set_attribute avoid true xnr*
set_attribute avoid true dff*
set_attribute avoid true dfz*
set_attribute avoid true qdfz*
set_attribute avoid true qdla*
set_attribute avoid true dfe*

```



```

## Define the input HDL file(s)
read_hdl ALU.vhd
## Generates a technology independent schematic
elaborate
## Read a constraint file (Must be defined by user) Contain operating conditions such as
  clock waveforms, I/O timing, load, etc.
read_sdc ALU.sdc
## Generates a technology dependent (-to_mapped) or generic (-to_generic) schematic Effort
  levels: low, medium and high
synthesize -to_mapped -effort high
## Writes a technology dependent netlist
write -mapped > ./output/ALU/ALU_output.v
## Write a constraint file to the encounter folder for place and route constraints
write_sdc > ./output/ALU/ALU_output.sdc
## Write out area and timing reports
report area > ./output/ALU/ALU_area_report.rep
report timing > ./output/ALU/ALU_timing_report.rep
report power > ./output/ALU/ALU_power_report.rep
## Writes a script if one is preferred
write_script > script
#####

```

### A.3 Encounter RTL Constraint file .sdc

```

#####
# Set parameter units
set_units -time ps
set_units -capacitance fF

# Set clock conditions f=32KHz..#16.368MHz
create_clock -name {Clk} -period 31250000.0 -waveform {0.0 15625000} [get_ports {Clk}]

# Set load capacitance to output node(s)
set_load 50 [get_ports {R}]

# Set max fanout
set_max_fanout 3 [get_designs simple_alu]

# Set wireload model (Described in the library .lib file)-specify the effect of the
  interconnects on the timing and area
# set_wire_load_model -name "area_0Kto1K"
#####

```

# Appendix B

## ALU Stimuli Files

### B.1 Dynamic Stimuli File

```
simulator lang=spectre
//global gnd!
//global mixvss!
//vdd (vdd! 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
//mixvdd (mixvdd! 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
//mixvss (mixvss! 0) vsource dc=0
//Gnd (gnd! 0) vsource dc=0
//K is the signal period
//parameters K = 1
//D1 is the delay of vA0
//parameters D1 = 0

//Clk is applied in simulator as stimuli with the same configuration:
//Vclk (Clk 0) vsource type=pulse val0=0 val1=vdd_var delay=0.5*t_period rise=risefalltime
    fall=risefalltime width=0.5*t_period period=t_period

Va0 (A\<0\> 0) vsource dc=0
Va1 (A\<1\> 0) vsource dc=0
Va2 (A\<2\> 0) vsource dc=0
Va3 (A\<3\> 0) vsource dc=0
Va4 (A\<4\> 0) vsource dc=0
Va5 (A\<5\> 0) vsource dc=0
Va6 (A\<6\> 0) vsource dc=0
Va7 (A\<7\> 0) vsource dc=vdd_var

Vb0 (B\<0\> 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
Vb1 (B\<1\> 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
Vb2 (B\<2\> 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
Vb3 (B\<3\> 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
Vb4 (B\<4\> 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
Vb5 (B\<5\> 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
Vb6 (B\<6\> 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
Vb7 (B\<7\> 0) vsource dc=0

V1 (Op\<0\> 0) vsource type=pwl wave=[
+ 0u 0 (0.995*t_period) 0
+ (1*t_period) vdd_var (1*t_period+0.995*t_period) vdd_var
+ (2*t_period) 0 (2*t_period+0.995*t_period) 0
+ (3*t_period) vdd_var (3*t_period+0.995*t_period) vdd_var
+ (4*t_period) 0 (4*t_period+0.995*t_period) 0
```

```

+ (5*t_period) vdd_var (5*t_period+0.995*t_period) vdd_var
+ (6*t_period) 0 (6*t_period+0.995*t_period) 0
+ (7*t_period) vdd_var (7*t_period+0.995*t_period) vdd_var
+ ]

V2 (Op\\<1\\> 0) vsource type=pwl wave=\[
+ 0u 0 (0.995*t_period) 0
+ (1*t_period) 0 (1*t_period+0.995*t_period) 0
+ (2*t_period) vdd_var (2*t_period+0.995*t_period) vdd_var
+ (3*t_period) vdd_var (3*t_period+0.995*t_period) vdd_var
+ (4*t_period) 0 (4*t_period+0.995*t_period) 0
+ (5*t_period) 0 (5*t_period+0.995*t_period) 0
+ (6*t_period) vdd_var (6*t_period+0.995*t_period) vdd_var
+ (7*t_period) vdd_var (7*t_period+0.995*t_period) vdd_var
+ ]

V3 (Op\\<2\\> 0) vsource type=pwl wave=\[
+ 0u 0 (0.995*t_period) 0
+ (1*t_period) 0 (1*t_period+0.995*t_period) 0
+ (2*t_period) 0 (2*t_period+0.995*t_period) 0
+ (3*t_period) 0 (3*t_period+0.995*t_period) 0
+ (4*t_period) vdd_var (4*t_period+0.995*t_period) vdd_var
+ (5*t_period) vdd_var (5*t_period+0.995*t_period) vdd_var
+ (6*t_period) vdd_var (6*t_period+0.995*t_period) vdd_var
+ (7*t_period) vdd_var (7*t_period+0.995*t_period) vdd_var
+ ]

```

## B.2 Static Stimuli File

```

simulator lang=spectre
//global gnd!
//vdd (vdd! 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
//mixvdd (mixvdd! 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
//mixvss (mixvss! 0) vsource dc=0
//Gnd (gnd! 0) vsource dc=0
//K is the signal period
//parameters K = 1
//D1 is the delay of vA0
//parameters D1 = 0

// One clock cycle before applying static value:
Vclk (Clk 0) vsource type=pwl wave=\[
+ 0u 0 (0.4*t_period) 0
+ (0.42*t_period) vdd_var (0.96*t_period) vdd_var
+ (0.98*t_period) 0 (2*t_period) 0
+ ]

Va0 (A\\<0\\> 0) vsource dc=0
Va1 (A\\<1\\> 0) vsource dc=0
Va2 (A\\<2\\> 0) vsource dc=0
Va3 (A\\<3\\> 0) vsource dc=0
Va4 (A\\<4\\> 0) vsource dc=0
Va5 (A\\<5\\> 0) vsource dc=0
Va6 (A\\<6\\> 0) vsource dc=0
Va7 (A\\<7\\> 0) vsource dc=vdd_var

```

