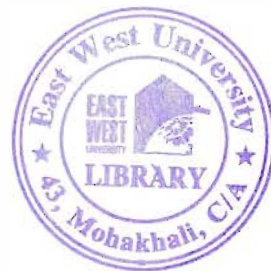


DEGRADATION OF EFFECTIVE DECOUPLING CAPACITANCE IN HIGH SPEED CMOS CIRCUITS

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Abstract

Due to increasing demand on power by silicon operating at higher frequencies, voltage droops in power buses at switching transients can be a critical constraint. On-die decoupling is used to reduce the droops and achieve higher performance. In this thesis we perform an analysis of high-frequency decoupling capacitor design using low loss tangent high-k material as dielectric. These capacitors can be used effectively at higher frequencies and can be able to compensate the voltage drop to ensure the constant power delivery. We also consider the performance degradation of a decoupling capacitor at high frequency. It is noted that dielectric material effective capacitance reduces above several GHz due to the degradation of the dielectric constant. Below these frequencies it is demonstrated that decoupling capacitors have better performance at high-frequency if the high-k material has lower loss tangent. For this reason we choose lower loss tangent high-k material to design the decoupling capacitor and placed them closer to CMOS circuits. Our analysis is done on the basis of simulation result done using the ADS software which is briefly discussed inside this paper.



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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Motivation:

In semiconductor circuit one of the most unfortunate features is parasitic component which causes voltage droop. To solve this voltage droop problem we can use a decoupling capacitor, familiarly known as “decaps”, in shunt with the driving load and which can provide the required voltage to the driving load. But decoupling capacitors properly work only within a certain frequency bandwidth. If the frequency content of the signal increases the effective capacitance of the decoupling capacitor decreases, particularly at very high frequency. This will eventually reduce the effectiveness of the decoupling capacitor and the capacitor behaves like a short circuit for which at high frequency the circuit voltage droop can not then be compensated. But if we change the dielectric material then we have an opportunity to increase the frequency response of the capacitor. So our proposal is to look at different materials including High-K.

Basically high-k material can increase the sustainability of capacitor in high frequency due to its higher dielectric constant and lower loss tangent. Loss tangent is a dielectric material parameter which quantifies its inherent dissipation of electromagnetic energy. Actually it refers to an angle in a complex plane between the resistive (lossy) component of an electromagnetic field and its reactive (lossless) component. If the loss tangent of a dielectric material decreases then its frequency increases by the below relationship,

$$f = \sigma / 2\pi\epsilon' \tan\delta$$

The dielectric constant [1] refers how effective a dielectric is allowing a capacitor to store more charge depends on the dielectric material from which it made off. Every material has a dielectric constant k and it is the ratio of the field without the dielectric (E_0) to the net field (E) with the dielectric, $k = E_0 / E$. Benefit of the larger the dielectric constant is that it can store more charges. So, if we build capacitor with large dielectric constant and less loss tangent then we can build such a capacitor which is smaller in size but can operate in a comparatively high frequency and the performance of the capacitor is far better than any other normal material made capacitor.

We have discussed above that for better performance of the capacitor we need high-K material but it has a big impact on the size of the capacitor. Basically, Silicon dioxide has been used as a gate oxide

material for decades. As transistors have decreased in size, the thickness of the silicon dioxide gate dielectric has gradually decreased to increase the gate capacitance and thereby drive current and device performance. As the thickness scales below 2 nm, leakage currents occur due to electron tunneling increase significantly, leading to unwieldy power consumption and reduced device reliability. Replacing the silicon dioxide gate dielectric with a high-K material allows increased gate capacitance without the concomitant leakage effects and with an acceptable small size.

For the above consideration our motivation is to build a capacitor with high-K material such as hafnium dioxide (HfO_2), Yttrium Oxide (Y_2O_3) and Lanthanum Oxide (La_2O_3) which can store a large amount of charge and can sustain in a comparatively high frequency with small size and also observe the capacitance of these three materials with respect to frequency.

1.2. Literary Survey:

1.2.1. Decoupling Capacitor:

Decoupling capacitor is one kind of capacitor which is used to provide charge support to switching circuits. Electrical circuit noise caused by a circuit element can affect other circuit elements by modifying the voltage rail levels. To deduce this problem a capacitor is shunted after that noise creating element which eventually reduce the effect they have on the rest of the circuit. Bypass capacitor is the alternative name of a decoupling capacitor; as it is used to bypass the power supply or other high impedance component of a circuit.

In "High Capacitance, Large Area, Thin Film, Nanocomposite Based Embedded Capacitor[1]" paper, they represented thin film technology based on barium titanate (BaTiO_3)-epoxy polymer nanocomposites to develop and manufacture high performance embedded capacitors and can be used for decoupling purpose. The referred technology was able to produce high capacitance density (10 to 100 nF/inch²), large area, and thin film capacitors with controlled thickness from about 2 micron to about 25 microns for a series of BaTiO_3 epoxy nanocomposites.

In "Layout of Decoupling Capacitors in IP Blocks for 90-nm CMOS [2]" paper, they introduced a design metric to determine the optimal number of fingers to use in the standard cell layout to obtain a desired capacitance level over a target operating frequency and investigated the tradeoffs between

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high-frequency performance of decaps and electrostatic discharge (ESD) protection and its impact on the layout of standard cell decaps.

In “Efficient Placement of Distributed On-Chip Decoupling Capacitors in Nanoscale ICs [3]” paper they proposed a system of distributed on-chip decoupling capacitors where on-chip decoupling capacitor is providing the required on-chip decoupling capacitance under existing technology constraints. In this system of distribution a capacitor is placed closest to the current load to provide the required charge and as the first capacitor is depleted, the next decoupling capacitor is activated to provide a large portion of the total current drawn by the load.

1.2.2. White Space or White Area Decoupling:

White space refers to the unused blank space in a semiconductor device. Now a day's semiconductor chips are very small in size so we need to manage our redundant space effectively. As we use a decoupling capacitor in the semiconductor device to compensate the voltage droop so, that decoupling capacitor can be placed in that white space or white area region.

In “Quantifying Decoupling Capacitor Location [4]” paper, they discuss about the position of the decoupling capacitor. Coupling between an IC and a decoupling capacitor is a function of the spacing between the IC and capacitor, and spacing between power and ground layers. They studied the impact of the mutual inductance on decoupling, i.e., local versus global decoupling by using a circuit extraction approach based on a mixed-potential integral equation where local decoupling (white area decoupling near the required load) has benefits over global decoupling for certain ranges of IC/capacitor spacing and power layer thickness.

1.2.3. Voltage Droops:

Voltage droop defines the unintentional drop in voltage level due to current drawn by switching units. It occurs due to the path inductance and resistance. Although small amounts of voltage drop are unavoidable, there are times when voltage droop is excessive and can cause unexpected and unwanted behavior in a circuit. To prevent voltage droop, decoupling capacitors should be used as a compensator to compensate the current needed to drive the load.

In “Test Pattern Generation for Power Supply Droop Faults [5]” paper, they represented about a new modeling of droop faults (basically timing fault) to explain the timing behavior in a faulty circuit

induced by power supply voltage drop in nano-scale VLSI chips. In new modeling a simple ATPG (Automatic Test Pattern Generation) based procedure for stuck-at faults has been adapted to test droop faults where for validation of the methodology in combinational circuits, a set of appropriate clusters of gates is selected to cover potential droop-prone regions in a circuit.

In a “Decoupling Capacitors for Multi-Voltage Power Distribution Systems [6]” paper they investigated the dependence of the impedance and magnitude of the voltage transfer function on the parameters of the power distribution system and explained an anti-resonance phenomenon. They showed that the magnitude of the voltage transfer function is strongly dependent on the parasitic inductance of the decoupling capacitors. So they design a technique to cancel and shift anti-resonant spikes out of range of the operating frequencies for which the decoupling capacitor can perform its required operation properly.

1.2.4. Dielectric Constant & Loss Tangent:

The loss tangent is a parameter of a dielectric material that refers to the inherent dissipation of electromagnetic energy. Basically this term defines an angle in a complex plane between the resistive (lossy) component and reactive (lossless) component of an electromagnetic field.

The dielectric constant is the ratio of the permittivity of a substance (material) to the permittivity of free space. So, dielectric constant, $\epsilon = \epsilon_0 / \epsilon_r$, where ϵ_0 represents the field without the dielectric and ϵ_r represents the field with the dielectric.

In a “Dielectric Constant and Loss Tangent Characterization of Thin High-K Dielectrics Using Corner-to-Corner Plane Probing [7]” paper, they presented a new methodology for the extraction of frequency-dependent dielectric constant and loss tangent parameters which is based on a 2-port measurement of a rectangular power ground plane pair by probing from corner to corner and curve fitting to simulation results.

1.2.5. High K Materials:

High-k materials are material which has a higher dielectric constant (ϵ_r or K). High-k materials are used in semiconductor manufacturing processes which replace the silicon dioxide gate dielectric.

The implementation of high- k gate dielectrics has developed several strategies to allow further miniaturization of microelectronic components, colloquially referred to as extending Moore's Law.

In “Recent Advances in High- k Nanocomposite Materials for Embedded Capacitor Applications [8]” paper, they discuss about the high dielectric constant (k) composite materials which have been developed and evaluated for embedded and decoupling capacitor application where they try to achieve high dielectric performance including high- k and low dielectric loss for polymer composites. In this paper the referred high- k materials which meet the requirements for this application should possess high dielectric constant, low dissipation factor, high thermal stability, simple process ability and good dielectric properties over broad frequency range.

1.3. Proposal of Decoupling Capacitor:

In this paper we propose a decoupling capacitor model to compensate the voltage droop of the affected power delivery system of the semiconductor device and investigate the performance degradation of the decoupling capacitor at high frequency for the different high- k materials.

For capacitor we use high- k materials due to scale down effects of SiO_2 gate oxide, while maintaining lower power consumption and increased performance of the decoupling capacitor at high frequencies. If we scale down the gate oxide then electron tunneling occurred in VLSI circuits but if we use the high- k materials which has the higher dielectric constant then can reduce electron tunneling by virtue of using a thicker dielectric. Although a material has higher dielectric constant but if the material has higher loss tangent then the capacitor made of that material becomes a lossy capacitor, thus performance degradation of high frequency. But fortunately almost all the high- k material has lower loss tangent compare to Silicon for which they can sustain acceptable performance at high frequency. For the above stated reason we chose three different high- k materials to design the stack capacitor to show the performance degradation at high frequency.



2. POWER DELIVERY IN HIGH FREQUENCY CIRCUIT

According to Moore's Law, the number of transistor is increasing exponentially. The increasing number of transistors over the past several decades in microprocessor is shown in Fig. 1.

