Combinational Logic: Static versus Dynamic

Static:

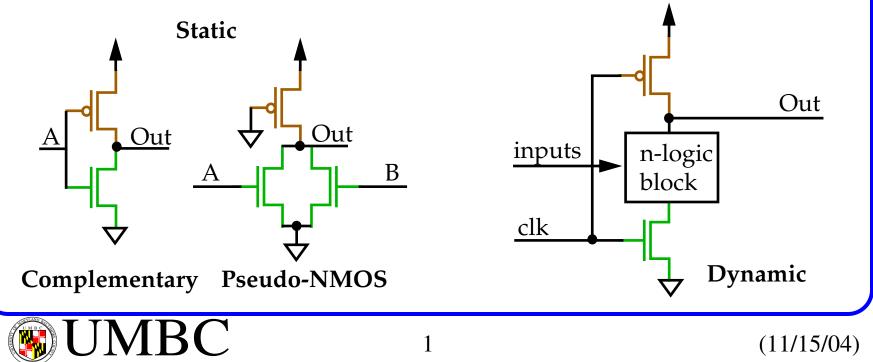
At every point in time (except during the switching transient), each gate output is connected to either V_{DD} or V_{SS} via a low-resistance path.

Slower and more complex than dynamic but "safer".

Dynamic:

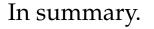
Rely on the temporary storage of signal values on the capacitance of **high-impedance** circuit nodes.

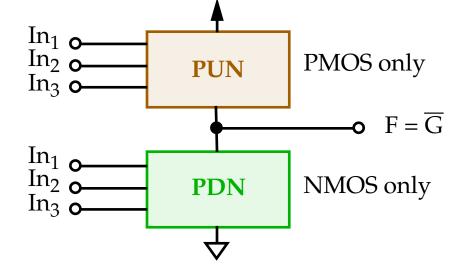
Simplier in design and faster than static but more complicated in operation and are sensitive to noise.



Combinational (Non-Regenerative) Circuits

We've already looked at full complementary design.





Suppose PDN implements G.

But G is connected to GND, so it implements the inverse $F = \overline{G}$

The PUN must implement F, since it's connected to V_{DD} .

Therefore, the following must hold.

$$\overline{G(In_1, In_2, In_3, \ldots)} = F(\overline{In_1}, \overline{In_2}, \overline{In_3}, \ldots)$$

This condition is met if (but **not** only if) F and G are **dual** equations, e.g., *AND*s in F are *OR*s in G.



Static CMOS gates inherit the nice properties of the basic CMOS inverter.

- High noise margins.
- No static power consumption.
- Comparable rise and fall times (under the appropriate scaling conditions).

The last point needs further clarification:

This is true if the PUN and PDN networks have identical **current-driv**-**ing** capabilities.

For the inverter, this required that p-transistors be *widened*.

This is complicated for complex gates since the current driving capabilities are determined by the values of the input signals as well.

As we've done in the lab, characterize based on the worst case.



Performing a manual analysis of the **dynamic behavior** of complex gates is only tractable via a switch model.

Here, the transistor is modeled as a switch with an infinite off-resistance and a finite on resistance, \mathbf{R}_{on} .

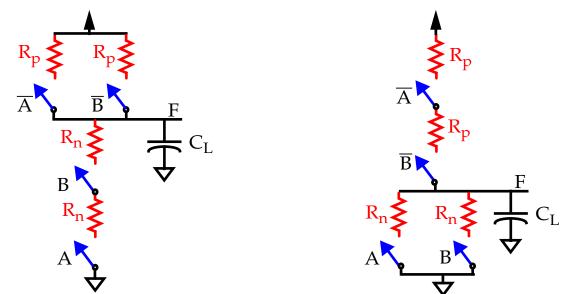
R_{on} is chosen so that the equivalent *RC-circuit* has a propagation delay identical to the original *transistor-capacitor* model.

R_{on} is inversely proportional to the W/L ratio but varies during the switching transient.

Deriving propagation delay can be done by analyzing the RC network.



Switch level models for NAND and NOR:



Propagation delay is computed for the worst-case delay over all possible input combinations.

