

DESIGN OF 5V DIGITAL STANDARD CELLS
AND I/O LIBRARIES FOR MILITARY
STANDARD TEMPERATURES

By

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Application Specific Integrated Circuits are used to design entire systems on a single chip. ASICs are interconnection of standard cells which have been standardized by fabrication houses. With the integration of more and more system components on a single IC, the complexity of IC fabrication has increased. Modern day system design involves complex layout issues. Specifications of cells are provided by the vendors in form of a technology library which contains information about geometry, delay and power characteristics of cells. Design flow of ASICs is highly automated. The automation tools such as library characterizer, Abstract view generators, Automatic Place and Route tools etc., provide excellent performance and cost advantages over manual design process.

1.2 5V Design for Military Spec Temperatures

As the operating temperature increases, bulk Silicon devices fail to operate due to substrate diode leakage currents. Silicon on Insulator (SOI) is found to overcome most of the problems of bulk silicon at temperatures of military spec and above [2] including radiation tolerance. The operating voltage of the designs was chosen to be 5V based on proper device behavior with this operating voltage and temperatures as high as 125°C. This was followed by selecting the device geometries to minimize the leakage, punch through, and avalanche at 5V operation and 125°C.

1.3 Standard Cell Based ASIC Design Flow

As designs grow in complexity day by day, it is becoming increasingly difficult to layout these circuits by hand. Hence a custom ASIC (Application Specific Integrated Circuit) cell library approach is desirable. Standard cell based design provides reusability of basic cells for various designs and gives optimal level of abstraction. The cell based ASIC design flow diagram shown in Figure 1.1 categorizes the entire design procedure into tasks that fall under several design teams. The design procedure for ASICs given a fully characterized standard cell library is as follows [3]:

1. A synthesizable behavioral description of design in high-level description language (VHDL or Verilog) is written. This is called RTL (register transfer level) design.
2. The suitable functionality of the RTL code is verified by simulation.
3. Design partitioning into fewer smaller blocks is performed. This provides easy handling of design, efficient synthesis results with reduced time to market and reusability and fewer errors.
4. Logic synthesis on the RTL description is performed. This maps design on to standard cells and connectivity between them. This provides a gate-level net list depicting standard cells and electrical connections between them.
5. Functional simulation and static timing analysis are performed on the synthesized code.
6. A gate-level net list is imported into a place & route tool. Floor planning, power planning, placement, In Place Optimization (IPO) and trial route are performed on RTL level netlist imported. Clock tree synthesis and timing analysis are performed. All the

partitioned blocks are brought together at place & route level either with individual blocks placed & routed to give a block.

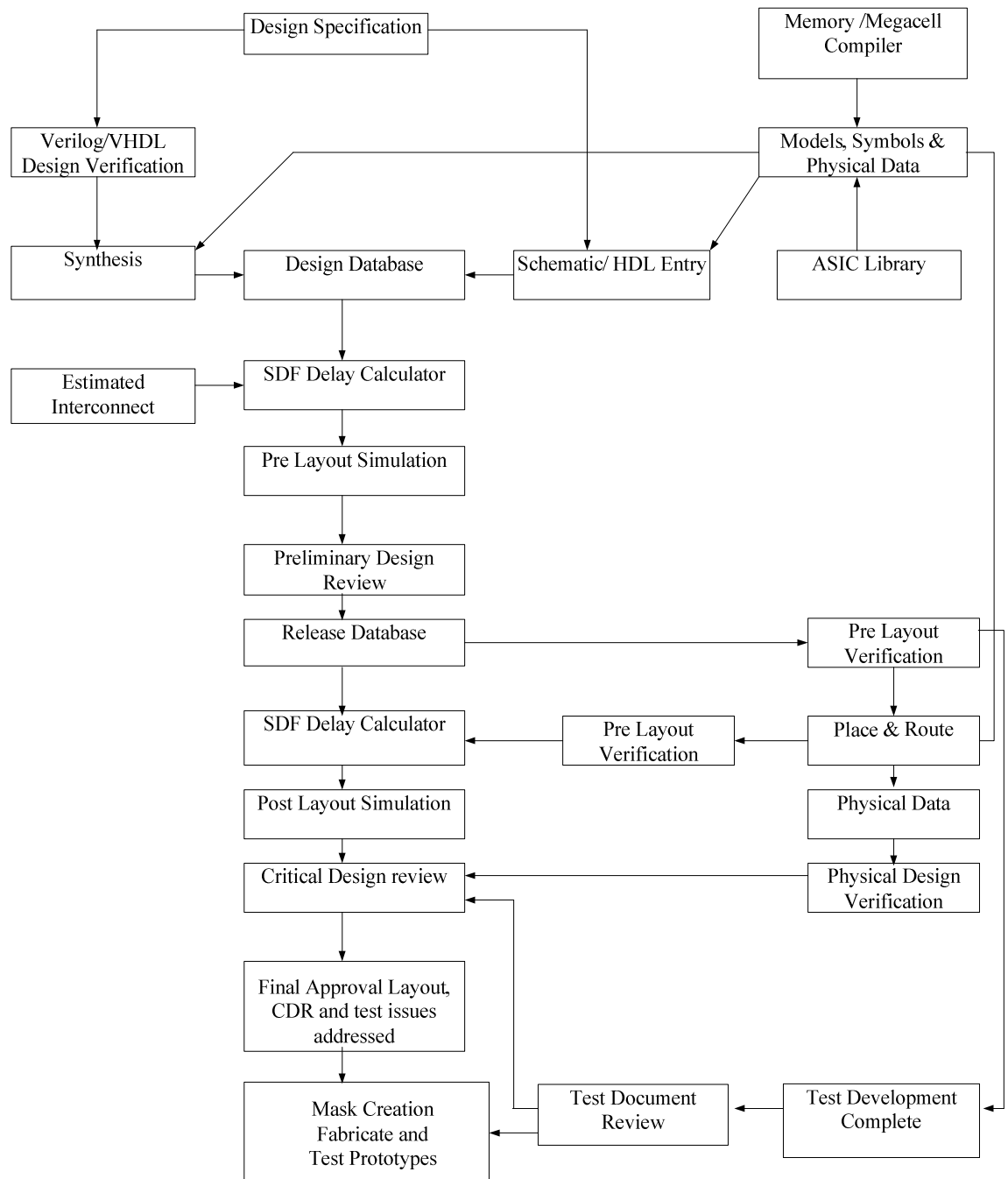


Figure 1.1ASiC Design Flow [4]

7. Post layout simulation is performed and static timing is back annotated. Testing is performed demonstrating the functional correctness of the design over all extremes of process, voltage and temperature.

8. Physical verification (DRC and LVS) is performed at the end before the design is sent to semiconductor facility for fabrication. As designs grow in complexity day by day, it is becoming increasingly difficult to layout these circuits by hand. Hence a custom ASIC (Application Specific Integrated Circuit) cell library approach is desirable. This approach enables the designer to convert a design from its functional description in high level RTL (Register Transfer Level) code such as Verilog or VHDL to layout with minimum effort using automatic Placement & Routing (PNR) tools. The cell library would contain a set of combinatorial and sequential logic cells of different drive strengths with their corresponding layout, schematic and symbol views and their characterized timing and power models.

1.4 Thesis Organization

This thesis consists of 6 chapters. Chapter 2 describes the details of Silicon on Insulator (SOI) implementation and its advantages over a typical bulk CMOS process. Chapter 3 describes the details of the cell library, its format, and library design guidelines, characterization of cells for timing and Abstraction of cells. Chapter 4 deals with Validation of the cell library. Chapter 5 deals with the I/O Pads Design and Characterization followed by the significance of Electro Static Discharge (ESD) protection circuits and its design. This is further followed by the testing scheme of

Human Body Model (HBM) at room temperature and military spec temperature at 125C followed by the ESD measurement results. Chapter 6 discusses future work in the direction of I/O pad design and ESD structures.

CHAPTER 2 SILICON ON INSULATOR WAFER TECHNOLOGY

2.1 Introduction

Silicon-On-Insulator (SOI) is a semiconductor fabrication technique that uses pure crystal silicon and silicon oxide for integrated circuits (ICs) and microchips. An SOI microchip processing speed is often 30% faster than today's complementary metal-oxide semiconductor (CMOS)-based bulk chips of equal dimension and power consumption is reduced 80%, which makes them ideal for mobile devices. SOI chips also reduce the soft error rate, data corruption resulting from cosmic rays and natural radioactive background signals striking the IC. The SOI performance advantage over bulk is caused by the elimination of the junction capacitance, and the lack of reverse body effect in stacked circuits and the fact that the SOI body is slightly forward biased under most operating conditions [5]. At elevated temperatures such as 100 C – 300 C, the bulk devices fail to operate in contrast to SOI devices, typically owing to its device leakage characteristics.

2.2 SOI and Bulk- Device Structure and Characteristics

In bulk processes, individual devices are fabricated in the body of silicon and large area p n junctions are used for isolating drain and source of P/N type MOS transistors from the substrate. In an n-well process, N type MOSFETs are fabricated in p type silicon substrate and P type MOSFETs are fabricated in an n-well diffused in p type silicon substrate. Drain and source of NMOS transistors are isolated from substrate by p-n junction formed by drain or source itself with silicon substrate. Drain and source of PMOS transistors isolated from silicon substrate using an n-well. On the other hand, devices in SOI process are fabricated in silicon thin film active layer over a buried oxide layer (BOX). The BOX layer being an insulator providing isolation of transistors from silicon substrate underneath it and local oxidation of silicon (LOCOS) or removing of unused silicon between transistors isolating individual transistors. In fully depleted SOI process, thickness of silicon film over insulator is less than approximately 50nm. Thus the entire silicon film is taken by source/drain depletion region leaving no body. Whereas in partially depleted SOI process, silicon film thickness is around 100nm to 200nm or thicker giving rise to the existence of a body that is floating.

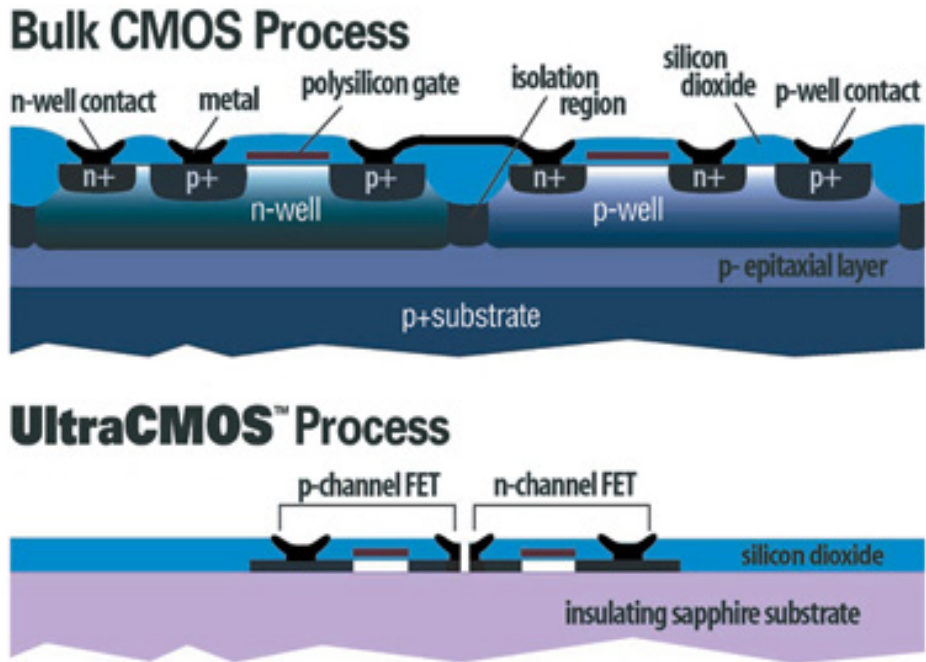


Figure 2.1 Comparison between Bulk CMOS and Peregrine UTSi CMOS process [6]

2.2.1 High Speed, Low Power and High Device Density

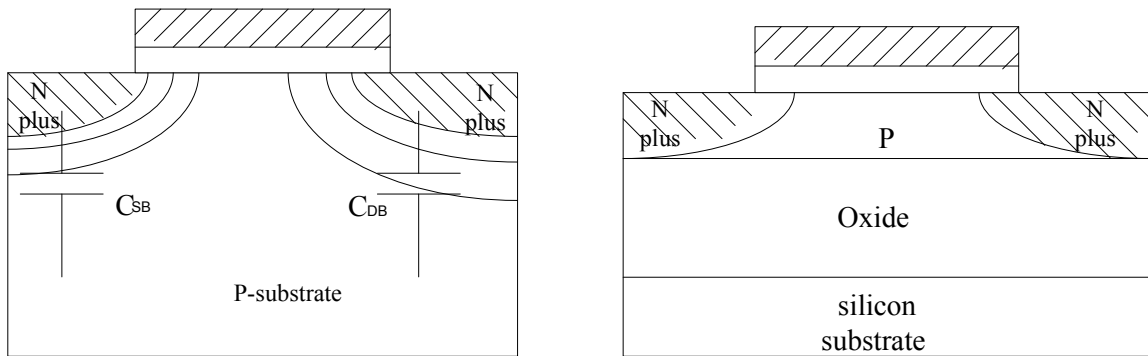


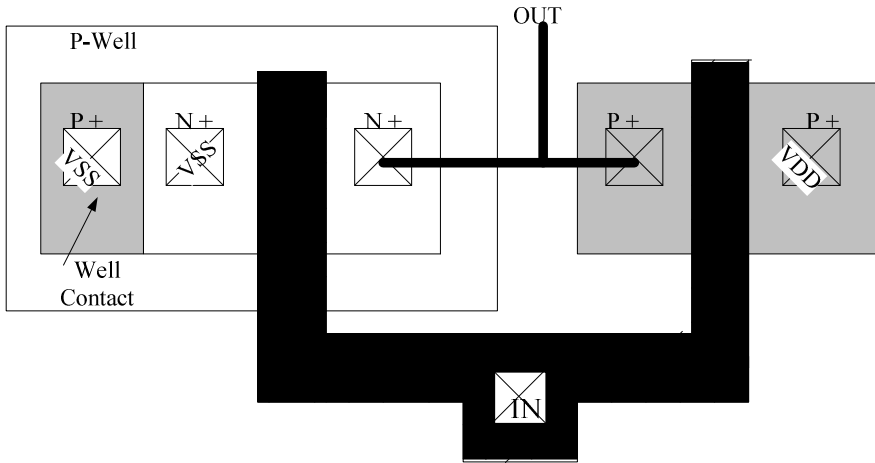
Figure 2.2 Cross section of Bulk and SOI MOS devices from left to right, respectively [7]

SOI can reduce the capacitance at the source and drain junctions significantly by eliminating the depletion regions extending into the substrate, as shown in Figure 2.2.

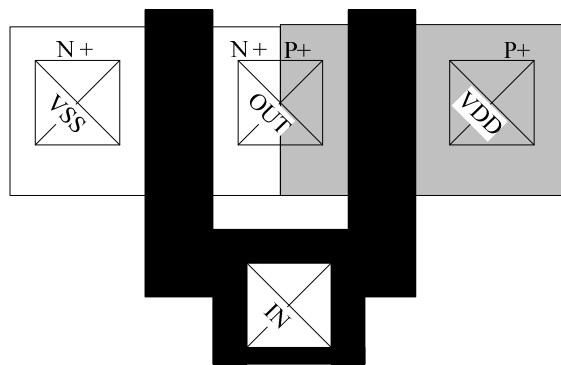
This is responsible for reduction in the RC delay due to parasitic capacitance which

accounts for higher speed performance of the SOI CMOS devices compared to bulk CMOS, particularly at the downscale power supply voltage.

Owing to the buried oxide structure, the source/drain regions of the SOI NMOS/PMOS devices can be placed in closer proximity each other without the possibility of latch up. Therefore, SOI CMOS devices typically have a much higher device density. Figure 2.3 shows the layout of a CMOS inverter circuit using SOI and bulk technologies [8]. As shown in Figure 2.3, since wells are not required to separate the N+ region from the P+ region, the smaller layout area of the SOI CMOS circuits leads to smaller leakage current and smaller parasitic capacitances. Since SOI devices do not need the reverse biased junctions and well isolations, their device density can be even higher. As a result, a higher speed at smaller power consumption can be obtained from the SOI CMOS circuits for device of equal channel lengths. Consequently, SOI CMOS devices are appropriate to integrate low-power circuits.



(a) Layout of a bulk CMOS inverter



(b) Layout of an SOI CMOS Inverter

Figure 2.3 Layout of a CMOS inverter circuit using SOI and bulk technologies

2.2.2 The Floating Body Effect [7]

Despite supporting higher speeds, low power and high device density in circuit design, SOI technology possesses certain structural issues. The MOS device is always accompanied by a parasitic transistor connected in parallel. Unlike the case in bulk silicon, the base of the bipolar transistor is not connected to ground and is floating. When

the MOS transistor is biased in the saturation region and the drain voltage exceeds a certain value, the bipolar transistor turns on where the drain current suddenly rises with a discontinuity in the drain current on the I-V curves [9], this is referred to as the kink effect. Kink effects are unique in the partial depletion (PD) SOI devices, which means when the body of the device is not depleted fully. In Fully Depleted (FD) devices, the silicon film is fully depleted at threshold and due to the full depletion of the film the source to body potential barrier is very small. As a result, on applying drain voltage high enough to create electron hole pairs the holes readily moves to the source without raising the body potential. Hence, the body potential doesn't change and thus FD devices are virtually free of the Kink effect.

In order to reduce the kink effect, one method is to provide a body contact for the device to the supply rail, but this greatly increases the area of the circuit and degrades the feature advantage of high device density and small parasitic capacitance.

2.2.3 Latch-up in Bulk

In bulk silicon, the formation of a thyristor like PNPN structure with a parasitic PNP and NPN transistor connected back to back results in latch-up. Latch-up is the creation of a low impedance path between the power and ground rails by triggering the thyristor structure. Once triggered both transistors start conducting and large amounts of current start flowing through the devices until the power is switched off. Latch-up degrades circuit performance typically resulting in destruction of the device due to over currents. In SOI, there is no direct path between the various devices and the devices are isolated by

a layer of thick oxide which surrounds each device [10]. Hence latch-up can never occur in SOI.

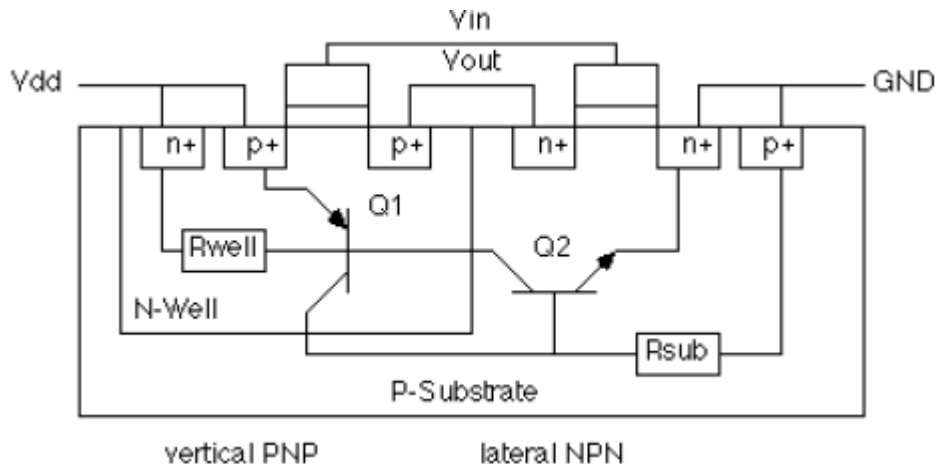


Figure 2.5 Cross-sectional view of an inverter showing parasitic bipolar transistors connected back to back [11]

2.2.4 SOI - Potential for lower threshold voltages (V_T)

The inverse subthreshold slope which is defined as the inverse of the slope of $I_D(V_G)$ curve in subthreshold regime is given by equation 2.1

$$S = dV_G / d(\log I_D) = (kT/q) \ln(10)(1 + \alpha), \quad (2.1)$$

Here α represents the ratio of the capacitance between inversion channel and the back gate electrode, and the gate oxide capacitance. Typically, $\alpha_{\text{fully depleted SOI}} < \alpha_{\text{bulk}}$

As a result, inverse subthreshold slope has the lowest (i.e. better) value in the fully depleted device than in bulk device. Typically, the value obtainable for fully depleted SOI is 65mV/decade [18] in comparison to 90mV/decade [12] for bulk process. The lower values of inverse subthreshold slope in fully depleted SOI devices allows one to use smaller values of threshold voltage than in bulk devices without increasing the

leakage current at $V_g = 0$. As a result, better speed performances can be obtained, especially at low supply voltages.

2.2.5 Gate Oxide Breakdown in SOI

At high supply voltages both leakage currents and avalanche currents can be increased leading to circuit malfunction. As a result considerations must be under taken to avoid, avalanche breakdown, gate oxide break down and excessive leakage current as a result of the bipolar kink effect. Due to reduced gate oxide thickness, a high voltage applied across gate and substrate results in high electric fields across the oxide. When the oxide is subjected to high electric fields, electrons will tunnel through oxide layer and contribute to gate current. With increase an in electric field across the oxide, for values greater than a certain threshold, oxide starts breaking down completely giving rise to very large gate currents thereby causing the device to fail. Gate tunneling was not found troublesome when the NMOS and PMOS devices were tested for Peregrine process (A Fully Depleted Silicon on Sapphire process). It can be seen in Figures 2.6 and 2.7 that the devices show no signs of gate tunneling when powered up to 8V[3].

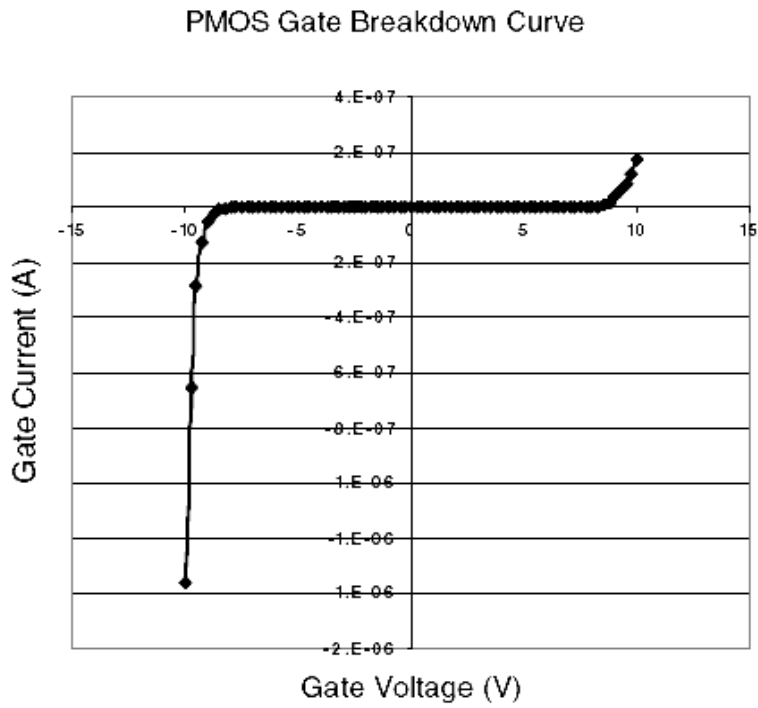


Figure 2.6 Gate Break down Voltage of Regular PMOS @ 275 C [3]

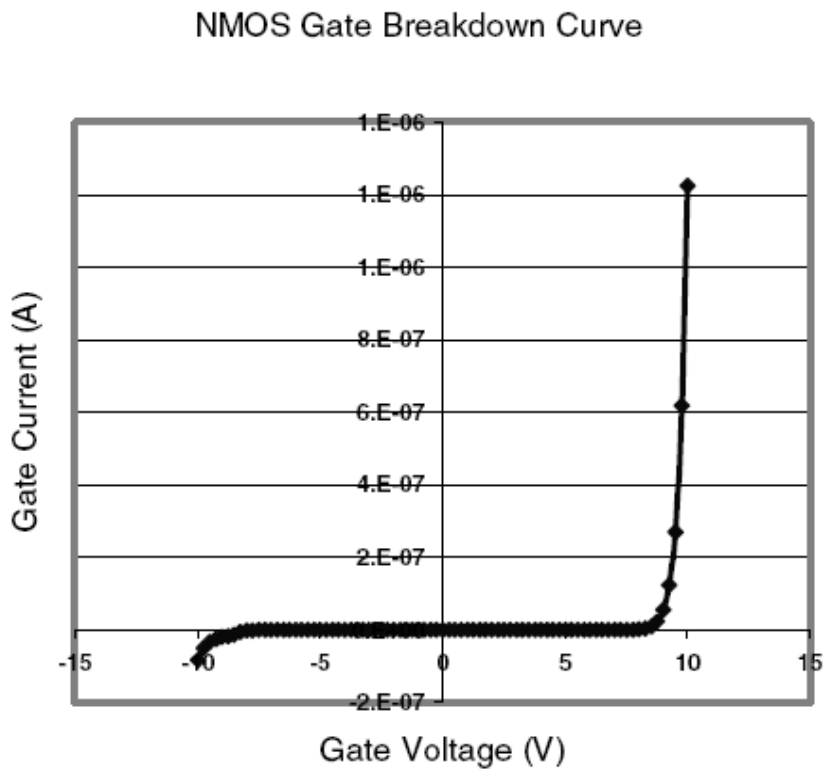


Figure 2.7 Gate Break down Voltage of Regular NMOS @ 275 C [3]

2.2.6 ESD Protection in SOI

While electrostatic discharge protection devices have been implemented as ancillary circuits on MOS type integrated circuit chips, an additional concern arises with SOI chips. Traditionally, the energy of an electrostatic discharge was maintained at a safe voltage level by such ancillary protection circuits, and the energy was dissipated in the bulk semiconductor substrate on which the circuits were fabricated. In contrast, for SOI circuits, the thin silicon layer is electrically and thermally insulated from the substrate by a buried oxide (BOX) layer. Since most electrically insulating materials are poor thermal conductors, substantially all the energy must be dissipated within the thin polysilicon layer which overlies the insulator (buried oxide). A floating body field effect transistor having a defined breakdown voltage, and a lower holding voltage, serves to clamp electrostatic discharge voltages to a low voltage level, thereby minimizing thermal power dissipation within the thin semiconductor layer of SOI circuits. NMOS devices have been used predominantly for ESD protection circuits over PMOS devices owing to lower snapback voltages of NMOS devices [16].

In summary, a comparison of SOI Vs Bulk can be tabulated as shown in table 2.1

	BULK	SOI
Source & Drain Cap/ Speed	0	+
Device Density	0	+
Inverse Sub-threshold Slope	0	0/+ (partially depleted/ fully depleted)
Latchup	0	+
Kink	0	-
Conventional ESD protection methods	0	-

Table 2.1 Comparison of SOI Vs Bulk .the bulk device is given a reference '0', '+' and '-' mean "similar to bulk", "better than bulk", and "worse than bulk", respectively.

CHAPTER 3 STANDARD CELL LIBRARY

CHARACTERIZATION

3.1 Introduction

The requirement of a Standard Cell Library (SCL) in the ASIC Design world is unavoidable. A standard cell library is comprised of combinatorial and sequential logic cells of different drive strengths with their corresponding layout, schematic and symbol views and their characterized timing and power models. A SCL enables a designer to easily translate a design from its high level description in Verilog or VHDL to a layout using placement and routing tools. At the early design stage, cells are targeted to meet certain function and performance requirements. Typically, the cells can be designed with the intent to either optimizing for area or in optimizing speed. The former typically uses minimum sized transistors to achieve the smallest area while the latter uses larger transistors to provide good drive qualities since the “on” resistance of the transistors is inversely proportional to the width of the transistor. An optimum scaling ratio (3 in case of our buffers) of the driven and the driving transistors allow for higher drive currents along with tolerable input capacitance for the drive transistor. As a result it takes less time to charge a lower capacitance and hence increment in speed is achieved.

3.2 Design Aspects of Standard Cell Library operating at 5V

There are certain factors that need to be considered when designing a standard cell library for 5V and military spec temperature applications. The factors that need to be considered are:

1. Selection of proper lengths for transistors to meet leakage current, bandwidth and noise margin requirements at temperatures such as 125°C. Operating conditions for the intended use of the cell library and its performance requirements dictate geometries for NMOS and PMOS devices to be used in the library. The cell library project was designed to operate at 5V and up to temperatures of 125°C. The Peregrine processes are designed to be a 4V process. At high supply voltages both leakage currents and avalanche currents can be large leading to circuit malfunction. As a result considerations must be under taken to avoid, avalanche breakdown, gate oxide break down and excessive leakage current as a result of the bipolar kink effect. Avalanche breakdown is a current multiplication process that occurs in the presence of strong electric fields caused by even moderate voltages over very short distances like in semiconductor devices. The voltage at which avalanche breakdown occurs in a given device poses an upper limit on the operating voltages because; the associated electric fields can start the process and cause excessive current flow resulting in destruction or rapid aging of the device. Several NMOS devices with gate lengths starting 1 μ m and PMOS devices with gate lengths starting from 0.5 μ m have been tested on silicon at room temperature and 125°C with drain voltage of 5V [3]. The data shows that the electric field to which the carriers are subjected to, by applying up to 5V across drain and source

does not start the avalanche breakdown process for NMOS devices with channel lengths in excess of 1.6 μm and for PMOS devices with lengths greater than 0.8 μm . Thus avalanche is not a problem even for minimum length PMOS devices for a 5.5V of power supply both at room and 125°C [3] while 1.6 μm devices were used for the NMOS devices.

2. Of several process-level and circuit-level techniques available for reducing leakage currents, controlling lengths of the devices is used for this work. Since NMOS devices were found to avalanche and leak more than the PMOS at shorter channel lengths, design starts by choosing channel length for NMOS device that would give an acceptable I_{on}/I_{off} ratio and control avalanche. Hardware testing was performed on several NMOS devices with different lengths at room temperature and 125°C to obtain I_{on}/I_{off} ratios. Plots for on-state current and off-state current are shown in figure 3.1. A channel length of 1.6 μm was selected for the NMOS device that is tested to demonstrate I_{on}/I_{off} ratio of more than 80 at 125°C as is evident from plots shown in figure 3.1 for NMOS device with gate length of 1.6 μm . Channel length of 0.8 μm is chosen for PMOS device while both devices were designed with equal device widths of 1.4 μm . This resulted in the logic devices being approximately beta matched the transistors.[3]
3. Gates were beta matched to maximize the noise margins over optimal delay or minimum geometry given the application environment.
4. Avoiding or minimizing usage of transmission gates to eliminate potential floating body problems in SOS.

5. Limiting the number of series connected transistors to four or less. When the number of series connected transistors is large, the rise/fall times degrade due to higher resistance and greater self capacitance.

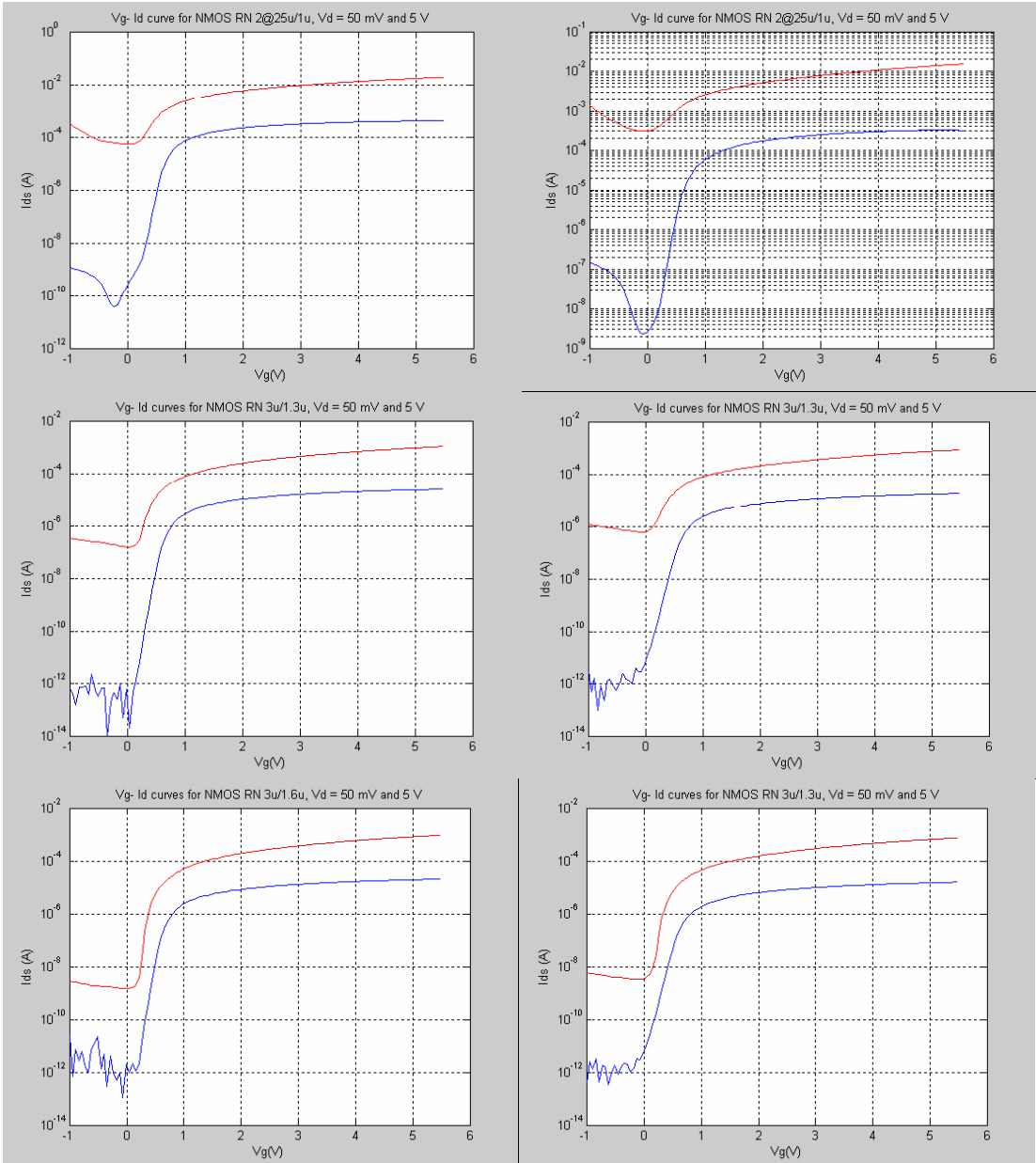


Figure 3.1 Plots for I_{on} at 27C and 125C (from left to right respectively) for NMOS device with length of 1 μm , 1.3 μm , and 1.6 μm , from top to bottom respectively. [3]

3.3 Standard Cell Library

3.3.1 Cell Library Design Flow

The standard cell library design process broadly involves three stages which are illustrated in Figure 3.1 and explained in detail below [13].

