

DESIGN AND CHARACTERIZATION OF STANDARD CELL LIBRARY USING
FINFETS

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Master of Science in Electrical Engineering

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ABSTRACT

Design and Characterization of Standard Cell Library Using FinFETs

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The processors and digital circuits designed today contain billions of transistors on a small piece of silicon. As devices are becoming smaller, slimmer, faster, and more efficient, the transistors also have to keep up with the demands and needs of the daily user. Unfortunately, the CMOS technology has reached its limit and cannot be used to scale down due to the transistor's breakdown caused by short channel effects. An alternative solution to this is the FinFET transistor technology, where the gate of the transistor is a three dimensional fin that surrounds the transistor and prevents the breakdown caused by scaling and short channel effects. FinFET devices are reported to have excellent control over short channel effects, high On/Off Ratio, extremely low gate leakage current and relative immunization over gate edge line roughness. Sub 20 nm node size is perceived to be the limit of scaling the CMOS transistors, but FinFETs can be scaled down further because of its unique design. Due to these advantages, the VLSI industry has now shifted to FinFET in implementation of their designs. However, these transistors have not been completely opened to academia. Analyzing and observing the effects of these devices can be pivotal in gaining an in-depth understanding of them.

This thesis explores the implementation of FinFETs using a standard cell library designed using these transistors. The FinFET package file used to design these cells is a 15nm FinFET technology file developed by NCSU in collaboration with Cadence and Mentor Graphics. Post design, the cells were characterized, the results were analyzed and compared with cells designed using CMOS transistors at different node sizes to understand and extrapolate conclusions on FinFET devices.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Circuits in general are designed and tested at a high level of abstraction using hardware description languages (HDL) such as VHDL or Verilog. Digital circuits which don't require a high level of performance are designed using HDL as it is economical, require lower testing and require less time to market . High performance circuits are still done by hand. The behavioral description of the design is synthesized into a logic netlist using synthesis tools such as Cadence Virtuoso or Genus. These logic blocks are then translated into netlists and then layout using these software tools and are then optimized in design environment which contain descriptions of all logic primitives. The logical netlist generated by these synthesis tools contain the definition of digital circuits. These units or cells are called standard cells and their collection is called as a standard cell library. The most basic standard cell definitions are NOR and NAND gates which are also known as universal gates and also the commonly used inverter gate using which all combinational circuits can be implemented. The HDL synthesis tool utilizes this behavioral description and creates a logic that realises behavior description of these cells. For the design of this standard cell library NCSU PDK 15 was used which is a 15 nm FinFET library developed by NCSU along with Cadence. This is a FinFET based predictive process design kit, which enables circuit level and device level analysis of the 15 nm FinFET technology node.

1.1 Standard Cell Design Process Flow

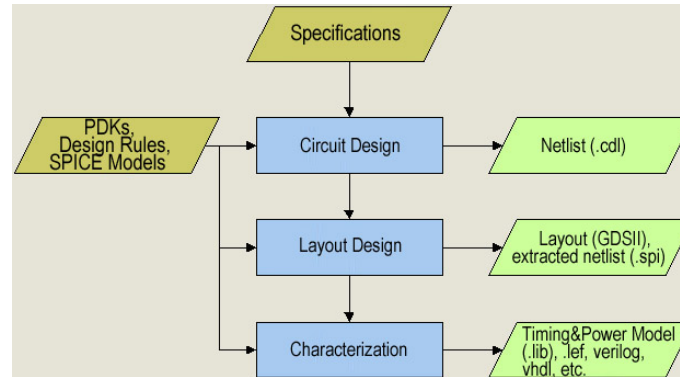


Figure 1.1: Process flow of design of standard cell library

Development of standard cell library starts by designing the cells using digital circuits. In order to develop the circuits design tools require design PDK (Process Development Kit) and model files which contain the SPICE of the transistors. Next Step is the circuit design where the user generates a schematic and the tool converts the design into a netlist file (.cdl). Then, physical design of the circuit is done where the circuit is drawn in silicon and routed using metal layers and the design tool generates a layout file (GDSII). Final step is characterization where the user feeds in a script and tools generate a datasheet with all its values and a verilog files so that the library can be used by HDL and be synthesized using Cadence Genus tool for design of Circuits and Systems based on FinFETs. In further chapters of this thesis, a detailed outline of the FinFET transistors and their operation are discussed. The design and the decisions taken while designing the cells, and characterization of the cells are elaborated.

1.2 Standard Cell Library

A Standard cell library[7] is a collection of well defined and characterized logic gates that can be used by a synthesis tool to implement a digital design or design a system.

These standard cells are the building blocks of digital systems. Standard cells must meet the definition and the specification of the system which are manipulated by synthesis, place and route algorithms and characterization tools. To define a standard cell EDA (Electronic Design Automation) are provide a collection technology files with all the information needed. While designing a standard cell library great attention is paid to various parameters such as cell dimensions, voltage rails, pin placement, metal layers and PR boundary. Generally standard cells contain the fundamental cells which are required for design and development of any digital circuit include combinational logic cells such as NAND, NOR and inverter, sequential logic cells such as flip flops or latches and other cells such as filler cells, tap cells. To develop cells in standard cell library the cell architecture is developed using various view which are as follow

1.2.1 Transistor Level View / Schematic View

This view of a transistor cell generates a netlist at the transistor level of the cell. A netlist is a textual description of a circuit and its components. Netlist is a connection of gates and can also include resistors, capacitors and transistors used in analog simulation. A schematic tool such as cadence virtuoso generates a netlist file. Schematic views are used to simulate and test the functional behaviour of the cell. The Figure 1.2 gives an example of a transistor level view of inverter.

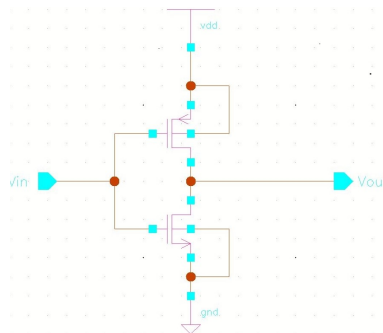


Figure 1.2: Transistor level view of Inverter

1.2.2 Physical View

This view includes the layout which is the physical implementation of the the transistor view where the design is drawn in silicon with metal layers used for routing and adding components like resistors, capacitors and probe pads etc. Th layout of the cells follows the architecture of the cell and the design rules which are determined by the founderies. The layout is also used to extract the parasitic capacitances and the resistances of the cell design. Figure 1.3 shows the layout of an inverter cell.

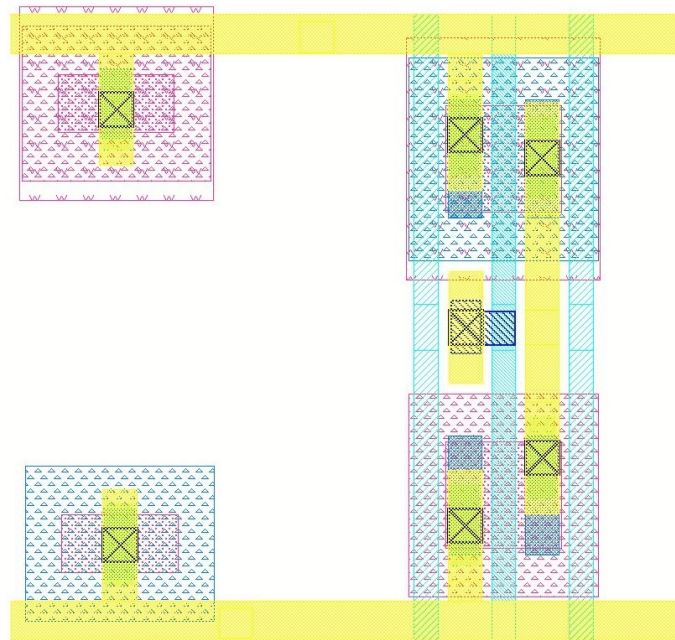


Figure 1.3: Physical view of Inverter

1.2.3 Symbol View

This view defines symbols for the cells which can be later utilized to develop schematics of a larger design. Figure 1.4 shows the symbol view of an inverter.

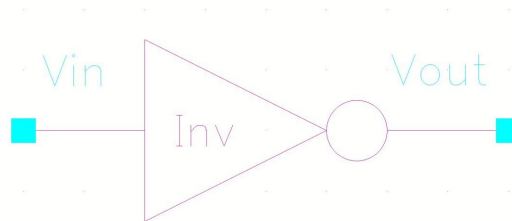


Figure 1.4: Symbol view of Inverter

1.2.4 Behavioral View

This comprises of the verilog description of the cells which is used for simulation and logical equivalence. This view makes it easy for the user to understand the operation of the cell and develop a more precise functionality. Cadence tools accepts Verilog A to define the functional and behavioral description of the cell.

```
`include "constants.vams"
`include "disciplines.vams"

module NAND2(Vout, A, B);
output Vout;
electrical Vout;
input A;
electrical A;
input B;
electrical B;
nand_i0(Vout, A, B);
specify
(A ==> Vout) - (1.0, 1.0);
(B ==> Vout) - (1.0, 1.0);
endspecify
endmodule
```

Figure 1.5: Verilog A code for NAND2 gate

1.2.5 Timing and Power Analysis

This step is also known as characterization which performs STA (Static Timing Analysis) and power analysis for the cells. Liberty files are generated for operating conditions of the library. These files give a the performance metrics of the cell.

1.3 Tools Utilized

- Cadence Virtuoso : Transistor Level Schematic and Entry tool for Design
- Cadence Spectre ADE : Simulation of the design
- Cadence Layout XL : Layout of the Design
- Cadence Virtuoso : Export GDS
- Cadence Liberate : Characterization of the Cells

1.4 Cell Design Process Flow

Full custom design [8] is often considered when designing a high performance circuit. The routing of the critical wires is considered to be the important gap between the design flows. Often this design flow is more time consuming to design as it requires most of the views to be hand drawn. Semi custom[9] design flow utilizes standard cells to design circuits where the tools like Cadence Genus uses these cells synthesize circuits and generates RTL (Register Transfer Level) design with all the timing and capacitance data . Place and rout is which is considered the key difference between Semi-custom and custom process flow[10] done manually by the user rather than the machine where it performs automatic place and route of the circuits in the later

process. Once the standard cell is designed and characterized users can use the semi-custom design flow to design their circuits using cadence Genus.

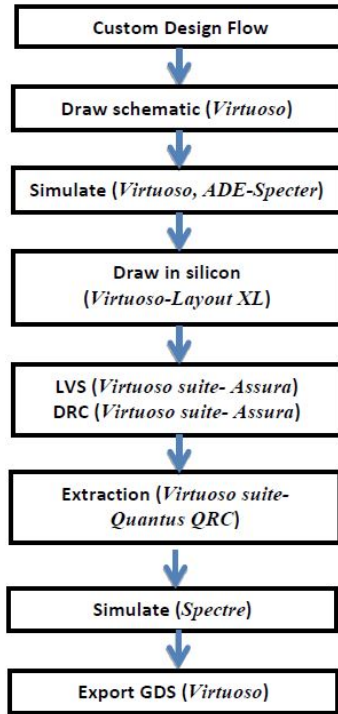


Figure 1.6: Custom design flow

Chapter 2

BACKGROUND

2.1 Moore's Law

In 1965 Gordon Moore published a famous paper describing the evolution of transistors' density in integrated circuits. He predicted that the number of transistors in a dense integrated circuit doubles every two years[11]. This prediction later came to be known as Moore's Law. This law has been the cornerstone of the industry and has been used to planning and set targets for the research and development of new semiconductor-based technologies. Since 1990 semiconductor companies have collaborated to predict this trend with higher precision. This initiative garnered and led to the International Technology Roadmap for Semiconductors (ITRS); ever since then, ITRS issues an annual report that services as a benchmark for the industries and recognizes the latest trends and developments in the industry.

