

# TFE4188 - Lecture 1

## What I expect you to know

### Source

# Quantum Mechanics

# Want to go deeper on the physics

Feynman lectures on physics

MIT 8.04 Quantum Mechanics I

MIT 8.05 Quantum Mechanics II

# Standard Model of Elementary Particles

		three generations of matter (elementary fermions)			three generations of antimatter (elementary antifermions)			interactions / force carriers (elementary bosons)	
		I	II	III	I	II	III		
mass	charge	$\approx 2.2 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ $\frac{2}{3}$	$\approx 1.28 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ $\frac{2}{3}$	$\approx 173.1 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ $\frac{2}{3}$	$\approx 2.2 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ $-\frac{2}{3}$	$\approx 1.28 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ $-\frac{2}{3}$	$\approx 173.1 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ $-\frac{2}{3}$	0	$\approx 124.97 \text{ GeV}/c^2$
	spin	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	0
QUARKS		<b>u</b> up	<b>c</b> charm	<b>t</b> top	<b><math>\bar{u}</math></b> antiup	<b><math>\bar{c}</math></b> anticharm	<b><math>\bar{t}</math></b> antitop	<b>g</b> gluon	<b>H</b> higgs
		<b>d</b> down	<b>s</b> strange	<b>b</b> bottom	<b><math>\bar{d}</math></b> antidown	<b><math>\bar{s}</math></b> antistrange	<b><math>\bar{b}</math></b> antibottom	<b><math>\gamma</math></b> photon	
		$\approx 4.7 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ $-\frac{1}{3}$ $\frac{1}{2}$	$\approx 96 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ $-\frac{1}{3}$ $\frac{1}{2}$	$\approx 4.18 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ $-\frac{1}{3}$ $\frac{1}{2}$	$\approx 4.7 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ $\frac{1}{3}$ $\frac{1}{2}$	$\approx 96 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ $\frac{1}{3}$ $\frac{1}{2}$	$\approx 4.18 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ $\frac{1}{3}$ $\frac{1}{2}$	0 0 1	
LEPTONS		<b>e</b> electron	<b><math>\mu</math></b> muon	<b><math>\tau</math></b> tau	<b><math>e^+</math></b> positron	<b><math>\bar{\mu}</math></b> antimuon	<b><math>\bar{\tau}</math></b> antitau	<b>Z</b> Z <sup>0</sup> boson	
		$\approx 0.511 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ -1 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\approx 105.66 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ -1 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\approx 1.7768 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ -1 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\approx 0.511 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\approx 105.66 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\approx 1.7768 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\approx 91.19 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ 0 1	
		$< 2.2 \text{ eV}/c^2$ 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	$< 0.17 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	$< 18.2 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	$< 2.2 \text{ eV}/c^2$ 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	$< 0.17 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	$< 18.2 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\approx 80.39 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ 1 1	$\approx 80.39 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ -1 1
	<b><math>\nu_e</math></b> electron neutrino	<b><math>\nu_\mu</math></b> muon neutrino	<b><math>\nu_\tau</math></b> tau neutrino	<b><math>\bar{\nu}_e</math></b> electron antineutrino	<b><math>\bar{\nu}_\mu</math></b> muon antineutrino	<b><math>\bar{\nu}_\tau</math></b> tau antineutrino	<b><math>W^+</math></b> W <sup>+</sup> boson	<b><math>W^-</math></b> W <sup>-</sup> boson	

GAUGE BOSONS  
VECTOR BOSONS

SCALAR BOSONS



# Classical equations

Kinetic energy + potential energy = Total Energy

$$\frac{1}{2m}p^2 + V = E$$

where  $p = mv$ ,  $m$  is the mass,  $v$  is the velocity and  $V$  is the potential

# Quantum mechanical

State of a fermion is fully described by the probability amplitude  $\psi(x, t)$ , also called the wave function of a particle.

The total energy of a particle is described by the Schrodinger Equation

$$\frac{1}{2m} \frac{\hbar^2}{j^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi(x, t) + V(x) \psi(x, t) = -\frac{\hbar}{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi(x, t)$$

# Quantum mechanics key concepts

To determine the moment or energy of multiple particles, you cannot consider them discrete entities. For example, the probability of finding a free electron in a particular location is given by

$$P_1(x) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} |\psi_1(x, 0)|^2, \text{ where } P_1 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\psi_1(x, 0)| = 1$$

However, if we have two electrons, described by  $\psi_1(x, 0)$  and  $\psi_2(x, 0)$ , then  $P_{12}(x) \neq P_1(x) + P_2(x)$ , but rather  $P_{12}(x) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} |\psi_1(x, 0) + \psi_2(x, 0)|^2$

It is the probability amplitudes that add, not the probabilities. And to make things more interesting, one solution to the Schrodinger equation is  $\psi(x, t) = Ae^{j(kx - \omega t)}$ , where  $k$  is the wave number, and the  $\omega$  is the angular frequency. This is a complex function of position and time!

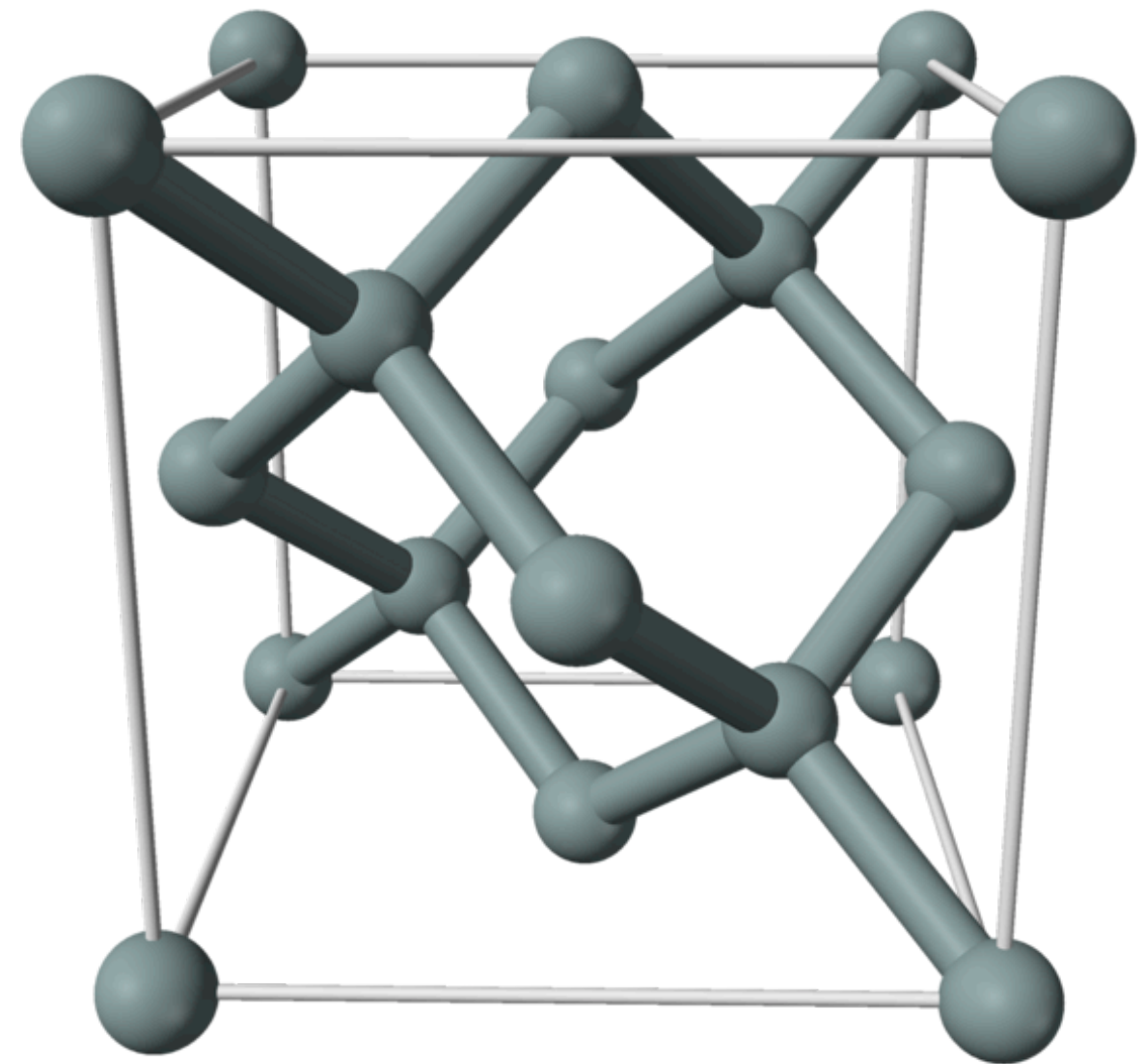
# Silicon crystal

A pure silicon crystal can be visualized by a smallest repeatable unit cell.

The unit cell is a face-centered cubic crystal with a lattice spacing of approx  $a = 5.43\text{\AA}$

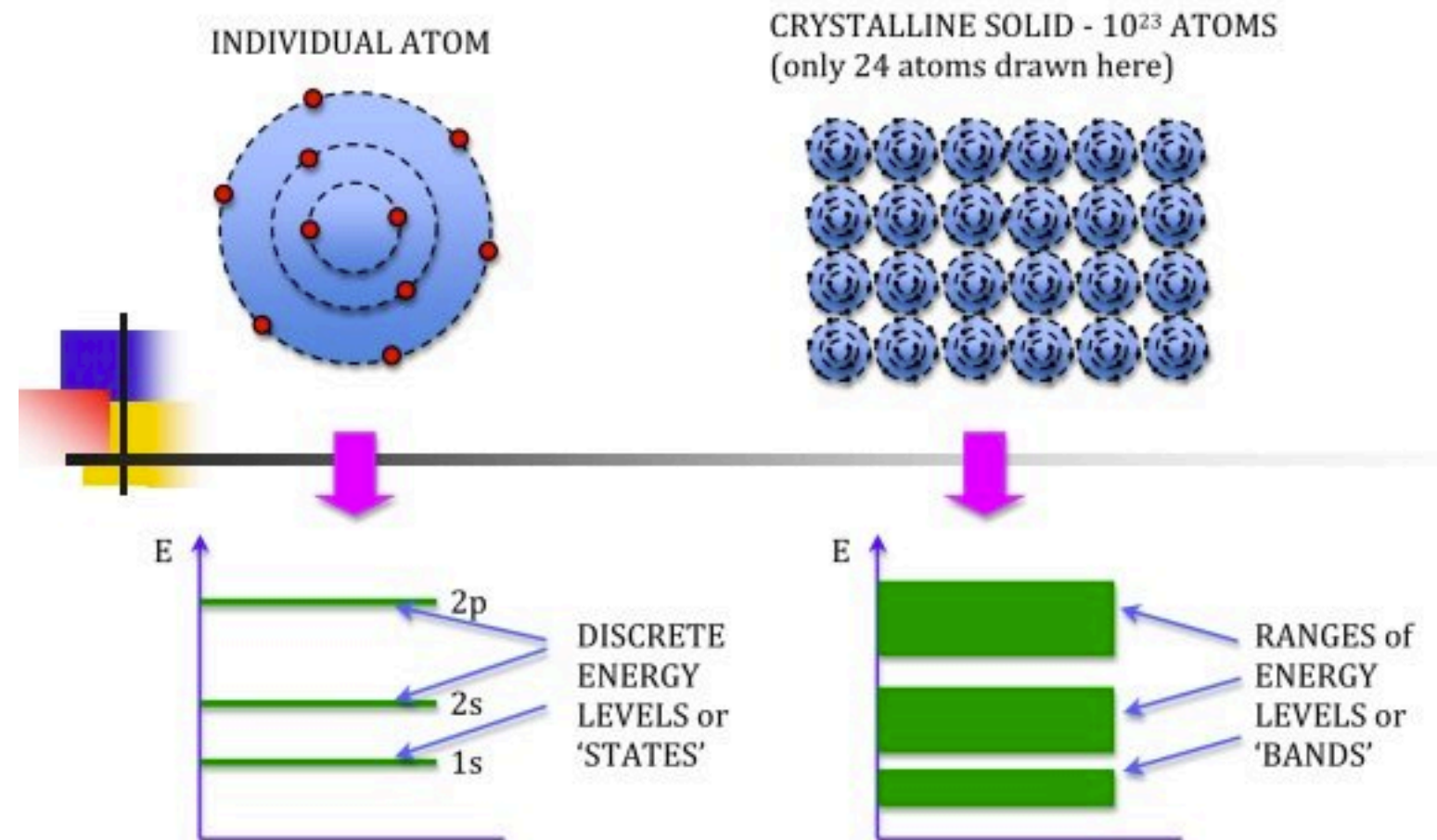
- 8 corner atoms
- 6 face atoms
- 4 additional atoms spaced at 1/4 lattice spacing from 3 face atoms and 1 corner atom

Nearest neighbor  $d = \frac{1}{2} (a\sqrt{2})$



# Energy levels of electrons in solids (current)

Electrons can only exist in discrete energy levels, given by the solutions to the Schrodinger equation. Since the probability amplitudes add for electrons in close proximity, then for crystals it's more complicated.



# Movement of electrons in solids

Electrons in solids can move if there are allowed energy states they can occupy.

In a semiconductor the valence band and first conduction band is separated by a band-gap (in conductors the bands overlap)

There are two options in semiconductors

- The valence band is not filled (holes), so electrons can move
- The electrons are given sufficient energy to reach conduction band, and are "free" to move

# Silicon crystal facts

Although we know to an extreme precision exactly how electrons behave (Schrodinger equation). It is insainly complicated to compute the movement of electrons in a real silicon crystal with the Shrodinger equation.

Most "facts" about silicon crystal, like bandgap, effective mass, and mobility of electrons (or holes) are emprically determined.

In other words, we make assumptions, and grossly oversimplify, in order to handle complexity.

# PN Junctions



$$q = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} [C]$$
$$k = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} [J/K]$$

$$\mu_0 = \frac{2\alpha h}{q^2 c} = 1.26 \times 10^{-6} [H/m]$$

$$\epsilon_0 = \frac{1}{\mu_0 c^2} = 8.854 \times 10^{-12} [F/m]$$

where  $q$  is unit charge,  $k$  is Boltzmann's constant,  $h$  is Planck's constant,  $c$  is speed of light and  $\alpha$  is the fine structure constant

# Computer models

<http://bsim.berkeley.edu/models/bsim4/>

<http://bsim.berkeley.edu/BSIM4/BSIM480.zip>

$n_i \approx 1 \times 10^{16} [1/m^3] = 1 \times 10^{10} [1/cm^3]$  at  
300 K

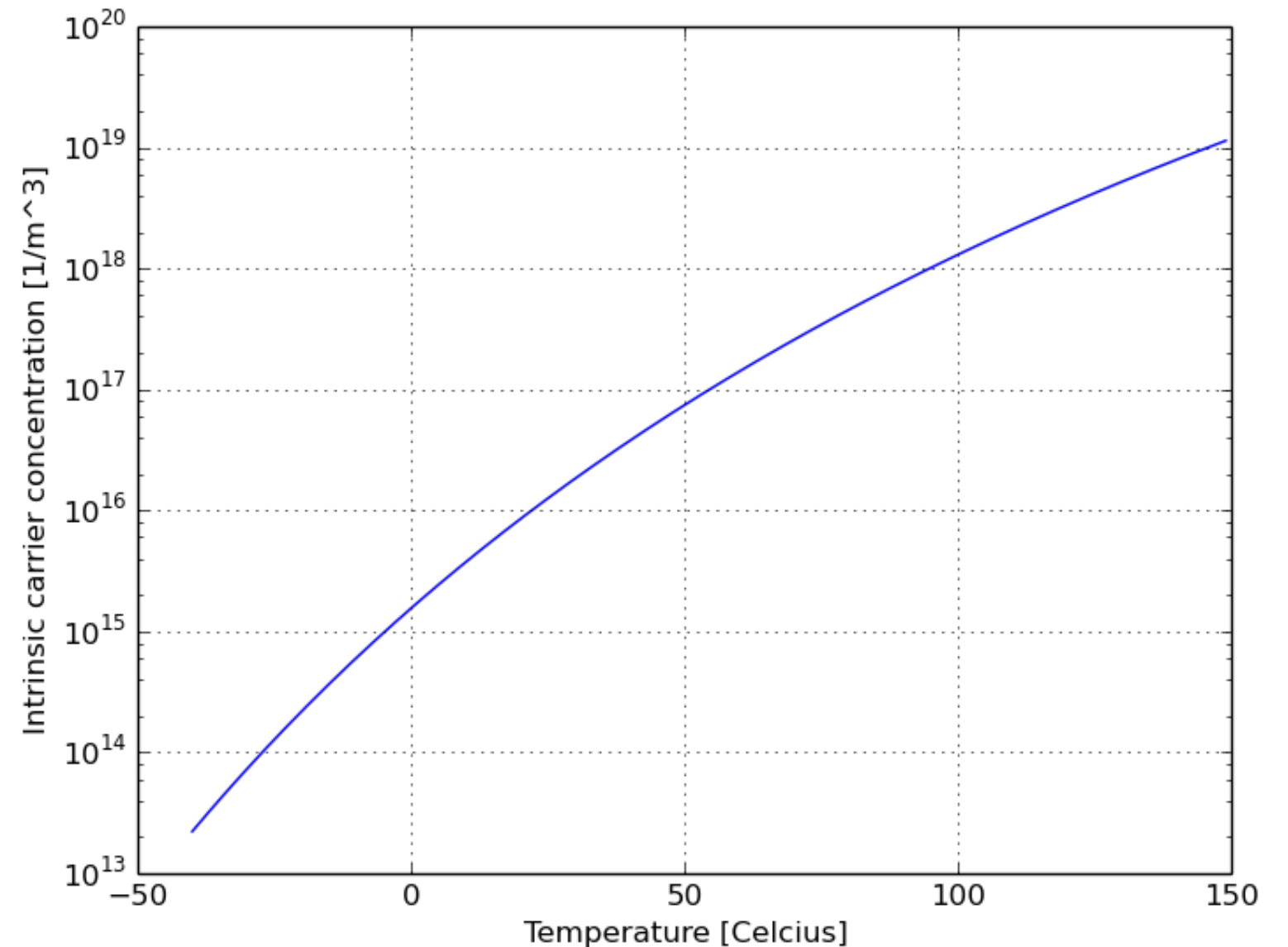
$$n_i^2 = n_0 p_0$$

$$n_i = \sqrt{N_C N_V} e^{\frac{-E_g}{2kT}}$$

$$N_C = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi m_n^* kT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2}$$

$$N_V = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi m_p^* kT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2}$$

[https://github.com/wulffern/dic2021/blob/main/2021-07-08\\_diodes/intrinsic.py](https://github.com/wulffern/dic2021/blob/main/2021-07-08_diodes/intrinsic.py)



Solid state physics:

$$n_i = \sqrt{N_C N_V} e^{\frac{-E_g}{2kT}}$$

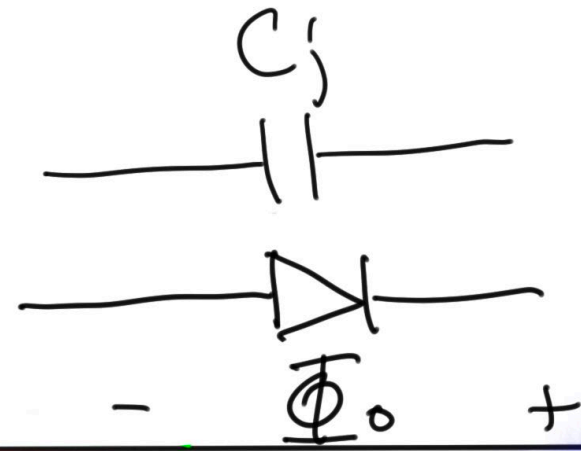
BSIM 4.8, Intrinsic carrier concentration (page 122)

$$n_i = 1.45e10 \frac{TNOM}{300.15} \sqrt{\frac{T}{300.15}} \exp \left[ 21.5565981 - \frac{qE_g(TNOM)}{2k_b T} \right]$$

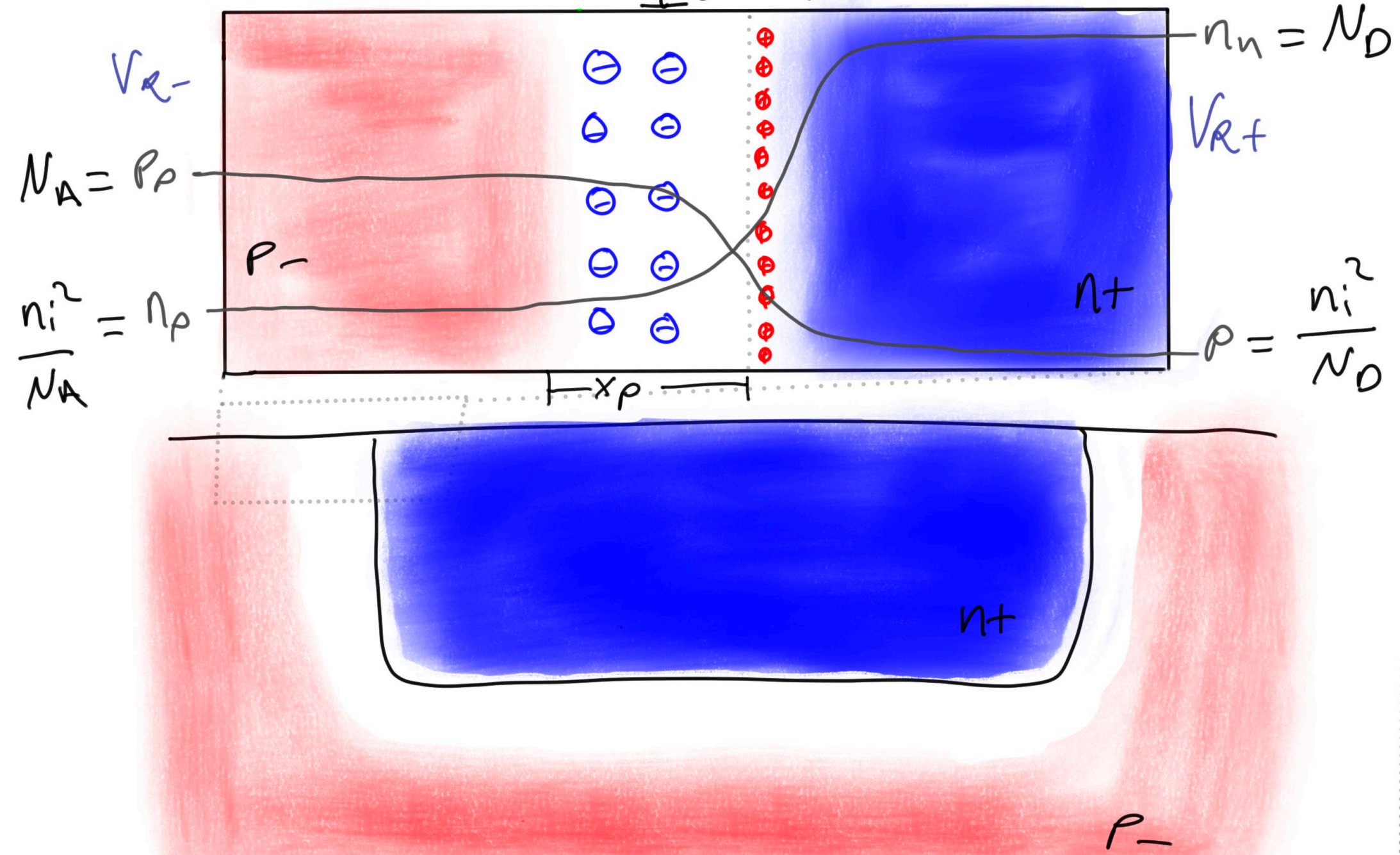
Group Period	→ 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1	1 H																	2 He
2	3 Li	4 Be											5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
3	11 Na	12 Mg											13 Al	14 Si	15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
4	19 K	20 Ca	21 Sc	22 Ti	23 V	24 Cr	25 Mn	26 Fe	27 Co	28 Ni	29 Cu	30 Zn	31 Ga	32 Ge	33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
5	37 Rb	38 Sr	39 Y	40 Zr	41 Nb	42 Mo	43 Tc	44 Ru	45 Rh	46 Pd	47 Ag	48 Cd	49 In	50 Sn	51 Sb	52 Te	53 I	54 Xe
6	55 Cs	56 Ba	* 71 Lu	72 Hf	73 Ta	74 W	75 Re	76 Os	77 Ir	78 Pt	79 Au	80 Hg	81 Tl	82 Pb	83 Bi	84 Po	85 At	86 Rn
7	87 Fr	88 Ra	* * 103 Lr	104 Rf	105 Db	106 Sg	107 Bh	108 Hs	109 Mt	110 Ds	111 Rg	112 Cn	113 Nh	114 Fl	115 Mc	116 Lv	117 Ts	118 Og
			* 57 La	58 Ce	59 Pr	60 Nd	61 Pm	62 Sm	63 Eu	64 Gd	65 Tb	66 Dy	67 Ho	68 Er	69 Tm	70 Yb		
			* 89 Ac	90 Th	91 Pa	92 U	93 Np	94 Pu	95 Am	96 Cm	97 Bk	98 Cf	99 Es	100 Fm	101 Md	102 No		



- ⊖ negative ions
- electron cons.
- hole cons.
- ⊕ positive ions



$$\frac{n_n}{n_p} = e^{\frac{q\Phi_0}{kT}}$$



$$N_D \gg N_A$$

$$x_p \approx \sqrt{\frac{2k_s\epsilon_0(\Phi_0 + V_R)}{qN_A}}$$

$$C_j = \frac{C_{j0}}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{V_R}{\Phi_0}}}$$

$$C_{j0} = \sqrt{\frac{qk_s\epsilon_0 N_A}{2\Phi_0}}$$

# Built in voltage

Comes from Fermi-Dirac statistics

$$\frac{n_n}{n_p} = \frac{e^{(E_p - \mu)/kT} + 1}{e^{(E_n - \mu)/kT} + 1} \approx e^{\frac{q\Phi_0}{kT}}$$

where  $q\Phi_0$  is the energy ( $E_p - E_n$ ) required to climb the potential barrier,  $kT$  is the thermal energy,  $\mu$  is the total chemical potential and  $n_n$  and  $n_p$  are the electron concentrations in the n-type and p-type.

$$\Phi_0 = V_T \ln \left( \frac{N_A N_D}{n_i^2} \right)$$

$$V_T = \frac{kT}{q}$$

$$I_{diode} = I_s (e^{V_D/V_T} - 1)$$



Sessame

Sesame is a Python3 package for solving the drift diffusion Poisson equations for multi-dimensional systems using finite differences.

## Install instructions

Semiconductor current-flow equations (diffusion and degeneracy),

R.Stratton,

IEEE Transactions on Electron Devices

<https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/1477063>

## Semiconductor Current-Flow Equations (Diffusion and Degeneracy)

ROBERT STRATTON

The correct form for the current-flow equation in semiconductors in the presence of density and temperature gradients, as well as electric fields, is derived from a perturbation solution of Boltzmann's equation. The conditions under which the various widely used approximate forms of the current-flow equation are valid are clearly discussed. A new term that occurs if the relaxation time depends on position is derived, and is shown to be comparable in magnitude to the other terms in the current-flow equation.

Manuscript received March 15, 1972; revised July 20, 1972.  
The author is with Texas Instruments, Inc., Dallas, Tex. 75222.

### I. INTRODUCTION

THE ANALYSIS of the electrical characteristics of semiconductor devices invariably involves the electron current-flow equation, i.e.,

$$j = j_F + j_D \quad (1)$$

where  $j_F$  is the conduction current due to the electric field  $F$  and  $j_D$  is the diffusion current, as one of a set of simultaneous equations that must be solved for a given

## Grid

Each axis of the grid is a concatenation of sets of evenly spaced nodes. Edit the form with (x1, x2, number of nodes), (x2, x3 number of nodes),...

Grid x-axis  cm

Grid y-axis  cm

## Illumination

monochromatic  1 sun

Wavelength [nm]

Power [W cm<sup>-2</sup>]

## Absorption

User defined  from file

alpha [cm<sup>-1</sup>]

absorption file

## Manual Generation rate

Use manual generation

Provide a number for uniform illumination, or a space-dependent function, or simply nothing for dark conditions.

A single variable parameter is allowed and will be looped over during the simulation.

Expression [cm<sup>-3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>]

Parameter name

## Materials

Material 1

Save a material before adding a new one.

Location

Tip: Define the region for  $y < 1.5 \mu\text{m}$  or  $y > 2.5 \mu\text{m}$  with  $(y < 1.5e-6) | (y > 2.5e-6)$ . Use the bitwise operators `|` for 'or', `&` for 'and'.

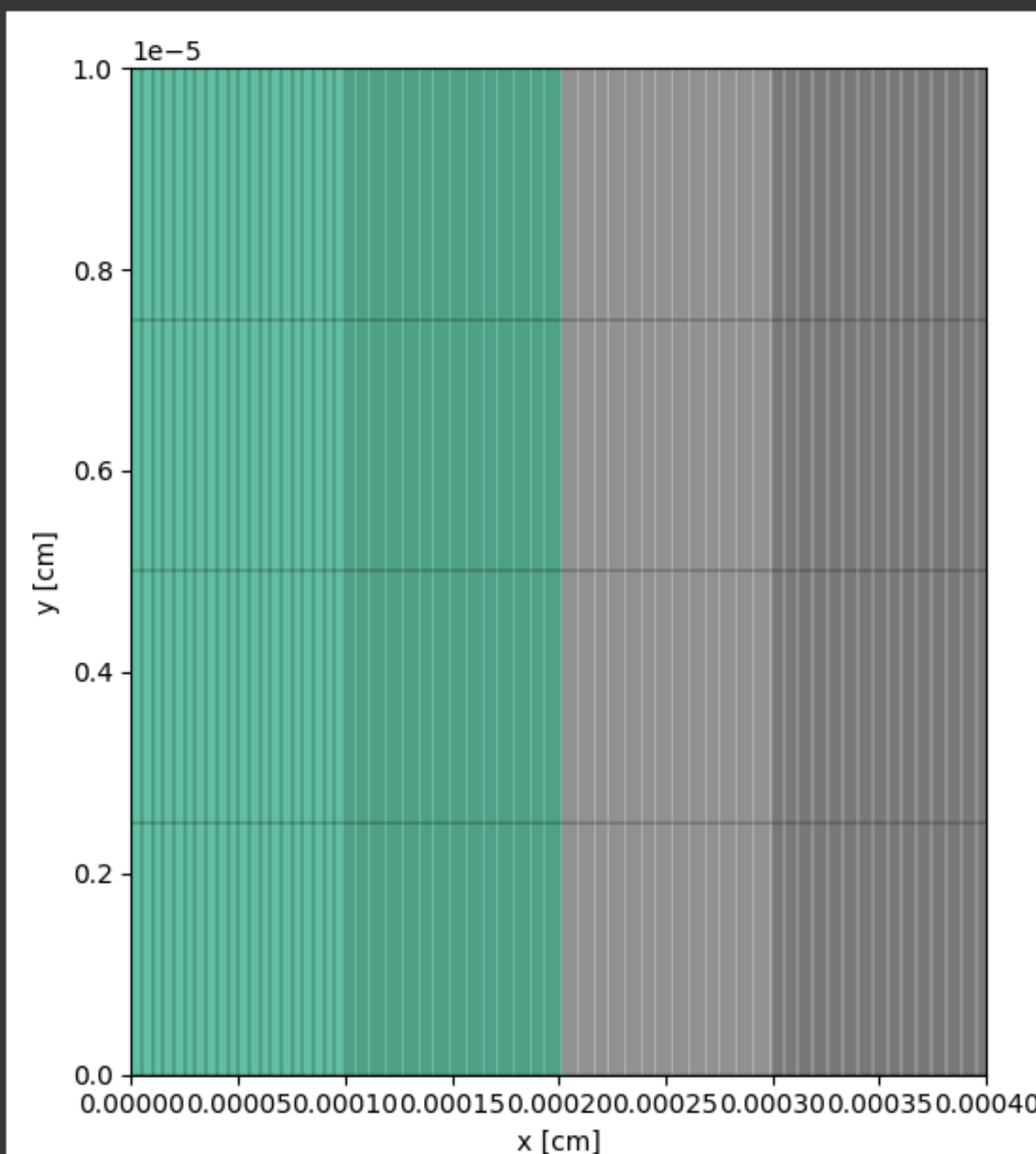
	Value	Unit
N_D	0.0	cm <sup>-3</sup>
N_A	1e+15	cm <sup>-3</sup>
Nc	3.2e+19	cm <sup>-3</sup>
Nv	1.8e+19	cm <sup>-3</sup>
Eg	1.1	eV
epsilon	11.8	NA

## Planar Defects

Save a defect before adding a new one.

Location

## View system



## Basic settings

Loop over  Voltages  Generation ratesLoop values Working directory  Output file name   

## Boundary conditions

Contact boundary conditions at x=0  Ohmic  Schottky  Neutral

Electron recombination velocity in x=0 [cm/s]

Hole recombination velocity in x=0 [cm/s]

Metal work function [eV]

Contact boundary conditions at x=L  Ohmic  Schottky  Neutral

Electron recombination velocity in x=L [cm/s]

Hole recombination velocity in x=L [cm/s]

Metal work function [eV]

Transverse boundary conditions  Periodic  Hardwall

## Algorithm settings

Generation ramp  Algorithm precision Maximum steps  Mumps library  Yes  NoIterative solver  Yes  NoIterative solver precision Newton homotopy  

## Simulation log

```

INFO: step 25,error = 0.9999995808573537
INFO: step 26,error = 0.9999988596577988
INFO: step 27,error = 0.999996898179034
INFO: step 28,error = 0.9999915642702679
INFO: step 29,error = 0.999977061282639
INFO: step 30,error = 0.9999376312764978
INFO: step 31,error = 0.9998304427570286
INFO: step 32,error = 0.9995391106703418
INFO: step 33,error = 0.9987476260090542
INFO: step 34,error = 0.9965997108182367
INFO: step 35,error = 0.9907879485052914
INFO: step 36,error = 0.9751877095968543
INFO: step 37,error = 0.9342041943279747
INFO: step 38,error = 0.8325334222710672
INFO: step 39,error = 0.614963842698804
INFO: step 40,error = 0.28784490108657
INFO: step 41,error = 0.05031109907804321
INFO: step 42,error = 0.001309360091800371
INFO: step 43,error = 8.591859291703617e-07
INFO: ** Calculations completed successfully **

```

## Import data

Upload files...

Remove selected

pndiode\_0.gzip  
pndiode\_1.gzip  
pndiode\_2.gzip

## Surface plot

Hole density

Plot

## Linear plot

X data  Loop values  Position

(0,0),(3.8e-4,0)

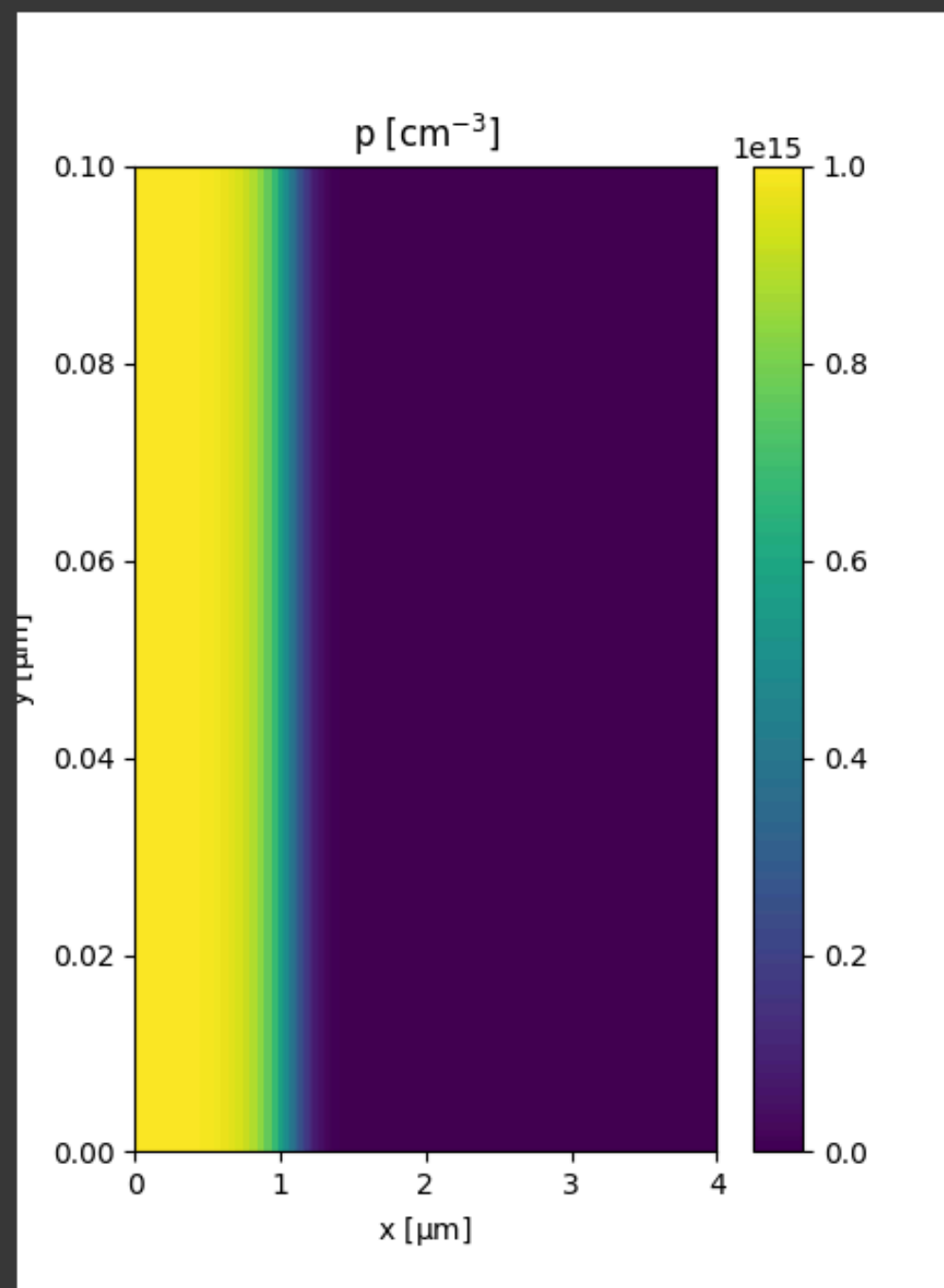
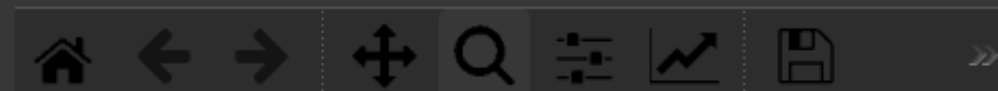
Y data Hole density

Clear

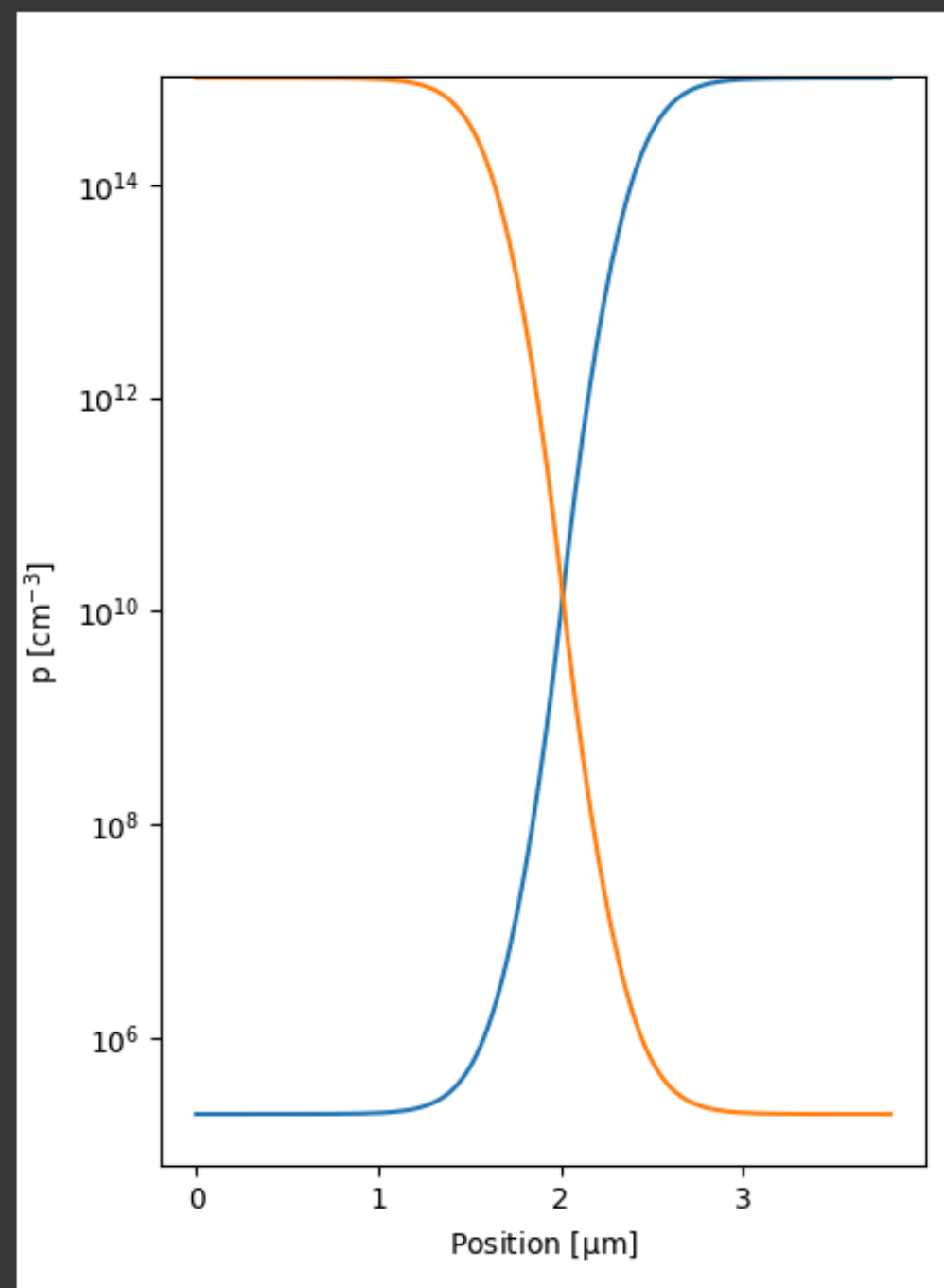
Plot

Export

## Surface plot

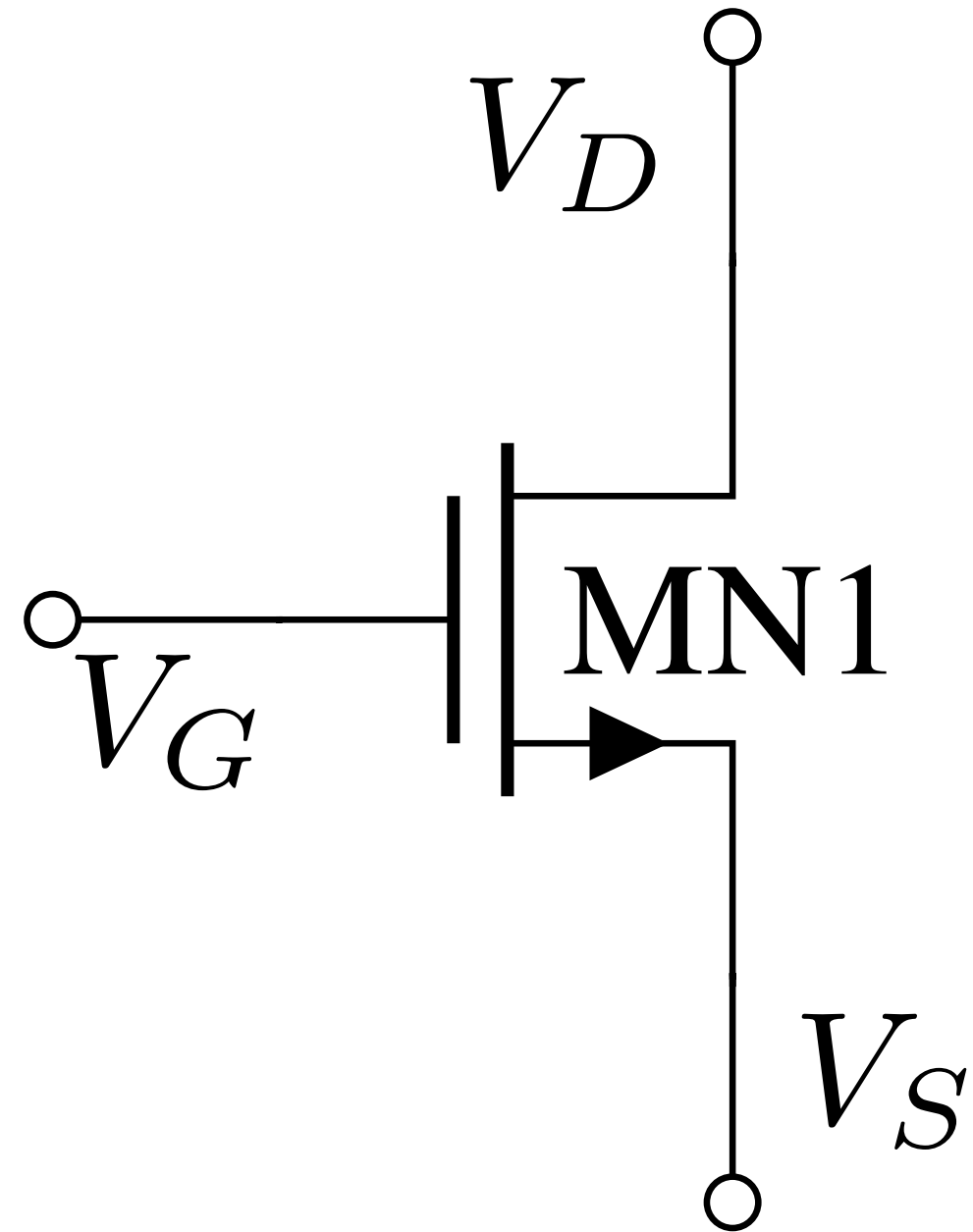


## Linear plot

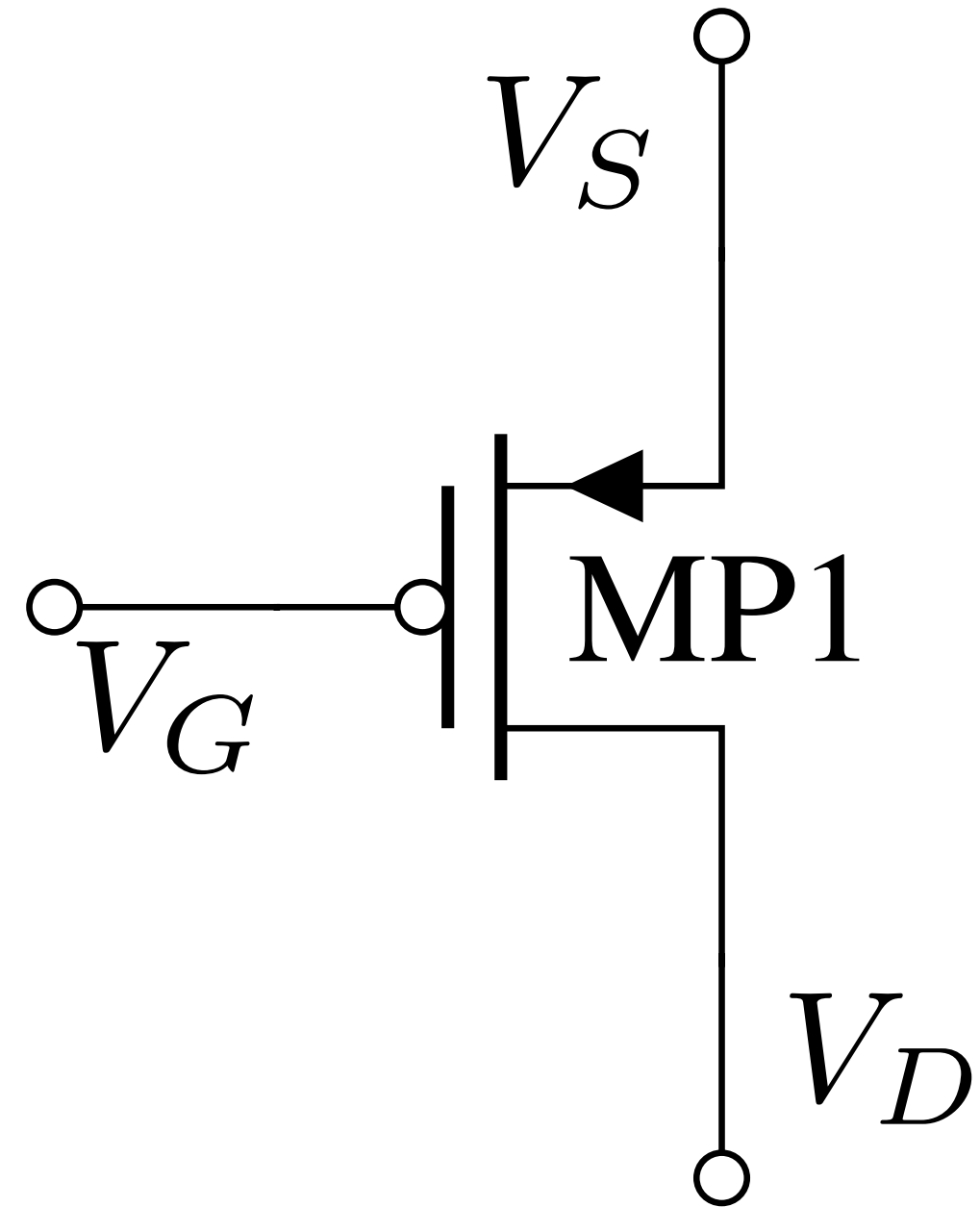


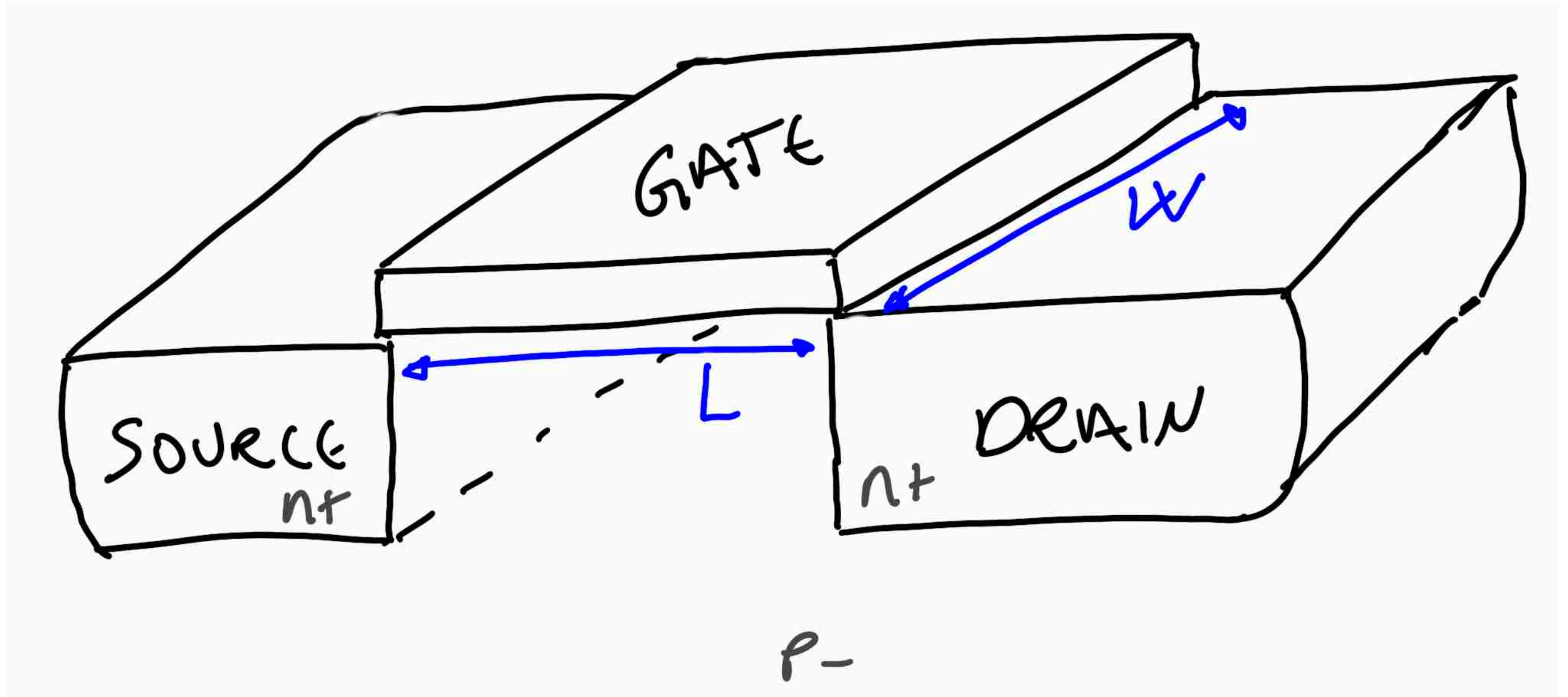
# Mosfets

NMOS conduct for positive gate-to-source voltage



PMOS conduct for negative gate-to-source voltage





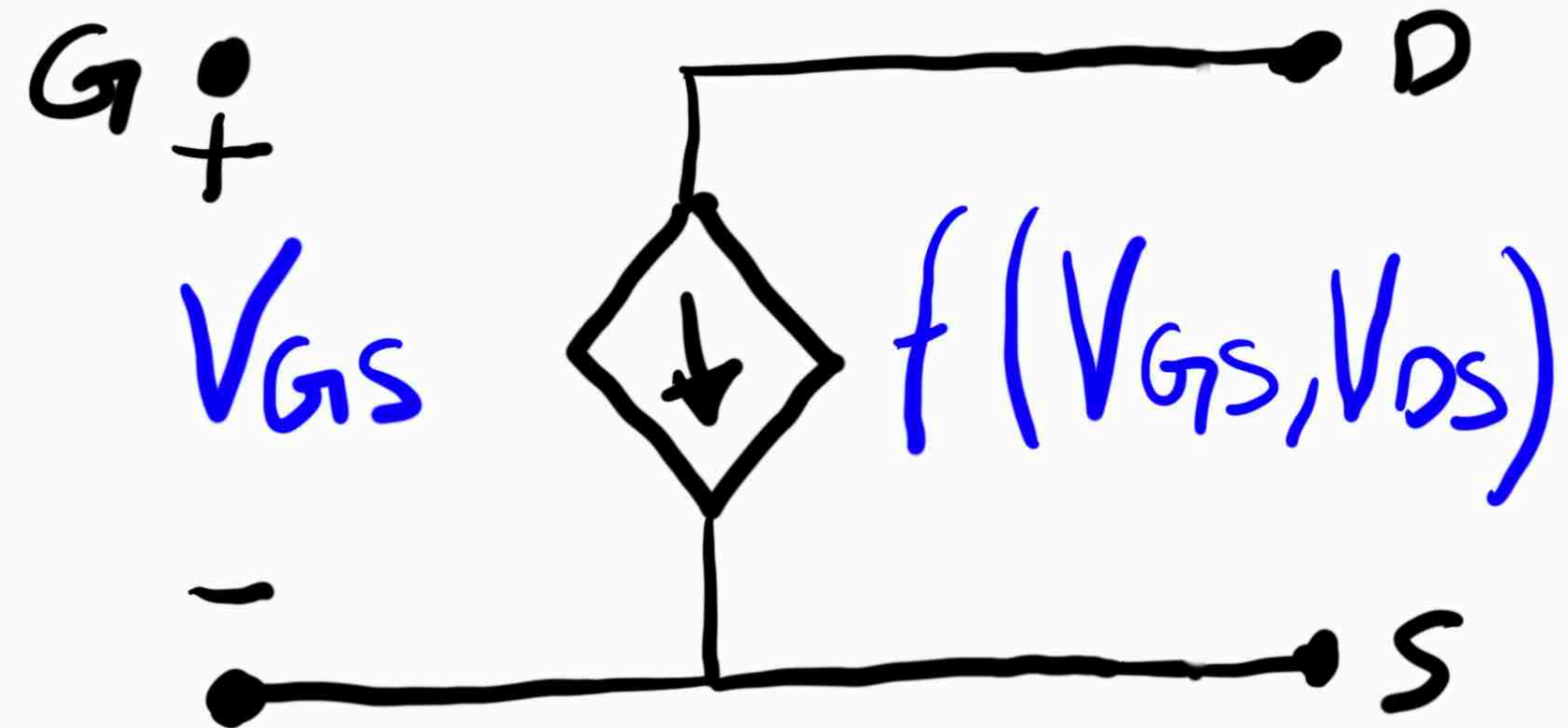


# Drain Source Current ( $I_{DS}$ )

`dicex/sim/spice/NCHIO`

# Large signal model

$$I_{DS} = f(V_{GS}, V_{DS}, \dots)$$

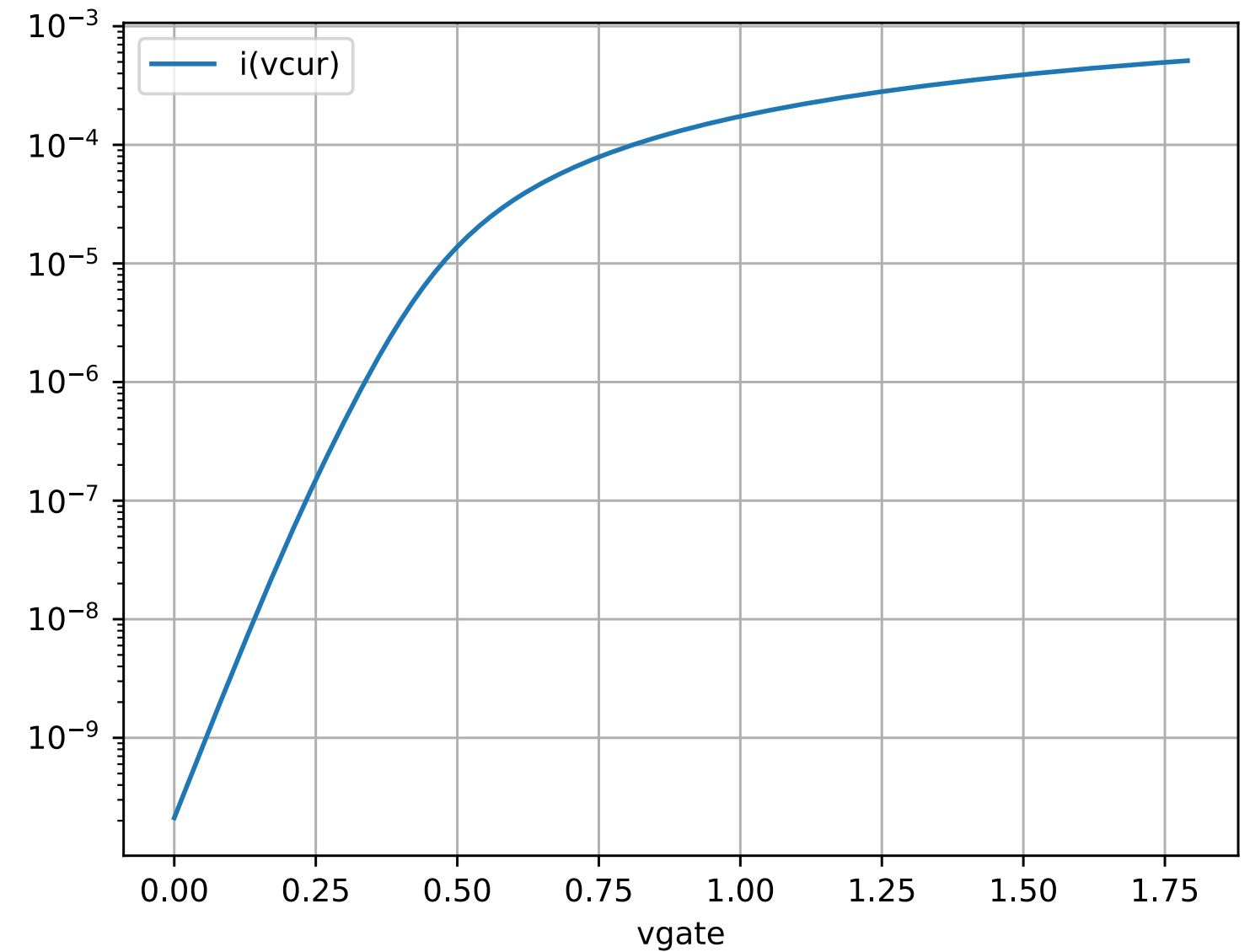


# Gate Source Voltage ( $V_{GS}$ )

# Gate-source voltage

Param	Voltage [V]
$V_{GS}$	0 to 1.8
$V_{DS}$	1.0
$V_S$	0
$V_B$	0

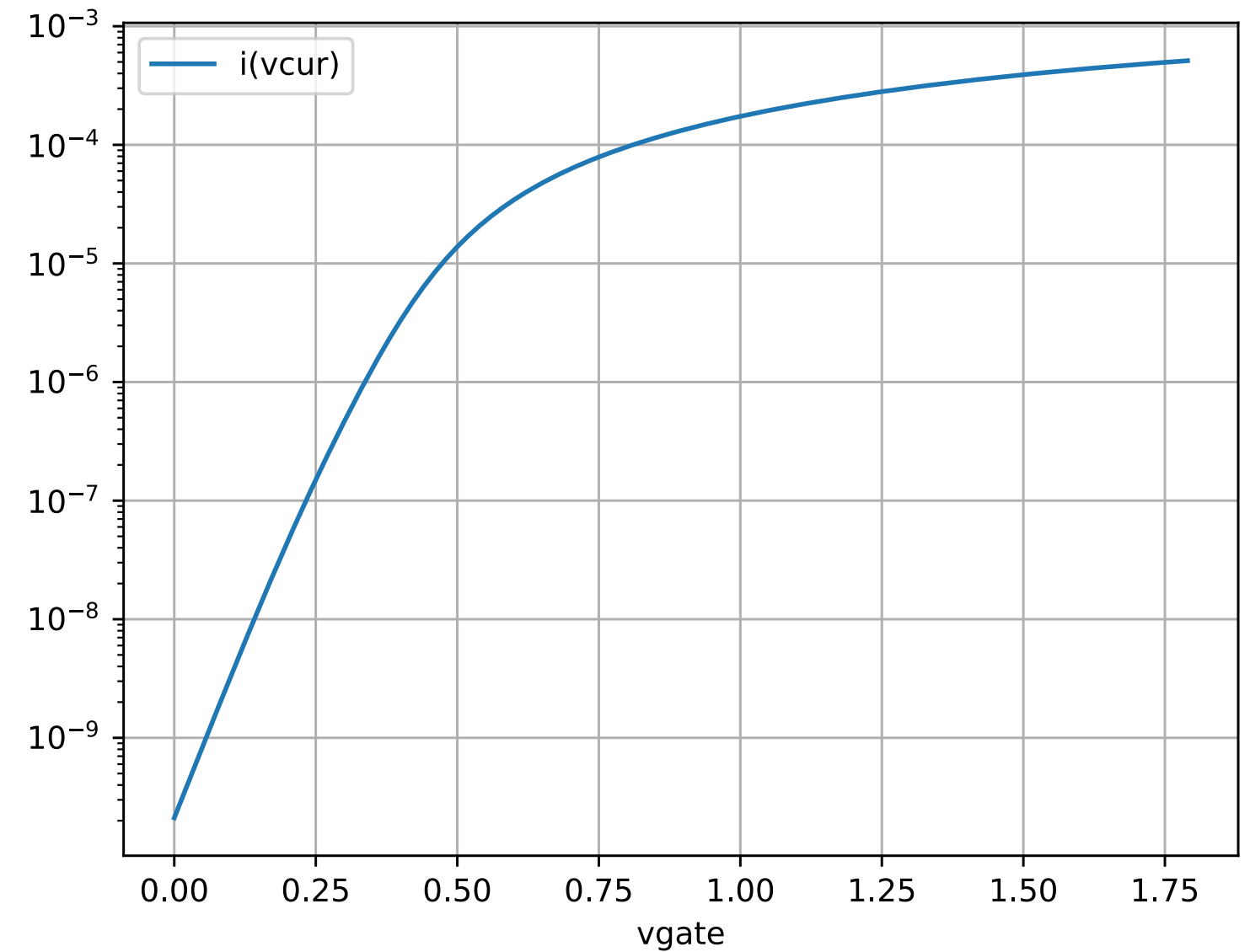
$$i(vcur) = I_{DS}$$



# Inversion level

Define  $V_{eff} \equiv V_{GS} - V_{tn}$ , where  $V_{tn}$  is the "threshold voltage"

