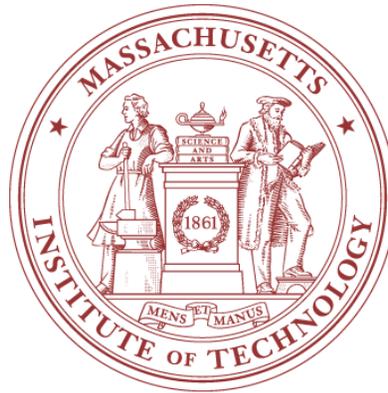


# Application Specific Integrated Circuit Design

---

## Lecture 5

Vladimir Stojanović

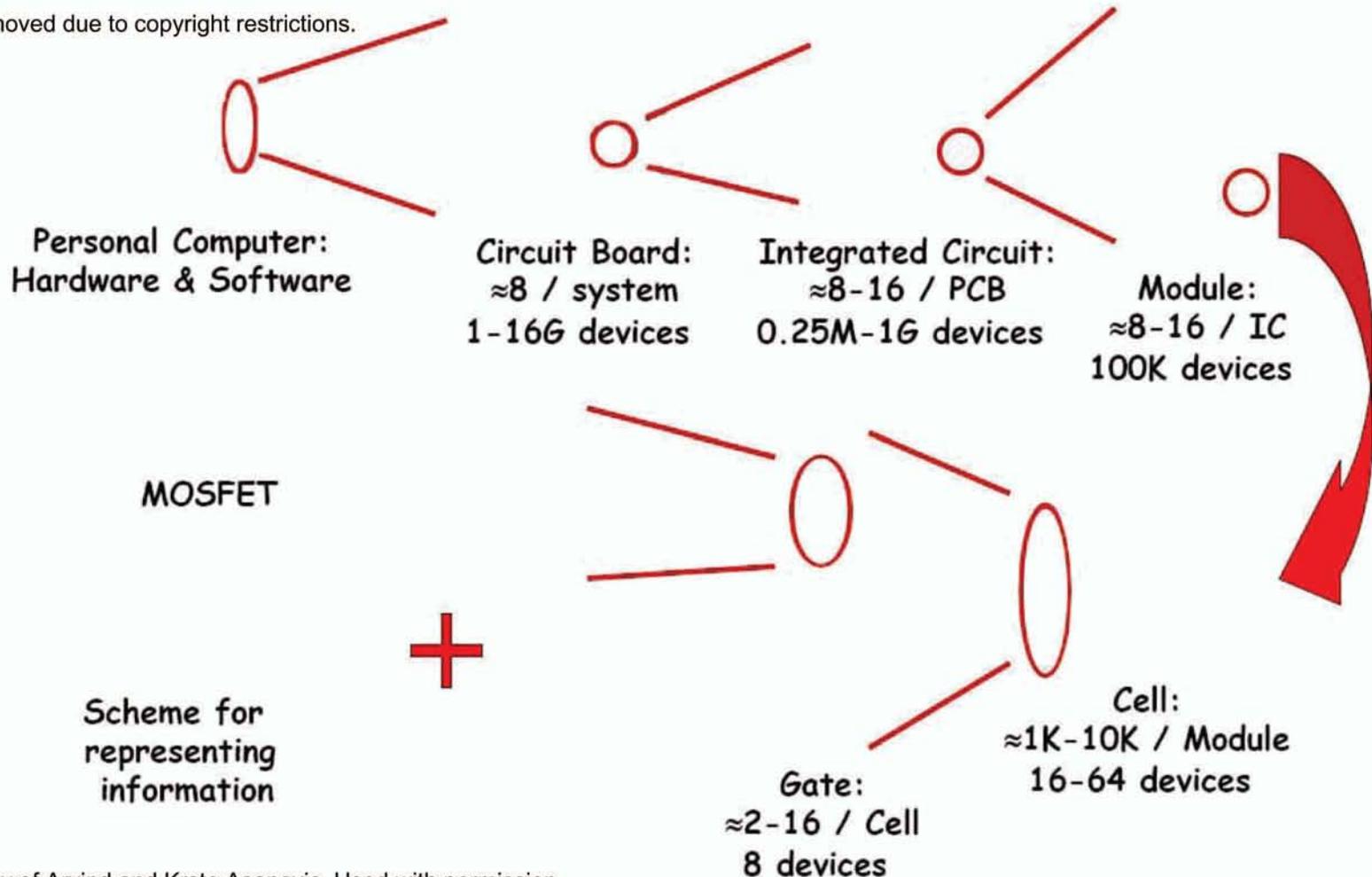


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Massachusetts Institute of Technology

# Modern digital systems engineering

## Managing complexity and connectivity

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# Chip design styles

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- ❑ Full-custom
  - Transistors are hand-drawn
  - Best performance (although almost extinct)
    - Alpha processors, older Intel processors
  - Recent processors are semi-custom (Sun, AMD, Intel)
- ❑ Standard-Cell-based ASICs
  - Only use standard cells from the library
  - Dominant design style for non-processor, comms and multimedia ASICs
  - This is what we will use in 6.973 (also used in 6.375)
- ❑ Cheaper alternatives (for small volumes)
  - Sea of Gates (mask-programmable gate arrays)
  - Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGA)
    - On-the fly reconfigurable interconnect
- ❑ Flexibility vs. cost
  - Tighter control over transistors increases design cost
    - Can make faster designs but harder to verify and more expensive

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# Modern Application-Specific IC (ASIC)

---

- Multiple functional blocks
  - Put together at the top level
    - Makes a WLAN chip
  - Lots of modeling
    - Behavioral level
    - Architecture/functional level
  - Different teams on each block
    - Need to make sure things work
      - When connected
  - Many levels of hierarchy
    - Lots of iteration and reuse

Our ASIC example:  
802.11a PHY

Image removed due to copyright restrictions.

- Many architectural choices

- Use lots of implementation tricks
  - Micro-architecture and algorithmic transforms
  - Straightforward solutions many times the chip size

[Thompson02]

- Sophisticated CAD tools to architect and verify 4M design

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# Macro modules

---

**256×32 (or 8192 bit) SRAM Generated by hard-macro module generator**

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- **Generate highly regular structures (entire memories, multipliers, etc.) with a few lines of code**
- **Verilog models for memories automatically generated based on size**
- **Example – chip-in-a-day flow (B. Brodersen, UC Berkely)**
  - A bunch of macros pre-generated (multipliers, adders, memories)
  - Easy to do comm system design

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# Gate Arrays

---

Can cut mask costs by prefabricating arrays of transistors on wafers

Only customize metal layer for each design

- Fixed-size unit transistors
- Metal connections personalize design

Two kinds:

- **Channeled Gate Arrays**
  - Leave space between rows of transistors for routing
- **Sea-of-Gates**
  - Route over the top of unused transistors

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[ OCEAN Sea-of-Gates Base Pattern

1

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# Gate Array Pros and Cons

---

**Cheaper and quicker since less masks to make**

- Can stockpile wafers with diffusion and poly finished

**Memory inefficient when made from gate array**

- Embedded gate arrays add multiple fixed memory blocks to improve density (= > Structured ASICs)
- Cell-based array designed to provide efficient memory cell (6 transistors in basic cell)

**Logic slow and big due to fixed transistors and wiring overhead**

- Advanced cell-based arrays hardwire logic functions (NANDs/NORs/LUTs) which are personalized with metal