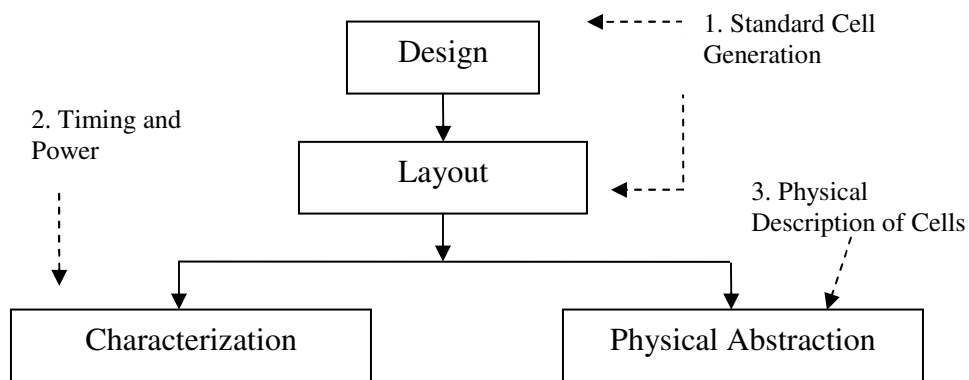


Figure 3.2 Standard Cell Library Generation Flow

1. **Standard Cell Generation** – As the name suggests, standard cells perform certain combinatorial and/or sequential logic function such as NAND, NOR, Latch etc, which are considered as standards in ASIC design industry. This involves selection of the correct device (transistors) geometries, creating schematics and symbol views (Logical view), drawing layouts (Physical view) according to specifications followed by Design rule Check (DRC) and Layout Versus Schematic (LVS) checks, further followed by extraction of the SPICE netlist for each cell.

2. Generating Timing and Power Data – The timing values which are categorized as intrinsic rise/fall time, rise resistance, fall resistance, setup and hold time (for sequential cells) for the cells, are characterized using SignalStorm (a Cadence Design Suite tool).

Power consumption refers to three types of power:

- Switching power, this is due to the charging and discharging of the loading capacitance.
- Short-circuit power, this is due to the current drawn from supply to ground when the output switches. Short-circuit power depends on both the input slew rate and the output loading capacitance.
- Static leakage power, which is due to the static current drawn from supply to ground when the circuit is stable.

SignalStorm library characterizer characterizes all three types of power consumption and saves the results in tabular format in the database. The timing and power information is put together to form a “.lib” file (Synopsis Liberty File, this format is an industry standard) which can be used by the synthesis tool to convert the behavioral code to a Verilog netlist that meets the timing constraints.

3. Physical Description of Cells – This step involves creating the abstract view of each cell which is basically a physical description of the cell having the information about the different layers of metals used in the layout, the different metal layers available and the preferences of these layers for routing, the area of each cell along with the dimension of the power and ground rails and the pin positions so that the router can route the I/O pins.

3.3.2 What's in the Box? - Components of a Cell Library

Irrespective of the vendor, the standard cell library must have:-

1. Circuit Schematics, Symbols, Layouts, Parasitic Extraction and Abstracted views of each standard cell.
2. Technology Libraries giving the Timing and Power specifications for the Worst, Normal and Best case in terms of threshold voltage, temperature, Process and operating voltage in a format that is accurate and acceptable industry wide for synthesis and Place & Route (P&R).
3. A routing model for proper routing of the design in order to avoid design rule errors.
4. A behavioral model which describes the functionality of each cell.
5. A model in Verilog /VHDL for all the cells.
6. Cell Library Documentation highlighting the relevant information and guiding the user through the timing and power data.

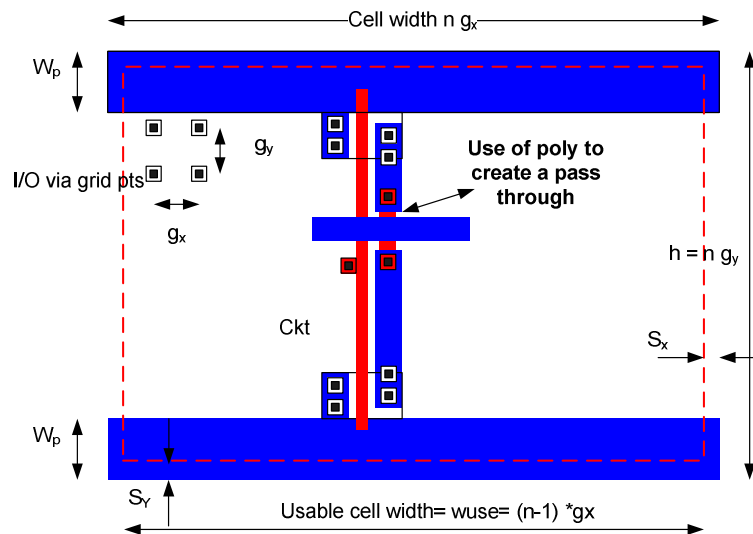


Figure 3.3 The Layout format of the Standard Cell Library

Table 3.1 Cell geometry definitions and values

Parameter	Value for a single height cell	Comment
gx	2.2um	Horizontal grid spacing. (isolated metal width)
gy	2.2um	Vertical grid spacing.
Sy , Sx	0.9um (NMOS rail) 0.4um (PMOS rail) 0.4um	Safety zone required to avoid abutting DRC errors. Safety Zone to avoid abutting errors from left and right side of the cell
wp	2.4um	Power rail width
h	24.2 um (m*gy)	m vertical grids equals 11
wuse	(n-1)gx	n horizontal grid points must be an integer

3.3.3 The Layout Procedure

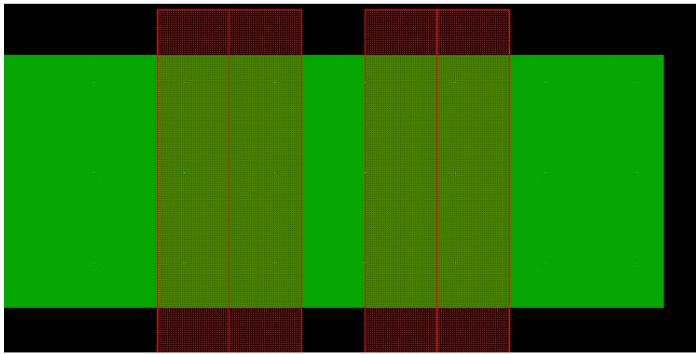
This section illustrates how the cells were created using manual layout techniques in cadence virtuoso layout editor. Layout uses standard cell techniques where signals are routed in polysilicon, nominally perpendicular to the power rails. Layout format followed in developing the standard cell library is shown in figure 3.2 with geometry definitions and values summarized in Table 3.1. This approach results in a dense layout for CMOS gates. Once lengths and widths of transistors are finalized, the following steps are followed:-

1. Cell height is chosen to be the lowest possible integer multiple of metal1 routing grid that could accommodate the most complex cell in the library such as a flip-flop or a full adder. In this way it is ensured that any other cell in the entire library would fit in that fixed cell height. The finalized height was 24.2um.
2. All the pins of each should be placed on grid points (multiples of 2.2 um in our case), thus avoiding slow off-grid routing.
3. Pins are staggered wherever possible allowing for easier pin access by the routing tool.
4. Contacts are merged for improved density but kept at greater than two to provide greater reliability.
5. Verification is performed to make sure that each cell passes DRC and LVS checks.
6. Care has to be taken to keep apposition error in mind, i.e. when two NMOS device in the cells are placed side by side and apposition abutting errors can result. Hence there has to be some spacing (generally half the spacing required to avoid any DRC error) left for each layer in the layout at each cell's boundary area.

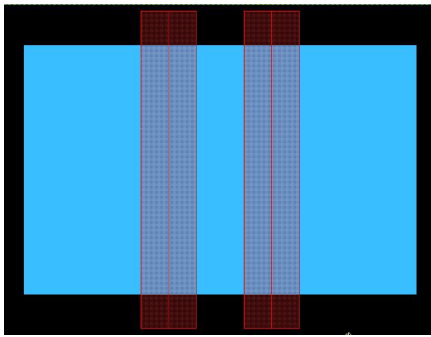
The power rails are 2.4um wide, routed horizontally in metal1. The I/O of the cell is routed vertically in metal2 over the cell, connecting to terminal pins defined by labeled metal2-metal1 pins. As the routing of the I/O is over the cell, the I/O terminals can be placed anywhere on the predefined grid points. All I/O pins are placed on a 'gx' by 'gy' grid to get increased efficiency with place and route tool. All cells are 'n' times 'gx' wide where 'n' is the lowest possible integer that accommodates the cell. Also since routing tools use fixed-grid three-level routing, the terminals must have a center-to-center spacing along both axes. All metal1 must be wholly contained between the power rails; only polysilicon and locos are allowed to extend to within 'ss' of the cell boundary. Metalthick when used runs horizontally while metal2 runs vertically. The grid spacing gx and 'gy' are set respectively by the minimum spacing requirement between two m1-m2 vias and m2-mt vias. The routing grid is chosen to be 2.2um for metal1 and metal2.

A practice of creating instances of small cells has been followed throughout the cell library. These cells include NMOS and PMOS with 1X, 2X, 4X drive strengths and P/N ratio is set so as to have the transistors beta matched. There are cells with NAND Function of strengths 0.5 X, 1X, 2X and 3X. Such usage reduces the manual design time to a great extent at a minor or no expense in area.

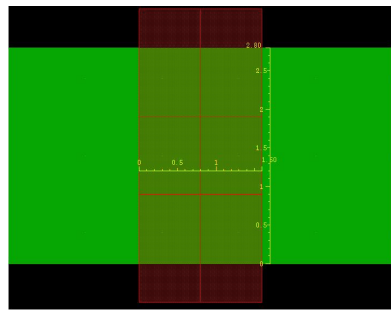
3.4 Snapshots of cells



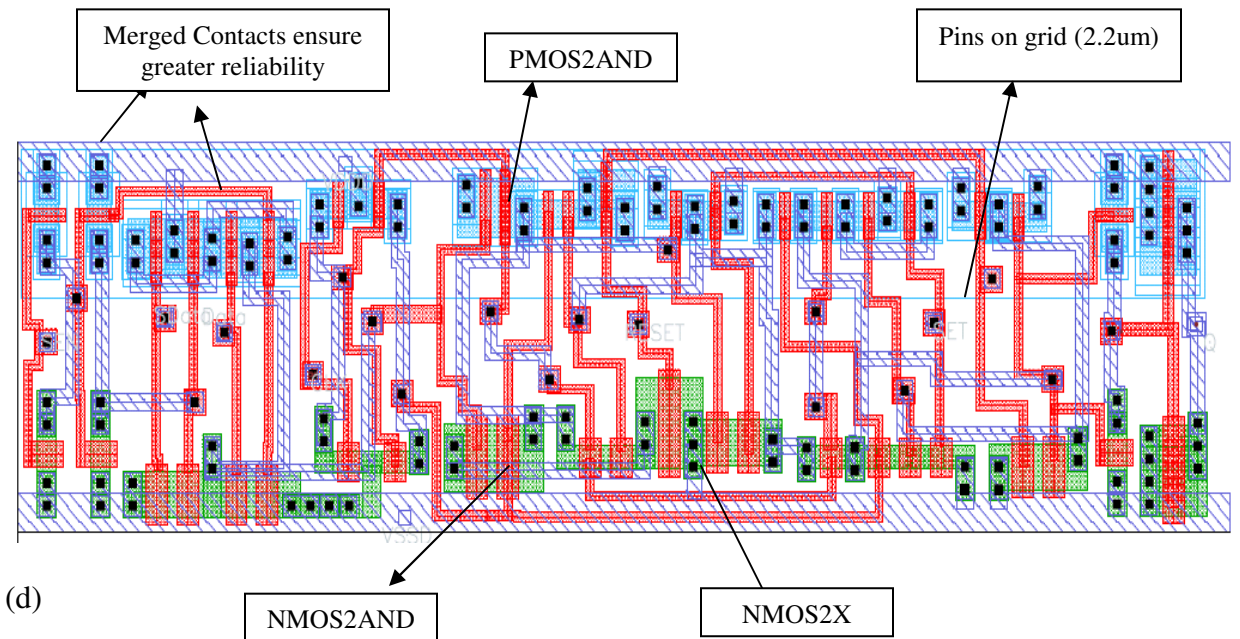
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Figure 3.4 (a) NMOS2AND (b) PMOS2AND (c) NMOS2X (d) Layout View of a positive Edge Triggered D Flip-Flop with negative set and reset

synthesizer to optimize the design and to verify that the timing constraints are met. Once a design has been completed through P&R, the next step is to understand the inherent delays associated with the completed routing.

3.5.1 The Library Characterizer – SignalStorm

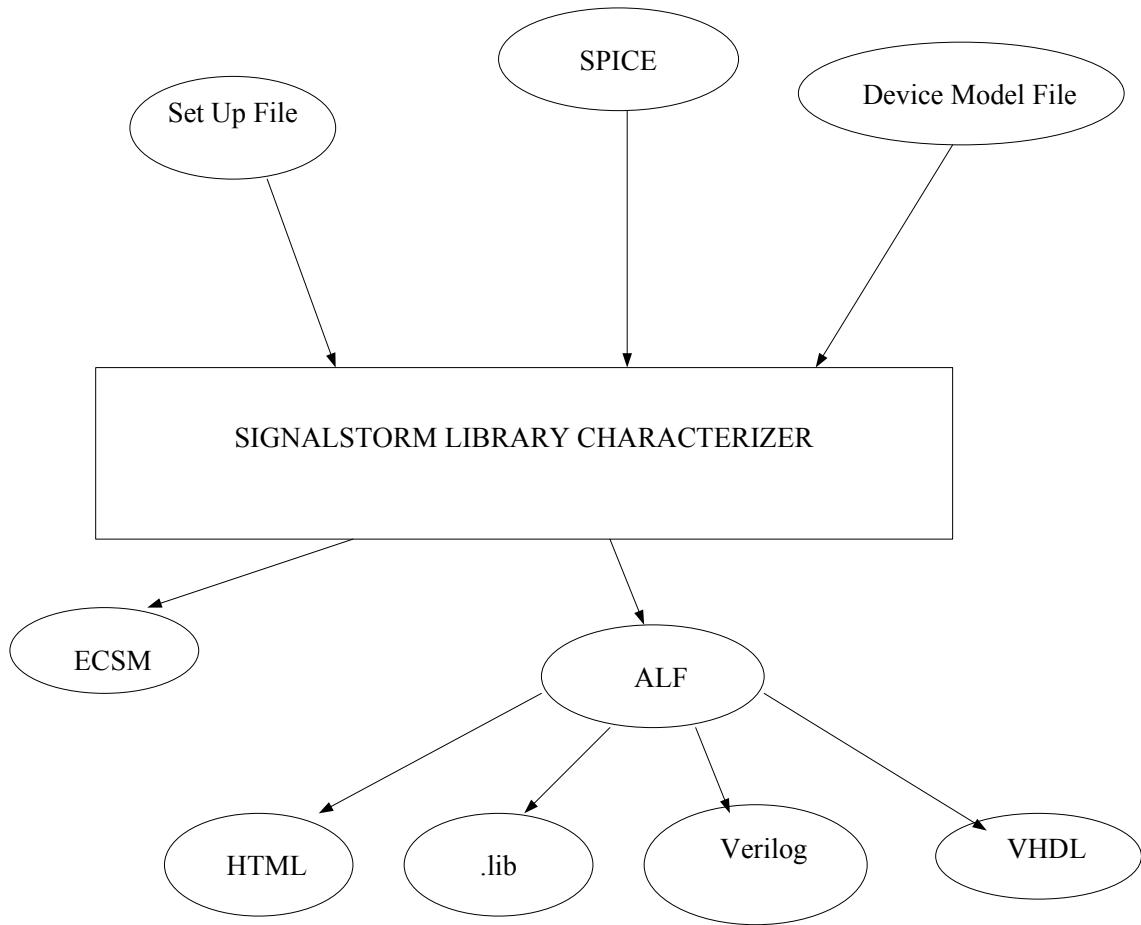


Figure 3.6 Inputs and Outputs to SignalStorm Library Characterizer

The main input to library characterization is a SPICE-format netlist that contains the detailed transistor devices, and extracted resistance, and capacitance for each library cell. The main output of library characterization is a library database that contains timing

models for each of the cells. These timing models are used in delay calculation.(see Figure 3.6). Sample input and output files used in SignalStorm are shown in Appendix B

SignalStorm performs the following steps for automatic cell library characterization [14]:

1. Analysis of Spice models of transistor circuits and recognition of the logic structure and functionality.
2. Generation of the logic model or function model for combinatorial, sequential and tristate circuits.
3. Generation of specification definitions in the circuit such as pin directions and properties, pin to pin delays etc.
4. Generation of Delay Vectors.
5. Generation of Power Vectors.
6. Defining the cell library characterization environment by specifying parameters such as the supply voltage, temperature, input slew rate, output load and process corners (Fast ,Typical and Slow)
7. Execution of Spice netlist and summarizes the results.
8. Generation of Abstract Library Format (ALF) file which can be further converted to .LIB, .VHDL, .V and HTML files.

A standard cell is usually characterized in terms of input slew rate “ t_{in} ” and output load capacitance “ C_L ” for different supply voltages, temperatures and process corners such as slow, typical and fast corners. The standard cells are characterized for output transition time, propagation delay from each input pin to the outputs, internal switching power,

leakage power dissipation and input pin capacitances. In addition to these, sequential cells are characterized for setup time and hold time.

The various factors that are taken into account to characterize a cell for its Timing are:-

- **Intrinsic Delay** – It is an important benchmark of transistor performance. Given by $\tau = CV/I$, where C is the gate capacitance, $V = V_{dd}$, and I is ON current I_{on} . As defined, τ represents the fundamental RC (where R is the device “on” resistance and C is the capacitance) delay of the device and provides a frequency limit for transistor operation that is relatively insensitive to gate dielectrics and device width. It is the delay of a logic gate driving its own gate (transistor gate). This parameter is estimated by the user and is to be taken care of while setting the values of different parameters in the set up file for characterization. Running the tools for slew times faster than intrinsic delay or $1/\omega_T$ is merely wasting the run time of the tool as the gate can not respond to slew times faster than intrinsic delay.
- **Input Slew** –The delay of a gate is determined by the rate at which the input is rising / falling and also on the output loading capacitance that gate is driving. The lower limit of the slew time is fixed by the intrinsic delay or $1/\omega_T$ of the simplest gate (inverter) and the maximum limit is determined by the maximum allowable output slew for the library selected by the designer. As a general rule the selected maximum input slew rate for characterization should not be faster than $2/\omega_T$.
- **Output Loading Capacitance C_L** -The pin capacitance seen by the cell determines the output slew. The load capacitance should be selected as normalized load for each gate drive strength from 1X to 8X or 16X, i.e. 1X, 2X,

3X, 4X, 8X. The exception is when determining intrinsic delay in which case the normalized load must be small i.e $X/20$.

Since the amount of delay and rise/fall times depends upon both the input slew rate and the output pin capacitance (loading), library characterization executes simulations by using different input slew rates and output loading capacitance combinations.

- The input slew rate, output loading and calculated pin to pin delay (see Figure 3.7 [14]) is saved as a two dimensional delay table.
- The output slew rate which is also calculated by these SignalStorm SPICE simulations, is saved in a second table.

Using the characterization data contained in these two tables, the SignalStorm library characterizer provides the delay/ driver model for specific pin –to pin delays. Pin-to-pin delay is the time that it takes a change at an input pin to effect a change at an output pin. The time is measured from the point when an input signal switches through an input threshold voltage (V_{thi}) to the point when an output signal switches through an output threshold voltage (V_{tho}), as shown in Figure 3.7 and explained in detail the section 3.5.2.

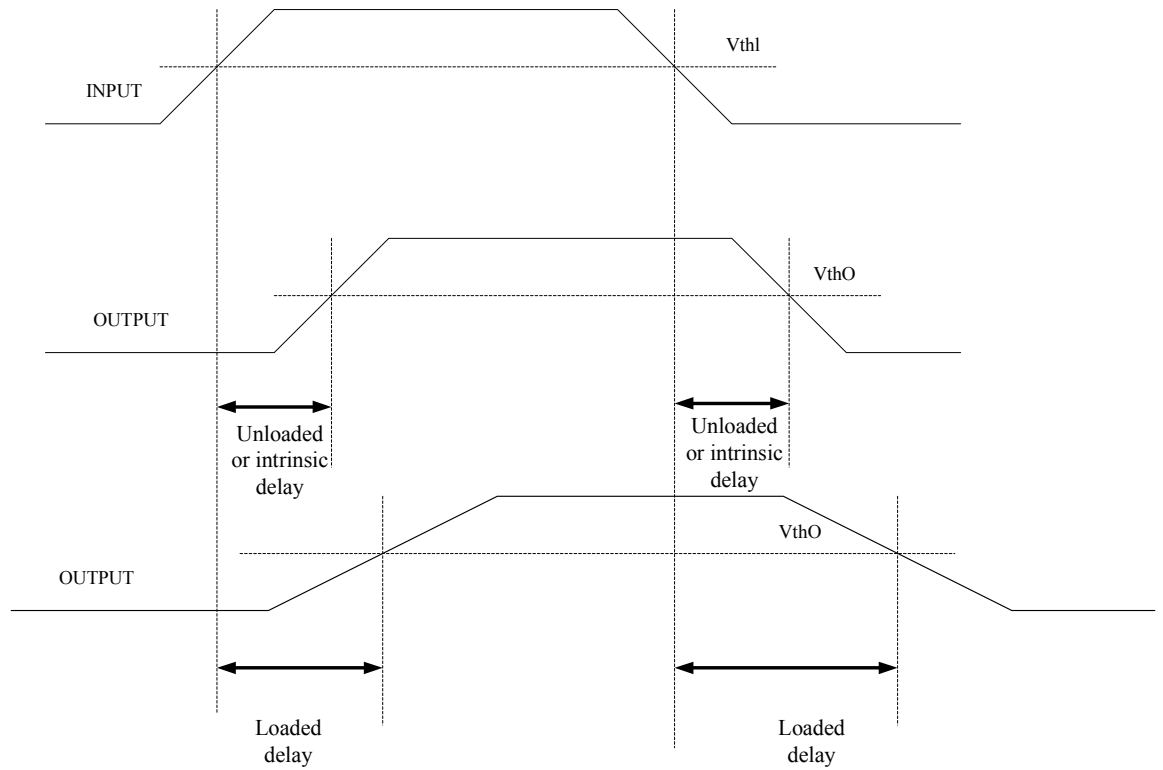


Figure 3.7 pin to pin Delays

3.5.2 Gate Delay Models

The accuracy of the synthesized circuit depends upon the level of details and accuracy with which the individual cells have been characterized. There are a number of delay models with a trade off between accuracy and performance. In general, the delay of a standard cell is a function of the fan-out and the rise and fall times of the input signals.

One of the popular delay models is illustrated in Figure 3.8 and is briefly described here.

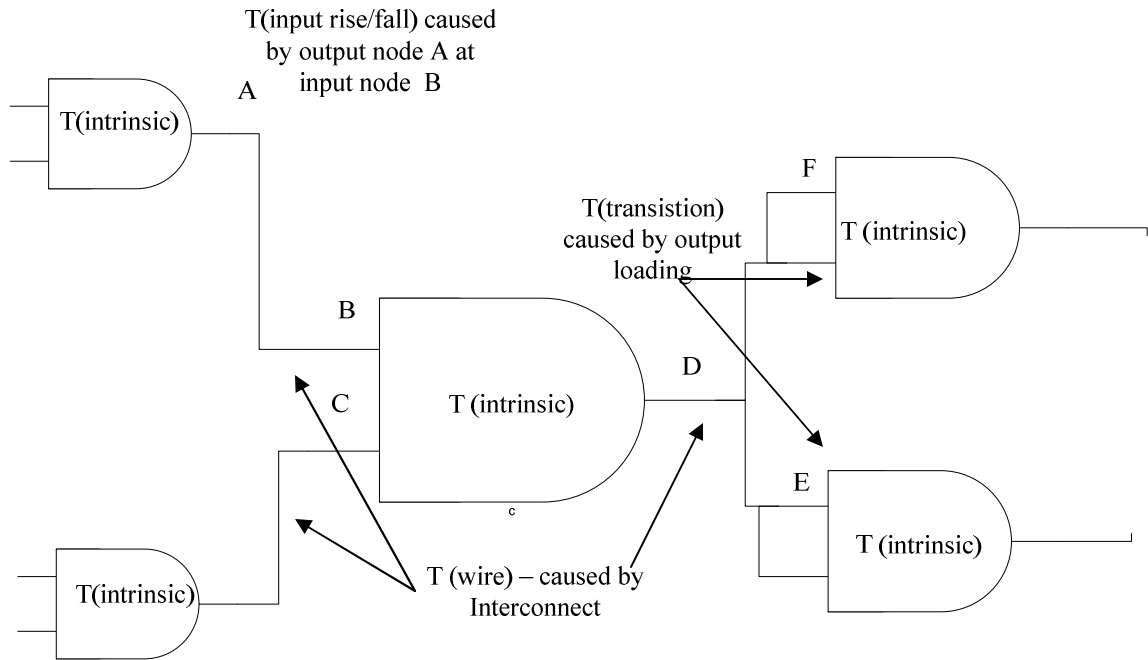


Figure 3.8 Delay components of a combinational logic gate

The total delay of a combinational logic gate, $T_{D\text{TOTAL}}$ has four components which are represented by the following equation:

$$T_{D\text{TOTAL}} = T(\text{intrinsic}) + T(\text{transition-output rise/fall}) + T(\text{input rise/fall}) + T(\text{wire})$$

The first term $T(\text{intrinsic})$ represents the intrinsic delay which is the delay to drive a cell's own diffusion capacitance. The second term $T(\text{transition-output rise/fall})$ is the transition delay which is due to the output load capacitance CL . The third term $T(\text{input rise/fall})$ is the delay due to the input slope (input slew rate). The last term is $T(\text{wire})$ interconnects delay.

Each standard cell is characterized to determine the propagation delay from each input pin to the output pin and the output transition time. These values are usually measured between pre-determined threshold values of the signal edges (10% - 90% in our case). The methodology of measuring these two delay values is illustrated in Figure 3.8. In simple terms gate transition time consist of intrinsic delays and transition delays were transition delay are effected by the input transition and loading of the gate and by the wire delay.

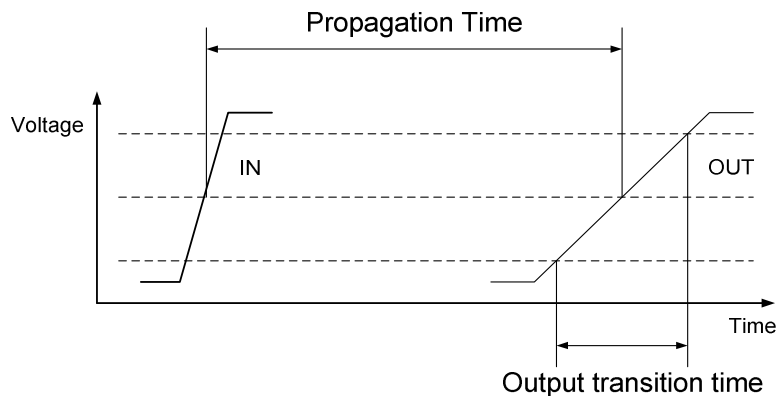


Figure 3.9 Measurements of propagation time and output transition time [15]

The propagation time is often measured from 50% of the input voltage to 50% of output voltage signal. The output transition time is measured from either 10 – 90 % or 20 – 80% to have the simulation with realistic values. The values of output transition time and propagation time are required for gate level synthesis and delay calculation tools. In synthesis, the output transition time is used for estimating the input slew rates of successive cells and the propagation time of each cell is extracted from the delay table based on the input slew rate and output load (see Appendix B- ALF and LIB formats).

Hence, the delay between two nodes in a design can be calculated with the propagation time and output transition time of each cell on the path between two nodes.

3.5.3 Characterization of Cells with Sequential Logic

Input Constraints of Sequential Logic : For sequential logic cells, SignalStorm library characterizer characterizes the input signal constraints, including setup time, hold time, release time, removal time, recovery time, and minimum pulse width. It characterizes the constraints by using a delay-tolerance-based binary search method. The results are saved as a table of input slew rates. From a cell's sequential logic, SignalStorm library characterizer determines the properties of the clock signal, data signal, preset signal, and clear signal and generates the constraint definitions [14] :

Setup Time:-is defined as the minimum time for which the input is stable before arrival of clock signal. If the data makes a transition during the setup time, an incorrect value will be latched at the output of the cell. The setup time should also be such that it does not degrade the Clock - Q propagation time beyond a pre-determined tolerance value. (In Signal Storm library characterization, to ensure that set up time chosen is not so close to the switching point that the simulation fails, it performs a delay tolerance check by multiplying the delay from clock (CK) to the output Q by factor specified with SG_BI_DRATIO variable. As soon as the CK- Q delay is more than the product of delay corresponding to the *Start* as the set up time and the delay tolerance variable, the simulation is considered a failure and next iteration follows. It is evident in the example shown in fig 3.11.

Hold Time: - is defined as the minimum time that an input signal must remain stable after the active clock signal to ensure that input value is correctly latched at the output.

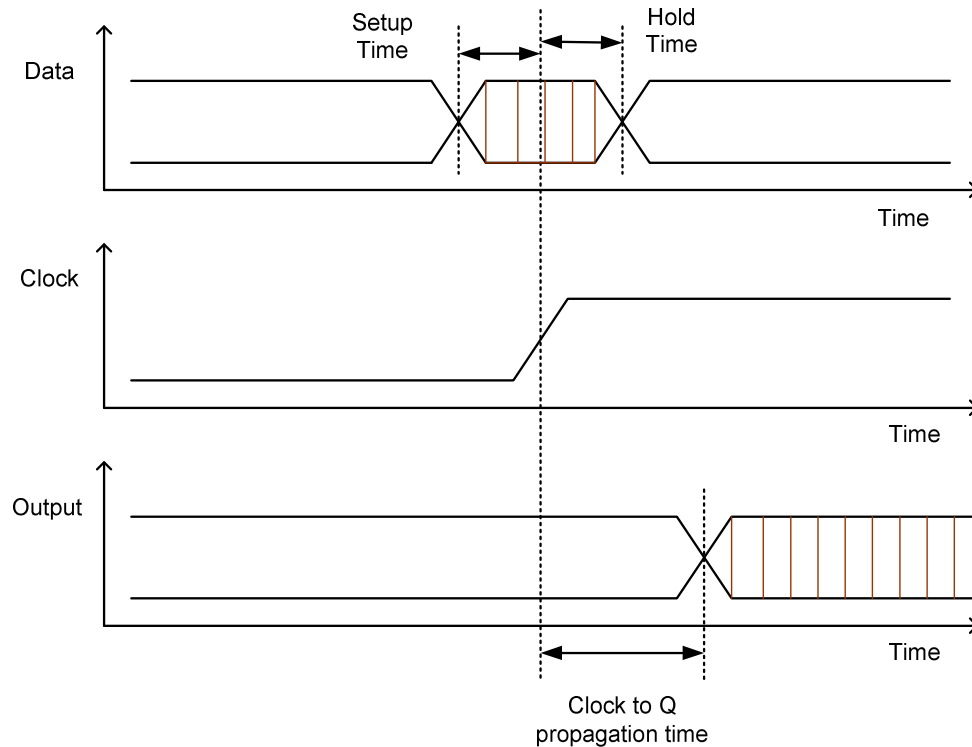


Figure 3.10 Setup and Hold time constraints for a positive edge triggered flip-flop

The Binary Search Statement

Start End Step

Start - The value chosen for this parameter is a simulation point of data transition lead with respect to an active clock edge for which setup timing constraint is guaranteed to meet. One can be liberal in choosing this value except that it might take bit more of a time for convergence. *One should perform preliminary simulations to know before hand that what is being fed in the search statement is a pass point.*

End - The value chosen for this parameter is a simulation point of data transition lag with respect to active clock edge for which setup timing is guaranteed to fail. The explanation

under "Start" field holds 1 for "End" field as well. *Performance of preliminary simulations applies here as well.*

Step - The maximum value of error in setup/hold time that is tolerable for the library. The resolution step should be a value less than $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{3}$ the delay of fastest gate, 1X inverter with a 1X load in the cell library.

