

# Via-Switch FPGA: 65-nm CMOS Implementation and Evaluation

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**Abstract**—Offering a combination of low latency, high energy-efficiency, and flexibility, field-programmable gate arrays (FPGAs) suit applications ranging from Internet of Things (IoT) computing to artificial intelligence (AI). The conventional static random access memory (SRAM) FPGAs face severe challenges including large standby power and low logic density due to utilization of SRAM cell and MOS switch for signal routing. In response, researchers have introduced emerging non-volatile (NV) memory technologies to solve standby power issues. However, access transistors used for NV memory cell configuration still consume a large silicon area. In this article, we introduce an NV via-switch (VS) FPGA featuring fully back-end-of-line (BEOL) signal routing and front-end-of-line (FEOL) logic computing for high logic density. The VS fabricated in BEOL is constructed by two Cu atom switches (ASs) for signal routing and two a-Si/SiN/a-Si varistors for AS configuration. We demonstrate the first implementation of the VS-FPGA at 65-nm node and evaluate its performance by various basic applications.  $2.6\times$  logic density,  $1.5\times$  energy efficiency, and  $1.4\times$  operation speed are achieved in comparison with a previous complementary AS (CAS) FPGA in which one access transistor is necessary for each CAS configuration.

**Index Terms**—Atom switch (AS), cross-point, field programmable gate array (FPGA), nonvolatile (NV), programmable logic, resistive random access memory (RRAM), via-switch (VS).

## I. INTRODUCTION

FIELD-PROGRAMMABLE gate array (FPGAs) are playing an important role in both cloud and edge computations of the Internet of Things (IoT). FPGAs are being deployed as accelerators in data center infrastructure to construct a configurable cloud [1], [2], introduced in various sensors for real-time processing [3], [4], and used for *in situ* artificial intelligence (AI) inference and training in edge devices [5], [6].

A conventional static random access memory (SRAM)-FPGA consists of routing blocks (RBs), logic blocks (LBs),

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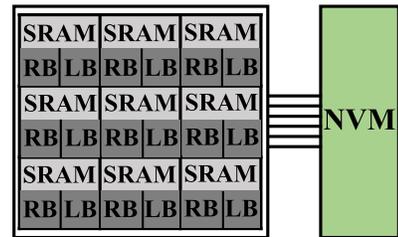
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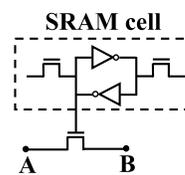
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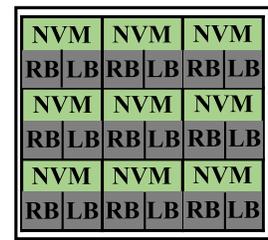


RB: routing block LB: logic block

(a)



(b)



(c)

Fig. 1. Structures of conventional SRAM- and NVM-FPGAs. (a) Structure of a conventional SRAM-FPGA [7]. (b) Schematic of an SRAM routing switch [7]. (c) Structure of an NVM-FPGA [12]–[34].

SRAM blocks and an external nonvolatile memory (NVM) block as shown in Fig. 1(a). SRAM cells typically composed of six transistors are programmed to implement logic functions in look-up tables (LUTs) and control MOS switches (pass transistors, transmission gates, or multiplexers) to steer interconnect signals for various applications as shown in Fig. 1(b) [7]. The area of the RBs and SRAM blocks is about four times larger than that of the LBs [8]. Due to this, the chip size of the SRAM-FPGA becomes 35 times larger than that of an application-specific integrated circuit (ASIC) [9]. MOS switches and long interconnection wires result in 3.4–4.6 times lower operation speed than an ASIC [9] and consume 62% more dynamic power [10]. The high leakage power of the SRAM has become another critical issue in the SRAM-FPGA [10]. Moreover, the SRAM-FPGA is volatile and needs to reload their configuration data from the external NVM to the internal SRAM every time after it is powered up [11].

To address the issues concerning the SRAM-FPGA, as shown in Fig. 1(c), researchers started to replace the SRAM by emerging embedded NVM including phase-change memory (PCM) [12], spin-transfer-torque magnetic random access memory (STT-MRAM) [13]–[15], and resistive random access

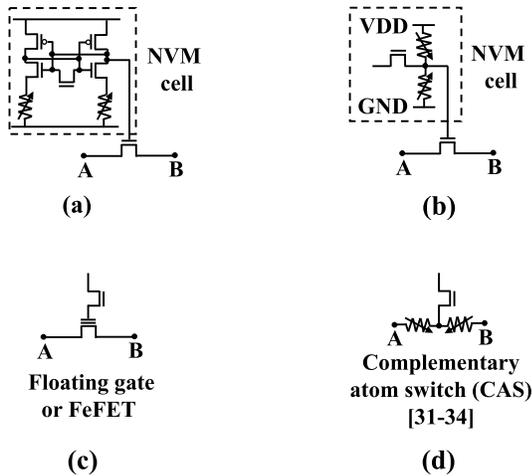


Fig. 2. NV routing switches. (a) Routing switch using an NVM cell in an SRAM-like sensing structure [12]–[16]. (b) Routing switch using a voltage-divider-based NVM cell [17]–[20]. (c) Routing switch using an NV programmable transistor including a floating gate [21]–[23] or an FeFET [24]. (d) Routing switch using an NV programmable switch [25]–[33], a CAS is shown as an example.

memory (RRAM) [16]. Fig. 2(a) shows a routing switch using two NVM cells embedded in an SRAM-like sensing structure. Instant power-on directly using configuration data stored in NVM cells achieves almost zero standby power. However, the additional transistors for providing programmability set limits for advanced scaling.

To maximize the advantages of the non-volatile (NV) routing switch, Ahari *et al.* [17], Tanachutiwat *et al.* [18], Chen *et al.* [19], and Liauw *et al.* [20] introduced a voltage-divider-based configuration cell shown in Fig. 2(b). Liauw *et al.* [20] reported that the voltage-divider RRAM-FPGA achieved 40% smaller die area and 28% lower energy-delay product thanks to shorter interconnection wires. Other researchers have attempted to replace the SRAMs and MOS switches with programmable transistors including floating gates [21]–[23] and ferroelectric field-effect transistors (FeFET) [24] as shown in Fig. 2(c). However, the transistors with high resistance and capacitance on the routing path still result in low operation speed and high dynamic power consumption.

To overcome the problems originating from routing transistors, RRAMs and atom switches (ASs) are directly introduced as routing switches for signal transfer control in [25]–[27] and [28]–[34], respectively. The AS is an NV resistive switch fabricated between back-end-of-line (BEOL) Cu layers and has very small capacitance ( $\sim 1/10$  of a transistor), low ON-state resistance ( $\sim 500 \Omega$ ), and high OFF-state resistance ( $\sim 250 \text{ M}\Omega$ ) [28]. Its OFF/ON resistance ratio is much larger than the RRAM whose ON-state and OFF-state resistances are  $\sim 10 \text{ K}\Omega$  and  $\sim 1 \text{ M}\Omega$ , respectively [24]. The AS-FPGA is first fabricated and presented in [29]. In addition, a complementary AS (CAS), which is composed of two ASs in series as shown in Fig. 2(d), reduces the programming voltage to 2 V and improves OFF-state reliability [30]. The CAS-FPGAs have been fabricated to evaluate area and performance [31]–[34] and achieved 78% area reduction compared with a conventional SRAM-FPGA [31].

On the other hand, the switch footprint has room for improvement. The RRAM routing switch adopts two-transistor-one-RRAM (2T1R) structure [25] or four-transistor-one-RRAM (4T1R) structure [26], [27]. Either the AS or the CAS also requires an access transistor for configuration control. Even though the switch itself has a small footprint and is integrated above the CMOS layer, the access transistors occupy the additional area.

