2 Technology scale down

This chapter describes the recent improvements in terms of density and speed linked to the technology scale down, and introduce the 90 nm technology.

1. Recent trends in CMOS technology

Although we have already dedicated one chapter to describe the evolution of CMOS technology in a previous work [1], we shall give in this chapter an updated overview of the evolution of important parameters such as integrated circuit (IC) complexity, gate length, switching delay and supply voltage with a prospective vision down to the 22 nm CMOS technology.

Recognizing a trend in integrated circuit complexity, Intel co-founder Gordon Moore extrapolated the tendency and predicted an exponential growth in the available memory and calculation speed of microprocessors which, he said in 1965, would double every year [2]. With a slight correction (i.e. doubling every 18 months, see Fig. 2-1), *Moore's Law* has held up to the Itanium® 2 processor which has around 400 million transistors.

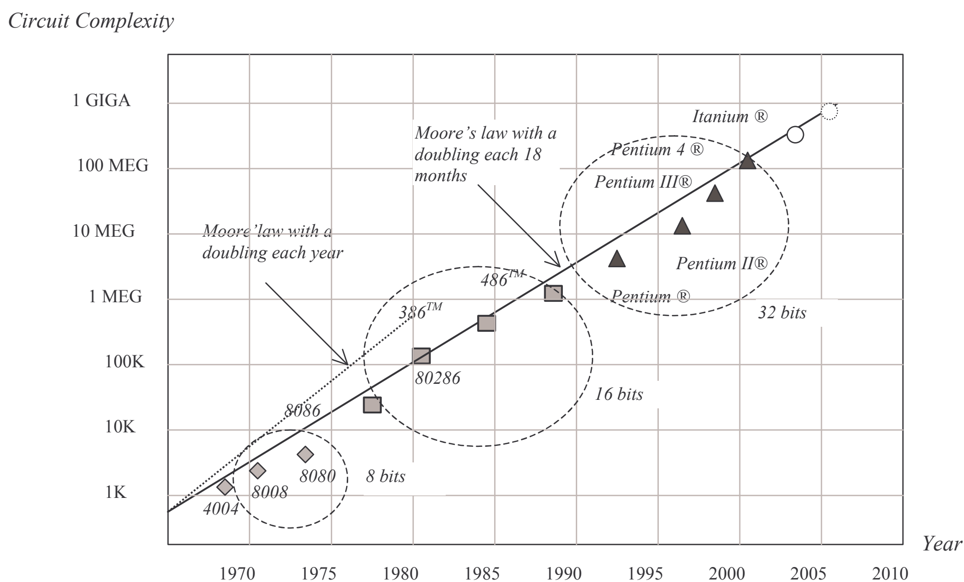


Figure 2-1: Moore's law compared to Intel processor complexity from 1970 to 2005.

The trend of CMOS technology improvement continues to be driven by the need to integrate more functions in a given silicon area. Table 2-1 gives an overview of key parameters for technological nodes from 180 nm introduced in 1999, down to 22 nm, which is supposed to be in production around 2011. The physical gate length is slightly smaller than the technological node, as illustrated in Fig. 2-xxx. The gate material has long been polysilicon, with silicon dioxide (SiO_2) as the insulator between the gate and the channel. The atom is a convenient measuring stick for the insulating material transistor beneath the gate. In 90 nm, the gate oxide consisted of about five atomic layers, which were 1.2 nm in thickness. The thinner the gate oxide, the higher the transistor current and consequently the switching speed.

The SiO_2 oxide has been regularly scaled down over the last decade, but has reached a physical limit of 5 atoms with the 90nm CMOS process. With the 45 nm technology, new materials such as metal gates together with high-permittivity oxide should be introduced.

At each lithography scaling, the linear dimensions are approximately reduced by a factor of 0.7 and the areas are reduced by factor of 2. Smaller cell sizes lead to a higher integration density which has thusrisen from 100 Kilo-gate per mm^2 for the 130 nm technology to almost 1 million gate per mm2 in 45 nm technology. In parallel, the size of a 6-transistor memory point such as those used in static RAM memories passed below the 1μm^2 limit after the 65 nm technology.