The setup time is measured using a binary search method (see example in Fig3.10), which is an optimization method to find the value of an input variable associated with a target value of an output variable. In this method a binary search is done to locate the output variable target value within a search range of the input variable by iteratively halving that range to converge rapidly on the target value. The measured value of the output variable is compared with the target value for each iteration.

In a binary search for setup time, the initial Latest Pass Point equals *-Start*, and the initial Latest Fail Point equals *end*. In a binary search for hold time, the initial Latest Pass Point equals *end*, and the initial Latest Fail Point equals *-Start*. If the simulation result for the output Q is the same as the expected waveform (rise or fall), and the CK to Q delay satisfies the delay tolerance check, the simulation passes. Otherwise, the simulation fails.

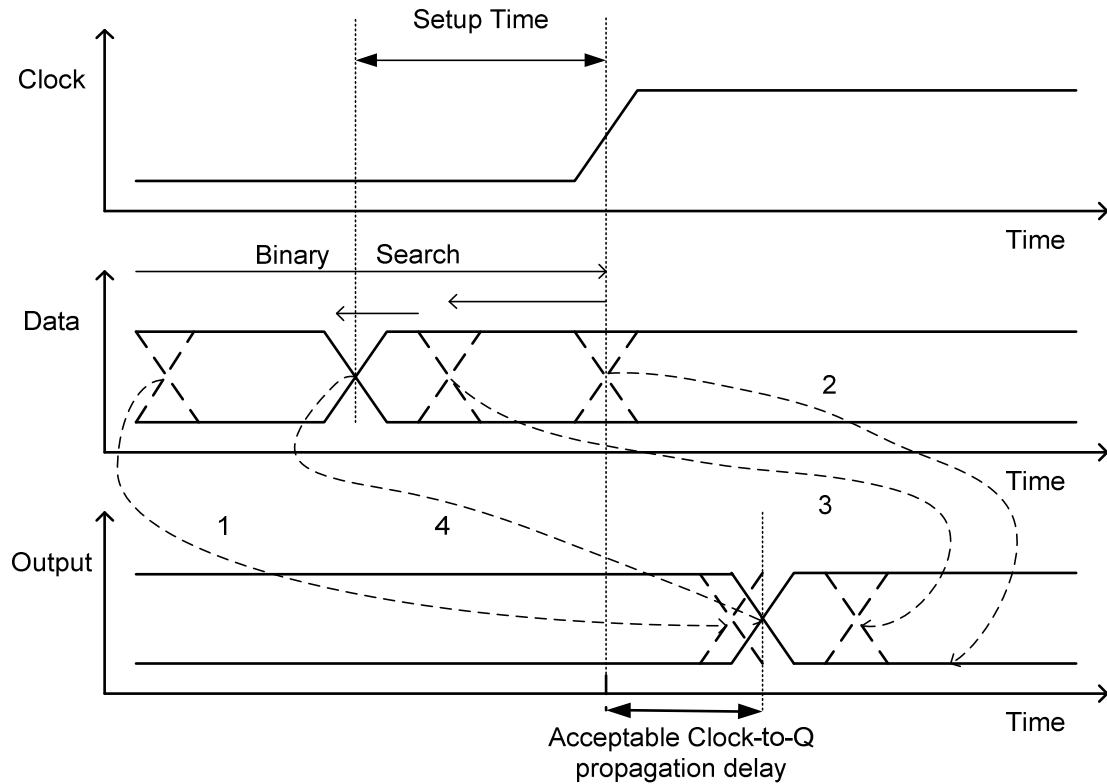


Figure 3.11 Setup time measurements using binary search [15]

In our case of setup time measurement, the goals are output transition time and permissible Clock-to-Q propagation delay. To start the binary search, a lower bound and an upper bound are specified by the user. As seen in the example of Fig 3.11 [15]. Data transition 1 at the lower bound is early enough to cause an acceptable output signal. Data transition 2 at the upper bound is too late to change the output signal. Hence the setup time constraint lies between the upper and lower bounds. The binary search algorithm tests data transition at the midpoint between the upper and lower boundaries, points 1 and 2. Data transition 3 at the midpoint changes the output signal but causes a longer Clock-to-Q propagation delay and hence does not satisfy the setup time constraint. The algorithm now sets point 3 as the upper boundary and tests the data transition at the new

midpoint. If the data output has an acceptable Clock-to-Q delay, the new midpoint is set as the new lower boundary. Then the algorithm tests data transition at the new midpoint within the new range again. In this way the binary search algorithm, iterates by setting a new boundary and a midpoint until the binary search reaches the correct value of setup time. The data transition 4 is found to be the latest point that satisfies the setup time constraint with an acceptable Clock-to-Q delay. Hold time measurement is identical to setup time which follows the iterative binary search technique.

Negative Set up and Hold Times

It is also possible to have setup and hold times as a negative value for a sequential cell. Negative set up time implies that the input can change after the Clock edge and still the input would be properly latched at the output. A negative Set up time in a cell is due to the internal delay of the Data signal with respect to the Clock signal For example, if a D flip flop has a setup time of -1 ns, the data present at the D input from 1 ns after the clock edge is the data latched at the output Q, provided the data remains stable from that moment. A negative hold time in a cell is due to the internal delay of the Clock signal. This means that the input can change before the Clock edge and the input would be latched correctly. It can be seen in Appendix B, in the html format that the hold time for the falling edge of clock to the falling input is negative.

3.5.4 Library Formats

There are several types of standard formats in the industry for describing Cell Library's characterized data. Different tools from different vendors read the same information from the technology libraries in their corresponding formats.

.Lib – Synopsis Liberty Library is used by Synopsis products for synthesis, timing and power information. This format supports most of the models; and is more or less it is a standard.

ALF- Advanced Library Format is more descriptive than .lib format file. SignalStorm generates this file as an output from its database. ALF can be further converted to .lib or .html format using 'alf2lib' and 'alf2html' commands.

The datasheets consist of the html format of timing and power, the truth table and also the logic function. [Appendix B]

3.6 Abstraction of the Standard Cells

An abstract is a high-level representation of a layout or auto Layout view. The abstracts generated are based on physical layout and logical data, process technology information, and specific cell-modeling requirements. The abstracts can be exported in the LEF format and used in place of full layouts to improve the performance of place-and-route tools, such as Cadence Encounter and Cadence Silicon Ensemble.

We have used Cadence Abstract Generator to generate the abstract views of our layouts.

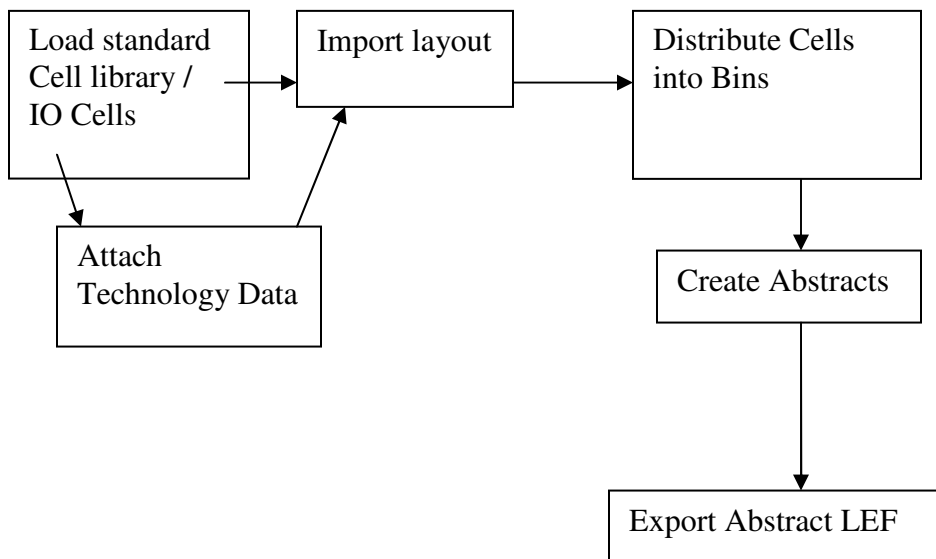


Figure 3.12 Basic Abstract generator flow

3.6.1 Launching the Abstract Generator from layout view (Virtuoso Preview)

1. Attach the standard cell library to the existing technology library pscPNR which stands for Peregrine Semiconductor Place and Route library.
2. Only layout and logical views are required to generate abstract views. So it is suggested that all the views are copied to a new library and then attached to the P&R technology library.
3. Open the layout of any cell and go to *Tools* → *Abstract Generator*
4. The display on the layout window shows a tab of Abstract. Go to *Abstract* → *Create Abstract*.
5. An abstract generator GUI will pop up and load up all the cells in the window.
6. If we are doing the abstraction of core cells then we need to put all the cells to be abstracted in *Core* bin. On the Abstract window Go to *Cells* → *Move*, a window pops up prompting the user to select the bin where he needs to move the cell. Select *Core*.
7. Select the cell/cells in the core bin and start the steps to generate Abstract view.

NOTE: - Refer to *Appendix C* for a tutorial on Abstraction Steps.

3.6.2 Requirements to start the Abstract Generation

This topic outlines the basic steps required to start generating cell abstracts for cell libraries:-

1. Ensure that you have all the necessary process technology information required by your cell library Technology information provides details of the process technology used during IC fabrication, including names of layers, colors, and fill

patterns, GDSII layer mapping data, and design rules for various layers and vias. Attach to the technology library pscPNR in our case (as shown in Fig 3.12).

2. Provide the abstract generator with information about the physical (layout) or logical construction of the cells in the library you want to process. You can do this by importing various types of data, such as LEF, DEF, and GDSII. You can also import logical information, typically represented in Verilog or Timing Library Format (TLF) and also available for Compiled Timing Library Format (CTLF) and Encrypted Timing Library Format (ETLF). This type of information includes data on which pins should be created and the terminal directions assigned. Because the abstract generator does not perform any timing analysis, the main difference between Verilog and TLF logical data is that TLF has a broader range of terminal types defined. For example, by default Verilog has input and output terminals defined whereas TLF also has tristate, clock, power, and ground terminals defined. TLF/Verilog. In our case we have imported layouts of cells.
3. Once all your library cells have been distributed into the correct system and/or user bins, you begin creating cell abstracts for your cells.
4. After creating abstract views for cells, you can export the LEF abstracts for use in place and route tools.

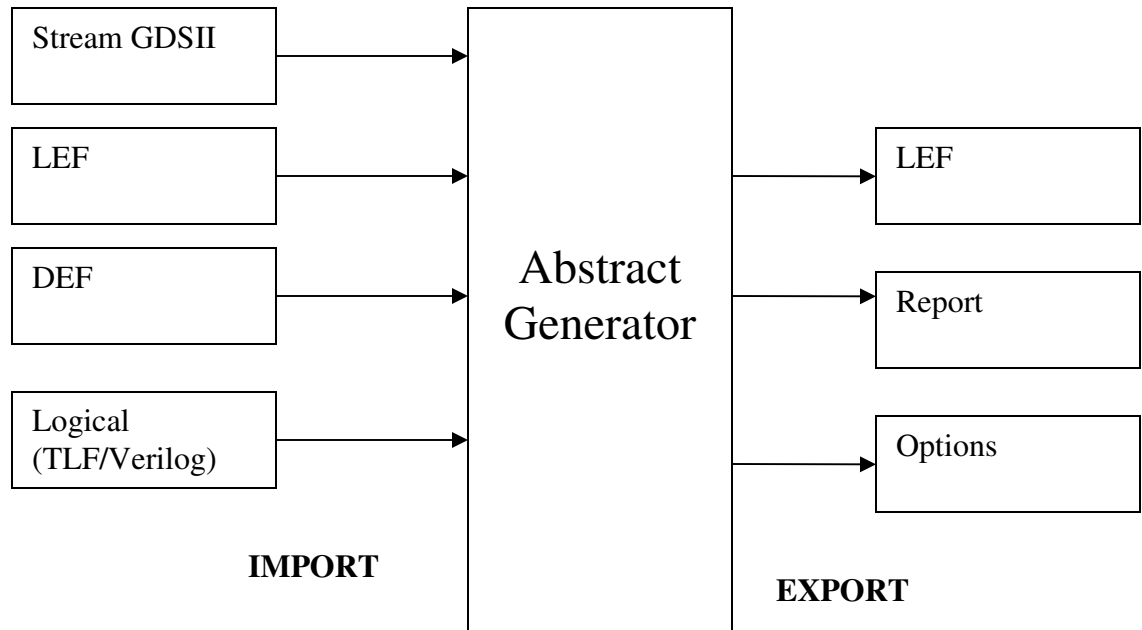


Figure 3.13 Types of Layout and Logical data that can be imported into the abstract generator and the format of data that can be exported

3.6.3 Creating Cell Abstracts

One can initially focus on a small subset of cells, establish option settings for this subset, and then process the remaining cells in a single run. See Appendix C for the abstraction tutorials.

Generating Abstracts

Each of the four main flow steps—Pins, Extract, Abstract, and Verify—has its own set of options that control the way in which any cell is processed. You can make your initial option settings either before you start generating abstracts or when you run any of the individual steps.

The two forms used for option settings are described here.

1. **Bin Options Form:** - You can access this form by using the *Bins - Options* menu command. In this form, you can view and modify all options associated with the entire abstract generation flow.
2. **Running Form:** - **Whenever** you run any flow step, the abstract generator opens the *Running step* form. This form allows you to modify only the options that are relevant to the steps about to be run. When you are satisfied with the options settings, use the four flow steps to generate abstracts for the selected cells. You can run the steps either one at a time or all at once for any or all of the cells.

The Four Main Steps

1. **Pins:** In the Pins Step, the abstract generator creates a place-and-route boundary for the cell and the starting pin shapes for each of the nets to be extracted. It then matches the pins created against those described in any logical view present and appends the appropriate pin direction.
2. **Extract:** In the Extract Step, the abstract generator derives which shapes are connected to which nets by tracing the connectivity from the *pin* purpose shapes created during the Pins step. The tool creates a shape with purpose *net* in the top level of the extract view, and for each such shape creates a pin on the appropriate net. The overlap boundary is also calculated if required.

3. **Abstract:** In this step, the abstract generator adjusts the pin shapes created during the Extract step to create the final shapes required by place-and-route tools. It then fractures these pin shapes into rectangles. Next, the abstract generator applies a layer blockage model selected by the user to create the final blockage geometry in the abstract. The blockage geometry is then optionally fractured into rectangles. It then removes from the abstract all layers other than those with purpose *pin*, *blockage*, or *boundary* and deletes the instance hierarchy. At this stage, all the required geometry is at the top level of the abstract.
4. **Verify:** This step involves a series of functionality checks designed to detect any problems in the abstracts generated. During the Verify step, terminals are compared for any differences that might exist between logical and abstract views. Pin and geometry information on manufacturing grids is checked, and each abstract is tested within the target place-and-route system.

Inspecting the Results

The abstract generator provides various features to help us verify our abstracts.

1. **Cell Pane:** - The abstract generator uses color-coded symbols in the Cell Pane to indicate the result of a particular abstract generation flow step. A color-coded symbol against a cell corresponding to a particular step indicates if the step completed without problems or whether warnings or errors were generated during the step. See Fig 3.15.
2. **Layout Editor:** - If you want to see a detailed graphical representation of any view, you can use the Layout Editor. You can use the Layout Editor functions to

examine the pin and blockage geometry generated, the sizing and spacing applied, and to make minor edits. To launch the Layout Editor, select *Cells – Edit* and select a view. See fig 3.16

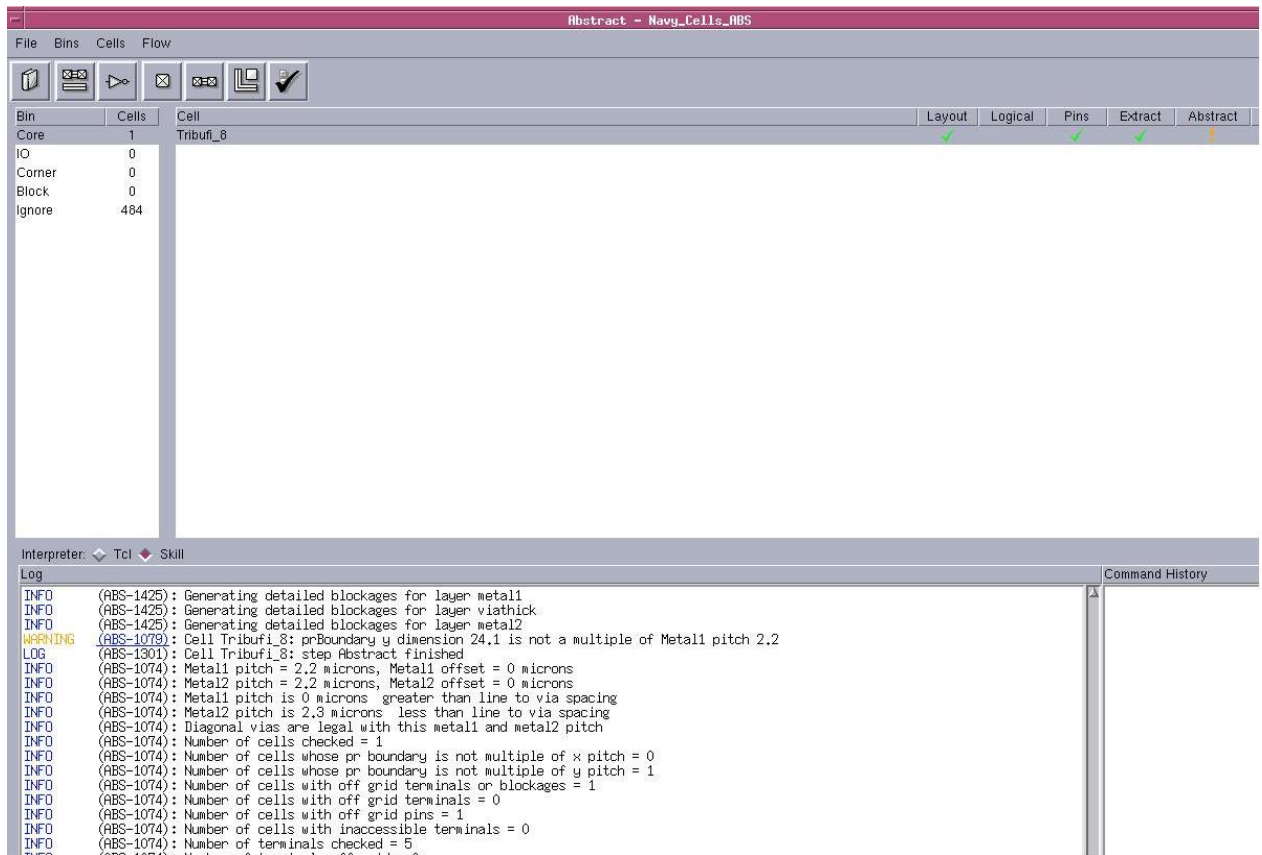


Figure 3.14 Cell Pane showing various warning signs and progress in Abstraction Steps

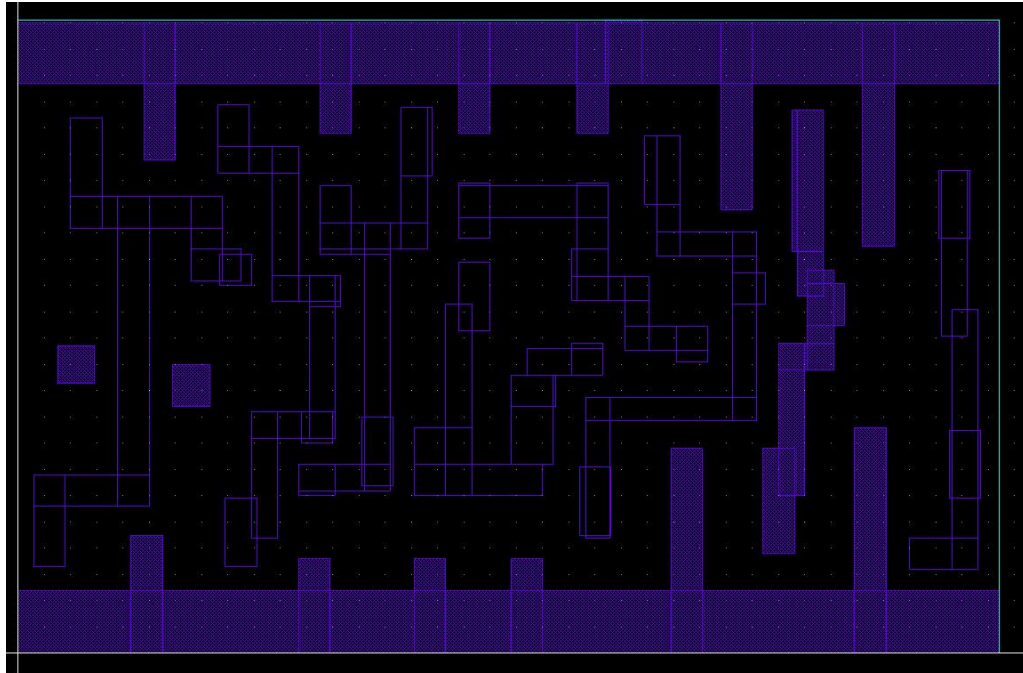


Figure 3.15 Abstract view of Tristate buffer with 8X drive strength and inverted output

3.6.4 Exporting LEF (Library Exchange Format)

When we finish generating abstract cell views, we can export this data in the form of LEF abstracts for use in place-and-route tools. The menu command *File – Export – LEF* provides the functionality to translate cell abstracts into LEF, which can be used as input to place-and-route tools. (See Appendix C)

3.6.5 Optimizing the performance of Abstract Generator

Following guidelines have been helpful in getting non erroneous abstract views. Since we abstracted for standard cells and IO pads, care had to be taken to run only the steps that were necessary.

1. Mention the power and ground options in the Abstract step to be “Abutment” for Standard Cells and “Feedthrough” for VDDD and VSSD pins in the IO Cells.(See Appendix C – Abstract Step)
2. In the Abstract step, do not turn on *Grid analysis mode* for IO cells.
3. Make sure to choose the right grid option in the Abstract step so as to have correct abstraction.
4. In the Extract step, do not switch on the *Extract signal nets* or *Extract power nets* functions for blocks or IO cells, unless you are sure that you need to do so. For example, you must extract signal nets if you want to perform antenna extraction, while you might need to extract power nets if you want to create ring pins.

CHAPTER 4 CELL LIBRARY TIMING VALIDATION

4.1 Introduction

The nature of today's ASIC designs requires very high performance libraries. With a high-performance library, simulation accuracy is essential. Without this accuracy, a customer cannot be guaranteed that a successful simulation will result in a functional device. The need to correlate simulation models precisely to silicon mandates the manufacturing, testing, and characterization of test chips specifically designed for that purpose. Without accurate library validation, ASIC customers cannot be assured that their design will perform to specifications by just using the simulation results.

4.2 Why Validation?

In validating cell libraries, one can:

- Prove that simulation with timing models bounds silicon.
- Provide a method to hone their cell model generation methodology.

Effectively, simulation results are only as accurate as the database given to the simulator.

Hence by comparing silicon to simulations, the designer can fine tune and automate its entire cell library model generation system.

4.3 The Validation Process

The validation process includes the following exhaustive steps:-

4.3.1 Test Chip design

The test chip design was done pretty much the same way as were the other designs – In Cadence Design Environment. Designing, simulating, fabricating and testing a test chip in the customer’s environment provides a high level of confidence in the entire ASIC design flow at very little additional cost as compared to simply testing the standard cells alone.

For timing delay analysis, the test chip contained delay chains of consecutive, identical cells. The chains were designed as pulse generators with the pulse width being large enough to ensure accurate rise and fall delay measurements. The test chip consisted of three chains of the following - an inverter followed by another inverter, a NAND followed by an inverter and a NOR followed by an inverter. These three chains were designed to determine the load dependent delay effect as well as the intrinsic delay of the three gate types, Figure 4.1.

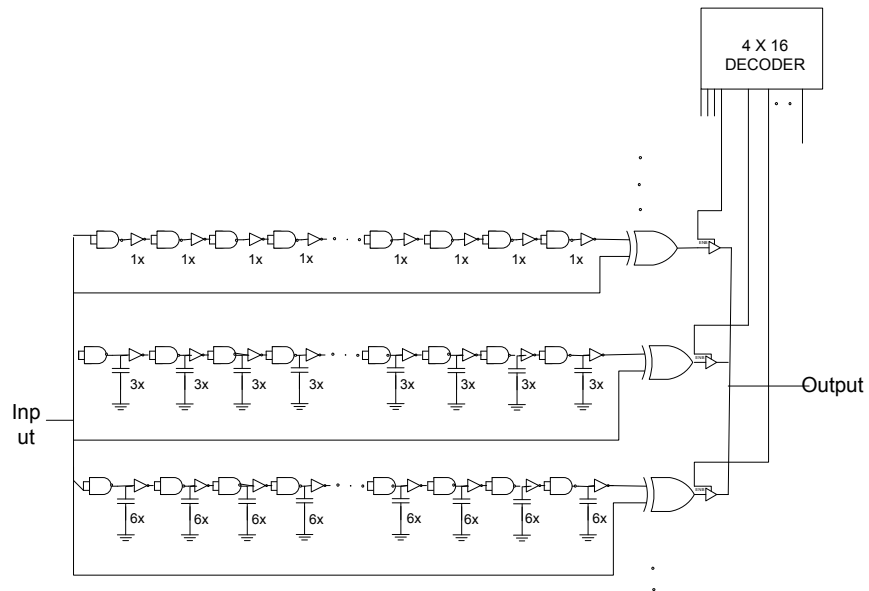


Figure 4.1 Design of NAND Delay Chains

Table 4.1 Number of load cells in the delay chains.

Loads	No. of Inv cells	No. of NAND cells	No. of NOR cells
1X	110	60	55
3X	63	54	50
6X	63	54	50

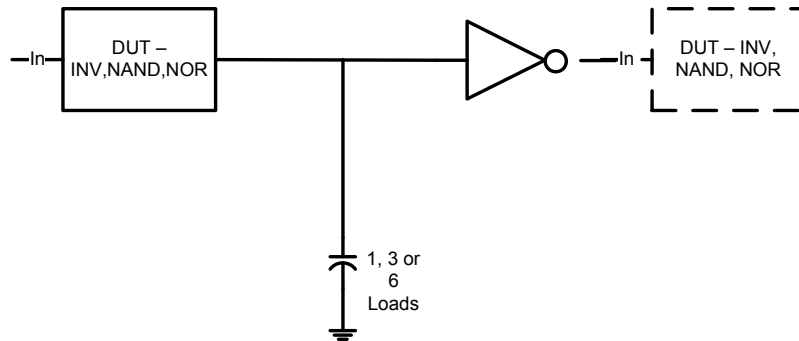


Figure 4.2 Load cell - NAND, NOR or Inverter followed by inverter

These delay chains have load capacitors placed at the internal node of each cell type being tested (cell here refers to a NAND, NOR and Inverter, each followed by another inverter). These additional capacitors input capacitance of driven cells. NMOS devices were used as capacitors in designing this test chip. The I/O pad cells are placed at the input and output with the power cells placed at power pads. As Shown in the Figure 4.1, the two inputs of each NAND and NOR gate used in the test chip were shorted allowing each to function as a non inverting buffer. The test chip layout is shown in Fig 4.3.

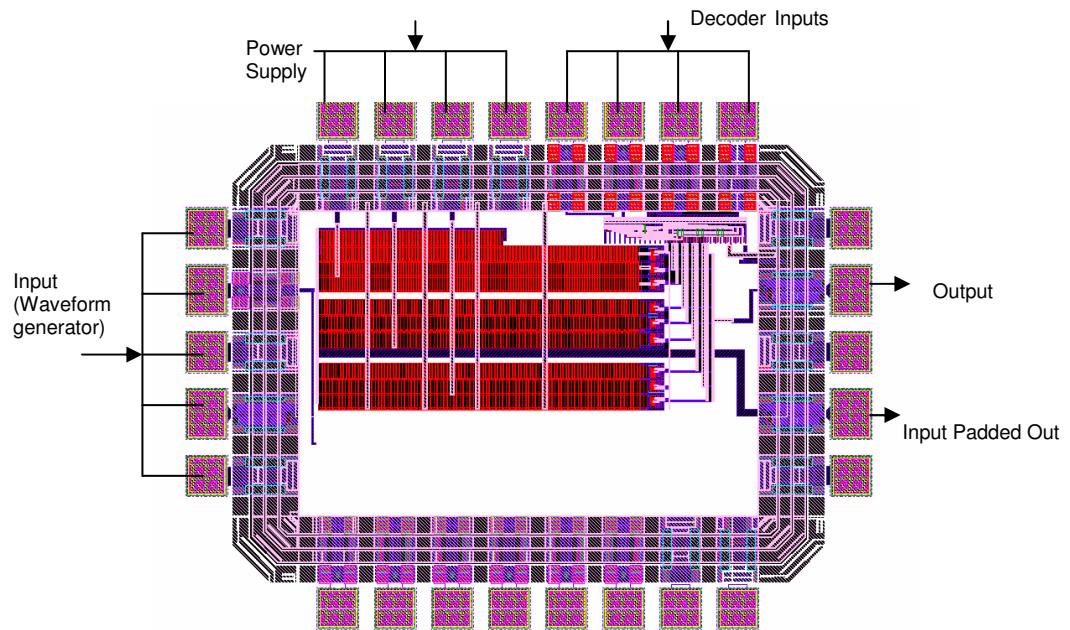


Figure 4.3 Layout of the delay chain circuits

4.3.2 Test Chip Simulation

After schematic capture, extensive simulations were completed in the Cadence-Analog Design Environment. Transient analysis was conducted across all process corners, temperatures and Voltages. Simulations were conducted with parasitic extractions and without parasitic extractions in order to confirm the accuracy of the simulator with the test results.