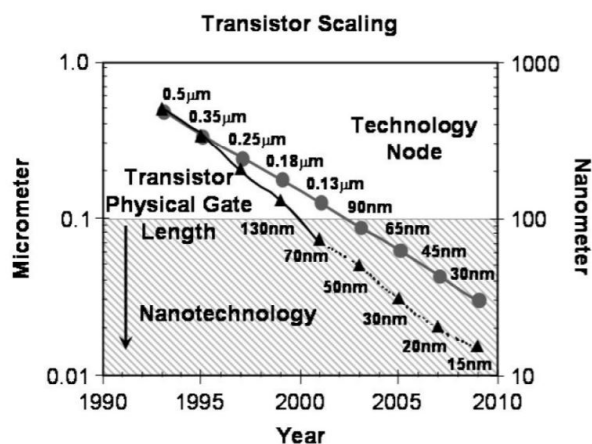


Figure 2.1: Moore's Law : Transistor scaling over the years

This observation has been valid until now, but due to the limitations in technology, this prediction has come to a predicted to come to an end. The end of this prophecy has pushed academia and research to look beyond the current technologies to develop new ideas to overcome their limitations. One such idea was to extend the gate of the transistors, which controls the flow of electrons and electric field, and develop a 3D structure that would result in better control and enable scaling down of these transistors. This led to the design and development of 3D transistors, which would begin a new era of devices that would continue the trend predicted by Moore.

2.2 MOSFET Scaling

The semiconductor industry's workhorse technology is the CMOS, and MOSFET is the fundamental building block of the CMOS technology. In order to keep up with the growth and pace of Moore's law, the linear dimensions of the transistor were to be reduced by half almost every three years. By the early 2010s, transistors at 20 nm gate length had become commonly used by IC (Integrated Circuit) designers. The development of SOI (Silicon on Insulators), in which transistors are made on a thin layer of silicon on top of a silicon dioxide layer, led to the surge in speed and power consumption due to reduction in capacitance. As the dimensions started to reduce even further, the proximity between the source and drain pins reduced the ability of the gate to control the potential and leakage current in the channel region and additionally caused undesirable effects called short channel effects. Due to these issues, it became impossible to shrink the MOSFET below 20nm node size.

2.3 Short Channel Effects

The main drives for reducing the size of the transistors, i.e., their lengths, are increasing speed and reducing cost. When you make circuits smaller, their capacitance reduces, thereby increasing operating speed. Similarly, smaller circuits allow more of them in the same wafer, dividing the total cost of a single wafer among more dies to increase yield.

However, with a great reduction in size come great problems, in this case in the form of unwanted side effects, the so-called short-channel effects[12]. When the MOSFET channel becomes the same order of magnitude as the depletion layer width of source and drain, the transistors start behaving differently, which impacts performance, modeling, and reliability. These effects can be divided among the following:

2.3.1 Impact Ionization

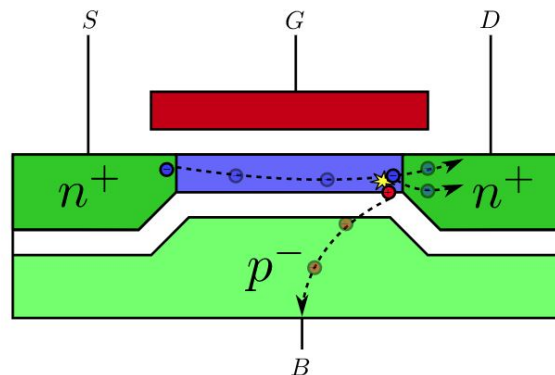


Figure 2.2: The ionized electron collides with the electron-hole pairs near the drain

The short channels created due to sizing generate more required electric fields as the source, and the drain terminals are closer. Therefore, this electric field endows the charge carriers with higher velocity, which contains higher energy due to the kinetic

energy stored in the carriers. The electric field is proportional to drain-source voltage and inversely proportional to the distance between source and drain. The electrons with higher energy tend to strike an electron off the conduction band. The generated electron-hole pair from the conduction band gets displaced, the hole from the pair gets attracted to the bulk, and the electron tries to move back to the drain. This results in the formation of a bipolar parasitic junction between source and drain. Another problem that arises due to this is that the electron displaced can cause an avalanche effect by displacing more electrons from the lattice, thereby leading to a current that the gate voltage cannot control.

2.3.2 Drain Induced Barrier Lowering

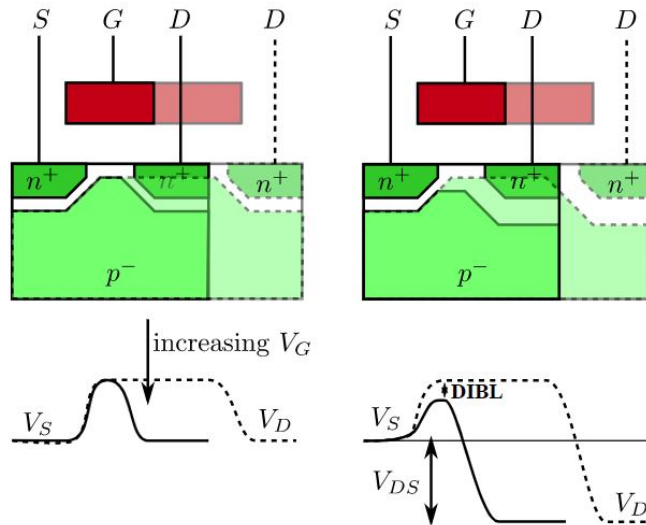


Figure 2.3: The impact of scaling on potential barrier between source and drain

Under normal conditions in a CMOS, a potential barrier prevents electrons from flowing between source and drain. The gate voltage has the function of lowering this voltage to the point where electrons freely start flowing from the gate to the source. Due to scaling, when the size of the channel becomes shorter, a larger drain voltage

would widen the depletion region to the point where it reduces the size of the potential barrier, which results in the reduction of channel mobility.

2.3.3 Surface Scattering

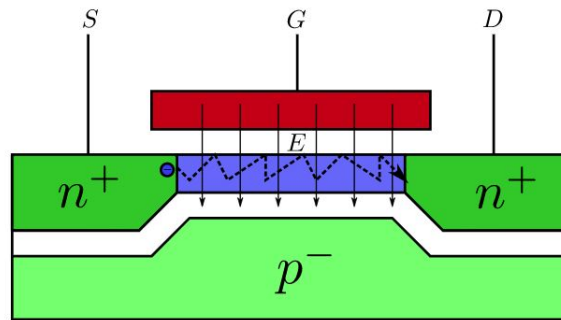


Figure 2.4: Zig-zag path of the electron reducing its mobility

In the channel of a CMOS transistor, the charge carriers move with a very high velocity under the influence of the field generated by the gate, due to which they keep crashing and bouncing off the surface—the carriers in the channel move in a zig-zag path during their travel. As the length of the channel becomes shorter, the lateral electric field created by the gate and voltage V_{ds} becomes stronger. To compensate for that, the vertical electric field created by the gate voltage needs to increase proportionally, which can be achieved by reducing the oxide thickness. As a side effect, surface scattering becomes heavier, reducing the adequate mobility compared to more extended channel technology nodes.

2.3.4 Velocity Saturation

The velocity of the charged carriers is directly dependent on the electric field generated by the gate voltage. As this field gets stronger due to sizing, the velocity tends to saturate, which results in reduced mobility. This effect is common to the MOSFET

transistors as they tend to have higher electric fields. Velocity saturation is only apparent when the current saturates due to velocity saturation before saturating due to pinch-off. That means that the drain-source saturation voltage will be lower than $V_{GS} - V_{TH}$ in short channel transistors. An example is illustrated below 2.1 to show velocity saturation.

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_{saturation} &= 10^4 \frac{V}{cm} \\
 Silicon_{Sat\ vel} &= 10^7 \frac{cm}{s} \\
 VDS_{5\mu m} &= 5\mu m * 10^4 \frac{V}{cm} \\
 &= 5 * \frac{10^{-6} * 10^4}{10^{-3}} V = 500V \\
 VDS_{5nm} &= 5nm * 10^4 \frac{V}{cm} \\
 &= 5 * \frac{10^{-9} * 10^4}{10^{-3}} V = 0.5V
 \end{aligned} \tag{2.1}$$

2.3.5 Hot Carrier Injection

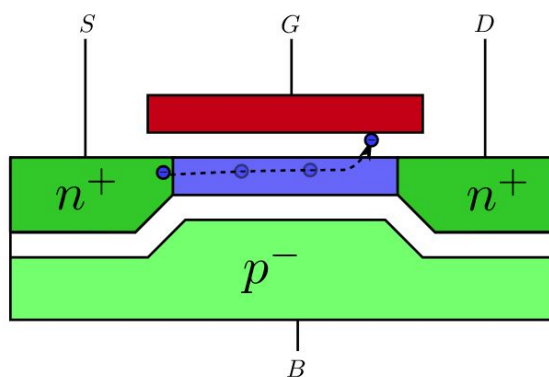


Figure 2.5: Electron trapped inside the oxide after the collision

The carriers accelerated by the electric field can cause further problems and affect performance. The energy it contains may be sufficient to enter the oxide and get trapped in it, thereby degrading the oxide material and reducing the transistor's life. The trapped electrons alter the transistor response to the gate voltage in the

form of an increased threshold voltage. This effect is unrecoverable and destroys the transistor.

2.4 FinFETs

A FinFET or a fin Field Effect Transistor is a metal-oxide-semiconductor device where the gate is placed between either side of the semiconductor body. Chenming Hu developed this device at the University of California Microfabrication lab, Berkeley[13]. The Fin in the acronym describes a thin body fin of semiconductor material. In a finfet structure, the gate may be placed on two or more sides or all around it in order to improve its device performance. FinFETs offer significantly higher speed and current drive over MOSFET's due to reduced capacitance despite not having any drain-source bulk capacitance. Recognizing its advantages, Intel was the first company in the industry to introduce FinFET technology at a 22 nm node in mass production in the year 2011.

2.4.1 Architecture of FinFET

The FinFET transistor is the solution for all the above-mentioned short channel effects. Officially it was called the tri-gate transistor as it covered the channel on all three sides. The principle behind the structures[14] is a thin body, so the gate capacitance is closer to the whole channel. The body is very thin so that no leakage path is far from the gate. Therefore the gate can have more control of the voltage. FinFETs can be implemented either on bulk silicon or SOI wafer. This FinFET structure consists of a thin fin of silicon body on a substrate. The gate is wrapped around the channel providing excellent control from three sides of the channel. This structure is called the FinFET because its Si body resembles the back Fin of a fish.

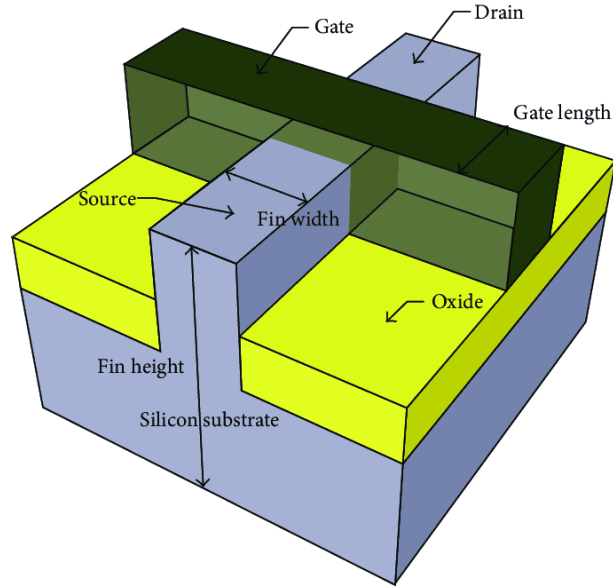


Figure 2.6: The structure of a FinFET transistor

For a FinFET, the height of the channel determines the width of the device. The following equation gives the perfect width of the channel.

$$\text{Width of the Channel} = 2 (\text{Fin Height}) + \text{Fin Thickness} \quad (2.2)$$

The drive current of the FinFET can be increased by increasing the width of the channel, therefore, by increasing the height of the Fin.