To further exploit the advantage of the NV routing switch, integrating selectors between BEOL metal layers is studied to replace the access transistors for dramatical improvement of logic density [35]–[39]. For pursuing further efficient FPGA implementation, we have proposed a two-varistor one-CAS (2V-1CAS) structure named “via-switch” (VS) [40]–[42] to obtain high functionality with multiple cross-point programming per column or row (multiple fan-outs) of the crossbar switch. The multiple fan-outs functionality facilitates the signal routing and improves its quality in application mapping. As for the FPGA chip design, the CMOS layer under the VS has no layout restrictions, and hence the layout design flexibility improves significantly, which is another advantage in addition to the small footprint.

Previously, we have reported the first implementation of the VS-FPGA [43] and its performance evaluation [44]. This article provides the details of the design of the fabricated VS-FPGA, including device characteristics of the VS, circuit schematics, the explanation of the area efficiency, and discusses evaluation results of the VS-FPGA using additional measurement data.

The remainder of this article is organized as follows. Section II introduces the characteristics of the AS, the varistor, the VS and the VS crossbar switch. Section III describes the circuit schematics of the VS-FPGA and demonstrates its area efficiency. Section IV provides evaluations of the VS-FPGA. Conclusions are presented in Section V.

## II. VIA-SWITCH

### A. Atom Switch

The AS is a kind of cation-type electrochemical NV resistive-change devices [28]. A polymer-solid electrolyte (PSE) is sandwiched between an active (Cu) anode and an inert (Ru) cathode as shown in Fig. 3. When a positive voltage VSET is applied to the Cu electrode,  $\text{Cu}^+$  is extracted to form a Cu bridge, and the AS is turned on, which is called set operation. On the other hand, when a positive voltage VRESET is applied to the Ru electrode, the Cu bridge is removed in the electrolyte, and the AS is turned off, which is called reset operation. The set and reset operations are repeatable over 1000 times, and both the ON and OFF states are NV.

In the AS-FPGA introduced in [28], an AS crossbar switch was used for signal transfer control. Fig. 4 shows a  $2 \times 2$  AS crossbar switch with two input and two output terminals. The AS located at each crosspoint is turned on or off to control signal transfer from two input terminals to two output terminals. Input signals *A* and *B* are applied to the two input terminals via two buffers, respectively. Let us explain what



Fig. 3. Set/reset operations of an AS.

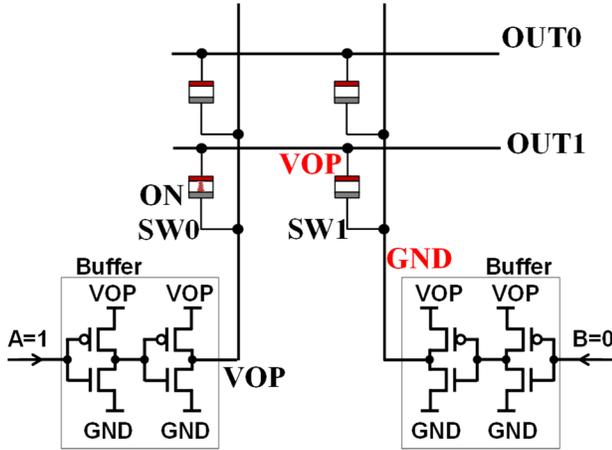


Fig. 4. OFF-state reliability issue in an AS crossbar switch.

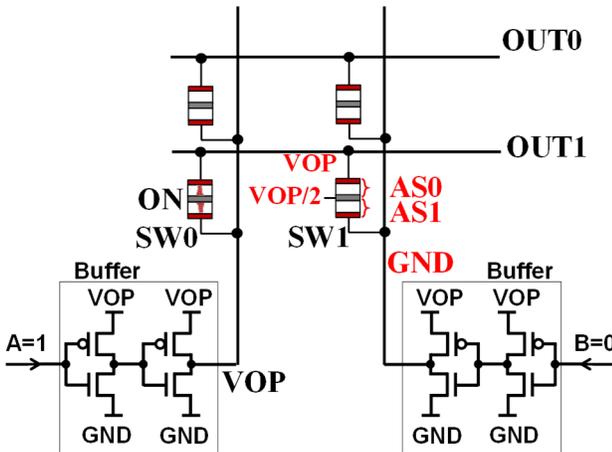


Fig. 5. OFF-state reliability improvement in a CAS crossbar switch.

the problem happens by using a single AS for signal transfer control. If  $A$  is “1,”  $B$  is “0,” and the AS SW0 is at ON state, a logic operation voltage  $VOP$  and a ground voltage  $GND$  are applied to the Cu and Ru electrodes of the OFF-state AS SW1, respectively. According to the off-to-on mechanism of Cu drift in dielectrics [45], even though the voltage level of  $VOP$  is much smaller than  $VSET$ , the OFF-state SW1 will change into an ON-state AS slowly.

To secure a longer OFF-state lifetime at  $VOP$ , we have proposed the CAS composed of two ASs connected in series with opposite direction [30] shown in Fig. 5. In a  $2 \times 2$  CAS crossbar switch, if  $A$  is “1,”  $B$  is “0,” the CAS SW0 is at ON-state,  $VOP$  and  $GND$  are applied to the two Cu electrodes

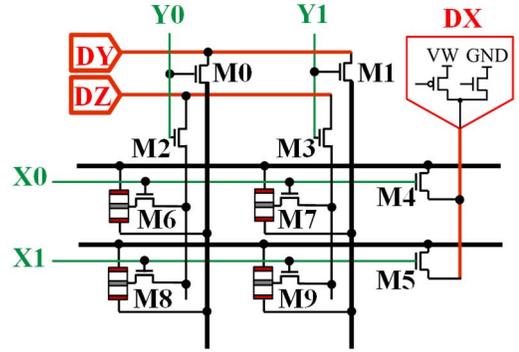


Fig. 6. Previous 1T1CAS crossbar switch with programming drivers.

of the OFF-state CAS SW1, respectively.  $VOP$  is divided by AS0 and AS1 in SW1, and therefore, the voltage difference between the two terminals of AS0 or AS1 is  $VOP/2$ . The set bias stress voltage is decreased, which contributes to a higher OFF-state reliability of AS0 than that of the single AS SW1 in Fig. 4. Moreover,  $VOP/2$  between the two terminals of AS1 is a reset bias voltage. Therefore, the AS1 maintains the OFF state until time-dependent dielectric breakdown of the electrolyte. Thus, OFF-state lifetime can be dramatically improved and kept more than ten years at  $125^\circ\text{C}$ .

*B. Varistor*

Let us explain the role of the access transistor in the one-transistor-one-CAS (1T1CAS) structure shown in Fig. 2(d) and the required  $I-V$  characteristics of the varistor for the access transistor replacement.

Fig. 6 shows a previous  $2 \times 2$  1T1CAS crossbar switch using the access transistors. Peripheral programming drivers  $DX$ ,  $DY$ , and  $DZ$  are necessary for programming a target CAS. They are applied to three terminals of a CAS via access transistors  $M0-M9$ . The programming driver can supply a programming voltage  $VW$  ( $=VSET$  or  $VRESET$ ),  $GND$ , or high impedance ( $HZ$ ). Row address signals ( $X0$ ,  $X1$ ) and column address signals ( $Y0$ ,  $Y1$ ) control surrounding access transistors  $M0-M5$  at the boundary of the crossbar switch and crosspoint access transistors  $M6-M9$  at each crosspoint to access a target CAS.