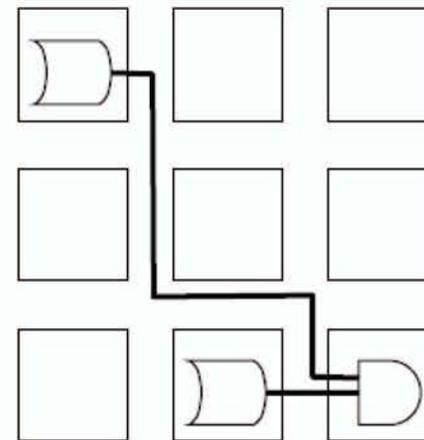
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# Field-Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGA)

- Each cell in array contains a programmable logic function
- Array has programmable interconnect between logic functions
- Arrays mass-produced and programmed by customer after fabrication
  - Can be programmed by blowing fuses, loading SRAM bits, or loading FLASH memory
- Overhead of programmability makes arrays expensive and slow but startup costs are low, so much cheaper than ASIC for small volumes

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## Virtex4 FPGA

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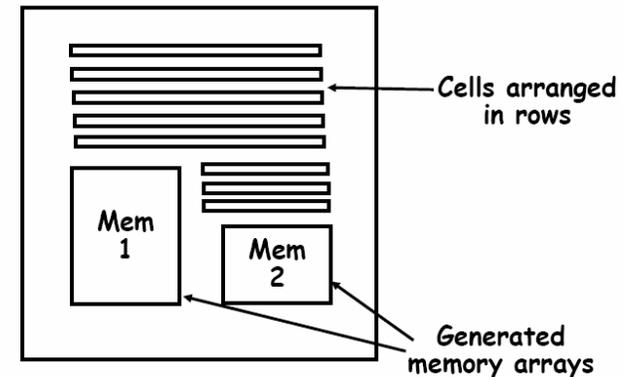
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# Standard cell ASICs

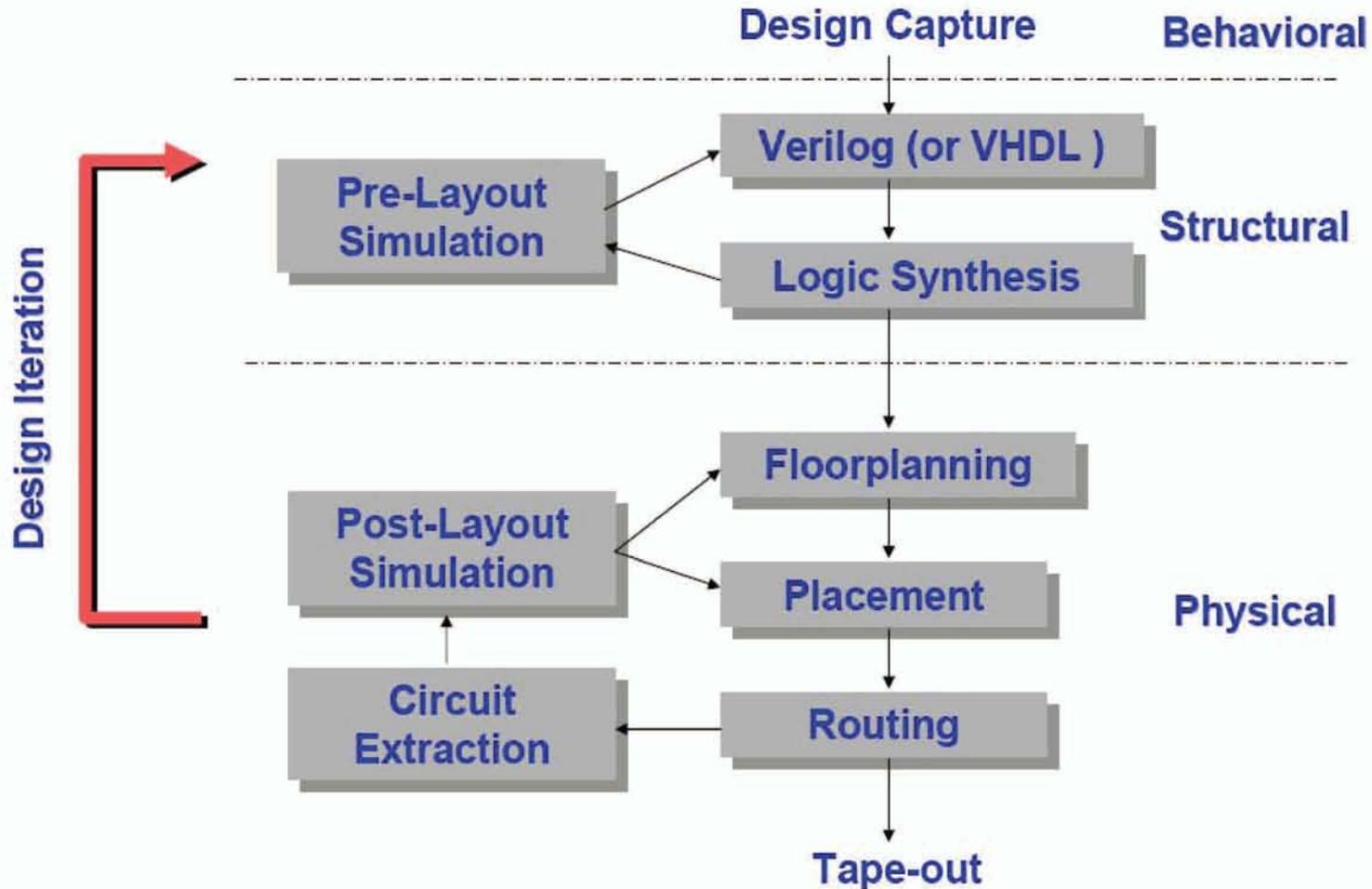
- ❑ Also called Cell-Based ICs (CBICs)
- ❑ Fixed library of cells
  - Memory generators
- ❑ Design
  - Cells synthesized from hardware descriptive language (Verilog, VHDL)
  - Cells manually entered in a schematics
  - Placed and routed automatically (most desirable)
- ❑ Full set of masks for productions
  - Most popular today, but increasingly expensive due to mask costs in advanced technologies
  - Currently a mask set is a couple \$M
    - FPGAs are getting increased attention
- ❑ We will use this approach



