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University of California, Los Angeles Electrical Engineering Department 56-125B Engineering IV Building Box 951594 Los Angeles, California 90095-1594 E-mail: puneet@ee.ucla.edu Abstract. Overlay control is becoming increasingly more important with the scaling of technology. It has become even more critical and more challenging with the move toward multiple-patterning lithography, where overlay translates into CD variability. Design rules and overlay have strong interaction and can have a considerable impact on the design area, yield, and performance. We study this interaction and evaluate the overall design impact of rules, overlay characteristics, and overlay control options. For this purpose, we developed a model for yield loss from overlay that considers overlay residue after correction and the breakdown between field-to-field and within-field overlay; the model is then incorporated into a general design-rule evaluation framework to study the overlay/design interaction. The framework can be employed to optimize design rules and more accurately project overlay-control requirements of the manufacturing process. The framework is used to explore the design impact of litho-etch litho-etch double-patterning rules and poly line-end extension rule defined between poly and active layer for different overlay characteristics (i.e., within-field versus field-to-field overlay) and different overlay models at the 14-nm node. Interesting conclusions can be drawn from our results. For example, one result shows that increasing the minimum mask-overlap length by 1 nm would allow the use of a third-order wafer/ sixth-order field-level overlay model instead of a sixth-order wafer/sixthorder field-level model with negligible impact on design. © 2013 Society of Photo-Optical Instrumentation Engineers (SPIE) [DOI: 10.1117/1.JMM.12.3.033014]

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1 Introduction

Overlay is the positional accuracy with which a pattern is formed on top of an existing pattern on the wafer.¹ As technology scaling continues, overlay control is becoming more important than ever to allow smaller and smaller feature sizes. Moreover, the introduction of multiple-patterning (MP) lithography, where overlay effectively translates into CD variability,^{2,3} has made overlay control even more critical and more challenging. Meeting the requirements for overlay control is believed to be one of the biggest challenges for deploying MP technology.⁴

Overlay has been traditionally modeled using a linear model with major overlay components of translation, magnification, and rotation in the wafer and field coordinate systems.^{5,6} This linear model required a simple two-point alignment. In recent years, the industry has moved toward high-order overlay modeling and more sophisticated alignment strategies, which requires more overlay sampling and excessive alignment.^{7–11} For example, the work in Ref. 11 suggests high-order process control by overlay control with one model per lot or one model for every wafer; the work in Ref. 7 proposes high-order wafer alignment, while the work in Ref. 9 proposes exposure tool characterization using off-line overlay sampling. These improvements in overlay control are capable of reducing overlay errors

considerably (by up to 30%^{7,9}) when a high-order overlay model is used. On the downside, high-order modeling of overlay requires more advanced exposure scanners, more alignment measurements, and excessive off-line overlay metrology. Hence, the overlay improvement of high-order modeling comes at a huge cost in tool migration and diminished throughput capability due to the additional measuring time.

Design rules that define interactions between different layers (e.g., metal overhang on via rule) or different mask layouts of the same layer (e.g., mask overlap) effectively serve as a guard band for overlay errors. For defining these rules during process development, a prediction of the yield loss due to overlay is needed. If overlay is characterized entirely as a field-to-field error, then the probability of survival (POS) for the die is equal to the POS of the most overlay-critical spot in the layout, say k. On the other extreme, if overlay is characterized entirely as a random within-field variation, then POS of the die is k^n , where n is the total number of critical spots in the design. Hence, depending on the overlay characteristics, rules can either be grown to suppress yield loss or shrunk to reduce the layout area.

In this paper, we develop a model for yield loss from overlay that considers overlay characteristics including the residue after overlay correction and the breakdown between field-to-field and within-field overlay. The model is then incorporated into a general framework for exploring the interaction between design rules, overlay characteristics, and overlay-modeling options. The proposed framework is

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the first of its kind and it can be applied during process development to better define overlay-related design rules and to project the overlay requirement of the process. For demonstration purposes, the framework was used in this work to explore double patterning (DP) and overlay-related rules for the M1 layer as well as the polysilicon line-end extension (LEE) over active rule. The framework is more general, however, and can be used to explore other inter-layer overlay rules, for different MP technologies, and at other layers.