$V_{eff}$	Inversion level
$< 0$	weak inversion or subthreshold
$0$	moderate inversion
$> 100 \text{ mV}$	strong inversion

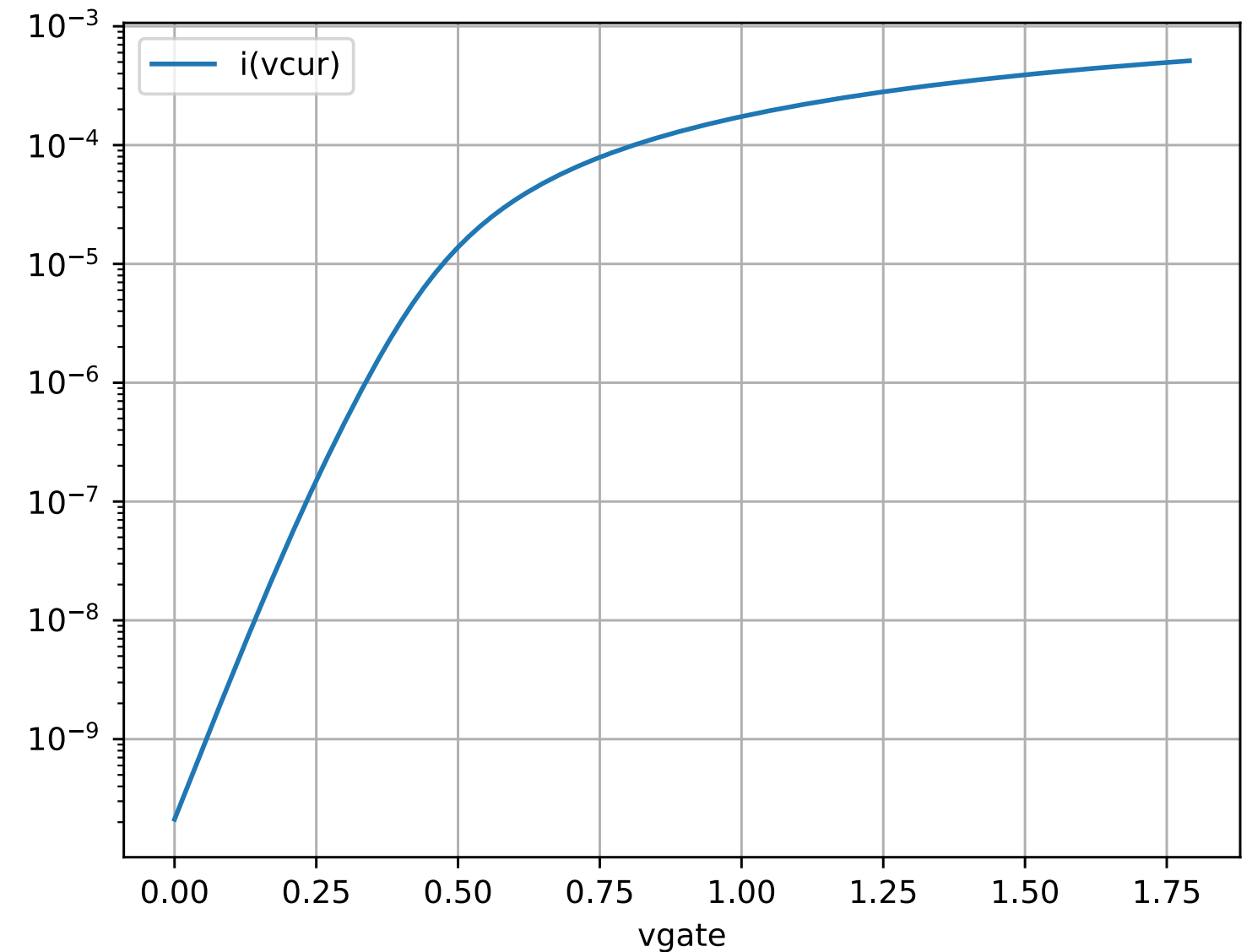


# Weak inversion

The drain current is low, but not zero,  
when  $V_{eff} \ll 0$

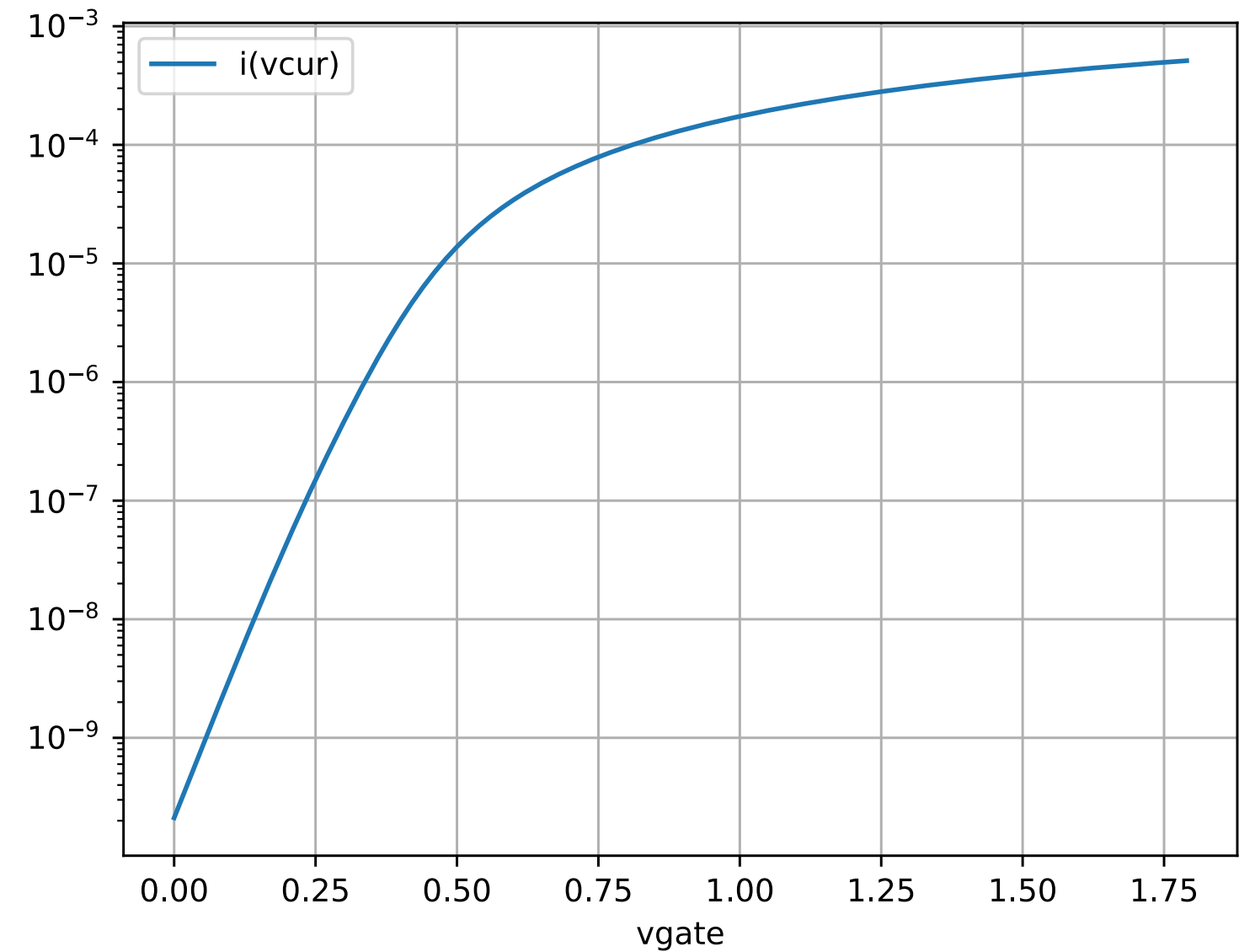
$$I_{DS} \approx I_{D0} \frac{W}{L} e^{V_{eff}/nV_T} \text{ if } V_{DS} > 3V_T$$

$$n \approx 1.5$$



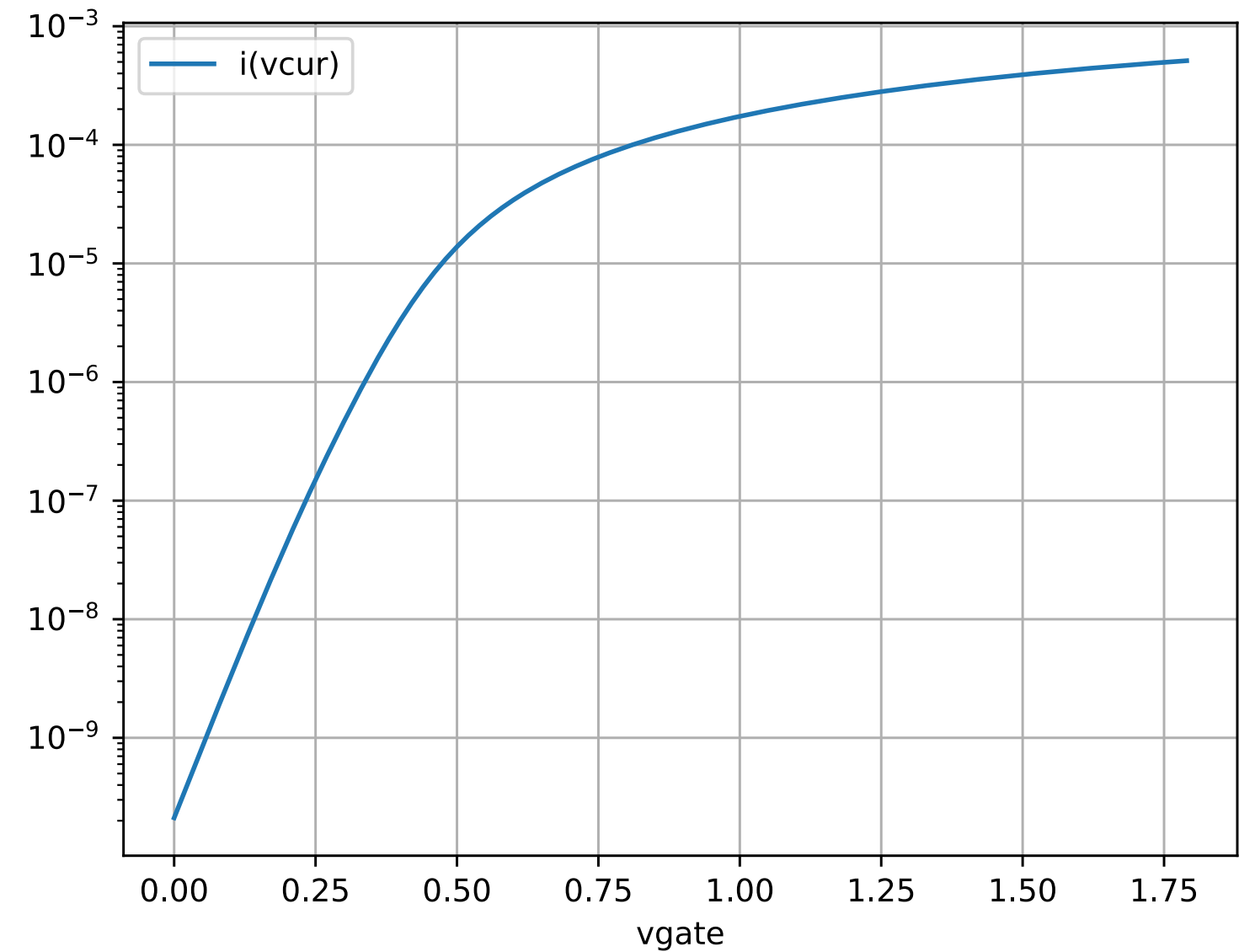
# Moderate inversion

Very useful region in real designs. Hard for hand-calculation. Trust the model.

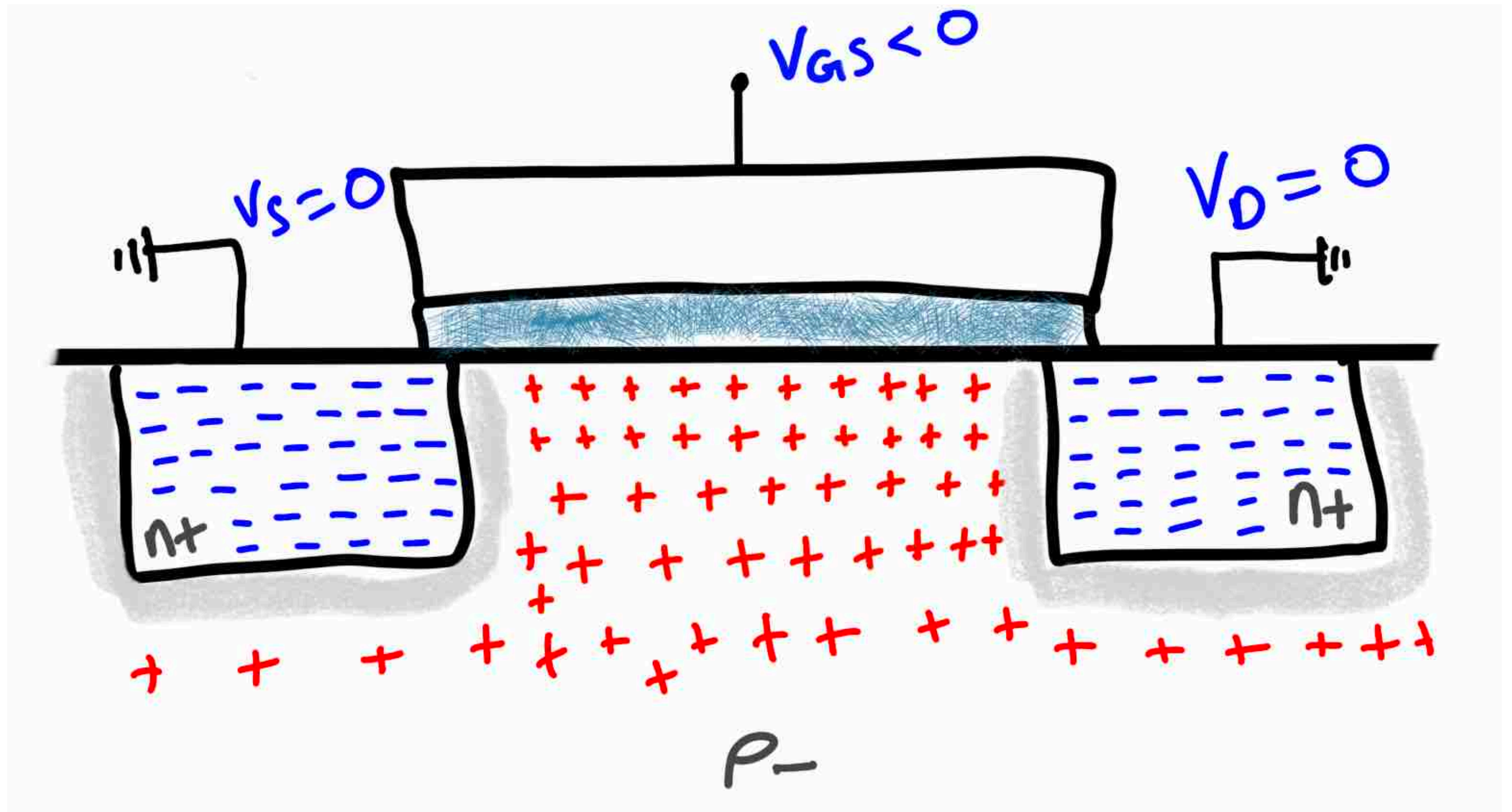


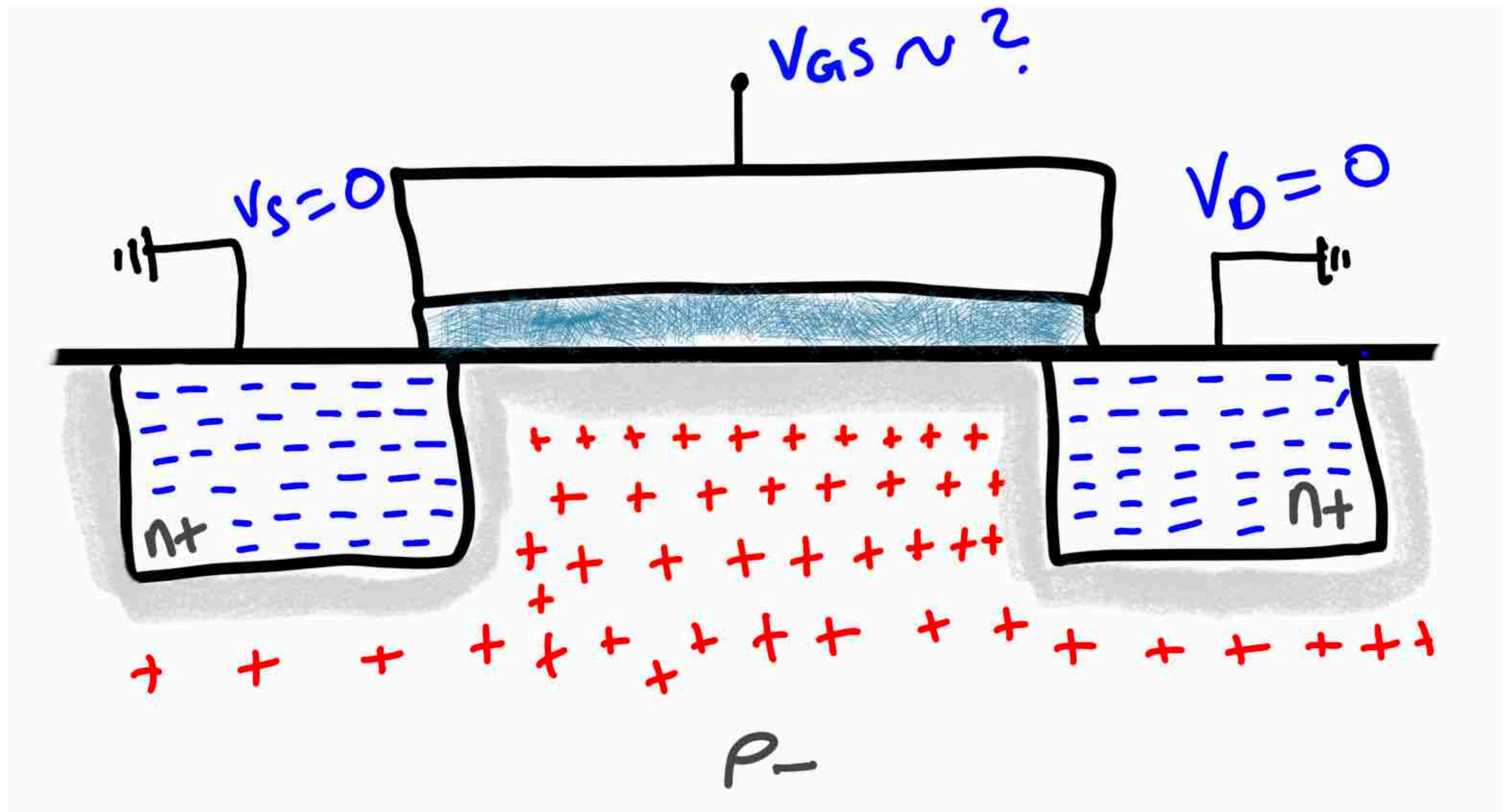
# Strong inversion

$$I_{DS} = \mu_n C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} \begin{cases} V_{eff} V_{DS} & \text{if } V_{DS} \ll V_{eff} \\ V_{eff} V_{DS} - V_{DS}^2/2 & \text{if } V_{DS} < V_{eff} \\ \frac{1}{2} V_{eff}^2 & \text{if } V_{DS} > V_{eff} \end{cases}$$

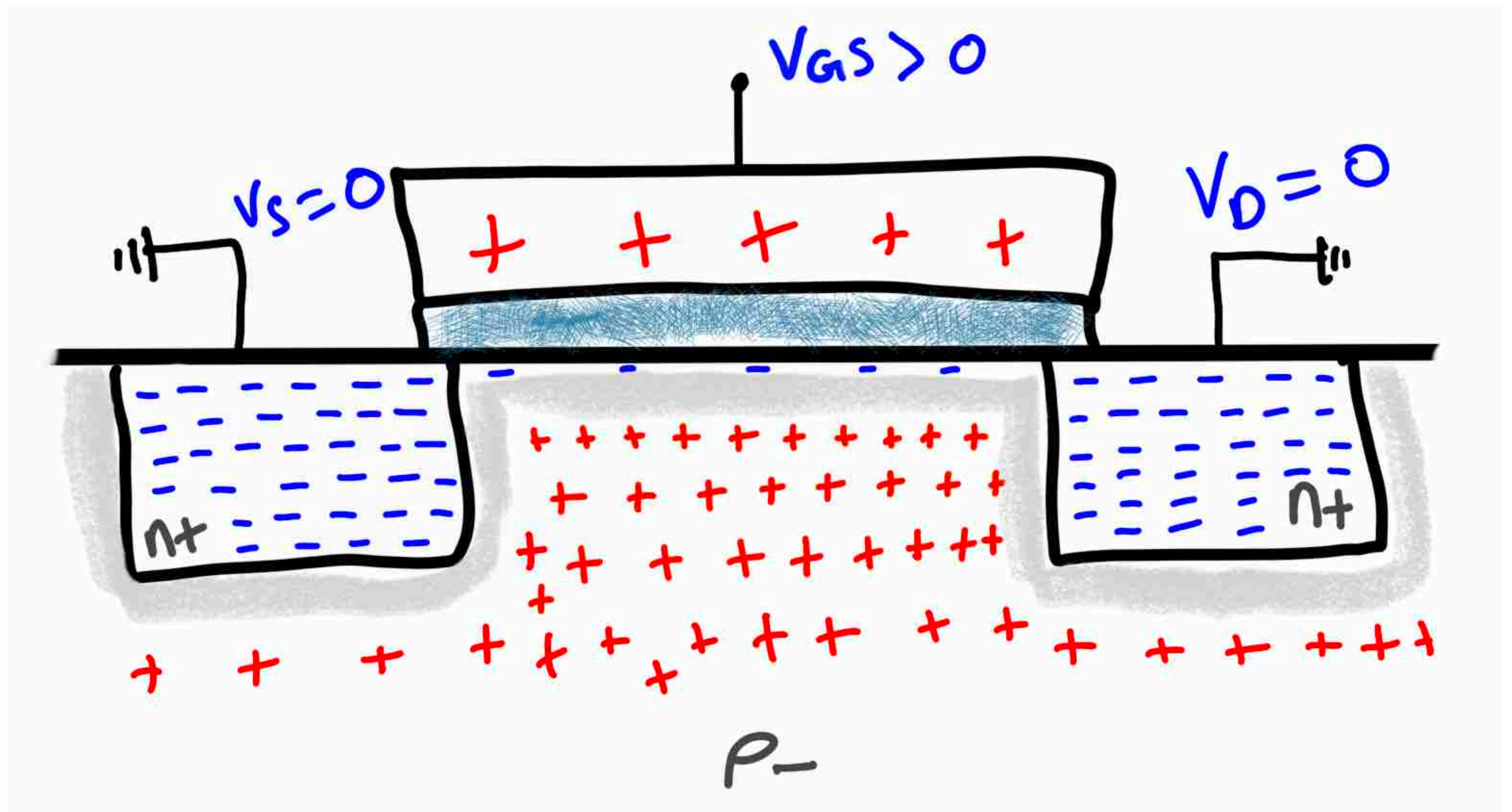


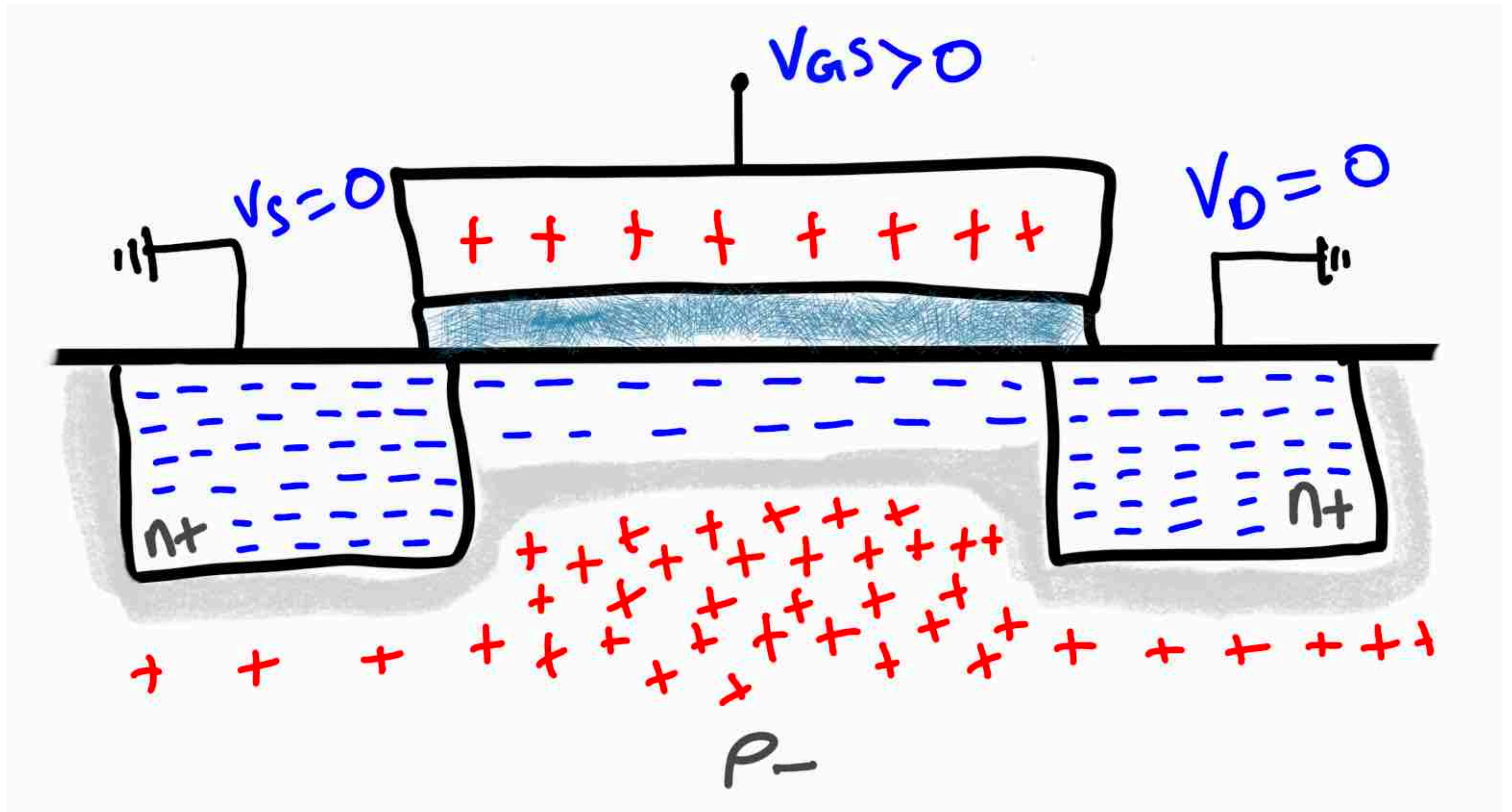










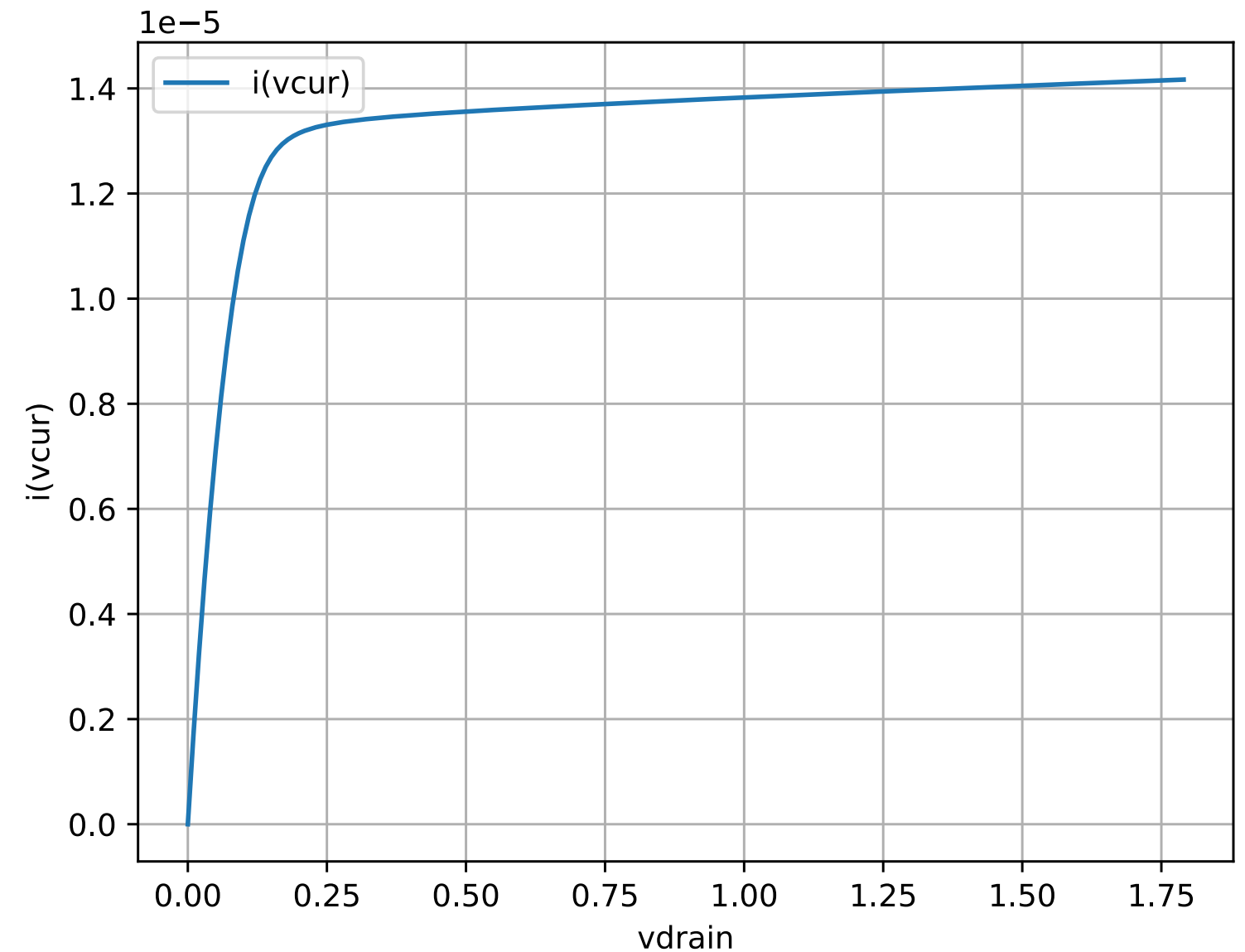


The threshold voltage ( $V_{tn}$ ) is defined as  $p_p = n_{ch}$

# Drain-source voltage

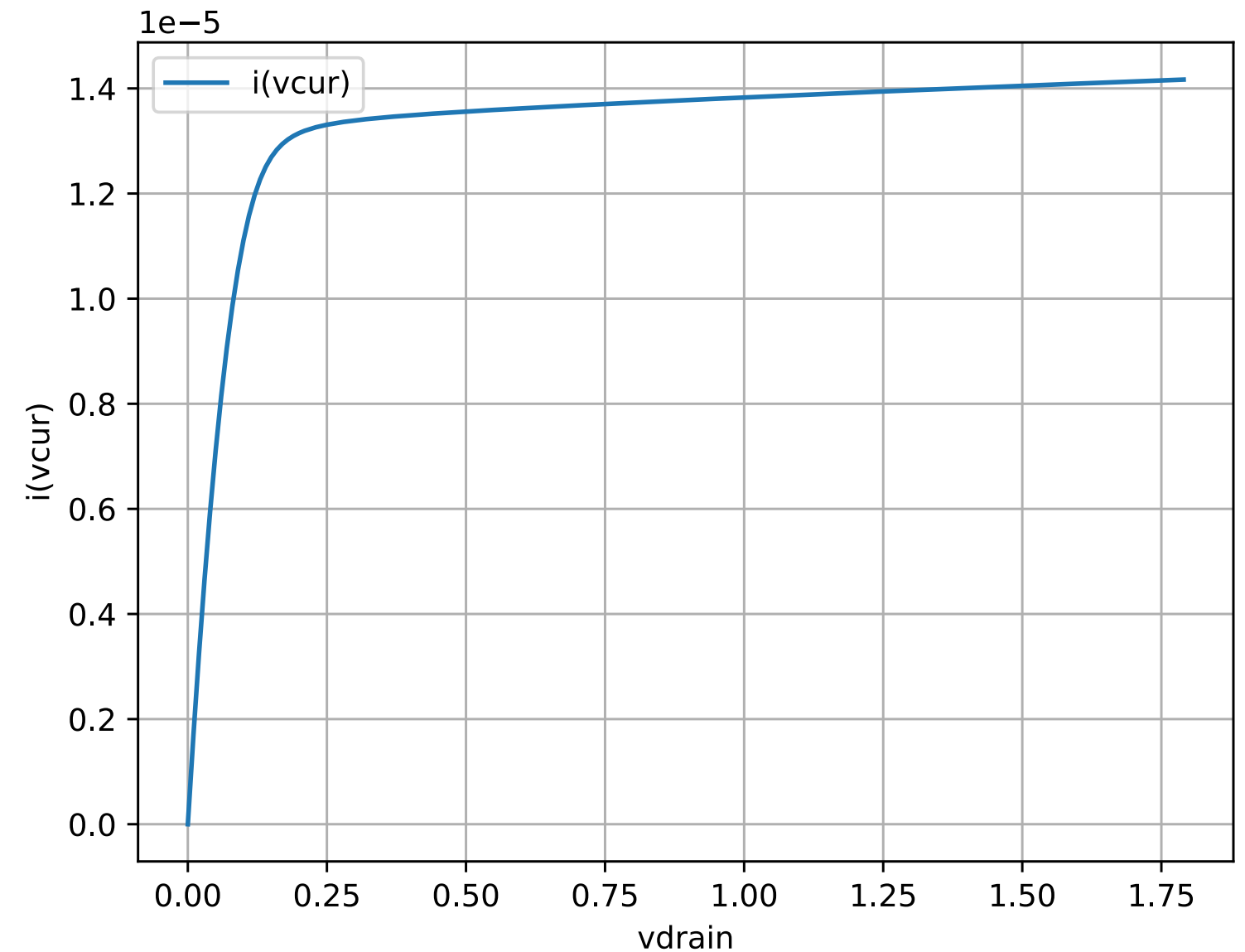
Param	Voltage [V]
$V_{GS}$	0.5
$V_{DS}$	0 to 1.8
$V_S$	0
$V_B$	0

$$i(vcur) = I_{DS}$$

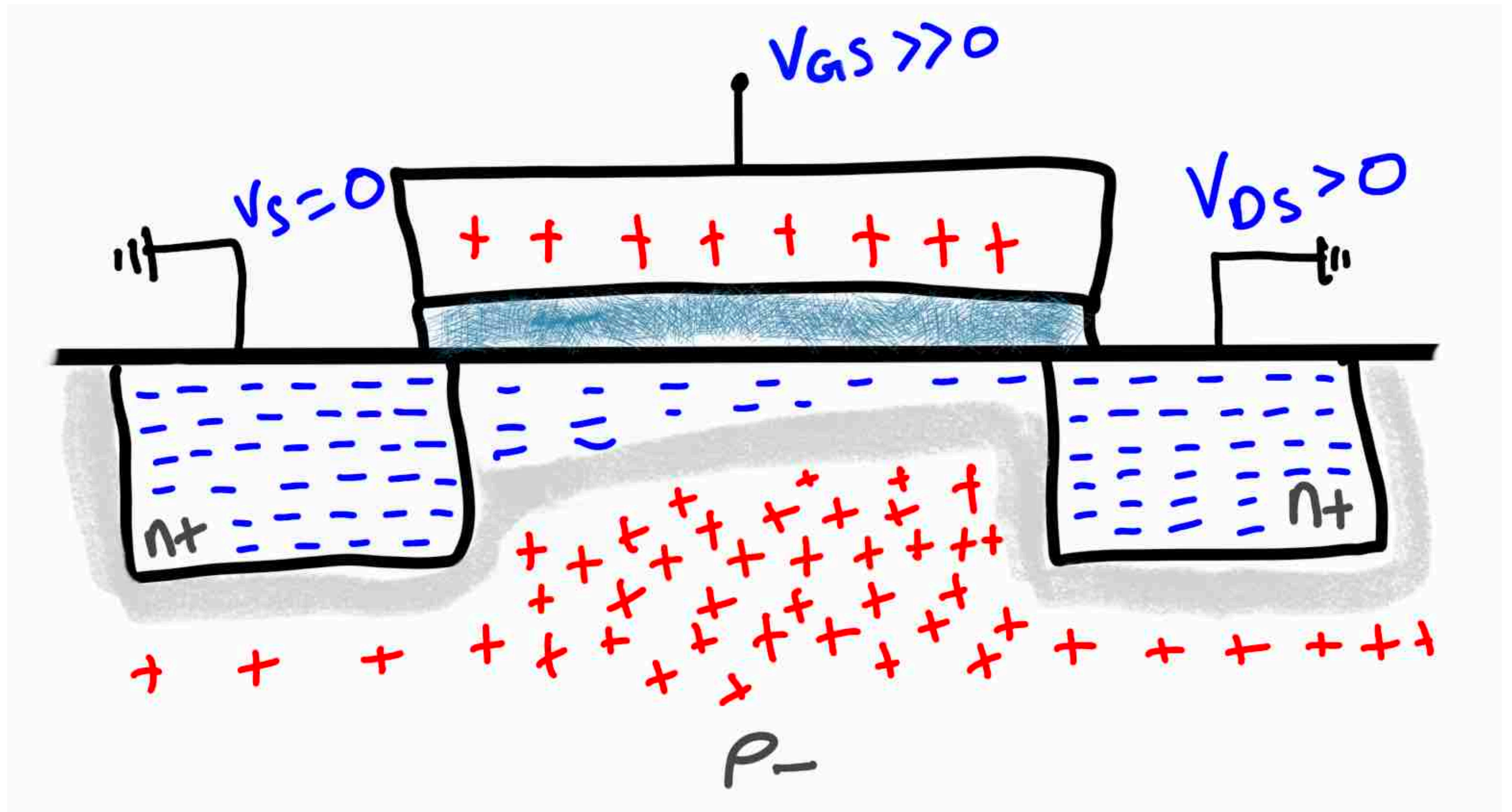


# Strong inversion

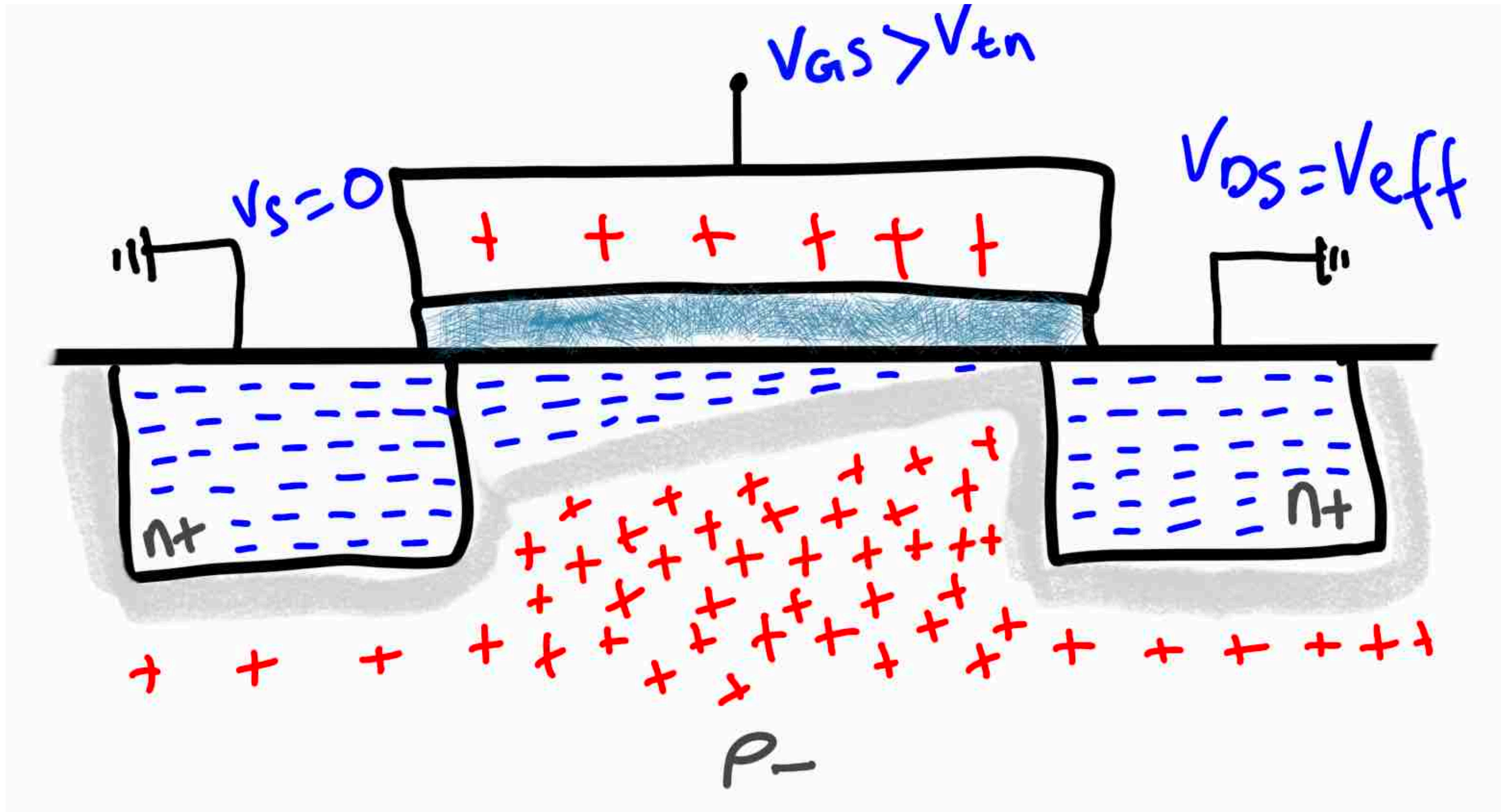
$$I_{DS} = \mu_n C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} \begin{cases} V_{eff} V_{DS} & \text{if } V_{DS} \ll V_{eff} \\ V_{eff} V_{DS} - V_{DS}^2/2 & \text{if } V_{DS} < V_{eff} \\ \frac{1}{2} V_{eff}^2 & \text{if } V_{DS} > V_{eff} \end{cases}$$

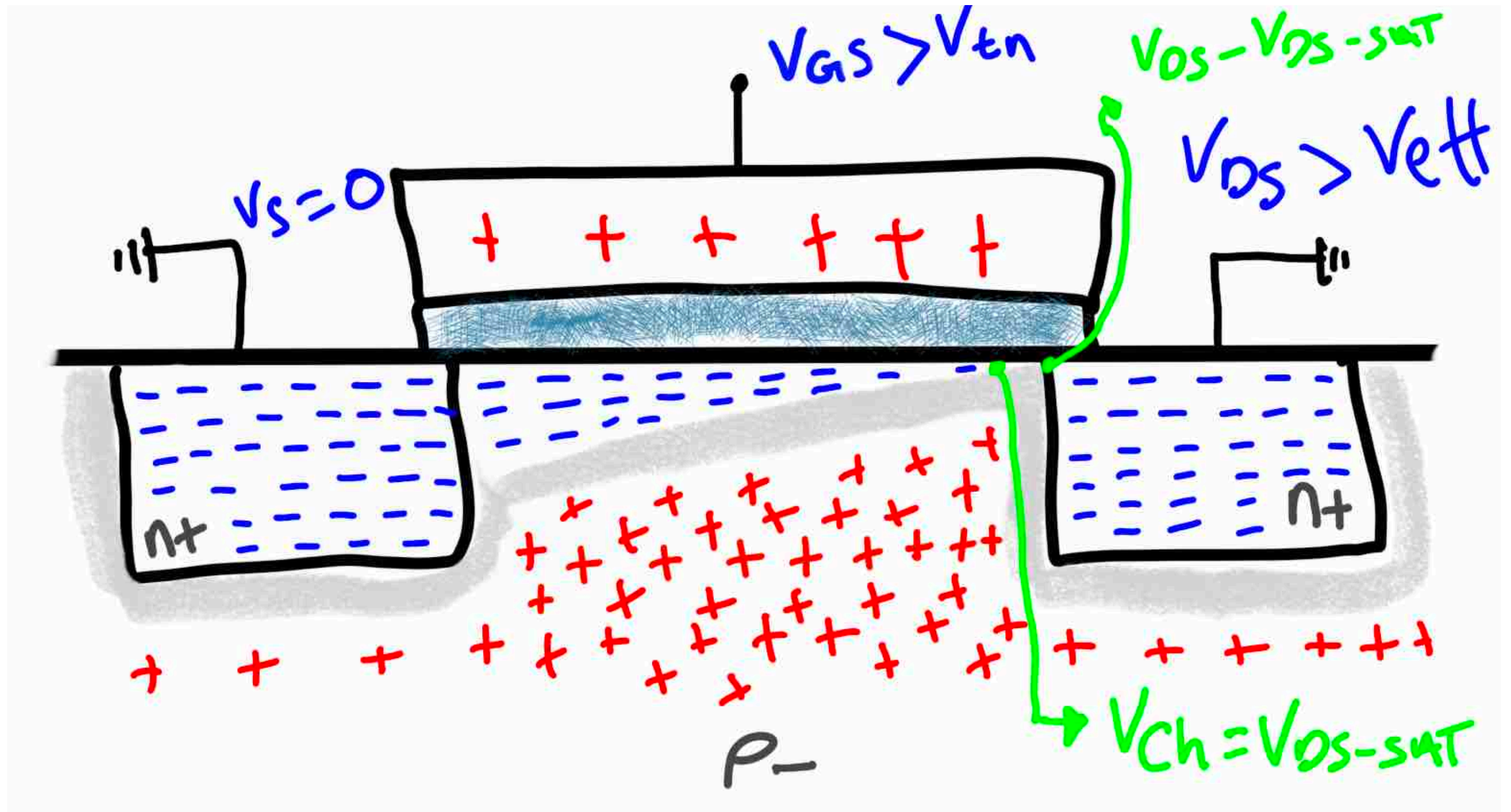




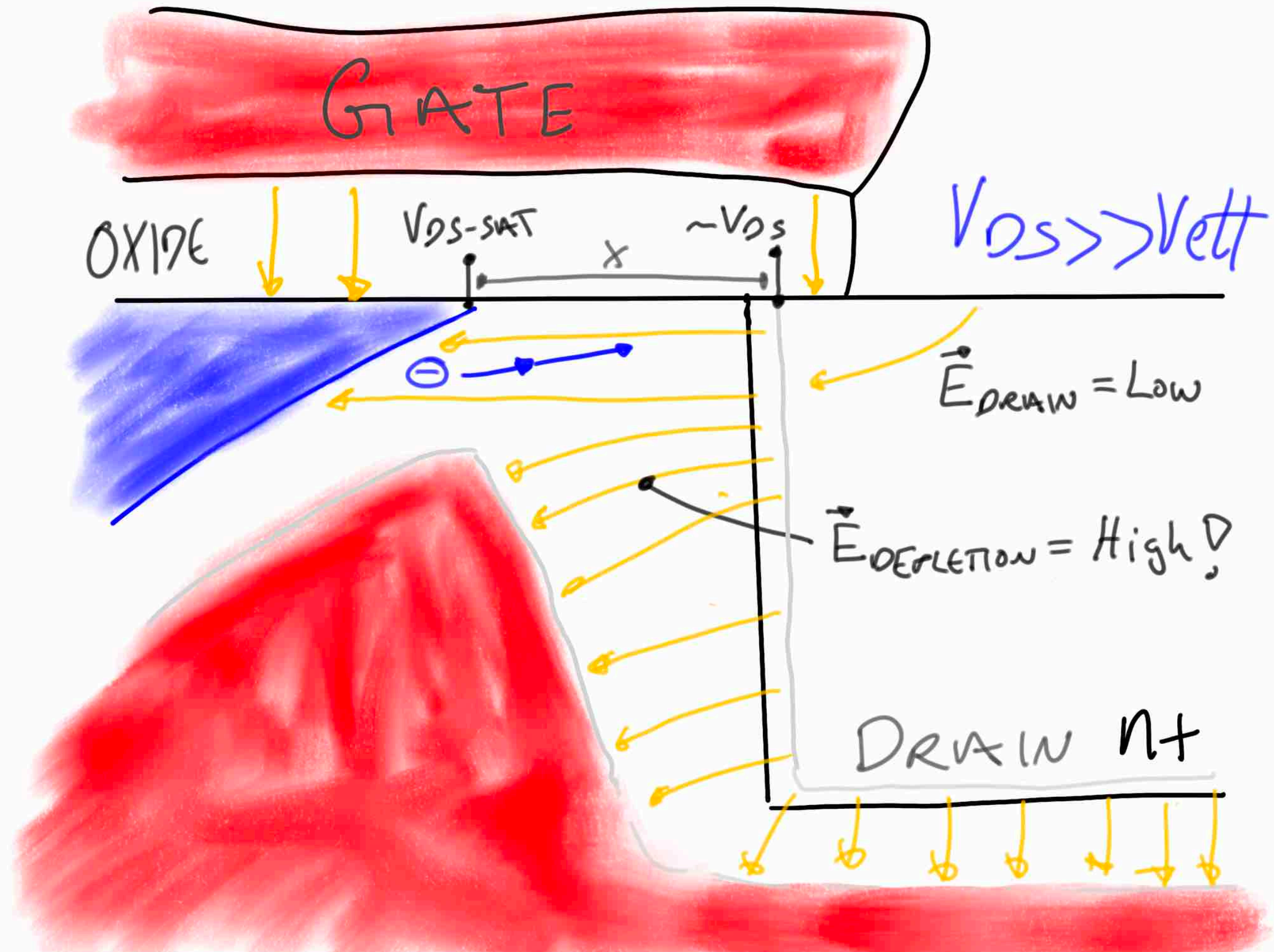








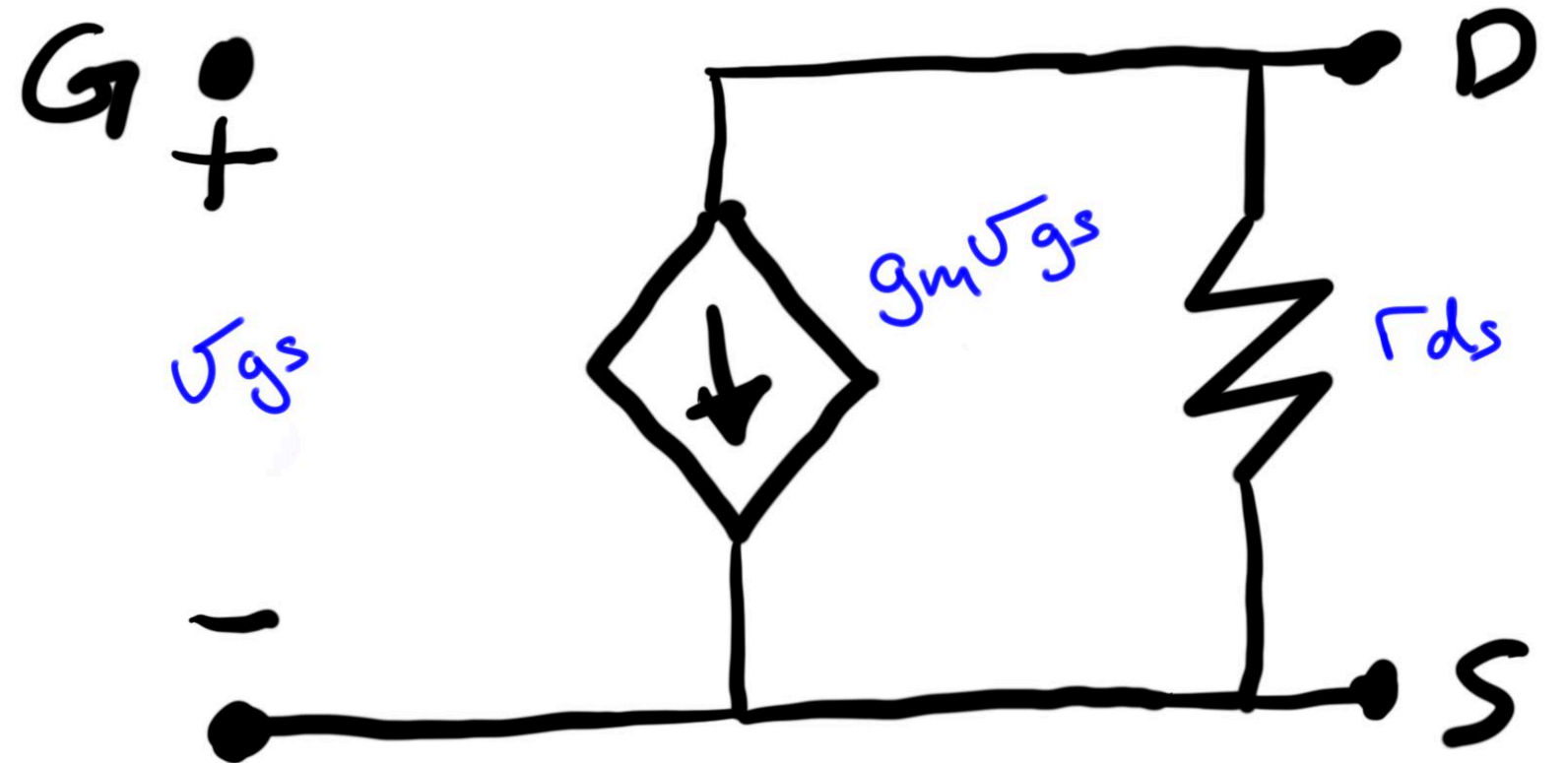




# Low frequency model

$$g_m = \frac{\partial I_{DS}}{\partial V_{GS}}$$

$$g_{ds} = \frac{1}{r_{ds}} = \frac{\partial I_{DS}}{\partial V_{DS}}$$



# Transconductance ( $g_m$ )

Define  $\ell = \mu_n C_{ox} \frac{W}{L}$  and  $V_{eff} = V_{GS} - V_{tn}$

$$I_D = \frac{1}{2} \ell (V_{eff})^2 \text{ and } V_{eff} = \sqrt{\frac{2I_D}{\ell}} \text{ and } \ell = \frac{2I_D}{V_{eff}^2}$$

$$g_m = \frac{\partial I_{DS}}{\partial V_{GS}} = \ell V_{eff} = \sqrt{2\ell I_D}$$

$$g_m = \ell V_{eff} = 2 \frac{I_D}{V_{eff}^2} V_{eff} = \frac{2I_D}{V_{eff}}$$

Define  $\ell = \mu_n C_{ox} \frac{W}{L}$  and  $V_{eff} = V_{GS} - V_{tn}$

$$I_D = \frac{1}{2} \ell V_{eff}^2 [1 + \lambda V_{DS} - \lambda V_{eff}]$$

$$\frac{1}{r_{ds}} = g_{ds} = \frac{\partial I_D}{\partial V_{DS}} = \lambda \frac{1}{2} \ell V_{eff}^2$$