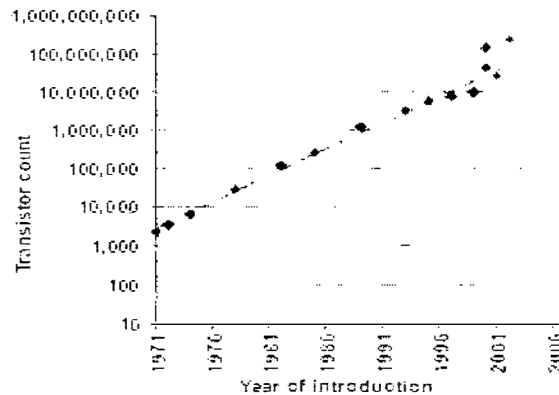


Figure 1: Transistor count doubles every 18-24 months.

It is also known that these transistors need to switch faster to improve its performance because the more the transistors switch fast then we can get better performance from the microprocessor chip. As transistors are getting smaller and faster, over the last two decades the current levels of the microprocessor has also been increasing dramatically. This high current was delivered from the power supply on the system motherboard to the chip through the package. To handle this high current, the package must provide a low resistance path in the order of <math><1\text{m}\Omega</math>. In Fig. 2 we noticed that at present the typical supply current is in 10-30 A range, also a range that is expected to increase for future microprocessor [9].

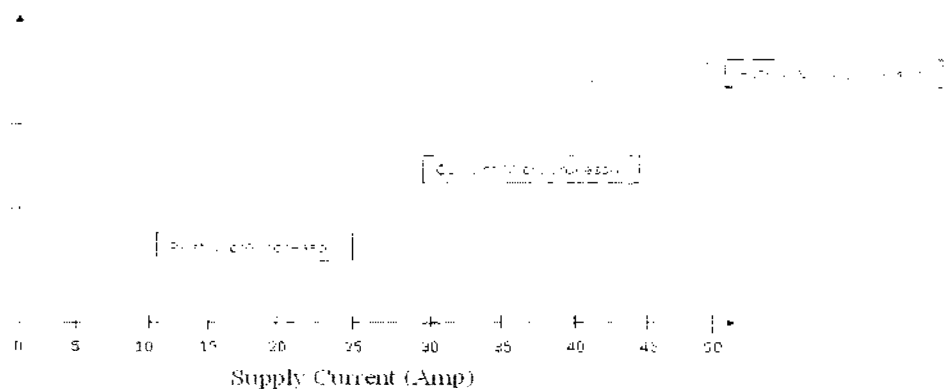


Figure 2 : Increase in supply current for Microprocessor in future.

The increase in current consumption by the microprocessor is also demanding that the reduction of voltage level of the microprocessor. International Technology Roadmap for Semiconductor (ITRS) published 'Roadmap Information' about future technology requirements for semiconductor every year. If we look over **ITRS 2009 Edition** then we see the projected reduction in voltage level over the next couple of years, Table 1.

Table 1: Change of voltage level for future technology predict by ITRS

Year	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Volts (V)	1	0.97	0.93	0.9	0.87	0.84	0.81

The reduction of power supply voltage is also decreasing noise margin. The paper published by Y.-J. Jiang, K.-F. Cheng, "Analysis of Performance Impact Caused by Power Supply Noise in Deep Submicron Devices," in 1999 shows that around 10-15% voltage drop may cause 20-30% increase in gate propagation delay. So for most of the 90 nm static CMOS gates a change of 1% in power supply voltage may occur to nearly 4% change in delay. The delay of a logic gate increases when there is a supply voltage drop across the gate.[10]

In this situation we can say that as CMOS technology scales day by day so the power supply has become a big issue because of increasing clock frequency and decreasing supply voltage. As a result when several transistors switch simultaneously then a significant power supply drop will be happen. This power supply drop is happening because there are parallel load across the power grid. This phenomenon is known as voltage droop.

In modern high speed system resistive IR and inductive L(di/dt) voltage drops are the main source of voltage droops. The IR droop has been increasing due to increased resistance in the power grid because of reduced widths of the metal as technology becomes more advanced. Also in CMOS technology the demand of high current is increasing that's why the effect of L (di/dt) is increased day by day. [11] So when devices are switching with respect to the clock edge, then it will draw current to charge or discharge CMOS gate capacitances. As a result at the edge of clock the voltage drops at the parasitic elements is observed which is reduces the power rail voltage, or V_{cc}/V_{dd} . This fluctuation in supply voltage due to switching is known as power supply noise. The increase in power supply noise reduces the signal noise margin, increases signal delay, delay uncertainty and clock jitter.

So we need to implement and consider power distribution in a digital system which is given below.

- One of the most effective ways to reduce the power supply noise is to use decoupling capacitor on the card, board, module and chip. Here decoupling capacitors worked as a charge storage device so that it can oppose the voltage droops at the edge of clocks at different stages of the network. However, these capacitors are controlled by their location with respect to the CMOS devices and their inherent parasitic components (such as equivalent series resistance and inductance, i.e. ESR and ESL). The placing of the decoupling capacitor in a power delivery system is shown in Fig. 3 & 4.

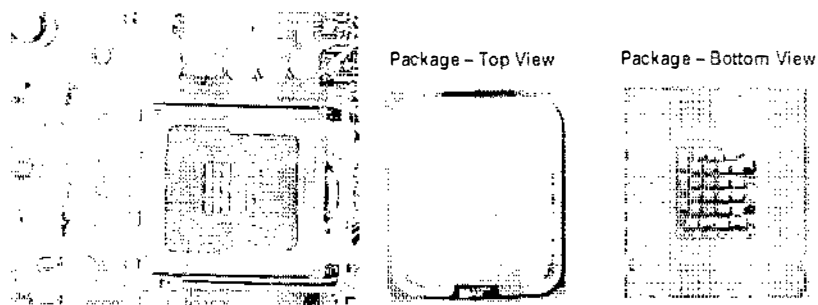


Figure 3: Power delivery solution for the Pentium 4 processor.

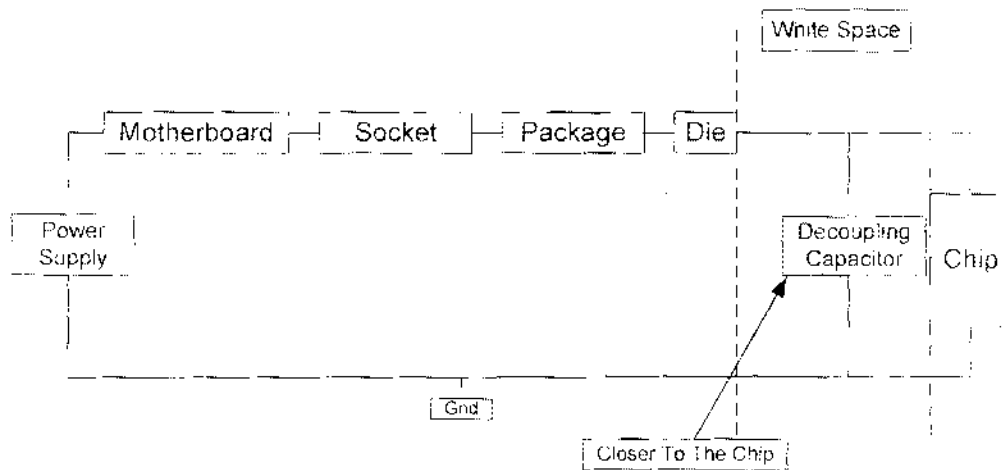


Figure 4: Equivalent model of power delivery system in microprocessor.

The power is delivered to the chip after passing through the motherboard, socket and package. During this power delivery, there will be loss ($I \cdot R$ loss). Decoupling capacitor are used as local charge reservoir. So decoupling capacitor is placed closer to the chip so that it can provide extra

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current to charge the load capacitor in addition to the power supply. Also it will reduce power supply noise because the inductive effect in the loop current path is decreased. As the inductance scales slowly, the placement of decoupling capacitor is very important because it affects the performance of power supply network as well as the chip performance.

The performance of decoupling capacitor depends on the distance between the current load and the decoupling capacitance. Decoupling capacitor should be placed close to a current load during discharge and once the switching event is completed then decoupling capacitance should be charged before the next clock cycle starts.[12]

Decoupling capacitors are generally placed in white space available on the die. To get effective performance physically decoupling capacitor should be placed closer to the chip so that it can reduce the parasitic voltage droop at the switching transition.

- The second step is to remove excessive IR drops - which we do by reducing the wire size. However dynamic voltage fluctuations may still occur even if the wire sizing is performed.
- We also need to place low inductance capacitances under packages and on packages. For this reason now capacitances have been designed within the silicon die and placing them in critical space which is known as white space. Because the more the capacitor placed near to the chip the more inductance loss will be reduced.

However, as guided by Moore's law, the power demand of the CMOS devices are ever increasing with faster clocks, smaller devices, and integration of analog and digital circuits within the same die. So these issues are more critical to make the management of voltage droops that's why the conventional techniques of controlling voltage droops are failing beyond a certain bandwidth.[2]



3. NOVEL METHOD OF REDUCING POWER DROOP

3.1. Improved VLSI Circuit Performance Using Localized Power decoupling:

In "Improved VLSI Circuit Performance Using Localized Power decoupling [13]" paper, they proposed an advance technology for DRAM capacitor by using the decoupling strategy. In the paper they proposed a technique, in which the decoupling is provided at the CMOS level, right where the power is needed. This technology is needed for VLSI circuits due to increases the performance of the system, because power droop in silicon is a major problem in the semiconductor circuits. When semiconductor circuit operates in high frequency and as the power levels are reduced then the semiconductor devices are limiting the timing and voltage budget which is design in circuits to account for noise and also include voltage drooping due to inductive losses. Novel techniques are involved to compensate these losses at all levels including motherboard, package through out in silicon: but due to lack of available space and design constrain decoupling at die level is very limited. For all this, to solve the above mentioned problem this paper is come forward with an advance technology where they mention about a methodology to introduce decoupling right at the transistor. The crux of the concept is to use DRAM capacitors, as a local capacitance bank to deliver power to the devices right when the switching takes places.