Technology node	**180 nm**	**130 nm**	**90 nm**	**65 nm**	**45 nm**	**32 nm**	**22 nm**
First production	1999	2001	2003	2005	2007	2009	2011
Gate length	130 nm	70 nm	50 nm	35 nm	25 nm	17 nm	12 nm
Gate material	Poly SiO_2	Poly SiO_2	Poly SiO_2	Poly SiON	Metal High K	Metal High K	Metal High K
Atoms stacked on the gate oxide	10	8	5	5	5-10	5-10	5-10
Kgates/mm^2	100	200	350	500	900	1500	?
Memory point (μ^2)	4.5	2.4	1.3	0.6	0.3	0.15	0.08

Table 2-1: Technological evolution and forecast up to 2011

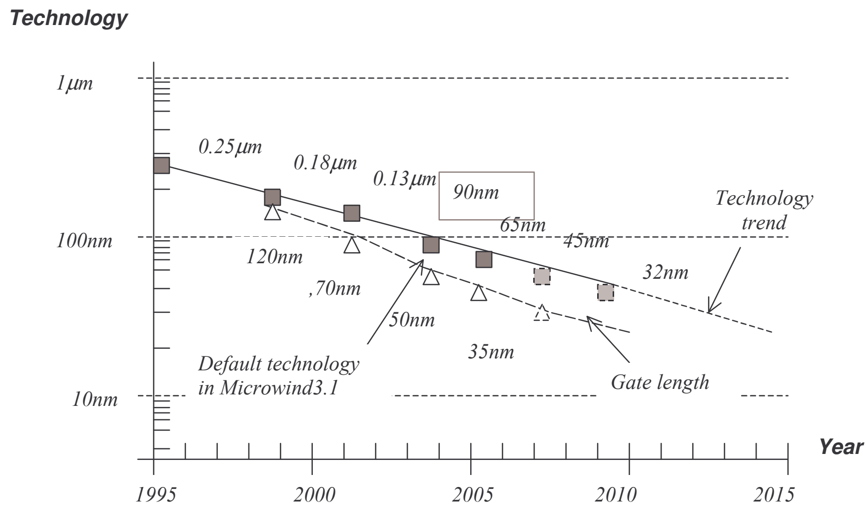


Figure 2-2: the technology scale down towards nano-scale devices

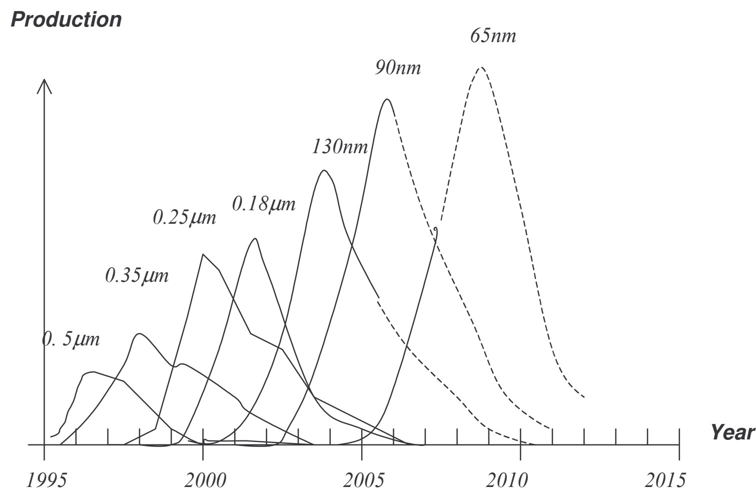


Figure 2-3: Technology ramping every two years (Adapted from [Intel2004])

The integrated circuit market has been growing steadily for many years, due to an ever-increasing demand for electronic devices. The production of integrated circuits for various technologies is illustrated over the years in Fig. 2-3. It can be seen that a new technology appeared regularly every two years, with a ramp up close to three years. The production peak has constantly increased, and similar trends should be observed for novel technologies such as 65nm (forecast peak in 2009).

One very important trend associated with the lithography scaling is the decrease of gate switching delay, as illustrated in figure 2-4. The integrated circuit speed is improved thanks to stronger currents

capable of charging and discharging smaller parasitic capacitances. A constant increase of the device current is highly desirable but raises a number of important issues.