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# The ASIC flow



**Most Common Design Approach for Designs up to 500Mhz  
Clock Rates**

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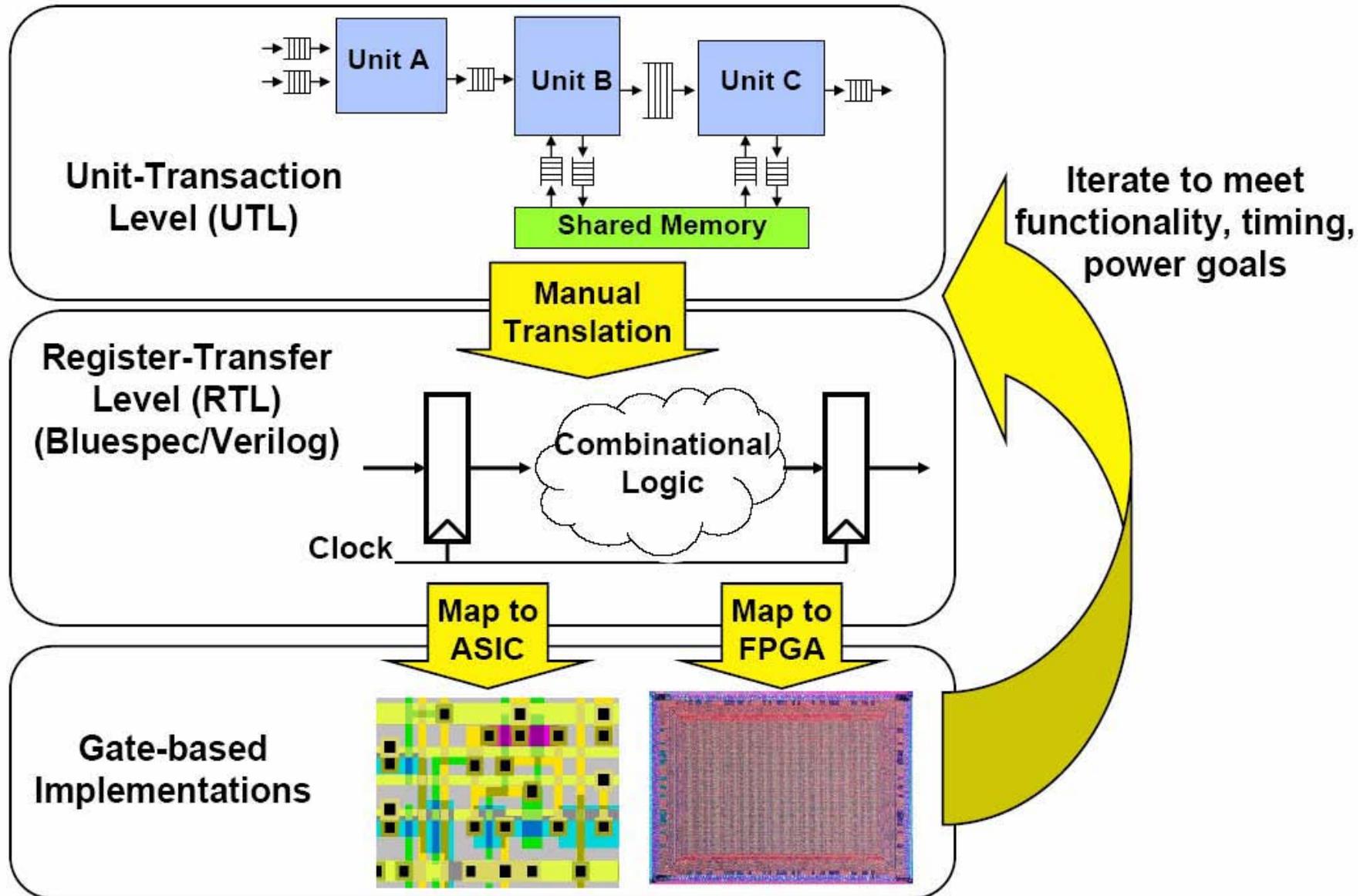
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# ASIC flow subset – 6.375 and 6.973



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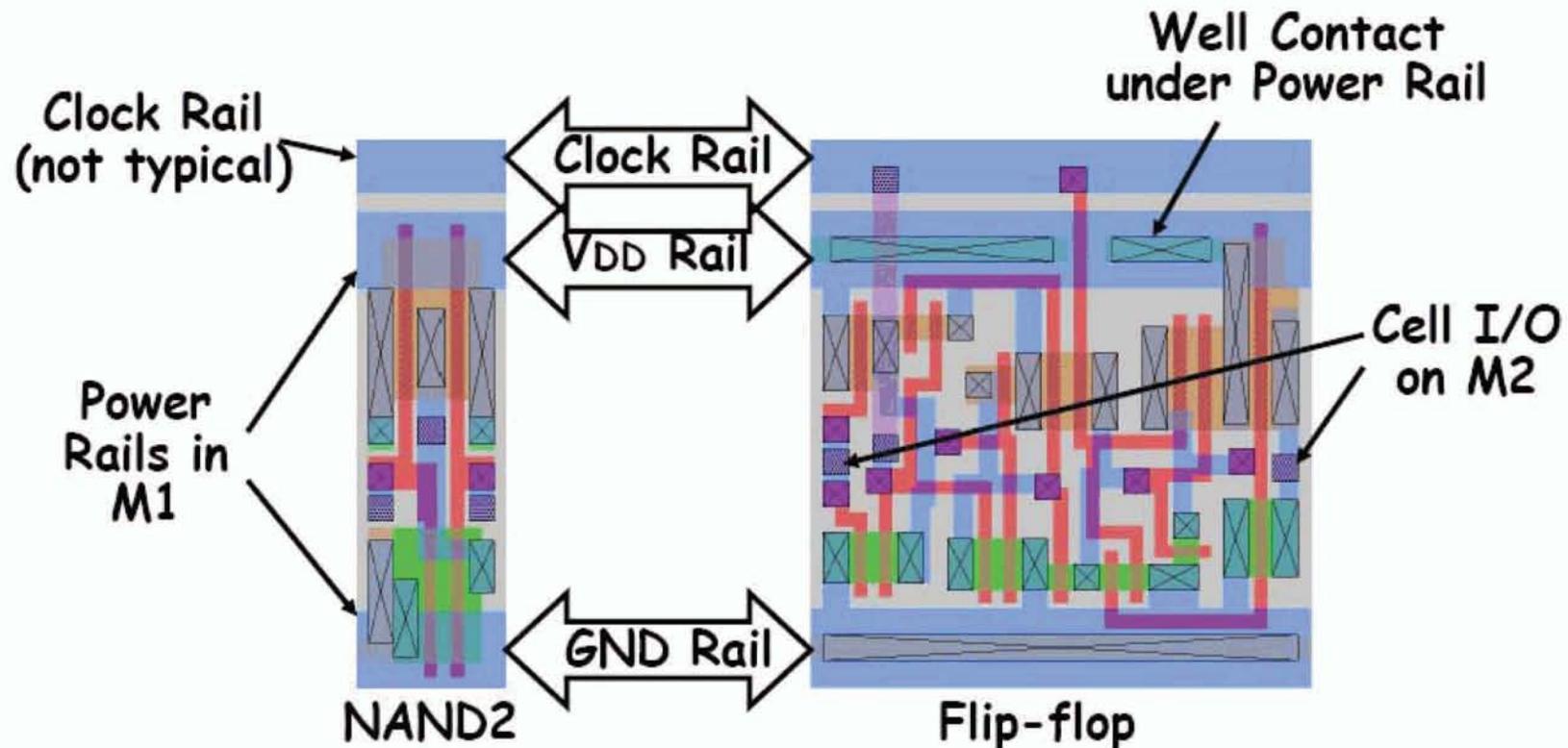
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# Standard cell design