For the two-input NAND, the **worst-case** rise time occurs for **one** PMOS:

 $t_{pLH} = 0.69 R_p C_L$



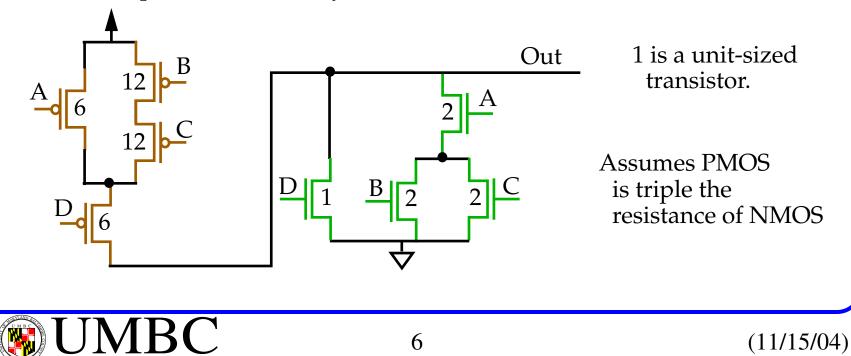
However, the worst-case (only) fall time occurs for two series NMOS:

$$t_{pHL} = 2 \times 0.69 R_n C_L$$

This suggests the a 2-to-1 width scaling factor of NMOS to PMOS.

Series PMOS transistors in the pull-up path for NOR yeilds a larger difference in rise/fall output times.

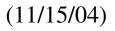
More complex network analysis:



- This analysis indicates the **deficiencies** of implementing gates with large fanin values:
- A gate with *N* inputs requires 2*N* transistors.
 - Other circuit styles require at most *N*+1 transistors, which can be a substantial advantage in area, e.g., 8 versus 5 for a 4-input gate.
- The propagation delay of a complementary gate *deteriorates rapidly* as a function of fan-in.
 - First, the larger number of transistors increases the **overall capacitance** of the gate.
 - Second, the **series connection** in the PUN and PDN slows the gate. Widening does not improve the performance as much as predicted, since widening increases gate and diffusion capacitance.
- Fan-out in complementary gates has a larger impact on gate delay than in other circuit styles.

Downstream gate capacitance is always **two** per fan-out in contrast to **one** in other styles.





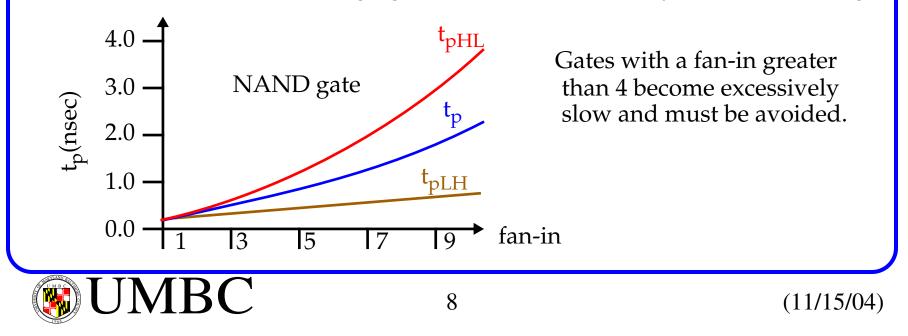
Fan-in and fan-out modeling:

$$t_p = a_1 F I + a_2 F I^2 + a_3 F O$$

a₁, a₂ and a₃ are technology-dependent weighting factors.

The linear dependence on fan-out is easy to understand since load *increases linearly* with fan-out.

There is a **quadratic dependence** on fan-in since increasing fan-in raises both C_L and (dis)charging resistance in a linear way (under no scaling).



Several approaches may be used to alleviate this problem:

• *Transistor sizing*

Increasing size decreases the second-order factor in the t_p expression.

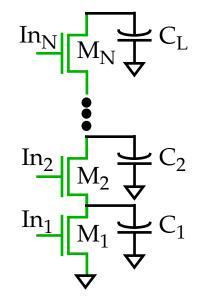
However, as indicated above, if load is dominated by *intrinsic capacitance*

(self-loading), propagation delay is not improved.