The remaining paper is organized as follows. A background on the rules studied in this work and their interaction with overlay is given in Sec. 2. The proposed model for overlay-induced yield loss is described in Sec. 3. Our methodology for evaluating the design impact of rules is presented in Sec. 4 and our findings when exploring overlay-related rules and different types of overlay models are reported in Sec. 5. Finally, Sec. 6 concludes the paper and highlights the directions of our future work.

2 Design Rules and Overlay Interaction

In this paper, we focus on DP-related design rules, namely, the mask-overlap length rule and the minimum line-width and spacing design rules, and poly LEE rule and their interaction with overlay.

The overlap-length rule is triggered whenever a stitch is introduced between the different mask layouts of the same layer. Although stitches may be a cause for yield loss, stitching is needed to conform many problematic layout patterns



Fig. 1 Example of a DP-problematic layout pattern with an odd cycle in its conflict graph (a) that was broken by introducing a stitch (b).

to DP without the need for layout modification (by breaking odd cycles in the conflict graph as in the example of Fig. 1).

One of the main reasons for yield loss associated with stitches is overlay errors between the first and the second exposures in DP. Therefore, the minimum overlap-length rule-a.k.a. overlap margin-has a direct impact on yield. Consider, e.g., a stitch in the center of a vertical line as shown in Fig. 2. An overlay in the Y-direction may result in an insufficient mask overlap and cause an open defect after line-end pullback; an overlay in the X-direction may cause the wire to become too narrow at the stitch leading to failure. In addition, the overlap-length rule affects the DP-compatibility of the layout. The larger the overlap length is, the lesser candidate-stitch locations the layout will have. Hence, while a large and conservative overlap-length rule is likely to inhibit most yield loss of stitches caused by overlay, such overlap length may result in excessive redesign efforts and area overhead to ensure the layout conforms to DP. Another design rule that may affect the yield loss of stitches due to overlay (in the *x*-direction for the example in Fig. 2) is the line-width rule. Clearly, failure from narrowing for initially narrow lines is more severe than such failure in wide lines.

The minimum line-spacing design rule impacts the delay variation of wires caused by overlay errors between the two exposures of DP.^{12–15} Since overlay translates directly into line-spacing variation (with a positive dual-line process), the coupling capacitance between neighboring wires on different exposures will be affected by both overlay and the minimum line-spacing rule. The line-spacing rule has also a direct impact on the layout area. Although a large line-spacing rule may confine the wire-delay variation, such spacing rule is likely to induce an area overhead.

Poly LEE over active rule is subject to failure due to overlay error between the polysilicon and the active layer. Consider, e.g., an overlay instance shown in Fig. 3. An overlay error in the *Y*-direction may lead to a low resistance path between source and drain of the transistor after line-end pullback. (Instead of a simple geometric line-end failure model, a more complex electrical failure model¹⁶ can be used as well.) Therefore, LEE has direct impact on yield since a larger poly LEE is likely to inhibit most yield loss caused by overlay. In addition, poly LEE rule also affects the design area. The



Fig. 2 Example of a stitch (drawn and on-wafer) in a vertical line (a), a possible failure with overlay error in the Y-direction that may occur after lineend pullback (b), and a possible failure with overlay error in the X-direction due to narrowing (c).



Fig. 3 Poly LEE rule and failure criteria. The assumed process is one that does not define poly line-ends with a separate cut-exposure.

larger the extension rule value is, the greater the amount of folding in poly gates and design area are. Hence, there is an interesting trade-off between yield and area (in case of LEE) or designer effort (in case of minimum overlap length).

3 Overlay and Yield Modeling

The yield from overlay, $Y_{overlay}$, is equal to the POS from the overlay error remaining after any overlay correction and referred to as residue. (Coupled with the lithographic lineend pullback which we model as an offset of fixed value.) Overlay-residue vector components in the *x* and *y*-directions are typically described by a normal distribution with 0 mean and process-specific 3σ estimate. Therefore, given the fraction, *p*, of the overlay-residue variance breakdown between field-to-field and within-field components, the probability distribution of each type of overlay error can be calculated as follows:

$$f_{\text{field-to-field}} = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi p}} e^{\frac{-u^2}{2p\sigma^2}},$$

$$f_{\text{within-field}} = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi(1-p)}} e^{\frac{-u^2}{2(1-p)\sigma^2}},$$
(1)

where u and v are variables denoting overlay.

