RF power potential of 45 nm CMOS technology

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RF Power Potential of 45 nm CMOS Technology

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Abstract – This paper presents the first measurements of the RF power performance of 45 nm CMOS devices with varying device widths and layouts. We find that 45 nm CMOS can deliver a peak output power density of around 140 mW/mm with a peak power-added efficiency (PAE) of 70% at 1.1 V. The PAE and P_out decrease with increasing device width because of a decrease in the maximum oscillation frequency (f_max) for large width devices. The PAE also decreases with increasing frequency because of a decrease in gain as the operating frequency approaches f_max. The RF power performance of 45 nm devices is shown to be very similar to that of 65 nm devices.

I. INTRODUCTION

The remarkable improvement in the frequency response of silicon CMOS devices in recent years has motivated their use in millimeter-wave power applications. Specific applications in the millimeter-wave regime include high capacity wireless LAN, short-range high data-rate wireless personal area networks, and collision avoidance radar for automobiles. Using silicon CMOS for these applications allows for higher levels of integration and lower cost. Also, special circuits for improving efficiency and linearity of power amplifiers can be easily integrated into CMOS.

The state-of-the-art technology for 60 GHz power amplifier designs today is the 65 nm technology [1-2]. Recently a few research groups have demonstrated 60 GHz power amplifiers in 45 nm technologies [3-4]. However, a detailed study of the power performance of 45 nm technology has not been published so far.

In this paper, we present a comprehensive study of the RF power performance of 45 nm low-power CMOS devices. Device structures with different layouts and widths are studied to understand the effect of device layout and width on RF power performance.

II. TECHNOLOGY

The devices used in this study are 45 nm low-power CMOS [5, 6] and 65 nm CMOS [7] devices from IBM. The 45 nm devices all have a gate length of 40 nm and V_DD = 1.1 V, while the 65 nm devices have a gate length of 50 nm and V_DD = 1 V. For the 45 nm devices, the device width is increased by either (a) keeping the number of fingers (NF) constant (NF=60) and increasing the unit finger width (WF) from 0.5 μm to 5 μm, or (b) keeping the finger width constant (WF=1.5 μm) and increasing NF from 20 to 120.

S-parameter measurements from 0.5 GHz to 40 GHz were performed using an Agilent 8510C. The S-parameter data was de-embedded using on-wafer open and short de-embedding structures that were custom designed for each device. RF power measurements were made in the 2 GHz – 18 GHz range using a Maury Microwave load-pull system. Unless otherwise indicated, all S-parameter and power measurements were done at V_DS = V_DD and V_GS set to ensure an identical DC drain current density across devices under low input power conditions.

III. 45 NM MEASUREMENTS

S-parameter and RF power measurements were made on 45 nm device structures with different geometries in an effort to understand the effect of device layout and width on RF power performance.

The first set of test structures explores the effect of contacting the gate at one end or at both ends of the gate finger. Fig. 1 compares the de-embedded f_T and f_max of a single gate contact structure with that of a double gate contact structure as a function of bias current.

Fig. 1: f_T and f_max as a function of drain current density for single and double gate contact structures.
gate contact results in a significantly lower gate resistance, but a slightly higher gate capacitance. This leads to a slightly lower \( f_t \) for the double gate contact structure compared to single gate contact at the same drain current density. However, \( f_{\text{max}} \) is higher in the double gate contact structure because the reduction in gate resistance more than compensates for the increase in gate capacitance. The improvement in \( f_{\text{max}} \) is more pronounced at higher current densities.

Fig. 2 shows the PAE and normalized output power \((P_{\text{out}}/W)\), measured at \( I_D = 200 \, \text{mA/mm} \) and \( V_{DD} = 1.1 \, \text{V} \), as a function of measurement frequency for the single and double gate contact structures. The load and source impedances were tuned for optimum PAE and the output power and PAE were measured at peak PAE. The PAE for the double gate contact is similar to that of the single gate contact structure. The PAE is also remarkably frequency independent. The output power is slightly higher for the double gate contact structure.

Fig. 3 shows the PAE and normalized output power as a function of measurement frequency for single gate and double gate contact structures. The devices with the same WF are connected by solid lines. The numbers beside each symbol denote the number of fingers in that device. All devices used in this study and in the rest of the paper have double gate contacts. It is clear from Fig. 3 that \( f_{\text{max}} \) decreases with increasing total device width. For a given NF, increasing WF initially leads to an increase in \( f_{\text{max}} \) but eventually \( f_{\text{max}} \) decreases as the gate resistance increases. The optimum unit finger width for this technology is 1.5 \( \mu \text{m} \). On the other hand, for a given WF, increasing NF leads to a decrease in \( f_{\text{max}} \). This is because of the increased parasitic resistance resulting from the additional wiring needed to connect all the fingers in parallel.

The peak PAE for the NF=60 structures is shown as a function of total device width for different measurement frequencies in Fig. 4. PAE increases with width for small device widths (\( W < 100 \, \mu \text{m} \)) because of an increase in power gain as a result of lower relative parasitics. For \( W > 100 \, \mu \text{m} \), PAE is constant with width at lower frequencies but tends to decrease with width at higher frequencies because of the reduction in gain with frequency.

Fig. 5 shows the corresponding normalized output power as a function of total device width. Device width is increased by keeping NF constant at 60 and increasing WF from 0.5 \( \mu \text{m} \) to 5 \( \mu \text{m} \).