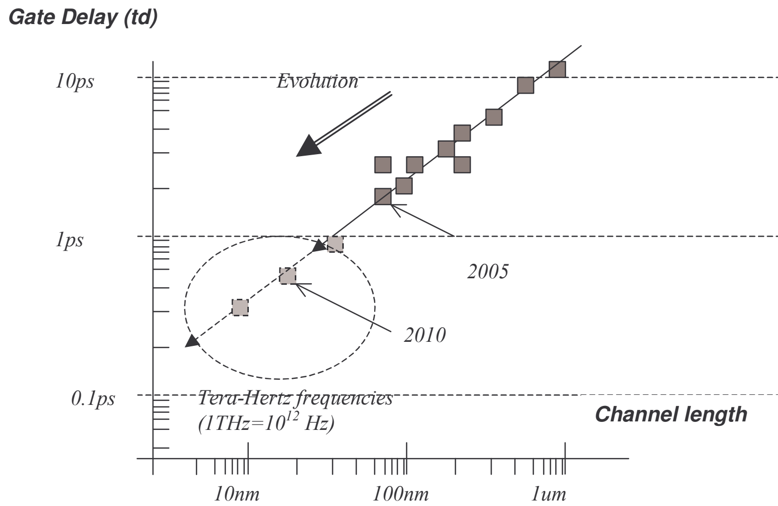


Figure 2-4: the reduction in channel length leads to tremendous benefits in terms of gate switching delay

Let us recall a first order approximation of the device current, given by Equ. 2-1:

$$I_{ds} = k\frac{VDD}{L}\frac{\mu}{t_{OX}} \qquad (2\text{-}1)$$

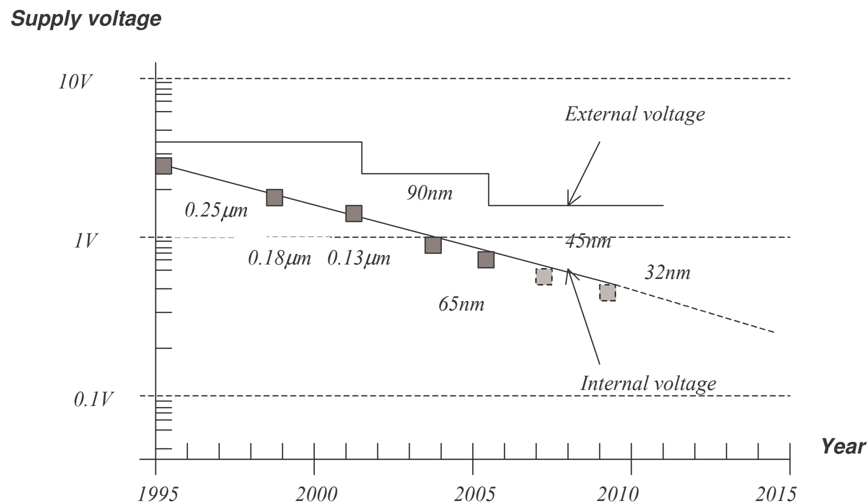


Figure 2-5: the continuous decrease in supply voltages

As may be deduced from the expression, there are at least three efficient ways of increasing the transistor current capabilities:

- Reducing the supply voltage V_{DD} (figure 2-5). Unfortunately, the supply voltage tends to follow the opposite trend, for low power consumption purposes. From 130 nm to 90 nm, the supply has been reduced from 1.5 to 1.2V.
- Reducing the distance L between the drain and the source. Fortunately, the channel length is automatically scaled with the technology. A scaling factor of 0.7 leads to a 33% increase in the absolute current.
- Decreasing the oxide thickness t_{OX}. The oxide thickness has been reduced from 1.8nm (8 atoms) to 1.2 nm (5 atoms). Unfortunately, the gate oxide leakage is exponentially increased, which affects the parasitic leakage currents and consequently the standby consumption.
- Increasing the carrier mobility μ. This parameter was kept unchanged up to the 90 nm generation, which was the first to exploit the concept of strained silicon to enhance the carrier mobility. Finding mobility enhancement techniques is mandatory to maintain performance gain without deteriorating device leakage.

2. Introducing the 90 nm technology

A complete industrial 90-nm process was first introduced by Intel in 2003 [3]. With transistor channels around 50 nm in size (50 billionths of a meter), comparable to the smallest micro-organisms, this technology truly is a nanotechnology. The main novelty related to the 90 nm technology is the introduction of strained silicon to speed-up the carrier mobility which boosts both the n-channel and p-channel transistor performances (Fig. 2-6). It has been known for decades that stretching the silicon lattice improves the carrier mobility, and consequently the device current.