The varistors are used to replace the crosspoint access transistors  $M6-M9$ . In a programming operation,  $VW$  is applied to a target CAS and  $M6-M9$  controlled by  $X0$  and  $X1$  provide programming current. In an application operation, the address signals  $X0$  and  $X1$  are set to “0” to turn off  $M6-M9$  for isolating the sneak paths between CASs on the same column when a data signal at voltage level  $VOP$  is transferred through an ON-state CAS. To act in the same role, the varistor should be a nonlinear selector device that provides programming current in the programming operation at the high programming voltage  $VW$  and isolates connections between CASs in the application operation at the low logic operation voltage  $VOP$ .

Banno *et al.* [40]–[42] introduce the varistor with a-Si/SiN/a-Si stacking layers achieves a high nonlinearity performance of  $\sim 10^5$  and has the advantage of high compatibility with a CMOS process. Fig. 7 shows  $I-V$  characteristics

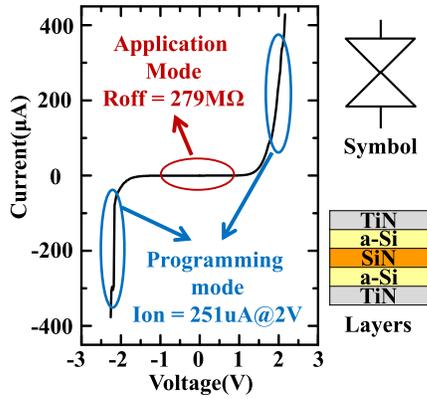


Fig. 7.  $I-V$  characteristics of an a-Si/SiN/a-Si varistor.

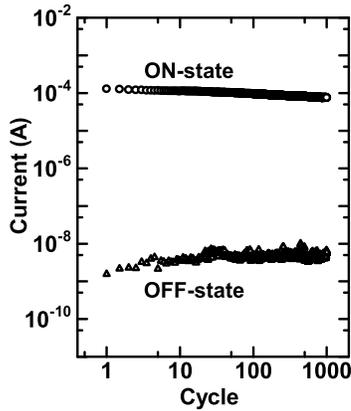


Fig. 8. ON/OFF current characteristics of varistor for  $10^3$  cycles.

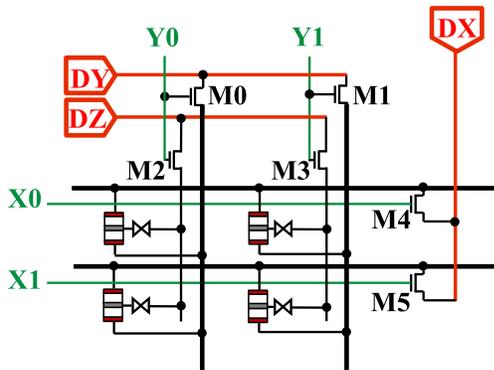


Fig. 9. 1V1CAS crossbar switch with programming drivers.

of the varistor in a 65-nm node BEOL on a 300-mm wafer, which exhibits ON current of  $251 \mu\text{A}$  at 2 V and OFF resistance of  $270 \text{ M}\Omega$ . Fig. 8 shows the endurance characteristic of the varistor. The high ON/OFF current ratio is confirmed for 1000 cycles, which is enough for the FPGA application.

C. VS Crossbar Switch

Varistors can directly replace all the crosspoint access transistors for area reduction. However, an address selectivity problem occurs in a programming operation, which causes a programming sneak path problem. Fig. 9 shows a  $2 \times 2$  one-varistor one-CAS (1V1CAS) crossbar switch as an example to explain the programming sneak path problem of the 1V1CAS

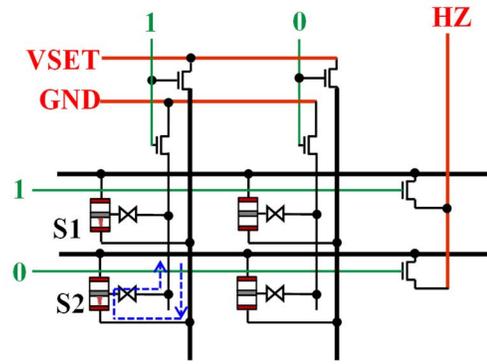


Fig. 10. Programming sneak path in 1V1CAS crossbar switch.

structure. In the previous  $2 \times 2$  1T1CAS crossbar switch as shown in Fig. 6, each CAS is connected to DZ via a crosspoint access transistor controlled by a row address signal and a surrounding access transistor controlled by a column address signal. However, in the 1V1CAS crossbar switch, each CAS is connected to DZ via a varistor, and a surrounding access transistor controlled by a column address signal. Since the varistor is not controlled by a row address signal, all the CASs on the same column are accessed in one programming operation as shown in Fig. 10. To set the AS S1, both (X0, X1) and (Y0, Y1) are set to (1, 0), and DX, DY, and DZ are set to HZ, VSET, and GND, respectively. S2 is also on the set path so that both S1 and S2 are turned on.

To overcome the above programming sneak path problem in the 1V1CAS crossbar switch, the VS structure [40]–[42] was proposed to provide both row and column address selectivity by adding surrounding access transistors and a programming driver in a VS crossbar switch. As shown in Fig. 11(a), different from the 1V1CAS crossbar switch shown in Fig. 9, the middle terminal of a CAS is connected to two varistors at each crosspoint, and two programming drivers DZX and DZY are used to program two ASs in one CAS, respectively. DZX and DZY are connected to the two varistors via existing surrounding access transistors M2 and M3 and added surrounding access transistors M6 and M7. (X0, X1) and (Y0, Y1) control M6 and M7 and M2 and M3, respectively, to make sure that only one VS is selected. Moreover, one of the programming drivers DX and DZX (DY and DYX) must be set to HZ to avoid programming sneak path on the same row (column).

In a programming operation, two steps are necessary for setting/resetting the CAS with two ASs S0 and S1 as shown in Fig. 11(b)–(e). Both (X0, X1) and (Y0, Y1) are set to (1, 0) to apply the programming drivers to S0 and S1. In a set operation of S0 shown in Fig. 11(b), DX, DY, DZX, and DZY are set to VSET, HZ, HZ, and GND, respectively, to form a Cu bridge in S0. In a set operation of S1 shown in Fig. 11(c), DX, DY, DZX, and DZY are set to HZ, VSET, GND, and HZ, respectively, to form a Cu bridge in S1. On the other hand, in a reset operation of S0 shown in Fig. 11(d), DX, DY, DZX, and DZY are set to GND, HZ, HZ, and VRESET, respectively, to remove the Cu bridge in S0. In a reset operation of S1 shown in Fig. 11(e), DX, DY, DZX, and DZY are set to HZ, GND, VRESET, and HZ, respectively, to remove the Cu bridge in S1.