2.4.2 Device Operation

A FinFET device has three modes of operation: linear, saturation, and cutoff, similar to that of the MOSFET. The theories developed for MOSFET transistors can be extrapolated for defining the device operation[2] of FinFETs. In a common gate set up of a FinFET transistor device operation with bias $V_s = 0$ and a drain voltage V_{ds} with reference to the source is applied to the drain, so that source-drain junction is reverse biased. Under this biasing condition, the body current and the gate current

are zero. The applied gate voltage with reference to source bias V_{gs} controls the surface carrier densities. A certain value of V_{gs} , defined as the threshold voltage (V_{th}), is required to create the channel inversion layer, where V_{th} is determined by the properties of the structure. For $V_{gs} > V_{th}$, an inversion layer exists, that is, a conducting channel exists from the drain to the source of the device, and a drain current I_{DS} will flow.

2.4.3 Device Characteristics

2.4.3.1 Drain Current Equation

The drain current equation of FinFET transistors is similar to that of the MOSFET devices. The drain current equation[2] in linear region is given by

$$I_{DS} = 2 \mu C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} (V_{gs} - V_{th} - \frac{V_{DS}}{2}) V_{DS} \quad (2.3)$$

where $W = 2 * (\text{Height of Fin}) + \text{Thickness of Fin}$

2.4.3.2 I-V Characteristics

The IV characteristics, i.e., the I_d vs. V_{ds} plot for FinFET, are similar to that of the CMOS plot, but there are slight variations between the two plots. The two features that can be derived from the plots are level of ON current and the output resistance in the strong inversion region. The higher ON current and output resistance in FinFet is due to the channel being surrounded in three dimensions which results in better gate control. Fig. 2.8 shows I_{ON}/I_{OFF} ratio versus supply voltage for both devices. As illustrated, in low supply voltages, the I_{ON}/I_{OFF} ratio is higher for FinFET, while in

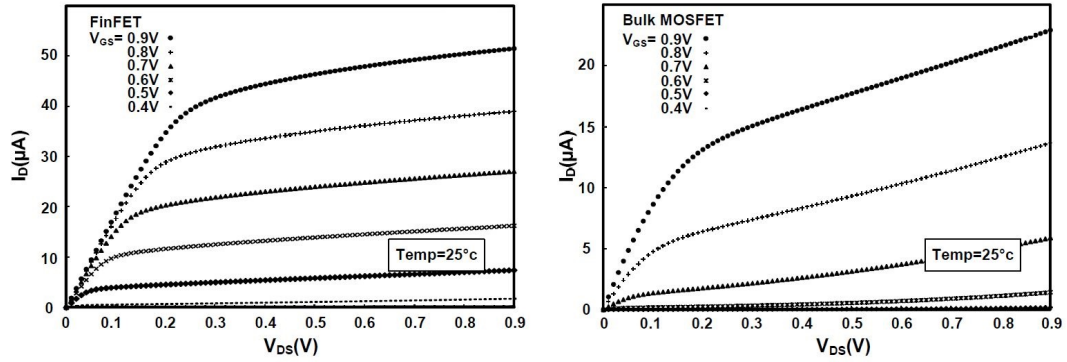


Figure 2.7: (a) IV Curve of FinFET (left) (b) IV Curve of MOSFET (right) [1]

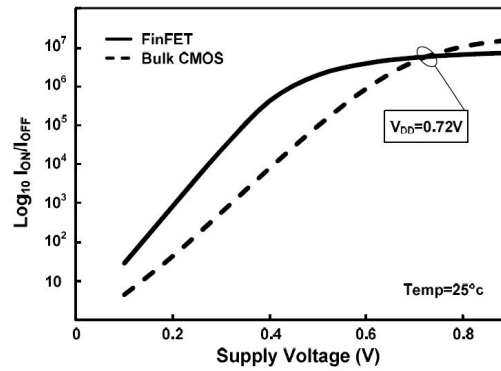


Figure 2.8: Comparison between the ON/Off ratio between MOSFET and CMOS [1]

high supply voltages, it is higher for bulk MOSFET. It is because bulk MOSFET has a lower I_{OFF} compared with FinFET, while FinFET has a higher I_{ON} . In low supply voltages, the OFF current of bulk MOSFET is lower, but it is closed to FinFET, while the ON current of FinFET is much higher than bulk MOSFET. As a result, the I_{ON}/I_{OFF} ratio is higher for FinFET. However, in high supply voltages, the ON current of bulk MOSFET is getting close to the ON current of FinFET, and the I_{ON}/I_{OFF} ratio of devices is closed to each other [1].

2.4.3.3 Sub-Threshold Slope

A vital characteristic of the subthreshold operation is the gate voltage swing of the device. This gate voltage is also known as sub-threshold swing [2]. It is the quantified as the inverse of the slope of the the $I_{ds} - V_{gs}$ plot and defined as the change in gate voltage V_{gs} required to change the drain current I_{DS} by one decade. Therefore

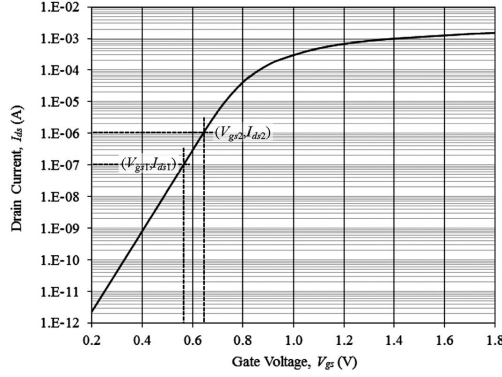


Figure 2.9: $\log I_{ds}$ vs gate voltage V_{gs} to calculate the sub threshold swing of FinFET device[2]

the sub-threshold swing measures the On-off characteristics of the FinFET device. In figure 2.9 if we take the points shown and then by definition $(V_{gs2} - V_{gs1})$ required to change the ratio of (I_{ds2}/I_{ds1}) by one decade or a 10[2] is defined as

$$\text{Subthreshold Swing} = \frac{V_{gs2} - V_{gs1}}{\log I_{ds2} - \log I_{ds1}} = \frac{dV_{gs}}{d(\log I_{ds})} = 2.3 \frac{dV_{gs}}{d(\ln I_{ds})} \quad (2.4)$$

In the above equation 2.3($\log I_{ds}$) was used to convert log to natural logarithm (\ln). So based on this, it is directly dependent on the drain current I_{DS} ; however, this variation is negligible over one decade of current.

2.4.3.4 Power Dissipation

Power dissipation [15] in any circuit primarily comes from two components dynamic and static.

$$P_{total} = P_{Dynamic} + P_{Leakage} \quad (2.5)$$

- **Dynamic Power:** Dynamic power [15] V_{DD} , and the designer decides the operating frequency. To evaluate the power, the capacitance at every node of the circuit is measured. The operation of digital circuits requires continuous switching between the transistors, thus causes a charge build-up at nodes and results in capacitance. Capacitance directly affects the power consumption of a digital circuit. The capacitance is measured by evaluating the sum of the gate, diffusion, and the wire capacitance of the node multiplied by the activity factor (α). The switching power, which is the major contributing factor in dynamic power, is calculated by taking the worst-case measuring the effective capacitances of all the nodes. Therefore to design a circuit with low power consumption, the terms of switching power have to be reduced. Since V_{DD} varies quadratically with the power consumption, it is ideal to select the minimum value of V_{DD} to support the operation of the circuit. Selecting the lowest possible frequency also significantly reduces the power consumption of the cell. The activity factor α is an easy-to-use tool for reducing power consumption. If the circuit is turned off completely, the activity factor of the circuit becomes zero. The expression for dynamic power is given by :

$$P_{Dynamic} = \alpha C(V_{DD})^2 f \quad (2.6)$$

- **Leakage Power:** Static power is consumed when the chip is not switching. Static power is caused due to leakage currents, sub-threshold gate, and contention currents. The utilization of FinFETs over MOSFET transistors does reduce the static power consumption. As FinFETs have significantly lower leakage currents compared to MOSFET, the static power consumption of our FinFET standard cell library is fairly low. The expression for static power is given by

$$P_{Leakage} = I_{Leakage}V_{DD} \quad (2.7)$$

Therefore the total power is given by combining equations the above equations :

$$P_{total} = \alpha C(V_{DD})^2 f + I_{Leakage}V_{DD} \quad (2.8)$$

2.4.3.5 Leakage Currents

Due to the small device dimensions, FinFET devices are susceptible to leakage currents[16].

The primary sources of leakage currents in FinFET devices are

- **Sub-Threshold Leakage:** In the sub-threshold, the applied bias is less than the device threshold voltage, which induces a conducting channel from source to drain. Therefore in the ($V_{gs} < V_{th}$) operation, the transistor consists of two back-to-back junctions, and only this leakage flows between the source and the drain terminals of the transistor. This leakage current is also referred to as the weak inversion current. From Figure 2.9 it can be observed that this leakage current is known to increase exponentially.

- **Gate Induced Drain Leakage:** This leakage occurs when the device is operated at a high drain voltage V_{DS} and low gate voltage $V_{GS} < 0$ which generates a high electric field causing a large band bending near the silicon surface which causes tunneling of the carriers. As a result of this, a significant leakage is caused during the FinFET operation.

Apart from these two effects, there are other leakage currents in FinFET devices such as substrate leakage, gate-induced source leakage, gate oxide-induced leakage, and P-N junction leakage. Although it is essential to characterize and understand all these leakages in detail to observe the device operation in VLSI systems, these currents are very small and hence will be ignored.

2.5 FinFET Design Challenges

The fabrication and design on FinFETs create new design challenges [17] that need to be tackled by the foundries. The transition from a planar to a 3-D Fin structure affects every aspect of the transistor. The challenges are listed as follows.

2.5.1 Fin Patterning

In order to exceed the effective width of a FinFET transistor compared to that of a planar MOSFET transistor with in the same piece of a silicon wafer, FinFETs designed have to be very tall, or else more structures have to be placed over the given area. Ideally, the formation of two or more fins per the wafer area creates an acceptable aspect ratio that matches and is similar to that of a planar device. Gates being patterned over Fin structures is shown in figure 2.10.

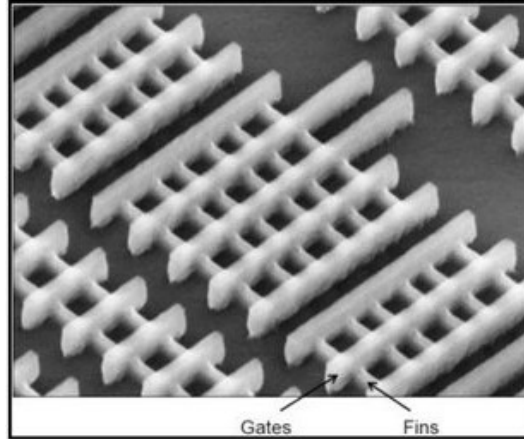


Figure 2.10: Top level view : SEM image of gates patterned over Fins[3]

The lithography of these fins creates certain disadvantages. Double patterning[18] is required to develop the Fin and half the pitch. Double patterning is a process where the structure is exposed to lithographic processes twice to enhance the feature density. Using a spacer-defined double patterning technique significantly removes the dimensional process and utilizes a single mask layer, but this process is more expensive. Lithographic restrictions require regular patterns to be etched onto the devices; therefore, unidirectional fins on a single node are ideal and more desirable by the manufacturers.

2.5.2 Fin Shape

FinFET devices are high-performance transistors, and all their device properties depend on the shape and dimensions of the Fin structure. Fins with a low aspect ratio are ideally preferred as they are mechanically strong and less vulnerable to damage during the fabrication process. The Fins are generally slightly sloped [19] in order to ensure the trenches between the structures are easily filled with a dielectric material which results in better isolation[4]. Intel's 22 nm Node FinFET was built with 8 degrees slope from vertical.