Assume channel length modulation is not there, then

$$I_D = \frac{1}{2} \ell V_{eff}^2 \text{ which means } \frac{1}{r_{ds}} = g_{ds} \approx \lambda I_D$$

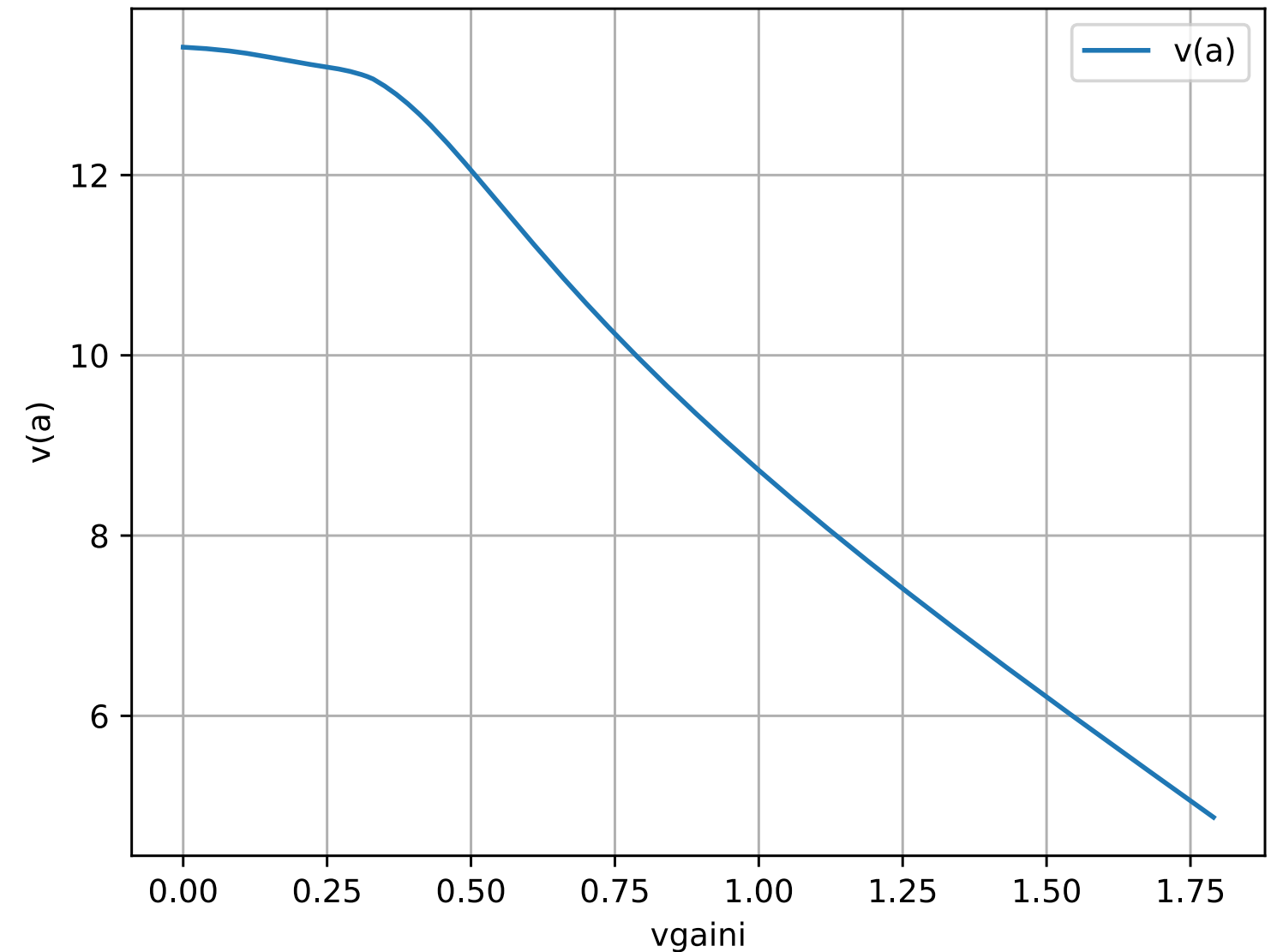
# Intrinsic gain

Define intrinsic gain as

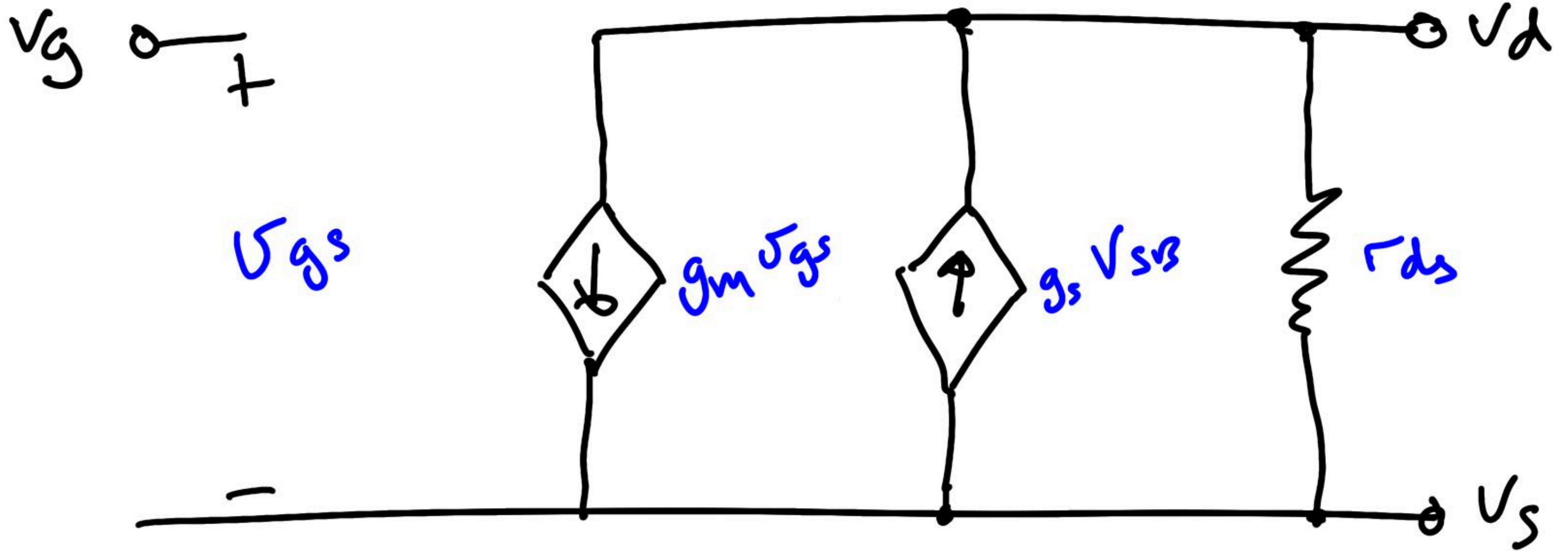
$$A = \left| \frac{v_{out}}{v_{in}} \right| = g_m r_{ds} = \frac{g_m}{g_{ds}}$$

$$A = \frac{2I_D}{V_{eff}} \times \frac{1}{\lambda I_D} = \frac{2}{\lambda V_{eff}}$$

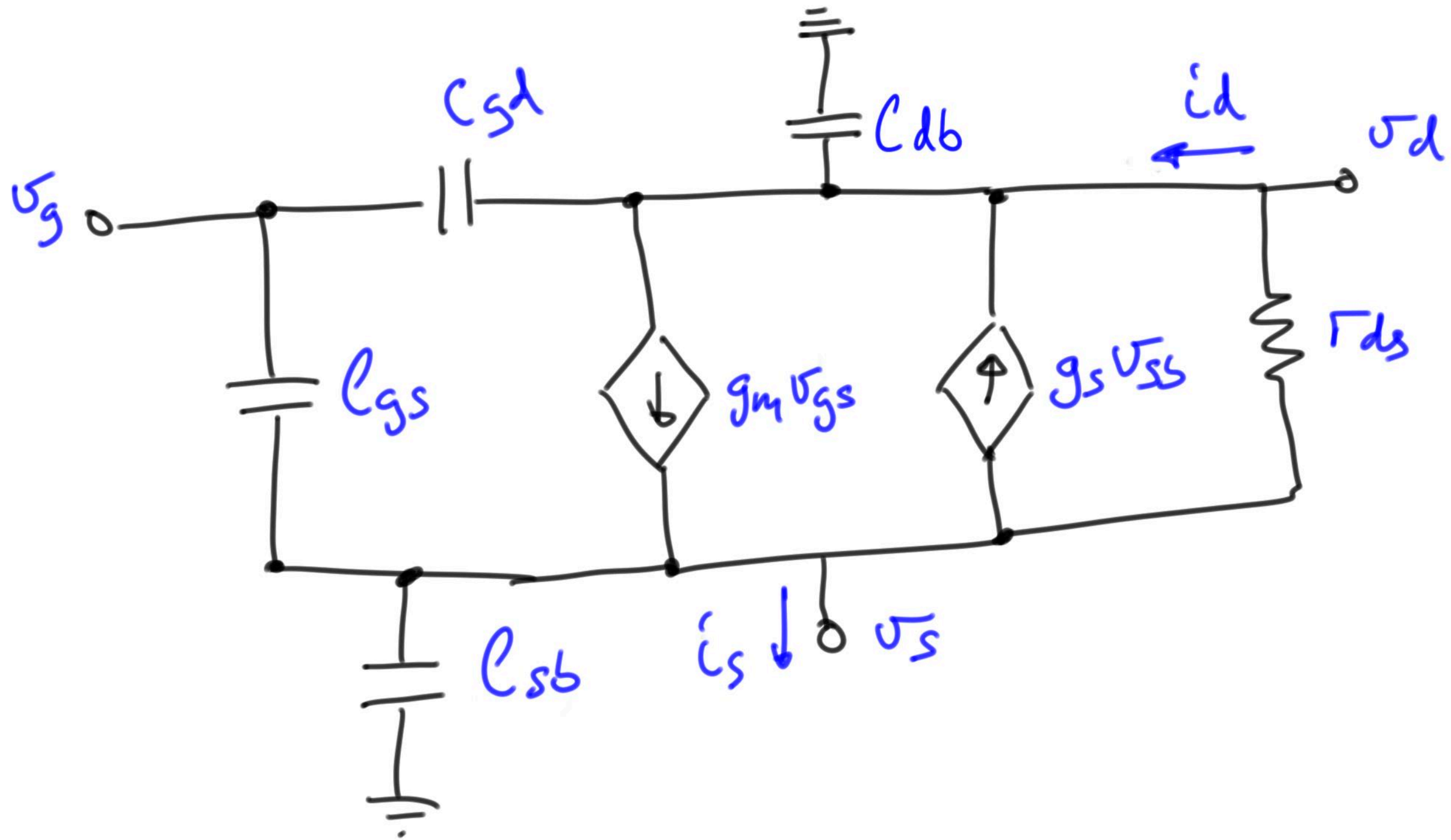
vgaini = Gate Source Voltage =  $V_{eff} + V_{tn}$

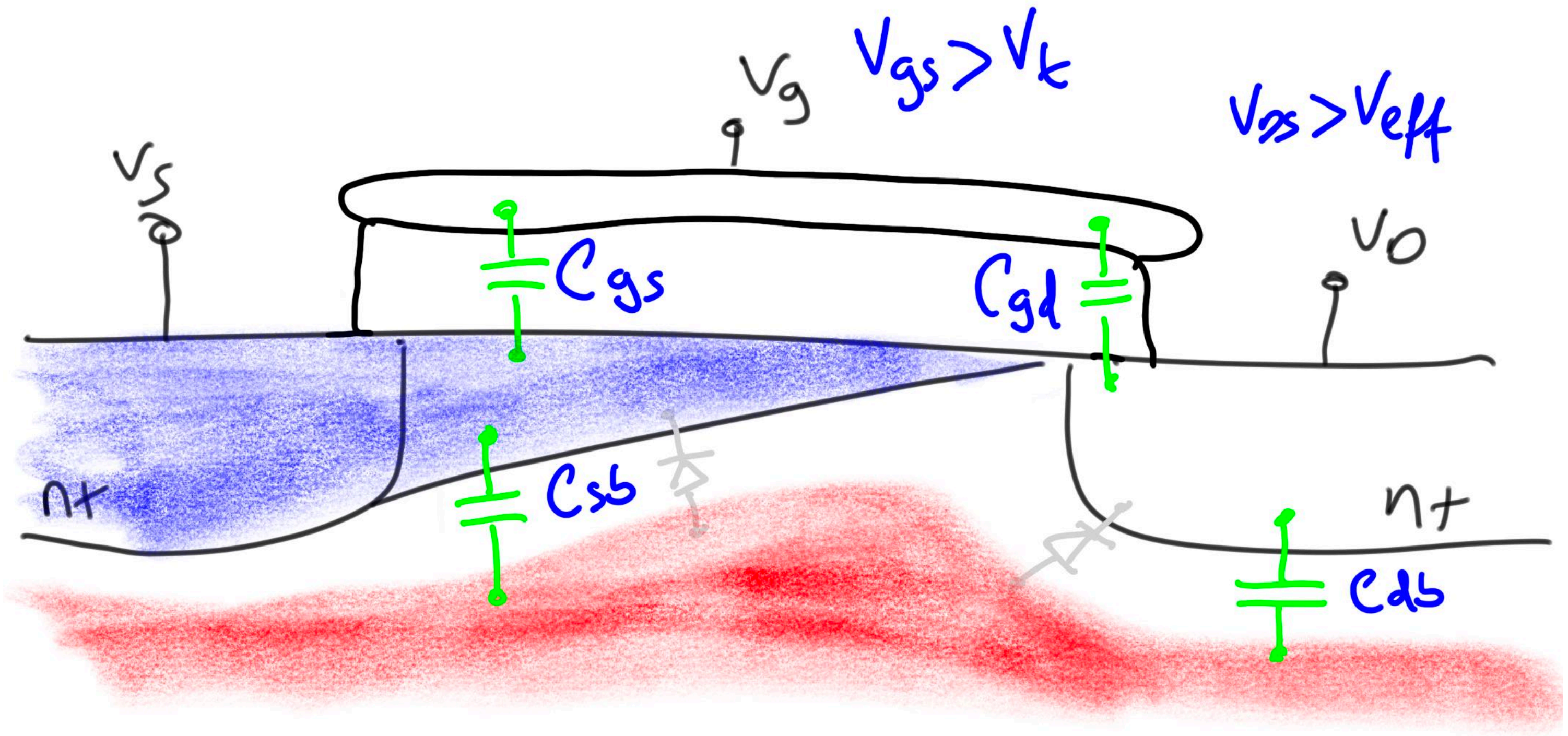






# High frequency model





# $C_{gs}$ and $C_{gd}$

$$C_{gs} = \begin{cases} WLC_{ox} & \text{if } V_{DS} = 0 \\ \frac{2}{3}WLC_{ox} & \text{if } V_{DS} > V_{eff} \end{cases} \quad C_{gd} = C_{ox}WL_{ov}$$

# $C_{sb}$ and $C_{db}$

Both are depletion capacitances

$$C_{sb} = (A_s + A_{ch})C_{js}$$

$$C_{db} = A_d C_{jd}$$

$$C_{js} = \frac{C_{j0}}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{V_{SB}}{\Phi_0}}}$$

$$C_{jd} = \frac{C_{j0}}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{V_{DB}}{\Phi_0}}}$$

$$\Phi_0 = V_T \ln \left( \frac{N_A N_D}{n_i^2} \right)$$



# Be careful with $C_{gd}$ (blame Miller)

If  $Y(s) = 1/sC$  then

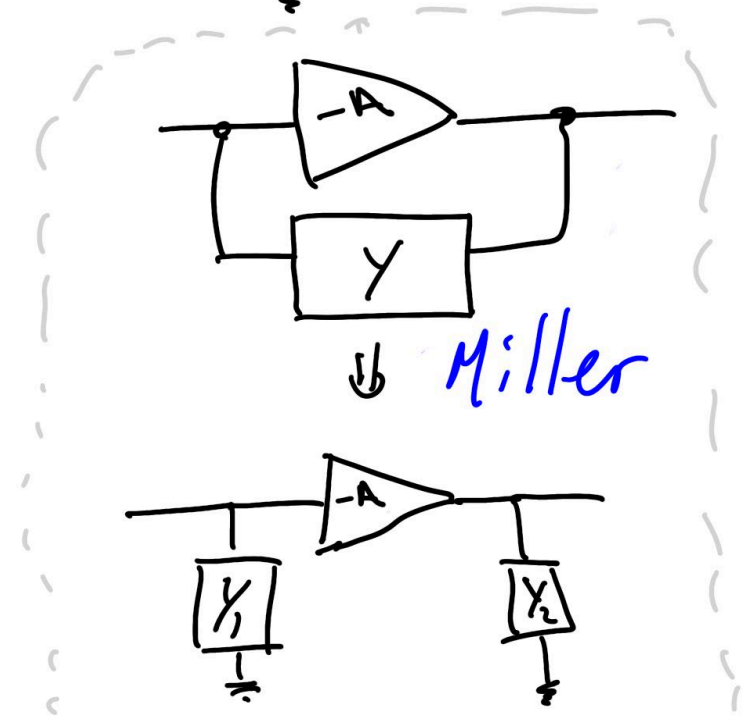
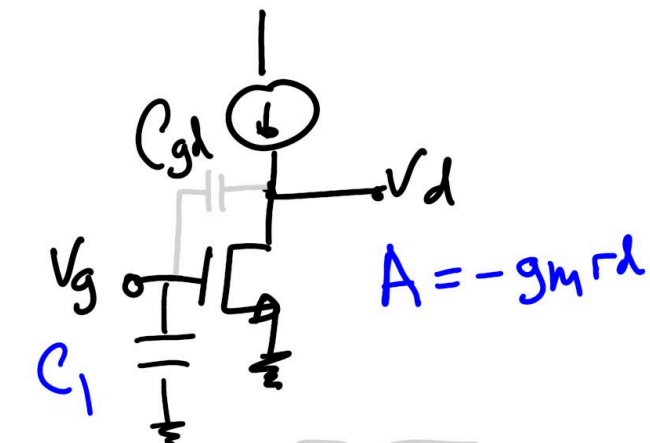
$Y_1(s) = 1/sC_{in}$  and  $Y_2(s) = 1/sC_{out}$  where

$$C_{in} = (1 + A)C, \quad C_{out} = (1 + \frac{1}{A})C$$

$$C_1 = C_{gd}g_m r_{ds}$$

$C_{gd}$  can appear to be 10 to 100 times larger!

if gain from input to output is large



# Weak inversion

or subthreshold



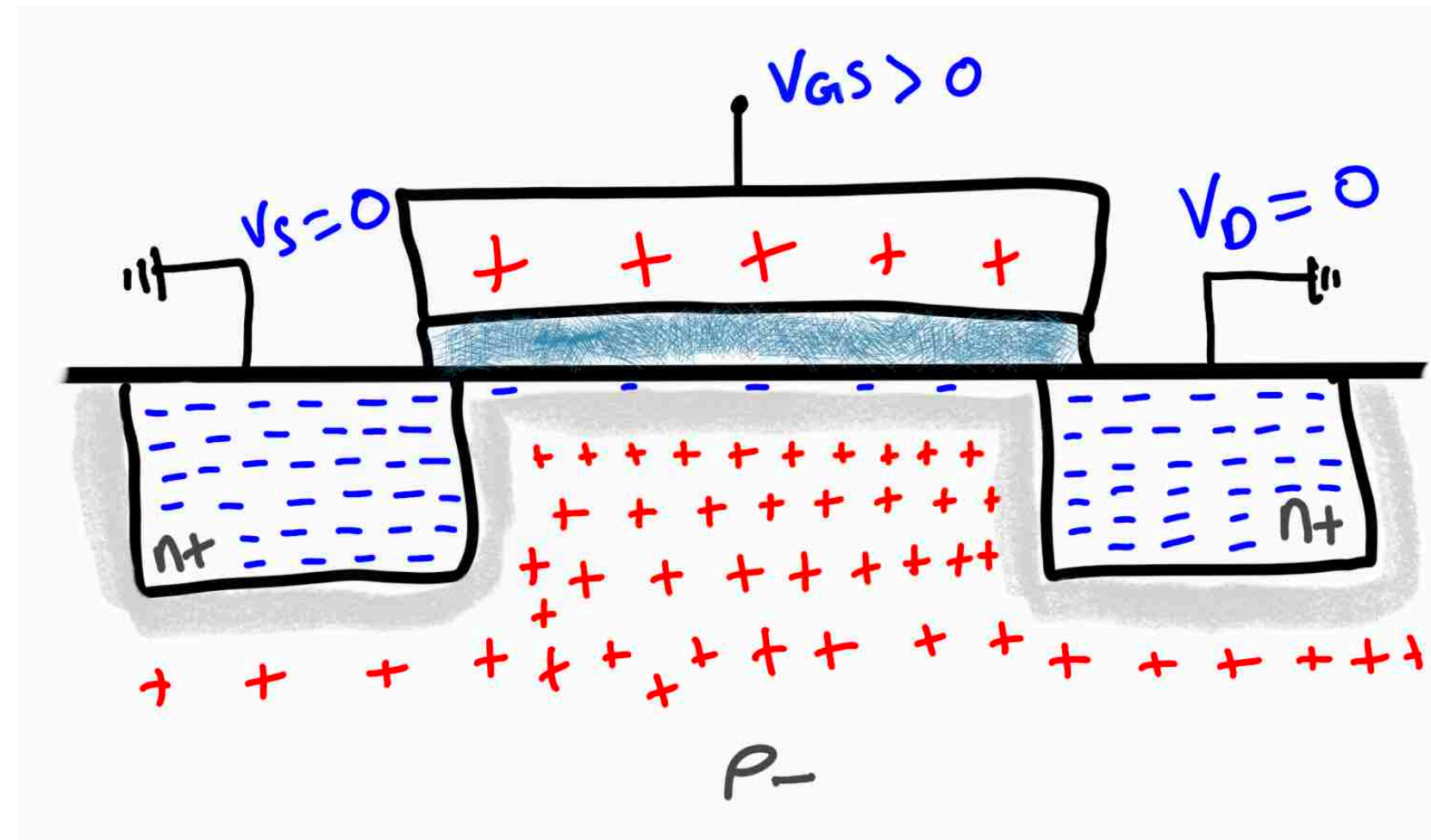
If  $V_{eff} < 0$  diffusion currents dominate.

$$I_D = I_{D0} \frac{W}{L} e^{V_{eff}/nV_T}, \text{ where}$$

$$V_T = kT/q, n = (C_{ox} + C_{j0})/C_{ox}$$

$$I_{D0} = (n - 1) \mu_n C_{ox} V_T^2$$

$$g_m = \frac{I_D}{nV_T}$$



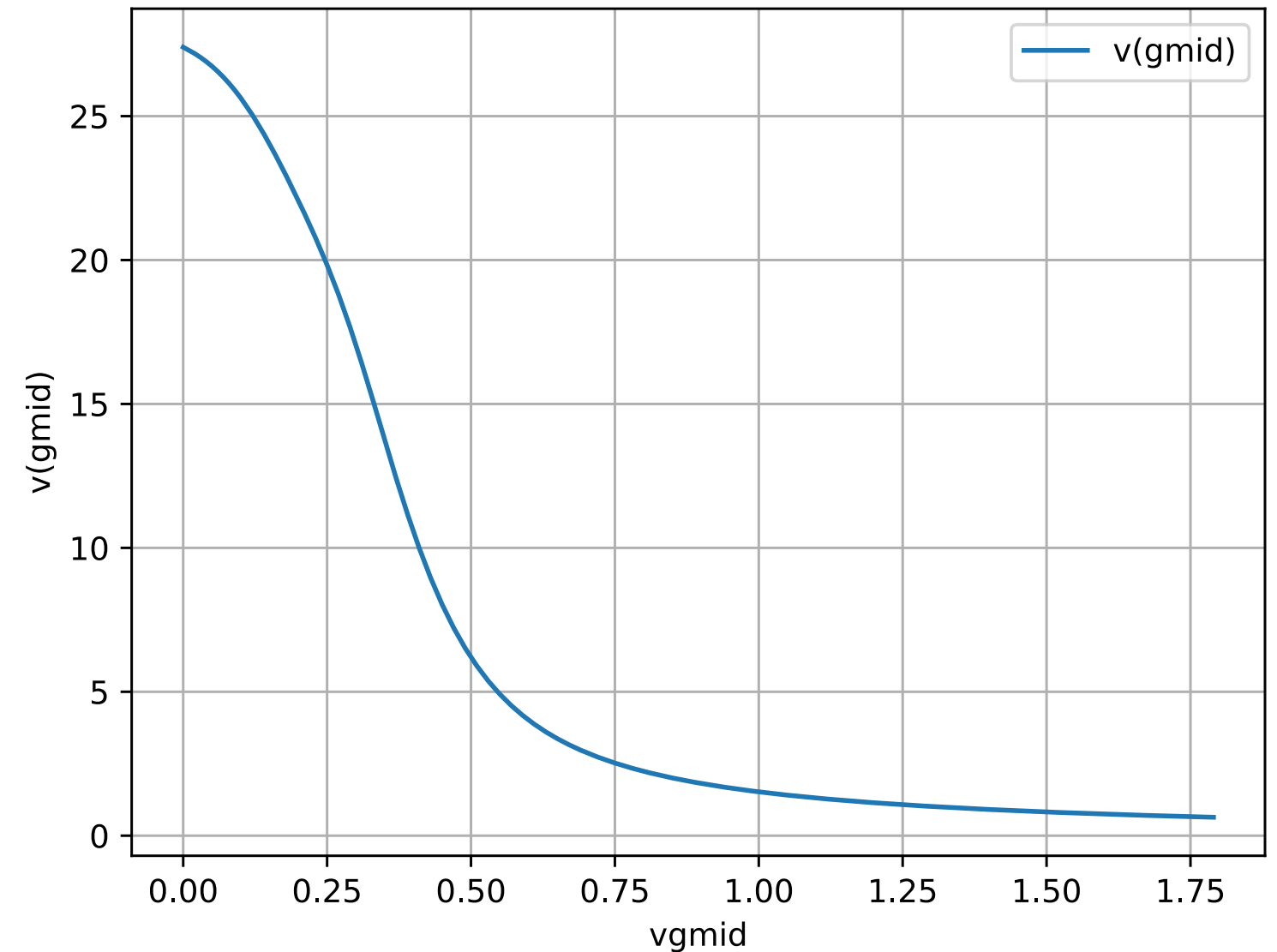
$g_m / I_D$  or "bang for the buck"

Subthreshold:

$$\frac{g_m}{I_D} = \frac{1}{nV_T} \approx 25.6 \text{ [S/A] @ 300 K}$$

Strong inversion:

$$\frac{g_m}{I_D} = \frac{2}{V_{eff}}$$



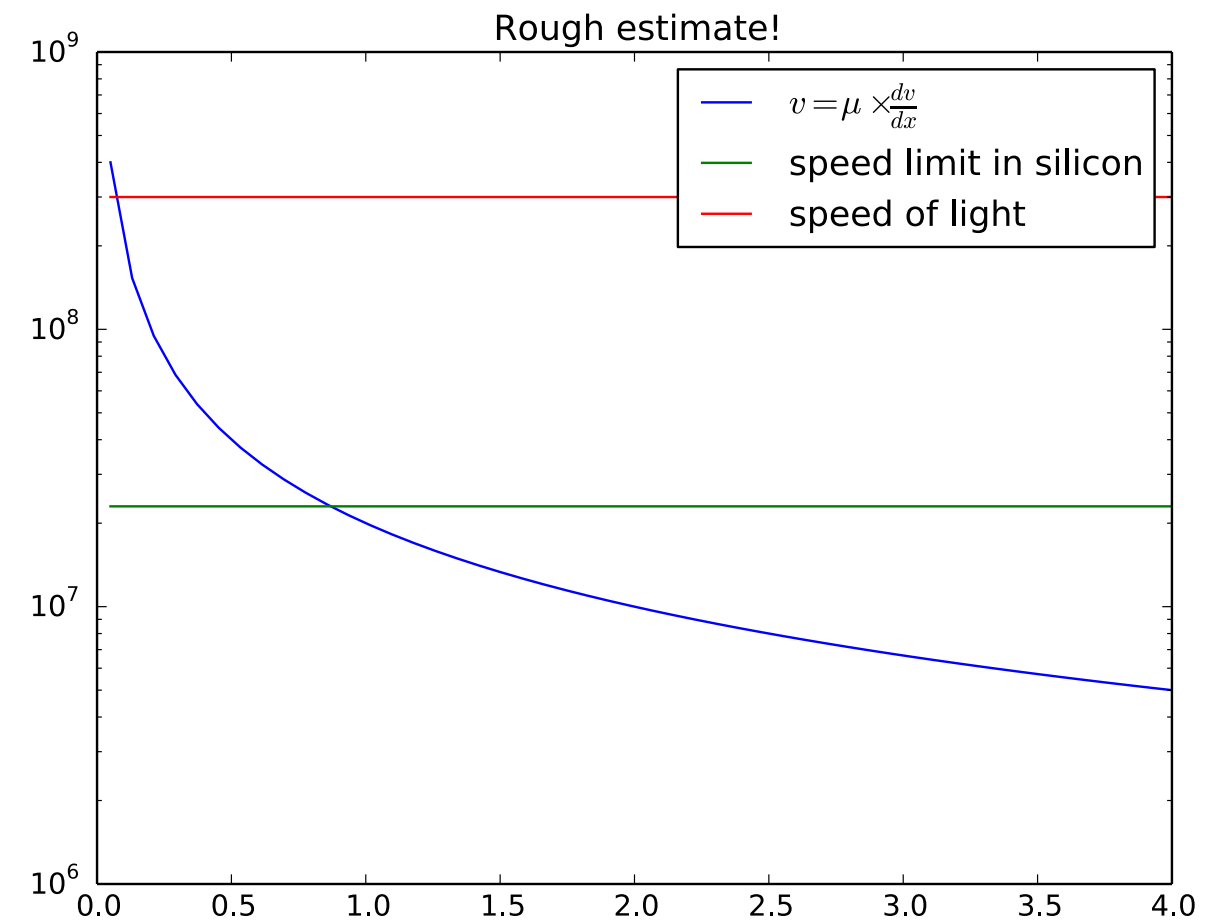
# Velocity saturation

# Electron speed limit in silicon

$$v \approx 10^7 \text{ cm/s}$$

$$v = \mu_n E = \mu_n \frac{dV}{dx}$$

$\mu_n \approx 100$  to  $600 \text{ cm}^2/\text{Vs}$  in  
nanoscale CMOS



# Square law model

$$Q(x) = C_{ox} [V_{eff} - V(x)]$$

$$v = \mu_n E = \mu_n \frac{dV}{dx}$$

$$\ell = \mu_n C_{ox} \frac{W}{L}$$

$$I_D = WQ(x)v = \ell L [V_{eff} - V(x)] \frac{dV}{dx}$$

$$I_D dx = \ell L [V_{eff} - V(x)] dV$$

$$I_D \int_0^L dx = \ell L \int_0^{V_{DS}} [V_{eff} - V(x)] dV$$

$$I_D [x]_0^L = \ell L \left[ V_{eff} V - \frac{1}{2} V^2 \right]_0^{V_{DS}}$$

$$I_D L = \ell L \left[ V_{eff} V_{DS} - \frac{1}{2} V_{DS}^2 \right]$$

$$@V_{DS} = V_{eff} \Rightarrow I_D = \frac{1}{2} \ell V_{eff}^2$$

# Mobility Degredation

Multiple effects degrade mobility

- Velocity saturation
- Vertical fields reduce channel depth => more charge-carrier scattering

$$\ell = \mu_n C_{ox} \frac{W}{L}$$

$$\mu_{n\_eff} = \frac{\mu_n}{([1 + (\theta V_{eff})^m]^{1/m})}$$

$$I_D = \frac{1}{2} \ell V_{eff}^2 \frac{1}{([1 + (\theta V_{eff})^m]^{1/m})}$$

From square law

$$g_m = \frac{\partial I_D}{\partial V_{GS}} = \ell V_{eff}$$

With mobility degradation

$$g_{m(mob-deg)} = \frac{\ell}{2\theta}$$

# What about holes (PMOS)

In PMOS holes are the charge-carrier (electron movement in valence band)

$$\mu_p < \mu_n$$

In intrinsic silicon:

$$\mu_n \leq 1400 [cm^2 / Vs] = 0.14 [m^2 / Vs]$$

$$\mu_p \leq 450 [cm^2 / Vs] = 0.045 [m^2 / Vs]$$

$$\mu_n \approx 3\mu_p$$

$$v_{n\_max} \approx 2.3 \times 10^5 [m/s]$$

$$v_{p\_max} \approx 1.6 \times 10^5 [m/s]$$

**Doping ( $N_A$  or  $N_D$ ) reduces  $\mu$**



**OTTHEER**

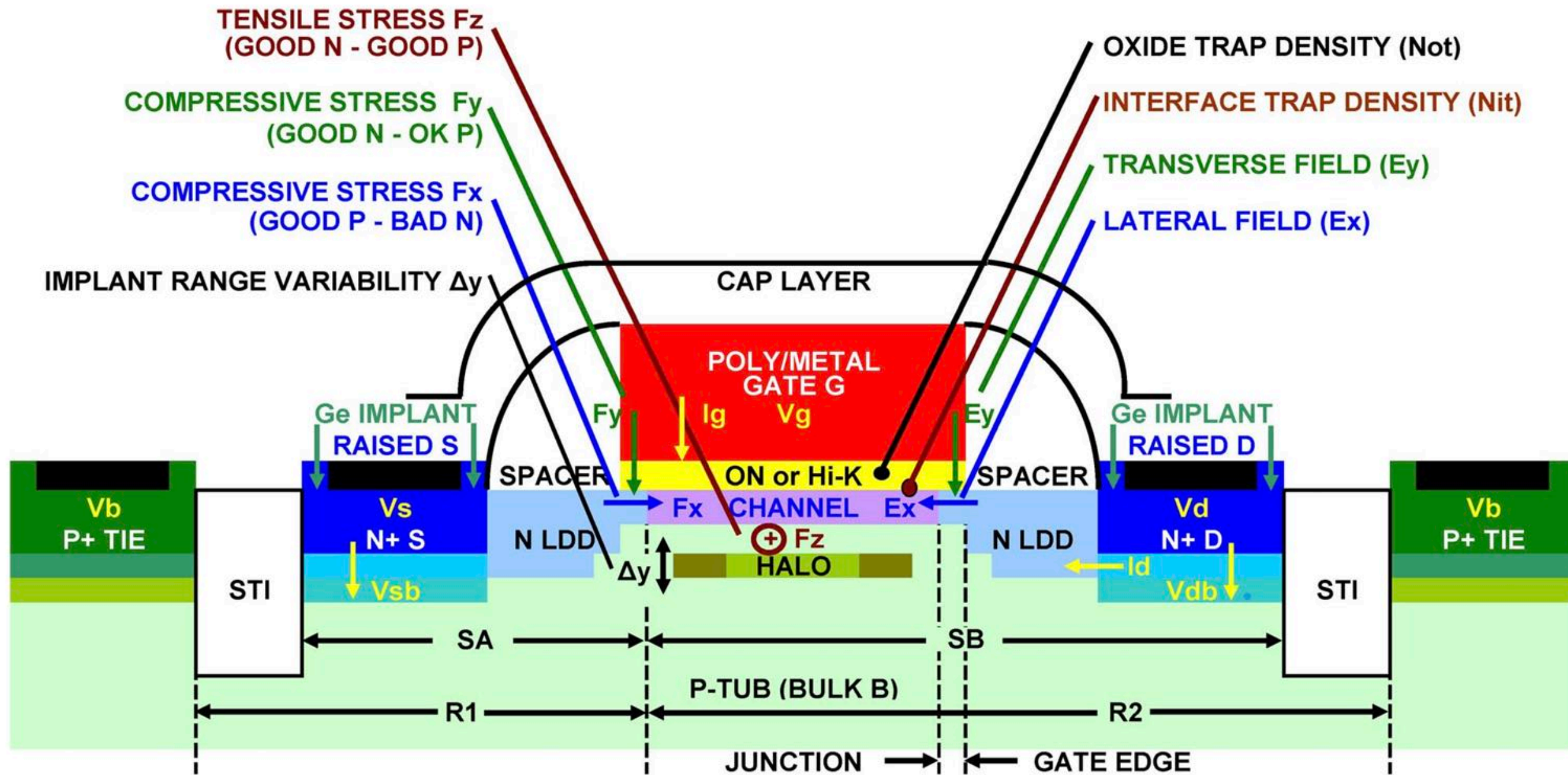
As we make transistors smaller, we find new effects that matter, and that must be modelled.

which is an opportunity for engineers to come up with cool names

# Analog Circuit Design in Nanoscale CMOS Technologies

*Classic analog designs are being replaced by digital methods, using nanoscale digital devices, for calibrating circuits, overcoming device mismatches, and reducing bias and temperature dependence.*

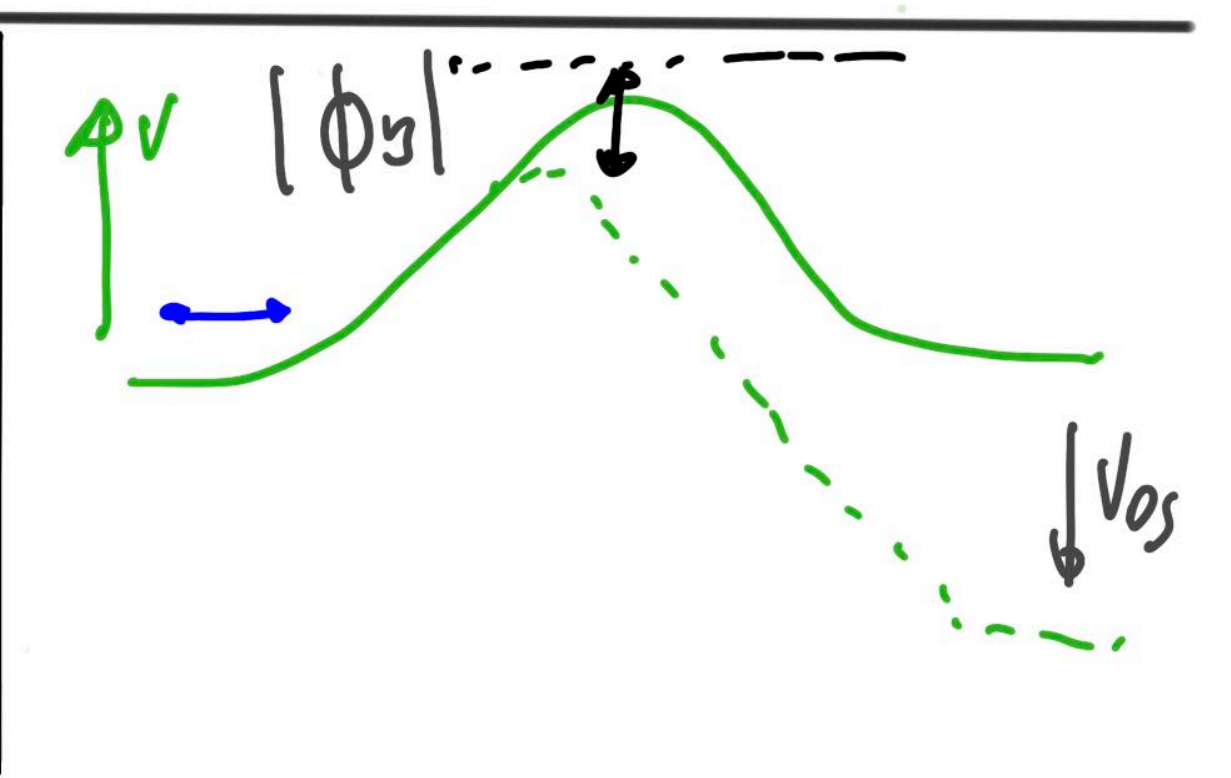
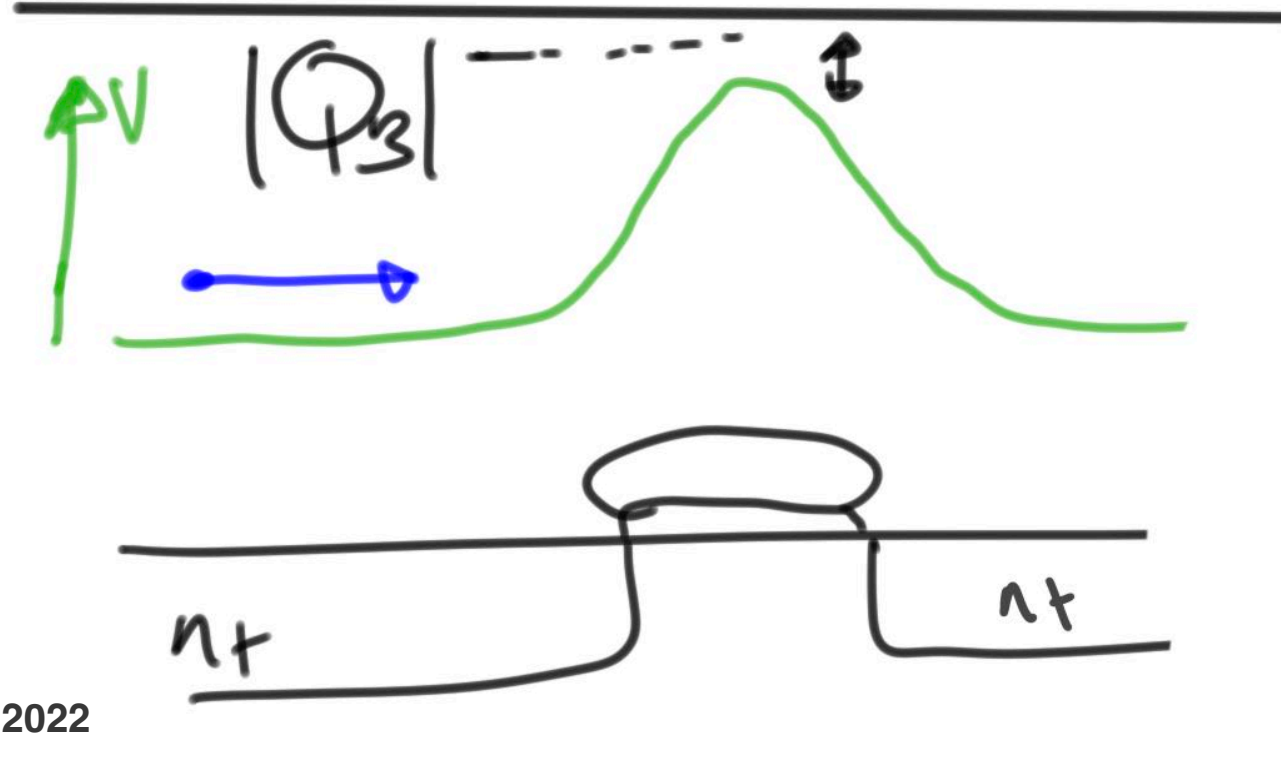
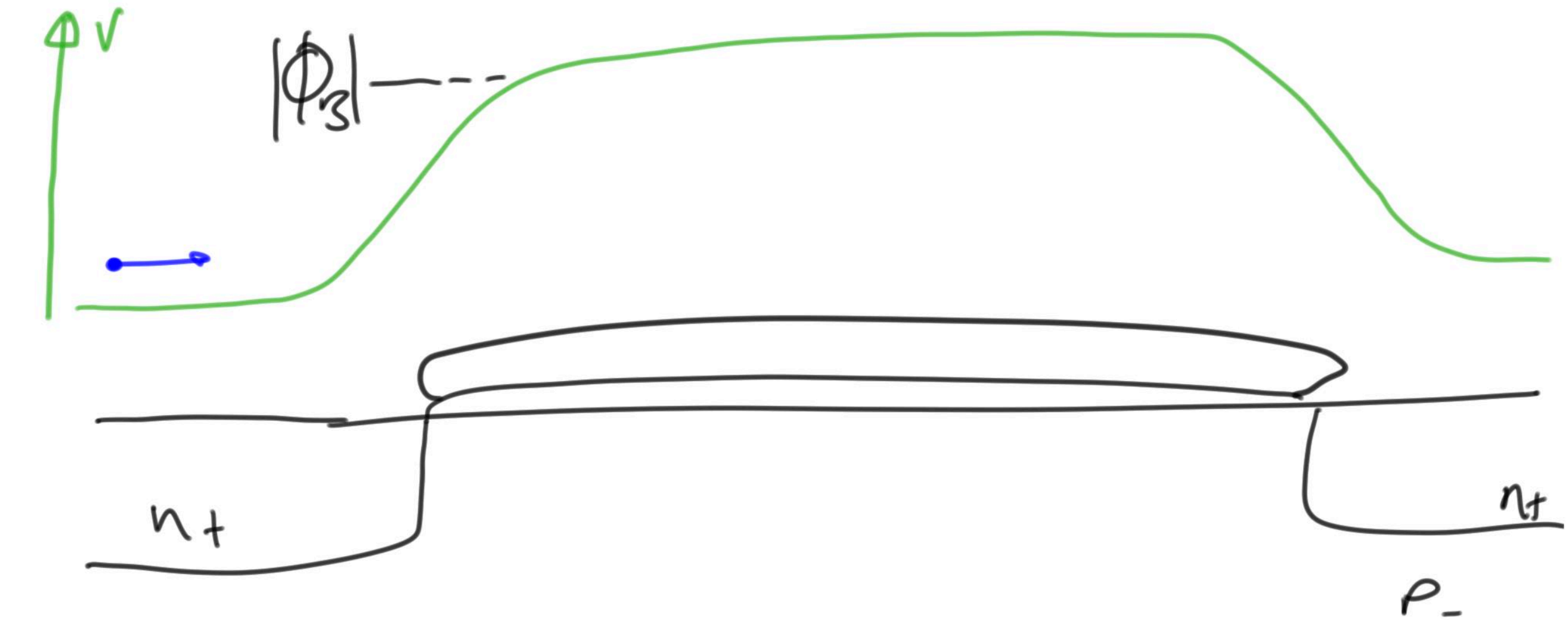
By LANNY L. LEWYN, *Life Senior Member IEEE*, TROND YTTERDAL, *Senior Member IEEE*, CARSTEN WULFF, *Member IEEE*, AND KENNETH MARTIN, *Fellow IEEE*



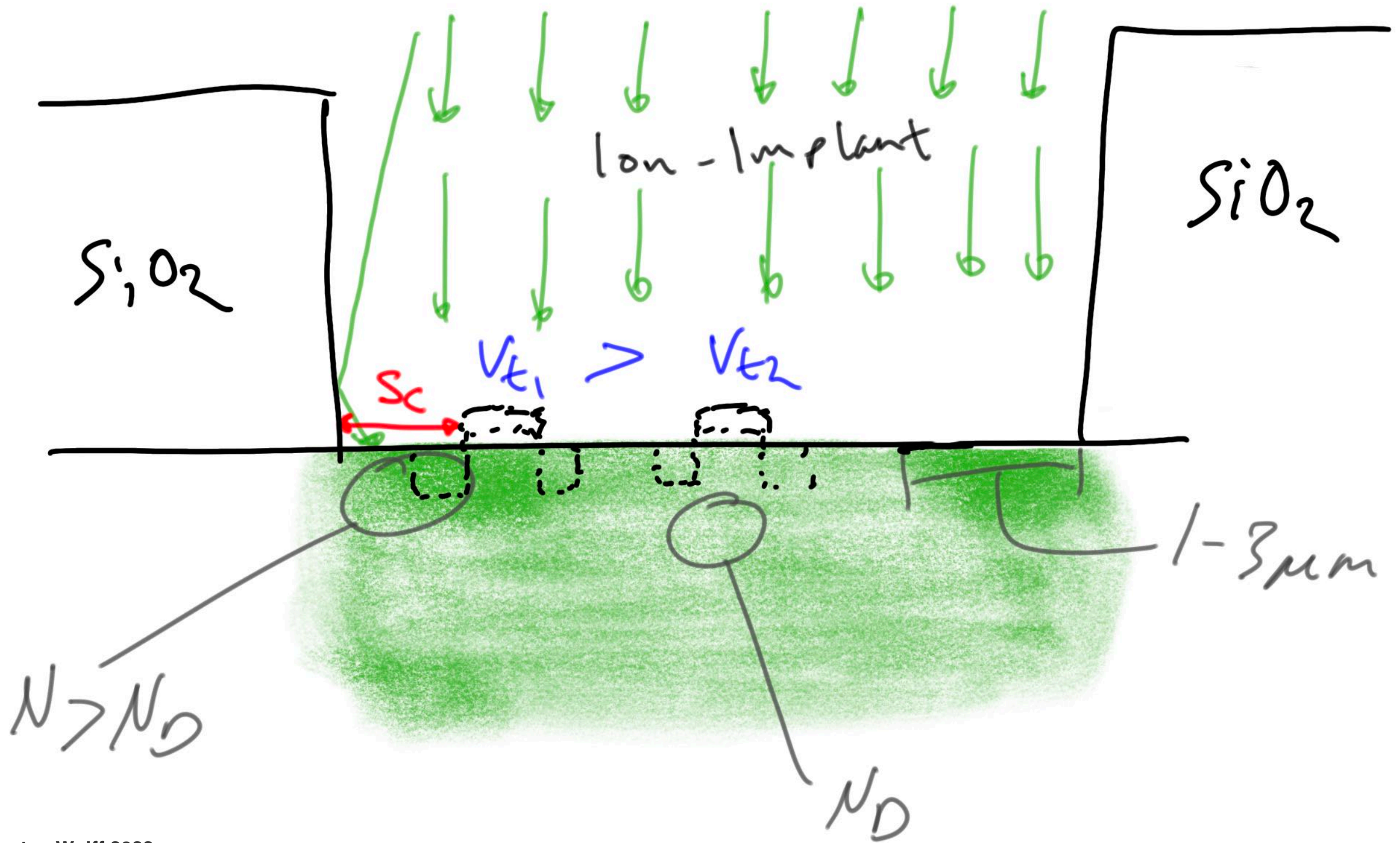
**Fig. 2. NMOS cross-section.** In addition to stress from cap layers and Ge raised source-drain (S-D) implants, device dimensions such as distance from source-channel boundary to nearby STI (SA and SB), proximity and regularity of overlying metal patterns, and short distances to other device patterns within the local ( $< 2 \mu\text{m}$ ) stress field induce transverse ( $F_y$ ) and lateral ( $F_x$  and  $F_z$ ) stress components, which affect threshold and mobility. Increasing the distance to P+ ties increases local tub (bulk) resistance components R1 and R2, which isolate the device MOS model substrate node from the device subcircuit symbol  $V_b$  node and degrade HF performance. Hot carrier reliability stress is dependent on the sum of transverse and lateral fields  $E_y$  and  $E_x$ . These fields are increased near the drain by increasing source to bulk ( $V_{sb}$ ) and drain ( $V_d$ ) to gate ( $V_g$ ) or substrate ( $V_b$ ) voltages in various combinations. As hot carrier stress increases, damage to channel from interface trap density ( $N_{it}$ ) affects threshold and mobility, while gate oxynitride (ON) or high-dielectric-constant (Hi-K) insulator trap density ( $N_{ot}$ ) affects threshold and gate leakage.