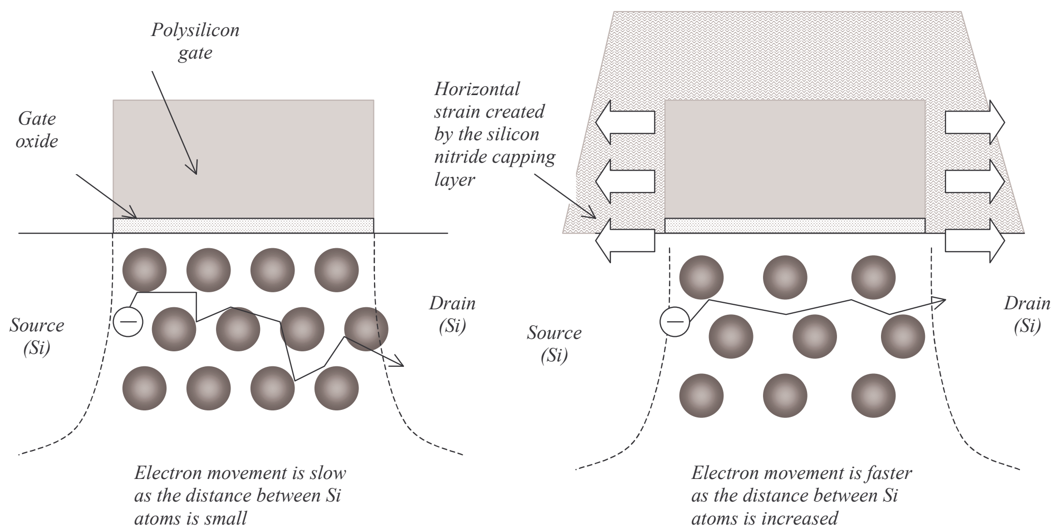


Figure 2-6: Strain generated by a silicon-nitride capping layer which increases the distance between atoms underneath the gate. This speeds up the electron mobility of n-channel MOS devices

Let us focus on the silicon atoms forming a regular lattice structure inside which the electrons participating to the device current have to flow. In the case of electron carriers, stretching the lattice allows the charges to flow faster from the drain to the source, as depicted in Fig. 2-7. The mobility improvement exhibits a linear dependence with the tensile film thickness. A 80 nm film has resulted in a 10% saturation current improvement in Intel's 90nm technology [3]. The strain may also be applied from the bottom with a uniform layer of an alloy of silicon and germanium (SiGe).

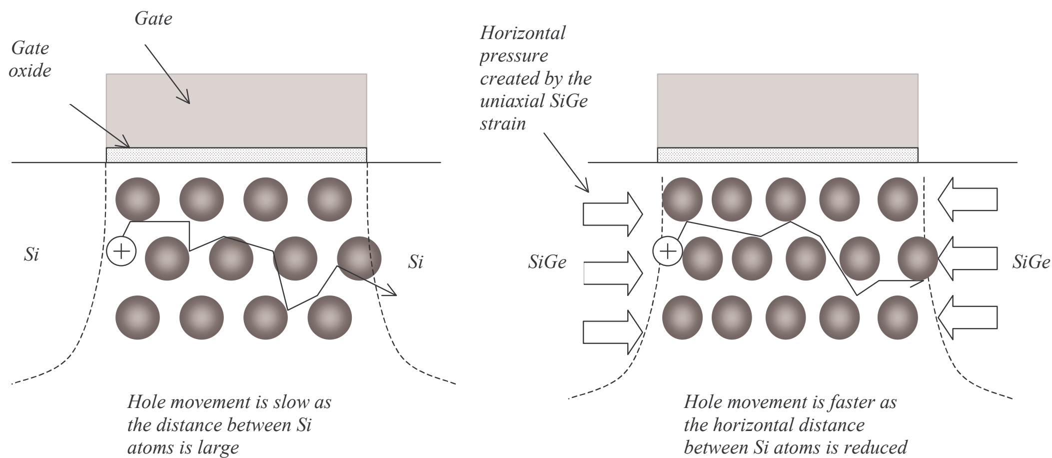


Figure 2-7: Compressive strain to reduce the distance between atoms underneath the gate, which speeds up the hole mobility of p-channel MOS devices

In a similar way, compressing the lattice slightly speeds up the p-type transistor for which current carriers consist of holes. The combination of reduced channel length, decreased oxide thickness and strained silicon allows to achieve a substantial gain in drive current for both nMOS and pMOS devices.

