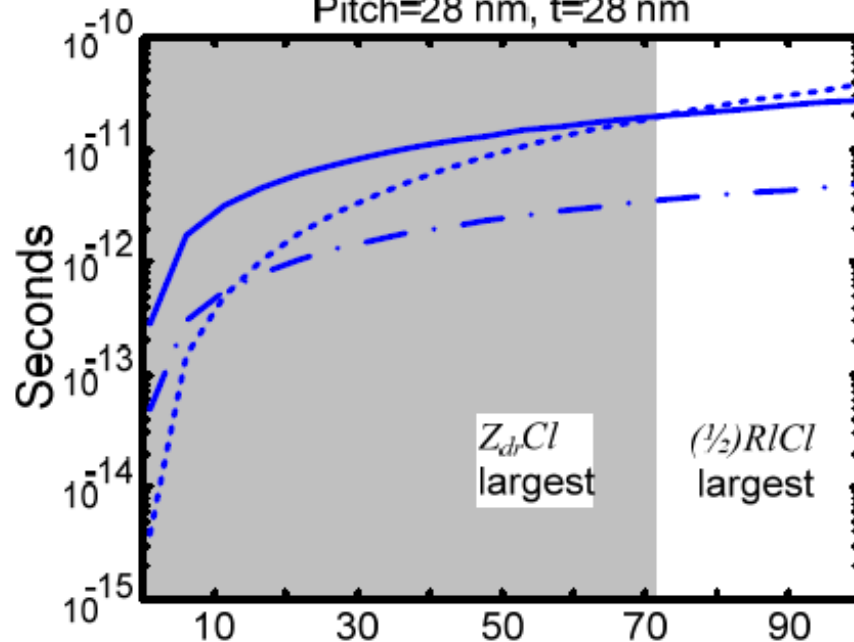


When is Interconnect Inductance Important?

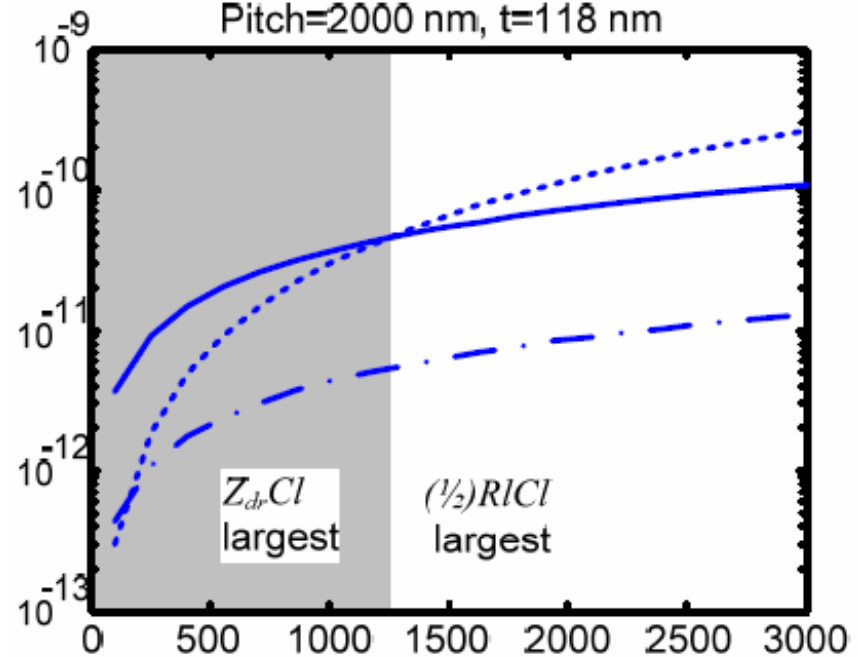
$$Z_{dr}Cl < \frac{1}{2}RlCl < Z_0Cl$$

$$\overline{\quad\quad\quad} Z_{dr}Cl < \overline{\quad\quad\quad} (\frac{1}{2})RlCl < \overline{\quad\quad\quad} Z_0Cl$$

Intermediate level:
Driver size 10*min
Pitch=28 nm, t=28 nm



Global level:
Driver size 200*min
Pitch=2000 nm, t=118 nm



Case study for CNT-based interconnect as an example.

ECE 225
High Speed Digital IC Design
Lecture 6

Interconnect Technology and Scaling Issues-II
(Thermal, Reliability and Power)

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Electrical and Computer Engineering
E-mail: kaustav@ece.ucsb.edu

Interconnect Thermal Effects and Reliability

K. Banerjee and A. Mehrotra, IEEE Circuits and Devices Magazine, pp. 16-32, Sept. 2001.

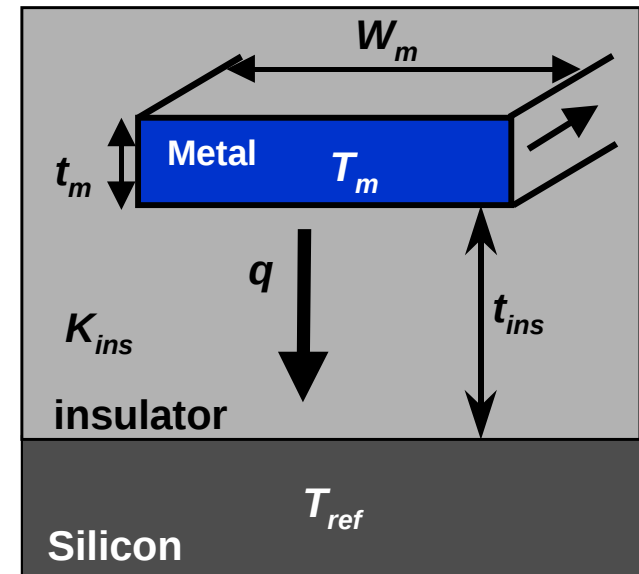
Self-Heating or Joule Heating

$$\Delta T_{\text{self-heating}} = (T_m - T_{\text{ref}}) = I_{\text{rms}}^2 R \theta_j$$

θ_j is the effective thermal impedance:

$$\theta_j = \frac{t_{\text{ins}}}{K_{\text{ins}} L W_{\text{eff}}}$$

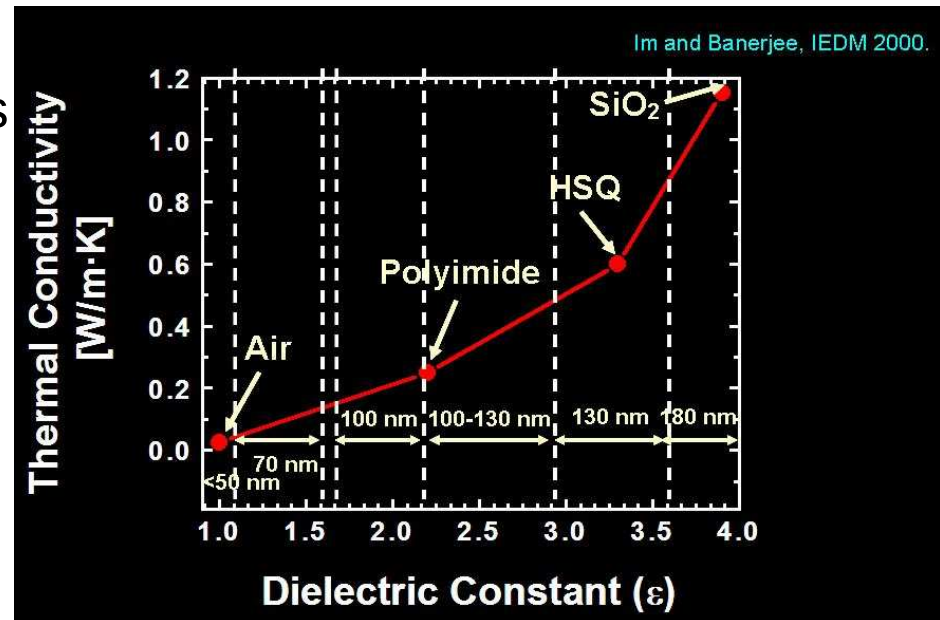
W_{eff} is the effective metal width to account for quasi-2D heat conduction.



