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# On-Chip Process and Temperature Monitor for Self-Adjusting Slew Rate Control of $2 \times VDD$ Output Buffers

Chua-Chin Wang, Senior Member, IEEE, Chih-Lin Chen, Ron-Chi Kuo, Hsin-Yuan Tseng, Jen-Wei Liu, and Chun-Ying Juan

Abstract—A novel process and temperature compensation design for 2 × VDD output buffers is proposed, where the threshold voltages (Vth) of PMOSs and NMOSs varying with process and temperature deviation could be detected, respectively. A prototype 2 × VDD output buffer using the proposed compensation design is fabricated using a typical 0.18  $\mu$ m CMOS process. By adjusting output currents, the slew rate of output signals could be compensated over 117%. The maximum data rate with compensation is 120 MHz in contrast with 95 MHz without compensation, which is measured on silicon with an equivalent probe capacitive load of 10 pF.

*Index Terms*—Floating N-well circuit, gate-oxide reliability, mixed-voltage-tolerant, output buffer, process and temperature variation, threshold voltage detection.

# I. INTRODUCTION

**T** HE sensitivity of modern VLSI circuits to process, and temperature (PT) variation degrades the performance and the yield, particularly when the technology is evolved toward nano-scale. The performance of VLSI circuits can be deemed as a function of PT variation, as shown in Fig. 1. If PT compensation is available, the acceptable envelope can be elevated to a larger area with high performance. Many approaches have been reported to resolve the PT variation detection [1]–[17].

A digital on-chip technique was proposed to detect local random variation of MOSFET current basing on the relationship between process variation and threshold voltage (Vth) [1], [2]. [3], [4] proposed the process control-monitor (PCM), consisting of 4 modules, i.e., racer, distributed jitter, leaker, and distributed ring oscillator, to detect across-die process variation. Another PCM method using a ring buffer and a pulse counter to

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C.-C. Wang, C.-L. Chen, R.-C. Kuo, H.-Y. Tseng, and J.-W. Liu are with Department of Electrical Engineering, National Sun Yat-Sen University, Kaohsiung, Taiwan (e-mail: ccwang@ee.nsysu.edu.tw).

C.-Y. Juan is with Metal Industries Research Development Centre (MIRDC), Taipei 106, Taiwan (e-mail: chunying@mail.mirdc.org.tw).

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Fig. 2. The slew rate compensation scenario.

detect process variability was revealed in [5], [6], which could monitor the process variations of PMOS and NMOS, respectively. Traditionally, temperature detectors are categorized into two different types, i.e., voltage detection and digital detection. The voltage detection scheme basically comprises a temperature sensor and an analog to digital converter (ADC). The temperature sensor at least possesses a temperature-sensitive feature or measure to generate a temperature-sensitive voltage. Then, the ADC converts the temperature-sensitive voltage into a digital code. Notably, the conversion between voltage and temperature is expected to be linear to attain high precision. Usually, the range of temperature-sensitive voltage is close to 100 mV from 0 °C to +100 °C such that a high precision ADC is required to distinguish the difference in such a small voltage window. Thus, a sigma-delta ADC is widely used in this kind of temperature detectors [7]. Notably, a high precision sigma-delta ADC is not easy to design in a fully digital circuit.

Recently, many researchers turn their attention to the digital detection scheme. There are two kinds of temperature sensors for this type, i.e., oscillator [8], and delay cells [9]. Referring to [8], the frequency of the oscillator shall be varied with the temperature. Depending on the sensitivity between temperature and the oscillator, a frequency to temperature converter (FTC) is used to convert the frequency into digital codes. The other way is to detect the temperature variation by the delay time of delay cells [9]. When the temperature is increased, the delay time of delay cells is increased, and vice versa. Therefore, delay cells



Fig. 3. The block diagram of the proposed system.

are as good as the oscillator in a temperature detector. The digital temperature detector is very welcomed in a system-on-chip (SoC) design. The reason is that the oscillator and delay cells are digital circuits, which are easily implemented and integrated by hardware description language, e.g., Verilog. Notably, the frequency of the oscillator may be drifted because of different processes, and the area is too large to be implemented in an I/O buffer. Though the delay-based method has also been applied to detect PVT variation [10]–[17], it can only recognize three corners, TT, FF, and SS. This kind of methods is proved to have problem to detect FS and SF process corners. The reason is that it is not able to examine the process variation of PMOS and NMOS, respectively.