N-channel MOS device characteristics

The tool Microwind in its 3.1 version is configured by default in 90 nm technology. A cross-section of the n-channel and p-channel MOS devices is given in figure 2-8. The nMOS gate is capped with a specific silicon nitride layer that induces lateral tensile channel strain for improved electron mobility. The I/V device characteristics of the low-leakage and high-speed MOS devices listed in Table 2-2 are obtained using the MOS model BSIM4 (See [1] for more information about this model). The device performances are close to those presented in [3].

Parameter	NMOS Low leakage	NMOS High speed

Drawn length	0.1µm	0.1µm
Effective length	60 nm	50 nm
Width	0.5 µm	0.5 µm
Threshold voltage	0.28	0.25
Ion (Vdd=1.2V)	0.63 mA	0.74 mA
Ioff	30 nA	300 nA

Table 2-2: nMOS parameters featured in the 90 nm CMOS technology provided in Microwind

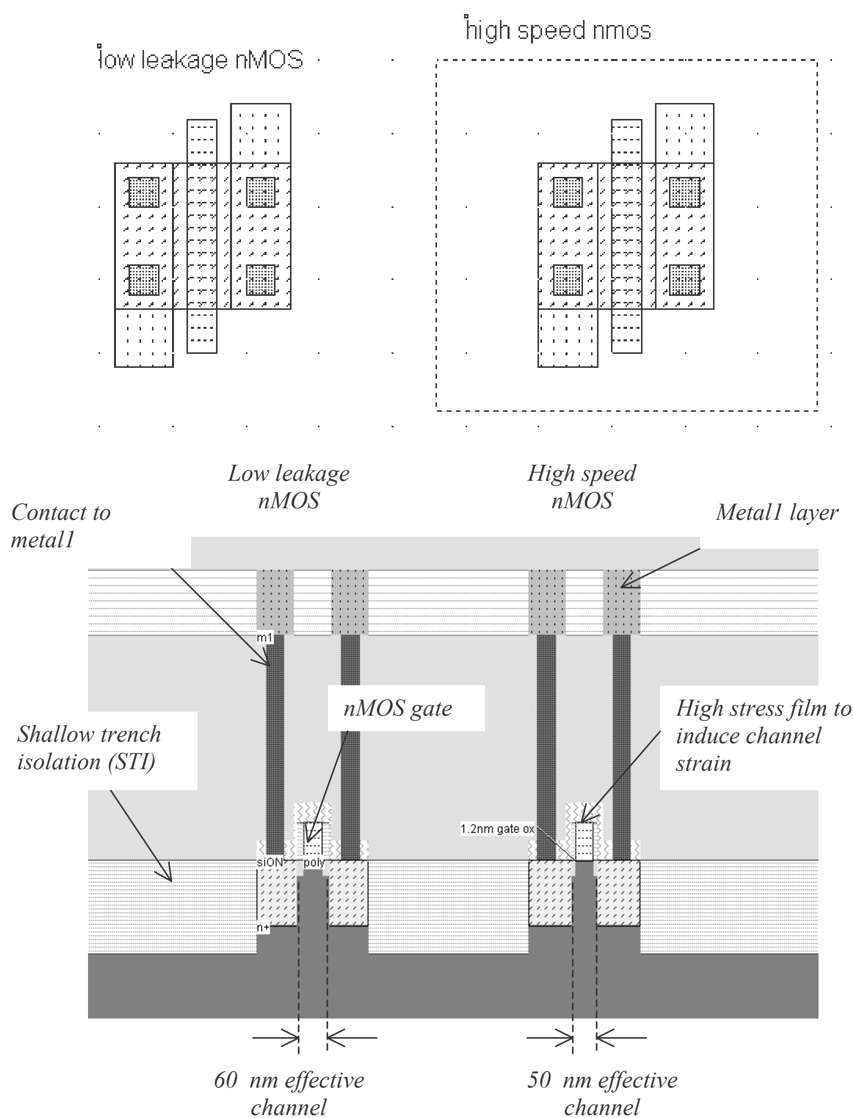
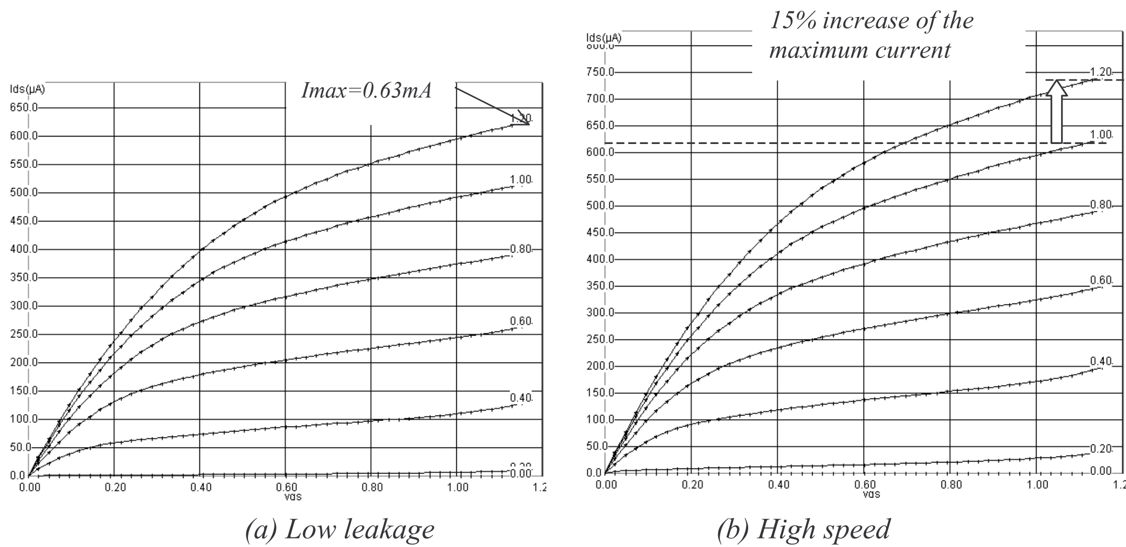