The probability for each type of overlay error to have a value between a and b is then given by

$$P_{\text{field-to-field}} = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi p}} \int_{a}^{b} e^{\frac{-u^{2}}{2\rho\sigma^{2}}} du,$$
$$P_{\text{within-field}} = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi(1-p)}} \int_{a}^{b} e^{\frac{-v^{2}}{2(1-p)\sigma^{2}}} dv.$$
(2)

We make the assumption that overlay residue coming from field-to-field sources (i.e., wafer-level) is identical at all features of the same layer in the design. The overlay residue coming from within-field sources, however, can be different at features of the same die.

We model overlay residue (within-field and field-to-field) as partly systematic and partly random.

3.1 Yield Model with Purely Random Overlay Residue

The random part of the overlay residue comes from un-modeled overlay components as well as imperfections in the correction process. In our yield model, the random component of the within-field overlay residue is assumed to be independent from one feature to another across the design whereas field-to-field overlay residue is assumed to be fully correlated for all the features in the design. Hence, when the overlay residue is entirely random, the die yield caused by overlay in one direction is equivalent to the probability of all features—say n—in the design surviving such overlay error and it is calculated as follows:

Single instance:

$$\text{POS}_{\text{within-field}} = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi(1-p)}} \int_{-r_{12}+c_{12}}^{r_{11}-c_{11}} e^{\frac{-u^2}{2(1-p)\sigma^2}} \mathrm{d}v, \tag{3}$$

where r_{11} and r_{12} are the overlap/extension rule values for the overlap instance (e.g., Fig. 4). c_{11} and c_{12} are the "critical" instance dimensions defined as the minimum acceptable dimensions for the overlay instance not to be considered as failure (e.g., to ensure certain minimum stitch/via resistance). For stitches (or via/metal overlap), c_{11} and c_{12} correspond to the minimum line-width at the stitch location and they can have different values depending on the overlay scenario as illustrated in Fig. 5. When we consider overlay only along the direction of the line, c_{11} and c_{12} are 0 because for any



Fig. 4 Example of various overlay instance scenarios for poly LEE and minimum mask overlap length.

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Fig. 5 Illustration of calculation of minimum overlap length (c_{11} and c_{12}) for stitches for a given critical overlap length denoted by critovlp.

overlay value, the line-width solely dictates the resistance of overlap region (and is larger than the "critical overlap length"). For overlay in the direction perpendicular to the line width, c_{11} and c_{12} can be nonzero and depend on the stitch length and "critical overlap length" (denoted by critovlp) as shown in Fig. 5.

All instances n in the design

$$\text{POS}_{\text{within-field}} = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left[\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2(1-p)\pi}} \int_{-r_{i2}+c_{i2}}^{r_{i1}-c_{i1}} e^{\frac{-v^2}{2(1-p)\sigma^2}} \mathrm{d}v \right].$$
(4)

Taking into account the wafer-level random component, say u, die yield is given by

$$Y_{x|y} = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2p\pi}} \int_{u_{\min}}^{r_{\max}} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left[\int_{-r_{i1}-u+c_{i1}}^{r_{i2}-u-c_{i2}} \frac{e^{\frac{-v^2}{2(1-p)\sigma^2}}}{\sigma\sqrt{2(1-p)\pi}} \mathrm{d}v \right] e^{\frac{-u^2}{2p\sigma^2}} \mathrm{d}u,$$
(5)

where r_{max} is the value of the maximum of all given extension rules in the design. For yield calculation purpose, maximum value of wafer-level random error u is taken as r_{max} since any overlay error beyond this limit will cause all features to fail and hence, yield will be 0. Minimum value of u, say u_{min} , can either be $-r_{\text{max}}$, when overlay error causes failure in both directions (for e.g., $\pm y$ -direction in Fig. 6) or $-\infty$, when the overlap in a particular direction effectively increases the overlap at the feature [for e.g., Fig. 7(c)]. r_{i1} and r_{i2} represent the values of the *i*'th instance of layer-overlap in the design (e.g., Fig. 4) and c_{i1} and c_{i2} are the "critical" instance dimensions for r_{i1} and r_{i2} , respectively.