Interconnect Scaling Trends

Implications of Technology Scaling on Thermal Effects

- Low-k materials have lower thermal conductivity than silicon dioxide.
- Scaling trends that cause increasing thermal effects are:
 - increasing current density
 - increasing interconnect levels
 - low-k dielectrics
 - increasing thermal coupling

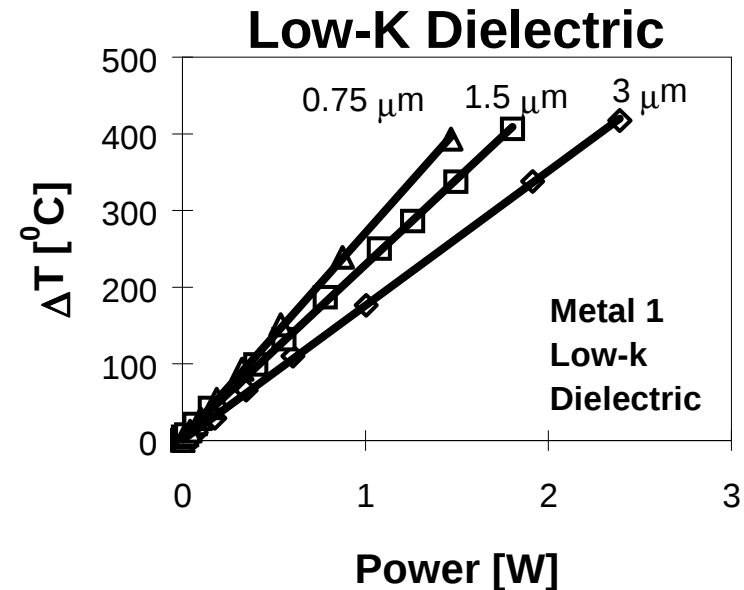
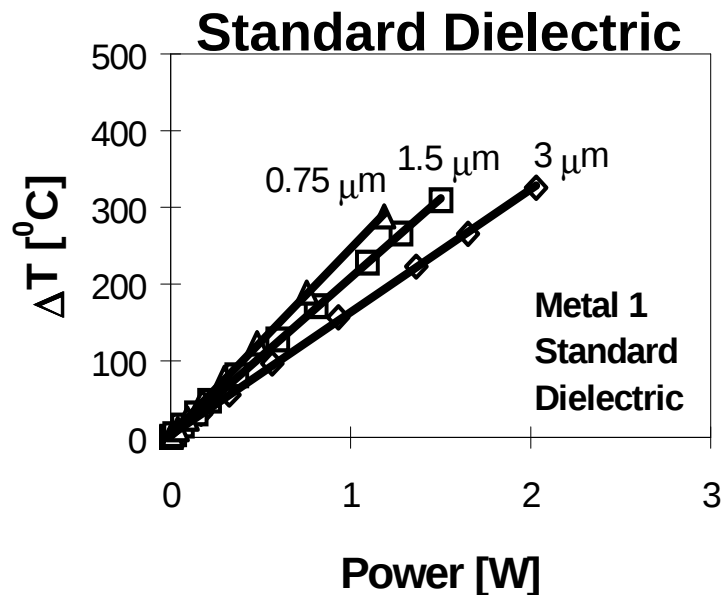
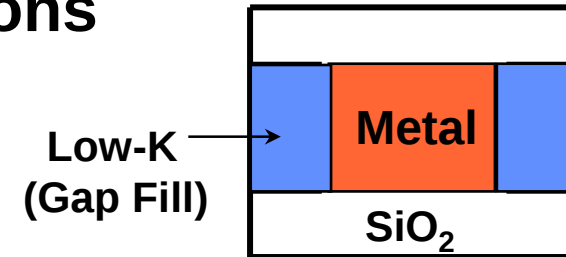
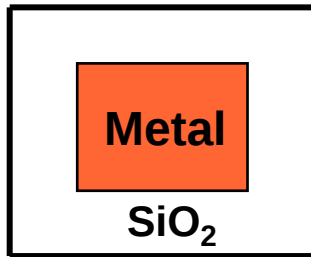


Interconnect Scaling Trends

Impact of Line Width Scaling Using Low-k

Banerjee et al., IEDM, 1996

DC Conditions



■ As **W** decreases **SH** increases.

■ **Low-k** increases **SH** by 10-15%

Electromigration Reliability

- Transport of mass in metal interconnects under an applied current density
- EM lifetime reliability modeled using **Black's equation** given by,

$$TTF = A j_{avg}^{-2} \exp\left(\frac{Q}{k_B T_m}\right)$$

- EM stress data gives a technology limit of the current density (j_{avg}) - - *for a required failure rate and a desired lifetime at a reference temperature T_{ref} (~ 100 °C)*
- The j_{avg} limit does not comprehend **self-heating**

Self-Consistent Design

Typical EM Analysis

- Accelerated EM stress data yields A , Q , and n in Black's equation, and a value of log-normal σ_{LN} .
- EM stress data + Black's equation gives a technology limit to the maximum allowed current density (j_{avg}) for the required failure rate and a desired lifetime at a reference temperature T_{ref} ($\sim 100^\circ\text{C}$).
- Typical goal: achieve a 10 year lifetime.
- The j_{avg} limit does not comprehend self heating, and is therefore not self-consistent (Hunter et al., TED 1996).

Self-Consistent Design

Current Density Definitions

■ Peak, Average, and RMS current densities:

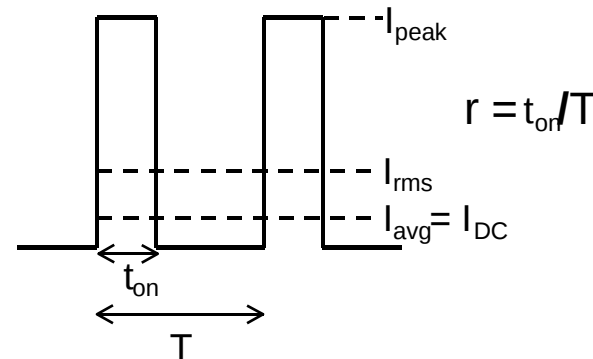
$$j_{peak} = \frac{I_{peak}}{A} \quad j_{avg} = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T j(t) dt \quad j_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T j^2(t) dt}$$

A is the cross sectional area of interconnect, T is the time period of the current waveform.

■ For an unipolar waveform:

$$j_{avg} = r j_{peak} \quad j_{rms} = \sqrt{r} j_{peak}$$

r is the duty factor



■ EM is determined by j_{avg} , and self-heating by j_{rms} .

Self-Consistent Design

Impact of Self-Heating on EM

- EM lifetime given by: $TTF = A j^{-n} \exp\left(\frac{Q}{k_B T_m}\right)$
- Due to self-heating: $T_m = T_{ref} + \Delta T_{self-heating}$

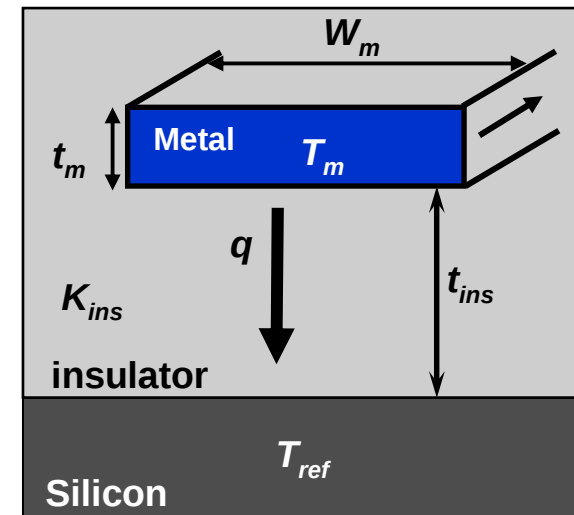
$$\Delta T_{self-heating} = (T_m - T_{ref}) = I_{rms}^2 R R_\theta$$

$$j_{rms}^2 = \frac{(T_m - T_{ref}) K_{ins} W_{eff}}{t_{ins} t_m W_m \rho_m (T_m)} \quad (1)$$

R_θ is the effective thermal impedance given by,

$$R_\theta = \frac{t_{ins}}{K_{ins} L W_{eff}}$$

W_{eff} is the effective metal width to account for quasi-2D heat conduction.