Figure 2-8: Bird's view and cross-section of the nMOS devices

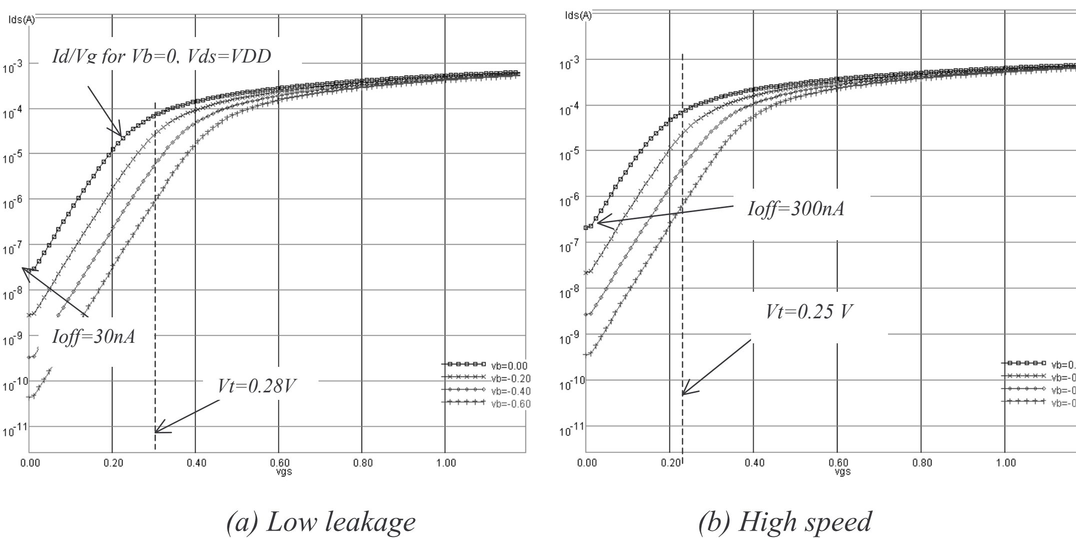
The cross-sections of the low-leakage and high-speed MOS devices do not reveal any major difference. Concerning the low-leakage MOS, the I/V characteristics reported in Fig. 2-9 demonstrate

a drive current capability around 0.6 mA for *W*=0.5µm, that is 1.2 mA/µm at a voltage supply of 1.2V. For the high speed MOS, both the effective channel length and the threshold voltage are slightly reduced, to achieve an impressive drive current around 1.5 mA/µm. The drawback of this astounding current drive is the leakage current which rises from 60 nA/µm (low leakage) to 600 nA/µm (high speed), as seen in the Id/Vg curve for Vg=0 V, Vb=0 V (Figure 2-10).