The simulation set up is shown in the Figure 4.4 and Pad frame is shown in Figure4.5

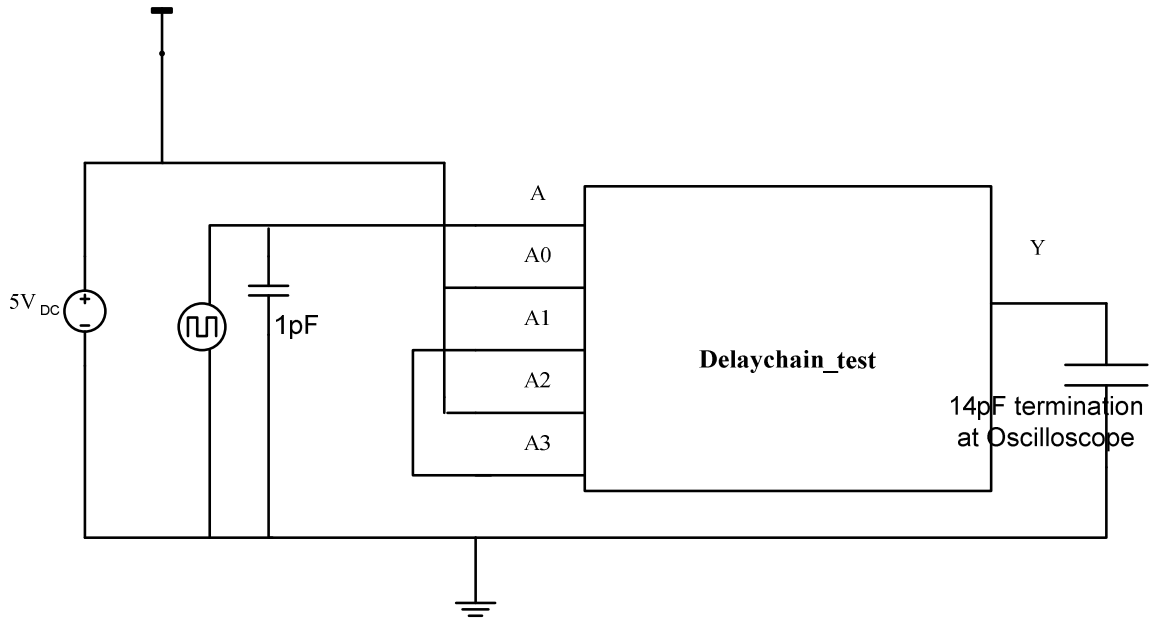


Figure 4.4 Simulation Set up for the Delay Chains

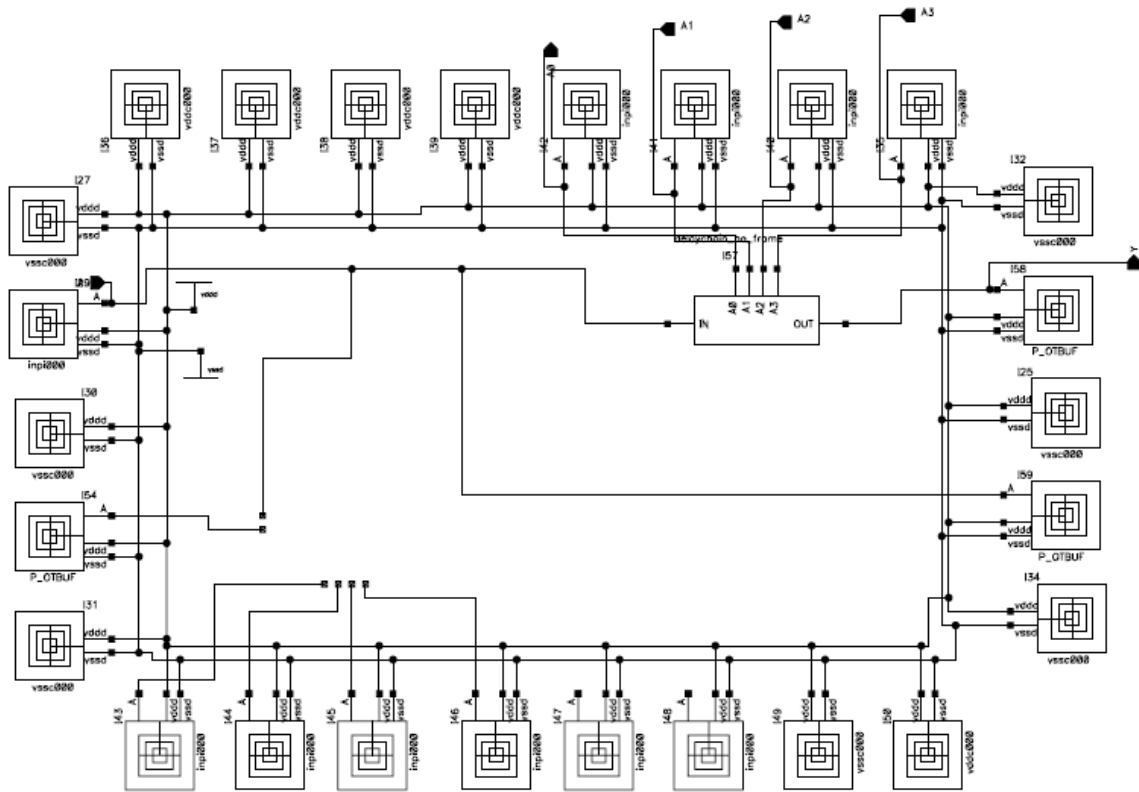


Figure 4.5 Schematic of the Pad Frame

4.4 Test Chip Characterization

The Test chip was manufactured at Peregrine Semiconductor fabrication facility on a 3mm x 3mm die. The test chip was then measured at 27°C and 125°C with a supply voltage of 5V, and pulse widths were measured to extract intrinsic as well as load dependent configurations for both rise and fall transition delays. Test data was recorded for 10 dies and tabulated in an excel sheet for further analysis. Since the delay of the chain is given by width of the pulse, it is only a function of the pulse generator circuit and does not depend on input, output and control circuits. An Agilent arbitrary waveform generator, a Tektronix programmable power supply and an Agilent Infiniium oscilloscope were used for measuring test data on a 8" Cascade Alessi (Rel-6130) semi automatic probe station. A DC wedge is used to supply power to the delay chains and inputs to the decoder.

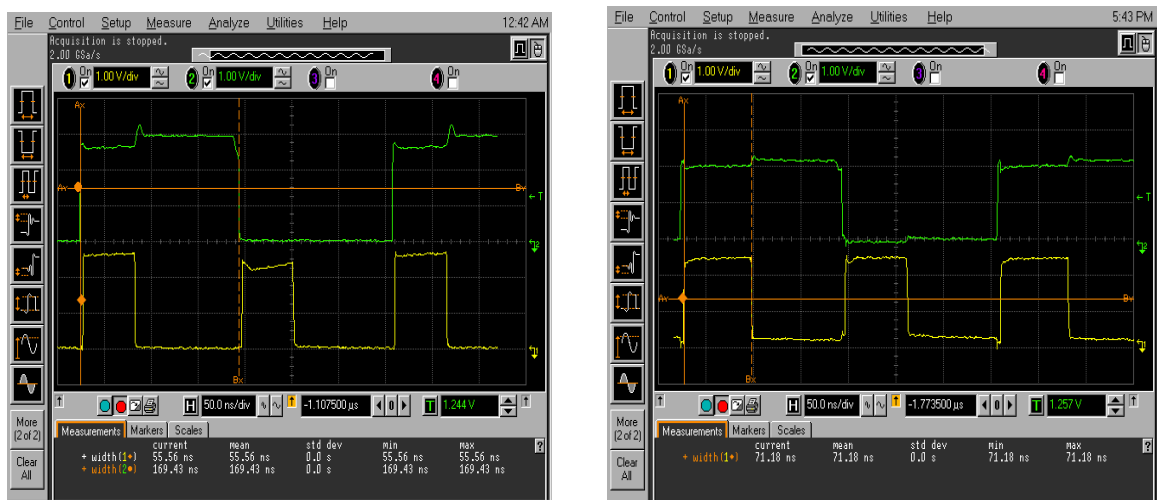


Figure 4.6 Inverter timing waveforms recorded on Oscilloscope showing the input padded out and pulses showing rising and falling delay of the input waveform

4.4.1 Analysis of Delay Chains

In Elmore's delay model, a chain of transistors are represented as an RC ladder which is arrived at by approximating nonlinear current-voltage characteristics of a transistor fairly well as a switch in series with a resistor (effective resistance is chosen to match the average amount of current delivered by the transistor). Though Elmore delay model works remarkably well for many practical applications, because it is based on linear delay model it has some limitations. The largest source of error in this model is the input slope effect. A Transistor is said to be off for gate voltages less than transistor threshold voltage with transistor drawing minimum current and fully on for gate voltages equal to supply voltage with transistor drawing maximum current. As the rise time of the input increases, an active transistor is not fully on for intermediate values of gate voltage during input transition with transistor currents lower than their maximum values thereby giving increased delays. Since SignalStorm library characterizer generates delays in two dimensional lookup table format based on input slew rates and output loads, slew rate also has to be accounted for while analyzing data for better accuracy. This is made possible by comparing timing data at a single delay module level shown in figure 4.2 rather than by trying to derive coefficients for an equation as a function of output load and input slew using curve-fitting techniques. Thus for verifying simulation data accuracy, timing data obtained per delay module is not further decomposed into intrinsic and transition delays but compared with SignalStorm data evaluated for each delay module using delay tables generated by SignalStorm.

4.5 Test Data

Delay measurements were taken for inverter, NAND and NOR delay chains for 1X, 3X and 6X loads at 27°C and 125°C and then were normalized per load cell (refer to figure 4.2) by dividing with the number of modules present in each chain (see table 4.1) and the data plotted. Plots for fall delays (output of DUT is falling while input is falling) and rise delays (output of DUT is rising while input is rising) are generated in separate plots. Simulation is performed for the entire test chip taking into account the extracted parasitics in the Cadence Analog Environment at all process corners (fast, slow and typical) to encompass process variation range that might have occurred during test chip measurement on probe station. Obtained simulated data is plotted on the same plots as that of the measured data for easy comparison. Since the delay chains are long with the same module repeated over, it can be approximated that the input transition time for each delay module is same as the corresponding output transition time. Thus several iterations are performed in SignalStorm while generating delay tables to ensure that the input slew value that is converging with the output slew value is indexed in the generated tables. The plots of Inverter, NAND and NOR delay modules for rising and falling inputs at temperatures 27C and 125C can be seen in Figures 4.7,4.8 and 4.9, respectively.

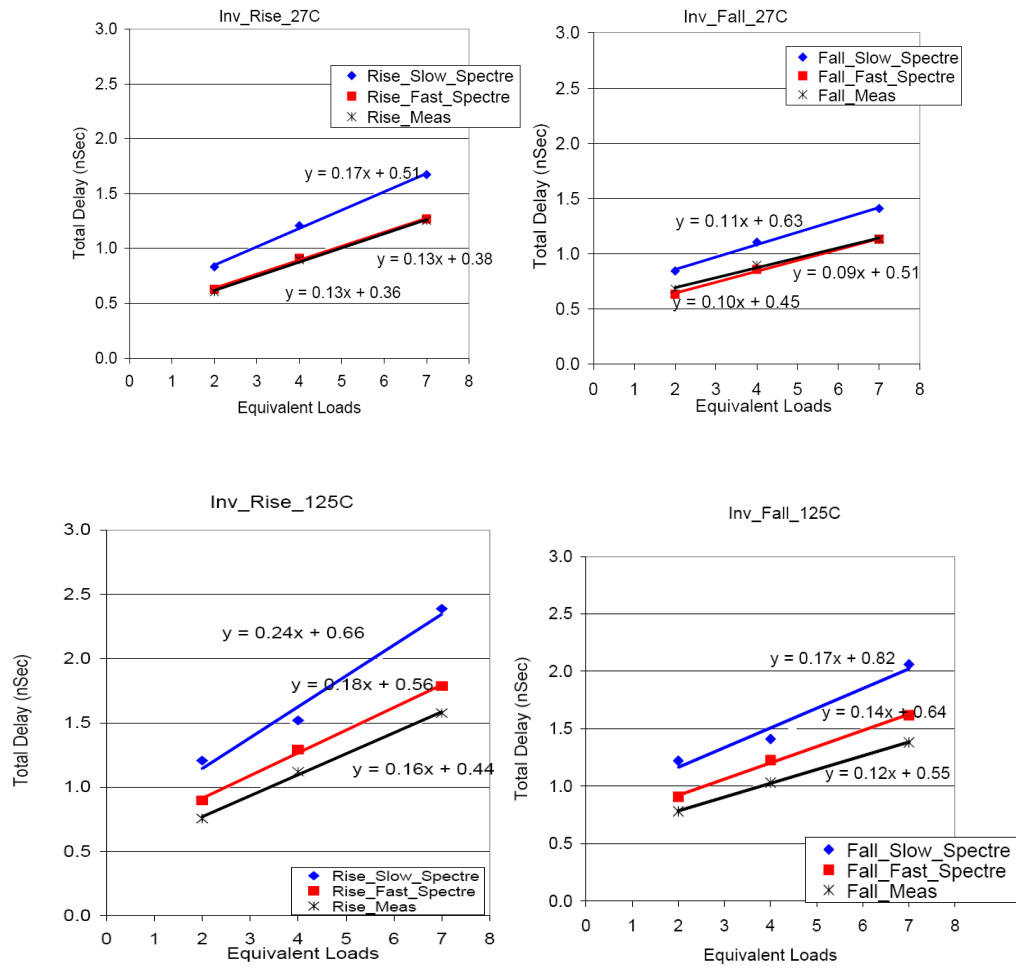


Figure 4.7 Rise and fall delay plots (left and right, respectively) for Inverter followed by Inverter module at 27C and 125C (upper two plots and lower two plots, respectively).

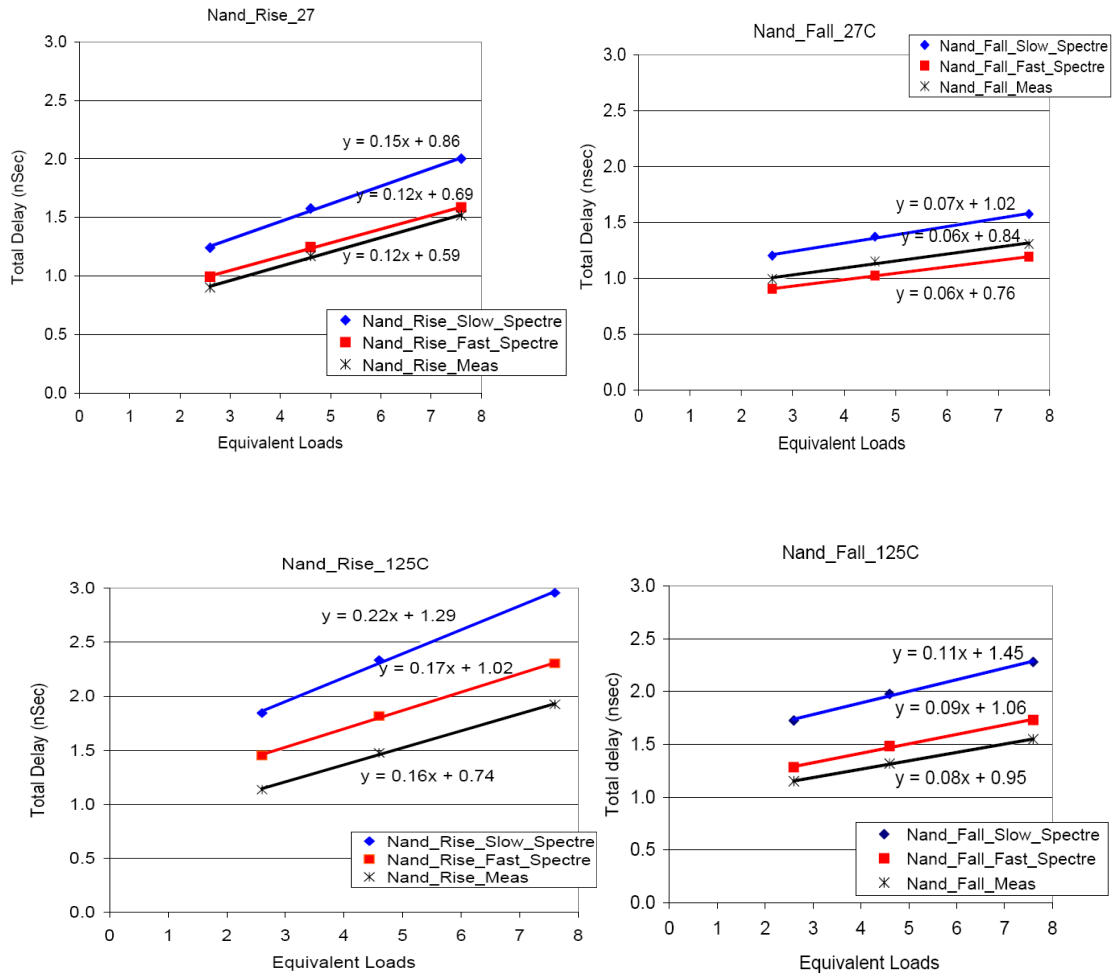


Figure 4.8 Rise and fall delay plots(left and right ,respectively) for Nand followed by Inverter module at 27C and 125C (upper two plots and lower two plots, respectively).

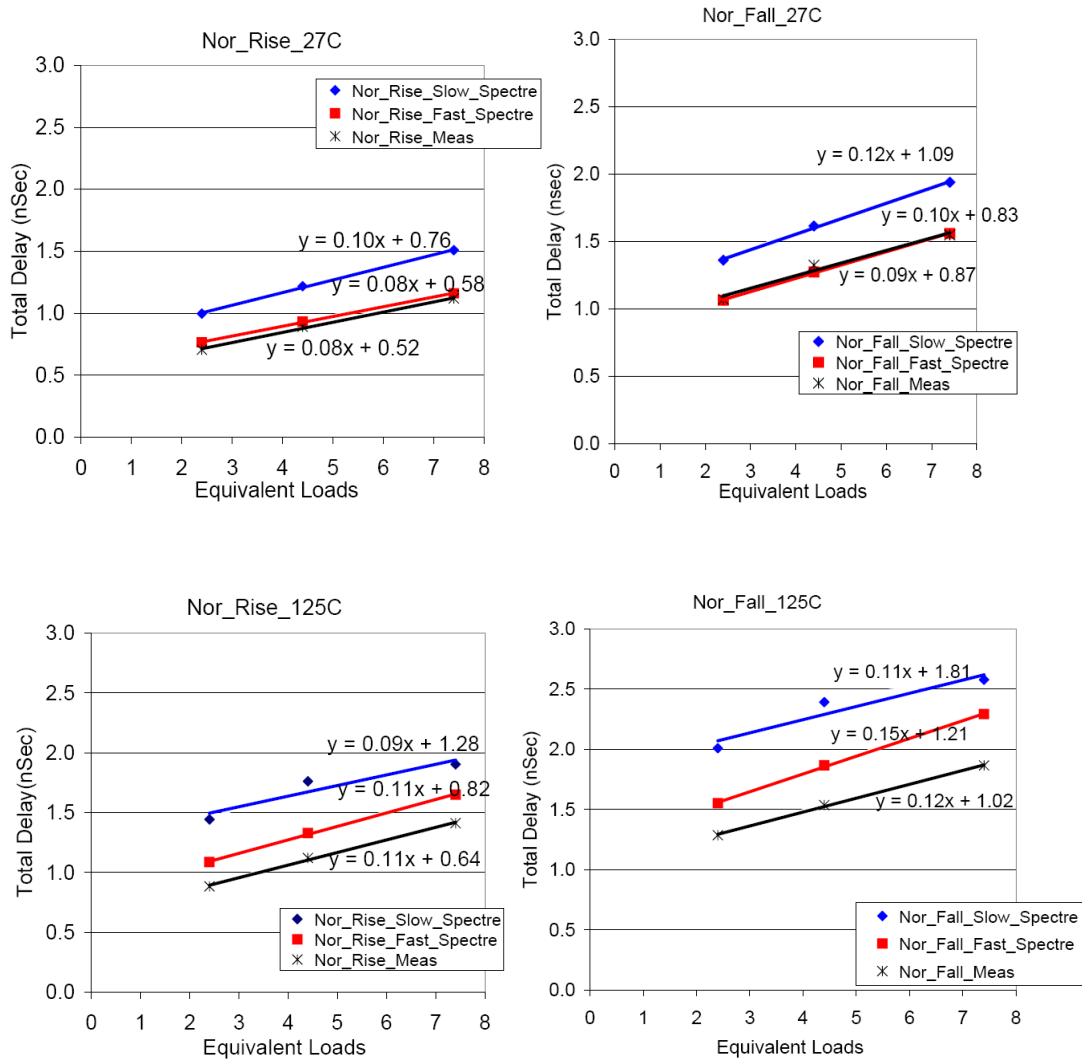


Figure 4.9 Rise and fall delay plots (left and right, respectively) for Inverter followed by Inverter module at 27C and 125C (upper two plots and lower two plots, respectively).

4.6 Data Interpretation

As seen in the plots in last section, a window was of simulated data with parasitics extraction for Slow and Fast process was created and the Measured data was expected to fall in somewhere in between the window. In the simulation the supply voltage was kept as 5V for both fast and slow processes. The Measured data (black curve in the plots of figure 4.7-4.9) falls outside the window near to the simulated Fast process delay plots. Hence it is so concluded that the models provided in the simulation using Cadence Analog Design Environment are slower.

	1X	3X	6X
INV	4	2	1
NAND	9	6	4
NOR	8	4	4

Table 4.2 Percent Shift in Measured data of rising delays with respect to simulated data for FAST process at 27°C

	1X	3X	6X
INV	-7	-5	0
NAND	-10	-12	-10
NOR	-1	-4	1

Table 4.3 Percent Shift in Measured data of Falling delays with respect to simulated data for FAST process at 27°C

	1X	3X	6X
INV	16	13	12
NAND	22	19	16
NOR	19	16	14

Table 4.4 Percent Shift in Measured data of rising delays with respect to simulated data for FAST process at 125°C

	1X	3X	6X
INV	14	16	15
NAND	10	11	11
NOR	17	18	19

Table 4.5 Percent Shift in Measured data of falling delays with respect to simulated data for FAST process at 125°C

The percentage shift from the fast process simulation at 5V at temperatures 27°C and 125°C are tabulated in the tables 4.2-4.5. It was observed that at room temperature the maximum deviation was observed to be 9% faster than Fast simulation results for rising delay and 10% slower than the FAST process simulation results at 5V. At 125°C the maximum deviation was 22% faster than Fast process simulation for rising delay and the maximum deviation was 19% faster than the FAST process simulation result at 5V. This shift indicates the inaccuracy of model files of the process that were used by the simulation tools using parasitic extractions.

CHAPTER 5 I/O Library – Design and Characterization

5.1 Introduction

The input /output (I/O) circuits are essential to VLSI chip design. The design quality of these circuits is a critical factor that determines the reliability, signal integrity and inter-chip communication speed of the systems environment. If the package is considered a protection layer of the silicon chip, then the I/O frame containing input and output circuits and clock circuits can be considered a second protection layer. Any external hazards such as electrostatic discharge (ESD) and noises should be filtered out before propagating to the internal circuits for their protection. Also in some cases, chips have to communicate with Transistor-Transistor Logic (TTL) or Emitter Coupled Logic (ECL) bipolar chips and in such cases the I/O circuits must provide proper level shifting so that the transmitted signal contents can be correctly received or sent by the CMOS chip.

A good I/O subsystem has the following properties:

1. Drives large capacitances typical of off chip signals.
2. Operates at voltage levels compatible with other chips.
3. Provides adequate bandwidth support i.e rise/fall time verses required loads.
4. Limits slew rates and proper damping to control high frequency noise.

5. Protects chip against damage from electrostatic discharge (ESD)
6. Have a small number of pins (low cost).

5.2 Types of I/O Pads

Basic I/O pads include:-

1. VDD and VSS pads
 2. Input Pads
 3. Output pads
 4. Bidirectional Pads
 5. Decoupling/blank
 6. Corner
1. **VDD and VSS Pads:** - Power and ground pads are simply squares of metal connected to the package and the on chip power grid. Most high performance chips devote about half of their pins to power and ground. This large number of pins is required to carry the high current and to provide low supply inductance.
 2. **Output Pads:** - An output pad must have sufficient drive capability to deliver adequate rise/fall times (25ns in our case) into a given capacitive load. If the pad drives resistive loads, it must also deliver enough current to meet the required dc transfer characteristics. Given a load capacitance and a rise/fall time specification, the output transistor widths can be calculated and confirmed through simulation. Typically these transistors are wide and are folded into many legs. Output pads contain additional buffering to reduce the load seen by the on chip circuitry driving the pad.

3. **Input Pads:** - Input Pads also contain an inverter or a buffer as a level of isolation between the pad and the core circuitry. The buffer can perform some level conversion or noise filtering as well. (Fig 5.6)
4. **Bidirectional Pads:**-It has an output driver that can be tristated and an input receiver. The output driver consists of independently controlled NMOS and PMOS transistors. When the Enable is '1', one of the two transistors turns on providing either a pull-p or pull down function. When the Enable is '0', both transistors are off so the pad is tristated. (Fig 5.2).

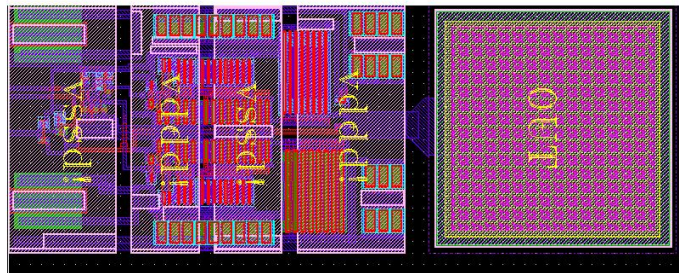


Figure 5.1 Snapshot of Layout of a Bidirectional pad, with an Active pull-up transistor of 20kOhms

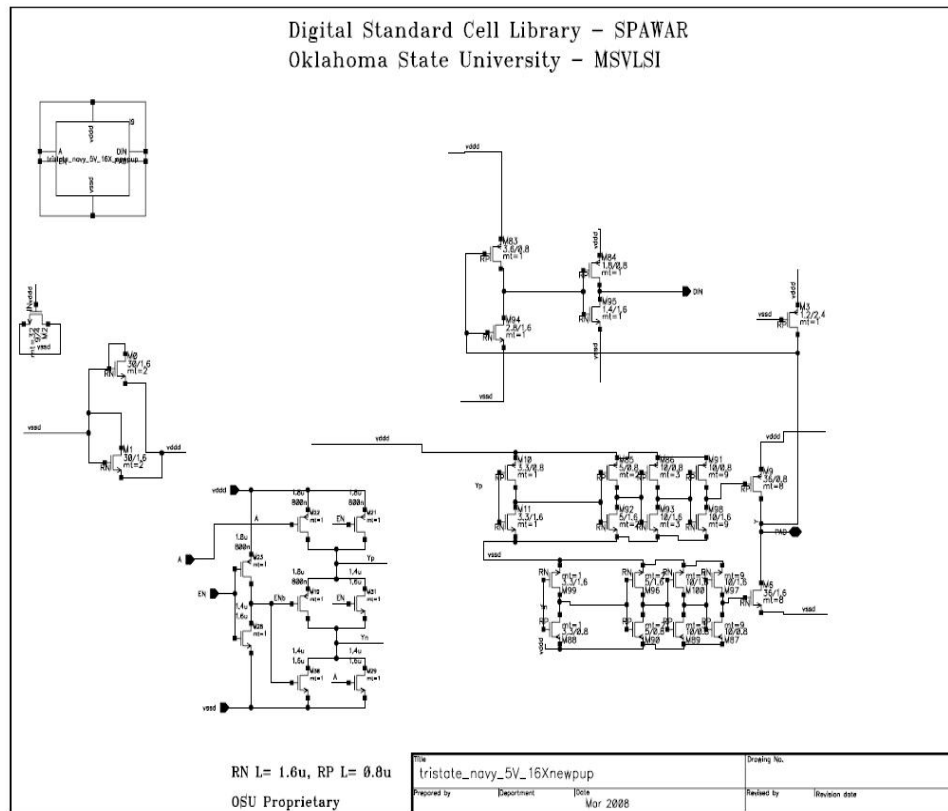


Figure 5.2 Snapshot of Schematic of a Bidirectional pad, with an Active pull-up transistor of 20kOhms

5.3 Design Constraints and Equations:-

Design constraints included a fixed load to be driven and slew $\leq 25\text{ns}$.

We know that the time taken for a charging a load capacitor 'C' from 10% to 90% of the applied voltage, with a series resistance R is given by equations (5.1)

$$\tau = 2.2RC_L$$

Where $R \approx V_{DD}/I_D$ and $C_L = 10\text{pF}$

After finding I_D we can find the width of the last stage assuming the transistors are β matched

$$\begin{aligned} I_{DD} &= (\beta \times \Delta V^2) / 2 & 5.1 \\ \beta &= k_{p/n} \cdot W_{p/n} \times L_{p/n} \\ k_{p/n} &= \mu_{p/n} \times \mu_o \times C_{ox} \end{aligned}$$

Putting the value of I_D in Equation 5.2 in Equation 5.1 we get,

$$R = V_{DD} / (\beta \times \Delta V^2) / 2 - \quad 5.2$$

Further, the widths of the last stages were calculated and with a step-down ratio of 3, the output pads were buffered down to the basic inverter of the cell library with an input capacitance of 13fF approximately. Moreover the constraints were simulated to confirm the calculated width and the optimum width was chosen.

5.4 Electrostatic Discharge (ESD) Protection Circuit

5.4.1 Introduction

There is growing interest in the effects of ESD on the performance of semiconductor integrated circuits (ICs) because of the impact ESD has on production yields and product quality. ESD problems are increasing in the electronics industry because of the trends toward higher speed and smaller device sizes. This is primarily a result of thinning oxides. ESD is a major consideration in the design and manufacture of ICs.

5.4.2 What is ESD?

Static charge is an unbalanced electrical charge at rest. Typically, it is created by insulator surfaces rubbing together or pulling apart. One surface gains electrons, while the other surface loses electrons. This results in an unbalanced electrical condition known as static charge. When a static charge moves from one surface to another, it becomes an electrostatic discharge or ESD. ESD is a miniature lightning bolt of charge that moves between two surfaces that have different potentials. It can occur only when the voltage differential between the two surfaces is sufficiently high to break down the dielectric strength of the medium (typically air and occasionally including the thin oxide layer as in this case) separating the two surfaces. When a static charge moves, it becomes a current that damages or destroys gate oxide, metallization, and junctions. ESD can occur in any one of four ways: a charged body can touch an IC, a charged IC can touch a grounded surface, a charged machine can touch an IC, or an electrostatic field can induce a voltage across a dielectric sufficient to break it down.

5.4.3 ESD Failures

5.4.3.1 Latent Failures

ESD events not only reduce assembly yields, but also can produce device damage that goes undetected by factory testing, and later, is the cause of a latent failure. Devices with latent ESD defects are called walking wounded because they have been degraded, but not destroyed, by ESD. This occurs when an ESD pulse is not sufficiently strong to destroy a device, but nevertheless causes damage. Often, the device suffers junction degradation through increased leakage or a decreased reverse breakdown, but the device continues to

function and is still within data-sheet limits. A device can be subjected to numerous weak ESD pulses, with each successive pulse further degrading a device until, finally, there is a catastrophic failure. There is no known practical way to screen for walking-wounded devices. To avoid this type of damage, devices must be given continuous ESD protection.

5.4.3.2 ESD Failure Modes

Different ESD models tend to produce different types of failure and require different types of control and protection. Basic failure mechanisms include oxide punch through, junction burnout, and metallization burnout. Some typical ESD damage phenomena are shown in (figure5.3 and 5.4) [17].

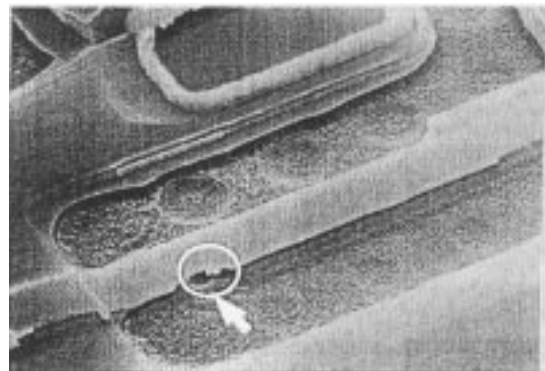
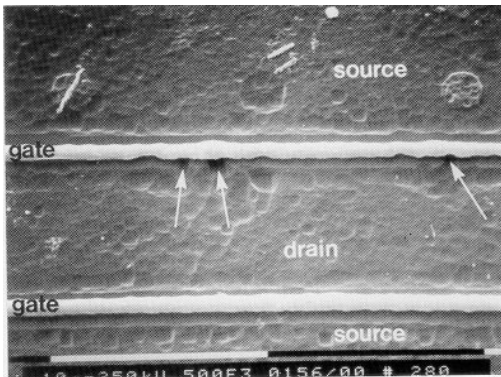


Figure 5.3 Drain-junction damage in an NMOS after HBM stress. Note the thermal damage to silicon. [17]

Figure 5.4 Gate-oxide damage to an input buffer after CDM stress. Note the rupture in gate oxide.

5.4.4 Design of ESD Input Protection Circuit

Figure 5.3 shows a typical ESD input protection circuit. In general, ESD protection must remain inactive until triggered by an ESD event voltage upon which it conducts current

and holds a low voltage. Any device featuring these kinds of characteristics can potentially be used as an ESD protection device. During a high-voltage event at the I/O pad, the ESD protection circuitry switches to a low-impedance state to discharge the ESD event and hold the pad voltage at a level safe for all I/O circuitry.