Self-Consistent Design

What is Self-Consistent Design?

- Typically, design rules specify j_{avg} from EM and j_{rms} from self-heating separately.
- Self-consistent approach: comprehends EM and self-heating simultaneously.
- In order to achieve an EM reliability lifetime goal mentioned earlier, the lifetime at any j_{avg} and metal temperature T_m , should be equal to or greater than the lifetime value (e.g., 10 year) under the design rule current density (j_0).

$$\frac{\exp\left(\frac{Q}{k_B T_m}\right)}{j_{avg}^2} \geq \frac{\exp\left(\frac{Q}{k_B T_{ref}}\right)}{j_0^2} \quad (2)$$

Self-Consistent Design

What is Self-Consistent Design?

- Using the relationship between j_{avg} , j_{rms} , j_{peak} and r for an unipolar waveform described earlier, it can be shown that,

$$\frac{j_{avg}^2}{j_{rms}^2} = r \quad (3)$$

- Incorporating the j_{rms}^2 and j_{avg}^2 values from (1) and (2) in (3) yields the self-consistent equation,

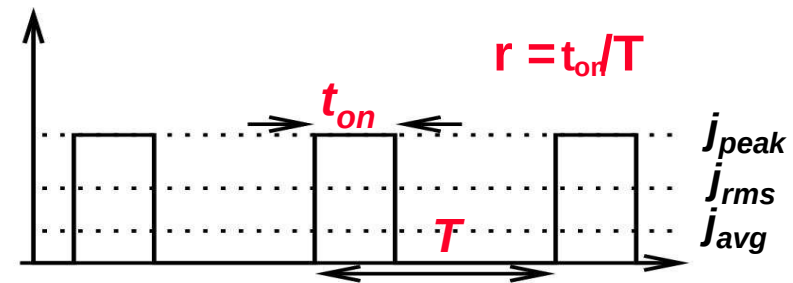
$$r = j_0^2 \frac{\exp\left(\frac{Q}{k_B T_m}\right)}{\exp\left(\frac{Q}{k_B T_{ref}}\right)} \frac{t_{ins} t_m W_m \rho_m (T_m)}{(T_m - T_{ref}) K_{ins} W_{eff}}$$

This is a single equation in the single unknown temperature T_m . Once the self-consistent T_m is obtained, the corresponding j_{rms} and j_{peak} and j_{avg} values can be calculated.

Coupled Analysis

Unipolar Case:

■ Coupled equation:



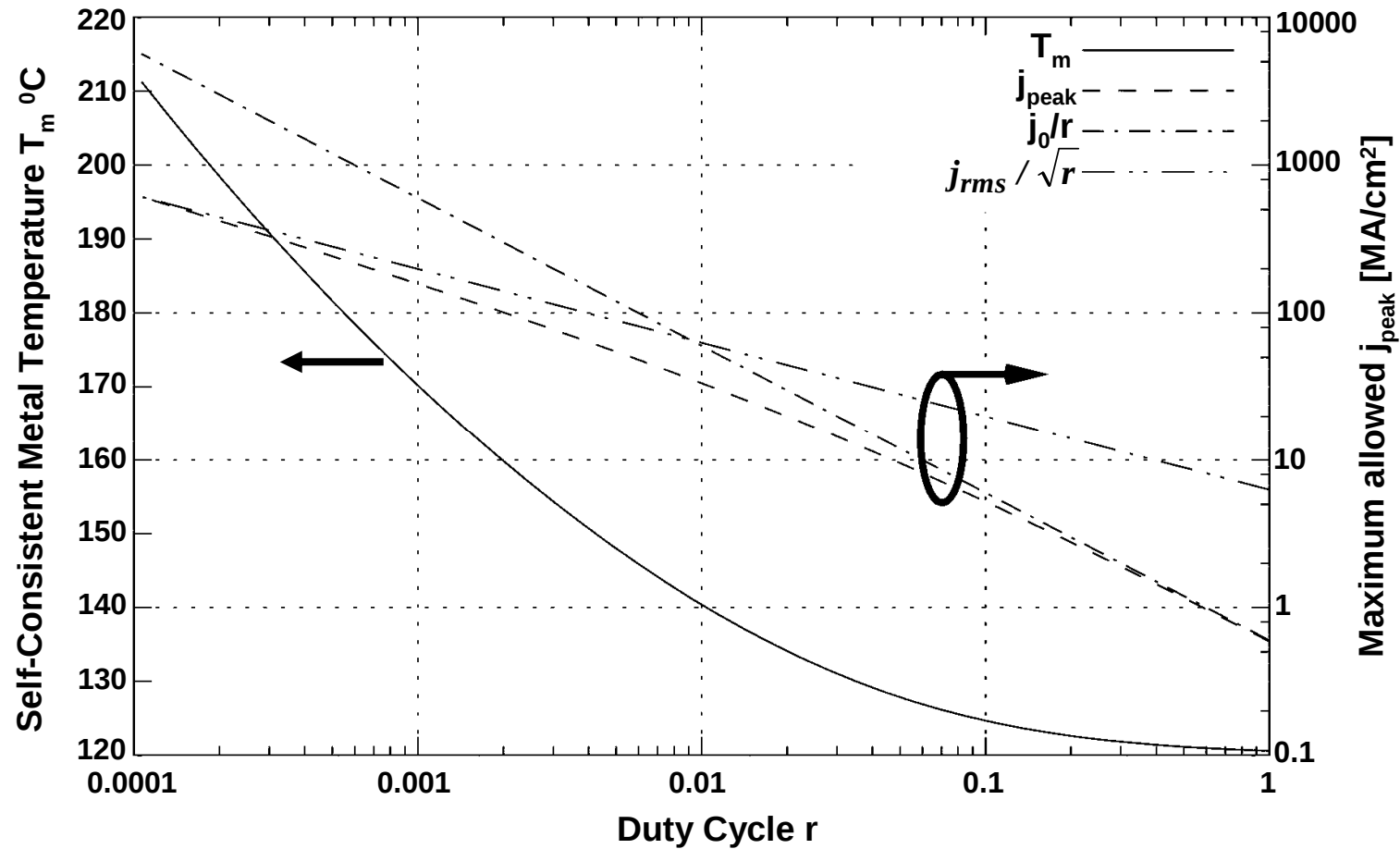
$$\frac{j_{avg}^2}{j_{rms}^2} = r$$

$$r = j_0^2 \frac{\exp\left(\frac{Q}{k_B T_m}\right)}{\exp\left(\frac{Q}{k_B T_{ref}}\right)} \frac{t_{ins} t_m W_m \rho_m (T_m)}{(T_m - T_{ref}) K_{ins} W_{eff}}$$