(a) Low leakage *(b) High speed*

Figure 2-9: Id/Vd characteristics of the Low leakage and high speed nMOS devices (W=0.5µm, L=0.1µm)



(a) Low leakage *(b) High speed*

Figure 2-10: Id/Vgd characteristics (log scale) of the Low leakage and high-speed nMOS devices (W=0.5µm, L=0.1µm)

P-channel MOS device characteristics

Parameter	pMOS Low leakage	pMOS High speed
Drawn length	0.1µm	0.1µm
Effective length	60 nm	50 nm
Width	0.5 µm	0.5 µm
Ion (Vdd=1.2V)	0.35 mA	0.39 mA
Ioff	21 nA	135 nA

Table 2-3: pMOS parameters featured in the 90 nm CMOS technology provided in Microwind

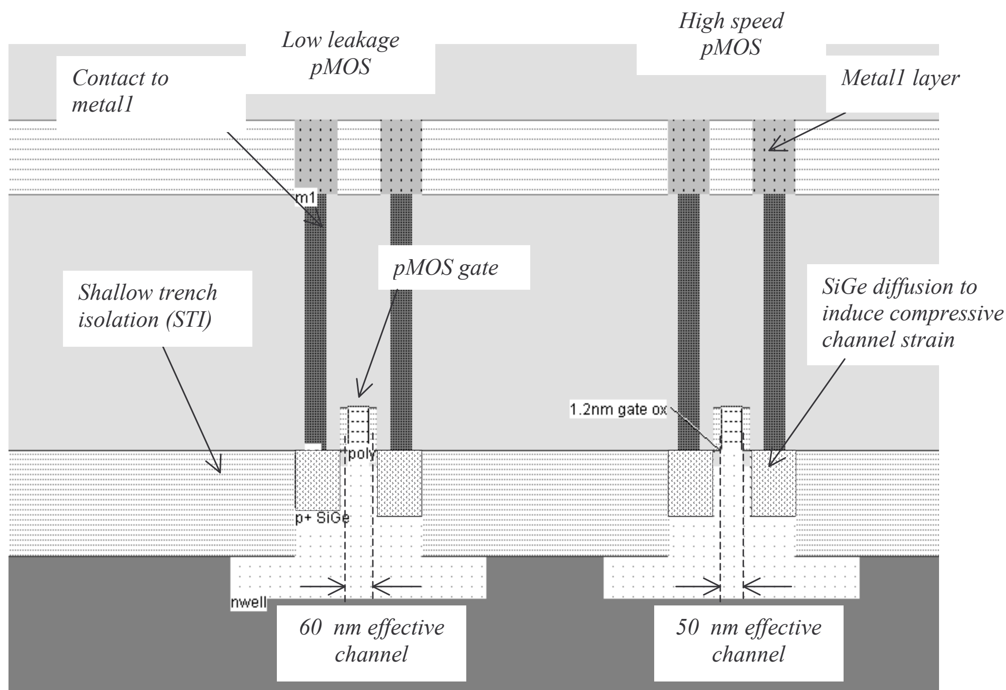


Figure 2-11: Cross-section of the pMOS devices

The PMOS drive current in this 90 nm technology is as high as 700 µA/µm for low-leakage MOS and up to 800 µA/µm for high-speed MOS (figure 2-11). These values are particularly high, as the target applications for this technology at Intel are high-speed digital circuits such as microprocessors. The leakage current is around 40 nA/µm for low-leakage MOS and near 300 nA/µm for the high-speed device.

High Speed, General Purpose and Low power processes

The 90-nm process technology proposed in MICROWIND corresponds to the highest possible speed, at the cost of a very important leakage current. This technology is called “High speed” as it is dedicated to applications for which the highest speed is the primary objective: fast microprocessors, fast DSP,

etc. The second technological option called "General Purpose" (Fig. 2-12) targets to standard products where the speed factor is not critical. The leakage current is one order of magnitude lower than in the high-speed option, with a gate delay increased by 50%, as seen in the parameters listed in Table 2-4. The low power option concerns integrated circuits for which the leakage must remain as low as possible, a criterion that ranks first in applications such as embedded devices, mobile phones or personal organizers. The gate delay is multiplied by 3 as compared to the high-speed option, mainly due to thicker oxides and a larger gate length.