3.2 Yield Model in Presence of Systematic Overlay Residue

The systematic part of the overlay residue comes from un-corrected high-order overlay components (up to the sixthorder components in our experiments). The reason for not correcting for those high-order terms is because scanner tools have limited correction capability (e.g., previousgeneration tools could not correct terms beyond the thirdorder) and sophisticated alignment and overlay measurement



Fig. 6 Example of overlay instance scenarios for which failure can occur because of overlay error in both directions.

strategies needed for high-order terms correction reduces the manufacturing throughput.⁸ For yield computation, we divide the design into grids (see Fig. 8). While we assume the field-to-field systematic overlay residue is identical for all features in the field, we assume the within-field systematic overlay residue is identical for features of the same design grid only, but is different from one grid to another. Therefore, the total systematic overlay residue at an overlap-instance is the sum of the systematic within-field overlay residue in the design grid containing the instance and the systematic field-to-field overlay residue of the field containing the instance. Unmodeled overlay error is assumed to be purely random. This random residue is further broken down into a wafer-level component and a field-level component. Therefore, given the fraction, p, of the random overlay-residue variance (σ^2) breakdown between field-to-field and within-field and systematic overlay residue as described earlier, the POS from within-field overlay for a single instance, all instances in a design grid, and the entire die is as follows:



Fig. 7 Example of an overlay instance causing failure only in one direction: (a) stitch in a L-shaped wire segment, (b) for no failure, overlay error should be less than mask overlap length in the given direction, (c) no failure in this direction for any value of overlay error.



Fig. 8 Pictorial representation of wafer, exposure fields, dies, and the grid structure on each die.

Single instance with systematic overlay *s*:

$$\text{POS}_{\text{within-field}} = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi(1-p)}} \int_{-r_{12}-s+c_{12}}^{r_{11}-s-c_{12}} e^{\frac{-v^2}{2(1-p)\sigma^2}} \mathrm{d}v, \qquad (6)$$

where r_{11} and r_{12} are shown in Fig. 4. c_{11} and c_{12} are the "critical" instance dimensions.

All instances (n/g) of same grid (see Fig. 8) of a design with g grids:

$$\text{POS}_{\text{within-field}} = \prod_{j=1}^{n/g} \left[\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2(1-p)\pi}} \int_{-r_{j2}-s+c_{j2}}^{r_{j1}-s-c_{j1}} e^{\frac{-v^2}{2(1-p)\sigma^2}} \mathrm{d}v \right].$$
(7)

All instances in the die:

$$\text{POS}_{\text{within-field}} = \prod_{i=1}^{g} \prod_{j=1}^{n/g} \left[\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi (1-p)}} \int_{-r_{ij1}-s_i+c_{ij1}}^{r_{ij2}-s_i-c_{ij2}} e^{\frac{-v^2}{2(1-p)\sigma^2}} \mathrm{d}v \right],$$
(8)

where s_i is the systematic overlay residue at the center of the *i*'th design grid, which includes field-to-field and within-field sources. A model to estimate s_i will be presented in the next section.

Now, taking into account the wafer-level random component, say u, die yield is given by

$$Y_{x|y} = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi p}} \int_{u_{\min}}^{r_{\max}+s_{\max}} \prod_{i=1}^{g} \prod_{j=1}^{n/g} \left[\int_{-r_{ij2}-u-s_i+c_{ij2}}^{r_{ij1}-u-s_i-c_{ij1}} \left(\frac{e^{\frac{-u^2}{2(1-p)\sigma^2}}}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi(1-p)}} \mathrm{d}v \right) \right] e^{\frac{-u^2}{2\rho\sigma^2}} \mathrm{d}u, \tag{9}$$

where r_{ij1} and r_{ij2} are the values of the j'th overlay instance in the *i*'th design grid, u is the random component of the field-to-field overlay residue and s_{max} is the maximum systematic overlay error in the die. c_{ii1} and c_{ii2} are the "critical" instance dimensions for the j'th overlay instance in the *i*'th design grid. The maximum value of *u* is chosen to be $(r_{\text{max}} + s_{\text{max}})$ because beyond this limit all features will definitely fail and POS will be 0. The minimum value of u, say u_{\min} , can either be $-(s_{\max} + r_{\max})$ when overlay error causes failure in both directions or $-\infty$, when the overlay in a particular direction effectively increases the overlap at the feature. Table 1 summarizes all the assumptions made in the derivation of the yield model of Eq. (9). Finally, the overall yield from overlay in any direction is approximated as the product of the yield in the x- and y-directions (This equation slightly underestimates

Table 1Summary of all assumptions made in the derivation of theyield model of Eq. (9).