Once T_m is calculated, j_{rms} and j_{peak} can be obtained

Coupled Analysis

Unipolar Case: Metal 6, 180 nm node, $j_0 = 0.6 \text{ MA/cm}^2$



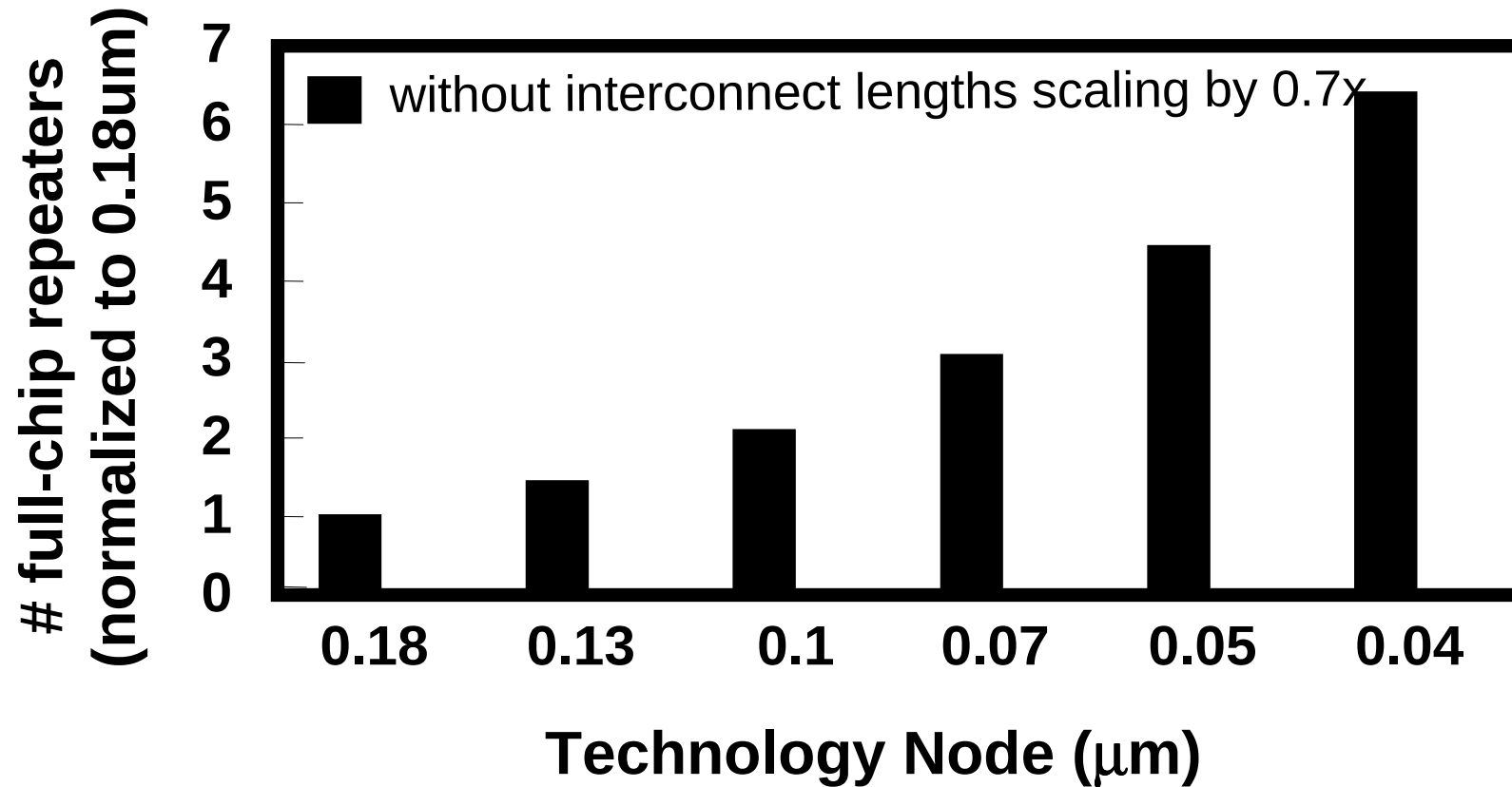
Interconnect Delay and Power Dissipation

K. Banerjee and A. Mehrotra, IEEE Transactions on Electron Devices, Vol. 49, No. 11, pp. 2001-2007, November 2002.

Performance Optimization: Global Wires

- Increasing chip complexity and scaling
 - number and (electrical) length of global lines & latency increase
- Repeater insertion used for lowering the signal delays
- Delay of optimally repeatered line is linear in its length
- High-performance designs: **large number of repeaters ($> 10^6$ for sub-100 nm designs)**

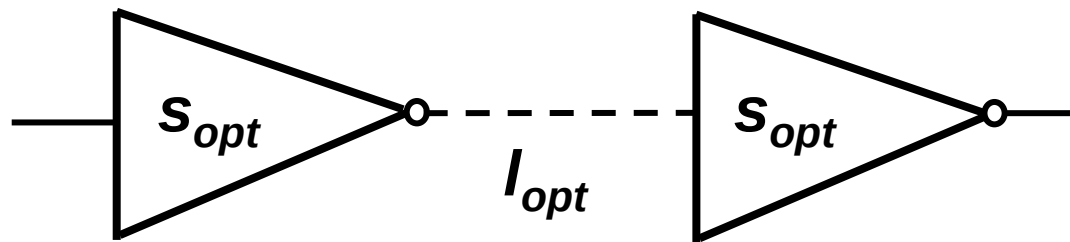
Increasing Number of Repeaters



Source: Intel Corporation

Optimal Repeater Insertion

- Long interconnects can be optimally buffered



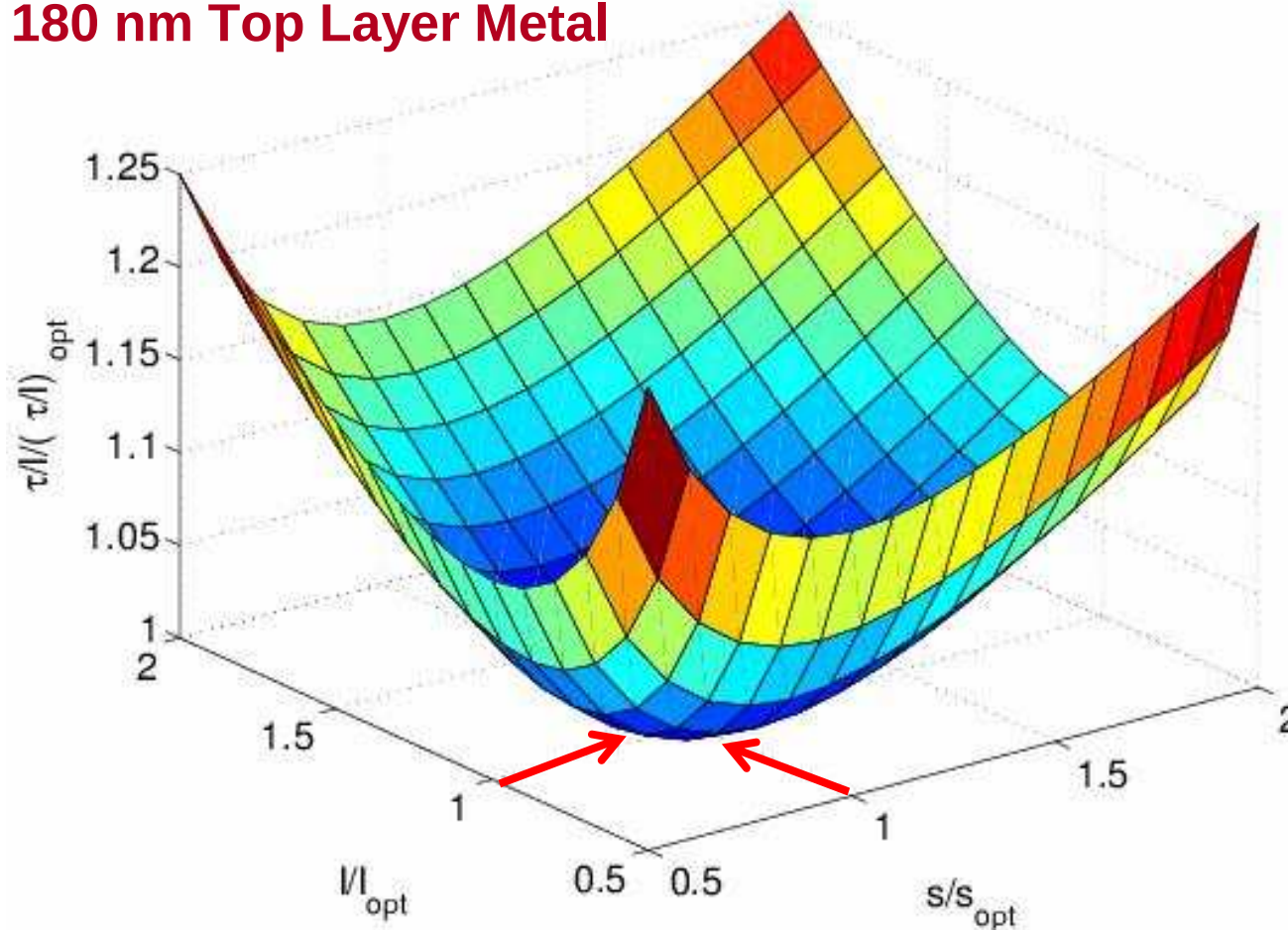
- Large size: could be ~ 450 times the minimum sized inverters available in a relevant technology (K. Banerjee et al., DAC 1999)
- Can contribute to significant on-chip **power dissipation!**