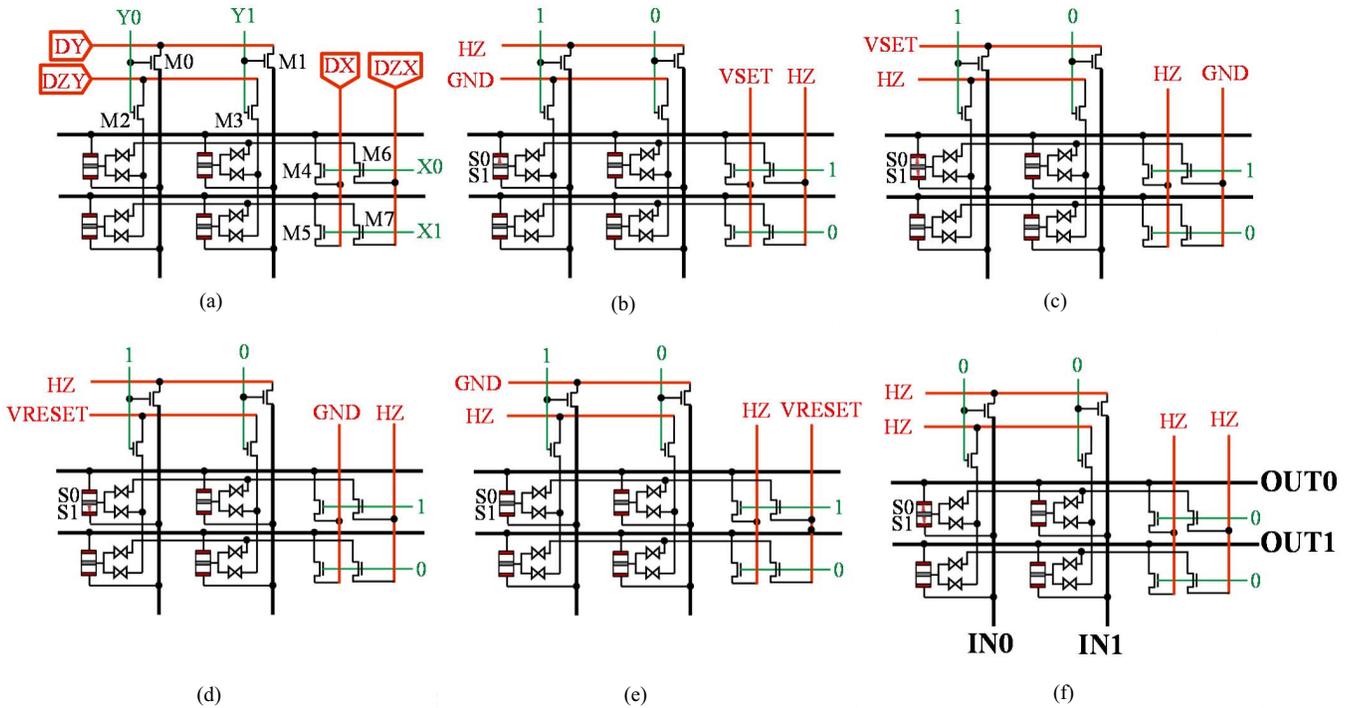


Fig. 11. VS crossbar switch with programming drivers and its programming (set/reset) and application operations. (a) 2V1CAS crossbar switch. (b) Set operation of S0. (c) Set operation of S1. (d) Reset operation of S0. (e) Reset operation of S1. (f) Application operation.

In an application operation shown in Fig. 11(f), the address signals are set to “0” to isolate the signal transfer path from the programming drivers. DX, DY, DZX, and DZY are set to HZ for avoiding source-drain leakage current of surrounding access transistors. Varistors are at a high-resistance state to isolate connections between CASs. S0 and S1, which are at ON state, provide a signal transfer path  $IN0 \rightarrow OUT0$ .

Fig. 12 shows a cross-sectional TEM image of a VS which is fabricated between Cu metal layers M4 and M5 and above a CMOS layer. Two series-connected TiN/a-Si/SiN/a-Si/TiN varistor and Ru-alloy/PSE/Cu AS are clearly separated from each other. The VS occupies  $48F^2$  whereas its footprint can be reduced to  $18F^2$  if four metal layers are used for VS implementation [42]. The VS can be fabricated between any adjacent Cu metal layers. For example, the VS is fabricated between M1 and M2 in [40]–[42] to evaluate its characteristics. In the FPGA application introduced in [43] and [44], M1–M3 are used for CMOS circuits, and therefore the VS is fabricated between M4 and M5.

In research [42], the VS was fabricated in a 65-nm node BEOL to test set and reset operation. Fig. 13 shows the set/reset  $I-V$  characteristics of a single side of the integrated VS. In set operation of the AS S0, VSET and GND are applied to T0 and T2, respectively. When VSET is increased to 3 V, the Cu bridge is formed in the AS S0 which is turned on. The resistance  $R_{ON}$  of the ON-state AS S0 is determined by the ON current of the varistor since AS and varistor are connected in series. On the other hand, in the reset operation of S0, GND and VRESET are applied to T0 and T2, respectively. When VRESET is increased to 3 V, the Cu bridge is cutoff, and S0 is

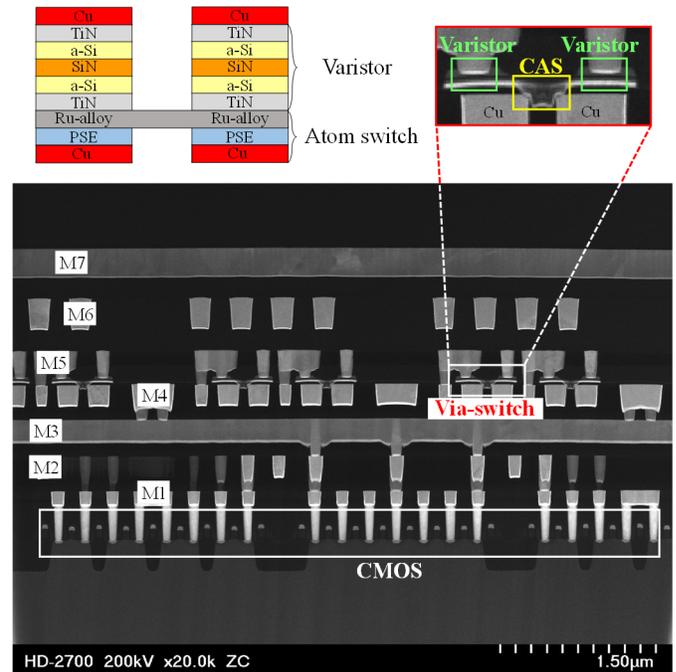


Fig. 12. Cross-sectional TEM image of a VS.

turned off. The retention characteristics depending on the AS have been confirmed in [46]. No failure is observed in the ON-state ASs for 1 h at 260 °C and for 3000 h at 150 °C.

Fig. 14 shows ON- and OFF-state  $I-V$  characteristics of a VS with leakage current between varistors. In an application operation,  $\sim 10^4$  ON/OFF current ratio is large enough to

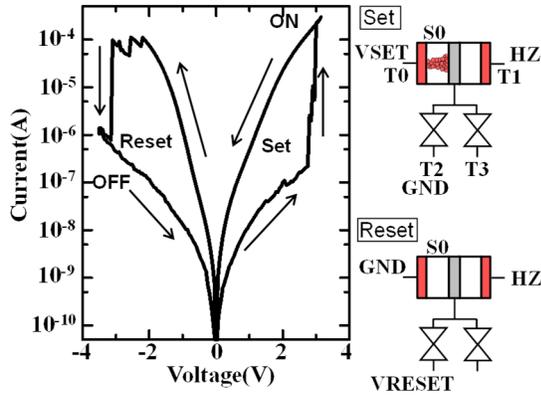


Fig. 13. Set/reset  $I$ - $V$  characteristics of a VS single side.

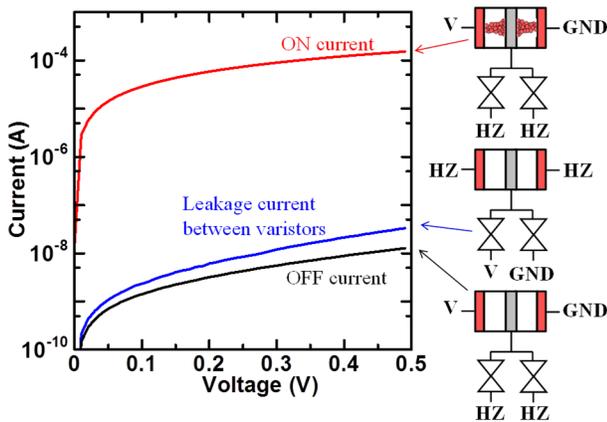


Fig. 14. ON- and OFF-state  $I$ - $V$  characteristics of a VS with leakage current between varistors.

control a data signal transfer in a VS crossbar switch. It should be noted that the varistor is still under development to improve the nonlinearity for higher ON/OFF current ratio and lower leakage current between varistors.