Overlay component	Assumption
Random field-to-field	Identical for all feature within the same field
Systematic field-to-field	Identical for all feature in the same field
Random within-field	Independent for all feature in the same field
Systematic within-field	Identical for all feature within the same design grid

the yield loss as, in reality, yield loss from overlay is defined by the area of the overlap region, which is influenced by overlay in both *x*- and *y*-directions.)

$$(Y)_{\text{overlay}} = (Y)_x \times (Y)_y. \tag{10}$$

3.3 Modeling the Systematic Overlay Residue

In this section, we describe our method for estimating the systematic overlay residue at the center of each design grid $[s_i \text{ in Eq. (9)}]$.

Systematic overlay error is typically described using a polynomial model function of wafer and field levels coordinates as in Ref. 17. When the maximum polynomial order of the model is *m* but correction is performed for up to the *k*'th order only, then the polynomial model can be used to describe the uncorrected systematic overlay error s_x in the *x*-direction and s_y in the *y*-direction as follows:

$$s_{x} = \sum_{q=k+1}^{m} \sum_{t=0}^{q} a_{qt} \times x^{t} \times y^{q-t} + \sum_{q=k+1}^{m} \sum_{t=0}^{q} b_{qt} \times X^{t} \times Y^{q-t},$$

$$s_{y} = \sum_{q=k+1}^{m} \sum_{t=0}^{q} c_{qt} \times x^{t} \times y^{q-t} + \sum_{q=k+1}^{m} \sum_{t=0}^{q} d_{qt} \times X^{t} \times Y^{q-t},$$
(11)

where x and y are the field level coordinates and X and Y are the wafer level coordinates. a and c are the coefficients for field-level and b and d are the coefficients for wafer-level terms.

The coefficients of the model of Eq. (11) can be estimated from overlay measurement data. For our experiments, we estimate these coefficients as follows. We use overlay variance values for each polynomial order reported in Ref. 8, where a source of variance analysis has been conducted to characterize overlay error at a 32-nm node up to the sixth-order wafer and sixth-order field components. Since, our experiments were performed for the 14-nm node, we scaled the variances by a factor of 2 to account for possible improvements of scanner tools' correction accuracy. We also assume that the source of variance coming from the random component is split equally between field-to-field and withinfield overlay sources. Table 2 shows the σ^2 values used in this work for each order. To simplify the estimation of the model's coefficients using variance values, coefficients for all components of a given order are assumed to be same [i.e., for a given q, all a_{qt} , b_{qt} , c_{qt} , and d_{qt} coefficients of

Table 2 σ^2 values in nm² for second- to sixth-polynomial order offield-to-field and within-field overlay sources using overlay characterization data reported in Ref. 8.

Order	Field-to- field (X) (nm ²)	Within- field (X) (nm ²)	Field-to- field (Y) (nm ²)	Within- field (<i>Y</i>) (nm ²)
Second, third	0.14	0.17	0.22	0.055
Fourth, fifth, sixth	0.045	0.028	0.037	0.037
Random	0.07	0.07	0.028	0.028

Eq. (11) are the same]. Using the coordinates at a number of points in the wafer and field, the coefficient values of each polynomial order are then inferred from Eq. (11) and the estimated variance values. For example, the coefficient of the within-field second-polynomial order, a_2 , can be calculated as follows:

$$s_x$$
(second-order within-field) = $a_2 \times (x^2 + y^2 + xy)$
 $a_2 = \frac{\sigma_{\text{second-orderfield}}}{\sigma(x^2 + xy + y^2)}.$ (12)

Table 3 shows all coefficient values that we use in our experiments.

4 Evaluation of Rules Impact on Design

This section presents the methods we used for evaluating the design impact of overlay-related rules.