In this paper they are concentrated only in dynamic power which is a function of clock frequency or more accurately is a function of the switching of the CMOS circuit transistor. Basically dynamic power relates to bow many times the circuit switches in a second and the switching of a circuit is a function of the RC time constant where the RC time constant depends on the source and drain capacitance at the driver end and the gate capacitance of the receiving end. But for the newer process as the source and drain of a transistor is in smaller dimension for which the capacitance reduces and eventually also the resistance reduces which means it also reduces the RC time constant. As the RC time constant reduces the switching speed of the circuit increases which is the ultimate goal. But the reduced RC time constant causes the switching current to race quicker and resulting in a large di/dt which the faster switching speed translate into higher harmonics in the signals. In time domain

large di/dt cause the large voltage droop across any inductance as $V_L=L*di/dt$. For larger di/dt the inductive voltage drop increases which reduces the power supply to the IC. To reduce the voltage droop and increase the power supply they find an alternative source for the fast switching current where they used localized decoupling concept in the circuit. Through localized decoupling process they place a decoupling capacitor before the driving load where the decoupling capacitor operates either in charging mode or in discharging mode. To build the decoupling capacitor they incorporate the DRAM capacitor technology where the technology matures in the form of one transistor one capacitor configuration. The capacitors can be either in the stacked or trench configuration.

In this paper they bring a new ideology by bringing together two parallel semiconductor technologies. The capacitor technology follows the DRAM ideology and whiles the system level decoupling and die white space decoupling is not sufficient enough to support nano-dimensions transistor circuit with 10s picoseconds transition rates for which the trench and stacked capacitor model can be successfully designed right next to transistors without taking more space than the isolation transistor.

3.2. Low-Cost Deep Trench Decoupling for Low-Power CMOS:

In "A Novel, Low-Cost Deep Trench Decoupling Capacitor for High-Performance, Low-Power Bulk CMOS Application [14]" paper; they represent an overview & electrical results for a novel deep trench decoupling capacitor, which is borrowed from the regular embedded DRAM trench process, but with significant process simplification by using decoupling, to provide reduction of cost and process cycle time. By using this phenomenon; capacitor can provide significant chip-level area savings, using only 1/8 silicon real estate to fabricate the same capacitance as standard planar gate oxide capacitors and also the "decap" demonstrates a improvement in leakage compared to standard planar gate oxide capacitors. By using deep trench capacitor 10^5 improvements in leakage can be realized than in conventional planer decap designs.

Inductance is one of the unfortunate features in semiconductor circuit which produce noise on the power delivery and have a detrimental impact on circuit performance. Decoupling capacitor (decaps) reduce the induce noise and provide the low impedance path to ground. For higher clock speed twice more effective decoupling is needed. Decaps are planer oxide device where the Nwell is one

ite and gate is another. In decaps gate dielectric limits the amount of the charge which can obtains from planer decaps and are often found to contribute to standby leakage. In high speed circuit designs decap can account more than 10% of the total chip area. To solve the above stated problem in this paper they introduced a novel decap design which utilized IBM's unique eDRAM technology and called as "DZ decaps" where the DZ decaps have a extremely high capacitance/area, very low leakage/ μm^2 , and series resistances competitive with planar gate oxide decaps. In this paper they mention the fabrication process of DZ trench capacitor and its fabrication advantages. Basically DZ trench capacitor are fabricated in a similar manner to bulk eDRAM Deep Trench (DT) capacitor where the DZ capacitors share exactly the same pad films, oxide head mask used for trench definition, lithography process, buried plate process and node dielectric formation process. After the node dielectric process DZ capacitor module is much simpler than DT capacitor because there is no need of resist recess and collar oxide formation for DZ capacitor and the full vertical trench surface can be used as decaps. In DZ decaps the number of polyfills and poly recess are reduced and because of this DZ decaps saves approximately 35% in process cost.

In the comparison of DZ capacitor and typical planar gate-oxide capacitor, the DZ decaps is much better than the typical planar gate-oxide capacitor because DZ decaps need 1/8 chip area to provide the same capacitance and the leakage is 5 order less than the typical planar gate-oxide capacitor means DZ decaps can offer more than 8X more capacitance/unit area and 10^5 reduction in leakage.

3.3. A Decoupling Platform for Substrates, Sockets, and Interposers:

"A Novel Decoupling Capacitance Platform for Substrates, Sockets and Interposers [15]" paper, they represent a technology deployed within substrates, interposers or sockets to enhance core power delivery because power integrity has become a leading focus due to increasing demands of power delivery networks in current and next generation computer system. This technology developed a novel integration of decoupling capacitance between the core power nets and the ground. Then it replaces the numerous decoupling capacitors sub-optimally placed on traditional printed circuit board (PCBs). This decoupling capacitor can lower the power supply noise and increased core power capability, permitting greater semiconductor switching frequency while reducing overall system cost. In actual system application, this technology proves it's superiority in both cost and performance to a wide range of expensive and largely ineffective decoupling strategies.

In semiconductor circuits the current quest for data transmission at 10 Gbps and is hindered by instability in core voltage of supplying semiconductor beyond 10 Gbps and this problem will be more pronounced with shrinking lithography, increased switching speeds and greater power requirements. Core voltage “design for stability” has been a compartmentalized endeavor due to inadequate communication among the chip, package and board designers and also lack of system co-design combine to result in suboptimal performance, including bit-error rate, device malfunction, increased noise coupling and lower semiconductor yield. In semiconductor chips system designer restored to exotic “fixes” but unfortunately these “fixes” are inadequate because they are an after thought rather than a fore thought, to the system architecture design.

In today’s system maintain stable core voltage and suppressing switching noise on power supply are two intimately related problems and can be solved by reducing the impedance seen by the power delivery system by providing effectively decoupling capacitance. The traditional approach to core decoupling has been to endow the PCB, substrate and die with more decoupling capacitance. If in a system hundreds or thousands of discrete decoupling capacitors are present then in practical level they are extremely wasteful these capacitors are not place near to the required part (which needs the voltage to operate properly). Due to the increase bus length and remote voltage regulator module location which introduces loss and inductance the system suffers unnecessarily. To compensate this problem they add High-capacitance interdigitated capacitors (IDCs) directly to the substrate or in PCB. This phenomenon increases the cost but for better performance the additional cost can be neglected. Incentives for a more novel, root-level solution drove the development of this new decoupling platform that integrates discrete or custom capacitance into the voltage core much closer to the die. The first feasible implementation of this solution (named as CapCor) is within a socket and provides substrate solder-attach on top and PCB solder-attach on the bottom. Viewed from a system-wide perspective, if a decoupling capacitor is added under the substrate then it is more effective than on the PCB which render hundreds of PCB decoupling capacitors redundant and reduce the total system cost. As hundreds of PCB decoupling capacitors eliminate means their supporting pads, vias and traces also eliminates which basically reduce the resistance and inductance and improve the electrical signal performance. In this new and novel configuration decoupling capacitance is integrated inside the interposer between power and ground pins where the design involves direct solder of discrete caps to the power and ground pins. In microprocessor high switching speed requires highly stable power. In this new process as the decoupling capacitor is

place near to the substrate, so it has lower parasitic component means lower power droop means highly stable power.

In this paper they presented a novel decoupling technology demonstrated to improve power delivery, suppress transient noise on the power system and stabilized the core voltage and also showed that CapCore is a superior alternative to hundreds of PCB decoupling capacitors, at the same time delivering lower power impedance which substantially reduce both the PCB complexity and total cost.



4. HIGH-K DIELECTRIC CONSTANT

High- K materials are dielectric material with high permittivity constant (ϵ_r or K). Recently high- K material have received wide acceptability for various applications including gate dielectrics, high charge-storage capacitor and electro active materials [16][17][18]. The implementation of high- k gate dielectrics has allowed further miniaturization of microelectronic components, often referred to as extending Moore's Law. High- K materials with high dielectric constant and low dielectric loss are imperative for real applications of embedded passives, specifically capacitor to provide the size reduction and performance enhancement of many microelectronic systems [19][20].

4.1. Why Need High- K ?

To allow the advancement of semiconductor performance in integrated circuits, it appears likely that dielectrics other than SiO_2 will be required. The problem is that an optimal replacement gate dielectric for SiO_2 has to be found which can be used in applications requiring thickness of 10^2 \AA in a layer. At this thickness, quantum mechanical electron tunneling is prevalent, and leakage currents cannot be maintained below the proposed maximum limit of 1 A/cm^2 (for high performance processors) [21][22][23]. To maintain the correct transistor operation, a specific level of capacitance density is required in this small gate capacitor. This limitation appears to be of theoretical origin (i.e., unable to be relieved by continued process improvement), thus the solution demands the introduction of a new higher permittivity gate dielectric composition, or possibly a transistor offering an alternative architecture. For the improved transistor operations may only be achieved in the presence of metallic gate electrodes (highly doped poly-Si is currently in use) which will not become depleted under bias [24]. Moreover, new and improved methods and instrumentation must be developed for accurate device and process characterization. With these reduced dimensions, and the influence of the size of contaminant particles, leads to device failure. In these failures, the contaminant size fall below diameters that can be detected optically, a method currently used for contaminant particle detection [25].

In our project we develop a decoupling capacitor using High- K material. We show in this paper by using high permittivity and low loss tangent high- K material we get much better decoupling capacitance for better performance in power analysis grid. Ideally, the larger dielectric constant (K)

will allow the thickness to be increased such that a tolerable level of tunneling leakage can be maintained. Though replacing SiO₂ with any dielectric having $K > 4$ would be theoretically satisfactory, the possibility of higher leakage must be considered. So to avoid this problem we consider high permittivity of high- K material.

4.2. High- k Dielectrics:

From a dielectric property point of view, dielectric constant and dielectric loss are the two most important parameters that dictate the performance of a candidate material for embedded capacitors. Thin dielectrics with a high dielectric constant are very attractive for improving the decoupling performance. To accurately estimate the performance of thin high- K dielectrics, the frequency dependent dielectric constant and the loss tangent have to be extracted [7].

In the beginning, ferroelectric ceramic materials with permanent dipole moment which gives these materials high- K in the thousands, including BaTiO₃ (barium titanate), BaSrTiO₃ (barium strontium titanate), PbZrTiO₃ (lead zirconate titanate) etc., have been used as dielectric materials for decoupling capacitors [30][31]. In our research we need low loss tangent and high permittivity of high- K material. So at level we select following material, Table 2 give an overview of the most commonly applied high- k dielectrics

Table 2: Key parameters of high- k dielectrics evaluated

material	structure	permittivity	loss tangent	Reference
HfO ₂	amorphous MIM	25	0.006	[26]
ZrO ₂	amorphous MIM	22	0.005	[27]
La ₂ O ₃	amorphous MIM	20	0.016	[28]
Y ₂ O ₃	amorphous MIM	12	0.003	[29]

As hafnium oxide (HfO₂) or zirconium oxide (ZrO₂) presents several good characteristics: K -value from 15 to 35 at DC and high thermal stability in direct contact with silicon and good process compatibility. HfO₂ and ZrO₂ are promising alternatives for both MIM and MOS structures [32]. Lanthanum oxides (La₂O₃) have high permittivity, good resistance to devitrification, and an appreciably large band gap. The calculated permittivity of La₂O₃ (hexagonal) is approximately 38, while the measured values range between 20 and 30.