Next, let us introduce the advantages obtained from the replacement of the access transistors by the varistors. We need to use high voltage (HV) transistors (usually I/O transistors with high breakdown voltage) as the access transistors since VW (around 2V [33]) applied to them is much higher than VOP. In the previous  $2 \times 2$  1T1CAS crossbar switch shown in Fig. 6, the count of the surrounding access transistors M0–M5 is larger than that of the crosspoint access transistors M6–M9. Practically, in a 65-nm CAS-FPGA to implement simple applications such as a 4-bit counter and a 2-bit adder [31], a  $19 \times 16$  1T1CAS crossbar switch requires 304 crosspoint access transistors which are more than 54 surrounding access transistors. Thanks to the replacement of the crosspoint access transistors by the varistors, the access transistor count of the  $19 \times 16$  VS crossbar switch is reduced from 358 to 70 in comparison with the  $19 \times 16$  1T1CAS crossbar switch [31]. The crosspoint access transistor count increases dramatically with the 1T1CAS crossbar switch size increasing. Therefore, their replacement by the varistors leads to further improvement of area efficiency, operation speed, and power efficiency for the large-scale FPGA application.

In Section III, we will introduce the structure of the 65-nm VS-FPGA using the VS crossbar switch [43], [44] in detail and its superiority over the CAS-FPGA using the 1T1CAS crossbar switch in the same 65-nm node [31], [32].

### III. VIA-SWITCH FPGA

#### A. Architecture of a VS-FPGA

As shown in Fig. 15, the VS-FPGA is constructed by a  $6 \times 6$  cell array with its periphery circuits including a row decoder, a column decoder, and programming drivers. A cell (such as cell A) is connected to four adjacent cells and their next four cells (eight cells in total) in four directions through unidirectional wires which are superior to bidirectional wires in terms of area, delay, and area-delay product [47]. Row and column address signals are generated by the row and column decoders, respectively, and they control access transistors in each cell to apply the programming drivers DX, DY, DZX, and DZY shown in Fig. 11 to a target VS. The programming drivers are shared for programming the VSs in all the cells, and therefore their area overhead is much smaller than that of the cell array.

Each cell includes a configurable LB, a switch multiplexer (SMUX), and an input multiplexer (IMUX). The LB composed of two four-input LUTs (4-LUTs), two D-flip-flops (DFFs), and two multiplexers (MUXs) implements a logic circuit including a combinational circuit or a sequential circuit. The SMUX is used for signal routing from the last cells to the next cells. On the other hand, the IMUX is used for signal routing from the last cells to the LB.

A VS crossbar switch is used in the SMUX, IMUX, and 4-LUT. Sixteen wires from eight cells and two wires from the LB are connected to the inputs of the SMUX and IMUX. To avoid the through current in the CMOS gates connected to the outputs of the SMUX and IMUX, GND is also applied to the SMUX and IMUX. As a result, either SMUX or IMUX has nineteen inputs in total. The SMUX provides eight outputs to four directions, and the IMUX's eight outputs are applied to the two 4-LUTs. Therefore, the SMUX and IMUX are constructed by a  $19 \times 16$  VS crossbar switch. The 4-LUT consists of a 16:1 MUX and a  $2 \times 16$  VS crossbar switch. The  $2 \times 16$  VS crossbar switch is used as a 16-bit memory array to store logic configuration data. One input is connected to VOP, and the other one is connected to GND. Two VSs on one row form a memory cell. In case that the VS connected to VOP is turned on and the VS connected to GND is turned off, a logic value "1" is stored in the memory cell. Conversely, a logic value "0" is stored. If both VSs are turned off, the memory cell provides HZ. To avoid the through current from VOP to GND, both VSs cannot be turned on simultaneously. Users can configure the sixteen memory cells to implement an arbitrary four-input logic operation in one 4-LUT.

#### B. VS-FPGA Cell Versus CAS-FPGA Cell

In this section, we will introduce the VS-FPGA cell using the VS crossbar switch and demonstrate its area efficiency in comparison with the previous CAS-FPGA cell.

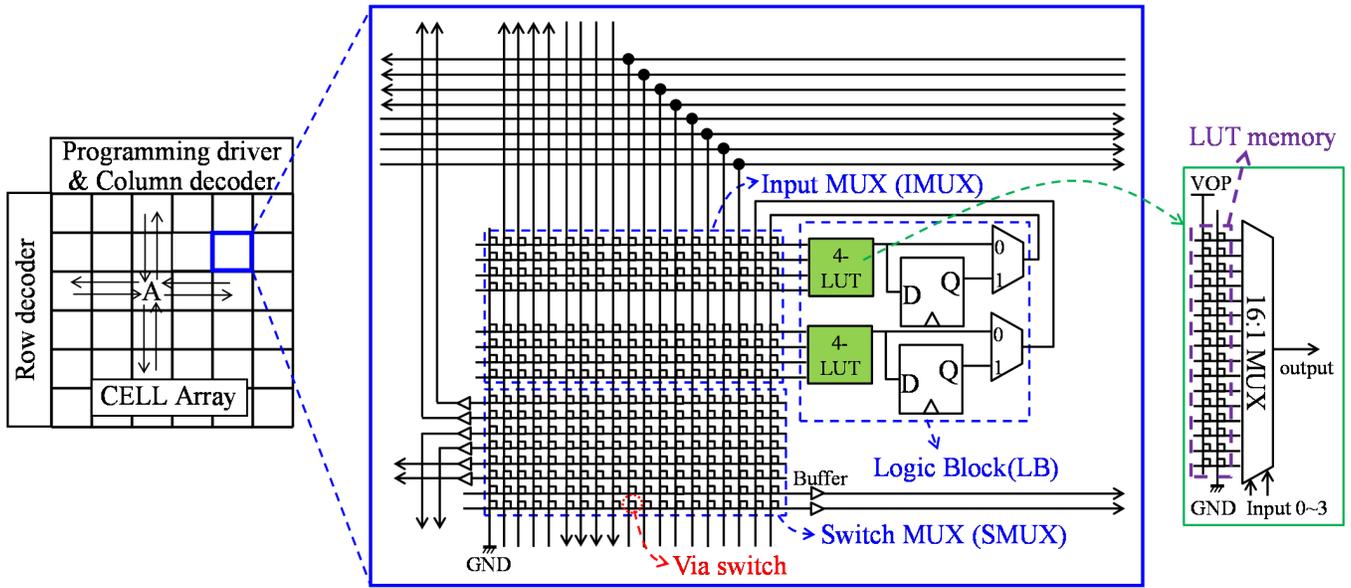


Fig. 15. Architecture of the VS-FPGA.