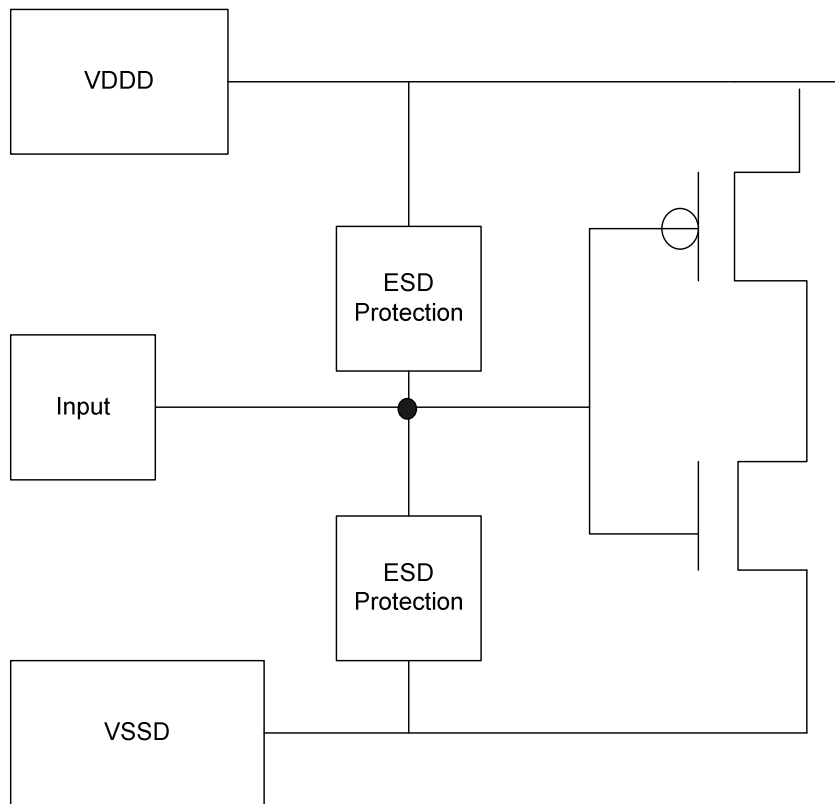


Figure 5.5 Conceptual ESD protection circuit for an Input pad

In our efforts the basic Peregrine design was slightly modified. In Figure 5.5, gated diodes (NG and PG in Peregrine process) were used as ESD protection devices and large

width (8 fingers of 30 μm) gate source shorted reverse biased NMOS transistors were used as clamp transistors between the power and ground rails. The NMOS transistor length was fixed to be 1.6 μm based on the leakage measurement data at 27 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and at 125 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for a NMOS device (see Table 5.1 and Table 5.2) at 5.0V. The modification to the existing Peregrine design was to increase the NMOS channel length to mitigate NMOS leakage

Table 5.1 Measured data “Normalized” for W=10 μm & L=0.8 μm , 4 fingers

Vd (Volts)	I leak ($\mu\text{A}/\mu\text{m}$) @27C	I leak ($\mu\text{A}/\mu\text{m}$) @125C
3.3	0.59	0.6
4.0	0.21	1.42
4.5	22.03	64.46
5.0	62.41	807

Table 5.2 Scaled data for W= 30 μm & L=0.8 μm , 4 fingers

Vd (Volts)	I leak (A) @27C	I leak (A) @125C
3.3	7.08	7.2
4.0	2.544 μ	17.04
4.5	264.4 μ	773.6 μ
5.0	0.748m	9.68m

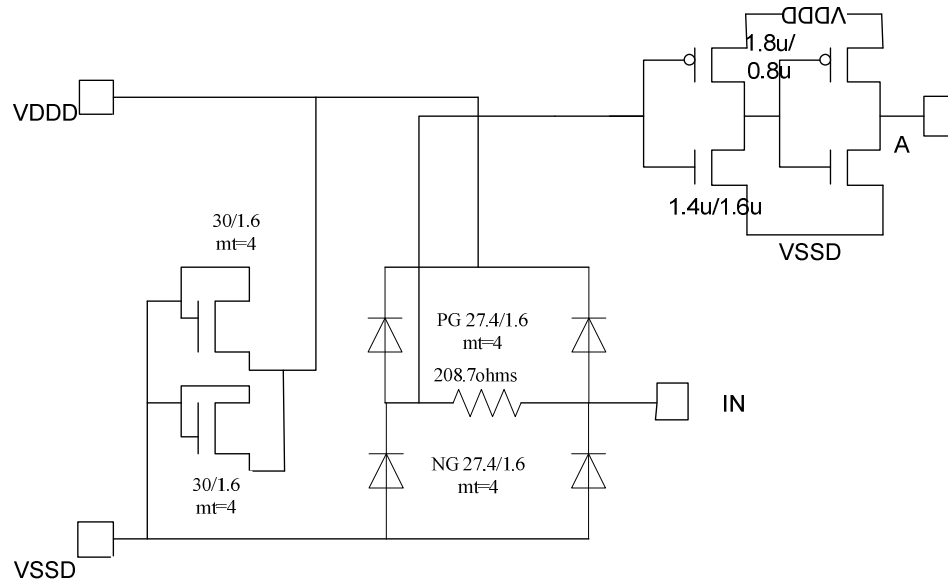


Figure 5.6 Input pad test structure with drive strength of 1X and input capacitance of 13fF

As shown in Figure 5.6, the ESD test structure consisted of an input pad with Primary and a Secondary ESD protection gated diodes separated by a 208.7 ohm resistor (NP resistor with sheet resistance of 145 ohms/Sq. and Contact resistance of 50 ohms/Sqr. This was done to provide a secondary limit on the current in case of an ESD event.

5.4.5 ESD Robustness Testing

The mechanism by which the ESD protection discharges an ESD event is dependent upon polarity of the event and the event reference. ESD events are categorized into four modes: PS, NS, PD, and ND. The first letter of these categories represents the polarity of the event at the input pad (Positive or Negative) and the second defines the event reference (D for VDDD or S for VSSD). See Figure 5.5

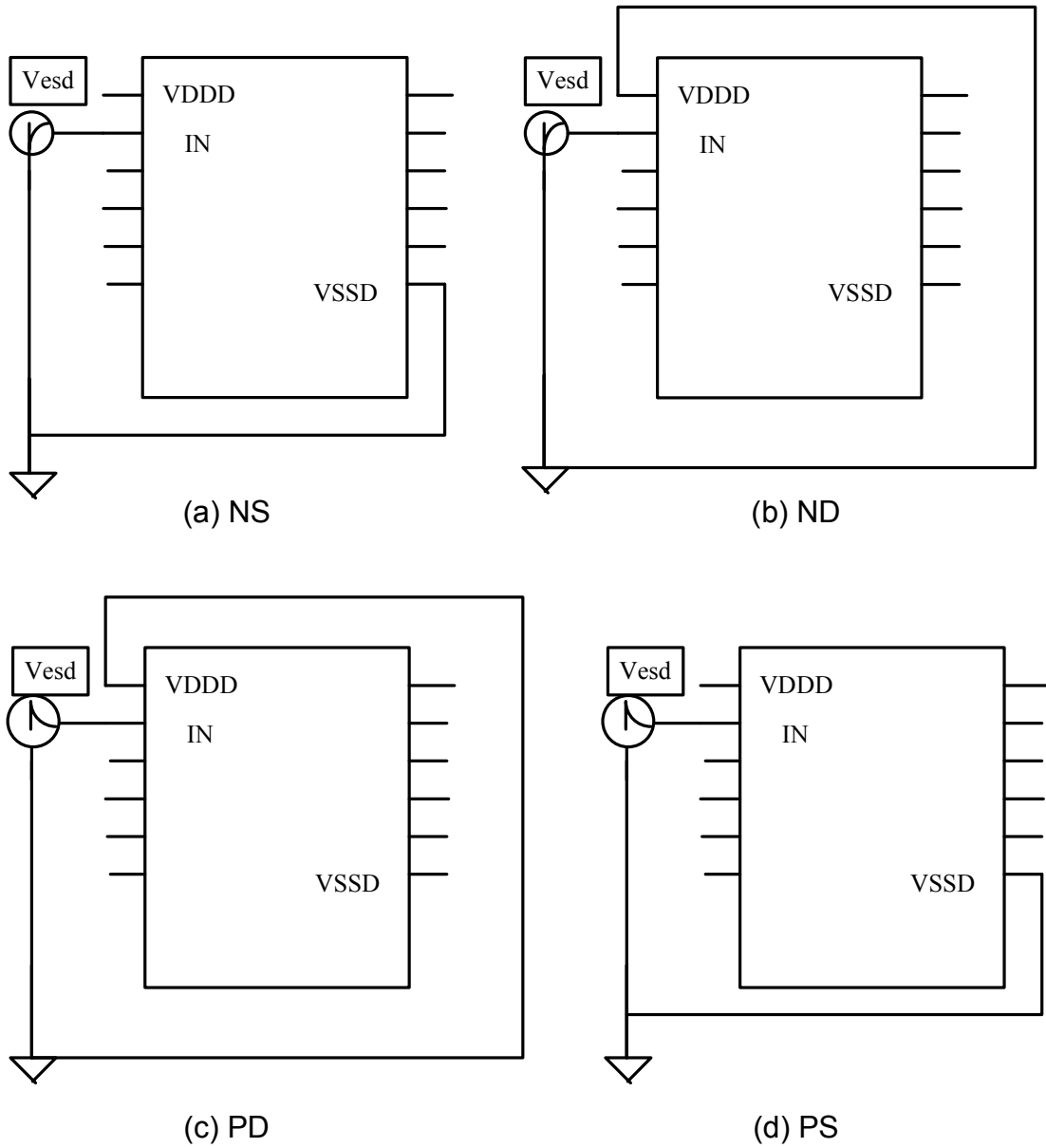


Figure 5.7 ESD Test modes

Out of these modes there are two worst case modes namely PS and ND – modes where the protection diodes are reverse biased during these modes and protection is strongly dependent on the NMOS clamp transistors. This is explained below along with the discussion of all the four test modes.

1. **PD**:-When the ESD event involves the application of a positive voltage to input pad relative to VDD voltage supply rail, diodes D1 and D2 are forward biased and diodes D3 and D4 are not active because VSSD voltage supply rail is floating. As a result, the associated ESD current is discharged to the VDD voltage supply rail through diodes D1 and D2 and resistor R. The voltage drop between input pad IN and the VDD voltage supply rail is limited by the forward turn-on voltage of diodes D1 and D2, the forward diode on-resistances and the current limiting resistor R (208.7 ohms).
2. **NS**: - When the ESD event involves the application of a negative voltage to input pad relative to VSSD voltage supply rail, diodes D3 and D4 are forward biased and diodes D1 and D2 are not active because VDDD voltage supply rail is floating. As a result, the associated ESD current is discharged to the VSSD voltage supply rail through diodes D3 and D4 and the current limiting resistor R. The voltage drop between input pad IN and the VSSD voltage supply rail is limited by the forward turn-on voltage of diodes D3 and D4, the forward diode on-resistances and the resistance of the current limiting resistor R (208.7 ohms).
3. **ND**: - When the ESD event involves the application of a negative voltage to input pad relative to VDD voltage supply rail, diodes D1 and D2 are reverse biased. The reverse break down voltage of diodes D1 and D2 should be typically higher

than the voltage at which the gate oxide of transistors of input buffer and elements within the protected circuit will be damaged (the gate oxide break down voltage → 8V in our case). Because the reverse breakdown voltage of diode is greater than the gate oxide breakdown voltage, cross power supply clamp – the NMOS clamp transistor, is used to limit the voltage during this ESD event. Since the VSSD rail is floating, the voltage on VSSD rail substantially follows the negative voltage applied to the input pad IN. There is a slight voltage difference that exists because of the turn on voltage of diodes D3 and D4 and their forward on-resistances. The negative voltage on VSSD rail causes the NMOS clamp transistor to turn off. However, current will flow through the NMOS clamp transistor when the voltage across the VDDD and VSSD rails exceeds the avalanche breakdown voltage of the clamp transistor. Transistor should typically not be damaged while operating in avalanche breakdown mode. The breakdown voltage should be selected to be lower than gate oxide breakdown voltage (i.e. < 8V) and greater than the voltage applied across VDDD and VSSD supply rails during normal operation (5V). Thus during this mode of ESD event (ND), the ESD current is routed through the series combination of the NMOS clamp transistor and forward biased diodes D3 and D4 and the current limiting resistor R. Consequently, NMOS clamp transistor must be able to conduct as much current as diodes D3 and D4 conduct when forward biased.

4. **PS:** - When the ESD event involves the application of a positive voltage to input pad relative to VSSD voltage supply rail, diodes D3 and D4 are reverse biased. The reverse break down voltage of diodes D3 and D4 should be typically higher

than the voltage at which the gate oxide of transistors of input buffer and elements within the protected circuit will be damaged (the gate oxide break down voltage → 8.5V in our case). Because the reverse breakdown voltage of diode is greater than the gate oxide breakdown voltage, cross power supply clamp – the NMOS clamp transistor, is used to limit the voltage during this ESD event. Since the VDDD rail is floating, the voltage on VDDD rail substantially follows the negative voltage applied to the input pad IN. There is a slight voltage difference that exists because of the turn on voltage of diodes D1 and D2 and their forward on-resistances. The positive voltage on VDDD rail causes the NMOS clamp transistor to turn off. However, current will flow through the NMOS clamp transistor when the voltage across the VDDD and VSSD rails exceeds the avalanche breakdown voltage of the clamp transistor. Transistor should typically not be damaged while operating in avalanche breakdown mode. The breakdown voltage should be selected to be lower than gate oxide breakdown voltage (i.e. < 8V) and greater than the voltage applied across VDDD and VSSD supply rails during normal operation (5V). Thus during this mode of ESD event (ND), the ESD current is routed through the series combination of the NMOS clamp transistor and forward biased diodes D1 and D2 and the current limiting resistor R. Consequently, the NMOS clamp transistor must be able to conduct as much current as diodes D1 and D2 conduct when forward biased.

The NMOS and the PMOS devices with length 1.6 um have been tested by SPWAR for avalanche breakdown and it was observed that NMOS avalanches at 7.1 V where as PMOS with same device length avalanches at 8.7 V which is greater than the gate oxide

breakdown voltage (8.5V) of our devices in the cell library. Hence NMOS device was chosen as the cross supply clamp transistor.

5.4.5.1 The Human Body Model

To classify the device sensitivity to ESD, the most commonly used model is the Human Body model. The HBM testing model represents the discharge from the fingertip of a standing individual delivered to the device. According to the standards the military standard – MIL_STD_883 Method 3015 and of the ESD Association ESD STM5.1: Electrostatic Discharge Sensitivity Testing—Human body Model, a 100pF capacitor is initially charged to 2.5kVolts and is then discharged through a switching component and a 1.5kOhm series resistor in to the component.[20]

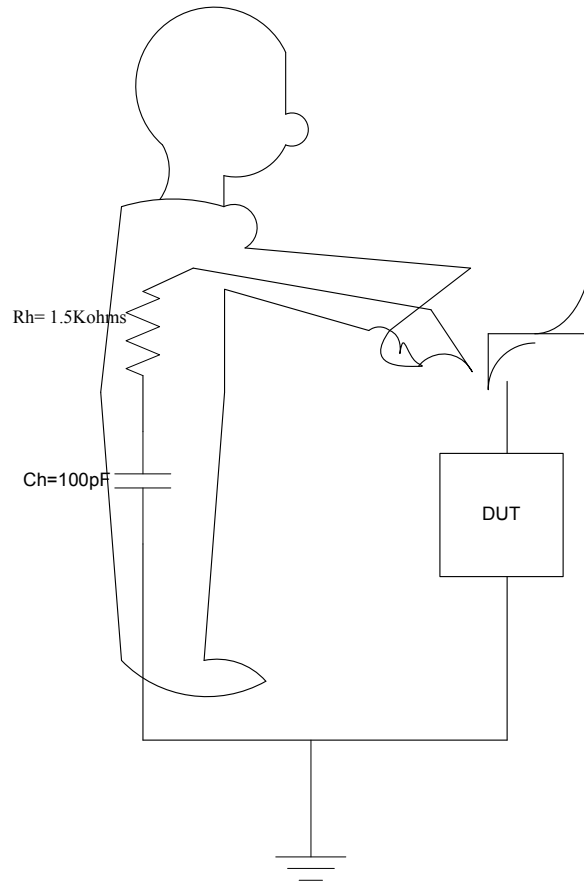


Figure 5.8 Human Body cause a electric discharge on a device under test (DUT)

5.4.5.2 The HBM Model Test Set Up

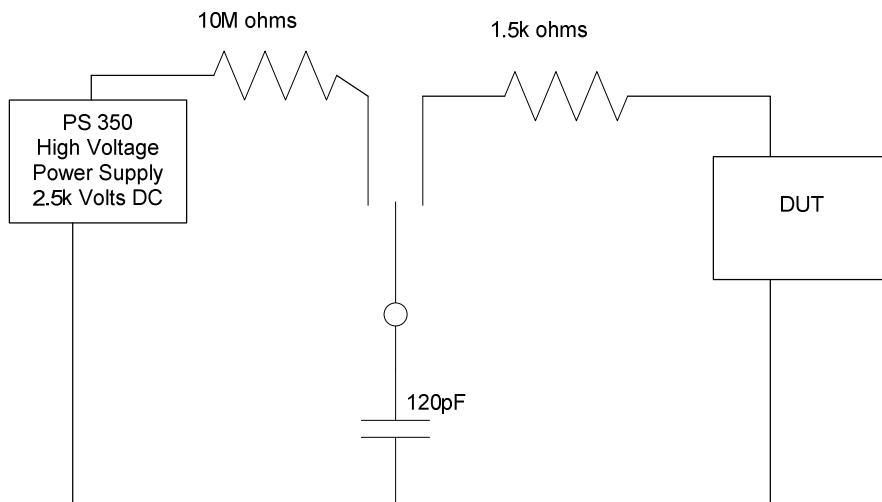


Figure 5.9 The Human Body Model set up circuit

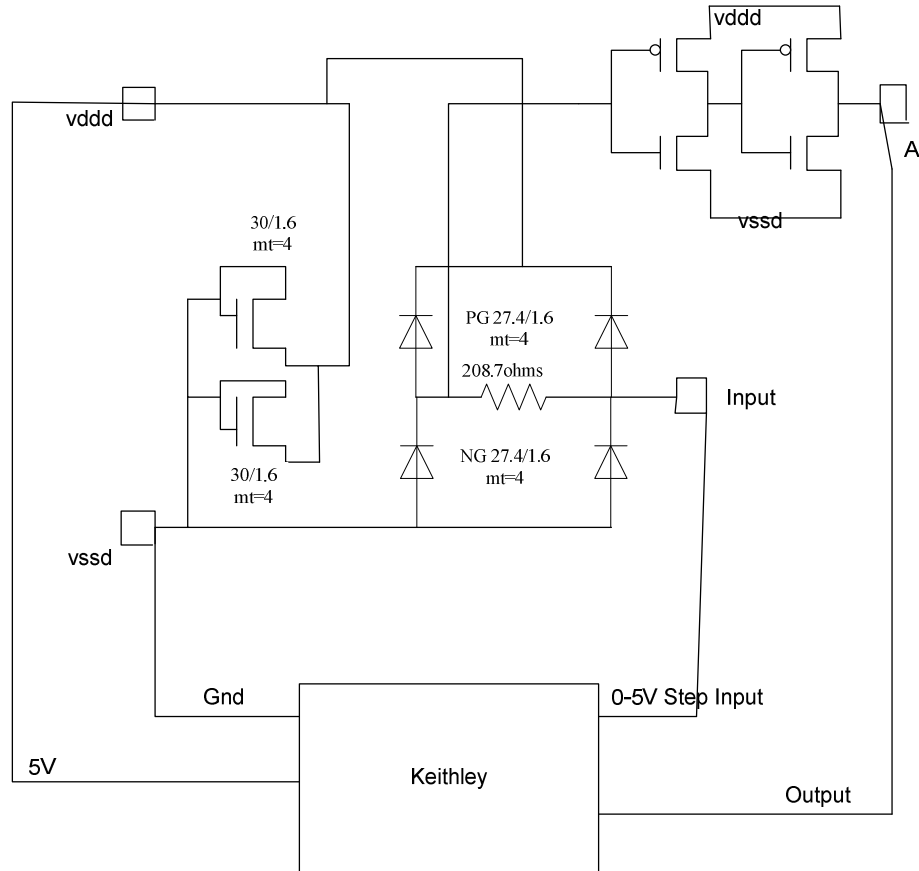


Figure 5.10 Set up for Pre and post Exposure gate leakage and VTC measurements

The human body test model was made using the components shown in figure 5.7 and a PS350 High Voltage Power Supply which could supply up to +/- 5kV and deliver a maximum output current of 5mA.

Three Test structures with different channel lengths (1.4um, 1.5um, 1.6um) of the NMOS clamp transistor were used to observe the ESD performance of the circuit.

The testing was performed for all the four test modes mentioned in the previous section.

The test structures were exposed to various high voltages ranging from 1kV to 2.5kV and the device behavior was monitored and recorded using Keithley. ESD Robustness of input pads was tested at 27°C and 125°C.

The overall test plan that was followed is shown in the flowchart below:-

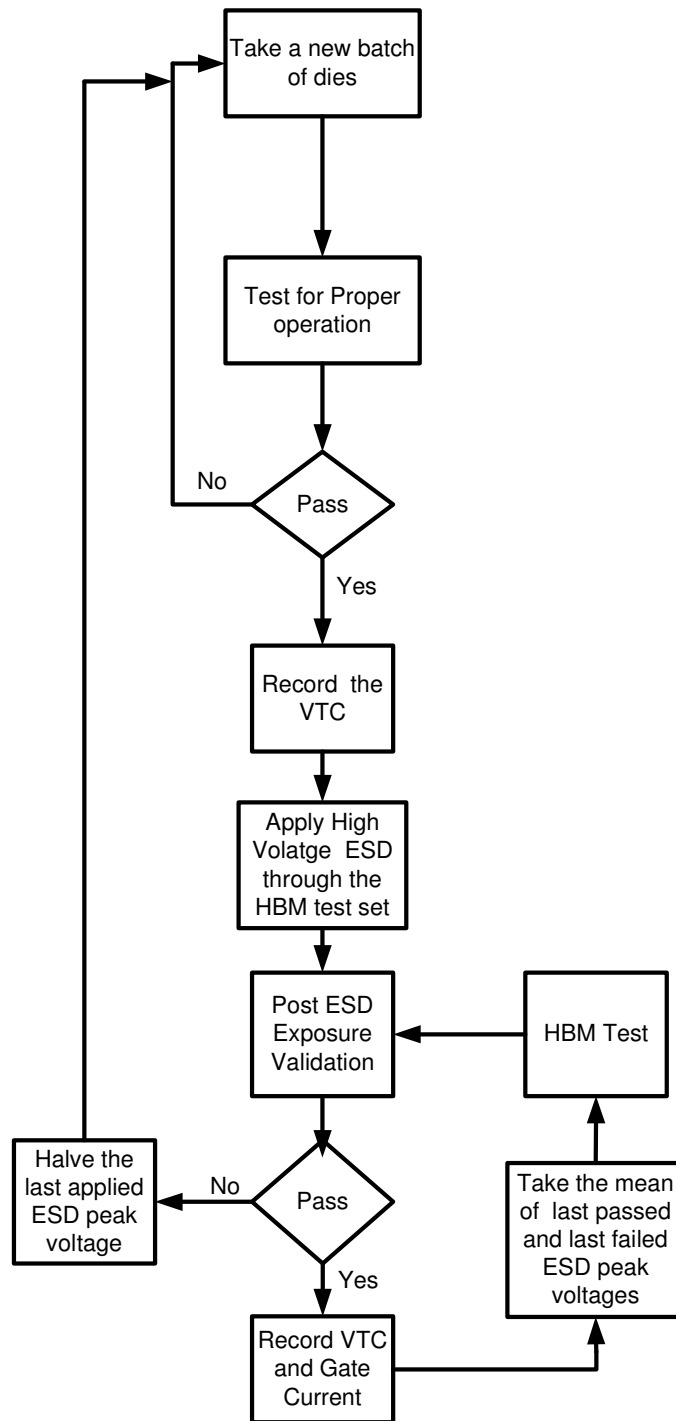


Figure 5.11 Flowchart describing the ESD test procedure for Human Body Model

For the test structure with most successful normal operation post exposure to high voltage with the HBM test set. ESD robustness was to be further confirmed by selecting 10 new structures for test with the HBM test set. The intent here is to find the best out of the three test structures that is robust to ESD.

Best post exposure is defined a least shift between pretest VTC and post exposure VTC i.e. the VTC for both the times, overlap .Note since the VTCs overlapped, the VTC for pre test is not included in the plots shown in Figures 5.11, 5.12 and 5.13. Look for legend Vout_avg in the plots that shows the VTC averaged out for 8 dies.

5.4.6 Plots and Summary of Results

The results are summarized in the table below:-

No. of pads	Temperature	ESD Failure Peak Voltage	Last Pass ESD Peak Voltage
8(L= 1.4,1.5,1.6)	27°C	1400 V	1300 V (8 of 10 total tested Passed)
8(L= 1.4,1.5,1.6)	125 °C	1200 V	1125V (8 of 10 total tested Passed)
Total pads = 48			

Table 5.2 Summary of ESD testing results

Averaged Gate currents and VTC for worst case post ESD exposure (PS and ND modes, refer to section 1.4.5) are plotted (see figure 5.9 – Figure 5.11) at 125C for 1125V & 1200 V and at 27C for 1125 V.

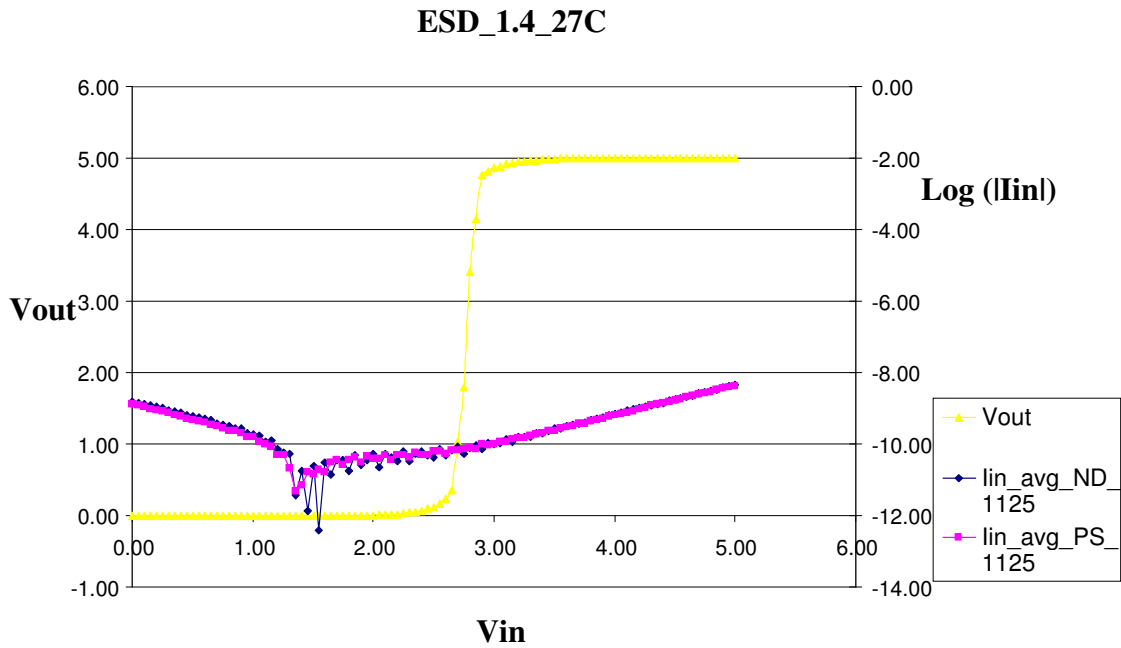
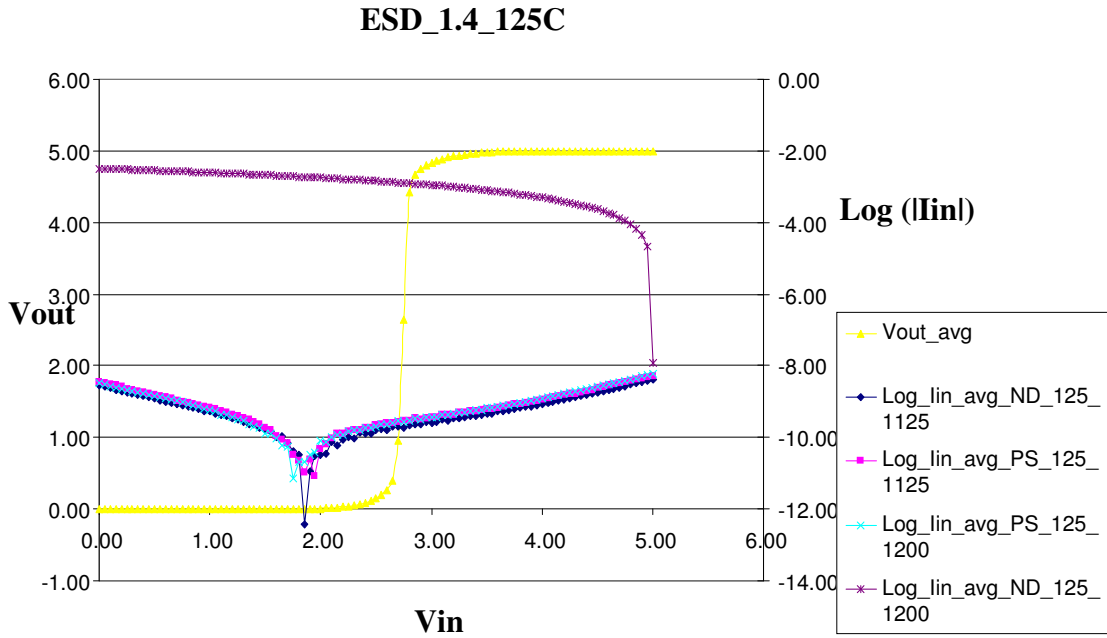


Figure 5.12 Post ESD exposure test results for test structures with clamp NMOS transistor of length 1.4 μm at 125C and 27C

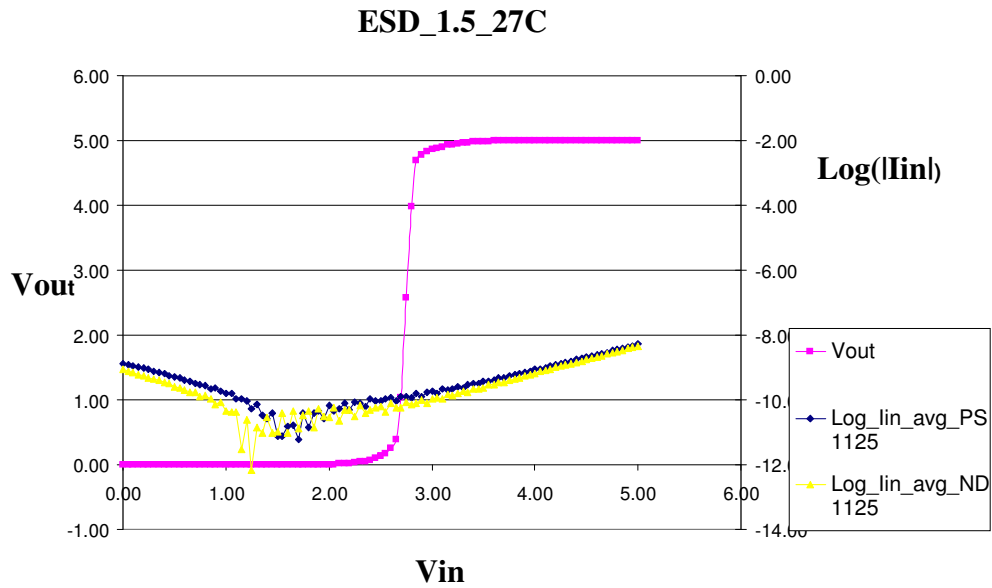
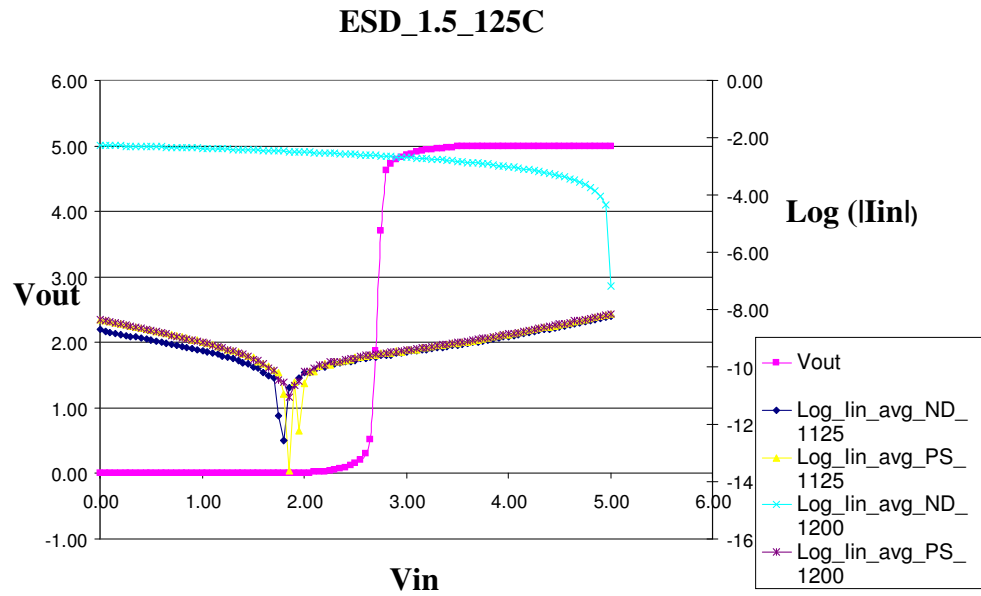


Figure 5.13 Post ESD exposure test results for test structures with clamp NMOS transistor of length 1.5um at 125C and 27C

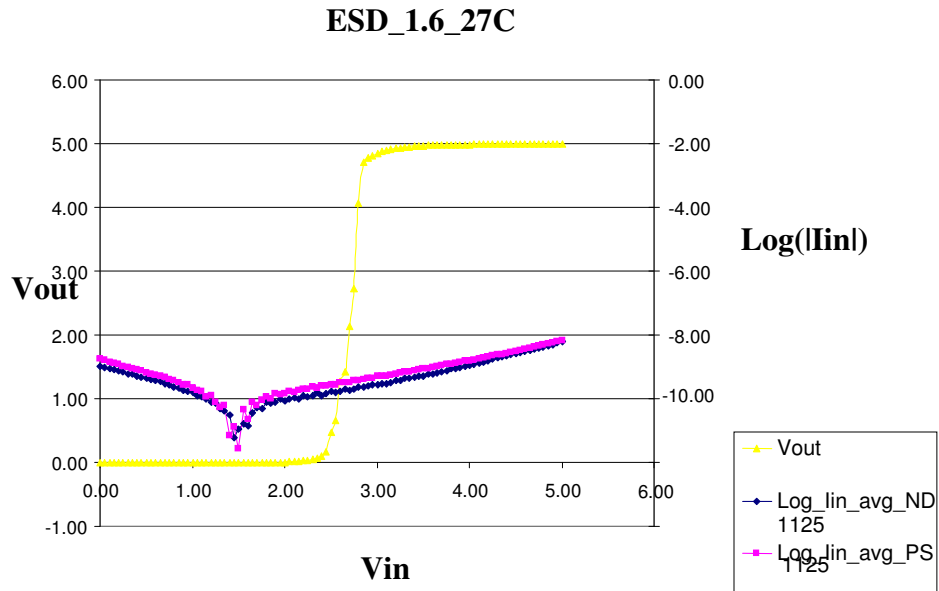
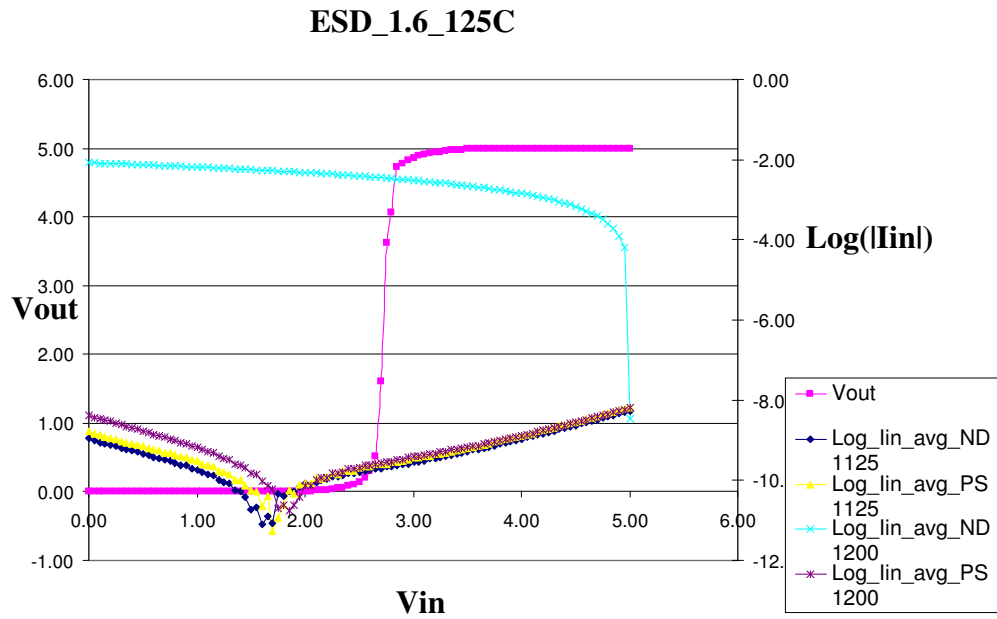


Figure 5.14 Post ESD exposure test results for test structures with clamp NMOS transistor of length 1.6 μm at 125C and 27C

5.4.7 Conclusions on ESD robustness

The test structures were found to be robust up to 1300V at room temperature and up to 1125 volts at 125°C for the worst case ESD test modes (PS and ND). It implies that the NMOS clamp transistors are not able to sink all the ESD current and hence are responsible of not being able to hold the voltage at the gates of the input buffer, below 8.5V which is the oxide break down strength of our NMOS and PMOS devices as mentioned in Chapter 2 (see figure 2.7).As a result we need wider NMOS transistors with greater number of fingers ensuring increased number of parallel paths for the ESD currents to sink. The test results showing the ESD failure at peak ESD voltage of 1125V call for better clamping techniques in order to increase robustness to higher ESD peak voltages and to speed up the time taken to clamp down to voltages lower than gate oxide break down voltage.