Fig. 4: PAE, measured at different frequencies, as a function of total device width. Device width is increased by keeping NF constant at 60 and increasing WF from 0.5 \( \mu \text{m} \) to 5 \( \mu \text{m} \).

Fig. 5: Normalized output power as a function of total device width for different measurement frequencies.
Fig. 5: Normalized output power, measured at different frequencies, versus total device width. Device width is increased by keeping NF constant at 60 and increasing WF from 0.5 μm to 5 μm.

Fig. 6 shows the peak PAE versus device width for structures in which WF=1.5 μm and the device width is increased by increasing the number of fingers from 20 to 120. Similar to Fig. 4, but to a smaller scale, the peak PAE initially increases with width for W < 100 μm and remains constant for W > 100 μm. PAE also decreases with increasing frequency. The change in PAE is mainly due to the change in the power gain.

Fig. 6: PAE, measured at different frequencies, as a function of total device width. Device width is increased by keeping WF constant and increasing NF from 20 to 120.

The corresponding normalized output power is shown as a function of total device width in Fig. 7. The output power shows a slight decrease with increasing device width but is rather independent of frequency. This is further discussed below.

Fig. 7: Normalized output power, measured at different frequencies, versus total device width. Device width is increased by keeping WF constant and increasing NF from 20 to 120.

IV. COMPARISON OF 45 NM AND 65 NM TECHNOLOGIES

We now compare the RF power performance of 45 nm low-power devices with 65 nm devices. Fig. 8 shows the de-embedded $f_{\text{max}}$ as a function of device width for both 45 nm and 65 nm technologies. For 45 nm devices, NF=60 and the device width is increased by increasing WF from 0.5 μm to 5 μm (same data as in Fig. 3). For the 65 nm devices, the device width is increased by connecting multiple unit cells in parallel. Each unit cell has 12 fingers of 2 μm finger width. It is clear from Fig. 8 that $f_{\text{max}}$ is slightly higher for the 45 nm devices with W < 100 μm. However, at large device widths $f_{\text{max}}$ of 45 nm devices is lower than 65 nm devices. This is because the finger width for the 45 nm devices is large (> 3 μm), which results in a rather high gate resistance and thus reduced $f_{\text{max}}$. There is no reason that prevents 45 nm technologies from achieving higher $f_{\text{max}}$ at large device widths by using optimized values of WF. This should boost its maximum power handling ability.

Fig. 8: $f_{\text{max}}$ as a function of device width for 45 nm and 65 nm devices. $V_{\text{DD}} = 1.1$ V for 45 nm and $V_{\text{DD}} = 1$ V for 65 nm.

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An alternative way to compare the RF power performance of 45 and 65 nm technologies is to focus on PAE and P_{out} at different frequencies as a function of the ratio of the application frequency to the f_{max} of the device. The higher the f/f_{max} ratio, the closer the device is operating to its frequency limit. As the operating frequency approaches f_{max}, the power gain decreases, resulting in a decrease in the peak PAE [8]. Fig. 9 shows peak PAE, measured at I_{D}=200 mA/mm, as a function of f/f_{max} for both 45 nm and 65 nm devices. When viewed this way, both CMOS technologies behave in a very similar way.

Fig. 9: Dependence of peak PAE on the f/f_{max} ratio for 45 nm and 65 nm devices. I_{D}=200 mA/mm, V_{DD} = 1.1 V for 45 nm, V_{DD} = 1 V for 65 nm.

An alternative way to compare the RF power performance of 45 and 65 nm technologies is to focus on PAE and P_{out} at different frequencies as a function of the ratio of the application frequency to the f_{max} of the device. The higher the f/f_{max} ratio, the closer the device is operating to its frequency limit. As the operating frequency approaches f_{max}, the power gain decreases, resulting in a decrease in the peak PAE [8]. Fig. 9 shows peak PAE, measured at I_{D}=200 mA/mm, as a function of f/f_{max} for both 45 nm and 65 nm devices. When viewed this way, both CMOS technologies behave in a very similar way.

Fig. 10 shows the normalized output power as a function of f/f_{max} for 45 nm and 65 nm devices. The output power is relatively constant across measurement frequency for both devices. There is also a slightly higher output power in the 45 nm devices which can be attributed to the higher V_{DD} (1.1 V for 45 nm versus 1 V for 65 nm).

Hence, we conclude that the RF power performance of 45 nm low-power technology is very similar to that of 65 nm technology. This is not surprising because the gate lengths for both technologies are close and f_{max} is already quite high (> 200 GHz) for 65 nm technology. Most of the 60 GHz applications require a significant amount of digital content. Our research suggests that designers can take advantage of the higher integration density of 45 nm CMOS without losing any of the RF power performance of 65 nm technology.

V. CONCLUSION

We have studied the power and frequency response of 45 nm low-power CMOS devices. Our data shows that the peak output power density in these devices, at I_{D}=200 mA/mm, is around 140 mW/mm and the peak PAE is over 70%. A device structure with a double gate contact shows a slight improvement in f_{max} and P_{out} compared to a single gate contact structure. Increasing the device width leads to a decrease in PAE and P_{out} due to a decrease in f_{max} for large width devices. For a given device width, f_{max}, PAE and P_{out} are independent of the number of fingers and unit finger width as long as the unit finger width is less than 1.5 μm. Comparison of frequency and power data of 45 nm and 65 nm devices shows that the RF power potential of 45 nm low-power technology is very similar to that of 65 nm technology.

REFERENCES