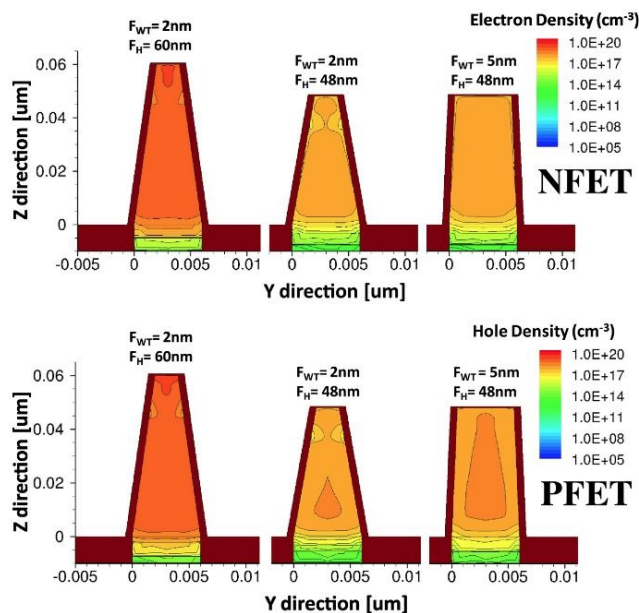


Figure 2.11: Fin shape in a FinFET showcasing the sloped side walls [4]

Adding such a slope to the Fin also makes etching the gate spacer off fin sidewalls easier. Doping the source and drain pins by implantation is easier as slope walls are more suitable for dopant placement. Sloping of the wall comes with a significant disadvantage: poor short channel control towards the bottom as they get wider. This effect is mitigated by introducing additional dopants but still results in loss of drive current; this further reduces as the device is scaled down even further and may cause to revert to vertical shape as devices get smaller.

2.5.3 FinFET Parasitic Capacitance

FinFET devices have inherently higher parasitics compared to that of a corresponding MOSFET device. The parasitic model of the FinFET contains fringe capacitance, which arises due to the tall gate geometry and overlap capacitance due to the source-drain overlap region. Overlap capacitance for MOSFET and FinFET is similar, but fringe capacitance is additional and unique to the FinFET transistor. It mainly

consists of the gate to fin capacitance between the part of the gate and above the Fin and the top portion of the Fin. This capacitance decreases with decreasing the fin pitch and increasing the fin height, per effective device width. The advantage of the bulk FinFET junction capacitance between the source and drain area of the device is multiple times lower than that of the MOSFET or, rather, any planar transistor device. This reduces the effect of the increase in parasitic capacitance due to the 3-D structure of the fin [20]

2.5.4 Fin Isolation

The challenges of the Fin isolation can be explained using the source to drain leakage and device to device leakage effects. Source to drain leakage effect in FinFETs is similar to that of planar devices, and bulk finfet devices require doped wells below the active part of the Fin to ensure prevention source to drain leakage. Such isolation is less likely to be sufficient for FinFET devices with a gate length of 15 nm or less, thereby demanding a more innovative isolation solution below the channel. The foundries were overcome by implementing SOI substrates for a local oxide region around the less active region under the bulk of the silicon fin. This creates a buffer layer whose carefully engineered structure would eliminate the need for another junction or dielectric isolation. Another effect is the device-to-device leakage due to the junction area between the source-drain, and the substrate is much smaller in FinFETs than planar MOSFET transistors. Creating isolation between the FinFETs requires much narrower edges. In a recent study on planar technology, nodes suggest the dept was 200 nm so, and the FinFETs would require less than 100 nm trench depth to create isolation from this drain to drain leakage effect.

2.6 New Transistor Technologies

Researchers have developed new transistor designs which extend the advantages of FinFETS by extending the gate. A group of experts collaborated in the semiconductor industry collaborated to release a document known as International Technological Roadmap for Semiconductors (ITRS)[21]. The ITRS report assesses and evaluates all the technological developments. According to this report, the future of transistor technology is transistor devices with the gate being wrapped around the channel on all four sides known as Gate All Around [22] devices. Various orientations of these gate-all-around devices have been theorized but have yet to be implemented. This novel GAA-FET poses challenges in terms of fabrication, design, and economics for the industry. GAA devices also have challenges in terms of Quantum properties where if the device is too thick, the electrostatic influence of the gate on the sides and top of the Fin will be weaker, and the fin body will behave more like a (planar device) bulk substrate, losing the benefits of the topology. On the other hand, if it is very thin, then the density of available electron or hole states is reduced.

Alternate materials are also considered by academia to design transistors, and Carbon Nano Tubes provide a promising alternative to traditional silicon-based transistors. Carbon nanotubes show both metallic and semiconducting properties and are also compatible with high - k dielectrics, making it easy to fabricate transistors. CNT's can be fabricated to have a very small diameter making it possible to design ultra-small 1-3 nm transistors.

Carbon- nanotubes also have another useful application in integrated circuit designs. There is another potential problem that is arising because of scaling, interconnects[23] or wires which are usually made of metals like copper due to their ductile properties. These copper wires in designs do not scale with like transistors, limiting nanoscale

devices' developments. The advantages of carbon nanotubes as interconnects include large current density, high thermal conductivity, great flexibility, low coefficient of thermal expansion, and low resistivity. CNT-Cu nanocomposite alloys are also being studied to reduce the burden on copper interconnect and synchronize the scaling of interconnects to transistors.

Chapter 3

DESIGN

3.1 Components of Standard Cell Library

The cells that are designed in the standard cell library of the following categories

- **Combinational Logic Cells** : A combinational logic cell consists of circuits that react to the values of signals at their inputs and produce the value of the output signal , transforming binary data from the input to the required output data. There are several combinational cells that are employed by the industry. They perform specific logic functions commonly needed in digital systems design. These combinational logic cells include Adders, multiplexers etc. Most fundamental combinational logic cells are the NAND, NOR, Inverter, AND and OR gates which are required to be present in any standard cell logic as these cells can be used to implement any logic.
- **Sequential Design Cells** : A sequential design cell consists of cells which are required to design storage elements. These cells are capable of storing binary information. There are two types of sequential design cells they are synchronous and asynchronous logic. Synchronous logic cell is generally achieved by including a timing device called a clock generator, which provides a clock signal having the form of periodic train of clock pulses. Sequential design cells in a standard cell library are used to synthesise synchronous systems such as registers, counters etc.

- **Buffers and Inverters :** Buffers and Inverters cells are circuit elements that are used to isolate the input and output. These cells do not change the logic level circuit. They are used to maintain the timing of circuit. They are usually inverters with a Fan out of two or four which are determined by the tools
- **Filler Cells :** Filler cells are used to fill any spaces between regular library cells to maintain continuity. They are essential to establish continuity in design and the implant layers on the cell rows. They are needed when the density of the required metal is high and sometimes foundries require spaces for the metal layers to perform routing. These cells do not appear in netlists or the timing reports of the cells. These are only required to complete the routing of the physical aspect of the design.

3.2 Layout Architecture

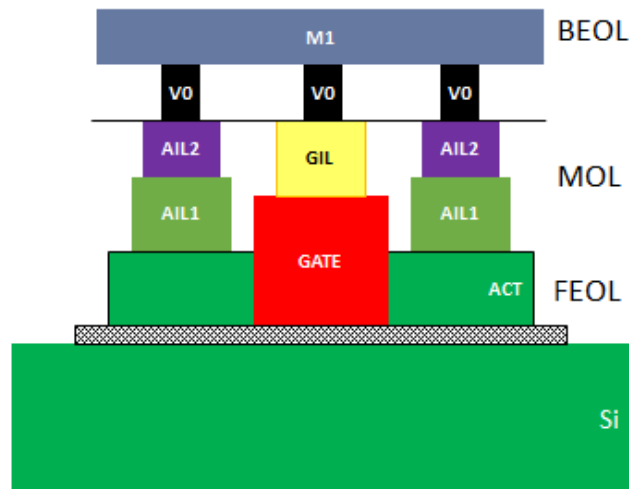


Figure 3.1: Cross section of layout of FinFET [5]

3.2.1 Back End of Line (BEOL) Layers

The metal stack[24]layer is divided into four different layers which consist of Metal 1 where it is directly used for internal routing of the cells. Depending upon the complexity of the design the layers of metals can be stacked in order to complete the routing of the wires in the design. The design kit contains 8 different layers of metals which can be used for routing. These layers follow a hierarchical layers of scaling, the layers of metals get wider towards the top.

The metal layers in physical design include

- Global Layers : This metal layer Clock and power. This is the widest metal layer in the design and generally the top most layer of any physical design.
- Semi-Global Layer: This metal layer is wider than the metal 1 layer and is used for routing signals which require low resistance.
- Intermediate Metal Layer : These layers connect the various devices and systems in a digital design. These layers are stacked over each other using vias for contacts.

3.2.2 Middle of Line (MOL) Layers

The middle of line layers are used to connect the BEOL layers and the front end of line layers (FEOL)[25], this layer of the design is the intermediary layer . MOL layers are drawn in silicon to reduce the effect of electrical resistance as traces drawn in silicon have higher resistance and also the reduces the loss of performance between the layers of the design. MOL layers are also used for routing and interconnecting between internal nets, devices and the connection for the supply rails in dense layouts.

The cross section of the various layers that comprise the MOL are shown in Figure 3.1.

The interconnect layers include

- Active Interconnect Layer - 1 (AIL-1) : This layer is used to connect the individual gates structures or fins to the finfet transistor.
- Active Interconnect Layer -2 (AIL-2) : This layer is used to connect the Fins to the upper top level layers (BEOL)
- Gate Interconnect Layer (GIL) : This layer is used to connect the SiO_2 gate structure to the metal layer.

3.2.3 Front End of Line (FEOL) Layers

The front end of line layers consist of the source and drain pins of the transistor. This layer also comprises of Active silicon layer which defines the device characteristics. ACT layers are generally used in the package file to define the Fin Pitch which is 40 nm. Gate is also a part of the FEOL layer. This package file assumes a double pattern of gate which comprise of Gate A and Gate B. Gate C is the gate cut mask layer which is used by the fabricator to remove the unused patterning and printed features.

3.2.4 Standard Design Rules

The design rules in layout design for any cells are determined and given by the designer of the package files. They are set by the geometric,connectivity restrictions and physics for a device technology are thereby critical for its development. They

make sure that the margins against the manufacturing process variability and also enable the layout designer to verify the design against these rules before they send it for fabrication. Furthermore, these design rules are essential for determining the density of the integrated circuits designed. The design rules vary from package to package file and the number of these rules can also depend on the device complexity and generally range from a few to a thousands. All standard design rules [5] generally contain the following fundamental rules

- Minimum Width : This defined by the founderies and the resolution of their lithographic process used.
- Minimum Spacing : This ensures electrical spacing and isolation between the two devices and prevent unnecessary parasitic elements.
- Overlap : This rule prevents misalignment of the layers that are drawn out and help increase the reliability of the design.
- Enclosure : These prevent overlay of errors caused due to misalignment.
- Area : This is the area around the cell that ensures overlay of errors and regulates adhesion in the design.

3.2.5 Cell Measurements

The cell measurements for the standard cell library must be uniform and depend on the applications and designs where the layouts are used. Picking the cell measurements for layout involves design decisions where the designer has decide on trade offs between the the area of the layout , power consumed and the performance metrics. The cells designed in this standard cell library focus on speed as the main metric. The delay between the transitions for these cells is in the order of new picoseconds

and also the area of these cells are in the order of nanometers compared to the designs in rest of the standard cell libraries which are in micrometers. In finfet designs the cell height is usually dependent on the height of the fins and number of fins that can be drawn in silicon. Cell height of design also has implications on larger circuits that are designed using these standard cells, it also dictates the number of metal rails that have to be laid down. Track is generally used as a unit to define the height of the standard cells. Track can be related to lanes e.g. like we say 4 lane road, implies 4 vehicles can run in parallel. Similarly, 9 track library implies 9 routing tracks are available for routing 9 wires in parallel with minimum pitch. Pitch is defined as the distance between two tracks..