```
Vb0 (B\\<0\\> 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
Vb1 (B\\<1\\> 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
Vb2 (B\\<2\\> 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
Vb3 (B\\<3\\> 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
Vb4 (B\\<4\\> 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
Vb5 (B\\<5\\> 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
Vb6 (B\\<6\\> 0) vsource dc=vdd_var
Vb7 (B\\<7\\> 0) vsource dc=0

V1 (Op\\<0\\> 0) vsource type=pwl wave=[
+ 0u 0 (0.995*t_period) 0
+ ]

V2 (Op\\<1\\> 0) vsource type=pwl wave=[
+ 0u 0 (0.995*t_period) 0
+ ]

V3 (Op\\<2\\> 0) vsource type=pwl wave=[
+ 0u 0 (0.995*t_period) 0
+ ]
```

# Appendix C

## Additional Simulation and test bench setup for Sub-threshold Cells

### C.1 NOR2 Gate Test bench Setup

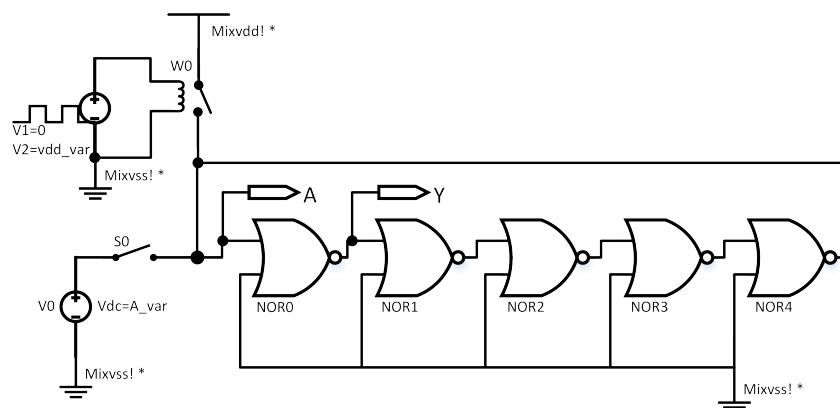


Figure C.1: Test bench setup to simulate both VTC and switching analysis of NOR2 gate with one input sunked to GND and the other connected in chain.

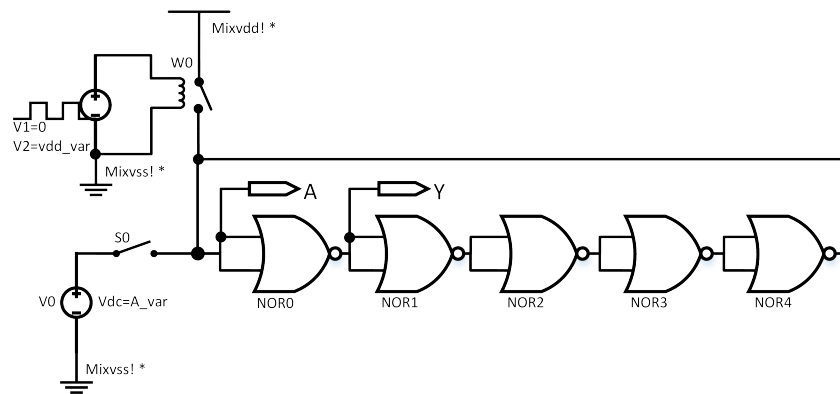


Figure C.2: Test bench setup to simulate both VTC and switching analysis of NOR2 gate with both input connected in chain.

## C.2 XNOR2 Gate Test bench Setup

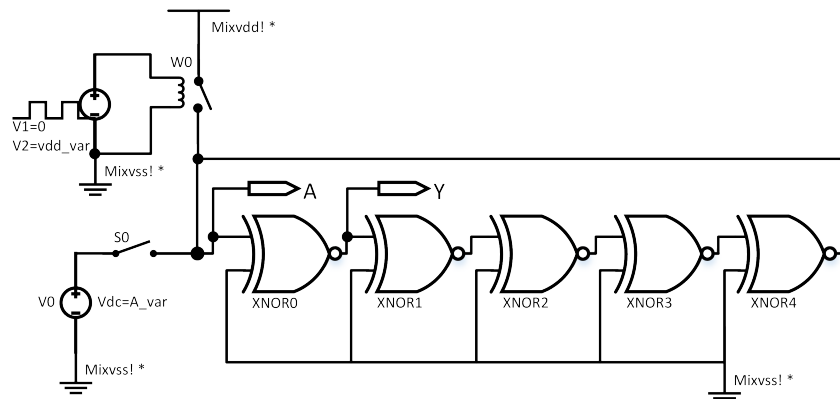


Figure C.3: Test bench setup to simulate both VTC and switching analysis of XNOR2 gate with one input sinked to GND and the other connected in chain.

### C.3 XOR2 Gate Test Bench Setup

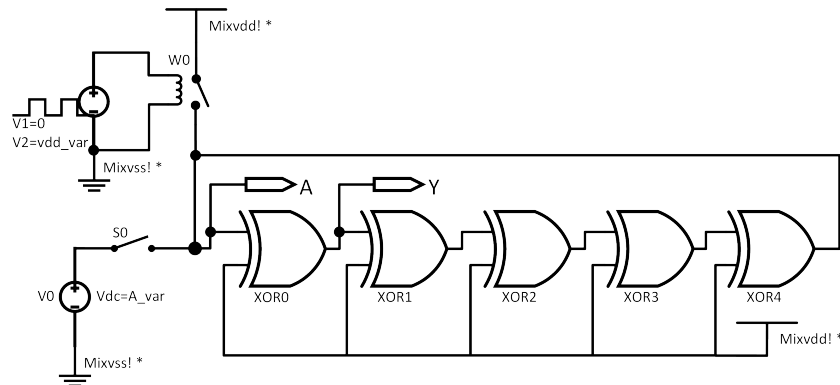