# Drain induced barrier lowering (DIBL)





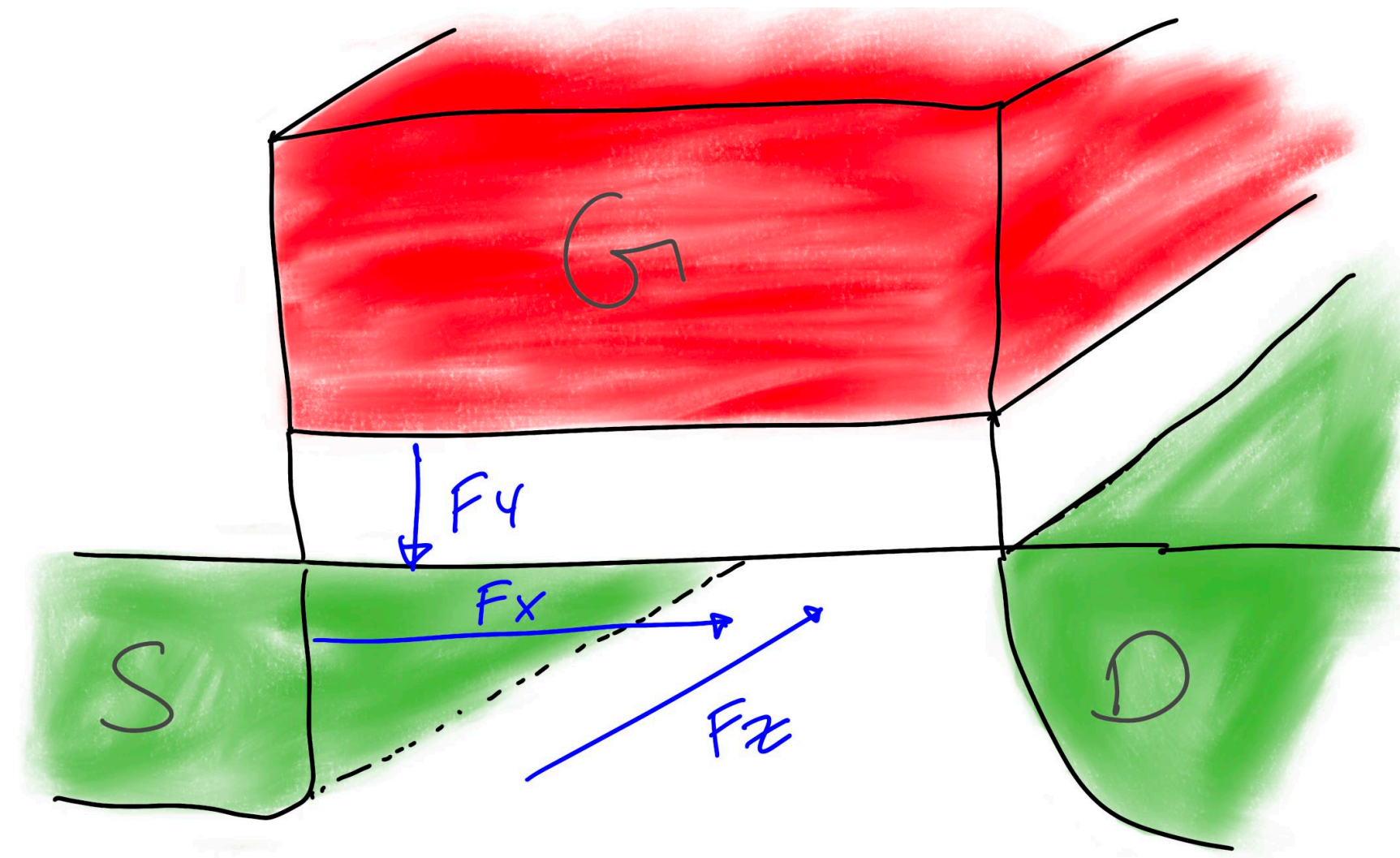
# Well Proximity Effect (WPE)





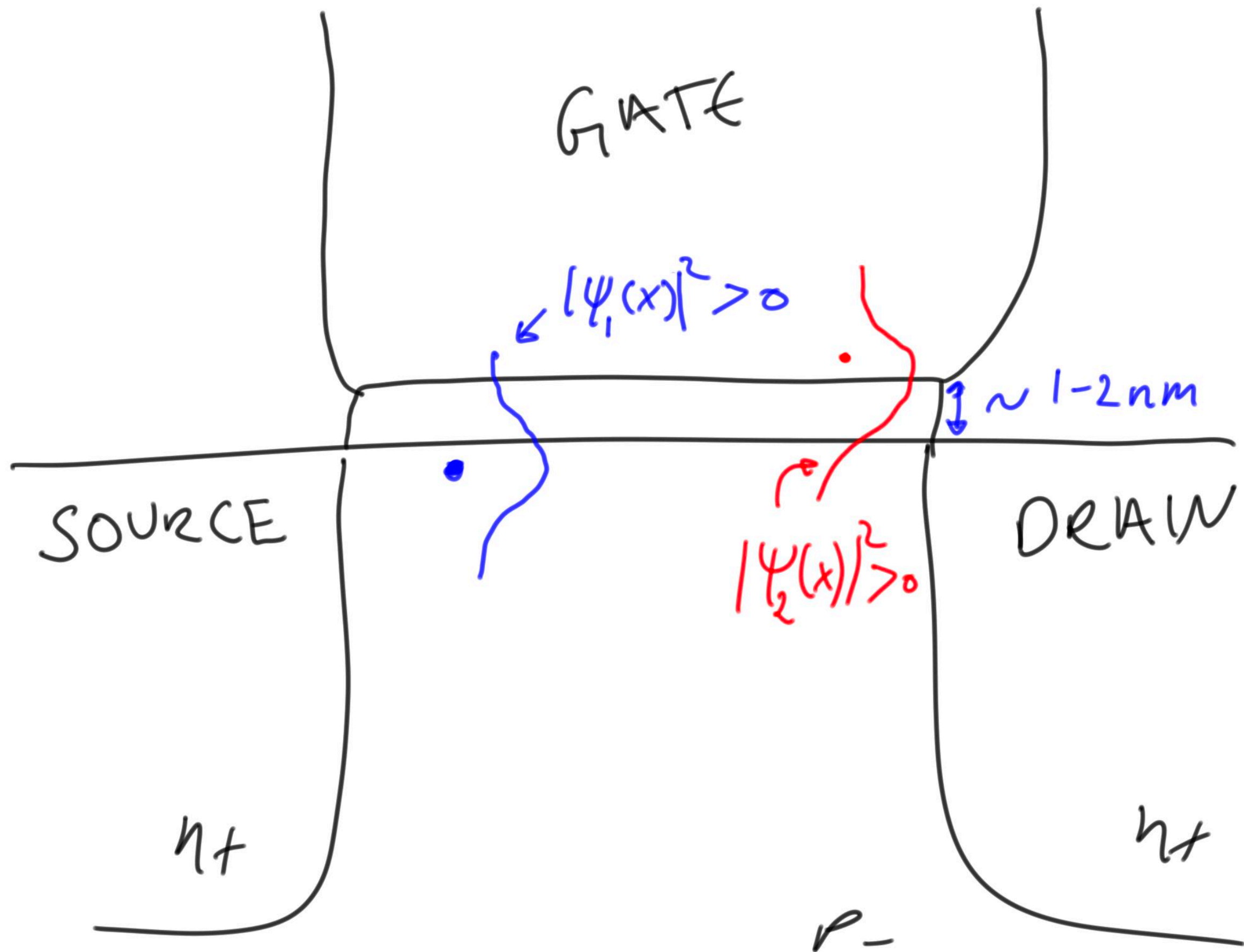
# Stress effects

Stress	PMOS	NMOS
Stretch $F_z$	Good	Good
Compress $F_y$	OK	Good
Compress $F_x$	Good	Bad



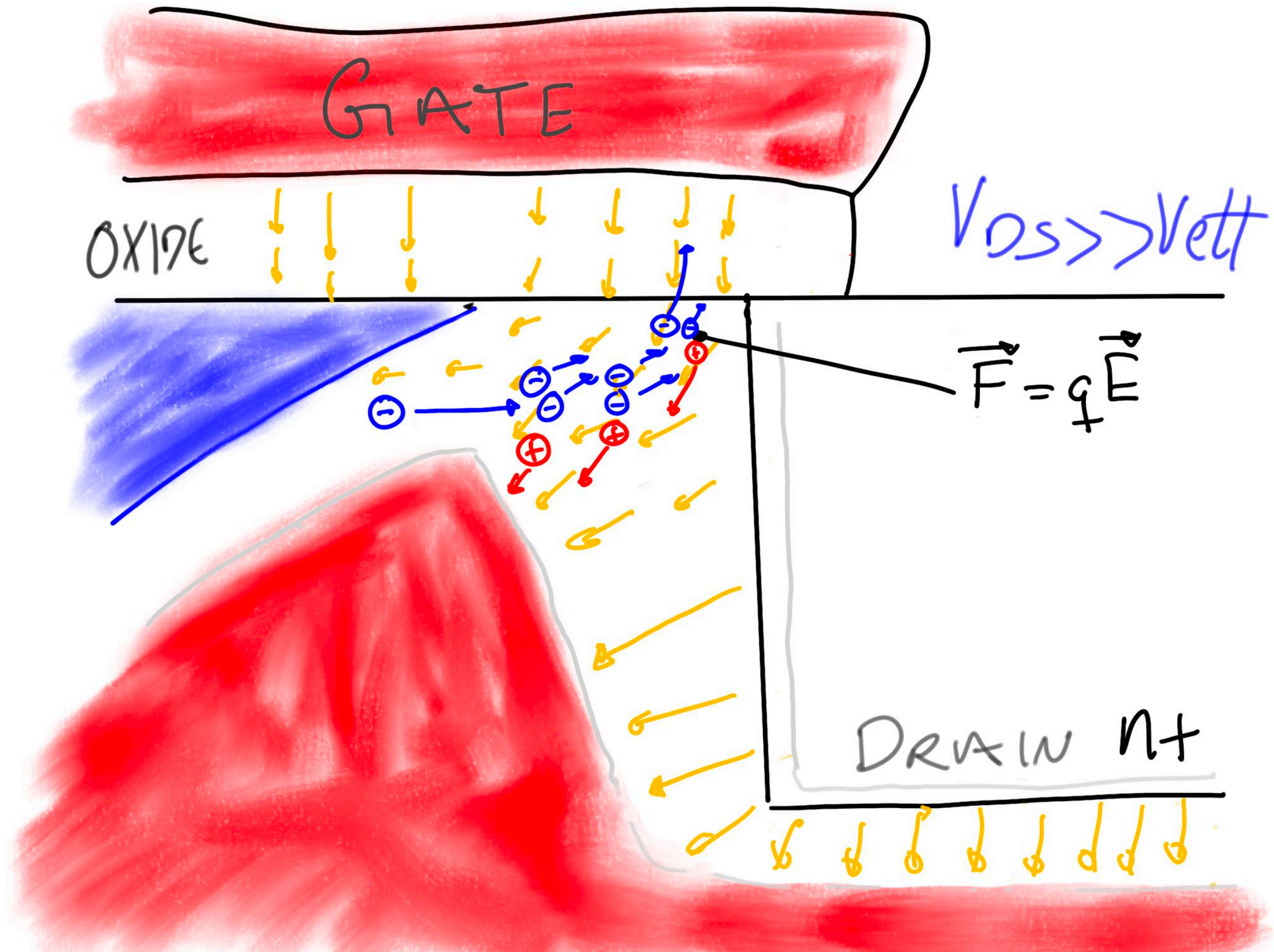
What can change stress?

# Gate current



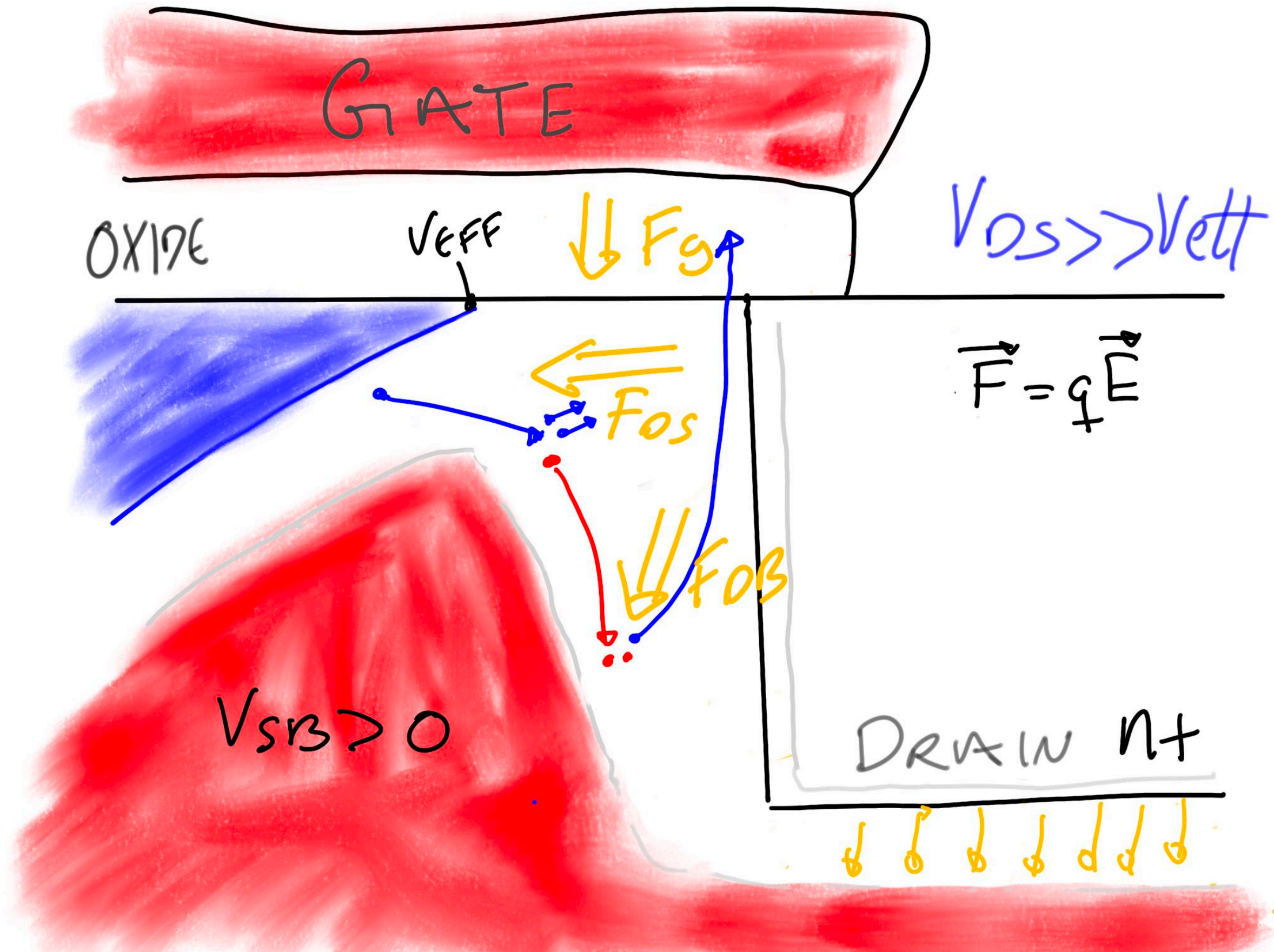
# Hot carrier injection





# Channel initiated secondary-electron (CHISEL)







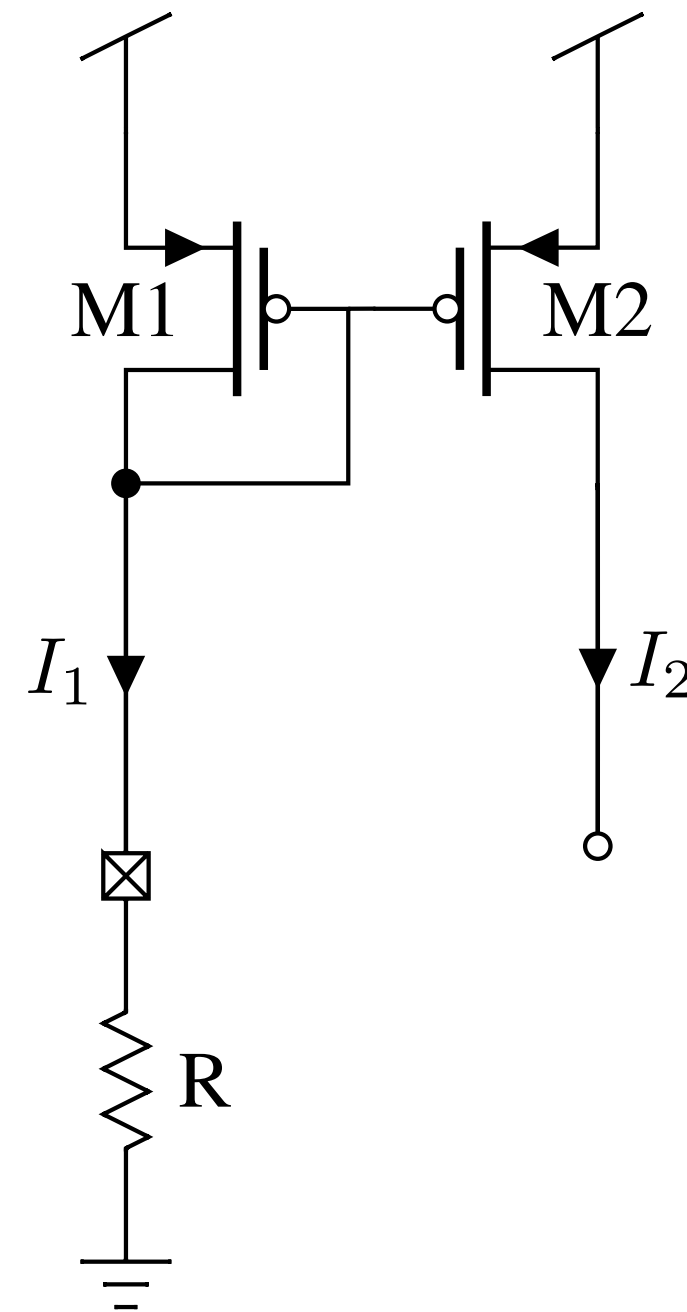
# Variability

# Provide $I_2 = 1\mu A$

Let's use off-chip resistor  $R$ , and pick  $R$  such that  $I_1 = 1\mu A$

$$\text{Use } \frac{W_1}{L_1} = \frac{W_2}{L_2}$$

What makes  $I_2 \neq 1\mu A$ ?



Voltage variation

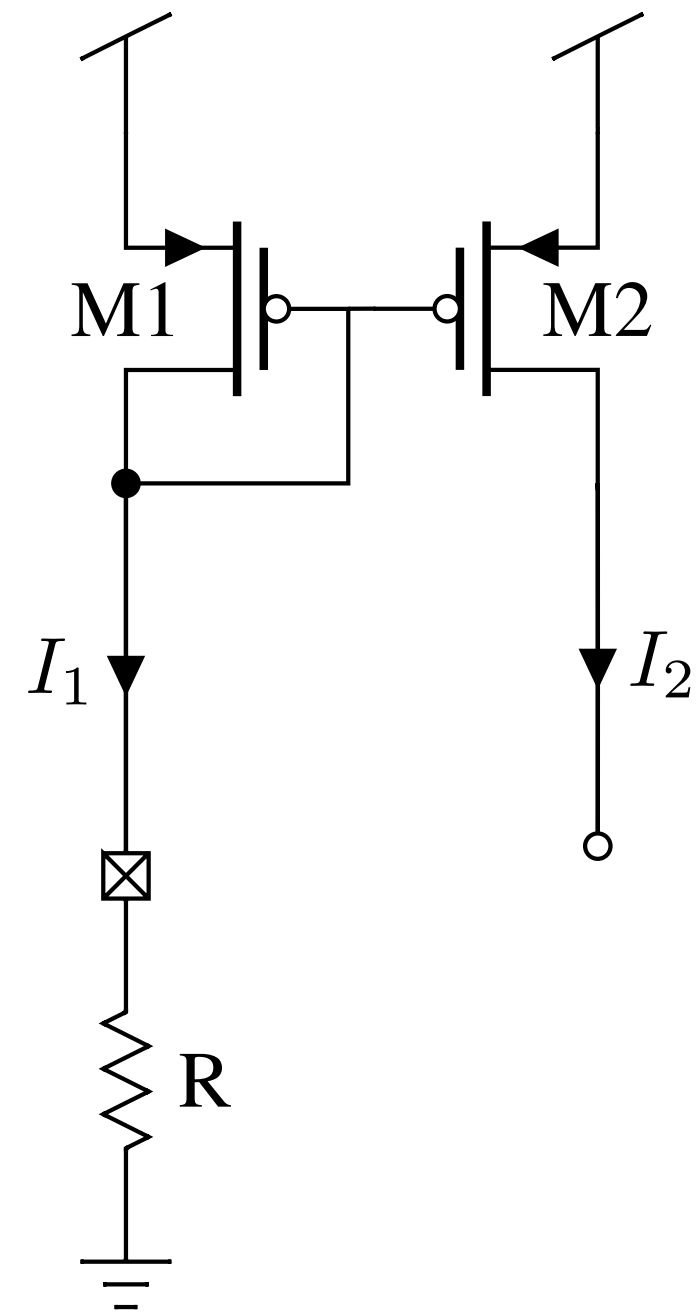
Systematic variations

Process variations

Temperature variation

Random variations

Noise

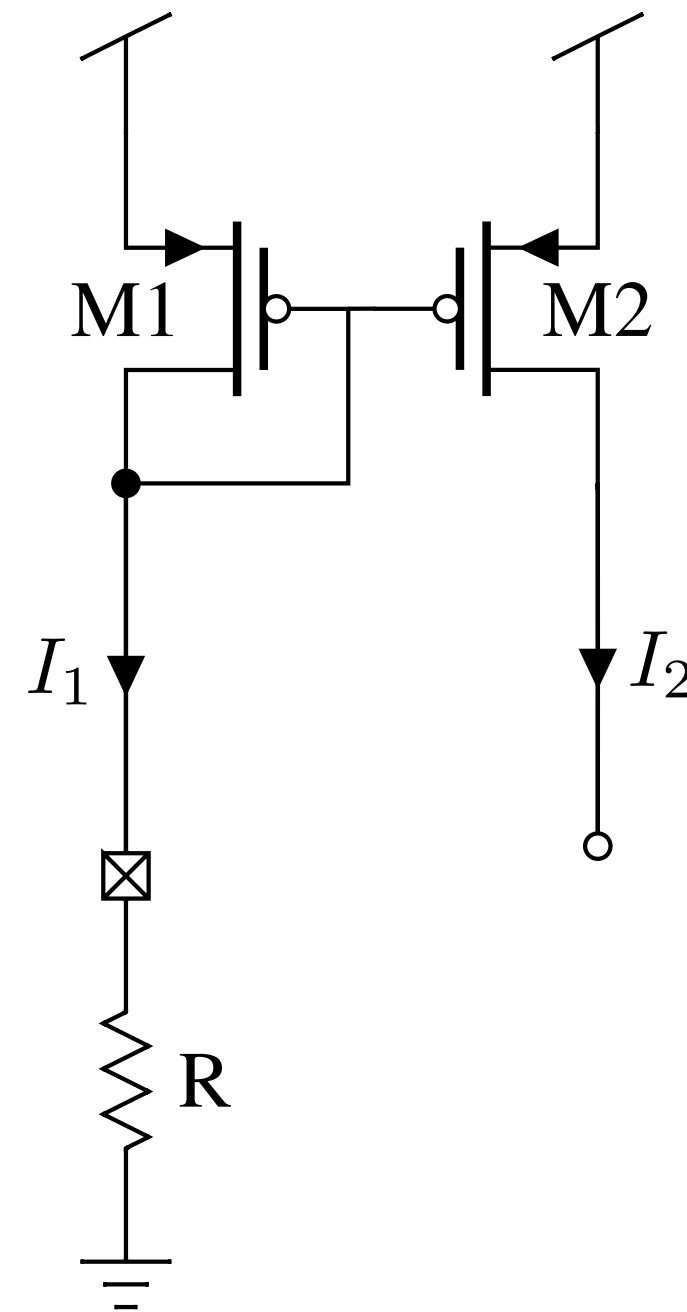


# Voltage variation

$$I_1 = \frac{V_{DD} - V_{GS1}}{R}$$

If  $V_{DD}$  changes, then current changes.

**Fix:** Keep  $V_{DD}$  constant



# Systematic variations

If  $V_{DS1} \neq V_{DS2} \rightarrow I_1 \neq I_2$

If layout direction of  $M_1 \neq M_2 \rightarrow I_1 \neq I_2$

If current direction of  $M_1 \neq M_2 \rightarrow I_1 \neq I_2$

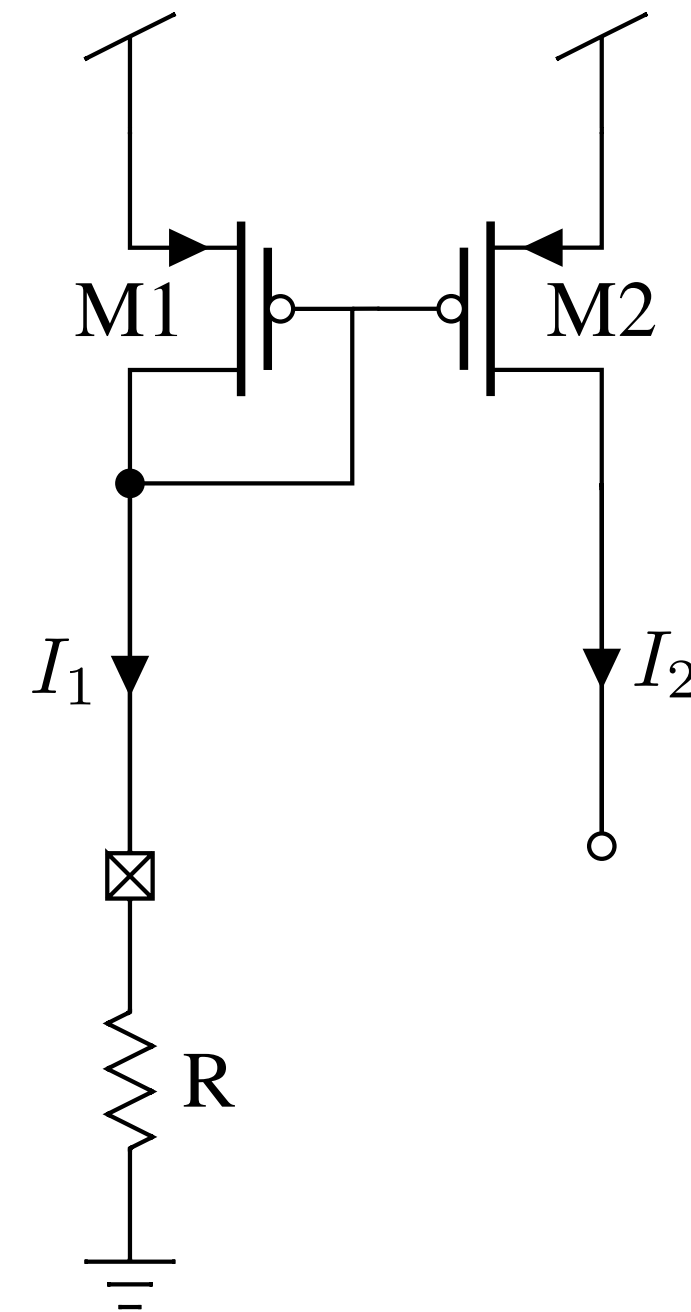
If  $V_{S1} \neq V_{S2} \rightarrow I_1 \neq I_2$

If  $V_{B1} \neq V_{B2} \rightarrow I_1 \neq I_2$

If  $WPE_1 \neq WPE_2 \rightarrow I_1 \neq I_2$

If  $Stress_1 \neq Stress_2 \rightarrow I_1 \neq I_2$

...



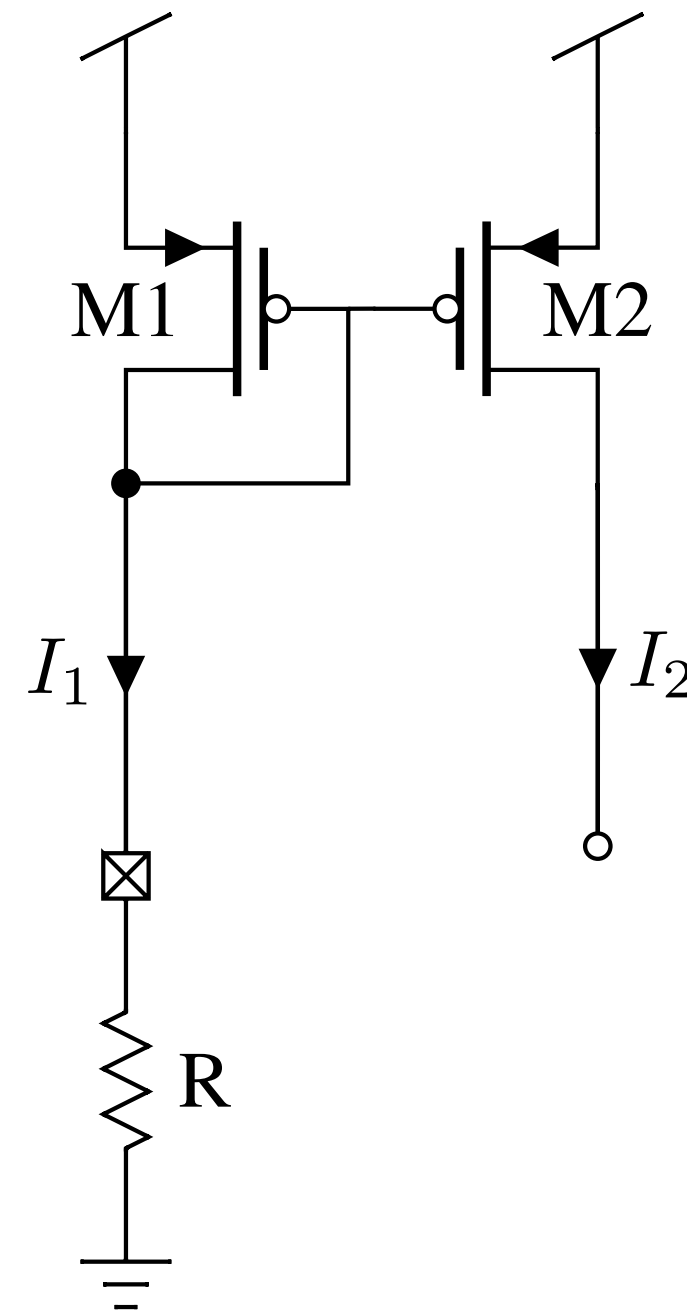
# Process variations

Assume strong inversion and active

$$V_{eff} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\mu_p C_{ox} \frac{W}{L}} I_1}, V_{GS} = V_{eff} + V_{tp}$$

$$I_1 = \frac{V_{DD} - V_{GS}}{R} = \frac{V_{DD} - \sqrt{\frac{2}{\mu_p C_{ox} \frac{W}{L}} I_1} - V_{tp}}{R}$$

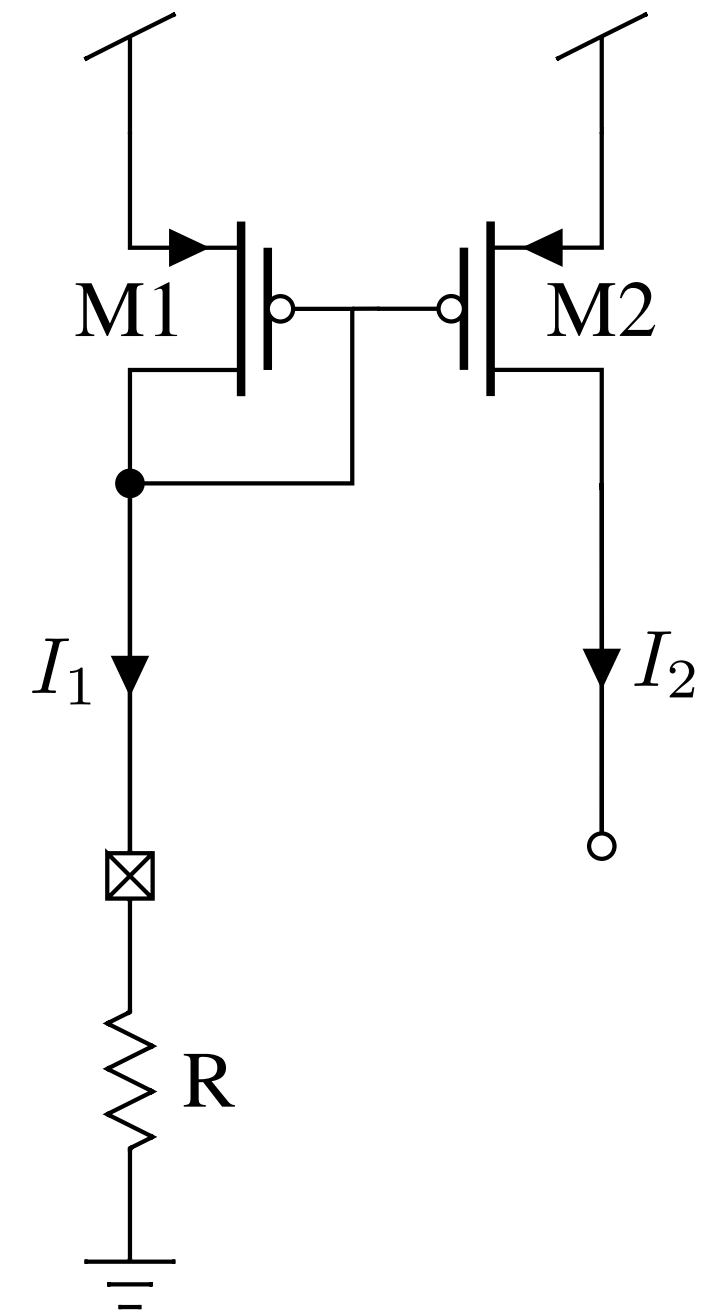
$\mu_p$ ,  $C_{ox}$ ,  $V_{tp}$  will all vary from die to die,  
and wafer lot to wafer lot.



# Process corners

Common to use 5 corners, or [Monte-Carlo](#) process simulation

Corner	NMOS	PMOS
Mtt	Typical	Typical
Mss	Slow	Slow
Mff	Fast	Fast
Msf	Slowish	Fastish
Mfs	Fastish	Slowish

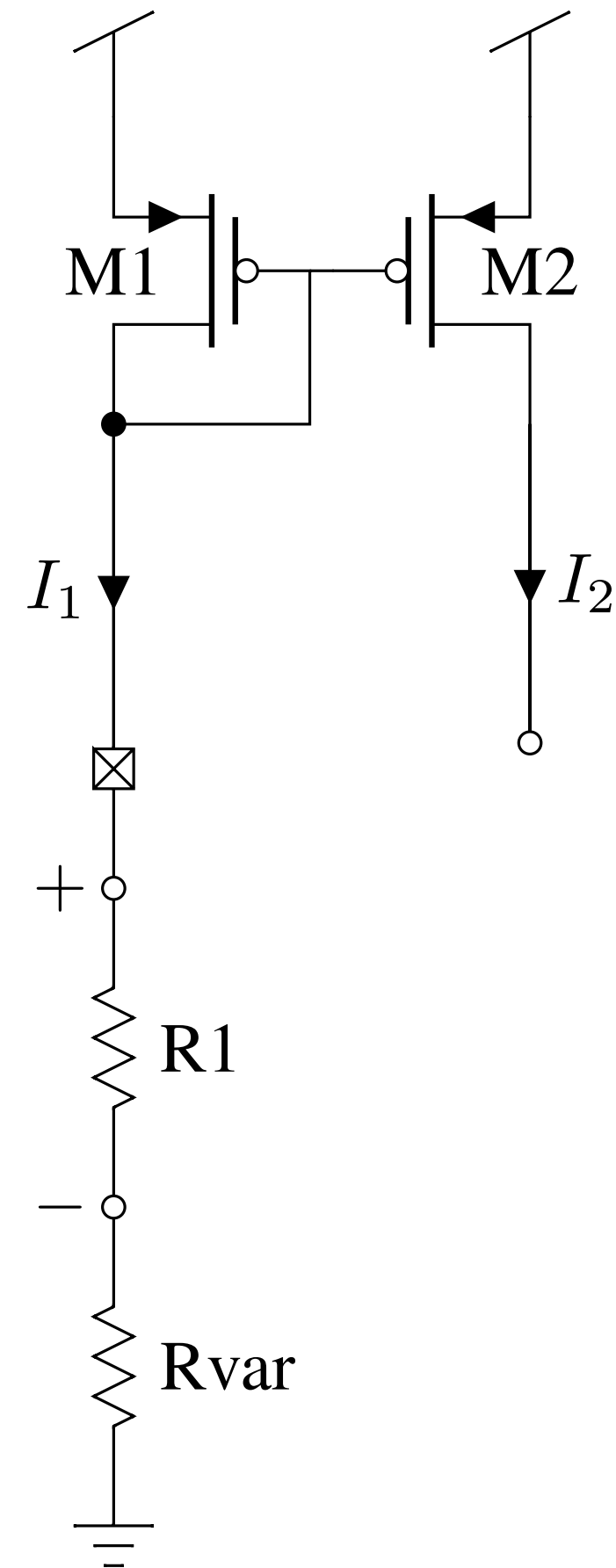


# Fix process variation

Use calibration: measure error, tune circuit to fix error

For every single chip, measure voltage across known resistor  $R_1$  and tune  $R_{var}$  such that we get  $I_1 = 1\mu A$

Be careful with multimeters, they have finite input resistance (approximately 1 M  $\Omega$ )





# Temperature variation

Mobility decreases with temperature

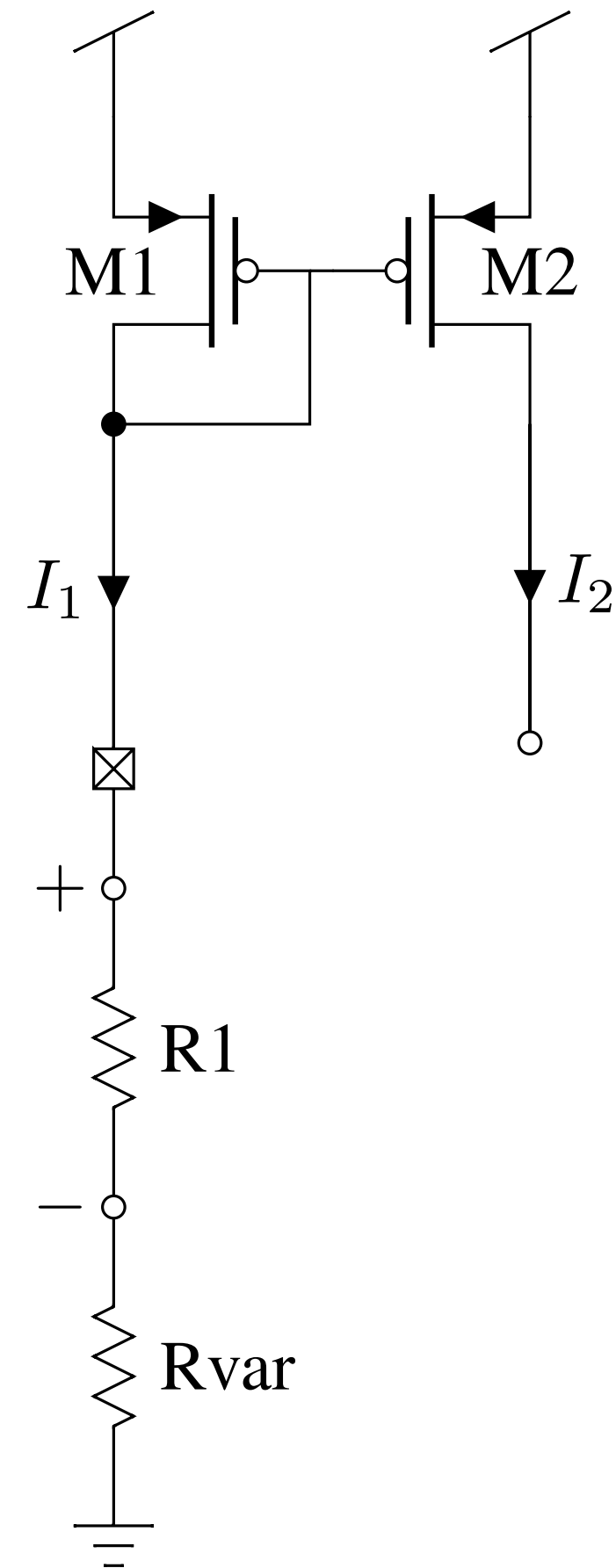
Threshold voltage decreases with temperature.

$$I_D = \frac{1}{2} \mu_n C_{ox} (V_{GS} - V_{tn})^2$$

High  $I_D$  = fast digital circuits

Low  $I_D$  = slow digital circuits

**What is fast? High temperature or low temperature?**



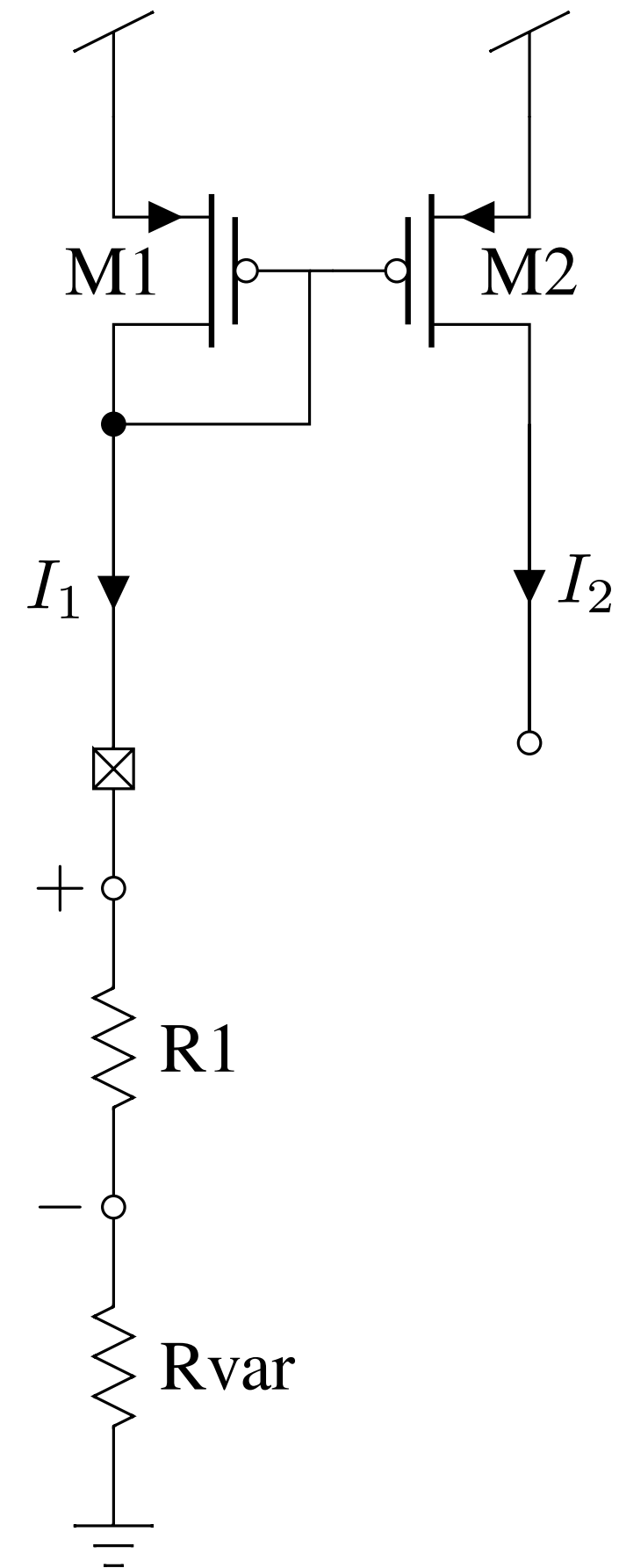
# It depends on $V_{DD}$

## Fast corner

- Mff (high mobility, low threshold voltage)
- High  $V_{DD}$
- High or low temperature

## Slow corner

- Mss (low mobility, high threshold voltage)
- Low  $V_{DD}$
- High or low temperature





# Random Variation

Mean

$$\overline{x(t)} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{+T/2} x(t) dt$$

Mean Square

$$\overline{x^2(t)} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{+T/2} x^2(t) dt$$

Variance

$$\sigma^2 = \overline{x^2(t)} - \overline{x(t)}^2$$

where  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation.

If mean is removed, or is zero, then

$$\sigma^2 = \overline{x^2(t)}$$

Assume two random processes,  $x_1(t)$  and  $x_2(t)$  with mean of zero (or removed).

$$x_{tot}(t) = x_1(t) + x_2(t)$$

$$x_{tot}^2(t) = x_1^2(t) + x_2^2(t) + 2x_1(t)x_2(t)$$

Variance (assuming mean of zero)

$$\sigma_{tot}^2 = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{+T/2} x_{tot}^2(t) dt$$

$$\sigma_{tot}^2 = \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 + \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{+T/2} 2x_1(t)x_2(t) dt$$

**Assuming uncorrelated processes**

**(covariance is zero), then**

$$\sigma_{tot}^2 = \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2$$

$$\ell = \mu_p C_{ox} \frac{W}{L}$$

$$I_D = \frac{1}{2} \ell (V_{GS} - V_{tp})^2$$

Due to doping , length, width,  $C_{ox}$ ,  $V_{tp}$ , ... random variation

$$\ell_1 \neq \ell_2$$

$$V_{tp1} \neq V_{tp2}$$

As a result  $I_1 \neq I_2$ , but we can make them close.

# Pelgrom's<sup>1</sup> law

Given a random gaussian process parameter  $\Delta P$  with zero mean, the variance is given by

$$\sigma^2(\Delta P) = \frac{A_P^2}{WL} + S_P^2 D^2$$

where  $A_P$  and  $S_P$  are measured, and  $D$  is the distance between devices

Assume closely spaced devices ( $D \approx 0$ )  $\Rightarrow \sigma^2(\Delta P) = \frac{A_P^2}{WL}$

---

<sup>1</sup> M. J. M. Pelgrom, C. J. Duinmaijer, and A. P. G. Welbers, "Matching properties of MOS transistors," IEEE J. Solid-State Circuits, vol. 24, no. 5, pp. 1433–1440, Oct. 1989.

# Transistors with same $V_{GS}^2$

$$\frac{\sigma_{I_D}^2}{I_D^2} = \frac{1}{WL} \left[ \left( \frac{gm}{I_D} \right)^2 \sigma_{vt}^2 + \frac{\sigma_l^2}{l} \right]$$

Valid in weak, moderate and strong inversion

---

<sup>2</sup> Peter Kinget, see CJM



$$\frac{\sigma_{I_D}^2}{I_D^2} = \frac{1}{WL} \left[ \left( \frac{gm}{I_D} \right)^2 \sigma_{vt}^2 + \frac{\sigma_l^2}{l} \right]$$

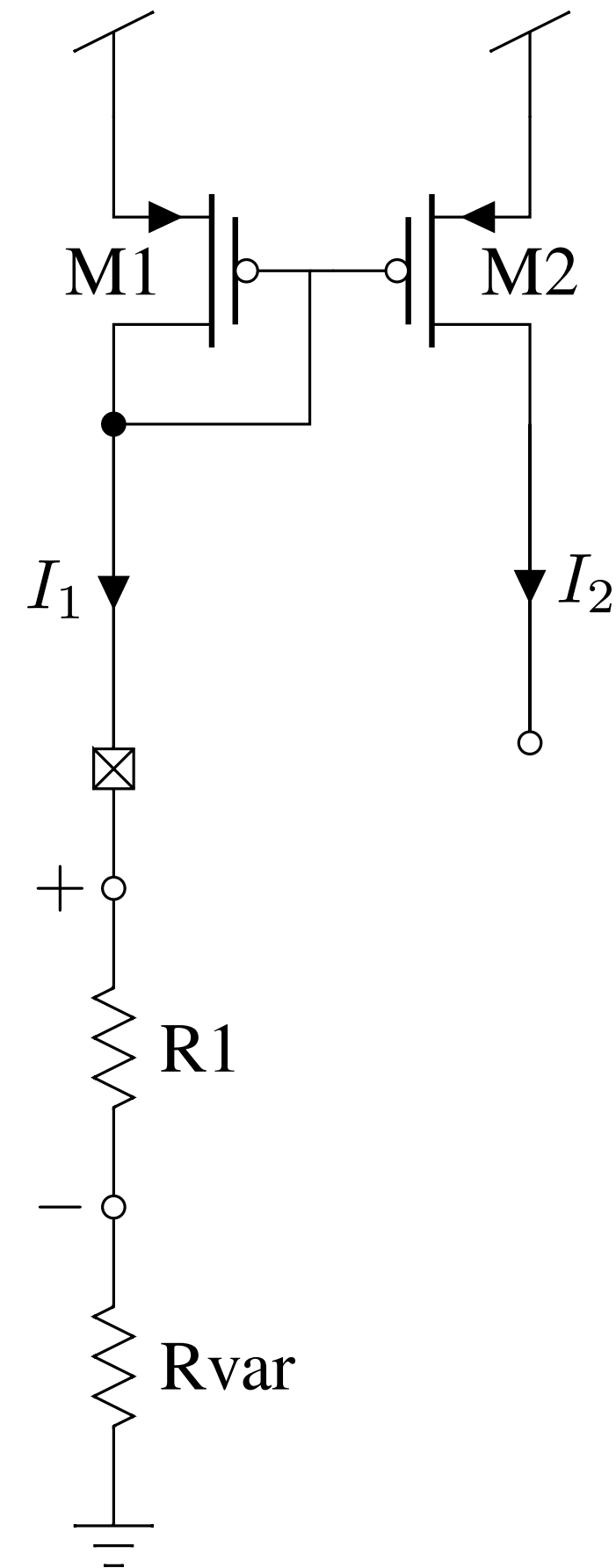
$$\frac{\sigma_{I_D}}{I_D} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{WL}}$$

Assume  $\frac{\sigma_{I_D}}{I_D} = 10\%$ , We want 5%, how much do we need to change WL?

$$\frac{\frac{\sigma_{I_D}}{I_D}}{2} \propto \frac{1}{2\sqrt{WL}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4WL}}$$

**We must quadruple the area to half the standard deviation**

1% would require **100** times the area



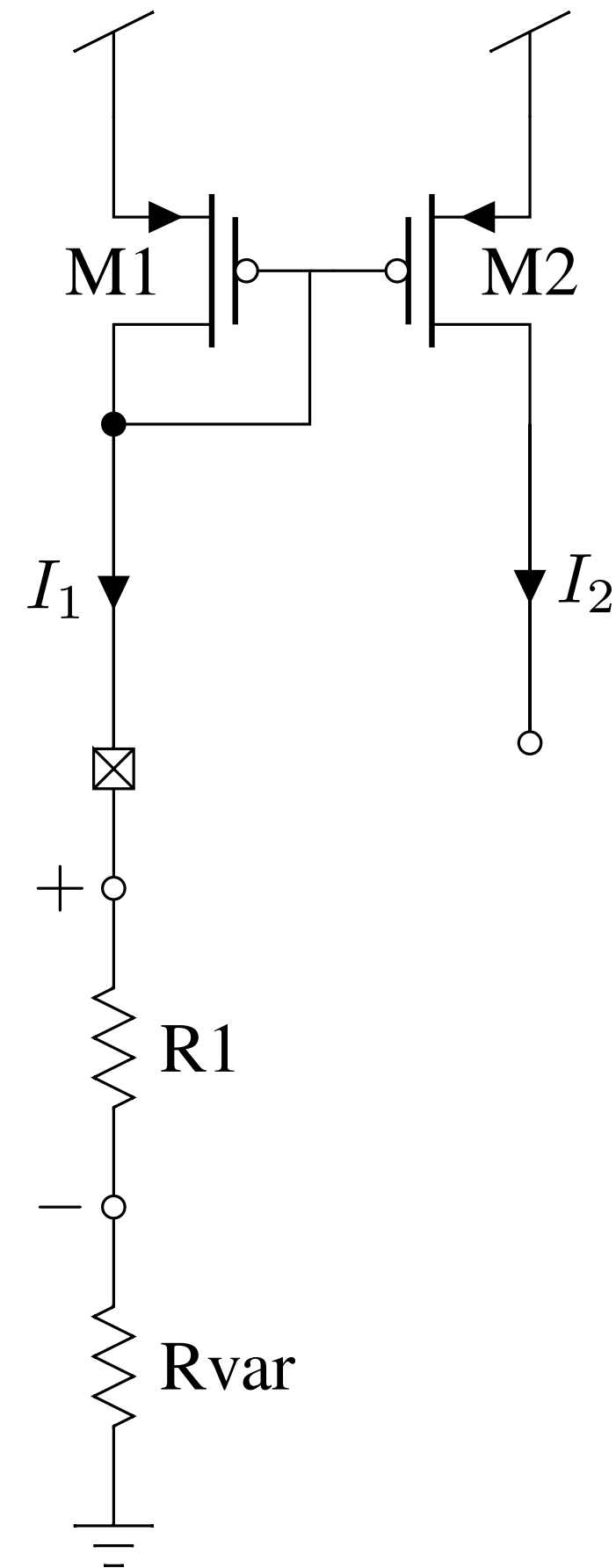
# What else can we do?

$$\frac{\sigma_{I_D}^2}{I_D^2} = \frac{1}{WL} \left[ \left( \frac{gm}{I_D} \right)^2 \sigma_{vt}^2 + \frac{\sigma_l^2}{l} \right]$$

Strong inversion  $\Rightarrow \frac{gm}{I_D} = \frac{1}{2V_{eff}} = low$

Weak inversion  $\Rightarrow \frac{gm}{I_D} = \frac{q}{nkT} \approx 25$

**Current mirrors achieve best matching in strong inversion**



$$\frac{\sigma_{I_D}^2}{I_D^2} = \frac{1}{WL} \left[ \left( \frac{gm}{I_D} \right)^2 \sigma_{vt}^2 + \frac{\sigma_l^2}{l} \right]$$

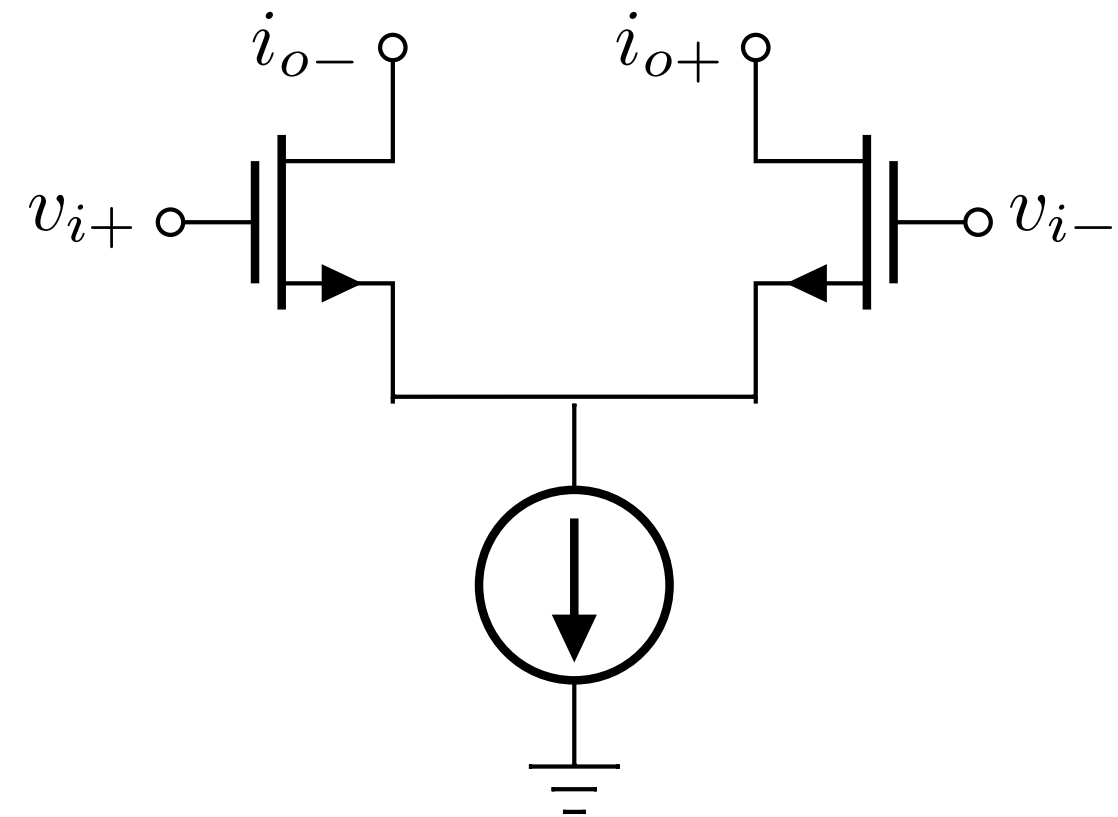
$$\sigma_{I_D}^2 = \frac{1}{WL} \left[ gm^2 \sigma_{vt}^2 + I_D^2 \frac{\sigma_l^2}{l} \right]$$

Offset voltage for a differential pair

$$i_o = i_{o+} - i_{o-} = gm v_i = gm (v_{i+} - v_{i-})$$

$$\sigma_{v_i}^2 = \frac{\sigma_{I_D}^2}{gm^2} = \frac{1}{WL} \left[ \sigma_{vt}^2 + \frac{I_D^2}{gm^2} \frac{\sigma_l^2}{l} \right]$$

High  $\frac{gm}{I_D}$  is better (best in weak inversion)



# Transistor Noise

## Thermal noise

Random scattering of carriers, generation-recombination in channel?

$$PSD_{TH}(f) = \text{Constant}$$

## Popcorn noise

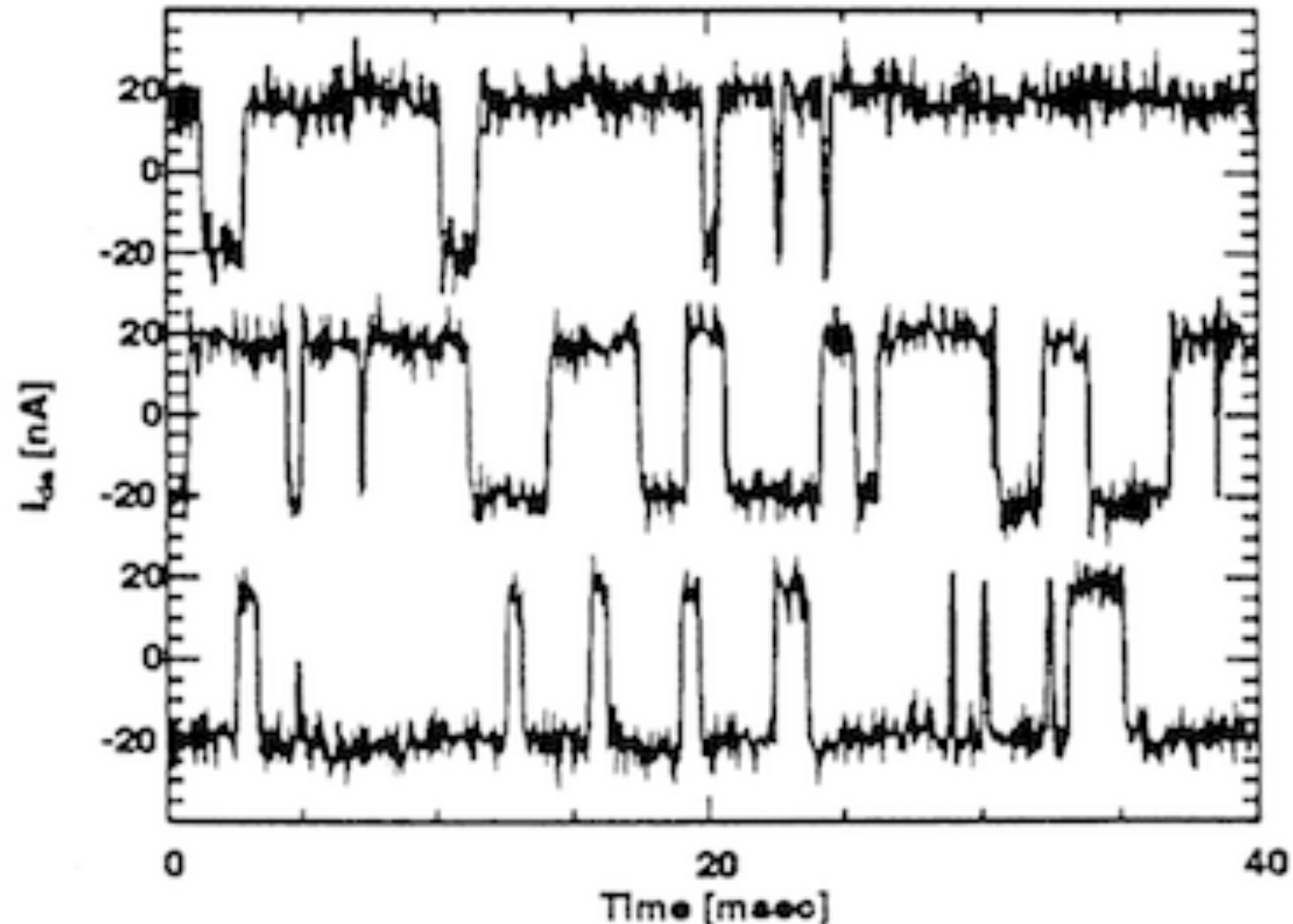
Carriers get "stuck" in oxide traps (dangling bonds) for a while. Can cause a short-lived (seconds to minutes) shift in threshold voltage

$$PSD_{GR}(f) \propto \text{Lorentzian shape} \approx \frac{A}{1 + \frac{f^2}{f_0^2}}$$