4.1 Evaluation of Design Area

Our evaluation for the design area associated with poly LEE rule is achieved using the design rules evaluator [UCLA_DRE(UCLA_DRE is available for public use and can be downloaded at nanocad.ee.ucla.edu/Main/Download Form)] from Ref. 18. To evaluate the area, design rule evaluator (DRE) essentially creates a virtual standard-cell layouts from a set of DRs and transistor-level netlists of standard-cells. Using an estimated area of the virtual layouts as well as instance-counts of cells in the design, the total cell-area in the design is evaluated.

4.2 Evaluation of DP-Compatibility

A layout is said to be DP-compatible, if its features can be assigned to the first and second masks without any spacing violations in each mask layout. Hence, we choose the number of spacing violations as our metric for DP-compatibility. We use the mask-assignment algorithm of, Ref. 19 which guarantees a mask-assignment solution if one exists. To further reduce the number of spacing violations in DPincompatible layouts, we modify the algorithm to flip the mask-assignment of violating features if the flipping reduces the number of violations.

4.3 Evaluation of Overlay-Induced Delay Variation

We use the method described in Ref. 12 to evaluate the electrical variation of wires formed with DP. In essence, the method consists modeling the wire resistance and capacitance, which are the main elements of wire delay, as a function of overlay and its different components. Since the method in Ref. 12 assumes a linear overlay model, we limit our experiments on the minimum line-spacing rules to the case of overlay control with a linear model.

5 Experimental Results

In this section, we explore DP-related design rules and poly LEE rule and their interaction with overlay at the 14-nm technology node.

5.1 Testing Setup

Our experiments were performed using AE18 design from Ref. 20, synthesized using Nangate Open Cell-Library,²¹

Within-field		Field-to-field	Field-to-field		
a ₂₀ , a ₂₁ , a ₂₂	0.5203	b ₂₀ , b ₂₁ , b ₂₂	0.0090		
<i>a</i> ₃₀ , <i>a</i> ₃₁ , <i>a</i> ₃₂ , <i>a</i> ₃₃	0.2681	$b_{30}, b_{31}, b_{32}, b_{33}$	$4.8183 imes 10^{-4}$		
$a_{40}, a_{41}, a_{42}, a_{43}, a_{44}$	0.0811	$b_{40}, b_{41}, b_{42}, b_{43}, b_{44}$	$3.4968 imes 10^{-5}$		
$a_{50}, a_{51}, a_{52}, a_{53}, a_{54}, a_{55}$	0.0491	$b_{50}, b_{51}, b_{52}, b_{53}, b_{54}, b_{55}$	2.272×10^{-6}		
$a_{60}, a_{61}, a_{62}, a_{63}, a_{64}, a_{65}, a_{66}$	0.0338	$b_{60}, b_{61}, b_{62}, b_{63}, b_{64}, b_{65}, b_{66}$	2.592×10^{-7}		
c_{20}, c_{21}, c_{22}	0.3025	d ₂₀ , d ₂₁ , d ₂₂	0.0114		
$c_{30}, c_{31}, c_{32}, c_{33}$	0.1543	$d_{30}, d_{31}, d_{32}, d_{33}$	$6.0713 imes 10^{-4}$		
$C_{40}, C_{41}, C_{42}, C_{43}, C_{44}$	0.0933	$d_{40}, d_{41}, d_{42}, d_{43}, d_{44}$	$3.1309 imes 10^{-5}$		
$c_{50}, c_{51}, c_{52}, c_{53}, c_{54}, c_{55}$	0.0565	$d_{50}, d_{51}, d_{52}, d_{53}, d_{54}, d_{55}$	2.0141×10^{-6}		
$C_{60}, C_{61}, C_{62}, C_{63}, C_{64}, C_{65}, C_{66}$	0.0389	$d_{60}, d_{61}, d_{62}, d_{63}, d_{64}, d_{65}, d_{66}$	2.2976×10^{-7}		

Table 3 Coefficients for the systematic overlay residue model of Eq. (11) using a field size of 33 × 26 mm². To estimate the coefficient values, we use 63 points for wafer-level overlay model and 96 points for field-level overlay model.

and FreePDK open-source process.²² Since, the PDK and standard cell-library are for a 45-nm process, all rules and layouts were scaled by $2 \times \sqrt{2}$ to run the experiments for the 14-nm node (M1 half-pitch becomes 23 nm). In all experiments, we assume a line-end pullback of 5 nm. We use a field size of $33 \times 26 \text{ mm}^2$ and a design grid size for yield computation of $2.5 \times 2.5 \text{ mm}^2$ (see Fig. 8 for a depiction of design grid).