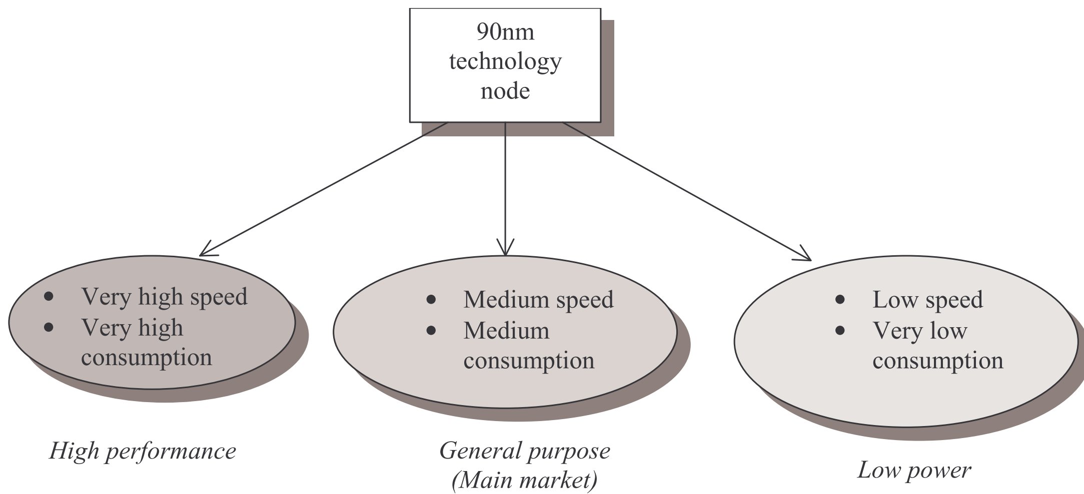


Figure 2-12: Introducing three variants of the 90nm technology

Technology	**High Speed**		**General Purpose**		**Low Power**	
Typical applications	Fast µP, fast DSP		ASIC, µC, FPGA		Mobiles, embedded devices	
VCC	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.2
Tox (nm)	1.2	1.2	1.6	1.6	2.2	2.2
Leff (nm)	50	50	65	65	80	80
VT	0.28	0.25	0.35	0.25	0.50	0.40
Idsat_n (µA/µm)	1200	1500	700	800	500	600
Idsat_p (µA/µm)	700	800	300	350	200	250
Ioff (A/µm)	50n	500n	5n	50n	50p	500p
Delay (ps/stage)	7	5	12	10	25	20

Table 2-4: The three classes of 90 nm CMOS technologies and comparative performances

High-permittivity dielectrics

The steady thickness reduction of conventional oxides such as silicon dioxide (SiO2) results in reliability degradation and unacceptable current leakage. New dielectric materials (table 2-5) with high permittivity (high-"K") are needed to replace SiO2, both for the MOS device itself and the embedded capacitors.

High capacitance passive devices (known as Metal-Insulator-Metal, or MIM) are needed for various purposes including on-chip power supply decoupling, analog filtering for wireless applications and high-quality resonators for radio-frequency circuits. These capacitors should feature high reliability, low current leakage, low series resistance and dielectric loss. They should also be fully compatible with the standard CMOS processes.

Material	**Description**	**Relative permittivity (ε_r)**	**Comments**
HfO_2	Fluor-oxide	20	Proposed for 45 nm gate oxide
Ta_2O_5	Tantalum pentoxide	25	High crystallization temperature. Reliability issues.
$Ni_xTa_2O_5$	Niobium tantalum pentoxide	28	Good candidate for MIM capacitor.
ZrO_2	Zirconium-dioxide	23	
SiO_2	Silicon dioxide	4	Important ultra-thin film leakage

Table 2-5: New dielectric materials that may replace SiO2 in future technologies

Both MOS devices and passives may benefit from high-K insulators. Concerning MOS devices, high-k dielectrics can be made thicker than SiO_2 films to obtain the same equivalent channel effect, thereby reducing leakage. Concerning passives, the larger the permittivity, the larger the charge that can be stored in the memory capacitor, thus resulting in higher capacitance values. Alternatively, the same capacitance may require less silicon area with high-K insulators than with to conventional SiO_2. Typical values for the capacitance range from 2 to 20 fF/μm^2.

References

[1] E. Sicard, S. Ben Dhia "Basic CMOS cell design", Tata McGraw Hill, 2005, ISBN 0-07-059933-5
[2] Moore, G. E., 1965, Cramming more components onto integrated circuits, Electronics, Volume 38, N°8.

[3] T. Ghani and col. “A 90nm high volume manufacturing logic technology featuring novel 45nm gate length strained silicon CMOS transistors”, proceedings of IEDM 2003.