Figure C.4: Test bench setup to simulate both VTC and switching analysis of XOR2 gate with one input sourced to  $V_{DD}$  and the other connected in chain.

### C.4 AOI22 Gate Test Bench Setup

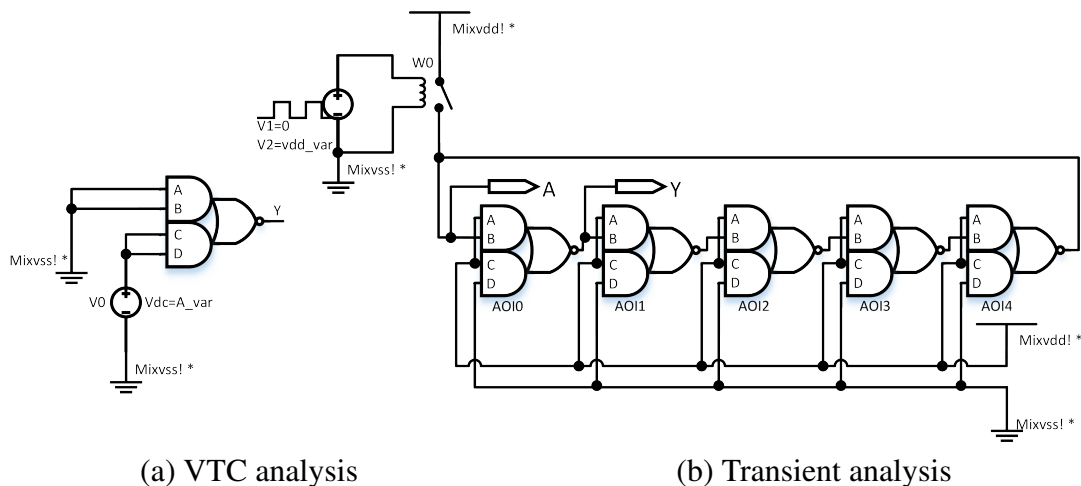


Figure C.5: Test bench setup of VTC and switching analysis of AOI22 gate with two input sourced to  $V_{DD}$ , one input sinked to GND and the other connected in chain.

## C.5 OAI22 Gate Test Bench Setup

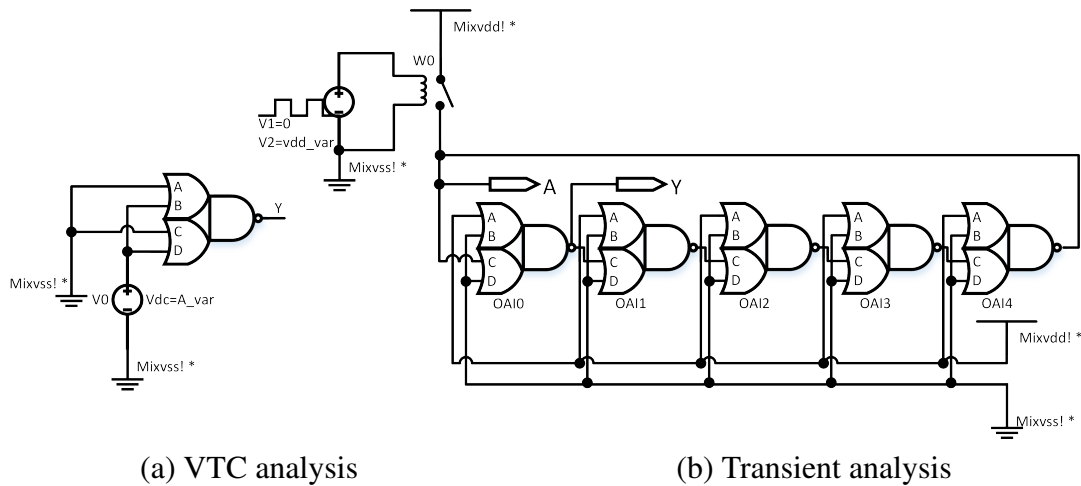


Figure C.6: Test bench setup of VTC and switching analysis of OAI22 gate with one input sourced to  $V_{DD}$ , two input sinked to GND and the other connected in chain.