Moreover, for the high-speed interface circuits, different slew rate is required by many communication systems, e.g., PCI and PCI-express. Hence, a compensation mechanism with NMOS and PMOS threshold voltage detectors is needed to self-adjust the slew rate of output buffers, as shown in Fig. 2.

The rest of this investigation is organized as follows. In Section II, the functions of process and temperature detectors are described in detail, respectively. In Section III, the proposed  $2 \times VDD$  output buffer is compensated by the outputs of process and temperature detectors. In Section IV, the measurement results, including die photo, measurement waveform, and measurement environment, are given to justify the function of the proposed design. The performance comparison between our output buffer and prior works is given as well. In Section V, a brief conclusion is given.

#### II. PROCESS AND TEMPERATURE DETECTION

Fig. 3 shows the block diagram of the proposed system comprising a clock generator, PT (process and temperature) sensor, PT decider, and a  $2 \times VDD$  output buffer. The clock generator is composed of multiple cascaded inverters to be a ring oscillator to generate the clock of PT sensor and PT decider. PT sensor consists of an NMOS threshold voltage detector and a PMOS threshold voltage detector, which generate two different voltages, VP and VN, respectively, to PT decider. PT decider is in charge of distinguishing the process and temperature variation of MOS, which is composed of two comparators, e.g., comparatorN and comparatorP, and Digital circuits for NMOS and PMOS.

#### A. NMOS Threshold Voltage Detector

Referring to Fig. 4, the NMOS threshold voltage detector schematic is shown. Fig. 5 illustrates the detection steps as follows.

Step\_0: When Reset\_N is VDD and CLK is 0 V to activate the NMOS threshold voltage detector, net902 is discharged to 0 V. At the same time, net901 is charged to (VDD –  $Vthn_{MN901}$ ), where  $Vthn_{MN901}$  is the threshold voltage of MN901. (VDD –  $Vthn_{MN901}$ ) equals to the voltage across the capacitor C90.

Step\_1: Reset\_N is 0 V and CLK is pulled up to VDD, and then net902 is pulled down to  $(\rm Vth_{\rm MN901}-\rm VDD)$  due to the capacitor, C90. At the same time, MN906 is turned on to charge net902 to  $(-\rm Vth_{\rm MN901})$ . When CLK is dropped from VDD to 0 V again, net902 is pulled up to  $(\rm VDD-\rm Vth_{\rm MN901}-\rm Vth_{\rm MN906})$ . Hence, VN is charged to  $(\rm VDD-\rm Vth_{\rm MN901}-\rm Vth_{\rm MN906})$  after the first charging cycle.

Step\_2: When CLK is pulled up from 0 V to VDD again, net902 is pulled down to (-Vthn) V. Simultaneously, MN904 is turned on by CLK such that net902 is charged to  $(VDD-Vth_{MN901}-Vth_{MN906}-Vth_{MN907}-Vth_{MN903})$  through MN903, MN904, and MN905. When CLK is dropped from VDD to 0 V again, net902 is pulled up to  $(2VDD - 2Vth_{MN901} - Vth_{MN906} - Vth_{MN907} - Vth_{MN903})$ . Hence, VN is charged to  $(2VDD - 2Vth_{MN901} - Vth_{MN906} - 2Vth_{MN903})$  after the second charging cycle.

Step\_N: After N charging cycles similar to the previous 1st and 2nd cycles, the voltage of VN is obviously derived as

$$VN(N) = (VDD - 3 \times Vthn) \times N$$
 (1)

where VDD is the supply voltage, Vthn is the threshold voltage of NMOS (assume all NMOS transistors have same threshold voltage), and N is the number of clock cycles.

Therefore, the voltage of VN will rise with the cycle count. However, the rising rate is determined by Vthn and VDD according to (1). The clock count needed for VN to reach the reference voltage level, VREFN, will then be different at different PT corners, as shown in Fig. 6. By differentiating the clock count, corner variations will be detected precisely. Notably, VN is then coupled to the plus input of comparatorN, as shown in Fig. 3.



Fig. 4. NMOS threshold voltage detector.



Fig. 5. The state transitions of the NMOS threshold voltage detector.



Fig. 6. Simulation waveform of NMOS threshold voltage detector.

#### B. PMOS Threshold Voltage Detector

The design concept of this detector is similar to that of the NMOS threshold voltage detector, as shown in Fig. 7.