Delay Vs Power Tradeoff for Global Wires

- All global wires are not on the critical path
- Optimal buffering is not always necessary
- Some delay penalty can be tolerated on non-critical wires
- **Potential for large power savings** by using smaller repeaters and larger inter-repeater wire length

Interconnect Delay Optimization

180 nm Top Layer Metal



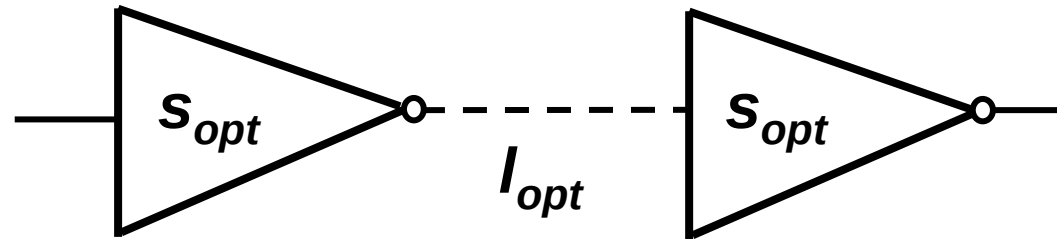
For $s = s_{opt}/2$ and $l = 2 l_{opt}$; Delay Penalty is **only 25%**

Power-Optimal Repeater Insertion

Banerjee and Mehrotra, TED 2002.

- A methodology to estimate repeater size and inter-repeater wire length which minimizes the total interconnect power dissipation for a given delay penalty
- Estimate power-optimal buffering schemes for various ITRS technology nodes
- Analyze relative importance of various components of power dissipation as a function of technology scaling

Methodology



delay per unit length:

$$\frac{\tau}{\ell} = \frac{1}{\ell} r_s (c_0 + c_p) + \frac{r_s}{s} c + r_s c_0 + \frac{1}{2} r c \ell$$

For $\ell = \ell_{opt}$, $S = S_{opt}$:

$$(\tau / \ell)_{opt} = 2 \sqrt{r_s c_0 r c} \left\{ 1 + \sqrt{0.5 \left(1 + \frac{c_p}{c_0} \right)} \right\}$$

Methodology

$$P_{repeater} = P_{switching} + P_{leakage} + P_{short\ circuit}$$

$$P_{switching} = \alpha (s (c_p + c_o) + I_c) V_{DD}^2 f_{clk}$$

$$P_{leakage} = V_{DD} I_{leakage} = V_{DD} I_{off} W_{n_{min}} s$$

$$P_{short\ circuit} = \alpha t_r V_{DD} I_{peak} f_{clk} = \alpha t_r V_{DD} W_{n_{min}} s I_{short\ circuit} f_{clk}$$

- α is the activity factor (=0.15)
- t_r = rise time of input voltage to change from V_{tn} to $V_{DD} - V_{tp}$

Methodology

If the delay penalty is f , then: $\frac{\tau}{I} = (1 + f)(\tau / I)_{opt}$

$$\frac{P_{repeater}}{I} = k_1 \left(\underset{\substack{\nearrow \\ \text{switching}}}{s / I} (c_p + c_0) + c \right) + \underset{\substack{\nearrow \\ \text{leakage}}}{k_2} \frac{s}{I} + \underset{\substack{\nearrow \\ \text{short-circuit}}}{k_3} s$$

$$k_1 = \alpha V_{DD}^2 f_{clk}$$

$$k_2 = \frac{3}{2} V_{DD} I_{off_n} W_{n_{min}}$$

$$k_3 = \alpha V_{DD} W_{n_{min}} I_{short\ circuit} f_{clk} \log_e 3 (1 + f)(\tau / I)_{opt}$$

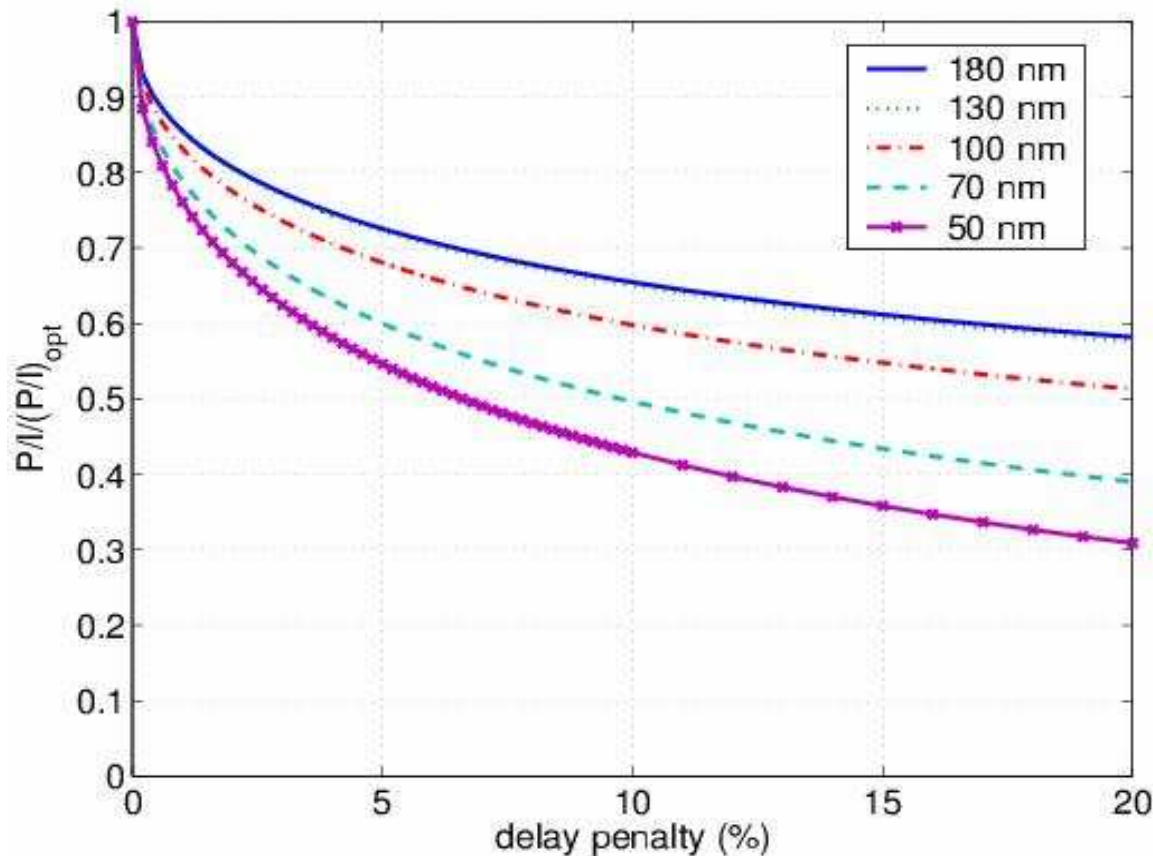
Methodology

Minimize P_{repeater} // w.r. t. s :

$$\frac{P_{\text{repeater}}}{I} = k_1 \left(\underset{\substack{\nearrow \\ \text{switching}}}{s / I} (c_p + c_0) + c \right) + \underset{\substack{\nearrow \\ \text{leakage}}}{k_2} \frac{s}{I} + \underset{\substack{\nearrow \\ \text{short-circuit}}}{k_3} s$$