5. SIMULATION & ANALYSIS

5.1. Main Circuit:

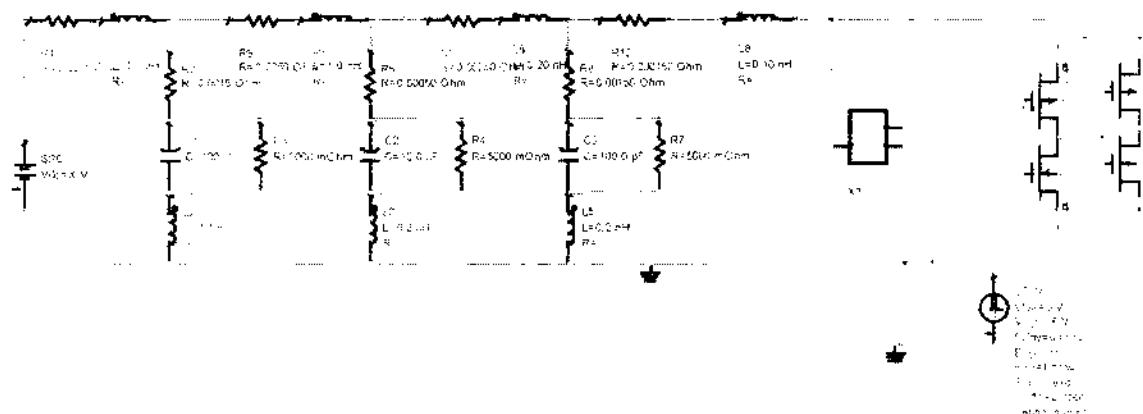


Figure 5: simple model of Power Delivery Analysis circuit.

In Fig. 5, the equivalent model of a power delivery circuit has been designed. A typical power delivery circuit has a DC supply voltage which is supplied by a voltage regulator located on a printed circuit board plane. In this circuit the load is a multitude of inverters. The power path is modeled with inductances and resistors. We have also added decoupling capacitors. Decoupling capacitors will be used to reduce the effect of parasitic inductance in power delivery networks. Decoupling capacitors are widely used to manage power supply noise [33]. The capacitor solution will be modeled at different stages of this circuits i.e at the motherboard, on the package and in the die. Decoupling capacitors are an effective way to reduce the impedance of power delivery systems operating at high frequencies [34]. Generally in low frequency inductance become short and by this time capacitance become charged. In the high frequency inductance operates and voltage drop across L is increased. The total sum value of L increase which affects circuit performance. So we insert a decoupling capacitor immediately after the inductance to reduce the inductive effect on power. The decoupling capacitor provides the storage charge to compensate for voltage drop due to inductance. Each capacitance is modeled with the parasitic resistance (ESR) and inductance (ESL) which is series with the capacitance.

We use the following value for the equivalent parameter in the microprocessor chip power delivery system which is given in Table 3.

Table 3: The value we used for the equivalent parameter in main circuit

Equivalent Parameter	Mother Board	Socket	Package	Die
Resistance (R)	0.0015ohm	0.0050ohm	0.00050ohm	0.000150ohm
Inductance (L)	1.0nH	1.0nH	0.20nH	0.10nH

We also use decoupling capacitor in the power delivery system where the value we use for the equivalent capacitor model is given in Table 4.

Table 4: The value we used for the equivalent capacitor parameter

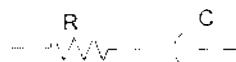
Equivalent Capacitor Parameter	Mother Board	Socket	Package	Die
Equivalent Series Resistance (ESR)	0.0015Ohm	0.0005Ohm	0.0015Ohm	ESR1**
Capacitor (C)	100uF	10uF	100pF	0.1792pF
Parallel Resistance (R_p)	5000mOhm	5000mOhm	5000mOhm	R_{p1} **
Equivalent Series Inductance (ESL)	0.1nH	0.2nH	0.2nH	ESL1**

**ESR1,ESL1, R_{p1} small and insignificant effect.

5.2. ESL & ESR:

There are various design issues which affect the power distribution impedance. It has already been demonstrated that the power distribution impedance for a modern computer must be kept low and flat over a large frequency range [35] for improved product performance. Power distribution system noise affects computer product timing performance. In high frequency reducing power distribution noise is with decoupling capacitors.

Capacitor ESR determines the number of capacitors required to achieve certain target impedance at a particular frequency and is therefore an important design parameter. ESR of a capacitor of paramount importance is within power supply design for both switching and linear power supplies. The equivalent series resistance, ESR shown in Fig. 6 plays a major part in the performance of the circuit as a whole.

**Figure 6 : The Equivalent Series Resistance, ESR associated with a capacitor**

capacitors with high values of ESR will naturally need to dissipate power as heat. It is found that when the temperature of a capacitor rises, then generally the ESR increases, although in a non-linear fashion. Increasing frequency also has a similar effect. As the dielectric thickness increases so does the ESR. As the plate area increases, the ESR will go down if the plate thickness remains the same.

ESL (Equivalent Series Inductance) shown in Fig. 7 is pretty much caused by the inductance of the electrodes and leads. The ESL of a capacitor sets the limiting factor of how well (or fast) a capacitor can de-couple noise off a power bus. The ESL of a capacitor also sets the resonance-point of a capacitor. Because the inductance appears in series with the capacitor, they form a tank circuit. The ESL is defined by the size of current loop of power circuit. The bigger the current loop the greater the ESL inductance. By placing the capacitance closer to the CMOS, we can see a significant reduction in inductance.

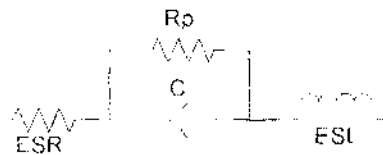


Figure 7 : Capacitor equivalent circuit

5.3. Why & where to place Decoupling Capacitor:

Capacitance between power and ground distribution networks, referred to as decoupling capacitors or decaps, acts as local charge storage and is helpful in mitigating the voltage drop at supply points. To manage power supply noise decoupling capacitors are widely used. An effective way to reduce the impedance of power delivery systems operating at high frequencies are decoupling capacitors.

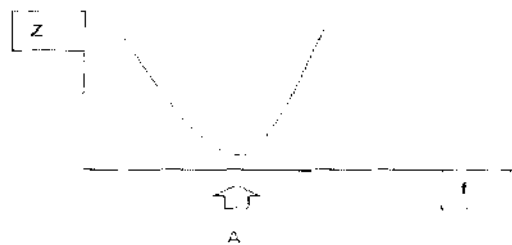


Figure 8: Plot frequency vs. impedance

$$Z = R + j\omega L + \frac{1}{j\omega C} \dots\dots\dots (i)$$

From Fig. 8 we see that before the point 'A' has low frequencies, where value of inductance is low compare to capacitor. Eventually at a low frequency the value of impedance is high. Generally with the frequency increases capacitance value will decreases at a point 'A' will come where the value of inductance and capacitance cancel out each other, only resistance value remains. After point 'A' as the frequency increases the capacitance decreases but inductance increases which increase the impedance. So total impedance is increase by L and R when power delivery systems run in high frequency and system performance is decreased. To reduce voltage drop of system we want place decoupling capacitance near to the chip because if place it far from the chip the inductance between circuits and decap will increase. For away from the chip, IR loss and $L \frac{di}{dt}$ loss are increased.

5.4. Inductive drop - $L \frac{di}{dt}$ loss:

In a high frequency RC time constant is decrease and switching current is quicker that cause large $\frac{di}{dt}$ is increased. Therefore, the circuit will have large $L \frac{di}{dt}$ voltage drop across any inductance $V = L \frac{di}{dt}$.

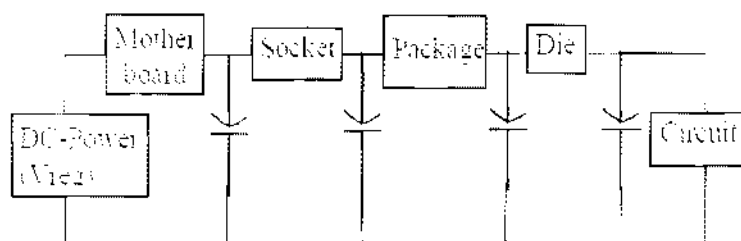


Figure 9 : Power Delivery Analysis circuit

In the power delivery circuit in Fig. 9 we also have resistive drop which is independent of the rate of change (i.e. switching). The total voltage drop in terms of inductance and resistance effect of motherboard, package, socket and silicon [36].

$$V_{df} = \left(L_n \frac{di}{dt} - R_n \right) + \left(L_p \frac{di}{dt} - R_p \right) + \left(L_s \frac{di}{dt} - R_s \right)$$

Expressing total voltage drop as the sum of inductance and resistance component,

$$V_{df} = \sum \left(L_n \frac{di}{dt} - IR_n \right)$$

So the voltage available in the circuit is

$$V_{eff} = V_{df} - V_{df}$$

Modern high performance microprocessors due to their growth in power consumption and switching speeds the $\frac{di}{dt}$ effects are becoming a growing concern. Fast switching current may cause large $\frac{di}{dt}$ and increasing inductive drop which reduces the power rail voltage to drop. The effective power supply (V_{eff}) is shared across the large of component in the silicon through a network of power and ground rails. Here the circuit performance and activities of transistors are affected when voltage droop accelerates. So (V_{eff}) must be minimized to improve circuit performance. We added decoupling capacitors to counteract the $\frac{di}{dt}$ variations in the voltage. It is necessary to model accurately the inductance and capacitance of the package and chip and analyze the grid with such models, as otherwise the amount of decoupling to be added might be underestimated or overestimated. Also it is necessary to maintain the efficiency of the analysis even when including these detailed models.

5.5. Reduce Path Inductance L:

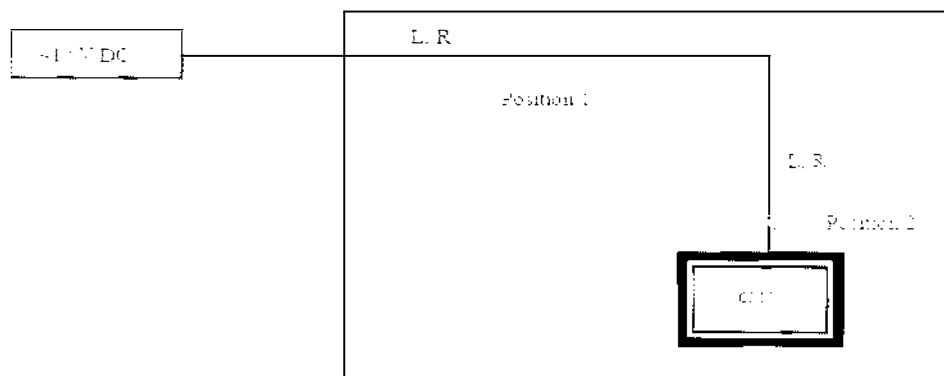


Figure 10 : Placement of decoupling capacitance.