## Flicker noise

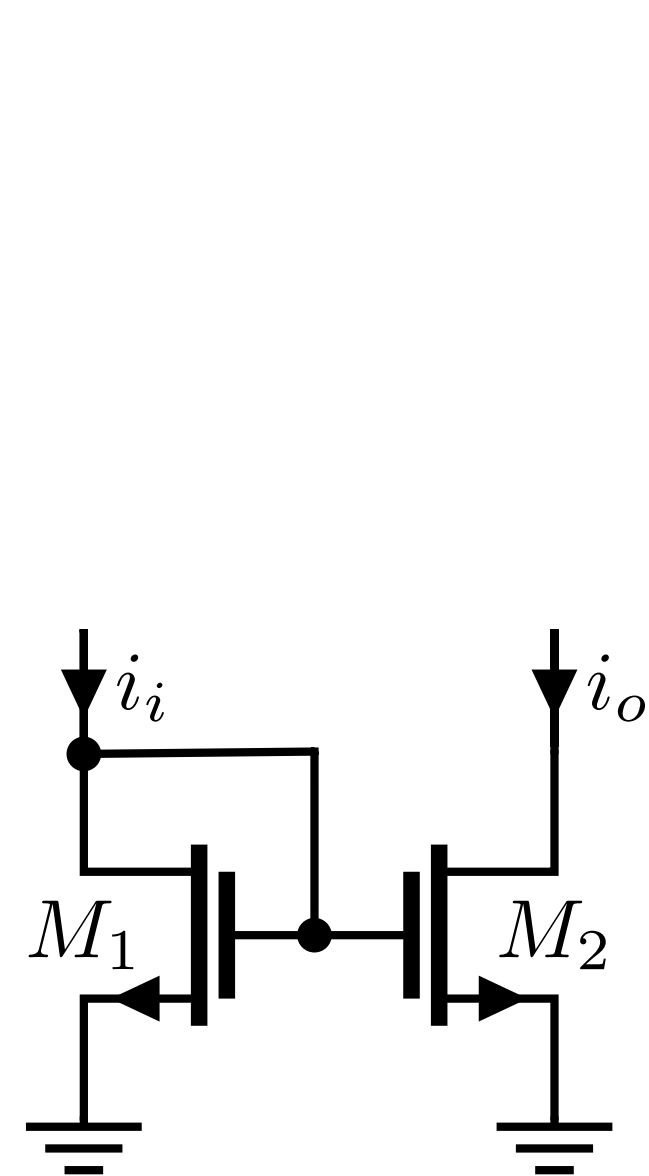
Assume there are many sources of popcorn noise at different energy levels and time constants, then the sum of the spectral densities approaches flicker noise.

$$PSD_{flicker}(f) \propto \frac{1}{f}$$

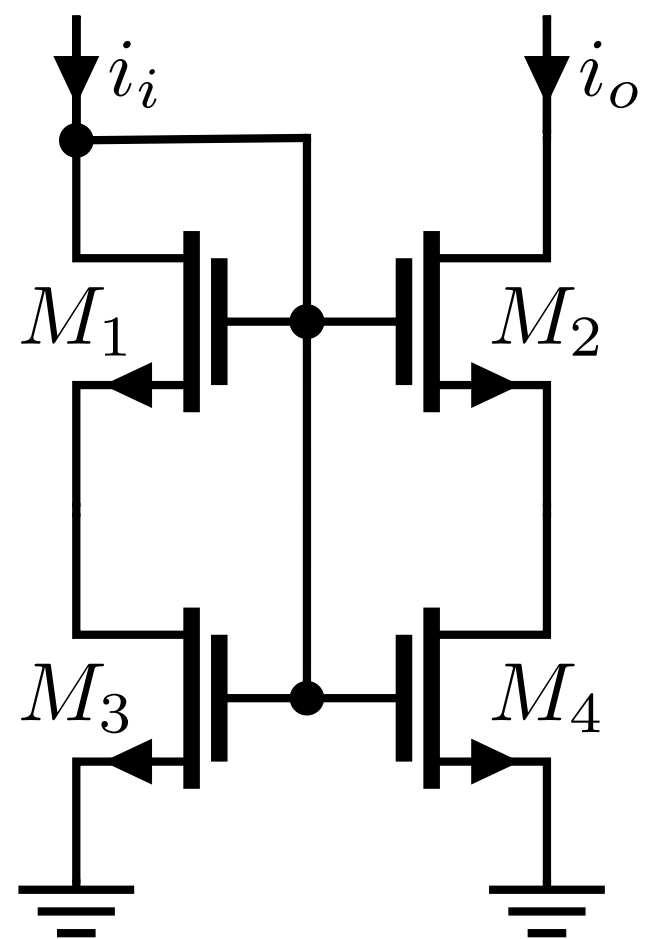


Analog designer = Someone who knows how to deal with variation

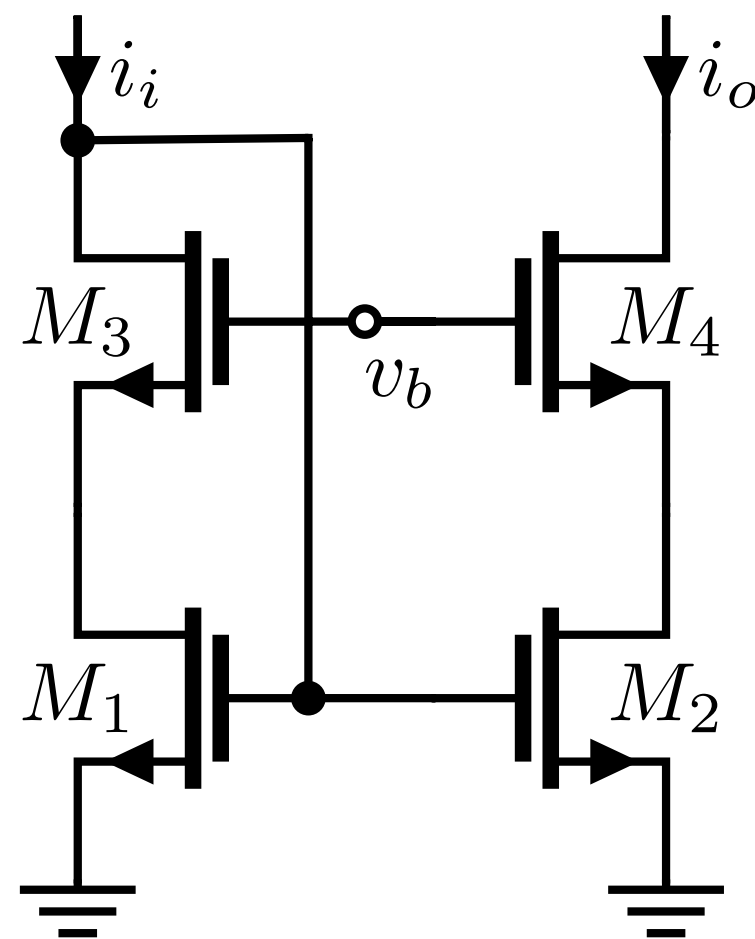
# Current Mirrors



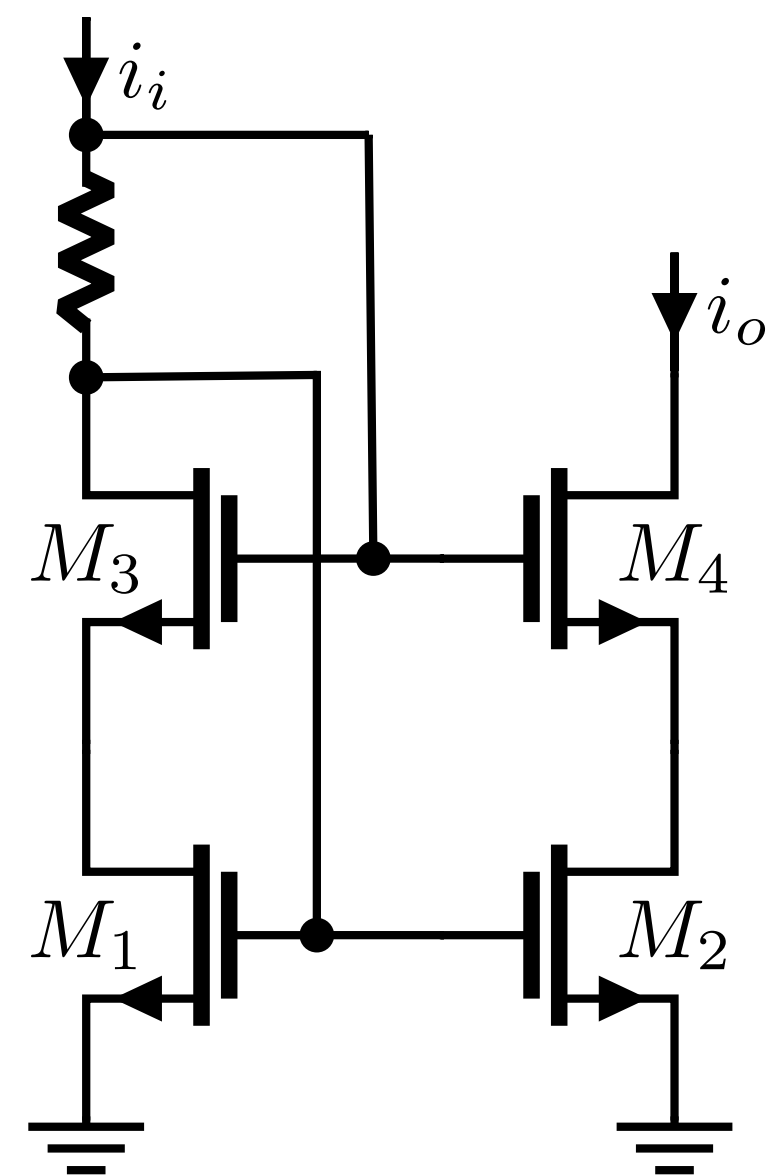
a) "normal"



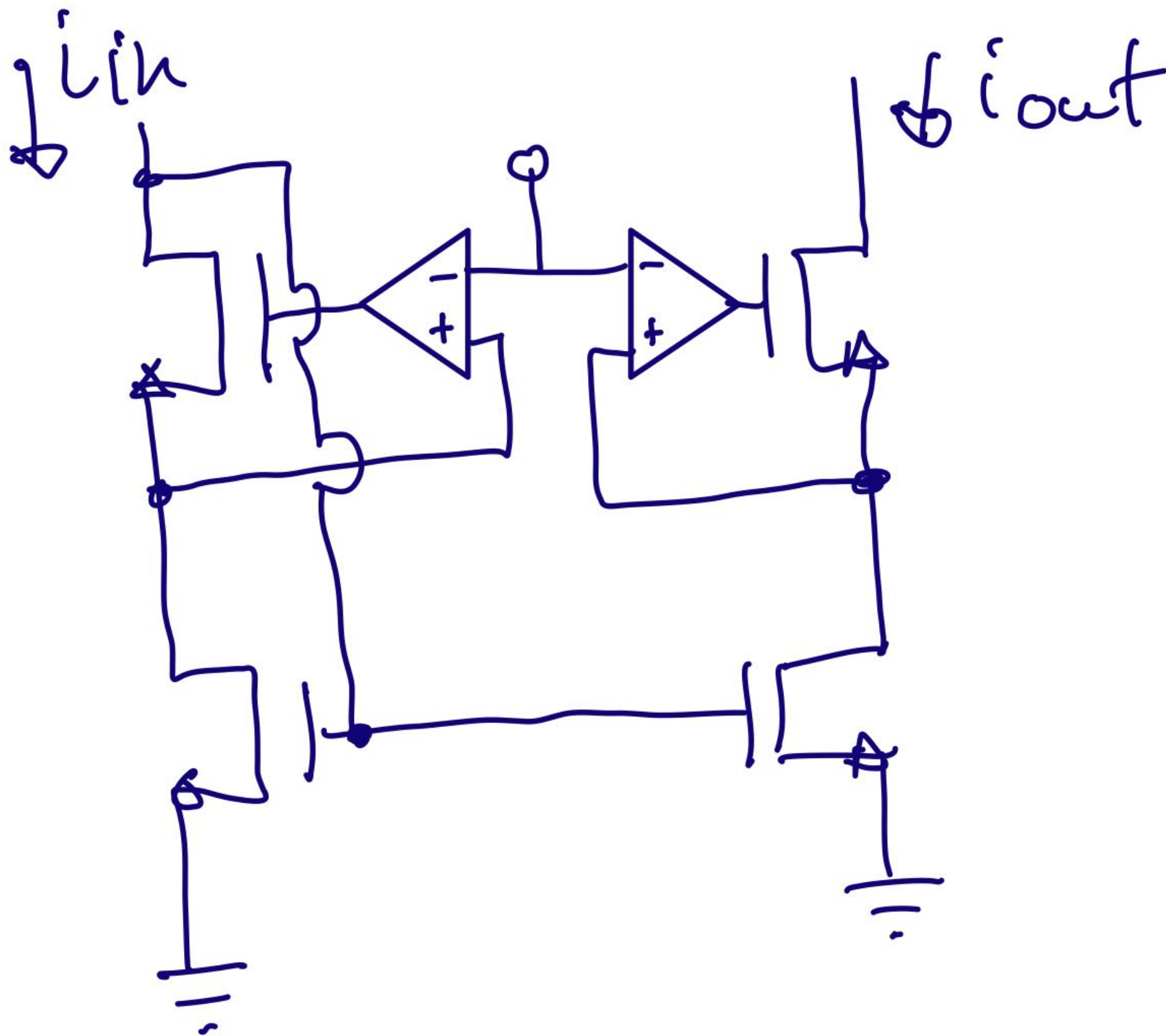
b) Self Cascode



c) Cascode



d) Lazy Cascode

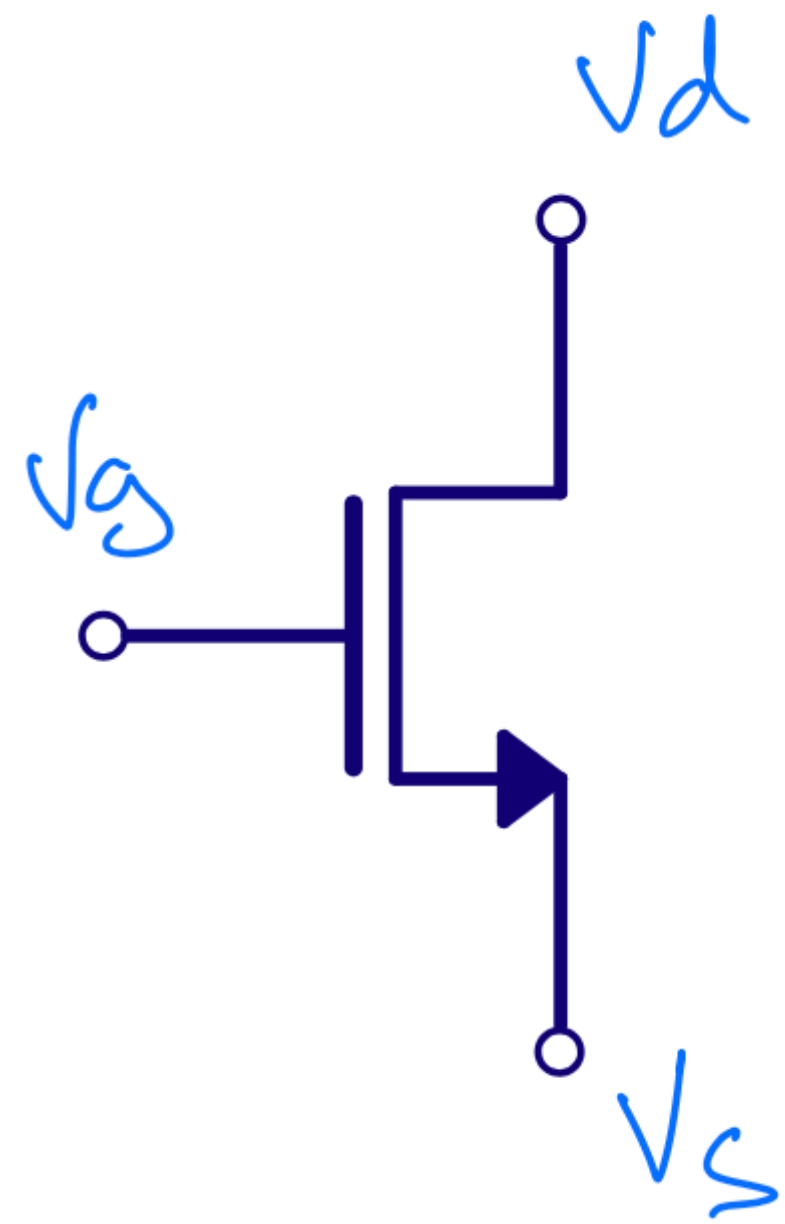




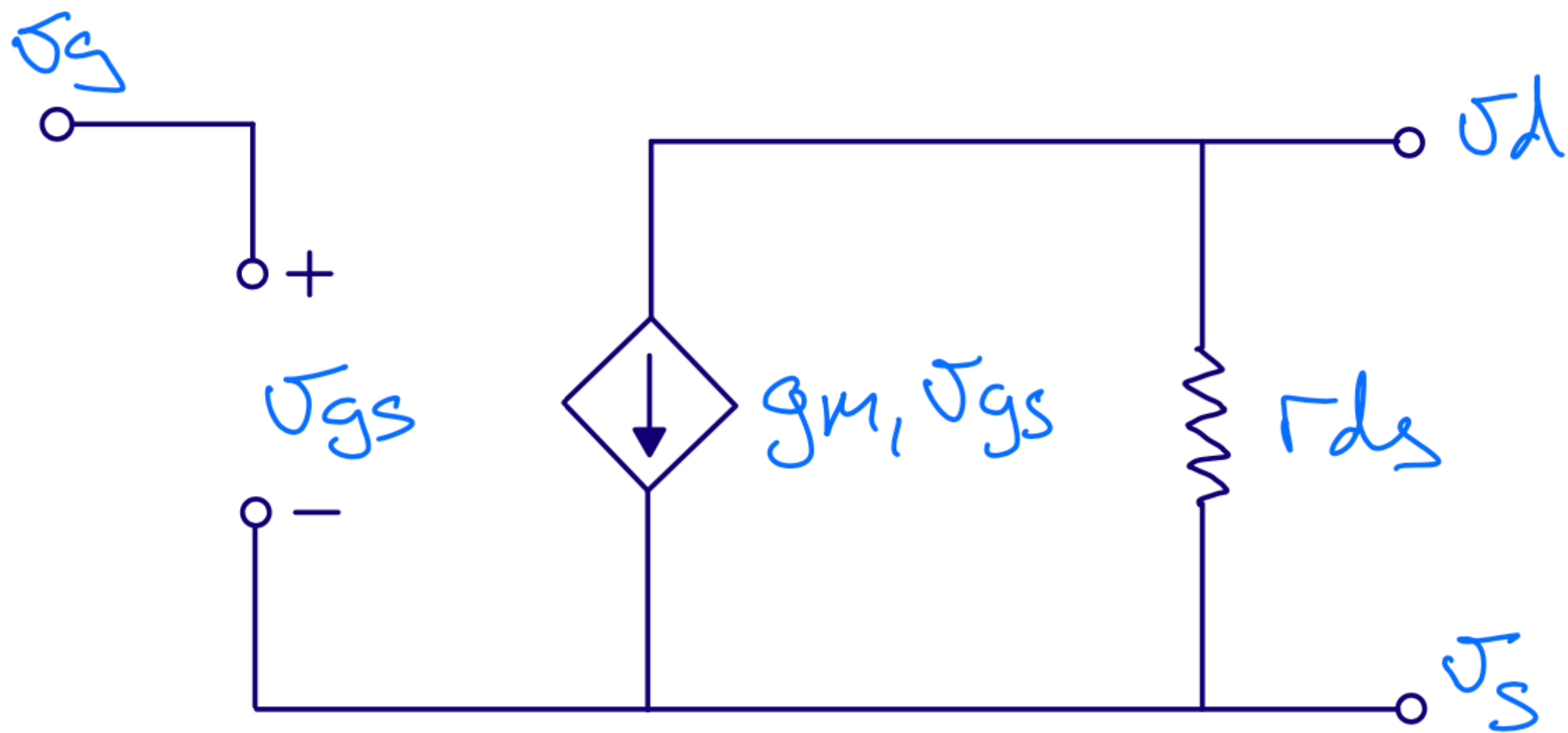


# Large signal vs

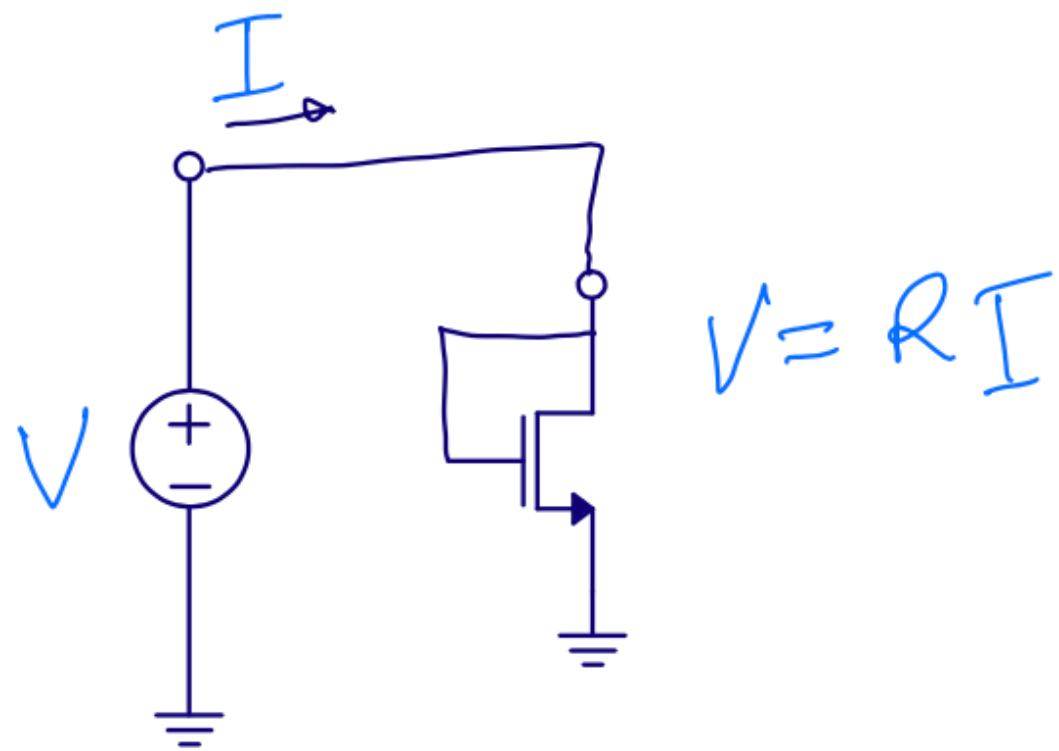
small signal



Large signal

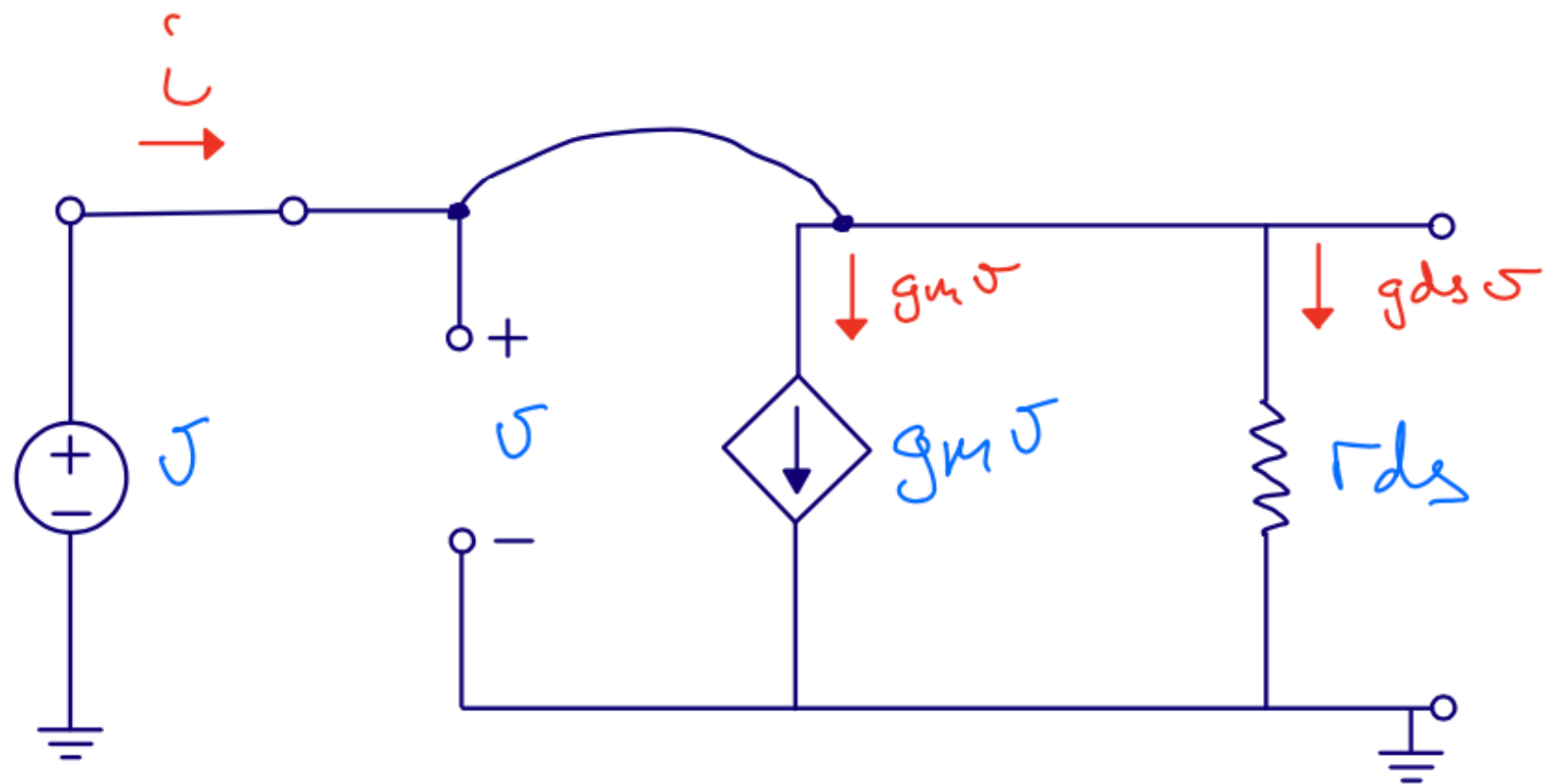


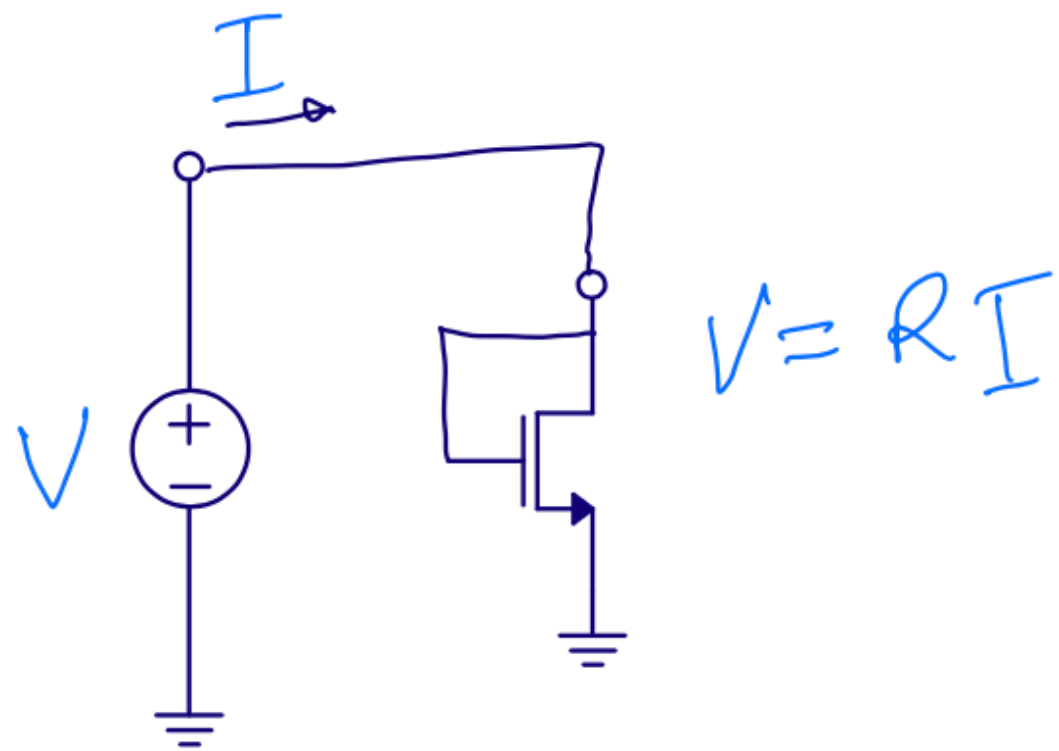
Small signal



$$I \neq i$$

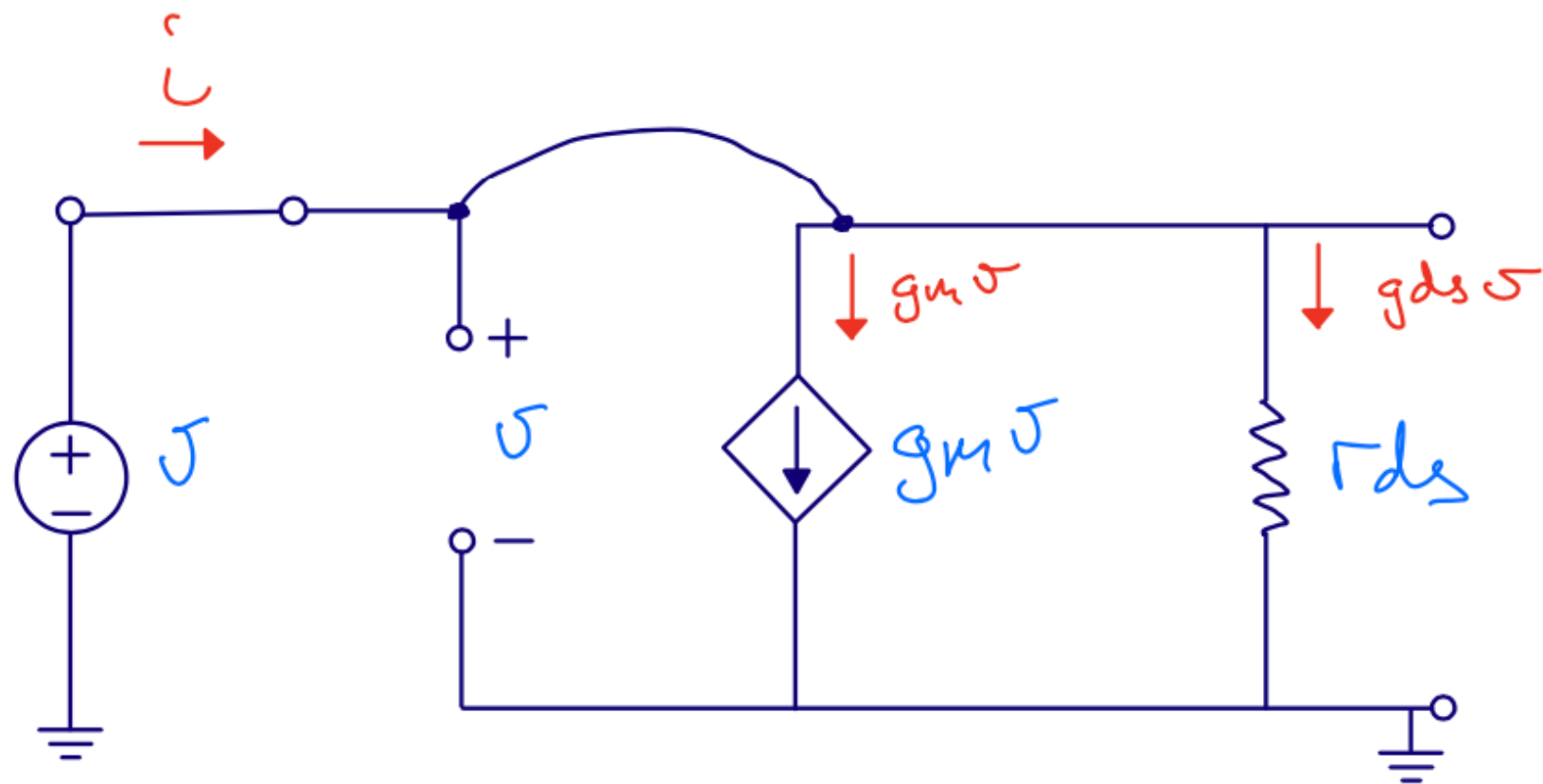
$$V \neq v$$

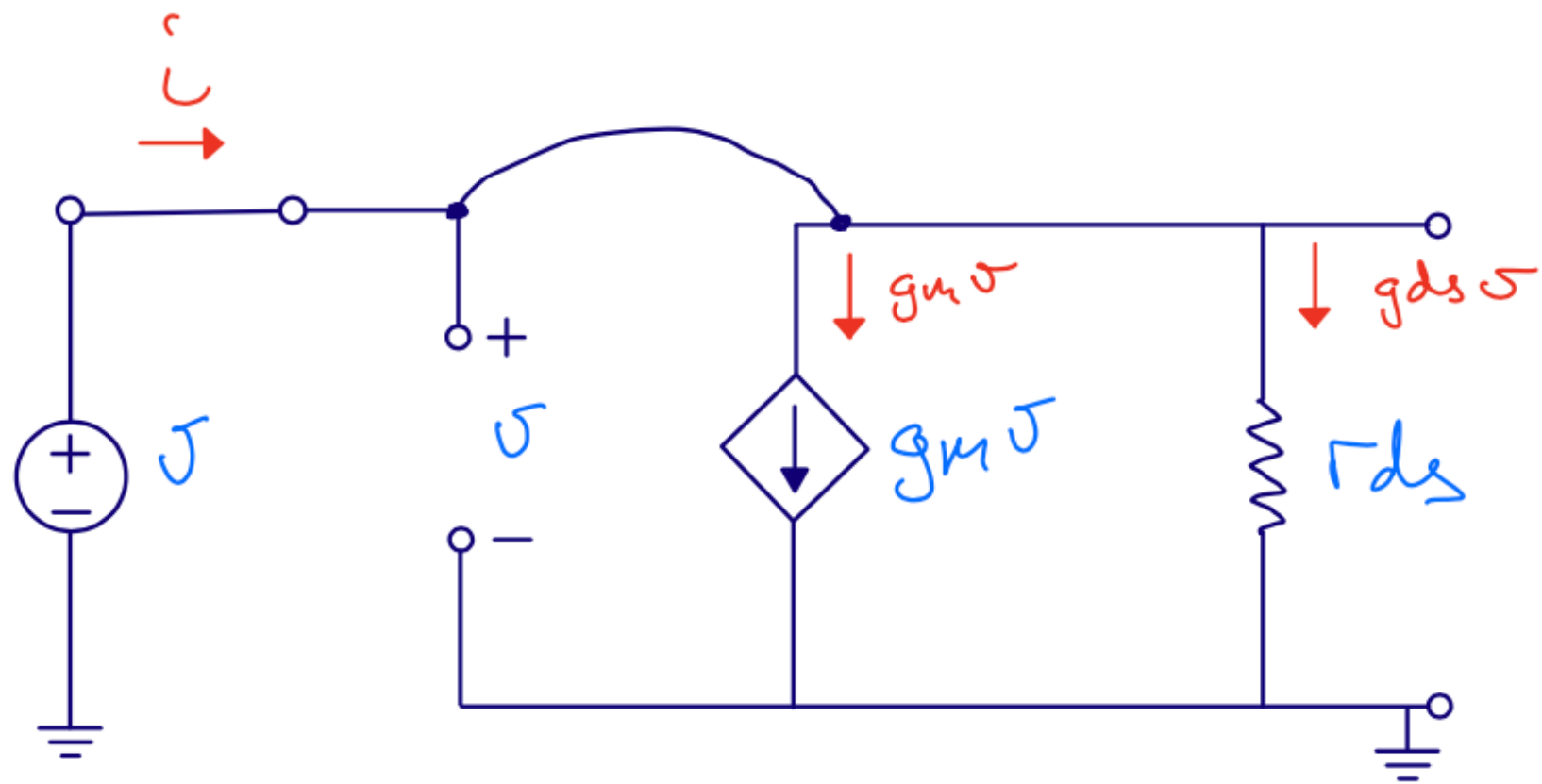
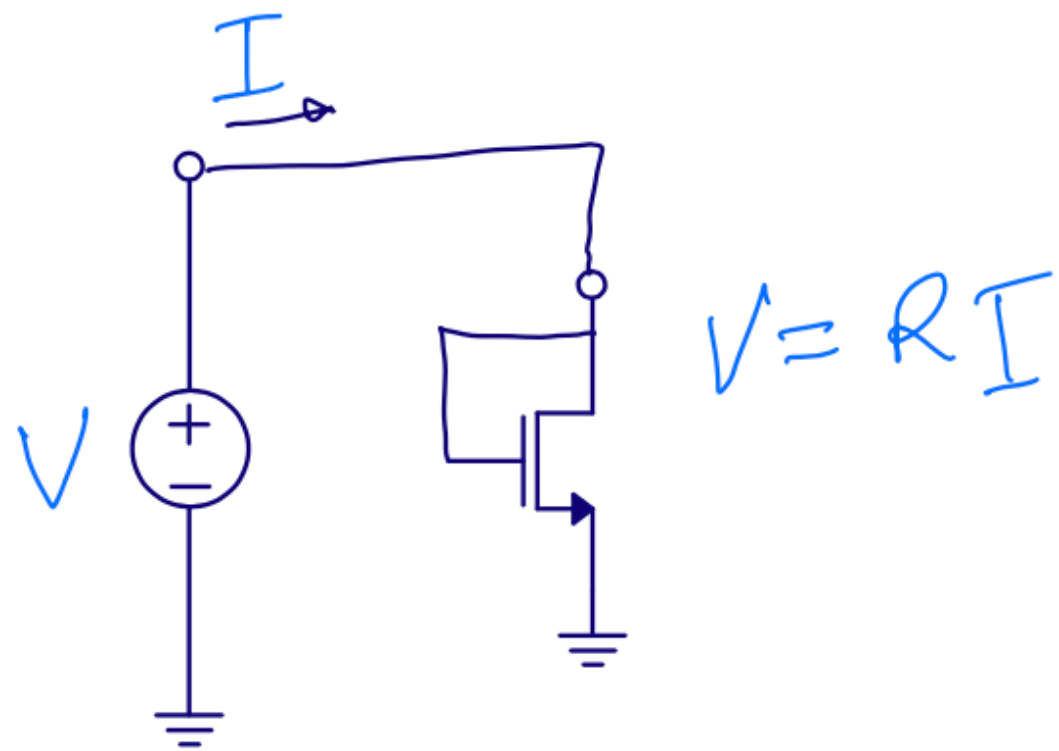




$$I = I_{bias} + i$$

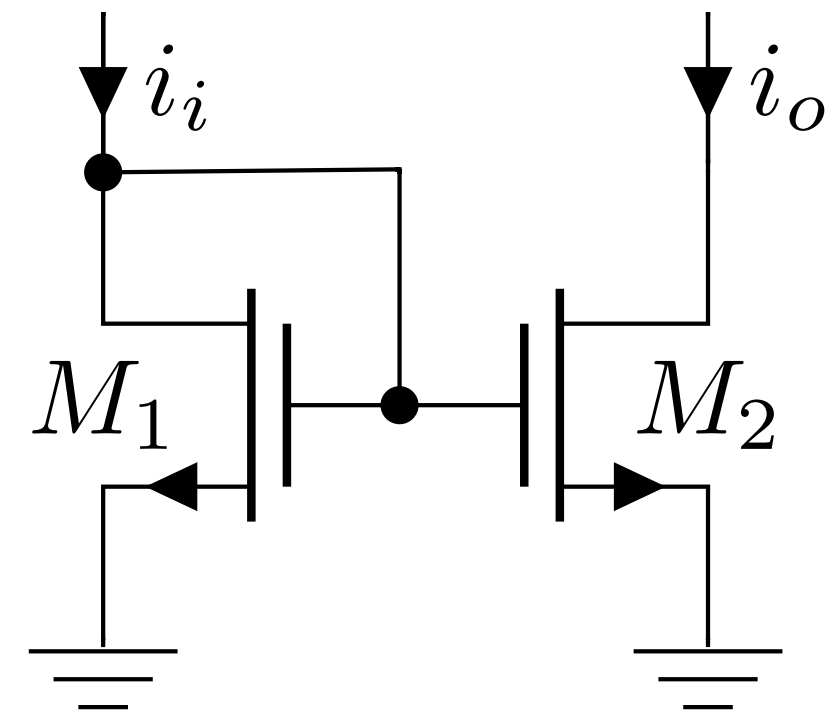
$$V = V_{bias} + v$$





# Current Mirror

$M_1$  is diode connected ( $V_G = V_D$ )

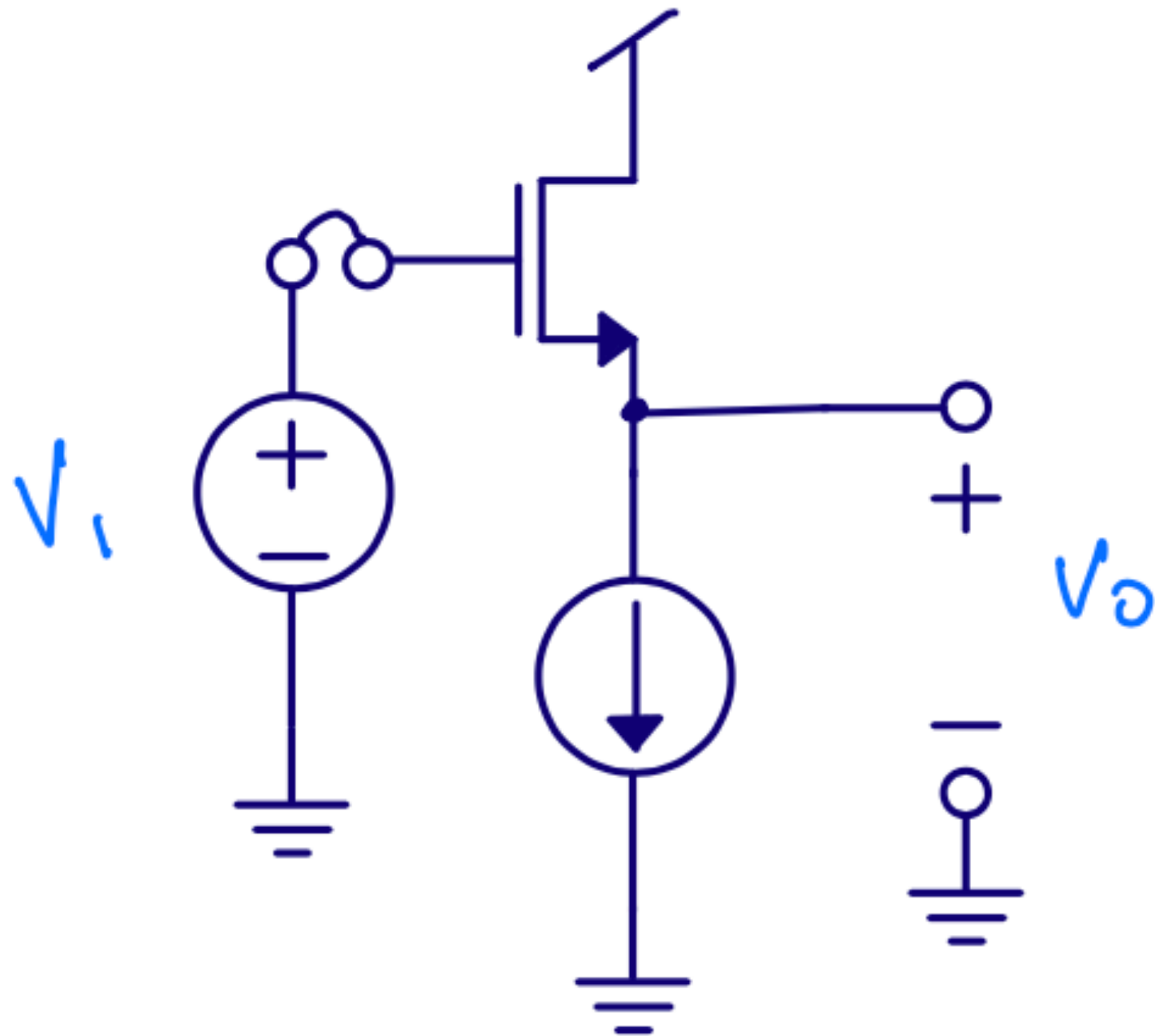


# Amplifiers

# Source follower



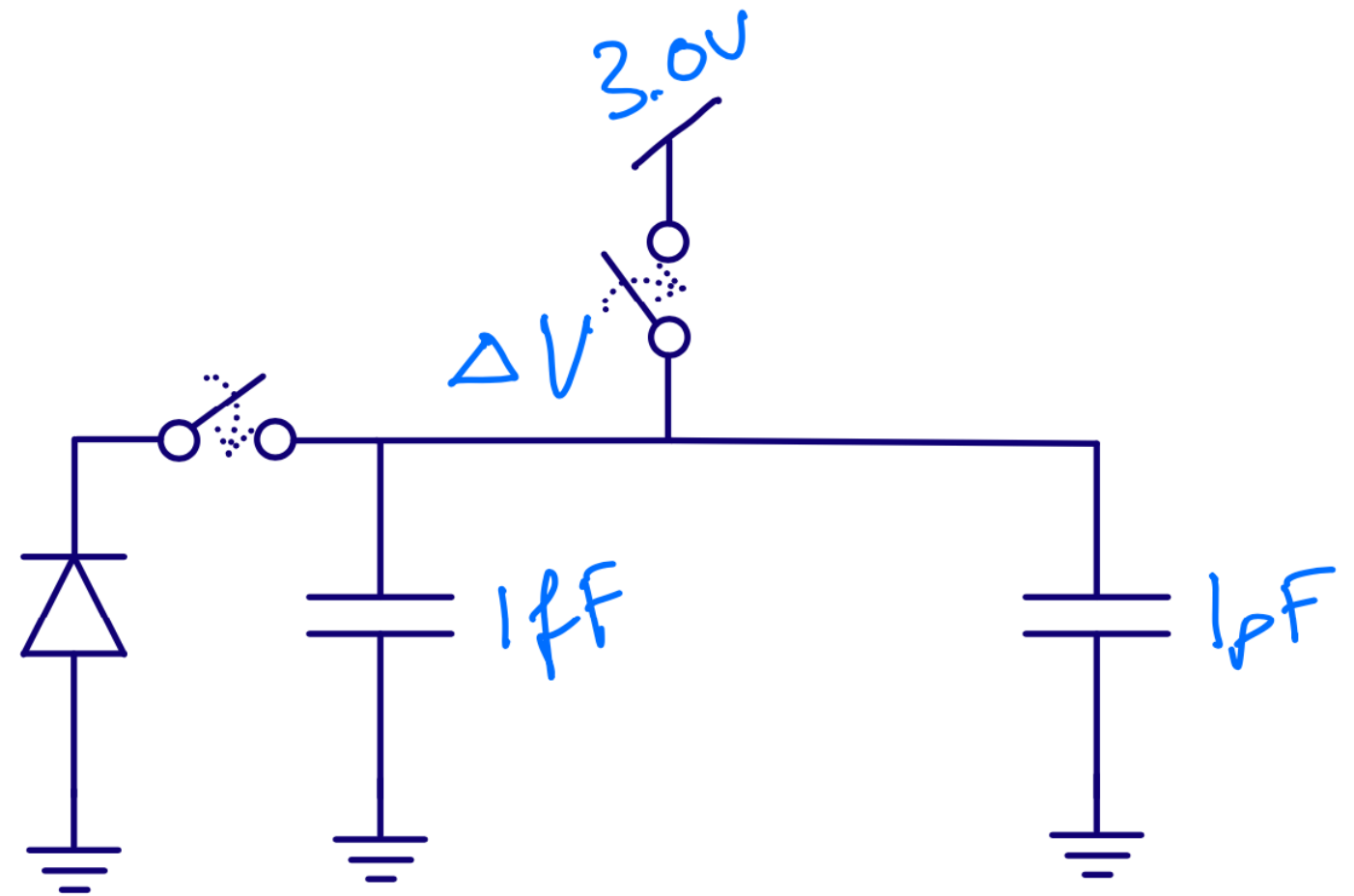
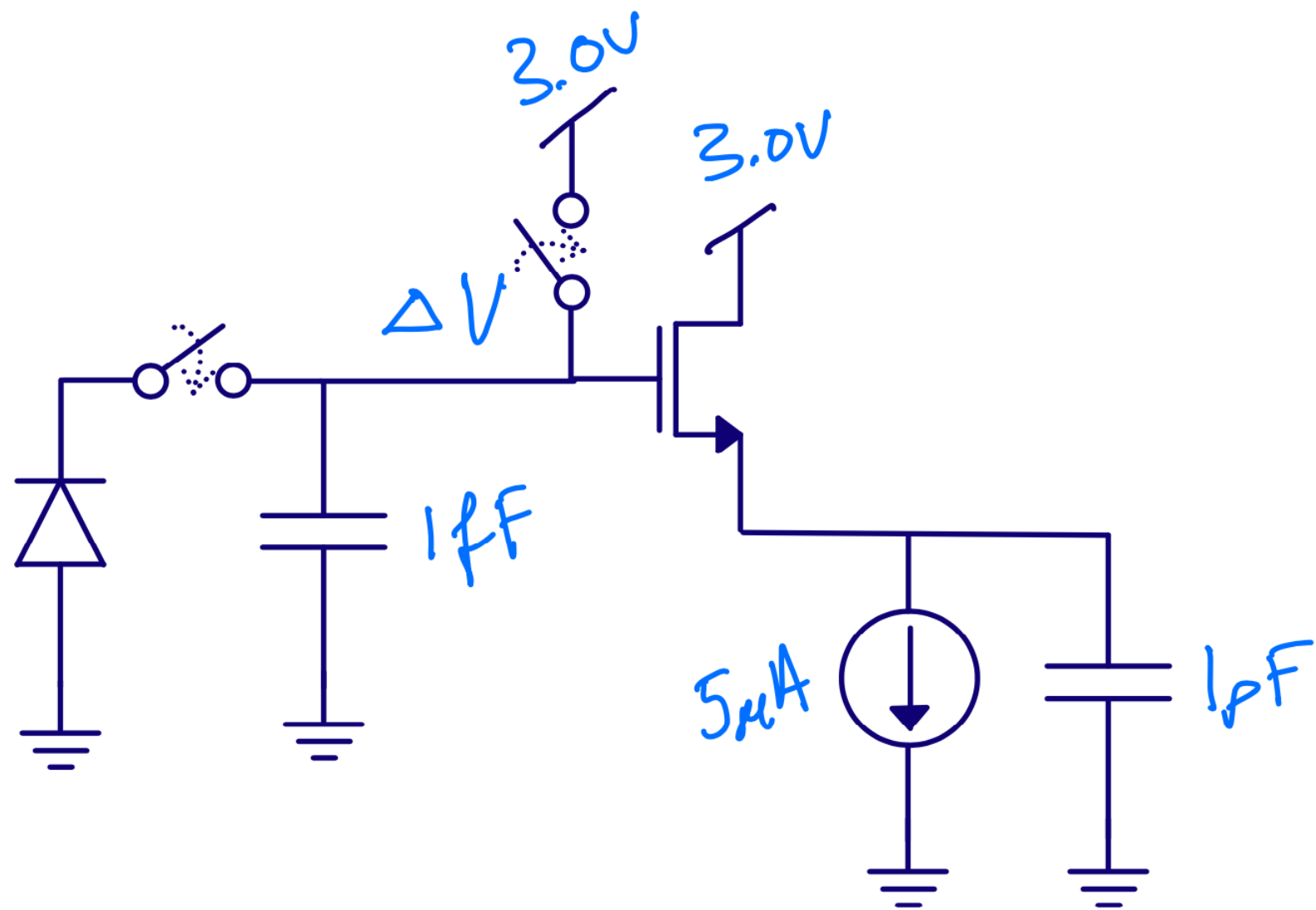
# Source follower



Input resistance  $\approx \infty$

$$\text{Gain } A = \frac{v_o}{v_i}$$

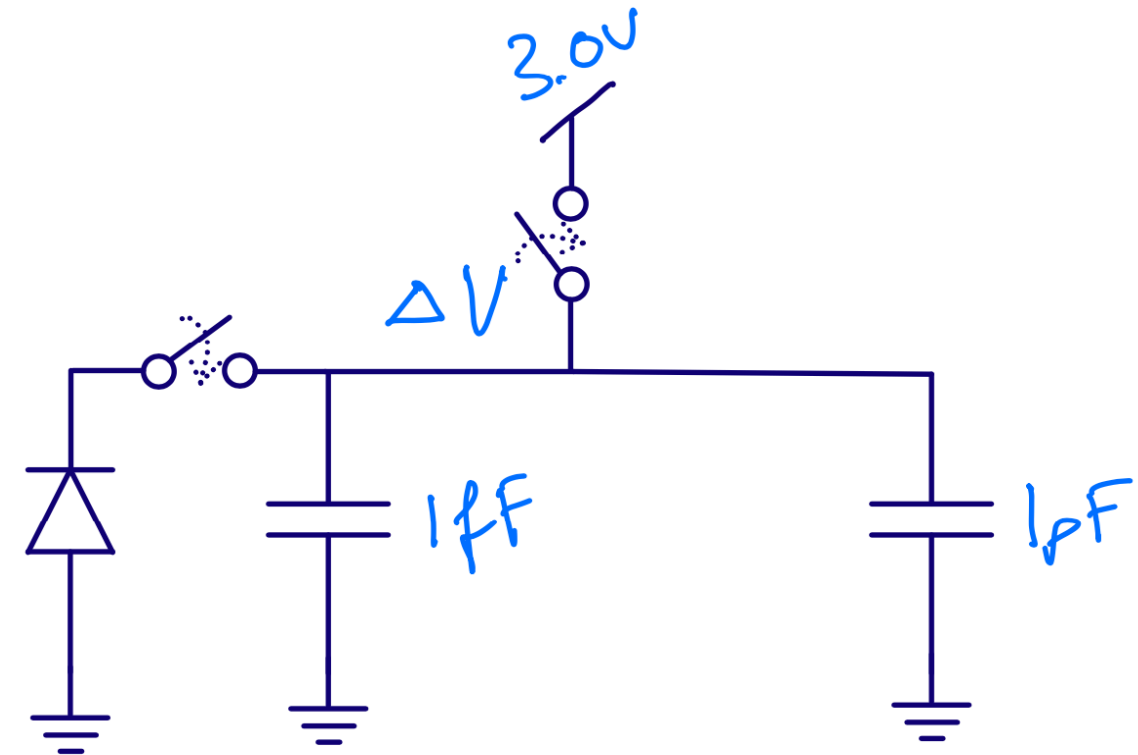
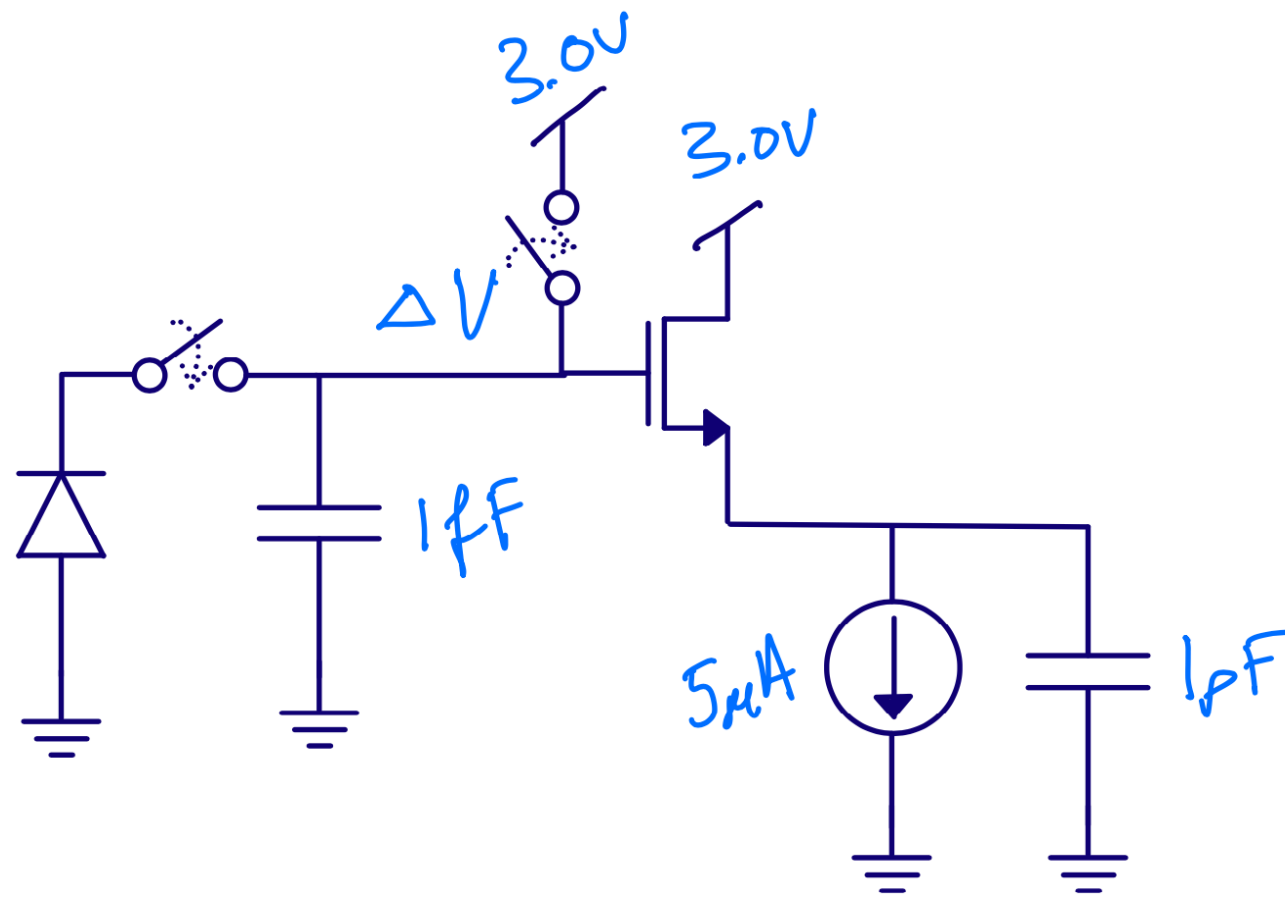
Output resistance  $r_{out}$