- Involves three non-linear equations with three unknowns: I , s , and dI/ds
- Used Newton-Raphson to solve numerically

Results: Power Vs Delay Penalty



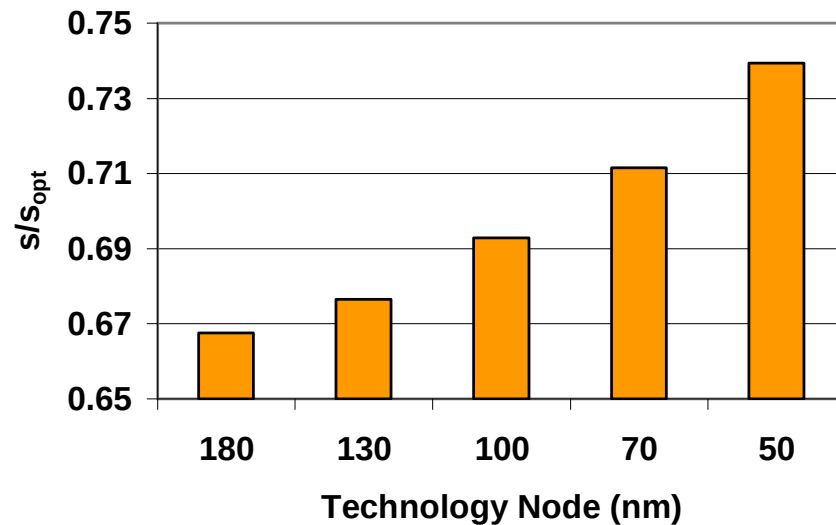
■ Normalized power per unit length reduces as delay penalty increases

■ Incremental reduction in P/I is high for small values of the delay penalty

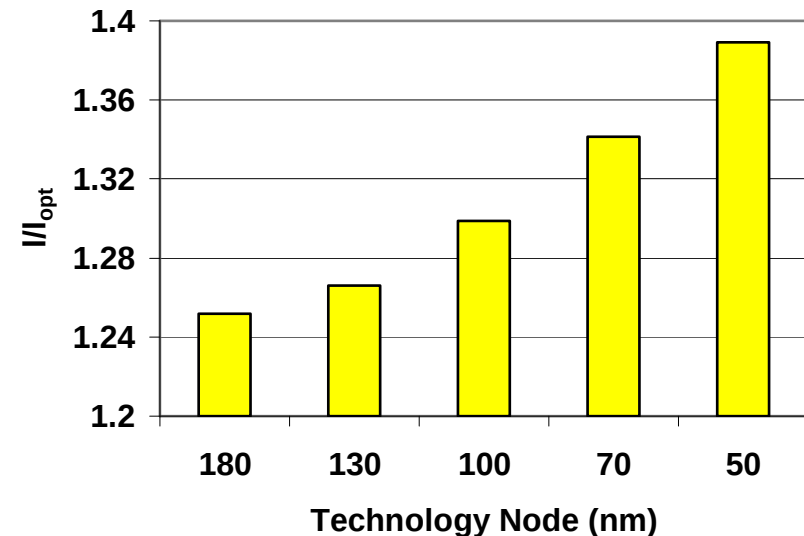
■ 180 nm and 130 nm results are almost identical

■ However, normalized P/I decreases with technology scaling:
leakage power

Optimization Results: 5% delay penalty



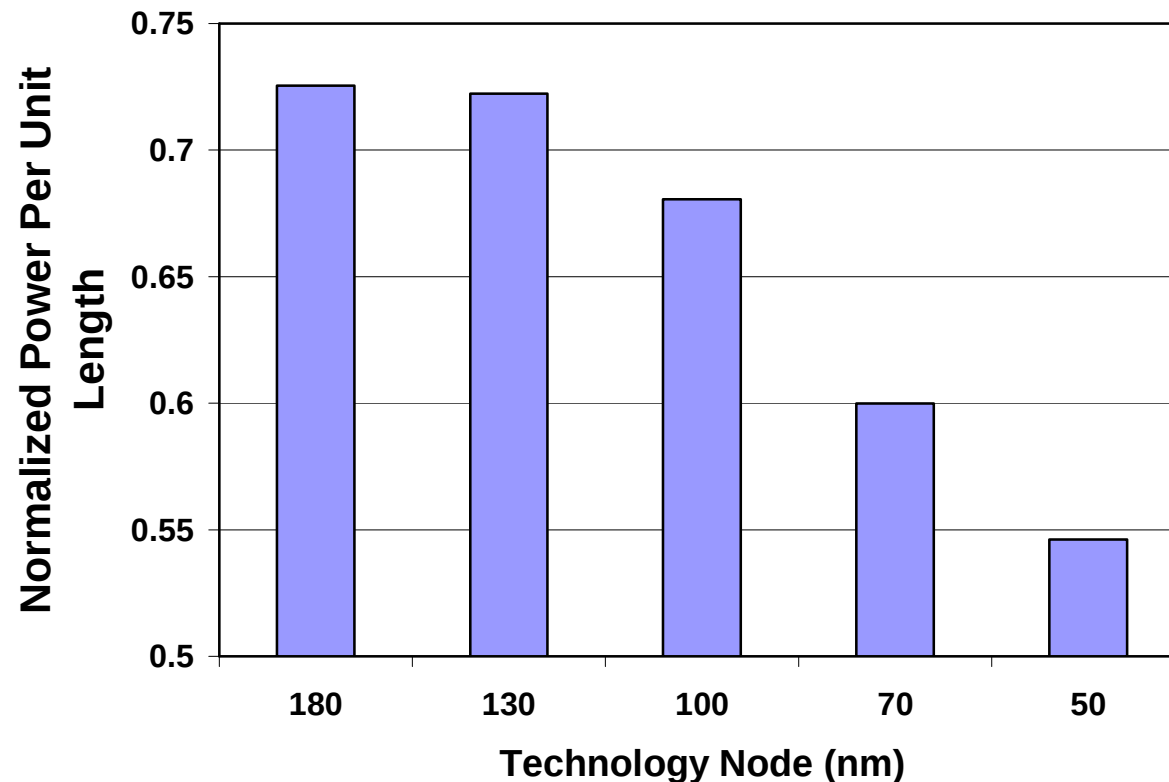
$$S < S_{opt}$$



$$I > I_{opt}$$

For optimal power dissipation: **repeater size** needs to be reduced and **inter-buffer wire length** needs to be increased