5.5 Characterization of I/O Pads

The methodology followed for the pads was same as it was for the Standard Cells. The difference lies in the drive strengths. The pads were designed to drive loads as large as 160pF [Appendix A]. This huge load size demands for large transient simulation times (1us as compared to 100ns for standard cells) which is fed in the Set up file (See Figure 3.5).also see Appendix B, look for *A sample Set up File for Pads* .

It was observed that while using Signal Storm for characterization, a complex cell is not recognized and it generated some garbage timing values for the corresponding standard cell or I/O pad cell. In our case it was the pads with tristate functionalities and also the

pads with active pull-up or pull-down circuit [Appendix 1]. This was confirmed while reading the .lib file format generated by signal storm (see Figure 3.5). The command that was followed to read the .lib file in Unix environment was:-

```
bgx_shell > read_dotlib filename
```

This was followed by corrections completed in the sub-circuit file that is input to the library characterizer. Since the pull-up and pull-down transistors affect the timing of the I/O cells very little, they were removed from the sub-circuit files to generate the error free timing in the .lib format.

5.6 Abstraction of I/O Pads

The abstraction of I/O pads followed the same methodology as mentioned in Chapter 3 (see section 3.6) except in the extraction and abstraction steps of the Abstract generator. (see section 3.6.5). The steps to abstraction of I/O pads are detailed in Appendix C.

It is important here to state that the pins that at the input to the Tristate pads and output pads, are supposed to be created at the input edge of the pad so as avoid problems encountered by Place and Route tool. The Pin metal is extended to the edge of the input side of the pad and this facilitates convenience to the PNR tool for locating the input pin and routing it.

CHAPTER 6 Conclusion and Future Work

6.1 Conclusion

5V Digital Standard Cell Library and I/O Cell Library have been developed for ASIC operable up to 125°C. The exhaustive libraries consist of 430 standard cells and 39 I/O cells with different drive strengths. Output pads in I/O library are capable of driving 10pF - 160pF load with a normalized output slew of 25ns. Both the libraries have been characterized for timing and power, and abstracted for use with the place and route tool. The Cell library has been validated on silicon using delay chain modules at 27°C and 125°C which is explained in Chapter 4. The input pad test structures have been designed and tested for their robustness to ESD at room temperature and at 125°C for the Human Body Model. The entire test plan and results are shown in Chapter 5.

6.2 Future Work

The protection circuitry used in the I/O cell Library can be improved by using different voltage clamping techniques between the power and ground supply rails. Better voltage clamping techniques refers to such techniques that can clamp to voltage levels that are lower than gate oxide break down voltage (8.5V in our case) and more importantly they should be fast in clamping to lower voltages (than 8.5V)

Appendix A

Library Cells and Drive Strengths Specification

The definition of a 1X gate by drive is the current provided by an inverter comprised of a 1.8um/0.8um RP device and a 1.4um/1.6um RN device while by load it is the capacitance presented by the same 1X inverter or approximately 12fF. By way of example a nand2 or **AND2X1** presents a load of approximately 21fF or approximately 1.6 loads. Note to develop a 1X drive with AND2X1 the NMOS devices must be 2X wider, this along with the some what longer NMOS device account for the loading being slightly larger than normally loading. **NOR2X2** loading is 36fF or **2.7 loads**.

1. Drive Strengths

- For inverters, clock tree buffers, and buffers: 1X, 2X, 3X, 4X, 6X, 8X, 12X, 16X
 - Three State Buffers/Inverting and noninverting: 1X, 2X, 3X, 4X and 8X.
2. For others: Four drive strengths: 1X, 2X, 3X and 4X, where typical 2X through 4X loads are 24fF, 36fF and 48fF respectively.
3. Core Cell List
- See cell count after list.

Table 1: List of core cells

CELL TYPE	CELL NAME	FUNCTION
Inverters	inv_X	Y = not (A)
Buffers	buf_X	Y = A
Tie high/low	tiehigh, tielow	Y = VDD, Y = VSS
NAND gates	nand2_X	Y = not (A.B)
	nand3_X	Y = not (A.B.C)
	nand4_X	Y = not (A.B.C.D)
NOR gates	nor2_X	Y = not (A+B)
	nor3_X	Y = not (A+B+C)
	nor4_X	Y = not (A+B+C+D)
AND gates	and2_X	Y = A.B
	and3_X	Y = A.B.C
	and4_X	Y = A.B.C.D
OR gates	or2_X	Y = A+B
	or3_X	Y = A+B+C
	or4_X	Y = A+B+C+D

CELL TYPE	CELL NAME	FUNCTION
XOR gates	xor_X	$Y = A \oplus B$
XNOR gates	xnor_X	$Y = \text{not}(A \oplus B)$
AO gates	ao21_X	$Y = (A0.A1)+B0$
	ao22_X	$Y = (A0.A1)+(B0.B1)$
	ao211_X	$Y = (A0.A1)+B0+C0$
	ao221_X	$Y = (A0.A1)+(B0.B1)+C0$
	ao222_X	$Y = (A0.A1)+(B0.B1)+(C0.C1)$
	ao31_X	$Y = (A0.A1.A2)+B0$
	ao32_X	$Y = (A0.A1.A2)+(B0.B1)$
	ao33_X	$Y = (A0.A1.A2)+(B0.B1.B2)$
	ao311_X	$Y = (A0.A1.A2)+B0+C0$
	ao321_X	$Y = (A0.A1.A2)+(B0.B1)+C0$
	ao331_X	$Y = (A0.A1.A2)+(B0.B1.B2)+C0$
	ao322_X	$Y = (A0.A1.A2)+(B0.B1)+(C0.C1)$
	ao332_X	$Y = (A0.A1.A2)+(B0.B1.B2)+(C0.C1)$
	ao333_X	$Y = (A0.A1.A2)+(B0.B1.B2)+(C0.C1.C2)$
OA gates	oa21_X	$Y = (A0+A1).B0$
	oa22_X	$Y = (A0+A1).(B0+B1)$
	oa211_X	$Y = (A0+A1).B0.C0$
	oa221_X	$Y = (A0+A1).(B0+B1).C0$
	oa222_X	$Y = (A0+A1).(B0+B1).(C0+C1)$
	oa31_X	$Y = (A0+A1+A2).B0$
	oa32_X	$Y = (A0+A1+A2).(B0+B1)$
	oa33_X	$Y = (A0+A1+A2).(B0+B1+B2)$
	oa311_X	$Y = (A0+A1+A2).B0.C0$
	oa321_X	$Y = (A0+A1+A2).(B0+B1).C0$
	oa331_X	$Y = (A0+A1+A2).(B0+B1+B2).C0$
	oa322_X	$Y = (A0+A1+A2).(B0+B1).(C0+C1)$
	oa332_X	$Y = (A0+A1+A2).(B0+B1+B2).(C0+C1)$
	oa333_X	$Y = (A0+A1+A2).(B0+B1+B2).(C0+C1+C2)$
AOI gates	aoi21_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0.A1)+B0)$
	aoi22_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0.A1)+(B0.B1))$
	aoi211_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0.A1)+B0+C0)$
	aoi221_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0.A1)+(B0.B1)+C0)$
	aoi222_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0.A1)+(B0.B1)+(C0.C1))$

CELL TYPE	CELL NAME	FUNCTION
	aoi31_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0.A1.A2)+B0)$
	aoi32_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0.A1.A2)+(B0.B1))$
	aoi33_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0.A1.A2)+(B0.B1.B2))$
	aoi311_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0.A1.A2)+B0+C0)$
	aoi321_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0.A1.A2)+(B0.B1)+C0)$
	aoi331_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0.A1.A2)+(B0.B1.B2)+C0)$
	aoi322_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0.A1.A2)+(B0.B1)+(C0.C1))$
	aoi332_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0.A1.A2)+(B0.B1.B2)+(C0.C1))$
	aoi333_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0.A1.A2)+(B0.B1.B2)+(C0.C1.C2))$
OAI gates	oai21_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0+A1).B0)$
	oai22_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0+A1).(B0+B1))$
	oai211_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0+A1).B0.C0)$
	oai221_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0+A1).(B0+B1).C0)$
	oai222_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0+A1).(B0+B1).(C0+C1))$
	oai31_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0+A1+A2).B0)$
	oai32_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0+A1+A2).(B0+B1))$
	oai33_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0+A1+A2).(B0+B1+B2))$
	oai311_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0+A1+A2).B0.C0)$
	oai321_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0+A1+A2).(B0+B1).C0)$
	oai331_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0+A1+A2).(B0+B1+B2).C0)$
	oai322_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0+A1+A2).(B0+B1).(C0+C1))$
	oai332_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0+A1+A2).(B0+B1+B2).(C0+C1))$
oai333_X	$Y = \text{not}((A0+A1+A2).(B0+B1+B2).(C0+C1+C2))$	
Multiplexers	mux21_X	Multiplexer 2 to 1
	muxi21_X	Multiplexer 2 to 1 with inverted output
	muxi41_X	Multiplexer 4 to 1
	muxI41_X	Multiplexer 4 to 1 with inverted output
Flip-Flops	msdff_X	D-type flip-flop with positive clock edge
	msdffnr_X	D-type flip-flop with positive clock edge and negative asynchronous reset
	msdffns_X	D-type flip-flop with positive clock edge and negative asynchronous set

CELL TYPE	CELL NAME	FUNCTION
	msdffnrns_X	D-type flip-flop with positive clock edge and negative asynchronous reset and set
	msdffn_X	D-type flip-flop with negative clock edge
	msdffnr_X	D-type flip-flop with negative clock edge and negative asynchronous reset
	msdffns_X	D-type flip-flop with negative clock edge and negative asynchronous set
	msdffnrns_X	D-type flip-flop with negative clock edge and negative asynchronous reset and set
Scan Flip-Flops	scanmsdff_X	D-type flip-flop with positive clock edge with scan inputs
	scanmsdffnr_X	D-type flip-flop with positive clock edge and negative asynchronous reset with scan inputs
	scanmsdffns_X	D-type flip-flop with positive clock edge and negative asynchronous set with scan inputs
	scanmsdffnrns_X	D-type flip-flop with positive clock edge and negative asynchronous reset and set with scan inputs
	scanmsdffn_X	D-type flip-flop with negative clock edge with scan inputs
	scanmsdffnr_X	D-type flip-flop with negative clock edge and negative asynchronous reset with scan inputs
	scanmsdffns_X	D-type flip-flop with negative clock edge and negative asynchronous set with scan inputs
	scanmsdffnrns_X	D-type flip-flop with negative clock edge and negative asynchronous reset and set with scan inputs
Latches	latch_X	D-type transparent latch with positive clock level
	latchnr_X	D-type transparent latch with positive clock level and negative asynchronous reset
	latchns_X	D-type transparent latch with positive clock level and negative asynchronous set
	latchnrns_X	D-type transparent latch with positive clock level and negative asynchronous reset and set

CELL TYPE	CELL NAME	FUNCTION
	latchn_X	D-type transparent latch with negative clock level
	latchnr_X	D-type transparent latch with negative clock level and negative asynchronous reset
	latchns_X	D-type transparent latch with negative clock level and negative asynchronous set
	latchnrns_X	D-type transparent latch with negative clock level and negative asynchronous reset and set
Clock Tree Buffers	Use buf_X	$Y = A$
Three State Buffers	Tribuf_X	$Y = A.E$; $Y=HiZ$ for not E
Three State Inv. Buffers	Tribufi_X	$Y = \text{not}(A.E)$; $Y=HiZ$ for not E

Table 2: Core cell count

Cell Type	Number of Logic Types	Total Number of Cells
<i>Inverters</i>	1	8
<i>Buffers</i>	1	8
<i>Clkbuffers</i>	1	8
<i>3-State Buffers/Inverting</i>	2	12
<i>Tie_high/low</i>	2	2
<i>NAND</i>	3	12
<i>NOR</i>	3	12
<i>AND</i>	3	12
<i>OR</i>	3	12
<i>XOR</i>	1	4
<i>XNOR</i>	1	4
<i>AO</i>	14	56
<i>OA</i>	14	56
<i>AOI</i>	14	56
<i>OAI</i>	14	56
<i>MUX</i>	4	16
<i>Flip-Flops</i>	8	32
<i>Scan Flip-Flops</i>	8	32
<i>Latches</i>	8	32
TOTAL	105	430

4. IO List

- See cell count at the end of list
- IO cells
 - Input = pad with ESD structure and level shifter (e.g. CMOS), optional pull-up or pull-down.
 - Output = pad with ESD structure, output transistors, drivers, and level shifter as needed.
 - Bidirectional pads are made as a unification of the input and output pads
- Input buffers have 5 drive strengths like the core cells: 1X, 2X, 3X, 4X and 7X, where typical 2X through 7X loads are 24fF, 36fF, 48fF and 144fF respectively.
- Output buffers have 5 drive strengths: 1.6mA, 3.2mA, 4.8mA, 8.00mA and 12.8mA (<25nS rise/fall times into 20pF, 40pF, 80pF, 120pF, and 160pF loads.)
- Outputs buffers have 1 normalized slew rate. 25ns
 - Bidirectional pads have 1 normalized slew rate with CMOS inputs with optional pull-up or pull-down.

Table 3: IO cell count

Cell Type	Number of Logic Types	Total Number of Cells
<i>PAD_BIDIR_CMOS</i>	3	15
<i>PAD_IN_CMOS</i>	3	15
<i>PAD_OUT</i>	1	5
<i>VDD Pad (Pvdd)</i>	1	1
<i>VSS Pad (Pvss)</i>	1	1
<i>Corner Pad (Pcorner_dec)</i>	1	1
<i>Decoupling Pad(Pfill5)</i>	1	1
TOTAL	12	39

Appendix B

Inputs to SignalStorm library Characterizer

A sample sub-circuit (netlist – ao322_4) file as an input to SignalStorm

```
simulator lang=spectre
global 0
include "/export/home/liuc/pscmodel/tol.scs"
// Library name: Navy_Cells
// Cell name: ao322_4
// View name: schematic
subckt ao322_4 A B C D E F G VDDD VSSD Y
    M39 (Y net74 VSSD) rnx w=5.6u l=1.6u mt=1
    M40 (net74 net62 VSSD) rnx w=1.4u l=1.6u mt=1
    M41 (net71 E VSSD) rnx w=2.8u l=1.6u mt=1
    M53 (net62 F net50) rnx w=2.8u l=1.6u mt=1
    M54 (net62 D net71) rnx w=2.8u l=1.6u mt=1
    M55 (net62 A net59) rnx w=4.2u l=1.6u mt=1
    M56 (net59 B net56) rnx w=4.2u l=1.6u mt=1
    M57 (net56 C VSSD) rnx w=4.2u l=1.6u mt=1
    M59 (net50 G VSSD) rnx w=2.8u l=1.6u mt=1
    M52 (Y net74 VDDD) rp w=7.2u l=800n mt=1
    M60 (net74 net62 VDDD) rp w=1.8u l=800n mt=1
    M61 (net62 F net82) rp w=4.5u l=800n mt=1
    M62 (net82 E net95) rp w=4.5u l=800n mt=1
    M63 (net95 A VDDD) rp w=4.5u l=800n mt=1
    M64 (net95 B VDDD) rp w=4.5u l=800n mt=1
    M65 (net95 C VDDD) rp w=4.5u l=800n mt=1
    M67 (net62 G net82) rp w=4.5u l=800n mt=1
    M68 (net82 D net95) rp w=4.5u l=800n mt=1
ends ao322_4
// End of subcircuit definition.
```

A sample Setup file- for standard cells in typical process

Look for different aspects of the simulation to be run by SignalStorm, ex transient time, Process, Binary search , load, slew mentioned in Chapter 3.

```
Process typical{
    voltage = 5 ;
    temp = 27 ;
    Corner = "tt" ;
    Vtn = 0.755 ;
    Vtp = 0.654 ;
};

Signal std_cell {
    unit = REL;
    Vh=1.0 1.0;
    Vl=0.0 0.0;
    Vth=0.5 0.5;
    Vsh=0.9 0.9;
    Vsl=0.1 0.1;
    tsmax=10.0n;
};

Simulation std_cell{
    transient = 0.1n 50n 50p;
    //(start, stop, step)
    dc = 0.26 5 0.03;
    bisec = 12.0n 12.0n 150p;
//
    resistance = 10MEG;
};

Index X1{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    // Input slews 10 to 90%
    Load = 0.005p 0.013p 0.026p 0.04p 0.052p 0.104p;
    // Output load capacitances nx1X, nx2X, nx3X, nx4X and nx8X
    //for a nX drive, n = 1 in the above example.
};

Index X2{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.026p 0.052p 0.08p 0.106p 0.208p;
};

Index X3{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.04p 0.078p 0.12p 0.16p 0.312p;
};

Index X4{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.052p 0.104p 0.16p 0.212p 0.416p;
};
```

```

};

Index X5{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.065p 0.130p 0.2p 0.260p 0.520p;
};

Index X6{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.08p 0.156p 0.24p 0.32p 0.624p;
};

Index X7{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.091p 0.182p 0.273p 0.364p 0.728p;
};

Index X8{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.104p 0.208p 0.32p 0.424p 0.832p;
};

Index X9{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.117p 0.234p 0.351p 0.468p 0.936p;
};

Index X10{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.130p 0.26p 0.39p 0.52p 1.04p;
};

Index X11{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.143p 0.286p 0.429p 0.572p 1.114p;
};

Index X12{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.158p 0.316p 0.474p 0.632p 1.264p;
};

Index X14{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.185p 0.370p 0.554p 0.739p 1.478p;
};

Index X15{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.198p 0.396p 0.594p 0.792p 1.584p;
};

```

```

};

Index X18{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.238p 0.475p 0.713p 0.950p 1.90p;
};
Index X20{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.264p 0.528p 0.792p 1.056p 2.112p;
};
Index X22{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.29p 0.58p 0.871p 1.160p 2.323p;
};
Index X24{
    Slew = 1n 2n 4n 6n 8n;
    Load = 0.005p 0.317p 0.634p 0.950p 1.270p 2.53p;
};

Index Clk_Slew{
    bslew = 0.5n 2n 10.0n;
};

Group X1{
    CELL = *1;
};

Group X2{
    CELL = *2;
};

Group X3{
    CELL = *3;
};

Group X4{
    CELL = *4;
};

Group X5{
    CELL = *5;
};

Group X6{
    CELL = *6;
};

Group X7{
    CELL = *7;
};

Group X8{
    CELL = *8;
};

Group X9{

```

```

    CELL = *9;
};

Group X10{
    CELL = *10;
};
Group X11{
    CELL = *11;
};

Group X12{
    CELL = *12;
};

Group X14{
    CELL = *14;
};

Group X15{
    CELL = *15;
};

Group X18{
    CELL = *18;
};

Group X20{
    CELL = *20;
};

Group X22{
    CELL = *22;
};

Group X24{
    CELL = *24;
};

Group X1a{
    CELL = *1a;
};

Group X5a{
    CELL = *5a;
};

Group Clk_Slew{
    PIN = *.CLK ;
};

Margin m0 {
    setup          = 1.0 0.0 ;
    hold          = 1.0 0.0 ;
    release = 1.0 0.0 ;
    removal = 1.0 0.0 ;
};

```

```

    recovery = 1.0 0.0 ;
    width = 1.0 0.0 ;
    delay      = 1.0 0.0 ;
    power      = 1.0 0.0 ;
    cap        = 1.0 0.0 ;
} ;

Nominal n0 {
    delay = 0.5 0.5 ;
    power = 0.5 0.5 ;
    cap   = 0.5 0.5 ;
} ;

set process(typical){
    simulation = std_cell;
    signal = std_cell;
    margin = m0;
    nominal = n0;
};

set index(typical){
    Group(X1) = X1;
    Group(X2) = X2;
    Group(X3) = X3;
    Group(X4) = X4;
    Group(X5) = X5;
    Group(X6) = X6;
    Group(X7) = X7;
    Group(X8) = X8;
    Group(X9) = X9;
    Group(X10) = X10;
    Group(X11) = X11;
    Group(X12) = X12;
    Group(X14) = X14;
    Group(X15) = X15;
    Group(X18) = X18;
    Group(X20) = X20;
        Group(X22) = X22;
        Group(X24) = X24;
    Group(X1a) = X1;
    Group(X5a) = X5;
    Group(Clk_Slew) = Clk_Slew;
};

```

A sample Step file or batch file, which is used to specify the commands and set values to SignalStorm-

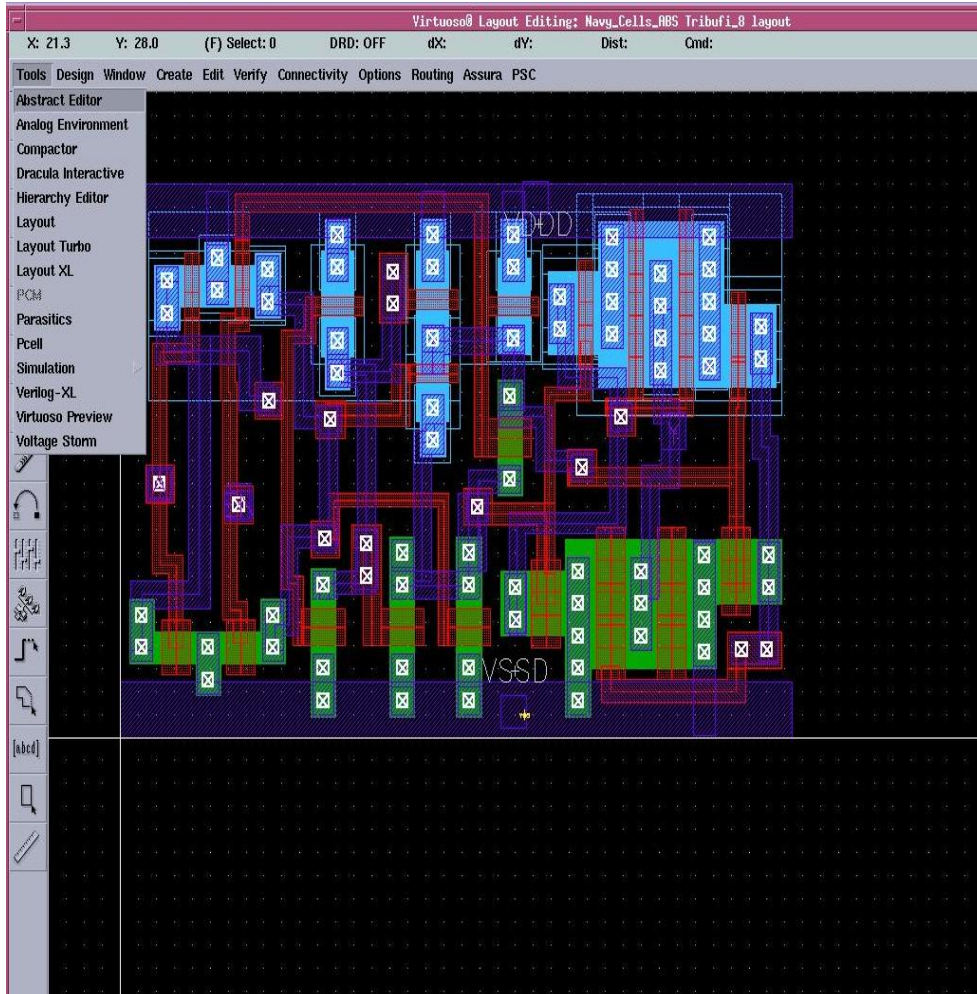
Look for the command in **bold** – specifies the sub-circuit filename (Appendix A .1.) and the set up file name (Appendix A. 2.)

```
set_var SG_SPICE_SUPPLY1_NAMES "VDDD"  
set_var SG_SPICE_SUPPLY0_NAMES "VSSD"  
set_var SG_SPICE_SIMPLIFY true  
set_var SG_SIM_TYPE "spectre"  
set_var SG_CASE_SENSITIVITY 1  
  
db_open typical  
db_install -subckt aoi_m.scs -model model_tt.scs  
db_gsim -force  
db_setup -s setup_typical.ss  
db_spice -p typical -keep_log
```

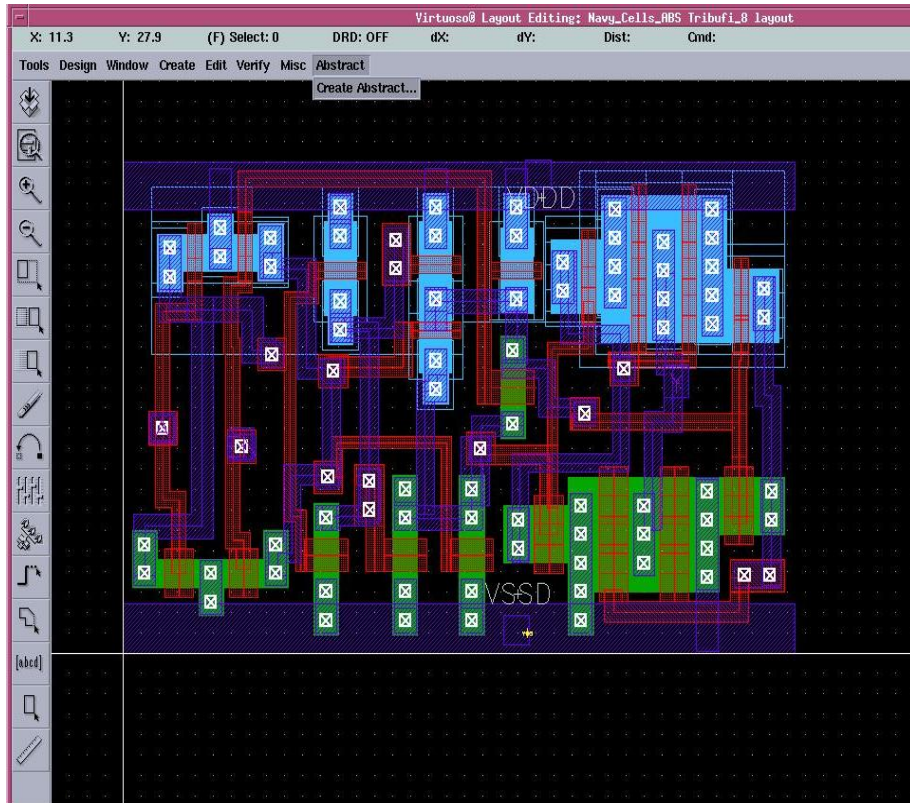

Appendix C

ABSTRACTION TUTORIAL

1. Attach the standard cell library to the existing technology library pscPNR which stands for Peregrine Semiconductor Place and Route library.
2. Only layout and logical views are required to generate abstract views. So it is suggested that all the views are copied to a new library and then attached to the P&R technology library.
3. Open the layout of any cell and go to *Tools* → *Abstract Generator*

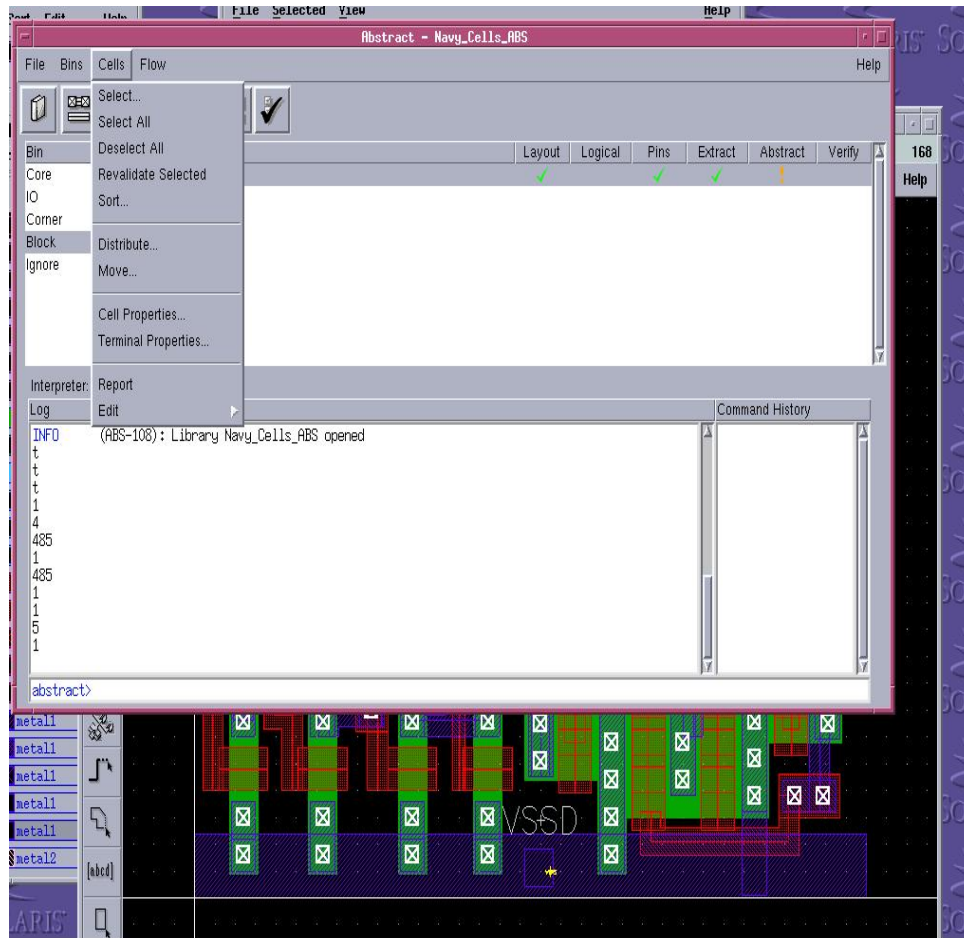


- The display on the layout window shows a tab of Abstract. Go to *Abstract* → *Create Abstract*.