# Appendix D

## Intermediate Results

### D.1 Alternative Designs for all Cells

Table D.1: Inverter: Design sizes chosen for further investigation.

Design	1	2	3 (Chosen)	4	5	6
pMOS (W / L)	160 / 389	160 / 500	160 / 240	160 / 480	160 / 600	160 / 720
nMOS (W / L)	385 / 120	350 / 120	160 / 480	160 / 480	160 / 600	160 / 720
MOS Area [ $fm^2$ ]	108.4	122.0	115.2	153.6	192.0	230.4

Table D.2: NAND2: Design sizes chosen for further investigation.

Design	1	2	3	4 (Chosen)	5	6
pMOS (W / L)	160 / 389	160 / 240	160 / 480	160 / 270	160 / 520	160 / 720
nMOS (W / L)	385 / 120	160 / 480	160 / 480	160 / 720	160 / 720	160 / 720
MOS Area [ $fm^2$ ]	216.9	230.4	307.2	316.8	396.8	460.8

Table D.3: NOR2: Design sizes chosen for further investigation.

Design	1	2	3	4	5 (Chosen)
pMOS (W / L)	160 / 200	160 / 200	160 / 150	160 / 240	160 / 150
nMOS (W / L)	300 / 120	350 / 120	160 / 600	160 / 480	160 / 720
MOS Area [ $fm^2$ ]	136.0	148.0	240.0	230.4	278.4

Table D.4: XNOR2: Design sizes chosen for further investigation.

Design	1	2	3 (Chosen)	4
pMOS (W / L)	160 / 160	160 / 200	160 / 160	160 / 200
nMOS (W / L)	350 / 120	160 / 600	160 / 720	160 / 720
MOS Area [ $fm^2$ ]	270.4	448.0	563.2	588.8

## D.2 Inverter Gate

### D.2.1 VTC Analysis Results

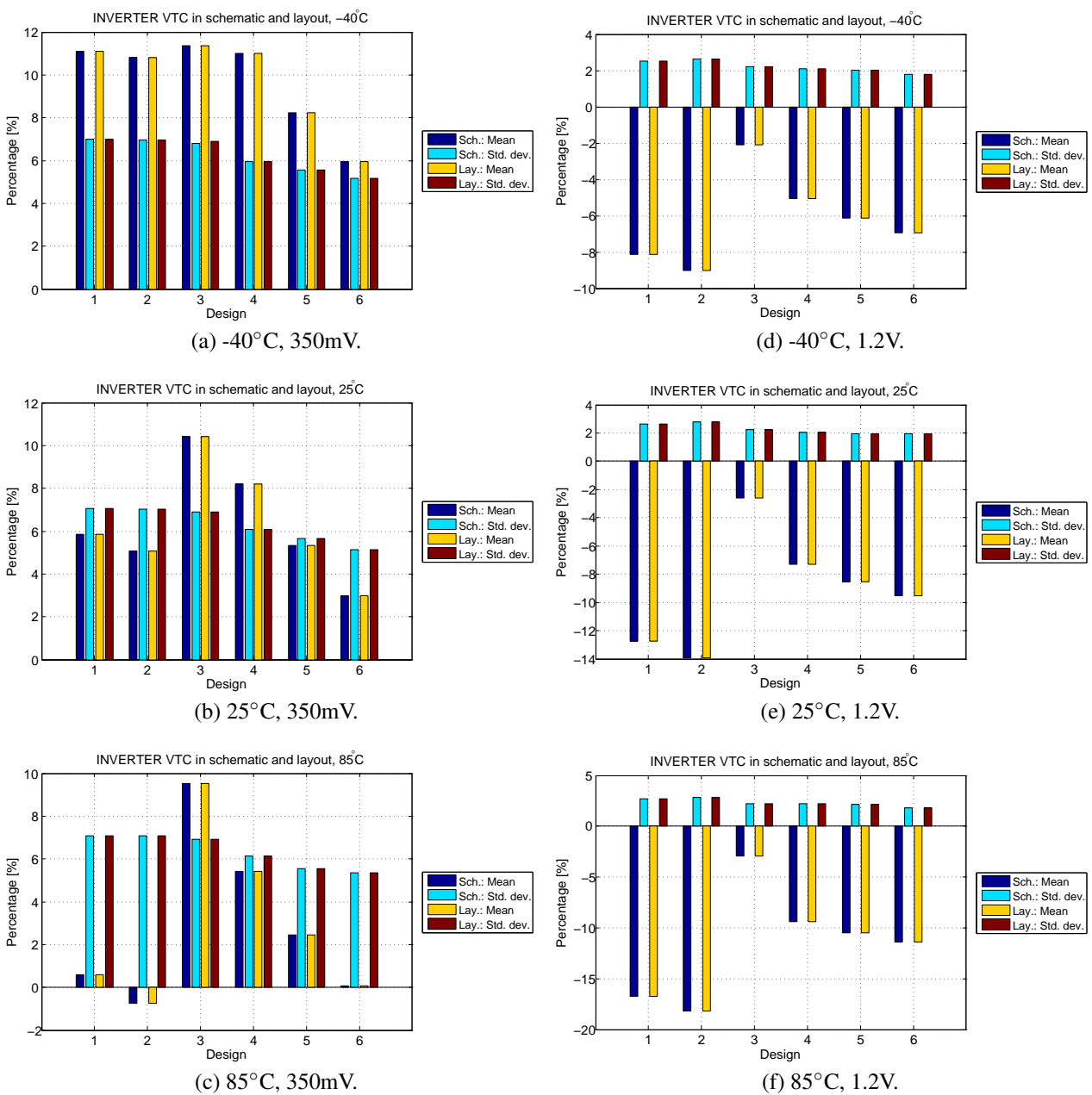


Figure D.1: Monte Carlo INVERTER schematic and layout: mean midpoint percentage and std. dev. with process and mismatch.

## D.2.2 Switching Analysis Results w/ and w/o Parasitics

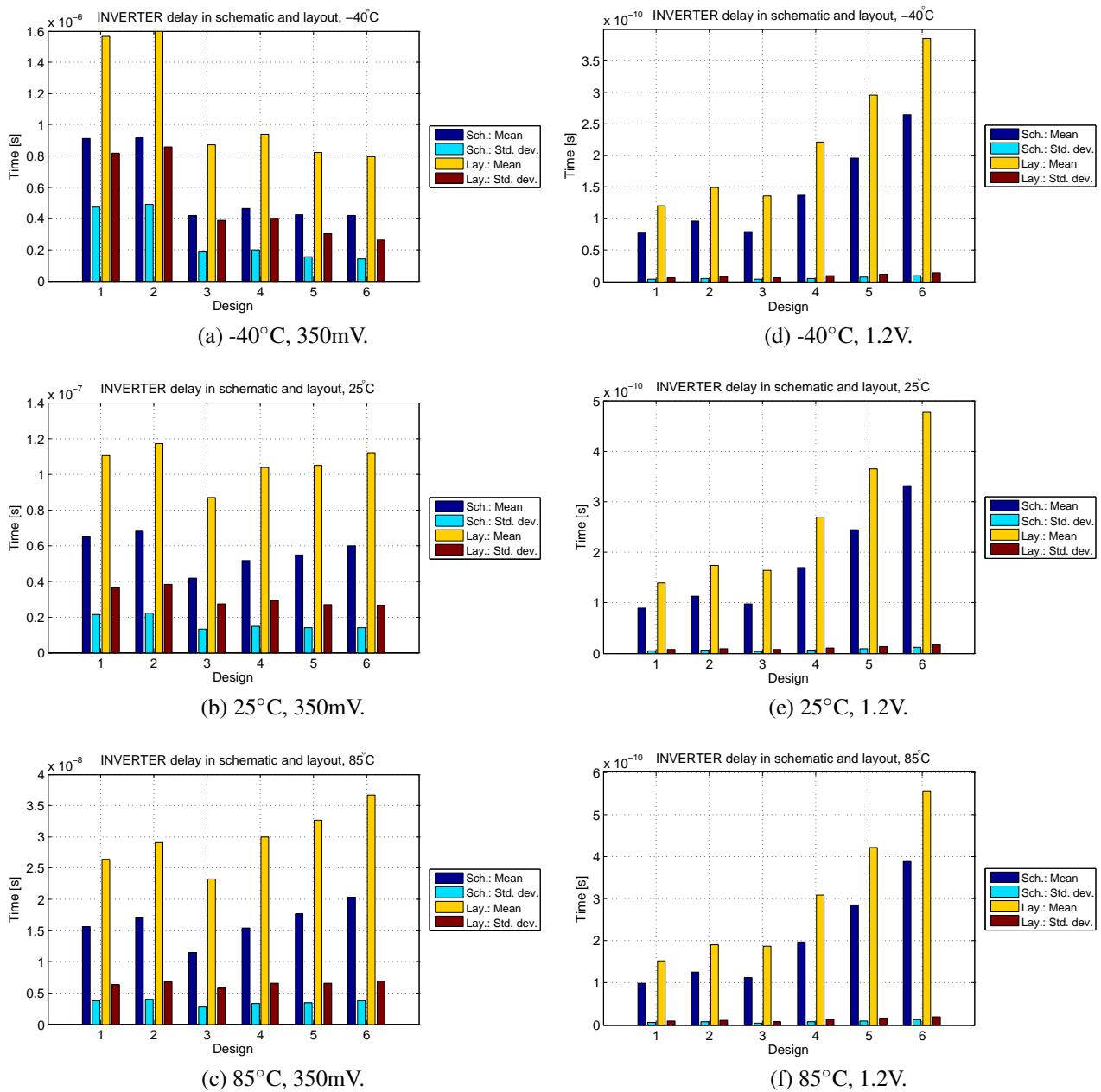