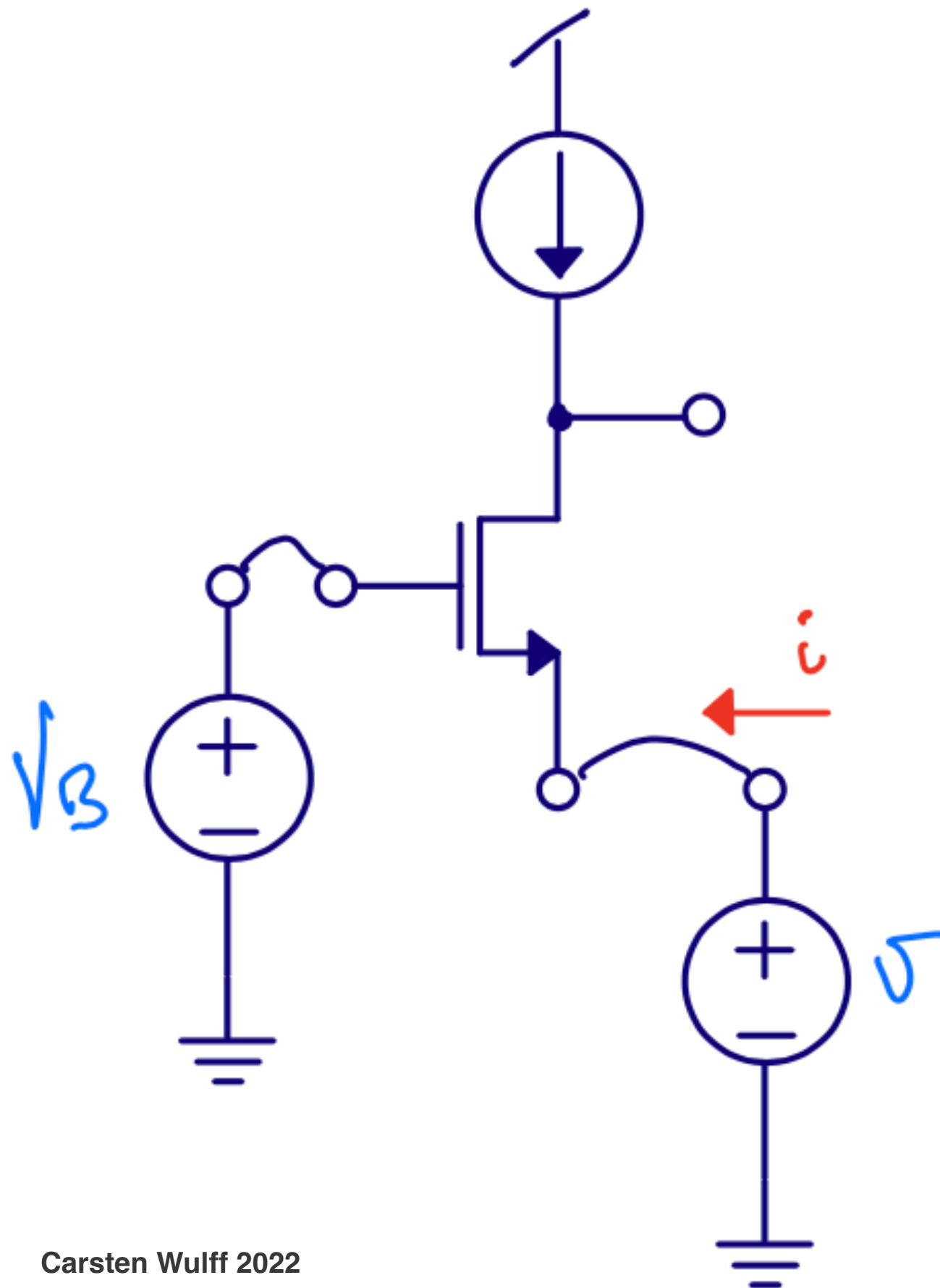
Assume 100 electrons

$$\Delta V = Q/C = -1.6 \times 10^{-19} \times 100 / (1 \times 10^{-15}) = -16 \text{ mV}$$

$$\Delta V = Q/C = -1.6 \times 10^{-19} \times 100 / (1 \times 10^{-12}) = -16 \text{ uV}$$



# Common gate



$$\text{Input resistance } r_{in} \approx \frac{1}{g_m} \left( 1 + \frac{R_L}{r_{ds}} \right)$$

$$\text{Gain } \frac{v_o}{v_i} = 1 + g_m r_{ds}$$

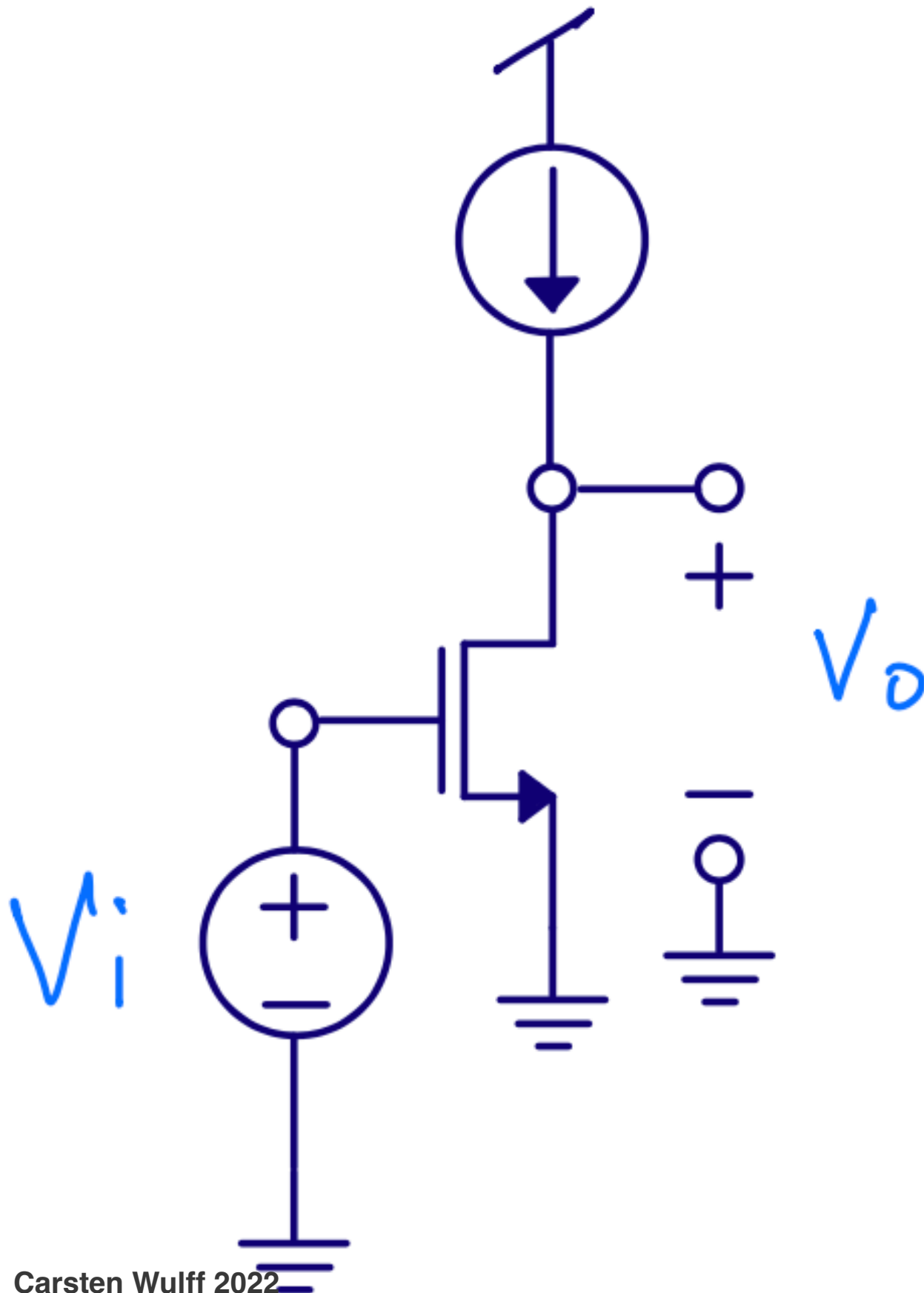
$$\text{Output resistance } r_{out} = r_{ds}$$

# Common source

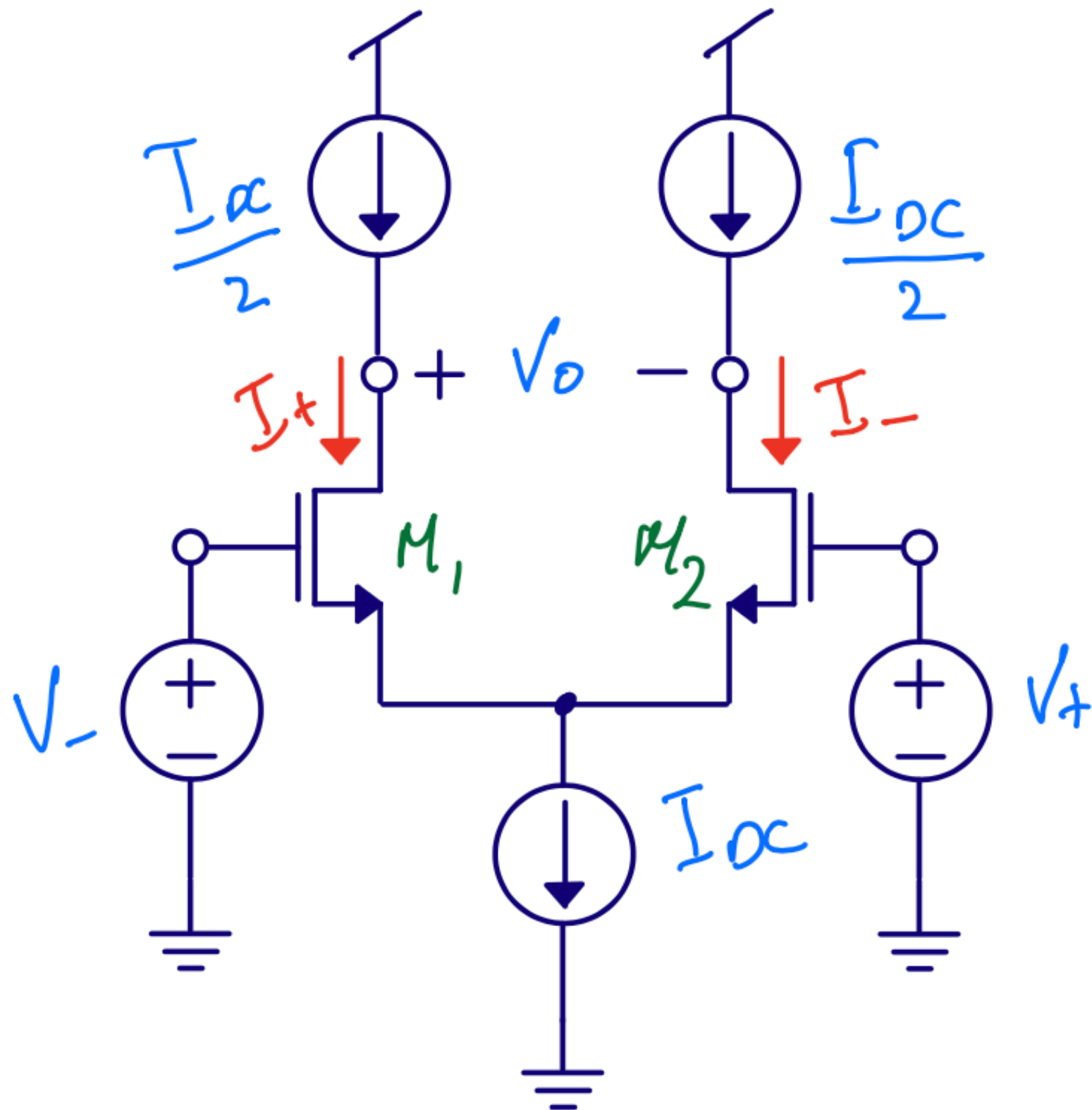
Input resistance  $r_{in} \approx \infty$

Output resistance  $r_{out} = r_{ds}$ , it's same circuit as the output of a current mirror

$$\text{Gain } \frac{v_o}{v_i} = -g_m r_{ds}$$



# Diff pairs are cool



Can choose between

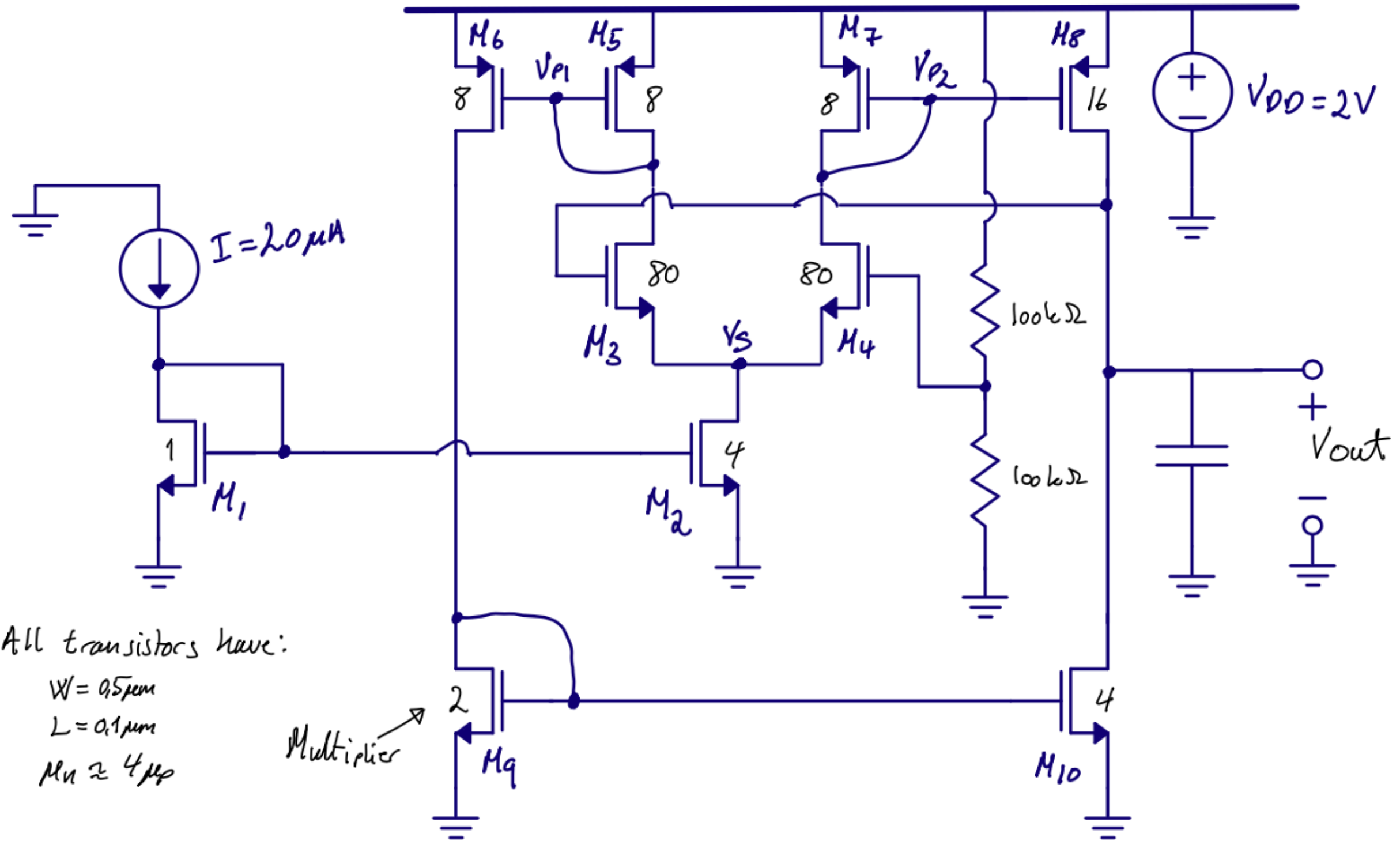
$$v_o = g_m r_{ds} v_i$$

and

$$v_o = -g_m r_{ds} v_i$$

by flipping input (or output) connections

# Operational transconductance amplifiers



All transistors have:

$W = 0.5 \mu m$   
 $L = 0.1 \mu m$   
 $\mu_n \approx 4 \mu s$



# Digital

# Rules for inverting static CMOS logic

## Pull-up

OR  $\Rightarrow$  PMOS in series  $\Rightarrow$  POS

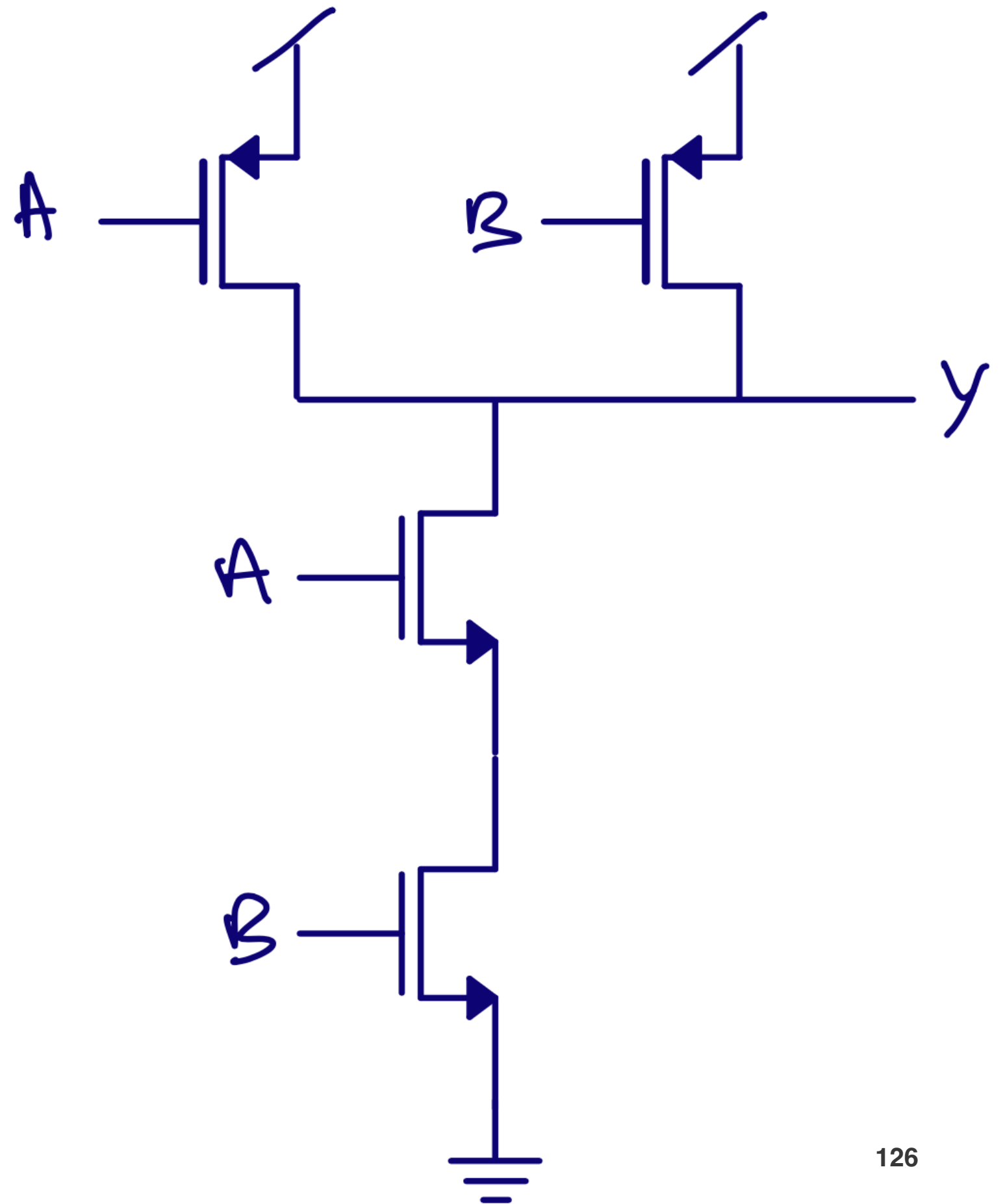
AND  $\Rightarrow$  PMOS in parallel  $\Rightarrow$  PNP

Postrumatic Papaya

## Pull-down

OR  $\Rightarrow$  NMOS in parallel  $\Rightarrow$  NOP

AND  $\Rightarrow$  NMOS in series  $\Rightarrow$  NAS



$$Y = \overline{AB} = \text{NOT} ( A \text{ AND } B)$$

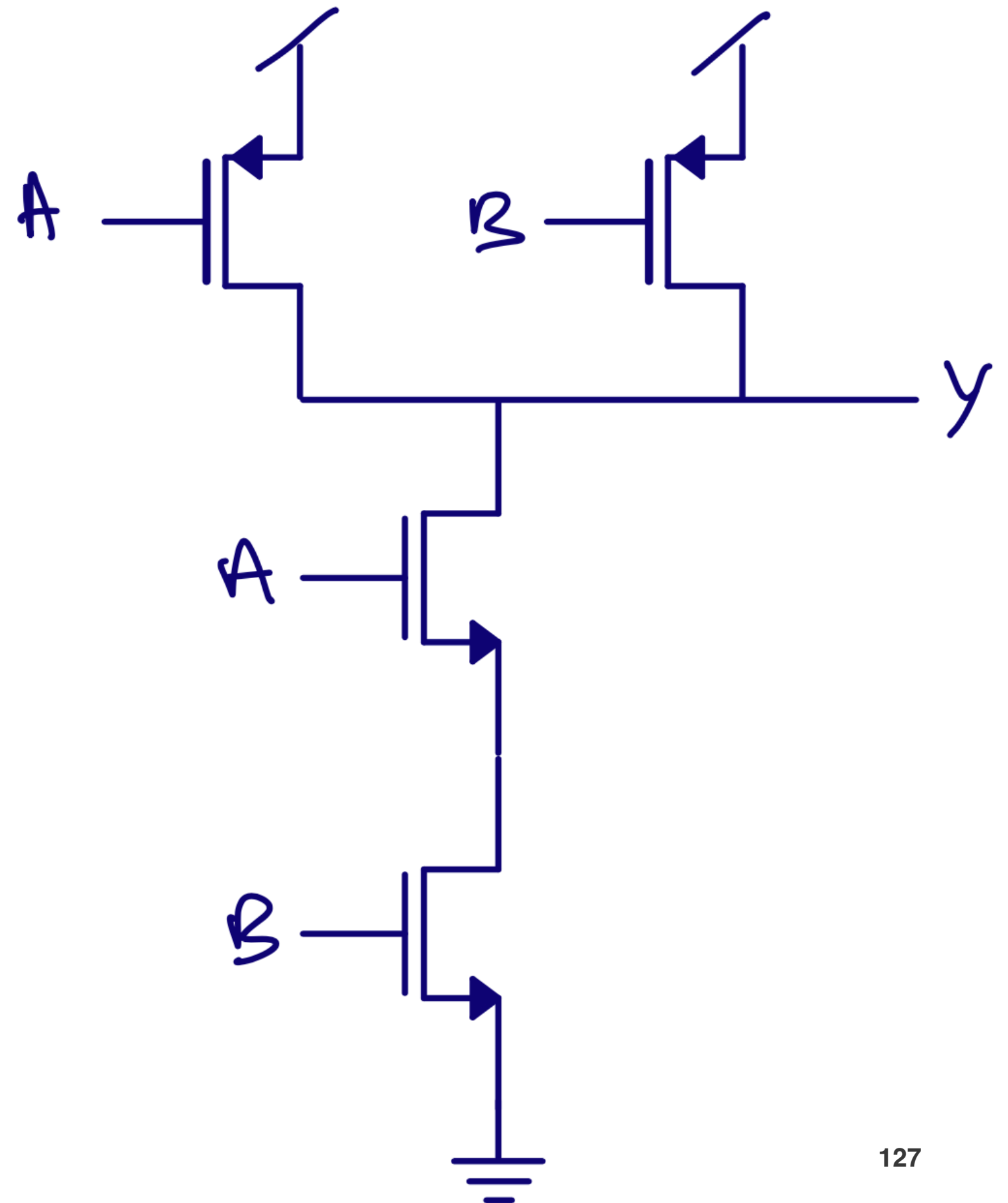
## AND

PU  $\Rightarrow$  PMOS in parallel

PD  $\Rightarrow$  NMOS in series

Postrumatic Papaya

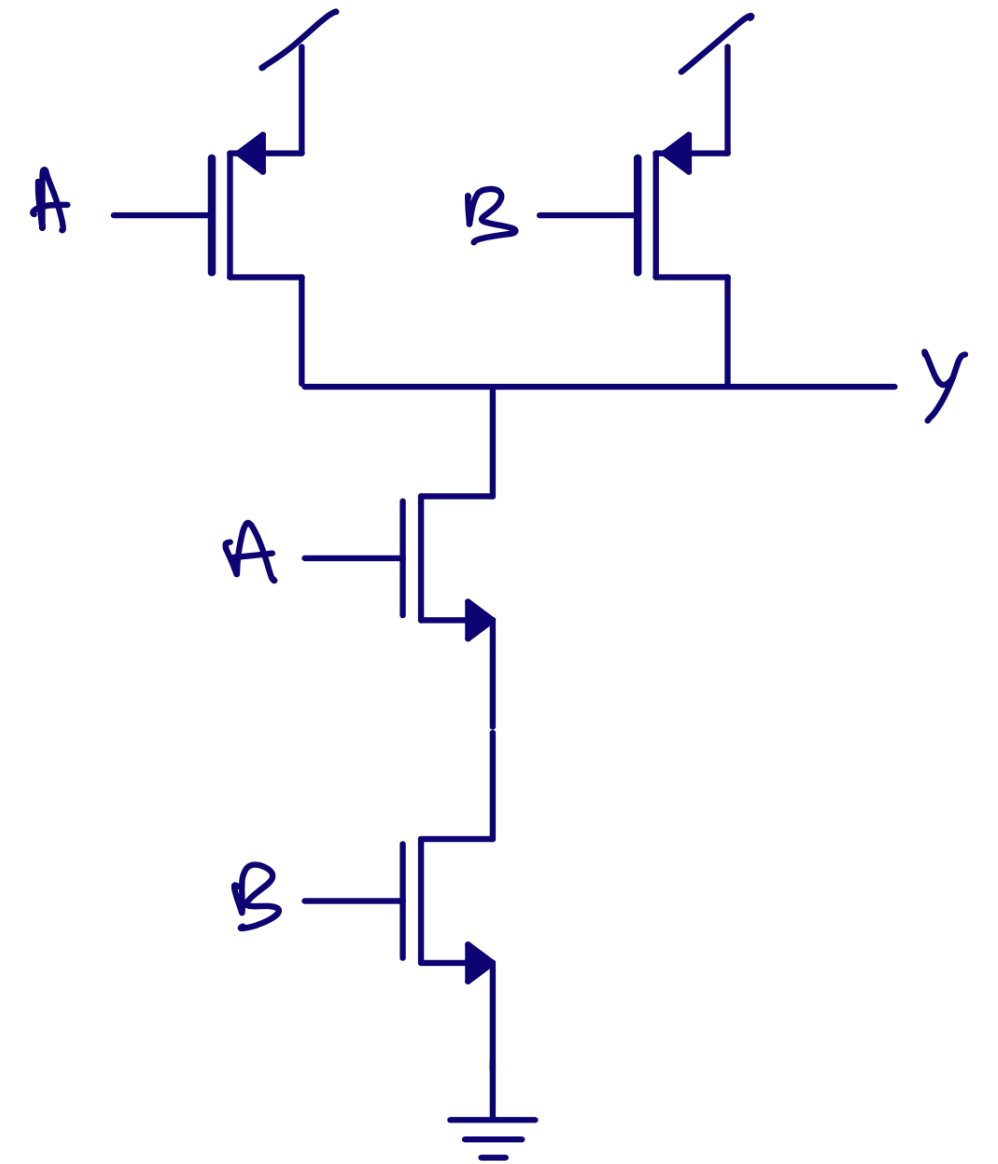
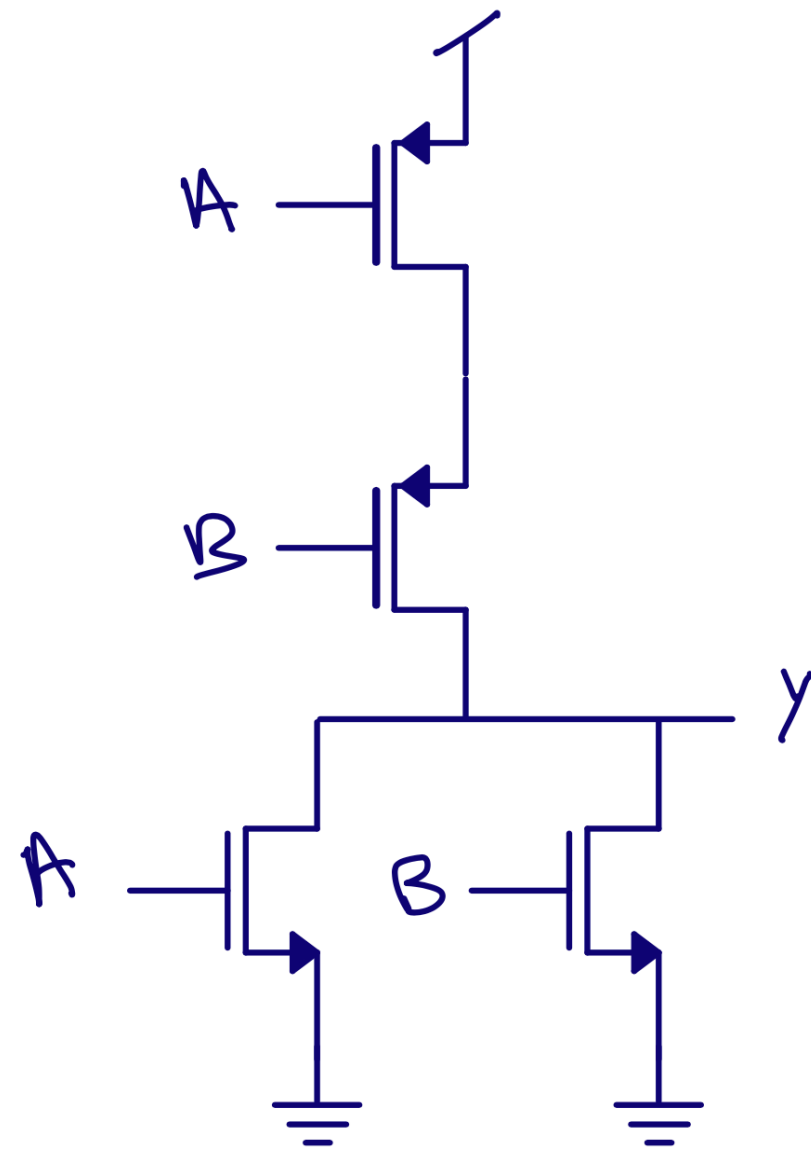
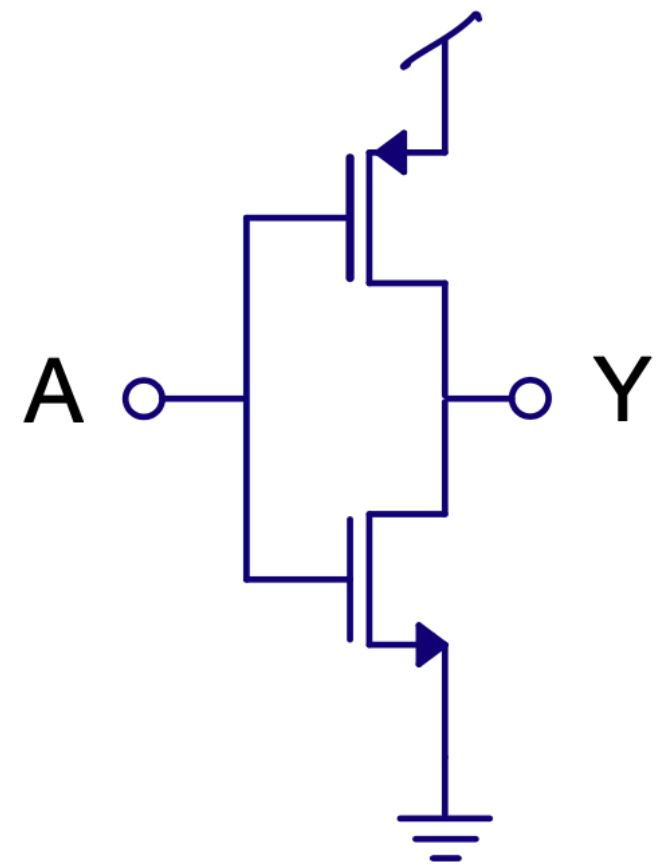
A	B	NOT(A AND B)
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0



# SUN\_TR\_GF130N

ssh://aurora/home/wulff/repos/sun\_tr\_gf130n.git

Cell	Description
ANX1_CV	AND
BFX1_CV	Buffer
DFRNQNX1_CV	D Flip-flop with inverted output and inverted reset
IVTRIX1_CV	Tristate inverter, enable
IVX1_CV	Inverter
NDTRIX1_CV	Tristate NAND
NDX1_CV	NAND
NRX1_CV	NOR
ORX1_CV	OR
SCX1_CV	Schmitt-trigger
TAPCELLB_CV	Bulk connection
TIEH_CV	Tie high
TIEL_CV	Tie low



# $SR$ -Latch

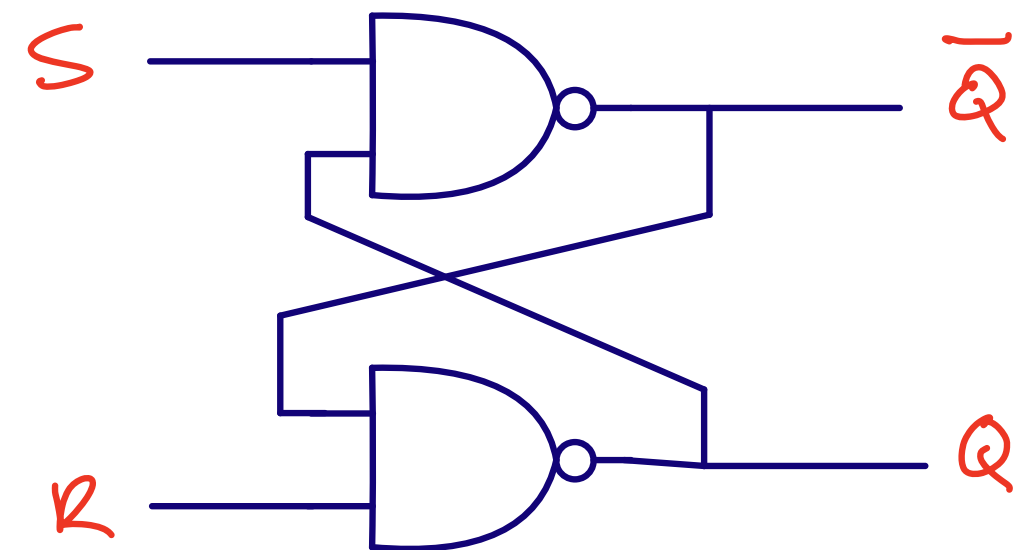
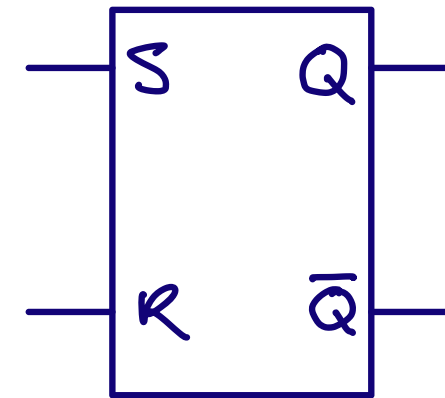
Use boolean expressions to figure out how gates work.

Remember De-Morgan

$$\overline{AB} = \overline{A} + \overline{B}$$
$$\overline{A + B} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$$

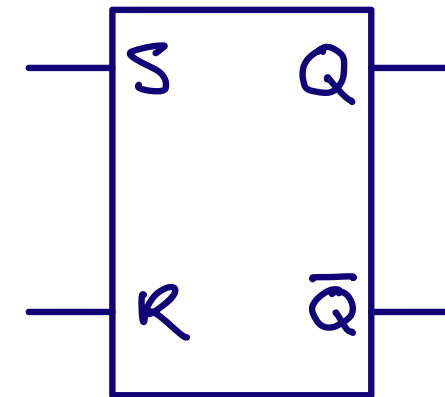
$$Q = \overline{RQ} = \overline{R} + \overline{Q} = \overline{R} + Q$$

$$\overline{Q} = \overline{SQ} = \overline{S} + \overline{Q} = \overline{S} + \overline{Q}$$

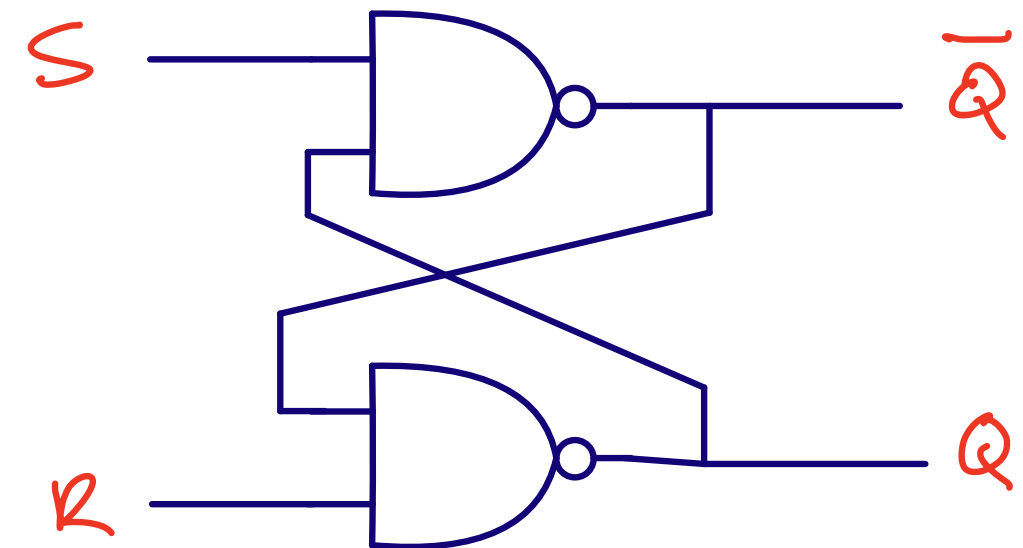


# *SR*-Latch

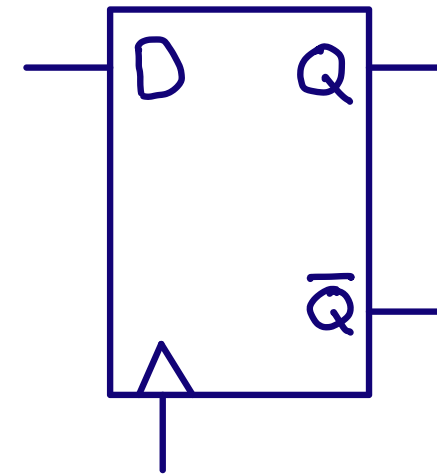
$$Q = \bar{R} + Q, \bar{Q} = \bar{S} + \bar{Q}$$



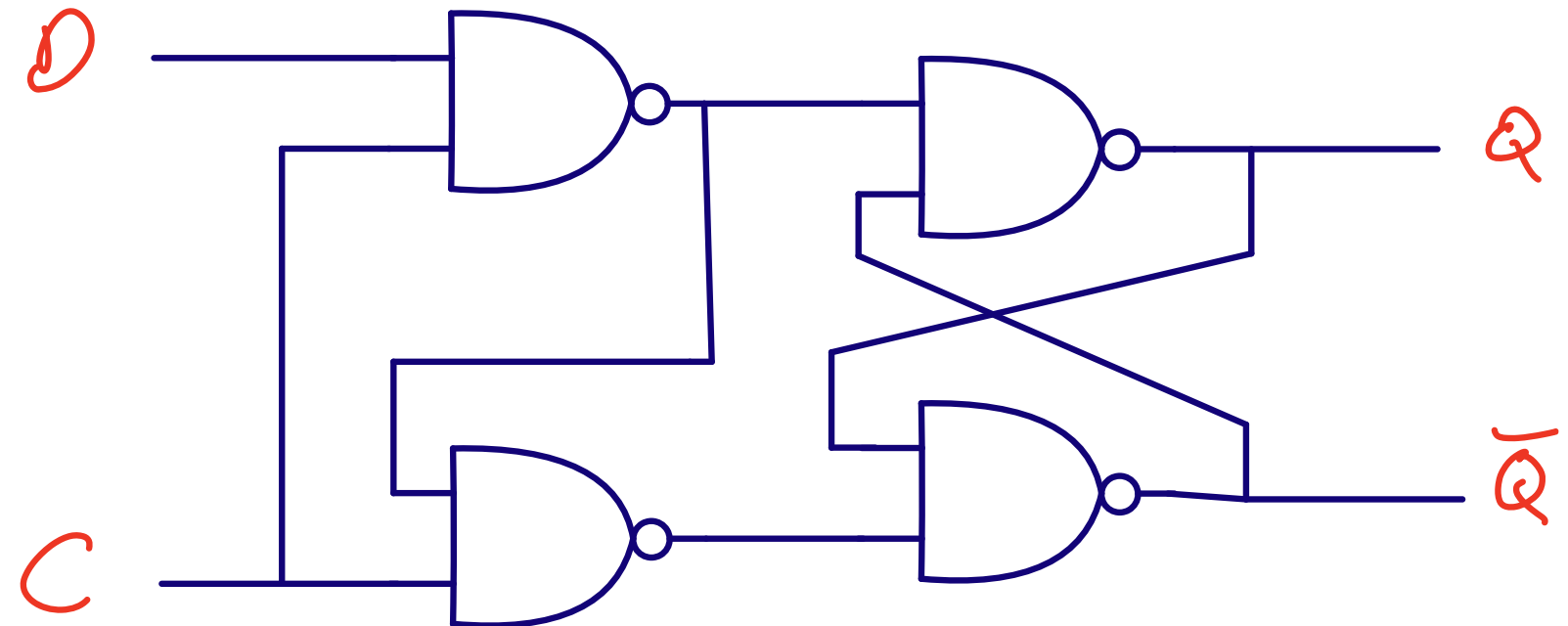
S	R	Q	~Q
0	0	X	X
0	1	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	Q	~Q



# D-Latch



C	D	Q	$\sim Q$
0	X	Q	$\sim Q$
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	0





Digital can be synthesized in  
conductive peanut butter

Barrie Gilbert?

What about  $Y = AB$  and  $Y = A + B$ ?

$$Y = AB = \overline{\overline{AB}}$$

$$Y = A + B = \overline{\overline{A + B}}$$

$Y = A \text{ AND } B = \text{NOT}(\text{NOT}(A \text{ AND } B))$

$Y = A \text{ OR } B = \text{NOT}(\text{NOT}(A \text{ OR } B))$

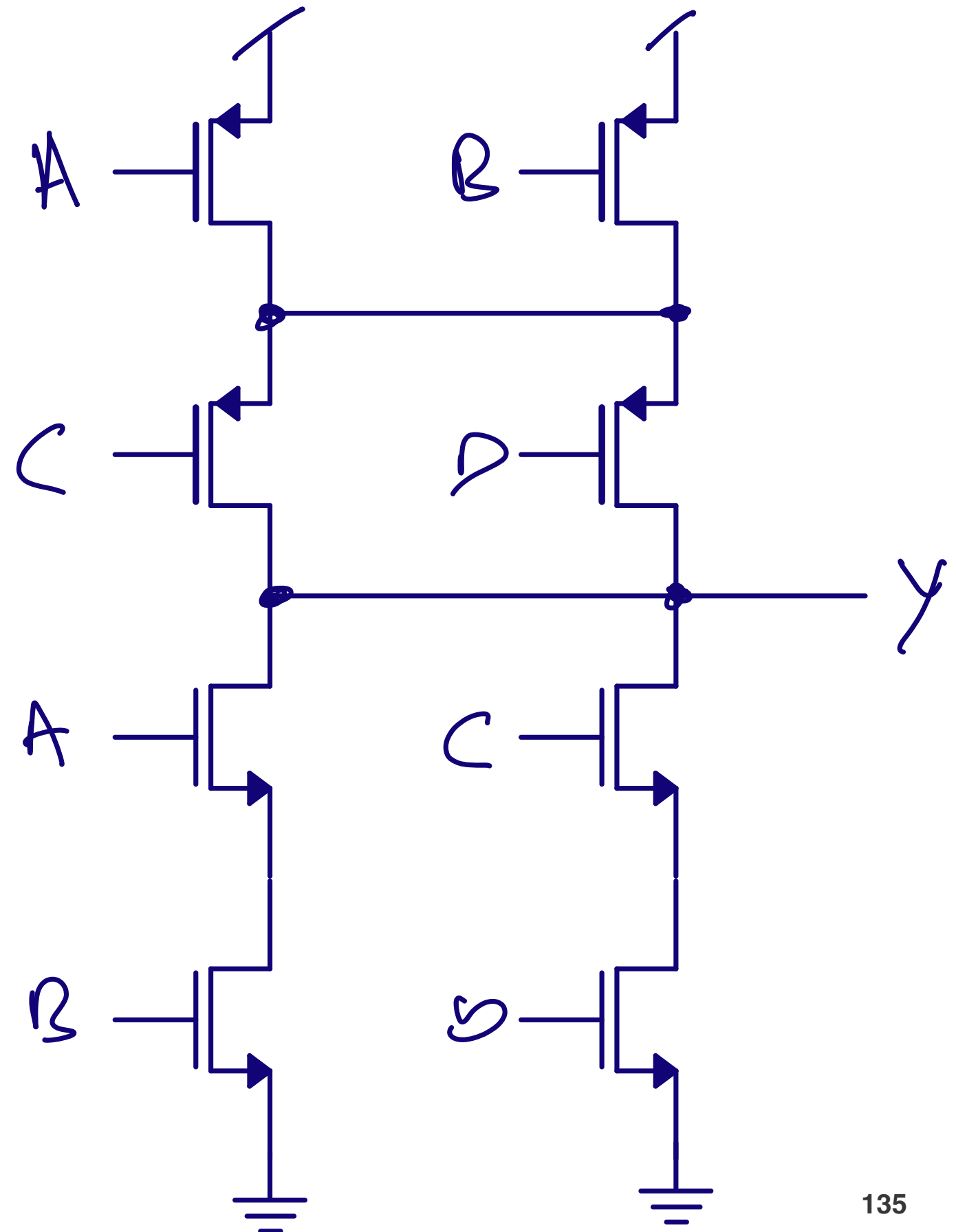


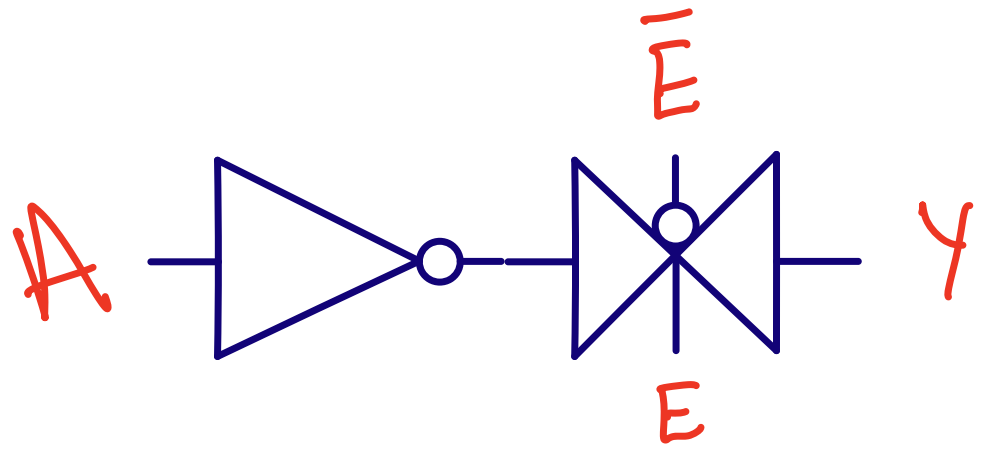
# AOI22: and or invert

$$Y = \text{NOT}(A \text{ AND } B \text{ OR } C \text{ AND } D)$$

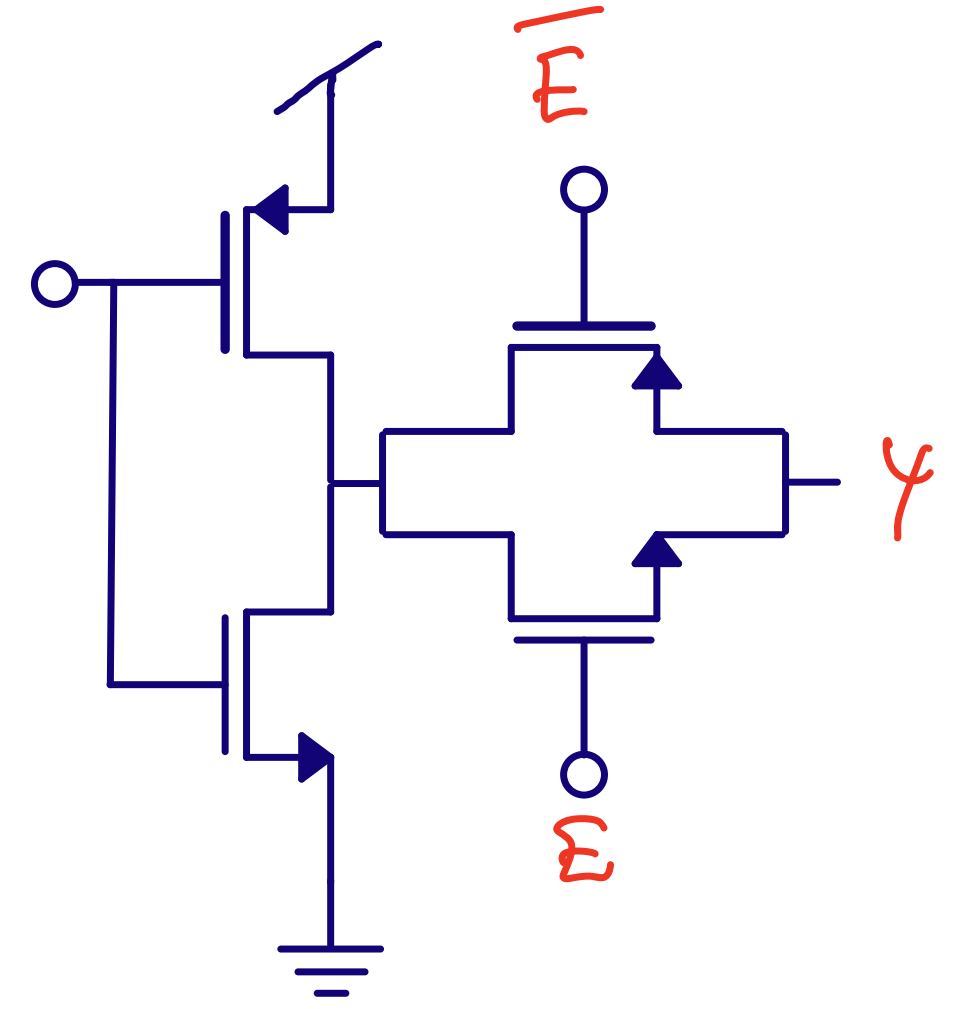
$$Y = \overline{AB + CD}$$

Posttraumatic Papaya

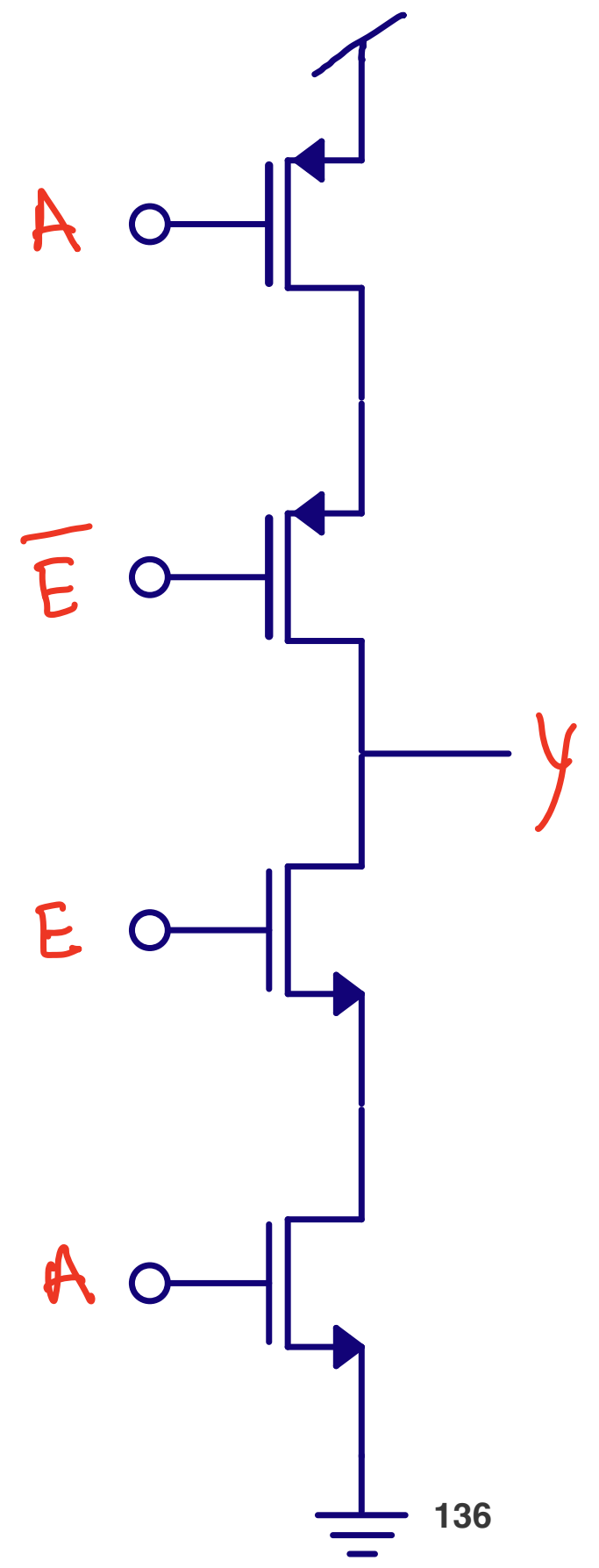




$\equiv$

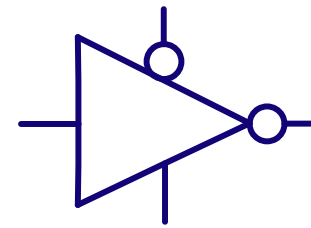


$\approx$

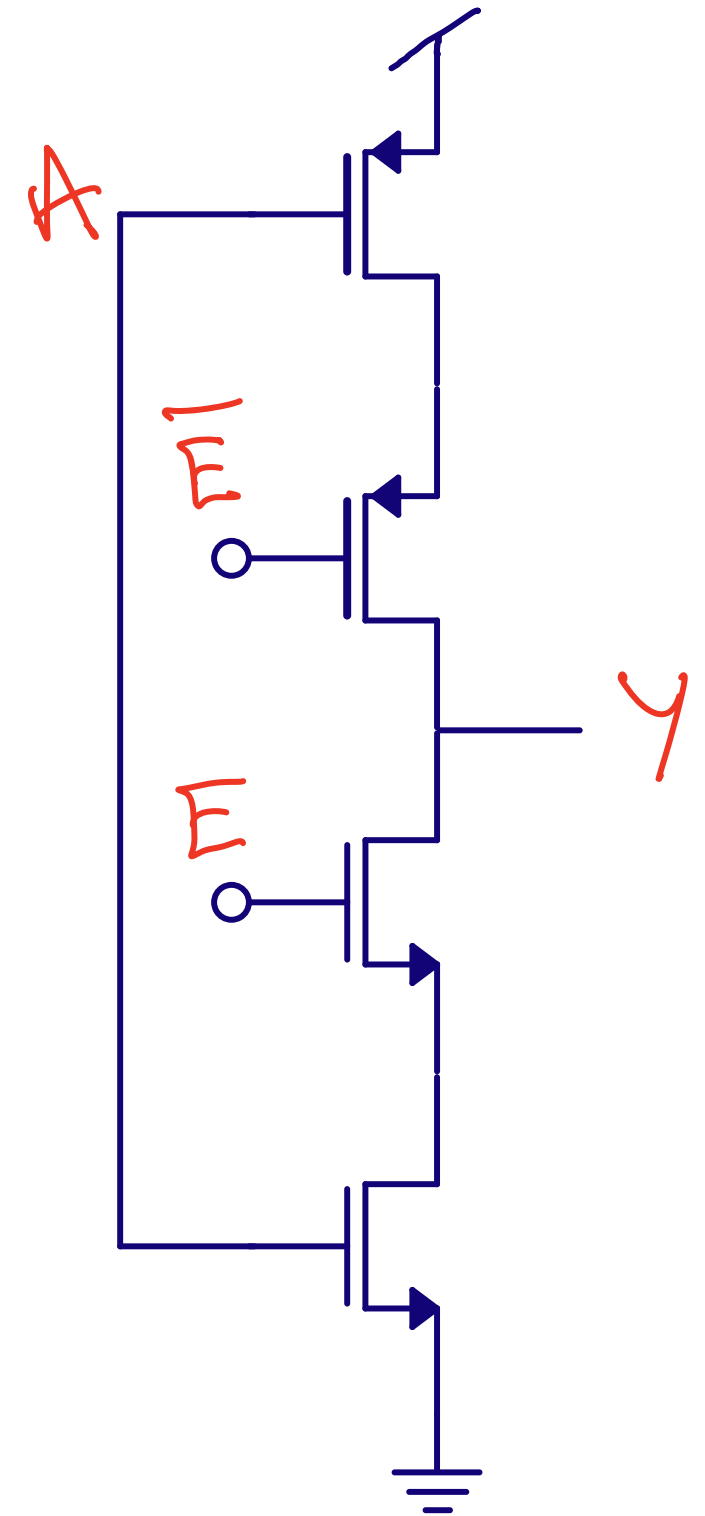


# Tristate inverter

<b>E</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>Y</b>
0	0	Z
0	1	Z
1	0	1
1	1	0