Table 3.1: Cell measurements

S.No	Quantity	Length
1	Pitch	0.518 μm
2	Rail Height	0.033 μm
3	Interior Size	0.453 μm

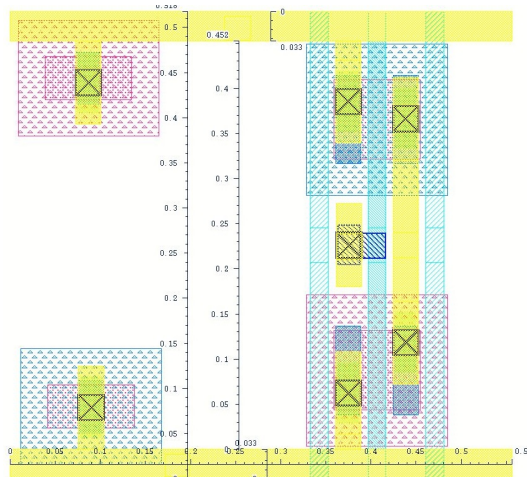


Figure 3.2: Cell rail and pitch measurements for an Inverter cell

3.3 Cell Design

3.3.1 List of cells designed

Table 3.2: List of the cells designed in the standard cell library

S.No	Cell Name	No. of Inputs
1	Inverter	1
2	NAND2	2
3	NAND3	3
4	NOR2	2
5	NOR3	3
6	OR2	2
7	OR3	3
8	AND2	2
9	AND3	3
10	XOR2	2
11	Half-Adder	2
12	Full Adder	3
13	2x1 MUX	3
14	D-FF	2
15	Filler	-
16	BufferX2	1
17	BufferX4	1

3.3.2 Logic Gates

Logic gates are fundamental to any library, for this standard cell library NAND and NOR gates. In this thesis a two input and three versions of the gates were designed. The layout of the NAND ,NOR gates required the use of only one metal layer whereas the layout of OR,AND and XOR2 gate required the use of Metal 1 and Metal 2 layers.

3.3.2.1 2 Input Gates

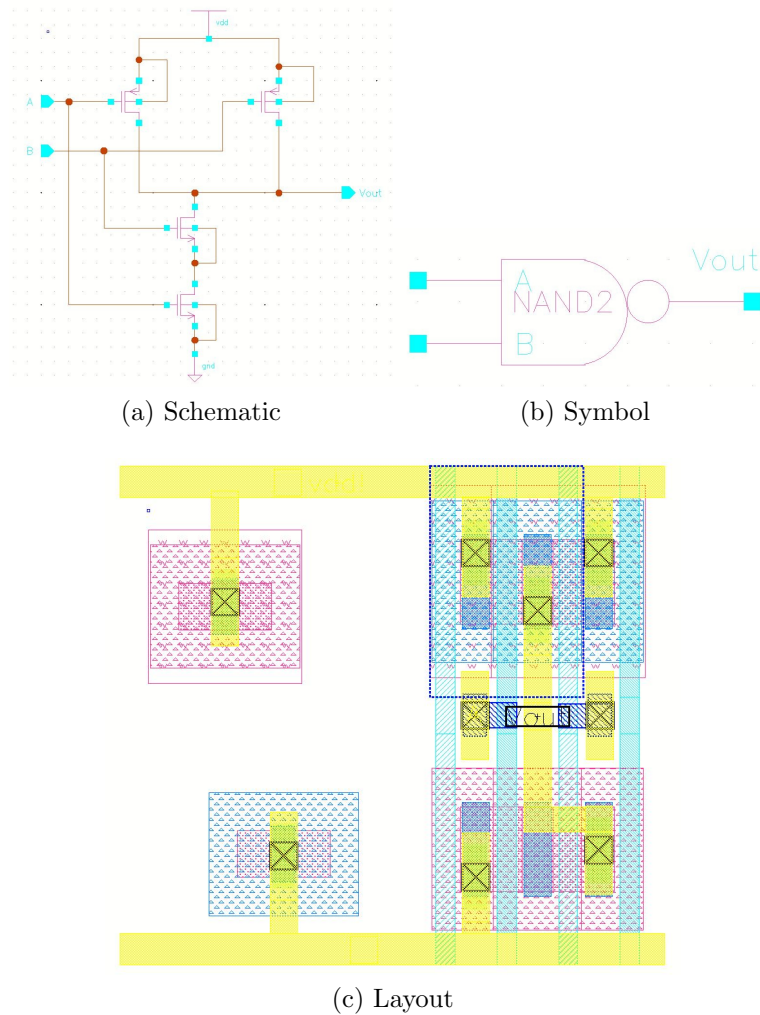


Figure 3.3: Screen captures of (a) Schematic (b) Symbol and (c) Layout of a NAND2 logic gate

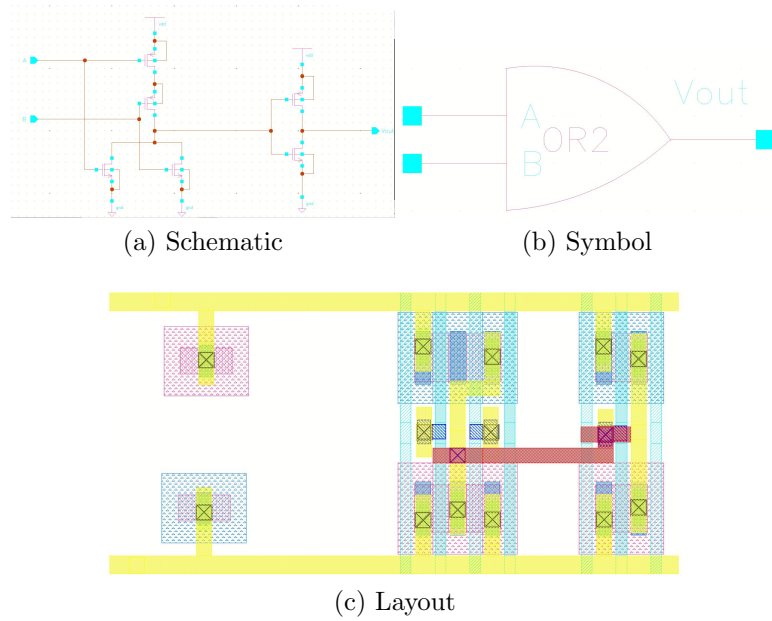


Figure 3.4: Screen captures of (a) Schematic (b) Symbol and (c) Layout of a OR2 logic gate

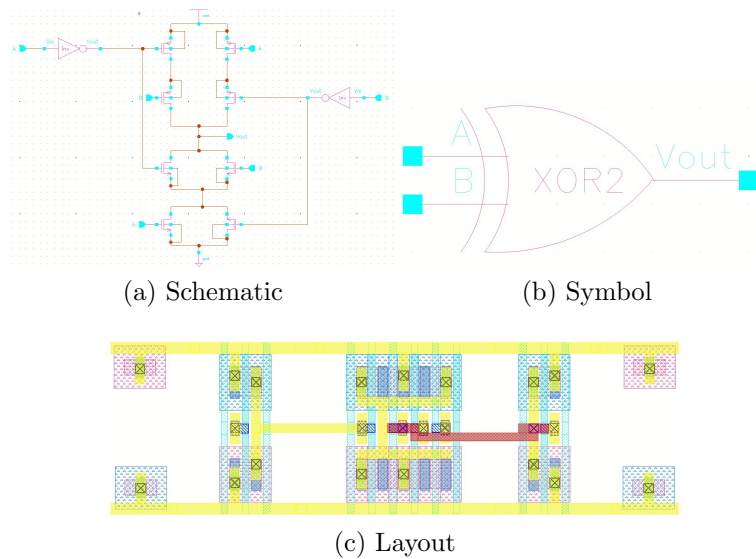


Figure 3.5: Screen captures of (a) Schematic (b) Symbol and (c) Layout of a XOR2 logic gate

3.3.2.2 3 Input Gates

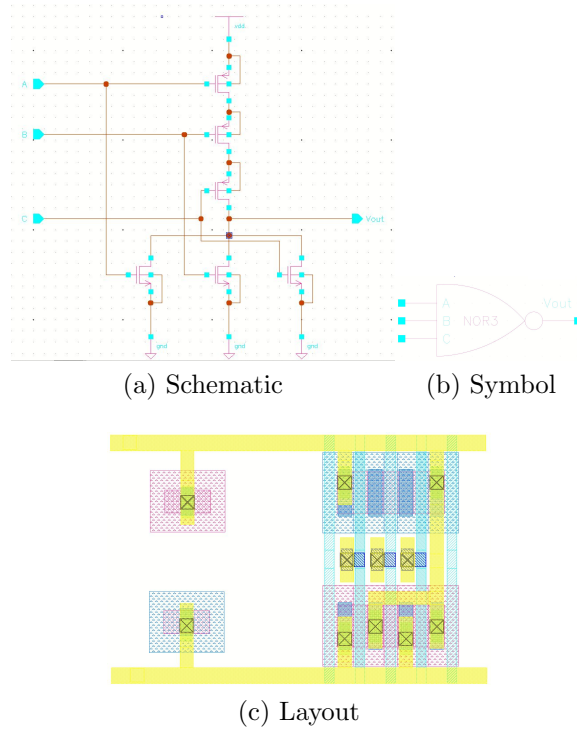


Figure 3.6: Screen captures of (a) Schematic (b) Symbol and (c) Layout of a NOR3 logic gate

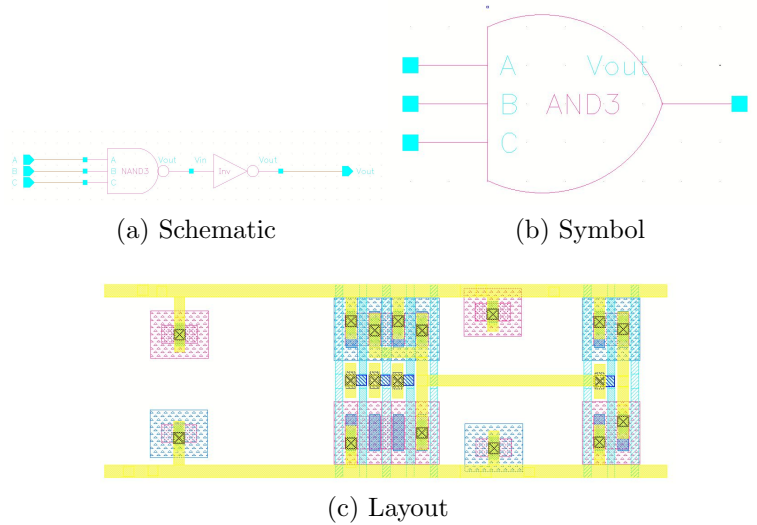


Figure 3.7: Screen captures of (a) Schematic (b) Symbol and (c) Layout of an AND3 logic gate