Fig. 7. PMOS threshold voltage detector.

Fig. 8 shows a total of M steps that are required for the PMOS threshold voltage detector as follows.

Step\_0: When Reset\_P is 0 V and CLK is VDD, net002 is charged to VDD through MP003. At the same time, net001 is discharged to  $(\rm Vth_{MP002})$ , where  $\rm Vth_{MP002}$  is the threshold voltage of MP002. When CLK is 0 V, net001 is charged to VDD through MP001. The net002 is pulled up to  $(\rm 2VDD+Vth_{MP002})$  by C00, while MP003 is turned on to discharge net002 until (VDD +  $\rm Vth_{MP003}).$ 

Step\_1: When CLK is VDD, net001 is charged to  $(Vth_{MP002})$  and net002 is discharged to  $(Vth_{MP002} + Vth_{MP003})$ . Notably, Vp is discharged to  $(Vth_{MP002} + Vth_{MP003} + Vth_{MP007})$  through MP004 and MP005. When CLK is pulled down from VDD to 0 V, net001 is pulled up to VDD. At the same time, net002 is also pulled up to  $(VDD + Vth_{MP003})$ , while net002 is discharged to  $(Vth_{MP002} + Vth_{MP003})$  while net002 is discharged to  $(Vth_{MP002} + Vth_{MP003})$  through MP004 and MP005.

Step\_2: When CLK is transited from 0 V to VDD, net002 is changed to  $(2Vth_{MP002} + Vth_{MP003} + Vth_{MP007} + Vth_{MP005} - VDD)$ . Therefore, VP is discharged to  $(2Vth_{MP002} + Vth_{MP003} + 2Vth_{MP007} + Vth_{MP005} - VDD)$ .

Step\_M: After M charging cycles, the voltage of VP is attained as follows.

$$VP(M) = 3M \times Vthp - (M - 1) \times VDD$$
 (2)

where VDD is the supply voltage, Vthp is the threshold voltage of PMOS (assume all PMOS transistors have same threshold voltage), and M is the number of clock cycles similar to N in (1).

The difference from the NMOS threshold voltage detector is that the voltage level of the output signal, VP, drops with the clock count. Besides, the falling rate is determined by the threshold of PMOS, Vthp, and VDD. By reading the clock count when VP meets the reference voltage VREP, different PT corners could also be detected separately, as shown in Fig. 9. Notably, VP is fed into the minus input of the comparatorN, as shown in Fig. 3.

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Fig. 8. The state transitions of the PMOS threshold voltage detector.



Fig. 9. Simulation waveform of PMOS threshold voltage detector.

# C. Digital Circuits for NMOS and PMOS

Fig. 10 illustrates the block diagram of Digital circuits for NMOS and PMOS, respectively, where a 4-bit counter, an encoder, and D flip-flops are included in one Digital circuit. According to various corners, the encoder will generate a code to be latched in D flip-flops. When VP and VN reach the reference voltage VREFP and VREFN, respectively, comparators deliver, EN\_P and EN\_N, respectively, to latch D flip-flops. The code loaded into the D flip-flops, i.e., Ncode[3:1] and Pcode[3:1], indicates the required compensation status to compensate the output currents. Notably, Ncode[3:1] and Pcode[3:1] also can be used for more than one output buffers.

# III. $2 \times \text{VDD}$ Mixed-Voltage Tolerant Output Buffer With PT Compensation

The  $2 \times VDD$  mixed-voltage output buffer is composed of a Pre-driver, a Vg1 generator, a VDDIO detector, and an Output stage, as shown in Fig. 11. Pre-driver is used to encode three control signals, i.e., DOUT, Pcode[3:1], and Ncode[3:1], to adjust output currents for slew rate compensation. VDDIO detector and Vg1 generator can generate appropriate gate drive



Fig. 10. Digital circuits for NMOS and PMOS.



Fig. 11.  $2 \times VDD$  mixed-voltage tolerant output buffer.

voltages in different voltage modes without leakage currents and overstress problems [18]–[26].

#### A. Pre-Driver

The Pre-driver is a simple logic circuit to encode and predrive. After receiving and encoding three control signals, i.e., DOUT, Ncode[3:1], and Pcode[3:1], the driving current selection of the output stage will be determined. Take an example, the Pcode[3:1] and Ncode[3:1] to drive the Output stage, i.e., P1a–P1c and N2a–N2c. If the proposed I/O buffer is fabricated in slow corner, P1a–P1c and N2a–N2c all are turned on to drive



Fig. 12. VDDIO detector.

large current. By contrast, if the proposed I/O buffer is fabricated in fast corner, only P1a and N2a are turned on.