Figure D.2: Monte Carlo INVERTER **schematic and layout**: propagation mean delay and std. dev. with process and mismatch.

### D.3 NAND2 Gate

#### D.3.1 VTC Analysis Results

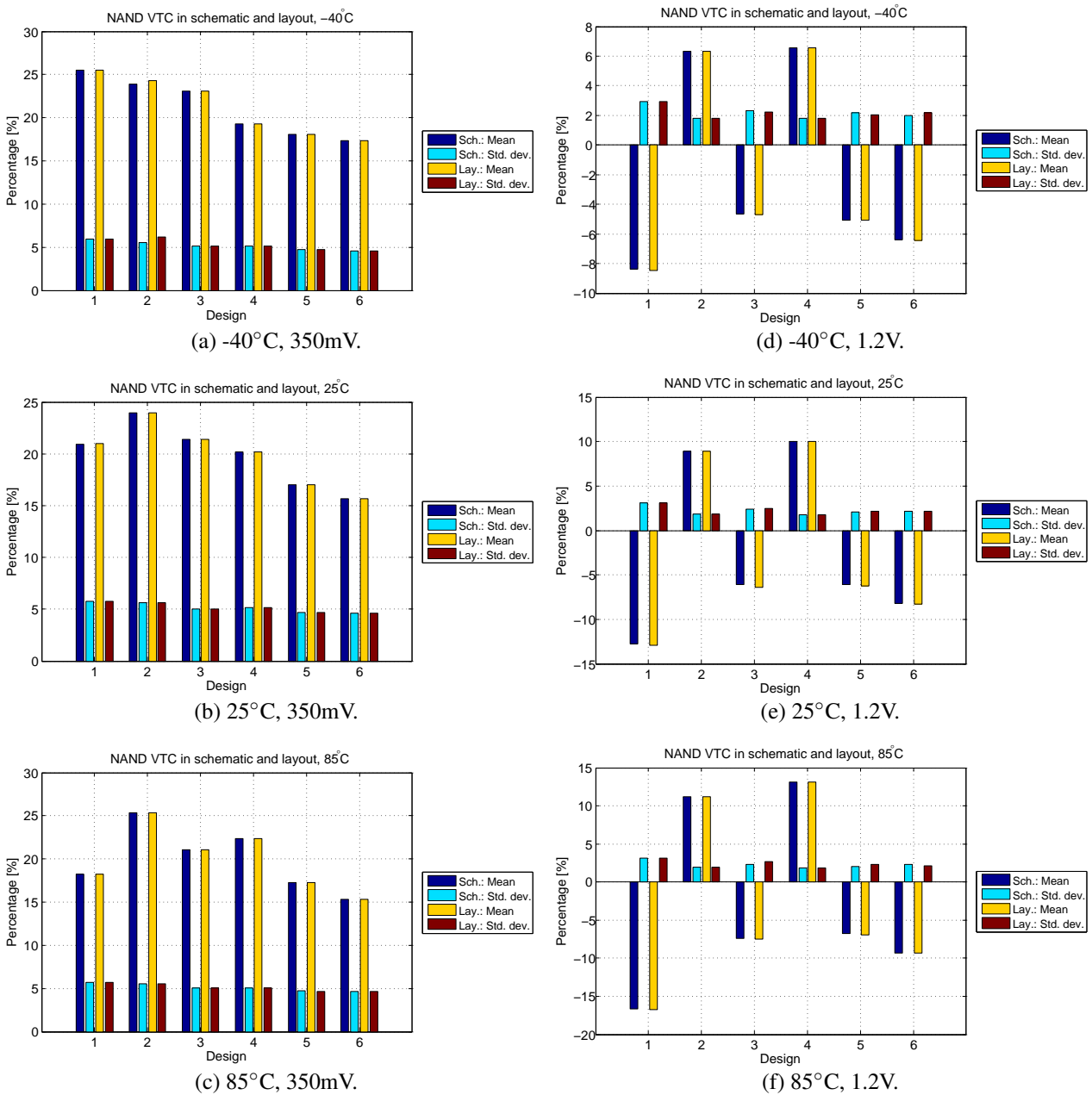


Figure D.3: Monte Carlo NAND schematic and layout: mean midpoint percentage and std. dev. with process and mismatch.

### D.3.2 Switching Analysis Results w/ and w/o Parasitics

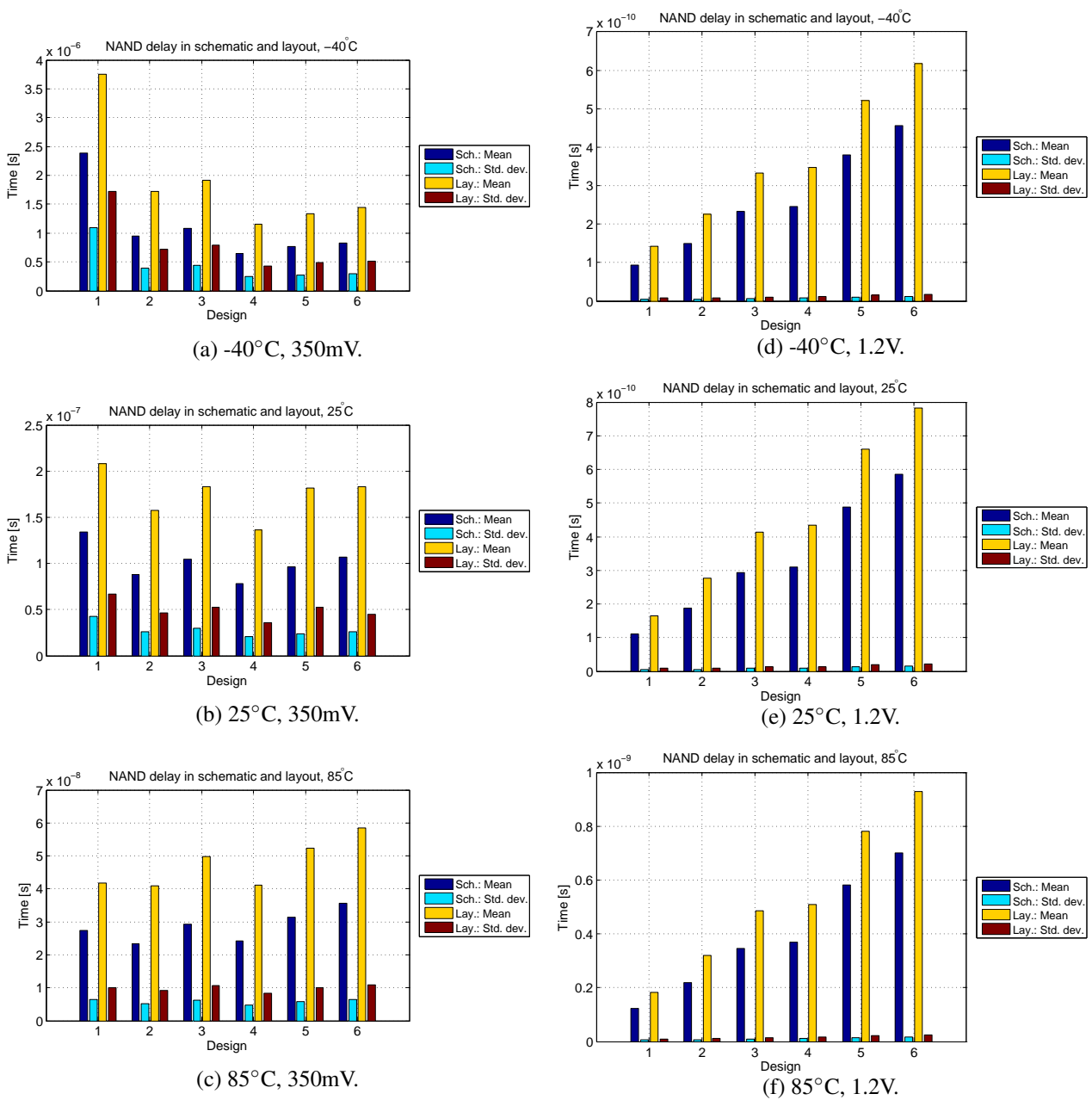


Figure D.4: Monte Carlo NAND **schematic and layout**: propagation mean delay and std. dev. with process and mismatch.

## D.4 NOR2 Gate

### D.4.1 VTC Analysis Results

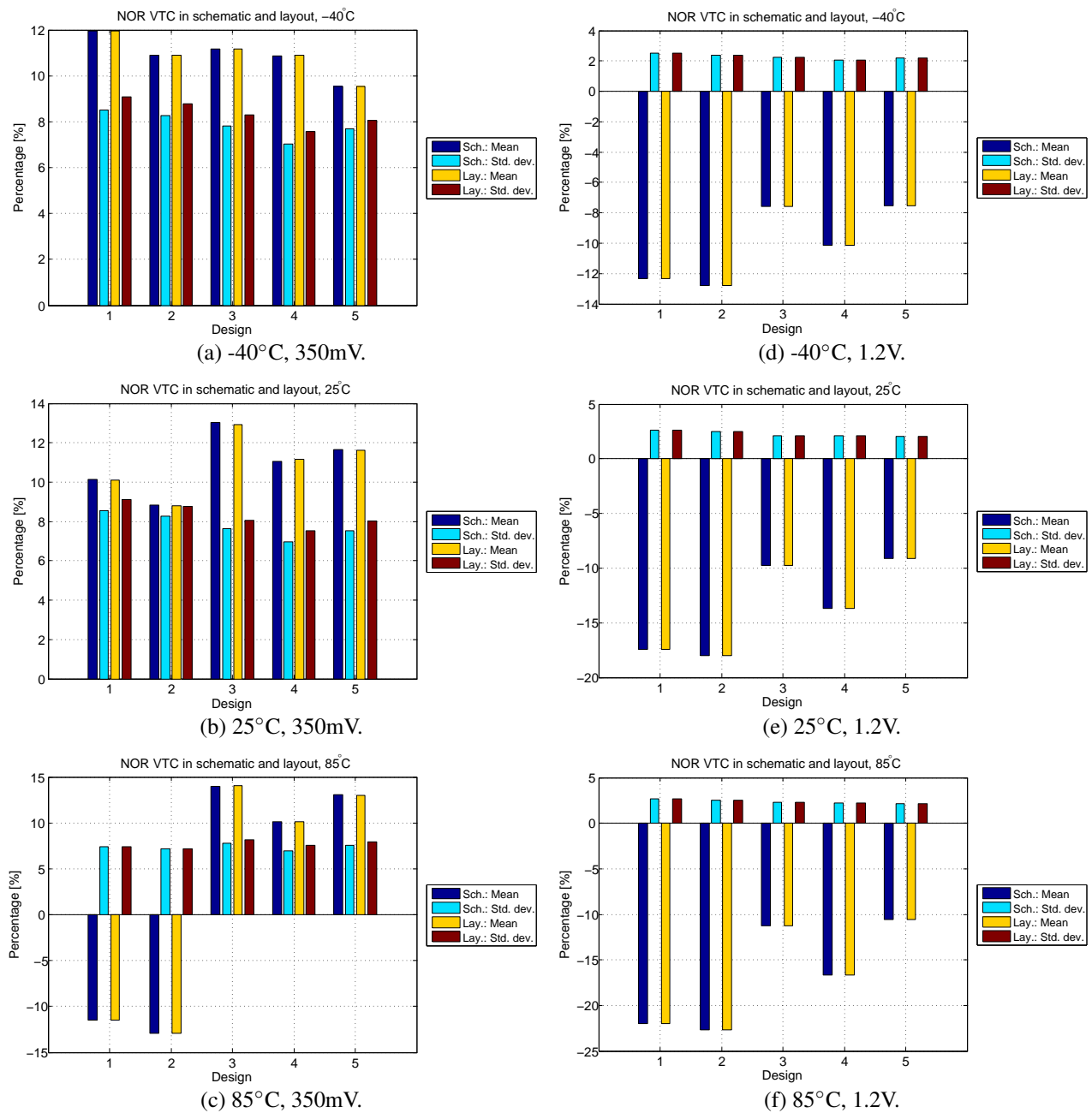