3.3.3 Adders

3.3.3.1 Half Adder

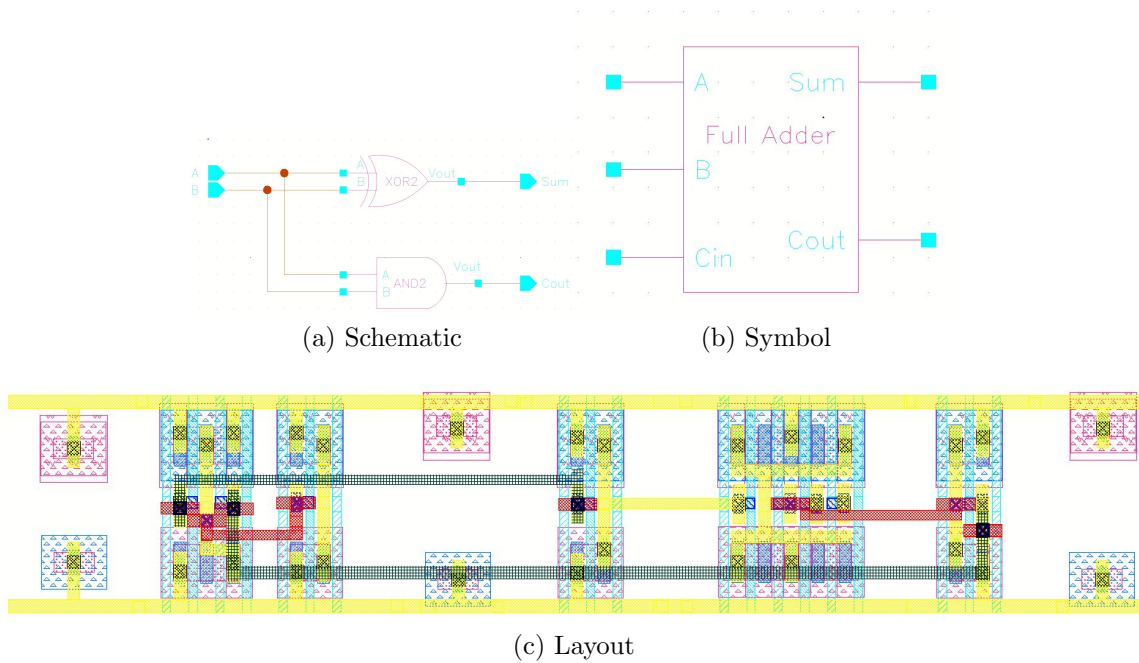


Figure 3.8: Screen captures of (a) Schematic (b) Symbol and (c) Layout of a Half Adder logic cell

Half adder cell gives the sum of two single binary digits given at inputs A and B. The sum is given by the output terminal Vout and carry is given by Cout. The schematic of this cell is designed using the combination of XOR2 and AND2 gates. The layout of this cell was designed by importing the layout of the gates and metal layers M1 and M2 were used for routing.

3.3.3.2 Full Adder

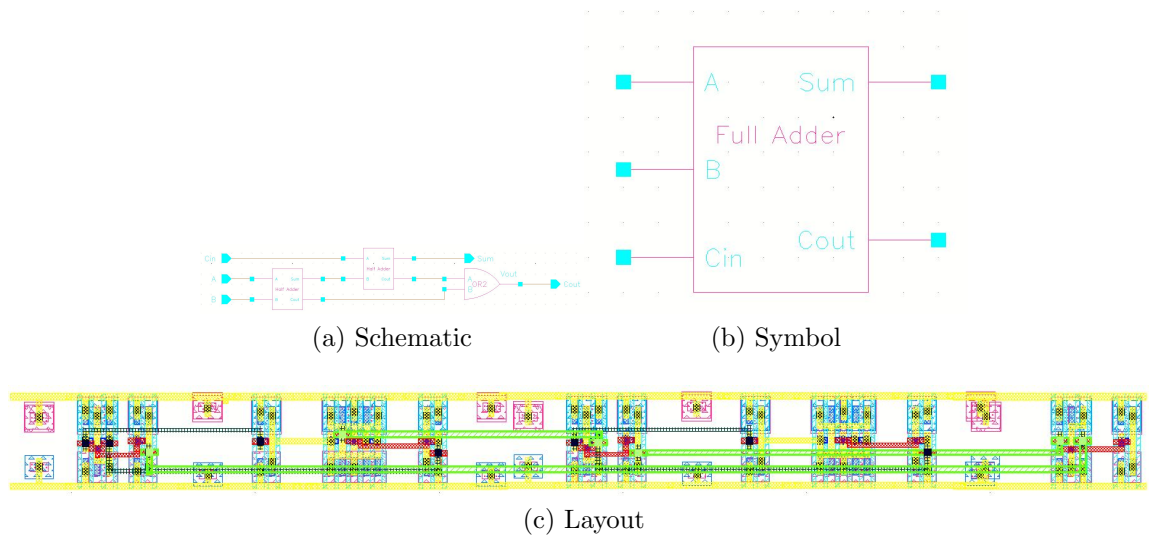


Figure 3.9: Screen captures of (a) Schematic (b) Symbol and (c) Layout of a Full adder logic cell

A full adder [26] circuit is central to most digital circuits that perform addition or subtraction. It is so called because it adds together two binary digits, plus a carry-in digit to produce a sum and carry-out digit. It therefore has three inputs and two outputs. The schematic of this circuit is built using half adder cells to generate sum and OR2 gate to generate the carry out. The layout of this cell required 3 metal layers to complete the routing and the area of the cell was measured to be $3.2 \mu m^2$

3.3.4 Flip Flop

3.3.4.1 D- Flip Flop

D-Flip Flop or the Data Flip flop is one of the most commonly used digital circuit in ICs. The D flip flop tracks the data stream that is given at input D and makes transitions matching the input which are enabled by the clock. This cell is commonly used as memory cell as it also stores the data values of the input data stream. The

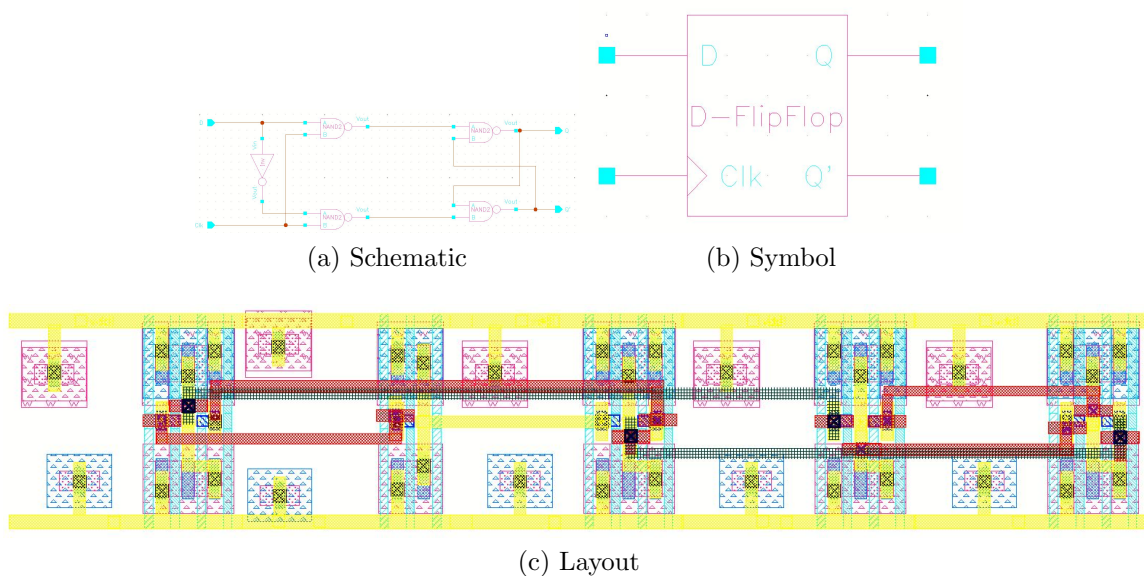


Figure 3.10: Screen captures of (a) Schematic (b) Symbol and (c) Layout of a D-Flip Flop logic cell

schematic of this cell is designed using a combination of NAND2 cells. The output pins of this cell is Q which is tracking the transition and Q ' which is the complement of the output. The layout of this cell was designed by importing the layouts of NAND2 and inverter cells metal M1, M2 and M3 were used for routing. Emphasis of layout of this cell was made to keep the design compact so that it would require minimal area.

3.3.5 Multiplexer

3.3.5.1 2x1 MUX

Multiplexer is a combinational logic cell that acts like a digital switch. It has 2 inputs lines and a select line. It accepts data from input lines and the select line determines the data from the input that gets transferred to the output line. The schematic of this cell is designed using inverter, NAND2 and OR2 cells to design the multiplexer logic. The layout of this cell required metal layers M1 and M2 for routing.

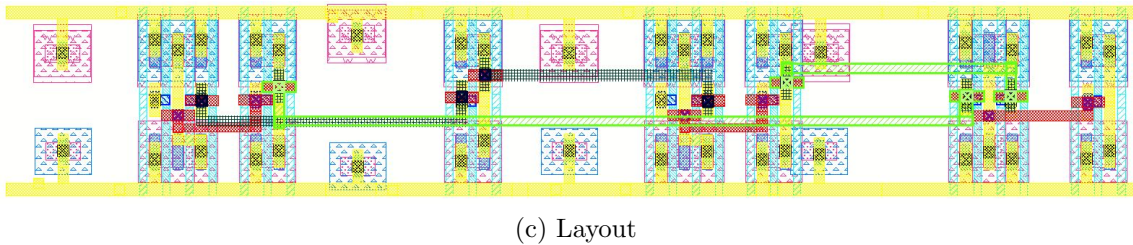
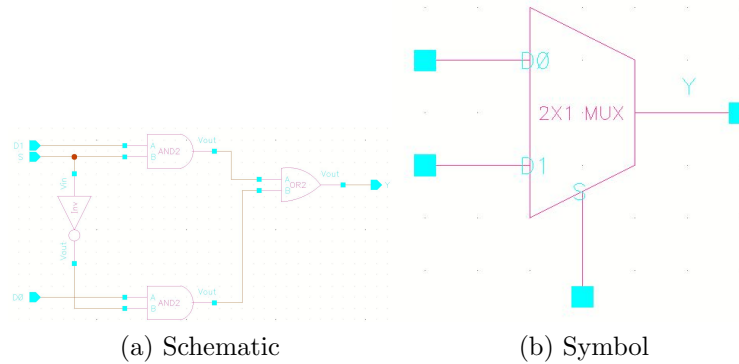


Figure 3.11: Screen captures of (a) Schematic (b) Symbol and (c) Layout of a 2X1 Multiplexer logic cell

3.4 Library Characterization

Standard Cell library characterization[27] is a process of compiling data regarding the behavior of the standard cells. In order to build a functional model of a circuit, determining the logical function of the cell will not suffice.

The effects of the cells of a circuit cascade on to the connecting circuits and thereby get amplified. For example if a cell consumes too much power or there is too much delay in the cell, the power consumption of the circuit and the total delay of the circuit get affected. Characterizing the standard cells enables the system to collect all the required data regarding the performance and other important parameters so that it can predict the cell behavior in any given environment. The process of characterization standard cells starts by designing the schematic view which generates a netlist after which the logical function is defined. From this netlist the layout is

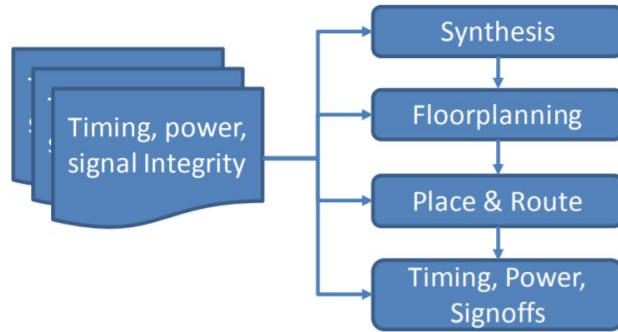


Figure 3.12: Objectives of characterization [6]

drawn in silicon after that extraction is performed where the tools determine the parasitic capacitances and resistances within the cell. Post all these steps the design is used for abstract description of the cells which give timing power and other parameters such as noise behavior. Timing and power can also be derived from simulating the netlist or the schematic but it does not provide the comprehensive solution of the delay and power. Characterizing the cells provides the effective solution as it considers the best and worst PVT (Process Voltage Temperature) conditions which ensures the overall functionality of the design. Also, it has to ensure that cells must cover a large spectrum of input rates and output loads. After characterization of the cells the data is stored in a liberty format (.lib) where the information is stored in binary functions with its timing behavior. A single liberty file can store data of multiple standard cell libraries. The most fundamental setup of libraries contain two liberty files with the best and worst case file data.