#### B. VDDIO Detector

As shown in Fig. 12, VDDIO detector is used to generate VD33 = Vg2 = 1.8 V to prevent the transistor P2 of Output stage from gate-oxide overstress problem when VDDIO = 3.3V. When VDDIO  $\leq 1.8$  V, VD33 is biased at 0 V to turn on the transistor P2. Meanwhile, VD33 is fed through into Vg1 generator to generate appropriate gate voltages for Pla-Plc of Output stage. The stacked diodes can generate different bias voltages, V1-V5, according to different VDDIOs. Therefore, by detecting the values of V1-V5, the voltage value of VDDIO can be determined. When VDDIO = 3.3 V, MP703 is turned on to pull V1 up to 2.8 V to turn off MP701. At the same time, the transistor MP702 is added to keep the gate to source voltage of MP701 less than 1.8 V without overstress hazard. Then, when V4 is biased around 1 V to turn on MN701 and pull the voltage of neta down to 0 V, VD33 is output at logic 1. On the other hand, when VDDIO < 1.8 V, MP703 is turned off and the voltage of neta is charged to 1.8 V. Then, MN702 is turned on to discharge V4 down to 0 V to turn off MN701 without leakage currents.

# C. Vgl Generator

Referring to Fig. 13, Vg1 generator in Fig. 11 is like a voltage level converter, which generates a pair of complementary signals, Vg1a, Vg1b, and Vg1c. Vg1 generator is composed of three same architectures of two cross-coupled PMOS transistors as a latch with stacked NMOS transistors in series as discharging paths. Take an example to generate Vg1a. In Tx mode, when VDDIO is  $2 \times VDD$  and the signal DOUT is logic 1, the voltage of PDOUTa (PDOUTb or PDOUTc) is logic 1 to turn on the MN101. Then, Vg1a can be discharged down to  $V3 + Vthp_{MP103}$  through MP103, MN103, and MN101, where  $Vthp_{MP103}$  is the threshold voltage of MP103. At the same time, MN102 is turned off to pull Va up to VDDIO, which can also turn off the MP101 to prevent any static leakage current path. By contrast, when the signal DOUT is logic 0, the voltage of PDOUTa (PDOUTb or PDOUTc) is logic 0 to turn off the



Fig. 13. Vg1 generator.



Fig. 14. (a) Layout of the compensation circuit. (b) Die photo of the proposed system.

MN101. Therefore, Vg1a can be charged up to VDDIO to turn off the P1a of Output stage.

# D. Output Stage

Since the supply voltage (VDD) of the core circuits is 1.8 V using the 0.18  $\mu$ m CMOS process, the output stage must be realized with two groups of stacked PMOS and NMOS transistors, respectively, for transmitting 2 × VDD signals, as depicted in Fig. 11 [20]–[25]. PMOSs P1a–P1c are connected in parallel so that the slew rate of the output signal can be compensated by adjusting the currents flowing through P1a–P1c. According to different PT scenarios, the control signal, Pcode[3:1] and Ncode[3:1], will select the number of turned-on PMOSs of the output stage. The selection of N1a–N1c is the same as



Fig. 15. The measurement settings of the proposed system. (a) In different transmitting modes when VDDIO is at 3.3/1.8/0.9 V. (b) The chip is heated and cooled down by a thermo chamber. (c) Thermo test is between -40 °C-100 °C.

PMOSs mentioned in the above. P1a–P1c and N1a–N1c are designed with different sizes to generate different currents, which could successfully achieve coarse and fine adjustment.

#### **IV. MEASUREMENT RESULTS**

This work is fabricated using TSMC 0.18  $\mu$ m CMOS technology without thick-oxide devices. Fig. 14 shows the layout and the die photo of the proposed design, where the 2 × VDD output buffer size is 329  $\mu$ m × 65  $\mu$ m and the compensation circuit area is only 160  $\mu$ m × 65  $\mu$ m.