Since, the area of the benchmark design is relatively small (10 K-cell instances), we normalize the yield results to a 100 mm² die area to have a realistic number of structures that are susceptible to yield loss (e.g., number of stitches in our experiments). We determine for the base case in each experiment the number of design copies that can fit in 10×10 mm² chip size and find the corresponding number of stitches as well as the overlap length and direction of stitches in the benchmark design. [It is important to note that, for corner stitches, we assume that half are in vertical

lines and the other half are in horizontal lines to estimate the yield loss for the open-circuit failure shown in Fig. 2(b). Layout context effects for more accurate modeling are part of ongoing work.] Figure 9 depicts a histogram of overlap-length values for all stitches in the benchmark design.

5.2 Projecting the Overlay Capability of the Process

In the first experiment, the framework is used to analyze the yield loss for various values of variance of unmodeled residue and breakdown p of the residue between field-to-field and within-field components. This experiment has been done for Poly LEE rule value of 13 nm and first-order wafer/first-order field correction model. Figure 10 plots the yield of LEE for different cases. The results show that the larger the fraction of within-field overlay component, the larger the yield loss. The plots also identify the value of the residue for which is close to 100% yield can be achieved for a given overlay breakdown between field-to-field and within-field



Fig. 9 Histogram of overlap-length values in the benchmark design.



Fig. 10 Plots showing the effects of the breakdown of overlay among field-to-field and within-field overlay components for different overlayresidue values.

components. Such result can project the overlay capability of the process and serve as early hint for design-rules development.

5.3 Poly LEE Rule

The framework was also used to evaluate poly LEE rule. Figure 11 shows yield and design area (total cell area) curves as minimum poly LEE rule is varied for various overlay control options. Here, the change in area is entirely due to the impact of LEE rule on transistor folder. For instance, Fig. 12 shows the impact of LEE on transistor folding for cell INV_X4 where increasing the value of LEE from 19 to 25 nm increases the number of fingers by one. Impressively, increasing the rule value by just a few nanometers can allow the use of less complex overlay control while keeping vield and design area virtually unaffected. For example, increasing the rule from 8 to 9 nm would allow the use of third-order wafer and field-level model instead of sixth-order wafer and field-level model with negligible impact on area and yield (<1% area increase while yield drops from 100% to 99.3%). This can have important implications such as increased throughput and extending the lifespan of current scanner tools that are not capable of highorder overlay correction.

Assuming good line-end OPC and using the models in, Ref. 23 the impact of poly LEE on performance variability is small (<0.001%% in our experiments). A more exhaustive study can be found in Ref. 23.

5.4 Poly Cut Mask to Active Spacing Rule

For 22 nm and below, poly cut masks are the norm for patterning poly layer in the design. Here, overlay error between poly cut mask and active area can cause transistor width variation which can have implications on timing variability. For this work, we approximate yield for poly cut mask to be same as poly LEE rule with 0 line-end pullback. However,



Fig. 12 Illustration of LEE impact on transistor folding.



Fig. 11 Plots showing the interaction between the polysilicon LEE rule and overlay control and their impact on yield and die area.

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Fig. 13 Plots showing the interaction between poly cut mask to active spacing rule and overlay control and their impact on yield and die area.

design rules (DR) usage for poly cut mask is different from DR usage of LEE since the actual chip layout is required for poly cut mask instead of the cell usage for the design. (Poly cut mask trims a poly layer in cells belonging to different standard cell rows.) Hence, the results shown in Fig. 13 are proxy results for the cut mask which are based on the cell usage of the design. Similar conclusions can be drawn from this experiment such as increasing the rule from 5 to 6 nm would allow the use of third-order wafer and fieldlevel model instead of sixth-order wafer and field-level model with negligible impact on area and yield.