In Fig. 10 is shown a simple model of Chip with a 1.5 DC voltage supply form DC-to-DC regulator. The power transmission buss line shown in Fig.6 has inductance and resistance. If this system runs at high frequency then inductive impedance will increase. Although the resistance is quite small, the inductance voltage drop will be significant. To compensate the impact of inductance in every step of the circuit, we need to add decoupling capacitance appropriately. Let assume we want to place decoupling caps in two white area of the chip. If we place decaps in 'position 1' the value of loop inductance is much higher than the 'position 2'. So to avoid loop inductance we need to place decaps near the chips and minimize IR loss and $L \frac{di}{dt}$ loss.

5.6. White Area:

In a semiconductor device the unused blank space (those areas not occupied by the circuit elements) refers as a white space or white area. In the modern day the size of chip going to very small so, we need to use redundant space effectively. We design decoupling capacitors in the semiconductor device white area to reduce the voltage droop. Traditionally Decoupling capacitors have been allocated into the white space available on the die based on an unsystematic or adhoc approach [37],[38], as shown in Fig. 11. As a result, the power supply voltage drops below the minimum tolerable level for remote blocks, thus affecting circuit performance. The size of an on-chip decoupling capacitor, however, is directly proportional to the area occupied by the capacitor and can require a significant portion of the on-chip area. As described in [39], maximum parasitic impedance between the decoupling capacitor and the current load (or power source) exists at which the decoupling capacitor is effective. Alternatively, to be effective, an on-chip decoupling capacitor should be placed to ensure that both the power supply and the current load are located inside the appropriate effective radius [39].

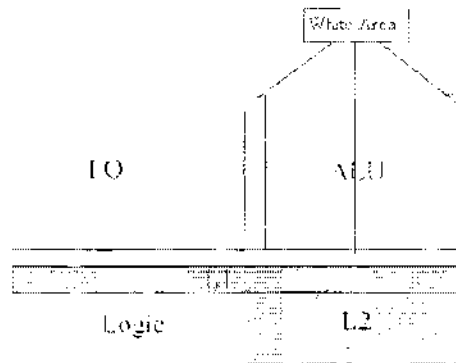


Figure 11 : Placement of on-chip decoupling capacitors using a conventional approach in white area.

5.7. Description on ADS:

In this project our major tools was ADS. We used two part from this tools these are momentum part and schematic part. In the schematic tools we were develop a power delivery analysis circuit and we use momentum tools to design a capacitance.

Momentum is an electromagnetic simulator which is used to evaluate and design modern communications systems products. Momentum can computes S-parameters for general planar

circuits, including micro strip, slot line, strip line, coplanar waveguide, and other topologies. Momentum tools use to simulate multilayer RF/microwave printed circuit boards, hybrids, multichip modules, and integrated circuits. The main things to use momentum tools is it can predict the performance of high-frequency circuit boards, antennas, and ICs. The major benefit of this is that it can simulate when a circuit model range is exceeded or the model does not exist, it can identify parasitic coupling between components, it can analysis and verification to design automation of circuit performance and it can visualize current flow and 3-dimensional displays of far-field radiation. The major features of this tool have to fit frequency sampling for fast, accurate, simulation results. To achieve performance specifications of a design the optimization tools can change geometric dimensions. It also has comprehensive data display tools for viewing results and equation and expression capability for performing calculations on simulated data.

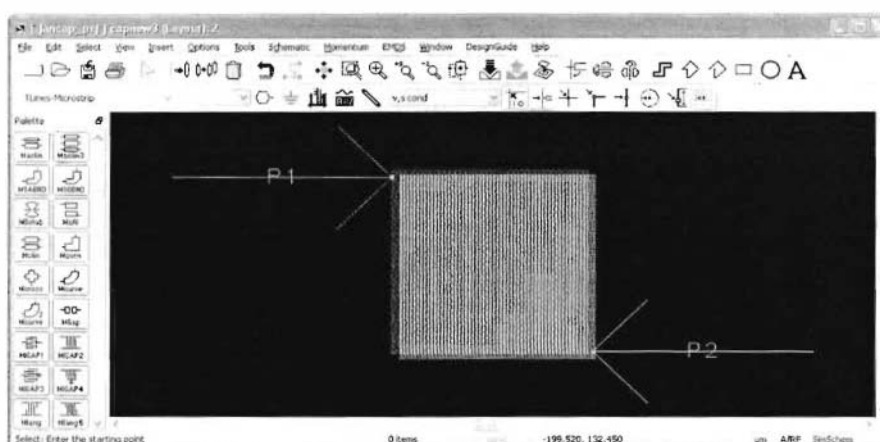


Figure 12: Momentum window of ADS

Fig.12 shows the momentum window of ADS while designing the capacitor. In the momentum we design capacitor for different type of High-K material. After design this capacitance we use **Component** option of momentum then we selected create/update and update design capacitance in the component library. After update component we use this capacitance in schematic window to simulate power delivery circuit. In Fig.13 represent the schematic window of ADS.



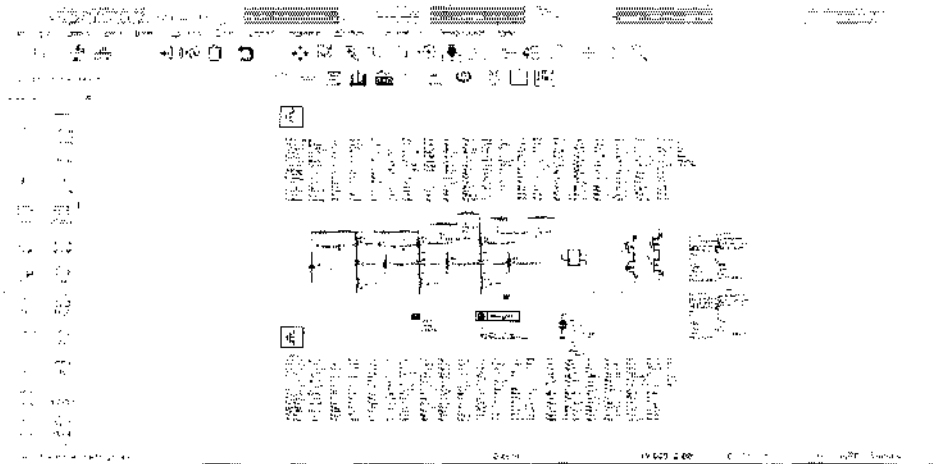


Figure 13 : Schematic window of ADS

We used BSIM4 transistor models both for NMOS and PMOS transistors. Designing capacitor was attached to the source node of two inverters connected back to back, each driving another inverter, to simulate a capacitive load. The model consisted of a motherboard, package, and a socket. Adequate decoupling was placed on the system, at the motherboard and package.

5.8. Result & Calculation:

A simulation analysis has been done to demonstrate the advantage of local decoupling technology. It also assumes that the capacitor will be shared by about 4 back to back CMOS inverters. We design capacitance using the momentum tool from ADS. To design the capacitance the high-k material that we have used are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: High-k materials with dielectric constant and loss tangent.

Material Name	Dielectric constant	Loss tangent
Hafnium Oxide (HfO_2)	25	0.006
Lanthanum Oxide (La_2O_3)	20	0.016
Yttrium Oxide(Y_2O_3)	12	0.003

We use 0.179pf capacitance for different analysis. Most important thing is thickness of the capacitance. If the thickness of the decoupling capacitance is very small then it does not affect on the circuit to minimize the droop. Consider these entire things we are assuming that thickness of

HfO_2 , $0.1\mu\text{m}$ and calculate other high-k material thickness to make the same capacitance for these materials. Using this thickness in capacitor model then we get minimum droop for HfO_2 .

5.8.1. Calculation To Make The Capacitance Same:

For HfO_2 , loss tangent=0.006 and permittivity=25.

Area of capacitance, $A = 90\mu\text{m} \times 90\mu\text{m} = 8100 \mu\text{m}^2$

$$\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F}/\mu\text{m}$$

$$\text{Capacitance of HfO}_2, C = \epsilon_r \epsilon_0 \frac{A}{d} = \frac{25 \times 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \times 8100}{0.1} = 0.1792 \text{ pF}$$

Now to make same capacitance we need to find other high-k material thickness. For La_2O_3 , loss tangent is 0.016 and $\epsilon_r = 20$. So I assume that HfO_2 ($\epsilon_r=25$, thickness= $0.1 \mu\text{m}$) is okay for minimum droop. To keep the same value of capacitance, thickness of La_2O_3 is $= \frac{0.1 \times 25}{20} = 0.08 \mu\text{m}$ and

$$\text{Capacitance is } C = \frac{20 \times 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \times 8100}{0.08} = 0.1792 \text{ pF}$$

Similarly, For Y_2O_3 , loss tangent=0.003 and $\epsilon_r = 12$. So thickness of Y_2O_3 , $= \frac{0.1 \times 25}{12} = 0.048 \mu\text{m}$ and

$$\text{Capacitance is } C = \frac{12 \times 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \times 8100}{0.048} = 0.1792 \text{ pF}$$

In existing material SiO_2 is used to make the capacitance but there are some limitation in this material layer. The main cause is Si material have some limit of its thickness. We cannot make it too much thin. To make same capacitance of SiO_2 the calculated thickness is $0.00156 \mu\text{m}$, which is too small for $\epsilon_r = 3.9$. To avoid complex simulation we assumed the thickness of the SiO_2 is $0.01 \mu\text{m}$.

5.9. Simulation Result:

In the power delivery circuit shown in Fig. 5, we observe voltage droop before adding capacitance which is shown in Fig.14.

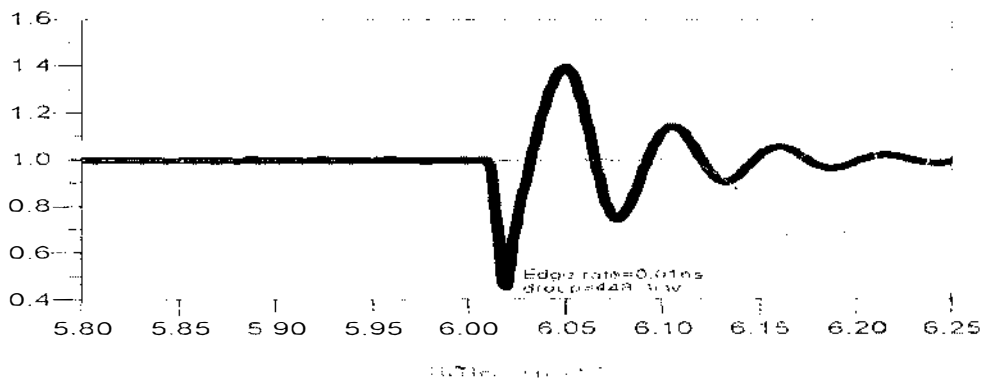


Figure 14 : Without decoupling capacitance voltage droop

From this Fig. we see that for lower edge(0.1ns) rate the voltage droop is 823.4mV and for the higher edge rate(0.01ns) the voltage droop is 448.3mV. So we can say that the voltage droop will increase with the increase of edge rate.