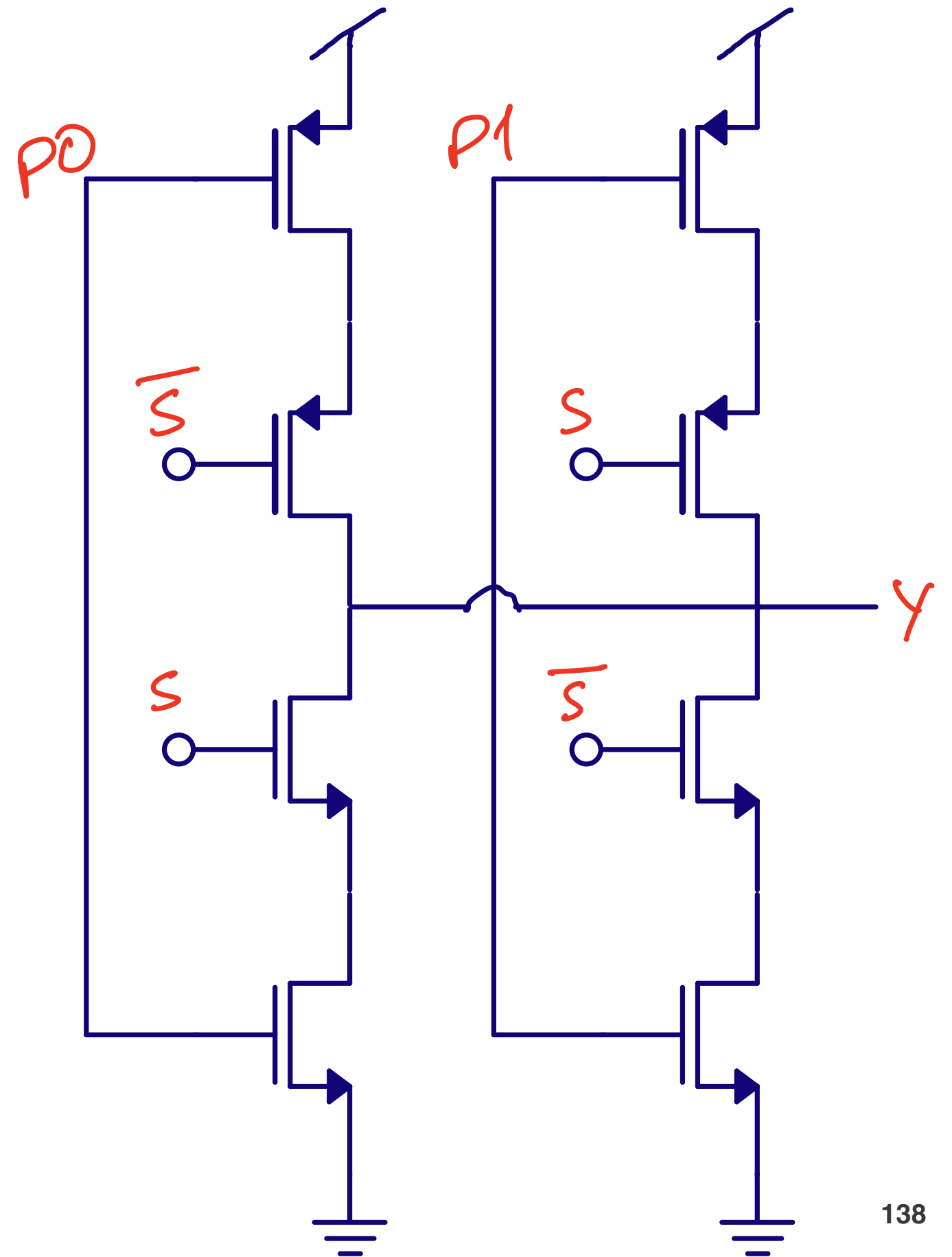


≡

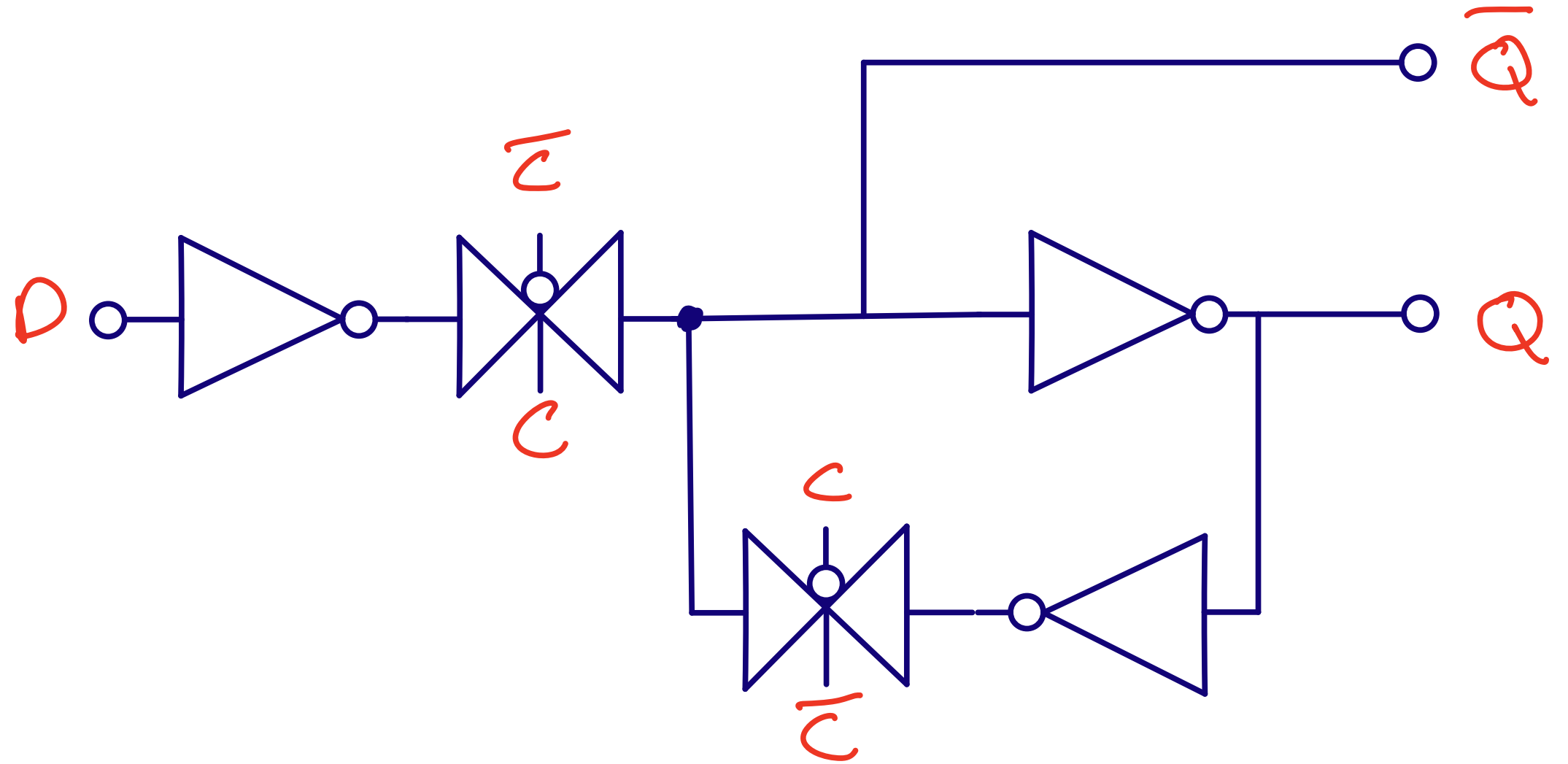
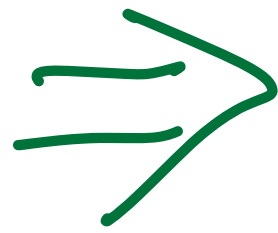
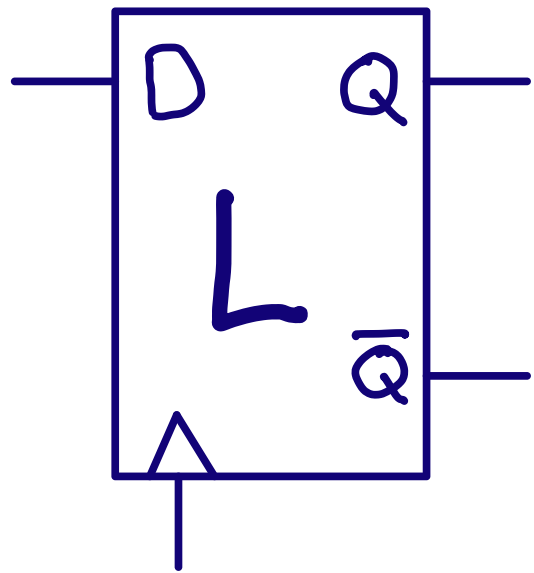


# Mux

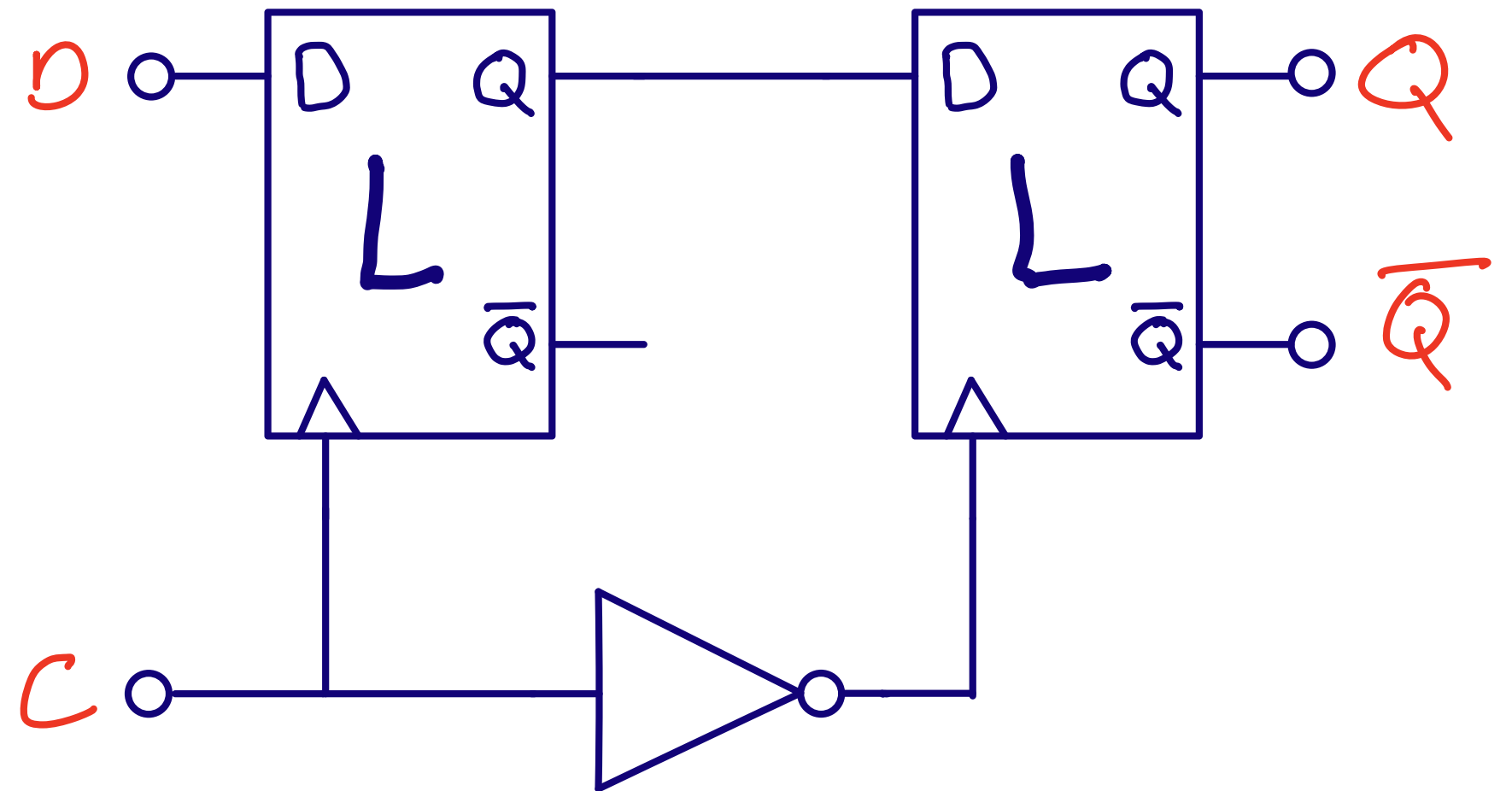
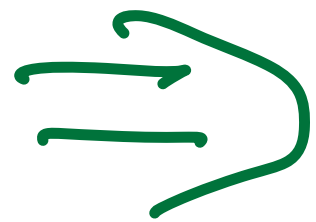
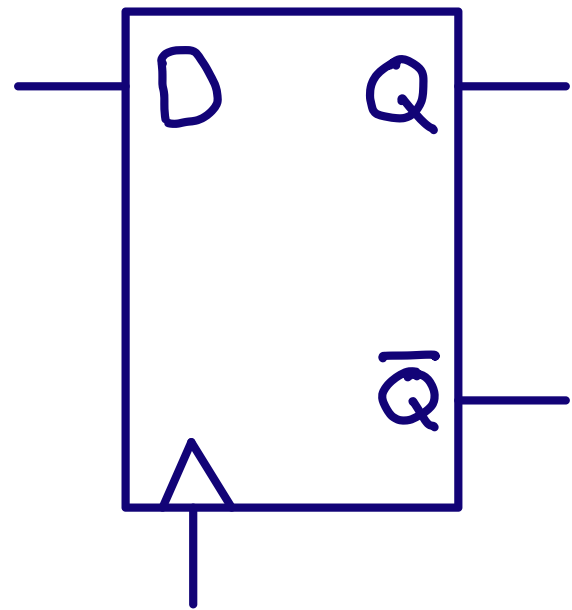
S	Y
0	NOT(P1)
1	NOT(P0)



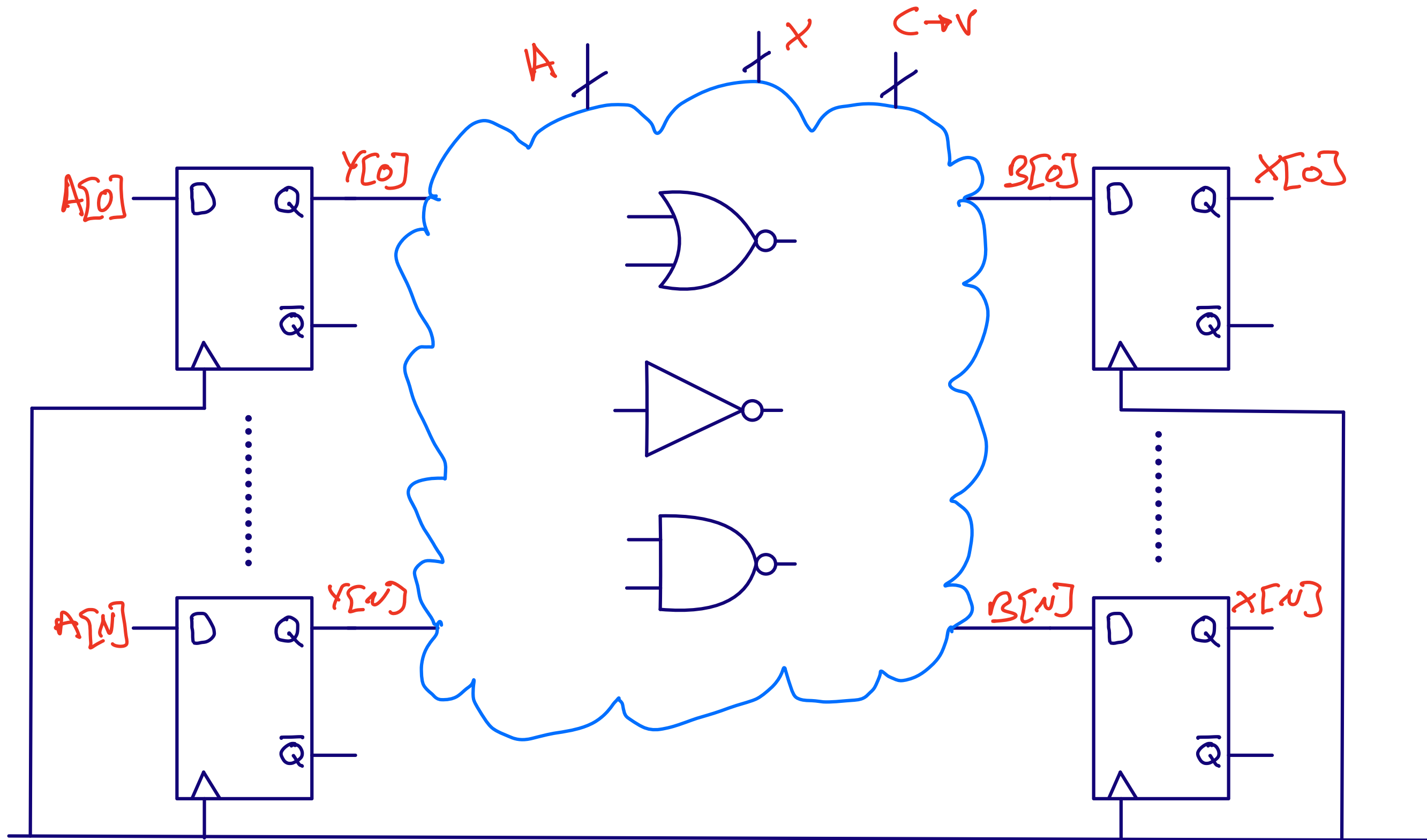
# D-Latch



# D-Flip Flop

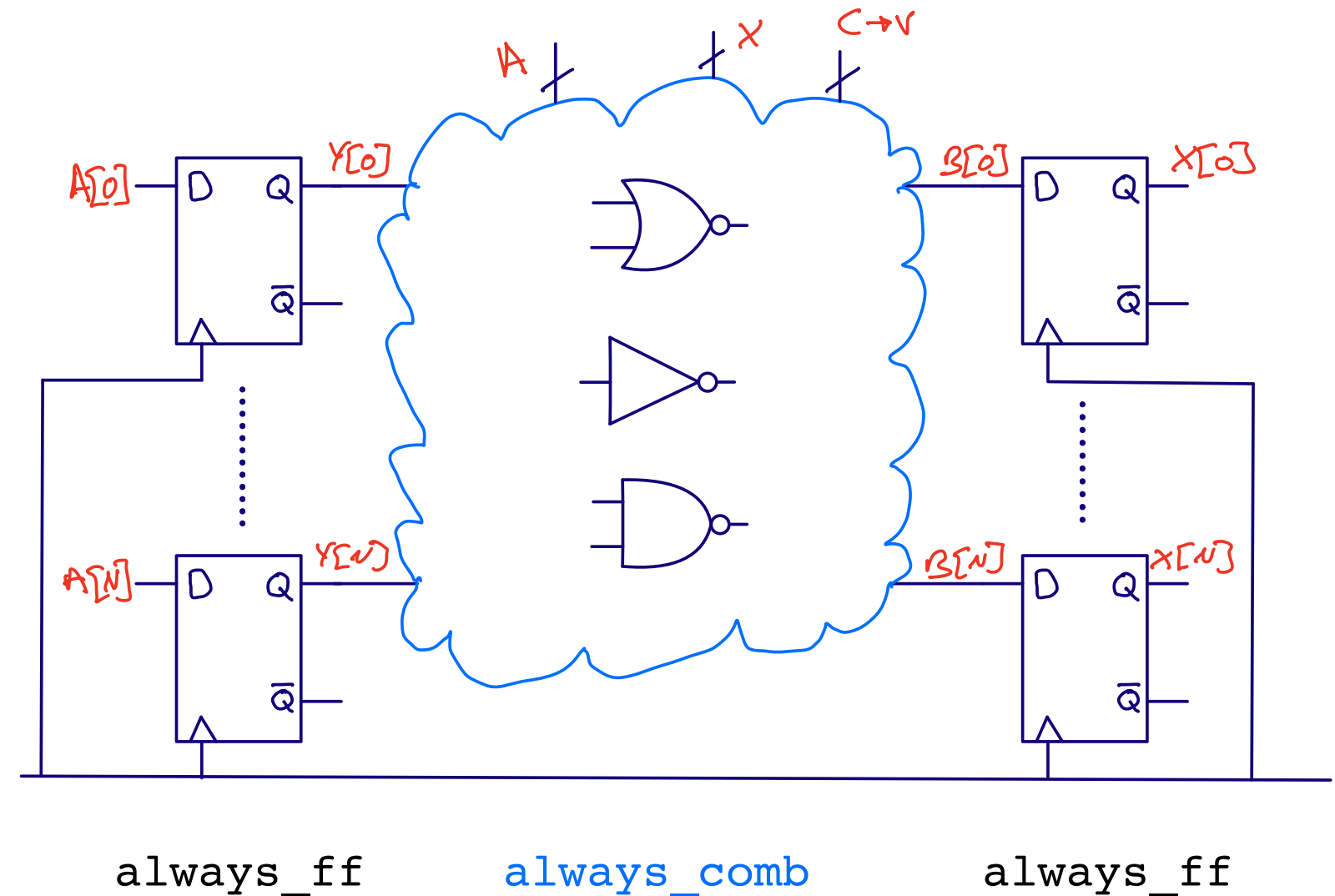






# SystemVerilog

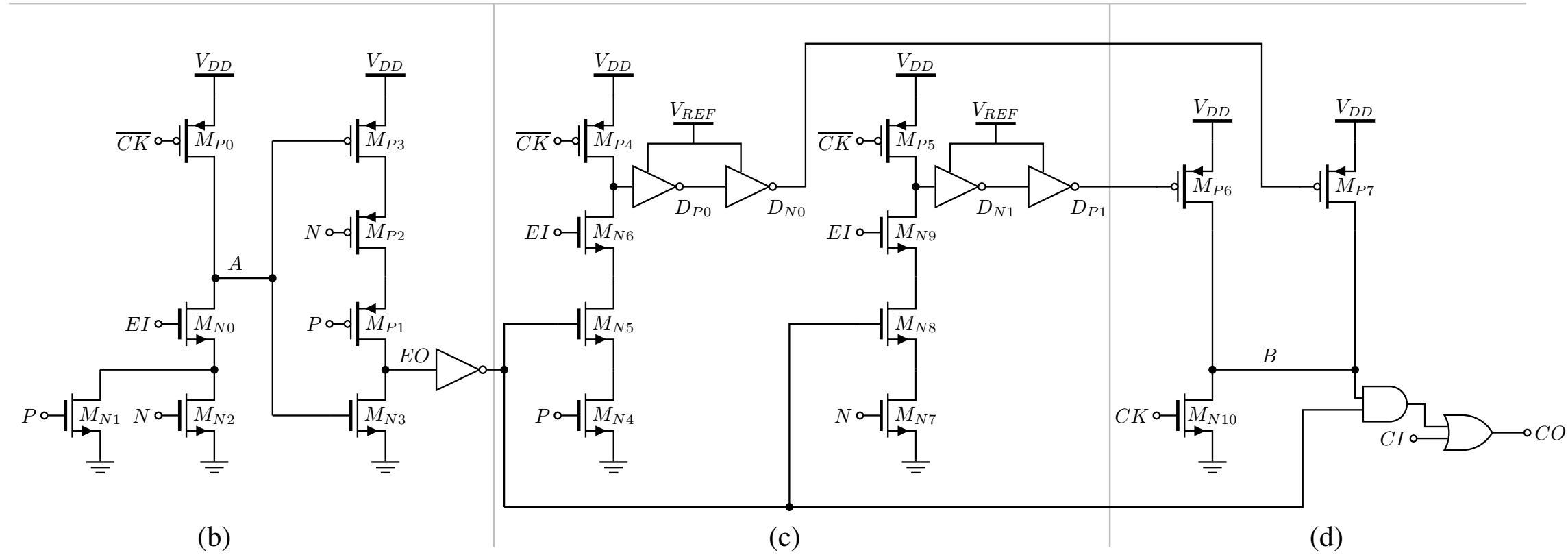
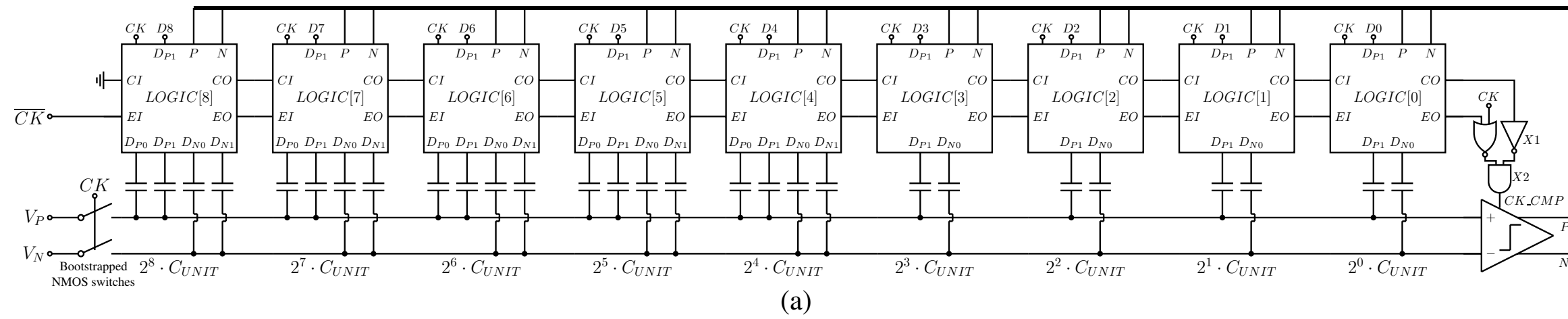
```
module counter(  
    output logic [WIDTH-1:0] out,  
    input logic clk,  
    input logic reset  
);  
  
parameter WIDTH = 8;  
  
logic [WIDTH-1:0] count;  
always_comb begin  
    count = out + 1;  
end  
  
always_ff @(posedge clk or posedge reset) begin  
    if (reset)  
        out <= 0;  
    else  
        out <= count;  
end  
  
endmodule // counter
```



# There are other types of logic

- True single phase clock (TSPC) logic
- Pass transistor logic
- Transmission gate logic
- Differential logic
- Dynamic logic

Consider other types of logic "rule breaking", so you should know why you need it.



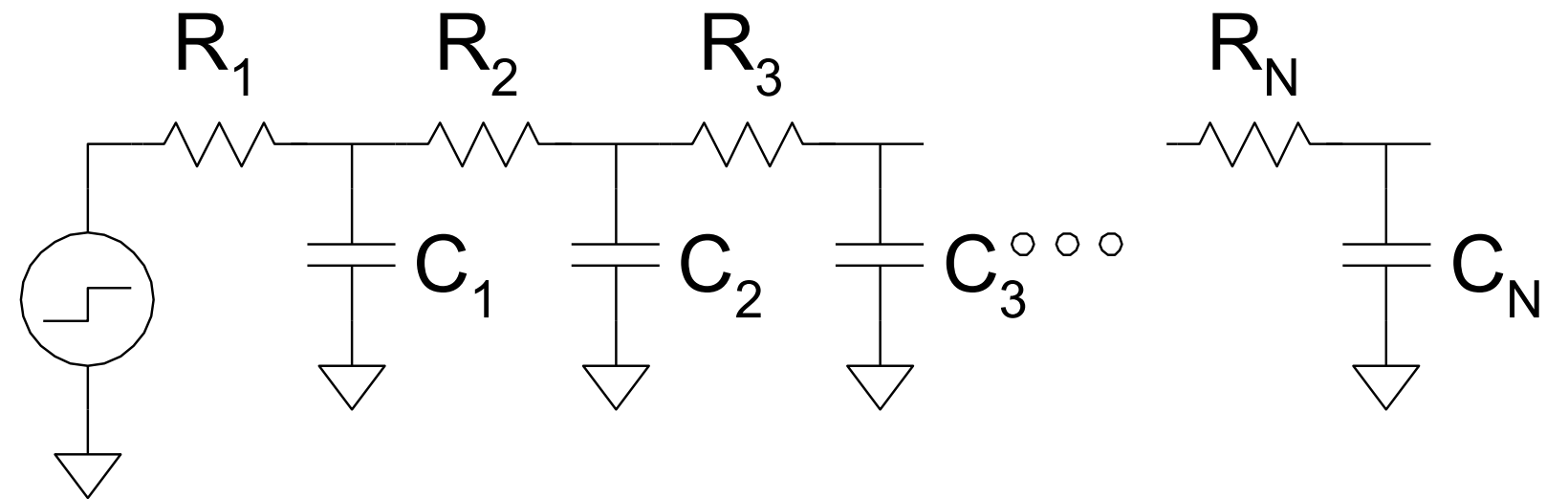
Dynamic logic => [A Compiled 9-bit 20-MS/s 3.5-fJ/conv.step SAR ADC in 28-nm FDSOI for Bluetooth Low Energy Receivers](#)

# Elmore Delay

$$t_{pd} \approx \sum_{\text{nodes}} R_{\text{nodes-to-source}} C_i$$

$$= R_1 C_1 + (R_1 + R_2) C_2 + \dots + (R_1 + R_2 + \dots + R_N) C_N$$

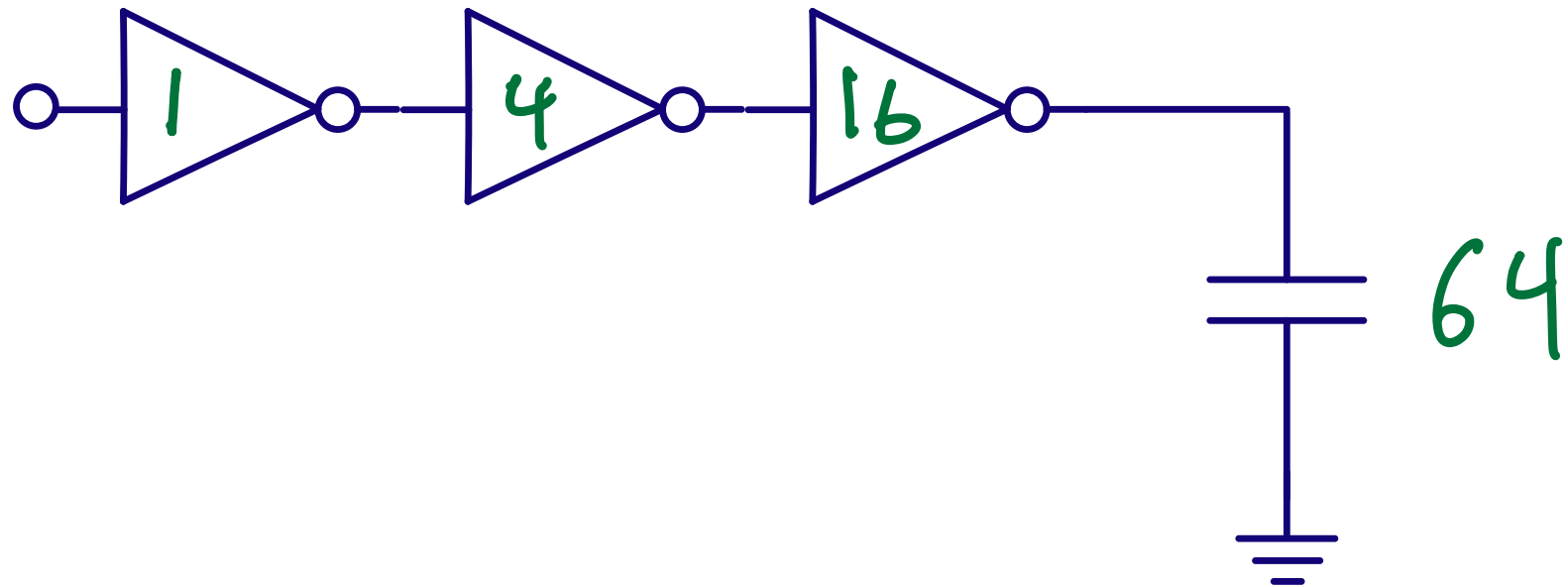
Good enough for hand calculation

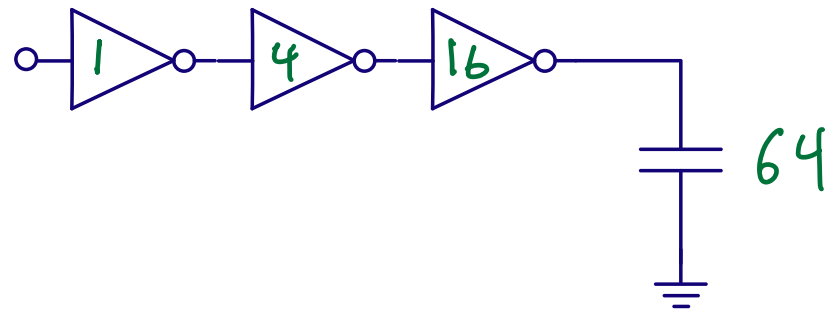


# Best number of stages



Which has shortest delay?





Term	Stage Expression	Path Expression
number of stages	1	$N$
logical effort	$g$	$G = \prod(g_i)$
electrical effort	$h = \frac{C_{out}}{C_{in}}$	$H = \frac{C_{out(path)}}{C_{in(path)}}$
branching effort	$b = \frac{C_{onpath} + C_{offpath}}{C_{onpath}}$	$B = \prod b_i$
effort	$f = gh$	$F = GBH$
effort delay	$f$	$D_F = \sum f_i$
parasitic delay	$p$	$P = \sum p_i$
delay	$d = f + p$	$D = \sum d_i = D_F + P$

$$H = C_{cout} / C_{in} = 64$$

$$G = \prod g_i = \prod 1 = 1$$

$$B = 1$$

$$F = GBH = 64$$

*One stage*

$$f = 64 \Rightarrow D = 64 + 1 = 65$$

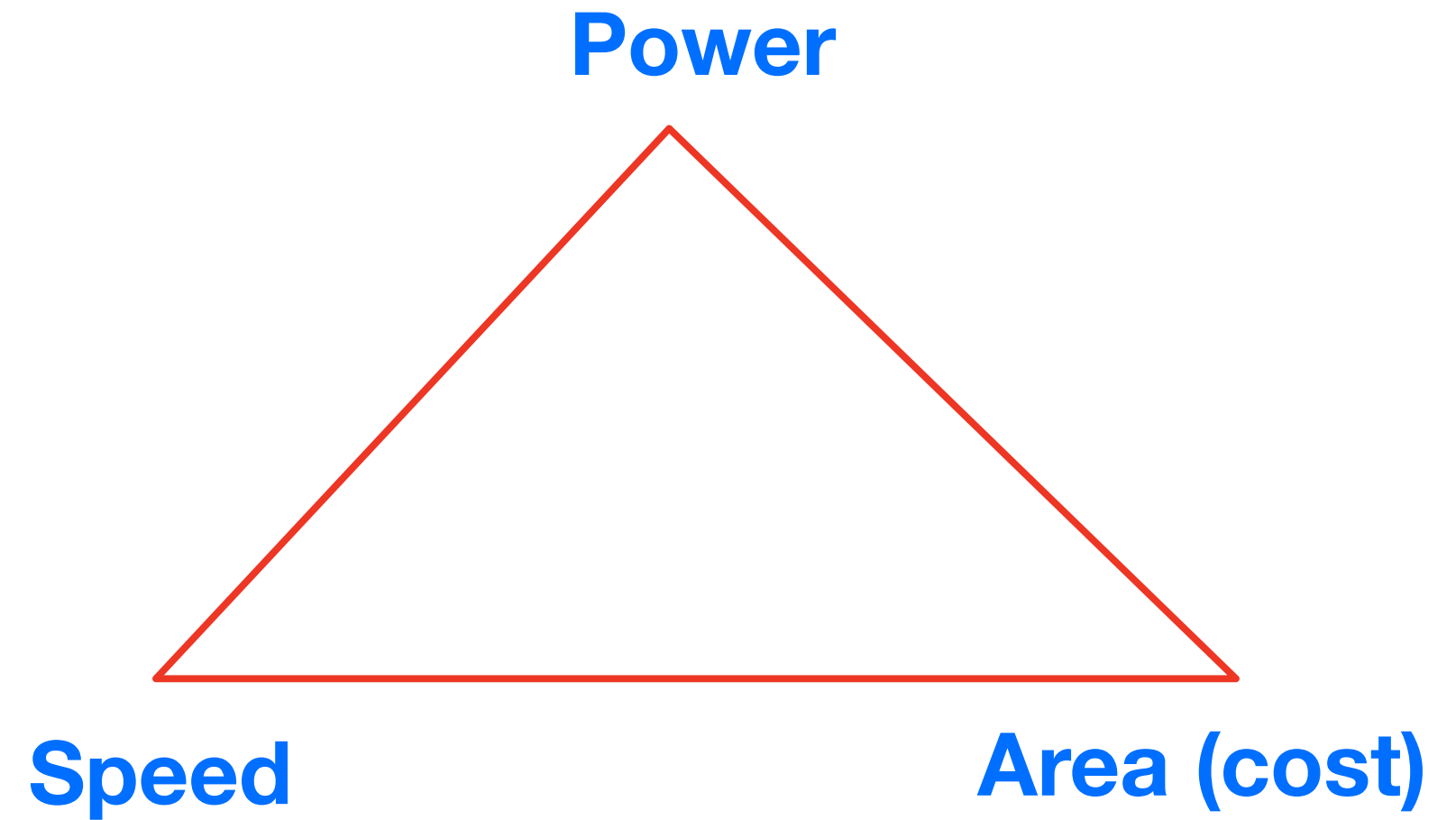
*Three stage with  $f = 4$*

$$D_F = 12, p = 3 \Rightarrow D = 12 + 3 = 15$$



For close to optimal delay, use  $f = 4$  (Used to be  $f = e$ )

# Pick two



# Power

# What is power?

Instantaneous power:  $P(t) = I(t)V(t)$

Energy :  $\int_0^T P(t)dt$  [J]

Average power:  $\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T P(t)dt$  [W or J/s]

# Power dissipated in a resistor

Ohm's Law  $V_R = I_R R$

$$P_R = V_R I_R = I_R^2 R = \frac{V_R^2}{R}$$

# Charging a capacitor to $V_{DD}$

Capacitor differential equation  $I_C = C \frac{dV}{dt}$

$$E_C = \int_0^{\infty} I_C V_C dt = \int_0^{\infty} C \frac{dV}{dt} V_C dt = \int_0^{V_C} C V dV = C \left[ \frac{V^2}{2} \right]_0^{V_{DD}}$$

$$E_C = \frac{1}{2} C V_{DD}^2$$

# Energy to charge a capacitor to a voltage $V_{DD}$

$$E_C = \frac{1}{2} C V_{DD}^2$$

$$I_{VDD} = I_C = C \frac{dV}{dt}$$

$$E_{VDD} = \int_0^{\infty} I_{VDD} V_{DD} dt = \int_0^{\infty} C \frac{dV}{dt} V_{DD} dt = C V_{DD} \int_0^{V_{DD}} dV = C V_{DD}^2$$

Only half the energy is stored on the capacitor, the rest is dissipated in the PMOS

# Discharging a capacitor to 0

$$E_C = \frac{1}{2} C V_{DD}^2$$

Voltage is pulled to ground, and the power is dissipated in the NMOS



# Power consumption of digital circuits

$$E_{VDD} = CV_{DD}^2$$

In a clock distribution network (chain of inverters), every output is charged once per clock cycle

$$P_{VDD} = CV_{DD}^2 f$$

# Sources of power dissipation in CMOS logic

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

## Dynamic power dissipation

Charging and discharging load capacitances

*short-circuit* current, when PMOS and NMOS conduct at the same time

$$P_{dynamic} = P_{switching} + P_{shortcircuit}$$

## Static power dissipation

Subthreshold leakage in OFF transistors

Gate leakage (tunneling current) through gate dielectric

Source/drain reverse bias PN junction leakage

$$P_{static} = (I_{sub} + I_{gate} + I_{pn}) V_{DD}$$

# $P_{switching}$ in logic gates

Only output node transitions from low to high consume power from  $V_{DD}$

Define  $P_i$  to be the probability that a node is 1

Define  $\overline{P}_i = 1 - P_i$  to be the probability that a node is 0

Define **activity factor** ( $\alpha_i$ ) as the **probability of switching a node from 0 to 1**

If the probability is uncorrelated from cycle to cycle

$$\alpha_i = \overline{P}_i P_i$$

# Switching probability

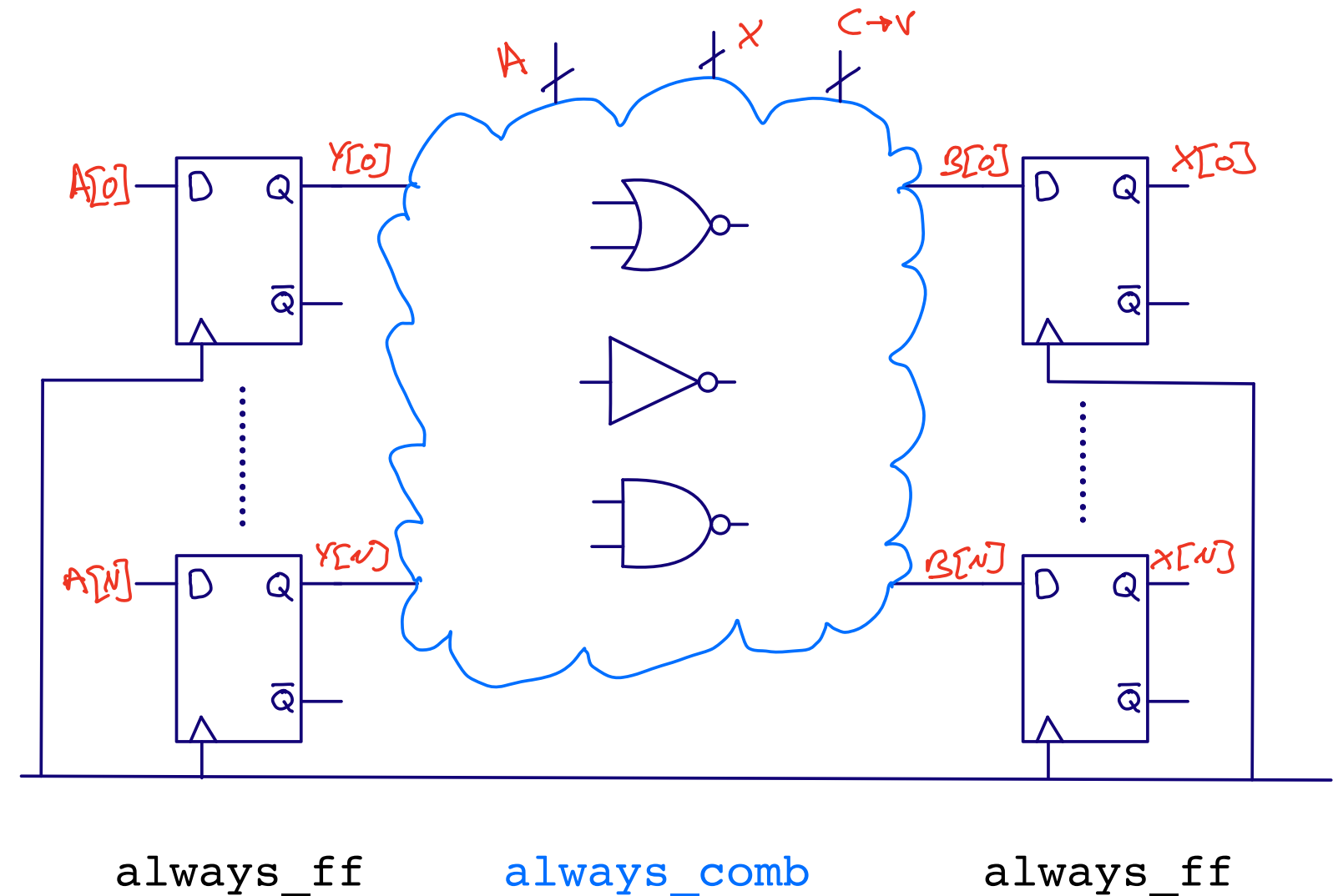
Random data  $P = 0.5$ ,  $\alpha = 0.25$

Clocks  $\alpha = 1$

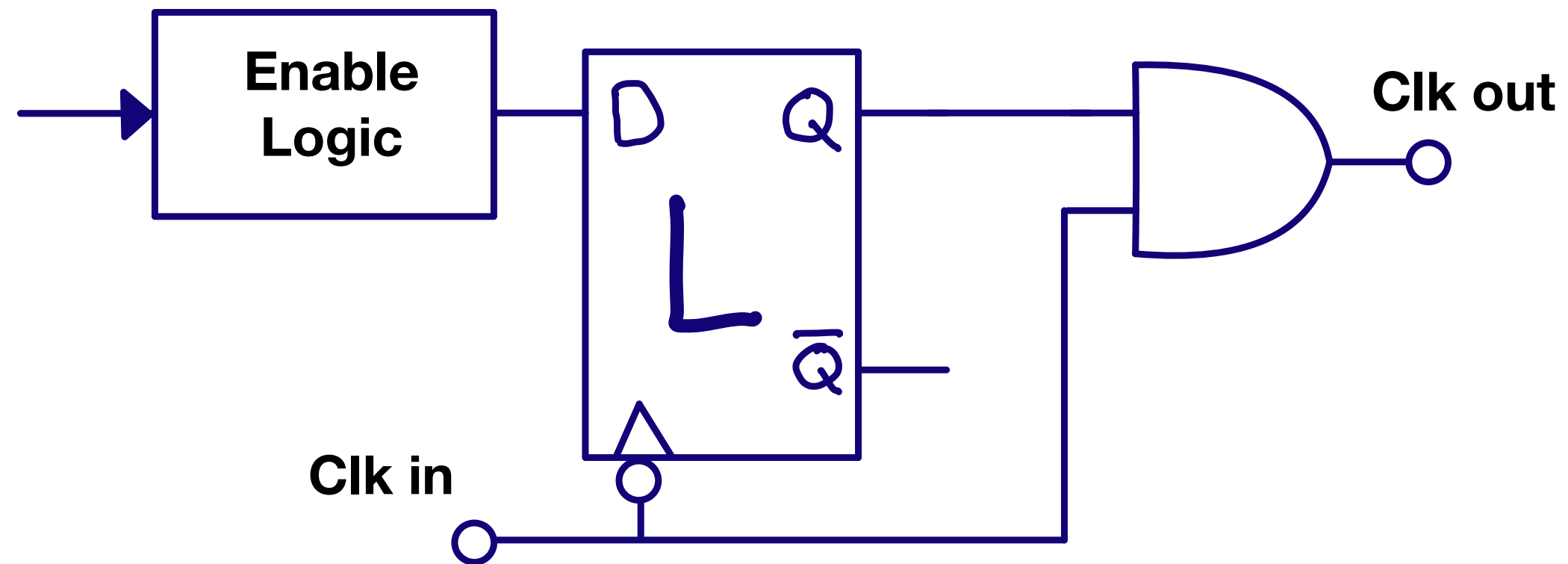
Gate	$P_Y$
AND2	$P_A P_B$
OR2	$1 - \bar{P}_A \bar{P}_B$
NAND2	$1 - P_A P_B$
NOR2	$\bar{P}_A \bar{P}_B$
XOR2	$P_A \bar{P}_B + \bar{P}_A P_B$