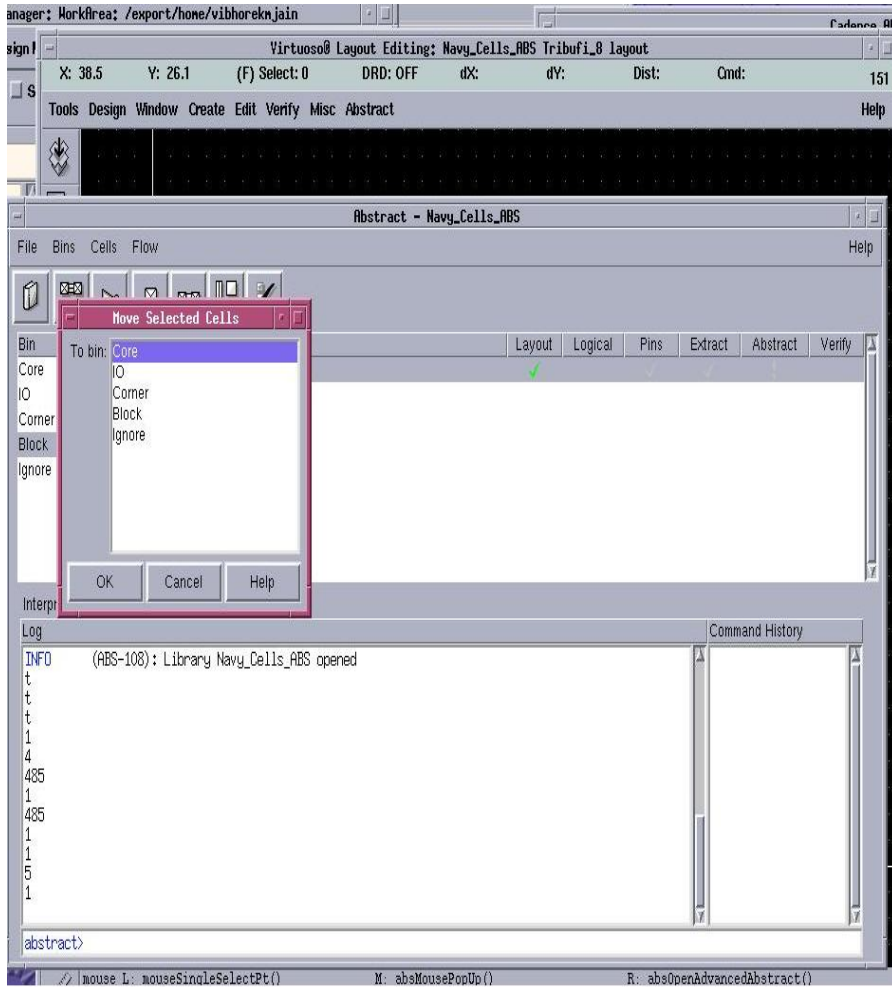


- An abstract generator GUI will pop up and load up all the cells in the window.

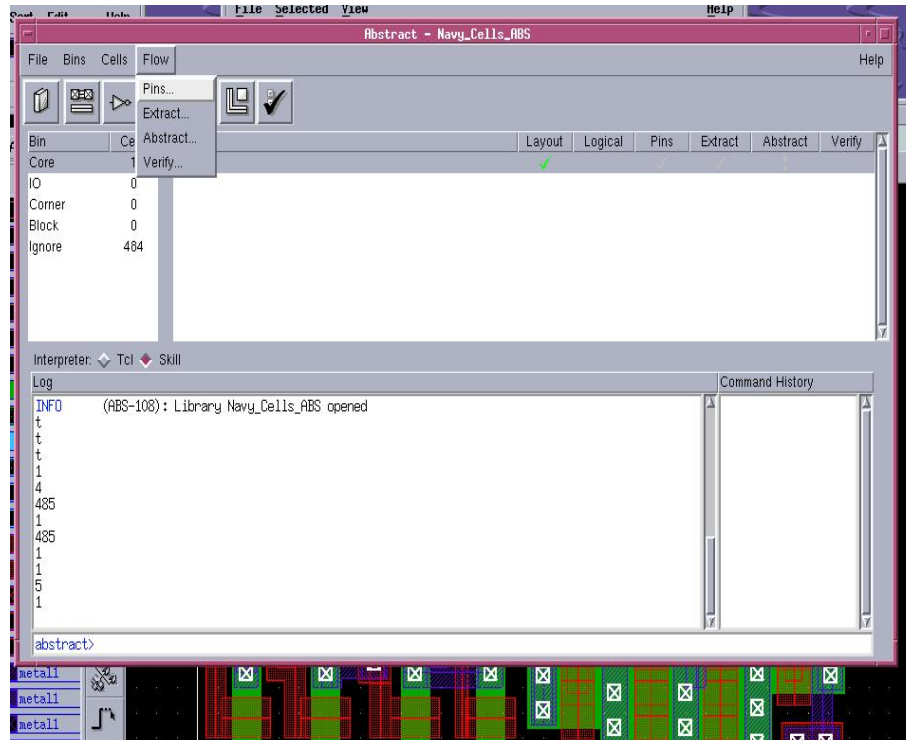
6. If we are doing the abstraction of core cells then we need to put all the cells to be abstracted in *Core* bin. On the Abstract window Go to Cells→ Move,



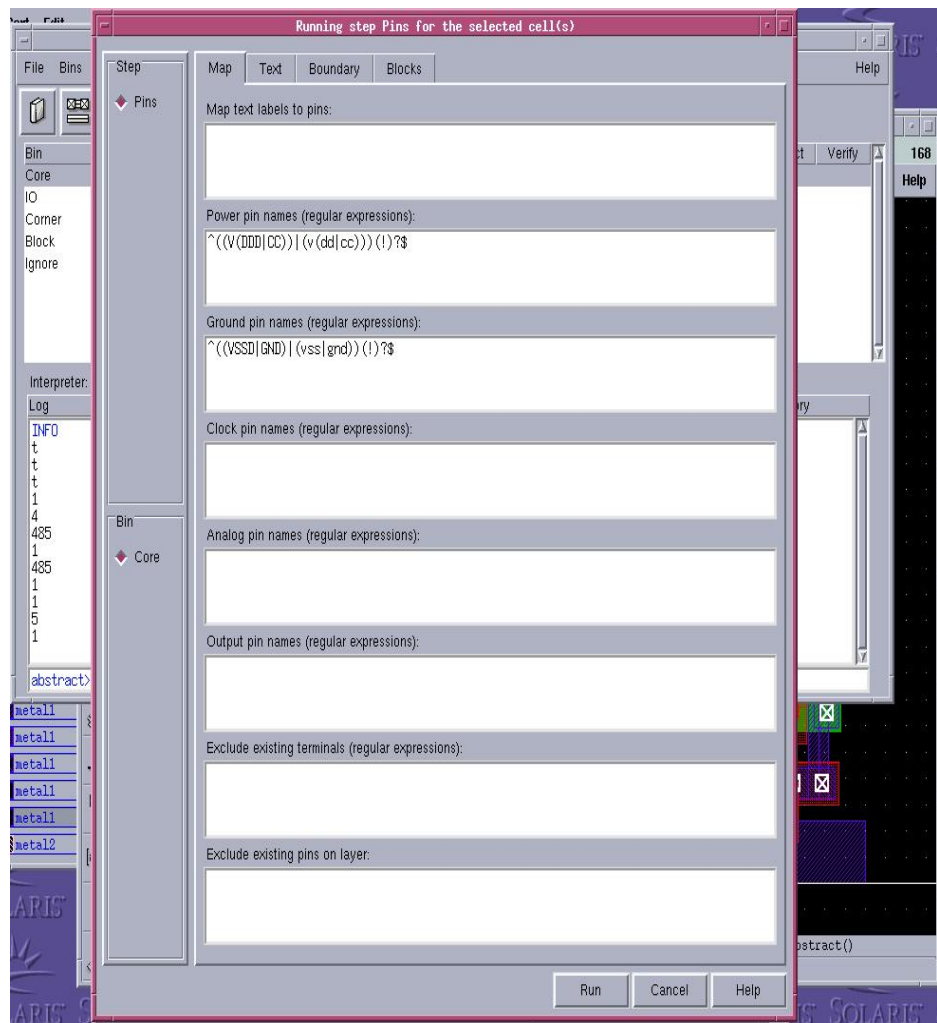
7. a window pops up prompting the user to select the bin where he needs to move the cell. Select *Core*.



8. Select the cell/cells in the core bin and start the steps to generate Abstract view.
9. Choose *Flow* → *Pins*

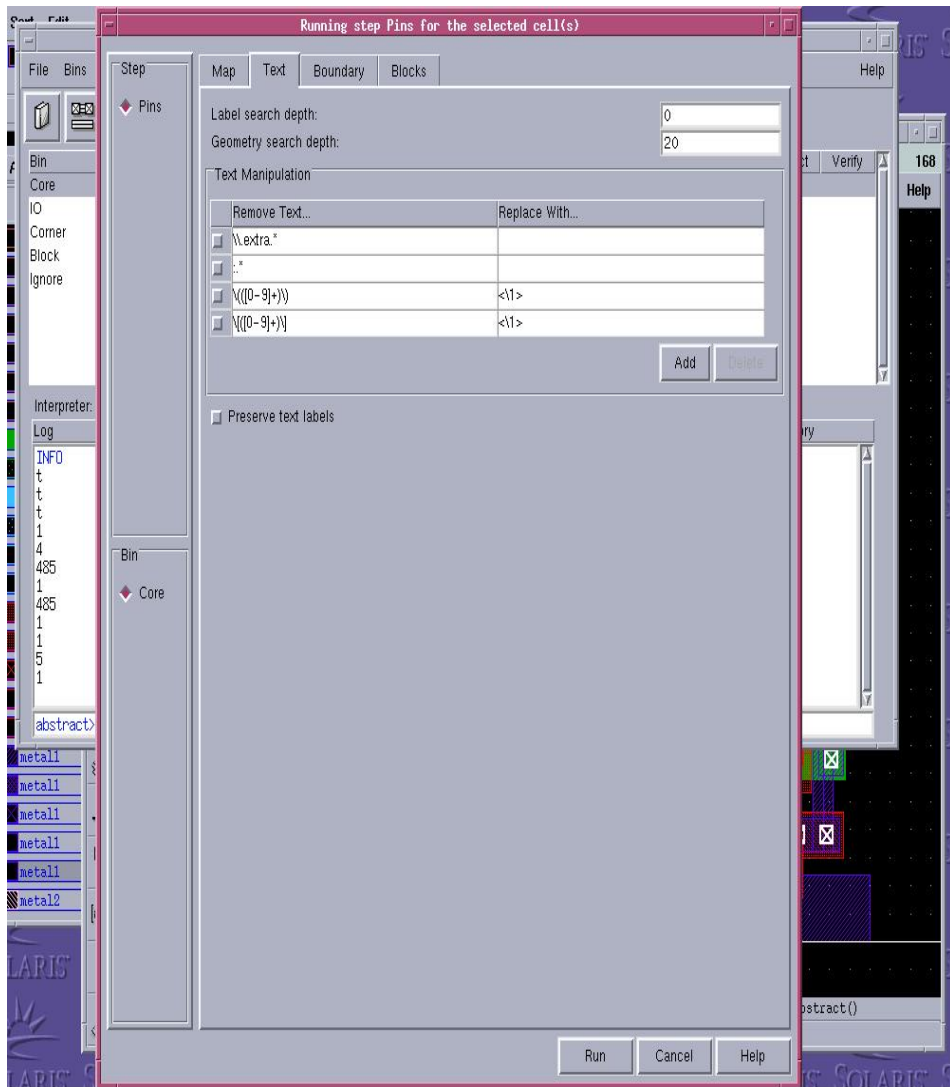


- Choose the *Map* tab, On the *Map* tab you can specify the text labels to be used for creating starting pin shapes for each of the nets to be extracted. You can also specify Pins that are power (VDDD), ground (VSSD), clock, analog or output pins. Unless there are terminals already present one must specify a value in *Map text labels to pins* field to generate a valid pins view. **Note:** - If the field is left empty, the abstract generator automatically assumes a default value for the field before proceeding.



- Choose the *Text* tab.

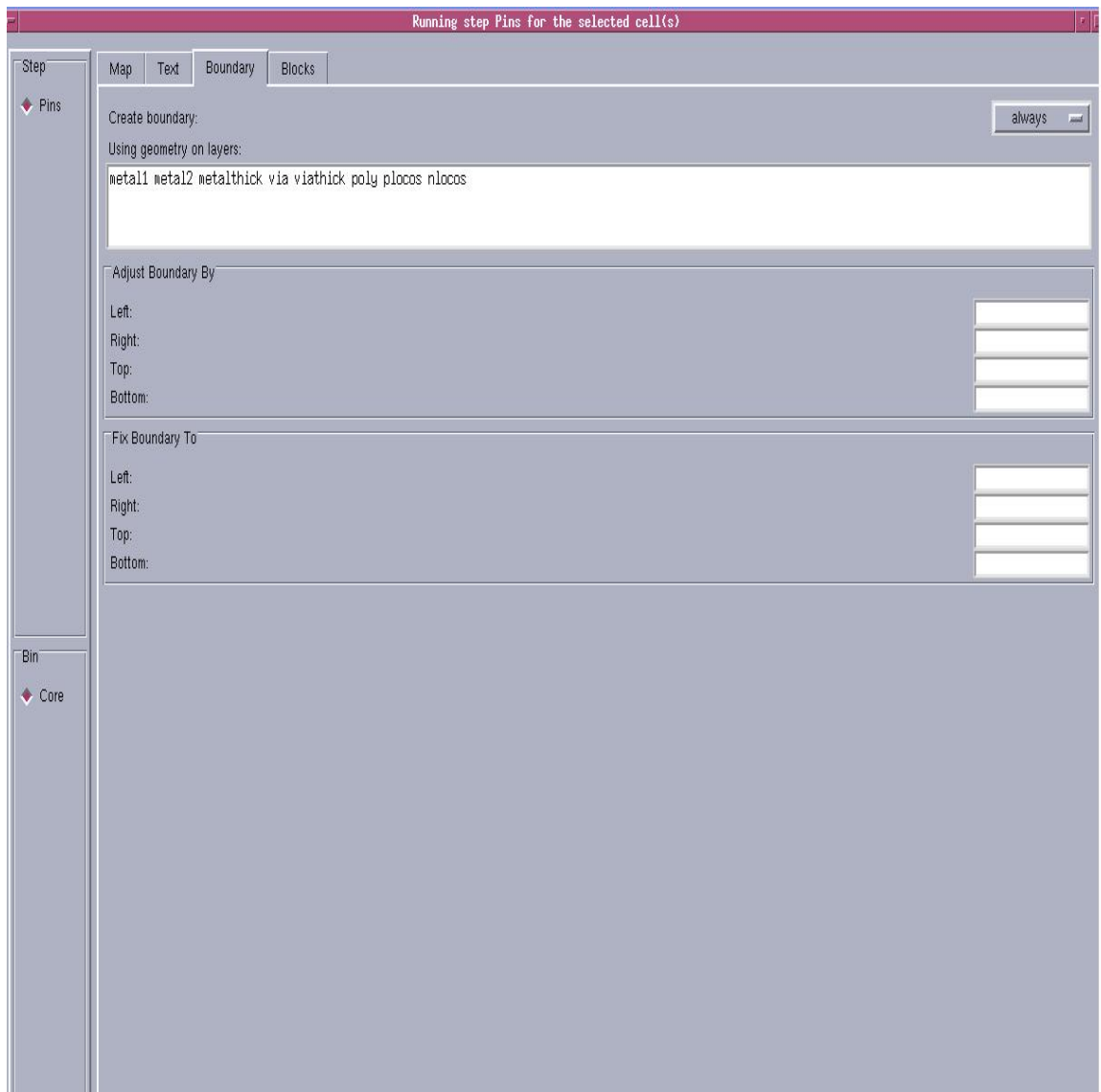
The text tab allows you to change the name of the pins created in the Pins view from the original value in the layout. The field '*Label search depth*' and '*Geometry search depth*' allows you to specify the search depth for labels and geometries. The default values are 0 and 20 respectively. Keep them at default values. By default, the option of preserving the text labels is disabled. If you want the text labels from the layout to be retained in the final abstract then you might consider enabling this option.



- Choose the *Boundary* tab

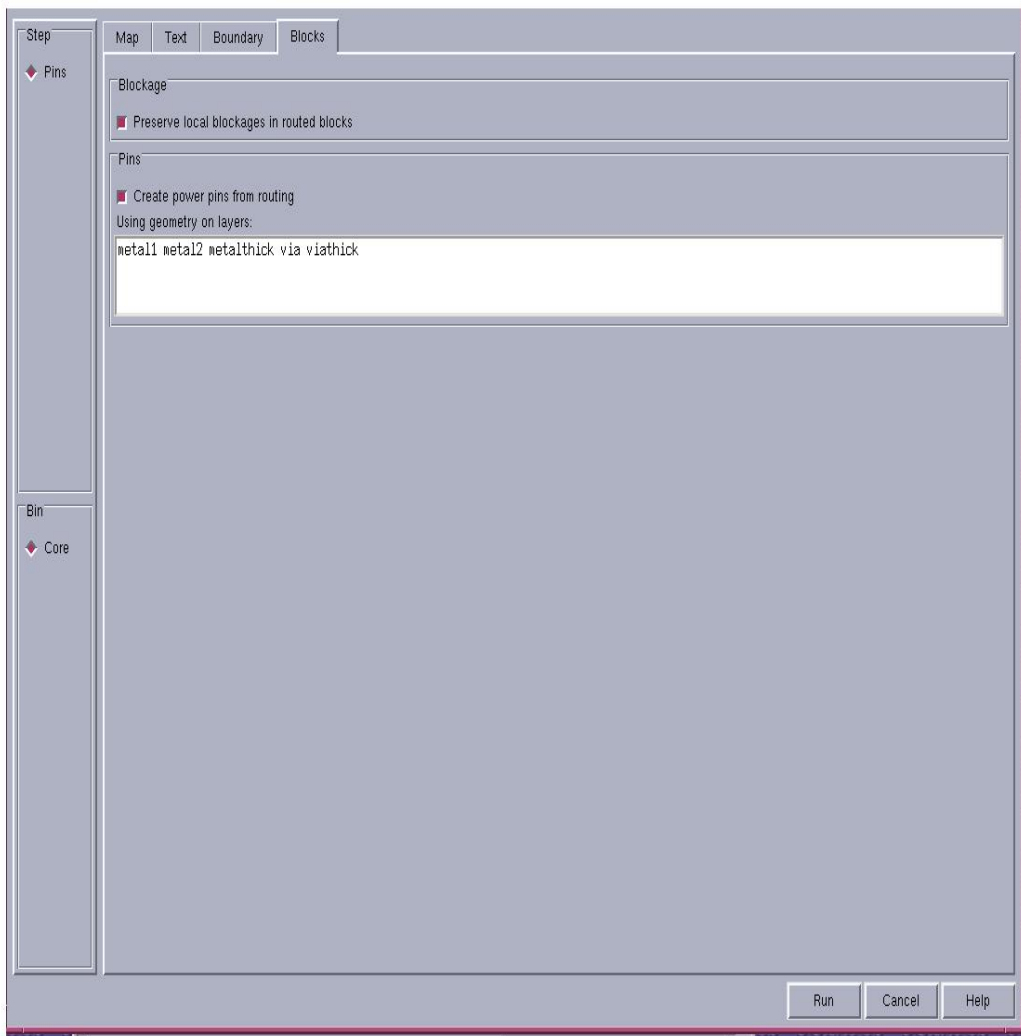
The options in the *Boundary* tab control the calculation of the place-and-route (PR) boundary, which defines the size of a single cell. Specify the creation of the PR Boundary to *always*.

Leave the *Adjust Boundary* and *Fix Boundary* sections empty unless you want to fix individual cell boundary edges. Since we are abstracting all the cells at the same time, fixing a value in *Fix Boundary* or *Adjust Boundary* sections is not recommended.



- Choose the *Blocks* tab

The options on the *Blocks* tab are intended for use with any layout view that has existing routing. Typically it is used for routed blocks, so we don't need this as we are abstracting standard cell layouts. If you are using blocks then you can check *preserve local blockages in routed blocks* and also *enable the create Power Pins from routing* option. Look at the following snapshot.



- Now click *RUN* to run the PIN step. Look for a → '✓' or '!' for a correct running of the step – PIN. Its an error if 'x' shows up.

10. Go to Flow → Extract

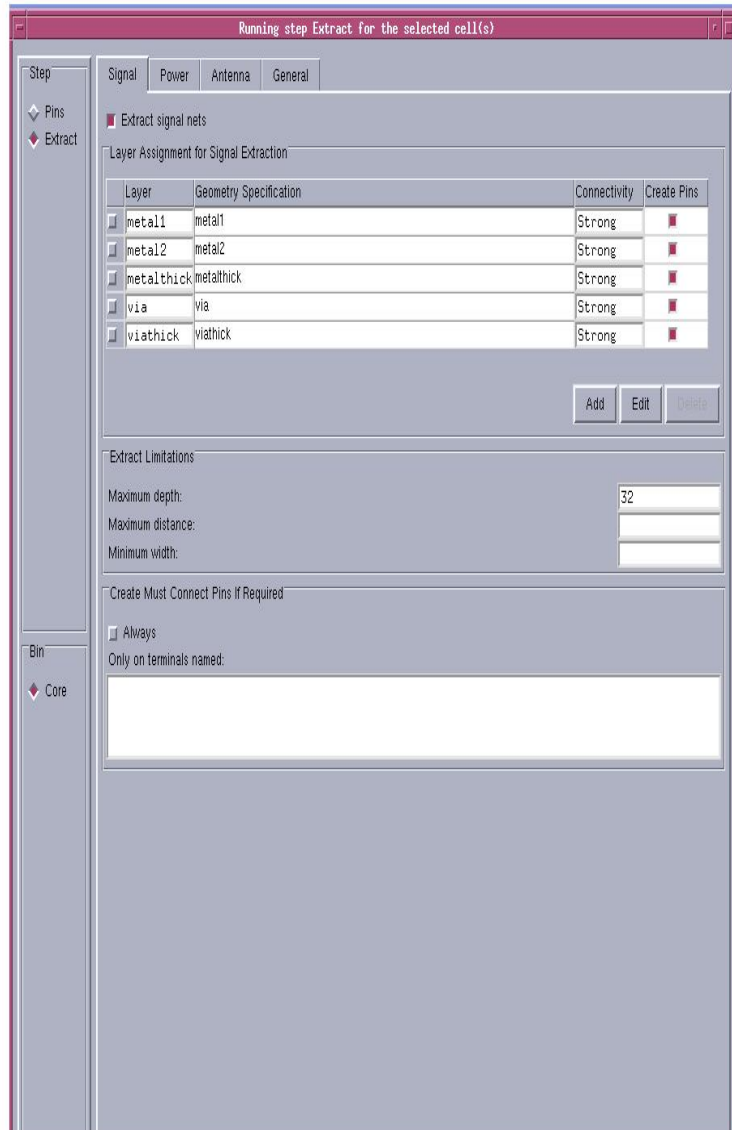
This step extracts each terminal net.

- Choose the *Signal* tab

Check the *Extract signal Option* while abstracting the standard cells and disable it while abstracting IO cells..

The *Signal* tab allows you to view and modify the options for extracting signal nets. You can specify the layers through which you want the abstract generator to extract, the layers on which pins are to be created, the limits of extraction, and the way in which must-connect relationships are to be handled.

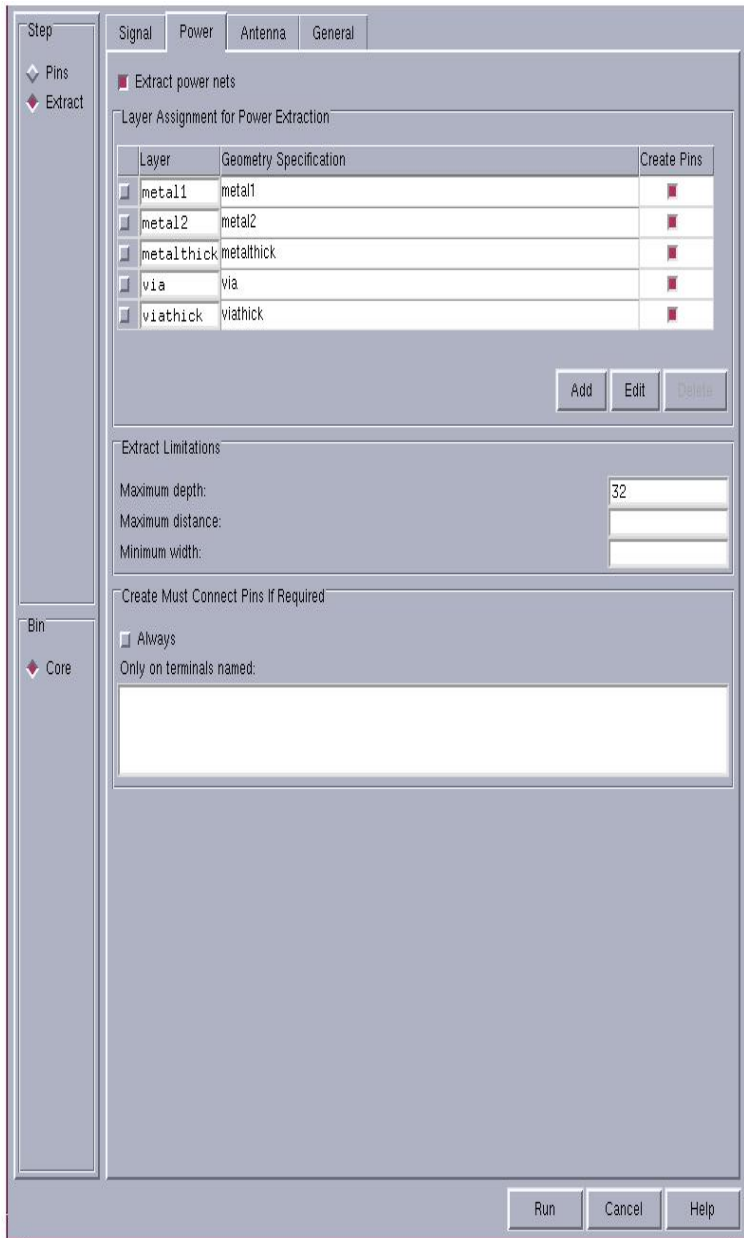
Choose the *Connectivity* to be *Strong* and check the *create Pins* options.



- Select the *Power* Tab

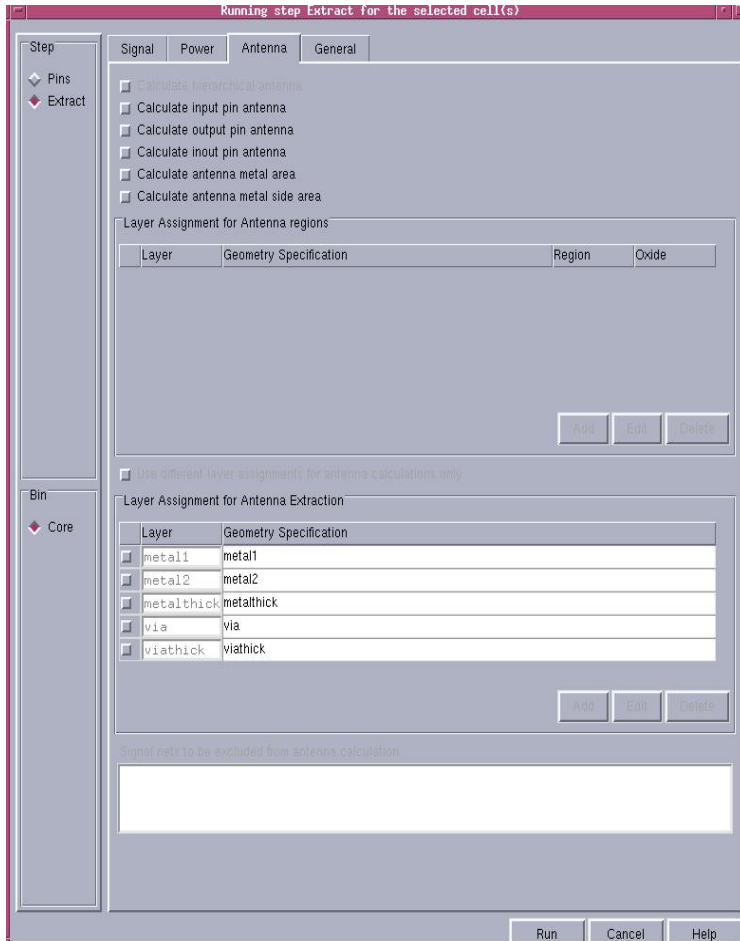
Check the *Extract Power nets* option when abstracting Standard Cells. It is on by default when abstracting standard cells and not for IO cells.

Mention the names of the layers under the *Layer* field and also check the *Create Pins* option.



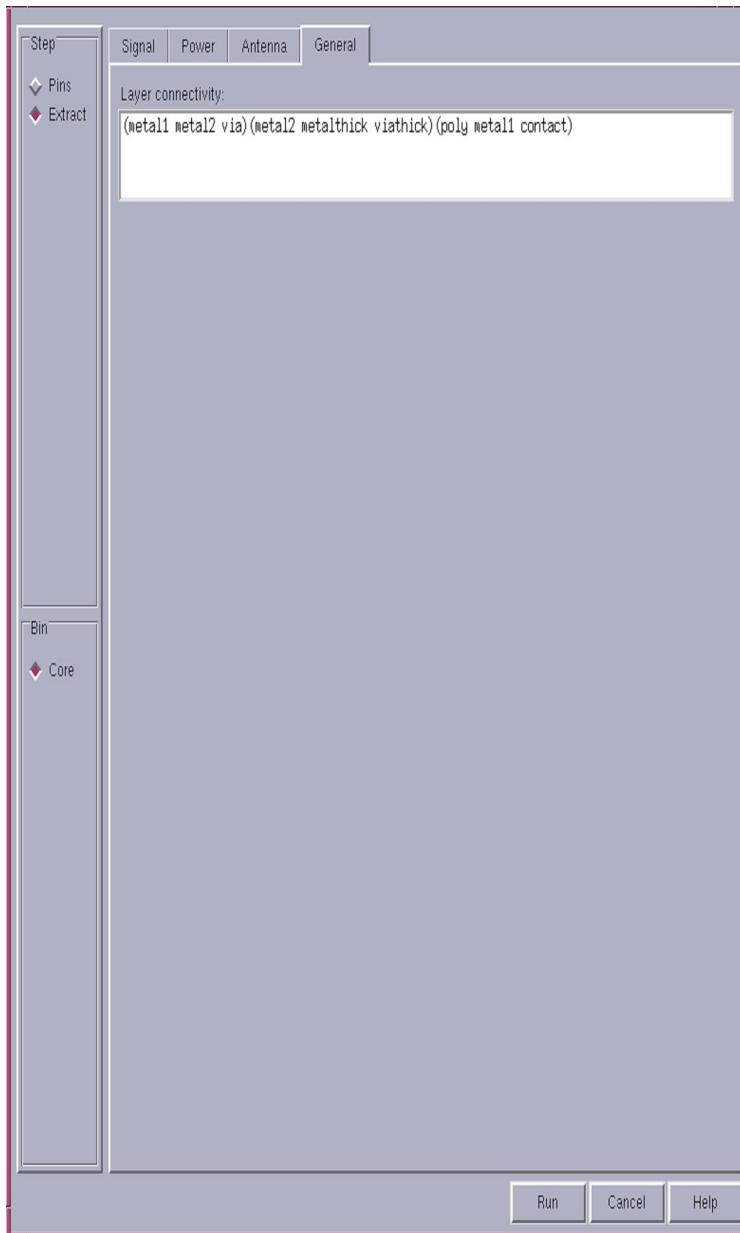
- elect the *Antenna* tab

It is disabled by default and is recommended to be switched off by the Cadence Abstract Generator for standard cells and IO cells.



- Select *General*

The *Layer connectivity* field is used to specify the connectivity between layers. This allows you to specify the layer connectivity without having to add via definitions in the technology file.