5.5 Interaction Between DP-Related Rules and Overlay Control

We also use the framework to study the effects of DP rules on stitch failure and the area and DP-compatibility of the design. In one experiment, we vary the line-width by a few nanometers from the nominal value at 23 nm and report the yield loss and the normalized design area for the different overlay-modeling options. We assume critical overlap-length value to be 0. The results, depicted in Fig. 14, show that the line-width has almost no impact on stitch failure. The reason is that the nominal rule value is large enough to avoid stitches failure from overlay in the direction perpendicular to lines. Hence, stitches yield loss may be neglected when deciding on the minimum line-width rule. It can also be clearly seen from Fig. 14 that the first-order wafer/first-order field-level overlay model, i.e., the linear model, is insufficient for controlling overlay at the 14-nm node.

In another experiment, yield loss at stitches is evaluated for different line widths by assuming nonzero critical overlap length. Based on the stitch usage for each line-width, we separately compute yield due to stitches for each line-width case. For illustration purpose, we compute yield loss for line width values of 25 and 50 nm. We assume a critical overlap length of 23 nm. The results are shown in Fig. 15 for



Fig. 15 Plots showing the impact of line width on yield loss at stitches for third-order wafer and field overlay control option.



Fig. 14 Plots showing the interaction between the minimum line-width rule and overlay control and their impact on yield and layout area of the design with minimum overlap-length rule of 14 nm.



Fig. 16 Plots showing the interaction between the overlap-length rule and overlay control and their impact on yield and DP-compatibility of the design at the nominal line-width of 23 nm (the number of DP-spacing violations are normalized with respect to the case with the largest number and DP mask-assignment of the layouts was performed using a minimum same-color spacing of 1.5× the half-pitch).

third-order wafer/third-order field overlay correction model. It can be seen from the results that larger line-width can be assigned a smaller overlap length, which can increase the number of allowed stitch locations and, hence, reduce the overall number of spacing violations.

In another experiment, we vary the minimum mask-overlap length and report the yield loss and number of DP-spacing violations in the design—requiring manual or automated fixing (e.g., using method of Ref. 19)—for the different overlay-modeling options. The results, depicted in Fig. 16, show the strong interaction between the rule value and overlaycontrol options as well as the overall impact on yield and DP-compatibility. Interestingly, a few nanometer changes in the rule value may allow the use of a less stringent overlay control without significant impact on DP-compatibility. For example, increasing the minimum mask-overlap length from 19 to 20 nm would allow the use of third-order wafer/sixthorder field-level overlay model instead of sixth-order wafer/ sixth-order field-level model while yield remains at 100% and DP-spacing violations increase by just 1%.

Our last experiment is about studying the effects of the line-spacing rule on wire-delay variation and layout area. We vary the line-spacing rule from the nominal value at 23 nm by a few nanometers. The results, given in Fig. 17 (It is noteworthy to state that there is always some electrical variation due to overlay errors with any realistic line-spacing rule.), indicate that the impact of this rule on the average RC



Fig. 17 Plot for the average △RC and the normalized design area for different values of the minimum line-spacing rule.

variation is minor, while its impact on area is considerable. Hence, tweaking the line-spacing rule with the intention of reducing the electrical variation is ineffective.

6 Conclusion and Future Work

We propose a novel yield model and incorporated it into a general framework for exploring the interactions between design rules, overlay characteristics, and overlay modeling options. The yield loss due to overlay is modeled as a function of design-rule values and the overlay characteristics. The proposed framework is the first of its kind and it can be used during process development to better define overlay-related design rules and project overlay requirements for the process. For demonstration purposes, the framework was used in this work to explore DP and overlay-related rules for the M1 layer as well as the polysilicon LEE over active rule at the 14-nm node. Important conclusions could be drawn from our experimental results. One result shows that increasing the minimum mask-overlap length by 1 nm would allow the use of a third-order wafer/sixth-order field-level overlay model instead of a sixth-order wafer/sixth-order field-level model with negligible impact on design. Another result shows that the minimum line-width and spacing rules have an insignificant impact yield and electrical variation. Although our studies were performed for a few rules at the M1 and poly layers, the framework is more general and can be used to explore other inter-layer overlay rules, for different MP technologies, and for different layers. In future work, we will extend our yield and design-impact analysis to a chip-level analysis across all layers in the design and explore other overlay-related rules, especially rules related to cut-masks.

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Biographies and photographs of the authors are not available.