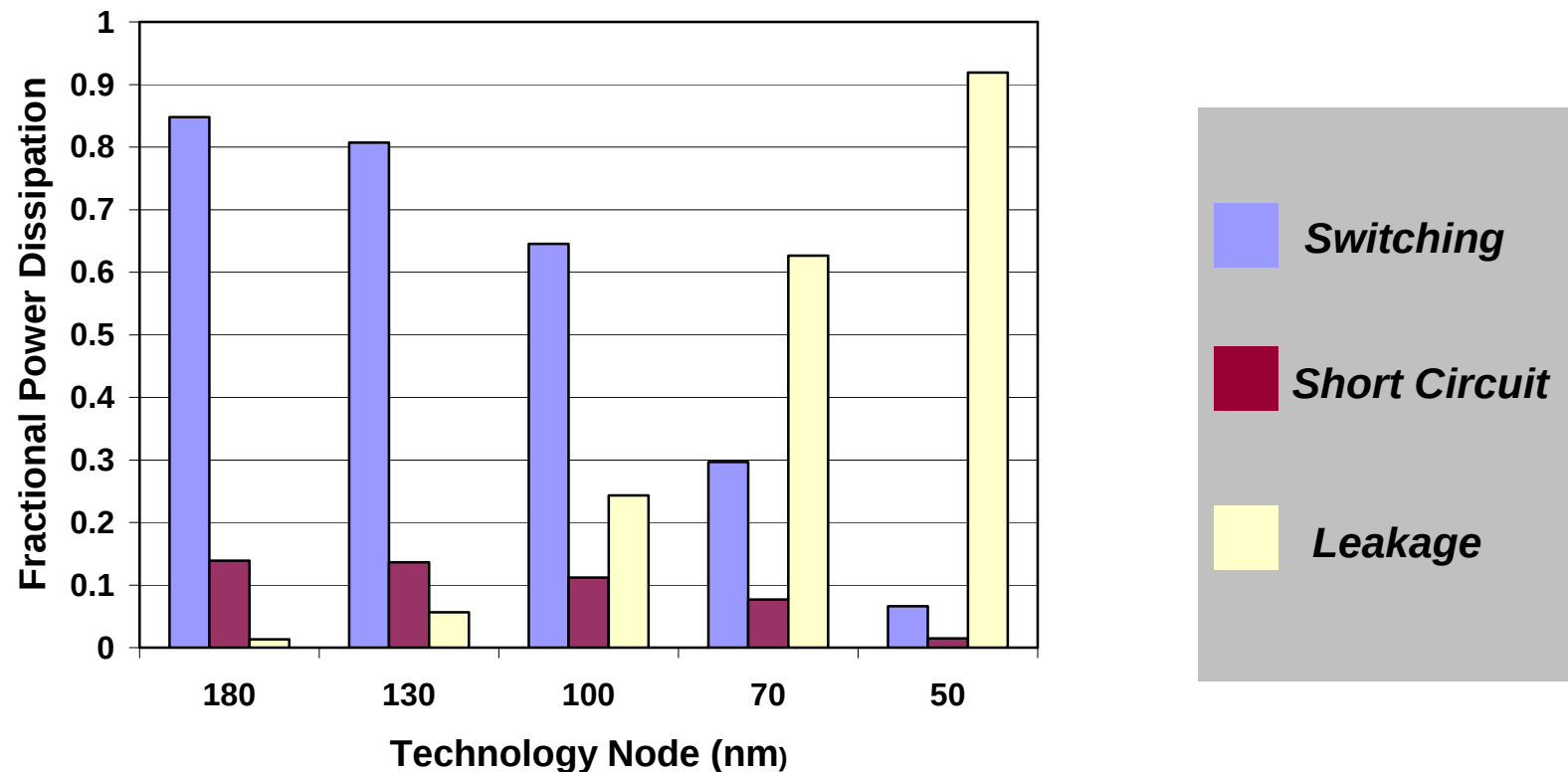
Optimization Results: 5% delay penalty



Normalized power per unit length decreases rapidly with scaling: **due to substantial increase in leakage current**

Optimization Results: 5% delay penalty

Relative contributions of the three components of PD



- Leakage power is the dominant component for advanced nodes
- Short circuit power is also non-trivial across all nodes

Voltage Drop Effects in Power Distribution Networks

A. H. Ajami, K. Banerjee and M. Pedram, International Journal of Analog Integrated Circuits and Signal Processing, Vol. 42, No. 3, pp. 277-290, Springer, 2005.

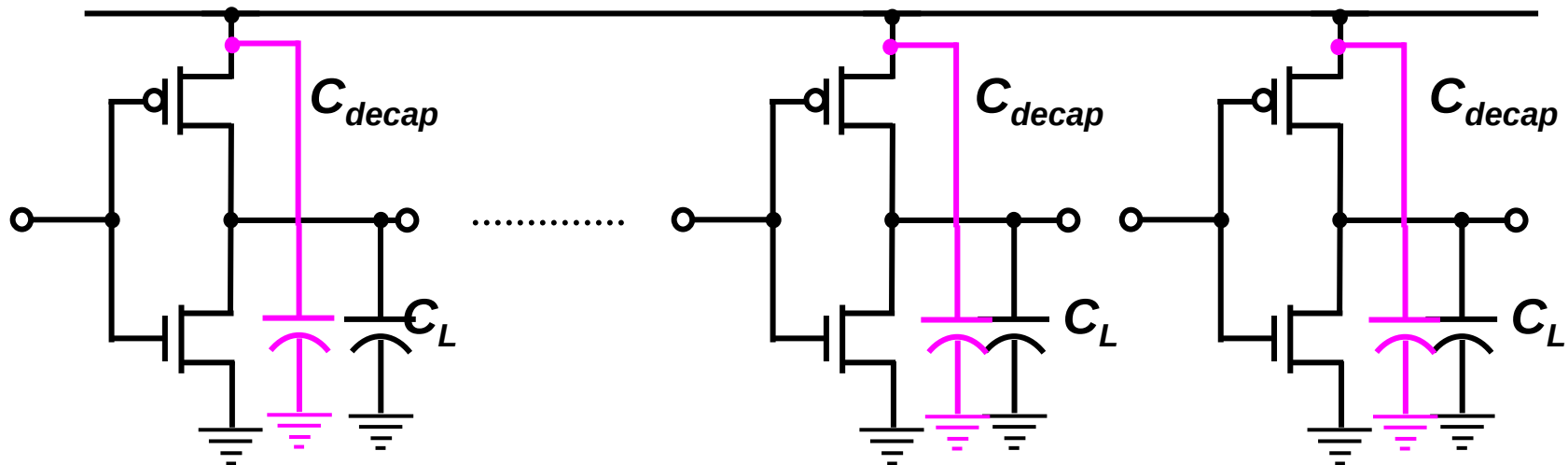
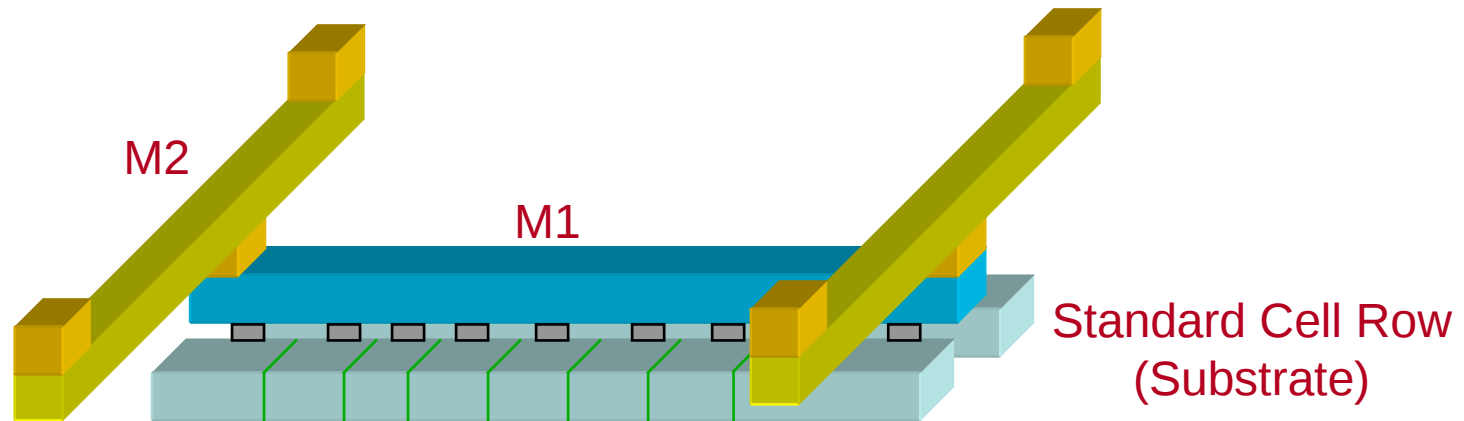
Voltage Drop Effects

- Voltage-drop is an inseparable aspect of DSM power distribution network (PDN)
 - resistive voltage drop ΔV (on-chip resistance)
 - switching noise, $L di/dt$ (off-chip inductance)
- Degrades device switching speed and *DC* noise margins
- Can cause functional failure in dynamic logic and timing violation in static logic
- 10% voltage-drop → 8% increase in device propagation delay (0.18 μ m tech.)