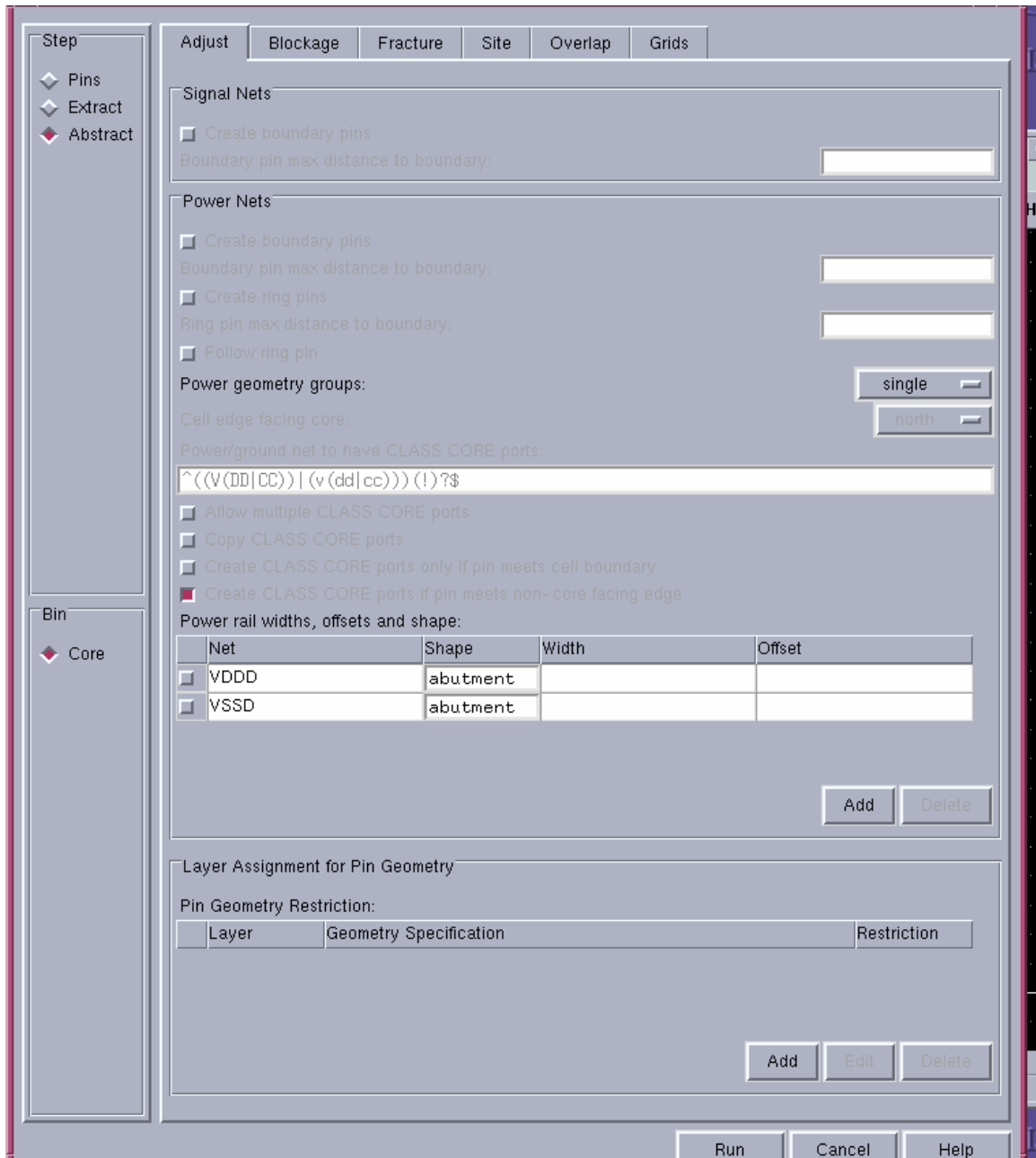
- Now select *Run* tab in the extract window. Look for a → ‘√’ or ‘!’ for a correct running of the step – Extract. Its an error if ‘x’ shows up

11. Go to Flow → Abstract

- Select *Adjust*

In this tab only option available for abstraction in Core bin is to mention the power rail widths, offsets and shape.

The nets VDDD and VSSD are provided with *Shape* field as *abutment*



- Select the *Blockage* tab

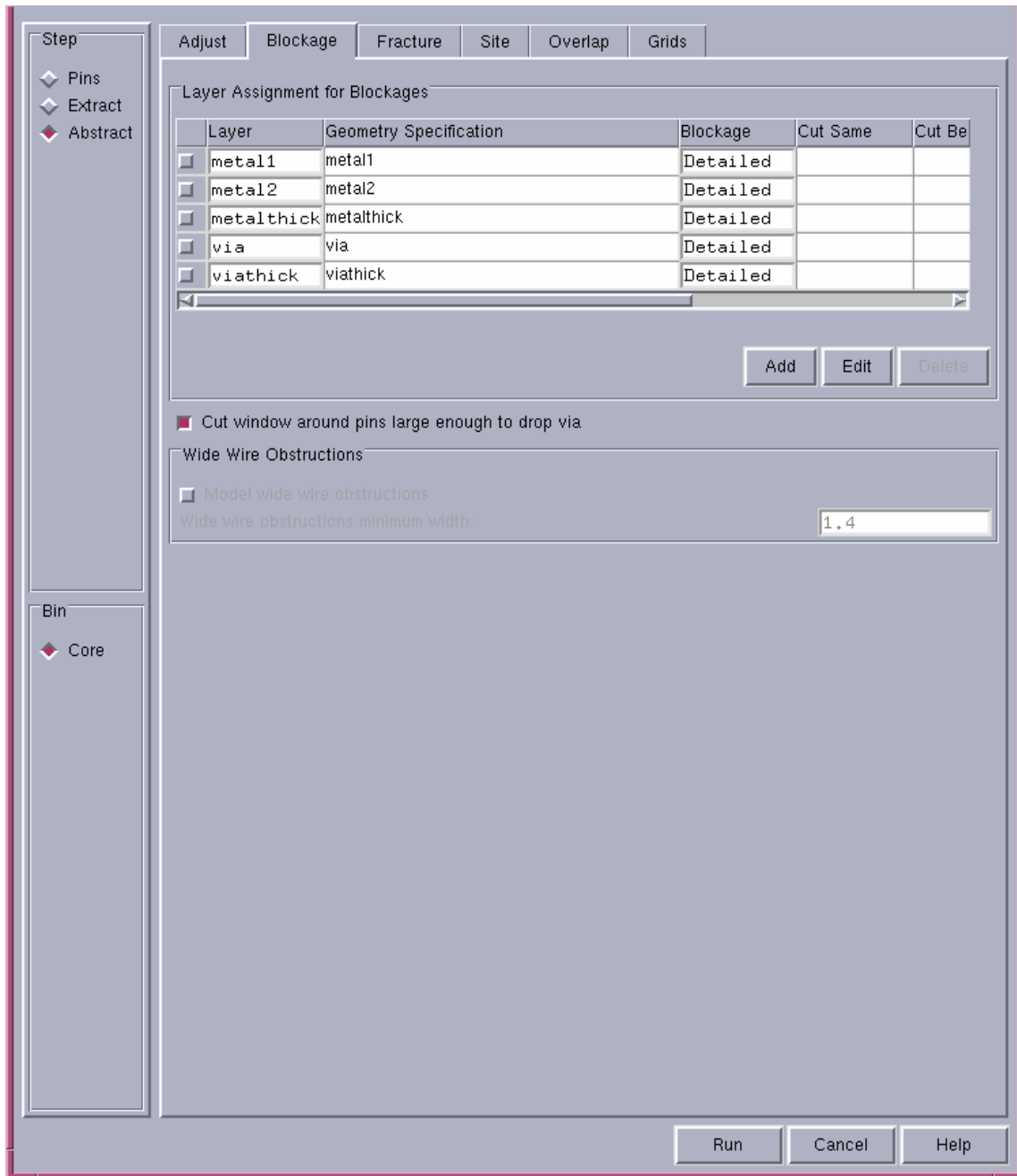
The options on this tab control the final blockage geometry in the abstract view. The *Layer* column prompts the user to enter the layers on which he wants the blockages. Enter the *Geometry Specification* that applies to the blockage model (see the following snapshot) .Choose the type of blockage you want to create on the specified layer: *Cover*, *Detailed*, or *Shrink*. The default is- Detailed for the *Core* bin (standard cells).

A *Cover* blockage blocks the entire area that is not occupied by pin shapes, effectively blocking a layer for routing. Cover blockages are typically used on the metal1 layer for blocks or IO cells where you want to prevent over-the-cell routing in order to improve performance or to avoid electrical effects between tracks.

The *Detailed* blockage model generates blockages only where there are real shapes in the cell on that layer. It is used for standard cells. Using the detailed blockage model can adversely affect the performance of the abstract generator because of the number of individual shapes that need to be processed.

Shrink The *Shrink* blockage model fills in smaller, less useful free spaces and leaves larger spaces in the cell open. This allows over-the-cell routing without modeling each obstruction individually. The *Shrink* blockage model leads to slower abstract generation but significantly faster routing times than the- Detailed blockage model.

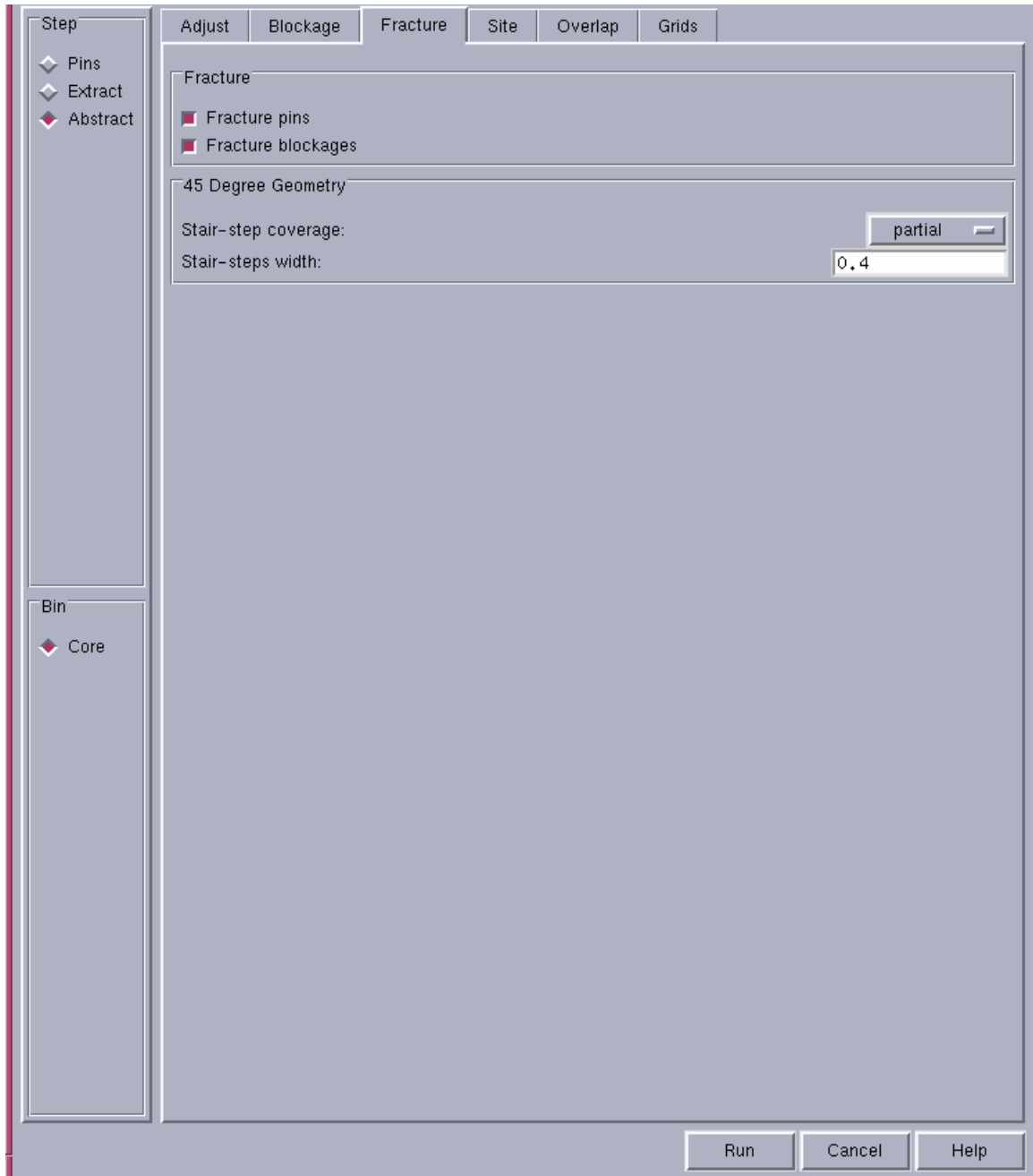
One can use the *Cut window around pins large enough to drop via* option to control the size of the window cut into a blockage around a pin. This option is selected by default. When this option is selected, the abstract generator cuts a window large enough for a via to be dropped to that pin.



- Select Fracture tab

Check the *Fracture Pins* and *Fracture Blockages* option.

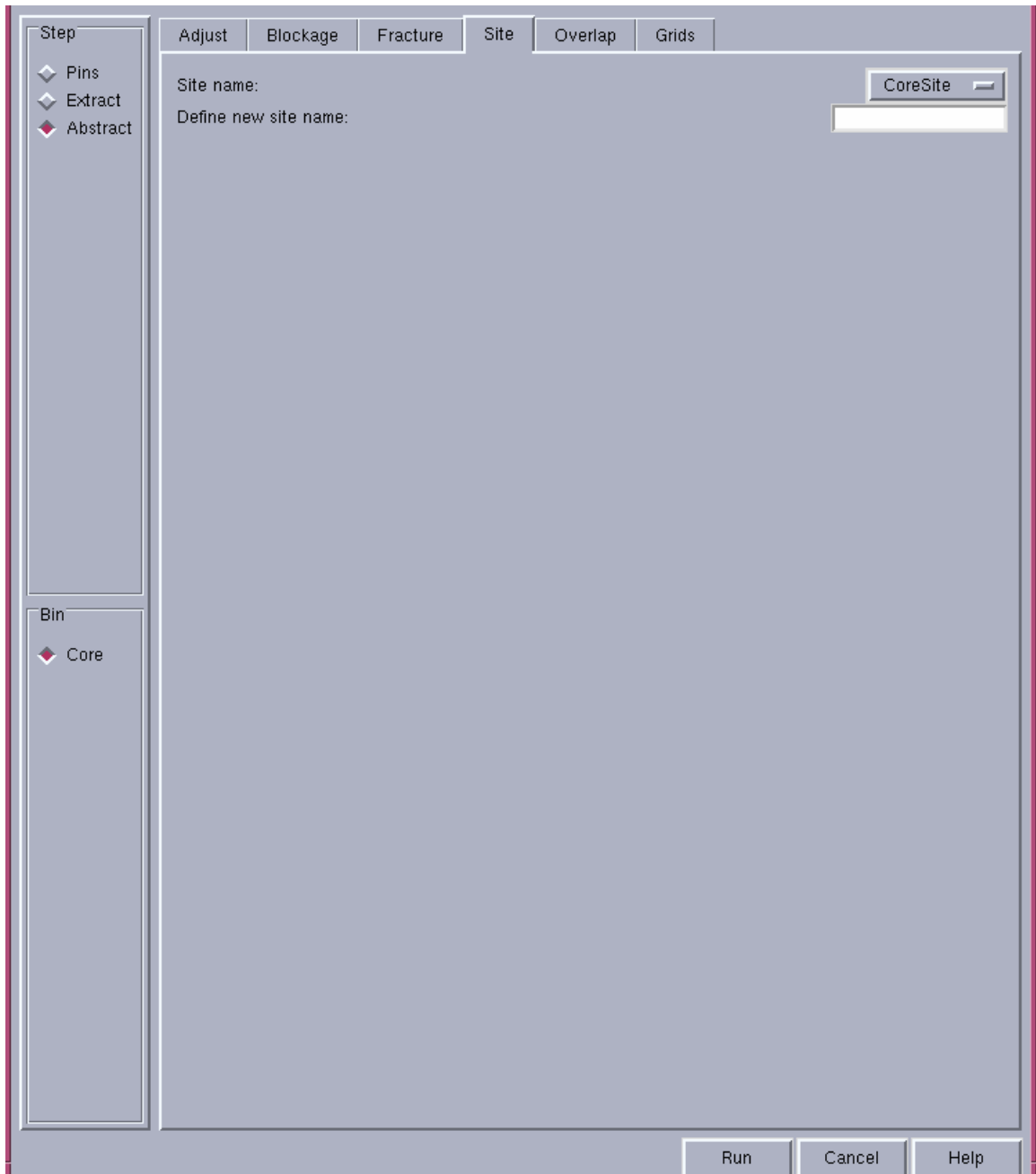
This option controls whether the abstract generator creates each pin / blockage shape as a set of maximum rectangles or as a polygon. This option is available for all bins.



- Select *Site* tab

Sites tell the placer where it can place cells. All cells that are located in a particular bin share a common set of properties: symmetry, class (for example, pad or core), width, and height. These properties are used by the placer to assist in the placement process.

The site name appears based on the bin. User doesn't need to give input unless he wants a different Site name.



- Select *Overlap* tab.

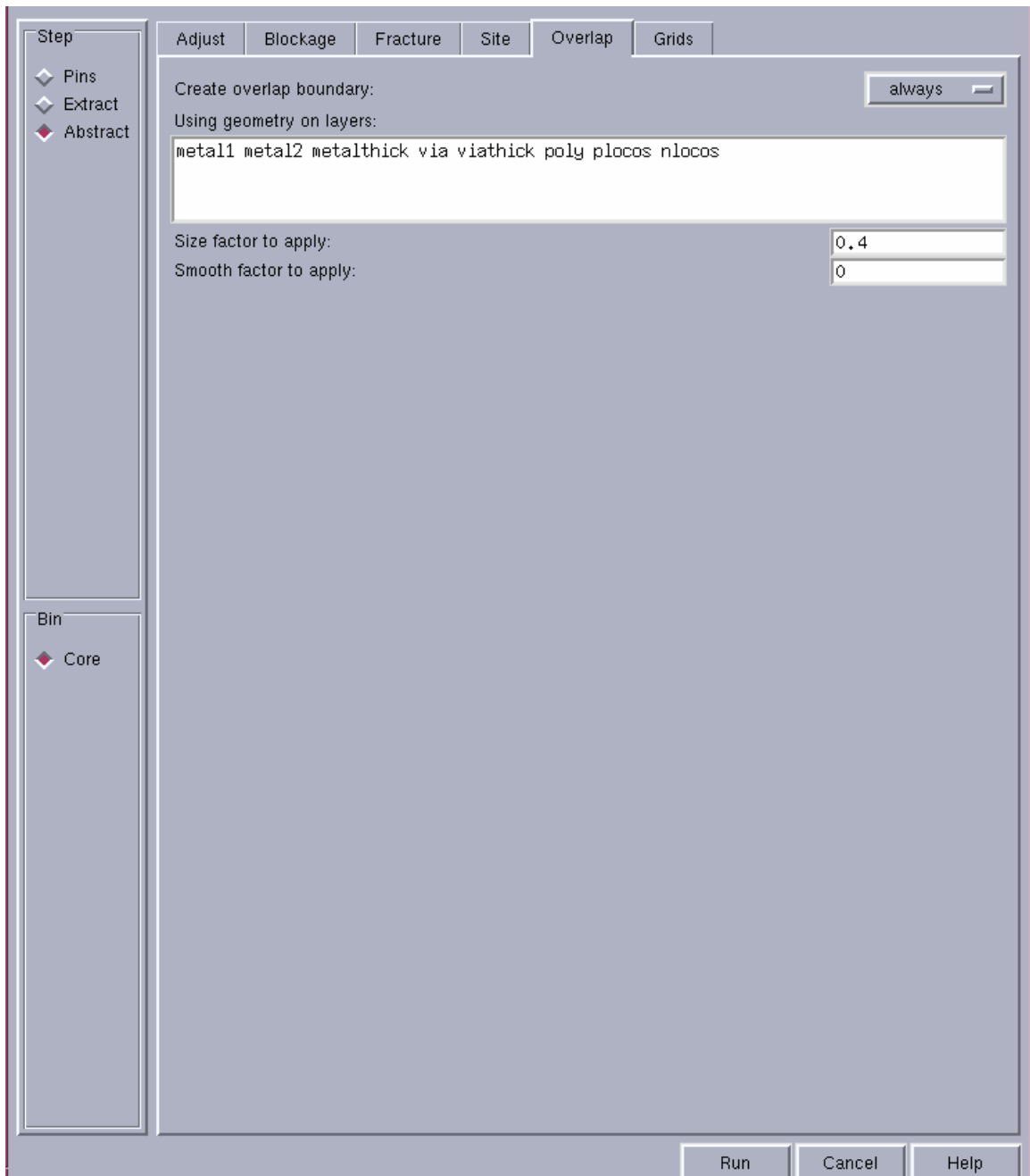
The overlap boundary is a second, more detailed boundary used by placement tools to test whether cells overlap. Unlike the PR boundary,

which is always rectangular, the overlap boundary can be a rectilinear polygon. This helps the placement tools achieve better placement density for certain types of standard cells and rectilinear blocks. The options on this tab control whether the abstract generator is to update the overlap boundary geometry.

Note: The abstract generator can create an overlap boundary only if there is an overlap layer defined in the technology information. If there is no overlap layer present, the abstract generator issues a warning.

You can use the *Create overlap boundary* option to specify whether the abstract generator should create an overlap boundary – *always*, *as needed* or *off*. Select - always.

This option is enabled when the *Create overlap boundary* option is set to *always* or *as needed*. The default values depend on the current bin. The default for the *Core* bin is half the minimum separation defined for the metal1 layer. You can use this option to ensure that the placement of cells with abutting overlap layers does not lead to geometry contained in these cells causing violations. In our case it is 0.4.

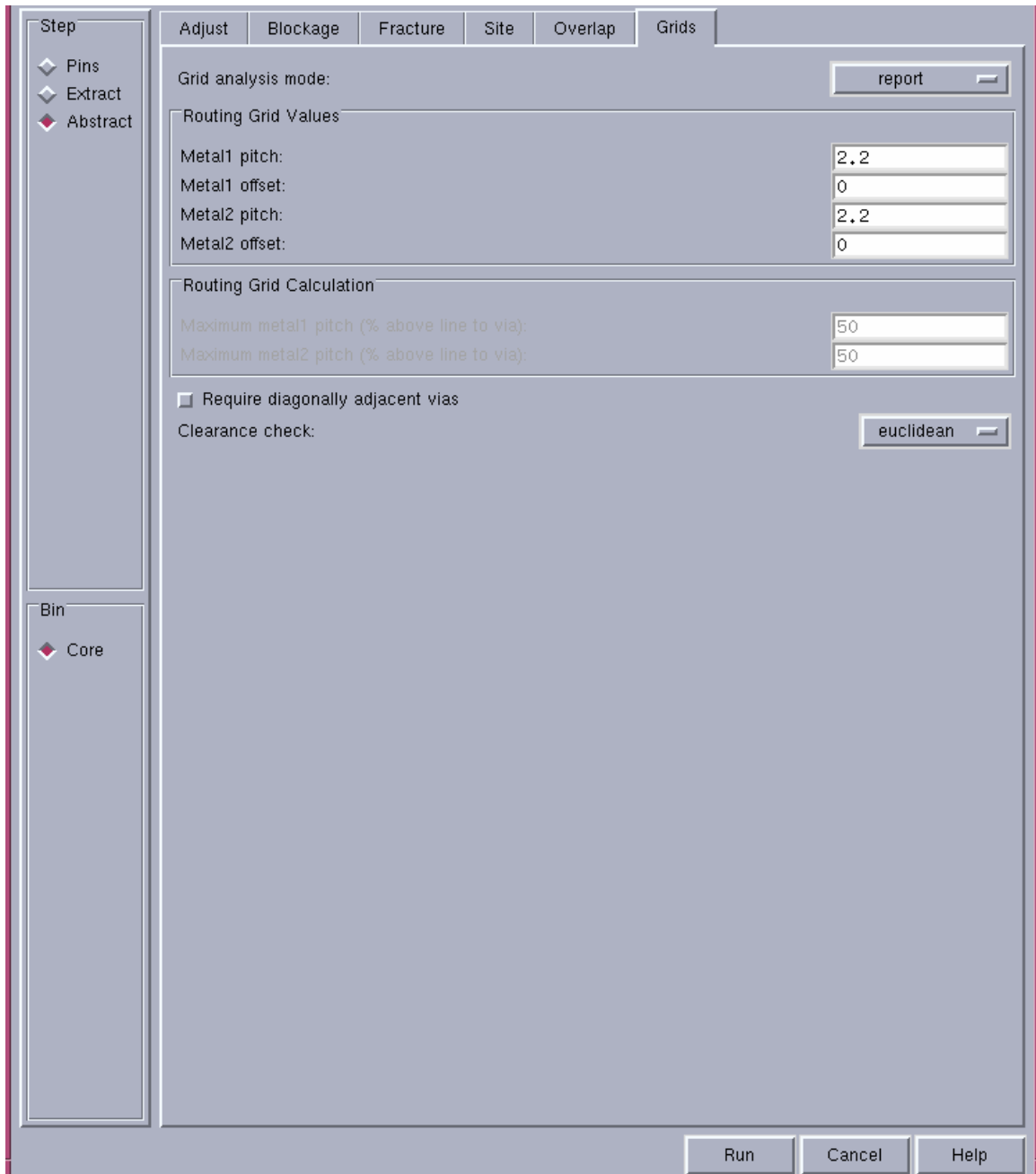


- Select *Grids* tab

The options on this tab control the grid analysis function that calculates the best metal1 and metal2 routing grid pitches and offsets for the user's standard cells.

Grid analysis is intended for use with standard cell *Core* bins for which the default mode is *report*. For all other bins, the default is *off*, that is, no grid reporting or calculation is done.

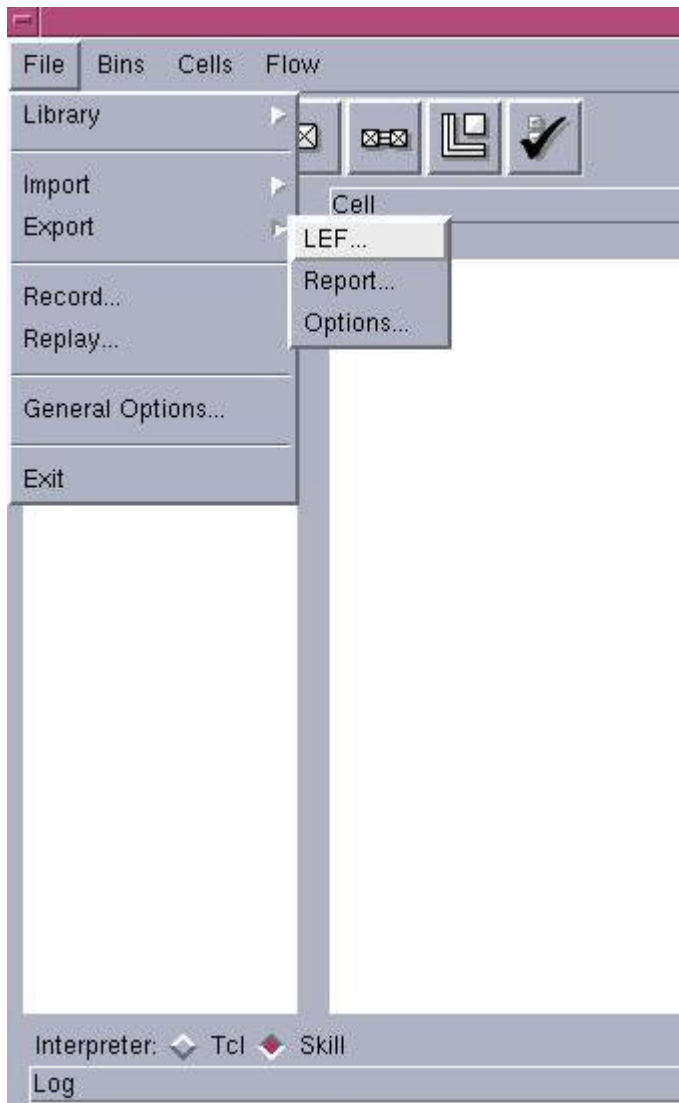
The four pitch and offset fields in the *Routing Grid Values* section on the *Grids* tab show the current routing grid values. See the values in the snapshot for our library. If the pitch mentioned by user is not in coherence with the cell height and width, the abstract generator issues the warning regarding a possibility of inefficient routing.



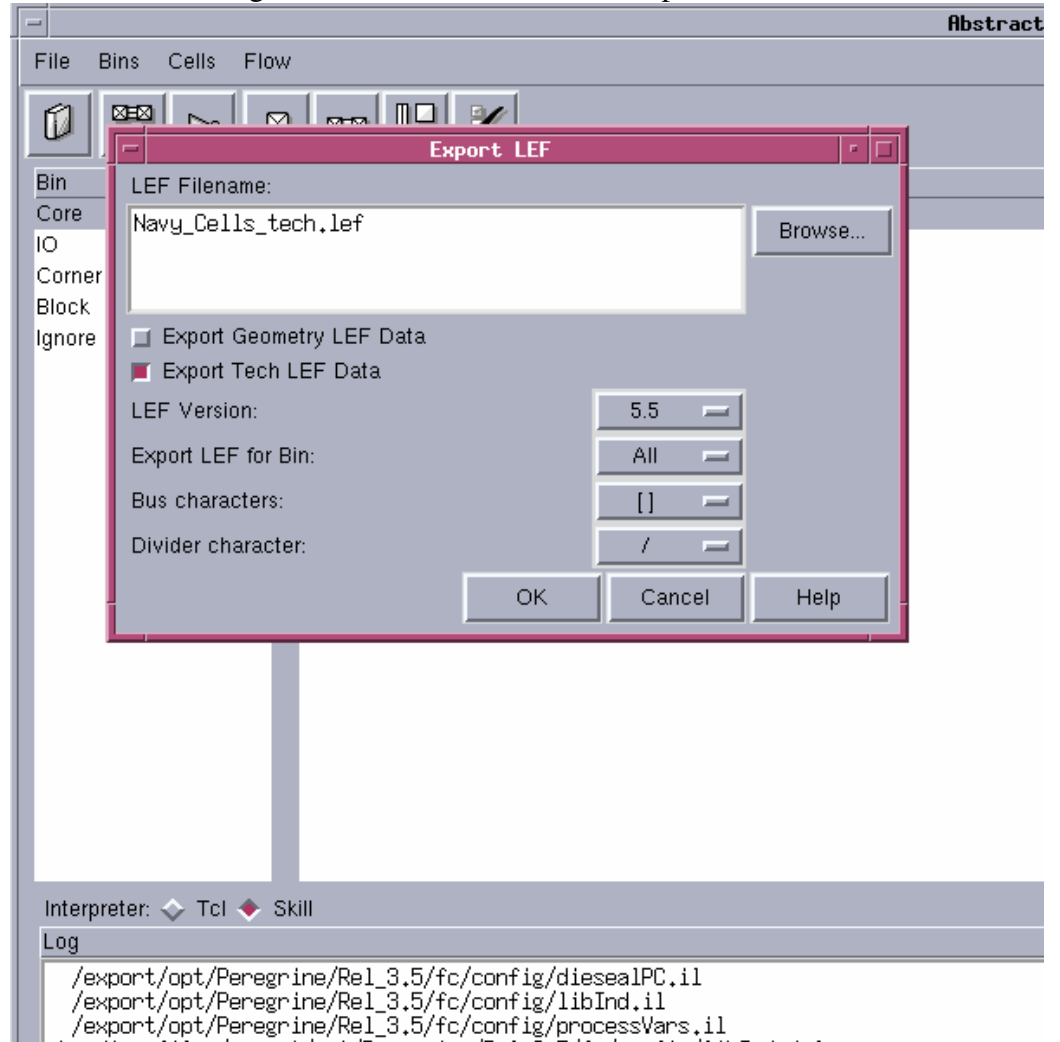
- Select *Run* on the *Abstract* window to run the Abstract step.

Look for a → ‘√’ or ‘!’ for a correct running of the step –Abstract. It is an error if ‘x’ shows up.

12. Go to File → Export → LEF



- Select LEF → give a name to LEF file to be exported and click OK.



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VITA

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FOR MILITARY STANDARD TEMPERATURES

Pages in Study: 136

Candidate for the Degree of Master of Science

Major Field: Electrical Engineering

Scope and Method of Study:

The scope of this research work is to develop digital standard cell and I/O cell libraries operable at 5V power supply and operable up to 125°C using Peregrine 0.5um 3.3 V process. Device geometries are selected based on Ion/Ioff ratios at 125°C. The cell schematic, layout and abstracted views are generated for both the libraries. The Standard cell and I/O libraries are characterized for timing and power and the characterization data is realized in various formats compatible with logic synthesis and place and route tools. The pads have been tested for robustness to ESD. A tutorial on abstraction of standard cells and IO cells is prepared using the Cadence Abstract Generator.

Findings and Conclusions:

Three input pad test structures were designed and fabricated on a test chip, with different lengths (1.4um, 1.5um, 1.6um) of NMOS clamp transistor to test the robustness of the pads to ESD for a Human Body Model at 27°C and 125°C. Measured Data shows the robustness of the pads to ESD peak voltages of 1200V at 125°C and up to 1300V at 27°C. A test chip for delay chain with single input and multiple input combinatorial gates was designed and fabricated as part of validation on silicon. Measured data shows a shift across temperatures relative to the simulation for fast process suggesting the inaccuracy in model files used for simulation.

ADVISER'S APPROVAL: Dr. Chris Hutchens