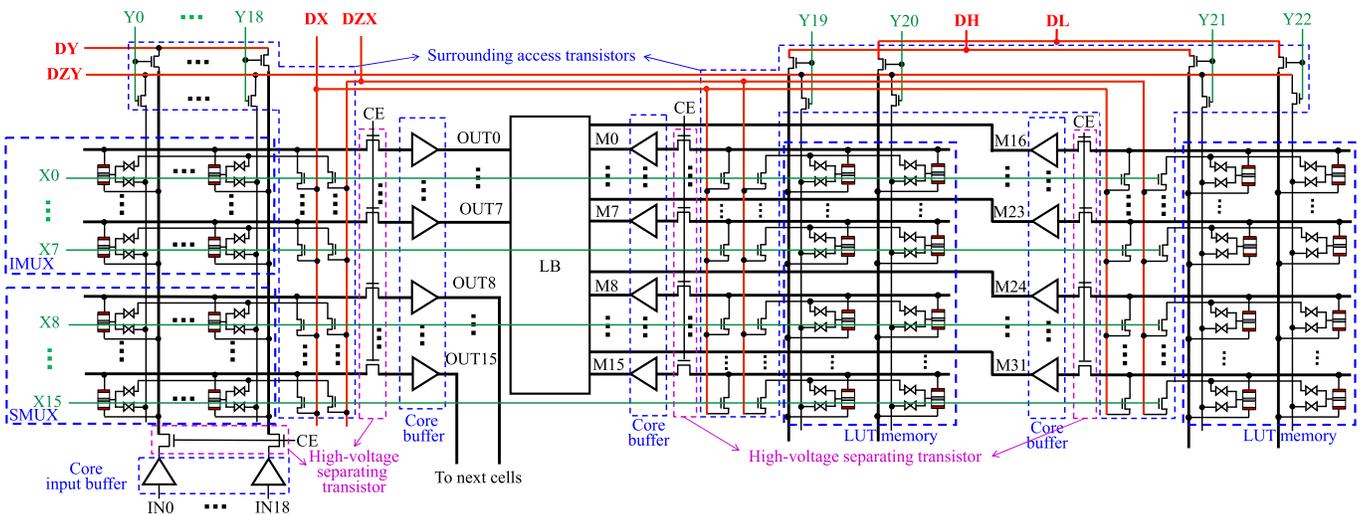


Fig. 16. VS-FPGA cell using VS crossbar switches.

Let us show how to use the VS crossbar switch in the VS-FPGA cell. As shown in Fig. 16, the VS-FPGA cell has a  $19 \times 16$  crossbar switch used as IMUX + SMUX and two  $2 \times 16$  crossbar switches used as LUT memory arrays. In a programming operation, programming drivers DX, DY, DZX, DZY, DH, and DL are applied to CASs via surrounding access transistors controlled by row address signals X0–X15 and column address signals Y0–Y22. In an application mode, DH and DL applied to the two  $2 \times 16$  crossbar switches are set to VOP and GND, respectively, and their connected surrounding transistors are turned on to apply VOP and GND to each memory for providing configuration data to 4-LUTs.

The inputs IN0–IN18 mentioned in Section III-A are connected to the  $19 \times 16$  crossbar switch via HV separating transistors for isolating the core input buffers from the crossbar switch in the programming operation. An enable signal CE

used to control the HV separating transistors is set to high in an application operation to enable signal transfer between cells and low in a programming operation to avoid collision of core input buffers and the programming driver DY, respectively. The outputs of the  $19 \times 16$  crossbar switch and two  $2 \times 16$  crossbar switches are connected to HV separating transistors since the voltage level of their inputs becomes VW in the programming operation which is higher than the breakdown voltage of the core transistor.

Fig. 17 shows the previous CAS-FPGA cell using the 1T1CAS crossbar switch. The difference between the VS-FPGA cell and the previous CAS-FPGA cell is that one more programming driver DZX is provided to avoid the programming sneak path mentioned in Section II, and the horizontal surrounding access transistors are increased twice. However, thanks to the replacement of the crosspoint

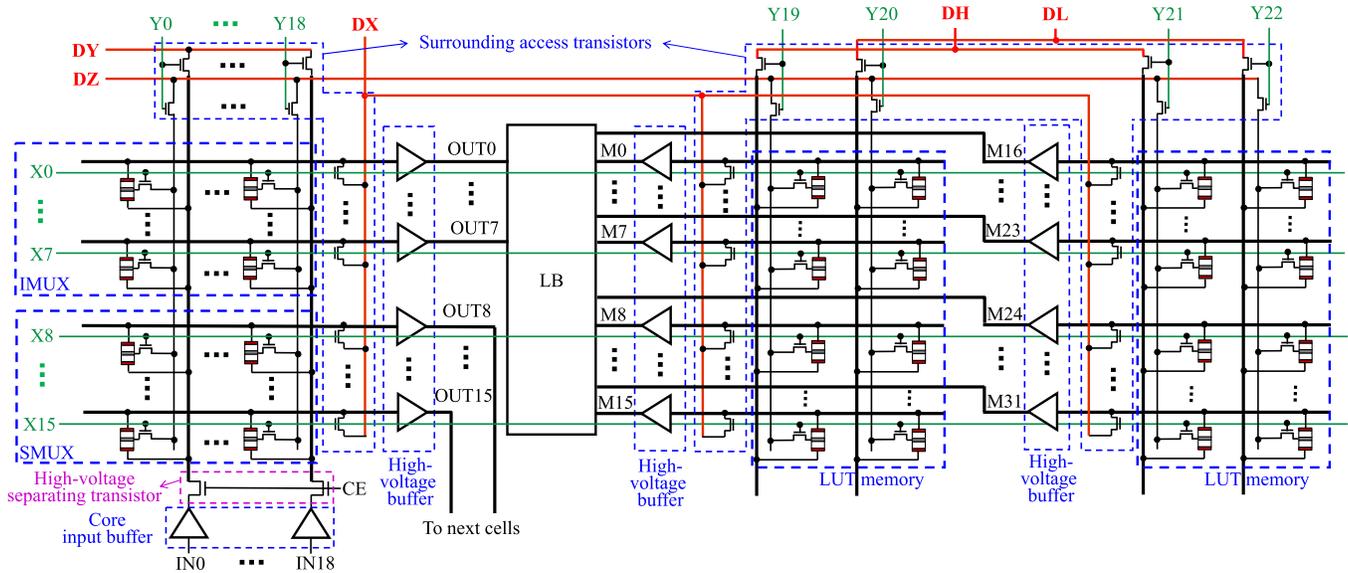


Fig. 17. Previous CAS-FPGA cell using 1T1CAS crossbar switches.

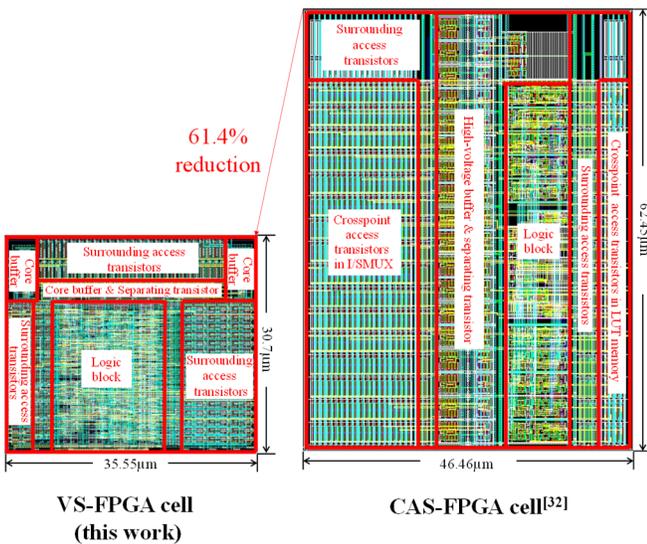
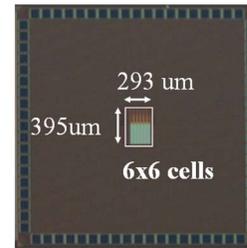


Fig. 18. Area comparison by layouts of the VS-FPGA and previous CAS-FPGA cells.

access transistors used in the previous CAS-FPGA cell by the varistors in BEOL, the total access transistor count is reduced by 69% (462 → 142). Moreover, we use the HV separating transistors and core buffers to replace the HV buffers connected to the outputs of the 19 × 16 crossbar switch and two 2 × 16 crossbar switches for area reduction.