Now we want to show the improvement of the voltage droop after placing our designed capacitor closer to the CMOS circuit. The plot we got in after simulating in ADS is given Fig. 15.

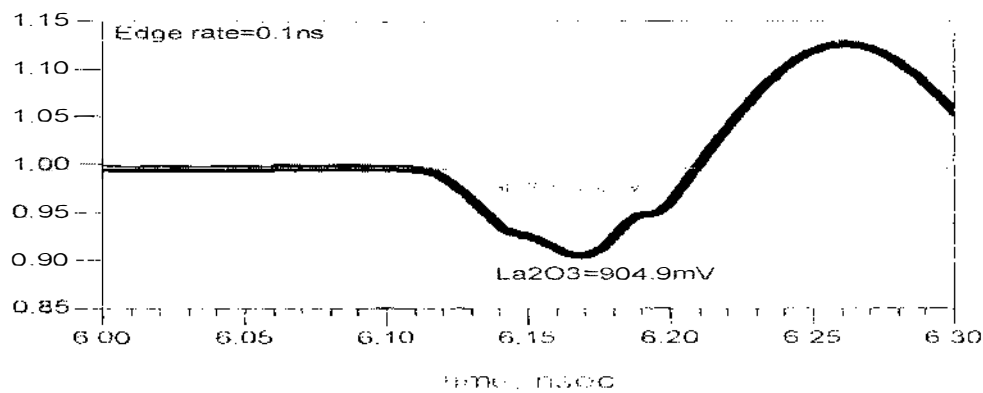


Figure 15: Showing voltage droop for HfO₂ and La₂O₃ at 0.1ns edge rate

Figure 15 shows the voltage droop for HfO₂ and La₂O₃ when rise time =fall time that means edge rate is 0.1ns. From this figure we can say that the voltage droop is significantly changed after placing decoupling capacitor. HfO₂ has loss tangent value= 0.006 and La₂O₃ has loss tangent 0.016. Between them HfO₂ has the lower loss tangent than the La₂O₃. The figure shows that the voltage droop for HfO₂ (90.4mV which is closer to 1 in fig.15) is much lower than La₂O₃ (904.9mV). So we can say that high-k material with low loss tangent can improve the voltage droop more significantly than higher loss tangent. In conclusion we want to say that loss tangent is a big factor to create impact on reducing the voltage droop.

Now if we want to determine the voltage droop considering high-k material with respect to the SiO_2 for the 0.1ns edge rate which simulation result is shown in Fig. 16.

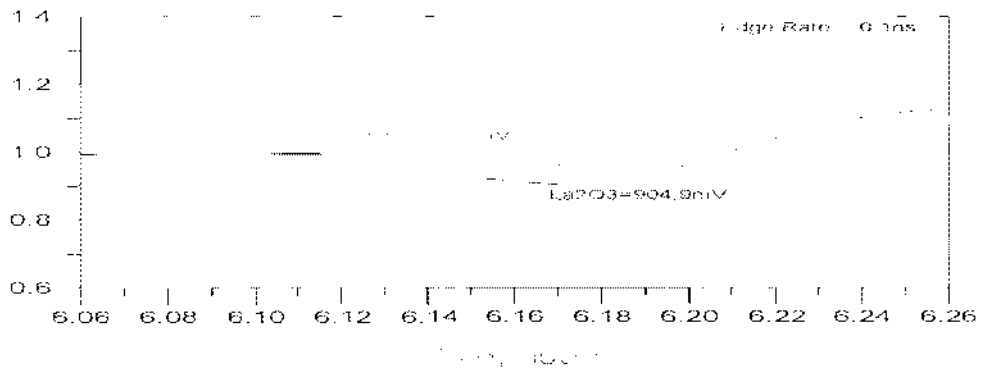


Figure 16: Simulation result which shows voltage droop for SiO_2 , HfO_2 and La_2O_3 at 0.1ns edge rate

Here for SiO_2 the simulation result shows the voltage droop= 823.2mV which is much bigger than high-k material. Also without decoupling capacitor we got voltage droop = 823.4mV where after placing SiO_2 material decoupling capacitor voltage droop is 823.2mV so with or without capacitor in a system is the same matter for SiO_2 .

Again we did the same simulation but now we changed the edge rate which is 0.01ns that means we increased the frequency. In this situation the changed in voltage we got is shown in Fig. 17.

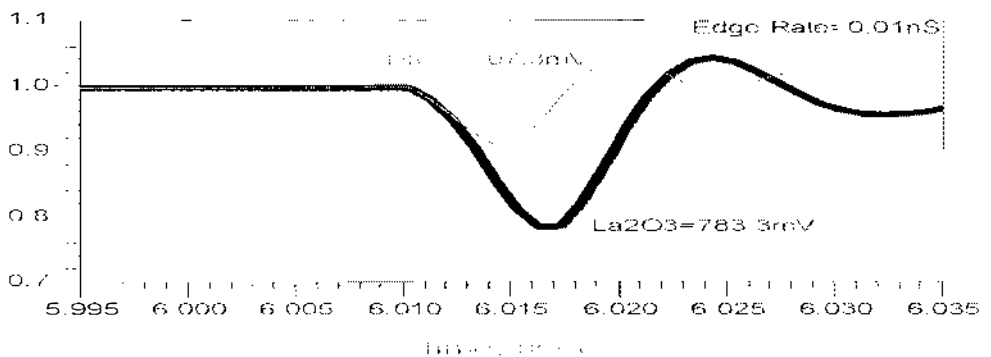


Figure 17: Showing voltage droop for HfO_2 and La_2O_3 at 0.01ns edge rate

From Fig. 17 we can that voltage droop is increased, nevertheless, the low tangent material HfO_2 (voltage droop of 907.3mV) gives better performance than the higher loss tangent material La_2O_3 (783.3mV). In this case with edge of 0.01ns, as shown in Fig. 17, we find that without decoupling capacitor the voltage droop was 448.3mV where after placing our designed capacitor the voltage droop is significantly reduced. Now if we want to see for 0.01ns edge rate what happens with the voltage droop by using capacitors made of SiO_2 . The simulation result is shown in Fig. 18.

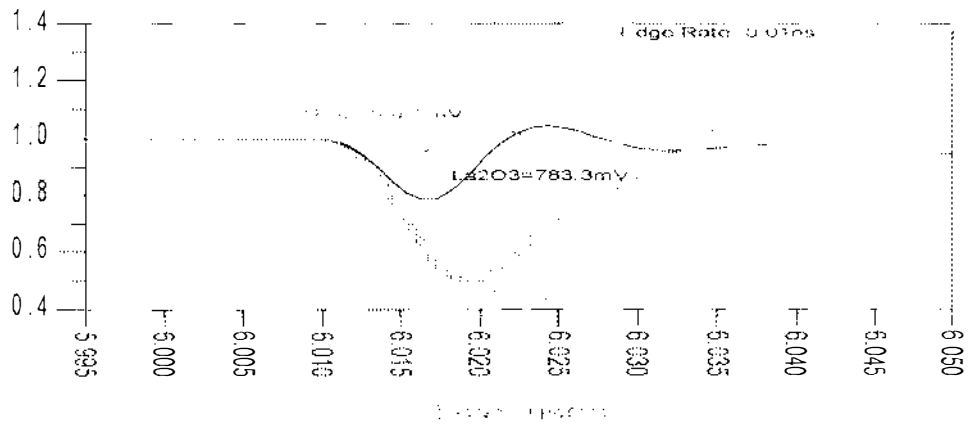


Figure 18: Simulation result which shows voltage droop for SiO₂, HfO₂ and La₂O₃ at 0.01ns edge rate

In this condition again we can say that by using SiO₂ material with or without placing decoupling capacitor is the same thing. Because without capacitor voltage droop was 448.3mV after placing SiO₂ decoupling capacitor it shows voltage droop is 489.9 mV which is not much improved.

During our project period we worked with another high-k material which is Yttrium Oxide (Y₂O₃). It has loss tangent =0.003 which is lower than HfO₂. But the dielectric constant for this material is 12 where HfO₂ has 25. We take the equivalent oxide thickness for HfO₂ is 0.1um to make the same capacitance for both HfO₂ and Y₂O₃, the thickness for Y₂O₃ becomes 0.048um. As a result although it has a lower loss tangent than HfO₂ but the voltage droop for Y₂O₃ is not improved better than the HfO₂. The simulation result is shown in Fig. 19.

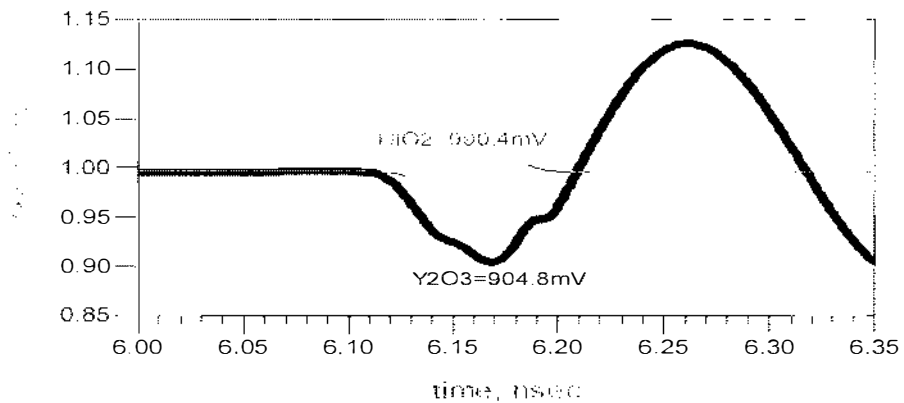


Figure 19: Showing voltage droop for HfO₂ and Y₂O₃

So we can say that the oxide thickness is also a matter that affects the voltage droop, even though the material has the lower loss tangent.

6. PROPOSED CAPACITOR COMPONENTS

From the previous chapter we already know about the voltage droop and its effect on microprocessor power delivery system. So the main objective of ours is to reduce the voltage droops and decoupling capacitor is one of the solutions to oppose the voltage droops. In our thesis we design few capacitor models using high-k material with low loss tangent and compare those with SiO₂.