3.4.1 Liberty File

Liberty files are written in TCL scripting language. EDA's usually have their own characterization software. For this thesis Cadence Liberate was utilized to character-

ize the standard cell library. The script of the characterization file is shown below in Figure 3.13

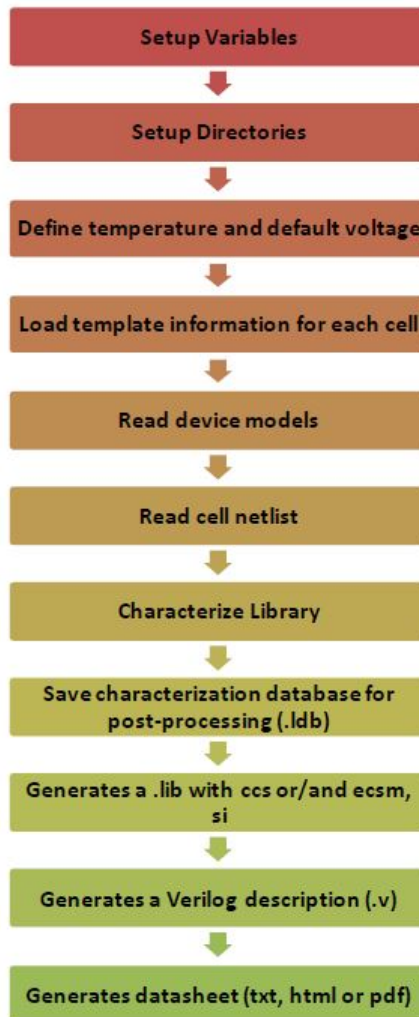


Figure 3.13: Process flow of a liberty file.[6]

First set up variables are initialized, to begin with the environment where the library is stored, corner files, operating voltage and the operating temperature and the cell name are initialized. Directories are then given so that the tool knows where the data after characterization has to be saved. Cadence liberate generates a library file, datasheet with all the capacitances and the voltages and a verilog file which will be used to initialize the cell when the functional behavior written using HDL. Source

templates are then loaded, these include the model files which describe the design kit, netlist format .sp which is generated by cadence spectre, the extraction files and the abstraction files. Having given all the input data and a path to write the output files characterization command *char < libraryname >* is given to characterize. Upon characterization cadence liberate generates a database which contain all the parasitic capacitances, timing analysis and a verilog description so that tools like Cadence Genus can utilize the standard cell library to design digital circuits.

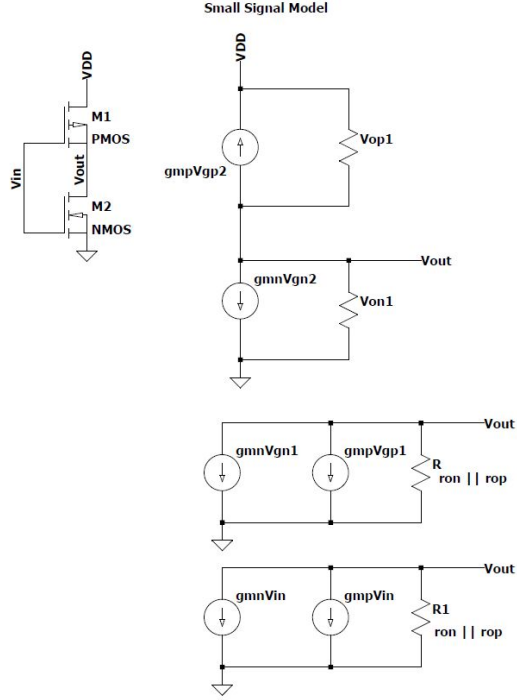
Chapter 4

RESULTS

4.1 Small Signal Analysis

A FinFET transistor was studied using small-signal analysis to characterize it. Small Signal model considers that small signals are injected in the terminals of the transistor, which linearizes the $I_{DS}-V_{GS}$ and $I_{DS}-V_{DS}$ curves around a point of operation called operating point. A gate voltage V_{GS} is applied to the transistor. A current will be generated that will match the current that flows through the resistance, and this causes a voltage drop across the opposition and set the drain-source voltage of the transistor.

The small-signal analysis also gives us essential parameters such as transconductance and output voltage. Transconductance (G_m) is the ratio of change in output current I_{DS} to the change in input voltage V_{GS} . The product of transconductance and output voltage gives us the Voltage gain of the FinFET device. These parameters help us understand its operation. A mathematical model of small-signal analysis is explained in saturation mode.



$$\begin{aligned}
 V_{out} &= -(g_{m_n}V_{in} + g_{m_p}V_{in})(r_{on} || r_{op}) \\
 A_v &= \frac{v_{out}}{v_{in}} = -(g_{m_n} + g_{m_p})(r_{on} || r_{op}) \\
 \text{where, } g_m &= \frac{dI_{DS}}{dV_{GS}} \\
 r_o &= \frac{1}{\frac{dI_{DS}}{dV_{GS}}}
 \end{aligned} \tag{4.1}$$

On simulating this model the following DC Operating points were obtained For values set at $V_{GS} = 0.4V$ and $V_{DS} = 0.8V$

$$\begin{aligned}
 G_M &= 376.5\mu S \\
 R_{out} &= 54.55kOhms \\
 A_v &= 20
 \end{aligned} \tag{4.2}$$

4.2 Power and Delay of Cells

Table 4.1: Tabulation of metrics for the cells designed in standard cell libraries

VDD : 800mV				
Operating Frequency : 250 MHz				
S.No	Cell	Delay	Power	PDP
1	Inverter	0.153 ps	161 nW	242. E-21 J
2	NAND2	0.86 ps	62.5 nW	84.3 E-21 J
3	NOR2	0.69 ps	65.42 nW	35.8 E-21 J
4	AND2	4.60 ps	146.9 nW	293 E-21 J
5	OR2	2.19 ps	147.9 nW	547 E-21 J
6	XOR2	2.00ns	550.0 nW	3.72 E-18 J
7	NAND3	0.33 ps	91.3 nW	580 E-21 J
8	NOR3	2.00 ps	88.1 nW	21.1 E-21 J
9	AND3	3.17 ps	340.0nW	2.88 E-18 J
10	OR3	0.71 ps	269.0 nW	730.5 E-21 J
11	Half- Adder	2.10 ps	705.7 nW	4.6 E-18 J
12	Full Adder	5.23 ps	1.5 μ W	14 E-18 J
13	D-FF	12.44 ps	441.0 nW	13 E-18 J
14	2x1 MUX	5.60 ps	734.2 nW	7.47 E-18 J

The above table showcases the power and propagation delay measurements of the logic gates in the standard cell library. The above results have been simulated with an operating voltage V_{DD} of 800mV, which is significantly lower than the voltage required by the MOSFET transistors. The cells were simulated with an operating frequency of 250MHz. The cells showcase the advantages of FinFETs, and the library is very fast in terms of propagation delay and is energy efficient. The area of the Full Adder cell was measured, and it was $3.2 \mu m^2$ compared to the area of a $321 \mu m^2$ in

a 320nm CMOS technology file. The designed standard cell library proves to be high speed and energy-efficient.

4.3 Ripple Carry Adder

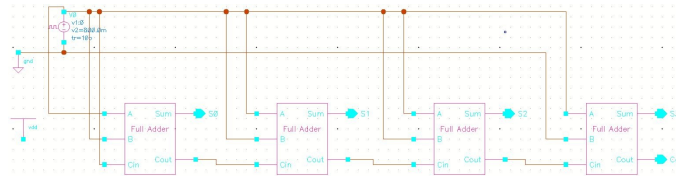


Figure 4.1: Schematic of 4- bit ripple carry adder

In order to showcase the design and performance metrics of the designed standard cell library, the cells of the library were used to design a 4-bit ripple carry adder was designed. Ripple carry adder uses the full adder cells connected in series so each full adder block. Ripple carry adder includes a series of full adders equivalent to the number of bits [3]. The first full adder will be provided with first bits of both numbers A0 and B and input carry Cin. The output of the first full adder will be the first bit of Sum S0 and carry out, which will be rippled to the next full adder. The circuit was drawn out using the designed standard cell library, and its performance was measured and compared to the same circuit designed in 180nm node size TSMC180 design kit. Upon simulation and analysis, the designed Ripple carry adder using our standard cell library showed 94% decrease in propagation delay and 92% reduction in the power consumption of the adder.

Table 4.2: Comparison of performance metrics of CMOS and FinFET Ripple Carry adder

S.No	Design File	Delay	Power
1	MOSFET : TSMC 180 nm	231.5 ps	330.6 μW
2	FinFET : FreePDK 15 15nm	12.8 ps	26.78 μW
Percentage Difference		94.47 % Decrease	91.89 % Decrease

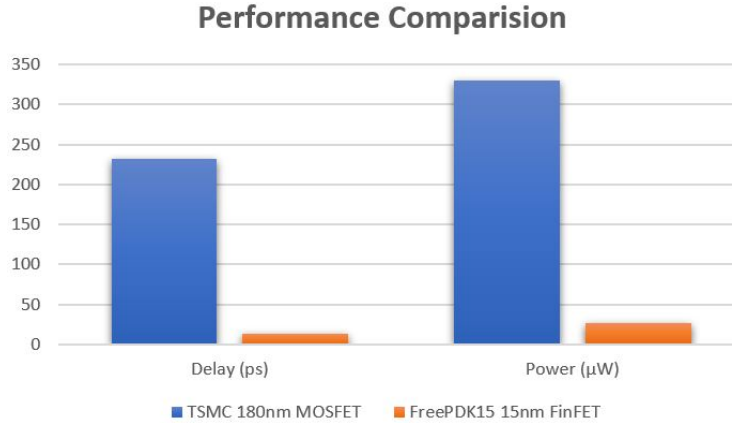


Figure 4.2: Comparison of performance metrics of TSMC 180nm and FreePDK15 Ripple carry adder

4.4 D- Flip Flop

Table 4.3: Simulation results of DFF cells compared to state of the art flip flops.

S.No	Flip Flop	Package File	Set-up Time	Area
1	IPFF	28nm CMOS	107 ps	$0.25 \mu m^2$
2	TGFF	28nm CMOS	15 ps	$0.129 \mu m^2$
3	TCFF	28nm CMOS	45 ps	$0.108 \mu m^2$
4	<i>DFF</i>	<i>15nm FinFET</i>	<i>7.3 fs</i>	<i>1.43 μm²</i>

Many parameters specify the flip flop’s performance like setup and hold times, layout area, power dissipation, and leakage current. However, as modern systems’ applications require a high-speed operation, they also require ultra-low power consumption and small area to achieve a competitive cost structure. This dictates a trade-off between [28] achieving high performance while maintaining low power consumption and low cost. The state of the art that is widely used in digital circuits that are used to compare the performance are TGFF (Transmission Gate Flip Flop) [29] which is designed to pass clock pulses to the circuit as long as D is equal to Q which has reduced power consumption. Another low power unconventional Flip-Flop structure named Topologically Compressed Flip Flop (TCFF) [29] with where clock network

has reduced dynamic power. But it suffers from high setup time compared to TGFF due to signal conditioning in the master latch. Another pulsed design flip-flop named Implicit Pulse Flip Flop with Embedded Clock-Gating and Pull-Up Control Scheme (IPFF)[30]. It has advantages over other pulsed flops, as it has addressed passing clock pulses when the data is not switching, which wastes power due to unneeded charging and discharging operations. Simulations were performed using 1 GHz clock signal, and the Set-up time and area are calculated. On analyzing the results, it was observed that compared to these flip flops, the DFF cell designed had a significantly reduced setup time which showcases the efficiency of the design and reinstates the performance advantages of using FinFET transistors over planar devices.