## □ Layout considerations

Cells have standard height but vary in width

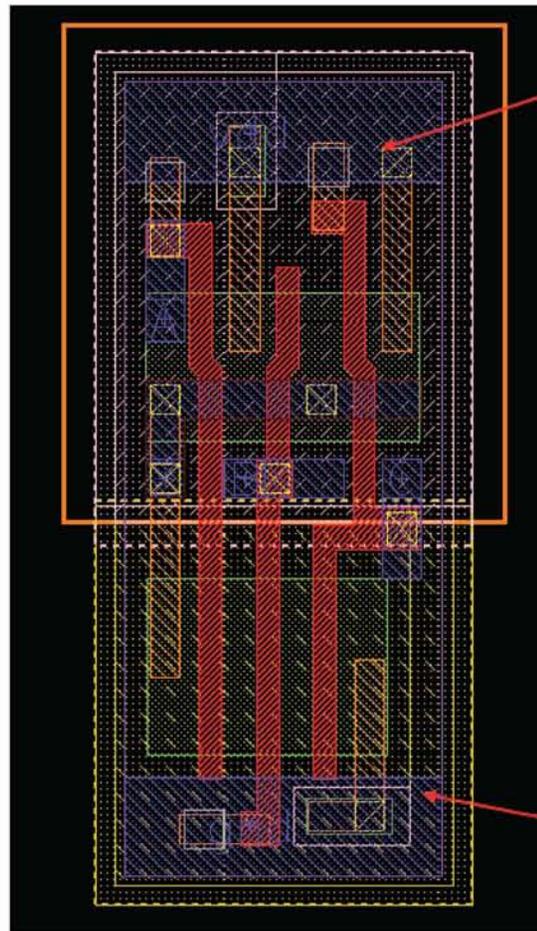
Designed to connect power, ground, and wells by abutment



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# Standard cell characterization



Power Supply Line ( $V_{DD}$ ) Delay in (ns)!!

Path	1.2V - 125°C	1.6V - 40°C
$In1-t_{pLH}$	$0.073+7.98C+0.317T$	$0.020+2.73C+0.253T$
$In1-t_{pHL}$	$0.069+8.43C+0.364T$	$0.018+2.14C+0.292T$
$In2-t_{pLH}$	$0.101+7.97C+0.318T$	$0.026+2.38C+0.255T$
$In2-t_{pHL}$	$0.097+8.42C+0.325T$	$0.023+2.14C+0.269T$
$In3-t_{pLH}$	$0.120+8.00C+0.318T$	$0.031+2.37C+0.258T$
$In3-t_{pHL}$	$0.110+8.41C+0.280T$	$0.027+2.15C+0.223T$

3-input NAND cell  
(from ST Microelectronics):  
C = Load capacitance  
T = input rise/fall time

Ground Supply Line (GND)

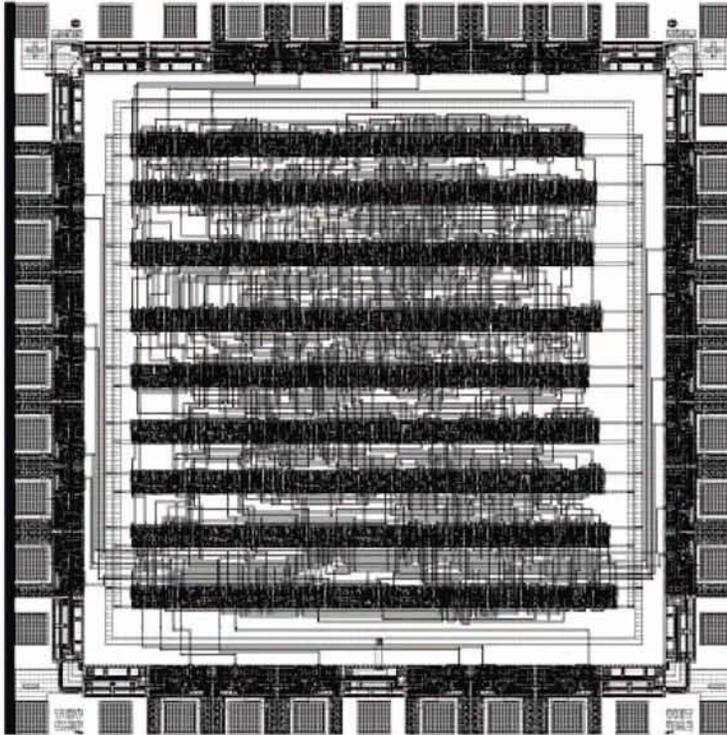
- Each library cell (FF, NAND, NOR, INV, etc.) and the variations on size (strength of the gate) is fully characterized across temperature, loading, etc.

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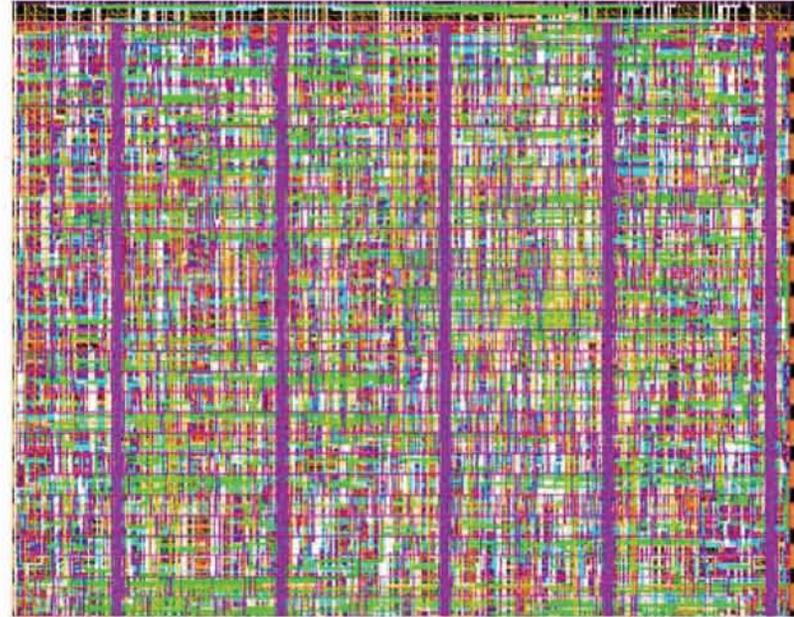
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# Standard cell layout methodology

## 2-level metal technology



## Current Day Technology



*Cell-structure hidden under interconnect layers*

- With limited interconnect layers, dedicated routing channels between rows of standard cells are needed
- Width of the cell allowed to vary to accommodate complexity
- Interconnect plays a significant role in speed of a digital circuit

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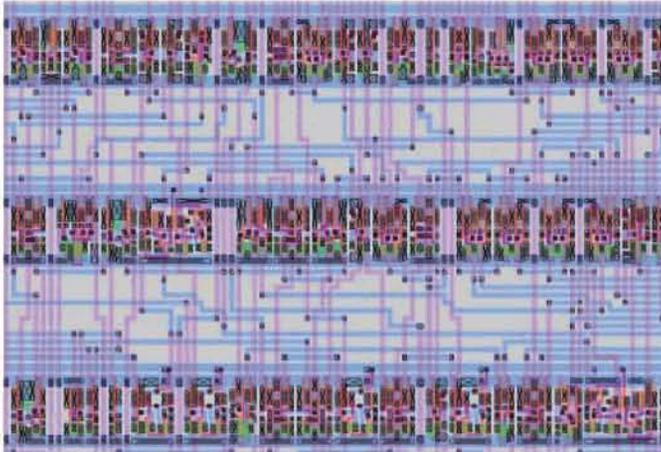
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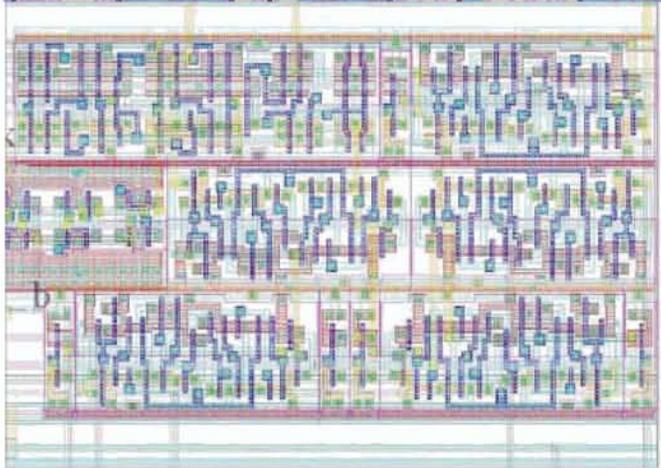
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# More standard cell layouts