As reported in [31], the CAS-FPGA cell achieved 78% area reduction compared with an equivalent SRAM-FPGA cell. Let us compare the areas of the CAS-FPGA and VS-FPGA cells by their layouts shown in Fig. 18. 55% area is consumed by the crosspoint access transistors in the CAS-FPGA cell. In the VS-FPGA cell, the crosspoint access transistors are replaced by the varistors fabricated above the LB, core buffers, HV separating transistors, and surrounding access transistors.



Technology	65-nm CMOS (for FEOL and M1-M4) + Post process (for VS and M5-M7)
# of cells	6 x 6
One cell	35.55 x 30.7µm <sup>2</sup>
VS size	8x6 F <sup>2</sup>

Fig. 19. Die micrograph and specification of VS-FPGA.

Therefore, no area is consumed by the crosspoint access transistors, and the floorplan is changed. Moreover, high-voltage buffers are replaced by HV separating transistors and core buffers, which leads to further area reduction. As a result, the area of the VS-FPGA cell is reduced by 61.4% in comparison with that of the CAS-FPGA cell. Furthermore, its area is reduced to 8.3% compared with the SRAM-FPGA cell [43]. Logic density is calculated by the number of 4-LUTs per area. The VS-FPGA achieves 2.6× and 12× logic density of the CAS-FPGA and SRAM-FPGA, respectively.

#### IV. EVALUATION OF VS-FPGA

Fig. 19 shows the die micrograph and specifications of a chip fabricated in 65-nm CMOS, where front-end-of-line (FEOL) and M1–M4 are fabricated in a commercial fab and VS, M5, M6, and M7 (semi-global) are processed by ourselves. The die includes 6 × 6 cells, peripheral circuits including a controller, programming drivers, and address decoders

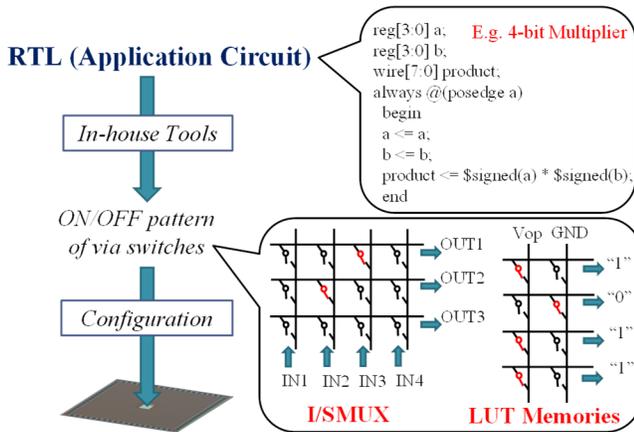


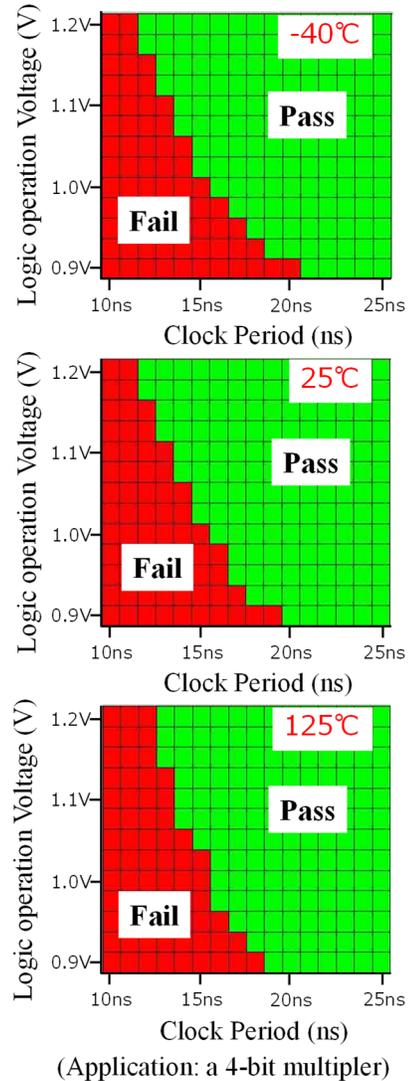
Fig. 20. VS-FPGA design flow.

in  $293 \times 395 \mu\text{m}^2$ . Note that the area of peripheral circuits is negligible for larger cell arrays. It is estimated that the area of peripheral circuits is less than 1% of the whole area in the case of a  $1000 \times 1000$  cell array.

Fig. 20 shows a flow to implement an application circuit in the VS-FPGA using in-house tools including LUT mapping, packing, placement, routing, and bitstream generation tools. The application circuit is described in terms of registers and logic operations called register-transfer level (RTL). The RTL file passes through technology-independent logic optimization (Synthesis) by a Synopsys design compiler (DC) tool. The LUT mapping tool maps the gate-level netlist generated by the Synopsys DC tool into LUTs. The packing tool which has the same algorithm with the conventional T-VPACK (timing driven packing) tool [48] clusters LUTs and DFFs together into LBs. The placement tool developed based on the simulated annealing algorithm [48] implements timing driven location of LBs. The routing tool developed based on the pathfinder algorithm [48] optimizes data transfer path for a small delay time. The bitstream generation tool generates a bitstream file that contains VS ON/OFF information for VS-FPGA configuration. Finally, VSs are configured by controlling programming drivers and address signals according to the generated VS ON/OFF bitstream.

We measure the fabricated VS-FPGA under automotive temperature grade ( $-40^\circ\text{C}$ – $125^\circ\text{C}$ ) [49] to demonstrate high reliability of the VS-FPGA in a harsh environment. An area-minimized 4-bit multiplier (MPY4) is implemented on the fabricated VS-FPGA with VS programming. Fig. 21 shows Shmoo plots of the MPY4 on the fabricated VS-FPGA at  $-40^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $25^\circ\text{C}$  (room temperature), and  $125^\circ\text{C}$ , respectively. The plots confirm the correct operation of the MPY4 at logic operation voltage range 0.9–1.2 V under the automotive temperature grade. It achieves 83-MHz operation at the standard supply voltage 1.2 V of 65-nm technology node and the room temperature  $25^\circ\text{C}$ .

In the SRAM-FPGA, the ON resistance variation of the MOS switch used for signal transfer control affects the signal delay in high temperatures because the electron transport suffers from phonon scattering at high temperature. However,

Fig. 21. Measured Shmoo plots of a 4-bit multiplier implemented on the fabricated VS-FPGA at  $-40^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $25^\circ\text{C}$  and  $125^\circ\text{C}$ .

the Cu bridge formed in the ON-state VS is almost not affected by temperature [50]. The research in [51] evaluates the impact of temperature on the delay of the SRAM-FPGA. Its delay increases up to 47% for  $0^\circ\text{C}$ – $100^\circ\text{C}$ . The delays at  $-40^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $25^\circ\text{C}$ , and  $125^\circ\text{C}$  of the MPY4 on the fabricated VS-FPGA at 1.2 V are shown in Fig. 22. The delay of the VS-FPGA increases up to only 7% for  $-40^\circ\text{C}$ – $125^\circ\text{C}$  thanks to the replacement of the MOS switch by the VS for signal transfer control.