Chapter 5

FUTURE WORK

A standard cell library was designed and implemented using FinFETs using 15nm package files in this thesis. The designed library can be used through Cadence Genus to make digital designs utilizing the 15nm FinFET devices. The scaling down of transistors sub 20nm is made possible by FinFETs. Foundries and designers in the industry have started implementing designs sub 5nm node sizes and are looking to scale them further down to improve the performance of their designs. Although FinFETs extend Moor's law, the scaling of devices has slowed down. During the process, I faced the following problems, and with more time, I would have looked into solutions to tackle these problems.

- FreePDK15 design kit does not allow the user to alter the W/L ratio of the FinFET transistors, and hence I could not design circuits with varied drive strengths. Therefore, these cells would be efficient in simple designs, but these cells would fail as they have a drive strength of 1X for larger and more complex designs.
- While designing the standard cell library, there were a few problems that I had faced. FreePDK15 design kit had been designed in collaboration with Mentor Graphics calibre for extraction files because there were licensing problems as Cal Poly only has the license for Cadence tools. If I had more time, I would have looked into converting the files from Calibre to Cadence Quantus as this process is very long and requires elaborate work. Characterization requires extraction files, and since I could not get the extracted view, characterization

using Cadence liberate was not performed. However, I had written the script for characterization, the tools wouldn't run without the extracted view.

Chapter 6

CONCLUSION

FinFET transistors have been studied in this thesis and compared with planar MOSFET devices, and a standard cell library was designed using a 15nm FinFET FreePDK15 design kit. To understand the advantages of the standard cell library, a Ripple carry adder was designed in both FinFET design kit and 180nm MOSFET design kit.

Typically in a FinFET device, the three-dimensional 'fin' structure is wrapped by the gate on all three sides, thereby providing better control over the channel. Then there is better control over the flow of electrons, which causes the FinFET devices to allow very small leakage current. The 'fin' also provides a larger surface area and volume compared to planar MOSFET transistors. It was also discussed that FinFET transistors scale better than the MOSFET enabling designers to develop digital circuits at sub 5nm technological nodes.

The Standard cell library was designed and characterized, and the simulation results show the designed cells have a significant improvement in metrics. Power Speed and Area have been the three most important metrics in the design and optimization of semiconductor technologies. Any other parameter would be a subset of these three metrics. The library designed proved to be extremely fast and compact, and efficient in terms of energy consumption. Compared to planar MOSFET devices, there is a vast difference in propagation delay and power consumption. D-FF cell was compared with other commonly used designs and it had a significantly faster set-up time. The Ripple carry adder designed to compare metrics showed to have more than 92% improvement in speed and power consumption.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

LIBERATE SCRIPT

A.1 Library Cell Characterization

```
set rundir $env(PWD)
set CORNER tt
set VOLTAGE 0.8
set TEMPERATURE 25
set cell <cell name>
# Create the directories Liberate will write to.
exec mkdir-p ${rundir}/LDB
exec mkdir-p ${rundir}/LIBRARY
exec mkdir-p ${rundir}/DATASHEET
exec mkdir-p ${rundir}/VERILOG
set_operating_condition -voltage $VOLTAGE -temp $TEMPERATURE
## Load template information for each cell ##
source ${rundir}<>/TEMPLATE/<source.tcl >
read_spice ${rundir} <Corner File Directory>
read_spice -format spectre ${rundir}<Netlist Directory>
char_library <stdcell>
# Generating descriptions and data sheet
write_ldb ${rundir}<Directory to save characterization files>
write_library <directory to save library>
write_verilog ${rundir}<directory to save verilog files>
write_datasheet -format html -dir ${rundir}<directory to save datasheet>
```

A.2 Power and Timing Arcs for NOR2, Inverter and DFF

```
set_var slew_lower_rise 0.3
set_var slew_lower_fall 0.3
set_var slew_upper_rise 0.7
set_var slew_upper_fall 0.7
```

```

set_var measure_slew_lower_rise 0.3
set_var measure_slew_lower_fall 0.3
set_var measure_slew_upper_rise 0.7
set_var measure_slew_upper_fall 0.7

set_var delaVout_inp_rise 0.5
set_var delaVout_inp_fall 0.5
set_var delaVout_out_rise 0.5
set_var delaVout_out_fall 0.5

set_var def_arc_msg_level 0
set_var max_transition 1.5e-09
set_var min_transition 2.5e-10
set_var min_output_cap 1.5e-14

set cells { \
  D-FF \
  INV \
  NOR2 \
}

define_template -tVoutpe delaVout \
  -index_1 {0.25 0.5 0.75 1.25 1.5 } \
  -index_2 {0.015 0.05 0.15 0.3 0.6 } \
  delaVout_template_5x5

define_template -tVoutpe constraint \
  -index_1 {0.25 0.75 1.5 } \
  -index_2 {0.25 0.75 1.5 } \
  constraint_template_3x3

define_template -tVoutpe power \
  -index_1 {0.25 0.5 0.75 1.25 1.5 } \
  -index_2 {0.015 0.05 0.15 0.3 0.6 } \
  power_template_5x5

define_cell \
  -clock { CLK } \
  -input { D } \
  -output { Q Q' } \
  -pinlist { D CLK Q Q' } \
  -delaVout delaVout_template_5x5 \
  -power power_template_5x5 \
  -constraint constraint_template_3x3 \

```

D-FF

```
define_leakage -when "(CLK * D * !(Q) * Q' )" D-FF
define_leakage -when "(CLK * D * Q * !(Q' ))" D-FF
define_leakage -when "(CLK * !(D) * !(Q) * Q' )" D-FF
define_leakage -when "(CLK * !(D) * Q * !(Q' ))" D-FF
define_leakage -when "(! (CLK) * D * !(Q) * Q' )" D-FF
define_leakage -when "(! (CLK) * D * Q * !(Q' ))" D-FF
define_leakage -when "(! (CLK) * !(D) * !(Q) * Q' )" D-FF
define_leakage -when "(! (CLK) * !(D) * Q * !(Q' ))" D-FF

# power arcs from => D hidden
define_arc \
    -tVoutpe hidden \
    -when "(CLK * Q * !(Q' )) + (CLK * !(Q) * Q' )" \
    -vector {Rxxx} \
    -pin D \
    D-FF

# power arcs from => D hidden
define_arc \
    -tVoutpe hidden \
    -when "(CLK * Q * !(Q' )) + (CLK * !(Q) * Q' )" \
    -vector {Fxxx} \
    -pin D \
    D-FF

define_arc \
    -tVoutpe hidden \
    -when "(! (CLK) * Q * !(Q' )) + (! (CLK) * !(Q) * Q' )" \
    -vector {Rxxx} \
    -pin D \
    D-FF

define_arc \
    -tVoutpe hidden \
    -when "(! (CLK) * Q * !(Q' )) + (! (CLK) * !(Q) * Q' )" \
    -vector {Fxxx} \
    -pin D \
    D-FF

# constraint arcs from CLK => D setup_rising
define_arc \
    -tVoutpe setup \
    -vector {RRxx} \
```

```

        -related_pin CLK \
        -pin D \
        D-FF

# constraint arcs from CLK => D  setup_rising
define_arc \
    -tVoutpe setup \
    -vector {FRxx} \
    -related_pin CLK \
    -pin D \
    D-FF

define_arc \
    -tVoutpe hold \
    -vector {RRxx} \
    -related_pin CLK \
    -pin D \
    D-FF

define_arc \
    -tVoutpe hold \
    -vector {FRxx} \
    -related_pin CLK \
    -pin D \
    D-FF

# power arcs from => CLK  hidden
define_arc \
    -tVoutpe hidden \
    -when "(D * !(Q) * Q')" \
    -vector {xRxx} \
    -pin CLK \
    D-FF

# power arcs from => CLK  hidden
define_arc \
    -tVoutpe hidden \
    -when "(D * !(Q) * Q')" \
    -vector {xFxx} \
    -pin CLK \
    D-FF

define_arc \
    -tVoutpe hidden \
    -when "(!(D) * Q * !(Q'))" \

```



```

        -vector {xRxx} \
        -pin CLK \
        D-FF

define_arc \
    -tVoutpe hidden \
    -when "!(D) * Q * !(Q')" \
    -vector {xFxx} \
    -pin CLK \
    D-FF

define_arc \
    -tVoutpe hidden \
    -when "(D * Q * !(Q'))" \
    -vector {xFxx} \
    -pin CLK \
    D-FF

define_arc \
    -tVoutpe hidden \
    -when "!(D) * !(Q) * Q'" \
    -vector {xFxx} \
    -pin CLK \
    D-FF

# constraint arcs from CLK => CLK min_pulse_width
define_arc \
    -tVoutpe min_pulse_width \
    -vector {xRxx} \
    -related_pin CLK \
    -pin CLK \
    D-FF

# constraint arcs from CLK => CLK min_pulse_width
define_arc \
    -tVoutpe min_pulse_width \
    -vector {xFxx} \
    -related_pin CLK \
    -pin CLK \
    D-FF

# delaVout arcs from CLK => Q non_unate rising_edge
define_arc \
    -tVoutpe edge \
    -vector {xRRx} \

```

```

        -related_pin CLK \
        -pin Q \
        D-FF

# delaVout arcs from CLK => Q non_unate rising_edge
define_arc \
    -tVoutpe edge \
    -vector {xRFx} \
    -related_pin CLK \
    -pin Q \
    D-FF

# delaVout arcs from CLK => Q' non_unate rising_edge
define_arc \
    -tVoutpe edge \
    -vector {xRxR} \
    -related_pin CLK \
    -pin Q' \
    D-FF

# delaVout arcs from CLK => Q' non_unate rising_edge
define_arc \
    -tVoutpe edge \
    -vector {xRxF} \
    -related_pin CLK \
    -pin Q' \
    D-FF

define_cell \
    -input { A } \
    -output { Vout } \
    -pinlist { A Vout } \
    -delaVout delaVout_template_5x5 \
    -power power_template_5x5 \
    Inverter

define_leakage -when "(A * !(Vout))" Inverter
define_leakage -when "(!A) * Vout" Inverter

# delaVout arcs from A => Vout negative_unate combinational
define_arc \
    -vector {FR} \
    -related_pin A \
    -pin Vout \
    Inverter

```

```

# delaVout arcs from A => Vout negative_unate combinational
define_arc \
    -vector {RF} \
    -related_pin A \
    -pin Vout \
    Inverter

define_cell \
    -input { A B } \
    -output { Vout } \
    -pinlist { A B Vout } \
    -delaVout delaVout_template_5x5 \
    -power power_template_5x5 \
    NOR2

define_leakage -when "(A * B * !(Vout))" NOR2
define_leakage -when "(A * !(B) * !(Vout))" NOR2
define_leakage -when "(!(A) * B * !(Vout))" NOR2
define_leakage -when "(!(A) * !(B) * Vout)" NOR2

# power arcs from => A hidden
define_arc \
    -tVoutpe hidden \
    -when "(B * !(Vout))" \
    -vector {Rxx} \
    -pin A \
    NOR2

# power arcs from => A hidden
define_arc \
    -tVoutpe hidden \
    -when "(B * !(Vout))" \
    -vector {Fxx} \
    -pin A \
    NOR2

# power arcs from => B hidden
define_arc \
    -tVoutpe hidden \
    -when "(A * !(Vout))" \
    -vector {xRx} \
    -pin B \
    NOR2

```

```

# power arcs from => B hidden
define_arc \
    -tVoutpe hidden \
    -when "(A * !(Vout))" \
    -vector {xFx} \
    -pin B \
    NOR2

# delaVout arcs from A => Vout negative_unate combinational
define_arc \
    -vector {FxR} \
    -related_pin A \
    -pin Vout \
    NOR2

# delaVout arcs from A => Vout negative_unate combinational
define_arc \
    -vector {RxR} \
    -related_pin A \
    -pin Vout \
    NOR2

# delaVout arcs from B => Vout negative_unate combinational
define_arc \
    -vector {xFR} \
    -related_pin B \
    -pin Vout \
    NOR2

# delaVout arcs from B => Vout negative_unate combinational
define_arc \
    -vector {xRF} \
    -related_pin B \
    -pin Vout \
    NOR2

```