---



**Channel routing for  
1.0μm 2-metal stdcells**



**Over cell routing for  
0.18μm 6-metal stdcells**

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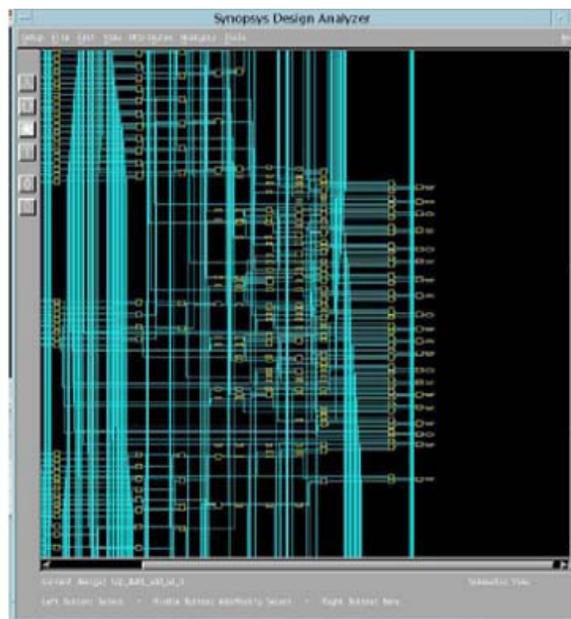
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# The front-end: Verilog to ASIC layout flow

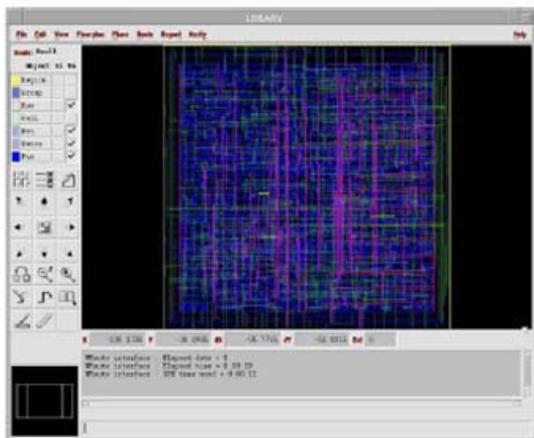
## □ The “push-button” approach

```
module adder64 (a, b, sum);  
  input [63:0] a, b;  
  output [63:0] sum;  
  
  assign sum = a + b;  
endmodule
```

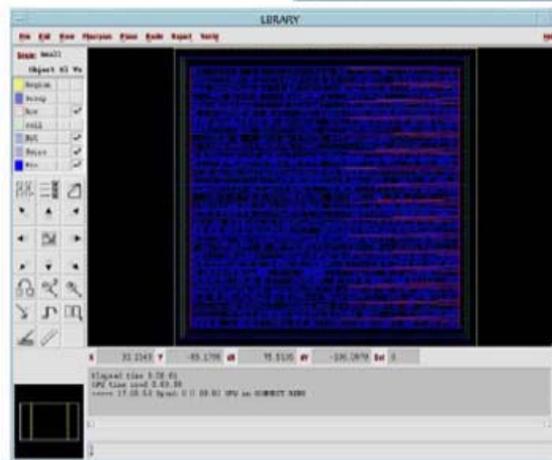
After  
Synthesis



After Routing



After  
Placement

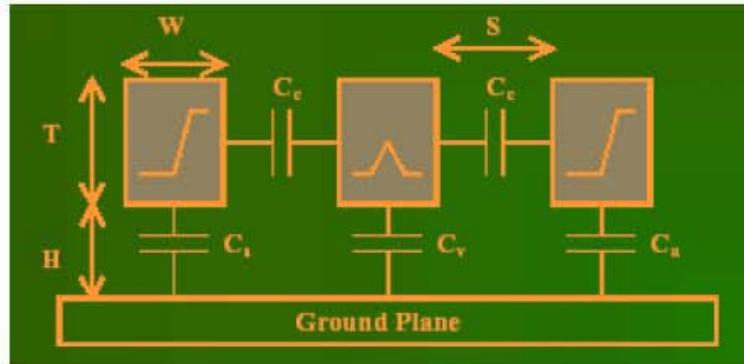


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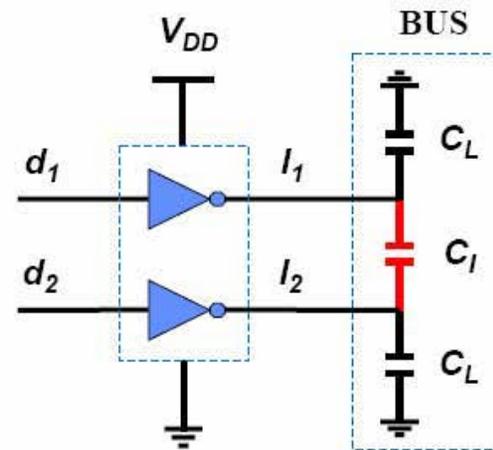
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# The back-end: The “Design closure” problem

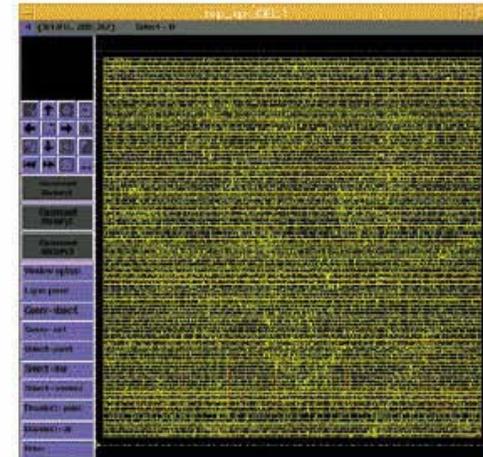
- Biggest problem are wires (signals and clock)