Fig. 15 shows the measurement settings for PT compensation. Referring to Fig. 15(a), the body voltage of PMOSs, Vnewll, are varied from 0.5-0.7 V to emulate different process corners. Besides, VDDIO are supplied with 3.3/1.8/0.9 V, respectively, in different transmitting modes while VDD remains at 1.8 V. Fig. 15(b), (c) show that our chip is heated by a thermo chamber between -40 °C-100 °C.

Referring to Fig. 16–18, the maximum data rate of VPADs without compensation are measured to be 85/95/75 MHz when VDDIO is at 3.3/1.8/0.9 V given core VDD = 1.8 V, respectively. The worst improvement case of slew rate compensation, from 1.28 V/ns to 2.79 V/ns, occurs at [TT, 25 °C] corner when VDDIO = 3.3 V, as shown in Fig. 19. The maximum data rate is measured to 120 MHz with compensation. The performance comparison with several prior works is tabulated in Table I. Because our proposed design detects process variation independently for PMOS and NMOS, our proposed design is useful for



Fig. 16. The maximum data rate of VPAD when VDDIO is at 3.3 V.

all process corners, including FS and SF corners, compared with prior works. The area of our proposed design is 0.0104 mm<sup>2</sup>. Equation (3) is used to normalize the area among different processes, as shown in Table II. After normalization, the normalized area of our design is 0.321, which is the second smallest area compared with prior works. Notably, the compensation circuit can be shared in many output buffers such that the area cost will not a serious overhead.

Normalized area = 
$$\frac{\text{Area}}{\text{Process}^2}$$
 (3)

Therefore, our design has the edge of maximum slew rate improvement in measurement, the lowest power dissipation, and the capability to detect all process corners. WANG et al.: ON-CHIP PROCESS AND TEMPERATURE MONITOR FOR SELF-ADJUSTING SLEW RATE CONTROL OF 2 × VDD OUTPUT BUFFERS

	Ours	[10]	[14]	[11]	[12]
		TCAS-II	JSSC	TCAS-II	ISCAS
Year	2011	2010	2003	2007	2011
Process (µm)	0.18	0.18	0.18	0.13	0.065
Results	Measured	Measured	Measured	Measured	Measured
Slew rate (V/ns)	1.28-2.79	2.10-3.58	0.40-0.99	0.24	1.77
Process corners	TT, FF, SS	TT EE SS	TT, FF, SS	TT, FF, SS	N/A
detected	FS, SF	11, 11, 55			
Area $(mm^2)$	0.0104	0.009	0.02807	0.063	0.0027
Power (mW)	0.427	13.7	N/A	N/A	0.5
Slew rate	>117%	>28%	>32%	>66%	>143%
improvement	(Measured)	(Post-sim)	(Measured)	(Measured)	(Post-sim)

TABLE I Performance Comparison Between Our Design and Prior Works



Fig. 17. The maximum data rate of VPAD when VDDIO is at 1.8 V.



Fig. 18. The maximum data rate of VPAD when VDDIO is at 0.9 V.



Fig. 19. When VDDIO = 3.3 V @120 MHz, the slew rate of VPAD can be compensated over 117%.

TABLE II Area Comparison Between Our Design and Prior Works

	Ours	[10]	[14]	[11]	[12]
Area (mm <sup>2</sup> )	0.0104	0.009	0.02807	0.063	0.0027
Normalized area	0.321	0.278	0.866	3.728	0.639

# V. CONCLUSION

An on-chip process and temperature compensation and selfadjusting slew rate control technique for output buffers is proposed in this paper. The area of the compensation circuit is only  $160 \,\mu\text{m} \times 65 \,\mu\text{m}$ . Such an area overhead is affordable in any advanced process provided that one compensation circuit is shared by many buffers. Most important of all, the slew rate improvement can be achieved over 117% in addition to avoiding the gate-oxide overstress and the leakage current.

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**Chua-Chin Wang** (M'9–SM'04) received the Ph.D. degree in electrical engineering from SUNY (State University of New York) at Stony Brook, NY, USA, in 1992.

He then joined the Department of Electrical Engineering, National Sun Yat-Sen University, Taiwan, and became a full Professor in 1998. He was Chairman of Department of Electrical Engineering, National Sun Yat-Sen University during 2009–2012. His research interests include memory and logic circuit design, communication circuit design, and

interfacing I/O circuits. Particularly, he applies most of his research results on biomedical, memories, consumer electronics, and wireless communication applications, such as implantable ASIC/SOC, DVB-T/H and NTSC TV circuits, low power memory, high speed digital logic, etc.