# Strategies to reduce dynamic power

1. Stop clock
2. Stop activity
3. Reduce clock frequency
4. Turn off  $V_{DD}$
5. Reduce  $V_{DD}$

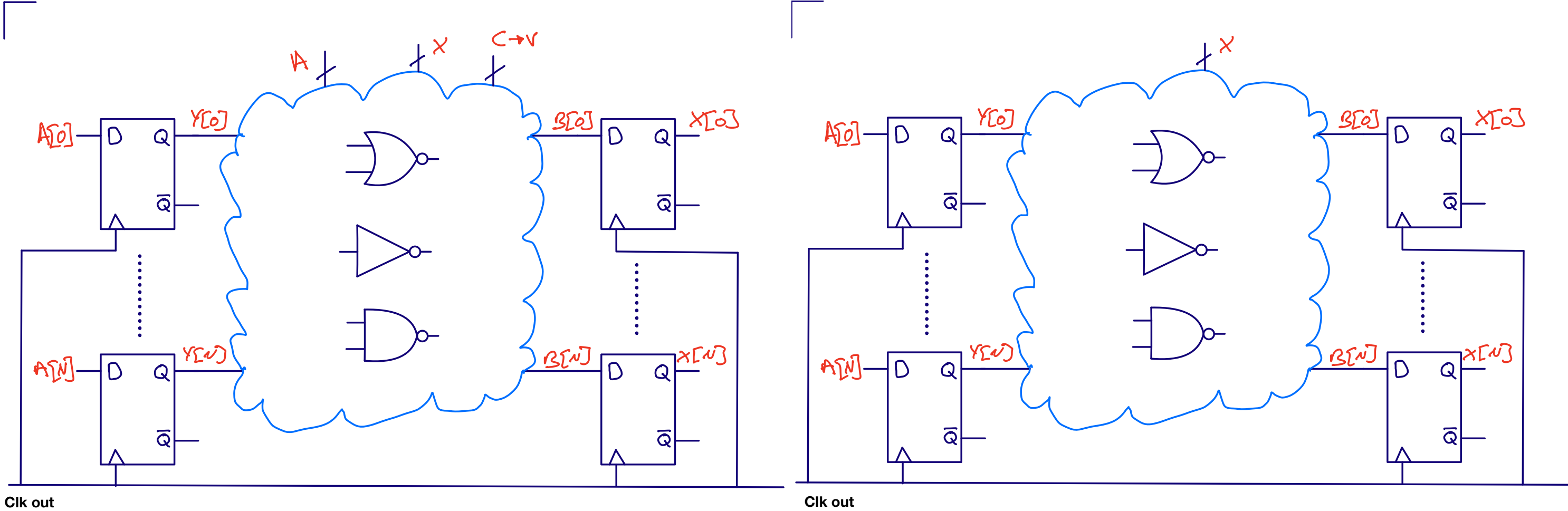


# Stop clock<sup>3</sup>

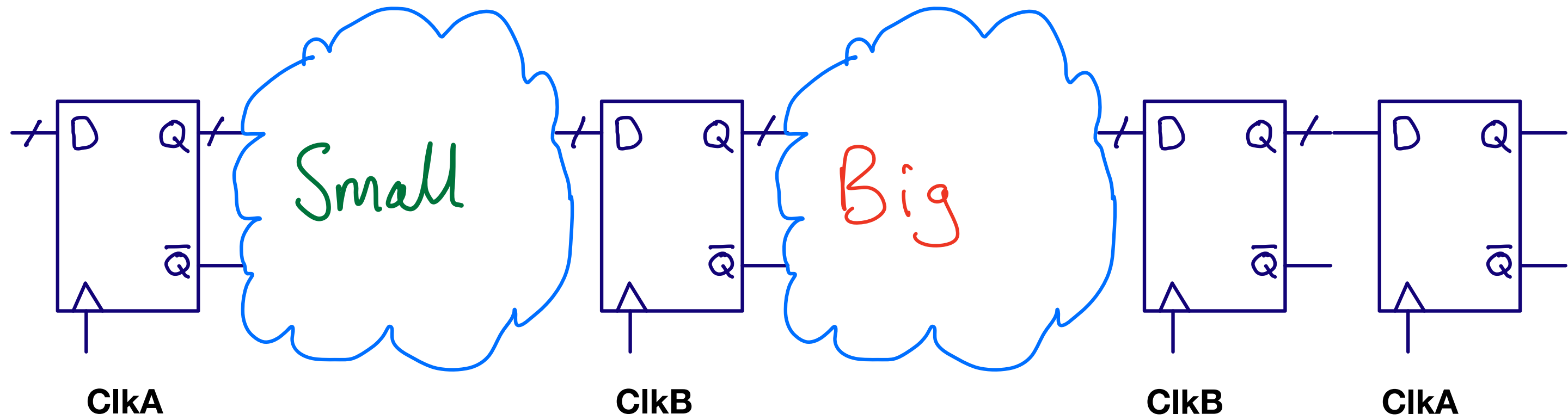


<sup>3</sup> Often called *clock gating*

# Stop activity



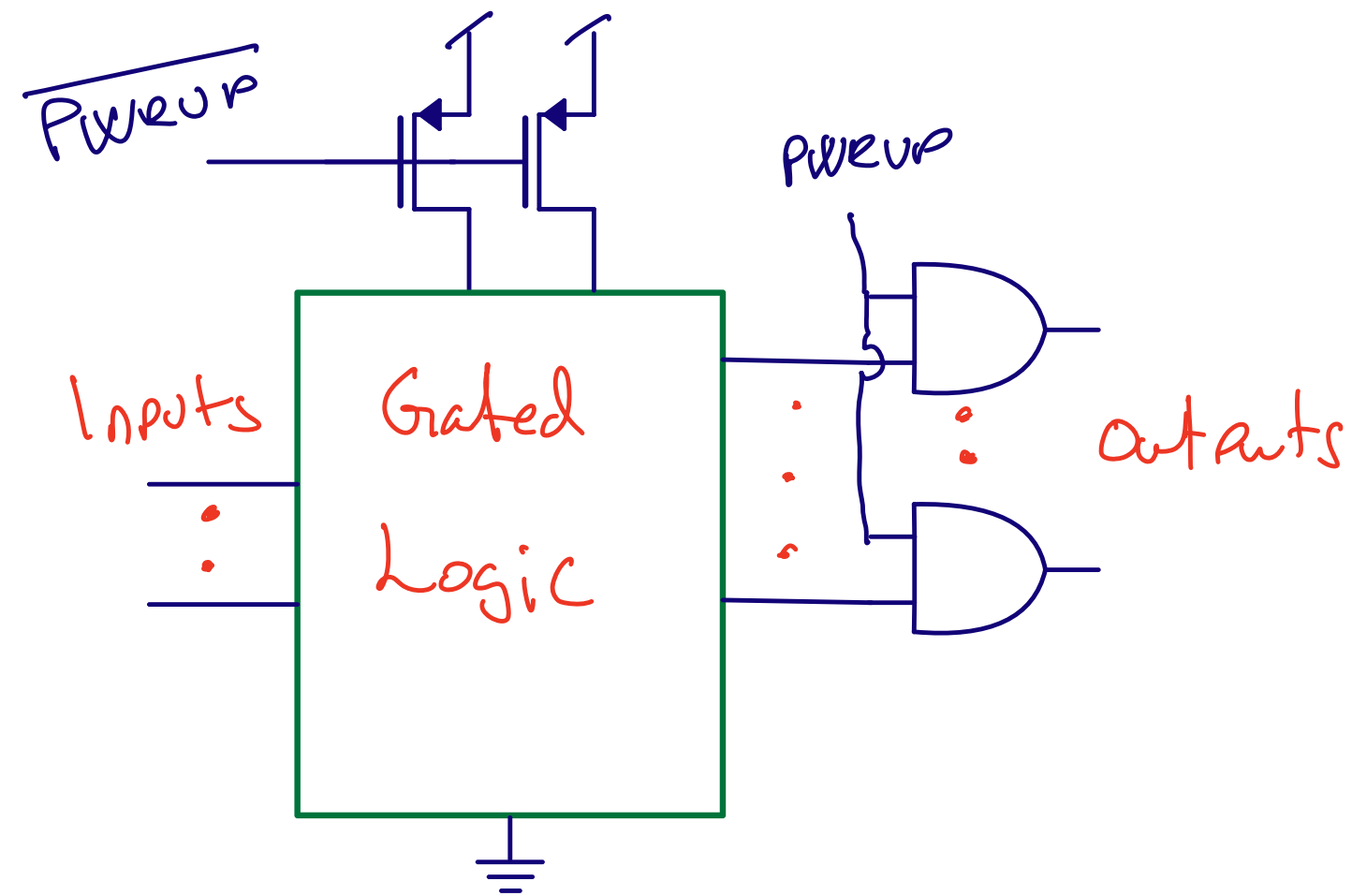
# Reduce frequency



$$CIkB < CIkA$$

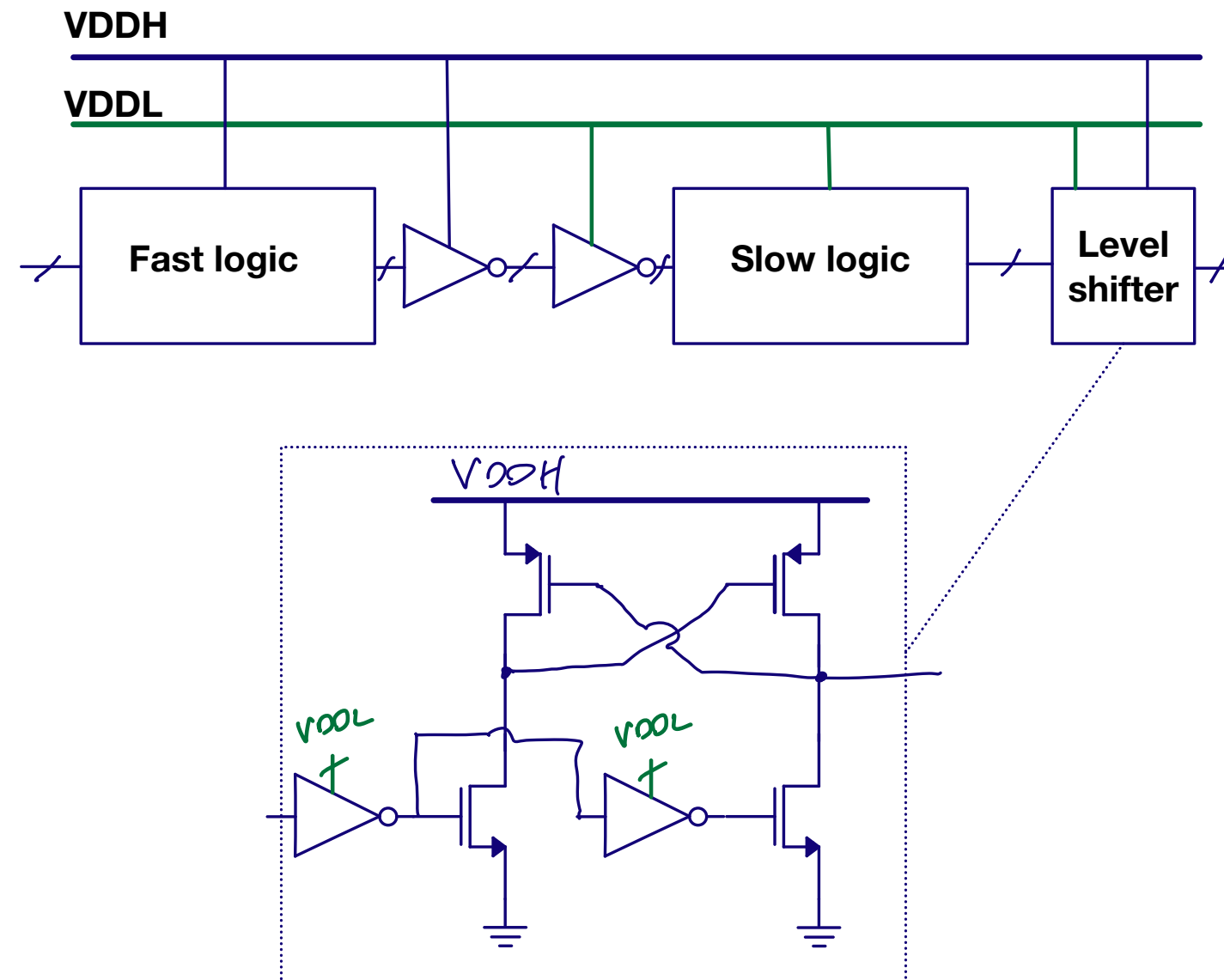


# Turn off power supply <sup>4</sup>



<sup>4</sup> Often called power gating

# Reduce power supply ( $V_{DD}$ )



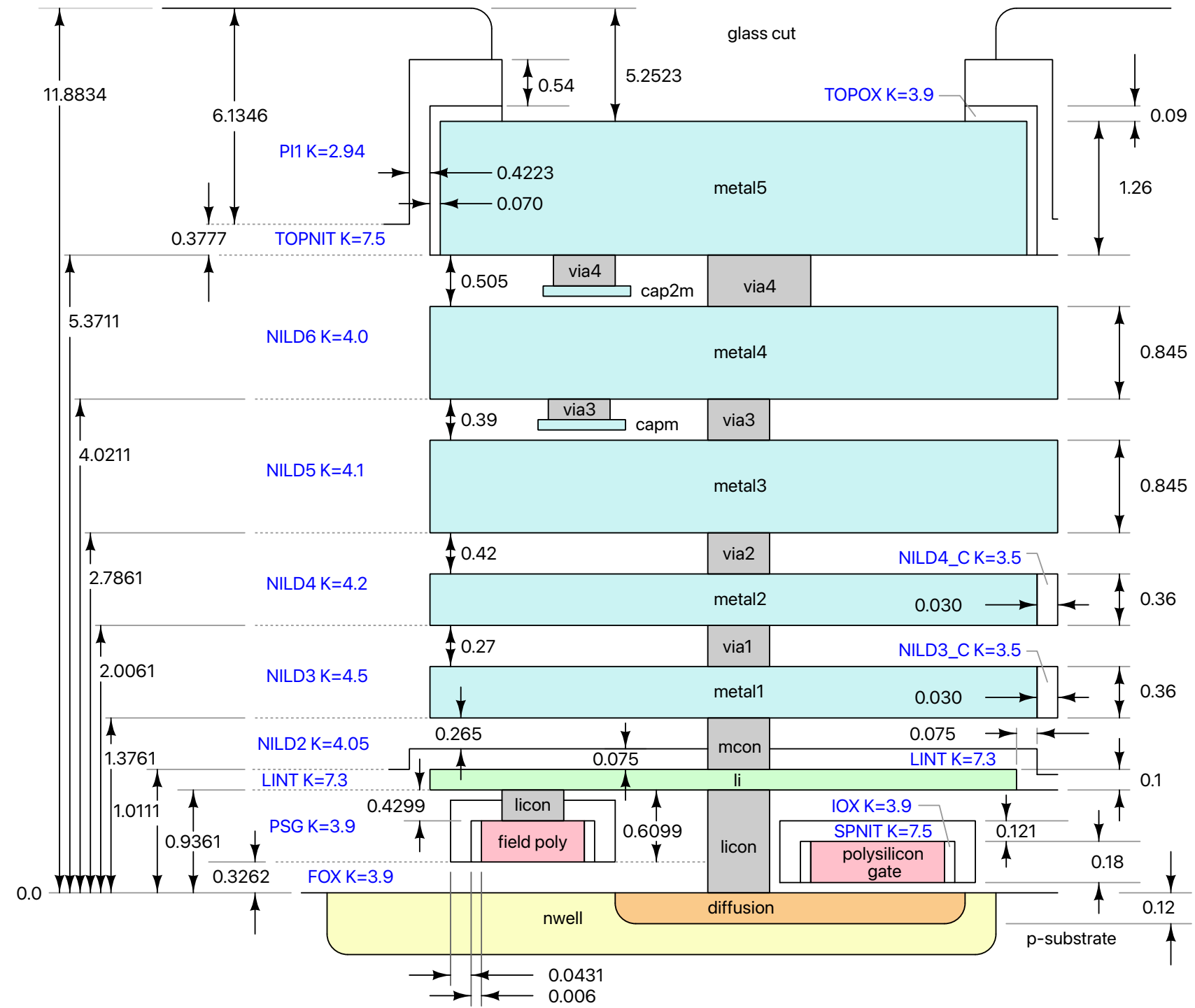
# IC Process

# Metal stack

Often 5 - 10 layers of metal

Metal	Material	Thickness	Purpose
Metal 1 - 2	Copper	Thin	in gate routing
Metal 3-4	Copper	Thicker	Between gates routing
Metal Z	Copper	Very thick	Cross chip routing. Local Power/ Ground routing
Metal Y	Copper	Ultra thick	Cross chip power routing. Often used for RF inductors.
RDL	Aluminium	Ultra tick	Can tolerate high forces during wire bonding.

(Diagram not to scale!)



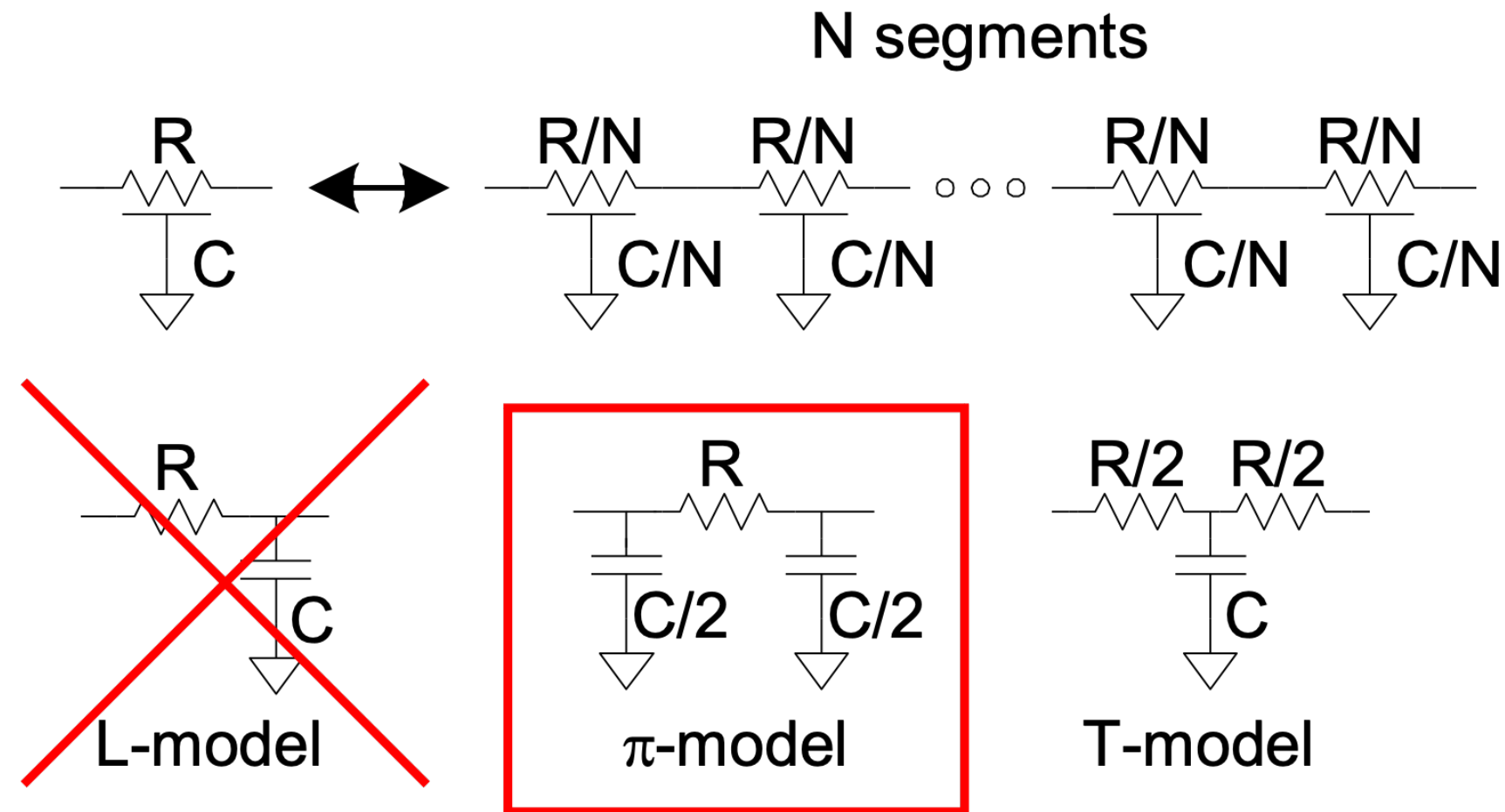
# Metal routing rules on IC

Odd numbers metals  $\Rightarrow$  Horizontal routing (as far as possible)

Even numbers metals  $\Rightarrow$  Vertical routing (as far as possible)

# Lumped model

Use 1-segment  $\pi$ -model for Elmore delay



# Wire resistance

resistivity  $\Rightarrow \rho$  [ $\Omega\text{m}$ ]

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

$R_{\square}$  = sheet resistance [ $\Omega/\square$ ]

To find resistance, count the number of squares

$$R = R_{\square} \times \# \text{ of squares}$$

# Most wires: Copper

$$R_{sheet-m1} \approx \frac{1.7 \mu\Omega cm}{200 nm} \approx 0.1 \Omega / \square$$
$$R_{sheet-m9} \approx \frac{1.7 \mu\Omega cm}{3 \mu m} \approx 0.006 \Omega / \square$$

## Pitfalls

Cu atoms diffuse into silicon and can cause damage

Must be surrounded by a diffusion barrier

Difficult high current densities (mA/ $\mu$ m) and high temperature (125 C)



# Contacts

Contacts and vias can have 2-20  $\Omega$

Must use many contacts/vias for high current wires

# Wire capacitance

$$C_{total} = C_{top} + C_{bot} + 2C_{adj}$$

Dense wires has about  $0.2 \text{ fF}/\mu\text{m}$

**Estimate delay of inverter driving a 1 mm long , 0.1  $\mu\text{m}$  wide metal 1 wire with inverter load at the end**

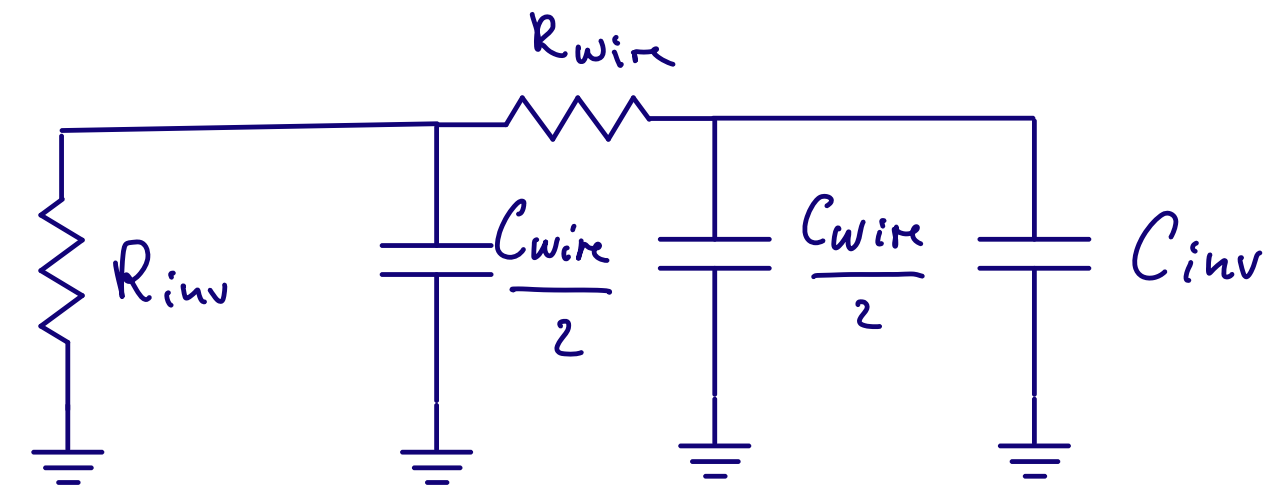
$$R_{sheet} = 0.1\Omega/\square, R_{inv} = 1k\Omega,$$

$$C_w = 0.2fF/\mu\text{m}, C_{inv} = 1fF$$

Use Elmore

$$t_{pd} = R_{inv} \frac{C_{wire}}{2} + (R_{wire} + R_{inv}) \left( \frac{C_{wire}}{2} + C_{inv} \right)$$

$$= 1k \times 100f + (1k + 0.1 \times 1k/0.1) \times 101f = 0.3 \text{ ns}$$



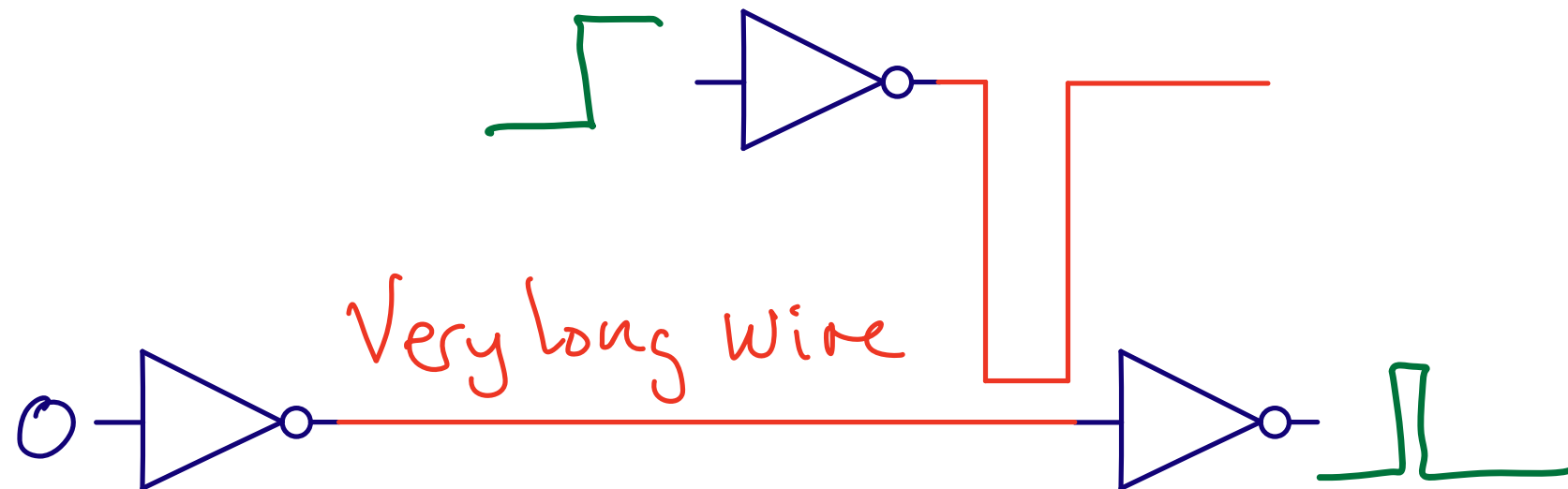
# Crosstalk

A wire with high capacitance to a neighbor

An aggressor (0-1, 1-0) injects charge into neighbor wire

**Increases delay**

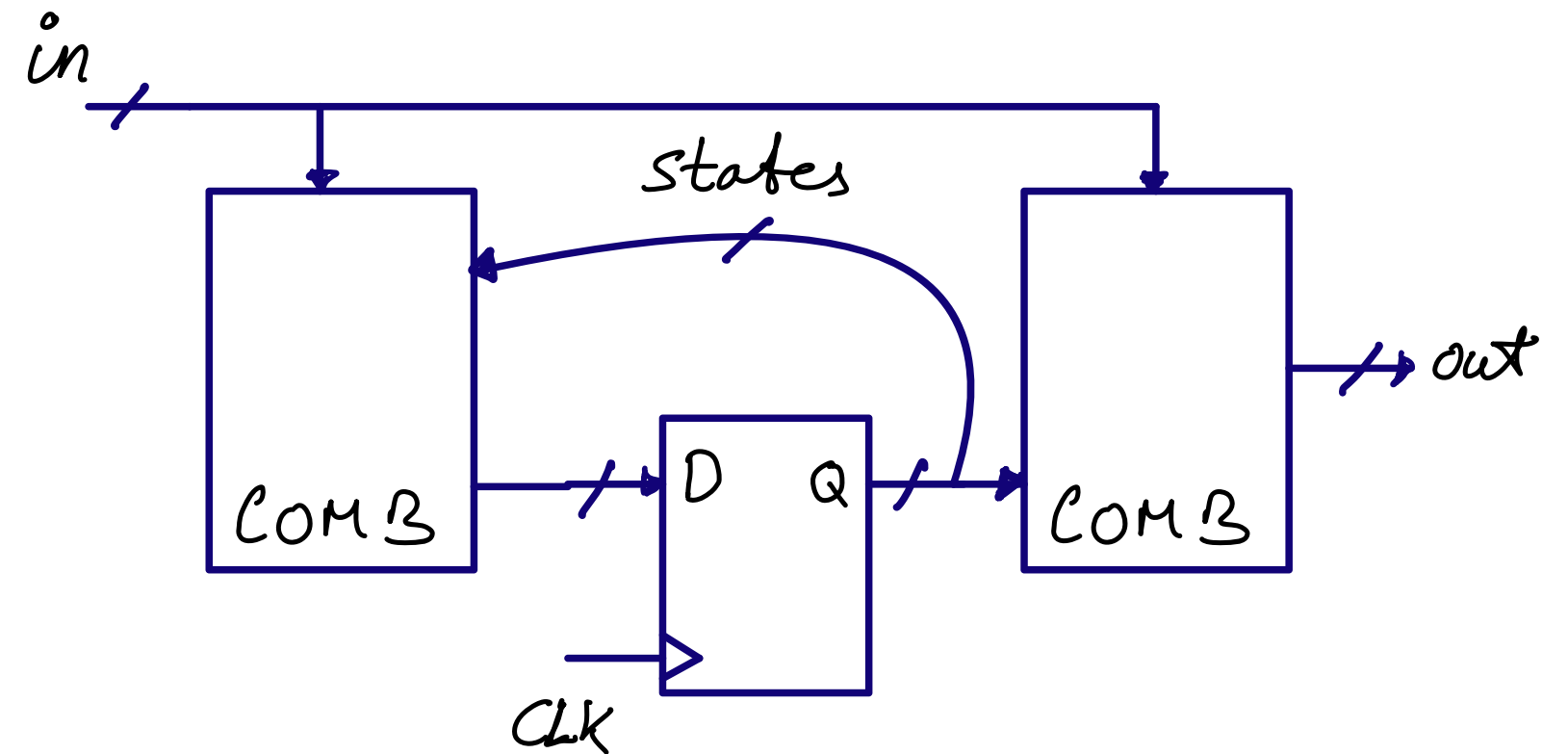
**Noise on nonswitching wires**



**F S N M**

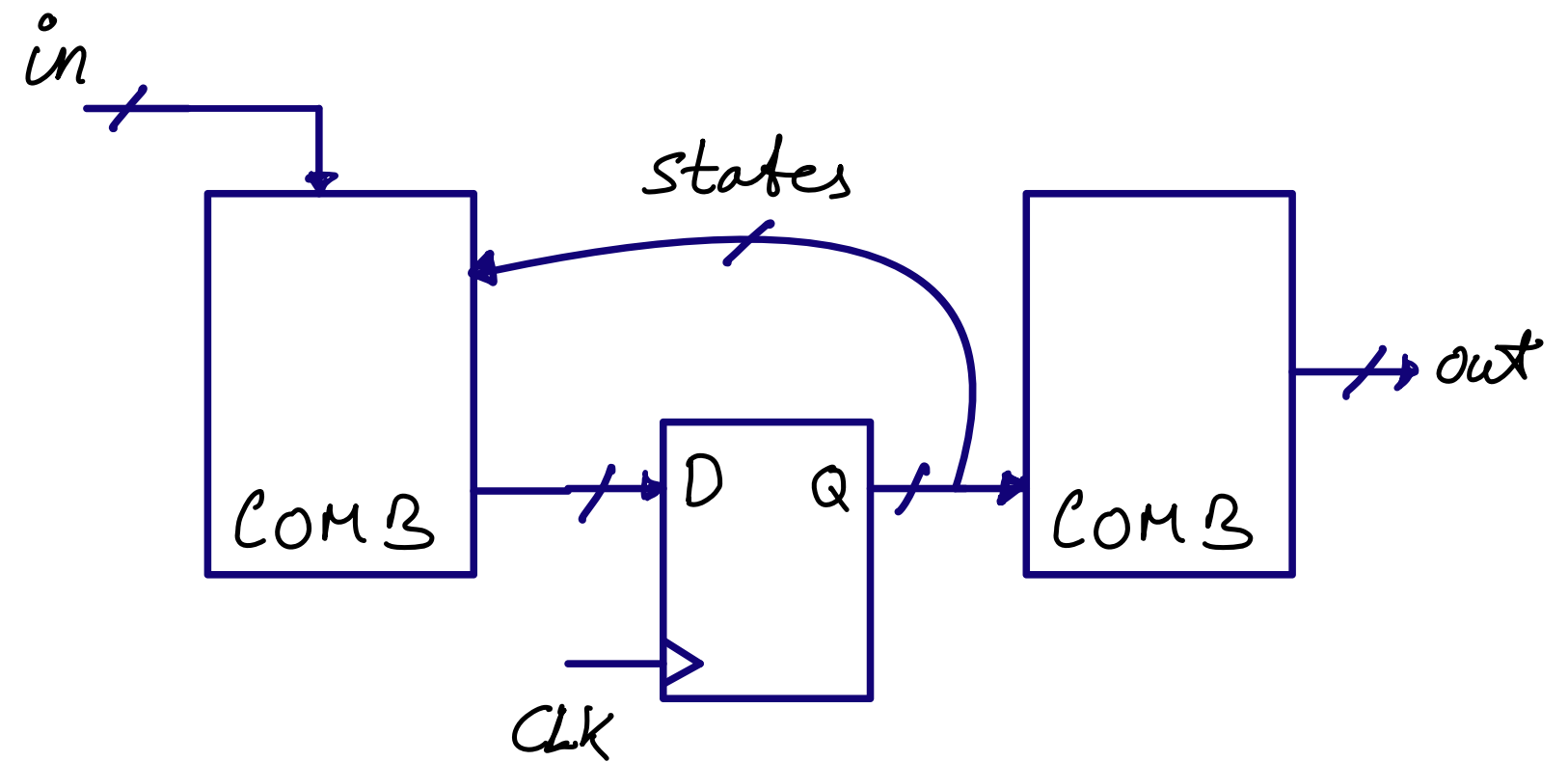
# Mealy machine

An FSM where outputs depend on current state and inputs



# Moore machine

An FSM where outputs depend on current state



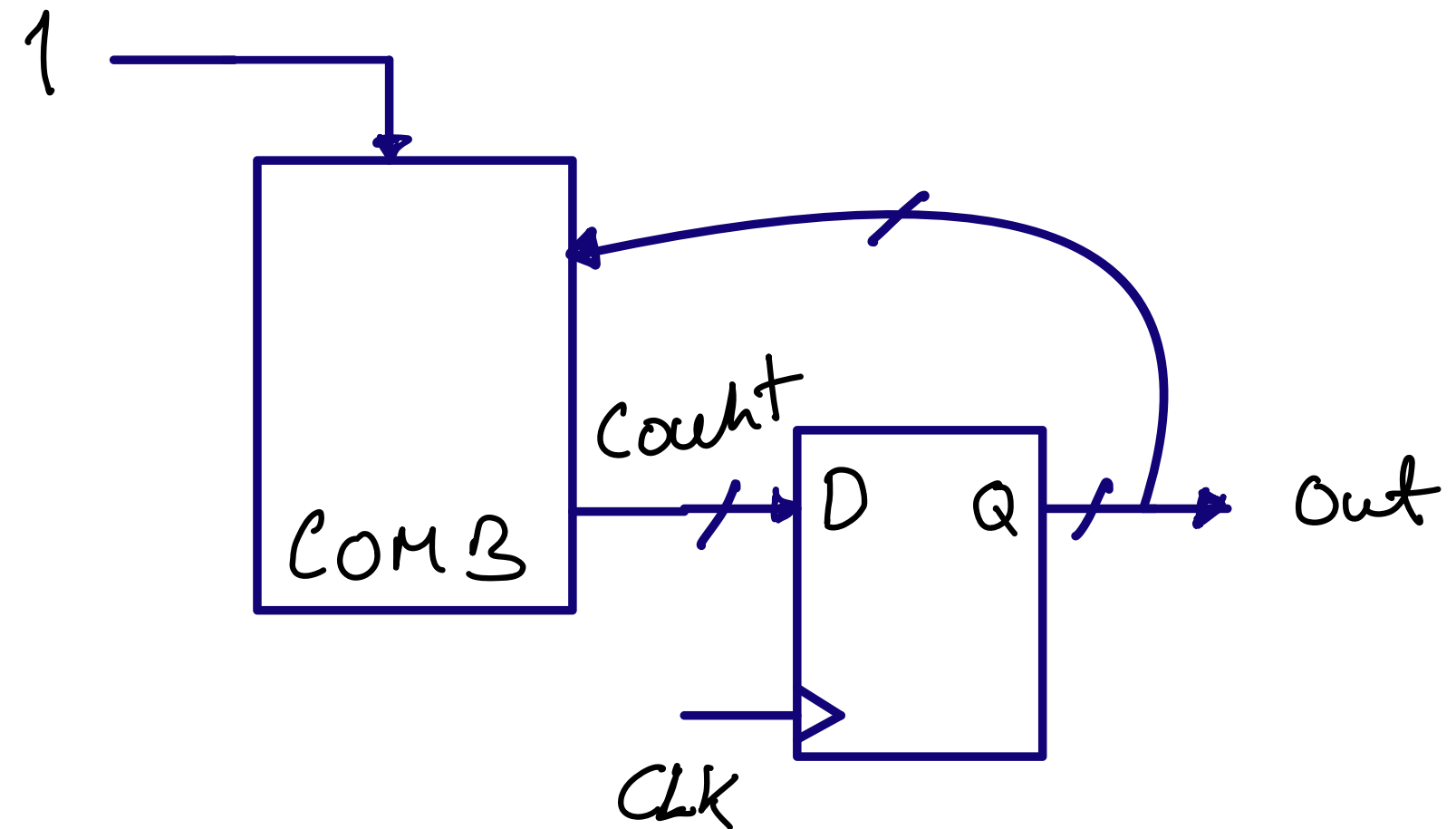
# Mealy versus Moore

Parameter	Mealy	Moore
Outputs	depend on input and current state	output depend on current state
States	Same, or fewer states than Moore	
Inputs	React faster to inputs	Next clock cycle
Outputs	Can be asynchronous	Synchronous
States	Generally requires fewer states for synthesis	More states than Mealy
Counter	A counter is not a mealy machine	A counter is a Moore machine
Design	Can be tricky to design	Easy

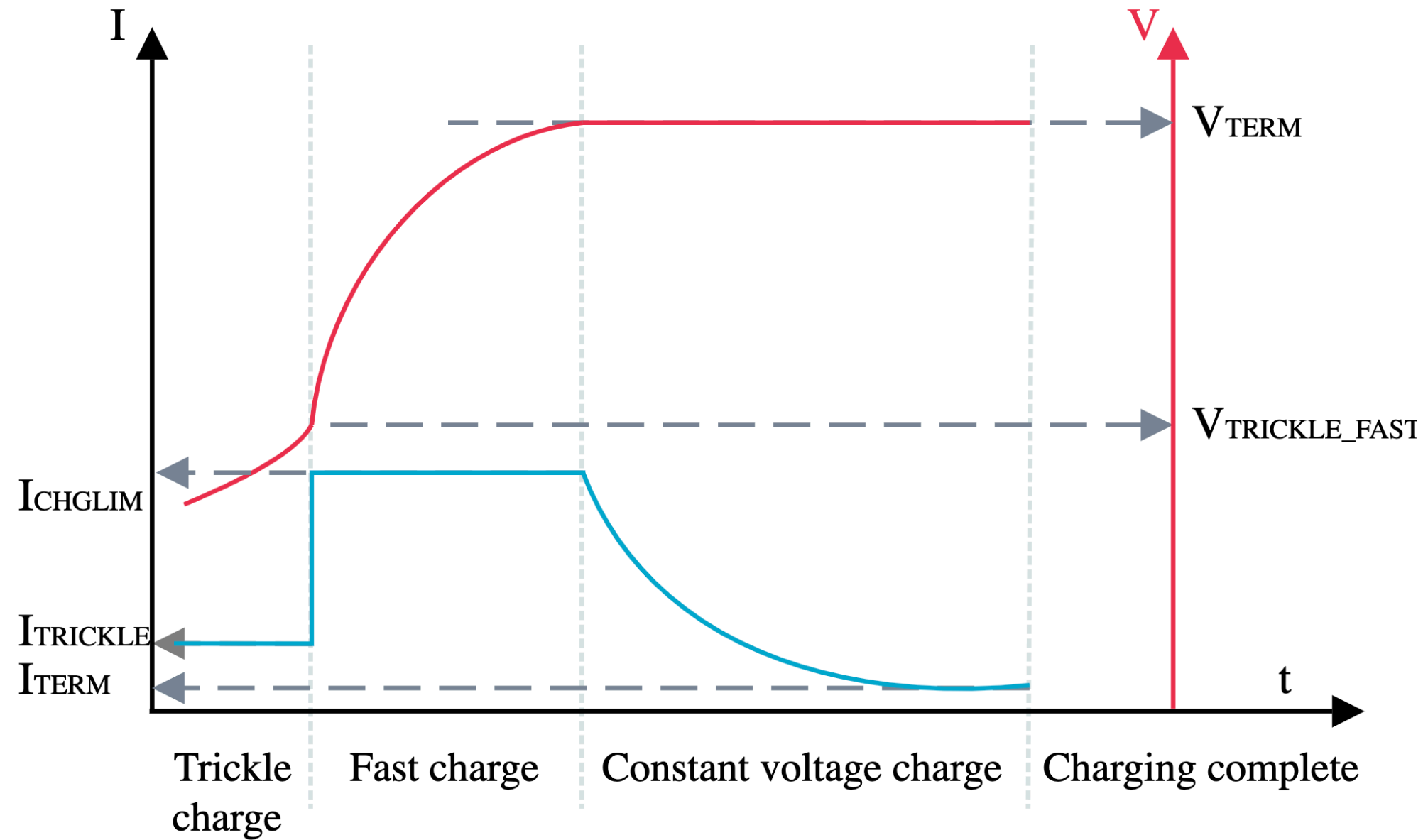


# dicex/sim/counter\_sv/counter.v

```
module counter(  
    output logic [WIDTH-1:0] out,  
    input logic clk,  
    input logic reset  
);  
parameter WIDTH = 8;  
logic [WIDTH-1:0] count;  
  
always_comb begin  
    count = out + 1;  
end  
  
always_ff @(posedge clk or posedge reset) begin  
    if (reset)  
        out <= 0;  
    else  
        out <= count;  
end  
  
endmodule // counter
```



# Battery charger FSM



# Li-Ion batteries

Most Li-Ion batteries can tolerate 1 C during fast charge

For Biltema 18650 cells:

1 C = 2950 mA

0.1 C = 295 mA

Most Li-Ion need to be charged to a termination voltage of 4.2 V

**Too high termination voltage, or too high charging current can cause growth of lithium dendrites, that short + and -. Will end in flames. Always check manufacturer datasheet for charging curves and voltages**



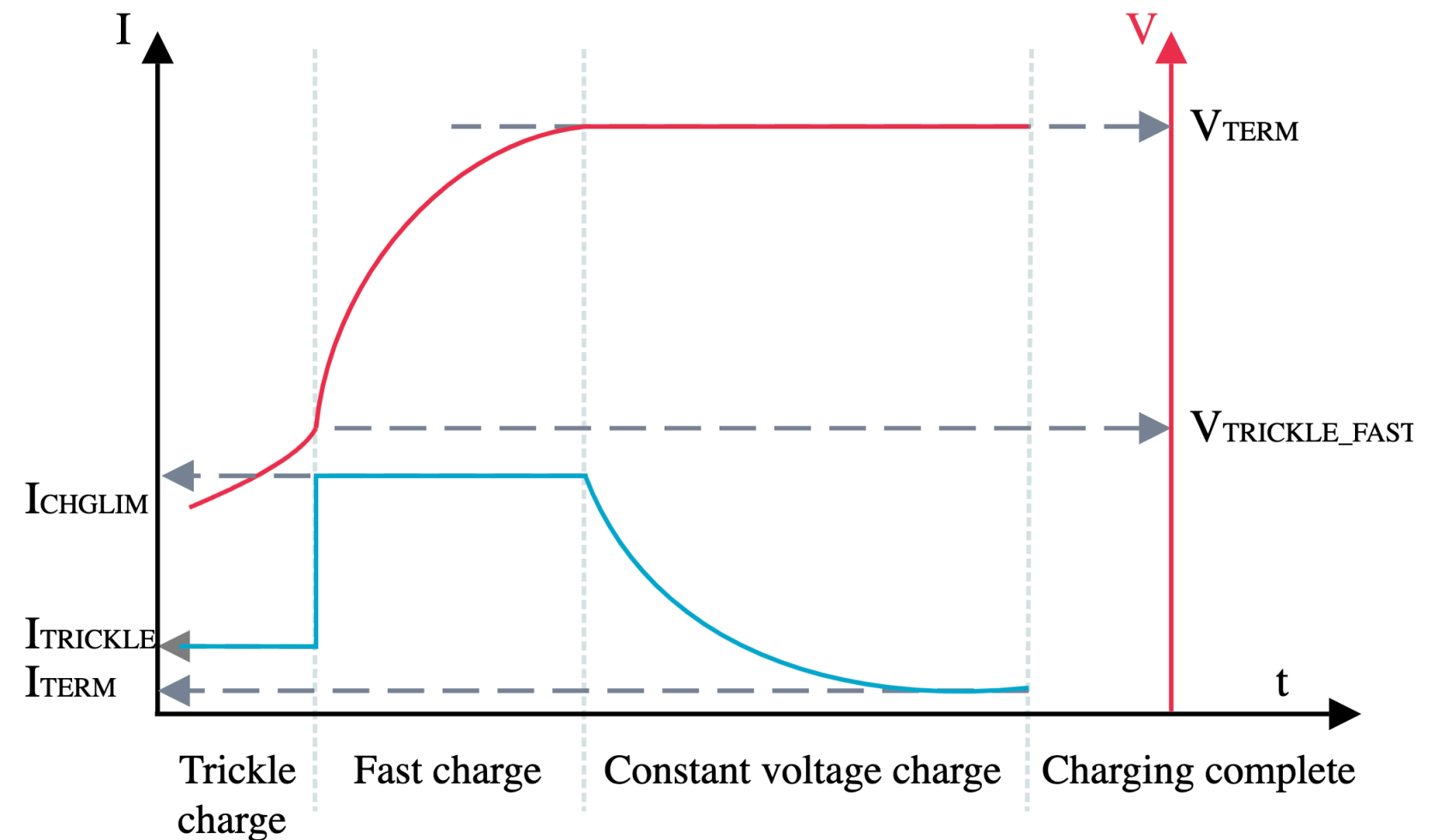
# Battery charger - Inputs

Voltage above  $V_{TRICKLE}$

Voltage close to  $V_{TERM}$

If voltage close to  $V_{TERM}$  and current is close to  $I_{TERM}$ , then charging complete

If charging complete, and voltage has dropped ( $V_{RECHARGE}$ ), then start again



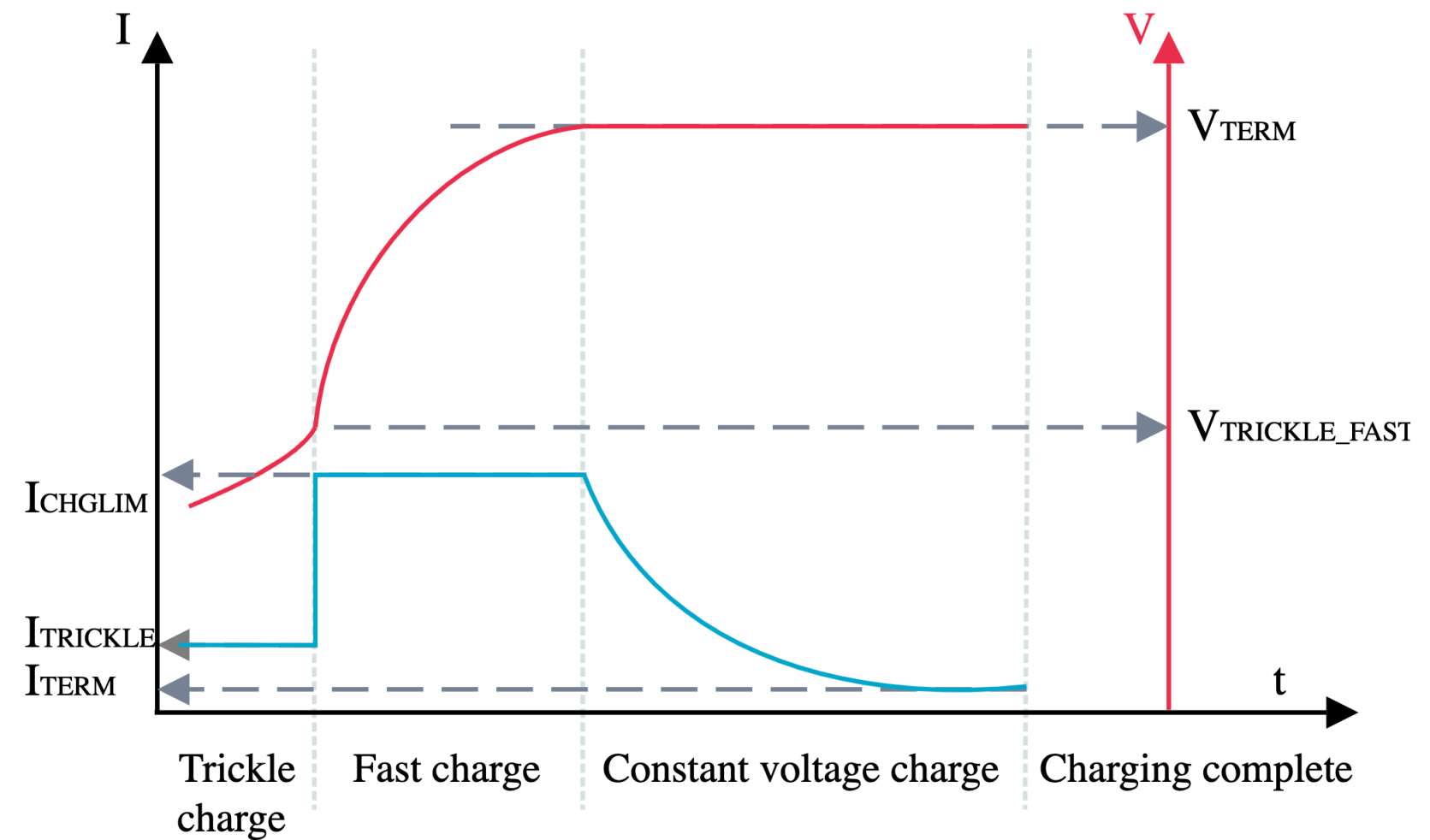
# Battery charger - States

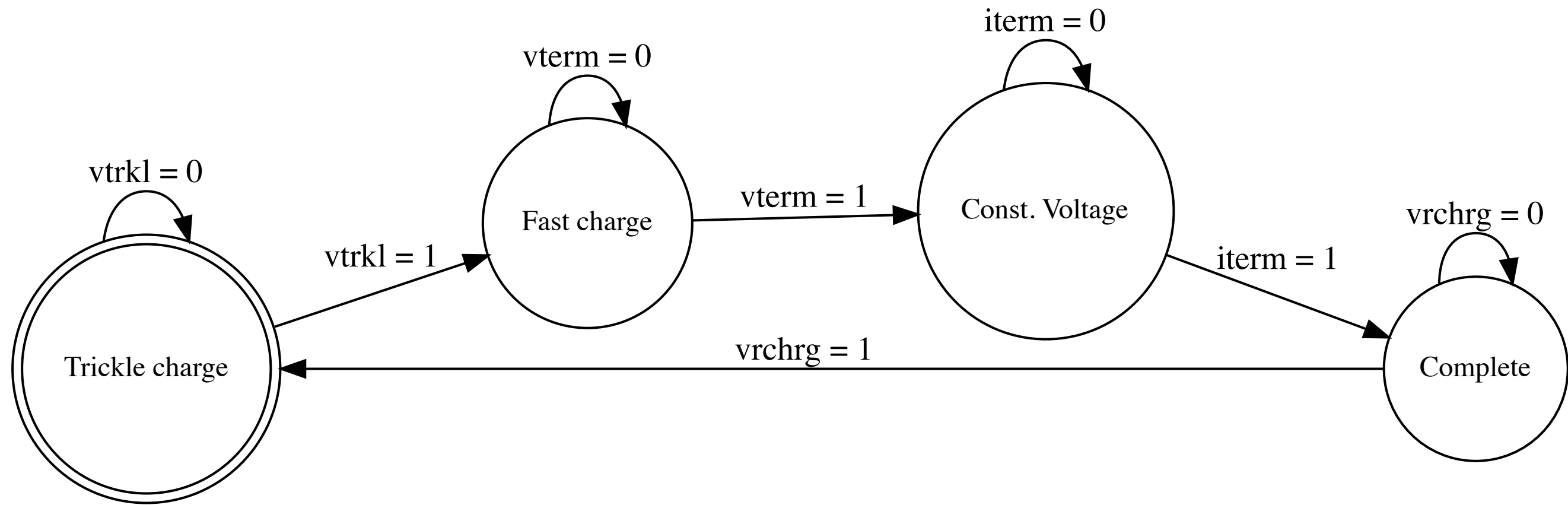
Trickle charge (0.1 C)

Fast charge (1 C)

Constant voltage

Charging complete





# One way to draw FSMs - Graphviz

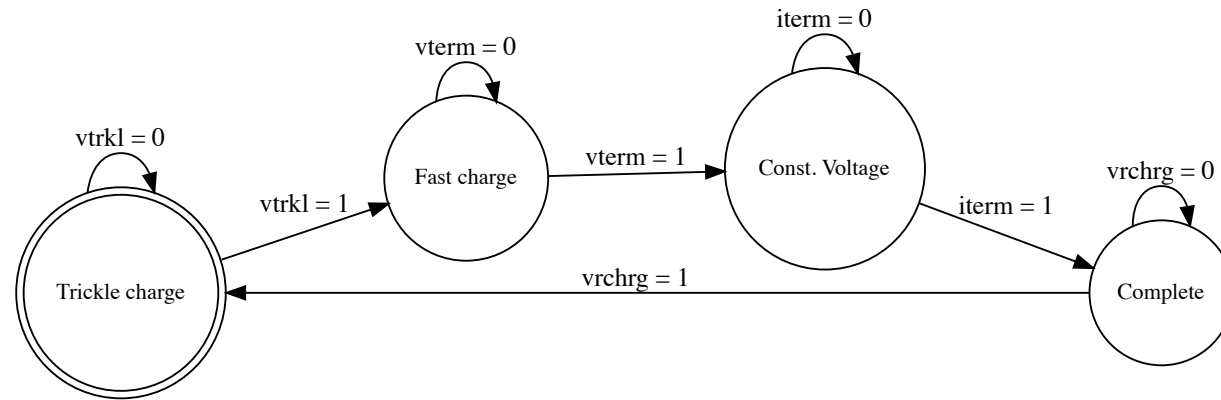
```
digraph finite_state_machine {
    rankdir=LR;
    size="8,5"

    node [shape = doublecircle, label="Trickle charger", fontsize=12] trkl;
    node [shape = circle, label="Fast charge", fontsize=12] fast;
    node [shape = circle, label="Const. Voltage", fontsize=12] vconst;
    node [shape = circle, label="Done", fontsize=12] done;

    trkl -> trkl [label="vtrkl = 0"];
    trkl -> fast [label="vtrkl = 1"];
    fast -> fast [label="vterm = 0"];
    fast -> vconst [label="vterm = 1"];
    vconst-> vconst [label="iterm = 0"];
    vconst-> done [label="iterm = 1"];
    done-> done [label="vrchrg = 0"];
    done-> trkl [label="vrchrg = 1"];

}
```

```
dot -Tpdf bcharger.dot -o bcharger.pdf
```



```

module bcharger( output logic trkl,
                output logic fast,
                output logic vconst,
                output logic done,
                input logic vtrkl,
                input logic vterm,
                input logic iterm,
                input logic vrchrg,
                input logic clk,
                input logic reset
                );

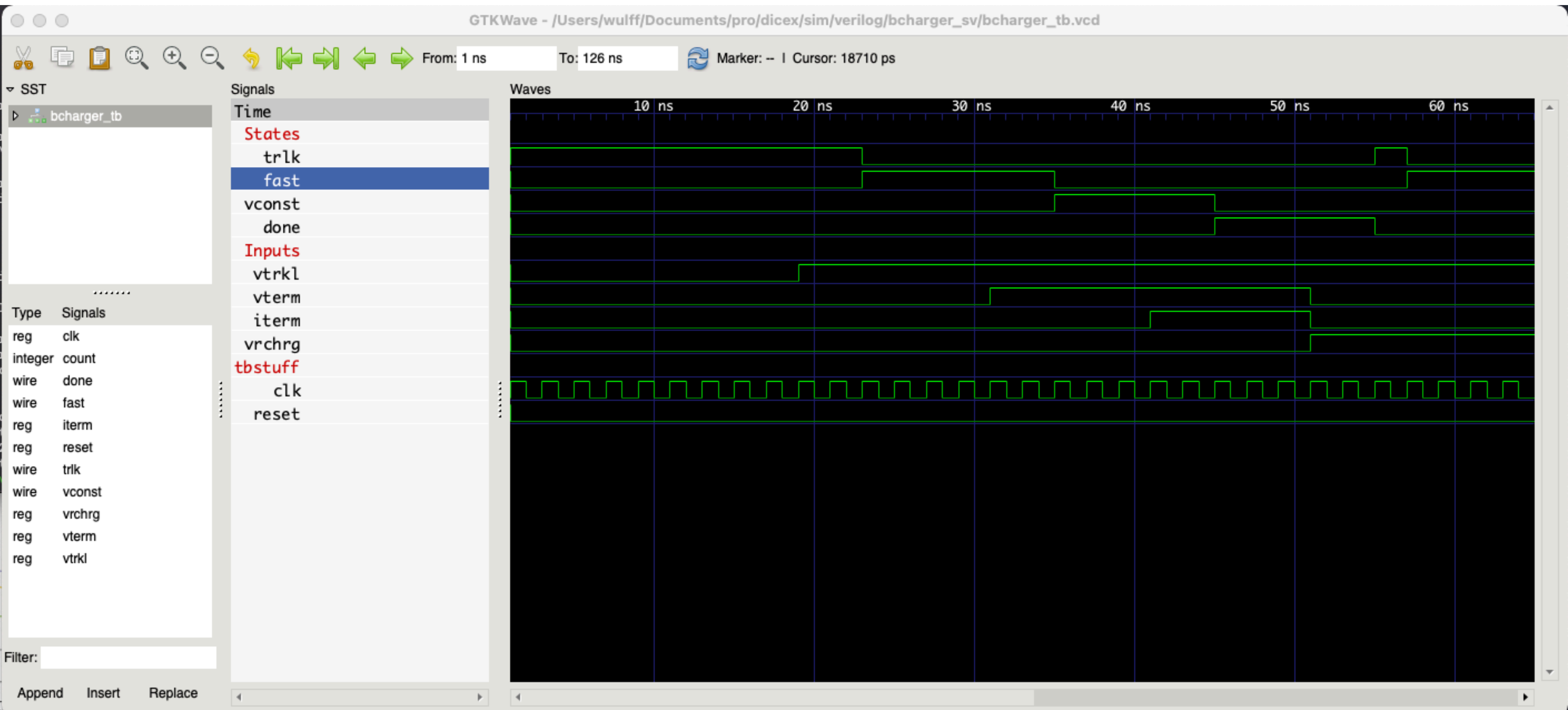
parameter TRLK = 0, FAST = 1, VCONST = 2, DONE=3;
logic [1:0] state;
logic [1:0] next_state;

// - Figure out the next state
always_comb begin
    case (state)
        TRLK: next_state = vtrkl ? FAST : TRLK;
        FAST: next_state = vterm ? VCONST : FAST;
        VCONST: next_state = iterm ? DONE : VCONST;
        DONE: next_state = vrchrg ? TRLK : DONE;
        default: next_state = TRLK;
    endcase // case (state)
end
  
```

```

// - Control output signals
always_ff @(posedge clk or posedge reset) begin
    if(reset) begin
        state <= TRLK;
        trkl <= 1;
        fast <= 0;
        vconst <= 0;
        done <= 0;
    end
    else begin
        state <= next_state;
        case (state)
            TRLK: begin
                trkl <= 1;
                fast <= 0;
                vconst <= 0;
                done <= 0;
            end
            FAST: begin
                trkl <= 0;
                fast <= 1;
                vconst <= 0;
                done <= 0;
            end
            VCONST: begin
                trkl <= 0;
                fast <= 0;
                vconst <= 1;
                done <= 0;
            end
            DONE: begin
                trkl <= 0;
                fast <= 0;
                vconst <= 0;
                done <= 1;
            end
        endcase // case (state)
    end // else: !if(reset)
end
endmodule
  
```





# Synthesize FSM with yosys

```
dicex/sim/verilog/bcharger_sv/bcharger.yo
```

```
# read design
read_verilog -sv bcharger.sv;
hierarchy -top bcharger;

# the high-level stuff
fsm; opt; memory; opt;

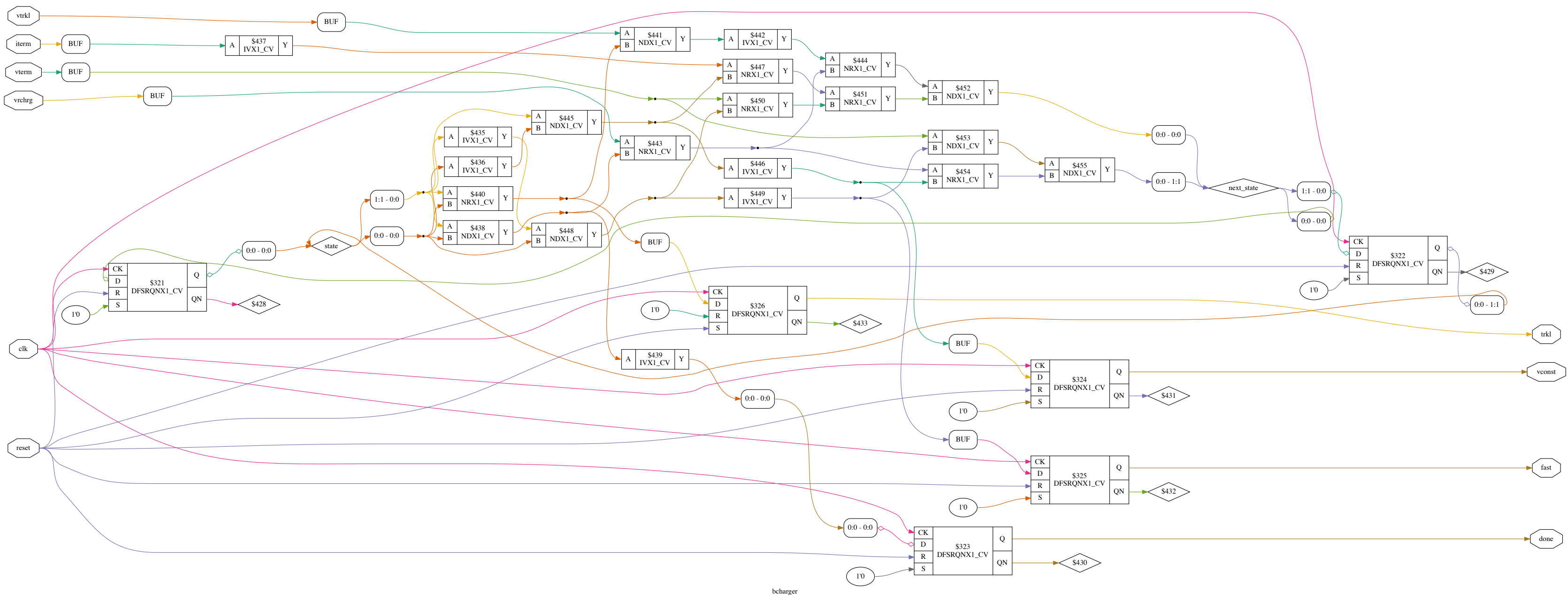
# mapping to internal cell library
techmap; opt;
synth;
opt_clean;

# mapping flip-flops
dfflibmap -liberty ../../../../lib/SUN_TR_GF130N.lib

# mapping logic
abc -liberty ../../../../lib/SUN_TR_GF130N.lib

# write synth netlist
write_verilog bcharger_netlist.v
read_verilog ../../../../lib/SUN_TR_GF130N_empty.v
write_spice -big_endian -neg AVSS -pos AVDD -top bcharger bcharger_netlist.sp

# write dot so we can make image
show -format dot -prefix bcharger_synth -colors 1 -width -stretch
clean
```



behager

**Thanks!**