Challenges in P/G Network Design

- Satisfying the electromigration (EM) rules for each power routing segment
- Minimizing the area consumed by PDN
- Limiting the worst-case voltage-drop ($\sim 10\%$ of V_{dd} for current technology)
 - Power network wire-sizing ($\uparrow$ routing area)
 - Decoupling-cap insertion ($\uparrow$ substrate area)

Local Power Distribution

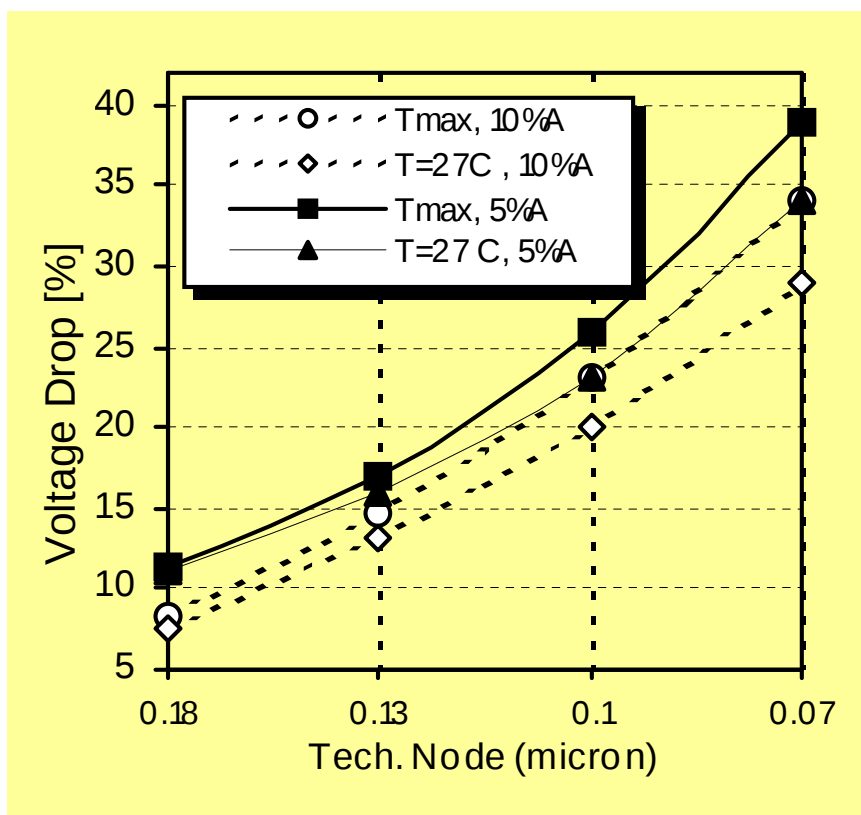


Technology Scaling Impacts

- Scaling of line dimension (R , L , C)
- Scaling of chip frequency, power, and # of power pads
- Interconnect thermal effects
 - Electromigration rules
 - R
- Thin-film scattering and barrier thickness effects in DSM interconnects
 - R

Global/Semi-global PDN IR-Drop

Allocation of 5% and 10% of the routing area for wire sizing to minimize the voltage-drop:

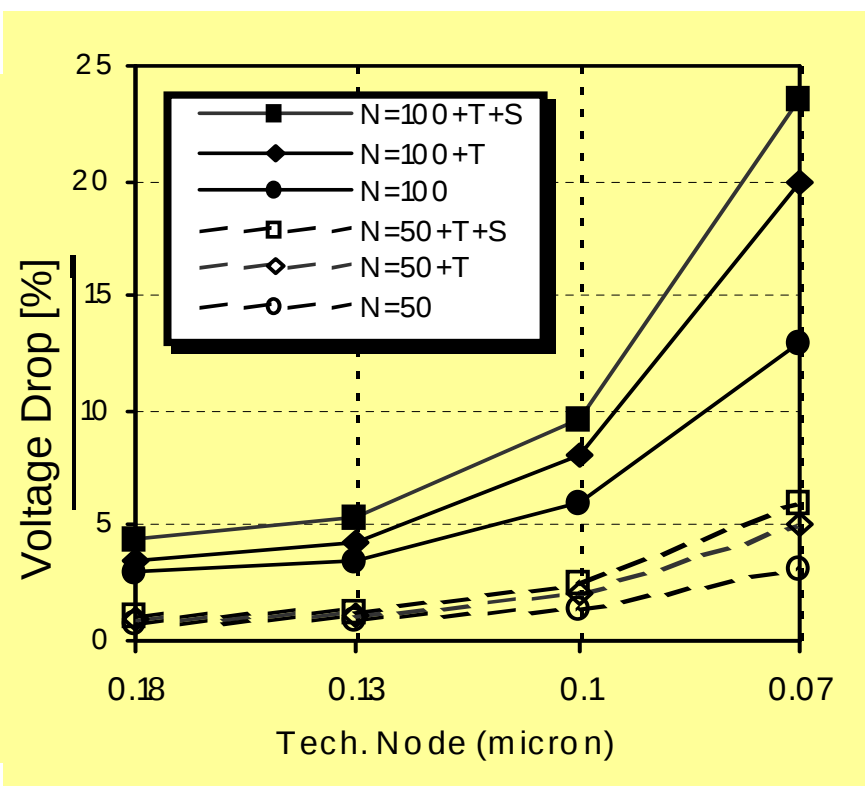


Voltage-drop increases rapidly with technology scaling....

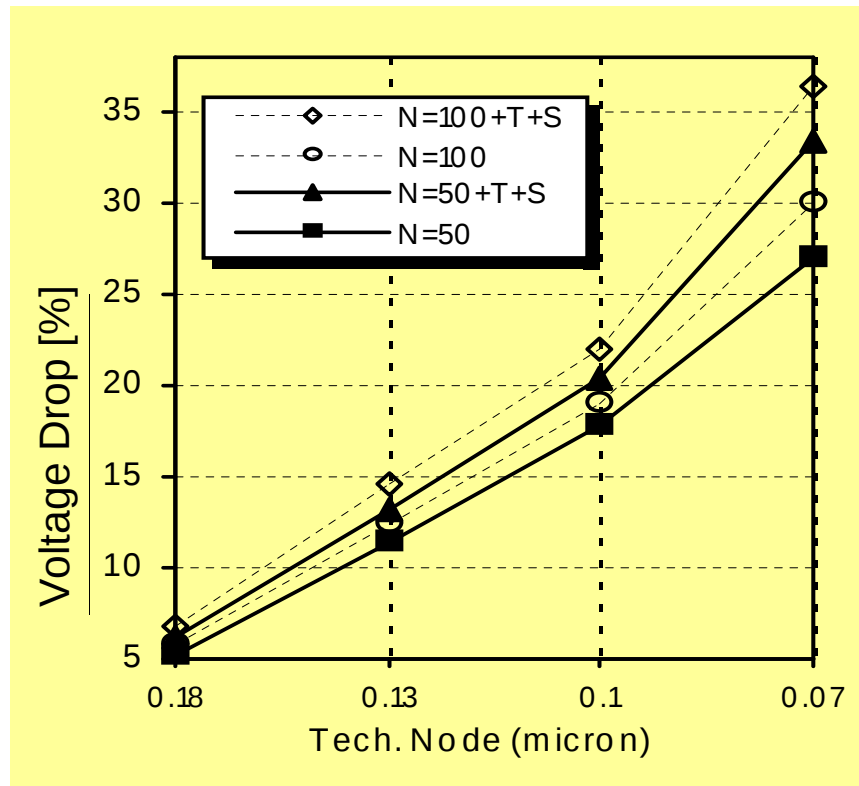
Interconnect temperature has a major impact on the voltage-drop of global segments.....

Full Chip IR-Drop

Local worst-case IR-Drop
for 50 and 100 switching cells



Total chip worst-case IR-Drop
10% routing, 5% chip area



T– considering temperature effect **S**—considering thin-film effects