Wire-to-wire capacitance causes inter-wire delay dependencies



$$\lambda = \frac{C_I}{C_L} = 5$$



**Iterative Removal of Timing Violations (white lines)**

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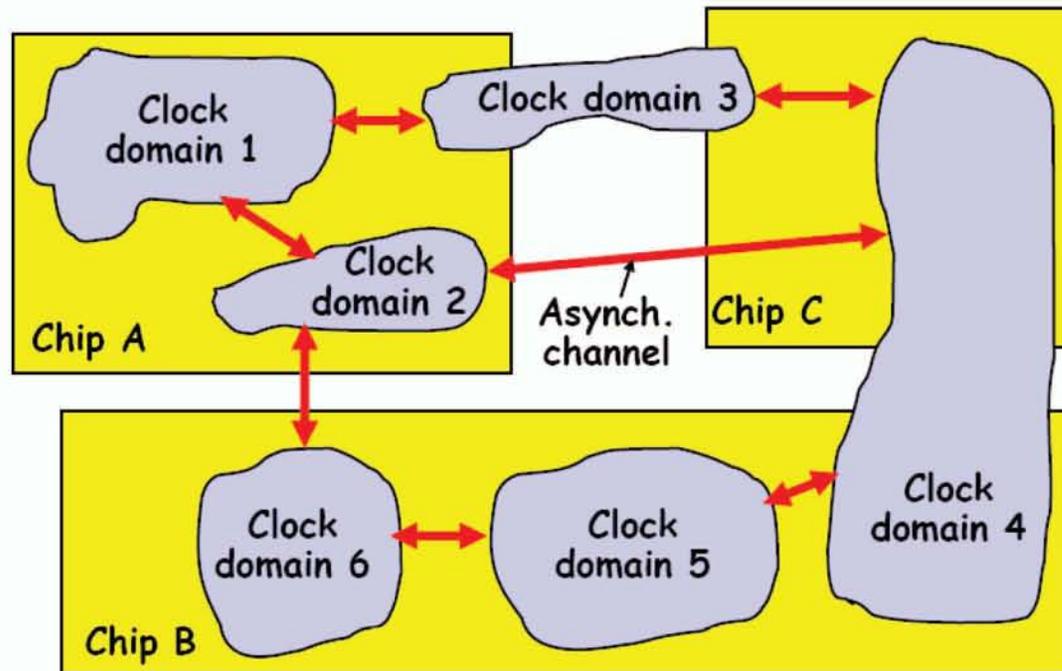
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# Clocking

## Large Systems

- Most large scale ASICs, and systems built with these ASICs, have several synchronous clock domains connected by asynchronous communication channels



- We'll focus on a single synchronous clock domain today

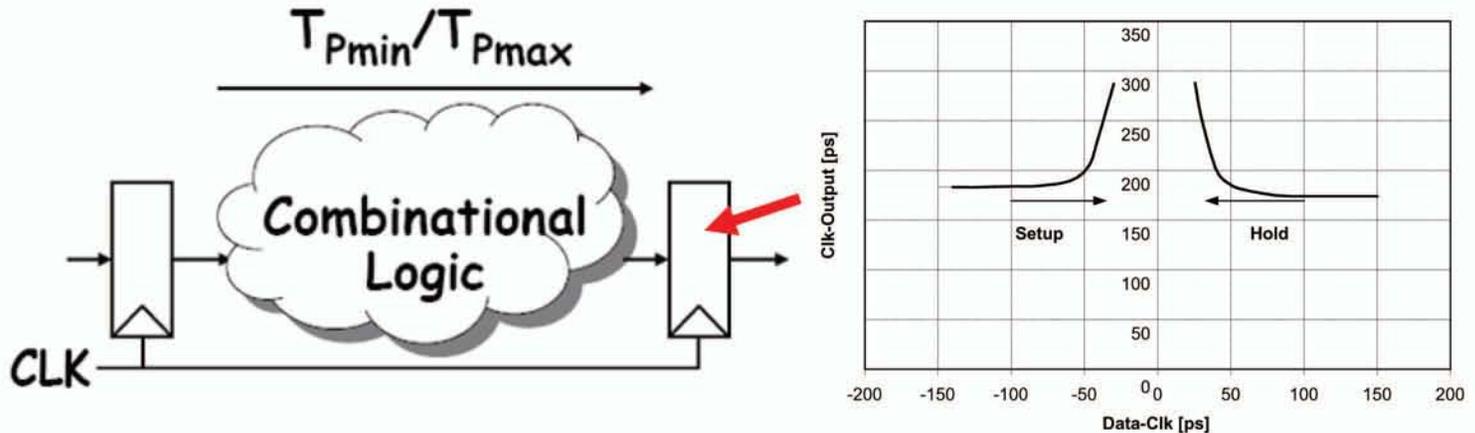
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# Single Clock Edge-Triggered Design



Single clock with edge-triggered registers most common design style in ASICs

- Slow path timing constraint

$$T_{\text{cycle}} \geq T_{CQ_{\text{max}}} + T_{P_{\text{max}}} + T_{\text{setup}}$$

- can always work around slow path by using slower clock

- **Fast path timing constraint**

$$T_{CQ_{\text{min}}} + T_{P_{\text{min}}} \geq T_{\text{hold}}$$

- bad fast path cannot be fixed without redesign!
- might have to add delay into paths to satisfy hold time

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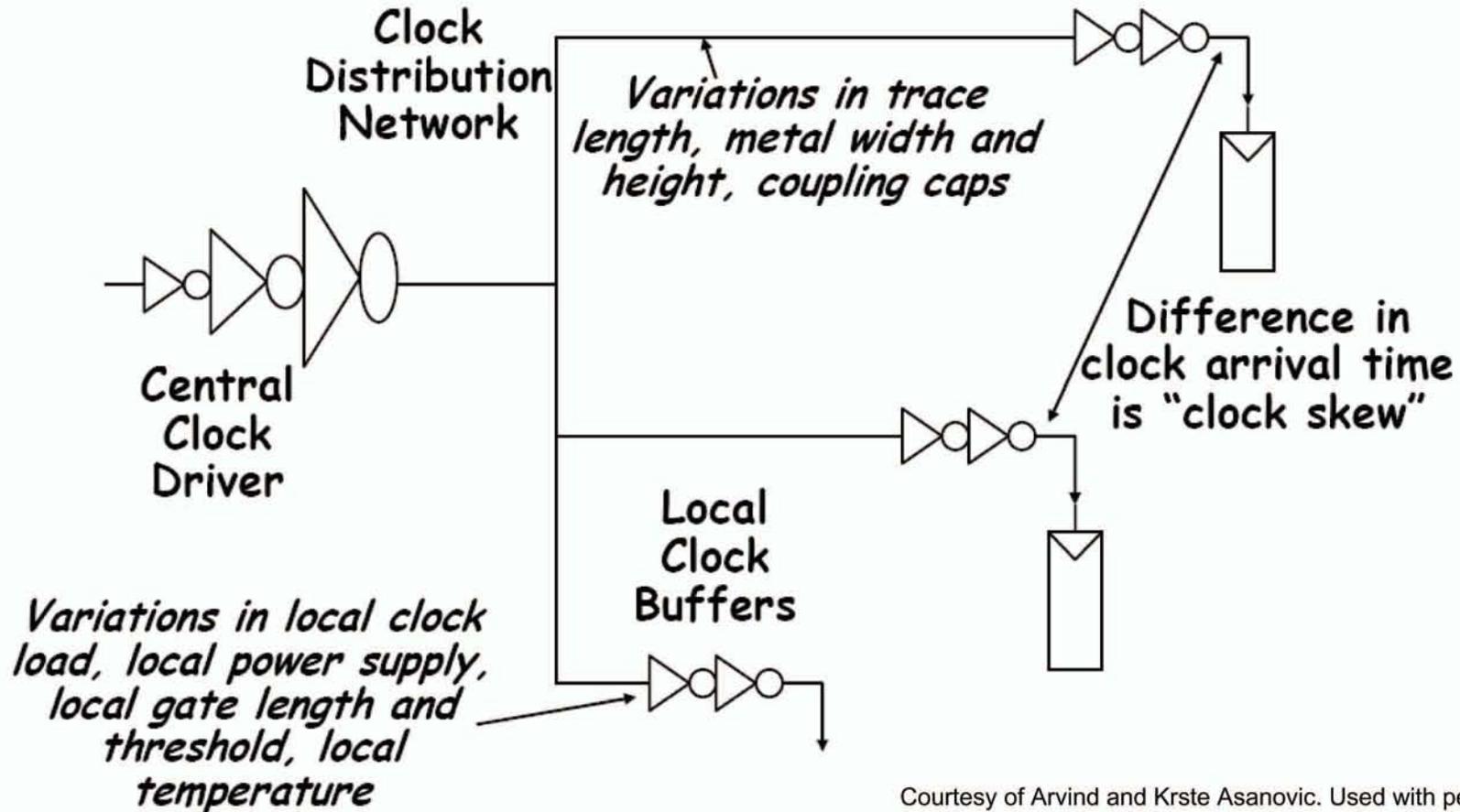
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# Clock distribution