Figure D.5: Monte Carlo NOR schematic and layout: mean midpoint percentage and std. dev. with process and mismatch.

### D.4.2 Switching Analysis Results w/ and w/o Parasitics

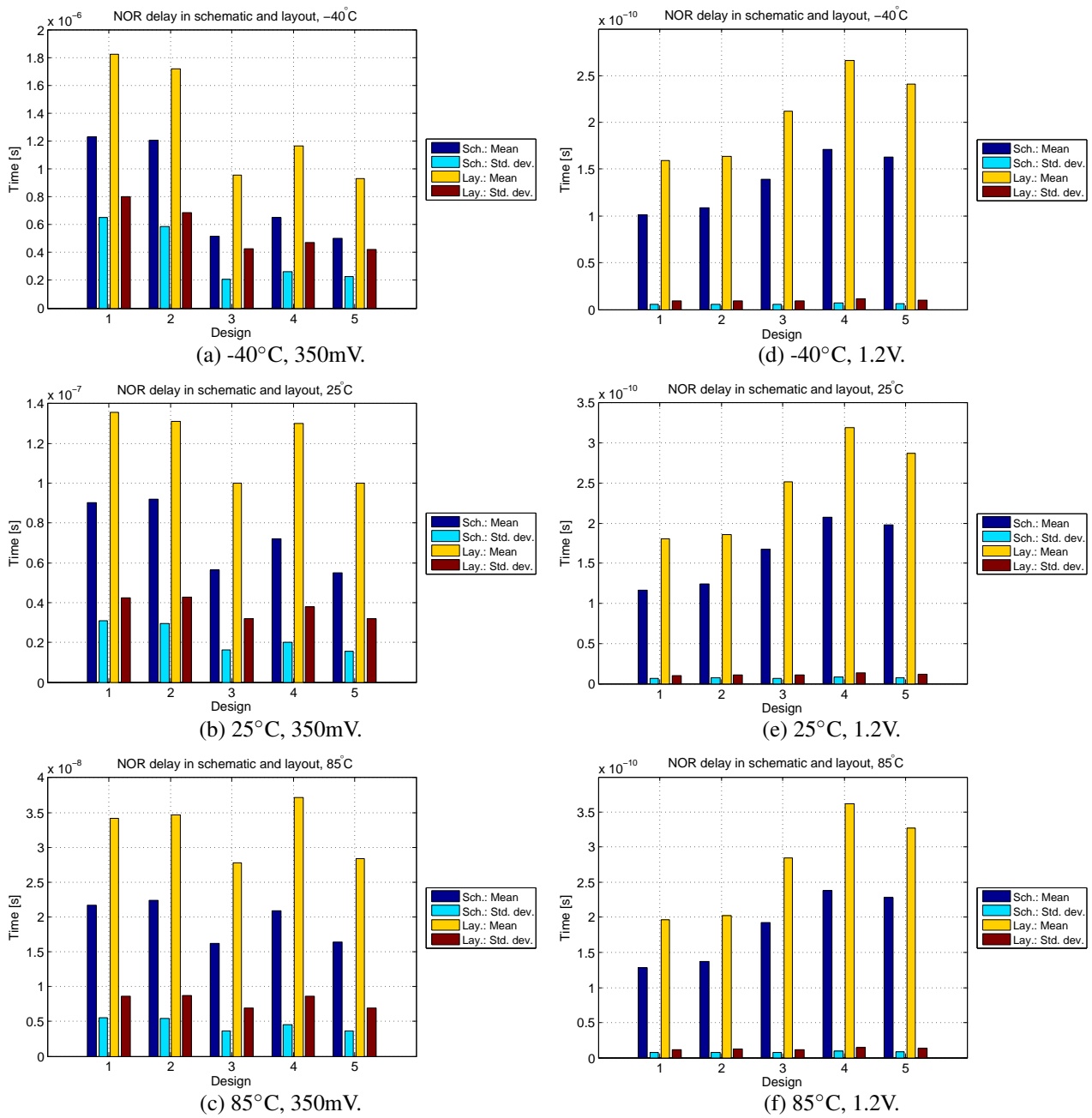


Figure D.6: Monte Carlo NOR schematic and layout: propagation mean delay and std. dev. with process and mismatch.



## D.5 XNOR2 Gate

### D.5.1 VTC Analysis Results

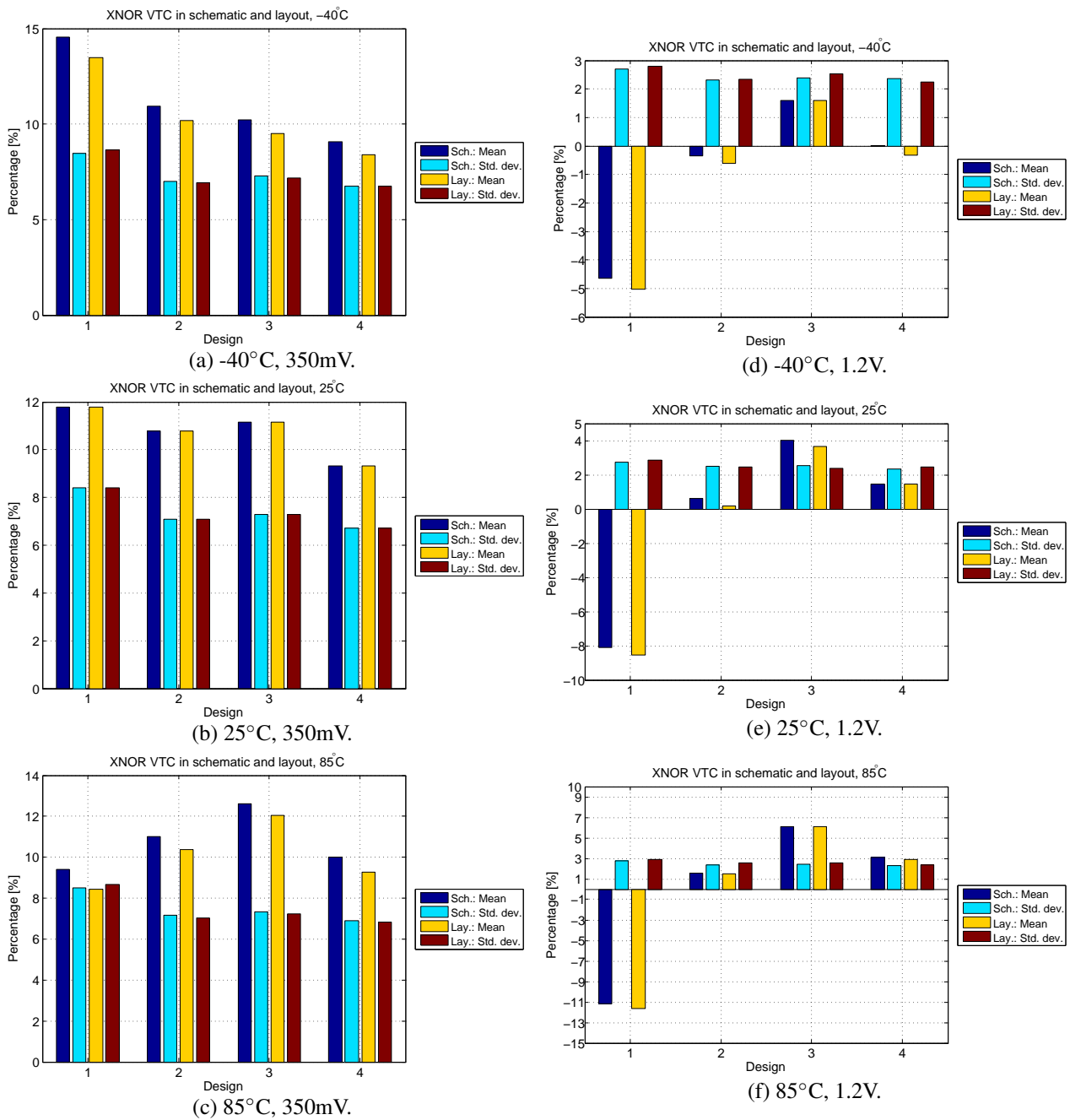


Figure D.7: Monte Carlo XNOR schematic and layout: mean midpoint percentage and std. dev. with process and mismatch.

## D.5.2 Switching Analysis Results w/ and w/o Parasitics

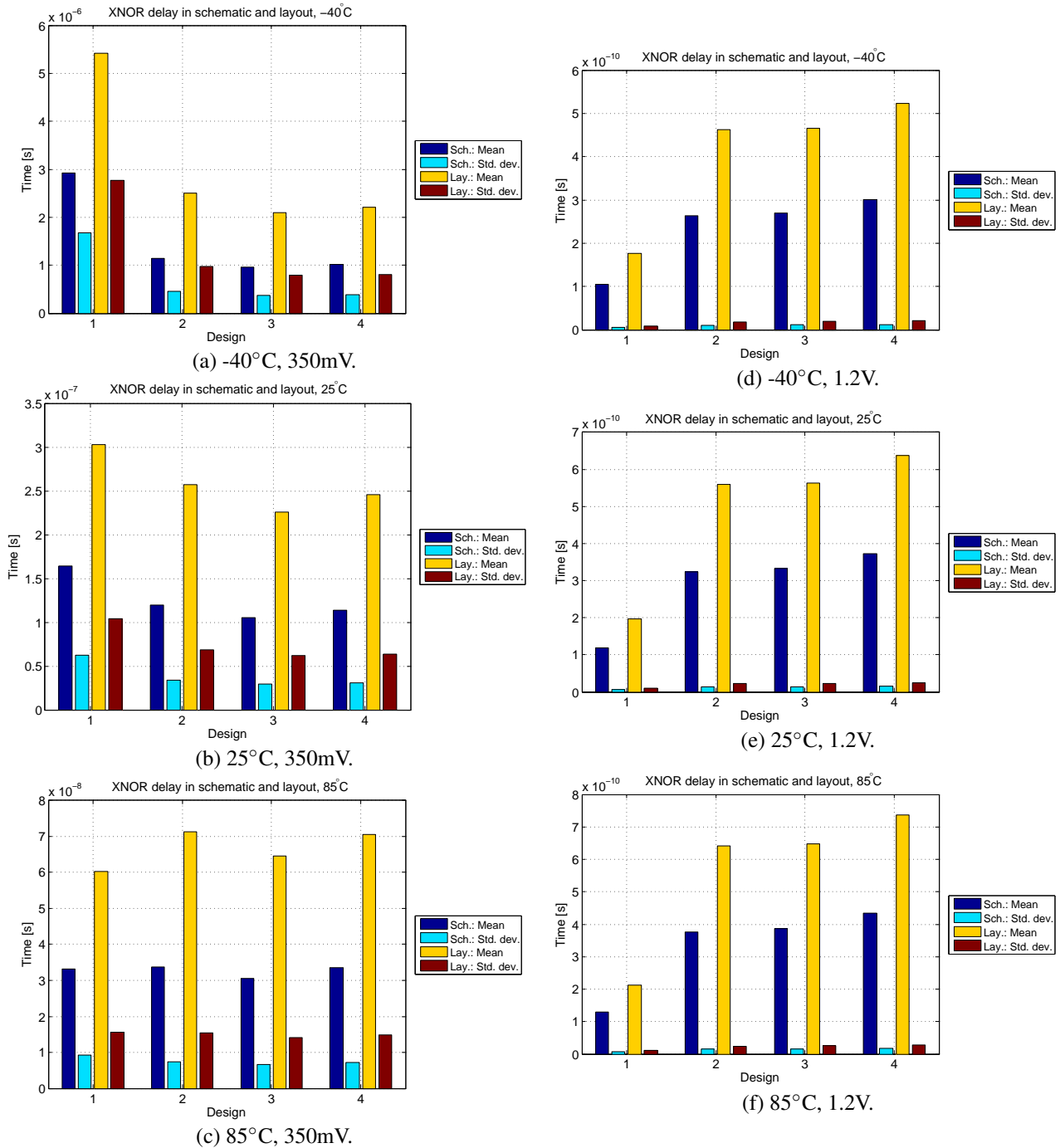


Figure D.8: Monte Carlo XNOR **schematic and layout**: propagation mean delay and std. dev. with process and mismatch.