6.1. Why We Use High-K Material In Designing Capacitor:

Over 40 years ago, since the introduction of the metal-oxide-semiconductor (MOS) system the SiO₂ gate oxide has been serving as the key enabling material in scaling silicon CMOS technology. As we already know that to reduce cost, maintaining low power consumption and increasing performance devices are scaling day by day so we need to scale down the SiO₂ gate oxide. However continued SiO₂ gate oxide scaling is becoming difficult since (a) the gate oxide leakage is increasing with decreasing SiO₂ thickness and (b) SiO₂ is running out of atoms for further scaling.[40]

When devices scale and need high capacitance then the area occupied by the capacitor must scale in order to obtain a small cell size. To achieve high capacitance, the equivalent oxide thickness must be 1nm or lower. So below 90nm technology node replacing SiO₂, high-k dielectric will allow the achieving of t_{ox} (equivalent oxide thickness) of <1nm. [41]

The "International Technology Roadmap for Semiconductors" published in 2008, predicts gate oxide thicknesses for the future devices which is given in Table 6.

Table 6: The data for equivalent oxide thickness for future technology given by ITRS

Year	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Equivalent oxide thickness t_{ox} (nm)	1.1	1.1	1	1	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8

So the "International Technology Roadmap for Semiconductors" predicts gate oxide thicknesses cannot be achieved by using SiO₂ that's why high-k gate dielectrics and gate electrodes will be required for the future application.

Decoupling capacitors need to be placed close to the chip to reduce the voltage droop. However, in our project we want to show that at high frequency loss tangent is another factor that reduces the

effectiveness of the capacitance, despite being close to the circuit. As a result the effectiveness of the decoupling capacitor for reducing voltage droop is reduced due to loss tangent of capacitor dielectric. Thus the designed circuits fail to provide its desired performance at high frequency. So first we need to know about loss tangent and how it affects on the effectiveness of capacitance.

6.2. What Is Loss Tangent?

In conductive materials, currents are formed by the motion of free electrons or holes under the influence of an electric field. The relation is $J = \sigma E$, where σ is the material conductivity. For finite conductivity, resistive heating of the material causes wave power losses. We need to understand the complex permittivity as it relates to the conductivity. Thus the permittivity becomes complex, and from Maxwell's equation we know,

$$\nabla \times H = J + \frac{\partial D}{\partial t} = \sigma E + j\omega \epsilon E \quad \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

$$\nabla \times H = \sigma E + j\omega(\epsilon' - j\epsilon'')E \quad \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

where $\epsilon = \epsilon' - j\epsilon''$; ϵ' – real or lossless part of ϵ and ϵ'' = imaginary or lossy part of ϵ .

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \times H &= [(\sigma - \omega\epsilon'') - j\omega\epsilon']E \\ \nabla \times H &= (\sigma' - j\omega\epsilon'')E \quad \dots\dots\dots (3) \end{aligned}$$

where $\sigma' = \sigma - \omega\epsilon''$ = equivalent conductance.

It is clear that ϵ'' the imaginary part of ϵ is involved in a frequency-dependent term $\omega\epsilon''$ with the dimension of conductance. For dc, $\omega = 0$ and therefore $\omega\epsilon'' = 0$ so power loss is small in a good dielectric conductance for which σ is small. However at high frequency ω is very large so losses can become larger as $\omega\epsilon''$ becomes significant. The sum of σ and $\omega\epsilon''$ constitutes what may be the called the equivalent conductivity σ' . [42]

Now the two terms of the right hand side of equation (3) are conduction current density, $J_{cs} = \sigma'E$ and displacement current density $J_{ds} = j\omega\epsilon'E$. If we take the ratio of conduction current density displacement current density magnitude then we got.

$$\frac{J_{cs}}{J_{ds}} = \frac{\sigma'}{\epsilon'} = \frac{\sigma'}{j\omega\epsilon''} \quad \dots\dots\dots (4)$$

These two vectors point in the same direction in space, but they are 90° out of phase in time. The displacement current density leads conduction current density by 90°, just as the current through a

capacitor leads the current through a resistor in parallel with it by 90° in an ordinary electric circuit. This phase relationship is shown below in Fig.20,

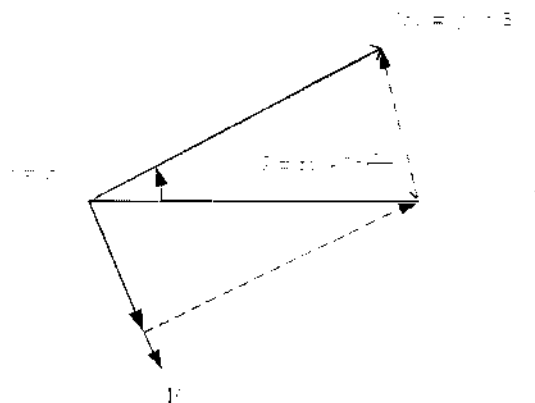


Figure 20: Showing the power factor angle where J_s is leads E to determine loss tangent.

The angle δ is identified as the angle by which the displacement density leads the total current density and $\tan \delta = \frac{\text{Im}(\epsilon)}{\text{Re}(\epsilon)}$. The ratio $\frac{\text{Im}(\epsilon)}{\text{Re}(\epsilon)}$ is called a loss tangent because it is a measure of power loss in the medium. [44]

6.3. Equivalent Model of a Capacitor:

We know for a capacitor a dielectric is placed between two conductors. The lumped element model of a capacitor is defined by a lossless ideal capacitor in series with a resistor which is known as the equivalent series resistance (ESR). The equivalent series resistance of a capacitor is shown in Fig. 21. The ESR actually represents the losses in the capacitor. In a low-loss capacitor the ESR is very small, and in a lossy capacitor the ESR can be large. Basically ESR which is shown in Fig. 21 represents the loss due to both the dielectric's conduction electrons and the bound dipole relaxation phenomena.

In a dielectric either the dielectric's conduction electrons or the bound dipole relaxation phenomena dominates loss. For the case of the conduction electrons being the dominant loss, $\tan \delta = \frac{R}{\omega C}$ where C is the lossless capacitance.

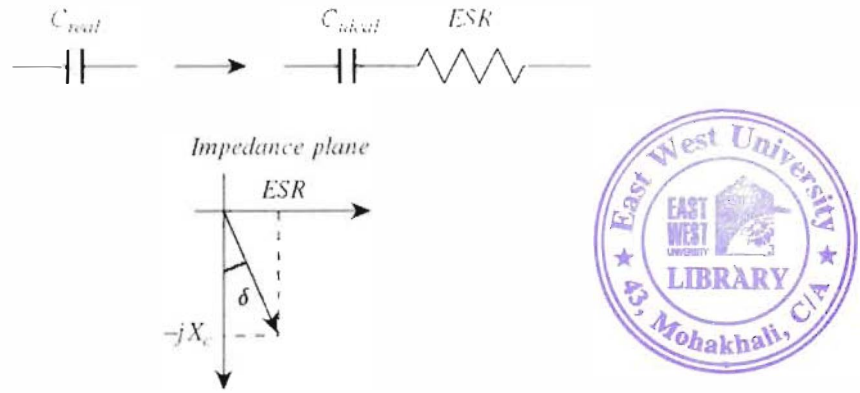


Figure 21: Equivalent model of a capacitor and its loss tangents relation.

If we represent the electrical circuit parameters as vectors in a complex plane, then capacitor's loss tangent is equal to the tangent of the angle between the capacitor's ESR vector and the negative reactive capacitive vector, as shown in the above diagram. The loss tangent is then,

$$\begin{aligned}\tan\delta &= \frac{ESR}{|X_c|} \text{ where } X_c = \frac{1}{\omega C} \\ &= \omega C \cdot ESR = \frac{\sigma}{\delta' \omega}\end{aligned}$$

As the same AC current flows through both ESR and X_c , the loss tangent is also the ratio of the resistive power loss in the ESR to the reactive power oscillating in the capacitor. For this reason, a capacitor's loss tangent is sometimes stated as its dissipation factor or the reciprocal of its quality factor Q ,

$$\tan\delta = DF = \frac{1}{Q}$$

So we can say from the above equation that as the loss tangent, δ decrease then the dielectric loss of the material will also be reduced.

6.4. The Effect of Loss Tangent on the Effectiveness of the Capacitance:

Now we want to consider how loss tangent eventually decreases the effectiveness of the capacitor. The capacitor consists of two conductors separated by dielectric medium which is shown in the Fig. 22 is shown below,

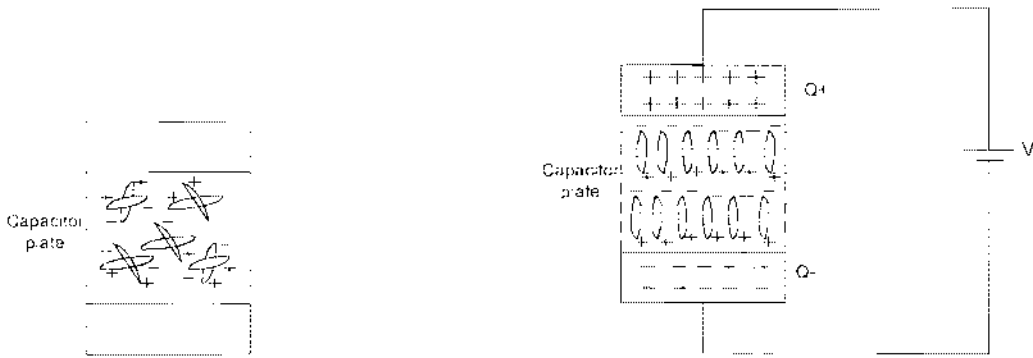


Figure 22: Initially without applied voltage V & after applied voltage V

When a dc voltage source is connected between the two conductors then charge will transfer where the positive charge will store in the upper conductor and the negative charge will store in the lower conductor. In the dielectric medium normally dipoles are randomly oriented. An applied electric field will exert a torque on the individual dipoles and tend to align these dipoles in the same direction. [45]

When the dipoles of the dielectric material rotate due to charges on the plates, some energy is lost as heat. This phenomenon is the one of the factors which results in reduced storage charge of the capacitor. Also at high switching frequencies due to the very small rise times, the dipoles are not able to rotate fast enough, thereby unable to either store charges on the plate or supply the charge quick enough. Thus, the performance of the capacitor is degraded [43]. This loss in the capacitor performance can be characterized as a degradation of the capacitor itself at high frequencies.

If Q is the total charge storage in the capacitor before taking the loss into consideration,

$$Q = CV \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

When ∇Q representing the loss, such that $Q' = Q - \nabla Q$, then

$$Q' = CV \dots \dots \dots (5),$$

where V is desired voltage level and C is the capacitance.