- Can't really distribute clock at same instant to all flip-flops on chip



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# Clock grids

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## □ Alpha 21264 grid example

21064

- Minimize skew and jitter
- Costs a lot of power

buffer tree



21164

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21264

21064

21164

21264

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# Clock trees

---

binary tree

H-tree

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X-tree

Arbitrary  
matched tree

- Recursive pattern to match delay
  - Much less power than grid
  - More skew and jitter
    - Skew
      - Non-uniform loading
      - Buffer mismatch
    - Jitter
      - Supply noise on buffers

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# Wires

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## Modern Interconnect Stack

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**Tungsten local interconnect**

**IBM CMOS7 process**

**6 layers of copper wiring**

**1 layer of tungsten local interconnect**

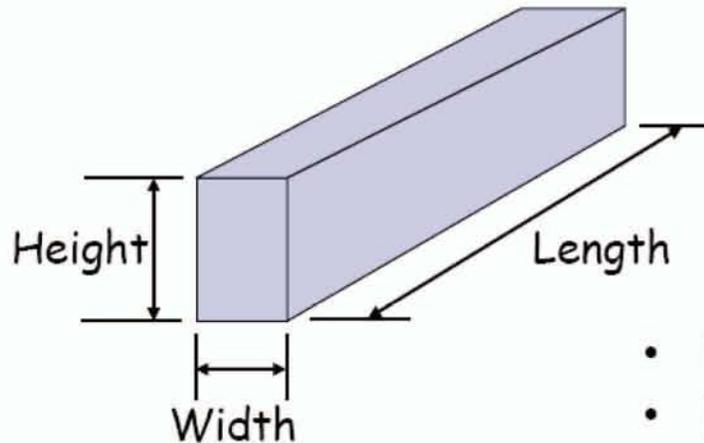
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# Wire resistance



$$\text{resistance} = \frac{(\text{length} \times \text{resistivity})}{(\text{height} \times \text{width})}$$

- bulk aluminum  $2.8 \times 10^{-8} \Omega\text{-m}$
- bulk copper  $1.7 \times 10^{-8} \Omega\text{-m}$
- bulk silver  $1.6 \times 10^{-8} \Omega\text{-m}$

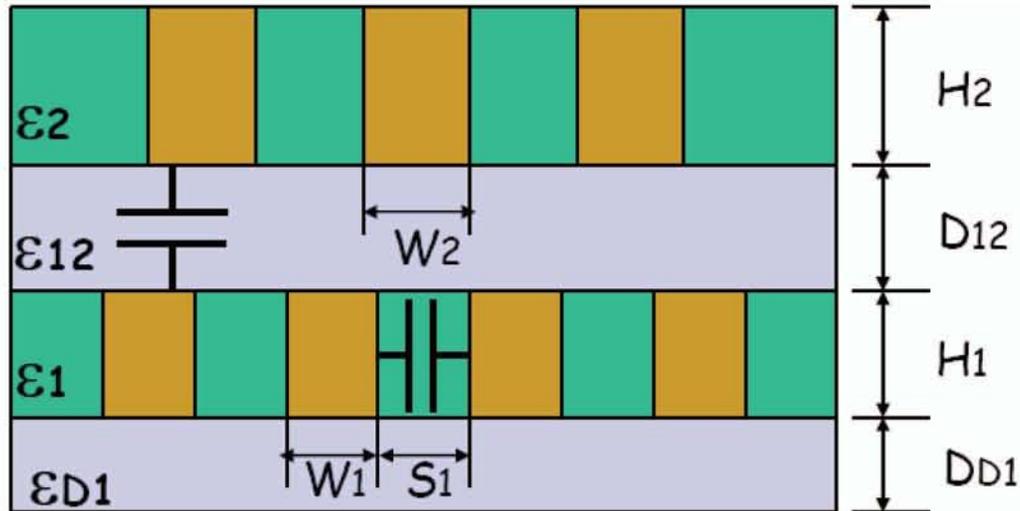
- Height (Thickness) fixed in given manufacturing process
- Resistances quoted as  $\Omega/\text{square}$
- TSMC 0.18 $\mu\text{m}$  6 Aluminum metal layers
  - M1-5 0.08  $\Omega/\text{square}$  (0.5  $\mu\text{m}$   $\times$  1mm wire = 160  $\Omega$ )
  - M6 0.03  $\Omega/\text{square}$  (0.5  $\mu\text{m}$   $\times$  1mm wire = 60  $\Omega$ )

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# Wire capacitance



- Capacitance depends on geometry of surrounding wires and relative permittivity,  $\epsilon_r$ , of insulating dielectric
  - silicon dioxide,  $\text{SiO}_2$   $\epsilon_r = 3.9$
  - silicon flouride,  $\text{SiOF}$   $\epsilon_r = 3.1$
  - $\text{SiLK}^{\text{TM}}$  polymer,  $\epsilon_r = 2.6$
- Can have different materials between wires and between layers, and also different materials on higher layers

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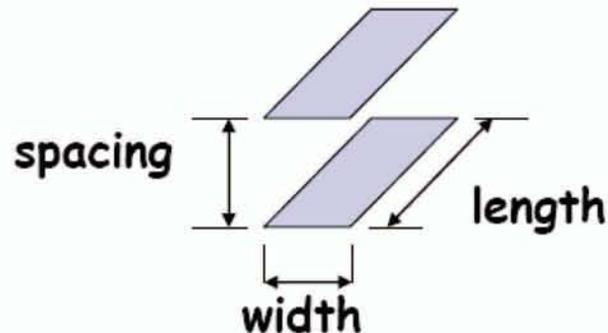
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# Capacitance scaling

parallel plate capacitance  $\propto \frac{\text{width}}{\text{spacing}} \times \text{length}$