• *Progressive transistor sizing*

Previous analysis lumped capacitance at the output node and *internal node capacitance* was ignored.

This model becomes increasingly inaccurate for large fan-in.



While M_N has to conduct the discharge current of the load capacitance, C_L , M_1 has to carry the discharge current $C_{tot} = C_L + ... + C_2 + C_1$

Therefore, progressive scaling is beneficial: $M_1 > M_2 > ... > M_N$

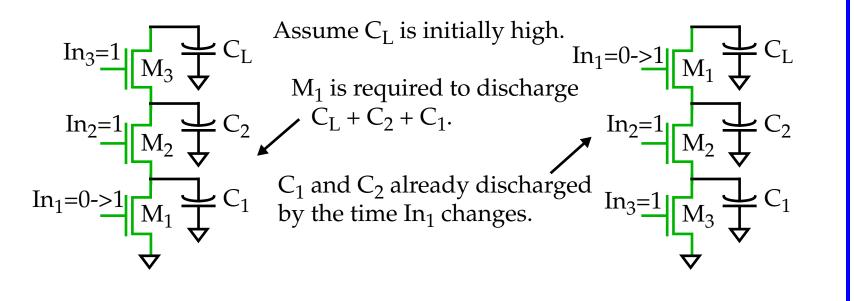


• Transistor ordering

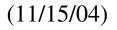
Not all input signals to a gate arrive at the same time.

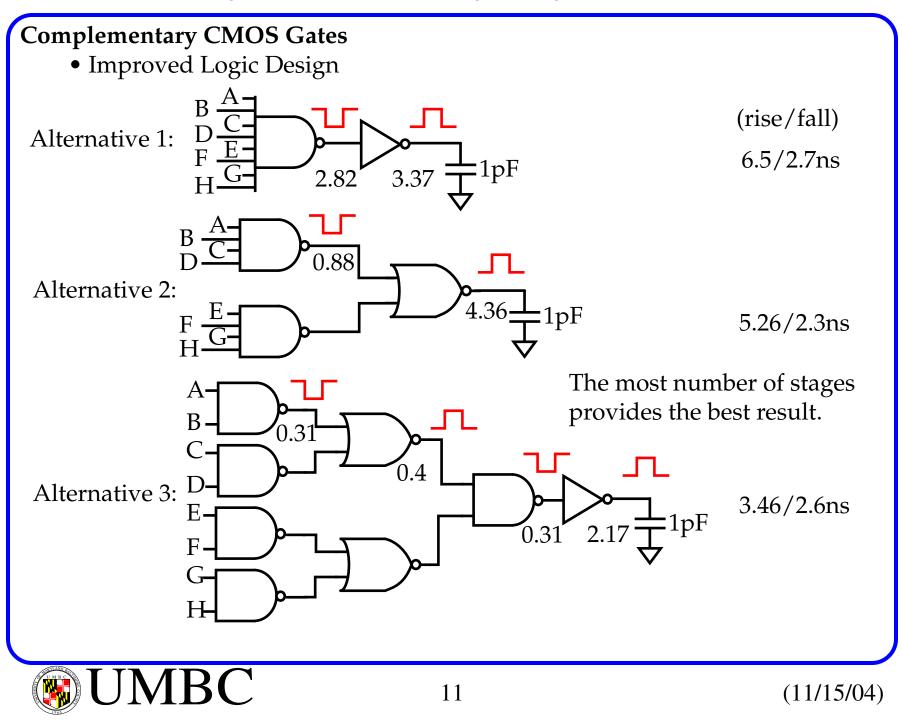
Let's call the last arriving input signal **critical**, which is propagated by a *critical path*.

Putting the *critical-path* transistor closer to the **output** of the gate can result in a speed-up.









 Use Another Circuit Style Ratioed Pass-transitor logic

Plus others to be discussed

These techniques deal with improving performance of gates with large **fanins**.

Often speed is dominated by the **fan-out** factor.

Scaling the transistors up in complex logic gates to drive large loads is expensive in terms of area.

Instead, a *buffer* (an inverter, or sequence of inverters) can be inserted between the complex gate and the fan-out.

Scaling is applied to the buffer transistors -- the complex gate uses minimum size transistors.