To demonstrate the performance advantages of the VS-FPGA, we evaluate the energy per cycle, delay, and energy-delay product (EDP) of the VS-FPGA and previous CAS-FPGA by implementing three basic applications including a 16-bit counter (CNT16), a 24-bit linear feedback shift register (LFSR24), the MPY4 as shown in Fig. 23. The EDP is a metric that combines measures of energy and delay [52]. The CNT16 and MPY4 are evaluated at the standard supply voltage 1.2 V of 65-nm node technology. The LFSR24 is

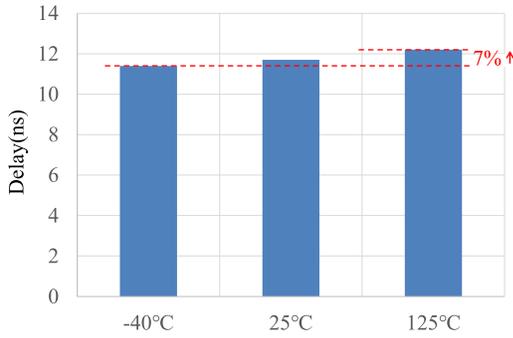


Fig. 22. Impact of temperature on the delay of the MPY4 implemented on the fabricated VS-FPGA.

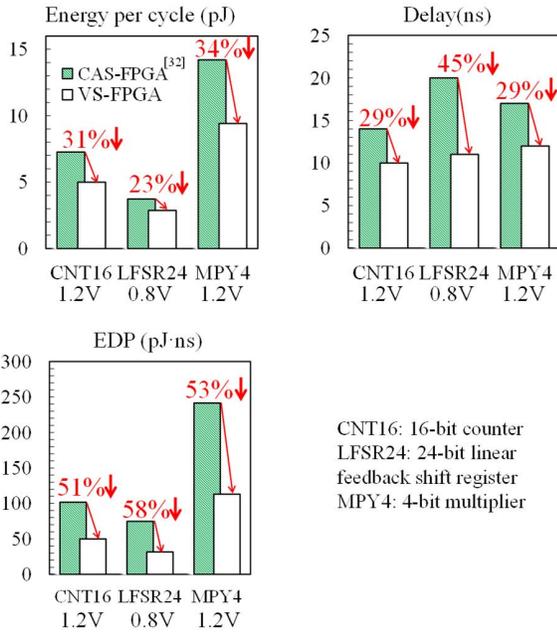


Fig. 23. Energy per cycle, delay, and energy-delay product (EDP) comparisons between CAS- and VS-FPGAs.

TABLE I

SUMMARY OF PERFORMANCE COMPARISON

	CAS-FPGA <sup>[32]</sup>	VS-FPGA (This work)	SRAM-FPGA <sup>[32]</sup>
Switch	CAS + Access Tr.	Via switch	SRAM + Pass Tr.
Process node	65 nm	65 nm	65 nm
Cell Area (um <sup>2</sup> )	2,827	1,091	13,144
Logic operation voltage(V)	1.0	1.0	1.0
Delay(ns)	21	16	80
Energy per cycle (pJ)	8.33	6.27	20.7
EDP(pJ·ns)	175	97	1659

(Application: a 4-bit multiplier)

evaluated at 0.8 V due to the delay measurement limit of the equipment that we used. In comparison with the previous CAS-FPGA, the VS-FPGA has shorter interconnection wires

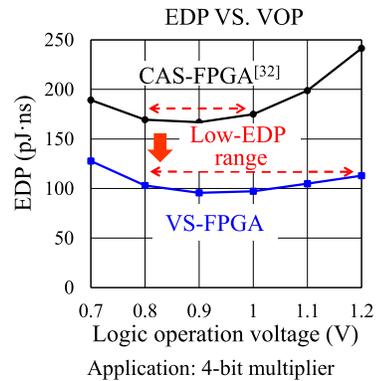
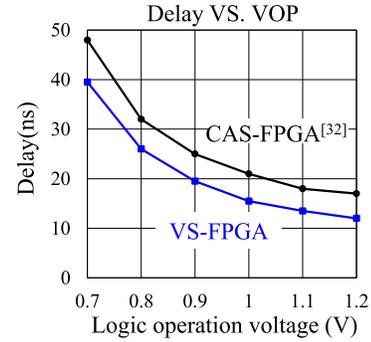
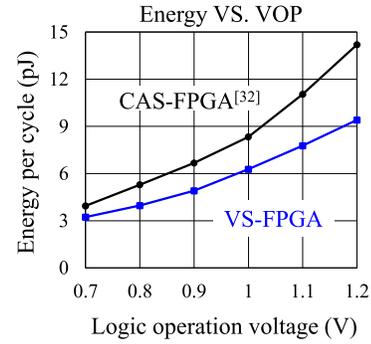


Fig. 24. Energy per cycle, delay, and EDP versus operation voltage of the MPY4 implemented on the CAS- and VS-FPGAs.

between cells due to its dramatically reduced area. Smaller resistance and capacitance of the shortened interconnection wire result in both the energy and delay reduction. As a result, the energies per cycle of the CNT16, LFSR24, and MPY4 implemented on the VS-FPGA are reduced by 31%, 23%, and 34%, respectively, in comparison with those of the CNT16, LFSR24, and MPY4 implemented on the previous CAS-FPGA [32]. On the other hand, the delays are reduced by 29%, 45%, and 29%, respectively. Totally, the EDPs are reduced by 51%, 58%, and 53%, respectively.

The performance comparison of the MPY4s implemented on the VS-FPGA, previous CAS-FPGA [32], and equivalent SRAM-FPGA [32] is summarized in Table I. At logic operation voltage 1.0 V, delay, energy per cycle, and EDP of the VS-FPGA are reduced by 24%, 25%, and 45%, respectively, in comparison with the previous CAS-FPGA. On the other hand, delay, energy per cycle, and EDP of the VS-FPGA are reduced by 80%, 70%, and 94%, respectively, in comparison with the equivalent SRAM-FPGA.

Fig. 24 shows energy per cycle, delay, and EDP versus logic operation voltage of the MPY4 implemented on the CAS- and

VS-FPGAs. A higher logic operation voltage reduces the delay but elevates the energy per cycle. It is worth evaluating the logic operation voltage dependence of the EDP to find an optimum logic operation voltage [52]. Both the CAS- and VS-FPGAs achieve minimum EDP at 0.9 V. The VS-FPGA attains twice wider operation voltage range 0.8–1.2 V of low-EDP ( $EDP < 1.1 \times EDP_{\min}$ ) than that of 0.8–1.0 V in the CAS-FPGA thanks to shortened interconnect wires.

## V. CONCLUSION

For the first time, an NV VS-FPGA was fabricated by a 65-nm CMOS process. The VS integrated between BEOL Cu metal layers (M4 and M5) is constructed by two ASs for signal routing and two varistors for AS configuration. Its utilization in routing matrixes for signal routing and memories for logic operations leads to  $2.6\times$  and  $12\times$  logic density improvement compared with the previous CAS-FPGA with access transistors and the conventional SRAM-FPGA with MOS switches, respectively. Correct operation and small delay variation of 7% under automotive temperature grade ( $-40\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}\sim 125\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) were confirmed by testing the fabricated chip. The silicon results show that the VS-FPGA % energy per cycle reduction, 29% delay reduction, and 53% energy-delay product reduction in comparison with the previous CAS-FPGA at a standard operation voltage.

To improve the operation speed of the VS-FPGA, we are developing a new varistor with higher programming current to reduce ON-state resistance of the AS. Also, a VS bidirectional interconnect structure without using tristate buffers is being developed to achieve further area efficiency improvement [53], [54]. Furthermore, a near-memory computing-oriented VS-FPGA is being developed for AI applications [43].

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