From equation (5) we see that when Q decreases, the effective capacitance will also decrease, if we want to keep the voltage level stable. Thus if we increase the switching frequency then the loss tangent as a function of frequency will increase eventually decreasing the effectiveness of the capacitor. The change in loss tangent of water with frequency is shown in Fig. 23 [45].

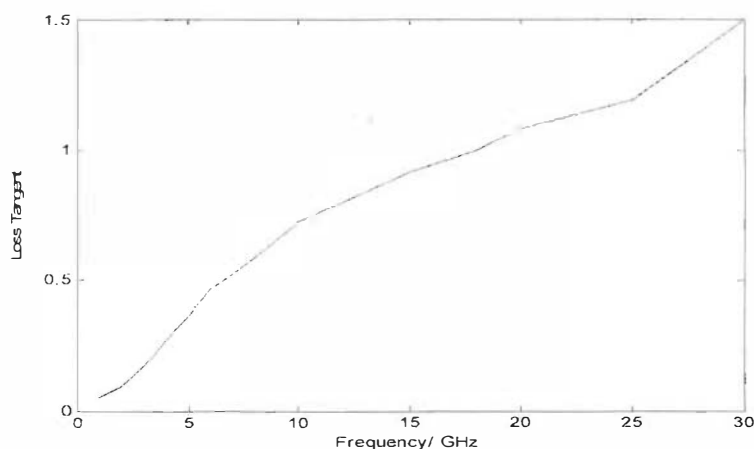


Figure 23: Change in loss tangent of water with frequency.

From Fig. 23 we see that with increase in frequency, $\tan \delta$ (loss tangent) also increases, almost linearly. This data represents $\tan \delta$ for water. If we draw parallels with capacitor dielectric, we see that with increasing frequency capacitor becomes relatively lossy as switching frequency increases. The thermal losses at high frequencies are reduced due to the inability of the dipoles to switch quickly enough, but nevertheless it also means that the capacitor cannot provide the necessary electrical support to limit voltage droop [45]. Thus, the system performance will be degraded.

6.5. Our Proposed Capacitor Material:

From the above discussion we understand that at high frequency the capacitor didn't work properly that's why we used two different low loss tangent high-k materials for designing capacitors model and also we maintain same capacitance value for the two material by adjusting their equivalent oxide thickness t_{ox} . We used these capacitors in power delivery system in ADS software and observed the change in voltage droop. We mainly work on Hafnium Oxide (HfO_2) and Lanthanum Oxide (La_2O_3) material and compare between them on the effect of voltage droop. Here we kept the capacitance same for the two materials by changing the oxide thickness. To make the same capacitance value we

SiO_2 as reference which has thickness of 0.1 μm and then calculate the other material thickness. Calculation is given in results and simulation part. Then we design the two capacitor model and implement them in ADS software which is briefly shown in simulation part. Now we will show that the improvement of voltage droop by using these capacitor model. The simulation figure is shown in

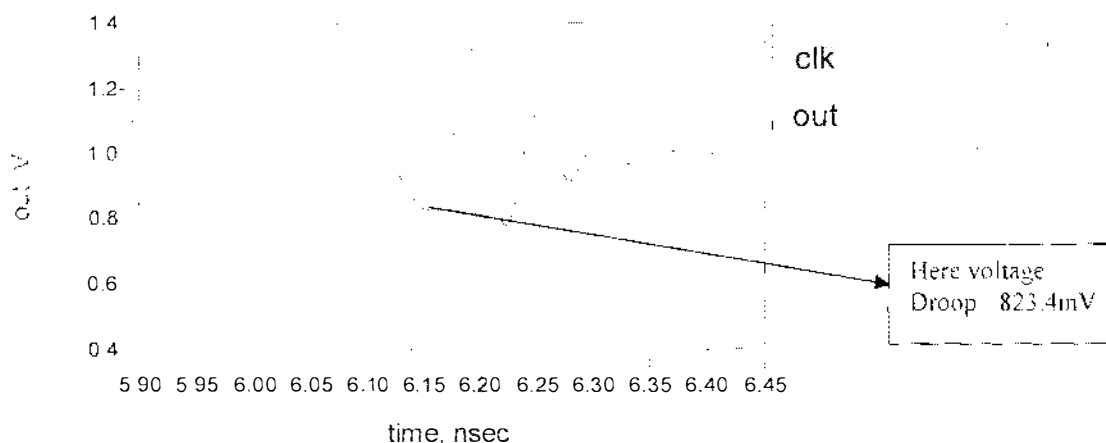


Figure 24: Simulation result without using decoupling capacitor

To minimize the voltage droop we placed the decoupling capacitors with different high-k materials. The change in voltage droop is shown in Fig. 25. It shows the voltage droops for HfO_2 and La_2O_3 .

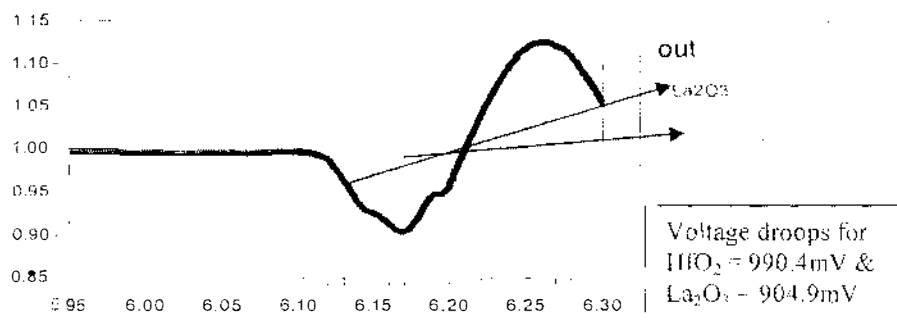


Figure 25: Simulation result when placing decoupling capacitor by using HfO_2 and La_2O_3 material

The value we got for the voltage droop from the simulation is compared with a case where neither decoupling is used. All this is shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Voltage droops we got for different materials

Condition	Voltage Droop(mV)
Without Capacitor	823.4
With Capacitor(HfO_2)	990.4
With Capacitor(La_2O_3)	904.9

From the data we can say that for edge rate of 0.1ns without using decoupling capacitor the voltage drop is 823.4 mV which is improved by placing our designed capacitor. Here we can also say that between two materials HfO_2 & La_2O_3 , the voltage droop is minimized by using HfO_2 which has a lower loss tangent than La_2O_3 .



7. CONCLUSION

In this paper we recommended a high-k dielectric decoupling capacitor stack model which can reduce voltage droops at high frequency with acceptable performance degradation. In semiconductor devices voltage droop significantly affects the performance of critical circuits. The occurrence of voltage droop is primarily due to parasitic components in the power delivery network which cannot be eliminated. Decoupling capacitors are used as charge storage devices which reduce voltage droops by providing immediate charge needs during switching events. However, at high frequencies decoupling capacitors don't work properly as for the extreme conduction of electricity in dielectric material. If we use such a dielectric material which has higher dielectric constant and lower loss tangent, as a decoupling capacitor's dielectric, then it is possible that the decoupling capacitor can operate at high frequency as it has lower loss tangent means lower inherent dissipation of electromagnetic energy and for the higher dielectric constant it can store more charge & the size of capacitor reduces due to the scale down of the gate oxide.

To design the stack model of decaps we use ADS (Advance Design System) software. Using Cadence Mentum we designed two planar capacitors where two different high-k materials, hafnium oxide (HfO_2) and lanthanum oxide (La_2O_3) were used. We then placed the two stack capacitor models separately into our power delivery circuit. For different capacitance values, we changed the thickness of the capacitors. From our ADS simulation we found out that after placing our design capacitors in high frequency the voltage droop is improved which means the circuit performance will be better. We then used the lower loss tangent high-k material capacitor with which we got better performance. The higher loss tangent La_2O_3 showed greater voltage droop as compared with lower loss tangent HfO_2 at high frequency operations.

8. FUTURE WORK

In this paper we demonstrate that the hafnium oxide (HfO_2) is a good dielectric material as it can operate at high frequency while minimizing the voltage droop. But in near future it is very likely that a better material can be found to take the place of the hafnium oxide. In the selection process of dielectric material we identified zirconium oxide (ZrO_2) which has lower loss tangent than the hafnium oxide (HfO_2). With circuits operating at higher frequencies, materials which can operate in a very high frequency with minimum degradation in dielectric constant and low loss tangent have to be identified.

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Appendix

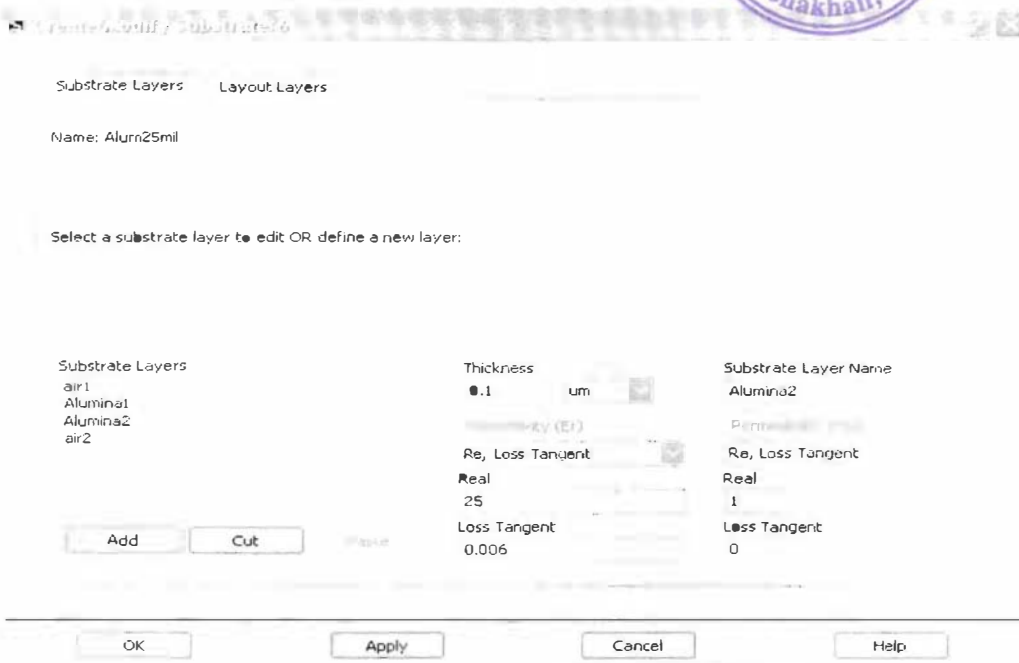


Figure 26: The ADS substrate layers window showing the declaration parameter while designing capacitor



Figure 27: The ADS Layout layers window showing the declaration parameter while designing capacitor