Dr. Wang has won the Outstanding Youth Engineer Award of Chinese Engineer Association in 1999, and NSC Research Award from 1994 to 1999. In 2000. He co-founded Asuka Semiconductor Inc., which is an IC design house located in renowned Hsinchu Scientific Park, Taiwan, and became Executive Secretary in 2005. In 2005, he was awarded with Best Inventor Award in National Sun Yat-Sen University, Taiwan. In 2006, he won Distinguished Engineering Professor Award of Chinese Institute of Engineers and Distinguished Engineer Award of Chinese Institute of Electrical Engineering in the same year. He also won Distinguished Electrical Engineering Professor Award of Chinese Institute of Electrical Engineers in 2007. In 2008, he won Outstanding Paper Award of 2008 IEEE International Conference of Consumer Electronics. In 2009, he again won Best Inventor Award. He was elevated to be Distinguished Professor of National Sun Yat-Sen University in 2010. He became an IET Fellow in 2012. He has served as program committee members in many international conferences. He was Chair of IEEE Circuits and Systems Society (CASS) for 2007-2008, Tainan Chapter. He was also the founding Chair of IEEE Solid-State Circuits Society (SSCS), Tainan Chapter for 2007-2008, and the founding Consultant of IEEE NSYSU Student Branch. He is also a member of the IEEE CASS Multimedia Systems & Applications (MSA), VLSI Systems and Applications (VSA), Nanoelectronics and Giga-scale Systems (NG), and Biomedical Circuits and Systems (BioCAS) Technical Committees. He was Chair of IEEE CASS Nanoelectronics and Giga-scale Systems (NG) Technical Committee for 2008-2009. Since 2010, he has been invited to be Associate Editor of IEEE TRANSACTIONS ON CIRCUITS AND SYSTEMS-PART I: REGULAR PAPERS and TRANSACTIONS ON CIRCUITS AND SYSTEMS-PART II: EXPRESS BRIEFS. Currently, he is also serving as Associate Editor of IEICE Transactions on Electronics, and Journal of Signal Processing. He was General Chair of 2007 VLSI/CAD Symposium. He was General Co-Chair of 2010 IEEE International Symposium on Next-generation Electronics (2010 ISNE). He is General Chair of 2011 IEEE International Conference on IC Design and Technology (2011 ICICDT), and General Chair of 2012 IEEE Asia-Pacific Conference on Circuits & Systems (2012 APCCAS).



Chih-Lin Chen (S'10) was born in Taiwan in 1986. He received the B.S. and M.S. degrees in electrical engineering from National Sun Yat-Sen University, Taiwan, in 2008 and 2010, respectively. He is currently working toward the Ph.D. degree in electrical engineering at the National Sun Yat-Sen University. His current research interests are VLSI design, high voltage mixed-signal circuit design, and automobile system design.



**Ron-Chi Kuo** received the B.S. and M.S. degrees in electrical engineering from National Dong Hwa University, Hualien, Taiwan, in 2004 and 2007, respectively. From 2009 to 2011, she was a research engineer staff and a Ph.D. student with National Sun Yat-Sen University, where she focused the research on mixed-voltage I/O buffers and reliability issues. She is currently pursuing the Ph.D. degree in electrical and computer engineering at the University of Florida, Gainesville. Her resent research interests include RF/Microwave Integrated Circuits design and

biomedical radar systems.



Hsin-Yuan Tseng was born in Taiwan in 1987. He received the B.S. degree in electronic engineering from National Sun Yat-Sen University, Kaohsiung, Taiwan, in 2010, where he is currently pursuing the M.S. degree in electrical engineering. His recent research interest focuses on I/O design.

WANG et al.: ON-CHIP PROCESS AND TEMPERATURE MONITOR FOR SELF-ADJUSTING SLEW RATE CONTROL OF 2 × VDD OUTPUT BUFFERS



**Jen-Wei Liu** received the B.S. and M.S. degrees in electrical engineering from National Sun Yat-Sen University, Taiwan, in 2008 and 2010, respectively. He is currently with Etron Technology, Inc. His research interest includes level-shifting I/O interface for multiple voltage systems.



**Chun-Ying Juan** was born in Taiwan in 1982. He received the M.S. degree in electrical engineering from National Sun Yat-Sen University, Taiwan in 2008. His recent research interest focuses on high voltage mixed-signal design.