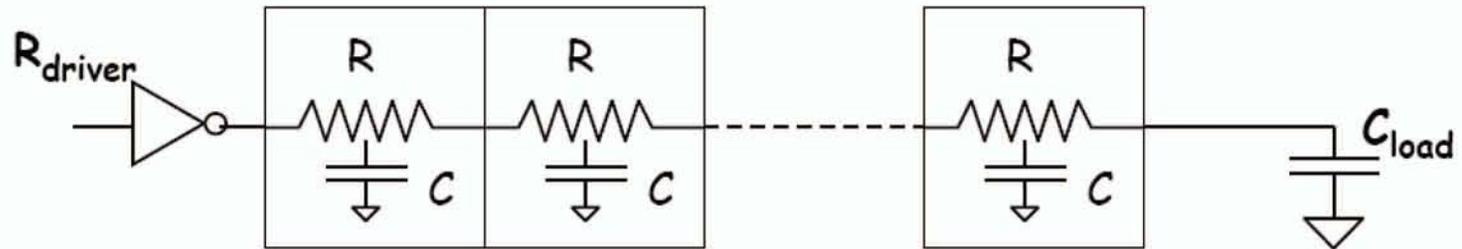


- Capacitance/unit length ~constant with feature size scaling (width and spacing scale together)
  - Isolated wire sees approx. 100 fF/mm
  - With close neighbors about 160 fF/mm
- **Need to use capacitance extractor to get accurate values**

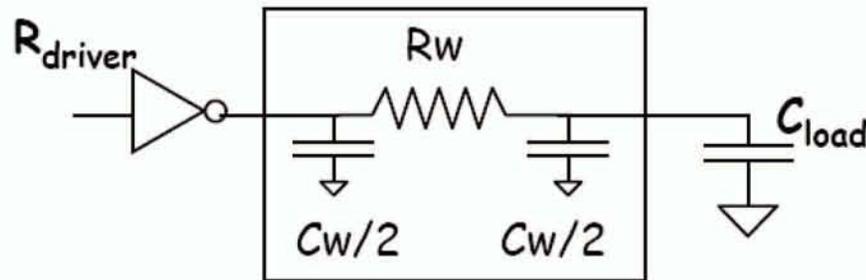
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# Wire delay models



- Wire has distributed R and C per unit length
  - wire delay increases quadratically with length
  - edge rate also degrades quadratically with length
- Simple lumped  $\Pi$  model gives reasonable approximation
  - $R_w$  is lumped resistance of wire
  - $C_w$  is lumped capacitance (put half at each end)



$$\text{Delay} = R_{\text{driver}} \times \frac{C_w}{2} + (R_{\text{driver}} + R_w) \times \left( \frac{C_w}{2} + C_{\text{load}} \right)$$

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# Wire delay example – our technology

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- In 0.18 $\mu\text{m}$  TSMC, 5x minimum inverter with effective resistance of 3 k $\Omega$ , driving FO4 load (25fF)
- Delay =  $R_{\text{driver}} \times C_{\text{load}} = 75 \text{ ps}$
- Now add 1mm M1 wire, 0.25 $\mu\text{m}$  wide
  - $R_w = 320\Omega \text{ wire} + 22\Omega \text{ vias} = 344\Omega$
  - $C_w = 160\text{fF}$

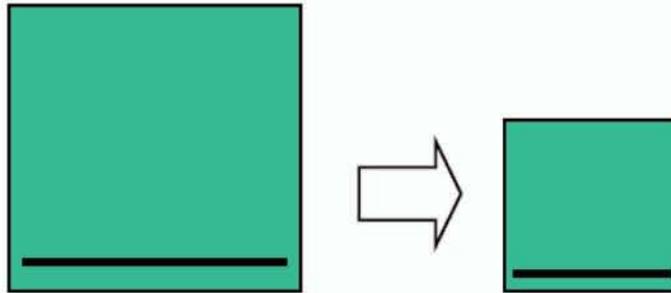
$$\begin{aligned}\text{Delay} &= R_{\text{driver}} \times \frac{C_w}{2} + (R_{\text{driver}} + R_w) \times \left( \frac{C_w}{2} + C_{\text{load}} \right) \\ &= 3\text{k}\Omega \times 80\text{fF} + (3\text{k}\Omega + 344\Omega) \times (80\text{fF} + 25\text{fF}) \\ &= 591\text{ps}\end{aligned}$$

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# Wire delay scaling, local wires

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- For wire crossing same amount of circuitry
  - Resistance stays roughly constant
    - length decreases by same amount as width, height stays large and/or change material to copper
  - Capacitance decreases by scaling factor
    - cap/unit length constant, length decreases
- Wire delay tracks improvement in gate delay

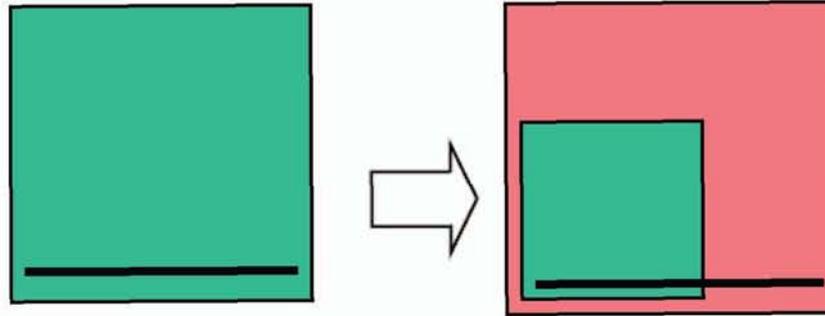
*[ From Mark Horowitz, DAC 2000 ]*

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# Wire delay scaling, global wires

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- **For wire crossing whole chip**
  - Resistance grows linearly
  - Capacitance stays fixed
- **Wire delay increases relative to gate delay**

*[ From Mark Horowitz, DAC 2000 ]*

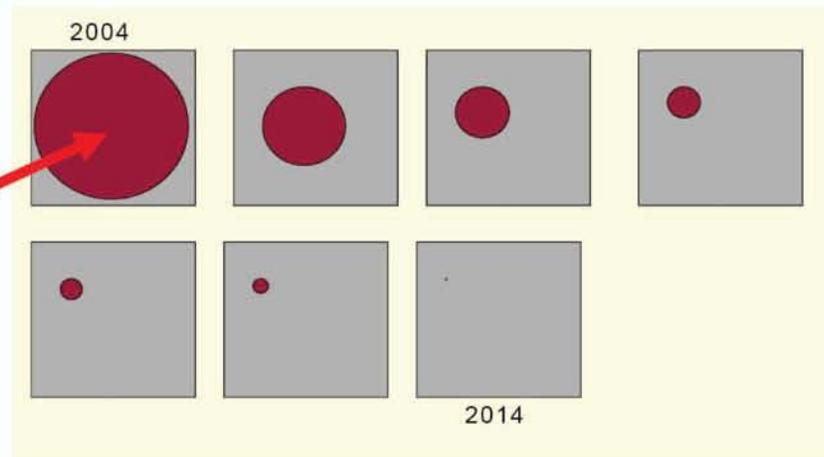
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# Fewer gates per clock cycle

- Processors in Intel 386 generation, around 50 FO4 gate delays per clock cycle
- Pentium-4 around 16 FO4 in normal clock, around 8 FO4 delays in fast ALU section
- Fastest 64-bit adder around 7 FO4 delays
- As measured in distance per clock cycle, wires are getting much slower

Chip area traversed  
in one clock cycle



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